INFLUENCE OF ELEVATED CO₂ ON ZINC DYNAMICS IN RICE (*Oryza sativa* L.)

RAMIREDDY BHAVANA

(2018-11-086)

DEPARTMENT OF PLANT PHYSIOLOGY COLLEGE OF AGRICULTURE VELLAYANI, THIRUVANANTHAPURAM-695 522 KERALA, INDIA

2020

INFLUENCE OF ELEVATED CO₂ ON ZINC DYNAMICS IN RICE

(Oryza sativa L.)

by

RAMIREDDY BHAVANA

(2018-11-086)

THESIS

Submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of

MASTER OF SCIENCE IN AGRICULTURE

Faculty of Agriculture Kerala Agricultural University



DEPARTMENT OF PLANT PHYSIOLOGY COLLEGE OF AGRICULTURE VELLAYANI, THIRUVANANTHAPURAM-695 522 KERALA, INDIA

2020

DECLARATION

I, hereby declare that this thesis entitled "Influence of elevated CO_2 on zinc dynamics in rice (*Oryza sativa* L.)" is a bonafide record of research work done by me during the course of research and the thesis has not previously formed the basis for the award to me of any degree, diploma, associateship, fellowship or other similar title, of any other university or society.

RAMIREDDY BHAVANA

Date:

Vellayani,

(2018-11-086)

CERTIFICATE

Certified that this thesis entitled "Influence of elevated CO_2 on zinc dynamics in rice (*Oryza sativa* L.)" is a record of research work done independently by Ms. Ramireddy Bhavana under my guidance and supervision and that it has not previously formed the basis for the award of any degree, diploma, fellowship or associateship to her.

Ann

Vellayani, Date: Dr. R. V. Manju (Major advisor) Professor Department of Plant Physiology College of Agriculture, Vellayani Thiruvananthapuram -695 522

CERTIFICATE

We, the undersigned members of the advisory committee of Ms. Ramireddy Bhavana, a candidate for the degree of Master of Science in Agriculture with major in Plant Physiology, agree that the thesis entitled "Influence of elevated CO₂ on zinc dynamics in rice (*Oryza sativa* L.)" may be submitted by Ms. Ramireddy Bhavana, in partial fulfilment of the requirement for the degree.

Dr. R. V. Manju Professor Department of Plant Physiology College of Agriculture, Vellayani Thiruvananthapuram-695 522

Ar

Dr. M.M. Viji Professor and Head Department of Plant Physiology College of Agriculture, Vellayani Thiruvananthapuram- 695 522

Dr. Beena R. Assistant Professor Department of Plant Physiology College of Agriculture, Vellayani Thiruvananthapuram-695 522

Dr. Mini C. Professor and Head Department of Post Harvest Technology College of Agriculture, Vellayani Thiruvananthapuram- 695 522

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

Thanks to Almighty 'GOD' and 'MOTHER EARTH' who are more benevolent and merciful and made me capable to complete this task.

It is with great reverence I place on record, my deepest sense of gratitude and indebtedness to my major advisor **Dr. R, V. MANJU**, Professor, Department of Plant Physiology, College of Agriculture, Vellayani, for her meticulous supervision, soft and sincere suggestions, untiring help and constant encouragement throughout the progress of this study.

With great pleasure I express my heartiest and esteem sense of gratitude to **Dr. M. M. Viji,** Professor and Head, Department of Plant Physiology, for her worthy guidance, constant encouragement, inspiring help and parental support throughout the period of investigation during the period of endeavour.

I shall ever remain indebted to **Dr. Roy Stephen**, Professor, Department of Plant Physiology, for his support throughout the period of research work.

My heartfelt thanks to **Dr. Beena R.**, Assistant Professor, Department of Plant Physiology, member of my advisory committee for her meticulous guidance, valuable suggestions, keen interest and wholehearted help.

I am extremely grateful to the member of advisory committee, **Dr. Mini C.** Professor *L* Head, Department of Post Harvest Technology for her valuable suggestions and cooperation during the course of present investigation.

I am greatly indebted to **Dr. Sajitha Rani T.**, Professor and Head, Instructional Farm, College of Agriculture, Vellayani and **Dr. Mini V.**, Assistant Professor, Soil Science

and Agricultural Chemistry, ORARS, Kayankulam for their kind suggestions, encouragement and needed help during my study.

I am thankful to my classmates Sreevardhan V., Amrutha Vijayakumar, Sudha Rani T. S. and Sreerag for their friendship and kind help in times of need.

I acknowledge the boundless affection, unsolicited help, companionship and moral support rendered by my friends Raahalya S., Bikkasani Mythri, Parvathi Maloth, Marupilla Supriya, Hima Bindhu, Swathi, Teja sri, Yasavi, Divya, Pravallika, Alekhya, Sarath, Ram Mohan, Mariya Denny, Charan Teja and Likitha whom I admire a lot. I warmly remember their role in making the period of my study here a memorable and cherished one.

My special thanks goes to my entire friends and seniors from my department whom I must name individually; ManasaAkka, Manikanta, Stephen sir, Vijay sir, Harika Akka, Aadhi Lakshmi Akka, Steffi Akka, Lakshmi G Ajay, Raghunath MP, Arya SR, SayoojS, Ammu Alphonso John, Gayatrichechi, Yogesh sir, NithyaChechi, Vipin Sir, Afnachechi, Srikanth sir, Anilachechi and Beena chechi without whom I may never have completed my research work.

I am thanking my juniors Sanith, Arunima, Reshna, Shanmuga Priya, Karuna, Lekshmi, Venkat, Prasanna, Rupini, Sravani, Spanditha, Madhu, Sailaja, Geetha and Subba Rao for their brotherly affection and kind help.

At this time of thesis submission, I remember with pleasure the sacrifice and support from my Family Members **R**, Muralidhar, **R**, Rajeswari and **R**, Adithya whom I couldn't replace at any cost. Thank you for supporting my decisions and for being a precious source of strength throughout the course of my study here.

Once again I am thanking everyone who helped me during my research programme......

CONTENTS

Chapter No.	Particulars	Page no.
1.	INTRODUCTION	1-3
2.	REVIEW OF LITERATURE	4-12
3.	MATERIALS AND METHODS	13-26
4.	RESULTS	27-46
5.	DISCUSSION	47-75
6.	SUMMARY	76-80
7.	REFERENCES	81-98
	APPENDICES	
	ABSTRACT	

LIST OF TABLES

Table		Page
No.	Title	No.
1.	Effect of zinc treatments and CO ₂ concentrations on plant height (cm) of rice	28
2.	Effect of zinc treatments and CO ₂ concentrations on days to 50% flowering of rice	29
3.	Effect of zinc treatments and CO ₂ concentrations on No. of tillers of rice	
4.	Effect of zinc treatments and CO ₂ concentrations on root weight (g/plant) of rice	31
5.	Effect of zinc treatments and CO ₂ concentrations on straw yield (g/plant) of rice	32
6.	Effect of zinc treatments and CO ₂ concentrations on total chlorophyll content of rice at active tillering stage (mg g ⁻¹ fresh weight)	33
7.	Effect of zinc treatments and CO ₂ concentrations on total chlorophyll content of rice at grain filling stage (mg g ⁻¹ fresh weight)	34
8.	Effect of zinc treatments and CO_2 concentrations on total soluble protein content of rice at active tillering stage (mg g ⁻¹)	35
9.	Effect of zinc treatments and CO_2 concentrations on total soluble protein content of rice at grain filling stage (mg g ⁻¹)	36
10.	Effect of zinc treatments and CO_2 concentrations on total reducing sugars of rice at active tillering stage (mg g ⁻¹)	37
11.	Effect of zinc treatments and CO_2 concentrations on total reducing sugars of rice at active tillering stage (mg g ⁻¹)	38
12.	Effect of zinc treatments and CO ₂ concentrations on Photosynthetic rate of rice at active tillering stage (μ mol CO ₂ m ⁻² s ⁻¹)	39
13.	Effect of zinc treatments and CO ₂ concentrations on Photosynthetic rate of rice at grain filling stage (μ mol CO ₂ m ⁻² s ⁻¹)	40
14.	Effect of zinc treatments and CO ₂ concentrations on transpiration rate of rice at active tillering stage (mmol H ₂ O m ⁻² s ⁻¹)	41
15.	Effect of zinc treatments and CO ₂ concentrations on transpiration rate of rice at grain filling stage (mmol $H_2O m^{-2} s^{-1}$)	42

16.	Effect of zinc treatments and CO ₂ concentrations on stomatal	43
	conductance of rice at active tillering stage (mmol $H_2O \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$)	
17.	Effect of zinc treatments and CO2 concentrations on stomatal	44
	conductance of rice at grain filling stage (mmol H ₂ O m ⁻² s ⁻¹)	
18.	Effect of zinc treatments and CO ₂ concentrations on Zinc content in	45
	leaf of rice (µg g ⁻¹)	
19.	Effect of zinc treatments and CO ₂ concentrations on Zinc content in	46
	shoot of rice ($\mu g g^{-1}$)	

Figure Page Title No. No. 1. Effect of elevated CO₂ and zinc treatments on plant height (cm) of rice 66 Effect of elevated CO₂ and zinc treatments on days to 50% flowering 2. 66 of rice Effect of elevated CO₂ and zinc treatments on No. of tillers of rice 3. 67 Effect of elevated CO₂ and zinc treatments on root weight (g/plant) of 4. 67 rice Effect of elevated CO₂ and zinc treatments on straw yield (g/plant) of 5. 68 rice Effect of elevated CO₂ and zinc treatments on total chlorophyll content 6. 68 of rice at active tillering stage (mg g⁻¹ fresh weight) Effect of elevated CO₂ and zinc treatments on on total chlorophyll 7. 69 content of rice at grain filling stage (mg g⁻¹ fresh weight) Effect of elevated CO₂ and zinc treatments on total soluble protein 69 8. content of rice at active tillering stage (mg g^{-1}) Effect of elevated CO₂ and zinc treatments on total soluble protein 9. 70 content of rice at grain filling stage (mg g^{-1}) Effect of elevated CO₂ and zinc treatments on total reducing sugars of 10. 70 rice at active tillering stage (mg g^{-1}) Effect of elevated CO₂ and zinc treatments on total reducing sugars of 71 11. rice at grain filling stage (mg g⁻¹) Effect of elevated CO₂ and zinc treatments on Photosynthetic rate of 71 12. rice at active tillering stage (μ mol CO₂ m⁻²s⁻¹) Effect of elevated CO₂ and zinc treatments on Photosynthetic rate of 72 13. rice at grain filling stage (µmol CO₂ m⁻²s⁻¹) Effect of elevated CO₂ and zinc treatments on transpiration rate of rice 14. 72 at active tillering stage (mmol H₂O $m^{-2} s^{-1}$)

LIST OF FIGURES

15.	Effect of elevated CO ₂ and zinc treatments on transpiration rate of rice at grain filling stage (mmol H ₂ O m ⁻² s ⁻¹)	73
16.	Effect of elevated CO ₂ and zinc treatments on stomatal conductance of rice at active tillering stage (mmol $H_2O m^{-2} s^{-1}$)	73
17.	Effect of elevated CO ₂ and zinc treatments on stomatal conductance of rice at grain filling stage (mmol $H_2O m^{-2} s^{-1}$)	74
18.	Effect of elevated CO ₂ and zinc treatments on zinc content in leaf of rice ($\mu g g^{-1}$)	74
19.	Effect of elevated CO ₂ and zinc treatments on zinc content in shoot of rice ($\mu g g^{-1}$)	75

LIST OF PLATES

Plate	Title	Between
No.	The	pages
1.	Open Top Chamber for CO ₂ enrichment	13-14
2.	Various sensors and CO2 cylinders used in Open Top Chamber	13-14
3.	Low - technology polyhouse	13-14
4.	Steps followed for the preparation of planting material	17-23
5.	Overview of plants grown in open field condition	17-23
6.	Overview of plants grown in polyhouse	17-23
7.	Overview of plants grown in OTC	17-23

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

Zn	Zinc	
WHO	World Health Organization	
Fe	Iron	
UNFAO	United Nations Food and Agriculture	
UNIAO	Organization	
Carbondioxide	CO ₂	
eCO ₂	elevated CO ₂	
OTC	Open Top Chamber	
AMF	Arbuscular Mycorrhizal Fungi	
Mha	Million hectares	
kg/ha	Kilogram per hectare	
NOAA	National Oceanic and Atmospheric	
	Administration	
C3	Calvin cycle	
C4	Hatch and Slack Pathway	
Rubisco	Ribulose bisphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase	
	enzyme	
HI	Harvest Index	
FACE	Free air CO ₂ enrichment	
TGC	Temperature gradient type CO ₂ concentration	
	control chamber	
DAT	Days after transplanting	
avg	Average	
ppm	parts per million	
µmol mol ⁻¹	micromole per mole	
µmol CO ₂ L ⁻¹	micromole CO ₂ per litre	
$\mu LCO_2 L^{-1}$	microlitre CO ₂ per litre	
Pa	Pascal	
gm ⁻²	gram per square metre	
gpot ⁻¹	gram per pot	
Pmax	Light saturated photosynthetic rate	

µmol CO ₂ m ⁻² s ⁻¹	micromole CO ₂ per square metre per second
mmol H ₂ O m ⁻² s ⁻¹	millimole H2O per square metre per second
gs	Stomatal conductance
SPAD	Soil Plant Analysis Development
g/plant	Gram per plant
%	per cent
⁰ C	Degree Celsius
cm	Centimeter
g	Gram
mg	Milligram
ml	Milliliter
μl	Microliter
mg g ⁻¹	Milligram per gram
μg	microgram
μg g ⁻¹	Microgram per gram
mM	millimolar
nm	Nanometer
DW	Dry Weight
m ⁻²	Square metre
v/v	volume per volume
w/w	weight per weight
et al.	and other co-workers
viz	namely
i.e.	that is
FYM	Farm Yard Manure
kg	kilo grams
ZnSO ₄	Zinc sulphate
N	Nitrogen
K ₂ O	Potassium oxide
P2O5	Phosphorus pentoxide
IPCC	Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change
UV	Ultra violet

CRD	Completely Randomized Design
KAU	Kerala Agricultural University
PP system	Portable Photosynthesis system
U.S.A	United States of America
DMSO	Dimethyl sulfoxide
EDTA	Ethylenediamine tetraacetic acid
BSA	Bovine Serum Albumin
DNS	Dinitro salicyilic acid
ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
OPSTAT	Operational Statistics
CD	Critical Difference
SE(m)	Standard Error (Mean)
G0	Gap zero
G1	Gap one
DNA	Deoxyribo Nucleic Acid
RNA	Ribonucleic Acid
Os ZIP5	Rice Zn regulated transporter-like protein5

Introduction

1. INTRODUCTION

Zinc is an essential trace element that plays a very crucial role in many physiological functions in human beings, plants and animals. One of the essential functions of Zn is its influence on the immune system. It is required for the growth, development and functioning of immune cells in the innate and the adaptive immune system. Zn homeostasis is finely controlled within each cell and any deregulation results in impairment of normal functions and it is an excellent anti-inflammatory immunomodulator. Consequences of impaired homeostasis can be noticed in many disease models such as infections, allergies, autoimmune diseases, and cancers. The deficiency of Zn negatively influences the hematopoiesis and compromises the immune response at multiple molecular, cellular, and systemic levels (Gammoh and Rink, 2019). Zn deficiency also limits growth and development in infancy and childhood. Severe deficiency may be observed in preterm infants especially if necrotizing enterocolitis coexisted (Gamal and Mahmoud, 2020).

Appropriate Zn intake is the cornerstone of global maternal and child health and 17% of the world's population was supposed to be at a risk of deficiency of Zn in 2011 (Wessells *et al.*, 2012). The total population estimated to be placed at new risk of Zn deficiency by 2050 is 138 million. The people who are most affected live in Africa and South Asia, of which nearly 48 million are residing in India alone. The global burden of disease attributed to Zn deficiency is high, with greater than 100,000 deaths per year in children younger than 5 years (Black *et al.*, 2013). WHO (2017) reported that annual mortality of 4, 33,000 children under the age of five is due to the deficiency of Zn.

Cereals are the major source of Zn for the global population, particularly for the poor residing in rural areas. However, the Zn content of cereal-based foods is quite insufficient to meet human requirements (Boonchuay *et al.*, 2013). C3 grains and legumes come up with more than 60% of dietary Zn and/or Fe for a population of around 2 billion (Myers *et al.*, 2014).

Among these crops, rice is an important staple food for half of the world's population which supplies 30% of total protein for 3,400 million individuals (UNFAO, 2011). It is the predominant dietary energy source for the people of East and South-East Asia and also for three-fourths of Indian population "rice is life" as it plays a crucial role in the country's food security (Babu *et al.*, 2015). India is having a rice growing area of around 42.95 Mha, having a production of 112.90 MT with the productivity of 2699 kg/ha (Directorate of Economics & Statistics, 2018).

Changes in the environmental variables such as high temperature and atmospheric carbon dioxide (CO₂) concentration directly or indirectly affect plant growth, development, grain yield, and quality of crops (Fernando *et al.*, 2012; Thilakarathne *et al.*, 2013; Panozzo *et al.*, 2014). Since the industrial revolution, the rise in CO₂ has been reported and is expected to increase to a greater extent in the middle of the century (IPCC, 2014).

Global CO₂ emissions continue to rise year by year, reaching the highest concentrations of atmospheric CO₂ recorded 405 ppm in 2017. The recent increase in atmospheric CO₂ has reached to 414.11 ppm as on February 2020 (NOAA, 2020).

Quantitative results of different studies demonstrated that elevated CO₂ (eCO₂) stimulated the grain yields of many crops (Al-Hadeethi *et al.*, 2019). However increasing concentration of CO₂ in the atmosphere is expected to bring down the content of essential elements like protein, Zn and Fe in cereals and other crops which may threaten the nutrition of billions of people in the upcoming years (Ujiie *et al.*, 2019). In addition to dietary shifts away from micronutrient-rich coarse cereals in the Indian diet, anthropogenic CO₂ emissions are likely to worsen these trends in the future. In this scenario, attempts were made to evaluate the field performance of popular rice varieties of Kerala and also to enrich Zn status of grains under increasing CO₂ condition. Zn concentration of rice (*Oryza sativa* L.) grain is enhanced by foliar Zn application (0.5% ZnSO4). The role of AMF (Arbuscular Mycorrhizal Fungi) in increasing water and nutrient uptake, especially phosphorus, zinc and copper, is well known (Bowen, 1973). They are also the key factors for successful low-input farming

(Johansson *et al.*, 2004). Priming of seeds in solutions of macro or micronutrients enhances the yield of rice (Peeran and Natanasabapathy, 1980).

Based on these backgrounds, the present programme "Influence of elevated CO₂ on Zn dynamics in rice (*Oryza sativa* L.)" was formulated with the objective of assessing the impact of elevated CO₂ on growth, development and nutritional quality of rice in relation to modifications in Zn dynamics. Plants were raised under different CO₂ conditions along with Zn enrichment techniques. The information generated will help farmers to raise quality produce with the help of low cost technologies and to make paddy cultivation more profitable. The research outcome can also be an answer to the serious health crisis and malnutrition faced globally in this changing climatic scenario.

Review of Literature

2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

In the present study an attempt has been made to study the impact of elevated CO₂ (eCO₂) on growth, development and nutritional quality of rice in relation to modifications in zinc dynamics. Available literature concerned to the present programme has been reviewed and presented as follows.

2.1 IMPACT OF ELEVATED CO₂ ON CROP GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT:

The climatic variability and the predicted climatic changes are of major concern to the rice crop researchers because of their potential threat to rice productivity and the associated effect on the socioeconomic structure of many ricegrowing countries. Amid the global atmospheric changes, the increasing concentrations of greenhouse gases such as CO₂ may have significant effect on rice productivity due to increase in the average surface temperature and also the amount of CO₂ available for photosynthesis (Aggarwal, 2003).

Increased photosynthesis that which leads to vigorous plant growth and higher yield is a common denominator of plants grown at eCO₂ (McDonald *et al.*, 1999; Tognetti and Johnson, 1999; Franzaring *et al.*, 2011; Tausz *et al.*, 2013).

Several researchers have reported that enhancement in atmospheric CO₂ concentration increases crop growth, development and yield (Kimball 1983; Poorter and Perez-Soba, 2001; Leakey, 2009).

The major physiological processes which are responsible for the increase in crop production under eCO₂ is due to the increase in photosynthetic rate of crops (Bowes, 1993; Drake *et al.*, 1997; Makino and Mae, 1999).

Besides this some growth parameters like leaf area, number of tillers and the shoot-root ratio also changes with the increase in atmospheric CO₂ concentration (Jitla *et al.*, 1997; Masle 2000; Seneweera and Conroy 2005). Rise in atmospheric

CO₂ concentration leads to improvement in the growth of C₃ crops like wheat, rice and soybean than crops with C₄ photosynthetic pathway like maize, sorghum, and sugarcane (Myers *et al.*, 2014).

Increase in CO₂ level leads to increased carboxylation rates and decreases oxygenation rates of Rubisco enzyme in C₃ crop plants, which leads to greater photosynthesic rate and produces higher amount of carbohydrates (Stitt 1991; Drake *et al.*, 1997).

Elevated CO₂ stimulates the root growth of rice (Kim *et al.*, 2001). Seneweera (2011) reported that eCO₂ increased biomass at tillering stage and this was largely due to an increase in root mass by 160%.

According to Nakagawa and Horie (2000), a doubled CO₂ level increased rice biomass by 25%. Horie *et al.* (2000) mentioned an increase in rice yield by 30% with doubled CO₂ concentration.

A study conducted by Kim *et al.* (2001) revealed that yield has increased in rice under eCO₂ whereas increase in grain yield was lesser than that of increase in total biomass yield which resulted in the decrease in HI. An increase in radiation use efficiency (RUE) of rice was found with CO₂ enrichment relative to ambient CO₂. Elevated CO₂ has enhanced the light-saturated photosynthetic rate and apparent quantum yield of rice (De Costa *et al.*, 2006). According to DaMatta *et al.* (2009), rice grown eCO₂ has shown more vegetative growth compared to ambient level of CO₂ and Open fields.

In a FACE study in rice, under eCO₂ condition (570 ppm), there was an increase in the number of panicles per unit area (8%), number of spikelets per panicle (10%) and grain biomass (4%), which has led to the enhanced grain yield (Yang *et al.*, 2009).

FACE studies have shown an increase in yield by 7% to 15% at 570 μ mol mol⁻¹ CO₂ concentration for the Indica rice varieties (Kim *et al.*, 2003 a, b). Japonica rice cultivars also have shown similar responses to eCO₂ levels (Hatfield *et al.*, 2011).

2.2 EFFECT OF ELEVATED CO₂ ON GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT OF RICE:

2.2.1 Plant height:

-1

-1

Elevated CO₂ (570 μ mol mol) strongly increased plant height in FACE experiment of rice crop (Liangyoupeijiu) (Yang *et al.*, 2009). Plant height at the time of harvest was higher under eCO₂ by 6.1%.

2.2.2 Number of tillers:

The eCO₂ (560 µmol mol) enhanced both total number of tillers and productive tillers in rice (Akihikari) by using a temperature gradient type CO₂ concentration control chamber (TGC) (Kim, 1996).The number of tillers was enhanced at the maximum tillering stage by 42% due to the exposure of plants to eCO₂ (700 µmol CO₂ L⁻¹) in rice (*Oryza sativa* L. cv Jarrah) under growth chambers (Jitla *et al.*, 1997).

Various controlled environment experiments have shown that eCO₂ increased no.of tillers and panicles in rice (Ziska *et al.*, 1997; Baker and Allen, 1993; Moya *et al.*, 1998; Kim *et al.*, 2003a).

The number of tillers increased under eCO₂ (650 μ mol mol) at maximum tillering stage by 22% (45 DAT) and at the time of harvest by 8% (Sakai *et al.*, 2001). De Costa's experiment indicated that the tiller number/hill was higher (avg. 12 nos.) -1 under eCO₂ (700 μ mol mol) compared to ambient CO₂ (avg. 10 no.) and open field (avg. 9 no.) in Maha Season of 2001 (De Costa *et al.*, 2003).

The number of tillers m⁻² at heading stage was increased under eCO₂ (570 ± 35 μ mol mol⁻¹) for all tested cultivars by 1-24% (Shimono *et al.*, 2009). In this experiment Kirana 397 and Hitomebore (early maturity varieties) has shown an

-1

enhancement in number of tillers by 22% and 18% respectively followed by the intermediate maturity varieties Akitakomachi (10%) and Kakehashi (4%) under FACE experiment.

2.2.3 Duration to flowering:

Several reports on agricultural crops have shown a positive impact of eCO₂ on growth and yield. This positive effect was due to a longer vegetative phase caused a delay in flowering time under eCO₂, e.g., in rice (Shimono *et al.*, 2009).

The effect of eCO₂ (680 ppm) on a grassland ecosystem using a FACE facility in California has shown a delay in flowering time by 2-6 days (Cleland *et al.*, 2007). The flowering time was delayed by 7 days in rice when exposed to eCO₂ (700±20 μ L CO₂ L⁻¹) (Jagadish *et al.*, 2016).

2.3 IMPACT OF ELEVATED CO2 ON YIELD ATTRIBUTES OF RICE:

2.3.1 No. of grains per panicle:

An increase of 20% in the number of grains per panicle was indicated by Jilta et al. (1997) under eCO₂ (100 Pa). In Srilanka, the number of grains per panicle was -1 higher (18%) in Maha season under OTC in eCO₂ (570 µmol mol) than in ambient CO₂ (11% increase over open field) and open field (De Costa *et al.*, 2003). Under FACE experiment, the number of grains per panicle was enhanced at eCO₂ (680 ppm) at low night temperature of 22°C by 19% and decreased at by 82% high night temperature (32°C) at ambient CO₂ level and by 20% in open field.

The number of grains per panicle was enhanced by 9.6% in 2012 and by 6.8% in 2014 under eCO₂ (200 μ mol mol⁻¹ above ambient condition) (Zhu *et al.*, 2015). No. of grains per panicle was increased in Takanari variety when averaged over years (2012, 2013, 2014) under eCO₂ (578 μ mol mol⁻¹) by 8% but remained same in Koshihikari rice variety (Hasegawa *et al.*, 2019).

Similarly, other authors have also found similar results which have shown increased number of grains per panicle under eCO₂ conditions (Manderscheid *et al.*, 1995; Hamid *et al.*, 2003).

2.3.2 Root weight:

The root weight (g m⁻²) was enhanced among various cultivars grown under $eCO_2 (560 \pm 26.3 \,\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1})$ (Sakai *et al.*, 2019).

Higher root weight was observed in rice grown in eCO₂ (622ppm) (41.5 g pot⁻¹) compared to to ambient CO₂ (380ppm) (21.2 g pot⁻¹) (Kim *et al.*, 2011).

2.3.3 Straw yield:

An increase in straw yield (kg ha⁻¹) was observed in rice when cultivated under eCO₂ in a FACE facility (499 μ mol L⁻¹) (6509) compared to ambient (6137) and open field (5590) conditions (Satapathy *et al.*, 2015).

Increase in shoot weight was greater under eCO₂ (622ppm) resulting in an increase of 46.6% compared with ambient CO₂ (380ppm) (Kim *et al.*, 2011).

The shoot weight of rice crop (Yangdao 6 Hao) was increased by 29% grown under eCO₂ in FACE experiment (ambient + 200 μ mol mol⁻¹) relative to ambient CO₂ (Zhu *et al.*, 2015).

2.3.4 Dry matter accumulation:

Rice (*Oryza sativa* L. subsp. Japonica cv. Dongjinbyeo) grown under eCO₂ (622 ppm) six natural sunlit temperature gradient chambers (TGCs) has stimulated the dry matter accumulation (163.6g pot⁻¹) relative to ambient CO₂ (380 ppm) (114.5g pot⁻¹) (Kim *et al.*, 2011).

Cheng *et al.* (2009) also observed that there was a similar significant increase in the whole plant dry weight at the time of harvest under eCO₂ (680 ppm).

Total biomass (g m⁻²) in a FACE facility across the years and varieties (Aikoku (released in 1882), Norin 8 (1934), Koshihikari (1956), Akihikari (1976) and Akidawara(2009)) was increased under eCO₂ (560 \pm 26.3 µmol mol⁻¹) by 15.9% at maturity relative to ambient CO₂ (Sakai *et al.*, 2019).

Madan *et al.* (2012) reported that the effect of eCO₂ (760 ppm) on total biomass was increased by 50% which was similar to other studies conducted in controlled environments (Baker, 2004; Ainsworth *et al.*, 2008).

The grain yield of Koshihikari and Takanari varieties was increased by 10% under eCO₂ (578 μ mol mol⁻¹) compared to ambient CO₂ (378 μ mol mol⁻¹) (Hasegawa *et al.*, 2019).

2.4 IMPACT OF ELEVATED CO₂ ON PHYSIOLOGICAL AND BIOCHEMICAL PARAMETERS OF RICE:

2.4.1 Photosynthetic rate:

Net photosynthetic rate and gross photosynthetic rate in rice was enhanced by $^{-1}$ 8.9% and 11.3%, respectively under eCO₂ (667 ± 36 µmol mol) (Sakai *et al.*, 2001). Leaf net photosynthesis rate was increased under eCO₂, but its increased rate gradually slowed down through the growing season.

An increase in light-saturated photosynthetic rate (P_{max}) was noticed which was from 2% to 186% in Yala and in Maha seasons it was from 93% to 320% under eCO₂ (570 ± 42 µmol mol⁻¹) (De Costa *et al.*, 2006). Improvement was observed in most of the varieties in both the seasons recorded an average increase of 58% computed by (Drake *et al.*, 1997).

Regression model which evaluated net photosynthetic rate for Photosynthetic photon flux density of 1600 μ mol m^{-2 -1} at 350 and 700 μ mol mol⁻¹ noticed that rise in CO₂ across this range resulted in an increase in net photosynthetic rate by 17.4% (Baker *et al.*, 2005). P_{max} of leaf was greater at eCO₂ (548 ± 27 μ mol mol⁻¹)

particularly during vegetative growth stage (Shimono *et al.*, 2008). Photosynthetic rate was increased in the varieties Kirara397, Akitakomachi and Hitomebore by 36%, 35% and 48% respectively.

A number of field studies have revealed that rise in CO₂ has lead to an enhanced growth and increased productivity in rice cultivation due to increased net leaf photosynthesis (Sakai *et al.*, 2001; Roy *et al.*, 2012; Cai *et al.*, 2016, 2018).

On the other hand, the projected rise in atmospheric temperature may offset the benefits of eCO₂ and cause a reduction in net photosynthesis due to increased photorespiration and respiration, which inhibits dry matter accumulation (Ziska *et al.*, 1996; Dong *et al.*, 2001; Heskel *et al.*, 2016; Cai *et al.*, 2016).

2.4.2 Transpiration rate:

Transpiration rate observed in rice during panicle initiation stage was decreased under eCO₂ (800ppm) (5.851mmol H₂O m⁻² s⁻¹) in green house compared to ambient CO₂ (400ppm) (6.517 mmol H₂O m⁻² s⁻¹) (Rho *et al.*, 2020).

2.4.3 Stomatal conductance:

Stomatal conductance (gs) affects CO₂ diffusion from atmosphere to substomatal cavity and is considered as an important factor determining the rate of photosynthesis and plant carbon metabolism. A decrease in gs is often noticed under eCO₂ in rice and many other species (Ainsworth and Rogers, 2007; Shimono *et al.*, 2010; Cai *et al.*, 2018). Some researchers claimed that warming increased gs (Mott and Peak, 2013; Urban *et al.*, 2017), while others have found stomatal closure is due to warming and that high temperature had no effect on gs (Sage and Sharkey, 1987).

However, as eCO₂ and temperature together affect plant carbon metabolism, a better understanding of their combined effects on gs is needed. At present, only one report i.e., Cai *et al.* (2018) showed that the combined effects of eCO₂ and temperature on gs were variable among different growth stages and varieties for field-grown rice.

2.4.4 Total chlorophyll:

The total chlorophyll content observed in rice during panicle initiation stage was increased in green house under eCO₂ (800ppm) [41.57(SPAD)] compared to ambient CO₂ (400ppm) [40.75 (SPAD)] (Rho *et al.*, 2020).

2.4.5 Total soluble protein:

Soluble protein content has shown a significant difference in rice variety CO 51 due to a different environmental condition. The increase in total soluble protein content was observed from tillering stage to the heading stage and a gradual decrease towards the grain filling stage. The highest soluble protein content (5.07, 8.03 and 7.11 mg g⁻¹) was noticed in ambient condition at 30, 60 and 85 DAT followed by OTC + ambient CO₂ (4.95, 7.29 and 6.74 mg g⁻¹) and the lowest content was registered at OTC + elevated CO₂ (4.52, 6.98 and 6.24 mg g⁻¹) (Vinothini *et al.*, 2019).

2.4.6 Carbohydrate:

The environmental condition had a significant influence on total carbohydrate content at different growth stages of the rice variety CO 51. Among the environmental conditions, the highest carbohydrate content was noticed in OTC + elevated CO₂ (52.6, 69.6 and 54.6 mg g⁻¹) followed by OTC + ambient CO₂ (42.4, 54.6 and 46.3 mg g⁻¹), while the lowest content was in ambient condition (32.8, 49.5 and 38.7 mg g⁻¹) at 30, 60 and 85 DAT (Vinothini *et al.*, 2019).

2.5 IMPACT OF ELEVATED CO2 ON NUTRITIONAL QUALITY OF RICE:

Increasing concentration of atmospheric CO₂ lowers the content of zinc and other nutrients in important food crops such as rice, wheat, maize and barley (Myers *et al.*, 2015).

An effect of higher levels of CO₂ diminishes the elements such as zinc and iron which are already deficient in half of the global population (Loladze, 2002). Lieffering *et al.* (2004) has grown rice under FACE facility with standard field conditions and found that there is no effect of eCO₂ on nutrient content.

There were several other reports of decrement in zinc, iron, and protein in wheat, barley, and rice grown in outdoor open topped chambers or in indoor climatecontrolled growth chambers (Dietterich *et al.*, 2015).

2.6 IMPACT OF ELEVATED CO₂ ON ZINC DYNAMICS IN RICE:

Boonchuay *et al.* (2013) reported that maximum zinc content in grain under 0.5% ZnSO4 foliar spray. In rice, foliar application enhanced content of Zn in grain (Yuan *et al.*, 2013). The effectiveness was more with foliar application compared to soil applications (Yilmaz *et al.*, 1997; Cakmak *et al.*, 2010).

In a FACE experiment with eCO₂ at 500 ± 20 ppm, the zinc content in grain was 5.8 ppm when treated with 0.6g N pot⁻¹; 0.4g P₂O₅ pot⁻¹; 0.4g K₂O pot⁻¹ whereas under ambient CO₂ (395 ppm) the zinc content was 5.2 ppm with same treatment (Raj, 2014).

Total zinc concentration (mg kg⁻¹DW) was also increased in stem and leaves at grain filling stage in IR68144 rice genotype. The highest accumulation of zinc was observed in shoot followed by leaves (Wu *et al.*, 2010). Zinc accumulation increased in plant shoot with Zn-EDTA at 1.07 g L⁻¹ of Zn (Alvarez *et al.*, 2019). Foliar Zn supply with 0.5% ZnSO4 enhanced the Zn concentration of the new young leaves which were developed after foliar Zn spray (Phuphong *et al.*, 2020).

Barea (1991) reported that AMF can survive in waterlogged conditions and that *Glomus etunicatum* showed fairly high colonization in rice roots and best survival under submerged conditions (Purakayastha and Chhonkar, 2001). A meta-analysis validated that AMF positively affects Zn concentration in various plant tissues inclusive of rice (Lehman *et al.*, 2014). The AMF inoculated rice plants (Transplanting of pre-mycorrhized seedlings) at eCO₂ (500 ppm) has enhanced the zinc concentration in grains by 61% when compared to uninoculated plants (Sahoo, 2017).

Seed priming with ZnSO4 0.004M (6.4%) for 36 hr enhanced the zinc content in rice grain (Johnson *et al.*, 2005).

Materials L Methods

3. MATERIALS AND METHODS

The study entitled "Influence of elevated CO ² on zinc dynamics in rice (*Oryza sativa* L.)" was conducted in the Department of Plant Physiology, College of Agriculture, and Vellayani during 2018-20 with the objective to assess the impact of elevated CO₂ on growth, development and nutritional quality of rice in relation to modifications in Zn dynamics. The particulars of the materials used, methods acquired for the experiment and protocols followed during the course of experimentation are given a description in this chapter.

3.1 EXPERIMENTAL DETAILS

3.1.1 Location

The experiments were conducted in Open Top Chamber (OTC) and in low cost polyhouse located at College of Agriculture Vellayani, situated at 8°5' N latitude and 76°9' E longitude and an altitude of 29 m above mean sea level. (Plate 1. and 3.).

3.1.2 Planting material

Medicinal rice variety Njavara (golden yellow) was procured from Regional Agricultural Research Station, Pattambi, Palakkad district, Kerala. Another popular Kerala rice variety Uma (MO16) was collected from Integrated Farming Research Institute, Karamana, Thiruvananthapuram district, Kerala.

3.1.3 Layout of the Experiment

The experiment was laid out in CRD with 24 treatment combinations and three replications and with one pot per replication.

3.1.4 Treatments:

Conditions:

C1- Open field condition (control)C2- Poly houseC3- Open Top Chamber (OTC) with elevated CO2 concentration (500 ppm)

Variety:

V1- Uma (MO16)

V2- Njavara - golden yellow

Treatments related to zinc dynamics:

D1- Foliar spray (ZnSO4 0.5% at panicle initiation and grain filling stage).

D2- AMF (3g of AMF inoculum /cavity of protrays)

D₃- Seed treatment: seed priming with 6.4% ZnSO₄ for 36 hrs.

D4- No treatment

Design: CRD

Replications: 3

Treatment combinations: 3x2x4=24 No. of pots per treatment: 6



Plate 1. Open Top Chamber for CO₂ enrichment



Plate 2. Various sensors and CO₂ cylinders used in Open Top Chamber



Plate 3. Low-technology Polyhouse

3.2 EXPERIMENT

Determining the impact of elevated CO₂ on growth, development and quality of Rice

3.2.1 Technique for CO₂ enrichment

The main system used for subjecting the plants to elevated CO₂ (eCO₂) environment is an Open Top Chamber, maintained by the Department of Plant Physiology at College of Agriculture, Vellayani. For the present programme CO₂ concentration of 500 ppm was maintained within this chamber.

The facility of Open Top Chamber system consists of square type chambers constructed to maintain eCO₂ conditions for experimental studies. The basic structure of OTC was built of metal frame covered with a 200 micron UV poly sheet. The chamber was 3 X 3 X 3 dimension, 45° slope and 1m² opening at the top. CO₂ was released into the chamber from a CO₂ cylinder in a controlled manner. Measurement of microclimatic parameters (temperature, humidity and light) was done inside and outside the OTC with the help of sensors on a real time basis (Plate2.). Mean temperature of 38°C and relative humidity of 82.60 % were recorded inside chamber during the experimental period.

The elevated CO₂ concentration of 500 ppm was opted on the basis of IPCC (2007) which suggested that atmospheric concentrations of CO₂ have been steadily rising with an average annual increase rate of 2 ppm and continue to rise 500- 1000 ppm by the year 2100.

Other conditions:

A low cost polyhouse was used for the second level of CO₂ concentration. The average CO₂ concentration and mean air temperature in the polyhouse was 420 ppm and 36°C respectively and in the open field condition it was 390 ppm and 33.2°C.

3.2.2 Methodology

D₁ - Foliar spray

The seeds of both Uma (MO16) and Njavara-golden yellow varieties were soaked in distilled water for 24hrs. Soaked seeds were placed in petriplates for 3 days for germination. The germinated seeds were grown in protrays were transplanted to pots. Foliar spray with ZnSO4 (0.5%) was given at panicle initiation stage and grain filling stage for the experimental plants kept under all the three CO₂ conditions.

D2 - Treatment with AMF

The seeds of both the varieties were soaked in distilled water for 24hrs and were placed in petriplates for 3 days for germination. Three grams of AMF inoculum was applied in each cavity of protrays. The germinated seeds were grown in protrays for 20 days. Then the seedlings were transplanted to pots and were maintained till harvest.

D3 - Seed priming

Seeds of both the varieties were immersed in 6.4% ZnSO₄ for 36 hrs. Soaked seeds were placed in petriplates for 3 days for germination. The germinated seeds were grown in protrays and then the 20 days old rice seedlings were transplanted to pots.

D₄ - No treatment

The seeds of two rice varieties were soaked in distilled water for 24hrs. Soaked seeds were placed in petriplates for 3 days for germination. The germinated seeds were grown in protrays (20 days). Then the rice seedlings were transplanted to pots.

All the pots used for the experiment were filled with potting mixture by mixing soil, sand and FYM in the ratio of 1:1:1. The protrays used were of 100 cell size and were filled with coir pith and vermicompost in 1:1 ratio.

Foliar application of 19:19:19 was given 2 weeks after transplanting. Experimental plants were maintained as per package of practices of Kerala Agricultural University, Thrissur. The plant protection measures were carried out as per *ad hoc* recommendations of Kerala Agricultural University, Thrissur (KAU, 2011).

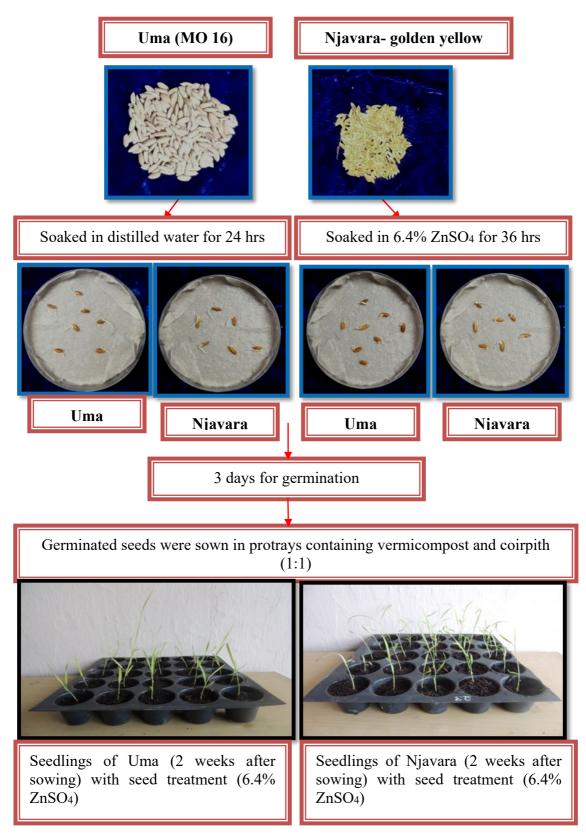


Plate 4. Steps followed for the preparation of planting material

For AMF treatment, 3g of AMF inoculum was mixed in each cavity of protrays





Seedlings of Uma (2 weeks after sowing) with AMF treatment



sowing) with AMF treatment

After 20 days, the seedlings were transplanted to pots

Plants were maintained as 3 sets for the different treatments

Plate 5. Overview of plants grown in open field condition



TransplantingStage



Tillering Stage

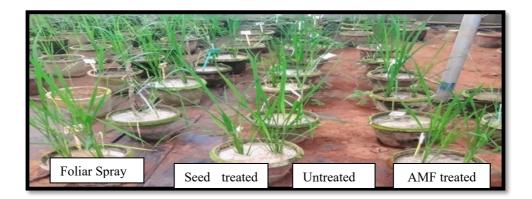


Maturity Stage

Plate 6. Overview of plants grown in Polyhouse



Transplanting Stage

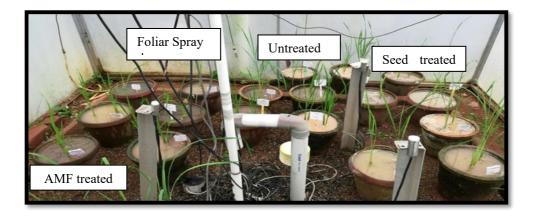


Tillering Stage

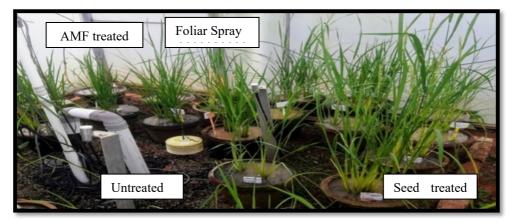


Flowering Stage

Plate 7. Overview of plants grown in OTC



TransplantingStage



Tillering stage



Flowering stage

After giving the specific treatment, one set of plants was transferred to OTC (Plate7.), a second set to polyhouse (Plate6.) and the third set (Plate5.) was retained under the ambient CO₂ where the average CO₂ concentration was 390 ppm. Plants were maintained under flooded condition till harvest. Observations on physiological and biochemical parameters were made at panicle initiation and grain filling stage and observations on morphological parameters and parameters related to zinc dynamics were made at the time of harvest.

3.2.3 Observations recorded

Observations on growth, physiological and biochemical parameters were recorded at 20, 45, 60, 90 DAT for Njavara- golden yellow and at 35, 60, 80, 120 DAT for Uma (MO16). Observations on nutrient status were made at 90 DAT for Njavara variety and at 120 DAT for Uma variety.

3.2.4 Morphological parameters

3.2.4.1 Growth parameters

3.2.4.1.1 Plant height

The plant height was recorded from the base of the plant to the top leaf of the main shoot and expressed in centimeter (cm).

3.2.4.1.2 Days to 50% flowering

Number of days taken for 50 % of the hills to flower from the date of sowing of the cultivars was recorded.

3.2.4.1.3 Root weight

Roots after removing all the adhering soil particles were washed thoroughly and were dried in a hot air oven at a temperature of 80°C for 48 hours (till attaining a constant weight). Then the dry weight was recorded using an electronic balance in g/plant.

3.2.4.1.4 Number of tillers

The number of aerial shoots arising around a single plant was counted (total no. of plants-144).

3.2.4.1.5 Straw yield

The straw yield was recorded using an electronic balance in g/plant after drying the straw in hot air oven at 80°C for 48 hours till reaching a constant weight.

3.2.5 Physiological and Biochemical parameters

3.2.5.2 Photosynthetic rate

Photosynthetic rate was recorded between 8:30 am and 11 am using portable photosynthetic system (CIRAS-3, PP systems U.S.A) and was expressed in μ moles m⁻² S⁻¹.

3.2.5.4 Transpiration rate

Transpiration rate was recorded between 8:30 am and 11 am using portable photosynthetic system (CIRAS-3, PP systems U.S.A) and was expressed in mmoles $H_{2}O \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$.

3.2.5.3 Stomatal conductance

Stomatal conductance was recorded between 8:30 am and 11 am using a portable photosynthetic system (CIRAS-3, PP systems U.S.A) and was expressed in mmoles $m^{-2} s^{-1}$.

3.2.5.4 Total chlorophyll

Leaves collected from all the three CO₂ conditions were washed in distilled water and used for the estimation of chlorophyll. The leaf bits of 100 mg were incubated in 80 % Acetone: DMSO (Dimethyl sulfoxide (1:1 v/v) mixture in the dark for overnight. The chlorophyll extract was decanted into measuring cylinder and made up to 10 ml. The absorbance was recorded at 663 and 645 nm using UVvisible spectrophotometer. Total chlorophyll content was estimated as described by Sadasivam and Manickam (1996) and was calculated by using the following formula and expressed as mg g^{-1} of fresh weight.

Total chlorophyll = $[\{20.2 (A645) + 8.01 (A663)\} \times \text{volume/weight}] \times 1000$

3.2.5.5 Total soluble protein

Total soluble protein content of leaves was estimated as described by He (2011) using bovine serum albumin as the standard. Sample of 0.5 g was homogenised in 2.5 ml of ice cold extraction phosphate buffer (pH- 7.8) containing 1 mM EDTA, 2% (w/w) and isolation was done at 4°C on ice. Centrifuged at 15000g for 20 mins at 4° C. To the 100µl of the supernatant 3 ml of Bradford reagent was added and mixed well. The absorbance of the solution was recorded after 2 minutes and within 30 minutes using the BSA standard in the range of (10-100mg) at 595 nm using spectrophotometer. The protein content was expressed as mg g⁻¹.

3.2.5.6 Total Reducing sugars (Dinitrosalicylic acid (DNS) method)

Reducing sugar content of rice leaves was estimated as described by Sadasivam and Manickam (1996). 100mg of the sample was weighed and the sugars were extracted using hot 80% alcohol twice (5ml each time). Collected the supernatant and evaporated on water bath. 10ml of water was added to dissolve the sugars. Pipetted out 0.5 to 3 ml of alcohol-free extracted into test tubes and made up the volume to 3 ml with water in all the tubes. 3ml of DNS reagent was added and mixed. Later on heated for 5 minutes in a boiling water bath. After the colour has developed, 1 ml of 40% Rochelle salt solution was (when the contents are still warm) and mixed. The test tubes were cooled under running tap water and the absorbance was measured at 510 nm using reagent blank adjusted to zero absorbance. The amount of reducing sugar in the sample was calculated using a standard graph prepared from working standard glucose solution (0 to 500 μ g) in the same manner.

3.2.6 Parameters related to zinc dynamics

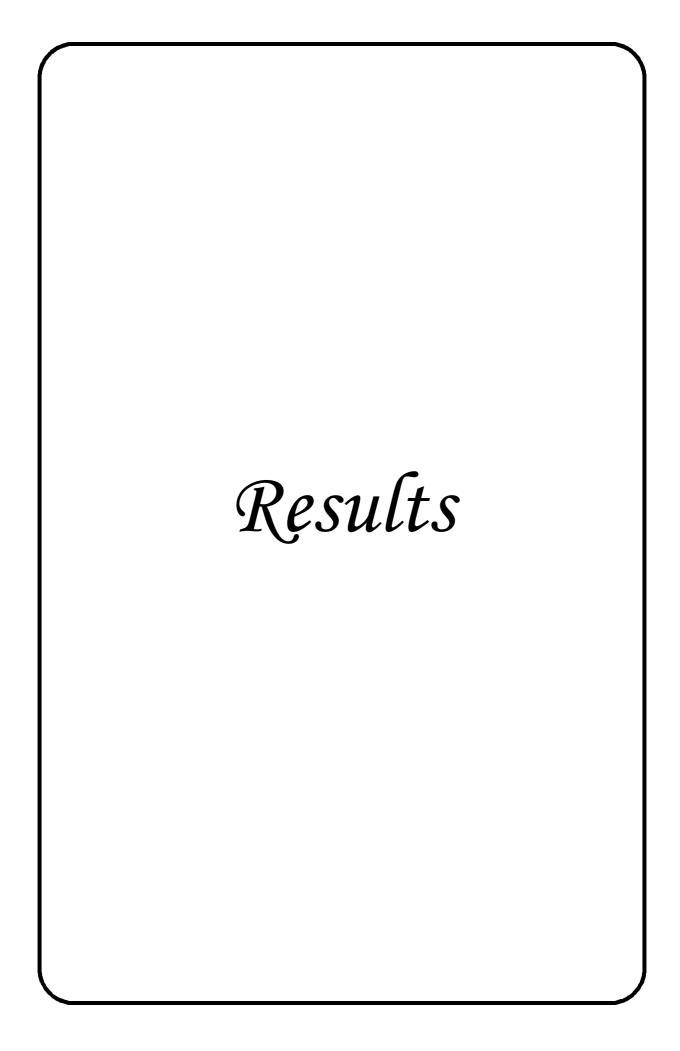
3.2.6.1 Nutrient status

The leaf and shoot samples of both the varieties were collected from plants kept under open field, poly house and elevated CO₂ conditions. They were initially sundried and then oven dried to a constant weight. The dried samples were finally ground and sieved. Zn content was analysed by diacid extracts. This was made by digesting 1 g of the sample in 10 ml of 9:4 concentrated nitric acid and perchloric acid mixture. Aliquots of the digests were taken for the analysis.

Zn content in shoot and leaf was determined using Atomic Absorption Spectrophotometer (Analytik Jena company with novAA (300) model) at Onattukara Regional Agricultural Research Station, Kayankulam, Kerala and the content of nutrient was calculated and expressed in $\mu g g^{-1}$.

Statistical Analysis:

The analysis of variance (ANOVA) was carried out using OPSTAT software to assess the significance difference between the treatments and their interaction.



4. RESULTS

The present investigation was designed to improve zinc status and to assess the growth and development in rice plants which has been decreasing due to the raise in CO₂ in the atmosphere with various zinc enrichment treatments which was done at OTC and Polyhouse situated in College of Agriculture, Vellayani. The rice plants were exposed to elevated CO₂ with 500 ppm concentration at OTC, Polyhouse with 420 ppm on an average and open field condition with ambient CO₂ at 390 ppm from September 2019 to January 2020.

The observations related to growth and development of rice plants was recorded and the nutrient status of rice plants was analyzed at different CO₂ concentrations. The analyzation of data was done statistically and the results are presented in this chapter with suitable tables.

4.1 OBSERVATIONS ON GROWTH PARAMETERS OF RICE AT DIFFERENT CO₂ CONCENTARTIONS AND UNDER ZINC TREATMENTS:

4.1.1 Plant Height (cm):

The control plants which were maintained without any treatment (D4) responded significantly to the different CO₂ levels in terms of plant height. Plant height was increasing with increasing CO₂ levels and the highest mean plant height was recorded under OTC condition (108cm) followed by those under Polyhouse (97cm) and control plants (89cm).

All the zinc enrichment treatments influenced plant height significantly under all the three CO₂ conditions. Among the treatments, D₁ (Foliar spray) has shown highest plant height followed by D₃ (Seed treatment), D₂ (AMF treatment) and D₄ (No treatment) in the under all the conditions. The highest value recorded was 102 cm [D₁ (Foliar spray)] in the case of Uma and 130cm [D₁ (Foliar spray)] cm in the case of Njavara under OTC. Plants kept under ambient condition without any treatment (D₄) recorded lowest values, 72 cm in the case of Uma and 84.5cm in the case of Njavara. The results pertaining to plant height is presented in Table1.

Table 1.	Effect of zinc treatments and CO ₂ concentrations on plant height (cm)
of rice:	

	Open f	ield (C		ition		•	nouse 22)				ГС Сз)		MEAN (V)
VARIETIES (V)	Dı	D2	D3	D4	D 1	D2	D3	D4	D 1	D2	D3	D4	
Uma	89.7	86.0	83.3	72.0	97.3	91.0	84.7	78.3	102.0	100.2	95.7	88.3	89.0
Njavara	102.0	96.2	94.3	84.5	113.2	108.3	105.0	97.7	130.0	123.3	117.0	104.5	106.3
MEAN(C)		89				9	7			10	8		
		CD(0	.05):	D= 3	.568,\	/= 2.5	23,C*	D= N	/A, V*	*C=4.	369, D)*V=]	N/A
		SE±(m): [) =1.2	54, V=	=0.887	7,C*D	=2.17	3, V*(C=1.53	36, D*	V=1.7	774

D1-Zn Foliar spray; D2-AMF Treatment; D3-Seed Treatment; D4-No Treatment

4.1.2 Days to 50% flowering:

The number of days to 50% flowering has shown significant difference to different CO₂ levels when compared to the control plants without any treatment (D₄). The shortest number of days to 50% flowering was recorded in Open field condition (67.8) followed by those Polyhouse (75.5) and OTC (78.3).

The Zn treatments did not result in any significant difference in the time taken to reach 50% flowering.

The number of days to 50% flowering was delayed by 10-11 days under OTC and Polyhouse relative to Open field condition.

Rice variety Njavara (Yellow) is a short duration variety (80-90 days) whereas Uma is a medium duration variety (115-120 days). Njavara took minimum number of days to 50% flowering (60 days) under Open field condition followed 69 days under Polyhouse condition and 71 days under OTC. In the case of Uma, the minimum number of days to 50% flowering was 73 days under Open field condition followed by 80 days under Polyhouse and 85 days under OTC. The results pertaining to number of days to 50% flowering is presented in Table2.

	Open	field	condi	ition		Polył	nouse			0	TC		MEAN
						(C	C2)			(0	C3)		(V)
VARIETIES	D 1	D2	D3	D4	D 1	D2	D3	D4	D 1	D2	D3	D4	
(V)													
Uma													
	73.3	72.7	74.0	73.3	80.0	80.3	82.0	82.3	84.0	85.3	86.3	86.7	80.0
Njavara													
	62.7	61.7	62.7	61.7	69.3	69.0	70.3	70.7	71.3	70.7	71.7	70.3	67.7
MEAN (C)		67.	8			75	5.5			73	8.3		
	(C D(0 .	.05):]	$D = N_{i}$	/A,V=	= 0.77	'0,C*]	$D = N_{\ell}$	/A, V	*C=1	.334,	D*V=N	J/A
	S	E±(m): D=	0.383	, V=0).271,	C*D=	=0.663	3, V*(C=0.4	69, D	•*V=0.5	41

Table 2. Effect of zinc treatments and CO₂ concentrations on days to 50% flowering of rice:

4.1.3 No. of tillers:

The number of tillers has shown significant difference among the control plants kept under different CO₂ levels that were grown without any treatment (D₄). Highest number of tillers was recorded in OTC (30.1) followed by the plants kept in the Polyhouse (21.1) and control plants (18).

All the zinc enrichment treatments influenced no. of tillers significantly under all the three CO₂ conditions. Among the treatments, D₁ has resulted in highest number of tillers followed by D₃, D₂ and D₄ under all the conditions. The highest value recorded was 34 (D₁) in the case of Uma and 32 (D₁) in the case of Njavara under OTC. Plants cultivated under open field condition without any treatment (D₄) recorded lowest values, 17.7 in the case of Uma and 10.3 in the case of Njavara. The results pertaining to no. of tillers is presented in Table3.

Table 3. Effect of zinc treatments and CO₂ concentrations on No. of tillers of rice:

	Open	field (C		lition		•	nouse 22)			-	TC C3)		MEAN(V)
VARIETIES (V)	D 1	D2	D3	D4	D 1	D2	D3	D4	D 1	D2	D3	D4	
Uma	24.3	23.0	24.0	17.7	26.3	22.7	23.0	21.7	34.0	30.7	32.0	28.7	25.7
Njavara	17.7 14.0 13.3 10.3				20.7	18.0	20.0	16.7	32.0	29.3	29.7	24.3	20.5
MEAN(C)		18	8.0			21	.1			30).1		
	C	CD(0.	05): I	D=1.5	84, V	=1.12	20,C*	D=N	₩A, V	/*C=	1.940), D*∖	V=N/A
	S	SE(m)): D=	0.557	, V=0).394,	C*D	=0.96	55, V ³	*C=0	.682,	D*V=	=0.788

D1-Zn Foliar spray; D2-AMF Treatment; D3-Seed Treatment; D4-No Treatment

4.1.4 Root weight (g /plant):

The control plants which were maintained without any treatment (D4) responded significantly to the different CO₂ levels in terms of root weight. Root weight was increasing with increasing CO₂ levels and the highest root weight was recorded under OTC condition (19.1 g/plant) followed by those under Polyhouse (16.8 g/plant) and then by the control plants (14.2 g/plant).

All the zinc enrichment treatments influenced root weight significantly under all the three CO₂ conditions. Among the treatments, D₂ has shown highest root weight followed by D₃, D₁ and D₄ under all the conditions. The highest value recorded was 26.7 g/plant (D₂) in Uma and 20.4 g/plant (D₂) in Njavara under OTC. Plants kept under Open field condition without any treatment (D₄) recorded lowest values, 10.9 g/plant in the case of Uma and 7.4 g/plant in the case of Njavara. The results pertaining to root weight is presented in Table4.

	Open	field	cond	ition		Polył	nouse			0	TC		MEAN(V)
		(Ci	ı)			(0	C2)			((C3)		
VARIETIES	D 1	D2	D3	D4	D 1	D2	D3	D4	D 1	D2	D3	D4	
(V)													
Uma													
	15.4 22.0 19.4 10.9				18.7	24.9	21.8	14.2	22.0	26.7	24.3	17.3	19.8
Njavara	15.4 22.0 19.4 10.9												
	10.6	15.3	12.4	7.4	11.9	18.3	14.8	9.7	14.1	20.4	17.4	10.8	13.6
MEAN(C)		14.	.2			16	5.8			19	.1		
	C	D(0.()5): E) =1.1	15,V=	= 0.78	88,C*	D = N	√A, \	/*C=	N/A,	, D*V	= N/A
	SE	E±(m)): D=(0.392	, V=().277	,C*D	= 0.67	79, V	*C=0	.480,	D*V	=0.554

Table 4. Effect of zinc treatments and CO2 concentrations on root weight(g/plant) of rice:

4.1.5 Straw yield (g/plant):

The straw yield was significantly influenced by different CO₂ levels. Highest straw yield was recorded by the experimental plants kept in OTC (36.6 g/plant) followed by those in Polyhouse (27.5 g/plant) and then by the control plants (22.2 g/plant).

All the zinc enrichment treatments influenced straw yield significantly under all the three CO₂ conditions. Among the treatments, D₁ has shown highest straw yield followed by D₃, D₂ and D₄ under all the conditions. The highest value recorded was 35 g/plant (D₁) in Uma and 46.8 g/plant (D₁) in Njavara under OTC. Plants kept under Open field condition without any treatment (D₄) recorded lowest values, 17.5 g/plant in the case of Uma and 22.9 g/plant in the case of Njavara. The results pertaining to straw yield is presented in Table5.

 Table 5. Effect of zinc treatments and CO2 concentrations on straw yield

 (g/plant) of rice:

	Open			ition		•	house	•			TC		MEAN(V)
VARIETIES	D 1	D_2	C1) D3	D4	D 1	D_2	C2) D3	D4	D 1	D_2	C3) D3	D4	
(V)	21	22	20	2.	2.	22	20	2.	2.	22	20	2.	
Uma													
	23.2 18.8 20.3 17.5				29.7	24.7	26.7	21.5	35.0	29.3	29.0	27.3	25.2
Njavara													
	27.3	23.2	24.4	22.9	32.5	28.9	30.7	25.5	46.8	43.5	44.3	38.0	32.3
MEAN(C)		22	2.2			27	7.5			36	.6		
	CI	D(0.0	5): D	=0.63	81,V=	0.44	6,C*	D= 1.	093,	V*C=	=0.77	3, D*	V=0.893
	SE	±(m):	D	=0.22	22, V	=0.15	57,C*	D=0.	384,	V*C=	=0.27	2, D*	V=0.314

4.2 OBSERVATIONS ON PHYSIOLOGICAL AND BIOCHEMICAL PARAMETERS OF RICE AT DIFFERENT CO₂ CONCENTARTIONS AND UNDER ZINC TREATMENTS:

4.2.1 Total chlorophyll (active tillering stage) (mg g⁻¹ fresh weight):

The total chlorophyll content of leaves at active tillering stage was significantly high under elevated CO₂ levels relative to the control plants that were maintained in ambient condition. Highest chlorophyll content was recorded in plants under Polyhouse condition (2.33 mg g⁻¹ fresh weight) followed by those under OTC (2.18 mg g⁻¹ fresh weight) and control plants (2.06 mg g⁻¹ fresh weight).

Among the treatments, D₁ has shown highest chlorophyll content in Uma (1.57 mg g⁻¹ fresh weight) and in Njavara also D₁ has shown highest chlorophyll content under Polyhouse (2.89 mg g⁻¹ fresh weight). The lowest chlorophyll content was observed in untreated plants under open field condition i.e., 1.46 mg g⁻¹ fresh weight in Uma and 2.28 mg g⁻¹ fresh weight in Njavara. The results pertaining to total chlorophyll content at active tillering stage is presented in Table6.

Table 6. Effect of zinc treatments and CO₂ concentrations on total chlorophyll content of rice at active tillering stage (mg g⁻¹ fresh weight):

	Open	field (C		ition		Polyl (C	nouse	;			TC C3)		MEAN(V)
VARIETIES (V)	D 1	D ₂	D3	D4	D1	D ₂	D3	D4	D1	D2	D3	D4	
Uma	1.56	1.55	1.54	1.46	1.57	1.55	1.52	1.49	1.55	1.50	1.50	1.49	1.56
Njavara	2.38	3.07	2.57	2.28	2.89	3.81	2.91	2.91	3.12	2.66	3.04	2.60	2.38
MEAN(C)		2.0	5			2.	33	-		2.1	8		
	CD	(0.05): D=	0.10	8,V=	0.076	6,C*I	D = 0.1	86, 1	/*C=	0.132	2, D*\	/= 0.152
	S	E±(m): D=	0.038	8, V=	0.027	,C*D	=0.06	56, V [*]	*C=0	.046,	D*V	=0.054

4.2.2 Total chlorophyll (grain filling stage) (mg g⁻¹ fresh weight):

The total chlorophyll content of leaves at grain filling stage has shown significant difference at different CO₂ levels by the control plants. Highest chlorophyll content was observed in plants kept in OTC (1.805 mg g⁻¹ fresh weight) followed by those in the Polyhouse (1.803 mg g⁻¹ fresh weight) and then by the open field condition (1.684 mg g⁻¹ fresh weight).

Among the treatments, D₁ has resulted in highest chlorophyll content in Uma (1.52 mg g⁻¹ fresh weight) and in Njavara also plants receiving D₁ has shown highest chlorophyll content (2.25 mg g⁻¹ fresh weight) under OTC. The lowest chlorophyll content was recorded in untreated plants under open field condition i.e., 1.40 mg g⁻¹ fresh weight in Uma and 1.85 mg g⁻¹ fresh weight in Njavara. The results pertaining to total chlorophyll content at grain filling stage is presented in Table7.

Table 7. Effect of zinc treatments and CO₂ concentrations on total chlorophyll content of rice at grain filling stage (mg g⁻¹ fresh weight):

	Open			lition		Polyl (C	nouse C2)			-	TC C3)		MEAN(V)
VARIETIES (V)	D 1	1.44 1.42 1.43 1.4 1.80 2.13 2.00 1.8 1.684			D 1	D2	D3	D4	Dı	D2	D3	D4	
Uma	1.44 1.42 1.43 1.40 1.80 2.13 2.00 1.84				1.51	1.51	1.48	1.42	1.52	1.51	1.50	1.48	1.47
Njavara	1.80 2.13 2.00 1.85				2.09	2.24	2.17	2.01	2.25	2.00	2.11	2.07	2.06
MEAN(C)		1	.684			1.	.803			1.8	805		
	C	CD(0.05): D=0.035, V=0.025,C*D=0.060, V*C=0.042, D*V=0.049											
	:	SE(m	ı): D=	=0.012	2, V=	0.009	9, C*I	D=0.0	21, V	/*C=(0.015	, D*∖	/=0.017

D1-Zn Foliar spray; D2-AMF Treatment; D3-Seed Treatment; D4-No Treatment

4.2.3 Total soluble protein (active tillering stage) (mg g⁻¹):

There was significant difference among the open field condition plants which were maintained without any treatment (D4) under different CO₂ levels in terms of total soluble protein at active tillering stage. Highest total soluble protein content was recorded in Open field condition (3.1 mg g^{-1}) followed by Polyhouse (1.1 mg g^{-1}) and OTC (0.8 mg g⁻¹) systems.

Among the treatments, D₁ has shown highest chlorophyll content in Uma (3.15 mg g^{-1}) and in Njavara also D₁ has shown highest total soluble protein content under Open field condition (3.13 mg g^{-1}) . The lowest total soluble protein content was recorded in untreated plants under OTC i.e., 0.65 mg g⁻¹ fresh weight in Uma and 0.76 mg g⁻¹ fresh weight in Njavara. The results pertaining to total soluble protein at active tillering stage is presented in Table8.

Table 8. Effect of zinc treatments and CO₂ concentrations on total soluble protein content of rice at active tillering stage (mg g^{-1}):

	Open	field (C		ition		•	house C2)	;		-	TC C3)		MEAN (V)
VARIETIES (V)	Dı	D2	D3	D4	Dı	D2	D3	D4	Dı	D2	D3	D4	
Uma	3.18 3.10 3.15 3.06				1.30	1.19	1.12	0.96	0.86	0.72	0.80	0.65	1.67
Njavara	3.15					1.11	1.12	1.10	0.92	0.81	0.90	0.76	1.69
MEAN(C)		3	.1			-	1.1			0.	8		
	CI	D(0.0	5): D	=0.04	2,V=	= N/A	,C*D	= 0.0	72, V	/*C=(0.051	, D*∖	V = N/A
	SE	E±(m)): D=	0.015	, V=(0.010	,C*D	=0.02	25, V ³	*C=0	.018,	D*V	=0.021

D1-Zn Foliar spray; D2-AMF Treatment; D3-Seed Treatment; D4-No Treatment

4.2.4 Total soluble protein (grain filling stage) (mg g⁻¹):

There was significant difference among the control plants (D4) kept under different CO₂ levels in terms of total soluble protein at grain filling stage. Highest total soluble protein content was recorded in Open field condition (7.1 mg g⁻¹) followed by Polyhouse (5.9 mg g⁻¹) and OTC (4.0 mg g⁻¹).

All the zinc enrichment treatments have responded significantly under all the three CO₂ conditions. Among the treatments, D₁ has shown excessive total soluble protein content in Uma (7.03 mg g⁻¹) and in Njavara also D₁ has shown highest total soluble protein content under Open field condition (7.14 mg g⁻¹). The lowest total soluble protein content was recorded in untreated plants under OTC i.e., 3.67 mg g⁻¹ fresh weight in Uma and 3.79 mg g⁻¹ fresh weight in Njavara. The results pertaining to total soluble protein at grain filling stage is presented in Table9.

	Open	field (C		ition		Polyl ((nouse C2)	1		-	TC C3)		MEAN(V)
VARIETIES (V)	D 1	D2	D3	D4	D1	D2	D3	D4	D 1	D2	D3	D4	
Uma													
	7.12 7.03 7.07 7.06				6.09	5.50	5.87	5.85	4.04	3.91	4.03	3.67	5.60
Njavara													
	7.14 6.92 7.14 7.05				6.06	5.65	6.00	5.90	4.30	3.91	4.01	3.79	5.66
MEAN(C)		7.	1				5.9			4.	0		
	C	CD(0.	05): I	D=0.1	51,V	′= N/⊿	A,C*]	D= N	/A, V	′*C=	N/A,	D*V	= N/A
	SE	E±(m)): D	= N/A	4, V=	= N/A	,C*D	=0.09	92, V	*C=0	.065,	D*V	=0.075

Table 9. Effect of zinc treatments and CO₂ concentrations on total soluble protein content of rice at grain filling stage (mg g^{-1}):

4.2.5 Total reducing sugars (active tillering stage) (mg g^{-1}):

The total reducing sugars of leaves at active tillering stage was significantly high under elevated CO₂ levels relative to the control plants that were maintained in ambient condition. The highest total reducing sugar content was recorded in OTC (1.9 mg g⁻¹) followed by Polyhouse (1.3 mg g⁻¹) and then by the control plants (1.2 mg g⁻¹).

All the zinc enrichment treatments have responded significantly under all the three CO₂ conditions. Among the treatments, D₁ has shown highest total reducing sugar content in Uma (2.36 mg g⁻¹) and in Njavara also D₁ has shown highest reducing sugar content under OTC (2.25 mg g⁻¹). The lowest value was recorded in untreated plants under Open field condition i.e., 1.13 mg g⁻¹ in Uma and 1.1 mg g⁻¹ in Njavara. The results pertaining to total reducing sugars of leaves at active tillering stage is presented in Table10.

	Open	field (C		ition		Polyl ((nouse C2)	:			TC C3)		MEAN(V)	
VARIETIES (V)	Dı	D2	D3	D4	Dı	D2	D3	D4	D 1	D2	D3	D4		
Uma														
	1.28 1.17 1.18 1.13				1.52	1.21	1.24	1.64	2.36	1.92	2.01	1.85	1.54	
Njavara	1.28 1.17 1.18 1.13													
	1.22	1.15	1.18	1.1	1.52	1.19	1.22	1.15	2.25	1.27	1.67	1.65	1.38	
MEAN(C)		1.	2				1.3			1.	9			
	C	CD(0.05): D=0.084,V= 0.059,C*D= 0.145, V*C=0.103, D*V= N/A												
	SE	±(m):	D	=0.03	30, V	=0.02	21,C*	D=0.0	051, '	V*C=	=0.03	6, D*	V=0.042	

Table 10. Effect of zinc treatments and CO₂ concentrations on total reducing sugars of rice at active tillering stage (mg g⁻¹):

4.2.6 Total reducing sugars (grain filling stage) (mg g⁻¹):

The total reducing sugars of leaves at grain filling stage was significantly high under elevated CO₂ levels relative to the control plants that were maintained in ambient condition. The highest total reducing sugar content was recorded in OTC (6.3 mg g⁻¹) followed by those in Polyhouse (4.3 mg g⁻¹) and then by the control plants (2.9 mg g⁻¹).

All the zinc enrichment treatments had significant effects under all the three CO₂ conditions. Among the treatments, D₁ resulted in highest total reducing sugar content in Uma (6.36 mg g⁻¹) and in Njavara (6.66 mg g⁻¹) under OTC. The lowest total reducing sugar content was recorded in untreated plants under Open field condition i.e., 2.49 mg g⁻¹ in Uma and 2.35 mg g⁻¹ in Njavara. The results pertaining to total reducing sugars of leaves at grain filling stage is presented in Table11.

Table 11. Effect of zinc treatments and CO₂ concentrations on total reducing sugars of rice at grain filling stage (mg g⁻¹):

	Open		cond	lition		-	house C2)	:			TC C3)		MEAN(V)
VARIETIES (V)	Dı	D1 D2 D3 D4				D2	D3	D4	D 1	D2	D3	D4	
Uma													
	3.46	2.81	3.07	2.49	4.61	4.21	4.29	3.89	6.36	6.07	6.18	5.96	4.45
Njavara													
	3.37	2.71	3.03	2.35	4.79	4.27	4.49	4.11	6.66	6.46	6.49	6.25	4.58
MEAN(C)		/	2.9				4.3			6.	3		
	CI) (0.0	5): D	=0.06	52, V=	= 0.04	44, C*	*D=0	0.107,	V*C	=0.07	76, D*	V=N/A
	S	E±(m	ı): D=	=0.022	2, V=	0.015	5, C*I	D=0.0	38, V	*C=().027,	, D*V	=0.031

D1-Zn Foliar spray; D2-AMF Treatment; D3-Seed Treatment; D4-No Treatment

4.2.7 Photosynthetic rate (active tillering stage) (μ mol CO 2 m⁻²s⁻¹):

The influence of CO₂ levels on photosynthetic rate was highly evident in this programme. The photosynthetic rate of leaves at active tillering stage has shown significant difference among the control plants kept under different CO₂ levels without any Zinc treatment (D4). The photosynthetic rate was was recorded highest in plants kept in OTC (27 μ mol CO 2 m⁻²s⁻¹) followed by those in the Polyhouse (20.9 μ mol CO 2 m⁻²s⁻¹) and then by the control plants (12.7 μ mol CO 2 m⁻²s⁻¹).

Zinc treatments did not have significantly influence on photosynthetic rate under any of the three CO₂ level. The varietal performance also did not show any significant difference in the case of photosynthetic rate under any of the CO₂ condition. The results pertaining to the photosynthetic rate of leaves at active tillering stage is presented in Table12.

Table 12. Effect of zinc treatments and CO₂ concentrations on Photosynthetic rate of rice at active tillering stage (μ mol CO 2 m ⁻²s⁻¹):

	Open	field	l conc	lition		Polyl	nouse			0	TC		MEAN(V)
		(0	C1)			(0	C2)			()	C3)		
VARIETIES	D 1	D2	D3	D4	D 1	D2	D3	D4	D 1	D2	D3	D4	
(V)													
Uma													
	13.2	13	12.4	12.1	20.5	19.9	21.6	19.6	28.3	26.6	27.6	25.7	20.0
Njavara													
	13.1	12.9	12.6	11.9	21.8	21.4	21.7	20.5	27.9	26.8	27.5	25.7	20.3
MEAN(C)		12	7			20).9			27	.0		
	(CD(0.05): D=0.447,V= N/A,C*D= 0.774, V*C=0.548, D*V= N/A											
	S	E±(m	n): D	=0.15	57, V=	=0.11	1,C*I	D=0.2	272, V	/*C=(0.193	, D*V	=0.222

D1-Zn Foliar spray; D2-AMF Treatment; D3-Seed Treatment; D4-No Treatment

4.2.8 Photosynthetic rate (grain filling stage) (µmol CO 2 m⁻²s⁻¹):

The influence of CO₂ levels and varieties on photosynthetic rate of leaves at grain filling stage was similar to that at the active tillering stage. The photosynthetic rate was significantly different among the control plants (D4) kept under different CO₂ levels. The photosynthetic rate was recorded highest in OTC (17.6 μ mol CO ₂ m⁻²s⁻¹) followed by Polyhouse (13 μ mol CO ₂ m⁻²s⁻¹) and then by the control plants (9.7 μ mol CO ₂ m⁻²s⁻¹).

The results pertaining photosynthetic rate of leaves at grain filling stage is presented in Table13.

Table 13. Effect of zinc treatments and CO₂ concentrations on Photosynthetic rate of rice at grain filling stage (μ mol CO 2 m ⁻²s⁻¹):

	Open	field (C		ition	Polyhouse (C2)						TC C3)		MEAN(V)
VARIETIES (V)	D1 D2 D3 D4				D 1	D2	D3	D4	Dı	D2	D3	D4	
Uma	9.7	9.0	10.8	8.4	15.1	13.2	13.4	12.1	18.1	18.8	19.1	15.6	13.6
Njavara	10.8	10.6	9.6	8.6	13.8	12.9	12.7	11.0	17.6	18.0	18.3	15.6	13.3
MEAN(C)		9.	.7		13.0					17.	.6		
	(CD(0.05): D=0.632,V= N/A,C*D= N/A, V*C= N/A, D*V= N/A											
	SE	SE±(m): D=0.022, V=0.157,C*D=0.385, V*C=0.272, D*V=0.314											V=0.314

D1-Zn Foliar spray; D2-AMF Treatment; D3-Seed Treatment; D4-No Treatment

4.2.9 Transpiration rate (active tillering stage) (mmol H₂O m⁻² s⁻¹):

The transpiration rate of leaves at active tillering stage was significantly low under elevated CO₂ levels relative to the control plants that were maintained in ambient condition.

. Highest transpiration rate was recorded in Open field condition (4.4 mmol H₂O m⁻²s⁻¹) followed by Polyhouse (3.4 mmol H₂O m⁻²s⁻¹) and OTC (2.4 mmol H₂O m⁻²s⁻¹).

The zinc treatments or varieties did not have any significant effect on transpiration rate. The results pertaining to the transpiration rate of leaves at active tillering stage is presented in Table14.

Table 14. Effect of zinc treatments and CO₂ concentrations on transpiration rate of rice at active tillering stage (mmol H₂O m⁻² s⁻¹):

	Open	ition		•	nouse C2)			O (0	MEAN (V)				
VARIETIES (V)	Dı	D2	D3	D4	D1	D2	D3	D4	D 1	D2	D3	D4	
Uma	4.49	4.36	4.37	4.16	3.13	3.17	3.29	3.21	2.42	2.24	2.51	2.44	3.32
Njavara	5.01	4.21	4.52	4.19	3.64	3.46	3.86	3.75	2.63	2.14	2.41	2.18	3.50
MEAN(C)		4.	4		3.4					2.			
	CD	CD(0.05): D=0.142,V= 0.101,C*D= 0.247, V*C=0.174, D*V= 0.201											
	SE	±(m):	D=	=0.050), V=	0.035	5,C*E) =0.0	87, V	*C=().061	, D*V	=0.071

4.2.10 Transpiration rate (grain filling stage) (mmol H₂O m⁻² s⁻¹):

Similar trend was shown in the case of photosynthetic rate under grain filling stage also. Highest transpiration rate was recorded in Open field condition (3.2 mmol H₂O m⁻²s⁻¹) followed by Polyhouse (2.1 mmol H₂O m⁻²s⁻¹) and OTC (1.8 mmol H₂O m⁻²s⁻¹).

The Zinc treatments or varieties did not have any significant effect on transpiration rate at grain filling stage also. The results pertaining to the transpiration rate of leaves at grain filling stage is presented in Table15.

Table 15. Effect of zinc treatments and CO₂ concentrations on transpiration rate of rice at grain filling stage (mmol H₂O m⁻² s⁻¹):

	Open	Open field condition (C1)				•	house C2)	•			TC		MEAN(V)
		(C	·1)			(4	22)		(C3)				
VARIETIES (V)	D_1	D2	D3	D4	D_1	D2	D3	D4	D_1	D2	D3	D4	
Uma													
	3.18 3.11 3.21 3.13				2.11	2.19	2.05	1.96	1.87	1.82	1.91	91 1.83	2.3
Njavara													
	3.26	3.14	3.28	3.12	2.18	2.07	2.13	1.94	1.86	1.76	1.74	1.83	2.36
MEAN(C)		3.2	2				2.1			1.	8		
	C	CD(0.05): D=0.064,V= N/A,C*D= N/A, V*C= N/A, D*V= N/A											
	SE	±(m):	D=	=0.02	2, V=	0.01	6,C*I	D=0.0	39, V	/*C=	0.027	, D*∖	/=0.032

D1-Zn Foliar spray; D2-AMF Treatment; D3-Seed Treatment; D4-No Treatment

4.2.11 Stomatal conductance (active tillering stage) (mmol H₂O m⁻² s⁻¹):

The control plants that were grown without any treatment (D4) have responded significantly to the different CO₂ levels with respect to stomatal conductance at active tillering stage. Highest stomatal conductance was recorded in open field condition (380.4 mmol H₂O m⁻²s⁻¹) followed by polyhouse (304.6 mmol H₂O m⁻²s⁻¹) and OTC (277.2 mmol H₂O m⁻²s⁻¹).

The Zinc treatments did not have any significant effect on stomatal conductance at tillering stage. The varietal influence in this case was also not significant. The results pertaining to the stomatal conductance of leaves at active tillering stage is presented in Table16.

Table 16. Effect of zinc treatments and CO₂ concentrations on Stomatal conductance in rice at active tillering stage (mmol H₂O m⁻² s⁻¹):

	Ope	Open field condition (C1) D1 D2 D3 D4 385 380.3 382.7 373.3 387.3 379.7 384.3 370.3 380.4				-	nouse 22)			O] (C	ГС 23)		MEAN (V)
VARIETIES (V)	D1	D2	D3	D4	Dı	D2	D3	D4	Dı	D2	D3	D4	
Uma													
	385	380.3	382.7	373.3	311.3	298.3	306.7	304.7	282.7	276.7	282.7	272.3	321.4
Njavara													
	387.3	379.7	384.3	370.3	312	302	314	287.7	282	269.7	279	272.7	320.1
MEAN (C)													
		CD(0.05): D=3.206,V=N/A,C*D=N/A, V*C=N/A, D*V=N/A											
	SE	SE±(m): D=1.127, V=0.797,C*D=1.953, V*C=1.381, D*V=1.594											

D1-Zn Foliar spray; D2-AMF Treatment; D3-Seed Treatment; D4-No Treatment

4.2.12 Stomatal conductance (grain filling stage) (mmol H₂O m⁻² s⁻¹):

The stomatal conductance of control plants that were grown without any treatment (D4) was significantly influenced by the different CO₂ levels with respect to stomatal conductance at grain filling stage. Highest stomatal conductance was recorded in Open field condition (305.7 mmol H₂O m⁻²s⁻¹) followed by Polyhouse (287.8 mmol H₂O m⁻²s⁻¹) and OTC (226 mmol H₂O m⁻²s⁻¹).

The Zinc treatments did not have any significant effect on stomatal conductance at grain filling stage. The varietal influence in this case was also not significant. The results pertaining to the stomatal conductance of leaves at grain filling stage is presented in Table17.

Table 17. Effect of zinc treatments and CO₂ concentrations on Stomatal conductance in rice at grain filling stage (mmol H₂O m⁻² s⁻¹):

	Open f	305.7				•	nouse 22)			MEAN (V)			
VARIETIES (V)	D 1	D2	D3	D4	D1	D2	D3	D4	D 1	D2	D3	D4	
Uma													
	307	302.3	306	301.3	291	285	290	286	233	218.3	232.3	216.3	272.4
Njavara													
	311.3	304.3	314	299.3	292.3	286.7	288.3	282.7	236.7	223	232.3	215.7	273.9
MEAN (C)		305.	7			287	7.8						
		CD(0.05): D=3.307,V= N/A,C*D= N/A, V*C= N/A, D*V= N/A											
	SE	±(m):	Ι) =1.	163, V	/=0.8	22,C*	D=2.	014, V	/*C=	1.424,	D*V=	=1.644

4.3 OBSERVATIONS ON ZINC DYNAMICS OF RICE AT DIFFERENT CO₂ CONCENTARTIONS AND UNDER ZINC TREATMENTS:

4.3.1 Zinc content in leaf ($\mu g g^{-1}$):

The leaf zinc contents of control plants were found to be significantly different under different CO₂ conditions Zinc content in leaf was increasing with increasing CO₂ levels and the zinc content in leaf was highest under Open field condition (23.68 μ g g⁻¹) followed by those under Polyhouse (23.31 μ g g⁻¹) and OTC (23.29 μ g g⁻¹).

All the treatments influenced zinc content in leaf significantly under all the three CO₂ conditions. Among the treatments, D₁ (Foliar spray) has shown highest zinc content in leaf followed by D₃, (Seed treatment) D₂ (AMF treatment) and D₄ (No treatment) under all the CO₂conditions. In the case of Uma, the highest value (25.8 μ g g⁻¹) was recorded by the set of plants which received 0.5% ZnSO₄ foliar spray under open field condition. In the case of Njavara also the same treatment was the most effective recording the highest value of 26.1 μ g g⁻¹ under OTC. Plants kept under OTC without any treatment (D₄) recorded lowest values, 16.7 μ g g⁻¹, in the case of Uma and 17.6 μ g g⁻¹, in the case of Njavara. The results pertaining to zinc content in leaf is presented in Table18.

Table 18. Effect of zinc treatments and CO₂ concentrations on Zinc content in leaf of rice (µg g⁻¹):

	Open	n field ((l cond C1)	lition		Polyl ((house C2)	1		0] (0	MEAN (V)		
VARIETIES (V)	D 1	D1 D2 D3 D4 25.8 23.9 24.2 21.3				D2	D3	D4	D 1	D2	D3	D4	
Uma	25.8	23.9	24.2	21.3	25.9	24.2	24.6	19.0	25.4	24.3	24.8	16.7	23.3
Njavara	24.7	23.9	24.6	21.1	25.4	24.2	24.9	18.4	26.1	25.7	25.5	17.6	23.5
MEAN(C)		2.	3.68	-		2.	3.31			23.			
	CD	CD(0.05): D=0.196,V= 0.139,C*D= 0.339, V*C=0.240, D*V= 0.27											
	SE	E±(m)	: D=	=0.069	9, V=	0.049	,C*D	=0.08	84, V*	*C=0	.084,	D*V=	=0.097

D1-Zn Foliar spray; D2-AMF Treatment; D3-Seed Treatment; D4-No Treatment

4.3.2 Zinc content in shoot ($\mu g g^{-1}$):

The shoot Zinc content was also found to be significantly influenced by CO₂ concentration in the growing environment.

Zinc content in shoot was increasing with increasing CO₂ levels. The highest value for zinc content in shoot was recorded under Open field condition (23 μ g g⁻¹) followed by those under OTC (22.8 μ g g⁻¹) and then by the Polyhouse (22.6 μ g g⁻¹).

All the treatments influenced zinc content in shoot significantly under all the three CO₂ conditions. Among the treatments, D₁ (Foliar spray) has shown highest zinc content in shoot followed by D₃ (seed treatment), D₂ (AMF treatment) and D₄ (No treatment) under all the conditions. The highest value recorded was 25.4 μ g g⁻¹ (D₁) in Uma and 26 μ g g⁻¹ (D₁) in Njavara under OTC. Plants kept under OTC without any treatment (D₄) recorded lowest values, 16.7 μ g g⁻¹, in the case of Uma and 16.6 μ g g⁻¹, in the case of Njavara. The results pertaining to zinc content in shoot is presented in Table19.

Table 19. Effect of zinc treatments and CO₂ concentrations on Zinc content in shoot of rice ($\mu g g^{-1}$):

	Open	Open field condition (C1)					house			07			MEAN(V)
		(U)			(C	22)			(0			
VARIETIES (V)	Dı	D2	D3	D4	D 1	D2	D3	D4	D 1	D2	D3	D4	
Uma	24.4	22.7	23.8	20.8	24.2	24.3	24.4	18.7	25.4	24.7	24.4	16.7	22.9
Njavara	25.4	21.9	23.5	21.1	25.2	23.3	23.4	17.6	26.0	24.4	23.9	16.6	22.7
MEAN(C)		23.	.0			22	2.6			22.	.8		
	CI	CD(0.05): D=0.270,V= N/A,C*D= 0.468, V*C= N/A, D*V= 0.382											
	SE	±(m):	D	=0.09	95, V	=0.06	67,C*	D=0.	165, '	V*C=	=0.11	6, D*	V=0.134

Discussion

5. DISCUSSION

Rice (*Oryza sativa* L.) is the world's most important cereal and staple food crop for more than half of the world's population. It supplies more energy in the form of calories and is a good source of thiamine, riboflavin, and niacin and is an essential source of Zn for the poor residing in rural areas (Jiang *et al.*, 2008).

Zinc is an essential mineral nutrient for human beings. Zn deficiency is known to show serious impact on human health, particularly in children, such as impairments in physical growth, immune system, learning ability and causing DNA damage and cancer development (Black *et al.*, 2008).

During the last 150 years, atmospheric CO₂ concentration has increased from about 280 ppm to the current level of 400 ppm. By 2050, the earth's atmospheric CO₂ is predicted to reach about 550 ppm. Higher concentrations of CO₂ are generally known to stimulate plant photosynthesis and growth although, recent research suggests that predicting its impacts on plant growth and development is complex. However, information on the eCO₂ effects on nutritional quality in relation to major nutrients and therefore the health-promoting phytochemicals in food crops indicate that major nutrients in food crops including protein, phosphorus, potassium, calcium, iron, zinc and other micronutrients in many food crops are reduced at eCO₂ levels (Rajashekar, 2018). This was also reported in the case of wheat, barley and rice grown in controlled-environment chambers (Myers *et al.*, 2014).

The present programme "Influence of elevated CO₂ on zinc dynamics in rice (*Oryza sativa* L.)" was formulated with the objective of assessing the impact of elevated CO₂ on growth, development and nutritional quality of rice in relation to modifications in Zn dynamics.

In this study, two rice genotypes, Njavara-golden yellow collected from RARS, Pattambi and Uma [MO16]) collected from IFRI, Karamana were exposed to different CO₂ levels by raising them under different conditions i.e., OTC system with 500 ppm CO₂, Polyhouse and Open field condition. They were also subjected to different Zn enrichment treatments. The experimental plants were evaluated for

growth, physiological and biochemical parameters and parameters related to zinc dynamics. Significant variations were observed for all the parameters studied and the results obtained are discussed in this chapter with appropriate support from previous studies.

5.1 EFFECT OF ELEVATED CO₂ ON GROWTH PARAMETERS:

In this study, various growth parameters such as plant height (cm), days to 50% flowering, no. of tillers, root weight (g/plant), and straw yield (g/plant) as influenced by different CO₂ levels were studied in the rice genotypes Uma and Njavara.

In the case of plant height, the control plants which were maintained without any treatment (D4) were found to be responding significantly to the different CO₂ levels. Plant height was increasing with increasing CO₂ concentration and the highest mean plant height was recorded under OTC condition (108cm) followed by those under Polyhouse (97cm) and control plants (89cm).

A study was conducted by Liu *et al.* (2017) in rice using a simulation experiment and climatic chambers, with the rice variety Liangyou 287 with eCO₂ concentration of 550 μ mol mol⁻¹ and ambient CO₂ concentration of 400 μ mol mol⁻¹. In this study, as the rice growing stage prolonged and as CO₂ increased plant height which is an important trait closely related to rice yield, showed an increase of 19.94%.

The result of present study is in accordance with the above research work. In this study there was an increase in plant height by 21.35% under OTC and 9% under Polyhouse compared to Open field condition. It follows that altered plant structure induced by exposure to eCO₂ might be due to the result of higher rates of cell division, increased cell expansion and altered patterns of primordium initiation (Pritchard *et al.*, 1999). It is possible that growth stimulation of plants grown under eCO₂ may be direct (based on substrate supply) or indirect (based on chemical signals) or both Increased photosynthate availability in meristems increases the proportion of rapidly dividing cells by stimulating cyclin activity (regulatory subunits of a family of protein kinases, which facilitates the transition of cells from G0 to G1 of the cell cycle), thus stimulating division (Jacobs, 1997). Among the treatments, D1 (Foliar spray) has shown highest plant height followed by D₂ (AMF treatment), D₃ (seed treatment) and D4 (No treatment) in all three CO₂ conditions. Zn is entangled in cell elongation and/or increased cell division rates (Cakmak, 2000; Ramesh et al., 2014), and meristematic growth (Abaid-Ullah et al., 2015) which ultimately led to increase in plant height compared to untreated plants. There was an increase of 24.58%, 19.44% and 15.69% in the case of Uma and 48.47%, 13.83% and 3.35% in the case of Njavara in D1 (Zn foliar spray treatment), in D2 (AMF treatment) and in D3 (seed treatment) respectively in plant height under open field compared to D4 (without treatment). There was an increase of 24.27%, 16.22% and 8.17% in the case of Uma and 40%, 18.14% and 6.7% in the case of Njavara in D₁ (Zn foliar spray treatment), in D2 (AMF treatment) and in D3 (seed treatment) respectively in plant height under polyhouse compared to D4 (without treatment). There was an increase of 15.5%, 13.48% and 8.38% in the case of Uma and 19.33%, 17.99%, 11.96% in the case of Njavara in D1 (Zn foliar spray treatment), in D2 (AMF treatment), in D3(seed treatment) respectively in plant height under OTC compared to D4 (without treatment).(Table1.) (Fig.1).

The number of tillers has shown significant difference among the control plants kept under different CO₂ levels that were grown without any treatment (D₄). Highest no. of tillers was recorded in OTC (30.1) followed by the plants kept in the Polyhouse (21.1) and control plants (18).

According to Yang *et al.* (2006), a study in rice using FACE facility (200 -1 µmol mol above ambient CO₂ concentration) improved the maximum tiller number m⁻² (+30.3%). The result of present experiment is also similar to the above research which has enhanced the tiller number under eCO₂ by 58.3% under OTC and 8.3% under Polyhouse compared to Open field condition. Senewera *et al.* (2003) claimed that plants grown under eCO₂ produced more ethylene than the plants grown under ambient CO₂. Increase in ethylene production is one of the key features of accelerated growth and development in rice under eCO₂ that improves no. of tillers and development of auxiliary bud. An experiment was carried out in OTC on ginger at the Department of Plant Physiology, College of Agriculture, Vellayani, Thiruvananthapuram, Kerala, India which was enriched with 500 ppmCO₂. The maximum numbers of tillers were found in the variety. Aswathy under eCO₂ when compared to ambient CO₂ (Manasa *et al.*, 2020).

Among the treatments, D₁ (Foliar spray) has shown highest no. of tillers followed by D₂ (AMF treatment), D₃ (seed treatment) and D₄ (No treatment) in all three CO₂ conditions. Chang et al. (2005) also demonstrated that Zn is essential for cell division and elongation as it is essential for the fundamental events of growth. Superior enzymatic activity and auxin metabolism might have improved tiller number of rice with Zn supply in the present study. There was an increase of 37.3%, 30% and 36% in the case of Uma and 71.9%, 36% and 30% in the case of Njavara in D₁ (Zn foliar spray treatment), in D₂ (AMF treatment) and in D₃ (seed treatment) respectively in no. of tillers under open field compared to D4 (without treatment). There was an increase of 21.2%, 4.6% and 6% in the case of Uma and 24%, 7.8% and 19.8% in the case of Njavara in D1 (Zn foliar spray treatment), in D2 (AMF treatment) and in D3 (seed treatment) respectively in no. of tillers under polyhouse compared to D4 (without treatment). There was an increase of 18.5%, 7% and 11.5% in the case of Uma and 30%, 18.6%, 20.2% in the case of Njavara in D₁ (Zn foliar spray treatment), in D₂ (AMF treatment), in D₃(seed treatment) respectively in no. of tillers under OTC compared to D4 (without treatment) (Table3.) (Fig.3).

The number of days to 50% flowering has shown significant difference to different CO₂ levels when compared to the control plants without any treatment (D₄). The shortest number of days to 50% flowering was recorded in Open field condition (67.8) followed by those Polyhouse (75.5) and OTC (78.3).

Shimono *et al.* (2008) reported that under FACE facility eCO₂ (575 \pm 35 mmol mol⁻¹) delayed flowering date of all rice cultivars (Kirara 397, Kakenashi and Akitkomachi) by 5-6 days compared to ambient CO₂ (385 \pm 14 mmol mol⁻¹). The present study revealed that the no. of days to 50% flowering was delayed by 10-11 days under OTC and Polyhouse relative to Open field condition. The Zn treatments did not result in any significant difference in the time taken to reach 50% flowering.

(Table2.) (Fig.2). C₃ plants grown under eCO₂ commonly accumulate excess carbohydrates in leaves (Curtis and Wang, 1998; Long *et al.*, 2004), which can have an influence on flowering time. Several mutants of *Arabidopsis thaliana* such as cam1, pgm (AT5G51820), adg1 (AT5G48300) and sex1 (AT1G10760), which exhibited altered starch metabolism and enhanced tissue sugar concentrations, also exhibited late-flowering (Caspar *et al.*, 1985; Lin *et al.*, 1988; Eimert *et al.*, 1995).

In the case of root weight, the control plants which were maintained without any treatment (D4) responded significantly to the different CO₂ levels. Root weight was increasing with increasing CO₂ levels and the highest root weight was recorded under OTC condition (19.1g/plant followed by those under Polyhouse (16.8g/plant) and then by the control plants (14.2g/plant). The straw yield was significantly influenced by different CO₂ levels. Highest straw yield was recorded by the experimental plants kept in OTC (36.6g/plant) followed by those in Polyhouse (27.5g/plant) and then by the control plants (22.2g/plant).

Rice (IR-36) grown in phytotron with approximately 31°C day/ 23°C night temperature, eCO₂ concentration of 660 μ mol mol⁻¹recorded 37% enhancement in root weight (g/plant) and 18% enhancement in shoot weight (g/plant) compared to ambient CO₂ (360 μ mol mol⁻¹) (Ziska and Teramura, 1992).

A pot culture experiment was conducted with three varieties of amaranthus i.e, Arun, CO-1 and Renusree at the Department of Plant Physiology, College of Agriculture, Vellayani, Thiruvananthapuram, Kerala. The technology used for CO₂ enrichment was Open Top Chamber (OTC) system. Two Open Top Chambers were used, one with CO₂ level of 600 ppm and a second control chamber with control chamber level for assessing chamber effect. A set of experimental plants was maintained in the open field as control. Significantly higher root weight was observed under elevated CO₂ (0.92 g) compared to control chamber (0.69g) and open control (0.53 g) (Chatti and Manju, 2018).

The result of the present study was also similar to the above studies which have increased the root weight (g/plant) by 34.5% under OTC and 18.31% under Polyhouse compared to Open field condition. Salsman *et al.* (1999) reported that the

rise in root weight under eCO₂ is linked with the improved starch levels in roots and an increment in the ABA levels that might have caused more carbon to get accumulated for root growth. Plant growth is induced by both above ground and below-ground processes under eCO₂. Below ground processes of plants accelerates photosynthesis through nutrient and water uptake, which then induce the above ground biomass production (Madhu and Hatfield, 2013).

Among the treatments, D₂ (AMF treatment) has shown highest root weight. AMF colonize roots and can develop the adaptability of host plants by offering additional phosphorus, nitrogen and zinc to plants. Root systems were extended, enhancing the root surface that is utilized for nutrient uptake by more than 100-fold, by symbiosis with AMF in an experiment conducted in upland cotton (Gossypium hirsutum L.) (Gao et al., 2020). Hippler et al. (2015) reported that nearly 2800 proteins need Zn for their structural and functional integrity and hence there is a high necessity for Zn during root and coleoptiles development for active protein synthesis. AMF treatment had maximum influence on root weight in the cases of both the varieties with 101.83% and 106.76% increase when compared to control in the case of Uma and Njavara respectively. AMF treatment was followed by seed treatment and foliar spray in influencing root weight. Though the extent of influence differed, the trend was similar under ambient condition, polyhouse and in OTC system in both the varieties. The straw yield was significantly influenced by different CO₂ levels. Highest straw yield was recorded by the experimental plants kept in OTC (36.6g/plant) followed by those in Polyhouse (27.5g/plant) and then by the control plants (22.2g/plant).

The straw yield (g/plant) was enhanced under eCO₂ by 64.9% under OTC and 23.9% under Polyhouse compared to Open field condition. Response of plant growth to eCO₂ is also associated with the source-sink relationship of the plant (Makino and Mae, 1999). Elevated CO₂ increases the carbon source activity that results in an increased rate of photosynthetic CO₂ assimilation providing more carbohydrates (Paul and Foyer, 2001) which are used by plants to advance supplementary sinks such as new tillers and secondary shoots leading to enhanced straw yield. The developmental plasticity of these organs determines the final growth response to eCO₂.

A study was conducted by Srikanth (2019) on cowpea variety Lola at the Department of Plant Physiology, College of Agriculture, Vellayani, Thiruvananthapuram, Kerala under OTC with 600 ppm eCO₂ concentration. In this xperiment highest value for shoot weight was observed in variety Lola (65.05 g) under eCO₂ compared to ambient CO₂ condition.

All the zinc enrichment treatments influenced straw yield significantly under all the three CO₂ conditions. Among the treatments, D₁ (Foliar spray) has shown highest shoot weight. There was an increase of 32.6%, 7.4% and 16% in the case of Uma and 19.2%, 1.31% and 6.6% in the case of Njavara in D₄ (Zn foliar spray treatment), in D₂ (AMF treatment), in D₃ (seed treatment) respectively in shoot weight under open field compared to D₄ (without treatment). There was an increase of 38.1%, 14.9% and 24.1% in the case of Uma and 27.5%, 13.3% and 20.4% in the case of Njavara in D₁, D₂ and D₃ respectively in shoot weight under polyhouse compared to D4 There was an increase of 28.2%, 2% and 6.2% in the case of Uma and 23.2%, 14.5%, 16.6% in the case of Njavara in D₁, D₂ and D₃ respectively in shoot weight under OTC compared to D₄ (without treatment) (Table5.) (Fig.5).

Krishnan *et al.* (2007) has utilized two popular models of rice growth ORYZA1 and INFOCROP rice are used in a study. Prior to their use, both were evaluated and compared and then these crop models were calibrated for the Indica variety IR 36. The rice-growing regions included for the present study lie in eastern India, and these sites (Bhubaneswar, Chinsurah, Cuttack, Faizabad, Jabalpur, Jorhat, Kalyani, Pusa, Raipur and Ranchi). At the CO₂ levels tested under OTC (700 ppm), both the models predicted the declining yields of rice due to an increase in temperature. At the ambient CO₂ level (considered at 380 ppm), ORYZA predicted a mean change of -7.20% in yields for every 1°C increase in temperature, while INFOCROP predicted -6.66%. But increasing CO₂ concentration (700 ppm) resulted in the increase of 30.37 and 56.37% in yield by ORYZA and INFOCROP, respectively without any increment in temperature. However, with temperature increase of +4°C above ambient level, the differences in the yield predictions by the two models were -23.59% and -17.35% respectively.

A FACE experiment by Wang *et al.* (2018) was conducted in high-yield japonica rice (NJ9108) crop was grown under eCO₂ (200 μ mol mol⁻¹ above the canopy of the ambient plot) where the daily mean air temperature was 33°C and for ambient plot the daily mean air temperatue was 29°C. As the daily mean air temperature exceeded 33°C during the panicle initiation stage there was a decrease in grain yield (1100.3 gm⁻²) relative to the grain yield of ambient plot (1145.2 gm⁻²).

In the present study, the observations were in coincidence with above studies. As the temperature has exceeded beyond the daily mean air temperature during grain filling stage there was chaffiness in the panicles of OTC because of which there was no possibility of recording the yield parameters and quality parameters of grain in OTC.

5.2 EFFECT OF ELEVATED CO₂ ON PHYSIOLOGICAL AND BIOCHEMICAL PARAMETERS:

In this study, various physiological and biochemical parameters such as total chlorophyll content, total soluble protein content, total reducing sugars content, photosynthetic rate, transpiration rate, stomatal conductance were studied in the two rice genotypes and this section explains the basis of results obtained along with similar studies.

The total chlorophyll content of leaves in active tillering stage was significantly high under elevated CO₂ levels relative to the control plants that were maintained in ambient condition. Highest chlorophyll content was recorded in plants under Polyhouse condition (2.33 mg g⁻¹ fresh weight) followed by those under OTC (2.18 mg g⁻¹ fresh weight) and control plants (2.06 mg g⁻¹ fresh weight). Similarly, the total chlorophyll content of leaves in grain filling stage has also shown significant difference at different CO₂ levels by the control plants. Highest chlorophyll content was observed in plants kept in OTC (1.805 mg g⁻¹ fresh weight) followed by those in the Polyhouse (1.803 mg g⁻¹ fresh weight) and then by the control plants (1.684 mg g⁻¹ fresh weight).

The photosynthetic rate of leaves at active tillering stage has shown significant difference among the control plants kept under different CO₂ levels without any Zinc treatment (D4). The highest photosynthetic rate was recorded in plants kept in OTC (27 μ mol CO $_2$ m⁻²s⁻¹) followed by those in the Polyhouse (20.9 μ mol CO $_2$ m⁻²s⁻¹) and then by the control plants (12.7 μ mol CO $_2$ m⁻²s⁻¹). The influence of CO₂ levels and varieties on photosynthetic rate of leaves at grain filling stage was similar to that at the active tillering stage. The highest photosynthetic rate was recorded in OTC (17.6 μ mol CO $_2$ m⁻²s⁻¹) followed by Polyhouse (13 μ mol CO $_2$ m⁻²s⁻¹) and then by the control plants (9.7 μ mol CO $_2$ m⁻²s⁻¹).

In the case of stomatal conductance, the control plants that were grown without any treatment (D4) have responded significantly to the different CO₂ levels with respect to stomatal conductance at active tillering stage. Highest stomatal conductance was recorded in open field condition (380.4 mmol H₂O m⁻²s⁻¹) followed by polyhouse (304.6 mmol H₂O m⁻²s⁻¹) and OTC (277.2 mmol H₂O m⁻²s⁻¹). The influence of CO₂ levels and varieties on stomatal conductance of leaves at grain filling stage was similar to that at the active tillering stage. Highest stomatal conductance was recorded in open field condition (380.4 mmol H₂O m⁻²s⁻¹) followed by polyhouse (304.6 mmol H₂O m⁻²s⁻¹) and OTC (277.2 mmol H₂O m⁻²s⁻¹) followed by polyhouse (304.6 mmol H₂O m⁻²s⁻¹) and OTC (277.2 mmol H₂O m⁻²s⁻¹) followed by polyhouse (304.6 mmol H₂O m⁻²s⁻¹) and OTC (277.2 mmol H₂O m⁻²s⁻¹).

Wang *et al.* (2020a) conducted a CO₂ enrichment experiment in rice. Early rice cv. Liangyou 287 and late rice cv. Xiangfengyou 9 were grown in OTC (60 μ mol mol⁻¹ above ambient concentration). Elevated CO₂ stimulated photosynthetic rate at tillering and heading satge in both early rice and late rice cultivars, showing an average increase of 9.4 % in photosynthetic rate compared with ambient CO₂. At maturity, photosynthetic rate decreased by 8.4 % under the eCO₂ treatment, indicating that the stimulation effect on leaf photosynthesis induced by eCO₂ completely vanished by maturity. Elevated CO₂ reduced stomatal conductance (g_s) by 9.0 % in both early rice and late rice cultivars compared with ambient CO₂. Elevated CO₂ tended to increase leaf chlorophyll content at pre-heading stages. At post-heading stages, eCO₂ showed no significant impact at milking stage but decreased at maturity, as shown by a decrease of 9.8 % compared with ambient CO₂ concentration.

An experiment was done on the reproductive physiology of tomato variety Vellayani Vijay using OTC at the Department of Plant Physiology, College of Agriculture, Vellayani, Thiruvananthapuram, Kerala with eCO₂ concentration of 500 ppm. Higher values for total chlorophyll content (1.74 mg g⁻¹) was observed relative to ambient CO₂ condition (Ajay, 2019).

The results of the present study are in agreement with Wang *et al.* (2020a). In this study, there was an enhancement in the total chlorophyll content under eCO₂ by 6.3% under OTC and 13.7% under Polyhouse compared to Open field condition. Increasing levels of CO₂ can lead to increased efficiency of PS II and also reduced risk of damage caused to PSII by oxidative stress and a better chlorophyll status (Wang *et al.*, 2015).

Among the treatments, D1 (Foliar spray) has shown highest total chlorophyll content. Zinc being a structural and catalytic component of proteins and enzymes and also as a co-factor plays a very vital role in pigment biosynthesis (Balashouri, 1995). There was an increase of 6.9%, 6.1% and 5.5% in the case of Uma and 4.4%, 34.6% and 12.7% in the case of Njavara in D1 (Zn foliar spray treatment), in D2 (AMF treatment), in D3 (seed treatment) respectively in total chlorophyll content under open field compared to D4 (without treatment). There was an increase of 5.4%, 4.03% and 2.01% in the case of Uma and 31%, 8.6% in the case of Njavara in D1 (Zn foliar spray treatment), in D2 (AMF treatment), in D3 (seed treatment) respectively in total chlorophyll content under polyhouse compared to D4 (without treatment). There was an increase of 4.03%, 0.7% and 0.7% in the case of Uma and 20%, 2.3%, 17% in the case of Njavara in D1 (Zn foliar spray treatment), in D3 (seed treatment) respectively in total chlorophyll content under polyhouse compared to D4 (without treatment). There was an increase of 4.03%, 0.7% and 0.7% in the case of Uma and 20%, 2.3%, 17% in the case of Njavara in D1 (Zn foliar spray treatment), in D2 (AMF treatment), in D3 (seed treatment) respectively in total chlorophyll content under D1 (Zn foliar spray treatment), in D2 (AMF treatment), in D3 (seed treatment) at active tillering stage (Table6) (Fig.6).

The total chlorophyll content was increased at grain filling stage under eCO₂ by 7.19% under OTC and 7.07% under Polyhouse compared to Open field condition. Among the treatments, D₁ (Foliar spray) has shown highest total chlorophyll content. There was an increase of 2.9%, 1.4% and 2.14% in the case of Uma and 2.7%, 15.1% and 8.11% in the case of Njavara in D₁ (Zn foliar spray treatment), in D₂ (AMF

treatment), in D₃ (seed treatment) respectively in total chlorophyll content under open field compared to D₄ (without treatment). There was an increase of 6.3%, 6.3% and 4.23% in the case of Uma and 4%, 11.4% and 8% in the case of Njavara in D₁ (Zn foliar spray treatment), in D₂ (AMF treatment), in D₃ (seed treatment) respectively in total chlorophyll content under polyhouse compared to D₄ (without treatment). There was an increase of 2.7%, 2.03% and 1.4% in the case of Uma and 8.7%, 6.2%, 2% in the case of Njavara in D₁ (Zn foliar spray treatment), in D₂ (AMF treatment), in D₃(seed treatment) respectively in total chlorophyll content under OTC compared to D₄(without treatment). However, the total chlorophyll content was lowered at grain filling stage than at active tillering stage. This might be because of senescence in leaves at later stages (Melati *et al.*, 2016) (Table.7) (Fig.7). Responses of plants to eCO₂ are much greater at early vegetative stages when compared to later stages Senewera *et al.*, 2003).

The photosynthetic rate in the present study also revealed that there was an enhancement under eCO₂ by 112.6% under OTC and 64.6% under Polyhouse compared to Open field condition at active tillering stage and at grain filling stage there was an increase of 81.4% under OTC and 34.02% under Polyhouse relative to open field condition. The stimulation of photosynthesis was obvious under eCO₂ at early growth stages, such as tillering stage. CO₂ is a substrate for photosynthesis and so its increased availability can increase the velocity of carboxylation and simultaneously suppresses photorespiration (Long, 1991; Drake *et al.*, 1997). Influence of Zn treatments on photosynthetic rate was not significant and varieties did not vary significantly to different CO₂ concentrations. However, the photosynthetic rate was lowered at grain filling stage than at active tillering stage (Table.12&13) (Fig.12&13). Leaf senescence and low chlorophyll content could explain the disappearance of CO₂ stimulation at later stages of rice plant.

Stomatal conductance was decreased under eCO₂ by 27.13% under OTC and 19.9% under Polyhouse compared to open field condition at active tillering stage and at grain filling stage there was an increase of 26.07% under OTC and 5.9% under Polyhouse relative to open field condition. Responses to Zn treatment and varietal performances did not vary significantly under different CO₂ levels (Table.16&17)

(Fig.16&17). Elevated CO₂ induced partial closure of stomatal closure (Shimono *et al.*, 2010; Cai *et al.*, 2018) which might have led to decreased stomatal conductance in this study.

The transpiration rate of leaves at active tillering and grain filling stage was significantly low under elevated CO₂ levels relative to the control plants that were maintained in ambient condition. Highest transpiration rate at active tillering stage was recorded in Open field condition (4.4 mmol H₂O m⁻²s⁻¹) followed by Polyhouse (3.4 mmol H₂O m⁻²s⁻¹) and OTC (2.4 mmol H₂O m⁻²s⁻¹). Highest transpiration rate at grain filling stage was recorded in Open field condition (3.2 mmol H₂O m⁻²s⁻¹) followed by Polyhouse (2.1 mmol H₂O m⁻²s⁻¹) and OTC (1.8 mmol H₂O m⁻²s⁻¹).

A study was conducted by Imai and Okamoto-Sato (1991) in rice (*Oryza sativa* L. cv. Nipponbare) under eCO₂ with CO₂ controllers (Fuji model ZEP-6). The ambient CO₂ concentration was 350 μ mol mol⁻¹ and eCO₂ concentration was 500 μ mol mol⁻¹. The transpiration rate was decreased under eCO₂ (1.8) relative to ambient CO₂ condition (1.9) (Table.14&15) (Fig.14&15).

An experiment was conducted under eCO₂ in OTC (500 ppm) on black pepper varieties viz. Panniyur 1, Panniyur 5 and Karimunda at the Department of Plant Physiology, College of Agriculture, Vellayani, Thiruvananthapuram, Kerala. The transpiration rate was decreased under eCO₂ (0.72 mmol H₂O m⁻² s⁻¹) in all varieties compared to ambient CO₂ condition (Minu *et al.*, 2015).

The present study has also shown decrease in transpiration rate under eCO₂ by 45.5% under OTC and 22.7% under Polyhouse compared to open field condition at active tillering stage and at grain filling stage there was an increase of 43.8% under OTC and 34.4% under Polyhouse relative to open field condition. Responses to Zn treatment and varietal performances did not vary significantly under different CO₂ levels (Table.10&11) (Fig.10&11). In the present experiment, the direct cause for the decrease of transpiration rate was ascribed to the sensitive stomatal closure in the plants (Akitha and Tanaka, 1973). Elevated CO₂ levels have also been mentioned as the ideal antitranspirant (Carlson *et al.*, 1979). Similar results were reported by other researchers (Credyt *et al.*, 2019; Pan *et al.*, 2020; Padhy *et al.*, 2020).

In the case of total soluble protein, there was significant difference among the control plants which were maintained without any treatment (D4) under different CO₂ levels in terms of total soluble protein at active tillering stage. Highest total soluble protein was recorded in Open field condition (3.1 mg g^{-1}) followed by polyhouse (1.1 mg g⁻¹) and OTC (0.8 mg g⁻¹) systems. Similar trend was observed at grain filling stage also. Highest total soluble protein at grain filling stage was recorded in Open field condition (7.1 mg g⁻¹) followed by Polyhouse (5.9 mg g⁻¹) and OTC (4.0 mg g⁻¹).

A study was conducted in rice variety CO 51 in different conditions i.e., ambient CO₂condition (400±9 ppm), OTC+ ambient CO₂ condition (400±9 ppm) and OTC+ eCO₂ (550 ppm). The increase in total soluble protein content was observed from tillering stage to the heading stage and a gradual decrease towards the grain filling stage. The highest soluble protein content (5.07, 8.03 and 7.11 mg g⁻¹) was observed in ambient condition at 30, 60 and 85 DAT followed by OTC + ambient CO₂ (4.95, 7.29 and 6.74 mg g⁻¹) and the lowest was registered in OTC + elevated CO₂ (4.52, 6.98 and 6.24 mg g⁻¹) (Vinothini *et al.*, 2019).

The present study was also showing similar result in total soluble protein content in leaves at active tillering stage which was decreased under eCO₂ by 74.2% under OTC and 64.5% under Polyhouse compared to Open field condition. Exposure of plants to eCO₂ results in acclimation of photosynthesis with down-guideline of the degree of Rubisco protein. This coarse control of the degree of Rubisco protein serves to improve CO₂ acquiring with use of the fixed carbon. Notwithstanding coarse control of Rubisco protein, there are fine controls, which react quickly to changes in the atmosphere. In such manner, two important components are known to manage Rubisco action. One includes the reversible carboxylation of lysine buildup within the dynamic site to actuate the enzyme, while the different operates by the reversible binding of 2-carboxyarabinitol-1 phosphate, the Rubisco dark inhibitor, to the carboxylate site (Zhu *et al.*, 2018). This diminishing total soluble protein content may reflect a general decrease of leaf protein due to reallocation of nitrogen inside the plants.

Among the treatments, D₁ (Foliar spray) has shown highest total soluble protein content. Zn is a constituent of RNA polymerase enzyme associated with N metabolism. Low Zn levels lowers activity of RNA polymerase leading to the loss of structural integrity of ribosomes and degradation of RNA. This lowered activity of RNA polymerase inhibits protein synthesis leading to accumulation of amino acid (Gonzalez et al., 2018). Zn is needed as structural and catalytic constituent of protein and enzymes for standard growth and development (Broadley et al., 2007) which might have led to enhanced protein content with zinc supply. There was an increase of 4%, 1.3% and 3% in the case of Uma and 3.6%, 1.9% and 2.9% in the case of Njavara in D1 (Zn foliar spray treatment), in D2 (AMF treatment), in D3 (seed treatment) respectively in total soluble protein content under open field compared to D4 (without treatment). There was an increase of 35.4%, 24% and 16.7% in the case of Uma and 10%, 0.91% and 1.9% in the case of Njavara in D1 (Zn foliar spray treatment), in D2 (AMF treatment), in D₃ (seed treatment) respectively in total soluble protein content under polyhouse compared to D4 (without treatment). There was an increase of 32.3%, 10.8% and 23.08% in the case of Uma and 21.05%, 6.6%, 18.4% in the case of Njavara in D₁ (Zn foliar spray treatment), in D₂ (AMF treatment), in D₃(seed treatment) respectively in total soluble protein content under OTC compared to D4 (without treatment) (Table.8) (Fig.8).

The total soluble protein content at grain filling stage was also decreased under eCO₂ by 43.66% under OTC and 16.9% under Polyhouse compared to Open field condition. Among the treatments, D₁ (Foliar spray) has shown highest total soluble protein content. There was an increase of 0.4%, 0.14% and 0.85% in the case of Uma and 1.3%, 1.9% and 1.3% in the case of Njavara in D₁ (Zn foliar spray treatment), in D₂ (AMF treatment), in D₃ (seed treatment) respectively in total soluble protein content under open field compared to D₄ (without treatment). There was an increase of 4.1%, 6% and 0.3% in the case of Uma and 2.7%, 4.2% and 1.7% in the case of Njavara in D₁ (Zn foliar spray treatment), in D₂ (AMF treatment) respectively in total soluble protein content under open field compared to D₄ (without treatment). There was an increase of 4.1%, 6% and 0.3% in the case of Uma and 2.7%, 4.2% and 1.7% in the case of Njavara in D₁ (Zn foliar spray treatment), in D₂ (AMF treatment), in D₃ (seed treatment). There was an increase of 10.08%, 6.5% and 9.8% in the case of Uma and 13.5%, 3.17%, 5.8% in the case of Njavara in D₁ (Zn foliar spray

treatment), in D₂ (AMF treatment), in D₃(seed treatment) respectively in total soluble protein content under OTC compared to D₄ (without treatment) (Table.9) (Fig.9).

The total reducing sugars of leaves at active tillering stage was significantly high under elevated CO₂ levels relative to the control plants that were maintained in ambient condition. The highest total reducing sugar content was recorded in OTC (1.9 mg g⁻¹) followed by Polyhouse (1.3 mg g⁻¹) and then by the control plants (1.2 mg g⁻¹). The total reducing sugars of leaves at grain filling stage was also significantly high under elevated CO₂ levels relative to the control plants that were maintained in ambient condition. The highest total reducing sugar content was observed in OTC (6.3 mg g⁻¹) followed by those in Polyhouse (4.3 mg g⁻¹) and then by the control plants (2.9 mg g⁻¹).

A study conducted by Aranjuelo *et al.* (2015), revealed that increased photosynthesis rate under eCO₂ resulted in more production of sugars including glucose, fructose and raffinose across a range of crop plants.

The present study also was showing similar trend in total reducing sugars content in leaves at active tillering stage which was increased under eCO₂ by 58.3% under OTC and 8.3% under Polyhouse compared to Open field condition. Increased levels of CO₂ increases photosynthetic rate which is accompanied with the rise in sink capacity that is associated with the accumulation of higher no. of end products of photosynthesis within in the leaves. Higher sink plasticity and sink potential in the genotypes were associated with higher sugar synthesis in plants (McKinley *et al.*, 2018). It can even be expected that at eCO₂, plant shoot apex activity in terms of cell division rates and branching could increase at the tillering stage. This might cause enhanced photosynthesis leading to production of higher amounts of carbohydrates compared to ambient conditions (Jitla *et al.*, 1997).

Among the treatments, D₁ (Foliar spray) has shown highest total reducing sugars content. Zn is a cofactor of carbonic anhydrase enzyme. Carbonic anhydrase functions in fixation of photosynthetic CO₂ by elevating CO₂ concentration in chloroplast, catalysing conversion of CO₂ and water into bicarbonates and helping in transport and distribution of CO₂ through plasma membrane and chloroplast

(Gonzalez *et al.*, 2018). There was an increase of 13.3%, 3.5% and 4.4% in the case of Uma and 10.9%, 4.6% and 7.2% in the case of Njavara in D₁ (Zn foliar spray treatment), in D₂ (AMF treatment), in D₃ (seed treatment) respectively in total reducing sugar content under open field compared to D₄ (without treatment). There was an increase of 25.6%, 26.2% and 24.4% in the case of Uma and 32.2%, 3.5% and 6.09% in the case of Njavara in D₁ (Zn foliar spray treatment), in D₂ (AMF treatment) respectively in total reducing sugar contents under polyhouse compared to D₄ (without treatment). There was an increase of 27.6%, 3.8% and 8.7% in the case of Uma and 36.4%, 23.03%, 1.21% in the case of Njavara in D₁ (Zn foliar spray treatment), in D₃ (seed treatment), in D₂ (AMF treatment), in D₃ (seed treatment), in D₄ (without treatment), in D₄ (without treatment).

The total reducing sugars content at grain filling stage was also showing similar trend under eCO₂. It was increased by 117.24% under OTC and 48.28% under Polyhouse compared to Open field condition. Among the treatments, D₁ (Foliar spray) has shown highest total reducing sugars content. There was an increase of 39%, 12.9% and 23.3% in the case of Uma and 43.4%, 15.3% and 29% in the case of Njavara in D₁ (Zn foliar spray treatment), in D₂ (AMF treatment), in D₃ (seed treatment) respectively in total reducing sugars content under open field compared to D₄ (without treatment). There was an increase of Njavara in D₁ (Zn foliar spray treatment), in D₃ (seed treatment), in D₂ (AMF treatment), in D₂ (AMF treatment), in total reducing sugars content of Njavara in D₁ (Zn foliar spray treatment), in D₃ (seed treatment) respectively in total reducing sugars compared to D₄ (without treatment). There was an increase of Uma and 6.6%, 3.4%, 3.9% in the case of Njavara in D₁ (Zn foliar spray treatment), in D₃ (seed treatment), in D₃ (seed treatment) respectively in total reducing sugars content under OTC compared to D₄ (without treatment) respectively in total reducing sugars content under OTC compared to D₄ (without treatment) respectively in total reducing sugars content under OTC compared to D₄ (without treatment) respectively in total reducing sugars content under OTC compared to D₄ (without treatment) respectively in total reducing sugar content under OTC compared to D₄ (without treatment) (Table.9) (Fig.9).

5.3 EFFECT OF ELEVATED CO₂ ON ZINC DYNAMICS IN RICE:

In this study, parameters related to zinc dynamics such as zinc content in leaf and shoot were analyzed.

Zinc is an essential trace mineral that people need to stay healthy. It is present in the cells throughout the body which is required for the defensive system of the body to properly work that plays a vital role in cell division, cell growth, wound healing, and the breakdown of carbohydrates. During pregnancy, infancy and childhood the zinc is crucial for the body to grow and develop properly.

Global CO₂ emissions continue to rise recording 405 ppm atmospheric CO₂ in 2017 (Dlugokencky and Tans, 2018). One of the consequential impacts of increasing CO₂ concentration is on food security (Field *et al.*, 2014). Since CO₂ is a substrate for photosynthesis, its increasing concentration in the atmosphere can enhance accumulation of carbohydrates in plants leading to increase in crop productivity but several studies reported reduction in grain quality of cereals and pulses affecting human health (Myers *et al.*, 2014).

Since CO₂ is a substrate for photosynthesis, its increasing concentration in the atmosphere can enhance accumulation of carbohydrates in plants which can lead to "dilution effect" resulting in decreased content of Zn (Ujjie *et al*., 2019).

Zinc transfers from roots to shoots, predominantly with the transpiration stream Wu *et al.*, 2010). Zn accumulation in economic parts of plant is not only related to root uptake but also depends on internal redistribution and remobilization of stored Zn within the plants (Palmgren *et al.*, 2008). The only vascular tissue to reach the developing grain is the phloem (Patrick *et al.*, 2001). In the developing seed, nutrients have to quit the xylem at some stage during long-distance transport and become actively loaded into the phloem. Increase in CO₂ lower the expression of transporter genes like Os ZIP5, Os ZIP3, Zn transporter precursor reducing retranslocation to panicle at grain-filling stage (Ujjie *et al.*, 2019).

The results of the present study give strong evidence for the influence of CO₂ levels on Zinc status of plant tissues. Here, zinc contents of plants were found to be

significantly different under different CO₂ conditions. Zinc content in leaf was decreasing with increasing CO₂ levels and the zinc content in leaf was highest under Open field condition (23.68 μ g g⁻¹) followed by those under Polyhouse (23.31 μ g g⁻¹) and OTC (23.29 μ g g⁻¹). The shoot Zinc content was also found to be significantly influenced by CO₂ concentration in the growing environment. The highest value for zinc content in shoot was recorded under Open field condition (23 μ g g⁻¹) followed by those under OTC (22.8 μ g g⁻¹) and then by the Polyhouse (22.6 μ g g⁻¹).

A study was conducted by Wang *et al.* (2020b) in rice crop (*Oryza sativa* L. cv., Changyou No.5) in FACE facility with eCO₂ of 500 ppm and ambient CO₂ of 410 ppm. In this study the grain Zn content decreased by 5.8% under eCO₂ relative to ambient CO₂ condition.

In the present study, the result of zinc content analyzed in leaf and stem is in agreement with the previous study which has shown decrement under eCO₂. When the plants were treated with zinc supplements the zinc content was increased compared to untreated plants under eCO₂.

Among the treatments, D1 (Foliar spray) has shown higher zinc content in leaf followed by D3 (seed treated), D2 (AMF treated) and D4 (No treatment) in the respective conditions. There was an increase of 21.1%, 12.2%, 13.6% (Uma) and17.1%, 13.2%, 16.6% (Njavara) in D1 (Zn foliar spray treatment), in D2 (AMF treatment), in D3 (seed treatment) respectively in zinc content of leaf under open field compared to D4 (without treatment). There was an increase of 36.6%, 27.4%, 29.5% (Uma) and 38%, 31.5%, 35.3% (Njavara) in D1 (Zn foliar spray treatment), in D2 (AMF treatment), in D3 (seed treatment) respectively in zinc content of leaf under open field compared to D4 (without treatment) respectively in zinc content of leaf under open field compared to D4 (without treatment) respectively in zinc content of leaf under open field under polyhouse compared to D4 (without treatment). There was an increase of 52%, 45.5%, 48.5% (Uma) and 48.3%, 46%, 44.9% (Njavara) in D1 (Zn foliar spray treatment), in D2 (AMF treatment), in D3 (seed treatment) respectively in zinc content of leaf under open field under polyhouse compared to D4 (without treatment). There was an increase of 52%, 45.5%, 48.5% (Uma) and 48.3%, 46%, 44.9% (Njavara) in D1 (Zn foliar spray treatment), in D2 (AMF treatment), in D3 (seed treatment) respectively in zinc content of leaf under of 2 (AMF treatment), in D3 (seed treatment) respectively in zinc content of leaf under of 2 (AMF treatment), in D3 (seed treatment) respectively in zinc content of leaf under OTC compared to D4 (without treatment) (Table.18) (Fig.18).

Similarly, in rice shoot also D_1 (Foliar spray) has shown higher zinc content followed by D_3 (seed treated), D_2 (AMF treated) and D_4 (No treatment) in the respective conditions. There was an increase of 17.3%, 9.1%, 14.4% (Uma) and 20.4%, 3.8%, 11.4% (Njavara) in D_1 (Zn foliar spray treatment), in D_2 (AMF

treatment), in D₃ (seed treatment) respectively in zinc content of stem under open field compared to D₄ (without treatment).There was an increase of 29.4%, 29.94%, 30.5% (Uma) and 43.1%, 32.3%, 32.9% (Njavara) in D₁ (Zn foliar spray treatment), in D₂ (AMF treatment), in D₃ (seed treatment) respectively in zinc content of stem under polyhouse compared to D₄ (without treatment). There was an increase of 52%, 47.9%, 46.1% (Uma) and 56.6%, 46.9%, 44% (Njavara) in D₁ (Zn foliar spray treatment), in D₂ (AMF treatment), in D₃ (seed treatment) respectively in zinc content of stem under OTC compared to D₄ (without treatment) (Table.19) (Fig.19).

The result of present study indicated that zinc dynamics was improved with the zinc enrichment techniques. Foliar spray with 0.5% ZnSO4 was found to be the most effective treatment in improving Zinc status in rice varieties Uma and Njavara. Foliar applied Zn is easily taken up and transferred through phloem as per the research conducted in wheat variety Aroona to test the extent of Zn applied foliarly for their suitability to render sufficient Zn nutrition in the food supply (Haslett *et al.*, 2001).

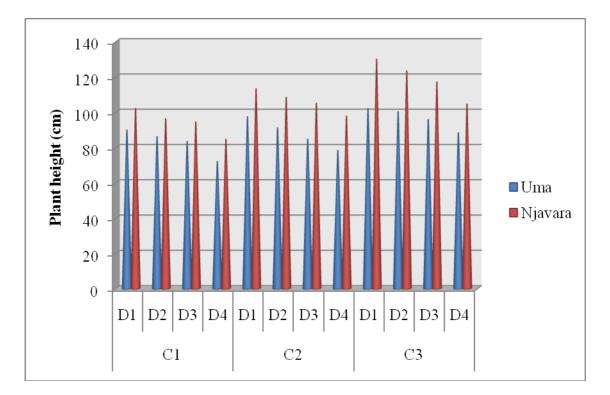
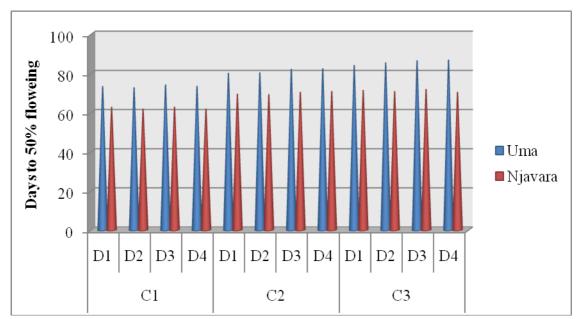


Figure 1. Effect of elevated CO₂ and zinc treatments on plant height (cm) of rice:

Figure2. Effect of elevated CO₂ and zinc treatments on days to 50% flowering ofrice:



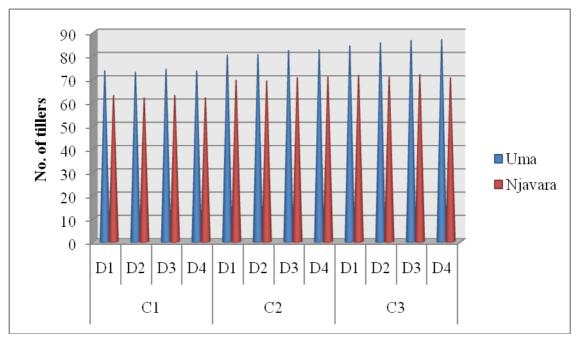
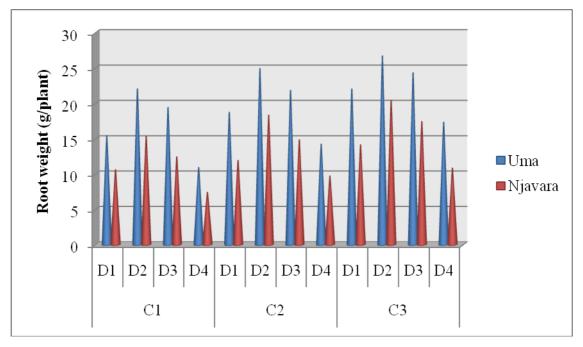


Figure3. Effect of elevated CO₂ and zinc treatments on No. of tillers of rice:

Figure4. Effect of elevated CO₂ and zinc treatments on root weight (g/plant) of rice:



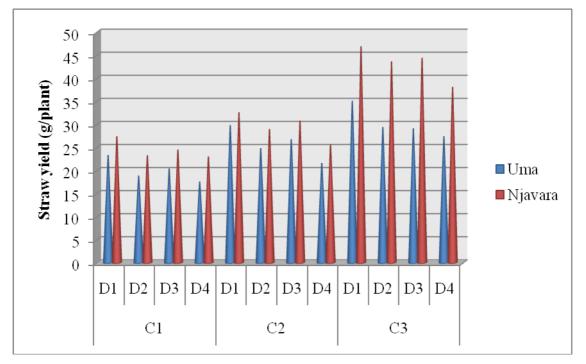


Figure 5. Effect of elevated CO₂ and zinc treatments on straw yield (g/plant) of rice:

Figure6. Effect of elevated CO₂ and zinc treatments on total chlorophyll content of rice at active tillering stage (mg g⁻¹ fresh weight):

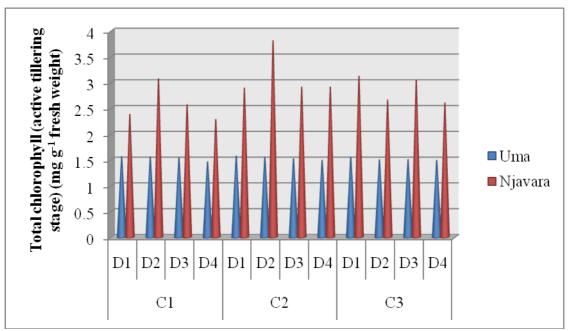


Figure 7. Effect of elevated CO₂ and zinc treatments on total chlorophyll content of rice at grain filling stage (mg g⁻¹ fresh weight):

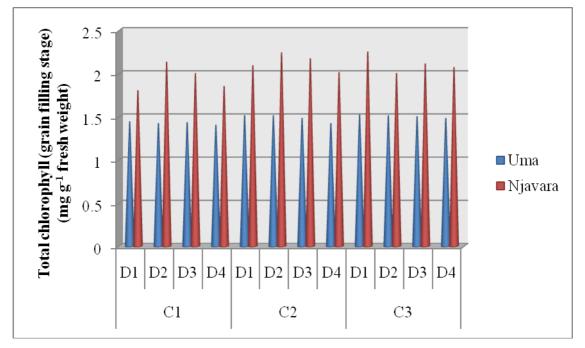


Figure8. Effect of elevated CO₂ and zinc treatments on total soluble protein content of rice at active tillering stage (mg g⁻¹):

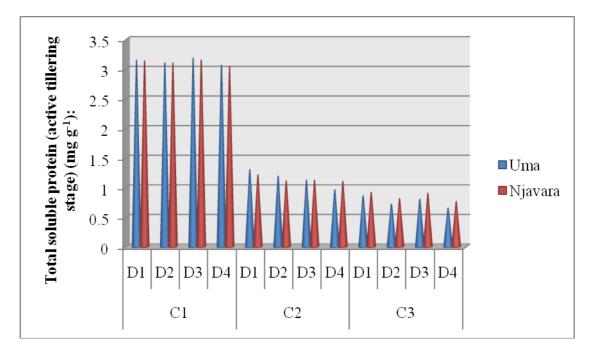


Figure9. Effect of elevated CO₂ and zinc treatments on total soluble protein content of rice at grain filling stage (mg g⁻¹):

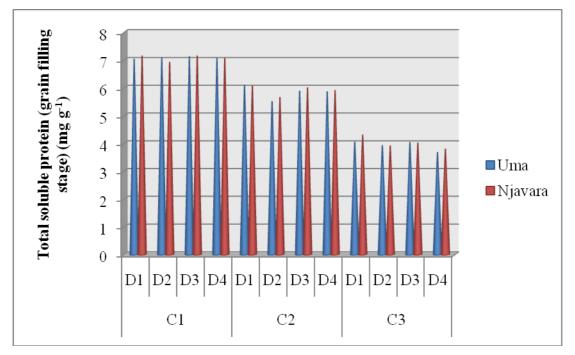


Figure 10. Effect of elevated CO₂ and zinc treatments on total reducing sugars of rice at active tillering stage (mg g⁻¹):

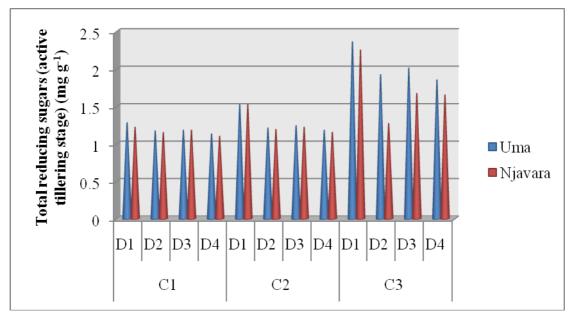


Figure 11. Effect of elevated CO₂ and zinc treatments on total reducing sugars of rice at grain filling stage (mg g⁻¹):

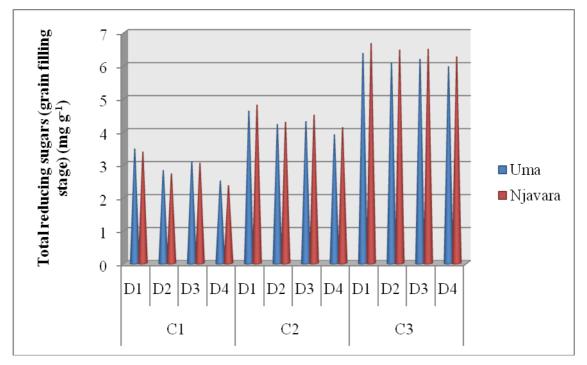


Figure 12. Effect of elevated CO_2 and zinc treatments on photosynthetic rate of rice at active tillering stage (µmol CO_2 m $^{-2}s^{-1}$):

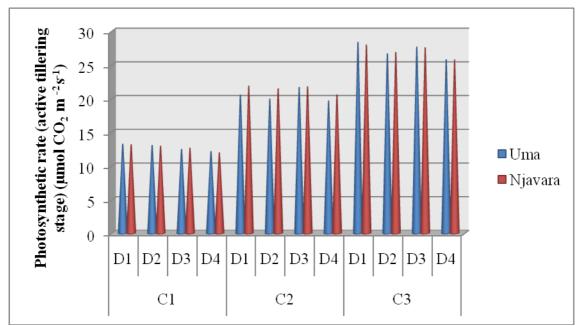


Figure13. Effect of elevated CO₂ and zinc treatments on photosynthetic rate of rice at grain filling stage (µmol CO₂ m ⁻²s⁻¹):

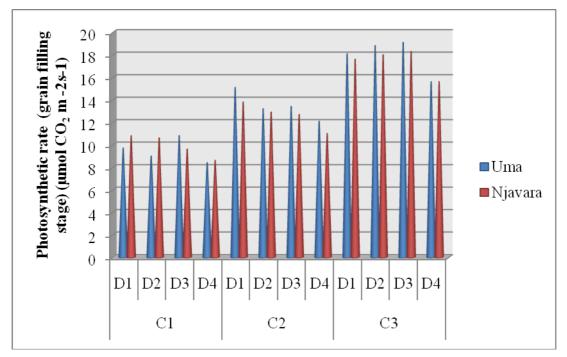


Figure14. Effect of elevated CO₂ and zinc treatments on transpiration rate of rice at active tillering stage (mmol H₂O m⁻² s⁻¹):

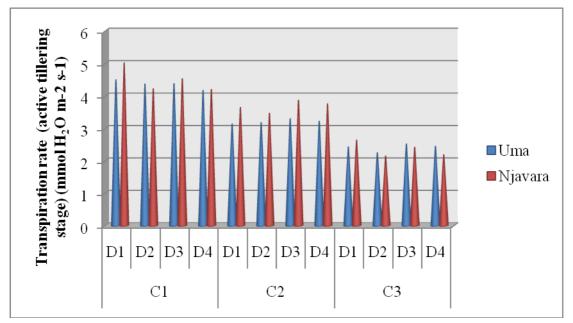


Figure15. Effect of elevated CO₂ and zinc treatments on transpiration rate of rice at grain filling stage (mmol H₂O m⁻² s⁻¹):

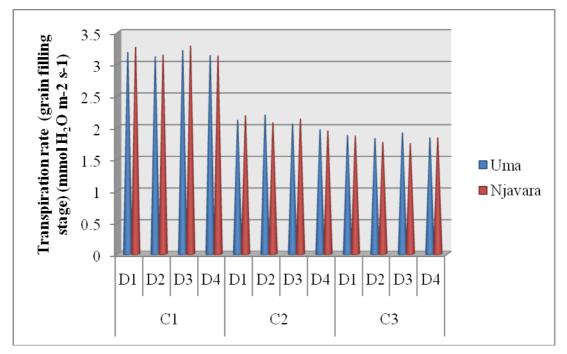


Figure16. Effect of elevated CO₂ and zinc treatments on stomatal conductance of rice at active tillering stage (mmol H₂O m⁻² s⁻¹):

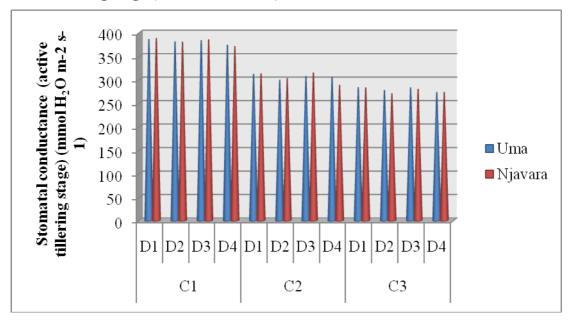


Figure15. Effect of elevated CO₂ and zinc treatments on transpiration rate of rice at grain filling stage (mmol H₂O m⁻² s⁻¹):

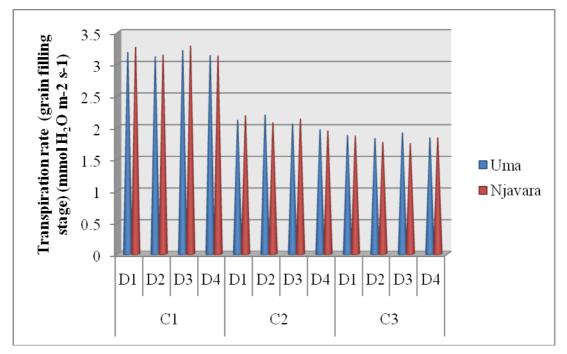
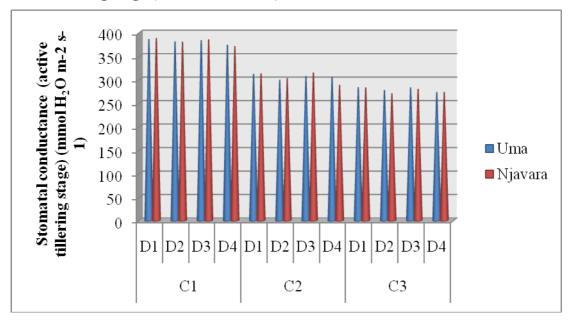


Figure16. Effect of elevated CO₂ and zinc treatments on stomatal conductance of rice at active tillering stage (mmol H₂O m⁻² s⁻¹):



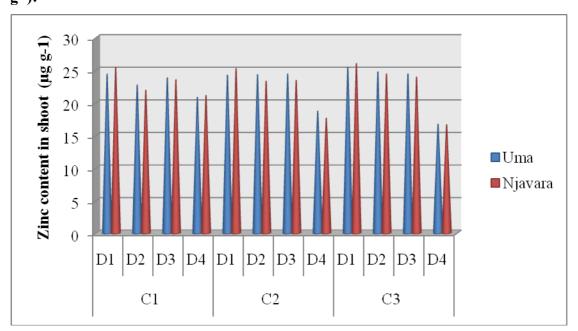
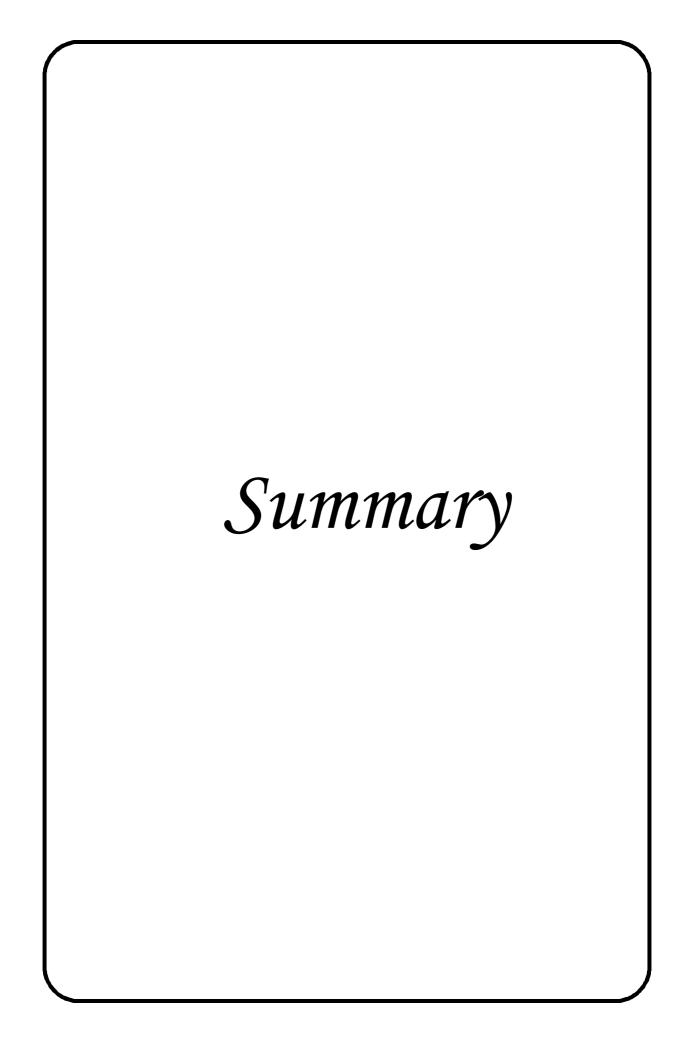


Figure19. Effect of elevated CO₂ and zinc treatments on zinc content in shoot of rice (µg g⁻¹):



6. SUMMARY

Zinc (Zn) is an essential mineral nutrient for all organisms. It is required as a cofactor in over 300 enzymes and plays critical structural roles in many proteins. Zn deficiency is known to show serious impact on human health, particularly in children, such as impairments in physical growth, immune system, learning ability and causing DNA damage and cancer development (Black *et al.*, 2008). Zn deficiency in human beings is prevalent and is envisaged to affect about 25% of the global population (Maret and Sandstead, 2006). WHO (2002) reported that Zn deficiency occupies fifth rank among the most important health risk factors in developing countries and eleventh globally.

Cereals are the major sources of Zn that are cultivated for their edible grains. Rice (*Oryza sativa* L.) is the worlds' most important cereal and staple food crop for more than half of the global population. It supplies more energy in the form of calories and is a good source of thiamine, riboflavin, and niacin and is an essential source of Zn for the poor residing in rural areas (Jiang *et al.*, 2008).

Global climate change is considered to be the most serious environmental threat that the world is facing. It has been the centre of debate among the global scientific community recently. The major factor contributing to this climate change is the increasing greenhouse gases, especially CO₂ which is contributing to global warming. Concentration of CO₂ has increased from the pre-industrial level of 300ppm to the current level of 411ppm as of June, 2019 in the atmosphere. Higher concentrations of CO₂ are generally known to stimulate plant photosynthesis and growth although, recent research suggests that predicting its impacts on plant growth and development is complex. However, information on the eCO₂ effects on nutritional quality in relation to major nutrients and therefore the health-promoting phytochemicals in food crops indicate that major nutrients in food crops including protein, phosphorus, potassium, calcium, iron, Zn and other micronutrients in many food crops are reduced at eCO₂ levels (Rajashekar, 2018). For several decades, multiple experiments examining the response of food crops in controlled indoor environments have found significant losses in the concentration of Zn important for

human health. This was also reported in the case of wheat, barley and rice grown in controlled-environment chambers (Myers *et al.*, 2014). In turn, this is able to menace human nutrition, particularly in low-resource countries where people rely on mostly on cereals for their micronutrient intake.

In this scenario, attempts are to be made to evaluate the performance of popular rice varieties of Kerala under increasing CO₂ condition and also to enrich Zn status of grains. In this context, the present study "Influence of elevated CO₂ on Zn dynamics in rice (*Oryza sativa* L.)" was undertaken with the objective of assessing the impact of eCO₂ on growth, development and nutritional quality of rice in relation to modifications in Zn dynamics.

The rice genotypes- Uma (MO16) and Njavara-golden yellow which were collected from IFRI, Karamana and RARS, Pattambi respectively were maintained under three CO₂ conditions i.e., 500 ppm in OTC (Open Top Chamber), 420 ppm under Polyhouse and 390 ppm under open field condition with four Zn enrichment treatments (D₁- Foliar spray (ZnSO4 0.5% at panicle initiation and grain filling stage); D₂-AMF (3g of AMF inoculum /cavity of protrays); D₃-Seed treatment: seed priming with 6.4% ZnSO4 for 36 hr and D4-No treatment). The experiments were laid out in CRD with 24 treatment combinations and three replications.

The experiment has shown increased physio-morphological and biochemical traits under OTC followed by Polyhouse relative to open field condition. The treatment with 0.5% ZnSO4 foliar spray (D1) recorded highest plant height (102cm), number of tillers (34) and straw yield, (35g/plant) in Uma and in Njavara the same treatment resulted in highest plant height (130cm), number of tillers (32) and straw yield (46.8g/plant). AMF treatment (D2) has recorded highest root weight both in Uma (26.7g/plant) and Njavara (20.4g/plant). The number of days to 50% flowering was increased under OTC (85 days in Uma and 71 days in Njavara) and polyhouse (80 days in Uma 69 days in Njavara) as against 72 days in Uma and 61days in Njavara under open field condition.

Physiological and biochemical parameters such as total chlorophyll content, photosynthetic rate and total reducing sugars which were recorded at active tillering

and grain filling stage were also significantly higher in the case of plants kept under OTC condition followed by those under polyhouse and control condition. OTC condition has shown highest values at active tillering stage in total chlorophyll content (2.33 mg g⁻¹ fresh weight), photosynthetic rate (27 μ mol CO 2 m⁻²s⁻¹) and total reducing sugars (1.9 mg g⁻¹). The same trend was observed in grain filling stage in total chlorophyll content (1.805 mg g^{-1} fresh weight), photosynthetic rate (17.6 μ mol CO₂ m⁻²s⁻¹) and total reducing sugars (6.3 mg g⁻¹). However the photosynthetic rate and total chlorophyll content were decreased at grain filling stage in all the three CO₂ conditions.

All the Zn treatments had significant influence on all the above parameters except photosynthetic rate. Foliar spray with 0.5% ZnSO4 (D1) recorded highest total chlorophyll content (1.52 mg g⁻¹ fresh weight), and total reducing sugars (2.25 mg g⁻¹ ¹) in Uma and 2.89mg g⁻¹ fresh weight of total chlorophyll content, 2.25 mg g⁻¹ of total reducing sugars in Njavara at active tillering stage under OTC condition. The same trend was obtained at grain filling stage, with the highest total chlorophyll content (1.57 mg g^{-1} fresh weight), and total reducing sugars (6.36 mg g^{-1}) in Uma and 2.89mg g^{-1} fresh weight of total chlorophyll content, 6.66 mg g^{-1} of total reducing sugars in Njavara.

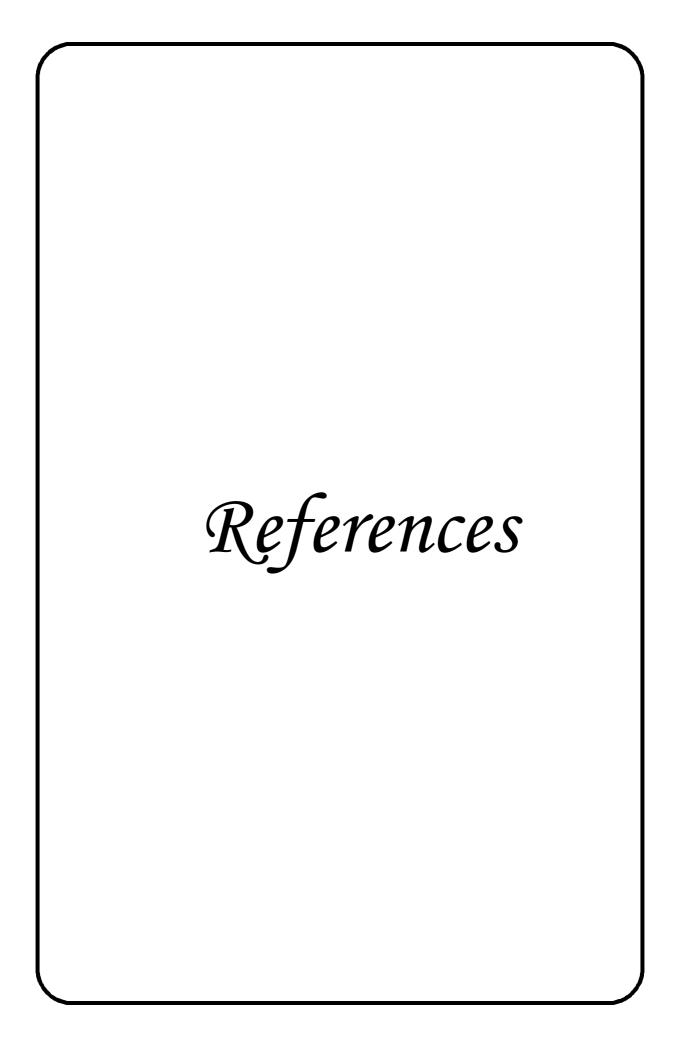
Some physiological and biochemical parameters such as total soluble protein, transpiration rate and stomatal conductance were decreased under increased levels of CO₂. At active tillering stage lowest values were recorded in total soluble protein (0.8 mg g⁻¹), transpiration rate (2.4 mmol H₂O m⁻²s⁻¹) and stomatal conductance (277.2 mmol H2O m⁻²s⁻¹) under OTC. At grain filling stage 7.1 mg g⁻¹ of total soluble protein, 1.8 mmol H₂O m⁻²s⁻¹ of transpiration rate, 226 mmol H₂O m⁻²s⁻¹ of stomatal conductance were recorded. Control plants recorded the highest total soluble protein content at active tillering stage and grain filling stage in both the varieties. The transpiration rate and stomatal conductance did not show significant response to Zn 78 treatments in both the varieties.

Yield attributes and Zn content in grain and bran were not recorded in OTC because of failure in grain development. Due to the increase in mean daily air temperature to 40°C at grain filling stage, the grains turned out to be chaffy. parameters related to Zn dynamics were analyzed in leaf and shoot under all the conditions. Decreasing levels of Zn in leaf and shoot with increasing levels of CO₂ were evident in both the varieties of rice in the present study. Though all the Zn treatments were having positive influence on Zn status, foliar application of 0.5% ZnSO4 was found to be the most effective one. The Zn content in leaf was highest in control plants with 25.8 μ g g⁻¹ in Uma and 26.1 μ g g⁻¹ in Njavara. Similarly, the Zn Uma and 26 μ g g⁻¹ in Njavara.

All the treatments used for Zn enrichment viz., foliar spray (ZnSO4 0.5% at panicle initiation and grain filling stage), AMF (3g of AMF inoculum /cavity of protrays) and seed priming with 0.64% ZnSO4 for 36 hrs were effective in improving Zn status under all the three conditions including Open Top Chamber , polyhouse and open field condition. Among them, foliar spray with 0.5% ZnSO4 resulted in best result followed by seed priming and AMF treatment.

The present investigation has shown a positive influence of increasing CO₂ concentrations on growth and dry matter accumulation in rice varieties; Uma (MO16) and Njavara-golden yellow. Increasing CO₂ concentrations was also found to modify the Zn dynamics in both the rice varieties with a negative influence on Zn contents of leaf and shoot tissues which could significantly be improved by foliar spray of 0.5% ZnSO₄ solution at panicle initiation and grain filling stages.

The information generated proposes the possibility of utilizing low-cost poly houses for maintaining moderately higher levels of CO₂ concentrations along with foliar application of ZnSO₄ for improving the yield and nutritional status of rice. The research outcome can also be helpful to standardize agricultural remedies for addressing nutritional problems associated with the increasing atmospheric CO₂ concentration. Further steps should also be taken up towards understanding modifications in Zn concentrations in different plant parts including endosperm and bran under increasing CO₂ levels. Physiological and molecular mechanisms underlying the modifications in uptake, translocation and remobilization should also be addressed for identifying the critical candidate genes and their deployment in developing high Zn rice varieties.



7. REFERENCES

- Abaid-Ullah, M., Hassan, M.N., Jamil, M., Brader, G., Shah, M.K.N., Sessitsch, and A., Hafeez, F.Y. 2015. Plant growth promoting rhizobacteria: an alternate way to improve yield and quality of wheat (*Triticum aestivum*). *Int. J. Agri. Biol.* 17: 51-60.
- Aggarwal, P. K. 2003. Impact of climate change on Indian agriculture. *Journal of Plant Biology-New Delhi*. 30(2): 189-198.
- Ainsworth, E. A., Beier, C., and Calfapietra, C. 2008. Next generation of elevated [CO2] experiments with crops: a critical investment for feeding the future world. *Plant Cell Environ.* 31: 1317–1324.
- Ainsworth, E.A. and Rogers, A. 2007. The response of photosynthesis and stomatal conductance to rising [CO₂]: mechanisms and environmental interactions. *Plant Cell Environ.* 30: 258–270.
- Ajay, L.G. 2019. Influence of CO₂ enrichment and associated high temperature on reproductive physiology of tomato (*Solanum Lycopersicum* L.). M Sc. (Ag) Thesis, Kerala Agricultural University, Vellayani, 142p.
- Akita, S. and Tanaka, I. 1973. Studies on the Mechanism of Differences in Photosynthesis among Species: IV. The differential response in dry matter production between C₃ and C₄ species to atmospheric carbon dioxide enrichment. *Jpn. J. Crop Sci.* 42(3): 288-295.
- Al-Hadeethi, I., Li, Y., Odhafa, A.K.H., Al-Hadeethi, H., Seneweera, S. and Lam, S.K. 2019. Assessment of grain quality in terms of functional group response to elevated [CO2], water, and nitrogen using a meta-analysis: Grain protein, zinc, and iron under future climate. *Ecol. Evol.* 9(13): 7425-7437.
- Alvarez, R.C.F., Prado, R.M., Souza Junior, J.P., Oliveira, R.L.L., Felisberto, G., Deus, A.C.F. and Cruz, F.J.R. 2019. Effects of foliar spraying with new zinc

sources on rice seed enrichment, nutrition and productivity. *Acta Agriculturae Scandinavica, Section B-Soil & Plant Science*. 69(6): 511-515.

- Aranjuelo, I., Erice, G., Sanz-Saez, A., Abadie, C., Gilard, F., Gil-Quintana, E., and Araus, J. L. 2015. Differential CO₂ effect on primary carbon metabolism of flag leaves in durum wheat (*Triticum durum* Desf.). *Plant Cell Environ*. 38: 2780–2794.
- Babu, V. R., Badri, J., Yadav, P.A, Bhadana, V.P., Priyanka, C., SubbaRao, L.V., Padmavati, G., Gireesh, C., and Ram T. 2015. Genealogical atlas of high yielding rice varieties released in India, ICAR-IIRR, Hyderabad, Technical Book No. 86/2015, 198 p.
- Baker J. T. 2004. Yield responses of southern US rice cultivars to CO₂ and temperature. *Agric.For. Meteorol.* 122: 129–137.
- Baker, J. T. and Allen Jr, L. H. 1993. Contrasting crop species responses to CO₂ and temperature: rice, soybean and citrus, soybean and citrus. *Vegetation* 104–105: 239–260.
- Balashouri, P. 1995. Effect of zinc on germination, growth and pigment content and phytomass of *Vigna radiata* and *Sorghum bicolor*. J. Ecobiol. 7: 109–114.
- Barea, J. M. 1991. Vesicular-arbuscular mycorrhizae as modifiers of soil fertility. Adv. S. Sci. 15: 1-40.
- Black, R. E., Allen, L. H., Bhutta, Z. A., Caulfield, L. E., De Onis, M., Ezzati, M., Mathers, C., Rivera, J. and Maternal and Child Undernutrition Study Group. 2008. Maternal and child under nutrition: global and regional exposures and health consequences. *Lancet.* 371(9608): 243-260.
- Boonchuay, P., Cakmak, I., Rerkasem, B., and Prom-U-Thai, C. 2013. Effect of different foliar zinc application at different growth stages on seed zinc concentration and its impact on seedling vigor in rice. *Soil Sci. Plant Nutr.* 59(2): 180-188.

- Bowen, G. D. 1973. Mineral nutrition of ectomycorrhizae. *Ectomycorrhizae: Their Ecology and Physiology*.151-205.
- Bowes G.1993. Facing the inevitable: Plants and increasing atmospheric CO₂. *Annu. Rev. Plant Physiol. Plant Mol. Biol.* 44: 309–332.
- Broadley, M. R., White, P. J., Hammond, J. P., Zelko, I., and Lux, A. 2007. Zinc in plants. *New phytol.* 173: 677-702.
- Cai, C., Li, G., Yang, H., Yang, J., Liu, H., Paul, C.S., and Zhu, J. 2018. Do all leaf photosynthesis parameters of rice acclimate to elevated CO₂, elevated temperature, and their combination, in FACE environments? *Glob. Change Biol.* 24: 1685–1707.
- Cai, C., Yin, X., He, S., Jiang, W., Si, C., Struik, P.C., Luo, W., Li, G., Xie, Y., Xiong, Y., and Pan, G. 2016. Responses of wheat and rice to factorial combinations of ambient and elevated CO₂ and temperature in FACE experiments. *Glob. Change Biol.* 22: 856–874.
- Cakmak, I., 2000. Possible roles of zinc in protecting plant cells from damage by reactive oxygen species. *New Phytol.* 146: 185-205.
- Cakmak, I., Kalayc. and Mkaya. Y. 2010. Biofortification and localization of zinc in wheat grain. J. Agric. Food Chem. 58(16): 9092-9102.
- Carlson, Roger W., and Fakhri A. Bazzaz. The effects of elevated CO₂ concentrations on growth, photosynthesis, transpiration, and water use efficiency of plants. In Environmental and climatic impact of coal utilization. Proceedings of a Symposium, Williamsburg, Virginia, USA, April 17-19, 1979. Singh, JJ; Deepak, A.(Editors). 609-623p. Academic Press., 1980.
- Caspar, T., Huber, S.C., and Somerville, C. 1985. Alterations in growth, photosynthesis, and respiration in a starchless mutant of *Arabidopsis thaliana* L. deficient in chloroplast phosphoglucomutase activity. *Plant Physiol.* 79: 11–17.

- Chang, H.B., Win, L.C., Huang, H.J., 2005: Zinc induced cell death in rice (*Oryza sativa* L.) roots. *Plant Growth Regul.* 46: 261-266.
- Chatti, D. and Manju, R. V. 2018. Growth parameters contributing to increased drought tolerance responses in tomato (*Solanum lycopersicum* L.) under elevated carbon dioxide. *J. Pharmacogn.Phytochem.* 7(2): 833-837.
- Cheng, W., Sakai, H., Yagi, K., and Hasegawa, T. 2009. Interactions of elevated [CO2] and night temperature on rice growth and yield. *Agric. For. Meteorol.* 149: 51-58.
- Cleland, E. E., Chuine, I., Menzel, A., Mooney, H. A., and Schwartz, M. D. 2007. Shifting plant phenology in response to global change. *Trends Ecol. Evol.* 22, 357–365.
- Creydt, M., Vuralhan-Eckert, J., Fromm, J., and Fischer, M. 2019. Effects of elevated CO₂ concentration on leaves and berries of black elder (*Sambucus nigra*) using UHPLC-ESI-QTOF-MS/MS and gas exchange measurements. *J. Plant Physiol.* 234: 71-79.
- Curtis P. and Wang X. 1998. A meta-analysis of elevated CO2 effects on woody plant mass, form, and physiology. *Oecologia* 113: 299–313.
- DaMatta, F. M., Adriana, G., Bruna, A., Marcos, S., and Buckeridge, E. 2009.
 Impacts of climate changes on crop physiology and food quality. *J. Food Res.* 34: 1-10
- De Costa, W. A. J. M., Weerakon, W. M. W., Herath, H. M. L. K., and Abeywardena, R. M. I. 2003. Response of Growth and Yield of Rice (*Oryza* sativa) to Elevated Atmospheric Carbon Dioxide in the Sub humid Zone of Srilanka. J. Agron. Crop Sci. 189: 83-95.
 - De Costa, W. A. J. M., Weerakoon, W. M. W., Herath, H. M. L. K., Amaratunga, K.S. P., and Abeywardena, R. M. I. 2006. Physiology of yield determination of rice under elevated carbon dioxide at high temperatures in a sub humid tropical climate. *Field Crops Res.* 96 : 336–347.

- Dietterich, L. H., Zanobetti, A., Kloog, I., Huybers, P., Leakey, A. D., Bloom, A. J., Carlisle, E., Fernando, N., Fitzgerald, G., Hasegawa, T. and Holbrook, N. M. 2015. Impacts of elevated atmospheric CO₂ on nutrient content of important food crops. *Scientific data* 2: p.150036.
- Directorate of Economics & Statistics. 2018. Department of agriculture, cooperation and farmers welfare, ministry of agriculture and farmers welfare, Govt of India. Available: <u>https://eands.dacnet.nic.in/</u>. [25 Nov 2019].
- Dlugokencky, D. and Tans, P. 2018. Globally averaged marine surface annual mean data.NOAA/ESRL.Available:<u>https://www.esrl</u>.noaa.gov/gmd/ccgg/trends/gl_d ata.html [03 Oct 2019].
- Drake, B.G., Gonzalez-Meler, M. A., and Long, S. P. 1997. More efficient plants: a consequence of elevated carbon dioxide? *Annu. Rev. Plant Physiol. Plant Mol. Biol.* 48: 607-640.
- Eimert, K., Wang, S.M., Lue, W.L., and Chen, J.C. 1995. Monogenic recessive mutations causing both late floral initiation and excess starch accumulation in Arabidopsis. *Plant Cell* 7: 1703–1712.
- Fernando, N., Panozzo, J., Tausz, M., Norton, R., Fitzgerald, G., and Seneweera, S. 2012. Rising atmospheric CO₂ concentration affects mineral nutrient and protein concentration of wheat grain. *Food Chem.* 133(4): 1307–1311.
- Field, Christopher B., Vicente R. Barros, D. J. Dokken, K. J. Mach, M. D. Mastrandrea, T. Eren Bilir, Mo Chatterjee. Climate Change 2014: Impacts, Adaptation, and Vulnerability. Part A: Global and Sectoral Aspects. Contribution of Working Group II to the Fifth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, CB Field and others (eds.), Cambridge, Cambridge University Press.
- Franzaring, J., Weller, S., Schmid, I., and Fangmeier, A., 2011. Growth, senescence and water use efficiency of spring oilseed rape (*Brassica napus* L. cv. Mozart)

grown in a factorial combination of nitrogen supply and elevated CO₂. *Environ. Exp. Bot.* 72: 284–296.

- Gamal, H. and Mahmoud, S. 2020. Role of Oral Zinc Supplementation in Reduction of Neonatal Morbidity and Mortality in Zagazig University Hospitals. *Zagazig University Medical Journal*, 26(1): 140-147.
- Gammoh, N.Z. and Rink, L. 2019. Zinc and the Immune System. In *Nutrition and Immunity*. pp. 127-158. Springer, Cham.
- Gao, X., Guo, H., Zhang, Q., Guo, H., Zhang, L., Zhang, C., Gou, Z., Liu, Y., Wei, J., Chen, A. and Chu, Z. 2020. Arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi (AMF) enhanced the growth, yield, fiber quality and phosphorus regulation in upland cotton (*Gossypium hirsutum* L.). *Sci. rep.* 10(1): 1-12.
- Gonzalez, J.C., Barrios D.O., Rodriguez A.H., Franco A.C.G., Hernandez L.R. and Ochoa G.R.L. 2018. Zinc metalloenzymes in plants. *Interciencia* 43: 242-248.
- Hamid, A., Haque, M, M., Khanan, M., Hossain, M. A., Karim, M. A., Khaliq, Q. A., Biswas, D. K., Gomosta, A. R., Chowdhury, A. M., and Uprety, D. C. 2003. Photosynthesis, growth and productivity of rice under elevated CO₂. *Indian J. Plant Physiol.* 8: 253-258.
- Hasegawa, T., Sakai, H., Tokida, T., Usui, Y., Nakamura, H., Wakatsuki, H., Chen, C.P., Ikawa, H., Zhang, G., Nakano, H. and Matsushima, M.Y. 2019. A highyielding rice cultivar "Takanari" shows no N constraints on CO 2 fertilization. *Frontiers in plant science*, 10: 361.
- Haslett, B.S., Reid, and R.J., Rengel, Z. 2001. Zinc mobility in wheat: uptake and distribution of zinc applied to leaves and roots. *Ann. Bot.* 87: 379- 386.
- Hatfield, J. L., Boote, K., Kimball, B. A., Ziska, L. H., Izaurralde, R. C., Ort, D., Thomson, A. M., and Wolfe, D. 2011. Climate impacts on agriculture: implications for crop production. *Agron. J.* 103, 351–370.

He, F. (2011). Bradford Protein Assay. Bio-101: e45.

- Heskel, M.A., O'Sullivan, O.S., Reich, P.B., Tjoelker, M.G., Weerasinghe, L.K., Penillard, A., Egerton, J.J., Creek, D., Bloomfield, K.J., Xiang, J., and Sinca, F. 2016. Convergence in the temperature response of leaf respiration across biomes and plant functional types. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.* 113(14): 3832-3837.
- Hippler, F.W.R., Boaretto, R.M., Quaggio, J.A., Boaretto, A.E., AbreuJunior, C.H., Mattos, J.D., 2015: Uptake and distribution of soil applied zinc by citrus trees addressing fertilizer use efficiency with 68Zn labeling. *PLoS ONE*. 10: 0116903.
- Horie, T., Baker, J. T., Nakagawa, H., Matsui, T., and Kim, H. Y. 2000. Crop ecosystem responses to climatic change: rice. In: Reddy, K.R., Hodges, H.F. (Eds.), Climate Change and Global Crop J. Genetic improvement of growth and survival at high temperature. In "Abiotic Productivity. CABI Publishing, Wallingford, Oxon, pp. 81-106.
- Imai, K. and Okamoto-Sato, M. 1991. Effects of temperature on CO₂ dependence of gas exchanges in C₃ and C₄ crop plants. *Jpn. J. Crop Sci.* 60 (1): 139-145.
- IPCC [Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change] 2007. Climate Change Impacts, Adaptation and Vulnerability. Contribution of Working Group II to the Fourth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, M.L. Parry, O.F. Canziani, J.P. Palutikof, P.J. van der Linden and C.E. Hanson, Eds., Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, UK, 976p.
- IPCC [Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change] 2014. In C. Field, V. Barros, K. Mach, & M. Mastrandrea (Eds.), Climate Change 2014– Impacts, Adaptation and Vulnerability: Contribution of working group II to the fifth assessment report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change. Cambridge, UK and New York, NY: Cambridge University

Jacobs, T. 1997. Why do plant cells divide?. The Plant Cell. 9(7):1021.

- Jagadish, S. V., Bahuguna, R. N., Djanaguiraman, M., Gamuyao, R., Prasad, P.V., and Craufurd, P.Q. 2016. Implications of high temperature and elevated CO2 on flowering time in plants. *Frontiers in plant science*, 7:913.
- Jiang, W., Struik, P. C., Van Keulen, H., Zhao, M., Jin, L. N., and Stomph, T. J. 2008. Does increased zinc uptake enhance grain zinc mass concentration in rice? *An. Appl. Biol.* 153(1): 135-147.
- Jitla, D. S., Rogers, G. S., Seneweera, S. P., Barsa ,A., Oldfield, R. J., and Conroy, J.
 P. 1997 . Accelerated early growth of rice at elevated CO₂. *Plant Physiol*. 115: 15-22.
- Johansson, J. F., Paul, L. R. and Finlay, R. D. 2004. Microbial interactions in the mycorrhizosphere and their significance for sustainable agriculture. *FEMS Microbiol. Ecol.* 48(1): 1-13.
- Johnson, S. E., Lauren, J. G., Welch, R. M. and Duxbury, J. M. 2005. A comparison of the effects of micronutrient seed priming and soil fertilization on the mineral nutrition of chickpea (*Cicerarietinum*), lentil (*Lens culinaris*), rice (*Oryza sativa* L.) and wheat (*Triticum aestivum*) in Nepal. Exper. Agric. 41(4): 427-448.
- KAU (Kerala Agricultural University) 2011. Package of Practices Recommendations: Crops (14th Ed.). Kerala Agricultural University, Thrissur, 360p.
- Kim, H, Y. 1996. Effects of elevated CO₂ concentration and high temperature on growth and yield, Ph.D. Thesis, Kyoto University, Kyoto, Japan.
- Kim, H. Y., Lieffering, M., Kobayashi, K., Okada, M., Mitchell, M. W., and Gumpertz, M. 2003a. Effects of free-air CO₂ enrichment and nitrogen supply on the yield of temperate paddy rice crops. *Field Crops Res.* 86:261–270.

- Kim, H. Y., Lieffering, M., Kobayashi, K., Okada, M., and Miura, S. 2003b. Seasonal changes in the effects of elevated CO₂ on rice at three levels of nitrogen supply: a free-air CO₂ enrichment (FACE) experiment. *Glob. Change Biol.* 9: 826–837.
- Kim, H. Y., Lieffering, M., Miura, S., Kobayashi, K., and Okada, M. 2001. Growth and nitrogen uptake of CO₂-enriched rice under field conditions. *New Phytol.* 150:223-229.
- Kim, H.Y., Lim, S.S., Kwak, J.H., Lee, D.S., Lee, S.M., Ro, H.M. and Choi, W.J. 2011. Dry matter and nitrogen accumulation and partitioning in rice (Oryza sativa L.) exposed to experimental warming with elevated CO₂. *Plant and Soil*. 342(1-2):59-71.
- Kimball, B. A. 1983. Carbon dioxide and agricultural yield- an assemblage and analysis of 430 prior observations. *Agron J.* 75(5): 779-788.
- Krishnan, P., Swain, D.K., Bhaskar, B.C., Nayak, S.K. and Dash, R.N. 2007. Impact of elevated CO₂ and temperature on rice yield and methods of adaptation as evaluated by crop simulation studies. *Agric. Ecosyst. Environ.* 122(2): 233-242.
- Leakey, A.D.B. 2009. Rising atmospheric carbon dioxide concentration and the future of C4 crops for food and fuel. *Proc. Royal Soc. Biol Sci.* 276: 2333-2343.
- Lehman, A., Veresoglou, S. D., Leifheit, E. F. and Rillig, M. C. 2014. Arbuscular mycorrhizal influence on zinc nutrition in crop plants – A meta-analysis. *Soil Biol. Biochem*.69: 123-131.
- Lieffering, M., Kim, H. Y., Kobayashi, K. and Okada, M. 2004. The impact of elevated CO₂ on the elemental concentrations of field-grown rice grains. *Field Crops Res.* 88(3): 279-286.

- Lin, T.P., Caspar, T., Somerville, C., and Preiss, J. 1988. Isolation and characterization of a starchless mutant of *Arabidopsis thaliana* L. Heynh. lacking ADP-glucose-pyrophosphorylase activity. *Plant Physiol.* 86: 1131-1135.
- Liu, S., Waqas, M.A., Wang, S.H., Xiong, X.Y., and Wan, Y.F. 2017. Effects of increased levels of atmospheric CO₂ and high temperatures on rice growth and quality. *PloS one*. *12*(11): p.e0187724.
- Loladze, I., 2002. Rising atmospheric CO₂ and human nutrition: toward globally imbalanced plant stoichiometry? *Trends Ecol. Evolut* 17(10): 457-46.
- Long, S.P., Ainsworth, E.A., Rogers, A., and Ort, D.R. 2004. Rising atmospheric carbon dioxide: plants face the future. *Ann. Rev. Plant Biol.* 55: 591–628
- Long, S.P.1991. Modification of the response of photosynthetic productivity to rising temperature by atmospheric CO₂ concentrations: has its importance been underestimated? *Plant Cell Environ.* 14: 729–739.
- Madan, P., Jagdish, S. V. K., Craufurd, P. Q., Fitzgerald, M., Lafarge, T., and Wheeler, T. R. 2012. Effect of elevated CO₂ and high temperature on seed-set and grain quality of rice. *J. Exp. Bot.* 63(10): 3843-3852.
- Madhu, M. and Hatfield, J. L. 2013. Dynamics of plant root growth under increased atmospheric carbon dioxide. *Agron. J.* 105: 657-669.
- Makino, A. and Mae, T. 1999. Photosynthesis and plant grow that elevated levels of CO₂. *Plant Cell Physiol*. 40(10): 999-1006.
- Manasa, R., Manju, R.V., Stephen, R., Viji, M.M., Beena, R. and Sreekala, G.S. 2020. Growth and Yield responses of Ginger (*Zingiber officinale Rosc.*) varieties to Elevated CO₂. *Chem. Sci. Rev. Lett.* ISSN: 2278-6783.
- Manderscheid, R. J., Bender, H. J., and Weigel, H, J. 1995. Effects of season long CO₂ enrichment on cereals. II. Nutrient concentrations and grain quality. *Agric. Ecosyst. Environ.* 54: 175 -185.

- Maret, W. and Sandstead, H.H. 2006. Zinc requirements and the risks and benefits of zinc supplementation. *Journal of trace elements in medicine and biology*. 20(1): 3-18.
- Masle, J. 2000. The effects of elevated CO₂ concentrations on cell division rates, growth patterns and blade anatomy in young wheat plants are modulated by factors related to leaf position, vernalization, and genotype. *Plant Physiol.* 122(4): 1399-1415.
- McDonald, E.P., Agrell, J. and Lindroth, R.L., 1999. CO₂ and light effects on deciduous trees: growth, foliar chemistry, and insect performance. *Oecologia*. 119(3): 389-399.
- McKinley, B. A., Casto, A. L., Rooney, W.L., and Mullet, J. E. 2018. Developmental dynamics of stem starch accumulation in *Sorghum bicolor*. *Plant Direct* 2: e00074.
- Melati, Ilyas, S., Palupi, E. R., and Susila, A. D. 2016. Growth, yield and quality of ginger from produced through early senescence. *Int. J. of Applied Sci. and Technol.* 6(1): 21–28.
- Minu, M., Manju, R. V., Stephen, R., Reshma, R. B. and Viji, M. M. 2015. Effect of CO₂ enrichment on growth and development of Black Pepper (*Piper nigrum* L.) varieties. *J. Plant Sci. Res.* 31(2): 179-182.
- Mott, K.A. and Peak, D. 2013. Testing a vapour-phase model of stomatal responses to humidity. *Plant Cell Environ*. 36: 936–944.
- Moya, T. B., Ziska, L. H., Namuco, O., and Olszy, D. 1998. Growth dynamics and genotypic variation in tropical, field-grown paddy rice (*Oryza sativa* L.) in response to increasing carbon dioxide and temperature. *Glob. Change Biol.* 4: 645–656.
- Myers, S. S., Wessells, K. R., Kloog, I., Zanobetti, A. and Schwartz, J. 2015. Effect of increased concentrations of atmospheric carbon dioxide on the global threat of zinc deficiency: a modelling study. *Lancet Glob. Health* 3(10): 639-645.

- Myers, S. S., Zanobetti, A., Kloog, I., Huybers, P., Leakey, A. D., Bloom, A. J., Carlisle, E., Dietterich, L. H., Fitzgerald, G., Hasegawa, T., and Holbrook, N. M. 2014. Increasing CO₂ threatens human nutrition. *Nature*. 510: 139-142.
- Nakagawa, H. and Horie, T. 2000. Rice response to elevated CO₂ and temperature. *Global Environ. Res.* 3: 101-113.
- NOAA [National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration]. 2020. Global monitoring laboratory, Mauna Loa, Hawaii [on line]. Available: <u>https://www.esrl.noaa.gov/gmd/ccgg/trends/</u>. [10 June 2020].
- Padhy, S.R., Bhattacharyya, P., Dash, P.K., Roy, K.S., Neogi, S., Baig, M.J., Swain, P., Nayak, A.K., and Mohapatra, T. 2020. Enhanced labile carbon flow in soilmicrobes-plant-atmospheric continuum in rice under elevated CO₂ and temperature leads to positive climate change feed-back. *Appl. Soil Ecol.* 155: 103657.
- Palmgren, M. G., Clemens, S., Williams, L. E., Kramer, U., Borg, S., Schjorring, J. K., and Sanders, D. 2008. Zinc biofortification of cereals: problems and solutions. *Trends in plant sci.* 13(9): 464-473.
- Pan, T., Wang, Y., Wang, L., Ding, J., Cao, Y., Qin, G., Yan, L., Xi, L., Zhang, J., and Zou, Z. 2020. Increased CO₂ and light intensity regulate growth and leaf gas exchange in tomato. *Physiologia Plantarum*. 168(3): 694-708.
- Panozzo, J., Walker, C., Partington, D., Neumann, N., Tausz, M., Seneweera, S., and Fitzgerald, G. 2014. Elevated carbon dioxide changes grain protein concentration and composition and compromises baking quality. A FACE study. J. Cereal Sci. 60(3): 461–470.
- Patrick, J. W. and Offler, C.E. 2001. Compartmentation of transport and transfer events in developing seeds. *J. Exp. Bot.* 52: 551–564.
- Paul, M. J. and Foyer, C. H. 2001. Sink regulation of photosynthesis. J. Plant Biol. 25: 107–114.

- Peeran, S. N. and Natanasabapathy, S. 1980. Potassium chloride pretreatment on rice seeds. *Int. Rice Res. Newsl.* 5(2): 19.
- Phuphong, P., Cakmak, I., Yazici, A., Rerkasem, B. and Prom-u-Thai, C. 2020. Shoot and root growth of rice seedlings as affected by soil and foliar zinc applications. J. Plant Nutr. 43(9): 1259-1267.
- Poorter, H. and Perez-Soba, M. 2001. The growth response of plants to elevated CO₂ under non-optimal environmental conditions. *Oecologia*. 129(1):1-20.
- Purakayastha, T. J. and Chhonkar, P. K. 2001. Influence of vesicular-arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi (*Glomus etunicatum* L.) on mobilization of zinc in wetland rice (*Oryza sativa* L.) *Biol. Fertil. Soils* 33(4): 323-327.
- Raj, A. 2014. Yield and nutrient uptake in rice with elevated temperature and carbon dioxide. M Sc. (Ag) Thesis, Indian Agricultural Research Institute, New Delhi, 95p.
- Rajashekar, C. B. 2018. Elevated CO₂ Levels Affect Phytochemicals and Nutritional Quality of Food Crops. *Am. J. Plant Sci.* 9(2): 150-162.
- Ramesh, A., Sharma, S.K., Sharma, M.P., Yadav, N., and Joshi, O.P. 2014. Inoculation of zinc solubilizing Bacillus aryabhattai strains for improved growth, mobilization and biofortification of zinc in soybean and wheat cultivated in Vertisols of central India. *App. Soil Ecol.* 73: 87-96.
- Rho, H., Doty, S.L., and Kim, S.H. 2020. Endophytes alleviate the elevated CO2dependent decrease in photosynthesis in rice, particularly under nitrogen limitation. J. Exp. Bot. 71(2): 707-718.
- Roy, K.S., Bhattacharyya, P., Neogi, S., Rao, K.S., and Adhya, T.K. 2012. Combined effect of elevated CO₂ and temperature on dry matter production, net assimilation rate, C and N allocations in tropical rice (*Oryza sativa* L.). *Field Crops Res.* 139: 71–79.

Sadasivam, S., 1996. Biochemical methods. New age international, 241p.

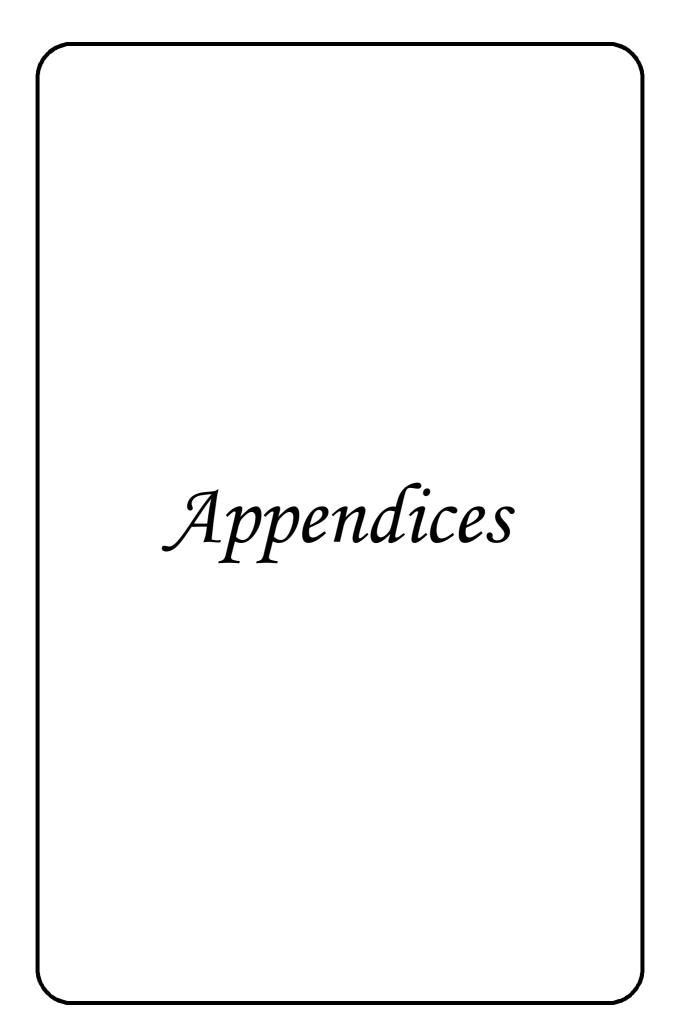
- Sahoo, S. 2017. Studies on impact of elevated carbondioxide on am fungal interaction effect in rice (variety: naveen) under flooded condition. M Sc. (Ag) Thesis, Indira Gandhi Krishi Vishwavidyalaya, Raipur, 149p.
- Sakai, H., Tokida, T., Usui, Y., Nakamura, H. and Hasegawa, T. 2019. Yield responses to elevated CO₂ concentration among Japanese rice cultivars released since 1882. *Plant Prod. Sci.* 22(3): 352-366.
- Sakai, H., Yagi, K., Kobayashi, K., and Kawashima, S. 2001. Rice Carbon Balance under Elevated CO₂. *New Phytologist* 150: 241-249.
- Salsman, K. J., Jordan, D. N., Smith, S. D., and Neuman, D. S. 1999. Effect of atmospheric CO₂ enrichment on root growth and carbohydrate alloca- tion of Phaseolus spp. *Int. J. Plant Sci.* 160: 1075–1081.
- Satapathy, S.S., Swain, D.K., Pasupalak, S. and Bhadoria, P.B.S. 2015. Effect of elevated [CO₂] and nutrient management on wet and dry season rice production in subtropical India. *The Crop J.* 3(6):468-480.
- Seneweera Saman, 2011. Effects of elevated CO₂ on plant growth and nutrient partitioning of rice (*Oryza sativa* L.) at rapid tillering and physiological maturity, Journal of Plant Interactions, 6(1): 35-42.
- Seneweera, S. P. and Conroy, J. P. 2005. Enhanced leaf elongation rates of wheat at elevated CO₂: Is it related to carbon and nitrogen dynamics within the growing leaf blade? *Environ Exp. Bot.* 54(2): 174-181.
- Seneweera, S., Aben, S., Basra, A., Jones, B., and Conroy, J. 2003. Involvement of ethylene in the morphological and developmental response of rice to elevated atmospheric CO₂ concentrations. *Plant Growth Reg.* 39: 143–153.
- Shimono, H., Okada M., Yamakawa, Y., Nakamura, H., Kobayashi, K., and Hasegawa, T. 2009. Genotypic variation in rice yield enhancement by elevated CO₂ relates to growth before heading and not to maturity group. *J. Exp. Bot.* 60(2): 523-532.

- Shimono, H., Okada, M., Inoue, M., Nakamura, H., Kobayashi, K., and Hasegawa, T. 2010. Diurnal and seasonal variations in stomatal conductance of rice at elevated atmospheric CO₂ under fully open-air conditions. *Plant Cell Environ*. 33: 322–331.
- Shimono, H., Okada, M., Yamakawa, Y., Nakamura, H., Kobayashi, K., and Hasegawa T. 2008. Rice yield enhancement by elevated CO₂ is reduced in cool weather. *Glob. Change Biol.* 14: 276–284.
- Srikanth, G.A. 2019. Evaluation of CO₂ Enrichment Effects on Resource Utilization in Cowpea and Amaranathus. Ph.D. (Ag) Thesis, Kerala Agricultural University, Vellayani, 418p.
- Stitt, M. 1991. Rising CO₂ levels and their potential significance for carbon flow in photosynthetic cells. *Plant Cell Environ*. 14: 741–762.
- Tausz, M., Tausz-Posch, S., Norton, R.M., Fitzgerald, G.J., Nicolas M.E., and Seneweera, S., 2013. Understanding crop physiology to select breeding targets and improve crop management under increasing atmospheric CO₂ concentrations. *Environ. Exp. Bot.* 88: 71– 80.
- Thilakarathne, C. L., Tausz-Posch, S., Cane, K., Norton, R. M., Tausz, M., and Seneweera, S. 2013. Intraspecific variation in growth and yield response to elevated CO₂ in wheat depends on the differences of leaf mass per unit area. *Functional Plant Biol.* 40(2): 185–194.
- Tognetti, R. and Johnson, J.D. 1999. The effect of elevated atmospheric CO₂ concentration and nutrient supply on gas exchange, carbohydrates and foliar phenolic concentration in live oak (*Quercus virginiana* Mill.) seedlings. *An. For.Sci.* 56(5): 379-389.
- Ujiie, K., Ishimaru, K., Hirotsu, N., Nagasaka, S., Miyakoshi, Y., Ota, M., Tokida, T., Sakai, H., Usui, Y., Ono, K., and Kobayashi, K. 2019. How elevated CO₂ affects our nutrition in rice, and how we can deal with it. *PLOSONE*. 14(3): p.e0212840.

- UNFAO [United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization]. 2011. Food balance sheets and 2011 United Nations estimated population. [on line]. Available: http://faostat3.fao.org/browse/FB/*/E. [8 Oct. 2019].
- Urban, J., Ingwers, M.W., Mcguire, M.A., and Teskey, R.O. 2017. Increase in leaf temperature opens stomata and decouples net photosynthesis from stomatal conductance in *Pinus taeda* and *Populus deltoides* x *nigra*. J. Exp. Bot. 68: 1757–1767.
- Vinothini, N., Manonmani, V., Sundareswaran, S., Karthikeyan, S., Maragatham, N., and Srinivasan, S. 2019. Biochemical changes associated with elevated carbon dioxide in rice (*Oryza sativa* L.). *Int. J. Chem. Stud.* 7(3): 738-741.
- Wang, B., Cai, W., Li, J., Wan, Y., Guo, C., Wilkes, A., You, S., Qin, X., Gao, Q., and Liu, K. 2020a. Leaf photosynthesis and stomatal conductance acclimate to elevated [CO₂] and temperature thus increasing dry matter productivity in a double rice cropping system. *Field Crops Res.* 248:107735.
- Wang, J., Li, L., Lam, S.K., Liu, X., and Pan, G. 2020b. Responses of wheat and rice grain mineral quality to elevated carbon dioxide and canopy warming. *Field Crops Res.* 248:107753.
- Wang, M., Xie, B., Fu, Y., Dong, C., Hui, L., Guanghui, L. and Liu, H. 2015. Effects of different elevated CO₂ concentrations on chlorophyll contents, gas exchange, water use efficiency, and PSII activity on C₃ and C₄ cereal crops in a closed artificial ecosystem. *Photosynthesis Res.* 126(2-3): 351-362.
- Wang, W., Cai, C., Lam, S.K., Liu, G., and Zhu, J. 2018. Elevated CO₂ cannot compensate for japonica grain yield losses under increasing air temperature because of the decrease in spikelet density. *Eur. J. Agron.* 99: 21-29.
- Wessells, K. R., Singh., G. M., and Brown, K. H. 2012. Estimating the global prevalence of inadequate zinc intake from national food balance sheets: effects of methodological assumptions. *PLOSONE*. 7: p. e50565.

- WHO [World Health Organization]. 2002. WHO home page [on line]. Available: http:// www.who.int/whr/2002/. [21 Oct. 2019].
- WHO [World Health Organization]. 2017. Global Health Risks-Mortality and burden of disease attributable to selected major risks. *Cancer*. 70p.
- Wu, C.Y., Lu, L.L., Yang, X.E., Feng, Y., Wei, Y.Y., Hao, H.L., Stoffella, P.J., and He, Z.L. 2010.Uptake, translocation, and remobilization of zinc absorbed at different growth stages by rice genotypes of different Zn densities. J. Agric. Food Chem. 58(11): 6767-6773.
- Yang, L., Huang, J., Yang. H., Dong, G., Liu, G., Zhu, J., and Wang, Y. 2006. Seasonal changes in the effects of free-air CO₂ enrichment (FACE) on dry matter production and distribution of rice. *Field Crops Res.* 98:12-19.
- Yang, L., Liu H., Wang, Y., Zhu, J., Huang, J., Liu, G., Dong, G., and Wang, Y. 2009. Yield formation of CO₂ - enriched inter-subspecific hybrid rice cultivar Liangyoupeijiu under filly open-air field condition in a warm sub-tropical climate. *Agric. Ecosyst. Environ.* 129(1): 193-200.
- Yilmaz, A., Ekiz, H., Torun, B., Gultekin, I., Karanlik, S., Bagci, S. A. and Cakmark,
 I. 1997. Effect of different zinc application methods on grain yield and zinc concentration in wheat cultivars grown on zinc-deficient calcareous soils. J. *Plant Nutr.* 20(5): 461-471.
- Yuan, L., Lianghuan, W., Chunlei, Y. and Qian, L. V. 2013. Effects of iron and zinc foliar applications on rice plants and their grain accumulation and grain nutritional quality. J. Sci. Food Agric. 93(2): 254-261.
- Zhu, C., Kobayashi, K., Loladze, I., Zhu, J., Jiang, Q., and Xu, X. 2018. Carbon dioxide levels this century will alter the protein, micronutrients, and vitamin content of rice grains with potential health consequences for the poorest ricedependent countries. *Sci. adv.* 4(5):1012.
- Zhu, C., Xu, X., Wang, D., Zhu, J., and Liu, G. 2015. An Indica rice genotype showed a similar yield enhancement to that of hybrid rice under free air carbon dioxide enrichment. *Sci. rep.5* : p.12719.

- Ziska, L. H., Namuco, O. S., Moya, T., and Quilang, J. 1997. Growth and yield responses of field-grown tropical rice to increasing carbon dioxide and air temperature. *Agron. J.* 89: 45–53.
- Ziska, L.H. and Teramura, A.H. 1992. Intraspecific variation in the response of rice (*Oryza sativa*) to increased CO₂-photosynthetic, biomass and reproductive characteristics. *Physiologia Plantarum*, 84(2): 269-274.
- Ziska, L.H., Manalo, P.A., and Ordonez, R.A. 1996. Intraspecific variation in the response of rice (Oryza sativa L.) to increased CO2 and temperature: growth and yield response of 17 cultivars. *J. Exp. Bot.* 47: 1353–1359.



APPENDICES

I. CHEMICALS FOR REDUCING SUGARS ESTIMATION

Dinitrosalicylic acid (DNS) reagent (100ml)

DNS	1 g
Crystalline phenol	200 mg
Sodium sulphite	50 mg
1% NaOH	1 g NaOH dissolved in 100ml distilled water
Final volume was adjusted to 100 ml	
40% Rochelle salt solution	40 g Rochelle salt solution dissolved in 100ml distilled water
II. CHEMICALS FOR TOTAL CHLOROPHYLL ESTIMATION	
80% Acetone: DMSO (1:1 v/v)	
80% Acetone	80 ml Acetone is taken and volume made to 100ml using distilled water
Dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO)	100 ml
III. CHEMICALS FOR TOTAL SOLUBLE PROTEIN ESTIMATION	
Phosphate buffered saline (PBS) (100ml)	
0.2M Na2HPO4 (Solution A)	28.392g dissolved in 1000ml distilled water
0.2M NaH2PO4 (Solution B)	23.996g dissolved in 1000ml distilled water
51 ml from solution A and 49ml from solution B is mixed and made to 100ml and the pH is adjusted to 7.8.	

Bradford reagent (200ml)

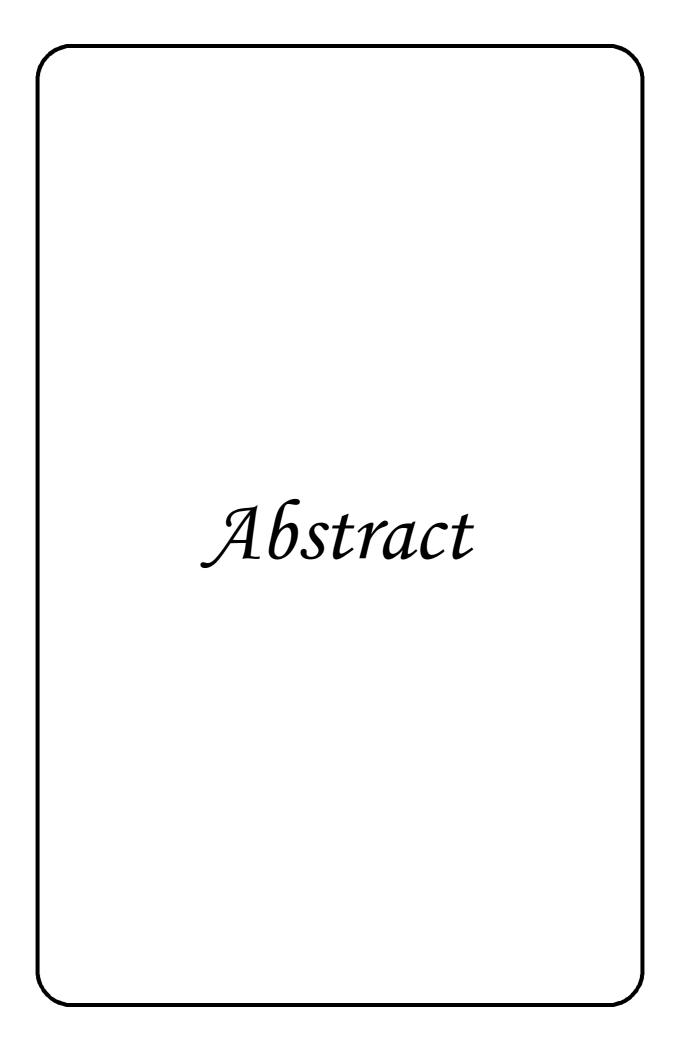
Comassie brilliant blueG 250

100 mg dissolved in 50ml of 95% ethanol

Ortho phosphoric acid

100ml

Final volume adjusted to 200ml



INFLUENCE OF ELEVATED CO2 ON ZINC DYNAMICS

IN RICE

(Oryza sativa L.)

by

Ramireddy Bhavana

(2018-11-086)

Abstract of the thesis Submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of

MASTER OF SCIENCE IN AGRICULTURE

Faculty of Agriculture Kerala Agricultural University



DEPARTMENT OF PLANT PHYSIOLOGY COLLEGE OF AGRICULTURE VELLAYANI, THIRUVANANTHAPURAM-695 522 KERALA, INDIA

2020

ABSTRACT

The present programme "Influence of elevated CO ² on zinc dynamics in rice (*Oryza sativa* L.)" was undertaken in the Department of Plant Physiology, College of Agriculture, Vellayani during 2018-2020 with the objective of assessing the impact of elevated CO₂ on growth, development and nutritional quality of rice in relation to modifications in Zn dynamics.

The extent of variation in growth, physiological, biochemical parameters and parameters related to Zn dynamics were assessed in two rice genotypes, Uma (MO16) and Njavara-golden yellow. Plants were maintained under three CO₂ conditions i.e., OTC (Open Top Chamber) (500 ppm), Polyhouse (420 ppm) and open field condition (390 ppm) with four zinc enrichment treatments (D₁- Foliar spray (ZnSO4 0.5% at panicle initiation and grain filling stage); D₂-AMF (3g of AMF inoculum /cavity of protrays); D₃-Seed treatment: seed priming with 6.4% ZnSO4 for 36 hrs; D₄-control) with the aim to improve the zinc status of rice plants. The experiments were laid out in CRD with 24 treatment combinations and three replications.

The study indicated that upon exposure to 500ppm CO₂, highest values were recorded in plant height, no. of tillers, root weight and straw yield in the case of both varieties. The treatment with 0.5% ZnSO₄ foliar spray (D₁) recorded highest plant height (102cm), no. of tillers (34) and straw yield, (35g/plant) in Uma and in Njavara the same treatment resulted in highest plant height (130cm), no. of tillers (32) and straw yield (46.8g/plant). AMF treatment (D₂) has recorded highest root weight both in Uma (26.7g/plant) and Njavara (20.4g/plant). The no. of days to 50% flowering was increased under OTC (85 days in Uma and 71 days in Njavara) and Polyhouse (80 days in Uma 69 days in Njavara) as against 72 days in Uma and 61days in Njavara under open field condition.

Physiological and biochemical parameters recorded at active tillering and grain filling stage had shown that OTC condition resulted in highest total chlorophyll content (2.33 mg g⁻¹ fresh weight), photosynthetic rate (27 μ mol CO 2 m ⁻²s⁻¹) and total reducing sugars (1.9 mg g⁻¹) at active tillering stage. The same trend was observed in

grain filling stage also but to a lesser extent in total chlorophyll content (1.805 mg g⁻¹ fresh weight) and photosynthetic rate (17.6 μ mol CO ₂ m ⁻²s⁻¹) whereas the total reducing sugars (6.3 mg g⁻¹) was increased to a greater extent. However the photosynthetic rate and total chlorophyll content were decreased at grain filling stage in all the three CO₂ conditions. Lowest total soluble protein was recorded under OTC in active tillering stage (0.8 mg g⁻¹) and grain filling stage (7.1 mg g⁻¹). All the Zinc treatments had significant influence on all the above parameters and foliar spray with 0.5% ZnSO4 resulted in maximum enhancement. The transpiration rate and stomatal conductance which was decreased under eCO₂ did not show significant difference upon application of Zn treatments in both the varieties.

Yield attributes and Zn content in grain and bran could not be recorded as there was no grain development in plants under OTC due to high temperature. The parameters related to zinc dynamics were analyzed in leaf and shoot under all the conditions. Decreasing levels of zinc in leaf and shoot with increasing levels of CO₂ was evident in both the varieties of rice in the present study in untreated plants. Though all the zinc treatments were having positive influence on Zinc status, foliar application of 0.5% ZnSO₄ was found to be the most effective one followed by seed treatment and AMF. The zinc content in leaf was highest in D₁ with 25.8 μ g g⁻¹ in Uma and 26.1 μ g g⁻¹ in Njavara. Similarly, the zinc content in shoot was also recorded highest in D₁ with 25.4 μ g g⁻¹ in Uma and 26 μ g g⁻¹ in Njavara followed by D₃ and D₂.

In the present study, increasing concentration of CO₂ was found to enhance growth and development in rice variety Uma and Njavara by inducing increased photosynthetic rate, chlorophyll and reducing sugars content but at the same time it had a negative influence on Zinc content leaf and shoot tissue which was decreased due to the accumulation of more no. of carbohydrates which has diluted the Zn concentration in the leaf and shoot tissue in the untreated plants. Supplement of zinc through different treatments has elevated the zinc content in the leaf and shoot tissue in all the three different CO₂ conditions. These results offer a small slice of the broad implications for the impact of higher CO₂ on nutrition and health. Taken together, CO₂ induced nutritional declines could produce a major headwind on progress towards alleviating malnutrition and deserves attention and concerted action.

The information generated will help farmers to raise quality produce with the help of low cost technologies, to make paddy cultivation more profitable and can also be an answer to the serious health crisis and malnutrition faced globally in this changing climatic scenario.