

Influence of different hydrogel levels on Protein content of Chickpea (*Cicer arietinum* L.)

Abstract

The field experiment was conducted during the Rabi seasons of 2019-20 and 2021-22 at the Department of Biological Sciences, Sam Higginbottom Institute of Agriculture, Technology and Sciences, U.P. which is characterized by a semi-arid climate. The experiment utilized a randomized block design with combinations of four levels of hydrogel and two levels of irrigation across 11 treatments, each replicated three times. Protein content in chickpea leaves and bulbs was estimated using Bradford's method, which is based on the binding of proteins to Coomassie Brilliant Blue G-250. Results indicated that different levels of hydrogel application had a non-significant effect on the protein content of chickpea during both years. The highest protein content of 1.01% was observed in the T₁₀ treatment (2 irrigations + 100% hydrogel) in 2020, 2021, and pooled data. This was followed by the T₉ treatment, which recorded protein contents of 0.673%, 0.860%, and 0.763% in the respective years and pooled data.

Introduction

In India, pulses are a significant source of protein for vegetarians and serve to supplement the diet's main cereals with proteins, vital amino acids, vitamins, and minerals (Pingoliya *et al.*, 2013, Venkidasamy *et al.*, 2019). They provide 22 to 24% protein, which is roughly twice as much as wheat and three times as much as rice (Shukla *et al.*, 2013). It is a readily available source of protein in the village, which is India's rural core. According to the International Crops Research Institute for the Semi-Arid Tropics (ICRISAT), chickpea seeds typically contain 5% fat, 6% crude fibre, 3% ash, and 21.1% protein out of their total 64% carbs (47% starch, 6% soluble sugar). Phosphorus (340 mg per 100 g), calcium (190 mg), magnesium (140 mg), iron (7 mg), and zinc (3 mg) have all been observed to have high mineral content. For a sustainable production system to function, balanced fertilizer application in a roping system is essential, as is proper soil nutrient flexibility. The second-most significant legume crop consumed globally is the chickpea (*Cicer arietinum* L.), particularly in North Africa, South-East Asia, the Middle East, southern Europe, America, and Australia (Iqbal *et al.*, 2006). Globally, it is one of the most widely grown pulses in terms of global output, with 14.2 million t of total production and an average yield of 0.96 t ha⁻¹ (FAOSTAT, 2016). In the

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human diet, chickpea has long been regarded as a significant source of proteins, carbs, minerals, vitamins, and health-promoting fatty acids (Jukanti *et al.*, 2012, Mhadhbi *et al.*, 2004) It is crucial for low-income customers worldwide and in developing nations where big populations have limited access to food of animal origin since it provides a less expensive source of protein (Ramalho and Portugal, 1990). Chickpea has significant amounts of all the essential amino acids except sulfur containing types, which can be complemented by adding cereals to daily diet. Starch is the major storage carbohydrate followed by dietary fibre, oligosaccharides and simple sugars like glucose and sucrose. Lipids are present in low amounts but chickpea is rich in nutritionally important unsaturated fatty acids like linoleic and oleic acid. β -sitosterol, campesterol and stigmasterol are important sterols present in chickpea oil. Calcium, magnesium, phosphorus and especially potassium are also present in chickpea seeds. Chickpea is a good source of important vitamins such as riboflavin, niacin, thiamin, folate and the vitamin A precursor, β -carotene. Like other pulses, chickpea seeds also contain anti-nutritional factors which can be reduced or eliminated by different cooking techniques. Chickpea has several potential health benefits and, in combination with other pulses and cereals, it could have beneficial effects on some of the important human diseases like cardiovascular disease, type-2 diabetes, digestive diseases and some cancers. Overall, chickpea is an important pulse crop with a diverse array of potential nutritional and health benefits.

Material and methods:

The field experiment of present investigation was conducted during *Rabi* 2019-2020 and 2021-2022 under Department of Biological Sciences, Sam Higginbottom Institute of Agriculture, Technology and Sciences, Allahabad (U.P). The climate of the experimental site is characterised by semi-arid type with hot and dry summer from April to June, hot and humid from July to September and cold winter from November to January. The experiment was conducted by the randomised block design with combinations of four level of hydrogel and two level of irrigation i.e. T₀(3 irrigation), T₁(1 irrigatin) T₂(1 irrigation + 25% hydrogel) T₃ (1 irrigation + 50% hydrogel) , T₄ (1 irrigation + 75% hydrogel), T₅ (1 irrigation + 100% hydrogel), T₆ (2 irrigatin) T₇ (2 irrigation + 25% hydrogel), T₈ (2 irrigation + 50% hydrogel), T₉ (2 irrigation + 75% hydrogel), T₁₀ (2 irrigation + 100% hydrogel) are replicated thrice.

Determination of Total Protein

Protein was estimated from Leaves and bulb using Bradford's method (**Bradford method**). The assay is based on the ability of proteins to bind coomassie brilliant blue G 250 and from a complex whose extinction coefficient is much greater than that of the free dye.

Materials / Reagents Preparation

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Reagents A

Dye concentrate dissolve 100 mg of coomassie brilliant blue G 250 in 50 ml of 95% ethanol. Add 100 ml of conc. ortho phosphoric acid. Add distilled water to a final volume of 200 ml. store refrigerated in amber bottles; mix 1 volume of concentrated dye solution with 4 volumes of distilled water for use. Filter with whatman No. 1 paper if any precipitate occurs.

Reagents B

Phosphate-buffered saline (PBS)

Procedure

Prepare a series of protein samples in test tubes in the concentration. This is preferably prepared in PBS. Prepare the experimental samples (a few dilutions) in 100 μ l of PBS. Add 5ml of diluted dye binding solution to each tube. Mix well and allow the colour to develop for at least 5 min but no longer than 30 min. the red dye turns blue when it binds protein. Read the absorbance at 595 nm. Plot a standard curve using the standard protein absorbance V concentration. The protein was calculated in the experimental sample using the standard curve.

Fisher's ANOVA technique and least significance difference (LSD) test at 5% probability level were used to compare differences among treatment means.

Result and discussion:

An appraisal of the table-1 clearly shows that application of different levels of hydrogel laden in soil was found to be non-significant on protein content of Chickpea during 2020 and 2021 in *ravi* season. The maximum protein content 1.01 between the interval 0-30 DAS was recorded in the treatment combination T₁₀ during cropping year 2020, 2021 and in pooled respectively followed by treatment combination T₁₄ and recorded protein content as 0.673, 0.860 and 0.763) in both the years of investigation as well as in pooled respectively.

Table 1 Influence of different hydrogel levels on Protein content of Chickpea (*Cicer arietinum* L.)

Protein content in seed at maturity (mg/gFW)			
Treatment	2019-20	2021-22	Mean
T0	1.01	1.02	1.02
T1	0.83	0.83	0.83
T2	0.83	0.82	0.83
T3	0.86	0.84	0.85
T4	0.92	0.93	0.93
T5	0.93	0.93	0.94
T6	0.94	0.95	0.95
T7	0.95	0.94	0.95
T8	1.01	0.98	1.00
T9	1.01	1.01	1.02
T10	1.03	1.07	1.05
C.D.	NA	NA	NA
SE(m)	0.02	0.02	0.02
SE(d)	0.03	0.03	0.02
C.V.	3.82	4.18	2.86

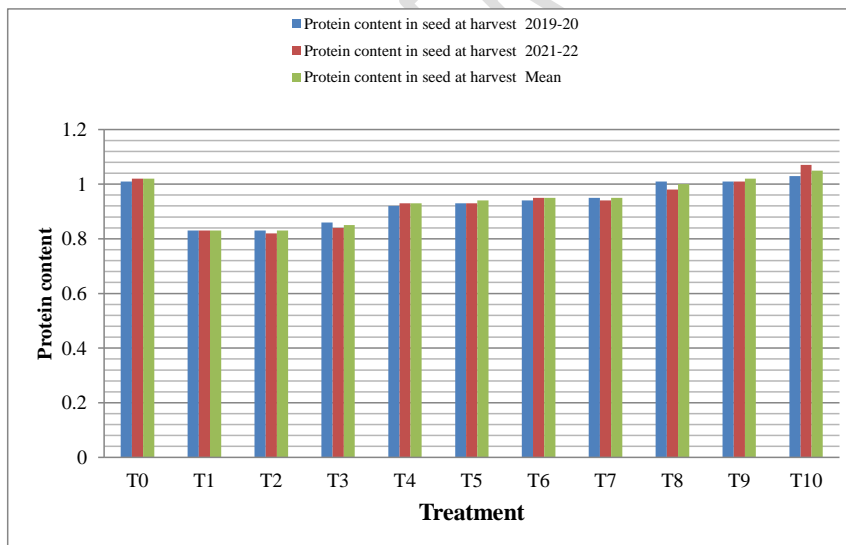


Fig 1 Influence of different hydrogel levels on Protein content of Chickpea (*Cicer arietinum* L.)

Conclusion

The finding of present study concludes that different levels of hydrogel application had a non-significant effect on the protein content of chickpea during both years. The highest protein content of 1.01% at was observed in the T₁₀ treatment (2 irrigations + 100% hydrogel) in 2020, 2021, and pooled data. This was followed by the T₉ treatment, which recorded protein contents of 0.673%, 0.860%, and 0.763% in the respective years and pooled data.

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