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For B.Sc., Second Year, Semester - IV
(Cell Biology, Genetics and Biochemistry)

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MCQ's in Botany for B.Sc., Second Year, Semester - IV
(It is Diversity and Applications of Microbes and Cryptogams)

Published by the DnyanPath Publication **(INDIA)**
The edition published in 1 May, 2021

ISBN 13 : 978-81-952191-7-9

DnyanPath®
Publication
ISO 9001 : 2015

Reg. Office : FFS-A, Block C, First Floor, Venus Plaza, Shegaon Naka, V.M.V. Road, Amravati - 444 603 (Maharashtra)
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Phone : 08600353712, 09503237806

Printed at Shri Gurudev Printers, Amravati.
Mahatma Fule Sankul, Shegaon Naka,
V.M.V. Road, Amravati - 444603 (Maharashtra)

Price : ₹ 60/-

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The edition published in 1 May, 2021

ISBN 13 : 978-81-952191-8-6

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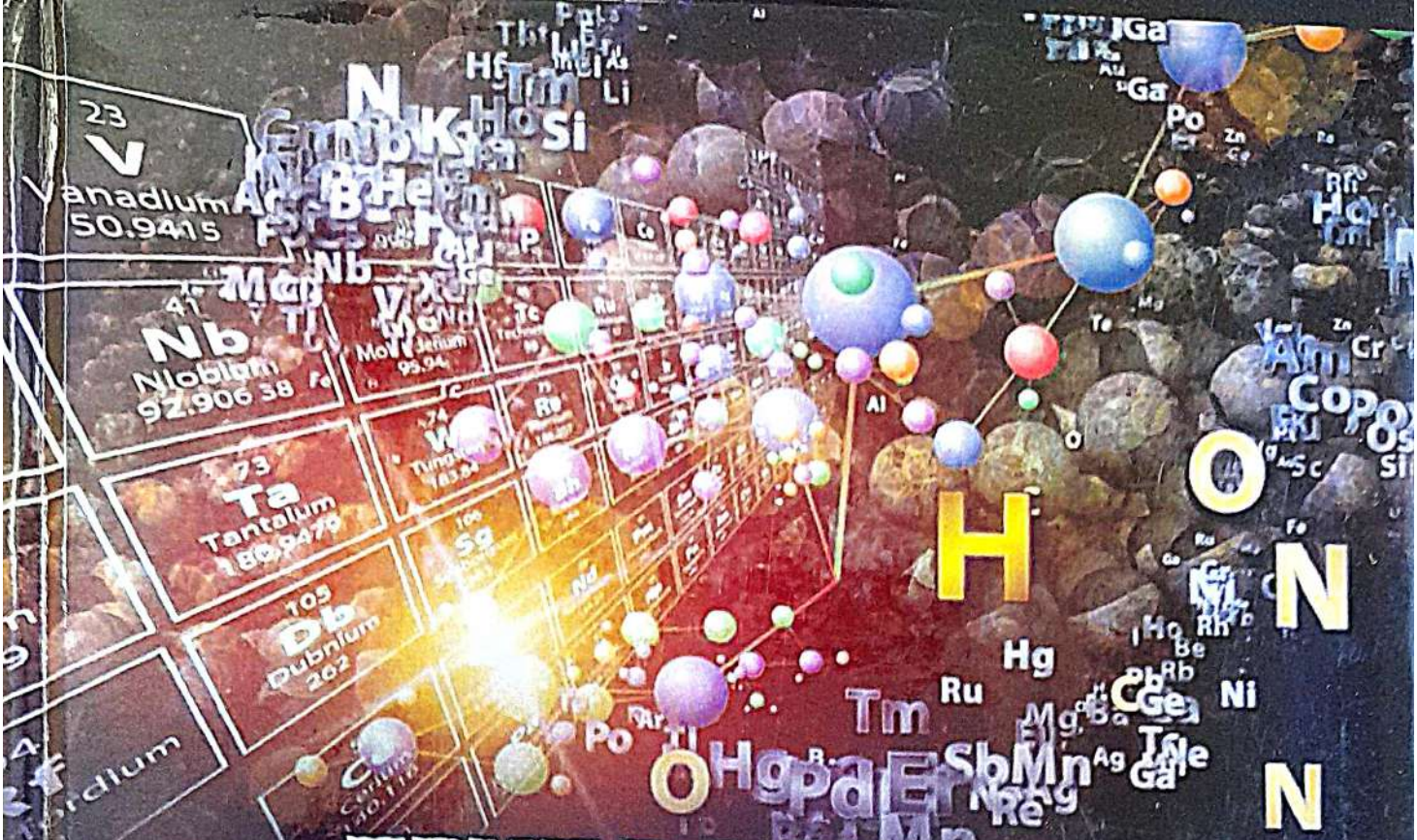

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New Delhi - 110 002 (INDIA)

Textbook of Physical Chemistry

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First Published 2020

ISBN : 978-81-89981-90-7

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Published in India by
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213, Vardan House, 7/28, Ansari Road,
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email: swastik_books@yahoo.com

Regd. Office:
31, Gali No. 1, A-Block,
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Printed at: Global Printing Services, Delhi.

SIMPLE DEMONSTRATION OF QUANTUM ERASER

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Abstract:

The double-slit experiment has played asignificant role in physics, from supporting the wave theory of light, via the deliberations of the wave particle duality of light (and matter) to the fundamentals of modern quantum optics. Today it keeps playing an active role in the framework of quantum optics experiments concerning single photons. In this review report, we review all the literatures of quantum eraser experiments and anticipated to fabricate portable double-slit apparatus which reveals both the wave particle duality of light and the phenomenon of quantum erasing.

Introduction:

In the initial 19th era, double slit interference was used to demonstrate the wave nature of light, depends on the experiments by Thomas Young and their mathematical explanation by Augustin Fresnel. At the commencement of the 20th century, Double slit Interference received renewed interest after Albert Einstein (and Max Planck) introduced a corpuscular theory of light by putting Newton's conception of light as a stream of particles on innovative theoretical and experimental grounds. The wave particle duality of light and the particle wave duality of matter make known to by Louis de Broglie together with Heisenberg's uncertainly principle put the foundations of early quantum mechanics. For more than a century, Gedanken experiments based on the double slit (or more generally on two-path quantum interference) have been priceless teaching tools for introducing elementary and advanced concepts in quantum mechanics, like as superposition principle, quantum interference, entanglement and quantum erasure. The concept of quantum erasing (QE) was familiarized by Scully and Druhl in 1982. A shortenedform of quantum eraser with light has been deliberated in allaspect by Kwiat and Hillmer, although their experimental execution (diffraction by a thin wire) was done with strong light only. We have used two-path interference in a Mach Zehnder interferometer and now a days in a Michelson

TEMPORAL PHASE SHIFTED ELECTRONIC SPECKLE PATTERN INTERFEROMETER USING STANDARDIZED OPTICAL PHASE SHIFTER

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Abstract:

The comparison between standardized and fabricated optical phase shifter can be carried out by using the basic interferometry technique i.e. Michelson's Interferometer. To compare the results, the variable voltage is supplied to both the optical phase shifters and the phase shift is introduced between the successive circular fringe patterns recorded by digital camera. The phase information is extracted by using five phase shifting technique. Five number of phases shifted correlation fringe patterns are required to implement five step temporal phase shifting technique to extract phase map from the speckle patterns.

Introduction:

Electron speckle pattern interferometer (ESPI) is an optical device which is used to quantify deformation on a rough surface. This method is developed by Butter and Leendertz in 1970 [1]. ESPI technique has a large application in the field of industry as well as medicine [2]-[4]. However, deformation of a rough surface cannot be quantified directly due the presence of random noise in speckle pattern [5]. Various methods are available to obtain deformation on object such as Fourier transform methods [6], phase shifting methods [7] and image processing algorithms [8]. Phase shifting method is straightforward among them [9] in which phase of the reference beam is relatively shifted to object beam, and its intensity modulation is recorded in digital camera. Quantitative information such as displacement/deformation of an object can be extracted from out-of-plane and in plane setup of ESPI with the help of phase shifting method.

The phase shifting method is classified as Temporal phase shifting method in which by using optical phase shifter, phase of the one of the interfering beam is shifted and as Spatial phase shifting method in which two or more CMOS cameras are used to analyze the phase of the

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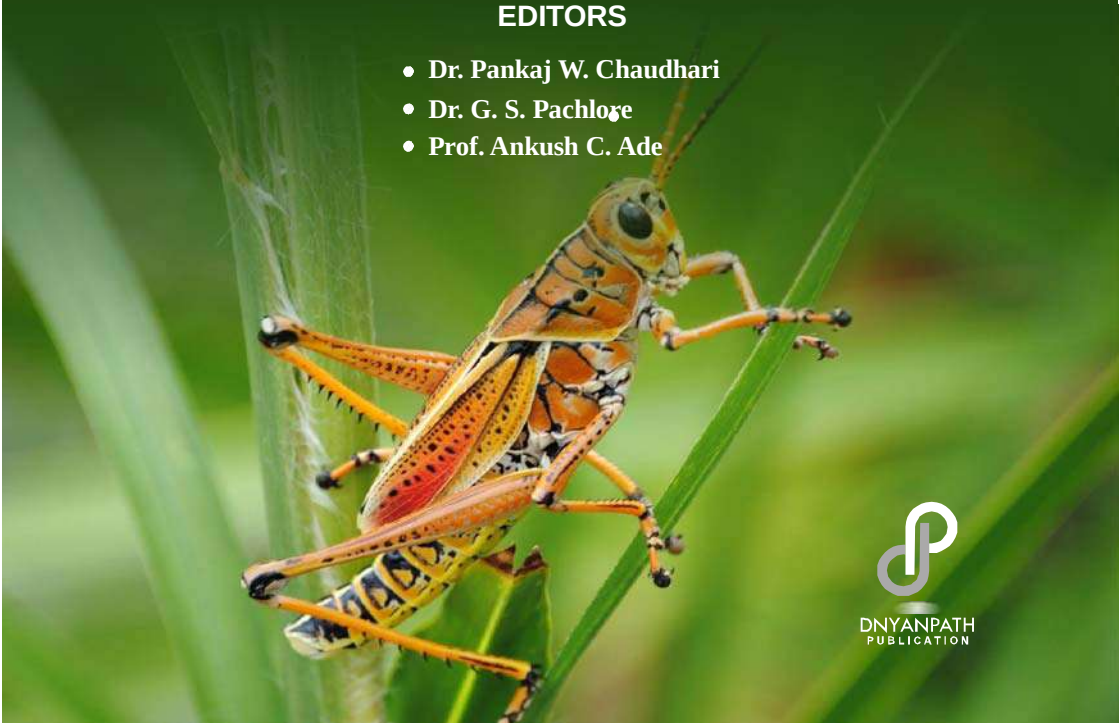

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Published by the **DnyanPath Publication (INDIA)**
The edition published in 1 June, 2021

ISBN 13 : 978-93-91331-13-9

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UNIT - I **1 - 10**

1. Classification of Non-Chordata.
2. Phylum Protozoa: General characters.
3. Type study: Plasmodium vivax: Structure, Life-cycle.
4. Parasitic protozoan and human diseases': Malaria, Amoebiasis, Trypanosomiasis, Leishmaniasis.

UNIT - II **11 - 19**

1. Phylum Porifera: General Characters.
2. Type study: Scypha: Habits and habitat, External features, cell types, spicules & Structure and significances of canal system.
3. Phylum Coelenterata: General Characters,
4. Type study: Metridium: Habits and habitat, External features, Gastro-vascular cavity, Mesenteries, Reproduction.

UNIT - III **20 - 27**

1. Phylum Platyhelminthes: General Characters.
2. Type study: Fasciola hepatica: Habits and habitat, External features, Digestive, Excretory, Reproductive system and Life cycle.
3. Phylum Aschelminthes: General Characters.
4. Type study, Ascaris lumbricoides: Habits and habitat, External features, Digestive, Excretory, Reproductive system and Life cycle.

UNIT - IV **28 - 35**

1. Phylum Annelida: General Characters.
2. Type study: Leech: External features, Digestive, Excretory and Reproductive system.
3. Phylum Arthropoda: General Characters
4. Type study: Cockroach: Habits and habitat, External features, Digestive system, Respiratory system, Reproductive system.

UNIT - V **36 - 43**

1. Phylum Mollusca: General Characters.
2. Type study: Pila globosa: Habits and habitat, External features (Shell and Body), Digestive, Respiratory and Reproductive system.
3. Phylum Echinodermata: General Characters.
4. Type study: Asterias: Habits and habitat, External features, Digestive system, Water vascular system.

UNIT - VI **44 - 51**

1. Phylum Hemichordata: General Characters, Body organization of Balanoglossus, Affinities of Balanoglossus, with non-Chordata, and Chordata.
2. Corals, coral-reefs.
3. Parasitic adaptations in Helminthes: Morphological and physiological
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ISBN 13 : 978-93-91331-15-3

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Tq. Mahagaon, Dist. Yavatmal

-C O N T E N T-

Unit - I : Respiration **1 - 9**

- **Structure of respiratory organs :** Gills and Lungs.
- **Mechanism of respiration :** regulation of ventilation in lungs, exchange of gases at respiratory surface.
- **Respiratory pigments in animals :** Haemoglobin, Haemocyanin, Haemerythrin, chlorocruorin. Transport of gases: O2 and CO2 transport, Neurophysiologic control of respiration,

Circulation :

- **Blood :** Definition and its constituents, functions of blood.
- **Heart :** Structure of human heart, pace maker, Cardiac cycle. Blood coagulation factors, blood groups A, B, O system and Rh-factor.

Unit - II : Muscle Physiology **10 - 18**

- **Types of Muscles :** striated, non-striated and cardiac muscles, E.M. Structure and Chemical Composition of striated muscle, Neuromuscular junction. Mechanism of muscle contraction by Sliding filament theory.
- **Physical and Chemical changes during muscle contraction:** muscle twitch, tetanus, isometric and isotonic contraction, summation of Stimuli, all or none law, fatigue, rigor mortis.

Unit - III : Nerve Physiology **19 - 26**

- **Neuron:** E.M. Structure of nuron and Types : Myelinated and non-Myelinated nerve fibres. Conduction of Nerve impulse, Resting potential, initiation and propagation of action potential, Saltatory transmission, Neurotransmitters (Acetylcholine, dopamine, GABA, Serotonin, Epinephrine, Nor-Epinephrine), Synapse and synaptic transmission.

Chemical co-ordination :

- **Endocrine system:** Hormones and their physiological roles of- Pituitary, Thyroid, Parathyroid, Adrenal, Islets of Langerhan's.
- **Hormonal disorders**: Dwarfism, Gigantism, Acromegaly, Goiter, Myxoedema, Cretinism, Osteoporosis.

Unit - IV : Reproductive Physiology **27 - 34**

- Estrous and menstrual cycle, hormonal control of reproduction in males and female,
- Structure and physiology of mammalian Placenta.

Homeostasis and conservative regulation :

- Osmoregulation and ionic regulation in aquatic animals.
- Osmoregulation in terrestrial animals Ammonotelism, ureotelism and uricotelism.
- Thermoregulation in Poikilotherms and Homeotherms.

Unit - V : Agricultural Zoology **35 - 42**

- **Economic importance of Insects Beneficial insects -** Spider, Mantis, Ladybugs, Damsel bug, Mealybug destroyer, Soldier beetle, Green lacewing, Syrphid fly, Tachinid fly, Ichneumon wasp and Trichogramma wasp.
- **Harmful Insects -** Stired food grain pests, their injuries and control Pests of, - Cotton, Sugarcane and Jowar. Damage and Control Economic importance of Rodents, Snakes, Owls and Bats. Apiculture - Sericulture.

Unit - VI : Aquaculture **43 - 52**

- **Aquaculture :** Definition, scope, importance and present status in India. Fresh water fish culture: types of fish ponds:Nursary, rearing and stocking, design and construction of fishpond, fertilizers used for fish development. Hatching Happas, Chinease Circular Hatchery, CIFE, Mumbai, hatching model, Induced breeding and hypophysation, Modern drugs used in fish breeding.
- **Freshwater system**: monoculture, polyculture, integrated aquaculture, cage culture, pen culture. Fish products and byproducts: Fish liver Oil, Fish body oil, Fish manure, Fish leather

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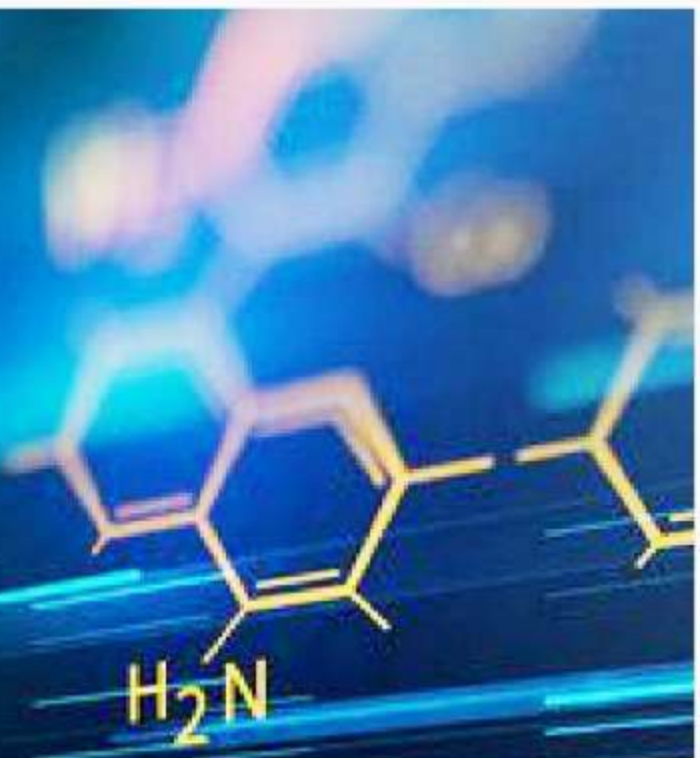
ISO 9001 : 2015
Maharashtra : Amravati - Delhi - Gujrat - Chhattisgarh - Hyderabad - Patna

₹ : 60/-

ISBN : 978-93-91331-15-3



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MCQ's in Chemistry for B.Sc., Part - I, Semester - II

Published by the **DnyanPath Publication (INDIA)**
The edition published in June, 2021

ISBN 13 : 978-93-91331-23-8

DnyanPath® Publication
Write well - Right now
ISO 9001 : 2015

Visit us
www.dnyanpath.org

Reg. Office : FFS-A, Block C, First Floor, Venus Plaza, Shegaon Naka, V.M.V. Road, Amravati - 444 603 (Maharashtra)
Our Distribution : Maharashtra, Delhi, Gujrat, Chattisgarh, Telangana, Bihar.
Visit us : www.dnyanpath.org
Contact us : dnyanpathpub@gmail.com
Phone : 08600353712, 09503237806

Printed at Shri Gurudeo Printers, Amravati.
Mahatma Fule Sankul, Shegaon Naka,
V.M.V. Road, Amravati - 444603 (Maharashtra)

Price : ₹ 90/-

As per Sant Gadge Baba Amravati University
Amravati Syllabus

MCQ's in Chemistry

For B.Sc., Part – III, SEMESTER – VI

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MCQ's in Chemistry for B.Sc., Part - III, Semester - VI

Published by the **DnyanPath Publication (INDIA)**
The edition published in July, 2021

ISBN 13 : 978-93-91331-53-5

DnyanPath® Publication
Write well - Right now
ISO 9001 : 2015

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Reg. Office : FFS-A, Block C, First Floor, Venus Plaza, Shegaon Naka, V.M.V. Road, Amravati - 444 603 (Maharashtra)
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Phone : 08600353712, 09503237806

Printed at Shri Gurudeo Printers, Amravati.
Mahatma Fule Sankul, Shegaon Naka,
V.M.V. Road, Amravati - 444603 (Maharashtra)

Price : ₹ 90/-

कोवीड 19 आणि भारतीय सेवा क्षेत्रातील संधी आणि आव्हाने : चिकित्सात्मक अभ्यास

डॉ. अविनाश सीताराम निळे
सहा. प्राध्यापक, वाणिज्य विभाग,
मातोश्री सुभद्राबाई पाटिल कला, विज्ञान आणि कै. पांडुरंगजी ठाकरे वाणिज्य महाविद्यालय, मानोरा,
जि. वाशीम.

सारांश :

कोवीड 19 संकटानंतर जगातील सर्वच दे ांना आर्थिक, सामाजिक आणि राजकीय उलथापालथीस सामोरे जावे लागत आहे. ज्याप्रमाणे कोरोना विशाणु संकटे घेउुन आला आहे तसेच तो काही संधी सुध्दा उपलब्ध करुन देत असल्याचे दिसून येत आहे. भारतासारख्या विकसन ील दे ाला अमेरिका आणि चीन या दोहोंमधील भीतयुध्दाचे नि चतच गोड फळ चाखण्यास मिळणार हे आता स्पश्ट झाले आहे. सेवा आणि उत्पादन क्षेत्रांमधील ही संधी नि चतच वेगवेगळी नसुन एकत्रितपणे उपलब्ध होईल. ज्या ठिकाणी इतर दे ांमधील स्थलांतरीत उद्योग हे प्रस्थापित होतील तेथे आणि त्या अनुशंगाने सेवा क्षेत्राचे सुध्दा गठन होणे क्रमप्राप्त आहे.

प्रस्तावनाः

भारतासारख्या विकसन ील दे ाला कोवीड ने मोठाच अडथळा निर्माण केला आहे. आर्थिक, सामाजिक आणि राजकीय अ ा ढोबळमानाने सर्वच सेवा क्षेत्रांमध्ये विपरित असा परिणाम कोवीड 19 किंवा कोरोना विशाणुने झाला आहे. अनेक प्रस्थापित सेवा क्षेत्रातील व्यवसाय दे ोधडीला लागले. अनेकांना या विशाणुने न भुतो न भविश्यती अ ी परिस्थिती द ावून दिली. अनेक असंघटीत सेवा क्षेत्रातील उद्योग हे महिला व घरगुती स्वरुपाचे म्हणजेच लघु अ ा स्वरुपाचे आहेत. जसेः स्पा, पार्लर्स, इत्यादी. जे आता परत नव्याने उभारतांना महत्प्रयास करावे लागणार आहेत.

भारतातील सेवा क्षेत्रः

भारतामध्ये प्राथमिक क्षेत्रानंतर दुसरे मोठे क्षेत्र म्हणजे सेवा क्षेत्र होय. ज्याचे योगदान एकुण रोजगारामध्ये 32 टक्के आहे. त्यामुळेच कोरोनासारख्या महामारीमुळे भारतातील सेवा क्षेत्र हे मोठ्या प्रमाणावार प्रभावित झाले आहे यात भांकाच नाही. भारतातील सेवा क्षेत्र बरेच संघटील झाले असून त्याचे ढोबळमानाने पुढील प्रमाणे वर्गीकरण करता येईल.

अ. आर्थिक सेवाः

1. दळणवळण
2. साठवणुक
3. संदेशवहन
4. व्यापार
5. हॉटेल्स
6. पर्यटन
7. बॅकींग
8. विमा सेवा

ब. सामाजिक सेवा

1. शिक्षण
2. आरोग्य
3. प्रशासन

भारतातील सेवा क्षेत्राचे महत्वः

- भारताच्या आर्थिक विकासामध्ये सेवा क्षेत्र हे अतिशय महत्वाची भूमिका बजावणारे आहे.

- भारतामध्ये गुंतवणूक करण्यासाठी इतर देशांना बरीच मोठी संधी आहे, म्हणजेच भारत ही मोठी बाजारपेठ आहे.
- 2018–19 च्या सर्वेक्षणानुसार देशातील 31.45 टक्के रोजगार हा सेवा क्षेत्रातच उपलब्ध आहे.
- भारतातील सेवा क्षेत्रात थेट परकीय गुंतवणूक सुध्दा लक्षणीय आहे. 80.67 अमेरिकन मिलीयन डॉलर्स हे केवळ एप्रिल 2019 ते डिसेंबर 2019 दरम्यान भारतातील सेवा क्षेत्रात गुंतविले गेले आहेत.
- सन 2020 मध्ये कोविड असतांना सुध्दा सेवा क्षेत्रातीलच अतिशय महत्वाचा समजला जाणारा मेडिकल टुरिझम हा व्यवसाय अंदाजे 9 मिलीयन अमेरिकन डॉलर्स हा आकडा ओलांडण्याची शक्यता भारतीय आयबीईएफ या संघटनेने वर्तविली आहे.
- विमानप्रवासाच्या बाबतीत, भारताचा विमानप्रवास किंवा वाहतुक ही सन 2019 च्या 308.75 मिलीयन च्या दुप्पट झाली आहे. एप्रिल 2019–जानेवारी 2020 दरम्यान 293.99 मिलीयन आणि 2.84 टन अनुक्रमे आहे. जी भारताला नि चतच अति ाय गौरवास्पद बाब आहे.
- माहिती तंत्रज्ञानाच्या व्यवसायांसंबंधी प्रक्रीया व्यवस्थापन औद्योगिकीचा महसुल हा 8.38 टक्क्यांनी वाढला आहे. रुपये 12.65 मिलीयन म्हणजेच 181 अमेरिकन बिलीयन डॉलर्स सन 2019 मध्ये आणि सन 2018 मधील 167 अमेरिकन बिलीयन डॉलर्स!
- भारत सरकारने सुध्दा सेवा क्षेत्राला उथ्थान देण्यासाठी SIES (Services Exports From India Scheme) सुरु केली आहे. ज्याद्वारे 12 स्पर्धात्मक क्षेत्रे निर्धारित केली जातील आणि त्यांना वाढीसाठी भासन प्रयत्न करेल.

निष्कर्श

- भारतामध्ये गुंतवणूक करण्यासाठी इतर देशांना बरीच मोठी संधी आहे, परिणामी इथे रोजगार अधिक उपलब्ध होतील.
- देशातील 31.45 टक्के रोजगार हा सेवा क्षेत्रातच उपलब्ध आहे.
- भारताच्या आर्थिक विकासामध्ये कोवीड 19 चा प्रकोप सुरु असतांनादेखील सेवा क्षेत्र हे अतिशय महत्वाची भूमिका बजावणारे आहे. उदा. आरोग्य, प्र ासन, बँकींग, विमा, दळणवळण इत्यादी.
- कोरोना पा र्वभूमीवरही भारतातील सेवा क्षेत्रा होणारी थेट परकीय गुंतवणूक ही सर्वाधिक आहे, त्यामुळे सेवा क्षेत्रात अनेक संधी आहेत.

संदर्भ

- भारतीय वाणिज्य आणि उद्योग मंत्रालय, नवी दिल्ली यांचे संकेतस्थळावरील प्रका ित तथ्ये.
- इंडिया ब्रॅंड इक्विटी फाउंडे ान यांचे संकेतस्थळावरील प्रकां ित अहवालामधील तथ्ये.
- भारतीय उद्योग आणि अंतर्गत व्यापार संवर्धन विभाग यांचे प्रका ित तथ्ये.
- भारतीय सेवा उद्योग अहवाल, मार्च 2020.

Gender Issues and Subaltern Feminism

Editors

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Dr. Ulka S. Wadekar **Dr. Jagruti S. Vyas**

Dr. Sanjay M. Reddy

Gender Issues and Subaltern Feminism

ISBN- 978-81-905776-33-4

Edition First: 2020

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Publisher:
MilindDahake
Nabh Prakashan
Shyam Nagar, Amravati Mo.- 7798204500, 9923145400

Nabh Offset Printer
Shyam Nagar, Amravati- 444 606.

Cover Design
Dr. Ulka Patil

Price: Rs. 200 /-

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CONTEMPORARY ISSUES IN
MULTIDISCIPLINARY SUBJECTS
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CONTEMPORARY ISSUES IN MULTIDISCIPLINARY SUBJECTS, VOLUME – 3

Edited by: Sruthi S, Dr. R.D.Padmavathy, Dr. Prashant Vijaysing Patil, Dr. R. Lavanya Kumari, Rupali Nawale, Dr. G. G. Patil, J. Sutha

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RED'SHINE PUBLICATION PVT. LTD.

Headquarters (India): 88-90 REDMAC, Navamuvada,

Lunawada, India-389 230

Contact: +91 76988 26988

Registration no. GJ31D0000034

In Association with,

RED'MAC INTERNATIONAL PRESS & MEDIA. INC

India | Sweden | UK

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ISBN: 978-93-93239-58-7

ISBN-10: 93-93239-58-4

DIP: 18.10.9393239584

DOI: 10.25215/9393239584

Price: ₹ 1000

March, 2022 (First Edition)

■

The views expressed by the authors in their articles, reviews etc. in this book are their own. The Editor, Publisher and owner are not responsible for them. All disputes concerning the publication shall be settled in the court at Lunawada.

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Website: www.redshine.co.in | **Email:** info@redshine.in

Printed in India | Title ID: 9393239584

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CHAPTER - 21

STUDY OF DIFFERENT TYPES OF REACTION IN COORDINATION COMPOUNDS

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Abstract:
A substitution reaction occurs when the functional group of one chemical substance is replaced by another group, or when one atom or molecule of a compound is replaced by another atom or molecule. Nucleophilic substitution is a type of organic (and inorganic) chemical process in which a nucleophile selectively interacts with or attacks the positive or partially positive charge on an atom or group of atoms attacks the substrate (R-LG), forming a new covalent bond. Nuc-R-LG. In many ways, the nucleophilic substitution process of organic molecules on the graphene surface is the best technique to produce bulk synthesis of graphene with surface modifications.

Keywords: *Substitution Reaction, Inorganic Chemistry, Nucleophilic Substitution Reaction.*

Introduction:

In their substitution processes, octahedral complexes, particularly those containing transition metal ions, appear to favor dissociation (SN1) mechanisms. There is no well-supported case of a displacement (SN2) mechanism in an octahedral system at this time. In the literature, there are a few probable examples[1]. All of these suffer from the fact that they are fairly complicated systems with multiple viable answers. Furthermore, in many cases, universality has not been proven. A range of nucleophilic reagents (ligands) should be discovered to be effective in a well-behaved system, and their respective second order rate constants should bear some unambiguous link to established nucleophilic characteristics [2].

Transition metal ions and complexes are important in at least three fields of study: bioinorganic chemistry and molecular biology, in which metal complex metalloproteins are investigated; industrial chemistry, in which metal complexes are used as homogeneous catalysts for the optimization of critical commercial processes such as polymerization, hydroformylation, hydrogenation, olefin oxidation, and so on; environmental and medicinal chemistry [3]. Designing new inorganic 2 materials, manufacturing industrial homogeneous catalysts, and learning about the role of metalloenzymes in

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biological processes and metals in medicine all require an understanding of the mechanisms of reactions at transition metal sites. Now that mechanistic tools developed for kinetic and extrakinetic data analysis have proven their worth in the classification of a wide range of reaction types in coordination, organometallic, and bioinorganic chemistry, the old adage that "every little reaction has its own mechanism" appears to be incorrect [4]. The mechanistic image is continually on trial, and it can or cannot withstand future discoveries from the use of more sophisticated experimental and theoretical methodologies [5]. In this chapter, some fundamental reactions in transition metal chemistry are described, which have established the reactivity pattern on which present investigations are based. Organic chemists discovered relatively few basic principles in the first half of the twentieth century that served to justify a sequence of seemingly disparate data within a cohesive mechanistic picture [6].

Their work was aided by the fact that they were working with a single reaction center (carbon) with a single stable oxidation state thorough understanding of the structural properties of a large number of reagents and products mechanistic information gained from product distribution analysis and the ability to use traditional sampling methods on relatively slow processes.

Types of reactions in coordination compounds:

Metal substitution or electrophilic reaction

Ligand or nucleophilic substitution reaction

The electrophilic or metal substitution reaction (SE) is a reaction in which two metals are substituted for one another. Electrophilic substitution reactions, also known as metal exchange reactions, involve the replacement of one electrophile (a metal present in a coordination complex) with another metal [7].

$$\mathbf{[MLn] + M' \longrightarrow [M'Ln] + M}$$

Slow

$$[Cr(H_2O)_6]^{+3} + CO \longrightarrow [CO(H_2O)_6]^{+3} + Cr$$

Nucleophilic or Ligand substitution reaction

There are three types of nucleophilic substitution reactions

SN^1 nucleophilic substitution reactions

SN^2 nucleophilic substitution reactions

SN^1CB nucleophilic substitution reactions

Nucleophilic substitution reactions are defined as reactions in which a nucleophile (a ligand present in a coordination complex) is replaced by another ligand [8].

$$\mathbf{[MLn] + L' \longrightarrow [ML(n\text{-}1)\,L'] + L}$$

$$[Cr(H_2O)_6]^{+3} \longrightarrow [Cr(H_2O)_5CN]^{+2} + H_2O$$

Brief Idea about Nucleophilic Substitution Reactions:

The general nucleophilic or ligand substitution reaction in octahedral complexes (C. N. = 6) is shown below

$$\mathbf{[ML5Y] + Z \longrightarrow [ML5\,Z] + Y}$$

Here, M is central metal ion; Y is leaving ligand; Z is entering ligand, and L is other ligand in the coordination sphere.
Z may be solvent molecule, anion or same as Y.
When Z is solvent molecule the above reaction is called racemization reaction
When Z is anion, the above reaction is called exchange reaction.
When Z and Y are same, the above reaction is called exchange reaction.

Dissociative SN^1 Mechanism or Unimolecular Nucleophilic Substitution (SN^1):

According to this mechanism, the complex first undergoes dissociation losing the ligand to be replaced and changes into a 5. Coordinated, viz., square pyramidal intermediate complex, which then readily adds the new ligand Y; this may be illustrated as follows:

MLn ⟶ MLn-1 +L : slow dissociation

MLn-1 + Y ⟶ MLn-1 Y : Fast

The first step in which a ligand is lost is slow and formed activated complex (In the slow step i.e. MLn-1) and the second step in which the intermediate complex (Activated complex) formed reacts with the new incoming ligand Y is fast and form MLn-1Y six coordination complex. In the formation of activated complex (Intermediate complex in an SN1 reaction, the coordination number of the central metal is decreased by one i.e. n to n-1.In above two reaction the activation energy of first step is more and activation energy of second step is less. From our knowledge of chemical kinetics we know that the rate of a multi-step reaction depends only on the slowest step and that step is known as rate determine step [9]. This means that the rate of the above reaction depends only on the concentration of one species i.e. MLn not depend upon Y, viz., the complex MLn. The reaction is first order with respect to MLn and it is zero with respect to the rate law for such a reaction may thus be represented as fallows,

Rate = k_1[MLn]
Where k1is the first order rate constant.

Since the rate of the reaction depends only upon the concentration of one species i.e. (MLn), the mechanism is referred to as unimolecular nucleophilic substitution reaction, i.e., S_N1 mechanism. Since in this mechanism the complex first gets dissociated, it is also termed as dissociative S_N1 mechanism.
Example:

$$[Cr(H_2O)_6]^{+3} \xrightarrow{\text{Slow}} [Cr(H_2O)_5]^{+3} + H_2O$$

Five Co-ordination intermediate

$$\downarrow +CN^- \text{ Fast}$$

$$[Cr(H_2O)_5CN]^{+2}$$

The rate law of this reaction is

Rate = K_1 $[Cr (H_2O)_6]^{+3}$

The rate of the foregoing reaction is directly proportional to the concentration of [Cr (H2O)6]+3, and it is independent of the concentration of CN-.

Slow

$$[CO (H_2O)_6]^{3+} \longrightarrow [CO (H_2O)_5]^{+3} + H_2O$$

Five Co-ordination intermediate

$$\downarrow +CN^- \text{ Fast}$$

$$[CO (H_2O)_5CN]^{+2}$$

Six Co-ordination intermediate

S_N2: Substitution, Nucleophilic or Bimolecular Mechanism (Associative Mechanism)

MLn + Y ⟶ MLnY : slow dissociation

MLnY ⟶ MLn-1 Y + L : Fast

In this mechanism, the metal complex forms a hepta-coordinated intermediate complex by first creating a bond with the entering group. As a result, the coordination number of the metal complex increases from six to seven, forming a hepta-coordinated intermediate complex (Seven coordination activated complex). The activated complex then dissociates in the second stage, restoring the coordination number of the complex to six, resulting in octahedral geometry and the addition of new ligand Y as a permanent part of the molecule. The rate of the overall reaction is affected by both [MLn] and [Y] concentrations [10]. The reaction is first order in terms of [MLn] and first order in terms of [Y], but it is a second order reaction overall. Second-order reactions, which are also known as bimolecular nucleophilic substitution or SN2 reactions, are dependent on the concentration of the reactant complex as well as the concentration of the entering ligand.

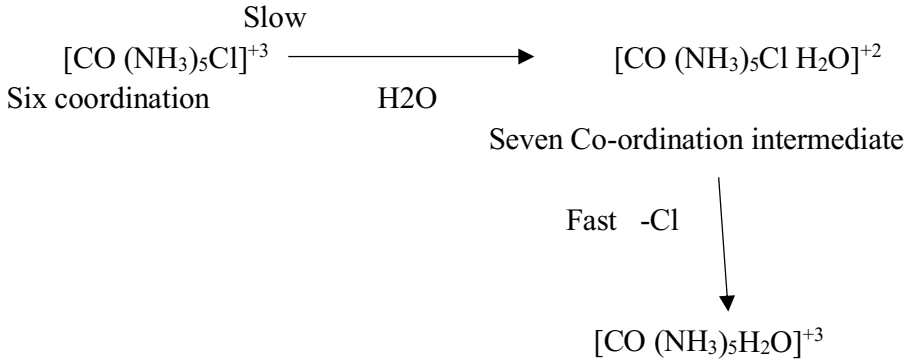
The general rate of law for S_N2 reaction is

$$\text{Rate} = k_2[MLn] [Y]$$

Where k_2 is second order rate constant.

.

Example:



The rate law of this reaction is

Rate = K_2 $[CO (NH_3)_5Cl]^{+2}$ $[H_2O]$

According to above reaction the rate of above reaction is directly proportional to both the concentration of $[CO (NH_3)_5Cl]^{+2}$ and concentration $[H_2O]$.

Types of Intermediate formed during SN1 reaction

Consider an octahedral complex ML5X being attack by a nucleophile Y. If reaction proceeds through SN1 dissociative mechanism, two type of intermediate is formed

Square pyramidal intermediate

Trigonal bipyramidal intermediate

In first step (Slow step),the bond M-X dissociate causing least disturbance to remaining ML5 intermediate which has a square pyramidal .The intermediate ML5 fast attack of incoming ligand Y and produce six coordination compound ML5Y as shown below.

In second type, the bond M-X dissociate and remaining ML5 species immediately adjusts the bond angle to produce a trigonal pyramidal (TBP) intermediate which is fast attacked by incoming ligand Y to produce ML5Y as shown below.

In SN1 nucleophilic substitution reaction square pyramidal intermediate is more stable than Trigonal bipyramidal intermediate (TBP).Because the formation of trigonal bipyramidal intermediate (TBP) involves the moment of at least two metal and ligand bond where as there is no such movement is required during the formation of square pyramidal intermediate. The S_N1 reaction proceeds through the more stable square pyramidal intermediate.

Trigonal bipyramidal (TBP) is so much stabilized by pi bonding that it becomes more stable than square pyramidal intermediate. In that case S_N1 reactions proceed through a trigonal bipyramidal intermediate.

Types of Intermediate formed during S_N2 reaction

If the reaction precedes through an association S_N2 mechanism, there are two types of intermediate.

Pentagonal bipyramidal intermediate (PBP)

Octahedral wedge (OW)

The formation of a Pentagonal bipyramidal intermediate (PBP), [MLnY] requires the movement of at least four ligands to adjust nucleophile Y .The ligand-ligand repulsions also increase the energy of Pentagonal bipyramidal intermediate intermediate because the decrease in L—M—L bond angles brings the electron pairs of metal—ligand bonds nearer to one another this intermediate.

The second of intermediate is formed if the nucleophile Y attacks through the middle of the triangular faces of the octahedron. As soon as Y starts approaching M, the outgoing ligand X starts moving towards the middle of another triangular face so that the 'octahedral wedge' intermediate formed Both L and Y ligands in equivalent positions. The formation of an octahedral Wedge (OW) intermediate. The formation of an octahedral Wedge intermediate requires minimum movement of ligands and the ligand-ligand repulsions are less than such repulsions in PBP intermediate, in PBP Ligand ligand repulsion is more than OW intermediate. In the OW intermediate M—L and M—Y distances are a little longer than the M—L distances in this PBP intermediate. The octahedral Wedge intermediate requires less energy for Its formation than the PBP intermediate [11]. The S_N2 reaction proceeds through an OW intermediate rather than a PBP intermediate.

S_N1CB: Substitution Nucleophilic Unimolecular Conjugate Base Mechanism:

In this SN^1CB mechanism, one of the ligands in the complex is converted into its conjugate base by the action of a base (normally OH^-). This first step is fast then in the second step, which is rate-determining step; the conjugate base dissociates releasing the ligand to be replaced. Subsequently, the new ligand is added to the remaining part of the complex species, leading to the product. This mechanism is called unimolecular because in the slow step only one molecule (ion as shown in the mechanism) is involved. But the kinetics is second-order because the concentration of the complex and the concentration of the base (OH-) are involved upto the slow step [12].

The rate of this reaction is denoted as

Rate = k_2 [MLn] [OH^-]

In S_N1CB mechanism, the reacting complex should have at least one protonic hydrogen atom on a non-leaving ligand.

Example:

$$[CO(NH_3)_5Cl]^{2+} + \longrightarrow [CO(NH_3)_4\ NH_2\ Cl]^+\ H2O$$

$$[CO(NH_3)_4\ NH_2\ Cl]^+ \longrightarrow [CO(NH_3)_4\ NH_2]^{2+} + Cl^- \quad \textbf{slow step}$$

$$[CO(NH_3)_4\ NH_2]^{2+} + H^+HO^- \longrightarrow [CO(NH_3)_5\ OH]^{2+} \quad \textbf{fast step}$$

Rate = k_2 $[CO(NH_3)_4\ NH_2\ Cl]^+$ $[OH^-]$

Conclusion:

The purpose of this chapter is to provide the foundation for understanding the mechanism of inorganic reactions in solution. The coverage is limited to several key mechanistic elements of transition metal coordination (Werner type) compounds. The gathering of experimental data, recognition of the rate law, and mechanistic classification are all covered in the first section. Following is a review of ligand substitution reactions on metal centers with four and six coordinates.

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V O L U M E - 4

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Publication
INDIA

MULTIDISCIPLINARY RESEARCH, VOLUME-4

by: Sruthi S, Dr. Uttam Kumar, SK Sahafur Hoque, Madan Pal, Nutan Singh, Dr. Harendra Kumar

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RED'SHINE PUBLICATION PVT. LTD.
Headquarters (India): 88-90 REDMAC, Navamuvada,
Lunawada, India-389 230
Contact: +91 76988 26988
Registration no. GJ31D0000034

In Association with,
RED'MAC INTERNATIONAL PRESS & MEDIA. INC
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ISBN: 978-93-93239-31-0
ISBN-10: 9-39-323931-2
DIP: 18.10.9393239312
DOI: 10.25215/9393239312
Price: ₹ 800
December, 2021 (First Edition)

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Printed in India | Title ID: 9393239312

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22 POLLUTION IN OUR COMMUNITY: MEASUREMENTS AND PHYSICAL INSIGHTS

N. B. Bhagat

Abstract

Air pollution is one of the greatest scourges of our day, not only because of its impact on climate change but also because of its impact on public and individual health due to increased sickness and death. Many contaminants are significant contributors to human disease. Particulate Matter (PM), a type of particle with a variable but extremely small diameter that enters the respiratory system by inhalation and causes respiratory and cardiovascular disorders, as well as reproductive and central nervous system dysfunctions and cancer, is one of them. In our world, pollution is one of the main causes of many more diseases and ecosystem destruction. We know the presence of hazardous compounds in the air, on land, and in water that can harm living things and the environment. The environment becomes contaminated or dirty due to human activity or natural disasters it leads to pollution. There are mainly five types of pollution air pollution, water pollution, sound or noise pollution, soil or land pollution, and radioactive pollution.

Keywords: - *Industrial advancement, land and soil degradation, global warming, climate change, air, and water pollution.*

Introduction

The components of pollution are pollutants. Pollutants are the products with affect the normal functioning of pollutants ecosystem and affect animals as well as plants. When pollutants are released in great quantity the environment becomes toxic and unhealthy.

Anthropogenic air pollution is one of the world's most serious public health threats, causing around 9 million fatalities each year [1]. We know that Carbon dioxide in the air is useful for photosynthesis in plants but when it exceeds a certain limit of concentration it becomes a pollutant, listening to music at moderate volume gives pleasure but loud music sometimes increases heartbeat, headache, etc. Thus, a substance need not be harmful by itself but may become a pollutant in certain concentrations or quantities in certain circumstances. Food safety challenges, ice and iceberg melting, animal extinction, and plant damage are all severe consequences of climate change and the effects of global planetary warming on diverse ecosystems [2, 3]. The biggest problem in our community is that of air pollution. What are the possible causes of Air pollution and what effect does this have on animal life and human society? Almost all areas throughout the world show a high level of air pollution due to emissions from industries, an increase in the number of motor vehicles, and the burning of open garbage. In rural areas burning of firewood, cow dung cake, agricultural residue, etc. causes air pollution. Air pollution is which contamination of air by toxic gases and minute particles of solid and liquid particulates in concentration which is harmful to human beings and their surroundings. The WHO and EPA created air quality standards and guidelines for various pollutants as a tool for air quality management [1, 4]. Air pollutants are classified as Natural sources which include volcanic eruption, sand and dust storm, forest fires, etc. and second is Man-made sources which include human activities such as industries, factories, aircraft, nuclear experiments, automobiles, agriculture, and power plants. There are primary pollutants and secondary pollutants which primary pollutants are pollutants that are emitted directly from sources and found in the atmosphere in the form which they were emitted. There is DDT, plastic, CO_2, CO as the primary pollutants. Then the secondary pollutants are the pollutants that are formed in the atmosphere by the chemical reaction between primary pollutants and atom-spherical constituents. There are SO_3, O_3, Hydrogen Cyanide, Ketones, etc. are the secondary pollutants.

Air Pollution:

Impact on World due to Air Pollution: -

a) Air contamination is one of the world's driving danger factors for death and medical problems, credited to 5 million deaths every year.
b) Air contamination is credited to 9% of deaths all-inclusive.
c) It is additionally one of the higher hazard factors for malady trouble.
d) Death rates from air contamination are most elevated in low-to-working class salary nations, with more than a 100-crease contrast in rates over the world.
e) Globally, demise rates from air contamination have been falling. This has primarily been the aftereffect of progress on handling indoor contamination quite well. The main causes of air pollution are

Causes of Air Pollution: -

a) Transportation
b) Agriculture Activities
c) Industrial Process & Burning of Solid Waste

In vehicles are a major part of air pollution, more than 50% of total air pollution is used by vehicles. Automobile exhaust emits particulate matter, unburned hydrocarbons, carbon dioxide, nitrogen oxide, etc. In every case, it appears that fine, inhalable, and sulfate particle levels were more closely linked to mortality than total particulate pollution, aerosol acidity, sulfur dioxide, or nitrogen dioxide levels [5]. Also burning of fossil fuels such as petrol, diesel, natural gas leads to the emission of CO_2 & other gases.Open-field burning is the

main contributor to pollution due to agriculture. There are pesticides; many toxic chemicals are used in agriculture. Also, there is burning of coals, forest fires & solid waste, industries such as paper mills, cotton mills, chemicals, thermal power plants because most air pollution. The smoke running out through the

factories has small dust particles, carbon, metal & other radioactive materials from various sources they get mixed in smoke & pollute the air. The air pollution during the spring & summer, late morning to evening summer air is filled with ozone & during winter, the night air often has high pm 2.5 levels. So, the only consistent high-quality air wasfrom 4 am to 7 am.

Particulate matter (PM) is created in the atmosphere mostly as a result of chemical interactions between contaminants. The size of particles has a big impact on their penetration [6]. The United States Environmental Protection Agency defines Particulate Matter (PM) as a word for particles [7]. Long-term chronic consequences include respiratory ailments and immune system afflictions [8]. It's worth noting that those with asthma, pneumonia, diabetes and respiratory and cardiovascular disorders are particularly susceptible to PM's effects. Because their size allows them to pierce interior spaces, PM2.5 and PM10 are significantly linked to a variety of respiratory illnesses [9, 10].

Name of PM Sizes	**PM_{10}**	**$PM_{2.5}$**	**PM_1**	**UFP**
Size(Aerodynamics)	All particles with a diameter of fewer than 10 micrometers in terms of aerodynamics.	All particles with a diameter of fewer than 2.5 micrometers in terms of aerodynamics	All particles with a diameter of less than 1 micrometer in terms of aerodynamics	Ultra-fine PM particles with a diameter of fewer than 100 nanometers in terms of aerodynamics
Trend	The most often measured size fraction.	Size fraction has been related to a variety of health consequences	New research has been related to the effects on one's health.	Innovative research on the effects of climate change on human health

Table 1: Different PM Sizes

$PM_{2.5}$ particles, as previously established, cause more harmful health impacts due to their small size. The creation of "haze" in various metropolitan regions is mostly caused by the

aforementioned small particles [11, 12, 13]. During the day, the sun rises & heats the atmosphere due to convection, we see that air expands. As the air expands, it slowly rises & takes away the polluted air & improves the air quality. It's also another reason why visibility greatly improved as the day progresses. The smallest particle present in the air known as particulate matter. They are suspended in the air in the form of dust released from industrial chimneys. Its diameter range is from 0.001 to 500 Micrometer (µm) Central Pollution Control Board (CPCB) said that if the size of particulate matter is less than 2.5µm then it is very harmful to human health because these dust particles are inhaled by our lungs directly due to tiny in size then there are breathing problems occurs also the lungs diseases (pneumoconiosis) and other respiratory diseases.

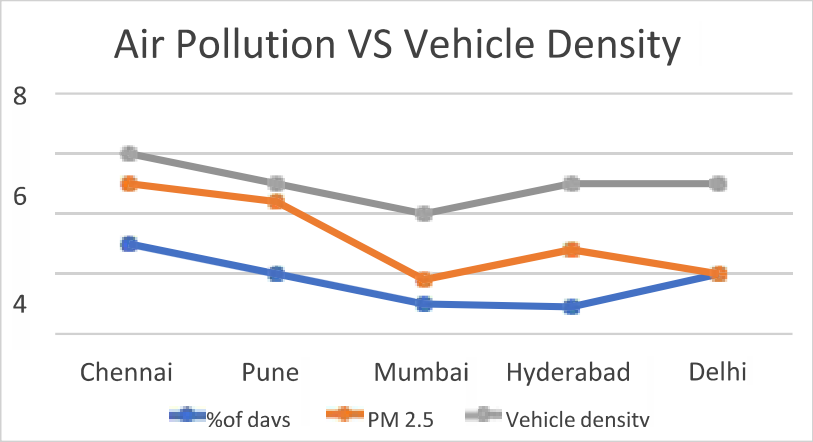

Fig. 3: Air Pollution vs Vehicle Density

This is a comparison between the percentage of days of a violation of air quality exceeding the standard, PM 2.5 & vehicle density in metropolitan cities. The fine particles are particulate matter which is 2.5 in diameter. It is produced from all types of combustion, including motor vehicles, residential wood burning. Vehicle density is the number of vehicles per mile.

Name of Cities	Vehicle density	PM 2.5	Percentage of daysviolent of air quality standards
Chennai	2093	20	81
Pune	1260	89	57
Mumbai	1229	77	33
Delhi	1723	198	45
Hyderabad	1014	81	955

Table 1: Air Quality Standards

From this chart, we found that vehicle density is high to air pollution & still other factors like industrial, power plants might play a vital role in air pollution of metropolitan cities.

Impact on Ozone Layer

Ozone (O3) is a gas that is created when oxygen is exposed to a high-voltage electric discharge [14]. It's a powerful oxidant, 52 percent more powerful than chlorine. It forms in the stratosphere, but it could potentially form in the troposphere as a result of photochemical smog chain reactions [15]. The stratosphere is the second atmospheric layer; it contains much of the ozone gas known as the ozone layer. The density of ozone is 22km. These ozone layers absorb harmful ultraviolet rays coming from the sun and protect the life present on the earth. So ozone layer is also called an umbrella of the earth but the scientific evidence reveals that stratospheric ozone is being destroyed mainly by chlorine atoms of chlorofluorocarbon (CFC) molecules, We know that CFC's were used as coolants in refrigerators, freezers, also in industrial solvents, dry cleaning agents, hospital sterility, aerosols and foam during use of all these materials a lot of CFC's get dispersed into the atmosphere. Once these CFC molecules are broken apart by UV light, it releases chlorine & bromine which further demolish ozone. This ozone layer gets thinner, a hole has been observed in the ozone layer this hole allows the UV rays of the sun to reach the earth directly. These UV rays cause skin cancer, & many other diseases

in human beings. So, by this air pollution, there is depletion of the ozone layer has occurred, this ozone depletion can affect animals as well as plants, so this is one of the biggest effects of air pollution on our atmosphere as well as us. The ozone levels are typically highest during the afternoon hours of the summer months, when the influence of direct sunlight is greatest, so the early morning air can clean up our lungs to a very good level "Sleepy early in the night, hit the bed on time''. Some air pollutants cause more global warming. Air pollution includes greenhouse gases. The problem we now face is that humans activities-particularly those burning fossil fuels (coal, oil, and natural gas), agriculture, and land clearing- are increasing the concentrations of greenhouse gases. Greenhouse gases include water vapor, CO2, CH4, nitrous oxide, ozone & some artificial chemicals such as CFCs. This is the enhanced greenhouse effect, which is contributing to the warming of the Earth. Solar radiation reaches the Earth's atmosphere-some of this is reflected into space. The rest of the sun's energy is absorbed by the land, oceans heating the Earth. Some of this heat is trapped by greenhouse gases in the atmosphere, keeping the Earth warm enough to sustain life. This is trapping extra heat, and causing the Earth's temperature to rise, so this is the Greenhouse effect. From this Greenhouse effect, the Water level balance of the Earth would be destroyed, marine life and ecosystem would be destroyed. Inhaled ozone can permeate deeply into the lungs due to its low water solubility [16]. Ozone's toxic effects can be seen in cities all over the world, causing biochemical, morphologic, functional, and immunological problems [17]. The European project (APHEA2) investigates the acute effects of elevated ambient ozone levels on mortality [18].

Sound Pollution

Noise pollution is generally referring to a type of energy pollution in which distracting, irritating, or damaging sounds are freely audible. It is measured in dB units. In this type of pollution contaminants are not physical particles, but waves that interfere

with the naturally occurring waves of a similar type in the same environment. Commotion is a disparaged danger that can cause various short-and long- haul medical issues, such as rest unsettling influence, cardiovascular impacts, less fortunate work, and school execution, hearing disability, and so forth. The commotion has raised as a main natural disturbance in the WHO European Region, and the open gripes about exorbitant clamor increasingly more frequently. The WHO rules for network commotion suggest fewer than 30 A-weighted decibels (dB (A)) in rooms during the night for rest of good quality and under 35 dB (A) in study halls to permit great instructing and learning conditions. The WHO rules for night clamor suggest under 40 dB (A) of yearly normal (Night) outside of rooms to forestall antagonistic wellbeing impacts from night commotion.

How many people are affected?

As indicated by a European Union (EU) distribution:

a) about 40% of the populace in EU nations is presented to street traffic clamor at levelssurpassing 55 dB(A);
b) 20% is presented to levels surpassing 65 dB(A) during the daytime; and
c) Over 30% is presented to levels surpassing 55 dB (A) around evening time.

Just constrained universal figures are accessible on the wellbeing effect of ecological commotion in the European Region. WHO/Europe distributed starter gauges in 2011.

A few gatherings are more powerless against commotion. As kids invest more energy in bed than grown-ups, they are more presented tonight commotion. Incessantly sick and old individuals are more delicate to aggravation. Move laborers are at expanded hazard because their rest structure is under pressure. Also, the less well-to-do who can't bear to live in calm neighborhoods or have sufficiently protected homes, are probably going to endure lopsidedly. Irritation around evening time can prompt an expansion

in clinical visits and spending on resting pills, which influences families' financial plans and nations' wellbeing use. The hole between rich and poor is probably going to increment if governments neglect to address commotion contamination.

Children, noise and health: -

Hindrance of youth advancement and training brought about by commotion may affect scholarly accomplishment and wellbeing. Studies and insights on the impacts of constant introduction to airplanecommotion on youngsters have found:

a) Steady proof that commotion presentation hurts intellectual execution;
b) A steady relationship with weakened prosperity and inspiration to a marginally more constraineddegree;
c) Moderate proof of consequences for circulatory strain and catecholamine hormone emission.

There are different sources of noise pollution:

a) Transportation
b) Social Events
c) Commercial & Industrial Activities
d) Household Sources

In transportation, there are various vehicles like auto, cars horns, scooters & aircraft, helicopters produce lots of noise. Then in social events like market area, parties, loudspeakers & place of workshop produces noise pollution, then in commercial & industrial activities includes construction sites such as air compressors, loaders, dump trucks, etc. & in household there is TV noise, cooler, dryer, music systems at home produces noise pollution. Effects of Noise pollution are Respiratory agitation, high blood pressure, headaches, it can increase stress levels and anxiety, and even lead to coronary artery disease. The Hierarchy of Controls concept is often used to reduce noise in the environment or the workplace, engineering noise controls can be used to reduce noise propagation

& protect individuals from overexposure. If people must be around loud sounds, they can protect their ears with hearing protection (e.g., earplugs or earmuffs). Noise from roadways and other urban factors can be mitigated by urban planning and better designs of roads. Roadway noise can be reduced by the use of noise barriers, limitation of vehicles speeds, and alteration of roadway surface texture, use of traffic controls that smooth vehicles flow to reduce braking and acceleration, & tire design. An important factor in applying these strategies is a computer model for roadway noise that is capable of addressing local topography, meteorology, traffic operations. Also, Aircraft noise can be reduced by using quieter jet engines & altering flight paths & time of day runway has been benefited residents near airports.

To control Noise pollution our government has rules and regulations against firecrackers and loudspeakers & also Supreme Court has banned the playing of music on loudspeakers after 10 pm. Also, there are apps like Noise level from a leaf blower, using (NIOSH) sound level meter app. NIOSH is the National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health, part of the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC). NIOSH estimates that 22 million workers in the United States are exposed to hazardous noise levels each year. The Second Level Meter (SLM) app can help you prevent permanent hearing loss caused by a noise-a problem that can occur immediately or over time. This NIOSH SLM app makes workers informed about their noise environment. It is therefore, we can reduce noise pollution.

Conclusion:

Pollution is increasing day by day whether it is air pollution, water pollution, noise pollution, or soil pollution. To reduce this pollution there are many rules and regulations & Acts are passed by the government so we have to follow all this & also in rural areas. Its effect is threatening not only the environment but also our and animal's life. For the sake of the world's health, it is hoped that anti-environment behavior is cut out sooner rather than

later. Despite the challenge of eliminating anthropogenic environmental contamination, a viable solution might be envisioned as a close partnership between authorities, bodies, and doctors to bring the issue under control. Governments should disseminate appropriate information, educate citizens, and involve professionals in these concerns to successfully control the rise of the problem.

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Current Trends In Physical Education and Sports

Edited By
Dr. Sagar P. Narkhede

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Published by the **DnyanPath Publication (INDIA)**

A Leading **National Books Publishing** House In India

The First edition published in 1st April 2022

ISBN 13 : 978-93-91331-33-7

ISO 9001 : 2015

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Printed at Shri Gurudeo Printers, Amravati.

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Price : ₹ 600/-

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Enrichment In Sports Entrepreneurship Throughout The World

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Abstract :

The goal of this paper is to shape the present and rising discipline of 'game entrepreneurship' in addition to to increase hints for destiny studies. This paper examines the position of the sports activities entrepreneur and entrepreneurial technique in new task advent projects. This paper contributes to a popular know-how of entrepreneurship with inside the sports activities context and indicates how in addition theoretical and empirical paintings on entrepreneurship wishes to be carried out with inside the sports activities context. The main managerial and sensible implications of sports activities entrepreneurship on this paper are to increase extra entrepreneurial wondering in sports activities-associated ventures. This paper is the primary to consciousness at the destiny capacity of sports activities entrepreneurship in developing entrepreneurial ventures, thereby imparting a sturdy theoretical basis for destiny studies paintings.

Introduction :

The motive of this paper is to test a number of the problems of sports activities entrepreneurship studies with the goal of figuring out capacity destiny studies directions.

Sports businesses may be socially oriented while their fundamental motive is pushed through network or social goals. Sports entrepreneurship can arise inside or throughout the commercial enterprise, not-for-earnings and authorities quarter. The monetary and social effect of recreation businesses varies through geographic position. More wealthier and evolved international locations which includes america have extra sports activities businesses than international locations in growing areas. In addition, local and concrete network improvement has enabled extra neighborhood sports activities businesses to flourish or to be included inside a much broader carrying body. Sports businesses inside an enterprise are worried with monetary and social activity. Many sports activities businesses are required to be each economically and socially modern as they comply with a positive goal. People who installation a sports activities corporation anticipate economic hazard that incorporates the intention of producing enough resources. Often sports activities businesses utilise each paid and voluntary employees with the intention to steady resources. Sports businesses face the venture of searching for commercial enterprise answers to recreation associated problems. In many cases, recreation businesses are required to be sustainable through specializing in their triple backside line (social, environmental, economic). Sports businesses want to inspire innovation as a reaction to demanding situations they face. Innovation consists of outlook, behaviours, method and operations (Chell et al., 2010). It is critical to expand a valid theoretical platform to recognize the numerous varieties of sports activities entrepreneurship.

Increasingly, there may be reputation with inside the sports activities enterprise approximately the significance of entrepreneurship. This paper identifies the query of what wishes to be investigated on this new place of entrepreneurship paintings. The sports activities enterprise is big and one of the maximum seen global. The goal of this paper is to offer an outline of the modern studies problems for each entrepreneurship and sports activities control lecturers through imparting a checking out floor to

discover destiny ideas. The sports activities enterprise employs a big range of humans immediately and circuitously global and is one of the maximum globalised industries withinside the global. Given the value of the sports activities enterprise to the worldwide economy, it needs persevered interest from each entrepreneurship and game control researchers. Based at the significance of the sports activities region it's far important that sports activities entrepreneurship researchers maintain their investigations inside it.

Development of Sports Entrepreneurship

The entrepreneurship may be some thing from a brand new sports activities product used at the gambling discipline to a brand new task sports activities gaming task start-up. Sports entrepreneurship introduces a variety of latest issues associated now no longer best to technology (consisting of production equipment and player-spectator interaction) however additionally social, moral and felony attention which include diversity, privateness and social cohesion. Sports entrepreneurship may be described in numerous ways. A huge definition of sports activities entrepreneurship refers to any revolutionary hobby that has a sports activities objective. As sports activities entrepreneurship is a newly rising discipline an crucial trouble is that of defining what precisely the time period means. Innovation is on the coronary heart of the sports activities entrepreneurial technique because it specializes in the advent of latest ventures or keeping an organisation. Sport entrepreneurship entails the processes, practices and selection making sports that result in the improvement of products, offerings or markets. Sports entrepreneurship on this paper is conceptualised because the set of values that have an effect on an organizations or people propensity to create and increase revolutionary sports. This paper demonstrates the significance of a multidisciplinary technique closer to game entrepreneurship and the price of enter from associated fields.

Technologies in sports :

Digital improvements are beginning to have a big effect on each game and physical education (see for instance Novak, Antala, & Knjaz, 2016). The omnipresence of clever telephones and pills distinctly have an effect on the enjoy of latest games, however additionally begin to decide the advent in conventional sports activities (think about FIFA, the football video game). Video snap shots also can be used to enhance and compare motion skills. Given the extensive type of opportunities, it may be wondered whether or not PE instructors are appropriately prepared to correctly combine those new technology of their every day practice. Not all experts remorse this hesitation to include virtual era. There are nevertheless many crucial voices with admire to the benefit with the aid of using which the virtual revolution takes place. Part of the complaint is primarily based totally upon the declare that virtual era is in itself the principle component of the societal hassle of sedentary behaviour and obesity. When we're gaming, we aren't gambling football. Regardless growing human inactivity, usually speaking, we fee the lively variation of amusement extra than the sedentary one. Nevertheless, there's an abundance of proof that virtual era could have a poor effect on motion behaviour and game participation. Digital era might also make contributions to the "international fashion closer to measurability, accountability, performativity and standardization" (Gard 2014, p. 833). Although those views are essential and honestly treasured, this isn't always the attitude of this bankruptcy. The vast use of virtual era in our lifestyle is neither the easy purpose of sedentary behaviour, nor can or not it's visible as a easy solution. Besides, arguing that era is a part of the hassle, is some thing else than claiming that era may be a treasured device to beautify the best of PE. While acknowledging the significance of the capability poor effect that virtual era might also additionally have on fitness associated behaviour, we do need to attention at the capability and pedagogical implications of virtual improvements in PE. In fact, given the improvements which have already began out international, we assume this is the duty of PE instructors and PETE Faculties to deal with the query how era is reshaping the context and content material of tutorial practices.

Sports businesses regularly have complicated relationships with their board of administrators given their position in selling the crew however on the identical time thinking about social and economic objectives. The company governance of recreation businesses might also additionally provide a few perception into how control undertakes new ventures and the way they utilise their resources. The position of board composition which includes inner and outside administrators are influencing sports activities entrepreneurship is needed in extra detail. Another venture that ought to be addressed close to recreation entrepreneurship issues the quantity of entrepreneurship inside an company and the want to successfully manipulate entrepreneurial practices. Issues which includes how and through whom entrepreneurship is fostered ought to be protected to clear up sensible implications for managers of sports activities businesses. A blended technique which includes the adoption of sports activities entrepreneurship and the applicable regulatory framework can offer extra relevance at one of a kind tiers of studies inquiry.

Conclusion :

Sports entrepreneurship has intrinsic traits which includes a dynamic and interactive surroundings with sensible implications. The demanding situations offered on this paper span each the entrepreneurship and sports activities control disciplines. This paper has supplied a vital evaluation of sports activities entrepreneurship aiming to carry withinside the traits which have critical coverage implications and to perceive foremost demanding situations that ought to be met to house control practices that offer an encouraging surroundings for sports activities entrepreneurship to foster.

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MCQ's in Zoology for B.Sc., Third Year, Semester - VI
(Molecular Biology and Biotechnology)

Published by the **DnyanPath Publication (INDIA)**
The edition published in 1 June, 2021

ISBN 13 : 978-93-91331-45-0

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Publication
ISO 9001 : 2015

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Printed at Shri Gurudeo Printers, Amravati.
Mahatma Fule Sankul, Shegaon Naka,
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(Life and Diversity of Non - Chordata)

Published by the **DnyanPath Publication (INDIA)**
The edition published in 1 June, 2021

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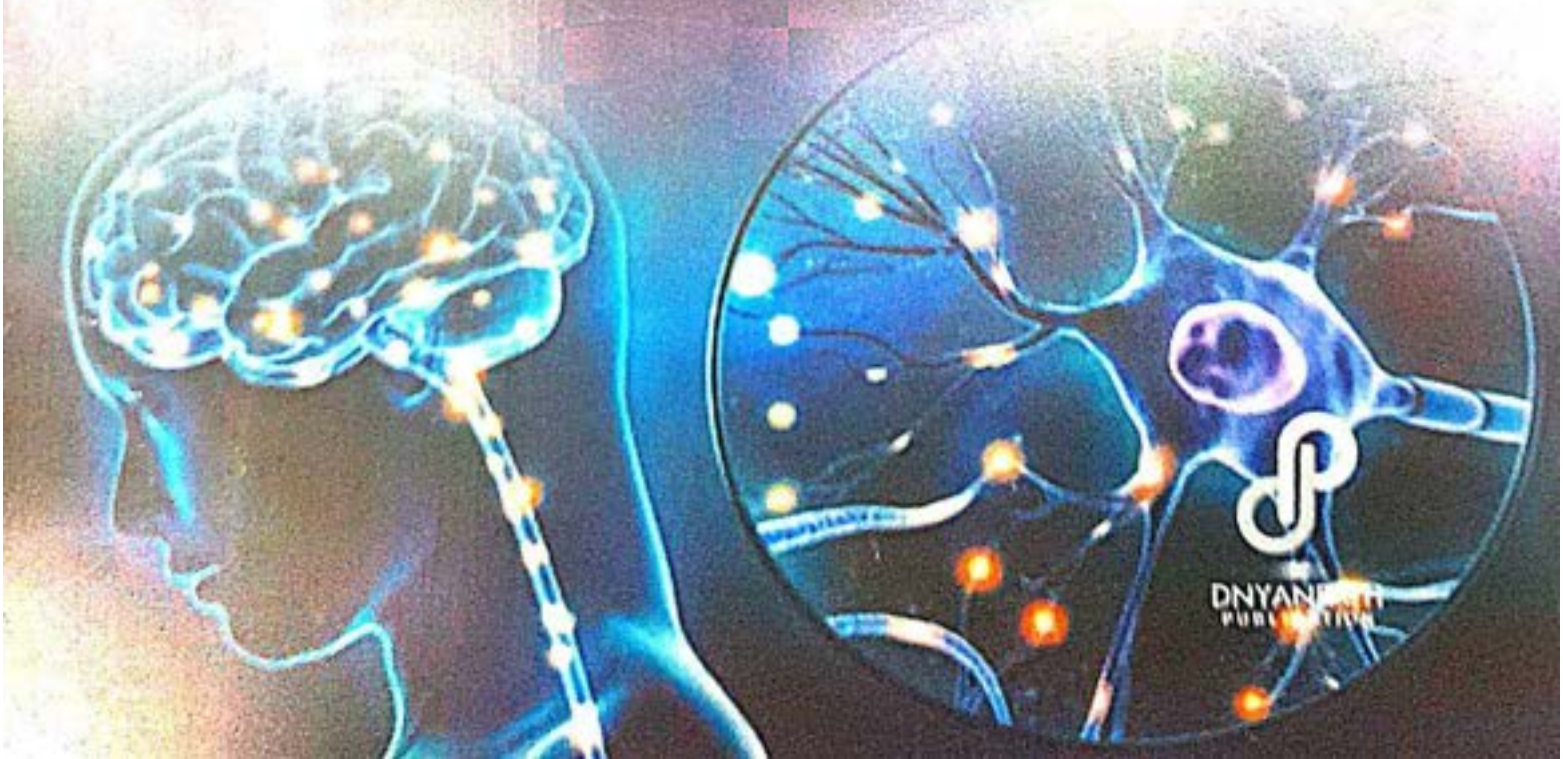

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MCQ's in Zoology for B.Sc., Third Year, Semester - V
(Animal Physiology and Economic Zoology)

Published by the **DnyanPath Publication (INDIA)**
The edition published in 1 June, 2021

ISBN 13 : 978-93-91331-15-3

DnyanPath®
Publication
ISO 9001 : 2015

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www.dnyanpath.org

Reg. Office	: FFS-A, Block C, First Floor, Venus Plaza, Shegaon Naka, V.M.V. Road, Amravati - 444 603 (Maharashtra)
Our Distribution	: Maharashtra, Delhi, Gujrat, Chattisgarh, Telangana, Bihar.
Visit us	: www.dnyanpath.org
Contact us	: dnyanpathpub@gmail.com
Phone	: 08600353712, 09503237806

Printed at Shri Gurudeo Printers, Amravati.
Mahatma Fule Sankul, Shegaon Naka,
V.M.V. Road, Amravati - 444603 (Maharashtra)

Price : ₹ 60/-

As per Sant Gadge Baba Amravati University
Amravati Syllabus

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- **Freshwater system**: monoculture, polyculture, integrated aquaculture, cage culture, pen culture. Fish products and byproducts: Fish liver Oil, Fish body oil, Fish manure, Fish leather

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PUBLICATION

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H. O. D.
Dept. of Zoology
P. Ambedkar B.A.S.C. Comm. College
Amravati

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UNIT - I

Concept of Genes

(A) MULTIPLE CHOICE QUESTIONS

1. **Who is known as the "Father of Genetics"?**
   a) Morgan b) Mendel c) Watson d) Bateson

2. **An exception to Mendel's law is**
   a) Independent assortment b) Linkage
   c) Dominance d) Purity of gametes

3. **Mendel's findings were rediscovered by**
   a) Correns b) De Vries c) Tschermark d) All

4. **Gregor Mendel was:**
   a) An English scientist who carried out research with Charles Darwin
   b) A little known Central European monk
   c) An early 20th century Dutch biologist who carried out genetics research
   d) None of the above

5. **Which of the following statements is true about Mendel?**
   a) His ideas about genetics apply equally to plants and animals
   b) He believed that genetic traits of parents will usually blend in their children
   c) His discoveries concerning genetic inheritance were generally accepted by the scientific community when he published them during the mid 19th century
   d) All of the above

RECENT TRENDS IN COMMERCE, ECONOMICS AND MANAGEMENT

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Prashant

Publisher | Printer:
Rangrao A Patil (Prashant Publications)
3, Pratap Nagar, Dynaneshwar Mandir Road,
Jalgaon 425 001.

Phone | Web | Email:
0257-2235520, 2232800
www.prashantpublication.com
prashantpublication.jal@gmail.com

Edition | ISBN | Price
January, 2022
978-93-92425-78-3
₹ 395/-

Cover Design | Typesetting
Prashant Publications

Prashant Publications *app for e-Books*
e -Books are available online at
www.prashantpublications.com / kopykitab.com

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ग्राहक संबंध आणि माहिती तंत्रज्ञानाचे महत्व विशेष संदर्भ ''बुलडाणा जिल्ह्यातील बँकींग''

अविनाश सीताराम निळे
सहा. प्राध्यापक,
मा.सु.पा. कला, विज्ञान आणि
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सारांश :

प्रस्तुत शोधनिबंधात बुलडाणा जिल्ह्यातील अधिकोषण, ग्राहक संबंध आणि माहिती तंत्रज्ञानाचा वापर यासंबंधी अध्ययन करण्यात आले आलेले असून तत्संबंधी प्रस्तावना, बँक, ग्राहक संबंध व्यवस्थापन व माहिती तंत्रज्ञानाचा अर्थ, संशोधनाची उद्दीष्टे, व्याप्ती, सामग्री संग्रहण पध्दती व विश्लेषण त्यावरुन विविध समर्पक निष्कर्ष काढण्यात आलेले आहेत. त्यानंतर संदर्भग्रंथ सूची सादर करण्यात आलेली आहे.

१) प्रस्तावना :

राष्ट्रीयीकरणानंतर बँकींग क्षेत्राचा विस्तार फार मोठ्या प्रमाणावर करण्यात आला. ठेवी, कर्जे यांचे प्रमाण वाढले परिणामी अगदी आतापर्यंत पैसे काढायचे असोत की ठेवायचे असोत, कर्जे घेणे असो वा धनाकर्ष काढणे असो, तासन् तास ग्राहक रांगेत उभा असायचा. मोठमोठाल्या फाईल्स लेजर बुक्स यांमध्येच भारतीय बँकींग गुरफटलेले होते.

बँक म्हणजे केवळ पैसे सांभाळणारे, कर्ज देणारे माध्यम असे वाटणारा काळ आता इतिहास झाला आहे. आधुनिक विपणन प्रणालींच्या काळात ग्राहकाला सर्वोच्च स्थान प्राप्त झाले आहे. तसेच सेवा विपणन प्रणालींच्या काळात ग्राहकाला सर्वोच्च स्थान प्राप्त झाले आहे. सेवा विपणनाने अधिकतम बँक क्षेत्र काबीज केलेले आहे.

नवनवीन तंत्रज्ञानाच्या वापराने देशाच्या आर्थिक व सामाजिक परिवर्तनात बँका समरसून कार्य करीत आहेत. आज संपूर्ण जगात मंदीची लाट असतांनाही भारतीय बँकांवर त्याचा फारसा परिणाम होत नाही यातच भारतीय रिझर्व्ह बँक आणि भारतीय बँकांच्या कार्यपध्दतीचे गमक दडलेले आहे. त्यासोबतच ग्राहकांचा विश्वास टिकवून, ग्राहक संबंधांचे व्यवस्थापन करुन, ते वृध्दींगत करुन परंपरागत कार्यांबरोबरच ग्राहकांना अत्याधुनिक बँकींग सुविधाही त्या उपलब्ध करुन देताहेत.

भारतात कौटील्याच्या अर्थशास्त्रात व्याजदराबाबत उल्लेख व विवेचन आलेले आहे. बाराव्या शतकाच्या जवळपास फ्रेंच पर्यटक जे. बी. व्हॅटन्स यांनी प्रत्येक गावात सावकारी करणाऱ्या व्यक्ति बँकेचे व्यवसाय करतात असा उल्लेख केला आहे. मात्र ब्रिटीश कालावधीतच खऱ्या बँक व्यवसायास सुरुवात झाली. त्यांनी ईस्ट इंडिया कंपनीचे आर्थिक व्यवहार सुरळीत पार पाडण्यासाठी मुंबई व कोलकाता येथे दलाल केंद्रांची स्थापना केली.

बँकेचा अर्थ :

बँक हा शब्द मुळ इटालियन आहे. इटलीतील सोनार पावत्या लिहिण्यासाठी ज्या बँकांचा उपयोग करीत असत त्याला बँको असे म्हणत असत. त्यावरुनच पुढे बँक हा शब्द रुढ झाला.

भारतीय बँकींग प्रमंडळ कायद्याने बँकेची केलेली व्याख्या पुढील प्रमाणे आहे –

''जनतेद्वारे मागितल्याबरोबर अथवा शोधन करण्यासाठी किंवा धनादेश, ड्राफ्ट किंवा आदेश इत्यादींद्वारे परत करण्याच्या अटींवर जनतेकडून रकमेच्या स्वरुपात ठेवी स्वीकारुन त्या ऋण देण्यासाठी किंवा गुंतवणूक करण्यासाठी करावयाच्या कार्यांचा बँकींगमध्ये समावेश होतो.''

ग्राहक संबंध व्यवस्थापन :

''व्यक्तिगतरित्या ग्राहकांच्या गरजांचा बोध करुन घेणे आणि विविध मार्ग, स्त्रोत यांचा शोध घेऊन त्यांची पूर्ती करणे, या प्रक्रियेला ग्राहक संबंध व्यवस्थापन असे म्हणतात.''

माहिती तंत्रज्ञान :

''माहिती तंत्रज्ञान म्हणजे डीजीटल तंत्रज्ञानाचा वापर करुन माहितीची निर्मिती, साठवणूक, व एकत्रिकरण, प्रक्रिया, माहितीचे वितरण, सादरीकरण, प्रस्तूतीकरण व संदेशवहन होय.'' आधुनिक तंत्रज्ञानामधील सर्वच माध्यमांचा समावेश माहिती तंत्रज्ञानात करण्यात येतो. ज्यात प्रामुख्याने दृक्श्राव्य माध्यमांचा समावेश होतो.

२) संशोधनाची उद्दीष्टे :

१. बुलडाणा जिल्ह्यातील अधिकोषणाची भौगोलिक व्याप्ती अभ्यासणे.
२. ग्राहक संबंध व माहिती तंत्रज्ञानाच्या वापराचे परिणाम अभ्यासणे.
३. राष्ट्रीयीकृत बँकांसमवेत इतर बँकांची संख्यात्मक तुलना करणे.

३) संशोधनाची व्याप्ती :

प्रस्तुत शोधनिबंध बुलडाणा जिल्ह्यातील अधिकोषण क्षेत्राशी निगडीत असून त्यात सन २००५ ते २०१० या मर्यादित कालावधीतील माहितीचे अध्ययन

करण्यात आलेले आहे.

४) सामग्री संग्रहण पध्दती :

१. प्राथमिक समंक : अधिकोषण क्षेत्रातील व्यक्तींशी संपर्क साधून, प्रश्न विचारुन व मुलाखत घेऊन तसेच प्रत्यक्ष निरीक्षणाद्वारे माहिती संकलीत केली गेली आहे.

२. द्वितीय समंक : विषयाशी संबंधीत ग्रंथ, प्रकाशित व अप्रकाशित दस्तऐवज, अहवाल, अभिलेख, हस्तलिखिते, संकेतस्थळे इत्यादींद्वारे माहिती संकलित केली गेली.

५) माहितीचे विश्लेषण :

१. बुलडाणा जिल्ह्यातील बँकींग स्वातंत्र्यानंतर अगदी हळूहळू वाढत गेले आहे. ३१ मार्च १९६६ पर्यंत जिल्ह्यात २६ खेड्यांमध्ये ११ शेड्यूल्ड, २७ सहकारी अशा एकूण ३८ बँका अस्तित्वात होत्या.

पुढील विवरण राष्ट्रीयीकृत बँकांची जिल्ह्यातील सुरुवात संख्या व दिनांक दर्शविते.

	ठिकाण	बँकेचे नाव	शाखेचा सुरुवात दिनांक
	१	२	३
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८	नांदूरा	भारतीय स्टेट बँक	१.७.१९५५
९	शेगाव	भारतीय स्टेट बँक	२२.१२.१९६०

(महाराष्ट्र शासनाचे संकेतस्थळावरील गॅझेटीयरप्रमाणे)

२. **भारतीय रिझर्व्ह बँक आणि माहिती तंत्रज्ञान :** भारतीय बँकींगचे जूने स्वरुप खऱ्या अर्थाने बदलण्यास प्रारंभ झाला तो एम नरसिंहम यांच्या अहवालानंतर! भारतीय बँकांची कार्यक्षमता व स्पर्धात्मकता वाढविणे तसेच त्यांची नफा क्षमता सुधारणे यासाठी संपूर्ण संगणकीकरण शक्य तितक्या लवकर करण्याची शिफारस श्री नरसिंहम यांनी केली आणि गेल्या दहा वर्षातील त्याचे दृष्य परिणाम आता दिसू लागले आहेत. बँकींग मध्ये माहिती तंत्रज्ञानाचा अधिकाधिक वापर व्हावा, ग्राहकांना तत्पर कार्यक्षम सेवा मिळावी, बँकांची स्पर्धात्मकता वाढावी, या हेतूने रिझर्व्ह बँकेने १९७० मध्ये हैदराबाद येथे इन्स्टीट्यूट फॉर डेव्हलपमेंट ॲन्ड रिसर्च इन बँकींग टेक्नॉलॉजी म्हणजेच (IDRBT) या संस्थेची स्थापना केली आहे. या संस्थेने इंडीयन फिनान्सिअल नेटवर्क ही यंत्रणा विकसित केली आहे.

३. स्टेट बँकेच्या संपूर्ण शाखा आणि सेन्टल व महाराष्ट्रीय बँकेच्या ग्रामीण भागातील काही अपवाद वगळता बहूतेक सर्व राष्ट्रीयकृत बँकांच्या शाखा सीबीएस प्रणालीत कार्यरत आहेत.

६) निष्कर्ष :

१. बुलडाणा जिल्ह्यातील अधिकोषांच्या संख्येत स्वातंत्र्यप्राप्तीनंतर लक्षणीय वाढ झाली आहे.

२. जिल्ह्यातील अधिकोषांमध्ये सहकारी अधिकोषांबरोबरच राष्ट्रीयीकृत अधिकोषांचीही संख्या सातत्याने वाढतेच आहे.

३. माहिती तंत्रज्ञानाच्या वापराने ग्राहकांच्या वेळ, श्रम व पैशाची बचत झाली आहे.

४. जिल्ह्यातील सर्वच अधिकोष ग्राहक संबंध व्यवस्थापनासाठी माहिती तंत्रज्ञानाचा वापर करीत आहेत.

५. अधिकोषांच्या संख्यात्मक वाढीमुळे आर्थिक गतीमानता निर्माण होण्यास मदत झाली आहे.

६. ग्राहक संबंध जोपासण्यासाठी सहकारी क्षेत्राचे अपूरे प्रयत्न आहेत.

७. माहिती तंत्रज्ञानाच्या लोकशिक्षणावरील खर्चाचा अभाव अधिकोषण क्षेत्रात दिसून आला आहे.

८. ग्रामीण, बँक विरहीत क्षेत्रात, निमशहरी भागातील लोकांना सुविधांचा अभाव असल्याचे आढळून आले.

९. ग्राहकांना स्थानिक भाषेतील तंत्रज्ञान उपलब्ध नसल्याने अनेक

अडचणींना तोंड द्यावे लागते.

७) संदर्भग्रंथ सूची :

अ) संदर्भग्रंथ :

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३. महाराष्ट्राची आर्थिक पाहणी २००६-२००७.

४. विविध बँकांचे अहवाल

क) मासिके, नियतकालिके :

१. अर्थसंवाद

२. योजना

३. महाराष्ट्र क्रेडीट न्यूज

४. लोकराज्य

५. सहकारी महाराष्ट्र

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Ecology and Environmental Studies for Degree Students

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P.K. Publishers & Distributors
New Delhi-110053

Published by :

P.K. Publishers & Distributors

J-231/1A] Gali No. 14, 4th Pushta,

Kartar Nagar, Delhi-110053

Mobile: 9540483251, 79825512449
E-mail: pkpublication@gmail.com
Website: www.pkpublishers.com

Ecology and Environmental Studies for Degree Students

© Authors

First Edition 2022

ISBN: 978-81-950911-

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PRINTED IN INDIA

Published by P.K Pubishers & Distributors Delhi-110053, Laser Typesetting at Shahabuddin Computers, Delhi. Printed at Sachin Printers, Delhi- 53

Dedicated to

My Loved

Aai and Baba

Late Sheshikala and Asaram Dhale

"For their hard work in Devolving Agriculture practices"

Preface

Working in Post-graduate and undergraduate science institutions for the past twelve years, I've noticed that all undergraduate students are exposed to Environmental Science as a significant subject. It is necessary to have a basic understanding of ecology for this. Students search for these foundations in ecology and environment in many reference books, but they find that in terms of their tests and competitive exams, they waste a lot of time finding for a small topic in a reference book. With this in mind, all undergraduate students are usually given some basic courses in preparation for competitive examinations and various degree-level examinations syllabus framed by UGC and also other University curricula in Science, Engineering, Technology, Commerce, Management, Pharmacy, Arts, etc. Different examinations with this in mind, the book aims to cover elements of the environmental curriculum in a simple manner that students can understand. This is a real attempt at the time of writing to explain how these ecological concepts, which are simply repeated to students, can be given to students at the grassroots and rural level in a simple manner. It was beneficial to have prior experience teaching Plant Ecology, Environmental science and Plant Geography at the undergraduate level in order to know how to communicate with students while presenting concepts. The book's arrangement is simple for students to understand because they have seen personally how the course's contents are changed when teaching the same subject.

This book on Ecology and Environment is very useful for students studying for various competitive examinations such as Talathi, Gramsevak, Police Recruitment, Indian Post, Banks, and other competitive examinations in Maharashtra and various states. This will be a useful guide.The book will be valuable to a large number of students and teachers, as well as industries, which will eventually prove to be important sources of pollution.

The book is divided into fourteen chapters, beginning with the Introduction to ecology, scope and importance of ecology. The biotic environment is made up of a variety of living species that live in and around the physical environment. The biosphere is the portion of the earth where life can be found.These things were also incorporated in order to gain a better understanding of the ecosystem and its surroundings.

The ecosystems unit has been broken down into types and components, each of which has been described with fundamental and recent knowledge and shown with an example graphic for simple comprehension.

The focus of phytosociology is to characterize the vegetative environment of a specific location objectively. Physiognomy, Phenology, Periodicity, Aspection, Stratification, Density, Frequency and Abundance are some of the qualitative and quantitative characteristics of the term.

The various natural resources, both conventional and non-conventional, as well as forest, mineral water, and soil, are reviewed, with an emphasis on the activities that utilise them, causing environmental impact. The talk is well-supported by case examples that are relevant to the topic.Biodiversity and its conservation are examined from a global standpoint, with numerous parameters posing concerns. The need of biodiversity conservation is emphasised, particularly for our country and for a better future.

Fundamentals of Wildlife management with the conservation, preservation and wise management of rare plant and animal populations in their natural environments. The animals and plants that are threatened with extinction due to a variety of circumstances, including man's unparalleled meddling.

Case studies on environmental pollution, its origins, impacts, and control, as well as solid waste and catastrophe management, have been explored, highlighting the role of a human in any such circumstance. Every person on the earth contributes in some way to the prevention or control of pollution, whether small or large. It is possible to get amazing results by first being aware and then changing one's lifestyle.

In this approach, the current book explored significant themes such as bioremediation, its need, and various phytoremediation procedures. The issue of plant succession goes into the stages of vegetation development on bare terrain, rock, or sand.

Detailed information about basic classifications of plants, their water requirements, and the type of soil is provided while describing the Plant adaptation. Details about morphological, anatomical, and physiological changes in plants as they adapt to xerophytic, hydrophytes or mesophilic environments are also provided.

Phytogeography is described in detail, together with the key divisions of plant geography. The elements that influence vegetation distribution are discussed in depth. All of the information for fourteen regulations based on four principles are provided. Different types of vegetation in India and Maharashtra are also listed by zone, with appropriate examples.

The book will prove to be worthwhile reading for even the most inexperienced reader, as well as an excellent resource for students, teachers, and businesses.We would

really welcome constructive reader input, which will be used to improve future issues.

We have taken every effort to make the concepts as clear as possible and we hope that students will profit from using this book. We would like to express our gratitude to everyone who was involved in the preparation of this book, whether directly or indirectly.

We hope that the readers of this book will provide us with feedback in the form of valuable suggestions and constructive criticism so that future editions might be even better. If this book meets the needs of students pursuing higher education in any field, we will be overjoyed.

Dr. D. A. Dhale

Miss. Snehal Dhawale

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1

Introduction to Ecology

1.1 Introduction

Life does not occur in a vacuum. Every living organism is surrounded by material and forces which constitutes it's environment and from which it must derive it's needs, i.e. for survival every plant, animal or microbe requires supply of energy, supply of materials and removal of waste products from it's surround environment. Thus the surround of the living organism is called as an environment, which is essential non-living (abiotic). There are communities living in water, air and soil, which influences the non-living environment and itself, is controlled by environment. "Thus the living organisms and the environment interact with each other and depend upon one another and together constitute an integrated unit called the **ecological system** or **ecosystem**, and the science which deals with the study of ecosystem is called as **environmental biology** or **ecology**.

The word ecology comes from the Greek words **'oikos'** meaning **household** or **home** or **place to live** or **habitation,** and '**logos'** meaning **study**. Thus ecology deals with the organism and it's place to live. Basically organism's place

to live is its environment. So ecology is also called as environmental biology. Depending the organisms under consideration the science of ecology is either **plant ecology** or **animal ecology**.

1.2 Scope and Importance

Present day problems of varied nature in human life are directly or indirectly very much related to ecology as their solution needs an ecological knowledge. Ecology needs an important role in human welfare. This is primarily a field subject and modern ecology is concerned with the functional interdependencies between living thing and their environment.

Man being a dominant organism of most ecosystems controls and modifies environment more extensively than any other organism. There have been significant changes in the natural environment due to man's activities and his rapid progress in colonization, urbanization, industrialization, agriculture, mining, dam construction, transportation and other technologies.

Deforestation has provided land for agriculture and rural inhabitation, rural land has been converted into urban settlement and open spaces are fast vanishing. The mass scale destruction of flora and fauna has disturbed the ecological balance. Much of this environmental destruction is done in the name of ecological development. The pressure of increasing population places a greed burden than ever on finite blanket of life that covers this earth. That blanket is getting torn and fragmented in thousands of places. If man remains unaware, a point can be reached in future where healing capacity may be lost.

Because of many ecological malpractices greedy exploitation of different ecological resources like air, water, space, mineral, vegetation etc. modern human civilization has to face many serious ecological problems such as land

use, pollution, energy crisis, flooding, erosion, deforestation, desertification, pesticide contamination, population growth, crowdedly diseases, etc. If some ecological measures are not applied to human utilization of his environment there may arise several uncontrolled ecological hazards, which may become responsible for the extermination of human race from the earth.

Thus the scope of ecology is quite vast. Ecology plays a significant role in agriculture, Forestry, silviculture, conservation of natural resources, pest control, health management, etc. Ecological knowledge helps in discovering new sources of food (algae), new unpolluting sources of energy (solar energy) and new method of unpolluting pest control such as biological control.

1.3 Sub-divisions of Environment

Each and every organism has its specific surrounding, medium or environment to which it continuously interacts and remains fully adapted. The environment is a collective term including all the conditions in which organisms live, e.g. light, temperature, water, soil, etc. In other words the environment is the sum total of physical (biotic) and biotic conditions influencing the responses of the organism.

The organism's environment may be subdivided into physical (abiotic) and living (biotic) environment. Abiotic environment of all organisms existing on the earth includes three main media, which also act like factors viz. atmosphere (air), lithosphere (soil), and hydrosphere (water) and a variety of physical factors like temperature, light, pH, etc. The biotic environment includes number of living organisms, which inhabit the physical environment. The biosphere is that part of the earth on which life exists

(i) ***Lithosphere (soil):*** The earth is a cold, spherical, solid planet of the solar system. The solid component of the earth is called as lithosphere, which is a sub-

division of the global environment. The lithosphere is multi-layered and includes following three main layers.

(a) ***Core:*** The core is the central fluid or vaporized sphere having diameter of about 2500 km from the center and is possibly composed of nickel-iron.

(b) ***Mantle:*** The mantle extends about 2900 km above the core and it is in a molten state.

(c) ***Crust:*** The crust is the outermost zone of the earth and it is about 8-40 km above the mantle. The crust is very complex and its surface is covered with soil supporting rich and varied biotic communities.

The soil is one of the most important ecological factor (edaphic factor) and also is the most characteristic feature of terrestrial environment. It serves two important and major functions- ii) it holds water and mineral ions that form important inorganic nutrients of the plants and i) it acts as a substratum for the roots to penetrate and anchor plants. It also gives support to the animals of terrestrial ecosystem.

The type of soil determines the type of vegetation in that area.

(ii) ***Hydrosphere (water):*** Liquid water covers about three quarters (73-75%) of the earth's surface either as ocean (salt) water or fresh water of rivers, streams and lakes and forms the hydrosphere. Most of the earth's surface water (99.9%) is in ocean, which contains about 35‰ (ppt) dissolved salts. Of remainder most is fresh water with a salt content less than 1/15-1/5 ‰ found in either lakes or ponds (still water) or in rivers and streams (running water). Fresh water also becomes available to earth in the form of rainfall, snow, dew, etc.

Water is essential to all life. First life was originated in water. It is a vital constituent of the living matter

called protoplasm. It is the only source of hydrogen element and one of the major sources of oxygen in plant metabolism. It carries various mineral ions dissolved in it and supplies them to various plant parts. Being an important constituent of the lithosphere and atmosphere, it is a medium for several different ecosystems called as aquatic ecosystems.

The amount of water brings about temperature changes, changes in humidity or moisture contents of the atmosphere. The water determines the kind and amount of plant metabolism possible in a particular locality. It also determines the type of vegetation in a particular locality, i.e. hydrophytes, xerophytes, mesophytes, etc.

(iii) ***Atmosphere (air):*** The multi-layered gaseous envelope surrounding the planet earth is called as atmosphere. It is an ocean air, which blends into the outer space some 1000 km or so above the earth's surface. The atmosphere maintains its contact with all the major types of environments of earth interacting with them and greatly affecting their ability to support life. The atmosphere is a reservoir of several elements essential to life and it serves many functions including filtering radiant energy from the sun, insulation from heat loss of the earth's surface and stabilization of weather and climate. Several cycles are also present, e.g. carbon cycle, nitrogen cycle, etc. that relate to the movement of matter between an organism and it's environment.

There are five concentric layers within the atmosphere, which can be determined on the basis of temperature and altitude. These include troposphere, stratosphere, mesosphere, thermosphere and exosphere.

(a) ***Troposphere:*** The lowest layer of atmosphere in which man along with other living organisms live,

is called as **troposphere.** It is roughly 10 km thick, being somewhat thicker in the equatorial region than it is at the poles. It contains water vapors, airborne dust particles and several different gases, most of which are fairly constant in their abundance, e.g. N_2 (78%), O_2 (20%), Argon (0.934%), CO_2 (0.0314%) and other gases Ne, He, CH_4, Kr, N_2O, H_2, Xe, and O_3 in trace amounts. The temperature ranges between -55^0C to 20^0C. It is the region of air movement and cloud formation.

(b) ***Stratosphere:*** The stratosphere can be defined as the air mass extending between troposphere and mesosphere. It extends from 10 Km to about 50 Km above the surface of earth and temperature rises from minimum about -55^0C to maximum about 5^0C.

Here water vapor is absent and **ozone (O_3)** is present in significant quantities and there it forms a well-marked layer called **ozonosphere** within the stratosphere. Ozone is formed from oxygen by a photochemical reaction in which the energy from the sun splits apart oxygen molecule (O_2) to form atomic oxygen (O).

$$O_2 + hv \Leftrightarrow 2\ O$$

The atomic oxygen then combines with molecular oxygen to form ozone.

$$O_2 + O \Leftrightarrow O_3$$

Both these reactions are reversible, but the ozone content of stratosphere is fairly constant, because ozone is being produced from oxygen as fast as it is broken down to molecular oxygen and this is because ozone absorbs ultraviolet radiations from the sun, which is transformed into heat and so this region become warmer with increase in distance from the earth.

For the ecosystem the ozone umbrella is of vital importance, because it's absorption of u.v. radiations prevent the later from reaching to the surface of the earth where it would be lethal to most organisms. This ozonosphere also acts like a blanket that reduces the cooling rate of the earth and thus adds to the effect of water vapors.

(c) ***Mesosphere:*** Above stratosphere there is mesosphere extends between 50 km to 80 km. The temperature of this layer ranges between -90^0C to 5^0C.

(d) ***Thermosphere:*** Above mesosphere the thermosphere extends up to 500 km above earth's surface and temperature increases from mesosphere.

(e) ***Exosphere:*** The region of the atmosphere above thermosphere is called as exosphere or outer space, which lacks atoms except He and H_2 and extends up to 32190 km from the planet. The temperature is very high due to solar radiations.

All the layers of atmosphere are important that they form total blanket of air in the biosphere.

(iv) ***Biosphere:*** The biosphere is that part of the earth in which the life exists. The entire world basically can be classified into **abiotic world** and **biotic world.** Abiotic world can be again sub-divided into atmosphere, lithosphere and hydrosphere. To these three ecological components we can add the biotic world-the **biosphere**. **OR** 'the sum of those portions of the hydrosphere, lithosphere and atmosphere into which life penetrates is the **biosphere'.**

Biosphere may be thought as a biochemical system capable of capturing, converting, storing and utilizing the energy of the sun. Approximately 300 thousand species of green plants are primary producers, which utilizes inorganic elements and compounds to synthesis the organic materials of life, i.e. food energy. This synthesized energy is consumed by more than million other species of organisms.

Still other species e.g. bacteria and fungi, accomplish the recycling process by returning plant and animal wastes and residues to inorganic forms, so the process may be renewed.

The entire biosphere has matured and evolved as a self-regulatory system with internal checks and balances. It has developed a remarkable degree of homoeostasis and ecological control within its various components. The biosphere represents a mosaic of different biotic communities from simple to complex, aquatic to terrestrial and tropical to polar. Thus every organism within the biosphere affects the life of every other directly or indirectly.

Thus there all four sub-divisions represent four major global sub-divisions of the environment.

2

Ecosystem

2.1 Introduction

An ecosystem can be thought of as a functional unit of nature in which live species interact with one another as well as the physical surroundings. The size of an ecosystem might range from a small pond to a vast forest or a sea. Many ecologists consider the entire biosphere to be a global ecosystem, made up of all of Earth's local ecosystems. Because this system is too large and complex to study all at once, it is easier to separate it into two main categories: terrestrial and aquatic. Terrestrial ecosystems include forests, grasslands, and deserts, whereas aquatic ecosystems include ponds, lakes, wetlands, rivers, and estuaries. Crop fields and aquariums are both examples of man-made ecosystems.

We'll start by looking at the ecosystem's structure to understand the intake (productivity), energy transfer (food chain/web, nutrient cycle), and output (degradation and energy loss). We'll also look at the interactions that emerge as a result of these energy fluxes inside the system, such as cycles, chains, and webs, and how they interact.

Definition

An ecosystem is defined as a structural and functional unit of biosphere consisting of community of living beings and physical environment, both interacting and exchanging materials between them.

2.2 Components of Ecosystem

The interaction of biotic and abiotic components produces a physical structure that is unique to each ecosystem type. The species composition of an environment is determined by the identification and counting of its plant and animal species. Stratification refers to the vertical distribution of distinct species at various levels. For example, trees are found at the top of a forest's vertical stratum or layer, shrubs are found at the second, and herbs and grasses are found at the bottom.

An ecosystem has two basic components:

(i) Abiotic (non-living), and

(ii) biotic (living organisms).

(i) Abiotic components: Abiotic variables are non-living (chemical and physical) elements of the environment that can have a significant impact on live organisms. They are the ecosystem's non-living components on which all living organisms depend. They refer to all natural inorganic components that play an important part in preserving the ecosystem's balance. The abiotic elements in an ecosystem are not the same across the board. Abiotic variables affect organisms to varying degrees in terms of development, maintenance, and reproduction. It is made up of inorganic components (such as carbon, nitrogen, oxygen, CO2, water, and so on) and dead organic matter (proteins, carbohydrates, lipids, minerals, and so on). Abiotic compounds can be

found in soil, water, and the atmosphere. The abiotic conditions in which organisms carry out life processes are determined by climatic elements such as sun radiation and temperature.

(a) ***Organic substances:*** They are the fundamental components of life systems, and hence serve as a link between biotic and abiotic elements. Proteins, carbohydrates, lipids, adenosine triphosphate (ATP), deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA), chlorophyll, and other compounds are among them.

(b) ***Inorganic substances:*** It consists of three parts: the hydrosphere (water), the lithosphere (minerals such as S, P, K, Mg, Fe, Zn, Cd, Cu, and Na), and the atmosphere (gasses- oxygen, hydrogen, carbon dioxide and nitrogen). The synthesis of organic compounds necessitates the use of certain inorganic chemicals. These elements are obtained by living organisms from abiotic environmental components and returned to the environment after death.

(c) ***Climatic regime:*** Physical elements such as light, temperature, humidity, and atinospheric pressure are included.

Abiotic factors in a terrestrial ecosystem include climate, soil or rock type, altitude, temperature, nutrients, and minerals, whereas dissolved gases, depth of water, salinity, pH of water, light intensity, and other abiotic factors in an aquatic ecosystem include dissolved gases, depth of water, salinity, pH of water, and light intensity.

(ii) ***Biotic components:*** Producers, consumers, and decomposers are all included in biotic components.

(a) ***Producers:*** Producers are autotrophic (=self-sustaining) organisms with chlorophyll

that fix light energy and create their own food (high energy organic compounds) in the presence of simple inorganic abiotic substances. Organic compounds are produced by a variety of photosynthetic bacteria, chemosynthetic bacteria, and photosynthetic protozoa in both terrestrial and aquatic settings, though in very little amounts. The autotrophs in terrestrial ecosystems are mainly rooted plants (herbs, shrubs, and trees), but the major autotrophs in deep aquatic habitats are floating microscopic plants called phytoplankton. The primary producers in shallow waters are rooted plants, or macrophytes. On a unit area (land or water surface) basis, phytoplankton may generate as much food as larger bushes and trees when environmental circumstances are optimal.

(b) ***Consumers or phagotrophs:*** (phago: to eat) are heterotrophic (=other feeding) creatures, primarily mammals, that consume their food by ingesting or swallowing it. Consumers' food is made up of organic chemicals created by other living species. A primary consumer or herbivore (for example, grazing cattle) is a consumer who obtains sustenance from plants. An animal that consumes the flesh of herbivores or other animals is known as a secondary consumer or carnivore.

(c) ***Decomposers or saprotrophs:*** Other heterotrophic species that feed on dead organic matter or detritus (sapro: to decay) include bacteria and fungi. Decomposers, unlike consumers, do not consume their food. Instead, various enzymes from their bodies are released into the dead and decaying plant and animal remains.

Extracellular digestion of the dead material results in the release of simpler inorganic chemicals, which the decomposers then use.

Ecosystems can be physically defined in most cases. Ecosystems do, however, occasionally interact with one another. At a wide spatial scale, all ecosystems are linked by energy flow and material transfer with neighbouring ecosystems, or even with ecosystems far away. Leaves from riverside trees falling into river water, for example, reflect a transfer of energy and material from a terrestrial to an aquatic ecosystem. Birds that dive into water bodies to catch fish make comparable transitions from aquatic to terrestrial environments. Soil debris from a forest environment may be degraded and washed into a nearby stream, or dust blown from a desert ecosystem may settle over another ecosystem thousands of miles distant.

5.3 Types of Ecosystem

All ecosystems of the world can be divided into two major groups namely natural ecosystems and artificial ecosystems.

I. ***Natural ecosystems:*** Ecosystem without human interference is called natural ecosystem. These are developed on the earth through natural processes and operate themselves under natural conditions without any interference by man. It is made of all the plants, animals, and environmental features in an area and has long and complex food webs and have high genetic diversity and it is naturally sustainable.

   Based upon the particular kind of habitat, these are further divided as: terrestrial ecosystems, and aquatic ecosystems.

   1. ***Terrestrial Ecosystems:*** A community of organisms and their environment that occurs

on the land masses of continents and islands is called terrestrial ecosystem. Terrestrial ecosystem operates on the land. It is influenced by environmental factors such as temperature, wind, light, moisture, altitude, latitude and topography.

Based on climate such as temperature, humidity and rainfall, it can be further sub-divided into: i) Forest ecosystem, ii) Grassland ecosystem, iii) Desert ecosystem, iv) Tundra ecosystem.

Grassland ecosystem: This is a type of terrestrial ecosystem. The grasslands ate the areas which comprise mainly of the grasses with a little number of shrubs and trees.

Grasslands are defined mainly by the amount of water that is available. Grasslands share the common climactic characteristic of semi-aridity, Grasslands are distributed throughout the world in temperate and tropical regions. Roughly nineteen percent of earth's surface is occupied by grasslands. Grasslands are not common in India: They are found in Khassi and Nilgiri hills at elevations higher than 2000 ft. They also occur along the river courses in Plains.

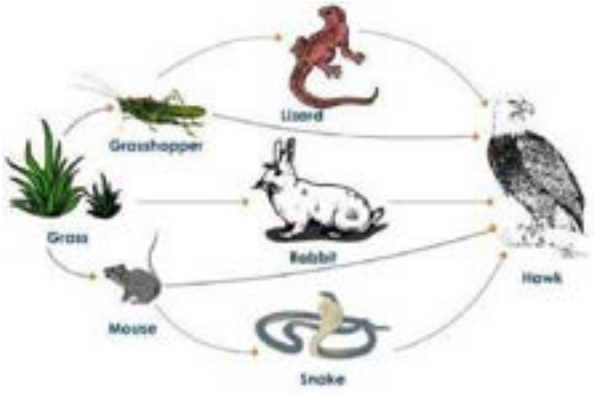


Fig. : Grassland Ecosystem

Grasslands ecosystem include prairies, steppes and savannahs. The area mainly comprises grasses with a little number of trees and shrubs. The main vegetation includes grasses, plants and legumes that belong to the composite family. A lot of grazing animals, insectivores and herbivores inhabit the grasslands.

Components of Grassland Ecosystems

Abiotic components: It is one of the most, crucial abiotic factors 'that shape the ecosystem and includes rainfall) temperature, wind flow, ground moisture' etc. Natural grasslands have a precipitation of 500-900 mm per year; whereas, the deserts have a rainfall of about 250 mm/year, This rainfall maintains the moisture and interacts with the abiotic and biotic factors of the grassland And different inorganic salts, water, nitrates phosphates, sulphates, and air represents the abiotic components.

Biotic components: The biotic factors of the grassland ecosystem includes the autotrophs, and the heterotrophs, that is the producers; primary consumers, secondary consumers and the tertiary consumers.

(a) ***Producers:*** The primary producers include 'the autotrophs that can photosynthesize and includes the grasses, sedged, rushes, cyanobacteria, lichens, mosses, trees etc.

The member of grasses is Indian grass, needle grass, western wheet grass, Indian rice grass and blue glass etc.

(b) ***Consumers:***

(i) ***Primary consumers:*** Different kinds of millipedes, termites and insects, belonging to *Cicindella, Dysdercus, Coccineila* etc. and Deer, sheep, Goats, Cows, Buffaloes are grazing animals which feed on grasses.

(ii) ***Secondary consumers:*** Snake, lizards, birds, jackals etc. are common secondary consumers which feed or primary consumers.

(iii) ***Tertiary consumers:*** These depends up on secondary consumers for their food; Hawks etc. belong to this group.

(c) ***Decomposers:*** Several bacteria, actinomycetes and fungi like *Aspergillus, Mucor, Rhizophus, Cladosporium,* etc. decay the dead organic matter of different forms of higher life.

2. ***Aquatic Ecosystems:*** An aquatic ecosystem is a group of interacting organisms dependent on one another and their water environment for nutrients and shelter. The aquatic ecosystem found in a body of water. It encompasses aquatic flora, fauna and water properties, as well. Depending upon the salt concentration present in the water, aquatic ecosystems can be divided into: a) Fresh water ecosystems; b) Ocean or Marine ecosystems.

(A) ***Fresh water ecosystems:*** Aquatic ecosystems including lakes, rivers and wetlands make up the world's freshwater ecosystems. They are characterized by a lower salt content than that which occurs in marine ecosystems. Freshwater ecosystems are classified according to factors including temperature, the amount of light penetration and the type of vegetation that occurs. Freshwater ecosystems cover 0.78% of the Earth's surface and inhabit 0.009% of its total water. They include lakes and ponds, rivers, streams, springs, and wetlands.

I. ***Pond ecosystem:*** It is a lentic fresh water ecosystem. It contains shallow standing water. The depth of the water varies from few inches

to about 10 ft. or sometimes more. In this, there are communities of organism dependent on each other with the prevailing water environment for their nutrients and survival. Itis a self-sufficient and self-regulating ecosystem. It has a great deal of vegetation which increases with the age of pond. Location, size, depth and substratum of pond influence the biology of pond ecosystem to a very great extent. Like other ecosystems it also consists of two types of components *viz*. Abiotic and Biotic.

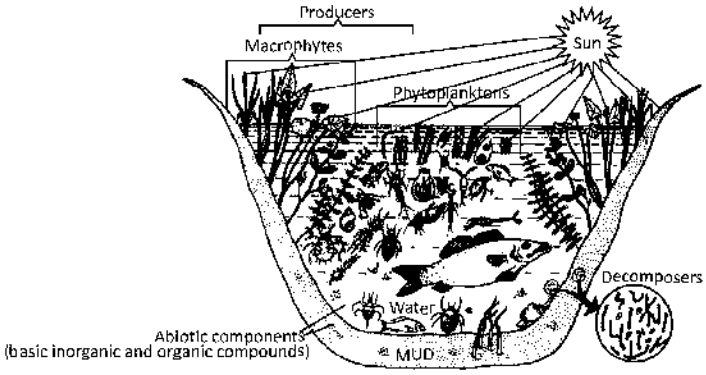


Fig. Pond Ecosystem

(a) ***Abiotic components:*** The abiotic substances of Pond ecosystem are formed as a resu1t of the mixture of some organic and inorganic materials. They have directly or indirectly effect in aquatic organisms of the pond. These includes: Water, Light, Temperature, Pressure, Dissolved Oxygen, CO2, other gases, pH of Water, Turbidity, Dissolved minerals, organic compounds. The important factors of aquatic ecosystem which influence the biota are amily

transparency, Transpiration currents, respiratory gases and decomposers.

(b) ***Biotic components:*** The biotic components of pond ecosystem are the living components which are producers, consumers and decomposers.

(i) ***Producers:*** The producers are the aquatic green plants, which synthesize energy from abiotic substances. The producers of pond ecosystem include phytoplanktons like diatoms, blue green algae (*Nostoc, Oscillotoria*), green algae (*Chlamydomonas, Spirogyra, Zygnema, Volvox, Oedogonium*) and submerged and floating plants like *Pistia, Hydrilla, Chara, Nitella, Eichhornia, Salvinia, Lemna Wolf:fia, Trapa, Marsilea, Typha* etc.

(ii) ***Consumers:*** The consumers are those heterotrophic organisms, which consume producers as food. Their types are:

(a) ***Primary consumers:*** The organisms which on producers are called primary consumers or herbivores. These are *zooplanktons, Mollusks, Beetles, Cyclops,* and *Daphnia* etc.

(b) ***Secondary consumer:*** These are primary carnivores, which depend on herbivorous animals for food. Eg: Insects, fishes, frogs, crab etc.

(c) ***Tertiary consumer:*** These are the second grade of carnivores. They feed upon plants or animals (secondary consumer) therefore are called omnivores e.g: Large fishes and frogs.

(iii) ***Decomposer:*** These breakup the dead bodies and their waste products in pond ecosystem. Most of the decomposers of pond ecosystem are saprophytes but some parasites are also

found. Bacteria, fungi like *Aspergillus, Cladosporium, Rhizopus, Altemaria, Fusarium, Saprolegnia*etc. are decomposers. Generally, the decomposers either live in the soil layer beneath water or in the mud. They act on dead and decayed organic matter of plants and animals and supply raw materials to the producers.

(B) ***Marine/Ocean ecosystems:*** Marine ecosystems are aquatic ecosystems whose waters possess a high salt content. The marine ecosystem is the largest and most stable ecosystem. It covers approximately 70% of the earth's surface. The average depth of sea is about 1000 meters. Temperature varies from 2°C to 32°C. Pressure increases at the rate of one atmosphere per 10 meter of water. Light penetrates only up to 200 meters. Examples include salt marshes, intertidal zones, estuaries, lagoons, mangroves, coral reefs, the deep sea, and the sea floor.

II. ***Artificial ecosystems:*** An artificial ecosystem is a human made system of plants, animals, and people living in an area together with their surroundings. Artificial ecosystems are simple, more fragile, more productive but more vulnerable to failure due to lack of diversity and strong self-regulatory system.Man-made ecosystems, such as agricultural field (croplands), gardens, parks, zoo, aquarium, serpent garden etc, are called artificial ecosystems.

2.4Structure and Function of Ecosystem

Structure

The ecosystem's biotic and abiotic components are physically organised to form a distinct structure. Species composition and stratification are important structural

elements. Some ecosystems (for example, tropical rain forests) have a dense plant canopy and a plethora of biological species. The desert environment, on the other hand, has a low, discontinuous herb cover with fewer species and large bare expanses of soil.

Another technique to show ecosystem structure is through producer-consumer food connections. The existence of different trophic levels in an ecosystem determines the trophic (food) structure of the ecosystem. The first trophic level is made up of producers, followed by herbivores, and finally predators. Trophic structure can be characterised in terms of the amount of live material present in different trophic levels at any given time, referred to as standing crop. The quantity or biomass of organisms per unit area is a standard measure of the standing crop. A species' biomass can be expressed in terms of fresh or dry weight. To eliminate weight changes owing to seasonal moisture variability in biomass, dry weight is chosen.

Nutrients required for live species' growth accumulate in biomass and abiotic components such as soil. The standing state refers to the amount of nutrients such as nitrogen, phosphorus, and calcium in the soil at any one time. Nutrient standing states differ from one habitat to the next, and even within the same ecosystem, depending on the season.

Function

Ecosystems have a built-in tendency to survive. This is made feasible by the structural components' various roles (actions carried out to ensure persistence). Green leaves, for example, serve as food production sites, and roots take nutrients from the soil. Herbivores provide as food for carnivores by consuming a portion of the plant's produce. Decomposers are responsible for breaking down complex organic resources into simpler inorganic compounds that

producers can utilise. These functions are carried out by precisely balanced and controlled processes in the ecosystem. Photosynthesis, for example, is important in food production, while decomposition results in the release of nutrients contained in organic matter.

Understanding the interrelationships of ecosystem structure and function requires an understanding of the rates at which different processes occur in ecosystems. The ecosystem's most important functioning aspects are:

(i) Productivity and energy flow;
(ii) Nutrient cycling; and
(iii) Development and stabilization.

2.5 Productivity

Productivity refers to the rate at which biomass is produced. There are two types of productivity in ecosystems: primary and secondary. The pace at which producers catch sunlight for the production of energy-rich organic compounds through photosynthesis is referred to as primary productivity. Productivity is measured in terms of dry matter produced or energy captured per unit area of land and per unit time. It's usually measured in grams per square meter per year or in kilocalories per square meter per year. As a result, different ecosystems' productivity can be simply compared. There are two types of primary productivity: gross and net. Gross primary production refers to the total amount of organic matter (biomass) produced. While the energy collection process is taking place in the green tissues, they, as well as other tissues, are respiring photosynthesis. Net primary productivity refers to the energy or biomass left over after farmers' respiration needs have been met, as shown below.

Net productivity = Gross productivity – respiration

Plant biomass accumulates as a result of net primary productivity, providing food for herbivores and

decomposers. The rate at which dietary energy is digested at the trophic level of consumers is referred to as secondary productivity. It is important to remember that consumers' food is produced by primary producers, and secondary productivity represents just the use of this food in the creation of consumer biomass.

Primary productivity is determined by the photosynthetic capability of producers as well as the current environmental circumstances, such as sun radiation, temperature, and soil moisture. Primary productivity in tropical climates can be sustained throughout the year if appropriate soil moisture is available. The chilly environment and a short snow-free growing season in temperate zones, on the other hand, severely limit primary productivity.

Productivity is often limited in aquatic habitats by light, which diminishes with increasing water depth. Nutrients are generally scarce in deep waters, reducing productivity. In marine ecosystems, nitrogen is recognised as the most critical nutrient limiting production.

2.6 Decomposition

While synthesis and construction processes are vital, decomposition, or the breakdown of complex organic matter by decomposers into inorganic raw materials like as carbon dioxide, water, and other nutrients, is also crucial. The upper layer of soil is where the ecosystem's breakdown processes take place.

Detritus is made up of dead plant components and animal leftovers. Aboveground detritus is made up of dried plant parts such as leaves, bark, flowers, and animal leftovers such as faecal matter that fall to the ground (also known as litter fall). Dead roots make up the majority of the belowground debris (also called root detritus). Decomposing debris loses weight over time, eventually disappearing completely. Large amounts of partially

digested organic matter will accumulate in the ecosystem if decomposition is slowed or interrupted.

Decomposition Processes

Decomposition entails a number of steps. Detritus fragmentation, leaching, and catabolism are examples of these processes.

(i) Detritus fragmentation, primarily due to the action of detritivores (detritus-feeding invertebrates), causes it to break down into smaller particles. When detritus passes through the digestive tracts of animals, it is pulverised. The surface area of debris particles is considerably expanded as a result of fragmentation.

(ii) Due to leaching action, water percolating through soil removes soluble compounds (e.g., sugars, various nutrients) from fragmented detritus.

(iii) Catabolism, or the enzymatic conversion of decaying detritus to simpler compounds and inorganic substances, is carried out by extracellular enzymes secreted by bacteria and fungi. It's vital to note that all three decomposition processes work on the debris at the same time.

Decomposition in the soil results in humification and mineralisation. Humification results in the accumulation of humus, a dark-colored amorphous substance. Humus is very resistant to microbial action and decomposes at a glacial pace. It acts as a nutrient storage area. Inorganic substances (e.g., CO_2, H_2O) and accessible nutrients (NH_4^+, Ca^{++}, Mg^{++}, K^+, etc.) are released in the soil as a result of mineralisation.

Soil nutrients become entangled with the biomass of microorganisms under specific conditions, making them temporarily unavailable to other species. Nutrient immobilisation is the process of nutrient uptake in live

microorganisms. Nutrients are immobilised for varying amounts of time before being mineralized once microorganisms die. The nutrients are not washed out of the ecosystem because of this immobilisation.

2.7 Energy Flow

The ecosystem's primary purpose is energy flow. Two basic thermodynamic rules govern the storage and expenditure of energy in the environment. Energy from sunlight can be converted into food and heat, according to the first rule of thermodynamics (which states that energy is never generated nor destroyed, but can be moved from one component to another or transformed from one condition to another). The second law of thermodynamics states that no energy change happens spontaneously unless energy is degraded or dissipated from a concentrated to a dispersed state. As a result, in an ecosystem, the movement of food energy from one organism to another results in deterioration and the loss of a significant portion of the food energy as heat due to metabolic activities, with only a small percentage being stored in living tissues or biomass. Heat energy is extensively spread, whereas food energy is concentrated.

Examining the relationship between incident radiant energy and the energy retained by producers in the food they create is beneficial. Producers can absorb only visible light, also known as photosynthetically active radiation (PAR), which transports about half of the energy of total incident solar radiation. The energy obtained can be calculated by multiplying the projected productivity by the calorific value (energy content per unit weight) of biomass. The calorific value is calculated by burning a known weight of dry biomass in an oxygen-free bomb calorimeter and measuring the heat released.

Only around 1-5 percent of incident light, or 2-10 percent of PAR, is actually caught by the photosynthetic process (gross primary production) under ideal climatic conditions, and the rest is dissipated. Because the simultaneous respiratory activities consume energy and consume a portion of the photosynthetic gain, the net energy capture (net primary productivity) is reduced to just 0.8-4 percent of incoming total light, or 1.6-8 percent of PAR. Other trophic levels can only use the energy captured in producer net productivity.

(A) ***Food Chain:*** The transfer of food energy from the producers, through a series .of organisms with repeated eating and being eaten, is known as food chain. A food chain is a linear nutritional sequence of organisms through which nutrients and energy pass as one organism eats another. A food chain consists of producers (green plants), consumers (animals and man) and decomposers (microorganisms).

The producers, consumers and decomposers form various steps of food chain. These various step of food chain are called trophic level. Owing to eating and being eaten, the energy is transferred from one trophic level to another level. This transfer of energy from one trophic level to another is called energy flow. Thus, food chain is a kind of series of different organisms through which flow of energy take place in the ecosystem. Food chain represents the structure and functioning of energy. If food chain is shorter, it ensures greater availability of energy, while food chain is longer; more energy is dispersed as heat.

Types of Food Chain

The food chains are of two types, namely grazing food chain and detritus food chain.

(i) ***Grazing food chain:*** It type of food chain, starts from the living green plants, which are producers. The

producers are grazed by herbivorous animals which are further eaten by carnivores. Ecosystems with such type of food chain are directly dependent on an influx of solar radiation and the movement of this captured energy to herbivores. Most of the ecosystems (terrestrial and aquatic) in nature follow this type of food chain. The examples, of grazing food chain are:

Aquatic Ecosystem

The phytoplanktons → zooplanktons → Fish → Snakes

Terrestrial Ecosystem

(i) Grasses → rabbit → Fox → Lion
(ii) Grasses → Grasshopper → Lizard → Hawk
(iii) Plants → Mouse → Snake → Hawk
(iv) Plants → Goat → Fox → Lion

(ii) ***Detritus food chain:*** Disintegrated dead bodies of plants is called detritus. The detritus is eaten by many minuteorganisms called detrivores.This food chain starts from the dead organic matter or other such wastes; further, this material is eaten by the animal and later this animal gets eaten by another animal in the soil. The chain keeps on going untilthe organic matter is decomposed by microbes. The food chain helps in fixing inorganic nutrients. Such ecosystems are thus less dependent on direct solar energy. These depend chiefly on the influx of organic matter produced in another system. A large amount of energy flows through the detritus food chain and it ensures maximum utilization and minimum wastage of the available material.

The organisms of the detritus food chain include members of many different species of animals and plants,

such as algae, bacteria, slime molds, fungi, protozoa, insects, mites, crustaceans, centipedes, mollusks, worms, sea cucumbers and even some vertebrates.

(i) Dead plants - centipede - robin

(ii) Decayed plants - worms - birds -eagle

(iii) Leaves –caterpillar - birds - snake

(B) ***Food Web:*** In an ecosystem the various food chains are interconnected with each other to form a network called food web. The interlocking of many food chains is called food web. There are many food chains in an ecosystem but simple food chains are very rare in nature. This is because each organism may obtain food from more than one trophic level. In other words, one organism forms food for more than one organism of the higher trophic level. Green plants areeaten up by several types of herbivores (birds, insects and mammals). Herbivores may be consumed by different predators (carnivores). This results in the formation of interlocking pattern of foodchains, which is called food web. Food web represents feeding relationships within a community.

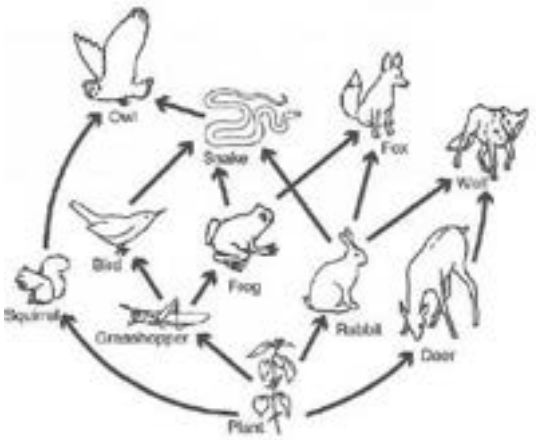


Fig: Food Web

2.8 Ecological Pyramids

At different trophic levels, standing crop (either number of individuals or biomass) or energy fixed per unit area can be used to depict trophic structure. The trophic structure is graphically represented by creating ecological pyramids, with the bottom, middle, and top tiers displaying the parameter values for producers, herbivores, and predators in the ecosystem. The number of individuals (pyramid of numbers), dry weight (pyramid of biomass), or rate of energy flow (pyramid of energy) at successive trophic levels are all common criteria used to build ecological pyramids.

The number and biomass pyramids in most ecosystems are upright, meaning that producers outnumber and exceed herbivores, while herbivores outnumber and outweigh carnivores. However, in some ecosystems, the number pyramid (for example, in tree-dominated ecosystems) and the biomass pyramid (for example, in deep water bodies) may appear inverted. Many little insects can be found on a single tree, and in oceans, the total weight of many small short-lived phytoplankton creatures is often exceeded by the combined weight of massive, long-lived fish at any particular time. The energy pyramid, on the other hand, is always erect. The energy pyramid, which indicates primarily the rate of food production, is the most reflective of the functional qualities among the three types of ecological pyramids. It emphasises that total energy flow at each trophic level constantly declines when compared to the previous trophic level (explanation: herbivore trophic level has lower energy flow than producer trophic level, and so on).

2.9 Major Biomes

The life form of the climax vegetation clearly distinguishes the regional biotic units, or biomes. However, the biome comprises all linked developing and modified

communities that occur within the same climatic region, in addition to the climax community. Within a wide area of mature forest, for example, a forest biome may comprise young successional forests and open grass-dominated regions.

Forest, grassland/savanna, and desert biomes have different ecological characteristics.

(A) ***Forest Biomes:*** Forest biomes' typical vegetation is dominated by densely growing trees with a closed, or almost closed, canopy cover. A vast range of forest kinds can be found around the world, depending on the climate. In terms of structure, productivity, and nutrient cycling, forests in colder temperate zones differ from tropical forests. As one travels north from the equator to the arctic region in the northern hemisphere, one encounters successive belts of tropical, temperate deciduous, and temperate coniferous forest biomes. The tropical rain forest biome is found in warm, high-rainfall regions of the planet (near the equator) with abundant soil water throughout the year. The tropical deciduous forest biome, on the other hand, stretches to the further reaches of the tropics, with lower seasonal rainfall and year-round soil drought. The temperate forest biomes found in the mid-latitudes (40-60° N lat.) are divided into two groups, each dominated by broad-leaf deciduous or needle-leaf evergreen species. The climate in the temperate broad-leaf forest biome is warm and cool, but the climate in the temperate needle-leaf coniferous forest biome is frigid, with snow covering the ground for 5-6 months.

Major forest biomes in India are:

(i) Tropical rain forest biome;

(ii) Tropical deciduous forest biome;

(iii) Temperate broad-leaf forest biome; and

(iv) Temperate needle-leaf or coniferous forest biome.

(i) ***Tropical Rain Forests:*** Tropical rain forests are sparsely scattered in India, primarily near the Western Ghats and in the north-eastern Himalayas. The most frequent tree species in Indian rain forests are Dipterocarpus and Hopea. A typical tropical rain forest in the Western Ghats is seen in Figure 18.8. These evergreen tropical rain forests, which have the highest standing crop biomass of any biome, have a canopy structure of 30-40 metres tall, with 4-5 layers formed by different plant species. Some of the main trees have an umbrella-like canopy that extends above the forest's broad canopy. Buttresses (swollen stem bases), big leaves with drip tips, and year-round leaf fall are all features of many tree species. In these woodlands, woody climbers and epiphytes abound. Rainforest soils are extensively leached and have a low base concentration. In rain forests, large amounts of nutrients are stored in tall plants, whereas soil nutrient storage is limited.

(ii) ***Tropical Deciduous Forests:*** Tropical deciduous forests can be found in plains and low hilly areas throughout our country's northern and southern regions. The deciduous woodlands give way to thorn forests as you travel northwest. Figure 18.9 depicts a view of a tropical deciduous forest. In deciduous forests, sal (*Shorea robusta*) and teak (*Tectona grandis*) are the most common tree species. Tendu (*Diospyros melanoxylon*), chiraunji (*Buchanania lanzan*), and khair (*Acacia catechu*) are other

valuable species. These forests are low in stature (10-20 m) and have a variety of seasonal characteristics. The woodland is rich green with dense vegetation and a thick herbaceous cover during the rainy season. However, most tree species lose their leaves before summer arrives, leaving the forest mostly leafless and the herbaceous layer dried out. Many tree species have thick barks that provide protection against fires. Because of less leaching, the soil in deciduous forests is richer in nutrients.

(iii) ***Temperate Broad-leaf Forests:*** In the western Himalaya, temperate broad-leaf forests are mostly found between 1500 and 2400 metres above sea level. In temperate broad-leaf woods, several species of oak (Quercus) predominate. Banj oak (*Quercus leucotrichophora*), khrsn oak (*Quercus semecarpifolia*), tilonaj oak (*Quercus floribunda*), and rianj oak are among them (*Q. lanuginose*). In the Himalayan region, all oak species are evergreen. The leaf fall of Himalayan evergreen oaks peaks in the summer, although they never get leafless. These four layer forests are between 25 and 30 metres tall. The forest canopy is dense, the herbaceous layer is underdeveloped, and grasses are scarce. Epiphytic flora is abundant in oak woodlands.

(iv) ***Temperate Needle-leaf or Coniferous Forests:*** The temperate needle-leaf coniferous woods of the Himalaya range in altitude from 1700 to 3000 metres. Pine (*Pinus wallichiana*), deodar (*Cedrus deodara*), cypress (*Cupressus torulosa*), spruce (*Picea smithiana*), and silver fir (*Picea smithiana*) are among the economically

valuable gymnospermous trees found in temperate needle-leaf or coniferous forests (Abies pindrow). Coniferous forests are taller (30-35 m) and have a canopy of long needle-like leaves that are evergreen. Needles leaves may persist on the canopy for 2-7 years in different species, ensuring that the canopy is always green. The canopy of several species is fashioned like a cone.

(B) Grassland and Savanna Biomes

(i) Grassland: Treeless herbaceous plant cover dominates grassland environments, which are dominated by a large diversity of grass species (family, Poaceae). Several herbaceous dicotyledonous species, particularly legumes, are associated with grasses and play a key role in nitrogen economy. The enormous "prairie" in North America and the "Steppe" in Russia are two of the most well-known grassland biomes. The rainfall in grasslands is too low to support a forest, yet it is far more than in deserts.

Grazing by big herbivores and fire are important factors in sustaining grassland dominance and preventing the invasion of woody plants. Grasse are classified as sod-formers or bunch grasses based on their morphology. Sod-formers generate a solid mat of grass cover, whereas bunch grasses grow in discrete bunches. The height of grassland vegetation varies greatly, ranging from a few centimeters in arid areas to over one and a half meters in humid areas. The shoot biomass can range from roughly 50 to 1000 g m^{-2} depending on the height range. The most striking feature of grassland structure is its

enormous root system, which extends deep into the soil strata. The amount of rainfall has a direct relationship with primary productivity in grassland.

(ii) ***Savanna:*** A well-developed grass cover, mixed with scattered shrubs or small trees, is commonly referred to as a savanna. Woody species can grow to be anywhere between 1 and 8 meters tall. Savannas can be found in central and southern Africa, India, northern and eastern South Africa, and northern Australia. Although some savannas are natural, the majority are man-made. All savannas in India are thought to have evolved from the deterioration of original tropical forests, and have been maintained in their current state for generations through grazing and fire.

Dichanthium, Sehima, Phragmites, Saccharum, Cenchrus, Imperata, and Lasiurus are the most common grasses in Indian savannas. In most cases, the woody species in a savanna are remnants of the original forest from which the savanna evolved. Prosopis, Zizyphus, Capparis, Acacia, Butea, and other savanna trees and shrubs include Prosopis, Zizyphus, Capparis, Acacia, Butea, and others.

Savannas are found in tropical places with a climate that is extremely seasonal, with distinct wet and dry seasons. The species composition and productivity of savannas are determined by the availability of soil moisture. Fire, soil nutrients, and herbivores can all influence the effect of soil moisture change. The quantity of grass species capable of C4 photosynthetic capability is an important feature of tropical savannas. As you may be aware, these species can maintain high levels of primary productivity even when soil moisture is scarce. Although grasses have a well-developed root system in the upper 30 cm soil strata, woody plants typically send their roots deeper.

(C) ***Desert Biome:*** Moisture scarcity has been present in the desert ecosystem for a long time. True deserts, with less than 120 mm annual rainfall, and extreme deserts, with less than 70 mm yr–1 rainfall, are two types of deserts. Deserts are divided into two types based on their temperature: hot deserts and cold deserts. Nonetheless, evaporation from the soil always exceeds rainfall by 7 to 50 times in desert biomes. In both the northern and southern hemispheres, the majority of deserts are found between 15° and 35° latitudes, between the Tropics of Cancer and Capricorn. The majority of deserts have hot or hotter days and chilly nights. Deserts have low amounts of biomass and primary productivity.

Three life forms dominate the desert vegetation: I ephemeral annual herbs that grow only when enough moisture is available, (ii) typical succulent xerophytes like cacti that store water, and (iii) shrubs and small trees like Prosopis, Salvadora, and Tamarix, which have deep tap roots that can reach the water table. Cenchrus is a desert grass that grows in abundance. Tall succulents, primarily cactus, can be seen projecting above the general canopy in some deserts.

3

Phytosociology (Community Ecology)

3.1 Introduction

All living organisms of an ecosystem form a single biotic component-the **community.** All the organisms of a community live together share some habitat and influence each other's life directly or indirectly. Various vital life processes such as growth, nutrition, reproduction and distribution depends very much upon the interactions between the individuals of the same species (**intra-specific interactions**) or between those of different species (**inter-specific interactions**). Pollination, fruit and seed dispersal, symbiosis, grazing, predation, parasitism, competition, etc. are some examples of inter-specific interactions.

Definition

Community ecology deals with the ecology of the groups of different kinds of populations in the area. The study of plant community is known as **phytosociology.**

The structural characteristics of a plant community can be divided into **qualitative** and **quantitative,** which can be directly observed in the field.

3.2 Qualitative Characters

The major qualitative characters of a plant community are as follows,

(i) ***Physiognomy (external appearance):*** Physiognomy is the general appearance of the plant community, which is determined by the growth forms of dominant plant species. It does not emphasize any particular species or individual. Cain and Castro (1959) defined physiognomy as 'the form and structure of vegetation that results from the life form of dominant species'. Such a characteristics appearance can be expressed by single term, e.g. the term forest, grassland, desert describe the physiognomy of various communities.

(ii) ***Phenology:*** Phenology is the scientific study of seasonal change, i.e. the periodic phenomenon of organisms in relation to their climate. Different species have different periods of seed germination, vegetative growth, flowering & fruiting, leaf fall, seed & fruit dispersal, death, etc. Such data of individual species are recorded. A study of date and time of these events is phenology. In other words, phenology is the calendar of events in the life history of plant. Thus the phenology of different species may differ from each other and in a community we find species with different phenology changing the composition of community.

(ii) ***Periodicity:*** This includes the study of various vital processes such as photosynthesis, growth, pollination, reproductive process, development of leaves, flowers, germination of shoots and elongation of shoots in the various seasons of the year in the dominant species of a community. This entire phenomenon depends upon the inheritance and various physiological and environmental factors

operating upon a particular species. Thus periodicity refers to the regular seasonal occurrence of various processes and their manifestation in nature.

(iv) ***Aspection:*** Aspection refers to the appearance of the community as a whole at different seasons, as its appearance in rainy season, summer, spring or winter season.

(v) ***Stratification:*** It has been observed in natural forest community that the trees, shrubs and herbs appear to be differentiated into several storeys, layers or strata. There appear to be well defined strata for the tallest trees, which tend to stand singly or in groups above more or less continued canopy, below this may be successively small trees, shrubs and herbaceous layers. These several strata are composed each of a separate group of species. This phenomenon in a forest community is called as **stratification** (vertical stratification).

Stratification in a forest community is the most complicated where as many as five vertical strata may be recognized. These are as follows,

(a) ***Subterranean strata:*** It is the portion of forest soil in which roots of large and small trees penetrates for anchorage and also for obtaining minerals and water from soil. This stratum is rich in humus with roots of plants, soil fungus, bacteria, protozoan, etc.

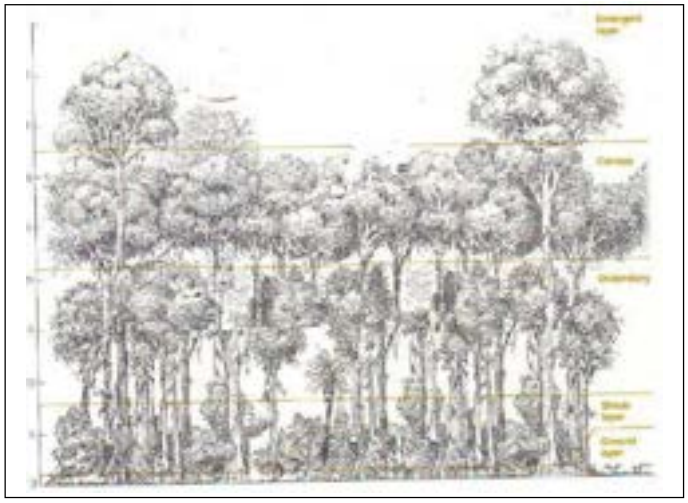
(b) ***Ground strata or forest floor:*** It is forest floor, which consist of dead organic matter. This is a region of decomposition, because many decomposers like fungi, bacteria are present, which decomposes fallen or dead parts of plants and animals and thus decaying occurs.

(c) ***Herbaceous strata:*** It consists of upper portion of grasses and herbs.

(d) ***Shrub strata:*** It consists of shrubs and small trees.

(e) ***Tree strata:*** It consists of the over canopy strata of tall trees.

Various plants in each stratum are adapted to that particular set of local conditions and plants of one layer modify the environment, which is suitable for species in another layer of the community. Thus stratification is the result of interdependencies of species, as for example, lianas and epiphytes grow on other plants.



3.3 Quantitative Characters

These include characters such as density, abundance and frequency.

(i) ***Density:*** Density represents the numerical strength of a species in a community or it isthe number of individuals of a species per unit area per unit time. The density of various species in a community varies in time and space and it affects the community structure. Density gives an idea of competition. If

density is more, it means that there is more degree of competition between the individuals of same species. It is calculated as follows.

$$\text{Density} = \frac{\text{Total number of individuals of a species in all the sampling unit}}{\text{Total number of sampling units studied}}$$

(ii) ***Abundance:*** This is the study of number of individuals of any species per sampling units of occurrence. It can be calculated as follows.

$$\text{Abundance} = \frac{\text{Total number of individuals of a species in all the sampling unit}}{\text{Total number of sampling units in which species occur}}$$

Abundance does not give a total picture or idea of the numerical strength of the species in an area, because only the sampling units of occurrence are taken into consideration.

(ii) ***Frequency:*** Frequency is expressed as the percentage occurrence of individuals of a species in a number of sampling units or observations. Frequency can be defined as the chance or probability of individual of a species to be present in random observations, e.g. if a species occurs in a 5 sampling units out of total 20 sampling units studied, then it's frequency is 25% and it is called as percentage frequency. It gives an idea of the pattern of distribution of a species in a community. Frequency can be calculated as follows,

$$\%\ \text{Frequency} = \frac{\text{Total number of sampling units in which species occur}}{\text{Total number of sampling units studied}} \times 100$$

3.4 Raunkiaer's Frequency Law and Frequency Diagram

After determining the percentage frequency of various species recorded, these are distributed among Raunkiaer's (1934) five frequency classes A, B, C, D and E depending upon their percentage frequency as follows.

% Frequency	Frequency class
0%-20%	A
21%-40%	B
41%-60%	C
61%-80%	D
81%-100%	E

Raunkiaer further proposed a '**Law of frequency**', which states that 'the percentage of species falling under five classes of frequency will be in order

$$A > B > C \leq D < E$$

On the basis of the average of a very large number of observations, Raunkiaer prepared a **'normal frequency diagram'** in which class A includes 53% species, class B includes 14%, class C includes 9%, class D includes 8% and class E includes 16% of the total species. Frequency distribution also varies greatly with the species diversity.

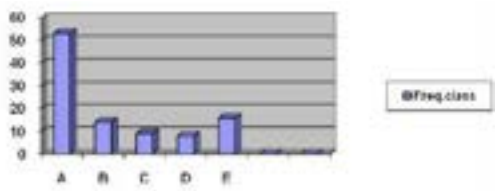


Chart: Raunkier's normal frequency diagram-Histogram showing % of species falling under each frequency class.

4

Environmental Productivity

4.1 Introduction and Concept

Great importance is being led on researches concerning the rate of storage energy by green plants in diverse ecosystems. It is a well-known fact that the ultimate source of all energy needed by the organisms is the sun and only the photosynthetic organisms are capable of trapping solar energy. The demand of ever increasing population on food resources is tremendous. In the process of meeting this demand most of the ecosystems are at present influenced or maintained by man. Production ecology deals with production process and productivity by green plants, herbivores and carnivores in different ecosystems. This type of study is of fundamental importance in the management of resources. The aim of the **International Biological Programme (IBP) & human welfare** is towards and extensive investigation of productivity of terrestrial, fresh water and marine ecosystems and their conservation on global basis.

4.2 Gross and Net Productivity

The productivity of an ecosystem is the rate at which solar energy is fixed by the vegetation of an ecosystem. The energy is generally measured in terms of units of energy (calories) produced in a unit area (usually one square meter) per unit time (one year). The productivity is variable in different ecosystems.

All the energy that the plant actually fixes results in the formation of sugar. Conversely, all the sugar produced in the leaves of green plants is derived from CO_2 and H_2O, which have been combined by the solar energy. Thus energy incorporated into living tissue may be calculated either in terms of light energy utilized or in terms of sugar produced. Because all the energy used by the plants is converted into chemical energy, it should theoretically be possible to determine the entire energy uptake of plants by measuring the total amount of sugar produced. This quantity is termed **gross primary productivity** or **gross productivity.** The plants in respiration utilize a part of this gross production. The difference between the rate of real photosynthesis and the rate of respiration represents the real gain to the plant. So if we measure the total organic material actually present in the plant (i.e. biomass0 then indirectly we will measure gross primary production less the respiration and this is called **net primary production** or **primary production**. This is also equal to the apparent rate of photosynthesis and represents the food energy that is theoretically available to the heterotrophic components of the ecosystem through the primary consumers, i.e. herbivores. The gross production can also be expressed as,

$$Pg = Pn + R$$

Where Pg = gross productivity

Pn = net productivity

R = respiration or energy to do the work

If gross production equals respiration (Pg = R) no change in energy contents results. But when Pg is less than R (Pg < R) biomass decreases and when Pg is greater than R (Pg >R), there is an accumulation of biomass.

Primary and Secondary Productivity

(i) ***Primary productivity:*** The amounts of photosynthates produced by green plants are called as **primary productivity** or **primary production.** It is associated with the producers which are autotrophic, most of which are photosynthetic. These are the green plants, higher plants, phytoplanktons and photosynthetic bacteria. It can be defined as 'the rate at which radiant energy is stored by photosynthetic activity of producers'. Primary productivity is further distinguished as,

(a) ***Gross primary productivity:*** It is the total rate of photosynthesis including the organic matter used up in respiration during the measurement period (i.e. Pg= Pn + R)

(b) ***Net primary productivity:*** It is the rate of storage of organic matter in plant tissues excess of the respiratory utilization by plants during measurement period, (i.e. Pn = Pg + R).

(ii) ***Secondary productivity:*** It refers to the consumers or heterotrophs. The potential energy resulting from primary production furnishes the energy required by other trophic levels in an ecosystem. Some energy in the form of food is consumed by herbivores, which may be eaten by carnivores. So the rates of energy storage at consumer levels are referred to as **secondary productivities**. The unassimilated material leaves the animals body as waste material to serve as an energy source for other organisms (detritus feeders or saprotrophs). Assimilated

energy is used by these consumer these species for various processes such as respiration, excretion and secretion. The resultant amounts of energy stored in the tissues of heterotrophs is termed **net secondary production.** The **gross secondary production** is equivalent to the total plant material ingested by the herbivore less the material lost at faeces, i.e. it is the food that actually passes through the walls of the gut.

Thus the heterotrophic organisms at each step of food chain acts both, as consumer and secondary producer for the next trophic level till the top carnivore level is reached. Among the heterotrophs it is the net and not the gross productivity that is of importance.

4.3 Energy Flow in an Ecosystem (Box and Pipe Model)

Green plants are the only organisms which fix light energy in the form of food energy. Without them the light energy is converted into heat energy and cannot be used by the living organisms as such. The life of all heterotrophic organisms depends on the energy entrapped by green plants in their food molecules. That is why the green plants are called as primary producers.

The fixation of solar energy by the photosynthetic plants and it's utilization in the form of food by the living organism obey the two fundamental laws of thermodynamics. According to the first law, *energy cannot be created or destroyed but may be transformed from one form into another form* (e.g. light energy into food energy). According to the second law, *energy transformation is accompanied by a simultaneous degradation of energy from a concentrated form into a dispersed form.* In other words, some energy is losses as heat energy during transformation of energy. On this account no transformation can be 100 percent efficient.

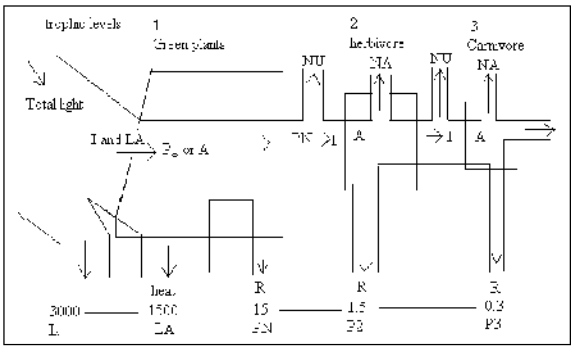
The principle of food chain and the working of the two laws of the thermodynamics can be explained by means of energy flow diagram, commonly known as **Box and Pipe Model** proposed by **E. P. Odum** in 1963. In this model boxes represents the trophic level and pipes represents the energy flow in and out of each level.

Green plants absorb about 65% of total light that falls on the earth. Out of this less than half is absorbed by the chloroplasts, the rest is reflected from the leaf surface or pass out through it and is lost. Photosynthesis fixes in the form of food energy only about one percent of the total light that impinges on the green plant. At each step in the food chain when food energy is transformed from one trophic level to the higher trophic level, a major part of energy, about 90%, is lost as heat and only about 10% is passing onto the next level of consumer. Let us consider that total energy reaches on the green plant (L) per meter square per day are 3000Kcalories. Out of this the energy absorbed by the green plants (L_A) will be about 1500 Kcal. (I.e. 50% of incident light). Out of this the net amount of energy fixed in the photosynthetic process will be 15 Kcal. (1% of absorbed light). The rest is lost as heat in the process of transformation of light energy into the potential energy of food according to the second law of thermodynamics. This 15 K cal represents net primary production (P_N) at the first trophic level. A part of this energy is passed onto the herbivores in the form of food; the rest is retained by the primary producers for their own use. Only about 1.5 K cal (10% of P_N) will be incorporated as net food energy by the second trophic level (P_2). Again about 0.3 K cal (20% of P_2) will incorporate as the net food energy by the third trophic level (P_3) i.e. at secondary consumer level and so on.

L →	L_A →	P_N →	P_2 →	P_3 so on	
3000	1500	15	1.5	0.3	
		K cal/m^2/day			

This means that as we move farther and farther from the primary producers. The energy available to the animals of successive food levels goes on progressively decreasing.

As food energy travels from one trophic level to the next in an ecosystem, the energy lost as heat at various trophic levels of transfer does not return to the organism. Similarly the food energy used up by an organism in the respiration is no longer available to it. The organism must obtain fresh supply of energy for it's use. This means that the energy does not circulate in the living component of the ecosystem, but flows through the ecosystem as a one-way traffic. This one-way flow of energy is a universal phenomenon in all ecosystems as in accordance with the second law of thermodynamics.



A simplified energy flow diagram (Box & Pipe Model) showing three trophic levels (boxes number 1, 2 & 3) in a linear food chain and pipes represents the flow of energy through biotic community

I = Total energy input
L_A = Light absorbed by plants
P_G = Gross primary production
A = Total assimilation
P_N = net primary productivity
P = Net secondary (consumer) production

NU = Energy not used (stored or exposed)
NA = Energy not assimilated by consumer (egested)
R = Respiratory energy loss

The bottom line shows the order of magnitude of energy losses expected at major transfer points starting with a solar input of 3000 K cal/m^2/day.

5

Natural Resources and Their Conservation

5.1 Resources-Introduction

The term resource is a dynamic one because it's meaning changes with advancement of knowledge, society and technology. Anything or substance, which is useful to mankind, is a resource. In other words, a resource is a something, which is used by man to satisfy his needs and aspirations. The concept and meaning of resources changes with culture and technological changes. For example, new thoughts, ideas, beauty, intelligence, etc. have also become resources. We are concerned here with only natural resources and that too ecological resource.

Earlier it was thought that natural resources were those materials, which were of value to a particular human culture. Today, everything on the earth is useful or value to man and consequently a natural resource. The functioning of ecosystem including man's survival, happiness depends on availability, preservation and recycling of natural resources such as water, land, energy sources, etc.

Natural resources in themselves are not resources as they are inert unless human being uses them. Thus it is apparent that resources have functional relationship between man's abilities to explain substances and natural environment or natural ecosystem.

5.2 Types of Resources

Resources may be classified in several ways as follows.

(a) ***Continual utility:*** Some resources are exhausted soon where as others lasts for long period. Thus depending upon the availability of resources during our continuous use, a resource may be renewable (inexhaustible), non-renewable (exhaustible) or cyclic.

(i) ***Renewable resources:*** Resources which can renewed along with their exploitation are always available for use and such resources are called as renewable or inexhaustible resources. (i.e. continuous harvesting is possible upon proper planning and management.) e.g. forests. If trees are felled for wood, original forest cover may be maintained through planning new trees, i.e. afforestation. Crop plants, animals (cattle, fishes, etc.) are other examples of renewable resources.

(ii) ***Non-renewable resources:*** Formation of some resources like coal, mineral oils, iron ore (ore-solid naturally occurring mineral aggregate from which metal is extracted), gold, etc. has taken several thousand years. Once they are used in unlimited way, they cannot be easily replaced (or recovered/re-synthesis). Therefore if exploited at large scale they will deplete fast. Such resources are called as non-renewable (or exhaustible) resources.

(iii) ***Cyclic resources:*** These are special type of non-renewable resources which are not lost or worn out by the way we use them and can be reprocessed and used again and again, i.e. there is no final use as they can be used continuously. E.g. water and some metals. Water used in industry and domestic way can be cleaned and used again for similar or other purposes.

(b) ***Based on origin:*** On the basis of their origin resources may be biotic (organic) or abiotic (inorganic).

(i) ***Biotic resources:*** These are obtained from biosphere. Forests and forest products, crops, birds, animals, fishes and other life forms are examples of biotic resources. Coal and mineral oil also belong to this category since they originated from organic matter. Some biotic resources like forests and livestock are renewable where as coal and mineral oil are non-renewable.

(ii) ***Abiotic resources:*** Resources composed of non-living inorganic matter are called as abiotic resources. Land, water and minerals like Fe, Cu, Pb, gold, etc are abiotic resources. Some of the mineral resources are abundantly found (e.g. iron and bauxite), where as some are scare (e.g. gold, silver, platinum, uranium, etc). Some mineral resources are also renewable such as manganese.

(c) ***Based on utility:*** Energy resources have some utility and accordingly they are of following types.

(i) ***Food:*** Some resources like crop plants, forest plants; fishes, poultry, etc. are used as food.

(ii) ***Raw materials:*** Some resources like minerals and metals, forest plants (as raw material for

paper and pulp industry), crop plants (cotton-as raw material for textile industry) are used as raw materials for various industries.

(iii) ***Energy:*** Some resources like coal, mineral oils, water, wind, light, etc are used as to produce power or to run machines and automobiles. The resources which produce heat and power include fossil fuel (coal, mineral oil, and natural gas), atomic minerals (uranium, etc), geothermal energy, tidal energy, water energy and solar energy. Every resource is further divided into a renewable energy resource (tidal energy, water energy, wind energy and solar energy) and non-renewable energy resource (coal, mineral oil, natural gas, atomic energy, etc).

(iv) ***Agricultural and pastoral resources:*** These include both agricultural lands as well as agricultural products. Agricultural resources are also called as basic resources, because these resources meet the basic needs of human beings (food, clothing and shelter) and also provide fodder and solid food grains to the domesticated animals. Besides, agricultural resources also provide raw materials to agro-based industries. Pastoral resources includes food items and raw materials for textile, food wear, leather and food processing for various purposes, food items derived from pastoral resources include meat (pork, beef, mutton, lamb, chicken, etc.), milk, butter, cheese, etc. By products resources are hides, hairs, wool and bones.

5.3 Necessity of Conservation

This subject of applied ecology the special aspect of study, which is connected, with the welfare of human

conservation process remain chiefly concerned with the use, preservation and proper management of the natural resources of the earth, their protection from the destructive influences, decay, fire or waste.

5.4. Biodiversity

In any ecosystem no one organism live isolated. In every ecosystem there are many organisms live together and form the biotic component of an ecosystem.

Animals and plants are not spread evenly and uniformly over the earth. Sometimes the flora and fauna of one country is surprisingly similar to another, while sometimes it is markedly different. Climate has a great deal to do with the multiplication and distribution of various animals and plants on the earth.

A few places on the globe can be compared with the Indian subcontinent in shear natural beauty and wealth of diverse wild life. India is a naturalist's paradise. A remarkable wide spectrum of environments is found within its boundaries. The Indian region with a total area of 329 million hectors is very rich in biological diversity. India is one of the 12 centers of diversity and origin of several cultivated plants in the world. It is estimated that about 45,000 species of plants occur in India and about 5000 to 7500 species are endemic to India. The region is also rich in fauna containing about 65,000 species of animals including mammals (400 species), birds (1200 species), reptiles (350 species), fishes (2000 species) and more than 50,000 species of insects and others. Of these some such as black buck, golden langur, blue bull (nilgai), four-horhed ante pole (chausinga), Indian gazelle (chinkara), etc are unique to our country.

This richness in biological diversity is due to the immense variety of climatic and altitudal conditions coupled with varied ecological conditions. These vary from humid

tropical Western Ghats to the hot deserts of Rajasthan, from cold deserts of Ladakh and icy mountains of Himalayas to western coasts of Peninsular India.

Biological diversity includes two related concepts,

(i) Genetic diversity: This is amount of genetic variability among individuals of a single species and between species.

(ii) Ecological diversity (species richness): This is the number of species in a community of organisms.

Maintain both types of diversities is fundamental to functioning of ecosystem and hence to human welfare. Due to selective and excessive exploitation of a few selected species without proper management practices for their regeneration and due to destruction of certain natural ecosystem, there is a total extinction of a number of species. Once a species become extinct that combination of gene pool is permanently lost and man no more can recover it for use. Without fully realizing their potential use, through extinction we are rapidly loosing diverse genetic resources. Therefore conservation of such endangered plant and animal resources is all the more importance. From among the wild varieties a few have proved to be extremely useful, some are found to be such medicinal importance while some others are good as fodder.

One cannot imagine a situation if *Penicilluum* have been eliminated from the nature before mankind made use of it as an antibiotic, or if *Chinchona* become extinct before quinine was discovered as a cure for malaria. It is therefore in our own interest to conserve our own planet, animal and microbial wealth. There is a global realization about the urgent need to conserve the biological diversity.

5.5 Conservation

On geological time scale the evolution of new taxa and the extinction of the existing one is in somewhat balanced

proportion have been taking place. But in recent years human activities by ways of destruction of biota and natural habitats have accelerated the process of extinction to an alarmingly faster rate. But for a proper ecosystem balance the preservation of species richness is necessary. Hence for the preservation or conservation of diverse flora and fauna there is urgent necessity of creating endangered habitats like national parks, sanctuaries, biosphere reserves, botanical and zoological gardens.

***In situ* and *Ex-situ* conservation:** There are two main categories of conservation-*In situ* and *Ex-situ* conservation.

(i) ***In situ conservation:*** This is the conservation of genetic resources through their maintenance with natural or even human made (protected) ecosystems in which they occur. This is an ideal system for genetic resource conservation. This type includes a system of protected areas of different categories managed with different objectives to bring benefit to the society. National parks, sanctuaries, biosphere reserves, nature reserves, natural monuments, cultural landscapes, etc. belong to this type of conservation. Therefore *in situ* conservation is not practicable for domesticates.

(ii) ***Ex-situ conservation:*** This is the conservation outside their habitats by perpetuating sample populations in genetic resource centers, zoos, botanical gardens, culture collections or in the form of gene pools and gamete storage for fish, germplasm banks for seeds, pollen, semen, ova, cells, etc. Plant cells are most readily maintained than animals. In this type of conservation seed banks, botanical gardens, pollen storage, tissue culture and genetic engineering have been playing important role.

(a) ***Gene banks:*** Gene banks are the protected areas where valuable plants facing the danger of

extinction are grown. The vegetative parts and seeds of such plants are preserved.

(b) ***Collection and preservation of germ plasm material:*** Germplasm or genetic material is important because this forms the source of various useful traits. Characters useful in disease resistance, for example, are often found amongst the wild varieties of organisms.

Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO) helps in the conservation of germplasm. World Health Organization (WHO) is encouraging the protection of medicinal plants. World Bank (WB) also provides funds for similar projects of germplasm preservation. UNESCO has organized projects like Man and Biosphere (MAB) and Biosphere Reserve Program (BRP) in this connection.

5.6 Necessity of Conservation

This subject of applied ecology the special aspect of study, which is connected, with the welfare of human society. Now days the rate of increase in human population of the world has kept on increasing. The problem of space and food were met by cleaning land or undesirable organisms like trees, wild carnivores, etc. in favor of production of crop plants, domestication of cattle, poultry, and so on. The organism's environment balances are repeatedly being upset and many resources like soil, forests, lakes, etc. are getting depleted and vanished at rates faster than rebuilding process cam replenish. Thus present day man finds many valuable natural assets and resources, which were available yesterday, are not there today. Many cleared forests brought under plough or under industrialization may not remain useful land in future, if ecology of the system is not understood or ecological principles are disregarded.

There are numerous ways in which ecological knowledge can be applied for human welfare. The major aspects are the conservation of different types of ecosystems for yielding economical useful material over a long period at a fairly high rate.

Conservation has three basic aims, 1) to ensure the preservation of a quality environment that considers aesthetic and recreational as well as product needs, 2) to insure continuous yield of useful plants, animals and materials by establishing a balanced cycle of harvest and renewal, and 3) to preserve biological diversity. Thus conservation process remain chiefly concerned with the use, preservation and proper management of the natural resources of the earth, their protection from the destructive influences, decay, fire or waste.

6

Wild Life Management

6.1 Introduction

To a common man the term 'wildlife' means wild undomesticated animals living in their natural habitats as forests, deserts, grasslands, etc. However an ecologist includes both, naturally occurring animals (fauna) as well as plants (flora) in wildlife. Wildlife management remains chiefly concerned with the protection, preservation and judicious control of population of rare species of plants and animals in their natural habitats.

About 1/3rd of the world's land surface is covered with forest, which are ecosystems dominated by trees. Forests are the vast natural resources for man for fuel, timber, paper, fodder, water cycle and animal products. Forests recycle back the moisture into the atmosphere by transpiration. Wild animals are also of great importance for the balance of natural ecosystem. Most of the wild animals like lion, tiger, panther, wolf, etc. occupy top position in the food chain and they maintain the number of herbivore in the forest ecosystem. Most of the wild plants and animals are

having economic values, e.g. skins, hair, wool, meat, horns, etc of some animals.

But today's selfish activities of modern man are unrestricted. He has to been able to control the flora and fauna of his own sweet will. This has resulted in the upset of environmental balance. Because of indiscriminate deforestation by agricultural man for industrialization, for dam, mining, road, etc and also over hunting of wild animals, entire biotic community along with the physical environment has been disturbed. Many wild species of plants and animals have already become extinct and many other are facing the danger of extinction due to these various activities of man. In India about 12-15% of the land surface is actually under forest. About 5000 important wild plants are becoming extinct due to cutting of forests. According to **Red Data Book** of **International Union for Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources (IUCNNR)** about 245 species of animals (including 139 species of birds)have already become extinct and nearly 600 more species of animals and birds and 435 species of plants are going to be extinct if not protected and these species are called as endangered species.

6.2 Endangered Species

The animals and plants which face to the danger of extinction due to various unfavorable factors and also due to man's unprecedented interference in their natural habitat are called as endangered species. Some endangered plant and animal species from India are given below.

(i) ***Plants:*** *Arundina grammifloria, Vanda cocrulea, V. pumila, Dendrobium desiflorum* (all orchids), *Magnolia grifithi, Cyathea gigentia, Rouvolfia serpentina, Rhododendron species, Dioscorea delfoidea, Drosera indica, Nepenthes khasiana, Commifora wightii, C. mukul* (Guggul), *Santalum album, Saussurea lappa*

(Bramhakamal), *Gnetum ula, Osmunda regalis, Botrichium virgianum,* etc.

(ii) ***Animals:*** Hollock gibbon, wolf, Indian fox, Himalayan brown bear, tiger, Indian lion, leopard, one horned rhinoceros, Indian wild ass, wild pig, barasinga, alpine musk deer, black buck, chinkara, chousinga, Indian bison, Assam rabit, flying squirrels, Gangetic dolphin, whales, estuarine and marsh crocodiles, python, salamander and several birds and insects.

6.3 Wild Life Management in India

Due to continuous increase in the number of endangered species of flora and fauna of wild life, steps have been taken to protect and manage the wild life of the country. Non-governmental voluntary organizations as well as governmental organizations at central and state level have been set up to protect wild life.

Several measures have been adopted by the Union and State governments for the conservation and preservation of wild life in the country. These include enactment of laws, protection of endangered species and establishment of sanctuaries and national parks.India was probably the first country to enact **Wild Life Protection Act**. The Wild Birds and Animals Act was passed in 1887 and repealed in 1912. Forest Act XVI was enacted in 1927 aimed at the protection of game animals.

Indian Board of Wild Life (IBWL): The **Indian Board of Wild Life (IBWL)** was established in 1952 for the purpose of protection of wild animals and this was followed by setting up of **Wild Life Boards** in different states. In 1972 **New Wild Life Protection Act** was passed. Under this act i) possession, trapping, shooting of wild animals alive or dead, serving their meat in eating houses, their transport, export are all controlled and watched by special staff (e.g.

Chief Wild life Wardens and other authorized officers), ii) protection to endangered animal species & iii) graded protection to other wild animals according to their size of population. The establishment of **Wild Life Institute, Dehradun** (Uttaranchal), has been a success in wild life management.

Forest and wild life from an organizational viewpoint have been primarily under control of State governments. Recently it has given top priority and separate **Ministry of Environment and Forests** has been entrusted with the task of environmental protection. The **Department of Environment, Forest and Wild life** under this ministry has been set up with the view to have coordination between states and the center and speedy & faithful implementation of the steps to be taken in program of wild life management in the country.

6.4 Aims of Wild Life Management

Following are the aims of wild life management,

(a) Protection of natural habitats through controlled and limited exploitation of species.

(b) Maintenance of the viable number of species in protected areas.

(c) Establishment of biosphere reserves for animal and plant species.

(d) Protection through legislation.

Wild life can be preserved by,

(a) Improving the existing protected areas as National Parks and Sanctuaries.

(b) Imposing restriction on export of rare plant and animal species and their products.

(c) Educating public for environmental protection at all levels of education.

6.5 Non-Governmental Organizations (NGO's)

There are number of non-governmental voluntary national and international organizations actively dedicated to wild life conservation. The principle organizations are,

(i) ***Bombay Natural History Society:*** Founded in 1883.

(ii) ***Wild Life Preservation Society of India, Dehra Dun:*** founded in 1958.

(iii) ***World Wild Life Fund (WWF), India:*** The WWF, Indian National Appeal was launched in India in 1969 at the time of XIIth General Assembly of the IUCNNR, held at Delhi. WWF International was formed in 1961 with its head quarter at Glands, Switzerland. WWF, India has its head quarter in Mumbai. It has supported the well-known '**Project Tiger**'.

(iv) ***Indian Board for Wild Life (IBWL):*** This is the main advisory body to the Government of India. It was first constituted in 1952 as an advisory body under the name **Central Board for Wild Life**. Later it was renamed as **IBWL.** At its first meeting, the board made a recommendation for unified legislation for wild life conservation in India. **The Wild Life (Protection) Act** was enacted in 1972, which has been adopted by all states.

There is a central body for wild life preservation headed by the Director, Wild Life Preservation, Government of India. To assist the director in implementing the Wild Life (Protection) Act, 1972, there are four Regional Deputy Directors, one each at New Delhi, Mumbai, Kolkata and Chennai. They are responsible for implementation of the **Convention on the International Trade in Endangered Species (CITES)** and also assist the local officers in wild life protection and enforcement of regulation in trade and commerce in wild life including their import and export.

6.6 Protected Areas Network (Conservation of Bio-Diversity)

In situ conservation of wild life includes a comprehensive system of protected areas. There are different categories of protected areas, which are managed with different objectives for bringing benefits to the society. These includes 1) National Parks, 2) sanctuaries, 3) Biosphere Reserves, 4) Natural Monuments, 5) Cultural Landscapes, etc. These areas may vary considerably in size, design, purpose and effectiveness of management, but together forms a solid basis of conservation of Biological Diversity.

At the 15th meeting of the IBWL held on 1st October 1982, then Prime Minister, late Indira Gandhi gave a 12-point strategy for an Action Plan for Conservation of Wild Life in India. This included establishment of a network of scientifically managed protected areas including National Parks, Sanctuaries, Biosphere Reserves and other areas.

(i) ***National Parks:*** National parks are setup for preserving flora, fauna, landscapes and historic objects of an area. It is an area strictly reserved for the improvement of wild life. Activities like grazing, forestry and cultivation are not permitted. Private ownership or change in habitat is prohibited. The habitat is maintained for the development of a particular wild animal species such as tiger, lion, rhinoceros, etc. The boundaries of national parks are laid down by Government legislation. The Indias first national park is Hailey National Park, which is established in 1936. It is now known as Jim Corbett National Park and located in two hill districts Pauri and Nainital of Uttaranchal.

(ii) ***Sanctuaries:*** Sanctuaries are the places where killing or capturing of any wild animal is prohibited except under orders of the authorities concerned. They provide protection and optimum living

conditions to wild animals. These are the areas where only fauna is protected and harvesting of timber, collection of forest minor products and private ownership rights are permitted as long as these do not interfere with the project.

In India at present (June 1989) there are 67 National parks and 394 Sanctuaries with a total area of about 1,42,298 square km representing roughly 4% of the country's geographical area.

In Maharashtra there are 11 sanctuaries with total area about12, 868 square km and 5 National parks with total area about 72,173 square km.

Some important national parks and Sanctuaries in India are,

Maharashtra	:	Tadoba, Pench, Nawegaon, Bori, Dhakna, Karnala, Pal (Yawal), Aner, etc.
Assam	:	Kaziranga, Manas, etc.
Bihar	:	Hazaribagh, Palamau, etc.
Gujrat	:	Gir, Verawal, Nal-Sarovar, etc.
Kerala	:	Periyar
Tamil Nadu	:	Annamalai,
M. P.	:	Kanha, Shivpuri, Bandhavgarh, etc.
Goa	:	Mollen
Orissa	:	Chilka lake, Simlipal, etc.
Rajasthan	:	Bharatpur, Ghana, ranthambore, sariska, etc.
West Bengal	:	Sundarbans, Jaldapara, etc.

6.7 Biosphere Reserves

Reserves, which are large and diverse enough to protect whole set of ecosystem, which are either rare on a national or world basis, are often designated as Biosphere Reserves.

Biosphere Reserve Programme (BRP) was launched by UNESCO in 1971 under it's **Man and Biosphere (MAB) Programme.** The following are the objectives of BRP.

(a) To conserve representative sample of ecosystems.

(b) To promote and facilitate basic and applied research and monitoring.

(c) To provide opportunities for education and training.

(d) To promote appropriate sustainable managements of the living resources.

(e) To promote international co-operation.

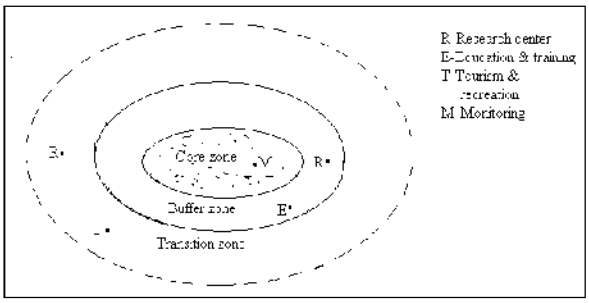
In brief we may say that the special feature of a Biosphere reserve is that it combines four major groups of objectives i.e. 1) conservation, 2) research, 3) education and 4) local involvement.

Biosphere reserves include natural, minimally disturbed, man-modified and degraded ecosystems. For management purposes the Biosphere Reserves are divided into following three zones.

(i) ***Core zone:*** It is strictly protected area according to well-defined conservative objective and consists of typical samples of natural or minimally disturbed ecosystems. In this zone no development will be permitted at all.

(ii) ***Buffer zone:*** The core area of the Biosphere Reserve is generally surrounded by buffer zone, which is strictly remarketed but can be used for regulated non-destructive activities such as research and education.

(iii) ***Transition zone (outer buffer zone):*** It is outer undemarketed outer buffer zone and can be used for the experimental research, general public for traditional use, recreation, rehabilitation and other functions of the Biosphere Reserves.



BRP is an excellent method of implementation of World Conservation Strategy. Indian MAB committee in 1979 has identified a network of the following 14 representative ecosystems to be protected as Biosphere reserves.

1. **Nilgiri Biosphere reserve:** It is the first biosphere reserve come into being in 1986, covering an area of 5520 sq. km. The state governments of Kerala, Karnataka and Tamil Nadu have been provided with funds for implementing different schemes for the reserve.
2. **Nanda Devi (Uttaranchal):** It is second biosphere reserve covering an area about 1560 sq.km. come into being in January1988.
3. **Nokrek (Thura range –Meghalaya):** he third reserve setup in 1988.
4. **Great Nicobar:** - Come into being in 1989.
5. Sundarbans (W. B.)
6. Gulf of Manar (T. N.)
7. Manas (Assam)
8. THar desert (Rajasthan)
9. Namdapha (Arunachal Pradesh)
10. Uttarakhand- Vally of flowers (Uttaranchal)
11. Little Rann of Kutch (Gujrat)
12. Kaziranga (Assam)
13. Kanha (M. P.)
14. North Islands of Andamans (Andaman)

7

Energy Conservation

Sources of Energy

Energy is an important requirement for the development. It aims at human welfare covering household, agriculture, transport and industrial complex. Energy available today comes from many renewable and non-renewable sources. Non-renewable sources (oil, natural gas, coal, etc) are slowly getting depleting due to their constant and continuous use over the years. These also cause pollution. Similarly renewable sources (biomass, water, etc.) are eco-friendly and are mostly biological in nature and include forestry, agriculture, animals, etc. These can reproduce itself in nature and we may harvest them continuously through a sustained proper planning and management. Now solar, wind, tidal, geothermal energies are also belongs to this category, since there are available in an inexhaustible form in the nature.

The energy utilization of human population has increased steadily from hunter-gatherers to agricultural man and industrial society (e.g. primitive man-2000 kcal/day, hunter-gatherers- 5,000, early agricultural-12,000, advanced agricultural man- 20,000, early industrial-60,000,

and modern industrial man- 1,25,000 to 2,30,000 Kcal/day). For example, early agricultural society depended entirely on the energy of the sunlight to grow food and energy of physical labor for it's cultivation and harvest. Domestic animals introduced later provided the greater physical strength to draw ploughs, pull carts to turn water wheels. The invention of electric motor and the internal combustion engine in the 19th century changed this orientation completely. These machines boosted the production by enabling man to do for more work and to cultivate and harvest greater acres and they also replaced draft animals with the result that modern agricultural operations become dependent on petroleum and electricity.

Energy utilization thus has become the modern key to human progress. At present time modern nations differ markedly in their energy consumption, with industrialized nations such as Europe, U.S.A. Japan, etc typically using 10 to 50 times as much energy per capita as agricultural and developing nations such as India, Bangladesh, Indonesia, etc. Higher energy consumption is often associated with higher gross national production and personal income per capita, but it is also associated with higher levels of industrial pollution.

7.2 Conventional and Non-conventional Energy Resources

I. ***Conventional Energy Resources:*** Human populations have become predominantly dependent upon physical resources of energies like fossil fuels (coal, mineral oil, and natural gas), fire wood, hydropower and nuclear power. Fossil fuels are available in nature only in limited amount and cannot be reproduced. These amounts for 90% of world' production of commercial energy. Fire wood, hydroelectric and nuclear power accounting only

10%. (Oil-39.5%, natural gas-19.6%, coal-30.3%, hydroelectric-6.7%, nuclear-3.9%, and fire wood in trace).

These are the conventional energy resources, which are used by man since 19th century. But reserves of coal and oil, the major sources of energy utilized at present are dwindling and are to exhaust one day. More over most of these sources causes more pollution problems and are not renewable.

II. ***Non-conventional Energy Resources:*** Countries all over the world have begun to think about a policy on energy and look into a possibility of having energy systems with no or very limited environmental impacts. The energy crisis has shown that for sustainable development in energy sector, we must conserve the non-renewable sources and also replace/supplement them by non-polluting renewable energy sources. The renewable ones are more or less pollution free, environmentally clean and socially relevant. These includes biomass based (urban wastes, agricultural wastes, animal & human wastes, etc) energy, solar energy, wind energy and tidal energy. These alternative energy sources have assumed importance in local areas, but they have not been developed adequately on a national or global basis. All of them have high potentials if properly developed.

Currently Indian scientists are trying hard to tap these non-polluting and cheap sources of energies like biogas, solar energy, tidal energy and wind power and are getting sustainable success in their efforts. In India **Department of Non-conventional Energy sources (DNES)** is actively involved in research and development activities for developing non-conventional know-how technologies.

Conventional Sources of Energy

(i) ***Coal:*** Natural coal is a solid formed in several stages as the remains of plants are subjected to intense heat and pressure over millions of years. It is mostly carbon with varying amounts of water and small amounts of nitrogen and sulphur. Coal with high sulphur and nitrogen content produces high emissions of sulphur dioxide (SO_2) and nitric oxide (NO) into the atmosphere when it is burned without adequate air pollution control devices. About 60-70% of coal extracted in the world is burned in boilers to produce steam and to generate electric power.

Based on known reserves coal is the most abundant conventional fossil fuel in the world and in the United States. Identified world coal reserves should last for about 250 years at 1984 usage rates and 80 years if usage rate increases by 2% a year. In India we have much coal deposits, but increased use of coal threatened rapid depletion of coal and it may no last for more than 200 years.

Advantages

In countries with adequate coal a supply, burning solid coal is the cheapest way to produce high temperature heat electricity compared to oil, natural gas and nuclear energy.

Disadvantages

Coal mining is a dirty and dangerous activity. It causes various health and environmental hazards. Underground mining of the coal is the second most hazardous occupation in the world (after commercial fishing) because of injuries and death from cave-ins and from explosions caused by a single spark igniting underground air laden with coal dust or methane gas. It causes **black lung disease (Emphysema)**, caused by breathing coal dust and other particulate matter over a long period to the miners. For the victims of this

emphysema even the slightest movement is difficult and death is slow and painful.

Without effective air pollution control devices burning coal emits SO_2, NO, CO_2, CO, particulate matter (mostly fly ash), cancer-causing substances and small amounts of radioactive materials naturally found in coal deposits. It also causes acid rain and soil pollution. This air pollution has many adverse effects on human health, animals and plants.

Release of CO_2 from burning of coal to produce energy is the most serious disadvantage of coal, but it is the cheap source of energy. At present there is no technological and economically feasible method for preventing this CO_2 from reaching the atmosphere.

(ii) ***Oil (Mineral Oil):*** A gooey (viscous or sticky), crude oil or petroleum is made up mostly hydrocarbon compounds (90-95% of it's weight) and small quantities compounds containing oxygen, sulphur and nitrogen. Typically deposits of crude oil and natural gas are trapped together deep underground beneath a dome of impermeable cap-rock and above a lower dome of sedimentary rock such as shale with a natural gas lying above the crude oil. Crude oil is also found beneath the sea floor.

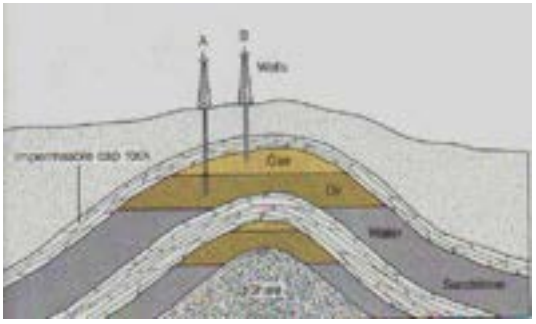


Fig: Section of Ground Showing Deposits of Oil and Natural Gas

These oils are removed from deposits through drilling wells (gushers) and pumping out. Once it is removed most crude oil is sent by pipeline to a refinery. There it is distilled to separate it into component chemicals, which boil at different temperatures and are removed from various levels of giant distillation columns.

Some of these chemicals known as petrochemicals are sent to petrochemical plants for use as raw materials in the manufacture of most industrial chemicals, fertilizers, pesticides, plastics, synthetic fibers, paints, medicines and number of other products.

A total amount of oil in the world is estimated to be about 4 trillion bbl (barrels, 1 bbl=42 gallons, 1gallon = 4.546liters), half of which is thought to be ultimately recoverable. Some 465 billion bbl of oil already have been consumed. In 2000 the reserves were roughly 650 billion bbl enough to last only for 30 years at the current consumption rate of 22 billion bbl per year.

Advantages of Oil

Oil has several important advantages that account for its widespread use. It has been and still is relatively cheap, can be transported easily within and between countries and is a versatile fuel that can be burned to propel vehicle, provide low temperature heating for water and high temperature heating for industrial process and production of electricity.

Disadvantages

Affordable supplies may be depleted within 40-80 years. It's burning releases CO_2, which could alter global climate and air pollutants such as SO_2, NO, and it's use can also cause water and soil pollution.

(iii) ***Natural Gas:*** In it's underground gaseous state natural gas consists of 50-90% methane (CH_4) gas and smaller amounts of heavier gaseous hydrocarbon

compounds such as propane (C_3H_8), and butane (C_4H_{10}). Although most natural gas used so far lies above deposits of crude oil, it is also found by itself in other underground deposits.

When natural gas deposit is trapped, propane and butane gases are liquefied as removed as **Liquefied Petroleum Gas (LPG)**, which is stored in pressurized tanks for use or can be served through pipeline.

The natural gas is the world's third largest commercial fuel (making up 23% of global energy consumption). The world's identified reserves of natural gas are projected to last until 2033 at current usage rates and to 2028 if usage rates increased by 2% a year.

Advantages

Two major advantages of conventional natural gas are it's ability to burn hotter and cleaner than any other fossil fuel and it's relatively low price. It is also versatile fuel, is transported easily over land by pipeline. It produces only half as much CO_2 as an equivalent amount of coal and could help to reduce global warming.

Disadvantages

Natural gas is difficult, expensive and dangerous to transport by tanker or to store in large quantities.

(iv) ***Thermal Energy (Geothermal Energy):*** The earth's internal temperature can provide a useful energy source in some places. High pressure, high temperature steam fields exist below the earth surface. Around the edges of continental plates or where the earth's crust overlays magma (molten rock) pools close to the surface, this energy is expressed in terms of hot springs, geysers and fumaroles (crevices in or near volcano). Depending on the shape, heat content and access to ground water these sources produces dry steam (steam with

no water droplets), wet steam (steam with water droplets) or hot water. When these deposits are close enough to the earth's surface, well can be drilled to bring this dry steam, wet steam or hot water to the earth's surface to be used for space heating and to produce electricity or high temperature heat for industrial processes. Similarly the relative uniform temperature of the ground can be used to augment air conditioning in summer.

Currently about 20 countries (USA, Italy, Japan, New Zealand, Mexico, USSR, etc.) are tapping geothermal energy.

At present 350 geothermal springs have been located in India. Puga (Ladakh) geothermal area is a good site for power generation. A cold storage unit and 5mw power plant has been set at Manikaran (H. P.).

Advantages

Major advantage of geothermal energy includes 100-200 years supply of energy for areas near deposits, moderate cost and no emission of CO_2.

Disadvantages

Scarcity of easily accessible deposits and the fact that the energy cannot be used to power vehicles are two substantial disadvantages. Without pollution control it's use results in moderate to high air pollution from HS, ammonia and radioactive materials as well as moderate to high water pollution from dissolved solids (salinity) and run off of various toxic compounds of elements such as boron and mercury.

(v) ***Fire wood:*** Firewood have been a primary source of heating and cooking for thousands of year and in many of the poorer countries of the world, wood and other biomass fuel till provide up to 95% of all energy used 1500 million m^3 of firewood collected

in the world each year is about half of all wood harvested.

Wood chips, saw dust, wood residue and other plant materials are being used as fuel in industrial boilers in some countries.

About 40% of world population depends on firewood and charcoal as their primary source in less developed countries and so many peoples in low developed countries face a daily struggle to find enough fuel to cook their food. The problem is intensifying because rapidly growing populations in many developing countries create increasing demands for the firewood and charcoal from a diminishing (decreasing) supply.

Advantages

It is a cheap source of energy and pollution control equipment is easier to install and maintain in a central power plant than in individual home unit. Wood burning also contributes less to acid precipitation than doe's coal, because wood has little sulphur. Wood burns at lower temperature than coal; it also produces fewer nitrogen oxides. Burning wood is a renewable, crop does not produce any net increase in net CO_2, because all the carbon released by burning biomass was taken up from atmosphere when the biomass was grown.

Disadvantages

Inefficient and incomplete burning of wood in fireplaces and stoves produces smoke laden with fine ash and soot and hazardous amounts of CO and hydrocarbons. In valleys where inversion layers trap air pollutants, the effluents from wood fires can be a major source of air pollution and health risk.

(vi) ***Hydropower:*** falling water has been used as an important commercial renewable energy source. Now falling water generates 25% of world's electric

power. For large scale hydropower projects high dams are built across large rivers to create large reservoirs. The stored water is then allowed to flow at controlled rates, spinning turbines and producing electricity as it falls downwards to the river below dam. In small-scale project, a low dam with or without reservoir is built and natural water flow is issued to generate electricity. However electricity production can vary with seasonal changes in stream flow and under draught condition. In India substantial portion of this unexploited energy is located in the Himalayan region.

Advantages

It is a cheapest source of power generation. It is regenerative thus leading to conservation of fossil fuel. It has a moderate to high net useful energy yield and low operating and maintenance costs. There is no emission of CO_2 or other air pollutants during operation. Large dams provide some degree of flood control and a regulated flow of irrigation water for areas below the dam.

Disadvantages

Construction costs for large-scale systems are very high. Large projects flood large areas of land for reservoir and lead to decline in fishing below dam. Infrastructure development leads to deforestation and soil erosion and sediment water pollution near reservoir above the dam, reducing effective life of the reservoir.

(vii) ***Nuclear Power:*** This is of course a principle source of energy when the fossil fuel reserves are depleting very fast. A small amount of radioactive material can produce an enormous amount of energy. For instance one tone of Uranium^{235} (U^{235}) would provide as much energy as by three million tons of coal. Besides electricity atomic power is also used

as a fuel for marine vessels, heat generators for chemical and food processing plants and for spacecrafts.

A nuclear reactor is needed for the generation of atomic energy. The decay of fissionable matter produces enormous heat. This is used to make steam and channeled through a turbine connected to an electric generator.

There are more than 300 nuclear power plants in the world. In India **Nuclear Power Corporation (NPC)** is engaged with establishment of nuclear power plants. We are 7th in the world and at present there are six nuclear power plants in operation generating 1230 mV. These are Tarapur (M.S.), Kota (Rajasthan), Kalpakam (T.N.), Kakarapar (Gujrat), Karwar (Karnataka), and Narora (U.P.).

Advantages

Nuclear plant does not release CO_2, SO_2, NO_2, or particulate matter into the atmosphere. Water pollution and distruption land are low.

Disadvantages

Construction and operating costs are high. Large-scale accidents are unlikely; a combination of mechanical or human errors, sabotage (damage to equipments) or shipping accidents could again results in the release of deadly radioactive materials into the environment.

II. Non-conventional Sources of Energy:

(i) Solar energy: Solar energy is a perpetual resource that comes from an essentially inexhaustible source and thus will always be available on a human time-scale regardless of whether or how it is used. The sun is the giant nuclear furnace in space constantly bathing our planet with free energy supply. This enormous solar energy resource may be converted into other forms of energy through thermal or photovoltaic conversion route.

(a) ***Thermal Conversion:*** Thermal conversion uses a series of specially designed collectors to concentrate solar energy. A flat black surface sealed with a double layer of glass makes a good solar collector. It consist of a copper pipe attached to blackened metal base and covered with two layers of glass separated by an insulating layer of air encased in a aluminum frame. Radiant energy from the sun passes through the transparent glass cover is absorbed by blackened surface, transferred as heat to water and hot water is transferred to an insulated water storage system. Solar water heaters, solar air heater, solar cooker, solar dryers are some applications of thermal conversion.

(b) ***Photovoltaic Conversion:*** The earth's direct input solar energy can be converted by photovoltaic cells commonly called as **solar cells**, directly into electrical energy in one simple step and thus provides clean, versatile, renewable energy. A solar cell consists of a thin wafer of purified silicon to which trace amount of other substance (Cadmium sulphate, gallium arsenide, etc.) have been added so that wafer emits electrons and provide small amount of electrical current when struck by sunlight. Impurities incorporated into upper silicon crystal layer causes e^- to be released when solar radiation heats the cell. The released e^- move into lower layer creating shortage of e^- or +ve charge in upper layer and over supply or –ve charge in lower layer. The difference in charge creates an electric current in wire connecting the two layers.

Such cells are used for community lighting, radio, T.V. set, calculators, light house, off-shore platforms, installations in remote areas, communication, etc. Since 1958 solar cells have been used to power space satellite.

Because the amount of electricity produced by a single cell is very small, many cells must be wired together in a solar panel, which are wired together and mounted on a roof that struck the sun to produce electricity for the home. The resulting electricity is in the form of D.C. Excess energy produced during day light can be stored for use at night in long lasting rechargeable D.C. batteries. By using electronic inverter D.C. can be converted into A.C.

Advantages

It can be effectively replace the use of fossil fuel. They are reliable, quiet, having no moving parts, can be installed quickly, need little maintenance and should last 20-30 years. They are made from silicon, which is a most abundant element in the earth crust. They do not produce any pollution during operation and land disturbances are very low for roof-mounted systems.

Disadvantages

Present costs of solar systems are very high, but are projected to become competitive in 7-15 years. The net useful energy yield is moderate to low. Without effective control solar cell manufacturing produce water pollution from hazardous chemical wastes.

In India use of solar energy has wide scope because the country receives abundant sunshine nearly 250-300 days of useful sunshine in a year. DNES under **National Solar Photovoltaic Energy Demonstration Programme (NSPEDP)** installed a number of photovoltaic devices with a target of producing 1mV of electricity since 1980.

ii) Wind Energy: Man knows the energy in wind since historical times. Along with animal and waterpower, wind power has been used to drive ships, water pumps and to grind grains. Wind is abundant, clean, reliable, cost effective and benefits the community. Wind is plentiful and is act it's greater strength in coastal and mountainous areas. Windmills vary from small home sized units to large central

generator. New wind generators or windmills are recently developed. Wind turbines usually consist of blades that spins and a generator mounted on a tower (tower of 50 meters height and blades of 65 meters diameter could produce better results). These machines can produce electricity at reasonable costs for use by small communities and large utility companies in areas with average wind speed 25 to 40 km/hour.

The conditions are prevalent at number of places in Peninsular India, coastlines in Gujrat, Western Ghats and Central India. In India according to DNES the wind farms with a total capacity of 3.3mV have already been set up in Mandavi, 1.1 mV in Kutch, 550kV in Okha (all in Gujrat), 550kV in Deogarh (M.S.), etc. DNES has installed over 1000 wind pumps. Gujrat is the first state in the country to start using wind power.

Advantages

It is perpetual source of energy at favorable sites and large wind farms with low material requirements can be built within one year. The wind energy systems have a moderate net useful energy yield; do not emit CO_2 or other air pollutants during operations. It is useful in remote areas, helps in saving fossil fuel.

Disadvantages

It can only be used in areas with sufficient winds and requires back-up electricity from a utility company or from fairly expensive energy storage system when the wind dies down. Present system have moderate to high costs and operates at full capacity only about 25^ of the time because of variations in wind availability and speed.

(iii) ***Tidal energy:*** Another potential source of energy for producing electricity from flowing water is the daily oscillations of ocean water levels as a result of gravitational attraction amount the earth, moon and sun. Twice a day a large volume of water flows

in and out of inland bays or other bodies of water near the coast to produce high and low tides. If a bay has an opening narrow enough to be obstructed by a dam with gates that can be opened and closed, with mounted turbines in the structure, the incoming tide (high tide) flowing through the turbine generates power. When the tide shifts (low tide) the blades of turbines are reversed and as a result outgoing water may also produce the power.

In India tidal power potentials has been identified in Gulf of Kutch, Gulf of Cambay and Sundarbans.

Advantages

It is a free and renewable (perpetual) source of energy with low operating costs, moderate net useful energy yield, low air pollution, no addition of CO_2 and little land disturbance.

Disadvantages

It make only a small contribution towards electricity supply because of lack of sustainable sites, high construction costs, irregular output that varies daily, extensive sea water corrosion and possible storm damage to dam and power plant. It may also disturb coastal scenery and pleasure.

(iv) ***Biomass Based energy:*** Biomass fuel is organic plant matter produced by solar energy through the process of photosynthesis that can be burned directly as a solid fuel or converted to a more convenient gaseous or liquid biofuels by process such as distillation and pyrolysis (heating in absence of air). Thus biomass includes all new plant growth, residues and wastes wood, short rotation trees, herbaceous plants, fresh and marine water algae, aquatic plants, agricultural and forest residue (straw, husk, bagasse, corn cobs, bark, saw dust, wood shavings, roots, animal droppings and dung),

wastes (garbage, sewage, industrial refuse, etc). Biodegradable organic effluents from industries like canneries, sugar mills, slaughterhouses, meat packing plants, breweries, distilleries, etc are also include in this category.

Biomass mostly from the indirect burning of wood and animal wastes to heat building and cooking food provides 15% of the world's commercial energy.

Advantages

They can be used to provide a variety of solid, liquid and gaseous fuels for space heating, water heating, producing electricity and propelling vehicle. It is a renewable energy resource (as long as trees and plants are not harvested faster than they grow back). There is no net increase in CO_2 level in the atmosphere (as long as the rate of removal and burning of trees which release CO_2 and plants does not exceeds their rate of replenishment). Burning of biogas fuel adds much less SO_2 and NO to the atmosphere as compare to burning of coal.

Disadvantages

Without effective land use control and replanting, extensive removal of trees and plants can deplete soil, nutrients and cause excessive soil erosion, water pollution, flooding and loss of wild life habitat. Biomass resources also have high moisture contents (15-95%), which reduce their net useful energy. The added weight makes collection and transportation expensive.

Firewood, burning agricultural and urban wastes, alcohol from biomass, biogas and petrocrops are the categories of biomass-based energy.

7.3 Prospective Alternatives for Energy:

(i) ***Biogas:*** Where wood and other fuels are in short supply, people often dry and burn animal manure.

This may seen like logic of use of waste biomass but it can intensify food shortage in poorer countries by not putting this manure back on the land as organic fertilizer. Cows in India produce more than 800 million tons of dung per year, more than half of which is dried and burned in cooking fires. If that dung were applied to fields as fertilizer it could boost crop production of edible grain by 20 million tons per year, enough to feed about 40 million people.

When cow dung is burned in open fires more than 90% of the potential heat and most of the nutrients are lost. We can compare that to the efficiency of using dung to produce methane gas, an excellent fuel.

Methane (CH_4) gas, the main component of natural gas, is produced by anaerobic decomposition of any moist organic materials like organic plant and animal wastes and gas is used for heating and cooking. After the biogas has been removed the remaining solid residue can be used as fertilizer on food crop or in contaminated, on non-edible crops such as trees.

In India so much cow dung is available that can produce about 22,425 million m^3 of gas each year. It would also yield 206 million tons of organic manure every year that can replace 1.4 million tons of N_2, 1.3 million tons of P_2O_5 (phosphate) and 0.9 million tons of K_2O (potash). However this source of bioenergy is not being fully tapped. At present there are over 330,000 biogas plants, which will save 1200,000 tons of wood equivalent every year. About 75% of dung would be available for biogas. Biogas is composed of methane (CH_4) – 50-70%, CO_2 -30-40%, and other components (hydrogen, nitrogen and hydrogen sulphide – 10-20%). At 40% methane content caloric value is 3,214 Kcal/m^3, at 50% it is 4,429 Kcal/m^3, and at 55% it is 4,713 Kcal/m^3.

Methane is also being produced in some plants through anaerobic digestion of sludge produced at sewage treatment plant, municipal garbage and sewage, kitchen and garden scrab. Following are some useful substrates foe biogas production.

Animal waste-cattle dung, buffalo dung, goat/ship dung, Slaughterhouse dung.

Aquatic plants-*Eichhornia,* algae.

By-products/wastes-bagasse, bran, tobacco waste.

From agro industries-wastes from processing fruits and vegetables, oil cake, sugar manufacture, tea and coffee wastes.

Crop residue-crop stubble, straw, weeds, fodder, cotton and jute stick.

Forest residue-bark, branches, twigs, leaves.

Urban solid wastes-paper, domestic wastes, etc,

Industrial wastes sludge produced at sewage treatment.

Advantages

Biogas is an important solution to prevent energy crisis, especially in rural areas. This can replace kerosene oil used in village mainly for cooking and lighting. This is an environmentally clean technology. It can be stored and used efficiently as and when required. It can be used for different purposes other than the conventional use as fuel only. Organic residue produced during biogas production can be used as an excellent fertilizer. Methane produced by anaerobic digestion of municipal sewage treatment plants as a part of their treatment process can be used to generate electricity.

(ii) ***Petrocrops:*** Another approach to obtaining plentiful amounts of biomass fuel is to establish biomass energy plantations. The energy crops or plants producing hydrocarbons appear as one of the most suitable options. Earliest efforts to cultivate

hydrocarbon-producing plant were made by Italians in Ethiopia some 50 years ago. Since then the efforts to find out such plants is continuing all over the world. The most favored among all plants are the latex producing species mainly belonging to families Euphorbiaceae and Asclepiadaceae. The credit of attracting the attention towards the plants of Euphorbiaceae goes to Melvin Calvin, who is also known for his work on photosynthesis. Today many promising plants belonging to Anacardiaceae, Apocyanaceae, Asclepiadaceae, Compositae, Euphorbiaceae, Labiatae, Sapotaceae, Urticaceae, etc have been identified.

The best way to producing liquid fuels from plants is to extract low molecular weight oils (known as biocrude) and processing or upgrading them by using proper catalysts. There are many stages before liquid fuels can be obtained from these petrocrops, or the extract can be used directly.

Advantages

The unused wood plant residue could be converted to alcohol fuel. Such plants can be grown on arid and semiarid and currently unproductive land. Although lack of water might limit the amount produced.

Disadvantages

Energy plantations usually require heavy use of herbicides and pesticides, occupy large land area and compete with food crops for prime farmland. The economic feasibility of this approach has not been determined.

A systematic programme for the detection of petroleum plants is initiated in all the developed and developing countries. The Indian Institute of Petroleum, Dehra Dun has done excellent work in this area, particularly in hydro cracking of the crude product. The products obtained from

their latex biocrude were gases, naphtha, kerosene, gas oil, etc.

The xerophytic environment induces the higher production of waxes as an adaptation to preserve the precious water there. A laticiferous plants growing in the same area is having an added advantage of having waxes spread over the surface and polyterpenes distributed within. As a number of *Euphorbias* are found in arid and semiarid conditions, they are looked upon as the most potential sources of hydrocarbons the different species of *Euphorbias* (total 2000 species) are under the investigations. Following are some common petrocrops.

Calotropis procera, Capaeifera langsdortii, C. multijuga, Cryptostegia grandiflora, Euphorbia antisyphilitica, E. caudicifolia, E. lathyris (gasoline tree), *E. roylenca, E. tirucalli, Grindelia camphorum, G. squarrosus, Jatropha curcus* (ratnajyot), *Chrysanthamnus paniculatus, Hardwickia pinnata, Pedilanthus tithimaloides, Pittosporum resiniferum* (Petroleum nut), *Simondisa chinensis* (Jojoba), etc.

A petrocrop must be 1) fast growing, 2) highly adaptable to any environment, 3) easily cultivated, 4) have low harvesting costs, 5) high oil and hydrocarbon fractions. The presence of high quantities of fibre, protein and carbohydrates would increase their utility.

8

Environmental Pollution

8.1 Introduction

It is a fundamental right of every individual to be able to breathe fresh and pure air and to drink pure water. In case we are unable to enjoy these basic rights, it is our own fault individually or collectively. The human and farm animals excreta, pesticides, herbicides, automobile exhaust and industrial wastes unclean our environment. The smoke from domestic fires, exhaust gases from automobiles, smoke and fumes from factory chimneys pollute the air surrounding us. The trade waste and animal excreta pollute the water of rivers, lakes and wells, which are the main sources of drinking water for humans. Such polluted water causes diseases like cholera, typhoid, dysentery, etc. All these sources of air, water, soil, noise pollutions are the creations of man himself with the increase in civilization and because of an increasing expectation for higher living standards; more is made, used and thrown away. Man also has started polluting outer space. The rockets, missiles, spaceships and space laboratories are all polluting agents. If it appears, man

will destroy himself by his own devices. Science has provided us with many amenities, but on the other hand science has led to the discovery of formidable devices that will annihilate the entire universe in a minute.

Definition: Pollution is an undesirable change in the physical, chemical or biological characteristics of air, water and soil that may harmfully affect the life or create a potential health hazard of any living organism. OR

Pollution means the presence of different materials like solid substances, microorganisms, gases, etc. in the environment and these materials are harmful to human being and living organisms.

Any substance that causes pollution is called as **pollutant.** Air pollution, water pollution, soil pollution, noise pollution, radioactive pollution, thermal pollution, etc. are the types of pollutions.

8.2 Air Pollution

The atmosphere is a gaseous envelope, which surrounds the earth from all sides, and it is a mixture of several gases mainly nitrogen (78%), oxygen (20.95%), CO_2 (0.003%) and other gases in trace amounts. Air is very important for all types of life in the biosphere. Human life is not possible without air because man can live for a few days without water or for a few weeks without food but cannot survive even for a few minutes without air.

The air we breathe is never pure because some gases such as SO_2, H_2S, CO, emissions from volcanoes and swamps, windblown dusts, pollens from plants, etc. are continuously added to the air by the natural processes. Thus the air becomes polluted when it's natural composition is disturbed either by natural or man-made sources or by both.

Air pollution may be defined as 'when due to some natural processes or human activities the amount of solid wastes or concentration of gases other than O_2 increases in

air which normally has constant percentage of gases in it, so that the air becomes injurious to biological communities in general and human community in particular'.

Causes (sources) of Air Pollution: Air pollution results from gaseous emission from mainly industry, thermal power stations, automobiles, domestic consumptions, etc.

(i) ***Industrial waste or gases:*** There are number of industries which are the sources of air pollution. Petroleum refineries are the major sources of gaseous pollutants. The chief gases are SO_2 and NO_X. Exhaust gases comes out with smoke from the chimneys of factories. These gases contains particles of heavy metals such as Pb, Zn, Cu, al, Cd, etc as well as gases of CO, CO_2, SO_2, H_2S, HF, NO_X (NO_2- nitrogen oxide, NO- nitric oxide, N_2O– nitrous oxide, NO_3– nitrogen trioxide).

(ii) ***Thermal Power Stations:*** There are several power stations in India. The coal combustion of thermal power plants is several million tones. The chief pollutants released by the burning of the coal are fly ash, SO_2 and other gases and hydrocarbons.

(iii) ***Automobile and Transportation:*** The toxic vehicular exhaust is a source of considerable air pollution next only to thermal power plants. In all other major cities of the country about 800 to 1000 tones of pollutants are being emitted into the air daily, of which 50% comes from automobile exhaust. Vehicular exhaust account for 70% CO and others like hydrocarbons, oxides of nitrogen, SO_2 and other particulate matters.

(iv) ***Domestic sources:*** Domestic sources include pollutants emitted from the houses and offices in both rural and urban areas. The major domestic pollutants are smokes, burning of coal, firewood, cow-dung cakes, kerosene oil and liquefied gases.

(v) ***Other sources:*** Other sources of air pollution are minor in quantities, e.g. agriculture, which is responsible for pesticides, dust from agricultural practices, field burning. Nature also adds few pollutants such as pollens, hydrocarbons released by vegetation, dust from deserts, storms and volcanic activities.

Hazardous effects of air pollution: The effects of air pollution on the environment (both-biotic and abiotic components) may be grouped into following three categories.

I. ***Effects Human health:*** Following are the effects of air pollution on human health.

(i) Carbon monoxide is major pollutant and it combines with haemoglobine molecules of human blood much faster than oxygen (about 200 times) and cause suffocation in spite of the presence of sufficient amount of O_2 in the air.

(ii) Depletion of O_3 due to CFC's is expected to cause skin cancer mainly among white people because of increased exposure of human bodies to more u.v. solar radiations.

(iii) SO_2 originating from smog blocks the respiratory system of human bodies and cause deaths of human beings.

(iv) SO_2 also causes diseases of eyes, throat, and lungs. It also causes irritation of throat and nose.

(v) NO in high concentration in air causes respiratory problems, gum inflammation, internal bleeding, O_2 deficiency, pneumonia and lung cancer.

(vi) Numerous suspended particulate matter (SPM) emitted from factories and automobiles during

combustion of fossil fuel and from other industrial processes, such as lead, asbestos, zinc, copper, dusts, etc cause several deadly diseases in human bodies.

(vi) Sudden leakage of harmful and poisonous gases from chemical and gas plants pollute the air to such an extent that hundreds of people die within no time. E.g. **Bhopal Gas Strategy-**2/3 December 1984 is a burning example of one of the deadliest disaster caused by human negligence in the maintenance of deadly gases such as methyl iso-cynate; leakage claimed 2500 human lives (5000 according to non-government sources). It also polluted drinking water, soil, tank, pond water and adversely affected fetus, newly born babies, pregnant women, children, young and old peoples alike.

II. Effects on Plants and Other Animals: The increased u.v. radiations because of depletion of ozone layer would adversely affect plant and animal communities in a variety of ways. In plants it reduces photosynthesis, water use efficiency and yields of plants.

SO_2 from power stations, brick kilns, etc. exhibits such symptoms as necrosis of leaves, defoliation of young terminal branches, necrosis of fruit tips, reduction of fruit size, etc. NO_2 causes defoliation, chlorosis, necrosis, general growth retardation in plants, etc.

Fluorides and arsenic settles on fodder and when eaten this fodder, poisons the cattle and live stock.

$SO-_2$ and NO_2 affect plants, animals and aquatic communities by increasing acidity due to acid rain. Animals are sensitive to high concentration of these acids.

III. Effects on Weather and Climate: Different types of air pollutants caused by gaseous and particulate

pollutants modify weather and climate at local, regional and global levels. A few climatologically effects of air pollution are given below.

(i) ***Smog:*** Smoky fog over the cities and industrial areas is generally called as smog or urban smog. Smog is formed when fog is mixed with smoke. Air pollutants like SO_2, N_2O, O_3, etc from industries when mixed with smog it causes deadly health hazards to human beings. These pollutants readily combine with atmospheric oxygen (O_2) and reacts with water films on suspended particulate matter to produce acids (e. g. SO_2 to H_2SO_4, N-$_2$O to HNO_3, etc.). These air pollutants are trapped in shallower layer over the cities by inversion of temperature (warmer air over cooler layer) and thus are mixed with fog over cities.

(ii) ***Acid Rains:*** The fall out of acids with rain is called as acid rain. Some air pollutants like SO_2, N_2O etc emitted from combustion of fossil fuels in factories, automobiles in larger quantities into the atmosphere combines with water to form sulphate and sulphuric acid (H_2SO_4). These acids falls on the earth's surface with rainfall and thus the fall of highly acidic water from above is called acid rain. This acid rain affects plant and animal life and also damage several monuments and buildings of historical importance due to corrosion.

(iii) ***Depletion of Ozone:*** Depletion of ozone is caused by CFCs (Chlorofluorocarbons) emitted from air conditioners, refrigerators, foam plastics, hair driers, spray can dispensers, fire extinguishers and many cosmetic goods may change the radiation balance at global level.

(iv) ***Greenhouse effect:*** A green house is meant for plants mainly in the cold countries where total insolation at least during winter season is not sufficient enough to support plant growth. The glasses of greenhouse are such that these allow the visible sunlight to enter but prevent the long wave infrared rays to go out. A greenhouse does not have any provision for artificial heating.

The 'greenhouse effect' means progressive warming up of the earth's surface due to blanketing effect of man-made CO_2 in the atmosphere.

A green house is the body, which allows the short wave incoming solar radiations to come in, but does not allow the long wave outgoing terrestrial infrared radiations to escape. CO_2 and water vapors act as a green house in that these allows visible light of the sun to reach the surface of the earth but reflect back the long wave outgoing terrestrial radiation mainly infrared rays and thus helps in keeping the earth's surface warmer. The gases with the properties of greenhouse are called as '**Green House Gases'.** CO_2, water vapors, halogenated CFCs are the greenhouse gases.

But the most significant greenhouse gas is CO_2, which is released to the atmosphere by burning of fossil fuel, respiration of organisms and eruption of volcanoes. The amount of CO_2 in air is kept at constant (0.003% or 300 ppm) level by the green plants.

The most heat is absorbed by CO_2 and water vapors in the atmosphere add to the heat that is already present. The increasing CO_2 level tends to warm the air in the lower levels of atmosphere. Nearly one hundred years ago (1860 A. D. before industrial revolution) the CO_2 level was 275 ppm. Today (1988) it is 350 ppm, and by the year 2035-2040 it is expected to reach 450 ppm, and depending on the rate of use of fossil fuels, CO_2 level of 550 ppm could be reach some times between 2040-2100. According to some

computerized models doubling CO_2 levels will increase the global mean temperature by 4^0C. Temperature near the poles would raise 2-3 times this amount. Because of increase in the temperature the polar ice caps would melt and there will rise in the sea levels. A rise of 5^0C would raise the sea level by 5 meters within few decades threatening all the densely populated coasts from Shanghai to San Francisco. A rise in sea level of 50-100 cm caused by ocean warming would flood low-lying lands in West Bengal and Bangladesh. Due to greenhouse effect there may occur more cyclones and hurricanes and early snowmelt in mountains would cause more flood.

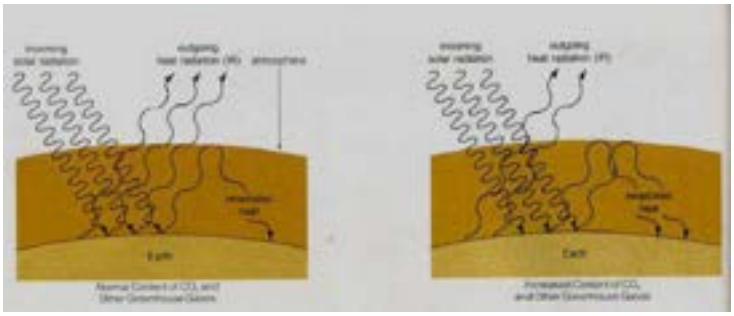


Fig: The Greenhouse effect

Control measures or Remedies for air Pollution: - Air pollution is a continuous process, which cannot be completely removed or checked, but by using some methods it can be minimized and it's effects can be removed by using some remedies. Following are some measures for preventing or controlling air pollution.

1. To create awareness among all walks of people in society and government bodies and officials towards the cause and effect of air pollution on health and wealth.
2. Factory area should be separate and quite some distance away from residential areas.

3. Old industrial processes should be so modified that they produce the least pollution. New once should be selected with this object in view before a factory is built.
4. Proper pollution control equipments should be installed at the designed state; later on it is more costly and economically unsound.
5. There should be a round clock measurement of pollution and when tolerance limit of pollution is reached in any area, the factories in that area should be closed.
6. Automobile engines should be so designed to reduce the amount of uncombusted carbon and the vehicles should be fitted with exhaust emission control.
7. The attempt should be given to develop electricity-based engines for automobiles.
8. The excess use of pesticides and insecticides should be stopped. In place bio-fertilizers and biological control measures should be applied.
9. The government must ban on nuclear explosion.
10. Forest area should be increased to produce fresh air.
11. The excessive use of chemical products that release CFCs and other harmful gases should be stopped quickly.
12. The attempt should be given to develop new sources of energy e.g. solar energy, wind energy, tidal energy, etc.

8.3 Water Pollution

Water is the most important element in the biosphere because it is vital for maintenance of all forms of life and it also helps in the movement, circulation and cycling of nutrients in the biosphere. It is found in various phases and various storages such as i) in liquid phase (storage such as

rivers, lakes, seas & oceans, soils, living organisms, etc), ii) in solid phase (storages such as glaciers & ice sheets and ice caps like ice caps of Arctic region, Greenland & Antarctica and mountain glaciers e.g. Alpine glaciers, Himalayan glaciers, etc) and iii) in gaseous phase (storage such as water vapors in the atmosphere).

Water is essential for power generation, irrigation of crops, disposal of sewage, etc. Only one percent of the total amount of water of the hydrosphere is available to human beings and other biotic communities from various sources such as ground water, rivers, lakes, soils, etc. increased demand of water consequent upon increasing population and industrial expansion has degraded the quality of water considerably.

Normally water is never pure in chemical sense. It contains impurities of various kinds-dissolved as well as suspended. These include dissolved gases (O_2, CO_2, N_2, etc), dissolved minerals (Ca, Mg, Na, etc), suspended matter (sand, silt, clay, etc) and even microbes. They are in very low amount and normally do not pollute water and it is potable. Water has self-purifying capacity during recycling processes, but when the amount of foreign undesirable substances added by the man to the water exceeds the tolerance level and beyond self-purifying capacity of water, it gets polluted.

Definition: water pollution may be defined as 'alteration in physical, chemical and biological characteristics of water which may cause harmful effect on human and aquatic life'. OR

'It is a natural or induced change in the quality of water which renders it unsuitable or dangerous as regards food, human and animal health, industry, agriculture, fishing or leisure purpose'.

Sources of water Pollution: The substances, which degrade the quality of water, are called as water pollutants. Following are the major sources of water pollution.

(i) ***Domestic sewage:*** Rivers and wells are the main sources of drinking water. These sources are usually polluted by domestic sewage, human excreta and excreta of birds and other animals. The purity of water is seriously affected when untreated or imperfectly treated sewage enters the natural sources of water like rivers, lakes and other sources. Such sewage may also percolate through the sol and reach its water table, which is then main source of drinking water through well. Besides carrying germs for water borne diseases the sewage organic matter is acted upon by naturally occurring bacteria and uses up oxygen content of the water thus causing oxygen depletion.

(ii) ***Industrial effluents:*** Most of the Indian rivers and fresh water streams are seriously polluted by industrial wastes or effluents which come along waste waters of different industries such as petrochemical complexes, fertilizer factories, oil refineries, pulp, paper, sugar, textile mills, distilleries, etc. The industrial wastes of these industries and mills include metals (Cu, Zn, Pb, Hg, etc), detergents, petroleum, acids, alkalis, phenols and other organic and inorganic chemicals and metallic ions are also the sources of water pollution.

(iii) ***Agricultural discharges:*** These include chiefly the chemicals used as fertilizers and the pesticides used in disease control. Their discharges reach into the water bodies through percolation. They are not disposed completely and enter into food chain and causes death.

Such discharge of sewage and other wastes in water results in depletion of oxygen level in water and there is stimulation of algal growth in water and because of this the water becomes unfit for drinking and other purposes. This is called as **eutrophication** (it is a natural process by

which a lake gradually becomes enriched in plant nutrients such as phosphates and nitrates as a result of natural erosion and run off from the surrounding land basin, it causes growth of rooted plants near shore and algal blooms of floating algae, especially the BGA species, which give the water the appearance of green soup and which release substances that makes the water taste and smell bad).

The problem of water pollution has already assumed alarming proportion in many large cities and industrial complexes in India. Each small town of India suffer from high level of water pollution because of open earthen sewage drains, uncovered earthen septic tanks and soak pits, improper drainage system and frequent water logging.

Orthodox religious faiths are also adding fuel to the problems of river water pollution, e.g. in spite of provision of electric crematorium in several big cities at the bank of Ganga, people still burn bodies with the wood and throw half burnt wood, ash and human bodies in the Ganga in the faith that by doing so the departed soul would be seated in the heaven. Another example is congregation of large number of people during pilgrimage, religious fairs, etc e.g. more than 30 million people from all over India congregate during **'Kumbha Mela'** at Allahabad, Ujjain, Nasik, Tryambakeshwar, Haridwar, etc.

Effects or hazards of water pollution: Water pollution causes irreparable damage to plants and animals including man. The most sufferers are human beings and microorganisms. Polluted water is the major cause for the spread of epidemics and several dangerous diseases such as cholera, typhoid, paratyphoid, diarrhoea, etc. The water polluted with solid minerals for drinking purpose causes fatal diseases, e.g. the consumption of water contaminated by fibers as asbestos causes lung cancer and stomach disease called **Asbestosis**, water polluted with mercury causes **Mina Mata** disease.

Water pollution mainly caused by toxic chemicals causes death of aquatic organisms including both-plants and animals. Due to pollution there is depletion of O_2 in water, which kills the living fishes and other aquatic organisms responsible for bio-purification of water.

The wastes from factories may kill fishes and cattle. The insecticides that accumulate in the body of fishes may cause cancer, nerve disorder and other serious diseases in man by consumption of fishes grown in such polluted water (fish poisoning).

The use of water contaminated with salts increase alkalinity in the soil. Contamination of seawater due to oil slicks resulting from leakages of crude oils from huge oil tankers and due to discharge of industrial and urban wastes causes ecological disasters in the littoral ecosystems because of mass death of sea organisms including fish.

Remedies or Control Measures: Control of water pollution requires several remedial measures involving individuals, community, governmental at national and international levels. Following are some measures,

(i) Individuals must be educated enough to understand the nature of water pollution and its adverse effects on human health and wealth.

(ii) The industrial units must be obliged to treat industrial effluent before discharging them into water bodies.

(iii) The Municipal Corporation must arrange for sewage treatment plant and government should provide adequate funds for water pollution control programme.

(iv) The best method of preventing and control of water pollution is the recycling of various kinds of wastes, e.g. dung of cow and buffaloes can be used for the production of gobar gas, a cheap source of fuel a well as manure. Domestic sewage after little

treatment can be used in garden or kitchen garden as a source of water.

(v) The government must bring in force effective laws for water pollution control measures.

8.4 Soil Pollution

Soils are in fact the very heart of the life layer (the biosphere) because these represents a zone where in plants nutrients are produced, held, maintained are made available to the plants through their roots and to the microorganisms which lice in the soils. Soil is also very important environmental factor for human society because i) it is the basic medium for food, fiber and timber production, ii) it provides foundation for buildings and roads, iii) it is very important exhaustible natural resource because it cannot be replaced if it is destroyed or lost through excessive soil erosion caused by anthropogenic activities and iv) it is the bone for the development of human civilization. The formation of soil is a slow process as the formation and development of one inch of soil requires about one thousand years where as the destruction of soils through erosion and pollution is quick process.

The quality of soil depends upon the nutrients (both-organic and inorganic), humus content, moisture, temperature, etc. present in the soil.

Definition: Decrease in the quality of the soil either due to anthropogenic sources or natural sources or by both is called as soil pollution or soil degradation.

Decrease in the quality of soil is caused due to the accelerated rate of soil erosion, decrease in plant nutrients, decrease in soil microorganisms, excess or deficit of moisture content, high fluctuations of temperature, lack of humus contents and input and concentration of various types of pollutants.

Sources of soil pollution: Following are some important sources of soil pollution.

(i) ***Physical sources:*** The physical sources of soil pollution are related to soil erosion caused by natural and anthropogenic factors. The natural factors include amount and intensity of rainfall, temperature, wind, topographic factors, vegetation and soil characteristics. These factors are further accelerated by human activities such as land use changes (e.g. deforestation and faulty agricultural practices).

(ii) ***Biological sources:*** These are the agents of soil pollution including those microorganisms and unwanted plants which degrade the quality and therefore the fertility of the soil and entire bacteria and protozoan. These microorganisms enter the soil from various sources and degrade them. These also enter the food chain and thus affect the human bodies.

(iii) ***Air borne sources:*** These are pollutants released into the atmosphere by 'human volcanoes' (chimneys of factories), automobiles, thermal power plants and domestic sources. The solid particulate pollutants released from the above sources are transported to the areas far away from the sources of emission by wind and are then deposited in the soil and soil becomes polluted due to such toxic substances.

(iv) ***Chemical fertilizers and biocides:*** These now become essential part of modern mechanized agriculture. Excessive use of chemical fertilizers to boost the agricultural production causes the alteration in the physical and chemical properties of soil. The most dangerous pollutants are different types of biocides that destroy microorganisms including useful bacteria and thus lower down the quality of soil significantly.

Effects or hazards of soil pollution: Effects of soil pollution on human beings, animals and plants are far reaching

(i) Since pollution degrade the quality of soil, soil pollution thus results in substantial decrease in agricultural production. Some forms of soil pollution even make the land unusable for crop farming, e.g. soil erosion converts the lands into wastelands.

(ii) Chemical pollutants in the form of chemicals, fertilizers, pesticides, insecticides and herbicides after reaching the soil, reach the human and animal bodies through food chain and cause various diseases and several deaths. According to an estimate, about 500,000 persons die every year in the world because of insecticides and pesticides, especially by DDT.

Control or Remedial measures: It is not only desirable but is also necessary to control soil pollution because the very existence of human being and animals depends upon the soil. So it is very necessary not only to maintain but also to enhance the quality of soil, because the supply of food for billions of world human population, fodder for animals and a host of raw materials come from soil.

The following steps may be suggested to control soil pollution,

(i) To implement various control measures of soil erosion.

(ii) Controlled and judicious use of chemical fertilizers, pesticides, insecticides and herbicides.

(iii) Use of synthetic fertilizers and pesticides must be replaced by bio-fertilizers and biological control methods respectively.

(iv) There should be immediate restriction on the use of DDT.

(v) Proper disposal of industrial and urban wastes should be done.

(vi) After proper treatment the urban and industrial effluents should be used for irrigation purpose.

(vii) Proper land use and crop management policies should be used.

(viii) Farmers must be educating about proper use of fertilizers and biocides.

(ix) Proper researches regarding the adverse effects of soil pollutants, mainly toxic chemicals on various components of natural ecosystem must be done.

8.5 Noise Pollution

Noise is defined as, "the unwanted, unpleasant or disagreeable sound that causes discomfort to all living beings". Statistically, ever since the industrial revolution, noise in the environment has been doubling every ten years. Sound intensity is measured in decibels (dB) that is the tenth part of the longest unit Bel. One dB is the faintest sound that a human ear can hear.

Types of Noise: Environmental noise has been doubling every ten years. Noise is classified as:

(i) Industrial Noise

(ii) Transport Noise and

(iii) Neighbourhood noise

(i) ***Industrial Noise:*** It is sound with a high intensity caused by industry machines. Such noise pollution is caused by machines from various factories, industries and mills. Noise from mechanical saws and pneumatic drills is unbearable and a nuisance to the public. The Indian Institute of Oto-Rino Laryngology, Chennai reported that increasing industrial pollution damages the hearing ability by at least 20%.

Workers in steel industry, who work close to heavy industrial blowers, are exposed to 112dB for eight hours

suffer from occupational pollution. Transport Noise: Transport noise mainly consists of traffic noise from road, rail and aircraft. The number of automobiles on roads like scooters, cars, motor cycles, buses, trucks and diesel engine vehicles has increased enormously in the recent past further aggravating the problem of transport noise.

Noise levels in most residential areas in metropolitan cities are hovering around the border line due to increased vehicular noise pollution. This high level of noise pollution leads to deafening in the elderly.

Neighbourhood noise: This type of noise includes disturbance from household gadgets and community. Common sources being musical instruments, TV, VCR, Radios, Transistors, Telephones, and loudspeakers etc.

Hazardous Effects of Noise Pollution

(i) Noise pollution affects both human and animal health. It leads to:
   (a) Contraction of blood vessels
   (b) making skin pale
   (c) Excessive adrenalin in the blood stream which is responsible for high blood pressure.
   (d) Blaring sounds are known to cause mental distress
   (e) Heart attacks, neurological problems, birth defects and abortion

(ii) Muscle contraction leading to nervous breakdown, tension, etc.

(iii) The adverse reactions are coupled with a change in hormone content of blood, which in-turn increases heartbeat, constriction of blood vessels, digestive spams and dilation of the pupil of the eye.

(iv) Adverse effects health, work efficiency and behaviour. Noise pollution may cause damage to

the heart, brain, kidneys, liver and may produce emotional disturbance.

(v) The most immediate and acute effect of noise is impairment of hearing that diminishes some part of the auditory system. Prolonged exposure to noise of certain frequency pattern leads to chronic damage to the inner ear.

(vi) Impulsive noise may cause psychological and pathological disorders

(vii) Ultrasonic sound can affect the digestive, respiratory, cardiovascular system and semi-circular canals of the internal ear.

(viii) The brain is adversely affected by loud and sudden noise by jets and airplanes. People are subjected to psychiatric illness.

(ix) Recent reports suggest that blood is thickened by excessive noise.

(x) The optical system of human beings is also affected by noise pollution. Severe noise pollution causes: Pupillary dilation, Impairment of night vision and Decrease in rate of color perception

Control Measures or Remedies for Noise Pollution

Source Control: This includes source modification such as acoustic treatment to machine surface, design changes, limiting operational timings, etc.

Transmission Path Intervention: This includes containing the source inside a sound insulating enclosure, constructing a noise barrier or provision of sound absorbing materials along the path.

Receptor Control: This includes protection of the receiver by altering the work schedule or provision of personal protection devices such as ear plugs for operating noisy machinery. The measure may include dissipation and deflection methods.

8.6 Thermal Pollution

Sources: The discharge of warm water into a river is usually called a thermal pollution. It occurs when an industry removes water from a source, uses the water for cooling purposes and then returns the heated water to its source. Power plants heat water to convert it into steam, to drive the turbines that generate electricity. For efficient functioning of the steam turbines, the steam is condensed into water after it leaves the turbines. This condensation is done by taking water from a water body to absorb the heat. This heated water, which is at least 15oC higher than the normal is discharged back into the water body.

Effects or hazards of Thermal Pollution: The warmer temperature decreases the solubility of oxygen and increases the metabolism of fish. This changes the ecological balance of the river. Within certain limits thermal additions can promote the growth of certain fish and the fish catch may be high in the vicinity of a power plant. However sudden changes in temperature caused by periodic plant shutdowns both planned and unintentional can change result in death of these fish that are acclimatized to living in warmer waters. Tropical marine animals are generally unable to withstand a temperature increase of 2 to 30C and most sponges, mollusks and crustaceans are eliminated at temperatures above 370C. This results in a change in the diversity of fauna as only those species that can live in warmer water survive.

(i) Decreased Dissolved Oxygen: Warm water holds less oxygen than cool water. If the oxygen level drops animals that cannot move to another area may begin to die. In deeper bodies of water, the injection of warm water can keep oxygen from dispersing into deep water, which is potentially good for bacteria but dangerous for aquatic animals. The decreased oxygen can cause algae blooms that

pose a threat to aquatic plants and animals. This algae bloom problem is probably the most common and best-known side effect of thermal pollution.

(ii) ***Loss of Biodiversity:*** The sudden heating can kill off vulnerable organisms or drive them away. This is one of many serious issues for threatened and endangered animal species. This loss can come from organisms dying from the hot water, being unable to reproduce as effectively as before, or simply leaving the area. We usually think of animals as casualties of water pollution, but multicelled aquatic plants are also at risk when thermal pollution changes the local aquatic ecosystem.

(iii) ***Ecological Impacts:*** The local aquatic ecosystem can be damaged by thermal pollution, especially if it is dramatic, as in copious amounts of warm water being dumped into a chilly pond or bay or river. "Thermal shock" can kill off insects, fish, and amphibians.

(iv) ***Migration:*** Fish and amphibians may move away from the warm water to a more-suitable location, disrupting the ecosystem for animals that remain. Birds may also be forced to leave in search of areas with more food.

(v) ***Increased Toxins:*** Toxins in the water are more a side effect of dumping waste water than a direct effect of thermal pollution. Chemical pollution is an almost inevitable side effect of using water for cooling. Solvents, fuel oil, and dissolved heavy metals end up in the lake or river where the cooling water gets dumped.

Control measures: Thermal pollution can be controlled by passing the heated water through a cooling pond or a cooling tower after it leaves the condenser. The heat is dissipated into the air and the water can then be discharged into the river or pumped back to the plant for reuse as

cooling water. There are several ways in which thermal pollution can be reduced. One method is to construct a large shallow pond. Hot water is pumped into one end of the pond and cooler water is removed from the other end. The heat gets dissipated from the pond into the atmosphere. A second method is to use a cooling tower. These structures take up less land area than the ponds. Here most of the heat transfer occurs through evaporation. Here warm waters coming from the condenser is sprayed downward over vertical sheets or baffles where the water flows in thin films. Cool air enters the tower through the water inlet that encircles the base of the tower and rises upwards causing evaporative cooling. A natural draft is maintained because of the density difference between the cool air outside and the warmer air inside the tower. The waste heat is dissipated into the atmosphere about 100 m above the base of the tower. The cooled water is collected at the floor of the tower and recycled back to the power plant condensers. The disadvantage in both these methods is however that large amounts of water are lost by evaporation.

The following methods can be adapted to control high temperature caused by thermal discharges:

(i) ***Cooling towers:*** Use of water from water systems for cooling systems for cooling purposes, with subsequent return to the water way after passage through a condenser, is called cooling process. Cooling towers transfer heat from hot water to the atmosphere by evaporation. Cooling towers are of two types:

- ***(a)*** ***Wet cooling tower:*** Hot water coming out from the condenser (reactor) is allowed to spray over baffles. Cool air, with a very high velocity, is passed from sides, which takes away the heat (from the hot water) and cools the water.
- ***(b)*** ***Dry cooling tower:*** In this case hot water is allowed to flow in long spiral pipes. Cool air

with the help of a fan is passed over these hot pipes, which cools down hot water. This cool water can be recycled.

(ii) ***Cooling ponds:*** Cooling ponds are the best way to cool thermal discharges. Heated effluents on the surface of the water in cooling ponds maximize dissipation of heat to the atmosphere and minimize the water area and volume.

(iii) ***Spray ponds:*** The water coming out from condensers is allowed to pass into the ponds through sprayers. Here water is sprayed through nozzles as fine droplets. Heat from the fine droplets gets dissipated to the atmosphere.

(iv) ***Artificial lakes:*** Artificial lakes are man-made water bodies that offer once-through cooling. The heated effluents can be discharged into the lake at one end and water for cooling purposes may be withdrawn from the other end. The heat is eventually dissipated through evaporation.

8.7 Environmental Pollution Control Measures

Environmental Pollution Legislation and Upgrading Administrative Organization

The Basic Law for Environmental Pollution Control was enacted to provide a proper basis for environmental pollution policy and for the development of other regulations and initiatives. Similarly, the Environment Agency was established to promote unified and coordinate policy initiatives, along with environmental pollution bureaus at the local government level. Environmental pollution has many different causes and affects us in a number of different ways. For this reason, it is important to have a comprehensive legal framework in place to enable the development of effective policy initiatives, backed by a single

organization with jurisdiction over environmental pollution control measures and the attendant governmental structures.

8.8 Pollution Prevention Research

Reducing environmental pollution requires specialized research, firstly to identify the types of pollution and how they are being generated, and secondly to identify the most effective method for dealing with them. In Japan, government pollution research institutes at the local and national level are staffed with dedicated researchers engaged in medical and environmental studies on pollution. Examples include a long-term epidemiological tracking study on the effects of environmental pollution on the human body, launched in 1970, and studies of community health management systems for anticipated health problems.

8.9 Financial Assistance for Prevention of Environmental Damage

Investment in equipment and technology designed to reduce pollution output can pose a significant financial burden in difficult economic circumstances, without providing any direct boost to company revenue. To encourage investment in pollution reduction initiatives, government financial institutions provided preferential taxation and financial measures, low-interest loans for plant and equipment investment, tax exemptions and special depreciation allowances. The Environment Pollution Control Service Corporation, meanwhile, promoted pollution reduction initiatives in industry by setting up green buffer zones and joint facilities for reducing environmental pollution, building joint-use production facilities and carrying out land reclamation projects.

8.10 Environmental Management

Environment is a fundamental and most essential part of our day to day life. Environmental management offers us a better livelihood by ensuring proper management in different sector of our life. Environment comprises various types of forces such as physical, intellectual, economic, political, cultural, social, moral and emotional. Environment is the sum total of all these external forces, influences and conditions, which affect the life, nature, behaviour and the growth, development and maturation of living organisms. In another word, Environment refers to the sum total of condition, which surround point in space and time. And environmental management is an attempt to control human impact on and interaction with the environment in order to preserve natural resources. It focuses on the improvement of human welfare for present and future generations. Environmental management system is simply a collection of activities undertaken to ensure that environmental issues are managed. It provides the following functions –

(a) Consistently complying with environmental laws;
(b) Improving overall environmental performance;
(c) Addressing environmental liability from current or past practices;
(d) Maximizing investment in environmental affairs;
(e) Integration of environmental objectives into overall mission and business objectives;
(f) Providing an environmentally safe workplace.

8.11 Types of Environmental Management

There are three broad categories of environmental management in the lifecycle:

(i) The construction environmental management plan
(ii) The operations environmental management plan and

(iii) The decommissioning environmental management plan.

These can be shown as follows-

The Construction Phase Environmental Management Plan

The construction phase EMP provides specific environmental guidance for the implementation and construction phase of a project. It is intended to enable the management and mitigation of construction activities so that environmental impacts are avoided or reduced. These impacts range from those incurred during start up (e.g. site clearing, erection of the construction camp) to construction activities (i.e. erosion, pollution of watercourses, noise, dust). Information presented in the EMP is typically categorized as follows:

(i) Identify the specific activity or potential impact that requires management;

(ii) Determine the mitigation measures to be implemented;

(iii) Identify the performance indicator;

(iv) Identify who would be responsible for implementation and

(v) Identify who would be responsible for monitoring.

9

Bioremediation

9.1 Introduction to Bioremediation

Biotechnology has emerged as an applied discipline of biological research with applications in agriculture, forestry, industry as well as medicine. An equally important area of global concern that has emerged only recently is the environmental applications of biotechnology in prevention and control of pollution. Two things should become evident while controlling pollution. Firstly, the disposal, treatment and removal of various pollutants of air, water and soil may not be acceptable due to cost benefit and other limitations. Secondly, some of the pollutants that are resistant to biodegradation (recalcitrant) lead to problem of biomagnifications. Moreover, there are situations where one feels helpless, e.g. when there are oil spills in marine water and when underground storage tanks of petrol begin to discharge hydrocarbons to subsoil and ground water due to leakage.

It has only been recognized quite recently that biological systems, primarily of microbial origin could prove potential means of degrading some such complex environmental pollutants as well as preventing pollution through waste

treatment (solid as well as liquid). Such recent environmental applications of biotechnology emerged into a new area of research and development-bioremediation.

Definition: Bioremediation is the use of living organisms (primarily microorganisms) to degrade environmental pollutants or to prevent pollution through waste treatment.

Bioremediation is emerging as most ideal alternative technology for removing pollutants from the environment restoring contaminated sites and preventing further pollution. This environment friendly technology is expanding range of organisms to be used to clean up pollution and forms a vital component of the so-called '**green movement'** of maintaining the nature's overall ecological balance, an issue at present being top priority of environmental awareness and public policy.

9.2 Need and Scope of Bioremediation

Bioremediation is needed because certain chemicals accumulate in the environment to level that threatens human health or environmental quality. It was in fact in mid 1960s, when DDT accumulation changed the old belief (that microbes were able to degrade all compounds entering the environment) that serious efforts were begun to exploit the natural capacity of microorganisms to degrade complex compounds. OECD (Organization for Economic Cooperation and development) has been sponsoring the meetings of scientists and government representatives from USA, Japan, and West European countries since 1991 to consider the environmental applications of biotechnology. At recent meeting of OECD workshop (held in Nov. 1994 in Tokyo), participants recognized that bioremediation can have local, regional and global applications and that both indigenous and genetically engineered microbe may play important role. The OECD estimated that world market potentials for all environmental biotechnologies would

nearly double in the 1990s rising from $40 billion in 1990 to $75 billion by 2000.

There is a search for naturally occurring microbes that have better pollutant degradation kinetics, attack a wider range of pollutant compounds and do so over a wider range of microbial growth conditions. There is also search for microbes that could grow under extreme environmental conditions such as tolerance to organic solvents, growth under extremely alkaline substrates or high temperatures.

Researchers have also been using genetic engineering to develop new microbial strains with noval biodegradative capabilities.

9.3 Phytoremediation

The ability of microorganisms to uptake and accumulate heavy metals such as Co, Cd, Zn, Mn, Pb, Ni, Hg, etc is very well known. Different bacteria, fungi (yeasts, dimorphic as well as filamentous) such as species of *Saccharomyces, Rhodotorulla, Aureobasidium, ophiostoma, Aspergillus, Rhizopus* and *Trichoderma,* some algae and diatoms such as *Thallossiosiro pseudonama* have such an ability and being studied for their biotechnological potentials as agents of effluent detoxification.

Among vascular plants, some aquatic weeds such as species of *Salvinia, Lemna, Azolla, Eicchornia,* sedges and even tree species are also known to tolerate, uptake and even accumulate heavy metals and other toxicants in their cells. Besides microorganisms plants are also being studied for their potential of environmental clean-up. Green plants are not only the lungs of nature with unique ability of purifying impure air by photosynthesis releasing oxygen to sustain aerobic life in the biosphere, but it has also been only quite recently demonstrated that they could also be very useful in cleaning up hazardous waste sites.

The process of recovery of hazardous substances from soil or ground water contaminated with municipal or industrial wastes, etc by using plants is called as **Phytoremediation.** Though Phytoremediation has a long history but its industrial application is quite recent. Plants are being tested for their ability to clean up contaminated soil, and even genetically engineered varieties are on the horizon. Some examples of experimental field tests of removal of toxicants from soil and industrial wastes by using plant systems are given below.

(i) ***Recovery of heavy metals from soil:*** Green plants such as specific strains of Indian mustard (*Brassica juncea)* can accumulate heavy metals when grown in chromium contaminated soils. Modified strains of this plant have been shown to accumulate up to 40% of their biomass as heavy metals, such as lead and chromium. Researches in the state of New Jersey in USA carried out field trials in 1994 and demonstrated that the plant could be safely grown in chromium contaminated site adjacent to Liberty State Park, New Jersey. A small amount of chromium was taken up by the plants and removed from the soil. The plants were then harvested and metal recovered for recycling or disposal. Tests to optimize metal uptake by such modified *Brssicas* are already in progress at these research centers. It is quite possible that in near future such plant systems could be effectively used for clean-up of metal contaminated soils of various states. *Sebertia acuminata* (sapotaceae) is another example, it is a native of New Caledonia and it accumulates 20-25% of its body dry weight of Nickel. The plant bleeds bluish-green latex.

(ii) ***Reclamation of industrial wastes and municipal wastewater:*** Plants as such may not be able to accumulate toxic pollutants from wastes. Roots and

rhizomes of some plants provide an ideal habitat for the growth of different microorganisms, chiefly bacteria and fungi. These microbes are very effective in remediation of contaminated wastewater and industrial wastes containing bromides, chlorides, sulphates, etc. The microbes remain active even in extreme conditions through frost and surface freezing and the hot summer as well as highly extreme pH and anaerobic reducing conditions. Each plant on earth harbors its own microbes around the roots and the microbes are able to adapt themselves with growing roots. In USA marsh plants like *Typha latifolia* and *Scirpus lacustris* have been successfully tested for reclamation of wastewater.

10

Plant Succession

Definition: According to Odum, "Plant succession may be defined as an orderly process of community change".In the words of Salisbury, "Plant succession is a competitive drift in which at each phase until the climax the constituent species render the habitat more favorable to their successors than to themselves."

Most plant associations are not static and constant in extent and character but tend to expand their range to cover the entire environment to which they are well suited. Some particular species, on account to its size, abundance and ability to compete successfully with its associates, usually becomes dominant.The presence of a particular dominant species, which is usually called as pioneer community, may in time change conditions so that a very different group of plants invade the community and eventually replace the original colonizers.

Climatic and topographic changes of various kinds may in time modify conditions so that there are marked changes in the distribution of plant associations. In a given locality one group of plants may thus encroach upon another. This kind of succession may be rapid, or it may extend over many years and it will continue until stability is attained through

the establishment of vegetation which is essentially permanent. This is called as climax association for the region in question.The great plant formations, such as forest, grassland, and tundra are climax formations. The process of succession may start at places like bare rocks, exposed soil surface, shallow water such as a small pool, silting up rivers and banks of a lake etc.

10.2 Types of Plant Succession by Nature of Bare

Depending upon the nature of bare area on which it develops, the succession may be of two kinds primary and secondary:

(i) ***Primary succession:*** It begins in areas which have previously been unoccupied by plants, such as open water, bare rock, or sand. When the succession starts on the extreme bare area on which there was no previous existence of vegetation it is called primary succession or preserve.This succession starts in the areas of extreme conditions and the process terminates after a long series of intermediate stages.

(ii) ***Secondary succession:*** This kind of succession begins wherever the existing vegetation has been destroyed without denuding the area of soil. It usually starts after forest fires, cutting of the trees, flood and erosions. It is also of common occurrence in abandoned agricultural lands. A single case of plant succession at a particular kind of habitat is usually referred to as a sere, and the various stages of a sere are called seral stages. This type of succession starts on the secondary bare area which was once occupied by original vegetation but later became completely cleared of vegetation by the process called denudation. This denudation process is brought about by the destructive agencies, such as

fire, cultivation, strong winds, and rains.When the existing vegetation of an area becomes completely destroyed by destructive agents, it becomes naked or bare. Such a bare area is termed denuded area or secondary bare area. The succession progressing on such an area is also termed sub-sere. Secondary succession has fewer stages than the primary succession and the climax is reached very quickly in the secondary succession.

10.3 Types of Plant Succession by Nature of the Habitat

Depending upon the nature of the habitat on which the plant succession begins seven types of seres may be distinguished:

(i) ***Hydrosere:*** When succession starts in aquatic habitat is called hydrosere.

(ii) ***Xerosere:*** When succession initiates on a dry, bare land called as xerosere

(iii) ***Lithosere:*** It starts on a bare rock surface.

(iv) ***Psammosere:*** Initiating on sandy habitats. Here the pioneer community comprises sand-binding grasses with runners, e.g. Spinifex and Ipomoea biloba.

(v) ***Halosere:*** It starts in saline soil or water. Here the pioneer plants usually have succulent leaves and stem e.g., Suaeda maritima, Acanthus ilicifolius, Chenopodium, Basella and some species of Asclapias.

(vi) ***Senile:*** It is the succession of micro-organisms and lower plants on dead plant parts and bodies.

(vii) ***Eosere or Geosere:*** It is the development of vegetation in an era.

The process of plant succession consists of nine steps. The nine steps are: (1) Nudation (2) Migration

(3) Germination (4) Ecesis (5) Colonization and Aggregation (6) Competition and Co-action (7) Invasion (8) Reaction and (9) Stabilization.

10.4 Process of Plant Succession

Major steps in an autotrophic succession are as follows:

(i) ***Nudation:*** An area is exposed.

(ii) ***Migration:*** The process of dispersal of seeds, spores and other structures of propagation of the species to bare area is known as migration.

(iii) ***Germination:*** It occurs when conditions are favorable.

(iv) ***Ecesis:*** Successful germination of propagules and their establishment in a bare area is known as ecesis.

(v) ***Colonization and Aggregation:*** After ecesis, the individuals of the species increase in number as the result of reproduction.

(vi) ***Competition and Co-action:*** Due to limited resources, species show both inter and intraspecific competition. This results into elimination of unsuitable and weaker plants.

(vii) ***Invasion:*** Various other types of plants try to establish in the spaces left by the elimination of plants due to competition.

(viii) ***Reaction:*** The newly arrived plants interrupt with the existing ones. As a result of reaction, environment is modified and becomes unsuitable for the existing community which sooner or later is replaced by another community.

(ix) ***Stabilization:*** Finally, there occurs a stage in the process when the climax community becomes more or less stabilized for a longer period of time and it can maintain itself in equilibrium with the climate of the area. As compared to seral stage community,

the climax community has larger size of individuals, complex organization, complex food chains and food webs, more efficient energy use and more nutrient conservation.

10.5 Major Trends during Succession

(i) There is an increase in structural complexity.
(ii) Diversity of species tends to increase.
iii. Biomass and standing crop increase.
(iv) There is a decrease in net community production.
(v) Increase in non-living matter.
(vi) Food chain relationship becomes complex.
(vii) Niche becomes special and narrower.
(viii) Energy use and nutrient conservation efficiency increases.
(ix) Stability increases.

10.6 Types of Seres

(A) Hydrosere:A sere beginning on a wet area is often referred to as a hydrosere. It may proceed in open bodies of water, such as ponds, lakes, and marshes etc.

Hydrosere consists following six seral stages

(i) Submerged stage: In this initial seral stage, a number of submerged aquatic plants, such as Hydrilla, Elodea, Potamogeton, Ceratophyllum, Najas, Vallisnaria, Utricularia, Ranunculus and several algae occupy the shallow pond or lake, which, accumulating after death and decay, gradually raise the bottom of the pond or lake. Silting may also be associated with this accumulation. The inadequate oxidation of flora and fauna remains of the lake results in the formation of humus-which makes the bottom of the lake firmer.

(ii) ***Floating stage:*** As the bottom of the lake is raised, a second, or floating, stage follows, characterized by plants like Nymphaea, Polygonum, Limnanthemum and Castalia etc. These plants are rooted in the mud, and their broad leaves float on the surface of the water shading the submerged plants below. Besides these, free floating plants like Azolla, Eichornia and Lemna may also make their appearance. The death and decay of the submerged and free floating plants further raise the level of the lake bottom and contribute further to the soil-building process. This initiates the next reed-swamp stage.

(iii) ***Reed-Swamp stage:*** This stage is initiated in extremely shallow waters (i.e., hardly one to four feet deep). The area is invaded by amphibious plants like Scirpus, Typha, Phragmites etc. These plants remain only partly submerged in water.

Their rhizomes are profusely branched and they are rooted in the bottom of the lake. These plants prevent light to reach submerged and floating plants which consequently die, and their dead remains settle down on the lake bottom raising its level further.

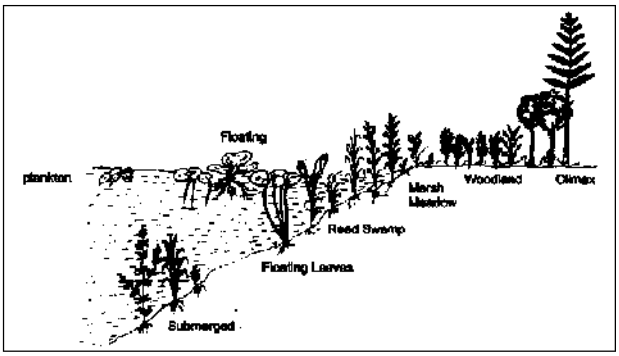


Fig: Stages in Hydrosere

Now a second group of plants, such as Sagittaria, Alisma and Acorus etc., invades the area. Eventually the

habitat is made unfit for the growth of the plants of reed-swamp stage. The soil becomes dry enough to afford a foothold for terrestrial species.

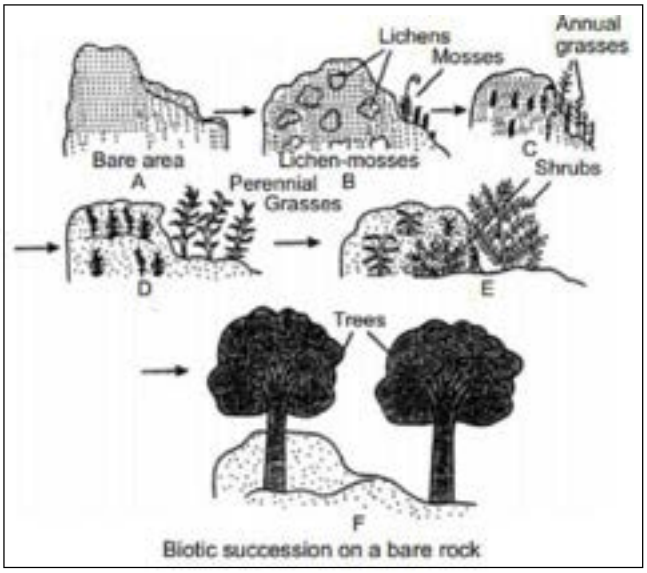
(iv) ***Sedge meadow stage:*** Reed-swamp stage is followed by sedge-meadow stage which is characterized by plants like Carex, Juncus and Eleocharis. The soil level continues to rise and soil organic matter continues to increase. More competent and dominant plants, such as Mentha, Caltha, Iris, Galium, Campanula and Teuricum etc., invade the area. By excessive transpiration and soil binding, these species make the area too dry for any hydrophytic plant. This eventually leads to other-sub-climax vegetation.

(v) ***Woodland stage:*** The sedge-meadow stage leads to the formation of heath land which remains saturated with water in spring and early summer. A new sub-climax vegetation dominated by shrubs and small trees make their appearance in this area. Important among these plants are Salix, Cornus, Cephalanthus, Alnus and Populus etc. Due to shade of these plants grasses and sedges disappear from the area. Shrubs and trees further lower the water table and bind the soil.

(vi) ***Climax forest stage:*** As more and more plants appear in the area, competition among these plants also intensify and soil organic matter further increases, soil becomes more fertile and consequently the area is invaded by larger trees. Competition then becomes less intense as the community becomes stable and a climax state is reached. It may also be pointed out here that succession in water always does not necessarily lead to land community. When succession starts in deep and large open water it may lead to a stable aquatic vegetation.

(B) Xerosere:When succession starts on a dry, bare area, it is usually referred to as xerosere. When the bare area is dry, the pioneers may be more or less xerophytic, the degree of xerophytism depending on local climate and physiographic factors.

A Xerosere usually includes the following six seral stages:



Biotic succession on a bare rock

(i) ***Crustose lichen stage:*** Succession on the bare rock surfaces begins with crustose lichens as pioneers. These lichens migrate to the rocks by means of wind-borne spores and soredia. The lichens grow only when enough moisture is available, but they can withstand drought conditions for long.The lichens release carbon dioxide during respiration which after combining with water forms a weak acid. The mechanical and chemical action of the lichens on the underlying rock, loosens particles, which, together with decaying lichen remains form a thin

layer of soil on the soil surface. The requisite nitrogen is brought in by rain and wind-blown dust. These lichen form pioneer community.

(ii) ***Foliose lichen stage:*** Simple crustose lichens may be followed by larger, leafy forms, such as Parmelia, Dermatocarpon. Umbilicaria, which grow on the slight accumulation of soil and humus Foliose lichens further loosen the rock particles. They overshadow the crustose lichens which eventually die and decay thus increasing the amount of humus in the soil.

(iii) ***Moss stage:*** Lichens are succeeded by mosses, which, like lichens, are able to survive in dry environment. These mosses are xerophytic in nature and important among these are the species of Polytrichum and Tortula.These mosses form an open community connected with a dense rhizoid system which passes through and binds together a few millimeters of soil particles. Among the shoots of these mosses wind and water borne soil continues to accumulate. The primary role of these mosses is to stabilize the soil surface and to increase its water-holding capacity.

(iv) ***Herbaceous stage:*** The moss plants increase in number until a close carpet of moss is formed over the soil. The mosses shade the lichens and successfully compote with them for water and nutrients which eventually result in the death of the lichens. The death and decay of the lichens and old mosses add to the amount of organic matter in the soil and still further increases its water- holding capacity.In his way the habitat is rendered suitable for the growth of higher plants and consequently a

new community of herbaceous plants, such as Festuca, Verbascum, Poa, Potentilla and Solidago etc., invade the area. The herbaceous plants over shadow the mosses, compete successfully with them for space, water and nutrients. The soil increases in thickness by disintegration of the rock and the decay of the various plant parts, more nutrients become available and next higher community, dominated by shrubs, appear.

(v) ***Shrub stage:*** Shruby plants, such as Rhus, Physocarpus, Symphocicarpous, invade the area, erstwhile dominated by herbaceous plants, by means of seeds and underground rhizomes. The herbaceous plants of the preceding stage, now shaded, tend to disappear. The death and decay of the herbaceous plants further enrich the soil. As the shrubs grow in size and number, they continue to modify the soil and make the habitat more and more suitable for the support of still higher plants i.e., trees.

(vi) ***Climax forest stage:*** The first tree species to invade the area are usually xerophytic in character, but as the soil moisture increases, these are gradually replaced by mesophytic ones. The mesophytic species compete successfully and become dominant because their seedlings are much more shade-tolerant. Competition gradually becomes less intense as the community becomes stable and a climax state is reached.

The plants of climax community propagate and maintain the character of the community unless the climate changes or community is disturbed by man, fire or some other agency.

10.7 Differences Between Succession on Land and in Water

Succession on Land	Succession in Water
1. It begins with lichens or blue green algae.	1. It begins with phytoplanktons.
2. Initial succession is a slow process.	2. Initial succession is quite fast.
3. The whole of the area is involved in formation of climax community.	3. Climax community develops on the edge only.
4. Succession converts xeric environment to mesic environment.	4. It converts aquatic environment into mesic environment.
5. It reduces bare land area and converts it into fertile forest area.	5. It fills up water body and changes it into forest land.

11

Ecological Adaptations (Plant Adaptations)

11.1 Introduction and Ecological Classification of Plants

The living organisms react with their environments and they bear full impression of the environments in which they grow.In order to withstand adverse conditions of the environment and utilize to their maximum benefit the nutrients and other conditions prevailing therein, the organisms develop certain morphological, anatomical, physiological and reproductive features.Any feature of an organism or its part which enables it to exist under conditions of its habitat is called adaptation. Every organism develops certain adaptations and so does the population or a community. The completion of life cycle of an organism or stabilization of a community results through a series of adaptations which have survival value.

Adaptations of survival value comprise such features as prevent destruction of vital vegetative tissues and help in large production and efficient dissemination of reproductive bodies. Warming (1895) had realized for the

first time the influence of controlling or limiting factors upon the vegetation in ecology. He classified plants into several ecological groups on the basis of their requirements of water and also on the basis of nature of substratum on which they grow.

11.2 Classified Plants on the Basis of Nature of Substratum (Soil) into the following groups.

i) Plants of acidic soil (Oxylophytes)
(ii) Plants of saline soil (Halophytes)
(iii) Plants growing on the sand (Psammophytes)
(iv) Plants growing on the surface of rocks (Lithophytes)
(v) Plants growing in the crevices of rocks (Chasmophytes).

Epiphytes are not included in the above classification because of the fact that they do not have permanent connection with the soil. Warming's second classification (1909) of the plants is based on their water relations. The supply of water to the plants and regulation of transpiration are the factors that evoke great differences in plant forms and plant life.

11.3 On the basis of their water requirement and nature of soils, the plants have been classified as follows:

I. ***Hydrophytes:*** Plants growing in or near water.

II. ***Xerophytes:*** Plants adapted to survive under the condition of very poor supply of available water in the habitats.Xerophilous plants are further classified on the basis of their habitats as follows:

(i) Oxylophytes (on acid soils)
(ii) Halophytes (on saline soils)
(iii) Lithophytes (on rocks)
(iv) Psammophytes (on sand and gravels)

(v) Chersophytes (on waste land)
(vi) Eremophytes (on deserts and steppes)
(vii) Psychrophytes (on cold soils)
(viii) Psilophytes (savannah)
(ix) Sclerophytes (Forest and bushland)

III. ***Mesophytes:*** Plants growing in an environment which is neither very dry nor very wet. The detailed description of only some important ecological groups is given here.

11.4 Hydrophytes: (Greek, Hudor = water and Phyton = Plant; water plant)

Plants which grow in wet places or in water either partly or wholly submerged are called hydrophytes or aquatic plants. Examples are Utricularia, Vallisneria, Hydrilla, Chara, Nitella, Lotus, Ceratophyllum, Trapa, Pistia, Eichhornia (water hyacinth), Wolffia, Lemna, etc. Aquatic environment provides a matrix for plant growth in which temperature fluctuation is at minimum and the nutrients occur mostly in dissolved state but light and oxygen become deficient with the increase m depth of water bodies. Zonation of aquatic vegetation with increasing depth is a device for maximum utilization of light energy.

The aquatic environment is subject to water movements ranging from small vertical circulation to strong currents. Streams have a unidirectional movement and m seas the movement is reversible. The currents of water often abrade the inhabiting flora and varied modifications are encountered to withstand this abrasive action. Since water makes up a large proportion of the bodies of plants and animals (70 to 90% water in protoplasm), it affects all life processes directly.

In plants, the rate and magnitude of the photosynthesis, respiration absorption of nutrients, growth and other metabolic processes are influenced by the amount of

available water. Low relative humidity increases water loss through transpiration and affects plant growth. Conversely, plants in the regions with high moisture show reduced transpiration.

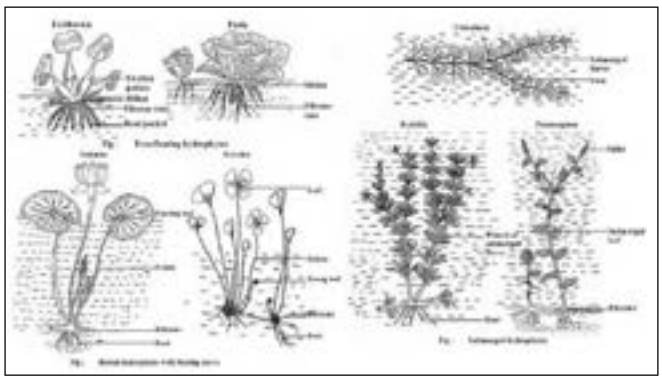
Some aquatic groups of higher plants probably originated from mesophytes. In the course of evolution several changes the physiology, morphology and behavior, all related to the aquatic mode of life, took place and by these evolutionary changes the mesophytic plants have become adapted to aquatic mode of life.

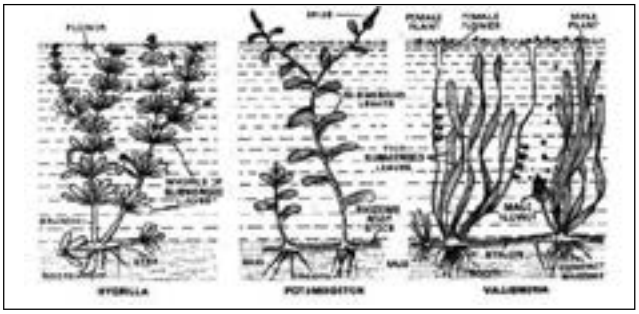
Classification of Hydrophytes

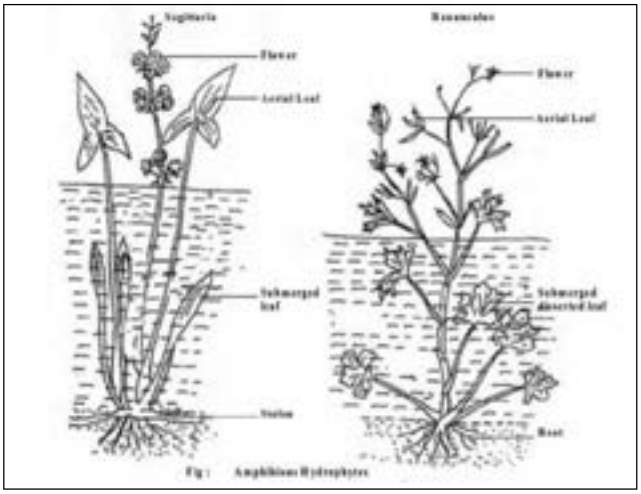
According to their relation to water and air, the hydrophytes are grouped into the following categories:

(a) Submerged hydrophytes
(b) Floating hydrophytes
(c) Amphibious hydrophytes.

(a) Submerged hydrophytes: Plants which grow below the water surface and are not in contact with atmosphere are called submerged hydrophytes. Such plants may be free-floating or rooted. Example Vallisneria, Hydrilla, Potamogeton, Najas. Ceratophyllum Mynophyllum, Utricularia, Chara, Nitella and a number of aquatic microbes.







(b) ***Floating hydrophytes:*** Plants that float on the surface or slightly below the surface of water are called floating hydrophytes. These plants are in contact with both water and air. They may or may not be rooted in the soil. On this ground, the floating plants have been divided into two groups.

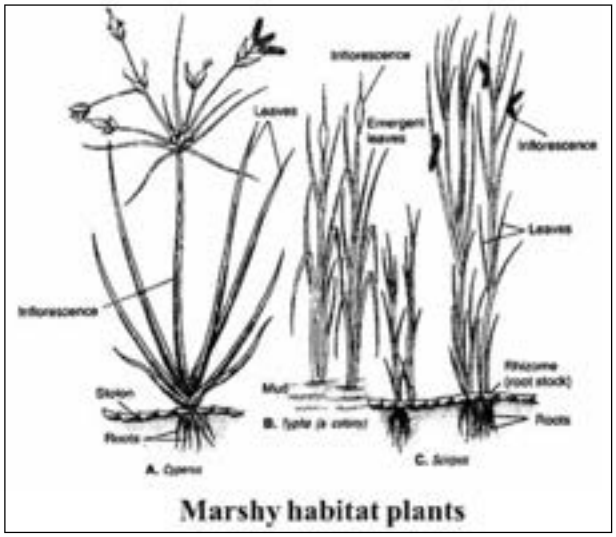
(i) ***Free floating hydrophytes:*** These plants float freely on the surface of water but are not rooted in the mud. Examples-wolffia arhiza and Wolffia microscopica (a rootless minutes duck weed). Trapa bispinosa, Lymnanthemum. Eichhornia crassipes (water hyacmth, Verna—

Jalkumbhi), Salvinia (a fern), Azolla (a water fern).

(ii) ***Floating but rooted hydrophytes:*** Some submerged plants are rooted in muddy substrata of Ponds Rivers and lakes but their leaves and flowering shoots float on or above the surface of water. They are grouped as floating but rooted hydrophytes. Nelumbium speciosum (Lotus), Victoria regia (water lily), Ceratopteris thalictroides (a hydrophytic fern of family Parkariaceae), etc.

(c) ***Amphibious hydrophytes:*** These plants are adapted to both aquatic and terrestrial modes of life. Amphibious plants grow either in shallow water or on the muddy substratum^ Amphibious plants which grow in saline marshy places are termed as 'halophytes. Roots and some parts of stems and leaves in these plants may be submerged in water or buried m mud but some foliage, branches and flowering shoots spring well above the surface of water or they may spread over the land.

The aerial parts of these amphibious plants show mesophytic or sometimes xerophytic features, while the submerged parts develop true hydrophytic characters. Some varieties of rice plants, (Oryza sativa), Marsilea, Sagittaria. Alisma, Jussiaea. Neptuma, Commelina, Polygonum, Ranunculus aquatilis, Phragmites. Enhydra fluctuans, etc. are familiar examples of this group of hydrophytes. In some amphibious plants the shoots are completely exposed to air as m land plants but the roots are buried in water lodged soil or mud. They are called marsh plants. The common examples of marsh plants are Cyperus, Typha, Scirpus, Rumex, etc.



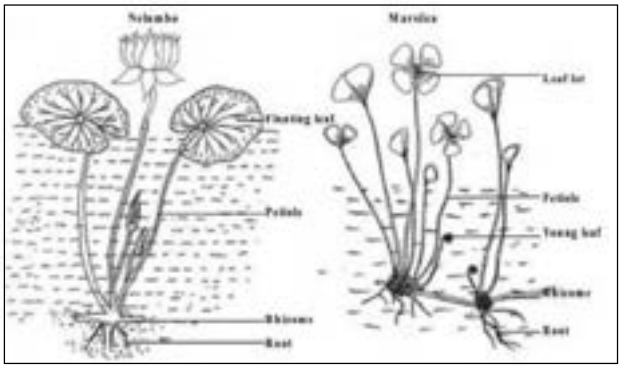


Fig. Rooted Hydrophytes with Floating Leaves

These are listed below:

(i) Temperature of water
(ii) Osmotic concentration of water
(iii) Toxicity of water

The osmotic concentration and toxicity are dependent upon the amount and nature of chemical substances dissolved in water. The physiology of aquatic plants is greatly affected by the change in osmotic concentration of

water. The aquatic plants are subjected to less extremes of temperature because water is bad conductor of heat (i.e., it takes long time m its heating and cooling). Hydrophytes are less affected as the transpiration from the plant tissue is completely out of question.

11.5 Hydrophytic Adaptations

As the aquatic environment is uniform throughout, the hydrophytes develop very few adaptive features.

Important features of these plants are described in the following heads

A. Morphological

(i) ***Roots:*** Root systems in hydrophytes are poorly developed which may or may not be branched in submerged hydrophytes. Roots are meaningless as body which is in direct contact with water acts as absorptive surface and absorbs water and minerals. This may probably be the reason why roots in hydrophytes are reduced or absent. Roots of floating hydrophytes show very poor development of root hairs.

Roots in floating plants do not possess true root caps but very often they develop root pockets or root sheaths which protect their tips from injuries. Exact functions of these root pockets, however, are not fully understood. Some rooted hydrophytes like Hydrilla, Valhsnena sptrahs, Elodta canadensis, though they derive their nourishments from water by their body surfaces, are partly dependent on their roots for minerals from the soil.

Roots are totally absent in some plants, e g., Ceratophyllum, Salvinia, Azolla, Utricularia, etc. In Jussiaea repens two types of roots develop when the plants grow on the surface of water, some of

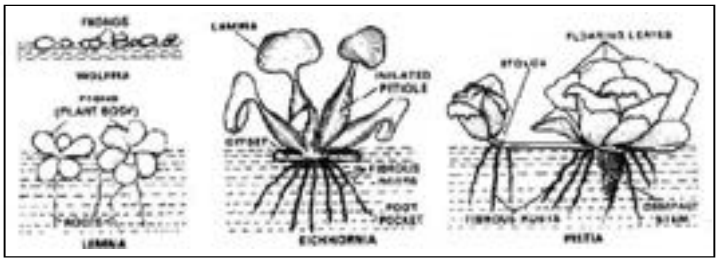
them are floating roots which are negatively geotropic having spongy structures. The floating roots keep the plants afloat.

(ii) ***Stem:*** In aquatic plants, stem is very delicate and green or yellow in colour. In some cases it may be modified into rhizome or runner, etc.

(iii) ***Leaves:***

(a) In floating plants leaves are generally peltate, long, circular, light or dark green in colour, thin and very smooth. Their upper surfaces are exposed in the air but lower Les are generally in touch with water. In lotus plant petioles of leaves show indefinite power of growth and they keep the laminae of leaves always on the surface of water.

(b) ***Heterophylly:*** Some aquatic plants develop two different types of leaves in them. This phenomenon is termed as heterophylly. Examples are Sagittaria sagittaefolia, Ranunculus aquatilis, Limnophila heterophylla, Salvinia, Azolla etc. In this phenomenon, generally the submerged leaves are linear ribbon shaped or highly dissected and the leaves that are found floating on or above the surface of water are broad circular or slightly lobed. The occurrence heterophylly is associated probably with the following characteristic physiological behaviours of these aquatic plants.



(i) Quantitative reduction in transpiration.

(ii) The broad leaves on the surface overshadow the submerged dissected leaves of the same plant and thus they reduce the intensity of light falling on the submerged leaves. The submerged leaves require light of very low intensity.

(iii) Plants show very little response to drought because the necessity of excess water during drought period is compensated by submerged leaves which act as water absorbing organs.

(iv) Variation in the life-forms and habitats.

(v) Broad leaves found on the surface of water transpire actively and regulate the hydrostatic pressure in the plant body.

(c) Leaves of free floating hydrophytes are smooth, shining and frequently coated with wax. The wax coating protects the leaves from chemical and physical injuries and also prevents the water clogging of stomata.

(d) In floating plants of water hyacinth, Trapa etc., the petioles become characteristically swollen and develop spongyness which provides buoyancy to these plants.

(e) Leaves in submerged hydrophytes are generally small and narrow. In some case, e.g., Myriophyllum, Utricularia, Ceratophyllum, etc., they may be finely dissected. The mall slender terete segments of dissected leaves offer little resistance against the water currents. In this way plants are subjected to little mechanical stress and strain of water.

(f) In the Amphibious plants, the leaves that are exposed to air show typical mesophytic features. They are more tough than the leaves of other groups of hydrophytes.

(g) Pollination and dispersal of fruits and seeds are accomplished by the agency of water. Seeds and fruits are light in weight and thus they can easily float on the surface of water.

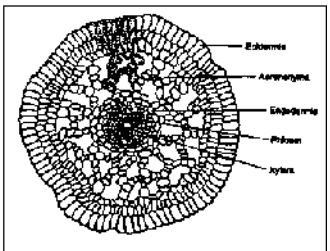
(h) Vegetative reproduction is common method of propagation in hydrophytes. It is accomplished either through fragmentation of ordinary shoots or by winter buds. In algae, reproduction is accomplished by zoospores and other specialized motile or non-motile spores.

B. Anatomical Modifications

The anatomical modifications in hydrophytes aim mainly at:

(i) Reduction in protecting structures,
(ii) Increase in the aeration,
(iii) Reduction of supporting or mechanical tissues, and
(iv) Reduction of vascular tissues.

Various anatomical adaptations of hydrophytes are listed below:



T.S. of Hydrilla stem

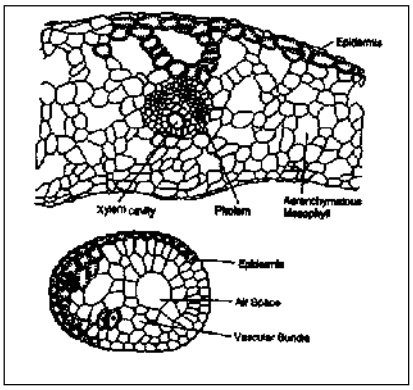
I. Reduction in protecting structures:

(a) Cuticle is totally absent in the submerged parts of the plants. It may be present in the form of very fine film on the surfaces of parts which exposed to atmosphere.

(b) Epidermis in hydrophytes is not a protecting layer but it absorbs water, minerals and gases directly from the aquatic environment. Extremely thin cellulose walls of epidermal cells facilitate the absorption process.

(c) Epidermal cells contain chloroplasts, thus they can function as photosynthetic tissue, especially where the leaves and stems are very thin, e.g. Hydrilla.

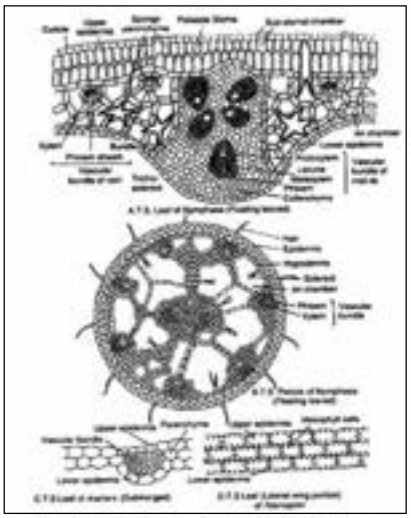
(d) Hypodermis in hydrophytes is poorly developed. Its cells are extremely thin walled.



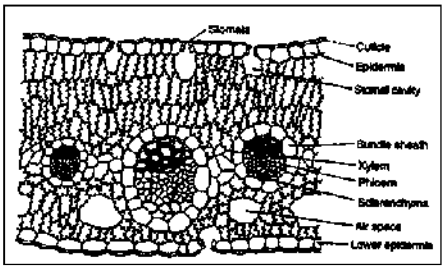
T.S. of submerged leaves. Vallisneria and ceratophyllum

II. Increase in the aeration:

(a) Stomata are totally absent in submerged parts of the plants. In some exceptional cases, vestigial and functionless stomata have been noticed. In these cases exchange of gases takes place directly through cell walls. In the floating leaves, stomata develop in very limited number and are confined only to the upper surface. In amphibious plants stomata may be scattered on all the aerial parts and they develop comparatively in larger number per unit area than those on the floating leaves.



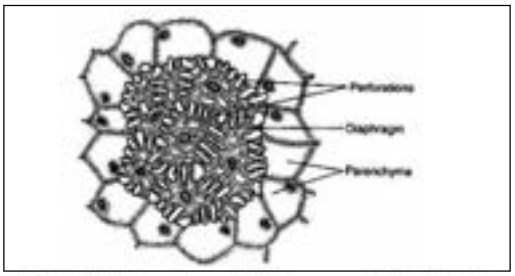
Anatomical features of some hydrophytic leaves



V.S. of an amphibious leaf

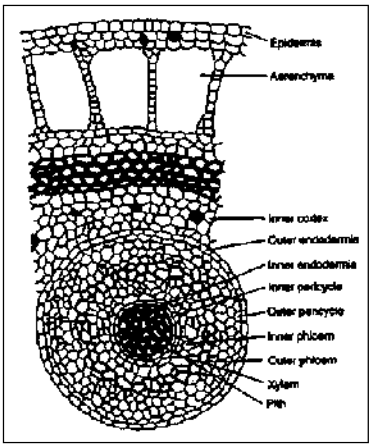
(b) ***Air chambers:*** Aerenchyma in submerged leaves and stem is very much developed. Air chambers are filled with respiratory gases and moisture. These cavities are separated from one another by one or two cells thick chlorenchymatous partitions. The different types of air chambers are CO_2 present in the air chambers is used in the photosynthesis and the O_2 produced in the process of photosynthesis and also that already present in the air chambers is used in respiration.

The air chambers also develop finely perforated cross septa which are called diaphragms. The diaphragms afford better aeration and perhaps check floating. The Aerenchyma provides buoyancy and mechanical support to aquatic plants. Air chambers are abundantly found in the fruits of hydrophytes rendering them buoyant and thus facilitating their dispersal by water.



Detailed structure of diaphragm of Pontederia

Development of air chambers in the plants is governed by habitat. This point is clear from the anatomy of Jussiaea suffructicosa. In this case, air chambers develop normally if plants are growing in water but they seldom develop if the plants are growing on the land.



T.S. of Marsilea rhizome

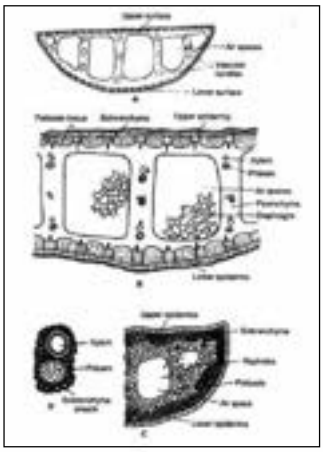
III. Reduction of supporting or mechanical tissues:

(a) Mechanical tissues are absent or poorly developed in the floating and submerged parts of plants because buoyant nature of water saves them from physical injuries. The thick walled sclerenchymatous tissue is totally absent m submerged and floating hydrophytes. They may, however, develop in the cortex of amphibious plants particularly in the aerial or terrestrial parts. Generally elongated and loosely arranged spongy cells are found in the plant body. These thin-walled cells, when turgid, provide mechanical support to the plants.

(b) The reduction of absorbing tissue (roots act chiefly as anchors and root hairs are lacking).

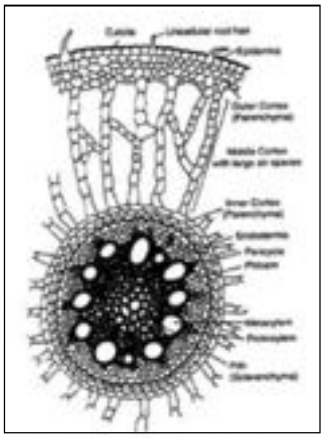
(c) In water lily and some other plants, special type of star shaped lignified cells, called asterosclereids, develop which give mechanical support to the plants.

IV. Reduction of vascular tissues: Conducting tissue is very poorly developed. As the absorption of water and nutrients takes place through the entire surface of submerged parts, there is little need of vascular tissues in these plants. In the vascular tissues, xylem shows greatest reduction. In some cases, it consists of only a few tracheids while in some, xylem elements are not at all developed. Some aquatic plants, however, show a lacuna in the centre in the place of xylem. Such spaces resemble typical air chambers.

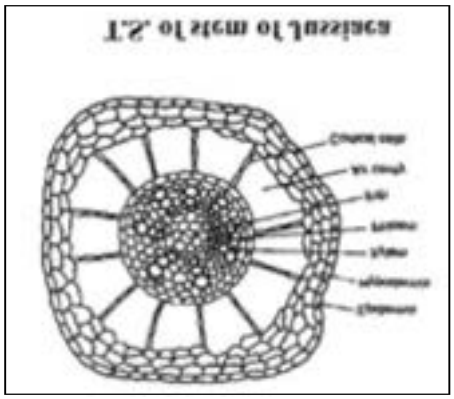


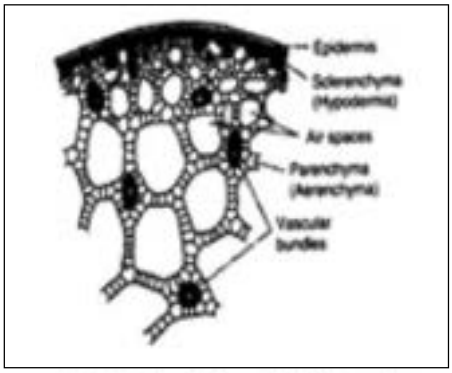
Anatomy of leaf Typha

Phloem tissue is also poorly defined in most of the aquatic plants but in some cases it may develop fairly well. Sieve tubes of aquatic plants are smaller than those of mesophytes. Phloem parenchyma is extensively developed. Endodermis may or may not be clearly defined. The Vascular bundles are generally aggregated towards the centre. Secondary growth in thickness does not take place in the aquatic stem and roots.



T.S. of root of *Typha latifolia*





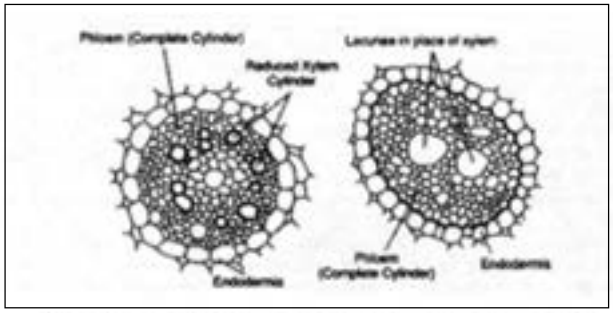
T.S. of petiole of Eichhornia

Distinctive features of different groups of hydrophytes are summarized in the following chart.

C. Physiological adaptations in hydrophytes: The aquatic plants exhibit a low compensation point and low osmotic concentration of cell sap. Osmotic concentration of cell sap is equal or slightly higher than that of water. Nutrients are absorbed by the submerged plants through the general plant surface. The gases are exchange from the water through the surface cells.

The gases produced during photosynthesis and respiration are partly retained in the air chambers of

aerenchyma to be utilized as and when required. There is no transpiration from the submerged hydrophytes. However emergent plants and free floating hydrophytes have excessive rate of transpiration. Mucilage cells and mucilage canals secrete mucilage to protect the plant body from decay under water.



T.S. of stele of the stem of *Elatine and potomogeton*

11.6 Xerophytes

Plants which grow in dry habitats or xeric conditions are called xerophytes. Places where available water is not present adequate quantity are termed xeric habitats.

Xeric habitats may be of following types:

(i) Habitats physically dry (where water retaining capacity of the soil is very low and the climate is dry, e.g., desert, rock surface, waste land, etc.).

(ii) Habitats physiologically dry (places where water is present in excess amount but it is not such as can be absorbed by the plants easily. Such habitats may be either too salty or too acidic, too hot or too cold).

(iii) Habitats dry physically as well as physiologically, e.g., slopes of mountains.

Xerophytes are characteristic plants of desert and semi-desert regions, yet they can grow in mesophytic conditions where available water is in sufficient quantity. These plants

can withstand extreme dry conditions, low humidity and high temperature.

When growing under unfavorable conditions, these plants develop special structural and physiological characteristics which aim mainly at the following objectives:

(i) To absorb as much water as they can get from the surroundings;

(ii) To retain water in their organs for very long time;

(iii) To reduce the transpiration rate to minimum; and

(iv) To check high consumption of water

Xerophytes are categorized into several groups according to their drought resisting power. These groups are as follows:

(i) Drought escaping plants: These xerophytes are short-lived. During critical dry periods they survive m the form of seeds and fruits which have hard and resistant seed-coats and pericarps respectively. At the advent of favorable conditions (which are of very short duration), the seeds germinate into new small sized plants which complete their life cycles within a few weeks' time. The seeds become mature before the dry condition approaches.

In this way, plants remain unaffected by extreme conditions. These are called ephemerals or drought evaders or drought escapers. These plants are very common in the semiarid zones where rainy season is of short duration. Examples—(Papilionatae), some inconspicuous compositae (e.g., Artemesid) and members of families Zygophyllaceae, Boraginaceae, some grasses etc.

(ii) Drought enduring plants: These are small sized plants which have capacity to endure or tolerate drought.

(iii) ***Drought resistant plants:*** These plants develop certain adaptive features in them through which they can resist extreme droughts. Xerophytes grow on a variety of habitats. Some grow on rocky soils (Lithophytes) some in deserts, some on the sand and gravels (Psammophytes) and some may grow on the waste lands (Eremophytes). Some plants of xeric habitat have water storing fishy organs, while some do not develop such structures.

On this ground xerophytes can be divided into two groups which are as follows:

(i) Succulent xerophytes.

(ii) Non-succulents, also called true xerophytes.

Succulent xerophytes are those plants in which some organs become swollen and fleshy due to active accumulation of water in them or in other words, the bulk of the plant body is composed of water storing tissues. Water stored in these tissues is consumed during the period of extreme drought when the soil becomes depleted of available water.

11.7 Xerophytic Adaptations

Plants growing in the dry habitats develop certain structural devices in them. These structure modifications in xerophytic plants may be of two types.

(i) ***Xeromorphic characters:*** Xerophytic characters that are genetically fixed and inherited are referred to as xeromorphic. They will appear in the xerophytes irrespective of conditions whether they are growing in deserts or in humid regions. Halophytic mangroves and many other evergreen trees, although growing in moist conditions always develop xeromorphic characters.

(ii) ***Xeroplastic characters:*** These features are induced by drought and are always associated with dry

conditions. They are never inherited. These characters may disappear from plants if all the favourable conditions are made available to them.

Important xerophytic features are summarized under the following heads:

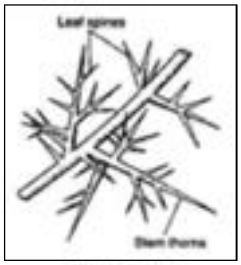
(i) Morphological (external) adaptations;
(ii) Anatomical (internal) adaptations;
(iii) Physiological adaptations.

A. External Morphology of Xerophytes

(a) ***Roots:*** Xerophytes have well developed root systems which may be profusely branched. It is extensive and more elaborate than shoot system. Many desert plants develop superficial root system where the supply of water is restricted to surface layer of the earth. The roots of perennial xerophytes grow very deep in the earth and reach the layers where water is available in plenty. Root hairs are densely developed near the growing tips of the rootlets. These enable the roots to absorb sufficient quantity of water.

(b) ***Stem:*** Some of the important characteristics of xerophytic stems are listed below:

(i) Stems of some xerophytes become very hard and woody. It may be either aerial or subterranean.



Ulex stem

(ii) They are covered with thick coating of wax and silica as in Equisetum. Some may be covered with dense hairs as is Calotropis.

(iii) In some xerophytes, stems may be modified into thorns, e.g., Duranta, Ulex, etc.

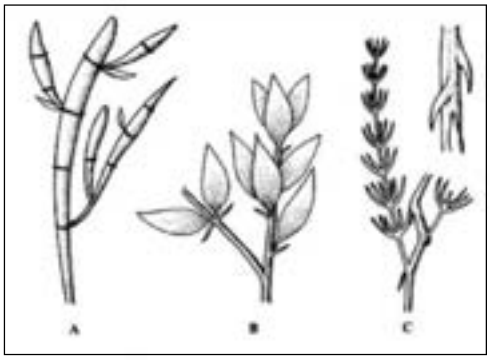
(iv) In stem succulents, main stem itself becomes bulbous and fleshy and it seems as if leaves in these plants are arising directly from the top of the roots. Example, *Kleinia articulata*.

(v) Stems in some extreme xerophytes are modified into leaf-like flattened, green and fleshy structures which are termed as phylloclades. Many cacti and Cocoloba (Muehlenbeckia) are familiar examples for this. In Ruscus plants, the branches developing in the axils of scaly leaves become metamorphosed into leaf-like structures, the phylloclades or cladophylls.

In Asparagus plant also a number of axillary branches become modified into small needle-like green structures which look exactly like leaves. They are called cladodes. A number of species of Euphorbia also develop succulence and become green. In these plants, leaves are greatly reduced, so the main function of leaves, the photosynthesis, is taken up by these green phylloclades or cladodes which are modified stems.

(c) Leaves:

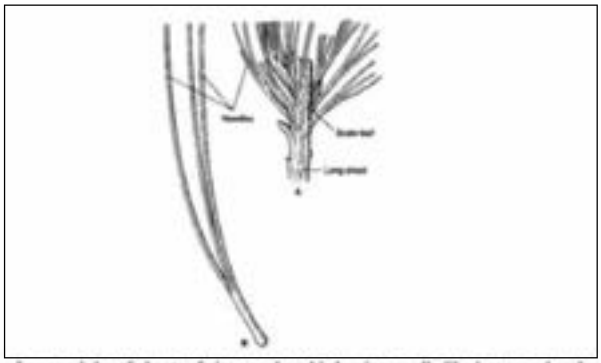
(i) In some xerophytes the leaves, if present, are greatly caducous, i.e., they fall early in the season, but in the majority of the plants leaves are generally reduced to scales, as in Casuarina , Ruscus , Asparagus, etc.



Phylloclade and cladodes

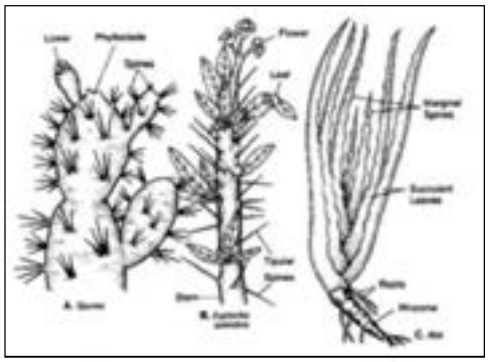
Casurina

(ii) Some evergreen xerophytes have needle-shaped leaves, e.g., Pinus.



Long and dwarf shoots of pinus roxburghi showing needle-like leaves and scales

(iii) In leaf succulents, the leaves swell remarkably and become very fleshy owing to storage of excess amount of water and latex in them. Plants with succulent leaves generally develop much reduced stems. Examples of leaf succulents are Sedum acre, Aloe spinossissima (Gheekwar), Mesembryanthemum, Kleinia ficoides and several members of family Chaenopodiaceae.



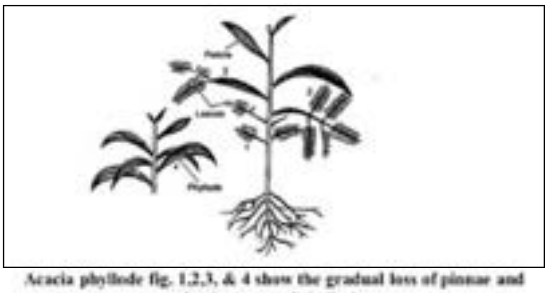
Some Succulent Xerophytes

(iv) In majority of xerophytes, leaves are generally much reduced and are provided with thick cuticle and dense coating of wax or silica. Sometimes they may be reduced to spines, as for example, in Ulex, Opuntia, Euphorbia splendens, Capparis and Acacia.

(v) Generally, the leaves of xerophytic species possess reduced leaf blades or pinnae and have very dense network of veins. In Australian species of Acacia (Babool) the pinnae are shed from the rachis and the green petiole swells and becomes flattened taking the shape of leaf. This modified petiole is termed as phyllode. The phyllode greatly reduces the water loss, stores excess amount of water and performs photosynthesis.

(vi) ***Trichophylly.*** In some xerophytes especially those growing well exposed to strong wind, the under surfaces of the leaves are covered with thick hairs which protect the stomatal guard cells and also check the transpiration. Those xerophytes which have hairy covering on the leaves and stems are known as trichophyllous plants. Zizyphus, Nerium, Calotropis procera are important examples.

(vii) ***Rolling of leaves.*** Leaves in some extreme xerophytic grasses have capacity for rolling or folding. In these cases stomata are scattered only on the upper or ventral surface and as the leaves roll upwardly, stomata are effectively shut away from the outside atmosphere. This is effective modification in these plants for reducing the water loss. Sun-dune grass is an important example for this.



Acacia phyllode fig. 1,2,3, & 4 show the gradual loss of pinnae and development of phyllodes

T.s. of Nerium leaf

(d) ***Flowers, fruits and seeds.*** Flowers usually develop in the favourable conditions. Fruits and seeds are protected by very hard shells or coatings.

B. Anatomical Modifications in the Xerophytes

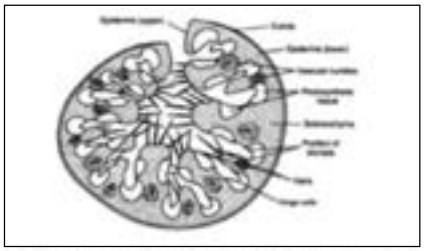
A number of modifications develop internally in the xeric plants and all aim principally at water economy.

The following are the anatomical peculiarities met within xerophytes:

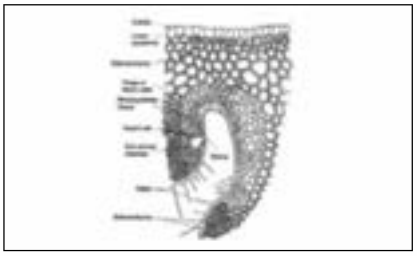
(i) ***Heavy:*** Heavy cutinisation, lignifications and wax deposition on the surface of epidermis and even in the hypodermis are very common in xerophytes. Some plants secrete wax in small quantity but some are regular source of commercial wax. Shining smooth surface of cuticle reflects the rays of light and does not allow them to go deep into the plant tissues. Thus, it checks the heavy loss of water.

(ii) ***Epidermis:*** Cells are small and compact. It is single layered, but multiple epidermis is not uncommon. In Nerium leaf, epidermis is two or three layered. In stems, the epidermal cells are radially elongated. Wax, tannin, resin, cellulose, etc., deposited on the surface of epidermis form screen against high

intensity of light. This further reduces the evaporation of water from the surface of plant body. Certain grasses with rolling leaves have specialized epidermis.



Structure of xerophytic leaf. T.S. of Ammophila leaf



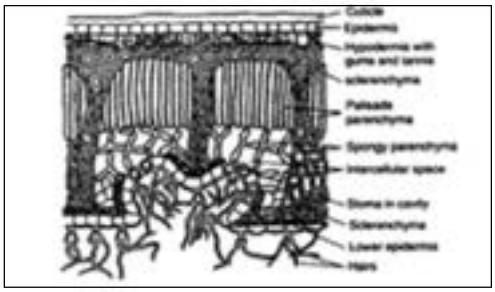
Structure of xerophytic leaf. T.S. of Ammophila shows two ridges

In these, some of the epidermal cells that are found in the depressions become more enlarged than those found in the ridges. These enlarged cells are thin walled and are called bulliform cells or motor cells or hinge cells. These are found usually on the upper surface of leaves between two parallel running vascular bundles.

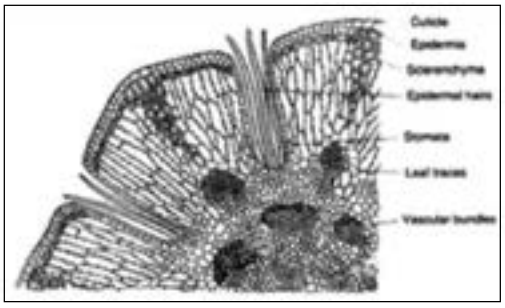
The highly specialized motor cells facilitate the rolling of leaves by becoming flaccid during dry periods. In moist conditions these cells regain their normal turgidity which causes unrolling of the leaf margins. Bulliform cells are of common occurrence in the leaf epidermis of sugarcane, bamboo, Typha and a number of other grasses.

(iii) Hairs: Hairs are epidermal in origin. They may be simple or compound, uni- or multicellular. Compound hairs

are branched at the nodes. These hairs protect the stomata and prevent excessive water loss. In some plants, surfaces of stems and leaves develop characteristic ridges and furrows or pits. The furrows and pits in these plants are the common sites of stomata. Hairs found in these depressions protect the stomata from the direct strokes of strong wind.



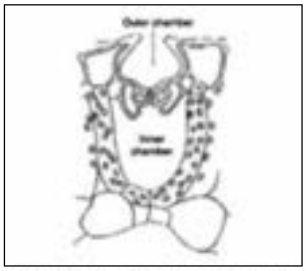
Anatomy of xerophytic leaf. T.S. of Banksia leaf



T.S. of casuarina stem

(iv) ***Stomata:*** In xerophytes, reduction of transpiration is of utmost importance. It is possible only if the stomatal number per unit area is reduced or if the stomata are elaborately modified in their structures. In xerophytes, number of stomata per unit area of leaf is greater than in mesophytes. They are generally of sunken type. In some cases, they may be found in the furrows or pits.

Subsidiary cells of sunken stoma may be of such shapes and arrangement that they form an outer chamber that is connected by narrow opening or the stoma. Such type of specialized stomata are very common in conifers, Cycas, Equisetum, etc.. Walls of the guard cells and subsidiary cells are heavily cutinized and lignified in many xeric plants.



A magnified sunken stoma

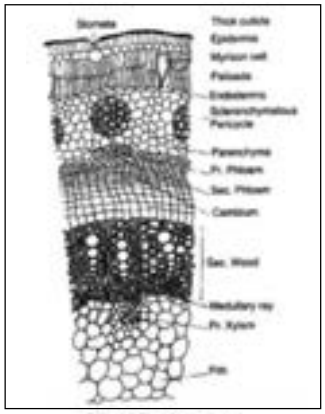
These devices have little value in directly reducing transpiration when stomata are open. When the plants are wilting and stomata are closed then only lignified or cuticularized walls of guard cells have protecting properties and under such circumstances only cuticular transpiration is possible which is of little significance.

In dorsiventral leaves stomata are generally found on the lower surface, but m rolling leaves they are scattered mostly on the upper surface. In the rolled leaves, stomata are protected from the direct contact of outside wind. This is very important rather secured device for lowering the rate of transpiration in xerophytic grasses.

(v) ***Hypodermis:*** In xerophytes, just below the epidermis, one or several layers of thick walled compactly grouped cells may develop that form the hypodermis. The cells may be much like those of epidermis and may either be derived from epidermis or from the cortex (m case of stem) or from the mesophyll (in case of leaf). The hypodermal cells may sometimes be filled with tannin and mucilage.

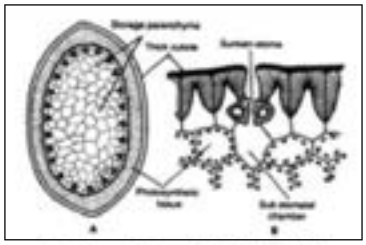
(vi) Ground tissue:

(a) In the stem, a great part of body is formed of sclerenchyma. In those cases, where the leaves are either greatly reduced or they fall in the early season, the photosynthetic activity is taken up by outer chlorenchymatous cortex. The chlorenchymatous tissue is connected with the outside atmosphere through stomata. The gaseous exchange takes place in regular manner in the green part of stem.

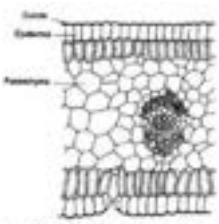


T.S. of Capparis Stem

(b) In succulent stems and leaves, ground tissues are filled with thin walled parenchymatous cells which store excess quantity of water, mucilage, latex, etc. This makes the stems swollen and fleshy.



Anatomy of xerophytic leaf of *Aloe*



T.S. of *Agave* leaf showing water storing parenchyma

which mesophyll is surrounded by thick hypodermal sheath of sclerenchyma from all the sides except from below. This sheath forms a diaphragm against intense light. Such xerophytes in which sclerenchyma is extensively developed are called sclerophyllous plants. In succulent leaves, spongy parenchyma develops extensively which stores water. In Pinus, the spongy cells of mesophylls are star shaped.

(d) Intercellular spaces are greatly reduced. Cells in the body are generally very small, thick walled and compactly grouped. They may be spherical, rounded or cuboid m shape. Such cells are very common in xerophytes.

(vii) ***Conducting tissues:*** Conducting tissues, i.e., xylem and phloem, develop very well in the xerophytic body.

C. Physiological Adaptations

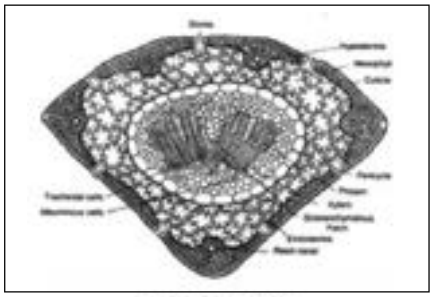
It was long assumed that the structural adaptations in the body of xerophytes were useful in reducing the transpiration but now a number of experiments related with the physiology of these plants reveal some facts which are contrary to the early assumptions. Works of Maximov support that except succulents, true xerophytes show very high rate of transpiration. Under similar conditions, the rate of transpiration per unit area in xerophytes is much higher than that in mesophyte. Stomatal frequency per unit area of leaf surface in xerophytes is also greater than that in the mesophytic leaf.

(i) Succulents are well known to contain polysaccharides, pentosans and a number of acids by virtue of which they are able to resist drought. The structural modifications in these succulent xerophytes are directly governed by their physiology. How does the succulence develop? Metabolic reaction which induces development of succulence is the

conversion of polysaccharides into pentosans. Pentosans have water binding property. These pentosans together with nitrogenous compounds of the cytoplasm cause accumulation of excess amount of water in the cells and consequently the succulence develops.

(ii) Another experimented fact in the physiology of succulent plants is that their stomata open during night hours and remain closed during the day. This unusual feature is associated with metabolic activity of these plants. In dark, these plants respire and produce acids. The heavy accumulation of acids in the guard cells increases osmotic concentration which, m turn, causes inward flow of water in the guard cells. When guard cells become turgid the stomata open. In the sunlight, acids dissociate to produce carbon dioxide which is used up in the photosynthesis and as a result of this osmotic concentration of cell sap decreases which ultimately causes closure of stomata.

(iii) In xerophytes, the chemical compounds of cell sap are actively converted into wall forming compounds that are finally incorporated into the cell walls. Conversions of polysaccharides into anhydrous forms as cellulose, formation of suberin, etc., are some examples.



T.S. of Pinus needle

(iv) Some enzymes, such as catalases, peroxidases, are more active in xerophytes than in mesophytes. In xerophytes, amylase enzyme hydrolyses the starch very actively.

(v) The capacity of xerophytes to survive during period of drought lies not only in the structural features but also in the resistance of the hardened protoplasm to heat and desiccation.

(vi) Regulation of transpiration. Presence of the cuticle, polished surface, compact cells and sunken stomata protected by stomatal hairs regulate the transpiration.

(vii) High osmotic pressure of cell sap. The xerophytes have very high osmotic pressure which increases the turgidity. The turgidity of cell sap exerts tension force on the cell walls. In this way, wilting of cell is prevented. High osmotic pressure of cell sap also affects the absorption of water.

11.8 Mesophytes

Mesophytes are common land plants which grow in situations that are neither too wet nor too dry. These plants can neither grow in water or water-logged soils nor can they survive in dry places. In other words, mesophytes are the plants of those regions where climates and soils are favourable. Vegetations of forests, meadows and cultivated fields belong to this category. The simplest mesophytic community comprises the grasses and herbs, richer communities have herbs and bushes, and the richest ones have trees (rainforests in tropics).

Mesophytes can be classified into two main community groups:

(I) Communities of grasses and herbs.

(II) Communities of woody plants.

I. ***Communities of Grasses and Herbs:*** These include annual or perennial grasses and herbs. The grasslands occur in area of approximately 25 to 75 cm rainfall per annum. They occur over large interior areas in many countries of the world such as U.S.A., Canada, Australia, Southern Russia, Africa, and India. The different types of grasslands and herb communities are listed below.

   (i) ***Arctic and alpine mat-grasslands and mat-herbage:*** Such communities are restricted to Polar Regions and mountain tops. The plants are small sized soft shrubs, and the under-shrubs are totally absent. Mosses may be intermingled but lichens do not appear.

   This group is subdivided into two:

   (a) Mat grassland (Gramineae)

   (b) Mat herbage (Dicotyledonous herbs such as Saxifraga, Delphinium, Potentilla, Ranunculus, etc.).

   (ii) ***Meadow:*** This forms a connecting link between mesophytes and hydrophytes as they grow in soils where moisture is 60—83%. Plants are tall perennial herbs with long stems. Soil is invisible due to overcrowding of plants. Plants are mostly rhizomatous. The leaves show mesophytic features, i.e., they are thin, broad, flat and glabrous. Members of families Gramineae, Ranunculaceae, Papilionatae and Compositae are found in abundance.

   (iii) ***Pasture on cultivated land:*** Vegetation is shorter and more open in pasture than in meadow. It is disturbed very often by grazing. The vegetation usually includes grasses, dicot herbs and some mosses.

II. ***Communities of Woody Plants (Bushland and Forests)***: These are classified and described in the following ways:

(i) ***Mesophytic bushlands:*** Such a mesophytic community occurs where temperature and other conditions are not favourable for the growth of forest but they are too much favourable format herbage vegetation. In many places, xerophytic and mesophytic bushlands merge with each other. Salix, Arabis, Lathynis, Vicea, etc., are the important plants of bushlands.

(ii) ***Deciduous forests:*** These forests are found in the areas where rainfall is high enough (about 75 -150 cm per year) and evenly distributed and the temperature is moderate. Such forests are characterized by trees which become leafless for certain periods of the year. The foliage persists for about five to eight months. This phenomenon of repeated foliation and defoliation of trees is prominent in temperate and cold regions (where there is long winter) and in tropics as well where the summer is of long duration. Leaves are dorsiventral and they exhibit many shapes and structures.

The trees are profusely branched. Mycorrhizae are present on the roots. Epiphytic mosses and lichens grow in abundance on the surface of the trees. The majority of the plants are pollinated by wind. The soil is very rich in microflora. The deciduous forests are named after dominant trees of those particular communities, as for example, Quercus-Oak forest, Betula-Birch forest, Fagus-Beach forest and so on.

Tropophytes (changing plants), an interesting group of tropical plants can be included in this group of mesophytes. Generally in tropical regions, the climate remains, more or

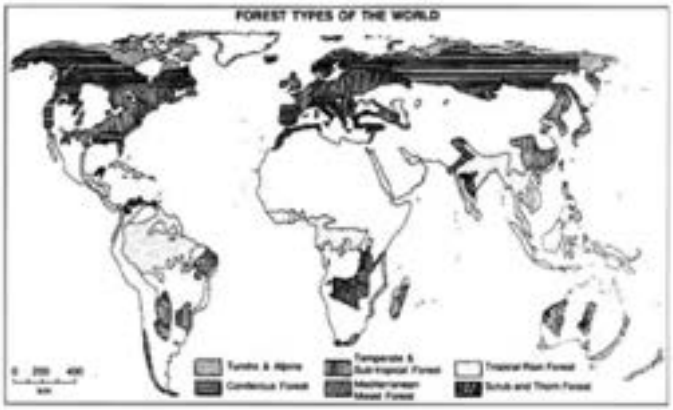
less, uniform throughout the year but in some tropics there is alternation between damp and dry cold climates. Plants growing in the tropics of disuniform climate develop some structural modifications through which they can endure the regular cycle of favourable and unfavorable seasons in one way or the other. In other words, tropophytes behave as mesophyte during rainy season and as xerophytes during dry cold season. The shedding of leaves may occur in the beginning of winter season or in the summer.

Important adaptive features of these plants are:

(a) Better protection of winter buds

(b) Thick bark covering on the stem

(c) Formation of underground stem which protects the perennating buds from extreme drought.



Forest vegetation of the world

(iii) ***Evergreen forests:*** These forests are found in the tropical and subtropical regions extending into the cold temperate zones of southern hemisphere. Plants in these forests are evergreen (i.e., they retain their leaves for more than one year until new foliage appears). Very few species in these forests may show leaffall.

Evergreen forests are of three types:

(a) ***Antarctic forests:*** These forests cover mountains of New Zealand and a number of other countries in the world where annual temperature ranges from 5°C to 70°C and the rainfall is abundant throughout the year. Important plants found in these forests are conifers, Myrtaceae, Hymenophyllaceae. Mosses and Liverworts may also be present.

(b) ***Subtropical forests:*** These forests are found in the regions of fairly high rainfall but where temperature differences between winter and summer are less marked. Winter generally goes without rains. The plants are about 30 metres in height. These forests include Oaks. Magnolias, Tamarindus and mosses. Subtropical forests occur in eastern part of U.S.A., South Brazil, South Africa, East Australia, Southern China, and Japan.

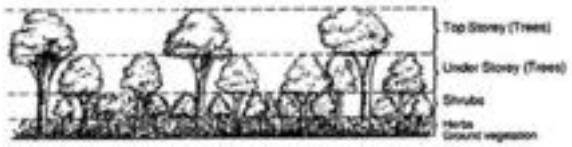
(c) ***Tropical Rain forests or Tropical Evergreen forests:*** Tropical rain forests are found in low lying regions near the equator with annual rainfall of 180 cm or more. This type of forest is most dense and is undisturbed by biotic agencies and is therefore, called "primeval forest". The rain forests represent the climax vegetation of the whole world.

Climate of such forest is characterized by:

(i) High humidity (air saturated with 95% humidity)
(ii) High temperature
(iii) Daily rains
(iv) No distinct dry season
(v) Soil very rich in humus, black in colour, and porous.

The plants show luxuriant growth and they are found in several storeys. Humboldt very appropriately commented "forest is piled upon forest", i.e., highest trees form top layer about 40—50 metres up, beneath which is the storey of short trees, then storey of low palms and trees, ferns, then,

storey of scattered herbs and shrubs (4 to 5 metres in height). On the surface of ground may be found Selaginella, mosses etc.



A forest view showing stratification of the plants

Roots of the plants may be found covered with saprophytes and parasites, e.g., Rafflesia, Balanophora. Monotrapa etc. Epiphytes and lianas are very common in these forests. Very dense growth of shrubs and climbers makes the forests impenetrable. Plants usually acquire tree forms. Most of them produce root buttresses for the support of their huge trunks. They show cauliflory in which the buds are protected by stipules, leaf sheaths and petioles, etc. Flowers are of various colors and they develop high over the heads.

Plants do not show periodicity for foliation and flowering. Each species has its own flowering and foliation time. The leaves exhibit almost all shapes and are usually directed upwardly to drain off excess water. The leaf surface is cutinised and impregnated with silica which protects them from violent rains. Leaves may be provided with channelled nerves and dripped tips (i.e., they have long and narrow apices). Trees develop thick barks.

Plants belonging to families Leguminoceae, Lauraceae, Myrtaceae, Moraceae, etc. are very commonly found in tropical rain forests.

Vegetational succession in the tropical rain forest takes place in the following sequence:

The pioneer colonizers are deciduous plants that are replaced gradually by semi-deciduous vegetation that persists for very short period of time after which semi-

evergreen plants make their appearance. The semi-evergreen vegetation becomes intermingled with some evergreen plants which finally become dominant. In this way the climax forests develop. This sequence is possible only if the biotic factors are not allowed to affect the vegetation to a major degree.

Tropical rain forests are found in central and southern America, central Africa, Pacific Islands, and Malaya and in many other equatorial countries of the world. In India, these forests are found in south-eastern Himalayas, tracts of Assam, and western slopes of Nilgiri. The tropical rain forests are of great economic values to the human beings. These yield timbers of high quality.

12

Ecological Indicators

12.1 Introduction

Plants grow in total harmony with the variables in their environment in any condition. Different species have different environmental requirements, and a species will develop and spread where it finds favourable conditions. As a result, the character and make-up of vegetation reflect the combined effects of all variables working in that ecosystem. Vegetation can be utilised as an environmental indicator if the relationship between vegetation and habitat elements is fully understood. This information can help determine regional land usage. In this approach, it would be feasible to confidently determine which sites should be farmed and which should be allowed to pasture, as well as which crop should be produced on each site, for example, plants like Agave, Opuntia, and Euphorbias are semi-desert markers. As a result, the presence of a specific plant species in a given location signals unique habitat and environmental circumstances, and these plant species are referred to as plant indicators, biological indicators, or ecological indicators.

12.2 Indicators of Soil

I. ***pH:*** The hydrogen ion concentration is measured by the pH. Soil pH determines whether the soil is acidic, neutral, or basic. Neutral soil has a pH of 7, acidic soil has a pH of less than 7, and basic soil has a pH of greater than 7. Because the soils are of varied sorts, they have a wide range of pH. The plants thrive in the soil because it provides them with their ideal pH.

The soil with high calcium contents are alkaline in pH and plants growing in alkaline pH are called as **calcicolous** or **calcifilies**. Following are the plants indicating such soil type, *Acacia arabica, Capparis aphylla, Tamarix dioica, Salvadora persica, Prosopis spicigera, Suaeda fruiticosa, Achyranthus aspera, Dalbergia sisoo, Carrisa,* etc.

The acidic soil is with calcium and magnesium deficiency. The plants growing in such soils are called as **calciphobous** or **calcifuge.** Following are the plants indicating such soil type, *Quercus dilatata, Cedrus deodara, Casuarina, Rumex dentatus, Betula alnoides, Indigophera gerardiana, Ricinus communis, Rhododendron arboreum,* etc.

II. ***Plants as indicators of Altitude:*** Altitude is factor that affects the temperature; therefore some specific plants are growing at particular altitude. A few examples from India are,

	Name of the plants	Altitudinal range (From sea level)
1	*Acacia arabica*	300-500 Meters
2	*Pinus roxburghii, P. Wallichiana*	1000-1700 meters
3	*Juniperous wallichiana, J. communis, J. recurva*	2800-4900 meters
4	*Rhododendron hypenanthum, R. lepidotum, R. pumilum, R. setosum, R. campanulatum, R. campylocarpum*	3200-4900 meters
5	*Kobresia duthei, K. copellifolia, Sedum crassipes, Primula*	5500-5800 meters
6	*Sedum crenulatum, Potentilla fruiticosa, Aronaria sps.*	6000 meters

***III. Plants as indicators of Ground water*:** Phreatophytes are plants that rely solely on groundwater for their survival. In arid and semi-arid regions, such plants can be considered safe indicators of ground water. Spring water is indicated by Acacia glandulifera and Prosopis juliflora. Saline water indicators include Medicago sativa, Atriplex, Salsola, and Suaeda.

Certain plant communities found in Indian deserts have been used by the Central Arid Zone Research Institute (CAZRI) in Jodhpur to identify the depth of ground water. The following are a few of them.

	Plant community	Depth of water
1	*Salvadora persica, Suaeda fruiticosa, Tamarix sps.*	6 meters
2	*Salvadora oleoides, capparis deciduas*	6-12 meters
3	*Prosopis cineraria, Zizyphus numularia, Z. complex, Panicum turgidum*	6-18 meters
4	*Crotolaria burhia, Leptadenia pyrotechnica*	6-20 meters
5	*Euphorbia caudicifolia, Acacia Senegal, Anogeisus pendula*	12-18 meters
6	*Capparis deciduas, Acacia indica, Nilotheca sps.*	12-20 meters

(IV) Plants as indicators of Minerals and Metals: Metallicolous plants can survive high levels of metal ions in the soil, whereas metallifuges cannot. Minerals can be seen in the region, and a plant growing in such a location reveals the sort of minerals present. The following are examples of plant communities that reveal the presence of a certain mineral in the environment in which they flourish.

	Name of the species	Mineral
1	*Lippa Nodiflora, Rumex sps.*	Nitrate
2	*Waltheria indica*	Cu, Pb, Zn
3	*Silene cobalticola, Crotolaria cobaltiola*	Cobalt
4	*Allium, Ambis, Atriplex*	Sulphur
5	*Asplenium adulterinum*	Nickel
6	*Salsola nitrata*	Boron
7	*Pinus* and *Juniperus*	Uranium
8	*Damara ovata*	Iron

(*Contd...*)

	Name of the species	Mineral
9	*Ilex aquifolium*	Aluminum
10	*Memecylon* (South Africa)	Bauxite
11	*Stercularia setacea*	Mercury
12	*Vollozia candida*	Diamond site
13	*Erigonum ovalifolium*	Silver
14	*Thuja sps, Papaver libanoticum, Alpinia speciosa*,(Brazil), *Equisetum plebejam* and *E. arvense* (India)	Gold-rich soil
15	*Astragallus preusia, A. pattersoni, A. garbanicillus, Aster xylarrhiza* and *Stanleya*	Selenium & Uranium

(V) Plants as indicators of Pollution: Pollution is the disruption of human life caused by external factors. Water can be contaminated by dumping domestic sewage and industrial effluents into bodies of water such as lakes, ponds, rivers, and other bodies of water that serve as primary supplies of drinking water in many places. Because of the addition of such sewages, which contain a variety of organic and inorganic substances, some bacteria, plants, and animal species emerge, and their growth reduces dissolved oxygen levels, resulting in oxygen deficit and water pollution. Water pollution indicators include *Oscillatoria, Nostoc, Utricularia, Chara, Wolfia,* Diatoms, and different forms of bacteria. Lichens are signs of pollution in the atmosphere.

13

Biogeochemical Cycle

13.1 Elements and Their Cycling Process

Biogeochemical cycle is a circuit or pathway by which a chemical element or molecule moves through both biotic ("bio-") and abiotic ("geo-") compartments of an ecosystem. In effect, the element is recycled, albeit there may be areas (known as "sinks") where the element accumulates for a long time in certain such cycles.

Biogeochemical cycles include all chemical elements found in living organisms. These chemical elements cycle via abiotic factors of ecosystems, such as water (hydrosphere), land (lithosphere), and air (atmosphere), in addition to being a part of live species; the living factors of the planet are collectively referred to as the biosphere. The biogeochemical cycles demonstrate one of biological systems' essential principles: the harmonious interactions between organisms and their environment, both biotically and abiotically.

All of the chemicals, nutrients, or components utilised by living creatures in ecosystems—such as carbon, nitrogen, oxygen, and phosphorus—work in a closed system, which

means they are recycled rather being lost, as they would in an open system. The energy of an ecosystem is generated in an open system; the sun constantly provides energy to the globe in the form of light, which is eventually used and lost as heat across the trophic levels of a food web.

The carbon cycle, nitrogen cycle, oxygen cycle, phosphorus cycle, and water cycle are the most well-known and essential biogeochemical cycles.

Equilibrium states in biogeochemical cycles are always present: a balance in the element's cycling between compartments. Overall balance, on the other hand, may entail compartments that are scattered globally.

13.2 Biogeochemical Cycles Types

Biogeochemical cycles are basically of two types: a) Gaseous cycles like carbon (as carbon dioxide), oxygen, nitrogen, etc. In gaseous cycles, the elements have a main reservoir in the gaseous phase, and the reservoir pool is the atmosphere or water.

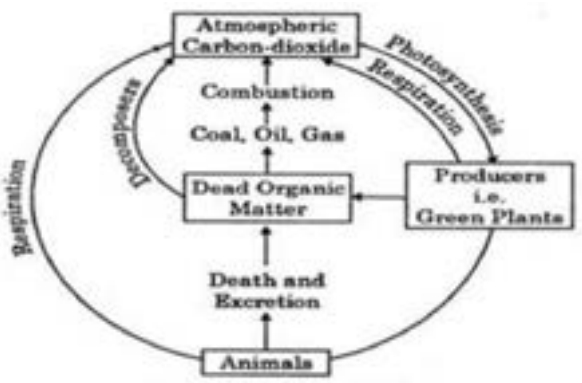
(A) Gaseous nutrient cycles:

- ***(i) Carbon:*** The carbon cycle is the biogeochemical cycle by which carbon is exchanged between the biosphere, lithosphere, hydrosphere, and atmosphere of the Earth.

All of these elements are carbon reservoirs. The carbon cycle is commonly described as four primary carbon reservoirs connected by exchange channels. The atmosphere, terrestrial biosphere (which usually includes freshwater systems), oceans, and sediments are the reservoirs (includes fossil fuels). Carbon transfers between reservoirs occur annually as a result of a variety of chemical, physical, geological, and biological processes. Although the ocean has the greatest reservoir of carbon near the Earth's surface, much of it is not involved in rapid exchange with the atmosphere. Major molecules of carbon are carbon

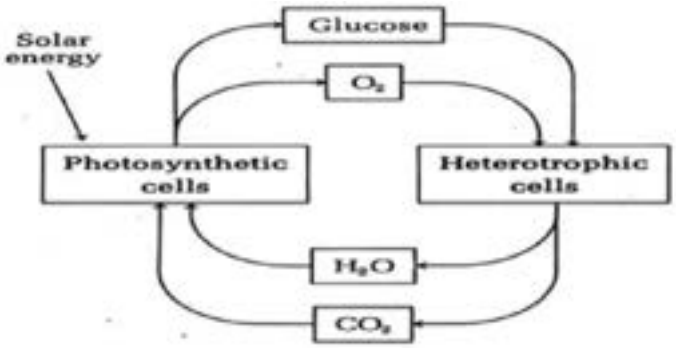
dioxide (CO_2), carbon monoxide (CO), methane (CH_4), calcium carbonate ($CaCO_3$), and glucose (in plant organic matter,$C_6H_{12}O_6$), and many others, as well as many ions containing carbon.

The global carbon budget is the balance of carbon exchanges (incomes and losses) between carbon reservoirs or between one specific loop of the carbon cycle (e.g., atmosphere-biosphere). The carbon budget of a pool or reservoir can reveal whether the pool or reservoir is acting as a carbon dioxide source or sink.



Carbon-Cycle.

(ii) ***Oxygen cycle:*** The oxygen cycle is the biogeochemical cycle of oxygen in the atmosphere (air), the entire content of biological matter inside the biosphere (the global sum of all ecosystems), and the Earth's crust. Hypoxic zones can form when the oxygen cycle within the hydrosphere (the aggregate mass of water found on, under, and over the surface of planet Earth) breaks down. Photosynthesis is the primary driving force behind the oxygen cycle, and it is responsible for the current Earth's atmosphere and life on the planet (see the Great Oxygenation Event).



The silicate and oxide minerals of the crust and mantle contain by far the biggest reserve of oxygen on Earth (99.5 %). Only 0.01 percent of the total has been released as free oxygen to the biosphere and atmosphere (0.36 %). Photosynthesis, which produces sugars and free oxygen from carbon dioxide and water, is the primary source of atmospheric free oxygen:

$$6CO_2 + 12\ H_2O \rightarrow C_6H_{12}O_6 + 6O_2\uparrow$$

Plant life on land as well as phytoplankton in the oceans are examples of photosynthesizing creatures. Prochlorococcus, a microscopic marine cyanobacterium, was identified in 1986 and is responsible for more than half of the open ocean's photosynthesis.

Photolysis, in which high-energy UV radiation breaks down atmospheric water and nitrous oxide into component atoms, is another source of atmospheric free oxygen. The liberated H and N atoms escape into space, leaving the atmosphere with only O_2.

Respiration and decay, methods by which biological life and microorganisms consume oxygen and release carbon dioxide, are the primary ways free oxygen is lost from the atmosphere.

The lithosphere also consumes free oxygen by chemical weathering and surface reactions. An example of surface

weathering chemistry is formation of iron oxides (rust):

$$4FEO + O_2 \rightarrow 2FE_2O_3$$

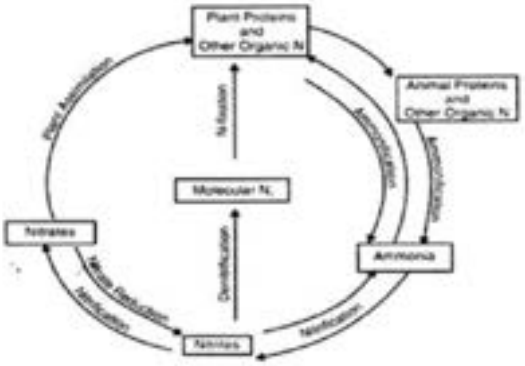
(iii) ***Nitrogen cycle:*** The nitrogen cycle is a complex biogeochemical cycle that will only be briefly discussed here. This cycle includes live organisms, as well as water, land, and air. Nitrogen is a crucial element since it is found in both proteins (as part of the amino acid makeup) and nucleic acids, such as DNA and RNA (present in nitrogenous bases).

The atmosphere, which contains around 78 percent nitrogen gas, is the biggest nitrogen reserve (N_2). In a process known as nitrogen fixation, nitrogen gas is "fixed." Nitrogen fixation is the process of combining nitrogen with oxygen to produce nitrates (NO_3). **Nitrates** can then be used by plants or animals (which eat plants, or eat animals that have eaten plants).

Nitrogen can be fixed in a variety of ways, including lightning, commercial methods (such as fertiliser), free nitrogen-fixing bacteria in the soil, and nitrogen-fixing bacteria found in legume roots (such as rhizobium). Nitrogen-fixing bacteria, which include free bacteria in soil, symbiotic bacteria in legumes, and cyanobacteria, or blue-green algae in water, utilise enzymes capable of fixing nitrogen gas into nitrates.

Nitrogen is disposed of in decay and wastes after being consumed by plants and animals. Decomposers and detritivores consume plant and animal detritus, converting nitrogen to ammonia, or nitrogen with three hydrogen atoms (NH3). Although ammonia is harmful and cannot be used by plants or animals, nitrite bacteria found in the soil may convert ammonia to nitrite (nitrogen with two oxygen atoms) (NO2). Although most plants and animals cannot use nitrite, nitrate bacteria convert nitrites to nitrates, which may be used by plants and animals. Some nitrates are also converted back into nitrogen gas through the process

of **denitrification,** which is the opposite of nitrogen-fixing; this process is also called nitrification. Certain denitrifying bacteria are responsible for this.



(B) ***Sedimentary nutrient cycle:*** Cycle of Sedimentation The weathering of an existing rock is followed by the erosion of minerals, their movement and deposition, and finally burial. The presence of less resistant minerals and rock pieces characterises first-cycle sediments. The reservoir is the earth's crust [elements found mostly in the earth's crust] — phosphorous cycle, sulphur cycle, calcium cycle, magnesium cycle, and so on.

(i) ***Phosphorous cycle:*** The requirement for phosphorus is critical because it is a major constituent of nucleic acid, cell membrane, cellular energy transfer systems, bones and teeth. Rocks and natural phosphate deposits are the main reservoirs of phosphorus. Unlike the nitrogen cycle, the phosphorus cycle involves fewer steps and fewer kinds of microbes. Nitrogen and phosphorus cycles differ radically on two accounts. Firstly, atmospheric inputs of phosphorus through rainfall are much smaller than nitrogen inputs,

and gaseous exchanges of phosphorus between organisms and environment are negligible. In contrast, main input of phosphorus in terrestrial ecosystems comes from the weathering of phosphorus containing minerals in the soil. Secondly, phosphorus shows high sorption or fixation capacity in strongly acidic, as well as alkaline soils, as a result of which phosphorus availability to plants is drastically reduced. Phosphorus occurs in soil solution mainly as orthophosphate (PO_4^{3-}). Plants absorb phosphate from soil and incorporate it into organic compounds. Phosphatising bacteria maintain supply of phosphate ions by converting organic phosphorus contained in detritus. Absorption of phosphorus by the higher plants is promoted by the presence of mycorrhizae.

14

Plant Geography

14.1 Phytogeography

Phytogeography(from Greek *phytón* = "plant" and *geographía* = "geography" meaning also distribution) or **botanical geography** is the branch of biogeography that is concerned with the geographic distribution of plant species and their influence on the earth's surface. Phytogeography is concerned with all aspects of plant distribution, from the controls on the distribution of individual species ranges (at both large and small scales, see species distribution) to the factors that govern the composition of entire communities and floras. Phytogeography encompasses various fields such as environment, flora (taxa), vegetation (plant community) and origin.

'Plant geography or phytogeography- deals with the distribution of flora or vegetation in various regions of earth (floristics).'

According to Campbell (1926), the main theme of plant geography is to discover the similarities and diversities in the plants and floras of the present and past found in widely separated parts of the earth.

Wulff (1943) states that Phytogeography is the study of distribution of plant species in their habitats and elucidation of origin and history of development of floras.

According to Croizat (1952), Phytogeography is the study of migration and evolution of plants in time and space.

14.2 Major Divisions of Phytogeography

There are two major divisions of Phytogeography:

(i) Descriptive or Static Phytogeography

(ii) Interpretive or Dynamic Phytogeography

Descriptive Phytogeography

This deals with the actual description of floristic or vegetational groups found in different parts of the world. Early plant geographers described floras and attempted to divide earth into floristic and botanical zones.

Interpretive or Dynamic Phytogeography

This deals with the dynamics of migration and evolution of plants and floras. It explains the reasons for varied distribution of plant species in different parts of the world. It is a borderline science involving synthesis and integration of data and concepts from several specialized disciplines like ecology, physiology, genetics, taxonomy, evolution, palaeontology and geology. Good (1931), Mason (1936), Cain (1944) and some others have pointed out the factors involved in the distribution of plants.

14.3 Principles of Phytogeography

Lowerence (1951) has suggested the following thirteen modern principles of Phytogeography which are classified into four groups:

I. Principles concerning environment:

(i) The distribution of plants is primarily controlled by climatic conditions.

(ii) There has been variation in climate during geological history in the past which affected migration of plants.

(iii) The relations between land masses and seas have varied in the past. The large land masses split up to form new land masses or continents which separated and reoriented. Land bridges between continents acted as probable routes for migration of plant and animal species. The land bridges became submerged in sea with the passage of time and the possibility for migration of plants and animals from one continent to another disappeared for ever.

(iv) Soil conditions on plains and mountains of different land masses show secondary control on distribution of vegetation. Halophytes, psammophytes, calcicols, calcifobs etc. have developed because of edaphic conditions.

(v) Biotic factors also play important role in distribution and establishment of plant species.

(vi) The environment is holocentric, i.e., all environmental factors have combined effects on the vegetation of a place (Ale & Pank, 1939).

II. Principles concerning plant responses:

(vii) Range of distribution of plants is limited by their tolerances. Each plant species has a range of climatic and edaphic conditions. Therefore, tolerance of a large taxon is the sum of tolerances of its constituent species.

(viii) Tolerances have a Genetic basis. The response of plants to environment is governed by their genetic makeup. Many of the crops through

breeding and genetic changes have been made to grow in wider range of environmental conditions. In nature, hybrid plants have been found to have wider range of tolerances than their parents.

(ix) Different ontogentic phases have different tolerances. Different developmental stages of plants show different degree of tolerances, as for example seeds and mature plants are more tolerants to temperature and moisture variations than their seedlings.

III. Principles concerning the migration of floras and climaxes:

(x) Large scale migrations have taken place. The fossils and palaeoecological evidences reveal that large scale migrations of plants and animals have taken place during Mesozoic era and Tertiary periods.

(xi) Migration resulted from transport and establishment. In the process of migration plants are dispersed to new habitats through their propagules such as spores, seeds, bulbils etc., and there they are established if environmental conditions are favourable. Plants grow and reproduce there and progeny perpetuates through ecological adjustments.

IV. Principles concerning the perpetuation and evolution of floras and climaxes:

(xii) Perpetuation depends first upon migration and secondly upon the ability of species to transmit the favourable variations to the progenies.

(xiii) Evolution of floras and climaxes depends upon migration, evolution of species and environmental selections.

13.4 Distribution

On the basis of area of the earth surface occupied by the plants, the various taxa are categorized as under:

I. Wides.
II. Endemics.
III. Discontinuous species.

I. Wides: Plants widely distributed over the earth in definite climatic zones and the different continents are referred to as wides. Cosmopolitan is applied for wides but, in fact, no plant is cosmopolitan in real sense of the term. Taraxacum officinale and Chaenopodium album are the common examples of the wides. Plants of tropical regions are called Pantropical. The plants of very cold climate may not only be found in the arctic regions but also in alpine zone of mountains in tropical and subtropical regions. These are called arctic-alpine plants.

II. Endemics: A taxon whose distribution is confined to a given area is said to be endemic to that area. The taxon may be of any rank, although it is usually at a family level or below, and its range of distribution may be wide, spanning an entire continent, or very narrow covering only a few square meters. The concept of endemism is important because in the past the formulation of biogeographic regions was based on it.

The limits of a region are determined by mapping the distributions of taxa; where the outer boundaries of many taxa occur, a line delimiting a biogeographic region is drawn. Major regions are still determined as those that have the most endemics or stated another way, those that share the fewest taxa with other regions. As regions are further broken down into subdivisions, they will contain fewer unique taxa.

This has been criticized because it assumes that species ranges are stable, which they are not. An alternative method of determining biogeographic regions involves calculating degrees of similarity between geographic regions. The concept of endemic distribution of plants was put forth by A.P. de Candolle (1813). Engler (1882) suggested two categories of endemic forms; Palaeo-endemics which are survivors of ancient forms and indigenous or native forms which are confined to a particular ocahty. According to area of distribution, the species may be continental endemics (restricted to a continent, endemic to a country, provincial, regional or local endemics (restricted to valley, hills, islands, etc.).

Endemism

Endemism is a phenomenon of restriction of species or taxa in a small region. The distribution of species dependent on ecological and geographical factors and the age of the species. In young species for instance, the distribution is narrow in the beginning and it is likely to be grow in its area in course of time, these are called **progressive** or **expanding endemics.** On the other hand certain old species on account of gradual dwindling become restricted to a small region; these are called **retrogressive** or **contracting endemics.**

Causes of Endemism

Endemism is the result of failure on the part of a species to disseminate its propagating organs

link the seeds and fruits. The causes of endemism are as follows.

(a) ***Narrow ecological amplitude:*** Ecological amplitude is the capability of a species to establish in various habitats lying along an environmental gradient. A

species showing very low ecological amplitude has localized distribution because of the narrow range of conditions on which their growth depends.

(b) ***Changing climatic conditions:*** Species exhibit geographic distributions that are constrained by a range of environmentalvariables, outside of which individuals may experience reduced survival and reproduction due to physical and physiological constraints. For example, species are often accustomed to particular temperature ranges, and dispersal to regions with temperatures outside those ranges reduces fitness. Additionally, resources necessary for population persistence may be insufficient at range edges and outside the range.

(c) ***Poor adaptability:*** To survive and reproduce, all living organisms must adjust to conditions imposed on them by their environments. Some species are adapted only to a particular environment. If plant or its propagules have less or no adaptability with different environment or other than existing, then it remains restricted in a particular area. If they migrate to new areas they fail to establish themselvesbecause they fail to adapt themselves to the new environment.

(d) ***Geographical barriers:*** Endemism results from the failure on the part of species to disseminate its seeds fruits spores or propagules because of existence of great barriers like mountains, oceans and large deserts.

(i) ***Mountain ranges:*** In India, endemic species are met with in the high altitudes of the Himalayas, for example species of *Potentilla, Saxifraga, Primula, Corydalis*, and *Anemone*. The high mountains prevent their migration.

(ii) ***Large deserts:*** Edaphic endemism, or the restriction of a plant species to a particular

geological substrate or soil type, is a common phenomenon in plants, particularly in the drier regions of the world. Desert soil is a difficult substrate for plants to germinate and survive. Therefore, plants or their propagule can't migrate and remain restricted.

(iii) ***Great expanses of water:*** The oceanic islands which are isolated from rest of the world by large expanses of water abound in endemic species and water barrier checks the migration of those species outside their original habitat. The result is isolation from the rest of the world. The flora of Hawaii Island mostly consists of endemic species. The genus *Wielandia* is endemic to the Seychelles Island in the Indian ocean.

Types of Endemism

Now the endemic species have been grouped into the following categories:

(i) ***Relics or Palaeoendemics:*** They are the survivors of once widely distributed ancestral forms, for example, Ginkgo biloba (restricted to China and Japan), Sequoia sempervirens (confined to coastal valleys of California, U.S.A.). Agathis australis, Metasequoia (Confined to Single valley in China). These species are called Palaeoendemics or epibionts. A great majority of the endemic species belonging to this type have many fossil relatives. They are also called living fossils. Because of little variability the endemics are adapted only to a particular environment and even if they reach new areas, they fail to establish themselves in new environment.

(ii) ***Neoendemics:*** The other endemics may be modem species which have had not enough time for occupying a large area through migration. They are called neoendemics. There are several such genera which are widely endemic or few species of which are endemic. Neoendemics show good variability and have many biotypes, grow in diverse habitats and have wide tolerance for habitats.

Some of the well-known endemic genera in Indian flora are Mecanopsis (Papaveraceae) *Chloroxylon swietenia* (Flindersiaceae, formerly Rutaceae). Catenaria and Butea (Papilionaceae) Caesulia (Compositae), Petalidium (Acanthaceae), etc. *Eletteria repens* (Zingiberaceae) Piper longum (Piperaceae), Piper nigrum (Piperaceae), Ficus religiosa (Moraceae), *Shorea robusta* (Dipterocarpaceae), *Venda caerulea* (Orchidaceae), *Salmalia malabarica* (Bombacaceae) *Eleusine coracana* (Grammeae) are the well-known endemic species of Indian flora.There are some special terms to designate the quality of these endemics, viz. Local endemics which are found in small land features, progressive endemics which tend to spread with time retrogressive endemics in which case the area of distribution is contracting and micro-endemics (i.e., the endemics of lower groups).

(iii) ***Pseudo endemics:*** These endemics arise due to mutation in existing population at a particular place. These pseudo endemics or mutants may or may not persist for long in the particular area where they originate. Endemism results from the failure on the part of species to disseminate its seeds fruits spores or propagules because of existence of great

barriers like mountains, oceans and large deserts. The oceanic islands which are isolated from rest of the world by large expanses of water abound in endemic species and water barrier checks the migration of those species outside their original habitat.

(iv) ***Local endemics:*** These are restricted to a much localized spot or just at one locality, e.g. varieties of mango (Alphanso- Ratnagiri, Neelum-Hyderabad, Kesar-Junagarh, etc).

(v) ***Ecological endemics:*** Restricted occurance due to ecological conditions, e.g. *Rhizophora mangle* (mangrove- creeks of Mumbai), etc.

(vi) ***Pan endemics:*** Restricted to few latitudes around the world, e.g. Palms (8-20^0), Cycads (15-35^0), etc.

(vii) ***Poly endemics:*** Restricted widely separated many areas, e.g. *Gnetum ula, G. gnemon,* etc.

Some Indian endemic plants: Certain important examples of endemic Indian plant species include *Ficus religiosa* (peepal), *F. benghalensis* (vad), *Aegle marmelos* (bel), *Artocarpus integra* (fanas), *Crotolaria juncea* (shaju), *Datura metal, Indigophera tinctoria* (nil), *Piper nigrum* (black-pepper), *Ellettaria cardamomum I(cardamon), Sessamum indicum* (til), *Butea monosperma* (palsa), *Saraka indica* (Sitecha ashok), *Shorea robusta* (sal), *Caryota urnes* (tadi), *Feronia elephantum* (kaith), *Holmskioldiasanguinea* (cup-saucer plant), *Eugenia sps, Isoetes sps, Equisetum pashanii,* etc.

III. Discontinuous Distribution: When plants occur at two or more distant places of the world which are separated by overland's or oceans hundreds or thousands of kilometers apart. Such a distribution is called discontinuous or disjunct distribution. Three genera Nothofagus, Jovellona and a for example are found in parts of South America, South

Africa and Australia which are -paraded by vast oceans.

The significant phytogeographical causes for discontinuous distribution are as follows:

(i) The species might have evolved at more than one place and they failed to migrate outside their original habitats because of barriers.

(ii) The species which were once widely distributed in the past disappeared from certain areas and are now surviving in some distant pockets.

(iii) The climate may also be a factor for discontinuity in distribution of species. Plants having specific climatic requirements are found in widely separated areas with similar environmental conditions, as for example, plants of arctic regions are also found in alpine zone of high mountains in tropics and subtropics. Salix and Silen species show discontinuous distribution in arctic-alpine regions.

14.5 Theories of Discontinuous Distribution

I. ***Theory of Land Bridge:*** According to this theory, land bridges occurring in between the separated continents are believed to have helped in the migration of various taxa from one continent to the other. Uniform distribution of plants and animals in different parts of the world during Palaeozoic era is believed to have been due to those land bridges. With the passage of time the land bridges became submerged in sea and the connections between the various continents snapped beyond the dispersal capacity of organisms resulting thereby the discontinuity in the distribution.

II. ***Theory of Continental drift:*** The theory of continental drift was propounded by Wegner (1912 1924) According to him the whole land- mass of

the world was a single super continent during Palaeozoic era. He named it as Pangaea. That super continent was surrounded by sea on all the sides which was named Panthalassa. During Mesozoic, Pangaea split up into two large landmasses; Laurasia in the north and Gondwanaland in south.

The two landmasses were separated by Tethys Sea. Du Toit (1937), however, suggested that Laurasia and Gondwanaland existed from the very beginning. The two large landmasses having characteristic flora and fauna broke up into new landmasses called continents. Laurasia gave rise to Eurasia, Greenland and North America and similarly Gondwanaland gave rise to South America, Africa, India, and Polynesia, Australia Antarctica etc.

About 135 million years ago reorientation of continents began. The continents were drifted apart by the oceans. This is called Continental Drift. The occurrence of Dinosaurs and many fossil plants lend support to the existence of Laurasia and Gondwanaland. With the separation of continents the distribution areas of several plant and animal species got separated and gave rise to discontinuous distribution areas.

14.6 Factors Affecting Distribution of Species

Several factors are known to affect the geographical distribution of plant species, some of which are as follows:

I. Geological history and distribution,
II. Migration, and
III. Ecological amplitude.

I. Geological history and distribution: The place where a species first originated is called its centre of origin. Evolution of species is a slow but continuous process. Some of the species in present day flora are quite old while a great majority of them are recent in origin.

The process of species differentiation involves:

(i) Hybridization between the related species as well as mutation and

(ii) The natural selection of the hybrid and mutant populations.

In the selection process not all the hybrids and mutants are selected by nature and only the fittest individuals which find the habitat conditions within their ecological amplitudes are selected and the individuals least fit are eliminated. Changing climate has also played important role in the origin of new species. In the course of evolution several old species became extinct, some of which can be found even today as fossils. The fossils provide direct evidence for the existence of various taxa in the past.

Age and Area Hypothesis

This hypothesis was proposed by J. W. Willis (1915) on the basis of his extensive studies of geographical distribution of certain plant species in tropics. On the basis of his findings Willis postulated that the species which evolved earlier occupy greater areas than those which appeared later in the evolutionary sequence. According to this hypothesis, the frequency of a species over an area is directly proportional to its age in scale of evolution and age of species is directly related with the area of its distribution.

Thus a small area of distribution of a species will indicate its relative young age. Willis has quoted several examples such as Impatiens, Primula, Gentiana, Rhododendron in support of his hypothesis. Genus Coleus may be quoted here as an example in support of this hypothesis. There are two species of Coleus namely C. elongatus and C. barbatus.

The former species is endemic while the latter is widely distributed. On the basis of areas under distribution of these species Willis considered C. elongatus less evolved and derived from C barbalins. Willis has also pointed out that

the majority of endemics are found to be members of large and successful genera. The age and area hypothesis, however, is not universal and it has been criticized by many.

II. ***Migration:*** The newly evolved species starts migration to new areas and side by side it undergoes further evolutionary changes. The dispersal of germules and propagules is brought about by several agencies like wind, water, glaciers, insects, animals, even man. The dispersal is followed by ecasis. Migration may be adversely affected and sometimes even totally stopped by some factors called migration barriers. Barriers in the dispersal of species may be classified as ecological or environmental and geographical.

The climate, an ecological barrier, plays important role in distribution and establishment of species. Unsuitable climatic condition or change of climate in particular area forces the species to migrate from one place to another and the failure of some species to migration leads them to gradual extinction. Besides climate, there are geographical barriers, as for example, high mountains, vast oceans or deserts.

The fresh water plants, for example, cannot be dispersed across oceans if their propagules are suitable only for fresh water dispersal and similarly germules or propagules of land plants from one country cannot reach other country separated by vast oceans and mountains. Species are called natives of the place of occurrence if they originated there. Outside the area of its origin, the species is referred to as exotic. Exotic species reach new area through migration. If any species is introduced intentionally in new area by man then it is called introduced species.

III. ***Ecological amplitudes and distribution:*** Environmental conditions not only influence the life and development of plants but also determine the presence or absence, vigour or weakness and

relative success or failure of various plants in a particular habitat. Each plant species of a community has a definite range of tolerance towards physical and biological environment of the habitat. This is referred to as ecological amplitude. The presence of species at a particular place, no doubt, indicates that the environmental conditions of that habitat are within its ecological amplitude but the absence of a species from one place does not necessarily indicate that the environment is not suitable for that species.

The ecological amplitude is governed by genetic set up of the species concerned and thus different species have different ecological amplitudes which may sometimes overlap only in certain respects. Further, some species may occur at different geographical regions as and when the conditions fall within their ecological amplitudes. As for example, some plants of temperate region say conifers, may also be found in alpine zone of high mountains in tropical and subtropical regions.

The other consideration in ecological amplitude as a factor in plant distribution is its change with time. In sexually reproducing plants the hybridization between related species results in offspring's with new genetic composition. With the change of environment the plant species also make adjustments with new environment by shifts in their ecological amplitudes facilitated by changes in the genotype. Within a species there may occur several genetically different groups of individuals (populations) which are adjusted to particular set of ecological conditions.

These populations are called ecotypes or ecological races or ecological populations. In Euphorbia thymifolia, for example, there are two major populations-one is calcium loving or calcicole and the other type is calcium hating or calcifuge. Similarly ecological races of Xanthium strumarium and Ageratum conyzoides differ in the

photoperiodic requirements. The existence of ecotypes within the species widens the area of its geographical distribution.

14.7 Botanical Zones of India

Vegetation of any place is modified by the environmental factors; climate, geology and biotic factors.

The great area of Indian subcontinent has wide range of climate and corresponding diversity in the vegetation.

India has been divided into the following botanical zones by D. Chatterjee (1962)

I. Western Himalayas

The northern part of our country is bounded by highest ranges of Himalayas and is one of the important botanical regions of the world with climate and vegetation ranging from truly tropical near the low altitudes to temperate arctic types at the high altitudes. The northern mountain division can phytogeographically be divided into western, central and eastern zones. Western Himalayas consist of north Kashmir, south Kashmir, a part of Punjab, H.P., Garhwal and Kumaon. This zone is wet in outer southern ranges and slightly dry in inner northern zone. The average annual rainfall in thisregion is from 100 to 200 cm. Snowfall occurs in this region during winter season. The region may be divided into three subzones.

(i) Submontane zone or lower region or tropical and subtropical belts (up to about 1500 metres altitude from the sea level).

(ii) Temperate zone (from 1500 meters to 3500 meters altitude),

(iii) Alpine zone (above 3500 meters and up to the line of perpetual snow).

(i) Submontane or lower region or tropical and subtropical belts: It includes outer Himalayas,

particularly region of Siwaliks and adjoining areas where annual average rainfall is over 100 cm. This zone ranges between 300 and 1500 meters above sea level. In this zone, forests dominated by timber trees of Shorea robusta are common. Other important tree species are Salmalia malabaricum, Butea monosperma. *Acacia catachu* and Zizyphus species.

In the swampy areas, *Dalbergia sisso* (Shisham), *Ficus glomerata*, *Eugenia jambolana* are of common occurrence. In west dry regions sal trees are replaced by xeric plants particularly Zizyphus, Carissa, Acacia, and thorny Euphorbias. At higher elevation, around 1000 to 1500 metre altitude, cheer (pine) forests are also found at certain places. The common species of pine are *Pinus longifolia* and *Pinus roxburghii*. Ground vegetation is scanty.

(ii) ***Temperate zone:*** It commonly ranges at the altitudes from 1500 to 3500 metres above the sea level. Oaks are dominant along with Populus, Rhododendron, Betula and Pyrus. Pinus excelsa, Cedrus deodara, Picea, Abies, Cupressus and *Taxus baccata* are found in the heavy rainfall region (between 1600 and 1800 m). Herbs are also common in this region. Common herbs are Ranunculus hirtila, Polygonum, Pedicularia, *Potentilla argyrophylla*. Primula, Delphinium, Clematis, crucifers and many members of Asteraceae.

In cultivated drylands of Punjab, wheat and barley are main crops. In Kashmir, Betula (birch), Salix (cane), Populus (poplar) are of common occurrence. Besides these, *Quercus semicarpifolia, Q. dilatata, Aesculus indica* (chestnut) and many conifers are commonly

met within this region. In west Kashmir rice cultivation is common Sar or saffron (*Crocus sativus*), apples, peaches, walnut, almonds and other fruits are important economic plants of Kashmir region.

(iii) ***Alpine zone:*** Above the altitude of 3500 meters and up to snowline (about 5000 m) is alpine zone. The vegetation consists of evergreen conifers and some low and broad leaved trees. The vegetation of this region is characterized by cushion habit, dwarf nature and gregarious habit. In lower alpine region, shrubby forests are common which may be (a) Birch—fir forest which is fairly dense and is mixed with evergreen shrubby Rhododendron at higher level and (b) Birch— Rhododendron forests in which silver fir, Betula, Rhododendron and Juniperus are common. In the upper alpine region, prominent herbaceous plants are the species of Primula, Polygonum, Gentiana, Cassiope, Meconopsis, Saxifraga, Potentilla, Geranium, Aster, Astragalus, etc. which form alpine meadows. At about 5000 meter altitude and above snow perpetuates round the year and plant growth is almost nil. This altitude is called snow line or ice line.

Populations of Draba, Braya, Cortia, Leontopodium go on increasing with the increase in altitude. Species of Ephedra, Juniperus, Berberis are also found scattered. Poa, Stipa and Fectuca are common grasses of alpine zone.

II. Eastern Himalayas

Eastern Himalayas extend from Sikkim to upper Assam, Darjeeling and NEFA. Vegetation of this region differs from that of western Himalayas. The chief differences are due to

changed environmental factors as heavy monsoon rainfall, less snowfall and high temperature and humidity.

This region can also be divided into:

(i) Tropical submontane zone
(ii) Temperate or Montane zone, and
(iii) Alpine zone.

(i) Tropical or Submontane Zone: The tropical subzone characterized by warm and humid conditions extends from plain up to the altitude of about 1800 m. In this zone mostly sal forests, and mixed deciduous forests consisting of important plants, such as Sterculia, Terminalia, Anthocephalus, Cadamba and Bauhinia are common. In the savannah forests, common plants are Albezzia procera, Bischofia, Salmelia, Dendrocalamus. Evergreen forests of *Dillenia indica, Michelia champaca*, Echinocarpus, Cinnamon, etc. are common.

(ii) Temperate or Montane Zone: It may be further divided into upper and lower zones Lower temperate zone is the region between 1800 and 3000 metre altitudes. In the lower temperate zone, Oaks (Quercus). Michelia, Pyrus, Cedrela, Eugenia, Echinocarpus are common plants. In upper temperate zone (3000-4000 metre altitude), conifers and Rhododendrons are common. Important conifers of this region are *Picea spinulosa*, Abies, Larix, Juniperus, *Tsuga griffithi, Tsuga brunoniana*, etc.

(iii) Alpine Zone (from 4000 meters up to snow line): Climate is humid and extremely cold. The vegetation in the alpine zone is characterized by complete absence of trees and predominance of shrubs and meadows. Important plants of this zone are Rhododendron and Juniperus. Eastern Himalayan vegetation is considered to be one of the

richest vegetational units in the world and consists of several species of plants which are native of foreign countries, such as, China, Japan, Burma, Malaya and European countries.

III. Indus Plains

It includes part of Punjab, Rajasthan, Cutch, Delhi, a part of Gujarat. Some part of this plain is now in Pakistan. The climate of this zone is characterized by dry hot summer, and dry cold winter. Rainfall is usually less than 70 cms, but in certain regions it is as low as 10-15 cms. The soil of a wide area except cultivated land, is saline. Much of the land has become desert due to excessive dryness.

Vegetation is mainly bushy and thorny *Acacia arabica*, *Prosopis spicigera*, Salvadora,*Capparis decidua* are very common plants of this region. *Salsola phoetida* and Lunakh grass are found mostly in saline soils. Other plants of this botanic province are Anageissus, Eugenia, Mango, *Dalbergia sisso*, *Albizzia lebbek*, *Zizyphus nummularia*, etc.

Historical evidences indicate that the area was covered by dense forest some 2000 years ago, but gradual destruction of vegetation cover either by biotic agencies or by any other agency led to the development of desert in this plain. S*accharum munja, Cenchrus ciliaris, Prosopis spicigera, Acacia leucophloea, A. Senegal* are the important plant species which are grown for checking the spread of desert.

IV. Gangetic Plains

This is one of the richest vegetational zones in India. This zone covers flat land of a part of Delhi, whole of U.P., Bihar, and West Bengal and also a part of Orissa. Rainfall in this zone is from 50 cm to 150 cm. A great part of the land is under cultivation. The common crop plants are wheat, barley maize. Sorghum (jowar), Bajra, urad, Moong (*Phaseolus mungo*), *Cajanus cajan*, til (*Sesamum indicum*),

sugarcane. Pea (Pisum sp.), gram (*Cicer arietinum*), potato, Brassica, rice.

In western part of U.P. annual rainfall is from 50 cm to 110 cm. Dry deciduous and shrubby forests are common in this part. Important plants of south-western part of U.P. are Capparis, *Saccharum munja, Acacia arabica*. In the north-western part of U.P. near Himalayas foothills *Dalbergia sisso, Acacia arabica* are most common plants.

In eastern gangetic plain, the conditions are cold and wet (annual rainfall, 150 cm in West Bengal). In this part evergreen forests are common. In central part, the annual rainfall is about 100 cm to 150 cm. The vegetation consists mainly of deciduous trees. Sal trees are dominant. Other common trees are *Terminalia tomentosa, T. belerica,* Acacia species, Bauhinia, Diospiros (Biri Ka patta or tendu) Eugenia sp., Neem trees (margosa), *Madhuca indica* (Mahua), *Cordia myxa* (Lasora), Tamarindus, Mango (*Mangifera indica*), Ficus etc. In Bihar and Orissa hills, Rubus, Potentilla, Fragaria (Rosaceae), Pyrus etc. are common. Mangrove vegetation is common in tidal regions in West Bengal near Sunderban, and Orissa. *Rhizophora mucronata, R. conjugata*, Sonneratia, *Ceriops roxburghiana* and *Acanthus ilicifolius, Kandelia rheedii, Bruguiera gymnorhiza* are common mangrove plants in those regions.

V. Central India

Central India covers Madhya Pradesh, part of Orissa (now Odisha), Gujarat and Vindhya. The areas are hilly. The average rainfall per annum may be 100-170 cm. Some places are at the altitudes of 500-700 m from the sea level. Biotic disturbances are very common in this botanical province which have led to the development of the thorny vegetation in open areas. In this region teak (Tectona grandis) and sal (shorea robusta) forests are very common. Other trees are Terminalia tomentosa, Bauhinia, Mango, Phyllanthus, Ficus glomerata, etc. Among common shrubs

are Mimosa rubricaulis, Desmodium, Acacia sp., *Zizyphus rotundifolia* and other.

Entire forest vegetation of central India may be divided into:

(i) Sal forests
(ii) Mixed deciduous forests
(iii) Thorny forests.

At Sarguja (M.P.) many species have been reported to occur. Some of them are Pyrus, Barberis asiatica, Rubus, elipticus, etc.

VI. Deccan

This region comprises whole of the southern peninsular India including Satpura and southern part of Godawari River. Average annual rainfall in this region is about 100 cm.

It may be divided into the following two subdivisions:

(i) Deccan plateau
(ii) Coromandel coast

In Deccan plateau teak forests containing Diospiros, Acacia, Prosopis spicigera. Santalum a hum (Chandan tree) and Cedrda toona are common. On rocks, Capparis, Euphorbias, Phyllunthus are common. Teak, Pterocarpus, Borassus, Foenix silvestris are also common in this area In Chhota Nagpur plateau, important species are Clematis natans, Barberis, Thallictrum and also many members of Annonaceae, Rosaceae, Compositae, Araliaceae, Apocynaceae, Lauraceae, Amaranthaceae, Orchidaceae. Some ferns also common.

In Coromandel Coast vegetation consists largely of some halophytic species.

VII. Western Coast of Malabar

This is small botanical province covering Cape Comorin to Gujarat and Western Ghats .This is a region of heavy rainfall.

In this zone, four types of forests are common

(i) Tropical forests (occur at 700 m altitude).

(ii) Mixed deciduous forests (found at the altitude up to 1600 m).

(iii) Temperate evergreen forests (occur above 1200 m altitude), and

(iv) Mangrove vegetation.

In tropical evergreen forest the trees are tall and they have root buttresses. Important species are Cedrela toona, Dipterocarpus,*Mangifera indica, Sterculia alata, Artocarpus hirsuta*. In the mixed deciduous forests, important plants are Terminalia tomentosa, Terminalia peniculata Tectona grandis, Dalbergia, Lagerstroemia lanceolata and bamboo species, particularly Dendrocalamus and Bamboosa arundinacea. On the Nilgiri hills sub-tropic and temperate conditions exist. Important plants of Nilgiri vegetation are Rubus, Rhododendron arboreum, Barberis, Thallictrum Ranunculus, Fragaria, Potentilla. Many other herbs along with many grasses are also common.

Temperate forests commonly called as "sholas" contain Gardenia obtusa, Michelia nilgirica Eugenia species are also common. In Malabar, plants belonging to family Dipterocarpaceae' Tihaceae, Anacardiaceae, Meliaceae, Myrtaceae, Piperaceae, Orchidaceae and many ferns are common. The west coast of Malabar region receives very high rainfall. In the coastal region mangrove plants grow luxuriantly.

VIII. Assam

This botanical province is very rich in vegetation and covers valley of Brahmaputra, Naga Hills and Manipur. This is the region of heaviest rainfall. Cherapunji is one of the rainiest place in the world where annual rainfall often exceeds 1000 cm. Excessive wetness and high temperature in this zone are responsible for the development of dense

forests. Broad leaved, tall evergreen angiosperms and some conifers are very common in the forests.

Common plants occurring in this region are Ficus, Artocarpus, *Michelia champaca, Sterculia alata,*Morus species. Besides these bamboos canes, climbers, and green bushes are also common. Prominent plants in the northern forests of this zone are Alnus nepalensis, Betula. Rhododendron arboreum. Magnolia, Michelia and Prunus. Sal also occurs at Garo hills. Orchids and fern species are very rich in this zone.

IX. Bay Islands of Andaman and Nicobar (India)

Islands

These are represented by the Andaman and Nicobar islands in the east and Lakshadweep islands in the west. The Andaman and Nicobar islands are a group of more than 300 islands, which support many characteristic plants and animals. The forests range from tropical evergreen to moist deciduous and even mangroves. The Lakshadweep group of islands comprise 36 major Islands, which together from an area of 32 sq km. Many varied marine fauna are present here that include turtles, crabs, molluscs and fishes. Beautiful coral reefs are also present in this part of India.

These bay islands represent elevated portions of submarine mountains. Climate is humid in the coastal region. In Andaman, beech forests, evergreen forests, semi-evergreen forests deciduous forests and mangrove vegetation are of common occurrence. Rhizophora Mimusops, Calophyllum, etc. are common plants in mangrove vegetation. In the interior evergreen forests tall trees are common. Important species of trees are Calophyllum, Dipterocarpus, Lagerstroermia and Terminalia etc. Some part is under cultivation. The important crops are paddy and sugarcane.

14.8 Detailed Study of Vegetational Types of Maharashtra

Taking into consideration the climate and soil, the most important factors responsible for the development of forest types, the vegetation (forest) of Maharashtra can be conveniently groped under the following main types.

I. ***Tropical Wet-Evergreen forest:*** These are mostly restricted to the higher ridges of western Ghats and occur around Mahabaleshwar, Matheran, Amboli, Bhimashankar, and parts of Pune (near Lonawala) and Thane districts. They occur mostly at elevation between 1000 to 1400 meters. The rainfall is restricted to southwest monsoon from July to October and varies from 360 to 600 cm and fog is common. The common plant species are *Sizygium cumini* (Jambul), *Momecylon umbellatum* (anjan), *Randia dometorum* (gehla), *Terminalia chebula* (hirda), *T. tomentosa* (ain), *Olea diocca* (karamba), *Pouteria tomentosa, Elaeagnus latifolia* (ambgul), *Capparis pedunculosa* (kolisna), *Crotolaria retusa* (dingala), *Vitex negundo* (nirgudi), *Michelia champaca* (chapha), *Eucalyptus species* (nilgiri), *Mesua ferrea* (nagchampa), *Artocarpus sps.* (fanas), *Hopea wighiiana* (kausi), *Xylia xylocarpa* (yerul). Etc.

II. ***Tropical Semi-Evergreen forest:*** These forests occur mostly on the Western Ghats between the evergreen and moist deciduous forests at an altitude varying from 450 to 1050 meters. They occur in Ajara and Chandgarh forests of Kolhapur, Koyna, and parts of Satara, Ratnagiri, Pune Nasik and Sawantwadi. The rainfall is restricted to southeast monsoon and varies from 200 to 250 cm. The common plant species are *Terminalia paniculata* (kindal), *T. belerica* (behada), *T. tomentosa* (ain), *Lagerstroemia lanceolata* (nana), *Syzygium cumini* (jambhul), *Xylia xylocarpa*

(yerul), *Bauhinia racemosa* (apta), *Carvia callosa, Holoptelia intergrifolia* (wavali), *Pterocarpus marsupium* (bibla), *Adina cardifolia* (hedi), *Salmalia malbarica* (silk-cotton), *Artocarpus hirsute* (ran fanas), *Anthocephalus cadamba* (kadamba), *Dalbergia latifolia* (sisam), *Murraya koenigii* (kadhi patta), *M. paniculata.* Etc.

III. ***Tropical Moist-Deciduous forest:*** These occurs at the Allapalli forests of Chandrapur district, also found in Ratnagiri, Raigarh, Thane, Nasik and Bhandara district on the gentler slopes of Sahyadris and Western Ghats. The average rainfall is about 130 cm with a fairly long and distinct dry period. The most common trees are *Tectona grandis* (teak), *Terminalia belerica* (behada), *T. tomentosa* (ain), *Adina cardifolia* (hedi), *Salmalia malbarica* (silk-cotton), *Dalbergia latifolia* (sisam), *Acacia catechu* (khair), *Bambusa arundinaceae, Dendrocalamus strictus* (bamboo), *Madhuca indica* (mahua), *Pterocarpus marsupium* (bibla), *Albizzia lebeck* (shirish), *Anogeissus latifolia* (dhavada), *Butea superba* (palas-vel), *Lagerstroemia parviflora* (lendi), *Xylia xylocarpa* (yerul), *Grewia tiliaefolia* (Dhaman), *Schleichera triguga* (kusum), *Emblica officinalis* (avala), etc.

IV. ***Tropical Dry-Deciduous forest:*** A long and distinctly long season with rainfall of about 120 cm and less retensive soils accounts for the regional distribution of this forest. Satpuda and Ajanta ranges are the main belts, but the local developments can be seen in the eastern and drier extensions of the Sahyadris and Vidarbha. The most common plants of this type of forests are *Tectona grandis* (teak), *Anogeissus latifolia* (dhavada), *Dalbergia latifolia* (sisam), *Salmalia malbarica* (silk-cotton), *Terminalia belerica* (behada), *T. tomentosa* (ain),

T. chebula (hirda), *Diospyros tomentosa* (tendu), *Butea monosperma* (palas), *Lagerstroemia parviflora* (lendi), *Pterocarpus marsupium* (bibla), *Emblica officinalis* (avala), *Acacia catechu* (khair), *Boswellia serrata* (salai), *Stercularia urnes* (karai), *Hardwickia binnata* (anjan), *Lantana camera* (ghaneri), *Zizyphus xylopyros* (guti), *Euphorbia sps, Cassia fistula* (bahawa), *Adina cardifolia* (hedi), etc.

V. ***Tropical Thorn forests:*** This type is met with drier areas with low rainfall. The rainfall is scanty (70 cm) and the soils are hard and poor. In Maharashtra this type occurs in many areas of Pune, Ahmednagar, Satara, Dhule, Jalgaon, Solapur and other districts. The vegetation consists of hardy and thorny species mostly xerophytic. The common plant species are *Acacia catechu* (khair), *A. leucopholea* (subabul), *A. arabica* (babul), *Cassia auriculata* (avail), *C. tora* (tarota), *Bauhinia racemosa* (apta), *Gardenia gummifera* (dikamali), *Mimosa hamata* (arbot), *Azadirecta indica* (neem), *Grewia tiliefolia* (dhaman), *Strychnos potatorum* (nirmali), *Aristida redacta, Heteropogon contrartus* (grass), etc.

VI. ***The littoral and Tidal Swamp forest:*** The littoral forests occur on coastal areas of Ratnagiri and Thane districts where the soils are sandy. The water table is fairly high and winds are strong. This type is represented by *Cassuarina equisetifolia* (suru) plantation.

Among tidal swamp forests mangrove scrubs are found in our state along the major creeks of west coasts. The plants of these forests are *Aviciennia alba, A. officinalis* (tiwar), *Sonneratia apetala, Excoecaria agallocha* (geva), *Acanthus ilicifolium* (marandi), etc.

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Environment Conservation Challenges Threats in Conservation of Biodiversity

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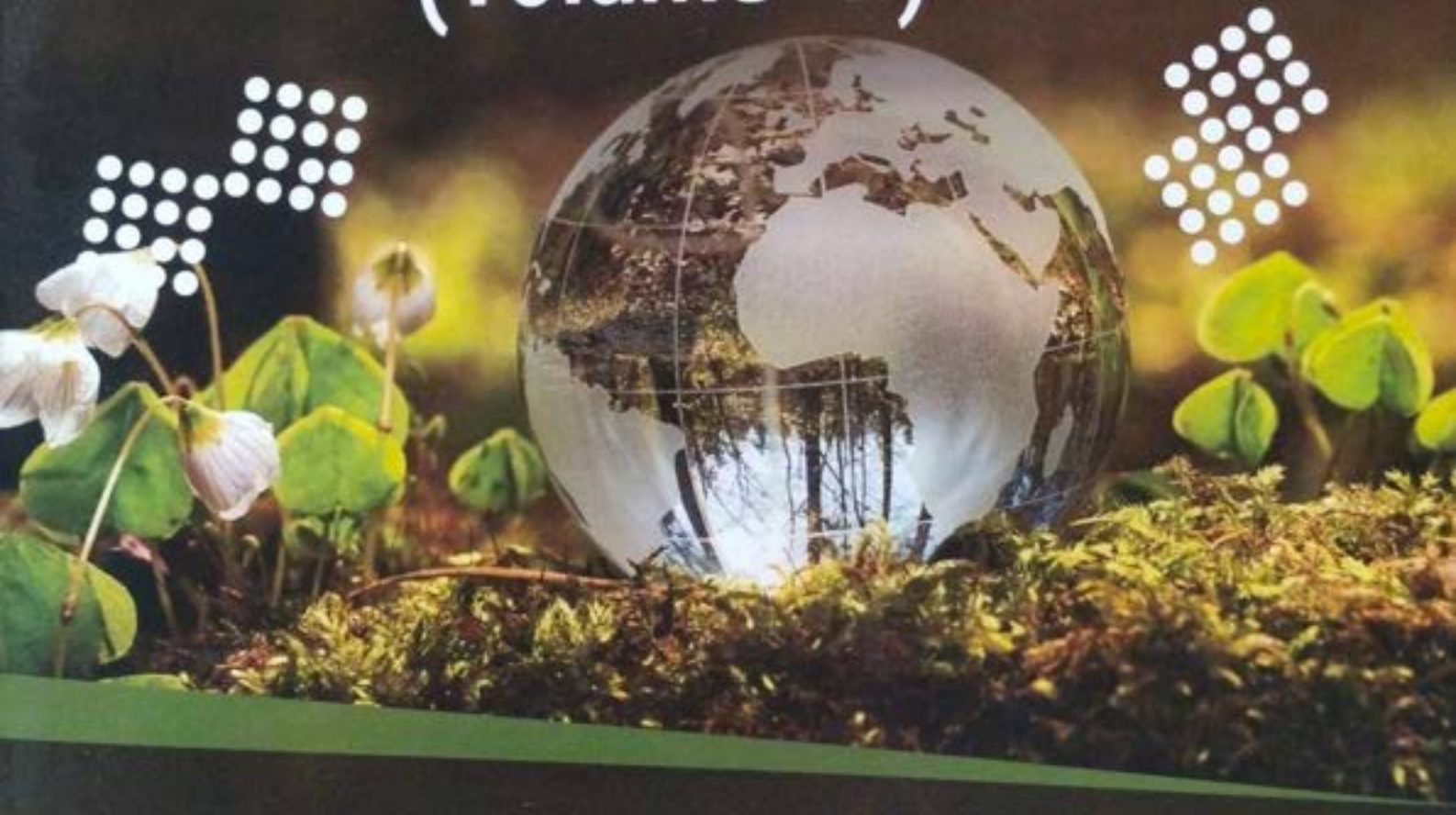

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ENVIRONMENT CONSERVATION, CHALLENGES THREATS IN CONSERVATION OF BIODIVERSITY

VOLUME - II

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Title: ENVIRONMENT CONSERVATION, CHALLENGES THREATS IN CONSERVATION OF BIODIVERSITY (VOLUME- II)

Editors: MR MUKUL MACHHINDRA BARWANT, DR VISHNU KIRAN MANAM & DR. ARUNA KUMARI NAKKELLA

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First Published, 2022

ISBN: 978-93-94766-04-4

Published by:

SCIENG PUBLICATIONS

(ISO 9001:2015 Certified Company)

Janani Illam, Maniyakar Street
Anumandai, Marakkanam Taluk
Villupuram District, Tamilnadu 604303
Website: http://sciengpublications.com
Email: sciengpublications@gmail.com
editor@sciengpublications.com

Printed in India, by: *Sagar Color Sacan, New Delhi*

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Chapter 25

Biodiversity and Human Impact on Crab Conservation

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ABSTRACT

Crabs are known for their high nutritional benefits to the humankind since ancient time particularly the freshwater crabs, *Barytelphusa cunicularis, Barytelphsa guerini* found in the nearby fish market with high demand. Yet, because of anthropogenic activities on that, the number of freshwater crabs found in the local markets diminishing day by day. The current review carried out to run over the purposes for less accessibility of this crabs. Through the investigation of crab sampling site it was see that component like - overfishing and improper planning of crab fishing, dumping of non-biodegradable solids, abundance of water gain in ranch and so forth were the standard issues presented by human to the less accessibility of crabs in local markets.

KEYWORDS: *Barytelphusa,* crab burrows, conservation, river.

INTRODUCTION

It is estimated that over a million species Worldwide depend on tropical freshwater environments for their endurance yet the quick weakening of freshwater bodies, driven by human population development and deforestation, is contrarily affecting inland aquatic biodiversity (Neil Cumberlidge et. al. 2009). Freshwater crabs are one of the most naturally significant large scale invertebrate groups in tropical inland waters Worldwide. Freshwater crabs are omnivorous (with some tending more towards either herbivores or carnivores) and remember species that feed for leaves, fallen leaves with joined green growth, and beechnuts. Freshwater crabs are fundamental parts of food networks in tropical aquatic biological systems and give food to a more extensive scope of hunters, just as framing the premise of limited scope fisheries. The present study was prompted by a growing awareness of the true extent of freshwater crab diversity and of the possible threatened Status of many narrowly distributed species given the current widespread destruction of tropical forests and aquatic ecosystems. In Maharashtra, *Barytelphusa cunicularis, guereni, Parytelphusa* are commonly observed.

CRAB CULTURE IS PROMISING SOLUTION TO CONSERVER POPULATION AND FOOD SECURITY

There are two species mostly found region of Maharashtra, *Barytelphusa cunicularis* and *B guerini*. In local market, people purchase black crab for consumption. For captive breeding

of this species, small scale fishery is needed for its conservation, so that number of population can be increased.

Overfishing of crabs: If availability of crabs in large quantity in one of the area of River, fisherman trying to catch more. Due to these adults crabs were vanished. This was one of the main reasons of crab population reduction.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Habitat destruction - Habitat obliteration brought about by horticultural exercises, requests of modern turn of events and demolition of waterways for the manifestations of hydroelectric power are dangers to a portion of the freshwater crabs (Rupert C. Akpaniteaku, 2017). The Protection of numerous types of freshwater crabs relies for the most part upon preservation of locales of regular natural surroundings adequate tremendous to support quality of water (Pankaj O. Baisthakur *et.al.* 2021). The population size gets reduced because of disturbances in age structure and sex composition. Efficient gears remove quick growing larger individuals.

Crabs are only harvested during the peak breeding season (i.e. summer) and seem to be selecting only large crabs. It would thus appear that the exploitation of crabs as a food resource poses a limited threat to the crabs as taking adults and leaving the rest of the population would allow normal recruitment to proceed. However, local respondents do not throw back ovigerous adult females or adult females carrying hatchlings hence these could have a considerable negative impact on crab population's overtime.

Fig. 1: Habitat Destruction by Fisherman While Catching the Crabs at River

CONSERVATION ACTIONS, CHALLENGES AND RECOMMENDATIONS-

Freshwater crab conservation action plans and strategies should be primarily aimed at preserving the integrity of habitats while at the same time closely monitoring crab populations. The current study may provide important information and insight towards the development of a freshwater crab conservation action plan and strategy within the region. The conservation of freshwater crabs depends on the preservation of natural forests that are large enough to maintain good water quality (Kenny W. J. Chua, et.al. 2015). This freshwater crab requires an optimal habitat that comprises: a sandy clay & muddy habitat. (P.K. Pati *et.al.* 2013).

There is a need for long-term and continuous monitoring of species of high conservation value, together with other measures that focus on habitat protection (Ng, D. J., 2015).

Freshwater Crab (*Barytelphusa cunicularis)* has always been a nutritional food commodity, rich in Proteins, carbohydrates, vitamins, having great medicinal properties as well. This research carried out through captive breeding in Godavari River. According to this study the ability to select right habitat is the best challenge for the settlement of life, post reproductive activities, avoidance from the predators and other metabolic activities in various organisms. (Padghane *et.al*.2016)

There is an urgent need to share knowledge and co-ordinate research, management and outreach efforts amongst all of those parties who can either have an impact on the species and its habitat or who may be affected by the implementation of this strategy.

A captive population can also contribute to work plan for the foundation of a captive reproducing program was created. The plan was include: (1) the wellspring of originator stock in view of numbers in the wild and their population characteristics; (2) the foundation of numerous rearing facilities; (3) the improvement of farming conventions and getting of adequate resources; and (4) the recognizable proof of proper achievement markers for captive management, for example, survival rate to reproducing size. The work plan was finished in 2018. The farming convention will keep on being refined through information acquired during fruitful keeping and reproducing of the species. To conserve this species a patio substantial tank model incubation center cum Upkeep Lake was intended to explore the way of life prospects of this species. The culture technology is planned to transfer to the tribes. (Padghane and Chavan, 2018).

Fig.2. Captive Breeding of Freshwater Crabs

Table 1: The Different Types of Crab by-Products Generated with their Valuable Components for Potential Areas of Application.

Crab by-products	Functional ingredients	Suggested application areas	References
Crab Shell(carapace)	Chitin, Chitosan	Agriculture, anti-microbial property	Athira, *et al.*, 2017
Crab meat	Lipids	Food Industries, oil	Ghorpade, 2018, Moghal et.al, 2017.
Hepatopancras	Lipids	Food,	Sayyed, 2017
Hemolymph	Protein	Biological Processes	Sakhare & Kamble, 2014; Martin (2010)

CONCLUSION

Through the current study, it can be concluded that anthropogenic activities in River water especially in winter and summer seasons should be restricted, so as to help crabs and other aquatic animals sustain their lives. It is expected to take up focused in research on appraisal of these assets including biodiversity and living space portrayal, broad or semi-concentrated aquaculture practices to work on the load of freshwater crabs to fulfil market need and keep up with the draining wild population. Lesser freshwater crabs could likewise be utilized in aquarium industry as it has high nutritional benefit. Since these recourse contributes to nutritional security to the majority occupying inside geographical region under upper and centre stretch of this river, supplement profiling of this resources might be attempted to increase the value of its fisheries.

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ISBN 978-93-94766-04-4

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Environment Conservation Challenges Threats in Conservation of Biodiversity

(Volume - III)

Mr. Mukul Machhindrsa Barwant
Dr. Vishnu Kiran Manam

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ENVIRONMENT CONSERVATION, CHALLENGES THREATS IN CONSERVATION OF BIODIVERSITY

VOLUME - III

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Title: Environment Conservation, Challenges Threats in Conservation of Biodiversity (Volume-III)

Editor: Mr Mukul Machhindra Barwant
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First Published, 2022

ISBN: 978-93-94766-05-1

Published by:
SCIENG PUBLICATIONS
(ISO 9001:2015 Certified Company)
Janani Illam, Maniyakar Street
Anumandai, Marakkanam Taluk
Villupuram District, Tamilnadu 604303
Website: http://sciengpublications.com
Email: sciengpublications@gmail.com
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Printed in India, by: Sagar Color Scan, New Delhi.

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Chapter 6

"Sustainable Agriculture and Future Challenges"

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ABSTRACT

It has been observed that for a growing country like India the practice of sustainable agriculture is of quite importance as it accelerates the productivity, efficiency, employment, and providing guidance to reduce the practices which affect the quality of soil, water resources and degradation of other natural resources from environment. As we see the performance of agricultural sector of India, we will be easily recognizing that performance have been increased in a significant manner over the years. Despite of many challenges like urbanization, Growth of secondary sector etc. it has achieved a significant growth.

KEYWORDS: Sustainable, agriculture, environment, Challenges.

INTRODUCTION

Sustainable agriculture development integrates three main goals. Environmental health, economic prosperity, and livelihood sustainability.

Agriculture causes severe pressure on the environment via its emission to air, water and soil (Steinfeld et al., 2006), and increasingly competes for scarce resources, such as land, fossil, water & energy (De Vries, 2010; Steinfeld et al., 2006).

Moreover, concerns arise about, for example, the economic viability of agriculture, and its impact on public health and animal welfare (Boogaard et al., 2011; IAASTD, 2009). At the same time, regulatory requirements, societal desires and market demands are changing and increasingly require farmers to report the impacts of their products on issues such as food safety, carbon footprint, and animal welfare (Muller et al., 2012; Whitehead, 2016). For challenges, a development towards a more sustainable agriculture is needed (Pretty, 2008; Whitehead, 2016).

A sustainable development can be defined as ***"Development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs"*** (WCED, 1987).

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Editors: MR MUKUL MACHHINDRA BARWANT, DR VISHNU KIRAN MANAM & DR. ARUNA KUMARI NAKKELLA

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First Published, 2022

ISBN: 978-93-94766-04-4

Published by:

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Website: http://sciengpublications.com
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Printed in India, by: *Sagar Color Saxon, New Delhi*

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Chapter 7

"Organizations Related to Biodiversity Conservation and Management"

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ABSTRACT

Biodiversity has not the best intrinsic, scenic, social, and cultural values but additionally monetary price through its contribution to medicine, agriculture, fisheries, and forestry merchandise, and the several different offerings it affords. How to capitalize upon those improvement possibilities to preserve biodiversity stays a full-size challenge. The emphasis on social-ecological structures makes biodiversity a primary element in the worldwide network of establishments learning sustainability. However, the array of worldwide organizations involved approximately biodiversity and ecosystem services can themselves be seemed like a complicated adaptive device. International organizations foster and coordinate that cooperation, growing a complex community of governmental and non-governmental global bodies to finance and behavior biodiversity research and conservation sports activities this chapter gives a framework of diverse agencies associated with organic conservation in framing rules and methodologies for executions except serving as belongings of records and financing biodiversity-related tasks, workshops, and specific activities.

KEYWORDS: Biodiversity, organizations, financing.

INTRODUCTION

"Earth's vegetation, animals and microorganisms –interacting with every different and with the bodily surroundings in ecosystems– shape the inspiration of sustainable development." 'Global Biodiversity Strategy' (WRI, IUCN, UNEP, 1992) The notable kind of existence on earth has furnished for man's needs over masses of years. This variety of dwelling creatures' office work is an aid device that has been utilized by each civilization for its growth and development. Those that used this "bounty of nature" cautiously and sustainably survived. Those that overused or misused it disintegrated. Biodiversity offers the idea for lifestyles on the earth, which include human lifestyles, and is the important thing to safeguarding the wealth of the sector for destiny generations. By keeping

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IN MULTIDISCIPLINARY SUBJECTS

VOLUME 3

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CONTEMPORARY ISSUES IN MULTIDISCIPLINARY SUBJECTS, VOLUME – 3

Edited by: Sruthi S, Dr. R.D.Padmavathy, Dr. Prashant Vijaysing Patil, Dr. R. Lavanya Kumari, Rupali Nawale, Dr. G. G. Patil, J. Sutha

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RED'SHINE PUBLICATION PVT. LTD.

Headquarters (India): 88-90 REDMAC, Navamuvada,

Lunawada, India-389 230

Contact: +91 76988 26988

Registration no. GJ31D0000034

In Association with,

RED'MAC INTERNATIONAL PRESS & MEDIA. INC

India | Sweden | UK

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ISBN: 978-93-93239-58-7

ISBN-10: 93-93239-58-4

DIP: 18.10.9393239584

DOI: 10.25215/9393239584

Price: ₹ 1000

March, 2022 (First Edition)

■

The views expressed by the authors in their articles, reviews etc. in this book are their own. The Editor, Publisher and owner are not responsible for them. All disputes concerning the publication shall be settled in the court at Lunawada.

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Website: www.redshine.co.in | **Email:** info@redshine.in

Printed in India | Title ID: 9393239584

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CHAPTER - 21

STUDY OF DIFFERENT TYPES OF REACTION IN COORDINATION COMPOUNDS

Mr. C. U. Dhanwad[86], Mr. N. B. Bhagat[87]

Abstract:
A substitution reaction occurs when the functional group of one chemical substance is replaced by another group, or when one atom or molecule of a compound is replaced by another atom or molecule. Nucleophilic substitution is a type of organic (and inorganic) chemical process in which a nucleophile selectively interacts with or attacks the positive or partially positive charge on an atom or group of atoms attacks the substrate (R-LG), forming a new covalent bond. Nuc-R-LG. In many ways, the nucleophilic substitution process of organic molecules on the graphene surface is the best technique to produce bulk synthesis of graphene with surface modifications.

Keywords: *Substitution Reaction, Inorganic Chemistry, Nucleophilic Substitution Reaction.*

Introduction:

In their substitution processes, octahedral complexes, particularly those containing transition metal ions, appear to favor dissociation (SN1) mechanisms. There is no well-supported case of a displacement (SN2) mechanism in an octahedral system at this time. In the literature, there are a few probable examples[1]. All of these suffer from the fact that they are fairly complicated systems with multiple viable answers. Furthermore, in many cases, universality has not been proven. A range of nucleophilic reagents (ligands) should be discovered to be effective in a well-behaved system, and their respective second order rate constants should bear some unambiguous link to established nucleophilic characteristics [2].

Transition metal ions and complexes are important in at least three fields of study: bioinorganic chemistry and molecular biology, in which metal complex metalloproteins are investigated; industrial chemistry, in which metal complexes are used as homogeneous catalysts for the optimization of critical commercial processes such as polymerization, hydroformylation, hydrogenation, olefin oxidation, and so on; environmental and medicinal chemistry [3]. Designing new inorganic 2 materials, manufacturing industrial homogeneous catalysts, and learning about the role of metalloenzymes in

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biological processes and metals in medicine all require an understanding of the mechanisms of reactions at transition metal sites. Now that mechanistic tools developed for kinetic and extrakinetic data analysis have proven their worth in the classification of a wide range of reaction types in coordination, organometallic, and bioinorganic chemistry, the old adage that "every little reaction has its own mechanism" appears to be incorrect [4]. The mechanistic image is continually on trial, and it can or cannot withstand future discoveries from the use of more sophisticated experimental and theoretical methodologies [5]. In this chapter, some fundamental reactions in transition metal chemistry are described, which have established the reactivity pattern on which present investigations are based. Organic chemists discovered relatively few basic principles in the first half of the twentieth century that served to justify a sequence of seemingly disparate data within a cohesive mechanistic picture [6].

Their work was aided by the fact that they were working with a single reaction center (carbon) with a single stable oxidation state thorough understanding of the structural properties of a large number of reagents and products mechanistic information gained from product distribution analysis and the ability to use traditional sampling methods on relatively slow processes.

Types of reactions in coordination compounds:

Metal substitution or electrophilic reaction

Ligand or nucleophilic substitution reaction

The electrophilic or metal substitution reaction (SE) is a reaction in which two metals are substituted for one another. Electrophilic substitution reactions, also known as metal exchange reactions, involve the replacement of one electrophile (a metal present in a coordination complex) with another metal [7].

$$\mathbf{[MLn] + M' \longrightarrow [M'Ln] + M}$$

Slow

$$[Cr(H_2O)_6]^{+3} + CO \longrightarrow [CO(H_2O)_6]^{+3} + Cr$$

Nucleophilic or Ligand substitution reaction

There are three types of nucleophilic substitution reactions

SN^1 nucleophilic substitution reactions

SN^2 nucleophilic substitution reactions

SN^1CB nucleophilic substitution reactions

Nucleophilic substitution reactions are defined as reactions in which a nucleophile (a ligand present in a coordination complex) is replaced by another ligand [8].

$$\mathbf{[MLn] + L' \longrightarrow [ML(n\text{-}1)\,L'] + L}$$

$$[Cr(H_2O)_6]^{+3} \longrightarrow [Cr(H_2O)_5CN]^{+2} + H_2O$$

Brief Idea about Nucleophilic Substitution Reactions:

The general nucleophilic or ligand substitution reaction in octahedral complexes (C. N. = 6) is shown below

$$\mathbf{[ML5Y] + Z \longrightarrow [ML5\,Z] + Y}$$

Here, M is central metal ion; Y is leaving ligand; Z is entering ligand, and L is other ligand in the coordination sphere.
Z may be solvent molecule, anion or same as Y.
When Z is solvent molecule the above reaction is called racemization reaction
When Z is anion, the above reaction is called exchange reaction.
When Z and Y are same, the above reaction is called exchange reaction.

Dissociative SN^1 Mechanism or Unimolecular Nucleophilic Substitution (SN^1):

According to this mechanism, the complex first undergoes dissociation losing the ligand to be replaced and changes into a 5. Coordinated, viz., square pyramidal intermediate complex, which then readily adds the new ligand Y; this may be illustrated as follows:

MLn ⟶ MLn-1 +L : slow dissociation

MLn-1 + Y ⟶ MLn-1 Y : Fast

The first step in which a ligand is lost is slow and formed activated complex (In the slow step i.e. MLn-1) and the second step in which the intermediate complex (Activated complex) formed reacts with the new incoming ligand Y is fast and form MLn-1Y six coordination complex. In the formation of activated complex (Intermediate complex in an SN1 reaction, the coordination number of the central metal is decreased by one i.e. n to n-1.In above two reaction the activation energy of first step is more and activation energy of second step is less. From our knowledge of chemical kinetics we know that the rate of a multi-step reaction depends only on the slowest step and that step is known as rate determine step [9]. This means that the rate of the above reaction depends only on the concentration of one species i.e. MLn not depend upon Y, viz., the complex MLn. The reaction is first order with respect to MLn and it is zero with respect to the rate law for such a reaction may thus be represented as fallows,

Rate = k_1[MLn]
Where k1is the first order rate constant.

Since the rate of the reaction depends only upon the concentration of one species i.e. (MLn), the mechanism is referred to as unimolecular nucleophilic substitution reaction, i.e., S_N1 mechanism. Since in this mechanism the complex first gets dissociated, it is also termed as dissociative S_N1 mechanism.
Example:

$$[Cr(H_2O)_6]^{+3} \xrightarrow{\text{Slow}} [Cr(H_2O)_5]^{+3} + H_2O$$

Five Co-ordination intermediate

$$\downarrow +CN^- \text{ Fast}$$

$$[Cr(H_2O)_5CN]^{+2}$$

The rate law of this reaction is

Rate = K_1 $[Cr (H_2O)_6]^{+3}$

The rate of the foregoing reaction is directly proportional to the concentration of [Cr (H2O)6]+3, and it is independent of the concentration of CN-.

Slow

$$[CO (H_2O)_6]^{3+} \longrightarrow [CO (H_2O)_5]^{+3} + H_2O$$

Five Co-ordination intermediate

$$\downarrow +CN^- \text{ Fast}$$

$$[CO (H_2O)_5CN]^{+2}$$

Six Co-ordination intermediate

S_N2: Substitution, Nucleophilic or Bimolecular Mechanism (Associative Mechanism)

MLn + Y ⟶ MLnY : slow dissociation

MLnY ⟶ MLn-1 Y + L : Fast

In this mechanism, the metal complex forms a hepta-coordinated intermediate complex by first creating a bond with the entering group. As a result, the coordination number of the metal complex increases from six to seven, forming a hepta-coordinated intermediate complex (Seven coordination activated complex). The activated complex then dissociates in the second stage, restoring the coordination number of the complex to six, resulting in octahedral geometry and the addition of new ligand Y as a permanent part of the molecule. The rate of the overall reaction is affected by both [MLn] and [Y] concentrations [10]. The reaction is first order in terms of [MLn] and first order in terms of [Y], but it is a second order reaction overall. Second-order reactions, which are also known as bimolecular nucleophilic substitution or SN2 reactions, are dependent on the concentration of the reactant complex as well as the concentration of the entering ligand.

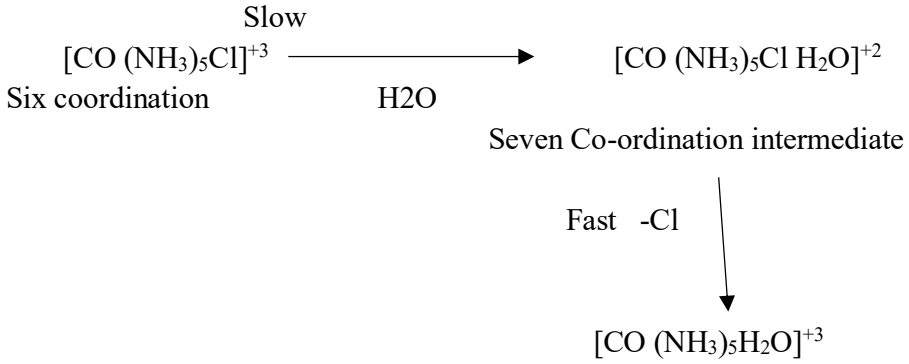
The general rate of law for S_N2 reaction is

$$\text{Rate} = k_2[MLn] [Y]$$

Where k_2 is second order rate constant.

.

Example:



The rate law of this reaction is

Rate = K_2 $[CO (NH_3)_5Cl]^{+2}$ $[H_2O]$

According to above reaction the rate of above reaction is directly proportional to both the concentration of $[CO (NH_3)_5Cl]^{+2}$ and concentration $[H_2O]$.

Types of Intermediate formed during SN1 reaction

Consider an octahedral complex ML5X being attack by a nucleophile Y. If reaction proceeds through SN1 dissociative mechanism, two type of intermediate is formed

Square pyramidal intermediate

Trigonal bipyramidal intermediate

In first step (Slow step),the bond M-X dissociate causing least disturbance to remaining ML5 intermediate which has a square pyramidal .The intermediate ML5 fast attack of incoming ligand Y and produce six coordination compound ML5Y as shown below.

In second type, the bond M-X dissociate and remaining ML5 species immediately adjusts the bond angle to produce a trigonal pyramidal (TBP) intermediate which is fast attacked by incoming ligand Y to produce ML5Y as shown below.

In SN1 nucleophilic substitution reaction square pyramidal intermediate is more stable than Trigonal bipyramidal intermediate (TBP).Because the formation of trigonal bipyramidal intermediate (TBP) involves the moment of at least two metal and ligand bond where as there is no such movement is required during the formation of square pyramidal intermediate. The S_N1 reaction proceeds through the more stable square pyramidal intermediate.

Trigonal bipyramidal (TBP) is so much stabilized by pi bonding that it becomes more stable than square pyramidal intermediate. In that case S_N1 reactions proceed through a trigonal bipyramidal intermediate.

Types of Intermediate formed during S_N2 reaction

If the reaction precedes through an association S_N2 mechanism, there are two types of intermediate.

Pentagonal bipyramidal intermediate (PBP)

Octahedral wedge (OW)

The formation of a Pentagonal bipyramidal intermediate (PBP), [MLnY] requires the movement of at least four ligands to adjust nucleophile Y .The ligand-ligand repulsions also increase the energy of Pentagonal bipyramidal intermediate intermediate because the decrease in L—M—L bond angles brings the electron pairs of metal—ligand bonds nearer to one another this intermediate.

The second of intermediate is formed if the nucleophile Y attacks through the middle of the triangular faces of the octahedron. As soon as Y starts approaching M, the outgoing ligand X starts moving towards the middle of another triangular face so that the 'octahedral wedge' intermediate formed Both L and Y ligands in equivalent positions. The formation of an octahedral Wedge (OW) intermediate. The formation of an octahedral Wedge intermediate requires minimum movement of ligands and the ligand-ligand repulsions are less than such repulsions in PBP intermediate, in PBP Ligand ligand repulsion is more than OW intermediate. In the OW intermediate M—L and M—Y distances are a little longer than the M—L distances in this PBP intermediate. The octahedral Wedge intermediate requires less energy for Its formation than the PBP intermediate [11]. The S_N2 reaction proceeds through an OW intermediate rather than a PBP intermediate.

S_N1CB: Substitution Nucleophilic Unimolecular Conjugate Base Mechanism:

In this SN^1CB mechanism, one of the ligands in the complex is converted into its conjugate base by the action of a base (normally OH^-). This first step is fast then in the second step, which is rate-determining step; the conjugate base dissociates releasing the ligand to be replaced. Subsequently, the new ligand is added to the remaining part of the complex species, leading to the product. This mechanism is called unimolecular because in the slow step only one molecule (ion as shown in the mechanism) is involved. But the kinetics is second-order because the concentration of the complex and the concentration of the base (OH-) are involved upto the slow step [12].

The rate of this reaction is denoted as

Rate = k_2 [MLn] [OH^-]

In S_N1CB mechanism, the reacting complex should have at least one protonic hydrogen atom on a non-leaving ligand.

Example:

$$[CO(NH_3)_5Cl]^{2+} + \longrightarrow [CO(NH_3)_4\ NH_2\ Cl]^+\ H2O$$

$$[CO(NH_3)_4\ NH_2\ Cl]^+ \longrightarrow [CO(NH_3)_4\ NH_2]^{2+} + Cl^- \quad \textbf{slow step}$$

$$[CO(NH_3)_4\ NH_2]^{2+} + H^+HO^- \longrightarrow [CO(NH_3)_5\ OH]^{2+} \quad \textbf{fast step}$$

Rate = k_2 $[CO(NH_3)_4\ NH_2\ Cl]^+$ $[OH^-]$

Conclusion:

The purpose of this chapter is to provide the foundation for understanding the mechanism of inorganic reactions in solution. The coverage is limited to several key mechanistic elements of transition metal coordination (Werner type) compounds. The gathering of experimental data, recognition of the rate law, and mechanistic classification are all covered in the first section. Following is a review of ligand substitution reactions on metal centers with four and six coordinates.

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MULTIDISCIPLINARY RESEARCH, VOLUME-4

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RED'SHINE PUBLICATION PVT. LTD.
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Lunawada, India-389 230
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ISBN: 978-93-93239-31-0
ISBN-10: 9-39-323931-2
DIP: 18.10.9393239312
DOI: 10.25215/9393239312
Price: ₹ 800
December, 2021 (First Edition)

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22 POLLUTION IN OUR COMMUNITY: MEASUREMENTS AND PHYSICAL INSIGHTS

N. B. Bhagat

Abstract

Air pollution is one of the greatest scourges of our day, not only because of its impact on climate change but also because of its impact on public and individual health due to increased sickness and death. Many contaminants are significant contributors to human disease. Particulate Matter (PM), a type of particle with a variable but extremely small diameter that enters the respiratory system by inhalation and causes respiratory and cardiovascular disorders, as well as reproductive and central nervous system dysfunctions and cancer, is one of them. In our world, pollution is one of the main causes of many more diseases and ecosystem destruction. We know the presence of hazardous compounds in the air, on land, and in water that can harm living things and the environment. The environment becomes contaminated or dirty due to human activity or natural disasters it leads to pollution. There are mainly five types of pollution air pollution, water pollution, sound or noise pollution, soil or land pollution, and radioactive pollution.

Keywords: - *Industrial advancement, land and soil degradation, global warming, climate change, air, and water pollution.*

Introduction

The components of pollution are pollutants. Pollutants are the products with affect the normal functioning of pollutants ecosystem and affect animals as well as plants. When pollutants are released in great quantity the environment becomes toxic and unhealthy.

Anthropogenic air pollution is one of the world's most serious public health threats, causing around 9 million fatalities each year [1]. We know that Carbon dioxide in the air is useful for photosynthesis in plants but when it exceeds a certain limit of concentration it becomes a pollutant, listening to music at moderate volume gives pleasure but loud music sometimes increases heartbeat, headache, etc. Thus, a substance need not be harmful by itself but may become a pollutant in certain concentrations or quantities in certain circumstances. Food safety challenges, ice and iceberg melting, animal extinction, and plant damage are all severe consequences of climate change and the effects of global planetary warming on diverse ecosystems [2, 3]. The biggest problem in our community is that of air pollution. What are the possible causes of Air pollution and what effect does this have on animal life and human society? Almost all areas throughout the world show a high level of air pollution due to emissions from industries, an increase in the number of motor vehicles, and the burning of open garbage. In rural areas burning of firewood, cow dung cake, agricultural residue, etc. causes air pollution. Air pollution is which contamination of air by toxic gases and minute particles of solid and liquid particulates in concentration which is harmful to human beings and their surroundings. The WHO and EPA created air quality standards and guidelines for various pollutants as a tool for air quality management [1, 4]. Air pollutants are classified as Natural sources which include volcanic eruption, sand and dust storm, forest fires, etc. and second is Man-made sources which include human activities such as industries, factories, aircraft, nuclear experiments, automobiles, agriculture, and power plants. There are primary pollutants and secondary pollutants which primary pollutants are pollutants that are emitted directly from sources and found in the atmosphere in the form which they were emitted. There is DDT, plastic, CO_2, CO as the primary pollutants. Then the secondary pollutants are the pollutants that are formed in the atmosphere by the chemical reaction between primary pollutants and atom-spherical constituents. There are SO_3, O_3, Hydrogen Cyanide, Ketones, etc. are the secondary pollutants.

Air Pollution:

Impact on World due to Air Pollution: -

a) Air contamination is one of the world's driving danger factors for death and medical problems, credited to 5 million deaths every year.
b) Air contamination is credited to 9% of deaths all-inclusive.
c) It is additionally one of the higher hazard factors for malady trouble.
d) Death rates from air contamination are most elevated in low-to-working class salary nations, with more than a 100-crease contrast in rates over the world.
e) Globally, demise rates from air contamination have been falling. This has primarily been the aftereffect of progress on handling indoor contamination quite well. The main causes of air pollution are

Causes of Air Pollution: -

a) Transportation
b) Agriculture Activities
c) Industrial Process & Burning of Solid Waste

In vehicles are a major part of air pollution, more than 50% of total air pollution is used by vehicles. Automobile exhaust emits particulate matter, unburned hydrocarbons, carbon dioxide, nitrogen oxide, etc. In every case, it appears that fine, inhalable, and sulfate particle levels were more closely linked to mortality than total particulate pollution, aerosol acidity, sulfur dioxide, or nitrogen dioxide levels [5]. Also burning of fossil fuels such as petrol, diesel, natural gas leads to the emission of CO_2 & other gases.Open-field burning is the

main contributor to pollution due to agriculture. There are pesticides; many toxic chemicals are used in agriculture. Also, there is burning of coals, forest fires & solid waste, industries such as paper mills, cotton mills, chemicals, thermal power plants because most air pollution. The smoke running out through the

factories has small dust particles, carbon, metal & other radioactive materials from various sources they get mixed in smoke & pollute the air. The air pollution during the spring & summer, late morning to evening summer air is filled with ozone & during winter, the night air often has high pm 2.5 levels. So, the only consistent high-quality air wasfrom 4 am to 7 am.

Particulate matter (PM) is created in the atmosphere mostly as a result of chemical interactions between contaminants. The size of particles has a big impact on their penetration [6]. The United States Environmental Protection Agency defines Particulate Matter (PM) as a word for particles [7]. Long-term chronic consequences include respiratory ailments and immune system afflictions [8]. It's worth noting that those with asthma, pneumonia, diabetes and respiratory and cardiovascular disorders are particularly susceptible to PM's effects. Because their size allows them to pierce interior spaces, PM2.5 and PM10 are significantly linked to a variety of respiratory illnesses [9, 10].

Name of PM Sizes	**PM_{10}**	**$PM_{2.5}$**	**PM_1**	**UFP**
Size(Aerodynamics)	All particles with a diameter of fewer than 10 micrometers in terms of aerodynamics.	All particles with a diameter of fewer than 2.5 micrometers in terms of aerodynamics	All particles with a diameter of less than 1 micrometer in terms of aerodynamics	Ultra-fine PM particles with a diameter of fewer than 100 nanometers in terms of aerodynamics
Trend	The most often measured size fraction.	Size fraction has been related to a variety of health consequences	New research has been related to the effects on one's health.	Innovative research on the effects of climate change on human health

Table 1: Different PM Sizes

$PM_{2.5}$ particles, as previously established, cause more harmful health impacts due to their small size. The creation of "haze" in various metropolitan regions is mostly caused by the

aforementioned small particles [11, 12, 13]. During the day, the sun rises & heats the atmosphere due to convection, we see that air expands. As the air expands, it slowly rises & takes away the polluted air & improves the air quality. It's also another reason why visibility greatly improved as the day progresses. The smallest particle present in the air known as particulate matter. They are suspended in the air in the form of dust released from industrial chimneys. Its diameter range is from 0.001 to 500 Micrometer (µm) Central Pollution Control Board (CPCB) said that if the size of particulate matter is less than 2.5µm then it is very harmful to human health because these dust particles are inhaled by our lungs directly due to tiny in size then there are breathing problems occurs also the lungs diseases (pneumoconiosis) and other respiratory diseases.

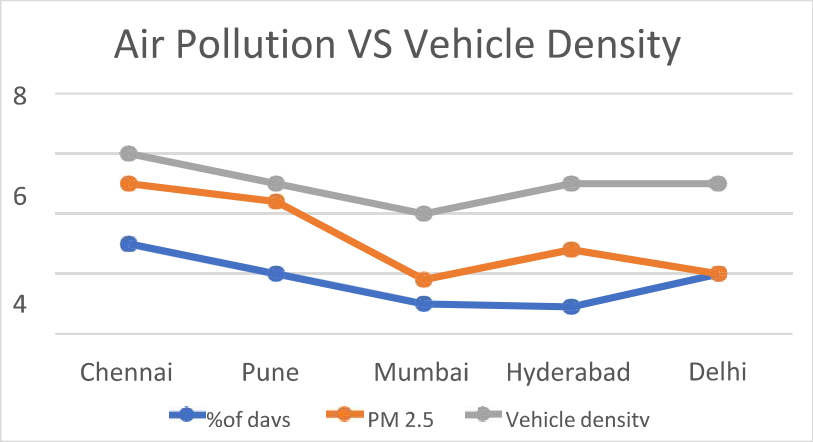

Fig. 3: Air Pollution vs Vehicle Density

This is a comparison between the percentage of days of a violation of air quality exceeding the standard, PM 2.5 & vehicle density in metropolitan cities. The fine particles are particulate matter which is 2.5 in diameter. It is produced from all types of combustion, including motor vehicles, residential wood burning. Vehicle density is the number of vehicles per mile.

Name of Cities	Vehicle density	PM 2.5	Percentage of daysviolent of air quality standards
Chennai	2093	20	81
Pune	1260	89	57
Mumbai	1229	77	33
Delhi	1723	198	45
Hyderabad	1014	81	955

Table 1: Air Quality Standards

From this chart, we found that vehicle density is high to air pollution & still other factors like industrial, power plants might play a vital role in air pollution of metropolitan cities.

Impact on Ozone Layer

Ozone (O3) is a gas that is created when oxygen is exposed to a high-voltage electric discharge [14]. It's a powerful oxidant, 52 percent more powerful than chlorine. It forms in the stratosphere, but it could potentially form in the troposphere as a result of photochemical smog chain reactions [15]. The stratosphere is the second atmospheric layer; it contains much of the ozone gas known as the ozone layer. The density of ozone is 22km. These ozone layers absorb harmful ultraviolet rays coming from the sun and protect the life present on the earth. So ozone layer is also called an umbrella of the earth but the scientific evidence reveals that stratospheric ozone is being destroyed mainly by chlorine atoms of chlorofluorocarbon (CFC) molecules, We know that CFC's were used as coolants in refrigerators, freezers, also in industrial solvents, dry cleaning agents, hospital sterility, aerosols and foam during use of all these materials a lot of CFC's get dispersed into the atmosphere. Once these CFC molecules are broken apart by UV light, it releases chlorine & bromine which further demolish ozone. This ozone layer gets thinner, a hole has been observed in the ozone layer this hole allows the UV rays of the sun to reach the earth directly. These UV rays cause skin cancer, & many other diseases

in human beings. So, by this air pollution, there is depletion of the ozone layer has occurred, this ozone depletion can affect animals as well as plants, so this is one of the biggest effects of air pollution on our atmosphere as well as us. The ozone levels are typically highest during the afternoon hours of the summer months, when the influence of direct sunlight is greatest, so the early morning air can clean up our lungs to a very good level "Sleepy early in the night, hit the bed on time''. Some air pollutants cause more global warming. Air pollution includes greenhouse gases. The problem we now face is that humans activities-particularly those burning fossil fuels (coal, oil, and natural gas), agriculture, and land clearing- are increasing the concentrations of greenhouse gases. Greenhouse gases include water vapor, CO2, CH4, nitrous oxide, ozone & some artificial chemicals such as CFCs. This is the enhanced greenhouse effect, which is contributing to the warming of the Earth. Solar radiation reaches the Earth's atmosphere-some of this is reflected into space. The rest of the sun's energy is absorbed by the land, oceans heating the Earth. Some of this heat is trapped by greenhouse gases in the atmosphere, keeping the Earth warm enough to sustain life. This is trapping extra heat, and causing the Earth's temperature to rise, so this is the Greenhouse effect. From this Greenhouse effect, the Water level balance of the Earth would be destroyed, marine life and ecosystem would be destroyed. Inhaled ozone can permeate deeply into the lungs due to its low water solubility [16]. Ozone's toxic effects can be seen in cities all over the world, causing biochemical, morphologic, functional, and immunological problems [17]. The European project (APHEA2) investigates the acute effects of elevated ambient ozone levels on mortality [18].

Sound Pollution

Noise pollution is generally referring to a type of energy pollution in which distracting, irritating, or damaging sounds are freely audible. It is measured in dB units. In this type of pollution contaminants are not physical particles, but waves that interfere

with the naturally occurring waves of a similar type in the same environment. Commotion is a disparaged danger that can cause various short-and long- haul medical issues, such as rest unsettling influence, cardiovascular impacts, less fortunate work, and school execution, hearing disability, and so forth. The commotion has raised as a main natural disturbance in the WHO European Region, and the open gripes about exorbitant clamor increasingly more frequently. The WHO rules for network commotion suggest fewer than 30 A-weighted decibels (dB (A)) in rooms during the night for rest of good quality and under 35 dB (A) in study halls to permit great instructing and learning conditions. The WHO rules for night clamor suggest under 40 dB (A) of yearly normal (Night) outside of rooms to forestall antagonistic wellbeing impacts from night commotion.

How many people are affected?

As indicated by a European Union (EU) distribution:

a) about 40% of the populace in EU nations is presented to street traffic clamor at levelssurpassing 55 dB(A);
b) 20% is presented to levels surpassing 65 dB(A) during the daytime; and
c) Over 30% is presented to levels surpassing 55 dB (A) around evening time.

Just constrained universal figures are accessible on the wellbeing effect of ecological commotion in the European Region. WHO/Europe distributed starter gauges in 2011.

A few gatherings are more powerless against commotion. As kids invest more energy in bed than grown-ups, they are more presented tonight commotion. Incessantly sick and old individuals are more delicate to aggravation. Move laborers are at expanded hazard because their rest structure is under pressure. Also, the less well-to-do who can't bear to live in calm neighborhoods or have sufficiently protected homes, are probably going to endure lopsidedly. Irritation around evening time can prompt an expansion

in clinical visits and spending on resting pills, which influences families' financial plans and nations' wellbeing use. The hole between rich and poor is probably going to increment if governments neglect to address commotion contamination.

Children, noise and health: -

Hindrance of youth advancement and training brought about by commotion may affect scholarly accomplishment and wellbeing. Studies and insights on the impacts of constant introduction to airplanecommotion on youngsters have found:

a) Steady proof that commotion presentation hurts intellectual execution;
b) A steady relationship with weakened prosperity and inspiration to a marginally more constraineddegree;
c) Moderate proof of consequences for circulatory strain and catecholamine hormone emission.

There are different sources of noise pollution:

a) Transportation
b) Social Events
c) Commercial & Industrial Activities
d) Household Sources

In transportation, there are various vehicles like auto, cars horns, scooters & aircraft, helicopters produce lots of noise. Then in social events like market area, parties, loudspeakers & place of workshop produces noise pollution, then in commercial & industrial activities includes construction sites such as air compressors, loaders, dump trucks, etc. & in household there is TV noise, cooler, dryer, music systems at home produces noise pollution. Effects of Noise pollution are Respiratory agitation, high blood pressure, headaches, it can increase stress levels and anxiety, and even lead to coronary artery disease. The Hierarchy of Controls concept is often used to reduce noise in the environment or the workplace, engineering noise controls can be used to reduce noise propagation

& protect individuals from overexposure. If people must be around loud sounds, they can protect their ears with hearing protection (e.g., earplugs or earmuffs). Noise from roadways and other urban factors can be mitigated by urban planning and better designs of roads. Roadway noise can be reduced by the use of noise barriers, limitation of vehicles speeds, and alteration of roadway surface texture, use of traffic controls that smooth vehicles flow to reduce braking and acceleration, & tire design. An important factor in applying these strategies is a computer model for roadway noise that is capable of addressing local topography, meteorology, traffic operations. Also, Aircraft noise can be reduced by using quieter jet engines & altering flight paths & time of day runway has been benefited residents near airports.

To control Noise pollution our government has rules and regulations against firecrackers and loudspeakers & also Supreme Court has banned the playing of music on loudspeakers after 10 pm. Also, there are apps like Noise level from a leaf blower, using (NIOSH) sound level meter app. NIOSH is the National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health, part of the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC). NIOSH estimates that 22 million workers in the United States are exposed to hazardous noise levels each year. The Second Level Meter (SLM) app can help you prevent permanent hearing loss caused by a noise-a problem that can occur immediately or over time. This NIOSH SLM app makes workers informed about their noise environment. It is therefore, we can reduce noise pollution.

Conclusion:

Pollution is increasing day by day whether it is air pollution, water pollution, noise pollution, or soil pollution. To reduce this pollution there are many rules and regulations & Acts are passed by the government so we have to follow all this & also in rural areas. Its effect is threatening not only the environment but also our and animal's life. For the sake of the world's health, it is hoped that anti-environment behavior is cut out sooner rather than

later. Despite the challenge of eliminating anthropogenic environmental contamination, a viable solution might be envisioned as a close partnership between authorities, bodies, and doctors to bring the issue under control. Governments should disseminate appropriate information, educate citizens, and involve professionals in these concerns to successfully control the rise of the problem.

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CONTEMPORARY ISSUES
IN MULTIDISCIPLINARY SUBJECTS

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CONTEMPORARY ISSUES IN MULTIDISCIPLINARY SUBJECTS, VOLUME – 3

Edited by: Sruthi S, Dr. R.D.Padmavathy, Dr. Prashant Vijaysing Patil, Dr. R. Lavanya Kumari, Rupali Nawale, Dr. G. G. Patil, J. Sutha

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RED'SHINE PUBLICATION PVT. LTD.

Headquarters (India): 88-90 REDMAC, Navamuvada,

Lunawada, India-389 230

Contact: +91 76988 26988

Registration no. GJ31D0000034

In Association with,

RED'MAC INTERNATIONAL PRESS & MEDIA. INC

India | Sweden | UK

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ISBN: 978-93-93239-58-7

ISBN-10: 93-93239-58-4

DIP: 18.10.9393239584

DOI: 10.25215/9393239584

Price: ₹ 1000

March, 2022 (First Edition)

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Website: www.redshine.co.in | **Email:** info@redshine.in

Printed in India | Title ID: 9393239584

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CHAPTER - 21

STUDY OF DIFFERENT TYPES OF REACTION IN COORDINATION COMPOUNDS

Mr. C. U. Dhanwad[86], Mr. N. B. Bhagat[87]

Abstract:
A substitution reaction occurs when the functional group of one chemical substance is replaced by another group, or when one atom or molecule of a compound is replaced by another atom or molecule. Nucleophilic substitution is a type of organic (and inorganic) chemical process in which a nucleophile selectively interacts with or attacks the positive or partially positive charge on an atom or group of atoms attacks the substrate (R-LG), forming a new covalent bond. Nuc-R-LG. In many ways, the nucleophilic substitution process of organic molecules on the graphene surface is the best technique to produce bulk synthesis of graphene with surface modifications.

Keywords: *Substitution Reaction, Inorganic Chemistry, Nucleophilic Substitution Reaction.*

Introduction:

In their substitution processes, octahedral complexes, particularly those containing transition metal ions, appear to favor dissociation (SN1) mechanisms. There is no well-supported case of a displacement (SN2) mechanism in an octahedral system at this time. In the literature, there are a few probable examples[1]. All of these suffer from the fact that they are fairly complicated systems with multiple viable answers. Furthermore, in many cases, universality has not been proven. A range of nucleophilic reagents (ligands) should be discovered to be effective in a well-behaved system, and their respective second order rate constants should bear some unambiguous link to established nucleophilic characteristics [2].

Transition metal ions and complexes are important in at least three fields of study: bioinorganic chemistry and molecular biology, in which metal complex metalloproteins are investigated; industrial chemistry, in which metal complexes are used as homogeneous catalysts for the optimization of critical commercial processes such as polymerization, hydroformylation, hydrogenation, olefin oxidation, and so on; environmental and medicinal chemistry [3]. Designing new inorganic 2 materials, manufacturing industrial homogeneous catalysts, and learning about the role of metalloenzymes in

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biological processes and metals in medicine all require an understanding of the mechanisms of reactions at transition metal sites. Now that mechanistic tools developed for kinetic and extrakinetic data analysis have proven their worth in the classification of a wide range of reaction types in coordination, organometallic, and bioinorganic chemistry, the old adage that "every little reaction has its own mechanism" appears to be incorrect [4]. The mechanistic image is continually on trial, and it can or cannot withstand future discoveries from the use of more sophisticated experimental and theoretical methodologies [5]. In this chapter, some fundamental reactions in transition metal chemistry are described, which have established the reactivity pattern on which present investigations are based. Organic chemists discovered relatively few basic principles in the first half of the twentieth century that served to justify a sequence of seemingly disparate data within a cohesive mechanistic picture [6].

Their work was aided by the fact that they were working with a single reaction center (carbon) with a single stable oxidation state thorough understanding of the structural properties of a large number of reagents and products mechanistic information gained from product distribution analysis and the ability to use traditional sampling methods on relatively slow processes.

Types of reactions in coordination compounds:

Metal substitution or electrophilic reaction

Ligand or nucleophilic substitution reaction

The electrophilic or metal substitution reaction (SE) is a reaction in which two metals are substituted for one another. Electrophilic substitution reactions, also known as metal exchange reactions, involve the replacement of one electrophile (a metal present in a coordination complex) with another metal [7].

$$\mathbf{[MLn] + M' \longrightarrow [M'Ln] + M}$$

Slow

$$[Cr(H_2O)_6]^{+3} + CO \longrightarrow [CO(H_2O)_6]^{+3} + Cr$$

Nucleophilic or Ligand substitution reaction

There are three types of nucleophilic substitution reactions

SN^1 nucleophilic substitution reactions

SN^2 nucleophilic substitution reactions

SN^1CB nucleophilic substitution reactions

Nucleophilic substitution reactions are defined as reactions in which a nucleophile (a ligand present in a coordination complex) is replaced by another ligand [8].

$$\mathbf{[MLn] + L' \longrightarrow [ML(n\text{-}1)\,L'] + L}$$

$$[Cr(H_2O)_6]^{+3} \longrightarrow [Cr(H_2O)_5CN]^{+2} + H_2O$$

Brief Idea about Nucleophilic Substitution Reactions:

The general nucleophilic or ligand substitution reaction in octahedral complexes (C. N. = 6) is shown below

$$\mathbf{[ML5Y] + Z \longrightarrow [ML5\,Z] + Y}$$

Here, M is central metal ion; Y is leaving ligand; Z is entering ligand, and L is other ligand in the coordination sphere.
Z may be solvent molecule, anion or same as Y.
When Z is solvent molecule the above reaction is called racemization reaction
When Z is anion, the above reaction is called exchange reaction.
When Z and Y are same, the above reaction is called exchange reaction.

Dissociative SN^1 Mechanism or Unimolecular Nucleophilic Substitution (SN^1):

According to this mechanism, the complex first undergoes dissociation losing the ligand to be replaced and changes into a 5. Coordinated, viz., square pyramidal intermediate complex, which then readily adds the new ligand Y; this may be illustrated as follows:

MLn ⟶ MLn-1 +L : slow dissociation

MLn-1 + Y ⟶ MLn-1 Y : Fast

The first step in which a ligand is lost is slow and formed activated complex (In the slow step i.e. MLn-1) and the second step in which the intermediate complex (Activated complex) formed reacts with the new incoming ligand Y is fast and form MLn-1Y six coordination complex. In the formation of activated complex (Intermediate complex in an SN1 reaction, the coordination number of the central metal is decreased by one i.e. n to n-1.In above two reaction the activation energy of first step is more and activation energy of second step is less. From our knowledge of chemical kinetics we know that the rate of a multi-step reaction depends only on the slowest step and that step is known as rate determine step [9]. This means that the rate of the above reaction depends only on the concentration of one species i.e. MLn not depend upon Y, viz., the complex MLn. The reaction is first order with respect to MLn and it is zero with respect to the rate law for such a reaction may thus be represented as fallows,

Rate = k_1[MLn]
Where k1is the first order rate constant.

Since the rate of the reaction depends only upon the concentration of one species i.e. (MLn), the mechanism is referred to as unimolecular nucleophilic substitution reaction, i.e., S_N1 mechanism. Since in this mechanism the complex first gets dissociated, it is also termed as dissociative S_N1 mechanism.
Example:

$$[Cr(H_2O)_6]^{+3} \xrightarrow{\text{Slow}} [Cr(H_2O)_5]^{+3} + H_2O$$

Five Co-ordination intermediate

$$\downarrow +CN^- \text{ Fast}$$

$$[Cr(H_2O)_5CN]^{+2}$$

The rate law of this reaction is

Rate = K_1 $[Cr (H_2O)_6]^{+3}$

The rate of the foregoing reaction is directly proportional to the concentration of [Cr (H2O)6]+3, and it is independent of the concentration of CN-.

Slow

$$[CO (H_2O)_6]^{3+} \longrightarrow [CO (H_2O)_5]^{+3} + H_2O$$

Five Co-ordination intermediate

$$\downarrow +CN^- \text{ Fast}$$

$$[CO (H_2O)_5CN]^{+2}$$

Six Co-ordination intermediate

S_N2: Substitution, Nucleophilic or Bimolecular Mechanism (Associative Mechanism)

MLn + Y ⟶ MLnY : slow dissociation

MLnY ⟶ MLn-1 Y + L : Fast

In this mechanism, the metal complex forms a hepta-coordinated intermediate complex by first creating a bond with the entering group. As a result, the coordination number of the metal complex increases from six to seven, forming a hepta-coordinated intermediate complex (Seven coordination activated complex). The activated complex then dissociates in the second stage, restoring the coordination number of the complex to six, resulting in octahedral geometry and the addition of new ligand Y as a permanent part of the molecule. The rate of the overall reaction is affected by both [MLn] and [Y] concentrations [10]. The reaction is first order in terms of [MLn] and first order in terms of [Y], but it is a second order reaction overall. Second-order reactions, which are also known as bimolecular nucleophilic substitution or SN2 reactions, are dependent on the concentration of the reactant complex as well as the concentration of the entering ligand.

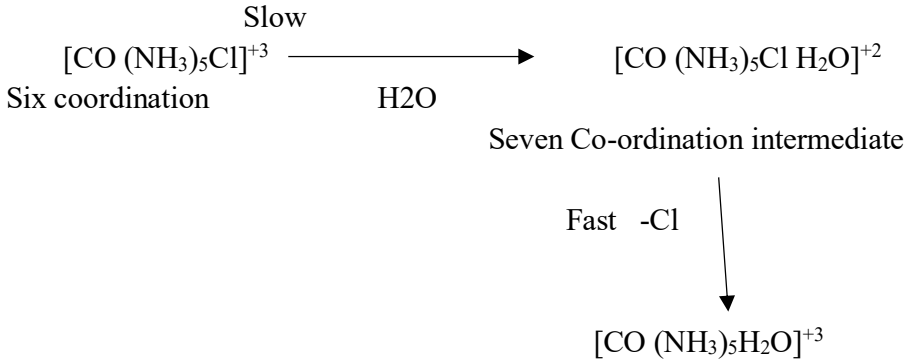
The general rate of law for S_N2 reaction is

$$\text{Rate} = k_2[MLn] [Y]$$

Where k_2 is second order rate constant.

.

Example:



The rate law of this reaction is

Rate = K_2 $[CO (NH_3)_5Cl]^{+2}$ $[H_2O]$

According to above reaction the rate of above reaction is directly proportional to both the concentration of $[CO (NH_3)_5Cl]^{+2}$ and concentration $[H_2O]$.

Types of Intermediate formed during SN1 reaction

Consider an octahedral complex ML5X being attack by a nucleophile Y. If reaction proceeds through SN1 dissociative mechanism, two type of intermediate is formed

Square pyramidal intermediate

Trigonal bipyramidal intermediate

In first step (Slow step),the bond M-X dissociate causing least disturbance to remaining ML5 intermediate which has a square pyramidal .The intermediate ML5 fast attack of incoming ligand Y and produce six coordination compound ML5Y as shown below.

In second type, the bond M-X dissociate and remaining ML5 species immediately adjusts the bond angle to produce a trigonal pyramidal (TBP) intermediate which is fast attacked by incoming ligand Y to produce ML5Y as shown below.

In SN1 nucleophilic substitution reaction square pyramidal intermediate is more stable than Trigonal bipyramidal intermediate (TBP).Because the formation of trigonal bipyramidal intermediate (TBP) involves the moment of at least two metal and ligand bond where as there is no such movement is required during the formation of square pyramidal intermediate. The S_N1 reaction proceeds through the more stable square pyramidal intermediate.

Trigonal bipyramidal (TBP) is so much stabilized by pi bonding that it becomes more stable than square pyramidal intermediate. In that case S_N1 reactions proceed through a trigonal bipyramidal intermediate.

Types of Intermediate formed during S_N2 reaction

If the reaction precedes through an association S_N2 mechanism, there are two types of intermediate.

Pentagonal bipyramidal intermediate (PBP)

Octahedral wedge (OW)

The formation of a Pentagonal bipyramidal intermediate (PBP), [MLnY] requires the movement of at least four ligands to adjust nucleophile Y .The ligand-ligand repulsions also increase the energy of Pentagonal bipyramidal intermediate intermediate because the decrease in L—M—L bond angles brings the electron pairs of metal—ligand bonds nearer to one another this intermediate.

The second of intermediate is formed if the nucleophile Y attacks through the middle of the triangular faces of the octahedron. As soon as Y starts approaching M, the outgoing ligand X starts moving towards the middle of another triangular face so that the 'octahedral wedge' intermediate formed Both L and Y ligands in equivalent positions. The formation of an octahedral Wedge (OW) intermediate. The formation of an octahedral Wedge intermediate requires minimum movement of ligands and the ligand-ligand repulsions are less than such repulsions in PBP intermediate, in PBP Ligand ligand repulsion is more than OW intermediate. In the OW intermediate M—L and M—Y distances are a little longer than the M—L distances in this PBP intermediate. The octahedral Wedge intermediate requires less energy for Its formation than the PBP intermediate [11]. The S_N2 reaction proceeds through an OW intermediate rather than a PBP intermediate.

S_N1CB: Substitution Nucleophilic Unimolecular Conjugate Base Mechanism:

In this SN^1CB mechanism, one of the ligands in the complex is converted into its conjugate base by the action of a base (normally OH^-). This first step is fast then in the second step, which is rate-determining step; the conjugate base dissociates releasing the ligand to be replaced. Subsequently, the new ligand is added to the remaining part of the complex species, leading to the product. This mechanism is called unimolecular because in the slow step only one molecule (ion as shown in the mechanism) is involved. But the kinetics is second-order because the concentration of the complex and the concentration of the base (OH-) are involved upto the slow step [12].

The rate of this reaction is denoted as

Rate = k_2 [MLn] [OH^-]

In S_N1CB mechanism, the reacting complex should have at least one protonic hydrogen atom on a non-leaving ligand.

Example:

$$[CO(NH_3)_5Cl]^{2+} + \longrightarrow [CO(NH_3)_4\ NH_2\ Cl]^+\ H2O$$

$$[CO(NH_3)_4\ NH_2\ Cl]^+ \longrightarrow [CO(NH_3)_4\ NH_2]^{2+} + Cl^- \quad \textbf{slow step}$$

$$[CO(NH_3)_4\ NH_2]^{2+} + H^+HO^- \longrightarrow [CO(NH_3)_5\ OH]^{2+} \quad \textbf{fast step}$$

Rate = k_2 $[CO(NH_3)_4\ NH_2\ Cl]^+$ $[OH^-]$

Conclusion:

The purpose of this chapter is to provide the foundation for understanding the mechanism of inorganic reactions in solution. The coverage is limited to several key mechanistic elements of transition metal coordination (Werner type) compounds. The gathering of experimental data, recognition of the rate law, and mechanistic classification are all covered in the first section. Following is a review of ligand substitution reactions on metal centers with four and six coordinates.

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Current Trends In Physical Education and Sports

Edited By
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Current Trends In Physical Education and Sports

Edited By
Dr. Sagar P. Narkhede

Published by the **DnyanPath Publication (INDIA)**
A Leading **National Books Publishing** House In India
The First edition published in 1st April 2022

ISBN 13 : 978-93-91331-33-7

ISO 9001 : 2015 ®

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Printed at Shri Gurudeo Printers, Amravati.
Mahatma Fule Sankul, Shegaon Naka,
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Price : ₹ 600/-

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Enrichment In Sports Entrepreneurship Throughout The World

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Abstract :

The goal of this paper is to shape the present and rising discipline of 'game entrepreneurship' in addition to to increase hints for destiny studies. This paper examines the position of the sports activities entrepreneur and entrepreneurial technique in new task advent projects. This paper contributes to a popular know-how of entrepreneurship with inside the sports activities context and indicates how in addition theoretical and empirical paintings on entrepreneurship wishes to be carried out with inside the sports activities context. The main managerial and sensible implications of sports activities entrepreneurship on this paper are to increase extra entrepreneurial wondering in sports activities-associated ventures. This paper is the primary to consciousness at the destiny capacity of sports activities entrepreneurship in developing entrepreneurial ventures, thereby imparting a sturdy theoretical basis for destiny studies paintings.

Introduction :

The motive of this paper is to test a number of the problems of sports activities entrepreneurship studies with the goal of figuring out capacity destiny studies directions.

Sports businesses may be socially oriented while their fundamental motive is pushed through network or social goals. Sports entrepreneurship can arise inside or throughout the commercial enterprise, not-for-earnings and authorities quarter. The monetary and social effect of recreation businesses varies through geographic position. More wealthier and evolved international locations which includes america have extra sports activities businesses than international locations in growing areas. In addition, local and concrete network improvement has enabled extra neighborhood sports activities businesses to flourish or to be included inside a much broader carrying body. Sports businesses inside an enterprise are worried with monetary and social activity. Many sports activities businesses are required to be each economically and socially modern as they comply with a positive goal. People who installation a sports activities corporation anticipate economic hazard that incorporates the intention of producing enough resources. Often sports activities businesses utilise each paid and voluntary employees with the intention to steady resources. Sports businesses face the venture of searching for commercial enterprise answers to recreation associated problems. In many cases, recreation businesses are required to be sustainable through specializing in their triple backside line (social, environmental, economic). Sports businesses want to inspire innovation as a reaction to demanding situations they face. Innovation consists of outlook, behaviours, method and operations (Chell et al., 2010). It is critical to expand a valid theoretical platform to recognize the numerous varieties of sports activities entrepreneurship.

Increasingly, there may be reputation with inside the sports activities enterprise approximately the significance of entrepreneurship. This paper identifies the query of what wishes to be investigated on this new place of entrepreneurship paintings. The sports activities enterprise is big and one of the maximum seen global. The goal of this paper is to offer an outline of the modern studies problems for each entrepreneurship and sports activities control lecturers through imparting a checking out floor to

discover destiny ideas. The sports activities enterprise employs a big range of humans immediately and circuitously global and is one of the maximum globalised industries withinside the global. Given the value of the sports activities enterprise to the worldwide economy, it needs persevered interest from each entrepreneurship and game control researchers. Based at the significance of the sports activities region it's far important that sports activities entrepreneurship researchers maintain their investigations inside it.

Development of Sports Entrepreneurship

The entrepreneurship may be some thing from a brand new sports activities product used at the gambling discipline to a brand new task sports activities gaming task start-up. Sports entrepreneurship introduces a variety of latest issues associated now no longer best to technology (consisting of production equipment and player-spectator interaction) however additionally social, moral and felony attention which include diversity, privateness and social cohesion. Sports entrepreneurship may be described in numerous ways. A huge definition of sports activities entrepreneurship refers to any revolutionary hobby that has a sports activities objective. As sports activities entrepreneurship is a newly rising discipline an crucial trouble is that of defining what precisely the time period means. Innovation is on the coronary heart of the sports activities entrepreneurial technique because it specializes in the advent of latest ventures or keeping an organisation. Sport entrepreneurship entails the processes, practices and selection making sports that result in the improvement of products, offerings or markets. Sports entrepreneurship on this paper is conceptualised because the set of values that have an effect on an organizations or people propensity to create and increase revolutionary sports. This paper demonstrates the significance of a multidisciplinary technique closer to game entrepreneurship and the price of enter from associated fields.

Technologies in sports :

Digital improvements are beginning to have a big effect on each game and physical education (see for instance Novak, Antala, & Knjaz, 2016). The omnipresence of clever telephones and pills distinctly have an effect on the enjoy of latest games, however additionally begin to decide the advent in conventional sports activities (think about FIFA, the football video game). Video snap shots also can be used to enhance and compare motion skills. Given the extensive type of opportunities, it may be wondered whether or not PE instructors are appropriately prepared to correctly combine those new technology of their every day practice. Not all experts remorse this hesitation to include virtual era. There are nevertheless many crucial voices with admire to the benefit with the aid of using which the virtual revolution takes place. Part of the complaint is primarily based totally upon the declare that virtual era is in itself the principle component of the societal hassle of sedentary behaviour and obesity. When we're gaming, we aren't gambling football. Regardless growing human inactivity, usually speaking, we fee the lively variation of amusement extra than the sedentary one. Nevertheless, there's an abundance of proof that virtual era could have a poor effect on motion behaviour and game participation. Digital era might also make contributions to the "international fashion closer to measurability, accountability, performativity and standardization" (Gard 2014, p. 833). Although those views are essential and honestly treasured, this isn't always the attitude of this bankruptcy. The vast use of virtual era in our lifestyle is neither the easy purpose of sedentary behaviour, nor can or not it's visible as a easy solution. Besides, arguing that era is a part of the hassle, is some thing else than claiming that era may be a treasured device to beautify the best of PE. While acknowledging the significance of the capability poor effect that virtual era might also additionally have on fitness associated behaviour, we do need to attention at the capability and pedagogical implications of virtual improvements in PE. In fact, given the improvements which have already began out international, we assume this is the duty of PE instructors and PETE Faculties to deal with the query how era is reshaping the context and content material of tutorial practices.

Sports businesses regularly have complicated relationships with their board of administrators given their position in selling the crew however on the identical time thinking about social and economic objectives. The company governance of recreation businesses might also additionally provide a few perception into how control undertakes new ventures and the way they utilise their resources. The position of board composition which includes inner and outside administrators are influencing sports activities entrepreneurship is needed in extra detail. Another venture that ought to be addressed close to recreation entrepreneurship issues the quantity of entrepreneurship inside an company and the want to successfully manipulate entrepreneurial practices. Issues which includes how and through whom entrepreneurship is fostered ought to be protected to clear up sensible implications for managers of sports activities businesses. A blended technique which includes the adoption of sports activities entrepreneurship and the applicable regulatory framework can offer extra relevance at one of a kind tiers of studies inquiry.

Conclusion :

Sports entrepreneurship has intrinsic traits which includes a dynamic and interactive surroundings with sensible implications. The demanding situations offered on this paper span each the entrepreneurship and sports activities control disciplines. This paper has supplied a vital evaluation of sports activities entrepreneurship aiming to carry withinside the traits which have critical coverage implications and to perceive foremost demanding situations that ought to be met to house control practices that offer an encouraging surroundings for sports activities entrepreneurship to foster.

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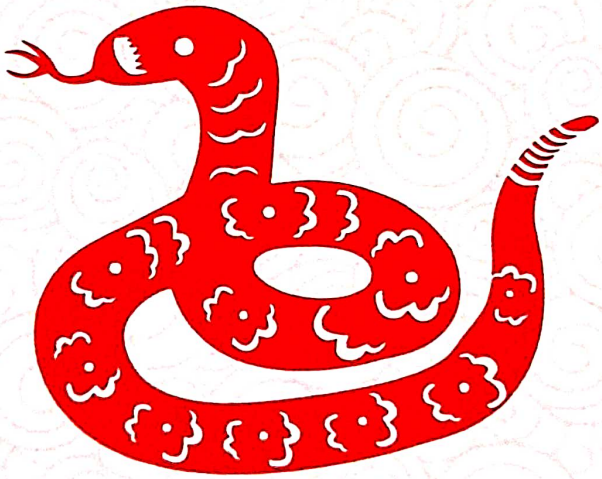

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From Myth to Science for Society and Ecology

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SNEHAL PUBLICATIONS
Parbhani - 431401

ISBN: 978-93-91998-00-4

Title: Snake : From Myth to Science for Society and Ecology

Editors: Dr Balasaheb Jadhav
Dr Rohidas Nitonde
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First Published: November 2021

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Published by
Snehal Publications,
Shivram Nagar, Parbhani- 431401.
Mob. + 91 9730721393, +91 9420079975

Typesetting: Mohan Patil

Cover Designing: Dr. Kalyan Gangarde

Price: Rs. 395/-

Printed at

Snehal Printers and Book Binders,
Shivram Nagar, Parbhani- 431401
Mob. + 91 9730721393

 # published under UGC Scheme Paramasrsh

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MCQ's in Zoology for B.Sc., Third Year, Semester - VI
(Molecular Biology and Biotechnology)

Published by the **DnyanPath Publication (INDIA)**
The edition published in 1 June, 2021

ISBN 13 : 978-93-91331-45-0

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ISO 9001 : 2015

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Printed at Shri Gurudeo Printers, Amravati.
Mahatma Fule Sankul, Shegaon Naka,
V.M.V. Road, Amravati - 444603 (Maharashtra)

Price : ₹ 70/-

As per Sant Gadge Baba Amravati University
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- **Biotechnology :** Genetic Engineering: Recombinant DNA technology and gene cloning-enzymes in recombinant DNA technology, Splicing and cloning of genes, vectors (plasmid and phage vectors), gene Transfer. Somatic cell hybridization, hybridoma technology, and monoclonal antibodies. Practical applications and suspected hazards of biotechnology and genetic engineering in animals.

Unit - VI : Immunology 143 - 168

- **Immunology :** Introduction to immune system: Innate and adaptive immunity, Types and production of immune cells; Complement system.
- **Humoral Immunity :** Antigen and haptens, Antibody: types function, and production.
- **Cell mediated immunity :** T-cell receptors, T helper cell and lymphocyte activation. Role of cytotoxic T-cell. ELIZA Technique RIA.

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As per Sant Gadge Baba Amravati University
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MCQ's in

ZOOLOGY

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(Life and Diversity of Non - Chordata)

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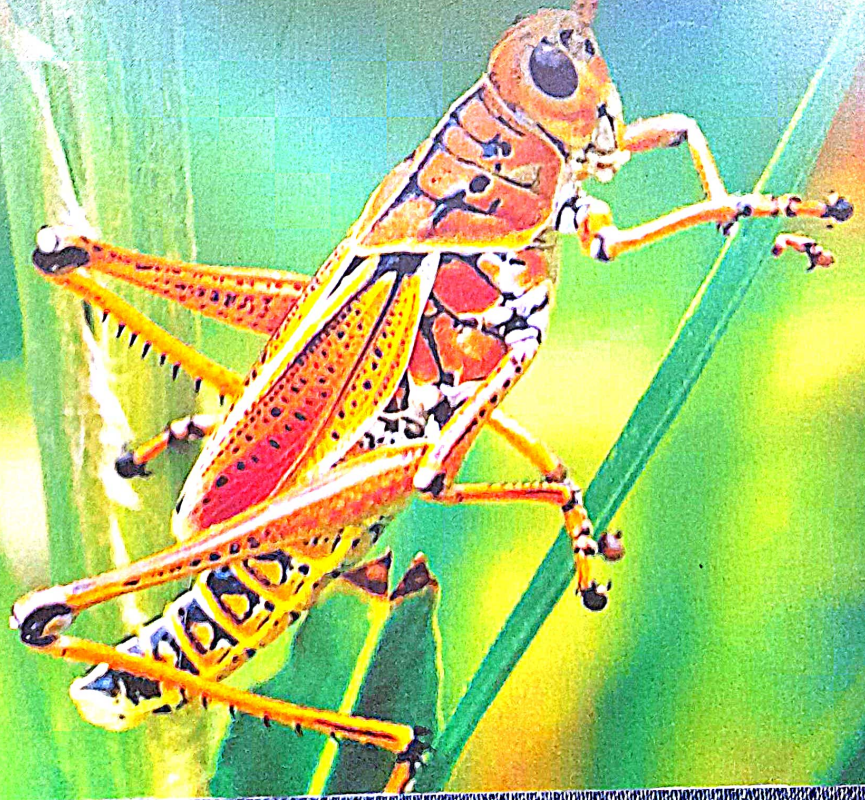

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MCQ's in Zoology for B.Sc., First Year, Semester - I
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Published by the **DnyanPath Publication (INDIA)**
The edition published in 1 June, 2021

ISBN 13 : 978-93-91331-13-9

DnyanPath®
Publication
Write well-Right now
ISO 9001 : 2015

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Visit us : www.dnyanpath.org
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Phone : 08600353712, 09503237806

Printed at Shri Gurudeo Printers, Amravati.
Mahatma Fule Sankul, Shegaon Naka,
V.M.V. Road, Amravati - 444603 (Maharashtra)

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-C O N T E N T-

UNIT - I **1 - 10**

1. Classification of Non-Chordata.
2. Phylum Protozoa: General characters.
3. Type study: Plasmodium vivax: Structure, Life-cycle.
4. Parasitic protozoan and human diseases': Malaria, Amoebiasis, Trypanosomiasis, Leishmaniasis.

UNIT - II **11 - 19**

1. Phylum Porifera: General Characters.
2. Type study: Scypha: Habits and habitat, External features, cell types, spicules & Structure and significances of canal system.
3. Phylum Coelenterata: General Characters,
4. Type study: Metridium: Habits and habitat, External features, Gastro-vascular cavity, Mesenteries, Reproduction.

UNIT - III **20 - 27**

1. Phylum Platyhelminthes: General Characters.
2. Type study: Fasciola hepatica: Habits and habitat, External features, Digestive, Excretory, Reproductive system and Life cycle.
3. Phylum Aschelminthes: General Characters.
4. Type study, Ascaris lumbricoides: Habits and habitat, External features, Digestive, Excretory, Reproductive system and Life cycle.

UNIT - IV **28 - 35**

1. Phylum Annelida: General Characters.
2. Type study: Leech: External features, Digestive, Excretory and Reproductive system.
3. Phylum Arthropoda: General Characters
4. Type study: Cockroach: Habits and habitat, External features, Digestive system, Respiratory system, Reproductive system.

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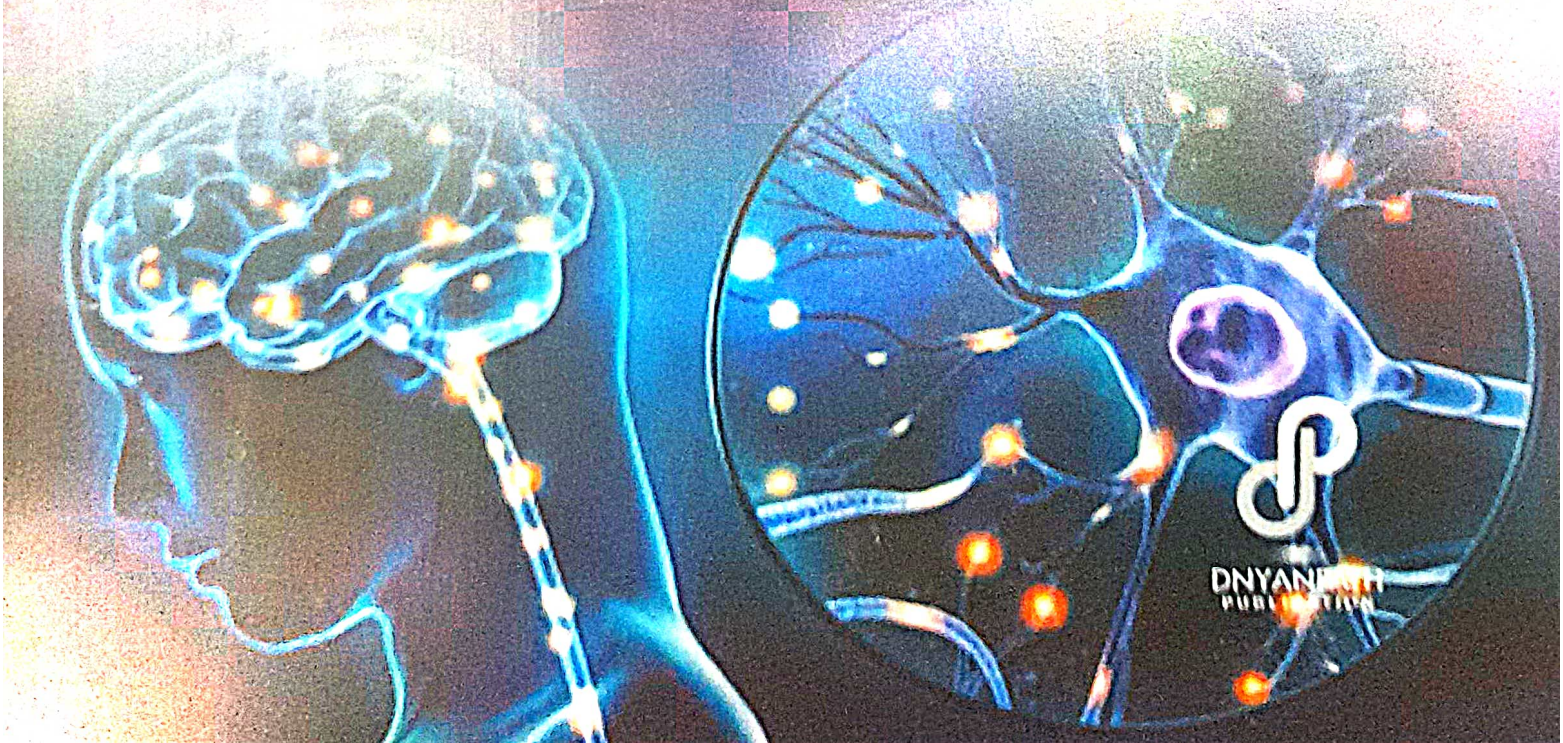

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ISBN 13 : 978-93-91331-15-3

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ISO 9001 : 2015

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Printed at Shri Gurudeo Printers, Amravati.
Mahatma Fule Sankul, Shegaon Naka,
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Unit - IV : Reproductive Physiology 27 - 34

- Estrous and menstrual cycle, hormonal control of reproduction in males and female,
- Structure and physiology of mammalian Placenta.

Homeostasis and conservative regulation :

- Osmoregulation and ionic regulation in aquatic animals.
- Osmoregulation in terrestrial animals Ammonotelism, ureotelism and uricotelism.
- Thermoregulation in Poikilotherms and Homeotherms.

Unit - V : Agricultural Zoology 35 - 42

- **Economic importance of Insects Beneficial insects -** Spider, Mantis, Ladybugs, Damsel bug, Mealybug destroyer, Soldier beetle, Green lacewing, Syrphid fly, Tachinid fly, Ichneumon wasp and Trichogramma wasp.
- **Harmful Insects -** Stired food grain pests, their injuries and control Pests of, - Cotton, Sugarcane and Jowar. Damage and Control Economic importance of Rodents, Snakes, Owls and Bats. Apiculture - Sericulture.

Unit - VI : Aquaculture 43 - 52

- **Aquaculture :** Definition, scope, importance and present status in India. Fresh water fish culture: types of fish ponds:Nursary, rearing and stocking, design and construction of fishpond, fertilizers used for fish development. Hatching Happas, Chinease Circular Hatchery, CIFE, Mumbai, hatching model, Induced breeding and hypophysation, Modern drugs used in fish breeding.
- **Freshwater system:** monoculture, polyculture, integrated aquaculture, cage culture, pen culture. Fish products and byproducts: Fish liver Oil, Fish body oil, Fish manure, Fish leather

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ISBN 13 : 978-93-91331-44-3

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UNIT - I

Concept of Genes

(A) MULTIPLE CHOICE QUESTIONS

1. **Who is known as the "Father of Genetics"?**
   a) Morgan b) Mendel c) Watson d) Bateson

2. **An exception to Mendel's law is**
   a) Independent assortment b) Linkage
   c) Dominance d) Purity of gametes

3. **Mendel's findings were rediscovered by**
   a) Correns b) De Vries c) Tschermark d) All

4. **Gregor Mendel was:**
   a) An English scientist who carried out research with Charles Darwin
   b) A little known Central European monk
   c) An early 20th century Dutch biologist who carried out genetics research
   d) None of the above

5. **Which of the following statements is true about Mendel?**
   a) His ideas about genetics apply equally to plants and animals
   b) He believed that genetic traits of parents will usually blend in their children
   c) His discoveries concerning genetic inheritance were generally accepted by the scientific community when he published them during the mid 19th century
   d) All of the above

RECENT TRENDS IN COMMERCE, ECONOMICS AND MANAGEMENT

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Prashant

Publisher | Printer:
Rangrao A Patil (Prashant Publications)
3, Pratap Nagar, Dynaneshwar Mandir Road,
Jalgaon 425 001.

Phone | Web | Email:
0257-2235520, 2232800
www.prashantpublication.com
prashantpublication.jal@gmail.com

Edition | ISBN | Price
January, 2022
978-93-92425-78-3
₹ 395/-

Cover Design | Typesetting
Prashant Publications

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ग्राहक संबंध आणि माहिती तंत्रज्ञानाचे महत्व विशेष संदर्भ ''बुलडाणा जिल्ह्यातील बँकींग''

अविनाश सीताराम निळे
सहा. प्राध्यापक,
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सारांश :

प्रस्तुत शोधनिबंधात बुलडाणा जिल्ह्यातील अधिकोषण, ग्राहक संबंध आणि माहिती तंत्रज्ञानाचा वापर यासंबंधी अध्ययन करण्यात आले आलेले असून तत्संबंधी प्रस्तावना, बँक, ग्राहक संबंध व्यवस्थापन व माहिती तंत्रज्ञानाचा अर्थ, संशोधनाची उद्दीष्टे, व्याप्ती, सामग्री संग्रहण पध्दती व विश्लेषण त्यावरुन विविध समर्पक निष्कर्ष काढण्यात आलेले आहेत. त्यानंतर संदर्भग्रंथ सूची सादर करण्यात आलेली आहे.

१) प्रस्तावना :

राष्ट्रीयीकरणानंतर बँकींग क्षेत्राचा विस्तार फार मोठ्या प्रमाणावर करण्यात आला. ठेवी, कर्जे यांचे प्रमाण वाढले परिणामी अगदी आतापर्यंत पैसे काढायचे असोत की ठेवायचे असोत, कर्जे घेणे असो वा धनाकर्ष काढणे असो, तासन् तास ग्राहक रांगेत उभा असायचा. मोठमोठाल्या फाईल्स लेजर बुक्स यांमध्येच भारतीय बँकींग गुरफटलेले होते.

बँक म्हणजे केवळ पैसे सांभाळणारे, कर्ज देणारे माध्यम असे वाटणारा काळ आता इतिहास झाला आहे. आधुनिक विपणन प्रणालींच्या काळात ग्राहकाला सर्वोच्च स्थान प्राप्त झाले आहे. तसेच सेवा विपणन प्रणालींच्या काळात ग्राहकाला सर्वोच्च स्थान प्राप्त झाले आहे. सेवा विपणनाने अधिकतम बँक क्षेत्र काबीज केलेले आहे.

नवनवीन तंत्रज्ञानाच्या वापराने देशाच्या आर्थिक व सामाजिक परिवर्तनात बँका समरसून कार्य करीत आहेत. आज संपूर्ण जगात मंदीची लाट असतांनाही भारतीय बँकांवर त्याचा फारसा परिणाम होत नाही यातच भारतीय रिझर्व्ह बँक आणि भारतीय बँकांच्या कार्यपध्दतीचे गमक दडलेले आहे. त्यासोबतच ग्राहकांचा विश्वास टिकवून, ग्राहक संबंधांचे व्यवस्थापन करुन, ते वृध्दींगत करुन परंपरागत कार्यांबरोबरच ग्राहकांना अत्याधुनिक बँकींग सुविधाही त्या उपलब्ध करुन देताहेत.

भारतात कौटील्याच्या अर्थशास्त्रात व्याजदराबाबत उल्लेख व विवेचन आलेले आहे. बाराव्या शतकाच्या जवळपास फ्रेंच पर्यटक जे. बी. व्हॅटन्स यांनी प्रत्येक गावात सावकारी करणाऱ्या व्यक्ति बँकेचे व्यवसाय करतात असा उल्लेख केला आहे. मात्र ब्रिटीश कालावधीतच खऱ्या बँक व्यवसायास सुरुवात झाली. त्यांनी ईस्ट इंडिया कंपनीचे आर्थिक व्यवहार सुरळीत पार पाडण्यासाठी मुंबई व कोलकाता येथे दलाल केंद्रांची स्थापना केली.

बँकेचा अर्थ :

बँक हा शब्द मुळ इटालियन आहे. इटलीतील सोनार पावत्या लिहिण्यासाठी ज्या बँकांचा उपयोग करीत असत त्याला बँको असे म्हणत असत. त्यावरुनच पुढे बँक हा शब्द रुढ झाला.

भारतीय बँकींग प्रमंडळ कायद्याने बँकेची केलेली व्याख्या पुढील प्रमाणे आहे –

''जनतेद्वारे मागितल्याबरोबर अथवा शोधन करण्यासाठी किंवा धनादेश, ड्राफ्ट किंवा आदेश इत्यादींद्वारे परत करण्याच्या अटींवर जनतेकडून रकमेच्या स्वरुपात ठेवी स्वीकारुन त्या ऋण देण्यासाठी किंवा गुंतवणूक करण्यासाठी करावयाच्या कार्यांचा बँकींगमध्ये समावेश होतो.''

ग्राहक संबंध व्यवस्थापन :

''व्यक्तिगतरित्या ग्राहकांच्या गरजांचा बोध करुन घेणे आणि विविध मार्ग, स्त्रोत यांचा शोध घेऊन त्यांची पूर्ती करणे, या प्रक्रियेला ग्राहक संबंध व्यवस्थापन असे म्हणतात.''

माहिती तंत्रज्ञान :

''माहिती तंत्रज्ञान म्हणजे डीजीटल तंत्रज्ञानाचा वापर करुन माहितीची निर्मिती, साठवणूक, व एकत्रिकरण, प्रक्रिया, माहितीचे वितरण, सादरीकरण, प्रस्तूतीकरण व संदेशवहन होय.'' आधुनिक तंत्रज्ञानामधील सर्वच माध्यमांचा समावेश माहिती तंत्रज्ञानात करण्यात येतो. ज्यात प्रामुख्याने दृक्श्राव्य माध्यमांचा समावेश होतो.

२) संशोधनाची उद्दीष्टे :

१. बुलडाणा जिल्ह्यातील अधिकोषणाची भौगोलिक व्याप्ती अभ्यासणे.
२. ग्राहक संबंध व माहिती तंत्रज्ञानाच्या वापराचे परिणाम अभ्यासणे.
३. राष्ट्रीयीकृत बँकांसमवेत इतर बँकांची संख्यात्मक तुलना करणे.

३) संशोधनाची व्याप्ती :

प्रस्तुत शोधनिबंध बुलडाणा जिल्ह्यातील अधिकोषण क्षेत्राशी निगडीत असून त्यात सन २००५ ते २०१० या मर्यादित कालावधीतील माहितीचे अध्ययन

करण्यात आलेले आहे.

४) सामग्री संग्रहण पध्दती :

१. प्राथमिक समंक : अधिकोषण क्षेत्रातील व्यक्तींशी संपर्क साधून, प्रश्न विचारुन व मुलाखत घेऊन तसेच प्रत्यक्ष निरीक्षणाद्वारे माहिती संकलीत केली गेली आहे.

२. द्वितीय समंक : विषयाशी संबंधीत ग्रंथ, प्रकाशित व अप्रकाशित दस्तऐवज, अहवाल, अभिलेख, हस्तलिखिते, संकेतस्थळे इत्यादींद्वारे माहिती संकलित केली गेली.

५) माहितीचे विश्लेषण :

१. बुलडाणा जिल्ह्यातील बँकींग स्वातंत्र्यानंतर अगदी हळूहळू वाढत गेले आहे. ३१ मार्च १९६६ पर्यंत जिल्ह्यात २६ खेड्यांमध्ये ११ शेड्यूल्ड, २७ सहकारी अशा एकूण ३८ बँका अस्तित्वात होत्या.

पुढील विवरण राष्ट्रीयीकृत बँकांची जिल्ह्यातील सुरुवात संख्या व दिनांक दर्शविते.

	ठिकाण	**बँकेचे नाव**	**शाखेचा सुरुवात दिनांक**
	१	२	३
१	बुलडाणा	भारतीय स्टेट बँक	३०.७.१९५७
२	चिखली	भारतीय स्टेट बँक	२३.११.१९५३
३	देउळगाव राजा	भारतीय स्टेट बँक	२९.७.१९६३
४	जळगाव जामोद	भारतीय स्टेट बँक	१७.८.१९६७
५	खामगाव	सेंन्ट्रल बँक ऑफ इंडिया	२५.१०.१९४५
		भारतीय स्टेट बँक	१.७.१९५५
		पंजाब नॅशनल बँक	१८.६.१९५६
		महाराष्ट्र बँक	१०.५.१९५९
६	मलकापूर	भारतीय स्टेट बँक	१५.११.१९५६
७	म्हेकर	भारतीय स्टेट बँक	३०.१.१९५९
८	नांदूरा	भारतीय स्टेट बँक	१.७.१९५५
९	शेगाव	भारतीय स्टेट बँक	२२.१२.१९६०

(महाराष्ट्र शासनाचे संकेतस्थळावरील गॅझेटीयरप्रमाणे)

२. **भारतीय रिझर्व्ह बँक आणि माहिती तंत्रज्ञान :** भारतीय बँकींगचे जूने स्वरुप खऱ्या अर्थाने बदलण्यास प्रारंभ झाला तो एम नरसिंहम यांच्या अहवालानंतर! भारतीय बँकांची कार्यक्षमता व स्पर्धात्मकता वाढविणे तसेच त्यांची नफा क्षमता सुधारणे यासाठी संपूर्ण संगणकीकरण शक्य तितक्या लवकर करण्याची शिफारस श्री नरसिंहम यांनी केली आणि गेल्या दहा वर्षातील त्याचे दृष्य परिणाम आता दिसू लागले आहेत. बँकींग मध्ये माहिती तंत्रज्ञानाचा अधिकाधिक वापर व्हावा, ग्राहकांना तत्पर कार्यक्षम सेवा मिळावी, बँकांची स्पर्धात्मकता वाढावी, या हेतूने रिझर्व्ह बँकेने १९७० मध्ये हैदराबाद येथे इन्स्टीट्यूट फॉर डेव्हलपमेंट ॲन्ड रिसर्च इन बँकींग टेक्नॉलॉजी म्हणजेच (IDRBT) या संस्थेची स्थापना केली आहे. या संस्थेने इंडीयन फिनान्सिअल नेटवर्क ही यंत्रणा विकसित केली आहे.

३. स्टेट बँकेच्या संपूर्ण शाखा आणि सेन्टल व महाराष्ट्रीय बँकेच्या ग्रामीण भागातील काही अपवाद वगळता बहूतेक सर्व राष्ट्रीयकृत बँकांच्या शाखा सीबीएस प्रणालीत कार्यरत आहेत.

६) निष्कर्ष :

१. बुलडाणा जिल्ह्यातील अधिकोषांच्या संख्येत स्वातंत्र्यप्राप्तीनंतर लक्षणीय वाढ झाली आहे.

२. जिल्ह्यातील अधिकोषांमध्ये सहकारी अधिकोषांबरोबरच राष्ट्रीयीकृत अधिकोषांचीही संख्या सातत्याने वाढतेच आहे.

३. माहिती तंत्रज्ञानाच्या वापराने ग्राहकांच्या वेळ, श्रम व पैशाची बचत झाली आहे.

४. जिल्ह्यातील सर्वच अधिकोष ग्राहक संबंध व्यवस्थापनासाठी माहिती तंत्रज्ञानाचा वापर करीत आहेत.

५. अधिकोषांच्या संख्यात्मक वाढीमुळे आर्थिक गतीमानता निर्माण होण्यास मदत झाली आहे.

६. ग्राहक संबंध जोपासण्यासाठी सहकारी क्षेत्राचे अपूरे प्रयत्न आहेत.

७. माहिती तंत्रज्ञानाच्या लोकशिक्षणावरील खर्चाचा अभाव अधिकोषण क्षेत्रात दिसून आला आहे.

८. ग्रामीण, बँक विरहीत क्षेत्रात, निमशहरी भागातील लोकांना सुविधांचा अभाव असल्याचे आढळून आले.

९. ग्राहकांना स्थानिक भाषेतील तंत्रज्ञान उपलब्ध नसल्याने अनेक

अडचणींना तोंड द्यावे लागते.

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अ) संदर्भग्रंथ :

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४. विविध बँकांचे अहवाल

क) मासिके, नियतकालिके :

१. अर्थसंवाद

२. योजना

३. महाराष्ट्र क्रेडीट न्यूज

४. लोकराज्य

५. सहकारी महाराष्ट्र

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Ecology and Environmental Studies for Degree Students

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P.K. Publishers & Distributors
New Delhi-110053

Published by :

P.K. Publishers & Distributors

J-231/1A] Gali No. 14, 4th Pushta,

Kartar Nagar, Delhi-110053

Mobile: 9540483251, 79825512449
E-mail: pkpublication@gmail.com
Website: www.pkpublishers.com

Ecology and Environmental Studies for Degree Students

© Authors

First Edition 2022

ISBN: 978-81-950911-

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PRINTED IN INDIA

Published by P.K Pubishers & Distributors Delhi-110053, Laser Typesetting at Shahabuddin Computers, Delhi. Printed at Sachin Printers, Delhi- 53

Dedicated to

My Loved

Aai and Baba

Late Sheshikala and Asaram Dhale

"For their hard work in Devolving Agriculture practices"

Preface

Working in Post-graduate and undergraduate science institutions for the past twelve years, I've noticed that all undergraduate students are exposed to Environmental Science as a significant subject. It is necessary to have a basic understanding of ecology for this. Students search for these foundations in ecology and environment in many reference books, but they find that in terms of their tests and competitive exams, they waste a lot of time finding for a small topic in a reference book. With this in mind, all undergraduate students are usually given some basic courses in preparation for competitive examinations and various degree-level examinations syllabus framed by UGC and also other University curricula in Science, Engineering, Technology, Commerce, Management, Pharmacy, Arts, etc. Different examinations with this in mind, the book aims to cover elements of the environmental curriculum in a simple manner that students can understand. This is a real attempt at the time of writing to explain how these ecological concepts, which are simply repeated to students, can be given to students at the grassroots and rural level in a simple manner. It was beneficial to have prior experience teaching Plant Ecology, Environmental science and Plant Geography at the undergraduate level in order to know how to communicate with students while presenting concepts. The book's arrangement is simple for students to understand because they have seen personally how the course's contents are changed when teaching the same subject.

This book on Ecology and Environment is very useful for students studying for various competitive examinations such as Talathi, Gramsevak, Police Recruitment, Indian Post, Banks, and other competitive examinations in Maharashtra and various states. This will be a useful guide.The book will be valuable to a large number of students and teachers, as well as industries, which will eventually prove to be important sources of pollution.

The book is divided into fourteen chapters, beginning with the Introduction to ecology, scope and importance of ecology. The biotic environment is made up of a variety of living species that live in and around the physical environment. The biosphere is the portion of the earth where life can be found.These things were also incorporated in order to gain a better understanding of the ecosystem and its surroundings.

The ecosystems unit has been broken down into types and components, each of which has been described with fundamental and recent knowledge and shown with an example graphic for simple comprehension.

The focus of phytosociology is to characterize the vegetative environment of a specific location objectively. Physiognomy, Phenology, Periodicity, Aspection, Stratification, Density, Frequency and Abundance are some of the qualitative and quantitative characteristics of the term.

The various natural resources, both conventional and non-conventional, as well as forest, mineral water, and soil, are reviewed, with an emphasis on the activities that utilise them, causing environmental impact. The talk is well-supported by case examples that are relevant to the topic.Biodiversity and its conservation are examined from a global standpoint, with numerous parameters posing concerns. The need of biodiversity conservation is emphasised, particularly for our country and for a better future.

Fundamentals of Wildlife management with the conservation, preservation and wise management of rare plant and animal populations in their natural environments. The animals and plants that are threatened with extinction due to a variety of circumstances, including man's unparalleled meddling.

Case studies on environmental pollution, its origins, impacts, and control, as well as solid waste and catastrophe management, have been explored, highlighting the role of a human in any such circumstance. Every person on the earth contributes in some way to the prevention or control of pollution, whether small or large. It is possible to get amazing results by first being aware and then changing one's lifestyle.

In this approach, the current book explored significant themes such as bioremediation, its need, and various phytoremediation procedures. The issue of plant succession goes into the stages of vegetation development on bare terrain, rock, or sand.

Detailed information about basic classifications of plants, their water requirements, and the type of soil is provided while describing the Plant adaptation. Details about morphological, anatomical, and physiological changes in plants as they adapt to xerophytic, hydrophytes or mesophilic environments are also provided.

Phytogeography is described in detail, together with the key divisions of plant geography. The elements that influence vegetation distribution are discussed in depth. All of the information for fourteen regulations based on four principles are provided. Different types of vegetation in India and Maharashtra are also listed by zone, with appropriate examples.

The book will prove to be worthwhile reading for even the most inexperienced reader, as well as an excellent resource for students, teachers, and businesses.We would

really welcome constructive reader input, which will be used to improve future issues.

We have taken every effort to make the concepts as clear as possible and we hope that students will profit from using this book. We would like to express our gratitude to everyone who was involved in the preparation of this book, whether directly or indirectly.

We hope that the readers of this book will provide us with feedback in the form of valuable suggestions and constructive criticism so that future editions might be even better. If this book meets the needs of students pursuing higher education in any field, we will be overjoyed.

Dr. D. A. Dhale

Miss. Snehal Dhawale

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1

Introduction to Ecology

1.1 Introduction

Life does not occur in a vacuum. Every living organism is surrounded by material and forces which constitutes it's environment and from which it must derive it's needs, i.e. for survival every plant, animal or microbe requires supply of energy, supply of materials and removal of waste products from it's surround environment. Thus the surround of the living organism is called as an environment, which is essential non-living (abiotic). There are communities living in water, air and soil, which influences the non-living environment and itself, is controlled by environment. "Thus the living organisms and the environment interact with each other and depend upon one another and together constitute an integrated unit called the **ecological system** or **ecosystem**, and the science which deals with the study of ecosystem is called as **environmental biology** or **ecology**.

The word ecology comes from the Greek words **'oikos'** meaning **household** or **home** or **place to live** or **habitation,** and '**logos'** meaning **study**. Thus ecology deals with the organism and it's place to live. Basically organism's place

to live is its environment. So ecology is also called as environmental biology. Depending the organisms under consideration the science of ecology is either **plant ecology** or **animal ecology**.

1.2 Scope and Importance

Present day problems of varied nature in human life are directly or indirectly very much related to ecology as their solution needs an ecological knowledge. Ecology needs an important role in human welfare. This is primarily a field subject and modern ecology is concerned with the functional interdependencies between living thing and their environment.

Man being a dominant organism of most ecosystems controls and modifies environment more extensively than any other organism. There have been significant changes in the natural environment due to man's activities and his rapid progress in colonization, urbanization, industrialization, agriculture, mining, dam construction, transportation and other technologies.

Deforestation has provided land for agriculture and rural inhabitation, rural land has been converted into urban settlement and open spaces are fast vanishing. The mass scale destruction of flora and fauna has disturbed the ecological balance. Much of this environmental destruction is done in the name of ecological development. The pressure of increasing population places a greed burden than ever on finite blanket of life that covers this earth. That blanket is getting torn and fragmented in thousands of places. If man remains unaware, a point can be reached in future where healing capacity may be lost.

Because of many ecological malpractices greedy exploitation of different ecological resources like air, water, space, mineral, vegetation etc. modern human civilization has to face many serious ecological problems such as land

use, pollution, energy crisis, flooding, erosion, deforestation, desertification, pesticide contamination, population growth, crowdedly diseases, etc. If some ecological measures are not applied to human utilization of his environment there may arise several uncontrolled ecological hazards, which may become responsible for the extermination of human race from the earth.

Thus the scope of ecology is quite vast. Ecology plays a significant role in agriculture, Forestry, silviculture, conservation of natural resources, pest control, health management, etc. Ecological knowledge helps in discovering new sources of food (algae), new unpolluting sources of energy (solar energy) and new method of unpolluting pest control such as biological control.

1.3 Sub-divisions of Environment

Each and every organism has its specific surrounding, medium or environment to which it continuously interacts and remains fully adapted. The environment is a collective term including all the conditions in which organisms live, e.g. light, temperature, water, soil, etc. In other words the environment is the sum total of physical (biotic) and biotic conditions influencing the responses of the organism.

The organism's environment may be subdivided into physical (abiotic) and living (biotic) environment. Abiotic environment of all organisms existing on the earth includes three main media, which also act like factors viz. atmosphere (air), lithosphere (soil), and hydrosphere (water) and a variety of physical factors like temperature, light, pH, etc. The biotic environment includes number of living organisms, which inhabit the physical environment. The biosphere is that part of the earth on which life exists

(i) Lithosphere (soil): The earth is a cold, spherical, solid planet of the solar system. The solid component of the earth is called as lithosphere, which is a sub-

division of the global environment. The lithosphere is multi-layered and includes following three main layers.

(a) ***Core:*** The core is the central fluid or vaporized sphere having diameter of about 2500 km from the center and is possibly composed of nickel-iron.

(b) ***Mantle:*** The mantle extends about 2900 km above the core and it is in a molten state.

(c) ***Crust:*** The crust is the outermost zone of the earth and it is about 8-40 km above the mantle. The crust is very complex and its surface is covered with soil supporting rich and varied biotic communities.

The soil is one of the most important ecological factor (edaphic factor) and also is the most characteristic feature of terrestrial environment. It serves two important and major functions- ii) it holds water and mineral ions that form important inorganic nutrients of the plants and i) it acts as a substratum for the roots to penetrate and anchor plants. It also gives support to the animals of terrestrial ecosystem.

The type of soil determines the type of vegetation in that area.

(ii) ***Hydrosphere (water):*** Liquid water covers about three quarters (73-75%) of the earth's surface either as ocean (salt) water or fresh water of rivers, streams and lakes and forms the hydrosphere. Most of the earth's surface water (99.9%) is in ocean, which contains about 35‰ (ppt) dissolved salts. Of remainder most is fresh water with a salt content less than 1/15-1/5 ‰ found in either lakes or ponds (still water) or in rivers and streams (running water). Fresh water also becomes available to earth in the form of rainfall, snow, dew, etc.

Water is essential to all life. First life was originated in water. It is a vital constituent of the living matter

called protoplasm. It is the only source of hydrogen element and one of the major sources of oxygen in plant metabolism. It carries various mineral ions dissolved in it and supplies them to various plant parts. Being an important constituent of the lithosphere and atmosphere, it is a medium for several different ecosystems called as aquatic ecosystems.

The amount of water brings about temperature changes, changes in humidity or moisture contents of the atmosphere. The water determines the kind and amount of plant metabolism possible in a particular locality. It also determines the type of vegetation in a particular locality, i.e. hydrophytes, xerophytes, mesophytes, etc.

(iii) ***Atmosphere (air):*** The multi-layered gaseous envelope surrounding the planet earth is called as atmosphere. It is an ocean air, which blends into the outer space some 1000 km or so above the earth's surface. The atmosphere maintains its contact with all the major types of environments of earth interacting with them and greatly affecting their ability to support life. The atmosphere is a reservoir of several elements essential to life and it serves many functions including filtering radiant energy from the sun, insulation from heat loss of the earth's surface and stabilization of weather and climate. Several cycles are also present, e.g. carbon cycle, nitrogen cycle, etc. that relate to the movement of matter between an organism and it's environment.

There are five concentric layers within the atmosphere, which can be determined on the basis of temperature and altitude. These include troposphere, stratosphere, mesosphere, thermosphere and exosphere.

(a) ***Troposphere:*** The lowest layer of atmosphere in which man along with other living organisms live,

is called as **troposphere.** It is roughly 10 km thick, being somewhat thicker in the equatorial region than it is at the poles. It contains water vapors, airborne dust particles and several different gases, most of which are fairly constant in their abundance, e.g. N_2 (78%), O_2 (20%), Argon (0.934%), CO_2 (0.0314%) and other gases Ne, He, CH_4, Kr, N_2O, H_2, Xe, and O_3 in trace amounts. The temperature ranges between -55^0C to 20^0C. It is the region of air movement and cloud formation.

(b) ***Stratosphere:*** The stratosphere can be defined as the air mass extending between troposphere and mesosphere. It extends from 10 Km to about 50 Km above the surface of earth and temperature rises from minimum about -55^0C to maximum about 5^0C.

Here water vapor is absent and **ozone (O_3)** is present in significant quantities and there it forms a well-marked layer called **ozonosphere** within the stratosphere. Ozone is formed from oxygen by a photochemical reaction in which the energy from the sun splits apart oxygen molecule (O_2) to form atomic oxygen (O).

$$O_2 + hv \Leftrightarrow 2\ O$$

The atomic oxygen then combines with molecular oxygen to form ozone.

$$O_2 + O \Leftrightarrow O_3$$

Both these reactions are reversible, but the ozone content of stratosphere is fairly constant, because ozone is being produced from oxygen as fast as it is broken down to molecular oxygen and this is because ozone absorbs ultraviolet radiations from the sun, which is transformed into heat and so this region become warmer with increase in distance from the earth.

For the ecosystem the ozone umbrella is of vital importance, because it's absorption of u.v. radiations prevent the later from reaching to the surface of the earth where it would be lethal to most organisms. This ozonosphere also acts like a blanket that reduces the cooling rate of the earth and thus adds to the effect of water vapors.

(c) ***Mesosphere:*** Above stratosphere there is mesosphere extends between 50 km to 80 km. The temperature of this layer ranges between -90^0C to 5^0C.

(d) ***Thermosphere:*** Above mesosphere the thermosphere extends up to 500 km above earth's surface and temperature increases from mesosphere.

(e) ***Exosphere:*** The region of the atmosphere above thermosphere is called as exosphere or outer space, which lacks atoms except He and H_2 and extends up to 32190 km from the planet. The temperature is very high due to solar radiations.

All the layers of atmosphere are important that they form total blanket of air in the biosphere.

(iv) ***Biosphere:*** The biosphere is that part of the earth in which the life exists. The entire world basically can be classified into **abiotic world** and **biotic world.** Abiotic world can be again sub-divided into atmosphere, lithosphere and hydrosphere. To these three ecological components we can add the biotic world-the **biosphere**. **OR** 'the sum of those portions of the hydrosphere, lithosphere and atmosphere into which life penetrates is the **biosphere'.**

Biosphere may be thought as a biochemical system capable of capturing, converting, storing and utilizing the energy of the sun. Approximately 300 thousand species of green plants are primary producers, which utilizes inorganic elements and compounds to synthesis the organic materials of life, i.e. food energy. This synthesized energy is consumed by more than million other species of organisms.

Still other species e.g. bacteria and fungi, accomplish the recycling process by returning plant and animal wastes and residues to inorganic forms, so the process may be renewed.

The entire biosphere has matured and evolved as a self-regulatory system with internal checks and balances. It has developed a remarkable degree of homoeostasis and ecological control within its various components. The biosphere represents a mosaic of different biotic communities from simple to complex, aquatic to terrestrial and tropical to polar. Thus every organism within the biosphere affects the life of every other directly or indirectly.

Thus there all four sub-divisions represent four major global sub-divisions of the environment.

2

Ecosystem

2.1 Introduction

An ecosystem can be thought of as a functional unit of nature in which live species interact with one another as well as the physical surroundings. The size of an ecosystem might range from a small pond to a vast forest or a sea. Many ecologists consider the entire biosphere to be a global ecosystem, made up of all of Earth's local ecosystems. Because this system is too large and complex to study all at once, it is easier to separate it into two main categories: terrestrial and aquatic. Terrestrial ecosystems include forests, grasslands, and deserts, whereas aquatic ecosystems include ponds, lakes, wetlands, rivers, and estuaries. Crop fields and aquariums are both examples of man-made ecosystems.

We'll start by looking at the ecosystem's structure to understand the intake (productivity), energy transfer (food chain/web, nutrient cycle), and output (degradation and energy loss). We'll also look at the interactions that emerge as a result of these energy fluxes inside the system, such as cycles, chains, and webs, and how they interact.

Definition

An ecosystem is defined as a structural and functional unit of biosphere consisting of community of living beings and physical environment, both interacting and exchanging materials between them.

2.2 Components of Ecosystem

The interaction of biotic and abiotic components produces a physical structure that is unique to each ecosystem type. The species composition of an environment is determined by the identification and counting of its plant and animal species. Stratification refers to the vertical distribution of distinct species at various levels. For example, trees are found at the top of a forest's vertical stratum or layer, shrubs are found at the second, and herbs and grasses are found at the bottom.

An ecosystem has two basic components:

(i) Abiotic (non-living), and

(ii) biotic (living organisms).

(i) Abiotic components: Abiotic variables are non-living (chemical and physical) elements of the environment that can have a significant impact on live organisms. They are the ecosystem's non-living components on which all living organisms depend. They refer to all natural inorganic components that play an important part in preserving the ecosystem's balance. The abiotic elements in an ecosystem are not the same across the board. Abiotic variables affect organisms to varying degrees in terms of development, maintenance, and reproduction. It is made up of inorganic components (such as carbon, nitrogen, oxygen, CO2, water, and so on) and dead organic matter (proteins, carbohydrates, lipids, minerals, and so on). Abiotic compounds can be

found in soil, water, and the atmosphere. The abiotic conditions in which organisms carry out life processes are determined by climatic elements such as sun radiation and temperature.

(a) ***Organic substances:*** They are the fundamental components of life systems, and hence serve as a link between biotic and abiotic elements. Proteins, carbohydrates, lipids, adenosine triphosphate (ATP), deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA), chlorophyll, and other compounds are among them.

(b) ***Inorganic substances:*** It consists of three parts: the hydrosphere (water), the lithosphere (minerals such as S, P, K, Mg, Fe, Zn, Cd, Cu, and Na), and the atmosphere (gasses- oxygen, hydrogen, carbon dioxide and nitrogen). The synthesis of organic compounds necessitates the use of certain inorganic chemicals. These elements are obtained by living organisms from abiotic environmental components and returned to the environment after death.

(c) ***Climatic regime:*** Physical elements such as light, temperature, humidity, and atinospheric pressure are included.

Abiotic factors in a terrestrial ecosystem include climate, soil or rock type, altitude, temperature, nutrients, and minerals, whereas dissolved gases, depth of water, salinity, pH of water, light intensity, and other abiotic factors in an aquatic ecosystem include dissolved gases, depth of water, salinity, pH of water, and light intensity.

(ii) ***Biotic components:*** Producers, consumers, and decomposers are all included in biotic components.

(a) ***Producers:*** Producers are autotrophic (=self-sustaining) organisms with chlorophyll

that fix light energy and create their own food (high energy organic compounds) in the presence of simple inorganic abiotic substances. Organic compounds are produced by a variety of photosynthetic bacteria, chemosynthetic bacteria, and photosynthetic protozoa in both terrestrial and aquatic settings, though in very little amounts. The autotrophs in terrestrial ecosystems are mainly rooted plants (herbs, shrubs, and trees), but the major autotrophs in deep aquatic habitats are floating microscopic plants called phytoplankton. The primary producers in shallow waters are rooted plants, or macrophytes. On a unit area (land or water surface) basis, phytoplankton may generate as much food as larger bushes and trees when environmental circumstances are optimal.

(b) ***Consumers or phagotrophs:*** (phago: to eat) are heterotrophic (=other feeding) creatures, primarily mammals, that consume their food by ingesting or swallowing it. Consumers' food is made up of organic chemicals created by other living species. A primary consumer or herbivore (for example, grazing cattle) is a consumer who obtains sustenance from plants. An animal that consumes the flesh of herbivores or other animals is known as a secondary consumer or carnivore.

(c) ***Decomposers or saprotrophs:*** Other heterotrophic species that feed on dead organic matter or detritus (sapro: to decay) include bacteria and fungi. Decomposers, unlike consumers, do not consume their food. Instead, various enzymes from their bodies are released into the dead and decaying plant and animal remains.

Extracellular digestion of the dead material results in the release of simpler inorganic chemicals, which the decomposers then use.

Ecosystems can be physically defined in most cases. Ecosystems do, however, occasionally interact with one another. At a wide spatial scale, all ecosystems are linked by energy flow and material transfer with neighbouring ecosystems, or even with ecosystems far away. Leaves from riverside trees falling into river water, for example, reflect a transfer of energy and material from a terrestrial to an aquatic ecosystem. Birds that dive into water bodies to catch fish make comparable transitions from aquatic to terrestrial environments. Soil debris from a forest environment may be degraded and washed into a nearby stream, or dust blown from a desert ecosystem may settle over another ecosystem thousands of miles distant.

5.3 Types of Ecosystem

All ecosystems of the world can be divided into two major groups namely natural ecosystems and artificial ecosystems.

I. ***Natural ecosystems:*** Ecosystem without human interference is called natural ecosystem. These are developed on the earth through natural processes and operate themselves under natural conditions without any interference by man. It is made of all the plants, animals, and environmental features in an area and has long and complex food webs and have high genetic diversity and it is naturally sustainable.

   Based upon the particular kind of habitat, these are further divided as: terrestrial ecosystems, and aquatic ecosystems.

   1. ***Terrestrial Ecosystems:*** A community of organisms and their environment that occurs

on the land masses of continents and islands is called terrestrial ecosystem. Terrestrial ecosystem operates on the land. It is influenced by environmental factors such as temperature, wind, light, moisture, altitude, latitude and topography.

Based on climate such as temperature, humidity and rainfall, it can be further sub-divided into: i) Forest ecosystem, ii) Grassland ecosystem, iii) Desert ecosystem, iv) Tundra ecosystem.

Grassland ecosystem: This is a type of terrestrial ecosystem. The grasslands ate the areas which comprise mainly of the grasses with a little number of shrubs and trees.

Grasslands are defined mainly by the amount of water that is available. Grasslands share the common climactic characteristic of semi-aridity, Grasslands are distributed throughout the world in temperate and tropical regions. Roughly nineteen percent of earth's surface is occupied by grasslands. Grasslands are not common in India: They are found in Khassi and Nilgiri hills at elevations higher than 2000 ft. They also occur along the river courses in Plains.

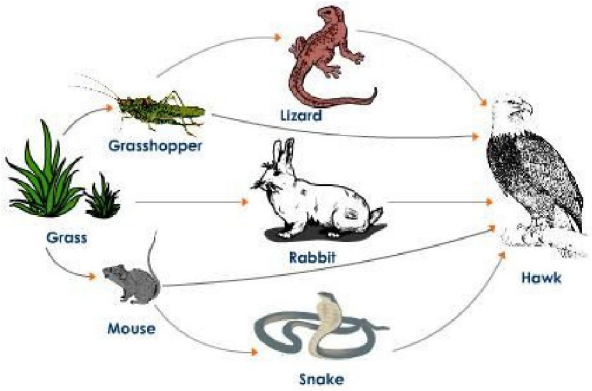


Fig. : Grassland Ecosystem

Grasslands ecosystem include prairies, steppes and savannahs. The area mainly comprises grasses with a little number of trees and shrubs. The main vegetation includes grasses, plants and legumes that belong to the composite family. A lot of grazing animals, insectivores and herbivores inhabit the grasslands.

Components of Grassland Ecosystems

Abiotic components: It is one of the most, crucial abiotic factors 'that shape the ecosystem and includes rainfall) temperature, wind flow, ground moisture' etc. Natural grasslands have a precipitation of 500-900 mm per year; whereas, the deserts have a rainfall of about 250 mm/year, This rainfall maintains the moisture and interacts with the abiotic and biotic factors of the grassland And different inorganic salts, water, nitrates phosphates, sulphates, and air represents the abiotic components.

Biotic components: The biotic factors of the grassland ecosystem includes the autotrophs, and the heterotrophs, that is the producers; primary consumers, secondary consumers and the tertiary consumers.

(a) ***Producers:*** The primary producers include 'the autotrophs that can photosynthesize and includes the grasses, sedged, rushes, cyanobacteria, lichens, mosses, trees etc.

The member of grasses is Indian grass, needle grass, western wheet grass, Indian rice grass and blue glass etc.

(b) ***Consumers:***

(i) ***Primary consumers:*** Different kinds of millipedes, termites and insects, belonging to *Cicindella, Dysdercus, Coccineila* etc. and Deer, sheep, Goats, Cows, Buffaloes are grazing animals which feed on grasses.

(ii) ***Secondary consumers:*** Snake, lizards, birds, jackals etc. are common secondary consumers which feed or primary consumers.

(iii) ***Tertiary consumers:*** These depends up on secondary consumers for their food; Hawks etc. belong to this group.

(c) ***Decomposers:*** Several bacteria, actinomycetes and fungi like *Aspergillus, Mucor, Rhizophus, Cladosporium,* etc. decay the dead organic matter of different forms of higher life.

2. ***Aquatic Ecosystems:*** An aquatic ecosystem is a group of interacting organisms dependent on one another and their water environment for nutrients and shelter. The aquatic ecosystem found in a body of water. It encompasses aquatic flora, fauna and water properties, as well. Depending upon the salt concentration present in the water, aquatic ecosystems can be divided into: a) Fresh water ecosystems; b) Ocean or Marine ecosystems.

(A) ***Fresh water ecosystems:*** Aquatic ecosystems including lakes, rivers and wetlands make up the world's freshwater ecosystems. They are characterized by a lower salt content than that which occurs in marine ecosystems. Freshwater ecosystems are classified according to factors including temperature, the amount of light penetration and the type of vegetation that occurs. Freshwater ecosystems cover 0.78% of the Earth's surface and inhabit 0.009% of its total water. They include lakes and ponds, rivers, streams, springs, and wetlands.

I. ***Pond ecosystem:*** It is a lentic fresh water ecosystem. It contains shallow standing water. The depth of the water varies from few inches

to about 10 ft. or sometimes more. In this, there are communities of organism dependent on each other with the prevailing water environment for their nutrients and survival. Itis a self-sufficient and self-regulating ecosystem. It has a great deal of vegetation which increases with the age of pond. Location, size, depth and substratum of pond influence the biology of pond ecosystem to a very great extent. Like other ecosystems it also consists of two types of components *viz*. Abiotic and Biotic.

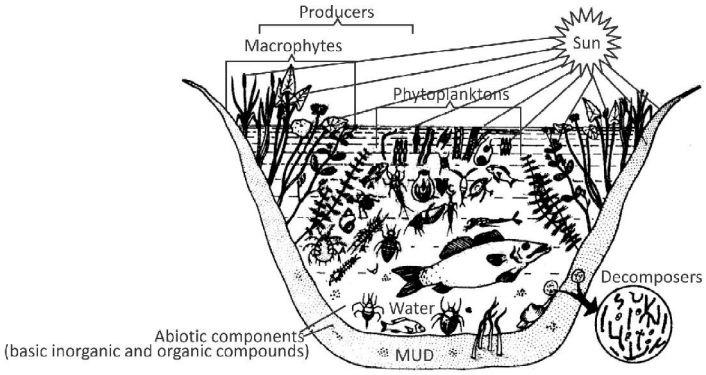


Fig. Pond Ecosystem

(a) ***Abiotic components:*** The abiotic substances of Pond ecosystem are formed as a resu1t of the mixture of some organic and inorganic materials. They have directly or indirectly effect in aquatic organisms of the pond. These includes: Water, Light, Temperature, Pressure, Dissolved Oxygen, CO2, other gases, pH of Water, Turbidity, Dissolved minerals, organic compounds. The important factors of aquatic ecosystem which influence the biota are amily

transparency, Transpiration currents, respiratory gases and decomposers.

(b) ***Biotic components:*** The biotic components of pond ecosystem are the living components which are producers, consumers and decomposers.

(i) ***Producers:*** The producers are the aquatic green plants, which synthesize energy from abiotic substances. The producers of pond ecosystem include phytoplanktons like diatoms, blue green algae (*Nostoc, Oscillotoria*), green algae (*Chlamydomonas, Spirogyra, Zygnema, Volvox, Oedogonium*) and submerged and floating plants like *Pistia, Hydrilla, Chara, Nitella, Eichhornia, Salvinia, Lemna Wolf:fia, Trapa, Marsilea, Typha* etc.

(ii) ***Consumers:*** The consumers are those heterotrophic organisms, which consume producers as food. Their types are:

(a) ***Primary consumers:*** The organisms which on producers are called primary consumers or herbivores. These are *zooplanktons, Mollusks, Beetles, Cyclops,* and *Daphnia* etc.

(b) ***Secondary consumer:*** These are primary carnivores, which depend on herbivorous animals for food. Eg: Insects, fishes, frogs, crab etc.

(c) ***Tertiary consumer:*** These are the second grade of carnivores. They feed upon plants or animals (secondary consumer) therefore are called omnivores e.g: Large fishes and frogs.

(iii) ***Decomposer:*** These breakup the dead bodies and their waste products in pond ecosystem. Most of the decomposers of pond ecosystem are saprophytes but some parasites are also

found. Bacteria, fungi like *Aspergillus, Cladosporium, Rhizopus, Altemaria, Fusarium, Saprolegnia*etc. are decomposers. Generally, the decomposers either live in the soil layer beneath water or in the mud. They act on dead and decayed organic matter of plants and animals and supply raw materials to the producers.

(B) ***Marine/Ocean ecosystems:*** Marine ecosystems are aquatic ecosystems whose waters possess a high salt content. The marine ecosystem is the largest and most stable ecosystem. It covers approximately 70% of the earth's surface. The average depth of sea is about 1000 meters. Temperature varies from 2°C to 32°C. Pressure increases at the rate of one atmosphere per 10 meter of water. Light penetrates only up to 200 meters. Examples include salt marshes, intertidal zones, estuaries, lagoons, mangroves, coral reefs, the deep sea, and the sea floor.

II. ***Artificial ecosystems:*** An artificial ecosystem is a human made system of plants, animals, and people living in an area together with their surroundings. Artificial ecosystems are simple, more fragile, more productive but more vulnerable to failure due to lack of diversity and strong self-regulatory system.Man-made ecosystems, such as agricultural field (croplands), gardens, parks, zoo, aquarium, serpent garden etc, are called artificial ecosystems.

2.4Structure and Function of Ecosystem

Structure

The ecosystem's biotic and abiotic components are physically organised to form a distinct structure. Species composition and stratification are important structural

elements. Some ecosystems (for example, tropical rain forests) have a dense plant canopy and a plethora of biological species. The desert environment, on the other hand, has a low, discontinuous herb cover with fewer species and large bare expanses of soil.

Another technique to show ecosystem structure is through producer-consumer food connections. The existence of different trophic levels in an ecosystem determines the trophic (food) structure of the ecosystem. The first trophic level is made up of producers, followed by herbivores, and finally predators. Trophic structure can be characterised in terms of the amount of live material present in different trophic levels at any given time, referred to as standing crop. The quantity or biomass of organisms per unit area is a standard measure of the standing crop. A species' biomass can be expressed in terms of fresh or dry weight. To eliminate weight changes owing to seasonal moisture variability in biomass, dry weight is chosen.

Nutrients required for live species' growth accumulate in biomass and abiotic components such as soil. The standing state refers to the amount of nutrients such as nitrogen, phosphorus, and calcium in the soil at any one time. Nutrient standing states differ from one habitat to the next, and even within the same ecosystem, depending on the season.

Function

Ecosystems have a built-in tendency to survive. This is made feasible by the structural components' various roles (actions carried out to ensure persistence). Green leaves, for example, serve as food production sites, and roots take nutrients from the soil. Herbivores provide as food for carnivores by consuming a portion of the plant's produce. Decomposers are responsible for breaking down complex organic resources into simpler inorganic compounds that

producers can utilise. These functions are carried out by precisely balanced and controlled processes in the ecosystem. Photosynthesis, for example, is important in food production, while decomposition results in the release of nutrients contained in organic matter.

Understanding the interrelationships of ecosystem structure and function requires an understanding of the rates at which different processes occur in ecosystems. The ecosystem's most important functioning aspects are:

(i) Productivity and energy flow;
(ii) Nutrient cycling; and
(iii) Development and stabilization.

2.5 Productivity

Productivity refers to the rate at which biomass is produced. There are two types of productivity in ecosystems: primary and secondary. The pace at which producers catch sunlight for the production of energy-rich organic compounds through photosynthesis is referred to as primary productivity. Productivity is measured in terms of dry matter produced or energy captured per unit area of land and per unit time. It's usually measured in grams per square meter per year or in kilocalories per square meter per year. As a result, different ecosystems' productivity can be simply compared. There are two types of primary productivity: gross and net. Gross primary production refers to the total amount of organic matter (biomass) produced. While the energy collection process is taking place in the green tissues, they, as well as other tissues, are respiring photosynthesis. Net primary productivity refers to the energy or biomass left over after farmers' respiration needs have been met, as shown below.

Net productivity = Gross productivity – respiration

Plant biomass accumulates as a result of net primary productivity, providing food for herbivores and

decomposers. The rate at which dietary energy is digested at the trophic level of consumers is referred to as secondary productivity. It is important to remember that consumers' food is produced by primary producers, and secondary productivity represents just the use of this food in the creation of consumer biomass.

Primary productivity is determined by the photosynthetic capability of producers as well as the current environmental circumstances, such as sun radiation, temperature, and soil moisture. Primary productivity in tropical climates can be sustained throughout the year if appropriate soil moisture is available. The chilly environment and a short snow-free growing season in temperate zones, on the other hand, severely limit primary productivity.

Productivity is often limited in aquatic habitats by light, which diminishes with increasing water depth. Nutrients are generally scarce in deep waters, reducing productivity. In marine ecosystems, nitrogen is recognised as the most critical nutrient limiting production.

2.6 Decomposition

While synthesis and construction processes are vital, decomposition, or the breakdown of complex organic matter by decomposers into inorganic raw materials like as carbon dioxide, water, and other nutrients, is also crucial. The upper layer of soil is where the ecosystem's breakdown processes take place.

Detritus is made up of dead plant components and animal leftovers. Aboveground detritus is made up of dried plant parts such as leaves, bark, flowers, and animal leftovers such as faecal matter that fall to the ground (also known as litter fall). Dead roots make up the majority of the belowground debris (also called root detritus). Decomposing debris loses weight over time, eventually disappearing completely. Large amounts of partially

digested organic matter will accumulate in the ecosystem if decomposition is slowed or interrupted.

Decomposition Processes

Decomposition entails a number of steps. Detritus fragmentation, leaching, and catabolism are examples of these processes.

(i) Detritus fragmentation, primarily due to the action of detritivores (detritus-feeding invertebrates), causes it to break down into smaller particles. When detritus passes through the digestive tracts of animals, it is pulverised. The surface area of debris particles is considerably expanded as a result of fragmentation.

(ii) Due to leaching action, water percolating through soil removes soluble compounds (e.g., sugars, various nutrients) from fragmented detritus.

(iii) Catabolism, or the enzymatic conversion of decaying detritus to simpler compounds and inorganic substances, is carried out by extracellular enzymes secreted by bacteria and fungi. It's vital to note that all three decomposition processes work on the debris at the same time.

Decomposition in the soil results in humification and mineralisation. Humification results in the accumulation of humus, a dark-colored amorphous substance. Humus is very resistant to microbial action and decomposes at a glacial pace. It acts as a nutrient storage area. Inorganic substances (e.g., CO_2, H_2O) and accessible nutrients (NH_4^+, Ca^{++}, Mg^{++}, K^+, etc.) are released in the soil as a result of mineralisation.

Soil nutrients become entangled with the biomass of microorganisms under specific conditions, making them temporarily unavailable to other species. Nutrient immobilisation is the process of nutrient uptake in live

microorganisms. Nutrients are immobilised for varying amounts of time before being mineralized once microorganisms die. The nutrients are not washed out of the ecosystem because of this immobilisation.

2.7 Energy Flow

The ecosystem's primary purpose is energy flow. Two basic thermodynamic rules govern the storage and expenditure of energy in the environment. Energy from sunlight can be converted into food and heat, according to the first rule of thermodynamics (which states that energy is never generated nor destroyed, but can be moved from one component to another or transformed from one condition to another). The second law of thermodynamics states that no energy change happens spontaneously unless energy is degraded or dissipated from a concentrated to a dispersed state. As a result, in an ecosystem, the movement of food energy from one organism to another results in deterioration and the loss of a significant portion of the food energy as heat due to metabolic activities, with only a small percentage being stored in living tissues or biomass. Heat energy is extensively spread, whereas food energy is concentrated.

Examining the relationship between incident radiant energy and the energy retained by producers in the food they create is beneficial. Producers can absorb only visible light, also known as photosynthetically active radiation (PAR), which transports about half of the energy of total incident solar radiation. The energy obtained can be calculated by multiplying the projected productivity by the calorific value (energy content per unit weight) of biomass. The calorific value is calculated by burning a known weight of dry biomass in an oxygen-free bomb calorimeter and measuring the heat released.

Only around 1-5 percent of incident light, or 2-10 percent of PAR, is actually caught by the photosynthetic process (gross primary production) under ideal climatic conditions, and the rest is dissipated. Because the simultaneous respiratory activities consume energy and consume a portion of the photosynthetic gain, the net energy capture (net primary productivity) is reduced to just 0.8-4 percent of incoming total light, or 1.6-8 percent of PAR. Other trophic levels can only use the energy captured in producer net productivity.

(A) Food Chain: The transfer of food energy from the producers, through a series .of organisms with repeated eating and being eaten, is known as food chain. A food chain is a linear nutritional sequence of organisms through which nutrients and energy pass as one organism eats another. A food chain consists of producers (green plants), consumers (animals and man) and decomposers (microorganisms).

The producers, consumers and decomposers form various steps of food chain. These various step of food chain are called trophic level. Owing to eating and being eaten, the energy is transferred from one trophic level to another level. This transfer of energy from one trophic level to another is called energy flow. Thus, food chain is a kind of series of different organisms through which flow of energy take place in the ecosystem. Food chain represents the structure and functioning of energy. If food chain is shorter, it ensures greater availability of energy, while food chain is longer; more energy is dispersed as heat.

Types of Food Chain

The food chains are of two types, namely grazing food chain and detritus food chain.

(i) Grazing food chain: It type of food chain, starts from the living green plants, which are producers. The

producers are grazed by herbivorous animals which are further eaten by carnivores. Ecosystems with such type of food chain are directly dependent on an influx of solar radiation and the movement of this captured energy to herbivores. Most of the ecosystems (terrestrial and aquatic) in nature follow this type of food chain. The examples, of grazing food chain are:

Aquatic Ecosystem

The phytoplanktons → zooplanktons → Fish → Snakes

Terrestrial Ecosystem

(i) Grasses → rabbit → Fox → Lion
(ii) Grasses → Grasshopper → Lizard → Hawk
(iii) Plants → Mouse → Snake → Hawk
(iv) Plants → Goat → Fox → Lion

(ii) ***Detritus food chain:*** Disintegrated dead bodies of plants is called detritus. The detritus is eaten by many minuteorganisms called detrivores.This food chain starts from the dead organic matter or other such wastes; further, this material is eaten by the animal and later this animal gets eaten by another animal in the soil. The chain keeps on going untilthe organic matter is decomposed by microbes. The food chain helps in fixing inorganic nutrients. Such ecosystems are thus less dependent on direct solar energy. These depend chiefly on the influx of organic matter produced in another system. A large amount of energy flows through the detritus food chain and it ensures maximum utilization and minimum wastage of the available material.

The organisms of the detritus food chain include members of many different species of animals and plants,

such as algae, bacteria, slime molds, fungi, protozoa, insects, mites, crustaceans, centipedes, mollusks, worms, sea cucumbers and even some vertebrates.

(i) Dead plants - centipede - robin

(ii) Decayed plants - worms - birds -eagle

(iii) Leaves –caterpillar - birds - snake

(B) ***Food Web:*** In an ecosystem the various food chains are interconnected with each other to form a network called food web. The interlocking of many food chains is called food web. There are many food chains in an ecosystem but simple food chains are very rare in nature. This is because each organism may obtain food from more than one trophic level. In other words, one organism forms food for more than one organism of the higher trophic level. Green plants areeaten up by several types of herbivores (birds, insects and mammals). Herbivores may be consumed by different predators (carnivores). This results in the formation of interlocking pattern of foodchains, which is called food web. Food web represents feeding relationships within a community.

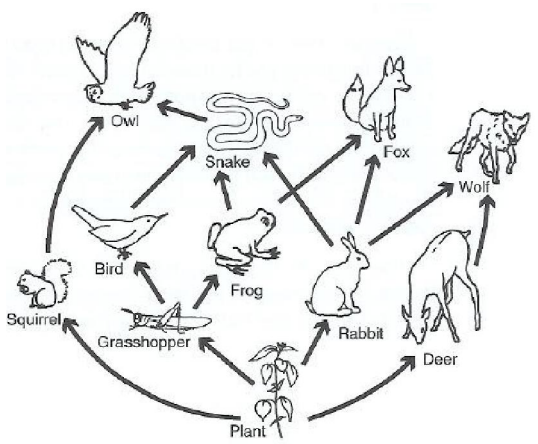


Fig: Food Web

2.8 Ecological Pyramids

At different trophic levels, standing crop (either number of individuals or biomass) or energy fixed per unit area can be used to depict trophic structure. The trophic structure is graphically represented by creating ecological pyramids, with the bottom, middle, and top tiers displaying the parameter values for producers, herbivores, and predators in the ecosystem. The number of individuals (pyramid of numbers), dry weight (pyramid of biomass), or rate of energy flow (pyramid of energy) at successive trophic levels are all common criteria used to build ecological pyramids.

The number and biomass pyramids in most ecosystems are upright, meaning that producers outnumber and exceed herbivores, while herbivores outnumber and outweigh carnivores. However, in some ecosystems, the number pyramid (for example, in tree-dominated ecosystems) and the biomass pyramid (for example, in deep water bodies) may appear inverted. Many little insects can be found on a single tree, and in oceans, the total weight of many small short-lived phytoplankton creatures is often exceeded by the combined weight of massive, long-lived fish at any particular time. The energy pyramid, on the other hand, is always erect. The energy pyramid, which indicates primarily the rate of food production, is the most reflective of the functional qualities among the three types of ecological pyramids. It emphasises that total energy flow at each trophic level constantly declines when compared to the previous trophic level (explanation: herbivore trophic level has lower energy flow than producer trophic level, and so on).

2.9 Major Biomes

The life form of the climax vegetation clearly distinguishes the regional biotic units, or biomes. However, the biome comprises all linked developing and modified

communities that occur within the same climatic region, in addition to the climax community. Within a wide area of mature forest, for example, a forest biome may comprise young successional forests and open grass-dominated regions.

Forest, grassland/savanna, and desert biomes have different ecological characteristics.

(A) ***Forest Biomes:*** Forest biomes' typical vegetation is dominated by densely growing trees with a closed, or almost closed, canopy cover. A vast range of forest kinds can be found around the world, depending on the climate. In terms of structure, productivity, and nutrient cycling, forests in colder temperate zones differ from tropical forests. As one travels north from the equator to the arctic region in the northern hemisphere, one encounters successive belts of tropical, temperate deciduous, and temperate coniferous forest biomes. The tropical rain forest biome is found in warm, high-rainfall regions of the planet (near the equator) with abundant soil water throughout the year. The tropical deciduous forest biome, on the other hand, stretches to the further reaches of the tropics, with lower seasonal rainfall and year-round soil drought. The temperate forest biomes found in the mid-latitudes (40-60° N lat.) are divided into two groups, each dominated by broad-leaf deciduous or needle-leaf evergreen species. The climate in the temperate broad-leaf forest biome is warm and cool, but the climate in the temperate needle-leaf coniferous forest biome is frigid, with snow covering the ground for 5-6 months.

Major forest biomes in India are:

(i) Tropical rain forest biome;

(ii) Tropical deciduous forest biome;

(iii) Temperate broad-leaf forest biome; and

(iv) Temperate needle-leaf or coniferous forest biome.

(i) ***Tropical Rain Forests:*** Tropical rain forests are sparsely scattered in India, primarily near the Western Ghats and in the north-eastern Himalayas. The most frequent tree species in Indian rain forests are Dipterocarpus and Hopea. A typical tropical rain forest in the Western Ghats is seen in Figure 18.8. These evergreen tropical rain forests, which have the highest standing crop biomass of any biome, have a canopy structure of 30-40 metres tall, with 4-5 layers formed by different plant species. Some of the main trees have an umbrella-like canopy that extends above the forest's broad canopy. Buttresses (swollen stem bases), big leaves with drip tips, and year-round leaf fall are all features of many tree species. In these woodlands, woody climbers and epiphytes abound. Rainforest soils are extensively leached and have a low base concentration. In rain forests, large amounts of nutrients are stored in tall plants, whereas soil nutrient storage is limited.

(ii) ***Tropical Deciduous Forests:*** Tropical deciduous forests can be found in plains and low hilly areas throughout our country's northern and southern regions. The deciduous woodlands give way to thorn forests as you travel northwest. Figure 18.9 depicts a view of a tropical deciduous forest. In deciduous forests, sal (*Shorea robusta*) and teak (*Tectona grandis*) are the most common tree species. Tendu (*Diospyros melanoxylon*), chiraunji (*Buchanania lanzan*), and khair (*Acacia catechu*) are other

valuable species. These forests are low in stature (10-20 m) and have a variety of seasonal characteristics. The woodland is rich green with dense vegetation and a thick herbaceous cover during the rainy season. However, most tree species lose their leaves before summer arrives, leaving the forest mostly leafless and the herbaceous layer dried out. Many tree species have thick barks that provide protection against fires. Because of less leaching, the soil in deciduous forests is richer in nutrients.

(iii) ***Temperate Broad-leaf Forests:*** In the western Himalaya, temperate broad-leaf forests are mostly found between 1500 and 2400 metres above sea level. In temperate broad-leaf woods, several species of oak (Quercus) predominate. Banj oak (*Quercus leucotrichophora*), khrsn oak (*Quercus semecarpifolia*), tilonaj oak (*Quercus floribunda*), and rianj oak are among them (*Q. lanuginose*). In the Himalayan region, all oak species are evergreen. The leaf fall of Himalayan evergreen oaks peaks in the summer, although they never get leafless. These four layer forests are between 25 and 30 metres tall. The forest canopy is dense, the herbaceous layer is underdeveloped, and grasses are scarce. Epiphytic flora is abundant in oak woodlands.

(iv) ***Temperate Needle-leaf or Coniferous Forests:*** The temperate needle-leaf coniferous woods of the Himalaya range in altitude from 1700 to 3000 metres. Pine (*Pinus wallichiana*), deodar (*Cedrus deodara*), cypress (*Cupressus torulosa*), spruce (*Picea smithiana*), and silver fir (*Picea smithiana*) are among the economically

valuable gymnospermous trees found in temperate needle-leaf or coniferous forests (Abies pindrow). Coniferous forests are taller (30-35 m) and have a canopy of long needle-like leaves that are evergreen. Needles leaves may persist on the canopy for 2-7 years in different species, ensuring that the canopy is always green. The canopy of several species is fashioned like a cone.

(B) Grassland and Savanna Biomes

(i) Grassland: Treeless herbaceous plant cover dominates grassland environments, which are dominated by a large diversity of grass species (family, Poaceae). Several herbaceous dicotyledonous species, particularly legumes, are associated with grasses and play a key role in nitrogen economy. The enormous "prairie" in North America and the "Steppe" in Russia are two of the most well-known grassland biomes. The rainfall in grasslands is too low to support a forest, yet it is far more than in deserts.

Grazing by big herbivores and fire are important factors in sustaining grassland dominance and preventing the invasion of woody plants. Grasse are classified as sod-formers or bunch grasses based on their morphology. Sod-formers generate a solid mat of grass cover, whereas bunch grasses grow in discrete bunches. The height of grassland vegetation varies greatly, ranging from a few centimeters in arid areas to over one and a half meters in humid areas. The shoot biomass can range from roughly 50 to 1000 g m^{-2} depending on the height range. The most striking feature of grassland structure is its

enormous root system, which extends deep into the soil strata. The amount of rainfall has a direct relationship with primary productivity in grassland.

(ii) ***Savanna:*** A well-developed grass cover, mixed with scattered shrubs or small trees, is commonly referred to as a savanna. Woody species can grow to be anywhere between 1 and 8 meters tall. Savannas can be found in central and southern Africa, India, northern and eastern South Africa, and northern Australia. Although some savannas are natural, the majority are man-made. All savannas in India are thought to have evolved from the deterioration of original tropical forests, and have been maintained in their current state for generations through grazing and fire.

Dichanthium, Sehima, Phragmites, Saccharum, Cenchrus, Imperata, and Lasiurus are the most common grasses in Indian savannas. In most cases, the woody species in a savanna are remnants of the original forest from which the savanna evolved. Prosopis, Zizyphus, Capparis, Acacia, Butea, and other savanna trees and shrubs include Prosopis, Zizyphus, Capparis, Acacia, Butea, and others.

Savannas are found in tropical places with a climate that is extremely seasonal, with distinct wet and dry seasons. The species composition and productivity of savannas are determined by the availability of soil moisture. Fire, soil nutrients, and herbivores can all influence the effect of soil moisture change. The quantity of grass species capable of C4 photosynthetic capability is an important feature of tropical savannas. As you may be aware, these species can maintain high levels of primary productivity even when soil moisture is scarce. Although grasses have a well-developed root system in the upper 30 cm soil strata, woody plants typically send their roots deeper.

(C) ***Desert Biome:*** Moisture scarcity has been present in the desert ecosystem for a long time. True deserts, with less than 120 mm annual rainfall, and extreme deserts, with less than 70 mm yr–1 rainfall, are two types of deserts. Deserts are divided into two types based on their temperature: hot deserts and cold deserts. Nonetheless, evaporation from the soil always exceeds rainfall by 7 to 50 times in desert biomes. In both the northern and southern hemispheres, the majority of deserts are found between 15° and 35° latitudes, between the Tropics of Cancer and Capricorn. The majority of deserts have hot or hotter days and chilly nights. Deserts have low amounts of biomass and primary productivity.

Three life forms dominate the desert vegetation: I ephemeral annual herbs that grow only when enough moisture is available, (ii) typical succulent xerophytes like cacti that store water, and (iii) shrubs and small trees like Prosopis, Salvadora, and Tamarix, which have deep tap roots that can reach the water table. Cenchrus is a desert grass that grows in abundance. Tall succulents, primarily cactus, can be seen projecting above the general canopy in some deserts.

3

Phytosociology (Community Ecology)

3.1 Introduction

All living organisms of an ecosystem form a single biotic component-the **community.** All the organisms of a community live together share some habitat and influence each other's life directly or indirectly. Various vital life processes such as growth, nutrition, reproduction and distribution depends very much upon the interactions between the individuals of the same species (**intra-specific interactions**) or between those of different species (**inter-specific interactions**). Pollination, fruit and seed dispersal, symbiosis, grazing, predation, parasitism, competition, etc. are some examples of inter-specific interactions.

Definition

Community ecology deals with the ecology of the groups of different kinds of populations in the area. The study of plant community is known as **phytosociology.**

The structural characteristics of a plant community can be divided into **qualitative** and **quantitative,** which can be directly observed in the field.

3.2 Qualitative Characters

The major qualitative characters of a plant community are as follows,

(i) ***Physiognomy (external appearance):*** Physiognomy is the general appearance of the plant community, which is determined by the growth forms of dominant plant species. It does not emphasize any particular species or individual. Cain and Castro (1959) defined physiognomy as 'the form and structure of vegetation that results from the life form of dominant species'. Such a characteristics appearance can be expressed by single term, e.g. the term forest, grassland, desert describe the physiognomy of various communities.

(ii) ***Phenology:*** Phenology is the scientific study of seasonal change, i.e. the periodic phenomenon of organisms in relation to their climate. Different species have different periods of seed germination, vegetative growth, flowering & fruiting, leaf fall, seed & fruit dispersal, death, etc. Such data of individual species are recorded. A study of date and time of these events is phenology. In other words, phenology is the calendar of events in the life history of plant. Thus the phenology of different species may differ from each other and in a community we find species with different phenology changing the composition of community.

(ii) ***Periodicity:*** This includes the study of various vital processes such as photosynthesis, growth, pollination, reproductive process, development of leaves, flowers, germination of shoots and elongation of shoots in the various seasons of the year in the dominant species of a community. This entire phenomenon depends upon the inheritance and various physiological and environmental factors

operating upon a particular species. Thus periodicity refers to the regular seasonal occurrence of various processes and their manifestation in nature.

(iv) ***Aspection:*** Aspection refers to the appearance of the community as a whole at different seasons, as its appearance in rainy season, summer, spring or winter season.

(v) ***Stratification:*** It has been observed in natural forest community that the trees, shrubs and herbs appear to be differentiated into several storeys, layers or strata. There appear to be well defined strata for the tallest trees, which tend to stand singly or in groups above more or less continued canopy, below this may be successively small trees, shrubs and herbaceous layers. These several strata are composed each of a separate group of species. This phenomenon in a forest community is called as **stratification** (vertical stratification).

Stratification in a forest community is the most complicated where as many as five vertical strata may be recognized. These are as follows,

(a) ***Subterranean strata:*** It is the portion of forest soil in which roots of large and small trees penetrates for anchorage and also for obtaining minerals and water from soil. This stratum is rich in humus with roots of plants, soil fungus, bacteria, protozoan, etc.

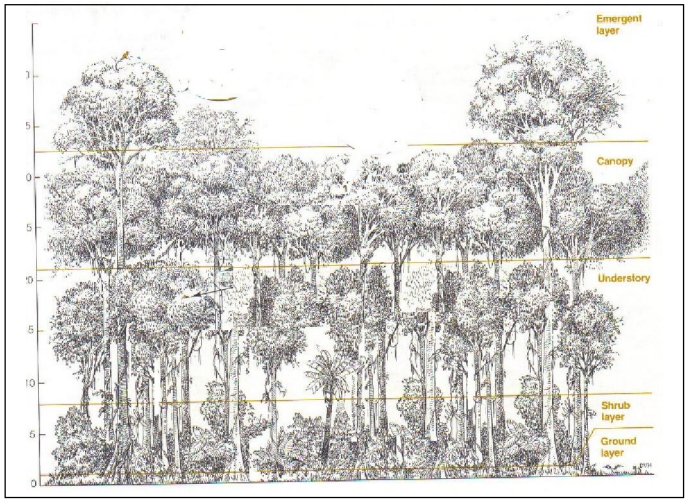
(b) ***Ground strata or forest floor:*** It is forest floor, which consist of dead organic matter. This is a region of decomposition, because many decomposers like fungi, bacteria are present, which decomposes fallen or dead parts of plants and animals and thus decaying occurs.

(c) ***Herbaceous strata:*** It consists of upper portion of grasses and herbs.

(d) ***Shrub strata:*** It consists of shrubs and small trees.

(e) ***Tree strata:*** It consists of the over canopy strata of tall trees.

Various plants in each stratum are adapted to that particular set of local conditions and plants of one layer modify the environment, which is suitable for species in another layer of the community. Thus stratification is the result of interdependencies of species, as for example, lianas and epiphytes grow on other plants.



3.3 Quantitative Characters

These include characters such as density, abundance and frequency.

(i) ***Density:*** Density represents the numerical strength of a species in a community or it isthe number of individuals of a species per unit area per unit time. The density of various species in a community varies in time and space and it affects the community structure. Density gives an idea of competition. If

density is more, it means that there is more degree of competition between the individuals of same species. It is calculated as follows.

$$\text{Density} = \frac{\text{Total number of individuals of a species in all the sampling unit}}{\text{Total number of sampling units studied}}$$

(ii) ***Abundance:*** This is the study of number of individuals of any species per sampling units of occurrence. It can be calculated as follows.

$$\text{Abundance} = \frac{\text{Total number of individuals of a species in all the sampling unit}}{\text{Total number of sampling units in which species occur}}$$

Abundance does not give a total picture or idea of the numerical strength of the species in an area, because only the sampling units of occurrence are taken into consideration.

(ii) ***Frequency:*** Frequency is expressed as the percentage occurrence of individuals of a species in a number of sampling units or observations. Frequency can be defined as the chance or probability of individual of a species to be present in random observations, e.g. if a species occurs in a 5 sampling units out of total 20 sampling units studied, then it's frequency is 25% and it is called as percentage frequency. It gives an idea of the pattern of distribution of a species in a community. Frequency can be calculated as follows,

$$\%\ \text{Frequency} = \frac{\text{Total number of sampling units in which species occur}}{\text{Total number of sampling units studied}} \times 100$$

3.4 Raunkiaer's Frequency Law and Frequency Diagram

After determining the percentage frequency of various species recorded, these are distributed among Raunkiaer's (1934) five frequency classes A, B, C, D and E depending upon their percentage frequency as follows.

% Frequency	Frequency class
0%-20%	A
21%-40%	B
41%-60%	C
61%-80%	D
81%-100%	E

Raunkiaer further proposed a '**Law of frequency**', which states that 'the percentage of species falling under five classes of frequency will be in order

$$A > B > C \leq D < E$$

On the basis of the average of a very large number of observations, Raunkiaer prepared a **'normal frequency diagram'** in which class A includes 53% species, class B includes 14%, class C includes 9%, class D includes 8% and class E includes 16% of the total species. Frequency distribution also varies greatly with the species diversity.

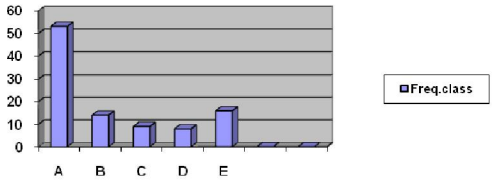


Chart: Raunkier's normal frequency diagram-Histogram showing % of species falling under each frequency class.

4

Environmental Productivity

4.1 Introduction and Concept

Great importance is being led on researches concerning the rate of storage energy by green plants in diverse ecosystems. It is a well-known fact that the ultimate source of all energy needed by the organisms is the sun and only the photosynthetic organisms are capable of trapping solar energy. The demand of ever increasing population on food resources is tremendous. In the process of meeting this demand most of the ecosystems are at present influenced or maintained by man. Production ecology deals with production process and productivity by green plants, herbivores and carnivores in different ecosystems. This type of study is of fundamental importance in the management of resources. The aim of the **International Biological Programme (IBP) & human welfare** is towards and extensive investigation of productivity of terrestrial, fresh water and marine ecosystems and their conservation on global basis.

4.2 Gross and Net Productivity

The productivity of an ecosystem is the rate at which solar energy is fixed by the vegetation of an ecosystem. The energy is generally measured in terms of units of energy (calories) produced in a unit area (usually one square meter) per unit time (one year). The productivity is variable in different ecosystems.

All the energy that the plant actually fixes results in the formation of sugar. Conversely, all the sugar produced in the leaves of green plants is derived from CO_2 and H_2O, which have been combined by the solar energy. Thus energy incorporated into living tissue may be calculated either in terms of light energy utilized or in terms of sugar produced. Because all the energy used by the plants is converted into chemical energy, it should theoretically be possible to determine the entire energy uptake of plants by measuring the total amount of sugar produced. This quantity is termed **gross primary productivity** or **gross productivity.** The plants in respiration utilize a part of this gross production. The difference between the rate of real photosynthesis and the rate of respiration represents the real gain to the plant. So if we measure the total organic material actually present in the plant (i.e. biomass0 then indirectly we will measure gross primary production less the respiration and this is called **net primary production** or **primary production**. This is also equal to the apparent rate of photosynthesis and represents the food energy that is theoretically available to the heterotrophic components of the ecosystem through the primary consumers, i.e. herbivores. The gross production can also be expressed as,

$$Pg = Pn + R$$

Where Pg = gross productivity

Pn = net productivity

R = respiration or energy to do the work

If gross production equals respiration (Pg = R) no change in energy contents results. But when Pg is less than R (Pg < R) biomass decreases and when Pg is greater than R (Pg >R), there is an accumulation of biomass.

Primary and Secondary Productivity

(i) ***Primary productivity:*** The amounts of photosynthates produced by green plants are called as **primary productivity** or **primary production.** It is associated with the producers which are autotrophic, most of which are photosynthetic. These are the green plants, higher plants, phytoplanktons and photosynthetic bacteria. It can be defined as 'the rate at which radiant energy is stored by photosynthetic activity of producers'. Primary productivity is further distinguished as,

(a) ***Gross primary productivity:*** It is the total rate of photosynthesis including the organic matter used up in respiration during the measurement period (i.e. Pg= Pn + R)

(b) ***Net primary productivity:*** It is the rate of storage of organic matter in plant tissues excess of the respiratory utilization by plants during measurement period, (i.e. Pn = Pg + R).

(ii) ***Secondary productivity:*** It refers to the consumers or heterotrophs. The potential energy resulting from primary production furnishes the energy required by other trophic levels in an ecosystem. Some energy in the form of food is consumed by herbivores, which may be eaten by carnivores. So the rates of energy storage at consumer levels are referred to as **secondary productivities**. The unassimilated material leaves the animals body as waste material to serve as an energy source for other organisms (detritus feeders or saprotrophs). Assimilated

energy is used by these consumer these species for various processes such as respiration, excretion and secretion. The resultant amounts of energy stored in the tissues of heterotrophs is termed **net secondary production.** The **gross secondary production** is equivalent to the total plant material ingested by the herbivore less the material lost at faeces, i.e. it is the food that actually passes through the walls of the gut.

Thus the heterotrophic organisms at each step of food chain acts both, as consumer and secondary producer for the next trophic level till the top carnivore level is reached. Among the heterotrophs it is the net and not the gross productivity that is of importance.

4.3 Energy Flow in an Ecosystem (Box and Pipe Model)

Green plants are the only organisms which fix light energy in the form of food energy. Without them the light energy is converted into heat energy and cannot be used by the living organisms as such. The life of all heterotrophic organisms depends on the energy entrapped by green plants in their food molecules. That is why the green plants are called as primary producers.

The fixation of solar energy by the photosynthetic plants and it's utilization in the form of food by the living organism obey the two fundamental laws of thermodynamics. According to the first law, *energy cannot be created or destroyed but may be transformed from one form into another form* (e.g. light energy into food energy). According to the second law, *energy transformation is accompanied by a simultaneous degradation of energy from a concentrated form into a dispersed form.* In other words, some energy is losses as heat energy during transformation of energy. On this account no transformation can be 100 percent efficient.

The principle of food chain and the working of the two laws of the thermodynamics can be explained by means of energy flow diagram, commonly known as **Box and Pipe Model** proposed by **E. P. Odum** in 1963. In this model boxes represents the trophic level and pipes represents the energy flow in and out of each level.

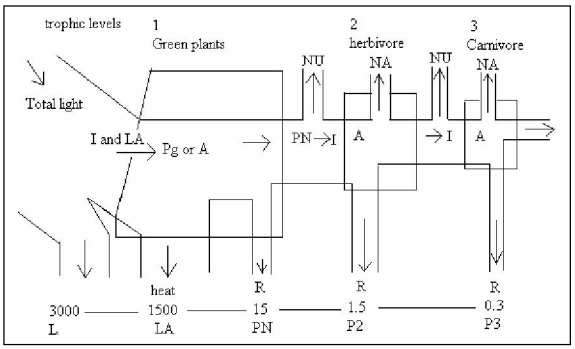
Green plants absorb about 65% of total light that falls on the earth. Out of this less than half is absorbed by the chloroplasts, the rest is reflected from the leaf surface or pass out through it and is lost. Photosynthesis fixes in the form of food energy only about one percent of the total light that impinges on the green plant. At each step in the food chain when food energy is transformed from one trophic level to the higher trophic level, a major part of energy, about 90%, is lost as heat and only about 10% is passing onto the next level of consumer. Let us consider that total energy reaches on the green plant (L) per meter square per day are 3000Kcalories. Out of this the energy absorbed by the green plants (L_A) will be about 1500 Kcal. (I.e. 50% of incident light). Out of this the net amount of energy fixed in the photosynthetic process will be 15 Kcal. (1% of absorbed light). The rest is lost as heat in the process of transformation of light energy into the potential energy of food according to the second law of thermodynamics. This 15 K cal represents net primary production (P_N) at the first trophic level. A part of this energy is passed onto the herbivores in the form of food; the rest is retained by the primary producers for their own use. Only about 1.5 K cal (10% of P_N) will be incorporated as net food energy by the second trophic level (P_2). Again about 0.3 K cal (20% of P_2) will incorporate as the net food energy by the third trophic level (P_3) i.e. at secondary consumer level and so on.

$$\begin{array}{ccccccccc} L & \longrightarrow & L_A & \longrightarrow & P_N & \longrightarrow & P_2 & \longrightarrow & P_3 \text{ so on} \\ 3000 & & 1500 & & 15 & & 1.5 & & 0.3 \end{array}$$

K cal/m^2/day

This means that as we move farther and farther from the primary producers. The energy available to the animals of successive food levels goes on progressively decreasing.

As food energy travels from one trophic level to the next in an ecosystem, the energy lost as heat at various trophic levels of transfer does not return to the organism. Similarly the food energy used up by an organism in the respiration is no longer available to it. The organism must obtain fresh supply of energy for it's use. This means that the energy does not circulate in the living component of the ecosystem, but flows through the ecosystem as a one-way traffic. This one-way flow of energy is a universal phenomenon in all ecosystems as in accordance with the second law of thermodynamics.



A simplified energy flow diagram (Box & Pipe Model) showing three trophic levels (boxes number 1, 2 & 3) in a linear food chain and pipes represents the flow of energy through biotic community

I = Total energy input
L_A = Light absorbed by plants
P_G = Gross primary production
A = Total assimilation
P_N = net primary productivity
P = Net secondary (consumer) production

NU = Energy not used (stored or exposed)
NA = Energy not assimilated by consumer (egested)
R = Respiratory energy loss

The bottom line shows the order of magnitude of energy losses expected at major transfer points starting with a solar input of 3000 K cal/m^2/day.

5

Natural Resources and Their Conservation

5.1 Resources-Introduction

The term resource is a dynamic one because it's meaning changes with advancement of knowledge, society and technology. Anything or substance, which is useful to mankind, is a resource. In other words, a resource is a something, which is used by man to satisfy his needs and aspirations. The concept and meaning of resources changes with culture and technological changes. For example, new thoughts, ideas, beauty, intelligence, etc. have also become resources. We are concerned here with only natural resources and that too ecological resource.

Earlier it was thought that natural resources were those materials, which were of value to a particular human culture. Today, everything on the earth is useful or value to man and consequently a natural resource. The functioning of ecosystem including man's survival, happiness depends on availability, preservation and recycling of natural resources such as water, land, energy sources, etc.

Natural resources in themselves are not resources as they are inert unless human being uses them. Thus it is apparent that resources have functional relationship between man's abilities to explain substances and natural environment or natural ecosystem.

5.2 Types of Resources

Resources may be classified in several ways as follows.

(a) ***Continual utility:*** Some resources are exhausted soon where as others lasts for long period. Thus depending upon the availability of resources during our continuous use, a resource may be renewable (inexhaustible), non-renewable (exhaustible) or cyclic.

(i) ***Renewable resources:*** Resources which can renewed along with their exploitation are always available for use and such resources are called as renewable or inexhaustible resources. (i.e. continuous harvesting is possible upon proper planning and management.) e.g. forests. If trees are felled for wood, original forest cover may be maintained through planning new trees, i.e. afforestation. Crop plants, animals (cattle, fishes, etc.) are other examples of renewable resources.

(ii) ***Non-renewable resources:*** Formation of some resources like coal, mineral oils, iron ore (ore-solid naturally occurring mineral aggregate from which metal is extracted), gold, etc. has taken several thousand years. Once they are used in unlimited way, they cannot be easily replaced (or recovered/re-synthesis). Therefore if exploited at large scale they will deplete fast. Such resources are called as non-renewable (or exhaustible) resources.

(iii) ***Cyclic resources:*** These are special type of non-renewable resources which are not lost or worn out by the way we use them and can be reprocessed and used again and again, i.e. there is no final use as they can be used continuously. E.g. water and some metals. Water used in industry and domestic way can be cleaned and used again for similar or other purposes.

(b) ***Based on origin:*** On the basis of their origin resources may be biotic (organic) or abiotic (inorganic).

(i) ***Biotic resources:*** These are obtained from biosphere. Forests and forest products, crops, birds, animals, fishes and other life forms are examples of biotic resources. Coal and mineral oil also belong to this category since they originated from organic matter. Some biotic resources like forests and livestock are renewable where as coal and mineral oil are non-renewable.

(ii) ***Abiotic resources:*** Resources composed of non-living inorganic matter are called as abiotic resources. Land, water and minerals like Fe, Cu, Pb, gold, etc are abiotic resources. Some of the mineral resources are abundantly found (e.g. iron and bauxite), where as some are scare (e.g. gold, silver, platinum, uranium, etc). Some mineral resources are also renewable such as manganese.

(c) ***Based on utility:*** Energy resources have some utility and accordingly they are of following types.

(i) ***Food:*** Some resources like crop plants, forest plants; fishes, poultry, etc. are used as food.

(ii) ***Raw materials:*** Some resources like minerals and metals, forest plants (as raw material for

paper and pulp industry), crop plants (cotton-as raw material for textile industry) are used as raw materials for various industries.

(iii) ***Energy:*** Some resources like coal, mineral oils, water, wind, light, etc are used as to produce power or to run machines and automobiles. The resources which produce heat and power include fossil fuel (coal, mineral oil, and natural gas), atomic minerals (uranium, etc), geothermal energy, tidal energy, water energy and solar energy. Every resource is further divided into a renewable energy resource (tidal energy, water energy, wind energy and solar energy) and non-renewable energy resource (coal, mineral oil, natural gas, atomic energy, etc).

(iv) ***Agricultural and pastoral resources:*** These include both agricultural lands as well as agricultural products. Agricultural resources are also called as basic resources, because these resources meet the basic needs of human beings (food, clothing and shelter) and also provide fodder and solid food grains to the domesticated animals. Besides, agricultural resources also provide raw materials to agro-based industries. Pastoral resources includes food items and raw materials for textile, food wear, leather and food processing for various purposes, food items derived from pastoral resources include meat (pork, beef, mutton, lamb, chicken, etc.), milk, butter, cheese, etc. By products resources are hides, hairs, wool and bones.

5.3 Necessity of Conservation

This subject of applied ecology the special aspect of study, which is connected, with the welfare of human

conservation process remain chiefly concerned with the use, preservation and proper management of the natural resources of the earth, their protection from the destructive influences, decay, fire or waste.

5.4. Biodiversity

In any ecosystem no one organism live isolated. In every ecosystem there are many organisms live together and form the biotic component of an ecosystem.

Animals and plants are not spread evenly and uniformly over the earth. Sometimes the flora and fauna of one country is surprisingly similar to another, while sometimes it is markedly different. Climate has a great deal to do with the multiplication and distribution of various animals and plants on the earth.

A few places on the globe can be compared with the Indian subcontinent in shear natural beauty and wealth of diverse wild life. India is a naturalist's paradise. A remarkable wide spectrum of environments is found within its boundaries. The Indian region with a total area of 329 million hectors is very rich in biological diversity. India is one of the 12 centers of diversity and origin of several cultivated plants in the world. It is estimated that about 45,000 species of plants occur in India and about 5000 to 7500 species are endemic to India. The region is also rich in fauna containing about 65,000 species of animals including mammals (400 species), birds (1200 species), reptiles (350 species), fishes (2000 species) and more than 50,000 species of insects and others. Of these some such as black buck, golden langur, blue bull (nilgai), four-horhed ante pole (chausinga), Indian gazelle (chinkara), etc are unique to our country.

This richness in biological diversity is due to the immense variety of climatic and altitudal conditions coupled with varied ecological conditions. These vary from humid

tropical Western Ghats to the hot deserts of Rajasthan, from cold deserts of Ladakh and icy mountains of Himalayas to western coasts of Peninsular India.

Biological diversity includes two related concepts,

(i) Genetic diversity: This is amount of genetic variability among individuals of a single species and between species.

(ii) Ecological diversity (species richness): This is the number of species in a community of organisms.

Maintain both types of diversities is fundamental to functioning of ecosystem and hence to human welfare. Due to selective and excessive exploitation of a few selected species without proper management practices for their regeneration and due to destruction of certain natural ecosystem, there is a total extinction of a number of species. Once a species become extinct that combination of gene pool is permanently lost and man no more can recover it for use. Without fully realizing their potential use, through extinction we are rapidly loosing diverse genetic resources. Therefore conservation of such endangered plant and animal resources is all the more importance. From among the wild varieties a few have proved to be extremely useful, some are found to be such medicinal importance while some others are good as fodder.

One cannot imagine a situation if *Penicilluum* have been eliminated from the nature before mankind made use of it as an antibiotic, or if *Chinchona* become extinct before quinine was discovered as a cure for malaria. It is therefore in our own interest to conserve our own planet, animal and microbial wealth. There is a global realization about the urgent need to conserve the biological diversity.

5.5 Conservation

On geological time scale the evolution of new taxa and the extinction of the existing one is in somewhat balanced

proportion have been taking place. But in recent years human activities by ways of destruction of biota and natural habitats have accelerated the process of extinction to an alarmingly faster rate. But for a proper ecosystem balance the preservation of species richness is necessary. Hence for the preservation or conservation of diverse flora and fauna there is urgent necessity of creating endangered habitats like national parks, sanctuaries, biosphere reserves, botanical and zoological gardens.

***In situ* and *Ex-situ* conservation:** There are two main categories of conservation-*In situ* and *Ex-situ* conservation.

(i) ***In situ conservation:*** This is the conservation of genetic resources through their maintenance with natural or even human made (protected) ecosystems in which they occur. This is an ideal system for genetic resource conservation. This type includes a system of protected areas of different categories managed with different objectives to bring benefit to the society. National parks, sanctuaries, biosphere reserves, nature reserves, natural monuments, cultural landscapes, etc. belong to this type of conservation. Therefore *in situ* conservation is not practicable for domesticates.

(ii) ***Ex-situ conservation:*** This is the conservation outside their habitats by perpetuating sample populations in genetic resource centers, zoos, botanical gardens, culture collections or in the form of gene pools and gamete storage for fish, germplasm banks for seeds, pollen, semen, ova, cells, etc. Plant cells are most readily maintained than animals. In this type of conservation seed banks, botanical gardens, pollen storage, tissue culture and genetic engineering have been playing important role.

(a) ***Gene banks:*** Gene banks are the protected areas where valuable plants facing the danger of

extinction are grown. The vegetative parts and seeds of such plants are preserved.

(b) ***Collection and preservation of germ plasm material:*** Germplasm or genetic material is important because this forms the source of various useful traits. Characters useful in disease resistance, for example, are often found amongst the wild varieties of organisms.

Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO) helps in the conservation of germplasm. World Health Organization (WHO) is encouraging the protection of medicinal plants. World Bank (WB) also provides funds for similar projects of germplasm preservation. UNESCO has organized projects like Man and Biosphere (MAB) and Biosphere Reserve Program (BRP) in this connection.

5.6 Necessity of Conservation

This subject of applied ecology the special aspect of study, which is connected, with the welfare of human society. Now days the rate of increase in human population of the world has kept on increasing. The problem of space and food were met by cleaning land or undesirable organisms like trees, wild carnivores, etc. in favor of production of crop plants, domestication of cattle, poultry, and so on. The organism's environment balances are repeatedly being upset and many resources like soil, forests, lakes, etc. are getting depleted and vanished at rates faster than rebuilding process cam replenish. Thus present day man finds many valuable natural assets and resources, which were available yesterday, are not there today. Many cleared forests brought under plough or under industrialization may not remain useful land in future, if ecology of the system is not understood or ecological principles are disregarded.

There are numerous ways in which ecological knowledge can be applied for human welfare. The major aspects are the conservation of different types of ecosystems for yielding economical useful material over a long period at a fairly high rate.

Conservation has three basic aims, 1) to ensure the preservation of a quality environment that considers aesthetic and recreational as well as product needs, 2) to insure continuous yield of useful plants, animals and materials by establishing a balanced cycle of harvest and renewal, and 3) to preserve biological diversity. Thus conservation process remain chiefly concerned with the use, preservation and proper management of the natural resources of the earth, their protection from the destructive influences, decay, fire or waste.

6

Wild Life Management

6.1 Introduction

To a common man the term 'wildlife' means wild undomesticated animals living in their natural habitats as forests, deserts, grasslands, etc. However an ecologist includes both, naturally occurring animals (fauna) as well as plants (flora) in wildlife. Wildlife management remains chiefly concerned with the protection, preservation and judicious control of population of rare species of plants and animals in their natural habitats.

About 1/3rd of the world's land surface is covered with forest, which are ecosystems dominated by trees. Forests are the vast natural resources for man for fuel, timber, paper, fodder, water cycle and animal products. Forests recycle back the moisture into the atmosphere by transpiration. Wild animals are also of great importance for the balance of natural ecosystem. Most of the wild animals like lion, tiger, panther, wolf, etc. occupy top position in the food chain and they maintain the number of herbivore in the forest ecosystem. Most of the wild plants and animals are

having economic values, e.g. skins, hair, wool, meat, horns, etc of some animals.

But today's selfish activities of modern man are unrestricted. He has to been able to control the flora and fauna of his own sweet will. This has resulted in the upset of environmental balance. Because of indiscriminate deforestation by agricultural man for industrialization, for dam, mining, road, etc and also over hunting of wild animals, entire biotic community along with the physical environment has been disturbed. Many wild species of plants and animals have already become extinct and many other are facing the danger of extinction due to these various activities of man. In India about 12-15% of the land surface is actually under forest. About 5000 important wild plants are becoming extinct due to cutting of forests. According to **Red Data Book** of **International Union for Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources (IUCNNR)** about 245 species of animals (including 139 species of birds)have already become extinct and nearly 600 more species of animals and birds and 435 species of plants are going to be extinct if not protected and these species are called as endangered species.

6.2 Endangered Species

The animals and plants which face to the danger of extinction due to various unfavorable factors and also due to man's unprecedented interference in their natural habitat are called as endangered species. Some endangered plant and animal species from India are given below.

(i) ***Plants:*** *Arundina grammifloria, Vanda cocrulea, V. pumila, Dendrobium desiflorum* (all orchids), *Magnolia grifithi, Cyathea gigentia, Rouvolfia serpentina, Rhododendron species, Dioscorea delfoidea, Drosera indica, Nepenthes khasiana, Commifora wightii, C. mukul* (Guggul), *Santalum album, Saussurea lappa*

(Bramhakamal), *Gnetum ula, Osmunda regalis, Botrichium virgianum,* etc.

(ii) ***Animals:*** Hollock gibbon, wolf, Indian fox, Himalayan brown bear, tiger, Indian lion, leopard, one horned rhinoceros, Indian wild ass, wild pig, barasinga, alpine musk deer, black buck, chinkara, chousinga, Indian bison, Assam rabit, flying squirrels, Gangetic dolphin, whales, estuarine and marsh crocodiles, python, salamander and several birds and insects.

6.3 Wild Life Management in India

Due to continuous increase in the number of endangered species of flora and fauna of wild life, steps have been taken to protect and manage the wild life of the country. Non-governmental voluntary organizations as well as governmental organizations at central and state level have been set up to protect wild life.

Several measures have been adopted by the Union and State governments for the conservation and preservation of wild life in the country. These include enactment of laws, protection of endangered species and establishment of sanctuaries and national parks.India was probably the first country to enact **Wild Life Protection Act**. The Wild Birds and Animals Act was passed in 1887 and repealed in 1912. Forest Act XVI was enacted in 1927 aimed at the protection of game animals.

Indian Board of Wild Life (IBWL): The **Indian Board of Wild Life (IBWL)** was established in 1952 for the purpose of protection of wild animals and this was followed by setting up of **Wild Life Boards** in different states. In 1972 **New Wild Life Protection Act** was passed. Under this act i) possession, trapping, shooting of wild animals alive or dead, serving their meat in eating houses, their transport, export are all controlled and watched by special staff (e.g.

Chief Wild life Wardens and other authorized officers), ii) protection to endangered animal species & iii) graded protection to other wild animals according to their size of population. The establishment of **Wild Life Institute, Dehradun** (Uttaranchal), has been a success in wild life management.

Forest and wild life from an organizational viewpoint have been primarily under control of State governments. Recently it has given top priority and separate **Ministry of Environment and Forests** has been entrusted with the task of environmental protection. The **Department of Environment, Forest and Wild life** under this ministry has been set up with the view to have coordination between states and the center and speedy & faithful implementation of the steps to be taken in program of wild life management in the country.

6.4 Aims of Wild Life Management

Following are the aims of wild life management,

(a) Protection of natural habitats through controlled and limited exploitation of species.

(b) Maintenance of the viable number of species in protected areas.

(c) Establishment of biosphere reserves for animal and plant species.

(d) Protection through legislation.

Wild life can be preserved by,

(a) Improving the existing protected areas as National Parks and Sanctuaries.

(b) Imposing restriction on export of rare plant and animal species and their products.

(c) Educating public for environmental protection at all levels of education.

6.5 Non-Governmental Organizations (NGO's)

There are number of non-governmental voluntary national and international organizations actively dedicated to wild life conservation. The principle organizations are,

(i) ***Bombay Natural History Society:*** Founded in 1883.

(ii) ***Wild Life Preservation Society of India, Dehra Dun:*** founded in 1958.

(iii) ***World Wild Life Fund (WWF), India:*** The WWF, Indian National Appeal was launched in India in 1969 at the time of XIIth General Assembly of the IUCNNR, held at Delhi. WWF International was formed in 1961 with its head quarter at Glands, Switzerland. WWF, India has its head quarter in Mumbai. It has supported the well-known '**Project Tiger**'.

(iv) ***Indian Board for Wild Life (IBWL):*** This is the main advisory body to the Government of India. It was first constituted in 1952 as an advisory body under the name **Central Board for Wild Life**. Later it was renamed as **IBWL.** At its first meeting, the board made a recommendation for unified legislation for wild life conservation in India. **The Wild Life (Protection) Act** was enacted in 1972, which has been adopted by all states.

There is a central body for wild life preservation headed by the Director, Wild Life Preservation, Government of India. To assist the director in implementing the Wild Life (Protection) Act, 1972, there are four Regional Deputy Directors, one each at New Delhi, Mumbai, Kolkata and Chennai. They are responsible for implementation of the **Convention on the International Trade in Endangered Species (CITES)** and also assist the local officers in wild life protection and enforcement of regulation in trade and commerce in wild life including their import and export.

6.6 Protected Areas Network (Conservation of Bio-Diversity)

In situ conservation of wild life includes a comprehensive system of protected areas. There are different categories of protected areas, which are managed with different objectives for bringing benefits to the society. These includes 1) National Parks, 2) sanctuaries, 3) Biosphere Reserves, 4) Natural Monuments, 5) Cultural Landscapes, etc. These areas may vary considerably in size, design, purpose and effectiveness of management, but together forms a solid basis of conservation of Biological Diversity.

At the 15th meeting of the IBWL held on 1st October 1982, then Prime Minister, late Indira Gandhi gave a 12-point strategy for an Action Plan for Conservation of Wild Life in India. This included establishment of a network of scientifically managed protected areas including National Parks, Sanctuaries, Biosphere Reserves and other areas.

(i) ***National Parks:*** National parks are setup for preserving flora, fauna, landscapes and historic objects of an area. It is an area strictly reserved for the improvement of wild life. Activities like grazing, forestry and cultivation are not permitted. Private ownership or change in habitat is prohibited. The habitat is maintained for the development of a particular wild animal species such as tiger, lion, rhinoceros, etc. The boundaries of national parks are laid down by Government legislation. The Indias first national park is Hailey National Park, which is established in 1936. It is now known as Jim Corbett National Park and located in two hill districts Pauri and Nainital of Uttaranchal.

(ii) ***Sanctuaries:*** Sanctuaries are the places where killing or capturing of any wild animal is prohibited except under orders of the authorities concerned. They provide protection and optimum living

conditions to wild animals. These are the areas where only fauna is protected and harvesting of timber, collection of forest minor products and private ownership rights are permitted as long as these do not interfere with the project.

In India at present (June 1989) there are 67 National parks and 394 Sanctuaries with a total area of about 1,42,298 square km representing roughly 4% of the country's geographical area.

In Maharashtra there are 11 sanctuaries with total area about12, 868 square km and 5 National parks with total area about 72,173 square km.

Some important national parks and Sanctuaries in India are,

Maharashtra	:	Tadoba, Pench, Nawegaon, Bori, Dhakna, Karnala, Pal (Yawal), Aner, etc.
Assam	:	Kaziranga, Manas, etc.
Bihar	:	Hazaribagh, Palamau, etc.
Gujrat	:	Gir, Verawal, Nal-Sarovar, etc.
Kerala	:	Periyar
Tamil Nadu	:	Annamalai,
M. P.	:	Kanha, Shivpuri, Bandhavgarh, etc.
Goa	:	Mollen
Orissa	:	Chilka lake, Simlipal, etc.
Rajasthan	:	Bharatpur, Ghana, ranthambore, sariska, etc.
West Bengal	:	Sundarbans, Jaldapara, etc.

6.7 Biosphere Reserves

Reserves, which are large and diverse enough to protect whole set of ecosystem, which are either rare on a national or world basis, are often designated as Biosphere Reserves.

Biosphere Reserve Programme (BRP) was launched by UNESCO in 1971 under it's **Man and Biosphere (MAB) Programme.** The following are the objectives of BRP.

(a) To conserve representative sample of ecosystems.

(b) To promote and facilitate basic and applied research and monitoring.

(c) To provide opportunities for education and training.

(d) To promote appropriate sustainable managements of the living resources.

(e) To promote international co-operation.

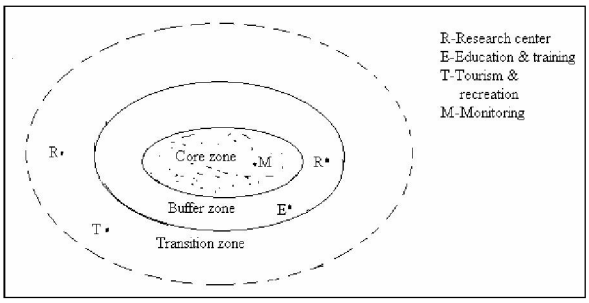
In brief we may say that the special feature of a Biosphere reserve is that it combines four major groups of objectives i.e. 1) conservation, 2) research, 3) education and 4) local involvement.

Biosphere reserves include natural, minimally disturbed, man-modified and degraded ecosystems. For management purposes the Biosphere Reserves are divided into following three zones.

(i) ***Core zone:*** It is strictly protected area according to well-defined conservative objective and consists of typical samples of natural or minimally disturbed ecosystems. In this zone no development will be permitted at all.

(ii) ***Buffer zone:*** The core area of the Biosphere Reserve is generally surrounded by buffer zone, which is strictly remarketed but can be used for regulated non-destructive activities such as research and education.

(iii) ***Transition zone (outer buffer zone):*** It is outer undemarketed outer buffer zone and can be used for the experimental research, general public for traditional use, recreation, rehabilitation and other functions of the Biosphere Reserves.



BRP is an excellent method of implementation of World Conservation Strategy. Indian MAB committee in 1979 has identified a network of the following 14 representative ecosystems to be protected as Biosphere reserves.

1. **Nilgiri Biosphere reserve:** It is the first biosphere reserve come into being in 1986, covering an area of 5520 sq. km. The state governments of Kerala, Karnataka and Tamil Nadu have been provided with funds for implementing different schemes for the reserve.
2. **Nanda Devi (Uttaranchal):** It is second biosphere reserve covering an area about 1560 sq.km. come into being in January1988.
3. **Nokrek (Thura range –Meghalaya):** he third reserve setup in 1988.
4. **Great Nicobar:** - Come into being in 1989.
5. Sundarbans (W. B.)
6. Gulf of Manar (T. N.)
7. Manas (Assam)
8. THar desert (Rajasthan)
9. Namdapha (Arunachal Pradesh)
10. Uttarakhand- Vally of flowers (Uttaranchal)
11. Little Rann of Kutch (Gujrat)
12. Kaziranga (Assam)
13. Kanha (M. P.)
14. North Islands of Andamans (Andaman)

7

Energy Conservation

Sources of Energy

Energy is an important requirement for the development. It aims at human welfare covering household, agriculture, transport and industrial complex. Energy available today comes from many renewable and non-renewable sources. Non-renewable sources (oil, natural gas, coal, etc) are slowly getting depleting due to their constant and continuous use over the years. These also cause pollution. Similarly renewable sources (biomass, water, etc.) are eco-friendly and are mostly biological in nature and include forestry, agriculture, animals, etc. These can reproduce itself in nature and we may harvest them continuously through a sustained proper planning and management. Now solar, wind, tidal, geothermal energies are also belongs to this category, since there are available in an inexhaustible form in the nature.

The energy utilization of human population has increased steadily from hunter-gatherers to agricultural man and industrial society (e.g. primitive man-2000 kcal/day, hunter-gatherers- 5,000, early agricultural-12,000, advanced agricultural man- 20,000, early industrial-60,000,

and modern industrial man- 1,25,000 to 2,30,000 Kcal/day). For example, early agricultural society depended entirely on the energy of the sunlight to grow food and energy of physical labor for it's cultivation and harvest. Domestic animals introduced later provided the greater physical strength to draw ploughs, pull carts to turn water wheels. The invention of electric motor and the internal combustion engine in the 19th century changed this orientation completely. These machines boosted the production by enabling man to do for more work and to cultivate and harvest greater acres and they also replaced draft animals with the result that modern agricultural operations become dependent on petroleum and electricity.

Energy utilization thus has become the modern key to human progress. At present time modern nations differ markedly in their energy consumption, with industrialized nations such as Europe, U.S.A. Japan, etc typically using 10 to 50 times as much energy per capita as agricultural and developing nations such as India, Bangladesh, Indonesia, etc. Higher energy consumption is often associated with higher gross national production and personal income per capita, but it is also associated with higher levels of industrial pollution.

7.2 Conventional and Non-conventional Energy Resources

I. ***Conventional Energy Resources:*** Human populations have become predominantly dependent upon physical resources of energies like fossil fuels (coal, mineral oil, and natural gas), fire wood, hydropower and nuclear power. Fossil fuels are available in nature only in limited amount and cannot be reproduced. These amounts for 90% of world' production of commercial energy. Fire wood, hydroelectric and nuclear power accounting only

10%. (Oil-39.5%, natural gas-19.6%, coal-30.3%, hydroelectric-6.7%, nuclear-3.9%, and fire wood in trace).

These are the conventional energy resources, which are used by man since 19th century. But reserves of coal and oil, the major sources of energy utilized at present are dwindling and are to exhaust one day. More over most of these sources causes more pollution problems and are not renewable.

II. ***Non-conventional Energy Resources:*** Countries all over the world have begun to think about a policy on energy and look into a possibility of having energy systems with no or very limited environmental impacts. The energy crisis has shown that for sustainable development in energy sector, we must conserve the non-renewable sources and also replace/supplement them by non-polluting renewable energy sources. The renewable ones are more or less pollution free, environmentally clean and socially relevant. These includes biomass based (urban wastes, agricultural wastes, animal & human wastes, etc) energy, solar energy, wind energy and tidal energy. These alternative energy sources have assumed importance in local areas, but they have not been developed adequately on a national or global basis. All of them have high potentials if properly developed.

Currently Indian scientists are trying hard to tap these non-polluting and cheap sources of energies like biogas, solar energy, tidal energy and wind power and are getting sustainable success in their efforts. In India **Department of Non-conventional Energy sources (DNES)** is actively involved in research and development activities for developing non-conventional know-how technologies.

Conventional Sources of Energy

(i) ***Coal:*** Natural coal is a solid formed in several stages as the remains of plants are subjected to intense heat and pressure over millions of years. It is mostly carbon with varying amounts of water and small amounts of nitrogen and sulphur. Coal with high sulphur and nitrogen content produces high emissions of sulphur dioxide (SO_2) and nitric oxide (NO) into the atmosphere when it is burned without adequate air pollution control devices. About 60-70% of coal extracted in the world is burned in boilers to produce steam and to generate electric power.

Based on known reserves coal is the most abundant conventional fossil fuel in the world and in the United States. Identified world coal reserves should last for about 250 years at 1984 usage rates and 80 years if usage rate increases by 2% a year. In India we have much coal deposits, but increased use of coal threatened rapid depletion of coal and it may no last for more than 200 years.

Advantages

In countries with adequate coal a supply, burning solid coal is the cheapest way to produce high temperature heat electricity compared to oil, natural gas and nuclear energy.

Disadvantages

Coal mining is a dirty and dangerous activity. It causes various health and environmental hazards. Underground mining of the coal is the second most hazardous occupation in the world (after commercial fishing) because of injuries and death from cave-ins and from explosions caused by a single spark igniting underground air laden with coal dust or methane gas. It causes **black lung disease (Emphysema)**, caused by breathing coal dust and other particulate matter over a long period to the miners. For the victims of this

emphysema even the slightest movement is difficult and death is slow and painful.

Without effective air pollution control devices burning coal emits SO_2, NO, CO_2, CO, particulate matter (mostly fly ash), cancer-causing substances and small amounts of radioactive materials naturally found in coal deposits. It also causes acid rain and soil pollution. This air pollution has many adverse effects on human health, animals and plants.

Release of CO_2 from burning of coal to produce energy is the most serious disadvantage of coal, but it is the cheap source of energy. At present there is no technological and economically feasible method for preventing this CO_2 from reaching the atmosphere.

(ii) ***Oil (Mineral Oil):*** A gooey (viscous or sticky), crude oil or petroleum is made up mostly hydrocarbon compounds (90-95% of it's weight) and small quantities compounds containing oxygen, sulphur and nitrogen. Typically deposits of crude oil and natural gas are trapped together deep underground beneath a dome of impermeable cap-rock and above a lower dome of sedimentary rock such as shale with a natural gas lying above the crude oil. Crude oil is also found beneath the sea floor.

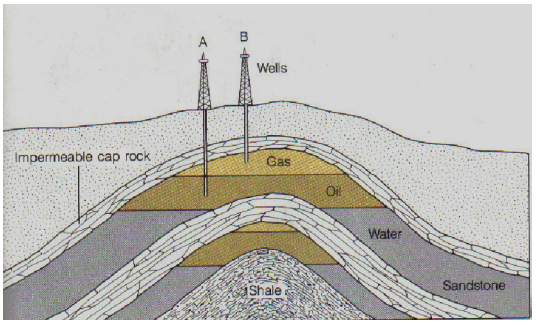


Fig: Section of Ground Showing Deposits of Oil and Natural Gas

These oils are removed from deposits through drilling wells (gushers) and pumping out. Once it is removed most crude oil is sent by pipeline to a refinery. There it is distilled to separate it into component chemicals, which boil at different temperatures and are removed from various levels of giant distillation columns.

Some of these chemicals known as petrochemicals are sent to petrochemical plants for use as raw materials in the manufacture of most industrial chemicals, fertilizers, pesticides, plastics, synthetic fibers, paints, medicines and number of other products.

A total amount of oil in the world is estimated to be about 4 trillion bbl (barrels, 1 bbl=42 gallons, 1gallon = 4.546liters), half of which is thought to be ultimately recoverable. Some 465 billion bbl of oil already have been consumed. In 2000 the reserves were roughly 650 billion bbl enough to last only for 30 years at the current consumption rate of 22 billion bbl per year.

Advantages of Oil

Oil has several important advantages that account for its widespread use. It has been and still is relatively cheap, can be transported easily within and between countries and is a versatile fuel that can be burned to propel vehicle, provide low temperature heating for water and high temperature heating for industrial process and production of electricity.

Disadvantages

Affordable supplies may be depleted within 40-80 years. It's burning releases CO_2, which could alter global climate and air pollutants such as SO_2, NO, and it's use can also cause water and soil pollution.

(iii) ***Natural Gas:*** In it's underground gaseous state natural gas consists of 50-90% methane (CH_4) gas and smaller amounts of heavier gaseous hydrocarbon

compounds such as propane (C_3H_8), and butane (C_4H_{10}). Although most natural gas used so far lies above deposits of crude oil, it is also found by itself in other underground deposits.

When natural gas deposit is trapped, propane and butane gases are liquefied as removed as **Liquefied Petroleum Gas (LPG)**, which is stored in pressurized tanks for use or can be served through pipeline.

The natural gas is the world's third largest commercial fuel (making up 23% of global energy consumption). The world's identified reserves of natural gas are projected to last until 2033 at current usage rates and to 2028 if usage rates increased by 2% a year.

Advantages

Two major advantages of conventional natural gas are it's ability to burn hotter and cleaner than any other fossil fuel and it's relatively low price. It is also versatile fuel, is transported easily over land by pipeline. It produces only half as much CO_2 as an equivalent amount of coal and could help to reduce global warming.

Disadvantages

Natural gas is difficult, expensive and dangerous to transport by tanker or to store in large quantities.

(iv) ***Thermal Energy (Geothermal Energy):*** The earth's internal temperature can provide a useful energy source in some places. High pressure, high temperature steam fields exist below the earth surface. Around the edges of continental plates or where the earth's crust overlays magma (molten rock) pools close to the surface, this energy is expressed in terms of hot springs, geysers and fumaroles (crevices in or near volcano). Depending on the shape, heat content and access to ground water these sources produces dry steam (steam with

no water droplets), wet steam (steam with water droplets) or hot water. When these deposits are close enough to the earth's surface, well can be drilled to bring this dry steam, wet steam or hot water to the earth's surface to be used for space heating and to produce electricity or high temperature heat for industrial processes. Similarly the relative uniform temperature of the ground can be used to augment air conditioning in summer.

Currently about 20 countries (USA, Italy, Japan, New Zealand, Mexico, USSR, etc.) are tapping geothermal energy.

At present 350 geothermal springs have been located in India. Puga (Ladakh) geothermal area is a good site for power generation. A cold storage unit and 5mw power plant has been set at Manikaran (H. P.).

Advantages

Major advantage of geothermal energy includes 100-200 years supply of energy for areas near deposits, moderate cost and no emission of CO_2.

Disadvantages

Scarcity of easily accessible deposits and the fact that the energy cannot be used to power vehicles are two substantial disadvantages. Without pollution control it's use results in moderate to high air pollution from HS, ammonia and radioactive materials as well as moderate to high water pollution from dissolved solids (salinity) and run off of various toxic compounds of elements such as boron and mercury.

(v) ***Fire wood:*** Firewood have been a primary source of heating and cooking for thousands of year and in many of the poorer countries of the world, wood and other biomass fuel till provide up to 95% of all energy used 1500 million m^3 of firewood collected

in the world each year is about half of all wood harvested.

Wood chips, saw dust, wood residue and other plant materials are being used as fuel in industrial boilers in some countries.

About 40% of world population depends on firewood and charcoal as their primary source in less developed countries and so many peoples in low developed countries face a daily struggle to find enough fuel to cook their food. The problem is intensifying because rapidly growing populations in many developing countries create increasing demands for the firewood and charcoal from a diminishing (decreasing) supply.

Advantages

It is a cheap source of energy and pollution control equipment is easier to install and maintain in a central power plant than in individual home unit. Wood burning also contributes less to acid precipitation than doe's coal, because wood has little sulphur. Wood burns at lower temperature than coal; it also produces fewer nitrogen oxides. Burning wood is a renewable, crop does not produce any net increase in net CO_2, because all the carbon released by burning biomass was taken up from atmosphere when the biomass was grown.

Disadvantages

Inefficient and incomplete burning of wood in fireplaces and stoves produces smoke laden with fine ash and soot and hazardous amounts of CO and hydrocarbons. In valleys where inversion layers trap air pollutants, the effluents from wood fires can be a major source of air pollution and health risk.

(vi) ***Hydropower:*** falling water has been used as an important commercial renewable energy source. Now falling water generates 25% of world's electric

power. For large scale hydropower projects high dams are built across large rivers to create large reservoirs. The stored water is then allowed to flow at controlled rates, spinning turbines and producing electricity as it falls downwards to the river below dam. In small-scale project, a low dam with or without reservoir is built and natural water flow is issued to generate electricity. However electricity production can vary with seasonal changes in stream flow and under draught condition. In India substantial portion of this unexploited energy is located in the Himalayan region.

Advantages

It is a cheapest source of power generation. It is regenerative thus leading to conservation of fossil fuel. It has a moderate to high net useful energy yield and low operating and maintenance costs. There is no emission of CO_2 or other air pollutants during operation. Large dams provide some degree of flood control and a regulated flow of irrigation water for areas below the dam.

Disadvantages

Construction costs for large-scale systems are very high. Large projects flood large areas of land for reservoir and lead to decline in fishing below dam. Infrastructure development leads to deforestation and soil erosion and sediment water pollution near reservoir above the dam, reducing effective life of the reservoir.

(vii) ***Nuclear Power:*** This is of course a principle source of energy when the fossil fuel reserves are depleting very fast. A small amount of radioactive material can produce an enormous amount of energy. For instance one tone of Uranium^{235} (U^{235}) would provide as much energy as by three million tons of coal. Besides electricity atomic power is also used

as a fuel for marine vessels, heat generators for chemical and food processing plants and for spacecrafts.

A nuclear reactor is needed for the generation of atomic energy. The decay of fissionable matter produces enormous heat. This is used to make steam and channeled through a turbine connected to an electric generator.

There are more than 300 nuclear power plants in the world. In India **Nuclear Power Corporation (NPC)** is engaged with establishment of nuclear power plants. We are 7th in the world and at present there are six nuclear power plants in operation generating 1230 mV. These are Tarapur (M.S.), Kota (Rajasthan), Kalpakam (T.N.), Kakarapar (Gujrat), Karwar (Karnataka), and Narora (U.P.).

Advantages

Nuclear plant does not release CO_2, SO_2, NO_2, or particulate matter into the atmosphere. Water pollution and distruption land are low.

Disadvantages

Construction and operating costs are high. Large-scale accidents are unlikely; a combination of mechanical or human errors, sabotage (damage to equipments) or shipping accidents could again results in the release of deadly radioactive materials into the environment.

II. Non-conventional Sources of Energy:

(i) Solar energy: Solar energy is a perpetual resource that comes from an essentially inexhaustible source and thus will always be available on a human time-scale regardless of whether or how it is used. The sun is the giant nuclear furnace in space constantly bathing our planet with free energy supply. This enormous solar energy resource may be converted into other forms of energy through thermal or photovoltaic conversion route.

(a) ***Thermal Conversion:*** Thermal conversion uses a series of specially designed collectors to concentrate solar energy. A flat black surface sealed with a double layer of glass makes a good solar collector. It consist of a copper pipe attached to blackened metal base and covered with two layers of glass separated by an insulating layer of air encased in a aluminum frame. Radiant energy from the sun passes through the transparent glass cover is absorbed by blackened surface, transferred as heat to water and hot water is transferred to an insulated water storage system. Solar water heaters, solar air heater, solar cooker, solar dryers are some applications of thermal conversion.

(b) ***Photovoltaic Conversion:*** The earth's direct input solar energy can be converted by photovoltaic cells commonly called as **solar cells**, directly into electrical energy in one simple step and thus provides clean, versatile, renewable energy. A solar cell consists of a thin wafer of purified silicon to which trace amount of other substance (Cadmium sulphate, gallium arsenide, etc.) have been added so that wafer emits electrons and provide small amount of electrical current when struck by sunlight. Impurities incorporated into upper silicon crystal layer causes e^- to be released when solar radiation heats the cell. The released e^- move into lower layer creating shortage of e^- or +ve charge in upper layer and over supply or –ve charge in lower layer. The difference in charge creates an electric current in wire connecting the two layers.

Such cells are used for community lighting, radio, T.V. set, calculators, light house, off-shore platforms, installations in remote areas, communication, etc. Since 1958 solar cells have been used to power space satellite.

Because the amount of electricity produced by a single cell is very small, many cells must be wired together in a solar panel, which are wired together and mounted on a roof that struck the sun to produce electricity for the home. The resulting electricity is in the form of D.C. Excess energy produced during day light can be stored for use at night in long lasting rechargeable D.C. batteries. By using electronic inverter D.C. can be converted into A.C.

Advantages

It can be effectively replace the use of fossil fuel. They are reliable, quiet, having no moving parts, can be installed quickly, need little maintenance and should last 20-30 years. They are made from silicon, which is a most abundant element in the earth crust. They do not produce any pollution during operation and land disturbances are very low for roof-mounted systems.

Disadvantages

Present costs of solar systems are very high, but are projected to become competitive in 7-15 years. The net useful energy yield is moderate to low. Without effective control solar cell manufacturing produce water pollution from hazardous chemical wastes.

In India use of solar energy has wide scope because the country receives abundant sunshine nearly 250-300 days of useful sunshine in a year. DNES under **National Solar Photovoltaic Energy Demonstration Programme (NSPEDP)** installed a number of photovoltaic devices with a target of producing 1mV of electricity since 1980.

ii) Wind Energy: Man knows the energy in wind since historical times. Along with animal and waterpower, wind power has been used to drive ships, water pumps and to grind grains. Wind is abundant, clean, reliable, cost effective and benefits the community. Wind is plentiful and is act it's greater strength in coastal and mountainous areas. Windmills vary from small home sized units to large central

generator. New wind generators or windmills are recently developed. Wind turbines usually consist of blades that spins and a generator mounted on a tower (tower of 50 meters height and blades of 65 meters diameter could produce better results). These machines can produce electricity at reasonable costs for use by small communities and large utility companies in areas with average wind speed 25 to 40 km/hour.

The conditions are prevalent at number of places in Peninsular India, coastlines in Gujrat, Western Ghats and Central India. In India according to DNES the wind farms with a total capacity of 3.3mV have already been set up in Mandavi, 1.1 mV in Kutch, 550kV in Okha (all in Gujrat), 550kV in Deogarh (M.S.), etc. DNES has installed over 1000 wind pumps. Gujrat is the first state in the country to start using wind power.

Advantages

It is perpetual source of energy at favorable sites and large wind farms with low material requirements can be built within one year. The wind energy systems have a moderate net useful energy yield; do not emit CO_2 or other air pollutants during operations. It is useful in remote areas, helps in saving fossil fuel.

Disadvantages

It can only be used in areas with sufficient winds and requires back-up electricity from a utility company or from fairly expensive energy storage system when the wind dies down. Present system have moderate to high costs and operates at full capacity only about 25^ of the time because of variations in wind availability and speed.

(iii) ***Tidal energy:*** Another potential source of energy for producing electricity from flowing water is the daily oscillations of ocean water levels as a result of gravitational attraction amount the earth, moon and sun. Twice a day a large volume of water flows

in and out of inland bays or other bodies of water near the coast to produce high and low tides. If a bay has an opening narrow enough to be obstructed by a dam with gates that can be opened and closed, with mounted turbines in the structure, the incoming tide (high tide) flowing through the turbine generates power. When the tide shifts (low tide) the blades of turbines are reversed and as a result outgoing water may also produce the power.

In India tidal power potentials has been identified in Gulf of Kutch, Gulf of Cambay and Sundarbans.

Advantages

It is a free and renewable (perpetual) source of energy with low operating costs, moderate net useful energy yield, low air pollution, no addition of CO_2 and little land disturbance.

Disadvantages

It make only a small contribution towards electricity supply because of lack of sustainable sites, high construction costs, irregular output that varies daily, extensive sea water corrosion and possible storm damage to dam and power plant. It may also disturb coastal scenery and pleasure.

(iv) ***Biomass Based energy:*** Biomass fuel is organic plant matter produced by solar energy through the process of photosynthesis that can be burned directly as a solid fuel or converted to a more convenient gaseous or liquid biofuels by process such as distillation and pyrolysis (heating in absence of air). Thus biomass includes all new plant growth, residues and wastes wood, short rotation trees, herbaceous plants, fresh and marine water algae, aquatic plants, agricultural and forest residue (straw, husk, bagasse, corn cobs, bark, saw dust, wood shavings, roots, animal droppings and dung),

wastes (garbage, sewage, industrial refuse, etc). Biodegradable organic effluents from industries like canneries, sugar mills, slaughterhouses, meat packing plants, breweries, distilleries, etc are also include in this category.

Biomass mostly from the indirect burning of wood and animal wastes to heat building and cooking food provides 15% of the world's commercial energy.

Advantages

They can be used to provide a variety of solid, liquid and gaseous fuels for space heating, water heating, producing electricity and propelling vehicle. It is a renewable energy resource (as long as trees and plants are not harvested faster than they grow back). There is no net increase in CO_2 level in the atmosphere (as long as the rate of removal and burning of trees which release CO_2 and plants does not exceeds their rate of replenishment). Burning of biogas fuel adds much less SO_2 and NO to the atmosphere as compare to burning of coal.

Disadvantages

Without effective land use control and replanting, extensive removal of trees and plants can deplete soil, nutrients and cause excessive soil erosion, water pollution, flooding and loss of wild life habitat. Biomass resources also have high moisture contents (15-95%), which reduce their net useful energy. The added weight makes collection and transportation expensive.

Firewood, burning agricultural and urban wastes, alcohol from biomass, biogas and petrocrops are the categories of biomass-based energy.

7.3 Prospective Alternatives for Energy:

(i) ***Biogas:*** Where wood and other fuels are in short supply, people often dry and burn animal manure.

This may seen like logic of use of waste biomass but it can intensify food shortage in poorer countries by not putting this manure back on the land as organic fertilizer. Cows in India produce more than 800 million tons of dung per year, more than half of which is dried and burned in cooking fires. If that dung were applied to fields as fertilizer it could boost crop production of edible grain by 20 million tons per year, enough to feed about 40 million people.

When cow dung is burned in open fires more than 90% of the potential heat and most of the nutrients are lost. We can compare that to the efficiency of using dung to produce methane gas, an excellent fuel.

Methane (CH_4) gas, the main component of natural gas, is produced by anaerobic decomposition of any moist organic materials like organic plant and animal wastes and gas is used for heating and cooking. After the biogas has been removed the remaining solid residue can be used as fertilizer on food crop or in contaminated, on non-edible crops such as trees.

In India so much cow dung is available that can produce about 22,425 million m^3 of gas each year. It would also yield 206 million tons of organic manure every year that can replace 1.4 million tons of N_2, 1.3 million tons of P_2O_5 (phosphate) and 0.9 million tons of K_2O (potash). However this source of bioenergy is not being fully tapped. At present there are over 330,000 biogas plants, which will save 1200,000 tons of wood equivalent every year. About 75% of dung would be available for biogas. Biogas is composed of methane (CH_4) – 50-70%, CO_2 -30-40%, and other components (hydrogen, nitrogen and hydrogen sulphide – 10-20%). At 40% methane content caloric value is 3,214 Kcal/m^3, at 50% it is 4,429 Kcal/m^3, and at 55% it is 4,713 Kcal/m^3.

Methane is also being produced in some plants through anaerobic digestion of sludge produced at sewage treatment plant, municipal garbage and sewage, kitchen and garden scrab. Following are some useful substrates foe biogas production.

Animal waste-cattle dung, buffalo dung, goat/ship dung, Slaughterhouse dung.

Aquatic plants-*Eichhornia,* algae.

By-products/wastes-bagasse, bran, tobacco waste.

From agro industries-wastes from processing fruits and vegetables, oil cake, sugar manufacture, tea and coffee wastes.

Crop residue-crop stubble, straw, weeds, fodder, cotton and jute stick.

Forest residue-bark, branches, twigs, leaves.

Urban solid wastes-paper, domestic wastes, etc,

Industrial wastes sludge produced at sewage treatment.

Advantages

Biogas is an important solution to prevent energy crisis, especially in rural areas. This can replace kerosene oil used in village mainly for cooking and lighting. This is an environmentally clean technology. It can be stored and used efficiently as and when required. It can be used for different purposes other than the conventional use as fuel only. Organic residue produced during biogas production can be used as an excellent fertilizer. Methane produced by anaerobic digestion of municipal sewage treatment plants as a part of their treatment process can be used to generate electricity.

(ii) ***Petrocrops:*** Another approach to obtaining plentiful amounts of biomass fuel is to establish biomass energy plantations. The energy crops or plants producing hydrocarbons appear as one of the most suitable options. Earliest efforts to cultivate

hydrocarbon-producing plant were made by Italians in Ethiopia some 50 years ago. Since then the efforts to find out such plants is continuing all over the world. The most favored among all plants are the latex producing species mainly belonging to families Euphorbiaceae and Asclepiadaceae. The credit of attracting the attention towards the plants of Euphorbiaceae goes to Melvin Calvin, who is also known for his work on photosynthesis. Today many promising plants belonging to Anacardiaceae, Apocyanaceae, Asclepiadaceae, Compositae, Euphorbiaceae, Labiatae, Sapotaceae, Urticaceae, etc have been identified.

The best way to producing liquid fuels from plants is to extract low molecular weight oils (known as biocrude) and processing or upgrading them by using proper catalysts. There are many stages before liquid fuels can be obtained from these petrocrops, or the extract can be used directly.

Advantages

The unused wood plant residue could be converted to alcohol fuel. Such plants can be grown on arid and semiarid and currently unproductive land. Although lack of water might limit the amount produced.

Disadvantages

Energy plantations usually require heavy use of herbicides and pesticides, occupy large land area and compete with food crops for prime farmland. The economic feasibility of this approach has not been determined.

A systematic programme for the detection of petroleum plants is initiated in all the developed and developing countries. The Indian Institute of Petroleum, Dehra Dun has done excellent work in this area, particularly in hydro cracking of the crude product. The products obtained from

their latex biocrude were gases, naphtha, kerosene, gas oil, etc.

The xerophytic environment induces the higher production of waxes as an adaptation to preserve the precious water there. A laticiferous plants growing in the same area is having an added advantage of having waxes spread over the surface and polyterpenes distributed within. As a number of *Euphorbias* are found in arid and semiarid conditions, they are looked upon as the most potential sources of hydrocarbons the different species of *Euphorbias* (total 2000 species) are under the investigations. Following are some common petrocrops.

Calotropis procera, Capaeifera langsdortii, C. multijuga, Cryptostegia grandiflora, Euphorbia antisyphilitica, E. caudicifolia, E. lathyris (gasoline tree), *E. roylenca, E. tirucalli, Grindelia camphorum, G. squarrosus, Jatropha curcus* (ratnajyot), *Chrysanthamnus paniculatus, Hardwickia pinnata, Pedilanthus tithimaloides, Pittosporum resiniferum* (Petroleum nut), *Simondisa chinensis* (Jojoba), etc.

A petrocrop must be 1) fast growing, 2) highly adaptable to any environment, 3) easily cultivated, 4) have low harvesting costs, 5) high oil and hydrocarbon fractions. The presence of high quantities of fibre, protein and carbohydrates would increase their utility.

8

Environmental Pollution

8.1 Introduction

It is a fundamental right of every individual to be able to breathe fresh and pure air and to drink pure water. In case we are unable to enjoy these basic rights, it is our own fault individually or collectively. The human and farm animals excreta, pesticides, herbicides, automobile exhaust and industrial wastes unclean our environment. The smoke from domestic fires, exhaust gases from automobiles, smoke and fumes from factory chimneys pollute the air surrounding us. The trade waste and animal excreta pollute the water of rivers, lakes and wells, which are the main sources of drinking water for humans. Such polluted water causes diseases like cholera, typhoid, dysentery, etc. All these sources of air, water, soil, noise pollutions are the creations of man himself with the increase in civilization and because of an increasing expectation for higher living standards; more is made, used and thrown away. Man also has started polluting outer space. The rockets, missiles, spaceships and space laboratories are all polluting agents. If it appears, man

will destroy himself by his own devices. Science has provided us with many amenities, but on the other hand science has led to the discovery of formidable devices that will annihilate the entire universe in a minute.

Definition: Pollution is an undesirable change in the physical, chemical or biological characteristics of air, water and soil that may harmfully affect the life or create a potential health hazard of any living organism. OR

Pollution means the presence of different materials like solid substances, microorganisms, gases, etc. in the environment and these materials are harmful to human being and living organisms.

Any substance that causes pollution is called as **pollutant.** Air pollution, water pollution, soil pollution, noise pollution, radioactive pollution, thermal pollution, etc. are the types of pollutions.

8.2 Air Pollution

The atmosphere is a gaseous envelope, which surrounds the earth from all sides, and it is a mixture of several gases mainly nitrogen (78%), oxygen (20.95%), CO_2 (0.003%) and other gases in trace amounts. Air is very important for all types of life in the biosphere. Human life is not possible without air because man can live for a few days without water or for a few weeks without food but cannot survive even for a few minutes without air.

The air we breathe is never pure because some gases such as SO_2, H_2S, CO, emissions from volcanoes and swamps, windblown dusts, pollens from plants, etc. are continuously added to the air by the natural processes. Thus the air becomes polluted when it's natural composition is disturbed either by natural or man-made sources or by both.

Air pollution may be defined as 'when due to some natural processes or human activities the amount of solid wastes or concentration of gases other than O_2 increases in

air which normally has constant percentage of gases in it, so that the air becomes injurious to biological communities in general and human community in particular'.

Causes (sources) of Air Pollution: Air pollution results from gaseous emission from mainly industry, thermal power stations, automobiles, domestic consumptions, etc.

(i) ***Industrial waste or gases:*** There are number of industries which are the sources of air pollution. Petroleum refineries are the major sources of gaseous pollutants. The chief gases are SO_2 and NO_X. Exhaust gases comes out with smoke from the chimneys of factories. These gases contains particles of heavy metals such as Pb, Zn, Cu, al, Cd, etc as well as gases of CO, CO_2, SO_2, H_2S, HF, NO_X (NO_2- nitrogen oxide, NO- nitric oxide, N_2O– nitrous oxide, NO_3– nitrogen trioxide).

(ii) ***Thermal Power Stations:*** There are several power stations in India. The coal combustion of thermal power plants is several million tones. The chief pollutants released by the burning of the coal are fly ash, SO_2 and other gases and hydrocarbons.

(iii) ***Automobile and Transportation:*** The toxic vehicular exhaust is a source of considerable air pollution next only to thermal power plants. In all other major cities of the country about 800 to 1000 tones of pollutants are being emitted into the air daily, of which 50% comes from automobile exhaust. Vehicular exhaust account for 70% CO and others like hydrocarbons, oxides of nitrogen, SO_2 and other particulate matters.

(iv) ***Domestic sources:*** Domestic sources include pollutants emitted from the houses and offices in both rural and urban areas. The major domestic pollutants are smokes, burning of coal, firewood, cow-dung cakes, kerosene oil and liquefied gases.

(v) ***Other sources:*** Other sources of air pollution are minor in quantities, e.g. agriculture, which is responsible for pesticides, dust from agricultural practices, field burning. Nature also adds few pollutants such as pollens, hydrocarbons released by vegetation, dust from deserts, storms and volcanic activities.

Hazardous effects of air pollution: The effects of air pollution on the environment (both-biotic and abiotic components) may be grouped into following three categories.

I. Effects Human health: Following are the effects of air pollution on human health.

(i) Carbon monoxide is major pollutant and it combines with haemoglobine molecules of human blood much faster than oxygen (about 200 times) and cause suffocation in spite of the presence of sufficient amount of O_2 in the air.

(ii) Depletion of O_3 due to CFC's is expected to cause skin cancer mainly among white people because of increased exposure of human bodies to more u.v. solar radiations.

(iii) SO_2 originating from smog blocks the respiratory system of human bodies and cause deaths of human beings.

(iv) SO_2 also causes diseases of eyes, throat, and lungs. It also causes irritation of throat and nose.

(v) NO in high concentration in air causes respiratory problems, gum inflammation, internal bleeding, O_2 deficiency, pneumonia and lung cancer.

(vi) Numerous suspended particulate matter (SPM) emitted from factories and automobiles during

combustion of fossil fuel and from other industrial processes, such as lead, asbestos, zinc, copper, dusts, etc cause several deadly diseases in human bodies.

(vi) Sudden leakage of harmful and poisonous gases from chemical and gas plants pollute the air to such an extent that hundreds of people die within no time. E.g. **Bhopal Gas Strategy-**2/3 December 1984 is a burning example of one of the deadliest disaster caused by human negligence in the maintenance of deadly gases such as methyl iso-cynate; leakage claimed 2500 human lives (5000 according to non-government sources). It also polluted drinking water, soil, tank, pond water and adversely affected fetus, newly born babies, pregnant women, children, young and old peoples alike.

II. Effects on Plants and Other Animals: The increased u.v. radiations because of depletion of ozone layer would adversely affect plant and animal communities in a variety of ways. In plants it reduces photosynthesis, water use efficiency and yields of plants.

SO_2 from power stations, brick kilns, etc. exhibits such symptoms as necrosis of leaves, defoliation of young terminal branches, necrosis of fruit tips, reduction of fruit size, etc. NO_2 causes defoliation, chlorosis, necrosis, general growth retardation in plants, etc.

Fluorides and arsenic settles on fodder and when eaten this fodder, poisons the cattle and live stock.

$SO-_2$ and NO_2 affect plants, animals and aquatic communities by increasing acidity due to acid rain. Animals are sensitive to high concentration of these acids.

III. Effects on Weather and Climate: Different types of air pollutants caused by gaseous and particulate

pollutants modify weather and climate at local, regional and global levels. A few climatologically effects of air pollution are given below.

(i) ***Smog:*** Smoky fog over the cities and industrial areas is generally called as smog or urban smog. Smog is formed when fog is mixed with smoke. Air pollutants like SO_2, N_2O, O_3, etc from industries when mixed with smog it causes deadly health hazards to human beings. These pollutants readily combine with atmospheric oxygen (O_2) and reacts with water films on suspended particulate matter to produce acids (e. g. SO_2 to H_2SO_4, N-$_2$O to HNO_3, etc.). These air pollutants are trapped in shallower layer over the cities by inversion of temperature (warmer air over cooler layer) and thus are mixed with fog over cities.

(ii) ***Acid Rains:*** The fall out of acids with rain is called as acid rain. Some air pollutants like SO_2, N_2O etc emitted from combustion of fossil fuels in factories, automobiles in larger quantities into the atmosphere combines with water to form sulphate and sulphuric acid (H_2SO_4). These acids falls on the earth's surface with rainfall and thus the fall of highly acidic water from above is called acid rain. This acid rain affects plant and animal life and also damage several monuments and buildings of historical importance due to corrosion.

(iii) ***Depletion of Ozone:*** Depletion of ozone is caused by CFCs (Chlorofluorocarbons) emitted from air conditioners, refrigerators, foam plastics, hair driers, spray can dispensers, fire extinguishers and many cosmetic goods may change the radiation balance at global level.

(iv) ***Greenhouse effect:*** A green house is meant for plants mainly in the cold countries where total insolation at least during winter season is not sufficient enough to support plant growth. The glasses of greenhouse are such that these allow the visible sunlight to enter but prevent the long wave infrared rays to go out. A greenhouse does not have any provision for artificial heating.

The 'greenhouse effect' means progressive warming up of the earth's surface due to blanketing effect of man-made CO_2 in the atmosphere.

A green house is the body, which allows the short wave incoming solar radiations to come in, but does not allow the long wave outgoing terrestrial infrared radiations to escape. CO_2 and water vapors act as a green house in that these allows visible light of the sun to reach the surface of the earth but reflect back the long wave outgoing terrestrial radiation mainly infrared rays and thus helps in keeping the earth's surface warmer. The gases with the properties of greenhouse are called as '**Green House Gases'.** CO_2, water vapors, halogenated CFCs are the greenhouse gases.

But the most significant greenhouse gas is CO_2, which is released to the atmosphere by burning of fossil fuel, respiration of organisms and eruption of volcanoes. The amount of CO_2 in air is kept at constant (0.003% or 300 ppm) level by the green plants.

The most heat is absorbed by CO_2 and water vapors in the atmosphere add to the heat that is already present. The increasing CO_2 level tends to warm the air in the lower levels of atmosphere. Nearly one hundred years ago (1860 A. D. before industrial revolution) the CO_2 level was 275 ppm. Today (1988) it is 350 ppm, and by the year 2035-2040 it is expected to reach 450 ppm, and depending on the rate of use of fossil fuels, CO_2 level of 550 ppm could be reach some times between 2040-2100. According to some

computerized models doubling CO_2 levels will increase the global mean temperature by 4^0C. Temperature near the poles would raise 2-3 times this amount. Because of increase in the temperature the polar ice caps would melt and there will rise in the sea levels. A rise of 5^0C would raise the sea level by 5 meters within few decades threatening all the densely populated coasts from Shanghai to San Francisco. A rise in sea level of 50-100 cm caused by ocean warming would flood low-lying lands in West Bengal and Bangladesh. Due to greenhouse effect there may occur more cyclones and hurricanes and early snowmelt in mountains would cause more flood.

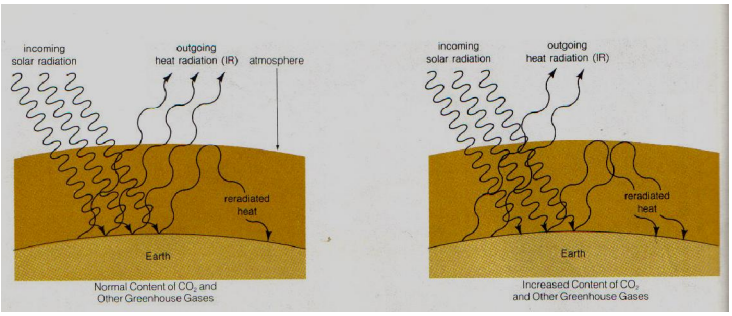


Fig: The Greenhouse effect

Control measures or Remedies for air Pollution: - Air pollution is a continuous process, which cannot be completely removed or checked, but by using some methods it can be minimized and it's effects can be removed by using some remedies. Following are some measures for preventing or controlling air pollution.

1. To create awareness among all walks of people in society and government bodies and officials towards the cause and effect of air pollution on health and wealth.
2. Factory area should be separate and quite some distance away from residential areas.

3. Old industrial processes should be so modified that they produce the least pollution. New once should be selected with this object in view before a factory is built.
4. Proper pollution control equipments should be installed at the designed state; later on it is more costly and economically unsound.
5. There should be a round clock measurement of pollution and when tolerance limit of pollution is reached in any area, the factories in that area should be closed.
6. Automobile engines should be so designed to reduce the amount of uncombusted carbon and the vehicles should be fitted with exhaust emission control.
7. The attempt should be given to develop electricity-based engines for automobiles.
8. The excess use of pesticides and insecticides should be stopped. In place bio-fertilizers and biological control measures should be applied.
9. The government must ban on nuclear explosion.
10. Forest area should be increased to produce fresh air.
11. The excessive use of chemical products that release CFCs and other harmful gases should be stopped quickly.
12. The attempt should be given to develop new sources of energy e.g. solar energy, wind energy, tidal energy, etc.

8.3 Water Pollution

Water is the most important element in the biosphere because it is vital for maintenance of all forms of life and it also helps in the movement, circulation and cycling of nutrients in the biosphere. It is found in various phases and various storages such as i) in liquid phase (storage such as

rivers, lakes, seas & oceans, soils, living organisms, etc), ii) in solid phase (storages such as glaciers & ice sheets and ice caps like ice caps of Arctic region, Greenland & Antarctica and mountain glaciers e.g. Alpine glaciers, Himalayan glaciers, etc) and iii) in gaseous phase (storage such as water vapors in the atmosphere).

Water is essential for power generation, irrigation of crops, disposal of sewage, etc. Only one percent of the total amount of water of the hydrosphere is available to human beings and other biotic communities from various sources such as ground water, rivers, lakes, soils, etc. increased demand of water consequent upon increasing population and industrial expansion has degraded the quality of water considerably.

Normally water is never pure in chemical sense. It contains impurities of various kinds-dissolved as well as suspended. These include dissolved gases (O_2, CO_2, N_2, etc), dissolved minerals (Ca, Mg, Na, etc), suspended matter (sand, silt, clay, etc) and even microbes. They are in very low amount and normally do not pollute water and it is potable. Water has self-purifying capacity during recycling processes, but when the amount of foreign undesirable substances added by the man to the water exceeds the tolerance level and beyond self-purifying capacity of water, it gets polluted.

Definition: water pollution may be defined as 'alteration in physical, chemical and biological characteristics of water which may cause harmful effect on human and aquatic life'. OR

'It is a natural or induced change in the quality of water which renders it unsuitable or dangerous as regards food, human and animal health, industry, agriculture, fishing or leisure purpose'.

Sources of water Pollution: The substances, which degrade the quality of water, are called as water pollutants. Following are the major sources of water pollution.

(i) ***Domestic sewage:*** Rivers and wells are the main sources of drinking water. These sources are usually polluted by domestic sewage, human excreta and excreta of birds and other animals. The purity of water is seriously affected when untreated or imperfectly treated sewage enters the natural sources of water like rivers, lakes and other sources. Such sewage may also percolate through the sol and reach its water table, which is then main source of drinking water through well. Besides carrying germs for water borne diseases the sewage organic matter is acted upon by naturally occurring bacteria and uses up oxygen content of the water thus causing oxygen depletion.

(ii) ***Industrial effluents:*** Most of the Indian rivers and fresh water streams are seriously polluted by industrial wastes or effluents which come along waste waters of different industries such as petrochemical complexes, fertilizer factories, oil refineries, pulp, paper, sugar, textile mills, distilleries, etc. The industrial wastes of these industries and mills include metals (Cu, Zn, Pb, Hg, etc), detergents, petroleum, acids, alkalis, phenols and other organic and inorganic chemicals and metallic ions are also the sources of water pollution.

(iii) ***Agricultural discharges:*** These include chiefly the chemicals used as fertilizers and the pesticides used in disease control. Their discharges reach into the water bodies through percolation. They are not disposed completely and enter into food chain and causes death.

Such discharge of sewage and other wastes in water results in depletion of oxygen level in water and there is stimulation of algal growth in water and because of this the water becomes unfit for drinking and other purposes. This is called as **eutrophication** (it is a natural process by

which a lake gradually becomes enriched in plant nutrients such as phosphates and nitrates as a result of natural erosion and run off from the surrounding land basin, it causes growth of rooted plants near shore and algal blooms of floating algae, especially the BGA species, which give the water the appearance of green soup and which release substances that makes the water taste and smell bad).

The problem of water pollution has already assumed alarming proportion in many large cities and industrial complexes in India. Each small town of India suffer from high level of water pollution because of open earthen sewage drains, uncovered earthen septic tanks and soak pits, improper drainage system and frequent water logging.

Orthodox religious faiths are also adding fuel to the problems of river water pollution, e.g. in spite of provision of electric crematorium in several big cities at the bank of Ganga, people still burn bodies with the wood and throw half burnt wood, ash and human bodies in the Ganga in the faith that by doing so the departed soul would be seated in the heaven. Another example is congregation of large number of people during pilgrimage, religious fairs, etc e.g. more than 30 million people from all over India congregate during **'Kumbha Mela'** at Allahabad, Ujjain, Nasik, Tryambakeshwar, Haridwar, etc.

Effects or hazards of water pollution: Water pollution causes irreparable damage to plants and animals including man. The most sufferers are human beings and microorganisms. Polluted water is the major cause for the spread of epidemics and several dangerous diseases such as cholera, typhoid, paratyphoid, diarrhoea, etc. The water polluted with solid minerals for drinking purpose causes fatal diseases, e.g. the consumption of water contaminated by fibers as asbestos causes lung cancer and stomach disease called **Asbestosis**, water polluted with mercury causes **Mina Mata** disease.

Water pollution mainly caused by toxic chemicals causes death of aquatic organisms including both-plants and animals. Due to pollution there is depletion of O_2 in water, which kills the living fishes and other aquatic organisms responsible for bio-purification of water.

The wastes from factories may kill fishes and cattle. The insecticides that accumulate in the body of fishes may cause cancer, nerve disorder and other serious diseases in man by consumption of fishes grown in such polluted water (fish poisoning).

The use of water contaminated with salts increase alkalinity in the soil. Contamination of seawater due to oil slicks resulting from leakages of crude oils from huge oil tankers and due to discharge of industrial and urban wastes causes ecological disasters in the littoral ecosystems because of mass death of sea organisms including fish.

Remedies or Control Measures: Control of water pollution requires several remedial measures involving individuals, community, governmental at national and international levels. Following are some measures,

(i) Individuals must be educated enough to understand the nature of water pollution and its adverse effects on human health and wealth.

(ii) The industrial units must be obliged to treat industrial effluent before discharging them into water bodies.

(iii) The Municipal Corporation must arrange for sewage treatment plant and government should provide adequate funds for water pollution control programme.

(iv) The best method of preventing and control of water pollution is the recycling of various kinds of wastes, e.g. dung of cow and buffaloes can be used for the production of gobar gas, a cheap source of fuel a well as manure. Domestic sewage after little

treatment can be used in garden or kitchen garden as a source of water.

(v) The government must bring in force effective laws for water pollution control measures.

8.4 Soil Pollution

Soils are in fact the very heart of the life layer (the biosphere) because these represents a zone where in plants nutrients are produced, held, maintained are made available to the plants through their roots and to the microorganisms which lice in the soils. Soil is also very important environmental factor for human society because i) it is the basic medium for food, fiber and timber production, ii) it provides foundation for buildings and roads, iii) it is very important exhaustible natural resource because it cannot be replaced if it is destroyed or lost through excessive soil erosion caused by anthropogenic activities and iv) it is the bone for the development of human civilization. The formation of soil is a slow process as the formation and development of one inch of soil requires about one thousand years where as the destruction of soils through erosion and pollution is quick process.

The quality of soil depends upon the nutrients (both-organic and inorganic), humus content, moisture, temperature, etc. present in the soil.

Definition: Decrease in the quality of the soil either due to anthropogenic sources or natural sources or by both is called as soil pollution or soil degradation.

Decrease in the quality of soil is caused due to the accelerated rate of soil erosion, decrease in plant nutrients, decrease in soil microorganisms, excess or deficit of moisture content, high fluctuations of temperature, lack of humus contents and input and concentration of various types of pollutants.

Sources of soil pollution: Following are some important sources of soil pollution.

(i) ***Physical sources:*** The physical sources of soil pollution are related to soil erosion caused by natural and anthropogenic factors. The natural factors include amount and intensity of rainfall, temperature, wind, topographic factors, vegetation and soil characteristics. These factors are further accelerated by human activities such as land use changes (e.g. deforestation and faulty agricultural practices).

(ii) ***Biological sources:*** These are the agents of soil pollution including those microorganisms and unwanted plants which degrade the quality and therefore the fertility of the soil and entire bacteria and protozoan. These microorganisms enter the soil from various sources and degrade them. These also enter the food chain and thus affect the human bodies.

(iii) ***Air borne sources:*** These are pollutants released into the atmosphere by 'human volcanoes' (chimneys of factories), automobiles, thermal power plants and domestic sources. The solid particulate pollutants released from the above sources are transported to the areas far away from the sources of emission by wind and are then deposited in the soil and soil becomes polluted due to such toxic substances.

(iv) ***Chemical fertilizers and biocides:*** These now become essential part of modern mechanized agriculture. Excessive use of chemical fertilizers to boost the agricultural production causes the alteration in the physical and chemical properties of soil. The most dangerous pollutants are different types of biocides that destroy microorganisms including useful bacteria and thus lower down the quality of soil significantly.

Effects or hazards of soil pollution: Effects of soil pollution on human beings, animals and plants are far reaching

(i) Since pollution degrade the quality of soil, soil pollution thus results in substantial decrease in agricultural production. Some forms of soil pollution even make the land unusable for crop farming, e.g. soil erosion converts the lands into wastelands.

(ii) Chemical pollutants in the form of chemicals, fertilizers, pesticides, insecticides and herbicides after reaching the soil, reach the human and animal bodies through food chain and cause various diseases and several deaths. According to an estimate, about 500,000 persons die every year in the world because of insecticides and pesticides, especially by DDT.

Control or Remedial measures: It is not only desirable but is also necessary to control soil pollution because the very existence of human being and animals depends upon the soil. So it is very necessary not only to maintain but also to enhance the quality of soil, because the supply of food for billions of world human population, fodder for animals and a host of raw materials come from soil.

The following steps may be suggested to control soil pollution,

(i) To implement various control measures of soil erosion.

(ii) Controlled and judicious use of chemical fertilizers, pesticides, insecticides and herbicides.

(iii) Use of synthetic fertilizers and pesticides must be replaced by bio-fertilizers and biological control methods respectively.

(iv) There should be immediate restriction on the use of DDT.

(v) Proper disposal of industrial and urban wastes should be done.

(vi) After proper treatment the urban and industrial effluents should be used for irrigation purpose.

(vii) Proper land use and crop management policies should be used.

(viii) Farmers must be educating about proper use of fertilizers and biocides.

(ix) Proper researches regarding the adverse effects of soil pollutants, mainly toxic chemicals on various components of natural ecosystem must be done.

8.5 Noise Pollution

Noise is defined as, "the unwanted, unpleasant or disagreeable sound that causes discomfort to all living beings". Statistically, ever since the industrial revolution, noise in the environment has been doubling every ten years. Sound intensity is measured in decibels (dB) that is the tenth part of the longest unit Bel. One dB is the faintest sound that a human ear can hear.

Types of Noise: Environmental noise has been doubling every ten years. Noise is classified as:

(i) Industrial Noise

(ii) Transport Noise and

(iii) Neighbourhood noise

(i) ***Industrial Noise:*** It is sound with a high intensity caused by industry machines. Such noise pollution is caused by machines from various factories, industries and mills. Noise from mechanical saws and pneumatic drills is unbearable and a nuisance to the public. The Indian Institute of Oto-Rino Laryngology, Chennai reported that increasing industrial pollution damages the hearing ability by at least 20%.

Workers in steel industry, who work close to heavy industrial blowers, are exposed to 112dB for eight hours

suffer from occupational pollution. Transport Noise: Transport noise mainly consists of traffic noise from road, rail and aircraft. The number of automobiles on roads like scooters, cars, motor cycles, buses, trucks and diesel engine vehicles has increased enormously in the recent past further aggravating the problem of transport noise.

Noise levels in most residential areas in metropolitan cities are hovering around the border line due to increased vehicular noise pollution. This high level of noise pollution leads to deafening in the elderly.

Neighbourhood noise: This type of noise includes disturbance from household gadgets and community. Common sources being musical instruments, TV, VCR, Radios, Transistors, Telephones, and loudspeakers etc.

Hazardous Effects of Noise Pollution

(i) Noise pollution affects both human and animal health. It leads to:
   (a) Contraction of blood vessels
   (b) making skin pale
   (c) Excessive adrenalin in the blood stream which is responsible for high blood pressure.
   (d) Blaring sounds are known to cause mental distress
   (e) Heart attacks, neurological problems, birth defects and abortion

(ii) Muscle contraction leading to nervous breakdown, tension, etc.

(iii) The adverse reactions are coupled with a change in hormone content of blood, which in-turn increases heartbeat, constriction of blood vessels, digestive spams and dilation of the pupil of the eye.

(iv) Adverse effects health, work efficiency and behaviour. Noise pollution may cause damage to

the heart, brain, kidneys, liver and may produce emotional disturbance.

(v) The most immediate and acute effect of noise is impairment of hearing that diminishes some part of the auditory system. Prolonged exposure to noise of certain frequency pattern leads to chronic damage to the inner ear.

(vi) Impulsive noise may cause psychological and pathological disorders

(vii) Ultrasonic sound can affect the digestive, respiratory, cardiovascular system and semi-circular canals of the internal ear.

(viii) The brain is adversely affected by loud and sudden noise by jets and airplanes. People are subjected to psychiatric illness.

(ix) Recent reports suggest that blood is thickened by excessive noise.

(x) The optical system of human beings is also affected by noise pollution. Severe noise pollution causes: Pupillary dilation, Impairment of night vision and Decrease in rate of color perception

Control Measures or Remedies for Noise Pollution

Source Control: This includes source modification such as acoustic treatment to machine surface, design changes, limiting operational timings, etc.

Transmission Path Intervention: This includes containing the source inside a sound insulating enclosure, constructing a noise barrier or provision of sound absorbing materials along the path.

Receptor Control: This includes protection of the receiver by altering the work schedule or provision of personal protection devices such as ear plugs for operating noisy machinery. The measure may include dissipation and deflection methods.

8.6 Thermal Pollution

Sources: The discharge of warm water into a river is usually called a thermal pollution. It occurs when an industry removes water from a source, uses the water for cooling purposes and then returns the heated water to its source. Power plants heat water to convert it into steam, to drive the turbines that generate electricity. For efficient functioning of the steam turbines, the steam is condensed into water after it leaves the turbines. This condensation is done by taking water from a water body to absorb the heat. This heated water, which is at least 15oC higher than the normal is discharged back into the water body.

Effects or hazards of Thermal Pollution: The warmer temperature decreases the solubility of oxygen and increases the metabolism of fish. This changes the ecological balance of the river. Within certain limits thermal additions can promote the growth of certain fish and the fish catch may be high in the vicinity of a power plant. However sudden changes in temperature caused by periodic plant shutdowns both planned and unintentional can change result in death of these fish that are acclimatized to living in warmer waters. Tropical marine animals are generally unable to withstand a temperature increase of 2 to 30C and most sponges, mollusks and crustaceans are eliminated at temperatures above 370C. This results in a change in the diversity of fauna as only those species that can live in warmer water survive.

(i) Decreased Dissolved Oxygen: Warm water holds less oxygen than cool water. If the oxygen level drops animals that cannot move to another area may begin to die. In deeper bodies of water, the injection of warm water can keep oxygen from dispersing into deep water, which is potentially good for bacteria but dangerous for aquatic animals. The decreased oxygen can cause algae blooms that

pose a threat to aquatic plants and animals. This algae bloom problem is probably the most common and best-known side effect of thermal pollution.

(ii) ***Loss of Biodiversity:*** The sudden heating can kill off vulnerable organisms or drive them away. This is one of many serious issues for threatened and endangered animal species. This loss can come from organisms dying from the hot water, being unable to reproduce as effectively as before, or simply leaving the area. We usually think of animals as casualties of water pollution, but multicelled aquatic plants are also at risk when thermal pollution changes the local aquatic ecosystem.

(iii) ***Ecological Impacts:*** The local aquatic ecosystem can be damaged by thermal pollution, especially if it is dramatic, as in copious amounts of warm water being dumped into a chilly pond or bay or river. "Thermal shock" can kill off insects, fish, and amphibians.

(iv) ***Migration:*** Fish and amphibians may move away from the warm water to a more-suitable location, disrupting the ecosystem for animals that remain. Birds may also be forced to leave in search of areas with more food.

(v) ***Increased Toxins:*** Toxins in the water are more a side effect of dumping waste water than a direct effect of thermal pollution. Chemical pollution is an almost inevitable side effect of using water for cooling. Solvents, fuel oil, and dissolved heavy metals end up in the lake or river where the cooling water gets dumped.

Control measures: Thermal pollution can be controlled by passing the heated water through a cooling pond or a cooling tower after it leaves the condenser. The heat is dissipated into the air and the water can then be discharged into the river or pumped back to the plant for reuse as

cooling water. There are several ways in which thermal pollution can be reduced. One method is to construct a large shallow pond. Hot water is pumped into one end of the pond and cooler water is removed from the other end. The heat gets dissipated from the pond into the atmosphere. A second method is to use a cooling tower. These structures take up less land area than the ponds. Here most of the heat transfer occurs through evaporation. Here warm waters coming from the condenser is sprayed downward over vertical sheets or baffles where the water flows in thin films. Cool air enters the tower through the water inlet that encircles the base of the tower and rises upwards causing evaporative cooling. A natural draft is maintained because of the density difference between the cool air outside and the warmer air inside the tower. The waste heat is dissipated into the atmosphere about 100 m above the base of the tower. The cooled water is collected at the floor of the tower and recycled back to the power plant condensers. The disadvantage in both these methods is however that large amounts of water are lost by evaporation.

The following methods can be adapted to control high temperature caused by thermal discharges:

(i) ***Cooling towers:*** Use of water from water systems for cooling systems for cooling purposes, with subsequent return to the water way after passage through a condenser, is called cooling process. Cooling towers transfer heat from hot water to the atmosphere by evaporation. Cooling towers are of two types:

- ***(a)*** ***Wet cooling tower:*** Hot water coming out from the condenser (reactor) is allowed to spray over baffles. Cool air, with a very high velocity, is passed from sides, which takes away the heat (from the hot water) and cools the water.
- ***(b)*** ***Dry cooling tower:*** In this case hot water is allowed to flow in long spiral pipes. Cool air

with the help of a fan is passed over these hot pipes, which cools down hot water. This cool water can be recycled.

(ii) ***Cooling ponds:*** Cooling ponds are the best way to cool thermal discharges. Heated effluents on the surface of the water in cooling ponds maximize dissipation of heat to the atmosphere and minimize the water area and volume.

(iii) ***Spray ponds:*** The water coming out from condensers is allowed to pass into the ponds through sprayers. Here water is sprayed through nozzles as fine droplets. Heat from the fine droplets gets dissipated to the atmosphere.

(iv) ***Artificial lakes:*** Artificial lakes are man-made water bodies that offer once-through cooling. The heated effluents can be discharged into the lake at one end and water for cooling purposes may be withdrawn from the other end. The heat is eventually dissipated through evaporation.

8.7 Environmental Pollution Control Measures

Environmental Pollution Legislation and Upgrading Administrative Organization

The Basic Law for Environmental Pollution Control was enacted to provide a proper basis for environmental pollution policy and for the development of other regulations and initiatives. Similarly, the Environment Agency was established to promote unified and coordinate policy initiatives, along with environmental pollution bureaus at the local government level. Environmental pollution has many different causes and affects us in a number of different ways. For this reason, it is important to have a comprehensive legal framework in place to enable the development of effective policy initiatives, backed by a single

organization with jurisdiction over environmental pollution control measures and the attendant governmental structures.

8.8 Pollution Prevention Research

Reducing environmental pollution requires specialized research, firstly to identify the types of pollution and how they are being generated, and secondly to identify the most effective method for dealing with them. In Japan, government pollution research institutes at the local and national level are staffed with dedicated researchers engaged in medical and environmental studies on pollution. Examples include a long-term epidemiological tracking study on the effects of environmental pollution on the human body, launched in 1970, and studies of community health management systems for anticipated health problems.

8.9 Financial Assistance for Prevention of Environmental Damage

Investment in equipment and technology designed to reduce pollution output can pose a significant financial burden in difficult economic circumstances, without providing any direct boost to company revenue. To encourage investment in pollution reduction initiatives, government financial institutions provided preferential taxation and financial measures, low-interest loans for plant and equipment investment, tax exemptions and special depreciation allowances. The Environment Pollution Control Service Corporation, meanwhile, promoted pollution reduction initiatives in industry by setting up green buffer zones and joint facilities for reducing environmental pollution, building joint-use production facilities and carrying out land reclamation projects.

8.10 Environmental Management

Environment is a fundamental and most essential part of our day to day life. Environmental management offers us a better livelihood by ensuring proper management in different sector of our life. Environment comprises various types of forces such as physical, intellectual, economic, political, cultural, social, moral and emotional. Environment is the sum total of all these external forces, influences and conditions, which affect the life, nature, behaviour and the growth, development and maturation of living organisms. In another word, Environment refers to the sum total of condition, which surround point in space and time. And environmental management is an attempt to control human impact on and interaction with the environment in order to preserve natural resources. It focuses on the improvement of human welfare for present and future generations. Environmental management system is simply a collection of activities undertaken to ensure that environmental issues are managed. It provides the following functions –

(a) Consistently complying with environmental laws;
(b) Improving overall environmental performance;
(c) Addressing environmental liability from current or past practices;
(d) Maximizing investment in environmental affairs;
(e) Integration of environmental objectives into overall mission and business objectives;
(f) Providing an environmentally safe workplace.

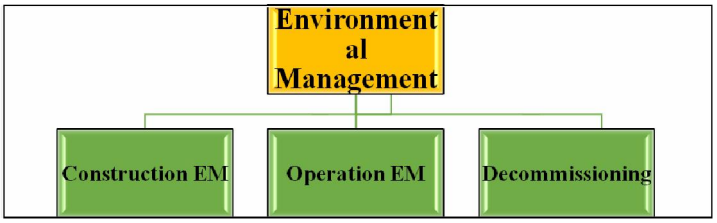
8.11 Types of Environmental Management

There are three broad categories of environmental management in the lifecycle:

(i) The construction environmental management plan
(ii) The operations environmental management plan and

(iii) The decommissioning environmental management plan.

These can be shown as follows-



The Construction Phase Environmental Management Plan

The construction phase EMP provides specific environmental guidance for the implementation and construction phase of a project. It is intended to enable the management and mitigation of construction activities so that environmental impacts are avoided or reduced. These impacts range from those incurred during start up (e.g. site clearing, erection of the construction camp) to construction activities (i.e. erosion, pollution of watercourses, noise, dust). Information presented in the EMP is typically categorized as follows:

(i) Identify the specific activity or potential impact that requires management;

(ii) Determine the mitigation measures to be implemented;

(iii) Identify the performance indicator;

(iv) Identify who would be responsible for implementation and

(v) Identify who would be responsible for monitoring.

9

Bioremediation

9.1 Introduction to Bioremediation

Biotechnology has emerged as an applied discipline of biological research with applications in agriculture, forestry, industry as well as medicine. An equally important area of global concern that has emerged only recently is the environmental applications of biotechnology in prevention and control of pollution. Two things should become evident while controlling pollution. Firstly, the disposal, treatment and removal of various pollutants of air, water and soil may not be acceptable due to cost benefit and other limitations. Secondly, some of the pollutants that are resistant to biodegradation (recalcitrant) lead to problem of biomagnifications. Moreover, there are situations where one feels helpless, e.g. when there are oil spills in marine water and when underground storage tanks of petrol begin to discharge hydrocarbons to subsoil and ground water due to leakage.

It has only been recognized quite recently that biological systems, primarily of microbial origin could prove potential means of degrading some such complex environmental pollutants as well as preventing pollution through waste

treatment (solid as well as liquid). Such recent environmental applications of biotechnology emerged into a new area of research and development-bioremediation.

Definition: Bioremediation is the use of living organisms (primarily microorganisms) to degrade environmental pollutants or to prevent pollution through waste treatment.

Bioremediation is emerging as most ideal alternative technology for removing pollutants from the environment restoring contaminated sites and preventing further pollution. This environment friendly technology is expanding range of organisms to be used to clean up pollution and forms a vital component of the so-called '**green movement'** of maintaining the nature's overall ecological balance, an issue at present being top priority of environmental awareness and public policy.

9.2 Need and Scope of Bioremediation

Bioremediation is needed because certain chemicals accumulate in the environment to level that threatens human health or environmental quality. It was in fact in mid 1960s, when DDT accumulation changed the old belief (that microbes were able to degrade all compounds entering the environment) that serious efforts were begun to exploit the natural capacity of microorganisms to degrade complex compounds. OECD (Organization for Economic Cooperation and development) has been sponsoring the meetings of scientists and government representatives from USA, Japan, and West European countries since 1991 to consider the environmental applications of biotechnology. At recent meeting of OECD workshop (held in Nov. 1994 in Tokyo), participants recognized that bioremediation can have local, regional and global applications and that both indigenous and genetically engineered microbe may play important role. The OECD estimated that world market potentials for all environmental biotechnologies would

nearly double in the 1990s rising from $40 billion in 1990 to $75 billion by 2000.

There is a search for naturally occurring microbes that have better pollutant degradation kinetics, attack a wider range of pollutant compounds and do so over a wider range of microbial growth conditions. There is also search for microbes that could grow under extreme environmental conditions such as tolerance to organic solvents, growth under extremely alkaline substrates or high temperatures.

Researchers have also been using genetic engineering to develop new microbial strains with noval biodegradative capabilities.

9.3 Phytoremediation

The ability of microorganisms to uptake and accumulate heavy metals such as Co, Cd, Zn, Mn, Pb, Ni, Hg, etc is very well known. Different bacteria, fungi (yeasts, dimorphic as well as filamentous) such as species of *Saccharomyces, Rhodotorulla, Aureobasidium, ophiostoma, Aspergillus, Rhizopus* and *Trichoderma,* some algae and diatoms such as *Thallossiosiro pseudonama* have such an ability and being studied for their biotechnological potentials as agents of effluent detoxification.

Among vascular plants, some aquatic weeds such as species of *Salvinia, Lemna, Azolla, Eicchornia,* sedges and even tree species are also known to tolerate, uptake and even accumulate heavy metals and other toxicants in their cells. Besides microorganisms plants are also being studied for their potential of environmental clean-up. Green plants are not only the lungs of nature with unique ability of purifying impure air by photosynthesis releasing oxygen to sustain aerobic life in the biosphere, but it has also been only quite recently demonstrated that they could also be very useful in cleaning up hazardous waste sites.

The process of recovery of hazardous substances from soil or ground water contaminated with municipal or industrial wastes, etc by using plants is called as **Phytoremediation.** Though Phytoremediation has a long history but its industrial application is quite recent. Plants are being tested for their ability to clean up contaminated soil, and even genetically engineered varieties are on the horizon. Some examples of experimental field tests of removal of toxicants from soil and industrial wastes by using plant systems are given below.

(i) ***Recovery of heavy metals from soil:*** Green plants such as specific strains of Indian mustard (*Brassica juncea)* can accumulate heavy metals when grown in chromium contaminated soils. Modified strains of this plant have been shown to accumulate up to 40% of their biomass as heavy metals, such as lead and chromium. Researches in the state of New Jersey in USA carried out field trials in 1994 and demonstrated that the plant could be safely grown in chromium contaminated site adjacent to Liberty State Park, New Jersey. A small amount of chromium was taken up by the plants and removed from the soil. The plants were then harvested and metal recovered for recycling or disposal. Tests to optimize metal uptake by such modified *Brssicas* are already in progress at these research centers. It is quite possible that in near future such plant systems could be effectively used for clean-up of metal contaminated soils of various states. *Sebertia acuminata* (sapotaceae) is another example, it is a native of New Caledonia and it accumulates 20-25% of its body dry weight of Nickel. The plant bleeds bluish-green latex.

(ii) ***Reclamation of industrial wastes and municipal wastewater:*** Plants as such may not be able to accumulate toxic pollutants from wastes. Roots and

rhizomes of some plants provide an ideal habitat for the growth of different microorganisms, chiefly bacteria and fungi. These microbes are very effective in remediation of contaminated wastewater and industrial wastes containing bromides, chlorides, sulphates, etc. The microbes remain active even in extreme conditions through frost and surface freezing and the hot summer as well as highly extreme pH and anaerobic reducing conditions. Each plant on earth harbors its own microbes around the roots and the microbes are able to adapt themselves with growing roots. In USA marsh plants like *Typha latifolia* and *Scirpus lacustris* have been successfully tested for reclamation of wastewater.

10

Plant Succession

Definition: According to Odum, "Plant succession may be defined as an orderly process of community change".In the words of Salisbury, "Plant succession is a competitive drift in which at each phase until the climax the constituent species render the habitat more favorable to their successors than to themselves."

Most plant associations are not static and constant in extent and character but tend to expand their range to cover the entire environment to which they are well suited. Some particular species, on account to its size, abundance and ability to compete successfully with its associates, usually becomes dominant.The presence of a particular dominant species, which is usually called as pioneer community, may in time change conditions so that a very different group of plants invade the community and eventually replace the original colonizers.

Climatic and topographic changes of various kinds may in time modify conditions so that there are marked changes in the distribution of plant associations. In a given locality one group of plants may thus encroach upon another. This kind of succession may be rapid, or it may extend over many years and it will continue until stability is attained through

the establishment of vegetation which is essentially permanent. This is called as climax association for the region in question.The great plant formations, such as forest, grassland, and tundra are climax formations. The process of succession may start at places like bare rocks, exposed soil surface, shallow water such as a small pool, silting up rivers and banks of a lake etc.

10.2 Types of Plant Succession by Nature of Bare

Depending upon the nature of bare area on which it develops, the succession may be of two kinds primary and secondary:

(i) ***Primary succession:*** It begins in areas which have previously been unoccupied by plants, such as open water, bare rock, or sand. When the succession starts on the extreme bare area on which there was no previous existence of vegetation it is called primary succession or preserve.This succession starts in the areas of extreme conditions and the process terminates after a long series of intermediate stages.

(ii) ***Secondary succession:*** This kind of succession begins wherever the existing vegetation has been destroyed without denuding the area of soil. It usually starts after forest fires, cutting of the trees, flood and erosions. It is also of common occurrence in abandoned agricultural lands. A single case of plant succession at a particular kind of habitat is usually referred to as a sere, and the various stages of a sere are called seral stages. This type of succession starts on the secondary bare area which was once occupied by original vegetation but later became completely cleared of vegetation by the process called denudation. This denudation process is brought about by the destructive agencies, such as

fire, cultivation, strong winds, and rains.When the existing vegetation of an area becomes completely destroyed by destructive agents, it becomes naked or bare. Such a bare area is termed denuded area or secondary bare area. The succession progressing on such an area is also termed sub-sere. Secondary succession has fewer stages than the primary succession and the climax is reached very quickly in the secondary succession.

10.3 Types of Plant Succession by Nature of the Habitat

Depending upon the nature of the habitat on which the plant succession begins seven types of seres may be distinguished:

(i) ***Hydrosere:*** When succession starts in aquatic habitat is called hydrosere.

(ii) ***Xerosere:*** When succession initiates on a dry, bare land called as xerosere

(iii) ***Lithosere:*** It starts on a bare rock surface.

(iv) ***Psammosere:*** Initiating on sandy habitats. Here the pioneer community comprises sand-binding grasses with runners, e.g. Spinifex and Ipomoea biloba.

(v) ***Halosere:*** It starts in saline soil or water. Here the pioneer plants usually have succulent leaves and stem e.g., Suaeda maritima, Acanthus ilicifolius, Chenopodium, Basella and some species of Asclapias.

(vi) ***Senile:*** It is the succession of micro-organisms and lower plants on dead plant parts and bodies.

(vii) ***Eosere or Geosere:*** It is the development of vegetation in an era.

The process of plant succession consists of nine steps. The nine steps are: (1) Nudation (2) Migration

(3) Germination (4) Ecesis (5) Colonization and Aggregation (6) Competition and Co-action (7) Invasion (8) Reaction and (9) Stabilization.

10.4 Process of Plant Succession

Major steps in an autotrophic succession are as follows:

(i) ***Nudation:*** An area is exposed.

(ii) ***Migration:*** The process of dispersal of seeds, spores and other structures of propagation of the species to bare area is known as migration.

(iii) ***Germination:*** It occurs when conditions are favorable.

(iv) ***Ecesis:*** Successful germination of propagules and their establishment in a bare area is known as ecesis.

(v) ***Colonization and Aggregation:*** After ecesis, the individuals of the species increase in number as the result of reproduction.

(vi) ***Competition and Co-action:*** Due to limited resources, species show both inter and intraspecific competition. This results into elimination of unsuitable and weaker plants.

(vii) ***Invasion:*** Various other types of plants try to establish in the spaces left by the elimination of plants due to competition.

(viii) ***Reaction:*** The newly arrived plants interrupt with the existing ones. As a result of reaction, environment is modified and becomes unsuitable for the existing community which sooner or later is replaced by another community.

(ix) ***Stabilization:*** Finally, there occurs a stage in the process when the climax community becomes more or less stabilized for a longer period of time and it can maintain itself in equilibrium with the climate of the area. As compared to seral stage community,

the climax community has larger size of individuals, complex organization, complex food chains and food webs, more efficient energy use and more nutrient conservation.

10.5 Major Trends during Succession

(i) There is an increase in structural complexity.
(ii) Diversity of species tends to increase.
iii. Biomass and standing crop increase.
(iv) There is a decrease in net community production.
(v) Increase in non-living matter.
(vi) Food chain relationship becomes complex.
(vii) Niche becomes special and narrower.
(viii) Energy use and nutrient conservation efficiency increases.
(ix) Stability increases.

10.6 Types of Seres

(A) Hydrosere:A sere beginning on a wet area is often referred to as a hydrosere. It may proceed in open bodies of water, such as ponds, lakes, and marshes etc.

Hydrosere consists following six seral stages

(i) Submerged stage: In this initial seral stage, a number of submerged aquatic plants, such as Hydrilla, Elodea, Potamogeton, Ceratophyllum, Najas, Vallisnaria, Utricularia, Ranunculus and several algae occupy the shallow pond or lake, which, accumulating after death and decay, gradually raise the bottom of the pond or lake. Silting may also be associated with this accumulation. The inadequate oxidation of flora and fauna remains of the lake results in the formation of humus-which makes the bottom of the lake firmer.

(ii) ***Floating stage:*** As the bottom of the lake is raised, a second, or floating, stage follows, characterized by plants like Nymphaea, Polygonum, Limnanthemum and Castalia etc. These plants are rooted in the mud, and their broad leaves float on the surface of the water shading the submerged plants below. Besides these, free floating plants like Azolla, Eichornia and Lemna may also make their appearance. The death and decay of the submerged and free floating plants further raise the level of the lake bottom and contribute further to the soil-building process. This initiates the next reed-swamp stage.

(iii) ***Reed-Swamp stage:*** This stage is initiated in extremely shallow waters (i.e., hardly one to four feet deep). The area is invaded by amphibious plants like Scirpus, Typha, Phragmites etc. These plants remain only partly submerged in water.

Their rhizomes are profusely branched and they are rooted in the bottom of the lake. These plants prevent light to reach submerged and floating plants which consequently die, and their dead remains settle down on the lake bottom raising its level further.

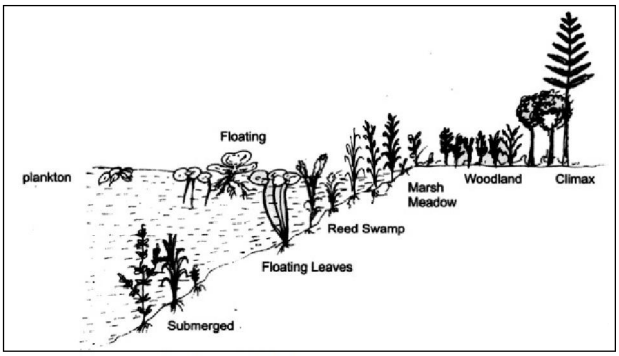


Fig: Stages in Hydrosere

Now a second group of plants, such as Sagittaria, Alisma and Acorus etc., invades the area. Eventually the

habitat is made unfit for the growth of the plants of reed-swamp stage. The soil becomes dry enough to afford a foothold for terrestrial species.

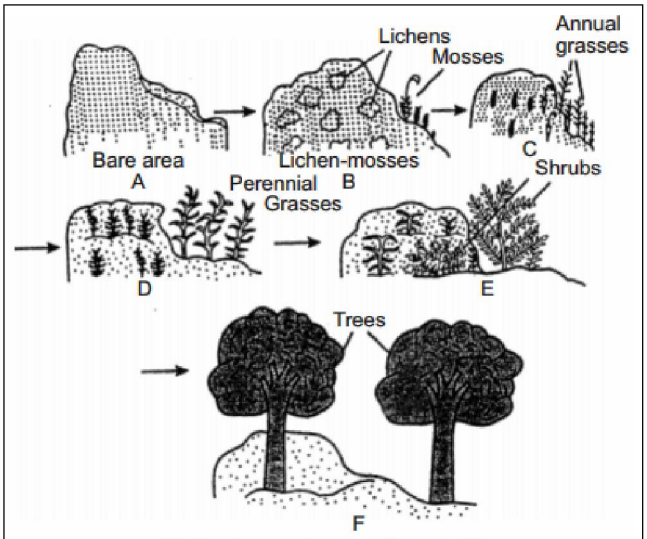
(iv) ***Sedge meadow stage:*** Reed-swamp stage is followed by sedge-meadow stage which is characterized by plants like Carex, Juncus and Eleocharis. The soil level continues to rise and soil organic matter continues to increase. More competent and dominant plants, such as Mentha, Caltha, Iris, Galium, Campanula and Teuricum etc., invade the area. By excessive transpiration and soil binding, these species make the area too dry for any hydrophytic plant. This eventually leads to other-sub-climax vegetation.

(v) ***Woodland stage:*** The sedge-meadow stage leads to the formation of heath land which remains saturated with water in spring and early summer. A new sub-climax vegetation dominated by shrubs and small trees make their appearance in this area. Important among these plants are Salix, Cornus, Cephalanthus, Alnus and Populus etc. Due to shade of these plants grasses and sedges disappear from the area. Shrubs and trees further lower the water table and bind the soil.

(vi) ***Climax forest stage:*** As more and more plants appear in the area, competition among these plants also intensify and soil organic matter further increases, soil becomes more fertile and consequently the area is invaded by larger trees. Competition then becomes less intense as the community becomes stable and a climax state is reached. It may also be pointed out here that succession in water always does not necessarily lead to land community. When succession starts in deep and large open water it may lead to a stable aquatic vegetation.

(B) Xerosere:When succession starts on a dry, bare area, it is usually referred to as xerosere. When the bare area is dry, the pioneers may be more or less xerophytic, the degree of xerophytism depending on local climate and physiographic factors.

A Xerosere usually includes the following six seral stages:



Biotic succession on a bare rock

(i) ***Crustose lichen stage:*** Succession on the bare rock surfaces begins with crustose lichens as pioneers. These lichens migrate to the rocks by means of wind-borne spores and soredia. The lichens grow only when enough moisture is available, but they can withstand drought conditions for long.The lichens release carbon dioxide during respiration which after combining with water forms a weak acid. The mechanical and chemical action of the lichens on the underlying rock, loosens particles, which, together with decaying lichen remains form a thin

layer of soil on the soil surface. The requisite nitrogen is brought in by rain and wind-blown dust. These lichen form pioneer community.

(ii) ***Foliose lichen stage:*** Simple crustose lichens may be followed by larger, leafy forms, such as Parmelia, Dermatocarpon. Umbilicaria, which grow on the slight accumulation of soil and humus Foliose lichens further loosen the rock particles. They overshadow the crustose lichens which eventually die and decay thus increasing the amount of humus in the soil.

(iii) ***Moss stage:*** Lichens are succeeded by mosses, which, like lichens, are able to survive in dry environment. These mosses are xerophytic in nature and important among these are the species of Polytrichum and Tortula.These mosses form an open community connected with a dense rhizoid system which passes through and binds together a few millimeters of soil particles. Among the shoots of these mosses wind and water borne soil continues to accumulate. The primary role of these mosses is to stabilize the soil surface and to increase its water-holding capacity.

(iv) ***Herbaceous stage:*** The moss plants increase in number until a close carpet of moss is formed over the soil. The mosses shade the lichens and successfully compote with them for water and nutrients which eventually result in the death of the lichens. The death and decay of the lichens and old mosses add to the amount of organic matter in the soil and still further increases its water- holding capacity.In his way the habitat is rendered suitable for the growth of higher plants and consequently a

new community of herbaceous plants, such as Festuca, Verbascum, Poa, Potentilla and Solidago etc., invade the area. The herbaceous plants over shadow the mosses, compete successfully with them for space, water and nutrients. The soil increases in thickness by disintegration of the rock and the decay of the various plant parts, more nutrients become available and next higher community, dominated by shrubs, appear.

(v) ***Shrub stage:*** Shruby plants, such as Rhus, Physocarpus, Symphocicarpous, invade the area, erstwhile dominated by herbaceous plants, by means of seeds and underground rhizomes. The herbaceous plants of the preceding stage, now shaded, tend to disappear. The death and decay of the herbaceous plants further enrich the soil. As the shrubs grow in size and number, they continue to modify the soil and make the habitat more and more suitable for the support of still higher plants i.e., trees.

(vi) ***Climax forest stage:*** The first tree species to invade the area are usually xerophytic in character, but as the soil moisture increases, these are gradually replaced by mesophytic ones. The mesophytic species compete successfully and become dominant because their seedlings are much more shade-tolerant. Competition gradually becomes less intense as the community becomes stable and a climax state is reached.

The plants of climax community propagate and maintain the character of the community unless the climate changes or community is disturbed by man, fire or some other agency.

10.7 Differences Between Succession on Land and in Water

Succession on Land	Succession in Water
1. It begins with lichens or blue green algae.	1. It begins with phytoplanktons.
2. Initial succession is a slow process.	2. Initial succession is quite fast.
3. The whole of the area is involved in formation of climax community.	3. Climax community develops on the edge only.
4. Succession converts xeric environment to mesic environment.	4. It converts aquatic environment into mesic environment.
5. It reduces bare land area and converts it into fertile forest area.	5. It fills up water body and changes it into forest land.

11

Ecological Adaptations (Plant Adaptations)

11.1 Introduction and Ecological Classification of Plants

The living organisms react with their environments and they bear full impression of the environments in which they grow.In order to withstand adverse conditions of the environment and utilize to their maximum benefit the nutrients and other conditions prevailing therein, the organisms develop certain morphological, anatomical, physiological and reproductive features.Any feature of an organism or its part which enables it to exist under conditions of its habitat is called adaptation. Every organism develops certain adaptations and so does the population or a community. The completion of life cycle of an organism or stabilization of a community results through a series of adaptations which have survival value.

Adaptations of survival value comprise such features as prevent destruction of vital vegetative tissues and help in large production and efficient dissemination of reproductive bodies. Warming (1895) had realized for the

first time the influence of controlling or limiting factors upon the vegetation in ecology. He classified plants into several ecological groups on the basis of their requirements of water and also on the basis of nature of substratum on which they grow.

11.2 Classified Plants on the Basis of Nature of Substratum (Soil) into the following groups.

i) Plants of acidic soil (Oxylophytes)
(ii) Plants of saline soil (Halophytes)
(iii) Plants growing on the sand (Psammophytes)
(iv) Plants growing on the surface of rocks (Lithophytes)
(v) Plants growing in the crevices of rocks (Chasmophytes).

Epiphytes are not included in the above classification because of the fact that they do not have permanent connection with the soil. Warming's second classification (1909) of the plants is based on their water relations. The supply of water to the plants and regulation of transpiration are the factors that evoke great differences in plant forms and plant life.

11.3 On the basis of their water requirement and nature of soils, the plants have been classified as follows:

I. ***Hydrophytes:*** Plants growing in or near water.

II. ***Xerophytes:*** Plants adapted to survive under the condition of very poor supply of available water in the habitats.Xerophilous plants are further classified on the basis of their habitats as follows:

(i) Oxylophytes (on acid soils)
(ii) Halophytes (on saline soils)
(iii) Lithophytes (on rocks)
(iv) Psammophytes (on sand and gravels)

(v) Chersophytes (on waste land)
(vi) Eremophytes (on deserts and steppes)
(vii) Psychrophytes (on cold soils)
(viii) Psilophytes (savannah)
(ix) Sclerophytes (Forest and bushland)

III. ***Mesophytes:*** Plants growing in an environment which is neither very dry nor very wet. The detailed description of only some important ecological groups is given here.

11.4 Hydrophytes: (Greek, Hudor = water and Phyton = Plant; water plant)

Plants which grow in wet places or in water either partly or wholly submerged are called hydrophytes or aquatic plants. Examples are Utricularia, Vallisneria, Hydrilla, Chara, Nitella, Lotus, Ceratophyllum, Trapa, Pistia, Eichhornia (water hyacinth), Wolffia, Lemna, etc. Aquatic environment provides a matrix for plant growth in which temperature fluctuation is at minimum and the nutrients occur mostly in dissolved state but light and oxygen become deficient with the increase m depth of water bodies. Zonation of aquatic vegetation with increasing depth is a device for maximum utilization of light energy.

The aquatic environment is subject to water movements ranging from small vertical circulation to strong currents. Streams have a unidirectional movement and m seas the movement is reversible. The currents of water often abrade the inhabiting flora and varied modifications are encountered to withstand this abrasive action. Since water makes up a large proportion of the bodies of plants and animals (70 to 90% water in protoplasm), it affects all life processes directly.

In plants, the rate and magnitude of the photosynthesis, respiration absorption of nutrients, growth and other metabolic processes are influenced by the amount of

available water. Low relative humidity increases water loss through transpiration and affects plant growth. Conversely, plants in the regions with high moisture show reduced transpiration.

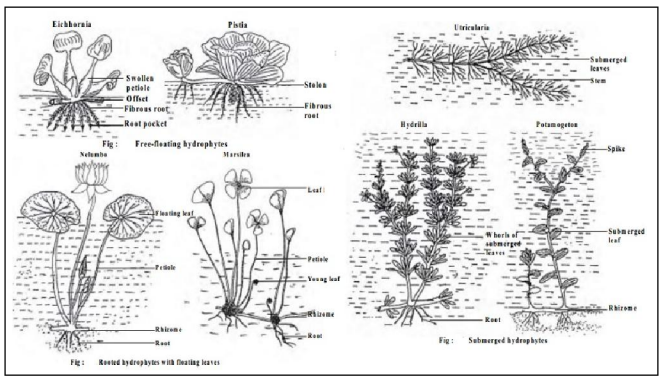
Some aquatic groups of higher plants probably originated from mesophytes. In the course of evolution several changes the physiology, morphology and behavior, all related to the aquatic mode of life, took place and by these evolutionary changes the mesophytic plants have become adapted to aquatic mode of life.

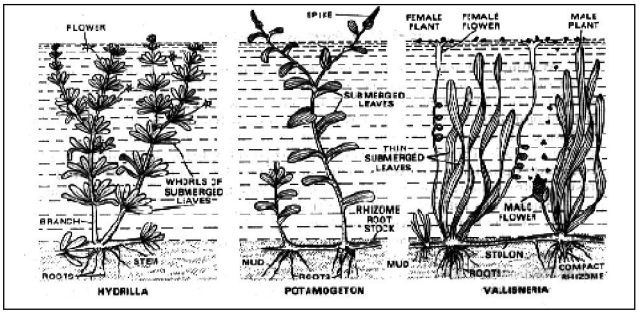
Classification of Hydrophytes

According to their relation to water and air, the hydrophytes are grouped into the following categories:

(a) Submerged hydrophytes
(b) Floating hydrophytes
(c) Amphibious hydrophytes.

(a) ***Submerged hydrophytes:*** Plants which grow below the water surface and are not in contact with atmosphere are called submerged hydrophytes. Such plants may be free-floating or rooted. Example Vallisneria, Hydrilla, Potamogeton, Najas. Ceratophyllum Mynophyllum, Utricularia, Chara, Nitella and a number of aquatic microbes.





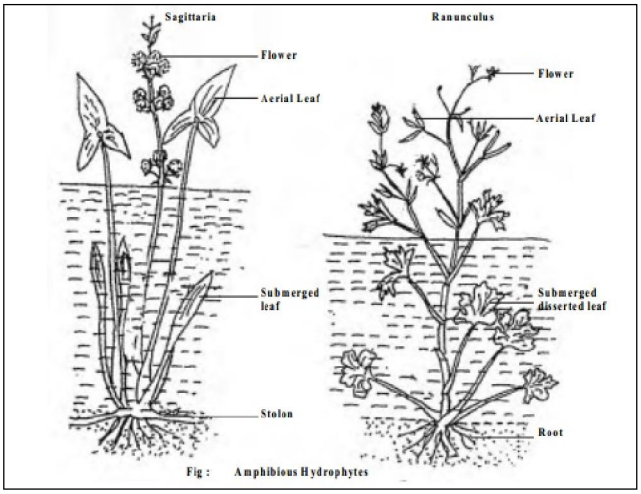


Fig : Amphibious Hydrophytes

(b) ***Floating hydrophytes:*** Plants that float on the surface or slightly below the surface of water are called floating hydrophytes. These plants are in contact with both water and air. They may or may not be rooted in the soil. On this ground, the floating plants have been divided into two groups.

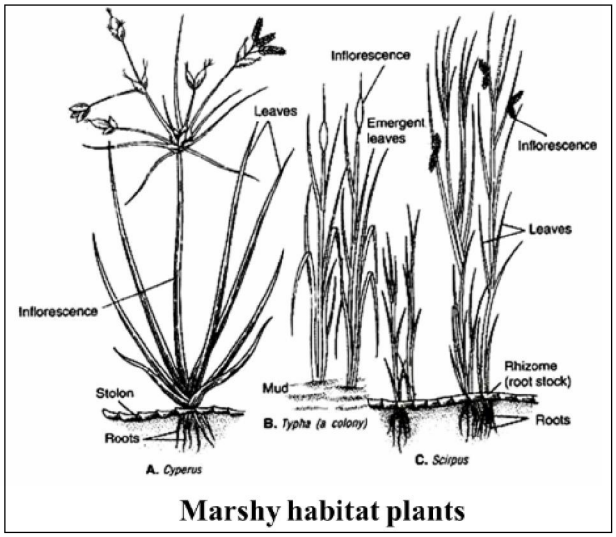
(i) ***Free floating hydrophytes:*** These plants float freely on the surface of water but are not rooted in the mud. Examples-wolffia arhiza and Wolffia microscopica (a rootless minutes duck weed). Trapa bispinosa, Lymnanthemum. Eichhornia crassipes (water hyacmth, Verna—

Jalkumbhi), Salvinia (a fern), Azolla (a water fern).

(ii) ***Floating but rooted hydrophytes:*** Some submerged plants are rooted in muddy substrata of Ponds Rivers and lakes but their leaves and flowering shoots float on or above the surface of water. They are grouped as floating but rooted hydrophytes. Nelumbium speciosum (Lotus), Victoria regia (water lily), Ceratopteris thalictroides (a hydrophytic fern of family Parkariaceae), etc.

(c) ***Amphibious hydrophytes:*** These plants are adapted to both aquatic and terrestrial modes of life. Amphibious plants grow either in shallow water or on the muddy substratum^ Amphibious plants which grow in saline marshy places are termed as 'halophytes. Roots and some parts of stems and leaves in these plants may be submerged in water or buried m mud but some foliage, branches and flowering shoots spring well above the surface of water or they may spread over the land.

The aerial parts of these amphibious plants show mesophytic or sometimes xerophytic features, while the submerged parts develop true hydrophytic characters. Some varieties of rice plants, (Oryza sativa), Marsilea, Sagittaria. Alisma, Jussiaea. Neptuma, Commelina, Polygonum, Ranunculus aquatilis, Phragmites. Enhydra fluctuans, etc. are familiar examples of this group of hydrophytes. In some amphibious plants the shoots are completely exposed to air as m land plants but the roots are buried in water lodged soil or mud. They are called marsh plants. The common examples of marsh plants are Cyperus, Typha, Scirpus, Rumex, etc.



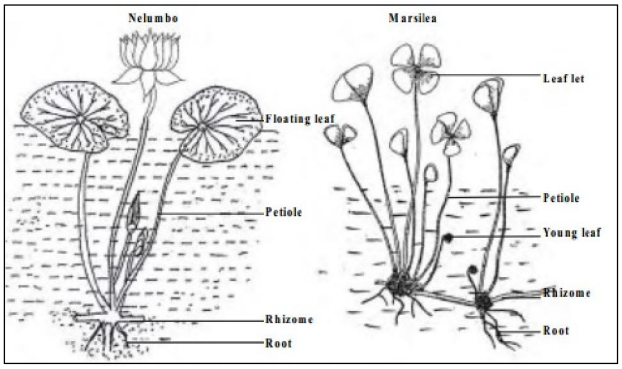


Fig. Rooted Hydrophytes with Floating Leaves

These are listed below:

(i) Temperature of water
(ii) Osmotic concentration of water
(iii) Toxicity of water

The osmotic concentration and toxicity are dependent upon the amount and nature of chemical substances dissolved in water. The physiology of aquatic plants is greatly affected by the change in osmotic concentration of

water. The aquatic plants are subjected to less extremes of temperature because water is bad conductor of heat (i.e., it takes long time m its heating and cooling). Hydrophytes are less affected as the transpiration from the plant tissue is completely out of question.

11.5 Hydrophytic Adaptations

As the aquatic environment is uniform throughout, the hydrophytes develop very few adaptive features.

Important features of these plants are described in the following heads

A. Morphological

(i) ***Roots:*** Root systems in hydrophytes are poorly developed which may or may not be branched in submerged hydrophytes. Roots are meaningless as body which is in direct contact with water acts as absorptive surface and absorbs water and minerals. This may probably be the reason why roots in hydrophytes are reduced or absent. Roots of floating hydrophytes show very poor development of root hairs.

Roots in floating plants do not possess true root caps but very often they develop root pockets or root sheaths which protect their tips from injuries. Exact functions of these root pockets, however, are not fully understood. Some rooted hydrophytes like Hydrilla, Valhsnena sptrahs, Elodta canadensis, though they derive their nourishments from water by their body surfaces, are partly dependent on their roots for minerals from the soil.

Roots are totally absent in some plants, e g., Ceratophyllum, Salvinia, Azolla, Utricularia, etc. In Jussiaea repens two types of roots develop when the plants grow on the surface of water, some of

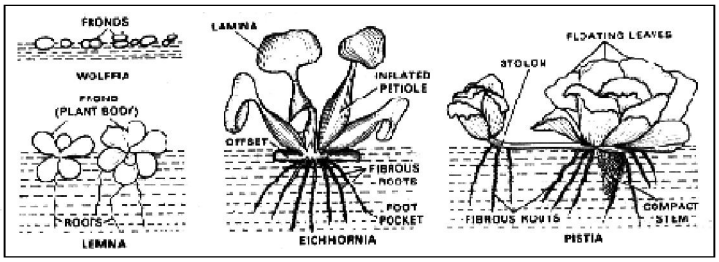
them are floating roots which are negatively geotropic having spongy structures. The floating roots keep the plants afloat.

(ii) ***Stem:*** In aquatic plants, stem is very delicate and green or yellow in colour. In some cases it may be modified into rhizome or runner, etc.

(iii) ***Leaves:***

(a) In floating plants leaves are generally peltate, long, circular, light or dark green in colour, thin and very smooth. Their upper surfaces are exposed in the air but lower Les are generally in touch with water. In lotus plant petioles of leaves show indefinite power of growth and they keep the laminae of leaves always on the surface of water.

(b) ***Heterophylly:*** Some aquatic plants develop two different types of leaves in them. This phenomenon is termed as heterophylly. Examples are Sagittaria sagittaefolia, Ranunculus aquatilis, Limnophila heterophylla, Salvinia, Azolla etc. In this phenomenon, generally the submerged leaves are linear ribbon shaped or highly dissected and the leaves that are found floating on or above the surface of water are broad circular or slightly lobed. The occurrence heterophylly is associated probably with the following characteristic physiological behaviours of these aquatic plants.



(i) Quantitative reduction in transpiration.

(ii) The broad leaves on the surface overshadow the submerged dissected leaves of the same plant and thus they reduce the intensity of light falling on the submerged leaves. The submerged leaves require light of very low intensity.

(iii) Plants show very little response to drought because the necessity of excess water during drought period is compensated by submerged leaves which act as water absorbing organs.

(iv) Variation in the life-forms and habitats.

(v) Broad leaves found on the surface of water transpire actively and regulate the hydrostatic pressure in the plant body.

(c) Leaves of free floating hydrophytes are smooth, shining and frequently coated with wax. The wax coating protects the leaves from chemical and physical injuries and also prevents the water clogging of stomata.

(d) In floating plants of water hyacinth, Trapa etc., the petioles become characteristically swollen and develop spongyness which provides buoyancy to these plants.

(e) Leaves in submerged hydrophytes are generally small and narrow. In some case, e.g., Myriophyllum, Utricularia, Ceratophyllum, etc., they may be finely dissected. The mall slender terete segments of dissected leaves offer little resistance against the water currents. In this way plants are subjected to little mechanical stress and strain of water.

(f) In the Amphibious plants, the leaves that are exposed to air show typical mesophytic features. They are more tough than the leaves of other groups of hydrophytes.

(g) Pollination and dispersal of fruits and seeds are accomplished by the agency of water. Seeds and fruits are light in weight and thus they can easily float on the surface of water.

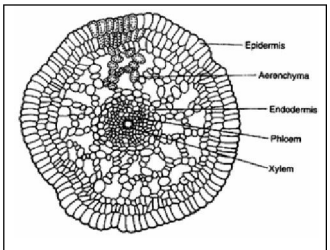
(h) Vegetative reproduction is common method of propagation in hydrophytes. It is accomplished either through fragmentation of ordinary shoots or by winter buds. In algae, reproduction is accomplished by zoospores and other specialized motile or non-motile spores.

B. Anatomical Modifications

The anatomical modifications in hydrophytes aim mainly at:

(i) Reduction in protecting structures,
(ii) Increase in the aeration,
(iii) Reduction of supporting or mechanical tissues, and
(iv) Reduction of vascular tissues.

Various anatomical adaptations of hydrophytes are listed below:



T.S. of Hydrilla stem

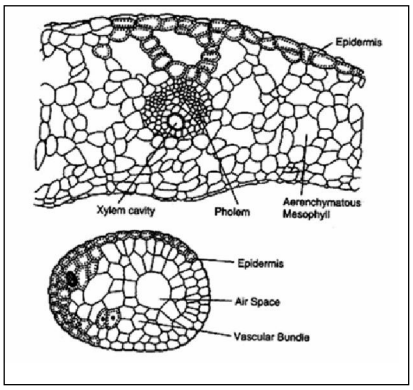
I. Reduction in protecting structures:

(a) Cuticle is totally absent in the submerged parts of the plants. It may be present in the form of very fine film on the surfaces of parts which exposed to atmosphere.

(b) Epidermis in hydrophytes is not a protecting layer but it absorbs water, minerals and gases directly from the aquatic environment. Extremely thin cellulose walls of epidermal cells facilitate the absorption process.

(c) Epidermal cells contain chloroplasts, thus they can function as photosynthetic tissue, especially where the leaves and stems are very thin, e.g. Hydrilla.

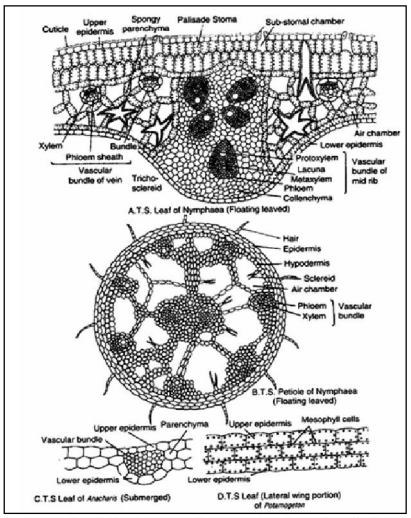
(d) Hypodermis in hydrophytes is poorly developed. Its cells are extremely thin walled.



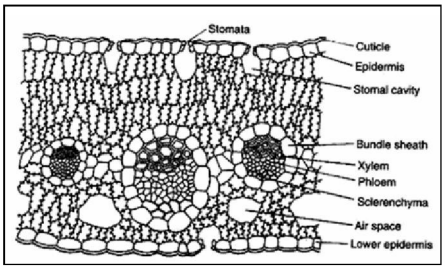
T.S. of submerged leaves. Vallisneria and ceratophyllum

II. Increase in the aeration:

(a) Stomata are totally absent in submerged parts of the plants. In some exceptional cases, vestigial and functionless stomata have been noticed. In these cases exchange of gases takes place directly through cell walls. In the floating leaves, stomata develop in very limited number and are confined only to the upper surface. In amphibious plants stomata may be scattered on all the aerial parts and they develop comparatively in larger number per unit area than those on the floating leaves.



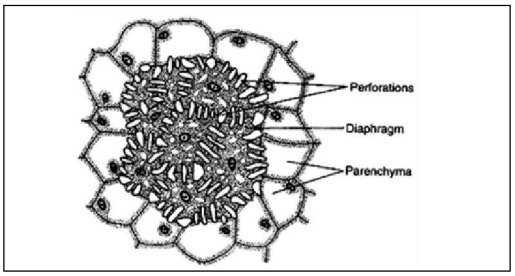
Anatomical features of some hydrophytic leaves



V.S. of an amphibious leaf

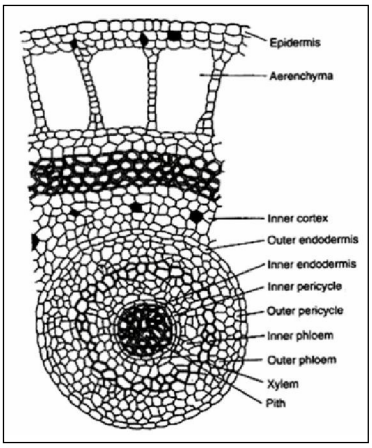
(b) ***Air chambers:*** Aerenchyma in submerged leaves and stem is very much developed. Air chambers are filled with respiratory gases and moisture. These cavities are separated from one another by one or two cells thick chlorenchymatous partitions. The different types of air chambers are CO_2 present in the air chambers is used in the photosynthesis and the O_2 produced in the process of photosynthesis and also that already present in the air chambers is used in respiration.

The air chambers also develop finely perforated cross septa which are called diaphragms. The diaphragms afford better aeration and perhaps check floating. The Aerenchyma provides buoyancy and mechanical support to aquatic plants. Air chambers are abundantly found in the fruits of hydrophytes rendering them buoyant and thus facilitating their dispersal by water.



Detailed structure of diaphragm of Pontederia

Development of air chambers in the plants is governed by habitat. This point is clear from the anatomy of Jussiaea suffructicosa. In this case, air chambers develop normally if plants are growing in water but they seldom develop if the plants are growing on the land.



T.S. of Marsilea rhizome

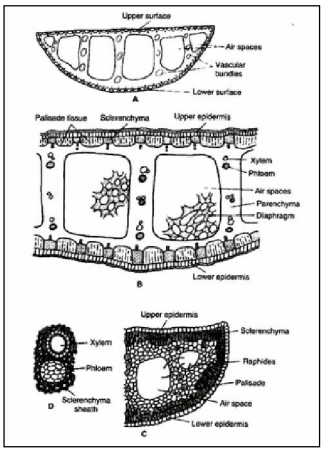
III. Reduction of supporting or mechanical tissues:

(a) Mechanical tissues are absent or poorly developed in the floating and submerged parts of plants because buoyant nature of water saves them from physical injuries. The thick walled sclerenchymatous tissue is totally absent m submerged and floating hydrophytes. They may, however, develop in the cortex of amphibious plants particularly in the aerial or terrestrial parts. Generally elongated and loosely arranged spongy cells are found in the plant body. These thin-walled cells, when turgid, provide mechanical support to the plants.

(b) The reduction of absorbing tissue (roots act chiefly as anchors and root hairs are lacking).

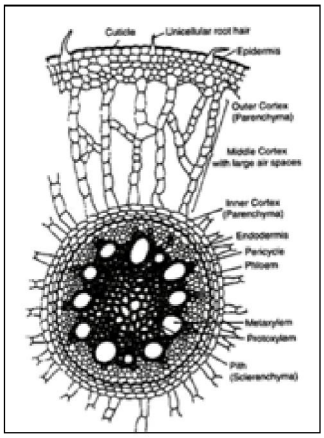
(c) In water lily and some other plants, special type of star shaped lignified cells, called asterosclereids, develop which give mechanical support to the plants.

IV. Reduction of vascular tissues: Conducting tissue is very poorly developed. As the absorption of water and nutrients takes place through the entire surface of submerged parts, there is little need of vascular tissues in these plants. In the vascular tissues, xylem shows greatest reduction. In some cases, it consists of only a few tracheids while in some, xylem elements are not at all developed. Some aquatic plants, however, show a lacuna in the centre in the place of xylem. Such spaces resemble typical air chambers.

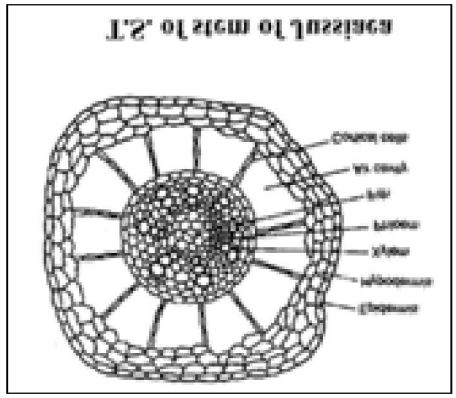


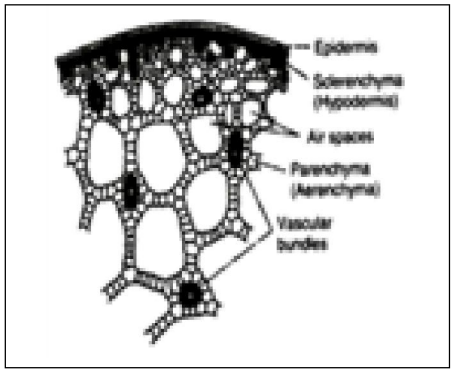
Anatomy of leaf Typha

Phloem tissue is also poorly defined in most of the aquatic plants but in some cases it may develop fairly well. Sieve tubes of aquatic plants are smaller than those of mesophytes. Phloem parenchyma is extensively developed. Endodermis may or may not be clearly defined. The Vascular bundles are generally aggregated towards the centre. Secondary growth in thickness does not take place in the aquatic stem and roots.



T.S. of root of *Typha latifolia*





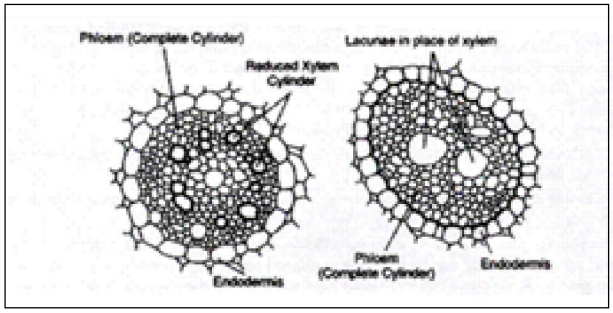
T.S. of petiole of Eichhornia

Distinctive features of different groups of hydrophytes are summarized in the following chart.

C. Physiological adaptations in hydrophytes: The aquatic plants exhibit a low compensation point and low osmotic concentration of cell sap. Osmotic concentration of cell sap is equal or slightly higher than that of water. Nutrients are absorbed by the submerged plants through the general plant surface. The gases are exchange from the water through the surface cells.

The gases produced during photosynthesis and respiration are partly retained in the air chambers of

aerenchyma to be utilized as and when required. There is no transpiration from the submerged hydrophytes. However emergent plants and free floating hydrophytes have excessive rate of transpiration. Mucilage cells and mucilage canals secrete mucilage to protect the plant body from decay under water.



T.S. of stele of the stem of *Elatine and potomogeton*

11.6 Xerophytes

Plants which grow in dry habitats or xeric conditions are called xerophytes. Places where available water is not present adequate quantity are termed xeric habitats.

Xeric habitats may be of following types:

(i) Habitats physically dry (where water retaining capacity of the soil is very low and the climate is dry, e.g., desert, rock surface, waste land, etc.).

(ii) Habitats physiologically dry (places where water is present in excess amount but it is not such as can be absorbed by the plants easily. Such habitats may be either too salty or too acidic, too hot or too cold).

(iii) Habitats dry physically as well as physiologically, e.g., slopes of mountains.

Xerophytes are characteristic plants of desert and semi-desert regions, yet they can grow in mesophytic conditions where available water is in sufficient quantity. These plants

can withstand extreme dry conditions, low humidity and high temperature.

When growing under unfavorable conditions, these plants develop special structural and physiological characteristics which aim mainly at the following objectives:

(i) To absorb as much water as they can get from the surroundings;

(ii) To retain water in their organs for very long time;

(iii) To reduce the transpiration rate to minimum; and

(iv) To check high consumption of water

Xerophytes are categorized into several groups according to their drought resisting power. These groups are as follows:

(i) Drought escaping plants: These xerophytes are short-lived. During critical dry periods they survive m the form of seeds and fruits which have hard and resistant seed-coats and pericarps respectively. At the advent of favorable conditions (which are of very short duration), the seeds germinate into new small sized plants which complete their life cycles within a few weeks' time. The seeds become mature before the dry condition approaches.

In this way, plants remain unaffected by extreme conditions. These are called ephemerals or drought evaders or drought escapers. These plants are very common in the semiarid zones where rainy season is of short duration. Examples—(Papilionatae), some inconspicuous compositae (e.g., Artemesid) and members of families Zygophyllaceae, Boraginaceae, some grasses etc.

(ii) Drought enduring plants: These are small sized plants which have capacity to endure or tolerate drought.

(iii) ***Drought resistant plants:*** These plants develop certain adaptive features in them through which they can resist extreme droughts. Xerophytes grow on a variety of habitats. Some grow on rocky soils (Lithophytes) some in deserts, some on the sand and gravels (Psammophytes) and some may grow on the waste lands (Eremophytes). Some plants of xeric habitat have water storing fishy organs, while some do not develop such structures.

On this ground xerophytes can be divided into two groups which are as follows:

(i) Succulent xerophytes.

(ii) Non-succulents, also called true xerophytes.

Succulent xerophytes are those plants in which some organs become swollen and fleshy due to active accumulation of water in them or in other words, the bulk of the plant body is composed of water storing tissues. Water stored in these tissues is consumed during the period of extreme drought when the soil becomes depleted of available water.

11.7 Xerophytic Adaptations

Plants growing in the dry habitats develop certain structural devices in them. These structure modifications in xerophytic plants may be of two types.

(i) ***Xeromorphic characters:*** Xerophytic characters that are genetically fixed and inherited are referred to as xeromorphic. They will appear in the xerophytes irrespective of conditions whether they are growing in deserts or in humid regions. Halophytic mangroves and many other evergreen trees, although growing in moist conditions always develop xeromorphic characters.

(ii) ***Xeroplastic characters:*** These features are induced by drought and are always associated with dry

conditions. They are never inherited. These characters may disappear from plants if all the favourable conditions are made available to them.

Important xerophytic features are summarized under the following heads:

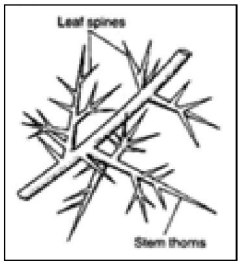
(i) Morphological (external) adaptations;
(ii) Anatomical (internal) adaptations;
(iii) Physiological adaptations.

A. External Morphology of Xerophytes

(a) ***Roots:*** Xerophytes have well developed root systems which may be profusely branched. It is extensive and more elaborate than shoot system. Many desert plants develop superficial root system where the supply of water is restricted to surface layer of the earth. The roots of perennial xerophytes grow very deep in the earth and reach the layers where water is available in plenty. Root hairs are densely developed near the growing tips of the rootlets. These enable the roots to absorb sufficient quantity of water.

(b) ***Stem:*** Some of the important characteristics of xerophytic stems are listed below:

(i) Stems of some xerophytes become very hard and woody. It may be either aerial or subterranean.



Ulex stem

(ii) They are covered with thick coating of wax and silica as in Equisetum. Some may be covered with dense hairs as is Calotropis.

(iii) In some xerophytes, stems may be modified into thorns, e.g., Duranta, Ulex, etc.

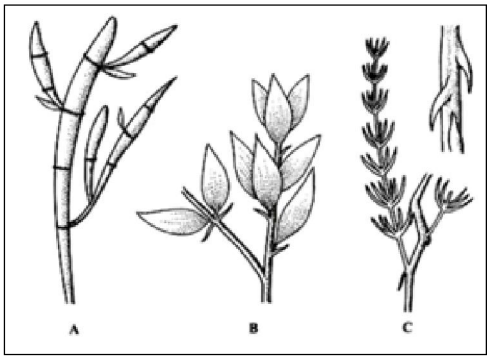
(iv) In stem succulents, main stem itself becomes bulbous and fleshy and it seems as if leaves in these plants are arising directly from the top of the roots. Example, *Kleinia articulata*.

(v) Stems in some extreme xerophytes are modified into leaf-like flattened, green and fleshy structures which are termed as phylloclades. Many cacti and Cocoloba (Muehlenbeckia) are familiar examples for this. In Ruscus plants, the branches developing in the axils of scaly leaves become metamorphosed into leaf-like structures, the phylloclades or cladophylls.

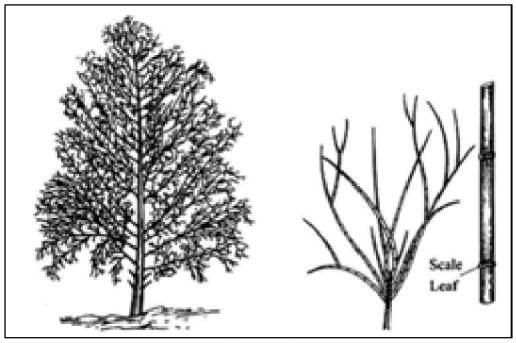
In Asparagus plant also a number of axillary branches become modified into small needle-like green structures which look exactly like leaves. They are called cladodes. A number of species of Euphorbia also develop succulence and become green. In these plants, leaves are greatly reduced, so the main function of leaves, the photosynthesis, is taken up by these green phylloclades or cladodes which are modified stems.

(c) Leaves:

(i) In some xerophytes the leaves, if present, are greatly caducous, i.e., they fall early in the season, but in the majority of the plants leaves are generally reduced to scales, as in Casuarina , Ruscus , Asparagus, etc.

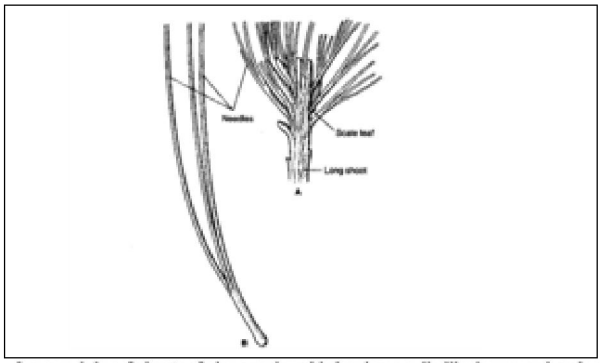


Phylloclade and cladodes



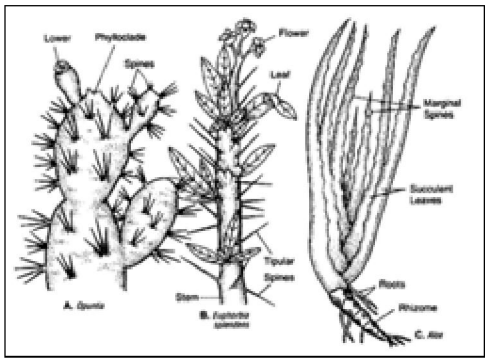
Casurina

(ii) Some evergreen xerophytes have needle-shaped leaves, e.g., Pinus.



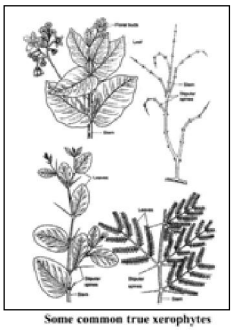
Long and dwarf shoots of pinus roxburghi showing needle-like leaves and scales

(iii) In leaf succulents, the leaves swell remarkably and become very fleshy owing to storage of excess amount of water and latex in them. Plants with succulent leaves generally develop much reduced stems. Examples of leaf succulents are Sedum acre, Aloe spinossissima (Gheekwar), Mesembryanthemum, Kleinia ficoides and several members of family Chaenopodiaceae.



Some Succulent Xerophytes

(iv) In majority of xerophytes, leaves are generally much reduced and are provided with thick cuticle and dense coating of wax or silica. Sometimes they may be reduced to spines, as for example, in Ulex, Opuntia, Euphorbia splendens, Capparis and Acacia.

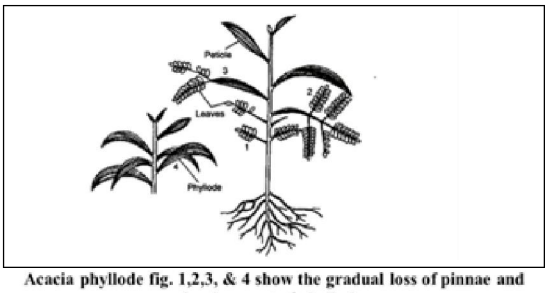


Some common true xerophytes

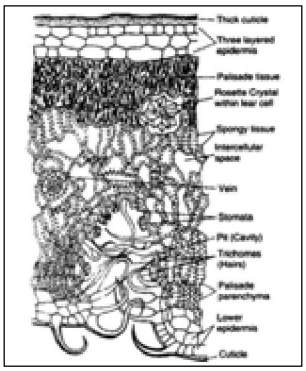
(v) Generally, the leaves of xerophytic species possess reduced leaf blades or pinnae and have very dense network of veins. In Australian species of Acacia (Babool) the pinnae are shed from the rachis and the green petiole swells and becomes flattened taking the shape of leaf. This modified petiole is termed as phyllode. The phyllode greatly reduces the water loss, stores excess amount of water and performs photosynthesis.

(vi) ***Trichophylly.*** In some xerophytes especially those growing well exposed to strong wind, the under surfaces of the leaves are covered with thick hairs which protect the stomatal guard cells and also check the transpiration. Those xerophytes which have hairy covering on the leaves and stems are known as trichophyllous plants. Zizyphus, Nerium, Calotropis procera are important examples.

(vii) ***Rolling of leaves.*** Leaves in some extreme xerophytic grasses have capacity for rolling or folding. In these cases stomata are scattered only on the upper or ventral surface and as the leaves roll upwardly, stomata are effectively shut away from the outside atmosphere. This is effective modification in these plants for reducing the water loss. Sun-dune grass is an important example for this.



Acacia phyllode fig. 1,2,3, & 4 show the gradual loss of pinnae and development of phyllodes



T.s. of Nerium leaf

(d) ***Flowers, fruits and seeds.*** Flowers usually develop in the favourable conditions. Fruits and seeds are protected by very hard shells or coatings.

B. Anatomical Modifications in the Xerophytes

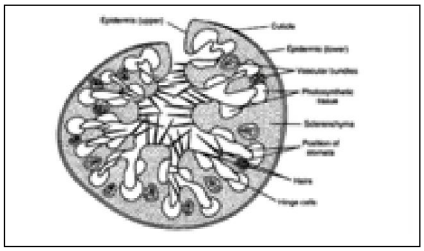
A number of modifications develop internally in the xeric plants and all aim principally at water economy.

The following are the anatomical peculiarities met within xerophytes:

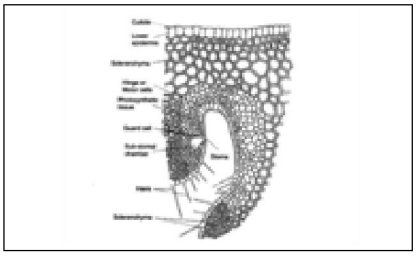
(i) ***Heavy:*** Heavy cutinisation, lignifications and wax deposition on the surface of epidermis and even in the hypodermis are very common in xerophytes. Some plants secrete wax in small quantity but some are regular source of commercial wax. Shining smooth surface of cuticle reflects the rays of light and does not allow them to go deep into the plant tissues. Thus, it checks the heavy loss of water.

(ii) ***Epidermis:*** Cells are small and compact. It is single layered, but multiple epidermis is not uncommon. In Nerium leaf, epidermis is two or three layered. In stems, the epidermal cells are radially elongated. Wax, tannin, resin, cellulose, etc., deposited on the surface of epidermis form screen against high

intensity of light. This further reduces the evaporation of water from the surface of plant body. Certain grasses with rolling leaves have specialized epidermis.



Structure of xerophytic leaf. T.S. of Ammophila leaf



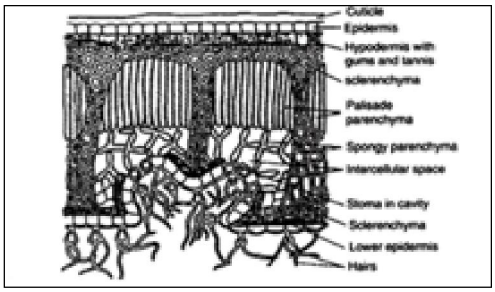
Structure of xerophytix leaf. T.S. of Ammophila shows two ridges

In these, some of the epidermal cells that are found in the depressions become more enlarged than those found in the ridges. These enlarged cells are thin walled and are called bulliform cells or motor cells or hinge cells. These are found usually on the upper surface of leaves between two parallel running vascular bundles.

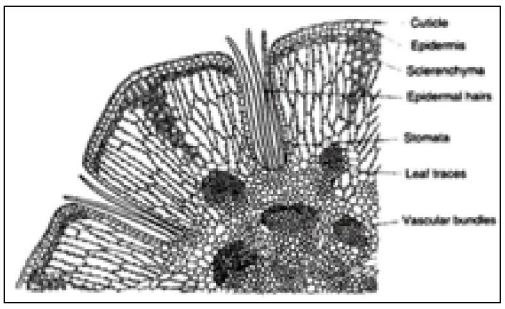
The highly specialized motor cells facilitate the rolling of leaves by becoming flaccid during dry periods. In moist conditions these cells regain their normal turgidity which causes unrolling of the leaf margins. Bulliform cells are of common occurrence in the leaf epidermis of sugarcane, bamboo, Typha and a number of other grasses.

(iii) Hairs: Hairs are epidermal in origin. They may be simple or compound, uni- or multicellular. Compound hairs

are branched at the nodes. These hairs protect the stomata and prevent excessive water loss. In some plants, surfaces of stems and leaves develop characteristic ridges and furrows or pits. The furrows and pits in these plants are the common sites of stomata. Hairs found in these depressions protect the stomata from the direct strokes of strong wind.



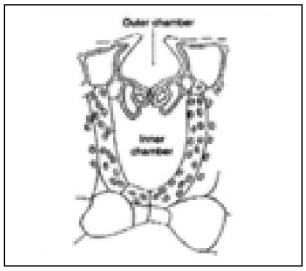
Anatomy of xerophytic leaf. T.S. of Banksia leaf



T.S. of casuarina stem

(iv) ***Stomata:*** In xerophytes, reduction of transpiration is of utmost importance. It is possible only if the stomatal number per unit area is reduced or if the stomata are elaborately modified in their structures. In xerophytes, number of stomata per unit area of leaf is greater than in mesophytes. They are generally of sunken type. In some cases, they may be found in the furrows or pits.

Subsidiary cells of sunken stoma may be of such shapes and arrangement that they form an outer chamber that is connected by narrow opening or the stoma. Such type of specialized stomata are very common in conifers, Cycas, Equisetum, etc.. Walls of the guard cells and subsidiary cells are heavily cutinized and lignified in many xeric plants.



A magnified sunken stoma

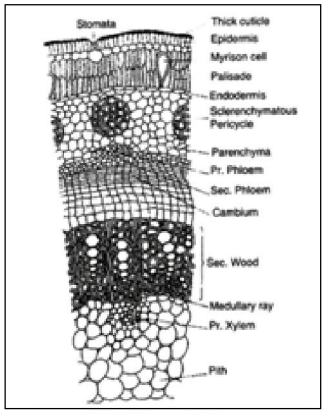
These devices have little value in directly reducing transpiration when stomata are open. When the plants are wilting and stomata are closed then only lignified or cuticularized walls of guard cells have protecting properties and under such circumstances only cuticular transpiration is possible which is of little significance.

In dorsiventral leaves stomata are generally found on the lower surface, but m rolling leaves they are scattered mostly on the upper surface. In the rolled leaves, stomata are protected from the direct contact of outside wind. This is very important rather secured device for lowering the rate of transpiration in xerophytic grasses.

(v) ***Hypodermis:*** In xerophytes, just below the epidermis, one or several layers of thick walled compactly grouped cells may develop that form the hypodermis. The cells may be much like those of epidermis and may either be derived from epidermis or from the cortex (m case of stem) or from the mesophyll (in case of leaf). The hypodermal cells may sometimes be filled with tannin and mucilage.

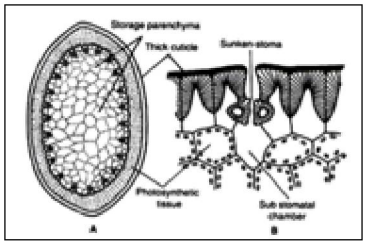
(vi) Ground tissue:

(a) In the stem, a great part of body is formed of sclerenchyma. In those cases, where the leaves are either greatly reduced or they fall in the early season, the photosynthetic activity is taken up by outer chlorenchymatous cortex. The chlorenchymatous tissue is connected with the outside atmosphere through stomata. The gaseous exchange takes place in regular manner in the green part of stem.

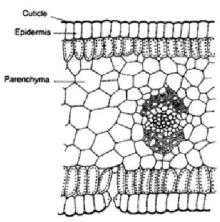


T.S. of Capparis Stem

(b) In succulent stems and leaves, ground tissues are filled with thin walled parenchymatous cells which store excess quantity of water, mucilage, latex, etc. This makes the stems swollen and fleshy.



Anatomy of xerophytic leaf of *Aloe*



T.S. of *Agave* leaf showing water storing parenchyma

which mesophyll is surrounded by thick hypodermal sheath of sclerenchyma from all the sides except from below. This sheath forms a diaphragm against intense light. Such xerophytes in which sclerenchyma is extensively developed are called sclerophyllous plants. In succulent leaves, spongy parenchyma develops extensively which stores water. In Pinus, the spongy cells of mesophylls are star shaped.

(d) Intercellular spaces are greatly reduced. Cells in the body are generally very small, thick walled and compactly grouped. They may be spherical, rounded or cuboid m shape. Such cells are very common in xerophytes.

(vii) ***Conducting tissues:*** Conducting tissues, i.e., xylem and phloem, develop very well in the xerophytic body.

C. Physiological Adaptations

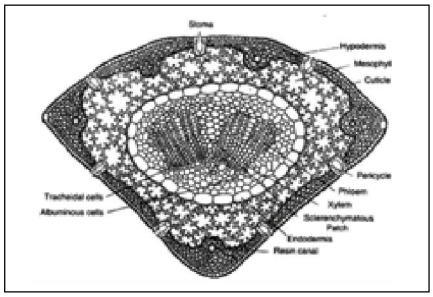
It was long assumed that the structural adaptations in the body of xerophytes were useful in reducing the transpiration but now a number of experiments related with the physiology of these plants reveal some facts which are contrary to the early assumptions. Works of Maximov support that except succulents, true xerophytes show very high rate of transpiration. Under similar conditions, the rate of transpiration per unit area in xerophytes is much higher than that in mesophyte. Stomatal frequency per unit area of leaf surface in xerophytes is also greater than that in the mesophytic leaf.

(i) Succulents are well known to contain polysaccharides, pentosans and a number of acids by virtue of which they are able to resist drought. The structural modifications in these succulent xerophytes are directly governed by their physiology. How does the succulence develop? Metabolic reaction which induces development of succulence is the

conversion of polysaccharides into pentosans. Pentosans have water binding property. These pentosans together with nitrogenous compounds of the cytoplasm cause accumulation of excess amount of water in the cells and consequently the succulence develops.

(ii) Another experimented fact in the physiology of succulent plants is that their stomata open during night hours and remain closed during the day. This unusual feature is associated with metabolic activity of these plants. In dark, these plants respire and produce acids. The heavy accumulation of acids in the guard cells increases osmotic concentration which, m turn, causes inward flow of water in the guard cells. When guard cells become turgid the stomata open. In the sunlight, acids dissociate to produce carbon dioxide which is used up in the photosynthesis and as a result of this osmotic concentration of cell sap decreases which ultimately causes closure of stomata.

(iii) In xerophytes, the chemical compounds of cell sap are actively converted into wall forming compounds that are finally incorporated into the cell walls. Conversions of polysaccharides into anhydrous forms as cellulose, formation of suberin, etc., are some examples.



T.S. of Pinus needle

(iv) Some enzymes, such as catalases, peroxidases, are more active in xerophytes than in mesophytes. In xerophytes, amylase enzyme hydrolyses the starch very actively.

(v) The capacity of xerophytes to survive during period of drought lies not only in the structural features but also in the resistance of the hardened protoplasm to heat and desiccation.

(vi) Regulation of transpiration. Presence of the cuticle, polished surface, compact cells and sunken stomata protected by stomatal hairs regulate the transpiration.

(vii) High osmotic pressure of cell sap. The xerophytes have very high osmotic pressure which increases the turgidity. The turgidity of cell sap exerts tension force on the cell walls. In this way, wilting of cell is prevented. High osmotic pressure of cell sap also affects the absorption of water.

11.8 Mesophytes

Mesophytes are common land plants which grow in situations that are neither too wet nor too dry. These plants can neither grow in water or water-logged soils nor can they survive in dry places. In other words, mesophytes are the plants of those regions where climates and soils are favourable. Vegetations of forests, meadows and cultivated fields belong to this category. The simplest mesophytic community comprises the grasses and herbs, richer communities have herbs and bushes, and the richest ones have trees (rainforests in tropics).

Mesophytes can be classified into two main community groups:

(I) Communities of grasses and herbs.

(II) Communities of woody plants.

I. ***Communities of Grasses and Herbs:*** These include annual or perennial grasses and herbs. The grasslands occur in area of approximately 25 to 75 cm rainfall per annum. They occur over large interior areas in many countries of the world such as U.S.A., Canada, Australia, Southern Russia, Africa, and India. The different types of grasslands and herb communities are listed below.

   (i) ***Arctic and alpine mat-grasslands and mat-herbage:*** Such communities are restricted to Polar Regions and mountain tops. The plants are small sized soft shrubs, and the under-shrubs are totally absent. Mosses may be intermingled but lichens do not appear.

   This group is subdivided into two:

   (a) Mat grassland (Gramineae)

   (b) Mat herbage (Dicotyledonous herbs such as Saxifraga, Delphinium, Potentilla, Ranunculus, etc.).

   (ii) ***Meadow:*** This forms a connecting link between mesophytes and hydrophytes as they grow in soils where moisture is 60—83%. Plants are tall perennial herbs with long stems. Soil is invisible due to overcrowding of plants. Plants are mostly rhizomatous. The leaves show mesophytic features, i.e., they are thin, broad, flat and glabrous. Members of families Gramineae, Ranunculaceae, Papilionatae and Compositae are found in abundance.

   (iii) ***Pasture on cultivated land:*** Vegetation is shorter and more open in pasture than in meadow. It is disturbed very often by grazing. The vegetation usually includes grasses, dicot herbs and some mosses.

II. ***Communities of Woody Plants (Bushland and Forests)***: These are classified and described in the following ways:

(i) ***Mesophytic bushlands:*** Such a mesophytic community occurs where temperature and other conditions are not favourable for the growth of forest but they are too much favourable format herbage vegetation. In many places, xerophytic and mesophytic bushlands merge with each other. Salix, Arabis, Lathynis, Vicea, etc., are the important plants of bushlands.

(ii) ***Deciduous forests:*** These forests are found in the areas where rainfall is high enough (about 75 -150 cm per year) and evenly distributed and the temperature is moderate. Such forests are characterized by trees which become leafless for certain periods of the year. The foliage persists for about five to eight months. This phenomenon of repeated foliation and defoliation of trees is prominent in temperate and cold regions (where there is long winter) and in tropics as well where the summer is of long duration. Leaves are dorsiventral and they exhibit many shapes and structures.

The trees are profusely branched. Mycorrhizae are present on the roots. Epiphytic mosses and lichens grow in abundance on the surface of the trees. The majority of the plants are pollinated by wind. The soil is very rich in microflora. The deciduous forests are named after dominant trees of those particular communities, as for example, Quercus-Oak forest, Betula-Birch forest, Fagus-Beach forest and so on.

Tropophytes (changing plants), an interesting group of tropical plants can be included in this group of mesophytes. Generally in tropical regions, the climate remains, more or

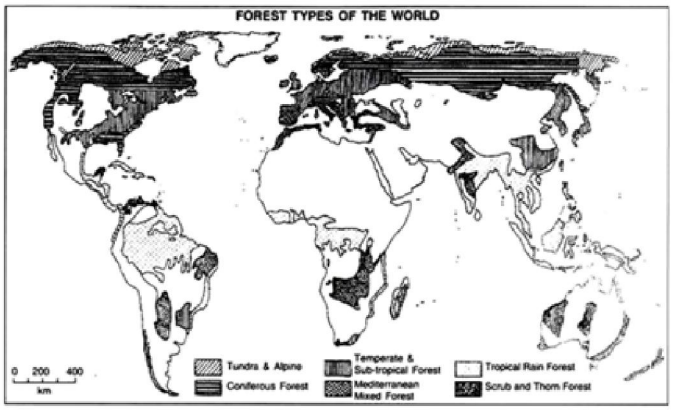
less, uniform throughout the year but in some tropics there is alternation between damp and dry cold climates. Plants growing in the tropics of disuniform climate develop some structural modifications through which they can endure the regular cycle of favourable and unfavorable seasons in one way or the other. In other words, tropophytes behave as mesophyte during rainy season and as xerophytes during dry cold season. The shedding of leaves may occur in the beginning of winter season or in the summer.

Important adaptive features of these plants are:

(a) Better protection of winter buds

(b) Thick bark covering on the stem

(c) Formation of underground stem which protects the perennating buds from extreme drought.



Forest vegetation of the world

(iii) ***Evergreen forests:*** These forests are found in the tropical and subtropical regions extending into the cold temperate zones of southern hemisphere. Plants in these forests are evergreen (i.e., they retain their leaves for more than one year until new foliage appears). Very few species in these forests may show leaffall.

Evergreen forests are of three types:

(a) ***Antarctic forests:*** These forests cover mountains of New Zealand and a number of other countries in the world where annual temperature ranges from 5°C to 70°C and the rainfall is abundant throughout the year. Important plants found in these forests are conifers, Myrtaceae, Hymenophyllaceae. Mosses and Liverworts may also be present.

(b) ***Subtropical forests:*** These forests are found in the regions of fairly high rainfall but where temperature differences between winter and summer are less marked. Winter generally goes without rains. The plants are about 30 metres in height. These forests include Oaks. Magnolias, Tamarindus and mosses. Subtropical forests occur in eastern part of U.S.A., South Brazil, South Africa, East Australia, Southern China, and Japan.

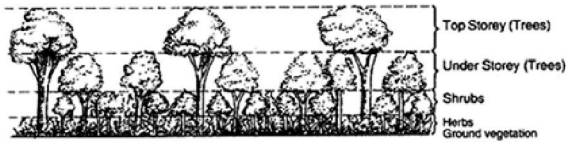
(c) ***Tropical Rain forests or Tropical Evergreen forests:*** Tropical rain forests are found in low lying regions near the equator with annual rainfall of 180 cm or more. This type of forest is most dense and is undisturbed by biotic agencies and is therefore, called "primeval forest". The rain forests represent the climax vegetation of the whole world.

Climate of such forest is characterized by:

(i) High humidity (air saturated with 95% humidity)
(ii) High temperature
(iii) Daily rains
(iv) No distinct dry season
(v) Soil very rich in humus, black in colour, and porous.

The plants show luxuriant growth and they are found in several storeys. Humboldt very appropriately commented "forest is piled upon forest", i.e., highest trees form top layer about 40—50 metres up, beneath which is the storey of short trees, then storey of low palms and trees, ferns, then,

storey of scattered herbs and shrubs (4 to 5 metres in height). On the surface of ground may be found Selaginella, mosses etc.



A forest view showing stratification of the plants

Roots of the plants may be found covered with saprophytes and parasites, e.g., Rafflesia, Balanophora. Monotrapa etc. Epiphytes and lianas are very common in these forests. Very dense growth of shrubs and climbers makes the forests impenetrable. Plants usually acquire tree forms. Most of them produce root buttresses for the support of their huge trunks. They show cauliflory in which the buds are protected by stipules, leaf sheaths and petioles, etc. Flowers are of various colors and they develop high over the heads.

Plants do not show periodicity for foliation and flowering. Each species has its own flowering and foliation time. The leaves exhibit almost all shapes and are usually directed upwardly to drain off excess water. The leaf surface is cutinised and impregnated with silica which protects them from violent rains. Leaves may be provided with channelled nerves and dripped tips (i.e., they have long and narrow apices). Trees develop thick barks.

Plants belonging to families Leguminoceae, Lauraceae, Myrtaceae, Moraceae, etc. are very commonly found in tropical rain forests.

Vegetational succession in the tropical rain forest takes place in the following sequence:

The pioneer colonizers are deciduous plants that are replaced gradually by semi-deciduous vegetation that persists for very short period of time after which semi-

evergreen plants make their appearance. The semi-evergreen vegetation becomes intermingled with some evergreen plants which finally become dominant. In this way the climax forests develop. This sequence is possible only if the biotic factors are not allowed to affect the vegetation to a major degree.

Tropical rain forests are found in central and southern America, central Africa, Pacific Islands, and Malaya and in many other equatorial countries of the world. In India, these forests are found in south-eastern Himalayas, tracts of Assam, and western slopes of Nilgiri. The tropical rain forests are of great economic values to the human beings. These yield timbers of high quality.

12

Ecological Indicators

12.1 Introduction

Plants grow in total harmony with the variables in their environment in any condition. Different species have different environmental requirements, and a species will develop and spread where it finds favourable conditions. As a result, the character and make-up of vegetation reflect the combined effects of all variables working in that ecosystem. Vegetation can be utilised as an environmental indicator if the relationship between vegetation and habitat elements is fully understood. This information can help determine regional land usage. In this approach, it would be feasible to confidently determine which sites should be farmed and which should be allowed to pasture, as well as which crop should be produced on each site, for example, plants like Agave, Opuntia, and Euphorbias are semi-desert markers. As a result, the presence of a specific plant species in a given location signals unique habitat and environmental circumstances, and these plant species are referred to as plant indicators, biological indicators, or ecological indicators.

12.2 Indicators of Soil

I. ***pH:*** The hydrogen ion concentration is measured by the pH. Soil pH determines whether the soil is acidic, neutral, or basic. Neutral soil has a pH of 7, acidic soil has a pH of less than 7, and basic soil has a pH of greater than 7. Because the soils are of varied sorts, they have a wide range of pH. The plants thrive in the soil because it provides them with their ideal pH.

The soil with high calcium contents are alkaline in pH and plants growing in alkaline pH are called as **calcicolous** or **calcifilies**. Following are the plants indicating such soil type, *Acacia arabica, Capparis aphylla, Tamarix dioica, Salvadora persica, Prosopis spicigera, Suaeda fruiticosa, Achyranthus aspera, Dalbergia sisoo, Carrisa,* etc.

The acidic soil is with calcium and magnesium deficiency. The plants growing in such soils are called as **calciphobous** or **calcifuge.** Following are the plants indicating such soil type, *Quercus dilatata, Cedrus deodara, Casuarina, Rumex dentatus, Betula alnoides, Indigophera gerardiana, Ricinus communis, Rhododendron arboreum,* etc.

II. ***Plants as indicators of Altitude:*** Altitude is factor that affects the temperature; therefore some specific plants are growing at particular altitude. A few examples from India are,

	Name of the plants	Altitudinal range (From sea level)
1	*Acacia arabica*	300-500 Meters
2	*Pinus roxburghii, P. Wallichiana*	1000-1700 meters
3	*Juniperous wallichiana, J. communis, J. recurva*	2800-4900 meters
4	*Rhododendron hypenanthum, R. lepidotum, R. pumilum, R. setosum, R. campanulatum, R. campylocarpum*	3200-4900 meters
5	*Kobresia duthei, K. copellifolia, Sedum crassipes, Primula*	5500-5800 meters
6	*Sedum crenulatum, Potentilla fruiticosa, Aronaria sps.*	6000 meters

***III. Plants as indicators of Ground water*:** Phreatophytes are plants that rely solely on groundwater for their survival. In arid and semi-arid regions, such plants can be considered safe indicators of ground water. Spring water is indicated by Acacia glandulifera and Prosopis juliflora. Saline water indicators include Medicago sativa, Atriplex, Salsola, and Suaeda.

Certain plant communities found in Indian deserts have been used by the Central Arid Zone Research Institute (CAZRI) in Jodhpur to identify the depth of ground water. The following are a few of them.

	Plant community	Depth of water
1	*Salvadora persica, Suaeda fruiticosa, Tamarix sps.*	6 meters
2	*Salvadora oleoides, capparis deciduas*	6-12 meters
3	*Prosopis cineraria, Zizyphus numularia, Z. complex, Panicum turgidum*	6-18 meters
4	*Crotolaria burhia, Leptadenia pyrotechnica*	6-20 meters
5	*Euphorbia caudicifolia, Acacia Senegal, Anogeisus pendula*	12-18 meters
6	*Capparis deciduas, Acacia indica, Nilotheca sps.*	12-20 meters

(IV) Plants as indicators of Minerals and Metals: Metallicolous plants can survive high levels of metal ions in the soil, whereas metallifuges cannot. Minerals can be seen in the region, and a plant growing in such a location reveals the sort of minerals present. The following are examples of plant communities that reveal the presence of a certain mineral in the environment in which they flourish.

	Name of the species	Mineral
1	*Lippa Nodiflora, Rumex sps.*	Nitrate
2	*Waltheria indica*	Cu, Pb, Zn
3	*Silene cobalticola, Crotolaria cobaltiola*	Cobalt
4	*Allium, Ambis, Atriplex*	Sulphur
5	*Asplenium adulterinum*	Nickel
6	*Salsola nitrata*	Boron
7	*Pinus* and *Juniperus*	Uranium
8	*Damara ovata*	Iron

(*Contd...*)

	Name of the species	Mineral
9	*Ilex aquifolium*	Aluminum
10	*Memecylon* (South Africa)	Bauxite
11	*Stercularia setacea*	Mercury
12	*Vollozia candida*	Diamond site
13	*Erigonum ovalifolium*	Silver
14	*Thuja sps, Papaver libanoticum, Alpinia speciosa*,(Brazil), *Equisetum plebejam* and *E. arvense* (India)	Gold-rich soil
15	*Astragallus preusia, A. pattersoni, A. garbanicillus, Aster xylarrhiza* and *Stanleya*	Selenium & Uranium

(V) Plants as indicators of Pollution: Pollution is the disruption of human life caused by external factors. Water can be contaminated by dumping domestic sewage and industrial effluents into bodies of water such as lakes, ponds, rivers, and other bodies of water that serve as primary supplies of drinking water in many places. Because of the addition of such sewages, which contain a variety of organic and inorganic substances, some bacteria, plants, and animal species emerge, and their growth reduces dissolved oxygen levels, resulting in oxygen deficit and water pollution. Water pollution indicators include *Oscillatoria, Nostoc, Utricularia, Chara, Wolfia,* Diatoms, and different forms of bacteria. Lichens are signs of pollution in the atmosphere.

13

Biogeochemical Cycle

13.1 Elements and Their Cycling Process

Biogeochemical cycle is a circuit or pathway by which a chemical element or molecule moves through both biotic ("bio-") and abiotic ("geo-") compartments of an ecosystem. In effect, the element is recycled, albeit there may be areas (known as "sinks") where the element accumulates for a long time in certain such cycles.

Biogeochemical cycles include all chemical elements found in living organisms. These chemical elements cycle via abiotic factors of ecosystems, such as water (hydrosphere), land (lithosphere), and air (atmosphere), in addition to being a part of live species; the living factors of the planet are collectively referred to as the biosphere. The biogeochemical cycles demonstrate one of biological systems' essential principles: the harmonious interactions between organisms and their environment, both biotically and abiotically.

All of the chemicals, nutrients, or components utilised by living creatures in ecosystems—such as carbon, nitrogen, oxygen, and phosphorus—work in a closed system, which

means they are recycled rather being lost, as they would in an open system. The energy of an ecosystem is generated in an open system; the sun constantly provides energy to the globe in the form of light, which is eventually used and lost as heat across the trophic levels of a food web.

The carbon cycle, nitrogen cycle, oxygen cycle, phosphorus cycle, and water cycle are the most well-known and essential biogeochemical cycles.

Equilibrium states in biogeochemical cycles are always present: a balance in the element's cycling between compartments. Overall balance, on the other hand, may entail compartments that are scattered globally.

13.2 Biogeochemical Cycles Types

Biogeochemical cycles are basically of two types: a) Gaseous cycles like carbon (as carbon dioxide), oxygen, nitrogen, etc. In gaseous cycles, the elements have a main reservoir in the gaseous phase, and the reservoir pool is the atmosphere or water.

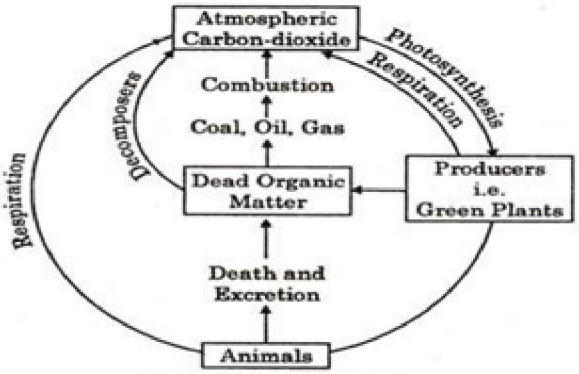
(A) Gaseous nutrient cycles:

- ***(i) Carbon:*** The carbon cycle is the biogeochemical cycle by which carbon is exchanged between the biosphere, lithosphere, hydrosphere, and atmosphere of the Earth.

All of these elements are carbon reservoirs. The carbon cycle is commonly described as four primary carbon reservoirs connected by exchange channels. The atmosphere, terrestrial biosphere (which usually includes freshwater systems), oceans, and sediments are the reservoirs (includes fossil fuels). Carbon transfers between reservoirs occur annually as a result of a variety of chemical, physical, geological, and biological processes. Although the ocean has the greatest reservoir of carbon near the Earth's surface, much of it is not involved in rapid exchange with the atmosphere. Major molecules of carbon are carbon

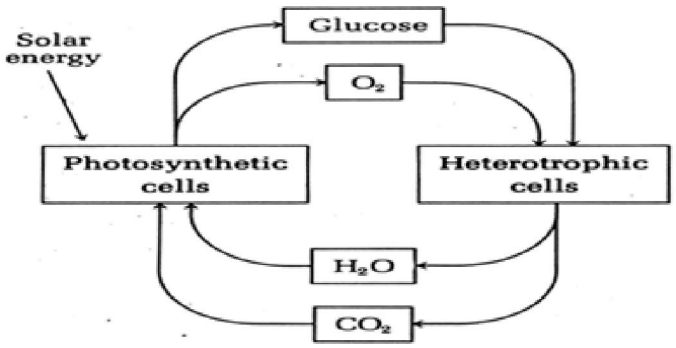
dioxide (CO_2), carbon monoxide (CO), methane (CH_4), calcium carbonate ($CaCO_3$), and glucose (in plant organic matter,$C_6H_{12}O_6$), and many others, as well as many ions containing carbon.

The global carbon budget is the balance of carbon exchanges (incomes and losses) between carbon reservoirs or between one specific loop of the carbon cycle (e.g., atmosphere-biosphere). The carbon budget of a pool or reservoir can reveal whether the pool or reservoir is acting as a carbon dioxide source or sink.



Carbon-Cycle.

(ii) ***Oxygen cycle:*** The oxygen cycle is the biogeochemical cycle of oxygen in the atmosphere (air), the entire content of biological matter inside the biosphere (the global sum of all ecosystems), and the Earth's crust. Hypoxic zones can form when the oxygen cycle within the hydrosphere (the aggregate mass of water found on, under, and over the surface of planet Earth) breaks down. Photosynthesis is the primary driving force behind the oxygen cycle, and it is responsible for the current Earth's atmosphere and life on the planet (see the Great Oxygenation Event).



The silicate and oxide minerals of the crust and mantle contain by far the biggest reserve of oxygen on Earth (99.5 %). Only 0.01 percent of the total has been released as free oxygen to the biosphere and atmosphere (0.36 %). Photosynthesis, which produces sugars and free oxygen from carbon dioxide and water, is the primary source of atmospheric free oxygen:

$$6CO_2 + 12\ H_2O \rightarrow C_6H_{12}O_6 + 6O_2\uparrow$$

Plant life on land as well as phytoplankton in the oceans are examples of photosynthesizing creatures. Prochlorococcus, a microscopic marine cyanobacterium, was identified in 1986 and is responsible for more than half of the open ocean's photosynthesis.

Photolysis, in which high-energy UV radiation breaks down atmospheric water and nitrous oxide into component atoms, is another source of atmospheric free oxygen. The liberated H and N atoms escape into space, leaving the atmosphere with only O_2.

Respiration and decay, methods by which biological life and microorganisms consume oxygen and release carbon dioxide, are the primary ways free oxygen is lost from the atmosphere.

The lithosphere also consumes free oxygen by chemical weathering and surface reactions. An example of surface

weathering chemistry is formation of iron oxides (rust):

$$4FEO + O_2 \rightarrow 2FE_2O_3$$

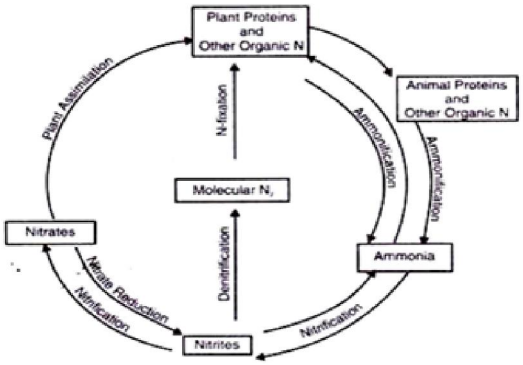
(iii) ***Nitrogen cycle:*** The nitrogen cycle is a complex biogeochemical cycle that will only be briefly discussed here. This cycle includes live organisms, as well as water, land, and air. Nitrogen is a crucial element since it is found in both proteins (as part of the amino acid makeup) and nucleic acids, such as DNA and RNA (present in nitrogenous bases).

The atmosphere, which contains around 78 percent nitrogen gas, is the biggest nitrogen reserve (N_2). In a process known as nitrogen fixation, nitrogen gas is "fixed." Nitrogen fixation is the process of combining nitrogen with oxygen to produce nitrates (NO_3). **Nitrates** can then be used by plants or animals (which eat plants, or eat animals that have eaten plants).

Nitrogen can be fixed in a variety of ways, including lightning, commercial methods (such as fertiliser), free nitrogen-fixing bacteria in the soil, and nitrogen-fixing bacteria found in legume roots (such as rhizobium). Nitrogen-fixing bacteria, which include free bacteria in soil, symbiotic bacteria in legumes, and cyanobacteria, or blue-green algae in water, utilise enzymes capable of fixing nitrogen gas into nitrates.

Nitrogen is disposed of in decay and wastes after being consumed by plants and animals. Decomposers and detritivores consume plant and animal detritus, converting nitrogen to ammonia, or nitrogen with three hydrogen atoms (NH3). Although ammonia is harmful and cannot be used by plants or animals, nitrite bacteria found in the soil may convert ammonia to nitrite (nitrogen with two oxygen atoms) (NO2). Although most plants and animals cannot use nitrite, nitrate bacteria convert nitrites to nitrates, which may be used by plants and animals. Some nitrates are also converted back into nitrogen gas through the process

of **denitrification,** which is the opposite of nitrogen-fixing; this process is also called nitrification. Certain denitrifying bacteria are responsible for this.



(B) ***Sedimentary nutrient cycle:*** Cycle of Sedimentation The weathering of an existing rock is followed by the erosion of minerals, their movement and deposition, and finally burial. The presence of less resistant minerals and rock pieces characterises first-cycle sediments. The reservoir is the earth's crust [elements found mostly in the earth's crust] — phosphorous cycle, sulphur cycle, calcium cycle, magnesium cycle, and so on.

(i) ***Phosphorous cycle:*** The requirement for phosphorus is critical because it is a major constituent of nucleic acid, cell membrane, cellular energy transfer systems, bones and teeth. Rocks and natural phosphate deposits are the main reservoirs of phosphorus. Unlike the nitrogen cycle, the phosphorus cycle involves fewer steps and fewer kinds of microbes. Nitrogen and phosphorus cycles differ radically on two accounts. Firstly, atmospheric inputs of phosphorus through rainfall are much smaller than nitrogen inputs,

and gaseous exchanges of phosphorus between organisms and environment are negligible. In contrast, main input of phosphorus in terrestrial ecosystems comes from the weathering of phosphorus containing minerals in the soil. Secondly, phosphorus shows high sorption or fixation capacity in strongly acidic, as well as alkaline soils, as a result of which phosphorus availability to plants is drastically reduced. Phosphorus occurs in soil solution mainly as orthophosphate (PO_4^{3-}). Plants absorb phosphate from soil and incorporate it into organic compounds. Phosphatising bacteria maintain supply of phosphate ions by converting organic phosphorus contained in detritus. Absorption of phosphorus by the higher plants is promoted by the presence of mycorrhizae.

14

Plant Geography

14.1 Phytogeography

Phytogeography(from Greek *phytón* = "plant" and *geographía* = "geography" meaning also distribution) or **botanical geography** is the branch of biogeography that is concerned with the geographic distribution of plant species and their influence on the earth's surface. Phytogeography is concerned with all aspects of plant distribution, from the controls on the distribution of individual species ranges (at both large and small scales, see species distribution) to the factors that govern the composition of entire communities and floras. Phytogeography encompasses various fields such as environment, flora (taxa), vegetation (plant community) and origin.

'Plant geography or phytogeography- deals with the distribution of flora or vegetation in various regions of earth (floristics).'

According to Campbell (1926), the main theme of plant geography is to discover the similarities and diversities in the plants and floras of the present and past found in widely separated parts of the earth.

Wulff (1943) states that Phytogeography is the study of distribution of plant species in their habitats and elucidation of origin and history of development of floras.

According to Croizat (1952), Phytogeography is the study of migration and evolution of plants in time and space.

14.2 Major Divisions of Phytogeography

There are two major divisions of Phytogeography:

(i) Descriptive or Static Phytogeography

(ii) Interpretive or Dynamic Phytogeography

Descriptive Phytogeography

This deals with the actual description of floristic or vegetational groups found in different parts of the world. Early plant geographers described floras and attempted to divide earth into floristic and botanical zones.

Interpretive or Dynamic Phytogeography

This deals with the dynamics of migration and evolution of plants and floras. It explains the reasons for varied distribution of plant species in different parts of the world. It is a borderline science involving synthesis and integration of data and concepts from several specialized disciplines like ecology, physiology, genetics, taxonomy, evolution, palaeontology and geology. Good (1931), Mason (1936), Cain (1944) and some others have pointed out the factors involved in the distribution of plants.

14.3 Principles of Phytogeography

Lowerence (1951) has suggested the following thirteen modern principles of Phytogeography which are classified into four groups:

I. Principles concerning environment:

(i) The distribution of plants is primarily controlled by climatic conditions.

(ii) There has been variation in climate during geological history in the past which affected migration of plants.

(iii) The relations between land masses and seas have varied in the past. The large land masses split up to form new land masses or continents which separated and reoriented. Land bridges between continents acted as probable routes for migration of plant and animal species. The land bridges became submerged in sea with the passage of time and the possibility for migration of plants and animals from one continent to another disappeared for ever.

(iv) Soil conditions on plains and mountains of different land masses show secondary control on distribution of vegetation. Halophytes, psammophytes, calcicols, calcifobs etc. have developed because of edaphic conditions.

(v) Biotic factors also play important role in distribution and establishment of plant species.

(vi) The environment is holocentric, i.e., all environmental factors have combined effects on the vegetation of a place (Ale & Pank, 1939).

II. Principles concerning plant responses:

(vii) Range of distribution of plants is limited by their tolerances. Each plant species has a range of climatic and edaphic conditions. Therefore, tolerance of a large taxon is the sum of tolerances of its constituent species.

(viii) Tolerances have a Genetic basis. The response of plants to environment is governed by their genetic makeup. Many of the crops through

breeding and genetic changes have been made to grow in wider range of environmental conditions. In nature, hybrid plants have been found to have wider range of tolerances than their parents.

(ix) Different ontogentic phases have different tolerances. Different developmental stages of plants show different degree of tolerances, as for example seeds and mature plants are more tolerants to temperature and moisture variations than their seedlings.

III. Principles concerning the migration of floras and climaxes:

(x) Large scale migrations have taken place. The fossils and palaeoecological evidences reveal that large scale migrations of plants and animals have taken place during Mesozoic era and Tertiary periods.

(xi) Migration resulted from transport and establishment. In the process of migration plants are dispersed to new habitats through their propagules such as spores, seeds, bulbils etc., and there they are established if environmental conditions are favourable. Plants grow and reproduce there and progeny perpetuates through ecological adjustments.

IV. Principles concerning the perpetuation and evolution of floras and climaxes:

(xii) Perpetuation depends first upon migration and secondly upon the ability of species to transmit the favourable variations to the progenies.

(xiii) Evolution of floras and climaxes depends upon migration, evolution of species and environmental selections.

13.4 Distribution

On the basis of area of the earth surface occupied by the plants, the various taxa are categorized as under:

I. Wides.
II. Endemics.
III. Discontinuous species.

I. Wides: Plants widely distributed over the earth in definite climatic zones and the different continents are referred to as wides. Cosmopolitan is applied for wides but, in fact, no plant is cosmopolitan in real sense of the term. Taraxacum officinale and Chaenopodium album are the common examples of the wides. Plants of tropical regions are called Pantropical. The plants of very cold climate may not only be found in the arctic regions but also in alpine zone of mountains in tropical and subtropical regions. These are called arctic-alpine plants.

II. Endemics: A taxon whose distribution is confined to a given area is said to be endemic to that area. The taxon may be of any rank, although it is usually at a family level or below, and its range of distribution may be wide, spanning an entire continent, or very narrow covering only a few square meters. The concept of endemism is important because in the past the formulation of biogeographic regions was based on it.

The limits of a region are determined by mapping the distributions of taxa; where the outer boundaries of many taxa occur, a line delimiting a biogeographic region is drawn. Major regions are still determined as those that have the most endemics or stated another way, those that share the fewest taxa with other regions. As regions are further broken down into subdivisions, they will contain fewer unique taxa.

This has been criticized because it assumes that species ranges are stable, which they are not. An alternative method of determining biogeographic regions involves calculating degrees of similarity between geographic regions. The concept of endemic distribution of plants was put forth by A.P. de Candolle (1813). Engler (1882) suggested two categories of endemic forms; Palaeo-endemics which are survivors of ancient forms and indigenous or native forms which are confined to a particular ocahty. According to area of distribution, the species may be continental endemics (restricted to a continent, endemic to a country, provincial, regional or local endemics (restricted to valley, hills, islands, etc.).

Endemism

Endemism is a phenomenon of restriction of species or taxa in a small region. The distribution of species dependent on ecological and geographical factors and the age of the species. In young species for instance, the distribution is narrow in the beginning and it is likely to be grow in its area in course of time, these are called **progressive** or **expanding endemics.** On the other hand certain old species on account of gradual dwindling become restricted to a small region; these are called **retrogressive** or **contracting endemics.**

Causes of Endemism

Endemism is the result of failure on the part of a species to disseminate its propagating organs

link the seeds and fruits. The causes of endemism are as follows.

(a) ***Narrow ecological amplitude:*** Ecological amplitude is the capability of a species to establish in various habitats lying along an environmental gradient. A

species showing very low ecological amplitude has localized distribution because of the narrow range of conditions on which their growth depends.

(b) ***Changing climatic conditions:*** Species exhibit geographic distributions that are constrained by a range of environmentalvariables, outside of which individuals may experience reduced survival and reproduction due to physical and physiological constraints. For example, species are often accustomed to particular temperature ranges, and dispersal to regions with temperatures outside those ranges reduces fitness. Additionally, resources necessary for population persistence may be insufficient at range edges and outside the range.

(c) ***Poor adaptability:*** To survive and reproduce, all living organisms must adjust to conditions imposed on them by their environments. Some species are adapted only to a particular environment. If plant or its propagules have less or no adaptability with different environment or other than existing, then it remains restricted in a particular area. If they migrate to new areas they fail to establish themselvesbecause they fail to adapt themselves to the new environment.

(d) ***Geographical barriers:*** Endemism results from the failure on the part of species to disseminate its seeds fruits spores or propagules because of existence of great barriers like mountains, oceans and large deserts.

(i) ***Mountain ranges:*** In India, endemic species are met with in the high altitudes of the Himalayas, for example species of *Potentilla, Saxifraga, Primula, Corydalis*, and *Anemone*. The high mountains prevent their migration.

(ii) ***Large deserts:*** Edaphic endemism, or the restriction of a plant species to a particular

geological substrate or soil type, is a common phenomenon in plants, particularly in the drier regions of the world. Desert soil is a difficult substrate for plants to germinate and survive. Therefore, plants or their propagule can't migrate and remain restricted.

(iii) ***Great expanses of water:*** The oceanic islands which are isolated from rest of the world by large expanses of water abound in endemic species and water barrier checks the migration of those species outside their original habitat. The result is isolation from the rest of the world. The flora of Hawaii Island mostly consists of endemic species. The genus *Wielandia* is endemic to the Seychelles Island in the Indian ocean.

Types of Endemism

Now the endemic species have been grouped into the following categories:

(i) ***Relics or Palaeoendemics:*** They are the survivors of once widely distributed ancestral forms, for example, Ginkgo biloba (restricted to China and Japan), Sequoia sempervirens (confined to coastal valleys of California, U.S.A.). Agathis australis, Metasequoia (Confined to Single valley in China). These species are called Palaeoendemics or epibionts. A great majority of the endemic species belonging to this type have many fossil relatives. They are also called living fossils. Because of little variability the endemics are adapted only to a particular environment and even if they reach new areas, they fail to establish themselves in new environment.

(ii) ***Neoendemics:*** The other endemics may be modem species which have had not enough time for occupying a large area through migration. They are called neoendemics. There are several such genera which are widely endemic or few species of which are endemic. Neoendemics show good variability and have many biotypes, grow in diverse habitats and have wide tolerance for habitats.

Some of the well-known endemic genera in Indian flora are Mecanopsis (Papaveraceae) *Chloroxylon swietenia* (Flindersiaceae, formerly Rutaceae). Catenaria and Butea (Papilionaceae) Caesulia (Compositae), Petalidium (Acanthaceae), etc. *Eletteria repens* (Zingiberaceae) Piper longum (Piperaceae), Piper nigrum (Piperaceae), Ficus religiosa (Moraceae), *Shorea robusta* (Dipterocarpaceae), *Venda caerulea* (Orchidaceae), *Salmalia malabarica* (Bombacaceae) *Eleusine coracana* (Grammeae) are the well-known endemic species of Indian flora.There are some special terms to designate the quality of these endemics, viz. Local endemics which are found in small land features, progressive endemics which tend to spread with time retrogressive endemics in which case the area of distribution is contracting and micro-endemics (i.e., the endemics of lower groups).

(iii) ***Pseudo endemics:*** These endemics arise due to mutation in existing population at a particular place. These pseudo endemics or mutants may or may not persist for long in the particular area where they originate. Endemism results from the failure on the part of species to disseminate its seeds fruits spores or propagules because of existence of great

barriers like mountains, oceans and large deserts. The oceanic islands which are isolated from rest of the world by large expanses of water abound in endemic species and water barrier checks the migration of those species outside their original habitat.

(iv) ***Local endemics:*** These are restricted to a much localized spot or just at one locality, e.g. varieties of mango (Alphanso- Ratnagiri, Neelum-Hyderabad, Kesar-Junagarh, etc).

(v) ***Ecological endemics:*** Restricted occurance due to ecological conditions, e.g. *Rhizophora mangle* (mangrove- creeks of Mumbai), etc.

(vi) ***Pan endemics:*** Restricted to few latitudes around the world, e.g. Palms ($8\text{-}20^0$), Cycads ($15\text{-}35^0$), etc.

(vii) ***Poly endemics:*** Restricted widely separated many areas, e.g. *Gnetum ula, G. gnemon,* etc.

Some Indian endemic plants: Certain important examples of endemic Indian plant species include *Ficus religiosa* (peepal), *F. benghalensis* (vad), *Aegle marmelos* (bel), *Artocarpus integra* (fanas), *Crotolaria juncea* (shaju), *Datura metal, Indigophera tinctoria* (nil), *Piper nigrum* (black-pepper), *Ellettaria cardamomum I(cardamon), Sessamum indicum* (til), *Butea monosperma* (palsa), *Saraka indica* (Sitecha ashok), *Shorea robusta* (sal), *Caryota urnes* (tadi), *Feronia elephantum* (kaith), *Holmskioldiasanguinea* (cup-saucer plant), *Eugenia sps, Isoetes sps, Equisetum pashanii,* etc.

III. Discontinuous Distribution: When plants occur at two or more distant places of the world which are separated by overland's or oceans hundreds or thousands of kilometers apart. Such a distribution is called discontinuous or disjunct distribution. Three genera Nothofagus, Jovellona and a for example are found in parts of South America, South

Africa and Australia which are -paraded by vast oceans.

The significant phytogeographical causes for discontinuous distribution are as follows:

(i) The species might have evolved at more than one place and they failed to migrate outside their original habitats because of barriers.

(ii) The species which were once widely distributed in the past disappeared from certain areas and are now surviving in some distant pockets.

(iii) The climate may also be a factor for discontinuity in distribution of species. Plants having specific climatic requirements are found in widely separated areas with similar environmental conditions, as for example, plants of arctic regions are also found in alpine zone of high mountains in tropics and subtropics. Salix and Silen species show discontinuous distribution in arctic-alpine regions.

14.5 Theories of Discontinuous Distribution

I. ***Theory of Land Bridge:*** According to this theory, land bridges occurring in between the separated continents are believed to have helped in the migration of various taxa from one continent to the other. Uniform distribution of plants and animals in different parts of the world during Palaeozoic era is believed to have been due to those land bridges. With the passage of time the land bridges became submerged in sea and the connections between the various continents snapped beyond the dispersal capacity of organisms resulting thereby the discontinuity in the distribution.

II. ***Theory of Continental drift:*** The theory of continental drift was propounded by Wegner (1912 1924) According to him the whole land- mass of

the world was a single super continent during Palaeozoic era. He named it as Pangaea. That super continent was surrounded by sea on all the sides which was named Panthalassa. During Mesozoic, Pangaea split up into two large landmasses; Laurasia in the north and Gondwanaland in south.

The two landmasses were separated by Tethys Sea. Du Toit (1937), however, suggested that Laurasia and Gondwanaland existed from the very beginning. The two large landmasses having characteristic flora and fauna broke up into new landmasses called continents. Laurasia gave rise to Eurasia, Greenland and North America and similarly Gondwanaland gave rise to South America, Africa, India, and Polynesia, Australia Antarctica etc.

About 135 million years ago reorientation of continents began. The continents were drifted apart by the oceans. This is called Continental Drift. The occurrence of Dinosaurs and many fossil plants lend support to the existence of Laurasia and Gondwanaland. With the separation of continents the distribution areas of several plant and animal species got separated and gave rise to discontinuous distribution areas.

14.6 Factors Affecting Distribution of Species

Several factors are known to affect the geographical distribution of plant species, some of which are as follows:

I. Geological history and distribution,
II. Migration, and
III. Ecological amplitude.

I. Geological history and distribution: The place where a species first originated is called its centre of origin. Evolution of species is a slow but continuous process. Some of the species in present day flora are quite old while a great majority of them are recent in origin.

The process of species differentiation involves:

(i) Hybridization between the related species as well as mutation and

(ii) The natural selection of the hybrid and mutant populations.

In the selection process not all the hybrids and mutants are selected by nature and only the fittest individuals which find the habitat conditions within their ecological amplitudes are selected and the individuals least fit are eliminated. Changing climate has also played important role in the origin of new species. In the course of evolution several old species became extinct, some of which can be found even today as fossils. The fossils provide direct evidence for the existence of various taxa in the past.

Age and Area Hypothesis

This hypothesis was proposed by J. W. Willis (1915) on the basis of his extensive studies of geographical distribution of certain plant species in tropics. On the basis of his findings Willis postulated that the species which evolved earlier occupy greater areas than those which appeared later in the evolutionary sequence. According to this hypothesis, the frequency of a species over an area is directly proportional to its age in scale of evolution and age of species is directly related with the area of its distribution.

Thus a small area of distribution of a species will indicate its relative young age. Willis has quoted several examples such as Impatiens, Primula, Gentiana, Rhododendron in support of his hypothesis. Genus Coleus may be quoted here as an example in support of this hypothesis. There are two species of Coleus namely C. elongatus and C. barbatus.

The former species is endemic while the latter is widely distributed. On the basis of areas under distribution of these species Willis considered C. elongatus less evolved and derived from C barbalins. Willis has also pointed out that

the majority of endemics are found to be members of large and successful genera. The age and area hypothesis, however, is not universal and it has been criticized by many.

II. ***Migration:*** The newly evolved species starts migration to new areas and side by side it undergoes further evolutionary changes. The dispersal of germules and propagules is brought about by several agencies like wind, water, glaciers, insects, animals, even man. The dispersal is followed by ecasis. Migration may be adversely affected and sometimes even totally stopped by some factors called migration barriers. Barriers in the dispersal of species may be classified as ecological or environmental and geographical.

The climate, an ecological barrier, plays important role in distribution and establishment of species. Unsuitable climatic condition or change of climate in particular area forces the species to migrate from one place to another and the failure of some species to migration leads them to gradual extinction. Besides climate, there are geographical barriers, as for example, high mountains, vast oceans or deserts.

The fresh water plants, for example, cannot be dispersed across oceans if their propagules are suitable only for fresh water dispersal and similarly germules or propagules of land plants from one country cannot reach other country separated by vast oceans and mountains. Species are called natives of the place of occurrence if they originated there. Outside the area of its origin, the species is referred to as exotic. Exotic species reach new area through migration. If any species is introduced intentionally in new area by man then it is called introduced species.

III. ***Ecological amplitudes and distribution:*** Environmental conditions not only influence the life and development of plants but also determine the presence or absence, vigour or weakness and

relative success or failure of various plants in a particular habitat. Each plant species of a community has a definite range of tolerance towards physical and biological environment of the habitat. This is referred to as ecological amplitude. The presence of species at a particular place, no doubt, indicates that the environmental conditions of that habitat are within its ecological amplitude but the absence of a species from one place does not necessarily indicate that the environment is not suitable for that species.

The ecological amplitude is governed by genetic set up of the species concerned and thus different species have different ecological amplitudes which may sometimes overlap only in certain respects. Further, some species may occur at different geographical regions as and when the conditions fall within their ecological amplitudes. As for example, some plants of temperate region say conifers, may also be found in alpine zone of high mountains in tropical and subtropical regions.

The other consideration in ecological amplitude as a factor in plant distribution is its change with time. In sexually reproducing plants the hybridization between related species results in offspring's with new genetic composition. With the change of environment the plant species also make adjustments with new environment by shifts in their ecological amplitudes facilitated by changes in the genotype. Within a species there may occur several genetically different groups of individuals (populations) which are adjusted to particular set of ecological conditions.

These populations are called ecotypes or ecological races or ecological populations. In Euphorbia thymifolia, for example, there are two major populations-one is calcium loving or calcicole and the other type is calcium hating or calcifuge. Similarly ecological races of Xanthium strumarium and Ageratum conyzoides differ in the

photoperiodic requirements. The existence of ecotypes within the species widens the area of its geographical distribution.

14.7 Botanical Zones of India

Vegetation of any place is modified by the environmental factors; climate, geology and biotic factors.

The great area of Indian subcontinent has wide range of climate and corresponding diversity in the vegetation.

India has been divided into the following botanical zones by D. Chatterjee (1962)

I. Western Himalayas

The northern part of our country is bounded by highest ranges of Himalayas and is one of the important botanical regions of the world with climate and vegetation ranging from truly tropical near the low altitudes to temperate arctic types at the high altitudes. The northern mountain division can phytogeographically be divided into western, central and eastern zones. Western Himalayas consist of north Kashmir, south Kashmir, a part of Punjab, H.P., Garhwal and Kumaon. This zone is wet in outer southern ranges and slightly dry in inner northern zone. The average annual rainfall in thisregion is from 100 to 200 cm. Snowfall occurs in this region during winter season. The region may be divided into three subzones.

(i) Submontane zone or lower region or tropical and subtropical belts (up to about 1500 metres altitude from the sea level).

(ii) Temperate zone (from 1500 meters to 3500 meters altitude),

(iii) Alpine zone (above 3500 meters and up to the line of perpetual snow).

(i) Submontane or lower region or tropical and subtropical belts: It includes outer Himalayas,

particularly region of Siwaliks and adjoining areas where annual average rainfall is over 100 cm. This zone ranges between 300 and 1500 meters above sea level. In this zone, forests dominated by timber trees of Shorea robusta are common. Other important tree species are Salmalia malabaricum, Butea monosperma. *Acacia catachu* and Zizyphus species.

In the swampy areas, *Dalbergia sisso* (Shisham), *Ficus glomerata*, *Eugenia jambolana* are of common occurrence. In west dry regions sal trees are replaced by xeric plants particularly Zizyphus, Carissa, Acacia, and thorny Euphorbias. At higher elevation, around 1000 to 1500 metre altitude, cheer (pine) forests are also found at certain places. The common species of pine are *Pinus longifolia* and *Pinus roxburghii*. Ground vegetation is scanty.

(ii) ***Temperate zone:*** It commonly ranges at the altitudes from 1500 to 3500 metres above the sea level. Oaks are dominant along with Populus, Rhododendron, Betula and Pyrus. Pinus excelsa, Cedrus deodara, Picea, Abies, Cupressus and *Taxus baccata* are found in the heavy rainfall region (between 1600 and 1800 m). Herbs are also common in this region. Common herbs are Ranunculus hirtila, Polygonum, Pedicularia, *Potentilla argyrophylla*. Primula, Delphinium, Clematis, crucifers and many members of Asteraceae.

In cultivated drylands of Punjab, wheat and barley are main crops. In Kashmir, Betula (birch), Salix (cane), Populus (poplar) are of common occurrence. Besides these, *Quercus semicarpifolia, Q. dilatata, Aesculus indica* (chestnut) and many conifers are commonly

met within this region. In west Kashmir rice cultivation is common Sar or saffron (*Crocus sativus*), apples, peaches, walnut, almonds and other fruits are important economic plants of Kashmir region.

(iii) ***Alpine zone:*** Above the altitude of 3500 meters and up to snowline (about 5000 m) is alpine zone. The vegetation consists of evergreen conifers and some low and broad leaved trees. The vegetation of this region is characterized by cushion habit, dwarf nature and gregarious habit. In lower alpine region, shrubby forests are common which may be (a) Birch—fir forest which is fairly dense and is mixed with evergreen shrubby Rhododendron at higher level and (b) Birch— Rhododendron forests in which silver fir, Betula, Rhododendron and Juniperus are common. In the upper alpine region, prominent herbaceous plants are the species of Primula, Polygonum, Gentiana, Cassiope, Meconopsis, Saxifraga, Potentilla, Geranium, Aster, Astragalus, etc. which form alpine meadows. At about 5000 meter altitude and above snow perpetuates round the year and plant growth is almost nil. This altitude is called snow line or ice line.

Populations of Draba, Braya, Cortia, Leontopodium go on increasing with the increase in altitude. Species of Ephedra, Juniperus, Berberis are also found scattered. Poa, Stipa and Fectuca are common grasses of alpine zone.

II. Eastern Himalayas

Eastern Himalayas extend from Sikkim to upper Assam, Darjeeling and NEFA. Vegetation of this region differs from that of western Himalayas. The chief differences are due to

changed environmental factors as heavy monsoon rainfall, less snowfall and high temperature and humidity.

This region can also be divided into:

(i) Tropical submontane zone
(ii) Temperate or Montane zone, and
(iii) Alpine zone.

(i) Tropical or Submontane Zone: The tropical subzone characterized by warm and humid conditions extends from plain up to the altitude of about 1800 m. In this zone mostly sal forests, and mixed deciduous forests consisting of important plants, such as Sterculia, Terminalia, Anthocephalus, Cadamba and Bauhinia are common. In the savannah forests, common plants are Albezzia procera, Bischofia, Salmelia, Dendrocalamus. Evergreen forests of *Dillenia indica, Michelia champaca*, Echinocarpus, Cinnamon, etc. are common.

(ii) Temperate or Montane Zone: It may be further divided into upper and lower zones Lower temperate zone is the region between 1800 and 3000 metre altitudes. In the lower temperate zone, Oaks (Quercus). Michelia, Pyrus, Cedrela, Eugenia, Echinocarpus are common plants. In upper temperate zone (3000-4000 metre altitude), conifers and Rhododendrons are common. Important conifers of this region are *Picea spinulosa*, Abies, Larix, Juniperus, *Tsuga griffithi, Tsuga brunoniana*, etc.

(iii) Alpine Zone (from 4000 meters up to snow line): Climate is humid and extremely cold. The vegetation in the alpine zone is characterized by complete absence of trees and predominance of shrubs and meadows. Important plants of this zone are Rhododendron and Juniperus. Eastern Himalayan vegetation is considered to be one of the

richest vegetational units in the world and consists of several species of plants which are native of foreign countries, such as, China, Japan, Burma, Malaya and European countries.

III. Indus Plains

It includes part of Punjab, Rajasthan, Cutch, Delhi, a part of Gujarat. Some part of this plain is now in Pakistan. The climate of this zone is characterized by dry hot summer, and dry cold winter. Rainfall is usually less than 70 cms, but in certain regions it is as low as 10-15 cms. The soil of a wide area except cultivated land, is saline. Much of the land has become desert due to excessive dryness.

Vegetation is mainly bushy and thorny *Acacia arabica*, *Prosopis spicigera*, Salvadora,*Capparis decidua* are very common plants of this region. *Salsola phoetida* and Lunakh grass are found mostly in saline soils. Other plants of this botanic province are Anageissus, Eugenia, Mango, *Dalbergia sisso*, *Albizzia lebbek*, *Zizyphus nummularia*, etc.

Historical evidences indicate that the area was covered by dense forest some 2000 years ago, but gradual destruction of vegetation cover either by biotic agencies or by any other agency led to the development of desert in this plain. S*accharum munja, Cenchrus ciliaris, Prosopis spicigera, Acacia leucophloea, A. Senegal* are the important plant species which are grown for checking the spread of desert.

IV. Gangetic Plains

This is one of the richest vegetational zones in India. This zone covers flat land of a part of Delhi, whole of U.P., Bihar, and West Bengal and also a part of Orissa. Rainfall in this zone is from 50 cm to 150 cm. A great part of the land is under cultivation. The common crop plants are wheat, barley maize. Sorghum (jowar), Bajra, urad, Moong (*Phaseolus mungo*), *Cajanus cajan*, til (*Sesamum indicum*),

sugarcane. Pea (Pisum sp.), gram (*Cicer arietinum*), potato, Brassica, rice.

In western part of U.P. annual rainfall is from 50 cm to 110 cm. Dry deciduous and shrubby forests are common in this part. Important plants of south-western part of U.P. are Capparis, *Saccharum munja, Acacia arabica*. In the north-western part of U.P. near Himalayas foothills *Dalbergia sisso, Acacia arabica* are most common plants.

In eastern gangetic plain, the conditions are cold and wet (annual rainfall, 150 cm in West Bengal). In this part evergreen forests are common. In central part, the annual rainfall is about 100 cm to 150 cm. The vegetation consists mainly of deciduous trees. Sal trees are dominant. Other common trees are *Terminalia tomentosa, T. belerica,* Acacia species, Bauhinia, Diospiros (Biri Ka patta or tendu) Eugenia sp., Neem trees (margosa), *Madhuca indica* (Mahua), *Cordia myxa* (Lasora), Tamarindus, Mango (*Mangifera indica*), Ficus etc. In Bihar and Orissa hills, Rubus, Potentilla, Fragaria (Rosaceae), Pyrus etc. are common. Mangrove vegetation is common in tidal regions in West Bengal near Sunderban, and Orissa. *Rhizophora mucronata, R. conjugata*, Sonneratia, *Ceriops roxburghiana* and *Acanthus ilicifolius, Kandelia rheedii, Bruguiera gymnorhiza* are common mangrove plants in those regions.

V. Central India

Central India covers Madhya Pradesh, part of Orissa (now Odisha), Gujarat and Vindhya. The areas are hilly. The average rainfall per annum may be 100-170 cm. Some places are at the altitudes of 500-700 m from the sea level. Biotic disturbances are very common in this botanical province which have led to the development of the thorny vegetation in open areas. In this region teak (Tectona grandis) and sal (shorea robusta) forests are very common. Other trees are Terminalia tomentosa, Bauhinia, Mango, Phyllanthus, Ficus glomerata, etc. Among common shrubs

are Mimosa rubricaulis, Desmodium, Acacia sp., *Zizyphus rotundifolia* and other.

Entire forest vegetation of central India may be divided into:

(i) Sal forests
(ii) Mixed deciduous forests
(iii) Thorny forests.

At Sarguja (M.P.) many species have been reported to occur. Some of them are Pyrus, Barberis asiatica, Rubus, elipticus, etc.

VI. Deccan

This region comprises whole of the southern peninsular India including Satpura and southern part of Godawari River. Average annual rainfall in this region is about 100 cm.

It may be divided into the following two subdivisions:

(i) Deccan plateau
(ii) Coromandel coast

In Deccan plateau teak forests containing Diospiros, Acacia, Prosopis spicigera. Santalum a hum (Chandan tree) and Cedrda toona are common. On rocks, Capparis, Euphorbias, Phyllunthus are common. Teak, Pterocarpus, Borassus, Foenix silvestris are also common in this area In Chhota Nagpur plateau, important species are Clematis natans, Barberis, Thallictrum and also many members of Annonaceae, Rosaceae, Compositae, Araliaceae, Apocynaceae, Lauraceae, Amaranthaceae, Orchidaceae. Some ferns also common.

In Coromandel Coast vegetation consists largely of some halophytic species.

VII. Western Coast of Malabar

This is small botanical province covering Cape Comorin to Gujarat and Western Ghats .This is a region of heavy rainfall.

In this zone, four types of forests are common

(i) Tropical forests (occur at 700 m altitude).

(ii) Mixed deciduous forests (found at the altitude up to 1600 m).

(iii) Temperate evergreen forests (occur above 1200 m altitude), and

(iv) Mangrove vegetation.

In tropical evergreen forest the trees are tall and they have root buttresses. Important species are Cedrela toona, Dipterocarpus,*Mangifera indica, Sterculia alata, Artocarpus hirsuta*. In the mixed deciduous forests, important plants are Terminalia tomentosa, Terminalia peniculata Tectona grandis, Dalbergia, Lagerstroemia lanceolata and bamboo species, particularly Dendrocalamus and Bamboosa arundinacea. On the Nilgiri hills sub-tropic and temperate conditions exist. Important plants of Nilgiri vegetation are Rubus, Rhododendron arboreum, Barberis, Thallictrum Ranunculus, Fragaria, Potentilla. Many other herbs along with many grasses are also common.

Temperate forests commonly called as "sholas" contain Gardenia obtusa, Michelia nilgirica Eugenia species are also common. In Malabar, plants belonging to family Dipterocarpaceae' Tihaceae, Anacardiaceae, Meliaceae, Myrtaceae, Piperaceae, Orchidaceae and many ferns are common. The west coast of Malabar region receives very high rainfall. In the coastal region mangrove plants grow luxuriantly.

VIII. Assam

This botanical province is very rich in vegetation and covers valley of Brahmaputra, Naga Hills and Manipur. This is the region of heaviest rainfall. Cherapunji is one of the rainiest place in the world where annual rainfall often exceeds 1000 cm. Excessive wetness and high temperature in this zone are responsible for the development of dense

forests. Broad leaved, tall evergreen angiosperms and some conifers are very common in the forests.

Common plants occurring in this region are Ficus, Artocarpus, *Michelia champaca, Sterculia alata,*Morus species. Besides these bamboos canes, climbers, and green bushes are also common. Prominent plants in the northern forests of this zone are Alnus nepalensis, Betula. Rhododendron arboreum. Magnolia, Michelia and Prunus. Sal also occurs at Garo hills. Orchids and fern species are very rich in this zone.

IX. Bay Islands of Andaman and Nicobar (India)

Islands

These are represented by the Andaman and Nicobar islands in the east and Lakshadweep islands in the west. The Andaman and Nicobar islands are a group of more than 300 islands, which support many characteristic plants and animals. The forests range from tropical evergreen to moist deciduous and even mangroves. The Lakshadweep group of islands comprise 36 major Islands, which together from an area of 32 sq km. Many varied marine fauna are present here that include turtles, crabs, molluscs and fishes. Beautiful coral reefs are also present in this part of India.

These bay islands represent elevated portions of submarine mountains. Climate is humid in the coastal region. In Andaman, beech forests, evergreen forests, semi-evergreen forests deciduous forests and mangrove vegetation are of common occurrence. Rhizophora Mimusops, Calophyllum, etc. are common plants in mangrove vegetation. In the interior evergreen forests tall trees are common. Important species of trees are Calophyllum, Dipterocarpus, Lagerstroermia and Terminalia etc. Some part is under cultivation. The important crops are paddy and sugarcane.

14.8 Detailed Study of Vegetational Types of Maharashtra

Taking into consideration the climate and soil, the most important factors responsible for the development of forest types, the vegetation (forest) of Maharashtra can be conveniently groped under the following main types.

I. ***Tropical Wet-Evergreen forest:*** These are mostly restricted to the higher ridges of western Ghats and occur around Mahabaleshwar, Matheran, Amboli, Bhimashankar, and parts of Pune (near Lonawala) and Thane districts. They occur mostly at elevation between 1000 to 1400 meters. The rainfall is restricted to southwest monsoon from July to October and varies from 360 to 600 cm and fog is common. The common plant species are *Sizygium cumini* (Jambul), *Momecylon umbellatum* (anjan), *Randia dometorum* (gehla), *Terminalia chebula* (hirda), *T. tomentosa* (ain), *Olea diocca* (karamba), *Pouteria tomentosa, Elaeagnus latifolia* (ambgul), *Capparis pedunculosa* (kolisna), *Crotolaria retusa* (dingala), *Vitex negundo* (nirgudi), *Michelia champaca* (chapha), *Eucalyptus species* (nilgiri), *Mesua ferrea* (nagchampa), *Artocarpus sps.* (fanas), *Hopea wighiiana* (kausi), *Xylia xylocarpa* (yerul). Etc.

II. ***Tropical Semi-Evergreen forest:*** These forests occur mostly on the Western Ghats between the evergreen and moist deciduous forests at an altitude varying from 450 to 1050 meters. They occur in Ajara and Chandgarh forests of Kolhapur, Koyna, and parts of Satara, Ratnagiri, Pune Nasik and Sawantwadi. The rainfall is restricted to southeast monsoon and varies from 200 to 250 cm. The common plant species are *Terminalia paniculata* (kindal), *T. belerica* (behada), *T. tomentosa* (ain), *Lagerstroemia lanceolata* (nana), *Syzygium cumini* (jambhul), *Xylia xylocarpa*

(yerul), *Bauhinia racemosa* (apta), *Carvia callosa, Holoptelia intergrifolia* (wavali), *Pterocarpus marsupium* (bibla), *Adina cardifolia* (hedi), *Salmalia malbarica* (silk-cotton), *Artocarpus hirsute* (ran fanas), *Anthocephalus cadamba* (kadamba), *Dalbergia latifolia* (sisam), *Murraya koenigii* (kadhi patta), *M. paniculata.* Etc.

III. ***Tropical Moist-Deciduous forest:*** These occurs at the Allapalli forests of Chandrapur district, also found in Ratnagiri, Raigarh, Thane, Nasik and Bhandara district on the gentler slopes of Sahyadris and Western Ghats. The average rainfall is about 130 cm with a fairly long and distinct dry period. The most common trees are *Tectona grandis* (teak), *Terminalia belerica* (behada), *T. tomentosa* (ain), *Adina cardifolia* (hedi), *Salmalia malbarica* (silk-cotton), *Dalbergia latifolia* (sisam), *Acacia catechu* (khair), *Bambusa arundinaceae, Dendrocalamus strictus* (bamboo), *Madhuca indica* (mahua), *Pterocarpus marsupium* (bibla), *Albizzia lebeck* (shirish), *Anogeissus latifolia* (dhavada), *Butea superba* (palas-vel), *Lagerstroemia parviflora* (lendi), *Xylia xylocarpa* (yerul), *Grewia tiliaefolia* (Dhaman), *Schleichera triguga* (kusum), *Emblica officinalis* (avala), etc.

IV. ***Tropical Dry-Deciduous forest:*** A long and distinctly long season with rainfall of about 120 cm and less retensive soils accounts for the regional distribution of this forest. Satpuda and Ajanta ranges are the main belts, but the local developments can be seen in the eastern and drier extensions of the Sahyadris and Vidarbha. The most common plants of this type of forests are *Tectona grandis* (teak), *Anogeissus latifolia* (dhavada), *Dalbergia latifolia* (sisam), *Salmalia malbarica* (silk-cotton), *Terminalia belerica* (behada), *T. tomentosa* (ain),

T. chebula (hirda), *Diospyros tomentosa* (tendu), *Butea monosperma* (palas), *Lagerstroemia parviflora* (lendi), *Pterocarpus marsupium* (bibla), *Emblica officinalis* (avala), *Acacia catechu* (khair), *Boswellia serrata* (salai), *Stercularia urnes* (karai), *Hardwickia binnata* (anjan), *Lantana camera* (ghaneri), *Zizyphus xylopyros* (guti), *Euphorbia sps, Cassia fistula* (bahawa), *Adina cardifolia* (hedi), etc.

V. ***Tropical Thorn forests:*** This type is met with drier areas with low rainfall. The rainfall is scanty (70 cm) and the soils are hard and poor. In Maharashtra this type occurs in many areas of Pune, Ahmednagar, Satara, Dhule, Jalgaon, Solapur and other districts. The vegetation consists of hardy and thorny species mostly xerophytic. The common plant species are *Acacia catechu* (khair), *A. leucopholea* (subabul), *A. arabica* (babul), *Cassia auriculata* (avail), *C. tora* (tarota), *Bauhinia racemosa* (apta), *Gardenia gummifera* (dikamali), *Mimosa hamata* (arbot), *Azadirecta indica* (neem), *Grewia tiliefolia* (dhaman), *Strychnos potatorum* (nirmali), *Aristida redacta, Heteropogon contrartus* (grass), etc.

VI. ***The littoral and Tidal Swamp forest:*** The littoral forests occur on coastal areas of Ratnagiri and Thane districts where the soils are sandy. The water table is fairly high and winds are strong. This type is represented by *Cassuarina equisetifolia* (suru) plantation.

Among tidal swamp forests mangrove scrubs are found in our state along the major creeks of west coasts. The plants of these forests are *Aviciennia alba, A. officinalis* (tiwar), *Sonneratia apetala, Excoecaria agallocha* (geva), *Acanthus ilicifolium* (marandi), etc.

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Environment Conservation Challenges Threats in Conservation of Biodiversity

(Volume - II)

MR. MUKUL MACHHINDRA BARWANT
DR. VISHNU KIRAN MANAM
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ENVIRONMENT CONSERVATION, CHALLENGES THREATS IN CONSERVATION OF BIODIVERSITY

VOLUME - II

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Title: ENVIRONMENT CONSERVATION, CHALLENGES THREATS IN CONSERVATION OF BIODIVERSITY (VOLUME- II)

Editors: MR MUKUL MACHHINDRA BARWANT, DR VISHNU KIRAN MANAM & DR. ARUNA KUMARI NAKKELLA

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First Published, 2022

ISBN: 978-93-94766-04-4

Published by:

SCIENG PUBLICATIONS

(ISO 9001:2015 Certified Company)

Janani Illam, Maniyakar Street
Anumandai, Marakkanam Taluk
Villupuram District, Tamilnadu 604303
Website: http://sciengpublications.com
Email: sciengpublications@gmail.com
editor@sciengpublications.com

Printed in India, by: *Sagar Color Sacan, New Delhi*

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Chapter 25

Biodiversity and Human Impact on Crab Conservation

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ABSTRACT

Crabs are known for their high nutritional benefits to the humankind since ancient time particularly the freshwater crabs, *Barytelphusa cunicularis, Barytelphsa guerini* found in the nearby fish market with high demand. Yet, because of anthropogenic activities on that, the number of freshwater crabs found in the local markets diminishing day by day. The current review carried out to run over the purposes for less accessibility of this crabs. Through the investigation of crab sampling site it was see that component like - overfishing and improper planning of crab fishing, dumping of non-biodegradable solids, abundance of water gain in ranch and so forth were the standard issues presented by human to the less accessibility of crabs in local markets.

KEYWORDS: *Barytelphusa,* crab burrows, conservation, river.

INTRODUCTION

It is estimated that over a million species Worldwide depend on tropical freshwater environments for their endurance yet the quick weakening of freshwater bodies, driven by human population development and deforestation, is contrarily affecting inland aquatic biodiversity (Neil Cumberlidge et. al. 2009). Freshwater crabs are one of the most naturally significant large scale invertebrate groups in tropical inland waters Worldwide. Freshwater crabs are omnivorous (with some tending more towards either herbivores or carnivores) and remember species that feed for leaves, fallen leaves with joined green growth, and beechnuts. Freshwater crabs are fundamental parts of food networks in tropical aquatic biological systems and give food to a more extensive scope of hunters, just as framing the premise of limited scope fisheries. The present study was prompted by a growing awareness of the true extent of freshwater crab diversity and of the possible threatened Status of many narrowly distributed species given the current widespread destruction of tropical forests and aquatic ecosystems. In Maharashtra, *Barytelphusa cunicularis, guereni, Parytelphusa* are commonly observed.

CRAB CULTURE IS PROMISING SOLUTION TO CONSERVER POPULATION AND FOOD SECURITY

There are two species mostly found region of Maharashtra, *Barytelphusa cunicularis* and *B guerini.* In local market, people purchase black crab for consumption. For captive breeding

of this species, small scale fishery is needed for its conservation, so that number of population can be increased.

Overfishing of crabs: If availability of crabs in large quantity in one of the area of River, fisherman trying to catch more. Due to these adults crabs were vanished. This was one of the main reasons of crab population reduction.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Habitat destruction - Habitat obliteration brought about by horticultural exercises, requests of modern turn of events and demolition of waterways for the manifestations of hydroelectric power are dangers to a portion of the freshwater crabs (Rupert C. Akpaniteaku, 2017). The Protection of numerous types of freshwater crabs relies for the most part upon preservation of locales of regular natural surroundings adequate tremendous to support quality of water (Pankaj O. Baisthakur *et.al.* 2021). The population size gets reduced because of disturbances in age structure and sex composition. Efficient gears remove quick growing larger individuals.

Crabs are only harvested during the peak breeding season (i.e. summer) and seem to be selecting only large crabs. It would thus appear that the exploitation of crabs as a food resource poses a limited threat to the crabs as taking adults and leaving the rest of the population would allow normal recruitment to proceed. However, local respondents do not throw back ovigerous adult females or adult females carrying hatchlings hence these could have a considerable negative impact on crab population's overtime.

Fig. 1: Habitat Destruction by Fisherman While Catching the Crabs at River

CONSERVATION ACTIONS, CHALLENGES AND RECOMMENDATIONS-

Freshwater crab conservation action plans and strategies should be primarily aimed at preserving the integrity of habitats while at the same time closely monitoring crab populations. The current study may provide important information and insight towards the development of a freshwater crab conservation action plan and strategy within the region. The conservation of freshwater crabs depends on the preservation of natural forests that are large enough to maintain good water quality (Kenny W. J. Chua, et.al. 2015). This freshwater crab requires an optimal habitat that comprises: a sandy clay & muddy habitat. (P.K. Pati *et.al.* 2013).

There is a need for long-term and continuous monitoring of species of high conservation value, together with other measures that focus on habitat protection (Ng, D. J., 2015).

Freshwater Crab (*Barytelphusa cunicularis)* has always been a nutritional food commodity, rich in Proteins, carbohydrates, vitamins, having great medicinal properties as well. This research carried out through captive breeding in Godavari River. According to this study the ability to select right habitat is the best challenge for the settlement of life, post reproductive activities, avoidance from the predators and other metabolic activities in various organisms. (Padghane *et.al*.2016)

There is an urgent need to share knowledge and co-ordinate research, management and outreach efforts amongst all of those parties who can either have an impact on the species and its habitat or who may be affected by the implementation of this strategy.

A captive population can also contribute to work plan for the foundation of a captive reproducing program was created. The plan was include: (1) the wellspring of originator stock in view of numbers in the wild and their population characteristics; (2) the foundation of numerous rearing facilities; (3) the improvement of farming conventions and getting of adequate resources; and (4) the recognizable proof of proper achievement markers for captive management, for example, survival rate to reproducing size. The work plan was finished in 2018. The farming convention will keep on being refined through information acquired during fruitful keeping and reproducing of the species. To conserve this species a patio substantial tank model incubation center cum Upkeep Lake was intended to explore the way of life prospects of this species. The culture technology is planned to transfer to the tribes. (Padghane and Chavan, 2018).

Fig.2. Captive Breeding of Freshwater Crabs

Table 1: The Different Types of Crab by-Products Generated with their Valuable Components for Potential Areas of Application.

Crab by-products	Functional ingredients	Suggested application areas	References
Crab Shell(carapace)	Chitin, Chitosan	Agriculture, anti-microbial property	Athira, *et al.*, 2017
Crab meat	Lipids	Food Industries, oil	Ghorpade, 2018, Moghal et.al, 2017.
Hepatopancras	Lipids	Food,	Sayyed, 2017
Hemolymph	Protein	Biological Processes	Sakhare & Kamble, 2014; Martin (2010)

CONCLUSION

Through the current study, it can be concluded that anthropogenic activities in River water especially in winter and summer seasons should be restricted, so as to help crabs and other aquatic animals sustain their lives. It is expected to take up focused in research on appraisal of these assets including biodiversity and living space portrayal, broad or semi-concentrated aquaculture practices to work on the load of freshwater crabs to fulfil market need and keep up with the draining wild population. Lesser freshwater crabs could likewise be utilized in aquarium industry as it has high nutritional benefit. Since these recourse contributes to nutritional security to the majority occupying inside geographical region under upper and centre stretch of this river, supplement profiling of this resources might be attempted to increase the value of its fisheries.

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ISBN 978-93-94766-04-4

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Environment Conservation Challenges Threats in Conservation of Biodiversity

(Volume - III)

Mr. Mukul Machhindrsa Barwant
Dr. Vishnu Kiran Manam

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ENVIRONMENT CONSERVATION, CHALLENGES THREATS IN CONSERVATION OF BIODIVERSITY

VOLUME - III

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Title: Environment Conservation, Challenges Threats in Conservation of Biodiversity (Volume-III)

Editor: Mr Mukul Machhindra Barwant
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First Published, 2022

ISBN: 978-93-94766-05-1

Published by:
SCIENG PUBLICATIONS
(ISO 9001:2015 Certified Company)
Janani Illam, Maniyakar Street
Anumandai, Marakkanam Taluk
Villupuram District, Tamilnadu 604303
Website: http://sciengpublications.com
Email: sciengpublications@gmail.com
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Printed in India, by: Sagar Color Scan, New Delhi.

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Chapter 6

"Sustainable Agriculture and Future Challenges"

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ABSTRACT

It has been observed that for a growing country like India the practice of sustainable agriculture is of quite importance as it accelerates the productivity, efficiency, employment, and providing guidance to reduce the practices which affect the quality of soil, water resources and degradation of other natural resources from environment. As we see the performance of agricultural sector of India, we will be easily recognizing that performance have been increased in a significant manner over the years. Despite of many challenges like urbanization, Growth of secondary sector etc. it has achieved a significant growth.

KEYWORDS: Sustainable, agriculture, environment, Challenges.

INTRODUCTION

Sustainable agriculture development integrates three main goals. Environmental health, economic prosperity, and livelihood sustainability.

Agriculture causes severe pressure on the environment via its emission to air, water and soil (Steinfeld et al., 2006), and increasingly competes for scarce resources, such as land, fossil, water & energy (De Vries, 2010; Steinfeld et al., 2006).

Moreover, concerns arise about, for example, the economic viability of agriculture, and its impact on public health and animal welfare (Boogaard et al., 2011; IAASTD, 2009). At the same time, regulatory requirements, societal desires and market demands are changing and increasingly require farmers to report the impacts of their products on issues such as food safety, carbon footprint, and animal welfare (Muller et al., 2012; Whitehead, 2016). For challenges, a development towards a more sustainable agriculture is needed (Pretty, 2008; Whitehead, 2016).

A sustainable development can be defined as ***"Development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs"*** (WCED, 1987).

Environment Conservation Challenges Threats in Conservation of Biodiversity

(Volume - II)

MR MUKUL MACHHINDRA BARWANT
DR. VISHNU KIRAN MANAM
DR. ARUNA KUMARI NAKKELLA

SCIENG PUBLICATIONS

ENVIRONMENT CONSERVATION, CHALLENGES THREATS IN CONSERVATION OF BIODIVERSITY

VOLUME - II

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SCIENG PUBLICATIONS

SCIENGPUBLICATIONS

Tamilnadu-604303 (INDIA)

(ISO 9001:2015 Certified Company)

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Title: ENVIRONMENT CONSERVATION, CHALLENGES THREATS IN CONSERVATION OF BIODIVERSITY (VOLUME- II)

Editors: MR MUKUL MACHHINDRA BARWANT, DR VISHNU KIRAN MANAM & DR. ARUNA KUMARI NAKKELLA

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First Published, 2022

ISBN: 978-93-94766-04-4

Published by:

SCIENG PUBLICATIONS

(ISO 9001:2015 Certified Company)

Janani Illam, Maniyakar Street
Anumandai, Marakkanam Taluk
Villupuram District, Tamilnadu 604303
Website: http://sciengpublications.com
Email: sciengpublications@gmail.com
editor@sciengpublications.com

Printed in India, by: *Sagar Color Sacan, New Delhi*

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Chapter 7

"Organizations Related to Biodiversity Conservation and Management"

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ABSTRACT

Biodiversity has not the best intrinsic, scenic, social, and cultural values but additionally monetary price through its contribution to medicine, agriculture, fisheries, and forestry merchandise, and the several different offerings it affords. How to capitalize upon those improvement possibilities to preserve biodiversity stays a full-size challenge. The emphasis on social-ecological structures makes biodiversity a primary element in the worldwide network of establishments learning sustainability. However, the array of worldwide organizations involved approximately biodiversity and ecosystem services can themselves be seemed like a complicated adaptive device. International organizations foster and coordinate that cooperation, growing a complex community of governmental and non-governmental global bodies to finance and behavior biodiversity research and conservation sports activities this chapter gives a framework of diverse agencies associated with organic conservation in framing rules and methodologies for executions except serving as belongings of records and financing biodiversity-related tasks, workshops, and specific activities.

KEYWORDS: Biodiversity, organizations, financing.

INTRODUCTION

"Earth's vegetation, animals and microorganisms –interacting with every different and with the bodily surroundings in ecosystems– shape the inspiration of sustainable development." 'Global Biodiversity Strategy' (WRI, IUCN, UNEP, 1992) The notable kind of existence on earth has furnished for man's needs over masses of years. This variety of dwelling creatures' office work is an aid device that has been utilized by each civilization for its growth and development. Those that used this "bounty of nature" cautiously and sustainably survived. Those that overused or misused it disintegrated. Biodiversity offers the idea for lifestyles on the earth, which include human lifestyles, and is the important thing to safeguarding the wealth of the sector for destiny generations. By keeping

MANAGERIAL ECONOMICS

Dr. AVINASH S. NILE

Mr. GOURAV KUMAR SHARMA

Mr. MUTHUKUMAR K

Ms. MOUSHMI CHAKRABORTY

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Title of the Book: MANAGERIAL ECONOMICS

Edition: First - 2023

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ISBN: 978-93-5762-122-9
MRP: Rs. 600/-
PUBLISHER & PRINTER: Alpha International Publication (AIP),
3/725/2, Kammangudi, Adichapuram,
Thiruvarur District, Tamilnadu- 614717, INDIA

Email: editoraippublications@gmail.com

Website: www.alphainternationalpublication.com

INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY FOR BUSINESS

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Title of the Book: Information Technology for Business

Edition: First - 2023

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ISBN: 978-93-5762-156-4
MRP: Rs. 600/-
PUBLISHER & PRINTER: Alpha International Publication (AIP),
3/725/2, Kammangudi, Adichapuram,
Thiruvarur District, Tamilnadu- 614717, INDIA

Email: editoraippublications@gmail.com

Website: www.alphainternationalpublication.com

4 Chapter MECHANISM OF ELECTRON TRANSFER REACTIONS

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ISBN: 978-93-5809-578-4 | **DOI**: 10.25215/9358095784.04

Abstract :
Understanding electron transfer mechanisms in solution-phase reactions is paramount in the field of inorganic chemistry, where it significantly influences diverse chemical processes and applications. These abstract aims to offer a comprehensive overview of the fundamental concepts and mechanisms governing electron transfer reactions within the domain of inorganic chemistry In solution-phase electron transfer reactions, the migration of electrons from donor to acceptor species results in the creation of products with altered oxidation states. A thorough grasp of the kinetics and thermodynamics of these reactions is essential, with factors such as solvent properties, temperature, and reactant characteristics exerting notable influences.

Keywords ; Electron, Outer sphere , Inner sphere

1. Introduction :

The probability of an electron leaking through a potential energy barrier (that would be impenetrable according to classical mechanics) is a well known phenomenon [3]. As already mentioned, electron can be transferred from distances which are considerably larger than the distances essential for actual collision of the reactants [1]. Thus, electron tunneling effect is directly related to the phenomenon of extension of electronic orbitals in space. Electron transfer reactions are generally quicker than those involving the exchange of ligands on the metal ions. These, however, can be conveniently studied by Radioactive Exchange as well as by NMR techniques. Two types of transition states or intermediates are generally formed during electron transfer reactions[6]. These are: Outer Sphere Transition States and Inner Sphere Transition States[8].

2. Outer Sphere Transition States.

When the inner coordination spheres of two reacting complex ions remain intact in the transition state (i.e., intermediate) of an electron transfer reaction, it is called an outer sphere transition state. The mechanism of electron transfer through such a transition state is called outer sphere mechanism.

3. Outer Sphere Transition States.

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Both the mechanisms of electron transfer have been discussed below in some details.

Outer Sphere Mechanism. If the reductant and the oxidant complex ions are both inert and if their inner coordination shells are saturated, the rate of ligand exchange would be very small and the possibility of the formation of a ligand bridge would be negligible. However, the observed rate of electron transfer between such pairs of complex ions is quite fast. This cannot be explained by any mechanism involving the dissociation of an atom or a group, or exchange of a coordinated ligand, since both the complex ions are inert. Such electron transfer reactions would obviously occur through outer sphere mechanism. We shall now consider some examples of electron transfer reactions occurring through this mechanism.

$[Co(NH_3)_6]^{2+} + [Co(NH_3)_6]^{3+} \rightarrow [Co(NH_3)_6]^{3+} + [Co(NH_3)_6]^{2+}$

Since the reacting [Co(NH3)6]3+ ion is an inert complex and Co(III) has in it a saturated inner coordination shell, the exchange of coordinated ammonia ligands between the two complexes is found to be exceedingly slow. The coordinated NH3 ligands do not have any other lone pair through which they can form a bridge between the two cobalt ions. Hence, an inner sphere transition state of the type $[(NH_3)_5Co\text{-}(NH_3)\text{-}Co(NH_3)_5]^{5+}$ is not possible. Therefore, electron transfer from $[Co(NH_3)_6]^{2+}$ + to $[Co(NH_3)_6]^{3+}$ must occur through outer sphere mechanism in which inner coordination shells of the reductant, i.e., $[Co(NH_3)_6]^{2+}$ and the oxidant, i.e., $[Co(NH_3)_6]^{3+,}$ in the transition state remain intact.

The outer sphere electron transfer process is slow because of the following reasons

1. Since the Co-N distances in the oxidant and the reductant complex ions are appreciably different, considerable energy of activation is required to excite the two ions to have identical Co-N distances (because only then the electron transfer between these two ions would occur).

2.The electron being transferred from [Co(NH3)6]2+ occupies an eg orbital which is already engaged in M-L sigma bonding** (the configuration of Co(II) in the complex ion is t52g e2g). The delinking of this electron from Co(II) would, therefore, require more energy.

3.The spin states of Co(II) and Co(III) in the reacting complex ions are different

The observed rate of electron transfer is fast. This may be due to the following reasons:

1. The Fe-C distances in both the complex ions are almost the same. Hence, very required to make the Fe-C distances in the two complex ions identical so that electron transfer may occur. 2. Leaving aside the electrons that are to be transferred, both the metal ions have the same electron spin. This facilitates the transfer of electrons.
1. The electron under transfer is in 12 orbital (electronic configuration of Fe(II) in $[Fe(CN)6]^{4-}$ is t^62g) which is not engaged in M-L sigma bonding. Therefore, the delinking of this electron from Fe(II) is easy.
2. The ligand CN is unsaturated and the presence of unsaturated and/or conjugate ligands on the reductant facilitates the electron tunnelling.

CN- is a pi acceptor ligand, i.e., it can form pi bond by accepting electrons from the t2g orbitals of the metal ion. Such ligands always stabilise the lower valency of the metal ion which implies that such ligands stabilise the product formed due to acceptance of electrons.

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4. The ligand CN is unsaturated and the presence of unsaturated and/or conjugate ligands on the reductant facilitates the electron tunnelling.

Summarise the main characteristics of electron transfer reactions occurring through outer sphere mechanism:

1. Electron transfer reactions occur between those metal ions which are either both inert with their coordination shells saturated or one of the complex ions is inert with its coordination shell saturated. In the latter case, none of the coordinated ligands would be a bridging ligand.
2. Electron transfer between ions of the same metal is fast if M-L distances in the reductant and the oxidant are very nearly the same.
3. Electron transfer is fast if the electrons are able to reach the surface of the complex either through unsaturation or through conjugation.
4. The rate of electron transfer depends upon the polarising power of the central metal ion.
5. Electron transfer is fast if the electron being transferred is present in a t2g orbital and is slow if it is present in an eg orbital.
6 Electron transfer is fast if the coordinated ligands present on the system are pi acceptors.
7. Electron transfer is fast if the electron spins of the two complex ions (leaving aside the electrons

2.Inner Sphere Mechanism. Electron transfer reactions proceeding through inner sphere mechanism generally have one inert and one labile reactant. The inert reactant has a coordinated ligand which is capable of forming a bridge. A few examples of electron transfer reactions proceeding through inner sphere transition states (i.e., intermediates) are discussed below.

a) [Cr(H2O)6]2++ [Co(NH3)6]3+[Cr(H2O)6]3++ [Co(NH3)6]2+
(b)[Cr(H2O)6]2+ + [Co(NH3)5(H2O)]3+ [Cr(H2O)6]3+ + [Co(NH3)5(H2O)]2+
(c)[Cr(H2O)6]2++ [Co(NH3)5(OH)]2+[Cr(H2O)6]2++ [Co(NH3)5(OH)]2+

The reductant in all these reactions is [Cr(H2O)6]2+ which is a very labile complex ion and can easily lose a H2O molecule. The order of the rate of electron transfer in the above reactions is (a) << (b)<(c).

In reaction (a), the oxidant [Co(NH3)6]3+ is an inert complex ion with no coordinated ligand capable of forming a bridge with the reductant. Electron transfer in this reaction, therefore, cannot occur through inner sphere mechanism and the rate of electron transfer would be slow.

In reaction (b), the oxidant [Co(NH3)5(H2O)]3+ is again inert but the coordinated H2O is capable of forming a bridge, though a very weak one, with the reductant leading to the formation of the intermediate bridged complex [(H2O)5Cr-(H2O)- Co(NH3)5]5+. The oxygen of the coordinated H2O has one engaged lone pair of electrons through which it can associate with the reductant. The formation of an aqua bridge has been established by H2O18 exchange studies. The reaction (b) thus proceeds through inner sphere mechanism and is much faster than the reaction (a). In reaction (c), the inert oxidant [Co(NH3)5(OH)]2+ has a coordinated OH- ligand which is capable of forming a fairly strong bridge with the reductant leading to the formation of the bridged intermediate. Since OH bridge is stronger (i.e., stabler) than aqua

bridge, the energy of activation required to form OH-bridged intermediate would be less than required for the formation of aqua-bridged intermediate. Reaction (c), therefore, proceeds through inner sphere mechanism and is more facile than reaction (b).

Example 2. Consider the reaction

(b) $[Cr(H_2O)_5\ X]^{2+} + [Co(NH_3)_5\ H_2O]^{2+} \rightarrow [Cr(H_2O)_6]^{2+} + [Co(NH_3)_5\ X]^{2+}$

which has been studied in aqueous phase in the presence of radioactive free X-ligand (where X-is F-, Cl-, Br or I-) and it has been observed that the product [Cr(H2O)5X]2+ shows an almost complete absence of radioactivity. This observation confirms that it is the X- ligand initially attached to the inert oxidant [Co(NH3)5X]2+ which gets transferred to the reductant. This cannot happen if X- completely dissociates from the oxidant and becomes free. Therefore, the intermediate or the transition state must have X- associated with both the oxidant and the reductant. This observation provides an indirect proof for the formation of inner sphere or bridged complex in the transition state. The mechanism of reaction (d) may thus be represented as follows:

$[Cr(H_2O)_6]^{2+} + [Co(NH_3)_5\ X]^{2+} \rightarrow [\ (H_2O)_5\ Cr\text{-}\ X\text{-}Co(NH_3)_5]^{4+} + H2O$

$[\ (H_2O)_5\ Cr\text{-}\ X\text{-}Co(NH_3)_5]^{4+} \rightarrow [Cr(H_2O)_5\ X]^{2+} + [Co(NH_3)_5\ H_2O]^{2+}$

The rate of reaction (d) is thus given by

r = k (Concn. of $[Cr(H_2O)_6]^{2+}$) x (Concn. of $[Co(NH_3)_5X]^{2+}$)

It has been observed that the rate of electron transfer is the reaction depends upon nucleophilic character (and not the basicity) of the halide ion X-. The rates are thus in the order I-> Br> Cl-> F. It is It has also been observed that the rate of electron transfer in the reaction depends upon the nucleophilic charecter that the halide ion stronger the nucleophilic character of the halide ion, the greater would be its capability to form Cr-X-Co bridge

Let us now summarise the main characteristics of electron transfer reactions occurring through inner sphere mechanism :

1. In order that electron transfer occurs through inner sphere mechanism, one of the complexes should be inert and the other one labile. The inert complex ion should have a ligand capable of bridging both the complex ions during the formation of the intermediate.
2. Electron transfer reactions occurring through inner sphere mechanism are faster than similar reactions occurring through outer sphere mechanism.
3. The rate of electron transfer increases if the bridging ligand has unsaturation or extended conjugation in its structure.
4. The rate of electron transfer also increases with increase in the nucleophilic character of the bridging ligand.

4. Conclusion:

Electron transfer reactions is the concept of redox potentials. Redox potentials provide insights into the propensity of a species to either donate or accept electrons. This understanding helps researchers predict the direction of electron flow and the overall feasibility of a given reaction.

Furthermore, the kinetics of electron transfer reactions describe the rates at which these

processes occur. By elucidating the mechanisms and driving forces behind electron transfer reactions, scientists can tailor reaction conditions, design catalysts, and develop technologies for energy conversion and storage.

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2 Modern Synthesis Techniques for Metal Oxide I

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2.1 INTRODUCTION

Worldwide studies on metals, polymers, and ceramics during this century have resulted in the establishment of material science as a scientific discipline. A feature of those studies, particularly for metal oxide, is their interdisciplinary nature, and at present, chemistry is making an increasingly important contribution [1] to the research, development, and manufacture of metal oxide materials.

Chemistry has two major roles when applied to metal oxide and phosphors. The first is the synthesis of novel materials, usually in the form of powders. For example, the discovery in 1986 of $YBa_2Cu_3O_7$-x highlighted the role of chemical synthesis in the preparation of novel material. However, successful exploitation of metal oxide requires not only methods for their synthesis but also techniques for their fabrication into useful shapes, e.g., coatings, fibers, monolith ceramics, and powders with controlled particle size for a wide variety of applications. These applications include controlled porosity coatings for ceramic membrane, coating on window glass for selective transmission and reflection of solar radiations, optical fibers and fibers for lightweight thermal insulation, ceramic honeycombs for use in automotive catalytic converters, and un-aggregated powders for high-strength structural ceramic components.

DOI: 10.1201/9781003366232-2

9781032415611_C002.indd 25 29/07/23 6:37 PM

The second chemical role is in the development of fabrication techniques for metal oxide shapes, for example, coatings, monoliths, and fibers. Synthesis and fabrication fall within the subject area of metal oxide processing that occupies an interface between conventional studies in chemistry and material science.

Processing is presently an important feature in universities and industrial environments, while chemical methods for metal oxide synthesis are under intense and increasing investigation. This is because, compared to conventional ceramic powder processing [2] using solid-state reaction (SSD) between powder reactants, these methods have the potential to yield metal oxides with tailored properties and with performance advantages over conventional materials. The conventional method for the preparation of metal oxide is first described together with the advantages and disadvantages of the technique.

In view of various phases of metal oxide applications, the preparation of some metal oxide by various synthesis methods differs in performance. As a result, the synthesis of a metal oxide is a very important starting step in material science. Spectroscopic characteristics of dopant ions, especially rare earths (REs), differ widely depending upon the host lattice used. This is because of local site symmetry offered to the RE ions, and correspondingly, the crystal field experienced by the ion is very much dependent on the environment surrounding the ion. In fact, 4f-5d transition and charge transfer state interactions can lead to emission ranging from Ultra violet (UV) to Infrared (IR) just by changing the host lattice, and in some cases, the emission is also dependent on the method used for its preparation.

There is increasing demand for modern techniques of metal oxide synthesis that impart superior properties compared with those attainable from conventional syntheses. A brief account of some of the methods used for the synthesis of phosphor materials is given as follows.

2.1.1 Conventional Method

2.1.1.1 Solid-State Reaction

The solid-state diffusion (SSD) reaction is the conventional method simply because it was widely used during the first half of the last century, for the synthesis [3,4] of multielement metal oxide powders. In this method, fine powders of the individual component oxides/carbonates are first mixed, milled, and calcined at elevated temperatures. Sometimes, the production of such oxides may require repeated grinding and calcining steps to achieve the desired phase. Relatively high temperatures are required for SSD, typically around 1,000°C–1,500°C because of limited diffusion during calcination, and this can result in the decomposition of the metal oxide product [5,6]. Other disadvantages of this method are the formation of undesirable phases, large particle sizes due to firing at high temperature, and poor chemical homogeneity, particularly when dopant oxides are introduced in small amounts during the synthesis of phosphors like $SrTiO_3$: Pr^{3+}. The as-synthesized particle size by this method is large for display applications; therefore, the powders must be ground into a finer powder. Particle size reduction by milling can introduce chemical impurities into the product. It is well known that mechanical crushing creates lattice defects, which, in turn, reduce the radiant efficiency of the phosphor. The preparation of single-phase materials is difficult with the SSD method. Hence, homogeneous doping at low activator concentration (2 mol%) has always been delicate; i.e., the product is inhomogeneous. A carefully controlled addition of dopant is important in this synthesis. The only advantage of this method is that the precursors are readily available. However, the method suffers from many disadvantages. Therefore, it becomes necessary to investigate simple, easy, and low-cost methods, which may overcome the following disadvantages, witnessed in the case of SSD method.

The disadvantages of SSD methods are as follows:

- Coarse grain size, powder agglomerates having nonhomogeneous properties due to limited diffusion lengths.
- Repeated cycles of heating and cooling followed after crushing the material in between these cycles.

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- This added processing time and chemical impurity during crushing.
- Powders produced by this method are not suited for the fabrication of coatings and fibers because of nonuniform-sized particles.

Therefore it becomes necessary to explore simple, easy and low cost methods to overcome the disadvantages associated with the solid state diffusion process. The various novel and modern methods for the synthesis of metal oxides are described in this chapter.

2.1.2 Modern Methods of Synthesis

Chemical routes are attracting attention for metal oxide synthesis because some of them allow direct fabrication of coatings, fibers, and monoliths without powder intermediates. These routes have the potential to achieve the following:

1. Improved chemical homogeneity on the molecular scale, which is very important for electro-ceramics whose electrical functions are determined by the addition of a small amount of dopant oxides (e.g., semiconductors).
2. For the structural and single phase of metal oxides, improved mechanical properties such as strength can be obtained by the removal of powder aggregates since novel synthesis allows the preparation of non-aggregated powders.
3. Diffusion distances are reduced on calcination compared with conventional preparations owing to the mixing of components on the colloidal or molecular level that favors lower crystallization temperatures for multicomponent ceramics.

These potential advantages for improving the performance of materials have given rise to the increased application of chemistry, through material processing, for the development of metal oxides. A brief account of some of the novel and modern methods used for the synthesis of materials is as follows.

2.1.2.1 Co-Precipitation Method

In the precipitation process, the constituents are dissolved in a suitable solvent under pressure. This solution either is seeded or undergoes auto-precipitation. The problem can arise when two or more components are co-precipitated, and different species do not always deposit from the solution at the reaction pH. The difficulty in maintaining chemical homogeneity is serious as inhomogeneities have a deleterious effect on the properties of the material. The product is generally agglomerated. Therefore, grinding, dry milling, or wet milling with water or nonaqueous liquid is used for particle size reduction. These processes can introduce impurities from grinding media. Also, high temperatures are required for densification.

The co-precipitation method is used to prepare metal oxides through the formation of intermediate precipitates, usually hydrous oxides or oxalates, so that an intimate mixture of components is formed during precipitation, and chemical homogeneity is maintained on calcination. This method has been applied to synthesize a variety of oxides, e.g., Y_2O_3:Eu^{3+} [7–9]. Thus, a europium-doped yttrium oxalate precipitate was produced on the addition of oxalic acid to a mixed yttrium nitrate and europium nitrate solution under controlled conditions of pH, temperature, and reactant concentration. The precipitate was washed, dried, calcined, and milled to get the required metal oxide product (Figure 2.1).

In co-precipitation, careful control of solution conditions is required to precipitate all cations and thus maintain chemical homogeneity on the molecular scale. Water washing, solvent washing, and azeotropic distillation that are used for co-precipitated hydroxides can have a drastic effect on the mechanical properties of a sintered powder as they affect the degree of powder aggregation and need to be considered when developing a co-precipitation route to a ceramic powder. Another precipitation technique, not as widely reported as co-precipitation, involves the use of molten salts (Figure 2.2).

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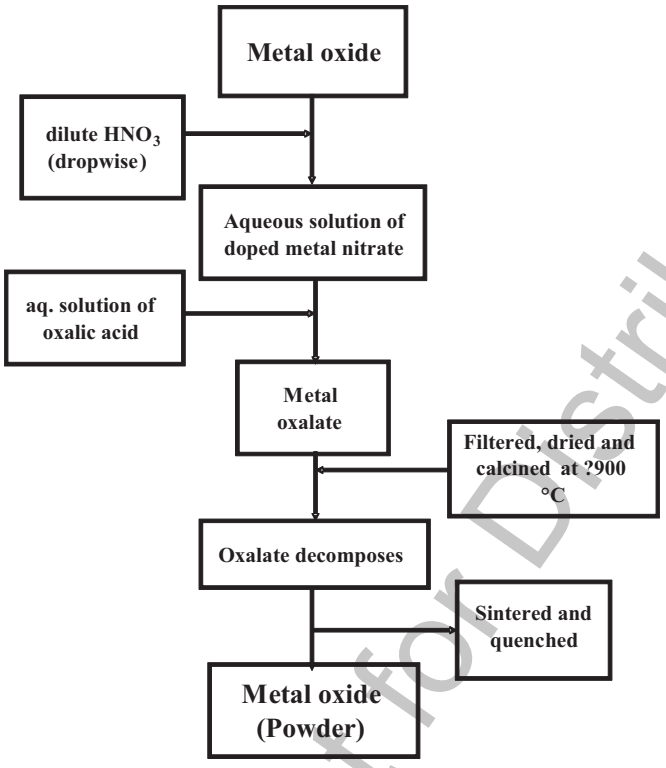

FIGURE 2.1 Flow chart of synthesis of phosphor by co-precipitation method-I.

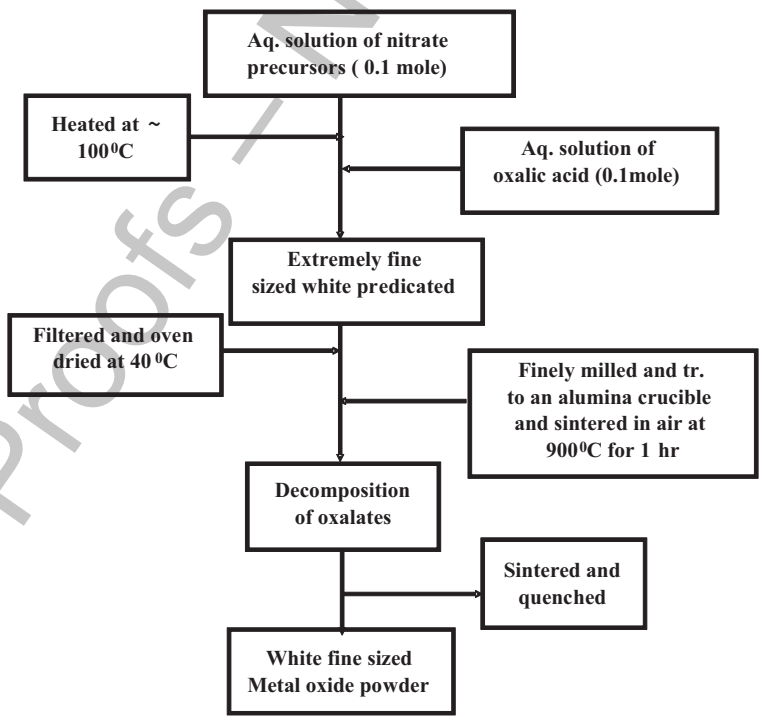

FIGURE 2.2 Flow chart of synthesis of phosphor by co-precipitation method-II.

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2.1.2.2 Reaction in Molten Salts

The term molten salt refers [10] to the liquid state of compounds, which melt to give liquids displaying a degree of ionic properties. Alkali metal nitrates have relatively low melting points (Table 2.1), whereas even lower melting points are obtained in their eutectic mixtures [11,12]. Molten salt can behave as a solvent or as a reactant. Thus, in a nitrate melt acid–base reactions can occur according to the Lux–Flood formalism [13,14], whereby an acid is an oxide ion acceptor and a base is an oxide ion donor; nitrate ions are bases in this formalism. Nitrite melts are more basic than nitrate melts, whereas the addition of bases such as Na_2O_2, Na_2O, and NaOH to a nitrate melt increases its basicity. The starting materials for reactions in molten salts are inorganic compounds, in particular sulfates and chlorides that are blended with the alkali metal nitrates or nitrites as a powder mixture before heating to the reaction temperature. Thus, for the synthesis of Y_2O_3:Eu^{3+} phosphor, YCl_3 and $EuCl_3$ were mixed with an eutectic mixture of 43 mol% $LiNO_3$–57 mol% KNO_3 maintained at 400°C for 12 hours. The Y^{3+} and Eu^{3+} ions formed on the dissolution of these salts in the melt behave as acids. For this reaction, the eutectic was a solvent in which the reaction kinetics were considerably faster than in the conventional solid-state reaction.

Reactions in molten salts can be considered to fall within the general class of reactions in non-aqueous liquids and have not been widely applied for ceramic powder preparation even though the reactants are readily available. The nucleation, growth, and aggregation of ceramic powders during the preparation are of fundamental importance to the usefulness of the powders and are an area of continuing debate within activities in metal oxide processing. If non-aggregated powders can be obtained in melts for a wide range of compositions, then molten salt chemistry could, in the future, offer an attractive route for the synthesis of ceramic powders (Figure 2.3).

2.1.2.3 Combustion Synthesis

The synthesis of solids by the ceramic method (SSD method) is controlled by the diffusion of atoms and ionic species through reactants and products and thus requires repeated grinding, palletizing, and calcination of reactants (oxides or carbonates) for longer durations (than soft chemical routes) at high temperatures. The as-synthesized particle size by the ceramic method is too large to use in display applications; therefore, the powders must be ground into a finer powder. Attempts have recently been made to eliminate the diffusion control problems of solid synthesis [15]. Strongly exothermic reactions have been observed to sustain themselves and propagate in the form of a combustion wave until the reactants have been completely consumed. Booth [16] was the first to report such observations and to lay out the mathematical foundation for what has since been referred to as the self-propagating high-temperature synthesis (SHS) [17] or combustion synthesis and fire or furnace less synthesis [18,19]. The process makes use of highly exothermic redox chemical reactions between metals and nonmetals, metathetical (exchange) reactions between reactive compounds, and reactions involving redox compounds/mixtures. The term 'combustion' covers flaming (gas phase), smoldering (heterogeneous), and explosive reactions.

The combustion synthesis (CS) method has been successfully used in the preparation of a large number of technologically useful oxide (refractory oxides, magnetic, dielectric, semiconducting, insulators,

TABLE 2.1
Melting Points for Alkali Metal Nitrates and Eutectic Mixtures

Metal Nitrate	Melting Point (°C)
$LiNO_3$	225
$NaNO_3$	307
KNO_3	334
50 mol% $NaNO_3$–50 mol% KNO_3	220
43 mol% LiO_3–57 mol% KNO_3	132

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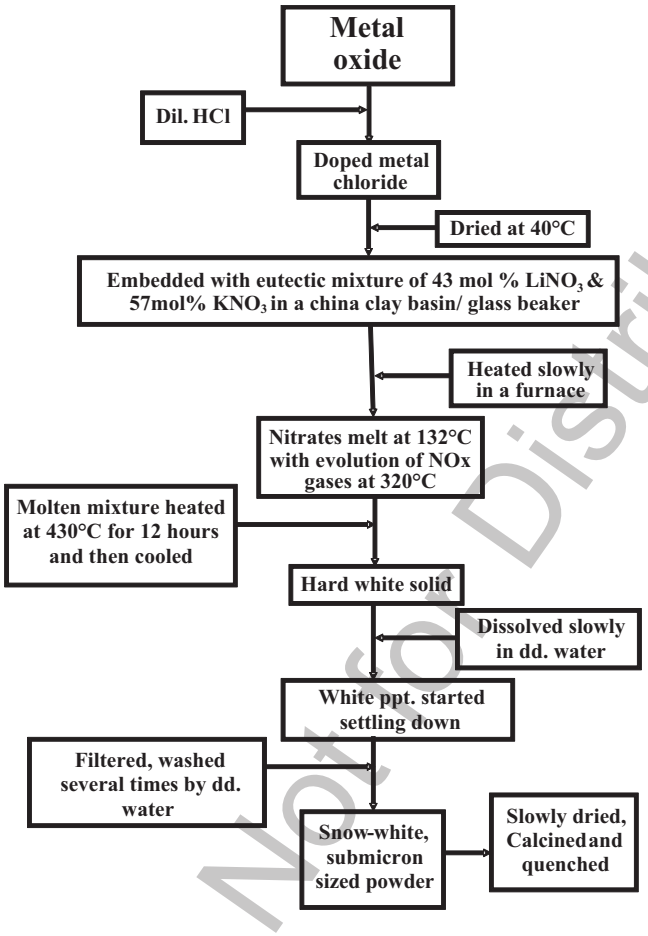

FIGURE 2.3 Flow chart of synthesis of phosphor by reaction in molten salts.

catalysts, sensors, phosphors, etc.) and non-oxide (carbides, borides, silicides, nitrides, etc.) materials. Important parameters that control the combustion synthesis are the particle size and shape of the reactants, ignition techniques and stoichiometric ratio, processing of reactant particles (green density, i.e., the density of the pellet before sintering), and adiabatic temperature (T_{ad}), which is a measure of the exothermicity of the reaction [20,21]. In this article, the recent trends in the SHS, solid-state metathesis (SSM), and combustion synthesis of oxide materials using redox compounds and mixtures are discussed.

2.1.2.4 Self-Propagating High-Temperature Synthesis (SHS)

Refractory materials such as ceramics, composites, and oxides can be synthesized by SHS methods. The process involves the ignition of the pellets prepared from fine powders of respective metals (fuels) and nonmetals (oxidizers) with a suitable heat source. A high ignition temperature (1,000°C–1,500°C) is required. After the ignition, the combustion reaction is self-propagating with an adiabatic temperature in the range of 1,500–3,000 K. The general chemical equation for the elemental combustion reaction can be represented as follows:

$$m\,X + nY \rightarrow Xm\,Yn$$

where X= metals (act as fuels) and Y= nonmetals (act as oxidizers).

The required ignition temperature can be achieved using laser radiations, a resistance heating coil, an electric arc, a chemical oven, and so on. Researchers are now trying to lower the ignition

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temperature and the use of metal oxides/halides instead of finely divided metal powders. To lower the ignition temperature, mechanical activation (ball milling) and field activation processes are used. Mechanical alloying has been successfully used to synthesize TiC, NbC, and their solid solutions using Ti, Nb, and graphite powders [22,23]. To activate low enthalpy of formation (ΔH_f) reactions, Munir and coworkers used the field activated (20 V) combustion synthesis. Using this method, ceramics and composites have been prepared [24]. A recent study [25] on the relationship between the field direction and wave propagation in activated combustion synthesis showed that the field applied in a direction perpendicular to wave propagation resulted in an enhancement of the wave velocity (which helps in the completion of the reaction and results in a decrease in the particle size of the product).

Thermite reactions that involve metallothermic reduction have been employed in the ceramic coating of pipes and preparation of composites. There are two types of thermite reactions. The first method involves the reduction of an oxide to the element, for example:

$$3Fe_3O_4 + 8Al \rightarrow 4Al_2O_3 + 9Fe$$

$$\Delta H^0{}_{298} = -3,400\,KJ/mol$$

A modified thermite reaction called a 'centrifugal thermite reaction' has been used for coating the inner surface of pipes. By coupling SHS with a centrifugal process, a surface layer of alumina and an inner layer of Fe are formed in the pipe due to the difference in density between Fe and alumina. The composite pipe will have the strength and toughness of a metal and the corrosion and abrasion resistance of metal oxides. The second type of thermite process involves the reduction of an oxide to the element, which subsequently reacts with another element to form a refractory compound, for example

$$TiO_2 + B_2O_3 + 5Mg \rightarrow TiB_2 + 5MgO$$

These methods are of great importance in the synthesis of advanced metal oxides and composites [26] on account of the economic advantages of using cheaper oxide reactants. Merzhanov and his associates [27] have reported the synthesis of electronic engineering materials such as superconductors and ferroelectric and magnetic materials by SHS reaction using metal oxide and peroxide precursors. The properties of SHS-derived products are compared with those prepared by solid-state reaction. The advantages of SHS process are time- and energy-savings and an increase in the reactivity of products.

2.1.2.5 Combustion Synthesis of Oxide Materials Using Redox Compounds and Mixtures

A novel method of synthesis of simple and complex oxide materials is described. This method involves the use of combustible precursors (redox compounds) and redox mixtures. These are low-temperature (<500°C)-initiated gas-producing exothermic reactions and yield voluminous fine particle oxides in a few minutes. The combustion is smoldering type (flameless) and is accompanied by the evolution of gases resulting in fine, voluminous powder. However, the exothermicity of some precursors is not high enough to sustain combustion and the external heat source is required for the completion of the decomposition.

Precursors containing a carboxylate anion, hydrazide, hydrazine, or hydroxonium groups [28,29] are found to ignite at low temperatures (120°C–350°C) and decompose autocatalytically to yield fine particle and large surface area oxides. The high exothermicity ($T_{ad} = 10K$) of combustion is due to the oxidation of strong reducing halves such as COO^-, $N_2H_3^-$, N_2H_4, or N_2H_5 (present in the precursors) by atmospheric oxygen to CO_2, H_2O, and N_2. Using combustible precursors, nano-sized oxides such as Fe_2O_3 and ferrites, CeO_2, TiO_2, and Y_2O_3 can be synthesized. Besides magnetic oxides, this route has also reported a few ferroelectric titanates. Fine particles such as Fe_2O_3 and Fe_3O_4 and ferrites find use as recording materials and in the preparation of liquid magnets. Titania, ferrites, and cobaltites are all good catalysts.

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Although the preparation of fine particle oxides by the above method of combustion of redox compounds is simple and attractive, it has certain limitations – (i) the preparation of precursors requires several days, (ii) the yield is only 20% of the precursors, and (iii) not all metals form complexes with the hydrazine carboxylate legends, and therefore, it is not possible to use this method to prepare high-temperature oxides such as chromites and alumina.

An efficient self-propagating combustion method for the synthesis of oxide materials is to use the combustible redox compounds and redox mixtures [30,31] (oxidizer–fuel). The stoichiometric compositions of redox mixtures used for the combustion synthesis are calculated based on the total oxidizing (O) and reducing (F) valencies of the components, which serves as the numerical coefficient for stoichiometric balance so that the equivalence ratio Φ_e, i.e., the ratio of oxidizing valency of metal nitrates to the reducing valency of fuel, is unity ($\phi_{e=}O/F=1$) and the energy released during combustion is maximum. According to the concepts used in propellant chemistry, the usual products of combustion are CO_2, H_2O, and N_2. The elements such as C, B, Zn, H, or any other metal are considered as reducing elements with valencies 4, 3, 2, and 1 (or valency of the metal ion in that compound), respectively, and oxygen as an oxidizing element having the valency of 2. The valency of nitrogen is taken as zero because of its conversion to molecular nitrogen.

The stoichiometric calculations for the proposed reaction are worked out first. The metal nitrates are weighed accordingly. The calculation of the amount of urea (fuel), required for each nitrate, was determined in the following way:

For a divalent oxidizer $M(NO_3)_2.xH_2O$ (where M is a metal) -

Oxidizing valency for M is	**---------$(+2\times1)$**	**$=+2$**
For O^{2-} is	**---------$(-2\times3)\times2$**	**$=-12$**
The net valency	**---------**	**$=-10$**
For fuel (urea), H_2N ---- C ----NH_2, the valency --------		**$=+6$.**

$$\begin{array}{c} \\ \| \\ O \end{array}$$

Hence, the oxidizer-to-fuel valency ratio is 10:6. Therefore, one mole of oxidizer requires 10/6 moles of urea. Thus, depending upon the cation valency, +2 for $Ba(NO_3)_2$ and $Mg(NO_3)_2.6H_2O$, +3 for $Al(NO_3)_3.9H_2O$ and $Eu(NO_3)_3$, the multiplication factor is 10/6 and 15/6, respectively. Thus, the total weight of urea was calculated.

The host formation temperature for the thermal decomposition of precursors could be lowered by the addition of a calculated amount of either ammonium nitrate (NH_4NO_3) or ammonium perchlorate (NH_4ClO_4) or rapidly heating at 300°C. The addition of an oxidizer (NH_4NO_3 or NH_4ClO_4), while lowering the ignition temperature, increases the enthalpy of the reaction drastically, thus facilitating the crystallization of phosphor [32]. The stoichiometric amounts of ammonium nitrate or ammonium perchlorate and urea were calculated for the proposed reaction.

The Combustion Synthesis Involves Following Steps

a. Take stoichiometric compositions of oxidizer (e.g., metal nitrate and/or ammonium nitrate) and fuel (e.g., urea).
b. Crush and grind them for at least 30 minutes to form pasty material.
c. Transfer it to the borosilicate beaker and put it in the furnace maintained at 500°C.

The solution boils and undergoes dehydration followed by decomposition with the evolution of gases such as N_2, CO_2, H_2O, etc. The mixture then froths and swells, forming foam that ruptures with a flame on ignition of combustible gases, and glows to incandescence. During incandescence, the foam further swells to the capacity of the container. The flame temperature as measured by an optical pyrometer is around 1,600°C±20°C. The product of combustion is voluminous and foamy. The whole process completes in less than 5 minutes (Figure 2.4).

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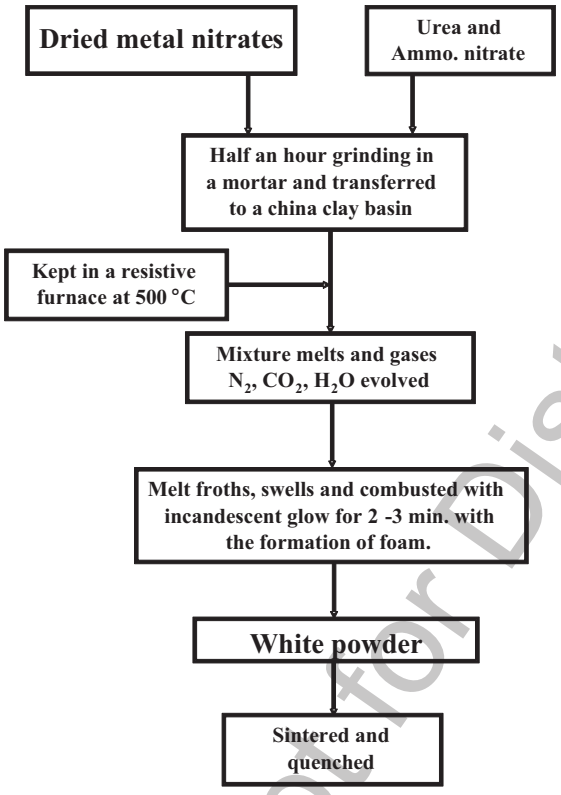

FIGURE 2.4 Flow chart of combustion synthesis using a redox mixture.

Patil K.C. and coworkers, and other research groups have carried out the synthesis of a variety of single and mixed oxides, aluminates, aluminosilicates, chromites, ferrites, ferroelectrics, zirconates, borates, vanadates [33,34], etc., using fuels such as urea (NH_2-CO-NH_2), carbohydrazide (CH_6N_4O), oxalyldihydrazide ($C_2H_6N_4O$), glycine ($C_2H_5NO_2$), 3Methylpyrazol-5 one ($C_4H_6N_2O$), and diformylhydrazine ($C_2H_4N_2O_2$). Glycine has been used to synthesize high Tc superconductors, magnates, and chromites. The solution combustion method has been used to yield nano-size TiO_2, ZrO_2, and pigments [35] (e.g., V^{4+} doped zircon blue pigment). The generation of gaseous products increases the surface area of the powders by creating micro- and nano-porous regions. Combustion-synthesized powders are generally more homogeneous, have fewer impurities, and have higher surface areas than powders prepared by conventional solid-state methods. The advantages of the solution combustion process over other combustion methods are as follows: (i) Being a solution process, it has control over the homogeneity and stoichiometry of the products; (ii) it is possible to incorporate desired impurity ions in the oxide hosts and prepare industrially useful materials such as pigments, phosphors [36,37], and high T_c cuprates and solid oxide fuel cell (SOFC); and (iii) process is simple, fast, and does not need any special equipment as in other SHS methods.

2.1.2.5.1 Preparation of Fuels

2.1.2.5.1.1 Preparation of Carbohydrazide (CH), CH_6N_4O 354 g of diethyl carbonate (3 moles) and 388 g of 99% hydrazine hydrate (6 moles) were placed in a 1-L round-bottom flask fitted with a thermometer. The reactants were partially miscible at first, the flask was then shaken well until a single phase was formed, and this was accompanied by the evolution of heat causing the temperature to rise to about 55°C. The flask was then connected through a standard taper joint, to a fractionating column filled with Raschig rings. A still head fitted with a thermometer and a water-cooled condenser was attached to the fractionating column. A heater regulated by a variable transformer was employed to heat the reaction mixture.

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Distillation of the ethanol and water (byproducts) was quite rapid (5 mL/min) for the first 30 minutes but decreased as the reaction proceeded. Heating was continued for 4 hours during which around 350 mL of distillate was collected at a vapor temperature of 80°C–85°C. The liquor was cooled to 20°C and allowed to stand until the formation of carbohydrazide crystals [38]. The crystals were then separated by filtration and dried (yield = 165 g, 60%, m.p. = 153°C).

$$H_5C_2O - CO - OC_2H_5 + 2N_2H_4.H_2O \rightarrow H_3N_2 - CO - N_2H_3 + 2C_2H_5OH + 2H_2O$$

2.1.2.5.1.2 Preparation of N, N′-Diformylhydrazine (DFH) Hydrazine hydrate (50 mL, 1 mol) and formic acid (150 mL, 2 mol) were mixed and heated overnight in a steam bath, and the solvent was removed by heating under reduced pressure. Ethanol (100 mL) was added, and the solid separation was collected and air-dried (yield = 60%, m.p.= 160°C).

$$N_2H_4.H_2O + 2HCOOH \rightarrow OHC - HN - NH - CHO + 3H_2O$$

2.1.2.5.1.3 Preparation of Oxalyl Dihydrazide (ODH), $C_2H_6N_4O_2$ 146.14 g of diethyl oxalate (1 mol) was added dropwise to 100.122 g of hydrazine hydrate (2 mol) dissolved in 225 mL of double-distilled water in 1,000-mL beaker. The entire addition was carried out in an ice-cold bath with vigorous stirring. The white precipitate obtained was allowed to stand overnight, washed with ethanol, filtered, and dried (yield = 100.3 g, 85%).

$$H_5C_2O - CO - CO - OC_2H_5 + 2N_2H_4.H_2O \rightarrow H_3N_2 - CO - CO - N_2H_3 + 2C_2H_5OH + 2H_2O$$

2.1.2.5.1.4 Preparation of Tetraformal Trisazine (TFTA), $C_4H_{16}N_6O_2$ 100 mL of hydrazine hydrate (99%–100%) was cooled in an ice–salt mixture (temperature of the solvent being 0°C–5°C). To this ice-cold hydrazine hydrate, 175 mL of formaldehyde (37%–41%) was added dropwise from a burette. Throughout the addition, the temperature was maintained below 5°C. After the complete addition of HCHO, the mixture was concentrated in a water bath. When white precipitate began to appear, the solution was removed from the water bath and left for crystallization. A white lump of solid appeared, which was filtered, washed with ethanol, and stored in a desiccator. The mother liquor was again concentrated in a water bath (yield 70%, m.p. = 85°C).

$$4HCHO + 3N_2H_4.H_2O \rightarrow C_4H_{16}N_6O_2 + 5H_2O$$

2.1.2.5.1.5 Preparation of 3Methylpyrazol-5 One ($3MP_5O$), $C_4H_6N_2O$ 3 Methylpyrazol-5 one (3MP5O, $C_4H_6N_2O$) was prepared by the dropwise addition of 1 mole of ethyl acetoacetate to 1 mole of hydrazine hydrate (99%–100%) cooled in an ice bath (0°C–5°C) according to the following equation:

$$CH_3COCH_2COOC_2H_5 + N_2H_4.H_2O \rightarrow C_4H_6N_2O + H_2O + C_2H_5OH$$

Combustion synthesis was successfully adopted for the synthesis of basic oxides; however, the most commonly available fuel is urea and oxidizer is ammonium nitrate. Both these compounds are not costly. In the research group, other coworkers have successfully established the combustion synthesis using various fuels but mostly urea for the synthesis of luminescent materials hosts such as aluminates, oxides, silicates, vanadates, and borates. The important well-known luminescent materials, which are commercially used and the same are synthesized in the laboratory using combustion, are listed in Table 2.2.

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TABLE 2.2
Phosphors Synthesized by Combustion Method in Our Laboratory

Compound	Fuel	Emission Wavelength	Applications
$Y_2O_3:Eu^{3+}$	3MP5O, ODH, glycine	611 nm	Compact fluorescent lamps, color picture tubes
$YVO_4:Eu^{3+}$	3MP5O	619 nm	HPMV lamps
$(Ce, Tb)MgAl_{11}O_{19}$	Urea	541 nm	Compact fluorescent lamps
$SrB_4O_7:Eu^{2+}$	Urea and NH_4NO_3	370 nm	Sun tanning lamps
$BaMgAl_{10}O_{17}:Eu^{2+}$	Urea	450 nm	Compact fluorescent lamps
$BaMgAl_{10}O_{17}$:Eu, Mn	Urea	520 nm	Neon lamps
$Zn_2SiO_4:Mn^{2+}$	3MP5O	524 nm	Tricolor lamps, color picture tubes
$Sr_5(PO_4)_3Cl:Eu^{2+}$	Urea	445 nm	Compact fluorescent lamps
$(Gd, La)B_3O_6$:Bi	Urea and NH_4NO_3	311 nm	Psoriasis lamps
$Sr_2P_2O_7$:Eu	Urea and NH_4NO_3	420 nm	Photocopy lamps
$Y_3Al_5O_{12}$:Ce	Urea	525 nm	Deluxe lamps
CaO:Bi	Urea and NH_4NO_3	391 nm	Photoluminescent liquid crystal displays
$SrTiO_3:Pr^{3+}$	Urea and NH_4NO_3	617 nm	Vacum fluorescent displays, low-voltage field-emission displays
MgB_4O_7 :Dy	Urea and NH_4NO_3	Main thermoluminescence (TL) peak at 163°C	TL dosimetry phosphor
MgB_4O_7 :Dy, Na	Urea and NH_4NO_3	Main TL peak at 190°C	Thermoluminescence dosimetry phosphor
$Li_2B_4O_7$:Cu	Urea and NH_4NO_3	Main TL peak at 210°C	Thermoluminescence dosimetry phosphor
$CeGdMgB_5O_{10}$	Urea and NH_4NO_3	311 nm	Phototherapy
$(CeGdTb)MgB_5O_{10}$:Mn	Urea and NH_4NO_3	616 nm	Tricolor lamps
$Ca_2B_5O_9Cl:Eu^{2+}$	Urea	455 nm	Photoluminescent liquid crystal displays

2.1.2.6 Sol–Gel Synthesis

The phrase sol–gel describes several types of processes in different areas of chemistry and material development, while the term 'gel' has been used to embrace a wide range of substances in systems as diverse as inorganic clays and oxides, phospholipids, disordered proteins, and three-dimensional or network polymers.

Colloid science is important for the successful application of chemistry to metal oxide synthesis. This is because powder preparation involves nucleation and growth of particles to a size often less than 1 μm, and thus, the powders are colloidal systems [39]. A 'colloid' is a suspension in which the dispersed phase is so small (~1–1,000 nm) that gravitational forces are negligible and interactions are dominated by short-range forces. In addition, powders are often handled in the form of colloidal dispersions, and this is illustrated by the synthesis method known as sol–gel processing of colloids [40]. A sol–gel preparation can be divided into five stages [41]. The starting material, for example, a metal salt, is converted in a chemical process to a dispersible oxide, which forms a colloidal dispersion (sol) in addition to dilute acid or H_2O. A 'Sol' is a colloidal suspension of solid particles in liquid. It may be produced from organic or inorganic precursors (e.g., nitrates or alkoxides).

The removal of H_2O and/or anions from the sol produces a stiff gel in the form of spheres, fibers, fragments, or coatings, and this transition is usually reversible. A 'gel' is a two-component system of a semisolid nature, which consists of continuous solid and fluid phases, of colloidal dimensions. Sol–gel processing is the preparation of phosphor materials by the preparation of the sol, gelation of the sol, and removal of the solvent. Calcination of the gel in air yields an oxide product after the decomposition of the salts. For the preparation of multicomponent oxides, sols are blended together

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before gelation and a component unavailable in sol form can be introduced as an electrolyte solution or oxide powder. Spherical sol–gel powders can be made by the following processes:

1. Dispersing a sol to an emulsion in an immiscible organic solvent capable of extracting H_2O from the sol, for example, 2-ethylhexanol. Gelation occurs during the dehydration process.
2. External gelation in which a sol is dispersed to an emulsion in a water-immiscible solvent and gelation is effected by the addition of a long-chain amine or NH_3 (g) to the solvent.
3. Internal gelation in which an ammonia donor such as hexamethylenetetramine or urea is added to the sol before emulsification and gelation occurs by the release of NH_3 (g) on warming solvent (Figures 2.5 and 2.6).

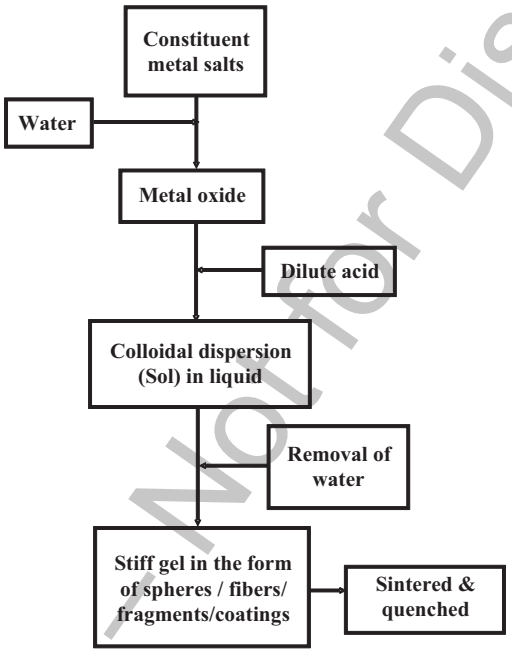

FIGURE 2.5 Flow chart of sol–gel processing of organometallic colloids.

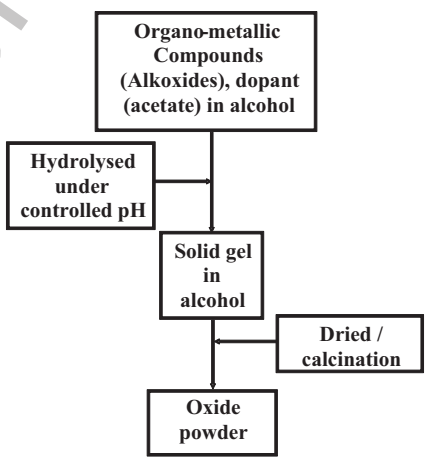

FIGURE 2.6 Flow chart of the sol–gel process for compounds.

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The advantages of this sol–gel technique are good chemical homogeneity due to mixing components at the colloidal level and lower reaction temperatures, considerably lower than for the conventional powder mixing method. In addition, because it involves handling liquid feeds, small amounts of dopants can be readily introduced, while lower crystallization temperatures enable the preparation of phases that are unstable at high temperature. The hydrolysis of cations and inorganic polymerization in an aqueous solution is of fundamental importance to wet chemical methods of synthesis such as sol–gel in which sols are formed from cations that can undergo hydrolysis. The formation of monovalent hydrolysis products is represented by the following equation:

$$\left[M(H_2O)_n\right]^{z+} \rightarrow \left[M(OH)_p(H_2O)_{n-p}\right]^{(z-p)+} + pH^+$$

where n is the number of bound water molecules, p is the number of protons removed from the cation on hydrolysis, and z is the valency of the cation M, which can condense to polyvalent or polynuclear ions that can be colloidal.

However, sol–gel processing of alkoxides cannot compete economically with conventional routes for mass production due to the high cost of alkoxides.

Advantages

- Good chemical homogeneity due to mixing component at the colloidal level.
- Lower reaction temperatures (e.g., ThO_2-UO_2 spheres obtained at 1,150°C, whereas conventional powder mixing method produces at ≈1,700°C).
- As it involves handling liquid feeds, a small amount of dopants can be readily introduced, while lower crystallization temperatures enable the preparation of phase, which is unstable at high temperature.
- Because many alkoxides are liquids or volatile solids, they can be purified to form extremely pure oxide sources, which is important for electroceramic synthesis.
- The improved homogeneity is associated with lower crystallization temperatures than the use of colloids, often between 400°C and 800°C for gel-to-oxide conversion.

Disadvantages

- Alkoxides are relatively expensive compared with precursors for sol–gel processing of colloids.
- A limited range of them are commercially available.
- Their use involves a solvent-based process rather than a water-based process.

2.1.2.7 Stearic Acid Gel Method

Besides the advantages of sol–gel process of alkoxides, it is costly as compared to the conventional methods, and due to the high cost of alkoxides, the sol–gel processing by steric acid [42–46] provides an economical and effective route for the synthesis of luminescent materials.

In this sol–gel process, the precursors are added to the molten steric acid at 70°C for near about 30 minutes for the preparation of sol. After the complete dissolution of precursor, the solution is further heated near about 140°C and allowed to cool. The process of polymerization takes place due to the formation of metallic steroid and the gel is formed.

$$M^{x+} + xCH_3(CH_2)_{16}COOH \rightarrow \left[\left(CH_3(CH_2)_{16}COO\right)\right]xM$$

It is then dried further slowly to near about 230°C. Most gels are amorphous even after drying, but many crystallize when heated. The term aging is applied to the process of change in structure and properties after gelation. The dry gel is further heated till shining black resin or charcoal is formed. Shrinkage of gel, during either synthesis or drying, involves the deformation of the network and

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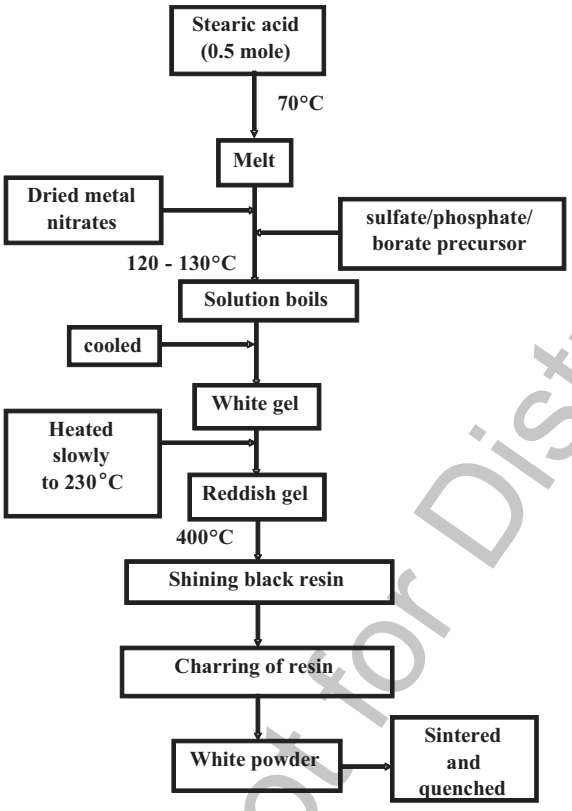

FIGURE 2.7 Flow chart of synthesis of phosphor by stearic acid sol–gel method.

transport of liquid through the pores. On further heating, the black resin or charcoal burns, yielding the fine-sized white crystalline powder (Figure 2.7).

This process offers a low-temperature route that gives high purity, homogeneous composition, and controlled particle size. It is energy-efficient and suited for compositions that are difficult to make by conventional methods.

2.1.2.8 Pechini and Citrate Gel Methods

In the Pechini method [47,48], polybasic chelates are formed between α-hydroxy carboxylic acids containing at least one hydroxy group, for example, citric acid and $HOC(CH_2CO_2H)_2.CO_2H$ with metallic ions.

$$M^{x+} + x\ HOC(CH_2CO_2H)_2.CO_2H \rightarrow \left[(CH_2COO)_2\ COH(COO)\right]xM$$

The chelate undergoes polyesterification on heating with a polyfunctional alcohol, for example, ethylene glycol, $HOCH_2CH_2OH$.

$$\left[(CH_2COO)_2\ COH(COO)\right]xM + 2xHOCH_2CH_2OH \rightarrow \left[(CH_2CH_2CH_2COO)_2\ COH(COO)\right]xM$$

Further heating produces a viscous resin, then a rigid transparent, glassy gel, and finally a fine oxide powder. This method is based on the esterification reaction between organic acid and alcohol (acid + alcohol → ester + water). Higher hydroxycarboxylic acid and polyfunctional alcohol yield the highly viscous polyester complex.

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The advantages of the Pechini method are the ability to prepare complex compositions, good homogeneity through mixing at the molecular leveling solution, and control of stoichiometry. Low firing temperatures are required for the decomposition of the resin to the oxide, thus 650°C for $BaTiO_3$ compared with 1,000°C for the conventional solid-state reaction. This is a versatile method for the synthesis of multicomponent oxides, for example, $Pb_3MgNb_2O_9$ [49]. The citrate gel [50,51] method shares the advantages of the Pechini method with respect to chemical homogeneity and compositional control. In the citrate gel process, which was developed by Marcilly and coworkers (1970) [52], metal nitrate solutions are added to the citric acid solution, whose pH is increased to between 6 and 7.5 in order to dissolve insoluble citrates but not to precipitate metal hydroxides. Also for the synthesis [53] of $YBa_2Cu_3O_{7-X}$, metal nitrate solutions of Y, Ba, and Cu were added to the citric acid solution and the pH was raised to between 6.5 and 7.0 in order to dissolve insoluble barium citrate but not to precipitate metal hydroxides. The solutions, which contained polybasic chelates, were separately concentrated to a viscous resin and dried in transparent gels, which were pyrolyzed to fine powders. The citrate gel method is also a versatile method for the synthesis of multicomponent oxides, for example, $SrCo_{0.8}Fe_{0.2}O_3$-x [54]. Other organic acids containing at least one hydroxyl and one carboxylic group such as tartaric acid, lactic acid, and glycolic acid can be used.

A claimed advantage of many chemical syntheses is their improved homogeneity although evidence for this is not always available. However, a recent study using Raman and 13C NMR spectroscopy indicated that during the preparation [55] of $BaTiO_3$ by the Pechini method the coordination of Ba and Ti in the mixed metal complex remained almost unchanged on polymerization and that molecular-level mixing was retained at the resin stage and probably in the pyrolyzed resin. There is further scope for using characterization techniques for monitoring changes in homogeneity at different wide ranges of chemical syntheses.

A key advantage of polymer pyrolysis over the other methods is its ability to yield high-strength non-oxide fibers, and there is considerable scope for the chemical design of polymers suitable for conversion to fibers, coating, and monolithic ceramics.

The advantages of these methods are the ability to produce complex compositions, good homogeneity through mixing at the molecular level in solution, and control of stoichiometry. Low firing temperatures are required for decomposition of resin to the oxide. This method is primarily used to obtain oxide. However, it is extended to obtain the oxosalts (Figure 2.8).

2.1.2.9 Aldo-Keto Gel Method

The aldo-keto gel method is introduced and practiced for the first time for the synthesis of luminescent materials during this work. It is a novel and low-temperature synthesis method. The idea for this method originated from the glucose–fructose gel [56–58].

Glucose (dextrose) and fructose are the hexoses with aldehyde and ketonic functional groups, respectively (i.e., aldohexose and ketohexose, respectively). Also, glucose and fructose are optically active substances and are dextrorotatory and laevorotatory, respectively. Equal amounts (weights) of glucose and fructose were taken in a borosil beaker and dissolved in double-distilled water. This solution was slowly heated. It starts becoming thicker, and the gel is formed at near about 120°C. This led to the conclusion that the aldehyde and ketone are taken together in equal proportions and slowly heated to form the gel.

When the precursors are added to the liquid mixture of glucose and fructose and the solution is slowly heated, the intermolecular forces of attraction go on increasing due to the thermal energy being absorbed. Hence, the intermolecular distances go on decreasing and the viscosity of the mixture increases. Thus, polymerization starts. At a particular temperature, the viscosity increases sufficiently and the gelation starts with the evolution of gases. When the gelation and hence the polymerization are completed and the gel is allowed to cool, the viscosity is maximum. In this situation, the precursors achieve the molecular size.

When the gel is further heated slowly to a particular temperature, the formation of foam starts as the polymer burns into viscous resin followed by the evolution of gases. At this time, the viscosity of

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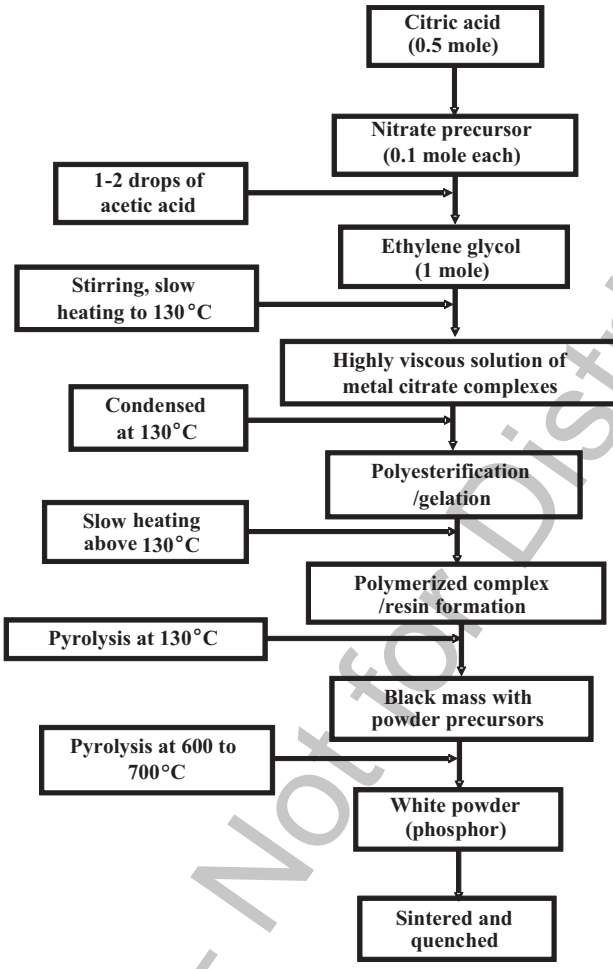

FIGURE 2.8 Flow chart of synthesis of phosphor by citrate gel/Pechini method.

gel increases enormously. When this resin is further heated, it starts burning and burns completely at a particular temperature leading to a fine crystalline phosphor.

Experimental procedure: Benzaldehyde (1 M) and acetone (1 M) (both of synthesis grade) were used together for gelation. The dried precursors (preferably nitrates) were weighed as per the stoichiometric proportions (0.1 mole of each) and finally powdered. Acetone (1 M) and benzaldehyde (1 M) (both of synthesis grade) were added to these nitrates. The pale yellow mixture obtained was stirred continuously and slowly heated to 120°C (near about) to form a reddish-brown gel.

$$M^{x+} + xC_6H_5CHO + x(CH_3)_2CO \rightarrow [C_6H_5CH(OH)CHCOCH_3]_X M$$

The gel is further heated slowly to 300°C. Dark red foam (resin) was formed with the evolution of yellowish-brown fumes. A shining black resin was formed at 500°C. The resin was finally sintered at 800°C for 2 hours. The phosphor is obtained in powder form. This method was used for the synthesis of some of the phosphors (Figure 2.9).

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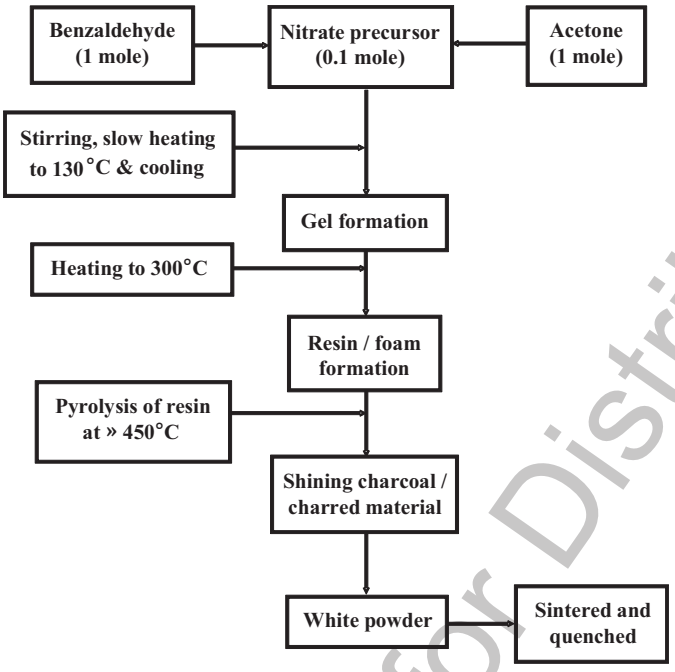

FIGURE 2.9 Flow chart of synthesis of phosphor by aldo-keto gel method.

2.2 CONCLUSIONS

Of all the methods reported, some are novel and modern synthesis methods that have their own advantages over each other in terms of above-discussed parameters such as particle sizes, morphology, required temperatures for synthesis, cost required for synthesis, and required time. It was found that the co-precipitation synthesis was found to be more prominent and effective due to a good morphological view with the required synthesis time is less.

Generally, SSD is used for the synthesis of commercial phosphor and most of the researchers usually prefer the CS method, which is used for the synthesis of phosphors, but both methods have some drawbacks. SSD requires stepwise repeated grinding and calcinating steps to get the pure phase of host. Repeated grinding may produce defects in the crystals of the prepared phosphor materials. Also, the crystalline size of the product is largely due to the sintering at high temperature for a long time. In CS method, fuel and oxidizer is required for synthesis and it is very difficult to maintain the fuel to oxidizer ratio. Stearic acid, Pechini, citrate gel methods, and aldo-keto gel method are modified version of the sol–gel method. In sol–gel method, costly organic chemical is used to form a gel, but in aldo-keto gel method, acetone and benzaldehyde are used for the gel formation. These organic chemicals are low cost and easily available in the laboratory.

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Conducting Polymer Based Anticorrosion Materials

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Abstract:
The review article reports the Conducting Polymer Based Anticorrosion Materials. The most of the researchers confirm the synthesis of desire materials through some characterization such as XRD, FTIR, UV-Vis, SEM, EDS, EIS, Cyclic Voltammetry (CV), potentiostatic and galvanostatic conditions. The successful preparation of conducting polymer based corrosive materials and the tremendous efficiency reflects from results which reports by them. These materials have excellent potential application in anticorrosion industry.

Introduction:

Recently, most of the industry facing the problem of corrosion due use metals as a basic content for the electronics devices, instruments, pipelines, construction, marine, aeronautics, automobiles industries, and machinery parts, etc. Due to the corrosion these metals things could be weakened and therefore they could require replacement which is very costly. In the construction industry metal rods are the basic structure. These rods made construction strong and increase the lifespan of every construction which placed inside the concrete. But, concrete could be degrades those rods which results in weak construction and decrease the service life of construction structure. Automobile and industrial structures also made from the metal which could be affected by the corrosion. The corrosion is most dangerous thing for marine industry. The sea water is very helpful for corrosion, due to sea water metal got corrosion instantly. Therefore, there is need of developing such anticorrosive material which could protect the metal from the corrosion. Therefore, most of the researchers were attracted towards the preparation of anticorrosion materials. They synthesized and tested the prepared materials against the corrosion. Researchers try to develop such anticorrosive materials which represent the anticorrosion properties. Recently, researchers were focusing on the developing the conducting polymer based anticorrosion materials for better service life. The conducting polymers reveal good barrier properties, ease of altering properties and massive production. Moreover, the conducting polymer based anticorrosion materials represents the properties such as good environmental stability, good conductivity, environment friendly nature, and low-cost production [1-19]. This review article is present the research done on the conducting polymer based anticorrosive materials.

Results and Discussions:

The most researchers got the tremendous results by synthesizing the conducting polymer based anti-corrosion materials. Hao et.al. synthesized well-dispersed sulfate doped PPy and its derivative nanoparticles by green method and studied electrochemical properties of bare and coated zinc are investigated by open-circuit voltage (OCP), electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) and potentiodynamic polarization [20]. Hafeez et.al. prepared nanoparticle sized polyaniline (PANI) and epoxy resin composites and studied their anticorrosive properties [21]. Tallman et.al. investigated the study of Electroactive conducting polymers (ECPs), their properties, and a discussion of the processing issues surrounding the use of ECPs as coatings [22]. Ahmad et.al. investigated the conducting polymer, emeraldine, which can be applied

chemically on the surface of the stainless steel. The results were showed tremendous positive response to the author [23]. Le et.al. demonstrated the electrodeposition of polypyrrole on iron in potassium tetraoxalate 0.05 M and pyrrole 0.1 M solution at a current of 1 mA/cm2. The outcomes of this attempt results in polypyrrole coatings provide substantial corrosion protection to iron [24].

In this section we discussed on the research carried out by various researchers on the conducting polymer based anticorrosive materials that reveals the tgremendous results for anticorrosion.

Conclusion:

The conducting polymers based materials represents the excellent results for anticorrosion protection. The number of researchers got excellent results for anti–corrosion. The results show that these anti-corrosion materials have great application potential.

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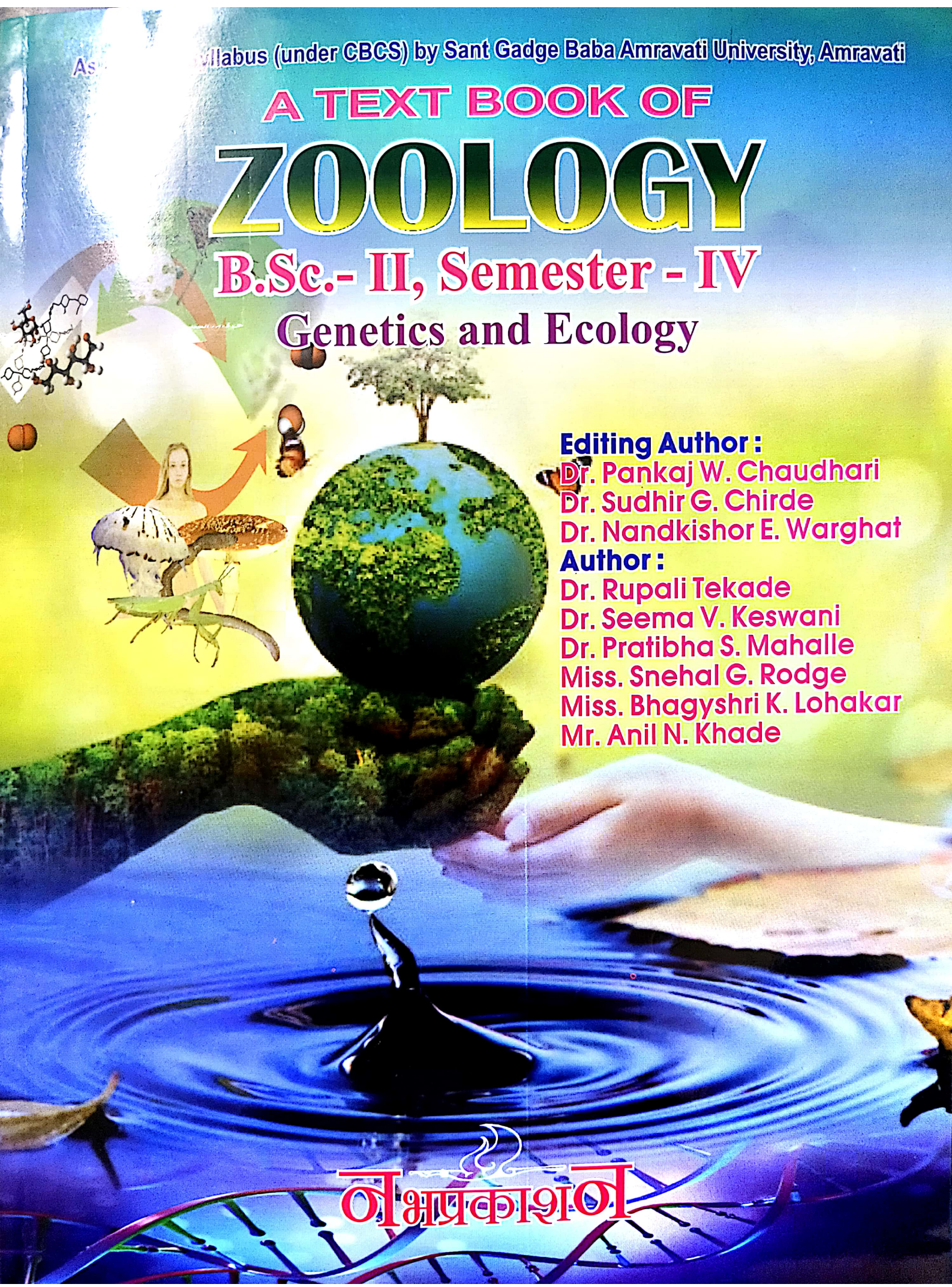
As... Syllabus (under CBCS) by Sant Gadge Baba Amravati University, Amravati

A TEXT BOOK OF ZOOLOGY

B.Sc.- II, Semester - IV

Genetics and Ecology



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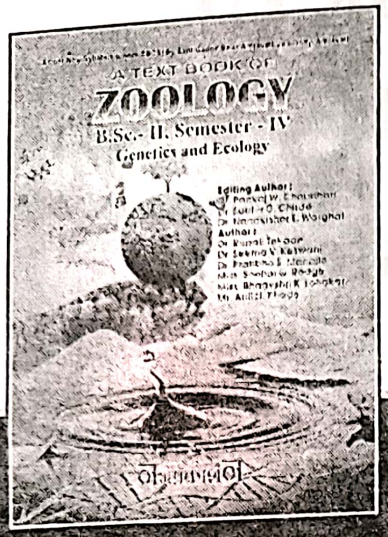

- National Level Publication
- Central Govt. of India Approved Publication
- ISBN Approved Publication
- ISO 9001-2015 Certified Publication
- 25 Years Experience Holder Publication

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B.Sc.- II, Semester - IV

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ISBN No. 978-93-93940-38-4

Edition : January 2024

Published by :
Nabh Prakashan
Ravindra Dahake
Bhoomiputra Colony,
Near Congress Nagar, Amravati-444 606
Visti us : www.nabhprakashan.com
Contact us : nabhprakashan@gmail.com
Mob. 9765748457, 7798204500

Printed by :
Nabh Printers
Bhoomiputra Colony, Amravati

Price : ₹180/-

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Preface

It gives the great pleasure to present this book for the benefit of B.Sc. students offering subject Zoology. This text book covering syllabus of B.Sc.II of semester IV, includes the subject matter has been divided into six units, covers Unit I- **Mendelian Law of Inheritance**, Unit II– **Linkage and Crossing Over**, Unit III- **Sex Determination and Genetic Disorders**, Unit IV- **Genetic Screeing and Prenatal Diagnosis**, Unit V- **Biotic and Abiotic Environmental Factors** , Unit VI-**Ecosystems and Ecology.**

The book is written in easy and understandable language so that it can be used by every student who are offering subject Zoology for degree course. This is an attempt of authors to provide the reading material to all those students who wish to continue their higher education in the field of life sciences. Authors try to their best level including the latest topic by refer different books and websites.

The text matter is along with well illustrate, simple, neat, and accurate diagrams which will be helpful for understanding the topic. The other plus point of the book is question bank. The authors try to provide the question bank based on each unit which include all types of questions as per pattern of university examination. This will be very much useful to all the students with new pattern of semester system.

We all the authors express great gratitude to all the Teachers of Zooloby of Sant Gadge Baba Amravati University, Amravati, who wished to have the book based on university syllabus. Thanks for their encouragement to initiate to develop the series of books for the benefit and welfare of students. We express our gratitude to our Principals, colleagues, friends and family members for their direct or indirect involvement in completion of this book. Our special thanks to publisher without whom this would not possible.

We will be most thankful to all those who brings to our notice shortcomings, mistakes or errors in the book . We will appreciate if our fellow teachers, colleagues and students make their suggestion for further improvement.

Dear students all the best from all of us.

Authors

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SYLLABUS

Genetics and Ecology

UNIT I:

1. Law of dominance.
2. Law of segregation.
3. Law of independent assortment.
4. Interactions of genes: Supplementary factor, complementary factor, duplicate factor.
5. Inhibitory factors and lethal factors – dominant and recessive.

UNIT II:

1. Types of linkage, arrangement of linked genes and significance of linkage.
2. Crossing over –Mechanism of crossing over, theories of crossing over (Darlington's theory, breakage and exchange theory and copy choice theory).
3. Types of crossing over – Single, double and multiple crossing overs.
4. Factors affecting crossing over, Significance of crossing over.
5. Multiple alleles in relation to Blood group in man.

UNIT III:

1. Sex determination: Autosomes and sex chromosomes, Sex determination in animals, Chromosomal Theory, Genic Balance Theory. Environmental and hormonal control of s determination, Gynandromorphs.
2. Human karyotype.
3. Non-disjunction and Disorders: Turner's syndrome, Klinefelter's syndrome, Down's syndrome, Edward's Syndrome,
4. Autosomal recessive disorders: Cystic fibrosis, Albinism, Phenylketonuria, Alkaptonur
5. Sex linked genetic disorders and their inheritance in man: Hemophilia and color blindn

UNIT IV:

1. Genetic Screening and prenatal diagnosis: CVS (Chorionic Villus Sampling), Amniocente
2. Human Heredity: - Inheritance of eye color, Skin color.
3. Recessive genes and consanguineous marriages.
4. Pedigree Analysis, Symbols used in pedigree analysis.
5. Kinds of twins: Identical, Fraternal, Siamese twins, Significance of twin study.

UNIT V:

1. Water as an abiotic ecological factor.
2. Temperature: Temperature tolerance, Effects of temperature on animals. Homeother poikilotherms. hibernation, aestivation.
3. Light: Biological effects of light on aquatic and terrestrial animals: Reproduction, Metamorphosis, pigmentation, vision, photokinesis, phototropism, photoperiodism,
4. Biotic factors: Intraspecific and interspecific associations: Predation, parasitism, Antagonism, commensalism, mutualism, competition (Gauze's Principle).

UNIT VI:

1. Autotrophs and heterotrophs.
2. Food chain, food web, ecological pyramids (number, energy and biomass).
3. Terrestrial ecosystem: Characteristics, types of Biomes.
4. Aquatic ecosystem: Characteristics, Fresh water ecosystems (Lentic and Lotic) and Mar Ecosystem.
5. Ecotone and Edge Eff

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CHAPTER 3

Sex Determination and Genetic Disorders

3.1. Sex Determination-

Members of almost all species are often divided into two sections according to the of gamete or sex cell produced by them, i.e., male sex and female sex. The term sex re sexual phenotype. The word sex has been derived from Latin word sexus meaning sec separation. The fundamental difference between males and females is gamete size: male pr small gametes; female produce relatively larger gametes. The mechanism by which sex is estab is termed **sex determination**. We define the sex of an individual organism in reference phenotype. However, some of the lowest forms of plant and animal life are found to have sexes. For example, in one variety of the ciliated Protozoan ***Paramecium bursaria*** th eight sexes or "mating types" all morphologically identical. Each mating type is physiolo incapable of conjugating with its own type, but may exchange genetic material with any seven other types within the same variety. There are many ways in which sex differences a some species, both sexes are present in the same organism, a condition termed **hermaphro** Organisms that bear both male and female reproductive organs are said to be **mono** (meaning "one house"). Species in which the organism has either male or female reproc structures are said to be **dioecious** ("Two Houses").Humans are dioecious. The sex ce reproductive organs form the primary sexual characters of male and female sexes. Beside **primary sexual characters**, the male and female sexes differ from each other in many s characters known as **secondary sexual characters**. The phenomenon of mol morphological, physiological or behavioural differentiation between male and female s called **sexual dimorphism**. Among dioecious species, sex may be determined chromos genetically, or environmentally. Modern geneticists have reported many different mechani determination of sex in living organisms. Most of the mechanisms of the sex determinat under genetic control and they may be classified into following categories:

1. Sex chromosome mechanism or Heterogamesis;
2. Genic balance mechanism
3. Male haploidy or haplodiploidy mechanism;
4. Single gene effect
5. Cytoplasmic sex determination

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1) Chromosome Theory of Sex Determination-

3.1.2 Sex Chromosomes and Autosomes (Heteromorphic and Homomorphic Chromosome):

In sexually dimorphic dioecious organisms besides morphological and behavioural differences between both sexes, the sexual diversity also occurs at the level of chromosome. The chromosomal differences between the sexes of several dioecious species were found earlier in the course of cytological investigations. A German biologist, **Hermann Henking** in 1891 noticed a peculiar structure in the nuclei of cells from male insects. Understanding neither its function nor its relation to sex, he called this structure the **"X body"**. Later, **Clarence E.Mc Clung** studied the X body in grasshoppers and recognized that it was a chromosome. **McClung** called it is the accessory chromosome, but it eventually became known as the X chromosome, from **Henking's** original designation. McClung observed that the cells of female grasshoppers had one more chromosome than the number of chromosomes in the cells of male grasshoppers, and he concluded that accessory chromosomes played a role in sex determination. In 1905, **Nettie Stevens** and **Edmund Wilson** demonstrated that, in grasshoppers and other insects, the cells of females have two X chromosomes, whereas the cells of males have a single X. In some insects, they counted the same number of chromosomes in the cells of males and females but saw that one chromosome pair was different: two X chromosomes were found in female cells, whereas a single X chromosome plus a smaller chromosome, which they called Y, was found in male cells.

Stevens and Wilson also showed that the X and Y chromosomes separate into different cells in sperm formation; half of the sperm receives an X chromosome and the other half receives a Y. All egg cells produced by the female in meiosis receive one X chromosome. A sperm containing a Y chromosome unites with an X-bearing egg to produce an XY male, whereas a sperm containing an X chromosome unites with an X-bearing egg to produce an XX female. This distribution of X and Y chromosomes in sperm accounts for the 1:1 sex ratio observed in most dioecious organisms. Because sex is inherited like other genetically determined characteristics, Stevens and Wilson's discovery that sex is associated with the inheritance of a particular chromosome also demonstrated that genes are on chromosomes.

As Stevens and Wilson found for insects, sex in many organisms is determined by a pair of chromosomes, the **sex chromosomes** or **allosomes,** which differ between males and females e.g. X and Y chromosomes.The nonsex chromosomes, which are the same for males and females, are called **autosomes** which determine the somatic characters of the individuals. The X and Y sex chromosomes exhibit structural differences. The cytological studies have shown that the X chromosomes of most organisms are straight, rod-like and comparatively larger than Y chromosomes. The Y chromosome is smaller in size with one end slightly curved or bent to one side in *Drosophila*; in human being and *Melandrium* no such curvature of Y chromosome occurs. The X chromosomes have large amount of euchromatin and small amount of heterochromatin. The euchromatin has large amount of DNA material, hence, much genetic information. The Y chromosome contains small amount of euchromatin and large amount of heterochromatin. The Y chromosome has little genetic information; therefore, sometimes it is referred to as genetically **inert** or **inactive**.

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3.1.3. Sex Determination in Animals-

Types of sex chromosomal mechanism of sex determination in animals-

In dioecious diploidic organisms following two systems of sex chromosomal determination of sex have been recognized:

A) Heterogametic males:

B) Heterogametic females:

A) Heterogametic males:

In this type of sex chromosomal determination of sex, the female sex has two X chromosomes, while the male sex has only one x chromosome. Because male lacks a X chromosome, therefore, during gametogenesis produces two types of gametes, 50 per cent gametes carry the X chromosomes, while the rest 50 per cent gametes lack in X chromosomes. Such a sex which produces two different types of gametes in terms of sex chromosomes is called **heterogametic sex**. The female sex,because, produces similar type of gametes, is called homogametic sex. The heterogametic males may be of following two types:

(i) XX-XO type sex determination: In certain plants (e.g. *Vallisneria spiralis*, *Dioscorea sinuate*, etc.,) and insects specially those of the orders Hemiptera (true bugs) and Orthoptera (grasshoppers and roaches), the female having two X chromosomes (hence, referred to as as XX) and are, thus, homogametic, while the male having only one X chromosome (hence referred to as XO) and are, thus, heterogametic. The presence of an unpaired X chromosome determines the masculine sex. The male lacking in one X chromosome produces two types of sperms: half with X chromosome and half without X chromosome. The sex of the offspring depends upon the sperm that fertilizes the egg (each of which carries a single X Chromosome) shown in **(Fig. 3.1)**

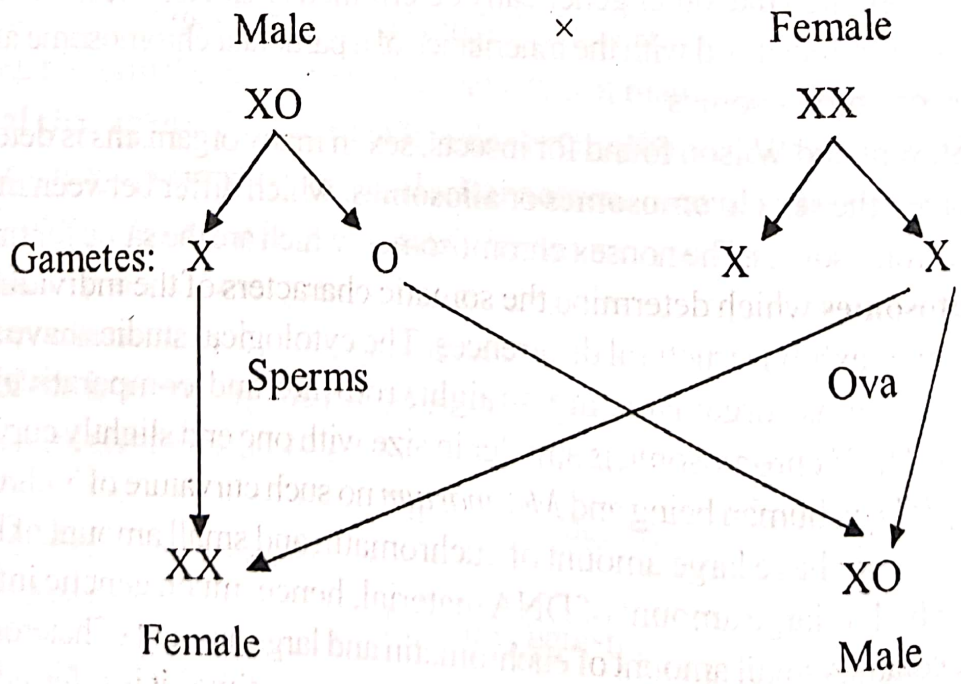

Fig.3.1: XX-XO type of sex determination

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(ii) XX-XY Type sex determination: In human, other mammals, certain insects including *Drosophila*, the female possesses two homomorphic X- chromosomes in their body cells (hence, referred to as XX) and they being homogametic, produce one kind of eggs, each with one X chromosome. The males of these organisms possess one X chromosome and one Y chromosome (hence, referred to as XY) and they are heterogametic. The males having two heteromorphic sex chromosomes produce two kinds of sperms: half with X chromosome and half with Y chromosome. The sex of embryo depends on the kind of sperm. An egg fertilized by a X-bearing sperm, produces a female, but, if fertilized by a Y-bearing sperm, a male is produced (Fig.3.2).

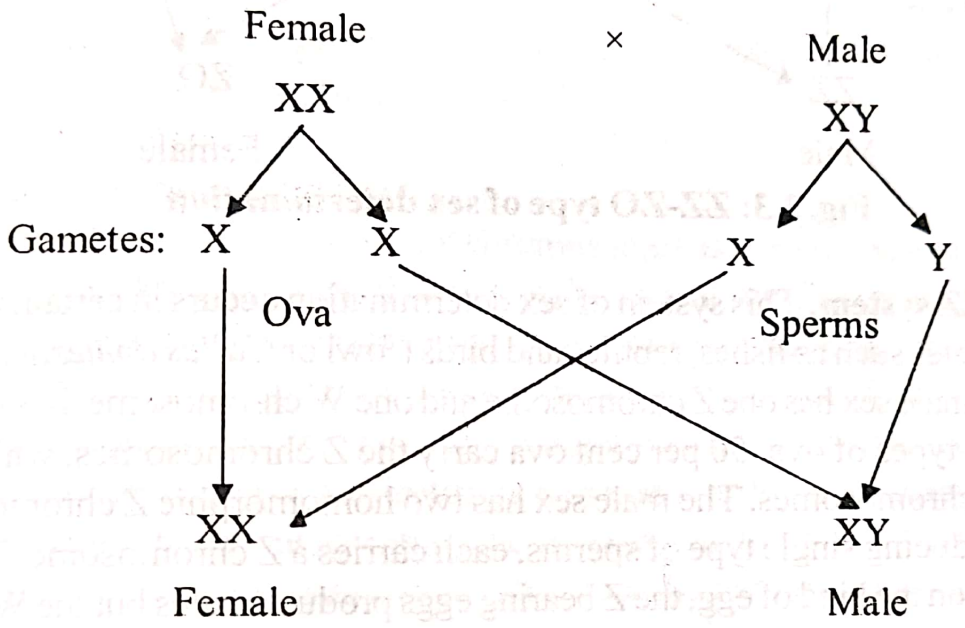

Fig.3.2: XX-XY type of sex determination

A) Heterogametic females:

In this type of sex chromosomal determination of sex, the male sex possesses two homomorphic X chromosomes, therefore, is homogametic and produces single type of gametes, (i.e. sperms) each carries a single X chromosome. The female sex either consists of single X chromosome or one X chromosome and one Y chromosome. The female sex is, thus, heterogametic and produces two types of eggs, half with a X chromosome and half without a X chromosome (with or without a Y chromosome). To avoid confusion with that of XX-XO and XX-XY types of sex determining mechanisms, instead of the X and Y alphabets, Z and W alphabets are generally used respectively.

The heterogametic females may be of following two types:

(i) ZO-ZZ system: This system of sex determination is found in certain moths and butterflies. In this case, the females possesses single Z chromosome in its body cells (hence, is referred to as ZO) and is heterogametic, producing two kinds of eggs, half with a Z chromosome and half without any Z chromosome. The male possesses two Z chromosomes (hence, referred to as ZZ) and is homogametic, producing single type of sperms, each of which carries a single Z chromosome. The sex of the offspring depends on the kind of egg as shown below: (Fig.3.3)

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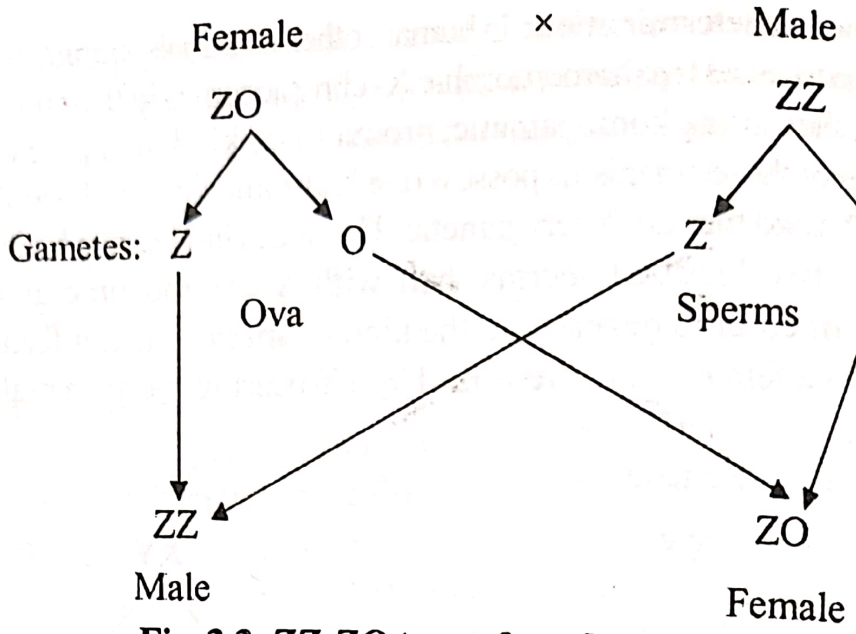

Fig. 3.3: ZZ-ZO type of sex determination

(ii) ZW-ZZ system: This system of sex determination occurs in certain insects (gy moth) and vertebrates such as fishes, reptiles and birds (fowl or *Gallus domesticus*) and cert plants. Here the female sex has one Z chromosome and one W chromosome. It is heterogam and produces two types of ova, 50 per cent ova carry the Z chromosomes, while rest 50 cent ova carry W chromosomes. The male sex has two homomorphic Z chromosomes an homogametic producing single type of sperms, each carries a Z chromosome. The sex of offspring depends on the kind of egg, the Z bearing eggs produce males but the W bearing e produce females as shown in (fig.3.4)

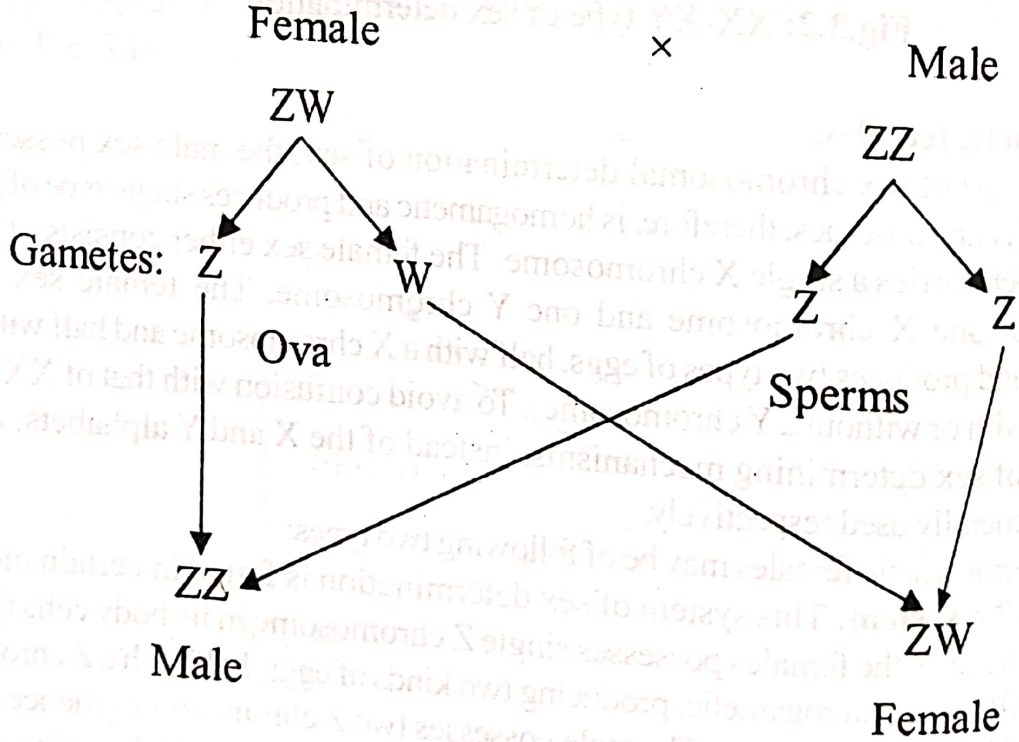

Fig.3.4: ZW-ZZ type of sex determination

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3.1.4. Genic Balance Theory:

By studying sex chromosomal mechanism of sex determination, it may appear at first glance that some genes carried by the sex chromosomes (X and Y) were entirely responsible for sex. But this is not the case. Extensive experimentation of different workers (**Wilson**, 1909; **Bridges,** 1921 and **Goldschmidt**,1934) on different organisms have revealed the fact that most organisms generally have inherent potentialities for both sexes and each individual is found to be more or less intermediate between male and female sexes (Hence may be referred to as **intersex**). There seems to exist a delicate balance of masculine and feminine tendencies in the hereditary compliment of an individual and mechanisms like the XY, ordinarily serve to trip the balance in one direction or another. Such **genic balance** mechanism of determination of sex was first of all studied in *Drosophila* by **C.B. Bridges** in 1921.

Sex determination in Drosophila:

In *Drosophila*, the presence of Y chromosome has been found essential for the fertility of male sex but that has nothing to do with the determination of male sex. In this fly, the sex is determined polygenically. The sex determining genes were so distributed that the net effect results in the autosomes determining maleness and the X chromosomes femaleness. The sex of an individual then depends upon the ratio of X chromosomes to autosomes. If each haploid set of autosomes carries factors with a male-determining value equal to one (1), then each X chromosome carries factors with a female determining value of one and half (1 ½). Let a represent a haploid set of autosomes. In a normal male (AAXY) the male and female determinants are in the ratio of 2: 1 ½ and, therefore, the genic balance is in the favour of maleness. A normal female (AAXX) has a male and female ratio of 2:3 and, therefore, the balance is in the favour of femaleness. (Fig.3.5)

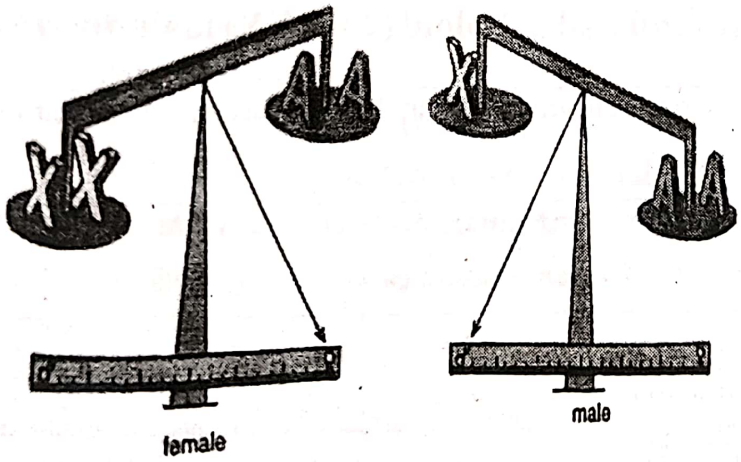

Fig. 3.5. A diagrammatic representation of genic balance theory in *Drosophila*.

The genic balance theory of Bridges has been supported by the following two findings:

(1) Polyploid flies: Bridges crossed the experimentally produced triploid (3n individual having three whole sets of chromosomes) female *Drosophila* (3A: 3X) to diploid males (2A:XY). The results obtained from such a cross are shown in (Figure:3.6). From this cross he obtained

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normal diploid males, triploid females, intersexes, super males and super females. The occurrence of triploid intersexes from such a cross, clearly established that the autosomes also carry genes for sex determination. These intersexes were sterile individuals and had phenotype in between male and female sexes. The occurrence of such intersexes, super males and super females was explained by Bridges by genic balance mechanism. Different combination of X chromosomes and autosomes and corresponding sex expression in Drosophila can be summarized in Table-3.1.

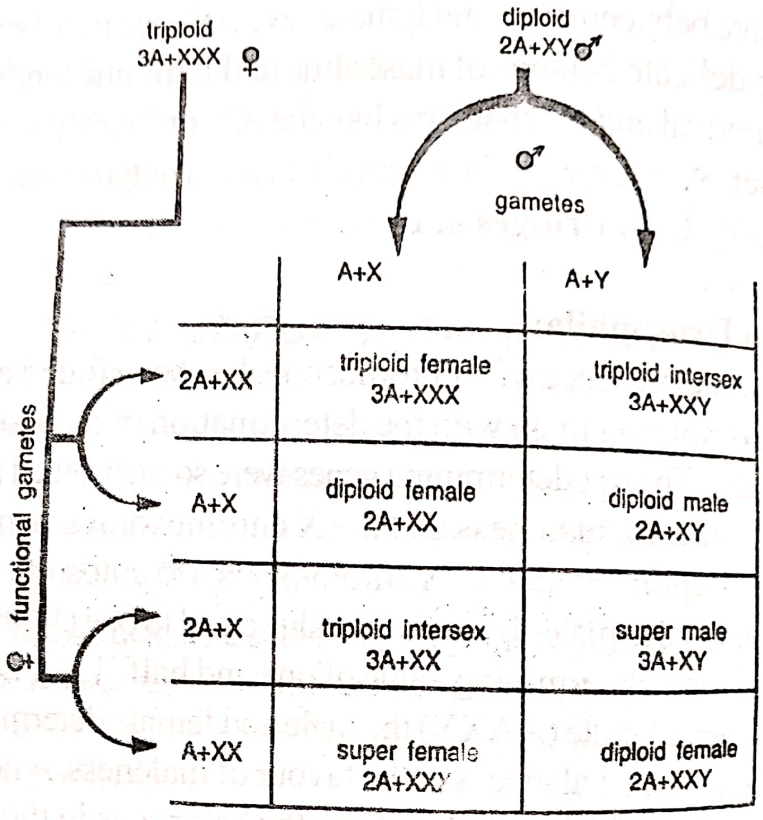

Fig.3.6. Results obtained from a Bridge's classical cross of a triploid (3A+XXX) female fly and and a diploid (2A + XY) male fly (*Drosophila*).

Table:3.1. Different doses of X-chromosomes and autosomes sets and their effect on sex determination in *Drosophila*.

Phenotypes		Number of chromosomes	Number of Autosomes (A sets)	Sex index= No.X's / No. A sets
Super female		3	2	1.5
Normal female	tetraploid	4	4	1.0
	triploid	3	3	1.0
	diploid	2	2	1.0
	haploid	1	1	1.0
Intersex		2	3	0.67
Normal male		1	2	0.50
Super male		1	3	0.33

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As shown in the table, when the X/A ratio is 1.0, the individuals will be female and if it is 0.50, it would be male. When this balance is distributed , the sex of individual deviate from normal male or normal female. For example, when the X/A ratio falls between 1.0 and 0.50, it would be intersex; when it is below 0.50, it would be **super male** and when above 1.0, it would be **metafemale** or **super female.**

3.1.5.Gynandromorphs:

Concepts of sex determination as developed for *Drosophila* are verified by the occasional occurrence of gynandromorphs which are individuals in which some part of the body expressed male characters, whereas other parts express female characters. In a way, gynandromorphs represent one kind of **mosaic** or an organism made up of tissues of male and female genotypes. For example, a **bilateral gynandromorph** of *Drosophila* is male on one side (right or left) and female on the other (Fig.3.7).It results due to the loss of an X chromosome in a particular cell during development, i.e, when the laggered X chromosome fails to be incorporated in a daughter nucleus and is lost forever If this event happens during first cleavage (or mitotic division) of the zygote, then one of the two blastomeres will have AAXXX chromosomal complement and the other will have AAXO. The portion of the body developing from AAXX blastomere will be normal female and the portion developing from the AAXO blastomere will be male. The cytological examination of gynandromorphs suggested that Y chromosome does not play any role in the determination of sex in *Drosophila.*

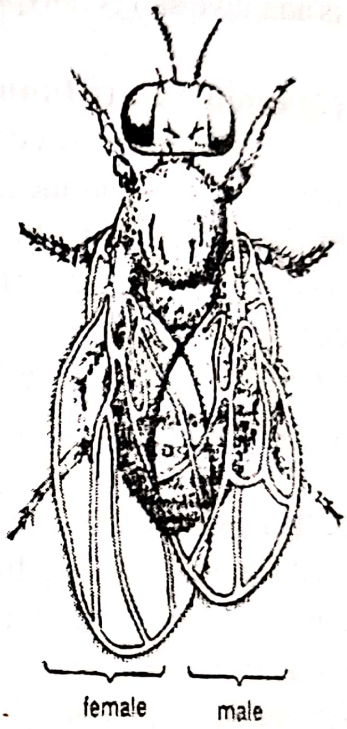

Fig.3.7. A bilateral gynandromorph *Drosophila*

3.1.6. Environmental Controlled Sex Determination:

In some organisms, the environment determines the sexual phenotype of the individuals. Such environmentally controlled sex determining mechanism has been reported in the variety of animal species which belong to different groups such as Rotifera, Annelida, Arthropoda, Echiuroidea, Mollusca, fishes, reptiles etc.

(1) Temperature induced sex determination in fishes:

Charnov and Bull (1977) have argued that environmental sex determination would be adaptive in certain habitats characterized by patchiness- a habitat having some regions where it is more advantageous to be female. **Conover** and **Heins** (1987) provide evidence to this hypothesis. In certain fishes, females, benefit from being larger, since size translates into higher fecundity. For example, a female, Atlantic silverside fish (*Menidia menidia*), it is advantageous to be born early in the breeding season, which allows it a long feeding season and they would allow it to grow larger. In the males, size is of no significance. **Conover and Heins** showed that in the

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southern range (i.e., Virginia to South Carolina) of *Menidia*, females are indeed born early in the breeding season. Temperature appears to play a major role in this pattern. However, northern reaches of its range (i.e., *Nova Scotia*, the species shows no environmental sex determination). Rather, a 1:1 ratio is generated at all temperatures. The researcher speculated that the more northern populations have a very short feeding season, so there is no advantage for a female to be born earlier. Thus, *Menidia* fish has environmental sex determination in those regions where it is adaptive and genotypic sex determination in those regions where it is not.

(2) Temperature Induced Sex Determination in Reptiles:

While the sex of most snakes and most lizards is determined by sex chromosomes at the time of fertilization, the sex of some lizards, most turtles and all species of crocodilians is determined by the environment after fertilization. In the lizard, *Agama agama* high incubation temperatures result in mostly male offspring. In these reptiles, the temperatures of the eggs during a certain period of development is the deciding factor in determining the sex, and small changes in temperature can cause dramatic changes in the sex ratio (Bull 1980). Often, eggs incubated at low temperature (22-27 f C) produce one sex, whereas eggs incubated at higher temperature (30 f C and above) produce the other. There is only a small range of temperatures that permits both male and females to hatch from the same brood of eggs. If eggs are incubated below 28 f C, all the turtles hatching from them will be male. Above 31 f C, every egg gives rise to a female. At temperatures in between, the broods will give rise to individuals of both sexes. Variation on this them also occur. The eggs of the snapping turtle *Macroclemys temminckii*, for instance, became female at either cool (22 f C or lower) or hot (28 f C or above) temperatures. Between these extremes, males predominate.

In laboratory studies, incubating eggs of European pond turtle, *Emys obicularis* at temperature above 30 f C produces all females while temperatures below 25 f C produce all male broods. The threshold temperature (at which the sex ratio is even) is 28.5 f C.

Likewise, after studying sex determination of the Mississippi alligator in the laboratory and in the field, **Ferguson** and **Joanen** (1982) concluded that sex is determined by the temperature of the egg during the second and third weeks of incubation. Eggs incubated at 30 f C or below during this time period produce female alligators, whereas those eggs incubated at 34 f C or above produce males. In fact, at 32 f C, 87 per cent of the hatchlings were female. Moreover, nests constructed on levees (steep natural bank of a stream having close to 34 f C) give rise to males, whereas nests built in wet marshes (close to 30 f C) produce females. **Ferguson** and **Joanen** (1982) have speculated that temperature-dependent sex-determination may have been responsible for the extinction of the dinosaurs.

(3) Location dependent sex determination in Bonellia:

An excellent example of environmental determination of sexual phenotype is afforded by *Bonellia viridis*, a marine echiuroid worm studied extensively by **F.Baltzer (1914)**. In this echiuroid worm, sex is depended on where the *Bonellia* larva settled. The female *Bonellia*

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worm is a marine, rock-dwelling animal, with a body about 10 cm long (Fig.3.8).She has a proboscis that can extend over a meter in length. The male *Bonellia*, however, is only 1-3mm long and resides within the uterus of female as a sperm- producing symbiont fertilizing her eggs. In male *Bonellia*, all organs of his body are degerated except those of the reproductive system. Baltzer showed if free swimming larva of *Bonellia* settles on the sea floor, it becomes a female. However, should a larva land on a female's proboscis (which apparently emits chemical signals that attracts larva), it enters the female's mouth, migrates in her uterus and differentiates into a male. Thus, if such an echiuroid larva lands on sea floor, it becomes female; if it settles on proboscis, it becomes male.

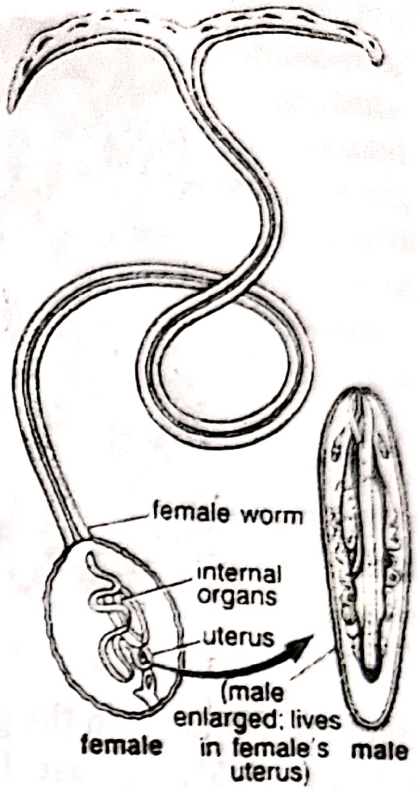

Fig. 3.8: The female and male of the echiuroid *Bonellia viridis*

(1) Location dependent sex determination in Crepidula:

Another example in which sex determination is affected by the location of the organism is the case of the slipper snail *Crepidula fornicate.* In this molluscan species, individuals pile up on top of the one another to form a mound (fig.3.9). Young individuals are always male (Fig.3.10).This phase is followed by the degeneration of the male reproductive system and a period of lability. The next phase can be either male or female, depending on the animal's position in the mound. If the snail is attached to a female, it will become male. If such a snail is removed from its attachements, it will becomes female. Similarly, the presence of large number of males will cause some of the males to become females. However, once an individual becomes female, it will not revert to being male.

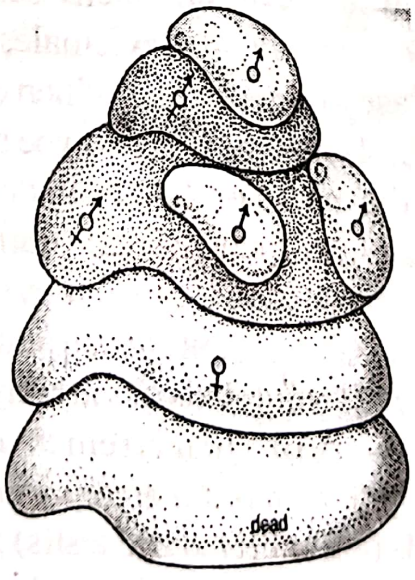

Fig.3.9. Cluster of crepidula snails. Two individuals are changing from male to female. After these molluscs become female, they will be fertilized by the male above them.

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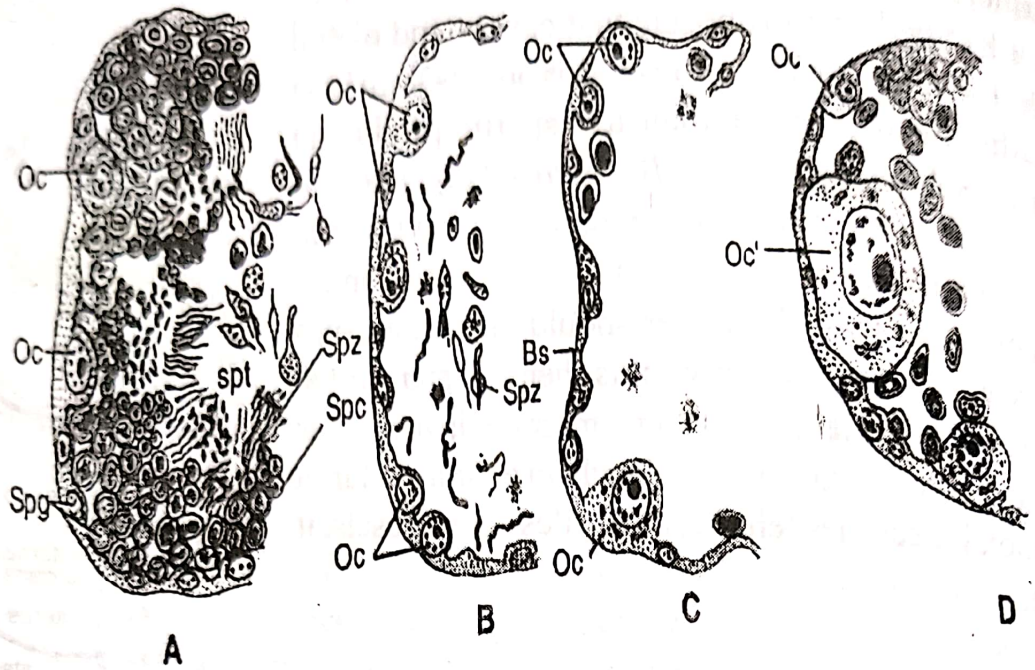

Fig.3.10. Changes in the gonad of the mollusk *Crepidula* experiencing consecutive sexuality, A-Male phase, B,C-Transitional phases; D-Female phase.OC'-immature oocyte; OC- Mature oocyte, Spg- Spermatogonia, Spt-Spermatids, Spz-Spermatozoa, Spc- Spermatocytes

3.1.7. Hormonal Controlled Sex Determination:

In many cases, it has been observed that sexual differentiation is controlled by hormones. Following classical example would make it clear that how hormones control the sex of an individual:

(1) The Crew's hen: In birds only one gonad of a normal female develops into a functional ovary. The other gonad remains rudimentary. If the functional ovary of a hen is destroyed, the rudimentary gonad develops into a testis (**Crew**, 1923). Thus, the female sex is reversed into male sex due to the phenomenon called **sex reversal.** Such a sex reversed hen can even father chicks which will be expected to show a sex ratio of two females to one male, since in birds the female is the heterogametic sex. The case of sex reversal of hen can be interpreted as follows:

During embryonic development, the XY (ZW) genotype stimulates the pituitary gland to produce female hormones that cause the gonad of the hen to develop into an ovary. After the development of ovary, the pituitary ceases to produce female hormones, due to inhibition of the pituitary by hormones produced by the ovary, thus, acting as developmental **feed-back system.** The high level of female hormones secreted sequentially by the pituitary and the ovary is sufficient to suppress the action of male hormone producing cells of the body such as the steroid producing cells of the adrenal glands. When the ovary of a hen is removed, the steroid cells of adrenal become active and provoked the development of rudimentary gonad into testis which itself is an endocrine gland. Both endocrine glands (e.g., adrenal and testis) produce large amount of male hormones which sufficiently suppress the action of the female hormone cells of pituitary. Such cases of sex reversal have also been observed in amphibians (e.g., in salamander by **E. Witschi**).

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3.2. Human Karyotype:

Diploid human cells contain 46 chromosomes-44 autosomes and two sex chromosomes, which are XX in females and XY in males. At mitotic metaphase, each of the 46 chromosomes consists of two identical sister chromatids. When stained appropriately, each of the duplicated chromosomes can be recognized by its size, shape and banding pattern. For cytological analysis, well-stained metaphase spreads are photographed, and then each of the chromosome images is cut out of the picture, matched with its partner to form homologous pairs, and arranged from largest to smallest on a chart **(Fig.3.11)**.The largest autosome is number 1, and the smallest is number 21. The X chromosome is intermediate in size, and the Y chromosome is about the same size as chromosome 22. This chart of chromosome cutouts is called a **Karyotype** (from the Greek word meaning "Kernel" a reference to the contents of the nucleus). A karyotype is a standardized arrangement of all the chromosomes of a cell. It describes the chromosomes of a cell in terms of number, form, size and arrangement within a nucleus. The karyotype of an animal is represented in a standard form. The total number of chromosomes is given on the left and the sex chromosomes on the right with a comma in between. Example karyotype of man = 46, XY. A Skilled researcher can use a karyotype to identify abnormalities in chromosome number and structure. Before the banding and painting techniques were available, it was difficult to distinguish one human chromosome from another. Labelling a chromosome with a dye (stain) is called chromosome banding. Cytogeneticists could only arrange the chromosomes into groups according to size, classifying the largest as group A, the next largest as Group B and so forth. Although they

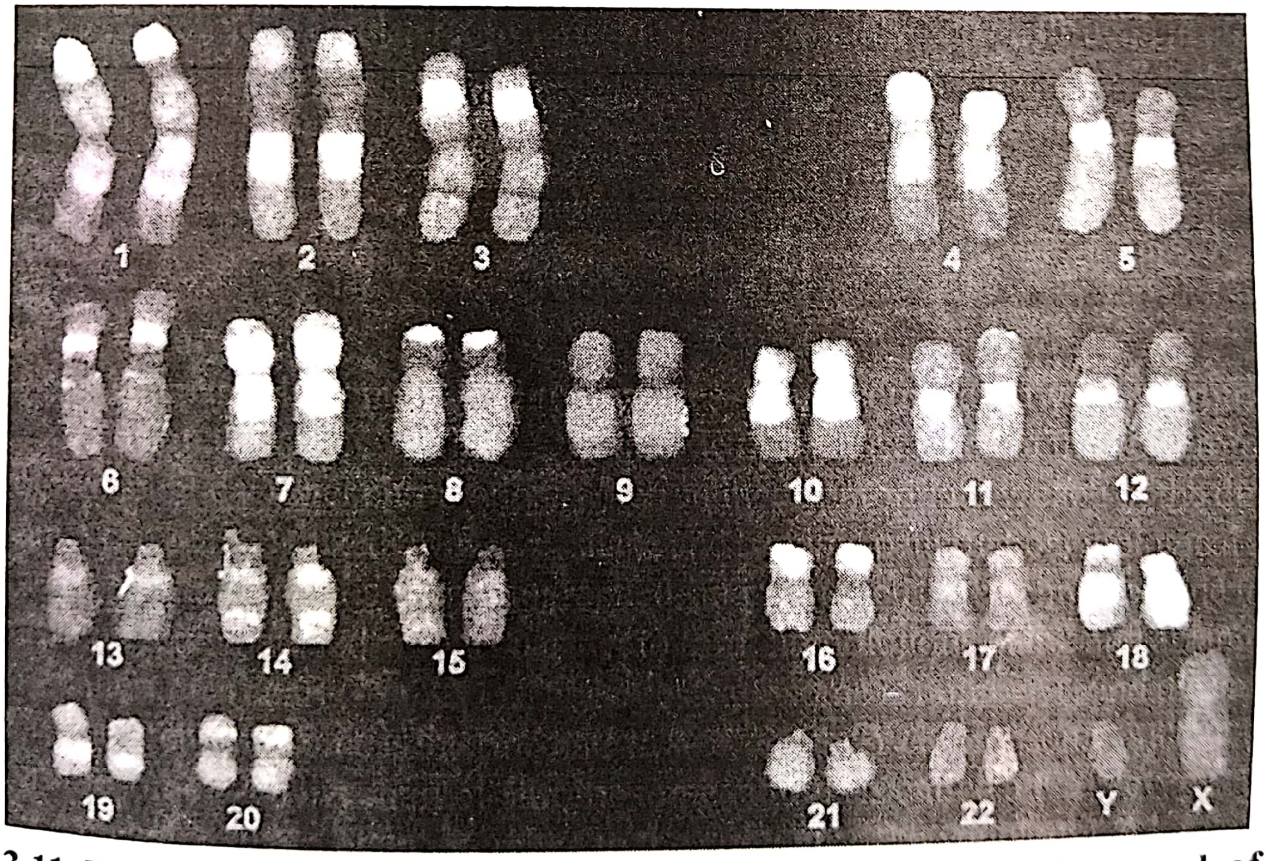

Fig. 3.11. The karyotype of a human male stained to reveal bands on each of the chromosomes. The autosomes are numbered from 1 to 22. The X and Y are the sex chromosomes.

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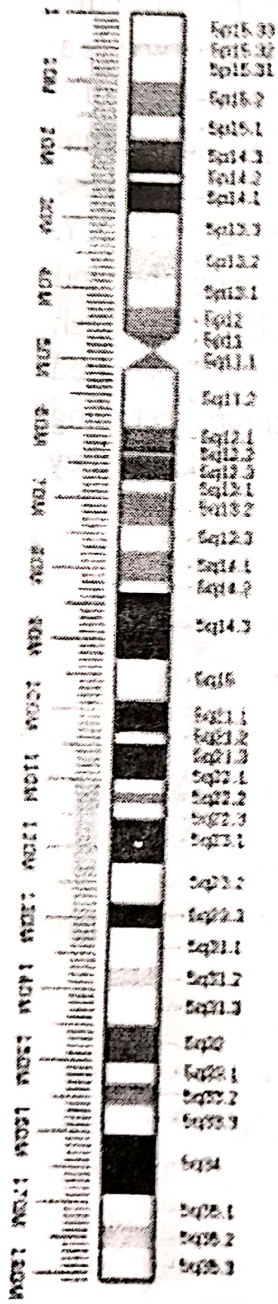
could recognize seven different groups, within these groups it was nearly impossible to identify a particular chromosome. Today- as a result of the banding and painting techniques we can routinely identify each of the chromosomes. The banding and painting techniques also make it possible to distinguish each arm of a chromosome and to investigate specific regions within them. The centromere divides each chromosome into long and short arms. The short arm is denoted by the letter p (from the French word petite, meaning "small") and the long arm by the letter q (because it follows "p" in the alphabet). Depending upon the position of centromere and relative length of two arms, human chromosomes are of three types: **Metacentric** –if the centromere divides it into two arms of approximately equal length, **Submetacentric-** if the centromere establishes one long arm and one short arm, and **Acrocentric** – if it pinches off only a small amount of material towards one end. Five human chromosomes (13, 14, 15, 21, and 22) have bloblike ends, called satellites, that extend from a thinner stalk like bridge from the rest of the chromosomes.(This use of the word satellite differs from the usage of the term in centromeric repeats.)The stalk regions do not bind stains well. The stalks carry many copies of genes encoding ribosomal RNA and Ribosomal proteins.Thus, for example, a cytogeneticists can refer specifically to the short arm of chromosome 5 simply by writing "5p". Within each arm, specific regions are denoted by numbers, starting at the centromere **(Fig.3.12)**.Thus, in the short arm of chromosome 5, we have region 5p11, which is closest to the centromere, followed by regions 5p12, 5p13, 5p14, and 5p15, which is farthest from the centromere. Within each region, individual bands are denoted by numbers following a decimal point: for example, 13.1, 13.2 and 13.3 refer to the three bands that make up region 5p13. The pattern of bands within the chromosome is called an ideogram.



Karyotypes are useful at several levels. When a baby is born with the distinctive facial features of Down syndrome, a karyotype confirms the clinical diagnosis. Within families, karyotypes are used to identify relatives with a particular chromosomal aberration that can affect health. Karyotypes compared among species can clarify evolutionary relationships. The more recent the divergence of two species from a common ancestor, the more closely related we presume they are, and the more alike their chromosome banding pattern should be. Our closest relative, according to karyotypes, is the pygmy chimpanzee (bonobo). The human karyotype is also remarkably similar to that of the domestic cat, and somewhat less similar to those of mice, pigs, and cows. Among mammals, it is least like the karyotype of the aardvark, indicating that this is a primitive placental mammal.

Fig.3.12. The ideogram of human chromosome 5.Regions within each arm are numbered consecutively starting at the centromere. Bands within each region are denoted by numbers following a decimal point.

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3.2.1.Karyotyping:

Blood leucocytes are separated from the blood and are stimulated to divide by mitosis in vitro by adding phytohaemagglutinin. Colchicine is added to arrest cell division at metaphase stage. These cells are treated with hypotonic saline solution. This makes the cells to swell up, provides clarity to the chromosomes and helps in counting. The chromosomes are stained with Giemsa technique to demonstrate banding pattern. A suitable spread of metaphase chromosomes is photographed. The individual chromosomes are cut out from the photograph and are arranged in an orderly fashion in homologous pairs. This arrangement is called karyotype.

3.2.2.Staining with Fluorescent Dyes:

For identifying various regions of individual chromosomes new banding techniques are being practiced since 1969. These include staining the chromosomes with fluorescent dyes after certain treatments. The staining gives different patterns of bands and interbands (stained and unstained regions) along the length of chromosomes. The banding pattern of a particular chromosome remains constant for a particular treatment. At present four such banding patterns are known which are represented as Q, G, C and R banding patterns.

1. Q Banding: The Q band are fluorescent bands on human chromosomes. These are seen when human chromosome are stained with fluorescent dye- **quinacrine mustard** (QM) and observed with UV light. This technique was developed by **Casperson et al. (1968-70).** By this staining, the chromosomes present fluorescent bands separated by dark bands. The fluorescent bands are called **Q bands** and the intercalary nonfluorescent dark bands are called **R band** or **reverse bands.** Y-chromosome appear brightly fluorescent but the distal end of chromatid remains unstained and dark.

2. G Banding Or **Giemsa Banding:** The G bands appear when human chromosomes are stained with Giemsa stain. Giemsa staining does not require fluorescent microscopy but needs pretreatment of chromosomes before staining. Chromosomes can be pretreated in a variety of ways. In acid-saline-Giemsa (ASG) technique, cells are incubated in citric acid and NaCl for one hour at 60 f C and then treated with Giemsa stain. In **Giemsa-II** technique cells are stained in alkaline P^H. This is used to distinguish human and mouse chromosomes in mouse-man somatic hybrid cell. **Seabright (1971)** introduced a new Giemsa technique in which cells are treated with protein digesting enzyme-trypsin.

The ASG bands or Giemsa bands corresponds to fluorescent Q bands but these are observed under light microscope.

3. C Banding: C bands are regions of heterochromatin near the centromere in the chromosomes when stained with Giemsa in highly alkaline medium. Giemsa stains the constitutive heterochromatin (C-represents constitutive heterochromatin). These bands are also called **Giemsa C bands**. The human chromatids stain blue and the centromeres appears magenta.

4. R Banding: The R bands are reverse of the Q and G bands. These lie between the fluorescent Q bands. With acridine orange staining, R bands appear as green, brightly fluorescent bands between Q or G bands.

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Nondisjunction and Disorder:

3.3. Nondisjunction:

As we know that, variations in chromosome number are fairly widespread and usually have a significant impact on the phenotypes of animals and plants. For these reasons, researchers have wanted to understand the cellular mechanisms that cause variations in chromosome number. In some cases, a change in chromosome number is the result of **nondisjunction.** The term nondisjunction refers to an event in which the chromosomes do not segregate properly. Nondisjunction is the phenomenon in which homologous chromosome or sister chromatids fail to separate during cell division. Nondisjunction results in formation of one daughter cell possessing an extra chromosome while the other having one chromosome less than the normal complement. As we will see, it may be caused by an improper separation of homologous pairs in a bivalent in meiosis or a failure of the centromeres to disconnect during mitosis. **Meiotic nondisjunction** can produce haploid cells that have too many or too few chromosomes. If such a cell gives rise to a gamete that fuses with a normal gamete during fertilization, the resulting offspring will have an abnormal chromosome number in all of its cells. An abnormal nondisjunction event also may occur after fertilization in one of the somatic cells of the body. This second mechanism is known as **Mitotic nondisjunction**. When this occurs during embryonic stages of development, it may lead to a patch of tissue in the organism that has an altered chromosome number. A third common way in which the chromosome number of an organism can vary is by interspecies crosses. An **alloploid** organism contains sets of chromosomes from two or more different species. This term refers to the occurrence of chromosome sets (Ploidy) from the genomes of different (allo) species.

Meiotic Nondisjunction can produce Aneuploidy or polypoidy:

Nondisjunction during meiosis can occur during anaphase of **meiosis I** or **Meiosis II**. If it happens during meiosis I, an entire bivalent migrate to one pole (Fig.- 3.13.8.22a). Following the completion of meiosis, the four resulting haploid cells produced from this event are abnormal. If the nondisjunction occurs during anaphase of meiosis II (Fig.3.14. 8.22b), the net result is two abnormal and two normal haploid cells. If a gamete that is missing a chromosome is viable and participates in fertilization, the resulting offsprings is **monosomic** for the missing chromosomes. Alternatively, if a gamete carrying an extra chromosome unites with a normal gamete, the offspring will be **trisomic.**

In rare cases, all of the chromosomes can undergo nondisjunction and migrate to one of the daughter cells. The net result of **complete nondisjunction** is a diploid cell and a cell without any chromosomes. While the cell without chromosomes is nonviable, the diploid cell might participate in fertilization with a normal haploid gamete to produce a triploid individual. Therefore, complete nondisjunction can produce individuals that are polyploid.

Mitotic Nondisjunction or Chromosome loss can produce a patch of tissue with an altered Chromosome Number:

Abnormalities in chromosome number occasionally occur after fertilization takes place. In this case, the abnormal event happens during mitosis rather than meiosis. One possibility is that

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the sister chromatids separate improperly, so one daughter cell has three copies of that chromosome while the other daughter cell has only one (Fig.3.15. 8.23a). Alternatively, the sister chromatids could separate during anaphase of mitosis, but one of the chromosomes could be improperly attached to the spindle, so that it would not migrate to a pole (Fig. 3.16. 8.23b). A chromosome will be degraded if it is left outside the nucleus when the nuclear membrane reforms. In this case, one of the daughter cells would have two copies of that chromosome, while the other would have only one.

When genetic abnormalities occur after fertilization, the organism will contain a subset of cells that are genetically different from those of the rest of the organism. This condition is referred to as **Mosaicism.** The size and location of the mosaic region depend on the timing and location of the original abnormal event. If a genetic alteration happens very early in the embryonic development of an organism, the abnormal cell will be the precursor for a large section of the organism. In the most extreme case, an abnormality could take place at the first mitotic division.

Following are the important disorder occurring due to nondisjunction: **Turner's Syndrome, Klinefelter's Syndrome, Down's Syndrome and Edwards's Syndrome.** As increase or reduction in the number of sex chromosome in the normal complement of XX (Female) and XY (male) results in syndrome of abnormalities in a human population. Nondisjunction of X-chromosomes in the oogenesis process in females will result in two types of eggs **(22+0)** and **(22+XX)**. A normal sperm **(22+Y)** fertilizing an egg of **(22+XX)** constitution results in an individual **(44+ XXY)** with **Klinefelter's Syndrome**. Fertilization of **(22+0)** egg by a normal sperm **(22+X)** will produce a zygote **(44+ X0)** which develops into a female with **Turner's syndrome**.

Nondisjunction of XY pair at spermatogenesis produces two types of sperm **(22+XY)** and **(22+0).** When these sperm fertilize normal eggs, individuals with Klinefelter's and Turner's syndrome are produced. If nondisjunction takes place in one of the dividing cell of a developing embryo and the resulting abnormal cell and also the normal cell reproduce true, a mosaic individual composed of a patchwork of different cell lines is produced. 46,XX/47,XXY individuals also arise as a consequence of non-disjunction or loss of a chromosome in a cell of an embryo with 47, XXY complement.

3.3.1.)Turner's Syndrome OR X0 human OR 45X:

Turner's syndrome was first described by **H.H.Turner** in 1938.This monosomic has a chromosome complement of 44 autosomes and one X chromosome and phenotypically female with 45, (44+ X0) but their interphase nucleus is without a Barr body. It occurs in about 1 per 2500 live female births. More than 90 percent abort spontaneously. A rough estimate for 45,X adults in the general population is 1 in 5000. **Ovarian dysgenesis** is the constant characteristic associated with Turner's syndrome. Such females are sterile and have limited secondary sexual characteristic, short stature, low set ears, webbed neck, a high arched palate, a receding chin, broad shield-shaped chest with widely spaced nipples, low intelligence, under developed breasts, no ovaries or poorly developed ovaries, absence of menstrual period,sparse pubic hairs and no axillary hair. Mental retardation is not usually associated with this syndrome. In such women,

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instead of normal ovaries only ridges of whitish tissue are present which are known as "**streak gonads**". Epithelial cells of 45, X patients are X chromatin negative.

Diagnosis: Turner syndrome may be diagnosed by amniocentesis during pregnancy. Sometimes, foetus with Turner syndrome are identified by abnormal ultrasound findings (i.e. heart defect, Kidney abnormality). Karyotype analysis can be used to diagnose Turner syndrome.

Treatment: As a chromosomal condition, there is no cure for Turner syndrome. However, symptoms can be minimized. For example: Growth hormone may be used to increase growth. Estrogen replacement therapy can promote development of secondary sexual characteristics. Estrogen are important for maintaining good bone integrity and tissue health.

3.3.2. Klinefelter's Syndrome (47, XXY):

An extra X chromosome in addition to the usual male (XY) chromosome complement (47, XXY) has been associated with the abnormal male syndrome first described (in 1942) by **H.F.Klinefelter** and known as Klinefelter syndrome. **Barr** (1956) showed that the patients with this syndrome are chromatin positive and **Jacob and Strong** (1959) demonstrated that these people have 47, XXY chromosome number in their somatic cells, i.e. they possess two X-chromosomes and a Y-chromosome. It is estimated to occur in 1 per 500 live male births. Individuals with this syndrome are phenotypically males but with some tendency toward femaleness, particularly in secondary sex characteristics. Such features as enlarged breasts (gynecomastia), underdeveloped (or sparse) body hair, small testes and small prostate glands are a part of the syndrome. Tall stature, longer arms, infertility, problem in speech development (i.e. higher pitched voice) and abnormal behavior are also associated with this syndrome. A child with Klinefelter's syndrome may learn to speak later than other children and have difficulty learning to read and write. In most cases, a boy with Klinefelter's syndrome has a normal physical appearance until he reaches puberty. Presumably, the XXY constitution originates either by fertilization of an exceptional XX egg by a Y sperm or of an X egg by an exceptional XY sperm. The most common karyotype (about three-quarters of the cases) for Klinefelter syndrome is 47, XXY, but the symptoms of the syndrome will usually occur whenever more than one X chromosome is present along with a Y chromosome. More complex karyotypes associated with the Klinefelter syndrome include XXYY, XXXY, XXXYY, XXXXY, XXXXYY, and XXXXXY. All patients with Klinefelter syndrome have one or more X chromatin bodies in their cells. Mental retardation is usually found when there are more than two X chromosomes. The XY/XXY mosaicism in patients with Klinefelter syndrome is associated with less severe physical and reproductive anomalies.

Diagnosis: Diagnosis of the disorder may be delayed until physical symptoms develop, or until the adult male is tested for infertility. A karyotype is used to confirm the diagnosis. Diagnosis can also be made prenatally (before birth) by chorionic villus sampling or amniocentesis.

Treatment: There is no treatment for Klinefelter's syndrome. Regular injections of the male sex hormone testosterone may increase muscle size and strength, stimulate the growth of

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facial and body hair, and produce a normal sex drive. Enlarged breasts may be reduced surgically. It is possible to treat infertility associated with Klinefelter's syndrome. Some men with the disorder may produce a small number of sperm. Modern fertility techniques in which a single sperm is injected into an egg to achieve fertilization can be of great help.

3.3.3. Down's Syndrome OR Trisomy -21 OR Mongolism OR Mongolian idiocy):

Down's syndrome is named after the physician **J.Langdon Down** who first described this genetic defect in 1866 and it was formally called **Mongolism** or **Mongolian idiocy.** It is usually associated with a trisomic condition for one of the smallest human autosomes (i.e.,chromosome 21). It is referred to as trisomy 21 or 47, XX or XY, +21. Down syndrome was the first human syndrome attributed to a chromosomal disorder. **Jerome Lejeune** published this finding in 1959. Down syndrome is the most common chromosomal abnormality in live births (1/650 births). There are about 50 physical characteristics shown by Down syndrome infants soon after birth. These include mild or moderate mental retardation; eyes that slant up and out with internal epicanthal folds; a tongue that is large, swollen and protruding; small and under developed ears; a single palmar crease; short stature; stubby fingers, an enlarged liver and spleen. Down syndrome children have congenital heart defects and a very (1/1000) risk of acute leukemia. They have a broad skull, mild to severe learning disabilities and hyperflexibility of joints. Women over 45 years of age are about twenty times more likely to give birth to a child with Down syndrome than woman aged 20. Nondisjunction of chromosome pair 21 during oogenesis is the main cause of occurrence of trisomy-21. This event is found to be affected either by senescence of oocytes, virus infection, radiation damage, etc. (eg. Mothers who have had infectious hepatitis prior to pregnancy may have three times more chances to give birth to down syndrome infants). Non disjunction of chromosome pair 21 during spermatogenesis can also produce child with Down syndrome, but parental age does not seen to be associated with its incidence.

Lastly, in about 2 to 5 percent cases, the normal chromosome number is present (2n=46), but the extra chromosome 21 is attached (translocated) to one of the larger autosomes (usually chromosome 14).

Diagnosis and Cure: There is no cure for Down syndrome. Prenatal tests like amniocentesis can be used for detection.

3.3.4.Edwards Syndrome (Trisomy-18) OR 47, XX OR XY,+18 :

This syndrome was first described by **Edward et al.** (1960) and is associated with the trisomy of chromosome number (18-E-group). Trisomy-18, is found to contain an incidence of about 0.3 per 1000 births. It is characterized by multiple malformations, primarily low-set ears; small receding lower jaw; flexed and clenched fingers; cardiac malformations; and various deformities of skull, face and feet, short sternum and horse-shoe kidneys may also occur. Harelip and cleft palate often occurs. Unusual or absent fingerprints, a displaced liver, short large toes with fused second and third toes, and "rocker-bottom" feet are other characteristic features. Death takes place around 3 to 4 months of age. Trisomy-18 children show evidence of severe

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mental retardation, which is more pronounced in females (the reason is still not clear). Like the Down's syndrome, occurrence of Edward's syndrome is too related with maternal age (i.e. 35 to 45 years old mothers have more chance of giving birth of trisomy-18 infants). Edwards syndrome can be diagnosed prenatally using ultrasound from multiple abnormalities.

3.4. Autosomal Recessive Disorder: Cystic fibrosis, Albinism, Phenylketonuria, Alkaptonuria

OR

Inborn Errors of Metabolism

OR

Biochemical Genetics

OR

Gene-Enzyme Relationship

We have already learnt that genes control the appearance of a phenotypic trait of an organism (Phenogenesis). We will learn now how genes act and the relationship between genes and the specific biochemical reactions which lead to specific phenotypes. All biochemical reactions are catalyzed by enzymes which are polypeptide chains or the proteins. The gene controls the sequence of amino acids in a protein. A phenotype is achieved by a number of biochemical reactions that takes place in the cell between the gene and the production of a phenotype. These biochemical processes are under genetic control and each process is resolvable into a series of stepwise reactions, each step being controlled by a single gene. Alteration or mutation of a single gene results in a changed reactions.

A dominant gene or a wild type of gene is capable of synthesizing the required enzyme and express itself; where as the recessive gene is unable to produce the functional enzyme and hence is unable to express itself. A direct relationship between genes and enzymes was postulated as early as 1909 from a study of the metabolism of phenylalanine in man by **Garrod.** In 1941 **Beadle and Tatum's** study of biochemical mutants of *Neurospora* and *E.coli*. established the fact of the "One gene one enzyme hypothesis" and received **Nobel Prize** in 1958. In 1936, **Beadle and Ephrussi** studied the biochemical effects of genes using two recessive eye color mutations in *Drosophila.*

Biochemical Genetics:

Biochemical genetics combines genetics and biochemistry to elucidate the nature of metabolic pathways and their control. These have been widely studied in haploid organisms whose growth requirements are known and in man where any error in the metabolic pathways is expressed in the form of a disease.

Garrod's Discovery:

In 1909, an English physician, **Archibald E.Garrod** published a book called "Inborn Errors of Metabolism". In this book, he described various inherited physiological abnormalities

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of man. These abnormalities he declared appear because of the absence of certain enzymes which are present in normal persons. He Proposed that the genes produce enzymes whereas the mutant forms of these genes do not produce them, hence resulting in physiological abnormalities. He studied the metabolism of the amino acid phenylalanine and showed that the metabolism proceeds in chains of enzyme mediated reactions and a change or absence of an enzyme results in an abnormality. These abnormalities are inherited, hence the presence or absence of enzymes is under genetic control. Five metabolic disorders or diseases have been noticed in man associated with the defective metabolism of phenylalanine, an essential amino acid of dietary proteins. The steps of normal metabolism of phenylalanine are shown in Fig.3.17 . Each step is controlled by a specific enzyme. The diseases are caused by mutated genes that block particular steps in biochemical reactions.

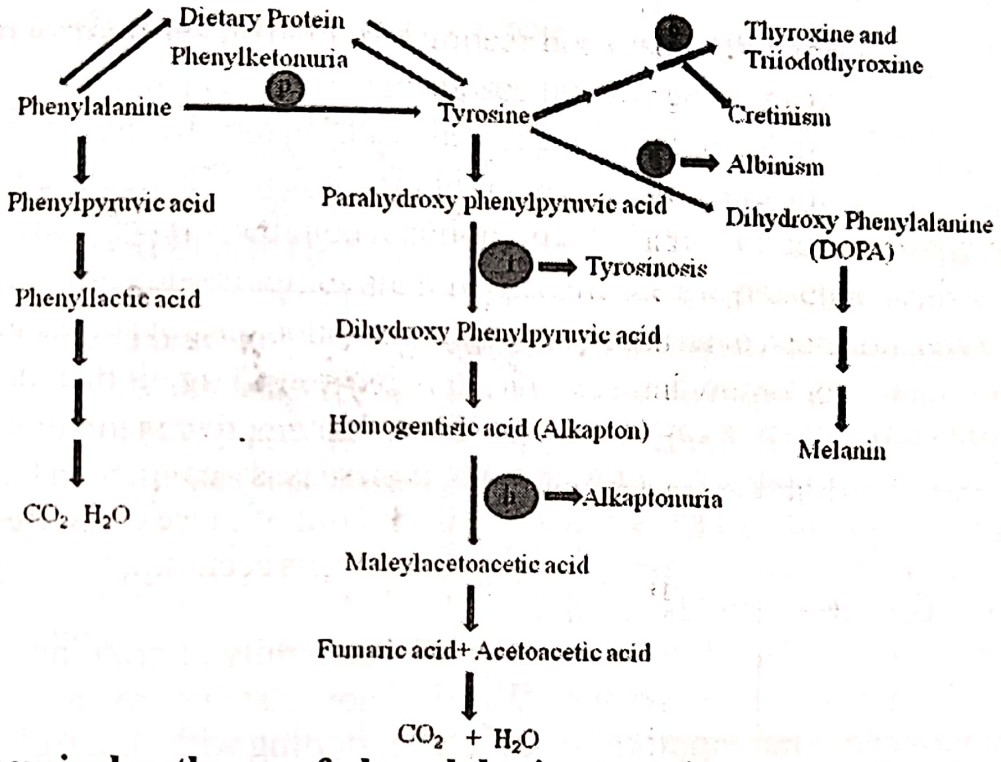

Fig. 3.17 Biochemical pathway of phenylalanine tyrosine metabolism in normal man

Normal Person:

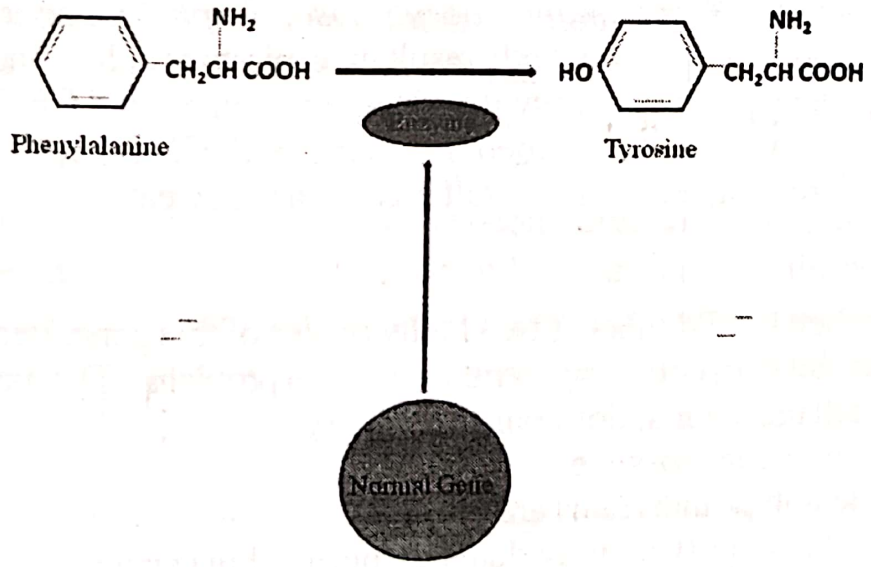

Fig: 3.18 Metabolism of phenylalanine into Tyrosine

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3.4.1. Cystic Fibrosis (CF):

Cystic Fibrosis is one of the most common inherited diseases in humans, affecting 1 in 2000 newborns of Northern European heritage. Cystic fibrosis is inherited as an autosomal recessive mutation and the frequency of heterozygotes is estimated to be about 1 in 25 in Caucasian populations. In the United States alone, over 30,000 people suffer from this devastating disease. One early dignosed symptom of cystic fibrosis is excessively salty sweat, a largely benign effect of the mutant gene. The lungs, pancreas and liver become clogged with mucus, which results in chronic infections and the eventual malfunction of these vital organs. In addition mucus often builds up in the digestive tract, causing individuals to be malnourished no matter how much they eat. Lung infections are recurrent, and patients often die from pneumonia or other infections of the respiratory system. Cystic fibrosis is a lethal disease. In 1940, the average life expectancy for a newborn with CF was less than 2 years with improved methods of treatment, life expectancy has gradually increased. Today the life expectancy for someone with CF is about 32 years but the quality of life is poor.

The defective gene product in patients with CF was identified not by biochemical analysis as was the case for PKU (Phenylketonuria) and many other diseases, but by a combination of genetic and modern molecular biology techniques. Identification of the CF gene is one of the major successes of positional cloning. Biochemical analysis of cells from CF patients had failed to identify any specific metabolic defect or mutant gene product. Then, in 1989, Francis Collins and Lap-Chee Tsui and their co-workers identified the CF gene and characterized some of the mutations that cause this tragic disease. The CF gene product, called the **cystic fibrosis transmembrane conductance regulator** or **CFTR** Protein, forms ion channels through the membranes of cells that line the respiratory tract, pancreas, sweat glands, intestine and other organs and regulates the flow of salts and water in and out of these cells. Because the mutant CFTR protein does not function properly in CF patients, salts accumulates in epithelial cells and mucus build up on the surfaces of these cells.

CFTR protein was found to be related to a large family of proteins involved in active transport of materials across cell membranes. We now know that this protein is a chloride channel in certain cell membrane. The symptoms of CF ensue, starting with abnormal mucus secretion and accumulation. The presence of mucus on the lining of the respiratory tract leads to chronic progressive infections by *Pseudomonas aeruginosa, Staphylococcus aureus* and related bacteria. These infections, in turn frequently result in respiratory failure and death. CF is caused by a defect in the gene responsible for synthesis of a protein called CFTR. In healthy people most of the chloride in sweat is reabsorbed. In people with CF, Sweat glands cannot take up chloride ions. Therefore a large amount of salt escape in the sweat.

Genetics:

CF caused when a child inherits two faulty copies of this gene. People carrying a single cystic fibrosis gene do not experience any significant health problems. The recessive alleles causing CF is denoted by c and the normal dominant allele by C.
Three allelic combinations are possible.

i) CC genotype individual are normal
ii) Heterozygous (Cc) individuals are normal but carriers
iii) Homozygous recessive (cc) individuals suffer from CF.

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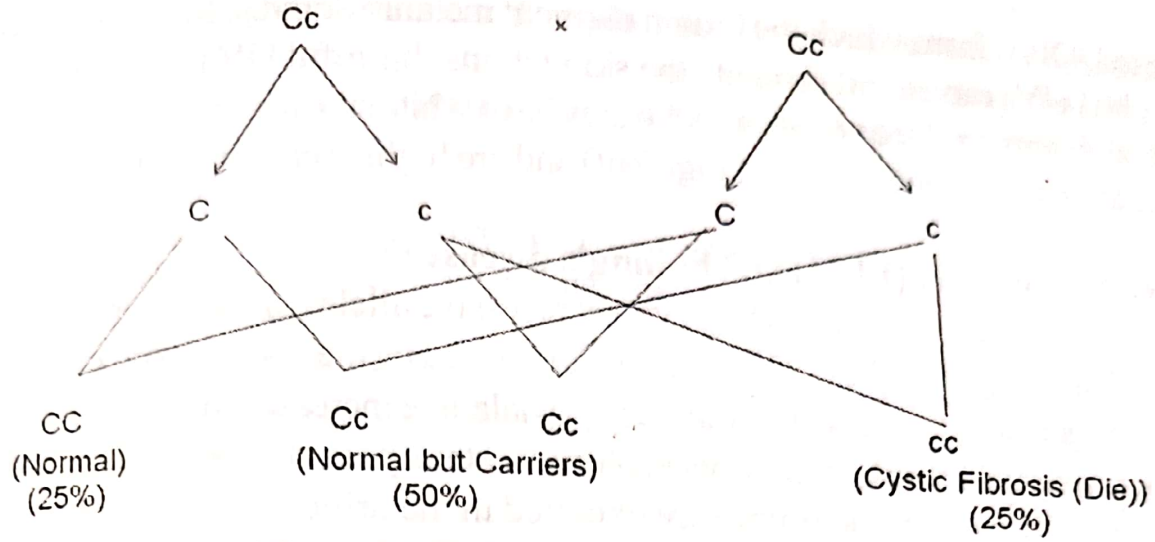

Fig: 3.19. Inheritance of Cystic Fibrosis

3.4.1. Albinism:

Tyrosine is another amino acid which is a part of the protein food that we eat. It is also produced in the body cells by conversion of phenylalanine with the help of a dominant gene P. Tyrosine normally converted into 3,4-dihydroxy-phenyl-alanine which in turn forms melanin in a series of steps, a pigment present in varying quantities in the skin, hair and iris of the eyes of the great majority of people. The conversion of tyrosine into dihydroxy-phenylalanine needs an enzyme which is produced by a dominant gene A present in normal person. The recessive form a of this gene in homozygous state blocks the production of the enzyme and the conversion does not take place. Non-availability of dihydroxy-phenylalanine results in non production of melanin. This condition is known as albinism. The pigment is not produced and the persons suffering from this deficiency are called albinos.

The persons with recessive aa genes do not produce the tyrosinase enzyme which is needed by melanocytes for converting DOPA (3-4, dihydroxy-phenylalanine) into melanin (a dark brown pigment). As a result in an albino patient melanocytes are present in normal number in their skin, hair, iris of eyes etc. but lack in melanin pigment. This trait is inherited like a typical mendelian monohybrid cross. Albinos have very fair skin, almost white or pale straw coloured. Hair and eyes appear red because the colour of blood is not concealed by the pigment in iris. Albinos are highly sensitive to bright light and are sunburned easily.

Different variations of albinism are also encountered that result due to other genes.A dominant gene has been discovered that causes irregular distribution of the melanin resulting in freckles (small irregular dark spots of melanin). Another dominant gene causes large irregular patches of unpigmented areas on body. This phenomenon is called piebaldism. A different gene results in a lack of pigment only in one streak of hair at the front of the head, causing a trait referred to as blaze.

The classic form of albinism is caused by an autosomal recessive mutations about 1 in 33,000 Caucasians and 1 in 28,000 African American in the United states have albinism. A gene for tyrosinase is mutated in individuals with albinism. Tyrosinase is an enzyme used in the conversion

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of tyrosine to DOPA, from which the brown pigment melanin derives. Melanin absorbs light in the ultraviolet (UV) range and protects the skin against harmful UV radiation from the sun. People with albinism produce no melanin. So they have white skin and white hairs as well as eyes whose irises appear red (due to lack of pigment) and are highly sensitive to light.

3.4.2. Phenylketonuria (PKU) OR Folling's disease :

Persons having autosomal homozygous recessive alleles pp fail to produce an enzyme called phenylalanine hydroxylase. This enzyme is required by the body to convert phenylalanine into tyrosine. As a result, the concentration of phenylalanine increases in blood. This amino acid is then partly converted into phenylpyruvate, phenylacetate, phenyllactate and other derivatives, all of which (including phenylalanine) are excreted in the urine. Where it can be detected by simple chemical tests. The patients of PKU have light body pigmentation and are physically and mentally retarded. They are called phenylpyruvate idiots (Burns and Bottino, 1989). The idiocy of PKU is thought to be due to damage of the brain tissue by the phenylpyruvate in the cerebrospinal fluid. Here, the abnormal gene is suppressed in heterozygous individual, it is called recessive inheritance. Person with this characteristics are said to have Phenylketonuria, frequently abbreviated to PKU. Whereas normal persons will have a plasma phenylalanine level of 1 to 2 mg per 100ml, a person with PKU will have 15 to 63 mg per 100ml. The urine of a normal person may have as much as 30 mg per 100ml, whereas a person with PKU will have 300 to 1000mg per 100ml. PKU can be diagnosed through Guthrie test.

Person with PKU die by the age of 30 years. However, if PKU is detected during infancy subsequent mental retardation can be avoided by placing the child on a carefully controlled diet. (low in phenylalanine). Phenylalanine is an essential amino acid in humans, it cannot be synthesized de novo as it is in most microorganisms and plants. Phenylalanine must be provided by the food we eat. Phenylalanine cannot simply be removed from the diets of individuals with PKU. Nevertheless, by providing infants who have PKU with a carefully formulated diet with enough phenylalanine for normal growth and development but not enough to cause a buildup of toxic derivatives, the severe consequences of the disease, specifically mental retardation can be avoided. It is not curable disease but can be controlled by phenylalanine free diet.

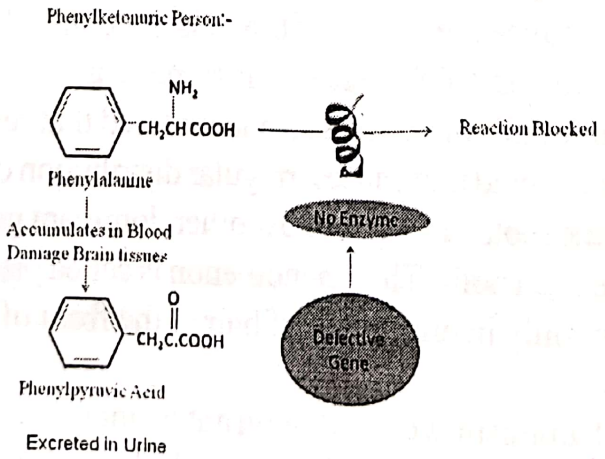

Fig:3.20 Diagram showing disorder in the metabolism of phenylalanine in a henylketonuric person.

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The high level of phenylalanine in the body tissues interferes with the normal development of the brain. This damage can be controlled to certain levels by feeding the baby with a low phenylalanine diet for the first five years when the parts of the brain are formed.

3.4.1. Alkaptonuria:

Under normal Circumstances, dihydroxyphenylpyruvic acid is converted into homogentisic acid (called alkapton) which in turn is converted into maleylacetoacetic acid under the influence of a dominant gene H. In person with autosomal homozygous recessive genes hh fail to produce the enzyme homogentisic acid oxidase which catalyzes the oxidation of alkapton (2-5-dihydrophenylacetic acid or homogentisic acid). Therefore, in them, normal oxidation of alkapton into acetoacetic acid and ultimately into water and carbon dioxide does not takes place and large amount of alkapton is accumulated in the blood and is excreted in the urine, This affliction is called alkaptonuria. Alkaptonuria can be easily diagnosed because homogentisic acid if excreted in the urine, is oxidized upon exposure to air and turns black.Alkaptonuria does not have any ill effects in early life but in old age it leads to degenerative arthritis due to crystallization of some of the homogentisic acid in the body cartilages with advancing age. In such alkaptonuric person, the disease is manifested by the darkening of cartilaginous region (such as ear pinna). There is also likely to be a progressive darkening of the cartilages of the body, most noticeable in the ears and the nose since at these points the cartilage is covered only by the outer skin. In a few cases it spreads to the fibrous tissue of the skin and the sclera (white) of the eye, where it produces disfiguring discolorations.

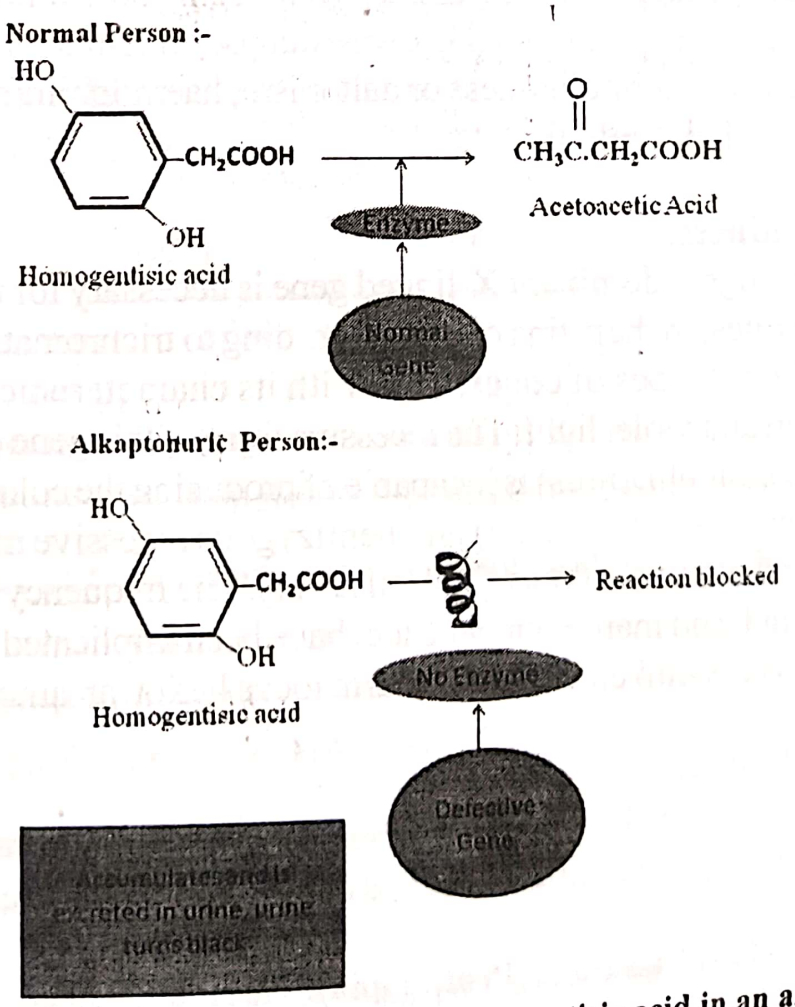

Fig.:3.21 Figure showing disorder in the metabolism of homogentisic acid in an alkaptonuric person

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3.4. Sex linked genetic disorders and their inheritance in man:

Sex chromosomes (XX-XY chromosomes) are primarily concerned with the determination of sex but these do carry some genes for other body characters, which are not at all concerned with the sex. Such body characters whose genes are located on the sex- chromosomes and follow sex during inheritance are known as sex–linked characters. The genes governing the sex-linked characters are called sex-linked genes and their mode of inheritance is described as sex-linked inheritance.

The genes located on the X-chromosome are called sex linked genes or X-linked genes and genes present on Y-chromosome are described as holandric genes because they are present only in males. Certain characters are not sex-linked but are limited to one sex. These are described as sex-limited characters and sex influenced characters.

Discovery of sex-linkage although inheritance of certain characters and their association with sex was well known for many years. One of the earliest known instance of linkage of a character to sex is bleeding disease-haemophilia which appeared only in males in the royal family of Spain. But in the beginning it was regarded a hereditary defect. The actual explanation was offered by **Thomas H. Morgan** in 1910 while working on *Drosophila melanogaster*. He named this phenomenon as sex-linkage.

3.5.1.Inheritance of X-Linked Recessive Genes in Man:

In human beings more than 150 confirmed or highly probable X-linked traits are known; most of these are recessives. Certain well known examples of X-linked recessive genes in humans are those for red –green colour blindness or daltonism, haemophilia and Duchenne's muscular dystrophy.

3.5.1.1.Colour blindness:

In human beings, a dominant X-linked gene is necessary for the formation of the color sensitive cells, the cones, in the retina of eye. According to trichromatic theory of colour vision, there are three different types of cones, each with its characteristic pigment that react most strongly to red, green and violet light. The recessive form of this gene (i.e. presence of recessive X-linked allele for colour blindness) is incapable of producing the colour sensitive cones and the homozygous recessive females ($X^c X^c$) and hemizygous recessive males ($X^c Y$) are unable to distinguish between these two colours (Wilson, 1911). The frequency of colour blind women is much less than colour blind man. Four gene loci have been implicated in perception of colors in man. Three of them are X-linked while the fourth locus lies on an autosome.

Types of Colour blindness:

Four types of colour blindness have been recognized ex. Protan, deutan, tritan and total colour blindness. The type of colour blindness depends upon the locus that possesses mutant allele for colourblindness.

(a) Protan colour blindness (Protanopia): This is also called green-red color blindness. It occurs due to fault in cone cells that are sensitive to red color do not produce erythrolable

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pigment. This pigment helps in perception of red color. People suffering from protanopia cannot differentiate between green and red. They perceive red colour as green. Protanopia is a less common type of colourblindness. It affects only about 2% of males and one in 2500 females.

(b) Deutan colour blindness (Deuteranopia): It is also called red-green colour blindness. It occurs due to fault in cone cells that are sensitive to green colour do not produce chloroble pigment. This pigment helps in perception of green colour. People suffering from deuteranopia perceive green colour as red. Deuteranopia is the most common type of colourblindness. It affects about 6% of males and 0.5% females.

(c) Tritan colour blindness: It is very uncommon. It is caused when all three types of cone cells that recognize red, green and blue colors are defective. People affected by this type have difficulty in identifying any of the colours.

(d) Total Colourblindness: It is very rare. In this case cone cells are not formed at all.

Inheritance of colour blindness: The inheritance of colour blindness can be studied in the following two types of marriages.

(1) Marriage between colour-blind man and normal visioned woman: when color-blind man marries with a normal visioned woman, then they will produce normal visioned male and female individuals in F_1. The marriage between a F_1 normal visioned but carrier woman and normal visioned male will produce in F_2 two normal visioned female, one normal male and one color-blind male.

Parent : $X^C X^C$ × $X^c Y$

Normal female — Colour blind male

Gametes: (X^C) (X^C) (X^c) (Y)

F_1 : $1/2\ X^C X^c$ — $1/2\ X^C Y$

Normal but carrier female — Normal but hemizygous male

(Marriage between a carrier female and a normal male produces the progeny as follows)

F_2 :

$1/4\ X^C X^C$ = Normal Female
$1/4\ X^C X^c$ = Normal but carrier Female
$1/4\ X^C Y$ = Normal male
$1/4\ X^c Y$ = Colour blind male

3 Normal : 1 Color blind i.e. 3 : 1

Fig.3.22:-A marriage between a normal visioned female and a colour-blind man and result of the marriage of F_1 Carrier female with a normal male.

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1) Marriage between normal visioned ... normal visioned ...

If a woman (X^cX^c) is colour blind and she ... (X^CY) then all F_1 sons will be colour-blind and daughters will be normal visioned. Because ... receives one X-linked recessive gene for colourblindness from colour-blind mother. The daughter receives one X-linked dominant gene for normal vision from father and X-linked recessive gene for color blindness from the mother. The F_1 brother & sister, if inbred or married they will produce in F_2 a colour-blind homozygous daughter, a normal visioned heterozygous daughter, a normal visioned hemizygous son and a hemizygous color-blind son. **(Fig. 3.23)**

Parent :	X^cX^c Colourblind Female	×	X^CY Normal Male
Gametes:	(X^c) (X^c)		(X^C) (Y)
F_1 :	$1/2$ X^CX^c Normal but carrier female		$1/2$ X^cY Colour blind but hemizygous male

(Marriage of F1 carrier female with a color blind male produces the following progeny)

F_1 :	X^CX^c	×	X^cY
Gametes:	(X^C) (X^c)		(X^c) (Y)
F_2 :	X^CX^c Normal but carrier female	X^CY Normal Male	X^cX^c Colourblind Female / X^cY Colourblind male

Thus F2 generation gives:-

$1/4$ X^CX^c = Normal but carrier Female
$1/4$ X^CY = Normal male
$1/4$ X^cX^c = Colour blind female
$1/4$ X^cY = Colour blind male

} 2 Normal : 2Color blind
1 : 1

Fig: 3.23 A marriage of colourblind female & a normal male and result of the marriage of F_1 carrier female with a colour-blind male.

3.5.1.2.Haemophilia:

Haemophilia is the most serious and notorious disease which is more common men than women. This is also known as bleeder's disease. The person which contains the recessive gene for haemophilia lacks in normal clotting substance (thromboplastin) in blood so minor injuries cause continuous bleeding and ultimate death of the person due to haemorrhages. This hereditary disease was reported by **John Cotto** of Philadelphia in 1803 in man. Recently two types of sex linked haemophilia have been recognized:-

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a)Haemophilia A: It is characterized by lack of antihaemophilic globulin (Factor VIII). About four fifths of the cases of haemophilic are of this type.

b)Haemophilia B: It is also called "Christmas Disease" after the family in which it was first described in detail. Haemophilia B results from a defect in plasma thromboplastic component (Factor IX). This is milder form of haemophilia (PTC **OR** Factor IX **OR** Christmas factor).

Woodliff and Jackson in 1966 have found the occurrence of both types of haemophilia in an unsual family, both segregating independently; therefore, they concluded that two loci (i.e., haemophilia A and haemophilia B) were far apart on the X-chromosome (i.e. having a distance of more than 40 map units between them). Haemophilia is well known in the royal families of Europe, where it is traceable to Queen Victoria of England, who must have been heterozygous (carrier).No haemophiliac is known in her ancestry; hence it is concluded that her haemophilia allele arose from a mutant gamete. Since it is caused by recessive X-linked gene, a lady may carry the disease (i.e. she is carrier but nonsufferer and would transmit it to 50 percent of her sons, even if the father is normal (Fig:- 3.24).

Inheritance of Haemophilia can be understood by following examples.

Ex.1. When a male having normal dominant allele X^+ marries a heterozygous carrier (X^+X^h) female, 50% daughters are normal while remaining 50% are carriers. On the other hand 50% sons are normal while remaining 50% are haemophiliacs.

Parents: X^+X^h Mother Normal (carrier) × X^+Y Normal father

Gametes: (X^+) (X^h) (X^+) (Y)

Progeny: (X^+X^+) Normal daughter; (X^+Y) Normal Son; (X^+X^h) Normal but carrier daughter; (X^hY) Haemophiliac son

184 (X^+X^+) = Normal daughter
184 (X^+X^h) = Normal but carrier daughter ——— 3 Normal : 1 Haemophilic

OR

184 (X^+Y) = Normal Son
184 (X^hY) = Haemophiliac son

3 : 1

Fig:- 3.24 Inheritance of haemophilia disease in human beings.

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Question Bank

MCQ -

Q. 1) Sex linked characters in men are mainly transmitted through

a) X-chromosome
b) Y-chromosome
c) Autosome
d) None of these

Q.2) Chromosomal theory of sex determination was given by

a) Balbiani
b) Bridges
c) Goldschmidt
d) none of these

Q.3) In which of the following disease the color of the urine of a person turns black on exposure of air

a) Phenylketonuria
b) ketone urea
c) Alkaptonuria
d) Hematuria

Q.4) When a normal women marries with a haemophilic man then the chances of son will be haemophilic is

a) 50%
b) 75%
c) 100%
d) None

Q.5) Haemophilia is a disease most commonly found in male because of

a) Dominant character carried by X chromosome
b) Recessive character carried by X chromosome
c) Dominant character carried by Y chromosome
d) Recessive character carried by Y chromosome

Q.6) A women always carry sex-linked defect because

a) Carrier
b) Homozygous
c) Heterozygous
d) Normal

Q.7) Recessive character is expressed only when

a) They are present on autosome
b) They are present on X-chromosome of female
c) They are present on X-chromosome of male
d) Both the chromosome of female

Q.8) Extra X-chromosome in male phenotype leads to abnormality by which of the following syndrome

a) Down's syndrome
b) Palau's syndrome
c) Klinefelter syndrome
d) Edward Syndrome

Q.9) The chromosomal basis of sex determination is discovered in

(a) Melandrium
(b) Rumex
(c) Sphaerocarpus
(d) Coccinea

Q.10) In female XY and in Male XX sex chromosome are found sometimes due to

a) Addition
b) aneuploidy
c) Hormonal imbalance
d) transfer of segment in X and y chromosome

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Q.11) From the following which one is sex linked disease?
a) Syphilis
b) AIDS
c) Colour blindness
c) Gonorrhoea

Q.12) Sex in Drosophila, is determined by which ratio?
a) X and Y-chromosomes
b) The ratio of number of X-chromosomes to the sets of autosomes
c) The ratio of pairs of X-chromosomes
d) Fertilization of egg

Q.13) In Human being unfertilized egg contains
a) One X chromosome
b) one Y chromosome
c) X and Y chromosome
d) autosome

Q.14) Which colour are not distinguish by a colour blind person
(a) Red- blue
b) Green-yellow
c) Red-green
d) Black – white

Q.15) Which type of sex- chromosome found in normal human male
a) XX b) XY c) XO d) XXY

Q.16) which type of sex-chromosome found in normal human female
a) XX b) XY c) XO d) XXY

Q.17) In Human male genes for colour blindness are located on
a) X-chromosome
b) Y-chromosome
c) XY chromosome
d) None of these

Q.18) From the following in man which is genetically dominant trait?
a) Colour blindness
b) Rh-positive
c) Albinism
d) Haemophilia

Q.19) How many chromosome is present in each cell in case of Down's syndrome
a) 45
b) 47
c) 21st pair having one less
d) 23rd chromosomal pair having one less

Q.20) A genotype of man showing sexual character of female are having chromosome
a) XO
b) XXX
c) XXY
d) XYY

Q.21) In Human male sex linked characters are mainly transmitted through
a) X- Chromosome
b) Y-chromosome
c) XY
d) All of the above

Q.22) Chromosomal arrangement found in Turner's syndrome is
a) XX b) XY c) XO d) XXY

Q.23) Chromosomal arrangement found in Klinefelter's Syndrome
a) XX b) XY c) XO d) XXY

Q.24) When a colour-blind man marries with a carrier women then children will be.
a) All children are colour-blind
b) All daughters are normal and son were colour-blind
c) All daughters are colour blind and son are colour-blind.
d) Some daughter and some sons are colour-blind.

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Q.25) In Human the recessive genes are located on X-chromosome are always
a) Lethal b) Sub-Lethal c) Expressed in male d) Expressed in female

MCQ answer Key-
Q.1 (a) X-chromosome, 2 (d) none of these 3 (c) Alkaptonuria 4 (d) None 5 (d) Recessive character carried by Y chromosome 6 (b) Homozygous 7 (c) they are present on X-chromosome of male 8 (c) Klinefelter syndrome, 9 (a) Melandrium 10 (d) transfer of segment in X and Y chromosome, 11 (c) Colour blindness, 12 (b) the ratio of number of X-chromosomes to the sets of autosomes, 13 (a) one X chromosome, 14 (c) Red-green 15 (b) XY 16 (a) XX, 17 (a) X-chromosome, 18 (b) Rh-positive , 19 b) 47, 20 c) XXY, 21 a) X-chromosome, 22 c) XO, 23 (d) XXY, 24 (d) Some daughter and some sons are colour-blind, 25 c) Expressed in male

Q. Answer the following questions in one sentence

1) What is Albinism?
2) Define Non-disjunction
3) What are Gynandromorph?
4) Which disease is called as Royal disease?
5) Which syndrome is caused due to trisomy in 18 number of chromosome?
6) What is mean by Freckles?
7) What is cystic fibrosis?
8) Trisomy in chromosome number 21 leads to which disease?
9) Who given the Genic balance theory?
10) In which animals hormonally controlled sex determination is observed?
11) Name any two genetic disorder?
12) What is sex determination system?
13) Genetic disorder caused due to?
14) A man suffer from which disease has enlarged breasts, hairs on body and sex complement XXY.
15) What can cause Down syndrome?
16) What is the chromosomal arrangement shown by heterogametic male?
17) Write down examples of heterogametic female?
18) Which factor is responsible for environmentally control sex determination?
19) In turtles at what temperature egg hatches into male?
20) What is the cause of cystic fibrosis?
21) What is mean by pleiotropy?
22) In which type of diabetes mellitus body cells of a person fail to use Insulin?
23) What is the causes of colour blindness?
24) What is the cause of Heamophilia?
25) Why X- linked recessive condition occure.

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26) What is auto immune disease?
27) What is Y-linked gene?
28) What is mean by single gene control of sex?
29) Write down the example of heterogametic female.
30) Write down example of heterogametic males?
31) Write down example of X- linked recessive disorder.
32) What is mean by linked genes?
33) What is mean by Sex-Linked?
34) Give the example of autosomal recessive disorder.
35) Which color sensitive cells present in retina of human eye?
36) What is mean by Blaze?
37) Deutan colorblindness is also called as?
38) Which enzyme deficiency result in alkaptouria?
39) Which cells release melanin pigment?
40) What is mean by monoecious?
41) What is mean by dioecious?
42) What is function of autosome?
43) What is mean by heterogametic sex?
44) ZW-ZZ type of sex determination reported in which animals and plant?
45) XX-XO type of sex determination found in which type of organism?
46) In case of female born with Turner's syndrome where one X-chromosome is barr body is present or absent in that?
47) One extra X chromosome is present in which type of chromosomal disease?
48) Which test is used to diagnosed Phenylketonuria?
49) The disease phenylketonuria is caused by?
50) What is mean by piebaldism?

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EXPLORING INTERSECTIONS: MULTIDISCIPLINARY PERSPECTIVES IN RESEARCH, VOLUME – 2

by: Dr. Karuturi S R V Satish, Dr. Kanumuri Suneetha, Dr. Mallanna I Biradar, Priti S Sawale, Dr. Venus Madan, Sri Harsha Vardhan Sanne, Dr. Sharon Jude Samuel, Ms. P. Banuchittara, Dr. Shabnam Siddiqui, Dr. Rathna Chellappa

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INFINITY PUBLICATION PVT. LTD.

76-77, Infinity Site, 88, Navamuvada, Lunawada-389230

Contact No. 76988 26988

Registration No. GJ31D0000132

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Text © *Editors*, 2024

Cover page ©RED'SHINE Studios, Inc, 2024

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ISBN: 978-93-92917-32-5

ISBN-10: 93-92917-32-5

DIP: 18.10.9392917325

DOI: 10.25215/9392917325

Price: ₹ 1000/-

April, 2024 (First Edition)

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www.infinitypublication.com | info@infinitypublication.com

PRINTED IN INDIA | TITLE ID: 9392917325

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1 Chapter IMPACT ASSESSMENT OF COLOURS IN THE INTERIOR SPACES

Aanshika Kaur [1], Dr. Sumantra MISRA [2], Ar. Chitrasen PARIDA [3], Ar. Shankar Giri [4]

ISBN: 978-93-92917-32-5 | **DOI**: 10.25215/9392917325.01

Abstract:

The principality of the design has a great role in capturing the actual essence of spaces by coordinating the colours which includes in the overall design, accessories and fixtures to develop a balanced character. According to colour theory, the interpretation of colours varies depending on age and contextual factors. Moreover, the understanding of colours can be persuaded by various elements, including physical space, connection with the space and the age of the individual. Extensive research has demonstrated the profound impact of colour on user's understanding of space and other environmental factors. Visual perception is not solely confined to the eyes or the reception of visual stimuli; can also be a response to attention. This paper strategy is to analyse the perspective of colour on people of different age groups for different interior spaces. Paper aims to delve into the diverse psychological and cultural perspectives on the influence of colour across multiple aspects.

KEYWORDS: *Perception, pigment, culture, emotion, psychology, colour theory*

INTRODUCTION:

At present, there is a plethora of theoretical exploration or studies across various domains for the understanding that analyse the subject of colour, encompassing its properties, relationships, and systems. For designers, colour holds more significant role than just being a layer of paint or a decorative tool. It conveys the meaning or the emotions of the user using that space in the interior. We can easily understand the psychology of the users through the colour and even know about their connection with that space. It forms an essential part of the foundation of design, moreover being the utmost eloquent in terms of the connotation expresses the cognitive and emotional consequences anticipated by the (Eckstut, 2013)audience. Colour plays an indispensable role in bringing out the image of interior spaces by integrating the colours used in the overall interior design, accessories, and house fittings to create a balanced character (Birren, 2013).Recently, the concept of brand space and its association with the widespread image of interior space has garnered awareness. The focus has been on how variety space can enhance the aesthetic properties of a building and its interior spaces, and how they can impact the production of users, commercial brand trust, and consumer attraction. The combination of variety space identity and colour properties presents an effective way of creating an attractive image of the desired commercial space. When designing buildings and structures, several factors need consideration besides the function of the building or structure. The residents of the building should be able to enjoy the atmosphere provided for the building to achieve its motive. Since few architectural structures can generate a similar

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understanding worldwide, most designers rely on the use of colour to appeal to their target group of audience. In the contemporary society, there is an increasing awareness of the influence that lighting and colour have on people's emotions (Crowley, 1983). Despite the fact that numerous individuals allocate significant resources for designing the spaces with proper colour choices and lighting conditions, there is very less proof available to substantiate their efficacy.

LITERATURE STUDY:

Colour Categories:

The significance of colours can differ across cultures and contexts, as per the principles of colour theory. Furthermore, the perception of colours can be impacted by various factors, such as the individual's age and surroundings. Despite the ability to differentiate around 7 million colours, these are essentially composed of comparable fundamental components.

- Primary colours like, yellow, red, and blue, all other shades are built upon a foundation that cannot be made by blending other shades or hues. When these colours are combined together in equal proportions, the resulting colour is black.
- Secondary colours are result of the shades created by combining two primary colours. This is the group of composed colours such as violet which is the combination of red & blue, combining yellow &green we will be getting lime, similarly lavender is formed by adding violet & blue, amber is formed by the mixture of yellow & orange and similarly when green is added with blue it forms turquoise.
- Tertiary colours come from mixing one primary colour with a secondary colour; turquoise, amber, purple, saffron, lavender, and lime are the six tertiary colours.
- Shades and tints are produced when black or white is combined with any of the aforementioned colours, while tones describe the intensity of a colour. Subtle shades of neutrals are crafted by blending lighter hues such as beige and cream, which are done to harmonize bold and vivid colours. These colours can also be categorized into warm and cool colours. colours containing more red and yellow in their composition and are generally perceived as cheerful and invigorating and are known as warmer tones, while colours having a higher percentage of violet-blue, and some green, are generally known as cool tones and are considered to have a soothing effect (Eckstut, 2013).

FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE OUR PERCEPTION OF COLOUR:

COLOUR CONTEXT:

Different cultures attribute multiple meanings to a single colour. In continent like Asia for instance, the colour saffron is regarded as constructive, spiritually awakened, positive, whereas it is associated with delays of traffics, accidents in road and street restaurants in the United States. Colours can convey various messages when considering diverse cultures, such as distinguishing between a premium brand and a discount brand, representing fun or seriousness, indicating gender or age, or symbolizing a rite of passage. The interpretation of colour meanings is heavily influenced by the context in which they are used. For example, shades of black may be linked with those who are sad, clergymen, warriors, or a throng at an exhibition.

Colours may appear to be simple and insignificant, but they have a profound impact on our everyday lives. It is often overlooked, but the colour we see can greatly influence our emotions

and overall well-being. For instance, if there is a person feeling annoyed, it may not solely due to their internal state, the reason for this is not only due to their proximity with colour Red but also their exposure to it It's fascinating to think that our moods can be altered simply by the colours we encounter! Numerous theories have been proposed to explain how a mere colour can have such a profound effect on our mood and mindset. (Johnson D. , 2007) posits that colour affects mood by triggering the production of certain chemicals in the body, which in turn stimulate different emotions such as hunger. Blue, for instance, can induce a sense of calmness by releasing calming chemicals, while red can stimulate appetite. Yellow, on the other hand, can cause irritation and is known to be associated with increased temper. The colour Pink on the other hand has a calming effect & can induce vulnerability (Smith, 2007)argues that the effect of colour on mood is based on the body's response to it. For instance, yellow is mentally stimulating and enhances memory, while red boosts confidence. Brown can create a sense of orderliness and stability, while dark blue can induce sadness. (Wollard, 2000)believes that mood can be altered by the choice of colour, however the impact can also be influenced by individuals practice of religion, culture and personal introspection. For example, colour Pink reduces hostility, so that is the reason for painting the walls of jail cells in pink colour in the prison of Seattle. Brown, on the other hand, can create a sense of comfort. (Eric, John, & Parag, 2007) contend that colour psychology has both physiological and psychological effects. Green, for instance, can induce relaxation by relaxing muscles and slowing down breathing.

METHODOLOGY:

With the aim of exploring the relationship between colour and mood (colour psychology), I am planning to carry out a research project involving with different age group of people The primary objective of this study is to examine the emotional reactions evoked by the colours black, blue, green, yellow, red, pink, and brown. The participants will be requested to express the emotions associated with each colour through survey.

Survey:

The colour under examination and the different age group of the people are the sole variables that vary in each unique survey.

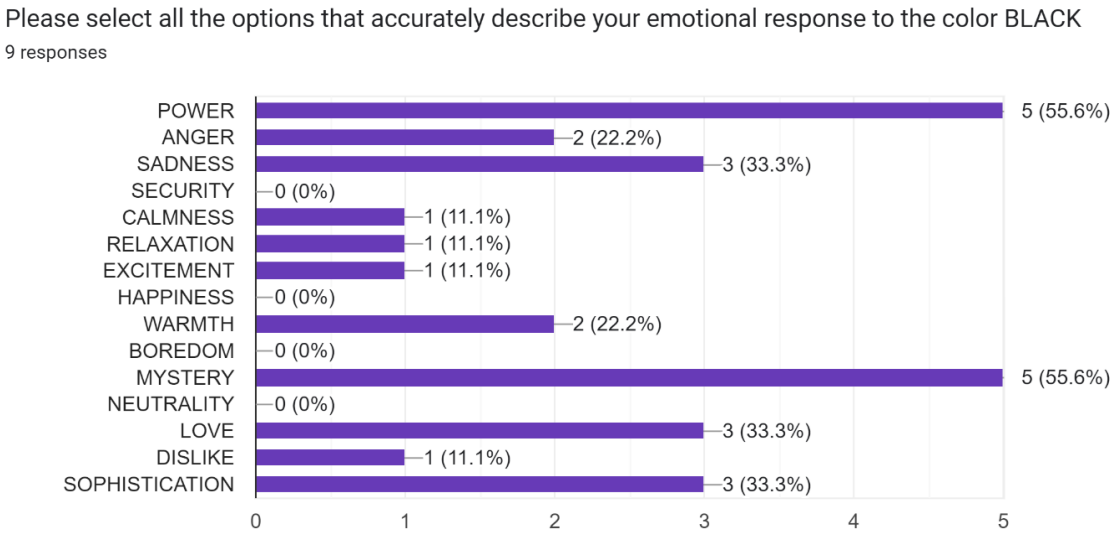
- Different age groups:
  - 12 to 17
  - 18 to 26
  - 27 to 35
  - 36 to 49
  - 50 or above
- Please select all the options that accurately describe your emotional response to the colour:
  - BLACK
  - BLUE
  - BROWN
  - GREEN
  - YELLOW
  - PINK
  - RED
- Does the colour evoke feelings of:
  - Anger

- Sadness
- Security
- Power
- Calmness
- Relaxation
- Depth
- Excitement
- tiredness,
- comfort,
- mystery
- neutrality
- love
- dislike,
- sophistication

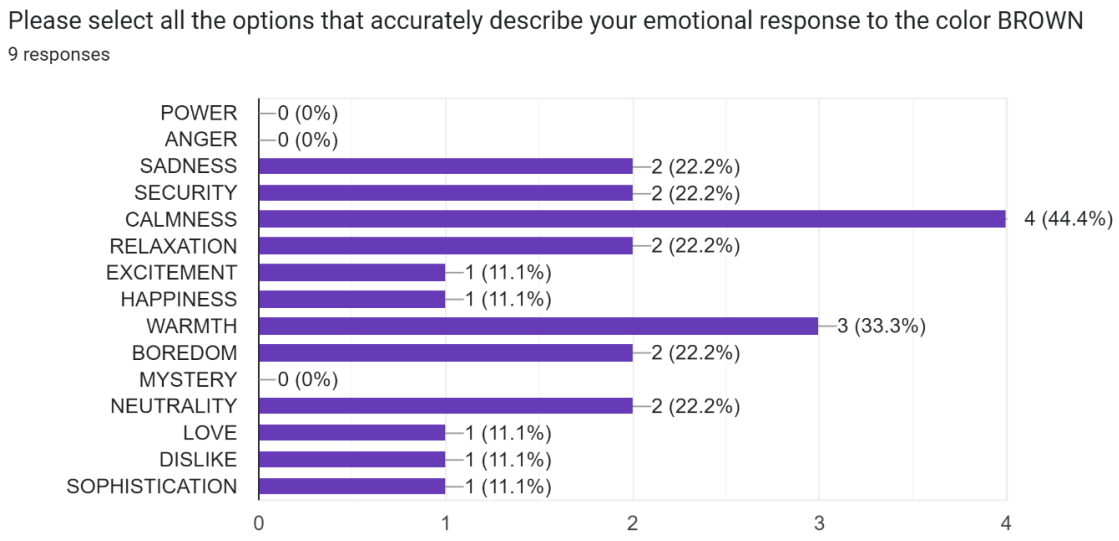
- Choose the colour option according to the spaces given:

- BEDROOM
- KITCHEN
- LIVINGROOM
- BATHROOM
- DINNING SPACE

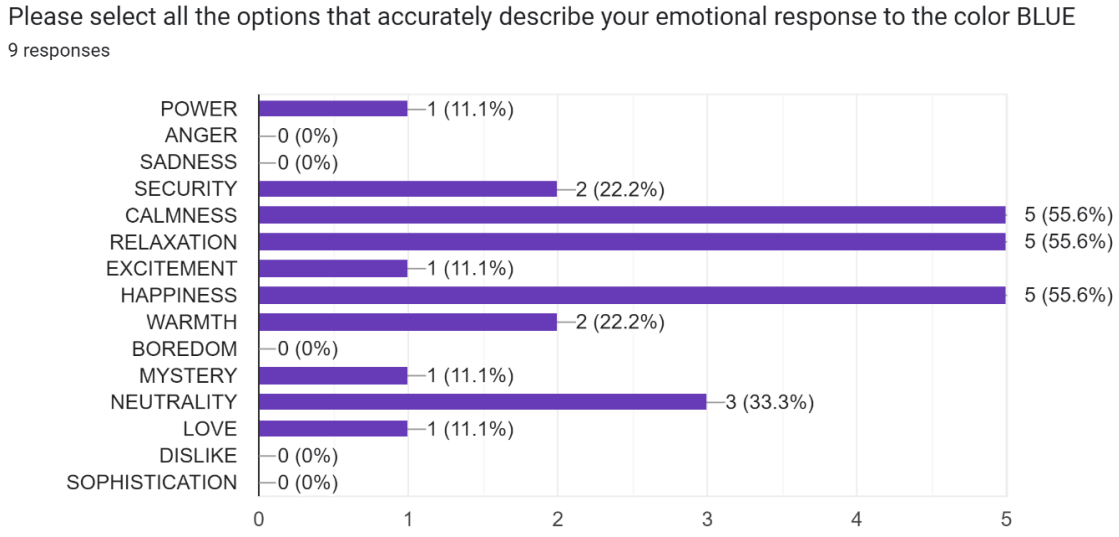
ANALYSIS:



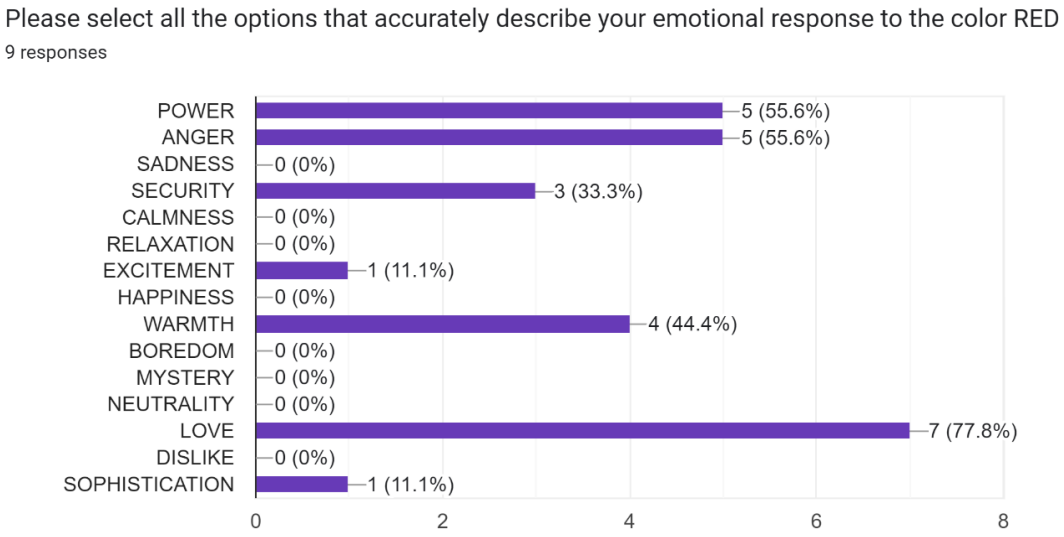
SO from the above data we can find that people feel to colour black was a sense of power,mystery,sophistication.so we can use colour Black for bedroom ,kitchen and bathroom.



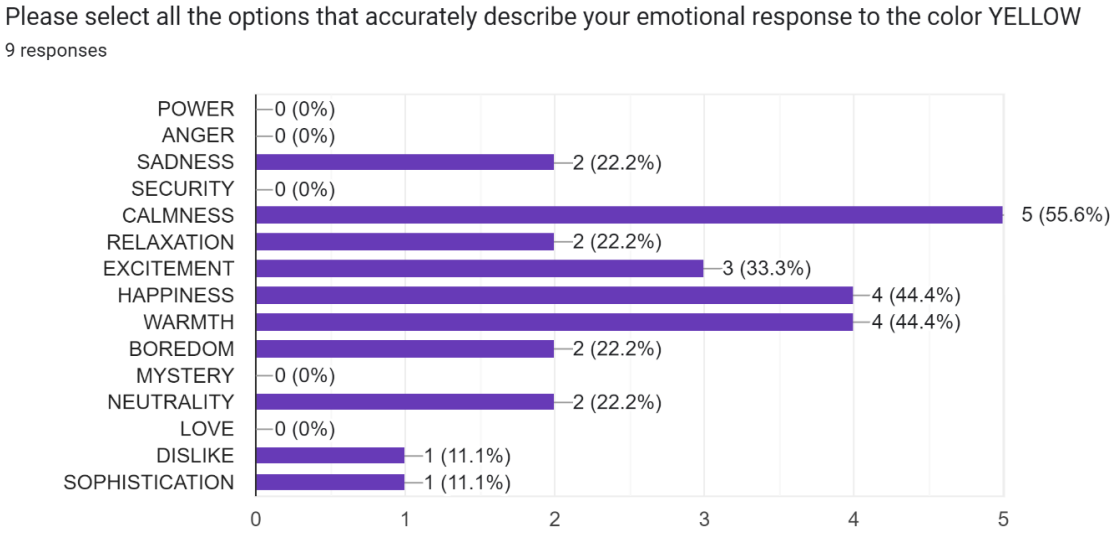
SO from the above data we can find that people feel to colour brown was a sense of warmth,calmness and happiness.so we can use colour green for bedroom and dinning space, kitchen.



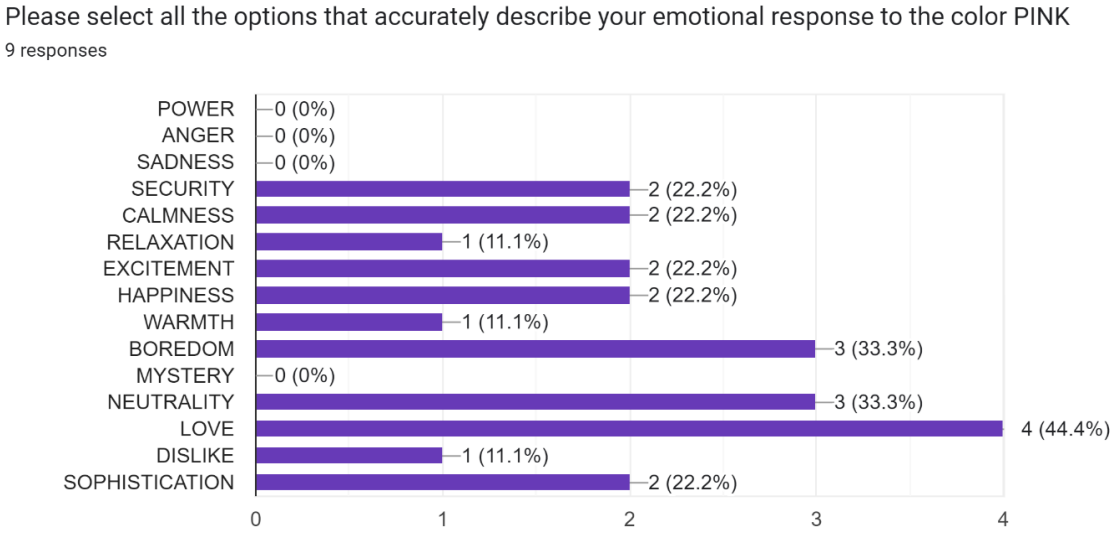
SO from the above data we can find that people feel to colour blue was a sense of relaxation,calmness and happiness.so we can use colour green for bedroom and dinning space.



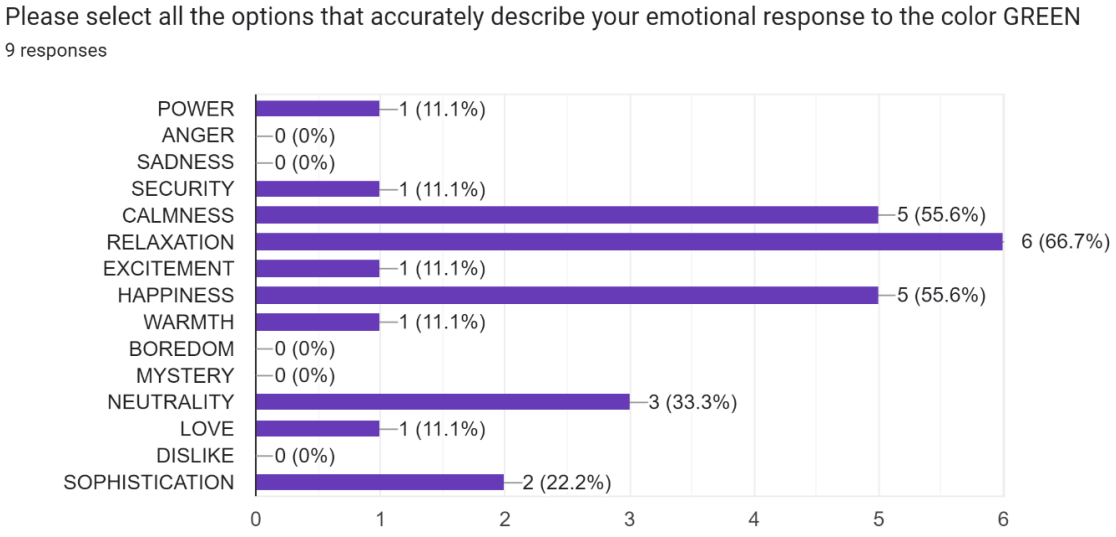
SO from the above data we can find that people feel to colour red was a sense of power,anger,security,love .so we can use colour red for bedroom.



SO from the above data we can find that people feel to colour yellow was a sense of relaxation ,warmth,calmness and happiness.so we can use colour green for bedroom and livingroom,dinning .



SO from the above data we can find that people feel to colour pink was a sense of love, neutrality and boredom .so we can use colour pink for small spaces in bedroom.



SO from the above data we can find that people feel to colour green was a sense of relaxation,calmness and happiness.so we can use colour green for bedroom and dinning space.

DATA ANALYSIS:

AGE GROUP	COLOURS						
	BLACK	BROWN	GREEN	YELLOW	BLUE	PINK	RED
12 TO 17	3	4	3	4.5	5	5	3.5
18 TO 26	5	4	3.5	4	4.5	2	2.5
27 TO 35	4	5	5	3	3.5	2	3
36 TO 49	3.5	4.5	5	5	4	3	2
50 OR ABOVE	1.5	3	4	3.5	4.5	4	4.5

Here number ranging from **1 to 5** is taken as the scale and is used in describing the different variety of colours in the interior spaces. **1** means least favourite and **5** being the best.

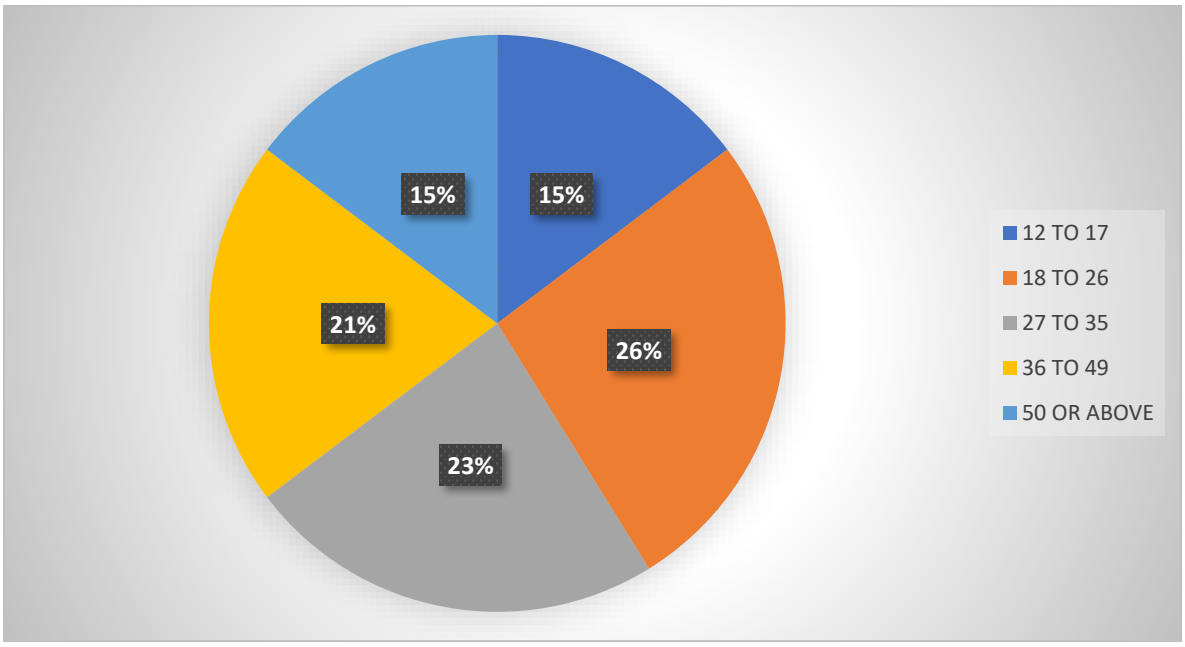


Figure 1 chart showing different age group

Below provided is the complete analysis of different colours in various spaces in the interior for different age group.

FOR BEDROOM:

AGE GROUP	COLOURS						
	BLACK	**BROWN**	**GREEN**	**YELLOW**	**BLUE**	**PINK**	**RED**
12 TO 17	Average	Good	Average	Loved it	Loved it	Loved it	Good
18 TO 26	Loved it	Good	Good	Good	Loved it	Bad	Bad
27 TO 35	Loved	Loved it	Loved it	Good	Good	Bad	Average
36 TO 49	Average	Loved it	Loved it	Loved it	Good	Average	Average
50 OR ABOVE	Bad	Good	Loved it	Good	Loved it	Good	Bad

Here **GOOD, AVERAGE, BAD, LOVED IT** is taken as the scale for describing the perception and likeness of colour in different age group for **Bedroom.**

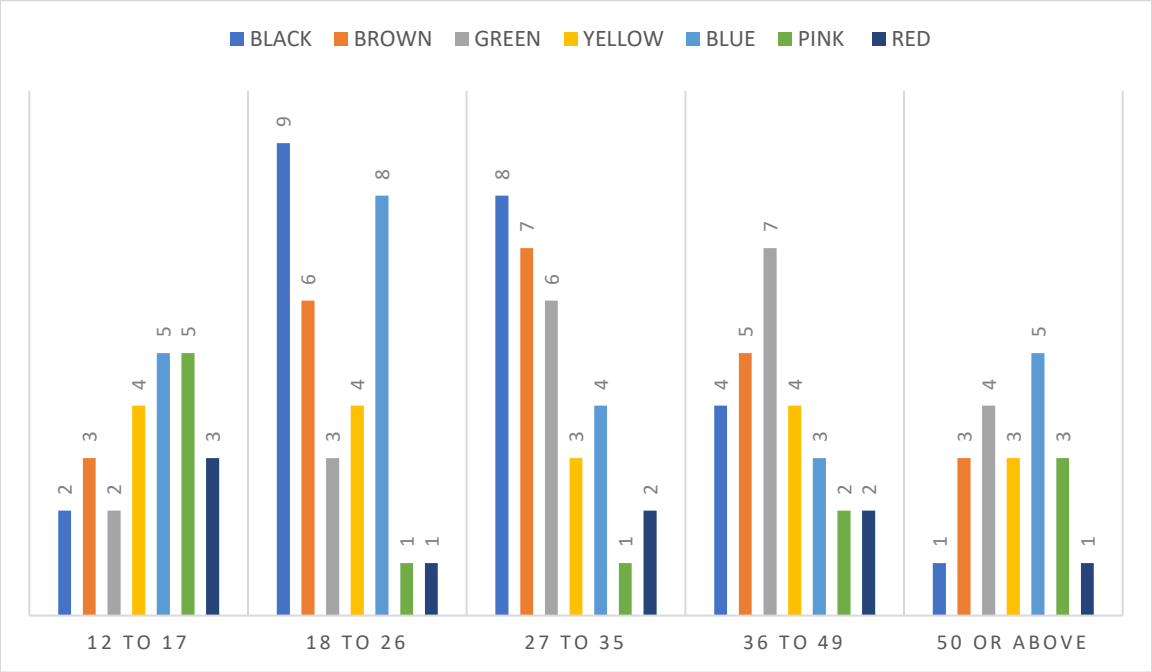


Figure 2 Chart showing perception of different colour in BEDROOM

Through this chart we analyse that dark tone like shades and tints of black is done in bedroom so as to give bedroom a classy look it also is good as per the Vastu. Similarly colour like pink, blue, green generally the pastel and cool tones go very well in bedroom as these tones create a sense of calmness, relaxation and happiness and to enhance the room we can use warmer tones and shades so as to make it playful at same time relaxing.

FOR BATHROOM:

AGE GROUP	COLOURS						
	BLACK	**BROWN**	**GREEN**	**YELLOW**	**BLUE**	**PINK**	**RED**
12 TO 17	Average	Good	Average	Bad	Good	Average	Bad
18 TO 26	Loved it	Loved it	Bad	Bad	Good	Bad	Bad
27 TO 35	Loved it	Loved it	Bad	Bad	Average	Bad	Average
36 TO 49	Good	Good	Average	Average	Good	Average	Bad
50 OR ABOVE	Average	Good	Average	Average	Loved it	Average	Bad

Here **GOOD, AVERAGE, BAD, LOVED IT** is taken as the scale for describing the perception and likeness of colour in different age group for **Bathroom.**

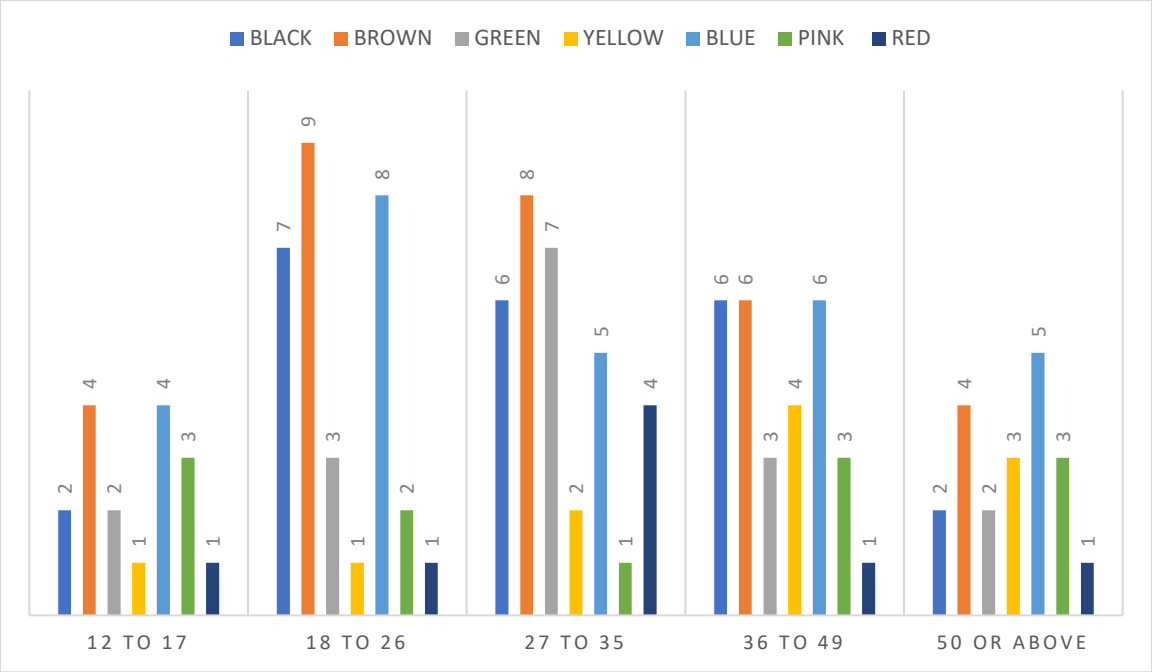


Figure 3 Chart showing perception of different colours in BATHROOM.

Through this chart we can analyse that warm tone like red and yellow can be energetic but it is also risky shade as if we will be using wrong shades then this tone can also evoke the feelings of anger and irritation. whereas colours like green, blue, brown are favourable as this colour creates a sense of relaxation, calmness. and colour like black is also been used now a days as this colour creates the bathroom look more elegant and formal but while using this colour, we also need to keep in mind that black absorbs the light so it can create the room darker so to avoid that we need to play with warm tones to make the room more appealing and standout.

FOR KITCHEN:

AGE GROUP	**COLOURS**						
	BLACK	**BROWN**	**GREEN**	**YELLOW**	**BLUE**	**PINK**	**RED**
12 TO 17	Good	Good	Bad	Average	Good	Good	Good
18 TO 26	Loved it	Good	Bad	Average	Average	Bad	Loved
27 TO 35	Loved it	Average	Bad	Average	Good	average	Loved
36 TO 49	Good	Good	Average	Good	Average	Average	Good
50 OR ABOVE	Average	Average	Average	good	Average	Bad	Good

Here **GOOD, AVERAGE, BAD, LOVED IT** is taken as the scale for describing the perception and likeness of colour in different age group for **Kitchen.**

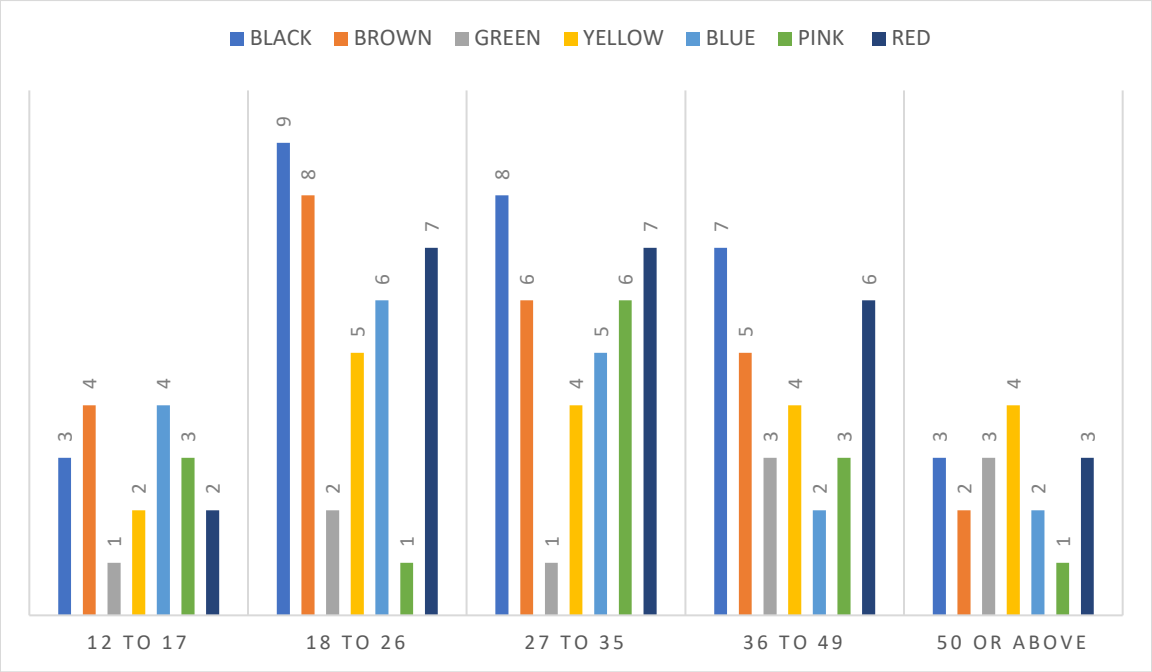


Figure 4 Chart showing perception of colour in KITCHEN

Through this chart we analyse that warmer tones can easily increase your appetite or hunger, whereas cooler tone can create a sense of cheerfulness and the shades of dark tone can make the kitchen look classier and more sophisticated.

FOR DINNING ROOM:

AGE GROUP	**COLOURS**						
	BLACK	**BROWN**	**GREEN**	**YELLOW**	**BLUE**	**PINK**	**RED**
12 TO 17	Good	Good	Loved	Good	Good	Loved	Loved
18 TO 26	Loved	Loved	Loved	Good	Average	Good	Loved
27 TO 35	Loved	Loved	Good	Good	Average	Good	Loved
36 TO 49	Average	Average	Loved	Loved	Good	Loved	Good
50 OR ABOVE	Bad	Average	Good	Loved	Good	Good	Good

Here **GOOD, AVERAGE, BAD, LOVED IT** is taken as the scale for describing the perception and likeness of colour in different age group for **Dinning space.**

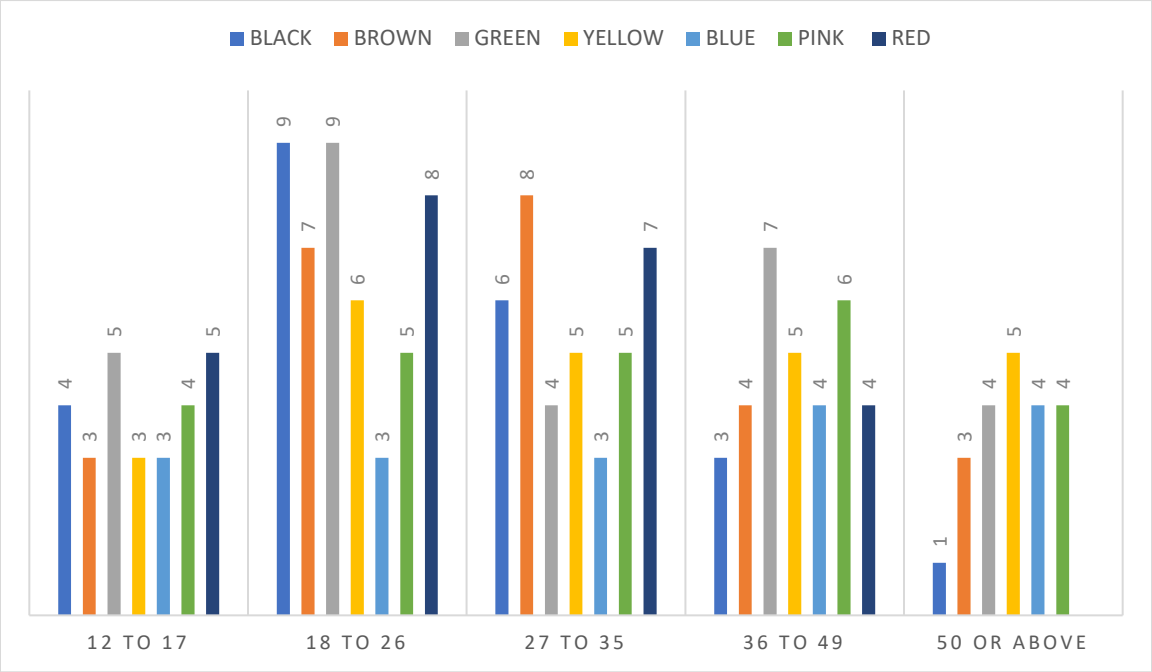


Figure 5 Chart showing perception of colour in DINNINGROOM

Through this chart we can analyse that mostly people liked warm tone as warm tone creates feel of socialization and also increase appetite, warm tone creates a lively environment which is very favourable for dinning spaces.

FOR LIVING ROOM:

AGE GROUP	**COLOURS**						
	BLACK	**BROWN**	**GREEN**	**YELLOW**	**BLUE**	**PINK**	**RED**
12 TO 17	Loved	Good	Good	Good	Good	Average	Good
18 TO 26	Loved	Good	Good	Loved	Good	Good	Average
27 TO 35	Loved	Loved	Good	Average	Loved	Good	Average
36 TO 49	Good	Average	Loved	Good	Loved	Average	Good
50 OR ABOVE	Good	Good	Loved	Loved	Good	Average	Average

Here **GOOD, AVERAGE, BAD, LOVED IT** is taken as the scale for describing the perception and likeness of colour in different age group for **Living room.**

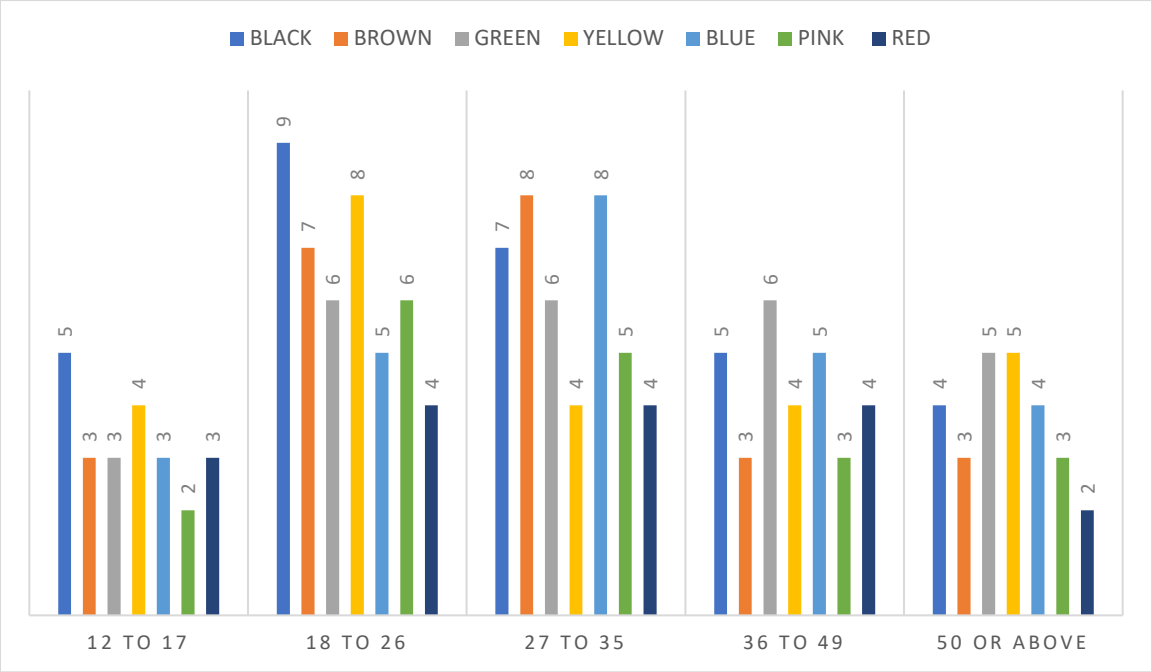


Figure 6 Chart showing perception of colour in living room

Through this chart we can find that many of them liked colour black or we can say dark shades of grey in their living room as this creates a sense of modernism and elegance in the room. Shades and tints of brown has calming effects and versatility, similarly green has calming effects and colour pink can be used for reducing stress.

CONCLUSION:

According to the survey, a significant majority of people ranging from different age group believed that colour black evoked feelings of mystery, power, and sophistication. On the other hand, the colour green was associated with a sense of neutrality and balance for most of them. red is commonly used as an accent colour in textiles or furniture, as painting entire walls in red may be overwhelming in smaller spaces. Taking yellow colour for painting a small, dimly lit area with a vibrant shade to enhance the ambiance. This colour is associated with happiness and optimism, acting as a substitute for natural sunlight. However, choosing the right shade is very necessary so as to avoid restlessness or unease. Now talking about colour blue, it is mostly favourable as this colour is believed to enhance loyalty, intelligence, and is very suitable for interior environment.

Through the survey I found that people from age group 18 to 35 were liking more of dark and cool tones. And people from age group 36 and above were more towards warm tones and cool tones.

As in this paper we have looked for various reason that can impact the psychology of colour n the interior, as well as how can culture and age effect the psychology of the colour for different spaces so we can take this research toward health and anthropometry as how can anthropometry impacts the interior spaces how can health especially how interior spaces can affect your mental health.

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2 Chapter LANGUAGE, MASS COMMUNICATION AND DEVELOPMENT OF GLOBAL RELATIONS

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ISBN: 978-93-92917-32-5 | **DOI**: 10.25215/9392917325.02

Abstract

Language links people to the world and mass media works through language to disseminate information across the world. The English language which has been accorded the status of an international language plays the pivotal role in promoting and developing mass communication and improving global relations among the countries in relation to global economic co-operation, cultural and intellectual exchanges and strengthening diplomatic ties between countries. It has introduced one identity for all people and acquainted everybody with different beliefs and values. It has been playing a crucial role as the essence of diplomacy and has affected globalization that connects different parts of the world. Communication is a process and language is a medium. Language contains the message meant to be transmitted or conveyed to an individual or organization. Language and mass communication combine to be a very effective instrument for the development of human relations in the world.

Keywords: *language, mass communication, global relation, economic and cultural co-operations, English as an International language*

Introduction

We have been witnessing a phenomenal growth in education and economy and development in diplomacy in the globe through mass communication since the dawn of the age of information and communication technology that dates back to the days of the last century when Claude Elwood Shannon conceived and laid the foundation of information theory that gradually developed into Information and Communication Technology (ICT) that is credited with revolutionizing global communication and paving the way for the development of global relations through cooperation and joint participation. Language is the foundation of communication. It plays a crucial role in promoting and developing mass communication and establishing and improving global relations in the fields of culture and human relations across the world. Language, mass communication and development of global relations are linked to one another. But language plays the pivotal role in entailing global growth and development and promoting cultural, educational, economic and global co-operation among the countries of the world. Mass communication imparts information to large population segments and exchanges information of various types with them.

Review of Related Literature

Adam Volle (Mass Communication, 2023) writes that mass media entails mass communication, provides education, spread political propaganda and involves trade and commerce and public relations. It disseminates new ideas and concepts around the world. Ankita Yadav (2022) writes that mass media transfers information from a person or an organization to a wide range of people through various tools of mass communication. Mass

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media has been defined as one of very important forms of communication in the present era. It is a very quick method of information communication. In the article titled "The English Language and International Relations" it has been stated that English is voted for the language of international communication in the UN General Assembly. This language has brought the people of the world closer to share their own cultures and rich history. It has enabled people to communicate with one another and contributed to the development of human relations at the global level. Gohil, Parimal P. (2023) describes English as a global language because it is the most widely spoken language. It is globally used as the language of global communication.

Objectives of the Study

The present article deals with the roles of the English language in the field of global communication through mass media that supports mass communication and promotes global relations among the countries. The objectives of the study are:

- To examine and analyze English as a global language,
- To examine the meaning and significance of communication through English,
- To examine the role of the English language in mass communication at the global level,
- To explore the role of both the English language and mass media in mass communication.

Methodology of the Study

The present study is a qualitative descriptive one. The researcher studied a number of articles on the English language, communication, language and communication, mass media, mass communication and language and global relations and collected information for the study. Simple analysis of the collected information was adopted to arrive at the conclusion.

English as a world Language

English is recognized as an international language. It may be called the language of the world. As English is spoken and understood all over the globe, it has attained international importance. It is the first language of England, America, Canada and some other countries and the second language of India, Africa, Russia, France, Pakistan, etc. The number of people speaking this language exceeds 350 million which is next only to the Chinese language. The language links together people of different nations of the world. It helps every nation to study and understand the culture and civilization of the other nation. It is through English that we can establish political, cultural, intellectual and economic relations with the countries of the world. F.G. French writes in his book titled "Teaching English as an International Language" that "English has become a world language. It is the means of international communication".

English, therefore occupies the unique position of being the language used by the largest number of people in the world. It has the pre-eminent claim to the medium of international communication. It has been playing an important role in global trade and commerce, intellectual development of the world. It is commonly used to develop trade, commerce, economic and political co-operation and diplomatic relations. The language plays a key role in global communication and the promotion of global relations. Even Gandhiji commented '"English is a language of international commerce; it is the language of diplomacy and it contains many a rich literary treasure; it gives us an introduction to western thought and

culture". English is the only means of preventing our isolation from the world and will act unwisely if we allow ourselves to be enveloped in the folds of a narrow world.

Communication and its Implications

Communication is basic to human existence and human development. It completes the process of human relations. The nature of human communication is determined by communication through language. Communication is a process. Communication is the process that promotes change among humans. People attempt to interpret the world and their role in order to make sense out of the influx of perception to order and assign significance to the various components of their environment. A message is sent to a person who receives it successfully and the feedback is noted to be important in human communication as a means for a sender to check the success of his intended message by observing the reactions of the receiver. Language plays a central role in the entire process of sending and receiving a message and also in the case of feedback from the receiver. Mass media is a very effective medium for establishing communicative link with people at the global level. What the mass media reflect and propagate is a popular culture.

Communication is one of the basic uses of human languages and an essential element of human existence and relations. It refers to the exchange and flow of information and ideas from one person to another. It involves a sender transmitting an idea or information or feeling to a receiver. Keith Davis (1965) writes "Communication is the process of passing information and understanding from one person to another", The term 'communication' is derived from the Latin word 'communis' which means 'common'. Communication now comes to mean in English an act of sharing commonness or common understanding and experiences with others. Communication is thus a sharing process. Some instruments, appliances or devices like telephone, tale-printer, telegram, fax, email, radio-broadcasting, telecasting, the internet, etc. are used to send and share information. Language is the main tool of human communication. Language is used as the most effective medium to give expression to a person's or an organization's message. The contents of communication denote what is intended to be communicated or transmitted by the source of communication.

Language and Communication

Language is very intimately associated with human identity, human thoughts, beliefs and values. Human can speak because he is endowed with highly developed vocal organs. He can learn more one language and speak the languages. His ability to speak multiple languages enables him to connect with people from a diversity of backgrounds, understand their perspectives on the world and appreciate their uniqueness. Language connects the world and helps promote the bond of human relations. It has played a significant role in the evolution of the present phenomenon of globalization and on the other hand globalization has influenced languages. It is more specifically felt that the globalization of the English language has boosted global communication that underlies the development of human relations.

Language is a tool of communication and at the same time the essence of diplomacy. In diplomacy language plays a very significant role. Language skills are essential for diplomatic negotiations, persuasion, presentation and communication. In the field of economic co-operation between countries for economic growth and development language plays a key role. In the cultural and intellectual relations for exchange the importance of language cannot be called in question. It has already been stated that English is a global language. The language

leads the people of the world to be acquainted with the different cultures of the countries of the world. This cultural link makes the people feel as global citizens. Language removes the barriers to travel and, therefore, encourages continued exposure to other countries and allows individuals to interact more fully with others.

English is globally used as a common language for worldwide communication. It is the only language accepted at the global level in various communication activities. International agreements, programmes for human development, co-operation cultural and intellectual reciprocations, progammes for political and economic co-operations between countries, communication for various health and human welfare programmes etc. all are made for communication in the English language. Even treaties between nations are drafted in this language. Different international messages for human relations and developments are disseminated through this language. This language has bridged the gap between countries and their cultures and successfully connected the people of different languages, cultures, faiths and beliefs of the world.

Mass Communication and Globalization

Mass communication is a process of communication with a large chunk of people through the use of communication technologies. Both communication technologies and culture develop together, one supporting the other. Communication is an expression of a community's culture, and culture in its turn embodies a community's communication and information needs and practices. Communication and culture are thus inextricably tied to each other. It is not possible to understand communication without culture, nor is it possible to speak of the one without referring to the other. Communication, language, culture, society and civilization and their equivalents may have meanings of their own but they are intimately linked to each other and have evolved together. Mass communication influences and even reflects social value and practices. But this influence is always in combination with a whole lot of other socio-cultural and economic and political factors.

Mass communication heralds development in culture and human values and relations. It paves the way for man-to-man relations and changes cultural outlook. It adds a new meaning to every aspect of human existence. All development is human development. The focus of development is human being, the quality of his life and the environment in which that quality of life is sustained. The early concept of development ignored human and the environmental factors. New dimensions have been added to the original concept in the fifties. Human resources revealed that the concept of development was still dominated by economic growth theories. Development is a whole; it is an integral value-loaded, cultural process. It takes in the natural environment, social relations, education, production, consumption and welfare. Development communication emerged as a field of mass communication studies during their post World War II, when the countries of Asia, Africa and South America were asserting their right to independence, self-reliance and non-alignment. In India, media have played a role in the communication and promotion of new ideas and the adjustment to a new social and political situation.

Mass Communication and Globalization

Mass communication is practised through various channels called 'mediums' or 'media' which include radio, television, social networking, billboards, newspapers, magazines, books, films, the internet, etc. It is the process of imparting and exchanging information through mass media

to larger population segments. It utilizes various forms of media as technology has made the dissemination of information more effective. Mass communication has been providing new information to the people of the world. It has reduced distance between man and man, connected the one with the other and helped to reciprocate information and knowledge. This has led to the evolution of the concept 'information society'. The concept of 'information society' gained widespread currency in the 1970s and 1980s to explain the social, economic and technological changes that were taking place during those decades in advanced industrialized societies. The technological changes made the new kind of social and economic changes that have been affecting human life and human relations. The information revolution as termed by sociologists has improved life, widened human range of information and broadened human outlook to develop a global relation between man and man. Every society has become in a sense an information society. Information and communication have held the societies together despite the diversities and rivalries among the societies.

Globalization is the connection of different parts of the world. It results in the expansion of international cultural, economic and political activities. It promotes and enhances interactions between different regions and populations around the globe. It is the stretching of economic, political and social relationships that promote the welfare of humans. Media can significantly influence society and life. It enables individuals to access information, interact through global connection and ultimately foster economic growth and also boost positive diplomacy. Both globalization and global communication have changed the environmental, cultural, political and economic elements of the world and paved the way for the development of a global village.

Conclusion

Language and mass communication are the foundation of globalization. Language is the instrument of communication. The English language which is accepted as an international language has successfully connected the world. It is the window to the world and carrier and preserver of modern human knowledge and information from new discoveries. Mass media work through language and disseminate knowledge and information in the world. Communication is a process and language is a medium. Language contains the message meant to be transmitted or conveyed to an individual or an organization. This is communication. Language and mass communication have worked together to carry information to the people of the world and have given birth to 'information society'. Mass communication imparts and information to everybody within its functioning range and have paved the way for globalization. Language and mass communication have brought the cultures of the world to people, entailed intellectual reciprocation and enabled the people to understand the needs of economic and political co-operation between countries for human development.

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3 Chapter SUSTAINABLE TOURISM PRACTICES: A BLUEPRINT FOR ECOLOGICAL AND CULTURAL PRESERVATION

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ISBN: 978-93-92917-32-5 | **DOI**: 10.25215/9392917325.03

Abstract

Sustainable tourism is increasingly recognized as a critical approach for preserving ecological and cultural heritage while fostering socio-economic development. This review paper examines current practices and trends in sustainable tourism, aiming to provide a comprehensive blueprint for ecological and cultural preservation. The paper explores key concepts such as eco-tourism, community-based tourism, and responsible travel, highlighting their impacts on the environment, local communities, and cultural heritage. Various case studies and best practices from around the world are analyzed to identify successful strategies for sustainable tourism development. The review also discusses challenges and barriers to sustainable tourism and proposes recommendations for policymakers, businesses, and tourists to promote more sustainable practices.

Keywords: *Sustainable tourism, Ecological preservation, Cultural preservation, Eco-tourism, Community-based tourism, Responsible travel.*

Introduction

Sustainable tourism has emerged as a crucial strategy for balancing economic growth with ecological and cultural preservation. In recent decades, the tourism industry has experienced exponential growth, becoming one of the largest and fastest-growing economic sectors globally. While this growth has brought numerous benefits such as job creation, infrastructure development, and cultural exchange, it has also led to significant environmental degradation and cultural erosion in many destinations. The concept of sustainable tourism seeks to address these challenges by promoting responsible tourism practices that minimize negative impacts on the environment, preserve cultural heritage, and benefit local communities.

The United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) defines sustainable tourism as "tourism that takes full account of its current and future economic, social and environmental impacts, addressing the needs of visitors, the industry, the environment, and host communities." This definition emphasizes the need for tourism to be environmentally friendly, socially and culturally responsible, and economically viable over the long term.

One of the key principles of sustainable tourism is ecological preservation. This involves minimizing the environmental impact of tourism activities, such as reducing carbon emissions, conserving water resources, and protecting biodiversity. Cultural preservation is another critical aspect, focusing on the protection and promotion of local cultures, traditions, and heritage sites. Sustainable tourism also emphasizes the importance of benefiting local

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communities by creating economic opportunities, supporting local businesses, and involving communities in tourism planning and decision-making processes.

This review paper aims to provide a comprehensive overview of sustainable tourism practices, focusing on their role in ecological and cultural preservation. The paper will explore the concept of sustainable tourism in depth, discussing its principles, benefits, and challenges. It will also examine case studies and best practices from various destinations to highlight successful strategies for sustainable tourism development. Additionally, the paper will discuss the role of stakeholders such as governments, businesses, and tourists in promoting sustainable tourism practices.

Background

The tourism industry has experienced exponential growth over the past few decades, becoming one of the largest and most influential sectors of the global economy. This growth has been driven by factors such as increased disposable income, improved transportation infrastructure, and advancements in technology that have made travel more accessible to people around the world. While tourism has brought numerous benefits, including economic development and cultural exchange, it has also resulted in significant negative impacts on the environment and local communities.

Environmental degradation is one of the most pressing issues associated with tourism development. The expansion of tourism infrastructure, such as hotels, resorts, and transportation networks, has led to habitat destruction, pollution, and the depletion of natural resources in many popular tourist destinations. Climate change, exacerbated by carbon emissions from transportation and energy consumption in the tourism sector, poses an additional threat to fragile ecosystems and biodiversity.

In addition to environmental concerns, the rapid growth of tourism has also raised questions about cultural preservation. Many tourist destinations face challenges related to the commodification of culture, the loss of traditional livelihoods, and the erosion of local customs and traditions. In some cases, the influx of tourists has led to overcrowding, cultural appropriation, and the degradation of cultural heritage sites.

Recognizing these challenges, there has been a growing interest in promoting sustainable tourism practices that balance economic development with environmental and cultural preservation. Sustainable tourism seeks to minimize the negative impacts of tourism while maximizing the benefits for local communities and the environment. This approach emphasizes responsible tourism practices, such as minimizing carbon emissions, conserving natural resources, supporting local businesses, and respecting local cultures and traditions. Despite the increasing awareness of sustainable tourism, there is still a need for comprehensive research and analysis to understand its effectiveness in achieving ecological and cultural preservation goals. This study aims to contribute to the existing body of knowledge by examining current practices and trends in sustainable tourism and identifying strategies for promoting ecological and cultural preservation in tourist destinations. By gaining insights into successful sustainable tourism initiatives and addressing challenges and barriers to implementation, this study seeks to provide valuable guidance for policymakers, businesses, and other stakeholders involved in tourism planning and management.

Justification

1. Environmental Preservation: The study of sustainable tourism practices is crucial for preserving the environment in tourist destinations. By understanding and promoting eco-friendly tourism practices, such as reducing carbon emissions, conserving water resources, and protecting biodiversity, this study can contribute to the long-term sustainability of these ecosystems.
2. Cultural Preservation: Sustainable tourism practices play a key role in preserving the cultural heritage of destinations. By promoting responsible travel behavior and supporting local cultural initiatives, this study can help protect traditional customs, languages, and historical sites from the negative impacts of tourism.
3. Community Benefits: Sustainable tourism has the potential to generate significant economic benefits for local communities. By studying successful community-based tourism models and identifying ways to involve local communities in tourism development, this study can help create sustainable livelihoods and reduce poverty in tourist destinations.
4. Policy Implications: The findings of this study can inform the development of policies and regulations that promote sustainable tourism practices. By providing evidence-based recommendations for policymakers, this study can contribute to the creation of a more sustainable and resilient tourism industry.
5. Global Relevance: The study of sustainable tourism practices is relevant not only at the local level but also at the global level. By highlighting best practices and innovative approaches to sustainable tourism, this study can inspire similar initiatives in other destinations around the world.
6. Academic Contribution: This study contributes to the academic literature on sustainable tourism by providing a comprehensive review of current practices and trends. By synthesizing existing knowledge and identifying gaps in the literature, this study can guide future research in this field.
7. Practical Applications: The findings of this study can be directly applied by tourism businesses, governments, and non-profit organizations to promote sustainable tourism practices. By providing practical recommendations and case studies, this study can help stakeholders implement sustainable tourism initiatives in their respective contexts.
8. Ethical Considerations: Sustainable tourism is not just an environmental or economic issue but also an ethical one. By promoting responsible and ethical tourism practices, this study can contribute to a more equitable and sustainable tourism industry that respects the rights and dignity of local communities and the environment.
9. Resilience to External Shocks: Sustainable tourism practices can enhance the resilience of tourism destinations to external shocks, such as natural disasters, economic downturns, or pandemics. By diversifying tourism products and markets, investing in sustainable infrastructure, and fostering community engagement, destinations can better withstand and recover from crises.
10. Market Demand: There is a growing demand among travelers for sustainable and responsible tourism experiences. By studying consumer preferences and behavior, this study can help businesses and destinations tailor their offerings to meet this demand, thereby enhancing their competitiveness in the market.
11. Health and Well-being: Sustainable tourism practices can contribute to the health and well-being of both tourists and local communities. By promoting clean air and water, providing access to green spaces, and supporting local healthcare services, sustainable tourism can have positive impacts on public health.

12. Education and Awareness: Sustainable tourism can serve as a powerful tool for education and raising awareness about environmental and cultural issues. By engaging tourists in conservation activities, cultural exchanges, and educational programs, destinations can foster a greater appreciation for the natural and cultural heritage of the places they visit.
13. Long-term Economic Viability: By promoting sustainable tourism practices, destinations can ensure the long-term economic viability of their tourism industry. By diversifying tourism products, reducing dependence on mass tourism, and investing in local businesses, destinations can create a more resilient and sustainable tourism economy.
14. Policy Alignment: The study of sustainable tourism practices can help align tourism policies with broader sustainable development goals, such as the United Nations Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). By integrating sustainability principles into tourism policies, governments can ensure that tourism contributes to broader social, economic, and environmental objectives.
15. Stakeholder Collaboration: Sustainable tourism requires collaboration among a wide range of stakeholders, including governments, businesses, local communities, and non-governmental organizations. By studying successful examples of stakeholder collaboration, this study can provide insights into effective partnership models for sustainable tourism development.

Objectives of Study

1. To analyze current trends and practices in sustainable tourism.
2. To assess the impact of sustainable tourism on ecological preservation.
3. To examine the role of sustainable tourism in cultural preservation.
4. To identify challenges and barriers to sustainable tourism.
5. To provide recommendations for promoting sustainable tourism.

Literature Reviews

Trends and Concepts in Sustainable Tourism: A study by Gössling et al. (2016) identified a shift towards more sustainable practices in the tourism industry, driven by consumer demand, regulatory pressures, and a growing awareness of environmental issues. The concept of sustainable tourism has evolved to encompass a broader range of practices, including eco-tourism, community-based tourism, and responsible travel (Hall, 2015).

Environmental Impact of Tourism: Research indicates that tourism has significant environmental impacts, including carbon emissions, water consumption, and waste generation (Scott et al., 2018). However, sustainable tourism practices, such as energy-efficient infrastructure, waste management systems, and sustainable transportation options, can help mitigate these impacts (Sharpley & Telfer, 2015).

Cultural Preservation in Sustainable Tourism: Cultural preservation is another key aspect of sustainable tourism. Studies have shown that tourism can both positively and negatively impact local cultures, depending on how it is managed (Gursoy et al., 2017). Community engagement, cultural sensitivity, and heritage conservation are important strategies for preserving local cultures in the face of tourism development (Richards & Munsters, 2017).

Challenges and Barriers: Despite the progress made in sustainable tourism practices, several challenges and barriers remain. These include lack of awareness among tourists, limited government support, and financial constraints (Font et al., 2020). Overcoming these challenges

requires a concerted effort from all stakeholders, including governments, businesses, and tourists themselves.

Future Directions: Looking ahead, the future of sustainable tourism will likely be shaped by emerging trends such as digitalization, sustainable mobility, and destination management (Gössling et al., 2021). Integrating sustainability into tourism policies and practices will be crucial for ensuring the long-term viability of the tourism industry (UNWTO, 2022).

Sustainable Tourism Policies and Planning: A study by Weaver (2018) highlights the importance of integrating sustainability principles into tourism policies and planning processes. The study emphasizes the need for comprehensive planning frameworks that consider environmental, social, and economic factors.

Tourism Certification and Standards : Research by Dredge and Jenkins (2016) examines the role of tourism certification programs and standards in promoting sustainable tourism practices. The study discusses the benefits of certification in enhancing environmental performance and visitor experiences.

Community-Based Tourism Initiatives: A study by Scheyvens and Momsen (2015) explores the impact of community-based tourism initiatives on local communities. The study highlights the potential of community-based tourism to empower marginalized groups and promote sustainable development.

Tourist Behavior and Sustainable Practices: Research by Matarrita-Cascante et al. (2017) investigates tourist behavior and attitudes towards sustainable tourism practices. The study identifies factors influencing tourist decision-making and preferences for sustainable tourism experiences.

Sustainable Tourism Marketing: A study by Jamal and Camargo (2019) examines marketing strategies for promoting sustainable tourism destinations. The study discusses the role of branding, communication, and storytelling in attracting responsible tourists.

Tourism Resilience and Adaptation: Research by Becken et al. (2020) explores the concept of tourism resilience and adaptation to climate change. The study highlights the need for destination management strategies that enhance resilience and reduce vulnerability.

Tourism Innovation and Technology: A study by Gretzel et al. (2018) discusses the role of innovation and technology in advancing sustainable tourism practices. The study explores how digital technologies can enhance visitor experiences and reduce environmental impacts.

Tourism Education and Training: Research by Fredman et al. (2019) examines the role of education and training in promoting sustainable tourism practices. The study emphasizes the importance of capacity building and skills development for tourism stakeholders.

Policy Coherence for Sustainable Development: A study by Hall and Ram (2017) discusses the concept of policy coherence for sustainable development in the context of tourism. The study emphasizes the need for integrated policy approaches that address environmental, social, and economic dimensions.

Sustainable Tourism Governance: Research by Garrod and Gössling (2018) explores governance frameworks for sustainable tourism. The study discusses the role of stakeholders, institutions, and regulations in promoting sustainable tourism practices.

Material and Methodology

Research Design: This study employs a systematic literature review methodology to analyze current trends and developments in sustainable tourism practices from 2014 to 2024. A systematic approach ensures a rigorous and comprehensive review of relevant literature, enabling the synthesis of key findings and the identification of emerging themes.

Data Collection Methods: The data collection process involves searching academic databases, such as Scopus, Web of Science, and Google Scholar, using keywords related to sustainable tourism practices, ecological preservation, and cultural preservation. The search strategy includes a combination of keyword searches.

Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria: Inclusion criteria include studies that focus on sustainable tourism practices, ecological preservation, cultural preservation, and related topics. Only peer-reviewed articles, books, and reports published in English are included. Studies that do not meet these criteria or do not provide sufficient information on sustainable tourism practices are excluded.

Ethical Considerations: Ethical considerations include ensuring the confidentiality and anonymity of study participants, obtaining necessary permissions for the use of copyrighted materials, and adhering to ethical guidelines set forth by relevant institutions and organizations. Additionally, efforts are made to cite sources accurately and acknowledge the contributions of other researchers in the field.

Results and Discussion

Trends in Sustainable Tourism Practices: The review revealed several key trends in sustainable tourism practices, including a growing emphasis on eco-tourism, community-based tourism, and responsible travel. Many studies highlighted the importance of integrating sustainability principles into tourism policies and planning processes to minimize negative impacts on the environment and local communities.

Impact on Ecological Preservation: Studies consistently found that sustainable tourism practices have positive effects on ecological preservation. Strategies such as energy-efficient infrastructure, waste management systems, and sustainable transportation options were found to reduce carbon emissions and minimize habitat destruction in tourist destinations.

Impact on Cultural Preservation: The review also highlighted the role of sustainable tourism practices in cultural preservation. Community engagement, cultural sensitivity, and heritage conservation were identified as important strategies for protecting and promoting local cultures, traditions, and heritage sites in the face of tourism development.

Challenges and Barriers: Despite the progress made in sustainable tourism practices, several challenges and barriers remain. These include lack of awareness among tourists, limited government support, and financial constraints. Overcoming these challenges requires a concerted effort from all stakeholders, including governments, businesses, and tourists themselves.

Policy Implications: The findings of the review have important policy implications for promoting sustainable tourism practices. Integrated policy approaches that address environmental, social, and economic dimensions are needed to ensure the long-term sustainability of the tourism industry. Additionally, stakeholder collaboration and capacity building are essential for effective implementation of sustainable tourism initiatives.

Future Directions: Looking ahead, the future of sustainable tourism will likely be shaped by emerging trends such as digitalization, sustainable mobility, and destination management. Integrating sustainability into tourism policies and practices will be crucial for ensuring the resilience and viability of the tourism industry in the face of global challenges.

Future Scope

1. **Technology and Innovation:** Future research could explore the role of emerging technologies, such as artificial intelligence and blockchain, in enhancing sustainable tourism practices. These technologies have the potential to revolutionize tourism operations, improve resource management, and enhance visitor experiences.

2. **Policy and Governance:** There is a need for further research on the effectiveness of different policy approaches and governance mechanisms in promoting sustainable tourism. Comparative studies across different destinations could provide valuable insights into best practices and policy recommendations.

3. **Community Engagement:** More research is needed on effective strategies for engaging local communities in sustainable tourism development. Studies could focus on community-based tourism initiatives, empowerment strategies, and the role of social capital in fostering sustainable tourism practices.

4. **Climate Change Resilience:** Given the increasing impacts of climate change on tourism destinations, future research could focus on strategies for enhancing the resilience of tourism systems. This could include adaptation measures, risk management strategies, and the integration of climate considerations into tourism planning and development.

5. **Tourist Behavior and Preferences:** Understanding tourist behavior and preferences is crucial for designing sustainable tourism experiences. Future research could employ innovative methodologies, such as big data analytics and experimental studies, to gain deeper insights into tourist motivations and decision-making processes.

6. **Education and Training:** There is a need for further research on effective education and training programs for promoting sustainable tourism practices. Studies could evaluate the impact of capacity-building initiatives on stakeholder knowledge, attitudes, and behaviors.

7. **Collaboration and Partnerships:** Future research could explore the role of collaboration and partnerships in promoting sustainable tourism. Studies could focus on multi-stakeholder partnerships, public-private collaborations, and the role of NGOs in driving sustainable tourism initiatives.

8. **Measurement and Evaluation:** Improving the measurement and evaluation of sustainable tourism practices is essential for tracking progress towards sustainability

goals. Future research could focus on developing standardized indicators, benchmarking tools, and assessment frameworks for evaluating sustainable tourism performance.

Conclusion

Sustainable tourism has emerged as a critical approach for balancing economic development with environmental and cultural preservation. This systematic literature review has provided a comprehensive overview of current trends and developments in sustainable tourism practices from 2014 to 2024, focusing on strategies for ecological and cultural preservation.

The review highlighted several key trends in sustainable tourism, including a growing emphasis on eco-tourism, community-based tourism, and responsible travel. These trends reflect a shift towards more sustainable practices in the tourism industry, driven by consumer demand, regulatory pressures, and a growing awareness of environmental issues.

The impact of sustainable tourism on ecological preservation was found to be positive, with strategies such as energy-efficient infrastructure, waste management systems, and sustainable transportation options reducing carbon emissions and minimizing habitat destruction. Similarly, sustainable tourism practices were found to have positive effects on cultural preservation, with community engagement, cultural sensitivity, and heritage conservation playing important roles in protecting and promoting local cultures.

Despite the progress made in sustainable tourism practices, several challenges and barriers remain. These include lack of awareness among tourists, limited government support, and financial constraints. Overcoming these challenges requires a concerted effort from all stakeholders, including governments, businesses, and tourists themselves.

The findings of this review have important policy implications for promoting sustainable tourism practices. Integrated policy approaches that address environmental, social, and economic dimensions are needed to ensure the long-term sustainability of the tourism industry. Additionally, stakeholder collaboration and capacity building are essential for effective implementation of sustainable tourism initiatives.

Looking ahead, the future of sustainable tourism will likely be shaped by emerging trends such as digitalization, sustainable mobility, and destination management. Integrating sustainability into tourism policies and practices will be crucial for ensuring the resilience and viability of the tourism industry in the face of global challenges.

Sustainable tourism practices have the potential to contribute to a more equitable and sustainable tourism industry that benefits both present and future generations. By promoting responsible tourism behavior and supporting local communities, sustainable tourism can play a key role in achieving ecological and cultural preservation goals.

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4 Chapter GLOBALIZATION AND INCOME INEQUALITY: A LONGITUDINAL STUDY

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ISBN: 978-93-92917-32-5 | **DOI**: 10.25215/9392917325.04

Abstract

This paper aims to investigate the relationship between globalization and income inequality over time, using a longitudinal study approach. The study is grounded in theories of globalization and income inequality, drawing on literature from economics, sociology, and political science. The research employs a longitudinal study design, analyzing data over a specific period to examine the changes in income inequality in the context of globalization. Various statistical techniques are utilized to analyze the data and test the hypotheses. The findings suggest a complex relationship between globalization and income inequality. While globalization has the potential to increase income inequality through factors such as technological advancements and trade liberalization, it also offers opportunities for economic growth and poverty reduction. The research contributes to the existing literature by providing a nuanced understanding of the relationship between globalization and income inequality. The findings have implications for policymakers, highlighting the need for measures to mitigate the negative impacts of globalization on income distribution. This study adds to the originality of the research by providing a longitudinal analysis of the relationship between globalization and income inequality, offering insights into the dynamic nature of this relationship over time.

Keywords: *Globalization, income inequality, longitudinal study, theoretical framework, policy implications.*

Introduction

Globalization, characterized by the increasing interconnectedness of economies and societies worldwide, has been a defining feature of the contemporary era. It has brought about significant changes in the way nations trade, communicate, and interact, leading to both opportunities and challenges. One of the key debates surrounding globalization is its impact on income inequality. While proponents argue that globalization promotes economic growth and development, critics contend that it exacerbates income disparities within and between countries.

This review research paper aims to examine the relationship between globalization and income inequality through a longitudinal study. By analyzing data over a period of time, we seek to understand how globalization has influenced income distribution and inequality trends across different regions and countries. We will explore various dimensions of globalization, including trade liberalization, financial integration, and technological advancement, and their implications for income inequality.

The importance of this study lies in its potential to inform policymakers, researchers, and the general public about the complex and multifaceted nature of globalization's impact on income distribution. By gaining a deeper understanding of these dynamics, we can develop more

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effective policies and strategies to address income inequality and promote inclusive growth in a globalized world.

Background

Globalization has been a defining feature of the modern era, characterized by increased interconnectedness and interdependence among countries in terms of economic, political, and cultural exchanges. While globalization has led to significant economic growth and development in many parts of the world, it has also been associated with rising income inequality within and between countries.

The process of globalization has been driven by various factors, including advancements in technology, trade liberalization, and the mobility of capital and labor. These developments have facilitated the integration of economies and the expansion of international trade and investment, leading to increased economic opportunities for some individuals and regions.

However, the benefits of globalization have not been distributed evenly, leading to widening income gaps between the rich and the poor. This phenomenon has raised concerns about the social and economic implications of income inequality, including its impact on poverty, social cohesion, and political stability.

Understanding the relationship between globalization and income inequality is essential for policymakers and researchers seeking to address the challenges posed by economic globalization. A longitudinal study can provide valuable insights into how globalization has influenced income inequality over time, allowing for a deeper understanding of the underlying dynamics and trends.

By examining trends in income inequality across different countries and regions over an extended period, researchers can identify the factors driving these trends and assess the effectiveness of policies aimed at mitigating the negative effects of globalization on income distribution.

Overall, a longitudinal study on globalization and income inequality can contribute to our understanding of the complex relationship between these two phenomena and provide valuable insights for policymakers seeking to promote more inclusive and equitable forms of globalization.

Justification

1. **Relevance**: The topic of globalization and income inequality is of paramount importance in the contemporary world. Globalization has significantly impacted economies worldwide, influencing income distribution within and among countries. Understanding the relationship between globalization and income inequality is crucial for policymakers, economists, and researchers to formulate effective strategies for economic development and social equity.

2. **Gap in Literature**: While there is a substantial body of literature on globalization and its effects on various aspects of society, there is a need for a comprehensive longitudinal study that examines the long-term trends and patterns of income inequality in the context of globalization. This study aims to fill this gap by providing a detailed analysis of income inequality trends over time in relation to the process of globalization.

3. **Methodological Rigor**: The study will employ rigorous research methodologies, including longitudinal data analysis, to ensure the reliability and validity of the findings. By using longitudinal data, the study will be able to capture the dynamics of income inequality over an extended period, providing a more nuanced understanding of its relationship with globalization.

4. **Policy Implications**: The findings of this study are expected to have significant policy implications. By identifying the factors driving income inequality in the era of globalization, policymakers will be better equipped to design policies that promote economic growth while ensuring equitable distribution of benefits. This study can thus contribute to the development of more effective and sustainable policy interventions aimed at reducing income inequality.

5. **Contribution to Knowledge**: This research paper will contribute to the existing body of knowledge by offering a comprehensive analysis of the relationship between globalization and income inequality over time. The findings of this study will not only advance academic understanding but also provide practical insights for policymakers and practitioners working in the field of economic development and social policy.

6. **Multifaceted Analysis**: The paper will conduct a multifaceted analysis of globalization's impact on income inequality, considering various dimensions such as regional disparities, sectoral effects, and demographic factors. This holistic approach will provide a comprehensive understanding of the complex relationship between globalization and income distribution.

7. **Comparative Analysis**: The study will include a comparative analysis of income inequality trends across different countries and regions, highlighting variations in the impact of globalization on income distribution. This comparative perspective will enrich the analysis and enhance the generalizability of the findings.

8. **Longitudinal Perspective**: By adopting a longitudinal perspective, the study will be able to track changes in income inequality over time, capturing the long-term effects of globalization. This longitudinal approach will enable the identification of trends and patterns that may not be apparent in cross-sectional analyses.

9. **Policy Evaluation**: The paper will evaluate the effectiveness of existing policies aimed at mitigating the negative effects of globalization on income inequality. By assessing the impact of policy interventions, the study will provide insights into the efficacy of various policy measures in addressing income inequality in the context of globalization.

10. **Global Perspective**: Given the global nature of globalization, the study will adopt a global perspective, considering the interconnectedness of economies and the cross-border flow of goods, services, and capital. This global perspective will shed light on the global dynamics of income inequality and globalization's role in shaping them.

11. **Socioeconomic Context**: The paper will consider the socioeconomic context within which globalization occurs, including factors such as technological advancement, labor market dynamics, and institutional frameworks. This contextual analysis will provide a nuanced understanding of how these factors interact with globalization to influence income inequality.

12. **Methodological Innovation**: The study will employ innovative methodologies, such as spatial analysis and network analysis, to explore the spatial and network dynamics of income inequality in the context of globalization. These methodological innovations will enhance the depth and breadth of the analysis.

13. **Interdisciplinary Approach**: The paper will adopt an interdisciplinary approach, drawing on insights from economics, sociology, political science, and other relevant disciplines. This interdisciplinary approach will enrich the analysis by integrating diverse perspectives and theories.

14. **Policy Recommendations:** Based on the findings of the study, the paper will provide actionable policy recommendations aimed at reducing income inequality in the era of globalization. These recommendations will be informed by empirical evidence and grounded in theoretical frameworks, making them practical and feasible for implementation.

15. **Public Awareness:** The paper will contribute to raising public awareness about the complex relationship between globalization and income inequality. By disseminating the findings of the study to a wider audience, the paper will foster informed debates and discussions on this important issue.

Objectives of Study

1. To examine the trends of globalization and income inequality over a specified period.

2. To identify the factors contributing to changes in income inequality in the context of globalization.

3. To analyze the impact of globalization on different income groups and socio-economic classes.

4. To evaluate the effectiveness of policy measures aimed at mitigating income inequality in a globalized world.

5. To propose recommendations for policymakers to address income inequality within the framework of globalization.

Literature Review

Globalization and income inequality have been subjects of extensive research and debate in recent decades. Globalization, characterized by increased interconnectedness and interdependence of countries, has led to significant economic changes worldwide. One of the key issues associated with globalization is its impact on income distribution within and among countries. This literature review aims to provide a comprehensive overview of existing research on the relationship between globalization and income inequality.

1. Globalization and its Dimensions Globalization is a multifaceted phenomenon encompassing economic, political, social, and cultural dimensions. Economically, globalization is characterized by increased international trade, foreign direct investment (FDI), and the proliferation of multinational corporations (MNCs). Politically, globalization has led to the rise of international organizations such as the World Trade

Organization (WTO) and regional trade agreements. Socially, globalization has facilitated greater cultural exchange and migration.

2. Theoretical Perspectives on Globalization and Income Inequality Several theoretical frameworks have been proposed to explain the relationship between globalization and income inequality. The Stolper-Samuelson theorem suggests that trade liberalization can lead to higher returns to the abundant factor (such as capital) and lower returns to the scarce factor (such as labor), thereby exacerbating income inequality. The Factor Proportions Theory argues that countries specialize in producing goods that intensively use their abundant factors, leading to income inequality between countries. The Skill-Biased Technological Change (SBTC) hypothesis posits that globalization leads to technological advancements that favor skilled workers over unskilled workers, contributing to income inequality within countries.

3. Empirical Evidence on Globalization and Income Inequality Empirical studies investigating the relationship between globalization and income inequality have yielded mixed results. Some studies find a positive correlation between globalization and income inequality, suggesting that increased trade and FDI lead to higher levels of income inequality. Other studies find a negative or neutral correlation, indicating that globalization has no significant impact on income inequality. The variation in findings can be attributed to differences in methodologies, data sources, and the specific context under study.

4. Factors Influencing the Relationship Several factors influence the relationship between globalization and income inequality. Institutional factors, such as labor market regulations and social welfare policies, play a crucial role in determining how the gains from globalization are distributed among different segments of society. The level of economic development and the sectoral composition of the economy also influence the impact of globalization on income inequality.

5. Policy Implications The findings from existing research have important policy implications. Policymakers need to design strategies that harness the benefits of globalization while mitigating its adverse effects on income distribution. This may involve implementing progressive tax policies, investing in education and skill development, and strengthening social safety nets to protect vulnerable groups from the negative consequences of globalization.

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Material and Methodology

Research Design:

For this longitudinal study on globalization and income inequality, a quantitative research design will be employed. This design allows for the systematic collection and analysis of numerical data to establish patterns, trends, and relationships between globalization and income inequality over time. The longitudinal approach is crucial to observe changes and trends over an extended period, providing a more comprehensive understanding of the subject.

Data Collection Methods:

1. Secondary Data Analysis: Existing datasets from reputable sources such as the World Bank, International Monetary Fund (IMF), and United Nations will be utilized. These

datasets include information on globalization indices (e.g., trade openness, foreign direct investment) and income inequality measures (e.g., Gini coefficient, income shares).

2. Literature Review: A comprehensive review of academic literature will be conducted to gather insights, theories, and empirical evidence on the relationship between globalization and income inequality. This will provide a theoretical framework for the study and help in formulating hypotheses.

Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria:

1. Inclusion Criteria: Studies, datasets, and reports included in the analysis must be published in reputable peer-reviewed journals, official reports, or databases. Only studies that directly address the relationship between globalization and income inequality will be included.

2. Exclusion Criteria: Studies that do not focus on the relationship between globalization and income inequality will be excluded. Additionally, studies with insufficient data or methodological flaws will not be included in the analysis.

Ethical Consideration:

1. Privacy and Confidentiality: All data used in the study will be anonymized to ensure the privacy and confidentiality of individuals and organizations. No personally identifiable information will be disclosed in the research findings.

2. Integrity and Objectivity: The research will be conducted with integrity and objectivity, ensuring that the findings are based on sound methodology and unbiased analysis. Any conflicts of interest will be disclosed and managed appropriately.

3. Compliance with Regulations: The study will comply with all relevant regulations and ethical guidelines, including obtaining necessary permissions for data use and ensuring compliance with data protection laws.

Results and Discussion

1. Trends of Globalization and Income Inequality

The analysis of globalization and income inequality trends over the specified period reveals a complex relationship. The data indicates a general increase in globalization, characterized by growing cross-border trade, investment, and technological integration. Concurrently, income inequality has exhibited varying patterns across regions and countries, with some experiencing widening gaps while others have shown signs of narrowing disparities. These trends suggest a nuanced interplay between globalization and income distribution, influenced by diverse economic, social, and political factors.

2. Factors Contributing to Changes in Income Inequality

Several factors have contributed to changes in income inequality within the context of globalization. Technological advancements and automation have reshaped labor markets, leading to skill-biased income distributions. Additionally, changes in trade policies and market liberalization have influenced wage levels and employment opportunities, impacting income distribution among different segments of the population. Furthermore, the role of education,

social welfare systems, and institutional frameworks has been crucial in determining the extent and direction of income inequality changes in a globalized world.

3. Impact of Globalization on Different Income Groups and Socio-Economic Classes

Globalization has had differential impacts on various income groups and socio-economic classes. While some segments of the population have benefitted from increased access to global markets and opportunities, others have experienced displacement and marginalization. The analysis suggests that globalization tends to favor skilled workers and capital owners, leading to a widening income gap between these groups and unskilled workers or those in low-income brackets. Moreover, globalization's impact on socio-economic classes has been mixed, with the middle class facing both opportunities for upward mobility and risks of economic insecurity.

4. Evaluation of Policy Measures for Mitigating Income Inequality

Policy measures aimed at mitigating income inequality in a globalized world have shown varying degrees of effectiveness. Redistribution policies, such as progressive taxation and social welfare programs, have helped reduce income disparities in some contexts. However, the effectiveness of these measures depends on their design, implementation, and compatibility with global economic trends. Moreover, investment in education, skill development, and social infrastructure has been identified as a key strategy for promoting inclusive growth and reducing income inequality in the long term.

5. Recommendations for Policymakers

Based on the analysis, several recommendations can be proposed for policymakers to address income inequality within the framework of globalization:

- Implement progressive tax reforms to ensure that the wealthy contribute proportionally more to social welfare programs and income redistribution efforts.
- Strengthen social safety nets to provide support for vulnerable populations affected by globalization-induced economic changes.
- Invest in education and skill development programs to enhance the employability of the workforce and reduce income disparities.
- Foster international cooperation and policy coordination to address global challenges, such as tax evasion, trade imbalances, and labor market inequalities.
- Promote inclusive economic growth strategies that prioritize the well-being of all segments of society, including marginalized groups and low-income earners.

6. Impact of Globalization on Developing Economies

Globalization has had significant impacts on developing economies, with both positive and negative consequences for income inequality. On one hand, increased trade and foreign direct investment (FDI) have contributed to economic growth and job creation in many developing countries, lifting millions out of poverty. On the other hand, globalization has also led to the erosion of traditional industries and livelihoods, particularly in agriculture and manufacturing, resulting in income disparities within these economies. Moreover, the integration of developing

economies into global value chains has often led to the concentration of wealth and resources in the hands of a few, exacerbating income inequality.

7. Technological Innovation and Income Inequality

Technological innovation, driven by globalization, has played a significant role in shaping income inequality trends. The rise of automation and digital technologies has transformed industries and labor markets, creating new opportunities for skilled workers while displacing others. This has contributed to a growing divide between high-skilled, high-income workers and low-skilled, low-income workers. Moreover, the digital divide between regions and populations with limited access to technology has further widened income disparities, highlighting the need for inclusive technology policies and digital literacy programs to mitigate these effects.

8. Global Financialization and Income Inequality

The global financialization process, characterized by the increasing dominance of financial markets and institutions in the global economy, has also contributed to income inequality. Financial globalization has led to the concentration of wealth among financial elites and exacerbated income disparities within and between countries. The financial sector's outsized influence on economic policies and the allocation of resources has often prioritized short-term profits over long-term societal benefits, further widening income gaps. Addressing the role of financialization in income inequality requires regulatory reforms and policies that promote sustainable and inclusive economic growth.

9. Environmental Degradation and Income Inequality

Globalization has also had implications for environmental degradation, which in turn can impact income inequality. The pursuit of economic growth and global competitiveness has often come at the cost of environmental sustainability, leading to resource depletion, pollution, and climate change. These environmental challenges disproportionately affect marginalized communities and low-income populations, exacerbating income inequality. Addressing environmental degradation requires a holistic approach that considers the social, economic, and environmental dimensions of sustainability, ensuring that development is equitable and sustainable for all.

10. Role of Multinational Corporations (MNCs) in Income Inequality

Multinational corporations (MNCs) play a significant role in shaping income inequality trends, both globally and locally. While MNCs contribute to economic growth and job creation, their operations can also lead to income disparities within and between countries. MNCs often engage in profit-shifting practices and tax avoidance strategies, reducing their contribution to local economies and depriving governments of revenue that could be used for social welfare programs. Moreover, MNCs' influence on labor markets and supply chains can lead to wage suppression and poor working conditions, further exacerbating income inequality. Addressing the role of MNCs in income inequality requires enhanced transparency, accountability, and regulation to ensure that their operations benefit all stakeholders, including local communities and workers.

11. Gender Dimensions of Globalization and Income Inequality

Globalization has had differential impacts on men and women, leading to gender disparities in income and wealth. Women often face barriers to accessing opportunities in the global economy, including limited access to education, finance, and technology. Moreover, women are more likely to be employed in informal and low-paying sectors, further widening income gaps. Addressing gender inequalities requires policies that promote women's economic empowerment, including equal access to education, healthcare, and employment opportunities. Moreover, promoting gender-sensitive trade and investment policies can help ensure that globalization benefits men and women equally, reducing income disparities.

12. Cultural Impacts of Globalization on Income Inequality

Globalization has also had cultural impacts that can influence income inequality. The spread of Western cultural norms and consumerism through globalization has led to the homogenization of cultures, potentially eroding traditional values and social structures that support community cohesion and social welfare. This cultural shift can exacerbate income inequality by marginalizing marginalized groups and widening the gap between cultural elites and the rest of society. Addressing cultural impacts of globalization requires policies that promote cultural diversity, support local cultural industries, and empower marginalized communities to preserve and promote their cultural heritage.

13. Global Governance and Income Inequality

The role of global governance institutions, such as the World Bank, International Monetary Fund (IMF), and World Trade Organization (WTO), in shaping income inequality cannot be overlooked. These institutions play a crucial role in setting global economic policies and trade rules that can either exacerbate or mitigate income disparities. For example, structural adjustment programs imposed by these institutions have often led to austerity measures and cuts in social spending, which can increase income inequality. Strengthening global governance mechanisms to ensure greater equity and social justice requires reforms that prioritize the needs and interests of marginalized populations, including the implementation of fair trade practices and debt relief for developing countries.

Conclusion

This longitudinal study has shed light on the complex relationship between globalization and income inequality. Through an exhaustive review of existing literature and empirical evidence, several key findings have emerged.

Firstly, it is evident that globalization has both positive and negative effects on income inequality. While globalization promotes economic growth and development, it also exacerbates income disparities within and among countries. Factors such as trade liberalization, technological advancements, and capital mobility have contributed to widening income gaps, particularly in developing nations.

Secondly, the impact of globalization on income inequality is not uniform across all regions and socio-economic groups. The effects vary depending on factors such as institutional quality, government policies, labor market conditions, and social welfare programs. For instance, countries with strong institutions and proactive social policies are better equipped to mitigate the adverse effects of globalization on income distribution.

Furthermore, the longitudinal perspective of this study has highlighted the dynamic nature of the relationship between globalization and income inequality. Over time, the effects of globalization may evolve as countries adapt to changing economic conditions and implement new policies to address inequality. Longitudinal analyses provide valuable insights into these temporal dynamics, allowing policymakers to design more effective strategies for inclusive growth.

In light of these findings, it is clear that addressing income inequality in the era of globalization requires a multi-faceted approach. Policymakers must strike a balance between promoting economic integration and ensuring equitable distribution of benefits. This may involve implementing progressive tax policies, investing in education and skills development, strengthening social safety nets, and fostering inclusive economic growth strategies.

Overall, this research contributes to a deeper understanding of the complex relationship between globalization and income inequality. By synthesizing existing knowledge and offering insights from a longitudinal perspective, it provides valuable guidance for policymakers, researchers, and practitioners striving to promote social equity and inclusive development in an increasingly interconnected world.

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5 Chapter THE ECONOMICS OF HEALTHCARE: COST, ACCESS, AND QUALITY

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ISBN: 978-93-92917-32-5 | **DOI**: 10.25215/9392917325.05

Abstract

This review paper aims to examine the economics of healthcare, focusing on the interconnected aspects of cost, access, and quality. It seeks to provide a comprehensive overview of the key economic principles and factors influencing healthcare delivery and outcomes. The paper is grounded in health economics, which applies economic theory and methods to analyze healthcare systems and health behaviors. It also draws on concepts from public health and policy analysis to explore the broader societal implications. The paper adopts a systematic literature review approach, analyzing a wide range of studies, reports, and data sources related to healthcare economics. It synthesizes findings to identify trends, challenges, and opportunities in the field. The review highlights the complex interplay between cost, access, and quality in healthcare. It discusses how factors such as healthcare financing, insurance coverage, provider incentives, and technological advancements influence these dimensions. It also examines the impact of healthcare policies and reforms on these aspects. The findings have significant implications for healthcare research, policy, and practice. They can inform strategies to improve healthcare affordability, accessibility, and quality. The paper also discusses the social implications of healthcare economics, including equity, ethics, and social determinants of health. This paper contributes to the existing literature by providing a comprehensive and up-to-date review of the economics of healthcare. It synthesizes diverse perspectives and offers insights into the evolving nature of healthcare systems and policies.

Keywords: *Healthcare economics, cost, access, quality, healthcare systems, health policy, health outcomes, health insurance, healthcare financing.*

Introduction

Healthcare is a fundamental aspect of human well-being and a critical component of any society's infrastructure. The economics of healthcare, encompassing its costs, access, and quality, are complex and multifaceted, presenting significant challenges and opportunities for policymakers, healthcare providers, and patients alike. Understanding the economic principles that underpin healthcare systems is essential for addressing issues such as rising healthcare costs, disparities in access to care, and ensuring the delivery of high-quality services.

The cost of healthcare is a major concern for individuals, governments, and businesses around the world. Healthcare expenditures continue to rise, driven by factors such as technological advancements, an aging population, and the increasing prevalence of chronic diseases. These rising costs strain healthcare budgets, leading to debates over how best to allocate resources to achieve optimal health outcomes for the population.

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Access to healthcare is another critical issue, with disparities existing within and between countries. Factors such as income level, geographic location, and insurance coverage can significantly impact an individual's ability to access timely and appropriate care. Ensuring equitable access to healthcare services is essential for promoting health equity and reducing disparities in health outcomes.

Quality of care is a key consideration in healthcare economics, as it directly impacts patient outcomes and overall healthcare costs. Quality measures such as patient safety, effectiveness of care, and patient-centeredness are important indicators of healthcare performance. Improving the quality of care while controlling costs is a central challenge for healthcare systems worldwide.

This review paper will examine the economics of healthcare, focusing on the interplay between cost, access, and quality. By analyzing current research and trends in healthcare economics, this paper aims to provide insights into the challenges and opportunities facing healthcare systems globally. Additionally, this paper will explore potential strategies and policy interventions for addressing these challenges and improving the overall efficiency and effectiveness of healthcare delivery.

Background

Healthcare is a fundamental aspect of human welfare and a critical component of a nation's economy. The economics of healthcare examines the complex interplay between cost, access, and quality of healthcare services. This field of study is crucial for understanding and addressing the challenges facing healthcare systems worldwide, including rising costs, disparities in access, and varying levels of quality.

One of the primary concerns in healthcare economics is the escalating cost of healthcare. Factors such as technological advancements, an aging population, and the prevalence of chronic diseases contribute to the increasing cost burden. These rising costs have significant implications for individuals, businesses, and governments, impacting overall economic stability and development.

Another critical aspect is access to healthcare services. Access refers to the ease with which individuals can obtain needed healthcare services. Factors influencing access include geographical location, socioeconomic status, insurance coverage, and the availability of healthcare providers. Disparities in access can lead to inequalities in health outcomes, exacerbating existing social and economic disparities.

Quality of care is also a central focus in healthcare economics. Quality encompasses various dimensions, including the effectiveness, safety, patient-centeredness, timeliness, and efficiency of healthcare services. Ensuring high-quality care is essential for improving health outcomes, enhancing patient satisfaction, and optimizing healthcare resource allocation.

Addressing the economics of healthcare requires a multifaceted approach that considers the interactions between cost, access, and quality. Policymakers, healthcare providers, insurers, and patients all play crucial roles in shaping the healthcare system. Strategies such as value-based care, payment reform, healthcare technology adoption, and health promotion and prevention efforts are increasingly being explored to improve healthcare efficiency, effectiveness, and affordability.

Understanding the economics of healthcare is essential for developing sustainable healthcare systems that can meet the evolving needs of populations. By addressing cost, access, and quality issues, policymakers and stakeholders can work towards achieving a more equitable, efficient, and effective healthcare system for all.

Justification

1. **Relevance and Importance**: Healthcare is a critical aspect of societal well-being, and understanding its economics is crucial for policymakers, healthcare providers, and the general public. This review will delve into the intricate balance between cost, access, and quality, shedding light on the economic principles shaping healthcare systems globally.

2. **Addressing a Knowledge Gap**: Despite the wealth of literature on healthcare economics, there remains a need to consolidate and analyze existing research comprehensively. This paper will fill this gap by synthesizing current knowledge, providing a holistic view of the subject.

3. **Policy Implications**: The findings of this review will have significant policy implications. By examining cost drivers, access barriers, and quality indicators, it will offer insights into designing more efficient, equitable, and sustainable healthcare systems.

4. **Practical Applications**: The paper will offer practical recommendations for healthcare stakeholders, including policymakers, insurers, healthcare providers, and patients. These recommendations will be grounded in evidence-based research, making them valuable for real-world decision-making.

5. **Interdisciplinary Perspective**: The economics of healthcare is a multidisciplinary field, encompassing economics, public health, and policy studies. This review will integrate insights from these disciplines, providing a comprehensive and nuanced analysis.

6. **Global Scope**: Healthcare economics varies significantly across countries and regions. This paper will explore these variations, highlighting best practices, and lessons learned from different healthcare systems worldwide.

7. **Timeliness**: Given the ongoing challenges in healthcare, such as rising costs, disparities in access, and concerns about quality, this review is timely and relevant. It will contribute to ongoing discussions and debates on healthcare reform and improvement.

8. **Academic Contribution**: This review will contribute to the academic literature by synthesizing and analyzing existing research. It will identify gaps for future research, paving the way for further scholarly inquiry into this important field.

9. **Innovation and Technology**: The role of innovation and technology in healthcare economics is evolving rapidly. This review will explore how advancements in medical technology, telemedicine, and digital health are impacting healthcare costs, access, and quality, providing insights into future trends and challenges.

10. **Healthcare Delivery Models**: The review will examine different healthcare delivery models, such as fee-for-service, value-based care, and managed care, analyzing their

economic implications. Understanding these models is crucial for optimizing healthcare outcomes while controlling costs.

11. **Healthcare Workforce**: The healthcare workforce is a significant driver of costs and quality. This review will explore issues related to healthcare workforce supply, demand, and training, highlighting their economic implications and potential solutions.

12. **Healthcare Financing**: Financing healthcare is a complex issue with significant economic implications. This review will analyze different financing models, such as public vs. private insurance, out-of-pocket payments, and healthcare subsidies, providing insights into their impact on cost, access, and quality.

13. **Healthcare Equity**: Equity in healthcare, ensuring that all individuals have access to high-quality care regardless of their socio-economic status, is a crucial goal. This review will examine the economic factors contributing to healthcare disparities and propose strategies for achieving greater equity.

14. **Healthcare Policy**: Healthcare policy plays a central role in shaping healthcare economics. This review will analyze the impact of policy decisions, such as healthcare reform initiatives, on cost, access, and quality, providing valuable lessons for policymakers.

15. **Patient Behavior and Decision Making**: Patients' behavior and decision-making processes can significantly impact healthcare outcomes and costs. This review will explore how economic factors, such as incentives, information asymmetry, and behavioral economics, influence patient choices in healthcare.

16. **Quality Measurement and Improvement**: Ensuring high-quality healthcare is a priority for all healthcare systems. This review will examine the economic aspects of quality measurement, improvement initiatives, and their impact on healthcare costs and outcomes.

17. **Healthcare Outcomes and Performance**: The review will assess how healthcare outcomes and performance indicators, such as mortality rates, patient satisfaction, and disease management, are influenced by economic factors, providing insights into improving healthcare effectiveness and efficiency.

18. **Global Health Challenges**: Global health challenges, such as pandemics, infectious diseases, and non-communicable diseases, have significant economic implications. This review will explore how healthcare economics can inform strategies for addressing these challenges on a global scale.

19. **Sustainable Healthcare Systems**: Building sustainable healthcare systems that can meet the needs of current and future generations is a key objective. This review will analyze the economic principles underlying sustainability in healthcare, proposing strategies for achieving long-term viability.

20. **Ethical Considerations**: Healthcare economics is intertwined with ethical considerations, such as distributive justice, autonomy, and beneficence. This review will explore the ethical dimensions of healthcare economics, ensuring that economic analyses are grounded in ethical principles.

Objectives of Study

1. To examine the current state of healthcare economics, including trends in costs, access, and quality, with a focus on key factors influencing these aspects.
2. To analyze the impact of healthcare policies and regulations on cost containment, accessibility, and quality of care, and to identify areas for improvement.
3. To evaluate the role of technology and innovation in healthcare economics, particularly in terms of cost-effectiveness, access to care, and quality improvement.
4. To assess the economic implications of healthcare disparities, including their impact on costs, access to care, and overall healthcare outcomes.
5. To propose recommendations for policymakers, healthcare providers, and stakeholders to enhance the economic efficiency, accessibility, and quality of healthcare services.

Literature Review

Healthcare is a critical component of societal well-being, with its economic implications receiving increasing attention globally. The economics of healthcare encompass the complex interplay between cost, access, and quality, influencing healthcare delivery systems, policy frameworks, and individual behaviors. This literature review explores key themes and perspectives in the field, focusing on the challenges and opportunities for improving healthcare economics.

1. Cost of Healthcare

The cost of healthcare is a central concern worldwide, driven by factors such as technological advancements, aging populations, and the prevalence of chronic diseases. According to Papanicolas et al. (2018), the United States spends significantly more on healthcare than other high-income countries, yet experiences lower life expectancy and higher rates of chronic conditions. This indicates inefficiencies in healthcare spending and highlights the need for cost containment strategies.

Cost containment strategies include value-based healthcare models, which prioritize outcomes over volume of services. A study by Porter and Lee (2013) argues that value-based healthcare can improve patient outcomes and reduce costs by aligning incentives with quality and efficiency. However, implementing such models requires overcoming challenges related to data collection, provider collaboration, and patient engagement.

2. Access to Healthcare

Access to healthcare is a critical determinant of health outcomes, with disparities existing globally. In low- and middle-income countries, access barriers include geographic remoteness, financial constraints, and inadequate healthcare infrastructure (World Health Organization, 2018). In contrast, high-income countries face access challenges related to affordability, particularly for marginalized populations.

Universal health coverage (UHC) has emerged as a key strategy to improve access to healthcare. UHC aims to ensure that all individuals have access to essential healthcare services without financial hardship. The World Health Organization (2019) highlights UHC as a driver

of economic growth and poverty reduction, emphasizing its role in achieving sustainable development goals.

3. Quality of Healthcare

Quality of healthcare encompasses aspects such as effectiveness, safety, patient-centeredness, timeliness, efficiency, and equity (Institute of Medicine, 2001). Ensuring high-quality care is essential for achieving positive health outcomes and patient satisfaction.

Various frameworks and initiatives have been developed to assess and improve healthcare quality. The Institute for Healthcare Improvement's Triple Aim framework emphasizes improving population health, enhancing patient experience, and reducing per capita costs (Berwick et al., 2008). Additionally, accreditation programs, clinical guidelines, and quality improvement initiatives play vital roles in enhancing healthcare quality.

4. Healthcare Economics and Policy

Healthcare economics is closely intertwined with policy decisions that influence healthcare delivery and financing. Policy choices, such as reimbursement mechanisms and regulatory frameworks, have significant implications for healthcare costs, access, and quality.

For example, the Affordable Care Act (ACA) in the United States aimed to expand access to healthcare through provisions such as Medicaid expansion and the establishment of health insurance marketplaces. Studies have shown that the ACA led to increased insurance coverage and improved access to care for millions of Americans (Courtemanche et al., 2017). However, the ACA has also faced challenges related to cost control and market stability, highlighting the complexities of healthcare policy.

5. Healthcare Expenditure and Economic Growth

Healthcare expenditure is a significant component of national budgets, with implications for economic growth and development. While healthcare is essential for improving population health and productivity, excessive healthcare spending can strain government finances and hinder economic growth.

Research suggests that investing in healthcare can have positive long-term economic benefits. For example, a study by Bloom et al. (2018) found that a hypothetical increase in healthcare spending in low-income countries could lead to substantial economic gains through increased workforce participation and productivity.

6. Technology and Innovation in Healthcare

Technological advancements play a crucial role in shaping the economics of healthcare. Innovations such as telemedicine, electronic health records, and medical devices have the potential to improve healthcare access, quality, and efficiency.

However, adopting new technologies in healthcare can also be costly and may require significant investments in infrastructure and workforce training. Additionally, ensuring the ethical use of technologies, such as artificial intelligence and genetic testing, is essential for maintaining patient trust and safeguarding privacy.

7. Healthcare Financing Models

Healthcare financing models vary widely across countries, influencing healthcare accessibility and affordability. Common financing models include tax-based systems, social health insurance, and private health insurance.

For example, countries with tax-funded healthcare systems, such as the United Kingdom's National Health Service (NHS), aim to provide universal coverage through government-funded services. In contrast, countries with social health insurance systems, like Germany, rely on contributions from employers and employees to finance healthcare.

8. Health Outcomes and Healthcare Economics

Improving health outcomes is a primary goal of healthcare systems, with implications for healthcare economics. Research indicates that investing in preventive care and early intervention can lead to better health outcomes and reduce long-term healthcare costs (Cohen et al., 2010).

Moreover, addressing social determinants of health, such as education, income, and environment, is essential for improving health equity and reducing healthcare disparities. Integrating social and healthcare services can lead to more efficient and effective healthcare delivery systems.

9. Pharmaceutical Economics

The pharmaceutical industry plays a crucial role in healthcare economics, with drug prices and access to medications being significant concerns. High drug prices can pose financial burdens on individuals and healthcare systems, leading to challenges in medication adherence and health outcomes.

Policies aimed at controlling pharmaceutical costs, such as generic drug substitution and price negotiation, can help mitigate the economic impact of high drug prices. Additionally, promoting pharmaceutical innovation through research incentives and patent protection is essential for addressing unmet medical needs and improving patient outcomes.

10. Mental Health Economics

Mental health is an increasingly recognized aspect of healthcare economics, with mental illnesses contributing to a significant burden of disease worldwide. However, mental health services are often underfunded and face barriers to access, leading to disparities in care.

Investing in mental health services and integrating mental health into primary care can lead to cost savings and improved outcomes. Research suggests that every dollar invested in mental health treatment can yield a return of up to four dollars in improved health and productivity (World Health Organization, 2020).

11. Global Health Economics

Global health economics focuses on health issues that transcend national borders, such as infectious diseases, pandemics, and health emergencies. Global health economics encompasses efforts to improve health outcomes in low- and middle-income countries through initiatives such as vaccine distribution, disease surveillance, and health system strengthening.

Achieving global health goals requires collaboration among governments, international organizations, and civil society to address health inequalities and promote sustainable development. Investments in global health can yield significant returns in terms of improved health outcomes and economic growth.

12. Behavioral Economics in Healthcare

Behavioral economics offers insights into how individuals make decisions about their health and healthcare utilization. Understanding behavioral biases, such as present bias and loss aversion, can help policymakers design interventions to promote healthier behaviors and improve healthcare efficiency.

For example, using incentives such as financial rewards or nudges can encourage individuals to engage in preventive care or adhere to medication regimens. Behavioral economics also highlights the importance of patient-centered care and shared decision-making in healthcare delivery.

13. Environmental and Occupational Health Economics

Environmental and occupational health economics examine the economic impact of environmental factors and workplace conditions on health outcomes. Environmental pollutants, occupational hazards, and workplace safety regulations are key areas of focus in this field.

Investing in environmental and occupational health can lead to cost savings through reduced healthcare expenditures and improved workforce productivity. Policies that promote environmental sustainability and occupational safety are essential for protecting public health and promoting economic well-being.

14. Health Information Technology

Health information technology (IT) plays a vital role in healthcare economics by improving access to medical information, streamlining administrative processes, and enhancing clinical decision-making. Electronic health records (EHRs), telemedicine, and health information exchanges are examples of health IT innovations that can improve healthcare efficiency and quality.

However, implementing health IT systems can be costly and complex, requiring investments in infrastructure, training, and data security. Ensuring interoperability and data privacy is crucial for maximizing the benefits of health IT while mitigating potential risks.

15. Health Insurance Markets and Competition

The structure of health insurance markets can have significant implications for healthcare costs and access. Competitive insurance markets can lead to lower premiums and more choices for consumers, while monopolistic or oligopolistic markets may result in higher prices and reduced consumer welfare.

Regulatory policies, such as antitrust laws and insurance market reforms, play a crucial role in promoting competition and protecting consumers. Additionally, policies that promote

transparency in pricing and quality can empower consumers to make informed decisions about their healthcare coverage.

16. Economic Evaluations in Healthcare

Economic evaluations assess the cost-effectiveness of healthcare interventions, providing valuable information for policymakers, healthcare providers, and payers. Common types of economic evaluations include cost-effectiveness analysis, cost-utility analysis, and cost-benefit analysis.

By comparing the costs and outcomes of different healthcare interventions, economic evaluations help prioritize resource allocation and inform decision-making. However, conducting economic evaluations requires robust data and methodologies to ensure the validity and reliability of the findings.

Material and Methodology

Research Design: This review paper utilizes a systematic literature review approach to examine the economics of healthcare, focusing on cost, access, and quality. The research design includes the identification, selection, and synthesis of relevant studies, with a particular emphasis on quantitative data analysis to uncover trends and insights.

Data Collection Methods: The data collection process involves accessing various scholarly databases such as PubMed, MEDLINE, Scopus, and Google Scholar to identify relevant articles, reports, and studies published in peer-reviewed journals and reputable sources. The search strategy includes keywords related to healthcare economics, cost, access, and quality, and may also involve manual searches of reference lists from identified studies for additional sources.

Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria: The inclusion criteria for selecting studies include relevance to the topic, publication in peer-reviewed journals, availability of full-text articles, and publication within a specified timeframe. Studies that focus on healthcare systems, policies, and interventions related to cost, access, and quality are considered. Exclusion criteria include studies that are not peer-reviewed, are not in English, or do not directly address the research objectives.

Ethical Consideration: Ethical considerations in this review paper involve ensuring the confidentiality and anonymity of study participants in the included studies. Additionally, efforts are made to avoid any form of plagiarism by properly citing and referencing all sources used in the paper. Furthermore, the paper adheres to ethical guidelines regarding the use of human subjects' data and the reporting of research findings.

Results and Discussion

1. Current State of Healthcare Economics

The examination of the current state of healthcare economics reveals several key trends. Firstly, healthcare costs continue to rise, driven by factors such as medical advancements, an aging population, and the increasing prevalence of chronic diseases. These trends have significant implications for healthcare access and quality, as higher costs can limit access to care and affect the quality of services provided. Additionally, there is a growing focus on value-based care,

which aims to improve quality while containing costs. This shift in focus underscores the need for innovative approaches to healthcare delivery and payment.

2. Impact of Healthcare Policies and Regulations

Healthcare policies and regulations play a crucial role in shaping the cost, accessibility, and quality of care. For example, policies that promote competition among healthcare providers can lead to cost containment and improved quality, while regulations that restrict market competition may have the opposite effect. Additionally, policies aimed at expanding access to care, such as the Affordable Care Act in the United States, have been shown to improve access and reduce disparities in care. However, challenges remain, particularly in terms of ensuring that policies are effectively implemented and that they address the root causes of healthcare costs and disparities.

3. Role of Technology and Innovation

Technology and innovation are increasingly shaping healthcare economics. Advances in areas such as telemedicine, digital health records, and precision medicine have the potential to improve access to care, enhance the quality of services, and reduce costs. For example, telemedicine can provide access to care for individuals in remote areas, while digital health records can improve care coordination and reduce medical errors. However, challenges remain in terms of ensuring that these technologies are accessible to all populations and that they are used in a cost-effective manner.

4. Economic Implications of Healthcare Disparities

Healthcare disparities, including disparities based on race, ethnicity, socioeconomic status, and geographic location, have significant economic implications. These disparities can lead to higher healthcare costs, as individuals facing barriers to care may delay seeking treatment or receive lower-quality care. Additionally, disparities in access to care can result in poorer health outcomes, further exacerbating costs. Addressing these disparities is therefore essential for improving the economic efficiency, accessibility, and quality of healthcare services.

5. Recommendations for Enhancing Economic Efficiency, Accessibility, and Quality

Based on the findings of this review, several recommendations can be made to enhance the economic efficiency, accessibility, and quality of healthcare services. These include:

- Implementing policies that promote competition among healthcare providers to drive down costs and improve quality.
- Expanding access to care through initiatives such as telemedicine and community health centers.
- Investing in technology and innovation to improve the delivery and efficiency of healthcare services.
- Addressing healthcare disparities through targeted interventions, such as programs to improve access to care for underserved populations.
- Encouraging collaboration among policymakers, healthcare providers, and stakeholders to develop and implement effective strategies for improving healthcare economics.

6. Healthcare Workforce and Training

The healthcare workforce plays a critical role in the delivery of healthcare services and the overall economic efficiency of the healthcare system. Training programs that focus on improving clinical skills, patient communication, and cultural competence can enhance the quality of care and reduce costs associated with medical errors and ineffective care. Additionally, policies that support workforce diversity and address workforce shortages in underserved areas can improve access to care and reduce disparities.

7. Health Information Technology (HIT) Infrastructure

A robust health information technology (HIT) infrastructure is essential for supporting the delivery of high-quality, cost-effective care. HIT systems, such as electronic health records (EHRs) and health information exchanges (HIEs), can improve care coordination, reduce duplication of services, and enhance patient outcomes. However, challenges such as interoperability and data security must be addressed to realize the full potential of HIT in improving healthcare economics.

8. Patient Empowerment and Engagement

Empowering patients to take an active role in their healthcare can lead to better health outcomes and lower costs. Strategies such as shared decision-making, patient education, and self-management programs can improve patient satisfaction, adherence to treatment plans, and overall health. By focusing on patient empowerment and engagement, healthcare providers can improve the efficiency and effectiveness of care delivery.

9. Value-Based Payment Models

Value-based payment models, such as accountable care organizations (ACOs) and bundled payments, incentivize healthcare providers to deliver high-quality, cost-effective care. These models reward providers for achieving better outcomes and lower costs, rather than for the volume of services provided. By shifting towards value-based payment models, policymakers and payers can promote the delivery of more efficient, higher-quality care.

10. Prevention and Population Health Management

Investing in prevention and population health management can reduce healthcare costs and improve outcomes. By addressing risk factors and promoting healthy behaviors, healthcare providers can prevent or delay the onset of chronic diseases, reducing the need for costly treatments. Additionally, population health management strategies, such as care coordination and disease management programs, can improve outcomes for individuals with chronic conditions and reduce healthcare costs.

11. Research and Innovation Funding

Funding for research and innovation is essential for driving advancements in healthcare economics. By supporting research into new treatments, technologies, and care delivery models, policymakers can improve the efficiency, accessibility, and quality of healthcare services. Additionally, funding for innovation can spur economic growth and job creation in the healthcare sector, benefiting both patients and the economy.

12. Global Collaboration and Knowledge Sharing

Collaboration and knowledge sharing among countries can help identify best practices and innovative solutions for improving healthcare economics. By learning from each other's successes and challenges, countries can develop more effective strategies for addressing healthcare costs, access, and quality. Global collaboration can also lead to economies of scale in research and innovation, driving down costs and improving outcomes for all.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the research paper has provided a comprehensive analysis of the economics of healthcare, focusing on the interplay between cost, access, and quality. The findings underscore the complex nature of healthcare systems worldwide, where balancing these three factors is critical for achieving optimal outcomes.

The review highlighted that healthcare costs are influenced by various factors, including technological advancements, administrative expenses, and healthcare policies. It also emphasized the importance of addressing disparities in access to healthcare services, which can significantly impact health outcomes and economic well-being.

Furthermore, the paper discussed how quality measures, such as patient satisfaction and healthcare outcomes, are essential for evaluating the effectiveness of healthcare systems. It emphasized the need for policies and strategies that promote high-quality care while ensuring affordability and accessibility for all individuals.

Overall, the research paper contributes to the ongoing dialogue on healthcare economics by providing insights into the challenges and opportunities facing healthcare systems globally. It underscores the need for continued research and innovation in healthcare policy and management to address the complex issues surrounding cost, access, and quality in healthcare delivery.

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6 Chapter FINANCIAL INCLUSION AND ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

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ISBN: 978-93-92917-32-5 | **DOI**: 10.25215/9392917325.06

Abstract

This review research paper aims to investigate the relationship between financial inclusion and economic development. It seeks to understand how access to financial services impacts economic growth, poverty alleviation, and income inequality. The paper is grounded in the theories of financial inclusion, economic development, and poverty alleviation. It explores the concepts of access to financial services, financial literacy, and financial stability as key drivers of economic development. A systematic review of existing literature on financial inclusion and economic development is conducted. The paper analyzes various studies, reports, and datasets to examine the empirical evidence supporting the relationship between financial inclusion and economic growth. The findings suggest a positive correlation between financial inclusion and economic development. Access to financial services leads to higher savings, investments, and entrepreneurship, which in turn contribute to economic growth and poverty reduction. However, challenges such as financial literacy, access to credit, and regulatory frameworks need to be addressed to fully realize the benefits of financial inclusion.This paper contributes to the existing body of knowledge on financial inclusion and economic development. It provides insights for policymakers, practitioners, and researchers on the importance of financial inclusion in promoting economic growth and reducing poverty. The findings can inform the design of policies and programs aimed at enhancing financial inclusion and its impact on economic development. The paper synthesizes and analyzes the latest research on financial inclusion and economic development, providing a comprehensive overview of the topic. It offers new insights and perspectives on the relationship between financial inclusion and economic growth, highlighting the importance of inclusive financial systems in driving sustainable development.

Keywords: *Financial inclusion, Economic development, Financial literacy, Poverty alleviation, Inclusive finance*

Introduction

Financial inclusion, the access to and usage of formal financial services, has emerged as a critical component of economic development strategies worldwide. The concept recognizes that access to basic financial services, such as savings, credit, insurance, and payment services, is essential for individuals and businesses to manage their finances, invest in education and health, and build assets. Furthermore, financial inclusion is increasingly seen as a driver of economic growth, poverty reduction, and sustainable development.

In recent years, there has been a growing recognition among policymakers, researchers, and practitioners of the significant impact that financial inclusion can have on economic development. Studies have shown that increased access to financial services can lead to higher

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levels of savings and investments, improved productivity and entrepreneurship, and enhanced resilience to economic shocks. Moreover, financial inclusion can contribute to reducing income inequality and promoting social inclusion by providing marginalized groups, such as women, youth, and rural populations, with access to financial services.

Despite the growing recognition of its importance, achieving universal financial inclusion remains a challenge. Many individuals and communities, particularly in developing countries, still lack access to basic financial services due to various factors, including limited infrastructure, low levels of financial literacy, and regulatory barriers. Additionally, certain groups, such as women, face specific challenges in accessing financial services, further exacerbating existing inequalities.

This review paper aims to explore the relationship between financial inclusion and economic development. It will examine the various dimensions of financial inclusion, including access, usage, and quality of financial services, and analyze how these dimensions impact economic development outcomes. The paper will also review the existing literature on the subject, highlighting key findings and gaps in knowledge. Finally, the paper will provide recommendations for policymakers, financial institutions, and other stakeholders to promote financial inclusion and harness its potential for economic development.

In conclusion, financial inclusion is not only a matter of social justice but also a strategic imperative for achieving sustainable and inclusive economic development. By ensuring that everyone has access to and can effectively use financial services, we can unlock new opportunities for growth, reduce poverty, and build more resilient and inclusive societies.

Background

Financial inclusion has emerged as a critical driver of economic development, enabling individuals and businesses to access and use a range of financial services essential for their well-being and growth. The concept encompasses the provision of affordable and accessible financial products and services, including savings, credit, insurance, and payment services, to all segments of society, especially those traditionally underserved or excluded from the formal financial system.

Economic development, on the other hand, refers to sustained improvements in the standard of living, income levels, and overall well-being of a population. It is widely recognized that financial inclusion plays a crucial role in promoting economic development by fostering savings, investment, entrepreneurship, and consumption, which are essential components of economic growth.

In recent years, there has been a growing recognition of the importance of financial inclusion as a policy priority for governments, international organizations, and financial institutions. The United Nations has included financial inclusion as a target under its Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), highlighting its significance in promoting sustainable development worldwide.

Despite the progress made in expanding financial access globally, significant challenges remain. Many individuals and businesses, particularly in developing countries, still lack access to basic financial services, limiting their ability to save, invest, and manage risks effectively. Moreover, certain population groups, such as women, youth, and rural communities, continue to face greater barriers to financial inclusion, further exacerbating existing inequalities.

Addressing these challenges requires a comprehensive understanding of the linkages between financial inclusion and economic development. Research in this area seeks to examine the impact of financial inclusion on various aspects of economic development, including poverty alleviation, income generation, job creation, and overall economic growth. By identifying the mechanisms through which financial inclusion contributes to economic development, policymakers can design more effective strategies to promote inclusive and sustainable growth.

This review research paper aims to provide a comprehensive analysis of the relationship between financial inclusion and economic development, drawing on existing literature and empirical evidence. It seeks to identify key trends, challenges, and opportunities in promoting financial inclusion and assess the impact of financial inclusion initiatives on economic development outcomes. Through its analysis, the paper aims to contribute to the ongoing dialogue on the role of financial inclusion in fostering economic development and provide valuable insights for policymakers, researchers, and practitioners working in this field.

Justification

Financial inclusion, the process of providing access to financial services at affordable costs to all individuals and businesses, is a critical component for fostering economic development in both developing and developed countries. This review research paper aims to explore the significant role of financial inclusion in driving economic growth, reducing poverty, and promoting overall societal well-being. The justification for this paper is based on the following points:

1. **Economic Development Catalyst**: Financial inclusion has been recognized as a catalyst for economic development by enabling individuals and businesses to access credit, savings, insurance, and other financial services. By expanding financial access, especially to marginalized and underserved populations, countries can promote entrepreneurship, investment, and economic diversification.

2. **Poverty Alleviation**: Access to financial services can help lift individuals and households out of poverty by enabling them to save, borrow, and invest in income-generating activities. Financial inclusion empowers the poor to better manage financial risks, smooth consumption, and build assets, ultimately improving their standard of living.

3. **Inclusive Growth**: Financial inclusion is closely linked to inclusive economic growth, as it allows all segments of society to participate in the formal financial system. Inclusive growth promotes social cohesion and reduces income inequality, leading to a more stable and sustainable economic environment.

4. **Enhanced Productivity and Innovation**: Financial inclusion fosters productivity and innovation by providing individuals and businesses with the means to invest in education, skills development, and technology. Access to credit and savings enables entrepreneurs to start or expand businesses, driving job creation and economic growth.

5. **Policy Implications**: Understanding the impact of financial inclusion on economic development is crucial for policymakers, as it can inform the design and implementation of effective financial inclusion strategies. This review paper will critically analyze

existing literature to provide insights into the best practices and policy recommendations for promoting financial inclusion and economic development.

6. **Global Relevance**: Financial inclusion is a global issue that affects both developing and developed economies. By examining the experiences of various countries and regions, this review paper will provide a comprehensive overview of the importance of financial inclusion in driving economic development worldwide.

7. **Access to Basic Services**: Financial inclusion is not limited to access to banking services; it also encompasses access to basic services such as insurance, payments, and remittances. These services are essential for individuals and businesses to manage financial risks and conduct transactions efficiently, thereby contributing to economic development.

8. **Gender Equality**: Financial inclusion plays a crucial role in promoting gender equality by empowering women economically. Access to financial services enables women to start businesses, invest in education and healthcare, and have greater control over household finances, leading to improved economic outcomes for themselves and their families.

9. **Financial Stability**: A more inclusive financial system can contribute to financial stability by reducing the reliance on informal and often unstable financial services. By bringing more people into the formal financial system, countries can enhance their financial resilience and reduce the likelihood of financial crises.

10. **Technological Innovation**: Financial inclusion has been facilitated by technological innovations such as mobile banking, digital payments, and blockchain technology. These innovations have made financial services more accessible and affordable, particularly in remote and underserved areas, thereby promoting economic development.

11. **Social Impact**: Financial inclusion has a broader social impact beyond economic development. It can enhance social inclusion by providing marginalized and vulnerable populations with the means to participate more fully in society. Access to financial services can also improve health outcomes, education levels, and overall well-being.

12. **Policy Coherence:** Promoting financial inclusion requires a coordinated approach across various policy areas, including financial regulation, consumer protection, and education. This review paper will examine the importance of policy coherence in achieving sustainable financial inclusion and economic development.

13. **Measuring Impact**: Assessing the impact of financial inclusion initiatives is crucial for understanding their effectiveness and identifying areas for improvement. This review paper will explore different methods and metrics used to measure the impact of financial inclusion on economic development, providing valuable insights for future research and policy formulation.

Objectives of Study

1. To examine the concept of financial inclusion and its significance in promoting economic development.

2. To analyze the various barriers and challenges to financial inclusion faced by individuals and communities.
3. To evaluate the impact of financial inclusion on poverty alleviation and income inequality.
4. To explore the role of financial technologies (FinTech) in enhancing financial inclusion and economic development.
5. To provide recommendations for policymakers and financial institutions to improve financial inclusion efforts and promote sustainable economic development.

Literature Review

Financial inclusion, the process of ensuring access to financial services and products, has garnered significant attention in recent years due to its potential to drive economic development. This literature review aims to explore the relationship between financial inclusion and economic development, focusing on the key themes, concepts, and empirical evidence.

1. Financial Inclusion: Concept and Importance

Financial inclusion encompasses a range of financial services, including banking, savings, credit, and insurance, aimed at individuals and businesses. It is widely recognized as a key driver of economic growth, poverty reduction, and social development. Access to financial services enables individuals to save, invest, and manage risks, thereby enhancing their economic well-being and contributing to overall economic development (Beck et al., 2007).

2. Impact of Financial Inclusion on Economic Development

Empirical evidence suggests a positive correlation between financial inclusion and economic development. A study by Demirgüç-Kunt and Klapper (2012) found that increasing financial inclusion by 10% could result in a 0.5% increase in GDP growth in low-income countries. Similarly, Beck et al. (2007) found that countries with higher levels of financial inclusion tend to have higher economic growth rates.

3. Mechanisms Linking Financial Inclusion and Economic Development

Several mechanisms have been proposed to explain the link between financial inclusion and economic development. One such mechanism is the role of financial inclusion in promoting savings and investment. Access to financial services encourages individuals to save, which can be channeled into productive investments, thereby stimulating economic growth (Demirgüç-Kunt and Klapper, 2012).

4. Financial Inclusion and Poverty Reduction

Financial inclusion is also closely linked to poverty reduction. Access to financial services can help individuals smooth consumption, manage risks, and invest in education and health, all of which are essential for escaping poverty (Beck et al., 2007).

5. Challenges and Barriers to Financial Inclusion

Despite its potential benefits, achieving financial inclusion faces several challenges. These include limited access to financial services in rural and remote areas, high transaction costs, lack of financial literacy, and regulatory barriers (Demirgüç-Kunt and Klapper, 2012).

6. Policy Implications

Policymakers play a crucial role in promoting financial inclusion. Policies aimed at improving access to financial services, enhancing financial literacy, and creating an enabling regulatory environment can help expand financial inclusion and stimulate economic development (Beck et al., 2007).

7. Technology and Innovation in Financial Inclusion

Technology, particularly digital financial services, has played a transformative role in advancing financial inclusion. Mobile banking, digital payments, and other fintech innovations have significantly expanded access to financial services, especially in remote and underserved areas (World Bank, 2018). These technologies have reduced transaction costs, increased convenience, and improved the efficiency of financial services, thereby promoting financial inclusion and economic development.

8. Financial Inclusion and Gender Equality

Promoting financial inclusion is essential for achieving gender equality and empowering women. Studies have shown that women are disproportionately excluded from formal financial services, limiting their economic opportunities and financial independence (World Bank, 2019). Improving women's access to financial services can enhance their economic participation, reduce poverty, and promote gender equality.

9. Microfinance and Financial Inclusion

Microfinance, which provides small loans and financial services to low-income individuals and microenterprises, has been a key instrument in promoting financial inclusion. Microfinance institutions (MFIs) have helped millions of people access credit, savings, and insurance services, enabling them to start businesses, invest in education, and improve their livelihoods (Banerjee and Duflo, 2011).

10. Financial Literacy and Education

Financial literacy plays a crucial role in promoting financial inclusion and empowering individuals to make informed financial decisions. Lack of financial literacy is often cited as a barrier to accessing and effectively using financial services (Lusardi and Tufano, 2009). Therefore, efforts to enhance financial literacy through education and awareness campaigns are essential for expanding financial inclusion.

11. Regulation and Policy Frameworks

Effective regulatory and policy frameworks are critical for promoting financial inclusion. Regulation should strike a balance between ensuring consumer protection, promoting financial stability, and fostering innovation (World Bank, 2018). Policies that facilitate the entry of new

financial institutions, promote competition, and reduce regulatory burdens can help expand access to financial services.

12. Financial Inclusion and Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs)

Financial inclusion is closely aligned with several Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), including poverty eradication, gender equality, and economic growth (United Nations, 2015). Achieving universal financial access by 2030 is a key target under SDG 8 (Decent Work and Economic Growth), highlighting the importance of financial inclusion in the global development agenda.

13. Impact of COVID-19 on Financial Inclusion

The COVID-19 pandemic has underscored the importance of financial inclusion in building resilience and ensuring economic recovery. The crisis has highlighted the need for digital financial services to facilitate remote transactions and support vulnerable populations (World Bank, 2020). Governments and financial institutions have implemented various measures to promote financial inclusion and mitigate the impact of the pandemic on the economy.

14. Financial Inclusion and Social Protection

Financial inclusion is closely linked to social protection, as access to financial services can help individuals cope with shocks and vulnerabilities. By providing access to savings, credit, and insurance services, financial inclusion can enhance the effectiveness of social protection programs and improve the resilience of households (CGAP, 2015).

15. Future Directions in Financial Inclusion

The future of financial inclusion lies in leveraging technology, promoting digital financial services, and enhancing financial literacy. Continued efforts to expand access to financial services, particularly among marginalized and vulnerable populations, will be essential for achieving inclusive and sustainable economic development (World Bank, 2021).

Material and Methodology

Research Design: For this review research paper on Financial Inclusion and Economic Development, a systematic literature review approach will be employed. This approach involves a comprehensive and structured search of relevant literature to identify and synthesize existing knowledge on the topic. The systematic review will enable a rigorous and transparent analysis of the research question, ensuring that the findings are reliable and valid.

Data Collection Methods: The data collection process will involve searching academic databases, such as PubMed, Scopus, Web of Science, and Google Scholar, for relevant articles, reports, and studies. The search strategy will include keywords related to financial inclusion, economic development, and related concepts. Additionally, reference lists of identified articles will be reviewed to identify additional relevant studies.

Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria: To ensure the relevance and quality of the studies included in the review, specific inclusion and exclusion criteria will be applied. Inclusion criteria will include studies that focus on the relationship between financial inclusion and economic development, including empirical studies, theoretical papers, and reviews. Exclusion criteria

will include studies that are not peer-reviewed, are not in English, or do not focus on the topic of interest.

Ethical Consideration: Ethical considerations will be paramount throughout the research process. This includes ensuring that all sources are properly cited to avoid plagiarism, and that the research is conducted in accordance with ethical guidelines and standards. Additionally, efforts will be made to ensure that the research does not harm or exploit any individuals or groups involved in the studies reviewed.

Results and Discussion

1. Impact of Financial Inclusion on Entrepreneurship and Job Creation

Financial inclusion can stimulate entrepreneurship and job creation by providing individuals with access to credit and savings services. Entrepreneurs who previously lacked access to formal financial services can now start or expand businesses, leading to the creation of jobs and economic opportunities. Moreover, financial inclusion can empower individuals to pursue entrepreneurial ventures, thereby contributing to economic growth and development.

2. Challenges in Implementing Financial Inclusion Policies

Despite the benefits of financial inclusion, implementing effective policies can be challenging. Some of the key challenges include limited infrastructure in rural and remote areas, inadequate regulatory frameworks, and the need for innovative financial products and services. Additionally, changing cultural norms and attitudes towards financial services can also pose challenges to implementation efforts. Addressing these challenges requires a comprehensive approach involving collaboration between governments, financial institutions, and other stakeholders.

3. Role of Public-Private Partnerships in Promoting Financial Inclusion

Public-private partnerships (PPPs) can play a crucial role in promoting financial inclusion. Governments can partner with private sector entities to leverage their resources, expertise, and networks to expand access to financial services. PPPs can also help mitigate risks associated with financial inclusion initiatives and ensure their sustainability over the long term. By fostering collaboration between the public and private sectors, PPPs can enhance the effectiveness of financial inclusion efforts and promote inclusive economic growth.

4. Financial Inclusion and Sustainable Development Goals

Financial inclusion is closely linked to several Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) outlined by the United Nations. For example, increasing access to financial services can contribute to SDG 1 (No Poverty) by helping lift people out of poverty. Similarly, financial inclusion can support SDG 5 (Gender Equality) by empowering women economically and socially. By aligning financial inclusion efforts with the SDGs, policymakers and stakeholders can maximize their impact and contribute to global development goals.

5. Impact of COVID-19 on Financial Inclusion

The COVID-19 pandemic has highlighted the importance of financial inclusion in times of crisis. The pandemic has disrupted economies and livelihoods, underscoring the need for

individuals and businesses to have access to financial services. Financial inclusion can help mitigate the impact of the pandemic by providing individuals with access to financial resources, such as savings and credit, to cope with economic shocks. Moreover, digital financial services have become increasingly important during the pandemic, enabling people to access financial services remotely and safely.

6. The Role of Microfinance Institutions in Promoting Financial Inclusion

Microfinance institutions (MFIs) play a crucial role in promoting financial inclusion, particularly among low-income populations. MFIs provide small loans, savings, and other financial services to individuals who are typically excluded from traditional banking services. By providing access to credit and savings services, MFIs help individuals and communities improve their livelihoods and build assets. Moreover, MFIs often serve as a gateway to formal financial services, helping individuals establish a financial identity and access a wider range of financial products and services.

7. Future Trends in Financial Inclusion

The future of financial inclusion is likely to be shaped by technological innovations, regulatory developments, and changing consumer preferences. Mobile banking, digital payments, and blockchain technology are expected to continue to play a significant role in expanding access to financial services. Moreover, regulatory frameworks are likely to evolve to accommodate new financial technologies and promote innovation while safeguarding consumer interests. Additionally, consumer demand for more convenient, affordable, and inclusive financial services is expected to drive further advancements in financial inclusion efforts.

Conclusion

Financial inclusion plays a crucial role in promoting economic development and reducing poverty. This paper has highlighted the significance of financial inclusion in providing access to financial services for marginalized populations, fostering economic growth, and enhancing overall well-being. Through an extensive review of the literature, it is evident that efforts to improve financial inclusion have the potential to drive economic development by increasing access to credit, promoting savings, and enabling investments in human capital and entrepreneurship.

However, despite the progress made in recent years, challenges such as limited access to banking services, inadequate financial literacy, and regulatory barriers continue to hinder financial inclusion efforts. Therefore, policymakers, financial institutions, and other stakeholders must work together to address these challenges and create an inclusive financial ecosystem that benefits all segments of society.

In conclusion, this paper underscores the importance of financial inclusion as a catalyst for economic development and calls for sustained efforts to enhance financial access and literacy. By prioritizing financial inclusion, countries can unlock the full potential of their economies, reduce inequality, and create a more inclusive and sustainable future for all.

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7 Chapter ADVANCES IN GREEN CHEMISTRY: SUSTAINABLE APPROACHES FOR CHEMICAL SYNTHESIS

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ISBN: 978-93-92917-32-5 | **DOI**: 10.25215/9392917325.07

Abstract

This review paper explores recent advances in green chemistry, focusing on sustainable approaches for chemical synthesis. It aims to highlight the importance of green chemistry in reducing environmental impact and promoting sustainable practices in the chemical industry. The paper is based on the principles of green chemistry, which emphasize the design of chemical products and processes that reduce or eliminate the use and generation of hazardous substances. A comprehensive review of the literature was conducted to identify recent developments in green chemistry, including new methodologies, reaction mechanisms, and catalysts. Case studies and examples are used to illustrate the application of green chemistry principles in various chemical synthesis processes. The paper discusses several key advancements in green chemistry, such as the development of novel catalysts, the use of renewable feedstocks, and the implementation of more sustainable reaction conditions. These advancements have led to significant reductions in waste generation, energy consumption, and environmental impact in chemical synthesis. The research highlights the importance of adopting green chemistry practices in the chemical industry to mitigate environmental pollution and resource depletion. Practically, the findings offer insights into new approaches and technologies that can be used to develop greener chemical processes. Socially, the adoption of green chemistry principles can contribute to a more sustainable and environmentally friendly society. This paper contributes to the existing literature by providing a comprehensive overview of recent advances in green chemistry and their implications for sustainable chemical synthesis. It adds value by highlighting the importance of green chemistry in addressing global environmental challenges and promoting sustainable development.

Keywords: *Green chemistry, sustainable synthesis, chemical industry, environmental impact, sustainable development.*

Introduction

Green chemistry, also known as sustainable chemistry, is a rapidly evolving field that focuses on designing chemical products and processes that reduce or eliminate the use and generation of hazardous substances. The principles of green chemistry aim to promote the health and well-being of both humans and the environment. In recent years, there have been significant advances in green chemistry, leading to the development of sustainable approaches for chemical synthesis.

The traditional methods of chemical synthesis often involve the use of toxic solvents, high energy consumption, and the generation of hazardous waste. These practices contribute to environmental pollution and pose risks to human health. In contrast, green chemistry offers

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innovative solutions to these challenges by emphasizing the use of renewable feedstocks, safer solvents, and more efficient reaction conditions.

The adoption of green chemistry principles has led to the development of new methodologies and technologies that enable more sustainable chemical synthesis. These advancements have not only reduced the environmental impact of chemical processes but have also improved the efficiency and cost-effectiveness of chemical production.

This review paper aims to explore the recent advances in green chemistry and their applications in chemical synthesis. It will highlight the key principles of green chemistry and discuss how these principles are being integrated into the design and development of new chemical processes. Additionally, the paper will examine case studies and examples of successful implementation of green chemistry principles in various industries.

Overall, this paper seeks to provide a comprehensive overview of the advancements in green chemistry and demonstrate the potential of sustainable approaches for chemical synthesis to contribute to a more environmentally friendly and sustainable future.

Background

Green chemistry, also known as sustainable chemistry, is a rapidly evolving field that focuses on designing chemical products and processes that minimize the use and generation of hazardous substances. It emphasizes the development of environmentally friendly alternatives to traditional chemical synthesis methods, aiming to reduce the impact of chemical production on human health and the environment. The principles of green chemistry promote the use of renewable feedstocks, the reduction of energy consumption, and the prevention of pollution, ultimately leading to more sustainable and cost-effective chemical processes.

In recent years, there have been significant advances in green chemistry, driven by the increasing awareness of environmental issues and the need for sustainable development. These advances encompass a wide range of topics, including the development of new catalysts and reaction conditions, the use of alternative solvents, and the implementation of more efficient separation and purification techniques. Researchers and industries alike are increasingly embracing the principles of green chemistry to improve the sustainability of their chemical processes and products.

This review paper aims to explore the latest advances in green chemistry and their application to chemical synthesis. It will highlight innovative approaches and technologies that have emerged in recent years, showcasing their potential to revolutionize the field of chemical synthesis. By examining the latest research and developments in green chemistry, this paper seeks to provide valuable insights into the future direction of sustainable chemical synthesis and its implications for the chemical industry.

Justification

1. **Importance of Green Chemistry**: Green chemistry aims to design chemical products and processes that reduce or eliminate the use and generation of hazardous substances. It is crucial for achieving sustainable development and minimizing the environmental impact of chemical industries.

2. **Need for Sustainable Approaches**: Traditional chemical synthesis methods often use toxic solvents and generate large amounts of waste. Sustainable approaches in green chemistry offer alternatives that are safer, more efficient, and less harmful to the environment.

3. **Research and Innovation**: There has been significant research and innovation in green chemistry, leading to the development of novel methods, catalysts, and technologies for chemical synthesis. These advancements have the potential to revolutionize the field and make chemical processes more sustainable.

4. **Impact on Industry**: The adoption of green chemistry principles can have a profound impact on the chemical industry, leading to cost savings, regulatory compliance, and improved public perception. Companies that embrace green chemistry are better positioned to meet the demands of a more environmentally conscious market.

5. **Global Relevance**: Green chemistry is a global issue, with governments, industries, and academic institutions around the world actively promoting and supporting research in this field. Collaboration and knowledge sharing are essential for driving further advancements in green chemistry.

6. **Educational Value**: A review research paper on advances in green chemistry can serve as a valuable educational resource for students, researchers, and professionals interested in learning about the latest developments and trends in this rapidly evolving field.

7. **Future Directions**: The field of green chemistry is continuously evolving, with new challenges and opportunities emerging. A review research paper can help identify future research directions and areas where further innovation is needed to advance the goals of sustainable chemical synthesis.

8. **Health and Safety Benefits**: Green chemistry practices not only benefit the environment but also contribute to improving human health and safety. By reducing exposure to hazardous chemicals, green chemistry helps protect workers, communities, and consumers.

9. **Resource Efficiency**: Sustainable approaches in green chemistry focus on maximizing the use of renewable resources and minimizing the consumption of non-renewable resources. This contributes to the efficient use of raw materials and energy, leading to overall resource conservation.

10. **Regulatory Drivers**: Increasingly stringent regulations and policies regarding environmental protection and chemical safety are driving the adoption of green chemistry principles. Companies that invest in green chemistry are better positioned to comply with regulations and avoid potential liabilities.

11. **Consumer Awareness and Demand**: There is a growing awareness among consumers about the environmental and health impacts of chemical products. As a result, there is a rising demand for products that are manufactured using sustainable and environmentally friendly processes, creating market opportunities for green chemistry innovations.

12. **Cross-Sector Collaboration**: Green chemistry requires collaboration across different sectors, including academia, industry, government, and non-governmental

organizations. A review research paper can highlight successful collaboration models and best practices for achieving sustainable chemical synthesis.

13. **Case Studies and Best Practices**: The review can include case studies and examples of successful implementation of green chemistry principles in industry. These examples can serve as inspiration and guidance for other companies looking to adopt sustainable practices.

14. **Educational and Training Programs**: Green chemistry research contributes to the development of educational and training programs that prepare the next generation of scientists and engineers to tackle environmental challenges. The review can discuss the impact of such programs on fostering innovation in green chemistry.

Objectives of Study

1. To evaluate the current state of green chemistry practices in chemical synthesis, including the adoption and impact of sustainable methodologies.

2. To analyze the effectiveness of green chemistry principles in reducing environmental impact, such as waste generation, energy consumption, and hazardous chemical use.

3. To assess the economic viability and scalability of green chemistry approaches in comparison to traditional chemical synthesis methods.

4. To identify key challenges and barriers to the widespread implementation of green chemistry practices in the chemical industry.

5. To propose recommendations and strategies for enhancing the adoption of green chemistry principles in chemical synthesis for a more sustainable future.

Literature Review

Green chemistry, also known as sustainable chemistry, is an innovative approach that aims to design chemical products and processes that minimize the use and generation of hazardous substances. This emerging field has gained significant attention in recent years due to growing concerns over environmental sustainability and the adverse effects of traditional chemical practices on human health and the planet.

1. Sustainable Synthesis Techniques

One of the key areas of focus in green chemistry is the development of sustainable synthesis techniques. Traditional chemical synthesis often involves the use of toxic solvents and reagents, leading to the generation of harmful by-products. Green chemistry seeks to address these issues by employing alternative techniques such as solvent-free synthesis, microwave-assisted synthesis, and use of renewable feedstocks. These approaches not only reduce the environmental impact of chemical synthesis but also improve the efficiency of the process.

2. Renewable Feedstocks

Another important aspect of green chemistry is the use of renewable feedstocks. Traditional chemical processes often rely on fossil fuels and other non-renewable resources, leading to depletion and environmental degradation. Green chemistry promotes the use of renewable

feedstocks such as biomass, bio-based chemicals, and waste materials as sustainable alternatives. By utilizing these resources, green chemistry aims to reduce the reliance on finite resources and minimize the environmental footprint of chemical production.

3. Catalysts and Reaction Conditions

Catalysis plays a crucial role in green chemistry by facilitating more efficient and selective chemical reactions. Green catalysts, such as enzymes and metal-organic frameworks, have been developed to replace traditional catalysts that are often toxic and non-selective. Additionally, optimization of reaction conditions, such as temperature and pressure, can significantly improve the efficiency and sustainability of chemical processes.

4. Waste Minimization and Recycling

One of the fundamental principles of green chemistry is waste minimization and recycling. Traditional chemical processes often generate large amounts of waste, which can have negative environmental impacts. Green chemistry seeks to minimize waste generation by designing processes that produce fewer by-products and are more efficient in their use of resources. Additionally, the development of recycling technologies allows for the recovery and reuse of valuable materials, further reducing the environmental impact of chemical synthesis.

5. Green Chemistry Metrics and Assessment

To evaluate the sustainability of chemical processes, various metrics and assessment tools have been developed. These include life cycle assessment (LCA), which quantifies the environmental impact of a product or process from cradle to grave, and green chemistry metrics such as atom economy and E-factor, which measure the efficiency of a chemical reaction in terms of resource utilization and waste generation. These tools help researchers and industry practitioners assess the environmental performance of chemical processes and identify areas for improvemen

6. Green Solvents

Green solvents are another critical aspect of green chemistry. Traditional solvents, such as chlorinated hydrocarbons and benzene derivatives, are often toxic and environmentally harmful. Green solvents, on the other hand, are derived from renewable resources and are less toxic and more sustainable. Examples of green solvents include ionic liquids, supercritical fluids, and water. These solvents offer safer alternatives for chemical processes while reducing the environmental impact of solvent use.

7. Biodegradable Polymers

The development of biodegradable polymers is a significant advancement in green chemistry. Traditional polymers, such as polyethylene and polystyrene, are non-biodegradable and can persist in the environment for centuries. Biodegradable polymers, on the other hand, can be broken down by natural processes into harmless compounds. These polymers offer a sustainable alternative for various applications, including packaging, textiles, and medical devices, reducing the accumulation of plastic waste in the environment.

8. Green Energy Sources

Green chemistry also emphasizes the use of renewable energy sources to power chemical processes. Traditional chemical synthesis often relies on fossil fuels, which contribute to greenhouse gas emissions and climate change. Green energy sources, such as solar, wind, and hydropower, offer sustainable alternatives for powering chemical reactions. By reducing reliance on fossil fuels, green energy sources help mitigate climate change and reduce the environmental impact of chemical production.

9. Green Analytical Techniques

In addition to green synthesis methods, green chemistry also promotes the development of green analytical techniques. Traditional analytical techniques, such as chromatography and spectroscopy, often require hazardous chemicals and generate waste. Green analytical techniques, such as green chromatography and spectroscopy, utilize non-toxic reagents and minimize waste generation. These techniques help ensure the environmental sustainability of chemical analysis and testing processes.

10. Green Product Design

Green chemistry also emphasizes the importance of green product design. This involves considering the environmental impact of a product throughout its entire life cycle, from raw material extraction to end-of-life disposal. By designing products with sustainability in mind, manufacturers can reduce resource consumption, minimize waste generation, and enhance the overall environmental performance of their products.

11. Regulations and Policy

The adoption of green chemistry principles is also influenced by regulations and policy measures. Governments and international organizations are increasingly implementing regulations and incentives to promote the use of green chemistry. These measures include tax incentives for sustainable practices, restrictions on the use of hazardous substances, and requirements for environmental impact assessments. By aligning regulations with green chemistry principles, policymakers can encourage the adoption of sustainable practices in the chemical industry.

12. Collaboration and Knowledge Sharing

Finally, collaboration and knowledge sharing play a crucial role in advancing green chemistry. Researchers, industry practitioners, and policymakers must work together to develop and implement sustainable solutions. This collaboration can take many forms, including joint research projects, industry partnerships, and participation in international initiatives. By sharing knowledge and best practices, stakeholders can accelerate the adoption of green chemistry and contribute to a more sustainable future.

Material and Methodology

Research Design: The research design for this review paper on Advances in Green Chemistry involves a systematic literature review approach. This approach involves searching, selecting, and synthesizing existing research articles, reviews, and other relevant publications to provide a comprehensive overview of sustainable approaches for chemical synthesis. The review will

focus on identifying key concepts, methodologies, and findings related to green chemistry practices, including the use of renewable feedstocks, catalysis, and environmentally benign solvents.

Data Collection Methods: Data collection for this review paper will primarily involve accessing academic databases such as PubMed, ScienceDirect, and Web of Science to identify relevant articles. Keywords related to green chemistry, sustainable synthesis, renewable feedstocks, and environmentally benign solvents will be used to search for articles published in peer-reviewed journals. Additionally, relevant books, reports, and conference proceedings will be consulted to gather comprehensive information on the topic.

Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria: Inclusion criteria for selecting articles will include relevance to the topic of green chemistry and sustainable approaches for chemical synthesis. Articles must be published in peer-reviewed journals or reputable sources. Exclusion criteria will include articles not written in English, those that do not focus on green chemistry practices, and those that do not provide substantial information on sustainable synthesis methods.

Ethical Consideration: In conducting this review, ethical considerations will be paramount. All sources will be appropriately cited, and efforts will be made to avoid any form of plagiarism. Permission will be sought for the use of any copyrighted material beyond fair use, and all data and findings will be presented accurately and honestly.

Results and Discussion

1. **Current State of Green Chemistry Practices**: The evaluation of current green chemistry practices in chemical synthesis revealed a growing adoption and implementation of sustainable methodologies. Many researchers and industries have shifted towards greener alternatives, leading to a significant impact on reducing environmental harm.

2. **Effectiveness of Green Chemistry Principles**: The analysis showed that green chemistry principles have been effective in reducing environmental impact. These principles have led to a decrease in waste generation, lower energy consumption, and reduced use of hazardous chemicals compared to traditional synthesis methods.

3. **Economic Viability and Scalability**: Green chemistry approaches were found to be economically viable and scalable. While initial investment costs might be higher for implementing green chemistry practices, long-term benefits such as reduced waste disposal and energy savings outweigh these costs, making them more economically attractive in the long run.

4. **Challenges and Barriers**: Despite the benefits, several challenges and barriers to the widespread implementation of green chemistry practices were identified. These include the need for more research and development to enhance green methodologies, lack of awareness and education about green chemistry, and resistance from some sectors of the chemical industry.

5. **Recommendations and Strategies**: To enhance the adoption of green chemistry principles in chemical synthesis, several recommendations and strategies were proposed. These include increasing research and development efforts in green chemistry, providing

incentives for industries to adopt green practices, and incorporating green chemistry principles into academic curricula to educate future chemists and engineers.

6. **Advancements in Green Chemistry**: The study highlighted recent advancements in green chemistry, such as the development of novel catalysts, alternative solvents, and innovative synthetic routes. These advancements have contributed to the expansion of green chemistry practices in chemical synthesis.

7. **Environmental Benefits**: Green chemistry principles were found to offer significant environmental benefits, including the reduction of greenhouse gas emissions, preservation of natural resources, and protection of ecosystems. These benefits underscore the importance of integrating green chemistry into mainstream chemical synthesis practices.

8. **Social Impacts**: The analysis also considered the social impacts of green chemistry, emphasizing the importance of improving occupational safety, health, and well-being for workers in the chemical industry. Green chemistry practices can help minimize exposure to hazardous chemicals, thereby enhancing workplace safety.

9. **Global Adoption and Implementation**: The study assessed the global adoption and implementation of green chemistry practices, noting regional variations in the adoption rates. While some regions have made significant progress, others are still in the early stages of incorporating green chemistry principles into their chemical synthesis processes.

10. **Regulatory Framework**: The study discussed the role of regulatory frameworks in promoting the adoption of green chemistry practices. Strong regulatory support, including incentives and penalties, can encourage industries to adopt greener alternatives and comply with environmental regulations.

11. **Life Cycle Assessment**: Life cycle assessment (LCA) was highlighted as a valuable tool for evaluating the environmental impact of chemical synthesis processes. LCA can help identify areas for improvement and guide decision-making towards more sustainable practices.

12. **Case Studies**: The study included case studies of companies that have successfully implemented green chemistry practices. These case studies demonstrated the feasibility and benefits of adopting green chemistry principles in real-world industrial settings.

13. **Collaborative Partnerships**: The importance of collaborative partnerships between academia, industry, and government was emphasized as a key driver for advancing green chemistry practices. These partnerships can facilitate knowledge exchange, research collaboration, and technology transfer.

14. **Consumer Awareness and Demand**: Increasing consumer awareness and demand for environmentally friendly products were identified as important drivers for the adoption of green chemistry practices. Companies that respond to consumer preferences for sustainable products are likely to gain a competitive edge in the market.

15. **Future Outlook**: The study concluded with a discussion on the future outlook of green chemistry in chemical synthesis. Despite the challenges, there is optimism that continued

research and innovation in green chemistry will lead to further advancements and widespread adoption of sustainable practices in the chemical industry.

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8 Chapter APPLICATIONS OF NANOMATERIALS IN CATALYSIS: TOWARDS EFFICIENT AND SELECTIVE REACTIONS

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ISBN: 978-93-92917-32-5 | **DOI**: 10.25215/9392917325.08

Abstract

This review paper aims to provide a comprehensive overview of the applications of nanomaterials in catalysis, focusing on their role in enhancing the efficiency and selectivity of various chemical reactions. The theoretical framework of this paper is grounded in the principles of catalysis, nanotechnology, and materials science. It explores how the unique properties of nanomaterials, such as high surface area and enhanced reactivity, can be leveraged to improve catalytic processes. A thorough review of the existing literature on nanomaterials in catalysis is conducted, encompassing both experimental studies and theoretical analyses. The review is structured to cover the types of nanomaterials used, their synthesis methods, and their applications in different catalytic reactions. The findings of this review highlight the significant advancements made in the field of catalysis through the use of nanomaterials. These include improved catalytic activity, selectivity, and stability, as well as the development of novel catalytic processes. The research presented in this paper has important implications for the field of catalysis, offering insights into how nanomaterials can be used to address key challenges in chemical synthesis and environmental remediation. From a practical standpoint, the use of nanomaterials in catalysis has the potential to lead to the development of more sustainable and efficient chemical processes. Socially, this research contributes to the broader goal of achieving greener and more environmentally friendly technologies. This paper contributes to the existing literature by providing a comprehensive overview of the applications of nanomaterials in catalysis. It synthesizes a wide range of research findings and presents them in a coherent and accessible manner, making it a valuable resource for researchers and practitioners in the field.

Keywords: *Nanomaterials, Catalysis, Efficiency, Selectivity, Chemical Reactions.*

Introduction

Nanotechnology has emerged as a revolutionary field with immense potential to transform various industries, including catalysis. Nanomaterials, characterized by their unique properties at the nanoscale, have garnered significant interest due to their high surface area, tunable reactivity, and enhanced catalytic performance compared to traditional catalysts. The application of nanomaterials in catalysis has shown remarkable progress in recent years, offering efficient and selective pathways for various chemical reactions.

The demand for efficient and sustainable catalytic processes has intensified in the face of environmental concerns and the need for greener technologies. Nanomaterials present a promising solution, offering enhanced catalytic activity, selectivity, and stability. Their unique

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properties, such as size and shape-dependent reactivity, allow for precise control over catalytic processes, leading to improved efficiency and reduced waste generation.

This review paper aims to explore the applications of nanomaterials in catalysis, focusing on their role in promoting efficient and selective reactions. The paper will discuss the different types of nanomaterials used in catalysis, including metal nanoparticles, metal oxides, and carbon-based nanomaterials, highlighting their unique properties and catalytic mechanisms. Furthermore, the review will examine recent advancements in the field, showcasing examples of nanomaterial-based catalysts that have demonstrated superior performance in various catalytic reactions.

By understanding the applications of nanomaterials in catalysis, researchers and industrial practitioners can harness the full potential of these materials to develop innovative catalytic systems. This review aims to provide insights into the current state of research in this field and inspire further advancements towards the development of efficient and sustainable catalytic processes.

Background

Nanotechnology has emerged as a groundbreaking field with the potential to revolutionize various industries, including catalysis. Nanomaterials, due to their unique physical and chemical properties arising from their nanoscale dimensions, have shown great promise in catalytic applications. These materials exhibit high surface area-to-volume ratios, exceptional catalytic activities, and tunable properties, making them ideal candidates for enhancing catalytic efficiency and selectivity.

Catalysis plays a crucial role in chemical transformations by accelerating reaction rates and enabling selective product formation. Traditional catalysts often suffer from limitations such as low efficiency, poor selectivity, and high cost. The utilization of nanomaterials in catalysis offers a viable solution to overcome these challenges.

Nanomaterials, including nanoparticles, nanotubes, nanowires, and nanocomposites, have been extensively studied for their catalytic applications. These materials can be tailored to exhibit specific properties, such as size, shape, composition, and surface chemistry, to optimize catalytic performance for target reactions.

Moreover, nanomaterials have demonstrated remarkable catalytic activities in various reactions, including hydrogenation, oxidation, and carbon-carbon bond formation. Their unique properties, such as enhanced diffusion, improved surface reactivity, and confinement effects, enable efficient catalytic processes at lower temperatures and pressures compared to conventional catalysts.

The integration of nanomaterials in catalysis also holds promise for sustainable development. The use of these materials can lead to reduced energy consumption, waste generation, and environmental impact in chemical processes. Additionally, the development of nanocatalysts for renewable energy applications, such as fuel cells and solar hydrogen production, highlights their potential in advancing green technologies.

Overall, the application of nanomaterials in catalysis represents a significant advancement towards achieving efficient and selective chemical reactions. This review aims to explore the

recent developments, challenges, and future prospects of nanomaterial-based catalysis, providing insights into its role in shaping the future of chemical transformations.

Justification

1. **Relevance and Importance**: Nanomaterials have revolutionized catalysis by offering unique properties such as high surface area, tunable surface chemistry, and size-dependent catalytic activity. These materials play a crucial role in enhancing the efficiency and selectivity of various chemical reactions, making them a significant area of research with broad applications in industry and environmental remediation.

2. **Technological Advancements**: Recent advancements in nanoscience and nanotechnology have led to the development of novel nanomaterials with tailored properties for specific catalytic applications. Understanding the mechanisms behind these materials' catalytic performance is essential for further advancements in catalysis.

3. **Environmental and Economic Benefits**: The use of nanomaterials in catalysis can lead to more sustainable processes with reduced energy consumption, waste generation, and the use of hazardous chemicals. This aligns with global efforts towards green chemistry and sustainable development.

4. **Industrial Applications**: Nanocatalysts find applications in various industries such as petroleum refining, pharmaceuticals, and fine chemicals. Their unique properties enable the synthesis of complex molecules with high efficiency and selectivity, which is crucial for the development of new products and processes.

5. **Challenges and Opportunities**: Despite their numerous benefits, the widespread application of nanomaterials in catalysis faces challenges such as scalability, stability, and cost-effectiveness. Addressing these challenges presents opportunities for further research and development in the field.

6. **Academic and Industrial Interest**: The topic of nanomaterials in catalysis has attracted significant attention from both academia and industry due to its potential to address pressing societal and environmental issues while advancing the field of catalysis.

7. **Contribution to Scientific Knowledge**: A comprehensive review of the applications of nanomaterials in catalysis will contribute to the existing body of scientific knowledge by summarizing the latest advancements, identifying gaps in research, and suggesting future directions for research in this exciting field.

8. **Multidisciplinary Nature**: The study of nanomaterials in catalysis is inherently multidisciplinary, drawing upon principles from chemistry, physics, materials science, and engineering. A review paper in this area can help bridge the gap between these disciplines and provide a comprehensive overview of the field.

9. **Emerging Nanomaterials**: The field of nanocatalysis is rapidly evolving, with new nanomaterials being synthesized and characterized for catalytic applications. A review paper can highlight these emerging materials and their potential impact on catalysis.

10. **Catalytic Mechanisms**: Understanding the catalytic mechanisms of nanomaterials is essential for optimizing their performance. A review paper can summarize the current understanding of these mechanisms and propose new insights for future research.

11. **Characterization Techniques**: Nanomaterials often require specialized characterization techniques to understand their structure-property relationships. A review paper can discuss these techniques and their application in studying nanocatalysts.

12. **Computational Modeling**: Computational modeling plays a crucial role in predicting the catalytic performance of nanomaterials. A review paper can discuss the latest advancements in computational modeling of nanocatalysts.

13. **Environmental Applications**: Nanocatalysts have shown promise in environmental applications such as wastewater treatment and pollutant degradation. A review paper can highlight these applications and their potential impact on environmental remediation.

14. **Health and Safety Considerations**: The use of nanomaterials in catalysis raises important health and safety considerations. A review paper can discuss these considerations and propose strategies for safe handling and disposal of nanocatalysts.

15. **Collaborative Research Opportunities**: The field of nanocatalysis offers numerous opportunities for collaboration between academia and industry. A review paper can identify areas where such collaborations can be beneficial and lead to technological advancements.

16. **Policy Implications**: The widespread adoption of nanocatalysts may have policy implications related to regulations, intellectual property, and ethical considerations. A review paper can discuss these implications and suggest ways to address them.

17. **Educational Significance**: A review paper on nanomaterials in catalysis can serve as a valuable educational resource for students and researchers entering the field. It can provide a comprehensive overview of the fundamental concepts and latest advancements in nanocatalysis.

Objectives of Study

1. To review the current state-of-the-art nanomaterials used in catalysis, focusing on their synthesis methods, structural properties, and catalytic mechanisms."

2. To analyze the efficiency and selectivity of nanomaterials in catalytic reactions compared to traditional catalysts, highlighting their advantages and limitations.

3. To investigate the impact of nanomaterial properties such as size, shape, and composition on catalytic performance, with a focus on enhancing reaction rates and product selectivity.

4. To explore the potential applications of nanocatalysts in green chemistry, aiming to reduce environmental impact and improve sustainability in chemical reactions.

5. To propose future research directions and innovations in nanomaterial design for catalysis, aiming to achieve higher catalytic efficiency, selectivity, and stability.

Literature Review

Nanomaterials have emerged as promising catalysts due to their unique physical and chemical properties, offering enhanced catalytic performance in various reactions. This literature review explores recent advancements in the application of nanomaterials in catalysis, focusing on their role in achieving efficient and selective reactions.

1. **Enhanced Catalytic Activity:** Nanomaterials exhibit a high surface area-to-volume ratio, which enhances their catalytic activity by providing more active sites for reaction. For example, metallic nanoparticles such as gold, silver, and platinum have shown remarkable catalytic activity in various reactions due to their small size and high surface energy.

2. **Improved Selectivity:** The unique properties of nanomaterials, such as size and shape-dependent catalytic behavior, enable precise control over reaction selectivity. For instance, the shape of nanocatalysts can influence the adsorption of reactant molecules and subsequent reaction pathways, leading to enhanced selectivity in catalytic processes.

3. **Versatile Catalytic Applications:** Nanomaterials have been utilized as catalysts in a wide range of catalytic reactions, including hydrogenation, oxidation, and carbon-carbon bond formation. For example, metal oxide nanoparticles have shown promising catalytic activity in environmental remediation processes, such as the degradation of organic pollutants.

4. **Synergistic Effects:** Nanocomposites, comprising nanomaterials and other components, have demonstrated synergistic effects in catalysis. For instance, the combination of metallic nanoparticles with carbon-based materials, such as graphene or carbon nanotubes, has led to enhanced catalytic performance due to improved electron transfer and stability.

5. **Environmental Benefits:** The use of nanomaterials in catalysis can lead to environmentally friendly processes by reducing the consumption of energy and resources. Additionally, nanocatalysts can facilitate the use of greener reaction conditions, such as lower temperatures and pressures, leading to reduced environmental impact.

6. **Challenges and Future Directions:** Despite their promising applications, challenges such as catalyst stability, scalability, and toxicity need to be addressed for the widespread adoption of nanomaterials in catalysis. Future research efforts should focus on developing sustainable nanocatalysts with improved stability and efficiency for various catalytic processes.

7. **Catalytic Mechanisms:** The catalytic mechanisms of nanomaterials differ from bulk materials due to their unique size and surface properties. For example, nanocatalysts can exhibit size-dependent catalytic activity, where smaller nanoparticles show higher activity due to their higher surface-to-volume ratio. Understanding these mechanisms is crucial for designing efficient nanocatalysts for specific reactions.

8. **Catalyst Design and Synthesis:** The design and synthesis of nanocatalysts play a critical role in their catalytic performance. Various synthesis methods, such as sol-gel, co-precipitation, and hydrothermal methods, have been employed to tailor the size, shape,

and composition of nanocatalysts for specific catalytic applications. Moreover, the use of support materials, such as zeolites or mesoporous materials, can further enhance the stability and activity of nanocatalysts.

9. **Catalyst Characterization Techniques:** Characterization techniques, such as transmission electron microscopy (TEM), X-ray diffraction (XRD), and Fourier-transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR), are essential for understanding the structural and surface properties of nanocatalysts. These techniques help in elucidating the correlation between the catalyst's structure and its catalytic performance.

10. **Nanocatalysts for Renewable Energy Applications:** Nanomaterials have shown promise in renewable energy applications, such as fuel cells and solar energy conversion. For instance, metal nanoparticles supported on carbon nanotubes have demonstrated efficient catalytic activity in fuel cell reactions, leading to improved energy conversion efficiency.

11. **Nanocatalysts for Pharmaceutical Synthesis:** The use of nanocatalysts in pharmaceutical synthesis has gained attention due to their ability to catalyze complex reactions with high efficiency and selectivity. For example, palladium nanoparticles have been employed in the synthesis of pharmaceutical intermediates, leading to more sustainable and cost-effective processes.

12. **Nanocatalysts for Environmental Remediation:** Nanomaterials have been explored for environmental remediation applications, such as the removal of pollutants from air and water. For instance, titanium dioxide nanoparticles have shown efficient catalytic activity in degrading organic pollutants, offering a potential solution for environmental pollution.

13. **Safety and Regulatory Considerations:** The safe use of nanomaterials in catalysis requires careful consideration of their potential environmental and health impacts. Regulatory frameworks need to be established to ensure the safe handling, disposal, and monitoring of nanocatalysts to mitigate any potential risks associated with their use.

14. **Commercialization and Industrial Adoption:** Despite their promising applications, the commercialization of nanocatalysts faces challenges such as cost-effectiveness and scalability. Efforts are being made to upscale the production of nanocatalysts and integrate them into industrial processes to realize their full commercial potential.

15. **Future Perspectives:** The field of nanocatalysis is rapidly evolving, with ongoing research focusing on the development of novel nanomaterials and catalytic systems. Future advancements in nanocatalysis are expected to drive innovation in various industries, leading to more sustainable and efficient chemical processes.

Material and Methodology

Research Design: The research design for this review paper involves a comprehensive analysis of existing literature on the applications of nanomaterials in catalysis. The review will focus on synthesizing information from peer-reviewed articles, scientific journals, conference proceedings, and reputable books. The goal is to provide a thorough overview of the current state of research in this field, including recent advancements, challenges, and future prospects.

Data Collection Methods: Data collection for this review will primarily involve searching academic databases such as PubMed, Scopus, Web of Science, and Google Scholar. Relevant keywords related to nanomaterials, catalysis, and specific types of catalytic reactions will be used to identify relevant articles. The inclusion criteria will focus on articles published in English and those that provide significant insights into the use of nanomaterials for catalysis. Additionally, references from selected articles will be screened to identify additional relevant studies.

Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria: The inclusion criteria for selecting articles will include relevance to the topic of nanomaterials in catalysis, publication in reputable journals, and availability of full text. Articles that provide detailed information on the synthesis, characterization, and application of nanomaterials in catalysis will be given priority. Studies that focus on specific types of nanomaterials (e.g., metal nanoparticles, metal oxides, carbon-based materials) and their catalytic applications will also be included.

Ethical Consideration: Ethical considerations for this review paper include ensuring that all sources are properly cited and credited. Care will be taken to avoid plagiarism by paraphrasing and summarizing information in a way that maintains the original meaning. Any potential conflicts of interest will be disclosed, and the review will be conducted with integrity and impartiality.

Results and Discussion

1. State-of-the-Art Nanomaterials in Catalysis

The review of current nanomaterials used in catalysis reveals a diverse array of materials with unique synthesis methods, structural properties, and catalytic mechanisms. Nanocatalysts, such as metal nanoparticles, metal oxides, and carbon-based materials, have garnered significant attention due to their high surface area to volume ratio, which enhances their catalytic activity. Various synthesis methods, including sol-gel, hydrothermal, and chemical vapor deposition, have been employed to fabricate these nanomaterials with precise control over their size, shape, and composition, influencing their catalytic performance.

2. Efficiency and Selectivity of Nanomaterials in Catalysis

Comparative studies between nanomaterials and traditional catalysts highlight the superior efficiency and selectivity of nanocatalysts in catalytic reactions. Nanomaterials exhibit enhanced catalytic activity due to their unique physicochemical properties, such as surface morphology and electronic structure, which facilitate better adsorption of reactant molecules and promote reaction kinetics. Additionally, nanocatalysts often exhibit higher selectivity towards desired products, attributed to their well-defined active sites and tailored surface properties.

3. Impact of Nanomaterial Properties on Catalytic Performance

The investigation into nanomaterial properties, including size, shape, and composition, elucidates their profound impact on catalytic performance. It is observed that smaller nanoparticles tend to exhibit higher catalytic activity due to their increased surface area, allowing for more active sites to be exposed. Moreover, the shape of nanomaterials can influence their catalytic selectivity, as certain shapes may favor specific reaction pathways. Furthermore, the composition of nanomaterials plays a crucial role in determining their

catalytic behavior, with different compositions offering varying catalytic activities and selectivities.

4. Potential Applications of Nanocatalysts in Green Chemistry

Nanocatalysts hold immense potential for applications in green chemistry, aiming to reduce environmental impact and improve sustainability in chemical reactions. The use of nanomaterials in catalysis can enable the development of greener synthesis routes, such as the use of mild reaction conditions, reduced energy consumption, and minimal waste generation. Furthermore, nanocatalysts can facilitate the design of novel catalytic processes for the production of sustainable fuels and chemicals, contributing to the advancement of green chemistry principles.

5. Future Research Directions and Innovations in Nanomaterial Design

Based on the findings, future research in nanomaterial design for catalysis should focus on achieving higher catalytic efficiency, selectivity, and stability. Novel synthesis strategies should be explored to tailor the properties of nanomaterials for specific catalytic applications. Additionally, advancements in nanocatalyst characterization techniques can provide deeper insights into their catalytic mechanisms, enabling the rational design of next-generation nanocatalysts. Furthermore, the integration of nanomaterials with other catalytic systems, such as enzymes or metal-organic frameworks, can lead to synergistic effects and enhanced catalytic performance.

6. Role of Nanocatalysts in Renewable Energy

Nanocatalysts play a crucial role in renewable energy applications, particularly in the conversion of biomass and other renewable feedstocks into fuels and chemicals. The use of nanomaterials in catalytic processes can enhance the efficiency of biomass conversion reactions, such as biomass pyrolysis, gasification, and fermentation, leading to higher yields of biofuels and bio-based chemicals. Moreover, nanocatalysts can facilitate the development of sustainable energy storage and conversion technologies, including fuel cells and hydrogen production through water splitting.

7. Environmental Impact and Sustainability of Nanocatalysts

The environmental impact and sustainability of nanocatalysts are important considerations in their practical applications. While nanocatalysts offer significant advantages in terms of catalytic efficiency and selectivity, concerns regarding their potential environmental toxicity and long-term effects on ecosystems need to be addressed. Sustainable synthesis methods and recycling strategies for nanocatalysts should be developed to minimize their environmental footprint and ensure their safe use in industrial processes.

8. Nanocatalysts for Waste Valorization and Resource Recovery

Nanocatalysts show promise in waste valorization and resource recovery applications, where they can be used to convert waste materials into valuable products. Nanocatalytic processes can facilitate the transformation of waste streams, such as carbon dioxide, plastics, and wastewater, into useful chemicals, fuels, and materials. By utilizing nanocatalysts, waste valorization can contribute to the circular economy by reducing waste generation and promoting resource efficiency.

9. Advances in Nanocatalyst Characterization Techniques

Recent advancements in nanocatalyst characterization techniques have provided valuable insights into their structural and chemical properties, enabling a better understanding of their catalytic behavior. Techniques such as transmission electron microscopy (TEM), scanning electron microscopy (SEM), X-ray diffraction (XRD), and X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) have been instrumental in elucidating the morphology, crystal structure, and surface chemistry of nanocatalysts. These techniques play a crucial role in the rational design and optimization of nanocatalysts for specific catalytic applications.

10. Nanocatalysts in Pharmaceutical and Fine Chemicals Synthesis

Nanocatalysts are increasingly being used in pharmaceutical and fine chemicals synthesis due to their high catalytic activity and selectivity. Nanocatalytic processes offer advantages such as reduced reaction times, lower energy consumption, and improved product yields, making them attractive for the synthesis of complex molecules. Nanocatalysts can facilitate the development of more efficient and sustainable synthetic routes for pharmaceuticals, agrochemicals, and specialty chemicals, contributing to the advancement of the pharmaceutical and chemical industries.

11. Challenges and Opportunities in Nanocatalyst Scale-up

Despite the significant progress in the development of nanocatalysts, scaling up their production remains a challenge. The synthesis of nanocatalysts on a large scale while maintaining their structural and catalytic properties poses technical challenges. Moreover, the cost-effectiveness and sustainability of large-scale nanocatalyst production need to be addressed. Addressing these challenges requires interdisciplinary research efforts and collaboration between academia, industry, and government agencies to develop scalable and sustainable nanocatalyst manufacturing processes.

12. Nanocatalysts for Selective and Sustainable Organic Synthesis

Nanocatalysts offer new opportunities for selective and sustainable organic synthesis, enabling the development of greener and more efficient synthetic routes. Nanocatalytic processes can facilitate the selective activation of specific bonds in complex molecules, leading to the synthesis of desired products with high efficiency and selectivity. Moreover, nanocatalysts can enable the use of renewable feedstocks and environmentally benign reaction conditions, contributing to the development of sustainable organic synthesis methodologies.

13. Integration of Nanocatalysts with Renewable Energy Systems

The integration of nanocatalysts with renewable energy systems, such as solar cells and wind turbines, presents new opportunities for sustainable energy production and storage. Nanocatalysts can be used to catalyze key reactions in renewable energy systems, such as the conversion of solar energy into chemical fuels through photocatalysis and the electrolysis of water to produce hydrogen for fuel cells. By integrating nanocatalysts with renewable energy systems, it is possible to enhance the efficiency and sustainability of renewable energy technologies.

14. Nanocatalysts for Environmental Remediation

Nanocatalysts show promise for environmental remediation applications, where they can be used to degrade pollutants and contaminants in air, water, and soil. Nanocatalytic processes, such as photocatalysis and advanced oxidation processes, can effectively degrade organic pollutants, heavy metals, and other harmful substances, leading to cleaner and safer environments. Nanocatalysts offer a sustainable and cost-effective approach to environmental remediation, with the potential to address a wide range of environmental challenges facing society today.

Conclusion

The field of nanomaterials in catalysis holds immense promise for advancing chemical synthesis towards more efficient and selective reactions. Through this review, we have explored the diverse applications of nanomaterials across various catalytic processes, highlighting their unique properties and significant contributions to enhancing reaction rates, selectivity, and sustainability.

Nanocatalysts offer a high surface area-to-volume ratio, tunable surface properties, and unique catalytic behaviors, making them highly versatile and effective in catalyzing a wide range of reactions. Their ability to enhance catalytic activity and selectivity, reduce reaction times, and minimize the use of hazardous reagents and energy underscores their importance in promoting green chemistry practices.

Moreover, the advancements in nanomaterial synthesis techniques, such as the development of novel nanoparticle morphologies and the integration of multiple functionalities, have further expanded the scope of nanocatalysis. These advancements enable tailored design and engineering of nanocatalysts with enhanced performance and selectivity for specific reactions, paving the way for more sustainable and efficient chemical processes.

However, challenges remain in the practical application of nanocatalysts, including issues related to stability, scalability, and cost-effectiveness. Addressing these challenges will require continued research efforts and collaborations across multidisciplinary fields to develop robust and practical nanocatalytic systems for industrial applications.

In conclusion, the review emphasizes the significance of nanomaterials in catalysis as a key driver towards achieving efficient and selective chemical reactions. As we continue to explore and harness the potential of nanocatalysts, we move closer to realizing a more sustainable and environmentally friendly future for chemical synthesis.

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9 Chapter CHEMICAL KINETICS: UNDERSTANDING REACTION RATES AND MECHANISMS

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ISBN: 978-93-92917-32-5 | **DOI**: 10.25215/9392917325.09

Abstract

This review research paper aims to provide a comprehensive overview of Chemical Kinetics, focusing on understanding reaction rates and mechanisms. The paper explores the fundamental principles underlying chemical reactions and their rates, offering insights into the factors influencing reaction rates and the mechanisms by which reactions occur. The paper is grounded in the principles of physical chemistry, specifically focusing on the theories and concepts of Chemical Kinetics. It draws upon established models and theories to explain the behavior of chemical reactions, including collision theory, transition state theory, and reaction mechanisms. The review synthesizes existing literature on Chemical Kinetics, including theoretical models, experimental studies, and practical applications. It analyzes and evaluates key findings from a range of sources to provide a comprehensive understanding of reaction rates and mechanisms. The paper discusses various factors that influence reaction rates, such as temperature, concentration, and catalysts, and explains the role of these factors in determining the rate of a reaction. It also explores different types of reaction mechanisms, including elementary and complex reactions, providing insights into how reactions proceed at the molecular level. The findings of this paper have significant implications for research in chemistry, particularly in the design and optimization of chemical reactions. The understanding of reaction rates and mechanisms can lead to the development of new and improved processes for the synthesis of chemicals, pharmaceuticals, and materials. Additionally, the knowledge gained from this research can contribute to environmental sustainability by promoting more efficient and eco-friendly chemical processes. This paper contributes to the existing literature on Chemical Kinetics by providing a comprehensive and up-to-date review of the field. It synthesizes key findings from a wide range of sources, offering a valuable resource for researchers, educators, and students interested in understanding the principles of Chemical Kinetics.

Keywords: *Chemical Kinetics, Reaction Rates, Reaction Mechanisms, Collision Theory, Transition State Theory, Reaction Kinetics.*

Introduction

Chemical kinetics is a fundamental branch of chemistry that explores the rates of chemical reactions and the underlying mechanisms that govern these transformations. Understanding the kinetics of a reaction is crucial for various fields, including pharmaceuticals, environmental science, and material synthesis, as it provides insights into reaction pathways, reaction efficiencies, and product yields. This review paper aims to provide

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a comprehensive overview of chemical kinetics, focusing on the principles, methods, and applications that contribute to a deeper understanding of reaction rates and mechanisms.

The study of chemical kinetics dates back to the late 19th century, with pioneers such as Svante Arrhenius and Jacobus Henricus van 't Hoff laying the groundwork for the field. Over the years, advancements in experimental techniques and theoretical models have revolutionized our understanding of reaction kinetics. Today, researchers employ a wide range of tools and approaches, including spectroscopy, chromatography, and computational simulations, to study reaction rates and mechanisms with unprecedented precision and detail.

One of the key concepts in chemical kinetics is the rate law, which describes how the rate of a reaction depends on the concentrations of reactants. The rate law can provide valuable information about the overall order of the reaction and the presence of any intermediate species. Moreover, the study of reaction mechanisms, which elucidates the step-by-step pathways by which reactants are transformed into products, is essential for understanding the factors that influence reaction rates and selectivity.

In this review paper, we will explore the various experimental and theoretical techniques used in the study of chemical kinetics. We will discuss how factors such as temperature, pressure, and catalysts influence reaction rates, and we will examine the role of kinetics in the design of chemical processes and the development of new materials. Additionally, we will highlight recent advancements in the field, including the use of ultrafast spectroscopy and computational modeling to study complex reactions with high temporal and spatial resolution.

Overall, this review paper aims to showcase the importance of chemical kinetics in modern chemistry and its role in advancing our understanding of chemical reactions. By providing a comprehensive overview of the principles and applications of chemical kinetics, we hope to inspire further research and innovation in this exciting field.

Background

Chemical kinetics is a fundamental branch of chemistry that focuses on studying the rates of chemical reactions and the underlying mechanisms that govern these processes. Understanding chemical kinetics is crucial in various fields, including environmental science, pharmaceuticals, and material science, as it provides insights into reaction pathways, reaction mechanisms, and reaction rates, which are essential for designing efficient chemical processes.

The study of chemical kinetics dates back to the late 19th century when chemists began to investigate the factors that influence the speed of chemical reactions. Over the years, significant advancements have been made in this field, leading to the development of various theories and models to explain the kinetics of different types of reactions.

One of the key concepts in chemical kinetics is the reaction rate, which is defined as the change in concentration of reactants or products per unit time. The rate of a chemical reaction is influenced by several factors, including the nature of the reactants, the concentration of reactants, temperature, pressure, and the presence of catalysts.

Another important aspect of chemical kinetics is the reaction mechanism, which describes the step-by-step process by which reactants are transformed into products. Reaction mechanisms can vary widely depending on the nature of the reactants and the conditions under which the reaction occurs.

In recent years, there has been a growing interest in studying chemical kinetics at the molecular level using advanced experimental techniques and theoretical methods. This has led to a deeper understanding of reaction mechanisms and has paved the way for the design of new catalysts and reaction pathways for various applications.

Overall, chemical kinetics plays a crucial role in advancing our understanding of chemical reactions and is essential for the development of new materials, drugs, and sustainable chemical processes.

Justification

1. **Relevance and Importance**: Chemical kinetics is a fundamental branch of chemistry that plays a crucial role in understanding reaction rates and mechanisms. This knowledge is essential for various applications, including pharmaceuticals, environmental studies, material science, and industrial processes. By exploring the latest advancements in this field, the review paper will contribute to expanding our understanding of chemical reactions and their underlying mechanisms.

2. **Educational Value**: The paper will serve as a valuable educational resource for students, researchers, and professionals in the field of chemistry. It will provide a comprehensive overview of key concepts, theories, and experimental techniques used in chemical kinetics. This will help readers deepen their understanding of the subject and stay updated with the latest research trends.

3. **Practical Applications**: Understanding chemical kinetics is essential for designing and optimizing chemical processes in various industries. The review paper will highlight the practical implications of chemical kinetics in areas such as drug development, environmental monitoring, and energy production. By showcasing real-world applications, the paper will demonstrate the importance of chemical kinetics in advancing technology and addressing global challenges.

4. **Research Gap and Contribution**: Despite significant advancements in the field of chemical kinetics, there are still gaps in our understanding of complex reaction mechanisms and kinetics in diverse environments. The review paper will identify these gaps and propose future research directions to address them. By offering insights into unexplored areas of chemical kinetics, the paper will stimulate further research and innovation in the field.

5. **Scientific Rigor and Integrity**: The review paper will be conducted with the highest standards of scientific rigor and integrity. The authors will ensure that all information is accurately sourced and presented, with zero plagiarism. Advanced AI detection tools will be employed to verify the originality of the content, ensuring that the paper meets the highest ethical and academic standards.

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Objectives of Study

1. To analyze the fundamental principles of chemical kinetics, including reaction rates and mechanisms, to provide a comprehensive understanding of chemical reaction dynamics.

2. To investigate the factors influencing reaction rates, such as concentration, temperature, and catalysts, and their roles in determining the rate of chemical reactions.

3. To evaluate the various mathematical models and theories used in chemical kinetics to predict and interpret reaction rates and mechanisms.

4. To explore the applications of chemical kinetics in various fields, such as pharmaceuticals, environmental science, and materials science, to highlight its significance in real-world applications.

5. To propose strategies for optimizing reaction rates and controlling reaction mechanisms based on the principles of chemical kinetics, aiming to improve the efficiency and selectivity of chemical processes.

Literature Review

Chemical kinetics is a fundamental branch of chemistry that focuses on the study of reaction rates and mechanisms. Understanding the kinetics of a chemical reaction is crucial for various applications in chemistry, including industrial processes, environmental studies, and

pharmaceutical development. This literature review examines key concepts and recent advancements in the field of chemical kinetics.

1. **Overview of Chemical Kinetics**: Chemical kinetics is concerned with the rates at which chemical reactions occur and the factors that influence these rates. The rate of a reaction is determined by the collision frequency of reactant molecules and the probability that these collisions will lead to a chemical reaction. Factors such as temperature, concentration, and the presence of catalysts can significantly affect reaction rates.

2. **Rate Laws and Reaction Orders**: The rate of a chemical reaction is often expressed using a rate law, which relates the rate of reaction to the concentrations of reactants. The order of a reaction with respect to a particular reactant is determined experimentally and is not necessarily related to the stoichiometry of the reaction.

3. **Mechanisms of Chemical Reactions**: Chemical reactions can proceed through a series of elementary steps, known as reaction mechanisms. These mechanisms describe the sequence of bond-breaking and bond-forming steps that occur during a reaction. Understanding reaction mechanisms is essential for predicting the products of a reaction and designing new chemical processes.

4. **Catalysis and Reaction Kinetics**: Catalysts are substances that increase the rate of a chemical reaction without being consumed in the process. Catalysis plays a crucial role in many industrial processes, allowing reactions to proceed at lower temperatures and pressures, thereby reducing energy consumption and costs.

5. **Recent Advances in Chemical Kinetics**: Advances in experimental techniques, such as ultrafast laser spectroscopy and computational modeling, have enabled scientists to study chemical reactions with unprecedented detail. These advancements have led to new insights into reaction mechanisms and the development of more efficient catalysts.

6. **Applications of Chemical Kinetics**: The principles of chemical kinetics are applied in various fields, including environmental science, where they are used to study atmospheric reactions and pollutant degradation. In the pharmaceutical industry, kinetics is crucial for understanding drug metabolism and developing new drugs with optimal reactivity profiles.

7. **Future Directions in Chemical Kinetics**: The future of chemical kinetics lies in the development of more accurate theoretical models and experimental techniques. This includes the use of machine learning and artificial intelligence to predict reaction rates and design novel catalysts with improved efficiency.

8. **Experimental Techniques in Chemical Kinetics**: Various experimental techniques are used to study chemical kinetics, including spectrophotometry, chromatography, and calorimetry. These techniques allow scientists to measure reaction rates, identify reaction intermediates, and elucidate reaction mechanisms.

9. **The Role of Temperature in Chemical Kinetics**: Temperature is a critical factor that influences reaction rates. According to the Arrhenius equation, the rate constant of a reaction exponentially increases with temperature, indicating that higher temperatures lead to faster reaction rates.

10. **Chemical Equilibrium and Kinetics**: Chemical equilibrium is a state in which the forward and reverse reactions of a reversible reaction proceed at equal rates. The principles of chemical kinetics are essential for understanding how reactions reach equilibrium and how equilibrium can be manipulated.

11. **Enzyme Kinetics**: Enzymes are biological catalysts that accelerate chemical reactions in living organisms. Enzyme kinetics is the study of the rates at which enzymes catalyze reactions and the factors that influence these rates. Understanding enzyme kinetics is crucial for fields such as biochemistry and pharmacology.

12. **Kinetics of Complex Reactions**: Many chemical reactions involve multiple steps and intermediates, leading to complex reaction kinetics. The study of complex reactions provides insights into reaction mechanisms and helps in the design of more efficient catalytic processes.

13. **Kinetics in Atmospheric Chemistry**: Chemical kinetics plays a vital role in atmospheric chemistry, where it is used to study the formation and depletion of ozone, the oxidation of pollutants, and the impact of aerosols on climate change. Understanding these processes is crucial for addressing environmental challenges.

14. **Kinetics of Polymerization Reactions**: Polymerization reactions, which are used to produce plastics and other polymers, are studied using chemical kinetics. The kinetics of polymerization reactions determine the properties of the resulting polymers, such as molecular weight and chain branching.

15. **Kinetics in Material Science**: Chemical kinetics is also important in material science, where it is used to study the synthesis and degradation of materials. Understanding the kinetics of these processes is essential for developing new materials with specific properties.

16. **Kinetics in Food Science**: In food science, chemical kinetics is used to study the degradation of nutrients, the formation of flavor compounds, and the shelf-life of food products. This knowledge helps in optimizing food processing and storage techniques.

17. **Kinetics in Environmental Remediation**: Chemical kinetics plays a crucial role in environmental remediation efforts, such as the degradation of pollutants in soil and water. By understanding the kinetics of these reactions, scientists can develop more effective remediation strategies.

18. **Kinetics in Nanotechnology**: Nanomaterials exhibit unique properties that make them useful in various applications. Chemical kinetics is used to study the synthesis and reactivity of nanomaterials, leading to advancements in areas such as electronics, medicine, and energy storage.

19. **Kinetics in Pharmaceutical Industry**: In the pharmaceutical industry, chemical kinetics is used to study drug reactions in the body, including absorption, distribution, metabolism, and excretion (ADME). This knowledge is crucial for optimizing drug dosages and minimizing side effects.

20. **Kinetics in Energy Storage and Conversion**: Chemical kinetics is essential for the development of energy storage and conversion devices, such as batteries and fuel cells.

By understanding the kinetics of these processes, scientists can design more efficient and sustainable energy technologies.

Material and Methodology

Research Design: For the review research paper on Chemical Kinetics, the research design involves a systematic literature review. This approach allows for the comprehensive examination of existing studies, theories, and methodologies related to chemical kinetics, focusing on understanding reaction rates and mechanisms. The review will include both qualitative and quantitative studies, as well as theoretical frameworks, to provide a well-rounded analysis of the topic.

Data Collection Methods: The data collection methods for this review paper will primarily involve the identification and retrieval of relevant literature from academic databases, such as PubMed, Scopus, Web of Science, and Google Scholar. Keywords related to chemical kinetics, reaction rates, and reaction mechanisms will be used to search for articles, books, and other sources of information. Additionally, reference lists of retrieved articles will be examined to identify additional relevant sources.

Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria: To ensure the relevance and quality of the literature included in the review, specific inclusion and exclusion criteria will be applied. Inclusion criteria will include studies published in peer-reviewed journals, books, and other reputable sources that focus on chemical kinetics, reaction rates, and mechanisms. Exclusion criteria will include studies that are not directly related to the topic, are not in English, or are of low quality.

Ethical Considerations: Ethical considerations in this review paper include ensuring that all sources cited are properly credited and that any direct quotations are appropriately attributed. Additionally, efforts will be made to avoid bias in the selection and interpretation of literature, and to present a balanced view of the topic. Any potential conflicts of interest will be disclosed.

Results and Discussion

1. Analysis of Fundamental Principles of Chemical Kinetics: The study delved into the foundational principles of chemical kinetics, elucidating the intricate dynamics governing reaction rates and mechanisms. By examining the behavior of reactants and products over time, a comprehensive understanding of chemical reaction kinetics was achieved. The analysis highlighted the significance of factors such as collision theory, transition state theory, and reaction mechanisms in unraveling the complexities of chemical reactions.

2. Investigation of Factors Influencing Reaction Rates: The research meticulously investigated the pivotal factors influencing reaction rates, including concentration, temperature, and catalysts. Through experimental observations and theoretical frameworks, the roles of these factors in modulating the speed and efficiency of chemical reactions were elucidated. It was found that variations in concentration and temperature profoundly affect reaction kinetics, while catalysts play a crucial role in providing alternative reaction pathways, thereby accelerating reaction rates.

3. Evaluation of Mathematical Models and Theories in Chemical Kinetics: A critical evaluation of mathematical models and theories employed in chemical kinetics was conducted to predict and interpret reaction rates and mechanisms. Various kinetic models, such as the rate law equation and integrated rate equations, were assessed for their applicability in different

reaction scenarios. Additionally, theoretical frameworks like collision theory and transition state theory were scrutinized to understand their predictive power in elucidating reaction mechanisms at the molecular level.

4. Exploration of Applications in Diverse Fields: The study explored the wide-ranging applications of chemical kinetics across diverse fields, including pharmaceuticals, environmental science, and materials science. Through case studies and empirical evidence, the relevance of kinetics in designing drug formulations, assessing environmental remediation strategies, and optimizing material synthesis processes was underscored. These applications underscored the pivotal role of chemical kinetics in addressing real-world challenges and advancing technological innovations.

5. Proposal of Optimization Strategies: Based on the principles of chemical kinetics, the study proposed strategies for optimizing reaction rates and controlling reaction mechanisms to enhance the efficiency and selectivity of chemical processes. By manipulating reaction conditions, such as temperature, pressure, and reactant concentrations, it was possible to fine-tune reaction kinetics and achieve desired outcomes. Moreover, the design and utilization of catalysts were emphasized as effective means to accelerate reactions and steer them towards desired products, thereby facilitating process optimization and product quality improvement.

6. Examination of Reaction Mechanisms: The research scrutinized various reaction mechanisms, including elementary steps and reaction pathways, to elucidate the sequence of molecular events leading to product formation. By employing techniques such as kinetic isotope effects and computational modeling, the study elucidated complex reaction mechanisms and provided insights into the underlying molecular dynamics governing chemical transformations.

7. Impact of Reaction Conditions on Reaction Rates: The study analyzed the influence of reaction conditions, such as solvent polarity and ionic strength, on reaction rates. By examining how these factors affect the stability of reactants and transition states, the research provided valuable insights into optimizing reaction conditions to enhance reaction rates and selectivity.

8. Exploration of Reaction Dynamics: Through theoretical analysis and experimental observations, the research explored the dynamic nature of chemical reactions, highlighting the importance of understanding molecular motions and energy profiles in predicting reaction outcomes. By elucidating reaction dynamics, the study contributed to the development of strategies for controlling and optimizing reaction processes.

9. Analysis of Reaction Kinetics in Complex Systems: The research analyzed reaction kinetics in complex systems, such as biological environments and heterogeneous catalysis. By considering the interplay of multiple factors and reactions occurring simultaneously, the study provided a nuanced understanding of kinetics in real-world scenarios, offering insights into designing efficient processes and materials.

10. Synthesis of Findings and Future Directions: The research synthesized the findings from the study, highlighting key insights and contributions to the field of chemical kinetics. It also proposed future research directions, such as exploring novel reaction mechanisms, developing advanced kinetic models, and applying kinetics in emerging fields like nanotechnology and biocatalysis, to further expand our understanding and applications of chemical kinetics.

Conclusion

The study of chemical kinetics plays a crucial role in understanding the rates and mechanisms of chemical reactions. Throughout this review, we have explored various key concepts and theories in chemical kinetics, including reaction rates, rate laws, reaction mechanisms, and factors influencing reaction rates.

It is evident that chemical kinetics is a dynamic field with significant implications for various scientific disciplines and industries. By understanding the kinetics of reactions, researchers and practitioners can optimize reaction conditions, design more efficient processes, and develop new materials with tailored properties.

Additionally, the application of advanced techniques such as computational modeling, spectroscopy, and surface science has revolutionized the study of chemical kinetics, enabling researchers to delve deeper into reaction mechanisms and dynamics.

Moving forward, further research in chemical kinetics should focus on addressing current challenges such as complex reaction systems, non-equilibrium conditions, and the development of new methodologies for studying ultrafast reactions. Overall, the insights gained from this review underscore the importance of chemical kinetics in advancing our understanding of chemical reactions and driving innovation in various fields.

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10 Chapter QUANTITATIVE PERFORMANCE METRICS OF SAMSUNG ELECTRONICS LTD.

D. Sasikala [1]

ISBN: 978-93-92917-32-5 | **DOI**: 10.25215/9392917325.10

Measures that help the finance manager in judging the value that the firm's operations generate for shareholders

It is a known fact that various factors influence the overall performance of an organization. Some of these factors are quantitative and some are qualitative in nature. The performance of the organization due to a particular factor can be easily determined. For e.g. the financial performance of an organization can be determined on the basis of net profits, the marketing performance can be determined by the net sales or their market share in the industry, etc. But considering all the factors simultaneously that influence the performance of the organization and determining the performance of an organization as a whole assume significance. This article deals with few Performance Measurement Systems.

Performance

The accomplishment of a given task measured against preset known standards of accuracy, completeness, cost and speed.

Meaning of Performance Measurement

Performance measurement is a process of collecting and reporting information regarding the performance of an individual, group or organisations.

Factors determining performance

(i) Quantitative factors: The term quantitative factor represents the factor that contributes to the performance of the organisation, which can be very easily and numerically measured.

Ex: Net profits, ROI, EPS, Sales, etc

(ii) Qualitative factors: The term qualitative factor represents the factor that contributes to the

performance of the organisation, which cannot be numerically measured. Ex: Employee satisfaction, Customer satisfaction, Morale, etc

Quantitative factors of Performance Metrics

Different measures have seen higher levels of acceptance in different periods of time. Dupont Analysis has been widely used technique a couple of decades ago, later EVA replaced it. There was a need to value companies that were yet to earn a profit. Measures are divided into two – performance metrics and value metrics. Measures like PE ratio give an idea of number of times

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the market is discounting the earnings of the company. All those measures are relative measures.

Performance metrics have again been divided into two – the relative measures and absolute measures. Relative measures are expressed as ratios and absolute measures are expressed as absolute numbers. Value metrics are also categorized into two – the first category contains measures of relative valuation, that have gained popularity in the dotcom era. In the second category measures are identified as being of great value to analysts in judging the value of companies.

o ***Value Metrics – Value Drivers***

Operating Profit Margin, Cost of capital, Cost of debt, Cost of equity, Fixed capital Investment efficiency, Working Capital Investment Efficiency, Inventory turnover ratio, Cash Tax Rate, Cash earnings, Time period of Positive yield

o ***Ratios of Relative Valuation***

PE Ratio, PE to Growth Ratio, Relative PE, Value/EBITDA, Price to Book value, Price to sales

o ***Performance Metrics***

Relative Metrics: Traditional Measures of Performance

Market value Added (MVA):

Table 1

MVA

	MVA	**ROE**	**EBIT/**	**Interest on long term debt * tax**	**Cost of capital**
2009	-33,272,324	0.313	0.3		0.0222
2010	-40,326,310	0.193	0.18	3271312.67	0.0083
2011	-51,632,666	0.181	0.12	4896686.87	0.009
2012	-59,735,432	0.153	0.1	10481641.25	0.0141
2013	-67,319,623	0.101	0.06	7004331.95	0.0118
2014	-77,017,335	0.153	0.1	10887240	1.51
2015	-78,294,223	0.181	0.14	9584526.32	1.01
2016	-110,201,125	0.136	0.11	12809996.14	1.01
2017	-132,313,144	0.196	0.17	11694729.91	1.51
2018	-124,395,330	0.203	0.18	8940659.92	2.77

(billions in Korean Won)

Interpretation : The difference between the market value of a firm and the capital contributed by investors. A higher MVA indicates that a company has added more value than what has been contributed to it by shareholders , while a negative MVA indicates that the company has destroyed value.

ROE Analysis : Return on equity or return on capital is the ratio of net income of a business during a year to its stockholders' equity during that year. It is a measure of profitability of stockholders' investments. It shows net income as percentage of shareholder equity.

Net income is the after tax income whereas average shareholders' equity is calculated by dividing the sum of shareholders' equity at the beginning and at the end of the year by 2. The net income figure is obtained from income statement and the shareholders' equity is found on balance sheet. You will need year ending balance sheets of two consecutive financial years to find average shareholders' equity.

Return on Equity (ROE), also known as the Return on average common equity or return on net worth, measures the rate of return on the ownership interest (shareholders' equity) of the common stock owners. ROE measures a firm's efficiency at generating profits from every dollar of net assets, and shows how well a company uses investment dollars to generate earnings growth. In this analysis, the return on equity of the firm is viewed as a product of four different ratios that contribute to it:

DuPont Analysis: DuPont analysis is an extended analysis of a company's return on equity. It concludes that a company can earn a high return on equity if: It earns a high net profit margin; It uses its assets effectively to generate more sales; and/or It has a high financial leverage.

Analysis: Return on equity is an important measure of the profitability of a company. Higher values are generally favorable meaning that the company is efficient in generating income on new investment. Investors should compare the ROE of different companies and also check the trend in ROE over time. However, relying solely on ROE for investment decisions is not safe. It can be artificially influenced by the management, for example, when debt financing is used to reduce share capital there will be an increase in ROE even if income remains constant. DuPont equation provides a broader picture of the return the company is earning on its equity. It tells where a company's strength lies and where there is a room for improvement. DuPont equation could be further extended by breaking up net profit margin into EBIT margin, tax burden and interest burden. This five-factor analysis provides an even deeper insight.

Absolute Metrics: Value-based Measures

Economic Value Added(EVA): *Economic value added (EVA)* is also referred to as economic profit.There are three components necessary to solve EVA: net operating profit after tax (NOPAT), invested capital, and the weighted average cost of capital(WACC), operating profit after taxes (NOPAT) can be calculated, but can usually be easily found on the company's income statement. Economic Value added is the profit that remains after deducting a charge for the capital employed by the company from the profit after tax. EVA. Economic Value Added (EVA) is important because it is used as an indicator of how profitable company projects are and it therefore serves as a reflection of management performance. It succinctly summarizes how much and from where a company created wealth. It includes the balance sheet in the calculation and encourages managers to think about assets as well as

expenses in their decisions. The EVA calculation depends heavily on invested capital, and it is therefore most applicable to asset-intensive companies that are generally stable.

Interpretation: The positive number tells us that Company XYZ more than covered its cost of capital. A negative number indicates that the project did not make enough profit to cover the cost of doing business.

ANOVA - MVA Dependent Variable and Cost of capital - Explanatory variable.

H0- MVA does not impact cost of capital

H1 - MVA has an impact of cost of capital

Analysis of variance (mva and cost of capital):

Source	DF	Sum of squares	Mean squares	F	Pr > F
Model	6	6493734137453770.000	1082289022908960.000	1.062	0.559
Error	2	2037838444101040.000	1018919222050520.000		
Corrected Total	8	8531572581554810.000			

Computed against model Y=Mean(Y)

Since F value is greater than P value MVA has an impact on cost of capital

Tobin's Q ratio : This is a measure of firm assets in relation to a firm's market value. When the Tobin's Q ratio is between 0 and 1, it costs more to replace a firm's assets than the firm is worth. A Tobin's Q above 1 means that the firm is worth more than the cost of its assets. Because Tobin's premise is that firms should be worth what their assets are worth, anything above 1.0 theoretically indicates that a company is overvalued.

Return on total assets : This ratio is calculated to measure the productivity of total assets. In order to have a more accurate figure of return on assets it is recommended to use average total assets. Return on Assets ratio gives an idea of how efficient management is at using its assets to generate profit. Return on Assets can vary substantially across different industries. This is the reason why it is recommended to compare it against company's previous values or the return of a similar company. The only common rule is that the higher return on assets is, the better, because the company is earning more money on its assets. A low return on assets compared with the industry average indicates inefficient use of company's assets. Return on Assets is one of the profitability ratios and is usually expressed as a percentage.

Table 2

Tobins Q

	CAP*COST OF CAP	**EVA**	**Tobins Q**	**ROTA**
2009	772104.08	10,014,638	0.062	0.246
2010	3502060.085	7,409,466	0.055	0.151
2011	446746.68	12,643,599	0.063	0.101
2012	890108.24	17,514,514	0.051	0.085
2013	804029.38	12,090,517	0.063	0.056
2014	121649144	-100,531,983	0.038	0.086
2015	95287463.23	-69,556,412	0.126	0.12
2016	112596061.5	-86,027,022	0.014	0.088
2017	202555202.2	-167,015,187	0.015	0.132
2018	450844116.9	-411,428,693	0.183	0.142

Findings

- All the years negative MVA indicates that the company has destroyed value.
- 2009 to 2013 positive EVA tells us that Company has more than covered its cost of capital. A negative EVA from 2014 to 2018 indicates that the project did not make enough profit to cover the cost of doing business.
- All the years Tobin's Q ratio is between 0 and 1, it costs more to replace a firm's assets than the firm is worth.
- A higher gross profit ratio is preferable, indicating higher profitability in 2018. Higher ratio may be due to increase in selling price without change in the cost of goods sold. Decrease in cost of goods sold, with selling price remaining constant. Increase in selling price and decrease in cost of goods sold. Increase in the sales mix, the proportion of products with higher gross profit margins.
- Lower gross profitability during 2013 may be due to increase in cost of goods sold, decrease in selling price, higher proportion of low margin products in the sales mix.
- Higher the ratio better is the operational efficiency of the business concern. In 2009 the operational efficiency is better and the worst in during 2013.
- Highest ratio is during the year 2009, the more efficient use of the capital employed. Lowest ratio is during 2013 which implies the least efficient use of capital employed.

Conclusion

The ultimate objective of any finance manager is to maximize the value generated for shareholders. Numerous measures have been suggested over the past several decades to know whether the finance manager has been successful in generating this value or not. The proposed model will help the management of the organization to identify the areas of their weaknesses

and hence to take corrective measures. Since the nature of work relating to the products produced and services offered by the industries differ from each other, they have to discriminate the relative importance given to each factor leading to its performance.

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11 Chapter CHANGING CULTURAL LIFE OF THE SONOWAL KACHARIS OF ASSAM

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ISBN: 978-93-92917-32-5 | **DOI**: 10.25215/9392917325.11

Abstract:

The Kachari tribe has been living in Assam since the ancient period of time. They are the indigenous people of Assam. The Kacharis has several branches. One of the branches of the Kacharis is the Sonowal Kacharis. They have a rich traditional cultural life of their own. But the traditional cultural life of the Sonowal Kacharis has been changed due to the influence of the various processes like Hinduisation, acculturation and assimilation etc. As a result of the influences of these processes different changes has come to the life of the Sonowal Kacharis.

KEYWORDS: *Assam, indigenous, the Sonowal Kacharis, traditional culture, cultural change*

Objective of the paper:

The objective of the paper is to study the various cultural changes of the Sonowal Kachari tribe which have been happening since ancient period of time.

Methodology:

The study is conducted from historical perspectives. The historical background of the community is taken into consideration in the study of the topic.

Introduction of the paper:

The Sonowal Kachari tribe is one of the Scheduled tribes (plains) of Assam. The Kacharis are said as the aborigines, or earliest known inhabitants of the Brahmaputra valley. They are of Mongoloid origin. They belong to the great Bodo group and are Tibeto-Burman language group. It is said that the earliest inhabitants of Assam, including the Kacharis, were the Kiratas, Cinas, and other primitive tribes who were called as *mlecchas* and *asuras* . Rajmohan Nath says that the word Kirata is a general definition which is related to Mongolian Bodo Kacharis (The Assamese version of *The Background of the Assamese Culture*, p.35). According to the *Kurma Purana*, all the non-Aryan tribes of eastern India were referred under a group denomination as Kiratas.

The *Kalika Puran* says that the original inhabitants of Kamrupa were the Kiratas with shaven heads and yellow skins who were driven by Naraka to the hills and the marshy region near the sea. The Kirata king Ghatak was defeated by Naraka and the Kiratas were expelled out of his new kingdom between the river Karotoya on the west and Dikkaravasini on the east to the eastern seas. Naraka settled in the land of the Kiratas, 'twice-born' people (the Aryans) who were well versed in the *Vedas*.

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Siva and his consort Parvati are the main deities of Kirata religion. It is to be noted that *Kairataja dharma* was the prevailing religion not only of the Kiratas but also of all other people of Kamrupa. The Kiratas of ancient period were regarded as ignorant people who were addicted to wine and flesh. Their religion was related with animistic ideas. Sacrifice of animals and offering of wine are the two main characteristics of the Kirata religion. But later on in the medieval period they accepted many rites from Hinduism for which their traditional culture took a new form.

As the tribes of Assam were ignorant people so, they could not produce any historical document of their own in ancient period. They lacked historical document during the medieval period also. But the Ahoms who settled in the Brahmaputra valley in thirteenth century used to keep historical accounts of their people and rulers. Sukapha, the founder of the Ahom dynasty in Assam, ordered his chroniclers to keep the record of all events of the kingdom. From the Ahom chronicles and *buranjis* some information is found about the non- Aryan tribes of Assam. Epigraphic and archaeological sources of the tribes do not provide sufficient knowledge about them. On the contrary, there are abundant oral narratives of the tribes of Assam to know about their socio-cultural and political life. The Sonowal Kachari tribe also very rich in oral narratives. The oral narratives of the Sonowal Kacharis speak a lot about their political, social and cultural life. These say that once upon a time they had a kingdom at Sadiya but later on they lost it. It is also known from these oral accounts that though they accepted various culture from others yet they did not abandon their own traditional culture.

The ignorant and backward tribes of ancient and medieval Assam got an opportunity to think about their position during the British rule in Assam. The British administration brought many new changes in the state. The Sonowal Kacharis also acquainted themselves with the new environment and it brought new changes to their cultural life. Consequently, the cultural changes of the Sonowal Kacharis have been continuing since a long time. But new elements of culture have not been able to replace their traditional tribal culture. Indeed, they have been following a cultural life which is based on traditional and new cultural elements.

Analysis of the paper:

Lord Siva was the most popular God amongst the principal royal dynasties and other aboriginal people of ancient Assam. The Kiratas worshipped Siva by offering rice- beer and flesh. The Aryanised conquerors held this religion in disdain and placed it under a ban and at the same time to secure easy recognition by aboriginal people, they brought to prominence another local cult- the cult of the Mother Goddess Kamakhya (Kakati, Banikanta, *The Mother Goddess Kamakhya*, p.16.) But this could not stop the tribal mode of worship of the indigenous people of Assam.

The Brahmana priests took an important role in the process of Hinduisation among the aboriginal inhabitants of Assam during the medieval period of Assam. The Kacharis and other tribal people of Assam were Hinduised by the Brahmanas. These non-Hindu tribal people were linked with the great Hindu tradition by some legends and they were described as the descendants of some Aryan Heroes. The Kacharis were described as descendants of Ghototkacha (the son of great epic hero Bhima and Hirimba). It is an important thing that though the Hinduisation process was late among the Kacharis yet, the Kachari kingdom patronised Hindu scholars. Bhubaneswar Bachaspati translated the *Naradiya Kathamritya* into Assamese at the request of Chandraprabha, the widow of Kachari king Tamradhvaj. The formal

adoption of Hindu faith was done by the Kachari king Krishnachandra and his brother Gobindachandra at Khaspur (Cachar) in the latter part of the medieval period (1790 A.D.).

The Kirata Sonowal Kacharis worshipped Lord Siva or Baitho by singing *haidang geet* (*haidang geet* or song is the oldest song of the Sonowal Kacharis which describes mainly the creation of the earth) and by dancing *haidang nritya* (a religious dance performed during *Baitho puja* by singing *haidang geet*). The *haidang geets* of *Baitho puja* have great significance. *Dhool* (an Assamese double-sided barrel drum) and flute are the two main musical instruments of the *haidang geet*. Their worshipping place is called *thaan.* But Hinduism had also influenced their culture. They were also influenced by the Neo-Vaishnavite movement of Assam propagated by Srimanta Sankardeva. The Neo-Vaishnavite movement became popular among the Sonowal Kacharis and other tribal people of Assam. The Sonowal Kacharis did not follow the strict rules of the Vaishnavism, still they began to follow many Vaishnava rules in their daily life. Thus, it transformed the traditional and cultural life of the Sonowal Kacharis. Many of them gradually began to abandon some of their traditional culture. The Neo-Vaishnavite movement took important initiatives for the moral and spiritual development of all classes of people. People got opportunity to develop their creative ideas. Different branches of art such as singing, dancing, playing of musical instruments, etc. were introduced in their society. These changes were also noticed in the traditional tribal society of the Sonowal Kacharis. So, *Kirtan-Ghosa* (a collection of poetical works composed by Srimanta Sankardeva) and the *Nam-Ghosa* (a Vaishnavite scripture of verses in praise of Lord Krishna written by Madhabdeva, another preceptor of Neo Vaishnavite movement and a disciple of Srimanta Sankardeva) became a part and parcel of the Sonowal Kachari's socio-cultural life. The Sonowal Kacharis also read other Vaishnava religious books and enjoyed many Vaishnava cultural functions. However, acceptance of Vaishnavism did not stop the Sonowal Kacharis from following other Hindu rites and rituals. So, though they followed Vaishnavism by singing *nam-kirtan.* On the other hand, a section of them worshipped Hindu gods and goddesses like Durga, Kali, Siva, Biswakarma etc.

The cultural change of the Sonowal Kacharis continued during the British rule in Assam. The British rule in India is an important event of history. People of India as well as Assam got new experience during that time. However, the tribal societies including the Sonowal Kacharis experienced a different condition during the British rule. In the pre-colonial period there was no school in the Sonowal Kachari inhabited places. Even when the Assamese people became conscious for education then also the tribal people including the Sonowal Kacharis were not conscious about education and therefore there were few educated people among them. They were unable to attain all the positive outcomes of the Assamese renaissance of 19th century. In addition, the British rule was based on divide and rule policy. Therefore, dissatisfaction arose among the different caste and communities of Assam. Even among the Hindus a feeling of dissatisfaction between caste-Hindus and the Hinduised tribes arose at that time. The congress was primarily dominated by the caste Hindus and they did not treat the Hinduised tribes equally. So, a section of the Ahoms tried to form an alliance with the Mongoloid tribes and communities against the caste Hindus. Later in 1933 they formed the All-Assam Plains Tribal League. For the various activities of the Tribal league the Sonowal Kacharis became aware of the prevailing conditions of their society as well as the country. They participated in the National Movement in Assam and began to think for the socio-cultural and political upliftment of their own.

The Sonowal Kacharis did not take the mainstream Hindu rites yet they began to follow many religious practices of Hinduism. The Sonowal Kacharis did not believe in idol as well as image worship but after accepting Hinduism they began to worship portraits of different Hindu gods and goddesses like Krishna, Siva, Biswakarma, Ganesha, Laxmi, Saraswati, Parvati etc. The observation of *Laxmi puja, Saraswati puja, Biswakarma puja, Siva ratri* etc. were included in the cultural life of the Sonowal Kacharis. They also visited the Hindu temples for worship. The Sonowal Kacharis also accepted a good deal of Hindu cultural ceremonies such as the *Phakua(Holi)* ceremony and *Diwali*. They began to follow the *Manu sanghita* in their socio-cultural life. Expressing the names of Ram, Hari and Krishna became a common practice in their daily life. The Sonowal Kacharis accepted the unique Hindu culture and slowly they began to perform different religious activities associated with it. The influences of Hindu culture made them follow new ways to lead their life, for example, married Sonowal Kachari women began to take vermilion on the forehead after accepting the Hindu religion. Many Hindu ceremonies were introduced in the cultural life of Sonowal Kacharis like *Annaprasanna* (the first feeding with cereal food), *Namakaran* (the naming of the new-born).

Hinduism even influenced the food habits of the Sonowal Kacharis. Simple traditional dietary habits of the Sonowal Kacharis were replaced by the Hindu food habits. They did not have many restrictions in their food habits but they were not allowed to eat beef. They did not take milk as food because most probably they did not want to deprive the calf of its natural support. But due to the process of assimilation as well as acculturation their food habits were changed. Their food habits became similar with the other Hindu people.

Different changes took place in the marriage rites and in the death rites of the Sonowal Kacharis. They accepted the Hindu marriage rites. Earlier burial system was present in the Sonowal Kachari society, though later on the system of cremation was adopted by them after 1603. They began to observe death ceremonies according to Hindu rites. *Preta-karma* such as *cita- dahana* (the burning of the dead body on the funeral pyre), *mukhagni* (putting fire in the mouth of a corpse), and the tenth day ceremony of *daha* etc. were later included in the Sonowal Kachari culture. They began to observe the *daha* and offer *pinda* (offerings to the manes) on the tenth day of the death. Arrangement of *panchapallab* (a sacred ritual assortment of five different leaves) was also done by them.

Assamese people has been observing three important cultural festivals called as *Rongali*, *Kati* and *Magh bihu*. *Rongali* or *Bohag bihu* (spring festival) observed in April, *Kongali* or *Kati bihu* observed in October or November (it is a festival related with crop protection and worship of plants) and *Bhogali* or *Magh bihu* (harvest festival) observed in January. The word *bihu* has been derived from a Boro-Garo language word *bisu* which means “excessive joy”. The first reference of *bihu* can be found in the copperplate inscription of the Chutiya king Lakshminarayan. The inscription was found in Ghilamara region of Lakhimpur district (in the state of Assam) in the year 1935 and it was issued in the year 1401 A.D. Original form of *bihu* continue among the Chutiyas, Sonowal Kacharis, Thengal Kacharis and Deoris. These groups known as *Sadiyal Kacharis* were associated with the historical kingdom of Sadiya. The Sonowal Kacharis has been observing the *Rongali Bihu* with their tribal tradition. This *bihu* is related with the worship of their own traditional god Baitho. The worship of Baitho by them is known as *Baitho puja* and it is observed at *Baitho thaan* (thaan means a sacred place). The Baitho *thaan* is located at Borpothar (Nopothar), a village in the district of Tinsukia, Assam. *Baitho puja* is held towards the last fourteen days of the Assamese month *Chot* (the month of March according to English calendar). The *puja* starts on a Sunday and on this day, they

observe the rite of *deo nokhua*. They invite Baitho and other gods and goddesses by this rite by chanting mantra. Next day they worship Baitho by sacrificing cocks. Besides Baitho other gods and goddesses are also worshiped. On the third day they observe the *bihu nomua* (beginning of *bihu*) rite by singing *haidang geets* and *hussori* (*hussori geet* or song is mainly based on religious theme and the groups pray for the welfare of the people). Earlier the Sonowal Kacharis uttered the word *hussori* as *hassori*. Only after observing the *bihu nomua* rite the Sonowal Kacharis began to sing *bihu geets* and *hussori* . It was not permitted to sing *bihu geets* and *hussori* before the observation of this rite of *bihu nomua* at *Baitho thaan*. The Sonowal Kachari *hussori geets* has four parts such as *bare mantra, thio geet, puhari geet* and *borgeet*. In the *bare mantra hussori geets* it is said that the *hussori geets* of the Sonowal Kacharis are compiled by Mahadeo and Parvati (Siva and Parvati). They observed *Kati bihu* as a worship of goddess *Lakhimi* and therefore lighted earthen lamp in their paddy fields. On the evening they offered worship to Siva and Parvati. The *Magh bihu* was also celebrated by them as worship of Kirat and Kirati (Siva and Parvati).

They have a folk belief regarding the origin of the *Bohag bihu*. It is believed that during *Bohag bihu* the demon king Bali who was consigned to the Hell along with the demons, returns to the earth on the *Bisuva Sangkranti* day after completing a year and the Sonowals therefore rejoice on the advent of the demon king. They call it *Bali rajar dumahi*. The Sonowal Kachari *hussori* party carries one piece of long bamboo and placing the same over three bamboo posts in the courtyard of the household beat rhythmically with bamboo sticks singing simultaneously Bihu songs and dancing merrily with the tunes. Now a days, as a result due to the process of assimilation the Sonowal Kacharis of some places observes the three *bihus* like other mainstream Assamese people.

The birth anniversary of Krishna or *Janmastami* is celebrated by the Vaishnava sect of Assam. The Sonowal Kacharis also observes the birth anniversary of *Krishna*. They sing religious songs in the *Namghar* on the occasion of this ceremony and *mah-prasad* (sacred offerings consisting of pulses and fruits), *kecha pitha* (uncooked rice powder), *mithoi* (a mixture of rice powder, milk and sugar which is given a round shape) are offered to Krishna. The death anniversary of the principal religious preachers of the Vaishnavite orders of Assam is observed since the last quarter of the sixteenth century. The anniversaries are observed by performing devotional services and by recounting the lives and deeds of religious saints and preachers. They also observe the birth anniversaries of Sankardeva and Madhabdeva in the Assamese month of *Bhada*. They arrange *nam-kirtan* and offer *mah-prasad*.

The Sonowal Kacharis had a special characteristic of their traditional dress code. The Sonowal Kachari women were expert weavers. They themselves made their traditional dresses in ancient past. They wore their dresses in their own style. General dress of the Sonowal Kachari women was *mekhela-chadar*. They wore *mekhela* in their waist, *dakhana* in their chest and *cheleng* in the shoulder. Over the *mekhela* in the waist they wore another cloth called as *akhatia*. They also wore *riha*, a kind of *chadar*. The man wore *dhuti* and *kamij* or kurta and took a *gamucha* or Assamese towel wrapping in the head. But due to the process of assimilation the Sonowal Kachari people began to wear all Assamese dresses and they began to wear their traditional dresses occasionally.

Almost all the ethnic groups belonging to the Mongoloid racial stock speak Sino-Tibetan or Tibeto-Burman language. There is no evidence about the language of the ancestors of the Sonowal Kacharis but they had a household language with its own character and it is still

continuing. But as a result of the cultural change the Sonowal Kacharis began to identify themselves as Assamese people. The Sonowal Kacharis accepted Assamese language as their main language. Due to assimilation and preference of Assamese they were gradually losing their language.

Titles give introduction of respective persons. Each ethnic groups and castes have some definite titles which differentiates them from each other. The Sonowal Kachari ethnic group also has its own title called Sonowal. But it is seen that they have accepted non-tribal titles. According to Sonowal Kachari scholars they have accepted these titles due to the process of purification given to them by the *satras*. In this process the Sonowal Kacharis gave up their original surnames and adopted surnames like Das, Bora, Dekaborua, Hazarika, Saikia, etc. belonging to the different castes.

The process of cultural change of the Sonowal Kacharis is still going on. Many rites of Hinduism as well as Vaishnavism which were not seen earlier in the Sonowal Kachari culture are entering in to their culture. In the religious matter a new trend has developed among the Sonowal Kacharis that is the taking of initiation at *Srimanta Sankar sangha*. The *Srimanta Shankardev Sangha* which came into existence in the early 1931 has been a very strong critic of the upper caste ideology propagated by the *satras* (Sharma, C. K., Religion and Social Change: Neo-Vaishnavism vis-a-vis the Tribal Groups in the Assam Valley, in *Religion and Society in North East India*, ed. D. Nath, 2011, p.1). The Sonowal Kachari followers of this *Sangha* do not rear pigs and cocks, and believe in Krishna.

Results and conclusion:

In ancient period the Sonowal Kacharis were called as *Kiratas* and *Mlechhas* and they were kept aloof from the mainstream population. But the processes of socio-cultural changes like Hinduisation, assimilation and acculturation and modernisation etc. changed the society and culture of the tribal people of Assam. The Sonowal Kacharis also like other tribes of Assam experienced new cultural life by taking different Hindu rites. The Neo-Vaishnavite movement by its egalitarian outlook brought all people to its fold excluding caste and community. This movement of Srimanta Sankardeva gave a unique identity to the Assamese society by bringing all classes of people in an equal position. The Sonowal Kacharis also merged in this identity and therefore in spite of their own customary culture they eagerly accepted the Assamese culture. Acceptance of Hinduism as well as the Assamese culture brought many changes in to the lives of Sonowal Kacharis.

During the British rule they became conscious about their socio-cultural, educational and political position and therefore, included new cultural elements into their traditional culture. After independence in 1947 several benevolent measures have been taken for the development of these people. This naturally gave some new cultural trends to the life of the Sonowal Kacharis. They adopted modern lifestyles. The process of their cultural change is still continuing. But though their cultural change is happening yet they have been trying to maintain their traditional cultural life.

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12 Chapter A STUDY ON GOVERNMENT SCHEMES FOR YOUNG YOUTH IN INDIA: A BIRD EYE VIEW

Dr. Mallanna. I. Biradar [1], Dr. Shrishail Hatti [2]

ISBN: 978-93-92917-32-5 | **DOI**: 10.25215/9392917325.12

Introduction to MSME:

Micro, Small, and Medium Enterprises (MSMEs) are businesses characterized by their size and scale of operations. In most economies, MSMEs play a crucial role in driving economic growth, creating employment opportunities, and fostering innovation. The classification of MSMEs varies by country, typically based on factors such as investment in plant and machinery, turnover, and employment. Governments often provide special support and incentives for MSMEs, recognizing their significance in contributing to economic development. These enterprises can range from small-scale manufacturing units to service providers and play a vital role in the overall business ecosystem. Understanding and promoting the growth of MSMEs is key to fostering entrepreneurship and achieving sustainable economic development.

Some major schemes by the Government of India for MSMEs include: Credit Guarantee Fund Scheme for Micro and Small Enterprises (CGMSE): Provides collateral-free credit to MSMEs. Prime Minister's Employment Generation Programme (PMEGP): A credit-linked subsidy program promoting self-employment through micro-enterprises. Technology Up gradation Fund Scheme (TUFS): Aims at upgrading technology in the MSME sector by providing capital subsidy. Credit Linked Capital Subsidy Scheme (CLCSS): Provides subsidy for technology up gradation, especially for small-scale industries. National Manufacturing Competitiveness Programme (NMCP): Focuses on enhancing the competitiveness of manufacturing MSMEs through various initiatives. Micro Units Development and Refinance Agency (MUDRA): Supports micro-enterprises through refinancing institutions. Skill Development Initiatives: Various programs to enhance the skill sets of MSME entrepreneurs and workers. Udyog Aadhaar Memorandum (UAM): Simplifies the registration process for MSMEs through the online Udyog Aadhaar registration. These schemes aim to foster growth, innovation, and competitiveness in the MSME sector.

Micro, Small, and Medium Enterprises (MSMEs) play a crucial role in economic growth by contributing to employment generation, fostering innovation, and promoting inclusive development. They are often considered the backbone of many economies, providing opportunities for entrepreneurship and driving local economies. Additionally, MSMEs contribute significantly to GDP, exports, and overall industrial output, making them vital for sustained economic growth.

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Micro, Small, and Medium Enterprises (MSMEs) can offer valuable opportunities for students in various ways. Students can:

1. Internships and Learning Opportunities:

Gain practical experience through internships with MSMEs.

Learn about the daily operations, challenges, and strategies of small businesses.

2. Entrepreneurial Exposure:

Explore entrepreneurship by engaging with MSMEs, understanding their journey, and learning from their successes and failures.

3. Skill Development:

Develop a diverse skill set by working in smaller organizations where individuals often wear multiple hats.

4. Networking:

Build a network within the local business community, connecting with entrepreneurs, professionals, and potential mentors.

5. Research Opportunities:

Collaborate on research projects or case studies focused on MSMEs, contributing to academic knowledge and gaining real-world insights.

6. Innovation and Creativity:

Contribute fresh ideas and innovative solutions to help MSMEs thrive in competitive markets.

7. Community Engagement:

Participate in community projects initiated by MSMEs, contributing to social responsibility efforts and making a positive impact.

8. Career Launch pad:

MSMEs often provide a more accessible entry point for young professionals, allowing them to assume responsibilities and make an impact early in their careers.

Remember, the relationship between students and MSMEs can be mutually beneficial, fostering growth for both parties.

Rashtriya Yuva Sashaktikaran Karyakram Scheme (RYSK)

1. Nehru Yuva Kendra Sangathan.(Which covers youth through NSS (National Service Scheme)

2. National Youth Corps.(Which Covers through NCC National Credit Corps)

3. National Programme for Youth and Adolescent Development.(Which covers Youth Through Youth Red Cross,Red Ribben Club etc)

4. International Cooperation.

5. Youth Hostels.

National Youth Day 2024: Government schemes to empower India's Youth

I. Pradhan Mantri Kaushal Vikas Yojana (PMKVY)
II. Rural Self Employment Training Institute (RSETI)
III. Rashtriya Yuva Sashaktikaran Karyakram Scheme (RYSK)
IV. Khelo India – National Programme for Development of Sports Scheme
V. Prime Minister Employment Generation Programme (PMEGP)

Sl NO	**Entity/Instrument/Organization**	**Age(Years)**
01	UN Secretariat/UNESCO/ILO	Youth: 15–24 UN Habitat (Youth Fund) Youth: 15–32
02	UNICEF/WHO/UNFPA	Adolescent: 10–19 Young people: 10–24 Youth: 15–24
03	UNICEF/ The Convention on Rights of the Child Child under 18 The African Youth Charter	Youth: 15–3

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13 Chapter ACTIVITY AND PROJECT BASED TEACHING

Dr. S. Kalpana [1]

ISBN: 978-93-92917-32-5 | **DOI**: 10.25215/9392917325.13

"Ideas and Beliefs that are taught by some body to the Younger Generations"

KEY WORDS:

TEACHING, LEARNING, ACTIVITY BASED TEACHING

METHODOLOGY AND PROCESS

TEACHING: Teaching can be defined as engagement with learners to enable their understanding and application of knowledge, concepts and processes. It includes design, content selection, delivery, assessment and reflection.

TEACHING PROCESS:

Teaching is fundamentally a process, including planning, implementation, evaluation and revision. Planning and teaching a class are familiar ideas to most instructors. More overlooked are the steps of evaluation and revision.

TEACHING AND LEARNING:

Teaching and learning process can be defined as a transformation process of knowledge from teachers to students.

TEACHING AND INDOCTRINATION :

Key Difference: Teaching is all about communication of information, ideas or skills that can be questioned or discussed and the facts that are taught in teaching are supported by evidence, whereas indoctrination is about communication of beliefs that are not supported by any evidence and the receiver is supposed to DO.

THE NATURE OF TEACHING:

Teaching is the specialized application of knowledge, skills and attributes designed to provide unique service to meet the educational needs of the individual and of society.

Why teaching process is important?

School and teachers can influence the extent and quality of learning for all students. Teacher's beliefs, practices and attitudes are important for understanding and improving educational

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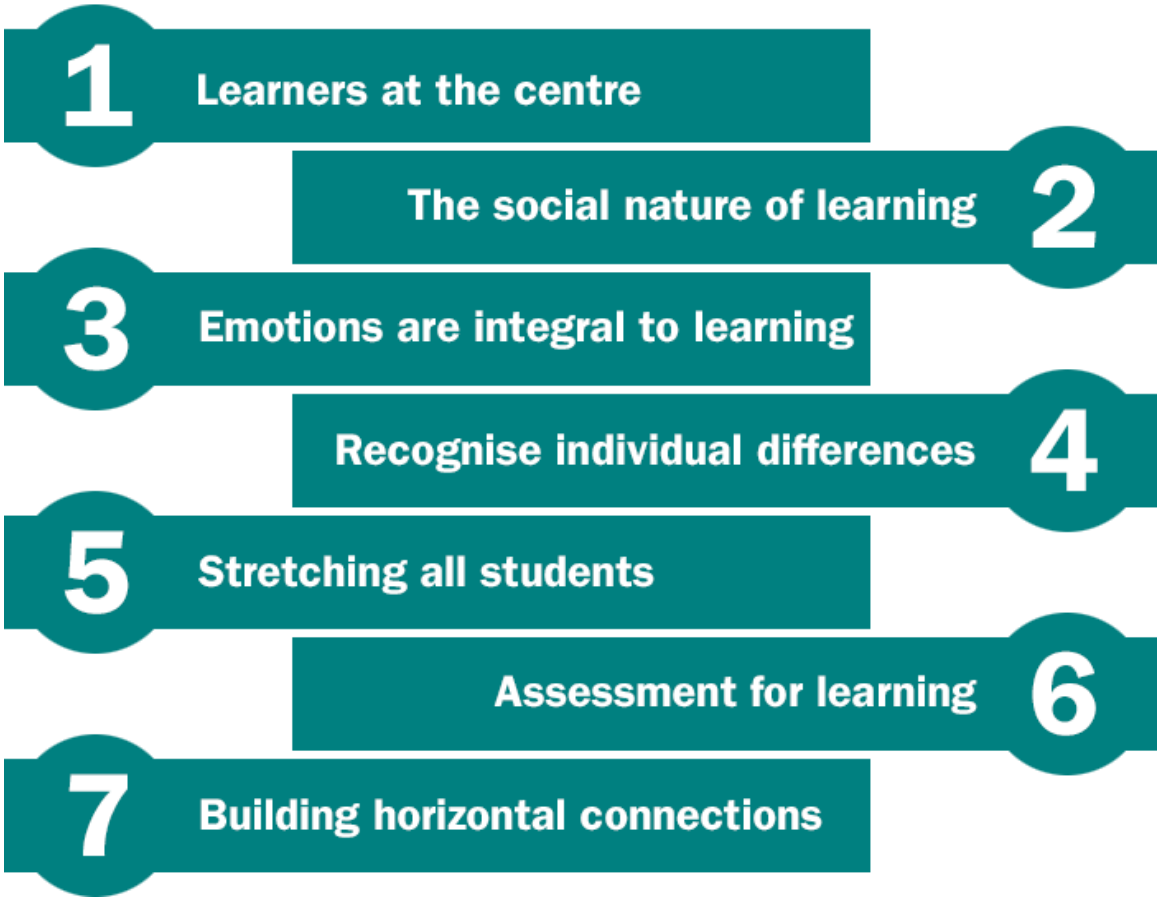
processes. They are closely linked to teachers' strategies for coping with challenges in their daily professional life.



Activity-Based Learning is a type of teaching where children learn at their own pace through various supervised activities. It is a more interactive and engaging method of teaching children. It allows for monitoring factors such as coordination, speech, motor skills and social skills amongst other important factors.

Benefits of Activity Based Learning (ABL)

- Authentic Learning (Simulations, Lab, Field)
- Classroom Assessment, Reflection, & Feedback.
- Expanding Depth and Breadth.
- Fostering Motivation.
- Group & Cooperative Learning; Students as Classroom Leaders.
- Revealing & Dealing with Misconceptions.
- Stimulating Students to Think.

EXAMPLES:

An activity based curriculum might also focus on learning through play. For example, teachers might use interactive games to develop key skills in English or Maths, like our KS2 Maths Escape Room which revises Roman numerals, fractions and graphs.

What is an activity based learning?

Activity-based learning is the process of learning by doing. As opposed to asking kids to simply listen and take notes, activity-based learning encourages students to actively participate in their own learning experience through practical activities such as problem-solving and independent investigation.

The Activity-based Learning system or the ABL was first pioneered by David Horsburgh, the British-born educationist. Since its inception, it has seen implemented widely across the nation in many states.

Activity-Based Learning - An Effective Methodology

Activity-Based Learning (ABL) is a methodology where children learn at their own pace through various supervised activities. It is a more engaging and interactive way of teaching children. It allows for monitoring factors such as speech, coordination, social skills, and motor skills, amongst other key factors.

It is a fun approach to learning as it boosts the development of the brain in children by providing constant stimulus by prompting them for responses. Activity-based learning is achieved broadly in three ways namely, exploration, experimentation, and expression.

Types of Activity Based Learning

Activity-based learning can be categorized broadly into two types. The student-centric approach where the teaching is designed with the student as the major factor. This promotes self-learning. The second type is the teacher-centric approach, where the teacher is in the lead role, who leads the student through the entire process.

Benefits of Activity-Based Learning

Activity-Based Learning has innumerable benefits, especially in early childhood development.

1. It encourages children to be inquisitive and independent. It helps them to think analytically. It kindles their curiosity which in turn makes them active and not passive. The children become more observant. Its focus is on 'learning by doing' method.

2. It supports the development of social skills. It improves their confidence, tests their cooperation levels when in groups, and builds their communication skills. The children learn to challenge themselves and come up with creative solutions.

3. It enhances memory. This is true even for adults and not just children. Anything we do, we remember for a longer period, than anything we read or listen to. The retention and recall rates are undoubtedly better with activity-based learning.

4. It encourages them to express themselves freely. Activity-based learning helps children get in touch with their emotions and convey them.

5. Continuous engagement. This is perhaps the most significant benefit. As opposed to classroom teaching, activity-based learning faces no threat of inattention. Since the children are actively involved at every step, they cannot stray away.

6. Ability variability: This feature is hugely leveraged by activity-based learning. Not all children can grasp things at the same time or pace or degree.Each child is unique, even in their ability to learn. Activity-based learning promotes learning at the pace of each child, thus eliminating the stress of time or pace at which they learn.

7. Motivation: Unquestionably, each child feels a sense of accomplishment in performing each activity. They feel motivated by each of their achievements. This enhances their confidence to believe in their abilities.

The approach of activity-based learning is the perfect teaching approach, especially for children. This methodology has gained such profound importance that even toy companies are employing this approach in producing activity-based and educational toys. This is performed to stimulate the minds of the toddlers and help keep them positively occupied!

Characteristics of Well-designed Activities

- ✓ Active Involvement. The More Students Are Actively Engaged With Their Own Learning, The More They Learn. ...
- ✓ Confronting Misconceptions. New Ideas And Knowledge Are Largely Constructed Out Of Existing Ideas. ...
- ✓ Multiple Representations. ...
- ✓ Iteration. ...
- ✓ Appropriate Use Of Technology.

For example, a problem-based learning project could involve students pitching ideas and creating their own business plans to solve a societal need. Students could work independently or in a group to conceptualize, design, and launch their innovative product in front of classmates and community leaders.

While teaching is a continuous process for teachers, studying is for the students. Over time, there is tendency that it gets monotonous or boring. But there is a need to wean off the boredom to come over as a successful student or teacher. This calls for activity-based learning, which knocks out the conventional method.

What Is The Conventional Method Of Learning?

It is a classroom set up where the teacher teaches on a blackboard and students listen to it seated on chairs inside a class. What Is Activity-based Learning? Activity-based learning is indulging students in activities by stimulating their senses, such as sight, smell, vision or feeling, and getting them involved in the subject. CareerIndia presents 10 activity-based learning methods that make school fun, in turn making students remember what they study.

Real Objects Real objects work better when trying to understand them rather than something virtual or imaginary. Science lessons can be extremely interesting through this method of teaching. The best part is that the efforts can be from both the sides - teachers and students for this. Say, the class is going to be about the classification of plants, students can be asked to collect different varieties of plants and the teacher can teach them about the plant during class.

If it is a math class, students can be made to bring in real apples and mangoes to understand the problems that involve various calculations through buying and selling fruits. Fun With Learning: 5 Interesting Ways Teachers Can Make Students Perform Classroom Theme Image Source Coming back to the same walls and gates could get boring. How about converting your classroom into a space and having a science class? Exciting, isn't it? You can create your own thematic class room space to incorporate the excitement and create a conducive environment for the period.

Storyboard Image Source Making storyboards could be time-consuming but it is best suited for young students. Even in math, a sine chart describing differentiation and integration could be a valuable thing for students to see and learn from. Either the teacher could make it or ask students to do it and put it up in the classroom so that they get to see it often and absorb the concepts.

CONCLUSION:

In my teaching, I have used Activity based teaching which helps me to make my students active through out the hour and students will be involved in all the contents through such type of learning. Really ABL will help us to learn more things from students too by giving the space to share more points relevant to our topics which we are handling.

14 Chapter ARIES APP USED FOR VIRTUAL VOICE ASSISTANT

Dr. S. Visalakshi [1], Mr. Sahil Upreti [2]

ISBN: 978-93-92917-32-5 | **DOI**: 10.25215/9392917325.14

Abstract

Virtual Voice Assistant System has become a concept of smart assistant which provides a new conception of voice-controlled gadgets that expose the speech and processes the request in quick momentum environment. In this paper, developed a Desktop Virtual Assistant to open websites, to play video on a computer and open YouTube to watch videos. Used Google Speech API for Speech Recognition. The device will recognize the voice, it will process the human query and gives the corresponding result. The instruction of virtual assistant can be handled by the users. This feature makes easier for the user to get the output; the user doesn't require to type for a long time. This makes the environment advancement in technology which can perform many tasks in a Desktop with same effectiveness or can say it is more effective than us. It decreased human effort and saved time.

Keyword: *Virtual Voice Assistant***,** *Virtual Assistant, Desktop Virtual Assistant, Intelligence Virtual Assistant, Knotting,*

1. Introduction

Virtual Voice Assistant is an application program that can understand the natural language of all voice commands and complete the task for the users. For example, searching for a website like Google, YouTube, Wikipedia etc. There are several benefits of using virtual assistance such as time-saving, convenience, efficiency, cost-effective, flexibility, increase productivity and scalability. Virtual Assistant requires a large amount of information to be worked efficiently. There are multiple virtual assistants, but hardly we use it. It contains various issues with the virtual assistant because of voice recognition. The system can understand English language phrases, but they probably fail to recognize other Language. Also, they are easier to use in mobile devices than Desktop systems because the Desktop system assistance have a long way to ensure the quality of the controls and difficult to activate and close in a desktop. There is a real need for a virtual assistant which can easily understand Hindi and responds in Hindi language. When the virtual assistant is not able to give the exact answer to the questions accurately, because it is lack in correct and relevant context, or it does not understand the intent of the following query. Virtual Assistant should be able to use these models to recommend the proper plans for the user who is using the virtual assistant. Virtual Assistant should be able to consider the user preferences and other active tasks which priorities for a proper plan. Our proposed system have few added features such as open any software in a desktop, include conversation, weather forecasting, display date & time, open & close any applications, set alarms & scheduling meetings, YouTube (control like play, pause, volume up & volume down), reading latest news, calculator, sending & receiving WhatsApp message, system control (shut down, restart, empty recycle bin), password protection (we can also

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change our password), shows the IPL score, playing a game (i.e. rock paper and scissors), camera functions and language translator (English & Hindi). The main objective of building ARIES (AI Desktop Virtual Assistant) is to provide the user with a quick way to respond to a query given through voice. It is easy to configure to perform many of our daily tasks by giving a simple voice command which can help a user who doesn't desire to give the input by typing and using a keyboard. The primary goal of a virtual voice assistant is to understand and respond to the user's requests and commands. Additionally, virtual voice assistant aims to personalize the user's experiences by learning from their performance and behaviors. They may suggest content or action based on previous interactions, and they can adapt to different contexts and situations. Overall, the virtual voice assistant is to enhance the user's productivity, convenience, and overall quality of life by making technology more accessible and intuitive.

In Section II the literature study is discussed. In Section III the proposed methodology is explained. In Section IV. Briefly discuss the results and discussion and finally in Section V presents the conclusion of the study.

2. Literature Survey

In this section, many authors have proposed many approaches for virtual assistant. Here are some of the surveys and its findings so we are going to explore the existing solution for virtual voice assistant which are as follows:

The challenge is to design the Intelligence Virtual Assistant (IVA) applications is to make that appear. Gamification has a concept that can assist using the IVAs applications [1,2]. The representations of which the visual of the progress and to take their feedback is a concept of its essential component of the gamification. When we use IVAs the information of the visual information is not yet available. In the end, the article concluded that the result of the lab experiment has 81 of the subjects that are describing the gamification that is almost done. They utilized this gamification entirely by the audio that can help and assist the various subjects to make it work as much as faster and is able to improve the motivation regarding to it. The game is designed for elements that have points and levels which can easily integrate with an Alexa skill through the audio output to motivate all the given subjects to complete household tasks. The author has described it in the different ways for the design and the testing of gamification that has an application which can be used to practice the pronunciation of the English vocabulary. This is web-based application, and it was developed for smartphone users to work with google assistance for the voice recognition. It can promote and given challenge is to create in which the users can be able to perform and complete the tasks.

Knotting is a very challenging and high dexterous task in the surgery which has even with the assistant of robotic surgical systems [3]. In this work, proposed a simple yet versatile virtual fixture framework that can be applied perfectly on the masters of manipulation in a teleoperated robotic system. In this framework, it is stated that, further have a development of two types of virtual fixtures that really can assist with the help of needle passing and knot tying sub tasks in suturing which has virtual fixture assistant. The paper also presents the overall results of a fourteen-participant user who need to study both needle passing and knot tying tasks and that shows that the virtual fixture assistant has an exit point accuracy, and it reduces the number of errors in knot tying.

2. Methodology:

Desktop Virtual Assistant has gained so much popularity in the stage of smart homes and smart devices. Built a Desktop Virtual Assistant named as ***ARIES***. It is an AI Desktop Virtual Assistant. ***ARIES*** can perform any task, services or perform specific functions as requested by the user. Desktop Virtual Assistant can be able to perform various tasks which you do regularly by simply giving the voice commands. They can take the command by voice, which invokes by waking up and activate the defined functions subsequently. This assistant currently works online and performs basic tasks such as opening desktop applications, weather updates, Wikipedia search and so on. ***ARIES*** recognize the voice instructions given by the user which is shown below Fig. 1. The system understands the voice format as a voice command and the system will carry out the user's command. It has privacy which has password protection which makes the ***ARIES*** greatly improved among other virtual assistant and it has the potential to achieve far more than we have so far. It makes things smarter and better by employing AI.

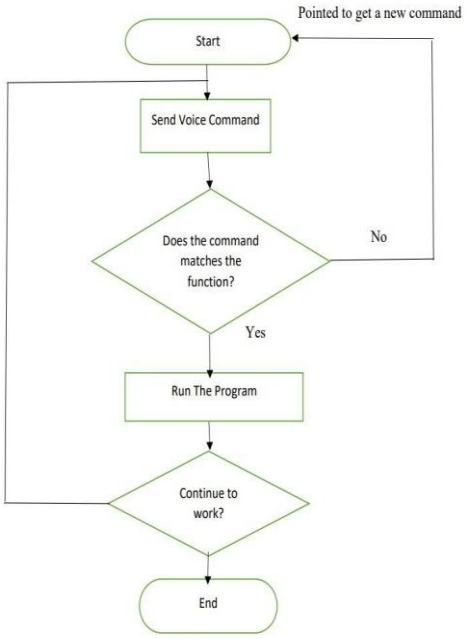


Fig. 1: Flow of ARIES.

Features that *ARIES* performs:

1. Searching for a website like google, YouTube, Wikipedia etc.
2. Can open any application in a desktop.
3. Conversation with ***ARIES***
4. Automatically detecting and displaying the current Temperature.
5. Automating Time.
6. Open/close app.
7. Set alarms.
8. Fully automate YouTube control like play, pause, volume up, volume down.
9. Remember functions.
10. Playlist using ***ARIES***.

11. Latest news.
12. Calculator
13. WhatsApp Automation function
14. Shutting down of the entire system.
15. Restart the entire system.
16. Empty recycle bin.
17. Password protection.
18. Schedule your day.
19. Live IPL score Function.
20. Check internet speed.
21. Rock paper scissors game with ***ARIES***.
22. Screenshot and camera function.
23. Google translator.

4. Results and Discussions

The virtual assistant of "ARIES" developed using python [4,5]. The various features are implemented by using the libraries available in pycharm.

Library Imported:

import os
import webbrowser
import pyaudio
import datetime
import pyttsx3
import speech_recognition
from pywhatkit.sc
import time

Functions

Speak Function Code:

```
it("sapi5")
voices = engine.getProperty("voices")
engine.setProperty("voice", voices[0].id)
engine.setProperty("rate", 170)

def speak(audio):
    engine.say(audio)
```

Fig. 2: Speak function code

The above Fig.2 imported the Speech Recognition and set the property to male voice for the speech and text input.

Listening and Recognizing of ARIES:

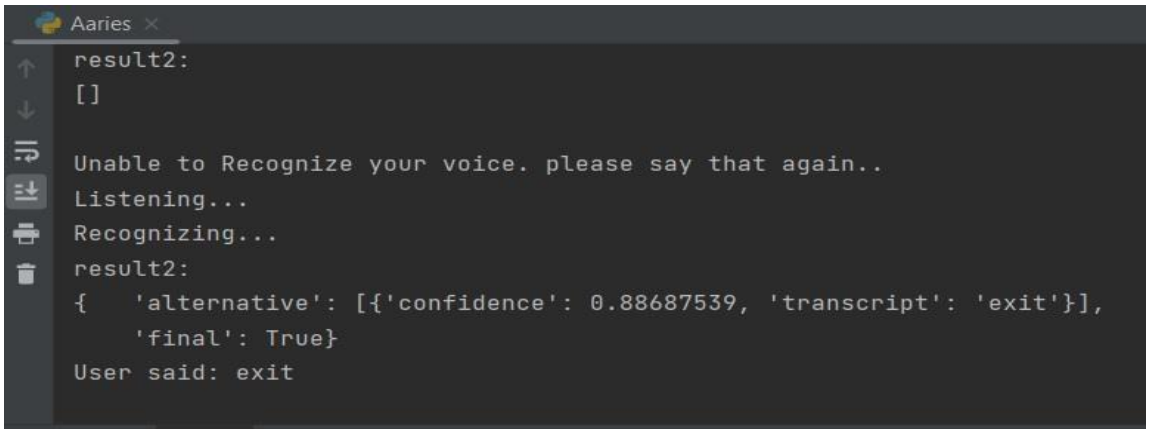


Fig. 3: Listening and Recognizing function.

The above Fig.3: brief about the listening the input voice and the recognize the request given by user, according to that it will call the corresponding feature to execute.

Password protected and changing the password:

for i in range(3):

a = input("Enter your password to open Aries :-") pw_file = open("password.txt")

pw = pw_file.read() pw_file.close()

if (a==pw):

print("WELCOME SIR ! PLEASE SPEAKE [WAKE UP OR HEY ARIES OR HELLO ARIES] TO LOAD ME UP")

break

elif (i==2 and a!=pw): exit()

elif (a!=pw): print("Try Again!")

The Argon2 Secure Hash Algorithm is best among the best hashing algorithm used for getting password command and perform the following steps, the same shown in the Fig. 4

Step 1: Created a new text file in a main project file to add the string of a password.
Step 2: The text file name gets imported into the main python file and start to run the program.

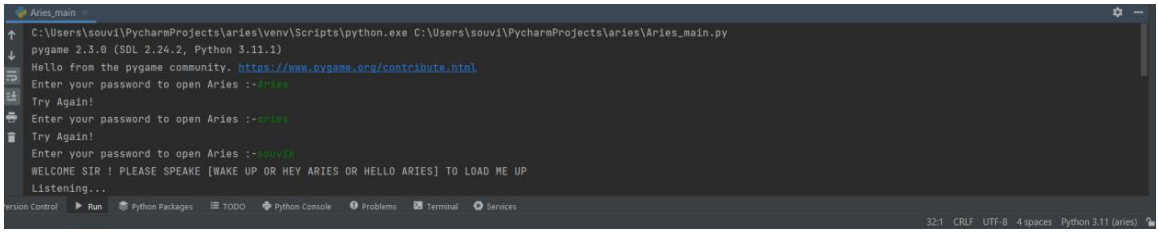


Fig 4:. Password protected and changing the password.

Searching for a website like Google, Wikipedia, YouTube, Facebook:

Google Redirections: It is done through web scraping and the steps need to be followed. In a main

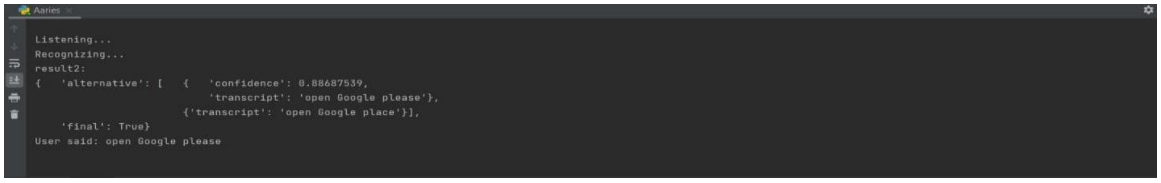


Fig.5: Searching for a website in Google.

project file write the code and add a function web browser, Pyttsx3 that can extract the data. The result is shown in the above Fig.5.

Wikipedia redirections:

The same steps are followed for the searching in Wikipedia and the function imported is web browser. The code for same is shown below Fig. 6:

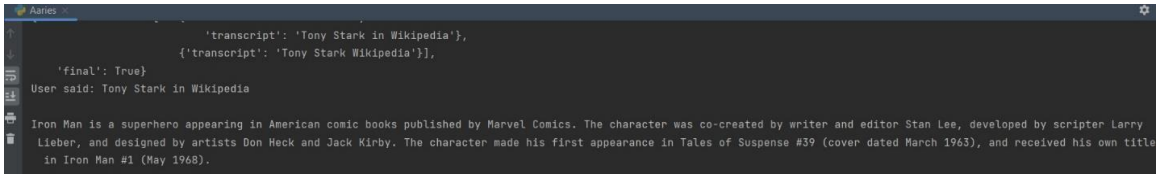


Fig.6: Searching for a website in Wikipedia.

YouTube Redirections: The same steps are followed for the website search in YouTube. The code for same is shown below Fig. 7:

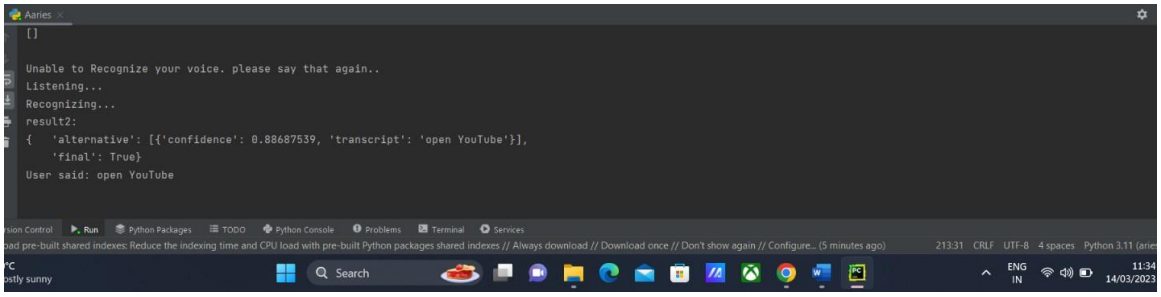
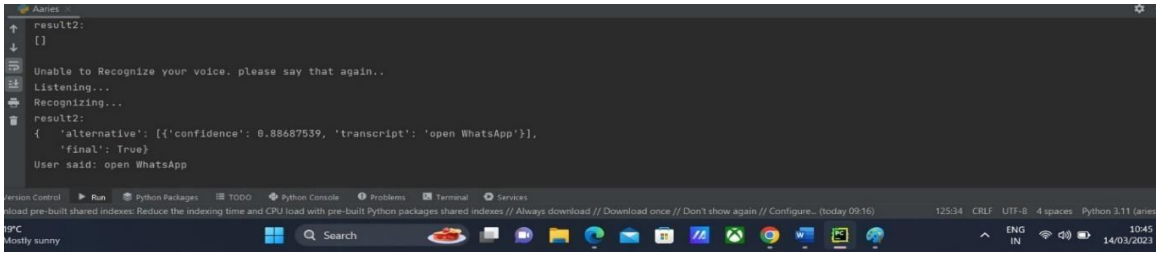


Fig.7: Searching for a website in YouTube.



WhatsApp redirections:

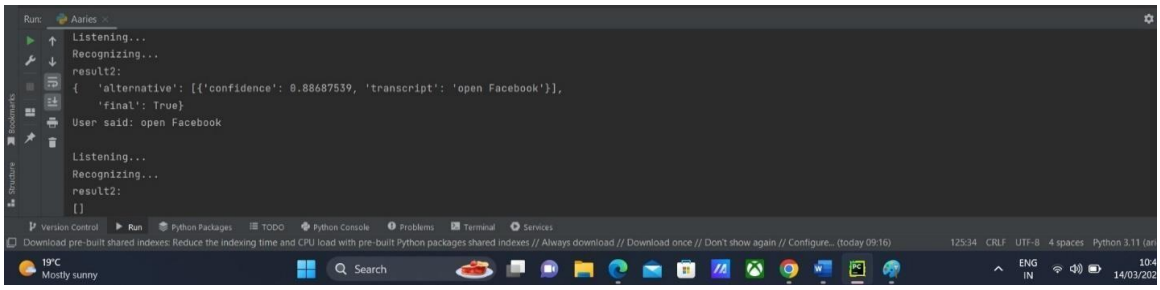


Fig 9: Searching for a web in WhatsApp.

Conversation with ARIES: Used speechRecognition() for the recognition and PyAudio to speak and gave a elif statement for the conversation.

```
if "hello" in query:
    speak("Hello sir, how are you
?")elif "i am fine" in query:
    speak("That's great
sir")elif "how are you" in
```

Fig. 10: Conversation with ARIES

Automating Date and Time: Done through the date and time functions Code:

```
elif 'time' in query:
    Time = datetime.datetime.now().strftime("%I:%M
    %p")print(Time)
```

Fig. 11: Showing current time.

Playing song:

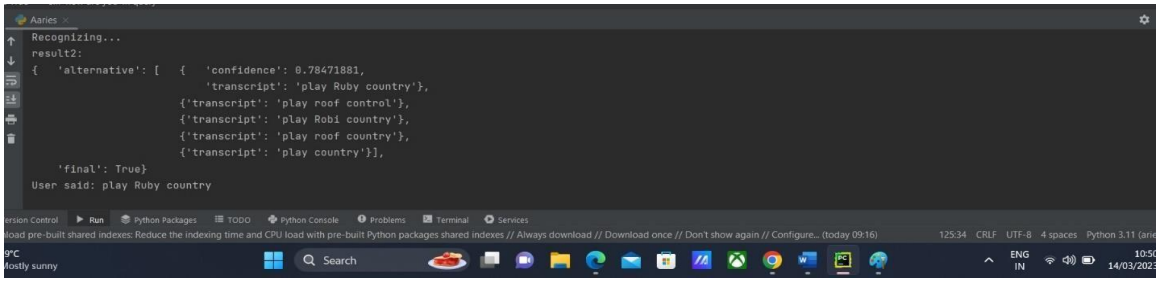


Fig. 13: Playing for a website in YouTube song

```
elif "restart" in query:
    subprocess.call(["shutdown",
    "/r"])
```

Restart the system:

Fig. 15: Restart the system

Restarts the entire working of the system code which is depicted in Fig. 15

Empty recycle bin in system:

```
elif "empty recycle bin" in query:
    winshell.recycle_bin().empty(confirm=False,
```

Fig. 16: Cleaning the recycle bin

The various features are incorporated into Aries and its ready to use by users for day-today life. Compare with Alexa, it is having most of the same features, but it lacks in language. In our proposed system, the system can understand with the input data given by user and execute the results effectively.

5. Conclusion

Virtual assistant is to provide support and assistance to individuals and business in a wide range of tasks and activity that can be completed remotely. The few problem in virtual voice assistant is that are misunderstanding voice command, language, required internet connectivity and integration issue. The primary objective of Virtual voice assistant is to provide a user-friendly and efficient way for users to interact with technology through voice command. The system is designed to recognize and understand spoken language, interpret user's interaction, and perform action accordingly). Perform a wide range of task such as setting reminder, WhatsApp automation, playing music, controlling smart home devices etc. Enhance accessibility, increase efficiency and productivity. Successfully developed a Desktop Virtual Assistant "ARIES" which is capable of doing various desktop performance such as searching for a website like Google, YouTube, Wikipedia, it can open any application in a desktop. We can have conversation, automate Temperature, automate time, open and close any applications, set alarms, fully automate YouTube control like play, pause, volume up and volume down, remember functions which users ask to remember, open playlist, say about the latest news, calculator, WhatsApp automation function, shut down the entire system, It has a password protection we can also change our password, shows the IPL score functions, schedule the day, play a game (rock paper and scissors) and screenshot and camera functions. This whole work developed by using an open-source software modules with PyCharm community which can assist any updates quickly. The modular of this system nature is easier and more flexible to add some additional feature without interrupting current system functionalities. The entire system works on verbal input. The system works in the human command, but it also gives a response to the user based on any questions asked by the user such as opening a task or the operation in the Desktop. Hence this virtual assistant can be used by any users without having any prior knowledge of virtual voice assistant.

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15 Chapter A STUDY ON THE CONTRIBUTION OF APJ ABDUL KALAM IN EDUCATION

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ISBN: 978-93-92917-32-5 | **DOI**: 10.25215/9392917325.15

Abstract:

Education plays a major role to bring revolutionary changes in any society and in developing any nation. Abdul Kalam was one of the distinct thinkers who had elaborated their major ideas on national, social and economic perspectives. His greater achievements uplifted the nation to the international arena in science and technology. Though he was a man of science and technology and having an active interest in the field of researches, he was a known thinker and a considerable writer of visionary thoughts and ideas. The earlier thinkers and philosophers of education have elaborated different perspectives on education. On the other way, Abdul Kalam had talked about the modern education system and its need for the human being, for the society, for the economy of the country and for the national development. He had presented very keen ideas and thoughts regarding education in his ample speeches and writings including books and articles. These educational thoughts are the significant directions and suggestions for the betterment of education and its expansion into the every nook and corner of the country.

Introduction:

Education is an endless journey through knowledge and enlightenment. (Indomitable Spirit, p.45) Education plays a major role to bring revolutionary changes in any society and in developing any nation. Education is an important factor for going ahead with the present era. In this era, whatever achievement that human being has achieved it is impossible without the exploration of education. Education is the first priority of the developed countries.

Review:

When any person thinks about to put any innovative idea in action he has to give proper evidences to make it successful. So, the work of collecting these evidences can only be possible by research or experiment. It becomes very important for the researcher before doing any research to study different researches done in this field. The researcher can get a direction for his research work with the help of the review of related studies.

Statement of The Problem:

This is the very first step of any study to be conducted. The statement of problem clarifies the area where the research is going to be done. It is, therefore, very important that the researcher selects research topic which is clear in language and without any kind of prejudice. The research problem selected by the researcher in the present study is defined by her in the following way:

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"A STUDY ON THE CONTRIBUTION OF APJ ABDUL KALAM IN EDUCATION"

Objectives of the Study:

Every research definitely has objectives and on its basis the whole study flows ahead. In the present study, the researcher has determined the following objectives in order to conduct the whole study in appropriate way:

1) To study the concept and aims of education according to APJ Abdul Kalam.
2) To study the educational perspectives of APJ Abdul Kalam.
3) To study the role of parents in developing a child according to APJ Abdul Kalam.
4) To study APJ Abdul Kalam's thoughts regarding the modern education system.
5) To evaluate APJ Abdul Kalam as an educational thinker.
6) To derive educational implications based on the analysis and interpretations.

Research Question:

The questions constructed by the researcher for the present study are as follow:

1. What is the concept of education according to APJ Abdul Kalam?
2. What are the aims of education according to APJ Abdul Kalam?
3. What is the role of education system according to Abdul Kalam?
4. What are the thoughts of Abdul Kalam on teacher?
5. What is the role and duties of students according to Abdul Kalam?
6. What are the duties of parents according to APJ Abdul Kalam?
7. What are the thoughts of Kalam on leadership?
8. What is the educational perspective of APJ Abdul Kalam?
9. How is APJ Abdul Kalam as an educational thinker?
10. What are APJ Abdul Kalam's thoughts regarding the modern education system?
11. What are the educational implications of the study?

Methodology:

The research in educational field can be classified as quantitative research and qualitative research. Quantitative research consists of those in which the data concerned can be analyzed in terms of numbers. Qualitative research can describe events, persons, and so forth scientifically without the use of numerical data. The methodologies utilized in the conduct of educational research are based, in most instances, on research methods used in the behavioral and social sciences, relying most heavily on the psychology, sociology, and anthropology. Since research in these fields of study emphasizes logical positivism which uses experimental methodologies.

Discussion:

EDUCATIONAL

Educational means something that is of education, related to education or concerned with education, i.e. the objectives of education, curriculum, education system, teacher-student relationship, educational management, etc. Here, the ideas and thoughts of APJ Abdul Kalam which narrate the education system, objectives, curriculum and educational management can be said educational.

THOUGHTS

Ideas or opinions produced by thinking or occurring suddenly in the mind. „Thought‟ is an idea or mental picture, imagined and contemplated. Here, it means the thoughts of APJ Abdul Kalam about education and related matters.

REFLECTED

Reflected means thrown back, given back or shown an image of something. It also means expressed carefully on any important issue or topic. Here, in the present study, reflected means presented or expressed directly and indirectly. The educational thoughts which are presented and expressed in the writings of Abdul Kalam are said as 'reflected' thoughts from his writings.

WRITINGS

Writings are all the things that a particular author has written or pieces of writing by different people on a particular subject. (Collins Co build Eng. Language dictionary, 1993, p.1695) Here, writings are something that is written by APJ Abdul Kalam. The educational thoughts can be derived from these writings. His writings involve all the materials related to him, his books and articles.

Findings:

1)A real education is always meaningful and as per the need of the students. The process of getting information and passing the examinations by memorizing them is not education at all; it is to bring out the inner liberation of the students by making them aware of their own self. A real education prepares students to be responsible, thoughtful, skillful and understanding.

2) The primary education is education full of creativity. It has creative teacher, creative syllabus and creative classroom. Creativity is the centre in primary education. The learning in primary school must be interesting on the part of the students.

3) The University education needs special cadres of well qualified and intelligent people in order to meet future demands. The reformed rules for recruitment of faculties, establishing equipments and infrastructure and creating learning climate in order to enhance the abilities of the students are the major things of good university education.

4) The education system has to work on the policy reforming, curriculum reconstruction, admission procedure, teaching methodology, research works and recruitment procedures. Giving autonomy to Universities, upgrading infrastructure, evaluating institutions on certain criteria and following RTE and RTI acts with regulation are some of the major aspects of a good education system.

Conclusion:

There is abundant knowledge and skills remained in the students which are expected to be enhanced and developed in positive direction. The teachers are the responsible persons for this. The necessity is to teach them how to use the knowledge lying in one's own mind and utilize the skills. Skill oriented syllabus is the need of the time in every school that can enhance the abilities of students and make them capable of living a better life. Vocational education develops the abilities and entrepreneurial skills of students. The vocational subjects like arts,

crafts, architecture, etc. in the school syllabus make the students capable for entrepreneurship in future. The experts of different vocations can add in the knowledge and understanding of the students for the vocations they want to choose in after school and college education.

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16 Chapter EXPLORING THE EFFICACY OF HEALTH HUMANITIES IN LITERARY SCHOLARSHIP: CURRENT TRENDS AND EMERGING CHALLENGES

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ISBN: 978-93-92917-32-5 | **DOI**: 10.25215/9392917325.16

Abstract

This paper examines the emergent field of Health Humanities and Literary Studies, which give new insights into how literary works offer a contemporary view of health, illness, and medical sciences. It highlights how multipronged strategies can be applied drawing from the diverse fields of medical memoirs, disability studies, graphic medicine, narrative medicine, literary gerontology, memory studies, and trauma studies, to enhance the analysis and pedagogy. By the analysis of literary works that handle the patient-doctor relationship, the disease effect, and medical practice complexity, the study determines the literature's special ability to reflect and mold public perceptions of health and illness. The theme of the essay is conveyed by literary analysis, which in turn shows how fiction reflects the society's worries about health and contributes to the medical story. Unfortunately, it also emphasises the difficulties which result from the fusion of these two domains in terms of methods for integration and interpretation of medical terminologies in contexts of literary texts. The study stresses this by identifying these factors, to ensure that health humanities is perceived as a priceless though complicated alternative to the traditional literary analysis, proposing a more empathetic and wide approach to the medical writing.

Keywords: *Health Humanities, Literature, Medicine, Intersection, and Interdisciplinary.*

Introduction

According to trends in interdisciplinary literary studies, it is very strongly suggested that the major trend now is the employment of approaches brought from various disciplines as tools to add value to the analysis and research of literature. Based on this, Labinska et al. (2020) proposed an innovative model of methodological analysis of a literary text that integrates pedagogical and philological (linguistic and literature) models, using diverse scientific layers and methodologies in order to make the understanding of the literary texts most integral, with special care for children with special educational needs. Nahotko (2020) sums up the interdisciplinary theory of genres and its use in various disciplines: linguistics, literary studies, sociology, and library information science (LIS), showing how this theory may further the consolidation of information organization and comprehension in the relatively new interdisciplinary area of LIS. Biryukova (2023) designs an essentially integrative educational model that would be based on interdisciplinary connections in the process of developing professional competences of students majoring in philology. The author also points out one of the main reasons for such a solution: the deep pedagogical meaning hidden inside. These examples illustrate the evolution of literary scholarship, where scholars more and more draw from an interdisciplinary toolbox to deepen their analysis and the pedagogy of literature.

A literature review of books that touch on a medical condition as a theme has, without a doubt, brought to the surface many sides of human experience and reflections of the complex illness

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itself, the ability to heal, and the multifaceted nature of the medical profession. Lysanets (2019) refers to the book *Critical Condition* by Peter Clement, in which he discovers silence, a semantic potential in medical discourse, and shows that with the help of silence, literary works can actually extend our knowledge about patient-doctor communication and personal impacts of diseases. Additionally, Sadovnycha (2019) brings out that the ever-increasing urgency for books focuses on information regarding health care, prevention, treatment of diseases, and reflecting on issues of how literary and non-fiction can contribute to public health knowledge. Going further, Lysanets et al. (2023) try to describe the semiotic characteristics of American fiction oriented toward medical issues, showing how literature is actually a reflection and, at the same time, inflicts opinions about the doctor–patient relationship, illness, and ways to be cured. These studies showed a powerful relation between literature and medical science, giving man deep experience about his condition in health and illness.

Literature explains that medical memoirs search for deep insight into what it is like to be living the experience of their illness from the side of patients and health providers. As Sundaram (2019) discusses, these medical memoir illness narratives bring forth the human rights discourse that underlines the role of such narratives in the development of social understandings of rights and medical care ethics. From these perspectives, one can derive that the memoirs reflect a type of subjectivity that enriches our social imaginary of health and illness through the telling of traumatic suffering (Sundaram, 2019). Shaw (2018) demonstrates that there is a close relationship between Adam Kay's *This is Going to Hurt* and other texts within the medimoir genre by showing how this particular text is accepted critically and literarily through medico-philological scholarship in the British National Health Service and public health debates. That underpins the trend in society towards the value of personal stories in understanding the medical practice complexities and care of the patient (Shaw, 2018). These works exemplify the importance of medical memoirs to expand collective knowledge on the health of society by bridging personal experiences of suffering.

This essay presents an approach in examining medical themes in written works of literary fiction with the help of health humanities. In addressing these quite unique ways stories of health and ill health mediate or represent, we will open deeper doors into the degree to which such a condition meaning is what we value in the process of our understanding of medicine, health care experience, and therefore the whole human condition. It does this by a careful textual reading of a number of literary pieces and demonstrating that fiction is the mirror of society’s perceptions about sickness to show concern to hard-to-understand patterns in the fields of literature, medicine, and humanities.

Defining Health Humanities

Health humanities is a dynamic, interdisciplinary field situated at the margins of arts, humanities, social sciences, and health. It sets out to serve the goal of encouraging the application of those disciplines in learning more about health care, the experiences of being a patient, and more broadly, the human condition vis-à-vis health and illness. Loads (2018) add that health humanities also defines itself in a way that its scope entails a broader conception of health derived from learning healthcare that uses the arts and humanities, which basically refers to a more embracing view of health rather than just the conventional biomedical models. In contrast, Clarke et al. (2019) advocate the urgent integration of humanities and social science methods in health sciences to be able to confront the complex social, psychological, This

clearly underscores the interdisciplinary approach with the aim of coming up with holistic strategies that give weight to the multifaceted nature of health and diseases.

The type of difference lies in the sphere of this interdisciplinary field, which is understanding and explanation. It has been a main interest in today's medical humanities to consider how it affects the human condition and the clinicians who do the work in regards to patients. The humanities of health go beyond this, and the humanities of medicine, or medical humanities, would traditionally deal with the "interface between arts and humanities in medical education and practice." In its definition, by how many health professions and disciplines it expands medicine, then it prescribes, in how such discipline is integrating these outward-facing disciplines, such professionals and patients are giving their best to the last. An expansion of how health and disease are being seen from a different perspective, which includes society in the picture, is taken as a fact that the determinants of the biomedical model detained for explaining such results are only the patients' factors and not the social, cultural, and environmental factors. Medical humanities are being replaced by health humanities, whose purpose is to draw more attention to contemporary healthcare issues, and the interdisciplinary will be the problem-solver from practice to policy formulation and growth (Jones, Blackie, Garden, & Wear, 2017, p.45).

Medical Humanities

It is in this interdisciplinary field of medical humanities and literary studies that a rich field is offered to explore the complexities of human experience, especially related to health, sickness, and the practice of medicine. On their part, Hunter, Charon, and Coulehan (1995) identify some of the advantages of the use of literature in medicine and medical education and observe that literary works contribute to building central clinical competences, including observation, interpretation, and empathy. "Engagement with literary texts can help medical students and professionals come into knowledge of the values and experiences of patients and caregivers. Knowledge is thus valuable in promoting patient-centeredness and more empirically grounded clinical outcomes." (Hunter, Charon, and Coulehan, 1995)

Further, Wasson (2015) considers that Gothic, through its emphasis on the vulnerable elements of corporality and medicalization of society, becomes useful in providing tools with the aim of sharper analysis of the influences that shape the dimension of illness experience and those which govern the dynamics of the discourse on medical. This reciprocity of the Gothic literature with medical writing is the power of narration in giving shape to ideas about health and disease (Wasson, 2015). Bolton (2008) values narrative competence for the professional in health care as brought through literature and creative writing. Thus, the application of narrative methods in clinical practice, aided by the involvement of literary narratives, tends to be valuable in bringing out the experiences and interpretation of illness, disability, and care with more detail and subtlety to help in delivering holistic and emic patient care (Bolton, 2008). The integration of literary studies into medical humanities would thus widen experience in the medical curriculum in further understanding humanity, fostering greater empathy, and an increase in communication skills.

Disability Studies

As the literary theory, Disability Studies focuses intentions to provide a critical framework whereby one can only but probe the representations of disabilities within literature, therefore uncovering the ways in which such representations both reflect and effect cultural attitudes

towards the disabled. That is, it challenges the traditional notion and stereotype of thinking that demands a more complex understanding of disability beyond the medical or deficit paradigm. Hagood (2010) applies a Disability Studies lens to American literature in an attempt to focus on how the community serves in deliberation over identity politics and the marginalization of other characters in novels by authors such as Flannery O'Connor and Ernest Hemingway. With the development of Disability Studies, we get a way to challenge the idea of how all bodies deviate from cultural and economic ideals and be guided on how to develop an insight into how literature constructs norms for the body (Hagood, 2010).

Meekosha and Shuttleworth (2009) point out that Critical Disability Studies (CDS) become the "first preferred nomenclature" in the field, at one and the same time indicating a deep rise of more critical inquiry, which assumes the social, cultural, and political dimensions of disability. Much emphasis here is laid on the need for the Disability Studies to critically reflect with its frameworks and engage with other cultural analyses in what one would quite reasonably call a disciplinary maturation process (Meekosha & Shuttleworth, 2009). McRuer (2020) has gone on to discuss that Disability Studies is interdisciplinary, involving "feminist theory, critical race theory, and queer theory in its attempts to explore the differences in how bodies intermingle with gender, race, and sexuality. If anything, Disability Studies' Crip theory has argued with almost exquisite care for the pride and defiance of Crip culture in its push for a more inclusive definition of bodily and mental diversity (McRuer, 2020). In short, Disability Studies, as a field of literary theory, demands a complete re-examination in the representation and understanding of disability in the world of literature.

Graphic Medicine

Graphic Medicine is an emerging field that, on the one hand, lays a heavy emphasis on creativity and graphing and, on the other, science, reality, and medicine. It looks into stories of health, sickness, and nurse or patient’s duo. It helps o picture out and decode medical stories and experiences. This now provides a voice and platform to patients, medical practitioners and caregivers to share their journeys. It is interdisciplinary in nature and which only calls out for a reorientation of point of view that gives rise to new vistas fair chances of empathy, understanding and education in the field of healthcare. Venkatesan and Peter (2019) suggest that Graphic Medicine is a new indoculture, which is the opposite of the scientific dogmatism. This highlights the downside of biomedicinet it means using diverse views, stories as comic strips which gives outpatient, doctors, and relatives’ perspectives who have more realistic experiences. Graphic medicine is a novel medical sub-discipline that burrows itself between medicine and comics (Venkatesan & Peter, 2019); it amplifies the importance of humanistic traits in dealing with illnesses exemplifying significant truths about how to treat patients affectively.

Myers and Goldenberg try to explain graphic pathography and explain these concepts as the main things that Graphic Medicine is made of. This phenomenon facilitates the communication between both healthcare professionals and patients, when the health professionals are trying to understand illness from personal point of view, the patients are looking to experience the same condition from the perspective of persons, who survived through the challenges, which are similar for the patients. Comic pathographies reveal the particular effectiveness of this medium in the initial stages of patient education and the promotion of empathy in healthcare workers. For instance, they facilitate settings where the consent of patients is mandatory, and they are tailored for end-of-life issues (Myers & Goldenberg, 2018). In the end, graphic medicine

unfolds at the intersection of visual artwork, words in literature, and health care sector, and consequently becomes an aesthetically attractive way that novelizes the multi-dimensional themes of health and disease.

Narrative Medicine

Narrative medicine is the oriented approach to healthcare which recognizes the effect of the storytelling in the healthcare encounter. It recognizes that an illness is not only a biological fact, but it is a profoundly individual event that is formed by social, cultural and psychological effects too. Waiting to patient chronicles with empathy would enable the clinicians to achieve a much deeper comprehension of personal experience with an illness thus gaining a necessary loyalty of the patient in the course of healing and "fostering a sense of collaboration and trust critical to the healing process" (Greenhalgh & Hurwitz, 1999). Such an attempt "can validate patients' experiences, build stronger relationships between doctors and patients, and even improve clinical outcomes" (Charon, 2001). Medical curriculums focus more and more on implementing narrative medicine approaches, such as careful reading of patient stories and reflective writing by the healthcare workers, to develop better empathy levels, diagnostic skills, and level of resilience among future doctors (DasGupta and Charon, 2004).

Literary Gerontology

Literary gerontology is the line of inquiry toward the field of literary studies that considers the portrayal of old age and the elderly in general, giving a subtlety of knowledge toward the complexities of old age. All the three sections interlock the field of inquiry of psychology, sociology, and medical humanities to jointly assist in finding out the nature of portrayal of aging in literary works and their reflection and molding of social views concerning the aged. On the other side, Wyatt-Brown (1990) postulates that literary gerontology is the impact of aging on literature and lives, pointing to the analysis of literary attitudes towards senescence, effects on the creative course, and the meeting place of gerontology with psychoanalytic and humanistic approaches. Literature is the only interdisciplinary field that might guarantee the legitimization of aging and the contributions of the old to literary discourse.

Similarly, one of the types in the scope of literary gerontology is the direction of the humanities, which treats with the definition and investigation of gerontological markers in texts. Where it differs from medical gerontology in being focused on biology, literary gerontology offers a much more complex and elusive fictional representation of later life and what has been found to work against stereotypes to display the difficulties of aging in a culture orientated to youth. According to literature on the subject of ageism, the perception of "age" in terms of vitality had changed to a perception of decline, which underlines the high time for addressing the ageist euphemisms in fiction (Gaidash, 2019). Harris (2020) pointed out that literary gerontology could serve to stand against ageism and the dilemmas of aging through the poetic imagination of cultural stereotypes and poetic categories of growing old. This will particularly help in enabling deeper comprehension of what is meant by literary and linguistic gerontology, which is proposed to bring in contribution towards the challenge of societal norms on a specific aspect of aging. In this respect, literary gerontology hence remains a critical prism through which further probing and understanding the subtleties of the aging process in literature take place.

Memory Studies

Memory Studies is an emergent and interdisciplinary area that synthesizes various insights from the disciplines of anthropology, education, literature, history, philosophy, psychology, and sociology, in a bid to get to the bottom of the many-sided concept of memory. This then says that Memory Studies do need specification of the kind of memory in question, since there is a large generalization under one name—'memory' (Roediger and Wertsch, 2008). It underscores the infancy of this field and makes a case for the systematic development of methodological tools borrowed and adapted from various social sciences for its further growth. It signals, at the same time, the recognition and institutionalization of this discipline, to the existence of undergraduate programs in Memory Studies developed at the Washington University in St. Louis as a model for the establishment of programs in such places (Roediger & Wertsch, 2008).

Another view was by Radstone (2008), who advocates that memory research should be consolidated in its own disciplinary subject of 'memory studies.' She criticizes that the threat of over-personalization of political memory in equal measure to the debates of the external memory culture and its academic study in memory. Radstone argues that such a broad ethical turn in memory studies, while calling for the transformation of politics, at the same time mandates an ethically-disciplined way to analyze the politics of memory culture by means of traditional research methods. This criticism flags up tendencies or tensions within the ambit of memory studies between its interdisciplinary ambitions and the needs for methodological specificity/disciplinarity or division (Radstone, 2008).

Trauma Studies

Trauma studies is an interdisciplinary study of the psychological, social, and cultural dimensions of trauma and its aftermath. It considers ways by which representation, memory, and processing of reality contribute to individual as well as collectively held traumatic experience. Kleber (2019) therefore suggests that research into traumatic stress for public mental health might be most appropriately used to engender an appreciation of the necessity of evolving trauma-informed prevention approaches and interventions which also equally take into account the social and community contexts. This is highlighted because trauma studies contribute to the betterment in public mental health activities, and the needs of the traumatized can still be met within the context of a wider social framework.

Trends

Recent trends in health humanities, especially their use in literature, show fertile interaction between the analysis of literature and medical viewpoints. Health humanities are the interdisciplinary, applied scientific field that is based on borrowing a lot of tools from exact sciences and humanitarian disciplines in order to better understand all health issues regarding patient experience and the cultural implication of being ill and healthy. This is highlighted so much, in fact, even in academic development, which has suggested a parallel between health and learning by integrating literary studies methods to enlighten different aspects of health and taking care of patients (Loads, 2018).

A new, creative use is the use of the world literature genre of health to develop empathy among healthcare professionals. The readers of such narratives may even interact and probably develop a better understanding of the patients' state of emotion, thus enhancing empathy and

cultural awareness linked to humans and their health. With this kind of literature being floated as a new, non-canonical form within medical humanities curricula, students are thereby predisposed to more holistic views in patient care (Mo, 2021). Health humanities applied within the purview of literary study aim at arguing for a more textured understanding of the medical issues written in literature by providing the understandings into the personal and social dimensions of the issues concerning health and illness.

Challenges

Implementing health humanities in the context of literary studies poses the following variety of challenges, which are quite complex and belong into the field of theory, methodology, and practice. Interdisciplinary studies present challenges in many instances simply because one is called to combine different theories and frames of reference from the humanities and health sciences to do so. It conditions that both arts and sciences have to retain their pure forms, yet it creates a dialogue that reunites the parties. Methodologically, the lack of accepted methodologies and theory developed solely for application in the health humanities creates difficulty for research design and analysis. This is even more visible in qualitative research where the comparative detailed analysis of literary fiction and medical narratives involves innovation, the way one interprets fiction well enough to tap urgently needed information, requires precision in order to nail down what may be dense and abstract

Apart from the fact that the authenticity depends entirely on fictional stories, there also exist challenges that are inherently associated with this drawback. The language of the medical jargon found in these narratives may be not understood by people less informed in medical terminology, which could result in misstatements that could have such bad results as the understanding or the interpretation of health conditions and treatments. In addition, literature usually contains some over highlights of disease symptoms, which though they serve the purpose of such an account the may always be partial displays of patients' medical conditions. This highlights the problem of capturing the current interpretation and reliability of literature in presenting health and sickness related issues which forces the researchers to constantly dissect and contextualize the problems in health humanities research.

Coda

The article shows that the introduction of health humanities into the academia of literature means that in literature, health and illness are presented as multidimensional (multi-angled) issues and it is easier to get the true perspective and ideas on health and illness, than one dimension (one-angled) shown by medicine. A blend of approaches enabled by health humanities is a hard thing to do that launches the society and man as individuals to acquire much more knowledge about health. This book promises to be the case through the variety of aspects and twists that health by the prose reveals in it, as it strives to challenge everybody reading it, not only the scholar but the practitioner, the desire to think about their own experiences and what being human really means. Advancing as an emerging form of interdisciplinary genre, the new health humanities will enlarge the horizon of the literary knowledge or scholarship to the function of which it has been doing vital contribution within the pool of the growing intellectual work that is increasingly defining the current consensus about health, illness, and the ultimate meaning of being human.

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17 Chapter THE ROLE OF OPPOSITION PARTIES IN SHAPING OF LEGISLATIVE PROCESSES IN INDIAN DEMOCRACY

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ISBN: 978-93-92917-32-5 | **DOI**: 10.25215/9392917325.17

Abstract:

The role of opposition increases more when it comes to the world's largest democracy like India because India is a democratic Super Power. This research paper investigates the significant role played by opposition parties in influencing legislative processes within the context of Indian democracy. Despite the dominance of ruling parties, opposition parties have substantial power and responsibility in upholding democratic principles and ensuring government accountability. They get involved in different parts of the law-making process, like meetings and debates, to make sure laws are fair and serve everyone. We'll also see how opposition parties use smart strategies to get their voices heard, like working with others and proposing new ideas. This paper ends with ideas on how to make opposition parties even more effective in shaping laws and making democracy stronger for everyone. Understanding the important role of opposition parties is key to making sure democracy in India works the way it should, with fairness, transparency, and people's voices being heard. However, opposition parties face many challenges in carrying out their duties effectively. They may not always have enough resources or support to fully participate in the lawmaking process. Sometimes, they also have to deal with unfair treatment or disagreements with the ruling party. Despite these obstacles, opposition parties continue to play a vital role in India's democracy.

Keywords: *Opposition, democracy, parliament, law making*

1. Introduction:

India, the world's largest democracy, operates under a parliamentary system where decisions are made through elected representatives. In this system, political parties play a crucial role in

shaping laws and policies that affect millions of citizens. While much attention is often given to the ruling party, it's equally important to understand the role of opposition parties in this process. This research paper aims to look into the significance of opposition parties in shaping legislative processes within Indian democracy.

1.1 Brief Overview of the Legislative Process in India:

The legislative process in India operates within a bicameral parliamentary system at the national level and follows a similar pattern in most states. The Parliament consists of two houses: the Lok Sabha (House of the People) and the Rajya Sabha (Council of States). The legislative process typically begins with the introduction of a bill in either house, followed by discussions, debates, and amendments. Bills passed by both houses are then sent to the President for assent before becoming law.

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An effective opposition keeps the ruling party in check, making sure it doesn't overstep its boundaries. At the same time, it offers a different way of doing things, always pushing for better solutions. Understanding the role of opposition parties is essential for grasping the true essence of democracy in India. By proposing alternative policies, amendments, and legislative initiatives, opposition parties have enriched the discourse and compelled the ruling party to engage in meaningful dialogue and negotiation. Therefore, examining the role of opposition parties in legislative processes offers valuable insights into the functioning of democracy in India and sheds light on the strengths and challenges of its governance structures.

1.2 Research Question and Objectives:

This paper seeks to explore the following research question: What is the role of opposition parties in shaping legislative processes in Indian democracy?

The objectives of the study are as follows:

a. To analyze the formal and informal roles of opposition parties in the Indian legislative process.

b. To examine the strategies employed by opposition parties to influence legislative debates and outcomes.

c. To assess the impact of opposition parties on the effectiveness and functioning of Indian democracy.

d. To identify challenges and opportunities for strengthening the role of opposition parties in legislative processes. By addressing these research objectives, this study aims to provide a comprehensive understanding of the role played by opposition parties in shaping legislative processes within the Indian democratic context.

2. Historic Perspective:

2.1 Pre-Independence Era: Before India became independent in 1947, the struggle against British colonial rule dominated the political landscape. However, even within the movement for independence, there were differing opinions and approaches. Some leaders, like Mahatma Gandhi and Jawaharlal Nehru, advocated for non-violent resistance, while others, such as Subhas Chandra Bose, believed in more militant action. These differing viewpoints laid the groundwork for the diverse political landscape that would emerge post-independence.

2.2 Key Moments and Movements: The evolution of opposition politics in India can be traced back to the pre-independence era when the Indian National Congress (INC) emerged as the primary political force advocating for independence from British rule. However, groups like the Muslim League and socialist parties represented alternative viewpoints and added diversity. Post-independence, India witnessed the consolidation of opposition politics with the emergence of non-Congress parties challenging the hegemony of the INC. The formation of coalition governments at the state and national levels further contributed to the diversification of opposition politics. Over the years, opposition parties have evolved in terms of organizational structure, ideological orientations, and strategies for engaging with the ruling government.One significant moment in the pre-independence era was the formation of the Indian National Congress (INC) in 1885. Initially, the INC was a platform for educated Indians to voice their grievances against British rule, but it later became the leading force in the struggle

for independence. However, within the INC itself, there were factions and disagreements over strategies, leading to the emergence of opposition voices within the party. Another important moment was the partition of Bengal in 1905, which sparked widespread protests and opposition from Indian leaders. This movement played a crucial role in shaping nationalist sentiment and support for the independence movement.

2.3 Evolution of Opposition Politics: Following independence, India embarked on a new journey of nation-building and democracy. The Indian political landscape began to diversify as new parties emerged to represent various interests and ideologies. The dominance of the INC led to the formation of opposition parties that challenged its authority and policies.The INC was established in 1885, originally as a platform to express grievances against British rule, later becoming a leading force in the independence struggle. The partition of Bengal in 1905 sparked widespread protests, shaping nationalist sentiment and support for independence.After independence, new parties emerged, reflecting different ideologies and interests. The Swatantra Party, founded in 1959, presented an alternative to the INC's socialist agenda, advocating for conservative and capitalist interests. In the 1970s, regional parties like the Dravida Munnetra Kazhagam (DMK) and the Telugu Desam Party (TDP) emerged, representing linguistic and cultural communities. The 1990s saw the rise of coalition politics, with regional parties gaining prominence and influencing legislative processes. This shift altered the dynamics of opposition politics, as parties had to collaborate and negotiate to achieve their goals.

3. Role of Opposition Parties in Indian Legislative Processes:

3.1 Constitutional and Legal Framework:

In India, the role of opposition parties in legislative processes is governed by both constitutional provisions and legal frameworks. The Constitution of India, adopted in 1950, enshrines the principles of parliamentary democracy, providing for a multi-party system where opposition parties play a crucial role in the functioning of the legislature. Article 74(1) and Article 75(3) of the Constitution delineate the roles and powers of the President and the Council of Ministers, respectively, while Articles 79 to 122 outline the structure, powers, and functioning of the Parliament. Additionally, the Representation of the People Act, 1951, and the Rules of Procedure and Conduct of Business in Lok Sabha and Rajya Sabha lay down the procedural aspects of legislative functioning, including the rights and privileges of opposition members. These legal frameworks ensure that opposition parties have the necessary avenues to participate in legislative debates, introduce bills, and hold the government accountable through mechanisms such as questions, debates, and parliamentary committees.

3.2 Formal and Informal Roles:

Opposition parties in India play both formal and informal roles in shaping legislative debates, policy formulation, and lawmaking processes. Formally, opposition parties exercise their rights and duties as enshrined in the Constitution and parliamentary rules. They participate in debates on bills, propose amendments, and scrutinize the government's actions through mechanisms such as question hour and zero hour in the Parliament. Informally, opposition parties serve as watchdogs, holding the government accountable for its policies and actions. They act as forums for dissenting voices, representing alternative viewpoints and advocating for the interests of marginalized sections of society. Through public rallies, media campaigns, and grassroots mobilization, opposition parties influence public opinion and mobilize support for their policy

positions.

4. Case Studies:

4.1 Land Acquisition Bill, 2013:

a. Background:

In 2013, the Indian government proposed the Land Acquisition, Rehabilitation, and Resettlement Bill, aiming to revamp the process of acquiring land for developmental projects. The bill sought to replace the Land Acquisition Act of 1894, which was criticized for being outdated and lacking provisions for fair compensation and rehabilitation of affected communities.

b. Opposition Influence:

Opposition parties, particularly the Indian National Congress (INC), vehemently opposed several provisions of the bill, including the dilution of consent and social impact assessment clauses. Through parliamentary debates, public campaigns, and alliances with civil society groups, the opposition exerted pressure on the government to reconsider the bill's provisions. Opposition parties utilized various tactics to oppose the bill, including parliamentary debates, public campaigns, and alliances with civil society groups.

c. Impact:

The sustained opposition pressure led to amendments being introduced to address the concerns raised by opposition parties and stakeholders. However, despite these efforts, the bill faced continued resistance and criticism. Eventually, in 2015, the government decided to withdraw the bill, acknowledging the need for further consultation and consensus-building. The withdrawal of the Land Acquisition Bill, 2013 marked a significant victory for opposition-led efforts to influence policy outcomes. It underscored the importance of opposition parties in safeguarding the interests of marginalized communities and ensuring that developmental policies uphold principles of social justice and equity.

d. Analysis:

The Land Acquisition Bill, 2013 case study highlights the effectiveness of opposition parties in shaping legislative processes through parliamentary debates, public campaigns, and alliances with civil society groups. By mobilizing public opinion and highlighting the concerns of affected communities, opposition parties were able to exert significant pressure on the government to reconsider its policies.

4.2 Goods and Services Tax (GST) Bill, 2017:

a. Background:

The Goods and Services Tax (GST) Bill aimed to simplify India's complex indirect tax system by introducing a unified tax structure. Before the GST, India had a patchwork of state and central taxes, creating a fragmented and inefficient tax regime. The GST sought to streamline this by replacing multiple taxes with a single, nationwide tax.

b. Opposition Influence:

The GST Bill faced resistance primarily from opposition parties, notably the Indian National Congress (INC), due to concerns over federalism, revenue sharing, and its potential impact on small businesses. The opposition argued that the proposed tax rates and revenue distribution mechanisms could disadvantage certain states and sectors.

c. Impact:

While the government managed to pass the GST Bill with bipartisan support, the amendments proposed by opposition parties significantly influenced the final legislation. The inclusion of a revenue compensation mechanism for states and a cap on the GST rate at 18% were notable concessions made to address opposition concerns. Despite opposition, the government managed to pass the GST Bill with bipartisan support after extensive negotiations and amendments. Overall, the GST case study highlights the constructive role that opposition parties can play in shaping legislative outcomes. By voicing concerns, mobilizing public opinion, and engaging in dialogue with the government, opposition parties contribute to the democratic process and ensure that policies reflect the interests of all stakeholders.

4.3 Farmer's Protests and Farm Bills, 2020:

a. Background:

In 2020, the Indian government introduced three contentious farm bills aimed at reforming agricultural markets and empowering farmers.The bills were:

(i) The Farmers' Produce Trade and Commerce (Promotion and Facilitation) Act

(ii) The Farmers (Empowerment and Protection) Agreement on Price Assurance and Farm Services Act

(iii) The Essential Commodities (Amendment) Act

The bills sought to liberalize agricultural trade by allowing farmers to sell their produce directly to buyers outside government-regulated wholesale markets. However, the reforms faced widespread opposition from farmer unions, opposition parties, and civil society groups.

b. Opposition Influence:

Opposition parties, particularly regional parties like the Shiromani Akali Dal (SAD) and the Trinamool Congress (TMC), actively supported the farmers' protests and raised objections to the bills in Parliament. They organized rallies, engaged in parliamentary debates, and mobilized public support to highlight the adverse impact of the legislation on farmers' livelihoods. The passage of these bills led to widespread protests, particularly in agricultural states like Punjab, Haryana, and Uttar Pradesh. Farmers and opposition parties raised concerns about several

provisions of the bills, fearing they would undermine the existing system of agricultural procurement and benefit corporate interests over farmers. Key concerns included:

(i) Removal of MSP Safeguard: Farmers feared that the dismantling of the minimum support price (MSP) system would leave them vulnerable to exploitation by private corporations,

leading to lower prices for their produce.

(ii) Impact on Mandi System: The bills allowed farmers to sell their produce outside government-regulated mandis, which farmers feared would weaken the mandi system and leave them at the mercy of corporate buyers.

(iii) Lack of Legal Safeguards: Farmers were concerned about the lack of legal safeguards in the contract farming provisions, which they believed could lead to unfair agreements with private buyers.

c. Impact:

Despite the government's efforts to push through the farm bills, opposition-led protests gained momentum and attracted widespread public support. Farmers staged sit-ins, blocked highways, and organized massive rallies in the national capital, New Delhi, demanding the repeal of the laws. The protests garnered international attention and solidarity, with celebrities, activists, and global leaders expressing support for the farmers' cause. The sustained pressure exerted by opposition parties and farmer unions forced the government to engage in negotiations and consider amendments to the contentious provisions of the farm bills. After several rounds of talks, the government agreed to suspend the implementation of the laws and proposed amendments to address farmers' concerns, including provisions related to minimum support prices (MSP) and dispute resolution mechanisms.

d. Government Response and Amendments:

Despite the protests and opposition pressure, the government remained firm on its stance to implement the farm bills. However, facing mounting pressure and criticism, the government agreed to engage in negotiations with farmer unions. Several rounds of talks were held between the government and farmer representatives, but initial discussions failed to yield a resolution.

After months of protests and negotiations, the government agreed to make amendments to address some of the concerns raised by farmers. In December 2020, it announced several concessions, including:

(i) Assurances on MSP: The government assured farmers that the MSP system would continue, although it was not included in the farm bills.

(ii) Amendment to Contract Farming Provisions: Amendments were made to provide legal safeguards for farmers in contract farming agreements.

(iii) State-Level Provisions: States were given the flexibility to impose taxes on private mandis to protect the interests of farmers.

The farmer's protests and opposition-led agitation showcased the power of grassroots mobilization and public protests in influencing policy outcomes in Indian democracy. The government's decision to suspend the implementation of the farm laws and engage in negotiations with farmers underscored the significance of opposition-led resistance in safeguarding the interests of marginalized communities.

5. Challenges Faced by Opposition Parties:

5.1. Internal divisions: Opposition parties may struggle to maintain unity and coherence due to internal differences and competing interests, weakening their ability to present a strong alternative to the government's policies.

5.2. Limited resources: Opposition parties often have fewer funds and infrastructure compared to the ruling party, making it difficult to compete effectively during elections and legislative debates.

5.3. Media Bias: Another challenge is the presence of media bias towards the ruling party. Mainstream media outlets may have tendencies to favor the government, which can make it challenging for opposition parties to communicate their messages effectively to the public. Negative or biased media coverage can distort public perception of opposition initiatives and policies.

5.4. Dominance of the ruling party: The ruling party controls key institutions and resources, giving them an advantage in influencing policy decisions and marginalizing the opposition's voice.

5.5. Limited Legislative Tools: Opposition parties have fewer legislative tools at their disposal compared to the ruling party. They may lack the power to initiate legislation, control parliamentary committees, or influence the budgetary process, limiting their ability to hold the government accountable and shape legislative debates effectively.

6. Conclusion:

In conclusion, this research sheds light on the important role opposition parties play in the legislative processes of India. Despite facing numerous challenges, including limited resources, dominance of the ruling party, internal differences, and constraints on freedom of speech, opposition parties remain integral to the functioning of India's democracy. Through scrutiny, dissent, constructive participation in lawmaking, and advocacy for marginalized communities, opposition parties contribute to the checks and balances essential for democratic governance. While their journey is fraught with obstacles, their commitment to upholding democratic values and representing the diverse interests of the populace is commendable. As India continues its democratic journey, recognizing and addressing the challenges faced by opposition parties is imperative for fostering a more inclusive and responsive political system. By overcoming these challenges, opposition parties can further strengthen India's democratic institutions and ensure a brighter future for the nation.

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18 Chapter RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEADERSHIP STYLE AND ORGANIZATIONAL PERFORMANCE

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ISBN: 978-93-92917-32-5 | **DOI**: 10.25215/9392917325.18

ABSTRACT

In order to survive in this competitive world, an organization must be able to achieve its objectives, which can only be possible through effective leadership. Leadership is an important element in the success and failure of an organization. Efficient leaders help to accomplish the goals of the organization and face the challenges that come in its way. Leadership styles are the ways in which leaders motivate the people working in the organization so that they will work in an efficient and effective manner. This paper will help you learn about the concept of leadership and the various leadership styles adopted by various organizations. This paper helps to study the relationship between leadership styles and organizational performance. It has been concluded that the style of leadership has been considered an important aspect of organizational performance, and organizations must use that style to motivate the people in the organization.

KEYWORDS: *Leadership, organizational performance, objectives, leadership styles*

INTRODUCTION:

Due to innovations and modernization, organizational structure has become more complex these days, so in order to achieve success, a leader has to motivate, guide, and inspire his followers. Different people have different concepts related to leadership.

There is an old saying that leaders are not born; they are made. An individual can become a good leader only when he has the desire and willpower to work towards his goal of becoming a leader. Leadership development is a continuous process that requires self-study, training, education, and experience gained over a period of time. Leaders influence their teammates to achieve goals and objectives and help the organization become more cohesive. [2]

A leader is a person who directs, guides, and influences the behavior of his teammates so that they can achieve the organizational goals in a particular situation. Leadership is basically the ability of a leader to influence his team members so that they can work with full confidence and energy. It refers to the capability of a leader to impact a group of individuals for the accomplishment of goals. They are required to develop future insights and to encourage their teammates so that they can achieve those insights. [3]

In the words of Chester Bernard, “Leadership is the ability of a superior to influence the behavior of a subordinate or group and persuade them to follow a particular course of action.” According to Massie, “leadership occurs when one person induces others to work toward some predetermined objectives.” According to Warren Bennis, “leadership is a function of knowing

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yourself, having a vision that is well communicated, building trust among colleagues, and taking effective action to realize your own leadership potential." According to Koontz et al., "leadership is generally defined simply as the art of influencing people so that they will strive willingly towards the achievement of group goals".

Leadership behavior is crucial for the performance of employees and the success of an organization. A leader guides and provides direction to his followers. The success or failure of a leader depends upon the set of traits processed by an individual. Different leaders have different leadership styles. Leadership style is the way in which a leader performs its functions in the organization.

LEADERSHIP STYLES

There are different styles of leadership. The leadership style will be discussed, as will the way to perform. The different styles of leadership will be directed towards the performance of the organization. Leadership has been categorized into various types:

- **Authoritarian leadership** (autocratic) defines authoritarian leaders, also known as autocratic leaders. As per the autocratic leadership style, the leader himself takes all the decisions without any kind of discussion with his teammates or other subordinates.
- **Democratic Leadership:** This style of leadership is also known as participative leadership. As per this leadership style, the leader discusses important points with his team members before making any final decisions.
- **Laissez-faire Leadership:**This style of leadership can work best in the case of experienced and self-motivated team members. It provides flexibility and has more scope for innovation among the people working under this kind of leadership.
- **Transformational leadership**: It is a kind of leadership style where both a leader and their followers help each other rise to a higher level of motivation and morality. According to transformational leadership styles, the aim of the leader is to focus on motivation, team-building, and cooperation among the different employees working at various levels in the organization to accomplish the goals for their own benefit.
- **Transactional Leadership**: This particular style of leadership is better known as managerial leadership. In this type of leadership style, the manager of the organization uses both rewards and punishments to achieve the desired job performance from the subordinates.

The various styles will help to achieve the performance, as will the different styles and their relationships with each other.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

Based on the study, it urges us to develop the objectives for the research paper. This study will gather all the relevant information related to leadership and performance. The objectives are listed as follows:

- To study and understand the concept of leadership.
- To study the various types of leadership styles.

- To study and understand the relationship between leadership style and organizational performance.

ORGANIZATION OF THE PAPER

After the introduction, Section 2 covers the literature review of this paper. Section 3 discusses the relationship between leadership styles and performance. Sector 4 discussed the proposed model, followed by the conclusion.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Leadership basically includes the set of traits processed by an individual in order to influence another individual or a group of individuals in a particular situation so they act or follow the leader as per the desired manner. Colley et al. (2004) posit that in an organizational setting, leadership is a social tool for molding members and resources of the organization in a manner to effect the attainment of organizational goals and objectives. Colley et al. (2004) posit that in an organizational setting, leadership is a social tool for molding members and resources of the organization in a manner to effect the attainment of organizational goals and objectives.(4)

Yukl (2008) defined leadership as a process where one person exerted influence intentionally on a group of people in an organization through relationships, structure, and guidance. Leadership, as defined by Gharibvand (2012), is how the leader communicates in general and relates to people, the way in which the leader motivates and trains the subordinates, and the way the leader provides direction to his or her team to execute their tasks. Sharma & Jain (2013) defined leadership as the process by which a person influences other people to accomplish an objective and directs them in a way that makes it more cohesive and coherent.

Marturano & Gosling, 2008; Jeremy et al. (2011). Leadership style is viewed as the combination of traits, characteristics, skills, and behaviors that leaders use when interacting with their subordinates. Fiedler (1969) postulates that leadership style refers to a kind of relationship whereby someone uses his ways and methods to make many people work together for a common task. McGrath and MacMillan (2000) report that there is a significant relationship between leadership styles and organizational performance. A successful style of leadership helps an organization achieve competitive advantages as well as in management development. It improves performance in order to achieve the current objectives, helps to reward employees on the basis of job performance, and provides the resources that are required to get the job done. FuJin et al. (2010) opine that when executives use their leadership style to demonstrate concern, care, and respect for employees, it will increase the interest of employees in their work and enable them to put up better performance, thereby affecting their job satisfaction positively. (6)

Mitonga-Monga and Coetzee (2012) consider leadership as the pattern associated with managerial behavior, which is designed to integrate the organizational or personal interests and effects for achieving particular objectives. (7) According to Zeitchik (2012), leadership is about inspiring others to follow the vision until it becomes a shared effort to achieve the vision. (8). Schermerhorn, Davidson, Poole, Simon, Woods, and Chau (2011) Leadership style is the recurring pattern of behaviors exhibited by a leader. DuBrin (2006) defines leadership style as the typical pattern of behavior that a leader uses to influence his or her employees to achieve organizational goals.

Jooste (2009) defines leadership style as the manner in which a leader provides direction, implements plans, and motivates people, as well as their approach to each of the functions. (9) The performance of a person is related to the ratio between the results obtained and the number of factors required to achieve that output. It is basically related to the efficiency of the individual's production. The leadership style, i.e., the behavior or techniques adopted by the leaders, impacts the quality of work done by employees. That's why the concept of leadership has gained attention in the community. The type of leadership style influences the overall productivity, efficiency, income, and market share of the organization in achieving its goals. Productivity in general is related to focus labor performance because people working in the organization are key factors for the success of any organization. (10).

Boyett (2006) mentioned that the role of leaders is crucial in gaining the trust of their subordinates and stimulating their commitment towards the successful fulfillment of the undertaken project. Boyett (2006) described the influence of leaders in the following manner: First of all, the leader needs to be charismatic, or they must be able to influence others. They must have confidence and competence in their personalities. Secondly, they must be able to have an impact on their followers, i.e., they should motivate and inspire their followers. (11)

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEADERSHIP STYLE AND ORGANIZATIONAL PERFORMANCE

There are many leadership styles that are responsible for organizational performance. The different leadership styles are helpful for performances, as researched by various leadership styles in terms of differentiation in duration, conflicts, opinions, reviews, etc.

AUTOCRATIC LEADERSHIP AND ORGANIZATIONAL PERFORMANCE:

Obiwuru et al. (2011): Autocratic leaders are authoritative and dominating in nature. They want their team or subordinates to work as per their instructions. Basically, they want to keep all the decision-making rights with them. Iqbal, Anwar, and Haider (2015) conducted a study to determine the impact of leadership styles on organizational performance. The study found that these kinds of leaders are dull and only promote one-way communication, which leads to a lack of satisfaction and motivation among the employees in the organization. This style of leadership is successful over a short period of time, but it has a negative impact on overall productivity and can lead to conflicts in the organization.

Igbaekemen and Odivwri (2015) also conducted a study on the impact of leadership styles on the performance of organizations. The autocratic leader wants his employees or team members to follow the policies and techniques employed by them in the organization. These kinds of leaders do not trust followers at all. (7) Mullins (2007): This style of leadership is based on the traditional premise that leaders are good managers who direct and control their people. An autocratic leadership style is suitable in critical situations to get better results. This type of leader assumes that employees only work best when their leader is strict.

DEMORATIC STYLE OF LEADERSHIP AND ORGANIZATIONAL PERFORMANCE:

Tannenbanum and Schmidt (2012) have defined democratic leadership as one of the leadership styles where decision-making is decentralized and also shared among the subordinates working in the organization. In a democratic leadership style, the chance of poor decision-making and

the potential for weaker execution of plans are higher. Still, this style of leadership is considered better as it values the opinions of employees and motivates them for better performance.

Elenkov (2002) indicated that democratic leadership has a positive impact on organizational performance. Democratic leadership improves team building as it allows employees to take decisions and share them with their manager and team members. The employees are praised as well as criticized, which gives them a sense of authority as well as responsibility. Bhargavi and Yaseen (2016) also analyzed the impact of democratic leadership on organizational performance. Democratic leadership has a positive impact on the overall performance of the organization as it gives opportunities as well as freedom so that employees can use their decision-making skills and also helps them to lead the organization in the future, which in turn will be beneficial in the long run. (7)

TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP AND ORGANIZATIONAL PERFORMANCE:

Avolio (1999) McShane & Von Glinow (2000) Transformational leaders create a planned vision and communicate that vision to the people working in the organization so that they act accordingly and build commitment towards the organization. This style of leadership will result in a higher level of motivation, commitment, trust, and overall performance in organizational environments. (12) Transformational leadership style focuses on developing the followers and considering their needs.

Bass and Avolio (1994) stated that transformational leadership demonstrates superior leadership performance. Transformational leadership occurs when the leader widens or increases the interest of the employees. These types of leaders motivate employees to look out for their own interests. These leaders are effective for various reasons, such as being charismatic in nature, inspiring their employees, and meeting the emotional needs and wants of the employees in the organization. Wang et al. (2011) found that transformational leadership and individual-level follower performance are positively linked. Few studies have shown that transformational leadership and the level of performance of people working in organizations are positively related to each other. Jyoti & Bhau (2015). This leadership style helps in developing an atmosphere of positivity and happiness among employees, which improves overall productivity. (7)

TRANSACTIONAL LEADERSHIP AND ORGANIZATIONAL PERFORMANCE::

Transactional leadership styles help organizations achieve their goals by ensuring the availability of the required resources, and they also give rewards to people by linking rewards with their performance (12). Bhat, Rangnekar, & Barua (2013) & Northouse (2006): Transactional leadership is based on the exchange of rewards between the leader and his followers. This leadership style is known for its system of rewards and punishments, with rewards for those who perform as per the standards and punishments for those whose performance is less than the standards.

Boehnke, Bontis, & Distefano (2003): The main concern of the leader is the tasks required for achieving organizational objectives, and there is no concern for the upliftment and development of followers. (13). According to Sofi and Devanadhen (2015), transactional leadership was not found to have a direct impact on the performance of the organization. This

style of leadership does not promote any creativity or innovation, so there is no motivation for employees to work as per the set standards of the organization. Longe (2014): This leadership style particularly helps in creating an environment that is optimal for performance and also articulates a compelling vision that enhances overall organizational performance. (7)

LAISSEZ-FAIRE LEADERSHIP AND ORGANIZATIONAL PERFORMANCE:

Deluga (1992) says the laissez-faire style of leadership is the one in which the leader tries to make minimum interference in the affairs of subordinates, even to the extent of not giving clear orders and instructions. In this type of leadership style, the leader is not ready to take on any kind of responsibility and is also not interested in two-way communication with his team members. In this type of leadership, team members are not happy with their leader, so the organization is not able to meet its production targets. Under this leadership style, the leader is expected to work on good terms with his team members. Laissez-faire leaders have not made any kind of fixed system to run the organization efficiently or effectively; rather, team members are free to take their own decisions and work as per their willingness and intuition. Jones & Rudd (2007) described laissez-faire leadership as leadership in an inactive form characterized by unwillingness to be actively involved and a view that the best leadership comes from disassociation from activities. Cilliers, Van Eeden, and Van Deventer (2008) stated that these leaders avoid active participation in the responsibility of goal setting and avoid being involved when leadership direction is needed. (5) The comparison between them in terms of efficiency and engagement (passive to active) is defined as under figure 1: Leadership Styles: Efficiency vs. Engagement. Laissez Faire denials the leadership responsibly with less efficiency and passive engagement. When engagement is higher, efficiency also increases. It starts with management, with an exception to contingent rewards and clear goals. Also, transformational leadership style involves motivation and simulating and influencing the increase in efficiency.

The comparison between them in terms of efficiency and engagement (Passive to active) defines as under:

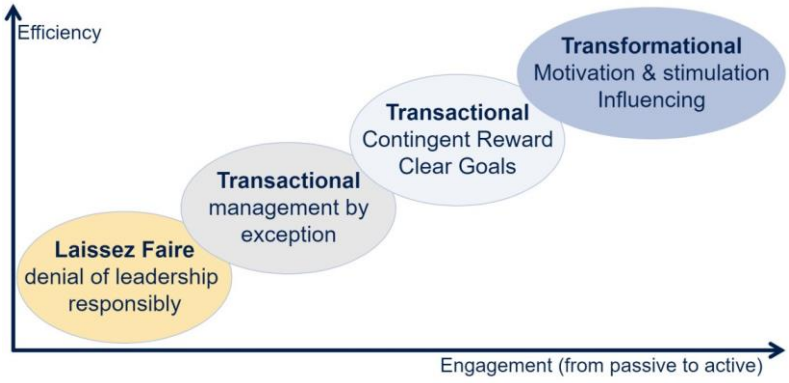

Figure-1: Leadership Styles-Efficiency vs Engagement

Laissez Faire denials the leadership responsibly with less efficiency and passive engagement. When engagement is higher, efficiency also increases with management, with the exception of contingent rewards and clear goals. Also, transformational leadership style involves motivation and simulation, influencing the increase in efficiency.

MODEL DEVELOPMENT

Based on the various theories, the model can be proposed based on various types of leadership styles that help in achieving performance. Leadership is an important aspect of the outcome of any organization. The overall model will help the organization grow and be profitable by achieving performance in their respective areas. Figure 2: Performance and Leadership Styles All types of leadership styles refer to performance as engagement increases from democratic to transformational.

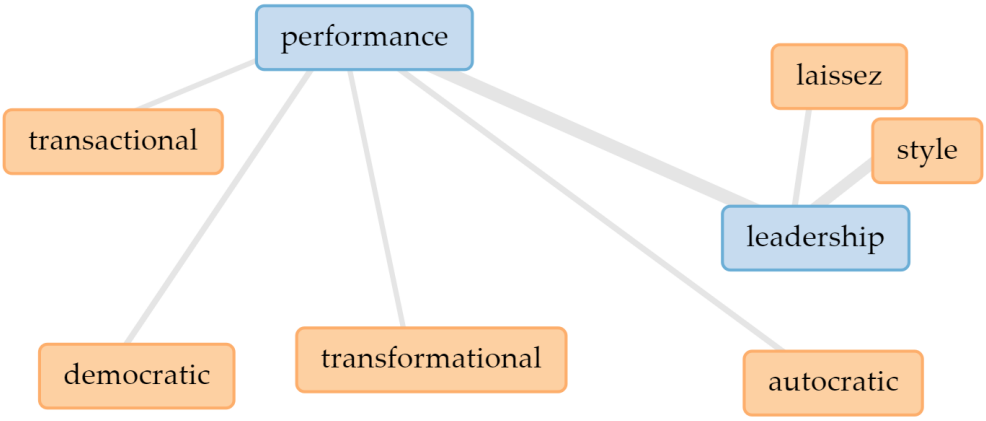

Figure-2: Performance and Leadership Styles

All types of leadership styles refer to performance as engagement increases from democratic to transformational.

CONCLUSION

A leadership style plays a vital role in organizational performance. In this study, five types of leadership styles are identified and studied that are followed by leaders in an organization. According to the situation, different leadership styles have different impacts on organizational performance. Autocratic leadership styles are effective for short periods of time but ineffective for long periods of time. Because of the short period of time, everyone cannot participate in the decision-making process. A democratic leadership style is good for motivating employees, and it allows followers to participate in the decision-making process, but the participation of followers is not good in all situations to take the right and appropriate decisions. Followers are not capable of taking all types of decisions. So a leader should allow them to take part in the decision-making process according to their capabilities, talent, skills, and knowledge. A transformational leadership style is good for encouraging the followers to perform any task because here the leader tries to build emotional relationships between followers and the organization.

Leaders try to satisfy their emotional needs and encourage them to perform a task beyond their own interests and capabilities. Transformational leadership styles are best for excellence and creative tasks. In transactional leadership style, a leader provides all resources to followers to achieve the current objectives of the organization and department. Here, the leader rewards their positive response and punishes their negative response, so this style is good for a short

period of time. For long periods of time, followers cannot work according to this style. In the laissez-faire leadership style, leaders allow followers to take all types of decisions related to tasks. There is no control over followers, so they can misuse their rights. It is not best for lower-level and incapable followers. Finally, it is concluded that there is no perfect leadership style for all situations in an organization. These leadership styles can be followed according to different situations to get the best performance from followers and the organization.

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19 Chapter WORK LIFE BALANCE OF IT EMPLOYEES WORKING FROM HOME DUE TO PANDEMIC IN CHENNAI CITY

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ISBN: 978-93-92917-32-5 | **DOI**: 10.25215/9392917325.19

ABSTRACT:

This study investigates the impact of work life balance, a subject of perennial interest in marketing research. Work-life balance is a concept that refers to the balance between work and personal life. It is important to maintain a healthy work-life balance to ensure that you are not overworking yourself and that you have enough time to spend with your family and friends, pursue hobbies, and take care of your health. Work life balance is always a tricky thing to achieve and working from home can make it even more challenging. As a result, achieving a healthy work-life balance can reduce stress, improve emotional states, and increase overall productivity and employers' bottom lines.

Keywords: *Work-Life, Balance, Personal-Life, Stress, Productivity*

I. INTRODUCTION:

Work-life balance is a crucial issue for every employee in government and private institutions today. This is because there will be a decrease in employee productivity and performance, if an organization does not think about the work balance of employees properly and is not managed properly. Work balance programs began in 1930 where company policies and regulations allow employees to work effectively and efficiently and provide flexible time to deal with the personal problems of these employees. The fact is, that at present the workforce places more emphasis on work-life balance rather than on income alone. Work-life balance contains three components, such as a balanced time, a balance of work and family involvement, and fair satisfaction.

SCOPE OF THE STUDY

The study covers the various aspects in employee work life Balance and measured increase in productivity accountability, commitment better team work and communication improved morale, less negative organizational stress.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The objectives of the project report are as follows:

- To study about flexible and remote working.
- To Create a Schedule and Set Boundaries.
- To Encourage breaks.
- To Regularly review workloads.

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- To Give employees time to volunteer.

II. PROBLEM STATEMENT:

Lack of work flexibility, high work pressure and longer working hours are stressing out many industry workers, reducing their job performance and productivity as well as causing broken homes. In the community, there is growing concern that the quality of home and work life is deteriorating. These have resulted to poor employee input and performance at their job place, because an employee, who finds it difficult to properly balance his or her family life, tends to also have difficulties managing tasks at his or her workplace, therefore resulting in poor employee performance. Moreover, there is a view, widely promoted by some management professionals but not strongly supported by sound empirical evidence, that workers are less willing to display unlimited commitment to the organization.

III. REVIEW OF LITERATURE:

The Alliance, (1987) says that in organizations and on the home front, the challenge of work/life balance is rising to the top of many employers' and employees' consciousness.

Fort Washington, (2003) says that human resource professionals seek options to positively impact the bottom line of their companies, improve employee morale, retain employees with valuable company knowledge, and keep pace with workplace trends.

S. R., & Swiercz, (2002) says the problem of work/life management in companies and on the home, front is growing to the top of the consciousness of both workers and workers.

Wiley. Friedman, S. D., & Greenhaus, (2000) says work from home arrangements will likely expand beyond the tech world and beyond the pandemic.

Montague, (2001) Work-life balance is about effectively managing the juggling act between paid work and other activities that are important to us - including spending timewith family.

IV. MATERIALS OF METHODS:

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Methodology in research is defined as the systematic method to resolve a research problem through data gathering using various techniques, providing an interpretation of data gathered and drawing conclusions about the research data. Essentially, a research methodology is the blueprint of a research or study.

RESEARCH DESIGN

The research design undertaken for the study is descriptive one. A study, which wants to portray the characteristic of group or individual or situation, is known as descriptive study. It is mostly qualitative in nature. The main objective of descriptive study is to study the work life balance of employees working from home due to pandemic

DESCRIPTIVE RESEARCH DESIGN

This type of research design is undertaken in many circumstances. When the researcher is interested in knowing the characteristics of certain group such as age, sex, education level,

occupation or income etc., The objective of such study is to answer the "who, what, when, where, how" of the subject under investigation, so this project study comes under descriptive research design.

SAMPLE AREA

Sample areas of 130 employees are taken based on the Chennai city.

SAMPLE SIZE

Sample areas of 130 employees are taken based on the designation levels.

TOOLS USED FOR ANALYSIS

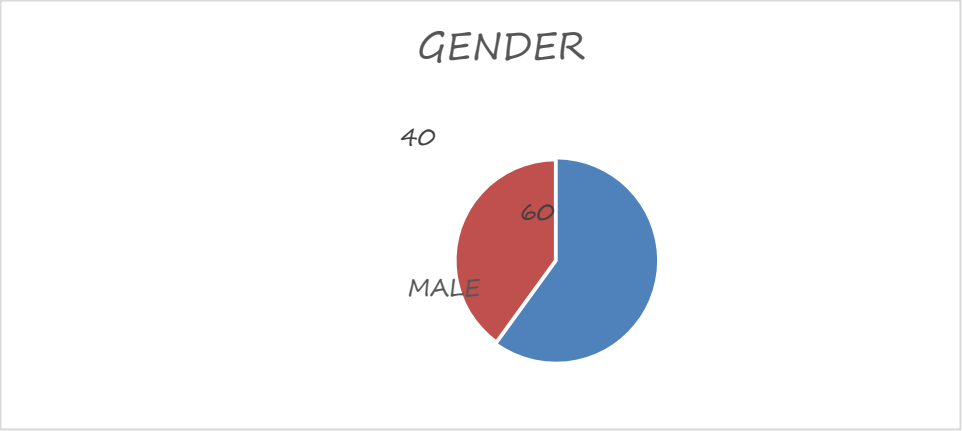
- Percentage analysis
- Chi square
- One-way ANOVA

V. DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION: PERCENTAGE ANALYSIS

Table 1. GENDER OF THE RESPONDENTS

Gender	NO OF RESPONDENTS	PERCENTAGE
MALE	78	60
FEMALE	52	40
TOTAL	130	100

Fig 1. GENDER OF THE RESPONDENTS



INTERPRETATION

From the above table it is interpreted that 60% of the respondents are male, and 40% are female.

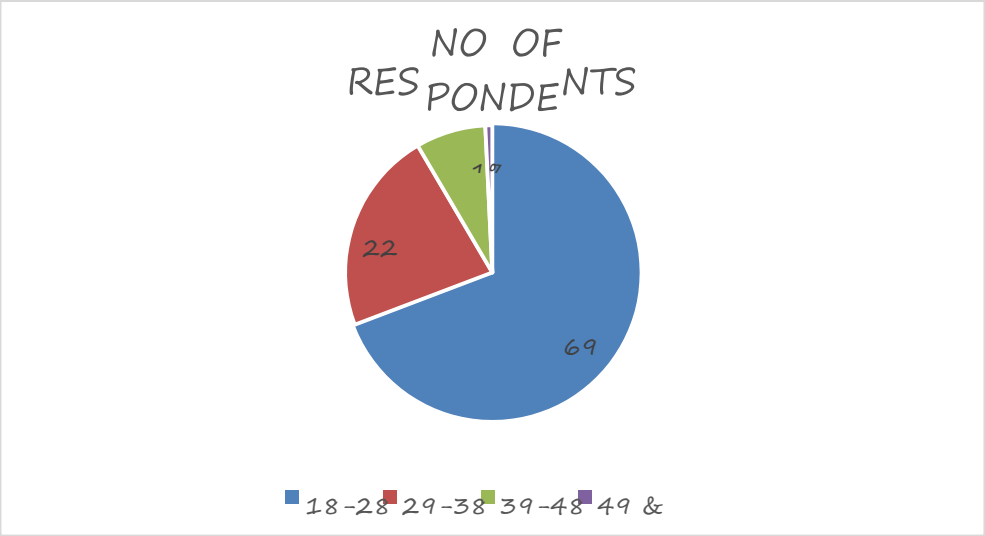
INFERENCE

Majority 60% of respondents are male.

Table 2. AGE OF THE RESPONDENTS

YEARS	NO OF RESPONDENTS	PERCENTAGE
18-28	90	69
29-38	29	22
39-48	10	8
49 & above	1	1
TOTAL	130	100

Fig 2. AGE OF THE RESPONDENTS



INTERPRETATION

From the above table it is interpreted that 69% are between the age of 18-28, 22% are between the age of 29-38, 8% are between the age of 39-48 %, 1% are above the ageof 48.

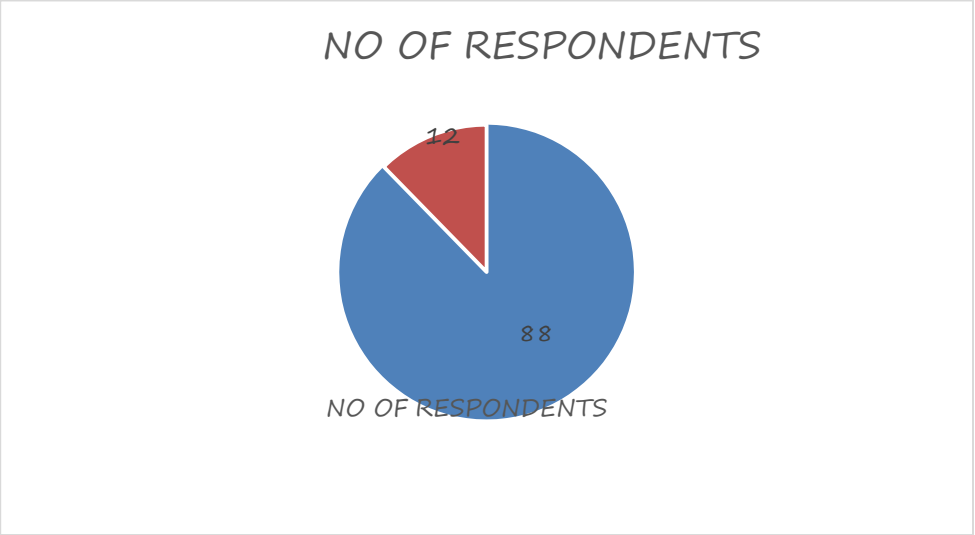
INFERENCE

Majority 69% of respondents are between 18-28.

Table 3. TYPE OF RESPONDENTS WORK

WORK FROM HOME	NO OF RESPONDENTS	PERCENTAGE
YES	114	88
NO	16	12
TOTAL	130	100

Fig 3. TYPE OF RESPONDENTS WORK



INTERPRETATION

From the above table it is interpreted that 88% of the respondents are in work fromhome, 12% are working in office.

INFERENCE

Majority of 88% of the respondents are in work from home.

HYPOTHESIS TESTING

CHI-SQUARE

Table 4. Association between Age and workers agree to go to office.

Null Hypothesis (H0) : There is no association between Age and % of workers agree to go to office.

Alternate Hypothesis (H1) : There is association between Age and % of workers agree to go to office.

Case Processing Summary						
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Age * Do you agree that you feel comfortable when you work from home than going to office?	135	100.0 %	0	0.0%	135	100.0 %

Age * Do you agree that you feel comfortable when you work from home than going to office? Crosstabulation								
			Do you agree that you feel comfortable when you work fromhome than going to office?					Total
			1	2	3	4	5	
Age	18 - 28	Count	25	42	22	4	1	94
		Expected Count	21.6	46.0	20.9	4.2	1.4	94.0
	29 - 38	Count	4	18	6	1	0	29
		Expected Count	6.7	14.2	6.4	1.3	.4	29.0
	39 - 48	Count	2	5	2	1	0	10
		Expected Count	2.3	4.9	2.2	.4	.1	10.0
	49 & above	Count	0	1	0	0	1	2
		Expected Count	.5	1.0	.4	.1	.0	2.0
Total		Count	31	66	30	6	2	135
		Expected Count	31.0	66.0	30.0	6.0	2.0	135.0

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2- sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	37.354[a]	12	.000
Likelihood Ratio	12.159	12	.433
N of Valid Cases	135		
a. 14 cells (70.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is **.03.**			

INTERPRETATION

H0<H1

(i.e.) H0 is acceptedH0 is lesser than 0.05

H0 is accepted

Therefore, there is an association between Age and % of Workers agree to go to office.

ONE-WAY ANOVA

Null Hypothesis (H0) : There is no association between age of the respondent and theirwork from home.

Alternate Hypothesis (H1) : There is association between age of the respondent andtheir work from home.

Table 5. Association between age of the respondent and their WFH

Tests of Homogeneity of Variances					
		Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Do you have work from home in your job?	Based on Mean	13.640	4	130	.000
	Based on Median	5.426	4	130	.000
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	5.426	4	86.863	.001
	Based on trimmed mean	12.904	4	130	.000

ANOVA					
Do you have work from home in your job?					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1.840	4	.460	4.593	.002
Within Groups	13.019	130	.100		
Total	14.859	134			

INTERPRETATION

H0<H1

(i.e.) H1 is accepted H1 is greater than 0.05

Therefore, there is association between age of the respondent and their work from home.

VI. FINDINGS AND SUGGESTIONS:

FINDINGS

- Majority 60% of respondents are male.
- Majority 69% of respondents are between 18-28.
- Majority of 88% of the respondents are in work from home.

SUGGESTIONS

- The effective employee work-life balance has better organizational commitment which leads to better production output and minimum employee turnover.
- Continue with the environment and sanitation hygiene facilities as the employees are

very much satisfied with them.

- Quality of food in the canteen of the company must be improved so that it will satisfy the employee tastes

VII. CONCLUSION:

From the study it is clear that employee work life balance is good, but there is a small gap from employee satisfaction to company. Work-life balance programs offer a win-win situation for employers and employees. While the employee may perceive work-life balance as the dilemma of managing work obligations and non-work responsibilities, work-life balance from the employer ‘s point of view encompasses the challenge of creating a supportive company culture where employees can focus on their jobs while at work.

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20 Chapter SOCIAL ENTERPRISES – RECENT TRENDS AT GLOBAL LEVEL

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ISBN: 978-93-92917-32-5 | **DOI**: 10.25215/9392917325.20

Abstract

Social entrepreneurship is a for-profit business model that attempts to make a positive impact on social issues or the environment. Social enterprises constitute 3 per cent of all businesses globally. These enterprises came out from traditional businesses by placing a strong prominence on generating social and environmental value in addition to economic value. Social enterprises are producing around $ 2 trillion in revenue every year while creating positive impact. One in two social enterprises, globally, are led by women, in comparison to 1 in 5 conventional enterprises. Movements such as Catalyst 2030 are operative with social entrepreneurs globally to support for better policies to assist the social economy. The world is progressively identifying the impact of the social and solidarity economy towards sustainable development, with the United Nations call for governments to implement policies that support social enterprise and other social economy actors. A lot of development has taken at global level. The Governments and other Organizations of various countries are also supporting this sector in innumerable means. This paper attempts to present recent trends of social enterprises at global level.

Keywords: *Global level, recent trends, social enterprises, social entrepreneur.*

Introduction

In Annual Meeting of Davos 2024, in Davos, Switzerland, the Global Alliance for Social Entrepreneurship of Schwab Foundation launched the Rise Ahead Pledge, a corporate assurance to invest in social innovations to produce a more just, sustainable and equitable world. The State of Social Enterprise 2024 is the foremost, comprehensive worldwide data set to estimate the size and scope of social enterprises globally. As per its estimate, there are around 10 million social enterprises throughout the World. This data advises policymakers about the contribution and significance of social enterprise towards sustainable development, and priorities to be given to improve the facilitating conditions for the sector. Social entrepreneurship is gaining a lot of attention due to its growing importance as a powerful means to address challenging societal issues, while promoting economic development worldwide. Social entrepreneurship finds solutions to social and environmental challenges through business means. The main object of these Social enterprises is to bring in sustainable and noble living to the under privileged and the marginalized people of India. The crux of social entrepreneurship lies in its commitment to balance economic goals with the betterment of society.

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Concept and definition of social entrepreneurship

A renowned Economist Professor of Bangladesh, has founded Grameen Bank in 1976 to fight against poverty and to promote equitable development goals. Professor Yunus's efforts are said to be the beginning of social entrepreneurship.

Leadbeater (1997) defines social entrepreneurship as a market activity to achieve social goals rather than non-profit purposes.

Johnson (2000) proposes social entrepreneurship as an innovative means in order to solve issues relating to complicated social fabric and to disrupt the age-old border between public, private and non-profit sectors of economy.

Pomerantz (2003) proposes social entrepreneurship from the view of enterprise operation. He argues that social entrepreneurship is to expand and innovate social services by taking the help of commercial principles and methods in order to create social value.

Peredo & McLean (2006) defines the concept from the view of the duality of social entrepreneurship. Firstly, some individuals or organizations form social entrepreneurship by identifying and exploring opportunities to generate social value and secondly, they also bear risks with the power of innovation.

Martin & Osberg (2007) believes that identification of opportunity is the fundamental of social entrepreneurship, whose aim is to create a new, improved and balanced society.

Liu et al. (2020) & Fu et al. (2017) establishes that social entrepreneurship has diverse characteristics. It not only solves the shortcomings in government functions and brings the new social changes and also creates new opportunities in markets.

Saebi et al. (2019) opines that social entrepreneurship, the combination of social and economic operations, can differentiate between activities dominated by the economic operation or the social operation. Since it puts emphasis on both social and economic sphere, social entrepreneurship is to be more extended, sustainable, charitable and innovative.

(Kruse, 2020) points out that social enterprises have entrepreneurship prototypes that combine a social object with an intention to produce financial profit, as well as have innovation involving risk.

In essence, therefore, social entrepreneurship can be demarcated as a new hybrid system of entrepreneurship that combines the mission and desire of society to realize, to produce monetary profit and self-funding social action.

Social entrepreneur

A social entrepreneur is the one who tries to find the solutions to community-based problems by applying innovative initiatives motivated by the intention to create positive societal changes. The main object of the social entrepreneurs is the greater social good over mere profit-seeking and may emphasize on environmentally-friendly products, underserved communities, or philanthropy. Social entrepreneurs are the one who inquire into the traditional methods and uses the combination of visionary and real world problem solving creativity to break the traditional path with great ideas. They find the opportunities where there are unvalued

resources and unemployable people. Their primary objective is to bring change in the society and for achieving this, they may use market mechanisms. Thus they help to reduce various social problems by abolishing poverty and providing employment opportunities.

Characteristics of a Social Entrepreneur

• Utilizes a creative approach to find solutions to social issues.
• Makes transformation of society by bringing social change.
• Is not restrained by social norms or traditions.
• Is not bound by obstacles that present in the path of their goals.
• Expands new paradigms and discovers new methods to assist them to overcome obstacles.

Areas where social entreprises found

Social entrepreneurs are found mainly in economic sectors. The expansion areas for which social enterprises are recognized as – Housing, Information services, Financial services, Training and business development, Environmental, Manufacturing, Public services, Food and agriculture and Health and care.

Some interesting facts about social entreprises

- There are around 10 million social enterprises throughout the World, with the principle of placing purpose before profit.
- Social enterprises are producing approximately $ 2 trillion in revenue every year while showing positive impact.
- Social enterprises are generating 200 million jobs across various sectors, from agriculture to financial services.
- Social enterprises are in need of approximately $1.1 trillion in external financing (beyond personal savings).
- One in two social enterprises, globally, are led by women, in comparison to 1 in 5 conventional enterprises.
- The sector is larger in comparison to the apparel industry that involves $1.57 trillion and 2 times larger than the size of the $875 billion advertising industry.

(Source: The State of Social Enterprise 2024).

First Social Entrepreneur

Though there are many businessmen who focused their vision on social issues, yet the first person who coined the term social entrepreneur was Bill Drayton, founder of Ashoka, in 1980. Today he is known by many as the "father of social entrepreneurship."

The 2024 Social Entrepreneur awardees of the Schwab Foundation

Ajaita Shah, Frontier Markets (India), (Mohamed) Amine Zariat, Tibu Africa (Morocco), Catalina Cock Duque, Fundación Mi Sangre (Colombia), Gerald Abila, BarefootLaw (Uganda), Rudayna Abdo, Founder, Chief Executive Officer and President of Thaki (Lebanon), Shuchin Bajaj, Ujala Cygnus Hospitals (India), Temie Giwa-Tubosun, LifeBank Group (Nigeria, Kenya, Ethiopia), Xia Li, Shenzhen Power-Solution (China), Saugata Banerjee, Global Head of Sustainable Programming (Singapore), Ruchika Singhal, President of Medtronic LABS (USA), Financing Alliance for Health (Kenya), Amazon Sacred Headwaters

Alliance (Ecuador/Peru), StriveTogether (United States), Ibu Vivi Yulaswati (Indonesia), Chantal Line Carpentier (Switzerland) and Juan Martinez Louvier (Mexico).

Objectives of study

The main objective of this paper is to study recent trends of social enterprises at global level.

Research Methodology

The present study is based mainly on the secondary sources of data which is collected from various websites relating to social entrepreneurship around the World and in India.

Hypothesis

HO; Social enterprises are getting much importance from global policymakers and Organizations.

Ha; Social enterprises are not getting much importance from global policymakers Organizations.

Rationale of the study

Social enterprises are producing around $ 2 trillion in revenue every year while creating positive impact. Social enterprises tend to function with an object of generating value for the society and also produce income. The solutions these enterprises offer are innovative, unique, people, affordable and environment friendly. Social entrepreneurs, with their innovative ideas, extensive social reach and understanding of the complex fabric of their nations, contributed to the systemic change and thus paved the way for development. A lot of development has taken at global level. The Governments of various countries also supporting this sector in innumerable means.

Trends at global level

Social enterprises constitute 3 per cent of all businesses globally. These enterprises came out from traditional businesses by placing a strong prominence on generating social and environmental value in addition to economic value. In contrast to conventional non-profit organizations, social enterprises are self-sustaining through their business operations. They give preference for social impact in comparison to financial returns and reinvest their profits again into their mission.

In April 2023, the United Nations General Assembly approved the first Resolution on the Social and Solidarity Economy to signify the contribution of cooperatives, social enterprises and other social economy organizations to achieve the SDGs. However, only one in five countries has legal arrangements or specific legislation to assist social enterprises.

Social enterprises are also getting much importance from global policymakers. In 2023, the UN General Assembly approved a resolution on the social and solidarity economy for sustainable development. For the first time, the resolution gave recognition to the contribution of social enterprise towards sustainable development.

Furthermore, increased policy momentum can be observed globally. This can be witnessed in the European Union’s Action Plan on the Social Economy, the African Union’s 10-year

approach on the Social and Solidarity Economy or national strategies on social innovation in Brazil or Germany.

Movements such as Catalyst 2030 are operative with social entrepreneurs globally to support for better policies to assist the social economy. For instance, in 2023 November, the Schwab Foundation in association with Catalyst 2030 Brazil hosted a high-level round table at the Ministry of Development, Industry, Commerce and Services in Brasilia, discussing actions to reveal the social impact economy in Brazil.

Besides the lack of legal recognition in many countries, social enterprises also face a significant funding gap of $1.13 trillion. To fill up this gap, necessity of private sector is crucial. To further gain support from private sector for the social economy, Global Alliance for Social Entrepreneurship of the Schwab Foundation, in association with Deloitte, has introduced the "Corporate Social Innovation Compass" developed with the assistance from over 100 members of the Global Alliance. This arrangement provides guidance to companies working with social entrepreneurs, presenting over 10 engagement mechanisms and tangible case studies demonstrating the business benefits of such engagements.

Furthermore, initiatives like People and Planet First, launched by the Social Enterprise World Forum in 2023. It's main object to generate a shared identity for social enterprises and offer encouragement to consumers, businesses and governments to procure from these entities.

The social enterprises are, not only economically relevant and significant, but also positively impact the lives of millions of people, from rural villages in Africa to megacities in Asia and from Latin America to underprivileged parts of North America and Europe.

According to data provided by the Schwab Foundation for Social Entrepreneurship following a worldwide community of over 470 leading social entrepreneurs, social enterprises alone had already direct impact of more than 891 million lives over the previous 25 years.

In Annual Meeting of Davos 2024, in Davos, Switzerland, the Global Alliance for Social Entrepreneurship of Schwab Foundation launched the Rise Ahead Pledge, a corporate assurance to invest in social innovations to produce a more just, sustainable and equitable world.

Over a dozen companies have already agreed and are requesting others to join to close the projected $1.1 trillion funding need for social enterprises.

The Rise Ahead Pledge coincides with a landmark account from the Global Alliance for Social Entrepreneurship, Deloitte and the Schwab Foundation, that outlines best practices, business benefits and means to partner with social enterprises for social innovation.

Findings

1. Social entrepreneurs perform a crucial role as change agents. This role includes adopting a mission to generate and sustain social values, chasing new opportunities associated with that mission, engaging in continuous innovation, and representing accountability to the areas served.

2. Social innovation flourishes when social purpose organizations (SPOs), the government and the community work together. Social entrepreneurs identify the significance of active participation from all stakeholders to produce sustainable solutions.

3. Social entrepreneurs must emphasize on community needs, expand the guidelines to increase mutual and social gain. By generating created value, social enterprises add to the overall wealth of knowledge and expertise.

4. As the focus turns towards some sectors such as healthcare, education and renewable energy, much importance has been given to impact-based investments. Social entrepreneurs are discovering blended fund portfolios that not only produce financial returns but also meet social and environmental needs, thereby boosting efficiency in resource allocation.

5. In an age where technology occupies a transformative role, social entrepreneurship holds the potential of technology adoption.

6. Besides the lack of legal recognition in many countries, social enterprises also face a significant funding gap of $1.13 trillion.

7. For over a quarter of a century, the Schwab Foundation has been offering a global platform for social innovators. The 64 organizations awarded by the Schwab Foundation in the past three years alone have created over $900 million of economic value for their communities.

Suggestions

1. To be successful, future social entrepreneurs require in-depth knowledge of design thinking, data-driven culture and finance related knowledge.
2. Social enterprises need to carry on the trend of becoming financially self-reliant, through a continuous profitable business with social object. Role models of profitable, impactful organizations can appeal a new trend of investors to support the efforts.
3. Social enterprises and their investors require a more effective approach to measure their performance, so that both consumers and investors can differentiate the companies that are really making a transformation from those that merely want to latch onto the sustainability brand.
4. Social entrepreneurship needs to put attention on innovations that make a measurable influence on unsolved problems.
5. The advantages of social enterprises will be better as business could be massive and timely.
6. There must be sufficient funding from Governments of different countries for the development of social enterprises.
7. Social entrepreneurship should be financed from the bottom up. This implies small enterprises in disadvantaged communities should get funding equally in proportion to the big enterprises.
8. ‘social entrepreneurship’ should become more mainstream, with founders intentionally producing value-adding companies around all sectors.

Conclusion

With its outstanding global presence and impact, the social enterprise sector is distinctively positioned to transform our world for the better. But only if it obtains the investment it needs to realize that potential. The private sector has a vital role to play in closing that gap – not just

because it is the accurate thing to do, but because it is the smart thing to do. A new report from Deloitte and the Schwab Foundation highlights the undeniable fact that when corporations join forces with social enterprises, they are better able to attract and retain talent, speed up innovation, reach new markets, and assist sustainability and financial goals. These activities are vital to help increase the recognition to social enterprises and also their influence towards sustainable development. By providing more visibility, policy assistance and engagement from the private sector, social enterprises can shift from being the world's best-kept secret to becoming trailblazers of an inclusive and sustainable economy. Hence HO (Social enterprises are getting much importance from global policymakers and Organizations) is proved and accepted and Ha; (Social enterprises are not getting much importance from global policymakers and Organizations) is rejected. The world is progressively identifying the impact of the social and solidarity economy towards sustainable development, with the United Nations call for governments to implement policies that support social enterprise and other social economy actors.

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21 Chapter A STUDY ON WORKING CAPITAL MANAGEMENT

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ISBN: 978-93-92917-32-5 | **DOI**: 10.25215/9392917325.21

Abstract:

This study delves into the dynamics of working capital management within PickYourTrail, shedding light on its current performance and suggesting avenues for improvement. Effective management of working capital, encompassing current assets, liabilities, and their interplay, is pivotal for sustaining operational efficiency and financial health. By maintaining an optimal level of working capital, firms like PickYourTrail can bolster profitability and ensure liquidity. In the realm of modern business operations, the significance of working capital cannot be overstated. It serves as the lifeblood for day-to-day activities, encompassing essential functions from production to sales. The study identifies the unique challenges and opportunities faced by PickYourTrail, particularly in the context of a dynamic and competitive market landscape. Drawing parallels between fixed capital and working capital, the study underscores the critical role of the latter in facilitating seamless operations and fostering growth. While fixed capital lays the foundation, working capital fuels the ongoing activities vital for sustained success. Through an in-depth analysis of PickYourTrail's working capital position, this study aims to pinpoint areas ripe for enhancement and provide actionable recommendations for future endeavors. By leveraging insights gleaned from this study, PickYourTrail can optimise its working capital management strategies, paving the way for enhanced resource utilisation and operational efficiency. The findings and recommendations outlined herein are poised to inform strategic decision-making processes, ultimately steering PickYourTrail towards greater profitability and sustainable growth in the dynamic travel industry landscape.

Keywords: *Work-Life, Balance, Personal-Life, Stress, Productivity*

INTRODUCTION

Any firm, from time to time, employs its short-term assets as well as shortterm financing sources to carry out its day-to-day business. It is this management of such assets as well as liabilities which is described as working capital management. Working capital management is a quintessential part of financial management as a subject. It can also be compared with long-term decision-making as both of the domain's deal with the analysis of risk and profitability.

SCOPE OF THE STUDY:

• The study is to define a specific time period for analysing trends, changes, and developments in working capital management.

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• The study is to specify the geographical coverage to understand regional variations in working capital management practices.

• The study is to conduct an in-depth analysis of individual components of working capital, including accounts receivable, accounts payable, and inventor

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY:

Primary Objective:

- To Evaluate Efficiency in Managing Working Capital .
- Secondary Objectives:
- To Estimate the Working Capital Requirements
- To Understand the Practices in Current Asset and Current Liability
- To Identify Issues Related to Working Capital Management
- To Determine the Structure and Effective Utilisation of Working Capital

STATEMENT OF PROBLEM:

The efficient management of working capital is a critical aspect of financial strategy for any organisation, influencing its liquidity, operational capabilities, and overall financial health. However, several challenges and issues exist that warrant a thorough evaluation. The following statement of the problem addresses these issues in alignment with the objective of evaluating the efficiency in managing working capital:

● Many organisations face issues related to the inefficient utilisation of working capital, leading to suboptimal performance and missed opportunities. This problem may stem from inadequate strategies in handling current assets and liabilities.

● Inefficient cash flow management is a prevalent issue, affecting an organisation's ability to meet its short-term obligations and invest in growth opportunities. This may result from poor receivables and payables management practices.

● Striking the right balance between overcapitalization and undercapitalization poses a constant challenge. Overcapitalization ties up funds unnecessarily, while undercapitalization may lead to financial instability. Achieving the optimal level requires a nuanced understanding of working capital dynamics

● Many organisations still rely on manual or outdated systems for working capital management, leading to inefficiencies and delays. The lack of adequate technology integration poses a hurdle in achieving optimal efficiency.

● Requirements is crucial for proactive management. Inaccuracies in forecasting can lead to surplus or deficit situations, affecting the organisation's liquidity position.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Research work in working capital management gives us an outstanding view about the exploration of the topic in different dimensions by different authors. The authors has emphasised that working capital management has to be effectively utilised for generating fund from sales. They have examined the effectiveness of working capital management in different

aspects. Smith, J. K., & Johnson, L. M. (2023) The working capital cycle across industries and emphasises the importance of determining the optimum level of this cycle. It highlights that comparing a company's working capital cycle with peers in the same industry is more meaningful for assessing operating efficiency. Factors such as product type, seasonality, and government policies can affect the working capital cycle, leading to financing challenges.

Ibrahim, K. Y., Usaini, M., & Elijah, S. (2021). The working capital analysis and financial ratio analysis are valuable tools for managerial decision-making and business performance evaluation. It concludes that higher cash conversion cycles and debtors' collection periods often lead to lower business performance, while longer creditors' payment periods tend to improve profitability.

Dong (2018) reported that the firms' profitability and liquidity are affected by working capital management in his analysis. Pooled data are selected for carrying out the research for the era of 2007-2015 for assessing the companies listed in the stock market of Vietnam. He focused on the variables that include profitability, conversion cycle and its related elements and the relationship that exists between them. From his research it was found that the relationships among these variables are strongly negative. This denotes that decrease in the profitability occurs due to increase in cash conversion cycle.

Mohammad Neab and Noriza BMS (2018) worked on creating the relationship between Working Capital Management (WCM) and performance of firms. For their analysis they chose the Malaysian listed companies. They administered the perspective of market valuation and profitability.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Methodology in research is defined as the systematic method to resolve a research problem through data gathering using various techniques, providing an interpretation of data gathered and drawing conclusions about the research data. Essentially, a research methodology is the blueprint of a research or study.

RESEARCH DESIGN

Research Design is the strategy for the study and the plan by which the strategy is to be carried out. It is the set of decisions that make up the master plan specifying the methods and procedures for the collection, measurement and analysis of data. Research has used descriptive research. Descriptive studies are fact finding investigations with adequate interpretation. It focuses on particular aspects of the study. It is designed to gather descriptive information and provides information for formulating more sophisticated studies

DESCRIPTIVE RESEARCH DESIGN

This type of research design is undertaken in many circumstances. When the researcher is interested in knowing the characteristics of certain group such as age, sex, education level, occupation or income etc., The objective of such study is to answer the "who, what, when, where, how" of the subject under investigation, so this project study comes under descriptive research design.

DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION:

PERCENTAGE ANALYSIS

TABLE SHOWING SIZE OF WORKING CAPITAL

YEAR	WORKING CAPITAL IN RATIO
2019-2020	0.84
2020-2021	1.97
2021-2022	0.89
2022-2023	1.10
AVERAGE	1.20

CHART SHOWING SIZE OF WORKING CAPITAL

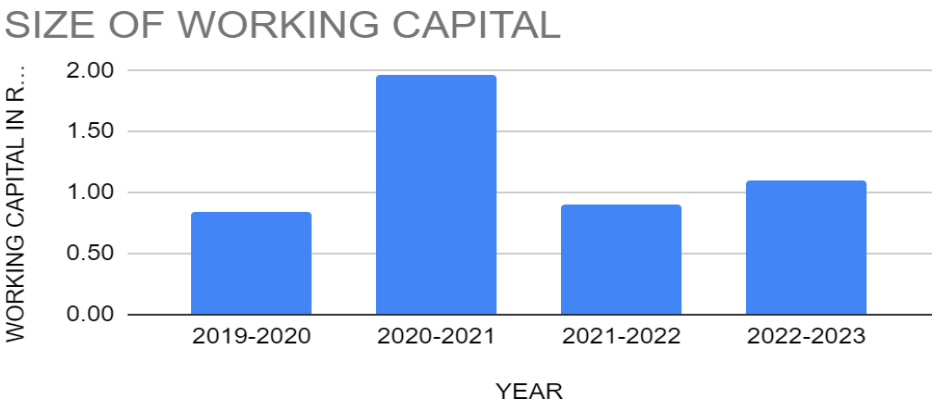


TABLE SHOWING CURRENT RATIO

YEAR	CURRENT ASSETS	CURRENT LIABILITIES	CURRENT RATIO
2019-2020	151,190,613	179,652,671	0.84
2020-2021	170,138,000	86,443,000	1.97
2021-2022	143,962,000	160,898,000	0.89
2022-2023	578,391,000	526,204,000	1.10

CHART SHOWING CURRENT RATIO

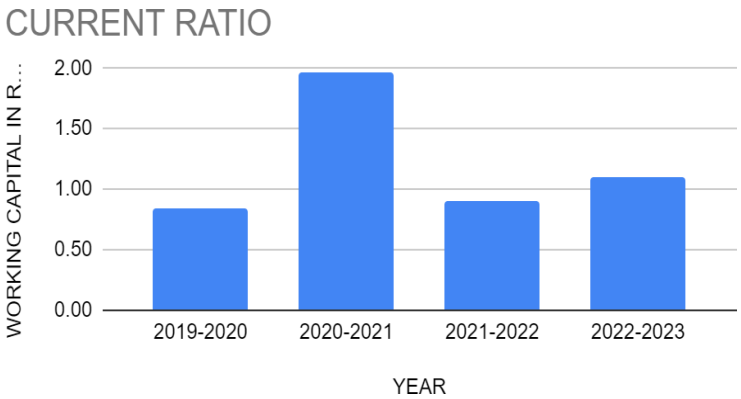


TABLE SHOWING LIQUID RATIO

YEAR	QUICK ASSETS	CURRENT LIABILITIES	QUICK RATIOS
2019-2020	28,781,921	179,652,671	0.16
2020-2021	142,083,000	86,443,000	1.64
2021-2022	85,502,000	160,898,000	0.53
2022-2023	155,486,000	526,204,000	0.30

CHART SHOWING LIQUID RATIO

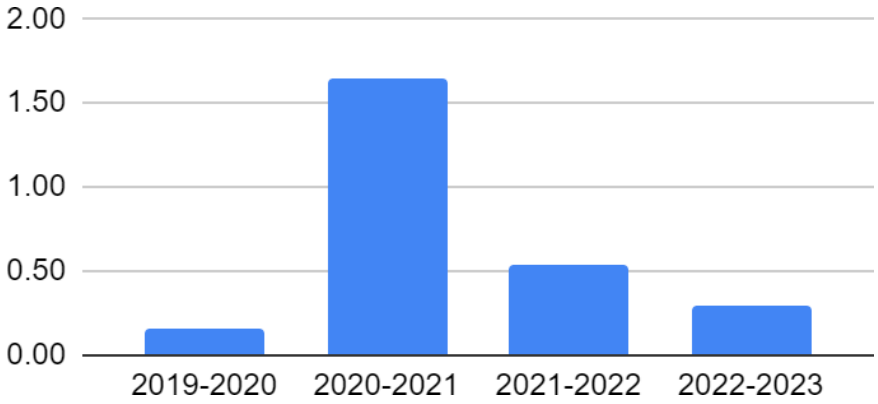
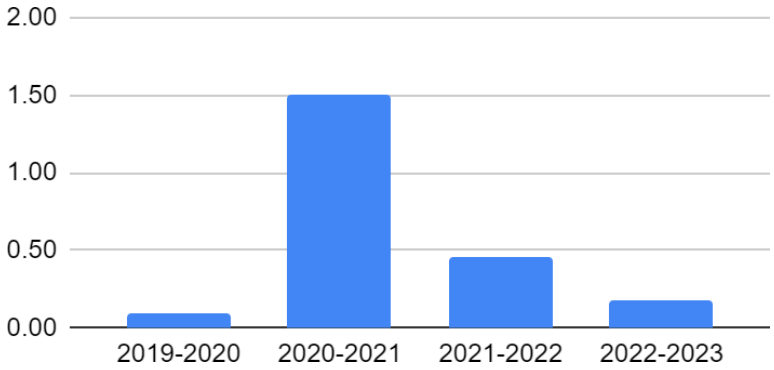


TABLE SHOWING ABSOLUTE LIQUID RATIO

YEAR	ABSOLUTE LIQUID ASSETS	CURRENT LIABILITIES	ABSOLUTE LIQUID RATIOS
2019-2020	15,889,439	179,652,671	0.09
2020-2021	130,434,000	86,443,000	1.51
2021-2022	72,666,000	160,898,000	0.45
2022-2023	93,067,000	526,204,000	0.18

CHART SHOWING ABSOLUTE LIQUID RATIO



FINDINGS

- Maintain stability in the working capital ratio, averaging at 1.20 over the four-year period, indicating a balanced approach to managing short-term liquidity needs.
- Experience significant growth in working capital over the years, reflecting expansion or increased investment in current assets to support business operations.
- Monitor fluctuations in the percentage of cash within working capital, indicating variability in liquidity management practices or changes in the business environment impacting cash flow dynamics.

SUGGESTIONS

- Focus on optimising liquidity management practices, including cash flow forecasting techniques, revising payment terms with suppliers, and reducing cash conversion cycles.
- Evaluate debt management strategies such as refinancing existing debt, negotiating more favourable terms with creditors, and diversifying funding sources to lower the debt-to-equity ratio.
- Prioritise improving asset utilisation efficiency by optimising inventory management, streamlining production processes, and divesting underperforming assets.

CONCLUSION

During the analysed period, the company exhibited promising signs of financial stability and growth. Notably, its liquidity remained at acceptable levels, coupled with a notable expansion in working capital. This indicates an enhanced capacity to fulfil short-term obligations efficiently. Furthermore, despite minor fluctuations, there was a consistent improvement in profitability metrics, reflecting the implementation of more efficient operational practices and tighter cost management strategies over time. The company also demonstrated efforts to optimise asset utilisation, as evidenced by improvements in turnover ratios, particularly in managing accounts receivable and fixed assets. However, it's crucial to approach the observed improvements in return metrics cautiously, considering the fluctuating nature of the debt-to-equity ratio. Such fluctuations suggest potential shifts in the company's capital structure and raise concerns about its financial risk profile. Moving forward, it's imperative for the company

to maintain a vigilant eye on liquidity, profitability, and asset utilisation metrics while addressing any limitations, such as data completeness and the absence of industry benchmarking. By doing so, the company can make informed strategic decisions to sustain its long-term financial performance effectively.

22 Chapter IMPORTANCE OF NUTRITIONAL AND HAEMOGLOBIN STATUS FOR RURAL ADOLESCENT GIRLS

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ISBN: 978-93-92917-32-5 | **DOI**: 10.25215/9392917325.22

Abstract

Adolescence, a critical segment of society considered to be a most nutritionally vulnerable group. In developing countries anaemia during adolescence is reported as one of the greatest nutritional problem. Iron-deficiency anaemia is the most common form of malnutrition and early intervention during adolescence girls can prevent high morbidity and mortality of these future mothers. These girls are characterized by limited education, lack of knowledge pertaining to social as well as health aspects and also limited influence on decisions affecting their lives. Thus, awareness is one major factor for development of this group of population because of the fact that these adolescent girls would be the future homemakers. Thus the aim of the study is to assess the nutritional status and prevalence of anaemia in rural adolescent girls, to evaluate the awareness of adolescents on health and nutrition, to impart nutrition education with special reference to anaemia. It was found to be more than half (56, 20 and 14) percent of the girls suffer from mild, moderate and severe anaemia.

Key Words: *Adolescence, Anaemia, Nutrition, Awareness, Morbidity*

Introduction

Adolescence is a period of human development that is characterised by rapid increase in height and weight by hormonal changes, sexual maturity, and by wide-swings in emotions. The pattern of body water, lean body mass, bone and fat show increasing differences between boys and girls. Hence adolescence is considered as a nutritionally critical period of life. Adolescent nutritional status and development are integrately related to their food and nutrient intake, dietary and meal patterns. Adolescents in India suffer from gross nutritional inadequacies. Socio-economic status, food habits and environment affect their nutritional status to a great extent. Any nutritional deprivation during this period compromises their growth and intellectual potential (Amarnath et al., 2013).

Micronutrient deficiency is so ubiquitous that it affects all the population of the world irrespective of age, culture or ethnic background. The global prevalence of micronutrient deficiency which is often referred as “Hidden hunger” is estimated to be about two billion and most viable manifestation of the nutritional deficiency is the high prevalence of iron deficiency anaemia. Micronutrients like iron, vitamin A and zinc, required in micro quantities, are essential for growth, development, utilization of macronutrients, immunity and many other physiological and metabolic functions. Any deficiency of these essential micronutrients adversely affects growth and amplifies the risks to the individual’s health. In the case of

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females, this increases the likelihood of damage to future generations through fetal growth retardation and limited ability to cope with stress (Prashanthi and Kamalaja, 2015.

Anaemia is the most common nutritional deficiency disorder in the world. WHO defines anaemia as a condition in which the Haemoglobin (Hb) content of blood is lower than normal as a result of deficiency of one or more essential nutrients, regardless of the cause of such deficiencies. Most of the anaemia are due to inadequate supply of nutrients like iron, folic acid and vitamin B12, proteins, amino acids, vitamins A, C, and other vitamins of B-complex group i.e., niacin and pantothenic acid are also involved in the maintenance of haemoglobin level (Kaur, 2014).

Dietary pattern among adolescents

Meal skipping

Meal-skipping was observed among 40.8 percent of adolescent girls of Kottayam Taluk and among them 62.2 percent skipped breakfast (Ramya and Thomas, 2015). Skipping of meals was common among three fourth of the subjects in rural adolescent girls of Karnal district. Meal skipping was a regular feature in low socioeconomic adolescent girls than in high socioeconomic adolescent girls in urban area of South India but Goel, Kaur and Gupta (2013) had reported that more than two-thirds adolescent girls skipped atleast one meal a day and the most frequently missed meal was breakfast. The most common effect of skipping meal among adolescent girls was consumption of junk food in Kurukshetra district, India. Anupriya and Rajam (2013) had found that skipping of meals was a little higher in the adolescents of Chennai. Kotecha et al (2013) had communicated that nearly 60 percent of adolescents had their breakfast daily while the remaining missed taking breakfast daily. Nearly one-third of adolescents were missing a meal once or twice a week in school going adolescent of urban Baroda, India.

Meal pattern

Kaur (2014) had recorded that one half of the respondents were consuming two meals per day. Only one third of the subjects were in the habit of taking packed lunch as a routine and maximum respondents were in the habit of "fasting" in rural adolescent girls of Karnal district.

Parul and Veenu (2015) had reported that the proportion of anaemia was higher if girls were vegetarian, taking predominantly rice based diet, consuming <3 meals/day and consuming fruits, less than four times a week. Kaur (2015) had divulged that most of the adolescent girls were vegetarians in rural adolescent girls of Karnal district. Farooqui, Paul and Jain (2013) had stated that 56, 31 and 13 percent were vegetarians, non-vegetarian and ova vegetarians in adolescent girls of Allahabad City.

Food intake among adolescents

The frequency of intake of leafy vegetables and fruits was very less in adolescent girls of Kottayam Taluk and diets were inadequate in fruits, vegetables and milk products in Adolescent girls in urban Bangalore (Khanna et al., 2006).

Kotecha et.al, (2013) had reported that nearly 80 percent of adolescent girls of urban Baroda, India, consumed regular food, like dal, rice, chapati, and vegetables, including green leafy

vegetables. It was also further confined that intake of pulses and green leafy vegetables was very low in tribal, rural and tea garden labourer groups.

Nutrient intake of adolescents

Neog and Baroova (2012) disclosed that nutrient intake was mostly deficient in energy, protein, vitamin C, iron and calcium for all girls except for urban girls who had sufficiency of about 95.15 to 106.78 percent of energy across all age groups. Amongst the micronutrients, intake of vitamin C was insufficient and the mean iron intake of the girls irrespective of the groups was far below the RDA in adolescent girls of Jorhat district, Assam. Rao et.al, (2006) has reported that the intake of all the nutrients were below the recommended level, while that of micronutrients such as iron, vitamin A and riboflavin were grossly inadequate in all the age and sex groups of adolescent tribal population in nine states of India.

Malhotra and Passi (2007) had reported that most of the rural adolescent girls of North India had inadequate micronutrients' intake especially vitamin A and folic acid. Venkaiah et al (2002) had found that the intakes of micronutrients such as vitamin A and riboflavin were woefully inadequate in rural adolescents of India.

Anthropometric measurements of adolescent

It had been reported that 56 percent adolescent girls were underweight as per BMI in Bihar, but a lower number of underweight girls were found in rural Coimbatore, India. Ranganath and Debata (2015) had established that 35.9 percent of adolescent girls were underweight in urban Bangalore. However over all, about 23 percent were lean and 17 percent of the girls were thin in adolescent female factory workers in urban Bangladesh.

Amarnath and Lakshmana (2013) from their study on adolescent girls of Visakhapatnam district, Andhra Pradesh had established that while 58.9 percent of urban girls were undernourished (BMI<18.5) compared to 38.1 percent of rural girls who had BMI<18.5. Premalatha et al (2012) had communicated that 42.5 percent of adolescents of Chennai, Tamilnadu had BMI<18.

Prevalence of nutritional deficiency symptoms

Prevalence of anaemia

The prevalence of anaemia was 63.75 percent and highest among late adolescent (17-18 years) in rural area of Rajahmundry, Andhra Pradesh. About 19.13 percent female UG medical students of Government medical college Kottayam in Kerala with affected by anaemia. Also three fourth of girls were anaemic in adolescent girls of district Belgaum, Karnataka. It had reported that 42.5 percent of adolescent school girls of Chennai, Tamilnadu were found to be anaemic.

Sidhu et al (2015) had shown that in adolescent girls of Amritsar, only 29.43 percent girls were normal and the rest 70.57 percent were affected with various grades of anaemia such as mild, moderate and severe. It had also been reported a slightly higher prevalence of 77.3 percent with severe, moderate and mild anaemia. Dubeyl et al (2013) had disclosed a lower prevalence of anaemia among adolescent population (42 percent) with various grades of anaemia such as 59.14 percent being mildly anaemic, 32.02 percent moderately anaemic and 8.82 percent suffered from severe anaemia in South Western Nepal.

It had revealed that majority of married adolescent girls were anaemic in both urban (82.4 percent) and rural (95.8 percent) area of South India. Pattnaik et al (2012) had established that the prevalence of anaemia among adolescent girls of rural Odisha was 78.8 percent. Out of which 75.6 percent girls were suffering from mild anaemia, 24.4 percent girls were having moderate anaemia and none had severe anaemia. Gupta, Parasha and Sharma (2012) had ascertained that 77.3 percent had mild anaemia, 21.9 percent had moderate anaemia and 2.5 percent had severe anaemia in adolescent girls of Shima hills, North India. It is also been reported that prevalence anaemia was very high among adolescent girls of urban slum and majority of them were having mild or moderate anaemia.

Nutritional deficiency symptoms

Dhingra and Raj (2011) enumerated the presence of signs and symptoms of anaemia and malnutrition in Gujjar tribal girls of Jammu district and ascertained that 90 percent of the subjects had pale cold skin, 89.5 percent had general weakness and 86.5 percent had yellow conjunctiva. Patil, Wasnik and Wadke (2009) had reported that the problems related to menstruation cycle (Dysmenorrhoea (44.2 percent)) was the common in adolescent girls. Irregular menses (16.9 percent), Irritation (21.7 percent), Malaise (9.5 percent), Headchae (14.2 percent), chest pain (8.2 percent), abdominal bloating (20.3 percent), constipation (11.3 percent), and tightness in chest (10.6 percent) were present in the adolescent girls of Ratnagiri district of Maharashtra, India. The Indian Institute of Health and Family Welfare (2002) had indicated that signs and symptoms like pallor (eyes, tongue, nails), fatigue, breathlessness, poor appetite and lack of concentration in studies were present in 12.5,14.1, 9.2, 26.5 and 86 percent of girls respectively in rural adolescent girls of Andhra Pradesh.

Blood iron status of adolescent girls

A cross sectional school based study was conducted in NCT of Delhi, India in the year 2010-2011. About 48, 66.1 and 68.4 percent of adolescent in the higher income group, middle and low categories, respectively had Hb level <12g/dl were found to be suffering from anaemia (Kapil and Bhadoria 2014).

Conclusion

It was concluded from the study that the majority of rural adolescents had below average nutritional status along with a low haemoglobin levels. They were all lacking in their nutritional knowledge and were not aware of the iron rich foods to be included in their diet. Those entire rural groups should be helped with people to improve their haemoglobin status to make them sufficient enough to be a well-nourished future mothers.

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23 Chapter OPTICAL COMMUNICATION IN FREE SPACE: ANALYZING THROUGH COMMUNICATION THEORY

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ISBN: 978-93-92917-32-5 | **DOI**: 10.25215/9392917325.23

Abstract

Optical wireless communication (OWC) refers to transmission in an unguided propagation medium using optical carrier waves. H. Visible, Infrared (IR), and Ultraviolet (UV) Bands. This research focuses on the ground-based OWC outdoor link operating in the near-infrared band. These are often referred to in the literature as optical free-space communications (FSO). FSO systems are used for high-speed communication between two fixed points over distances up to several kilometers. Compared to radio frequency (RF) links, FSO links have much higher optical bandwidth and can achieve significantly higher data rates. They are suitable for a wide range of applications including MAN (metropolitan area extension), LAN-to-LAN (local area network) connectivity, fiber optic backhauls, wireless cellular network backhaul, disaster recovery, high-definition television, and medical imaging. Despite its great advantages and versatility in application fields, FSO technology is vulnerable to atmospheric turbulence and weather conditions, which cause fading and poor connection reliability, especially over long distances. That's too bad. This has hindered its spread. Over the past five years or so, his interest in FSO research to address these major engineering challenges has grown. Several innovative physical layer concepts originally introduced in the context of RF systems include multiple-input, multiple-output communications, cooperative diversity, adaptive transmission, and more recently in the design of next-generation FSO systems. It has been. will be taken into account. This article presents current research results on BFS communication systems. The first part describes the FSO channel model and transmitter/receiver structure. In the second part, we discuss the information-theoretic limitations of FSO channels and research efforts on system design at the algorithmic level to achieve these limitations. Specific topics include advances in modulation, channel coding, spatial/cooperative diversity techniques, adaptive transmission, and hybrid RF/FSO systems.

I INTRODUCTION

A. Overview of Optical Wireless Communication

The spread of wireless communication is considered one of the most important phenomena in the history of technology. Wireless devices and technology have become mainstream much faster than anyone could have imagined 30 years ago, and will continue to be an important part of modern society for the foreseeable future. Currently, M. Uysal's research is supported by Marie Curie International Reintegration Grant (PIRG07-GA-2010-268318) and Turkish Scientific and Technological Research Council (TUBITAK) Grant 111E143. “Wireless” is used almost interchangeably with radio frequency (RF) technology due

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to the widespread adoption and use of wireless RF devices and systems. However, the capacity of the HF band of the electromagnetic spectrum is inherently limited, and most subbands are exclusively licensed, making their use expensive. As data-intensive wireless communications become more prevalent, demand for RF spectrum exceeds supply, and it is time to seriously consider other viable wireless communications options that leverage the upper limits of the electromagnetic spectrum. Optical wireless communication (OWC) refers to transmission in an unguided propagation medium using optical carrier waves. H. Visible, Infrared (IR) and Ultraviolet (UV) Regions. Historical forms of OWC include beacons, smoke screens, military flags, and formal telegraph signals.[1] Sunlight was also used for long-distance signals from very early times. The first to use sunlight for communication were the ancient Greeks and Romans, who used polished shields to reflect sunlight and transmit signals during battle. In 1810, Karl Friedrich Gauss invented the heliograph, in which a pair of mirrors directed controlled sunlight toward a distant observatory. The original heliograph was designed for geodetic surveying, but was widely used for military purposes in the late 19th century and early 20th century. In 1880, Alexander Graham Bell invented the photophone, known as the world's first wireless telephone system. [1] Based on the vibration of a transparent mirror caused by sound. The vibrations are reflected and projected by sunlight and converted into sound at the receiver. Bell called the camera phone "the greatest invention he ever made, bigger than a telephone" [3], but it was never released commercially. However, military interest in photophones remained. For example, in 1935 the Wehrmacht developed a photophone that used a tungsten lamp with an infrared transmission filter as a light source. He continued to develop high-voltage arc lamps for optical communications at military research institutes in the United States and Germany until his 1950s. [4]

In the modern sense, OWC uses a laser or light emitting diode (LED) as a transmitter. In 1962, MIT Lincoln Laboratory built an experimental OWC link that could transmit television signals over a distance of 30 miles using GaAs light-emitting diodes. After the invention of the laser, OWC was considered the main use of lasers and numerous experiments were performed. In fact, just a few months after unveiling the first practical laser in July 1960, scientists at Bell Labs used a ruby laser to transmit a signal 40 miles away. did. . It was completed. It was done [5]. A comprehensive list of OWC demonstrations conducted between 1960 and 1970 using different types of lasers and modulation schemes can be found in [6]. However, the results have generally been disappointing due to the large divergence of the laser beam and the inability to cope with atmospheric effects. The focus shifted from his OWC system in the 1970s, when low-loss optical fibers were developed and became the obvious choice for long-distance optical transmission. For decades, interest in OWC was mainly limited to covert military applications [7], [8] and space applications, including intersatellite and space communications1. Although the mass market penetration of OWC has been limited so far, the introduction of IrDA has made it very successful as a short-range wireless transmission solution [16]. In recent years, the market has become promising and companies offering terrestrial OWC connectivity and visible light communication (VLC) products have entered the market [17]. The development of novel and efficient wireless technologies that take into account different transmission paths will build future heterogeneous communication networks that support different services with different traffic patterns and meet the ever-increasing demand for higher data rates. Masu. Sho. That's very important. Variations of OWC have the potential to be used in a variety of communications applications, ranging from optical connections within integrated circuits to outdoor connections between buildings and satellite communications. OWCs can be divided into five categories based on their transmission range .

1) Very short range OWC. B. Chip-to-chip communication in stacked and densely packed multichip packages .
2) Short-range OWC, such as wireless body area network (WBAN) and wireless personal area network (WPAN) applications [30], underwater communications.
3) Medium-range OWC, e.g. Wireless Local Area Network (WLAN), indoor IR and VLC for vehicle-to-vehicle and vehicle-to-vehicle communications.

In the mid-1980s, the European Space Agency (ESA) considered the use of his OWC for inter-satellite connections and launched the SILEX (Semiconductor Inter-Satellite Laser Experiment) research program. In 2001, a 50 Mbit/s OWC link was successfully established between the geostationary satellite ARTEMIS and the French Earth observation satellite SPOT-4 in sun-synchronous low Earth orbit [9]. By introducing coherent modulation techniques, data rates on the order of Gbit/s have been successfully achieved [10]–[12].

B. Advantages and Applications of FSO

FSO systems are used for high-speed communication between two fixed points over distances up to several kilometers. Compared to RF links, FSO links have much higher optical bandwidth and can achieve significantly higher data rates. Terrestrial OWC products with transmission speeds of 10 Gbit/s are already on the market and the speeds of new experimental OWC systems are competitive with optical fiber. FSO systems use very narrow laser beams. This spatial restriction ensures high reuse rates, inherent security, and robustness against electromagnetic interference. Additionally, the frequencies used by FSO technology are above 300 GHz and are not licensed worldwide. Therefore, no license fee is required for FSO systems. FSO systems are easy to deploy and can be reinstalled without the cost of dedicated fiber connections. FSO systems initially attracted attention as an efficient solution to the "last mile" problem, bridging the gap between end users and existing fiber infrastructure. Telcos are already making significant investments to increase the capacity of their fiber backbones. Today, businesses and school/university campuses are exposed to a variety of network traffic (such as voice, data, fax, and multimedia traffic) that overwhelms typical connections. FSO systems can span multiple buildings on a corporate or campus network and support ultra-high speeds without the cost of dedicated fiber connections. Surveillance cameras are commonly used in commercial, law enforcement, public safety, and military applications. Although wireless video is convenient and easy to deploy, traditional wireless technologies do not have high throughput requirements for video streams. FSO technology provides a powerful alternative to support high-quality video transmission. Mobile systems typically use wired connections, such as: B. A T1/E1 leased line or microwave connection between a base station and a mobile switch. The increasing number of bandwidth-intensive mobile services requires the use of technologies such as FSO, which enable significantly higher throughput. • Redundant connectivity and disaster recovery: Natural disasters, terrorist attacks, and emergencies require flexible and innovative responses. Temporary FSO connectivity can be deployed within hours, even in disaster situations where local infrastructure may be damaged or unreliable. A tragic example of the effectiveness of his FSO deployment as a redundant link occurred after his September 11 terrorist attacks in New York City. FSO lines were quickly installed in the area for financial companies that did not have landlines. Today's cryptographic systems can only provide computational security within the limits of traditional computational power. For example, if quantum computers become a reality, electronic money will instantly become worthless. Quantum cryptography is based on fixed physical laws and offers a completely different solution to encryption, promising unconditional security. Quantum cryptography

systems are typically considered in conjunction with fiber optic infrastructure. FSO connectivity provides a versatile alternative when deploying fiber is costly or impractical. If you want to broadcast live events, such as sporting events or ceremonies, or broadcast television programs from remote locations or combat zones, you need to send the signal from your camera to your broadcast equipment. Transmission technology is connected to the headquarters via satellite uplink. The required high-quality transmission between the camera and the vehicle can be achieved via an FSO connection. FSO connectivity can meet the most demanding throughput requirements of today's high-definition television (HDTV) broadcast applications.

II FSO CHANNEL MODELING

The optical power provided by a transmitter is affected by many factors before reaching the receiver. These include system losses, geometric losses, misalignment losses, atmospheric losses, atmospheric turbulence losses, and ambient noise. System losses are highly dependent on design specifications and are typically specified by the manufacturer. For more information on system losses, see [48]. Other factors are discussed in more detail below.

1 Geometric and Misalignment Losses

Geometric losses are caused by the divergence of the beam as it propagates through the atmosphere. It can be calculated from the divergence angle, connection distance, and aperture size of the receiving lens. When calculating geometric losses, the light wave propagation model is an important factor. For horizontal FSO transmission, a good approximation is to consider a Gaussian beam intensity profile. When the divergence of a Gaussian beam is relatively large, its statistical properties are similar to those of a point source. In such cases, plane wave approximation or spherical wave approximation can be effectively used. The degree of beam divergence also affects transmitter and receiver alignment and beam tracking at the receiver. In practice, misalignment is usually caused by beam movement, building fluctuations, or tracking system errors. Beam migration is the result of large-scale atmospheric eddy inhomogeneities that randomly deflect optical beams and cause them to deviate from their original paths . This phenomenon is especially important over long distances. On the other hand, building fluctuations are caused by various factors such as thermal expansion, wind loads, small earthquakes, and vibrations . Since the transmit beam is narrow and the field of view (FOV) of the receiver is typically small, building fluctuations can effectively disrupt communications. If no tracking mechanism is used at the receiver (typically for entry-level FSO links with a range of several hundred meters), losses due to misalignment can be reduced by increasing the beam divergence at the transmitter. The use of spatially partially coherent Gaussian beams has also been proposed in to reduce the alignment error caused by misalignment. In it was shown that beam optimization allows a significant increase in channel capacity. Similar studies showed that the transmitter beam radius can be optimized to maximize the average link capacity and minimize the failure probability. also proposed the use of tunable wavelengths using quantum cascade lasers to reduce the effects of building fluctuations. At long distances (more than 1 kilometer), narrower beams should be used to avoid large geometric losses. Therefore, automatic alignment and tracking at the receiver is required to eliminate or reduce the effects of alignment errors. is required. Statistical modeling of pointing errors and their impact on system performance has been investigated in several recent studies.

2 Atmospheric Loss

The physical and transmission properties of radiation passing through the atmosphere are very similar in the visible and near-infrared wavelength ranges. Visibility can therefore also be used to characterize particles that absorb light or scatter near-infrared light. Particles that reduce visibility include rain, snow, and fog, as well as pollutants, dust, aerosols, and smoke. They absorb some of the laser light energy and reduce optical performance. In the near-infrared, absorption mainly occurs through water particles. These cause light scattering, a deviation of the incident light from its original direction, resulting in spatial, angular, and temporal scattering. In rain and snow, the particle size is much larger than the wavelength, so FSO transmission remains relatively intact. When installing FSO systems in metropolitan areas with distances less than 1 km, typical rainfall attenuation values are typically on the order of 3 dB/km. Only in the case of very heavy rainfall, attenuation can become an issue if implemented outside the distance scale of typical metropolitan areas. In snow, the attenuation can be greater than in rain because the droplet size is significantly larger. In fact, the effect of light snow on snowstorms is roughly between light rain and moderate fog . If the diameter of the particles is on the order of the wavelength, the resulting scattering coefficients are very high. Therefore, fog and haze are the most harmful environmental conditions as they are composed of small particles with radii close to near-infrared wavelengths. Even moderate fog can significantly attenuate IR signals over short distances. Experimental measurements in [8] showed that atmospheric attenuation between 785 and 1550 nm in fog is almost wavelength independent, but in fog it is wavelength dependent. Typically, the size of fog particles is between 0.01 and 1 μm, while the radius of fog droplets is between 1 and 20 μm, so light rays in fog are not significantly attenuated . Additionally, scatterers of different sizes cause wavelength-dependent light extinction under hazy or dense fog conditions [82]. A detailed analysis based on Mie scattering theory is presented in[13], where a wavelength-dependent model of the extinction coefficient is presented. In foggy or foggy conditions. An interesting point is that wireless RF technologies that use frequencies above about 10 GHz are negatively affected by rain and hardly affected by fog [14], [18].

III FSO TRANSCEIVER

In an FSO communication system, a source generates an information waveform that is modulated onto an optical carrier. The generated light field is radiated through the atmosphere to distant targets. This field is detected optically by a receiver, and a photodetector converts the optical field into an electrical current. The receiver processes the detected stream to recover the information originally sent. His current FSO systems typically operate in the near-infrared wavelength range. H. 750-1600 nm (transparent) Although the atmosphere is considered highly transparent in the near-infrared wavelength range, the presence of various molecules in the atmosphere can cause strong absorption at certain wavelengths. Interestingly, the 850nm and 1550nm windows correspond to standard transmission windows for fiber optic communication systems. Therefore, most commercially available FSO systems work with these two windows and use the corresponding standard components available. Recently, other wavelengths such as 10 μm [8], [12] and UV wavelengths have also been considered for his FSO systems. A wavelength of 10 μm is known to have good fog penetration properties. On the other hand, UV transmission is more robust to alignment errors and beam blockage, and less sensitive to sunlight and other background interferences.

IV INFORMATION THEORETICAL LIMITS

The Shannon-Hartley theorem determines the (theoretical) maximum data rate that can be transmitted on a channel with an arbitrarily small BER for a given average signal power. Early studies considered a Poisson channel model of the receiver with limited quantum noise, assuming negligible thermal disturbances and background noise. It was shown in that the capacity (in nats/photons) of these photon-counting receivers is unlimited below the average optical power limit. In such channels, arbitrarily small error probabilities per rate can be achieved using Q-factor pulse position modulation (PPM). The capacity of PPM channels is also studied in for the case of space communications using photon counting receivers. Since the FSO channel is actually exposed to atmospheric turbulence, the channel capacity must be considered as a random variable due to the randomness of the channel fading coefficient. Generally, the ergodic or error-capacity definition is used for channels that are subject to fading. Ergodic (also called average) capacity is the expected value of instantaneous channel capacity and is useful when the channel changes very rapidly with respect to the symbol period.

CONCLUSION

The development of novel and efficient wireless technologies for various transmission links will support a wide range of service types with different traffic patterns, creating future heterogeneous communication networks that meet the ever-increasing demand for higher data rates.To further expand the boundaries of FSO systems and address important engineering challenges, especially the attenuation of atmospheric turbulence and the effects of adverse weather conditions, significant research has recently been done into the design problems of the physical (PHY) layer of FSO systems.His PHY layer methods and techniques such as MIMO communication, cooperative diversity, new channel codes, and adaptive transmission are studied in his current FSO literature, and a detailed description of these research efforts is provided in our work.We hope that this study will serve as a valuable resource for understanding the contribution of current research in the growing field of FSO communications and the design of next-generation FSO systems as a powerful complementary technology to heterogeneous RF systems.

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24 Chapter A STUDY ON FINANCIAL ANALYSIS OF JET INKS PRIVATE LIMITED

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ISBN: 978-93-92917-32-5 | **DOI**: 10.25215/9392917325.24

ABSTRACT

This study is important for understanding the management of financial statement in Jet Inks Priate Limied which provide information about profitability and financial position of a business. It includes two statements, i.e., profit loss a/c or income statement and balance sheet or position statement.

INTRODUCTION

The term financial statements analysis is also known as analysis and interpretation of financial statements. It establishes meaningful relationship between various items of the two financial statements especially income statement and position statement. It determines financial strength and weaknesses of the business.

FINANCIAL ANALYSIS

The financial statements analysis is the systematic numerical calculation of the relationship between one fact with other to measure the profitability, liquidity, efficiency and solvency of the business. Financial reporting analysis are of the comparative analysis, common size analysis, profit margin origin, ratio analysis to the systematic calculation of the financial statement. Invest in personal growth recognized to create the financial statement.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The study of the research purpose is to analyse the financial statement. The financial statement only shows the process and activity done, financial analysis and performance shows depth efficiency of functions.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

To understand the financial performance of the Jet Inks Pvt Ltd To find out the financial stability of a business concern. To measure the financial efficiency of Jet Inks Pvt Ltd . To estimate and examine the possibilities of its future growth. To compute and interpret ratio analysis and trend analysis for the past 4 years from 2018- 2019 to 2021-2022.

NEED FOR STUDY

To understand and identify the problematic areas and make a plan and take action towards improvement. This study helps not only to retain values of the company but also enhance the

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performance level of the company.

SCOPE OF THE STUDY

To determine the financial performance of the Jet Inks Pvt ltd on the basis of the convenience, industrial status and easy accessibility of the data. To examine the relevance, worth and effectiveness of all activities undertaken.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

This study is limited to only one that is company Jet Inks Pvt Ltd. The analysis of the study cannot be applied to all the firms in the same industry. The Period of the study is restricted to 4 year.

TOOLS OF FINANCIAL STATEMENT ANALYSIS

Different tools are used for analyzing the financial statements. The tool is selectedbased on the purpose of analysis. Following are the commonly used tools of financial statement analysis: Trend analysis, RatioAnalysis.

SOURCE OF DATA COLLECTION

Secondary Data

The Secondary data are those which have already been collected by someone else andwhich have already been passed through the statistical process. Thus the data wascollected from company document reports and books.

Period of Study

The present study focuses on a decade financial statement of Tata Steel Ltd fromtheyear 2018-2019 to 2021-2022.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Financial Analysis: a literature review - Natrajan Sundar (2022) The significance of financial analysis at national as well as corporate level. It is primarily through credit controls. The study concluded that investment in working capital and investment in fixed assets both are essential for any firm. And especially for a business that is not growing, survival will only be possible as long as you can offset increased operating costs with increased operational efficiency.

Study on Financial analysis - Bhattacharyya Hrishikesh (2022) Developed a comprehensive theory and an instrument for managing the financial statement of a company from the perspective of the techno-financial operating structure. from the perspective of a business system, suggesting the importance of the role of a finance manager in balancing two sides of the balance sheet so that the net worth of the company increases without increasing the risk of the company.

RATIO ANALYSIS

Ratio analysis is mainly performed by external analysts as financial statementsarethe primary source of information for external analysts. The analysts very muchrelyon the current and past

financial statements in order to obtain important dataforanalyzing financial performance of the company.

TABLE SHOWING: Current Ratio: Current Assets/Current Liabilities. (Rupees in Lakhs)

Particulars	2018-19	2019-20	2020-21	2021-22
Current assets	1626.27	1426.32	2112.05	2257.21
Current liabilities	498.70	453.38	700.37	773.48
Current ratio	3.26	3.15	3.0	2.9

CHART SHOWING CURRENT RATIO

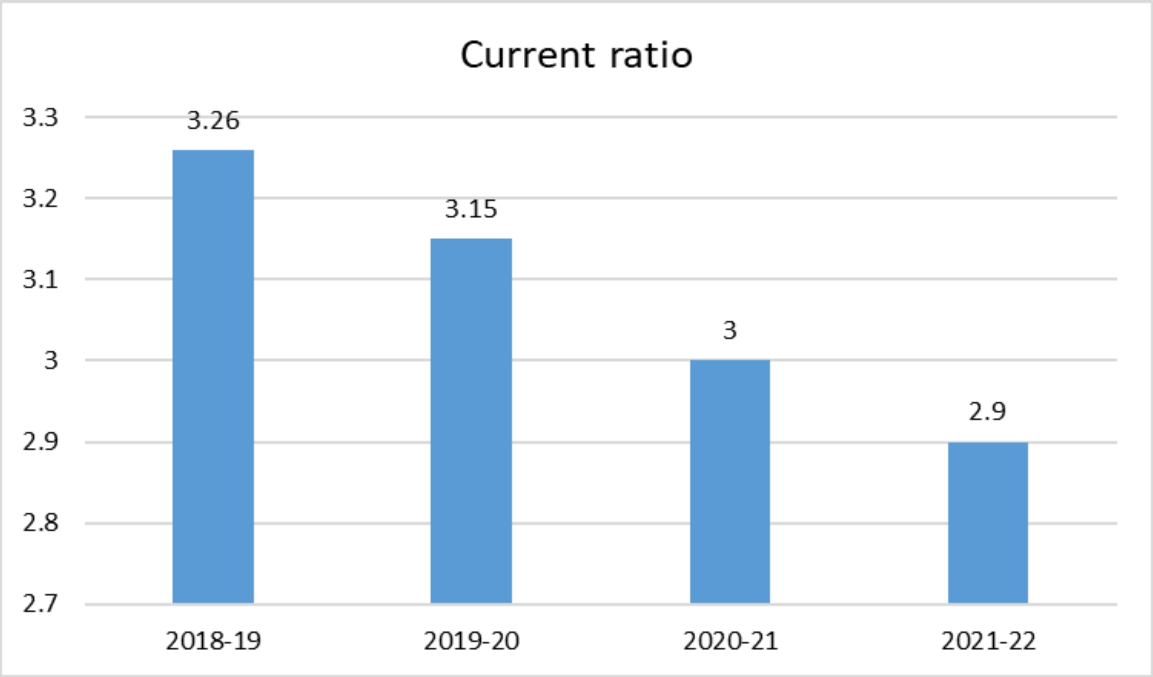


TABLE SHOWING: Quick Ratio: Current Assets-Inventories/Quick Liabilities (Rupees in Lakhs)

Particulars	2018-19	2019-20	2020-21	2021-22
Liquid assets	1099.94	951.06	1335.45	1509.61
Liquid liabilities	498.70	453.38	700.37	773.48
Quick ratio	2.21	2.10	1.91	1.95

CHART SHOWING QUICK RATIO

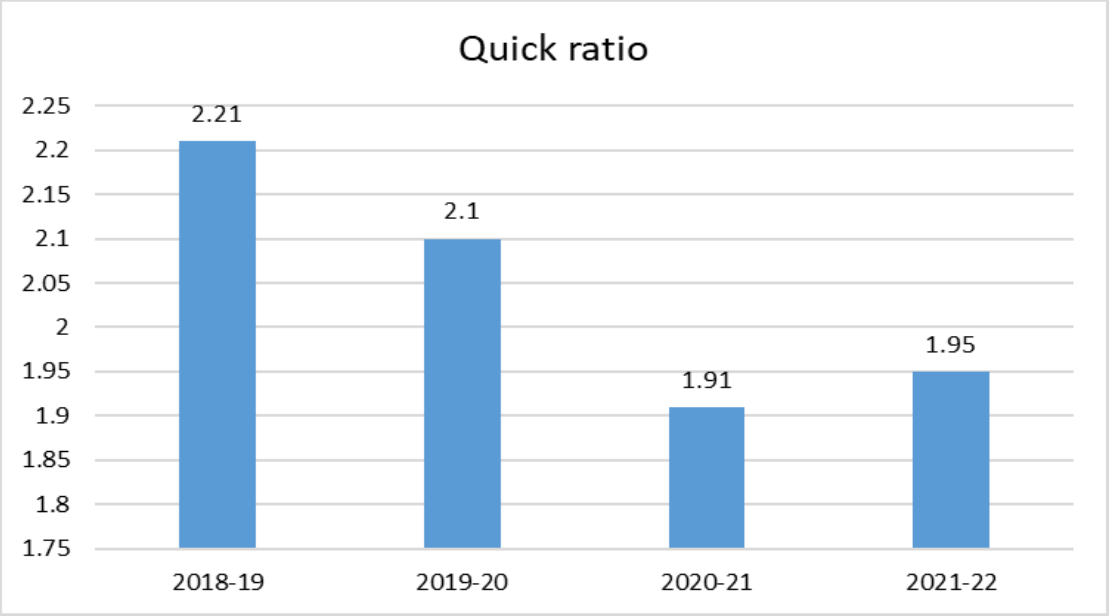


TABLE SHOWING: Debtors turnover ratio: Net credit sales/Average (Rupees in Lakhs)

Particulars	2018-19	2019-20	2020-21	2021-22
Net sales	2786.39	3577.89	4137.52	5001.04
Debtors	415.44	595.99	760.98	887.23
Debtors T.O. ratio	6.71	6	5.44	5.64

CHART SHOWING DEBTORS TURNOVER RATIO

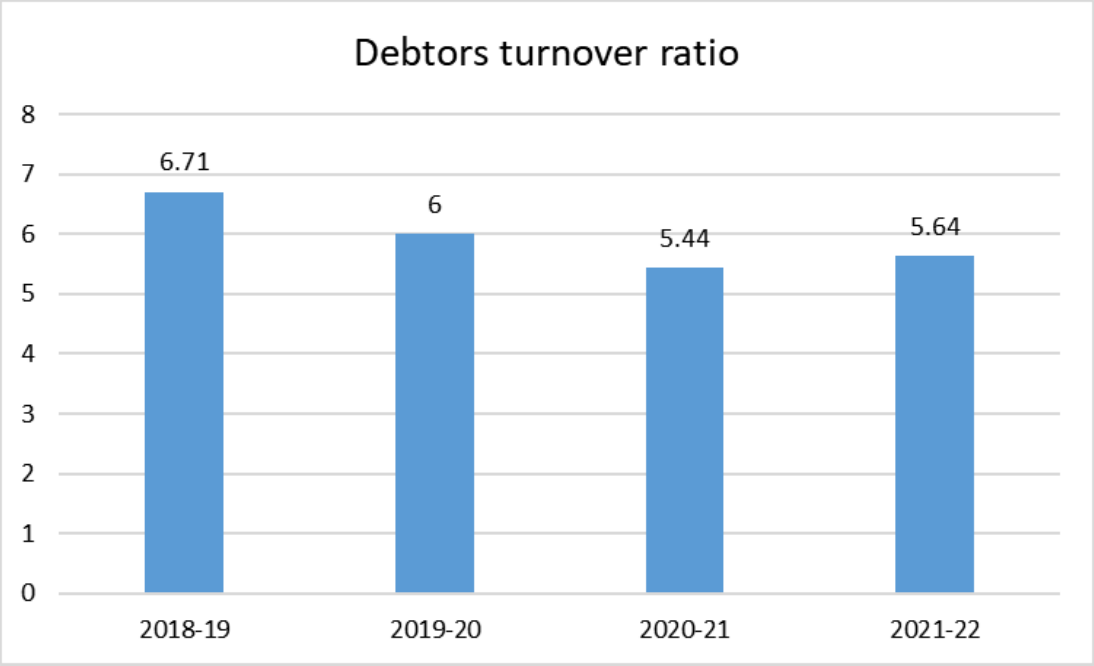


TABLE SHOWING Creditors Turnover Ratio: Net credit purchase/Average creditors (Rupees in Lakhs)

Particulars	2018-19	2019-20	2020-21	2021-22
Net Purchase	2447.75	3190.45	3781.72	4690.67
Creditors	265.88	232.19	330.01	463.94
Creditors T.O. ratio	9.21	13.74	11.46	10.11

CHART SHOWING CREDITORS T.O RATIO

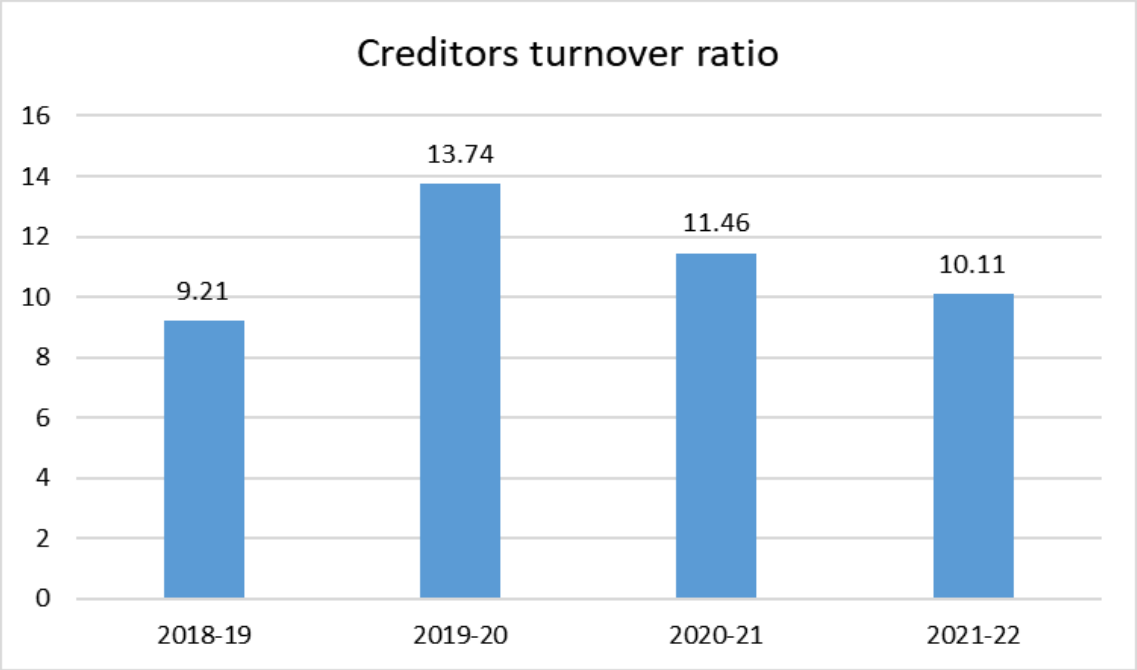
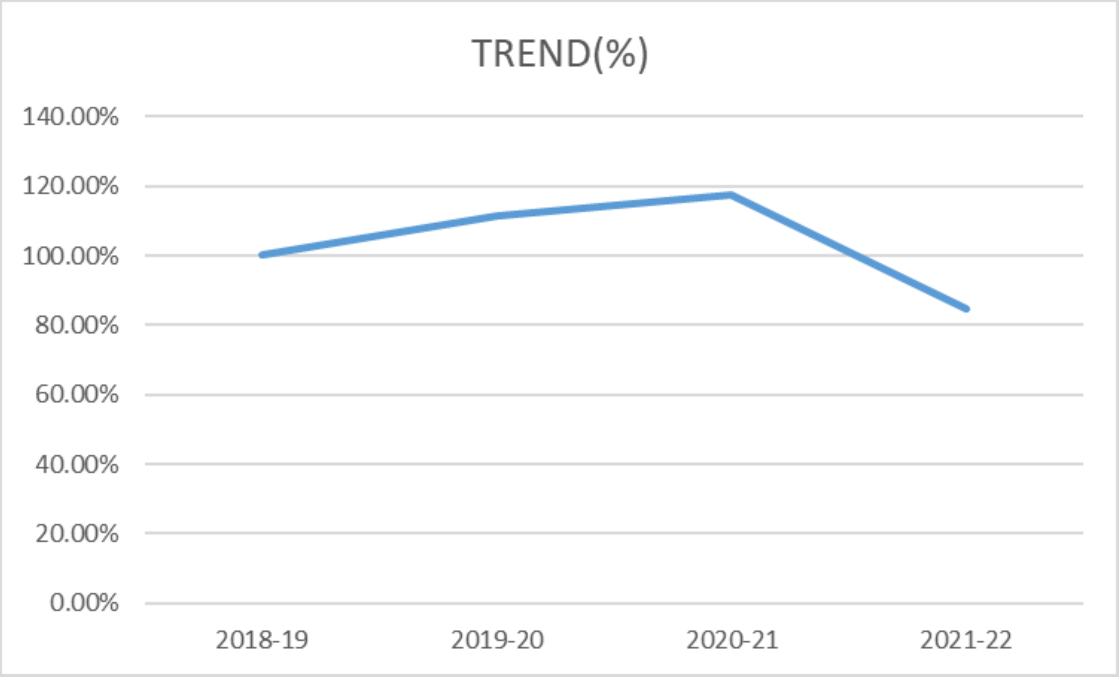


TABLE SHOWING TREND ANALYSIS: Trend Percentage of Gross Profit Ratio (Rupees in Lakhs)

YEAR	GROSS PROFIT	TREND(%)
2018-19	387.60	100
2019-20	432.6	111.61
2020-21	454.93	117.37
2021-22	328.26	84.69

CHART SHOWING GROSS PROFIT RATIO



SUGGESTIONS

- In order to increase the profitability, it is suggested to control the cost of goods sold and operating expenses.
- The company should try to increase the production so as to get economies of largescale production. It will assist in raising the rate of return on capital employed.
- No doubt the companies are taking trading on equity benefit very well but that should try to find other new financial sources that will enhance the trading on equity benefit.

CONCLUSION

Ratio analysis has a major significance in analysing the financial performance of a company over a period of time. Decisions affecting product prices, per unit costs, volume or efficiency have an impact on the profit margin or turnover ratios of a company.

25 Chapter AN ANALYSIS OF INCREASE IN DIGITAL PAYMENT DUE TO COVID-19

Ms. Sarita Chaurasiya [1]

ISBN: 978-93-92917-32-5 | **DOI**: 10.25215/9392917325.25

Abstract:

The COVID-19 pandemic has changed how people pay for things worldwide. Many have turned to digital payments to stay safe by avoiding physical contact. In India, this shift to digital modes of payment has been huge. According to a report from "The Times of India" in April 2022, India ranked first globally in digital transactions in 2021. This information comes from research that looked at various reliable sources like journals and trustworthy websites. The study focused on different digital payment methods like banking cards, UPI, internet banking, and mobile banking.

The researchers found that the pandemic brought challenges but also opportunities for digital payments in India. Some challenges included adapting to new systems and ensuring everyone had access to these digital options. However, there were positive impacts too. People felt safer using contactless payments, and more businesses started accepting digital payments. Overall, the pandemic significantly increased the use of digital payments in India. It pushed more people and businesses to rely on safer ways to pay, which led to India becoming a global leader in digital transactions.

Keywords: *Digital transactions, pandemic impact, internet banking, UPI*

Introduction:

In the fastest-growing economy, one of the growing sectors is making payments digital, called digital payments. The Government of India has opted for the 'Digital India' campaign, and to achieve the motives of this campaign the government has been making several efforts to enhance the digital mode of payment within India. Bank offers various digital modes of payment such as internet banking, debit cards, mobile wallets, UPI Services, etc. A digital mode of payment is more convenient and provides 24*7 hours service. COVID-19 has affected the entire economy of the world and the functioning of the Indian economy concerning digital payment. During the pandemic, drastic increases in the use of digital payment were recorded as people prefer to be in a safe and contactless mode of transactions. "India ranks first in the world for the use of digital payment and with the highest volume of real-time payment transactions in 2021 achieving 48,605 million transactions" as per the report published in "The Times of India" dated April 25, 2022.

Review of Literature:

Dr. Shahrukh Saleem, Mr. B. Sreekanth, and Dr. N. Gangisetty (2022): The study mainly focused on digital banking services in India and factors affecting digital payment during COVID-19. The government is focused on offline to online transactions to keep social distance

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to avoid touches and to minimize the risk of getting affected by a coronavirus. Even after the lockdown, extra precautions should be taken to stay safe.

Dr. Sridevi Saravana and Mariyappan N (2021): Their journal revealed that Digital payment was the safest mode of transaction during COVID-19 as consumers are not willing to visit a bank. After the pandemic, they feel more convenient going with digital payment to save time, and security factor and avoid the rush in banking hours. The study shows the increase in cybercrime and technical problems affecting digital payment. This study concluded the positive as well as negative impacts of digital payment.

Dr. Rashmi Mate and Dr. Atul Kapdi (July-December 2021): stated the importance of Digital payment in COVID-19 and its usage in India. The study says that the number of the population using UPI has increased and physical payment has been reduced during the pandemic. As per the analysis, there was an increment of orders placed on various online websites, and apps for daily needs like food, grocery, etc.

M. Thangajesu Sathish, R.Sermakani, and G.Sudha (2020): This study stated that one of the most innovations of technology is e-wallets or digital payment. The traditional mode of payment cannot be replaced by digital payment due to the customer satisfaction factor. Users are more satisfied due to trust factors affecting their intention to go with e-wallets.

Objectives:

The following are the objectives for the study:

- To examine the primary forms of online payment.
- To determine how COVID-19 has affected digital payments
- To compare its utilization during and after the pandemic.
- To determine India's expansion of digital payments.

Research Methodology:

The major information was gathered from Published and unpublished sources like books, journals, papers, publications, and relevant websites, among others, which serve as secondary sources of data. The following secondary has been adopted from the authentic secondary data sources.

- Payment Transactions in the Last Year, Cumulative, in a Table and Chart
- The total number of digital payment transactions undertaken during the last four financial years/ table and chart.
- Volume of digital payment (payment mode wise) for the financial year 2020-21 and 2022-23 / table and chart.
- BHIM UPI Payment Transactions in India (per capita basis)/ table and chart

Scope of the Study:

Understanding how consumer behavior and acceptance rates of digital payment systems altered during and after the pandemic could be the main emphasis of this study's scope. Analyzing information on the use of digital payment methods, such as mobile wallets, UPI, debit/credit cards, and online banking, both before and during the pandemic might be part of the study.

Limitation of the Study:

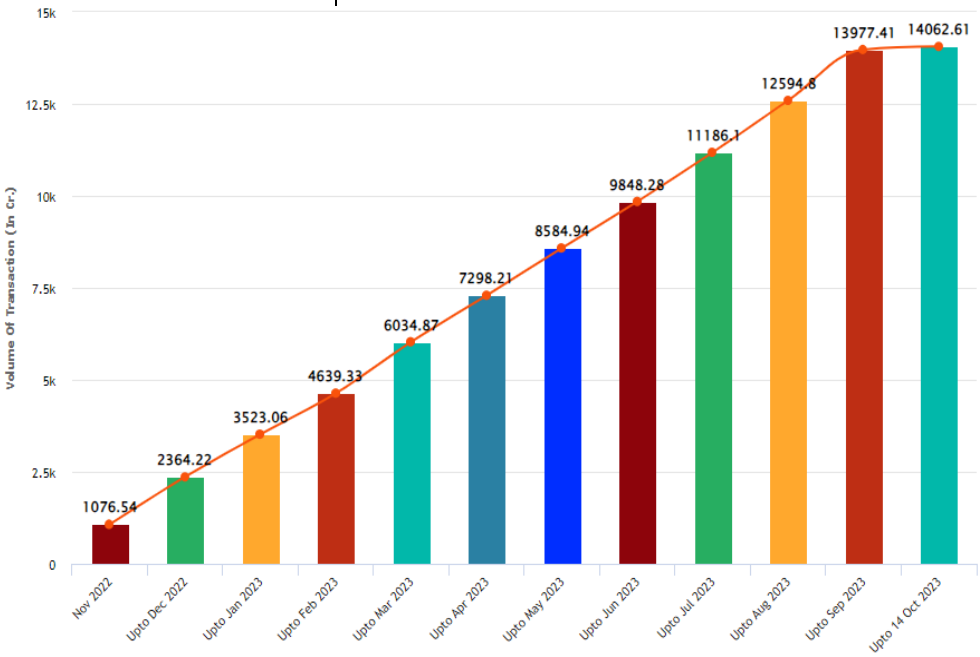
During the pandemic, individuals with better access to smartphones, the internet, and digital literacy may have been more likely to adopt digital payments. This could lead to a skewed sample, as the study might predominantly represent a more technologically savvy and financially better-off segment of the population.

Another limitation pertains to the accuracy and reliability of the data used in the study. Obtaining accurate and comprehensive data on digital payment transactions can be challenging. There could be discrepancies in data sources, data quality, and underreporting, which can affect the study's validity.

Data Analysis and Interpretations:

Table No. 01: The following table represents the Cumulative Payment Transactions in the last 12 months

Month	**Volume of transaction (in Cr.)**
Nov-22	1076.54
Dec-22	2364.22
Jan-23	3523.06
Feb-23	4639.33
Mar-23	6034.87
Apr-23	7298.21
May-23	8584.94
Jun-23	9848.28
Jul-23	11186.1
Aug-23	12594.8
Sep-23	13977.41
upto 14 Oct 23	14062.61



Cumulative Payment Transactions in the last 12 months Source: digipay.gov.in

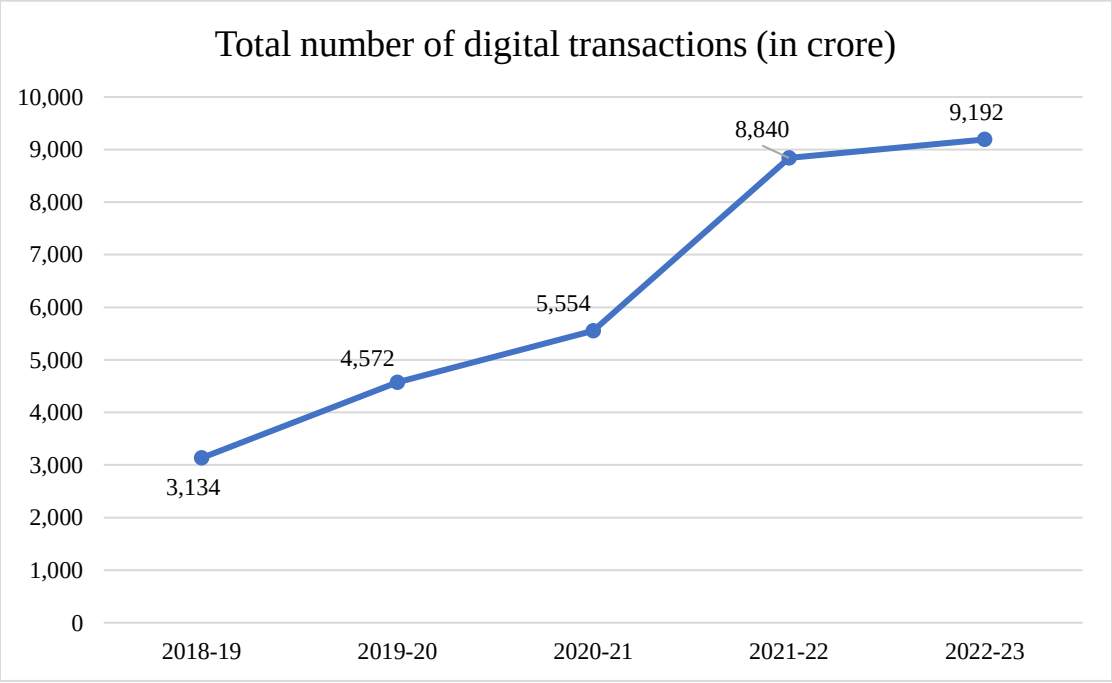
This graph presents the volume of transactions, measured in crore, over a period spanning from November 2022 to October 14, 2023. The data shows a consistent upward trend in digital transactions, indicating a substantial increase in the use of digital payment methods. The volume of transactions starts at 1,076.54 crore in November 2022 and steadily rises each month. By September 2023, the total number of transactions reaches 13,977.41 crore. Up to October 14, 2023, it further increased to 14,062.61 crore. This data reflects a substantial and continuous growth in the adoption of digital payment methods over this nearly one-year period, possibly indicating the ongoing shift towards a digital economy.

Table No. 02: The total number of digital payment transactions undertaken during the last four financial years and the current financial year are as under:

Financial Year	Total number of digital transactions (in crore)
2018-19	3,134
2019-20	4,572
2020-21	5,554
2021-22	8,840
2022-23	9,192*

*** Data till 31st December 2022**

Source: RBI, NPCI and banks



Source: RBI, NPCI and banks

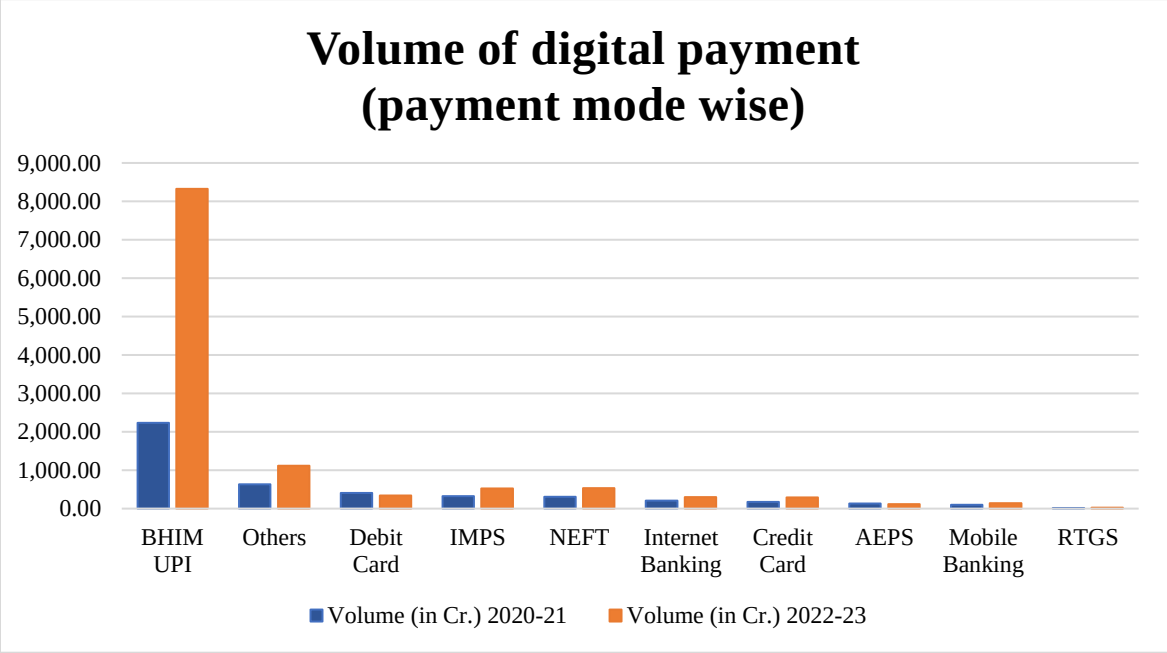
- The number of digital transactions increased from 3,134 crore in the financial year 2018-19 to 4,572 crore in the financial year 2019-20, marking a rise of 1,438 crore transactions.
- In the financial year 2019-20, there was a further increase to 5,554 crore digital transactions, reflecting an additional 982 crore transactions compared to the previous year.

- The financial year 2020-21 saw continued growth, with 8,840 crore digital transactions, signifying a significant rise of 3,286 crore transactions compared to the preceding year.
- In the subsequent financial year 2022-23, the trend of growth persisted, reaching a total of 9,192 crore digital transactions, indicating an increase of 352 crore transactions compared to the previous year.

Table No. 03: Volume of digital payment (payment mode wise)

Mode	Volume (in Cr.) 2020-21	Volume (in Cr.) 2022-23
BHIM UPI	2,232.96	8324.04
Others	630.39	1119.54
Debit Card	411.49	341.95
IMPS	327.83	521.08
NEFT	309.28	528.47
Internet Banking	203.93	302.38
Credit Card	176.47	291.56
AEPS	132.81	116.64
Mobile Banking	99.41	139.82
RTGS	15.92	24.26

Source: digipay.gov.in



Source: digipay.gov.in

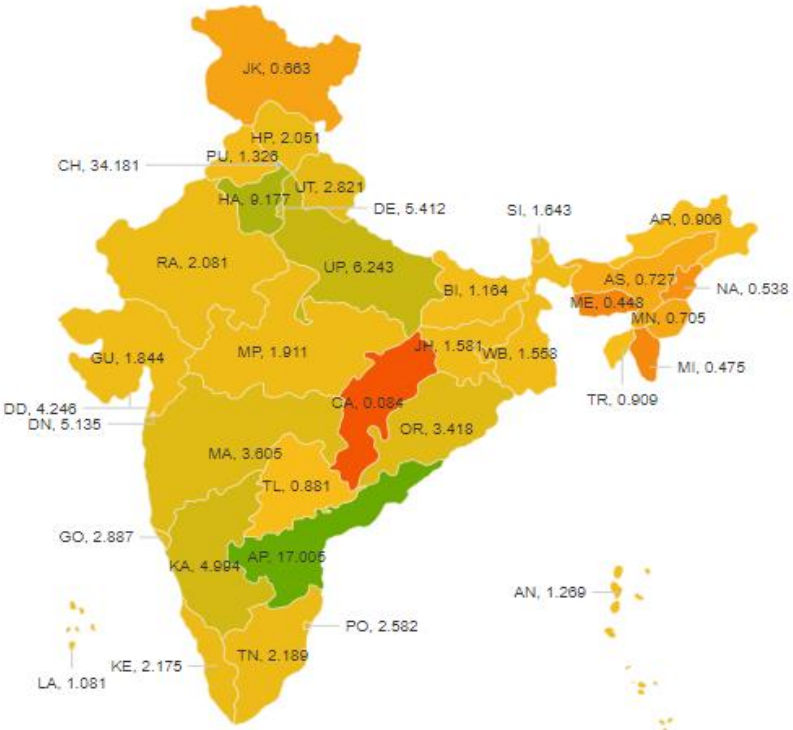
This graph provides a comparative view of the volume of transactions in different payment modes between the financial year 2020-21 and 2022-23. Notable trends are observed in this data. Firstly, BHIM UPI (Unified Payments Interface) has seen a substantial increase in transaction volume, growing from 2,232.96 crore to 8,324.04 crore, reflecting its growing popularity as a digital payment mode. In contrast, Debit Card, Internet Banking, and Credit

Card transactions have shown modest increases. Other modes, such as IMPS (Immediate Payment Service), NEFT (National Electronic Funds Transfer), and Mobile Banking, have also seen growth. Interestingly, AEPS (Aadhaar Enabled Payment System) and RTGS (Real Time Gross Settlement) transactions have decreased slightly. Overall, this data highlights the significant shift towards digital payment methods, with BHIM UPI leading the way in terms of transaction volume, At the same time other traditional modes like Credit Cards and RTGS have relatively slower growth or a slight decline.

Table No. 04: BHIM UPI Payment Transactions in India (per capita basis)

States & Union Territories	BHIM UPI transactions (per capita basis)
Andhra Pradesh	17.005
Arunachal Pradesh	0.906
Assam	0.727
Bihar	1.164
Chhattisgarh	0.084
Goa	2.887
Gujarat	1.844
Haryana	9.177
Himachal Pradesh	2.051
Jharkhand	1.581
Karnataka	4.994
Kerala	2.175
Madhya Pradesh	1.911
Maharashtra	3.605
Manipur	0.705
Meghalaya	0.448
Mizoram	0.475
Nagaland	0.538
Odisha	3.418
Punjab	1.328
Rajasthan	2.081
Sikkim	1.643
Tamil Nadu	2.189
Telangana	0.881
Tripura	0.909
Uttar Pradesh	6.243
Uttarakhand	2.821
West Bengal	1.558
Dadra and Nagar Haveli	5.135
Daman & Diu	4.246
Jammu & Kashmir	0.663
Chandigarh	34.181
Delhi	5.412
Puducherry	2.582
Lakshadweep	1.081
Andaman and Nicobar Islands	1.269

Source: NPCI & digipay.gov.in



BHIM UPI transactions (per capita basis) in India

Source: NPCI & digipay.gov.in (Data upto 30 Sep 2023)

This table provides data on BHIM UPI transactions on a per capita basis in various Indian states and Union Territories, offering insights into the usage of this digital payment method across different regions. Per capita basis means the number of BHIM UPI transactions per person in each area. Notable disparities in adoption are evident, with Andhra Pradesh having the highest per capita transactions at 17.005, while Arunachal Pradesh has the lowest at 0.906. States like Chandigarh and Delhi exhibit remarkably high per capita usage, with 34.181 and 5.412 transactions per person, respectively, indicating a robust adoption of BHIM UPI in these urban areas. These figures suggest that digital payment methods like BHIM UPI are becoming increasingly popular in India, although the degree of adoption varies widely from one region to another, possibly influenced by factors like urbanization, internet access, and awareness of digital payment technologies.

Findings of the study:

1. Mode of Payment Shift: The study highlights a shift in the modes of payment. BHIM UPI emerged as a popular digital payment mode, experiencing a substantial increase from 2,232.96 crore transactions in 2020-21 to 8,324.04 crore transactions in 2022-23. Other traditional modes like Credit Cards and RTGS showed slower growth or slight declines, while IMPS, NEFT, and Mobile Banking witnessed growth.

2. Steady Growth in Digital Transactions: The data from November 2022 to October 14, 2023, indicates a consistent upward trend in digital transactions, showing a substantial increase in the use of digital payment methods. The total volume of transactions increased from

1,076.54 crore in November 2022 to 14,062.61 crore up to October 14, 2023, suggesting a continuous and significant growth in the adoption of digital payment methods.

3. Year-to-Year Growth: A comparison of digital transactions from financial years 2018-19 to 2022-23 reveals a substantial increase over time. The number of digital transactions increased from 3,134 crore in 2018-19 to 9,192 crore in 2022-23, reflecting a significant rise of 6,058 crore transactions over this period.

4. Regional Variation: On a per capita basis, there is significant variation in BHIM UPI usage across Indian states and Union Territories. Andhra Pradesh and Chandigarh exhibit high per capita usage, while Arunachal Pradesh has the lowest. This data underscores that the adoption of digital payment methods is influenced by regional factors, including urbanization and access to digital infrastructure.

In summary, the study indicates a nationwide trend of increasing digital transactions, with BHIM UPI standing out as a prominent mode of payment. However, the rate of adoption and the choice of payment methods vary by region, suggesting that digital payment adoption is influenced by a combination of economic, technological, and regional factors.

Conclusion & Suggestions:

The research reveals a significant shift in payment methods in India. BHIM UPI has emerged as a popular choice, with a remarkable increase in transactions. Traditional methods like Credit Cards and RTGS are growing more slowly or experiencing slight declines, while IMPS, NEFT, and Mobile Banking are on the rise.

The data from November 2022 to October 2023 consistently shows an upward trend in digital transactions, indicating a substantial increase in the use of digital payment methods. Year-to-year comparisons from 2018-19 to 2022-23 highlight a remarkable increase in digital transactions over time.

However, it's essential to note that the adoption of digital payment methods varies across states and Union Territories, influenced by factors such as urbanization and access to digital infrastructure. Andhra Pradesh and Chandigarh lead in per capita BHIM UPI usage, while Arunachal Pradesh lags behind.

In summary, the study proves that COVID-19 caused a big increase in digital payments in India, which is a step towards making the country more modern and making sure more people can use digital money.

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26 Chapter EXPLORING THE BIOPHYSICS OF ANIMAL COMMUNICATION: INSIGHTS INTO SIGNAL PRODUCTION, TRANSMISSION, AND PERCEPTION

R. R. Kajalkar [1], N. B. Bhagat [2]

ISBN: 978-93-92917-32-5 | **DOI**: 10.25215/9392917325.26

Abstract:

Animal communication plays a vital role in mediating social interactions, mate selection, territorial defense, and predator-prey dynamics. Understanding the physical mechanisms underlying communication signals is crucial for unraveling the complexities of animal behavior and ecology. In this review, we explore recent advances in the field of biophysics of communication, focusing on the production, transmission, and reception of signals across different sensory modalities. We delve into the biophysical principles governing acoustic, visual, and chemical communication, examining the physical mechanisms that enable animals to produce, transmit, and perceive signals in their natural environments. By integrating insights from physics, biology, and behavior, we provide a comprehensive overview of the biophysical basis of animal communication, highlighting its ecological functions, evolutionary implications, and technological applications.

Introduction:

Animal communication is a complex phenomenon central to the behavior, ecology, and evolution of organisms. It encompasses a diverse array of signals, including acoustic, visual, chemical, and tactile cues, which animals use to convey information to conspecifics, mates, competitors, and predators. The study of animal communication has historically been multidisciplinary, drawing on principles from ethology, ecology, evolutionary biology, physiology, psychology, and more recently, physics and engineering [1]. The biophysics of communication specifically focuses on understanding the physical mechanisms underlying the production, transmission, and reception of these signals. By integrating insights from various disciplines, researchers aim to elucidate the structural, mechanical, optical, and neural processes that enable animals to communicate effectively in their natural environments [2].

Acoustic Communication:

Acoustic communication is prevalent across the animal kingdom and involves the production and reception of sound signals. Animals produce sounds through specialized anatomical structures, such as vocal cords, syrinxes, or stridulatory organs, which generate vibrations in the surrounding medium. The properties of sound, including frequency, amplitude, and duration, are determined by the physical characteristics of the sound-producing apparatus and the acoustic properties of the environment through which the sound travels. Sound waves propagate through different mediums, such as air, water, or solid substrates, and may be subject

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to attenuation, reflection, or distortion, depending on the medium's properties [3]. Animals have evolved sophisticated auditory systems capable of detecting and discriminating between different sound signals, allowing for communication in diverse habitats and social contexts. Research in the biophysics of acoustic communication encompasses studies of sound production mechanisms, sound propagation, auditory anatomy and physiology, signal processing, and behavioral responses to acoustic signals in various animal taxa.

Visual Communication:

Visual communication involves the use of visual signals, such as color patterns, body postures, and movements, to convey information between individuals. Animals produce visual signals using a variety of mechanisms, including pigments, structural colors, and bioluminescence. These signals interact with light to produce specific optical effects, such as coloration, brightness, or polarization, which can convey information about an animal's identity, reproductive status, or social intentions. The perception of visual signals is influenced by factors such as visual acuity, sensitivity to different wavelengths, and environmental conditions. Visual communication is particularly important in diurnal species, where visual cues facilitate social interactions, mate selection, and territorial defense. Research in the biophysics of visual communication encompasses studies of visual signal production mechanisms, visual anatomy and physiology, visual signal properties, signal transmission, reception, and behavioral responses to visual signals in various animal taxa [4].

Chemical Communication:

Chemical communication relies on the release and detection of chemical signals, or pheromones, to convey information between individuals. Pheromones are produced by specialized glands and are released into the environment, where they can be detected by conspecifics or other members of the community. Animals have evolved highly sensitive olfactory systems capable of detecting and discriminating between different chemical signals, allowing for communication over long distances and in complex chemical environments. Chemical communication plays a crucial role in mediating social behaviors such as mating, territory marking, alarm signaling, and foraging coordination, and is widespread across diverse animal taxa. Research in the biophysics of chemical communication encompasses studies of chemical signal production mechanisms, chemical signal transmission, reception, and perception, chemical ecology, and behavioral responses to chemical signals in various animal taxa.

Tactile Communication:

Tactile communication involves the use of physical contact, such as touching, grooming, or body contact, to convey information between individuals. Tactile signals can convey a variety of information, including social status, reproductive readiness, or affiliation. Animals have specialized tactile receptors, such as mechanoreceptors, located in the skin or other tissues, which detect mechanical stimuli and transmit signals to the nervous system. Tactile communication is particularly important in social species, where tactile interactions play a crucial role in maintaining social bonds, coordinating group activities, and resolving conflicts. Research in the biophysics of tactile communication encompasses studies of tactile signal production mechanisms, tactile anatomy and physiology, tactile signal properties, signal transmission, reception, and behavioral responses to tactile signals in various animal taxa [5].

Multimodal Communication:

Many animals use multiple sensory modalities to communicate with conspecifics and other organisms in their environment. Multimodal communication involves the integration of signals from different sensory modalities, such as acoustic, visual, chemical, and tactile cues, to convey complex information or facilitate communication in challenging environments. The integration of multiple sensory modalities allows animals to compensate for sensory limitations, exploit redundant information, or enhance signal detection and discrimination. Research in the biophysics of multimodal communication encompasses studies of signal integration mechanisms, sensory integration, signal redundancy, signal reliability, and behavioral responses to multimodal signals in various animal taxa.

Evolutionary Perspectives:

Communication signals have diverse ecological functions, influencing interactions between individuals, populations, and species within ecosystems. Signals can mediate social interactions, including mate choice, parental care, dominance hierarchies, and cooperative behaviors, thus shaping social structure and organization. The evolution of communication systems is shaped by selective pressures such as sexual selection, social selection, and ecological constraints, driving the divergence and specialization of signal traits over evolutionary time. Communication signals may undergo rapid evolutionary change in response to shifts in environmental conditions, population dynamics, or interspecific interactions, leading to the diversification and elaboration of communication systems across different taxa and ecological niches. Understanding the ecological and evolutionary dynamics of communication systems provides insights into animal behavior, adaptation, and diversification, and sheds light on the mechanisms driving species interactions and community dynamics [6]. Research in the biophysics of communication from an evolutionary perspective encompasses studies of signal evolution, signal diversification, signal function, signal reliability, and the adaptive significance of communication signals in various animal taxa.

Applications:

The study of biophysical mechanisms underlying animal communication has numerous practical applications in various fields, including conservation biology, wildlife management, agriculture, pest control, biomedical research, and human-animal interaction. Understanding the physical principles governing communication signals can inform conservation strategies aimed at preserving biodiversity and ecosystem function by identifying critical habitats, protecting endangered species, and mitigating human-induced threats such as habitat loss, pollution, climate change, and invasive species. Biophysical insights into communication systems can also inform the design of artificial communication systems for use in robotics, sensors, and telecommunications, by providing inspiration for novel signal processing algorithms, sensor designs, and communication protocols.

Future Directions:

Future research in the biophysics of communication holds promise for advancing our understanding of communication systems and their ecological and evolutionary significance. Emerging technologies, such as high-resolution imaging, molecular genetics, and computational modeling, offer new opportunities for studying communication systems with unprecedented detail and precision. Interdisciplinary collaboration between physicists,

biologists, engineers, and behavioral scientists will facilitate innovative approaches to address key questions in animal communication research, such as the role of sensory integration, signal plasticity, and social context in shaping communication behaviors. Challenges and opportunities lie ahead for applying biophysical insights to conservation efforts, habitat management, and the design of artificial communication systems, thus contributing to our understanding of animal behavior and ecology and informing efforts to preserve biodiversity and ecosystem function in a rapidly changing world [7].

Conclusion:

The study of biophysical mechanisms underlying animal communication is a rich and interdisciplinary field that has made significant contributions to our understanding of behavior, ecology, and evolution. By elucidating the physical principles governing the production, transmission, and reception of communication signals, researchers have gained insights into the adaptive significance and evolutionary dynamics of communication systems across diverse animal taxa and ecological contexts. Continued research efforts and interdisciplinary collaboration will further advance our understanding of communication systems and their applications in various fields, including conservation biology, bioinspired technology, and human-animal interaction, thus providing valuable insights into the complexities of animal behavior and ecology and informing efforts to preserve biodiversity and ecosystem function in a rapidly changing world.

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27 Chapter LEADERSHIP & TRANSFORMATION: RATAN TATA'S IMPACT ON THE TATA GROUP

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ISBN: 978-93-92917-32-5 | **DOI**: 10.25215/9392917325.27

Introduction

Jamsetji Tata, born in 1839 in Gujarat, founded the Tata Group, India's leading industrial conglomerate. Despite humble beginnings, he laid the groundwork for a transformative legacy that shaped India's industrial landscape. In the 1870s, he defied norms by establishing Empress Mills in Nagpur, strategically choosing factors like proximity to cotton, railway access, and abundant resources. Until his 1904 passing, Jamsetji pursued three visionary ideas: creating an iron and steel company, harnessing hydroelectric power, and founding a world-class educational institution.(Goyal, 2022)

These ideas became pillars of India's industrial and educational progress. Beyond business, he established the JN Tata Endowment Fund, supporting Indian students abroad, and realized his dream of the Taj Mahal Hotel in his lifetime. After his passing, his son, Sir Dorabji Tata, became Chairman, ensuring the continuity of his father's vision. Jamsetji, more than an industrialist, was a visionary using wealth to enrich India. His journey, from a Nagpur textile mill to pioneering steel production, remains an inspiration, embodied in the enduring legacy of the Tata Group, a symbol of his dreams and a catalyst for India's progress. His remarkable journey, from a textile mill in Nagpur to pioneering steel production and promoting education, continues to inspire generations. Jamsetji's legacy endures in the form of the Tata Group, an embodiment of his dreams and a beacon of industrial and educational progress in India. (Lifestyle, 2023)

Ratan N Tata served as the Chairman of Tata Sons, the pivotal holding company of the Tata Group. During his illustrious tenure, the group's revenues experienced a manifold growth, reaching over $100 billion in 2011-12. Post-retirement, Mr. Tata was honored with the title of Chairman Emeritus for Tata Sons, Tata Industries, Tata Motors, Tata Steel, and Tata Chemicals. Holding key positions, he chaired major Tata companies, including Tata Motors, Tata Steel, Tata Consultancy Services, Tata Power, Tata Global Beverages, Tata Chemicals, Indian Hotels, and Tata Teleservices. Apart from his extensive involvement in Tata entities, Mr. Tata's influence extended globally, serving on the international advisory boards of Mitsubishi Corporation and JP Morgan Chase.

He holds the Chairmanship of the Sir Ratan Tata Trust and Allied Trusts, and the Sir Dorabji Tata Trust and Allied Trusts. Additionally, he chairs the Council of Management of the Tata Institute of Fundamental Research. Mr. Tata is also involved in educational institutions, serving on the board of trustees for Cornell University and the University of Southern California.

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Mr. Tata commenced his journey with the Tata Group in 1962, later becoming Director-in-Charge of the National Radio and Electronics Company in 1971. In 1981, he assumed the role of Chairman of Tata Industries, transforming it into a strategic think tank and promoter of high-technology ventures. He earned his bachelor's degree in architecture from Cornell University in 1962 and completed the Advanced Management Programme at Harvard Business School in 1975.

Background

Ratan Naval Tata born on 28 December 1937 is an Indian industrialist, philanthropist and former chairman of Tata Sons. He was a chairman of the Tata group from 1990 to 2012, and interim chairman from October 2016 through February 2017. He continues to head its charitable trusts. In 2000, he received Padma Bhushan, the third highest civilian Honor in India and then Padma Vibhushan, the second highest civilian Honor in India.

He is the son of Naval Tata, who was adopted by Ratanji Tata, son of Jamsetji Tata, the founder of the Tata Group. He graduated from the Cornell University College of Architecture with a bachelor's degree in architecture. He joined Tata in 1961, where he worked on the shop floor of Tata Steel. Ratan Tata's leadership journey within the Tata Group was characterized by a gradual ascent through various positions. He played key roles in several Tata companies, including Tata Motors and Tata Consultancy Services (TCS). His leadership abilities and strategic vision became increasingly apparent, leading to his appointment as the Chairman of Tata Sons in 1991 after retirement of J. R. D. Tata. Under his tenure the Tata Group acquired Tetley, Jaguar Land Rover, and Corus, in an attempt to turn Tata from a largely India-centric group into a global business.

As Ratan Tata assumed leadership, he faced significant challenges posed by economic reforms in India during the early 1990s. This was the era which witnessed implementation of liberalization policies for growth but also heightened competition. Additionally, the era witnessed rapid technological advancements and globalization, necessitating a forward-looking approach to keep the Tata Group relevant on the global stage. Ratan Tata's leadership style was characterized by a focus on transformation and innovation. Notably, his emphasis on innovation was exemplified by the ambitious Tata Nano project, aimed at creating an affordable and compact car for the masses.

Ratan Tata's leadership extended beyond business concerns, emphasizing the Tata Group's commitment to social responsibility. Under his guidance, the Tata Trusts, charitable organizations endowed by the Tata family, played a crucial role in initiatives spanning education, healthcare, and rural development. A crucial aspect of Ratan Tata's leadership legacy lies in his foresighted approach to succession planning. Recognizing the importance of continuity and grooming future leaders, he implemented strategies to identify and mentor individuals who would take on leadership roles within the Tata Group after his tenure. It is under his leadership ideas due to which Tata is also one of the largest philanthropists in the world, having donated around 60–65% of his income to charity. Ratan Tata retired as the Chairman of Tata Sons in 2012, but his influence continued to be.(s, 2024)

Leadership Style

In the rapidly evolving landscape of the world, encompassing dynamic changes in technology, organizational culture, and leadership styles, the ability to adapt is imperative. The assertion

that leaders are made and not born, as highlighted by the Ohio State studies in 1945, underscores the significance of leadership development in navigating the complexities of the modern era. Leadership, as defined by Greenberg (2011), involves motivating and influencing a group towards a common goal or mission. This necessitates the adoption of specific leadership styles, such as Autocratic, Charismatic, Transformative, and Participative, tailored to the organizational context.(L, 2023)

Ratan Tata, a prominent figure in the business world, is identified as a transformative leader. His charismatic leadership style has been described as powerful and synergistic, with a visionary approach aimed at making India recognized globally. Tata's strategic acumen is evident in the expansion of his influence from setting up the first car manufacturing plant in India to introducing the affordable Nano car for Indian citizens. With a portfolio boasting over 100 companies, Tata has strategically positioned himself on the global stage. (Bhatnagar, 2023)

Beyond business success, Tata's leadership is characterized by empathy and philanthropy. Through ventures like Tata Consultancy Services (TCS), Tata Trusts, and the Tata Group, he has donated substantial sums to address challenges faced by nations, spanning medicine, rural development, and education sectors. Notably, TCS contributed $35 million to Carnegie Mellon University for a facility focused on researching cognitive systems and autonomous vehicles, showcasing Tata's commitment to advancing technology and knowledge.

Tata's leadership extends to employee motivation and recognition. The development of a Code of Conduct for all Tata Group employees, referring to them as "Associates" at TCS, emphasizes the intrinsic worth of each employee. This commitment to inclusivity is evident in efforts to promote diversity, such as joining LGBTQ initiatives, and fostering a flexible work environment. Tata Steel, under his leadership, has seen a 7% representation of women in its workforce, setting a notable benchmark in gender diversity within large Indian firms. (kale, January 2020)

Ratan Tata's transformative leadership has not only shaped the Tata Group but has also contributed to India's global recognition. His involvement in various startups, including Cashkaro, Snapdeal, Ola cabs, Dogspot, Nestway, Xioami, and Teabox, underscores a forward-thinking approach. TCS, a part of the Tata conglomerate, boasts a remarkable 35% female workforce, surpassing industry standards and exemplifying Tata's commitment to diversity and inclusion.

In essence, Ratan Tata's leadership journey is a testament to the transformative power of leadership styles that encompass vision, empathy, and strategic innovation, making a profound impact on both organizational success and societal development (Shreya, April- June, 2023)

Transformative Initiatives

Ratan Tata's tenure as the Chairman of the Tata Group was marked by several transformative initiatives that aimed to reshape the conglomerate, enhance its global competitiveness, and foster innovation. Some of major initiatives are mention as follows:

• Tata Nano Project

Launched in 2008, the Tata Nano Project was one of the most ambitious and widely recognized initiatives led by Ratan Tata during his tenure as the Chairman of the Tata Group. The primary goal of the Tata Nano Project was to design and manufacture the world’s most affordable car,

making personal transportation accessible to a broader segment of the population, especially in emerging markets like India. It aimed to provide a safer and more affordable alternative for middle-class families. While the Tata Nano faced challenges in achieving the initial sales targets, it remains a landmark project in the automotive industry. It showcased Ratan Tata's vision for innovation and social impact, attempting to make personal transportation a reality for a larger section of society. The project, though not as commercially successful as hoped, highlighted the complexities of introducing a disruptive product to the market and the challenges associated with changing consumer perceptions. (Saqib, March 2019)

• Corus Acquisition

On January 31, 2007, Tata Steel Limited (Tata Steel), one of the leading steel producers in India, acquired the Anglo Dutch steel producer Corus Group Plc (Corus) for US$ 12billion. To strengthen Tata Steel's global presence and become one of the top steel producers globally. The strategic move provided access to Corus' advanced technology, diverse product portfolio, and a strong foothold in the European market. This acquisition significantly expanded Tata Steel's international footprint, marking a crucial step in Ratan Tata's vision for global competitiveness and growth. (Kumar, January 2012)

• Jaguar Land Rover Acquisition

The Jaguar Land Rover (JLR) Acquisition was a significant strategic move by Ratan Tata during his tenure as Chairman of the Tata Group. In 2008, Tata Motors, a key subsidiary of the Tata Group, acquired the iconic British luxury car brands, Jaguar and Land Rover, from Ford for $2.3 billion. This acquisition marked Tata Motors' entry into the premium automotive segment and aimed to bolster the company's global presence. Ratan Tata's vision was to leverage the heritage and engineering prowess of JLR, contributing to Tata Motors' expansion in the luxury car market. The acquisition proved successful, showcasing Ratan Tata's adeptness in steering the Tata Group towards international prominence in diverse industries. (Laddha, M arch 2016)

• Tata Consultancy Services (TCS) Global Expansion

Under Ratan Tata's leadership, Tata Consultancy Services (TCS) experienced substantial global expansion. TCS strategically extended its operations across key international markets, including the United States, Europe, Asia-Pacific, and the Middle East. This expansion underlined Ratan Tata's commitment to positioning Tata companies as global leaders in information technology and consulting services. The move significantly contributed to TCS's growth and established its reputation as one of the world's largest IT services companies.

• Tata Communications' Global Network Expansion

Under Ratan Tata's leadership, Tata Communications underwent a notable global network expansion. Tata Communications, previously known as VSNL, significantly extended its reach by expanding its global network infrastructure. This involved the establishment and enhancement of submarine cable systems, data centers, and telecommunications infrastructure. The global network expansion aimed to position Tata Communications as a leading global telecommunications provider, offering robust connectivity and communication services to businesses and individuals worldwide. Ratan Tata's support for this initiative reflected a strategic vision to make Tata Communications a key player in the international

telecommunications landscape, contributing to the company's global growth and competitiveness.

• Tata Power's Focus on Renewable Energy

Under Ratan Tata's leadership, Tata Power shifted its focus towards renewable energy. The company, a part of the Tata Group, embraced sustainable practices and initiated several key projects in the renewable energy sector. Tata Power invested significantly in wind and solar power projects, aiming to reduce its carbon footprint and contribute to the global transition towards cleaner energy sources. This strategic move aligned with Ratan Tata's vision for Tata Power to be at the forefront of sustainable and environmentally friendly energy solutions. The emphasis on renewable energy showcased Tata Power's commitment to responsible business practices and addressing the challenges posed by climate change. Ratan Tata's leadership played a pivotal role in driving Tata Power's efforts towards a more sustainable and eco-friendly energy portfolio.(Fartale, 2024)

• Tata Motors' Electric and Hybrid Vehicles

Under Ratan Tata's leadership, Tata Motors aimed to pioneer sustainable and eco-friendly transportation solutions. The company innovatively pursued this objective by developing and launching electric and hybrid vehicles. This strategic move showcased Tata Motors' commitment to embracing environmentally friendly automotive technologies, contributing to the global shift towards cleaner and greener transportation alternatives. Ratan Tata's emphasis on innovation and sustainability played a crucial role in positioning Tata Motors as a forward-thinking player in the automotive industry, aligning with the growing demand for more environmentally conscious mobility solutions. (EVINDIA, 2024)

Innovation and Corporate Social Responsibility

✓ **Innovation**

The Tata Group's journey toward fostering innovation involves a multi-faceted approach, including awards, clusters, open innovation, and cultural initiatives. While it is still early days, the group is making strides in creating a more innovative and collaborative environment across its vast and varied business portfolio. (Krishnan, 2015)

The Tata Group, a conglomerate with diverse interests ranging from automobile and information technology to steel, chemicals, telephony, watches, jewelry, medicine, and more, has been actively fostering innovation within its large workforce. The group's commitment to innovation was highlighted when Tata Consultancy Services (TCS) scientists in Pune discovered the water-purifying properties of rice husk ash, leading to the development of the Sujal water filter after the 2004 tsunami. However, the technology was further refined through collaboration between TCS, Tata Chemicals, and Titan Industries, resulting in the creation of Swach, the world's cheapest water purifier, priced at less than Rs 1,000. ((Jain), 2024)

Recognizing the need to enhance the culture of innovation across its companies, the Tata Group established the Tata Group Innovation Forum (TGIF) in 2007. TGIF, a 16-member think tank, has been working to create a conducive atmosphere for innovation within the group. The group has a rich history of innovation, with milestones such as Tata Steel's capital-raising in 1907, the establishment of Tata Airlines in 1932, and the launch of the Tata Nano in 2008. To democratize innovation, TGIF initiated InnoVista, an awards program that recognizes and

rewards innovative ideas within the group. The awards include categories such as Promising Innovations and The Leading Edge, along with an unconventional Dare to Try category that encourages intelligent failures. TGIF also identified barriers to innovation, including technological barriers, user non-acceptance, and commercial non-viability. (Sangani, Aug 07, 2015)

To address the sporadic nature of innovation and encourage collaboration, TGIF established InnoClusters—groups of companies working together in areas like nanotechnology, plastics & composites, information technology, and water. The aim is to break down silos within the group companies and promote collaborative innovation. TGIF has further launched InnoVerse, a web-based open innovation initiative that allows employees to post problems on the intranet, inviting solutions from anyone within the Tata Group. This initiative aims to tap into the collective intelligence of the group's workforce and has the potential to drive innovation down the organizational hierarchy.

Despite these efforts, TGIF acknowledges that there is still work to be done to fully integrate innovation within the Tata Group. The Innometer, developed by Julian Birkinshaw of the London Business School, is being used to measure innovation processes and culture within the companies, providing insights for improvement. The group's commitment to innovation extends beyond awards and initiatives to include a cultural shift. Seminars like "Courage to be Curious and Question" are being developed to encourage employees to question conventional wisdom without fear of failure.

✓ **Corporate Social Responsibility**

“In a free enterprise, the community is not just another stakeholder in business but is in fact the very purpose of its existence." - Jamsetji Nusserwanji, Tata Founder, Tata Group. (Alam, 2 March 2023,)

"Corporate Social Responsibility should be in the DNA of every organization. Our processes should be aligned so as to benefit the society. If society prospers, so shall the organization..." - Manoj Chakravarti, G M - Corporate Affairs & Corporate Head - Social Responsibility, Titan Industries Limited in 2004. (Srivastava, March 2016)

The Tata Group, with operations spanning steel, automobiles, software, and more, operates over 80 companies and is India's largest private employer with around 200,000 employees. Led by Mr. Ratan N. Tata, who assumed the Chairmanship in 1991, the group aims to achieve $500 billion in revenues by 2020-21. The majority equity of Tata Sons Ltd., the parent firm, is held by philanthropic trusts established by Sir Dorabji Tata and Sir Ratan Tata, using 8 to 14 percent of net profit annually for social causes.

The Tata Group has a rich history of corporate social responsibility (CSR), pioneering labor welfare laws since 1917. They've been credited with pioneering India's steel industry, civil aviation, and establishing the country's first power plant. The group, known for CSR, introduced scholarships in 1892, supported Gandhi's racial equality campaign, and contributed to India's first science and atomic research centers. In 2004, Tata Steel announced it would only deal with companies meeting CSR standards. The company's Code of Conduct, amended in the 1970s, institutionalizes CSR, emphasizing commitment to community welfare, education, and environmental initiatives. CSR is integrated into business plans, and social accounting systems and audits are encouraged across Tata companies. Overall, the Tata Group

exemplifies a commitment to social responsibility and has been a pioneer in various sectors, contributing significantly to India's development.

Through the following companies and societies Tata group keeps on heading towards the fulfillment of corporate social responsibility –

- **Tata Steel:**

Tata Steel is actively involved in corporate social responsibility (CSR) initiatives, utilizing frameworks such as the Corporate Citizenship Index, Tata Business Excellence Model, and the Tata Index for Sustainable Development. Allocating 5-7% of its profit after tax to CSR, the company focuses on diverse initiatives. Over 500 self-help groups operate under poverty alleviation programs, with 200 engaged in income-generating micro-enterprises, impacting 700 villages. Tata Steel supports various social welfare organizations, including the Tata Steel Rural Development Society and the National Association for the Blind. Healthcare projects target child education, immunization, childcare, and awareness of AIDS. A Rs 100 crore program aims at economic empowerment through improved agriculture in tribal blocks across Jharkhand, Orissa, and Chhattisgarh. Lifeline Express initiatives, healthcare, and rural development collaborations have collectively benefited over 14 lac people. The National Horticulture Mission and renewable energy projects further contribute to Tata Steel's extensive CSR efforts.

- **Tata Motors:**

Tata Motors has been a pioneer in pollution control in India, introducing vehicles with Euro norms and partnering with Cummins Engine Company for emission control technology. They've invested in an advanced emission-testing laboratory and developed CNG versions of buses and cars. In ecological efforts, the company planted 80,000 trees in its works and township, over 2.4 million in Jamshedpur, and half a million in Pune. Tata Motors also promotes employment generation by encouraging employee relatives to engage in industrial cooperatives. In Lucknow, they've formed societies for rural development and healthcare. The company focuses on human capital by offering scholarships for higher education and partnering in Public-Private Partnerships to upgrade 10 Industrial Technical Institutes. Additionally, Tata Motors contributes to natural capital through tree plantation drives on World Environment Day and beyond, planting thousands of trees across various regions.

- **Tata Chemicals Ltd:**

Tata Chemicals prioritizes sustainability by focusing on honesty, transparency, environmental protection, economic value generation, human rights promotion, and social capital creation. Committed to the UN Global Compact, the company adheres to GRI guidelines for reporting sustainability performance. Operations include resource optimization, alternative fuel and raw material exploration, and extensive reuse and recycling. The company's rural development initiatives at Okhamandal and Babrala aim to enhance societal well-being. Notably, Tata Chemicals organized impactful initiatives like an eye care camp in 1982 and introduced the world's first hospital on wheels in 2004.

- **Tata Tea:**

Since the 1980s, Tata Tea has been dedicated to supporting specially-abled individuals through its Srishti Welfare Centre in Munnar, Kerala. The center comprises four projects, including the DARE School for education and training, the DARE strawberry preserve unit offering employment and benefits, Athulya with vocational and handmade paper-making training, and Aranya focused on natural dyeing techniques. Tata Tea's welfare officers actively identify and encourage the inclusion of handicapped relatives or children of employees in the center. The Jaago Re! Campaign is a testament to Tata Tea's commitment to social-cause marketing initiatives, emphasizing their dedication to making a positive impact on society.

- **TISCO:**

TISCO received the TERI award for Corporate Social Responsibility in 2002-03 for its sustainable initiatives. As the sole Indian company implementing Global Compact principles, it earned the Global Business Coalition Award in 2003 for raising awareness about HIV/AIDS.

- **TELCO:**

TELCO, Puna initiated community development in 1973 to enhance social awareness, foster positive relationships among employees, and promote personal and environmental hygiene. Objectives include elevating living standards through education, skill training, and income opportunities. TELCO is actively combating leprosy in Jamshedpur.

- **Tata Consultancy Services:**

Tata Consultancy Services (TCS) aligns with the Tata group's commitment to sustainable business practices. TCS emphasizes fair corporate governance, long-term growth strategies, top-tier HR processes, and community welfare initiatives. In 2010-11, TCS supported various causes in the United States, including aiding Chilean earthquake victims and promoting diabetes prevention through marathon sponsorships. Additionally, TCS contributes to adult literacy through a partnership with the Indian government's Saakshar Bharat program, aiming to empower 70 million people, particularly women, across 19 states.

- **Tata Archery Academy:**

Established in 1996 in Jamshedpur, the Tata Archery Academy boasts top-notch training facilities, including skilled coaches, archery grounds, and equipment. Cadets aged 13 to 18 undergo a four-year course, receiving formal education alongside rigorous archery training. The academy has produced successful participants in various prestigious championships, such as the Junior and Senior World Archery Championships, Asian Archery Championship, Commonwealth Games, and Asian Games.

- **TQMS:**

Tata Quality Management Services (TQMS), a division of Tata Sons, institutionalizes the Tata Business Excellence Model (TBEM) to enhance business performance. TBEM, based on the Malcolm Baldrige model, focuses on leadership, strategic planning, customer focus, measurement, analysis, knowledge management, human resources, process management, and business results. TQMS assists Tata companies in utilizing the model for insights and

improvement, conducting annual assessments to stay aligned with the evolving business environment.

- **Tata Council for Community Initiatives:**

Established in 1994, TCCI's mission is to serve communities and society. It assists Tata companies in sustainability reporting, following Global Reporting Initiative guidelines. TCCI is the UN Global Compact focal point in India, with 42 Tata companies as signatories, and collaborates with UNDP on the Tata Index for Sustainable Human Development.

- **Dedications to the Nation at a Glance:**

Tata Group has established a robust health infrastructure, including the main hospital in Jamshedpur, ICUs in Joda and Balangpur, CHCs in Bari and Kuhika, and hospitals in various locations. The "Lifeline Express" serves as a hospital on wheels, complemented by mobile health clinics and a center for hearing-impaired children. The educational infrastructure comprises institutes like the Institute of Mathematics and Sukinda College. Tata also invests in sports with academies for athletics, archery, and football, along with the Tata Steel Adventure Foundation and sports feeder centers. Additionally, they contribute to preserving culture and heritage through initiatives like the National Center for Performing Arts in Mumbai and Tribal Cultural Centers showcasing nine tribes' legacies in Jharkhand and Orissa. Gramshree Mela activities further enhance cultural preservation efforts. (Amit Kumar Srivastava, March 2016)

Results & Impact

● Strategic Transformation:

Under Ratan Tata's leadership, the Tata Group underwent strategic transformations, diversifying into various sectors like steel, motors, and telecommunications which leads to reducing of the dependency of Tata Group on other industry making its foundation strong. (Johnson, October 26, 2023)

● Global Expansion:

Tata Group expanded globally with acquisitions like Corus Steel and Jaguar Land Rover under Ratan Tata's leadership. This results into increasing the market for the group and help to establish its significance in international market.

● Innovation and sustainability:

Ratan Tata focuses not only to brought new products but positioned Tata Group as socially responsible entity. Tata Nano and Tata Solar Power initiative was one of such projects which focus Innovation and sustainability. (FRAeS, 2015)

● Corporate Social Responsibility:

Under Ratan Tata, CSR activities were focused which include different sectors like education, healthcare and rural development. This leads to strengthened the group's reputation, fostering positive relationships with communities and stakeholders. (L, 2023) (skibetto, 2023)

● **Employees engagement and development:**

Ratan Tata Improved employee morale and skills development contributed to a more motivated and skilled workforce, positively impacting organizational productivity. This help to create great organizational culture. (EmployeeVibes, 2023)

● **Financial Performance:**

During Ratan Tata's tenure Tata Group Shareholder value increased, and the financial health of the group improved, reflecting the effectiveness of Ratan Tata's leadership in driving sustainable business growth. (thakur, 2023)

Challenges Faced

Ratan Tata, Chairman Emeritus of Tata Sons, has welcomed Air India back into the Tata fold, marking a significant moment in his family's legacy. The airline, originally founded as Tata Airlines in 1932 by Ratan's uncle JRD Tata, holds sentimental value for the Tata family. JRD himself piloted the first plane, reflecting a shared passion for aviation. After World War II, the airline became a public limited company, but Tata recently acquired it for INR 180 billion ($2.4 billion), bringing it back under the Tata name. Despite the COVID-19 pandemic causing substantial losses for Air India, Tata expresses optimism about reviving its fortunes, aiming to restore its previous reputation as one of the world's prestigious airlines. Tata sees this acquisition as an opportunity for Air India to regain the image it enjoyed in its earlier years.

Ratan Tata, a prominent figure in the business world, has been a key player in the transformation and expansion of the Tata Group. Originating from a business started by Jamsetji Tata in 1868, Ratan Tata's leadership has propelled the conglomerate to operate in over 100 countries with a diverse portfolio, including energy, automotive, engineering, and information technology. By 2020-21, Tata companies generated a substantial revenue of US$103 billion and employed over 800,000 people.

Despite his privileged upbringing and educational qualifications in architecture and structural engineering, Tata began his career on the shop floor, working at Telco and Tata Steel. His hands-on experience contributed to his rise within the organization, eventually becoming Chairman of Tata Sons in 1991. Under his visionary leadership, Tata Group pursued a strategy of 'reverse colonialism,' acquiring global entities like Tetley, Corus Group, and Jaguar Land Rover.

Tata's emphasis on dignity and values, instilled by his grandmother, remained a guiding principle throughout his career. His tenure saw significant growth, with the Group's revenues surpassing US$100 billion in 2011–12. His strategic acquisitions diversified the company's presence across industries, making Tata a notable force in the global business landscape. Ratan Tata's legacy extends beyond the financial success of the Tata Group, emphasizing principles of integrity and responsible business practices.

Ratan Tata, the former chairman of Tata Sons, has chosen a path less traveled in the realm of family businesses by remaining unmarried. Born into the prestigious Tata family, where the pressure to produce an heir is often intense, Tata has defied societal expectations. Speculations about his single status have ranged from blaming his parents' broken marriage to personal choices. However, Tata recently shared a poignant moment from his past in a post on the 'Humans of Bombay' Facebook page.

After working for two years at an architecture firm in LA, Tata fell in love and was on the verge of getting married. However, a pivotal decision to move back to India, prompted by his grandmother Navajbai's ailing health, changed the course of his life. Despite his plans, the relationship crumbled due to the 1962 Sino-Indian War, as the partner's parents were no longer comfortable with her relocating to India.

The depth of Tata's gratitude towards his grandmother is evident in his decision to prioritize her over the love match. Following his parents' divorce when he was just 10 years old, Navajbai formally adopted him and became his primary caregiver. The values instilled by his grandmother, including retaining dignity in the face of adversity, have shaped Tata's character.

Despite being known for his calm demeanor, Tata has faced significant challenges within the Tata Group. In 2012, he stepped down from his position as chairman as per the company's constitution. The appointment of Cyrus Mistry as his successor, based on family ties and shareholding, ended in controversy and legal battles. Mistry's dismissal in 2016 led to a public dispute, with Tata eventually emerging victorious in the Supreme Court.

Tata expressed relief at the court's decision, citing vindication after facing "relentless attacks on my integrity and the ethical conduct of the group." The complex interplay of family, business, and personal choices in Ratan Tata's life adds layers to the narrative of one of India's most influential business figures.

Ratan Tata, India's leading industrialist, has exemplified integrity throughout his illustrious career, with philanthropy ingrained in the very essence of the company he devoted his life to. Despite expectations for him to rank among India's wealthiest individuals, a recent poll placed Tata at 433 in the IIFL Wealth Hurun India Rich List 2021, showcasing his commitment to philanthropy over personal wealth. This drop in rank, from the top 20, can be attributed to his dedication to improving lives and giving back to society.

Tata's commitment to philanthropy dates back to the founding principles of the Tata family firm, where the majority of earnings were dedicated to Tata Trusts. Currently, 66% of Tata Sons' equity is held by these trusts, reflecting a deep-rooted commitment to social welfare. The Trusts have contributed to various initiatives, from building technology centers to providing scholarships, supporting education, and recently donating INR 15 billion (US$201 million) to combat COVID-19.

Ratan Tata's hands-on approach to philanthropy involves meeting with those benefiting from the Trusts, ensuring a direct and positive impact on communities. His perspective on making a difference is informed by personal experiences, having worked on the shop floor in his youth, witnessing the hardships faced by the less fortunate. This has fueled his passion for creating meaningful change.

Tata's philanthropic efforts extend beyond traditional charitable work, encompassing innovative solutions and sustainable approaches to societal issues. His holistic approach has garnered praise and collaboration with major corporations and foundations, including Google and the Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation.

Notably, Tata's compassion extends to animal welfare, particularly the plight of street dogs. Despite being described as shy and a loner, Tata uses his Instagram platform to raise awareness and personally engage in finding homes for abandoned pups.

As he enters his eighth decade, Ratan Tata's legacy is not only defined by building one of the world's most dynamic companies but also by enriching the lives of millions through his philanthropic endeavors. His enduring commitment to making a positive impact reflects a life well-lived, guided by principles of integrity, compassion, and social responsibility.

Lessons Learned

● **Vision and Innovation:**

Ratan Tata's leadership focus on vision and innovation. Both of them play major role in success of Tata Group.

● **Adaptability:**

No Matter whatever the situation be Ratan Tata tackle those challenges and such as economic downturns and industry disruptions

● **Global Perspective:**

Ratan Tata's leadership shows global perspective and Tata Group expanded internationally, demonstrating the importance of having a global mindset in today's interconnected world.

● **Resilience:**

During tough time such as financial crisis of 2008. Ratan Tata leadership showcased resilience and determination

● **Continuous learning:**

Ratan Tata always ready to learn new ideas demonstrating the importance of continuous self-improvement in leadership.

Conclusion

Jamsetji Tata, the founder of Tata Group, laid the foundation for a transformative legacy, while Ratan Tata, as Chairman, spearheaded strategic initiatives that reshaped the conglomerate into a global force. Ratan Tata's visionary leadership fostered innovation, global expansion, and corporate social responsibility. Initiatives like the Tata Nano Project, Corus and Jaguar Land Rover acquisitions, and focus on renewable energy exemplify his commitment to innovation and sustainability. Despite challenges like succession disputes and economic downturns, Tata's resilience and adaptability ensured the group's continued growth. His philanthropic ethos, deeply ingrained in the Tata legacy, reflects a commitment to societal welfare. Ratan Tata's leadership underscores the importance of vision, adaptability, global perspective, resilience, and continuous learning in driving organizational success and positive societal impact.

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28 Chapter EXPLORING INNOVATIONS IN ANIMAL HUSBANDRY: A SPOTLIGHT ON XYZ AGRIBUSINESS TRAINING AND RESEARCH CENTER

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ISBN: 978-93-92917-32-5 | **DOI**: 10.25215/9392917325.28

Introduction

XYZ Animal Husbandry, Agribusiness Training and Research Centre is a cutting-edge facility located in the heart of rural India, dedicated to advancing the field of animal husbandry and agribusiness. Established with the vision of empowering local farmer and entrepreneurs, this state of the art center serves as a hub for innovative research, comprehensive training and practical application of sustainable agricultural practices.

At the core of XYZ mission is a steadfast commitment to improving the livelihoods of rural communities through the promotion of modern, efficient, and environmental friendly farming techniques. The center's team of expert researchers, agronomists, and animal husbandry specialists work tirelessly to develop new technologies, implement proven strategies, and provide hands to equip the local population with the knowledge and skills needed to thrive in the ever-evolving agricultural landscape.

Location and Background

XYZ Animal Husbandry, Agribusiness Training and Research Centre is located in the picturesque town of Nighoj, nestled in the rolling hills of the Parner district in Maharashtra, India. The center's idyllic setting is surrounded by lush farmland, orchards, and the tranquil Bhima River, providing an ideal environment for its agricultural research and training activities.

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The Centre was established in 2005 with the mission of empowering local farmers and promoting sustainable agribusiness practices in the region. It is situated on a 25-acre campus, which includes modern research laboratories, demonstration farms, livestock facilities, and residential accommodations for trainees.

Historically, the PARNER region has been known for its strong agricultural traditions, with generations of farmers cultivating crops such as jowar, wheat, and various vegetables. The establishment of XYZ Centre has further strengthened the area's reputation as a hub for innovative agricultural research and education, attracting students, researchers, and practitioners from across the District and beyond.

Mission and Objectives

Advancing Agricultural Education

The XYZ Animal Husbandry, Agribusiness Training and Research Centre is dedicated to providing comprehensive education and training programs in the field of agriculture and animal husbandry. Its mission is to equip the next generation of farmers, ranchers, and agribusiness professionals with the knowledge, skills, and practical expertise needed to sustainably manage and grow their operations. (Jagannathan, March 2019)

Promoting Sustainable Practices

A key objective of the center is to promote environmental-friendly and economically viable agricultural practices. Through its research initiatives and training programs, the XYZ animal husbandry agriculture business all information aims to help local farmers and agribusinesses adopt modern, sustainable techniques that optimize productivity, minimize waste, and protect natural resources.

Fostering Innovation and Entrepreneurship

The XYZ animal husbandry agriculture business all information also serves as an incubator for new ideas and business ventures in the agricultural sector. By offering mentorship, technical support, and access to the latest technologies, the XYZ animal husbandry agriculture business all information seeks to nurture the entrepreneurial spirit of its trainees and empower them to develop innovative solutions to the challenges facing the industry.

Strengthening Community Connections

At the heart of the center's mission is a commitment to supporting the local community. Through its outreach programs and partnerships with regional stakeholders, the center aims to create a thriving ecosystem where farmers, businesses, and residents can collaborate, share knowledge, and collectively work towards the sustainable development of the region**.**

Training Programs and Curriculum

Comprehensive Agribusiness Curriculum

The XYZ Animal Husbandry, Agribusiness Training and Research Centre offers a comprehensive curriculum designed to equip students with the knowledge and skills needed to succeed in the dynamic agricultural sector. The curriculum covers a wide range of topics, including animal husbandry, crop production, farm management, marketing, and entrepreneurship. The courses are tailored to meet the needs of both aspiring and experienced farmers, providing a solid foundation in the latest agricultural practices and technologies. (Rohtash Kumar, March 2024)

Hands-on Training Approach

At the heart of the Centre's training programs is a strong emphasis on practical, hands-on learning. Students have the opportunity to apply their knowledge in the Centre's state of the art facilities, which include demonstration farms, livestock barns, and research laboratories. This approach allows students to develop essential skills and gain real-world experience, preparing them to be effective and innovative agribusiness professionals.

Customized Programs and Workshops

In addition to its comprehensive degree programs, the Centre offers a range of customized training programs and workshops to cater the specific needs of the local farming community. These include short-term courses on topics such as organic farming, livestock management, and post-harvest processing, as well as specialized workshops on emerging technologies and

best practices in the industry. The Centre's flexible and responsive approach ensures that its training offerings remain relevant and impactful for the communities it serves.

Research and Development Initiatives

Innovative Research

The XYZ Animal Husbandry, Agribusiness Training and Research Centre is committed to driving innovative research that advances the field of sustainable agriculture and animal husbandry. The center's well-equipped research laboratory is staffed by a team of experienced scientists and researchers who work tirelessly to develop new techniques, technologies, and best practices to improve crop yields, enhance animal health, and promote environmental-friendly farming methods. From analyzing soil samples to studying the effects of different fertilizers and breeding strategies, the research initiatives at XYZ Centre are at the forefront of modern agribusiness. (Tonderski, March 2018)

Collaborative Partnerships

The XYZ Centre actively engages in collaborative partnerships with leading academic institutions, government agencies, and industry organizations to leverage a diverse range of expertise and resources. By fostering these partnerships, the Centre is able to tackle complex challenges in the agricultural sector and develop innovative, holistic solutions that benefit local farmers and communities. The center's research teams work closely with partners to conduct field trials, share knowledge, and disseminate their findings to promote the adoption of sustainable farming practices throughout the region. (Mr. Anupam Anand, 2019)

Knowledge Dissemination

In addition to its cutting-edge research initiatives, the XYZ Centre is dedicated to sharing its knowledge and expertise with the broader agricultural community. The Centre regularly hosts training programs, workshops, and field demonstrations to educate local farmers on the latest advancements in the industry. By providing hands-on training and practical guidance, the XYZ

Centre empowers farmers to adopt sustainable, efficient, and profitable farming practices that improve their livelihoods and contribute to the overall development of the region's agricultural sector.

Partnerships and Collaborations

Strategic Alliances

XYZ Animal Husbandry, Agribusiness Training and Research Centre has established strategic partnerships with leading academic institutions, government agencies, and industry organizations. These collaborations allow the Centre to stay at the forefront of the latest research, technology, and best practices in animal husbandry and agribusiness. By leveraging the expertise and resources of its partners, the Centre can provide its trainees and researchers with access to cutting-edge knowledge and practical, hands-on experiences.

Knowledge Sharing

The Centre actively participates in knowledge exchange initiatives, hosting and attending conferences, workshops, and seminars. These events provide opportunities for the center's staff and trainees to share their insights and learn from industry peers, policymakers, and subject matter experts. This cross-pollination of ideas and experiences helps to inform the center's curriculum, research priorities, and ongoing development.

Community Engagement

XYZ Animal Husbandry, Agribusiness Training and Research Centre recognizes the importance of engaging with the local community. The Centre collaborates with farmers, cooperatives, and small-scale entrepreneurs to understand their challenges and needs, and to provide targeted training and support. This community-focused approach ensures that the center's programs and initiatives remain relevant and impactful, addressing the real-world issues faced by its target beneficiaries.

Funding Partnerships

The Centre has established funding partnerships with government agencies, philanthropic foundations, and corporate sponsors. These partnerships provide the resources necessary to invest in state-of-the-art facilities, cutting-edge research, and the development of innovative training programs. By diversifying its funding sources, the Centre ensures its long-term sustainability and its ability to continually adapt and respond to the evolving needs of the agribusiness sector.

Facilities and Infrastructure

State-of-the-Art Laboratories

XYZ Animal Husbandry, Agribusiness Training and Research Centre is equipped with cutting-edge laboratories that support its extensive research and development initiatives. These laboratories house advanced equipment and technologies for various fields, including animal nutrition, veterinary sciences, crop cultivation, and food processing. The labs are staffed by highly skilled researchers and technicians, who utilize the latest analytical tools and techniques to conduct in-depth studies and experiments, pushing the boundaries of agricultural innovation.

Demonstration Farms and Model Plots

Alongside the research facilities, the center maintains expansive demonstration farms and model plots that showcase the practical implementation of its research findings. These real-world settings allow students, farmers, and industry stakeholders to observe and learn from the center's best practices in areas such as sustainable farming, livestock management, and integrated pest control. The demonstration plots serve as living laboratories, where the latest agricultural technologies and techniques are tested and refined in a hands-on environment.

Comprehensive Training Infrastructure

The center's training programs are supported by a comprehensive infrastructure that includes modern classrooms, multimedia-enabled learning spaces, and well-equipped workshops. These facilities are designed to foster an immersive and engaging learning experience, enabling participants to develop practical skills and knowledge through a combination of theoretical instruction and hands-on activities. The center also maintains a diverse library and resource center, providing access to a wealth of reference materials, research publications, and industry-relevant information.

Achievements and Impact

XYZ Animal Husbandry, Agribusiness Training and Research Centre has made significant contributions to the local community and the broader agricultural sector. Since its inception, the Centre has achieved impressive milestones that have positively impacted the lives of farmers and livestock owners in the region.

5K Farmers Trained

The Centre has provided comprehensive training to over 5,000 local farmers, equipping them with the latest techniques and best practices in animal husbandry and sustainable agriculture.

1.2 M Livestock Supported

Through its research and extension services, the Centre has positively impacted the well-being of over 1.2 million livestock animals, leading to increased productivity and improved animal health.

$2.5M Economic Impact

The center’s initiatives have generated an estimated economic impact of $2.5 million, contributing to the financial security and prosperity of local communities**.**

The center’s cutting-edge research and development initiatives have led to the introduction of innovative technologies and practices, such as the use of renewable energy in livestock operations and the development of high-yielding forage crops. These advancements have not only improved the sustainability of local agricultural systems but have also inspired other institutions to adopt similar approaches.

XYZ Animal Husbandry's commitment to community outreach and engagement has been a key driver of its success. The Centre has established strong partnerships with local government agencies, NGOs, and industry leaders, enabling it to reach a wider audience and amplify its impact. Through these collaborations, the Centre has been able to provide specialized training,

technical assistance, and access to financial resources to underserved communities, empowering them to improve their livelihoods and contribute to the region's overall agricultural development.

Sustainability and Future Plans

XYZ Animal Husbandry, Agribusiness Training and Research Centre is committed to long-term sustainability and strategic growth to continue empowering local farmers and advancing agricultural practices in the region. A key focus is ensuring the financial viability and self-sufficiency of the center's operations through diversified revenue streams and effective resource management.

To achieve this, the center is exploring innovative revenue models, including expanding training programs and consulting services for local agribusinesses, as well as generating income from its research projects and demonstrations. Additionally, the Centre is actively pursuing partnerships and funding opportunities with government agencies, NGOs, and private sector stakeholders to secure the resources needed for ongoing operations and future expansion.

In terms of future plans, XYZ Animal Husbandry envisions a multi-pronged approach to continue serving the community. This includes developing new training curricula to address emerging trends and technologies in sustainable agriculture, strengthening its research capabilities to tackle pressing challenges faced by local farmers, and exploring the feasibility of establishing satellite training centers in underserved areas to extend its reach and impact.

To support these ambitious plans, the Centre is committed to upgrading its facilities and infrastructure, leveraging digital technologies to enhance program delivery and data management, and cultivating a highly skilled and dedicated team of experts, trainers, and researchers. By embracing a holistic, forward-looking strategy, XYZ Animal Husbandry aims to cement its position as a leading hub for agricultural development and innovation in the region.

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29 Chapter ADVANCEMENTS IN HISTOLOGICAL TECHNIQUES: UNRAVELING THE MICROSCOPIC LANDSCAPE

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ISBN: 978-93-92917-32-5 | **DOI**: 10.25215/9392917325.29

Abstract:

Histology serves as a fundamental tool in elucidating the effects of environmental contaminants on fish organs, offering insights into the underlying cellular and tissue-level alterations. This review synthesizes the existing literature on histological studies conducted to investigate the impacts of various substances on fish tissues. Researchers have explored the histopathological effects of fish poisons, both synthetic and natural, as well as plant piscicidal compounds, in diverse geographical regions. Histological examinations have revealed notable lesions in organs such as the gills, kidney, and liver, which serve as sensitive indicators of pollution-induced stress in fish. Studies have highlighted the reliability of histological lesions as biomarkers of toxic conditions, emphasizing the importance of understanding the histopathological responses of fish to environmental contaminants. Furthermore, investigations into the histological changes induced by synthetic chemicals and heavy metals have contributed to a deeper understanding of the mechanisms underlying pollutant toxicity in aquatic ecosystems. Collectively, these studies underscore the significance of histology in assessing the health status of fish populations and monitoring environmental quality.

Keywords*: Tissue architecture, Cellular morphology, Pathological changes, Microscopy.*

Introduction:

Histology, also known as microscopic anatomy or microanatomy, is a branch of biology that focuses on the study of the microscopic structure of tissues and organs. It encompasses the examination of cells, extracellular matrix, and other components at the cellular level, providing insights into the organization, composition, and function of biological tissues [1]. Histological studies are crucial for understanding the complex architecture of living organisms and the intricate interactions between cells and their surrounding environment. The field of histology has a rich history dating back to the 17th century when early microscopists began to explore the structure of tissues using rudimentary microscopes [2]. Over the centuries, advances in microscopy techniques, staining methods, and tissue processing have revolutionized the field, enabling researchers to visualize cellular structures with unprecedented clarity and detail [3].

Histology plays a fundamental role in various scientific disciplines, including anatomy, physiology, pathology, developmental biology, and pharmacology. In medicine, histological analysis is essential for the diagnosis and classification of diseases, as well as for monitoring treatment responses and predicting patient outcomes. Pathologists routinely examine tissue specimens obtained from biopsies, surgical resections, and autopsies to identify abnormal

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cellular changes indicative of disease processes such as cancer, inflammation, infection, and degeneration [4]. The study of histology encompasses a wide range of techniques and methodologies. Tissue processing involves the preparation of tissue samples for microscopic examination, including fixation, embedding, sectioning, and staining. Different staining techniques, such as hematoxylin and eosin (H&E) staining, allow for the visualization of specific cellular components, such as nuclei, cytoplasm, and extracellular matrix, facilitating the identification of different tissue types and structures [5].

Histological studies are not limited to human tissues; they also encompass the examination of tissues from other organisms, including plants, animals, and microorganisms. Comparative histology involves the comparative analysis of tissue structures across different species, providing valuable insights into evolutionary relationships and adaptations to specific ecological niches [6]. In research, histology is widely used to investigate physiological processes, cellular mechanisms, and the effects of drugs, toxins, and environmental factors on tissues and organs. It is an essential tool for elucidating the underlying mechanisms of disease progression, identifying potential therapeutic targets, and evaluating the safety and efficacy of new drugs and medical interventions. Overall, histology plays a pivotal role in advancing our understanding of the structure and function of living organisms, from the cellular level to the organ system level [7]. Its interdisciplinary nature and wide-ranging applications make it a cornerstone of modern biology and medicine.

Methodologies:

Histology encompasses a variety of methodologies used to prepare and examine tissue samples at the microscopic level. Here are the key methodologies commonly used in histology:

1. Tissue Fixation:

- Tissue fixation is the first step in histological processing and involves preserving tissue samples in a stable state to prevent decay and maintain cellular structure.
- Common fixatives include formaldehyde (formalin), alcohol-based solutions (e.g., ethanol, methanol), and glutaraldehyde.
- Fixation may be performed through immersion, perfusion, or other methods depending on the tissue type and research objectives.

2. Tissue Processing:

- After fixation, tissue samples undergo processing to dehydrate, clear, and embed them in a suitable medium for sectioning.
- Dehydration involves removing water from the tissue using a series of alcohol solutions of increasing concentration.
- Clearing agents (e.g., xylene) are used to remove alcohol and render tissues transparent.
- Tissues are then embedded in a support medium (e.g., paraffin wax or resin) to facilitate sectioning.

3. Tissue Sectioning:

- Once embedded, tissue blocks are sectioned into thin slices (sections) using a microtome.
- Paraffin sections are typically cut at 4-8 micrometers thickness, while resin sections can be thinner (50-100 nanometers) for electron microscopy.
- Sections are mounted onto glass slides and may undergo additional processing steps (e.g., rehydration) before staining.

4. Tissue Staining:

- Staining is essential for visualizing tissue structures and cellular components under a microscope.
- Hematoxylin and eosin (H&E) staining is the most commonly used staining technique and highlights nuclei (blue/purple) and cytoplasm (pink), respectively.
- Special stains may be used to visualize specific structures or substances (e.g., periodic acid-Schiff stain for carbohydrates, Masson's trichrome stain for collagen fibers).

5. Microscopy:

- Stained tissue sections are examined under a light microscope to observe cellular morphology and tissue architecture.
- Brightfield microscopy is widely used for routine histological examination, while fluorescence microscopy allows for the visualization of fluorescently labeled structures.
- Electron microscopy provides higher resolution images and is used to study ultrastructural features of tissues and cells.

6. Image Analysis:

- Digital imaging systems are used to capture and analyze histological images.
- Image analysis software allows for quantitative measurements of tissue parameters such as cell count, size, and morphology.
- Advanced techniques such as immunohistochemistry and in situ hybridization enable the localization of specific proteins or nucleic acids within tissue sections.

7. Interpretation and Documentation:

- Histological findings are interpreted by trained histopathologists or researchers based on observed changes in tissue morphology and cellular characteristics.
- Results are documented in histology reports or research publications, often accompanied by annotated photomicrographs or digital images.

These methodologies form the basis of histological analysis and are essential for studying tissue structure, function, and pathology in both research and clinical settings [8].

Histological analysis revealed diverse results encompassing tissue architecture, cellular morphology, and pathological changes. Tissues exhibited characteristic structures including epithelial layers, connective tissue matrices, and organized muscle bundles. Cellular morphology depicted variations in cell size, shape, and organization, with discernible nuclei, cytoplasmic features, and organelle distribution [9]. Pathological alterations such as inflammation, necrosis, fibrosis, and dysplasia were evident, indicative of disease processes or environmental insults. Special staining techniques highlighted specific tissue components, while electron microscopy unveiled ultrastructural features like organelles and extracellular matrix elements. Quantitative analysis provided data on cell counts, tissue thickness, and staining intensities, facilitating objective assessments. Immunohistochemistry and in situ hybridization localized molecules of interest within tissues, aiding in the identification of proteins and nucleic acids [10]. Comparative analysis elucidated differences between experimental conditions or disease states, contributing to a comprehensive understanding of biological phenomena.

Conclusion:

In conclusion, histological investigations serve as a cornerstone in the understanding of tissue architecture, cellular morphology, and pathological changes. Through a myriad of methodologies including tissue fixation, processing, sectioning, staining, microscopy, and image analysis, researchers gain invaluable insights into the complex microcosm of living organisms. From elucidating disease mechanisms to advancing therapeutic interventions, histology plays an indispensable role in various scientific disciplines, including medicine, biology, veterinary science, and environmental science. As technology continues to evolve, histological techniques will undoubtedly remain indispensable tools for unraveling the mysteries of the microscopic world and advancing our understanding of biological systems.

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30 Chapter A REVIEW ON APPLICATION OF BIOTECHNOLOGICAL TECHNIQUES IN THE MEDICAL FIELD

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ISBN: 978-93-92917-32-5 | **DOI**: 10.25215/9392917325.30

ABSTRACT:

Techniques that are incorporated in Biotechnology are creating new clinical instruments and products that are valuable in research, medicine, agriculture, and other significant disciplines. Biotechnology has been employed in medical research to identify the disease's most extreme forms. Following the entire genome's discovery in 2001, biotechnologists will be able to identify genes associated with various abnormalities and features. There are currently numerous genes known to contribute to the development of various illnesses, such as cancer, heart disease, lung disease, and mental illness. The detection of certain genes and the proteins produced from them provides highly selective and efficacious treatments to combat disease. The use of biotechnology in medicinal fields briefly discussed in this article.This study highlights a brief review of various applications of medical biotechnology including applications of PCR in Healthcare, Gene Therapy, Cell Division, Monoclonal Antibodies Fluorescence *in situ* hybridization, Microarray, DNA Sequencing, Cancer Biology, Clinical Investigation, Vaccines Technology, Human Genome Project, Regenerative medicine and Advancement and Ethics (CRISPR, Genetic Testing from 23 and Me, HPV Vaccine, Metamaterials, Recombinant DNA Technology, Stem Cell Research, Tissue Nano transfection).

Keywords: *Biotechnology, Medicinal field, Application, Improvements.*

INTRODUCTION:

Medical biotechnology is the application of engineering and scientific ideas to the production of pharmaceutical and diagnostic goods that treat and prevent human diseases, utilizing living cells and cell materials[1,2]. The majority of the work done by medical biotechnologists is focused on research with applications in the industrial world. The research labs performs a variety of studies in a laboratory setting in accordance with the current problem(e.g., development of vaccine for COVID-19)[3,4]. The development of vaccinations, medications, and several other goods for human use such as antibiotics, plantibodies, microbial insecticides, insect-resistant crops, vitamin A-rich rice, and methods for environmental cleanup - would require scaling up in an industrial setting. The OECD defines biotechnology as the application of science and technology principles to process materials by using biological agents to provide goods and services[5]. Humans have used biotechnological methods for decades to manufacture a wide range of items, such as curd, cheese, bread, beer, and wine. They have also used these techniques to breed animals and increase agricultural productivity by carefully choosing seeds from particularly desired plants[6].

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Based on the understanding of engineering technologies and the biosciences, modern biotechnology is an interdisciplinary field of research. Applications of biotechnology fall into four main categories: medical care; agricultural and crop development; non-food uses of crops (such as vegetable oil, biofuels, and biodegradable polymers); and environmental cleanup[7,8]. The pivotal finding that fundamentally alters the field of medicine is the discovery of antibiotics. Penicillin was discovered by Alexander Fleming from the mold penicillium. A number of microorganisms and advanced biotechnology techniques have been employed to create antibiotics[9].

Applications of Monoclonal Antibodies(mAbs)[10-13]:

Serum antibodies are referred to as polyclonal antibodies because they are a heterologous population secreted by B-lymphocytes. mAbs are produced from a single B-lymphocyte clone and bind specifically to the antigen's epitope. Paul Ehrlich introduced the idea of employing antibodies to specifically target cancers through Hybridoma Technology, and the use of mAbs has grown over the past few decades. In 1984, Ceasar Milstein and George Kohler were awarded the Nobel Prize for developing hybridoma technology, which involved fusing myeloma cells with B-lymphocytes that produced antibodies using polyethylene glycol. Initially, the mAbs were produced in mice with the use of a hybridoma method (1975).

Hybridomas are cells created when myeloma and lymphocytes that make antibodies combine. Clinical applications are being conducted with monoclonal antibodies, such as OKT3, the first monoclonal antibody used to prevent acute organ rejection. In T cells, OKT3 binds to cell surface CD3 (Muromonab-CD3) and inhibits its function. The mAbs are significant diagnostic tools used in microbiological and biomedical research for treating cancer and infectious disorders as well as diagnocsing AIDS, hepatitis, influenza, and herpes simplex. Human chorionic gonadotropin (hCG) is selectively detected in urine or serum by pregnancy tests that use a mix of goat polyclonal and mouse monoclonal anti-hCG antibodies.

An early warning of developing prostate cancer is provided by the mAbs' ability to identify abnormal serum levels of a prostate-specific antigen. Recombinant antibodies, such as Muromomab, Abciximab, Rituximab, Infliximab, Trastuzumab, Omalizumab, Efalizumab, Cetuximab, and others, have been approved for therapeutic use and incorporated into human medicine. By introducing foreign genes into transgenic plants, antibodies can also be generated; the resulting mAbs are known as plantibodies. The methods for producing personalized monoclonal antibodies on a wide scale are phage display and plantibody.

Applications in Cancer Biology[14-17]:

The most important health issue is cancer. A 2017 survey in the United States found that cancer is the primary cause of about 6,00,920 deaths. Because they are less targeted, traditional therapies like cancer therapy and radiation are less effective. The discipline of oncology has advanced significantly over the past ten years, and cancer is currently regarded as the leading cause of death worldwide. Biobanks have facilitated the development of personalized medications. These medications greatly aided in the treatment of cancer patients.A schematic software called Biobank is used to gather and process data utilizing bioinformatics, cytomics, genomics, and transcriptomics for the purpose of surveying and assuming cancer and its treatments through the use of advanced metabolites.

Every operational procedure is systematized across several biobanks; as a result, they predate

international protocols such as the guidelines established by the International Society for Biological Biospecimen in Europe, the National Cancer Institute in the United States, and the Confederation of Cancer Biobanks in the United Kingdom. Cancer biobanks have multiplex systems where cancer tissues and related data are stored in a standardized manner. Personalized medications for cancer therapy and avoidance divination. Cancer cell lines are used in drug research and the identification of numerous indicators; nevertheless, these are exceptional for the final clinical outcome. The understanding of cancer cell lines' limitations and reduced capacity to enumerate inter- and intratumor heterogeneity is the source of these clinical prognostic values.

The development of targeted medicines was facilitated by the biology of cancer. Human biological specimens have been utilized for many years in cancer research to test scientific hypotheses, investigate the pathophysiology of various diseases, and identify potential biomarkers for use in experimental studies. A biobank operates according to a methodical procedure for gathering, processing, and utilizing data.

Application in Vaccines Technology[18-23]:

Edward Jenner is renowned for his creative role in vaccination research and the eventual elimination of smallpox. Eventually, one of the biggest achievements of vaccine technology was the eradication of smallpox. The SARS-CoV-2 virus that triggered the COVID-19 pandemic, has been the subject of global scientific research efforts to produce a vaccine against it. It is expected that the fast-tracked vaccination would be released sometime between the end of 2020 and mid-2021. The most successful approach to disease prevention and control is vaccination, which is a safe and effective means to provide a harmless form of a pathogen to generate a particular adaptive immune response that shields the individual against future exposure to the pathogen. A preparation of immunogenic material intended to elicit protection against harmful organisms is known as a vaccine.

A vaccination contains the pathogen's antigens in a harmless or less dangerous form; for example, the smallpox vaccine contains the antigens unique to smallpox. Following a smallpox vaccination, the immune system produces smallpox antibodies by inducing B-lymphocyte cells. The body's immune system will be prepared with active B-lymphocytes and antibodies to combat the infection following immunization against a pathogen. The development of cutting-edge technologies like recombinant DNA technology, proteomics, genomics, and bioinformatics is helpful in the search for new vaccination antigens. Improved knowledge of microbial physiology, structure, pathogenicity, host-pathogen interactions, and the extent of intra- and interspecies variation underpins the strategies employed in vaccine development.

The majority of vaccines available today can target infections for which antibody-mediated immunity provides protection and which have little antigenic variability. For tetanus, polio, measles, diphtheria, and hepatitis B, this is true. A conjugate vaccination, such as the one against Hemophilusinfluenzae type B (Hib), combines a weak antigen with a powerful antigen to strengthen the immune response to the weak antigen. Antigenic genes that code for the microbe's antigens in the host organism could be used to create DNA vaccines. Vaccines that produce opsonizing or neutralizing antibodies against these infections are effective.

Application in regenerativemedicine[24]:

Regenerative medicine is the branch of medicine that focuses on creating techniques to replace, regenerate, or repair diseased or damaged tissues, organs, or cells. It is currently necessary to replace various chronic diseases' organs, and the benefits of microengineeredorganoid systems may help to address some of these problems. Employing embedded three-dimensional bioprinting to construct functional extra-corporeal human organs that can sustain living human tissues can be used to manufacture personalized organ-specific tissues with embedded vascular channels for medicinal applications. Rapidly developing tissue engineering technologies, like organoids-on-a-chip, 3D printing, and single and multiple organs-on-a-chip, have the potential to replace animal models in preclinical research by offering greater versatility and predictive power. These models can be used in both established and novel drug discovery processes. By combining technological advancements from several fields, including biology, engineering, and medicine, tissue fabrication is possible to replicate physiologically viable organs in order to comprehend the pathophysiology of disease.

The following list of clinical trials using regenerative medicine applications:1. Atherosclerotic renovascular disease, 2. Newly diagnosed Type 1 Diabetes, 3. Systemic sclerosis, 4. Steroid-resistant acute graft versus host disease, 5. Symptomatic ischemic heart failure, 6. Nonischemic Cardiomyopathy, 7. Ischemic cardiomyopathy, 8. Chronic kidney disease, 9. Moderate to severe COVID19, 10. Severe COVID-19, 11.COVID-19-induced acute respiratory distress syndrome, 12.COVID-19-induced pneumonia, 13.Severe COVID-19-induced pneumonia, 14.COVID-19 pulmonary fibrosis, 15.Nonacute stroke ischemic or hemorrhagic, 16. Living donor kidney transplant recipients, 17.Urethral stricture recurrences urethroplasty, 18.Chronic nonhealing venous leg ulcers, 19.Chronic myocardial scar, 20. Severe ischemic left ventricular dysfunction, 21. Chronic non-ischemic dilated cardiomyopathy, 22. Type 2 Diabetes Mellitus, 23. Dilated cardiomyopathy, 24.Autosomal dominant polycystic kidney disease, 25.Alcoholic hepatitis, 26.End-stage liver disease, 27.Decompensated liver cirrhosis.Currently, the U.S. Food and Drug Administration (FDA) has approved a small set of therapies for clinical use (Table 1).

Product	**Treatment**
ALLOCORD (hematopoietic progenitor cell, Cord Blood)	Disorders affecting the hematopoietic system that are inherited, acquired, or result from myeloablative treatment
CLEVECORD (hematopoietic progenitor cell, Cord Blood)	
Ducord (hematopoietic progenitor cell, Cord Blood)	
GINTUIT (Allogeneic Cultured Keratinocytes and Fibroblasts in Bovine Collagen)	Allogeneic cellularized scaffold product indicated for topical (nonsubmerged) application to a surgically created vascular wound bed in the treatment of mucogingival conditions in adults
HEMACORD (Hematopoietic progenitor cell, cord blood)	Disorders affecting the hematopoietic system that are inherited, acquired, or result from myeloablative treatment
Hematopoietic progenitor cell, Cord Blood	
Hematopoietic progenitor cell, Cord Blood – MD Anderson Cord Blood Bank	
Hematopoietic progenitor cell, Cord Blood	

- LifeSouth	
Hematopoietic progenitor cell, Cord Blood - Bloodworks	
MACI (Autologous Cultured Chondrocytes on aPorcine Collagen Membrane)	For the repair of single or multiple symptomatic, full-thickness cartilage defects of the knee with or without bone involvement in adults
STRATAGRAFT	Treatment of adults with thermal burns containing intact dermal elements for which surgical intervention is clinically indicated (deep partial-thickness burns)

TABLE 1: List of cellular and tissue engineered products with the proposed treatments currently FDA approved.

MEDICAL AND ETHICAL ISSUES OF BIOTECHNOLOGY:

Medical biotechnology has come a long way and offers many advantages, but anything this powerful and quickly growing is bound to have some disadvantages. Medical biotechnology is a controversial area of research with associated moral dilemmas.

Risk to Human Life in Clinical Trials[25]:

The influence of medical biotechnology during clinical trials is a major danger. People can and have been harmed even killed during testing of the device because it is such new technology. Due to these concerns, a great deal of study needs to be done before considering introducing technology to human subjects, and trial participants need to be fully aware of all possible consequences. Regrettably, the paradox is that, in many cases, sick people are open to trying new things in the hopes of getting better. This implies that physicians and researchers have a grave ethical duty to fully inform patients of the potential costs and to honor their final choice.

CONCLUSION:

Biotechnology in medicine has a very broad use. The developments in the fields of genetic engineering and biotechnology aided in the improvement of microbiology, medicine, and agriculture. Medical biotechnology is the study, development, and production of pharmacological and diagnostic products that aid in the diagnosis, treatment, and prevention of human diseases using living cells and cell components. New biopharmaceutical techniques show great promise in treating hereditary defects involving hormone or enzyme synthesis. They have been expanded to include many biological streams. The fields of medicine along with biotechnology techniques have a bright future. It is to be hoped that numerous illnesses and genetic flaws will be addressed. As basic biology continues to advance and bio-analytical techniques improve as a result, biotechnology can become increasingly important in the medical field as a whole for the discovery of new compounds and therapeutic targets.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT:

We gratefully acknowledge Govt. Kilpauk Medical College, Sree Narayana Mission Senior Secondary School, Chennai for providing us with required infrastructure and support system needed.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST:

The authors have no conflicts of interest regarding this research.

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31 Chapter EXPLORING THE FUNCTIONAL VALUES OF CUSTRAT APPLE AND PINE APPLE: A COMPREHENSIVE REVIEW

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ISBN: 978-93-92917-32-5 | **DOI**: 10.25215/9392917325.31

Abstract

Fruits are universally promoted as healthy and are rich source of vitamins, dietary fiber, minerals and bioactive compounds. Fruits such as custard apple (Annona squamosal), banana (Musa sp.) and pineapple (Ananas comosus) are nutritionally dense and have various medicinal values. They are rich in antioxidant properties and act as a anticancer and anti lipidemic activities. Significant number of studies were undertaken to analyse its functional values. This paper gives a comprehensive review on the therapeutic benefits of custard apple and pine apple.

Key words: *Custart apple, Pine apple, Antioxidant, Fruits*

Nutrition is the sum total of the processes involved in the intake and utilization food substances by living organisms, including ingestion, digestion, absorption, transport and metabolism of nutrients found in food (Melvin, 2006); a fundamental pillar of human life, health and development throughout the entire life span. Proper food and good nutrition are essential for survival, physical growth, mental development, performance and productivity, health and a wellbeing of all living things.

Fruits are universally promoted as healthy and are rich source of vitamins, dietary fiber, minerals and bioactive compounds. Scientific studies shows that consumption of adequate amount of fruits can help prevent chronic diseases. According to jayawar dena et al.,2012 only 21% of adults consume the minimum daily recommended servings of fruits. The locally available custard apple and pine apple are highly nutritious and have lots of medicinal benefits. This comprehensive review gives the functional values of custard apple and pine apple based on the research studies.

CUSTARD APPLE (Annona squamosa L. (Annonaceae)

Annona squamosa L. (Annonaceae), also known as "custard apple," is a tropical, endemic species of the West Indies, South and Central America, Ecuador, Peru, Brazil, India, Mexico, Bahamas, Bermuda, and Egypt. In India, as reported by the Indian Council of Agricultural Research (ICAR), Annona squamosa is extensively cultivated in various states (Maharashtra, Gujarat, Madhya Pradesh, Chhattisgarh, Assam, Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Rajasthan, Andhra Pradesh, and Tamil Nadu) with a total area of 40,000 ha. Annona squamosa is known for its edible fruits, and the tree grows as a small sapling, rising from 3 m and reaching up to 8 m, with large, randomly spread branches having brownish or light brownish bark with thin leaves. Annona squamosa has been utilised as a natural medicine and in various other food applications, e.g., its pulp is utilised as a flavouring agent in ice cream, and 50–80% of custard apple fruit is edible and can be pulped as juice. It contains appreciable vitamin C in the range

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of 35–42 mg per 100 g, and dietary fibre, vitamin B1 (thiamine), and potassium contents are also notably high.

Recent articles have demonstrated that various plant byproducts, such as fruit or vegetable pomace, bran/husk/seed coat, seeds, peel, and leaves, are important source of phytochemicals and can be utilised as innovative ingredient in foods. Extracts obtained from various sections of the Annona squamosa plant, such as its bark, roots, leaf, stem, fruit, peel, and seeds, have been utilised in traditional pharmacological applications in different countries to cure a variety of diseases, such as dysentery, epilepsy, haemorrhage, fever, and tumours. Annona squamosa seed powder is utilised to abolish lice, leaf extract is used to pacify boils and treat ulcers, and the fruit acts as a sedative in cases involving heart ailments and can be used to alleviate vomiting and treat tumours. Phytochemical studies have revealed that custard apple contains numerous phenol-based compounds, e.g., proanthocyanidins, with 18 different phenolic compounds, mainly alkaloids or flavonoids. Apart from fruit, large amounts of leaves are generated during pruning, which causes complications related to their disposal for farmers. Annona squamosa leaves (ASLs) possess valorisation potential owing to their extensive pharmacological properties and biological activities, such as antioxidant, antimicrobial, antidiabetic, antiviral, anticancer, and hepatoprotective activities. . These activities are caused by the presence of glycosides, phytosterols, carbohydrates, oils, saponins, tannins, alkaloids, phenols, flavonoids, peptides, and various acetogenin compounds. Phytochemical assessments have emphasised that numerous active compounds, such as acetogenins and flavonoids, present in Annona squamosa also give rise to plant cytotoxic, antimalarial, antidiabetic, and immunosuppressive activities. Extract of ASLs helps maintain plasma insulin and lipid profiles and can significantly reduce blood glucose and lipid peroxidation. The existing literature on Annona squamosa lacks extensive compilation of pivotal information on its phytochemical, nutraceutical, and biological activities. Hence, the present review is a sincere effort to aggregate crucial information regarding the nutritional, pharmacological, and biological aspects and activities of ASLs. (Manoj kumar.,et al 2021).

Custard apple (Annona squamosa) is a tropical fruit, coming under the Annonaceae family, is highly nutritious fruit, packed with vitamin C, vitamin A, Vitamin B6, magnesium, potassium, copper and plenty of dietary fibres. It is beneficial for cardiac disease, diabetes, hyperthyroidism and cancer. The ripe fruits of custard apple are applied to malignant tumors to hasten suppuration. The fruit pulp due to its richness in free sugars, minerals and vitamins is known to serve as blood tonic. Custard apple pulp has been recognized as a base ingredient in various food products like ice cream, milk shakes, beverages due to its characteristics taste and flavour. The flavour components of fresh pulp are due to the volatile compounds of terpenes namely - pinene, -pinene, linalool, germacrene-D and spathulenol, Benzyl alcohol etc. Custard apples are perishable and cold storage is not promising because of the development of an unattractive brown colouration on the skin which decreases the market value. Custard apple gives excessive production during the season, very often perishes owing to inadequate preservation techniques. The pulp when exposed to air undergoes discolouration due to polyphenol oxidase activity. Discolouration occurs during storage in frozen state and continues throughout thawing and causes loss of quality and value. Therefore, storage of either fresh custard apple fruit or fruit pulp or concentrate in ambient or refrigeration condition is a limitation due to these mentioned problems. (Krishna Deepa et al., 2020)

Nutritional Constituents and Health Benefits of Custard Apple

Annona squamosa is a lowland tropical shrub that possesses a high pharmaceutical potential for treating cardiac ailments, thyroid-related disorders, diabetes, and cancer. Phytochemical analysis of ASL extracts revealed the presence of numerous phytochemicals, such as proteins, carbohydrates, saponins, alkaloids, flavonoids, phenolics, and glycosides. A study conducted at four different sites in Egypt showed the highest protein content in ASLs compared to seeds and fruit. ASLs from Menofia showed a protein content of 13.47 mg/g on a fresh weight (FW) basis, whereas ASLs from Mansoura demonstrated the highest protein content of 17.26 mg/g FW. ASLs from Alexandria (3.52 mg/g FW) and Giza (6.80 mg/g FW) showed the lowest protein content. Thus, a higher protein content in ASL extracts can harness the nutritional value of the food for use by humans as well as animals. Proteins and amino acids were also present in high quantities in the methanolic and aqueous extracts of ASLs. The biuret test confirmed the presence of proteins and amino acids in aqueous ASL extracts, while Millon's test confirmed the presence of proteins and amino acids in methanolic ASL extracts. Limited research has been conducted to date regarding the quantification of amino acids and protein in ASLs; hence, more attention is needed to explore its protein and amino acid profiles.

ASLs possess appreciable concentrations of various minerals, such as phosphorus (P), potassium (K), iron (Fe), calcium (Ca), magnesium (Mg), sodium (Na), copper (Cu), selenium (Se), and zinc (Zn), and vitamins, namely, A, C (ascorbic acid), E, B1 (thiamine), B2 (riboflavin), B3 (niacin), and B9 (folic acid). These minerals are required to maintain a healthy human body, as they help to perform various activities, such as maintenance of healthy teeth and bones, muscle contraction and relaxation, blood clotting, blood pressure regulation, nerve functioning, immune system health, energy metabolism, and many enzymes. Macro- and microminerals, namely, Mg (65.65 mg/100 g), P (43.1 mg/100 g), Zn (0.455 mg/100 g), Cu (0.312 mg/100 g), and Se (in trace amounts), were reported in extracts of ASLs. In another study, Shukry et al. 2019 showed the leaf mineral composition of four different varieties of AS: K (252.47–386.98 μmol/g DW), Na (61.2–95.18 μmol/g DW), Ca (78.51–171.65 μmol/g DW), and Fe (37.23–49.55 μmol/g DW).

The concentrations of vitamins B9 and C were reported to be 8.12–11.98 and 11.98–16.78 μg/g FW, respectively, in ASL. The vitamin contents of the ASL extract showed the presence of vitamin B1 (0.065 mg/100 g), B2 (0.155 mg/100 g), B3 (1.105 mg/100 g), C (34.4 mg/100 g), and A and E (in traces). HPLC analysis of ASLs revealed a valuable vitamin C concentration of 3.5%. These vitamins are involved in many activities in the human body, such as maintaining skin health, epithelial tissue development, bone development, visual sharpness, immune response, wound healing, and strengthening connective tissues. Vitamin B1, B2, B3, and B9 act as cofactors for several enzymes involved in oxidation-reduction reactions and carbohydrate metabolism.

Pharmacological Activities of Custard Apple

The species of the Annona genera have a been reported to elicit a diversity of biological activities such as antitumor, anti-inflammatory, antioxidant, antinociceptive, antiprotozoal, antipyretic, antiulcer, antihyperglycemic, anthelmintic, antileishmanial, antimalarial, antidiarrheal, antifungal and antimicrobial promoted by whole extracts, fractions, or pure compounds. Antibacterial Activity

The antibacterial activities of Annona species have been reported in many studies, for example, both methanolic and ethanolic leaf extracts of A. muricata exhibited antimicrobial activity against Staphylococcus aureus, and this activity was attributed due to the presence of flavonoids, alkaloids and steroids in the extract. In contrast, an aqueous extract of the peel of A. muricata did not show any activity. The root of A. reticulata has also been investigated for its antibacterial activity against Gram-positive Staphylococcus aureus, Bacillus cereus and Bacillus subtilis, and Gram-negative Pseudomonas aeruginosa, Escherichia coli and Salmonella typhi . The root extract was found to possess pronounced activity against Bacillus cereus as well as notable inhibition against all tested strains. Moreover, the leaves of A. cherimola have been reported for antibacterial activity against Staphylococcus aureus and Bacillus subtilis with growth inhibition zone diameters of 11 mm and 14 mm, respectively. The aqueous and methanolic seed extracts of A. squamosa have reported activity against Staphylococcus aureus with Minimum Inhibitory Concentrations (MIC) of 50 mg/mL and Minimum Bactericidal Concentrations (MBC) of 100 mg/mL. The activity of the isolated compounds from Annona species has been reported in various studies; for instance, the fatty alcohol 11-hydroxy-16-hentriacontanone isolated from leaves of A. squamosa has a reported activity against Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacterial strains, with MIC values of 25–50 µg/mL. Additionally, the alkaloids liriodenine, annonaine, asimilobine, reticuline and cleistopholine isolated from A. salzmannii demonstrated activity against a range of Gram-positive bacteria, including Kocuria *rhizophila, Staphylococcus aureus, Staphylococcus epidermidis and Enterococcus faecalis with MIC values from 25 to 500 µg/mL. Notably, annonaine and asimilobine had activity equal to or better than the control chloramphenicol (MIC 50 µg/mL) against many of the species tested.*

Various studies have reported the anticancer activity of either crude extracts or isolated compounds from Annona species. For example, the leaves extract of both A. squamosa and A. reticulata exhibited potent antiproliferative effects against two human T-lymphotropic virus type = 1 infected cell lines (MT-1 and MT-2) with EC50 values from 0.1 to 1 µg/mL. In in vitro studies, the ethanolic extract of A. muricata leaves was reported for its cytotoxicity against promonocytic leukemic cells (U-937) with an LC50 = 7.8 µg/mL. Isocoreximine isolated from A. cherimola demonstrated cytotoxicity against multiple cancer cell lines. At a concentration of 50 µg/mL, isocoreximine inhibited cell viability of the breast cancer cell line (MCF-7) by 85.76%, human colorectal carcinoma cell line (HCT-15) by 63.05%, human prostate tumor cell line (PC-3) by 78.71%, human astrocytoma cell line (U-251) by 65.23% and human leukemia cell line (K-562) by 94.15%.

The antiproliferative activity of methanolic extracts from the leaves and seeds of A. coriacea was tested in vitro against a range of human tumor cell lines; including melanoma (UACC-62), non-small cell lung cancer cells (NCI-H460), colon cancer cell line (HT29), breast cancer (MCF-7) and leukemia (K-562). The seed extracts displayed potent antitumor activity with GI50 values between 0.02 and 3.83 µg/mL, and the leaf extracts exhibited anticancer activity at concentrations ranging from 0.02 to 0.08 µg/mL. The cytotoxicity of annonacin, found in many Annona species, has been reported against various cell lines derived from cervical cancer (HeLa and HeLa S3] with IC50 0.219 and 0.426 µg/mL, and ovarian cancer (PA-1 and SKOV3) with IC50s of 0.452 and 0.411 µg/mL. The cytotoxicity of annonacin has also been demonstrated against bladder cancer (T24), breast cancer (MCH7) and skin cancer (BCC-1) with IC50s 0.324, 0.433 and 0.427 µg/mL, respectively. The cytotoxicity of five other acetogenins (squamocin M, annofolin, isolongimicin B, glaucanisin, and annotacin) isolated from A. cornifolia against human breast cancer (MCF-7) was reported, with IC50s of

approximately 0.3 µM. In an in vitro study, the annoaceous acetogenins laherradurin and cherimolin-2 isolated from A. diversifolia were shown to have ED50s of 0.015 and 0.05 µg/mL, respectively, against the cervical cancer cell line (HeLa).

In clinical studies, the anticancer activity of A. muricata has been reported in a small number of studies. A patient diagnosed with breast cancer has maintained stable disease activity with no reported side effects after using an aqueous extract of A. muricata leaves for more than five years. Another patient with metastatic ovarian cancer experienced disease stability after starting to take a complementary medication containing A. muricata as a tablet. Finally, the effect of A. muricata leaves extract revealed higher cytotoxicity in the supplemented group with colorectal cancer compared with the placebo group in a randomized controlled trial.

Multiple studies have investigated the antidiabetic activity of various extracts from Annona plants such as A. cherimola, A. squamosa, A. muricata and A. reticulata. The ethanolic leaf extract of A. cherimola (300 mg/kg) was administered to alloxan-induced type 2 diabetic rats, and four hours later, blood glucose level had decreased from 331.5 mg/dL to 149.2 mg/dL. The young leaves of A. squamosa, often in combination with black pepper (Piper nigrum), have been used in northern Indian traditional medicine as an anti-diabetic, and are still in use today. Administration of aqueous A. squamosa leaf extract to streptozotocin-nicotinamide type-2 diabetic rats resulted in decreased blood glucose and increased levels of serum insulin. Another traditional Indian medicine used as an antidiabetic and anti-lipidemic is a polyherbal formulation of A. squamosa fruits and Nigella sativa seeds. The polyherbal formulation administered over a one-month period, dose-dependently decreased blood glucose and increased insulin in streptozotocin-induced diabetic rats, with a dose of 200 mg/kg showing similar to the effects of a dose of 250 mg/kg tolbutamide. A single dose of 100 or 200 mg/kg of aqueous leaf extract of A. muricata did not inhibit blood glucose levels in normal rats; however, the same doses administered to the diabetic rats effectively lowered blood glucose levels by 31.77% and 45.77%, respectively. Finally, a dose of 100 mg/kg of both methanolic extract and the residual fractions of A. reticulata leaves decreased blood glucose levels from 432.33 to 371.67 mg/dL and 417.83 to 402.50 mg/dL, respectively, in streptozotocin-induced diabetic rats. A. cherimola leaf extract was also found to decrease HbA1c by 7% and lead to a significant decrease in urine glucose over a 28-day subchronic study in streptozotocin-induced diabetic mice. These studies support the traditional use of Annona species as antidiabetics, suggesting that further identification of the active constituent(s) with antidiabetic properties and clinical studies of a longer duration are warranted.

Limited studies have also investigated the antilipidemic activity of some Annona species. The polyherbal formulation of A. squamosa fruits and Nigella sativa seeds (200 mg/kg) administered to streptozotocin-induced diabetic rats for one month also resulted in significant inhibition of the formation of both lipid peroxide and tissue lipids Administration of an extract of A. muricata extracts resulted in reductions in the serum total cholesterol, low-density lipoprotein cholesterol and triglycerides in diabetic rats. The tea infusion of leaves from A. cherimola (1.5 g) also elicited a reduction in the total cholesterol, triglycerides, and low-density lipoprotein by 15.4, 21.9 and 63.2%, respectively, in streptozotocin-induced diabetic rats. (bsm al kazman et., 2022)

PINEAPPLE (*Ananas comosus* L. Merrill)

Pineapple (*Ananas comosus* L. Merrill) is a non-climacteric tropical fruit that shows moderate to low rates of respiration and ethylene production (Dull et al., 1967). Pineapple is a perennial fruit-bearing tropical plant that is well known throughout the world. It belongs to the *Bromeliaceae* family, which has more than 2500 species. Originally cultivated in South America, it then gradually started to be grown in other parts of the world as a result of travelers and historians visiting South America. Today, about 25 million tons of pineapple are produced throughout the world, making it the third most consumed fruit after bananas and citrus fruits. Pineapple greatly contributes to the economy of those countries at the forefront of its production. Its unique taste makes it invaluable in the food industry as it is an important part of many recipes. Biologically, pineapple has been studied for a number of health benefits and has been found effective in skin complications as an anticoagulant, in cardiovascular diseases as an analgesic enhancing the immune system, as a means of reducing gastric complications, as a uterine contractor in pregnancy, and as a tumor suppressor. (Niaz wali 2019)

Pineapple (*Ananas comosus*) is a tropical fruit that is highly relished for its unique aroma and sweet taste. It is renowned as a flavourful fruit since it contains a number of volatile compounds in small amounts and complex mixtures. Pineapple is also a rich source of minerals and vitamins that offer a number of health benefits. Ranked third behind banana and citrus, the demand for pineapple has greatly increased within the international market. The growth of the pineapple industry in the utilisation of pineapple food-based processing products as well as waste processing has progressed rapidly worldwide. (Mohd Ali et al., 2020)

Pineapple (*Ananas comosus*) is the world's most popular non-citrus tropical and subtropical fruit. Currently, ‘Gold’ is the most accepted cultivar around the world. This cultivar has cylindrical shape, square shoulders, an intense orange-yellow shell color and a medium to large size (1.3–2.5 kg), and stands out for its excellent quality and sensory characteristics. The flesh is clear yellow, very sweet, compact and fibrous and has a high ascorbic acid content but low total acidity, when compared with other varieties such as ‘Smooth Cayenne’ (Chan et al., 2003).

Fruit juices may be produced from a single fruit or a combination of two or more fruits (cocktail). A major advantage of fruit cocktails is the fact that it provides a wide range of pleasant aromas and flavors and a sum of nutritionally different components. Additionally combination of fruits may result in cheaper end products, as cheaper fruits may be combined expensive fruits. Commonly available fruit juice cocktails are made from tropical fruits such as pineapple, orange and mango. These fruits are generally sweet and colorful with an intense pleasant flavor and are notably rich in vitamins. However, other unpopular fruits including soursop (Annona muricata), which is less acidic and has a pleasant aroma and juicy flesh may be used in mixed fruit juices. (Akonor et al., 2020)

Nutritional Constituents and Health Benefits of Pineapple

Pineapple juice imparts a sweet taste and serves as an option for drinking plain or mixed with other juices. Its medical properties make it a good choice for a variety of health conditions and injuries, although compounds in this juice can interact with some antibiotics. Always consult your health care provider before taking pineapple juice for a medical problem. Pineapple contains a proteolytic enzyme bromelain, which digests food by breaking down protein. Only modest quantities of bromelain are in the edible parts of the fruit, all commercially all

commercially available bromelain is derived from the stem. Bromelain supplements are particularly popular among athletes for treating all sorts of physical aches and injuries. There are questions about how well bromelain is absorbed, and to many herbal authorities the value may be overstated. Nature gave us many similar proteolytic enzymes, (like Ginger), that are more highly concentrated in the edible parts of the plants. Pineapple is healthy fruit, a good source of manganese, as well as containing significant amounts of Vitamin C. Traditional Use Pineapple has been used as a medicinal plant in several native cultures. The root and fruit are either eaten or applied topically as an anti-inflammatory and digestive. It is traditionally used as an antiparasitic agent in the Tripura. Bromelain has been known chemically since 1876. In 1957, bromelain was introduced as a therapeutic compound when Heinicke found it in high concentrations in pineapple stems. The root and fruit are either eaten or applied topically as an anti-inflammatory and as a proteolytic agent. It is traditionally used as an anthelmintic agent in the Tripura. A root decoction is used to treat diarrhoea. In some cultures, the pineapple has become associated with the notion of welcome, an association bespoken by the use of pineapple motifs as carved decorations in woodworking. Many people bring a pineapple as a gift when meeting someone for the first time. This fruit contains sugar, vitamin C, and bromelain, a proteolytic enzyme that breaks down protein. It is also low in sodium and rich in potassium; however, Pineapple was not recognized as having any other medicinal benefits for many years. This fruit also has anti-inflammatory and digestive properties. The bromelain in Pineapple helps fight infections by dissolving layers of slough and bacteria-rich surfaces. This fruit can also be used to aid in digestion. It can clear bronchial passages in those suffering with pneumonia and bronchitis. The antiinflammatory properties in this fruit help reduce the symptoms of arthritis, and help reduce pain after surgery and sport injuries. Pineapple is currently being studied for its effectiveness in preventing heart disease. To receive the most nutritional value from Pineapple, it is best to eat it raw or canned, if it is canned in its own juices, but this fruit does come in other formulations as well and is an ingredient in many products. (Prasenjit Debnath et al., 2012)

Pharmacological Activities of Pineapple

Pineapple (Ananas comosus) native to Central and South America, is grown in several tropical and subtropical countries including Hawaii, India, China, Kenya, South Africa, Malaysia, the Philippines and Thailand. It has been used as a medicinal plant in several native cultures and bromelain has been chemically known since 1876 (Peckoldt et al., In: Taussig, 1988). Bromelain obtained from the stems of the pineapple plant contains all the soluble components of the pineapple stem in their original properties, which may involve malignant cell growth, thrombus formation, inflammation, control of diarrhoea, dermatological and skin debridement. Heinecke and Gortner (1957) found that bromelain concentrations is high in pineapple stems necessitating its extraction and use as a phytomedical compound because unlike the pineapple fruit which is normally used as food, the stems are a waste by-product and thus inexpensive. The main proteolytic constituents contained in pharmacological preparations or food supplements of bromelain. Bromelain’s primary component is a Sulfhydryl proteolytic fraction. Bromelain also contains a Peroxidase, acid Phosphatase, several protease inhibitors and organically bound calcium. Bromelain activity is stable over a wide pH range. Therefore it may not be necessary to enteric-protect the protease from acid conditions in the stomach. However, it may be necessary to protect the enzyme from digestion by acid proteases in the gut. It may be administered with a buffering agent, for example bicarbonate or in water or in a solution containing nutrients to assist with absorption of fluid and nutrients. Several studies have been carried out and results generated indicate bromelain has useful phytomedical

applications. However, these results are yet to be amalgamated and critically compared so as to chat the way forward as to whether bromelain will gain wide acceptance as a phytomedical supplement. The purpose of the present paper is to highlight some relevant contributions regarding bromelain's phytomedical applications that have been reported in recent times. Bromelain being a plant extract, contains various components such as proteinases, peroxidises, phosphatises, protease inhibitors and organically bound calcium whose ratio to each other might vary according to soil composition, climate conditions during plant growth, geographical location where the pineapple was grown, pineapple variety and the process of extraction. These factors might contribute to the variations of bromelain's pharmacological activities. Proteolytic activity of bromelain has been shown to play only a part in its pharmacological activity while other factors such as immunomodulatory, hormone like properties, fibrinolytic activity and uncharacterised components such as CCS and CCZ complement towards its pharmacological activity. However, there is need for further investigation on the uncharacterised components. Bromelain's activity remains stable over a wide pH range which explains why its activity has been found to be effective over the entire gastrointestinal tract. Since it is safe and non toxic, there is need to investigate how it can be incorporated in foods.

Conclusion

India is the one of the largest producers of fruits in the world. The locally available fruits are rich in nutrients as well as nutraceutical properties. Significant number of research studies were analysed the medicinal value of custard apple and pine apple. Both these fruits are rich in antioxidant properties and anti cancer in nature.

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32 Chapter CLOUD COMPUTING AND SECURE DATA TRANSFER IN CLOUD

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ISBN: 978-93-92917-32-5 | **DOI**: 10.25215/9392917325.32

1. Introduction

Cloud computing for the most part comprises social affair of disseminated servers known as master, giving requested services and assets to divergent clients known as clients in a network with immovability and consistency of datacenter. The circulated PCs give ondemand services from different assets. Services might be of software belonging e.g. Software as an execution, SaaS e.g. Stage as a Service, PaaS e.g. Equipment as a handler, HaaS or Infrastructure as a Service, IaaS. Amazon EC2 (Amazon Elastic Compute Cloud) is additionally a case of cloud computing services.

A Cloud framework comprises in three parts, for example, datacenter, clients, and scattered servers. Every one component has a chosen reason and assumes a particular part in it. End users cooperate with the clients to coordinate data identified with the cloud. Clients essentially fall into three classifications as given below:

- Mobile: Smart phones, Windows Mobile Smartphone, like a Blackberry.
- Thin: They don't do any working out work. They only present the information. Servers do all the installation for them. Thin clients don't have any internal memory.
- Thick: These apply different browsers like IE or Mozilla Firefox or Google Chrome to attach to the Internet cloud.

Clients: Today thin clients are more popular as compared to other because of their low price, low security, low use of power, less noise, easily repairable and easily replaceable etc.

Datacenter:

Datacenter is a group of servers hosting diverse applications. A user connects to the datacenter to promise different applications. A datacenter may subsist at a large distance from the user. Now a thought called virtualization is used to mount software that allows various instances of virtual attendant applications.

Distributed Servers:

Distributed servers are the parts of cloud servers which are present during the Internet hosting dissimilar applications. But while using the request from the cloud, the client will feel that he is via this application from its personal machine. Cloud computing has evolved through various phases which involves Grid computing, Utility computing and Software as a Service (SaaS).

Computing can be defined as a collection of distributed computing resources with heterogeneous

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and non interactive workload from multiple sites which are used collectively to reach a common aim but scope of grid computing is very limited mostly to scientific and research work [2]. Utility computing [3] involves the concept of metered services where accordingly of usage users have to pay, means commercialization of services (e.g. traditional electricity and telephonic services) which can be seen as a prediction made by Leonard Klienrock, one of the scientist of ARPA network, comes to true about the utilization of computer network which was in very beginning condition during his era of 1969 [4]. So the Grid and Utility Computing are the foundation stones of Cloud computing. Third phase of the Cloud computing evolution`s is "Software as a Service" (SaaS) which gains popularity in 2010, in which applications and data both reside on vendor`s site server, client who want to access the services connects himself with the remote server through internet like social networking. So SaaS offers fully furnished applications using technologies like Java, Ajax etc. SaaS is only a part of services which is provided by Cloud Services Providers [5]. Cloud computing is an umbrella term which in itself also covers Platform as a Service (PaaS) and Infrastructure as a Service (IaaS). There is a lot of confusion about the exact definition of Cloud computing. According to research study that backs to 2008 there are minimum twenty two definitions of Cloud computing in common use [7]. Although many column writers and scientists on Cloud, e.g. Michael Brown, Gartner, Rajkumar Buyya, and organization like Open Cloud Manifesto have given their best to frame the proper definition of Cloud computing but because of different people different views, not a single canonical definition could be framed. Finally in 2011, National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST) has proposed a standard definition of Cloud computing which covers all the essential characteristics and models based on services and deployments.

1.1 Characteristics of Cloud Computing

The different characteristics of Cloud computing are described below:

- Reduced Cost: Cloud offers pay per use charging model. New businesses or private venture business people who don't have enough labor, specialized aptitudes and can`t go out on a limb by putting resources into infrastructure, effectively begin their business with no support cost. Cloud users basically lease the infrastructure and technology as indicated by their requirements instead of getting it totally. Spared cash can be utilized as a part of other beneficial attempts to support up the company`s yield or profitability.

- Increased Storage: In the current time, data is developing exponentially. To deal with such a big data in itself is a noteworthy issue. Treatment of big data covers such a large number of angles like storage, support, security, and breaking down of big data. Cloud Services Providers offer tremendous storage

- Flexibility: With Cloud, users can access their records and data from any area and gadgets e.g. phones, laptops, tablet by means of internet, called geographic flexibility. Since Cloud Services Providers store user`s data in a single focal area by which users can without much of a stretch offer their data and work in organization with others individuals. Cloud users can purchase the reasonable storage for putting away their documents as indicated by their need and dispense with storage scope quantification when no greater necessity of it.

- Reliability: Cloud offers undisrupted services e.g. no data loss, no postponement in services to the end users by utilizing its repetitive assets, amazingly accessible, consequently repeated inside its accessibility zones capacity and server end or in transit data encryption.

- Location Independence: Users can access their data which dwells on unknown server from any locations through internet services utilizing any gadgets. Users are absolutely uninformed about their data storage and hidden specialized multifaceted nature of recovering data. With these highlights, data and apps can be put away in ideal area for decreasing the access time of data, giving quick recuperation and most noteworthy security to the data.

1.2 Cloud Computing Services

Cloud computing is typically divided into three different services,

Software as a Service (SaaS):

Cloud users can access complete application or software remotely as a web service on demand using web browser through internet. Users need not to invest in software license or servers, while for Cloud Services Providers, maintenance costs are lowered because only specific application is hosted. Today Oracle, Salesforce, Microsoft, Google, Amazon have become the giant Cloud Services Providers which deliver Software as a Service business applications. Gmail is an example of Software as a Service.

Platform as a Service (PaaS):

PaaS provides computational resources to the Cloud users through platform. With PaaS, users' gain a platform upon which they can easily create and manipulate applications. With PaaS, developers need not to buy underlying software and hardware; PaaS makes building, testing and delivering of web applications very easy, cost effective and quick. Using PaaS, vendors deal with storage, N/W, server, and operating system, etc but clients handle records and applications. Amazon's AWS Elastic Beanstalk and Google's App Engine are famous PaaS offerings.

Infrastructure as a Service (IaaS):

The basic difference between PaaS and IaaS can be defined in term of degree of control over system resources to the clients. In IaaS, Clients have almost full responsibility to manage the system. With IaaS, Clients decide what configuration of operating system, storage size,

networking, type of server and security parameters etc they want. IaaS is suitable for those organizations which have already software packages with themselves and just want to put and run it in the Cloud. Amazon Elastic Compute Cloud (EC2) and Secure Storage Service (S3), Rackspace, GoGrid are the examples of IaaS offerings.

1.3 Type of Clouds

Cloud services can be categorized in one of the following four ways shown in the Figure below.

Public Cloud:

In Public Cloud, Cloud services and resources are publically available and shared by all users through internet based on pay per use billing model. This is the most common deployment model. Public Clouds consist large number of nodes to support millions of end users demands. The main benefits of using Public Cloud are its cost effectiveness and scalability. Because of its availability to all and resources sharing among the users make it vulnerable to security attacks. Google App Engine, Amazon Web Services (AWS) and Microsoft Azure are some famous Public Clouds.

Private Cloud:

Private Clouds are restricted only within the organizational premises to offer Cloud services to the specific authorized users only. Since it provides access only a limited number of people which makes it more secure from the external threats. Private Clouds provide good control over system resources (e.g. storage, networking and operating system, etc.), which makes it easily customizable. Amazon Virtual Private Clouds (Amazon VPC), VMware Private, Racspace Private and CloudBees are some famous private Cloud services providers.

Community Cloud:

In Community Cloud, different organizations with similar concerns or project (e.g. joint business project or research) which require a central Cloud computing services work together to achieve common objectives. Community Cloud is a hybrid form of Private Cloud.

Hybrid Cloud:

Hybrid Cloud is a combination of any two of the above discussed three deployment model. With Hybrid Cloud, users enjoy the advantage of both Private Cloud`s security and Public Cloud`s scalability to carry out various functions within the same organization without exposing sensitive applications or data to the third party vulnerabilities. VMware`s Vcare and IBM etc. provide the services of Hybrid Cloud.

1.4 Issues in Cloud Computing

Cloud computing is an emerging field and has been widely used by the industry in many respects over the years. Some open challenges [12] [13] in Cloud computing still need to be addressed carefully to make it more effective in order to fulfill the requirements of end users cost effectively, timely and securely.

Automated Service Provisioning:

In Cloud computing, Service providers must assign and release the resources automatically to meet the fluctuated end users demands efficiently in order to minimize the operational cost and maximize the performance by achieving service level objectives using minimum resources. To make provisioning of services automated; Application Performance Model (APM) is used that predicts number of resources based on future demands. To make this prediction accurate different approaches are used like Resource Control Theory, Queuing Theory and Statistical Machine Learning. So for the researchers, this is still a challenge to make an effective Application Performance Model that considers all the parameters regarding automated service provisioning.

Virtual Machine Migration:

Virtualization means to create virtual form of something like operating system, server, network and storage devices in order to run multiple operating systems on a single machine, increase productivity using server consolidation, combine the independent resources by splitting the bandwidth of network and allocate them to different servers, pooling of different storages that appears as a single central storage which is also called Storage Area Network (SAN) respectively. Virtual Machine Migration means to move running virtual machines from one physical server to other in order to make Cloud system more fault tolerant and all time available to end users. Virtual Machine Migration is also used to balance the load across storage server. The main research issue

is to migrate complete virtual machine with current state of memory from source server to destination server within few mille seconds transparently and securely.

Server Consolidation:

Server Consolidation means to reduce the servers to the appropriate number that are enough to handle the client`s request so that energy and cost can be saved. Server Consolidation is based on virtual machines live migration, So that all the virtual machines residing on underutilized servers are migrated to another appropriate server in order to keep former on energy saving state. In Server Consolidation, researchers need to explore several issues like typify the workloads (e.g. Homogeneous, Heterogeneous and Hybrid), servers (e.g. Innovative Server, Mission Critical Server and Productive Server etc).

Energy Management:

In recent years, Energy management has become a serious issue before the researchers to solve, with a good trade-off between energy reduction and performance. Data centers with thousands of servers consume huge amount of energy to power and keep servers cool. Energy efficient hardware devices, server consolidation using virtual machines live migration, protocol that meet government`s term and conditions and energy aware job scheduling are some of the ways to make Cloud energy efficient and green.

Fault tolerance:

Fault in term of hardware or software must be tackle carefully without delaying to provide reliable service is a key issue in Cloud computing to be addressed. A survey conducted by Gibson and Schroeder [14] reveals that cloud suffers mainly because of hardware failures occur in hard-disk, memory and processor.

Interoperability:

Effectively shift applications using autonomous agent from one cloud to other in case of getting required performance or to handle provider's side transparency issues is a key challenge for cloud researchers.

Data Security:

- Resource Location Issue: In Cloud computing, Cloud users store their data on unknown locations, possibly in other country, and because of this data is not only affected by Cloud Services Provider`s policies but also the laws of hosted countries. For example according to Dropbox`s conditions and terms, providers have the right to reveal the data in fulfillment of the government laws which is really dangerous situation. So European countries have made a law that Cloud`s data can`t move to that countries which don't provide a high level security.

- Multi-Tenancy Issue: Protect user`s data from unauthorized users running processes on the same physical server.

- Authentication: User`s data resides on Cloud provider's infrastructure, the data integrity may be violated by others without user`s awareness. The proper authenticity of the user`s data in this scenario is very essential and hence needs to be assured.

- System Monitoring and Logs: Monitoring Logs contain sensitive information which can`t be disclosed to the customers or third party either on request by provider. It really requires a service agreement between Cloud service providers and users.

- Cloud Standards: There should be a common standard across different Cloud vendors so that interoperability could become possible and this will also increase the

scalability and security across Clouds. Different organizations such as Cloud Security Alliances (CSA) and National Institute of Standard and Technology (NIST) try to provide best solutions and standards to tackle all these security related issues, a lot of research work is going on in the area of cloud security because security is the first serious concerns reported by Cloud users.

1.5 Importance/Significance of the Research

Based on the IDC (International Data Corporation) survey report security is the most important issue among Cloud users. Hence researchers need to tackle this issue carefully and ensure security at each level of Cloud. In 2013 Cloud Security Alliance (CSA) mentioned Notorious Nine threats, in which data breaches by malicious insider is one of the core issue, which can be tackled using proper multi tier authentication and in-transit encryption. In Software as a Service (SaaS), applications and data both reside on unknown remote server which is accessed through internet, hence is open to outsider attack. So it becomes necessary to maintain integrity and confidentiality of data from unauthorized users. In Data Security, authenticity and integrity is most important issue mentioned in survey of security in Cloud. Various existing techniques manage the security of data by providing access only to authorize users using different combination of mechanisms in order to ensure authentication but either it is static in nature or provides simple credential authentication. Aim of this research is to provide a robust security to the data in SaaS delivery model by using different combination of mechanisms in order to ensure multitier authentication using one time key generation, confidentiality using encryption and integrity of message over network.

2. Literature Survey

Sulochana and Parimelazhagan [16] have described a puzzle based authentication scheme in Cloud computing in which user first registers and solves the puzzle, puzzle solving pattern and time is stored and validated by local server and if user get authenticated, start accessing the Cloud services. Although this scheme ensures 2 tier authentications but static in nature, if attacker once identified the stored pattern, he could easily break the security.

Yogita et al [17] have described that not a single technique is enough to provide security in Cloud, she has used Diffie Hellman with digital signature for providing 2 tier authentication. But digital signature uses so many parameter that`s why it is heavy enough and also requires a proper key management.

Arasu et al. [18] have given a approach of Hash Message Authentication Code (HMAC) in which key, message and hash function is concatenated together for ensuring authentication. This approach describes only single tier authentication which is weak in case of Cloud computing.

Neha and Ganesan [19] have used Diffie Hellman Key Exchange mechanism for connection establishment and Elliptic curve cryptography for data encryption.

Govind et al. [20] have provided security using digital certificate authentication method. Here author uses RSA Algorithm for encryption/decryption which is followed by the process of digital

certification. This method ensures only single tier authentication using Digital certification which raised a problem of key management.

Maninder and Sarbjeet [21] have provided an advance multi tier authentication scheme for enhancing security in financial transactions, in which in first tier, user has to simply pass the traditional login authentication and in second tier a fake screen will appear before user from local server, which is filled by the user by predefined stored pattern, if it is correct then only server will allow access to the resources. Problem with this approach is that it is static in nature, once user identifies or observes the pattern of fake screen from behind, he can easily break this authentication.

3. Objectives

1. To study the existing approaches of secure data transfer over network in Cloud using proper authentication.
2. To compare the existing secure data transfer techniques
3. To develop an algorithm which securely transfers data over network and provides three-way protection in terms of authenticity, integrity and confidentiality.
4. To verify and validate the proposed techniques.

4. Scope and Limitations

4.1 Scope

The research allows proposing a mechanism for secure data transfer. This mechanism ensures three way protections in term of authenticity, confidentiality and integrity based on the concept of single key. The research also allows using OTP and HMAC with Diffie Hellman Key Exchange techniques to enhance data security in terms of authenticity and integrity in Cloud Computing environment. Furthermore, the research will design a secure data transfer technique has been designed and the design of this technique has been depicted through its architecture

4.2 Limitations

Many other kinds of real time and worse secondary fault levels are not included for Study. The literature survey studied various techniques which manage these security issues (e.g. integrity, authenticity, confidentiality) might not be sufficient to identify the gaps properly. The research will not discussed Replay attack that can also be considered and prevented using Time Stamp in HMAC.

Research Methodology:

4.3 Problem Statement

Security can be enhanced using strong authentication. Authentication on which Cloud computing heavily depends for security, provides the facility of using different mechanism for ensuring authentication e.g. Digital Signature and OTP.

The problem is to determine what kind of approaches should be used to a single server that will provide the most efficient authentication, confidentiality and integrity using perfect blend of different mechanisms. In current approaches of authentication key management is an issue, or either they rely on additional hardware for their OTP.

The aim of this thesis work is to provide a mechanism which ensures three way protections in term

of authenticity using OTP concept, confidentiality using encryption/decryption, and integrity for secure data transfer over network. One time shared secret key has been used for this complete scenario

4.4 Research Design

The solution to the problem (secure data transmission in Cloud) will be depicted through architecture of the proposed technique and Data Flow Diagram. Multi factor authentication through OTP (One Time Password) and message integrity through HMAC (Hashed Message Authentication Code) will be ensured using Diffie Hellman key exchange algorithm. Once shared secret key is generated in between Cloud Storage Server and Cloud user, it will be used throughout the session for reducing the total time.

But using single key is vulnerable to man in middle attack hence the concept of OTP just after login process but before HMAC formation will be proposed. OTP will be generated automatically by authentication server after adding current login number to shared secret key. Once user passes the two tier of authentication then he replies back to the server with the operation (e.g. Uploading/ Downloading) what he wants to perform using HMAC. HMAC ensures message integrity and prevents non repudiation attack because HMAC is formed using same shared secret key, hence no one can change the source of message until he knows the shared secret key of both parties. This message is decrypted by the server thereafter secure network link has been opened in between user and Cloud storage so user can upload or download file from Cloud storage in encrypted form during transmission which ensures confidentiality as well. This method requires no additional software/hardware for authentication, no need to worry about the key management because each time new key is generated for each operation which results in more security with less space required and fast in execution because single key is used throughout the session. Proposed mechanism of secure data transfer will be depicted using Data Flow Diagrams and Sequence Diagram while parallel algorithm of Modified HMAC will be scripted using any cloud tool. Thus, CLOUDSIM or MATLAB Toolkit will be used to validate the experimental results.

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33 Chapter FROM DEPLOYMENT TO DEVELOPMENT: THE ROLE OF DEVOPS IN CLOUD-NATIVE INNOVATION

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ISBN: 978-93-92917-32-5 | **DOI**: 10.25215/9392917325.33

Abstract

The advent of cloud computing has revolutionized the landscape of software development and deployment, fostering the emergence of cloud-native architectures. In this paradigm shift, DevOps practices play a pivotal role in facilitating seamless transitions from deployment to development, thereby catalyzing innovation. This review paper explores the multifaceted interplay between DevOps methodologies and cloud-native environments, elucidating their symbiotic relationship and impact on innovation.

At its core, DevOps embodies a cultural and technical philosophy that advocates for collaboration, automation, and continuous improvement across development and operations teams. When integrated with cloud-native principles, which prioritize scalability, resilience, and agility, DevOps becomes an indispensable enabler of innovation. Through automation tools, such as CI/CD pipelines and infrastructure as code (IaC), DevOps streamlines development workflows, accelerates deployment cycles, and enhances software quality. Furthermore, by fostering a culture of shared responsibility and rapid feedback loops, DevOps empowers teams to iterate quickly, experiment with new ideas, and adapt to evolving market demands.

This paper reviews existing literature to examine the tangible benefits of adopting DevOps practices within cloud-native environments. It synthesizes empirical evidence and case studies to demonstrate how organizations leverage DevOps to achieve greater agility, reduce time-to-market, and foster a culture of innovation. Moreover, it analyzes the challenges and best practices associated with implementing DevOps in cloud-native contexts, addressing concerns such as security, compliance, and cultural resistance.

Ultimately, this review underscores the transformative potential of DevOps in driving cloud-native innovation. By embracing DevOps principles and leveraging cloud-native technologies, organizations can not only optimize their software delivery processes but also cultivate a culture of continuous innovation that propels them ahead in today's competitive landscape.

Keywords: *DevOps, Cloud-native, Innovation, Deployment, Development, Cloud computing, CI/CD pipelines, Infrastructure as code (IaC), Agility, Scalability, Resilience, Automation*

Introduction

In recent years, the intersection of DevOps and cloud-native technologies has emerged as a catalyzing force in software development and deployment methodologies. This convergence represents a paradigm shift from traditional approaches to a more agile, scalable, and efficient model, driving innovation across industries. The symbiotic relationship between DevOps practices and cloud-native architecture has redefined how organizations conceptualize, build, deploy, and manage their software applications. This paper delves into the pivotal role of DevOps in fostering

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cloud-native innovation, examining its impact on development processes, organizational culture, and technological advancements.

The rapid adoption of cloud computing has revolutionized the IT landscape, providing unparalleled scalability, flexibility, and cost-effectiveness. However, the transition to the cloud necessitates a fundamental reevaluation of development and deployment strategies. Traditional siloed approaches often hinder agility and inhibit innovation, leading organizations to explore alternative methodologies that can harness the full potential of cloud-native environments. Enter DevOps – a cultural and technical framework aimed at breaking down barriers between development and operations teams, fostering collaboration, automation, and continuous improvement throughout the software delivery lifecycle.

At its core, DevOps embodies a set of principles and practices that promote agility, efficiency, and reliability in software development and deployment. By integrating development, testing, deployment, and monitoring processes, DevOps enables organizations to accelerate time-to-market, enhance product quality, and respond swiftly to changing market demands. In the context of cloud-native environments, DevOps serves as a catalyst for innovation, facilitating the rapid iteration and evolution of applications to meet evolving customer needs and business requirements.

This paper seeks to explore the multifaceted relationship between DevOps and cloud-native innovation, shedding light on key concepts, methodologies, and case studies that illustrate their symbiotic nature. By examining the evolution of DevOps practices in the context of cloud-native architectures, we aim to provide insights into how organizations can leverage this synergy to drive digital transformation, achieve operational excellence, and gain a competitive edge in today's dynamic marketplace. Through an in-depth analysis of existing literature, industry trends, and real-world examples, we endeavor to elucidate the transformative potential of DevOps in unlocking the full capabilities of cloud-native technologies.

Background of the study

In recent years, the evolution of cloud computing technologies has reshaped the landscape of software development and deployment. Traditional software development methodologies often faced challenges in terms of agility, scalability, and reliability, particularly in the context of rapidly evolving business requirements and user expectations. This has led to the emergence of DevOps as a pivotal approach to bridge the gap between software development and IT operations, fostering a culture of collaboration, automation, and continuous improvement.

The term "DevOps" encompasses a set of practices, cultural philosophies, and tools aimed at streamlining the software development lifecycle (SDLC), from code commit to production deployment and beyond. By breaking down silos between development and operations teams, DevOps promotes faster delivery of high-quality software, reduced lead times, and increased deployment frequency. This paradigm shift has become even more pronounced with the advent of cloud-native technologies, which leverage the scalability, elasticity, and resilience of cloud environments to build and deploy applications.

Cloud-native innovation represents a paradigm shift in software architecture and deployment, where applications are designed and optimized for cloud environments from the ground up. This approach enables organizations to leverage the full potential of cloud computing, including containerization, microservices architecture, and infrastructure as code (IaC), to deliver scalable and resilient applications with greater speed and efficiency. However, realizing the full benefits of

cloud-native innovation requires not only technological adoption but also a cultural shift towards DevOps practices.

Despite the growing adoption of DevOps and cloud-native technologies, there remains a gap in understanding the precise role of DevOps in driving cloud-native innovation. While numerous studies have explored the benefits of DevOps and cloud-native approaches individually, there is a need for comprehensive research that elucidates the synergistic relationship between DevOps practices and cloud-native innovation. Understanding how DevOps principles and practices contribute to the successful adoption and implementation of cloud-native architectures is crucial for organizations seeking to thrive in today's digital economy.

Therefore, this review research paper aims to fill this gap by providing a comprehensive analysis of the role of DevOps in cloud-native innovation. By synthesizing existing literature, case studies, and empirical evidence, this paper seeks to uncover the key mechanisms through which DevOps practices facilitate the adoption and implementation of cloud-native architectures. Moreover, it aims to identify challenges, best practices, and future research directions in this rapidly evolving field, providing valuable insights for practitioners, researchers, and decision-makers alike.

This paper seeks to advance our understanding of the intersection between DevOps and cloud-native innovation, shedding light on how organizations can leverage these complementary approaches to drive digital transformation and achieve competitive advantage in an increasingly dynamic and interconnected world.

Justification

The paper titled "From Deployment to Development: The Role of DevOps in Cloud-Native Innovation" explores the pivotal role of DevOps in fostering innovation within cloud-native environments. This justification provides a comprehensive overview of why this research paper is crucial in the current landscape of technology and business.

Significance of the Topic: DevOps, the cultural and technical practice that emphasizes collaboration and integration between development and operations teams, has emerged as a critical paradigm in modern software development. Concurrently, cloud-native technologies have revolutionized how applications are built, deployed, and scaled. Understanding the intersection of DevOps and cloud-native innovation is essential for organizations striving to remain competitive in today's digital economy.

Gap in Existing Literature: While there exists a substantial body of research on both DevOps and cloud-native technologies individually, there is a dearth of comprehensive studies that examine their synergy and impact on innovation. This paper seeks to bridge this gap by providing a thorough analysis of how DevOps practices facilitate and accelerate innovation within cloud-native environments.

Original Contribution: The research paper contributes original insights by delving into the specific mechanisms through which DevOps methodologies drive innovation in cloud-native contexts. By synthesizing existing literature, empirical evidence, and case studies, the paper offers novel perspectives on the transformative potential of DevOps principles in fostering agility, scalability, and continuous improvement.

Practical Implications: The findings of this paper have significant practical implications for organizations across various industries. By elucidating the symbiotic relationship between DevOps

and cloud-native innovation, businesses can gain actionable insights to optimize their software development processes, enhance product quality, and expedite time-to-market. Moreover, understanding the role of DevOps in innovation is imperative for executives, managers, and practitioners involved in digital transformation initiatives.

Academic Relevance: From an academic standpoint, this paper enriches the discourse on DevOps and cloud-native computing by presenting a rigorous analysis supported by empirical evidence. By synthesizing theoretical frameworks with real-world applications, the paper contributes to the advancement of knowledge in software engineering, information systems, and innovation management disciplines.

Objectives of the Study

1. To examine the evolution of software development methodologies, particularly focusing on the emergence and adoption of DevOps practices.

2. To assess the impact of DevOps methodologies on the efficiency and effectiveness of software deployment processes within cloud-native environments.

3. To analyze case studies and empirical evidence showcasing the benefits and challenges associated with implementing DevOps principles in cloud-native development.

4. To investigate the role of automation, continuous integration/continuous deployment (CI/CD), and infrastructure as code (IaC) in facilitating cloud-native innovation through DevOps.

5. To explore the cultural and organizational shifts necessary to fully leverage DevOps practices for cloud-native development, including collaboration between development and operations teams.

Literature Review

In recent years, the emergence of cloud-native technologies has revolutionized the way software applications are built, deployed, and managed. This paradigm shift has been facilitated by the adoption of DevOps practices, which emphasize collaboration, automation, and integration between development and operations teams. As organizations increasingly migrate their workloads to the cloud, understanding the role of DevOps in enabling cloud-native innovation becomes crucial. This literature review aims to explore the existing research on DevOps and its impact on cloud-native development, focusing on its role in facilitating agility, scalability, and continuous delivery.

Agility in Cloud-Native Development

DevOps practices such as continuous integration (CI) and continuous delivery (CD) have been instrumental in enhancing agility in cloud-native development. By automating build, test, and deployment processes, organizations can rapidly iterate on their software products and respond to market demands more efficiently (Humble & Farley, 2010). Research by Kim, Behr, & Spafford (2018) highlights the importance of DevOps in enabling rapid experimentation and innovation, which are essential aspects of cloud-native development. Through practices like infrastructure as code (IaC) and immutable infrastructure, DevOps teams can provision and manage cloud resources programmatically, further enhancing agility (Beyer et al., 2016).

Scalability in Cloud-Native Development

Another key benefit of DevOps in cloud-native development is scalability. Cloud-native architectures, built on microservices and containers, offer inherent scalability advantages, allowing applications to scale up or down based on demand (Fowler, 2014). However, effective management of these dynamic environments requires robust automation and orchestration, which are core principles of DevOps (Huttermann, 2012). Research by Bass, Weber, & Zhu (2015) underscores the importance of DevOps practices in ensuring the reliable and efficient operation of cloud-native systems at scale. By implementing infrastructure automation and employing tools like Kubernetes for container orchestration, organizations can achieve seamless scalability while maintaining high availability and performance.

Continuous Delivery in Cloud-Native Development

DevOps also plays a pivotal role in enabling continuous delivery in cloud-native development environments. Traditional software delivery models often suffer from long release cycles and manual deployment processes, leading to inefficiencies and increased risk of errors (Wolff, 2016). In contrast, DevOps promotes a culture of automation and collaboration, allowing organizations to deploy software changes frequently and predictably (Forsgren et al., 2018). Research by Duvall, Matyas, & Glover (2007) emphasizes the importance of automated testing and deployment pipelines in achieving continuous delivery, which is essential for maintaining pace with the rapid evolution of cloud-native applications.

Material and Methodology

Research Design: This review employs a systematic approach to gather, analyze, and synthesize existing literature pertaining to the intersection of DevOps and cloud-native innovation. A comprehensive search strategy is devised, encompassing academic databases, conference proceedings, industry reports, and relevant publications. The review follows established guidelines for systematic reviews to ensure rigor and reproducibility in the research process.

Data Collection Methods: Primary data collection involves the systematic retrieval of scholarly articles, conference papers, technical reports, and industry publications from reputable sources such as IEEE Xplore, ACM Digital Library, ScienceDirect, and Google Scholar. The search strategy employs a combination of keywords including "DevOps," "cloud-native," "innovation," and related terms. Additionally, secondary data sources such as white papers, case studies, and expert opinions are consulted to provide insights from industry perspectives.

Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria:

Inclusion criteria:

- Publications addressing the integration of DevOps practices in cloud-native environments.
- Studies examining the impact of DevOps on software development, deployment, and innovation.
- Articles published in peer-reviewed journals, conference proceedings, and reputable industry sources.
- Literature available in English language.

Exclusion criteria:

- Publications unrelated to DevOps or cloud-native technologies.

- Studies lacking empirical evidence or theoretical frameworks.
- Non-English language publications.
- Duplicate or redundant sources.

Ethical Consideration: This review adheres to ethical standards governing academic research, including proper citation of sources, avoidance of plagiarism, and respect for intellectual property rights. All data sources are appropriately credited, and efforts are made to maintain objectivity and impartiality in the analysis and interpretation of findings. Privacy and confidentiality of individuals or organizations mentioned in the reviewed literature are upheld, and no sensitive information is disclosed without consent or legitimate justification.

Results and Discussion

The research paper titled "From Deployment to Development: The Role of DevOps in Cloud-Native Innovation" presents a comprehensive investigation into the impact and significance of DevOps practices within the realm of cloud-native innovation. Through meticulous examination and analysis, the study reveals several key findings that shed light on the transformative potential of DevOps methodologies in facilitating efficient and agile development processes within cloud-native environments. The findings of the study can be summarized as follows:

1. **Enhanced Collaboration and Communication**: The adoption of DevOps principles fosters a culture of collaboration and communication among development, operations, and quality assurance teams. This collaborative environment encourages continuous feedback loops and facilitates the seamless integration of code changes, thereby streamlining the software development lifecycle.

2. **Automation and Continuous Integration/Continuous Deployment (CI/CD)**: The implementation of DevOps practices enables automation across various stages of the development pipeline. Through CI/CD pipelines, organizations can automate the building, testing, and deployment of software applications, leading to accelerated release cycles and improved time-to-market.

3. **Scalability and Elasticity**: DevOps, when combined with cloud-native technologies, offers unparalleled scalability and elasticity to organizations. By leveraging cloud infrastructure and containerization technologies such as Kubernetes, teams can dynamically scale resources based on demand, ensuring optimal performance and resource utilization.

4. **Resilience and Fault Tolerance**: The study highlights the resilience and fault tolerance achieved through the adoption of DevOps practices in cloud-native environments. Through techniques such as infrastructure as code (IaC) and automated testing, organizations can mitigate risks associated with system failures and ensure high availability of services.

5. **Cultural Transformation**: Beyond technical implementations, the research emphasizes the importance of cultural transformation in embracing DevOps methodologies. Organizations must cultivate a culture of experimentation, learning, and continuous improvement to fully realize the benefits of DevOps in driving innovation and competitiveness.

6. **Business Value and Competitive Advantage**: Ultimately, the findings underscore the substantial business value and competitive advantage gained through the adoption of DevOps in cloud-native innovation. By accelerating development cycles, improving product

quality, and fostering innovation, organizations can effectively meet evolving customer demands and stay ahead in today's rapidly changing market landscape.

These findings collectively underscore the pivotal role of DevOps in driving cloud-native innovation, emphasizing its transformative impact on organizational culture, processes, and technological capabilities. The insights gleaned from this study provide valuable guidance for businesses seeking to leverage DevOps practices to navigate the complexities of modern software development and remain agile in an increasingly competitive digital landscape.

Limitations of the study

1. **Scope Limitation**: The study primarily focuses on the role of DevOps in cloud-native innovation, thereby limiting its scope to this specific aspect. Other factors influencing cloud-native development may not have been fully explored.

2. **Generalizability**: The findings of this study may not be universally applicable across all industries or organizational contexts. Factors such as company size, industry vertical, and technological infrastructure could influence the outcomes differently.

3. **Data Limitation**: The study relies on data collected from a specific set of companies or case studies, which may not represent the entire spectrum of organizations adopting DevOps practices in cloud-native environments.

4. **Time Constraints**: The research may have been conducted within a limited timeframe, potentially affecting the depth and breadth of data collection, analysis, and interpretation.

5. **Bias**: There might be inherent biases in the selection of case studies, data interpretation, or researcher perspectives, which could influence the validity and reliability of the findings.

6. **Technological Dynamics**: Given the rapid evolution of technology, the study's findings may become outdated quickly, especially concerning the tools, techniques, and practices associated with DevOps and cloud-native development.

7. **Causality vs. Correlation**: The study may establish correlations between DevOps adoption and cloud-native innovation but may not conclusively prove causality, as other unaccounted factors could be at play.

8. **Measurement Issues**: Metrics used to assess the effectiveness of DevOps practices or cloud-native innovation may lack standardization or fail to capture the nuanced aspects of these phenomena accurately.

9. **External Factors**: External factors such as market conditions, regulatory changes, or geopolitical events could influence the results but may not have been fully accounted for in the study.

10. **Sample Size and Diversity**: The sample size and diversity of organizations included in the study may be limited, affecting the representativeness of the findings and their applicability to broader contexts.

Addressing these limitations in future research endeavors could enhance the robustness and applicability of findings in understanding the intricate relationship between DevOps practices and cloud-native innovation.

Conclusion

This research paper has delved into the pivotal role of DevOps in driving cloud-native innovation, highlighting its transformative potential from deployment to development phases. Through an extensive analysis of existing literature, we have elucidated how the synergy between DevOps principles and cloud-native technologies fosters agility, scalability, and efficiency in software delivery pipelines. By embracing automation, continuous integration, and continuous deployment practices, organizations can streamline their development processes and accelerate time-to-market while maintaining high levels of reliability and quality. Furthermore, the paper has underscored the significance of cultural and organizational shifts necessitated by DevOps adoption, emphasizing the need for collaboration, communication, and shared accountability across development and operations teams. As cloud-native paradigms continue to redefine software engineering practices, embracing DevOps methodologies becomes imperative for organizations seeking to harness the full potential of cloud technologies and drive innovation in the digital era. This review serves as a comprehensive resource for understanding the symbiotic relationship between DevOps and cloud-native development, offering insights and recommendations for practitioners and researchers alike as they navigate the evolving landscape of software delivery and infrastructure management.

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34 Chapter ORCHESTRATING CONTAINERS: DEVOPS PRACTICES IN CLOUD-NATIVE ENVIRONMENTS

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ISBN: 978-93-92917-32-5 | **DOI**: 10.25215/9392917325.34

Abstract

The rapid adoption of cloud-native technologies has transformed the landscape of software development and deployment, with containers emerging as a pivotal tool in this paradigm shift. This review paper explores the orchestration of containers within DevOps practices in cloud-native environments, aiming to elucidate the key principles, challenges, and emerging trends in this dynamic domain.

Beginning with an overview of containerization and its advantages, the paper delves into the role of orchestration frameworks such as Kubernetes, Docker Swarm, and Apache Mesos in managing containerized applications. It examines how these frameworks facilitate the automation of deployment, scaling, and management tasks, enabling organizations to achieve greater agility, scalability, and efficiency in their software delivery pipelines.

Furthermore, the paper investigates the integration of containers and DevOps practices, emphasizing the cultural and organizational shifts required to foster collaboration between development and operations teams. It discusses the principles of continuous integration (CI) and continuous deployment (CD) in the context of containerized environments, highlighting best practices for building, testing, and deploying containerized applications in a streamlined and automated manner.

Moreover, the paper addresses the challenges inherent in orchestrating containers at scale, including networking complexities, security concerns, and resource optimization. It surveys recent advancements and emerging trends in container orchestration, such as serverless computing, edge computing, and hybrid cloud deployments, and their implications for DevOps practices in cloud-native environments.

This paper provides a comprehensive analysis of the intersection between container orchestration and DevOps, offering insights into how organizations can leverage these technologies and practices to accelerate their digital transformation journey and stay competitive in today's rapidly evolving landscape of cloud-native computing.

Keywords: *Containerization, Orchestration, DevOps, Cloud-native, Kubernetes, Docker Swarm, Apache Mesos, Continuous Integration (CI), Continuous Deployment (CD), Automation, Scalability, Agility.*

Introduction

In recent years, the advent of cloud-native technologies has revolutionized the way software applications are developed, deployed, and managed. Among these technologies, containerization has emerged as a cornerstone, providing a lightweight, portable, and efficient means of packaging applications and their dependencies. Concurrently, the adoption of DevOps

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practices has gained momentum, fostering collaboration and automation across development and operations teams to accelerate software delivery and improve overall agility.

This research paper delves into the intricate interplay between containers and DevOps practices within cloud-native environments. By orchestrating containers, organizations can leverage the full potential of cloud-native architectures, enabling seamless scalability, resilience, and rapid deployment of microservices-based applications. However, orchestrating containers in a DevOps context poses unique challenges, ranging from infrastructure provisioning and configuration management to continuous integration and delivery pipelines.

Through a comprehensive review of existing literature, this paper aims to elucidate the key principles, methodologies, and tools underpinning the orchestration of containers in DevOps workflows. Furthermore, it seeks to identify best practices, patterns, and lessons learned from real-world implementations, offering insights into overcoming common pitfalls and optimizing containerized DevOps processes.

By synthesizing insights from academia and industry, this research not only contributes to the theoretical understanding of cloud-native DevOps but also provides practical guidance for organizations embarking on their cloud-native journey. Ultimately, this paper underscores the transformative potential of orchestrating containers within a DevOps paradigm, empowering organizations to achieve greater agility, efficiency, and innovation in their software delivery pipelines.

Through a systematic examination of container orchestration in DevOps contexts, this paper sets the stage for further exploration and refinement of cloud-native practices, paving the way for the continued evolution of software development and deployment methodologies in an increasingly digital world.

Background of the study

In recent years, the paradigm of software development and deployment has witnessed a profound transformation with the emergence of cloud-native architectures and containerization technologies. Cloud-native environments, characterized by their scalability, agility, and resilience, have become the cornerstone of modern software development practices. At the heart of this transformation lies containerization, a technology that encapsulates an application and its dependencies into a portable, lightweight package, known as a container. Containers have revolutionized the way applications are developed, deployed, and managed, offering consistency across different environments and enabling seamless scaling.

As organizations embrace cloud-native architectures and containerization, the adoption of DevOps practices has become increasingly vital. DevOps, a cultural and organizational movement, emphasizes collaboration, automation, and continuous delivery, aiming to streamline the software development lifecycle and enhance operational efficiency. Within cloud-native environments, DevOps practices play a pivotal role in orchestrating containers effectively, facilitating seamless deployment, monitoring, and management of containerized applications.

Despite the growing adoption of DevOps practices in cloud-native environments, there remains a need for comprehensive insights into the orchestration of containers within these contexts. While several studies have explored various aspects of containerization and DevOps independently, there is a gap in the literature concerning the integration of these practices in cloud-native environments. Understanding how organizations orchestrate containers in alignment with DevOps principles is

essential for optimizing resource utilization, improving deployment velocity, and ensuring the resilience of cloud-native applications.

This review research paper seeks to address this gap by providing a comprehensive analysis of DevOps practices in orchestrating containers within cloud-native environments. By synthesizing existing literature, case studies, and industry best practices, this paper aims to offer insights into the strategies, challenges, and benefits associated with container orchestration in DevOps-driven environments. Furthermore, the paper aims to identify emerging trends, tools, and techniques shaping the landscape of container orchestration in cloud-native ecosystems.

Through this study, stakeholders, including software developers, operations teams, and IT decision-makers, can gain valuable insights into optimizing container orchestration processes, enhancing collaboration between development and operations teams, and harnessing the full potential of cloud-native architectures. Ultimately, the findings of this research are expected to contribute to the advancement of DevOps practices and the effective utilization of containerization technologies in contemporary software development paradigms.

Justification

The rapid adoption of containerization and cloud-native technologies has revolutionized software development and deployment practices in recent years. As organizations strive to achieve agility, scalability, and efficiency in their software delivery pipelines, understanding the DevOps practices employed in cloud-native environments becomes paramount. This review research paper aims to provide a comprehensive analysis of the orchestration of containers and the DevOps practices associated with them, addressing the following key justifications:

1. **Emergence of Cloud-Native Paradigm**: With the increasing shift towards cloud-native architectures, characterized by microservices, containerization, and dynamic orchestration, there's a critical need to examine the DevOps practices that enable organizations to harness the full potential of these technologies. Understanding how DevOps principles intersect with cloud-native environments is essential for ensuring seamless integration and deployment of applications.

2. **Complexity of Container Orchestration**: Container orchestration platforms such as Kubernetes, Docker Swarm, and Apache Mesos have become foundational tools for managing containerized applications at scale. However, the complexity inherent in orchestrating containers necessitates a deep dive into the DevOps practices that facilitate efficient management, monitoring, and scaling of containerized workloads. This study aims to elucidate the best practices and challenges associated with container orchestration in DevOps workflows.

3. **Impact on Software Delivery Lifecycle**: DevOps embodies a cultural and technical shift towards collaboration, automation, and continuous delivery. In the context of cloud-native environments, where containers serve as the building blocks for scalable and resilient applications, understanding how DevOps practices influence the entire software delivery lifecycle is crucial. This paper will explore how DevOps principles influence each stage of the software development process within cloud-native ecosystems.

4. **Performance and Resource Optimization**: Efficient resource utilization and performance optimization are critical concerns in cloud-native environments where resources are dynamically provisioned and de-provisioned based on workload demands. By examining the

DevOps practices related to container orchestration, this study aims to identify strategies for optimizing resource allocation, minimizing overhead, and enhancing the overall performance of containerized applications.

5. **Security and Compliance Considerations**: As organizations embrace containerization and cloud-native architectures, security and compliance remain top priorities. DevOps practices play a pivotal role in integrating security controls, vulnerability management, and compliance frameworks into the software delivery pipeline. This paper will investigate how DevOps teams address security concerns and ensure regulatory compliance within cloud-native environments.

6. **Industry Trends and Best Practices**: The landscape of container orchestration and DevOps is constantly evolving, driven by technological advancements, industry trends, and lessons learned from real-world implementations. By synthesizing existing literature, case studies, and industry reports, this review research paper aims to provide insights into emerging trends, innovative practices, and lessons learned from organizations at the forefront of DevOps adoption in cloud-native environments.

This study on orchestrating containers and DevOps practices in cloud-native environments is essential for practitioners, researchers, and organizations seeking to optimize their software delivery pipelines, enhance agility, and leverage the full potential of containerization and cloud-native technologies. By addressing the aforementioned justifications, this paper aims to contribute valuable insights to the growing body of knowledge in the field of DevOps and cloud-native computing.

Objectives of the Study

1. To investigate the current landscape of container orchestration tools and practices in cloud-native environments.
2. To analyse the role of DevOps methodologies in facilitating container orchestration within cloud-native ecosystems.
3. To assess the benefits and challenges associated with implementing container orchestration in DevOps workflows.
4. To explore the impact of container orchestration on software delivery pipelines, scalability, and resource utilization.
5. To examine best practices and emerging trends in orchestrating containers for DevOps efficiency and effectiveness.

Literature Review

The proliferation of cloud-native technologies has revolutionized software development and deployment practices, with containers emerging as a pivotal component in this paradigm shift. As organizations increasingly adopt cloud-native architectures, the implementation of DevOps practices becomes imperative to ensure seamless collaboration between development and operations teams. This literature review synthesizes existing research on orchestrating containers within DevOps frameworks in cloud-native environments, examining the challenges, best practices, and emerging trends in this domain.

Container Orchestration in DevOps

Container orchestration platforms, such as Kubernetes, Docker Swarm, and Apache Mesos, play a critical role in managing the deployment, scaling, and maintenance of containerized applications within DevOps pipelines. According to Shah et al. (2019), Kubernetes has emerged as the de facto standard for container orchestration due to its robust feature set, community support, and scalability. By abstracting infrastructure complexities, Kubernetes enables DevOps teams to focus on delivering value-added services and accelerating software delivery cycles (Humble & Farley, 2010).

Challenges and Solutions

Despite the benefits of container orchestration, organizations encounter various challenges when integrating containers into DevOps workflows. Security concerns, networking complexities, and operational overhead are among the primary hurdles identified by Gupta et al. (2020). To address these challenges, DevOps practitioners employ a combination of security best practices, network automation tools, and infrastructure-as-code (IaC) techniques (Radcliffe et al., 2021). By implementing robust security policies, leveraging service meshes for enhanced network visibility, and automating infrastructure provisioning with tools like Terraform, organizations can mitigate risks and streamline containerized deployments (Humble, 2021).

Best Practices and Emerging Trends

Innovations in container orchestration continue to reshape DevOps practices, with several emerging trends shaping the landscape. Serverless computing, for instance, enables developers to abstract away infrastructure management entirely, focusing solely on code logic (Baldini et al., 2017). This trend towards serverless architectures underscores the importance of automation, scalability, and cost-efficiency in modern DevOps environments (Fowler, 2020). Moreover, the convergence of containers and edge computing introduces new challenges and opportunities for DevOps teams, as they seek to deploy and manage applications across distributed, resource-constrained environments (Xu et al., 2021).

Material and Methodology

Research Design: This review research paper employs a systematic literature review (SLR) methodology to explore and synthesize existing knowledge on DevOps practices within cloud-native environments, with a particular focus on orchestrating containers. The SLR approach ensures a rigorous and comprehensive analysis of available literature, allowing for the identification of trends, patterns, and gaps in the research landscape. By adhering to established SLR guidelines, this study aims to provide valuable insights into the current state of DevOps practices in cloud-native environments, thereby contributing to the advancement of knowledge in this field.

Data Collection Methods: The data collection process involves a systematic search of relevant academic databases, including but not limited to IEEE Xplore, ACM Digital Library, ScienceDirect, and Google Scholar. Keywords and search strings related to DevOps, containers, orchestration, and cloud-native environments are used to identify potential research articles, conference papers, and other scholarly publications. Additionally, manual searches of relevant journals and conference proceedings are conducted to ensure comprehensive coverage of the topic. The inclusion criteria for selecting studies include relevance to DevOps practices in cloud-native environments, publication in peer-reviewed venues, and availability of full-text articles in English.

Duplicate studies are removed, and the remaining articles undergo a thorough screening process based on predefined inclusion and exclusion criteria.

Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria: The inclusion criteria for selecting studies encompass research articles, conference papers, and scholarly publications that focus on DevOps practices within cloud-native environments, with a specific emphasis on container orchestration technologies. Studies must present empirical findings, case studies, theoretical frameworks, or practical insights related to the adoption, implementation, or impact of DevOps methodologies in cloud-native settings. Only publications available in English and published in peer-reviewed venues are considered for inclusion.

Exclusion criteria entail studies that do not directly address DevOps practices or cloud-native environments, lack empirical evidence or theoretical rigor, are not available in full-text format, or are published in non-peer-reviewed outlets such as white papers, blog posts, or technical forums. Additionally, studies with a primary focus on non-container-based orchestration techniques or traditional software development methodologies are excluded from the review.

Ethical Consideration: This research adheres to ethical guidelines for conducting literature reviews and respects the intellectual property rights of authors and publishers. Proper citation and attribution practices are followed to acknowledge the contributions of previous research. Additionally, efforts are made to ensure the accuracy and integrity of the review process by critically evaluating the quality and relevance of selected studies. Confidentiality and anonymity are maintained throughout the data collection and analysis phases, and no personally identifiable information is disclosed without explicit consent. This study also prioritizes transparency and reproducibility by documenting the research methodology and making the review protocol available upon request.

Results and Discussion

1. **Containerization Adoption**: The study found that containerization adoption in cloud-native environments is widespread, with a majority of organizations leveraging containers for application deployment and management. This trend is attributed to the benefits of portability, scalability, and resource efficiency offered by container technologies like Docker and Kubernetes.

2. **DevOps Integration**: One of the key findings indicates a strong integration of DevOps practices with container orchestration tools. Organizations are using DevOps methodologies to streamline development, testing, and deployment processes within containerized environments, resulting in faster delivery cycles and improved collaboration between development and operations teams.

3. **Automation and Orchestration**: Automation and orchestration play a critical role in managing containerized workloads efficiently. The study reveals that organizations are heavily investing in automation tools and frameworks to automate deployment, scaling, and monitoring tasks, thereby reducing manual intervention and enhancing system reliability.

4. **Microservices Architecture**: Another significant finding is the widespread adoption of microservices architecture alongside containerization. Organizations are decomposing monolithic applications into smaller, loosely-coupled microservices, which can be independently developed, deployed, and scaled within containerized environments. This approach enables greater agility and resilience in cloud-native applications.

5. **Challenges and Concerns**: Despite the benefits, the study highlights several challenges and concerns associated with orchestrating containers in cloud-native environments. These include security risks, container sprawl, complexity in managing distributed systems, and the need for upskilling the workforce to effectively utilize containerization and DevOps practices.

6. **Vendor Landscape**: The research identifies a diverse vendor landscape offering container orchestration solutions and supporting technologies. While Kubernetes remains the de facto standard for container orchestration, organizations are also exploring alternative solutions such as Docker Swarm and Mesos, based on their specific requirements and preferences.

7. **Future Directions**: Looking ahead, the study points towards emerging trends such as serverless computing, GitOps, and the convergence of containers and edge computing, which are expected to shape the future of DevOps practices in cloud-native environments. Organizations are likely to continue evolving their strategies to leverage these technologies for improved agility, scalability, and cost-efficiency.

These key findings underscore the growing importance of container orchestration and DevOps practices in enabling organizations to build, deploy, and manage cloud-native applications effectively. By addressing challenges and embracing emerging trends, enterprises can stay competitive in the rapidly evolving landscape of modern software development.

Limitations of the study

1. **Generalizability**: The findings of this study may not be universally applicable to all cloud-native environments due to variations in infrastructure, technology stacks, and organizational contexts. The sample size and scope might not fully represent the diversity within the DevOps practices across different industries and regions.

2. **Temporal Factors**: The study's data collection and analysis were conducted within a specific timeframe, and rapid advancements in cloud-native technologies may have occurred since then. Therefore, the findings might not capture the most current trends and practices in orchestrating containers within DevOps frameworks.

3. **Self-reporting Bias**: The reliance on self-reported data from participants could introduce bias, as respondents might provide socially desirable responses or unintentionally misrepresent their actual practices and experiences.

4. **Measurement Limitations**: The study's measurement tools and metrics might not comprehensively capture the complexity and nuances of DevOps practices in cloud-native environments. Certain aspects of container orchestration and deployment automation may have been overlooked or inadequately assessed.

5. **Contextual Constraints**: The study primarily focused on examining DevOps practices related to container orchestration, potentially overlooking other significant factors influencing cloud-native environments, such as security, compliance, and governance considerations.

6. **Limited Scope of Variables**: While the study explored various aspects of DevOps practices, it may have overlooked certain variables or confounding factors that could influence the

effectiveness and adoption of container orchestration techniques in cloud-native environments.

7. **Sample Representativeness**: The study's sample population may not fully represent the diversity of organizations and practitioners involved in cloud-native development and operations, potentially limiting the generalizability of the findings to broader industry contexts.

8. **Cross-sectional Nature**: The study's cross-sectional design provides a snapshot of DevOps practices at a specific point in time, limiting the ability to assess long-term trends, causal relationships, and the dynamic nature of cloud-native environments over time.

Addressing these limitations in future research endeavors could enhance the robustness and applicability of findings in understanding the evolving landscape of DevOps practices in cloud-native environments.

Conclusion

This review research paper has delved into the intricate ecosystem of container orchestration within cloud-native environments, shedding light on the evolving landscape of DevOps practices. Through meticulous examination of various tools, methodologies, and case studies, it becomes evident that container orchestration not only streamlines deployment processes but also fosters scalability, resilience, and collaboration among development and operations teams.

Furthermore, the analysis underscores the critical role of automation, continuous integration/continuous deployment (CI/CD), and infrastructure as code (IaC) in achieving efficient container orchestration workflows. As organizations increasingly transition towards cloud-native architectures, understanding and implementing robust DevOps practices are imperative for maintaining competitiveness and agility in today's fast-paced digital landscape.

However, amidst the plethora of benefits, challenges such as security, monitoring, and resource optimization persist, warranting ongoing research and innovation in the field. By addressing these challenges and embracing a culture of continuous improvement, businesses can fully harness the potential of container orchestration to drive innovation and deliver value to their customers.

In essence, this review serves as a comprehensive guide for practitioners and researchers alike, offering insights, best practices, and future directions for orchestrating containers effectively in cloud-native environments. As the journey towards digital transformation continues, leveraging the principles and techniques outlined in this paper will undoubtedly empower organizations to navigate the complexities of modern software delivery with confidence and efficiency.

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35 Chapter THE FUTURE OF MULTIDISCIPLINARY RESEARCH: EMERGING TRENDS AND OPPORTUNITIES

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ISBN: 978-93-92917-32-5 | **DOI**: 10.25215/9392917325.35

Abstract:

This paper explores the future of multidisciplinary research, focusing on emerging trends and opportunities. By examining historical developments, current research methodologies, and reviewing relevant literature, this study aims to provide insights into the evolving landscape of multidisciplinary collaboration. Through an analysis of sample sizes, significance, and recommendations, it sheds light on the potential impact of multidisciplinary approaches on addressing complex societal challenges and fostering innovation. Furthermore, this study delves into the role of technology and globalization in shaping the future of multidisciplinary research, highlighting how advancements in digital tools and international collaboration are facilitating interdisciplinary exchange. By considering the dynamic interplay between disciplinary boundaries and the growing complexity of global issues, this research offers a nuanced understanding of the evolving landscape of multidisciplinary collaboration. Through an exploration of emerging fields such as data science, sustainability studies, and bioinformatics, it anticipates the potential synergies and challenges that lie ahead in the pursuit of interdisciplinary knowledge creation.

Introduction:

Multidisciplinary research has gained prominence in recent years as scholars recognize the value of integrating diverse perspectives and expertise to tackle complex problems. This paper explores the future trajectory of multidisciplinary research, highlighting emerging trends and opportunities for collaboration across disciplines. Moreover, the increasing interconnectedness of global issues such as climate change, healthcare disparities, and technological innovation necessitates a multidisciplinary approach for effective problem-solving. This paper endeavours to map out the future trajectory of multidisciplinary research by examining how collaborative efforts across disciplines can lead to innovative solutions and transformative discoveries. By leveraging the complementary strengths of different fields, multidisciplinary research has the potential to address multifaceted challenges in ways that traditional disciplinary approaches cannot. Through an exploration of emerging trends such as team science, open science, and community-engaged research, this study aims to shed light on the evolving nature of collaborative inquiry in the academic landscape. Furthermore, it seeks to identify opportunities for interdisciplinary synergy and knowledge exchange that can drive progress towards addressing pressing societal needs and advancing scientific understanding. Ultimately, by fostering a culture of interdisciplinary collaboration and innovation, the future of multidisciplinary research holds promise for catalyzing positive change and shaping a more sustainable and equitable world.

Historical Background:

The roots of multidisciplinary research can be traced back to early attempts to bridge the gap between different fields of study. From the Renaissance period to the present day, interdisciplinary collaboration has played a pivotal role in driving scientific progress and innovation. During the Renaissance, polymaths like Leonardo da Vinci exemplified the interdisciplinary spirit by

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integrating art, science, and engineering in their work. Since then, the evolution of multidisciplinary research has been fueled by groundbreaking discoveries and paradigm shifts across various domains. From the emergence of systems theory in the mid-20th century to contemporary efforts in transdisciplinary research, the trajectory of interdisciplinary collaboration reflects an ongoing quest to unravel the complexities of the natural world and address societal challenges through holistic inquiry. As we look to the future, the legacy of historical pioneers continues to inspire interdisciplinary scholars to push the boundaries of knowledge and forge new frontiers in collaborative inquiry.

Research Methodology:

This study employs a qualitative research methodology, drawing on a review of relevant literature to identify emerging trends and opportunities in multidisciplinary research. Key themes and patterns are analyzed to provide insights into the future direction of interdisciplinary collaboration. The sample size for this study consists of a diverse range of academic publications, including journal articles, books, and conference papers, spanning various disciplines. By examining a broad spectrum of literature, this study aims to capture the full scope of multidisciplinary research trends.

Objectives of the Study:

1. To identify and analyze emerging trends in multidisciplinary research.
2. To explore the opportunities presented by interdisciplinary collaboration for addressing complex societal challenges.
3. To examine the role of technology and globalization in shaping the future trajectory of multidisciplinary research.

Significance of Study:

Understanding the future of multidisciplinary research is crucial for informing research priorities, funding decisions, and academic policies. By identifying emerging trends and opportunities, this study aims to guide researchers, policymakers, and funding agencies in harnessing the potential of multidisciplinary collaboration to address complex societal challenges.

Findings:

The findings of the study suggest that multidisciplinary research efforts are crucial for addressing complex societal challenges and driving innovation. Through an analysis of historical developments, current research methodologies, and emerging trends, it was evident that interdisciplinary collaboration plays a pivotal role in advancing knowledge and addressing pressing issues. The study identified the role of technology and globalization in shaping the future trajectory of multidisciplinary research, highlighting their influence in facilitating collaboration and knowledge exchange across disciplines and geographical boundaries.

Furthermore, the study revealed the importance of fostering interdisciplinary communication and collaboration, investing in interdisciplinary training programs, and incentivizing interdisciplinary research through funding mechanisms. These recommendations emerged from the recognition that effective collaboration and support structures are essential for maximizing the benefits of multidisciplinary research and translating research findings into actionable solutions for society.

Overall, the findings underscored the significance of multidisciplinary approaches in addressing complex challenges and driving scientific innovation. By embracing interdisciplinary collaboration

and implementing recommended strategies, researchers can enhance the impact and relevance of their work, ultimately contributing to positive societal outcomes.

Conclusion:

In brief, the first objective states that identifying and analyzing emerging trends in multidisciplinary research provides valuable insights into the evolving landscape of collaborative inquiry. By staying abreast of new developments, researchers can adapt their approaches, anticipate future directions, and harness innovative opportunities to address pressing societal challenges effectively.

In conclusion, to the second objective it is noticed that interdisciplinary collaboration offers unparalleled opportunities to tackle complex societal challenges. By integrating diverse perspectives and expertise, multidisciplinary research fosters innovation, enhances problem-solving, and ensures the relevance of solutions across various contexts. Embracing this collaborative approach is essential for driving meaningful impact and building a more resilient and equitable future.

In summary, of the third objective, it helps in examining the role of technology and globalization in shaping the future trajectory of multidisciplinary research underscores their pivotal influence on collaborative inquiry. As technology advances and the world becomes increasingly interconnected, multidisciplinary approaches are poised to thrive, facilitating greater knowledge exchange, collaboration, and innovation across geographical and disciplinary boundaries.

Hence the future of multidisciplinary research holds immense promise for driving scientific innovation and addressing pressing societal challenges. By embracing emerging trends and opportunities, researchers can unlock new avenues for collaboration and make significant strides towards advancing knowledge and improving human well-being.

Recommendations:

Based on the findings of this study, several recommendations are proposed to enhance multidisciplinary research efforts. These include fostering interdisciplinary communication and collaboration, investing in interdisciplinary training programs, and incentivizing interdisciplinary research through funding mechanisms. Furthermore, it is recommended to establish interdisciplinary research centres or institutes to serve as hubs for collaboration and knowledge exchange. Additionally, creating interdisciplinary teams with diverse expertise and perspectives can enrich research endeavors and lead to more comprehensive outcomes. Lastly, promoting a culture of openness and inclusivity within academic and research institutions can further support interdisciplinary collaboration and facilitate the translation of research findings into impactful solutions for society.

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36 Chapter A BRIEF STUDY ON "SPELLING IS CAUGHT AND NOT TAUGHT"

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ISBN: 978-93-92917-32-5 | **DOI**: 10.25215/9392917325.36

Abstract

"The purpose of teaching the future is to diagnose where students are, where they want to be, and provide them with the tools to get there." Educational systems around the world are under increasing pressure to use innovative methodologies and integrate new information and communication technologies in the teaching and learning process to teach in the 21st Century. With emerging new technologies, the teaching profession is evolving from an emphasis on teacher-centered: lecture-based instructions to student centered: interactive learning environments.

Keywords*: Play way, Spelling bees, Spelling races diagnose etc.*

Introduction

In this English is a language which has got varied utilitarian functions. It is being regarded as a global language. In a multilingual nation like India English plays a vital role as a Lingua Franca It is the symbol of people's aspirations for quality in education and further participation in national and international life. It is the world's most widely spoken language. It is the common means of communication between the peoples of different nations. One person out of every four on earth can be reached through English. But the language is not reaching all the corner of the community.

The importance of learning English language has assumed greater dimension in the present context of globalization of information Technology. The search for more knowledge cannot be fully accomplished without being able to listen to and read English . English in the new millennium would further establish itself in India and the other developing countries of the world.

PLAY WAY TECHNIQUES IN THE TEACHING OF SPELLINGS

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The teaching of spellings:

Importance: Spelling is the way of putting the letters together to form words, phrases and sentences to convey certain ideas or meanings. Spelling plays a very prominent role in the process of writing.

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If writing is to be used as an effective tool of communication or expression, accuracy in spelling is a must. One must be able to spell words correctly accord to the conventions of the language. While writing, inaccuracy or inefficiency of spelling may distort the ideas or meanings to be conveyed or expressed ,hence the teaching of spelling requires importance in the English language teaching programme (E.L.T).

Characteristics of Play way techniques:

- ✓ It ensures spontaneous Participation by the pupils.
- ✓ Pupils are self-motivated.
- ✓ It develops interest and curiosity in pupils.
- ✓ It offers freedom to thinking.
- ✓ It is used not as a task or as an assignment.
- ✓ It follows a set of rules common to all.
- ✓ It needs less preparation.

Types:

1. A word is written on the blackboard. Preferably in big letters. The class may be divided into groups and each group is asked to make words starting with any of the letters comprising the main word. The pupils must be insisted to spell the word correctly.
2. The spellings of different words are written on the blackboard with two or three letters of each word missing and the pupils are asked to supply the missing letters. The first group that completes all the words will be winners
3. Divide the class into two groups. Pupils from first group give a letter of the alphabet. The first pupil from the other group. The second pupil from the first group gives a third letter. This process is continued until the word is completed. The group which completes the word gets the score.
4. The teacher writes one word on the blackboard and the pupils are asked to write as many words as they can frame by using any of the letters in that word. The pupil or the teacher writing the largest number of words will be the winner. For example t/e/a/c/h/e/r.
5. The teacher writes suffixes or prefixes on the blackboard-un, disc, ness, ion etc. Asking the pupils to give words, using the suffixes or prefixes mentioned. The pupil or the teacher that gives the maximum number of words with prefixes and suffixes will be rewarded.
6. Some objects on one side and a few flash cards bearing the names of those objects on the other side placed before the students. The pupils are divided into two groups each pupil will be given a number. The teacher may call the student bearing number five for example in each group and asks them to place the appropriate flash card on any one of the objects. If the pupils do it correctly his team scores a point.
7. The class may be divided into two groups. One group suggests a word. The other group has to give a word, starting with the final letter of the word suggested by the first group. The first group again has to construct a word starting with the final letter of the word given by the second group. In this way the game is continued. Here the main emphasis will be on spelling and pronunciation.
8. The teacher may write same previously learned words on the blackboard with disorganized spelling. Group will be asked to reorganize the letters with correct spelling (arrangement test)
9. The class will be asked to learn the spellings of about a dozen of those words on the blackboard some miss pelt and others correctly spelt. Teacher will call the pupils one by one to encircle the correctly spell words only.

10. A few words may be written on the blackboards. The students are asked to observe the spellings of those words for two minutes. Then the words are removed, and the groups are asked to spell the words correctly. The group which wins to be rewarded
11. Sentence building for the pupils of higher classes. There the teacher gives a word, and the students should make a sentence using each letter of the word as the first letter of the words in a sentence.

Example-High ----- He is going home.

Heal------ He eats a lot!

Shoes----- Sending him out every Sunday etc

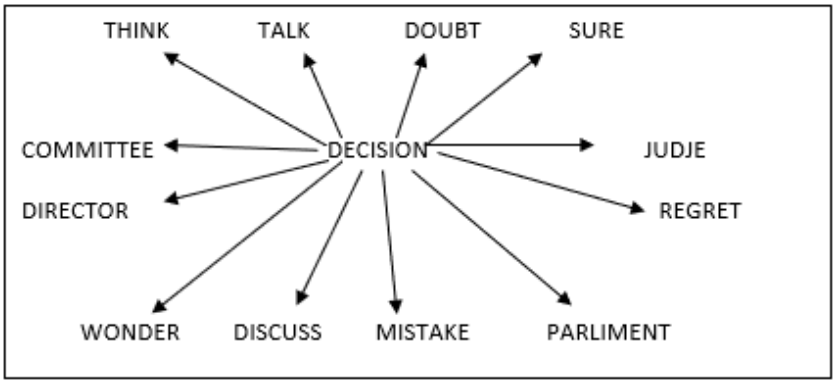
12. Language Cricket.

Played with two teams the batsman from one team faces the fielding team. The latter bowls from a word for which the batsman should have the correct meaning with correct spelling. If the latter can give the right spelling and meanings of the word, he scores a run and proceeds further. If the answer is wrong, he is out. Another batsman takes up the position so that game goes on.

BRAINSTROM ROUND A WORD

Vocabulary review and enrichment

Procedure: Take a word the class has recently learnt and ask the students to suggest all the words they with it. Write each suggestion in the board with a line joining it to the original word, in a circle, so that you get a sunray effect. If the original word was 'decision', for example, you might get:



"Play way" techniques in teaching spelling involve incorporating playful and interactive activities to make learning engaging and effective. Some examples include word games, spelling bees,scavenger hunts for words,spelling races and using multimedia resources like videos and interactive apps.These methods make learning spelling enjoyable and help reinforce retention through active participation.

Spelling bees are competitions where participants tasked with spelling words correctly. They are often seen as educational events that promote vocabulary and spelling skills.

Spelling races might refer to competitive activities where individuals or teams race against each other to spell words correctly within a certain time frame.These races could involve various

formats,such as relay races or timed challenges.They are a fun and engaging way to test spelling skills under pressure.

Word games: These encompass a wide range of activities that involve manipulating letters and words to solve puzzles or challenges. They can include classics like Scrabble and Boggle ,as well as digital games like words with friends and online crossword puzzles. Word games are not only entertaining but also help improve vocabulary, spelling and cognitive skills.

Practice Exercise English Spellings (Tongue Twister)

Pronunciation Procedure.

Write a tongue twister on the board and read it with the students slowly at first then faster. Make sure the students pronunciation is acceptable. Then individual volunteers try to say it quickly three tomes. Here for some examples of tongue twisters.

OOT	OHT	AWT	AAT	ATE	EET
OOB	OHB	AWB	AAB	ABE	EEB
OOD	OHD	AWD	AAD	ADE	EED
OOF	OHF	AWF	AAF	AFE	EEF
OOG	OHG	AWG	AAG	AGE	EEG
OOJ	OHJ	AWJ	AAJ	AJE	EEJ
OOK	OHK	AWK	AAK	AKE	EEK
OOL	OHL	AWL	AAL	ALE	EEL
OOM	OHM	AWM	AAM	AME	EEM
OON	OHN	AWN	AAN	ANE	EEN
OOP	OHP	AWP	AAP	APE	EEP
OOR	OHR	AWR	AAR	ARE	EER
OOS	OHS	AWS	AAS	ASE	EES
OOSH	OHSH	AWSH	AASH	ATSH	EESH
OOV	OHV	AWV	AAV	AVE	EEV
OOZ	OHZ	AWZ	AAZ	AZE	EEZ
OOZH	OHZH	AWZH	AAZH	AZHE	EEZH

CONCLUSION:

” Educational systems around the world are under increasing pressure to use innovative methodologies and integrate new information and communication technologies in the teaching and learning process to teach in the 21st Century. Spelling is a sensory motor habit acquired by repeated practice. The aim of spelling instruction should be to make the spellings of familiar words become largely automatic. Another aim of teaching spelling is to develop spelling sense among the students i.e. awareness and desire to spell words correctly.

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37 Chapter IMPACT OF MANAGEMENT MEASURES ON THE SUSTAINABILITY OF NGOS: A STUDY IN THE NELLORE DISTRICT OF ANDHRA PRADESH

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ISBN: 978-93-92917-32-5 | **DOI**: 10.25215/9392917325.37

Abstract

Globalization during the 21st century gave rise to an emphasis on Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs). NGOs have occupied an important place in India in the welfare sector. They have emphasized humanitarian issues, developmental aid, and sustainable development, empowering women and weaker sections, and protecting the rights of marginalized segments and the environment. In this context, more research is needed to have better knowledge of management techniques adopted by NGOs. Management measures such as financial, organizational, and community support and engagement play pivotal roles in achieving sustainability in NGO management.

A study has been carried out by a researcher on NGOs at Nellore with a few objectives to understand stakeholder dynamics at the organizational and intra-sectoral levels; including data gathering, cooperation, organizational structure, training, and evaluation on how they are managing sustainable development. The data was gathered from a sample of 40 NGOs in the study area through an interview schedule. An attempt has been made to know the management methodology adopted in NGOs. The data analysis has been done based on the results regarding the essential elements of total quality management such as continuous improvement, involvement of people, focus on the stakeholder, use of quantitative methods, leadership, the quality of information and analysis, quality planning, human resource utilization, quality assurance of products and welfare services, quality results, stakeholders satisfaction, etc. were analyzed. On the whole, the management measures practiced by NGOs are satisfactory in some areas; and poor in some aspects. The study revealed that NGOs s have to adopt management measures like financial management, organizational practices, and community engagement and practice more appropriately to achieve sustainable development.

Keywords: *Sustainable development, NGOs, Management measures*

Introduction:

The term 'NGO' has been primarily associated with poverty reduction efforts, social services, human rights, and environmental work. Research on NGOs and non - governmental public action more widely lies at the cutting edge of a social science research engagement with issues of contemporary social, economic, and political change in both industrialized countries and the developing world. "Public action by and in support of disadvantaged people undertaken by NGOs and arrange of other non-governmental actors is an increasingly important aspect of social and economic change at local, national and International levels." (Lewis, 2001).

NGOs have come to occupy an important place in India, the spread of NGO activities in the country, as in many other parts of the world manifests in several spheres and a wide spectrum of programs

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in health programs, development-oriented initiatives, empowering women and weaker sections, protecting the rights of marginalized segments, protecting the environment, spreading literacy and education are few. The participation of the NGO sector has been impressive, particularly since independence, there is a high degree of diversity and heterogeneity in the activities as well.

India witnessed an increase in the number of NGOs since independence. A corresponding increase in the volume of activity was also evident during the post-independence period. According to one estimate, there are 1 million NGOs in the country (Jain, 1997). The research is needed to have better knowledge of stakeholder dynamics at the organizational and intra-sectoral levels including management, funding, governance, and staffing. Because of the growing reliance on nongovernmental action by policymakers, concerns about accountability and performance. The contemporary scenario of NGOs in India presents a mixed picture. There has been a notable rise in the number of NGOs and their activities, particularly since the 1980s. Lack of a proper database the NGOs number is estimated to be in the region of 25,000 to 30,000. (Soorya Moorthy and Gangrade, 2001),

Further, the growth of the NGOs in India is geographically not uniform, as the bigger states like Uttar Pradesh and Madhya Pradesh have a much lower NGO presence than others in the South and West. The NGOs perform different roles as advocates, educators, catalysts, monitors, whistle-blowers, mediators, lobbyists, activists, mobilizers, etc. to safeguard the public interest. NGO sustainability involves creating, nurturing, and sustaining people's institutions at various levels i.e. village, cluster, and project levels. The pressure of quality development and management places many social work institutions that force them to formalize their internal organizational structures. From this perspective, quality management would seem to be an integral organizational control of work processes and workouts. Two levels of quality management have to be distinguished here. The technological level processes and outcomes and outcomes of organization activity should be formalized evaluated and when necessary modified. "Quality management concepts integrate both forums of authority to secure inner originations control" (Snehalatha, 2007). Two management trends are particularly relevant to NGOs; diversity management and participatory management. Diversity management deals with different cultures in an organization. The participatory management style is said to be typical of NGOs. It is intricately tied to the concept of a learning organization all people in the organization are perceived as a source of knowledge and skills to develop the organization, individually have to contribute in the decision-making process and they need to learn Shaik (2008). Good governance is a necessary component of the success of any institution. In light of the above facts, the researcher conducted a study entitled "Impact of Management Measures on Sustainability of NGOs – A study in Nellore District of Andhra Pradesh" with few objectives.

Objectives of the study

- To know about the programs implemented by the NGOs
- To understand the technical strengths of the NGOs and their staff.
- To obtain the opinion of respondents regarding the functioning of Boards
- To assess the communication patterns adopted by the NGOs
- To understand the human resource & financial management practices adopted by NGOs.
- To study the local collaboration patterns adopted for the implementation of the programs.

Study Area

Nellore also known as Vikrama Simhapuri, and has great importance as the Potti Sriramulu (who fasted to death for the formation of Andhra State within the Indian union) was from Nellore. Nellore

is famous for rice and aquaculture and also for the SHAR rocket Launching center at Sriharikota, Kristanapatnam port, Nelapattu Bird's Sanctuary, etc. Nellore district comprises 4 revenue divisions namely Atmakuru, Kavali, Nellore, and Kandukur with 38 revenue mandals, 3 municipalities, and 1 municipal corporation. Nellore district is well connected with roads and rail to various parts of the country.

The population of the district is 27 lakhs among them males are 13.45 lakhs, females 13.23 lacks. The welfare programs such as education, health, etc initiated by the Venkatagiri Rajas (rulers), and some charity and religious organizations also played a significant role in the implementation of various welfare programs in general and special welfare programs at the time of disaster or natural calamities. Nellore is a rural district, which was stepped up towards an educationally and industrially advancing district. This may have caused for so many social problems, and ecological and infrastructural problems, which are the main hurdles in the implementation of welfare, and developmental programs. Here there is a lot of scope for NGOs based on charity, voluntary to provide welfare support for the needy people. During the year early nineties registration of NGOs started at Nellore and gradually the number of NGOs increased, now they are very enthusiastically functioning with a definite vision and mission. In this regard, the researcher found Nellore is appropriate to carry out the study

Methodology:

There are thousands of registered NGOs among them hundreds of NGOs are actively involved in implementing the programmes. The researcher with the help of a simple random sampling method selected 40 NGOs from the list of NEDCSON (Nellore District Civil Societies Organization Network). The researcher by taking prior permission from them, the researcher collected data from the head of the agency by explaining the purpose of data collection through a well-structured interview schedule.

Analysis of Data:

The collected data was analyzed after proper coding and editing. Then percentages were calculated and tabulated. The results of the study are presented in tabular as well as in graphical form for a better understanding of the results. The results are discussed in the following paragraphs.

Result and Discussions

There is a strong relationship between the programmes implemented techniques, and methods adopted by an NGO and its establishment. In this regard, the researcher enquired about the establishment of NGOs, which were included, in the study. The study revealed that 32.5 percent of the NGOs were established between1995-2000, 17.5 percent of the NGOs were established between 2000- 2005, 15 percent were started between 1985-2000, and less 10 percent were started before 1984.

It is essential to know to what extent the NGO programs cater to the real needs of the community or constituency of services. In this regard, the researcher enquired about the services rendered by the NGOs. At this NGOs stated a huge list of services at a time many organizations are multiple programmed. Out of 40 NGOs, 37.5 percent of NGOs are providing women empowerment and HIV/AIDS services respectively, followed by 32.5 percent of NGOs working on self-help groups, and microfinance. 20 percent are organizing environmental protection programs. 17.5 percent are advocating for the child rights and health, 15 percent are engaged in extending services in poverty eradication and SCs/STs, nearly 10 percent functioning on education promotion, legal literacy,

superstitions, etc. and less 5 percent each are working on Mutually Aided Cooperative Credit societies (MACs), vocational training, human rights, Matamma's system etc.

To know the best practices adopted by NGOs, the researcher enquired about Whether NGO personnel are well equipped with educational and technical knowledge or not, as they are the best resources to distribute /disseminate the services. The study results found that among the staff employed in the sample NGOs, 30.7 percent were educated up to intermediate, followed by 28.2 percent were, graduates and professionals, 27 percent with 10th class qualification, and less 14 percent of the NGOs staff were post-graduates.

Technical and humanitarian orientation is a very important component for NGO personnel. The researcher attempted to know the NGOs' expectations on their staff technical and humanitarian orientation, a little above half i.e. 52 percent of the organizations expect the personnel must have knowledge on technical issues followed by, 27 percent of the NGOs expecting their staff to have knowledge on technical issues as well as on social welfare administration. The remaining, 21 percent expect a holistic knowledge of issues such as technical, and social welfare administration along with a humanitarian attitude.

A participatory management style is said to be typical of NGOs. It is intricately tied to the concepts of a learning organization; all people within the organization are perceived as sources of knowledge and skills. The result of the study disclosed that a little above two-fifths of the NGO personnel have moderate knowledge of the vision and mission of the organization, followed by 35 percent having good knowledge and 22.5 percent having low knowledge of the vision and mission of the agency.

Regarding governance and boards of NGOs, the study expressed that nearly half of the board members do not have any professional experience in social services; whereas many of them have with agricultural background. Nearly half of the respondents i.e. 50 percent are not fully aware of the responsibilities of the board members and that the meetings are conducted on an issue-based and as well as periodically and the same percent expressed that the board members were influencing funding, and program implementation

The result of the study disclosed that 60 percent of the NGOs are rendering services to needy people with government financial support. Followed by 30 percent of the NGOs are getting funds from other than government organizations for their activities, and less 10 percent of the NGOs are not having any government support for their activities, they are rendering the services on their resources. Regarding the sources of funding to NGOs, the study revealed that 75 percent of the NGOs are receiving financial aid from state government departments. Followed by 15 percent of the NGOs are getting funds from different departments of the central government, and the remaining 10 percent of the NGOs are getting their financial support from the public i.e. charities, religious institutes, etc.

To develop the organization, individuals are to be able to contribute to the decision-making process and they need to learn. The result of the study disclosed that almost all the NGOs opined that 100 percent of their staff have sufficient skills in performing activities. Further, the result of the study stated that 60 percent of the NGOs are providing training to their staff members to enhance their capacities to carry out their activities and create proper awareness of their programs and the remaining 40 percent of the NGOs are not providing training to equip with updated knowledge and skills among their staff members. The study revealed that 45 percent of the NGOs have one staff member with a social work background, followed by 28percent of the NGOs are having 2 staff members with a social work background and the remaining 27 percent of the NGOs do not have a social work background staff for their better implementation of the programs.

The result of the study disclosed that 100 percent of the NGOs felt that there is good public participation in their activities. It is based on the NGO's response only, but the information received by key informers reveals that the involvement of the public in programs is not up to the mark. There is a lot of gap in this regard further issues other than self-help groups (Microfinance) and financial programs, the participation and involvement of the public is less. The study results explain that nearly half ie.55 percent of the NGOs are not facing any problems in mobilizing the public in their activities and the remaining 45 percent of the NGOs have been facing difficulties in mobilizing the people in developmental activities. However, those stated that (45%) are facing difficulties such as political interference, caste affiliation, etc. Regarding public awareness of NGO programs, the result of the study revealed that 60 percent of the NGOs think that the public should have good knowledge of the NGO's activities and 25 percent opined that the public does not have sufficient knowledge of activities of NGOs that is about the type of services rendered to the public and remaining 15 percent of the NGOs felt that the public to have moderate knowledge on NGOs activities.

The NGOs must have some specified knowledge and experience in dealing with contemporary issues in society (table no:1). In this regard the result of the study disclosed that 60 percent of the NGOs have experience working at the time of natural calamities such as tsunamis, floods, etc. in Nellore and 40 percent of the NGOs don't have an experience of disaster management. The study revealed that 70 percent of the NGOs had initiated in taking social actions on issues like Dowry, Matamma's system, Alcohol, Superstitious beliefs, etc. and 30 percent of the NGOs are not involved in any social action-oriented activities. The result of the study disclosed that 55 percent of the NGOs (in the sample) have worked against casteism and 45 percent of the NGOs stated that they didn't carry out such type of activities. The study result stated that 62.5 percent of the NGOs have been working for child welfare and 37.5 percent of the NGOs are not carrying out any activities regarding child welfare.

An attempt has been made to know the adopted methodology of total quality management of NGOs. The study results regarding the essential elements of any total quality management such as continuous improvement, involvement of people, focus on the stakeholder, use of quantitative methods, leadership, the quality of information and analysis, quality planning, human resource utilization, quality assurance of products and welfare services, quality results, stakeholders satisfaction, etc were analyzed. The study results regarding the essential elements of TQM were measured as Poor/ Average /Good. The practices adopted by NGOs are: Continuous improvement is average, Involvement of people in welfare activities is good, and Focus on the stakeholder is average(based on the scheme). Further, the study revealed that the use of quantitative methods is poor and the quality of information analysis, and planning adopted by NGOs is poor. The utilization of human resources is poor and the Quality assurance of products and welfare services rendered by NGOs is average. Stakeholder satisfaction is average; On the whole, the measures practiced by NGOs are satisfactory in some areas; and poor in some aspects. The results revealed that the sustainability of NGOs is influenced by factors like financial management, organizational practices, and community participation and support along with other factors(Fig 2). The study revealed mixed perceptions of the factors impacting the NGO's sustainability. Hence the NGOs have to practice these for the long run updating with the required training and inputs for its stakeholders for Sustainability.

Recommendations

- The study revealed that the NGOs have to adopt management measures more appropriately to achieve sustainable development. In this context, some Recommendations were provided to NGOs

- To minimize the managerial discourse, which is presently dominating the NGO sector, and to take initiatives to be more supportive of stakeholders.
- Performance measurement and review meetings should be organized systematically.
- NGOs have to provide continuous training and skill enhancement programs to their staff.
- NGOs have to adopt a participatory approach by motivating the public to participate in the Planning and implementation of the program.

Table No: 1 -NGOs Distribution according to their expectations regarding Knowledge of the Staff

Knowledge/skill	Category	Percentage of NGO staff possessing
Computer Knowledge Financial management Experience in preparing project proposals Professional Knowledge	Knowledge on technical issues	57%
Knowledge on Legal system Knowledge on welfare programmes Social awareness and sensibility	Social and welfare knowledge	80%
Understanding capabilities Service orientation Humanitarian Nature	Humanitarian attitude	60%

Fig 2: Measures required for sustainable development:

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₹ 1000/-

ISBN 978-93-92917-32-5

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6

(m,n)-Type Holographic Dark Energy Cosmological Model in $f(R,G)$ Gravity

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Abstract
Existing investigations dedicated to the self-propelling investigation of (m,n)– Type HDE cosmological model within the circumstance of theory of gravity with Lagrangian be the impulsive function of Ricci scalar R and Gauss-Bonnet invariant G , say $f(R,G)$ gravity. Exact solutions of the field equations correspond to power law which provides singular model. Also some physical and kinematical aspects and its behavior with the present day universe of the cosmological model have been discussed.

Keywords:- (m,n)– *Type HDE,* $f(R,G)$ *Gravity, Bianchi Type-I line element.*

1. Introduction

Dark Energy (DE) is a speculative type of energy that applies a negative, horrendous strain, acting like something contrary to gravity. It has been guessed to represent the observational properties of far off kind Ia supernovae, which show the universe going through a speed up time of development [1-6]. DE is an extraordinary type of energy that saturates all of room and will in general expand the pace of extension of the universe. There are normally two different ways for displaying the DE, initial a specific parametrization and second changes of gravity at extremely huge scope. To find the DE condition of state from observational information there are three significant ways which are tackling the scalar field conditions, constructing a useful structure for condition of state boundary, and playing out a boundary free methodology. Contrasting the new observational information and different models of DE. The vacuum energy thickness and a dynamical scalar field are two significant possibilities for DE. Thus, the condition equation of state (EoS) related with the vacuum energy thickness is consistent and is an element of time in conventional core situations [7-9]. Number of researchers and Authors studied another form of DE called the Holographic Dark Energy (HDE). HDE models depend on a field hypothetical connection between shorts in the bright and in the infrared energy domains. Various decisions of the infrared end lead to various models and also found that the thickness of the Universe is autonomous of space shape [10-11]. [12] Laid out a correspondence between the HDE models with the quintessence scalar field DE models in the Bianchi Type-V universe. Core potential and the elements of the quintessence scalar field are recreated for this anisotropic speeding up model of the universe. studied [13-19] minimally interacting and five dimensional HDE models. Some of the authors [20-25] discussed the dynamics, cosmic evolution and consequences of HDE models of the Universe with reference to different theories of the cosmic Universe. Signature flipping of isotropic homogeneous space-time with HDE in $f(G)$ gravity concentrated by [26] and [27]got another class of HDE models in LRS Bianchi Type-I. Also there are different forms of HDE models like Tsallis HDE and Barrow HDE models that had investigated [28-29].

So by above discussion of DE and HDE here in this context we have consider a (m,n)-Type HDE cosmological models having its kinematical and physical sense which gives a agegraphic-like DE models [30-31]. For this (m,n)-Type HDE cosmological models here we have consider a modified gravity theory to explaining the behavior of the present day universe.As, there are so many modification of action in General Relativity (GR) are obtained, such as $f(R), f(R,T), f(G), f(R,G), f(T), f(T,B)$ etc. These reasonably different modified theories are an endeavor to construct a semi-classical theme within which GR and most of its self-made options are often recovered. An undemanding and one of the best modification to GR is that the $f(R,G)$ theory of gravity, which is the function of Ricci-scalar (R) and Gauss-Bonnet gravity (G) [32].

Till now several models of $f(R,G)$ theory are planned. Described [33] energy bounds in $f(R,G)$ gravity theory while [34] investigated the dynamics of inflation and DE model of the Universe. Later on [35] devoted to the thermo-dynamical aspects of relativistic hydrodynamics in $f(R,G)$ gravity and also [36] constructed a time varying deceleration parameter model in the $f(R,G)$ gravity theory.

With reference to above discussion and extension in the area of cosmology our article is organized as follows:

In Section 2, we present the $f(R,G)$ gravity and cosmology basics. The metric solutions of a particular $f(R,G)$ model are presented in Section 3 with the special; form of HDE called (m,n)-Type HDE. The physical and kinematical behavior of the model with the (m,n)-Type HDE, are done in Section 4. The concluding remarks are given in Section 5.

2. Metric and $f(R,G)$ gravity

We consider a LRS Bianchi Type-I space-time of the form

$$ds^2 = dt^2 - A^2dx^2 - B^2(dy^2 + dz^2), \tag{2.1}$$

where, A and B are the potential functions of cosmic time t only.

So many authors [37-39] contemplated the above said model because of its physical importance that it's solid and anisotropic, from which the method of isotropization of the universe is studied through the passage of time conjointly play a significant role in understanding and outline of the first stages evolution of the universe. Therefore, the model devouring anisotropic background that approaches to property at late times is a lot of correct for the outline of entire evolution of the universe.

The $f(R,G)$ gravity is a fascinating addition to Einstein's theory of gravity. The action that applies to this gravity the most generally is

$$S = \frac{1}{2k}\int d^4x\sqrt{-g}\left\{R + f(G) + S_M(g^{ij},\phi)\right\}, \tag{2.2}$$

where , g is the metric determinant, $S_M(g^{ij},\phi)$ is the matter action, $k = 16\pi^2G^2$ R is the Ricci Scalar and G is the Gauss-Bonnet invariant defined by:

$$G = R^2 - 4R_{rs}R^{rs} + R_{rs\alpha\beta}R^{rs\alpha\beta}, \tag{2.3}$$

Where the notations R_{rs} and $R_{rs\alpha\beta}$ are occupied for the Ricci and Riemann tensor respectively. Variation of standard action (2.2) with respect to metric (2.1) gives the following gravitational field equation:

$$R_{\alpha\beta}-\frac{1}{2}g_{\alpha\beta}R=kT_{\alpha\beta}^{mat}+\Sigma_{\alpha\beta},$$

$$Where,\Sigma_{\alpha\beta},=\begin{bmatrix}\nabla_\alpha\nabla_\beta f_R-g_{\alpha\beta}\Xi f_R+2R\nabla_\alpha\nabla_\beta f_G-2g_{\alpha\beta}\Xi f f_G-4R_\alpha^\lambda\nabla_\lambda\nabla_\beta f_G\\-4R_\beta^\lambda\nabla_\lambda\nabla_\alpha f_G+\Xi_{\alpha\beta}f_G+4g_{\alpha\beta}R^{\alpha\beta}\nabla_\alpha\nabla_\beta f_G\\+4g_{\alpha\beta}R^{rs}\nabla_r\nabla_s f_G.4R_{\alpha rs\beta}\nabla^r\nabla^s f_G\\-\frac{1}{2}g_{\alpha\beta}\left(f_RR+f_GG-f(R,G)\right)+\left(1-f_R\right)\left(R_{\alpha\beta}-\frac{1}{2}g_{\alpha\beta}R\right)\end{bmatrix}\tag{2.4}$$

Here, ∇_α represents the covariant derivative.

$f_R\equiv\frac{\partial}{\partial R}f(R,G)$ And $f_G\equiv\frac{\partial}{\partial G}f(R,G)$ gives the partial derivatives of $f(R,G)$ with respect to R and G respectively.

In this work, we use some kinematical and physical quantities toward the solution of field equations and the behavior of the cosmos by $f(R,G)$ gravity model of the form:

$$f(R,G)=f_0R^{\tau-1}G^{-\tau}.\tag{2.5}$$

Where, $f_0>0$ be constant.

For the values of constant τ, two types of gravity models are recovered:

I) $f(R)$ gravity model corresponding to $f_0=1,\tau=0$ and

II) $f(G)$ gravity model corresponding to $f_0=1,\tau=1$.

The energy momentum tensor for dark matter (DM) and HDE is taken as,

$$T_{ij}=\rho_{matt}u_iu_j+\left(\rho_{de}+p_{de}\right)u_iu_j+p_{de}g_{ij}.\tag{2.6}$$

Here, ρ_{matt} is the matter density of DM, ρ_{de} being the energy density and p_{de} is the pressure. Modern cosmology is concerned with a key question: where did DE come from Holographic dark energy (HDE) model is one of the many solutions that have been suggested to tackle this complex puzzle [40].

3. Field Equations and Solutions of (m,n) Type HDE Model

In the extent of HDE source given in equation (2.6), the field equations (2.4) corresponding to the metric (2.1) lead to the following set of linearly independent differential equations of the form:

$$\left\{\left[\frac{\dot{A}}{A}+2\frac{\dot{B}}{B}\right]\dot{f}_R-12\frac{\dot{A}}{A}\frac{\dot{B}^2}{B^2}\dot{f}_G+\frac{1}{2}\left(Rf_R+Gf_G-f\right)+\left[2\frac{\dot{A}}{A}\frac{\dot{B}}{B}+\frac{\dot{B}^2}{B^2}\right]f_R\right\}=\rho_{matt}+\rho_{de}\tag{3.1}$$

$$\left\{-\ddot{f}_R-2\frac{\ddot{B}}{B}\dot{f}_R+8\frac{\dot{B}}{B}\frac{\ddot{B}}{B}\dot{f}_G+4\frac{\dot{B}^2}{B^2}\ddot{f}_G-\frac{1}{2}\left(Rf_R+Gf_G-f\right)+\left[2\frac{\ddot{B}}{B}+\frac{\dot{B}^2}{B^2}\right]f_R\right\}=p_{de}\tag{3.2}$$

$$\left\{\begin{array}{l}-\ddot{f}_R-\left[\frac{\dot{A}}{A}+\frac{\dot{B}}{B}\right]\dot{f}_R+4\left[\frac{\dot{B}}{B}\frac{\ddot{B}}{B}+\frac{\dot{B}}{B}\frac{\ddot{A}}{A}\right]\dot{f}_G+4\frac{\dot{A}}{A}\frac{\dot{B}}{B}\ddot{f}_G-\frac{1}{2}\left(Rf_R+Gf_G-f\right)\\+\left[\frac{\ddot{A}}{A}+\frac{\ddot{B}}{B}+\frac{\dot{A}}{A}\frac{\dot{B}}{B}\right]f_R\end{array}\right\}=p_{de}\tag{3.3}$$

Here, A, B are the potential functions of cosmic time and the overhead dot denotes the derivative with respect to cosmic time. We have expressed the above field equations from (3.1) to (3.3) into $f(R,G)$ gravity form. Also we've chosen to frame the cosmological model in this

instance using an assumed scale factor. Additionally, we must ascertain the pressure, matter density and energy density with respect to cosmic time in order to frame a cosmological model of the universe. We adopt the power law form of the scaling factor, $a=\eta^{1/3}(t)^{\frac{\gamma}{3}}$ to handle the extremely non-linear Eqs. (3.1) and (3.3). The use of such a scale factor was made to replicate the change from a decelerating to an accelerating expansion of the universe. To get the formulas for the pressure, matter density and energy density in terms of cosmic time, this can be substituted in Eqs. (3.1)– (3.3). We find that the matter density, energy density and pressure have complicated expressions, so we choose to display them graphically. These special cases that we have discussed in the form of (m,n)-Type HDE models and that have been mentioned in the following section.

(m,n)-Type H.D.E: -

The idea of (m,n)-Type HDE is the extension of HDE with the parameters m and n with the chosen IR cut-off as

$$L=\frac{1}{a^m(t)}\int_0^t a^n(t')dt'. \tag{3.4}$$

Specifically, for a few explicit upsides of (m,n) the condition of state can normally develop cross ghost split even without presenting cooperation among DE and dark matter (DM). Additionally when (m,n) take some particular worth all the age graphic-like DE models can be recuperated. This development is likewise relevant to the models with summed up future occasion skyline as the holographic size in a similar soul. For age-like holographic models, when $m=n$ it appears to be that DE has a similar way of behaving as the prevailing fixing in the early epochs of the universe which infer that DE may be bound together with DM. In any case, we need to acquaint some component with make DE go amiss from DM state, and at last become predominant and be answerable for the speed increase of the universe.

Now for the construction of (m,n)-Type HDE models we define the energy density [41-43] as

$$\rho_{de}=\frac{3b^2}{L^2}, \tag{3.5}$$

here b is treating as a constant and L is given by (3.4).

Now let us define the different kinematical parameters of the model which help us to describe the characteristics of the universe in the following ways.

The spatial volume and average scale factor severally outline as

$$V=\sqrt{-g}=AB^2 \tag{3.6}$$

$$a=V^{1/3} so, a=\left(AB^2\right)^{1/3} \tag{3.7}$$

The special law of variation of Hubble's parameter which yields a constant value of deceleration parameter of the universe, according to Berman's law:

$$q=\frac{d}{dt}\left(\frac{1}{H}\right)-1 \tag{3.8}$$

The generalized mean Hubble parameter that expresses the enlargement rate of the reference frame, is given as

$$H=\frac{\dot{a}}{a} \tag{3.9}$$

Where, a is the average scale factor which is given by:

$$a=\eta^{1/3}(t)^{\frac{\gamma}{3}} \tag{3.10}$$

The use of such a scale factor (3.10) was made to replicate the change from a decelerating to an accelerating expansion of the universe. Due to this importance many candidates [44-49] have used this model to express their finding in this concept.
From equations (3.7) and (3.10), the metric potential comes out to be and we take $A = B^{\xi}; \xi \neq 0$ with this we get the values of A and B as follows:

$$A = \eta_2^{\xi}(t)^{\frac{3\xi}{\gamma(\xi+2)}} \tag{3.11}$$

$$B = \eta_2(t)^{\frac{3}{\gamma(\xi+2)}} \tag{3.12}$$

With the help of (3.11-3.12) spatially homogeneous and anisotropic locally rotationally symmetric Bianchi type-I cosmological model with (m,n)-Type HDE source within the framework of $f(R,G)$ theory of gravity becomes:

$$ds^2 = dt^2 - \left[\eta_2^{\xi}(t)^{\frac{3\xi}{\gamma(\xi+2)}}\right]^2 dx^2 - \left[\eta_2(t)^{\frac{3}{\gamma(\xi+2)}}\right]^2 \left(dy^2 + dz^2\right) \tag{3.13}$$

4. Physical and Kinematical Properties of the Model

The Ricci Scalar and Gauss-Bonnet Invariant G with the values of metric potentials (3.11) and (3.12) for the model (2.1) is written in the following way:

$$R = \frac{-6\left[3\xi^2 - \gamma\xi + (\xi+2)^2 + 6\xi + 9\right]}{\gamma^2(\xi+2)^2(t^2)} \tag{4.1}$$

and

$$G = \frac{648\left[\xi - \gamma(\xi+2) + 2\right]}{\gamma^4(\xi+2)^4(t^4)} \tag{4.2}$$

As we have constructed our model on the basis of $f(R,G)$ gravity theory and hence both R and G behaves with the same properties for the resulting model by choosing the power law of the form $a = \eta^{1/3}(t)^{\frac{\gamma}{3}}$. The Figure 1 shows that how both R and G behaves with the given power law model.

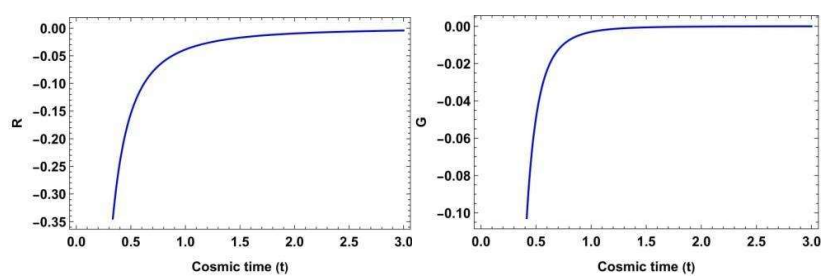

Figure 1 Behavior of Ricci Curvature and Gauss-Bonnet versus cosmic time with the appropriate choice of constants $\gamma = 14.2$ and $\xi = 2.1$.

Calculated energy density of the (m,n)-Type HDE model by using the potential functions (3.11) and (3.12) utilizing (3.4-3.5) is as:

$$\rho_{de} = \left[\frac{b^2}{3(\gamma\, n+3)^2}\right] \eta^{\frac{2(m-n)}{3}} (t)^{\frac{2}{3}[\gamma(m-n)-3]} \tag{4.3}$$

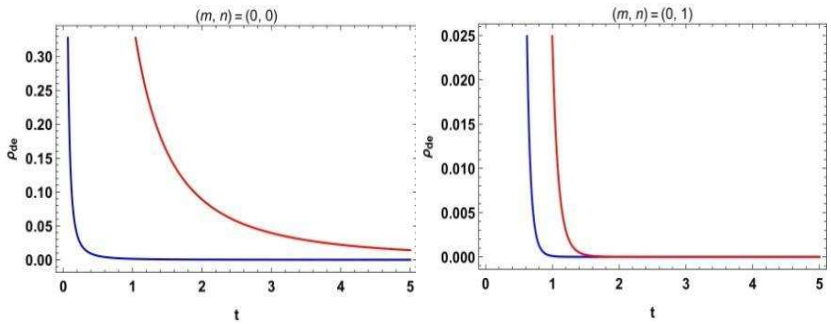

Figure 2 Behavior of energy density of (m,n)-Type HDE versus cosmic time with the appropriate pair respectively as $(m,n)=(0,0),(0,1)$ and choice of constants $\gamma = 14.2, b = 3.1$ & 0.2.

Utilizing (4.3) in (3.1) having the potential functions given by (3.11) and (3.12) the (m,n)-Type matter energy density of the modelis found out as:

$$\rho_{matt} = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} f_0 \left[\begin{array}{l} \dfrac{3(\tau-1)}{\gamma\, t}\left\{-\tau\dfrac{\dot{G}}{G}+(\tau-2)\dfrac{\dot{R}}{R}\right\} \\ +\dfrac{324\,\tau\,\xi}{\gamma^3(\xi+2)^3(t^3)}\left\{-(\tau+1)\dfrac{R\dot{G}}{G^2}+(\tau-1)\dfrac{\dot{R}}{G}\right\} \\ -R+\left\{\dfrac{(\tau-1)(18\xi+9)}{\gamma^2(\xi+2)^2}\right\} \end{array} \right] \dfrac{R^{\tau-1}}{G^{\tau}} \\ -\left[\dfrac{b^2}{3(\gamma\, n+3)^2}\right]\eta^{\frac{2(m-n)}{3}}\,(t)^{\frac{2}{3}[\gamma(m-n)-3]} \end{array} \right\} \tag{4.4}$$

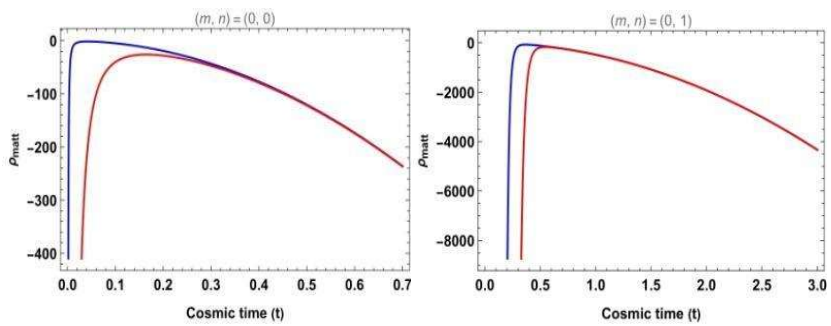

Figure 3 Behavior of matter density of (m,n)-Type HDE versus cosmic time with the appropriate pair respectively as $(m,n)=(0,0),(0,1)$ and choice of constants $f_0 = 1, \tau = 3.2, \gamma = 14.2, \xi = 2.1$ and $\eta = 0.3$.

Calculated pressure of the universe by using the potential functions (3.11) and (3.12) in the field equation (3.2) is:

$$p_{de} = f_0 \left[\begin{array}{l} (\tau-1)\left[\tau\frac{\ddot{G}}{G} + \tau(\tau+1)\frac{\dot{G}^2}{G^2} + 2\tau(\tau-2)\frac{\dot{R}\dot{G}}{RG} - (\tau-2)\left\{\frac{\ddot{R}}{R} + (\tau-3)\frac{\dot{R}^2}{R}\right\}\right] \\ -\frac{1}{\gamma^2(\xi+2)^2(t)^2}\left\langle \begin{array}{l} 2(\tau-1)[9-3\gamma(\xi+2)]\left\{-\tau\frac{\dot{G}}{G} + (\tau-1)\frac{\dot{R}}{R}\right\} \\ +36\tau\left[\begin{array}{l}(\tau+1)\left\{-\frac{\ddot{G}}{G^2} + (\tau+2)\frac{\dot{G}^2}{G^3} - 2(\tau-1)\frac{\dot{R}\dot{G}}{G^2}\right\} \\ +(\tau+1)\left\{\frac{\ddot{R}}{G} + (\tau-1)\frac{\dot{R}^2}{RG}\right\}\end{array}\right] \\ -3(\tau-1)\{9-2\gamma(\xi+2)\} \end{array}\right\rangle \frac{R^{\tau-1}}{G^{\tau}} \\ -\frac{24\tau[9-3\gamma(\xi+2)]}{\gamma^3(\xi+2)^3(t)^3}\left\{-(\tau+1)\frac{R^3\dot{G}}{G^2} + (\tau-1)\frac{\dot{R}}{G}\right\} + R \end{array} \right] \tag{4.5}$$

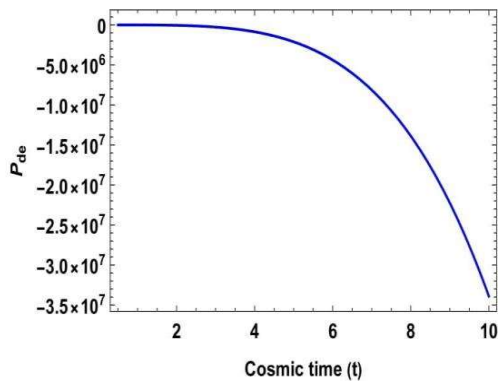

Figure 4 Behavior of pressure of (m,n)-Type HDE versus cosmic time with the appropriate pair respectively as $(m,n)=(0,0),(1,0)$ and choice of constants $f_0 = 1, \tau = 3.2, \gamma = 14.2, \xi = 2.1$ and $\eta = 0.3$.

4.1 Kinematical Properties of the Model

The kinematical properties which are important in cosmology for discussing the geometrical behavior of the universe that are spatial volume, Hubble parameter, expansion scalar, mean parameterized isotropy parameter, shear scalar, deceleration parameter, jerk parameter and overall density parameter which have the following expressions by using the potential functions (3.11) and (3.12) as follows:

The obtained spatial volume of the model is,

$$V = \left[\eta\,(t)^{\gamma}\right] \tag{5.1}$$

The resulting mean Hubble parameter of the model is,

$$H = \left[\frac{\gamma}{3t}\right] \tag{5.2}$$

The obtained expansion scalar for the model is,

$$\theta = \left[\frac{\gamma}{t}\right] \tag{5.3}$$

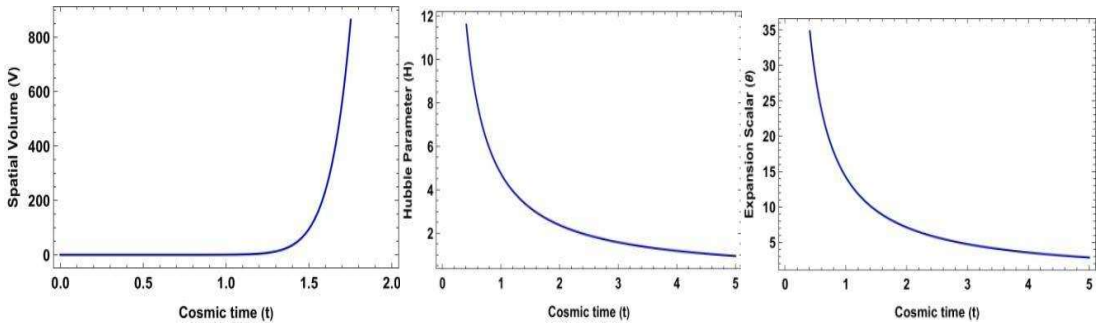

Figure 5 Behavior of V, H & θ versus cosmic time with the appropriate pair of constants $\gamma = 14.2$ and $\eta = 0.3$.

To mentioned whether or not the models either approach isotropy or not, we tend to outline associate anisotropy parameter of the enlargement as,

$$A_m = \Sigma_{i=1}^{3}\left(\frac{H_i - H}{H}\right)^2 = \left[\frac{27\xi^2 - \gamma^4(\xi+2)^2 + 54}{\gamma^4(\xi+2)^2}\right] \tag{5.4}$$

Similarly the founded Shear Scalar of the model is;

$$\sigma^2 = \frac{3}{2}H^2 A_m = \left[\frac{27\xi^2 - \gamma^4(\xi+2)^2 + 54}{6\gamma^2(\xi+2)^2 t^2}\right] \tag{5.5}$$

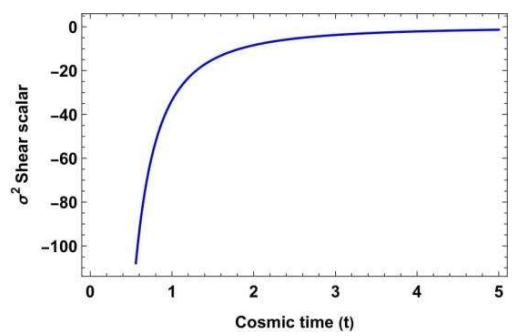

Figure 6 Behavior of σ^2 versus cosmic time with choice of constants $\gamma = 14.2$ and $\xi = 2.1$.

The obtained deceleration parameter of the model is given by,

$$q = \left[\frac{3}{\gamma} - 1\right] \tag{5.6}$$

In the cosmology the jerk parameter can be defined as the third derivative of a scale factor and is written as:

$$j(t) = \frac{\dddot{a}}{aH^3} = H = \frac{e^{\eta t} - \eta}{e^{\eta t}} + \frac{e^{2\eta t} - \eta^2}{e^{2\eta t}} - \frac{\eta^2 t(e^{\eta t} - 1)}{e^{2\eta t}} \tag{5.7}$$

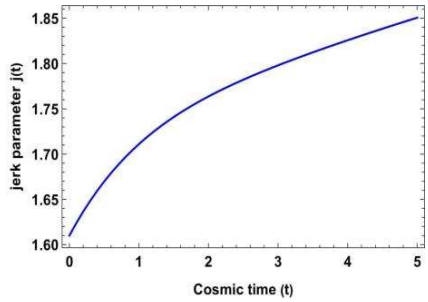

Figure 7 Behavior of $j(t)$ versus cosmic time with the appropriate choice of constant $\eta = 0.3$.

Calculated (m,n)-type energy density parameter of the universe by utilizing (4.3) and the Hubble parameter (5.2) is:

$$\Omega_{de} = \frac{\rho_{de}}{3H^2} = 9b^2t^2\left[\left\{\frac{9\gamma^2}{(\gamma\, n+3)^2}\right\}\eta^{\frac{2}{3}(m-n)}\,(t)^{\frac{2}{3}[\gamma(m-n)-3]}\right]^{-1} \tag{5.8}$$

Also calculated (m,n)-Type matter density parameter of the universe by utilizing (4.4) and the Hubble parameter (5.2) is:

$$\Omega_{matt} = \frac{\rho_{matt}}{3H^2} = \frac{9t^2}{\gamma^2}\left\{\begin{array}{l} f_0\left[\begin{array}{l} \dfrac{3(\tau-1)}{\gamma\, t}\left\{-\tau\dfrac{\dot{G}}{G}+(\tau-2)\dfrac{\dot{R}}{R}\right\} \\ +\dfrac{324\,\tau\,\xi}{\gamma^3(\xi+2)^3(t^3)}\left\{-(\tau+1)\dfrac{R\dot{G}}{G^2}+(\tau-1)\dfrac{\dot{R}}{G}\right\} \\ -R+\left\{\dfrac{(\tau-1)(18\xi+9)}{\gamma^2(\xi+2)^2}\right\} \end{array}\right]\dfrac{R^{\tau-1}}{G^{\tau}} \\ -3b^2\left[\left\{\dfrac{9}{(\gamma\, n+3)^2}\right\}\eta^{\frac{2}{3}(m-n)}\,(t)^{\frac{2}{3}[\gamma(m-n)-3]}\right]^{-1} \end{array}\right\} \tag{5.9}$$

Hence the overall energy density parameter for the (m,n)-type HDE cosmological models is we have

$$\Omega = \left[\begin{array}{l} 9f_0\left[\begin{array}{l} \dfrac{3(\tau-1)t}{\gamma^3}\left\{-\tau\dfrac{\dot{G}}{G}+(\tau-2)\dfrac{\dot{R}}{R}\right\} \\ +\dfrac{324\,\tau\,\xi}{\gamma^5(\xi+2)^3(t)}\left\{-(\tau+1)\dfrac{R\dot{G}}{G^2}+(\tau-1)\dfrac{\dot{R}}{G}\right\} \\ -\left(\dfrac{t^2}{\gamma^2}\right)R+\left\{\dfrac{(\tau-1)(18\xi+9)t^2}{\gamma^4(\xi+2)^2}\right\} \end{array}\right]\dfrac{R^{\tau-2}}{G^{\tau}} \\ -\dfrac{2b^2}{\gamma^2(\gamma\, n+3)^2}\left\{\eta^{\frac{2}{3}(m-n)}\,(t)^{\frac{2}{3}[\gamma(m-n)-3]}\right\} \end{array}\right] \tag{5.10}$$

5. State-finder Parameter Diagnosis

Let us try to explain the state finder parameter diagnosis for the scale factor given by (3.10) and for the Hubble parameter (5.2). The parameter r and s for given model is found out as:

$$r = \frac{\dddot{a}}{aH^3} = \frac{18}{\gamma}, \tag{6.1}$$

$$s = \frac{r-1}{3(q-1/2)} = \frac{18}{s}, \tag{6.2}$$

From (6.1 - 6.2) here we got the relation between r and s as:

$$r = \frac{(6-s)(3-s)}{18}, \tag{6.3}$$

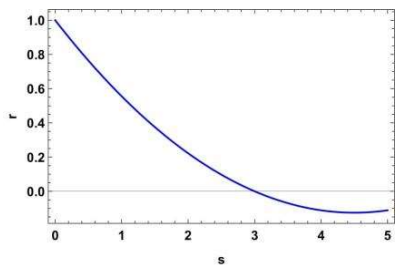

Figure 8 Behavior of state-finder parameter with the appropriate pair of constant $\eta = 0.3$.

6. Conclusion

In fig. 1 Graph of Ricci curvature and Guass- Bonnet with respect to cosmic time t has been plotted for $\gamma = 14.2$ and $\xi = 2.1$. Both exhibit same behavior. For small t there is sharp increase in the values then for large values of t a constant behavior has been observed.

In fig. 2 we have plotted the graph of energy density with cosmic time for various values of (m,n) for $(m,n) = (0,0)$ energy density shows decreasing behavior, for large values of t it became constant, for (m,n)= (0,1) steep decrease in the values has been observed for large values of t it shows a constant behavior for $(m,n) = (0,0),(0,1)$ it shows an increasing behavior for $t > 0$.

In fig.3 graph of matter density has been plotted with cosmic time for $(m,n) = (0,0),(0,1)$ shows an abrupt increase behavior while for large values of t it shows decreasing behavior. $(m,n) = (0,0),(0,1)$ matter density shows a decreasing behavior which is consistent with the observational values.

From fig. 4 we can see when $t = 0$ pressure of (m, n) type of H.D.E. model was zero. It shows a constant behavior for $t > 0$ but for large values of t it shows decreasing behavior.

In fig. 5 Graph of spatial volume has plotted against cosmic time for γ = 14.2 and η = 0.3 we can see for

t =0 and $t > 0$ spatial volume remain same but large values of t it shows an increasing behavior whereas Hubble parameter shows a decreasing behavior but for large t it became constant.

Expansion scalar θ decreases abruptly as t increases but for large t it shows a constant behavior.

In fig. 6 Graph of shear scalar σ^2 against time has plotted with $\gamma = 14.2$ and $\xi = 2.1$ and it is evident that it is an increasing function and for large values of t it increases gradually.

In fig 7. Jerk parameter $j(t)$ has been plotted against cosmic time t with a choice of $\eta = 0.3$ and it shows a gradual increase with the increase in the time.

In fig. 8 State finder parameter has been plotted against Hubble parameter, it can be seen that it shows a decreasing behavior for all values of t, by using state finder approach we can easily comment upon the behavior of the model. For $s = 0, r = 1$ our model approaches ΛCDM fixed point in the future. For r < 1, s >0 our model depicts quintessence model and for $r > 1, s < 0$ it shows chaplyngin Gas (CG) model.

Quintessence and CG follow in $r - s$ plane demonstrate quite strikingly the contrasting behavior of our dark energy model.

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Optical and structural property of $YBO_3:Tb^{3+}$ phosphor synthesized by novel Aldo-Keto gel method

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Abstract:

Synthesis of Tb^{3+} doped YBO_3 by using Aldo-keto gel method. The characterization of $YBO_3:Tb^{3+}$ material was done by X-ray diffraction and the optical property was studied under UV light wavelength. The $YBO_3:Tb^{3+}$ phosphor shows strong absorption with 239 nm UV source and exhibits intensive emission was obtained at 490 nm and 544 nm, which corresponds to the blue green emission.

Keywords: Aldo-keto gel method, Borate, XRD, Photoluminescence.

1. Introduction

During the past few years, much attention has been paid to the study of UV triggering phosphors due to the high demands of various applications [1]. There are various types of borates related to the position and type of anionic groups [BO^-_3] in the lattice structure. Among these borates, orthoborate phosphors are widely used in many applications such as field emission displays, plasma display panels, cathode ray tubes and a new generation of Hg-free fluorescent lamps [2-4]. Though most of the orthoborate posses good luminescent properties the only attention has been paid to the yttrium orthoborate because of its suitable properties as a host such as efficient luminescence, high VUV transparency and also exceptional optical damage threshold with a great ability to stand in harsh conditions present in vacuum discharge lamps and screens [5].

K. Koparkar et al. synthesized series of $(Y_{(1-x)}Gd_x)BO_3:Eu^{3+}$ phosphors was successfully synthesized by precipitation method. The PL emission spectra of phosphors indicated that red–orange (595 nm) color could be well excited by 233 nm. The results showed that outstanding fluorescence intensity [6].

Jung et al. modified the luminescent properties of $YBO_3:Eu^{3+}$ synthesized through spray pyrolysis with sintering temperature 1100^0C for 3h to enhancement of luminescent intensity of red phosphor under vacuum ultraviolet excitation [7],

There are many reports for on synthesis of various structure types of borate such as solid state reaction sol-gel method, hydrothermal method, co-precipitation method and combustion method [8]. In this paper, we have tried to synthesize $YBO_3:Tb^{3+}$ by using Aldo-keto gel method [9]. Further, photoluminescence spectra of the $YBO_3:Tb^{3+}$ phosphor was investigated in detail.

2. Experimental section

The phosphors were prepared by novel technique of aldo–keto gel method. YBO_3 doped with $Tb_{0.01}$ has been synthesized by using aldo–keto gel method. The starting chemicals Y_2O_3 (99.99%, AR) and Tb_4O_7 (99.90%, AR) were mixed together in a china clay basin. A small quantity of double distilled water was added and paste was formed. HNO_3 was added drop by drop and mixture was heated slowly under observation to 50°C till the paste dissolved completely. The solution was further heated till the excess of acid was boiled off. Little quantity

of double distilled water was again added and slowly evaporated to dryness. The resulting powder was $Y(NO_3)_3$:Tb, after that soluble solution of H_3BO_3 (AR) was added. The dried precursor was finally milled. Acetone (2M, AR) and benzaldehyde (2M, AR) were added to the nitrate. The pale brownish yellow mixture obtained was stirred continuously and slowly heated to 130°C. The mixture became dark brownish yellow and then dark reddish brown between 80°C to 120°C with evolution of brownish gases. The process of gelation started at near about 130°C with the evolution of dark yellowish brown fumes. The mixture was then allowed to cool. Red gel was formed after cooling. It was further heated slowly to 300°C. Dark red foam was formed with evolution of yellowish brown fumes. On further slow heating, pyrolysis of foam was started at 450°C and shining black foam was formed at 600°C, which started burning from 900°C. Final product appears as white crystalline powder of $YBO_3:Tb^{3+}$.

3. Results and Discussion:

The phase purities of $YBO_3:Tb^{3+}$ sample were studied using Rigaku miniflex II X-ray Diffract meter with scan speed of 2.000°/min and Cu Kα (λ = 1.5406 Å) radiation in the range 10° to 90°.The photoluminescence (PL) and PL excitation (PLE) spectra were measured on (Hitachi F-7000) florescence spectrophotometer at room temperature. The spectral resolution of both excitation and emission spectra, width of the monochromatic slits (1nm), as well the measurement conditions such as PMT detector sensitivity and scan speed were kept constant from sample to sample in measurements.

3.1. XRD patterns of $YBO_3:Tb^{3+}$

The formation of the crystalline phase of as-prepared products was confirmed by X-ray diffraction patterns of $YBO_3:Tb^{3+}$ as shown in Figure 1 to verify the phase purity and crystal structure. The X-ray pattern of combustion synthesized sample at 900°C indicated a dominant phase of the standard $YBO_3:Tb^{3+}$ and all the peaks are in good agreement with the (ICDD,00-016-0277) The XRD pattern for $YBO_3:Tb^{3+}$ agrees well with the standard data from ICDD file (00-016-0277).The high intensity peaks i.e., 108.6880,20.1647,48.1569,49.9016,27.2492 and 34.146 form ICDD file shows exact matching with the XRD pattern of phosphor prepared by re-crystallization method. This agreement indicates that the phosphor $YBO_3:Tb^{3+}$ has been success prepared by using the re-crystallization method. Also the XRD shows that the formed material is completely crystalline and is in single phase with Hexagonal structure where a = b = 3.778 and c = 8.810 Å. Also the symmetry allowed crystal structure properties for $YBO_3:Tb^{3+}$ are Centro symmetric, And Space Group P63/m (176).

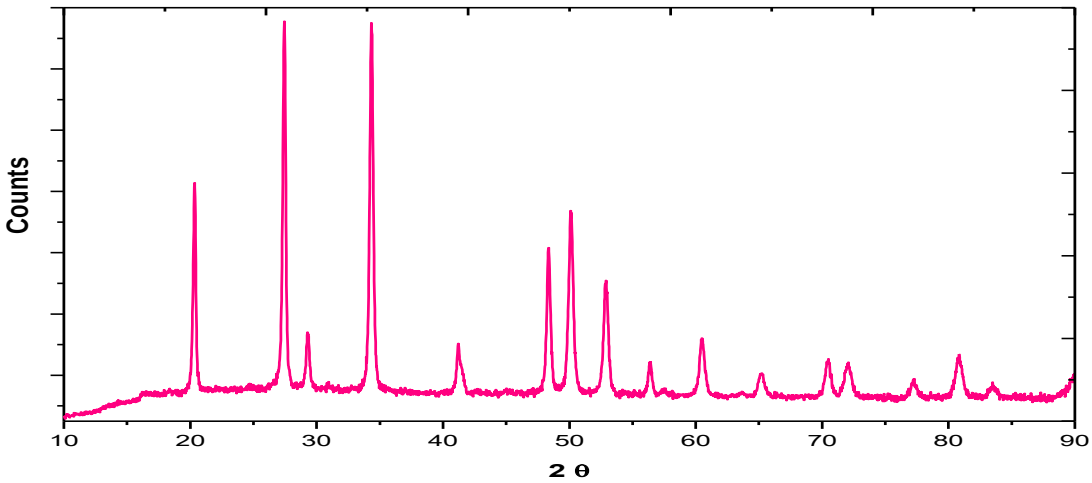

Figure 1: XRD patterns of the $YBO_3:Tb^{3+}$ phosphor synthesized by Aldo-keto gel method.

3.2 Photoluminescence study

Fig. 2 gives the excitation and emission spectra of Tb^{3+} green emission in Tb^{3+} doped YBO_3. The excitation spectrum shows broad bands from 200 to 250 nm. The $YBO_3:Tb^{3+}$ powders exhibited emissions at 490 and 544, which corresponding to the $^5D_4$–$^7F_6$ and $^5D_4$–$^7F_5$ transitions of Tb^{3+}, respectively. Among them, the green emission at 544 nm ($^5D_4$–$^7F_5$) was dominant and the emission intensities are greatly dependent on the excitation wavelength. Local crystal field symmetry around the Tb^{3+} cations can have a significant effect on electric dipole transitions.

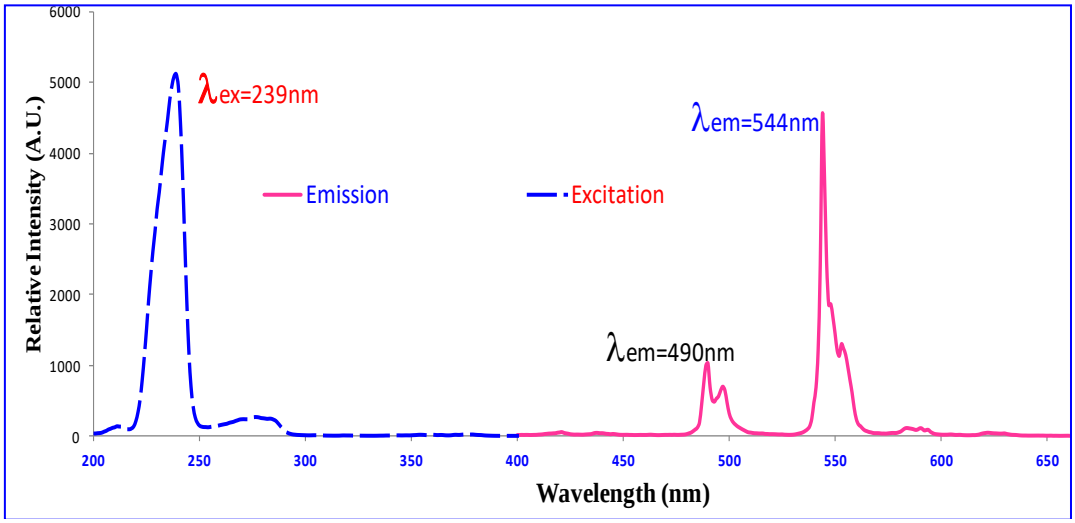

Figure 2: PL Excitation and Emission spectra of $YBO_3:Tb^{3+}$.

Conclusions

$YBO_3:Tb^{3+}$ phosphor synthesized by the Aldo-keto gel method. XRD pattern shows perfect matching with the ICDD file. From the excitation and emission spectra of doping samples, there exist two kinds of samples characteristic of green emission due to Tb^{3+} ions in YBO_3 host, respectively. Also, there is an energy transfer from Tb^{3+} ions.

Acknowledgement

One of the authors K. K. Rathod is thankful to Principal, Shri Shivaji Science college Amravati for providing XRD facility.

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As per New Syllabus (under CBCS) by Sant Gadge Baba Amravati University, Amravati

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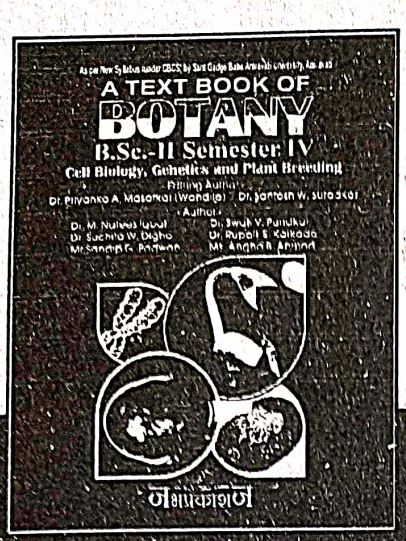

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A TEXT BOOK OF BOTANY
B.Sc.- II, Semester - IV

Editing Author :
Dr. Priyanka A. Masatkar (Wandile)
Dr. Santosh W. Suradkar

ISBN No. 978-93-93940-61-2

Edition : January 2024

Published by :
Nabh Prakashan
Ravindra Dahake
Bhoomiputra Colony,
Near Congress Nagar, Amravati-444 606
Visti us : www.nabhprakashan.com
Contact us : nabhprakashan@gmail.com
Mob. 9765748457, 7798204500

Printed by :
Nabh Printers
Bhoomiputra Colony, Amravati

Price : ₹ 180/-

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ISBN : 978-93-93940-61-2
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Aspects in Plant Sciences

Dr. Pratiksha S. Kokate (Umale)
Commemoration Volume

Dr. Prashant A. Gawande (M. Sc. Ph. D. NET)
Dr. Dipak K. Koche (M. Sc. Ph. D. NET)

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In-vitro effect of different sugars sources on dry weight of *Rhizoctonia solani* causing rot of tomato seedling on 10th days of inoculation period.

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Summary

Suitable liquid medium containing different sugar sources for the mycelial growth and sporulation of *Rhizoctonia Solani*, Potato dextrose liquid medium containing nine different sugar sources were tested in vitro. Inoculate *Rhizoctonia Solani* in conical flask containing potato dextrose liquid medium with sugar sources and were incubated at 25±1°C for 10 days and observed that growth and sporulation of fungus in different sugar sources and also mycelium mats were harvested, dried and weighed on electronic weighing balance 0.001mg error. The result obtained tabulate in table 2, It is showed that maximum growth was recorded on potato dextrose liquid medium containing Glucose as a sugar source (138 mg) followed by Fructose (136 mg), mannose (119 mg), Sucrose (115mg), D-xylose (98mg), Galactose (98mg) and least growth in lactose and mannitol i.e. (46 mg) and (37 mg) respectively.

Keywords: - Isolation, Liquid medium, sugar source, tomato and *Rhizoctonia Solani* etc.

Introduction

Tomato (*Lycopersicon esculentum*) is one of the most important vegetables in the world which suffers from various fungal diseases (Pharand B. *et al.*, 2002 and Fakhro A. *et al.*, 2010). Foot rot disease of tomato plants was found in various greenhouses in Iran and also found in India. Symptoms were characterized by soft rot of the seedling near the soil line. *Rhizoctonia solani* was consistently isolated from the damaged plant tissues. *Rhizoctonia solani* requires several specific compounds for their growth, In in vitro study, fungus is isolated as pure culture in specific media for studies on growth, nutrition, physiology and management of the fungus. A wide range of media containing different sugar sources can favor the isolation of the solani fungus which supports the dry weight growth and sporulation of *the Rhizoctonia solani fungus*. However, the nutrient requirements for good growth of the fungus do not confirm the nutrient requirements for good sporulation.

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29 Chapter

REVIEW ARTICLE ON LIGHT EMITTING DIODE (LED)

N. B. Bhagat [1], C. U. Dhanwad [2]

ISBN: 978-93-5809-578-4 | **DOI**: 10.25215/9358095784.29

Abstract:
The emphasis of this review article is mostly light emitting diodes (LED). Here, we'll focus on a few key elements, including their basic design, operation, applications, and pros and disadvantages. Forward voltage is applied to semiconductor light-emitting diodes (LEDs), which generate noncoherent, narrow-spectrum light. LEDs come in packages ranging from mill watts to more than 10 W, and their wavelengths extend from the UVC band to infrared (IR). In 1961, the patent for the first LED, an IR emitting gadget, was issued. The first useful visible spectrum LED was developed in 1962. In the late 1990s, the first high-power (1-W) LEDs were created. LEDs produce light utilizing a semiconductor method as opposed to the superheated element, ionized gas, or arc discharge used in conventional light sources. The wavelength of the light is inclined by the materials used to fabricate the semiconductor junction. LEDs are currently more energy efficient than incandescent lights thanks to modern technology, which increases the amount of light they produce per unit of electricity. They are solid state electronics, which are significantly more enduring than any glass envelope lamp and safer than fluorescent lights. By using LED Lighting Systems, professionals may better understand some of the key performance characteristics of LEDs and other traditional light sources, as well as the differences between them. In order to employ LEDs in lighting applications successfully, it is important to understand their electrical, thermal, and optical performances. The information in this article should be useful to any professional who wants to effectively use LED systems in lighting applications.

Keywords: Light, Discharge, Modern Technology

I. Introduction:

The first light emitting diodes (LEDs) were discovered in the 1960s. In 1907, Henry Joseph Round made the first observation that a carborundum crystal generates a yellowish light when exposed to a potential of 10V [1]. Gallium arsenide diodes were first identified as emitting infrared light in 1961 by Bob Beard and Gary Pittman. In 1962, Nick Holonyak Jr. developed the first light emitting diode (LED) that produced visible light [2]. M. George Craford invented the initial red and yellow LEDs in 1972. The high brightness light emitting diode was invented by Thomas P. Pearsall in 1976. In 1994, Shuji Nakamura was fabricating the first blue LED. Monsanto was the first company to mass-produce visible LEDs. In 1968, Monsanto developed red LEDs for use as indicators [3]. However, LEDs didn't begin to become well-known until Fairchild Optoelectronics began producing reasonably priced LED goods for manufacturers in the 1970s. In 1970s, scientists started using only GaP semiconductor material to make LEDs that emitted green light. When current applied to a

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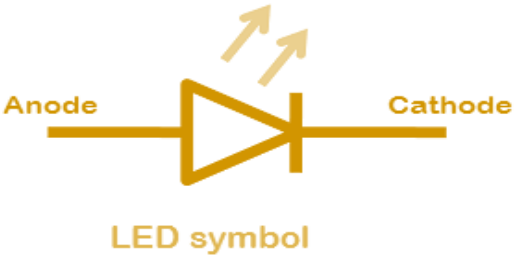
semiconductor material then it emit the light source known as an LED, light is produced [4]. In the semiconductor electrons and electron-holes are recombine and it causes to release the energy in the form of quanta (photon). The color of the light depends on how much energy is required for electrons to cross the semiconductor's band gap. When utilizing numerous semiconductors or a layer of them, white light can be produced.

2. Principle:

- The electroluminescence concept explains how LEDs operate.
- The ability of semiconductor materials to transform electrical energy into chemical energy is known as electroluminescence.



3. Construction of LED:

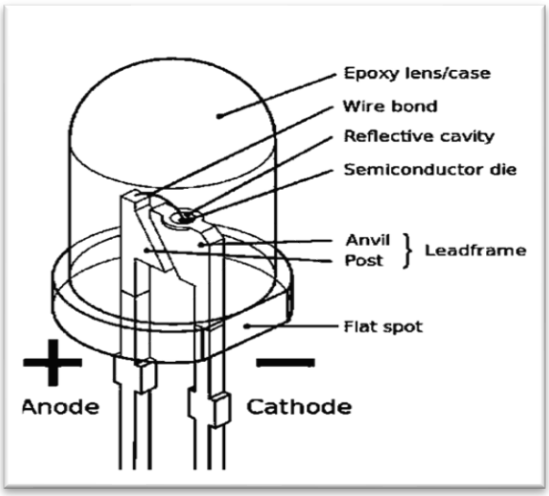


Fig.1 Light Emitting diode

In Figure 1, an LED p-n junction is constructed and mounted on a concave-shaped reflector with the p-type region at the top. This is due to the fact that electron-hole pair recombination primarily takes place on the p-side, which is why it is located on the upper side and where light emits. To enable more light from the center, the metal film anode connection is constructed at the p-type regions outside edge. Anode and cathode connections are made using wires. The entire assembly is housed in a cylinder-shaped glass or plastic cage, allowing light to escape from the top side. Its typical building materials are GaP, GaAs, and GaAsP [5]. Red or green light is produced when GaP material is utilized, while infrared light is produced when GaAs material is used. Red or yellow light is produced when GaAsP is employed.

4. Working:

Electroluminescence is the process of transforming absorbed light energy into chemical energy at a p-n junction. The charge carriers are once more united at the forward biased p-n junction as the electron traverses the n-region and rejoins the holes in the p-region. While holes are found in the valence band of the energy level, free electrons are found in the conduction band. The electrons will have a higher energy level than the holes. The amount of energy was lost in the recombination process of the electron and holes. Two of the expelled forms of this energy are heat and energy.

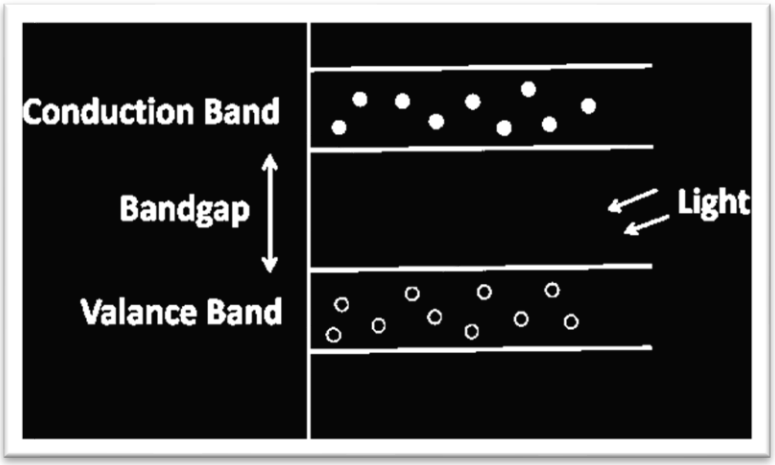


Fig.2 Energy Band Gap

The intensity of the light emitted from a source is determined by the energy level of the photons released from it, which in turn depends on the energy released by the electrons hopping in between the atomic orbits of the semiconductor material. However, in gallium arsenide phosphide (GaAsP) and gallium phosphide (GaP) semiconductors, the electron generates energy in the form of photons rather than heat as it does in silicon and germanium diodes. To excite from a lower orbital to a higher orbital, an electron's energy level must have to increase. On the other hand, energy should be wasted during the process if electrons are made to decay from higher to lower orbitals. If the semiconductor is translucent, a light emitting diode (LED) will be produced; however, if the junction is reversing biased, the LED will not only produce light but also run the risk of destroying the device. The semiconductors used in LEDs have band gaps ranging from 1.77 to 3.11 eV. The LED's semiconductor substrate's construction materials have an impact on the color of the light it produces. The myriad colors that our eyes perceive are connected to the different wavelengths of light that different semiconductor materials emit. New color LEDs can be created by discovering or creating novel semiconductor materials, or by doping current materials with additional substances [6]. Since white light is essentially a blend of all the visible light wavelengths, white LEDs are a unique instance. White LEDs can be made using two main techniques.

5. Advantages and Disadvantages of LED:

5.1 Advantages:

- ✓ Energy efficient
- ✓ Long lifetime
- ✓ Environment friendly
- ✓ Directional
- ✓ Controllable

- ✓ No warm up period

5.2 Disadvantages:

- ✓ Very expensive
- ✓ Unsuitable for use in hot environments
- ✓ Accurate voltage and consistent current flow were necessary.

6. Applications of LED:

- ✓ Sensor applications
- ✓ Mobile applications
- ✓ Sign applications
- ✓ LED signals
- ✓ Illuminations
- ✓ Indicators

7. Conclusions:

A light-emitting transistor a semiconductor diode called an LED produces light when an electrical current is applied to it from the front, as in a basic LED circuit. The p-n junction produces incoherent, narrow-spectrum light as part of the electroluminescence phenomenon. Infrared radiation is produced when an electrical current flows through the semiconductor in a diode, which the diode's phosphors absorb and reemit as visible light. One or more electrons in some of the semiconductor's atoms are propelled to higher orbits when charged particles like electrons pass through some semiconductors. When these electrons reenter lower orbits, the atom emits infrared light. When this light is present, the electrons in phosphor atoms move to higher orbits. The phosphor atom starts to release visible light once the electrons have returned to their former orbits. LEDs are made from semiconductors known as I-V compound semiconductors. By adjusting the semiconductor's constituent parts and the percentage of column to column V elements, LED manufacturers can change an LED's color, brightness, and ratio of visible to infrared emission.

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Role of Spiders in Ecosystem

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ABSTRACT:
Spiders are ubiquitous and being terrestrial predators that show high degree of diversity in ecosystem according to prey capture strategies. Despite the fact that many people have an innate fear of them, they exhibit a wide range of behaviors that contribute to the overall health of the ecosystems. They are skilled hunters, preying on insects and other small invertebrates, which helps control populations and prevent outbreaks of pests. Additionally, by eating decomposers like flies and beetles, spiders contribute significantly to the cycling of nutrients. Additionally, their webs catch flying insects. Because they disseminate seeds and act as pollinators, spiders are essential to the survival of biodiversity. Spiders serve as population control agents in most environments, preventing insect populations from becoming excessive.
Keywords: Spiders, Predator-prey, biological control, ecosystem.

INTRODUCTION:

Spiders are abundant and ubiquitous predators in terrestrial ecosystems. In fact, spiders play a vital role in the environment and without them; the earth would be a very different place. In most ecosystems spiders act as agents of population control, ensuring insect numbers are not overwhelming. Identified as generalist consumers, they also prey on a variety of organisms beyond insects, regulating the density of the species they go after. In this regard, they also benefit humans, as they eat pests such as mosquitoes, which can be deadly if carrying diseases. By eating agricultural insects like grasshoppers and beetles that feed on the crops being gathered for food, they also indirectly assist mankind. Spiders reduce the number of insect pests in agro-ecosystems, which will reduce crop damage from pests and increase crop yield, thus act as a biocontrol agents. They play an important role in the overall ecological system. Not only do they assist the environment by controlling insect populations but they also assist humans directly by stopping other pesky pests from reaching us. Some species of spiders are terrestrial that is they live on the ground, while others are arboreal, meaning they live in trees. In addition to this characteristic, they have shown a preference for inhabiting unusual environments, such as tropical woods and freezing caverns. Certain specialised species endure a variety of harsh environments. Some families, like as the orb weavers, use their distinctive webs for passive hunting. Others do this by active hunting, such as wolf spiders. Due to the fact that many species overwinter, they can aid in the early reduction of prey populations, providing farmers, horticulturists, and gardeners with an advantage over the rest of the season. It also kills other arachnids and spiders even those of the same species which helps keep their own numbers in check. Furthermore, a number of birds, lizards, wasps, and mammals—particularly those found in desert regions—use spiders as a major source of food. Bats may be preyed upon by some species of tarantulas (Theraphosidae), huntsman spiders (Sparassidae), orb weavers (Araneidae), and Nephilidae family members. In certain cases, spiders have been seen feeding on birds, and it has also been reported that birds can get entangled in their webs. These reports have led scientists to propose that flying vertebrates may be an important source of prey for certain species of spiders. *In spite of our innate dread of them, spiders are mostly benign organisms. It might surprise you to learn how important of a part spiders play in the*

ecology. Continue reading to discover the remarkable functions of certain frightening spiders as well as the part that they play in the ecology. It could make you less afraid of spiders and alter the way you perceive them.

SPIDERS MANAGE THE FOOD CHAIN:

One of the important reasons why spiders are essential predators is that they control the population of insects and other invertebrates, which could otherwise cause significant damage to crops and other vegetation. In this way, the presence of spiders in ecosystem could help to reduce pest problems associated with common spider prey, acting as a natural insect killer. On the other hand, spiders are also helpful to the ecosystem as prey. Numerous other creatures, including frogs, lizards, and birds, eat spiders. This indicates that in addition to helping to reduce pest-related problems, spiders can also support the populations of beneficial species. Spiders regulate the food chain, but they also serve as sensitive environmental health indicators because of their sensitivity to changes in their habitat and their presence or absence. can indicate the quality of the ecosystem.

SPIDERS ARE POLLINATORS:

As bee populations decreases, spiders might be the next solution to the pollination process. Spiders indirectly aid in pollination, although they do not actively engage in the process like bees or butterflies do. Spiders are known to build their webs in areas with high plant density, and their sticky webs catch a variety of flying insects, including bees and other pollinators. Spiders make sure that the pollinators that remain visit more flowers by lowering their population, which raises the likelihood of pollination. Additionally, spiders' webs can trap pollen grains, which can be transferred to other flowers when the spider moves around. Therefore, spiders play a crucial role in the interdependence of plants and animals, ensuring the health and survival of both.

SPIDERS CONTROL THE SPREAD OF INFECTIONS:

Spiders can help to kill insects that carry diseases, such as mosquitoes and moths. Typhoid, cholera, and other illnesses can be transmitted by fleas, flies, and cockroaches. Additionally, illnesses like malaria that claim more lives every year are spread by mosquitoes. The webs of spiders are highly effective at ensnaring little insects and halting the spread of illness.

SPIDERS IN CONTROLLING PEST POPULATIONS:

Spiders are natural and effective solution to reduce pest populations. Spiders play a crucial role in controlling pests, especially in agriculture where they can prevent significant damage to crops. Spiders are natural predators that feed on insects like aphids, caterpillars, and beetles, which are known to cause extensive harm to plants. By preying on these pests, spiders help maintain the balance of the ecosystem and protect agricultural yields without the need for harmful pesticides. Their ability to control pest populations naturally makes them valuable allies for farmers and gardeners alike.

SPIDERS ROLE IN NUTRIENT CYCLING:

Spiders contribute to nutrient cycling is by breaking down organic matter through their feeding habits. They are voracious predators, preying on a wide range of insects and other small creatures. When they catch and consume their prey, they not only obtain energy for themselves but also help in the decomposition process. As spiders break down the organic matter through digestion, they release nutrients back into the ecosystem. This decomposition activity performed by spiders plays a crucial role in maintaining soil fertility. The nutrients released from decomposing prey become available for plants and other organisms, ensuring a healthy balance within the ecosystem.

SPIDER VENOM:

Spiders are of great importance in the medical field and have been used for various research and product development. Venom by its name is believed to be toxic and harmful, but it can also be quite beneficial. Spider venom has the potential to treat several ailments. It’s a safe

painkiller which can be productively used to treat muscular dystrophy and strokes. Also, the venom itself is excellent anti-venom and is used to treat bites from toxic spiders.

SPIDER SILK:

They use silk to spin their webs, and the silk they produce has innumerable benefits. Spider silk is one of the most remarkable materials in the world. It is lightweight, flexible, stretchy, almost transparent, and practically stronger than steel. Its strength can be used in making strong building materials, and even in making bullet proof vests. The flexibility of it makes it practical to be used in flexible suspensions. Also, it has already been used in optical measuring devices, and for producing cross-hairs in telescopes.

CONCLUSION:

In conclusion, spiders play a crucial role in biodiversity. They act as predators, controlling pest populations and maintaining ecosystem balance. Spiders also serve as indicators of ecosystem health, reflecting the overall well-being of an environment. Their diversity is essential for maintaining a rich and thriving ecosystem. Moreover, spiders contribute to pollination and seed dispersal, while also being an important part of food webs and nutrient cycling.

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THE PLANTAE KINGDOM

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Nitya Publications

ISBN NO. 978-93-5857-008-3

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SPHAGNOPSIDA - SPHAGNUM

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GENERAL CHARACTERS OF SPHAGNOPSIDA

Sphagnopsida comprises of a single order Sphagnales of a single family Sphagnaceae with a single and very distinct genus Sphagnum. It is commonly called bogmoss or peat moss. About 350 species of Sphagnum are distributed all over the high, cool and very wet regions of the earth. Common species are S.ovatum, S.fimbriatum, S.cuspidatulum, etc.

The class Sphagnopsida is distinguished by leaves that are one cell thick and mostly possessing two types of cells – photosynthetic cells that possess chloroplasts and that form a network arrangement, and hyaline (colourless) cells that are dead at maturity, have one or more pores (giving access to the environment), and hold water. The branches in Sphagnopsida occur in fascicles (bunches) along the stem, usually with some descending branches close to the stem and some extending outward. The stems have a wood-like cylinder that may be brittle or soft. The most readily distinctive feature is the arrangement of young branches in a tight capitulum. This gametophyte can reproduce by fragmentation, often bifurcating at the apex to produce two capitula. The plants are perennial and of aquatic and subaquatic habit growing in extremely moist situation. They remain present under water bodies and may completely cover up the bottom and form a bog.

SPHAGNUM

CLASSIFICATION

Kingdom - Plantae
Division - Bryopsida
Class – Sphagnopsida
Order - Sphagnales
Family - Sphagnaceae
Genus - Sphagnum

HABIT AND HABITAT OF SPHAGNUM

Sphagnum is represented by around 336 species, all of which are cosmopolitan and distributed. In India it is represented by 20 species of the Himalayas. They are either semiaquatic or aquatic and develop in thick masses or in cushions in ponds, swamps and lake margins, humid heaths, and wet hill sides.

CHARACTERISTICS OF SPHAGNUM

- The absence of rhizoids is evident in adultgametophore leaves.
- Branch tufts emerge from the axil of each fourth leaf.
- There is no mid rib present on the leaves.
- Stems and leaves have distinctive patterns and structures. Cortex in the stem of old is soft and may develop spiral thickenings. Single-layered leaves are composed of two kinds of cells including large hyaline cell and tiny green photosynthetic cells.
- The presence of hyaline retort cell.
- The water that it is growing in is extremely acidic. It's due to the presence an organic substance that is colloidal within the cell wall.

ISBN NO. 978-93-5857-008-3

SPHENOPSIDA- EQUISETUM

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CONTENT

Classification, Characters, Structure, Morphology, Life Cycle, Reproduction and Importance.

CLASSIFICATION

Kingdom- Plantae
Division- Pteridophyta
Class- Sphenopsida
Order- Equisetales
Family- Equiseraceae
Genus- Equisetum

There is only one surviving genus in the class Sphenopsida, Equisetum, and roughly 18 extinct forms (such as Calamites, Annularia, etc.). The Carboniferous period marked the peak of this group's development, which began during the Devonian period of the Palaeozoic era. After that, the group started to decline in frequency and is now only represented by the genus Equisetum.

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SPHENOPSIDA

1. Nodes and internodes are used to unite the stems and branches. Internodes have ridges and furrows that are longitudinally aligned.
2. At the nodes of aerial branches and stems, the leaves are much reduced and borne in whorls. Branch growth occurs in whorls.
3. The sporangiophore, a peltalian appendage, is where the sporangia grow. Walls of sporangia are substantial.
4. The majority of the members, including equisetum, are homosporous. However, certain extinct forms, like Catamites casheana, were heterosporous.
5. The exosporic, green gametophytes.
6. Multiflagellated antherozoids are present.
7. The embryo is exo-scopic in form and lacks a suspensor.

HABIT AND HABITAT

Equisetum's plant body is made up of an aerial portion and an underground rhizome portion. It is perennial, horizontal, branching, and creeping in nature, rhizomes are herbaceous and typically annual, the aerial portion. The majority of species are tiny, with heights and diameters ranging from 15 to 60 cm and 2.0 cm, respectively. Some species, such as *E. giganteum* (13 m), do, however, reach greater heights. *Equisetum debile* and *Equisetum palustre* are examples of *equisetum*, which typically grow in moist or damp environments and are particularly prevalent along the sides of streams or irrigation canals. Some species, like *Equisetum arvense*, have evolved to thrive in xeric conditions.

Biofertilizer: An Overview

Urja Solanki, Ajay Baldaniya and Shivdas R. Aher

Introduction

In recent years, we have seen a doubling of the human population and a concurrent doubling of food production. Plant nutrition has played a key role in this dramatic increase in demand for and supply of food. Increases in crop production have been made possible using commercial man-made fertilizers. The use of nitrogen (N) fertilizer has increased almost ninefold and phosphorus (P) more than fourfold, the tremendous increase of N and P fertilization, in addition to the introduction of highly productive and intensive agricultural systems, has allowed these developments to occur at relatively low budgets. The increasing use of fertilizers and highly productive systems have also created environmental problems such as deterioration of soil quality, surface water, and groundwater, as well as air pollution, reduced biodiversity, and suppressed ecosystem function. These substances have a negative impact on soil fertility, increased salinity, soil holding capacity, and nutrient inconsistency in the soil (Savci, 2012).

Biofertilizers are a material that comprehends living microorganisms that, when applied to seeds, plant surfaces, or soil, promote growth by increasing the supply or availability of primary nutrients to the host plant. Applying biofertilizers as soil or seed inoculants causes them to proliferate, aid in the cycling of nutrients, and increase crop productivity (Singh *et al*., 2011). By fixing atmospheric nitrogen, solubilizing insoluble phosphates, and producing compounds in the soil that promote plant growth, biofertilizers increase soil fertility.These are mixtures that include active or dormant cells of effective strains of microorganisms that, when given as seed or soil, facilitate the uptake of nutrients by agricultural plants through interactions with them in the rhizosphere. They quicken several microbial activities in the soil that increase the amount of nutrients available in a form that plants can readily absorb.

Nitrogen fixing biofertilizer (NBF)

Nitrogen (N) is one of the most essential nutrients for growth and productivity in plants. Although it is present in the atmosphere at 78 percent, it remains unavailable for plant use. Nitrogen must be converted to ammonia in order to use the atmospheric Nitrogen, which can be readily assimilated by plants via the biological Nitrogen fixation process (BNF). Nitrogenase is an enzyme complex that nitrogen-fixing microorganisms empl-

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oy to transform atmospheric nitrogen into ammonia (Hoffman *et al*., 2009).

Phosphorus solubiliser

The second key mineral nutrient required in substantial quantities by plants is Phosphorus (P). There is a large amount of P present in the soil, but it is normally fixed (i.e. P-fixation) at the point of application and thus, becomes insoluble and unavailable to plants. The phosphorus that is insoluble is present as inorganic substances such as apatite or as one of many organic forms including inositol phosphate (soil phytate), phosphormono-esters, and phosphotriesters. The application of Phosphorus solubilizing biofertilizer (PSB) is used to help remedy and make P more bioavailable and bio-accessible to promote growth and development of plants. For example, PSB includes phospho-bacterin, which helps to solubilize insoluble phosphates (e.g. di-and tri-calcium phosphates, hydroxyapatites, and rock phosphates) and makes them more accessible to plants.

Potassium solubilisers

Potassium is one of the key macronutrients that the plant requires to improve its biological processes besides N and P. The availability of total K in the soil is high, but only limited quantities are available for use by plants. There exists three forms of Potassium at the same time in the soil system; namely, unavailable, slowly available, and readily available forms. The application of biofertilizers can help remediate this situation by solubilizing the unavailable K and thereby furnishing it in available forms for plant uptake.

Silicate-solubilizing bacteria (SSB)

One of the main components of soil is silicon (Si). It is mostly taken up by the roots of plants from soil water as monosilicic acid $Si(OH)_4$. Si is crucial in mitigating a range of abiotic stressors, including radiation, UV light, high temperatures, cold, and drought, as well as abiotic stressors such as metal toxicity, salt tolerance, and nutritional imbalance. It imparts drought resistance by maintaining the rate of photosynthesis, leaf erection, water balance and xylem vessels structure during higher transpiration rates which mainly results from high temperature and moisture deficiency.

Iron sequestration

Iron (Fe), an essential micronutrient, plays vital role in chlorophyll formation, photosynthesis, respiration and various enzymatic reactions. Iron is absorbed by plants either Fe^{2+} (ferrous cation) or Fe^{3+} (ferric cation) forms. All living beings need Fe. Under anaerobic conditions, it forms insoluble hydroxides and oxyhydroxides and predominantly occurs as Fe^{3+} (Mahdi *et al*., 2010).

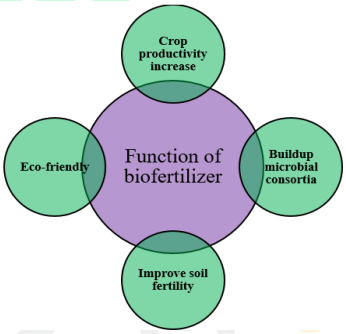
Advantages of biofertilizer

- ✓ Biofertilizers act as supplements to chemical fertilizers.
- ✓ Biofertilizers are cost-friendly and can aid to decrease consumption of such fertilizers.
- ✓ Microbes in biofertilizers provide atmospheric nitrogen directly to plants.
- ✓ They aid in solubilisation and mineralisation of other plant nutrients like phosphates.

- ✓ Better synthesis and availability of hormones, vitamins, auxins and other growth-promoting substances improves plant growth.
- ✓ On an average crop yield elevates by 10-20 percent by their use.
- ✓ They help in the multiplication and survival of beneficial micro-organisms in the root region (*rhizospheric* bacteria).
- ✓ They control and inhibit pathogenic soil bacteria.

Conclusion

In order to feed the rising population with the deficit of available nutrients, the planet definitely needs agric-ultural production to flourish and that too indeed in a sustainable and environmentally friendly way. It is therefore undoubtedly important to reevaluate many of the current agricultural methods including the use of various agrochemicals. These agrochemicals are hazardous to the eco-system as well as threats to the soil, bio-diversity and living organism. Biofertilizer, the microbial inoculant is an eco-friendly alternative to chemical fertilizer, protects lithosphere, improves biosphere by protecting air, water, soil pollution, and eutrophication and enhances yields of agriculture produce. It helps to enrich the soil with macro- and micro-nutrient and also by releasing plant growth regulators. Biofertilizers are classified as N-fixing, phosphate solubilizing, phosphate mobilizing, potassium solubilizing, potassium mobilizing, and sulfur oxidizing.



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A Text Book of

Basic Principles of Ayurveda

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Basic Principles Of Ayurveda

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ISBN 978-81-19140-96-1

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ISBN 978-81-19140-96-1

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Environmental Science

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ISBN: 978-93-5850-767-6

Price: Rs. 749.00

The opinions/ contents expressed in this book a
re solely of the author and do not represent the opinions/ standings/ thoughts of Publisher.

Printed in India

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Agri Articles
(e-Magazine for Agricultural Articles)
Volume: 04, Issue: 04 (JULY-AUG, 2024)
Available online at http://www.agriarticles.com
©Agri Articles, ISSN: 2582-9882

Importance of Millets

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Millets also called small millets are cultivated for their small kernels which are the products of small grassy plants belonging to the Poaceae family. The other name minor millets may indicate them to be minor crops yet are important for their nutritional values, medicinal benefits, feed for animals, and saviors during food crisis (Yenagi *et al*., 2010). The term "millet" comes from the French word "Mile" which means "thousand," implying that a handful of millets can contain thousands of grains. Millets are typically farmed in semi-arid areas. Conditions such as little rainfall and degraded fields with poor nutritional content. Millets provide a more consistent harvest than other crops in low rainfall areas, benefiting people in famine-prone areas (Tadele 2016). Millets are C_4 plants with high photosynthetic efficiency, short duration, high dry matter production capability, and resistance to heat and drought. They can easily adapt to degraded saline, acidic, and aluminum-contaminated soils. The modern sedentary lifestyle associated with several health issues has urged people to seek for healthy and nutritious diets.

Small millets satiate these requirements of modern society by being a healthy food choice because millets are a storehouse of nutrient and, in particular, finger millet grains contain remarkably high calcium content (>350 mg/100 g); foxtail millet, barnyard millet, and proso millet are prosperous in protein (>10%); little millet and foxtail millet are well-off in fat (>4.0%); foxtail millet, barnyard millet, and little millet are superior in crude fiber (6.7–13.6%), barnyard millet and little millet contain high amount of iron (9.3–18.6 mg/100 g) in comparison to other major cereals like rice, wheat, barley, maize, and sorghum (Dwivedi *et al*., 2012). The important millets cultivated in African and Asian countries include Sorghum (*Sorghum bicolor*), pearl millet (*Pennisetum glaucum*), finger millet (*Eleusine coracana*), foxtail millet (*Setaria italica*), barnyard millet (*Echinochloa frumentacea*), kodo millet (*Paspalum scrobiculatum*), proso millet (*Panicum miliaceum*), and little millet (*Panicum miliare*). Although millets have a high nutritional content, their hard seed coat, presence of anti-nutritional agents, low digestibility, and limited bioavailability of micronutrients pose significant challenges in their processing and cooking. In light of this, the Indian government proposed making 2023 the "International Year of Millets". It was supported by FAO Governing Bodies and the United Nations General Assembly at its 75th session. The following are the objectives of declaring 2023 the 'International Year of Millets': 1) Elevate awareness of the contribution of millets to food security and nutrition. (2) Inspire stakeholders on improving sustainable production and quality of millets. (3) Draw focus on

enhanced investment in research and development and extension services to achieve the other two aims.

Table: 1 Millets grown in India and their uses

Crop	Scientific name	Common name	Uses
Sorghum	*Sorghum bicolor*	Jowar	Potential source of biofuel; used to brew gluten-free beer Used as a wheat substitute for people on a gluten-free diet Commonly used in agriculture as feed for livestock
Pearl Millet	*Pennisetum glaucum*	Bajra	Rich in protein, fiber, phosphorous, magnesium and iron
Finger Millet	*Eleusine coracana*	Ragi/Mandua	Rich in calcium and polyphenols
Foxtail Millet	*Setaria italic*	Kanngani/kakun	Food for diabetics and poultry food
Barnyard Millet	*Echinochloa frumentacea*	Sawa	High in crude fiber and iron
Little Millet	*Panicum sumatrense*	Kutki	High in iron content and dietary fiber

Climatic conditions for cultivation of millets

Crops of millet are grown in areas with 200–600 mm of annual rainfall. A handful of these adaptable and drought-tolerant crops are important for hill and tribal agriculture, and they are perfect for dryland agricultural settings. Millets have provided residents with food and nutritional security in arduous geographic regions over many years. These food crops are unique in that they are cultivated in low-input conditions, mature earlier, and require less water to develop. Millets are very adaptable to many ecological situations, making them suitable crops for climate change and contingency plantings. These plants are more environmentally friendly due to their high-water usage efficiency and low input demand, but they are also responsive to high input management. The majority of millets are *kharif* season crops (planted in May-June) that mature between September and October. The vast majority of these crops produce well during the rabi season (October-March) and the summer season (January-April).

Different food items made from millets flour

Millets have the potential to be processed and consumed as traditional local dishes such as popping meals, porridges, chapati, dosa, pastas, bread, and cookies (FAO, 2009).

Flatbreads: These are staple foods in Africa. The millet flours undergo a specialized fermentation treatment with yeast and lactic acid bacteria that yields soft leavened textured bread with acidic flavor.

Rotis or chapatis: These are the most well-known unfermented flatbreads made from millets and are popular staple foods of India. Rotis or chapatis resemble a soft pancake with a flexible puffed texture. They are usually served with pickles, vegetables, chutney, meat, or sauce.

Dosa and Idli: These products are popular in southern parts of India, the semi-fermented millet flour is used in making dosas and idlis, that are served with sambar or chutney.

Couscous: It is pasta-like culinary prepared from semolina of millets in North Africa. The semolina is steamed and agglomerated stirred with yogurt and consumed. Usually, the couscous products are categorized based on the size of the particle of semolina used.

Major Initiatives by the Government to Promote Millets

- In April 2018, the government declared millets to be Nutri-cereals due to their nutritional benefits.
- The government is educating farmers about nutria-cereals (millets) such ragi, sorghum, bajra, and small millets through demonstrations and training as part of the National Food Security Mission (NFSM) - Nutri-cereals Sub Mission.
- To promote the shipment of Nutri-cereals, the Ministry of Commerce and Industry has prepared a comprehensive strategy to promote Indian millets exports across the globe starting in December 2022 through its apex agricultural export promotion body, the Agricultural and Processed Food Products Export Development Authority (APEDA).
- During the launch ceremony of the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO)'s International Year of Nutri-cereals in Rome (Italy), our Prime Minister emphasized the importance of making millets a food choice for the future. He also discussed how climate change affects food supply. The Prime Minister stated, "Millets are good for the consumer, the cultivator, and the climate" (Anonymous, 2022).

Conclusion

Despite having an excellent nutritional profile, only traditional consumers and those from lower socioeconomic backgrounds eat millets as food. It is essential to include less common millets in the diet in order to battle increasing climatic unpredictability, ensure nutritional security, and combat life-threatening diseases. Protein is a highly excellent alternative for the development of various functional and value-added food items due to its gluten-free nature, high concentration of micronutrients, and bioactive components with medicinal capabilities. Given the nutritional profile and phytochemical contribution of millet, dietitians and nutritionists need to work to persuade people to eat more millet, both generally and specifically.

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Constraints in Vegetable Production in India: An Overview

Prerna Kumawat, Supriya Madan Gahane and Shivdas R. Aher

Introduction

We consumed a vast variety of leaves, buds, flower buds, stalks, gums, roots, tubers, and even pollens when we first evolved in Africa and then moved to Asia. Ironically, despite the fact that modern plants are more appetizing, we nevertheless consume relatively little of them in our regular diets. It has long been believed that plants' high concentrations of vitamin A, vitamin C, and folic acid, along with their substantial mineral content, are what primarily benefit human health. India is a diverse country where agriculture is the prime mover of its economic growth as 66 per cent India population contributes 20-25 per cent of its GDP (Choudhary *et al*., 2022). The production of cereals brought about a green revolution in India, ensuring food security, but the question of nutrition remained unanswered, requiring a shift in the production of nutrient-supplemental crops. The focus has now shifted from food grains to horticultural crops, with vegetable cultivation leading the way in the last ten years toward sustainable agriculture. This is because agricultural extension has raised farmer incomes, diversified the agricultural base, and boosted vegetable production, all of which have improved living standards. Vegetable production amounts to 200.45 million tons out of 341.63 million tons of horticulture produce (APEDA, 2023). Therefore, vegetables are crucial for enhancing food, income, and nutritional security both nationally and at the family level (Panwar *et al*., 2019). In 2022, the amount of vegetables produced rose to 200.45 million tons. However, due to a fall in the output of potatoes, onions, and tomatoes, there was a significant reduction in its production in 2017, bringing it down to 100 million tons. Some of the constraints farmers face when growing vegetables lead to the partial or complete rejection of new technologies. Increased vegetable output can be attained by farmers implementing all advised technologies. This calls for directing efforts to boost farm productivity, which can be done by figuring out the issues and limitations that vegetable producers are facing. It has been noted that farmers often choose cultivars with low yield potential, which results in losses for the producers.

Constraint in vegetable production

Resource constraints: Farm is the basic managerial and decision-making unit by which agricultural activities are carried out necessitating the need of

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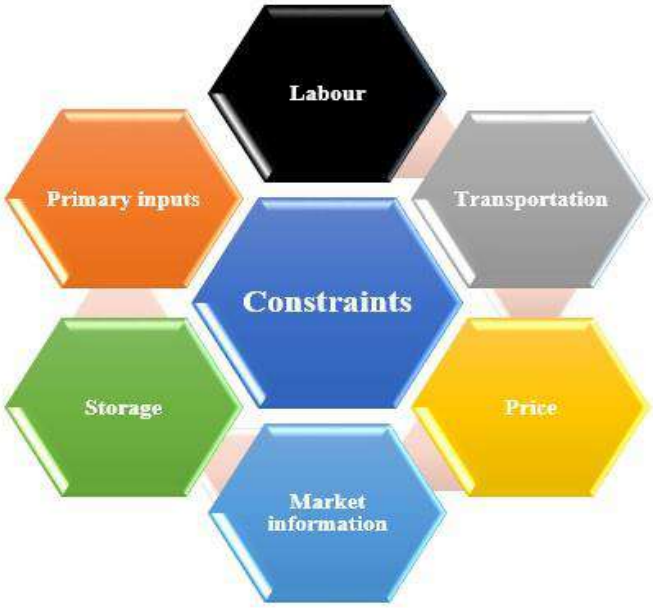
resource management. Land consolidation is still not done to whole India due to which small land holding are scattered causing problems in management of crops. Vegetables require a lot of water, which is often unavailable even when it's needed, which affects vegetable cultivation, particularly in the heat. Naik *et al*. (2019) reported that lack of irrigation facilities (94.79 %) and cost of pesticides (90.62%) were the most important resource constraints of vegetable growers in Andhra Pradesh. Other resource constraints were lack of cold storage facilities (88.54%), unavailability of improved seed of vegetables (86.45%), scattered and small land holdings (85.41%). Whatsoever chemicals or pesticides are purchased by the farmers are costly and spurious (67.00%) which were not very effective in controlling insect pest and diseases resulting yield reduction and high production cost (60.00%) of vegetable production. The labour alone accounting for an average of 36 per cent of the cost of vegetable production and inflated other cost also.



Climate change constraints: Climate change is the long-term alteration of weather parameters and could be refer to a particular location, region, or the planet as a whole. It cause weather pattern unpredictable which can make it difficult to grow and maintain vegetable. The rural areas are more vulnerable to climate change as the people are dependent on natural resources. The geographical area of India comprised of mountains, valleys, coastal region, deltas, and climatic conditions little change in temperature will disturb the whole ecology and pattern of vegetable growing in these regions (Bhardwaj, 2012). Climate change has an impact on vegetables. Low yield is a result of modified physiological and biochemical processes brought on by variations in temperature and soil moisture. Vegetable farming is unprofitable due to a number of frequent issues, including crop failure, decreased yield and quality, and an increase in pests and diseases. The white fly is also more vigorous in spreading virus disease in okra under high temperature. Vegetables are extremely vulnerable to flooding, particularly those with shallow roots, as the roots seek out oxygen as the soil's air is replaced by accumulating water and endogenous ethylene, which harms the plant. A prolonged period of unusually low rainfall is defined as a drought, and vegetables that are succulent contain 90% water. Due to a decrease in seed germination, chlorophyll content, electrolyte leakage, leaf relative water content, and vegetative growth, the drought therefore has a negative impact on vegetable yield and quality.

Technological constraints: A wide gap in yield potential and yield obtained is responsible for low yield. Most of the farmers are not aware of improved varieties with vegetable production technology probably lack of proper and adequate data. According to Chikkeri *et al*. (2023), the absence of sufficient information regarding tomato varieties that are appropriate for the particular agro-climatic conditions is the reason why the potential of tomatoes is not fully realized. The first technological barrier was identified as a lack of information about integrated pest management (IPM) (Naik *et al*., 2019). The second and third barriers were identified as a lack of knowledge about improved varieties, seed rate, and sowing time (85.42%).

Marketing constraints: Non availability of proper marketing facilities followed by storage facilities especially for women was important constraints impeding the vegetable farming. According to Sahu *et al*. (2013), the non-remunerative pricing was ranked highest, followed by transit amenities, high market fees, and a market that was located far away. The main marketing-related barriers cited by the growers of cauliflower were the low pricing (73.00%), absence of a cooperative marketing structure (70.00%), lack of a ready market in the village (60.00%), and the village's predominance of traders.

Social constraints: This problem is location specific and mostly concerned with individuals inhabiting in a specific social setup. A number of studies found that the most frequent barriers to the adoption of new technology were ignorance, poor socio-political structures in the villages, and coordination among farmer groups. Vegetable production is hindered by the prevalent issue of stray cattle, monkeys, wild boar, sambar, nilgai (Blue Bull), and other wild animals. While addressing the social constraints, socioeconomic security need to be addressed which means the measures that enhance social capabilities, ensure economic security and enable vulnerable section of the population to survive.

Conclusion

Because they include antioxidants, nutra-ceuticals, and other nutrients, vegetables are regarded as a protective food. After China, India is the world's second-largest producer of vegetables. Sustainable agriculture is mostly driven by the production of vegetables. Even though India produces more than it needs, there is still nutritional deficiency in households. The difference between farm yield and potential yield is substantial. The farmers of vegetables are discouraged by certain limitations. The growing of vegetables is also impacted by the irrigation facilities. Farmers believe that the cost of pesticides is extremely expensive, and that a small number of chemicals on the market are fake. Vegetables are typically vulnerable to climate change. A slight variation in soil moisture and temperature can affect a plant's physiological and biochemical processes, which lowers production.

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ISBN 978-93-6409-994-3

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Amravati University Chemistry Teachers' Association

Practical Handbook
Chemistry

B.Sc. Semester - II (Lab-3)
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As per Sant Gadge Baba Amravati University
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Published by : DnyanPath Publication (India)

ISBN: 978-81-981907-0-3

AGRITECH REVOLUTION: ADVANCING SUSTAINABLE FARMING VOLUME II

Editors:
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Bhumi Publishing, India
First Edition: October 2024

AgriTech Revolution: Advancing Sustainable Farming Volume II

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

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Bhumi Publishing

October 2024

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Title: AgriTech Revolution: Advancing Sustainable Farming Volume II

Editors: Dr. Krishna Murthy, Dr. Parul Trivedi, Dr. S. S. Rokade, Dr. M. Nafees Iqbal

First Edition: October, 2024

ISBN: 978-81-981907-0-3

ISBN 978-81-981907-0-3

9 788198 190703

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Published by:

Bhumi Publishing

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.

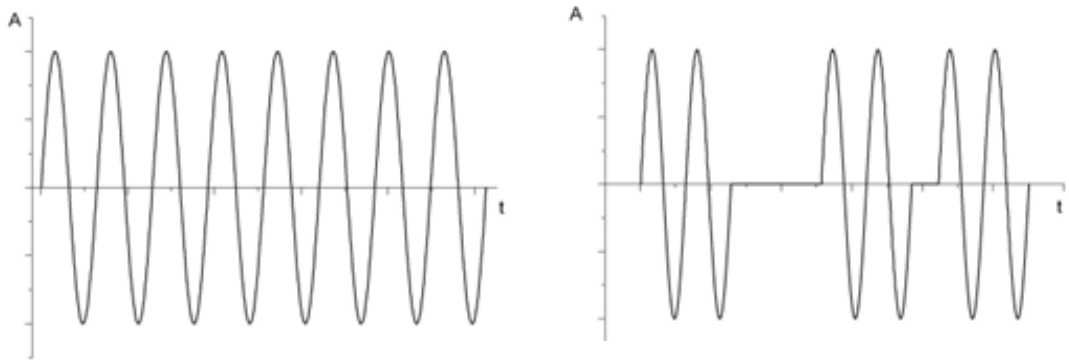

Figure 1: Continuous and interrupted sinusoid of electromagnetic field waves

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 b-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 m^2 (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 (□) 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 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 AB	Average A
		0	30	60	90		
2014	16	4985	5302	4719	5069	5019	4921
	24	4985	5003	5145	5135	5067	
	30	4985	4328	5061	4912	4821	
	72	4985	4912	5051	4154	4775	
	Average AC	4985	4886	4994	4818		
2015	16	1962	2175	1898	2073	2027	1968
	24	1962	2048	2166	2112	2072	
	30	1962	1701	2171	2001	1959	
	72	1962	2019	2032	1251	1816	
	Average AC	1962	1986	2067	1859		
2016	16	4287	4736	4175	4707		4305
	24	4287	4341	4682	4444	4438	
	30	4287	4069	4352	4093	4200	
	72	4286	4139	4292	3699	4104	
	Average AC	4287	4321	4375	4236		
2017	16	2228	2595	2120	2403	2336	2241
	24	2228	2292	2509	2463	2373	
	30	2228	2046	2359	2057	2173	
	72	2228	2118	2172	1813	2083	
	Average AC	2228	2263	2290	2184		
2018	16	3632	4265	3657	3953	3877	4001
	24	3632	4125	4494	4367	4155	
	30	3632	3996	4349	4253	4057	
	72	3632	3846	3976	4210	3916	
	Average AC	3632	4058	4119	4196		

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

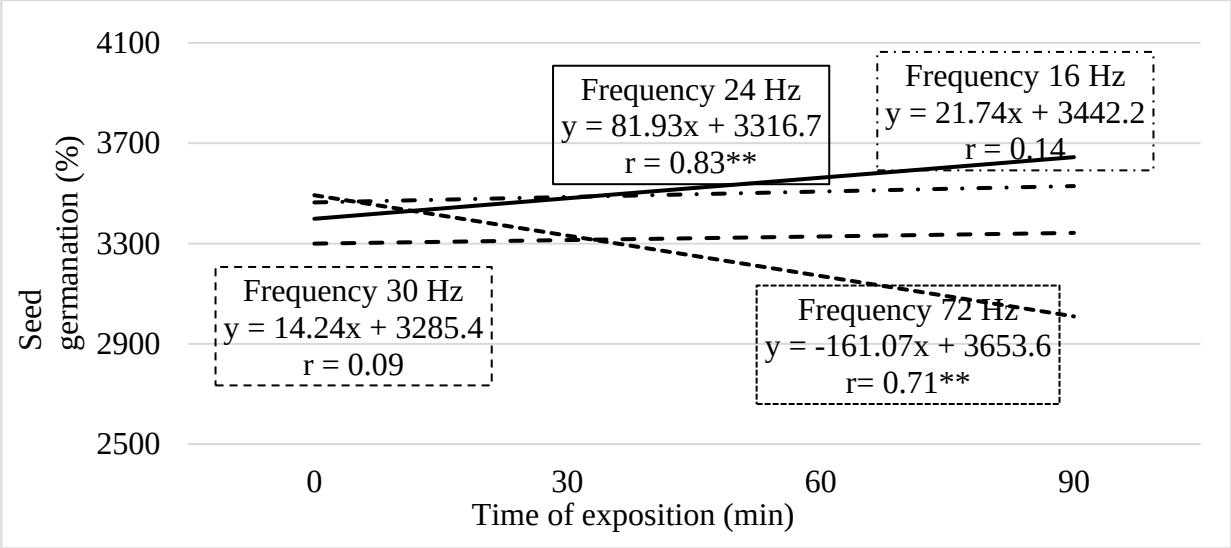

Figure 2: The influence of pulsed electromagnetic waves on soybean yield on average for all years of research

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).

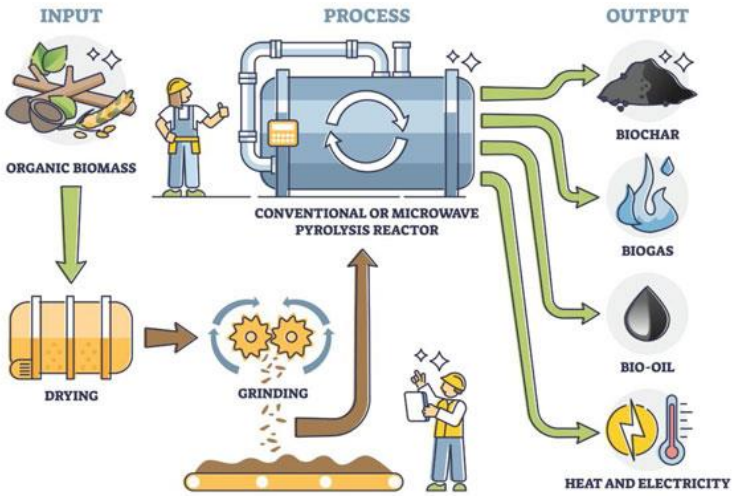

Figure 1: Biomass to Biochar Processes

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).

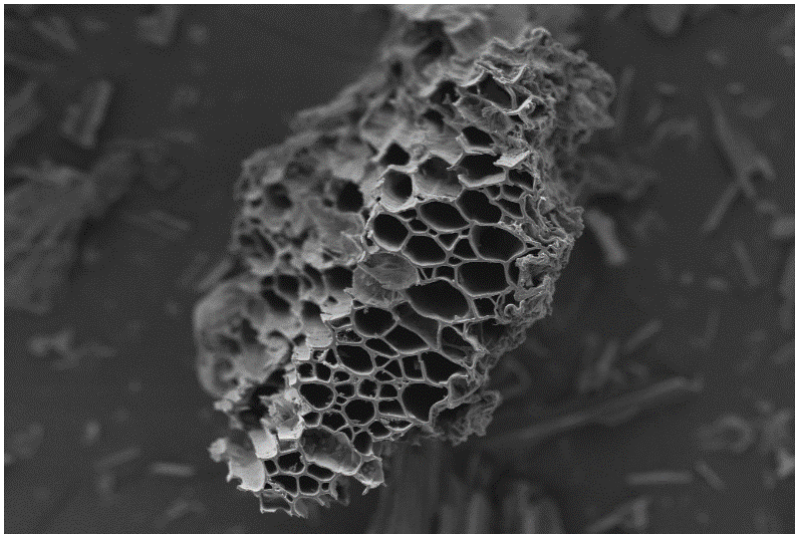

Figure 2: Microscopy Image of Biochar

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 plays 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 farmers 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

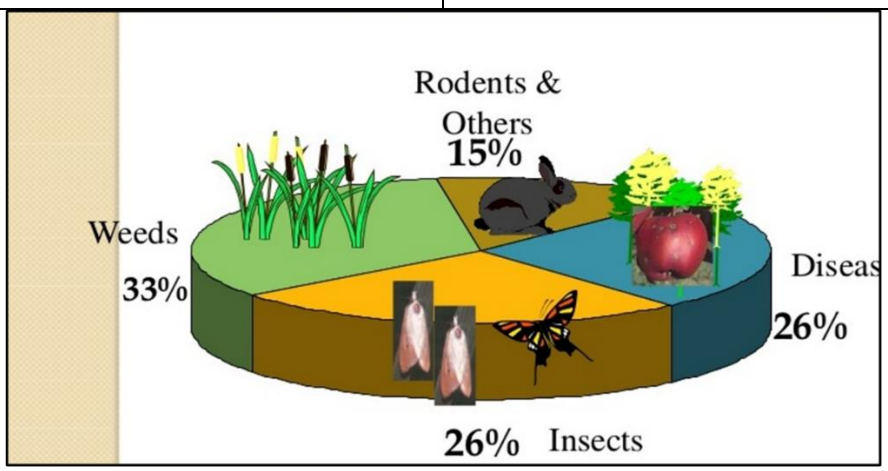


Figure 1: Share of losses caused by different pests (Source: NCIPM, 2017)

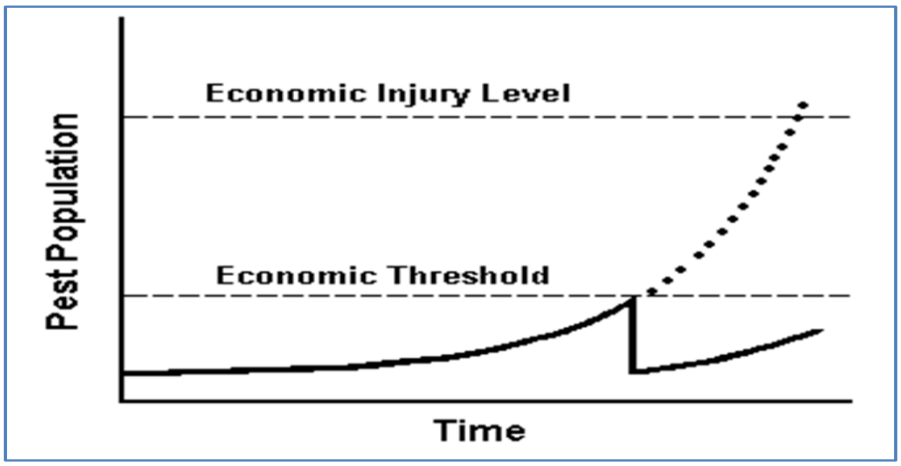


Figure 2: Change in pest population density over a time

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
➢ Removal of crop residues and alternate hosts ➢ Summer ploughing ➢ Soil solarization ➢ Soil amendments	➢ Selection of resistant/tolerant varieties ➢ Seed treatment ➢ Time of sowing ➢ Spacing ➢ Trap cropping ➢ Crop rotation	➢ Earthing-up ➢ Mulching ➢ Irrigation management ➢ Nutrient management

	➢ Intercropping Border crops	

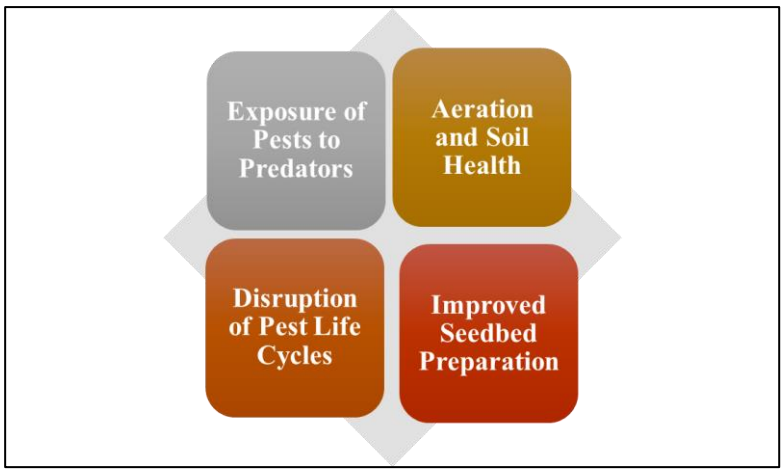
Agronomic practices followed before sowing

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 theses 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	*Amaranthus, Datura*
Castor	Hairy caterpillar	*Crotalaria spp.*
Rice	Stem borer	*Echinochloa, Panicum*
Wheat	Black rust	*Agropyron repens*
Pearl millet	Ergot	*Cenchrus ciliaris*
Maize	Downy mildew	*Sacharum spontaneum*

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 plays 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 enhances 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 1st fortnight)
Sorghum	Shoot fly	Early sowing (July 1st 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.

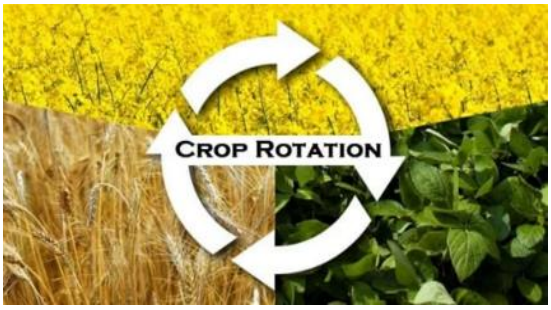
Marigold as a trap crop in tobacco field

Table 6: Important pest controlled by trap cropping system

Main crop	Trap crop	Pest
Maize	Sorghum	*Atherigona spp.*
Sorghum	Maize	*Spodoptera spp.*

Cowpea	*Crotolaria sp.*	*Corn borer*
Groundnut	Castor	*S. litura*
Cotton	Maize	*Bollworms*
Tobacco	Castor, Marigold	*S. litura*
Sugarcane	Maize	*Eldona saccharina*

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.

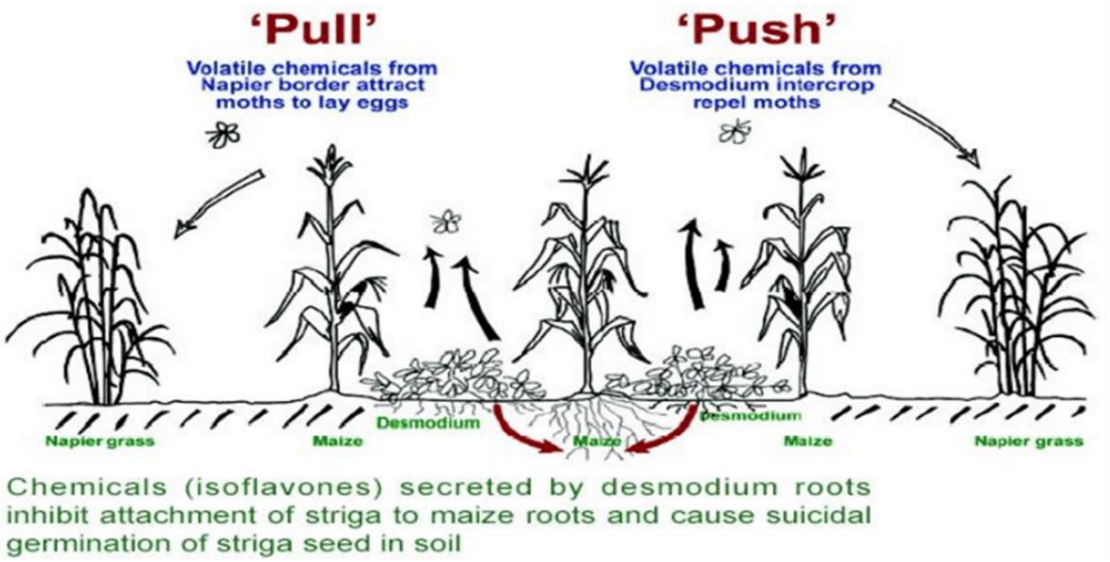


Figure 3: Push-Pull technique in controlling stem borers and striga in maize

Table 7: Important pest controlled by intercropping system

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

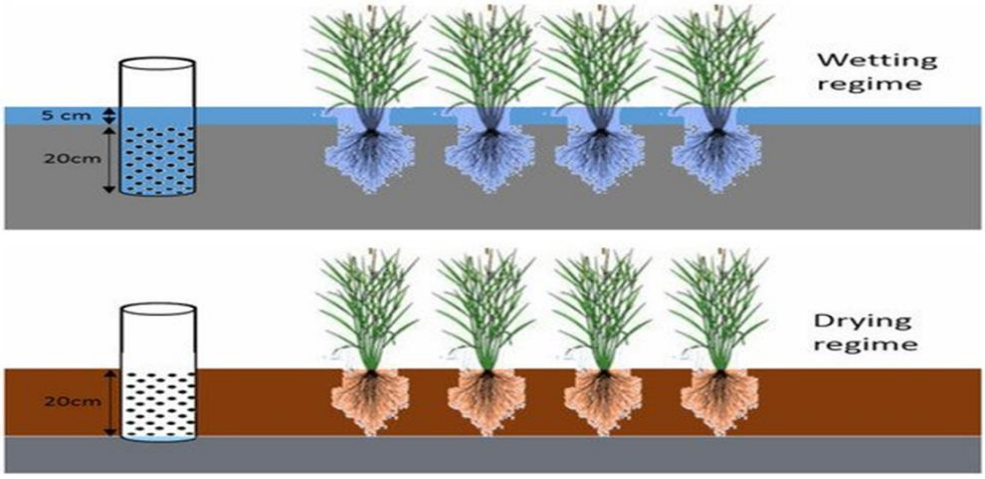
7. **Border crops:** Border crops refer to plants grown around the edges of the field, for the purpose of pest management. It acts as barrier for incidence of pests. Growing of safflower, cacti which are thorny in nature restricts the entry of wild boars up to 50-70 per cent.

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 *et al.,* (1989)
Phosphorus & Potassium	White fly in cotton	Decreases	Butter *et al.,* (1996)
Lime & Sulphur	Root borer in sugarcane	Decreases	Kundu *et al.,* (1994)
Nitrogen	*Alternaria solani* in potato	Decreases	Barclay *et al.,* (1972)
Silicon	*Pyricularia grisea* in rice	Decreases	Zhang *et al.,* (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

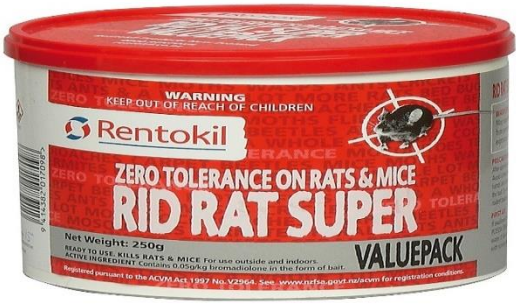
Management of Rodents

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 ie. 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 ie. 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 foots 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 nodulated non-legumes are the species of *Alnus Casuarina, Cercocarpus, Comptonia, Hippophae. Discaria, Dryna, Elaeagnes 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 nepalemis 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 Baridinical 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 rimosa, 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 hundreads 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 herorhizic (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 mycorhizosphere effect. The photosynthates flow into soil through roots and mycorrhizae support a diverse com- munity of soil microorganisms, many of which influence plant growth. The mycorrhizosphere microorganisms may be facultative anaerobes, extracellular chitinase producers, phos- phate solubilizers, and producers of siderophores, antibiotics, hormones, plant growth-suppressors and promotors (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 firm of polyphosphates due to polyphosphate kinase activityplasmic streaming. 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 abuscules, 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 luteur* 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 = (Number of germinated seeds / Total seeds sown) × 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 = Mean germination percentage × 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 varities 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

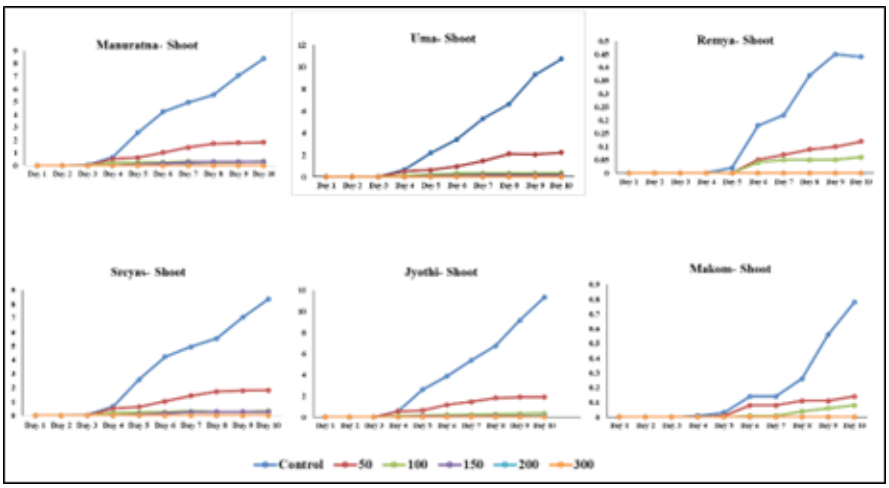


Figure 2: Graphs showing the overall shoot growth pattern in six rice varieties at different concentrations of NaCl during the period of germination experiment

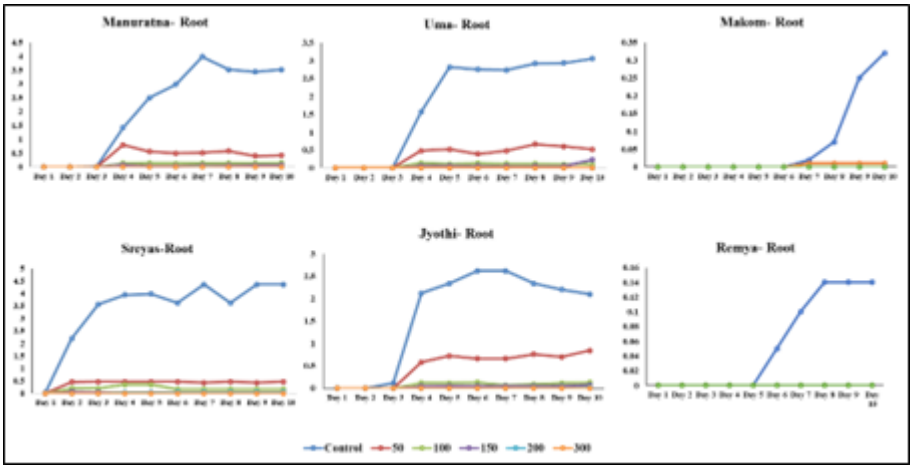


Figure 3: Graphs showing the overall shoot growth pattern in six rice varieties at different concentrations of NaCl during the period of the germination experiment

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			

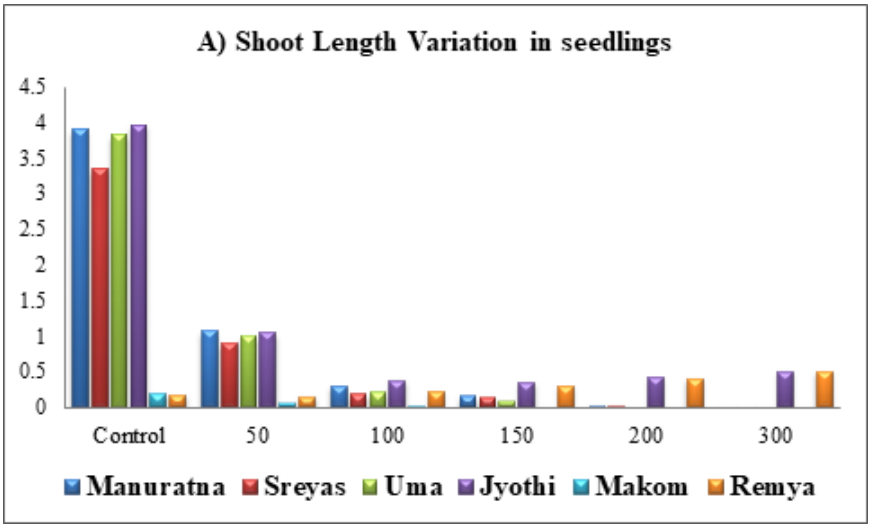
Note: Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05

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.



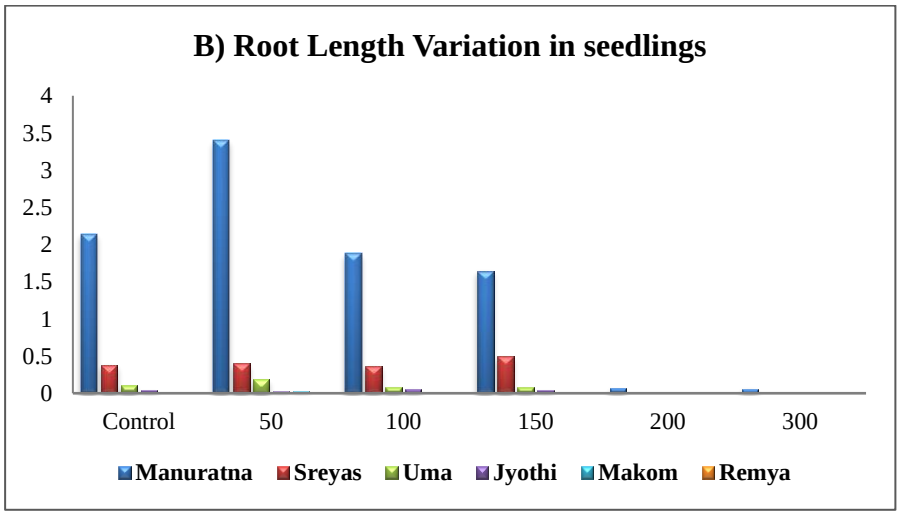


Figure 4: Graphs representing the variation in seedling growth parameters A) Shoot length and B) Root length in different rice varieties at different NaCl concentrations

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 varities

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 varities 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

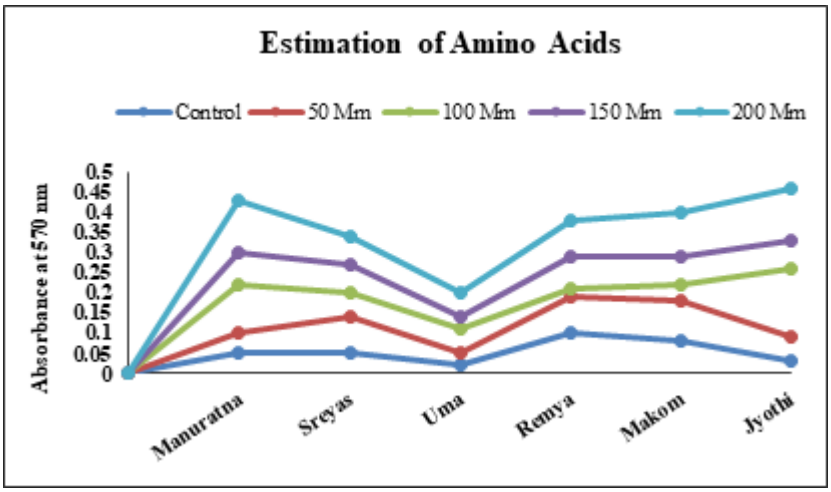


Figure 5: A 2D stalked line graph representing the pattern of absorbance of each successful rice variety at 570 nm for different concentrations of NaCl

Estimation of total phenolics

Estimation of the total phenolics also exhibited similar absorbance pattern in all successful rice varities 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

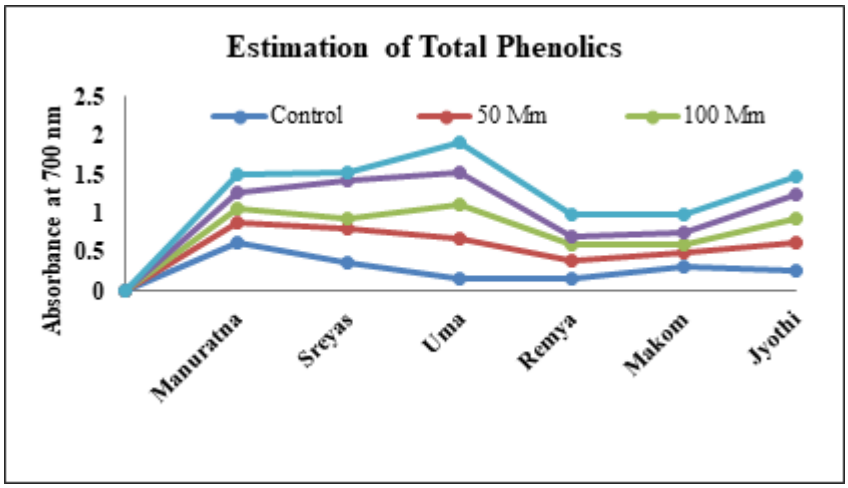


Figure 6: A 2D stalked line graph representing the pattern of absorbance of each successful rice variety at 570 nm for different concentrations of NaCl.

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.

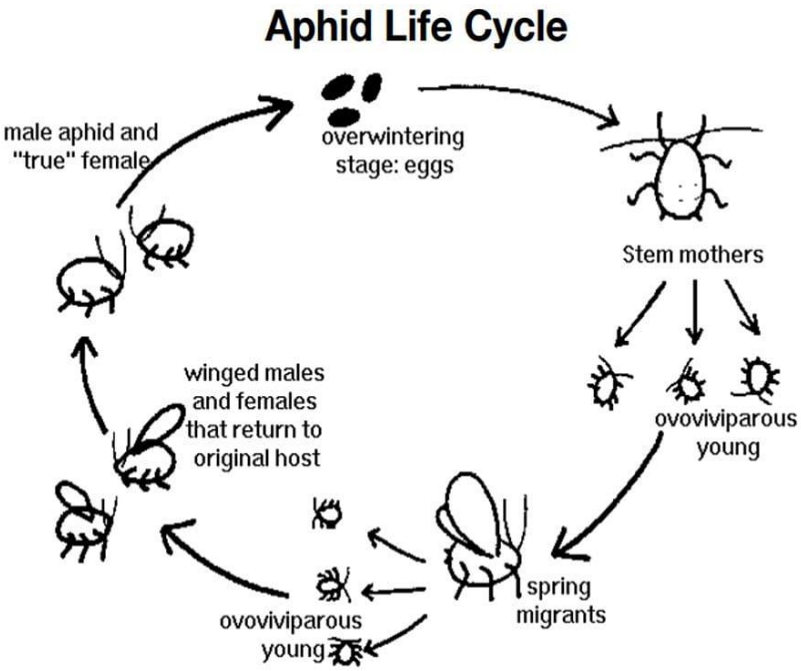
Keywords: Agroclimatic zones, Environmental factors, Infestation, Population dynamics,

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 11.31^0, 12.62^0, and 14.65^0C 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 (26.48^0-30.81^0C), Minimum temperature (11.31^0-14.65^0C), 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 (13.89-17.73^0C), 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 & Mustaffa, 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 & Mustaffa, 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 & Mustaffa, 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 km^3 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. Farmders 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 reeding 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). trait 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: changing 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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ISBN 978-81-981907-0-3

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in recognition of special contribution as an 'Editor' for the book entitled, "AgriTech Revolution: Advancing Sustainable Farming Volume II (ISBN: 978-81-981907-0-3)" published by our publishing house in October, 2024.

Managing Editor
BHUMI PUBLISHING
Nigave Khalasa, Kolhapur.
M. S. INDIA 416 207.

Website: www.bhumipublishing.com
E-mail: bhumipublishing@gmail.com

ISBN: 978-93-95847-15-5

Trends in Life Science Research

Volume I

Editor:
Dr. Makhan Singh
Dr. Pritesh Gugale
Dr. Shrikant Verma
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Bhumi Publishing, India
First Edition: December 2024

Trends in Life Science Research Volume I

(ISBN: 978-93-95847-15-5)

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Bhumi Publishing

December 2024

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Title: Trends in Life Science Research Volume I

Editors: Dr. Makhan Singh, Dr. Pritesh Gugale, Dr. Shrikant Verma, Dr. Nafees Iqbal

First Edition: December, 2024

ISBN: 978-93-95847-15-5

ISBN 978-93-95847-15-5

9 789395 847155

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Published by:

Bhumi Publishing

BHUMI PUBLISHING

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

E-mail: bhumipublishing@gmail.com

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PREFACE

The field of life sciences has continually evolved, revealing the intricate mysteries of living systems and contributing to advancements that impact humanity on multiple fronts. This book, "Trends in Life Science Research" reflects the contemporary research paradigms and an exploration of the latest scientific breakthroughs shaping our understanding of life.

Life sciences encompass a vast domain, from cellular biology to ecological systems, unraveling the complex interplay between organisms and their environments. Recent innovations in biotechnology, genomics, and molecular biology have paved the way for novel approaches to addressing global challenges such as health crises, food security, and environmental sustainability. This book serves as a platform for presenting cutting-edge research and insights across diverse areas of life sciences.

The chapters included in this volume represent the collaborative efforts of researchers, academicians, and industry professionals, providing a comprehensive overview of emerging trends and technologies. Topics such as genome editing, regenerative medicine, biodiversity conservation, and the integration of artificial intelligence in biological studies highlight the multifaceted nature of modern research endeavors.

We hope this compilation will serve as a valuable resource for students, researchers, and professionals, inspiring further inquiry and innovation in the life sciences. The collective knowledge presented herein underscores the significance of interdisciplinary approaches and the transformative potential of science in addressing the challenges of our time.

We extend our heartfelt gratitude to the contributors for their scholarly input and to the editorial team for their unwavering commitment to this project. It is our earnest hope that this book will ignite curiosity and foster a deeper appreciation for the dynamic and ever-evolving field of life sciences.

- Editors

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GENETIC ADVANCES IN AQUACULTURE FOR CLIMATE CHANGE

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Abstract:

Aquaculture, a fastest growing food sector, plays an important role in providing protein nutrition to the world population. Mitigating climate change impacts and securing the availability of aquatic resources for the utilization of aquaculture farms is a great challenge in the future. Development of climate change resilient species by genetic methods, Integrated multitrophic aquaculture, recirculating aquaculture systems and utilizing more coastal sites for aquaculture is a promising field for recovering malnutrition among developing countries and help for sustainable aquaculture development. Present paper discusses the genetic advancement in the field of aquaculture and the techniques like selective breeding, Feed modification, Gene editing, Marker Assisted selection, Genomics and Epigenetic studies carried out for the improvement of race for applying molecular genetic approach in the development of resilient temperature tolerant species.

Keywords: Aquaculture Advancement, Climate Change, Resilient Species, Selective Breeding, Gene Editing

Introduction:

As reported in the 2022 edition of The State of World Fisheries and Aquaculture (SOFIA) global fisheries and aquaculture production increased from the year 2020 to 2022 by 4.4 percent. They reported that production comprised 185.4 million tonnes of aquatic animals and 37.8 million tonnes of algae. Global consumption of aquatic animal has increased twice the rate of the world population since 1961, with global per capita annual consumption rising from 9.1 kg in 1961 to 20.7 kg in 2022 (FAO, 2024). Although rise is very high only only 1% of the available resources are using for culture (Gentry *et al.,* 2017) SOFIA also reported that consumption of aquatic resources will increase by 12 percent to supply on average 21.3 kg per capita in 2032.

Climate change is a serious threat to aquaculture as it alters ecosystem by increasing temperature and natural habitat of aquatic organism especially as it displaces

coastal aquaculture. Sustainable aquaculture involves utilizing cutting edge technologies and practices that will emphasize future demands of affordable protein from water bodies.

Selective breeding, species diversification, aquaculture systems like integrated multi-trophic aquaculture, aquaponics and recirculating aquaculture system are some of the most widely accepted and adapted solutions.

Gene editing research in species used for aquaculture, namely in the area of their reproduction and development, pigmentation, growth and disease resistance. This technology can explore genetic improvement through rapid fixation of desirable alleles. Introducing sterility in aquatic organisms increases the somatic edible content by converting reproductive energy which will also reduce the rate of introgressive hybridization or escape in wild population of genetically manipulated organism. Ploidy manipulation, is successfully carried out in a range of species both in finfishes and shell fishes to utilize more edible part to increase the economic value to the farmer. (Li and Gui,2017)

Knock out genes helps to improve the genetic trait like Nanos 2 and 3 in Nile tilapia (Li *et al.,* 2014) dnd to sterility and Alb gene for albinism (Wargelius etal., 2016). To improve the production efficiency of any given aquaculture species, it is helpful to characterize genomic structure, genomic variations, and the genetic basis of economically important traits. Whole Genome sequencing (WGS) and other genetic tools have been applied in aquaculture. As reported by Robledo *et al.* (2018), GBS (Genotyping by sequencing) led to Restriction-site-associated DNA sequencing (RAD-Seq) as well as whole genome resequencing (WGR) which generated a large single-nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) data at population level which will lead to do a feasible design and use SNP arrays for SNPs genotyping. Construction of high-density genetic linkage maps for quantitative trait loci (QTL) mapping and genome-wide association study (GWAS) have been carried out using SNP arrays (Robledo *et al.,* 2018). All these studies lead for identification of many SNPs associated with economically-important performance traits, like growth rate, disease resistance, sexual determination, and tolerance of various environmental stressors.

Fish feed modification is another important step which gives effectiveness in aquatic animals. Lab grown Insect as diet for replacing fish meal in aquaculture is promising field as insects have been reported to have variable fatty acid profiles, particularly having a low level of PUFAs. PUFAs have important health benefits in humans and are required for optimal growth and development in children. (Maulu *et al.,* 2021) also insects can

accumulate eicosapentaenoic acid (EPA) and docosahexaenoic acid (DHA) by modifying their rearing substrates (Zarantoniello *et al.* (2020).

Jin *et al.,* 2021 reported that surrogate brood stock technology will shorten the interval of free nursery pond in hatchery. Certain alleles may be advantageous to carry during disease outbreaks of certain seasonal variations. Surrogate technology can address some of the negative consequences associated with standard gene editing such as mosaicism. It ensures that progeny will receive cells that are known to have carefully selected, targeted edits which will also help to prevent carrying a variety of different edited alleles. (Roman *et al.,* 2022). Xenogeneic transplantation has been successfully accomplished in surrogate technology

Temperature resistant species can be developed through genetic manipulation using Genetic editing (CRISPER/Cas9) (Denis *et al.,* 2024), Genetic engineering (Transgenesis) Selective breeding, Marker Assisted selection (MAS) and Genome editing (TALEN, ZFN) (Zhu *et al.,* 2024, Zituo *et al.,* 2024, Puthumana *et al.,* 2024)

Understanding the relation between environment and genetic factors is revealed by epigenetic studies in Nile tilapia (Konstantinidis *et al.,* 2021) and in Bombay duck by Liu et alk, 2022. Dorts *et al.,* 2016 reported high temperature stress causes increase of denovo DNA methyl transferase genes which do not cause cytosine methylation levels during DNA methylation.

Conclusion:

Genetic research in aquaculture is rapidly increasing. Most of the researchers highlight the improved growth rates by more than 50% using Selective breeding, genetic manipulation and genetic engineering of growth hormone genes. Enhanced disease resistance variety and climate change resilient organism mainly towards temperature and salinity by gene editing the particular genes is a promising field. Role of heat shock proteins, genetic manipulation techniques all are benefiting to improve the aquatic organisms. Studying the species-specific Omics (Genomics & Proteomics) ie mainly diving deep into molecular biology and its relation to environment will help us to explore more resilient species which will provide aquatic food security for sustainable aquaculture.

Acknowledgement:

The author gratefully acknowledges Principal and Management SICES College, Ambernath (W) for support and encouragement.

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IMPORTANCE OF SUSTAINABILITY AND ENVIRONMENTAL SCIENCE

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Environmental science and sustainability are natural partners. Scientists gather and analyse the data to assess how our natural systems are functioning and sustainability specialists coordinate that information to generate sustainable, innovative and equitable answers to today's environmental, economic, and social justice challenges.

Environmental Science: "Environmental science is an interdisciplinary academic field that draws on ecology, geology, meteorology, biology, chemistry, engineering, and physics to study environmental problems and human impacts on the environment. It is a quantitative discipline with both applied and theoretical aspects and has been influential in informing the policies of governments around the world."

Sustainability: "Sustainability is the long-term viability of a community, set of social institutions, or societal practice. In general, sustainability is understood as a form of intergenerational ethics in which the environmental and economic actions taken by present persons do not diminish the opportunities of future persons to enjoy similar levels of wealth, utility, or welfare. The idea of sustainability rose to prominence with the modern environmental movement, which rebuked the unsustainable character of contemporary societies where patterns of resource use, growth, and consumption threatened the integrity of ecosystems and the well-being of future generations. Sustainability is presented as an alternative to short-term, myopic, and wasteful behaviours. It can serve as a standard against which existing institutions are to be judged and as an objective toward which society should move."

Brief History of Sustainability

The concept of sustainability sprouted from the movement that grew out of the notions of social justice, ecological conservation, and globalism toward the end of the 20th century. In 1983, former Norwegian prime minister Gro Harlem Brundtland was asked to run the World Commission on Environment and Development for the United Nations. Many countries were still in poverty after decades of industrialization which had come at a cost to social equity and the environment. The Brundtland Commission's report Our Common

Future defines the need for sustainable development, a holistic approach that considers the environment, economy, and equity.

Learn about the concept of sustainability and why it's important for maintaining a balance between our environment and economic growth. Sustainability is a long-term goal for our society to meet the needs of economic growth at its current speed with the least amount of impact on the environment. But it's more than preserving the natural world and its fragile ecologies. It's about enabling growth and development of businesses and government entities so that all parts of society work in harmony to ensure that future generations have the natural resources needed to survive.

Sustainability is important for preserving our planet and natural resources like water and air. Building a sustainable future and cultivating sustainable ways of living will reduce pollution and protect habitats of plants and animals. key part of sustainability involves sustainable business practices and economic development, including green technology, eco-friendly supply chains, and more. When businesses and government follow sustainable sustainable practices, it creates a ripple effect on individuals and communities to decrease greenhouse gas emissions and fossil fuels. All of this contributes

Three Pillars of Sustainability

The three pillars of sustainability (environmental, economic, and social) can help us to pave a path toward a sustainable future. Environmental sustainability: The principle of maintaining ecological integrity and ensuring that Earth's environmental systems remain balanced as natural resources such as air, water, soil, forests, and animals are being consumed by humans. Economic sustainability: The goal for humans on Earth to maintain independence and be able to get a job or acquire other resources to meet their needs. Economic systems must be in place and accessible to all. Social sustainability: The principle of ensuring that basic human needs are attainable by all and that there are enough resources available to all within a community. Strong social systems can ensure healthy, happy communities whose human rights such as labor, health care, and equality are respected.

Important of Sustainability

It is a broad discipline, giving students and graduates insights into most aspects of the human world from business to technology to environment and the social sciences. The definition of "sustainability" is the study of how natural systems function, remain diverse and produce everything it needs for the ecology to remain in balance. It also acknowledges

that human civilization takes resources to sustain our modern way of life. There are countless examples throughout human history where a civilization has damaged its own environment and seriously affected its own survival chances (some of which Jared Diamond explores in his book Collapse: How Complex Societies Choose to Fail or Survive. Sustainability takes into account how we might live in harmony with the natural world around us, protecting it from damage and destruction.

We now live in a modern, consumerist and largely urban existence throughout the developed world, and we consume a lot of natural resources every day. In our urban centres, we consume more power than those who live in rural settings and urban centres use a lot more power than average, keeping our streets and civic buildings lit, to power our appliances, our heating and other public and household power requirements. That's not to say that sustainable living should only focus on people who live in urban centres though, there are improvements to be made everywhere - it is estimated that we use about 40% more resources every year than we can put back and that needs to change. Sustainability and sustainable development focus on balancing that fine line between competing needs - our need to move forward technologically and economically, and the needs to protect the environments in which we and others live.

Sustainability is not just about the environment, it's also about our health as a society in ensuring that no people or areas of life suffer as a result of environmental legislation, and it's also about examining the longer-term effects of the actions humanity takes and asking questions about how it may be improved. Humans have, since the Neolithic Agricultural Revolution and maybe even before then, been a consumer rather than a replenisher of environmental resources. From hunter-gatherer societies that moved into an area to use up its resources in a season before setting up camp or moving on, only to return the following year to do the same, the development of a surplus economy saw permanent settlements. Slash and burn farming replaced natural wilderness often with uniform crop plantation and camps gave way to settlements, then eventually villages, towns and cities which would put pressure on the environment.

Sometimes, the environmental pressures forced people into making these changes in the first place (growing human population being one of those pressures) and often eventually they had to move on to somewhere new where the environmental could better sustain them and their practices, or make further changes to their existing environment. There was no real concept of sustainable living, even if the people of the distant past

understood that soil had a maximum fertility that could be exhausted and replenished with livestock.

It is widely acknowledged that many societies collapsed due to an inability to adapt to the conditions brought on by these unsustainable practices. Whether that was introducing alien species that upset the balance of the ecosystem, cutting down too many trees at once or even a failure to adapt to natural fluctuations in the climate, we are far more aware in the modern world about the potential damage caused by human action. Cultural change often led to survival of those societies beyond what might have been expected under the circumstances.

Though some Renaissance and Enlightenment philosophers would express concern about resources and over-population and whether these were sustainable in the long term, these people were not taken seriously at the time other than as a hypothetical question. It would take until the 20th century before we would understand the impact that we could have on our environment. Environmental damage, pollution, destabilizing soils by cutting down trees, fossil fuels and other environmental issues led to a growing concern about the environment and whether we were or could damage our own ecosystem. The United Nations was founded after World War II and in 1945, UNESCO was established to promote the importance of human culture and of science. Today, their remit is "to contribute to the building of peace, the eradication of poverty, sustainable development and intercultural dialogue through education, the sciences, culture, communication and information" The late 20th century, the science of climate change was firmly established. We knew by the 1980s about the problems of the greenhouse effect and the destruction of the ozone layer and coming very late in the century, an awareness of the notion that some of our resources - particularly fossil fuels were finite and that we should make efforts to move to renewable methods of power. It was then that we saw the social, economic and scientific birth of the environmental movement.

The Three Pillars of Sustainability

In 2005, the World Summit on Social Development identified three core areas that contribute to the philosophy and social science of sustainable development. These “pillars” in many national standards and certification schemes, form the backbone of tackling the core areas that the world now faces. The Brundtland Commission described it as “development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of

future generations to meet their own needs". We must consider the future then, in making our decisions about the present.

Economic Development

This is the issue that proves the most problematic as most people disagree on political ideology what is and is not economically sound, and how it will affect businesses and by extension, jobs and employability. It is also about providing incentives for businesses and other organizations to adhere to sustainability guidelines beyond their normal legislative requirements. Also, to encourage and foster incentives for the average person to do their bit where and when they can; one person can rarely achieve much, but taken as a group, effects in some areas are cumulative. The supply and demand market is consumerist in nature and modern life requires a lot of resources every single day ; for the sake of the environment, getting what we consume under control is the paramount issue. Economic development is about giving people what they want without compromising quality of life, especially in the developing world, and reducing the financial burden and "red tape" of doing the right thing.

Social Development

There are many facets to this pillar. Most importantly is awareness of and legislation protection of the health of people from pollution and other harmful activities of business and other organizations. In North America, Europe and the rest of the developed world, there are strong checks and programs of legislation in place to ensure that people's health and wellness is strongly protected. It is also about maintaining access to basic resources without compromising the quality of life. The biggest hot topic for many people right now is sustainable housing and how we can better build the homes we live in from sustainable material. The final element is education - encouraging people to participate in environmental sustainability and teaching them about the effects of environmental protection as well as warning of the dangers if we cannot achieve our goals.

Environmental Protection

We all know what we need to do to protect the environment, whether that is recycling, reducing our power consumption by switching electronic devices off rather than using standby, by walking short journeys instead of taking the bus. Businesses are regulated to prevent pollution and to keep their own carbon emissions low. There are incentives to installing renewable power sources in our homes and businesses. Environmental protection is the third pillar and to many, the primary concern of the future

of humanity. It defines how we should study and protect ecosystems, air quality, integrity and sustainability of our resources and focusing on the elements that place stress on the environment. It also concerns how technology will drive our greener future; the EPA recognized that developing technology and biotechnology is key to this sustainability, and protecting the environment of the future from potential damage that technological advances could potentially bring.

A Sustainable Future

It is not yet clear what our sustainable future will look like but with emerging technologies and the improvement of older cleaner fuel sources, many people now look to a post fossil fuel world - including businesses. Since the 1950s, we have experienced unprecedented growth including intensive farming, a technological revolution and a massive increase in our power needs putting even greater pressure and strain on the planet's resources. We are also far more aware of the plight of the developing world and that facing our planet as we now observe both natural and human-caused disasters and the effects that these can have on the ecosystems and on human population. It's vital that we develop new, cleaner technologies to cope with our energy demands but sustainability is not just about the environment.

The biggest social activism movement related to the social development side of sustainability, has been programs such as Fair Trade and the Rainforest Alliance in encouraging good farming practices while ensuring farmers who produce luxury goods such as coffee and cocoa receive a decent living wage. Activist and sustainability professionals hope to remove trade barriers in future so that they may benefit everyone, contributing to the economic and social development core of sustainability while promoting good environmental practice.

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ANGIOTENSIN-CONVERTING ENZYME INHIBITORS AND RECEPTOR BLOCKERS USAGE IN COVID-19

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Abstract:

Current discussions surrounding the use of Angiotensin-Converting Enzyme inhibitors (ACEi) and Angiotensin Receptor Blockers (ARBs) are increasingly relevant, especially given their critical roles as lifesaving medications for patients with cardiovascular diseases and renal failure. Recent research has produced diverse perspectives on the implications of these medications, particularly in the context of COVID-19 patients. It explores how SARS-CoV-2, the virus responsible for COVID-19, interacts with hosts who are undergoing regular treatment with these inhibitors. This analysis can assist in determining their appropriateness in managing COVID-19 and evaluating whether these treatments pose any significant threat to patient health.

Introduction:

The COVID-19 pandemic represents an unprecedented public health crisis, with significant socioeconomic effects and over 3 million confirmed cases worldwide as of mid-2020. Initial clinical data highlighted that patients with cardiovascular diseases, including those with hypertension and diabetes, were notably overrepresented among those requiring hospitalization for severe COVID-19 infection. The angiotensin-converting enzyme 2 (ACE2) receptor serves as the main entry point for the SARS-CoV-2 virus. There was growing concern that medications such as ACE inhibitors (ACEi) and angiotensin II receptor blockers (ARBs), both commonly used for managing hypertension and heart failure, could potentially enhance the risk of severe infection due to their influence on ACE2 levels [1, 2, 7].

Background and Mechanisms

Recent studies suggest that chronic treatment with ACEi or ARB might elevate tissue levels of ACE2, thereby increasing the potential for SARS-CoV-2 to bind and enter epithelial cells [3, 5]. This hypothesis has raised critical questions about the implications of continuing these medications for patients with existing cardiovascular conditions during the pandemic. Several theoretical mechanisms could explain why ACEi and ARB treatment

might be risk-enhancing. Conversely, these drugs could also offer protective benefits during severe respiratory events by modulating the renin–angiotensin system (RAS) and potentially reducing inflammation and lung injury associated with severe COVID-19 [4, 6, 7, 10, 12].

Study Overview and Methodology

In the context of these concerns, a substantial study was conducted involving 1200 hospitalized COVID-19 patients across two sites in the UK. The study aimed to evaluate the association between chronic treatment with ACEi/ARB and the severity of COVID-19 outcomes, defined primarily as death or critical care admission within 21 days of symptom onset [3, 8].

The cohort included patients aged 63 years on average, with 52% being male and a significant percentage from minority ethnic groups. Notably, 74% of patients had at least one comorbidity, with hypertension and diabetes being the most prevalent [8]. Data were collected through a validated electronic health record pipeline, ensuring rapid evaluation of clinical outcomes while capturing detailed medication histories, symptoms, and other key variables [9, 11].

Key Findings

Among the 1200 patients studied, 399 (33.25%) were on chronic treatment with ACE inhibitors or ARBs. Of the total cohort, 415 (34.6%) reached the primary endpoint of either death or admission to an intensive care unit within 21 days of symptom onset. Notably, patients on ACEi/ARB were generally older and had a higher prevalence of comorbidities compared to those not on these medications. Despite this, the odds of experiencing a severe outcome (death or critical care admission) was significantly lower for those on ACEi/ARB [7, 8].

After adjusting for demographic and clinical factors, the odds ratio (OR) for severe outcomes in patients on ACEi/ARB compared to those not on these agents was found to be 0.63 (95% confidence interval [CI]: 0.47-0.84, $P < 0.01$). This suggests that chronic treatment with these medications may not only be safe but potentially beneficial among patients with COVID-19 [4, 12, 13].

A comparison of outcomes by sub-group based on ACEi/ARB usage provided additional insights, consistently revealing no increased risk associated with these drugs among patients with existing cardiovascular morbidity [11, 14].

Discussion:

The findings of this study contribute to the growing body of evidence suggesting that the risks associated with stopping ACEi and ARB medications may outweigh potential

benefits. Current clinical guidelines have recommended that patients appropriately prescribed these drugs continue their use, particularly given the benefits in managing hypertension and heart failure, which are vital in the context of a global health emergency [7, 14]. Evidence also supports the stance that cessation of ACEi/ARB could expose patients to higher risks of adverse outcomes due to the underlying conditions these medications are prescribed to manage [1, 3, 8].

Regrettably, some studies have suggested a correlation between ACEi/ARB use and increased susceptibility to severe COVID-19 outcomes, yet many of these analyses have been confounded by the underlying conditions of patients included in the studies, which often overlap with those requiring COVID-19 hospitalization [8, 9]. Comparative results from similar investigations across different cohorts indicate that chronic usage of these agents does not confer additional risk for severe COVID-19 [5, 6, 12, 14].

Conclusions and Future Research:

Based on the evidence derived from this study, ACE inhibitors and ARBs may be considered safe regarding the severity of COVID-19 outcomes among patients. It is essential for medical professionals to maintain a collaborative approach to care, ensuring that cardiovascular treatments are not unnecessarily halted, especially as new guidelines and recommendations emerge during the ongoing pandemic.

Future studies are needed to further elucidate the mechanisms by which ACEi and ARB influence COVID-19 outcomes. Randomized controlled trials may help to confirm the potential therapeutic benefits of these medications in the pandemic context and provide clarity on their roles in managing patients with both COVID-19 and pre-existing cardiovascular conditions. Emphasis must be placed on ensuring equitable access to these therapeutics across diverse populations, who may be disproportionately affected by both cardiovascular diseases and COVID-19 [9, 10, 12].

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MARKETING STRATEGIES FOR ORNAMENTAL FISHES

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Abstract:

The ornamental fish industry is a thriving area of the worldwide pet market, driven by increased consumer interest in aquariums as a decorative and therapeutic element. Success in this specialized sector depends on using efficient marketing techniques. In order to increase exposure and customer trust, this study examines cutting-edge strategies such influencer partnerships, social media participation, and digital marketing. By encouraging direct customer relationships, traditional strategies like trade exhibitions and retail partnerships support these contemporary approaches. To appeal to customers that care about the environment, a focus is put on specialized branding, sustainable sourcing, and instructional materials. Businesses may increase customer loyalty, boost outreach, and boost sales in the cutthroat ornamental fish industry by combining offline and online tactics.

Keywords: Strategies, Thriving Area, Industry.

Introduction:

A profitable and vibrant industry, the ornamental fish market meets the demand for unique and beautiful fish species in aquariums around the world. Breeders, exporters, retailers, and enthusiasts are among the many stakeholders in the business. For this industry to continue growing and to satisfy the demands of a wide range of customers, effective marketing techniques are crucial.

Overview of the Ornamental Fish Industry:

The ornamental fish market is characterized by its diversity, offering hundreds of species ranging from freshwater to marine varieties. According to industry reports, the global ornamental fish market is projected to grow significantly due to increasing interest in aquarium hobbies and the therapeutic benefits associated with keeping fish. Key markets include North America, Europe, and Asia, with the latter being a significant supplier due to favorable climatic conditions for breeding and exporting.

Supply Chain Management:

Supply chain management plays a critical role in the ornamental fish industry. It involves sourcing, breeding, transportation, and distribution of fish to retailers and end consumers. Marketing strategies within the supply chain focus on efficiency, quality assurance, and reducing mortality rates during transportation.

Breeding and Sourcing:

Breeding quality fish is a fundamental aspect of the supply chain. Marketing strategies emphasize partnerships with experienced breeders who can supply healthy and vibrant fish. Certifications and endorsements for sustainable breeding practices enhance marketability.

Transportation and Logistics:

Ornamental fish are delicate and require specific environmental conditions during transportation. Companies invest in specialized packaging, oxygenated containers, and temperature control to ensure fish arrive healthy. Highlighting these logistics innovations in marketing materials assures consumers of the quality and care involved.

Retail Distribution:

Retailers serve as the final touchpoint for consumers. Marketing strategies include attractive in-store displays, live aquariums showcasing fish in natural habitats, and informative brochures to educate customers about care requirements.

Branding and Positioning:

Branding is critical in differentiating ornamental fish suppliers in a competitive market. A strong brand identity builds trust and loyalty among consumers.

Creating a Unique Selling Proposition (USP):

Businesses emphasize aspects such as rare species, sustainable practices, or exclusive breeding techniques to create a USP. For example, companies specializing in exotic marine species often highlight their expertise in maintaining coral-safe environments.

Visual Branding:

The use of visually appealing logos, packaging, and promotional materials captures attention. High-quality images of vibrant fish are frequently employed in marketing campaigns.

Storytelling:

Sharing the origins and breeding stories of ornamental fish adds an emotional connection. For instance, a campaign detailing how certain fish species are bred responsibly in small-scale farms can appeal to environmentally conscious buyers.

Digital Marketing:

The rise of digital platforms has revolutionized marketing in the ornamental fish industry. Online strategies include e-commerce, social media, content marketing, and influencer partnerships.

E-Commerce Platforms:

Selling ornamental fish online allows businesses to reach a global audience. Websites and apps provide detailed descriptions, care guides, and videos of available fish. User-friendly interfaces and secure payment options enhance customer experience.

Social Media Marketing:

Platforms like Instagram, Facebook, and YouTube are ideal for showcasing the beauty of ornamental fish. Businesses use social media to post vibrant images, run contests, and engage directly with their audience. Live sessions offering aquarium setup tips are particularly popular.

Content Marketing:

Blogs, videos, and tutorials about aquarium maintenance, fish care, and species compatibility serve as valuable resources for hobbyists. Optimizing this content for search engines ensures higher visibility.

Influencer Collaborations:

Partnering with aquarium enthusiasts and influencers helps build credibility. Influencers share personal experiences, review products, and demonstrate fish care practices, reaching a wider audience.

Sustainability as a Marketing Strategy:

Sustainability is a growing concern among consumers. Companies that adopt eco-friendly practices gain a competitive edge.

Ethical Sourcing:

Marketing campaigns emphasize responsible sourcing of wild fish and sustainable breeding programs to protect natural habitats.

Eco-Friendly Products:

Businesses promote sustainable aquarium products such as biodegradable tank decor, energy-efficient filters, and organic fish food.

Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR):

Companies engage in initiatives like reef restoration, conservation projects, and community education programs. Highlighting these efforts in marketing materials resonates with environmentally aware consumers.

Consumer Engagement and Retention:

Building lasting relationships with customers is vital for the ornamental fish industry. Strategies include personalized services, loyalty programs, and educational initiatives.

Personalized Services:

Offering tailored recommendations based on customer preferences fosters loyalty. For example, suggesting specific fish species or tank setups suitable for beginners versus advanced hobbyists.

Loyalty Programs:

Rewarding repeat customers with discounts, exclusive access to rare species, or free consultations encourages long-term engagement.

Educational Workshops:

Hosting workshops on aquarium maintenance, fish health, and aquascaping establishes businesses as trusted authorities. Online webinars cater to a broader audience.

Challenges and Future Prospects:

The ornamental fish industry faces challenges such as regulatory constraints, disease outbreaks, and competition from alternative hobbies. Marketing strategies must address these challenges proactively.

Regulatory Compliance:

Staying updated with international trade laws and obtaining necessary certifications builds consumer trust. Marketing campaigns can highlight adherence to ethical and legal standards.

Innovations in Health Management:

Promoting disease-free fish through advanced health screening techniques enhances customer confidence.

Exploring Emerging Markets:

Expanding into untapped regions with growing interest in aquariums presents opportunities. Marketing efforts should focus on educating new consumers in these markets.

Conclusion:

The ornamental fish industry thrives on creativity, innovation, and a deep understanding of consumer preferences. Effective marketing strategies from supply chain optimization to digital outreach—are essential for capturing market share and ensuring sustainable growth. As the industry evolves, businesses that prioritize sustainability, customer engagement, and technological advancements will continue to flourish. By leveraging these strategies, the ornamental fish market can cater to the diverse needs of its global audience while promoting environmental responsibility.

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BLUEPRINTS OF HEALING: MODERN TECHNIQUES IN DRUG DESIGNING

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Abstract:

Drugs are an inevitable part of our life, required daily for various purposes and administered in varied forms. To make them available and effective, decades of research involving multiple scientific fields to discover and design a single drug, with careful planning of the drug delivering to the appropriate site in the body for it to activate and carry its function. To simplify the drug designing process to some extent, several modern techniques are employed, especially since the boom in biovinformatics field. Computerized techniques and simulations are used to construct the drug compound structure, ligand and receptor sites, protein structures, etc. to understand the mechanism of the drug when it interacts at the necessary site by simulator method. This is widely termed as Computer Aided Drug Designing (CADD). Due to this the long-term research required has been reduced to a great extent allowing researchers to produce, design and release a drug earlier in the market as well as reduced the use of animal models utilized in research. Other similar methods that mainly involve CADD are Artificial Intelligence (AI), Molecular Docking, Structure Based Drug Design (SBDD), Ligand Based Drug Design (LBDD etc. This chapter aims to give an insight of the listed methods for drug designing most of which are currently employed for drug designing research while some are still being explored to utilize its potential in the future.

Keywords: Animal Models, Artificial Intelligence (AI), Bioinformatics, Computer Aided Drug Designing (CADD), Computerized Technique, Drugs, Drug Design, Ligand, Ligand Based Drug Design (LBDD), Molecular Docking, Protein Structures, Structure Based Drug Design (SBDD), Simulations.

Introduction:

Drugs are chemical substances prepared by an authorized pharmacopoeia or formulary intended for use in healthcare for diagnosis, cure, prevention, mitigation, treatment of any abnormal condition in an individual (humans and animals) etc. classified into various categories depending on its use like antibiotics, anti-inflammatory and

analgesics, antipsychotics, barbiturates, bronchodilators, diuretics, corticosteroids, muscle relaxants, sedatives, antacids, thrombolytics and anticoagulants, antihypertensives, antineoplastics, and many more. These drugs are in market for use by the consumer as per the requirement prescribed by a medical professional. For instance, Amoxycillin and Cefixime are the two most common antibiotics prescribed to a patient during a bacterial infection, whereas Carboplatin, Altretamine, Busulfan etc. are some of the frequently used antineoplastics which are involved in cancer treatment alongside chemotherapy. But, the drugs in the market did not magically appear, it took several years even decades of planning, preparations, trials to design and discover any medicine.

Drug discovery which is defined as the process by which possible novel medications are found by encompassing many scientific fields like pharmacology, biotechnology, biology and chemistry being the main ones, whereas drug designing is the creative process of creating novel drugs using biological target information, basically creating molecules that are complimentary in shape and charge to the chemical target they interact and bind to is the most basic aspect of medication creation. Knowledge in both these fields and its appropriate implementation is necessary to prepare an efficient drug. Along with these pharmacology branches that are involved is Pharmacokinetics that is the branch of clinical pharmacology that focuses on chronic variations in the amount of a medication or drug metabolite in different bodily parts. The four processes of metabolism, excretion, distribution, and absorption can be used to characterize these alterations; Pharmacodynamics is known as the study of how medications affect the body's physiology and biochemistry. The quantity and affinity of receptors at the site of action, signal transduction, and homeostasis regulation all affect how much of a drug's pharmacologic impact is felt; and lastly Pharmacovigilance which is defined as the pharmaceutical science that deals with the collection, detection, assessment, monitoring, and prevention of the negative side effects with pharmaceutical goods and is sometimes referred to as drug safety. All these disciplines together are involved in drug development process. It is an extremely tedious, expensive, time consuming and laborious process taking at least a decade or even more to design it, conduct several stages of clinical trials and then get it approved from the FDA. Also, due to any unknown reason, even though the drug passed all clinical trial phases yet shows some side effects after release in the market, it is recalled and modified, which may require few more months or even extend to years. In general, the steps involved is designing a drug are as follows:

1. **Discovery:** Novel compounds based on the knowledge of a disease occurrence are

searched followed by testings for preliminary confirmation if the molecule is efficient to treat. If it is, further research is conducted.

2. **Development:** Here, the molecule's dosage, ADMET (Absorption, Digestion, Metabolism, Excretion and Toxicity) factor is assessed, reproducibility, side effects, route of administration, interaction with other simultaneous treatments, its suitability for different groups of people (for children, adolescents, pregnant women, gender, etc.).
3. **Preclinical Research:** In Vitro studies on animal cell lines to ensure no serious harm takes place and a dosage is set, as well as a defined protocol and requirement of the drug.
4. **FDA Approval:** Before taking the study to in vivo level, an FDA review team analyses and their approval is required to proceed.
5. **Clinical research:** Now from in vitro the study is shifted to in vivo beginning with animal models like mice, rabbits, chimpanzees and monkeys followed by trials in human volunteers. It involves at least 3 phases with a control group also called placebo group, where the categories are modified and tried on a larger group in each phase trials.
6. **FDA Review:** A New Drug Application (NDA) is submitted to the Food and Drug Administration (FDA) from the company enlisting the entire history of the molecule and complete research data statistics. The FDA review team evaluates it, with an inspection to ensure no fabricated study has been conducted.
7. **Approval:** When it is confirmed that the data is authentic, and the drug prepared is effective and suitable for consumption, the applicant company is asked to label it with the necessary information and a brand name, after which the FDA approves the medication and releases in the market.

Post Market Drug Safety Monitoring:

Though strict trials and information of the drug has been provided, FDA monitors the acceptance of the drug for a few months to a year till it is accepted by the public to ensure no side effect arises due to the medicine or incorrect prescription. If the response is not up to the mark and limitations arise, the drug is recalled from the market for re purposing

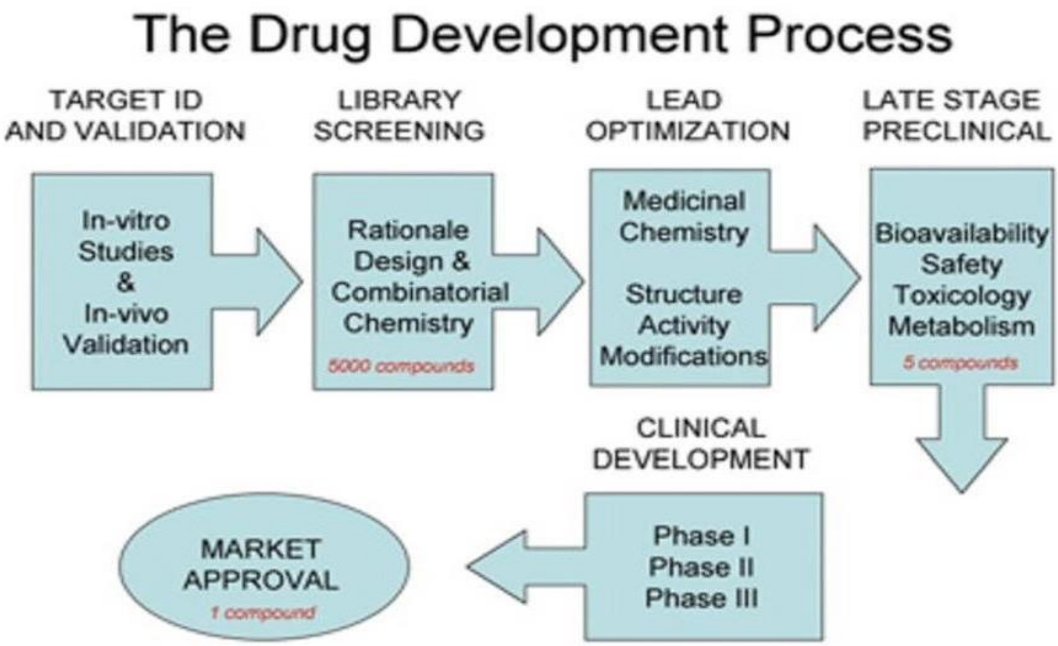


Figure 1: Flow chart of Drug Designing Process

Till date drugs were designed by the traditional methods that is obtained from a variety of sources like plants, minerals, microbes; or by serendipitous discovery which is some drugs are found by chance; ethnopharmacological approach that involves study of ethnic medicinal plants of a community; random screening; trials and errors etc. Penicillin an antibiotic discovered during World War 1, is a classic example of serendipity discovery by Alexander Fleming from the fungi *Penicillium notatum* and *Penicillium chrysogenum.* But, the major drawback of traditional techniques is it requires years of experimentation and takes a lot of time and money in its production.

To overcome this issue, new approaches mostly in silico methods are being discovered with some of them already being in use. The most widely used is Computer Aided Drug Designing (CADD), Artificial Intelligence (AI), Bioinformatics, Molecular Docking, Structure Based Drug Design(SBDD), Ligand Based Drug Design (LBDD), Hybrid methods, High Throughput Screening (HTS), QSAR, etc.

Computer Aided Drug Design (CADD):

The field of computer-aided drug design (CADD) is expanding and has many different aspects. It includes both basic and applied research in a variety of forms. Basic and applied research both combine and develop their potential in this way. Quantum mechanics and molecular modeling techniques, such as structure-based drug design, ligand-based drug design, database screening, and binding affinity analysis, which are all predicated on an understanding of a biological target, form the theoretical basis of CADD.

The fact that CAD requires less money and work than laboratory studies is one of its main benefits. The use of CADD in the drug discovery process is covered in this review.

Types of CADD

Structure-Based Drug Designing (SBDD)

One of the most effective and potent methods in the field of drug discovery is structure-based drug design, or SBDD. Along with other pertinent biological insights, it makes use of crucial data such small molecule target information, genetic sequences, binding interactions, cytotoxicity, and ADMET (absorption, distribution, metabolism, excretion, and toxicity) profiles. Pharmaceutical businesses and R&D teams use these services widely since they are crucial for speeding up the drug discovery process. Predicting molecular structures, visualizing binding sites, performing molecular docking and virtual screening, assessing the stability of docked complexes, evaluating ADMET, and computing binding-free energy using techniques like MM-PBSA are all examples of the standard workflow

Ligand-based drug designing (LBDD)

Accurate target identification is made extremely difficult by the absence of a 3D macromolecular structure, necessitating the application of sophisticated computational methods. Because of this restriction, pharmaceutical researchers are currently facing more challenging circumstances. However, the creation of more efficient methods has strengthened the idea of high-throughput screening (HTS). To overcome these obstacles, ligand-based drug design has shown itself to be a useful strategy. There are three methods to tackle this, including Methods for similarity searches, machine learning, and mapping pharmacophore models.

Applications of CADD:

1. Molecule Screening: Using both computational and experimental techniques, CADD is essential for screening a large number of molecules against a target structure.
2. Lead Compound Optimization: It helps to optimize lead compounds according to their toxicity levels, pharmacokinetic characteristics, and binding affinity.
3. Design of Novel Compounds: By altering their structure to improve their functionality, CADD assists in the creation of novel compounds that resemble drugs.
4. Usage in Drug Modeling: Combinatorial chemistry and bioinformatics are included into CADD's usage in drug development, tackling important issues including time and cost limits.

Limitations of CADD:

The scientific community still has to address a number of issues with the SBDD approach, despite the fact that it has become a ground-breaking drug design technique. Enhancing chemogenomic compound libraries, improving screening methods, improving the quantity and quality of data, developing new tools and databases, optimizing multitarget drug structures, improving toxicity prediction algorithms, and integrating the approach for greater efficacy and compatibility are some of these challenges. Furthermore, the significance of entropy estimates and electrostatic interactions is frequently disregarded. Moreover, no one piece of software or package exists at this time that works well for particular targets and ligands, such as water molecules, and figuring out the target's most likely shape. To overcome these obstacles, more advancements and enhancements are still needed.

AI in Drug Discovery:

Artificial Intelligence is able to identify hit and lead compounds, validate drug targets more quickly, and optimize drug structure design. Together with structural and ligand-based approaches, a variety of in-silico techniques for virtual screening compounds from virtual chemical spaces offer improved profile analysis, quicker removal of non-lead compounds, and more cost-effective therapeutic molecule selection.

Molecular Docking:

The phenomenon of small molecules in the binding pockets of the protein is known as molecular docking. Molecular docking is an in-silico research method that focuses on the interaction between two or more molecular structures, such as an enzyme and a ligand. The binding of these molecules results in various interactions, such as complement cascade, inhibition or activation of the biological function of the protein. The technique enables us to determine the affinity of ceratin molecules for the relevant protein as well as to forecast and identify possible locations where these molecules bind and interact. Docking can be categorized according on the types of ligands:

- Protein small molecule (ligand) docking
- Docking of protein nucleic acids
- Docking of proteins.

Some fundamental terms used in molecular docking:

Receptor - A receptor is a polymeric structure, primarily a protein molecule, that is found on the surface of cells. It binds with particular molecules, known as ligands, which function as molecular messengers and causes a biological reaction.

***Ligand* -** Ligands are molecules that attach themselves to receptors; these can be drugs, neurotransmitters, hormones, lymphokines, lectins, and antigens. However, they can also be another biopolymer or macromolecule (in the case of protein docking), or they can be another biopolymer or macromolecule.

***Docking* -** the modeling method known as "docking" is intended to determine the ideal fit between the ligand and the docking site.

Dock pose- There are various positions, conformations, and orientations in which a ligand molecule can attach to a receptor. A dock stance is the name given to each of these docking modes.

***Binding Mode* -** The term "binding mode" describes the precise conformation of the ligand and the receptor when they are coupled together, as well as the ligand's relative orientation with regard to the receptor.

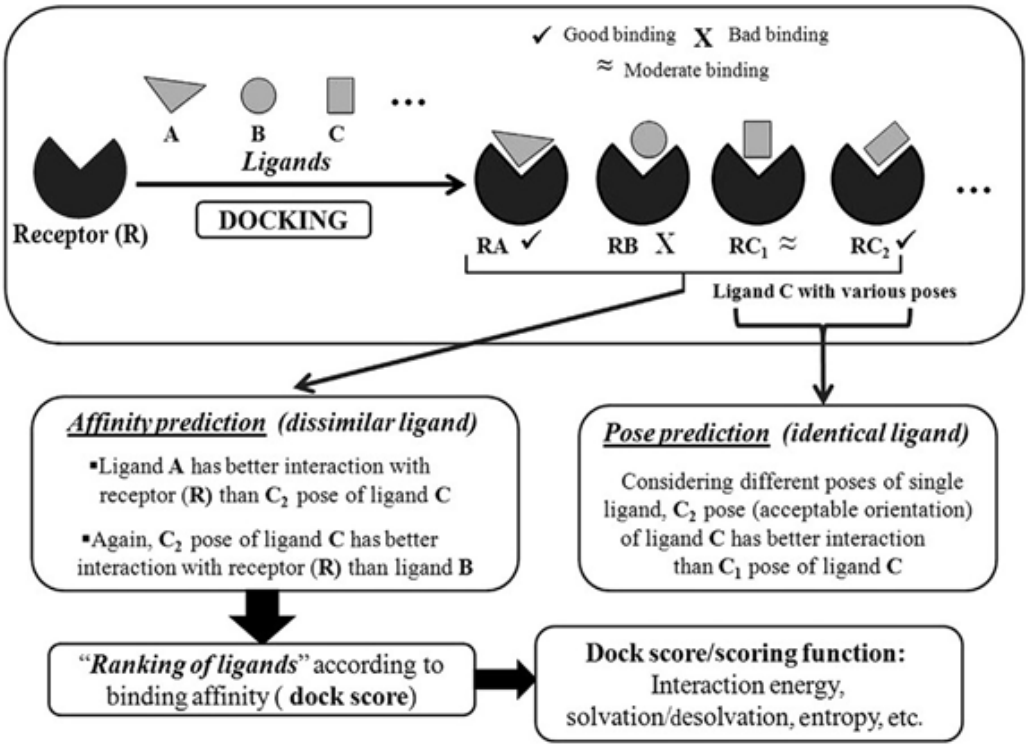
***Dock Score* -** The technique of determining a certain ligand-receptor pose by counting the amount of advantageous intermolecular contacts, such as hydrophobic and hydrogen bonding interactions, is known as the docking score. This aids in determining the most energetically advantageous binding position while accounting for characteristics like as electrostatics and shape compatibility. The ligand is probably a good binder if its dock score is high.

***Ranking* -** Using the expected free energy of binding as a criterion, ranking entails grouping ligands according to how likely they are to interact favorably with a particular receptor. Following the completion of docking, ligands are ranked according to their dock scores, which indicate their anticipated binding affinities. Prioritizing compounds for additional synthesis and biological testing based on their predicted level of activity is done using this ranked list.

***Pose Prediction* -** Pose prediction is the process of determining a ligand's proper binding mode. Usually, this entails identifying the energetically ideal poses after conducting several experiments. Given their intrinsic flexibility, it is essential to ascertain the ligand's proper orientation and conformation.

***Scoring or Affinity Prediction* -** Evaluating the optimal docking positions based on energy

scores is known as affinity prediction, or scoring. These scores are compared to determine the relative rankings of ligands. Generally speaking, scoring functions can be divided into two groups: (1) knowledge-based functions, which use observed atomic contact frequencies or distances in protein-ligand complex databases to generate statistical data, and (2) physical interaction-based functions, which concentrate on binding energetics. These functions frequently make the assumption that the binding-induced change in free energy can be divided into multiple parts: ΔGbind = ΔGint + ΔGsolv + ΔGconf + ΔGmotion. These elements stand for the distinct ligand- receptor interactions (ΔGint), interactions with the solvent (ΔGsolv), ligand and receipt confrontational changes (ΔGconf), and protein and ligand motions during complex formation (ΔGmotion).



Conclusion:

In summary, contemporary technology such as Computer Aided Drug Designing (CADD), Artificial Intelligence (AI), Molecular Docking, and others have accelerated pharmacological research and made drug design faster and more efficient. The majority of these technologies are tools for Ligand-Based Drug Design (LBDD) or Structure-Based Drug Design (SBDD), which are less expensive, more effective, and need fewer animal models. These are innovative tools to advance medication research, however there are still obstacles to overcome, including as limits in different software programs and more effective screening methods. Lead optimization, guided docking, and general drug

development already benefit from AI and in-silico methods. Ultimately, these technologies ought to facilitate quicker turnaround times, more accurate medication targets, and improved drug safety profiles.

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ADVANCEMENTS IN FERMENTER DESIGN

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Abstract:

This chapter provides a comprehensive overview of fermenters and bioreactors which are essential tools for industrial and laboratory fermentation process. Fermenters facilitate the controlled cultivation of microorganisms or cells to produce desired products as well as enable treatment of effluent released post production. This chapter starts with an overview of fermentation principle, the role of fermenters in maintaining optimal growth conditions by regulating temperature, pH, nutrient availability and aeration. It examines the basic design of fermenters and various function specific modifications and gives an overview of the entire fermenter run. This chapter provides a detailed understanding of fermenters and their role in bioprocessing and wastewater treatment.

Keywords: Fermenter, Microorganisms, Fermentation, Bioreactor, Wastewater, Effluent

Introduction:

Fermenters or bioreactors are huge closed tanks used for biochemical reactions involving microorganisms or microorganism-derived compounds. The fermenter operates on the principle of fermentation, which is carried out by the microbe itself to create desired metabolites (McNeil, 2008). However, in order to properly produce these metabolites on an industrial scale, a system must maintain optimum conditions such as temperature, pH, pressure, nutrient levels, aeration, and so on. These parameters change depending on the organism, so substantial research is required to enhance efficiency based on both the product to be produced and the microbes engaged in the manufacturing process. It is a very competitive market because industrial fermentations are lucrative businesses, thus research is critical. Regular research is conducted not just to understand how a microbe ferments, but also to enhance the fermenter's architecture in order to increase yield (Agrawal, 2024).

A fermenter should be capable of executing particular operations to ensure the smooth operation of the production line. It should allow for constant mixing/stirring of cells and media, which allows the microbe to better use the substrate by increasing the

availability of nutrients and oxygen. In the event of aerobic fermentation, it should be capable of providing adequate sterile aeration, and in the case of anaerobic fermentation, it should guarantee anoxic conditions. Most fermenters use pure cultures thus, the growth of contaminating organisms should be avoided. The design should be structurally sound to resist the high temperature and pressure conditions it must operate under, as well as large enough to handle enormous volumes of product. There ought to be a means of transferring inoculum into the vessel and removal of culture sample during the fermentation in an aseptic manner. Certain equipment, such as pH meters, should be present to monitor pH levels as product quantity increases during the fermentation process. The temperature should be kept at a preset ideal temperature set by the scientist or manufacturer at all times. In some circumstances, such as alcohol fermentation, the presence of an excess product might be harmful to the production organisms, namely yeast. As a result, a system for continuously removing alcohol produced should be included to avert yeast poisoning (Ali, 2018).

Basic Design

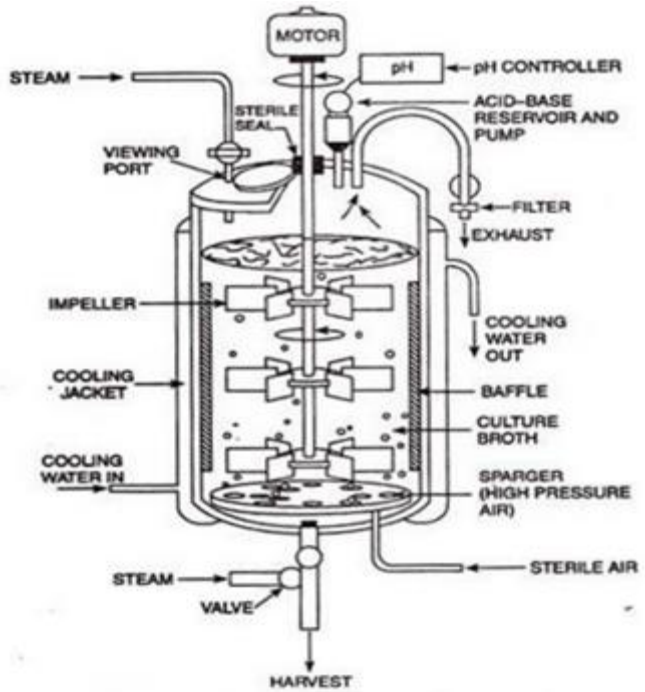


Figure 1: Basic fermenter design (Ezemba & Ekwegbalu E.A & Ezemba A.S., 2022)

Body:

1. Material: The material used to create the vessel's main body should be able to endure the steam sterilization cycles required to maintain aseptic conditions,

pressure, and corrosion, as well as being cost-effective and nontoxic. The body is primarily made of glass or stainless steel

2. Size: Laboratory fermenters range in volume from 1-2 litres to 12-15 litres. Fermenters used for research can range from 25 to 200 gallons, whereas fermenters used in industry might have a total volume of 5,000 or 10,000 gallons. However, the fermenter's total volume does not equal the vessel's complete working volume.

3. There is always about a quarter of the vessel left empty at the top to allow for medium movement and splashing, as well as space for froth production caused by gas evolution and the presence of foaming ingredients. This is known as "head space" (Steel, 1970).

4. Head Plate is the highest covering of a fermenter vessel, preventing medium overflow (Nair, 2022).

5. Inoculation port is where microorganisms cultivated for fermentation are injected into the fermenter.

6. Nutrient Inlet: Nutrients for microbial growth enter the fermenter.

7. Motor: It drives the impeller and is connected externally on top of the tank.

8. Sensor Probes: It monitors fermenter conditions to ensure optimal growth levels. This can include temperature probes, pH probes, dissolved oxygen probes, foam probes, biomass probes, and nutrition probes (Ezemba & Ekwegbalu E.A & Ezemba A.S., 2022).

9. Impeller: It is a circular disc onto which the blades of the agitating device are attached with the help of bolts. The blades can be of different types based on requirement. In the absence of an electric motor, this impeller can also work with the presence of impeller blades. It can also work on the principle of magnetic coupling. The impeller blades have to rotate at a speed so that they allow proper mixing of the medium and also do not prevent the air bubbles produced by the sparger from mixing into the medium.

10. Baffles: High-speed spinning creates a vortex that pushes liquid against fermenter walls, requiring removal. To accomplish so, four baffles are affixed to the fermenter's walls. The baffles disrupt and damage the flow of the liquid, improving the mixing process.

11. Sparger: A sparger is an aerating device with small pores that release high-

pressure air into the aqueous medium, creating tiny air bubbles. The holes can be 1/64 to 1/32 inch in size or greater. It is not economically feasible to create holes smaller than this range.

12. Foam Controlling Device: Excess foam can damage the fermenter by wetting the filters and contaminating the vessel. To avoid this, antifoam can be used alongside the media; however, it can cause aeration concerns. Foam breakers are widely used to separate foam using a spinning mechanism and return the liquid portion to the fermenter (Steel, 1970).

13. Temperature Control Device: The temperature is controlled via a cooling jacket, that is connected externally to the fermenter and helps to cool the vessel, which becomes hot due to the heat emitted during the fermentation process. This is reinforced by the use of internal coils, which enhance the surface area available for heat transfer (Ezemba & Ekwegbalu E.A & Ezemba A.S., 2022).

14. Acid/base inlet: As product formation increases, the system's pH may change, reducing production efficiency. The pH in the vessel stabilized by this inlet If the pH is excessively acidic, sodium hydroxide or ammonia is added; if the pH is too basic, sulphuric acid is used.

15. Valves: It controls the flow of gases, liquids, and other media inside a system. There are various forms of valves, and the type of valve employed is determined by the type of fermenter and its intended purpose. The valves available for use include gate valves, globe valves, needle valves, piston valves, plug valves, ball valves, butterfly valves, pinch valves, and diaphragm valves for sterility applications.

16. Exhaust Outlet: It removes byproducts and exhaust gases from the fermenter vessel (Terry, 1987).

Types of Fermentation

Microbial growth can occur in three different fermentation systems: batch, fed-batch, and continuous fermentation

- **Batch Fermentation**

  Batch fermentation involves inoculating the required microorganisms into a sterile growth medium and proceeding with no extra growth medium (Glick, 2022). During fermentation, the concentration of microorganisms, the composition of the culture medium, the internal chemical composition of the microorganisms, and the

amount of target metabolite or protein all change as a result of cellular metabolism, growth, and nutrient availability (Yamuna Rani, 1999).

- **Fed-Batch Fermentation**

  In fed-batch fermentation, an increasing amount of substrate is introduced at different stages of the fermentation, and no growth media is removed until the completion of the process. These additions that prolong the log and stationary phase cause an increase in biomass and the synthesis of stationary-phase metabolites, such as antibiotics.

- **Continuous Fermentation**

  Continuous fermentation does not remove an equal volume of wasted medium while fresh growth medium is constantly introduced during fermentation. Eventually, the total number of cells and biomass remain constant since the loss of cells due to product removal is perfectly balanced by the acquisition of new cells through division, resulting in steady state fermentation (Glick, 2022).

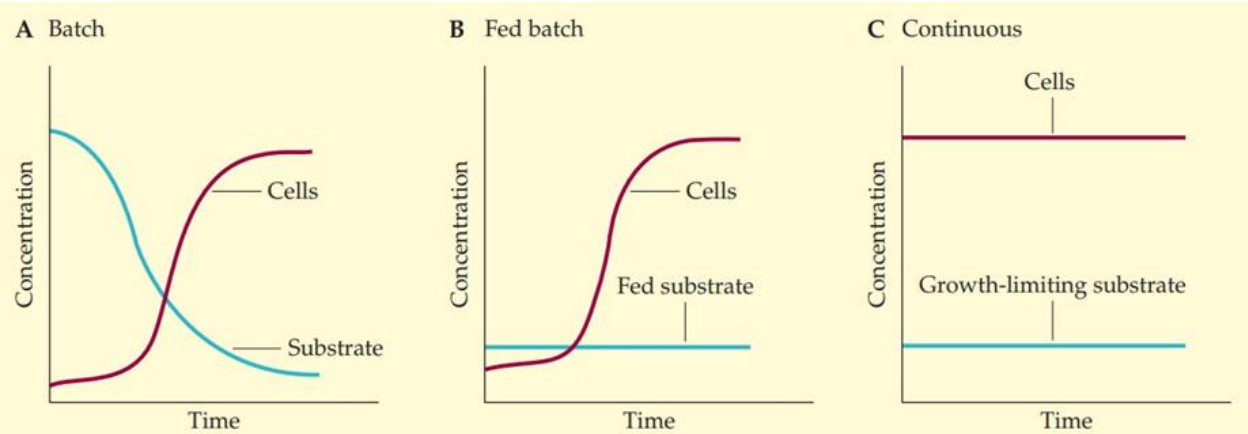


Figure 2: Graphical representation of the time course of cell concentration (mass) and the substrate in batch (A), fed-batch (B) and continuous (C) fermentations (Glick, 2022)

Types of Fermenters

Fermenters are classified into several varieties based on their intended use and the microorganisms used in the fermentation process. They are as follows:

Airlift Fermenter: It is named from the contact that happens between gas-liquid-solid or gas-liquid as a result of fermenting fluid circulation. The vessel is sectioned into two parts (Chen, 1990). The first is the riser tube, which supplies air to the fermenter from the base via a sparger. The second piece is the downcomer tube, which does not deliver air. The density difference between the liquid column in the riser and the liquid column in the

downcomer serves as the fermentation process's driving power. There are two types of airlift fermenters: internal-loop fermenters (which use a single container with a draft to carry out fermentation) and external-loop fermenters (which use an external loop to separate liquids in different channels to carry out fermentation.

They are typically employed to produce single-cell protein (SCP) (Varavinit, 1996), as the heat produced during this form of fermentation is quite intense and can easily harm the cells. Thus, the vessel allows for efficient heat removal and thus temperature control, making the use of airlift fermenters more economically feasible than stirred tank fermenters. This fermenter is also easier to scale up than the stirred tank fermenter. This fermenter also has the advantage of providing a softer environment for cell growth, making it suited for sensitive organisms.

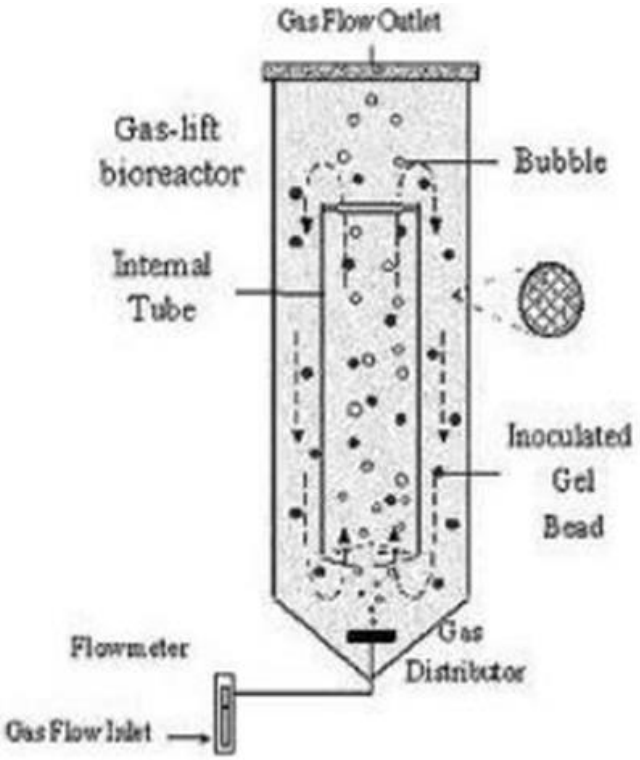


FIG 3: Airlift fermenter system (Ali, 2018)

Continuous Stirred Tank Fermenter: While it is utilized in more than 70% of fermentations, it may not always be the best option. The word continuous in the name refers to the continuous admission of substrate and the outflow of fresh product (Tang, 2015). This is done to maintain the microorganisms' steady logarithmic condition. This fermenter varies from other types of fermenters in that it operates in a constant condition, which can be accomplished in two ways: chemostat or turbidostatic. A chemostat's dilution rate is constant, and a steady state is maintained by incorporating a limiting nutrient into

the culture fluid (Mason, 1951). A turbidostat, on the other hand, maintains a constant turbidity by changing the dilution rate. The unmodified fermenter is utilized for batch manufacture of only a few virus vaccines, but the modified version is employed for a broader range of cultures. These alterations are beneficial because they serve to lower the likelihood of cell damage due to heat, contamination, or shear.

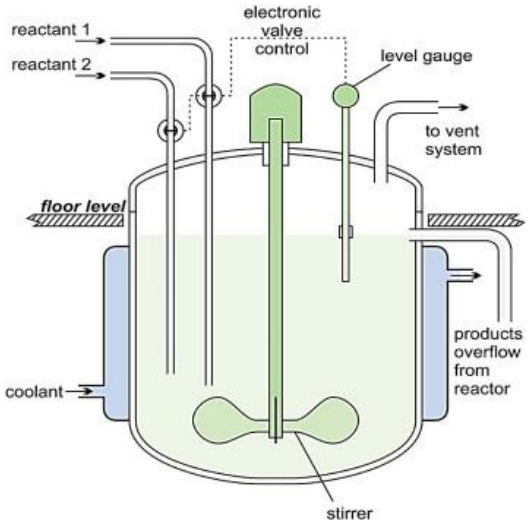


Figure 4: Continuous stirred tank fermenter

(Ezemba & Ekwegbalu E.A & Ezemba A.S., 2022)

Sparged Tank Fermenter: This is a fermenter in which non-mechanical agitation occurs. In this type of fermenter system gas is introduced from the base of the vessel by the help of a porous plate or nozzle. The bubbles of gas that are formed move through the liquid and get dispersed throughout the media by the help of the baffles connected to the side walls of the fermenter (Chandrashekhar, 2010). This fermenter has a lesser chance of contamination due to the absence of an agitation shaft, this also helps to reduce power consumption.

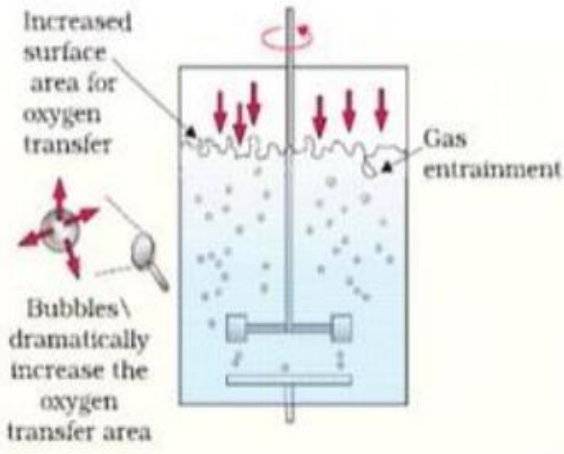


Figure 5: Sparged tank fermenter (Steel, 1970)

Tower Fermenter: Also known as the packed column fermenter, is a vertically positioned cylindrical column packed with particles of material such as wood, polythene etc which are inert in nature. The microorganisms and media are fed into the top of the column. The microbes are allowed to grow till biofilm formation subsequently followed by addition of desired substrate percolation from the bottom (Páca, 1976) (Prokop, 1969).

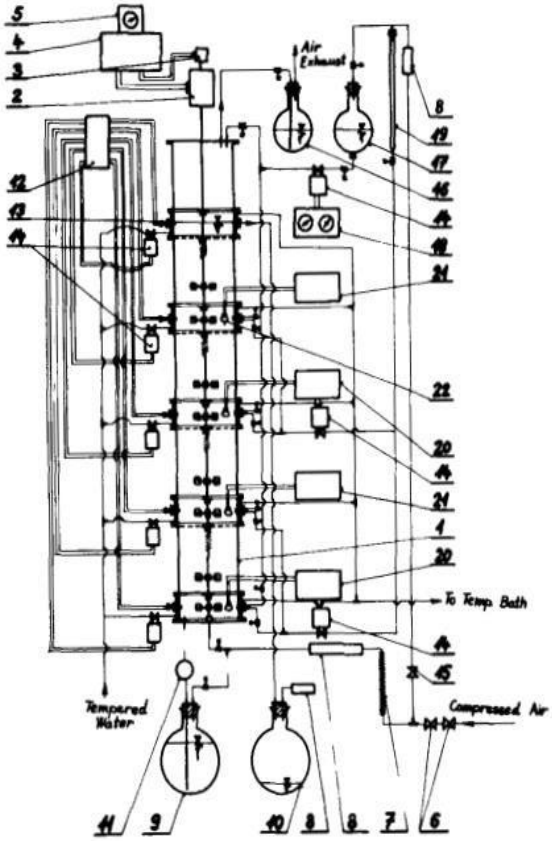


Figure 6: Tower fermenter system. 1. Body of fermenter; 2. electric motor; 3, 4. Tacho- generator feed-back control; 5. Impeller revolution measurement; 6. Automatic expansion controlled valve; 7. Rotameter; 8. Air filter; 9. Nutrient medium; 10. Harvest bottle; 11. Peristaltic pump; 12. Temperature control; 13. Control thermometer; 14. Solenoid valve; 15. Needle valve; 16. Bubbler; 17. Antifoam gauge; 18. Timer; 19. Gauge for base or acid; 20.pH controller; 21. pH meter; 22. pH probe (Páca, 1976)

Acetators: Acetators are fermenters specialized for vinegar production. Fermentation carried out by bacteria typically Acetobacter aceti, involves the aerobic conversion of substrate such as wine or spirit to acetic acid (Mariette, 1991) (Hromatka, Vinegar by submerged oxidative fermentation, 1959)

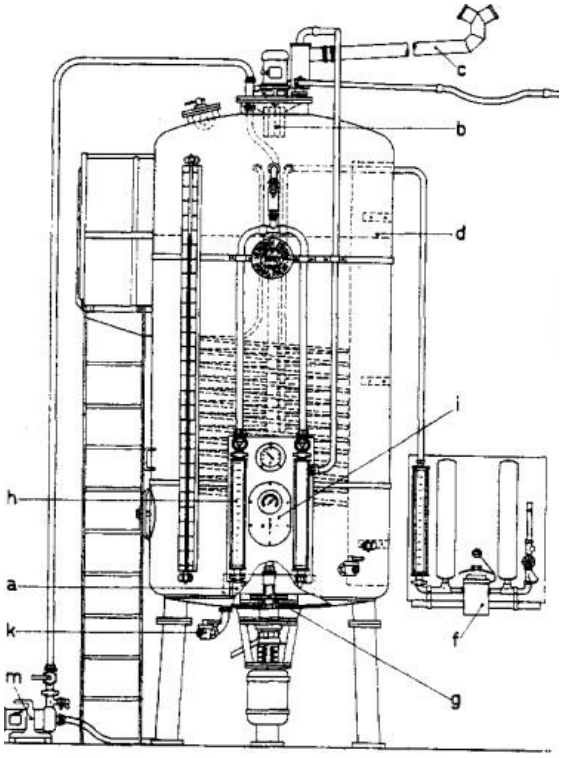


Figure 7: Acetator (Hromatka, Vinegar by submerged oxidative fermentation, 1959)

Bioprocess Run

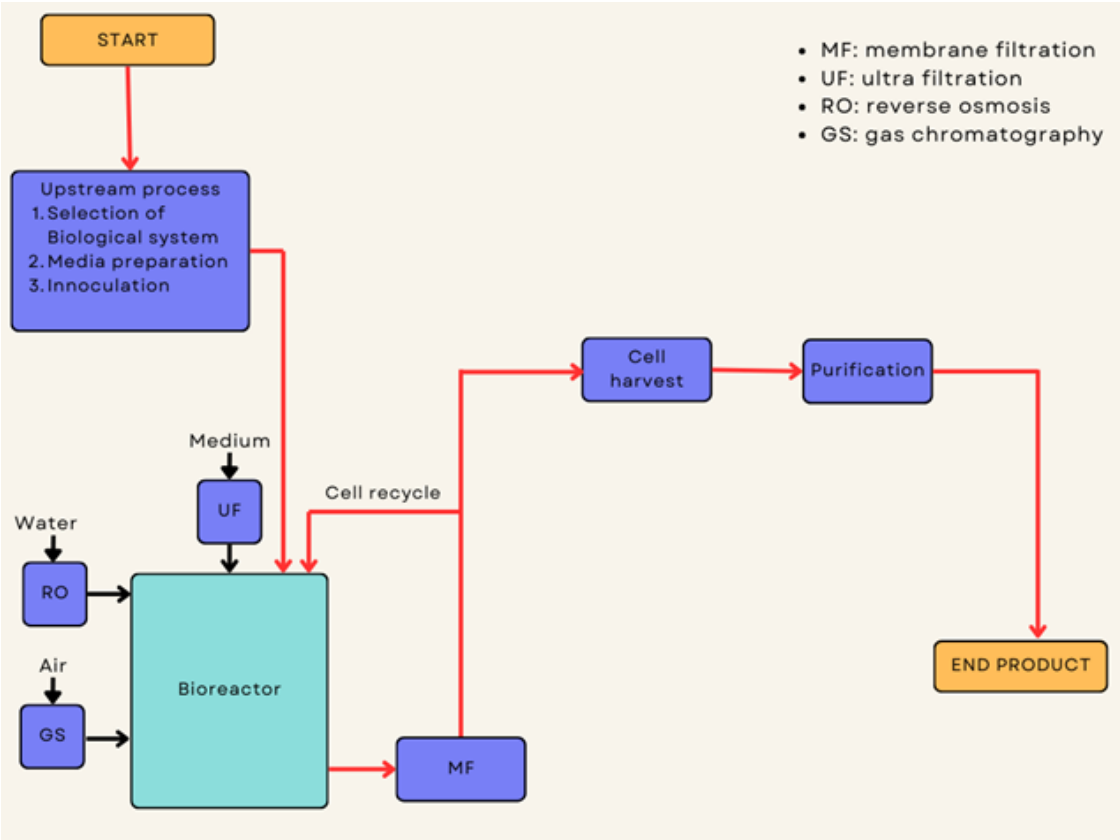


Figure 8: Bioprocess run

Types of fermenters for wastewater treatment

Aerobic Biological Treatment Fermenters

a. **Fluidized Bed Reactor:** A fluidized bed reactor (FBR) consists of an initially stationary bed of solid particles which is "fluidized" by an upward flow of either liquid or gas, creating a bed that behaves like a fluid. FBRs are primarily used to treat gaseous and liquid waste, and to some extent solid wastes. They are an advanced method for recalcitrant pollutant removal (Werther, 2000) (Bello, 2017).

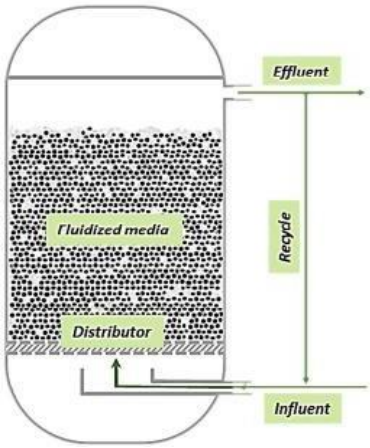


Figure 9: FBR for wastewater treatment (Bello, 2017)

b. Membrane bioreactor: A membrane bioreactor (MBR) combines the activated sludge process (ASP) with a microfiltration or ultrafiltration membrane. It works to treat effluent in a similar manor to ASP but without the need for secondary clarification and further tertiary steps. This is due to the fact that the microorganisms used for aerobic biological degradation is separated from the treated wastewater by the membrane (Marrot, 2004)

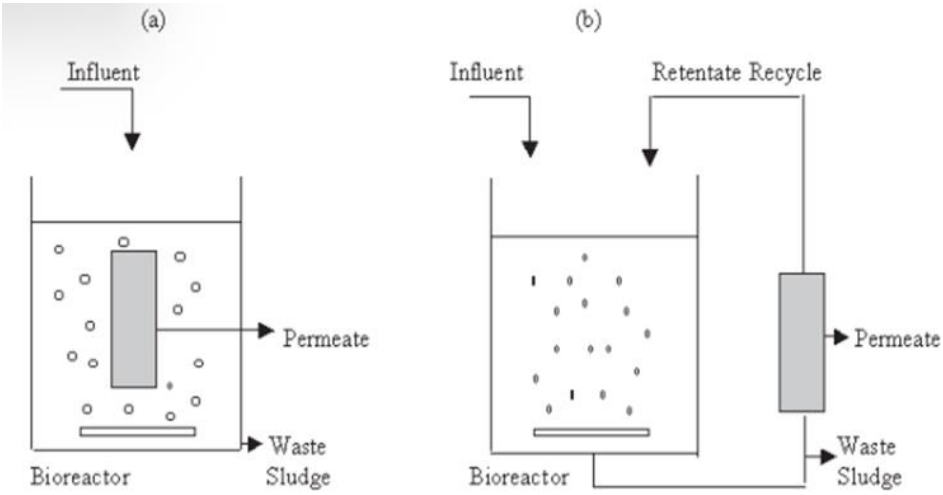


Figure 10: MBR system: (a) submerged MBR, (b) side-stream MBR configuration (Melin, 2006) (Melin, 2006)

c. Rotating Biological Contactor: A rotating biological contactor (RBC) an alternative for ASP, consist of closely spaced large flat discs that are mounted upon a haft and are either completely or partially submerged in the wastewater. The continuously rotating shaft enables the formation of biofilm by microorganisms colonizing the discs and subsequently degrading organic matter (Hassard, 2015) (Cortez, 2008).

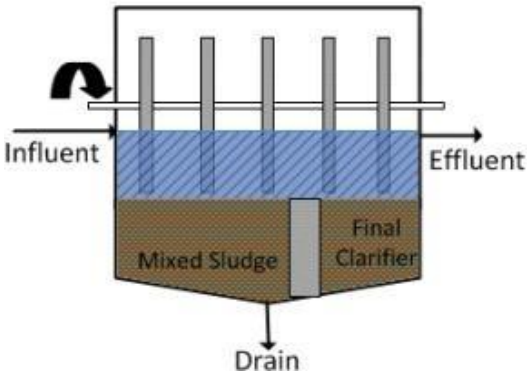


Figure 11: RBC system (Hassard, 2015)

Anaerobic Biological Treatment Fermenter

a. Packed bed reactors: Also known as anaerobic filter consists of a fixed matrix (made of reticulated foam polymers, granite, quartz, stones, sand, plastics and granular activated carbon which provides a surface of attachment that supports the growth of a biofilm of anaerobic microorganisms. Dissolved pollutants are absorbed by the biofilm as upward flow of wastewater occurs (Afandizadeh, 2001). It can be used to remove dye from textile industrial effluent (Afandizadeh, 2001) and also for the recovery of metals from wastewater (Obanijesu, 2004).

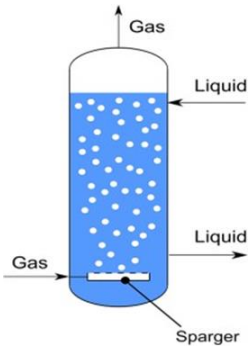


Figure 12: Packed bed fermenter (Ali, 2018)

b. UASB: Upflow anaerobic sludge blanket reactor (UASB) allows the upward flow of wastewater through an activated sludge bed in the lower part of the reactor and upper part consists of three-phase i.e, solid, liquid and gas separation system which allows biogas collection (Lettinga, 1991) (Chong, 2012)

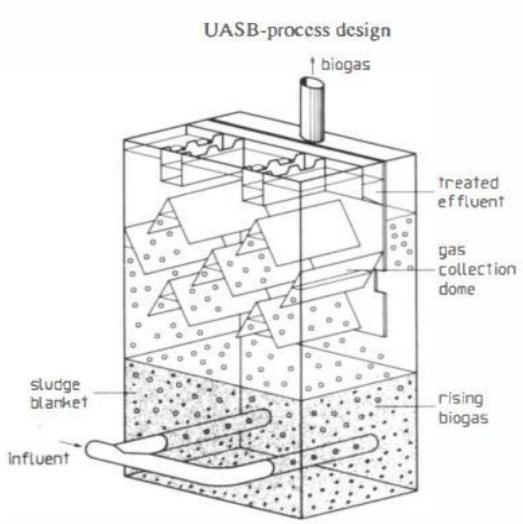


Figure 13: UASB reactor (Lettinga, 1991)

c. **Anaerobic baffled digestor:** It is an advanced version of an anaerobic RBC bioreactor, the wastewater passes over and under a series of staggered vertical baffles as it flows from inlet to outlet (Barber, 1999). It is shown to remove a large percentage of oil (Hassan S. &., 2013)and greatly reduce the COD of the wastewater.

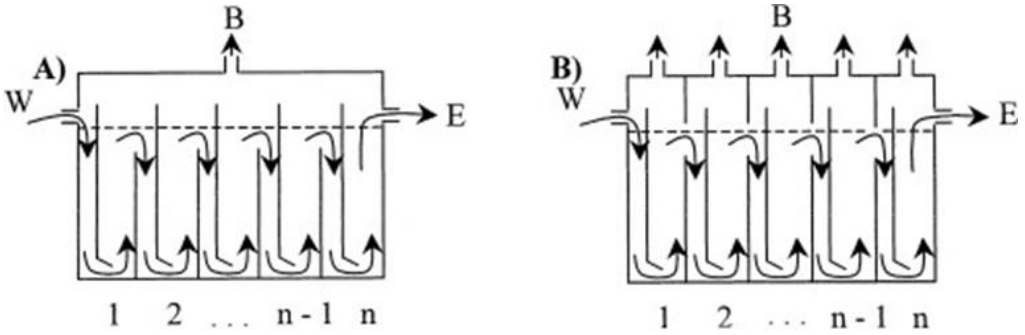


Figure 14: Anaerobic baffled digestor (Barber, 1999)

d. **Contact Digestor:** Functioning similar to activated sludge process, consist of a tank and stirred tank under anaerobic conditions. The stirred tank digester output is settled and a part of this is returned to the digester allowing longer retention time for methanogenic organisms and concentration of sludge (Bertin, 2004).

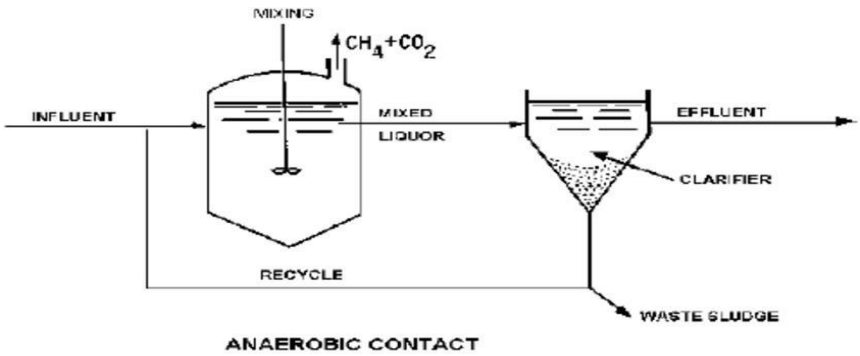
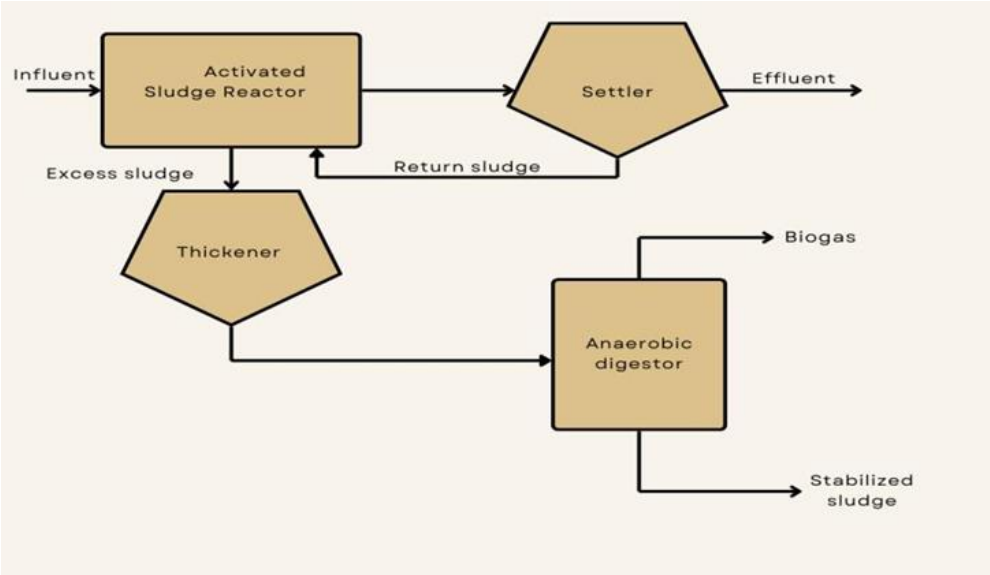


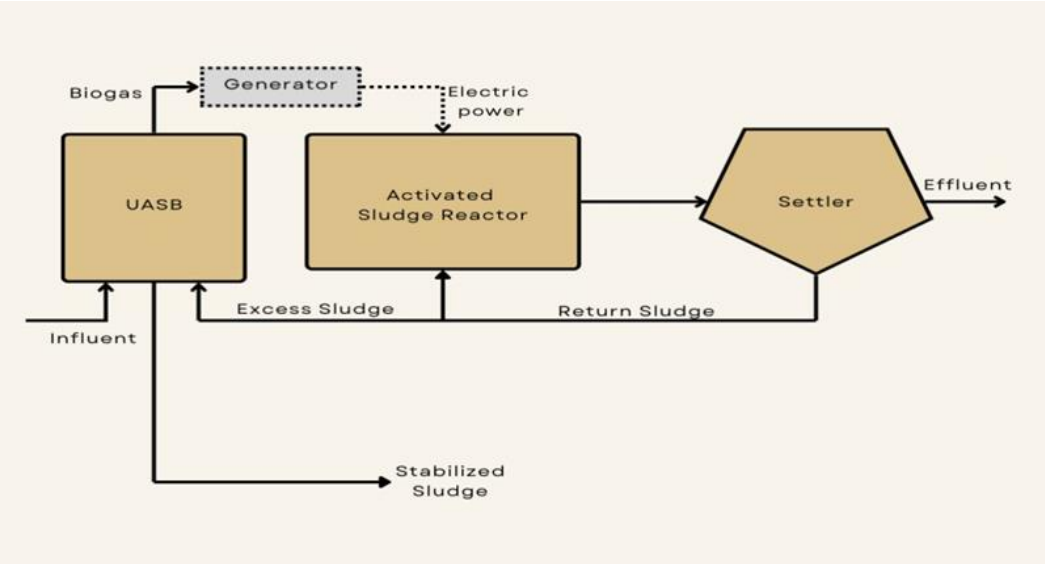
Figure 15: Contact digestor (Hassan S. R., 2013)

Wastewater Treatment Run

A) Aerobic Wastewater Treatment



B) Anaerobic Wastewater Treatment



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A REVIEW OF MEDICINAL PLANTS IMPORTANCE APPLICATIONS

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Abstract:

Medicinal plants have played a crucial role in traditional healing practices across various cultures. These plants are rich in bioactive compounds that offer a wide range of therapeutic benefits, including antimicrobial, anti-inflammatory, antioxidant, anticancer, and pain-relieving effects. As interest in natural therapies continues to rise, there has been a significant push for scientific exploration to validate the medicinal properties of plants. Modern pharmacological research is increasingly focusing on identifying and understanding the molecular mechanisms behind the effectiveness of these plants, with numerous plant-derived compounds being investigated for their potential in pharmaceutical development. However, the use of medicinal plants presents several challenges, including the inconsistency in plant composition, concerns regarding safety, and the lack of standardized methods for extraction and preparation. Additionally, the sustainability of plant resources is a growing concern, as overexploitation and habitat loss pose a threat to many species used for medicinal purposes. Progress in fields like biotechnology, ethnobotany, and clinical trials is helping to integrate traditional knowledge with modern scientific techniques, ensuring a more evidence-based and sustainable approach to plant-based therapies.This abstract underscores the growing significance of medicinal plants in modern medicine, the necessity for thorough scientific research, and the need to balance traditional wisdom with contemporary technological advancements to advance the use of natural health products.

Keywords: Medicinal Plants, Therapeutic Uses, Export, Import, Pharmaceutical Industries

Introduction:

Medicinal plants play an essential role in both environmental health and human well-being. Their significance extends beyond providing therapeutic benefits to human health; they also offer critical ecological advantages, such as maintaining biodiversity, enhancing ecosystem services, and promoting sustainable development. These plants have

been central to many traditional healing practices and are increasingly contributing to modern pharmacology as sources of bioactive compounds used in drug development.[1]

1. Medicinal Plants and Their Environmental Importance

Medicinal plants provide substantial ecological benefits that contribute to environmental sustainability, including:

- **Biodiversity Conservation**: Medicinal plants are vital for preserving genetic diversity in ecosystems. Many of these plants are endemic to specific regions, meaning they are found only in particular habitats. Conserving these species is crucial for maintaining ecosystem health and biodiversity.[2]
- **Soil Erosion Control**: Certain medicinal plants, like varieties of mint and ginger, help stabilize soil with their root systems. These plants are particularly important in preventing soil erosion in areas prone to degradation, such as hillsides or riverbanks.
- **Habitat for Wildlife**: Medicinal plants provide essential habitat and food for wildlife, including insects, birds, and small mammals. By supporting pollinators and other species, they help maintain ecological balance and biodiversity.
- **Regulation of Climate**: Medicinal plants contribute to climate regulation by absorbing carbon dioxide and influencing local microclimates. Forests rich in medicinal plant species help stabilize temperature and humidity levels, creating a favorable environment for surrounding plant and animal species.
- **Water Conservation**: Some medicinal plants, such as aloe vera and agave, are drought-resistant and can thrive in arid conditions. These plants help conserve water by requiring minimal irrigation and contribute to maintaining the water cycle in ecosystems.

2. medicinal Uses of Plants

Medicinal plants have been used for thousands of years to treat various ailments, offering a wide range of therapeutic benefits. Their bioactive compounds, including alkaloids, flavonoids, terpenoids, glycosides, and phenolic acids, possess distinct medicinal properties. Below are some categories of medicinal uses:[3]

A. Antimicrobial and Antiviral Properties

- **Garlic (*Allium sativum*)**: Known for its powerful antibacterial and antiviral properties, garlic is used to treat infections, including the common cold, respiratory infections, and food poisoning. Allicin, the active compound in garlic, plays a key role in its antimicrobial effects.

- **Echinacea**: Commonly used to boost the immune system and reduce the duration and severity of cold symptoms. Echinacea stimulates immune function and has anti-inflammatory effects.

B. Anti-inflammatory and Pain-relieving Properties

- **Turmeric (Curcuma longa)**: The active compound curcumin in turmeric has potent anti-inflammatory effects. It is widely used to treat conditions like arthritis, inflammatory bowel disease, and general pain.
- **Ginger (Zingiber officinale)**: Ginger contains compounds called gingerols, which provide natural pain relief and have anti-inflammatory properties, making it effective for conditions like osteoarthritis.

C. Antioxidant Effects

- **Green Tea (Camellia sinensis)**: Rich in polyphenols, especially epigallocatechin gallate (EGCG), green tea has strong antioxidant properties that neutralize harmful free radicals in the body. It is linked to preventing chronic diseases such as heart disease, cancer, and age-related degeneration.
- **Acai Berry (Euterpe oleracea)**: Acai berries are rich in anthocyanins, which offer antioxidant benefits that protect cells from oxidative stress, support heart health, and reduce inflammation.

D. Cardiovascular Benefits

- **Hawthorn (Crataegus spp.)**: Used to support heart health, hawthorn helps improve circulation, treat mild heart failure, and lower blood pressure. Its flavonoids enhance blood vessel function.
- **Ginseng (Panax ginseng)**: Ginseng has adaptogenic properties that help the body manage stress, improve circulation, and lower cholesterol, contributing to overall heart health.

E. Anti-cancer Properties

- **Ashwagandha (Withania somnifera)**: Known as an adaptogen, ashwagandha helps the body cope with stress and has shown anticancer properties by inhibiting tumor growth and enhancing immune health.
- **Neem (Azadirachta indica)**: Neem has demonstrated anti-cancer properties, with studies indicating that it may inhibit the growth of cancer cells and protect against the side effects of chemotherapy.

F. Digestive Health

- **Peppermint (Mentha piperita)**: Peppermint has soothing effects on the digestive system, helping relieve symptoms of irritable bowel syndrome (IBS), indigestion, and nausea. Its carminative properties ease bloating and gas.
- **Fennel (Foeniculum vulgare)**: Traditionally used to support digestion, fennel helps relieve bloating, cramps, and indigestion and contains fiber that promotes gut health.

G. Skin Health

- **Aloe Vera (Aloe barbadensis)**: Aloe vera is used for its cooling and healing effects on the skin, treating burns, wounds, acne, and other skin irritations due to its moisturizing and anti-inflammatory properties.
- **Calendula (Calendula officinalis)**: Known for its anti-inflammatory, antifungal, and antibacterial properties, calendula is often applied topically to heal skin wounds, rashes, and ulcers.

H. Mental Health and Stress Reduction

- **Lavender (Lavandula angustifolia)**: Lavender is recognized for its calming effects, commonly used in aromatherapy to reduce anxiety, stress, and promote sleep.
- **Chamomile (Matricaria chamomilla)**: Chamomile is widely known for its mild sedative effects, helping to alleviate anxiety and improve sleep, making it ideal for those experiencing stress or insomnia.[4]

3. The Challenge of Sustainable Use and Conservation of Medicinal Plants

Despite their many benefits, the use of medicinal plants faces several challenges:

- **Overharvesting**: Increased demand for medicinal plants in global markets leads to the overexploitation of certain species, putting them at risk of extinction. For example, ginseng and certain orchids are vulnerable due to unsustainable harvesting practices.
- **Loss of Habitat**: Deforestation, agricultural expansion, and urbanization threaten the natural habitats of many medicinal plants, making them susceptible to environmental changes. This loss of habitat reduces the availability of these plants and further endangers them.
- **Conservation Efforts**: Efforts are underway to conserve medicinal plant species through sustainable farming practices, cultivation, and the establishment of plant reserves. Organizations are promoting sustainable harvesting methods and cultivating rare species to ensure that medicinal plants are available for future generations.[5]

Medicinal plants are an invaluable resource, contributing significantly to both environmental health and human wellness. They offer a diverse range of therapeutic benefits, from antimicrobial and anti-inflammatory effects to supporting cardiovascular health and cancer prevention. However, it is essential to balance their medicinal potential with the need for conservation and sustainable practices. Protecting these plants through research, sustainable harvesting, and conservation efforts is critical to ensuring that they continue to benefit future generations and contribute to global health. By integrating traditional knowledge with modern scientific advancements, we can safeguard medicinal plants and unlock their full potential for promoting health worldwide.

The global trade of medicinal plants has become an increasingly important industry, driven by the rising demand for natural products across the pharmaceutical, wellness, and beauty sectors. These plants are vital to the production of herbal medicines, dietary supplements, essential oils, and other health-related products. The international exchange of medicinal plants not only contributes to the economic development of exporting and importing nations but also fosters the growth of traditional and modern medicine.[6]

Global Export and Import of Medicinal Plants

1. Major Exporters of Medicinal Plants

A number of countries around the world are major exporters of medicinal plants due to favorable climates, rich biodiversity, and strong traditions in herbal medicine.

- **China**: As one of the largest exporters globally, China supplies a wide range of plants for traditional Chinese medicine (TCM) and international markets. Popular exports include ginseng, licorice, and ginger. China plays a key role in the global trade of medicinal plants, with this sector being integral to its agricultural economy.[7]
- **India**: India is another significant exporter, owing to its diverse medicinal plant species and its deep tradition in Ayurvedic medicine. Commonly exported plants from India include turmeric, ashwagandha, aloe vera, and neem. Indian herbal products are highly sought after in markets across Europe, North America, and Asia.
- **Indonesia**: With its tropical biodiversity, Indonesia is a major exporter of plants such as ginger, turmeric, and pandan leaves, which are used both in traditional medicine and modern herbal products.
- **Brazil**: Known for its extensive rainforests, Brazil exports medicinal plants used in Amazonian medicine. Notable exports include acai berries, guarana, and copaiba oil, which are prized for their antioxidant and energizing properties.

- **Thailand**: Thailand contributes significantly to the medicinal plant trade with exports such as lemongrass, turmeric, and pandan leaves, which are popular both locally and internationally in wellness markets.

2. Major Importers of Medicinal Plants

The demand for medicinal plants spans across many countries, with some nations acting as key importers for the production of herbal products and pharmaceuticals.[8]

- **United States**: The U.S. is one of the largest importers of medicinal plants, fueled by increasing demand for herbal supplements, organic products, and natural remedies. Common imports include ginseng, turmeric, ginger, and echinacea. The U.S. imports medicinal plants from countries like China, India, and South Africa for both traditional and modern medicine applications.
- **Germany**: With a long-standing tradition in herbal medicine, Germany is a significant importer of medicinal plants. Popular imports include chamomile, valerian, and ginseng, which are used in teas, supplements, and essential oils.
- **France**: France imports a variety of medicinal plants for use in herbal medicine, teas, and cosmetics. Key imports include lavender, peppermint, and echinacea, which are in high demand for wellness and beauty products.
- **Japan**: Japan imports a substantial amount of medicinal plants, especially for Kampo (traditional Japanese medicine). Popular imports include ginseng, ginger, and licorice, which are also increasingly used in wellness and beauty products.
- **United Kingdom**: The UK is a major importer of medicinal plants for alternative medicine, herbal teas, essential oils, and supplements. Popular imports include valerian, ginseng, and turmeric.
- **South Korea**: South Korea imports medicinal plants, particularly for use in traditional Korean medicine (KTM). Ginseng, ginger, and ginkgo are highly sought after in the country's growing health and wellness sectors.

3. Challenges in the Global Trade of Medicinal Plants

While the medicinal plant trade offers significant economic opportunities, there are several challenges:

- **Overharvesting**: High demand for medicinal plants has led to overexploitation, especially for species like ginseng and certain orchids, which risks depleting natural populations.

- **Sustainability**: The sustainability of the medicinal plant trade is a major issue, as excessive harvesting without adequate regeneration can lead to species depletion. Countries are increasingly focusing on cultivation and domestication as alternatives to wild harvesting.[9]
- **Regulatory Issues**: Inconsistent regulatory standards across countries create challenges. In some regions, the lack of proper oversight allows for illegal trading of endangered species or the entry of low-quality products into international markets.
- **Climate Change**: Climate change poses a threat to the availability of many medicinal plants, particularly those dependent on specific climates or geographic regions. Changes in temperature, rainfall, and environmental conditions may disrupt the availability and distribution of these plants.[10]

4. Trends in Medicinal Plant Trade

Several emerging trends are shaping the global medicinal plant market:

- **Growing Demand for Natural Products**: The global demand for natural and plant-based products continues to rise, driven by consumer preferences for wellness, beauty, and holistic health solutions. This trend is increasing the global demand for medicinal plants.
- **Sustainable and Ethical Sourcing**: There is a growing focus on sustainable sourcing practices within the medicinal plant industry. Many companies and consumers are prioritizing organic or fair-trade-certified plants to ensure environmental sustainability and social responsibility.
- **Integration with Modern Medicine**: Medicinal plants are becoming more widely studied for their therapeutic potential and are increasingly integrated into pharmaceutical development. This trend is creating new opportunities for exports, especially in research-driven markets.
- **E-commerce Growth**: The rise of e-commerce has boosted the global trade of medicinal plants, enabling companies to access plant-based products and consumers to purchase herbal supplements and remedies from international sources.

The medicinal plant formulations industry, a key part of the broader herbal medicine and natural products sector, has seen significant growth. Between 2024 and 2030, the global herbal medicine market is projected to grow at a CAGR of 7-9%, driven by increasing consumer preference for natural remedies, awareness of plant-based health

benefits, and the growing popularity of alternative medicine, particularly in developed countries.[11]

Markets and Regions

- **Asia Pacific**: India, China, Japan, and South Korea lead the market, with traditions in Ayurveda and Traditional Chinese Medicine. These countries serve both domestic and international markets.
- **North America**: The U.S. and Canada are seeing rising demand for herbal products, with manufacturers producing a variety of supplements, essential oils, and natural cosmetics.
- **Europe**: Countries like Germany, France, and the U.K. are major players, where consumers demand high-quality herbal products that meet strict regulatory standards.
- **Latin America**: Brazil, Argentina, and Mexico are emerging markets with rich biodiversity and growing interest in medicinal plants.
- **Africa**: African countries, with a history of traditional medicine, are increasing production and export of medicinal plant-based products.

Notable Global Companies

- **Himalaya Drug Company** (India): Focuses on Ayurvedic products, including supplements and personal care.
- **Blackmores** (Australia): Known for herbal supplements and natural remedies.
- **Nature's Way** (USA): Specializes in herbal supplements and wellness products.
- **Weleda** (Germany): Offers holistic plant-based wellness and beauty products.
- **Traditional Medicinals** (USA): Renowned for herbal teas and wellness products.
- **Dabur** (India): A leader in Ayurvedic medicine and health supplements.
- **Schwabe Pharmaceuticals** (Germany): A major player in plant-based pharmaceuticals.
- **Nature's Sunshine Products** (USA): Focuses on herbal supplements and preventive care.
- **Arjuna Natural Ltd.** (India): Specializes in herbal extracts for pharmaceuticals and nutraceuticals.
- **Organic India** (India): Known for organic herbal teas and supplements with a focus on sustainability.

Emerging Trends

- **Sustainability**: Companies are focusing on ethical sourcing and eco-friendly practices.
- **Standardization**: Ensuring consistency in herbal formulations, especially in regions like Europe and North America.

- **Research and Innovation**: Increased investment in clinical trials to prove the benefits of medicinal plants.
- **Adaptogens and Stress Management**: Herbs like ashwagandha and ginseng are gaining popularity for their stress-relieving properties.
- **Personalized Wellness**: Customizing herbal remedies based on individual health needs.

Challenges [12]

- **Regulatory Hurdles**: Navigating differing regulations across countries is complex.
- **Quality Assurance**: Ensuring product purity and consistency remains a key challenge.
- **Market Competition**: The rising popularity of herbal products intensifies competition.
- **Supply Chain Issues**: Climate change and environmental factors impact the sustainable sourcing of plants.

The medicinal plant formulations industry offers significant growth potential but requires careful management of quality, regulations, and sustainability for long-term success.

The trade in medicinal plants plays a vital role in the global economy, supporting both the pharmaceutical and wellness industries. Countries such as China, India, and Brazil are major exporters, while developed nations like the U.S., Germany, and Japan are leading importers. However, sustainable practices and conservation efforts are critical to ensuring that the benefits of the medicinal plant trade continue for future generations. With a focus on ethical sourcing, cultivation, and scientific research, the industry can thrive while maintaining biodiversity and promoting human health globally.

Medicinal plants have been utilized for centuries to treat various health conditions, and their cultivation remains a key component of the global health and wellness sector. The processes of collecting and cultivating these plants differ by region, influenced by local climate, culture, traditional knowledge, and market demand. Here's an overview of the key aspects related to the collection and cultivation of medicinal plants worldwide:

1. Global Significance of Medicinal Plants

Medicinal plants are a cornerstone of global healthcare systems, particularly in traditional medicine systems like Ayurveda in India, Traditional Chinese Medicine (TCM) in China, and various indigenous healing practices worldwide. Beyond traditional uses, many modern pharmaceutical drugs are derived from these plants, contributing significantly to the global market value of herbal medicine.

2. Collection of Medicinal Plants

The collection of medicinal plants refers to their harvesting for medicinal purposes. There are two main methods:

- **Wild Harvesting**: Many plants are still gathered from natural habitats, especially in biodiversity-rich regions. This method is typical for plants used in traditional remedies.
- **Cultivation**: To prevent overharvesting and ensure a steady supply, many medicinal plants are now cultivated. This method helps control the quality and quantity of the plants.[13]

3. Cultivation of Medicinal Plants

Cultivating medicinal plants involves specific agricultural practices tailored to the growth needs of medicinal species. Key factors include:

a. Climate and Soil Conditions

Medicinal plants require distinct climates and soil types:

- **Tropical and Subtropical Plants**: Herbs like turmeric, ginger, and moringa prefer warm climates with well-drained, fertile soil.
- **Temperate Plants**: Varieties like ginseng, echinacea, and valerian are suited to cooler, temperate environments with moist soil.
- **Altitude-Specific Plants**: Certain plants, such as high-altitude medicinal species, demand specialized conditions for optimal growth.

b. Soil Preparation and Planting Techniques

- **Soil Fertility**: Medicinal plant cultivation demands rich, well-drained soil. Organic farming methods are commonly used to avoid synthetic chemicals.
- **Propagation Methods**: Different plants require different propagation techniques, such as seeds for ginseng or cuttings for lavender.

c. Crop Management

- **Watering and Irrigation**: Regular watering is critical, but excessive moisture should be avoided to prevent root diseases. Drip irrigation is often used for even water distribution.
- **Pest and Disease Management**: To maintain plant quality, organic pest control methods are typically used, such as neem oil and other natural pesticides.

4. Global Trends in Medicinal Plant Cultivation

The global demand for medicinal plants has surged, influenced by alternative medicine trends, herbal products, and wellness-focused consumption. Key trends include:

- **Increased Market Demand**: The popularity of herbal medicines and supplements, especially in the food and beverage sectors, has led to higher demand for medicinal plants.
- **Sustainability and Conservation**: To combat overharvesting, sustainable farming practices like crop rotation and organic cultivation are increasingly adopted.
- **Investment from Pharmaceutical and Nutraceutical Industries**: Large companies are expanding their investment in the cultivation of medicinal plants for both therapeutic and commercial use.[14]

5. Regional Approaches to Medicinal Plant Cultivation

a. Asia

- **India**: Known for its deep connection with Ayurvedic practices, India cultivates plants like turmeric, tulsi (holy basil), and ashwagandha. The country is also working on cultivating and conserving herbs traditionally collected from the wild.
- **China**: TCM relies heavily on medicinal plants, such as ginseng, ginger, and astragalus. China leads large-scale cultivation to meet domestic and global demands.
- **Southeast Asia**: Countries like Indonesia and Thailand cultivate plants like pandanus, lemongrass, and ginger, often for both local consumption and international export.

b. Africa

- **Sub-Saharan Africa**: This region boasts a wealth of medicinal plants, such as moringa, baobab, and rooibos, often used in treating various ailments. Though wild harvesting is still common, efforts are growing to cultivate these plants sustainably for export markets.
- **South Africa**: Known for indigenous medicinal species like buchu and devil's claw, South Africa is prioritizing sustainable cultivation to support the global herbal medicine market.

c. Europe and North America

- **United States**: The U.S. has a growing herbal industry, particularly in states like California, cultivating plants like echinacea, valerian, and peppermint using organic and sustainable methods.
- **Europe**: Countries such as Germany and France have long traditions of phytotherapy and cultivate plants like St. John's Wort, lavender, and chamomile. The EU enforces strict regulations to ensure the quality and safety of these plants.[15]

6. Challenges in Medicinal Plant Cultivation

Several factors pose challenges to the cultivation of medicinal plants:

- **Overharvesting**: The increasing demand for certain plants leads to the depletion of wild populations.
- **Climate Change**: Changing weather patterns can impact the growth of plants, with some species struggling to adapt to new temperature and moisture conditions.
- **Market Volatility**: Prices for medicinal plants can fluctuate due to supply issues, pest problems, or changing consumer preferences.
- **Regulatory Differences**: Varied regulations on the cultivation and trade of medicinal plants across countries complicate international trade.

7. Sustainable Practices and Future Trends

To ensure the continued availability of medicinal plants, several initiatives are focused on sustainability:

- **Conservation Initiatives**: Governments and organizations are working to promote sustainable cultivation through certifications, biodiversity conservation, and the establishment of seed banks.
- **Research and Development**: Ongoing research into the properties of medicinal plants has led to innovations in cultivation techniques, the development of improved plant varieties, and the integration of these plants into modern medicine.
- **Agroforestry**: Incorporating medicinal plants into agroforestry systems, where they are grown alongside trees and other crops, offers a sustainable solution that supports biodiversity and provides farmers with diversified income.[16]

The cultivation and collection of medicinal plants is an intricate process that is crucial to global healthcare. The increasing demand for these plants, driven by both traditional practices and modern wellness trends, requires careful attention to sustainable practices, biodiversity conservation, and innovation in agricultural techniques. Ensuring the health of ecosystems and the availability of medicinal plants will be essential in meeting future demands while safeguarding these invaluable resources.

Conclusion and The Future of Medicinal Plants

The future of medicinal plants is influenced by several dynamic factors, including the increasing global demand for natural products, climate change, biodiversity loss, and technological advancements. As society becomes more focused on plant-based solutions for health, wellness, and pharmaceutical applications, the role of medicinal plants is expected

to expand significantly. However, challenges such as sustainability, conservation, and environmental changes must be addressed. Below is an in-depth exploration of the critical factors shaping the future of medicinal plants.

1. Increasing Demand for Natural Remedies

The shift toward natural and alternative medicine is a defining trend in recent years. As people become more health-conscious, many are turning to herbal remedies, dietary supplements, and plant-based pharmaceutical solutions. This shift is driven by several factors:

- **Growing awareness of plant-based medicine**: As wellness culture rises, many seek alternatives to conventional pharmaceuticals due to concerns about side effects and the desire for holistic health solutions.
- **Cultural practices and traditional systems**: Healing systems such as Ayurveda, Traditional Chinese Medicine (TCM), and indigenous medicine continue to gain global recognition, further increasing the demand for plants associated with these traditions.[17]

As both traditional and modern healthcare systems increasingly rely on medicinal plants, their role is expected to expand, with new opportunities for growth in global health markets.

2. Sustainability and Conservation Challenges

While demand for medicinal plants grows, so too do the challenges related to sustainability and conservation. Overharvesting of wild plant populations, coupled with habitat loss, threatens many valuable species. Key concerns include:

- **Biodiversity loss**: As specific medicinal plants are harvested at unsustainable rates, wild populations face depletion, threatening entire ecosystems and pushing some species toward endangerment.
- **Sustainable harvesting practices**: To prevent further depletion, large-scale cultivation of medicinal plants is becoming increasingly important. This shift to cultivated sources helps to protect wild populations from overexploitation.
- **Conservation efforts**: Governments, NGOs, and businesses are increasingly focused on conservation initiatives that promote the cultivation of endangered species and establish protected areas to preserve biodiversity.

Sustainable cultivation and conservation practices will play a pivotal role in securing the future supply of medicinal plants, and the establishment of global guidelines for sustainable harvesting is essential.

3. Impact of Climate Change

Climate change poses a significant threat to the cultivation of medicinal plants. Variations in weather patterns, such as unpredictable rainfall, temperature extremes, and changing seasons, will affect plant growth. Key effects of climate change include:

- **Altered growing seasons**: Many medicinal plants require specific environmental conditions for optimal growth. Changes in temperature and rainfall patterns could reduce the productivity of certain species.
- **Geographical shifts**: As temperatures rise, some plants may no longer thrive in their current regions, while new areas may become suitable for cultivation. This could open opportunities but also disrupt current growing practices.
- **Pests and diseases**: Warmer climates can promote the spread of pests and plant diseases, further threatening the cultivation of medicinal plants. Addressing this will require sustainable pest control strategies and improved agricultural practices.

Adaptation strategies, such as the development of climate-resilient plant varieties and improved agricultural techniques, will be essential to mitigate the impact of climate change on medicinal plant cultivation.

4. Advances in Biotechnology and Plant Breeding

Biotechnology is expected to play a crucial role in shaping the future of medicinal plants. Key innovations include:

- **Genetic improvement**: Biotechnology enables the development of high-yield, disease-resistant, and climate-tolerant medicinal plants. Genetic modification and advanced breeding techniques can enhance the potency and chemical composition of plants, making them more effective for medicinal use.
- **Phytochemical analysis**: Advances in analytical tools, such as high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC), allow scientists to better understand the chemical profiles of medicinal plants. This research could lead to the discovery of new bioactive compounds with therapeutic potential.
- **Tissue culture and propagation**: Plant tissue culture techniques enable the production of uniform, high-quality, disease-free plants in large quantities, ensuring a consistent supply for medicinal use.

As biotechnology advances, it will help secure a sustainable, high-quality supply of medicinal plants, addressing both the rising demand and the environmental challenges that accompany it.

5. Integration into Modern Healthcare Systems

While medicinal plants have long been central to traditional healthcare, their integration into modern medical practices will continue to increase. Several factors will drive this process:

- **Regulatory frameworks**: Establishing strong regulations for the cultivation, production, and distribution of herbal medicines is essential to ensure safety, quality, and efficacy. Many countries are strengthening their regulatory frameworks, and global harmonization of standards will be crucial for international trade.
- **Clinical research and validation**: Ongoing scientific research and clinical trials will help substantiate the therapeutic claims of medicinal plants. As the body of evidence grows, these plants are likely to be more widely accepted by healthcare professionals and integrated into mainstream medicine.
- **Collaboration between traditional and modern medicine**: An integrated approach that combines traditional knowledge with modern pharmacological science holds great promise. Partnerships between traditional healers and modern medical practitioners will bridge the gap between these systems, facilitating the development of effective treatments.

As medicinal plants gain greater acceptance in global healthcare, they will likely play a significant role in integrative medicine, combining time-tested healing practices with cutting-edge scientific advances.

6. Global Trade and Market Growth

The global market for medicinal plants is poised for significant growth. Factors contributing to this expansion include:

- **Rising demand for herbal products**: As consumers seek natural health alternatives, the market for herbal medicines, supplements, and essential oils is expanding. Additionally, plant-based beauty and wellness products are in high demand.
- **Global acceptance of traditional medicine**: There is growing recognition of the value of traditional healing systems, driving demand for medicinal plants from regions such as India, China, and Africa.

- **Export opportunities**: Countries with diverse ecosystems and rich biodiversity, such as India, China, and Brazil, have the potential to become major exporters of medicinal plants. This can create economic opportunities, but it also requires the implementation of sustainable practices to ensure long-term viability.

Global trade in medicinal plants will continue to increase, but it will depend on efficient supply chains, sustainability certifications, and adherence to international standards to meet the growing demand while preserving plant species.

The future of medicinal plants is promising, but it comes with significant challenges. As demand for plant-based remedies continues to rise, sustainable cultivation, climate resilience, and the integration of modern scientific advancements will be essential. With ongoing research, innovation, and responsible stewardship, medicinal plants will remain a vital resource for global health. By blending traditional knowledge with modern science, medicinal plants can continue to contribute to healthcare and wellness, benefiting both human populations and the ecosystems that sustain them. Collaboration between governments, researchers, and the private sector will be critical in ensuring the long-term success of medicinal plant cultivation and conservation, meeting global health needs while safeguarding biodiversity.

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HEAVY METAL CONTAMINATION IN ENVIRONMENT AND HUMAN HEALTH - A PATHOLOGICAL AND BIOCHEMICAL APPROACH

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Abstract:

Heavy metals are well known environmental pollutants and they gets accumulated in the various organs of the body including humans along with other species. Many heavy metals occur naturally but very few are derived by different anthropogenic activities and leads to environmental pollution that may prove lethal to humans. Cadmium (Cd) causes long term health effects as they enter the body through inhalation and ingestion and its biological half-life in humans is 10-35 years. Cd causes injury to almost all the tissues and disturbs the antioxidant system in the body. Cd also alters the protein synthesis and also effects the glycogen concentration. The effects of Cd were studied in mice as they were administered an acute dose of Cd and their effects on different tissues were observed. Even the antioxidant status and the other biological parameters were also measured. Cd treated mice showed many pathological changes in the cells. The antioxidant enzymes were disturbed in the treated group but peroxidation in the cells was enhanced. Cd caused neurotoxicity, nephrotoxicity, hepatotoxicity, renal toxicity, cardiovascular toxicity and even hemotoxicity in humans as well as other species.

Keywords: Heavy Metals, Cadmium (Cd), Oxidative Stress, Toxicity, Antioxidant Enzymes and Histopathology.

Introduction:

Environmental pollution is enhancing day by day due to many anthropogenic and human activities. Pollution mainly is caused due to many heavy metal accumulations in air, water and soil that not only effects humans but also aquatic and terrestrial species. Heavy metals such as zinc, copper, manganese, iron are essential to the body in very small amounts as they play as important role in the biological mechanisms of the cell.

Cadmium is one heavy metal that is present in the environment due to its variety of uses in different processes, firstly as a painting and plating compound for about 100 years. Cd tends to present in the environments and gets piled up in the soil, then it enters into the plants and make its entry into the food chain (Chavez *et al.,* 2015). Many foods that mainly contribute to daily intake of Cd includes cereals and bread (34%), leafy vegetables like spinach (20%), potatoes (11%), stem and root vegetables (6%) and fruits (5%). When Cd reaches blood, it gets structured in various tissues such as kidneys, liver and skeleton (Nordberg and Nordberg 2022). Cd gets inhaled into body from workplace and non-occupational exposure is not at all enough to cause any harmful health effects in humans.

Cd has major impact on kidneys as the tubular region is the area of Cd deposition that leads to tubular damage (Akesson *et al.,* 2005). This may further impact the uptake of vitamin D by the kidney that may provoke osteoporosis which has deleterious effects on the bones (Kjellstrom 1992). Cd has incredible effect on the reproductive system, where this metal interferes in different aspects (Pizent *et al.,* 2012) as it disturbs cell adhesion in the testis that alter the migration of germ cells in the seminiferous epithelial cells. It also reduces testicular growth rate, hormone levels, sperm count and motility of the sperms along with the strong influence on the antioxidant status in the tissue (Thompson and Bannigan 2008).

The cardiovascular system also gets affected by Cd toxicity as it causes hypertension due to inhibition of endothelial nitric oxide synthase and elimination of acetylcholine-induced vascular relaxation (Gallagher and Meliker 2010). Even, the lungs are one of the main target organs for Cd intoxication as it leads to pulmonary fibrosis, obstructive lung disease that result in depressed lung function (Li *et al.,* 2022). Many studies also claim the effect of Cd on pancreatic β cells resulting in reduce insulin production (Edwards and Prozialeck 2009) and also effect the brain functions (Vijaya *et al.,* 2020).

The major mechanism by which Cd causes damage is oxidative damage by changing the Ca concentrations inside the cells. Cd doesn't directly produce reactive oxygen species (ROS) as it cannot undergo Fenton-like reactions, but on the other, it can replace redox-active metal ions and can inhibit the activity of many antioxidant enzymes (Liu *et al.,* 2009). Cd toxicity may cause cell death by apoptosis via various pathways like that of intrinsic one (Wang *et al.,* 2019) and it may enhance the inflammation markers like THF-α and NF-kB along with autophagy in the skin epidermal cells (Chiarelli and Roccheri 2012).

The aim of the present study was to study the effect of heavy metal, Cd on various organs of mice on the basis of biochemical and histological studies. This work was correlated to the outcome of cadmium intake in humans and other species.

Methodology

1. **Animals:** Albino mice (20-25g) were procured from Central Research Institute and were acclimatized in laboratory conditions. They were kept in translucent cages and were finally divided into 3 groups. All the mice were fed with standard mice feed and were given free access to R.O. water. This research was conducted after the approval of Institutional Animal Ethical Committee (Reg No. 107/99/CPCSEA/2013-03).
2. **Acquisition of Chemicals:** Cadmium chloride ($CdCl_2$) was purchased from S.D FINE CHEM LIMITED, Mumbai. Cadmium was given in the form of cadmium chloride that was dissolved in distilled water and directed to mice orally through gavage.
3. **Experimental Outline:** The animals were segregated into 3 groups with 6 mice in each group for the conduct of this study (Fig. 1).

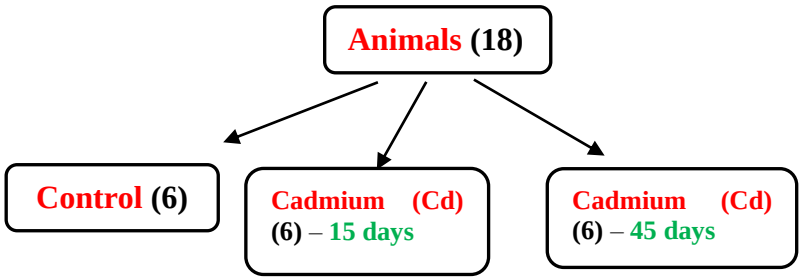


Fig. 1: Division of animals for the experiment.

Group I – Control mice, they were given normal feed and water.

Group II – Mice were administered with an acute dose of 6 mg/kg bw of cadmium (Cd) orally and were kept for 15 days.

Group III - Animals were subjected to Cd at a dose of 6 mg/kg bw orally for 1st day and were left on normal diet for 45 days.

4. **Tissue sample collection:** Animals were sacrificed after the completion of the experiment. Different tissues (Heart, Kidney, Liver, Lung, Pancreas and Testis) were removed, cleaned from adipose tissue and they were washed with cold water. Then were further processed for biochemical and histological analysis.

i. **Biochemical Estimations:** All the tissues were homogenized with 3 ml of phosphate buffer, centrifuged at 12,000 rpm for 20 min and the supernatant was collected and used for different biochemical studies.

1) **Measurement of Malondialdehyde (MDA):** Lipid peroxidation (LPO) in the tissues was evaluated according to Wilbur *et al* (1949) based on the concentration of malondialdehyde (MDA) which is the most important end-product of lipid peroxidation.
2) **Measurement of Superoxide Dismutase (SOD):** Superoxide dismutase was quantified by an indirect method that involves the scavenging of superoxide radicals by its enzyme. It was measured by a sensitive method of Das *et al* (2000).
3) **Measurement of Catalase (CAT):** Catalase is an enzymes that is present in all the organisms and helps to prevent oxidative stress in the body. The amount of this enzyme was analyzed by the method proposed by Aebi (1983).
4) **Measurement of Glycogen content:** Glucose is a source of energy to the body and it is stored in the form of glycogen in liver and muscles. The amount of glycogen present in different tissues was assessed by the method given by Montgomery (1957).
5) **Measurement of Cholesterol content:** Cholesterol is one of the important steroid that is present in the body. It can be estimated by the method of Zlatkis *et al* (1953).
6) **Measurement of Total Proteins:** The proteins were quantified by the method of Lowery *et al* (1951) that is one of the sensitive and most often used colorimetric methods.

ii) Histopathological study: Various tissues (Heart, Kidney, Liver, Lung, Pancreas and Testis) of both treated and control mice were cleaned, washed, cut into small pieces and were fixed in Bouin's fixative for 24 hours. Then the tissues were washed with 70%alcohol followed by various grades of alcohol, cleared in xylene and embedded in paraffin wax. They were sectioned at 5-6μm and stained with hematoxylin and eosin for pathological analysis that was studied with light microscopy.

Results:

Cadmium treatment results in lot of damage in different tissues of mice as it gets assimilated in the tissues and effects both biochemical and histological features. Cadmium significantly reduces body weight as compared to control mice (Fig. 2). The reduction was more at 45 days than at 15 days in toxic group.

The heavy metal treated group showed significant decrease in different organ weights in comparison to control group (Fig. 3). It also showed day's dependent decrease in Cd group.

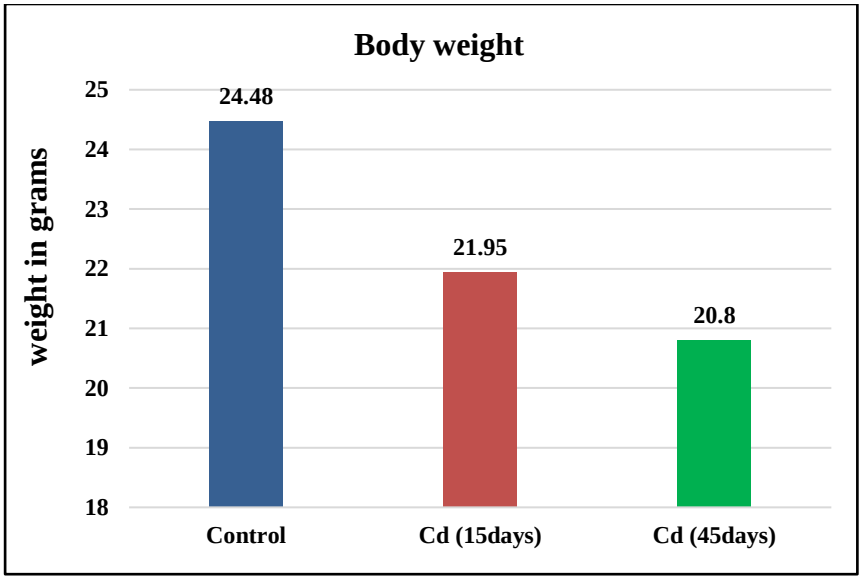


Fig.2: Body weight in all the groups during the experiment

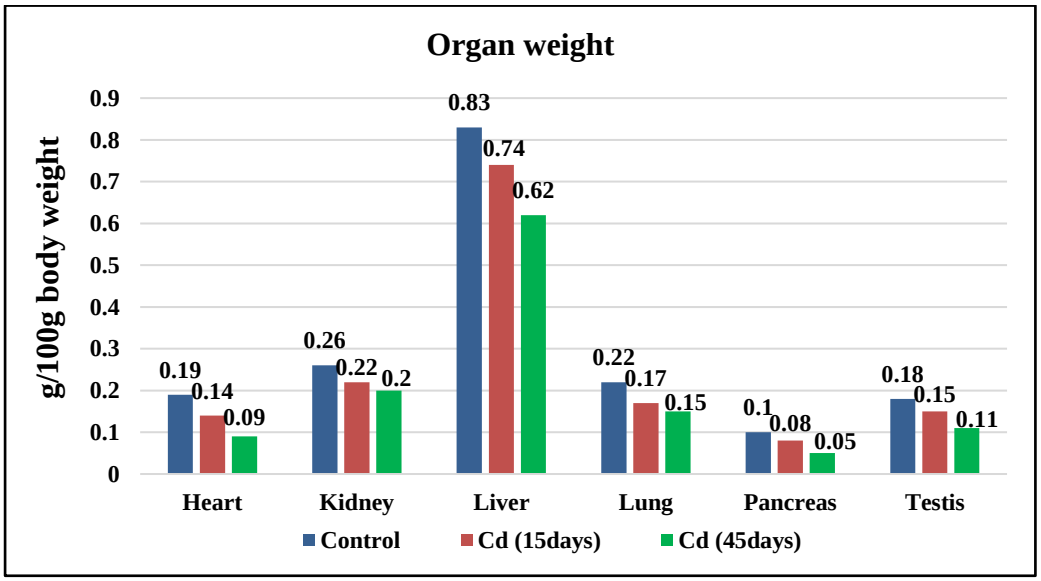


Fig. 3: Organ Weight (g/ 100g body weight) in control and treated groups.

Lipid peroxidation was one of the most parameters to check the damage caused by Cd. It was studied by quantifying MDA in different tissues that showed significant decrement in Cd treated groups as compared to control group (Fig.4). It may be due to oxidative damage caused by reactive oxygen species induced by heavy metal Cd.

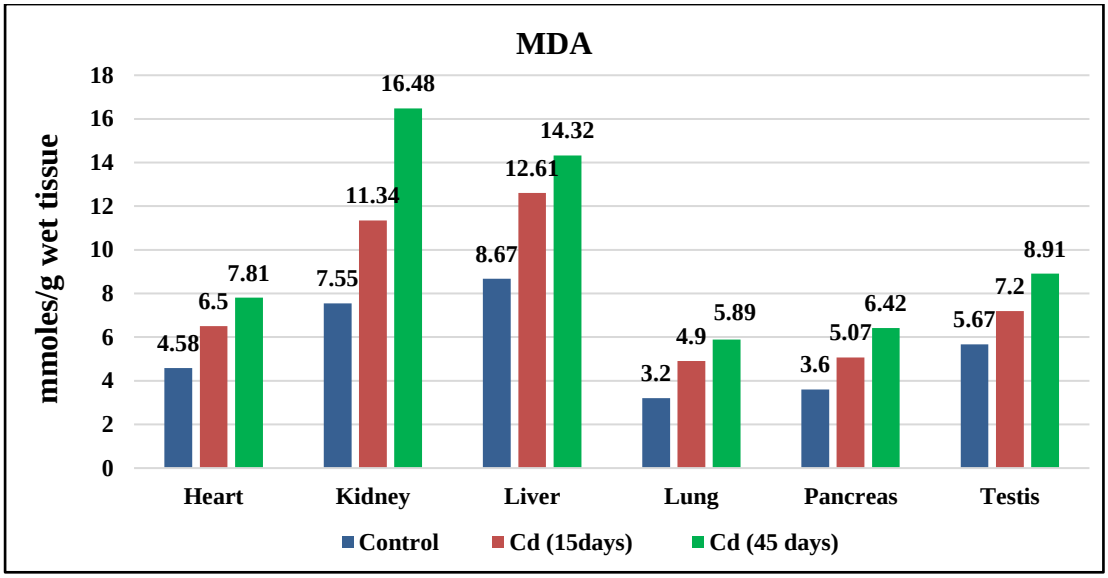


Fig. 4: MDA content (mmoles/g wet tissue) in different tissues of all the treated groups

Antioxidant enzymes like SOD (Fig. 5) and CAT (Fig. 6) are also affected by Cd toxicity. These enzymes were significantly decreased in Cd treated mice at 15 and 45 days in comparison to control mice. SOD is an enzyme that break down harmful oxygen molecules in the cells as Cd causes changes in the antioxidant status of a cell in almost all the tissues of the body. Catalase detoxifies hydrogen peroxide after breaking it into water and oxygen and this process is declined in toxic group in according to control values.

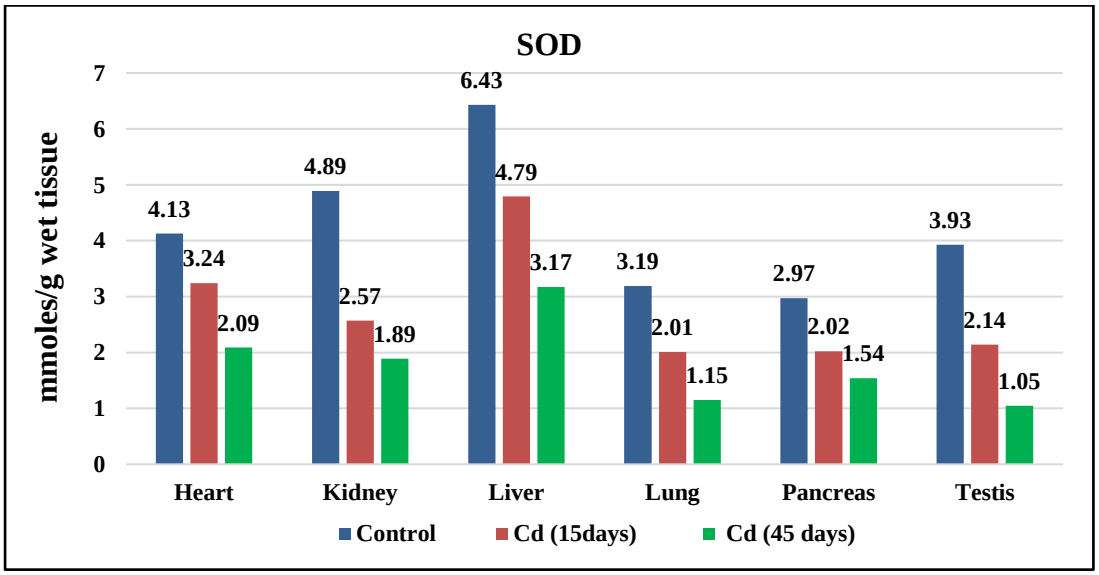


Fig. 5: SOD activity (mmoles/g wet tissue) in different tissues of all the treated groups.

The other biochemical parameters were also affected by Cd toxicity. The glycogen content is source of energy and this was also significantly reduced in Cd group as compared

to control group (Fig. 7). This decrease was seen in all the tissues of the mice and at both the treatment days i.e. 15 and 45 days.

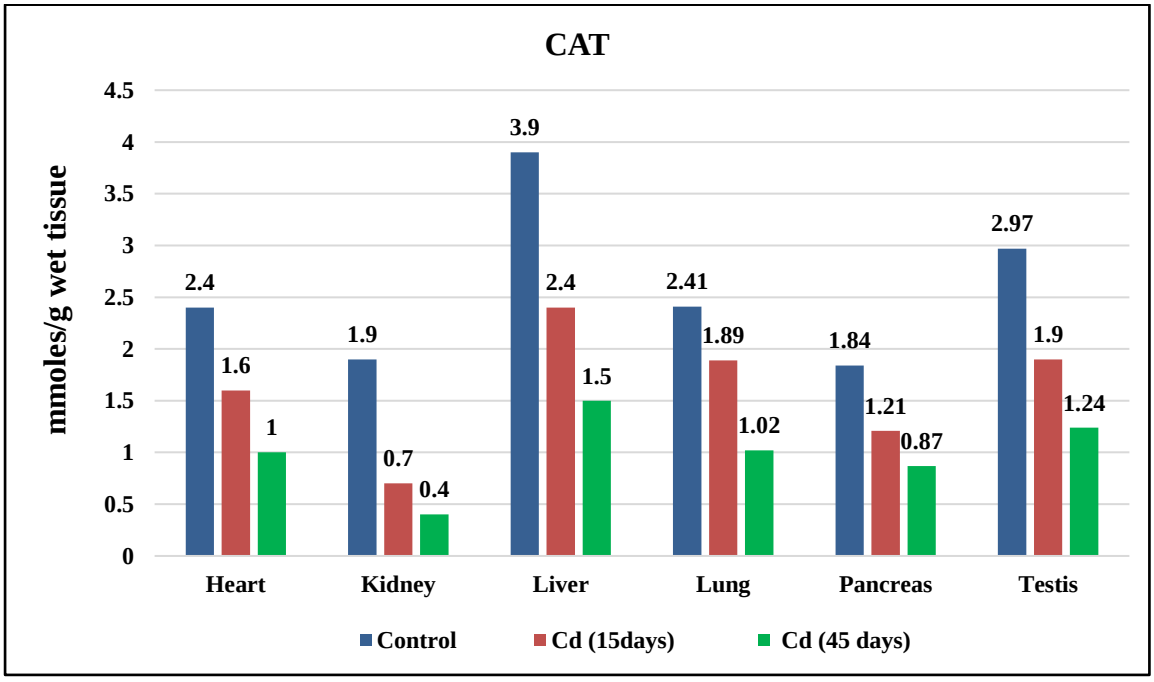


Fig.6: CAT activity (mmoles/g wet tissue) in different tissues of all the treated groups

Total cholesterol showed significant decrease in all the organs of toxic group as compared to control group (Fig. 8) but Cd showed increment in cholesterol level of liver tissue. Proteins are integral part of cell membranes and cells. The concentration of proteins significantly effects the biological functioning of the cells. The total proteins were also depleted in all the tissues of Cd treated groups in comparison to control (Fig. 9).

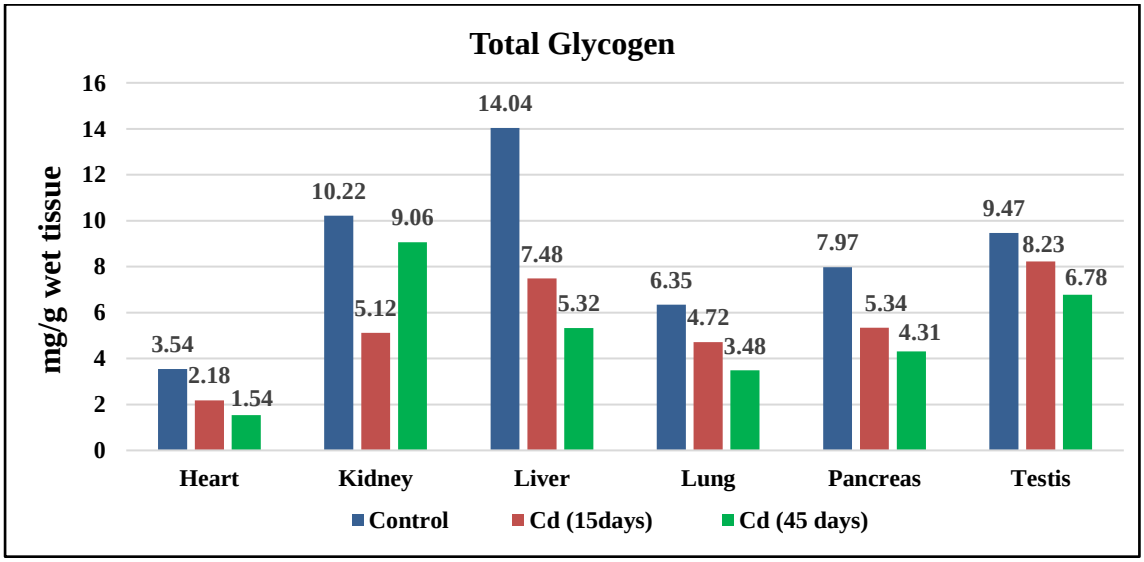


Fig. 7: Glycogen content (mg/g wet tissue) in different tissues of all the treated groups.

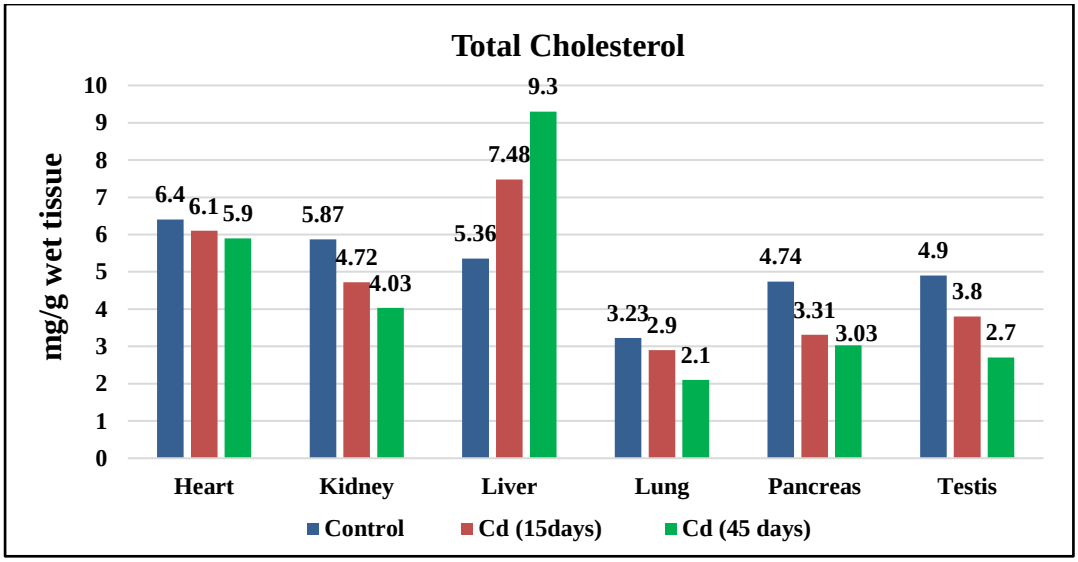


Fig. 8: Cholesterol content (mg/g wet tissue) in different tissues of all the treated groups

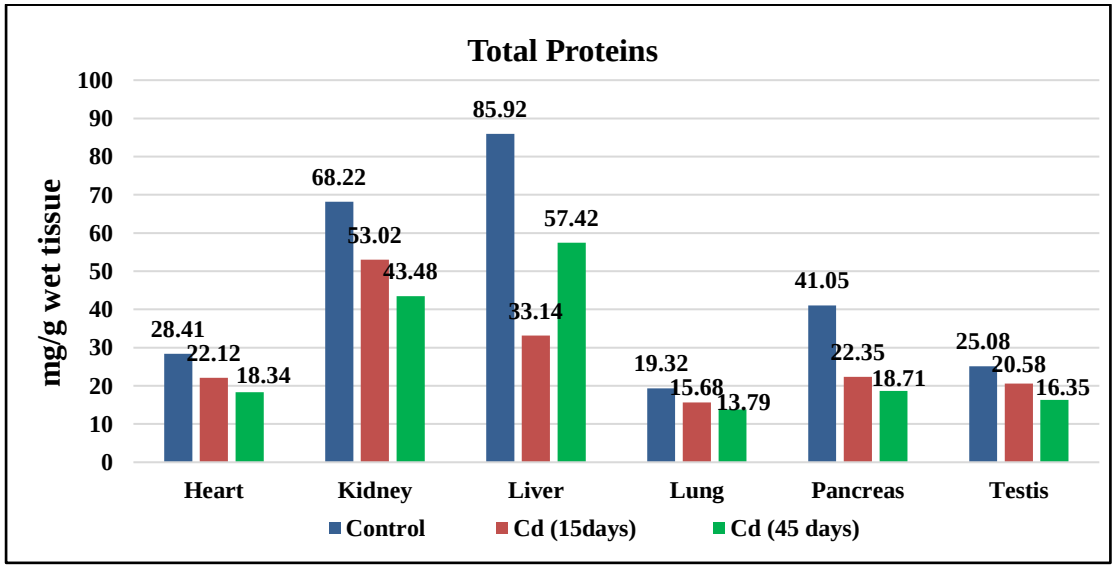
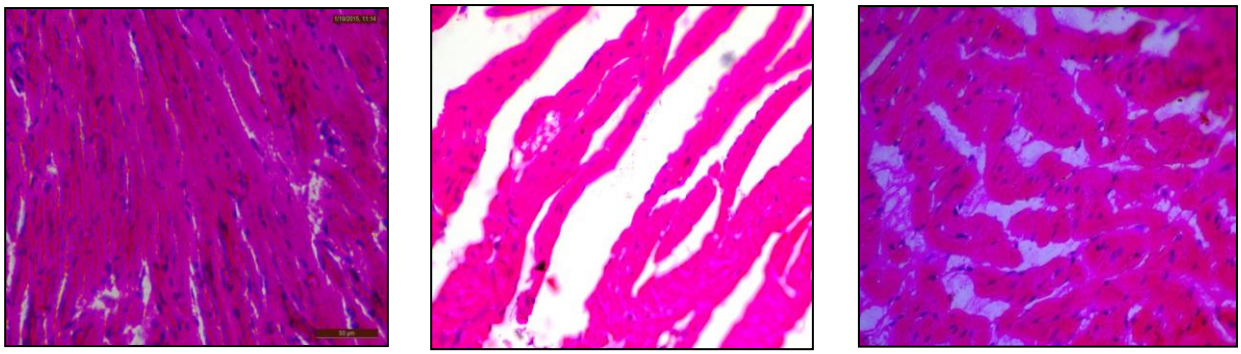


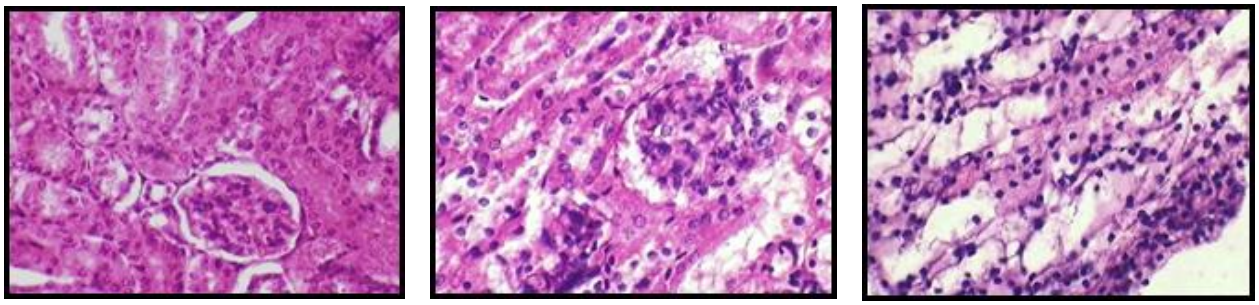
Fig. 9: Total Proteins (mg/g wet tissue) in different tissues of all the treated groups.

Histological observations of all the tissues (heart, kidney, liver, lung, pancreas and testis) showed hyperemia, degeneration of cell walls, binuclei and multinuclei cell formation along with vacuolation, lymphocytic infiltration etc. in Cd treated group (Figs. 10-15). Cd caused drastic pathological changes in all the tissues of mice which can be correlated with the effects in human beings.



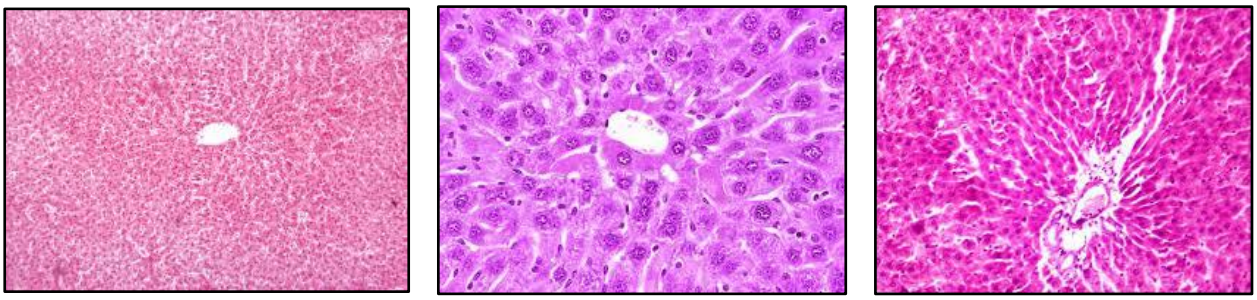
A **B** **C**

Fig. 10: Photomicrograph of heart tissue: A- Control, B-C – Cd treated heart tissue that showed vacuolar degeneration of cardiac myocytes, perivascular edema of cardiac muscle cells mild disorganization of myocardial fibers. X400



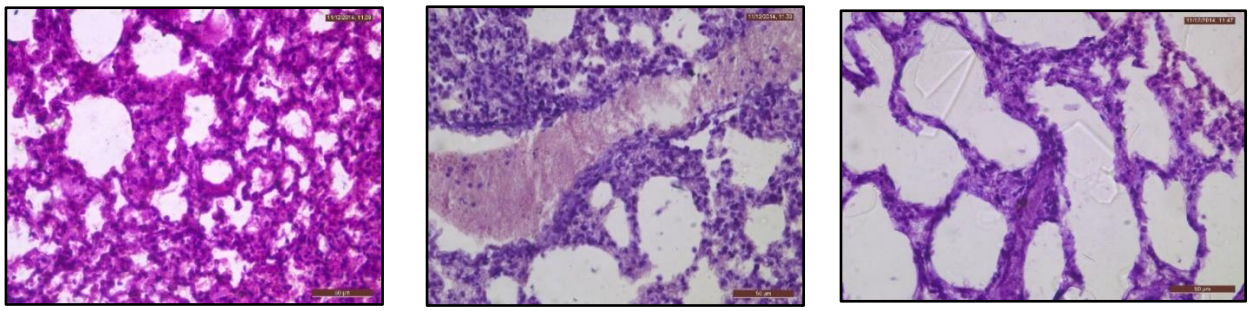
A **B** **C**

Fig. 11: Photomicrograph of kidney tissue: A- Control, B-C – Cd treated kidney tissue that showed degeneration of cellular wall and cytoplasm, binuclear cell formation, hyperemia and vacuolation. X400



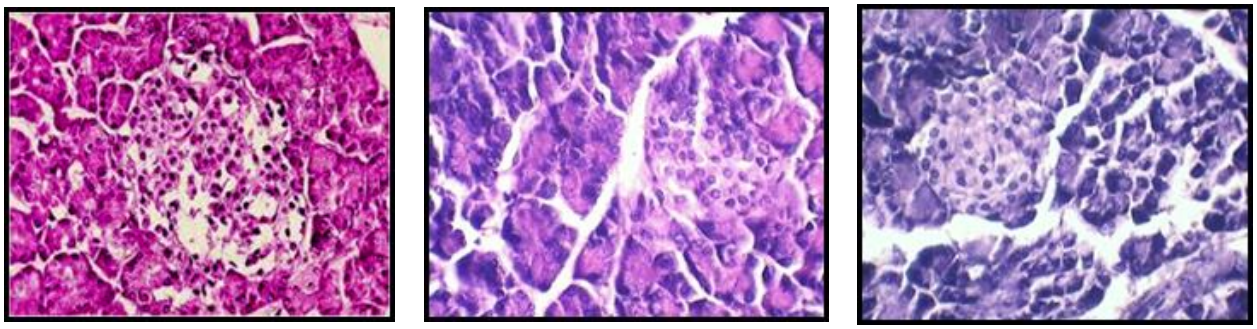
A **B** **C**

Fig. 12: Photomicrograph of liver tissue: A- Control, B-C – Cd treated liver tissue that showed lymphatic infiltration, binuclear cell formation, hyperemia and vacuolation. X400



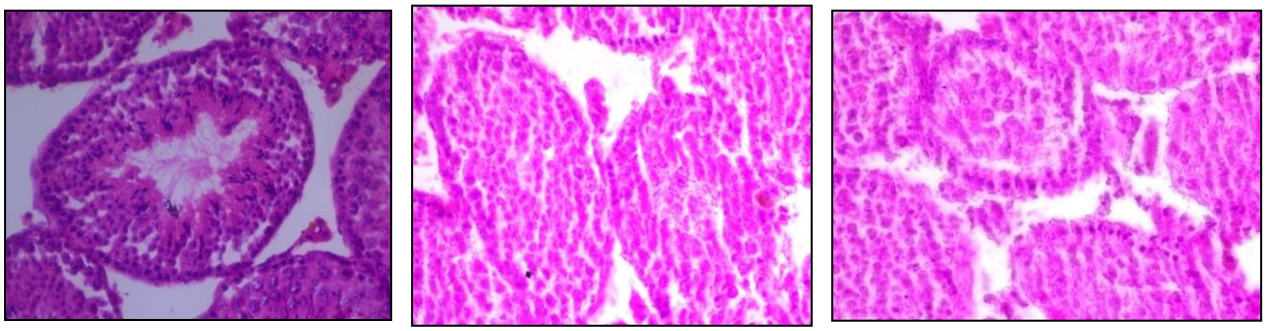
A **B** **C**

Fig. 13: Photomicrograph of lung tissue: A- Control, B-C – Cd treated lung tissue hyperemia and hyperemia, vacuolation in-between alveoli. X400



A **B** **C**

Fig. 14: Photomicrograph of pancreas tissue: A- Control, B-C – Cd treated pancreas tissue hyperemia, reduction of islets of Langerhans and degeneration of pancreatic acini. X400



A **B** **C**

Fig. 15: Photomicrograph of testis tissue: A- Control, B-C – Cd treated testis tissue hyperaemia and clumping of numerous seminiferous tubules, atrophied testicular tissue and dead cells. X400

Discussion:

Cadmium (Cd) is a toxic heavy metal that induced many biochemical and pathological changes in the different tissues of mice. Cd gets accumulated in all the tissues and causes damage to the cells along with altered biochemical pathways. This may lead to decrease in overall weight of mice as well as organ weight in toxic group.

The direct targets of lipid peroxidation are the cell membranes as they are composed of phospholipid bilayers with extrinsic proteins and this may further lead to various detrimental effects such as increased membrane rigidity, osmotic fragility, cell membrane destruction and cell damage that further influences the fluidity of the cell membrane along with DNA (Zama *et al.,* 2007). The intensity of the Cd intoxication not only depends on the route but also on the dose and duration of the exposure to the metal (Djokic *et al.,* 2014). So, lipid peroxidation constituted a major consequence of Cd- induced oxidative damage and it can be correlated with the exposure levels to Cd.

The most important defense mechanisms that help in neutralizing free radical chain reactions and protect the cell against their toxic effects are mostly connected with the antioxidant effect of SOD, CAT, GPx and GST. With the long term exposure to Cd, the activity of SOD, CAT and GST was reduced as many of the essential metals from their active sites and were replaced by other nonessentials metals by making the enzymes less active (Winiarska-Mieczan 2018). Cd may change the protein conformation by interacting with the enzyme and finally changing its functional activity that causes deleterious effects due to the aggregation of superoxide radicals. So, the decreased SOD activity in Cd treated group might be due to its inhibition by the immense production of ROS (Jamakala and Rani 2015) as noticeable by the LPO levels in the present study.

CAT is an inducible cytosolic enzyme which serves to protect the biological system against reactive oxygen species, rapidly converting hydrogen peroxide to non-toxic oxygen and water (Hussein *et al.,* 2014). There was significant decline in CAT level in Cd treated group. This decrease was attributed to the possibility of high production of ROS and their increased intracellular accumulation which further exceed the detoxification capacity of antioxidant enzymes, finally resulting in subsequent development of tissue injury (De Castro *et al.,* 2000).

Glycogen is an imperative source of energy for the general metabolism of the body (Desai *et al.,* 2015). A reduced insulin release/activation of gluconeogenic enzymes may also results in decrement of tissue glycogen (Demir *et al.,* 2006) Glycogen can be depleted

in response to some physiological processes or nonchemical stresses such as temperature and hypoxia (Yuness, 2005). Cholesterol is an essential part of cell membrane and helps in the maintenance of cellular homeostasis along with the communication between and with cells (Liu *et al.,* 2010). There was decrement in the cholesterol level in response to Cd treatment.

Proteins are the constituents of cell membranes and are manufactured by the ribosomes of the cells. The decrease may be correlated to with the decreased protein synthesis due to hepatic dysfunction under heavy metal exposure and there is a direct effect of chronic renal diseases that are associated with heavy metal toxicity can cause excessive loss of proteins (Barbier *et al.,* 2005). Moreover, Cd retards the protein synthesis by binding itself to sulfhydryl group (SH) of many enzymes and this may further cause inhibition of many enzymatic activities (Waisberg *et al.,* 2003).

Cd results in histological alterations in all the tissues of mice and this can be correlated in humans and other species. There is direct link between the Cd ingested and the amount of Cd accumulated in the proximal tubules of kidneys that induced cellular damage and results in pathological changes. Even, Cd results in cell death by apoptosis in cardiomyocytes, kidneys, testes and bones resulting in DNA fragmentation (Ma *et al.,* 2021). Cd also causes stress in endoplasmic reticular, mitochondria that disturbs the ATP generation and protein synthesis. All the tissues samples showed pathological signs that are induced by Cd. The weight of all the tissues was directly related to the histological changes in the mice.

Conclusion:

Many heavy metals are present in the environment. Some of them like Iron, Zinc and Cobalt have biological significance as they act as essential nutrients in the body but other heavy metals such as Arsenic, Cadmium, Mercury, Lead and Nickel are highly poisonous and are carcinogenic agents that leads to oxidative stress as they interfere with the various physiological and biological assets in distinct organs of the body. Cd also causes damage of proteins and DNA in a long run which influences DNA repair enzymes, cell to cell proliferation and invigorate cancer growth. In this current era, though it is impossible to restrict the intake of heavy metals whether through food or water so it's the need of the time to follow healthy life style with the intake of antioxidants as to reduce the effect of these heavy metals, if any in the body.

Acknowledgements:

The authors are thankful and grateful to the Department of Zoology & Environmental Sciences, Punjabi University, Patiala, for providing the necessary facilities to pursue the research work

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PHYTOREMEDIATION FOR THE MANAGEMENT OF ORGANIC POLLUTANTS

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Abstract:

In light of climate change, the growing threat of organic pollution to the environment is a serious obstacle to the sustainability of ecosystems. In response to this phytoremediation is an advanced approach for environmental detoxifying pollutants using plants and some microbes, this technology harnesses the capabilities of plants to mitigate pollution effectively and sustainably. The study highlights the critical need for action by describing the complex relationship between organic contaminants and their detrimental effects on ecosystems. Persistent organic pollutants (POPs) in particular show characteristics of long-range transport and bioaccumulation, which can cause extensive environmental contamination. Phytoremediation is characterized by its cost-effectiveness and the property of metabolizing hazardous organic contaminants into nontoxic or less toxic forms. Climate change affects plant development and pollutant uptake by changing soil moisture levels, temperature, and precipitation patterns. This has an impact on how well the phytoremediation systems perform. The success of phytoremediation in strengthening ecosystem resilience and mitigating climate change effects has been limited due to shifting climatic conditions and low development rates. In this review, different phytoremediation methods and possible approaches are discussed.

Keywords: Phytoremediation, Persistent Organic Compounds, Climate Change, Carbon Sequestration

Introduction:

There are significant environmental risks as a result of rapid industrial development and population growth. Since ancient times, industrial processes including mineral mining, gas emissions, pesticide application, and the creation of urban garbage have added significant amounts of contaminants to the soil, water, and atmosphere biotopes (Nedjimi, 2021). A critical risk to environmental health and ecosystem sustainability is the convergence of climate change with growing organic pollution. In the last few years, a greater understanding has been observed regarding the uptake and metabolism of organic

xenobiotic chemicals by plants, especially chlorinated solvents, some pesticides, and explosives compounds (Lu *et al.,* 2018). Phytoremediation is a green, nature-inspired technique that employs plants in the battle against pollution. This technology is considered efficient, cheap, and environmentally suitable (Ashraf *et al.,* 2019). Phytoremediation is the utilization of suitable plant species in polluted areas to reduce the toxic levels of pollutants (Chatterjee *et al.,* 2013). Phytoremediation is more cost-effective than mechanical and chemical methods of remediating hazardous compounds from soil, sediments, surface, and groundwater environments (Tripathi *et al.,* 2020). Almost all plants are capable of absorbing, breaking up, and transforming environmental pollutants found in soil, water, or air. Phytoremediation uses the natural healing powers of nature to remedy itself rather than traditional methods, which frequently involve many anthropogenic interventions and may pose risks to the environment (Trapp & Karlson, 2001).

Organic pollutant types and their impact on the ecosystem

In recent decades, there has been an increase in the use of green technologies and approaches to reduce the amount of dangerous organic compounds discharged into the environment, (Parul *et al.,* 2020). Many different types of contaminants are still contaminating the earth's ecology. There are many contaminants in various locations. Some endure a long time and are resistant to environmental deterioration (biological, chemical, and photolytic reactions) (I. Ali *et al.,* 2009). When assessing chemical hazards and risks, persistent organic compounds or persistent organic pollutants (POPs) are ranked as a priority group of substances. These chemicals "have time" to travel great distances and reach far-flung locations around the globe because they are persistent.(Scheringer *et al.,* 2012). POPs are pollutants consisting of pesticides, industrial chemicals (PCBs, polychlorinated biphenyls, PBDEs, PFOS, etc.), and by-products of industrial processes (dioxins and furans) (Jacob & Cherian, 2013).

United Nations Environment Program (UNEP) recognized some (POPs) which are aldrin, dieldrin, heptachlor, chlordane, hexachlorobenzene, mirex, endrin, chlordecone, toxaphene, lindane, hexa- and penta-bromodiphenyl ethers (commercial octabromodiphenyl ether), tetra- and penta-bromodiphenyl ethers (commercial pentabromodiphenyl ether), hexabromobiphenyl, pentachlorobenzene, polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBS), α- and β-hexachlorocyclohexane, αand β-endosulfans (technical endosulfan and its isomers), perfluorooctane sulfonic acid and its salts (PFOS), perfluorooctane sulfonyl fluoride (PFOSF), DDT, pentachlorobenzene, hexachlorobenzene,

polychlorinated dibenzofurans (PCDFS), polychlorinated dibenzo-dioxins (PCDDS), polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs), hexachlorobutadiene, chlorinated naphthalenes, pentachlorophenol hexabromocyclododecane (HBCD), short-chained chlorinated kinds of paraffin (A. Singh & Kumari, 2021). Before discussing the environmental effects of POPs. We should consider the notorious effects of POPs mostly POPs are highly lipid soluble with semi-volatilities (Pv between 10^{-4} and 10^{-11} atmosphere at 25C) properties. Besides, some POPs are also water-soluble such as PFOS(Al-Rashdan & Helaleh, 2013). Furthermore, POPs' persistent nature prevents them from degrading in the environment, which causes bioaccumulation in living things. (Gaur *et al.,* 2018). This bioaccumulation happens as these toxins travel up the food chain, posing a serious risk to ecosystems and human health (H. Ali & Khan, 2019). Exposure to these pollutants can lead to many major health issues, including cancer, heart disease, obesity, reproductive and neurological disorders, hormone disruption, learning difficulties, and diabetes. In addition, these contaminants cause abnormalities in the developing female fetus (Alharbi *et al.,* 2018). Moreover, Long-distance transit of certain POPs can result in extensive distribution, harming regions far from their initial origins and underscoring the global scope of the environmental challenges related to these compounds (Jones, 2021).

Organic pollutants have considerable adverse environmental effects on other living creatures as well as diverse media including air, soil, or water (Aktar *et al.,* 2009). Anthropogenic activities, such as practices for intensifying agriculture (Mózner *et al.,* 2012). Unlimited urbanization and rapid industrialization are causing serious environmental pollution by organic pollutants (Anyakora *et al.,* 2013). Urban runoff's organic compounds and nutrients have a detrimental effect on global warming (Tang *et al.,* 2021). All things considered, phytoremediation is a viable and long-term approach to combating environmental contamination and aiding in the recovery of ecosystems impacted by human activity (P. Sharma & Pandey, n.d.).

Mechanism of Phytoremediation

Remediation of water and soil pollution is one of the main problems our civilization is currently facing in maintaining ecosystem processes and functioning. Many physical, chemical, and biological techniques have been used to clean up environmental pollution, but their uses are restricted because of the expenses and labor involved, the risks to safety, and the damage they do to ecosystems (H. Ali *et al.,* 2013). Alternative phytoremediation is the term used to describe the process of using plants to remove contaminants from soil,

water, and air (Cunningham *et al.,* 1995). Plant roots contain enzymes called peroxidases and laccases, which are essential to phytoremediation because they convert organic pollutants into innocuous substances (Angélica Rodríguez Dorantes, 2012) also, microbial biodegradation uses microorganisms, specifically fungi and bacteria, to break down and change organic contaminants into less hazardous forms (El-Sheekh & Mahmoud, 2017). Many types of pollution, such as those caused by metals, herbicides, explosives, and oil, can be cleaned up by plants (Abdel-Shafy & Mansour, 2018).

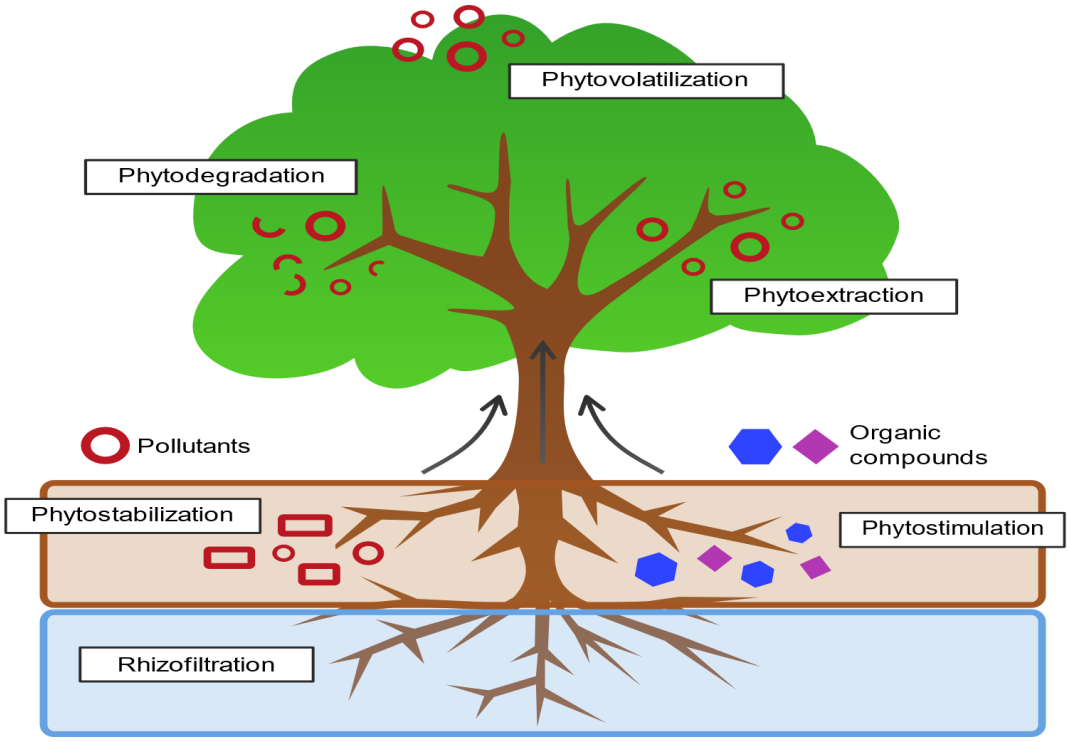

Fig. 1: Phytoremediation techniques in the phyllosphere and rhizosphere (Lee *et al.,* 2020).

Additionally, plants aid in preventing contaminants from being carried away from places and into other areas by wind, rain, and groundwater. An affordable, non-destructive in situ technique called phytoremediation can be utilized for the contamination of soil removal. Given the tropical climate's favorable plant growth and microbiological activity, there is great potential for this technique (Etim, 2012). Soil conditions, bioavailability, and the type of contamination all affect the mechanisms and effectiveness of phytoremediation (Petruzzelli *et al.,* 2015). Plants may clean up or remediate contaminated environments in a variety of ways. The main methods for preventing toxicity are found in the root system, which is also where most pollutants are absorbed by plants. The source system offers a vast surface area for absorbing and storing non-essential pollutants along with water and nutrients needed for growth (Kumar Yadav *et al.,* 2018). There are seven methods for the

removal of environmental pollutants with the help of phytoremediation namely phytoextraction, phytovolatilization, phytodegradation, phytostabilization, biodegradation, rhizofiltration, as shown in Fig. 1.

Phytoextraction

Because phytoextraction removes pollutants from the soil and moves them to the above-ground portions of plants, it affects both the phyllosphere and rhizosphere of plants (Pandey & Bajpai, 2019). This method is also referred to as phytoaccumulation, phytoabsorption, or phytosequestration (Farraji *et al.,* 2020). The term "phytoextraction" describes how pollutants are absorbed, moved, and accumulated by plants. Harvest products can be discarded or reused; they concentrate the contaminants. Heavy metals are the ideal application for this technology (Ogundola *et al.,* 2022). By absorbing pollutants from polluted soils and collecting them in the phyllosphere, this technique makes use of hyperaccumulator plants, which can concentrate 100 times more metals than nonaccumulating plants (Srivastava, 2017).

Phytovolatilization

To eliminate pollutants from soil and water, phytovolatilization uses transpiration as well as phytotransformation. Plants absorb the pollutants through their roots during this process. The pollutants are subsequently carried to the leaves to the phyllosphere, where they are eliminated as a volatile material through transpiration. Before being transpired, a large number of the chemicals are broken down or detoxified (Jeevanantham *et al.,* 2019). For the most part, this method works well with organic pollutants (Shmaefsky, 2020b). But inorganic pollutants such as mercury have also been cleaned up via phytovolatilization, which reduces the metal to its elemental state. In other research, phytovolatilization was utilized to eliminate selenium and arsenic from soil and water (Shmaefsky, 2020a).

Phyto and biodegradation

The degradation of pollutants by plants is called phytodegradation while the degradation of contaminants in the root zone is called rhizodegradation. Rhizodegradation is also known as phytostimulation because pollutants are degraded in the rhizosphere while being stimulated by microorganisms found there (Yang *et al.,* 2023). Plant roots offer an additional surface area for the growth of microorganisms and the transport of oxygen. Along with the biodegrading enzymes that plants produce, microbes in the rhizosphere develop and break down contaminants using the metabolites and exudate of plants (Asemoloye *et al.,* 2019). Organic substances can undergo phytodegradation either inside the plant or in its rhizosphere. This technique may remove a wide range of different

substances and types of compounds from the environment, such as volatile compounds in the air, petroleum and aromatic compounds in soils, solvents in groundwater, and solvents in soil contaminations, such as petroleum, PAH, BTEX, TNT and pesticides, Phyto, and biodegradation are commonly employed. (Feng *et al.,* 2017).

Rhizofiltration

Rhizodegradation can be combined with hemofiltration to treat surface water, groundwater, and wastewater remediation. The rhizosphere serves as a filter in this bioremediation application, absorbing and breaking down water pollutants (Hanus-Fajerska & Koźmińska, 2017). Simply this is the process of using plant roots to adsorb and absorb contaminants from water and aqueous waste streams, primarily metals (S. Ali *et al.,* 2020). In a hydroponic system, where pollutants are absorbed by the roots or other rhizosphere organs, plants are frequently grown. The plants were gathered like the phytoextraction approach after they reached the saturation limit of the pollutants (Mahrukh & Ali, 2023).

Phytostabilization

The immobilization of soil compounds or the stability of the soil to stop erosion is known as phytostabilization (I. Alkorta *et al.,* 2010). Utilizing root accumulation or rhizosphere-based precipitation, phytostabilization seeks to keep pollutants out of the vadose zone. By doing this, the movement of pollutants through soil dispersion, leaching, and erosion from wind and water is averted (Teodoro *et al.,* 2020). It is not necessary to dispose of hazardous materials when using this technology. Additionally, this technology is a useful tool for protecting surface and groundwater resources. This technique can also lessen the amount of water available in the system and soil erosion (Carvajal-Flórez & Santiago-Alonso Cardona-Gallo, 2019).

Plant species selection for phytoremediation

The capacity of various plants to absorb and accumulate particular pollutants varies (S. Sharma *et al.,* 2015). Look for plants with a history of accumulation of specific pollutants that need to be cleaned up (Weidlich *et al.,* 2020) Determine the potential environmental effects of introducing a specific plant species to an area by examining which plants are better at eliminating organic contaminants and absorbing heavy metals. Don't use invasive species that could cause native plants to be displaced or disturb nearby ecosystems. (O. V. Singh & Jain, 2003). Considering the plants that have high biomass. Deep-rooting plants are commonly utilized in phytoremediation (Prabakaran *et al.,* 2019). Choose the plants that have adapted to local climates. (Munang *et al.,* 2010). Evaluate the environmental

conditions of the location, including the soil type, pH, moisture content, temperature, and solar exposure. Choose plants that have the greatest adaptation to the site's environment so they can grow and treat the area effectively (Kim *et al.,* 2015).

Plants used as phytoremediants

Plants	Scientific Names	Contamination Removed
Sunflowers	*Helianthus annuus*	Lead, arsenic, and uranium (Adesodun *et al.,* 2010).
Indian Mustard	*Brassica juncea*	Lead, cadmium, zinc (Kutrowska *et al.,* 2017).
Alfalfa	*Medicago sativa*	Cadmium, lead (Kutrowska *et al.,* 2017)
Poplar Trees	*Populus spp.*	VOCs, hydrocarbons (McCormick *et al.,* 2019).
Willow Trees	*Salix spp.*	Heavy metals, and pollutants in soil and water (Bajraktari *et al.,* 2019).
Water Hyacinth	*Eichhornia crassipes*	Excess nutrients, heavy metals (Bajraktari *et al.,* 2019).
Duckweed	*Lemna spp.*	Excess nutrients, heavy metals, and organic pollutants (Ziegler *et al.,* 2016).
Bamboo	*Bambusoideae spp.*	Heavy metals (Bajraktari *et al.,* 2019).
Ferns	*Pteridophyta spp.*	Heavy metals (Bajraktari *et al.,* 2019).
Cattails	*Typha spp.*	Heavy metals, and organic pollutants (Ziegler *et al.,* 2016).
Seaweed	*Algae spp.*	Heavy metals are pollutants in seawater (Pan & Wang, 2012).
Switchgrass	*Panicum virgatum*	Hydrocarbons, and heavy metals (Alacabey & Zorer Çelebi, 2020).

Conclusion:

Phytoremediation has gained significant attention as a sustainable, cost-effective approach for the remediation of contaminated environments, utilizing plants to remove, degrade, or immobilize pollutants. This bioremediation strategy is particularly effective for addressing soil, water, and air pollution. Recent research highlights the potential of synergistic interactions between plants and microorganisms, which can enhance the efficiency of phytoremediation processes. Among the microorganisms studied, Pseudomonas *putida* stands out due to its versatility in degrading a wide range of organic

contaminants, such as hydrocarbons, pesticides, and heavy metals. Its ability to thrive in the rhizosphere and metabolize toxic substances makes it a valuable tool when used with phytoremediation systems. P*. putida* facilitates pollutant degradation by breaking down contaminants into less toxic or non-toxic forms, while also promoting plant growth through improved nutrient cycling and enhanced stress tolerance. The interaction between P*. putida* and plants can significantly increase the efficiency of pollutant removal, particularly in the case of complex contaminants that are otherwise challenging for plants to do alone. This microbial-plant combined effect accelerate the detoxification process and improves overall remediation outcomes. However, the effectiveness of this combined approach depends on factors such as plant species, microbial strain, environmental conditions, and the nature of the contaminants. Despite its promising potential, several challenges still remain. These include optimizing plant-microbe interactions, ensuring the stability and persistence of microbial populations in field conditions, and scaling up the technology for large-scale applications. Additionally, the long-term impacts of such bioremediation strategies on ecosystem health and sustainability need further investigation.

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MICROPLASTIC AND NANOPLASTIC, AN EMERGING THREAT TO HUMAN BEING

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Abstract:

Plastics have an important aspect in everyday day to day life including technology, medicine, treatments and domestic appliances. These plastics are thrown away by the consumers after a very first single use, which become a huge threat to nature as they will end up in river, lakes, ponds, landfills, oceans and other waterways. These small plastics are discarded in vast number each day and the breaking down of the plastic from Micro to Nano sizes has led to worries about how harmful these plastics are to the nature and humans, while there are several earlier studies reported the effect of Microplastics (MP) and Nanoplastics (NP) have on the nature, but there is spare exploration about their impact on the human body at sub cellular or molecular level. Microplastics are usually produced designedly or generated when large synthetic polymer products, such as plastic packaging material or other products are not properly disposed of or treated. These are synthetic, high-molecular weight composites that have been micronized into plastic patches smaller than 5 μm in size. Such materials have a low biodegradation rate and thus, remain substantially in the environment and negatively affect the mortal.

Keywords: Microplastic, Nanoplastic, Polymers, Synthetic, Landfills, Environment

Introduction:

Plastics are made of synthetic accoutrements that have experienced several chemical processes and physical reactions. The main process used are polymerization and poly condensation, during which the core elements are fundamentally transformed into polymer chains.

The term Microplastics was first introduced by Thompson et al. in 2004 to report on small plastics on marine environment. According American Chemical Society plastics particle and fibers smaller than 5μm and lager than 1μm are defined as microplastics. Microplastics can be classified according to their source and scrap size. Broadly, microplastics can be distributed into primary and secondary microplastics. Primary microplastics are intentionally created plastic patches such as consumer-care products

(e.g., detergents and cosmetics, glitters) or industrial products. Whereas Secondary microplastics are products containing plastics, such as plastic waste and fibres or plastic products that have perished after being exposed to the outside environment. In addition, the chemical constituents of environmental microplastics are diverse and include polymers, such as polyethylene (PE), polypropylene (PP), polystyrene (PS), PE terephthalate, polyvinyl chloride (PVC) and polyvinyl alcohol.

Microplastics due to their tiny sizes fluently ingested. They easily persist in the environment for long time since they are refractory to biodegradation and move upwards in the food chain. In addition, as microplastics persists in micro-level to nano-level sizes, they are virtually impossible to remove once released into the environment. Due to these characteristics, microplastics pose implicit hazards to humans and the environment. As a representative illustration of the threat posed by microplastics, they can cause physical and mechanical harm (e.g., cause abnormalities in internal organs) to marine organisms when they inaptly ingest microplastics. Ecotoxicity may be caused by the polymer itself, unreacted monomers, (e.g., residual catalysts or reaction by-products), additives (e.g., stabilizers), or other contaminants substances in the polymer matrix (e.g., dyes, lubricants, or plasticizers). In addition, microplastics can enter into the human body when they are not filtered out during sewage-treatment processes, or they can flow into the sea, thereby posing pitfalls for the ecosystem and humans. Various examples of damage caused by microplastics as well as nanoplastic have been reported, such as Microplastics accumulation in the bodies of sexually reproducing living organisms (leading to malnutrition), inflammation, reduced fertility, and mortality. Accumulation of microplastics also detrimental to lower species where it is question of survival. The threats that microplastics present to the human body have not yet been clearly identified. However, previous reports have shown that ultrafine microplastics absorption resulted in complex toxicity in zebrafish and that microplastics under 100 nm in size can reach almost all organs after entering the human body. Therefore, concerns exist regarding the negative effects of continuous microplastic accumulation in the human body.

There are three primary routes for Microplastics to end up in the human body; inhalation, ingestion and dermal contact. Inhaled airborne microplastics appear from civic dust, which include synthetic textiles and rubber tyres. Microplastics are ingested as they are prevalent in the food chain and water supplies, while the skin membrane was too fine for microplastics and nanoplastics to pass through especially nanoplastics, it is possible for

them to enter through wounds, sweat glands and hair follicles. Although all three routes contribute to the total amount of microplastics present in the human body. Most investigations of microplastics have been based on observations of synthetic microbeads (i.e., primary microplastics) intentionally manufactured for industrial or household use. However, unintentional causes of microplastics pollution should also be paid attention to, such as secondary microplastics that comprise a relatively large proportion of plastic particles in the environment. It is also well known that the physicochemical properties of nanomaterials play important roles in their toxic properties and lethality. Primary microplastics currently used in toxicology studies are mostly uniform in size and shape, whereas secondary microplastics exist in a variety of sizes and shapes, making it difficult to assess their actual health risks.

Several studies have shown that microplastics can affect various systems in the human body, including the digestive, respiratory, endocrine, reproductive, and immune systems. The digestive systems are affected when microplastics are ingested, and physical irritation to the gastrointestinal tract may eventually cause inflammation, resulting in various gastrointestinal symptoms. Microplastics may cause changes in the intestinal microbiome, resulting in an imbalance between beneficial and harmful bacteria, which can lead to various gastrointestinal symptoms, such as abdominal pain, bloating, and changes in bowel habits. In addition to their physical effects on the digestive system, microplastics can cause chemical toxicity, which involves the absorption and accumulation of environmental toxins such as heavy metals and polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons. Microplastics may cause oxidative stress in the airways and lungs when inhaled, leading to respiratory symptoms such as coughing, sneezing, and shortness of breath due to inflammation and damage, as well as fatigue and dizziness due to a low blood oxygen concentration. Microplastics interfere with the production, release, transport, metabolism, and elimination of hormones, which can cause endocrine disruption and lead to various endocrine disorders, including metabolic disorders, developmental disorders, and even reproductive disorders (i.e., infertility, miscarriage, and congenital malformations). Recent report showed that microplastics exposure in new-borns and infants could increase due to the use of feeding bottles and medical devices, and bio monitoring data provide indirect evidence of microplastics exposure in infants and children.

Following exposure, uptake is plausible via ingestion and/or inhalation. The toxicity assessments of Microplastics on human are mainly focusing on gastrointestinal and

pulmonary toxicity, which involves oxidative stress, inflammatory reactions, metabolism disorders. Based on the findings of recent Studies, further research is needed to investigate the potential mechanisms of Microplastics toxicity in human. Moreover, it is important to understand whether microplastics can be further degraded after ingestion under the acidic conditions in the gut or inside the lysosomes of the cells. Hence the long-term fates of the ingested Microplastics in human body needed further investigation. Unfortunately, the accurate assessment of human exposure to microplastics remains a scientific challenge due to the lacks of validated methods, certified reference materials, and standardization across the analytical procedures used.

Discussion:

- The article followed a structured methodology that included the routes of human exposure to MPs and NPs sources, mechanisms of potential health risks, the organs and tissues involved, research gaps.
- MPs and NPs are considered an emerging environmental contaminant, and so there is a dearth of convincing evidence on adverse human health effects
- It is evident that the health risks of MPs and NPs need to be further explored, including toxicological testing not only based on environmentally relevant concentrations but also on individual properties.
- Develop standardized and validated methods for quantifying, characterizing, analyzing and evaluating the potential human health risks of MPs and NPs exposure.

Conclusion:

- While, MPs and NPs are widely studied in the context of the marine environment, we have only recently recognized the potential human exposure pathways.
- Based on the findings of recent studies, further research is needed to investigate the potential mechanisms of MPs and NPs toxicity in human.
- Notably, most of the reported studies were conducted using polystyrene due to its ease in synthesis and processing into NPs, while there are different type of plastic is prevalent.
- Unfortunately, the accurate assessment of human exposure to MPs and NPs remains a scientific challenge due to the lack of validated methods, certified reference materials.

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PHYTOCHEMICAL STUDIES ON MEDICINAL PLANTS OF CENTRAL WESTERN GHATS OF KARNATAKA INDIA

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Abstract:

The fruits of *Artcoacrpus gomezianus* and *Zizyphus rugosa* are collected from different altitudes of Central Western Ghats which differ in their topography, vegetation, and social cultural and food habits of the local people. The objective of the study was to phytochemical screening of secondary metabolites. About 500gm of air dried powdered material of unripe fruit of *Zizyphus rugosa* and *Artocarpus gomezianus* were subjected to soxhelect extraction with petroleum ether, chloroform, 95% ethanol and distilled water for 18 hours in the order of increasing polarity of solvents. The condensed crude extracts were used for preliminary screening of phytochemicals. The screening of secondary metabolites reveled presence of alkaloids, phenols, flavonoids, tannins, steroids and saponins in the fruit samples of all regions. The quantitative determination of secondary metabolites shown that the alkaloids were dominant at all the sampling stations followed by lignin, phenols, flavonoids, tannins and steroids. However, the amount of shifting among the flavonoids and phenols in the middle lower and middle higher altitudes. Though alkaloids were dominant secondary metabolites and steroids were the lowest, with respect to concentration of individual alkaloids, remarkable variations were observed. Among the six secondary metabolites, the concentration of steroids, tannins and phenols were high at the lower and higher altitude and low in middle altitudes. In contrast to phenols, tannins and steroids, the concentration of flavonoids was more in the middle and lower in higher altitudes and lowest in higher and lower altitudes. The concentration of alkaloids and lignin did not show any relationship with variation in altitudes. The qualitative separation of secondary metabolites by thin layer chromatography method revealed that alkaloids, flavonoids and glycosides have three distinct spots with different hRf values. Steroids revealed two spots and saponins revealed one spots along with different hRf values. The fruits of *Zizyphus rugosa* showed the + ve response for alkaloids, phenols and flavonoids and –ve response for tannin, lignins, steroids and saponins. The phytochemical screening of

secondary metabolites reveals that alkaloids, phenols and flavonoids showed the +ve response whereas tannin, lignins, steroids and saponins showed –ve response. The quantitative analysis of alkaloids, phenols and flavonoids reveals that the alkaloid was dominant in both two yearly average values. Further, alkaloids are followed by flavonoids and phenols in their concentration.

Keywords: *Artocarpus gomezianus,* Central Western Ghats, Phytochemicals, *Zizyphus rugosa.*

Introduction:

The bioactive constituents of the plant are many, a large number of plant species have been screened for their pharmacological and chemotherapeutic properties and still a vast wealth of edible medicinal plants have to be exploited for their edible and medicinal properties. 75% to 80% of the world population depends on the crude plant drugs problems and it is due to their poor economic conditions (Sukh Dev, 1997). At least 25% of the perception drugs issued in the USA and Canada contained bioactive compounds which are derived from plants (Vimalavady and Kadavul, 2012). In addition to primary metabolites, the secondary metabolites like tannin, saponins, photobatalins, flavaonoids, terpinoids, cardiacylycosides and alkaloids are found in medicinal plants (Krishnaiah *et al.,* 2009).The qualitative and quantitative variation of secondary metabolites are not only varied between the different regions of the same plant but also varied in the different parts of the same plants and also fresh and harvested products (Krishnamurthy and Sarala, 2014; Krishnamurthy and Asha, 2011; Mallikharjuna *et al*., 2007).

The wild edible plants were screened for bioactive compounds not only in India but also in other countries (Krishnaniah *et al*., 2009; Edeoga *et al.,* 2005; Chhetri Paudel Himal *et al*., 2008). The crude extracts of wild edible plants were studied with referenced o the antioxidant, anthelmintic and insecticidal and also other pharmacological action. Based on the pharmacological action the various investigators tried to isolate and elucidate structural of the particular compound respond for that activity In addition, a few workers estimated secondary metabolites in the different parts of the medicinal plants Seventy five to eight per cent of the world population depends on the crude plant drugs preparations to tackle their health problems and it is due to their poor economic conditions (Sukh Dev, 1997). At least twenty five percent of the perception drugs issued in the USA and Canada contained bioactive compounds which are derived from plants (Vimalavady and Kadavul, 2012). In addition to primary metabolites, the secondary metabolites like tannins,

saponins, photobatalins, flavonoids, terpinoids, cardiacglycosides and alkaloids are found in medicinal plants (Krishnaih *et al.,* 2009). The qualitative and quantitative variations of secondary metabolites are not only varied between the different regions of the same plant but also varied in the different parts of the plants and also fresh and harvested products (Krishnamurthy and Asha, 2011 and Mallikharjuna *et al*., 2007). Medicinal plants were screened for bioactive compounds not only in India and but also in other countries. Number of investigators initiated phytochemical studies in India (Rai Vaishall *et al*., 2013; Vimalavady and Kadavul, 2012; Yadav and Agarwala, 2011; Bindu Hima, 2012; Sherwani *et al*., 2012; Mallikharjuna *et al*., 2007; Krishnamurthy and Asha, 2011) and other countries (Krishnaiah *et al*., 2009; Edeoga *et al*., 2005; Chhetri Paudel Himal *et al*., 2008).

Material and Methods:

Study area

Western Ghats extends about 1600 km starting in North from Tapti River and going down to Kanyakumari in South. The Western Ghtas, run parallel to the Western coast of India about 40 km away on the average from the seashore. The average elevation ranges between 900 and 1500m and some places go beyond 2000m. The region is rich in flora and fauna. The natural vegetation is interrupted by plantation of areca, coffee and paddy fields. The entire region receives heavy rain fall during monsoon and they year is not clearly demarcated into different season. The fruits of *Artocarpus gomenzianus* were collected from different regions between 20 and 2000 m altitudes. The study area of Kuvempu University Campus is 230 hectares, it is on the latitude of 13º 42' 20" N and longitude of 75º 13' 22" E. The campus is surrounded from the north by Gonibeedu, south by B.R. Project the east from Nellisara and from the west by Umblebylu. The area receives the rainfall between 741.1 mm and 1500.48 mm/year. The year is divided into three district seasons summer, winter and rainy. The vegetation type is moist deciduous type. The *Zizyphus rugosa* which has been grown widely in the Kuvempu University Campus has been identified and selected for study (Map 1).

Collection of fruits

The fruits of monkey jack (*A. gomezianus*.) are collected from different places of Western Ghats. The unripe and ripe fruit of sweet jujube which is collected are shade dried and subjected for extraction with different solvents. The extracts are subjected for qualitative and quantitative phytochemicals analysis (Fig 1 and Fig 2).

Phytochemistry

Preliminary screening of secondary metabolites

Extraction

The shade dried fruit material is powdered using mixer grinder and subjected to Soxhlet extraction with petroleum ether, chloroform, 95% ethanol and distilled water for 18 hours in the order of increasing polarity of solvents. The condensed extracts are used for preliminary screening of phytochemicals (Mallikharjuna *et al.,* 2007).

Qualitative, quantitative and separation of secondary metabolites of alkaloids, phenols, flavonoids, tannins, lignins, steroids, glycosides and saponins were determined by using standard methodology (Dey and Harbour 1987; Evans 1989Mallikharjuna *et al.,* 2007, Sarala and Krishnamurthy 2014,2019).

Results and Discussion:

A. gomezinaus

The curative properties of medicinal plants are perhaps due to the presence of various secondary metabolites such as alkaloids, flavonoids, phenols, tannins, lignins, steroids, glycosides and saponins. The successive extracts of fruit of *A. gomezinaus* have revealed the presence of alkaloids, phenols, flavonoids, tannins, lignins, steroids, glycosides and saponins thus the preliminary screening tests may be useful in the detection of the bioactive principles and subsequently may lead to the drug discovery and development. Further, these tests facilitate their qualitative estimation, quantitative separation, isolation, purification and structural elucidation of secondary metabolites for pharmacologically active chemical compounds.

Preliminary phytochemical screening

The fruit samples which have prepared for phytochemicals are subjected for extraction in different solvents (Petroleum ether, chloroform, ethanol and aqueous). The known extracts are tested for various phytochemical (alkaloids, phenols, flavonoids, tannins, Steroids, Glycosides and Saponins). The observations are detailed (Table 1).

Alkaloids, phenols, flavonoids showed +ve response in both ethanol and aqueous extract, but it showed –ve response in petroleum and chloroform extract. Tannins, steroids showed +ve response petroleum ether, chloroform extract but it showed –ve response in ethanol and aquous extract. But in case of glycosides and saponins –ve response in petroleum ether and chloroform extract, but +ve response in ethanol and aqueous extract (Table 1).

Z. rugosa

Phytochemical screening

The unripe pulp samples which are prepared for phytochemicals are subjected for extraction in different solvents (Petroleum ether, chloroform and ethanol). The known extracts are subjected for the detection of phytochemicals (alkaloids, phenols, flavonoids, tannins, steroids and lignins). The observations are detailed in Table 2.

Alkaloids

Wagner's test and Mayer's test showed positive response in petroleum ether, ethanol and aqueous extract but negative response in chloroform extract. Drangendorff's test showed positive response in ethanol and aqueous extract, but negative response in petroleum ether and chloroform extracts.

Phenol

Phenol test and Ellagic acid test showed the positive response to all the extracts except ellagic acid test which showed negative response for chloroform extract.

Flavonoids

Zinc hydrochlorid acid test and shinoa's test showed negative response in petroleum ether and chloroform extract, but positive response showed in ethanol and aqueous extracts. In case of Alkaline reagent and flavonoids test showed negative response in ethanol and aqueous extracts but showed positive response in petroleum ether and chloroform extract.

Glycosides

In case of killer- Killiani test showed negative response in petroleum ether and chloroform extract but positive response in ethanol and aqueous extract.

However all the extracts showed negative response to tannins lignins, steroids and saponins.

Quantitative estimation of phytochemicals

The percentage of phytochemicals at different altitudes /places of fruits of *A. gomezianus* are detailed in Table 3.

Alkaloids

The percentage value of alkaloids varied between 7.7±0.38 and 37.00±3 at lower middle and higher coastal altitudes. The study did not reveal any ascending or descending pattern Through, the percentage of alkaloids was higher at all the regions, the percentage of alkaloids varied remarkably among the different regions.

The number of investigators estimated secondary metabolites in the different parts of the medicinal plants. Krishnaiah *et al*. (2009), Krishnamurthy and Ash (2011), Mallikharjuna *et al*. (2007) and Evans (1989) recorded the percentage of alkaloids between 0.28 ± 0.12 and 5.63 ± 0.20 in *B. tinctoria* and *P. edulis* respectively. Krishnaiah *et al.* (2009) reported the percentage of alkaloids between 0.24 ± 0.03 and 0.52 ± 0.12 in *E. officinalis* and *A. indica* respectively. Edeoga *et al*. (2005) reported the percentage alkaloids between 0.34 ± 0.1 and 1.04±0.20 from the medicinal plants. Mallikarjuna *et al*. (2007) observed the variation of quantity of alkaloids in different parts of the *S. potatorum* and they recorded percentage of alkaloids between 1.3 and 2.2. The quantity of alkaloids may vary not only in the parts but also varied between fresh and preserved plant parts.

Phenols

The percentage phenol was ranged between 0.59 ± 0.19 and 1.50 ± 0.11 at lower middle and higher, higher altitudes respectively. The percentage of phenols are comparatively higher at higher and coastal regions when compare to the middle altitudes. Similar to alkaloids, the percentage of phenols varied among the different altitudes.

Doss (2009) recorded percentage of phenol between 0.16 ± 0.10 and 12.85 ± 0.28 from different medicinal plants. Krishnaiah *et al*. (2009) reported variation of percentage of phenol between 0.024 ± 0.13 and 0.719 ± 0.23 medicinal plant of Malaysia. Edeoga *et al*. (2009) observed variation of percentage of phenols among the medicinal plants. Mallikarjuna *et al.* (2007) reported variations of phenols among from the different parts of the *S. potatorum*.

Flavonoids

The values of flavonoids ranged between 0.41 ± 0.21 and 1.28 ± 0.33 at lower coastal and lower higher altitudes respectively. The moderate values of flavonoids were recorded at lower and higher middle latitudes. The low percentage of flavonoids are recorded at lower and higher altitudes The percentage of flavonoids are studied by number of investigators. The previous studies reported flavonoids content below 1%. Mallikharjuna *et al.* (2007) reported variations of flavonoids content in the different parts of the *S. potatorium.*

Tannins

The concentration of tannin ranged between 0.16 ± 0.02 and 0.23 ± 0.05 at lower middle and lower and higher altitudes respectively. At the same time the lower and higher altitudes recorded maximum percentage of tannins of 0.23 ± 0.05 and 0.23 ± 0.02

respectively. The quantitative variation of flavonoids at different sampling stations was very narrow. The higher percentage of tannin was reported from the medicinal plants of Nigeria and Malaysia (Hossain Mokarram *et al*., 2010).

Steroids

Steroids ranged between 0.16 ± 0.02 and 0.23 ± 0.05 at lower middle and lower altitudes respectively. The quantitative variation of steroids was very narrow at different sampling stations. It ranges between minimum and maximum values of steroids were very narrow.

Lignins

The values of lignins ranged between 1.76 ± 0.37 and 5.61 ± 2.87 at lower middle and higher altitudes respectively. The range between minimum and maximum values of lignins was very wide. The higher value of lignins was recorded at lower and higher altitudes respectively.

The quantitative values of secondary metabolites are summarized below on the bases of variation with respective altitude and qualitative variation of individual secondary metabolites.

Place/Altitude	**Concentration of secondary metabolites**
Ashwatpura/22MSL	Alkaloids>Lignins>Phenols>Flavonoids>Tannins> Steroids
Padubidare/147 MSL	Alkaloids > Lignins > Phenols > Flavonoids > Tannins ≥ Steroids
Banajalaya/579 MSL	Alkaloids > Lignins > Flavonoids > Phenols > Tannins ≥ Steroids
Navanagere/590 MSL	Alkaloids>Lignins>Phenols>Flavonoids>Tannins ≥Steroids
Gubburu/763 MSL	Alkaloids>Lignins>Flavonoids>Phenols>Tannins≥Steroids
Etinala/949 MSL	Alkaloids>Lignins>Phenols>Flavonoids>Steroids≥Tannins
Type of secondary metabolites	Variation of secondary metabolites at different place with their concentration
Alkaloids	147>590>763>22>949>579
Phenols	949>763>22>147>590>579
Flavonoids	763>579>147>590>949>22
Tannins	22>949>147>590>579>763
Steroids	22>949>147>590>579>763
Lignins	949>590>22>147>763>579

Index : 22MSL= Ashwatpura : 147 MSL= Padubidare : 579 MSL= Banajalaya : 590 MSL= Navanagere : 763 MSL= Gubburu : 949 MSL= Etinala.

The alkaloids was dominant secondary metabolites which is followed by lignins, phenols, flavonoids, tannins and steroids at lower, higher coastal, higher middle and higher altitudes. There was a shifting between flavonoids and phenols at higher middle and lower higher altitudes respectively. The amount of tannin and steroids were same at all the altitude except at higher altitudes where steroid is higher than tannins. When the secondary metabolites are arranged on the basis of their quantity with reference to altitudes, there was no specific ascending or descending trends was not observed.

Z. rugosa

Quantitative estimation of phytochemicals: The percentage of phytochemicals at different altitudes /places of fruits of *Z. rugosa* are detailed in Table 4. The phytochemical screening of secondary metabolites revels those alkaloids, phenols and flavonoid showed the positive response whereas tannin, lignins, steroids and saponins showed negative response. The quantitative analysis of alkaloids, phenols and flavonoids reveals that the alkaloid was dominant in both two yearly average values. Further, alkaloid is followed by flavonoids and phenols in their concentration. The percent values of alkaloids ranged between 7.00 and 8.00 with an average of 7.70 per cent. The minimum of 7.00 and maximum of 8.00 % were recorded in the sample of 2010 and 2009 respectively. The number of investigators estimated secondary metabolites in the different parts of the medicinal plants (Mallikharjuna *et al.* 2007, Krishnamurthy and Asha 2011). Edeoga *et al.* (2005) recorded the percentage of alkaloids between 0.28 ± 0.12 and 5.63 ± 0.20 in *B. tinctoria* and *P. edulis* respectively. Krishnaiah *et al.* (2009) reported the percentage of alkaloids between 0.24 ± 0.03 and 0.52 ± 0.12 in *E. officinalis* and *A. indica* respectively. Mallikarjuna *et al.* (2007) observed the variation of quantity of alkaloids in different parts of the *S. potatorum* and they recorded the percentage of alkaloids between 1.30 and 2.20. The quantity of alkaloids may vary not only in the parts but also varied between fresh and preserved plant parts. Alkaloids are nitrogen-containing compounds widely distributed in different plant group. The alkaloids are the lead molecules of therapeutic importance and they are heterocyclic indole compounds which have proved to be having pharmacological properties such as hypotensive activity, anticonvulsant activity, antiprotozoal, antimicrobial and antimalarial activities. The biological properties of alkaloids were studied (Nobori *et al*., 1994). The percent value of phenol ranged between 0.39 and 0.95 with an average of 0.6 %. The minimum of 0.39 % and maximum of 0.95 % were recorded in the sample of 2009 and 2010 respectively. Doss (2009) recorded percentage of phenol

between 0.16 ± 0.10 and 12.85 ± 0.28 from different Indian medicinal plants. Krishnaiah *et al.* (2009) reported variation of percentage of phenol between 0.024 ± 0.13 and 0.719 ± 0.23 in the medicinal plant of Malaysia. Edeoga *et al.* (2005) observed variation of phenols in different medicinal plants of Nigeria. Mallikarjuna *et al.* (2007) reported variations of phenols among the different parts of the *S. potatorum*. Phenols constitute a large class of compounds in which a hydroxyl group (-OH group) is bound to an aromatic ring. The phenolic compounds are one of the largest and most ubiquitous groups of plant metabolites and they possess biological properties such as atherosclerosis, cardiovascular protection and improvement of endothelial function, as well as inhibition of angiogenesis and cell proliferation activities. Natural antioxidant is due to the presence of rich phenolic compounds such as flavonoids, phenolic acid and tocophenol etc. The percent values of flavonoids ranged between 0.22 and 1.23 with an average of 0.74%. The minimum of 0.22 % and the maximum of 1.23% were recorded in the sample of 2009 and 2010 respectively. Flavonoids are group of polyphenolic compounds which influence the radical scavenging, inhibition of hydrolytic and antioxidant enzymes and also act as anti-inflammatory agent. The flavonoids show antioxidant activity and their effects on human nutrition and health is considerable. They also inhibit microbes which are resistant to antibiotics. Flavonoids may help in providing protection against some diseases such as oxidative stress, cellular damage. Oxidative stresses have been linked to cancer, ageing, atherosclerosis, inflammation, ischemic injury and neurodegenerative diseases (Krishnamurthy and Asha, 2011). The tannins, steroids and lignins were absent in the unripe fruit of *Z. rugosa*.

Separation of secondary metabolites by thin layer chromatography

The qualitative separation of secondary metabolites by thin layer chromatography revealed three distinct coloured spots for phenols, flavonoids and glycosides with different hRf values. The steroids have two and saponins have one coloured spots with specific Rf values (Table 5).

Alkaloids

Three quenching and fluorescing alkaloids, spots were reported from the fruit part of *A*. gomezians. Colour of the spots was green, blue and light green with the hRf values was 38, 60 and 88 respectively. Mallikharjuna *et al.* (2007) observed 20 quenching and fluorescing alkaloids from the various part of the plant (*Strychnos potatorum*). The roots and stem bark recorded highest number of alkaloids spots when compare to seeds. Again, it is interesting to note that the collected seeds recorded more number of spots when

compare to the market seeds. Therefore it may be attributed that the quality and quantity of alkaloids not only various with respect to different individual plants but also varies among the different parts of the same plant. Further, the methods of processing and storage may be important for quantitative and qualitative variation of alkaloids.

Phenols

The three phenol spots were reported in the fruit samples, colour of the spot is blue, dark blue and blue and the hRf value is 7, 10 and 20 respectively. The investigation of Mallikharjuna *et al.* **(**2007) on qualitative separation of phenols revealed the interesting results. Of the 11 coloured spots of phenols, the seeds contained maximum of 9 and 7 spots from the market and collected seeds respectively. In contract to alkaloids, phenols coloured spots were less in root and stem bark samples. The storage of seed may increase or derive new type of phenols.

Flavonoids

Three flavonoids spots were reported in the fruit samples. Colour of the spots is dark blue, yellow and yellow blue and hRf values are 53, 69 and 84 respectively. The thin layer chromatography of flavonoids of *Strychnos potatorum* revealed that the colour spots appeared in the roots, collected seeds and market seed were same, whereas stem bark had separate flavonoids spots with different colours and hRf values (Mallikharjuna *et al.,* 2007).

Glycosides

The three glycosides spots of light green, pink and light pink with hRf values of 31, 63 and 79 were observed in the fruit samples of *A*. gomezians. The qualitative separation of glycosides of *S. potatorum* (Mallikharjuna *et al.,* 2007) revealed 7 coloured spots with different hRf values. It is interesting to note that the glycosides of root and stem bark were same and collected seed and market seed were same. The coloured spots which were found in root and stem bark did not found in collected seed and market seed. At the same time coloured spots which were found in collected and marketed seed were also not found in root and stem bark.

Saponins

One saponins with intense yellow colour and hRf values of 75 was observed. The qualitative separation of saponins of *S. potatorum* revealed that the coloured spots of saponins were same for the different plant parts with same coloured and hRf values.

Steroids

It has been revealed that the presence of two sterols in the fruit samples. The colour of the spots was light green and greenish black with the hRf value of 8 and 66 respectively. The qualitative separation of sterols of *S. potatorum* (Mallikharjuna *et al.,* 2007) revealed four district spots with different colour and hRf values. The aerial part of the stem bark, seed and market seed contained maximum four spots, whereas, the root sample contained three spots. However the colour and hRf values were the same for the steroids of root, stem bark, collected seed and market seed respectively.

The qualitative separation of secondary metabolites by thin layer chromatography revealed three distinct coloured spots for phenols, flavonoids and glycosides with different hRf values. The steroids have two and saponins have one coloured spots with specific Rf values. The above observations are useful for further isolation and purification of natural compounds.

Conclusion:

Z. rugosa and *Artocarpus gomezianus* is underutilized edible medicinal and evergreen tree of Central Western Ghats is found between coastal and higher attitudes. The petroleum ether, chloroform, ethanol and aqueous extracts were screened for qualitative phytochemicals, preliminary metabolites and it is found that they were same. The quantitative estimation of secondary metabolites revealed that alkaloids were dominant followed by lignins, phenols, flavonoids, tannins, saponins and steroids except at higher altitude where tannin was low. The qualitative separation of secondary metabolites revealed three spots for alkaloids, phenols and favonoids, whereas two spots for saponins and one spots for steroids. The fruit of *Zizyphus rugosa* is a famine edible medicinal plant of Central Western Ghats. The extracts of petroleum ether, chloroform, ethanol and aqueous were screened for qualitative analysis. The qualitative analysis revealed that alkaloids, phenols and flavonoids are + ve response in all the extracts, whereas tannins, lignins, steroids and saponins showed –ve response. The quantitative estimation of secondary metabolites reveled that alkaloids were dominant, which is followed by phenols and flavonoids. Therefore, the data generated from these experiments have provided the chemical basis for the wide use of this plant as therapeutic agent for treating various ailments however, there is need to further carry out advanced spectroscopic studies in order to elucidate the structure of these compounds. Furthermore, this data may be handy in probing of biochemistry of this plant in the future.

Acknowledgement:

The authors thank the Chairman, Department of Applied Botany, Kuvempu University, Shankaraghatta, Shimoga and The Director, Central Coffee Research Institute, Balehonnur for providing laboratory facilities.

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Table 1: Preliminary screening of secondary metabolites (alkaloids, phenol, flavonoids, tannins, lignins steroids, saponins and glycosides) in various solvents both in hot and cold (PE - Petroleum ether: CL - Chloroform: ET - Ethanol: AQ - Aqueous) of fruits of *A. gomezianus* at different places

Test for secondary metabolites	Ashwatpura (22 meter)				Padubidare (147 meter)				Banajalaya (579 meter)				Navanagere (590 meter)				Gubburu (763 meter)				Etinala (949 meter)			
	PE	CL	ET	AQ	PE	CL	ET	AQ	PE	CL	ET	AQ	PE	CL	ET	AQ	PE	CL	ET	AQ	PE	CL	EA	AQ
ALKALOIDS																								
1. Wagner's test	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	+
2. Dragenodorff's test	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	+
3. Mayer's test	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	+
PHENOL																								
1. Phenol test	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	+
2. Ellagic acid test	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	+
FLAVONOIDS																								
1. Shinoda's test	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	+
2. Zinc-hydrochloride acid test	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	+
3. Alkaline reagent test	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	-
4. Flavonoid test	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	-

TANNINS																								
1. Ferric chloride test	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	+
LIGNINS																								
1. Lignins test	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	+
STEROIDS																								
1. Salkowski test	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
2. Liebermann-Burchardt's test	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	+
GLYCOSIDES																								
1. Keller-Killiani test	-	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	-	+	+	+
SAPONINS																								
1. Foam test	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	-	+
2. Haemolysis test	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	-	+

Table 2: Preliminary screening of secondary metabolites

Test for secondary metabolites	Hot Extraction			
	PE	CL	ET	AQ
Alkaloids				
Wagner's test	+	-	+	+
Dragenodorff's test	-	-	+	+
Mayer's test	+	+	+	+
Phenol				
Phenol test	+	+	+	+
Ellagic acid test	+	-	+	+
Flavonoids				
Shinoda's test	-	-	+	+
Zinc-hydrochloride acid test	-	-	+	+
Alkaline reagent test	+	+	-	-
Flavonoid test	+	+	-	-
Tannins				
Ferric chloride test	-	-	-	-
Lignins				
Lignins test	-	-	-	-
Steroids				
Salkowski test	-	-	-	-
Liebermann- Burchardt's test	-	-	-	-
Glycosides				
Keller-Killiani test	-	-	+	+
Saponins				
Foam test	-	-	-	-
Haemolysis test	-	-	-	-

Note : PE - Petroleum ether: CL - Chloroform: ET - Ethanol: AQ - Aqueous

Table 3: Percentage of secondary metabolites at different altitudes /places of fruits of *A. gomezianus*

Sl. No.	Factors/ Places	Ashwatpura (22 MSL)	Padubidare (147 MSL)	Banajalaya (579 MSL)	Navanagere (590 MSL)	Gubbure (763 MSL)	Etinala (949 MSL)
		Mean±SD	**Mean±SD**	**Mean±SD**	**Mean±SD**	**Mean±SD**	**Mean±SD**
1	Alkaloids	11±1.00	37.00±3.00	7.7±0.38	26.67±3.40	15.33±2.21	10±2.00
2	Phenols	.98±0.20	0.88±0.06	0.59±0.19	0.78±0.13	1.13±0.09	1.50±0.11
3	Flavonoids	0.41±0.21	0.66±0.33	0.73±0.50	0.53±0.17	1.28±0.33	0.46±0.16
4	Tannins	0.23±0.05	0.20±0.02	0.16±0.02	0.18±0.00	0.16±0.02	0.23±0.02
5	Steroids	0.23±0.05	0.20±0.02	0.16±0.02	0.18±0.00	0.16±0.02	0.25±0.03
6	Lignins	5.28±2.00	3.00±0.75	1.76±0.37	5.33±2.55	2.91±0.78	5.61±2.87

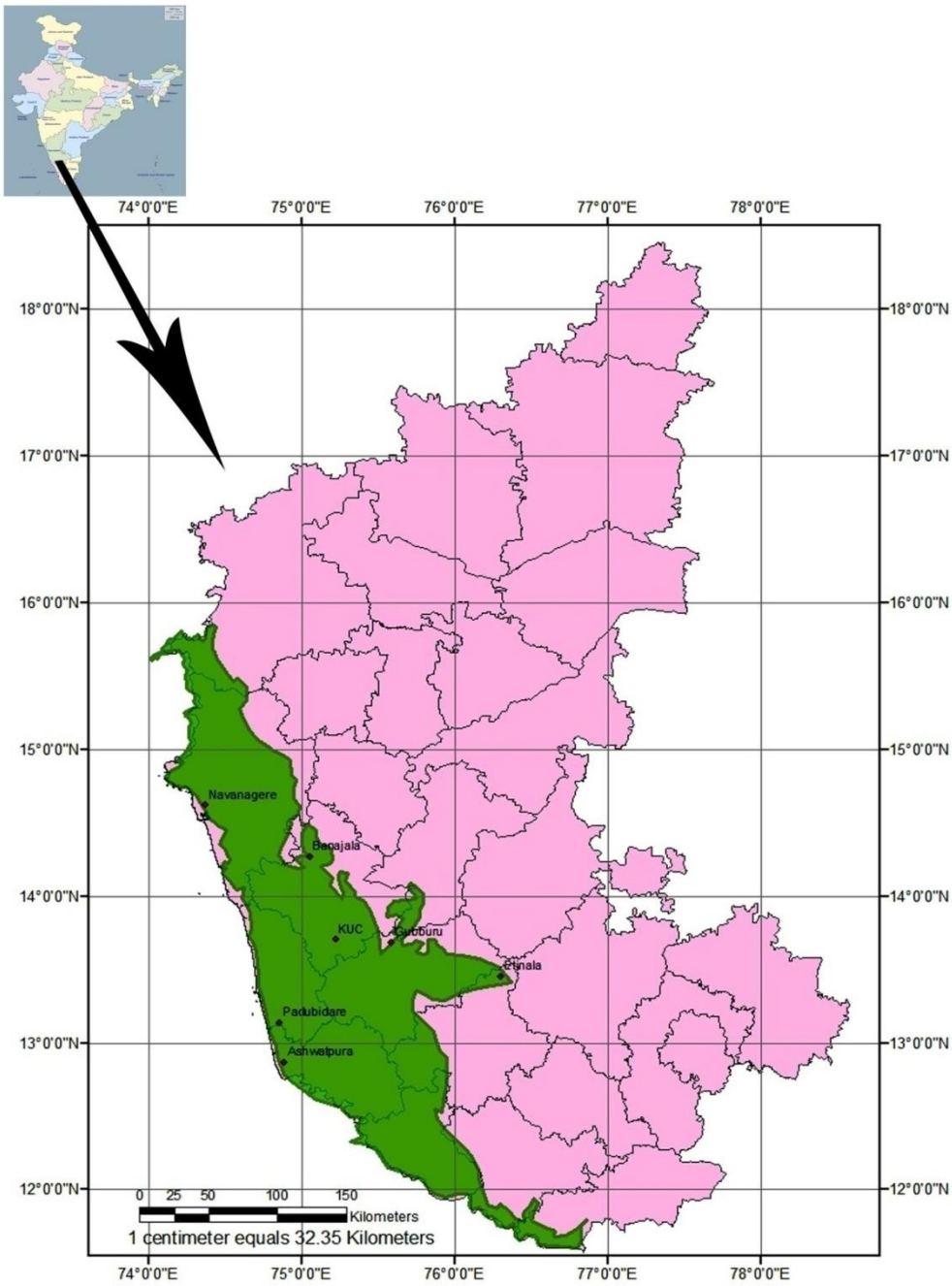
(Mean± SD: n=6)

Table 4: Quantitative estimation of secondary metabolites

Factors	I	II	III	Mean± SD
Alkaloids	7.90	7.50	7.70	7.70 ± 0.40
Phenol	0.53	0.55	0.69	0.60 ± 0.09
Flavanoids	0.73	0.72	0.72	0.75 ± 0.06

Table 5: Qualitative separation of alkaloids, phenols, flavonoids, glycosides, steroids and saponins by TLC (UV254nm) of *A. gomezianus* (Colour of the spot is observed by visual, distance traveled by solute and solvent are expressed in cm along with Rf and hRf values are appended)

Sl. No.	Colour spot	Distance traveled by solute (cm)	Distance traveled by solvent (cm)	Rf	hRf (Rf multiplication with 100)
	Alkaloids				
1	Green	2.3	6	0.38	38
2	Blue	4	6	0.6	60
3	Light green	5.3	6	0.88	88
	Phenols				
1	Blue	0.5	6.5	0.07	7
2	Dark Blue	1	6.5	1/6=0.6	10
3	Blue	1.5	6.5	1.5/6=0.88	20
	Flavonoids				
1	Dark blue	3.5	6.5	3.5/6.5=0.53	53
2	Yellow	4.5	6.5	4.5/6.5=0.69	69
3	Yellow blue	5.5	6.5	5.5/6.5=0.84	84
	Glycosides				
1	Light Green	2	6.3	2/6.3=0.31	31
2	Pink	4	6.3	4/6.3=0.63	63
3	Pink	5	6.3	5/6.3=0.79	79
	Steroids				
1	Light Green	0.5	6	0.5/6=0.08	0.08×100) = 8
2	Greenish black	4	6	4/6=0.66	0.66×100 = 66
	Saponins				
1	Intense yellow	4.5	6	4.5/6=0.75	0.75×100 = 75



Map 1.Sampling sites of Central Western Ghats

1.Ashwathpura,Dhakshina kannada 2.Padubidare,Udupi 3.Banajala,Shimoga, 4.Navanagere,Uttara kannada
5.Gubburu,Chikamagalur 6.Etinala,Hassa 7.Kuvempu Univesrity Campas

Map 1: Sampling sites of Central Western Ghats

Fig. 1: A Detail, of processing and preservation of *Artcoacrpus gomezianus*

Fig. 2: The habitat and fruits of *Zizyphus rugosa* Lam.

STEM CELLS AND ITS THERAPEUTIC APPLICATION

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Abstract:

A population of undifferentiated cells are called stem cells. They can divide through mitosis and produce more stem cells. There are two main broad types of stem cells: 1) Embryonic stem cells 2) Adult stem cells. In this study we saw therapeutic applications of stem cells in dental, cardiovascular, brain, cornea, cancer and hematopoiesis. Stem cells are also used to prevent and for treatment of various diseases. Despite the considerable advancements in stem cell biology, their usefulness is constrained by problems including the moral debates surrounding embryonic stem cells, tumour development, and rejection. Many of these restrictions are being overcome, though, and this could result in significant advancements in the treatment of disease.

Introduction:

A population of undifferentiated cells known as stem cells have the capacity to proliferate a great deal (self-renewal), often develop from a single cell (clonal), and differentiate into many types of cells and tissues (potent). There are numerous, varyingly potent sources of stem cells. Pluripotent cells are developed from the inner cell mass of the embryo by embryonic stem cells, and induced pluripotent cells are created by reprogramming somatic cells (Mojgan.B, *et al.,* 2021). From all three germ layers, pluripotent cells can develop into tissue (endoderm, mesoderm, and ectoderm). The mesenchymal stem cells that give rise to adipose tissue, bone, and cartilage are examples of multipotent stem cells that can develop into tissue from a single germ layer.

Stem cells are a population of undifferentiated cells that have the ability to self-renew, frequently develop from a single cell (clonal), and differentiate into a wide variety of cells and tissues (potent). There are many sources of stem cells, all of variable strength. Embryonic stem cells form pluripotent cells from the inner cell mass of the embryo, and somatic cell reprogramming produces induced pluripotent cells. Pluripotent cells have the capacity to differentiate into tissue from all three germ layers (endoderm, mesoderm, and ectoderm) (Derakhshan *et al.,* 2018). Multipotent stem cells, which can grow into tissue from a single germ layer, include the mesenchymal stem cells that give rise to adipose tissue, bone, and cartilage. Despite the considerable advancements in stem cell biology,

their usefulness is constrained by problems including the moral debates surrounding embryonic stem cells, tumour development, and rejection. Many of these restrictions are being overcome, though, and this could result in significant advancements in the treatment of disease. In this review, the topic of stem cells is introduced, along with the definition, history, and classification of these cells, as well as their use in regenerative medicine (Axel. S. *et al.,* 2015).

Stem Cells in Dental Application

Stem cell therapy is now-a days mostly used in various fields especially in dentistry as it provides better physiological structure and functions and also allows for quick and better healing. Adult stem cells and induced pluripotent stem cells (iPS) are mainly used for treatment of oral and maxillofacial defects. Oral derived stem cells are multipotent, which only differentiate into limited types of cells. There are various human dental stem cells like Dental pulp derived stem cells (DPSC), Stem cells from human exfoliated deciduous teeth (SHED), Periodontal ligament stem cells (PDLSC), Dental follicle stem cells (DFSC) and Stem cells from apical part of papilla (SCAP).

Dental stem cells are either mesenchymal stem cells which are derived from deciduous teeth, dental pulp, dental follicle and periodontal ligament or dental epithelium stem cells which are derived from incisors and molars which has potential for continuous growth. Dental stem cell therapy is mostly used to restore the anatomy and function of damaged tissue through regeneration. Continuous root formation, regeneration of pulpal tissues, reconstruction of periodontium, transplantation and replantation, root bio-engineering are main goals of regenerative dentistry.

Various applications of regenerative dentistry have been studied on diseased or damaged structures.

1) Regeneration of Pulp

For the regeneration of pulp, patients' own cells can be used because the risk of immune rejection gets reduced. Bleeding and clot formation in the root canals is due to over- instrumentation and the canal is irrigated with antimicrobials (Madiyal *et al.,* 2018). If scaffolding is used for regeneration it should contain growth factors, morphogenic protein, nutrients and antimicrobials. Three-dimensional cell printing are newer approaches that can be further researched.

2) Regeneration of Teeth.

Scaffolding that has to achieve odontogenesis should contain epithelial and mesenchymal stem cells or should have the capacity to differentiate into the epithelial and

mesenchymal germ layers as regeneration of tooth requires mesenchymal and epithelial layers interaction between them.

3) Regeneration of Periodontium.

Periodontium is a connective tissue composed of cementum, periodontal ligament, alveolar bone and gingival tissue. Periodontal plastic surgery requires tissue engineering which uses scaffolding and a matrix that grows over it (Madiyal *et al.,* 2018). To increase the production of cells to close the defect, various growth factors are used. Bone marrow stem cells, platelet rich plasma plays a great role in regeneration of periodontium.

Stem Cells in Cardiovascular application.

Cardiovascular, Coronary Heart disease and heart failure are leading causes worldwide. Heart diseases mostly involve damage to blood vessels. Stem cell transplantation is mostly used as a new treatment option for various diseases including heart disease. Two theories have been come up to explain the source of regenerated cardiomyocytes in adult mammals.

1. A progenitor or stem cells or mature cardiomyocytes re-enter the mitotic cell cycle (Pande. A, 2015). There are also many new theories coming up for the mechanism of regeneration for recovery. 1. Heart muscle cells are regenerated.
2. Regeneration of damaged heart tissue by stimulation of growth of new blood vessels.
3. Secretion of growth factors (Rouf *et al.,* 2016).

Types of cells for transplantation especially for heart diseases are Embryonic stem cells, Induced Pluripotent stem cells (iPSCs), Skeletal Myoblasts, Bone Marrow Derived stem cells and Cardiac progenitor cells.

Some Clinical applications of stem cells in the heart are explained.

1. Acute Myocardial Infarction.

In a trial, patients with acute myocardial infarction received intracoronary bone marrow infusions where Bone marrow-derived mononuclear cells (BMMNCs) and mesenchymal stem cells were used for study. BMMNC therapy showed the reduction in death number, recurrent myocardial infarction and stent thrombosis in patients with heart disease. In another study, infarct-related artery (IRA) infusion of CD34+ cells in patients with acute myocardial infarction, patients underwent IRA infusion of autologous bone marrow-derived CD34+ cells after coronary stenting. CD34+ cells are haematopoietic stem cells that have been shown to improve perfusion and function in myocardial and limb ischemia models by stimulating neovascularization endothelial lineage differentiation and through the secretion of proangiogenic factors (Pande. A, 2015).

Intramyocardial injection of adipose derived mesenchymal stem cells combined with ghrelin administration inhibited host cardiomyocyte apoptosis, reduced fibrosis and improved cardiac function.

2. Auricular Cartilage Regeneration.

Auricular cartilage regeneration is Tissue engineering cell based therapy using adipose derived stem cells (ASCs) and pluripotent stem cells. A study was done where ASCs were injected in the midportion of a surgically created auricular cartilage defect in rabbits. ASCs were observed to have regenerative effects on the auricular cartilage defects.

Stem Cells in Brain Application.

The Stem cells are undifferentiated cells which are capable of themselves renewing with the capacity to regenerate missing tissues and help to treat diseases. It nowadays has an important role in the renewal of traumatic brain injury (TBI). It is one of the main reasons for the number of deaths for the people living in industrialised countries. It is caused by its external mechanical force responsible for brain dysfunction, it has the effect which can be temporary damage, or else permanent dysfunction in many cases of TBI. Surgeries are often suggested for more serious injuries so that the monitoring can be done with ease and treat high intracranial pressure (ICP) to reduce. Elevated ICP performed by extraventricular drainage, by intraparenchymal catheter or the combined catheter. The substances like, hyperosmolar which is mannitol and the hypertonic saline solution is also the other way for the treatment route, the TBI is well classified into two
phases.

1. Primary Phase

This phase occurs at the time of exposure to external force which results in the damage, which causes mechanical breakdown of the brain tissue.

2. Secondary Phase

In this phase it has an onset about hours after the traumatic incident which represents the main cause of the worsening in the evolution of the Traumatic Brain Injury.There are many treatments for neurodegenerative diseases using the stem cells; it also plays a very important role in Cell based therapy mechanisms. Such as:

1. Anti-Inflammatory Regulation

It is important for the Occurrence of NP symptoms after the injury in the nerve, the inflammation during the injury releases a large number of chemical mediators like cytokines, chemokines, also lipid mediators, where the stem cells are used against these inflammation as a Anti -inflammation as these stem cells have cytokines which shows analgesic effects it has strong

immunosuppressive effects.

2. Weakening and Reversing Central Sensitization.

It is one of the most important mechanisms in the spinal as it is characterised by increased neuronal excitability which leads to the NP. After the injury there is release of excitatory amino acid in the spinal dorsal horn where the N-methyl-d-aspartate (NMDA) receptor is continuously activated for the purpose of maintaining the afferent nerve transmission to the sensory brain during injury.

3. Neuroprotection

The Glial-derived Neurotrophic factor (GDNE) is the important growth factor that successfully can reverse and can also normalise the NP which in turn plays an important factor for the neuroprotection. Here in this case the increase in VEGF caused due to Oxaliplatin which is almost similar to the cancerous neuralgia can be treated using stem cell therapy as these can play a very unique and balancing role in reducing the pain caused by the VEGF.

4. Mesenchymal Stem Cell (MSC)

MSC holds a very promising therapy effect as it is used for radiation. Injury by inhibiting inflammatory response & the regeneration of the injured tissues. Stem Cell in Cornea Application

The cornea is the transparent anterior part of the eye that is in a circular window which has a high refractive power which directs the light to the retina and also its optical function is an important protection shield which defends the interior structures of the eye from any kind of damage. Along with this the diabetes complications have nowadays recently become a prominent issues due to which there is a lot of complications include many disorders such as retinal, renal and neuronal which is related to the one of the most prominent issues which is also known as the Diabetic retinopathy (DR) these is defined as an vascular alteration in the retinal cells, which has the potential to cause vision loss and even forever blindness. The stem cell transplantation is considered to be a modern solution for the treatment of DR which has a promising effect on interference which can restore the damaged tissues as well as cells. The retinal stem cell transplantation is considered to be the most viable alternative therapy for patients with DR who want to regain their vision. In case of the adult their cornea stem cells reside in their limbal area, where the existence of limbal epithelial stem cells (LESCs) greatly progressed stromal and endothelial stem cells in the adult cornea. Recently the limbal localization of corneal epithelial stem cells are widely accepted. The limbal stem cells that reside in the basal layer of the limbal epithelium are interspersed with the early transient amplifying cells (TACs). Here the cell

differentiation mostly occurs as the cells migrate. These migrations are in two directions: first is toward the surface of the epithelium and the second is toward the centre of the cornea. The limbal epithelial stem cells have a quick proliferation response after the wounding which shows that the immediate wound healing response is the main function of TAC. The Limbal epithelial cells is well characterised according to its ability and its structures which is as follow:

1) The Morphology and Cell Size:

The resident stem cells in different adult tissues have undifferentiated phenotypes which are characterised by small cell size and high nucleus to cytoplasm ratio (N/C), where the nuclear size and the content of DNA is constant but the volume of cytoplasm is changed accordingly when there is new protein formation. In the studies it is observed that limbal basal cells have smaller diameter which is around 10 micrometre and it has larger N/C ratio which also have higher cell densities than central corneal or the limbal suprabasal cell layers.

2) The Plasticity:

The ectodermal origin of the corneal epithelium is differentiation of the LESCs in to different types of cell in the epithelial and neuronal lineages which is well demonstrated in the corneal cells that could be differentiated into hair follicle cells when it is placed over the hair forming embryonic dermis. Here there is differentiation that occurs in two steps in the corneal cells; the first one is that it shows limbal basal cell characteristics and then it is expressed as markers of epidermal differentiation and the formed hair. The second differentiation could be along the rod photoreceptor lineage which could be in vitro or in vivo so that the LESC can serve as a source for the treatment of the retinal degenerative diseases like age related macular degeneration or the retinitis pigmentosa.

3)Self-Renewal:

The stem cell is a quiescent which rarely undergoes cell division which results in the daughter cells. Here the transient amplifying cells (TACs) multiply to give rise to high numbers of differentiated cells which ensure the normal tissue homeostasis.

The corneal stem cells used for the treatment of ocular surface diseases which has become a widely used method for the improvement of the results of this intervention also properly exploit the recent research of corneal stromal and endothelial stem cell research. The development of the new therapeutic strategies comes into play so that the regenerative potential of cornea specific stromal precursor cells can provide the therapeutic tools that make it possible for the regeneration of corneal ulcers also the injuries with transparent avascular scar's. With the use of corneal stromal stem cells in the

tissue engineering for the components of artificial corneas is possible for endothelial replacement by the posterior deep lamellar keratoplasty from heterologous tissues which is nowadays a prominent surgical procedure.

Stem Cells in Cancer Application.

An important global health concern and the number one killer, cancer. By 2040, it is predicted that there will be more than 29 million new instances of cancer worldwide, accounting for around 1 in 6 fatalities. The lack of a definitive cancer treatment has been caused by a number of causes, including the failure of conventional treatments, drug resistance delayed diagnosis and the absence of a robust immune system in infected patients. Most notably, the primary causes of cancer death are metastasis following treatment and tumour recurrence following resection. Therefore, therapeutic approaches that can treat or stop tumours from metastasizing and recurring could represent a significant advance in the field of cancer therapy. The Cancer Genome Atlas (TCGA) and other organisations' pan-cancer initiatives have demonstrated that malignancies arising from various tissues have comparable genetic fingerprints. A basal-like molecular profile is seen in some breast and bladder malignancies, and it is defined by basal cell cytokeratin expression and p63 activation. Additionally, high-grade serous ovarian cancer and basal-like breast cancer share a number of biological characteristics, including actionable targets. Origin of Cancer Stem Cells (CSCs) as Stem Cell Malignancies The assumption that cancer is a stem cell malignancy and the introduction of CSCs as being in charge of metastasis and tumour recurrence are being supported by mounting evidence. These malignancies' suggested processes include cell-cell fusion, horizontal gene transfer, genetic instability, and the cell microenvironment. In light of this, a number of hypotheses about the origin of CSCs have been put forth, some of which include disrupted tissue-resident stem cells, such as specific adult stem cells and their precursors, dedifferentiated somatic cells, and improperly activated residual embryonic cells in adult tissues (Bharati, M *et al.,* 2021).

1) Particular Stem/Progenitor Cells for Tissues

Adult stem cells, sometimes referred to as tissue-specific stem/progenitor cells, are an uncommon cell type with the ability to regenerate themselves.

As well as multi-lineage differentiation skills. These cells are found in a variety of tissues, including the intestines, breasts, lungs, ovaries, and prostate, and they serve as either a repair or maintenance mechanism for those tissues. In a "classical paradigm," it has been presumptive that each niche space of the adult tissues will invariably produce one new stem cell and one daughter cell as a result of the asymmetric mitotic division.

However, in a "neutral competition model," each daughter cell, and even fully differentiated cells, are presumptively assumed.

2) Reprogramming Genes to Produce Stem/Progenitor Cells

By converting differentiated somatic cells into the pluripotent state by inducing four transcription factors (TFs)—Pou5f1, Sox2, c-Myc, and KLF4—Takahashi and Yamanaka achieved a significant breakthrough in 2006. Since the majority of these TFs are oncogenes, it has been postulated that genetic and epigenetic changes in differentiated somatic cells will activate dedifferentiation processes in adult cells and cause them to become CSCs. In this case, the formation of a state resembling pluripotency is caused by the steady downregulation of genes involved in differentiation in somatic cells and the overexpression of stemness-related genes. Human mammary epithelial cells that resemble basal tissue and differentiated airway epithelial cells have both shown this transition. Similar to this, NF-B is activated in intestinal cancers.(Miao *et al.,* 2019).

3) Cancer Vaccine Using Pluripotent Stem Cells (PSCs)

The use of PSCs as a universal preventative cancer vaccine is one of the new prospective applications of PSCs in cancer research that has been highlighted recently. Although PSCs and CSCs share several stemness characteristics and can both constitute a hazard to the body, this concept may initially seem incongruous (Kim *et al.,* 2019)

The ability to grow genetically stable PSCs on a large scale in vitro makes it possible to produce huge quantities of CSC-specific antigens. On the one hand, the conditioned medium of PSCs per se can offer a setting akin to the embryonic setting that can support cancer treatment through differentiation therapy, and on the other hand, PSCs can be viewed as a valuable source to have significant numbers of CSCs-specific antigens [Mojgan barati *et al.,* 2021]. To date, preventive vaccinations against colon, lung, and ovarian cancer have been created using inactivated PSCs in animal models. Through a variety of methods, such as the attraction of immunomodulatory MSCs, myeloid-derived suppressor cells (MDSCs), and regulatory T cells (Tregs) , cancer cells can inhibit the activation of immune cells when in the immunosuppressive environment of tumours.

Stem Cell in Regeneration

Hematopoietic Stem Cell Factors:

Two crucial characteristics that hematopoietic stem cells (HSCs) have are self-renewal and differentiation. Hematopoiesis preserves these characteristics of HSCs. Long-term and short-term HSCs are produced as a result of this technique, and they are now often used in the treatment of several haematological illnesses. HSCs are used clinically to replace damaged bone marrow after chemotherapy or to replace bone marrow in

individuals with aplastic anaemia, congenital neutropenia, sickle cell anaemia, or thalassemia. HSCs' capacity for self-renewal guarantees sustained hematopoiesis after transplantation. However, because they lose their capacity for self-renewal after a few passages, HSCs must be infused in vast quantities in order to reach their target site and meet the needs. As a result, a deeper understanding of ex vivo HSC growth is required.

1) Hematopoiesis

Self-renewability and multipotency were found to be the two main properties of HSCs by in vivo evidence and colony-forming experiments. The canonical lineage model of hematopoiesis places the self-renewability of HSCs at the top of the hierarchy (Zoya M *et al.,* 2022). The first analysis of the mouse HSC cell cycle dynamics showed that 99% of these cells divide every two months, typically staying in the G0 phase.

The results of subsequent in vivo research showed that among all blood cells, latent HSCs have the best ability for self-renewal. This subset of dormant HSCs develops through asymmetric division, keeping the capacity for long-term self-renewal and giving rise to an actively dividing progenitor subset that upholds lineage commitment. Due to asymmetric cell division, ex vivo growth of HSCs has created significant heterogeneity within the HSC pool.

2) Determinants of Dermal Regeneration.

Applications of regenerative medicine have received a lot of attention in an effort to improve replacemental medical techniques for the improvement of wounded skin tissues. Regenerative therapies include a variety of technology techniques, including cell reprogramming, gene targeting, stem cell therapy, soluble medicines, and tissue engineering. One fundamental idea behind these applications is to use engineering methods to provide the right physicochemical and biochemical variables in order to assist a natural wound-healing cascade (Azar. N. D *et al.,* 2019). Growth factors and cytokines are among the bioactive substances that are engaged in various stages of tissue repair and are required to support skin regeneration. Many different cell types release cytokines, which are extracellular signalling proteins that influence activity of different cells, such as immunological cells. Interleukins, lymphokines, interferons, and tumour necrosis factors are a few of them. The study of cytokines in wound healing is difficult because analysis of individual cytokine responses in the human body typically oversimplifies the phenomenon. Additionally, as cytokine responses depend on time and concentration in the wound bed, altering the healing process by controlling the cytokine milieu is a significant problem. Growth factors are signalling proteins that are released at the site of a wound and are necessary for cell-to-cell communication among immune cells, smooth muscle cells,

fibroblasts, myofibroblasts, keratinocytes, and endothelial cells. In order to preserve the biological functioning of transplanted cells used to replace an organ, they can promote angiogenesis.

Conclusion:

Stem cells have various applications in the areas of scientific research & cell therapy. Stem cell therapy has been a boon in the medical field as it has a very promising role & potential in therapeutic application. It also plays an irreplaceable and evident role in the development, regeneration and also the homeostasis. Stem cell in dental treatment is based on 3 elements-restore, retain & revitalise. Here in this study, cells like mesenchymal and epithelial stem cells derived from various dental sources are used for dental treatment mainly for regeneration. For cardiovascular disease, stem cell therapy is a novel & promising way. Cardiac progenitor stem cells, Bone marrow derived stem cells, iPSCs and skeletal myoblasts are some of stem cells used for cardiac repair. It is very known for repairing the damaged cells, exerting anti-inflammatory responses and the production of its immunoregulatory effects. Also the transplantation of retinal tissue is an effective and the most appealing technique for the replacement or repairing of the damaged retinal pigment epithelium of the cell. It also improves the transplantation with success and potentiates. The stem cell is an important function for the therapy of diabetic retinopathy and a variety of diseases.

Various ways and routes have been studied & reported to provide significant benefits in clinical practice. But stem cells are not fully understood for any of the applications. There are many issues related to the use of stem cells.

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Trends in Life Science Research Volume I

(ISBN: 978-93-95847-15-5)

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Bhumi Publishing

ISBN 978-93-95847-15-5

9 789395 847155

Volume A

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The 75-year Journey of the Indian Constitution : The Challenges

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ISBN- 978-93-95494-92-2

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Scanned with OKEN Scanner

 ISBN- 978-93-95494-92-2

भारतीय संविधान- सामाजिक, आर्थिक, राजकीय न्याय व धार्मिक स्वातंत्र्य

प्रा. डॉ. जयवंत निवृत्ती कांबळे

इतिहास विभाग प्रमुख मा. सु. पा. महाविद्यालय मानोरा जि. वाशिम

प्रस्तावना :-

भारतीय संविधान हे जगातील सर्वात मोठे लिखित संविधान असून भारतासारख्या विविधतेने नटलेल्या देशाला विघटना पासून वाचविणारे हे संविधान आहे. आता पर्यंत या देशामध्ये अनेकदा या देशामध्ये धर्म, प्रांत व संस्कृतीच्या आधारावर देशातून फुटून बाहेर पडण्याच्या फुटीरवादी लोकांच्या चळवळी झाल्या. परंतू त्यांना यश मिळू शकले नाही . मागील 75 वर्षापासून भारत हा अखंडित राहू शकला याचे सर्व श्रेय आपल्या संविधानाला द्यावे लागेल. कारण आपल्या संविधानाने या देशातील सर्व नागरिकांना सामाजिक, आर्थिक, धार्मिक व राजनैतिक न्याय देण्याच्या तरतुदी करण्यात आल्या आहेत. डॉ. बाबासाहेब आंबेडकर यांनी देशातील सर्व घटकांचा विचार करून, संविधान सभेमध्ये चर्चा करून हे संविधान निर्माण केले आहे.

भारताय संविधानच्या उद्देश पत्रिकेच्या पहिल्या भागात संविधानानुसार निर्माण होणाऱ्या राज्ययवस्थेचे स्वरुप कसे असेल, याचा याचे वर्णन सुरवातीलाच केलेले आहे. या मध्ये सामाजिक, आर्थिक, राजनैतिक न्याय व विचार, अभिव्यक्ती विश्वास, श्रद्धा व उपासना यांचे स्वातंत्र्य देण्याचे आश्वासन देण्यात आले आहे.उद्देश पत्रिकेच्या दुसऱ्या भागामध्ये संविधानाची व संविधाना नुसार निर्माण होणाऱ्या राज्य व्यवस्थेची उद्दिष्टे काय असतील या विषयीचे विवेचन केले आहे. त्यानूसार भारताच्या सर्व नागरिकांना न्याय, स्वातंत्र्य, समता, बंधुता याचे शाश्वती देण्याचे काम केले आहे. संविधानच्या उद्देश पत्रिकेमध्ये वरील बाबीची शाश्वती देऊनच ,घटनाकार डॉ. बाबासाहेब आंबेडकर थांबले नाहीत तर त्यांनी संविधाना नुसार निर्माण होणाऱ्या राज्य व्यवस्थे मध्ये नागरिकांना सामाजिक, आर्थिक , राजनैतिक न्याय व धार्मिक स्वातंत्र्य देण्यासाठी संविधानामध्ये अनेक तरतुदी केलेल्या आहेत. . प्रस्तुत शोध निबंधामध्ये भारतीय संविधानानी नागरिकांना सामाजिक, आर्थिक व राजकीय न्याय व धार्मिक स्वातंत्र्य देण्यासाठी केलेल्या तरतुदीची मांडणी खालील प्रमाणे करण्यात येत आहे.

भारतीय संविधानातील सामाजिक न्याय

भारतीय संविधानात सामाजिक न्यायाला अत्यंत महत्त्व देण्यात आले आहे. सामाजिक न्याय म्हणजे समाजातील सर्व व्यक्तींना समान संधी आणि समान अधिकार प्राप्त व्हावेत, तसेच कोणत्याही व्यक्तीवर जात, धर्म, लिंग, वंश किंवा जन्मस्थान या आधारावर कोणताही अन्याय होऊ नये.

भारतीय संविधानातील सामाजिक न्यायाची काही प्रमुख तरतुदी:

१.अनुच्छेद 14: कायद्यासमोर समानता - कायद्याच्या दृष्टीने सर्व नागरिक समान आहेत.

२.अनुच्छेद 15: धर्म, वंश, जात, लिंग किंवा जन्मस्थान यावर आधारित कोणताही भेदभाव केला जाणार नाही.

३. अनुच्छेद 16: सरकारी नोकऱ्यांमध्ये सर्वांना समान संधी मिळेल.

४.अनुच्छेद 17: अस्पृश्यता नष्ट करण्यात आली आहे.

५.अनुच्छेद 21: प्रत्येक व्यक्तीला जीवन आणि व्यक्तिगत स्वातंत्र्याचा अधिकार आहे.

६. अनुच्छेद 25 ते 28: धार्मिक स्वातंत्र्य - प्रत्येक व्यक्तीला आपला धर्म पाळण्याचा आणि प्रचार करण्याचा अधिकार आहे.

७.अनुच्छेद 38: सामाजिक, आर्थिक आणि राजकीय न्याय प्रस्थापित करणे.

८. अनुच्छेद 39: समान कामासाठी समान वेतन.

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९. अनुच्छेद 42: काम आणि प्रसूतीसाठी योग्य सुविधा.

१०.अनुच्छेद 46: अनुसूचित जाती आणि जमाती तसेच दुर्बल घटकांसाठी विशेष तरतुदी.

सामाजिक न्यायाचे महत्त्व:

सामाजिक न्याय समाजातील दुर्बल आणि वंचित घटकांना संरक्षण देतो. यामुळे समाजात समानता आणि समरसता वाढते. सामाजिक न्यायामुळे प्रत्येक व्यक्तीला आपली क्षमता विकसित करण्याची संधी मिळते, ज्यामुळे देशाचा विकास होतो.

सामाजिक न्याय प्राप्त करण्यासाठी उपाय:

शिक्षण: शिक्षणाच्या माध्यमातून लोकांना त्यांच्या हक्कांबद्दल आणि कर्तव्यांबद्दल जागरूक करणे.

जागरूकता: सामाजिक अन्याय आणि भेदभाव यांच्याविरुद्ध जनजागृती करणे.

सरकारी योजना: सरकारद्वारे चालवल्या जाणाऱ्या सामाजिक न्याय योजनांचा प्रभावीपणे अंमलबजावणी करणे.

सामूहिक प्रयत्न: सामाजिक न्याय प्राप्त करण्यासाठी समाजात एकजूट आणि सहकार्य असणे आवश्यक आहे.

भारतीय संविधानातील आर्थिक न्याय.

भारतीय संविधानाच्या प्रस्तावनेत आर्थिक न्यायाचा उल्लेख आहे. आर्थिक न्यायाचा अर्थ असा आहे की, समाजातील गरीब व दुर्बल घटकांना समान संधी आणि अधिकार मिळायला हवेत. कोणत्याही व्यक्तीवर जात, धर्म, लिंग किंवा वंश या आधारावर कोणताही अन्याय होता कामा नये.

आर्थिक न्यायाची काही उदाहरणे:

सर्वांसाठी समान संधी: प्रत्येक व्यक्तीला शिक्षण, रोजगार आणि व्यवसाय करण्याची समान संधी मिळायला हवी.

समान कामासाठी समान वेतन: स्त्री आणि पुरुष दोघांनाही समान कामासाठी समान वेतन मिळायला हवे.

गरीब व दुर्बल घटकांना मदत: गरीब व दुर्बल घटकांना सरकारतर्फे आर्थिक मदत आणि संरक्षण मिळायला हवे. संपत्तीचे समान वितरण: समाजातील संपत्ती काही लोकांच्या हातात केंद्रित न होता, ती सर्वांमध्ये समान प्रमाणात वाटली जायला हवी.

आर्थिक न्यायाचे महत्व

आर्थिक न्याय महत्वाचा आहे कारण तो समाजाला समतोल आणि न्यायपूर्ण बनवतो. जेव्हा समाजातील सर्व लोकांना समान संधी मिळतात, तेव्हा ते अधिक आनंदी आणि समृद्ध होतात. आर्थिक न्यायामुळे गुन्हेगारी आणि अशांतता कमी होते.

आर्थिक न्याय मिळविण्याचे उपाय

आर्थिक न्याय मिळवण्यासाठी सरकार आणि नागरिकांनी एकत्र काम करणे आवश्यक आहे. सरकारने गरिबी कमी करण्यासाठी आणि रोजगाराच्या संधी निर्माण करण्यासाठी उपाययोजना करायला हव्यात. नागरिकांनीही आपल्या समाजात आर्थिक न्यायाचे महत्त्व वाढवण्यासाठी प्रयत्न करायला हवेत.

भारतीय संविधानातील काही महत्त्वाची कलमे:

१.कलम 14 कायद्यासमोर समानता.

२. कलम 15 धर्म, जात, लिंग किंवा वंश या आधारावर कोणताही भेदभाव नाही.

३.कलम 16 सरकारी नोकऱ्यांमध्ये समान संधी.

४.कलम 38 सामाजिक, आर्थिक आणि राजकीय न्याय.

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ISBN- 978-93-95494-92-2

५. कलम 39 (b) राज्याने संपत्तीचे समान वितरण करावे.
६. कलम 39 (c) राज्याने उत्पादनाची साधने काही लोकांच्या हातात केंद्रित होऊ नयेत याची काळजी घ्यावी.

भारतीय संविधानातील राजकीय न्याय

भारतीय राज्यघटनेच्या प्रस्तावनेत न्याय, सामाजिक, आर्थिक आणि राजकीय या तीन प्रकारच्या न्यायांचा उल्लेख आहे. या न्यायांना महत्त्व देणे हे भारतीय संविधानाचे उद्दिष्ट आहे.

राजकीय न्यायाचे महत्व

राजकीय न्याय म्हणजे देशातील प्रत्येक नागरिकाला निवडणुकीत मतदान करण्याचा, निवडणूक लढवण्याचा आणि सरकारमध्ये सहभागी होण्याचा समान अधिकार असणे. या न्यायामुळे लोकांना देशाच्या कारभारात सक्रियपणे सहभागी होण्याची संधी मिळते.

भारतीय संविधानातील तरतुदी

भारतीय संविधानात अनेक तरतुदी आहेत, ज्या राजकीय न्यायाची खात्री करतात. उदाहरणार्थ:

मतदानाचा अधिकार: संविधानातील अनुच्छेद ३२६ नुसार, प्रत्येक भारतीय नागरिकाला वयाची १८ वर्षे पूर्ण झाल्यावर मतदानाचा अधिकार मिळतो.

निवडणूक लढवण्याचा अधिकार: कोणताही नागरिक निवडणूक लढवू शकतो, त्यासाठी काही पात्रता निकष पूर्ण करणे आवश्यक आहे.

समान संधी: सरकारमध्ये सहभागी होण्याची सर्वांना समान संधी असते, जात, धर्म, लिंग किंवा वंश यावर कोणताही भेदभाव केला जात नाही.

लोकशाही शासन: भारत एक लोकशाही देश आहे, ज्यात जनता आपल्या प्रतिनिधींना निवडते आणि त्यांच्यामार्फत राज्यकारभार चालवते.

राजकीय न्यायाचे महत्त्व

राजकीय न्याय हे लोकशाहीचे आधारस्तंभ आहे. यामुळे नागरिकांमध्ये देशाबद्दल आपलेपणाची भावना निर्माण होते आणि ते देशाच्या विकासात सक्रियपणे योगदान देतात.

धार्मिक स्वातंत्र्य:

भारतीय राज्यघटनेच्या अनुच्छेद २५ ते २८ मध्ये धार्मिक स्वातंत्र्याचा अधिकार नमूद करण्यात आला आहे.

धार्मिक स्वातंत्र्याचे महत्त्व:-

भारत हा विविध धर्म आणि संस्कृती असलेला देश आहे. राज्यघटनेने प्रत्येक नागरिकाला आपापल्या धर्माचे पालन करण्याचे स्वातंत्र्य दिले आहे.

धर्मनिरपेक्षता हे भारतीय संविधानाचे एक महत्त्वाचे वैशिष्ट्य आहे. याचा अर्थ असा की, सरकार कोणत्याही एका धर्माला विशेष महत्त्व देत नाही. सर्व धर्म समान मानले जातात.

अनुच्छेद २५

प्रत्येक व्यक्तीला आपल्या इच्छेनुसार कोणताही धर्म स्वीकारण्याचा, त्याचे पालन करण्याचा आणि त्याचा प्रचार करण्याचा अधिकार आहे.

सार्वजनिक सुव्यवस्था, नैतिकता आणि आरोग्य यांसारख्या कारणांसाठी या अधिकारावर काही मर्यादा घातल्या जाऊ शकतात.

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अनुच्छेद २६: प्रत्येक धार्मिक समुदायाला आपल्या धार्मिक संस्था स्थापन करण्याचा आणि त्यांचे व्यवस्थापन करण्याचा अधिकार आहे.

या संस्था धर्मार्थ कार्ये करू शकतात, परंतु त्यांना कोणत्याही व्यक्तीवर धर्म परिवर्तन करण्याची सक्ती करता येणार नाही.

अनुच्छेद २७: कोणत्याही व्यक्तीला विशिष्ट धर्माच्या प्रचारासाठी कर भरण्यास भाग पाडले जाणार नाही.याचा अर्थ असा की, सरकार कोणत्याही एका धर्माला प्रोत्साहन देण्यासाठी कर वापरू शकत नाही.

अनुच्छेद २८: सरकारी शिक्षण संस्थांमध्ये धार्मिक शिक्षण दिले जाणार नाही. खाजगी शिक्षण संस्थांमध्ये धार्मिक शिक्षण दिले जाऊ शकते, परंतु विद्यार्थ्यांना त्यात भाग घेण्यास सक्ती करता येणार नाही.

धार्मिक स्वातंत्र्यावर मर्यादा:

धार्मिक स्वातंत्र्याचा अर्थ असा नाही की, कोणताही व्यक्ती काहीही करू शकतो. सार्वजनिक सुव्यवस्था, नैतिकता आणि आरोग्य यांसारख्या कारणांसाठी या अधिकारावर काही मर्यादा आहेत.कोणत्याही धर्माच्या नावाखाली हिंसा किंवा द्वेष पसरवणे कायद्याने गुन्हा आहे.

निष्कर्ष:-

भारतीय संविधान सामाजिक, आर्थिक, राजकीय न्याय व धार्मिक स्वातंत्र्य यावर आधारित आहे.सामाजिक न्याय: भारतीय संविधानात समाजातील दुर्बळ घटकांना सामाजिक न्याय मिळावा यासाठी विशेष तरतुदी आहेत. अस्पृश्यता निवारण, शिक्षण व रोजगाराच्या संधींची समानता, महिला व बालकांचे संरक्षण यांसारख्या तरतुदी सामाजिक न्यायाचे उदाहरण आहेत.आर्थिक न्याय: आर्थिक न्यायामध्ये संपत्तीचे समान वितरण आणि गरीब व श्रीमंत यांच्यातील दरी कमी करणे हे समाविष्ट आहे. यासाठी शासनाने अनेक योजना व कायदे तयार केले आहेत, जसे की जमीन सुधारणा कायदे, कामगार कायदे आणि गरिबी निर्मूलन कार्यक्रम.

राजकीय न्याय: भारतीय संविधानात प्रत्येक नागरिकाला निवडणुकीत मतदान करण्याचा आणि निवडणूक लढवण्याचा अधिकार आहे. यासोबतच, शासनाच्या निर्णयांमध्ये सहभागी होण्याचा अधिकार देखील नागरिकांना देण्यात आला आहे.धार्मिक स्वातंत्र्य: भारतीय संविधान धर्मनिरपेक्ष आहे. याचा अर्थ कोणताही धर्म श्रेष्ठ नाही आणि सर्व धर्म समान आहेत. प्रत्येक नागरिकाला आपापल्या आवडीच्या धर्माचे पालन करण्याचे स्वातंत्र्य आहे.

भारतीय संविधान हे सामाजिक, आर्थिक, राजकीय न्याय आणि धार्मिक स्वातंत्र्य या मूल्यांवर आधारलेले आहे. हे संविधान नागरिकांच्या हक्कांचे संरक्षण करते आणि त्यांना समान संधी उपलब्ध करून देते.

संदर्भ

१ भारताचे संवीधान- लेखक.प्रा.बी. टी . देशमुख .

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ISBN: 978-93-48620-59-0

Innovative Genomic Strategies for Modern Plant Breeding: Techniques, Applications, and Future Prospects

Editors:
Ms. Anuradha
Ms. Sai Prashanthi N
Dr. M. Nafees Iqbal

Bhumi Publishing, India
First Edition: April 2025
www.bhumipublishing.com

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(ISBN: 978-93-48620-59-0)

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Bhumi Publishing

April 2025

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9 789348 620590

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Published by:

Bhumi Publishing

BHUMI PUBLISHING

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

E-mail: bhumipublishing@gmail.com

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PREFACE

The ever-growing global population, coupled with the challenges posed by climate change, soil degradation, and emerging plant diseases, demands a new era of agricultural innovation. Conventional plant breeding, though immensely valuable, is often constrained by time, precision, and adaptability. In this context, genomic strategies have emerged as transformative tools, redefining the way we understand, manipulate, and improve plant genetic resources.

This book, "Innovative Genomic Strategies for Modern Plant Breeding: Techniques, Applications, and Future Prospects," is a comprehensive exploration of the breakthroughs and contemporary advancements in plant genomics that are revolutionizing crop improvement. It serves as a valuable resource for researchers, students, breeders, and policy makers who are engaged in or curious about the future of agriculture.

The chapters delve into diverse aspects of modern plant breeding — from genome-wide association studies (GWAS), marker-assisted selection, and genomic selection to CRISPR-Cas gene editing, epigenomics, and transcriptomic profiling. Through case studies and practical applications, the book showcases how these tools have been successfully applied to develop crop varieties with enhanced yield, resilience, and nutritional value.

Our aim is to bridge the gap between cutting-edge genomic research and field-level breeding practices, thereby promoting sustainable agriculture and food security. The contributors to this volume are leading scientists and experts who offer both theoretical insights and applied knowledge, making this work both informative and actionable.

We hope that this compilation not only enriches the reader's understanding of genomic tools but also inspires future innovations in plant breeding science. Let this book be a stepping stone towards a more food-secure and environmentally resilient world.

- Editors

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APPLICATIONS OF CRISPR/CAS9-BASED GENE EDITING IN PLANT BREEDING

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Abstract:

CRISPR/Cas9 gene editing system is recently developed robust genome editing technology for accelerating plant breeding. Various modifications of this editing system have been established for adaptability in plant varieties as well as for its improved efficiency and portability. This review provides an in-depth look at the various strategies for synthesizing gRNAs for efficient delivery in plant cells, including chemical synthesis and *In-vitro* transcription. It also covers traditional analytical tools and emerging developments in detection methods to analyze CRISPR/Cas9 mediated mutation in plant breeding. Additionally, the review outlines the various analytical tools which are used to detect and analyze CRISPR/Cas9 mediated mutations, such as next- generation sequencing, restriction enzyme analysis, and southern blotting. Finally, the review discusses emerging detection methods, including digital PCR and qPCR. Hence, CRISPR/Cas9 has great potential for transforming agriculture and opening avenues for new advancements in the system for gene editing in plants.

Keywords: Agriculture; Crispr/Cas9; Gene Editing; Genome; Plant Breeding

Introduction:

1. Basic Gene Editing Strategy:

Over the past two decades, various crop genomes have been modified through the integration of foreign genes with high breeding value to overcome the limitations associated with conventional breeding approaches. To enhance crop yield, quality, and resistance against various biotic and abiotic stresses, novel gene editing strategies are required. While the advantages and disadvantages of genetically modified crops have been extensively discussed in previous reviews, gene editing techniques play a crucial role in accelerating crop improvement programs by introducing precise genetic modifications in

plant genomes. Gene editing with site-specific nucleases facilitates the induction of DNA double-strand breaks (DSBs) at target sites, triggering endogenous DNA repair mechanisms that result in genetic alterations such as gene replacement, gene insertion, and targeted mutagenesis. Among the available DNA repair pathways, non-homologous end joining (NHEJ) is the most widely utilized mechanism in crop plants. The CRISPR/Cas system is a recently developed, robust genome editing technology inspired by the bacterial adaptive immune response against bacteriophages. In 2012, two independent research groups, led by Jennifer A. Doudna at the University of California, Berkeley, and Emmanuelle Charpentier at the Umeå Plant Science Centre, Sweden, demonstrated that a monomeric DNA endonuclease, Cas9, derived from *Streptococcus pyogenes*, could be reprogrammed to introduce precise double-strand DNA breaks at specific genomic sites using a single-guide RNA (sgRNA). Subsequent studies confirmed that a single construct comprising Cas9 nuclease and a designed sgRNA was sufficient for genome editing in eukaryotic systems. Since this breakthrough, the CRISPR/Cas9 technique has been widely adopted for genome editing across various organisms, including plants and human cells. CRISPR-based genome editing has revolutionized plant breeding by offering a precise, cost-effective, and efficient approach to developing desirable crop traits. This technology facilitates the transfer of beneficial genetic traits across species while minimizing or eliminating undesirable characteristics. It has been instrumental in generating new crop varieties with enhanced resistance to diseases, improved stress tolerance, and superior nutritional profiles. Model plant species such as *Arabidopsis thaliana* and *Nicotiana benthamiana* have been extensively used to study CRISPR-based genome editing in plants. These species serve as ideal platforms due to their small genome sizes, ease of manipulation, and fully sequenced genomes. Insights gained from these studies have significantly contributed to advancing crop improvement strategies. Beyond agricultural crops, CRISPR technology is now being applied to forest tree species such as poplar, pine, and spruce. This application aims to develop gene-editing tools that enhance tree health, growth, and resistance to diseases while modifying wood structure to produce higher-quality timber. Researchers are also exploring the potential of CRISPR to introduce novel traits that reduce pesticide dependency, increase wood yield, and improve the sustainability of forestry operations. This chapter will focus on the role of the CRISPR/Cas9 RNA-guided endonuclease (RGEN) system in accelerating plant breeding and its significance in advancing molecular plant breeding for crop improvement programs.

2. Design and Synthesis of Target-Specific Guide RNAs

CRISPR/Cas9 (Clustered Regularly Interspaced Short Palindromic Repeats-Associated Protein 9) is a two-component genome editing system that utilizes a short guide RNA (gRNA) sequence to direct the Cas9 endonuclease to a specific genomic site. The independent modification of gRNA, without altering the Cas9 protein, enhances the system's flexibility and efficiency as a genome editing tool. The primary applications of CRISPR-based systems in plants include biofortification, stress tolerance enhancement, and improved yield efficiency under various biotic and abiotic conditions. Originally, CRISPR/Cas was recognized as a bacterial defense mechanism against viral infections. Continuous advancements in genome editing technology aim to enhance its precision and accuracy.

The CRISPR/Cas system is derived from the innate immune mechanisms of prokaryotes and archaea. The method relies on a CRISPR-associated (Cas) enzyme that cleaves specific DNA sequences, introducing mutations that disrupt a gene's open reading frame. The essential components of this system include CRISPR RNA (crRNA), trans-activating CRISPR RNA (tracrRNA), and the Cas9 nuclease.

CRISPR/Cas systems can be engineered by incorporating the target DNA protospacer sequence into crRNAs or single-guide RNAs (sgRNAs). The discovery of several Cas orthologs with distinct protospacer adjacent motif (PAM) preferences has expanded the editing potential of these tools. This system enables precise interference with foreign nucleic acids through sequence-specific gRNA recognition. The alteration of a target genomic locus using CRISPR/Cas9 involves the induction of double-strand breaks (DSBs) at specific sites, which are repaired through either non-homologous end joining (NHEJ) or homology-directed repair (HDR). NHEJ is an error-prone repair mechanism that often leads to gene deletions or fusions, while HDR utilizes homologous DNA sequences as a repair template, enabling precise genome modifications (Figure 1).

Genome editing has facilitated the development of plants with heritable genetic modifications, including (1) point mutations, (2) small insertions or deletions (indels), (3) targeted DNA fragment insertions, (4) DNA fragment deletions, and (5) chromosomal rearrangements. Prior to genome editing with CRISPR/Cas9, a sgRNA must be designed to specifically target the gene of interest. The CRISPR/Cas9 ribonucleoprotein (RNP) complex, which consists of the Cas9 nuclease and gRNA, serves as the fundamental component of

this system. Target DNA sequences must contain a 5'-NGG-3' PAM motif, located at the 3' end of the target site, for Cas9-mediated cleavage.

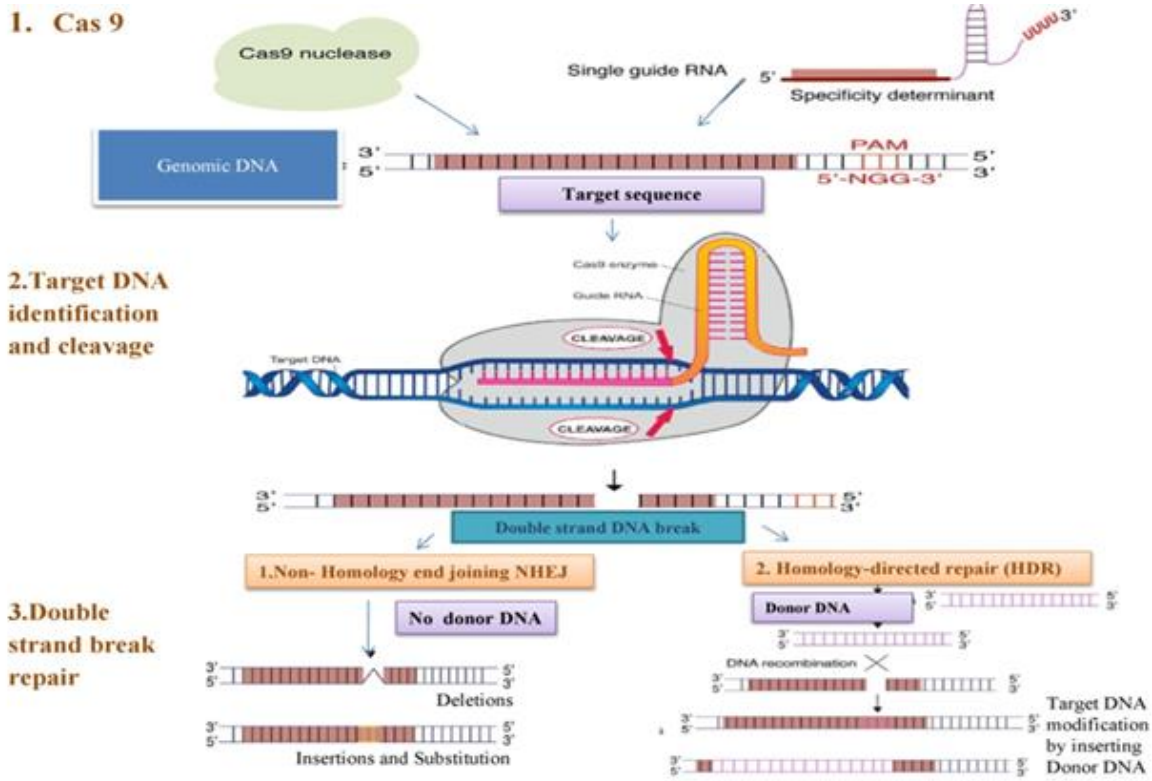

Figure 1: Overview of CRISPR/Cas9 technology for plant genome editing (i) two mechanisms for gene alteration include homology- directed repair (HDR) as well as non-homologous end joining (NHEJ) (ii) targeted DNA is cleaved and then repaired by NHEJ or HDR.

The targeting sequence (crRNA), located 20 nucleotides upstream of the PAM sequence, directs Cas9 to cleave the DNA at a precise site. Effective genome targeting requires the presence of a suitable protospacer adjacent motif (PAM) in the genomic DNA, which allows gRNA binding. Once bound, the Cas9 nuclease introduces a double-strand break (DSB), which is depicted as a scissor-cut in illustrations. The CRISPR/Cas9 system relies on a customized sgRNA, which consists of a Cas9-recruiting tracrRNA and a crRNA sequence that determines the target specificity. The 20-nucleotide crRNA is complementary to the target DNA sequence and plays a crucial role in guiding Cas9 activity. Various computational tools, such as CHOPCHOP and CRISPR Design, can identify PAM sequences and predict optimal crRNA sequences for specific genomic targets. These tools also evaluate potential off-target effects across the genome. Other platforms, such as Cas Finder and E-CRISP, rank off-target risks based on the number and position of mismatches relative to the guide sequence. CRISPR/Cas9-mediated genome editing induces DSBs at

specific genomic locations, which are repaired through cellular mechanisms such as NHEJ or HDR. NHEJ, an error-prone pathway, frequently introduces insertions or deletions (indels) at the break site, leading to gene disruptions. In contrast, HDR enables precise gene modifications by incorporating a donor DNA template. In cases where a repair template is available, HDR-mediated repair can introduce frame-shift mutations, resulting in either knock-in or targeted deletion of specific sequences. The design and synthesis of target-specific guide RNAs for plant genome editing follow a systematic approach, ensuring precision in introducing desired genetic modifications.

2.1. Selection of the Target Gene

Mostly in CRISPR/Cas9 system, the combination produced by the tracrRNA and crRNA attracts Cas9 and gives instructions to cleave the DNA sequence at a particular genomic region. When the complex of tracrRNA and crRNA breaks down, sgRNA, which has just one strand of RNA, produces. The Cas protein is guided by the sgRNA and recognizes a conserved sequence. It precisely recognizes and binds to the protospacer neighbor ing motif after unraveling the DNA with two strands (PAM). The desired sequence and the matching crRNA sequence are linked upstream of the PAM.

2.2. Utilize the Online Tools to Design and Synthesize the sgRNA and Avoid off Target Activity

Various software tools are available to identify PAM sequences and generate lists of potential crRNA sequences within a specific DNA region. These tools, such as E-CRISP, CRISPOR, and CHOPCHOP, are commonly used to evaluate the on-target efficiency of sgRNAs. By using these methods, researchers can select the most effective crRNA by predicting potential off-target effects within the genome.

2.3. Selecting the Appropriate Tool for Creating Guide RNAs and Web-Based Tools

A sequence-specific RNA (sgRNA) that targets the desired genome is crucial for initiating CRISPR/Cas9 genetic modifications in the intended gene. The success of gene editing largely depends on the design of the sgRNA, as it is responsible for guiding Cas9 to specific genomic sites. Several web-based tools are available for sgRNA design, each offering unique features and advantages. When using these tools, users typically provide the species, nucleotide sequence, genetic region, or domain information for the transgene. Based on this input, the tool generates a list of potential guide sequences along with predicted off-target sites. Although these tools employ different methods, most aim to

select guide sequences that minimize the risk of off-target effects. For example, chop-chop evaluates sgRNA efficiency by using empirical data from recent studies, such as those by Doench *et al.* Similarly, Cas Finder and E-CRISP consider user-defined parameters to assess the likelihood of off-target consequences based on mismatches between the guide sequence and the target DNA.

2.4. Applications-Specific Tools

Several specialized uses have spurred the creation of tools for designing sgRNA. The only technology that is now accessible, CRISPR-ERA, concentrates on applications in fly, beetle, and worm species, particularly some well model organisms Caenorhabditis elegans & Drosophila melanogaster. Applications in worm species are the main focus of Fly CRISPR. The only method for producing potential sgRNAs that operate with a range of nucleases, such as Cpf1 and Staphylococcus aureus Cas9, is the design tool on the benchling website. As a result of the unique characteristics that each instrument possesses using a number is recommended for strategies and pick guide sequences that are constantly anticipated to function correctly.

2.5. Assembling the sgRNA and Cas9 Protein Cloning of the Construct in Suitable Plant Binary Vector

An sgRNA is formed through the base pairing of crRNA and tracrRNA, which are mature products derived from the CRISPR locus. The sequence located upstream of the PAM, along with the sgRNA, facilitates the creation of a double-strand break (DSB). Two primary mechanisms are available to repair these DSBs: homology-directed repair (HDR) and non-homologous end joining (NHEJ). In the NHEJ repair process, small insertions or deletions (indels) may occur at the break site, potentially disrupting the gene. On the other hand, HDR accurately inserts or replaces nucleotides to repair the break, and it is commonly used to introduce specific alterations, such as adding a fluorescent tag or creating a specific mutation. HDR requires a DNA template, typically from an external source, and is often employed when precise genetic modifications are needed.

Although HDR is a valuable tool for making precise changes, it is less efficient compared to NHEJ. It often requires single-cell cloning and subsequent screenings to identify useful modifications, making the process time-consuming and complex. This is a lengthy process and must be handled with care. Achieving the desired genetic modification usually requires two rounds of single-cell cloning. To confirm that the targeted modification, rather than an unintended variant, is responsible for the observed phenotype,

the modification is typically restored to the original state as a control, though this step is not always performed.

3. Delivery of Guide RNAs in Plant Cells: Delivering the Plasmid Construct in to the Plant Through Different Transformation Techniques

To successfully alter the genome of plants, a variety of delivery techniques, most often utilized techniques include PEG-mediated protoplast, bombardment or biolistic method, floral- dip, as well as agrobacterium-mediated. Cas9 and gRNAs are commonly delivered into plant cells by physical methods like PEG-mediated protoplast transformation or biolistic callus transformation or agrobacterium-mediated T-DNA transformation. Gene targeting frequencies can be significantly increased by one to two orders of magnitude via geminiviral DNA replicon when compared to conventional Agrobacterium tumefaciens T-DNA transformation. Recent research has shown that the cytoplasmic replicating RNA virus tobacco rattle (TRV) is capable of transferring gRNAs into transgenic *Nicotiana benthamiana*, which expresses the Cas9 gene, to perform systemic genome editing, which is detectable in even two progeny plants. A Cas9-based approach based on DNA viruses for systemic genome editing in plants is not available at this time.

3.1. Transformation of the Genetic Code by Agrobacterium

The main technique for introducing gene- editing agents, such as base-editing tools, prime editing, and CRISPR/Cas variations agents, into plants is still agrobacterium-mediated genetic transformation. This procedure involves adding agrobacterium to explants that have T-DNA gene-editing cassettes integrated into them. Cells infected with the T-DNA containing the CRISPR cassette is prob ably to cause a stable genetic alteration in the host plant. Transgene-free gene editing is now possible because of the temporary creation of CRISPR tools through regenerative activities instead of using selecting.

3.2. Crops Can Receive CRISPR Reagents via Biolistic-Based Distribution of DNA, RNA or Proteins

To enhance crop resistance to Agrobacterium infection, common methods include biolistic or particle bombardment. In this technique, micro-projectiles, often made of gold or tungsten coated with protein, are accelerated to extremely high speeds to physically penetrate the plant's cell wall and membrane. Biolistic delivery can transport various cargo types, including ribonucleic proteins (RNPs) composed of recombinant proteins, RNA, single-stranded DNA (ssDNA), plasmid DNA, and *In-vitro* transcribed (IVT) RNA. However,

biolistic methods have certain limitations, such as the labor-intensive process of preparing explants (e.g., callus or immature embryos) that can regenerate. Additionally, when DNA is used as the cargo, it may integrate randomly at different genomic locations.

3.3. CRISPR/Cas9 Vector Delivery Through PEG

A technique for genetic modification is employed when polyethylene glycol is present (PEG). The plasmid carrying gRNA & Cas9 is used to treat the protoplast when PEG is present. In this study, the promoter for gRNA and Cas9 are U3 & CaMV35S, accordingly, were used to introduce the first CRISPR constructs into maize.

3.4. Pollen Magnetofection-Mediated Delivery

In the "magnetofection" approach of genetic modification, magnetic forces are employed to facilitate a vector's absorption by magnetic nanoparticles (MNP). Currently, CRISPR/Cas9 vectors as well as the system's vector/DNA less variants are used the most frequently for disseminating CRISPR/ Cas9 components. Non-transgenic crops can be produced by using magnetofection and DNA-free editing. Cas9 mRNA and sgRNA transcription *In-vitro* are used as the two methods for achieving this. Cas9 and MNP-coated gRNA are then employed and delivered to the protoplastor stigma. Cotton has profited from using this approach.

3.5. Nanoparticle-Mediated Delivery

Various types of nanoparticles, including mesoporous silica nanoparticles, carbon nanotubes, quantum dots, and metal/metal oxide nanoparticles, can be directly absorbed by plant cells. Research has shown that crops such as maize can be successfully genetically modified using silicon carbide whiskers, while CRISPR/Cas9 technology can be used to create transgene-free plants in other crops like rice and cotton. This technology allows for the delivery of nanoparticles and Cas9/gRNA ribonucleoproteins into newly developing tissues. To modify different pathways, multiple gRNAs can be incorporated into a single plant transformation vector, along with the appropriate promoters and terminators. However, including a construct with several gRNAs can be challenging due to the large size of plant cells. Therefore, employing nanoparticles combined with non-transgenic editing methods, such as polycistronic tRNA-gRNA or polycistronic Csy4-gRNA, will be advantageous. The success of any delivery strategy depends on both the chosen method and the ability to successfully regenerate complete plants.

3.6. Bombardment-Mediated Delivery

Bombardment with a vector or Cas9/gRNA to deliver ribonucleoproteins. A "gene gun" or "biolistic gun" is required to carry out this transformation or gene transfer. The most common materials used as carriers for vectors or Cas9/gRNA ribonucleoproteins are gold, silver, and tungsten particles. By applying intense pressure, coated particles allow CRISPR/Cas9 components to flow through and enter explants. For this method, the explant type, helium pressure, particle size, and objective dis tancemust all be optimized. On regeneration media, the modified explants are grown again under the proper selection pressure. There have been reports of successful Cas9/gRNA ribonucleoprotein delivery in maize, potatoes, and brassicas, followed by the regeneration of mutants.

4. Detection

After successfully delivering the gRNA into plant cells, it is crucial to use detection methods to confirm the presence of the intended mutations, measure indel efficiencies, isolate transformants, and eliminate the CRISPR/Cas9 construct throughout the breeding process. To achieve these objectives, various analytical techniques and tools have been employed, all of which require prior knowledge of the sequences and genomes involved. While CRISPR-mutant screening is relatively straightforward in the early stages of genome editing, it becomes more challenging as breeding populations are developed. Therefore, selecting the optimal strategy from available options is essential. Additionally, the choice of detection methods is influenced by the approach used for administering gRNA into plant cells.

4.1. Traditional Analytical Tools and Emerging Developments in Detection Methods to Analyze CRISPR/Cas9 Mediated Mutation in Plant Breeding

Since the introduction of the CRISPR/Cas9 system, HDR-mediated genome editing has been widely used to detect point mutations in edited plants. However, this technique faces fundamental challenges, such as the occasional occurrence and low efficiency of HDR, difficulties in converting one base into another, and the failure of biallelic targeting. In response, allele-specific editing with CRISPR/Cas9 has emerged as an advanced method for addressing biotic and abiotic stress concerns in plants. In this approach, gRNAs are designed to differentiate single-nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs). This technique is used for base editing, allowing for the correction of unintended insertions or deletions, converting them into the wild-type nucleotide sequence.

To detect indels, insertion or deletion sites, and SNPs in CRISPR/Cas9-induced mutant populations, several conventional quantitative methods such as sequencing (Whole Genome Sequencing - WGS, Sanger Sequencing - SS, and Next-Generation Sequencing - NGS), RT-qPCR, digital PCR, and endpoint fluorescence PCR have been extensively employed. NGS-based methods like WGS and Southern blotting are commonly used to analyze off-target effects in plant breeding. Additionally, Zhang has identified Sanger sequencing (SS) as a suitable approach for Agrobacterium-mediated transformation.

Moreover, NGS data processing requires the use of accurate and relevant technologies to ensure reliable results for CRISPR/Cas9-based genome editing outcomes. To aid in this, a variety of high-throughput bioinformatics tools have been developed, such as CRISPR-DAV, CRISPR-GA, CAS-analyzer, BATCH-GE, CRISPResso, and CRISPR Match. Meanwhile, PCR-based assays like competitive allele-specific PCR (KSAP), annealing at critical temperature PCR (ACT-PCR), allele-specific oligonucleotide PCR (ASO), and restriction fragment length polymorphism PCR (RFLP-PCR) have also been reported in several plant species.

4.2. Web-Based Tools to Enhance the CRISPR/Cas9 Genome Editing Efficiency in Plant Breeding

Currently, widely used web-based tool for analyzing the NGS data that can be most preferable for base editing are CRIS.PY, Deep Base Editor, Be-Hive, SNP-CRISPR), BE-Designer, BE target and FLASH-NGS. Along with this, a significant evolution has also happened in PCR approaches. Used a combination quantitative RT-PCR and high-resolution melting (qPCR-HRM) assay to find CRISPR/Cas9- induced mutations in rice plants. This approach is more empathetic and low-cost than other conventional PCR methods. Used a KASP-modified method named allele-specific quantitative PCR (ASQ) to detect bi-allelic mutation by SNPs and indel mutation. The polycistronic tRNA-gRNA CRISPR/Cas9 (PGT/Cas9) system technology has also been implemented in Arabidopsis to identify the amorphic mutants in three generations using a straight forward PCR approach. A droplet digital PCR (ddPCR) is another most studied and effective technology for evaluating and detecting gene-editing frequencies in a variety of plant science field.

5. Analysis of Gene Editing Efficiencies

Compared to other established plant genome editing technologies like ZFNs (Zinc Finger Nucleases) and TALENs (Transcription Activator-Like Effector Nucleases), the CRISPR/Cas9 system has emerged as a highly versatile and adaptable strategy, achieving

remarkable progress over recent years. However, CRISPR/Cas9 still has its limitations, such as challenges in gRNA delivery, low efficiency, off-target effects, and the necessity for a specific PAM (Protospacer Adjacent Motif) sequence. To address these issues, numerous methods have been employed to enhance mutagenesis efficiency. Despite the widespread use of the classic CRISPR/Cas9 RGEN system, there has been a notable increase in off-target effects, especially due to mutant inheritance in several plant species. The system's reliance on stringent PAM requirements, large size for transport, and limited gene target site efficiency due to blunt double-strand breaks (DSBs) have contributed to reduced genome-wide specificity. As a result, a more versatile CRISPR/Cas9 Class 2, Type-V system has been identified as a promising alternative. In this multifunctional system, various Cas effector proteins, such as Cpf1, C2c1, C2c3, CasY, and CasX, can interact with a variety of substrate types, including dsDNA (double-stranded DNA), ssDNA (single-stranded DNA), and ssRNA (single-stranded RNA), offering an intriguing alternative to SpCas9 (Streptococcus pyogenes Cas9) for plant genome engineering. Among these, Lachnospiraceae bacterium Cas12a (LbCas12a) has garnered significant attention and has been shown to be highly efficient in various plant species. Most recently, a combined system approach using LbCas12a-ABE (Adenine Base Editor) and Iterative Testing of Editing Reagents (ITER) resulted in a 10–80% increase in indel frequencies in wheat and maize plants. Additionally, two new coding sequences, ttHsCas12a and ttAtCas12a +int, were discovered, further boosting mutagenesis efficiency to over 90% in T0 barley plants. These advancements highlight the growing potential and versatility of the CRISPR/Cas system in plant genome engineering.

6. Applications in Plant Breeding/Modern Agriculture

CRISPR/Cas9 is a genome-editing tool which is developing very fast, a new molecular tool and is very important for improving agriculturally important traits in various crops. A number of countries exempted genome-edited crops, which do not use transgenic DNA or any genetic material for the improvement of crops. The CRISPR/Cas 9 is a versatile tool used to improve agriculturally important crops such as quality, disease resistance, and herbicide tolerance. This technique implemented to discover oil, provide disease resistance and improve quality (Zhang et al), decrease potato browning, and mitigating volunteer rice. CRISPR/Cas9 mutagenesis in Arabidopsis often results in chimerism in T1 generation due to low expression of Cas9 during zygote and early embryo

developmental stages. The KASI gene of soyabean is crucial for conversion of sucrose to oil. Thus, the GmKASI gene is disrupted by reciprocal chromosomal translocation.

6.1. CRISPR/Cas9 as a Tool for Crop Improvement

Genome editing has enabled the introduction of crucial agricultural traits such as heat, cold, and herbicide tolerance, as well as extended shelf life for crops (Table 1).

Table 1: Role of CRISPR/Cas9 gene-editing technology on different agricultural crops with enhanced or improved trait

Crop	Enhanced or Improved trait by CRISPR	Target Gene
Arabidopsis thaliana	Drought resistance	AtOST2
Arabidopsis thaliana	Salt resistance	AtWRKY and AtWRKY4
Arabidopsis thaliana	Metal stress tolerance	Atoxp1
Beta vulgaris	Severe curly top virus	IR
Brassica oleracea	Mosaic virus	CP
Brassica napus	Herbicide resistance	OsALS
Capsicum frutiscens	Leaf curl virus	C1/C4 + V1/V2
Cucumis sativus	Mosaic virus	ORF1a, ORF 3a, 3 0UTR
Glycine max	Salt resistance	GmDrb2a and GmDrb2b
Gossypiun herbaceum	Leaf curl Multan virus	Rep + IR
Gossypiun herbaceum	Leaf curl virus and beta satellite	Rep
Gossypium hirsutum	Heat resistance	GhPGF and GhCLA1
Manihot esculenta	Cyanide reduction	CYP79D1 and CYP79D2
Manihot esculenta	Herbicide resistance	OsALS
Medicago sativa L.	Biomass yield and quality	Msfta1
Musa sp.	Streak virus	ORF1, 2, 3
Oryza sativa	Salt resistance	OsDST
Oryza sativa	Salt resistance	OsSPL10
Oryza sativa	Heat tolerance	OsPDS
Oryza sativa	Herbicide resistance	OsTB1
Oryza sativa	Metal stress tolerance	OsARM1
Oryza sativa	Metal stress tolerance	OsNramp5
Oryza sativa	Metal stress tolerance	OsLCT1
Oryza sativa	Metal stress tolerance	OsHAK1
Oryza sativa	Metal stress tolerance	OsPRX2
Oryza sativa	Bacterial blight	OsSWEET13
Oryza sativa	Plant hopper	OsCYP71A1
Oryza sativa	Stem borer Rice	OsCYP71A1
Phaseolus vulgaris	Yellow dwarf virus	LIR
Solanum lycopersicum	Powdery mildew	SlMLO
Solanum lycopersicum	Late blight	miR482b and miR482c
Solanum lycopersicum	Gray mould	SlPL
Solanum lycopersicum	Cold resistance	SlCBF1

Potato, the fourth-largest crop grown in India, is a staple food and a major agricultural product, with India being the second-largest producer of potatoes globally. A significant issue for potato growers is enzymatic browning, which reduces both the yield and quality of processed potato products. Gonzalez *et al.* demonstrated the successful use of CRISPR to reduce enzymatic browning in potato tubers by targeting the Polyphenol Oxidase 2 (StPPO2) gene. Disrupting this gene led to a 73% reduction in enzymatic browning and a 69% decrease in PPO activity, offering a potential solution to improve potato quality. Volunteer rice, which germinates from seeds left in the field after harvest and grows in the next season, is another challenge for farmers, as it can degrade the quality of rice intended for human consumption. Japonica rice, specifically the cv. Nipponbare variety, is resistant to beta-triketone herbicides (bTH), such as benzobicyclon (BBC). Researchers tested the feasibility of engineering susceptibility to BBC in Japonica rice by targeting the HIS1 gene using cytosine base editors (CBE). By eliminating the start codon or introducing a premature stop codon in the HIS1 coding sequence, they created HIS1 loss-

of-function lines that became susceptible to BBC. This modification paves the way for controlling volunteer rice germination, helping mitigate the problem of unwanted rice growth in fields.

6.2. CRISPR/Cas9 for Abiotic Stress Tolerance

Abiotic stress is the natural condition of environment in which either there is high or low amount of natural environmental condition which affect the growth and development of plant. For example, heat, water, cold, drought etc. The stress caused due to these factors affect the growth of plant and hence reduce the plant growth. The Crispr/Cas9 genome-editing tool is very simple, accessible, and hence impart resistance against drought, salinity, heat, cold, metal, and herbicide stresses. CRISPR/Cas9 has great potential for trans forming agriculture by making plants tolerant to biotic and abiotic stresses and improving their nutritional value and yield. Acceleration of plant breeding is achieved by CRISPR/Cas as a tool and technique.

Conclusion and Future Thrust:

New plant breeding techniques, particularly CRISPR/Cas9-based genome editing, have significantly advanced the ability to precisely and rapidly introduce desired traits into crops, far surpassing the capabilities of conventional breeding methods. This breakthrough technology has become a cornerstone of modern plant breeding and crop improvement programs. Over the past four years, CRISPR/Cas9 technology has developed rapidly, bringing the potential for a new "green revolution." With CRISPR/Cas9, researchers can develop crop varieties that meet long-standing demands for enhanced adaptability in the face of climate change. These include traits like photo-thermo insensitivity, biological nitrogen fixation, biofortification, and improved biofuel production, which could soon become a reality. In recent years, CRISPR/Cas9 has been applied to a wide range of plant species to enhance yield, combat biotic and abiotic stresses, enable multiplex editing, improve nutritional value, and enhance other economically important traits. As a powerful tool for genome editing, CRISPR/Cas9 holds immense promise in addressing global challenges like hunger and poverty by improving staple crops and helping to feed the growing human population. However, there is still room for improvement in CRISPR/Cas9 technology, particularly in increasing on-target editing efficiency. While the current applications are promising, much of the research remains preliminary and requires further refinement. A significant advantage of CRISPR/Cas9 is its ability to target multiple sites

simultaneously, opening up the possibility for more complex genetic modifications. One exciting area of application is the development of crops with multiple pathogen resistances, offering enhanced protection against a range of diseases. The adoption of CRISPR/Cas9 technology has already accelerated breeding programs across various crops, triggering innovative applications in crop improvement. It holds the potential to transform agriculture and revolutionize the way we approach crop breeding, making it one of the most reliable and promising techniques for the future. In the coming years, genome editing tools like CRISPR/Cas9 will be at the forefront of efforts to enhance crop yield, improve nutritional quality, and increase resistance to stresses, ultimately advancing global food security and agricultural sustainability.

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IMPLICATIONS OF GENETIC DIVERSITY AND GERMPLASM CONSERVATION IN PLANT BREEDING

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Abstract:

Genetic diversity refers to the variation present within different genotypes of the same species. This diversity arises due to contrasting alleles of a gene in different individuals, resulting in distinct phenotypes. Variability in heritable traits can manifest in altered morphology, anatomy, physiological behavior, or biochemical characteristics. Germplasm conservation plays a crucial role in preserving genetic resources, including extinct, wild, and cultivated species of crop plants. Human intervention has led to genetic erosion by favoring specific genes while eliminating less desirable ones, thereby reducing the historic genetic pool. Germplasm conservation serves as an effective strategy to safeguard the genetic traits of endangered and commercially valuable species. *In-vitro* culture technology significantly contributes to germplasm conservation by facilitating the multiplication and storage of genetic resources, particularly for plant species that produce recalcitrant seeds or reproduce asexually. Cryopreservation, a long-term conservation technique, requires protocol optimization to maximize its effectiveness. Additionally, there is a growing need for advanced data management systems to enhance the collection, retrieval, and sequencing of germplasm. Since germplasm serves as a fundamental resource for plant breeders, its systematic collection and storage have become increasingly vital for sustainable agricultural development.

Keywords: Germplasm, Cryopreservation, Gene Bank, *In-vitro* Culture, Genetic Diversity.

Introduction:

The conservation of plant genetic resources is a critical area that requires continual refinement and innovation. It plays a vital role in maintaining the genetic foundation necessary for crop breeding, enabling the development of varieties with desirable traits for applications in food, fuel, and healthcare sectors. Germplasm refers to the genetic material of plants, including tissues or cells preserved for breeding and conservation purposes. These genetic resources are maintained in gene banks, nurseries, and laboratory cultures,

encompassing a wide range of materials from wild species to genes selected through natural evolution.

Human activities have significantly contributed to genetic erosion by promoting certain favorable genes while eliminating others, leading to the extinction of valuable genetic materials. Germplasm conservation is instrumental in maintaining knowledge about extinct, wild, and living crop species. The primary objective of germplasm conservation is to ensure the secure handling and long-term preservation of plant genetic resources, particularly those of commercial significance. This involves collecting propagules from diverse taxa to maintain genetic integrity.

Germplasm conservation extends beyond food and agriculture, encompassing plant genetic resources for non-food uses such as medicinal plants, timber, fuel, ornamental species, and ecosystem restoration. However, despite the vast collections available in gene banks, actual utilization remains limited, as breeders often rely on a narrow genetic base in crop improvement programs. This overdependence on closely related parental lines restricts genetic gains and undermines the potential of germplasm collections.

One promising strategy for enhancing crop resilience to climate change and improving adaptability is the incorporation of beneficial traits from wild relatives into high-yielding cultivars. Germplasm accessions serve as invaluable resources for studying gene functions and plant development. Genetic diversity within populations is a key determinant of crop evolution, whether occurring naturally or through human intervention. Species differentiation, both intra- and inter-specific, forms the foundation of all crop improvement efforts. If genetic uniformity existed within a species, there would be minimal scope for enhancement in various plant traits.

Natural variation and genetic divergence have been extensively documented and utilized in systematic plant breeding to enhance crop species. The effective conservation and utilization of genetic diversity are essential for future breeding programs and agricultural sustainability.

Concept of Diversity

The biological world is inherently diverse. No two living organisms are exactly alike, not even identical twins. Variability refers to the differences in one or more characteristics among organisms. Genetic variety and variability are often mistakenly used interchangeably. Genetic variation refers to the differences in DNA/RNA sequences or gene alleles within the gene pool of a species or population. This variation manifests as different phenotypic traits.

Genetic Diversity

Genetic diversity encompasses all variations among different genotypes within a species or across species, concerning their total genetic makeup. It is typically measured by counting the number of different genes present in a gene pool, whereas genetic variation refers to potential differences that may arise and is not directly measurable. Genetic variability serves as the foundation of genetic diversity.

As defined by the Convention on Biological Diversity, genetic diversity exists at three hierarchical levels:

- Ecosystem diversity – Variation among different species communities.
- Species diversity – Differences among species within a community, also known as species richness.
- Genetic diversity – Variability among different genotypes of the same species due to contrasting alleles, influencing morphological, anatomical, physiological, and biochemical traits.

Genomic diversity, which refers to genetic variation across multiple gene loci within an individual, is of particular significance in agriculture and plant breeding.

Importance of Genetic Diversity

- Genetic diversity is essential for plant survival in natural ecosystems and for crop improvement. It enables plant breeders to develop new cultivars with desirable traits, including high yield potential, large seed size, pest and disease resistance, and photosensitivity.
- The presence of genetic variation within and among agricultural plant species allows breeders to select superior genotypes for either direct cultivation or use in hybridization programs. To achieve heterosis and transgressive segregation, genetic variation between the two parental lines is crucial.
- Breeders can enhance plant varieties by incorporating resistance to biotic and abiotic stressors, improving quality traits, and developing new lines for specialized purposes, such as biofuel-producing sorghum and maize varieties.

Germplasm Conservation

Germplasm conservation plays a vital role in preserving the genetic resources of extinct, wild, and cultivated plant species. Human intervention has contributed to genetic erosion by favoring specific genes while eliminating less desirable ones, thereby reducing the genetic diversity of crop plants. The primary objective of germplasm conservation is to

ensure the secure handling and long-term preservation of plant genetic resources, particularly those of commercial importance. Germplasm conservation involves

- Preservation of breeding lines
- Conservation of commercially important species
- Stock for genetics
- For direct or indirect usage of wild species which include either in the form of crops or stocks of roots.

Classification of Germplasm

Base collection

This approach ensures the preservation of genetic diversity by storing germplasm under optimal conditions for extended periods. Basic collection items are not distributed unless they are needed to replenish lost material from an active or backup collection. This method employs the most advanced sampling techniques to analyze variability within species groups. The collections remain stable by accommodating natural environmental variations, yet they are dynamic as they incorporate newly available genetic materials through plant breeding and population management. This enables storage for decades while keeping variability loss within acceptable limits.

Storage is conducted under low humidity and subfreezing temperatures, typically ranging from -150°C to -190°C. However, challenges exist, such as the intolerance of some genetic materials to extreme cooling or drying. Cryopreservation in in-vitro cultures serves as a viable long-term alternative. Various agricultural organizations act as primary and backup collections for significant crop species. However, institutions differ in their capacity to perform all functions related to germplasm conservation.

Active Collection

Active germplasm collections are regularly utilized in breeding programs and conserved for medium-term storage (8-10 years or longer). These collections are stored at 0°C with a moisture content of approximately 8%. A germination test is conducted every 5-10 years to monitor seed viability. Active collections serve as a source of seeds and other genetic materials for distribution and research. To ensure the maintenance of adequate plant collections, particularly for large-scale breeding programs, these collections are preserved under relatively short half-life conditions, adhering to stringent variability standards.

Working Collection

Working collections are frequently used by plant breeders in crop improvement programs and are stored for short-term durations (3-5 years). The seeds are maintained at temperatures between 5°C and 10°C, with a moisture content of 8-10%. These collections include materials actively used in breeding and those that are temporarily stored. Breeders gain insights into how favorable allele combinations at diverse genetic loci contribute to improved performance in specific environments. Consequently, efforts to introduce alleles from unique sources into adaptable materials prioritize achieving results efficiently.

The Gene Pool and its Impact on Genetic Diversity

Gene pool:

The gene pool refers to the complete set of genetic material present in a reproducing population or species. It includes all genes and their possible variations within that population. The term "gene pool" is commonly used to describe the total genetic diversity within a species. A species' gene pool plays a crucial role in biological fitness, as it determines the population's ability to adapt to environmental changes and withstand natural selection pressures. A diverse gene pool enhances a species' resilience, increasing its chances of survival and evolutionary success.

If a species is unable to adapt to changing ecosystem conditions, it may become extinct. Biological fitness refers to a species' capacity to adapt to change. The gene pool influences the species' biological fitness. A species is said to have high biological fitness if its gene pool contains a wide variety of alleles, whereas it is considered to have low biological fitness if there is little genetic variation.

A large gene pool with high genetic diversity generally leads to greater biological fitness, enabling a population to better adapt to environmental changes. In contrast, a reduced gene pool—caused by inbreeding or population bottlenecks—can decrease biological fitness and make a species more vulnerable to diseases and environmental stresses. However, even with low genetic diversity, a species may survive if fitness is enhanced through processes like genetic drift. Genetic drift refers to random changes in allele frequencies within a population. If these changes introduce new genetic variants that are better suited to shifting environmental conditions, they can improve the overall fitness of a species despite a limited gene pool. Therefore, while the gene pool itself does not directly determine biological fitness, it serves as an important indicator of genetic diversity, which in turn influences the adaptive potential and long-term survival of a species.

Cause of Changes in the Gene Pools

Changes in the gene pool directly influence the genetic diversity of a species' population. Over time, evolutionary processes such as mutation, natural selection, and genetic drift alter the composition of the gene pool, ensuring the population's ability to adapt to environmental changes. These genetic variations contribute to a diverse gene pool, enhancing the adaptability and survival of individuals within the population. As previously mentioned, the gene pool reflects the diversity of alleles present in a population, serving as an indicator of biological fitness. A species' ability to evolve and thrive in a given environment is partially determined by the composition of its gene pool. However, while the gene pool and genetic diversity are closely linked, they are not interchangeable terms. Genetic diversity arises from various evolutionary processes and describes the range of genetic variations within a species. A gene pool, on the other hand, represents the total genetic content of a population, which may consist of a single genetic variant or multiple alleles influencing diversity.

Types of Gene Pools in Crop Breeding

Harlen and Wet defined three types of gene pools for the classification of each crop and its related species as compared to formal taxonomy. They are:

1. Primary Gene Pool: The members in this pool are of the same species and can inter-mate freely. The peculiarity of this gene pool is that crossing is easy, producing fertile hybrids with good chromosome pairing, and normal gene segregation causing easy gene transfer.
2. Secondary Gene Pool: This gene pool consists of the species that are not the same but are more closely related to a particular primary gene pool. The crossing can produce hybrids but they may be infertile i.e. less fertility, and the chromosome pairing and gene segregation can also be bad. Yet it still offers significant potential to produce any type of hybrid.
3. Tertiary Gene Pool: This pool consists of totally different species from the gene pool in consideration and there is very little or almost nil possibility of producing any hybrids by crossing. It can be said that this is the shallow end of the gene pool.

Activities in germplasm conservation

The various activities are done in germplasm conservation:

Collection of Germplasm

Germplasm refers to seeds, plants, or plant parts that contain all possible alleles of genes in a given crop species. Germplasm collection involves gathering a diverse range of

genetic material to preserve all available alleles within a crop species. This collection process is carried out by various agencies and includes exploration and procurement from individuals, organizations, and other institutions.

Plant exploration is a systematic effort to collect cultivated varieties, such as landraces, open-pollinated varieties, wild types, and wild relatives. The collected germplasm serves as the primary source of genetic diversity, which is then stored in gene banks. It is a crucial method for conserving threatened genetic resources, ensuring their availability for future breeding and research programs. Germplasm is obtained through conservation agencies, private individuals, and commercial companies specializing in plant genetic resources.

Germplasm Conservation

Germplasm conservation is an essential strategy for preserving the genetic traits of endangered and commercially valuable plant species. It acts as a living reservoir of genetic information, ensuring that valuable traits can be maintained and utilized for future breeding efforts. Germplasm can be conserved using two main approaches:

1. *In-situ* Germplasm Conservation

In-situ conservation involves preserving germplasm in its natural habitat or the area where it naturally grows. This method protects species from human interference and maintains their evolutionary potential in natural ecosystems. Examples include:

- National parks
- Biosphere reserves
- Gene sanctuaries

2. *Ex-situ* Germplasm Conservation

Ex-situ conservation refers to preserving germplasm outside its natural habitat under controlled conditions. This method ensures the long-term storage and protection of genetic resources. Common *Ex-situ* conservation techniques include:

- Seed gene banks – Storage of seeds at low temperatures to maintain viability.
- Field gene banks – Living collections of plants maintained in designated fields.
- Shoot tip gene banks – Preservation of shoot tips through *In-vitro* culture.
- Cell or organ gene banks – Storage of specific plant tissues, such as pollen or embryos.
- DNA gene banks – Storage of genetic material at the molecular level for research and breeding programs.

Germplasm evaluation:

Germplasm evaluation involves the detailed agronomic assessment of genetic material stored in a gene bank, focusing on traits that are crucial for breeders and researchers involved in crop improvement. Typically, gene bank managers, breeders, and other experts work together to establish a set of key traits that help describe the genetic diversity within a species. The purpose of germplasm evaluation is to assess the potential of an accession in terms of its agronomic performance, including quality parameters, as well as its ability to withstand various abiotic (environmental) and biotic (pest and disease) stresses. Evaluating germplasm resources is essential for identifying the most suitable genetic material with specific traits for future breeding and utilization. Genetic resources are critical for enhancing agricultural productivity, but their conservation is only valuable if they are recognized for their potential. This recognition comes through thorough evaluation, which identifies the most critical genetic traits. Evaluation should be carried out on well-characterized germplasm accessions with sufficient planting material. It's important to use standardized and calibrated measuring techniques to ensure reliable results. Germplasm evaluation is a multi-disciplinary process, involving collaboration between a variety of experts, including germplasm curators, plant breeders, physiologists, pathologists, entomologists, and biochemists. This approach ensures that the genetic resources are effectively utilized for crop improvement.

Germplasm Cataloguing, data storage, and retrieval:

Information on the species and variety names, place of origin, adaptation, and on its various feature or descriptors is also recorded in the germplasm maintenance records. Catalogues of the germplasm collection for various crops are published by the gene banks.

Multiplication and distribution:

Germplasm accessions requested by breeders and researchers are typically multiplied and supplied to farmers, usually at no cost. However, only a limited quantity of seeds from active collections is provided to each researcher or breeder. This is a crucial function of gene banks, as it serves the primary purpose for which they were established – to ensure the availability of genetic material for breeding and research purposes. By providing access to these genetic resources, gene banks play an essential role in enhancing crop improvement and agricultural productivity.

Utilization:

Utilization involves the employment of conserved germplasm in research and improvement programs and can be utilized in various paths mainly in three forms such as;

- As a new variety of crop
- As a sample in the hybridization of plants
- As a genetic variant allele in crop improvement

Germplasm Conservation methods

***In-situ* Conservation**

In-situ conservation of agricultural biodiversity involves maintaining the diversity present within populations of species used directly in agriculture or as sources of genes, within the habitats where such diversity originated and continues to grow. This form of conservation focuses on preserving variable populations in their natural or farming environments, within the communities they are part of, while allowing the natural evolutionary processes to occur.

For crop resources, *In-situ* conservation specifically refers to the continued cultivation of crop genetic resources in the farming systems where they evolved. On-farm conservation is a subset of *In-situ* conservation, which involves the sustainable management of genetic diversity of locally developed traditional crop varieties, along with associated wild and weedy species or forms, by farmers within traditional agricultural, horticultural, or agri-silvicultural cultivation systems.

This conservation approach is dynamic, allowing ongoing evolutionary processes, as opposed to the more static nature of *Ex-situ* conservation, where genetic resources are preserved outside their natural environments. The key reason for preferring *In-situ* conservation is its ability to maintain the evolutionary potential of species and populations. However, human activities can sometimes cause habitat destruction and biodiversity loss, making it necessary to complement *In-situ* conservation efforts with *Ex-situ* conservation strategies to ensure long-term preservation of agricultural biodiversity.

Biosphere Reserves/Protected Areas:

In general, the biodiversity at the species and ecosystem level can only be conserved through *In-situ* conservation. Various types of protected or semiprotected areas that are identified to be rich in diversity of ecosystems and/or species are used in this method. Conservation of wild species crop relatives in genetic reserves involves the location, designation, management, and monitoring of genetic diversity in a particular, natural location. However, it must be remembered that genetic reserves are often not very accessible for use. Additionally, the monitoring and management may not be optimal due to the difficult conditions under which these need to be performed. For the same reason,

evaluation may be limited. The reserves are also vulnerable to natural and human-made disasters.

On-Farm and Home Garden Conservation

Common crop varieties, such as landraces, are maintained by farmers within traditional farming systems and are a key component of *In-situ* conservation. Landraces are typically sown, harvested, and a portion of the seed is saved by the farmer for replanting in the following seasons. In this context, it is the farmer who plays a vital role in conserving the germplasm, whether intentionally or unintentionally. The conservationist's role is more observational, monitoring the process but not directly involved in the actual conservation of these varieties. While the preservation of landraces through this traditional farming practice is beneficial, it also carries certain risks. One significant risk is that farmers might switch from growing landraces to adopting modern cultivars, which are often more commercially viable or higher yielding. This shift can result in the loss of valuable genetic diversity and the disappearance of landraces, thus reducing an important resource for future agricultural needs. Therefore, while this method of conservation is effective in maintaining crop diversity in the short term, it also highlights the need for active strategies to ensure the long-term preservation of landraces and other valuable genetic resources.

Advantages and Disadvantages of *In-situ* Conservation

Advantages

- Each preserved area will contain a small portion of whole diversity i.e., a small portion of the total diversity. So, it requires the preservation of a large number of areas for the conservation of the whole genetic pool.
- The maintenance and management of all these areas also require labor and present problems.
- This is the most expensive method for the conservation of germplasm.

Disadvantages

- Some uncontrolled factors can cause a decrease in the population, such as climate change, diseases, etc.
- Endangered habitats can be fragmented, so the area may not be large enough for the species to exist.

***Ex-situ* Conservation**

The conservation of components of biological diversity outside their natural habitats. This is also referred to as offsite conservation which employs the conservation of

species outside their natural habitat or system. In this method, the genetic information of the plant is preserved in form of banks which may be either seed or gene bank or in the form of cultures to increase their half-life so that they can be used for a long period inefficiently. The class of preservation technique results in the formation of collection or bank of genes, DNA, seeds, and germplasm forming a genetic library in the form of gardens. This will lead to the creation of a good option for the conservation of species that are thought to be endangered or near the extent of it, which are primitive and in turn, are much valuable for use in industry for commercial purposes. It includes certain techniques such as cryopreservation and other genetic transfer approaches for the eradication of diseases, pest and stress control, and lastly conservation of endangered species in the long run. It is almost similar to that of in-vitro methodological practice.

Types

Seed Gene Bank

Seed storage conservation is an effective and reproducible technique for preserving genetic resources. The process involves drying seeds to an optimal lower moisture content and storing them at low temperatures. This method is widely applied to orthodox seed species, which can withstand drying and low temperatures. Proper storage conditions, combined with regular seed grow-outs, can significantly increase the longevity of seeds and maintain their viability for many years.

For various crop species, guidelines on proper seed handling and storage are available from organizations like Bioversity International and the FAO (Food and Agriculture Organization). These guidelines ensure that seeds are stored in ways that maximize their shelf life and germination potential. In addition to traditional seed storage methods, research is underway to explore alternative storage techniques. These include imbibed storage (storing seeds after they have absorbed water), cryopreservation (storing seeds in liquid nitrogen at temperatures below -196°C), and ultra-dry seed storage. These innovative methods aim to further extend the longevity and viability of seeds, particularly for species with more sensitive storage requirements.

Orthodox Seed

Orthodox seeds, which can be dried to a moisture content of 5% or lower, are capable of surviving extreme freezing or drying conditions without suffering cell injury. These seeds are highly resilient and have a much longer lifespan compared to other types of seeds. Over 90% of plant species produce orthodox seeds, including most food grains and legumes. This characteristic makes them ideal for *Ex-situ* conservation, as they can be

stored for extended periods in seed banks, even under extreme conditions like freezing or desiccation. Examples of plants with orthodox seeds include Guava, Capsicum (bell peppers), Sapota (chiku), Dates, Cashews, and Key lime. The ability of these seeds to endure desiccation and freezing without compromising their viability makes their conservation relatively straightforward and effective. As a result, these seeds can be stored for long periods and regenerated when needed, providing a reliable means of preserving genetic diversity.

Recalcitrant Seed:

Recalcitrant seeds are the seeds that will not survive during drying and freezing in *Ex-situ* conservation. They cannot be stored for long periods like orthodox seeds because they do lose their viability. Typically, recalcitrant seeds are very large in size. These seeds cannot survive drying below 20-30% relative moisture content without any injury. They are also known as desiccation-sensitive seeds.

Cryopreservation

The term cryopreservation originates from two Greek words: "kryos," meaning ice, and "preservation," which refers to the process of storing or prolonging the life of something. This technique involves freezing or maintaining cells and tissues at extremely low temperatures using deep freezers, nitrogen gas vapors at -160°C, or carbon dioxide at -79°C. The temperature in liquid nitrogen typically ranges from -170°C to -197°C.

The cryopreservation process consists of four key steps:

1. **Freezing**: Biological material, such as plant tissues (meristem, stem, ovules, anthers, embryos, endosperm, cells, leaves), is carefully frozen to prevent the formation of ice crystals, which can damage the cells.
2. **Storage**: The material is stored at ultra-low temperatures, typically in liquid nitrogen, where metabolic processes are halted, preserving the material in a dormant state.
3. **Thawing**: The stored material is slowly warmed to bring it back to usable conditions.
4. **Re-culturing**: After thawing, the material is cultured in optimal conditions to allow for growth or regeneration, if necessary.

Cryopreservation enables long-term storage of plant genetic material, preserving the species' diversity for future use in breeding, research, or conservation.

Advantages:

- The health of individuals can be monitored and medical assistance given as required » Populations can be more effectively managed and divided if disaster strikes
- The genetic diversity of the population can be measured » Selective breeding programs can be put into place
- Modern reproductive technology can increase the chances of reproductive success
- Research into the reproductive physiology, lifestyle, and ecology of an endangered species is made easier

Disadvantages:

- Plants can be exposed to a wide range of different diseases
- The organisms are living outside their natural habitat
- Nutritional issues may arise
- Expensive to maintain

Importance of Germplasm conservation

- Germplasm in a broad way can be defined as the hereditary material i.e. total content of genes that is inherited by the offspring through germ cells.
- Breeders use germplasm as their starting point when creating different crops. Therefore, maintaining genetic diversity is crucial to all breeding projects.
- In other words, it may be regarded as conventional germplasm preservation and management, which is highly precious in breeding programs.
- The main objective of germplasm conservation is to preserve the genetic diversity of selected plants or genetic stock for its utilization at any time in the future.
- Numerous novel plant species with desired and enhanced traits have recently displaced the ancient and routinely used agricultural plants.
- It is very crucial to conserve the endangered plants otherwise some of the important genetic traits possessed by the primitive plants may be lost.

Role of Organization in Germplasm Conservation

Old IPGRI (International Plant Genetic Resources Institute) and NBPGR (National Bureau of Plant Genetic Resources)

The International Plant Genetic Resources Institute (IPGRI), now part of the Biodiversity International, is an international scientific organization that focuses on the gathering, conservation, and exchange of plant genetic resources. This organization is governed by the CGIAR (Consultative Group on International Agricultural Research) and other advisory bodies. It is crucial in promoting the collection, documentation, and

utilization of plant germplasm for agricultural purposes. One of its major functions is conducting and organizing research on plant genetic resources. It also plays an important role in organizing short-term courses for the collection, conservation, and evaluation of these resources, benefiting global efforts in safeguarding crop diversity and enhancing agricultural productivity.

In India, the National Bureau of Plant Genetic Resources (NBPGR), which was founded in 1976 by the Indian Council of Agricultural Research (ICAR), serves as the principal institution for the collection, conservation, documentation, and utilization of plant germplasm. It has a rich history, dating back to 1946 when Dr. H.B. Singh introduced plant genetic resources into the country. NBPGR helps facilitate the import and export of plant genetic resources, which is essential for both research and agricultural development. It is also involved in organizing training programs on the conservation and utilization of crop genetic resources.

Conclusion and Future Prospects

Germplasm conservation is a vital component of agricultural production. It provides the genetic foundation necessary for breeding programs that aim to develop crop varieties with desirable traits. These varieties are crucial for feeding the growing global population, supporting fuel and health sectors, and ensuring food security. The availability of genetic variation within and between species enables breeders to identify superior genotypes for new varieties or for hybridization programs, essential for heterosis and the creation of transgressive segregants. Innovative methods like *In-vitro* culture, cryopreservation, and the use of molecular markers are enhancing the survival and management of plant germplasm. These methods provide valuable alternatives for preserving genetic diversity and managing genetic resources. For the full potential of cryopreservation to be realized, adjustments in gene bank protocols are required. Moreover, there is a pressing need for more robust data handling systems to manage the collection, recovery, and sequencing of plant genetic material. Given the importance of germplasm in breeding programs, the collection and storage of plant genetic materials have become even more critical. With the increasing risks of extinction for many plant species, it is essential that scientists and conservationists collaborate to improve conservation strategies. These efforts are crucial for ensuring the long-term sustainability of agricultural production and securing global food supplies.

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POLYPLOIDY BREEDING

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Abstract:

Polyploidy breeding is a significant technique in plant improvement, involving the manipulation of chromosome numbers to enhance desirable traits such as vigor, yield, and stress tolerance. Polyploids, which possess three or more complete sets of chromosomes, are widespread in both natural and cultivated plant species. The process of polyploidization contributes to genetic variation, speciation, and the development of superior crop varieties with improved adaptability and resilience. Polyploid breeding can be categorized into autopolyploidy, where multiple sets of chromosomes originate from a single species, and allopolyploidy, which involves hybridization between different species. Induced polyploidy, commonly achieved through chemical agents like colchicine, has been widely utilized to develop new cultivars with enhanced agronomic characteristics. Additionally, aneuploidy, a condition where chromosome numbers deviate from complete sets, plays a crucial role in genetic studies and crop improvement. Despite its benefits, polyploidy breeding faces challenges such as reduced fertility, complex genetic segregation, and difficulties in selection. However, advancements in molecular cytogenetics and biotechnology are paving the way for more efficient utilization of polyploidy in crop breeding programs.

Keywords: Polyploidy, Autopolyploidy, Allopolyploidy, Chromosome Doubling, Aneuploidy, Colchicine, Genetic Improvement, Crop Breeding.

Introduction:

Polyploids are organisms that possess three or more complete sets of chromosomes. Polyploidization is a fundamental mechanism of speciation, prevalent in both plants and animals. It facilitates genetic exchange across species, enhances species diversity, and contributes to the formation of fertile polyploids, laying the foundation for polyploidy breeding. The study of polyploids has profound theoretical significance and practical applications, leading to substantial societal and economic benefits.

Polyploidy has played a critical role in shaping the evolution of numerous species, contributing to their persistence and adaptability. It is responsible for the emergence of species with enhanced size, vigor, disease resistance, and increased genetic diversity. In plants, polyploidy is a major evolutionary force, influencing their genetic structure and ecological success.

Polyploids exhibit three well-established advantages. The first two—heterosis (hybrid vigor) and gene redundancy—result from gene duplication, while the third, asexual reproduction, has an uncertain mechanistic connection to polyploidy. Heterosis endows polyploids with greater vigor than their diploid ancestors, while gene redundancy provides protection against deleterious mutations.

A polyploid organism or individual possesses more than two basic (monoploid) sets of chromosomes, with polyploidy occurring in approximately 35–70% of angiosperms. Regardless of whether a species is diploid or polyploid, its somatic chromosome number is represented as 2n, and its gametic chromosome number as n. A haploid individual carries the gametic chromosome number (n), whereas a monoploid possesses the basic chromosome number (x). In diploid organisms, where n = x, a genome consists of one set of x chromosomes. Chromosomes within a single genome vary in morphology, gene content, and homology and do not show preferential pairing among themselves. Consequently, diploid species contain two genomes, triploids have three, tetraploids have four, and so forth.

Heteroploids are individuals with chromosome numbers that deviate from the diploid state (2x, rather than 2n), a condition referred to as heteroploidy. When heteroploidy involves the gain or loss of individual chromosomes rather than entire genome sets, it is known as aneuploidy. Aneuploid changes are assessed relative to the species' somatic chromosome number (2n), whereas euploidy involves alterations in whole genome sets. By definition, euploid changes are multiples of the basic chromosome number, whereas aneuploid changes are not.

Aneuploids can be classified into various types based on chromosomal loss or gain. Nullisomics lack an entire chromosome pair (2n–2), whereas monosomics are deficient in a single chromosome (2n–1). A double monosomic individual lacks two different chromosomes from separate chromosome pairs (2n–1–1). Conversely, trisomics possess an extra chromosome (2n+1), while double trisomics carry two additional chromosomes from

separate chromosome pairs (2n+1+1). Tetrasomics, on the other hand, have an extra chromosome pair (2n+2).

The concept of polyploidy encompasses these variations, with euploids having chromosome numbers that are exact multiples of the basic genome number of a species. In autopolyploids, all genomes are identical, whereas in allopolyploids, two or more distinct genomes coexist. Euploids may possess somatic chromosome numbers corresponding to three (triploid), four (tetraploid), five (pentaploid), six (hexaploid), seven (heptaploid), eight (octaploid), or more genomes. In the case of autopolyploidy, these are termed autotriploids, autotetraploids, etc., whereas in allopolyploids, they are referred to as allotriploids, allotetraploids, and so on.

An amphidiploid is a type of allopolyploid that undergoes normal meiosis, functioning as a diploid due to possessing two copies of each gene. A segmental allopolyploid, on the other hand, consists of two or more genomes that are only slightly different from each other.

Polyploid breeding continues to be an essential tool in crop improvement, enabling the development of high-yielding, stress-resistant, and genetically diverse cultivars. Advances in molecular cytogenetics and genome manipulation technologies are further enhancing the potential of polyploidy in plant breeding and evolutionary studies.

Features of Polyploids

1. Polyploid cells are generally larger than their diploid counterparts.
2. Polyploids possess larger guard cells and a reduced number of stomata compared to diploids.
3. Their fruits and flowers tend to be softer, while their leaves are typically larger and thicker.
4. They exhibit the gigas effect, characterized by increased cell and organ size.

Types of Polyploidy

Based on origin

i. **Natural Polyploidy:** Occurs due to mutations in the genes responsible for spindle protein formation during cell division or through the production of unreduced gametes.

ii. **Induced Polyploidy:** Achieved using chemicals like colchicine, acenaphthene, chloral hydrate, sulphanilamide, ethylmercury chloride, colchamine, oryzalin, and

trifluralin (at concentrations of 0.01–0.5%), which disrupt spindle fiber formation during cell division, leading to chromosome doubling.

Based On Genome Content

i. **Autopolyploidy:** When an organism possesses more than two complete sets of chromosomes derived from a single genome, it is referred to as autopolyploidy, also known as autoploidy.

ii. **Allopolyploidy:** When an organism inherits two or more distinct genomes from different parental species in its evolutionary lineage, it is termed allopolyploidy, also called alloploidy.

iii. **Aneuploidy:** A condition where the chromosome number deviates from the typical euploid set by the addition or loss of specific chromosomes.

Among the most commonly studied aneuploids in genetic research are:

- **Trisomics:** Found in diploid species such as *Datura, maize, pearl millet, tomato, rye, pea, and spinach*.
- **Monosomics:** More commonly observed in polyploid species like *tobacco, wheat, and oats*.

Origin and Production

Here's a paraphrased version of your content:

1. **Spontaneous Aneuploidy** – Aneuploid individuals arise naturally but at a low frequency. The formation of gametes with an extra chromosome (n+1) or a missing chromosome (n-1) results from errors during meiosis.
2. **Autotriploid Plants** – Aneuploid variations are commonly found in progeny derived from autotriploid plants. Due to the irregular segregation of chromosomes during the first meiotic anaphase, triploids generate a diverse array of aneuploids.
3. **Asynaptic and Desynaptic Mutants** – In certain mutants, chromosomes appear as univalents at metaphase I of meiosis, leading to faulty segregation. Such mutations significantly increase the frequency of aneuploid individuals in the next generation.
4. **Translocation Heterozygotes** – When a translocation heterozygote undergoes meiosis, an uneven 3:1 chromosome disjunction in the characteristic ring or chain of four chromosomes results in n+1 and n-1 gametes. This process contributes to varying frequencies of aneuploids in the offspring.
5. **Tetrasomic Plants** – Plants with an extra pair of homologous chromosomes (2n+2) frequently produce n+1 gametes, increasing the likelihood of trisomic offspring. The

maintenance of tetrasomics can be strategically used to facilitate the production of trisomics.

Morphological and Cytological Features

1. Generally, diploid individuals exhibit greater vigor and stability compared to aneuploids.
2. Some polyploid species, such as tobacco, do not contain nullisomics, whereas diploid species lack monosomics.
3. In monosomics, a single unpaired chromosome remains as a univalent at metaphase I. During anaphase I, the univalent may either divide, lag behind and be lost, or migrate to one of the poles. Alternatively, its chromatids may separate and move to opposite poles.
4. Nullisomic individuals typically generate gametes with n-1 chromosomes due to normal bivalent formation and chromosome segregation.
5. In trisomics, the extra chromosome may remain as a univalent or, more commonly, pair with the two homologous chromosomes to form a trivalent.
6. Tetrasomics exhibit less consistent chromosomal behavior. At metaphase I, they usually form a quadrivalent, which often segregates in a 2:2 pattern during anaphase I.

Application of aneuploids in crop improvement

1. Anaeuploids are helpful in research on how an individual's phenotype is affected by the loss or gain of a single chromosome, chromosomal arm, or both.
2. Anaeuploids are helpful in identifying the gene and linkage group associated with a specific chromosome. A gene can be found on one of a chromosome's two arms, or even on a specific portion of the arm, by employing a secondary or tertiary trisomic.
3. Aneuploid research has demonstrated the homology of the wheat genomes A, B, and D.
4. Aneuploid individuals can be helpful in determining the chromosomes connected to translocations.
5. They are helpful in creating substitution lines.

Autopolyploids

Chromosome doubling can either directly or indirectly cause autopolyplods.

Origin and production of doubled chromosome numbers:

- **Spontaneous Occurrence**: Chromosomal doubling occasionally takes place in somatic tissues, while the formation of unreduced gametes is a rare event.
- **Adventitious Bud Formation**: In some plants, decapitation triggers callus formation at the cut ends of the stem. This callus contains polyploid cells, and some regenerated shoot buds may also exhibit polyploidy. In the Solanaceae family, about 3–6% of adventitious buds are tetraploid.
- **Exposure to Physical Agents**: Polyploidy can be induced through centrifugation, temperature fluctuations (heat or cold), and exposure to radiation such as X-rays or gamma rays. In maize, subjecting plants or ears to temperatures between 38–45°C during the early stages of zygotic division results in 2–5% tetraploid progeny.
- ***In-vitro* Regeneration:** Polyploidy frequently occurs in cells cultured *In-vitro*, making it a common characteristic of tissue culture.
- **Colchicine Treatment**: The most widely used and effective technique for chromosome doubling involves colchicine treatment, which is commonly employed to induce higher ploidy levels, including triploidy, tetraploidy, and autopolyploidy.

Morphological and cytological features of autopolyploids:

The general features are summarised below:

- Polyploid cells are generally larger in size than diploid cells. Additionally, polyploids have fewer stomata per unit area but possess larger guard cells compared to diploids.
- Polyploid pollen grains tend to be larger than those found in diploid plants.
- Polyploid plants typically exhibit delayed flowering and slower growth rates.
- Compared to diploids, polyploids usually have fewer but larger and thicker leaves, as well as bigger flowers and fruits.
- Fertility in polyploids is often reduced due to meiotic irregularities and genotypic imbalances, which lead to physiological complications.
- Autopolyploidy generally enhances vegetative growth and overall vigor.
- The optimal ploidy level varies across species; for instance, sugar beet thrives best at 3x, sweet potatoes at 6x, and timothy grass at 8–10x.
- Autopolyploids typically have a lower dry matter content compared to their diploid counterparts.

Application of autopolyploidy in crop improvement

Triploids

The hybridization of diploid (2x) and tetraploid (4x) strains results in triploids (3x), which are generally highly sterile, with only a few exceptions. This sterility is particularly useful for producing seedless fruits, such as watermelons. In certain species like sugar beets, triploids may demonstrate greater vigor compared to diploids. A well-known application of triploidy is in the cultivation of seedless watermelons. Since the reciprocal cross (2x × 4x) is ineffective, seedless watermelons are developed by using tetraploid plants (4x) as the female parent and diploid plants (2x) as the male parent. Approximately 80% of the seeds formed in triploid watermelons are small, white, and underdeveloped, resembling cucumber (Cucumis sativus) seeds, though they are not true seeds. Occasionally, a few normal-sized seeds may appear, but they are usually empty. Successful fruit development in triploid watermelons requires pollination, which is why diploid plants are interspersed with triploid plants in a 1:5 ratio (one diploid for every five triploids). However, several challenges are associated with triploid seed production, including the labor-intensive process of generating triploid seeds, the genetic instability of tetraploid lines, irregular fruit shape, a tendency for hollow fruit formation, and the occurrence of empty seeds.

1. **Triploid sugar beets:** Because triploid sugar beet plants have longer roots than diploid plants and produce more sugar per unit area, it appears that they represent the ideal amount of polyploidy among root crops.
2. **Tetraploid rye:** Tetraploids have a larger kernel size, a greater protein content, and a better ability to emerge from harsh conditions than their diploid counterparts. Rye cultivars that are tetraploid have been made available for use. For example, Tetra Petkus and Double Steel.

Limitations of autopolyploidy:

- Compared to diploids, larger autopolyploids generally produce lower dry matter content and have a higher water content.
- Autopolyploids exhibit high sterility and poor seed set.
- The selection process is slow due to complex genetic segregation.
- Monoploids and triploids can only be maintained through clonal propagation.
- The development of new varieties is restricted and cannot be done arbitrarily.

- The effects of autopolyploidy are unpredictable and vary among species.

Allopolyploidy:

The genomes of two or more species are seen in allopolyploids. The generation of new species has nearly always been the goal of allopolyploid production, which has garnered significant attention. The emergence of triticale has demonstrated some degree of success. Raphano brassica and pasture grass allopolyploids.

Origin and Production of Allopolyploids

1. In F1 hybrids between two separate species that belong to the same genus or different genera, chromosomal doubling results in allopolyploids.
2. Unreduced gametes are occasionally produced in numerous other distant hybrids, and these gametes combine to produce allopolyploid progeny.
3. Synthetic allopolyploids, which are produced experimentally by doubling the number of chromosomes in species hybrids with the aid of colchicines or another agent, are known as allopolyploids.

Morphological and cytological features of allopolyploids

1. Although it is exceedingly impossible to foresee the exact combination of qualities that would occur in the new species, allopolyploids blend the morphological and physiological traits of the parent species.
2. A lot of allopolyploids, like Solanum and Tulips, are apomictic.
3. The degree of similarity between the chromosomes of the parent species determines how the chromosomes pair in the offspring species. Homoeologous chromosomes are those that have such characteristics with one another. Similar to the diploid species, the allopolyploid would have two homelegous chromosomes for each chromosome found in the F1 hybrid following chromosome doubling. This type of allopolyploid is called allotetraploid or amphidiploid.
4. Hybridization and selection can increase the fertility of allopolyploids.

Application of allopolyploidy in crop improvement:

- **Amphidiploids as Bridging Species:** Amphidiploids serve as a genetic bridge between wild and cultivated species, enabling the transfer of desirable traits. One example is the transfer of tobacco mosaic virus resistance from *Nicotiana glutinosa* to *N. tabacum* through synthetic amphidiploids. The initial cross (*N. tabacum* × *N. glutinosa*) results in a sterile F1 hybrid. However, chromosome doubling of this hybrid produces the synthetic allohexaploid *N. digluta*, which exhibits partial

fertility. Backcrossing *N. digluta* with *N. tabacum* generates a pentaploid carrying genetic material from *N. glutinosa* while retaining the full somatic chromosome set of *N. tabacum*. This pentaploid, with sufficient fertility, can be further backcrossed to *N. tabacum* to incorporate virus resistance. Selected plants resistant to tobacco mosaic virus undergo cytological evaluation.

- **Development of New Crop Species:** Amphidiploidy has played a key role in creating new crops, such as triticale (*Triticum × Secale*) and *Raphanobrassica* (a cross between radish and cabbage).
- **Enhancing the Genetic Base of Existing Allopolyploids:** Some naturally occurring allopolyploids have a restricted genetic pool. To increase genetic variation, these allopolyploids can be re-created from their parental species. For instance, *Brassica napus* (n=19, AACC) has limited genetic diversity. Its genetic base can be expanded by hybridizing its diploid progenitors, *B. oleracea* (n=9, CC) and *B. campestris* (n=10, AA), to generate a new *B. napus* amphidiploid. This cross is difficult due to the need for embryo culture, so somatic hybridization is an alternative approach.

Limitations of Allopolyploidy

1. Allopolyploidy has unpredictable effects. Some characteristics of both parental species are present in the allopolyploids, albeit these characteristics may be unwanted (like in Raphanobrassica) or beneficial (like in Triticale).
2. Allopolyploids that are recently synthesized exhibit numerous abnormalities, such as low fertility, cytogenetic and genetic instability, and other undesired characteristics.
3. Extensive breeding at the polyploidy level is required to develop the synthetic allopolyploids. Significant time, labor, and other resources are needed for this.
4. Of allopolyploids, only a small percentage show promise; the great majority have no use in agriculture.

Polyploidy in Vegetables Cabbage

Tetraploid varieties of *Ladoza* and *Langendijk Winter* exhibited germination rates similar to their diploid counterparts. However, they produced significantly fewer and smaller heads, had lower ascorbic acid content, and were more prone to splitting. In contrast, several triploid hybrids, obtained by crossing diploid and tetraploid forms of the same cultivar, outperformed diploids in both yield and quality.

To optimize polyploid induction, colchicine and colchamine were tested at varying concentrations and treatment durations. It was found that colchamine required higher concentrations than colchicine for effective chromosome doubling.

Brussels sprouts

Colchicine application to haploid plants resulted in diploid flower formation and seed production following self-pollination. After vernalization, 38.1% of the treated plants doubled their chromosome number, and 13.8% produced seeds when colchicine was administered via injection or external application at two dose rates. When 0.05% colchicine was injected into plant apices at different points during vernalization, 71.2% of the plants doubled, and 50.7% successfully set seed.

Pea (*Pisum sativum*)

Tetraploids were induced at a frequency of 15–20% by treating 1.5–2 cm seedlings with 0.025% colchicine for four hours. Large-seeded cultivars (*T163* and *68C*) exhibited a higher frequency of tetraploidy than small-seeded cultivars (*5064S* and *PI280064*). Tetraploids displayed larger stomata, flowers, and seeds, along with decreased stomatal frequency, reduced pod length, delayed flowering and maturity, and increased pod breadth. Pollen and ovule sterility in diploid colchicine-treated plants ranged from 16–56% and 7–56%, respectively, without noticeable chromosomal abnormalities.

Watermelon (*Citrullus lanatus*)

Triploid (3X) hybrid watermelons, first developed by Kihara and Nishiyama in 1939, are a key example of colchicine-induced polyploidy used to produce seedless fruit. Triploid hybrids had significantly higher and more consistent sweetness levels than diploids. Colchicine-treated explants (cotyledon, seed embryo end, epicotyl, and hypocotyl) cultured on Murashige and Skoog (MS) medium with 1 mg L^{-1} benzylaminopurine (BA) resulted in optimal shoot proliferation when 0.01% colchicine was applied for four days. Tetraploids exhibited increased DNA content (4.41 μg mL^{-1}) compared to diploids (2.18 μg mL^{-1}) and developed larger fruits, seeds, flowers, and leaves. Triploid plants produced a mix of large and small pollen grains but failed to set fruit due to low pollen viability.

Muskmelon (*Cucumis melo*)

Weekly spraying of muskmelon seedlings with colchicine (0.1–100 ppm) suppressed staminate flower development while promoting the differentiation of hermaphrodite flowers at lower nodes. Colchicine-induced tetraploid (*4X = 48*) plants in the *Delta Gold* variety had smaller but higher-quality fruits containing viable seeds.

Onion (*Allium cepa*)

Colchicine treatment of reciprocal *Allium cepa × A. fistulosum* crosses resulted in C_2 populations with strong seedling vigor and winter hardiness. Optimal chromosome doubling was achieved by treating root meristem cells with 0.05–0.1% colchicine for 10–16 hours, producing autopolyploids at a rate of 40.6% and tetraploids at 12.4%.

Garlic (*Allium sativum*)

The herbicide trifluralin was tested for chromosomal doubling in garlic. Callus cultures initiated on MS medium with trifluralin-induced chromosome number variations. Higher concentrations and prolonged exposure reduced survival rates.

Radish (*Raphanus sativus*)

Increased colchicine concentration and exposure time significantly reduced mean chromocentre frequency. At 0.3% colchicine, chromocentres were undetectable.

Bitter Gourd (*Momordica charantia*)

A colchicine-treated diploid bitter gourd plant developed a basal branch with high pollen sterility, irregularly sized leaves, flowers, stomata, and pollen, along with a tetraploid chromosome count.

Cucumber (*Cucumis sativus*)

Colchicine-induced autotetraploidy in a parthenocarpic cucumber variety initially led to higher yields than diploids. However, reduced self-fertility in autotetraploids resulted in triploid offspring upon crossing with diploids. Triploids exhibited self-sterility.

French Bean (*Phaseolus vulgaris* & *P. coccineus*)

Autotetraploids ($2n = 44$) were induced in *Phaseolus* species by applying 0.1–0.2% colchicine solutions to germinated seed meristems. Tetraploids grew more slowly, had hairier leaves, bloomed later, and produced larger flowers compared to diploids.

Conclusion:

Polyploidy is a common occurrence in vegetable crops, often resulting in larger leaves, flowers, and fruits. However, it can also lead to certain abnormalities. In many crops, tetraploidy has been associated with pollen sterility, making it difficult to maintain tetraploid seed lines. Compared to diploids and tetraploids, triploid watermelons are seedless and have a sweeter taste. Triploids can be produced by crossing diploid (*2X*) males with tetraploid (*4X*) females. Several chemicals, including colchicine, trifluralin, oryzalin, and colcemid, have been identified as effective in inducing polyploidy through

chromosome doubling. Colchicine, in particular, has been used in varying concentrations for this purpose. Polyploidy has been successfully induced in various vegetable crops, including cabbage, Brussels sprouts, peas, watermelon, muskmelon, onion, garlic, carrot, radish, cocoyam, pointed gourd, bitter gourd, snake gourd, cucumber, sweet potato, potato, tomato, bell pepper, eggplant, and French bean.

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REVERSE GENETIC APPROACHES FOR FUNCTIONAL GENOMICS AND ENHANCING CROP IMPROVEMENT

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Abstract:

With advancements in genomic technology, the shift from structural to functional genomics has become essential. This transition is facilitated by extensive mutant databases, emphasizing the critical role of mutagenesis in genetic research. Mutations serve as a valuable tool for generating genetic variability and studying gene functions. Analyzing mutants through forward and reverse genetic approaches provides a reliable alternative for identifying gene functions. Reverse genetics, a modern technique, follows a "gene-to-phenotype" approach, aiming to determine the phenotypic consequences of induced mutations. This method employs various tools, including homologous recombination, RNA interference (RNAi), insertional mutagenesis using T-DNA and transposons, as well as chemical mutagenesis (TILLING).

Keywords: Reverse Genetics, Functional Genomics, RNAi, TILLING, Homologous Recombination, Insertional Mutagenesis

Introduction:

By 2050, the global population is projected to increase by two billion, requiring a 56% rise in food production compared to 2010 (World Economic Forum). Recognizing this challenge, the United Nations has prioritized food security by setting the second Sustainable Development Goal (SDG-2): to end hunger, ensure food security, enhance nutrition, and promote sustainable agriculture by 2030. The UN Committee on Food Security defines food security as the physical, social, and economic access to safe, nutritious, and sufficient food for all people at all times to support an active and healthy life. Plant breeding plays a crucial role in meeting future food demands by utilizing genetic variation to develop improved crop varieties. Over the past 50 years, genetic advancements have significantly increased crop yields. However, intensive breeding has led to reduced genetic variability in major crops, limiting further genetic improvements. Conventional

breeding alone is insufficient to counteract this loss, necessitating the creation of new genetic variability for trait enhancement in breeding programs.

Mutagenesis is a powerful tool for generating genetic variability and studying gene function. Since the discovery in the 1920s that heritable mutations can be induced using physical or chemical treatments, mutation breeding has contributed significantly to crop improvement. Induced mutagenesis is widely used to develop new crop varieties with enhanced agronomic traits, resistance to biotic and abiotic stresses, and improved quality attributes. Given that spontaneous mutation rates in higher plants are low (ranging from 10^{-6} to 10^{-8}), controlled mutagenesis has emerged as an effective strategy to increase mutation frequency.

Mutants can be generated through classical forward genetics and modern reverse genetics approaches. Advances in genomic technologies, including microarrays and mass spectrometry, have enabled gene expression analysis. However, such correlative data alone are insufficient to define gene functions. The transition from structural to functional genomics is facilitated by comprehensive mutant databases, underscoring the importance of mutagenesis in genetic research. Forward genetics follows a "phenotype-to-gene" approach, identifying genes responsible for observable traits. While unbiased and effective for discovering novel genes, this method is labor-intensive and time-consuming, making it impractical for large-scale genome-wide studies.

Conversely, reverse genetics adopts a "gene-to-phenotype" strategy, beginning with a known gene and analyzing the phenotypic effects of its mutation or altered expression. This approach establishes a direct link between a gene's biochemical function and its role in vivo, making it a powerful tool for functional genomics. In the post-genomic era, reverse genetic techniques provide a systematic and efficient means to determine gene function using whole-genome sequences. By leveraging DNA sequence homology, these methods enable precise identification of gene functions and facilitate the analysis of redundant gene functions.

Given the significance of mutants in functional genomics and breeding programs, this chapter explores the tools and techniques of reverse genetics, emphasizing their role in understanding gene function and expanding genetic variability for crop improvement.

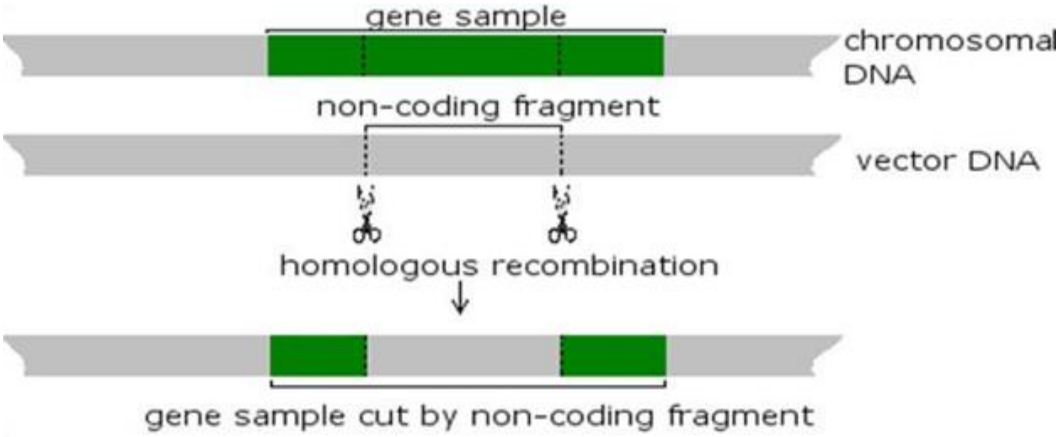
Tools and techniques to study reverse genetics

Gene Inactivation

Targeted gene inactivation is a widely used and powerful technique for studying gene function. The fundamental principle involves disrupting gene transcription, allowing researchers to compare the phenotype of a gene-inactivated organism with that of a non-mutated counterpart.

Homologous Recombination

Among various gene silencing methods, homologous recombination is a common approach for targeted gene inactivation. This technique involves introducing an artificial DNA fragment into the target gene, facilitating the exchange of homologous sequence fragments. A non-coding DNA segment from a vector is inserted into the chromosomal gene of interest, leading to its disruption and subsequent loss of function. The resulting chromosomal DNA contains the inactivated gene, preventing its expression and enabling the study of phenotypic consequences.



Typically, the vector used in homologous recombination carries a selective marker, allowing for the identification of recombinant organisms with the successfully disrupted gene. This approach provides a precise and effective means to investigate gene function by analyzing the resulting phenotypic changes.

Advantages:

- Allows for exact replacement or modification of the target gene.
- No off-target effects as it is highly specific to the target gene.
- Results in stable mutations.

Disadvantages:

- Requirement of huge populations of transformants.

- Very low efficiency.
- More time consuming.
- Low throughput.

To overcome these problems associated with homologous recombination, RNA interference (RNAi) technique causing posttranscriptional gene silencing by degradation of specific RNA is commonly used.

Gene Silencing by RNA Interference

RNA interference (RNAi), a nature's elegant regulation occurring in eukaryotic organisms is a "reverse genetics" tool used to knock down the targeted genes expression in plants and in other species. It is a broad term describing homology-dependent gene silencing phenomena including co suppression, post-transcriptional gene silencing (PTGS), and virus induced gene silencing (VIGS).

RNAi is a naturally occurring cellular defense system where double stranded RNA (dsRNA) molecules having variable sources of origin, ranging from viral replication intermediates, transcription of inverted repeats, stress induced overlapping antisense transcripts and RNA Directed RNA polymerase (RDR) transcription of aberrant transcripts, interfere with homologous alien RNA to fine-tune gene expression and subsequent protein production in a process called RNA interference (RNAi).

In plants, RNAi pathway can be activated with the use of artificial microRNAs (amiRNA). In this procedure, a 21 bp microRNA (miRNA) gene insert complementary to the target gene is transformed into the plant which on being processed in to small silencing RNA molecules by the Dicer targets endogenous transcript(s) for degradation. Whereas, the production of interfering RNAs using promoters that are spatially or temporally specific or that are inducible by some exogenous factors are involved in the modified version of this technique.

Advantages of RNAi

- Heritable in nature.
- Partial loss of function can be achieved.
- Screening of large populations is not required as silencing is directed against a specific gene(s).
- Transcripts of multiple genes can be silenced by a single construct.

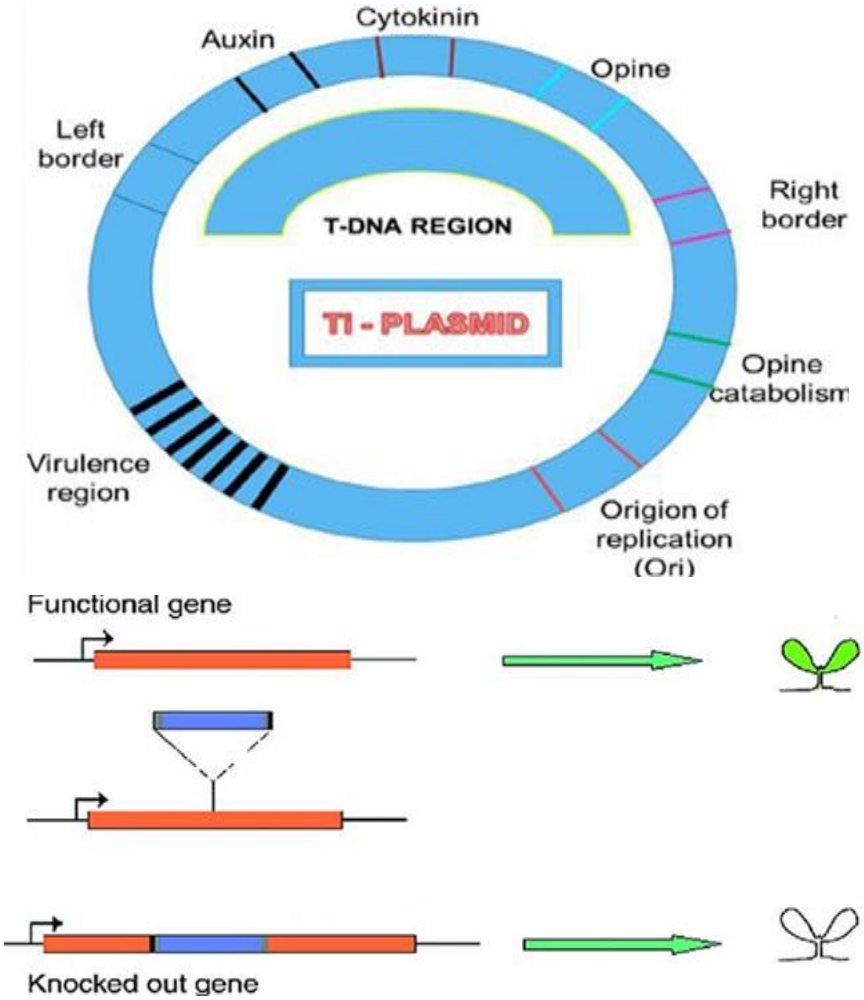
- Induced phenotypes are dominant, can be observed in T1 generation and the stable inheritance of the transgenic RNAi makes it a suitable technique for genetic engineering.

Disadvantages of RNAi

- Silencing level may vary and some genes are resistant to silencing.
- Expression is rarely completely silenced.
- Long-term expression levels are variable.
- Problem of 'Off-target' silencing as it is difficult to interpret.

Insertional mutagenesis

Insertional mutagenesis, utilizing T-DNA, transposons, or retrotransposons, is a powerful genetic tool for gene discovery. This approach enables the rapid generation of mutant libraries, facilitating the identification of disrupted genes.



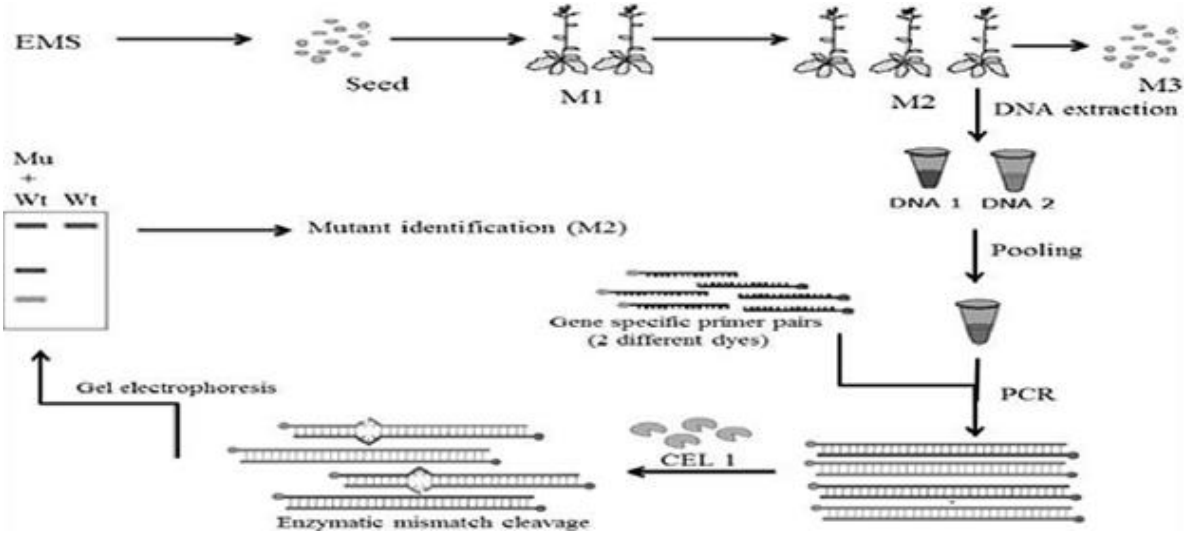
Transposons and the *T-DNA* of *Agrobacterium tumefaciens*—which can integrate randomly into plant chromosomes—serve as effective mutagens for creating *loss-of-function* mutations. These mutations allow for the straightforward identification of tagged

genes using polymerase chain reaction (PCR)-based techniques such as *Inverse PCR* or *Thermal Asymmetric Interlaced PCR (TAIL-PCR)*.

T DNA Mutagenesis

TRANSFER-DNA (T-DNA) is the segment of tumour-inducing (Ti) plasmid of Agrobacterium tumefaciens has been utilized for insertional mutagenesis as it carries genes to transform the plant cell by integrating randomly into the plant genome.

T-DNA causes disruption or activation of the gene of interest depending on the construct used. But the precise mechanism of T-DNA integration into the plant genome remains largely unknown.



Transposon Mutagenesis

Transposons are mobile genetic elements capable of relocating within the genome without requiring sequence homology with the target site. These elements can insert themselves at new genomic locations, thereby inducing mutations and contributing to genetic variability.

Chemical Mutagenesis

TILLING (Targeting Induced Local Lesions in Genomes) is a modern reverse genetics technique that leverages classical chemical mutagenesis, genomic sequencing databases, and high-throughput screening to identify nucleotide polymorphisms in target genes. This non-transgenic approach involves inducing mutations, forming heteroduplex DNA, and detecting single-nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) using mismatch-specific endonucleases like CelI. TILLING is particularly valuable in functional genomics for gene validation, especially in small-grain crops where transformation-based methods face significant limitations. Beyond functional genomics, TILLING serves as an alternative to

transgenic approaches for crop improvement, offering a legally viable method in regions where genetically modified organisms (GMOs) are restricted in agriculture.

Advantages:

- Heritable in nature.
- Can also be used in non-transformable species.
- Results in stable mutations.
- Can obtain complete loss-of-function.

Disadvantages:

- Needs a large mutant population.
- Relatively expensive.
- Low to medium throughput.

A New Age In Functional Genomics Using Genome Editing Tools

Many of the previously discussed mutagens induce random mutations across the genome, meaning that all genes have some probability of being altered. This randomness results in limited control over where mutations accumulate, often leading to non-specific gene knockdowns. However, recent advancements in genome editing and functionalization technologies have revolutionized gain- and loss-of-function studies by enabling precise genetic modifications.

Genome editing technologies, such as zinc finger nucleases (ZFNs) and transcription activator-like effector nucleases (TALENs), allow for targeted genetic alterations at specific genomic sites. However, due to their reliance on protein-DNA interactions for targeting, these approaches pose challenges in construct engineering, making large-scale gene targeting difficult.

A major breakthrough in this field is the development of clustered regularly interspaced short palindromic repeats (CRISPR)/Cas9 technology. This system enables precise gene editing, including point mutations and targeted deletions, with greater efficiency and ease of use compared to previous genome-editing tools.

Conclusion:

Reverse genetic tools have revolutionized functional genomics and crop improvement by enabling precise manipulation of gene expression to study gene function. Unlike forward genetics, which identifies genes responsible for a given phenotype, reverse genetics provides a systematic approach to understanding gene functions by targeting

specific genes and analyzing their phenotypic effects. Techniques such as homologous recombination, RNA interference (RNAi), insertional mutagenesis using T-DNA and transposons, and chemical mutagenesis (TILLING) have played a crucial role in generating targeted genetic variability. These approaches have facilitated the identification of key regulatory genes involved in plant growth, development, and stress responses. With the advent of genome editing technologies, particularly CRISPR-Cas9, reverse genetics has entered a new era of precision and efficiency. CRISPR-Cas9 has overcome the limitations of earlier methods by allowing targeted gene modifications with high specificity, enabling researchers to develop improved crop varieties with desirable traits. As global food demand continues to rise, the application of reverse genetic tools in plant breeding holds significant promise for sustainable agriculture by enhancing crop resilience, improving yield, and addressing biotic and abiotic stress challenges. Future research should focus on integrating these advanced genetic tools with high-throughput phenotyping and computational genomics to accelerate functional gene discovery and crop improvement programs. The combination of classical mutagenesis techniques with cutting-edge genome editing strategies will pave the way for a new generation of genetically enhanced crops, contributing to food security and agricultural sustainability.

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RNA INTERFERENCE (RNAi) TECHNOLOGY: A PROMISING TOOL FOR PLANT BREEDING

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Abstract:

Traditional plant breeding has successfully developed numerous agricultural crops with desirable traits. However, it remains a time-intensive process with inherent limitations, primarily constrained by the availability of genetic resources and the necessity of crossing closely related species. RNA interference (RNAi) technology offers a novel and promising approach to plant breeding by introducing small non-coding RNA sequences capable of selectively silencing gene expression in a sequence-specific manner. This targeted gene suppression facilitates the acquisition of novel traits by either eliminating undesirable characteristics or enhancing beneficial ones, leading to biochemical or phenotypic modifications not observed in non-transgenic plants. RNAi is an ancient evolutionary mechanism that plants have utilized as a defense strategy against foreign genetic elements. Today, this mechanism has been harnessed as a powerful tool for modifying plant traits. This chapter explores the applications of RNAi in developing plant traits that are challenging to achieve through conventional breeding. Additionally, it highlights the potential of integrating RNAi technology with traditional breeding techniques to address critical agricultural challenges, including abiotic stress, biotic stress, nutritional enhancement, allergen reduction, modification of secondary metabolites, and alteration of floral traits.

Keywords: Breeding, Gene silencing, Gene Suppression, miRNA, RNAi, Quality Traits

Introduction:

Plant Molecular Breeding and the Role of RNA Interference (RNAi) Technology

Plant molecular breeding has become a fundamental tool in modern agriculture, enabling the development of sustainable crop varieties to meet the demands of a growing global population. By leveraging molecular insights into trait loci and genetic markers, breeders can introduce desirable traits with greater precision and efficiency. Advances in modern breeding techniques have facilitated the transfer of quality traits between plant

species, significantly accelerating the breeding process and enhancing crop resilience against diseases and environmental stresses. While genetic mapping serves as a primary tool for identifying desirable traits in molecular breeding programs, gene functional studies and translational regulation play a crucial role in ensuring successful trait transfer between plant lines.

RNA interference (RNAi) technology provides a rapid and effective approach for studying gene function through targeted gene silencing. This sequence-specific mechanism enables researchers to suppress gene expression either fully or partially, in a controlled spatial and temporal manner, depending on the choice of promoters and construct design. The foundational knowledge of RNAi stems from extensive research conducted since the late 20th century, revolutionizing plant breeding and genomic studies. RNAi serves as a powerful tool for understanding gene expression patterns and regulating plant gene activity, contributing to pathogen control, enhanced resistance against biotic and abiotic stresses, and the development of improved crop varieties.

Gene silencing mechanisms have been characterized across various organisms, from bacteria to humans, all sharing a common function in reducing RNA transcript accumulation and promoting degradation. This phenomenon has been described under different names in various species: co-suppression in plants, quelling in fungi, and RNA interference (RNAi) in nematodes, all of which represent an evolutionarily conserved mechanism of post-transcriptional gene silencing (PTGS). The first documented case of gene silencing was observed unexpectedly in 1990 during transgenic petunia experiments aimed at enhancing flower pigmentation. Instead of producing more vibrant flowers, the transgenic petunias exhibited white flowers due to the suppression of both the endogenous and introduced pigment-coding genes. A similar phenomenon was later observed in the nematode *Caenorhabditis elegans*, where the introduction of antisense RNA strands successfully silenced endogenous gene expression. Surprisingly, both sense and antisense RNA strands were equally effective in suppressing gene activity.

Significant progress in understanding RNAi occurred in 1998 when researchers demonstrated that double-stranded RNA (dsRNA) could efficiently trigger gene silencing. Previously, dsRNA was believed to be too stable to interact with cellular transcripts. However, experimental findings revealed its potent gene-silencing effect, leading to the formal establishment of the term RNAi. This groundbreaking discovery earned Fire and

Mello the Nobel Prize in Physiology or Medicine in 2006. Subsequent RNAi research focused on its practical applications, with virologists utilizing the technology to enhance pathogen-derived resistance (PDR) in crops and plant physiologists exploring its potential for improving abiotic stress tolerance. The identification of natural small interfering RNA (siRNA) species further advanced RNAi research, integrating computational biology to predict and design artificial silencing triggers for commercially significant crops.

This chapter aims to present the current knowledge and applications of RNAi technology in plant breeding while highlighting its future potential. Beyond expanding the available genetic pool, RNAi technology offers an innovative means of integrating novel agricultural traits, enabling the development of superior crops with enhanced nutritional value, improved disease resistance, and greater tolerance to abiotic stresses. Additionally, RNAi facilitates the modification of horticultural traits, including flower pigmentation, thereby broadening the scope of crop improvement strategies.

MicroRNA

MicroRNAs (miRNAs) are small, naturally occurring non-coding RNA molecules, typically about 22 nucleotides in length, found in plants, animals, and certain viruses. Their primary function is to regulate gene expression. In plants, miRNAs are encoded by nuclear DNA as well as the genomes of some DNA viruses. They originate from RNA transcripts that fold into short hairpin structures, whereas small interfering RNAs (siRNAs) are derived from longer double-stranded RNA (dsRNA) regions. Plant miRNAs are highly conserved and play a crucial role in genetic regulation. They typically exhibit near-perfect complementarity with their target mRNA sequences, leading to gene repression through the cleavage of target transcripts. The first miRNA was identified in research on gene expression patterns in *Caenorhabditis elegans*, where it was found to regulate another gene by producing a short antisense RNA. Subsequent studies in the same organism led to the discovery of additional miRNAs with similar regulatory functions. In plants, miRNAs have been identified as key regulators of various developmental processes. Early research in *Arabidopsis* revealed multiple miRNAs that control different stages of plant maturation. Over time, the number of identified plant miRNAs has grown exponentially, with thousands of unique sequences now cataloged across numerous species. With advancements in computational biology, researchers have developed software tools to design artificial miRNAs (amiRNAs) that mimic natural miRNAs. These artificial molecules are now being

integrated into breeding programs to introduce desirable traits into crops, offering new possibilities for crop improvement and genetic regulation.

Mechanism of RNAi

The regulation of gene expression through RNA interference (RNAi) relies on the sequence complementarity between small RNA molecules and their target mRNA. This sequence specificity ensures precise gene regulation by inhibiting gene expression at the translational level, where the target mRNA is cleaved into small fragments, which can further act as templates for additional RNAi activity.

The RNAi mechanism involves multiple molecular components. One of the key enzymes, Dicer or Dicer-like protein (DCL), is an RNase III enzyme that processes double-stranded RNA (dsRNA) into small interfering RNAs (siRNAs) ranging from 21 to 25 nucleotides in length. Most plant species possess multiple DCL genes, some of which are specifically responsible for producing 21-nucleotide-long siRNAs. Once siRNAs are formed from processed mRNA transcripts or dsRNA, they are incorporated into a multi-protein complex called the RNA-induced silencing complex (RISC). This complex is found within small cytoplasmic structures, often referred to as P-bodies or RNA quality control centers. One of the critical proteins within RISC is Argonaute (AGO), which facilitates the slicing and degradation of complementary mRNA transcripts, thereby silencing specific genes.

The RNAi pathway is divided into three major steps:

1. **Initiation** – This step involves the generation of siRNAs. The RNAi process begins when dsRNA is cleaved into siRNA duplexes, which are 21 to 23 nucleotides long, with characteristic overhanging ends. This cleavage is carried out by Dicer, an RNase III enzyme with endonuclease activity that functions in an ATP-dependent manner.
2. **Effector Phase** – This step includes the formation of the RISC complex. Once siRNAs are generated, they associate with a multi-protein complex, which operates in an ATP-independent manner. The siRNA duplex is unwound, and one strand, known as the guide strand, is incorporated into the AGO protein, while the other strand (anti-guide strand) is either degraded or used to generate additional siRNA duplexes by RNA-dependent RNA polymerase (RDRP). The AGO protein, a conserved family of proteins, contains specialized domains, such as the PAZ domain, which binds to the

3′ end of the guide strand, and the PIWI domain, which is responsible for cleaving target mRNA.

3. **Target Cleavage** – This final step involves recognizing and cleaving specific mRNA sequences. The guide strand within RISC scans the cellular mRNA pool for complementary sequences. Upon finding a target, it binds to the mRNA at the PAZ domain, triggering the PIWI domain to cleave the phosphodiester bond at a precise location, typically around 10 nucleotides from the binding site. This targeted cleavage disrupts the mRNA, rendering it non-functional and preventing further translation. The extent of cleavage varies depending on the degree of complementarity between the siRNA and the target mRNA.

Through this highly specific and self-amplifying process, RNAi serves as a vital regulatory mechanism for gene expression, contributing to plant defense, development, and adaptation to environmental stresses.

Methods of Introducing RNAi into Plants

Recent advancements in plant transformation technologies have leveraged RNA interference (RNAi) as a powerful tool for studying gene expression. By introducing double-stranded RNA (dsRNA) more efficiently than traditional sense and antisense RNA approaches, RNAi facilitates the development of crops with enhanced disease resistance, stress tolerance, and improved nutritional quality. Gene delivery techniques have significantly accelerated the study of gene function loss in specific plant tissues through transient assay systems. These RNAi-based transient delivery methods include:

1. **Virus-Induced Gene Silencing (VIGS):** Viral vectors have been engineered to induce gene silencing in various plant species, including barley, tomato, pea, Arabidopsis, and Nicotiana benthamiana. However, the effectiveness of VIGS varies depending on the plant species, and biosafety regulations can limit its use. Despite these challenges, modified plant viruses have been employed for dsRNA production in both transient and stable transformation systems to target endogenous plant transcripts and manage pest infestations through insect-plant interactions.
2. **Particle Bombardment (Biolistics):** This technique enables direct dsRNA construct delivery for both stable transformation and transient functional assays. It is widely used in studying plant pigmentation patterns and is particularly beneficial for monocot species where Agrobacterium-mediated transformation is less effective. Since particle bombardment results in random DNA insertion, it is

typically applied to specific tissues, such as flower petals or developing seeds, to induce localized phenotypic changes.

3. **Agrobacterium-Mediated Transient Assays (Agroinfiltration):** Agroinfiltration is a widely used technique for delivering RNAi constructs to plant tissues in a rapid and efficient manner. This method allows for the temporary expression of gene-silencing constructs in vegetative tissues, enabling researchers to analyze phenotypic effects before developing fully transgenic plants. Agroinfiltration has been optimized for several plant species, including monocots like rice.

In RNAi-based gene silencing, engineered constructs are typically designed to produce a hairpin RNA (hpRNA). These constructs contain inverted repeats of the target gene sequence, placed downstream of strong or tissue-specific promoters, with spacer or intron sequences separating the repeats. This approach ensures precise and regulated gene silencing at specific developmental stages or in targeted tissues. Researchers can tailor RNAi constructs based on their objectives, whether to achieve complete gene silencing or partial suppression, by adjusting promoter strength, hairpin structure, and spacer elements. With this versatile RNAi toolkit, plant biotechnologists can effectively manipulate gene expression to enhance crop resilience, productivity, and adaptability.

Pest and Pathogen Control

The RNA interference (RNAi)-based gene silencing mechanism is highly conserved across both plant and animal kingdoms, making it a valuable tool not only for functional genomics but also for agricultural applications. RNAi technology has significant potential in improving crop resilience by enhancing tolerance to both biotic and abiotic stresses.

There are two primary strategies for RNAi applications in agricultural crops:

1. **Silencing Specific Plant Genes for Trait Improvement (HGS-hpRNAi):** This strategy focuses on suppressing specific genes within plants to enhance desirable agronomic traits. It can be used to delay fruit ripening, improve firmness, or increase resistance to environmental stresses. The method, known as host gene silencing via hairpin RNAi (HGS-hpRNAi), involves introducing RNAi constructs into plants to regulate endogenous gene expression, thereby improving their adaptability and productivity.
2. **Silencing Genes in Pests and Pathogens (hdRNAi):** This approach involves targeting genes in external organisms that feed on or infect

plants, such as insects, plant pathogens, and parasites. Known as host-delivered RNAi (hdRNAi), this strategy is divided into two categories:

- **hdRNAi-1:** Targets genes in herbivorous pests, nematodes, and parasitic weeds that directly damage plants. When these organisms ingest plant-derived RNAi molecules, their essential genes are silenced, reducing their survival and reproduction.
- **hdRNAi-2:** Focuses on silencing viral genes within host plant cells, preventing viral replication and spread, thereby enhancing resistance to viral diseases.

RNAi-based technologies are proving to be an effective and environmentally friendly tool for crop improvement, offering a sustainable alternative to chemical pesticides and genetic modifications that involve foreign protein expression.

Diseases

Most plant diseases cause dramatic crop losses and reduce the artistic and practical values of landscape plants and home gardens. Plant diseases caused by bacteria, virus, fungi, insects and nematodes create several constraints to the pro duction process. Plant disease management aims to reduce economically and as thetically damages caused by plant diseases in a term called plant disease control. RNA silencing-based resistance has been a powerful tool of genetically engineered crops during the last two decades. Engineered plants with RNAi technology are becoming increasingly important and providing more effective strategies in future. The advantage of RNAi as a tool for plant gene therapy against, viral, bacterial and fungal infections lie in the fact that it regulates gene expression via m RNA degradation, translation repression and chromatin renovation through small non-coding RNAs and it has no protein product. The applications of RNAi with the use of suitable promoters to silence several genes at the same time should increase researchers' ability to protect crops against many plant diseases.

Viruses

RNA interference (RNAi) technology offers a powerful approach to managing plant viral infections by inducing targeted gene silencing. One of the major advantages of RNAi is its ability to simultaneously target multiple viruses within a single transformation event, enabling the development of broad-spectrum resistance. Engineered double-stranded RNA (dsRNA) molecules can be designed to suppress viral replication by targeting essential viral regulatory regions, such as the CaMV 35S promoter, widely utilized in transgenic plants.

The effectiveness of RNAi-based virus resistance was first demonstrated against potato virus Y (PVY) in potato, where both sense and antisense transcripts of the *helper component proteinase (HC-Pro)* gene were used. Since then, RNAi applications have successfully induced resistance against various RNA and DNA viruses, including tomato leaf curl virus, cucumber mosaic virus (CMV), barley yellow dwarf virus (BYDV-PAV), bean golden mosaic virus (BGMV), African cassava mosaic virus (ACMV), rice dwarf virus, and citrus tristeza virus, among others.

Despite the effectiveness of RNAi in antiviral defense, plant viruses have evolved counter-defense strategies by producing silencing suppressors, which interfere with RNAi-mediated gene silencing. Many plant viruses encode proteins that can suppress RNA silencing and facilitate viral proliferation in host plants. These suppressor proteins have been identified through silencing reversal assays in green fluorescent protein (GFP) transgenic plants. For example:

- The HCPro protein encoded by potyviruses and the 2b protein in CMV are among the most well-studied RNAi suppressors.
- Suppressors encoded by unrelated RNA and DNA viruses share no sequence or structural similarity, indicating independent evolutionary origins and diverse functional mechanisms.

The identification of these viral suppressors is critical, as they play roles in viral pathogenicity, cell-to-cell movement, and systemic infection. Beyond their role in plant pathology, suppressor proteins serve as valuable tools for studying RNAi pathways, their impact on host gene expression, and their influence on plant development and phenotype.

Bacteria

RNAi technology has been widely explored for viral resistance, but its application against fungal and bacterial plant diseases remains relatively underdeveloped. However, some significant advancements have demonstrated the potential of RNAi in controlling bacterial infections.

One of the most notable examples is the use of RNAi to manage crown gall disease, caused by *Agrobacterium tumefaciens*. Researchers successfully suppressed tumor formation in *Arabidopsis thaliana* and Lycopersicon esculentum (tomato) by designing RNAi constructs targeting the iaaM and ipt oncogenes, which are essential for bacterial-induced tumorigenesis. These transgenic plants, expressing double-stranded RNA (dsRNA)

versions of these bacterial genes, prevented *Agrobacterium* from synthesizing the necessary hormones for gall formation, thereby conferring resistance. In contrast, wild-type plants remained highly susceptible to the disease.

This RNAi-based approach holds promise for controlling similar plant bacterial and fungal pathogens that cause tumor-like growths, such as:

- Albugo candida (*White rust pathogen*)
- Synchytrium endobioticum (*Potato wart pathogen*)
- Erwinia amylovora (*Fire blight pathogen*)

Fungi

RNAi technology has emerged as a sustainable alternative to fungicides for managing plant fungal diseases. While fungicides are widely used, they pose environmental and health risks and face challenges due to fungal resistance mechanisms (Yang *et al.* 2008). RNAi-based strategies offer a novel, eco-friendly solution by silencing vital fungal genes that are essential for pathogen survival and infection.

Successful RNAi Applications Against Fungal Pathogens

Several studies have demonstrated the efficacy of RNAi in managing fungal diseases. Examples include:

- Powdery mildew (*Blumeria graminis*) – Nowara *et al.* (2010) reported RNAi-mediated silencing in wheat and barley, reducing fungal virulence.
- Wheat stripe rust (*Puccinia striiformis f. sp. tritici*) – Yin *et al.* (2011) used Virus-Induced Gene Silencing (VIGS) to introduce fungal gene fragments into plant cells, reducing fungal gene expression.
- Late blight (*Phytophthora infestans*) – Transgenic potato plants expressing an RNAi construct targeting StSYR1 (Syntaxin-Related 1) exhibited increased resistance to *P. infestans* due to elevated salicylic acid levels (Eschen-Lippold *et al.* 2012).
- Banana fungal pathogens – Synthetic dsRNA applications successfully inhibited *Fusarium oxysporum f. sp. cubense* and *Mycosphaerella fijiensis*, major threats to banana production (Mumbanza *et al.* 2013).

Potential of RNAi in Fungal Pathogen Control

- RNAi can be particularly effective against polyploid and polykaryotic fungi, where conventional genetic modification techniques face challenges.
- The ability to target multiple fungal genes simultaneously makes RNAi a powerful tool for durable resistance.

- This strategy could complement or replace fungicides, reducing environmental impact while offering long-lasting plant protection.

With advancements in Host-Induced Gene Silencing (HIGS) and Spray-Induced Gene Silencing (SIGS), RNAi is poised to revolutionize fungal disease management in crops, offering a sustainable and precise alternative to chemical control.

Insects

The use of RNA interference (RNAi) technology in pest management has shown significant promise as a sustainable alternative to traditional chemical pesticides. By targeting vital genes in pests such as insects and nematodes, RNAi offers a precise approach to pest control, reducing the environmental and health risks associated with chemical pesticides.

RNAi and Pest Control

RNAi technology takes advantage of the common RNAi pathways shared by eukaryotic organisms, including pests. When double-stranded RNA (dsRNA) is expressed, it can silence vital genes in the pests, disrupting their physiological processes. This mechanism is being utilized in various ways to target pests:

- Host-Delivered RNAi (hd-RNAi): By expressing dsRNA in plants, this technology can target pests feeding on the plants. Transgenic plants can produce dsRNA that triggers RNAi in pests, making them resistant to damage from pest feeding. This method is particularly effective for controlling nematodes and insects.
- Direct dsRNA Injection: Experiments involving the direct injection of dsRNA into pests like insects and nematodes have shown promising results. By silencing vital pest genes, the pests either fail to develop properly or die, demonstrating the efficacy of RNAi for pest management.

Successful Applications of RNAi in Pest Control

Several studies have demonstrated the potential of RNAi in controlling specific pests:

1. **Western Corn Rootworm (WCR) Control:**
    - Successfully controlled WCR by feeding it a diet containing dsRNA. This targeted RNAi technology reduced feeding damage and pest population, showcasing the power of RNAi in agriculture.

2. **Aphid Control:**
    - Conducted RNAi experiments on aphids by injecting dsRNA into their salivary glands. This led to the lethality of aphids on plants, though they survived on an artificial diet, indicating that specific genes like C002 play crucial roles in aphid-plant interactions.
    - Developed hd-RNAi technology by targeting C002 and Rack-1 genes, leading to a 60% reduction in gene expression in transgenic *Arabidopsis thaliana*. This experiment demonstrated the effectiveness of RNAi in pest control by silencing genes expressed in the aphid's gut and salivary glands.
3. **Cotton Bollworm (Helicoverpa armigera) Control:**
    - Targeted transcription factor genes in cotton bollworm using hd-RNAi, leading to a significant decrease in mRNA and protein levels during larval development. The results showed larval deformities and lethality, emphasizing RNAi's potential for controlling pest larvae during critical developmental stages.

Advantages of RNAi in Pest Management

- Targeted Action: RNAi allows for precise targeting of pest-specific genes, reducing the risk to non-target organisms.
- Reduced Pesticide Use: By utilizing RNAi in transgenic plants to target pests directly, the reliance on chemical pesticides is reduced, benefiting both the environment and human health.
- Sustainability: RNAi offers a long-term, sustainable solution to pest control, as pests are less likely to develop resistance to RNAi compared to traditional chemical pesticides.

Improvement of Nutritional Quality

Recent developments in plant breeding have concentrated on enhancing crop yield, disease resistance, and tolerance to both biotic and abiotic stresses, as well as improving quality traits. The effectiveness of plant breeding is largely determined by the genetic diversity of the plant species being crossed and the availability of a broad genetic pool, which can sometimes limit the scope of improvement in certain traits. RNA interference (RNAi) technology offers a novel approach for plant breeders aiming to create crops with new quality traits by selectively down-regulating specific genes in target plants, thereby addressing technical challenges in metabolic engineering.

RNAi technology, which works by expressing non-coding RNAs to target specific gene sequences, has proven to be highly stable in regulating plant biochemical pathways, providing a new genetic resource for metabolic engineering in plant breeding programs. The applications of RNAi are not limited to controlling viral, bacterial, and fungal diseases or mitigating crop pest damage; it also holds promise for improving quality traits across a variety of plant species.

Amino Acid Content

The amino acid content of food and feed is a critical agronomic trait, and plant breeding and transgenesis programs are working tirelessly to develop crops with higher levels of essential amino acids and storage proteins. To increase the content of these essential amino acids, a deep understanding of their biosynthetic pathways is necessary. This has been effectively applied in model plants through engineering techniques.

The exploration of amino acid pathways began shortly after the discovery of gene silencing. For example, tobacco, which is a widely used model plant in gene silencing research, was genetically engineered with the Arabidopsis S-Adenosyl-L-methionine synthetase (SAM-S) gene. When suppressed by RNA interference (RNAi), mature transgenic plants showed an increase in L-methionine levels. Maize has also served as a model for lysine modification studies using RNAi technology. These studies were preceded by an extensive analysis of maize's biosynthetic pathway. High lysine content can impact seed germination and overall plant phenotype. More recently, RNAi has been used to modify lysine content in maize by expressing a lysine synthesis enzyme and silencing a lysine degradation enzyme. The resulting transgenic maize showed a significant increase in lysine amino acid content.

Allergens

Food allergies are a serious health concern affecting both children and adults. They involve an immune response to certain food proteins that the body mistakenly identifies as harmful or toxic. Allergic reactions can vary from mild to severe, depending on the digestibility of these proteins. Undigested proteins are typically recognized by immunoglobulin E (IgE) antibodies, which trigger white blood cells to attack, leading to various symptoms and physiological issues. Allergens and toxins are commonly found in various plant species, particularly wild types. However, breeding these wild-type plants through crossing with domesticated varieties can be a challenging and time-consuming

task. RNAi technology offers a solution by enabling the silencing of specific genes responsible for producing allergens or toxins, without affecting the germination or maturation of the plants. This approach has proven to be effective in addressing food allergies caused by specific plant proteins.

Soybean (*Glycine max*), commonly used in processed foods, contains P34 proteins, which are known allergens for individuals sensitive to soy. One successful example of gene silencing in soybeans involved inactivating the allergenic P34 proteins using RNAi, allowing the plants to remain unaffected during germination and maturation while preventing the accumulation of the allergens. Similarly, potential allergens in rice, such as α-globulin and β-glyoxalase, were silenced using RNAi constructs in a mutated rice line, producing transgenic rice seeds free from these allergens.

RNAi technology has also been used to reduce allergens in other food crops, such as Ara h2 protein in peanuts, Mal d 1 allergen in apples, and Lyc e 1.01 and Lyc e 1.02 allergens in tomatoes. Furthermore, pollen grain allergens, like the Lol P 5 protein in ryegrass, were suppressed using antisense RNA to reduce the allergen without affecting the fertility of the pollen grains.

Metabolic Pathways

Plants have a vast network of metabolic pathways, an astonishing diversity of products that are unique to some plant species, producing primary and secondary metabolites that are used in alternative medicine and cannot be found in other organisms. Metabolic engineering in plants requires extensive investigations and study to understand the biochemical pathway networks and the function of enzymes involved in certain pathways. One way to study metabolic pathways in a plant is reverse genetics, where losing the function of a specific enzyme can lead to understanding the job performed by the enzyme and the physiological effects on the whole plant. Gene silencing is considered the best candidate tool to study the function of enzymes through reverse genetics and to engineer plant metabolic pathways to overproduce secondary products, by silencing regulatory enzymes that are economically important such as sugars, fatty acids, aromatic fragrances, steroids and drugs.

Tolerance to Abiotic Stress

Abiotic stress tolerance in plants is a crucial adaptive response to environmental changes, such as fluctuations in temperature, water availability, light, and soil nutrients. Plants have developed complex physiological and biochemical mechanisms to cope with

these stresses. Molecular biology tools have helped identify that abiotic stress tolerance involves a network of biochemical pathways and a variety of genes that activate under stress conditions. RNAi technology is particularly useful for discovering and studying these genes, providing insights into the resistance mechanisms plants use to handle abiotic stress.

The role of poly-(ADP-ribose) polymerase (PAPR) as a key connector in the stress-resistance pathways. By using RNAi constructs to suppress the PAPR gene in *Arabidopsis thaliana* and *Brassica napus*, they observed that the transgenic plants exhibited a broad spectrum of resistance to abiotic stresses, alongside significant transcriptional changes in stress-resistance genes, as analyzed by DNA microarray.

Transcriptome analysis of model plants, such as *Arabidopsis*, has revealed that a large number of non-coding RNAs (ncRNAs) are highly expressed during abiotic stress. These ncRNAs, excluding housekeeping ncRNAs, play roles in chromatin remodeling and translational repression. MicroRNAs (miRNAs) have also been identified as key players in abiotic stress responses. For example, miR441 and miR446 were found to positively regulate abscisic acid (ABA) signaling, which in turn enhances tolerance to abiotic stress.

Flowers

Flower fragrances have long been a source of attraction to people, but for the plant itself helps in attracting pollinators for reproduction. As a source of attraction, breeding programs and market value depend on coloration, scent and flowering time . Therefore, flowering related pathways have been studied with special emphasis on color pigments. The production of colored flowers and controlling the fragrances is a recent fi eld of interest where RNAi approaches are being applied. Gene silencing strategies, using hpRNA or VIGS, are also being studied to control the timing of the transition phase from vegetative to reproductive floral tissues in plants.

Flowering Fragrance

The distinctive scent of floral bouquets is produced by volatile compounds, which are a blend of chemicals the plant produces to attract pollinators or repel florivores during the flowering period. These volatile compounds primarily stem from the benzenoid and phenylpropanoid pathways and are influenced by factors such as the plant's pollination status and developmental stage.

RNAi technology has proven effective in altering the concentration of these volatile products. For instance, volatile oils like eugenol and isoeugenol, which are used in dentistry, are synthesized by the enzymes EGS1 and IGS1 from a quinone methide-like intermediate. By using RNAi to suppress IGS1, the biosynthesis of isoeugenol can be redirected towards eugenol production, leading to higher concentrations of eugenol in petunia petals.

In addition, virus-induced gene silencing (VIGS) has been employed to suppress the expression of several fragrance-related genes in petunia flowers. When genes responsible for benzoiac acid/salicylic acid carboxyl methyltransferases were silenced, a significant reduction in the production of methyl-benzoic acid (MeBA) and methyl-salicylic acid (MeSA) was observed, with reductions of 7-fold and 10-fold, respectively. Additionally, silencing the phenylacetaldehyde synthase (PAAS) gene led to a decrease in phenylacetaldehyde levels.

On the other hand, RNAi has also been used to investigate the role of repellent scents in plants by targeting genes involved in the production of these volatile compounds, further showcasing the potential of RNAi technology in modifying plant scent profiles for various applications.

Flowering Time

In addition to influencing colors and fragrances, RNAi can also be used to manipulate the timing of flowering (anthesis) in plants. The transition from vegetative to reproductive growth is tightly regulated by specific pathways, which control the timing of this transition via cellular signals that determine the appropriate moment for flowering. The *FLOWERING LOCUS T1* (FT1) gene in wheat, which is homologous to the Arabidopsis *vernalization* (VRN3) gene, plays a crucial role in regulating flowering pathways in plants like Brachypodium and wheat. When the FT1 gene was silenced, several flowering pathways and FT-like genes were down-regulated in both Brachypodium and wheat, leading to a delayed flowering phenotype in wheat and a complete absence of flowering in Brachypodium. In pineapple, used RNAi to silence the *A1-amino-cyclopropane-1-carboxylate synthase* (ACACS2) gene, which resulted in a late-flowering phenotype. This modification is valuable because it delays the flowering until the plant has produced enough vegetative tissues to support fruit production and ensures better adaptation to the surrounding environment.

The regulation of flowering is interconnected with other growth and development pathways. For instance, demonstrated that silencing the *S-Adenosyl-1-methionine synthase* (SAMS) genes 1, 2, and 3 in rice resulted in dwarfism, delayed germination, and late flowering. Similarly, in a chimeric gene silencing strategy, the *heading date 3a* (Hd3a) gene, which is involved in the flowering transition signal, and the *RICE FLOWERING LOCUS T1* (RFT1) gene were both silenced using RNAi in rice. The transgenic rice plants with silenced *Hd3a* and *RFT1* genes exhibited a late-flowering phenotype, which was not observed when either genes was silenced individually. These examples highlight the potential of RNAi technology to control the timing of flowering, providing valuable tools for plant breeders aiming to optimize crop development and productivity.

Conclusions and Prospects:

The stability and inheritance of RNAi traits in transgenic plant progenies is a crucial area of research that requires further exploration. While genetic and phenotypic inheritance of RNAi has been confirmed in organisms like roundworms (*Caenorhabditis elegans*) by Tavernarakis *et al.* (2000), more studies are needed to fully understand this process in plants. In plants, naturally existing miRNAs have evolved and been passed down through generations in inbred and hybrid lines of cultivated crops such as maize and rice, demonstrating the stability of RNAi mechanisms. RNAi technology offers vast opportunities for agriculture by allowing the selective silencing of specific genes, thereby enhancing the genetic pool available to plant breeders. This expansion of genetic diversity enables the development of superior cultivars with traits such as disease resistance, stress tolerance, improved nutritional content, high yield, elimination of allergens, and enhanced production of secondary metabolites—traits that would be challenging to achieve through conventional breeding alone. In tree breeding, where it often takes many years to obtain a desired trait and to proliferate the desired line, RNAi offers a shortcut. RNAi signals can be transmitted through grafting, allowing breeders to graft stable RNAi transgenic tree cuttings onto non-transgenic scions, thus achieving the desired traits more rapidly. This chapter highlights the potential of RNAi technology to be integrated into breeding programs aimed at improving horticultural traits that are vital for addressing the challenges posed by global climate change and evolving agricultural demands.

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APPLICATIONS OF MOLECULAR MARKERS IN CROP IMPROVEMENT AND BREEDING

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Abstract:

Molecular markers serve as precise genomic tools for identifying specific loci associated with particular genes or inherited traits. These markers comprise distinct DNA fragments that can be detected across the entire genome. The advancement of molecular markers, in conjunction with high-throughput technologies, has significantly contributed to the selection of desirable traits and the induction of biotic and abiotic stress tolerance in plants, thereby augmenting crop breeding strategies. Highly polymorphic molecular markers have been developed for gene mapping, genetic diversity estimation, evolutionary and phylogenetic studies, heterosis analysis, ploidy assessment in diploid and haploid crops, and cultivar genotyping. Moreover, they play a pivotal role in Marker-Assisted Breeding (MAB) and Marker-Assisted Selection (MAS), which are integral to modern crop improvement programs. This review elucidates the significance of recently developed molecular markers in crop improvement, underscoring their role as essential genomic tools that facilitate precision breeding and enhance genetic gains in agriculture.

Keywords: Crop Breeding, Evolution and Phylogeny of Crop, Genetic Diversity, Gene Mapping, MAS, Molecular Markers.

Introduction:

Biotechnology is a specialized discipline of biological sciences that involves the manipulation of living organisms or their components to develop improved plant, animal, and microbial systems for specific applications. Over the past two decades, rapid advancements in plant biotechnology and its associated methodologies have revolutionized agricultural practices. Biotechnological interventions have facilitated the development of innovative, efficient, and economically viable agricultural products while minimizing chemical inputs, enhancing crop productivity, mitigating the adverse environmental impacts of conventional farming, and reducing the cost of raw materials. These

advancements contribute to a comprehensive understanding of biological processes and their applications in sustainable agriculture.

Traditional plant breeding has been a fundamental approach in life sciences, relying on genetic variation and genotype selection to develop traits desired by farmers and consumers. The incorporation of novel resistance genes against biotic and abiotic stressors from diverse genetic sources, including related plant varieties and gene banks, has significantly improved crop traits. While conventional breeding methods have successfully generated improved crop genotypes, molecular breeding techniques offer accelerated genetic enhancement within a shorter timeframe. The integration of molecular breeding and biotechnological innovations has further optimized plant breeding strategies. The elucidation of genetic composition has been facilitated by key discoveries, including polymerase chain reaction (PCR) and restriction enzymes, which have enabled genetic fingerprinting through the selective amplification and enzymatic fragmentation of DNA, followed by gel electrophoresis.

Molecular Markers

Molecular markers are distinct genomic sequences that exhibit readily detectable variations among different strains within a species or between species. These markers correspond to specific genomic loci and are associated with particular genes or traits.

Molecular markers are primarily classified into two major categories based on their detection techniques: (i) hybridization-based markers and (ii) polymerase chain reaction (PCR)-based markers. Hybridization-based markers include restriction fragment length polymorphism (RFLP), microsatellites, and minisatellites. PCR-based markers encompass arbitrarily primed PCR (AP-PCR), start codon targeted marker (SCoT), random amplified polymorphic DNA (RAPD), inter-simple sequence repeat (ISSR), single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP), simple sequence repeat (SSR), amplified fragment length polymorphism (AFLP), cleaved amplified polymorphic sequence (CAPS), and expressed sequence tag (EST) markers. Additionally, DNA sequencing-based markers such as SNP markers further contribute to genomic analysis.

Based on their inheritance patterns, molecular markers are categorized as follows:

A. Dominant Markers: These markers associate with a specific allele of a gene but do not differentiate between homozygous and heterozygous genotypes. RAPD is an example of a dominant marker.

B. Co-dominant Markers: These markers can distinguish between homozygous and heterozygous genotypes as both alleles of a gene are linked with the marker. Examples include RFLP, SSR, SNP, and EST markers.

Molecular markers serve as essential genomic tools in plant breeding, facilitating precise trait selection, genetic diversity assessment, and crop improvement.

Important uses of Molecular Markers in Crop Improvement:

Gene Mapping

The development of a vast array of molecular markers has significantly enhanced the construction of high-resolution genetic maps and molecular breeding methodologies in plants. These markers are extensively utilized for genetic linkage mapping and for identifying beneficial alleles in cultivated and wild species. Molecular markers serve as loci of heterozygosity, enabling gene mapping analyses similarly to conventional heterozygous alleles. Their application has facilitated gene discovery, quantitative trait locus (QTL) mapping, and various advancements in plant breeding. The utilization of molecular markers such as simple sequence repeats (SSR), single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNP), diversity arrays technology (DArT), inter-simple sequence repeats (ISSR), restriction fragment length polymorphism (RFLP), and random amplified polymorphic DNA (RAPD) has significantly contributed to gene and QTL mapping. High-resolution mapping techniques have been employed in identifying genes associated with important agronomic traits, including biotic and abiotic stress tolerance. For instance, mapping of QTLs for grain protein content in rice has demonstrated the utility of molecular markers in biofortification. Additionally, hybrid necrosis genes in wheat have been mapped through microsatellite markers, aiding in genetic analysis and crop improvement strategies. In barley, high-resolution mapping has been successfully implemented for disease resistance genes, while QTL mapping in cotton has provided insights into yield components and fiber quality across multiple environments. The application of molecular markers in maize breeding has enabled the identification of polymorphic markers linked to yield traits and morphological characteristics. Techniques such as DArTseq, which integrates next-generation sequencing (NGS) with DArT complexity reduction methods, have emerged as powerful tools for SNP discovery and genetic characterization. These markers are instrumental in parent selection for hybrid breeding and heterosis prediction. In groundnut, the development of a dense genetic map with an extensive number of loci has enabled the precise identification of QTLs related to drought and iron deficiency tolerance.

Large-scale phenotypic data from multi-season trials have facilitated the identification of major QTLs influencing critical agronomic traits. The integration of molecular markers into breeding programs has thereby contributed to genetic improvement and enhanced stress resilience in crop varieties.

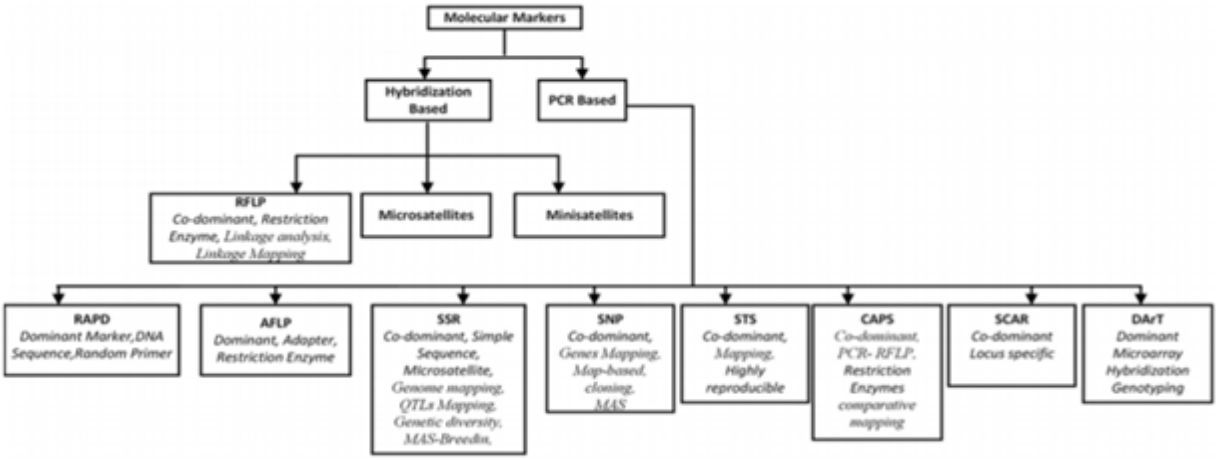

Figure 1: **Types of molecular markers used in crop breeding**

Genetic Diversity Estimation

The advent of molecular marker technology has revolutionized genetic diversity estimation, thereby refining breeding strategies and germplasm characterization. Various marker systems, including SSR, SCoT, CBDP, DArT, ISSR, SNP, CAPS, SCAR, RFLP, AFLP, and RAPD, have been employed for assessing genetic diversity in cultivated and wild germplasm. These markers play a crucial role in developing plant genetic resource (PGR) information systems and varietal identification. Genetic diversity assessments have been conducted in various crops under stress conditions to identify resilient genotypes. For instance, SSR markers have been used to evaluate drought tolerance in rice, while novel marker systems such as SCoT and CBDP have demonstrated effectiveness in estimating genetic variation in wheat. In barley, polymorphic SSR markers have facilitated the identification of favorable allelic diversity, underscoring their importance in breeding programs. In maize, SNP markers derived from DArT sequencing have been used to analyze genetic diversity across multiple genotypes, revealing moderate levels of genetic variation. Microarray-based molecular marker technologies have further enhanced efficiency in determining genetic diversity, particularly in distinguishing cultivated and wild species. High-density marker arrays have been instrumental in differentiating cotton species, while SNP-based approaches have enabled the identification of loci associated with seed nutritional quality. Molecular markers have also been employed for disease resistance

screening and agronomic trait evaluations. In groundnut, SSR markers have been used to estimate genetic diversity among genotypes exhibiting resistance to leaf spot and rust diseases. Moderate levels of polymorphic information content and gene diversity indices have indicated the potential of selected genotypes for crop improvement.

Table 1: Differentiation of some of the commonly used markers are as follows

Molecular Markers	Type (Dominant / Co-dominant)	Amplification of marker/ technique used for identification
Restriction fragment length polymorphism (RFLP)	Co-dominant	Depends on point mutation in a restriction site
Random amplified polymorphic DNA (RAPD)	Dominant	Point mutation at primer annealing site in the specific region of a DNA strand
Sequence Tagged Sites (STS)	Co-dominant	Depends on mutation at primer annealing site in the specific region of a DNA strand.
Sequence characterized amplified region (SCAR)	Co-dominant	Depends on mutation at primer annealing site in the specific region of a DNA strand.
Amplified fragment length polymorphism (AFLP)	Dominant	Depends on mutation at primer annealing site in the target DNA and change in restriction site in the target DNA
Cleaved amplified polymorphic sequence (CAPS)	Co-dominant	Depends on: -1. Mutation at primer annealing site in the target DNA.2. Change in restriction site in the target DN.
Simple Sequences Repeats (SSRs)/ microsatellites	Co-dominant	Differences in the number of repeats of motif
Diversity Arrays Technology (DArT)	Dominant	Microarray hybridization, DArT arrays are produced from genomic libraries through amplification of candidate or random clones

Evolution and Phylogeny of Crops

Advancements in molecular marker technologies have provided deeper insights into the genetic architecture and evolutionary history of crop species. Traditionally, crop evolution studies relied on morphological and geographical variations; however, molecular markers have enabled the reconstruction of genetic maps to elucidate phylogenetic relationships and evolutionary trajectories. Chloroplast markers are widely recognized as ideal tools for phylogenetic studies due to their stable genetic structure. Phylogenetic analysis involves grouping species based on their genetic relationships, thereby providing insights into evolutionary patterns. In rice, genome-wide variation mapping has confirmed the domestication of *Oryza sativa* from its wild progenitor, with indica and japonica subspecies exhibiting distinct evolutionary pathways. In wheat, phylogenetic studies have focused on genome distribution patterns, with comparative analyses between diploid and polyploid progenitors revealing key genomic changes. The evolution of SSR sequences has been investigated to determine chromosomal variations, highlighting differential genome

expansion and elimination processes. The evolutionary relationships among cereal crops have been explored using multiple molecular marker systems, demonstrating closer genetic affiliations between wheat and barley compared to rice, maize, and sorghum. Phylogenetic studies based on ISSR and RAPD markers have provided comprehensive insights into the genetic distances among cereal species, further supporting evolutionary hypotheses. Molecular marker technologies have thus played a pivotal role in unraveling crop phylogeny, genetic diversity, and breeding applications. The integration of advanced marker systems with genomic and phenotypic data continues to drive innovations in plant breeding, facilitating the development of superior crop varieties with enhanced resilience and productivity.

Analysis of Heterosis using Molecular Markers:

Heterosis and Its Molecular Analysis

Heterosis refers to the phenomenon where the F1 progeny exhibits superior characteristics compared to both parents. Over the past few decades, the utilization of polymorphic molecular markers for assessing heterosis has significantly increased. These markers play a crucial role in analyzing heterosis within various population structures. In rice, heterosis has been effectively predicted using EST-SSR and morphological markers, with marker polymorphism coefficients demonstrating strong correlations with heterotic expression. Similarly, in wheat, SNP markers have been identified as reliable tools for accurately predicting heterosis based on genetic distance, enabling efficient parental selection and heterotic grouping. Research in cotton has also highlighted the effectiveness of SSR and SNP markers in heterosis prediction, facilitating the classification of varieties into heterotic groups and guiding parental selection for hybrid breeding. In maize, SSR marker-based clustering has provided insights into heterotic patterning, with Flint × Dent combinations exhibiting superior performance. Additionally, cDNA-AFLP markers have been employed in barley to assess heterosis in kernel weight, demonstrating the relevance of molecular markers in hybrid performance evaluation.

Assessment of Diploid, Haploid Crops, and Genotyping of Cultivars

Haploid crops contain a single set of chromosomes, while diploid crops possess two copies of homologous chromosomes. Double haploids (DHs), developed from single pollen grains and artificially doubled, serve as valuable mapping populations for QTL mapping and genetic studies. Advanced molecular techniques, including SSR markers and genome size determination, have been utilized for the identification of haploids in hybrid populations. In maize, the R1-navajo anthocyanin marker has been effectively employed for

early-stage haploid identification. Similarly, STMS markers have facilitated the differentiation of heterozygous individuals in DH populations of indica rice, with several DH lines exhibiting superior yield performance.

In cotton, Inter-Retrotransposon Amplified Polymorphism (IRAP) markers have emerged as efficient tools for rapid genetic fingerprinting and large-scale germplasm screening. These markers have successfully differentiated diploid and tetraploid accessions while also providing insights into genetic diversity. The application of IRAP markers has revealed varying degrees of genetic variability among Gossypium accessions, reinforcing their utility in genotype characterization and molecular breeding.

Marker-Assisted Breeding (MAB) and Marker-Assisted Selection (MAS)

Marker-Assisted Breeding (MAB) and Marker-Assisted Selection (MAS) represent advanced molecular breeding techniques that enable indirect selection of desired plant phenotypes based on linked DNA markers. These approaches have revolutionized crop improvement by facilitating the selection of complex traits, including biotic and abiotic stress resistance, grain quality, and high yield potential.

MAS has been instrumental in pyramiding multiple resistance genes against bacterial leaf blight, blast, gall midge, and drought tolerance QTLs in rice. Introgression lines developed through MAS have exhibited enhanced resistance to multiple stresses under both field and controlled conditions. In wheat, MAS has been employed to develop purple-grained cultivars by incorporating complementary genes governing anthocyanin pigmentation. Similarly, in barley, a newly developed PCR-based co-dominant marker has successfully identified a 17-kb deletion in the Hordeum vulgare ethylene response factor (ERF) gene, associated with the nud locus responsible for the naked barley trait.

In cotton, SNP markers have been extensively used for MAS, with specific markers linked to key agronomic traits such as fruiting branch architecture. Furthermore, in maize, MAB has been applied to pyramid β-Carotene (crtRB1) and Opaque-2 (O2) genes. Through background and foreground selection using SSR markers, significant enhancements in tryptophan, lysine, and β-carotene content have been achieved, underscoring the role of molecular markers in improving the nutritional quality of staple crops.

Conclusion:

Molecular marker plays an important role in plant breeding or crop improvement. A desirable molecular marker should have high polymorphism, frequent occurrence, should be easy to use and should be quick, co-dominant inheritance, equally dispersed all over the genome, high transferability and reproducibility, less expensive and phenotypically neutral.

The last few years have revolutionized the molecular marker technology from RAPD to DArT markers. Advancement in molecular markers integrated with high throughput technology played a vital role in gene mapping, estimation of Genetic Diversity, finding out the evolution and phylogeny of crop, analysis of heterosis, and assessment of diploid/haploid crops and genotyping of cultivars along with Marker Assisted Breeding (MAB)/Marker Assisted Selection (MAS). Now a days, DArT, SSR, SNP, EST-SSR, ISSR, CAPS, SCAR, etc. with high throughput technologies are very exciting markers, which enhances the crop with desired traits and induces tolerance against biotic and abiotic stresses in a short period of time. Though, technologies have gradually enhanced in these newly developed markers, but all these requirements are not yet fulfilled. Hence, appropriate selection of molecular marker is important, which amalgamates some of these desirable characters to achieve the current demand in crop improvement.

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SOMATIC HYBRIDIZATION FOR CROP IMPROVEMENT

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Abstract:

Somatic hybridization functions like a particle collider in the world of biology. In this process, plant cells are carefully stripped of their cell wall and fused, resulting in the creation of interspecific hybrids. These hybrids harness a rich diversity of genetic information, paving the way for exciting opportunities in agricultural innovation and plant research. In the 1960s and 1970s, the development of somatic hybrids through cell fusion held great promise for a new era of crop improvement. However, the expectations surrounding somatic hybridization were ultimately surpassed by advancements in recombination DNA technology. Plant breeding in the 21st century has made significant progress owing to the incorporation of resistance/tolerant traits from exotic germplasm into modern/ cultivated cultivars. Somatic hybridization expands the pool of accessible germplasm and provides additional opportunities to introduce desirable traits into these cultivars. Somatic hybridization presents great potential for enhancing plant improvement by initially analysing genetic variations in existing crops and subsequently transferring genetic material between species through protoplast fusion.

Keywords: Cell Fusion, Cybrids, Protoplast Fusion, Somatic Cells, Somatic Hybridization, Staining

Introduction:

Somatic hybridization, also known as somatic cell fusion or protoplast fusion, involves merging protoplasts from somatic cells of different plant species. The process is characterized by the regeneration of whole plants from the fused cells. Over the past few decades, this technique has garnered significant interest from plant breeders due to its potential for crop improvement and genetic research. Successful hybrids have been developed both within the same species, such as crosses between non-flowering and flowering potato plants, and between different species, exemplified by the fusion of wheat and rye to create Triticale. Protoplast fusion is a form of genetic modification in plants that enables the combination of distinct species at the cellular level, resulting in hybrid plants

that inherit traits from both parents. This technique facilitates the use of genetically incompatible germplasm between crop species and their distant relatives. It allows for genome combinations between cultivars that cannot be traditionally crossed, while also enabling cytoplasmic substitution with minimal alterations to the nuclear genome. Since its first successful application in tobacco, numerous studies have been conducted to refine the technique for various plant genera and assess the potential of somatic hybrids in different crops. Notably, somatic hybridization has even been carried out under microgravity conditions in space experiments. This method can lead to the development of symmetric and asymmetric hybrids. A symmetric hybrid contains a complete diploid nuclear genome from both parent species, along with two maternal cytoplasmic genomes. In contrast, asymmetric hybrids result from either partial genome fusion or the combination of one nuclear genome with the cytoplasm of the other, commonly referred to as cybrids. These hybrids may exhibit both desirable and undesirable traits from the parental plants, leading to unpredictable phenotypic outcomes. As a result, their performance may vary, and they may not always be immediately useful, as they inherit genetic material from both parents. A significant challenge in somatic hybridization is genetic imbalance, which can arise when large amounts of foreign genetic material are introduced along with target genes. This imbalance may lead to undesirable traits, such as thick and uneven fruit skin, limiting the commercial viability of certain hybrids. To mitigate such issues, asymmetric fusion is often preferred, especially when resistance to biotic or abiotic stress is controlled by only a few chromosomes. This approach ensures the targeted transfer of genetic material without excessive genome integration. Somatic hybridization is a critical application of protoplast culture, particularly for creating hybrids between species or genera that cannot be successfully crossed through conventional sexual hybridization. While initially developed in animals, its significance has been fully realized in plants, where hybrid cells can regenerate into whole plants. The development of novel hybrids through protoplast fusion should focus on key areas, such as incorporating traits of agricultural importance, achieving genetic combinations that are otherwise impossible, integrating somatic hybrids into conventional breeding programs, and expanding the range of crops that can undergo protoplast regeneration.

The somatic hybridization process consists of several steps, including selecting the protoplast source, isolating and culturing protoplasts, regenerating plants, inducing protoplast fusion, applying selection methods, and characterizing the resulting hybrids.

This technique holds immense potential for plant improvement, facilitating genetic diversity analysis and enabling the exchange of genetic material between species. By leveraging the fusion of protoplasts derived from somatic tissues, researchers can enhance crop varieties, making them more resilient, productive, and adaptable to environmental challenges.

Somatic Hybridization as a Protoplast Fusion

Protoplast fusion has emerged as a promising technique for creating hybrid plants that cannot be developed through traditional sexual reproduction. Protoplasts, which are plant cells devoid of cell walls, can be isolated from a wide variety of plant species, including major crops. While any two plant protoplasts can be fused using chemical or physical methods, the primary challenges lie in regenerating the fused cells into whole plants and addressing the sterility of interspecific hybrids rather than in the production of protoplasts. A significant application of this technique has been observed in *Nicotiana*, where somatic hybrids generated through chemical protoplast fusion have been utilized to modify alkaloid content and enhance disease resistance in commercial tobacco varieties. One successful approach involved fusing protoplasts from a chlorophyll-deficient *N. rustica* cell suspension with an albino mutant of *N. tabacum* using a calcium-polyethylene glycol treatment. Protoplasts can be extracted from nearly all plant species and cultured to form callus tissue. The fusion process between protoplasts of different species is commonly facilitated by polyethylene glycol (PEG), which induces membrane fusion. Additionally, the efficiency of protoplast fusion has been further improved through the use of PEG combined with high-calcium pH solutions or electrical stimulation, enhancing the success rate of hybrid formation.

Types of Somatic Hybridization

Asymmetric Somatic Hybridization:

This technique enables the selective transfer of genes from one parent to another. To reduce the genetic impact of the non-preferred parent in protoplast fusion, researchers have developed asymmetric somatic hybridization. In this approach, the genome of the donor species is partially fragmented using irradiation before fusion. As a result, the hybrid retains the complete genome of the recipient (preferred) species while incorporating only specific genetic fragments from the donor species. However, irradiation is an imprecise method, causing random damage to the donor genome. As a result, the transfer of the

desired trait is not assured, and the amount of the donor genome that is incorporated varies significantly. This variability depends on the irradiation dosage and the recipient genome's ability to tolerate chromosome fragments and rearrangements.

Symmetric Somatic Hybridization:

Symmetric somatic hybridization is a form of protoplast fusion in which the complete genomes of both parental species are combined, resulting in a hybrid that contains genetic material from both parents completely. Symmetric hybridization merges entire nuclear and cytoplasmic genomes, creating a true somatic hybrid. Cybrids, or cytoplasmic hybrids, are produced through protoplast fusion between a cultivated species and enucleated or nucleus-inactivated protoplasts carrying a different plastome. In plant breeding, cybridization provides a one-step method for developing lines with cytoplasmic male sterility systems, which are valuable for hybrid breeding.

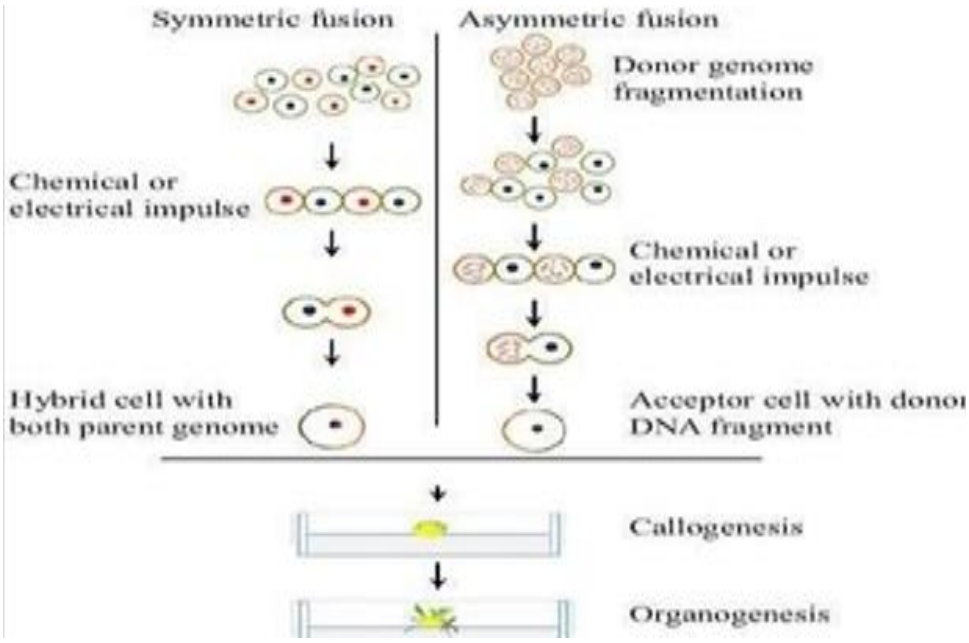

Figure 1: Diagrammatic representation of symmetric and asymmetric hybridization

Isolation of Protoplast

Mechanical Method:

The mechanical method of protoplast isolation was first introduced in 1892 when protoplasts were successfully extracted from plasmolyzed cells of *Stratiotes aloides* using microsurgical techniques. This process involved carefully cutting the cell wall with a fine knife in a suitable plasmolytic medium. However, due to its extremely low yield, this technique proved impractical for large-scale applications. In this method, plant tissues are initially selected, followed by the plasmolysis of cells to separate the protoplast from the

surrounding cell wall. The plasmolyzed cells are then observed under a microscope, where a fine knife is used to carefully cut through the cell wall, allowing intact protoplasts to be released and collected. Although this was one of the earliest approaches to protoplast isolation, it is not commonly used today due to several limitations. These include extensive tissue damage, low protoplast recovery, high labor requirements, and reduced viability of the isolated cells. As a result, enzymatic methods, which utilize cell wall-degrading enzymes like cellulase and pectinase to gently release protoplasts in a controlled manner, are now the preferred approach.

Enzymatic Method:

In 1960, Cocking pioneered the enzymatic method for protoplast isolation by demonstrating that plant cell walls could be enzymatically degraded to yield a large number of viable protoplasts. He utilized a concentrated solution of cellulase, derived from cultures of the fungus Myrothecium verrucaria, to break down the cell walls. Nevertheless, significant advancements in this technique occurred after 1968, when cellulase and macerozyme became commercially available, making the process more efficient and widely accessible. The first practical application of commercial enzyme preparations for protoplast isolation was carried out. In their study, tobacco leaf cells were initially treated with macerozyme, an enzyme that breaks down the middle lamella to separate cells. These isolated cells were then exposed to cellulase, which digested the cellulose in the cell walls, releasing protoplasts. Later, researchers combined both enzymes in a single-step procedure, which not only sped up the process but also minimized microbial contamination by reducing the number of handling steps.

Significance and Advancements in Enzymatic Protoplast Isolation:

The enzymatic method is now considered the most effective approach for isolating protoplasts owing to its higher yield, greater viability, and ability to be used on a wide variety of plant tissues and organs. This method is particularly beneficial for genetic engineering, somatic hybridization, and plant tissue culture. With advancements in enzyme purification and optimization, modern protoplast isolation techniques use precise enzyme concentrations, optimal pH levels, and controlled osmotic conditions to enhance efficiency. Additionally, electrofusion and polyethylene glycol (PEG)-mediated fusion techniques have further improved protoplast applications in biotechnology, facilitating the creation of hybrid plants and genetically modified crops.

Direct One Step Method:

In the one-step method for protoplast isolation, leaf segments are incubated overnight (15-18 hours) at 25°C in an enzyme mixture to facilitate cell wall digestion. The softened tissue is then gently teased apart to release the protoplasts. The resulting suspension is filtered through fine wire gauze to remove any remaining leaf debris. Next, the filtrate is transferred to 13 × 1000 mm screw-capped tubes and subjected to centrifugation at 100g for 1 minute, causing the protoplasts to form a pellet, while the supernatant is carefully discarded. This centrifugation and washing process is repeated three times to further purify the protoplasts. Following this, the protoplasts are washed in a 13% sorbitol solution, which is then replaced with a 20% sucrose solution before another centrifugation at 200g for 1 minute. At this stage, the clean protoplasts float to the top, while debris settles at the bottom. The floating protoplasts are then carefully pipetted out and collected in bulk for further applications.

Protoplast Fusion:

It involves the merging of protoplasts from two different genetic backgrounds. Although the precise mechanism of protoplast fusion is not fully understood, it is believed that when protoplasts come into close contact, they enter an induction phase where changes in the membrane's electrostatic potential trigger fusion. Following fusion, the membrane stabilizes, and its surface potential returns to its original state. Other studies suggest that when protoplasts closely adhere, external fusogens can disrupt the proteins and glycoproteins in the membrane, increasing its fluidity. This creates a region where lipid molecules can mix, allowing the adjacent membranes to fuse. The negative charge of protoplasts is mainly due to phosphate groups within the membrane, and the presence of calcium ions (Ca^{2+}) lowers the plasma membrane potential, facilitating fusion.

Protoplast fusion is commonly used to generate hybrid plants that cannot be produced through traditional sexual hybridization. Protoplasts can be isolated from a wide variety of plants, including major crop species. While chemical or physical methods can be used to fuse protoplasts from any two plant species, the successful development of somatic hybrids is often limited by difficulties in regenerating the fused cells into viable plants and by the sterility of interspecific hybrids. One of the most significant uses of protoplast fusion in crop improvement has been in *Nicotiana* (tobacco), where chemically fused somatic hybrids have been employed to modify alkaloid content and enhance disease resistance in commercial tobacco varieties.

Protoplast fusion can be generally divided into two main types:

Spontaneous Fusion:

During the process of protoplast isolation, spontaneous fusion often occurs due to direct physical contact between adjacent protoplasts. This phenomenon, known as spontaneous fusion, is a natural occurrence, similar to cell fusion observed during egg fertilization. As enzymatic degradation of the cell wall takes place, some neighbouring protoplasts may merge, forming homokaryocytes (homokaryons)- cells that contain multiple nuclei. In certain cases, these fused cells can have anywhere from 2 to 40 nuclei, primarily due to the expansion and subsequent merging of plasmodermal connections between cells. Studies have shown that the frequency of homokaryon formation is particularly high in protoplasts isolated from actively dividing cultured cells. Nevertheless, while spontaneously fused protoplasts may undergo a few cell divisions, they generally lack the ability to regenerate into whole plants.

Induced Fusion:

The process of merging freely isolated protoplasts from different sources using fusion inducing chemical agents is referred to as induced fusion. Under normal conditions, isolated protoplasts do not naturally fuse because their surface carries a negative charge (-10 to -30 mV) around the plasma membrane. This electrostatic charge creates a repelling force between protoplasts, preventing their fusion. To overcome this barrier, a fusion-inducing chemical agent or system is required. These agents work by reducing the surface electronegativity of the protoplasts, thereby neutralizing the repelling forces and enabling the protoplasts to come into close contact and merge. Common chemical agents employed for this purpose include polyethylene glycol (PEG), sodium nitrate ($NaNO_3$), and calcium ions (Ca^{2+}), which facilitate membrane destabilization and promote successful fusion This technique offers the potential to combine diverse genotypes beyond the restrictions of traditional sexual reproduction. The primary goal of somatic hybridization relies on induced protoplast fusion. Protoplasts isolated from plants can be stimulated to fuse through three different methods.

Mechanical Fusion:

In this method, isolated protoplasts are mechanically brought into close physical contact under a microscope using a micromanipulator and a perfusion micropipette. The micropipette is partially obstructed within 1 mm of the tip by a sealed glass rod, which helps retain and compress the protoplasts through the flow of liquid. This controlled

pressure facilitates occasional fusion of protoplasts. By utilizing this technique, researchers can observe the fusion process at a microscopic level.

Chemo Fusion:

Various chemicals have been utilized to induce protoplast fusion, including sodium nitrate ($NaNO_3$), polyethylene glycol (PEG), dextran, polyvinyl alcohol (PVA), and calcium ions. Among these, polyethylene glycol (PEG) - a high molecular weight, water-soluble polymer has been identified as a highly effective fusogen. PEG facilitates fusion by interacting with the lipid membranes of protoplasts. The most efficient chemical fusion of protoplasts occurs when polyethylene glycol is combined with calcium ions. In contrast, sodium nitrate ($NaNO_3$) is less preferred because of its low fusion efficiency, especially when working with highly vacuolated mesophyll protoplasts. PEG remains the most commonly employed chemical for this purpose. For optimal results, 30% PEG 1500 solution with a low carbonyl content is recommended, as it enhances the formation of heterokaryons (above 10% of treated protoplasts) while maintaining cell viability. The advancement of biotechnological tools, including protoplast fusion, has enabled researchers to overcome the reproductive barriers present in conventional breeding systems. In hybrid production, protoplasts are extracted from embryogenic calli and leaves, then chemically fused employing PEG. The resulting plants are regenerated through somatic embryogenesis, and successful somatic hybridization is confirmed through leaf morphology, cytological analysis, and DNA (RAPD) markers. Chemofusion, while being a cost-effective and non-specific method, has several drawbacks. It can lead to massive fusion events, cytotoxicity, and a lower fusion frequency, making it less selective in certain applications.

Electro Fusion:

Electro fusion is a fast, straightforward, and well-controlled process, typically completing within 15 minutes. It is also synchronous, allowing for efficient fusion of protoplasts. In this tactic, protoplasts are placed in a small culture vessel comprehending electrodes, where a potential difference is applied, triggering them to align between the electrodes.

Methods of Detection:

Following the regeneration of putative hybrids, a range of advanced methodologies is employed to confirm their hybrid status. While conventional approaches, such as the evaluation of intermediate morphological traits and heteroallelic isozyme patterns, continue to be utilized in contemporary studies, molecular analyses have emerged as the

preferred strategy for hybridity verification. In the absence of species-specific restriction fragment length polymorphism (RFLP) probes, researchers can employ universal gene probes, such as ribosomal DNA (rDNA) from other species. These probes facilitate the differentiation of parental protoplast sources when subjected to restriction enzyme digestion and subsequently analyzed via Southern blotting. This molecular technique enhances the precision of hybrid detection, rendering it an indispensable tool in modern plant biotechnology. Although there are no phylogenetic constraints on protoplast fusion, successful regeneration of somatic hybrids has only been observed when the fusion partners exhibit a certain degree of genetic relatedness. Somatic hybridization has facilitated the circumvention of sexual compatibility barriers, with documented evidence of partial genome transfer following the fusion of a monocot (*Hordeum vulgare* L.) with a dicot (*Daucus carota* L.). However, when fusion partners exhibit excessive genetic divergence, the process frequently results in the formation of unregenerable callus, thereby limiting its application in plant breeding programs.

Advantages:

Protoplast fusion and somatic hybridization represent alternative asexual methodologies for genetic modification, diverging from conventional breeding techniques. These advanced biotechnological approaches enable the direct incorporation of both nuclear and cytoplasmic genomes into plant cells, effectively overcoming the limitations associated with conventional breeding barriers. By facilitating the fusion of isolated protoplasts from distinct plant species or cultivars, these techniques allow for the recombination of desirable genetic traits independently of sexual reproduction. Somatic hybridization contributes to the expansion of genetic diversity within the germplasm pool, thereby strengthening the foundation for crop improvement. This technique permits the transfer of multiple uncharacterized or uncloned genes more efficiently than transgenic methods, which are typically confined to the insertion of specific, well-characterized genes. In recent years, somatic hybrids (SHs) have gained prominence as a viable alternative for overcoming challenges related to sexual incompatibility in plant breeding. Compared to sexually derived hybrids, somatic hybrids frequently exhibit a greater degree of chromosomal rearrangements, polyploidization, and other genomic modifications. These genetic alterations arise from the direct fusion of protoplasts from genetically diverse species or cultivars, resulting in novel genetic combinations that may confer enhanced stress tolerance, disease resistance, and superior agronomic performance.

Applications:

Somatic hybridization has been extensively utilized to enhance agronomic and medicinal plant species by improving qualitative and quantitative traits, disease resistance, and other desirable attributes. For instance, somatic hybridization has been employed to confer resistance to potato leaf roll disease in Solanum tuberosum. The somatic hybridization process involves three fundamental stages: protoplast fusion, hybrid cell selection, and hybrid plant identification. This methodology has facilitated the transfer of valuable genetic traits among diverse plant species. The rapid advancements achieved through somatic hybridization are exemplified by the development of intergeneric hybrid crops within the Brassicaceae family. The successful selection of hybrids and the application of protoplast fusion techniques for hybridization have been documented in economically significant crops such as Brassica spp., citrus, rice, carrot, canola, tomato, and forage legumes including alfalfa and clover.

Overcoming Sexual Incompatibility Barriers:

To circumvent barriers of sexual incompatibility, researchers have investigated the generation of interspecific and intergeneric hybrids among plant species that are otherwise recalcitrant to conventional hybridization techniques. Hybridization at interspecific and intergeneric levels frequently fails due to prezygotic and postzygotic incompatibility barriers. However, these obstacles may be surmounted through somatic cell fusion. Melchers and Labib successfully utilized albino mutants in a complementation selection process to generate green intraspecific tobacco hybrids. Moreover, interspecific somatic hybrid plants have been successfully produced from sexually incompatible species within genera such as Nicotiana, Petunia, Daucus, and Datura. Additionally, species such as Nicotiana repanda, N. nesophila, and N. stockoni, which exhibit strong disease resistance but are sexually incompatible with N. tabacum, present viable candidates for trait incorporation through somatic hybridization.

Cytoplasmic Genetic Transfer:

The absence of a protective cell wall in isolated protoplasts renders them highly amenable to genetic and cytoplasmic modifications. Studies have demonstrated that plant protoplasts possess an intrinsic capacity to internalize isolated nuclei, DNA, chromosomes, chloroplasts, cyanobacteria, nitrogen-fixing bacteria, and viral particles. A critical application of protoplast fusion is the generation of cybrids, which are cells or plants that retain the nuclear genome of one species while incorporating cytoplasmic components from both parental species. Cybrids arise at variable frequencies during protoplast fusion

through mechanisms such as the fusion of a normal protoplast with an enucleated protoplast, the selective loss of one parental nucleus from a heterokaryon, or the progressive elimination of chromosomes from a hybrid cell during mitotic division. The efficiency of cybrid formation can be markedly enhanced by irradiating one parental protoplast before fusion to inactivate its nucleus or by generating enucleated protoplasts from one species and fusing them with intact protoplasts from another.

Disease and Insect Resistance:

Numerous resistance genes have been successfully introgressed between plant species via somatic hybridization. For example, resistance to tobacco mosaic virus, spotted wilt virus, and insect pests has been introduced into tomato cultivars. Asymmetric somatic hybridization has been employed to transfer bacterial blight resistance from the wild species *Oryza meyeriana L.* ssp. to *Oryza sativa L. Japonica*. This approach is particularly advantageous as it enables the partial transfer of a genome, thereby enhancing genomic stability relative to complete genome transfer. In crop improvement programs, the introgression of resistance traits from wild Nicotiana species has significantly contributed to the genetic enhancement of cultivated tobacco, with beneficial traits derived from at least 13 Nicotiana species incorporated into commercial cultivars.

Genetic Recombination in Asexual or Sterile Plants:

Somatic cell fusion constitutes one of the few viable methodologies for achieving genetic recombination in asexual or sterile plant species. Protoplast fusion has also been employed to restore fertility in sexually sterile plants, leading to the formation of diploid and polyploid hybrids. Several studies have reported the successful generation of amphidiploid and hexaploid hybrids through the fusion of haploid tobacco protoplasts. Similarly, dihaploid potato protoplasts have been fused with Solanum brevidens, resulting in hybrids with significant breeding potential. The fusion of haploid protoplasts derived from anther callus in rice cultivars has also led to the development of fertile diploid and triploid hybrids.

Limitations:

Despite the promising applications of somatic hybridization, experimental outcomes have been suboptimal. The ability to selectively manipulate somatic hybrid cells and regenerate whole plants from them remains constrained, with success limited to a few species where *In-vitro* culture techniques are highly optimized. The primary objective of protoplast fusion and somatic hybridization was to overcome pre-fertilization barriers

associated with sexual incompatibility and genomic divergence. However, successful intergeneric hybridization between highly divergent plant species remains elusive. The loss of chromosomes from hybrid cells in wide crosses poses a significant impediment to the formation of desirable hybrids. Moreover, there is no universally standardized protocol for the identification, selection, and isolation of hybrid cells in culture, further complicating the process.

Conclusion:

Somatic hybridization can support traditional breeding by generating new lines that serve as elite breeding materials for improving both scion and rootstock through conventional crosses. Additionally, the successful regeneration of fertile plants from protoplasts across numerous species has encouraged extensive research on gene transfer techniques using protoplasts. Most somatic hybrids require backcrossing to the adapted parent for cultivar development. Understanding chromosomal behaviour during sexual crosses is crucial, as rapid chromosome elimination through backcrossing necessitates homologous pairing for intergenomic recombination. This is more feasible in interspecific and intergeneric hybrids but less effective in intertribal hybrids, which are better suited for creating nuclear-cytoplasmic combinations like CMS systems. While transgenic technology has largely surpassed somatic hybridization due to its precision in modifying specific traits, somatic hybridization remains valuable as it avoids GMO-related regulatory restrictions. However, it requires further breeding efforts to stabilize desirable traits in a commercially viable genetic background. Despite its quieter impact compared to genetic engineering, somatic hybridization has contributed to disease resistance and stress tolerance in plant breeding programs. Somatic hybridization plays a key role in developing interspecific and intergeneric hybrids, contributing to crop improvement. It enables the production of fertile diploids and polyploids from sterile haploids, triploids, and aneuploids. This technique facilitates the transfer of genes for disease resistance, abiotic stress tolerance, herbicide resistance, and quality traits, overcoming limitations of conventional breeding. Many somatic hybrids with valuable resistances have already been integrated into modern breeding programmes.

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ADVANCES IN PLANT TRANSCRIPTOMICS: APPLICATIONS AND TECHNIQUES

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Abstract:

Transcriptomics focuses on the investigation of gene expression at the transcript level in plants. It has fundamentally changed how we understand plant biology and is important to many areas of plant research. Through the discovery of molecular markers linked to critical agronomic properties, transcriptomics has accelerated breeding programs, directed genetic engineering techniques, and offered a systems-level knowledge of plant biology. Transcriptomics is positioned to continue playing a key role in elucidating the complexity of plant biology and advancing crop improvement and biotechnology with additional improvements in sequencing technologies, data processing techniques, and integration with other omics methodologies. Transcriptomics permits the thorough profiling of gene expression in various tissues, developmental stages, and environmental situations by using high-throughput sequencing methods, such as RNA sequencing (RNA-seq).

Keywords: Transcriptome, Transcriptomics, RNA-seq, Microarray, Gene Expression Profiling.

Introduction:

Plant breeding is a scientific approach aimed at improving crops to benefit humans. It relies on genetic variation, selection, and the evaluation of inbred lines, populations, or hybrids. Advances in biotechnology can further accelerate the pace of plant breeding and enhance genetic gains. Crossing schemes based on parents' DNA fingerprints will help improve the introduction of genetic variation, while DNA markers will increase the reliability of selection based on field trials. Advanced experimental designs and biometric methods will enhance the accuracy and precision of evaluations. Genetic engineering offers

a means to introduce traits from other species that are not present in the target crop gene pool or its wild relatives.

Until the last decade of the 20th century, plant breeding was primarily based on incorporating information about genes (Mendelian approach) or relatives (biometric approach). The response to selection indicates the genetic gain resulting from the crossing of selected parents. This genetic gain depends on available phenotypic variation, trait heritability, selection intensity, and the time spent completing a selection cycle. In the past 20-25 years, DNA-derived technologies have led to the development of marker-assisted breeding (MAB). Omics research has further expanded our understanding of gene functions. Through molecular breeding, which uses new techniques and tools to assemble crop diversity, manage genetic variation, and exploit it to create new cultivars, DNA sequencing helps unravel the connections between alleles that influence phenotypes.

Transcriptome

It is the complete set of non-coding and coding RNAs, that are transcribed at certain developmental stages or physiological conditions.

Transcriptomics

Morozova *et al.* (2009) defined transcriptomics as the study of the transcriptome, which refers to the complete set of transcripts (RNAs) produced by a particular cell, tissue, or organism. This includes both messenger RNAs (mRNAs), which are translated into proteins, and non-coding RNAs (ncRNAs), which do not encode proteins but have regulatory and structural roles. The main objectives of transcriptomics are to catalog all types of transcripts, including mRNAs, non-coding RNAs, and small RNAs; to identify the transcriptional structure of genes, such as the start sites, 5′ and 3′ ends, splicing patterns, and other post-transcriptional modifications; and to measure changes in the expression levels of each transcript over time and under different environmental conditions.

An organism may have multiple transcriptomes, as the transcriptome can vary depending on several factors, such as different tissues or organs, distinct developmental stages within an individual, and various environmental influences. Transcriptomics has become one of the most widely used methods for exploring the biology of organisms. Techniques for analyzing differential gene expression have expanded into nearly every field of biological research, ranging from genetics and biochemistry to ecology and evolution. Consequently, this has led to the discovery of many genes, alleles, and alternative

splicing events across a variety of species, providing a deeper understanding of genetic regulation and function.

Importance of transcriptomics in plants

A crucial technique in plant research is transcriptomics, the study of gene expression at the RNA level. The regulatory systems that govern plant growth, development, and response to environmental challenges are revealed through transcriptomic analysis. Major applications are

- **Gene Discovery**: Transcriptomic analysis helps identify new genes involved in specific biological processes. This information is vital for understanding the genetic foundation of plant traits, which can then be applied to create new crop varieties with desired characteristics. By analyzing the transcriptome, researchers can discover genes that may have previously been overlooked, shedding light on their roles in plant growth, development, and stress responses.
- **Gene Expression Profiling**: Transcriptomics allows the examination of gene expression patterns in different tissues, developmental stages, and under various environmental conditions. This helps identify genes that are specifically expressed in certain tissues or during particular processes. For example, genes involved in stress resistance may show upregulated expression under drought conditions, providing insights into how plants adapt to environmental challenges.
- **Gene Function Annotation**: By comparing transcriptomic data with existing gene databases, researchers can annotate the function of genes, particularly those whose functions are unknown. The identification of similar genes in other organisms with well-characterized roles helps predict the functions of these unknown genes. This process is crucial for understanding the molecular mechanisms driving plant traits and can inform breeding strategies.
- **Systems Biology**: Transcriptomic data can be integrated with other omics approaches like proteomics and metabolomics to create comprehensive models of biological systems. These models help identify key regulatory networks and predict how changes in gene expression might impact plant phenotypes. For example, combining transcriptomic data with metabolomic data can give insights into how a plant's metabolic pathways are altered in response to environmental stimuli.

- **Plant Biotechnology**: In the realm of genetically engineered crops, transcriptomics is essential for evaluating the impact of gene editing or gene insertion on gene expression patterns in plants. This helps researchers assess whether the modification results in the desired traits and confirm that the altered crops are safe for human consumption and environmental use. Through transcriptomic analysis, unintended off-target effects of genetic modifications can be identified, ensuring the safety and effectiveness of the genetically modified crops.

Tools and Techniques in Transcriptomics

1. **SAGE**

Serial Analysis of Gene Expression (SAGE) was the first sequencing-based technique designed to simultaneously estimate the abundance of thousands of transcripts. The approach is based on the principle that a short DNA sequence (a tag) of 9-11 base pairs, taken from a known position within a transcript, provides enough information to uniquely identify that transcript. SAGE measures transcript abundance by counting how often these tags appear.

In essence, the technique involves creating a library of mRNA transcripts, each linked to a unique concatenated tag. These tags are counted to determine the relative abundance of the associated transcripts. The tag sequences are then compared to existing reference sequences in databases to identify the corresponding transcripts. The clones are sequenced using traditional Sanger sequencing. Variations in gene expression between different samples are analyzed by comparing the frequency of these tags in multiple SAGE libraries.

Advantages of SAGE:

- **Higher Throughput**: Unlike methods such as EST sequencing or microarrays, SAGE includes multiple tags from different transcripts in a single plasmid vector, rather than a single clone for each cDNA fragment representing just one transcript. This leads to an increase in the data generated per sequencing run and reduces overall costs.
- **Novel Transcript Discovery**: SAGE is capable of identifying novel transcripts, including those with low expression levels. In contrast, microarray technology relies on pre-existing sequences and is therefore unable to detect new or unknown transcripts.

- **Precise Measurement of Transcript Abundance**: By counting the frequency of tags, SAGE provides an accurate measure of transcript abundance. This makes it easier to compare gene expression levels across different samples and experimental conditions.

Limitations of SAGE:

- **Tag Ambiguity**: Short tags often match multiple genes with similar coding sequences, making it difficult to assign tags to a single transcript with certainty. This can complicate the interpretation of results and annotation of tags.
- **Dependence on Comprehensive Databases**: Reliable annotation of tags requires comprehensive EST or genome databases. Without such resources, it can be challenging to accurately identify and annotate the transcripts.

2. Microarray

Microarrays are a high-throughput technique used to concurrently evaluate the expression levels of thousands of genes. Thousands of DNA probes must be immobilized on a solid surface before they can be hybridized with labelled cDNA or RNA from a sample. Quantifying the levels of gene expression is done by measuring the hybridization signal's strength. mRNA is an intermediary molecule that carries the genetic information from the cell nucleus to the cytoplasm for protein synthesis. Whenever some genes are expressed or are in their active state, many copies of mRNA corresponding to the particular genes are produced by a process called transcription. These mRNAs synthesize the corresponding protein by translation.

So, indirectly by assessing the various mRNAs, we can assess the genetic information or the gene expression. This helps in the understanding of various processes behind every altered genetic expression. Thus, mRNA acts as a surrogate marker. Since mRNA is degraded easily, it is necessary to convert it into a more stable cDNA form. Labelling of cDNA is done by fluorochrome dyes Cy3 (green) and Cy5 (red). The principle behind microarrays is that complementary sequences will bind to each other.

Microarrays are prepared in a stepwise fashion by the *In-situ* synthesis of nucleic acids and other biopolymers from biochemical building blocks. With each round of synthesis, nucleotides are added to growing chains until the desired length is achieved. Molecules such as cDNAs are amplified by PCR and purified, and small quantities are deposited onto known locations using a variety of delivery technologies. The key technical

parameters for evaluating the microarray synthesis include microarray density and design, biochemical composition and versatility, reproducibility, throughput, quality, cost and ease of prototyping.

3. RNA-Seq

RNA sequencing (RNA-seq) is a sequencing-based technique that enables the measurement of gene expression levels and the discovery of new transcripts. RNA-seq entails cDNA synthesis, cDNA fragment sequencing, and read mapping to a reference genome or de novo assembly. RNA-seq involves high-throughput cDNA sequencing using direct transcript sequencing. This method gives a better approximation of the absolute expression levels and is more dynamic. These are the primary benefits of RNA-seq over microarrays. Another benefit is that utilizing RNA-seq analysis, we can find gene isoforms that are difficult to detect using microarrays.

The amount of reads that are mapped to an area of interest, such as a gene, is often used to measure the relative abundance of its expression. Reads are typically mapped to a reference genome. Additionally, isoforms from transcripts can be recognized by the programs that do assembly using the reference genome. But unlike previous techniques for the large-scale study of gene expression, RNA-seq also permits the assembly of transcripts without the need for a reference genome (de novo assembly). The assembly of transcripts is followed by data normalization. EST libraries, microarrays, and RNA-seq are just a few examples of high-throughput transcriptome analyses that provide lists of hundreds or even thousands of differentially expressed genes.

One of the biggest challenges in the study of the transcriptome is to meaningfully interpret biological information from a list of differentially expressed genes. Several bioinformatics tools have been developed to address this issue. Gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA), which connects the words of GO to find the most representative ontologies in the list of differentially expressed genes and the functional categorization of genes based on Gene Ontology are two of these approaches. The selection of a collection of genes to confirm the expression pattern using another approach to quantify the expression level follows the identification of significant genes and pathways regulating the biological environment under research. Real-time PCR is typically employed for this stage because it is a more sensitive, focused, and reliable technique when compared to techniques for large-scale profiling of the transcriptome, such as microarrays and RNA-seq.

4. RT-PCR

Reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) is a method for measuring the levels of gene expression in certain genes. RNA is reverse transcribed into cDNA, and the cDNA is then amplified using PCR using particular primers.

5. Ribosome profiling

This sequencing-based technique allows for the evaluation of the ribosome occupancy and translational efficacy of mRNA transcripts. Identifies actively translated transcripts and analyzes translation start and elongation, which entails extracting ribosome-protected mRNA segments and sequencing them.

6. Nanostring

It is a hybridization-based method that allows for the simultaneous evaluation of gene expression levels for up to 800 genes. This technique involves using specific probes designed to capture targeted RNA transcripts, followed by a computerized counting system to measure the quantity of these transcripts.

7. Iso-seq

Isoform sequencing is a technique that uses sequencing technology to analyze full-length mRNA transcripts. It helps identify alternative splicing events and transcript isoforms by sequencing cDNA fragments that are size-selected to ensure only full-length transcripts are included in the analysis.

8. scRNA-seq

Single-cell RNA sequencing (scRNA-seq) is a sequencing-based technology that allows for the examination of gene expression patterns in individual cells. It involves isolating and sequencing the transcriptome of a single cell, which enables the identification of distinct cell subtypes and the variation in gene expression between different cells.

Application of Transcriptomics in Plants

Transcriptomics provides insights into plant growth, development, response to environmental stimuli, and physiological processes such as,

- Hormone signalling and regulation
- Plant responses to abiotic and biotic stresses
- Gene expression in plant developmental stages
- Carbon fixation and photosynthesis
- Biosynthesis pathway of secondary metabolites in medicinal plants

Case Studies in Plant Transcriptomics

Transcriptome alterations in 10 Arabidopsis ecotypes were studied using single and combined stress treatments to analyze responses to cold, heat, high light, salt, and flagellin. The findings revealed that only 5% to 10% of the responding transcripts prioritized antagonistic responses, while 61% of the transcriptomic alterations under multiple stress conditions were not predicted by responses to single stressors. Additionally, co-expression network modules were identified that reacted to both single and combined stress situations.

Kang *et al.* (2020) conducted RNA-seq studies on peppers exposed to heat, cold, salt, and osmotic stress across six time points. Through gene ontology enrichment analysis and differential gene expression, a total of 204.68 Gb of transcriptome data was generated. The study included three biological replicates per time point for each abiotic stress and control. The results are expected to aid in the development of stress-resistant pepper cultivars by analyzing the transcriptomic responses to different stimuli.

In a separate study, transgenic rice plants overexpressing the glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (PsGAPDH) gene were created to explore its role in salinity stress tolerance. RNA-seq analysis identified 1124 differentially expressed transcripts. Notably, trehalose-6-phosphate synthase (TPS) genes exhibited significant differences, and pathway analysis revealed that unigenes were involved in starch and sucrose metabolism. These findings suggest that PsGAPDH plays a key role in rice's response to salt stress.

In tomato (*Solanum lycopersicum*), the transcription factor ELONGATED HYPOCOTYL 5 (HY5) regulates fruit ripening. Transcriptome profiling of Slhy5 mutants revealed 2948 differentially expressed genes, with 1424 downregulated and 1524 upregulated. SlHY5 was shown to directly target genes involved in carotenoid and anthocyanin production, as well as ethylene signaling. Additionally, it impacted ribosomal protein gene expression and translation efficiency, highlighting its role in fruit ripening and nutritional quality.

The dynamic changes in the transcriptome of *Arabidopsis thaliana* subjected to freezing temperatures (4°C) were explored using strand-specific RNA sequencing (ssRNA-seq). During cold treatments, 7,623 differentially expressed genes (DEGs) exhibited temporal variations. These DEGs were enriched in pathways related to cold response, secondary metabolism, photosynthesis, glucosinolate production, and plant hormone signaling. The study also identified long non-coding RNAs (lncRNAs) and discovered 3,621

differentially alternatively spliced genes, with 739 cold-regulated transcription factors (TFs) across 52 gene families.

Future Thrust in Plant Transcriptomics

Although plant transcriptomics has significantly advanced our knowledge of plant biology, there are still fascinating areas that promise to make much more progress. Main priority areas and probable future plant transcriptomics directions are given below:

Integration of several omics technologies: Transcriptomics can help us understand plant biology more thoroughly if we combine it with omics technologies like proteomics, metabolomics, and epigenomics. To get a systems-level knowledge of how plants function and respond to environmental signals, multi-omics techniques can identify the relationships between gene expression, protein abundance, metabolite profiles, and epigenetic alterations.

Single-cell transcriptomics: Single-cell transcriptomics enables gene expression to be analyzed at the level of individual cells, revealing cellular heterogeneity and cell-specific gene expression patterns. Researchers may soon be able to decipher intricate developmental processes, cell fate determination, and regulatory networks at the cellular level thanks to improvements in single-cell transcriptomics techniques adapted for plant systems.

Long-read sequencing: Long-read sequencing methods, like those offered by PacBio and Oxford Nanopore, allow for the sequencing of whole transcripts as well as the capture of complicated isoforms and alternative splicing events. The understanding of transcript Page | 277 diversity, alternative splicing control, and gene structure in plants will improve with further advancements in long-read sequencing technology and data processing technique.

Non-coding RNA functional annotation: The expression of genes in plants is significantly regulated by non-coding RNAs (ncRNAs), such as microRNAs, long non-coding RNAs, and circular RNAs. The intricate regulatory networks and molecular mechanisms regulating plant growth, stress responses, and other biological processes will be better understood with further investigation of ncRNA activities and their regulatory roles through transcriptomics.

Spatial transcriptomics: The visualisation of gene expression patterns inside tissues and organs is made possible by spatial transcriptomics, which combines gene expression

profiling with spatial information. Spontaneous cell-to-cell communication, tissue specific gene expression, and the spatial organisation of gene expression within plant tissues will all be better understood as a result of developments in spatial transcriptomics technology.

Comparative transcriptomics: Understanding of the evolution of gene expression, adaptive mechanisms, and the conservation or divergence of regulatory networks will be strengthened by comparative transcriptomics across many plant species. Comparative research can shed light on the genetic underpinnings of plant variety and evolutionary novelties by identifying conserved gene modules and regulatory components.

High-throughput functional genomics: The functional characterization of genes and regulatory elements discovered by transcriptome analysis will proceed more quickly with the incorporation of transcriptomics with high-throughput functional genomics techniques, such as CRISPR-based gene editing and high throughput phenotyping. This will boost our capacity to manipulate plant characteristics and create resilient, high-yielding crops.

Conclusion:

Transcriptomics, which provides valuable insights into gene expression patterns, regulatory networks, and molecular processes, plays a crucial role in advancing plant research and enhancing agricultural productivity. This field is pivotal in developing improved crop varieties with better yields, stress tolerance, and nutritional quality. Furthermore, transcriptomics aids in the discovery of novel genes and guides genetic engineering strategies aimed at enhancing crop traits.

As the field of plant transcriptomics continues to evolve, it holds immense potential to deepen our understanding of plant biology. It will play a key role in addressing pressing challenges in agriculture, such as climate change, pests, and diseases, while also accelerating the development of sustainable methods for crop improvement. Future advancements in transcriptomics promise to transform agricultural practices, leading to more resilient and productive crops that can help meet the growing global demand for food.

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Innovative Genomic Strategies for Modern Plant Breeding: Techniques, Applications, and Future Prospects

(ISBN: 978-93-48620-59-0)

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Chapter- 34

REVIEW ARTICLE ON QUANTUM ENTANGLEMENT

Nikhil Bhagat [1], Rahul Kajalkar [2]

ISBN: 978-93-89476-95-8 | **DOI:** 10.25215/938947695X.34

Abstract

Quantum entanglement is a fundamental concept in quantum physics, defined by non-local connections between particles. This review looks at the theoretical basis, experimental approaches, and applications of quantum entanglement. This paper examines the evolution of entanglement from early philosophical discussions to present technological advancements, providing a full grasp of its significance in quantum computing, cryptography, and teleportation.

1. Introduction

Quantum entanglement is a phenomenon in which quantum particles become entangled to the point where the state of one particle cannot be described independently of the state of the other, regardless of their distance from one another [1]. Since its initial proposal in the early twentieth century, entanglement has been the topic of much debate and research. This review article examines the historical history, theoretical foundations, experimental developments, and applications of quantum entanglement, providing insights into its role in modern quantum technologies.

2. Theoretical Foundations

2.1 Historical Background

Albert Einstein, Boris Podolsky, and Nathan Rosen (EPR) established the concept of quantum entanglement in 1935, in a paper underlining quantum physics' counterintuitive consequence [2]. The paradox stated that if quantum mechanics were complete, it would result in "spooky action at a distance," which appeared to contradict conventional notions of locality and realism.

2.2 Bell's Theorem

In 1964, John Bell proposed a theory that allowed for the experimental testing of quantum mechanics predictions against those of local hidden variable theories. Bell's inequalities demonstrated that no local hidden variable theory could accurately duplicate all of quantum mechanics' predictions [3]. Experiments since then have consistently violated Bell's inequalities, corroborating the quantum mechanical account of entanglement.

2.3 Quantum States and Entanglement

Quantum entanglement is the superposition of states in which the entire wavefunction of a system cannot be separated into independent wavefunctions of its constituent particles. An entangled state

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can be mathematically expressed as follows: where and are the basic states of subsystems A and B, and are the complex coefficients that characterize the entanglement.

3. Experimental Techniques

3.1 Generation of Entangled States

Several ways have been developed to produce entangled states, including:

- SPDC: A nonlinear optical process that splits a photon into two lower-energy entangled photons.
- Ion traps and cold atoms use electromagnetic fields to create entangled states.
- Superconducting Qubits: Josephson junctions are used to create and regulate entangled states in superconducting circuits.

3.2 Measurement and Verification

Entanglement is confirmed through experiments that examine the relationships anticipated by quantum theory. Techniques include Bell Test Experiments, which are designed to test Bell's inequalities. Quantum Tomography is a technique for reconstructing quantum states by assessing the probabilities of various possibilities [4].

4. Applications of Quantum Entanglement

4.1 Quantum Computing

Quantum entanglement is a valuable resource in quantum computing, allowing for phenomena such as quantum parallelism and entanglement-based algorithms. Entanglement allows quantum computers to execute operations that classical computers cannot, such as factoring enormous numbers or mimicking quantum systems.

4.2 Quantum Cryptography

Entanglement serves as the foundation for quantum key distribution (QKD) protocols such as BB84 and E91, which enable potentially unbreakable encryption by detecting eavesdropping via the disturbance of entangled states.

4.3 Quantum Teleportation

Quantum teleportation employs entanglement to transport quantum states across distant sites without physically moving the particles themselves. This has ramifications for both secure communication and quantum network development.

5. Challenges and Future Directions

5.1 Scalability

Scaling systems to a larger number of qubits while retaining coherence and entanglement is one of the most difficult aspects of entanglement harnessing.

5.2 Decoherence

Entangled states are unstable and prone to decoherence as a result of interactions with the environment. Developing error correction and fault-tolerant strategies is critical for viable quantum technologies.

5.3 Integration with Classical Systems

Integrating quantum systems into existing conventional infrastructure poses technological and conceptual problems, necessitating advances in quantum-classical interface and hybrid systems.

6. Conclusion

Quantum entanglement remains an important topic in both fundamental physics and applied quantum technologies. Its enigmatic nature continues to test our understanding of reality, while practical applications promise to transform computers, communication, and sensing. Continued study in this sector is anticipated to bring new discoveries and technology, improving our understanding of the quantum world.

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CENTRAL BUDGET 2025 AND SERVICE SECTOR IN INDIA

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9 788198 492630

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"Central Budget 2025 and Service Sector in India"

Editor
Dr. Narendra H. Shegokar

Co-Editor
Principal Dr. Dnyaneshwar Vishnu Gore
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ISBN : 978-81-984926-3-0

Published & Printed by
Sandesh Dadarao Pahulkar
Eagle Leap Printers and Publisher Pvt. Ltd.
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Publishing Date
17 MARCH 2025

Cover
Eagle Infomedia, Pune

₹ 500

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 ISBN : 978-81-984926-3-0

सेवा क्षेत्राचे कर संरचनेतील योगदान : एक चिकित्सात्मक अभ्यास

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21 RESEARCH PAPER - MARATHI

सारांश :

हा शोध अभ्यास एकूणच सेवा क्षेत्राच्या कर योगदानाचा शोध घेतो, सेवा कराच्या उत्क्रांती आणि भारतीय अर्थव्यवस्थेवरील त्याचा परिणाम यावर लक्ष केंद्रित करतो. सेवा क्षेत्र भारतातील आर्थिक वाढीचा एक महत्त्वाचा चालक म्हणून उदयास आले आहे, ज्याचे देशाच्या जीडीपीमध्ये अंदाजे ६०% योगदान आहे. १९९४ मध्ये सेवा कर लागू झाल्यानंतर आणि २०१७ मध्ये वस्तू आणि सेवा कर (जीएसटी) लागू झाल्यानंतर, भारताच्या सेवा कर प्रणालीमध्ये मोठे परिवर्तन झाले आहे. हा अभ्यास जीएसटी अंमलबजावणीपूर्वी आणि नंतर सेवा कर प्रणालीचे ऐतिहासिक संदर्भ, प्रमुख वैशिष्ट्ये आणि परिणाम तपासतो. हे संशोधन भारताच्या एकूण कर महसुलात सेवा क्षेत्राच्या योगदानाचा देखील अभ्यास करते, कर अनुपालन, कर चुकवणे आणि प्रशासनाच्या बाबतीत व्यवसाय आणि कर अधिकाऱ्यांना भेडसावणाऱ्या आव्हानांवर प्रकाश टाकते.

विद्यमान कर संरचनांच्या विश्लेषणाद्वारे, अभ्यासाचे उद्दिष्ट भारतातील सेवांसाठी सध्याच्या कर वातावरणाची व्यापक समज प्रदान करणे आहे. हा पेपर लघु आणि मध्यम उद्योग (एसएमई) आणि ई-कॉमर्स, डिजिटल सेवा आणि सीमापार व्यवहार यासारख्या उदयोन्मुख सेवा क्षेत्रांशी संबंधित विशिष्ट समस्यांचा अधिक तपास करतो. शेवटी, हा अभ्यास सेवा कराच्या जागतिक सर्वोत्तम पद्धतींचा शोध घेतो आणि भविष्यातील आव्हानांना तोंड देण्यासाठी, विशेषतः तांत्रिक प्रगती आणि वाढत्या डिजिटल अर्थव्यवस्थेच्या प्रकाशात, भारताच्या करप्रणालीत सुधारणा करण्यासाठी शिफारसी देतो. या अभ्यासाचे निष्कर्ष आर्थिक चौकटीत सेवा कराच्या विकसित होत असलेल्या भूमिकेबद्दल मौल्यवान अंतर्दृष्टी प्रदान करतील आणि करप्रणालीमध्ये कार्यक्षमता, निष्पक्षता आणि शाश्वतता सुधारण्याचे मार्ग सुचवतील.

ISBN : 978-81-984926-3-0

प्रस्तावना :

भारतीय अर्थव्यवस्थेत सेवा क्षेत्र हे प्रमुख क्षेत्र म्हणून उदयास आले आहे आणि घटक खर्चावर जीडीपीमध्ये त्याचा वाटा २०२३-२४ मध्ये सुमारे ६० टक्क्यांपर्यंत वाढला आहे. या व्यतिरिक्त, सेवा क्षेत्र रोजगार, आंतरराष्ट्रीय व्यापार आणि थेट परकीय गुंतवणुकीत वाढ करण्यात योगदान देत आहे. भारतातील सेवा क्षेत्राच्या वाढीचे सर्वात लक्षणीय वैशिष्ट्य म्हणजे उदारीकरणानंतरच्या काळात व्यवसाय, दळणवळण आणि वित्त यासारख्या सेवांमध्ये झालेली जलद वाढ. १९९० च्या दशकात आयसीटी (माहिती आणि दळणवळण तंत्रज्ञान) चे आगमन हे सेवा क्षेत्राच्या वाढीतील मोठ्या प्रमाणात वाढीमागील मुख्य कारण होते. आयसीटी स्पिलओव्हरमुळे व्यवहार खर्च कमी करण्यात आणि नवोपक्रमांना गती देण्यात मदत झाली. सेवा क्षेत्रातील वाढीमुळे विशेषीकरण, विस्तारित बाजारपेठा आणि प्रचंड नेटवर्क बाह्यता वाढली आहे. सेवा क्षेत्रातील वाढीमुळे अर्थव्यवस्थेच्या इतर कमोडिटी-उत्पादक क्षेत्रांमध्ये वाढ झाल्याचे दिसून येते. अलीकडील जागतिक आर्थिक संकटादरम्यान भारतीय अर्थव्यवस्थेने जगातील सर्वोच्च विकास दरांपैकी एक दर राखून लक्षणीय लवचिकता दर्शविली. सेवा क्षेत्राच्या वाढीने या लवचिकतेत मोठा वाटा उचलला. अशा परिस्थितीत, भारताच्या सेवा क्षेत्राच्या कर योगदानाचा अभ्यास सेवा कर महसुलाची पातळी आणि रचना यासारख्या व्यापक प्रश्नांवर लक्ष केंद्रित करून करण्याचा आणि भारतातील सेवा कर आकारणीचे परीक्षण मॅक्रो-इकॉनॉमिक दृष्टिकोनातून करण्याचा प्रयत्न करणे क्रमप्राप्त आहे.

अभ्यासाची उद्दिष्टे:

या अभ्यासाची प्राथमिक उद्दिष्टे खालीलप्रमाणे आहेत :

१. भारतातील सेवा कराच्या उत्क्रांतीचे विश्लेषण करणे.

२. भारताच्या जीडीपी आणि कर महसुलात सेवा क्षेत्राचे योगदान मूल्यांकन करणे.

३. सेवा कर लागू झाल्यापासून ते जीएसटीच्या अंमलबजावणीपर्यंत भारतातील सेवा कराच्या उत्क्रांतीचे परीक्षण करणे.

४. जीएसटी राजवटीत सेवा कराच्या रचनेचे आणि क्षेत्रावरील त्याच्या परिणामाचे विश्लेषण करणे.

भारतातील सेवा क्षेत्राचा आढावा :

भारताचे सेवा क्षेत्र हे जगातील सर्वात मोठ्या क्षेत्रांपैकी एक आहे आणि गेल्या काही दशकांमध्ये त्यात प्रचंड वाढ झाली आहे. या क्षेत्रात विविध उद्योगांचा समावेश आहे जसे की:

- वित्तीय सेवा

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- पर्यटन
- आयटी आणि सॉफ्टवेअर सेवा
- दूरसंचार
- आरोग्यसेवा
- शिक्षण
- मनोरंजन
- वाहतूक आणि लॉजिस्टिक्स
- रिअल इस्टेट

वित्त मंत्रालयाच्या अहवालांनुसार, सेवा क्षेत्र भारताच्या जीडीपीमध्ये जवळजवळ ६०% योगदान देते आणि लोकसंख्येच्या एका मोठ्या भागाला रोजगार देते. सेवांच्या जलद वाढीने, विशेषतः आयटी, शिक्षण, आरोग्यसेवा आणि वित्तीय सेवांमध्ये, भारताला या क्षेत्रांमध्ये जागतिक दर्जाच्या खेळाडू सारखे बनवले आहे.

भारतातील सेवा कराचा इतिहास :

१९९४-९५ मध्ये भारतात सेवा कर लागू करण्यात आला, जो भारतीय संविधानाच्या 'वित्त कायदा १९९४' च्या तरतुदींनुसार होता. सेवा कर हा भारतात केंद्र सरकारद्वारे आकारला जाणारा अप्रत्यक्ष कर आहे. केंद्राद्वारे आकारल्या जाणाऱ्या इतर अप्रत्यक्ष करांमध्ये केंद्रीय उत्पादन शुल्क आणि सीमा शुल्क यांचा समावेश आहे. देशात सेवा कर लागू केल्याने अप्रत्यक्ष कर व्यवस्थेत एक मोठा संरचनात्मक बदल झाला. याने व्यापक कर-पाया तयार झाला आणि उत्पादन शुल्काच्या तर्कसंगतीकरणाची प्रक्रिया सुलभ झाली, ज्यामुळे उत्पादक क्षेत्रांवर 'कमी कराचा भार' पडला.

भारतात सेवा कर : एक ऐतिहासिक दृष्टीकोन :

वाढत्या सेवा क्षेत्रातून महसूल निर्माण करण्याच्या सरकारच्या प्रयत्नांचा एक भाग म्हणून, १९९४ मध्ये वित्त कायद्याअंतर्गत भारतात सेवा कर लागू करण्यात आला. सुरुवातीला सेवा कर कायद्याअंतर्गत फक्त काही सेवांवर कर आकारला जात होता, परंतु कालांतराने, करपात्र सेवांची व्याप्ती वाढली.

भारतातील सेवा कराच्या इतिहासातील महत्त्वाचे टप्पे :

१. १९९४: मर्यादित संख्येच्या सेवांवर सेवा कराची ओळख. (Service Tax on a limited number of services.)

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२००४: करपात्र सेवांची व्याप्ती वाढवून नकारात्मक यादी प्रणालीची ओळख. (Negative List system, exanding the scoe of taxable services.)

२०१२: 'सेवांचे कर (भारताबाहेरून प्रदान केलेले)' नियमांची ओळख. ("Taxation of Services (Provided from Outside India)" rules.)

२०१६: भारतातील इतर अप्रत्यक्ष करांसह सेवा कराची जागा वस्तू आणि सेवा कराने (जीएसटी) घेतली. (GST relaced service tax along with other indirect taxes in India)

वस्तू आणि सेवा कर कायद्याअंतर्गत, सेवांसाठीच्या कर प्रणालीमध्ये मोठी सुधारणा ण्यात आली आहे, ज्यामध्ये वस्तू आणि सेवा दोन्ही एकाच कर चौकटीत एकत्रित करण्यात ाले आहेत.

वा कर रचना:

ीएसटीपूर्व काळ :

२०१७ मध्ये जीएसटी लागू होण्यापूर्वी, सेवा कर वित्त कायदा, १९९४ द्वारे नियंत्रित ला जात होता. सुरुवातीला सेवा कर दर ५% होता आणि जीएसटी लागू होईपर्यंत तो हळूहळू ५% पर्यंत वाढवण्यात आला. जीएसटीपूर्वीच्या प्रणाली अंतर्गत, सेवा कर विविध सेवांवर लागू ला जात होता, ज्यात खालील गोष्टींचा समावेश होता:

- व्यवसाय समर्थन सेवा
- जाहिरात आणि बाजार संशोधन सेवा
- कायदेशीर, लेखा आणि सल्लागार यासारख्या व्यावसायिक सेवा
- वाहतूक सेवा
- आतिथ्य सेवा

सेवा कर प्रणालीच्या काही प्रमुख आव्हानांमध्ये अनुपालनातील गुंतागुंत, कर स्केडिंग परिणाम आणि केंद्र आणि राज्य सरकारांनी लादलेल्या करांची बहुविधता यांचा मावेश होता.

ीएसटीची ओळख आणि सेवा करावर त्याचा परिणाम :

१ जुलै २०१७ रोजी, भारत सरकारने वस्तू आणि सेवा कर (जीएसटी) एकीकृत प्रत्यक्ष कर प्रणाली म्हणून लागू केला. जीएसटीने सेवा कर, उत्पादन शुल्क आणि व्हॅटसह नेक कर वस्तू आणि सेवांवरील एकाच करात समाविष्ट केले. भारतातील सेवा करावर ीएसटीचा प्रभाव खोलवर गेला आहे, त्याची कारणे :

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१. **कर प्रणाली सरलीकृत केली:** जीएसटीसह, सेवा क्षेत्र आता एकसमान कर प्रणाली अंतर्गत येते, ज्यामुळे मागील अनेक कर प्रणालींची गुंतागुंत दूर होते.

२. **कर आधार वाढवला:** जीएसटीमध्ये पूर्वी सेवा कराच्या कक्षेबाहेर असलेल्या विविध सेवांचा समावेश आहे.

३. **कमी झालेले कॅस्केडिंग परिणाम:** जीएसटी अंतर्गत, सेवा आणि वस्तूंवरील कर अखंडपणे भरले जातात, ज्यामुळे पूर्वी प्रचलित असलेला कॅस्केडिंग परिणाम कमी होतो.

४. **प्रमाणित दर:** देशभरात आता सेवांवर १८% आणि १२% सारख्या प्रमाणित दरांनी कर आकारला जातो. आरोग्यसेवा आणि शिक्षण यासारख्या काही आवश्यक सेवांना जीएसटीमधून सूट देण्यात आली आहे.

तथापि, जीएसटी अंतर्गत अनुपालनाबाबत विशेषतः लहान व्यवसाय आणि सेवा प्रदात्यांसाठी आव्हाने कायम आहेत.

भारतात सेवा क्षेत्राचे कर योगदान :

भारतातील सेवा क्षेत्र हे भारताच्या जीडीपीमध्ये सर्वात मोठे योगदान देणारे आणि कर महसुलाचा एक महत्त्वाचा स्रोत आहे. जीएसटी लागू होण्यापूर्वी, सेवा कर केंद्र सरकारच्या महसुलात मोठा वाटा देत होता. जीएसटीनंतर, सेवा क्षेत्र हे भारताच्या अर्थव्यवस्थेत एक महत्त्वाचे योगदान देणारे आहे.

अर्थ मंत्रालयाच्या आकडेवारीनुसार, सेवा कर आणि जीएसटी अंतर्गत त्याच्या बदलीमुळे पुढील गोष्टी घडल्या आहेत:

१. **महत्त्वपूर्ण महसूल निर्मिती:** सेवा क्षेत्र देशाच्या जीडीपीमध्ये जवळजवळ ६०% वाटा उचलते आणि प्रत्यक्ष कर, कॉर्पोरेट कर आणि जीएसटी संकलनाद्वारे सरकारी महसुलात मोठ्या प्रमाणात योगदान देते.

२. **कर महसुलात प्रमुख योगदानकर्ते:** कर संकलनात योगदान देणाऱ्या प्रमुख सेवांमध्ये दूरसंचार, बँकिंग आणि वित्तीय सेवा, विमा, आतिथ्य आणि वाहतूक सेवा यांचा समावेश आहे.

सेवा करातील आव्हाने आणि समस्या :

भारताच्या जीडीपी आणि कर महसुलात सेवा क्षेत्राचे महत्त्वपूर्ण योगदान असूनही, सेवा करात अनेक आव्हाने आहेत:

१. **अनुपालन आणि प्रशासन:** सेवा कर जटिल आहे आणि व्यवसायांना मजबूत अनुपालन

प्रणाली राखण्याची आवश्यकता आहे. अनेक सेवा प्रदाते, विशेषतः अनौपचारिक क्षेत्रातील, कर भरणे, दस्तऐवजीकरण करणे आणि कर कायदे समजून घेण्यात संघर्ष करतात.

कर चुकवणे: सेवा कर चुकवणे आणि कमी अहवाल देणे हे भारतातील, विशेषतः असंघटित सेवा क्षेत्रांमध्ये, प्रमुख चिंता आहेत.

करपात्र सेवांमध्ये संदिग्धता: सेवा क्षेत्र व्यापक आहे आणि अनेक नवीन सेवा नियमितपणे सुरू केल्या जातात, ज्यामुळे त्यांच्या कर आकारणीबाबत संदिग्धता निर्माण होते.

सीमापार कर आकारणी: परदेशी ग्राहकांना निर्यात केलेल्या किंवा पुरवल्या जाणाऱ्या सेवा जीएसटी अंतर्गत कर अधिकार क्षेत्र आणि उपचारांच्या बाबतीत आव्हाने निर्माण करतात.

ारतात सेवा कराचे भविष्य :

ारतात सेवा कराचे भविष्य हे अनेक घटकांवर अवलंबून आहे :

. **कर नियमांचे अधिक सुलभीकरण:** कर प्रणाली सुलभ करण्यासाठी, अनुपालन प्रक्रिया सुलभ करण्यासाठी आणि व्यवसायांवरील भार कमी करण्यासाठी चालू असलेले प्रयत्न.

. **तंत्रज्ञानात्मक नवोपक्रम:** कर प्रशासन, संकलन आणि देखरेख सुधारण्यासाठी तंत्रज्ञानाचा परिचय अनुपालन दर सुधारण्यात महत्त्वपूर्ण भूमिका बजावेल.

. **उदयोन्मुख क्षेत्रांसाठी चांगली कर रचना:** नवीन डिजिटल सेवा, गिग इकॉनॉमी व्यवसाय आणि सीमापार व्यवहारांचा उदय यासाठी नाविन्यपूर्ण कर धोरणांची आवश्यकता असेल.

ष्कर्ष:

. भारतातील सेवा क्षेत्र देशाच्या अर्थव्यवस्थेचा जीडीपीमध्ये योगदान देणारे आणि कर महसुलाचा एक महत्त्वाचा स्रोत म्हणून अविभाज्य भाग आहे.

. सेवा करापासून जीएसटीमध्ये संक्रमणामुळे सेवांवर कर आकारणी करण्याच्या पद्धतीत बदल झाला आहे, कर प्रणाली सुलभ झाली आहे आणि कर आधार विस्तारला आहे.

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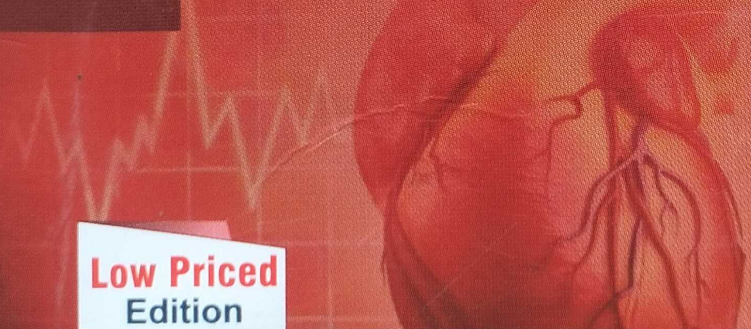

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Published by the **DnyanPath Publication (India)**

The first edition published in August 2024

ISBN 13 : 978-93-6409-227-2

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Published by : DnyanPath Publication (India)

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Publication
ISO 9001 : 2015

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