

Journal of Pharmacognosy and Phytochemistry

Available online at www.phytojournal.com



E-ISSN: 2278-4136 P-ISSN: 2349-8234 www.phytojournal.com JPP 2020; 9(2): 1825-1833 Received: 25-01-2020 Accepted: 27-02-2020

Bikha Timung

Department of Crop Physiology, Assam agricultural University, Jorhat, Assam, India

Bhagawan Bharali

Department of Crop Physiology, Assam agricultural University, Jorhat, Assam, India Biochemical indicators in upland rice (*Oryza* sativa L.) under physiological drought condition

Bikha Timung and Bhagawan Bharali

Abstract

Rice grown in Assam suffers from intermittent deficit of water in upland condition during Rabi season (January to May). The ailment caused by water stress of rice crop can be judged at subclinical level incorporating some of the biochemical changes in plants at different growth stages of the crop. Nitrogen in leaf is one of the key parameters involved in many physiological processes e.g chlorophyll formation modulating the rate of photosynthesis in plants, and it is restrained by drought stress in crops. SPAD (soil plant analysis development) values measured by chlorophyll meter are the yardstick for judicious application of nitrogen fertilizer for enhancing N status in rice crop in situ. Fixed time nitrogen management (FTNM) is considered as a useful tool practised in rice crop. As per FTNM, 40KgNha⁻¹ was applied as basal, and subsequent dose of nitrogen was applied according to the critical need of the crop, determined by the SPAD values against a control without basal N. Thus, the cumulative nitrogen received by the crop in the situation of physiological drought (No water+ 5000ppm of 6000PEG spray at tillering and heading stages against normal irrigation) was 140kgha⁻¹. Five traditional upland genotypes (Mipholong, Balam, Sok Langlu, Sovak and Inglongkiri) were incorporated in the studies, where Inglongkiri emerged as the most physiologically efficient genotype. It was enriched by the sound biochemical features viz., higher leaf N(1.7-2.5% %), NR activity (480-501 µmoleNO₂ g⁻¹ f.w. hr⁻¹), proline content (261-326 µgmol⁻¹g⁻¹ f.w.), total carbohydrate content (9.8-11.3mg g⁻¹ d.w), Pⁿ rate (10.8-12.4 μ molesCO₂ absorbed m²sec¹) envisaged by the higher SPAD values (32 to 32) irrespective of drought and unstressed plants.

Keywords: Upland rice, nitrogen, NR, proline, carbohydrate, SPAD, FTNM

Introduction

Rice (*Oryzae sativa* L.) is grown in sub-tropics at congenial temperature (21° C to 31° C) and pH (5.5 to 7.0) but, soil water deficit impairs the plant growth and development, and limits yield significantly (Chandrasekaran *et al.*, 2007)^[5]. Plant's reaction to drought is recognised in terms of physiological and metabolic events (Hansen, 1980; Timung *et al.*, 2017)^[17, 6]. The upland rice (*Ahu*) is the second major group of rice in Assam, which is used as buffer stock for food grain and fodder during lean period. The lower productivity of upland *Ahu* rice is due to low soil moisture during germination, intermittent moisture stress during panicle initiation. The upland topography and soil type vary in Assam. The higher elevation and the uneven topography make it impossible to retain water for a longer period of time. Soils are generally sandy-loam with poor native fertility and low moisture retention capacity. Low water retention due to percolation causes moisture stress soon after rain stops. Therefore, moisture stress is one of the main causes of lower productivity of upland rice in Assam, which is only 0.9 t ha⁻¹ as compared to the national average of about 1.9 t ha⁻¹ (Torenpi and Bharali, 2019)^[47].

Nitrogen plays a pivotal role in chlorophyll synthesis for photo assimilation leading to plant growth and development (Lenka *et al.*, 2009)^[32]. The supply of useable nitrogen and the rate of its losses from the soil affect the sustainability in production. If mismanaged, it can result in economic loss to the producer and have environmental repercussions, or both. However, nitrogen is used effectively when there is availability of moisture. Instead, the nitrogenous fertilizer enhances water productivity (Pandey *et al.*, 2001)^[36]. Specific Nutrient management (SSNM) especially Fixed time nutrient management (FTNM) is followed to increase physiological efficiency and productivity of rice crop (Peng *et al.*, 1996; Dobermann *et al.*, 2002)^[39, 11]. In Assam, implication of FTNM to excel the biochemical markers in upland rice from Karbi Anglong district of Assam under physiological drought situation has not been accomplished so far. Therefore, the current manuscript discusses several such indicators for judging the efficiency of some upland rice genotypes grown under physiological drought situation.

Corresponding Author: Bhagawan Bharali Department of Crop Physiology, Assam agricultural University, Jorhat, Assam, India

Materials and Methods

A pot experiment laid in Randomised Block Design, replicated thrice, was carried out with five upland (Ahu) rice genotypes (viz., Mipholong, Balam, Sok Langlu, Sovak and Inglongkiri) in the department of Crop Physiology, Assam Agricultural University, Jorhat which is geographically situated at 87 meter above the mean sea level, 26°45'N latitude and 94°12'E longitude. The climatic condition of Jorhat as a whole, is subtropical, humid, dry summer and cold winter. The total rainfall for the crop season was 1314.6 mm. In the pot culture, seedlings (n=3) were raised from direct sowing of seeds in the earthen pots. The whole amount of P&K @ 20:20 in the form of SSP (Single Super Phosphate) and MoP (Muriet of Potash) were applied as basal. N was applied based on Fixed Time Nitrogen Management (FTNM) method, where, the recommended dose of nitrogen (@40Kgha⁻¹) was used as base nitrogen against a control (0 kg Nha⁻¹) for all the genotypes under two regimes of water (irrigated & physiological drought), and subsequent doses of nitrogen were applied in splits demanded by the crop determined using SPAD values, measured by Chlorophyll meter.

The physiological drought was imposed to the potted plants inside a poly house to protect from the natural precipitation. In one set, rice genotypes were grown with full irrigation while in the other set, the same genotypes were provided with two cycles of seven days drought viz., at 30 days after sowing (during tillering stage), and another at 90 days after sowing (heading stage) by suspending irrigation, and further misting with PEG 6000 (5000ppm \approx -0.05bars) uniformly, for inducing physiological drought in plants (Chutia and Borah, 2012) ^[9]. Then, the pots were kept in nearby field outside the poly house during the rest of the growth period.

The rate of Photosynthesis in leaves was determined using Infra Red Gas Analyzer (IRGA: Model LI-COR 6400). Fully expanded upper most leaf was used for measuring the gas exchange parameters. The leaves were illuminated on a clear sunny days between 10 AM to 12 Noon, when photosynthetic active radiation (PAR) ranged between 900-1500 μ E m⁻²s⁻¹. In vivo nitrate reductase activity was assayed following the method of Keeper et al. (1971)^[26]. Free proline was estimated in leaves by using formula described by Bates et al. (1973)^[1]. In the experiment, five randomly selected leaves were ground in electrical grinder after drying in oven at 80°C into a constant weight. All the powdered materials were sieved and stored in desiccators separately for use in the laboratory estimation of Nitrogen and total carbohydrates in leaf. Total carbohydrate contents in leaf tissues were estimated following Anthrone method (Hedge et.al. 1962^[16]). The modified Kjeldhal method (Jackson, 1973)^[23] was used to determine nitrogen content, which is based on catalytic conversion of organic nitrogen into ammonia and its subsequent estimation by acid base titration.

Data for each parameter was analysed by Fisher's method of analysis of variance (Panse and Sukhatme, 1978) ^[38]. Significance or non-significance of variance due to the treatment effects was determined by calculating the respective 'F' values. The standard error of the means (S.E.diff.) was calculated using error mean square and pooled number of replication, where the critical difference (CD) was calculated to test the significance of treatment or genotypes at P(0.05) probability level.

Results and Discussion

In the investigation, the crop was subjected to water stress by withholding irrigation for seven days plus spraying with PEG-6000 (5000 ppm) both at maximum tillering and heading stages. The crop was deprived of natural precipitation during these periods inside a poly house except supply of live saving water while soil Tensiometer auto-fixed its readings at 80 centibars, and crop wilted visually. All the genotypes received a range of temperature (20-35° C), Relative humidity (32-83%) and light intensity (1200-1600 Lux) during the drought treatments in the months of April and May. The crop genotypes were kept outside the poly house during the rest of the growth period, where the plant experienced similar situation in the open filed. As such, physiological drought imposed at the certain periods remained only a variable abiotic factor to bring physiological changes in the upland rice varieties.

In the study, SPAD values differed significantly at maximum tillering and heading stages of the crop due to the imposed physiological drought (Table 1). The highest SPAD value was recorded in Inglongkiri (32.46) followed by Sovak (30.75), and the lowest was in Balam (26.753) < Sok langlu (28.723) at maximum tillering stage under irrigated condition. Inglongkiri (31.837) indicated the highest SPAD value >Sovak (29.85), and the lowest SPAD value was marked in Balam (26.753) < Sok langlu (27.877) under drought condition at the same stage. The highest SPAD value was found in Inglongkiri (34.623) > Sovak (32.7983), and the lowest was in Balam (28.723)< Sok langlu (29.82). Inglongkiri (33.83) displayed the highest SPAD value > Sovak (31.513) whereas Balam (27.833) < Sok langlu (28.853) had the least values under drought condition at heading stage under irrigated condition. So, SPAD readings were significantly altered by the stress at maximum tillering and heading stages.

SPAD values at maximum tillering stage				SPAD values at		
Treatments→ Genotypes↓	Irrigated	Drought	Mean	Irrigated	Drought	Mean
Mipholong	29.863	28.843	29.353	30.833	29.123	29.978
Balam	26.753	25.977	26.365	28.723	27.833	28.278
Sok Langlu	28.723	27.877	28.30	29.820	28.853	29.337
Sovak	30.750	29.85	30.30	32.793	31.513	32.153
Inglongkiri	32.460	31.837	32.148	34.623	33.83	34.227
Mean	29.71	28.877		31.359	30.231	
	S.E.diff (±)	C.D. (0.05)		S.E.diff (±)	C.D. (0.05)	
Treatment (T)	0.019	0.04		0.036	0.076	
Genotype (G)	0.03	0.063		0.057	0.12	
T X G	0.042	0.089		0.08	0.17	

Table 1: Soil plant analysis development (SPAD) values in leaf at different growth stages of rice crop under water regimes

Moisture stress reduced SPAD values in all genotypes of rice in comparison to irrigated one. Drought reduced SPAD values by 2.804% and 3.598 % at maximum tillering and heading stages respectively (Fig.1). At maximum tillering stage, the highest reduction of SPAD was found in varieties Mipholong $(3.41 \ \%) >$ Sok langlu $(2.94 \ \%)$ and Sovak $(2.92 \ \%)$. Similarly, at heading stage, the lowest reduction of SPAD was found in Inglongkiri (2.29%) < Balam $(3.09 \ \%)$ and Sok langlu (3.24%). The differences in reductions of SPAD values is genotype specific, which has a background of FTNM for N requirement at the crop growth periods (Xu *et al.* (2000))^[48]; Talwar *et al.* (2011)^[46], and Sudhakar *et al.*, (2006)^[44]. One advantage is that measurement of SPAD values is non-destructive for assessing the status and application of N in the crop.

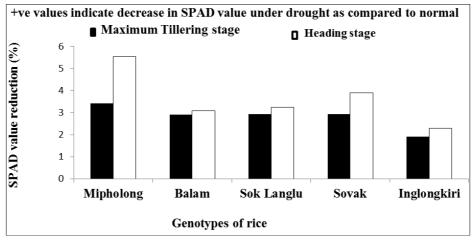


Fig 1: Changes of SPAD values under drought as compared to irrigation

Nitrogen content in leaf tissues at maximum tillering and heading stages was altered significantly by the physiological drought (Table 2.). The variety, Inglongkiri (1.817%) >Sovak (1.423%) recorded the highest, and Balam (1.163%) < Mipholong (1.277%) had the lowest N contents under irrigated condition. Under drought condition, the highest & lowest N contents was found in Inglongkiri (1.533%)> Balam (0.987%). As regard to leaf nitrogen content at heading stage, the highest value was recorded in Inglongkiri (2.76%) >

Sovak (2.12%), and the lowest was present in Balam (1.333 %) < Mipholong (1.477%) under irrigated condition. Under drought condition also Inglongkiri (2.147%) maintained the highest nitrogen status followed by Sovak (1.9%). The lowest leaf nitrogen content was recorded in Balam (1.12%) < Mipholong (1.377%). It was interesting to record that there was gradual increase in leaf nitrogen content from maximum tillering to heading stage under both irrigated and drought conditions.

N content at maximum tillering stage (%)				N content at heading stage (%)				
Treatments→ genotypes↓	Irrigated	Drought	Mean	Irrigated	Drought	Mean		
Mipholong	1.277	1.107	1.192	1.477	1.377	1.427		
Balam	1.163	0.987	1.075	1.333	1.120	1.227		
Sok Langlu	1.347	1.13	1.238	1.870	1.453	1.662		
Sovak	1.423	1.317	1.370	2.12	1.90	2.01		
Inglongkiri	1.817	1.533	1.675	2.76	2.147	2.453		
Mean	1.405	1.215		1.912	1.599			
	S.E.diff (±)	C.D. (0.05)		S.E.diff(±)	C.D. (0.05)			
Treatment (T)	0.013	0.028		0.009	0.019			
Genotype (G)	0.021	0.044		0.014	0.03			
T X G	0.029	0.062		0.02	0.042			

Table 2: Leaf nitrogen (N) content at different stages of rice crop under water regimes

Moreover, physiological drought decreased the N accumulation in all genotypes of rice (Fig.2). The highest reduction was observed in Balam (91.51%) at maximum tillering, and in Sok langlu (22.29 %) at heading stage, whereas the lowest reduction was in Sovak (7.44 %) at maximum tillering and Mipholong (6.77 %) at heading stage. Thus, Balam contained the highest amount of leaf nitrogen at reproductive stage under drought as compared to irrigated.

condition This indicates better ability of the genotype in acquiring N either from soil or applied nitrogen, and in remobilizing N under favourable water regime (normal) condition (Ghanbari *et al.*, 2013, Nakayama *et al.*, 2007) ^[15, 34]. According to Janadhan and Murty (1980) ^[24] nitrogen present in all plant parts decreases commensuration with the progressive growth stages of the crop.

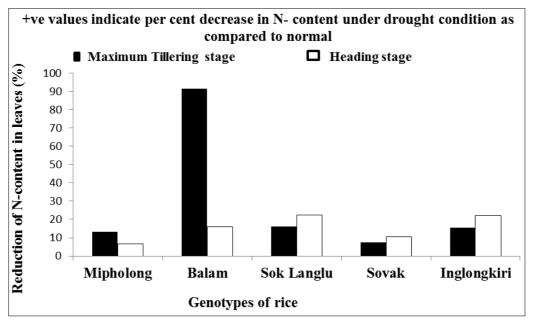


Fig 2: Changes of N-content of leaf tissue under drought as compared to irrigation

Physiological drought brought significant changes in Proline contents in leaf tissues at maximum tillering and heading stages of the crop (Table 3). Inglongkiri (215.267 μ gmol⁻¹g⁻¹f.w) followed by (>) Sok langlu (213.667 μ gmol⁻¹g⁻¹f.w), accumulated the highest proline contents in leaf, whereas the lowest proline content was recorded in Balam (208.833 (μ gmol⁻¹g⁻¹f.w) < Mipholong (212.5 μ gmol⁻¹g⁻¹f.w) under irrigated condition. Under physiological drought, Inglongkiri (307.5 μ gmol⁻¹g⁻¹f.w) synthesised the highest proline, and Sok langlu (293.667 μ gmol⁻¹g⁻¹f.w) was at the lowest end under physiological drought. At heading stage, under irrigated condition, Inglongkiri (299.533 μ gmol⁻¹g⁻¹f.w) showed the highest proline accumulation > by Sok langlu (299.167 μ gmol⁻¹g⁻¹f.w), and lowest proline accumulation was found in

Balam (284.533 μ gmol⁻¹g⁻¹f.w) < Mipholong (297.533 μ gmol⁻¹g⁻¹f.w). Under physiological drought, Inglongkiri (354.033 μ gmol⁻¹g⁻¹f.w) topped the rank of proline accumulation, and Sok langlu (333.667 μ gmol⁻¹g⁻¹f.w) had the lowest proline accumulation in leaf. In fact, proline accumulation is the symptom or positive consequence of reduced water status in plants. There is a relationship between proline accumulation in leaves tissue and the moistures content in soil. It has been speculated that proline could represent an acclimatisation mechanism for plant survival during a period of drought stress (Clifford *et al.*, 1998; Lakmini *et al.*, 2006)^[10, 29]. Our studies confirm, too, significant increases in proline contents with its variation in the rice genotypes subjected to physiological drought condition (Fig.3).

Proline content in leaves (µgmol ⁻¹ g ⁻¹ f.w.) at maximum tillering stageProline content (µgmol ⁻¹ g ⁻¹ f.w.) at heading st								
Treatments→ Genotypes↓	Irrigated	Drought	Mean	Irrigated	Drought	Mean		
Mipholong	212.50	309.433	260.967	297.533	348.833	323.18		
Balam	208.833	306.267	257.55	284.533	346.70	315.61		
Sok Langlu	213.667	293.667	253.667	299.167	333.667	316.41		
Sovak	212.733	299.40	256.067	298.733	338.633	318.68		
Inglongkiri	215.267	307.50	261.383	299.533	354.033	326.78		
Mean	212.60	303.253		295.90	344.373			
	S.E.diff(±)	C.D.(0.05)		S.E.diff (±)	C.D. (0.05)			
Treatment (T)	0.133	0.281		0.129	0.273			
Genotype (G)	0.21	0.444		0.204	0.431			
T X G	0.297	0.628		0.288	0.61	f.w.: fresh weight		

Table 3: Proline content in leaves at different growth stages of rice crop under water regimes

The genotype Balam (46.65 %) and Sok langlu (37.44 %) experienced the highest and lowest increments in proline contents in plants at maximum tillering stage respectively. At heading stage, the highest and lowest proline accumulation was also maintained by the same varieties viz., Balam (21.84 %) and Sok langlu (11.53 %) accordingly. The stress was created by withholding water for seven days, and simultaneous spraying the plants with PEG-6000 (5000ppm). In general, Polyethylene glycol (PEG) is preferred over Mannitol as an external osmoticum for experiments on water relations (Hohl and Peter, 1991) ^[22]. Proline accumulation in rice may be controlled genetically (Pandey and Agarwal, 1998) ^[37]. Under water stress, accumulated proline might act

as a compatible solute regulating and reducing water loss from the plant cell during water deficit (Yokota *et al.*, 2006) ^[26]. It plays an important role in osmosis balance (Fedina *et al.*, 2002) ^[13]. Proline accumulates under stress also supplies energy for survivor and growth, and thereby helps the plants to tolerate stress condition (Kumar *et al.*, 2011) ^[27]. Thus, the proline content is a good indicator for screening tolerance of genotypes in water scarcity related stress condition (Bayoumi *et al.*, 2008; Rahdari *et al.*, 2012) ^[2, 41]. In here, on an average, the cultivar Balam accumulated 19.956% more proline in water stressed leaf tissues than other genotypes, and emerges as drought tolertanty. On the other hand, Sovak might be susceptible to the same stress situation as it accumulated 6.26% lesser amount of proline under water stress condition. Similar results on proline accumulation under drought were

also reported elsewhere in the past (Ram *et.al.* 1988; Narayan and Anuradha, 1991; Kohl *et.al.* 1991)^[42, 35, 27].

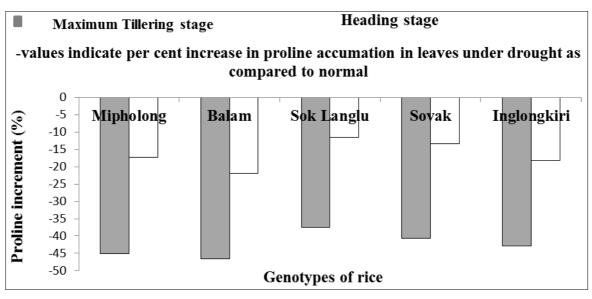


Fig 3: Changes of proline under drought as compared to irrigation

Nitrate Reductase (NR) activity in leaf varied significantly due to physiological drought at maximum tillering and heading stages of the crop (Table 4). At maximum tillering stage, the highest NR activity was recorded in Inglongkiri (487.667µmoleNO₂⁻g⁻¹f.w. hr⁻¹) followed by (>) Sok langlu (457.157µmoleNO₂⁻g⁻¹f.w. hr⁻¹), and the lowest was recorded in Balam (387.307µmoleNO₂⁻g⁻¹f.w. hr⁻¹) < Mipholong (395.177µmoleNO₂⁻g⁻¹f.w. hr⁻¹) under irrigated condition. Under drought condition also, Inglongkiri (472.29µmoleNO₂⁻g⁻¹f.w. hr⁻¹) maintained the highest NR activity followed by Sok langlu (447.56µmoleNO₂⁻g⁻¹f.w. hr⁻¹), whereas and the lowest NR activity was recorded in Balam (376.467µmoleNO₂⁻g⁻¹f.w. hr⁻¹). At

heading stage, Inglongkiri (513µmoleNO₂⁻g⁻¹f.w. hr⁻¹) showed the highest NR values > Sok langlu (487.763 µmoleNO₂⁻g⁻¹f.w. hr⁻¹), and the lowest was recorded in Balam (396.197 µmoleNO₂⁻g⁻¹f.w. hr⁻¹) < Mipholong (412.247 µmoleNO₂⁻g⁻¹f.w. hr⁻¹) under irrigated growth condition. Under drought condition also Inglongkiri (487.87 µmoleNO₂⁻g⁻¹f.w. hr⁻¹) maintained the highest NR activity > Sok langlu (478.717 µmoleNO₂⁻g⁻¹f.w. hr⁻¹), and the lowest was also recorded in Balam (382.63 µmoleNO₂⁻g⁻¹f.w. hr⁻¹) < Mipholong (391.263 µmoleNO₂⁻g⁻¹f.w. hr⁻¹). However, there were significant reductions in Nitrate Reductase (NR) activity in leaf tissues under physiological drought at both maximum tillering and heading stages of the crop (Fig. 4).

NR at maximum tillering stage (µmoleNO2 [·] g ⁻¹ f.w. hr ⁻¹)NR at heading stages (µmoleNO2 [·] g ⁻¹ f.w. hr ⁻¹								
Treatment→ Genotypes↓	Irrigated	Drought	Mean	Irrigated	Drought	Mean		
Mipholong	395.177	383.363	389.27	412.247	391.263	401.755		
Balam	387.307	376.467	381.887	396.197	382.63	389.413		
Sok Langlu	457.157	447.56	452.358	487.763	478.717	483.24		
Sovak	436.317	422.047	429.182	451.61	445.283	448.447		
Inglongkiri	487.667	472.29	479.978	513.523	487.87	500.697		
Mean	432.725	420.345		452.268	437.153			
	S.E.diff (±)	C.D.(0.05)		S.E.diff(±)	C.D.(0.05)			
Treatment (T)	0.429	0.908		0.258	0.547			
Genotype (G)	0.678	1.436		0.408	0.864	f wy fresh weight		
T X G	0.959	2.031		0.577	1.223	f.w.: fresh weight		

Table 4: Nitrate reductase (NR) at different growth stages of rice crop under water regimes

Among the genotypes, Mipholong had the highest reduction in NR activity (5.09 %) > Inglongkiri (4.99 %) under drought as compared to irrigated condition. The lowest reduction in NR was shown in Sovak (1.4 %) under drought as compared to normal. On an average, at heading stage, the highest NR reduction was found in Sovak (3.27%) > Inglongkiri (3.15 %), while the lowest reduction was found in Sok langlu (2.09 %). Overall, NR reduction was more at heading (3.34%) stage than at maximum tillering (2.86%) stage of the genotypes. Lower activity of NR in leaf tissues of plant is as an

indication of the poor efficiency of genotypes for nitrogen assimilation (Sarkar *et al.* 1991)^[43].

There are evidences that Polyethylene glycol induces physiological stress, results in free amino acids and lowers NR activity in pearl millet (Hanson *et.al.*, 1981; Hanson *et al.*, 1982) ^[9, 8]. Water stress also lessens maximal extractable foliar NR activity in plants (Plaut, 1974; Heuer *et al.*, 1979; Talouizite and Champigny, 1988; Larsson *et al.*, 1989) ^[40, 20, 45, 39]. In the present investigation, there is reduction of NR activity due to moisture stress, and it is further confirmed by the findings of Ferrario-Mery *et al.*, (1998) ^[14].

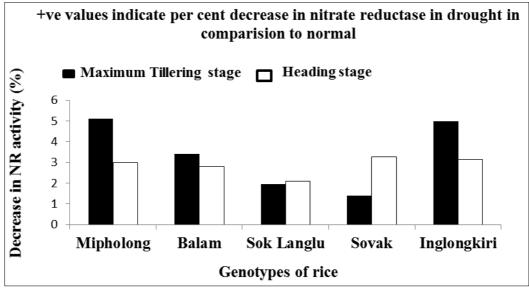


Fig 4: Changes of nitrate reductase under drought as compared to irrigation

Total carbohydrate contents (TCC) in leaf of the genotypes at both maximum tillering and heading stages except inglongkiri varied significantly due to physiological drought (Table 5). At maximum tillering stage, the highest TCC was obtained in Inglongkiri (9.207mgg⁻¹d.w.) followed by (>) Sovak (8.96 mg g⁻¹ d.w.), and the lowest TCC was obtained in Balam (5.863mgg⁻¹d.w.) < Mipholong (6.883mgg⁻¹d.w.) under irrigated condition. Inglongkiri (10.30mgg⁻¹d.w.) sustained the highest TCC followed by Sovak (8.113mgg⁻¹d.w.), whereas the lowest TCC was also obtained in Balam (5.153 mgg⁻¹d.w.) < Mipholong (6.107 mgg⁻¹d.w.). Over all, there was increasing trend in TCC from maximum tillering to heading stage of the crop. At heading stage, Inglongkiri (10.147 & 12.403 mgg⁻¹d.w.) preserved the highest TCC followed by Sovak (9.953 & 8.853 mgg⁻¹d.w.) under irrigated and drought conditions respectively. Among the varieties, the varieties Balam (6.883 & 6.15 mgg⁻¹d.w.), and Mipholong (7.92 & 6.71 mgg⁻¹d.w.) possessed the lowest TCC under both irrigated and drought conditions among respectively. There was a significant negative ramification of moisture stress on TCC in leaves of rice crop except Inglongkiri. This genotype showed increase in TCC under drought in comparison with irrigated condition at both maximum tillering and heading stages. This might be due to the genetic potential for improving the total carbohydrate under the water stress situation. It is apparent from the Fig.5. that TCC in leaves was more in heading stage than in maximum tillering stage.

TCC at maximum tillering stage (mg g ⁻¹ d.w.)				TCC at heading stages (mg g ⁻¹ d.w.)			
Traetments→ Genotypes↓	Irrigated	Drought	Mean	Irrigated	Drought	Mean	
Mipholong	6.883	6.107	6.495	7.92	6.71	7.315	
Balam	5.863	5.153	5.508	6.883	6.153	6.518	
Sok Langlu	7.857	7.11	7.483	8.883	7.983	8.433	
Sovak	8.96	8.113	8.537	9.953	8.853	9.403	
Inglongkiri	9.207	10.30	9.753	10.147	12.403	11.275	
Mean	7.81	7.138		8.99	7.969		
	SE.diff(±)	C.D.(0.05)		S.E.diff.(±)	C.D.(0.05)		
Treatment (T)	0.014	0.03		0.034	0.072		
Genoype (G)	0.022	0.047		0.054	0.114	d weed and weed abt	
T X G	0.031	0.066		0.076	0.161	d.w.: dry weight	

Table 5: Total carbohydrate content (TCC) in leaf at different growth stages of rice crop under water regimes

There was remarkable decrease in carbohydrate contents in Balam (12.1%) at maximum tillering stage followed by Mipholong (11.27%) under drought as compared to irrigated one. Instead, at heading stage, Inglongkiri (22.23%) had the highest increase in TCC. It indicates that this genotype could carry out the process of photosynthesis well, particularly at maximum tillering stage under physiological drought stress. These findings are in accordance with the findings of Dubey and Singh (1999) ^[12]. Nakayama, (1974) ^[33] opined that higher level of total carbohydrate plays a protective role against the photo assimilate shortage during stress. It acts as osmolyte under water stress by increasing the gradient for water flux into the cell for maintaining turgor (Bharali *et al.*, 2016) ^[4].

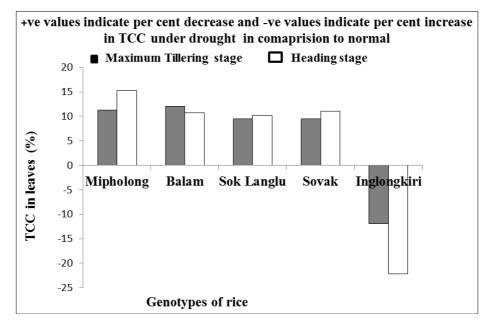


Fig 5: Changes in total carbohydrate content (TCC) under drought as compared to irrigated condition

Physiological drought depressed net photosynthesis (Pⁿ) significantly irrespective of the varieties significantly at different growth stages of the crop (Table 6). The Pⁿ rate amplified at heading stage as compared to maximum tillering stage. The highest Pⁿ rate (µmoles CO₂ absorbed m⁻²sec⁻¹) was recorded in Inglongkiri (11.31 µmoles CO2 absorbed m⁻²sec⁻¹) followed by (>) sovak (8.53 µmoles CO₂ absorbed m⁻²sec⁻¹), and the lowest was recorded in Balam (5.623 µmoles CO2 absorbed m⁻²sec⁻¹) < Sok langlu (7.531 μ moles CO₂ absorbed m⁻²sec⁻¹) under irrigated condition. Inglongkiri (10.147 µmoles CO_2 absorbed m⁻²sec⁻¹) upheld the highest Pⁿ rate followed by Sovak (7.953 µmoles CO₂ absorbed m⁻²sec⁻¹), and Balam had the least Pⁿ rate (5.573 µmoles CO₂ absorbed $m^{-2}sec^{-1}$ < Sok langlu (7.037 µmoles CO₂ absorbed $m^{-2}sec^{-1}$) under drought condition. At heading stage under irrigated condition, the highest Pⁿ rate (µmoles CO₂ absorbed m⁻²sec⁻¹) was found in Inlongkiri (12.907) > Sovak (9.83 µmoles CO₂ absorbed m⁻²sec⁻¹), and the lowest was in Balam (6.623 µmoles CO₂ absorbed m⁻²sec⁻¹) < Sok langlu (8.813 µmoles CO₂ absorbed m⁻²sec⁻¹). Inglongkiri (11.83 µmoles CO₂ absorbed m⁻²sec⁻¹), and the least Was in Balam (5.863 µmoles CO₂ absorbed m⁻²sec⁻¹), and the least was in Balam (5.863 µmoles CO₂ absorbed m⁻²sec⁻¹), and the least was in Balam (5.863 µmoles CO₂ absorbed m⁻²sec⁻¹) and the least was in Balam (5.863 µmoles CO₂ absorbed m⁻²sec⁻¹) and the least was in Balam (5.863 µmoles CO₂ absorbed m⁻²sec⁻¹) under drought condition. In the current study, the rates of net photosynthetic (Pⁿ) in rice at maximum tillering stage was lower than Pⁿ at heading stage under both irrigated and drought conditions. Photosynthesis is the main metabolic process determining carbohydrate formation and crop production, and is eventually all affected by drought stress (Ji *et al.*, 2012; Lauteri *et al.*, 2014; Bharali and Chack, 2018) ^[25, 31, 49, 3].

P ⁿ rate at maximum tillering stage (µmoles CO ₂ absorbed m ⁻² sec ⁻¹) P ⁿ rate at heading stage (µmoles CO ₂ absorbed m ⁻² sec ⁻¹)								
Treatments→ Genotypes↓	Irrigated	Drought	Mean	Irrigated	Drought	Mean		
Mipholong	7.92	6.71	7.315	8.92	7.95	8.435		
Balam	5.623	5.523	5.573	6.623	5.863	6.243		
Sok Langlu	7.513	7.037	7.275	8.813	8.113	8.463		
Sovak	8.53	7.953	8.242	9.83	8.98	9.405		
Inglongkiri	11.31	10.147	10.728	12.907	11.83	12.36		
Mean	8.179	7.393		9.419	8.547			
	S.E.diff (±)	C.D. (0.05)		S.E.diff (±)	C.D. (0.05)			
Treatment (T)	0.039	0.082		0.026	0.054			
Genotype (G)	0.061	0.129		0.041	0.086			
T X G	0.086	0.183		0.057	0.122			

Table 6: Net Photosynthetic rates (Pⁿ) at different growth stages of rice crop under water regime

The highest reduction in photosynthetic rate was observed in Balam (11.47%) at maximum tillering stage, while at heading stage the highest per cent reduction was found in Mipholong (15.27%) under drought as compared to normal. The lowest per cent reduction was in Sok langlu (7.94%) at maximum tillering, and in Balam (0%) at heading under drought as compared to normal (Fig.6). The major components limiting photosynthesis are the slow diffusion of CO₂ due to early stomatal closure, decreased photochemical efficiency of PS-II and reduced activity of photosynthetic enzymes related to triose-phosphate formation. Change in any of these

components alters the final photosynthesis rate. Stomatal and mesophyll conductance to CO_2 often decrease in response to drought. Thus, the ability of a genotype to maintain smooth conductance or gaseous exchange under water-deficits, determines the drought tolerance of the crop (Lauteri *et al.*, 2014) ^[31]. The increase in leaf photosynthetic rate is important to augment the yield potential of rice (Hirasawa *et al.*, 2010) ^[21]), because the photosynthetic rate of individual leaf which form the canopy, affects dry matter production via photosynthesis within the canopy.

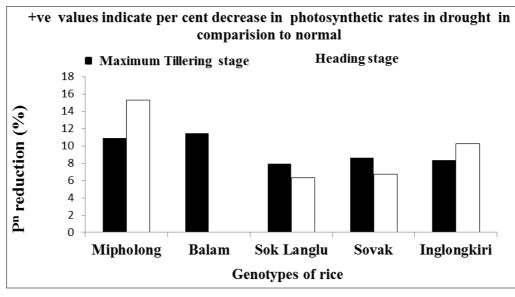


Fig 6: Changes of net photosynthesis (Pn) rates under drought as compared to irrigation

Conclusion

The investigation at subclinical level revealed that Inglongkiri emerged as the most proficient among the tested genotypes under simulated physiological drought condition. This is plausibly supported by the biochemical traits viz., increased quantity of proline to acclimatize, higher rate of photosynthesis, increased NR activity, more nitrogen and carbohydrate contents in leaf for further utilization in grain development under physiological drought stress situation. Further, the SPAD values measured at different growth stages following the FTNM approach, was prolific for applying nitrogen to crop which was found to be equal (140kgha⁻¹) for all the varieties irrespective of water regimes, but all other biochemical benchmark differed appreciably in the genotypes under two water regimes.

Acknowledgements

The authors express sincere gratitude to Assam Agricultural University for all supports for accomplishing the experiment. Our heartfelt gratitude is extended to Dr Ranjan Das for providing IRGA for measurement of photosynthesis in plants in the studies. Profound appreciation goes to Dr Prakash Kalita for his counselling and help rendered during the experimental period.

References

- Bates LS, Waldren RP, Teare LD. Rapid determination of free praline for water stress studies. Plant Soil. 1973; 39:205-207.
- Bayoumi TY, Eid MH, Metwali EM. Application of physiological and biochemical indices as a screening technique for drought tolerance in wheat genotypes. Afr. J Biotech. 2008; 7(14):2341-2352.
- 3. Bharali B, Chack S. Impact of aerosols of oxidized and reduced nitrogenalong with light regime, physiological drought, and substratum types on wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L.) crop. Advances in Agriculture and Environmental Science. 2018; 1(1):40-47.
- Bharali Ullah Z, Haloi B, Chutal J, Chack S. Phytotoxicity of Oxidised and Reduced Nitrogen Aerosols on Potato (*Solanum Tuberosum* L.) Crop. In: Sunil Londhe Edt. 'Sustainable Potato Production and the Impact of Climate Change.' IGI–Global.com (USA). 2016, 169-188.

- 5. Timung B, Bharali B, Konwar MJ. Physiological parameters of some upland rice (*Oryza sativa* L.) genotypes under moisture stress condition. Journal of Pharmacognosy and Phytochemistry. 2017; 6(6):1636-1640.
- 6. Brar GS, Kar S, Singh NT. Photosynthetic response of wheat to soil water deficits in the tropics. J Agron. Crop Sci. 1990; 164:343-348.
- Chowdhury MJ, Islam MT, Islam MO. Evaluation of two local transplant aman rice cultivars and a mutant under soil moisture stress. J. Bangladesh Soc. Agril. Sci. Technol. 2004; 1(1-2):127-131.
- Chutia J, Borah SP. Water stress effects on leaf growth and chlorophyll content but not the grain yield in traditional rice (*Oryza sativa* L.) genotypes of Assam, India II. Protein and proline status in seedlings under PEG induced water stress. American J Plant Sci. 2012; 3:971-980.
- Clifford SC, Arndt SK, Corlett JE, Joshi S, Sankhla N, Popp M *et al.* The role of solute accumulation, osmotic adjustment and changes in cell wall elasticity in drought tolerance in *Ziziphus mauritiana* (Lamk.). Journal of Experimental Botany. 1998; 49(323):967-977.
- Dobermann A, Witt C, Dawe D, Abdulrachman S, Gines HC, Nagarajan R *et al.* Site-specific nutrient management for intensive rice cropping systems in Asia. Field Crop Res. 2002; 74(1):37-66.
- 11. Dubey RS, Singh AK. Salinity induces accumulation of soluble sugars and alters the activity of sugar metabolising enzymes in rice plants. Biologia Plant. 1999; 42:233.
- 12. Fedina IS, Georgieva K, Grigorova I. Light dark changes in proline content of barley leaves under salt stress. Inst. Plant Physiol. 2002; 45(1):59-63.
- 13. Ferrario-Me'ry S, Valadier M-H, Foyer CH. Overexpression of nitrate reductase in tobacco delays drought-induced decreases in nitrate reductase activity and mRNA. Plant Physiol. 1998; 117:293-302.
- 14. Ghanbari AA, Shakiba MR, Toorchi M, Choukan R. Nitrogen changes in the leaves and accumulation of some minerals in the seeds of red, white and Chitti beans (*Phaseolus vulgaris*) under water deficit conditions. AJCS. 2013; 7(5):706-712.

- 16. Hansen AD. Interpreting the metabolic response of plant to water stress. Hort Sci. 1980; 15:623-629.
- 17. Hanson IE, Alagarswamy GA, Mahalakshmi V, Biolenger FR. Diurnal changes of endogenous abscisic acid in leaves of pearl millet (*Pennisetum americanum*) under field conditions. J Exp. Bot. 1982; 33:416-425.
- Hanson IE, Mahalakshmi V, Biolenger FR, Alagarswamy GA. Stomatal response of pearlmillet (*Pennisetum americanum* L.) genotypes in relation to abscisic acid and water stress. J Exp. Bot. 1981; 32:1211-122
- 19. Heuer B, Plaut Z, Federman E. Nitrate and nitrite reduction in wheat leaves as affected by different types of water stress. Plant Physiol. 1979; 46:318-323.
- 20. Hirasawa T, Ozawa S, Tayraran RD, Ookawa T. Varietal differences in photosynthetic rates in rice plants with special reference to the nitrogen content of leaves. Plant Prod. Sci. 2010; 13:53-57.
- 21. Hohl M, Peter S. Water relations of growing maize coleoptiles. Comparison between mannitol and polyethylene glycol 6000 as external osmotica for adjusting turgor pressure. Plant Physiol. 1991; 95:716-722.
- Jackson ML. Soil Chemical Analysis (II Edition). Prentice Hall of India Private Limited, New Delhi, India, 1973.
- 23. Janardhan KV, Murty. Effect of low light during vegetative stage on photosynthesis and growth attributes in rice: Indian J Pl. Physiol. 1980; 23(2):156.
- 24. Ji KX, Wang YY, Sun WN, Lou QJ, Mei HW, Shen SH *et al.* Drought-responsive mechanisms in rice genotypes with contrasting drought tolerance during reproductive stage. J Plant Physiol. 2012; 169(4):336-344.
- 25. Keeper Flesher L, Hagemen RH. Generation reduced nicotinamide for nitrate reduction in green leaves. Plant Physiol. 1971; 48:580-590.
- 26. Kohl DH, Kennelly EJ, Zhu Y, Schubert KR, Shearer G. Proline accumulation, Nitrogenase (C_2H_2 reducing) activity and activity of enzymes related to protein metabolism in drought stress Soybean nodules. J Expt. Bot. 1991; 42(240):831-837.
- 27. Kumar RR, Karajol K, Naik GR. Effect of polyethylene glycol induced water stress on physiological and biochemical responses in pigeon pea (*Cajanus cajan* L. Mill sp.). Recent Res. Sci. Tech. 2011; 3(1):148-152.
- 28. Lakmini WGD, Nainanayake NPAD, De Costa WAJM. Biochemical changes of four different coconut (*cocos nucifera* L.) forms under moisture stress condition. The Journal of Agricultural Sciences. 2006; 2(3):1-7.
- 29. Larbeen, T, and Bharali, B. Management of nitrogen for enhancing physiological efficiency in upland rice (*Oryza sativa* L.) under water stress condition. Journal of Pharmacognosy and Phytochemistry. 2019; 8(2):1898-1902.
- Larsson M, Larsson CM, Whitford PN, Clarkson DT. Influence of osmotic stress on nitrate reductase activity in wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L.) and the role of abscisic acid. J Exp Bot. 1989; 40:1265-1271.
- Lauteri M, Haworth R, Serraj MC, Monteverdi M. Centritto. Photosynthetic diffusional constraints affect yield in drought stressed rice cultivars during flowering. Plos One. 2014; 9(10):109054.

- 33. Nakayama H. Panicle senescense in rice plant. Bull Hokurika Nall Exp. Sta No. 1974; 16:15-57.
- Nakayama Y. Molecular and electrophysiological characterization of a mechanosensitive channel expressed in the chloroplasts of Chlamydomonas. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A. 2007; 104:5883-5888.
- Narayan A, Anuradha MA. Water deficit as a factor limiting leaf area development in phosphorous deficient Horsegram plants. Indian J Pl. Physiol. 1991; 34(3):264-266
- Pandey AK, Tripathi RS, Yadav RS. Effect of certain growth regulators on growth yield and quality of rice (*Oryza Sativa* L.). Indian J Agric. Res. 2001; 35(2):118-120.
- Pandey R, Agarwal RM. Water stress-induced changes in proline contents and nitrate reductase activity in rice under light and dark conditions. Physiol. Mol. Biol. Plants. 1998; 4:53-57.
- 38. Panse VG, Sukhatme PV. Statistical methods for Agricultural workers, ICAR, New Delhi, 1978.
- 39. Peng S, Garcia FV, Laza RC, Sanico AL, Visperas RM, Cassman KG. Increased N-use efficiency using a chlorophyll meter on high yielding irrigated rice. Field Crops Research. 1996; 47:243-252.
- 40. Plaut Z. Nitrate reductase activity of wheat seedlings during exposure to and recovery from water stress and salinity. Physiol Plant. 1974; 30:212-217.
- 41. Rahdari P, Hosseini SM, Tavakoli S. The study effect of drought stress on germination, proline, sugar, lipid, protein and chlorophyll content in purslane (*Portulaca oleracea* L.) leaves. J Med. Plants Res. 2012; 6(9):1539-1547.
- 42. Ram P, Ram PC, Singh BB. Response to rice genotypes to water stress imposed at the tillering and boot stages of growth. Indian J Plant Physiol. 1988; 31(3):308-311.
- 43. Sarkar RK, Saini JP, Dubey CD. Testing of soybean (*Glycine max*) genotypes for drought tolerance. J Agric. Sci. 1991; 61:369-373.
- Sudhakar P, Latha P, Babitha M, Prasanthi L, Reddy PV. Physiological traits contributing to grain yields under drought in black gram and green gram. Indian Journal of Plant Physiology. 2006; 11(4):391-396.
- 45. Talouizite A, Champigny ML. Response of wheat seedlings to short-term drought with particular respect to nitrate utilization. Plant Cell Environ. 1988; 11:149-155.
- 46. Talwar HS, Prabhakar M, Elangovan Aruna K, Rao SS, Mishra J, Patil VJ. Strategies to Improve Post flowering Drought Tolerance in Rabi Sorghum for Predicted Climate Change Scenario. Crop Improvement. 2011; 37(2):93-98.
- 47. Xu W, Rosenow DT, Nguyen HT. Stay green trait in grain sorghum: relationship between visual rating and leaf chlorophyll concentration. Plant Breeding. 2000; 119(4):365-367.
- 48. Yang PM, Huang QC, Qin GY, Zhao SP, Zhou JG. Different drought-stress responses in photosynthesis and reactive oxygen metabolism between autotetraploid and diploid rice Photosynthetica. 2014; 52(2):193-202.
- 49. Yokota A, Takahara K, Akashi K. Physiology and molecular biology of stress tolerance in plants. In: Madhavarao, K. Raghavendra and K. Janardhanreddy (eds.). Springer, 2006, 15-40.