



SEEDS WITH VARYING DEGREES OF STORAGE PRODUCTS

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Abstract

When it comes to saving economic plant seeds, preserving seed stock is the most important aim. Saving seeds for later use was a necessity that was recognized by early humans. As agriculture advanced, man understood more and more about how to keep seeds alive and how to store them optimally. Farmers and seed firms have learned that keeping seeds for two or more years rather than one season is more cost-effective than doing so for one year to assure a consistent supply of plants for the following year. This method can be used to build up genetic reserves that will be valuable in the years following periods of low output. Most of the world's seeds are exchanged freely and come from a diverse range of plants including crops, flowers and forages, amongst others. Many of these seed lots won't be used again this year.

Keywords: Seeds, products, agriculture, crops

Introduction

Seeds of economic plants are stored for the sole aim of extending the growing season. Because of the necessity of this activity, prehistoric man began devising ways to store seeds in little quantities. As agriculture progressed, man learned more about how to keep seeds viable and how to store them in the best possible circumstances.

Farmers and seed companies have found it useful to store seeds for two or more years, even though the primary purpose of seed storage is to prepare for the following season's planting. Thus, a supply of desired genetic stocks may be built up in anticipation of poor production years in the future by using this technique. Vegetable, floral, and forage seeds are among the many types of seeds that are freely traded across the world. There are a lot of seed lots that aren't used the next year.

Seed storage proteins offer the amino acids and decreased N needed for seedling germination and early development. This question is relevant because the long-term goal of most current research in this field is to alter the composition of the storage protein fraction without



impacting the seed's ability to perform this physiological job. However, numerous post-translational changes observed in legume storage proteins such as glycosylation and many others are tolerated, as are large shifts in the storage protein fraction's relative levels of component proteins. For the study of various cellular processes that affect the composition of the store protein fraction in plants, nutrient-deficient plants are an excellent choice for this purpose. Deficiencies in sulphur and potassium affect the amount of legumin and vicilin in pea seed. Changes in the amounts of their respective mRNAs and in the patterns of synthesis and accumulation of these two proteins throughout seed development are the primary causes of these modifications.

To ensure a steady supply of plants for the next year, farmers and seed companies have discovered that storing seeds for two or more years is more cost-effective than doing so for one season. Genetic stocks that will be useful in years following times of poor productivity can be built up in this way.

A variety of molecular and proteomic techniques are shedding light on the gene and protein regulatory networks that underpin seed development and the buildup of stored chemicals.

Plants have a wide variety of storage products, or reserves, that are used at various points in their life cycles to promote fresh growth and development. Three key forms of storage goods – carbohydrates, proteins, and oils – are commonly found in specialized structures like seeds and tubers.

This tissue, which is not part of the embryo, holds most nutritional reserves found in seeds. The endosperm of legumes like the common bean or soybean is resorbed throughout development, and the cotyledons hold the bulk of the seed's reserves. When an embryo grows inside the megagametophyte the seed's primary storage organ there is no endosperm in conifer species' seeds.

As a seed matures or expands, the accumulation of reserves is often limited. In most cases, proteins, coupled with lipids or carbohydrates, are concentrated in the storage tissues, with a smaller proportion concentrated in the embryonic axis.

Accumulation of seed storage reserves in general

At the very least, most developed seeds have two or three significant reserves stored within them. Photoassimilate from the parent plant is transferred to the growing seed, where it is synthesised in situ. Phloem is the primary conduit for long-distance transportation of sucrose from the plant's photosynthetic sites to the seed's growing embryo. The amino acids glutamine and asparagine are also transported into growing seeds via the phloem. Because



developing cereal grains lack direct vascular connections to the parent plant, assimilates from the vascular tissues are transported to the endosperm, where reserves are stored, through a short-distance transport mechanism. To get to the starchy endosperm of wheat and barley, assimilates must first go via vascular tissue running in the furrow (fold) and then through funiculus-chalazal area, nucellar projection, and aleurone layer. Starch may be a temporary storage location for sucrose generated by photosynthesis in legume leaves and pods before remobilization and transfer to the developing seed in other legumes.

Proteins, oils, and phytins

There are water-insoluble grains of starch (diameters of 2–150 μ m) kept in the majority of higher plants as a reserve carbohydrate for future use. Seeds, modified roots (such as cassava and sweet potato), and tubers (such as yams) are common places where starch is stored. Photosynthesis may lead to a buildup of chloroplasts in the leaves, which may be destroyed at night to release sucrose, which can then be distributed throughout the plant.

Photosynthesis Starch is a combination of two polysaccharides, amylose and amylopectin, and is a big polymer of glucose. A(1→4)linked glucose units form a(1→4)linked amylose chains, which account for 20–30 percent of most starches (up to 1000 residues). In comparison, Amylopectin, which is around 10^2 – 10^3 times bigger, is made up of multiple linear chains joined at branch points by glucosidic linkages a(1→6). The starchy endosperm cells of cereal grains are the primary source of starch accumulation. The storage parenchyma of dicotyledonous seeds synthesizes starch. Diagram of starch granule organization and the metabolic processes in starch production. In plants, chloroplasts and other plastids, starch, starch granules, and the biosynthesis and degradative processes of starch. To better understand the starch biosynthesis process, scientists have turned to mutants of maize, pea, and potato, which have genetic flaws that prevent the production of a certain enzyme from occurring. Amylose is absent from waxy (wx) cereal mutants and amylose-free (amf) potato mutants because they lack a specific starch synthase (SS) attached to the starch granule (granule-bound starch synthase). In spite of this, Amylopectin is still produced due to the actions of SS and the branching enzyme (SBE). In the pea (Mendel's wrinkled seed mutant r), the rugosus mutant (r) has a deficiency in one of the SBEs. Wrinkled peas have less starch overall and less amylopectin than round peas, which are the outcome of this process.

When developing seeds, this deficiency affects the seed's sugar content and osmotic potential; it also altering its shape, and the protein, starch, and lipid content. Small, water-soluble



amylopectin molecules produced by the mutant line's analtered branching pattern of starch are what give sweet corn its sweet flavor, together with the plant's higher levels of sucrose.

Proteins

The seeds of legumes are a key source of protein in the diets of people and farmed animals because of their high protein content. Perennating structures, like tubers, have storage proteins in lesser quantities than carbohydrates, and certain developing vegetative tissues also include storage proteins.

Proteins that aid in the preservation of seeds

Albumins are water-soluble; globulins are soluble in dilute salt solutions; prolamins are alcohol-soluble; and glutelins are soluble in dilute acids or alkalis. The solubility of storage proteins has traditionally been divided into the following categories: Glutamins are currently considered to be a subclass of prolamins, rather than glutelins, which no longer fit well into this categorization. Unlike most other proteins, prolamins are found solely in the endosperms of cereal grains and other grasses. Polypeptides of Mr 30 000–90 000 are a highly polymorphic combination of sulfur (S)-rich, S-poor, and high molecular weight polypeptides. Up to 90% of the entire storage prolamins is composed of S-rich molecules.

Oils

Generally speaking, oils are triacylglycerols—esters of glycerol and three fatty acids—which are liquid above 208 degrees Celsius and so oils rather than fats. Water cannot dissolve these oils, thus they become stored inside cells, notably the storage tissues of seeds or fruits like olives and avocados. Palmitic and stearic are two of the most prevalent fatty acids found in commercial vegetable oils having chains of 16 and 18 carbon atoms, respectively, with no double bonds.

To denote the chain length and lack of any double bonds, these saturated fatty acids are designated as 16:0 and 18:0, respectively, in chemical notation. These two unsaturated acids, oleic and linoleic, have 18 carbon atoms each but only one or two double bonds, making them plentiful. The high amount of linoleic acid (18:2) in canola, sunflower, and maize seed oils makes them popular for use in cooking and margarine.

Cooking oils should not be made with linolenic acid, which has three double bonds, since it quickly oxidizes and produces unpleasant flavors. A drying oil with high levels of the linolenic acid (18:3), linseed oil is commonly included in paints and wood coatings for its



ability to quickly oxidize and solidify into a protective shell. For example, medium-chain-length fatty acids (8–14 carbons in length) from palm kernels and coconuts have detergent-like qualities; long-chain erucic acid (22:1) from rapeseed is a great lubricant, as is ricinoleic acid (a hydroxylated 18:1 fatty acid) from castor bean. Some other triacylglycerols can be employed as plasticizers, cosmetics, or even in chocolate due to the unique qualities conferred on them by the fatty acids they contain or the arrangement of their glycerol backbones.

Phytin

Phytin is an amino acid store reserve that is infrequently discovered in vegetative storage organs. The phosphate and mineral components it provides are still significant. When myo-inositol hexaphosphoric acid is dissolved in potassium, magnesium, and calcium salts, phytin is the insoluble salt formed. There is a distinct electron-dense globoid of phytin within protein bodies.

Phospholipids the aleurone layer (wheat, barley, and rice) or the embryo of cereal grains accumulates phytin in protein storage vacuoles (globoids) (maize). Phosphate, inositol and other minerals are released by hydrolysis of this reserve during and immediately following germination. Signaling molecules that are involved in RNA export, repair of deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA), endocytosis, and vesicular trafficking are also derived from phytic acid. Induced mutagenesis and insertion elements were used to identify and characterize mutations in seven phytin biosynthesis-related genes in five plant species, and identifying the regulatory genes and proteins is an important first step.

Animal nutritionists typically avoid using phytin because it can bind vital nutrients like zinc, iron, and calcium in the digestive system and prevent them from being absorbed. A number of genetic engineering techniques are being used to reduce the phytin content of seeds, such as inserting the gene for phytase into the seed so that it is expressed at the moment of phytin synthesis, thereby reducing net phytin production. Although these efforts are being made, they might be short-sighted. Phytic acid, along with polyphenols, fiber, carotenoids, and other micronutrients, are essential actors in epidemiological studies that have connected whole-grain cereals to protection against obesity, diabetes, cardiovascular disease, and malignancies. As an antioxidant, an anticancer agent, and a preventative measure against the production of calcification and kidney stones, phytin is being studied for its potential health benefits. Phytin has been shown to have protective effects in Alzheimer disease pathogenesis as well.



Factors that affect the Storage Life of Seeds

It is the seed's features, environmental circumstances, and human care and management that determine how long the seed may be stored for. The following ten features and circumstances, as well as others, affect a seed's long-term storage ability.

Variation in Species Due to Genetic Effects

Peanut seeds, like those of other legumes, have a limited lifespan. Lettuce, onion, parsnip, and peanut are examples of economically important plants with limited storage lives for their seeds. Of the grains, barley and oats normally have the greatest storage potential, rye the least, while corn (maize) and wheat are intermediate. According to the research I conducted, barley has the same storage capacity as wheat and oats.

Provenance's Impact

There is very little data on the impact of seed vitality on provenance, or the place of production, and there appears to be none that directly links provenance to seed storageability using the germination rates of four different types of fodder cultivated in four distinct countries. The germination features of the provenances differed greatly between the growing chambers and the field. Species-specific ranking was used, however the results were generally the same across all testing conditions. In the field, local provenances did not show greater germination percentages than non-local provenances on average. It was possible to accurately anticipate variations in field provenance using growth chamber testing because of the stability of germination properties across different settings. While controlling for maternal effects by include seed mass in the study did not reduce the degree of variation across provenances, this suggests that variations between provenances are predominantly genetic in nature. Comparing F1 seeds produced under identical circumstances with the original seed material yielded non-genetic contributors to population divergence in one species. We come to the conclusion that in ecological restoration programs, particularly in non-permanent systems where they may impact plant growth, potentially considerable between-provenance variations in germination features need to be considered.

Using seed storage for its intended purpose

In order to preserve the seed's physical and physiological integrity, seed storage is necessary from harvest until planting. To prevent pests, illnesses, and insects from infecting the seeds. To preserve the seeds until they are ready to germinate for future crops. Germination characteristics ranged substantially between the growth chambers and in the field for each of



the different provenances. All testing circumstances yielded similar findings based on species-specific ranking. We found that germination rates between local and non-local sources were comparable in the field. Germination qualities were stable enough to predict differences in field provenance using growth chamber tests, making it practical to do so. Including seed mass in the analysis did not lower the level of variance among provenances, which shows that genetic variation is the most likely cause of the differences between the cultivars.. Non-genetic factors contributed to population divergence in one species when F1 seeds grown under identical conditions were compared to the original seed material. Therefore, in ecological restoration efforts, especially in non-permanent systems where they may influence plant development, it is necessary to take into account the possibility of significant differences in germination traits between provenances.

We are currently in an interesting moment to pursue difficulties in understanding how seed maturation, store reserve building and eventually seed and seedling vigor are controlled by biochemical, physiological and genetic components. a some of the methods being employed to elucidate the complex systems at play. When studying seed maturation or times when vegetative plant organs collect store products, they can be useful for discovering regulatory and metabolic networks and analyzing the makeup of seed or plant storage products. Transcriptonomics is one of the methods used to study changes in gene expression, frequently in conjunction with more focused assessments of candidate gene expression by Northern blot analysis and/or real-time quantitative RT-PCR. Targeted or untargeted proteomics studies protein modifications, whereas "metabolomics" examines the chemical compounds Produced by seeds or plants in general. Using spectroscopic methods, 'ionomics' makes it possible to examine dozens of different elements at once. It is possible to use a variety of tactics that are either untargeted (referred to as "global") or targeted (referred to as "focused").

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