



Effect Of Moderate Salinity (Nacl) On Seed Germination And Growth Parametersin [*Trigonella foenumgraecum*L.]

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Chapter-1

INTRODUCTION

Trigonella foenumgraecum L. commonly known as fenugreek, is a valuable leguminous crop renowned for its multifaceted uses in culinary, medicinal, and industrial applications. As a significant crop in various parts of the world, particularly in India and middle east, fenugreek plays a crucial role in agricultural economics and dietary practices. However like many crops *Trigonella foenum* faces numerous challenges due to environmental stresses among which salinity stress stand out as a major constraint affecting its growth, productivity and quality. (S.K. Singh et al. 2020)

Salinity stress caused by high concentration of salts in the soil is a pervasive issue worldwide impacting agricultural productivity and sustainability. saline soil contain excessive levels of soluble salts primarily sodium chloride (NaCl), which can disrupt plant physiological processes. For glycophytes, plants like fenugreek that are not adapted to saline conditions, exposure to high salt levels can lead to osmotic stress, ion toxicity and nutrient imbalance. these conditions severely affect plant growth, development and yield.

The impact of salinity stress on *Trigonella foenum graecum* is multifaceted. High salt conditions can impede seed germination, reduce seedling vigor, and limit plant growth by affecting photosynthesis, nutrient uptake and protein synthesis. Salinity also can induce oxidative stress, leading to accumulation of reactive oxygen species (RoS) that damage cellular components. given the economic importance of fenugreek and its increasing demand, understanding the effects of salinity stress on this crop and exploring potential mitigation strategies and imperative.

The following experimentation aim to provide an in-depth analysis of effects of salinity stress on *Trigonella foenum graecum*, focusing on physiological and biochemical interventions.

Enhancing the salinity tolerance of fenugreek not only promises to improve crop yields and quality but also contributes to sustainable agriculture and food security in regions affected by soil salinity.

In response to salinity stress fenugreek activates various biochemical pathways aimed at mitigating the adverse effects. one key response is the accumulation of osmoprotectants, such as proline and glycine betaine, which help maintain cellular osmotic balance and protect macromolecules from damage. additionally, the antioxidant defense system is upregulated to counteract oxidative stress enzymes like superoxide dismutase (SOD), catalase (CAT), and peroxidase (POX) play crucial roles in scavenging ROS and minimizing oxidative damage (Singh et al. 2018)

Salinity stress also effects photosynthesis in fenugreek. high salt concentrations can damage the photosynthetic apparatus, reducing chlorophyll content and impairing the electron transport chain. This leads to decreased photosynthetic efficiency and carbon assimilation, further contributing to growth inhibition.

Soil salinity is considered a detrimental factor for crops worldwide. 33% of irrigated soil are affected by salinity (Qadir et al., 2014; Hopmans et al., 2021) in case of primary salinization, salinity stress get occur by weathering of rocks on the planet (Parihar et al., 2015)

Secondary salinity stress in crop plants occurs by anthropogenic influences, alteration of hydrological balance of irrigation water most of compounds causing salinity stress in almost of all crop plants includes sodium chloride (NaCl), calcium sulphate, calcium bicarbonate, magnesium chloride and magnesium bicarbonate (Mata-Fernandez et al., 2014)

Based on tolerance to stress for salinity plants are of two types -halophytes and glycophytes (Munns and Gilliam, 2015) halophytes tolerating salinity upto ≥ 9.8 mmhos/cm i.e. cotton, sugar beet etc. glycophytes tolerating salinity of low level (4 mmhos/cm and below) (Shabala, 2013)

Salinity stress poses a significant challenge to the cultivation of *Trigonella foenum graecum* through a comprehensive understanding of the physiological and biochemical responses of fenugreek to salinity stress, we can develop effective strategies to mitigate these impacts. by exploring genetic variations, breeding for tolerance, and implementing appropriate agronomical practices, it is possible to enhance the resilience of fenugreek to saline conditions. such ensures food security in regions affected by soil salinity.

Reproduction is a critical time in plant life. Basic seed is a young sporophyte seeds are also an excellent model system for studies of development biology. They are complex structures that are bounded by a seed coat, embryo and endosperm each of these regions consist of subregion tissues and cell types that undergoes further development [Belmonter et al. 2013]

Development of seedling starts with the germination of seed and radicle emergence. Seed comprises of radicle, hypocotyl and cotyledons.

Salinity affects one-third of land all over world leading to decrease in crop productivity by its negative effect on seed growth and germination. Basic process affected by high salt concentration includes osmosis, ion toxicity and imbalance in nutrition channels. Altering those mechanism lead metabolic and physiological changes and possess a negative impact on seed germination. High salinity concentration in number of plants leads to decrease in seed germination percentage.

Fenugreek (*Trigonella foenum graecum* L.) is a periodic legume that's considerably cultivated in utmost regions of the world for its medicinal value and other important uses and other important uses nitrogen fixation in the soil, feedstock of the food and chemical industry and beast feed (Petropoulos, 2002; Sadeghzade et al., 2009).

Trigonella foenum is native to an area ranging from Iran to northern India and widely grown in China, India, Egypt, Ethiopia, Morocco, Ukraine and Turkey etc (Petropoulos, 2002). It's generally used as a seasoning in food medications for its nutritional and restorative parcels and it has also been used in folk drug for centuries for a wide range of conditions including diabetes (Eidi et al., 2007).

The world's oldest medicinal factory is fenugreek, and it belongs to the legume family. It was firstly grown as a pasturage crop; still, fenugreek is substantially grown as a spice crop. Fenugreek has medicinal importance because of production of secondary metabolites such as flavonoid, terpenoids, pyridine-type alkaloids (trigonelline and choline) and protein (arginine, histidine, and lysine).

Plants make large variability in salt tolerance and are differentiated as salt sensitive, moderately salt sensitive, moderately salt tolerant, or salt tolerant (Munns and Tester, 2008). Salt-tolerant species genetically acclimated to high-salt stress are nominated halophytes, while those less acclimated to salt stress are nominated glycophytes (van Zelm et al., 2020). Utmost major crops, similar as rice (*Oryza sativa*), wheat (*Triticum aestivum*), and maize (*Zea mays*), are glycophytic species that tolerate only low salt stress or mild salt stress conditions. Several recent reviews have addressed the salinity tolerance mechanisms of halophytes, which employ specialized strategies to repeal saline surroundings. This review thus focuses on advances in understanding mechanisms of salinity tolerance in glycophytes, including the model factory *Arabidopsis* (*Arabidopsis thaliana*), and the four most-studied crops: rice, wheat, maize, and soybean (*Glycine max*).

Environmental stresses including salinity stress is a limiting plant growth and productivity circumstance. To acclimatize to salt stress, plants have developed various mechanisms to integrate exogenous salinity stress signals with endogenous experimental cues to optimize the balance of growth and stress responses. Accumulating substantiation indicates that phytohormones, besides controlling plant growth and development under normal conditions, also intervene in different environmental stresses, including salinity stress, and therefore regulate plant growth adaptation. We also punctuate how, plant hormones mediate salinity signals to regulate plant growth adaptation. We also get to know that how, plants build a defence system in response to salinity stress by developing the conflation, signaling, and metabolism of different hormones with multiple cross addresses.

About the plant: Fenugreek (*Trigonella foenum graecum*), a short-living periodic medicinal plant that belongs to Fabaceae family, it is used more or less in the various parts of the world as condiment, food, spice, and traditional drug.

It is native to the Mediterranean region, south Europe, and western Asia. It is now considerably cultivated in countries like India, Egypt and Morocco.

The plant generally attains a height of 30-60cm outside and points trifoliate leaves composed of three obovate to oblong leaflets.

The plant produces small, axillary, flowers that are more or less white or pale yellow. These flowers develop into slender, curved pods measuring up to 15cm in length, each having 10-20 cuboid, yellowish-brown seeds.

Uses:

Fenugreek has been employed for centuries in colorful culinary traditions. Its seeds and leaves are integral to numerous dishes in Indian country, frequently used in curries, pickles, and spice compositions. These seeds retain a sweet strong aroma evocative of maple saccharinity and are occasionally employed in the production of maple flavoring. Beyond its culinary operations, fenugreek has a history of use in traditional drug systems, where it has been used for its purported health benefits.

CHAPTER-2**LITERATURE REVIEW****EFFECT OF NaCl ON SEEDLINGS**

Salinity affects one-third of land each over world leading to drop in crop productivity by its altering effect on seed growth and germination. Introductory process affected by high salinity condition includes osmosis, ionic toxin, and imbalance nutrition channels. Altering these mechanisms lead metabolic and physiological alteration and retains a negative impact on seed germination. High salt condition in number of plants leads drop in seed germination chances.

Increased salt conditions lead to affecting photosynthetic pigments and chlorophyll content, also primary and secondary metabolites fluxes. Proline content increases with high salt stress such as in *H. vulgare* cultivars and *O. basilicum* genotypes. Salt stress changes biochemical parameters, including antioxidant enzymes, and phenolic compounds. Proline content plays a pivotal part acting as an osmoprotectant and antioxidant.

Trigonella foenum graecum antioxidant defense system, includes enzymes like superoxide dismutase, catalase, and peroxidase, helps alleviate oxidative damage caused by salt stress. (Basel et al. 2021)

Injury causing osmotic stress and ionic toxicity lead to the generation of secondary stress, known as "oxidative stress," a type of stress condition in which the equilibrium between the production of reactive oxygen species (ROS) and the demolishing exertion of antioxidants is altered (Gill and Tuteja 2010)

Oxidative stress in plants is a reason of uncoupled pathways in the metabolism of plants transferring high-energy state electron to molecular oxygen to form ROS (Gill and Tuteja 2010).

ROS include singlet oxygen (1O_2), superoxide anion (O_2^-), hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2), and hydroxyl radical (OH). ROS undo colorful cellular functions by damaging nucleic acids, oxidizing proteins, and causing lipid peroxidation (Foyer and Noctor 2005)

Plants have basically two antioxidative systems to fight the damages of ROS: enzymatic and nonenzymatic scavenging methods. Enzymatic scavenging methods include superoxide dismutase (SOD), catalase (CAT), peroxidase (PX), ascorbate peroxidase (APX), and glutathione reductase (GR). Antioxidant molecules, similar as ascorbic acid, glutathione, α -tocopherol, and carotenoids, also play important places in the junking of poisonous by-products of O_2 (Gill and Tuteja 2010)

Abiotic stress, in general, and salt stress, in particular, make a series of morphological, physiological, biochemical and molecular changes, which unfavourably affect plant growth, development and productivity (Shanker and Venkateswarlu, 2011; Munns and Gilliam, 2015)

Although *Trigonella foenum* is relatively tolerant to salt stress (Kumawat et al., 2017), in numerous countries this species is grown in thirsty and semi-arid regions in soils with high salinity condition, which negatively affect plant growth and productivity (Al-Saady et al., 2012)

Salt stress in soil doesn't only change leaf and root hormone attention (Pérez-Alfocea et al., 2010), but also alters root to shoot hormonal signaling (Albacete et al., 2009). Abscissic acid (ABA) plays a role in the control of leaf stomatal transduction, growth of plant and adaptation to deficiency of water and salinity condition, while cytokinins (CKs) play a functional part in the regulation of leaflet growth, leaf senescence, shoot and root balance and nutritive signaling (Albacete et al.,

2008; Albacete et al., 2009)

Plants respond to high salt stress through eliciting a range of physiological, biochemical, and molecular mechanisms, which can be distinguished into three major classes (i) 'ion exclusion' to eliminate Na^+ and Cl^- ions from roots when their accumulation becomes poisonous (ii) 'tolerance of tissue' allowing 'compartmentalized' of poisonous ions at cellular and intracellular position (Roy et al. 2014) and (iii) 'tolerance to osmosis' (Parida et al. 2005; Munns and Tester 2008; Roy et al. 2014)

In recent times, work has been done to explore the inheritable variation for salt stress tolerance capacity in different leguminous crops. Chickpea genotypes made a wider range of variation in their response to salt stress (Lauter and Munns 1986)

In pea, differentiation for traits like as plant height, plant growth rate (PGR), roots and shoot biomass was known following from webbing of 780 pea accessions under salt stress (Leonforte et al. 2013). Also, another study covering 30 pea genotypes were known for variation for germination (%) chance, root and shoot weight and inorganic osmolytes (Shahid et al. 2012). Salinity tolerance of the genotypes *Samarina Zard*, Climax, 9800-5 was set up to be due to lower accumulation of poisonous Na^+ in leaf and a advanced Na^+/K^+ rate, and abundant antioxidant enzymatic conditions and osmolyte amount under salt stress (Shahid et al. 2012a, b)

An important point of the salinity stress response is that the osmotic signal causes abscisic acid (ABA) to get aggregating by converting the expression of ABA biosynthesis genes (e.g., NINE-CIS-EPOXYCAROTENOID, DIOXYGENASE's (NCEDs), ABA-DEFICIENT (ABA), and ALDEHYDE OXIDASE-3 (AO3)), which makes numerous/many adaptive responses in plants (van Zelm et al., 2020; Du et al., 2023)

Rapid and Na^+ -specific halo-tropism (growth of roots down from Na^+) under salinity stress conditions indicates the presence of root-grounded Na^+ detectors (Sun et al., 2008; Galvan-Ampudia et al., 2013)

Salinity stress makes tissue-specific modulations in Ca^{2+} circulation and amplitude, and numerous Ca^{2+} signals being involved in the conformation of salt-convicted Ca^{2+} signals have been linked to plants (Knight et al., 1997; Ma et al., 2019; Steinhorst et al., 2022)

A good review about the effect of (melatonin) in the plant was presented in response to salt stress. Described the changes of exogenous melatonin in the modulation of the expression of genes making in melatonin metabolism, the increase of the transcription level of many stress-responsive genes, and recap transcription factors involved in the ROS scavenging and of the genes responsible for the conservation of ion homeostasis. Melatonin regulates hormone metabolism by up-regulation of gibberellic acid (GA) biosynthesis also including abscisic acid (ABA) catabolism genes formation. (Zhan et al.)

Transporters help plants take up salt from the soil, that made ion toxicity and disturb mineral uptake of plant and ion homeostasis. Salt stress leads to vigorous accumulation of ions (Na^+ and Cl^-) and stops K^+ and Ca^{2+} uptake and eventually results in ionic imbalance (Isayenkov and Maathuis, 2019). Salt stress increases reactive oxygen species (ROS) content in plant and make oxidative stress. The poisonous impact of ROS is lipid peroxidation, membrane damage, as well as DNA and protein deterioration (El Ghazali, 2020)

Combining different 'omics' approaches such as genomics, transcriptomics, proteomics, and metabolomics in the plant is the new and wide tool to deal with salt tolerance and adaptation. 'Omics' studies of control and salt stressed plant had authorized the conspicuous evidence of changes in traits, genes, proteins, and metabolome that play a crucial role in making a plant tolerance to salinity stress (Nongpiur et al., 2016; Ismail and Horie, 2017; Jha et al., 2019)

Depending on the type and amount of salt, cells of plant have also different mechanisms for guarding

themselves from harsh effects of salt stress. Plants have made their defence against salt stress at numerous levels by making changes in molecular, biochemical and physiological pathways. Some of these processes include ion homeostasis, enzymatic regulation and non-enzymatic regulation of antioxidants, compatible solute attraction and osmotic protection, hormonal regulation made change in expression of stress resistance genes, and regulation of nitric oxide production (Hanin et al. 2016)

In recent times, important attention has been made toward the use of nano-particles (NPs), as one of the most advanced methods, to make improvement in growth and plant performance undergoing salinity stress (Ahamad and Akhtar 2021, Das and Das. 2019, Duhan et al. 2016)

Nano-materials are made of compounds with very small size (at a scale of 100 nm or less), and these compounds make action on the properties of materials at the macro level. Nano-materials have a fairly large surface area when compared to the same mass of material produced in a larger form. Materials can be made more chemically reactive with NPs and affect their strength or electrical properties. NPs have high surface to volume ratio that increases their reaction capacity and possible biochemical activity (Das and Das. 2019, Dubchak et al. 2010)

Lipids are essential factors of cell membranes responsible for structural conservation and cell functioning. ROS are generated from several life processes in plants and an excess of ROS can damage cell, tissues and organs of plant. Salt stress exposure made a disturbance, an overflow, or indeed a dislocation of electron transport chains (ETC) in mitochondria and chloroplasts in higher plants, making ROS accumulation. The major place involved in the production of O_2 is the photosystem I (PSI). When light is present, O_2 which is continuously handed by the water autolysis reaction involved (Reaction 1: $2H_2O \rightarrow 4e^- + O_2 + 4H^+$) can be decreased to O_2 (Reaction 2: $2O_2 + 2e^- \rightarrow 2O_2$). The extra amount of decreased ferredoxin (Fd_{red}) and the limited NADP presence acceleration the autoxidation of Fd_{red} to Fd_{ox} and the formation of O_2 (Reaction 3: $Fd_{red} + O_2 \rightarrow Fd_{ox} + O_2$). Also, the Fd_{red} can react with O_2 to form H_2O_2 (Reaction 4: $Fd_{red} + O_2 + 2H^+ \rightarrow Fd_{ox} + H_2O_2$). Lipids are main targets of ROS attack and the free radical oxidation of poly-unsaturated fatty acids is called LP (Gutteridge et al. 1995)

According to the United States Department of Agriculture (USDA) Laboratory, the soil is said to be saline when electric conductivity (EC) of the soil suspension is more than $4 dS m^{-1}$ which is (equal to 40 mM NaCl) (Munns and Tester, 2008)

Salinity stress, accompanied by osmotic imbalance and ionic accumulation can lead to a deficiency of K^+ and Ca^{2+} , attenuation of photosynthetic rate, impaired metabolism, and ultimately plant's death (Mudgal et al., 2010)

Saltiness have double effects on plants: osmotic as well as ionic. Under the condition salt concentration crosses its normal level, water potential (ψ) decreases in the soil making the reduced absorption capacity of water by roots of plants. This effect is called an osmotic effect or water deficiency effect in plants. (Parihar et al., 2015; Rahnama et al., 2010)

Water insufficiency is characterized by a decreased water potential (ψ), loss of turgor, fading, stomatal closure, and reduction in cell growth. Also on the other hand, a vigorous assimilation of toxic ions, like as Na^+ and Cl^- in cells has a poisonous effect on the plant. At increased concentrations, even non-toxic salts for example (Na_2SO_3) also become toxic, leading to change in the normal physiological processes. Due to salts, the K^+/Na^+ ratio changes in the plant cells, leading to high Na^+ concentrations and cellular homeostasis (James et al., 2011)

Soil salinity is called as an increased concentration of solute salts in soils, leading more than 4 dS/m electric conductivity. Salinity on other hand affects plant growth and development through its effect on physiological and biochemical pathways (Nabat et al. 2011), oppressively constraining major cereal crop production, with yield losses of 60% in wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L.) (El-Hendawy et al. 2017) and 50% in rice (*Oryza sativa* L.) (Van Genuchten and Gupta 1993), and decrease of 51.43% dry weight and 53.18% leaf area, in maize (*Zea mays* L.) (Hussein et al. 2007)

The major genes included in salt rejection are salt overlay sensitive (SOS) homolog genes (*OsSOS1*, *OsCIPK24*, and *OsCBL4*) in rice (Martínez-Atienza et al. 2007), (*TaSOS1* and *TdSOS1*) in wheat (Xu et al. 2008; Fekiet al. 2011) and (*ZmNHX7*) as a Na^+/H^+ antiporter in maize (Bosnic et al. 2018).

There are mainly three salt tolerance mechanisms proposed by (Munns and Tester 2010): ion exclusion – the net excretion of poisonous ions from the shoot; tissue tolerance – the separation of toxic ions into specific plant tissues, cells and subcellular organelles of plant; and shoot ion-independent tolerance – the care of growth and water uptake nondependent of the extent of Na^+ accumulation in the shoot. Transpiration (T) along with transpiration use efficiency (TUE) (Haris et al 2010) leaf area, seed germination, antioxidants production, growth of early seedling, and harvest index (HI) are some of other physiological parts likely involved to salt tolerance, like the maintenance of plant water relation (Gholizadeh et al 2014).

Salt stress today has emerged as a major global agricultural issue, leading to change ~20% of the total agricultural area into uncultivable regions on earth, mainly thirsty (arid) and semi-arid geographical lands, at an increased annual rate of ~1%–2% (Mohanty et al 2021). By the year 2050, salt pollutants will acquire an impact on nearly 50% of farming areas (Butcher et al. 2016).

A study made by Banakar and their team members resulted a decrease in the production of *Trigonella foenum-plants* along with higher soils salinity, i.e., by 10% (3.38 ds m^{-1}), 25% (6.28 ds m^{-1}), and 50% (11.67 ds m^{-1}) (Banakar et al 2022).

In a study carried out in northern India concluded that, fenugreek is more susceptible to high salt condition than *Coriandrum sativum* and *Foeniculum vulgare* plants (Yadav et al. 2013).

Absciscic acid (ABA) plays a part in the regulation of leaf stomatal functioning, plant growth and adaptation to water deficit and salt stress, while cytokinins (CKs) play a great part in the maintenance of leaf growth, leaf senescence, shoot and root balance and nutritional signaling (Albacete et al., 2008; Albacete et al., 2009).

It has been seen in today's time that gibberellins (GAs) interact with mycorrhizal association to improve growth in salt stressed tomato plants (Khalloufi et al., 2017). Salinity disturbs the mineral relations of plants by decreasing N and other mineral nutrients availability through competition with Na^+ and Cl^- (Murtaza et al., 2013).

Endophytes from salinity prone environments naturally adapt to salinity conditions and can help plants to more effectively cope with the saline environments during their development, thus promoting the management of saline land areas.

Endophytes make symbiotic or pathogenic relationships with plants in most of cases. They include beneficial effects such as increased plant nutrients uptake, like nitrogen, phosphorus, and ions. And regulation of plant growth and development by the regulation of plant hormones including (cytokinin and ethylene).

In case of wheat examined with an endophyte, (*Pantoea agglomerans*) called YN1, seen that from healthy wheat stems shown noticeable increases in morphological aspects like plant height and root length; chlorophyll, carotenoid, and proline contents and a noticeable downfall in malondialdehyde content under 150 mM NaCl stress, which indicates the capability of (YN1) in increasing plants salt tolerance or adaptability. (Manjunatha et al.) concluded that the endophytic fungi increases salt tolerance capacity in wheat at the seedling stage.

NO (Nitric oxide), as a major signaling part, plays an effective part in plant development and in resistance gaining to plants from various environmental conditions, such as salinity conditions. In influence of salinity, plants promote NO concentrations substantially by addition the exertion of a NOS-such like enzyme or NR and by inhibiting the exertion of GSNOR.

Salinity decreases the plant height, fresh weight, total dry weight, photosynthetic colour content, and amount of protein in plants. The negative effects of salinity can be soothed by exogenous NO treatment in wild variety of barley.

Exogenous operation of SNP increased the fresh weight and shoot/root extension of (*Nitraria tangutorum*) seedlings under salinity stress. Leaf anility and root damage convinced by salinity stress were also soothed. Meanwhile, operation of the NO eating cPTIO and mammalian NOS asset L-NAME significantly worsened stress-convinced damage under high-salinity stress conditions (Zhao et al 2004)

Exogenous melatonin provided significantly reduced salt stress-convinced ROS. Following 12 days of salinity stress, H₂O₂ attention increased by 37.5%, while melatonin pre-treatment of cucumber maintained a low H₂O₂ attention throughout the trial. analogous results were also observed in salinity-stressed rapeseed seedlings, and the operation of exogenous melatonin dropped the H₂O₂ content by 11.2 %. (Liang et al.)

Exogenous melatonin decreases H₂O₂ and O₂⁻ attention by cracking antioxidant enzymes. This process has been verified in numerous plant species, similar as rapeseed, radish, cucumber, rice, maize, bermudagrass, soybean, watermelon, kiwifruit, and *Malus hupehensis*. In cucumber, the exertion of major defensive antioxidant enzymes—including SOD, CAT, POD, and APX—in melatonin pre-treated plants was significantly advanced than control plants. Under salt stress, exogenous melatonin operation also effectively increased the conditioning of APX, CAT, SOD, cover, GR, and GPX in melatonin-treated seedlings compared to their non-treated counterparts. also, melatonin interacts with ROS by perfecting attention of antioxidants (ASA-GSH)

Generally, low salt attention induces a state of dormancy and decreases the germination chance. Meanwhile, high salt attention for plant inhibits the seed germination and decreases the germination chance (Shannon and Grieve, 1999, Khan and Weber, 2008)

The germination of utmost crops fails on saline soils. This is frequently a result of high salt concentrations in the seed planting zone. In hot and dry surroundings, high evapo-transpiration results in water loss. This results in salinity around the plant roots. This salinity interferes with the plant's capability to take up nutrients (Bernstein and Hayward, 1958)

High salt stress situation takes 1.5 million hectares of land out of product each time (Pitman and Läuchli, 2002, Munns and Tester, 2008).

Therefore, 50% of cultivable lands will be lost by the middle of the 21st century (Wang et al., 2003)

We are still developing an understanding of the underpinning inheritable responses to stress and the complex relations between stresses and environmental cues, networks of gene expression regulation, physiological responses and eventually plant fitness (Cramer et al 2013; Siddiqui et al 2021)

The *E2* knockout mutant *e2^{CR}* not only has a docked flowering time but also appreciatively regulates the recap position of ROS scavenging-related genes, which enhances the salinity tolerance of soybean, forming a foundation for the identification of early growing and salt-tolerant soybean kinds. (Dong et al, 2022)

Late embryogenesis abundant (LEA) proteins are involved in plant stress tolerance for bearance and play a pivotal part in adversity resistance (Abdul Aziz et al. 2021).

In rice (*Oryza sativa*), five LEA genes (*OsLEA1*, *OsLEA2*, *OsLEA3*, *OsLEA4*, and *OsLEA5*) were mainly over-regulated under stress failure and handed better physiological adaptation to drought stress in seedlings (Kamraudin et al. 2021)

The biosynthesis and signaling exertion of other phytohormones similar as ethylene are also told by salt stress. formation of ethylene conflation in case of a variety of stresses such as salt stress is well known. Biosynthesis of ethylene or its direct precursor, ACC (1-aminocyclopropane-1-carboxylate) is convinced to be a remarkable degree by salinity stress. Thus, ethylene accumulates in plantlets freighted with salt shock

Silicon operation enhances H^+ -ATPase exertion in the tubule membrane and tonoplast. Increased H -ATPase exertion upon Si operation facilitates the export of Na^+ out of the cell (Lian et al., 2006b)

Studies under salinity stress have shown reduced damage and translocation of Na^+ to the shoot with Si supplementation. For example, increased K^+/Na^+ ratio was observed with Si supplementation in alfalfa (*Medicago sativa* L.) and salinity tolerant and salinity-sensitive chickpea (*Cicer arietinum* L.) genotypes (Wang and Han, 2007; Garg and Bhandari, 2016), and translocation of Na^+ to upstanding parts was reduced in rice (Matoh et al., 1986)

Silicon accelerates the exertion of enzymes similar as peroxidase, polyphenol oxidase, phenylalanine ammonia-lyase, and acyltransferase related to lignin biosynthesis. Numerous studies reported Si intermediated improvement in the lignification and suberization in roots (Cai et al., 2008; Fleck et al., 2011). In discrepancy, some studies showed a negative correlation between Si and lignin conflation.

Although the involvement of histone variations in abiotic stress priming has been reported in several cases in Arabidopsis, the places of histone marks in modulating transcriptional responses in more plant species, especially economically important crops, remain largely unknown. In soybean, the relationship between histone variations and recap has only been assessed in the environment of a single salinity treatment (Song et al., 2012; Sun et al., 2019)

The expression of transcriptional processes is important in maintenance of a broad range of cellular processes underpinning salinity mostly. Recent studies have proposed that epigenetic features similar as histone marks may be altered as a consequence of priming, which in turn modify the chromatin binding and modulate transcriptional responses during posterior stress exposure (Fu et al., 2021; Sun et al., 2020; Yung et al., 2021; Zheng et al., 2019)

Microtubule networks can rapidly alter their organization in response to salt stress, which is considered vital for plant growth and adaptation. For instance, cytosolic salt imbalance results in microtubule depolymerization and salt sensitivity in *Arabidopsis sos1* mutant (Shoji et al. 2016).

In addition, the salinity stress mediated phospholipase D enhances the formation of phosphatidic acid (PA), which effectively correlates to MAP65-1 in *Arabidopsis* and induces its microtubule-stabilizing functioning, forming cortical microtubule reassembly and improving salinity tolerance in plants (Zhang et al. 2012).

PGPB can live in the soil (rhizosphere) surrounding the plant roots, epiphytically attached to roots, stems, or leaf surfaces, or as endophytes inside plant tissues. PGPB are able to promote the growth of plants by different mechanisms such as nutrient uptake from soil (phosphate, nitrogen, iron, etc.), modulation of plant hormone levels (auxins, ethylene, abscisic acid, etc.), or enhancement of plant resistance to pathogens by the activation of defence mechanisms referred to as Induced Systemic Resistance (ISR) or the production of antimicrobials. Before the last few years, PGPB have increased as a biotechnological tool with capabilities in agriculture as an effective tool against the traditional chemical fertilizers and pesticides. (Saad M.M; Eida A.A; 2020)

Jasmonates (JAs) are lipid-based plant hormones that regulate an array of processes in plants, particularly involved in defence mechanisms and stress tolerance. Delgado et al. refined the role of JAs in plant salinity tolerance, chiefly based on a genome-wide association study, and concluded that MYC2 transcription factor and JASMONATE ZIM-DOMAIN repressors are key components in JA signaling. The authors provide a detailed knowledge of JAs against plant salt stress thought to be useful as a mentor in breeding programs. (Delgado et al. 2021)

Calmodulin-like proteins (CMLs) are thought to be involved in salt stress maintenance in Arabidopsis. Zhang et al. isolated a CML gene, *MpCML40*, from (*Pongamia*), and concluded that its heterologous formation could improve salt tolerance in yeast cells and increase the rate of seed germination

and the length of roots when exposed to salinity and osmotic stresses in *Arabidopsis* (Zhang Y et al 2021)

To mount an effective response to cope with salt stress, plants have developed the ability to sense both the hyper-osmotic component and the ionic Na^+ component of the stress. These two sensory modalities are evident in that some responses to NaCl remain distinct from responses to purely osmotic stress. At increased salt concentration in the soil suspension produces hyperosmotic stress in roots. To identify, the molecular identities of plant hyper-osmotic sensors and Na^+ sensors have remained exclusive. The *Arabidopsis* (*Arabidopsis thaliana*) histidine kinase receptor protein HK1 has been shown to complement the loss of the yeast osmosensor *Slr1* and overexpression/loss-of-function lines exhibit drought and osmotic stress-associated phenotypes (Trans LS et al 2007)

Transcription factors play a crucial role in connecting salt-sensing pathways to various tolerance mechanisms in plants. Several transcription factor (TF) gene families show altered expression levels in response to elevated salt conditions.

These include members of the bZIP, WRKY, AP2/ERF, MYB, bHLH, and NAC families, all of which are known to contribute to salinity stress responses (Trans LS et al., 2004).

Only plants with a natural tolerance to salinity are able to survive in environments with high salt levels. In crops, salinity tolerance refers to their capacity to withstand elevated salt concentrations without significant growth or yield loss, as long as the salinity does not surpass a specific threshold level known as the electrical conductivity threshold (ECt) (Machado and Serralheiro, 2017).

Various physical and chemical techniques, such as leaching through methods like continuous or intermittent ponding, sprinkling, and soil drying, as well as drainage improvement and the use of soil amendments like gypsum, are commonly applied to improve saline soils. Additionally, biological approaches including phytoremediation and conventional breeding are also used for soil reclamation (Fita et al., 2015).

However, many of these physical and chemical strategies are not environmentally sustainable, as they can lead to pollution and ecological damage through their application methods (Arora et al., 2020a; 2020b).

Wheat plants genetically engineered to overexpress TaASR1-D demonstrated improved resistance to both drought and salt stress, mainly through mechanisms involving ROS and ABA signaling, which also led to increased crop productivity. Similarly, transgenic maize plants with elevated levels of ZmASR1 showed better drought tolerance, though this had little to no impact on yield. In rice, higher expression of OsASR1 contributed to better growth and yield under drought by helping maintain stomatal closure (Park Si et al., 2019).

The ABA-independent pathway also plays a vital role in helping plants tolerate salt stress. Key components of this pathway include DREB-type transcription factors and genes encoding dehydrin proteins, among others (Zhu, 2002).

Genetically modified plants that produce higher levels of OsASR6 have shown improved resistance to salt stress, whereas plants with reduced OsASR6 expression through RNA interference became more vulnerable. Studies also revealed that OsASR6 can directly bind to OsNCED1, an important enzyme involved in the production of abscisic acid (ABA), both in test conditions and within the plant. Additionally, OsASR6 was shown to influence the buildup of reactive oxygen species (ROS) and the production of ABA during salt stress, indicating that it helps improve salt tolerance through pathways involving hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2) and ABA signaling.

Plants manage salt stress through both ABA-dependent and ABA-independent signaling pathways. In the ABA-dependent pathway, three key components are involved: the PYR/PYL/RCAR receptors (Pyrabactin Resistance-like/Regulatory Component of ABA Receptor), the group A Protein Phosphatase 2Cs (PP2Cs), and the SNF1-Related Protein Kinases 2 (SnRK2s). When abscisic acid (ABA) is present, it binds to the PYR/PYL/RCAR receptors, which then interact with and inhibit the activity of PP2Cs. This inhibition allows for the activation of SnRK2 kinases—particularly SRK2D/SnRK2.2, SRK2E/OST1/SnRK2.6, and

SRK2I/SnRK2.3—triggering downstream stress responses (Mustilli et al., 2002; Danquah et al., 2014; Mehrotra et al., 2014).

In saline soils, the germination of many crops is often unsuccessful due to the presence of high salt levels where seeds are planted. In arid and hot regions, intense evaporation leads to moisture loss, which causes salt to accumulate near plant roots. This salt buildup restricts the plant's ability to absorb water effectively (Bernstein and Hayward, 1958).

Quick seed germination and strong initial plant growth are essential for achieving good crop yields, especially under stressful environmental conditions. As research has improved our knowledge of how seeds germinate, new methods have been created to influence these processes for agricultural benefits. Among these, "seed priming" has become one of the most widely adopted techniques (Bewley et al., 2013; Paparella et al., 2015).

Seed priming is a technique where seeds are partially hydrated under controlled conditions to activate early germination processes, but then dried before the radicle (young root) starts to emerge (Giri and Schillinger, 2003).

Recent research indicates that neurotransmitters play important roles in various plant functions. These include promoting root and shoot development, aiding in fruit ripening, aging (senescence), seed and pollen germination, embryo formation, protecting germ tissues, and regulating the movement of ions across membranes (Arnao and Hernández-Ruiz, 2018, 2019; Saxena, 2018).

Several studies have shown that various plants contain neurotransmitters such as GABA, acetylcholine, indoleamines, catecholamines, and others (Bame et al., 2016; Momonoki, 1997; Ramakrishna et al., 2009, 2011a, 2011b).

Similar to other environmental stresses, salt stress has a harmful impact on plant growth and reproduction. It disrupts nutrient and hormone balance, leads to ion toxicity, causes oxidative and osmotic stress, and increases vulnerability to diseases. Salt stress can harm plants in three main ways. First, excessive salt in the soil changes its structure and reduces its ability to retain and transport water, resulting in lower water availability. This creates water stress, mimicking drought conditions, even if water is present. Second, the presence of toxic ions, especially sodium (Na^+), can damage cell membranes and lead to the breakdown of proteins.

Salt stress is responsible for around 70% of crop yield losses. High soil salinity disrupts various physiological, structural, biochemical, and molecular functions in plants, negatively impacting their natural growth and overall survival (Bose et al., 2018).

Restoring salt-affected land for agricultural use has become a key objective for improving crop production globally. High levels of NaCl in saline soils lead to increased sodium uptake and the loss of essential nutrients like potassium and calcium from plant cells. This disrupts cellular balance, causes nutrient shortages, increases oxidative damage, slows down growth, and can ultimately lead to cell death (Mukhopadhyay et al., 2021).

Plants are sensitive to salt stress because it disrupts the molecular processes that control their growth and development (Krassensky and Jonak, 2012).

Salt stress in plants is usually tested in experiments by adding more and more salt (specifically sodium chloride, or NaCl) to the soil or growing medium. If a large amount of salt is added all at once, it creates a sudden "salt shock" that causes the plant to lose water quickly due to osmotic pressure. Over time, the plant also starts to absorb more sodium (Na^+) and chloride (Cl^-) ions, which can be harmful. On the other hand, if salt levels increase slowly—like they might in nature—the plant faces less immediate water loss, and the buildup of sodium happens more gradually. Interestingly, most of the salt-tolerance mechanisms discovered and confirmed in genetically modified plants have been based on these sudden or moderately intense salt shock treatments, not the slow,

natural kind (Shavrukov, 2013).

CHAPTER-3 MATERIALS AND METHODS

SEED GATHERING AND SOWING:

Trigonella foenum graecum seeds are attained from (HAU, Haryana Agriculture University) Hisar, Haryana. Seeds were HISAR Sonali variety, collected from Department of Vegetable Sciences HAU, Hisar. Seeds are packed and checked all essential parameters germination, moisture content, physical purity, genetic purity and others required for research purpose.



(Fig:1 Seeds used for sowing)

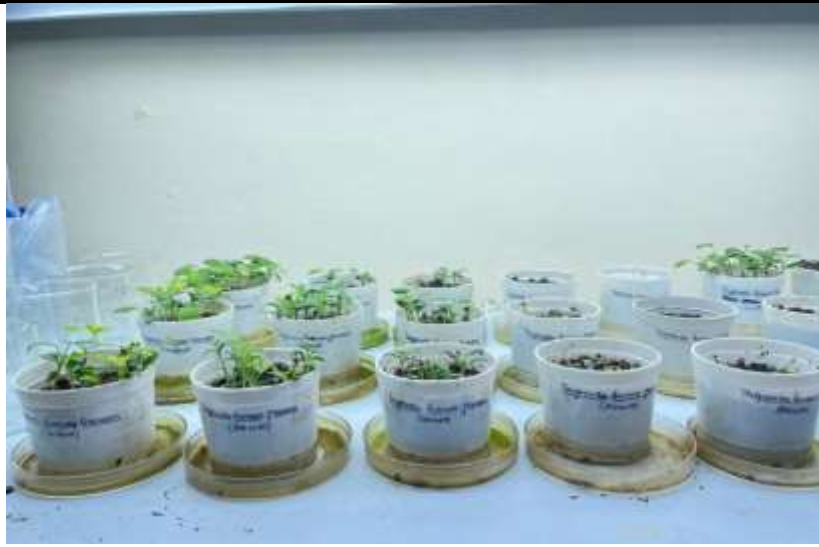
Seeds were sown in autoclaved cocopeat and vermicompost (equally mixed in a container) in sterilized plastic pots. All pots were filled with equal volume of cocopeat and vermicompost mixture ideal for growth.

GROWTH CONDITION AND ENVIRONMENT:

The experiment was conducted in Botany Department Laboratory at Kurukshetra University, Kurukshetra. A proper light condition was given to all the treatments. three replicates of each concentration including control and 50mM were sown with proper number of seeds in each pot (20 per pots). Seedlings were well-watered throughout the experiment with tap water in control replicates and 50mM with respective NaCl concentration from stock solution. Stock solution was prepared by adding (2.922g of NaCl in enough water to make it 1 litre) solution.

Seedlings were always kept at tray under them to avoid mixing of different water concentration.

Proper monitoring is ensured throughout the experimentation till the seedlings attained proper growth suitable for experimentation.



(Fig:2 Treatments under controlled conditions)

GROWTH PARAMETERS:

Percentage of Germination

The percentage of germination indicates number of seed germinates divided by total number of seed sown multiplied by 100. It indicates the number of seed which produce normal seedlings within specific period of time under control and treated conditions.

$$\text{Percentage of seed germination} = \frac{\text{No of seeds germinated}}{\text{Total no of seeds sown}} \times 100$$



(Fig:3 Seeds sown in coco peat and vermicompost 1:1)

Seedling height

Seedling height was measured using a scale from the soil surface to the apex of the plant i.e. main shoot length and expressed in cm (Three replicates were taken).



(Fig:4,SeedlingheightunderControl)



(Fig:5,Seedlingheightunder50mM)

Root length

A measuring scale was used to determine the root length after placing them straight and cleaned without soil debris. (Three replicates were taken)

Fresh, dry and turgid weight of seedlings

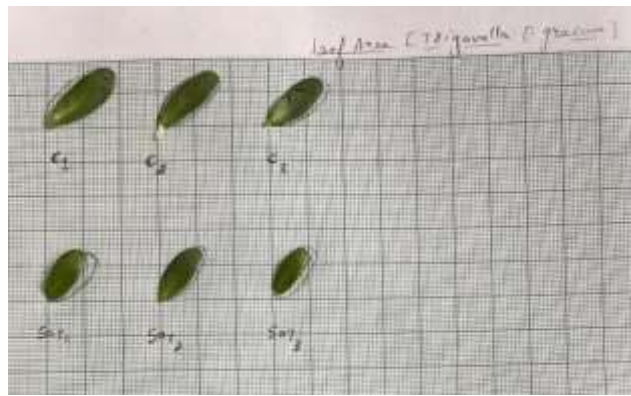
Seedlings under each treatment were carefully taken and after washing away the sand stuck to roots with ample amounts of tap water. Plants were cleaned with filter paper to eliminate moisture from their surfaces. After that their weight was measured using electronic balance. In a 60°C oven, all the plants with replicates of three, each control and 50mM were dried until they attained a consistent weight in labelled paper envelopes. Their dried weight was calculated using electronic balance. Similarly turgid weight was calculated after placing the seedlings in water overnight about (8-10hrs), initial and final weight was calculated using electronic balance.



(Fig:6 Plantlets used for weighing fresh, dry and turgid weight)

Leaf area of seedlings

Leaf area is defined as the total surface area of leaf available for photosynthesis. It is measured in cm^2 with the help of graph paper.



(Fig:7 Graph showing leaf area measured after marking on box) Water relation

Relative water content(RWC)

To compare RWC, Weatherly (1950) formula was followed

$$RWC(\%) = \frac{\text{Fresh weight} - \text{Dry weight}}{\text{Turgid weight} - \text{Dry weight}} \times 100$$

ANATOMICAL CHARACTERS:

Seedlings were taken carefully out of the coco peat, washed with tap water in petri dishes to remove adherents and particles. Now shoots are taken and sections are cut with sterile and fresh blade. Precise sections were taken and seen under the microscope at 4x, 10x and 40x magnification.

BIOCHEMICAL ESTIMATION:

Chlorophyll estimation

Chlorophyll content of leaves was estimated by the method given by (Arnon 1949). 100mg leaves sample was weighed and washed with distilled water for 2 times. Crush 0.2g of leaves in a pestle-mortar with the help of 10ml 80% acetone along with a pinch of CaCO_3 was also added to avoid the photooxidation or destruction of chlorophyll and other pigments. Take the extract after grinding, it was centrifuged at 5000rpm for 20min at room temperature. Supernatant was taken and volume raised to 10ml with 80% acetone and residue was discarded. Absorbance was taken at 645nm (chlorophyll a), 663nm (chlorophyll b), 510nm and 480nm (carotenoid) in spectrophotometer, against 80% acetone as blank. Chlorophyll content was estimated using the following formula:

Total chlorophyll = chlorophyll a + chlorophyll b

$$\text{Chlorophyll a (mg/g fresh weight)} = \frac{12.3(A_{663}) - 0.86(A_{649}) \times V}{\alpha \times 1000 \times W}$$

$$\text{Chlorophyll b (mg/g fresh weight)} = \frac{19.3(A_{645}) - 3.6(A_{663}) \times V}{\alpha \times 1000 \times W}$$

$$\text{Carotenoids} = \frac{7.6(24) - 1.49(24) \times V}{\alpha \times 1000 \times W}$$

Where,

α = light path (cm)

W=freshweightofsample(mg) V= volume of extract =10ml.

Catalase estimation (CAT)

The Aebi (1984) method was used to determine the catalase activity.

Reagent preparation: 50mM H₂O₂: take 1.42ml of stock solution (6% w/v) and make the volume of 50ml using distilled water.

Preparation of enzyme extract: take 0.5g of fresh leaves sample in chilled condition in pestle and mortar, grind it with 10ml phosphate buffer to make a fine paste and then centrifuge at 3500 rpm for 10 minutes. Then the supernatant was used as enzyme extract.

Procedure:

- Take 1.5ml of phosphate buffer solution and add 1.2ml of hydrogen peroxide, then add 300µl of enzyme extract in cuvette.
- Then take absorbance at 240nm in spectrophotometer.
- Note down the readings displayed

Formula used:

Unit activity (U min⁻¹ g⁻¹ FW) = change in absorbance × total volume (ml)

Where, extension coefficient = $6.93 \times 10^{-3} \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$.

Experimentation:

The experiments are conducted in Department of Botany, Kurukshetra University, Kurukshetra, Haryana, India.

Equipment used:

Weighing balance, test tubes, centrifugation tubes, measuring cylinders, beakers, test tube stand, aluminium foil, centrifugation machine, vortex mixture, spectrophotometer, pestle and mortar, ice bags, refrigerator, petri dishes, micropipette, dry heat oven and other miscellaneous.

Preparation of phosphate buffer: take a tablet of phosphate buffer, dissolve it in 1000ml of distilled water.

Chemical used: *CaCO₃, 80% Acetone (take 80ml of 100% acetone and add 20ml of distilled water).

CHAPTER-4 RESULT and DISCUSSION

GROWTH PARAMETERS

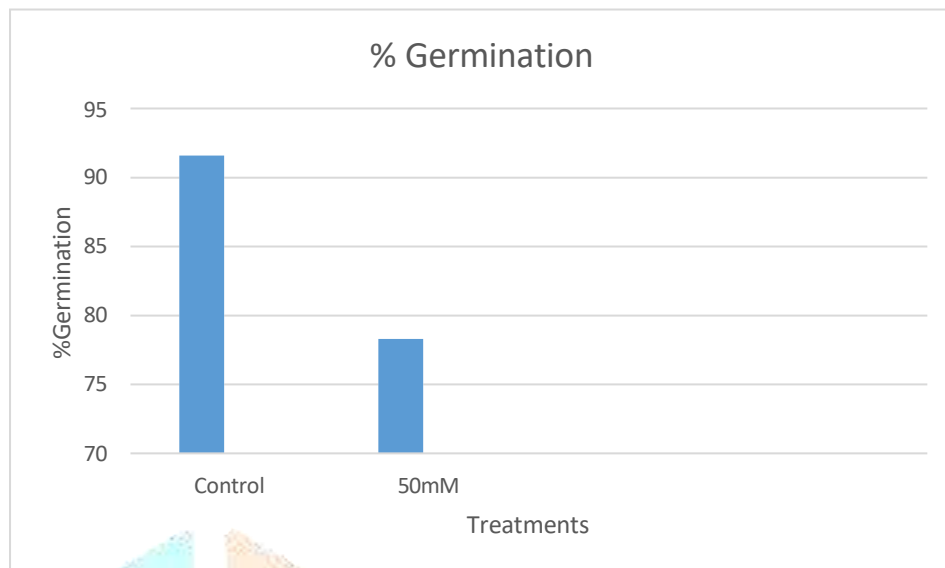
Germination percentage of *Trigonella foenum graecum*:

Treatments	T1	T2	T3	Average (%)	S. D
Control	17	19	19	91.66	1.154701
50mM	15	16	16	78.33	0.57735
Seeds sown	20	20	20	100	0

Table no 1: showing germination percentage at lower concentration of (NaCl).

Due to presence of salt (NaCl) in the water germination percentage of the *Trigonella foenum*.

decreased because seeds get exhibiting osmotic imbalance due to salinity stress initiation.

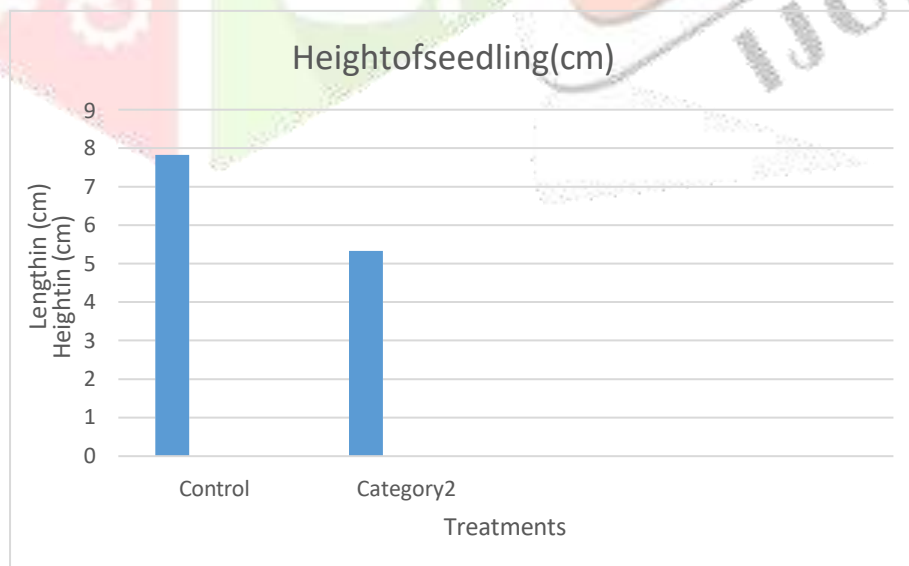


Height of seedling:

Treatments	T1	T2	T3	Average	S. D
Control	8cm	7.9cm	7.6cm	7.83cm	0.208167
50mM	5.3cm	5.5cm	5.2cm	5.33cm	0.152753

Tableno2: showing average height of germinated shoot in *Trigonella foenum*

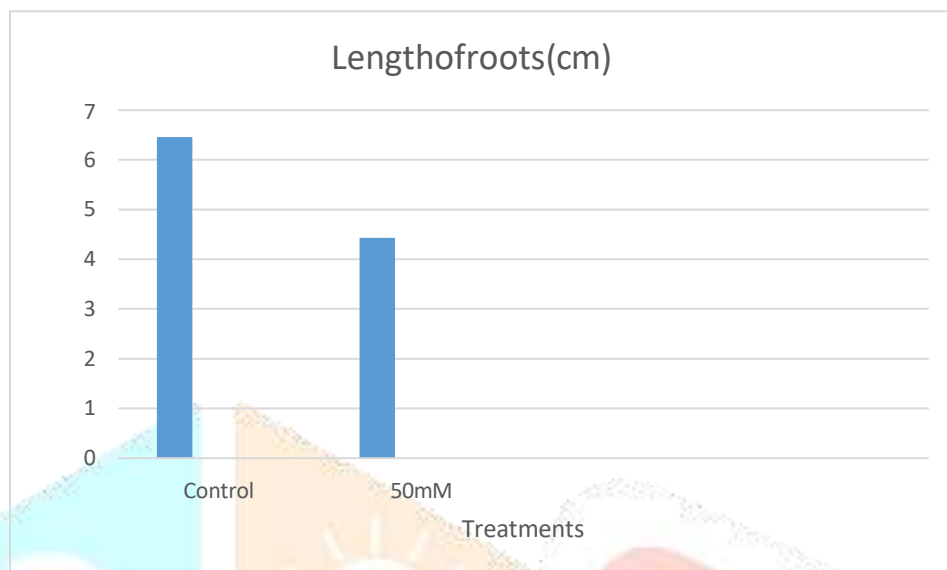
Decrease in the length of shoot in case of 50mM concentration of (NaCl) is observed when all other parameters are maintained same in both the cases, this may be caused due to the decreased enzymatic activity and metabolic activity of the plant due to accumulation of salt.



Length of roots:

Treatments	T1	T2	T3	Average	S. D
Control	6.3cm	6.5cm	6.6cm	6.46cm	0.152753
50Mm	4.5cm	4.4cm	4.4cm	4.43cm	0.057735

Tableno:3showingaverage length of roots in *Trigonella foenum*



(Fig:8.1 Treatment replicas)



(Fig:8.2 Treatment replicas)

Figure 8.1 (Treatment 1) and figure 8.2 (Treatment 2) showing different concentrations of NaCl and plantlet growth

Fresh, dry and turgid weight of seedlings:

S. No.	Control	S. D	50mM	S. D
1	0.379g	0.015044	0.299g	0.035157
2	0.349g		0.233g	
3	0.366g		0.245g	
Average weight(g)	0.364g		0.259g	

Tableno:4 Fresh weight of seedlings (grams).

S. No.	Control	S. D	50mM	S. D
1	0.031g	0.004163	0.019g	0.001528
2	0.033g		0.016g	
3	0.039g		0.018g	

Average weight(g)	0.034g		0.017g	
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Tableno:5Dryweightofseedlings (grams).

S. No.	Control	S. D	50mM	S. D
1	0.441g	0.011846	0.365g	0.029
2	0.420g		0.394g	
3	0.440g		0.336g	
Average weight(g)	0.433g		0.365g	

Table no:6 Turgid weight of seedlings (grams). Seedlings were kept in the water for about 8- 10 hrs.

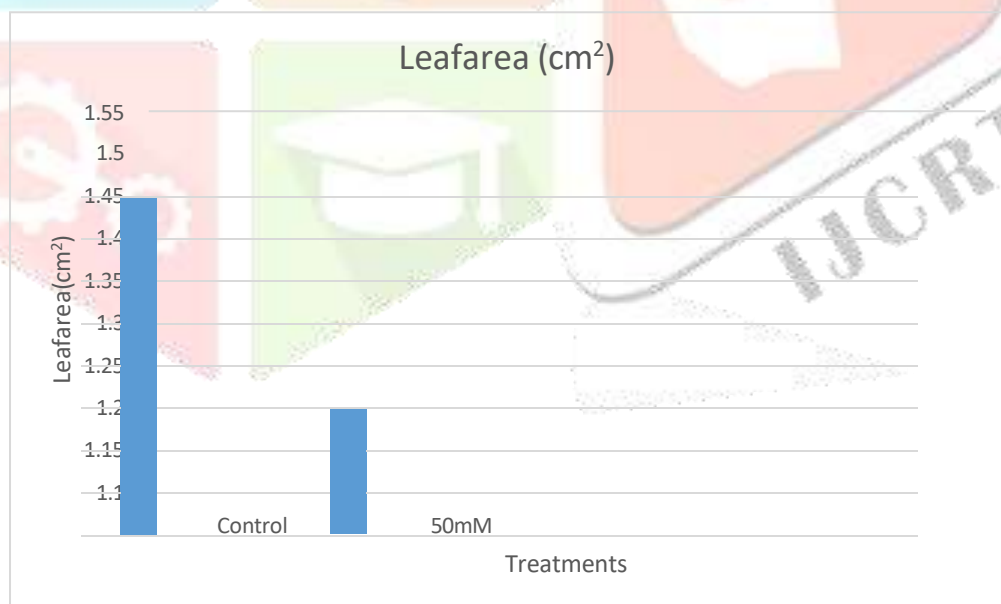
Decrease in the fresh, dry and turgid weight of the plantlet

Leaf area of seedlings:

S.No.	Control	50mM conc.
1	1.5cm ²	1.25cm ²

Tableno:7Average leaf area of seedlings calculated using graph paper.

Reduction in leaf area of seedlings growing in 50mM concentration due to ion toxicity and osmotic stress which impacts cell expansion and leaf development.



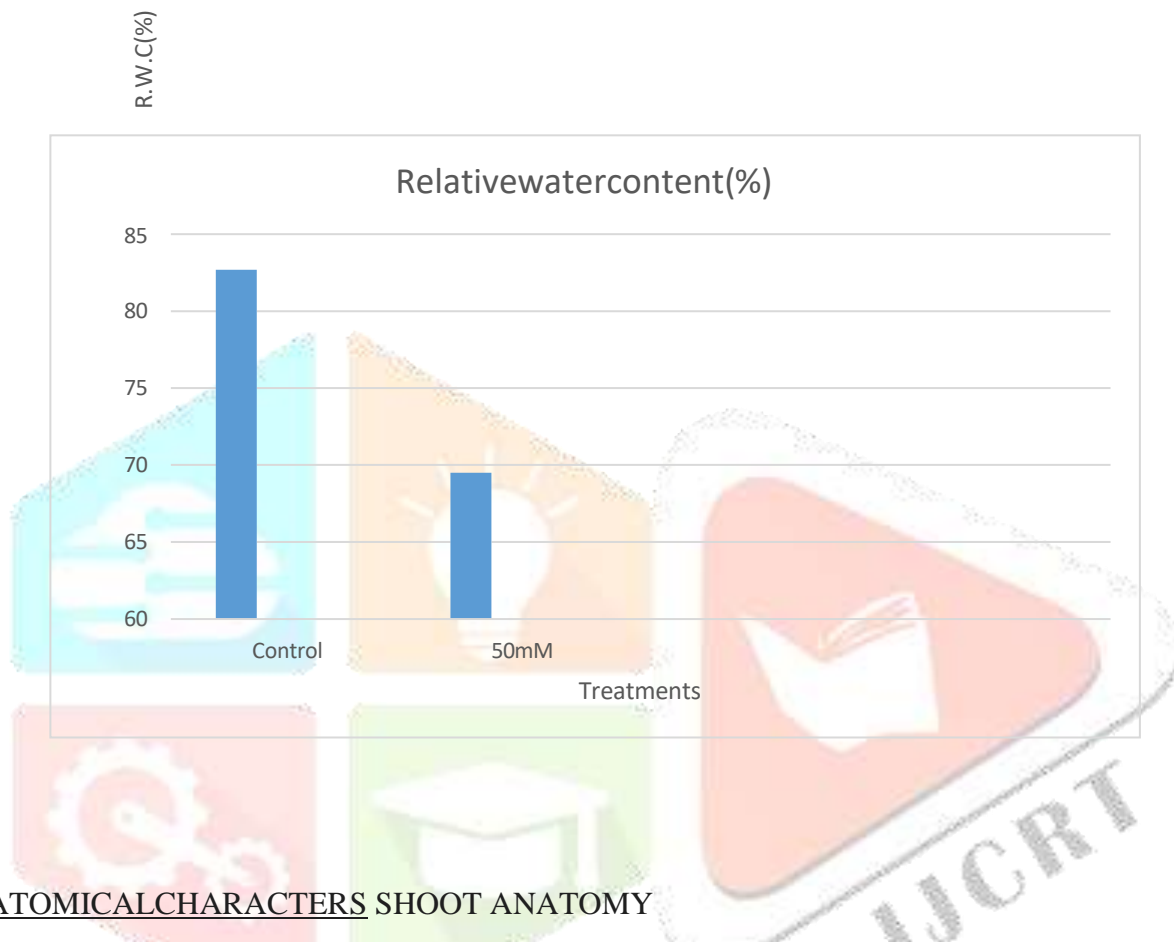
Relative water content:

Using formula given by Weatherly (1950) $RWC\% = \frac{\text{Fresh weight} - \text{Dry weight}}{\text{Turgid weight} - \text{Dry weight}} \times 100$

S.No.	Treatments	RWC%
1	Control	82.7%
2	50mM	69.5%

Tableno:8Relative water content of seedlings

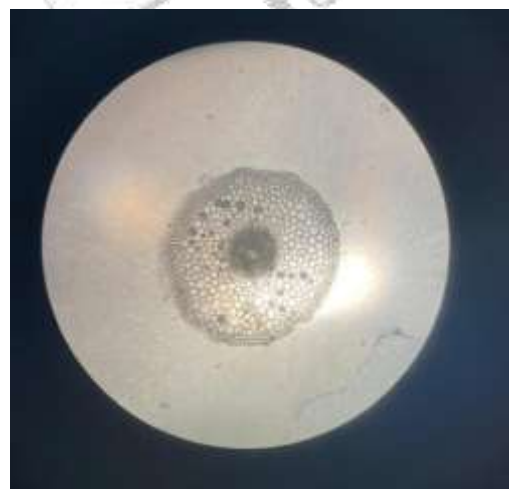
Under 50mM concentration is lower due to either cell dehydration (intercellular water deficit).



ANATOMICAL CHARACTERS SHOOT ANATOMY



(Fig:9 controlled shoot section)



(Fig:10, 50mM conc. Shoot section)

Under control condition shoot exhibits well-defined hexagonal mesophyll cells with tightly packed arrangement and uniform vascular bundles. Whereas noticeable disorganization, cells appear shrunk and more loosely arranged, indicating tissue stress.

Salt stress often causes protoplasmic shrinkage and expansion of apoplastic (cell wall-

membrane) space. As a result, in case of 50mM NaCl section likely appears smaller, more irregular, with expanded intercellular gaps.

Also under controlled condition, vascular tissues (xylem/phloem) are well organized and compact. Salt stress may lead to dehydration-induced narrowing or deformation of xylem vessels and disorganized phloem cells.

Cell wall may appear slightly thicker or more irregular, possibly reflecting protective strengthening against ionic/osmotic stress.

BIOCHEMICAL ESTIMATION

Chlorophyll estimation

Control	Wavelength(nm)				
	Chlorophyll	480nm	510nm	645nm	663nm
Treatments	C-1	0.475	0.100	0.260	0.663
	C-2	0.492	0.137	0.283	0.668
	C-3	0.419	0.108	0.246	0.648
	Average value	0.462	0.115	0.263	0.659

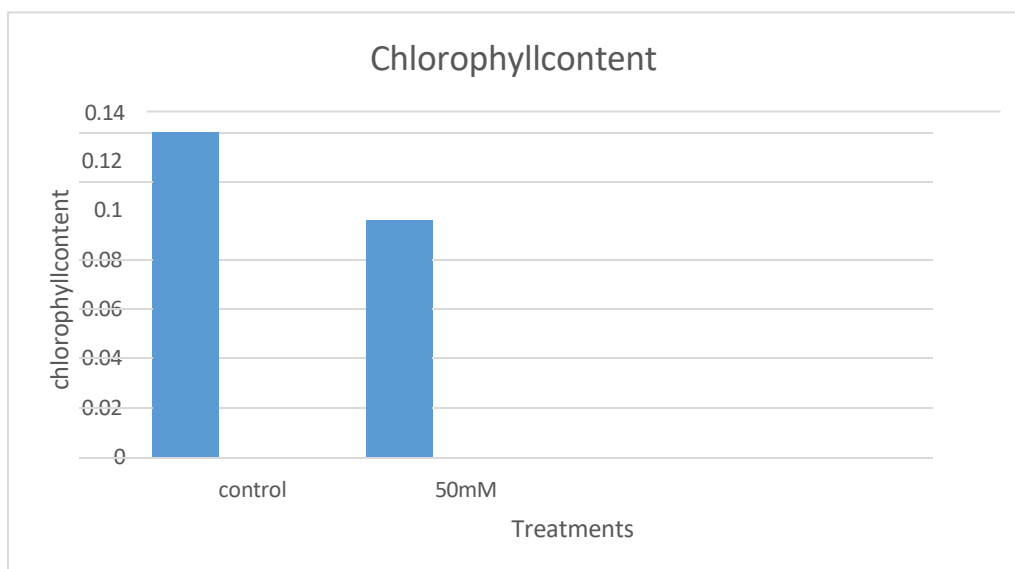
Tableno:9 absorbance at different wavelength

50mM	Wavelength(nm)				
	Chlorophyll	480nm	510nm	645nm	663nm
Treatments	T-1	0.302	0.099	0.193	0.422
	T-2	0.299	0.100	0.240	0.523
	T-3	0.311	0.097	0.209	0.539
	Average value	0.304	0.098	0.202	0.494

Tableno:10 absorbance at different wavelength

mg/g(fresh weight)	Control	Chl (a+b)	50mM	Chl (a+b)
Chlorophyll- A	0.029	0.122	0.021	0.090
Chlorophyll- B	0.093		0.069	
Carotenoids	7.332		7.332	

Tableno:11 Calculated results of chlorophyll content from table 9 and 10



Graph representing total chlorophyll content in both the treatments i.e. control and 50mM

Procedure used:

Arnon method was used to estimate chlorophyll content of seedlings given in (1949)

Chemicals used: CaCO_3 , 80% acetone (take 80ml 100% acetone and add 20ml distilled water)

Procedure: Firstly, collect the fresh leaves of sample then wash them with tap water and dried it into fold of filter paper.

- Weigh 0.2g of fresh leaves of sample
- Take 10ml of 80% acetone and grind the sample in pre-cooled pestle and mortar in dark condition
- Add a pinch of CaCO_3 to prevent photooxidation of chlorophyll content
- Then rise the volume to 10ml using 80% acetone if required and centrifuge the sample at 3500 rpm for 10 minutes at room temperature
- Then analyse the content in spectrophotometer at different wavelengths as mentioned in the above table no 9 and 10. Blank used as acetone
- The chlorophyll content was then estimated using Arnon's equation

Total carotenoid also calculated similarly using Maclachlan and Zalik (1963). Just absorbance was taken at different wavelengths i.e. 480nm and 510nm against acetone as blank.

Catalase estimation

S. No	Control	Absorbance at 240nm after a minute interval				Average	Enzyme activity
1	C-1	0.136	0.132	0.120	0.111	0.025	$31.75 \text{ U min}^{-1} \text{ g}^{-1} \text{ F.W}$
2	C-2	0.171	0.159	0.153	0.145	0.026	
3	C-3	0.170	0.166	0.160	0.155	0.015	

Table no: 12 Absorbance for catalase at 240nm for control sample Replicas and calculated activity

S. No	50mM	Absorbance at 240nm after a minute interval				Average	Enzyme activity
1	T-1	0.173	0.154	0.143	0.137	0.036	49.06 $\text{Umin}^{-1} \text{g}^{-1} \text{F.W}$
2	T-2	0.227	0.208	0.202	0.191	0.036	
3	T-3	0.213	0.201	0.192	0.183	0.030	

Tableno: 13 Absorbance for catalase at 240nm for 50mM conc. Replicas and calculated activity

Procedure used:

The Aebi (1984) method was used to determine the catalase activity. Reagent preparation:

50mM H_2O_2 - Take 1.42ml of stock solution (6% w/v) and make the volume of 50ml of distilled water

10mM Ascorbate - Take 0.08g of ascorbate which is dissolved in 50ml of distilled water
Preparation of enzyme extract:

Take 0.5g of fresh leaf sample in chilled pestle and mortar

Then grind them with 10ml of phosphate buffer to make a fine paste and then centrifuge the same at 3500 rpm for 10 minutes.

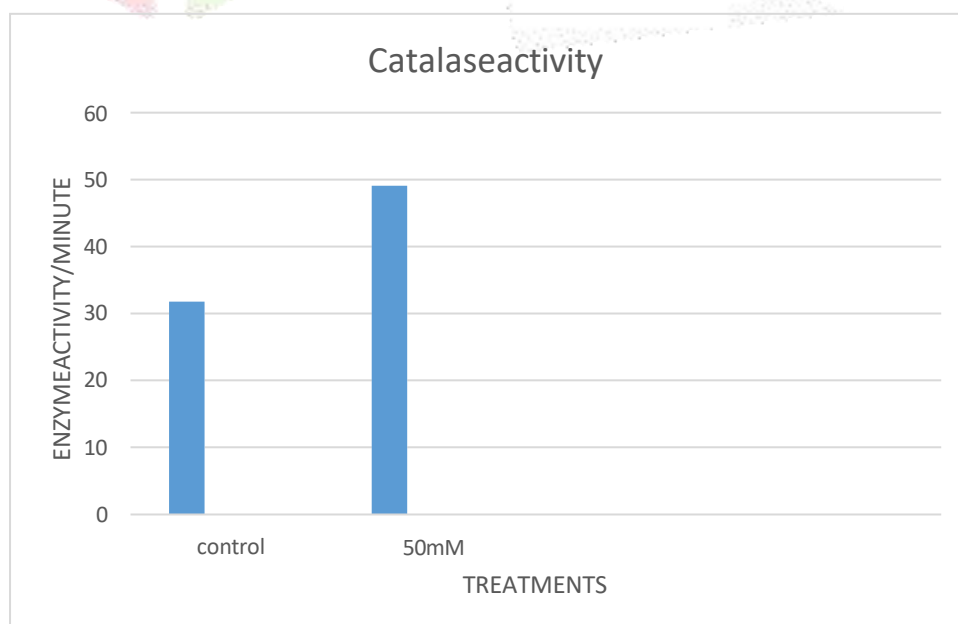
Supernatant was used as enzyme extract Procedure:

- Take 1.5ml of phosphate buffer solution and add 1.2ml of hydrogen peroxide, then add 300 μl of enzyme extract in cuvette.
- Take absorbance at 240nm in spectrophotometer
- Note down the readings.

Formula used: $\text{Unit activity (Umin}^{-1} \text{g}^{-1} \text{FW)} = \frac{\text{change in absorbance/minute} \times \text{total volume (ml)}}{\text{extinction coefficient} \times \text{volume of sample (ml)}}$

Where, Ext. coefficient = $6.93 \times 10^{-3} \text{M}^{-1} \text{cm}^{-1}$ Total volume = 3ml

Volume of sample used = 0.3ml



Graph representing the activity of enzyme catalase in both the treatments i.e. control and 50mM

Chapter-5CONCLUSION

Under moderate salinity levels (50 mM NaCl), (*Trigonella foenum-graecum L.*) (fenugreek) undergoes distinct physiological and biochemical changes when compared to plants grown under non-saline (control) conditions. These changes include alterations in germination rates, noticeable reductions in root and shoot length, and decreased fresh and dry biomass, all contributing to diminished overall plant vigour. These growth reductions are primarily due to osmotic stress and ion toxicity, which impair water absorption, disrupt nutrient uptake, and trigger oxidative stress through the excessive production of reactive oxygen species (ROS).

At the physiological level, salinity stress leads to a decline in chlorophyll content and photosynthetic activity, though it also stimulates an increase in antioxidant enzyme activity as a stress response. In contrast, fenugreek plants grown under control conditions (0 mM NaCl) exhibit optimal development, characterized by greater biomass accumulation, stronger root and shoot systems, and efficient photosynthesis—thanks to the absence of salt-induced stressors that would otherwise interfere with key metabolic and physiological processes.

Although fenugreek shows a certain level of adaptation to moderate salt stress through various compensatory mechanisms, these defences are not completely effective in negating the negative impact on plant growth and productivity. As a result, strategies such as the exogenous application of osmoprotectants, or the development of salt-tolerant cultivars through selective breeding, could play a vital role in enhancing the crop's resilience in saline environments.

Salinity remains a major abiotic factor limiting fenugreek productivity, affecting this nutritionally important legume at multiple biological levels. The current study emphasizes how fenugreek responds to salt stress by initiating a range of physiological and biochemical responses.

Implications and Future Directions:

This investigation reveals extensive morphological, physiological, and biochemical shifts in fenugreek under salt stress. To further improve crop performance under such conditions, future studies should focus on the following areas:

- Uncovering the molecular pathways involved in salinity tolerance
- Establishing breeding programs aimed at developing salt-resistant varieties
- Evaluating agronomic techniques that alleviate salt stress effects in field conditions

Understanding how different genotypes react to salinity will be crucial for improving growth and productivity in salt-affected regions. The *Hisar Sonali* variety used in this study also exhibited similar stress-induced modifications in both morphological and physiological traits, affirming the broader impact of salinity on fenugreek cultivars.

Fenugreek (*Trigonella foenum-graecum*) demonstrates a range of defensive responses to saline environments, including hormonal modulation, accumulation of osmoprotectants, and activation of antioxidant systems. However, these natural mechanisms alone are not sufficient to counteract the effects of high salt concentrations. To enhance resilience under such stress, targeted agronomic practices—such as salicylic acid (SA) priming, the application of plant growth-promoting rhizobacteria (PGPR), and the use of organic fertilizers—have shown to be effective. These interventions not only support stress mitigation but also improve plant growth and maintain seed quality, especially in arid and semi-arid regions where salinity is a major concern. A comprehensive strategy that incorporates genetic selection, biochemical treatments, and soil/microbial management offers a sustainable pathway for cultivating fenugreek on salt-affected soils.

This study integrates insights from plant physiology, agronomy, and biotechnology to propose

aholisticframeworkforimprovingfenugreek'ssalttolerance.Suchanapproachenhancesthe crop's potential as a nutritional and economic resource in saline-prone farming systems, contributing to both food security and environmental sustainability.

While *Trigonella foenum-graecum* inherently exhibits some ability to adapt to salt stress through physiological and biochemical shifts, elevated salinity levels still result in significant negative effects. These include stunted growth, impaired photosynthetic function, and disruption of cellular equilibrium. The contrast between stressed and non-stressed plants clearly indicates that salinity is a critical abiotic constraint limiting fenugreek production in affected regions. Gaining a deeper understanding of these responses is vital for formulating strategies that improve the crop's salt tolerance and ensure reliable yields under stress.

In response to sodium chloride (NaCl) stress, fenugreek plants engage in osmoregulation by accumulating compatible solutes such as proline and soluble sugars. These compounds help sustain cell turgor and stabilize internal structures. Nevertheless, these adaptations are often inadequate under severe salt conditions, leading to reduced plant vigour and yield.

Overall,saltstresssignificantlydisruptsthegrowth,physiologicalperformance,andmetabolic balance of fenugreek compared to unstressed controls. Although the plant activates several defence mechanisms, the overall impact of salinity is deleterious, underscoring the species' sensitivity to saline environments and reinforcing the need for integrated stress mitigation strategies.

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