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Review article

Genetic regulation of homeostasis, uptake, bio-fortification and efficiency enhancement of iron in rice



S.K. Pradhan^{a,*,1}, E. Pandit^{a,1}, S. Pawar^a, A. Pradhan^a, L. Behera^a, S.R. Das^b, H. Pathak^a

^a ICAR-National Rice Research Institute, Cuttack, Odisha, India

^b Orissa Universisty of Agriculture and Technology, Bhubaneswar, India

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ABSTRACT

Soils of large areas of the globe are affected by deficiency or toxicity of iron (Fe), making it one of the major limitations to higher productivity of rice. Deficiency of Fe, an essential micronutrient for growth and development of rice, produces grain with low Fe-content. Consumption of low-Fe rice causes malnutrition affecting human health. Biofortification is an easy and low-cost way to enhance Fe content in rice, the staple food of more than half of the global population. Identification of relevant quantitative trait loci (QTLs) and genes controlling the stresses are needed for developing tolerant genotype(s). Fe deficiency is commonly observed in alkaline and aerobic soils, while toxicity is seen in low pH soils of lowland rice ecology. Rice plants cope up under deficiency or toxicity conditions through various morphological, physiological and differential gene expression strategies. Rice plant uses various transporter genes like OsNAS1, OsNAS2, OsIRT1, OsIRT2, OsNRAMP1, OsYSL15 and OsYSL16 under deficiency stress while OsIRT1, OsFRO2, OsVIT1, OsVIT2, OsNRAMP6, OsNAAT1, OsNAS3, OsNAC4, OsNAC5 and OsNAC6 under toxicity condition are involved for Fe homeostasis. Several QTLs including qFe3:1, qFe3:2, qFe7:1, qFe9:1, qFe9:2, qFe10:1, Fe11:1, qFe3.3 and qFe7.3 associated with grain-Fe content have been identified. Many Fe binding and transporters genes like OsZIP1, OsHMA4, OsACA2, OsZIP2, OsCNGC, OsZIP3, OsZIP5, OsZIP9, OsHma2, ABC transporter, OsNAS3, heavy metal transporter, Chy zinc finger and OsACA9 have been identified to improve grain-Fe content. Donor lines for grain-Fe content have been identified from rice germplasms showing even up to $147 \,\mu g \, g^{-1}$ in brown rice. Fe content in rice grain has been enhanced to many folds using ferritin genes of soybean and common bean, NAS gene and mugineic acid synthase genes (HvNAS1 and HvNAAT-A,-B or IDS3) of barley, nicotianamine transporter gene (OsYSL2) and nicotinamine synthase genes (OsNAS1, OsNAS2 and OsNAS3) through transgenic approach. The paper analyses the mechanisms of tolerance to Fe-deficiency and toxicity, identification of genes/QTLs responsible for tolerance under the stresses and helping for biofortification, assesses the stress affected symptoms, reviews the screening and summarizes the efforts for breeding programs for improving tolerance to Fe-deficiency and toxicity in rice.

1. Introduction

Iron (Fe) is an essential micronutrient for growth, development and higher grain yield of rice (Wu et al., 2014; Aung et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2018; Pradhan et al., 2020). It plays an important role in chloroplast development, chlorophyll synthesis, photosynthesis, nitrogen metabolism, respiration, enzymatic redox reactions and acts as an important electron donor (Taiz and Zeiger, 1991; Marschner, 1995; Sahrawat, 2005; Kobayashi and Nishizawa, 2012; Rout and Sahoo, 2015; Zhang et al., 2017). Abiotic stresses due to deficiency or excess of available Fe in soil cause nutritional disorder in rice plants. Fe-related soil stresses are commonly seen in many rice growing countries of the world. Deficiency of this nutrient in human also results serious health issues. More than two billion people suffer from Fe deficiency annually, which results in mortality of about 0.8 million people in the world (Stoltzfus and Dreyfuss, 1998; Wessells and Brown, 2012; Arcanjo et al., 2013; Simbauranga et al., 2015; Freitas et al., 2016: Trijatmiko et al., 2016; WHO, 2016; Dos Santos et al., 2017; Swamy et al., 2018). More than half of the world population, mostly from developing countries, is suffering from bioavailable micronutrient deficiencies (Seshadri, 2001; Shahzad et al., 2014; Mahender et al., 2016; Sarma et al., 2018). Micronutrient supplementation, food fortification and biofortification are the common ways to overcome this deficiency related problems. Febiofortification in rice will be a useful strategy to solve the problem of

* Corresponding author.

¹ Authors contributed equally.

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E-mail address: pradhancrri@gmail.com (S.K. Pradhan).

Fe-deficiency for the poor people in developing countries, for whom rice is the staple food (Nakandalage et al., 2016; Swamy et al., 2016; Trijatmiko et al., 2016).

High yielding modern rice varieties are poor in grain-Fe content (Zimmermann and Hurrell, 2002; Brinch-Pedersen et al., 2007; Mahender et al., 2016). However, genetic variations exists for Fe content in grains of rice germplasms (Yang et al., 1998; Jiang et al., 2008; Jahan et al., 2013; Zeng et al., 2010; Mahender et al., 2016; Trijatmiko et al., 2016). Commonly grown rice varieties contain only 7–8 μ g g⁻¹, however, few germplasm lines contain upto 147 μ g g⁻¹ in brown rice (Zeng et al., 2010). Fe content in rice grain can be enhanced many folds using transgenic approach. Once stable transgenic donor line is obtained, the increased Fe-content can be transferred to high yielding varieties through molecular breeding approaches (Masuda et al., 2013).

The deficiency of Fe is a major constraint for achieving higher yield in rice under alkaline calcareous soil with higher pH (Marcher, 1995; Kim and Guerinot, 2007). About 30% of the global soils are alkaline in nature which suffer from Fe-deficiency. Rice grown in such soils produces low yield with poor quality (Abadia et al., 2011; Swamy et al., 2018). Low availability of Fe in soils often causes leaf chlorosis and less photosynthesis, leading to reduction in yield and quality of rice. However, tolerant rice plants cope up with the soil deficiency condition through various morphological, physiological and differential gene expression strategies. Under such insufficient soil Fe condition, two absorption strategies have been developed by rice plants. Rice root shows symptoms of cluster roots and swelling of apical root tips under deficiency of iron (Schmidt et al., 2000; Schikora and Schmidt, 2002). Again, the practice of consuming polished rice reduces Fe content in the grains.

Accumulation in higher concentration of Fe is toxic to rice plant (Howeler, 1973; Prade et al., 1993; Jugsujinda and Patrick, 1993; Genon et al., 1994; Audebert, 2006; Becker and Asch, 2005; Chérif et al., 2009; Audebert and Fofana, 2009; Stein et al., 2009; Sikirou et al., 2015, 2016; Zhang et al., 2018). Rice rhizosphere is considered as the first line of defence against excess Fe-uptake. Toxicity is commonly observed in lowland rice ecology showing abundance of soluble ferrous (Fe²⁺) in soil. It generates reactive oxygen species (ROS) and hydroxyl radicals (OH) under the toxic situation. These compounds damage the rice plants there by reduce grain yield. The problem is very severe in West and Central African countries (Sikirou et al., 2015; Oort, 2018). The toxicity is also observed in Burundi, Benin, Ivory Coast, Burkina Faso, Niger, Gambia, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Liberia, Nigeria, Senegal, Sierra Leone, Togo, India, China, Indonesia, Malaysia, Thailand, Philippines, Sri Lanka, Colombia, Vietnam and Brazil (Moorman and Van Breeman, 1978; Oort, 2018). The area coverage with Fe-rich soils in Africa is estimated to be about 427 million ha (Oort, 2018). Rice yield loss due to this problem in Africa varies from 12% to 100% (Audebert and Sahrawat, 2000). In India, around 2 million ha of rice area are affected by Fe-toxicity (Prasad et al., 2020). Parts of Odisha, Kerala, Tamil Nadu and north-eastern states of India face this problem (Pawar et al., 2017).

Biofortification usually refers to the process of enriching food grains for nutritive elements in crop plants through genetic approaches. This way of enriching food grains is an easy, effective and cheaper way to supplement micronutrient deficiencies in cereal crops and much cheaper to grains fortification. The popular high yielding varieties are poor in essential micronutrients and need to be biofortified to enhance the nutritive value. Adequate variability for Fe-content exists in natural rice population. By over-expressing *ferritin* gene, Fe-content was increased to many folds in transgenic rice lines compared to the control genotypes. Transgenic rice lines with higher Fe-content derived from other crops are already available for successful crop improvement programme (Goto et al., 1999; Lee et al., 2009; Ogo et al., 2011; Kobayashi and Nishizawa, 2012; Lee et al., 2012; Paul et al., 2012; Bashir et al., 2013; Masuda et al., 2013; Slamet-Loedin et al., 2015; Trijatmiko et al., 2016; Boonyaves et al., 2017). These transgenic lines may be useful as potential donors by the rice breeders for enhancing of grain-Fe content in popular rice varieties through molecular breeding approach. Micronutrients improvement may not be antagonistic to grain yield enhancement in rice as there is the presence of separate genomic regions controlling micronutrient traits in major crops (Welch and Graham, 2004; Pradhan et al., 2019, 2020).

2. Fe uptake mechanisms in rice plants under deficiency and toxicity conditions

2.1. Fe uptake mechanisms from rhizosphere to rice roots

Fe is commonly available in ferric (Fe^{3+}) and ferrous (Fe^{2+}) forms in soil. This element is abundantly found in aerobic soils as Fe^{3+} polymeric insoluble form, which is not available for uptake by rice plants and causing Fe-deficiency. Under alkaline soil, Fe^{2+} oxidizes to Fe^{3+} during electron transfer process. Deficiency of this element results in reduction of non-heme Fe-proteins involved in photosynthesis, N₂ fixation and respiration (Taiz and Zeiger, 1991). It also reduces functioning of Fe-containing enzymes that generates less chlorophyll and ultimately produces leaf chlorosis (Reinbothe et al., 2006). Expression analysis of affected rice tissues showed down regulation of chlorophyllbinding proteins and other photosynthetic components under low supply of this nutrient (Thimm et al., 2001). Chloroplasts are main target site of Fe-deficiency, which results low photosynthetic activity and pigments formation under such conditions (Winder et al., 1995).

Solubility of Fe³⁺ is higher in lowland rice ecology wherein Fe³⁺ is converted to Fe²⁺, a form available to plants. Under such conditions, excess uptake of Fe causes Fe-toxicity to rice plant (Howeler, 1973; Jugsujinda and Patrick, 1993; Prade et al., 1993; Genon et al., 1994; Becker and Asch, 2005; Audebert, 2006; Audebert and Fofana, 2009; Chérif et al., 2009; Stein et al., 2009; Sikirou et al., 2015, 2016; Zhang et al., 2018). The toxicity increases with increase in Fe^{2+} content in acid soil with low redox potential. Fe toxicity is commonly seen in heavy soils, peat, acidic clay, acid sulphate, poorly drained sandy soils, infertile and light-textured soils (Sahrawat, 2005; Becker and Asch, 2005). Leaf bronzing occurs because of accumulation of poly phenol oxides in leaves in the affected plants. The Fe²⁺ irons are almost immobile in the plant tissues, accumulation of which increases bronzing in the leaves. Soil with Fe concentration of 10 to 500 ppm produces toxicity in rice depending on other favorable factors in the soil (Tanaka and Loe, 1966; Bode et al., 1995). Soil acidity, increased content of Fe³⁺ and its reactivity, poor drainage system in the field, low temperature of soil, salt content, inflow of Fe³⁺ or Fe²⁺ from adjacent fields are main factor of Fe toxicity in rice (Ponnamperuma, 1976). High Fe toxicity is also reported during dry period because of high vapor pressure deficit than that of wet period (Sahrawat and Singh, 1998; Asch et al., 2005). Under Fe-toxicity condition, precipitation of Fe²⁺ occurs in the root epidermis of rice plant, which decline the uptake of other minerals like magnesium, calcium, potassium and phosphorus (Fang and Kao, 2000; Sahrawat, 2005). The soluble Fe available in the rhizosphere is taken up by root cortex intracellular space and casparian strips transporting the ions to xylem vessels (Stephan, 2002). Localization of high Fe²⁺ concentration produces hydrogen peroxide in cell organelles like mitochondria and chloroplast that accelerates the Fenton reaction to generate reactive hydroxyl radicals and hydroxides (Bacana et al., 1998; Quinet et al., 2012). These reactive radicals damage biomolecules and their metabolic products, inactivate enzymes, damage membranes, peroxidation of lipid and modify the nucleic acid strands resulting in cell death (Bode et al., 1995; Quinet et al., 2012).

There are two main strategies for Fe uptake, namely reducing strategy and chelating strategy (Fig. 1). The major differences in both the strategies are oxidation state of absorbed Fe: ferrous (Fe^{2+}) is for strategy I and ferric (Fe^{3+}) for strategy II (Romheld and Marschner, 1986). Non-leguminous plants adapt to the strategy I in which Fe^{3+} reduces to Fe^{2+} performed by FRO (Ferric reductage oxidase) activity,



Fig. 1. Schematic diagram for Fe uptake mechanisms in roots through strategy I, Strategy II and combined strategy in rice. Part of the figure is adopted from Bashir et al., 2013 and Kobayashi and Nishizawa, 2014. PS: Phytosiderophores; IRT; Fe-regulated transporter; Tom: Transporter of mugineic acid; SAM: S- adenosyl methionine; DMA: 2-deoxy-mugineic acid; YSL15: Yellow stripe-like 15; YSL16: Yellow stripe-like 16; PCA: Protocatechuic acid; CA: Caffeic acid.

induced on the root surface under Fe deficiency situations and the uptake takes place through the plasma membrane of roots. In rice, very low ferric-chelate reductase activity is observed in response to Fe deficiency conditions (Ishimaru et al., 2006). The crop is adapted to anaerobic conditions wherein Fe²⁺ is abundant and direct uptake of this form occurs without active ferric-chelate reduction. Expression analysis reveals the role of many Fe2+ transporters in the plasma membrane of rice roots, namely OsIRT1, OsIRT2, OsNRAMP1 and OsNRAMP5 (Ishimaru et al., 2006; Takahashi et al., 2011; Ishimaru et al., 2012; Ogo et al., 2014). Amongst the Fe-transporters, OsIRT1 is the main transporter for Fe uptake in rice (Ishimaru et al., 2006). Transcriptome analysis shows up regulation of OsIRT1, OsIRT2 and OsNRAMP1, but not OsNRAMP5 under Fe deficiency in soil. High expression of IRT1 and FRO is observed in root epidermal layer of rice plant (Vert et al., 2002; Dinneny et al., 2008). These divalent cation transporters belong to zinc and Fe permease family (ZIP) (Eckhardt et al., 2001; Guerinot, 2001). Rice plant produces protons and many phenolic compounds in the rhizosphere under Fe deficiency which increases Fe solubility and FRO activity under strategy I (Romheld and Marschner, 1986; Rodríguez-Celma et al., 2013; Fourcroy et al., 2014; Schmidt and Eickhorst, 2014). Rice plant has phenolics efflux transporters (PEZ1 and PEZ2) response for secretion of phenolics under Fe deficiency in soil (Bashir et al., 2011; Ishimaru et al., 2011). Higher expression of transporter PEZ2 is observed in the plasma membrane of root epidermis and associated with secretion of protocatechuic acid and caffeic acid into rice root rhizosphere (Bashir et al., 2011; Ogo et al., 2014). These phenolic compounds possess chemical properties for chelating and reducing Fe³⁺ to Fe²⁺ for its uptake (Yoshino and Murakami, 1998).

In strategy II, rice roots absorb Fe and transport it through symplast, xylem and phloem. The chelating molecules are attached to the oxidized Fe in symplast (Miroslav, 1998; Kim and Guerinot, 2007). Chelating molecules *viz.*, mugineic acid (MA), nicotianamine and citrate

facilitate transportation of Fe. High expression of nicotianamine molecule was detected in the phloem tissue suggesting the role of the compound for Fe transport. The MAs are present near the periphery of root surface and are strong Fe chelators called phytosiderophores (PS) which are secreted by roots in the rhizosphere and binds to Fe³⁺ ions (Takagi, 1976; Takagi et al., 1984; Tagaki et al., 1988). The Fe³⁺-PS complex is further transported to root cells by different tissue specific transporters (Römheld and Marcher, 1986; Von Wiren et al., 1994). There are few protein transporter molecules namely, ITP (Fe transport protein) and dehydrins (DHN) which ligate to Fe^{3+} but not Fe^{2+} to facilitate transfer of non-soluble Fe complex (Hell and Stephan, 2003; Morrissey and Guerinot, 2009). Transporter of mugineic acid (TOM1) mediates the 2-deoxy-mugineic acid (DMA) secretion through the plasma membrane (Nozoye et al., 2011). The Fe³⁺-DMA complex formed in the rhizosphere is taken up into root cells by OsYSL15 transporter (Fig.1; Table 1) (Inoue et al., 2009; Lee et al., 2009). OsYSL16 is another Fe³⁺-DMA transporter expressed in the plasma membrane of root epidermis of rice suggesting its role in Fe³⁺-DMA uptake from the rhizosphere (Kakei et al., 2012; Lee et al., 2012). All these transporters and enzymes for DMA-based Fe uptake are highly up regulated under Fe deficiency conditions to meet the higher Fe requirement (Table 1; Fig. 3). However, in contrast to the strong induction of OsYSL15, expression of the OsYSL16 gene is observed to be constitutive and induced under Fe deficiency, indicating that Fe³⁺-DMA uptake is mainly mediated through OsYSL15. In addition to Fe (III)-DMA uptake, rice plant also synthesizes non- proteinogenic amino acids by three molecules of S-adenosyl methionine (SAM). Rice plants adopt combined strategy of both the strategies I and II while grass family adopt only strategy II for Fe uptake (Fig. 1). However, in a comparative transcription analysis using Oryza genus revealed about the adoption of the combined strategy by Oryza sative group containing AA genome only (Wairich et al., 2019). Ethylene production is not detected in strategy II for Fe uptake while it plays important role in strategy I and

| Tabl | e 1 s/QTLs useful for | higher Fe uptake and transport in rice plant under soil Fe-defic | iency condition. | |
|------------|--------------------------|--|--|--|
| SI. | QTLs/ transporters | Name | Function | Reference |
| 1 | OsNAS1 | Nicotianamine synthase | DMA biosynthesis for Fe(III)-DMA uptake/translocation | Higuchi et al., 2001; Inoue et al., 2003; Bashir et al., 2006; Cheng |
| 7 | OsNAS2 | Nicotianamine synthase | DMA biosynthesis for Fe(III)-DMA uptake/translocation | et al., 2007 Higuchi et al., 2001; Inoue et al., 2003; Bashir et al., 2006; Cheng et al. 7007 |
| ŝ | OsNAS3 | Nicotianamine synthase | DMA biosynthesis for Fe(III)-DMA uptake/translocation | et al., 2007 Higuchi et al., 2001; Inoue et al., 2003; Bashir et al., 2006; Cheng et al., 2007 |
| 4 | OsNAAT1 | Nicotianamine aminotransferase | DMA biosynthesis for Fe(III)-DMA uptake/translocation | Higueberger 1, 2001; Inoue et al., 2003; Bashir et al., 2006; Cheng et al., 2007 |
| വ | OsDMAS1 | Deoxymugineic acid synthase | DMA biosynthesis for Fe(III)-DMA uptake/translocation | Higuer et al., 2001; Inoue et al., 2003; Bashir et al., 2006; Cheng et al., 2007 |
| 9 | TOM1 | DMA efflux transporter | Transporters for Fe(III)-DMA uptake/translocation | Nozoye et al., 2011 |
| ► ∞ | OsYSL15 OsysL16 | Fe(III)-DMA transporter Fe(III)-DMA transporter | Transporters for Fe(III)-DMA uptake/translocation Transnorters for Fe(III)-DMA untake/translocation | Inoue et al., 2009; Lee et al., 2009 Kakei et al., 2012: |
|) | | | | Lee et al., 2012 |
| 6 | OsSAMS1 | S-adenosyl-L-methionine synthetase | Methionine cycle for Fe(III)-DMA uptake/translocation | Kobayashi and Nishizawa, 2014 |
| 1 10 | USSAM52 MTN | S-adenosyI-L-methionine synthetas Methvithioadenosine/S -adenosyl | Methionine cycle for Fe(III)-DMA uptake/translocation Methionine cycle for Fe(III)-DMA untake/translocation | Kobayashi and Nishizawa, 2014 Kohavashi and Nishizawa 2014 |
| : | | Homocysteinenucleosidase | | |
| 12 | OsMTK1 | Methylthioribose kinase | Methionine cycle for Fe(III)-DMA uptake/translocation | Kobayashi and Nishizawa, 2014 |
| 13 | OsMTK2 | Methylthioribose kinase | Methionine cycle for Fe(III)-DMA uptake/translocation | Kobayashi and Nishizawa, 2014 |
| 14 | OsID12 | Methylthioribose-1-phosphate isomera | Methionine cycle for Fe(III)-DMA uptake/translocation | Kobayashi and Nishizawa, 2014 |
| 15 | DEP | Methylthioribulose-1-phosphate | Methionine cycle for Fe(III)-DMA uptake/translocation | Kobayashi and Nishizawa, 2014 |
| 16 | OcID11 /OcARD2 | denyaratase-enolase-pnospnatase A cireductioned invurgenese | Mathioning evolg for Fe(III)-DMA untabe/translocation | Kohavashi and Nishizawa 2014 |
| 11 | OsIDI1L/OsARD1 | Actreductonedioxygenase Actreductonedioxygena | Methionine cycle for Fe(III)-DMA uptake/translocation | Kobayashi and Nishizawa, 2014 Kobayashi and Nishizawa, 2014 |
| 18 | OsID14 | Aminotransferase catalyzing the synthesis of methionine | Methionine cycle for Fe(III)-DMA uptake/translocation | Kobayashi and Nishizawa, 2014 |
| 19 | OsAPT1 | Adenine phosphoribosyltransferase | Methionine cycle for Fe(III)-DMA uptake/translocation | Kobayashi and Nishizawa, 2014 |
| 5 2 | PRPPS | Phosphoribosyl pyrophosphate synthetase | Methionine cycle for Fe(III)-DMA uptake/translocation | Kobayashi and Nishizawa, 2014 |
| 77 | | Kubose o-priospirate isomerase | Methionine cycle for Fe(III)-DMA uptake/ translocation | Vobayashi anu nishizawa, 2014 Voborochi ora Nishirono 2014 |
| 2 2 | FUH Osirti | Formate denydrogenase Ferrous Fe transnorter | Methionine cycle for Fe(III)-DMA uptake/translocation Transnorters for ferrous Re untake/translocation | Kobayashi and Nishizawa, 2014 Tshimaru et al 2006. Oco et al 2014 |
| 24 | OSIRT2 | Ferrous Fe transport | Transporters for ferrous Fe untake/translocation | Ishimaru et al., 2006. Ogo et al., 2014 |
| 52 | OsNRAMP1 | Ferrous Fe transporter | Transporters for ferrous Fe uptake/translocation | Ishimaru et al., 2006; Ogo et al., 2014 |
| 26 | OsNRAMP5 | Ferrous Fe/manganese/cadmium transporter | Transporters for ferrous Fe uptake/translocation | Ishimaru et al., 2006; Ogo et al., 2014 |
| 27 | PEZ2 | Phenolics efflux transporter | Transporters for ferrous Fe uptake/translocation | Ishimaru et al., 2011; Bashir et al., 2011 |
| 28 | OsYSL2 | Fe(II)/manganese(II)-NA transporter | Transporters for Fe translocation | Koike et al., 2004; Ishimaru et al., 2010 |
| 29 | ENA 1 | NA efflux transporter | Transporters for Fe translocation | Nozoye et al., 2011 |
| 30 | ENA2 | NA efflux transporter | Transporters for Fe translocation | Nozoye et al., 2011 |
| 31 | OsFRDL1 | Citrate efflux transporter | Transporters for Fe translocation | Yokosho et al., 2009 |
| 32 | PEZ1 | Phenolics efflux transport | Transporters for Fe translocation | Ishimaru et al., 2011; Bashir et al., 2011a |
| 33 | OsVIT1 | Fe transporter into vacuole | Transporters for subcellular Fe sequestration | Zhang et al., 2012 |
| 5 1 1 1 | OsVI12 | Fe transporter into vacuole | l ransporters for subcellular Fe sequestration | Zhang et al., 2012 |
| ŝ | OSHKZI | Ubiquitination activity and accumulate more Fe in shoot and grain | negative reguator of various Fe deficiency-inducible genes | Kobayashi et al., 2013 |
| 36 | OsHRZ2 | Ubiquitination activity and accumulate more Fe in shoot and grain | negative regulator | Kobayashi et al., 2013 |
| 37 | OsRah6a | Small GTPase for Fe accutisition | of various Fe deficiency-inducible genes Modulator for Fe acquisition by up-regulation of OsIRO2. OSIRT1. | Yang and Zhang. 2016 |
| 5 | | | OsNAS1 and OsNAS2 | |
| 38 | OsMT2D | Metallothionein gene | | Descalsota et al., 2018 |



Fig. 2. Schematic diagram for Fe- transport from roots to shoots and grains in rice plant. Involvement of Ferric Reductase Defective, Ferroportins and nicotiamines for transport from roots to shoots through xylem. Fe is transported to vacuoles by VIT and efflux from vacuole by NRAMP3/4. Fe-complex transport to seeds is mediated by Yellow Stripe-Like transporters.

its production increases during Fe deficiency condition to roots (Romera et al., 1999, 2011).

2.2. Fe uptake mechanisms from roots to shoots and other plant parts

The upward movement of Fe ions from root cytosol to shoots and other plant parts takes place through xylem and phloem (Fig. 2). Few organic acids of xylem namely, citrate, malate, and succinate increase its content in response to Fe-deficieny situations (López-Millán et al., 2000). The transport of iron through xylem to shoots mainly happens in the form of Fe³⁺-citrate complex (Von Wiren et al., 1999; Durrett et al., 2007; Rellán-Álvarez et al., 2008; Rellán Álvarez et al., 2010). The movement of Fe- citrate complex through xylem mediated by transporter, FRDL1 which is an ortholog of ferric reductase defective 3 (FRD3) in Arabidopsis (Yokosho et al., 2016). Pericycle and adjoining cells near to vascular bundle contain the ferric reductase defective enzyme which is essential for movement of the Fe-complex (Green and Rogers, 2004). The mutant rice plants with Osfrdl showed less citrate and Fe content in the xylem vessels and also the phenotype of the plant was like that under the Fe-deficiency condition (Yokosho et al., 2009). Ferroportins (FPN1) mediates the loading of iron into xylem vessel (Morrissey et al., 2009). The translocation of Fe through xylem occurs in the form of Fe-nicotianamine and Fe-MAs which also contributes to the precursors of PS (Inoue et al., 2003; Bonneau et al., 2016).

Movement of Fe from xylem, it travels *via* apoplastic space to reach leaves. In the phloem-based transfer of Fe, the complex forms of NA and DMA are also observed (Curie et al., 2009). The movement of Fe from apoplast to symplast is mediated by the metal-NA transporters, namely

AtYSL1, AtYSL2 and AtYSL3 (Waters et al., 2006; Didonato et al., 2004). These transporter genes show in the higher expression in the parenchymatous cells of vascular bundles in leaves (Waters et al., 2006; Didonato et al., 2004). OsYSL2 transporter is involved in transfer of the Fe-NA chelate to shoots and seeds (Koike et al., 2004; Ishimaru et al., 2010). The transport of Fe (III)-MA is facilitated by OsYSL16 (Kakei et al., 2012). The other Fe-complex transport is performed in the reproductive organs and phloem of lamina joints by OsYSL18 (Aoyama et al., 2009). However, Fe (II)-NA and Fe (III)-DMA complex forms are also reported to be transported to seeds by OsYSL9 (Senoura et al., 2017). It is also presumed that the recirculation of Fe ions from leaves to developing tissues are made by oligo peptide transporter 3 (OPT3) transporter (Wintz et al., 2003; Mendoza-Cózatl et al., 2014).

3. Strategies of maintaining Fe-toxicity tolerance by rice plants

Increased metabolism of scavengers protein in tolerant plants helps avoiding oxidative stress in the plants. For scavenging of hydroxyl radicals and ROS, plant produces wide varieties of phenolic compounds scavengers such as tannins, lignin and flavonoids (Blokhina et al., 2003). Plant store Fe^{2+} in leaf sheath which is harmful for photosynthesis and yield (Engel et al., 2012). Excess metal ions are stored in the vacuole and are released during deficiency condition (Moore et al., 2014). The following Fe-toxicity tolerance mechanisms have been adopted by rice plants.



Fig. 3. Physical position of genes/QTLs involved in deficiency, toxicity and biofortification for homeostasis of Fe in rice.

3.1. Oxidation of Fe^{2+} at root surface

It favours low availability of Fe^{2+} in soil solution. This type of mechanism is exclusion of Fe^{2+} by rhizosphere. Root oxidizing power by the tolerant genotype by release of oxygen or enzymatic oxidation is responsible for precipitation of Fe^{2+} in the rhizosphere and excludes excess Fe^{2+} uptake into rice plants (Green and Etherington, 1977; Ando et al., 1983). The root oxidation power of the tolerant plant is more

than susceptible one due to the presence of larger primary root and shoot diameter of the pith cavity in tolerant one that favors better oxygen transport from root to shoot (Wu et al., 2014). This increases the absolute volume of aerenchyma that facilitates the process of oxygen transport. Presence of higher density of lateral fine roots increase the root oxidation power thereby better exclusion of Fe²⁺ in tolerant genotype. This is already established fact that aerenchyma helps in oxygen movement by creating low resistance for air movement within

the roots (Colmer, 2002). A QTL (*q*FETOX-3) is involved in controlling the Fe exclusion from rice roots (Wu et al., 2014). In strategy I, the movement of Fe²⁺ from rhizosphere is mediated by *OsIRT1* for acquisition of the micronutrient (Ishimaru et al., 2006). This Fe-regulated transporter gene, *OsIRT1* is located within the QTL, *q*FETOX-3 region on chromosome 3. This gene ID. Os03g0667500 could be annotated from in this QTL region from rice annotation database (RAP-DB, http:// rapdb.dna.affrc.go.jp/index.html).

3.2. Exclusion of Fe inside the root surface

This mechanism favors inclusion of Fe but stores it in a non-reactive form as in case of 'Ferritin' molecule in rice. Ferritin is a candidate protein that keeps upto 4000 Fe atoms in a safe and bio available form (Briat et al., 1999, Briat et al., 2010). This helps in avoidance of transport of Fe storing it internally. Presence of Fe storage in plant tissues as high-molecular-mass may be a possible mechanism found in the tolerant plants (Stein et al., 2009; da Silveira et al., 2009). The QTL on chromosome 1, *q*FETOX-1-2 showed shoot based tolerance and two genes having IDs Os01g0878800 and Os01g0878900 are annotated for molecular functions for Fe²⁺ binding by rice annotation database.

3.3. Retention of Fe by roots

In this step of tolerance mechanism, there is retention of Fe in roots and declines their translocation to different plant parts. Decline in Fe²⁺ uptake may possibly to avoid production of reactive oxygen species (ROS) by Fenton reaction due to accumulation of more Fe^{2+} . By this retention strategy, the genes controlling Fe-uptake and transport viz., OsIRT1, OsIRT2, OsNRAMP1, OsYSL2, and OsYSL15, especially in roots are suppressed during Fe-toxicity condition. The transporter TOM1, TOM1-like and ENA1 were highly suppressed in roots. ENA1, an efflux transporter of NA and MA transporter genes (OsNAS1, OsNAS2, OsNAAT1, and OsDMAS1) exhibited clear suppression in the roots (Aung et al., 2018). The vacuolar transporter, OsVIT2 and the oxygen and electron transfer related genes are highly induced in root tissues under excess Fe conditions (Aung et al., 2018). Fe-regulated transporter-like protein (ZIP) and OsZIP5 genes are also induced in roots under Fe excess conditions (Aung et al., 2018). Thus, Fe uptake is restricted during iron toxicity situation of the rice field. However, the scavenging molecules like ascorbate, reduced glutathione and antioxidants namely, superoxide dismutase (SOD), catalase, peroxidise and poly phenol oxidase (PPO) generated by rice plants protects them from the ROS fatal effects (Bode et al., 1995; Fang and Kao, 2000; Fang et al., 2001; Becker and Asch, 2005; Gallie, 2013). Studies on contrasting genotypes for Fe-toxicity tolerance conducted revealed that lower dehydroascorbate reductase and higher ascorbate oxidase are detected in tolerant genotypes during Fe-toxicity stress (Wu et al., 2016).

3.4. Enzymatic detoxification of elevated Fe^{2+} within symplast

Reactive oxygen species scavengers like SOD are prominent reducer of high Fe toxicity effects (Majerus et al., 2009). The cofactor of SOD oxidizes the process for dismutation of super oxide radicals. Reduction of one electron generates O_2 and H_2O_2 at the molecular level. Concentration of O_2 and H_2O_2 determines the concentration of SOD (Muscoli et al., 2003; Selote et al., 2004). The excessive production of H_2O_2 may affect SOD activity under stress condition *viz.*, Fe-SOD and Cu/Zn-SOD isoform (Alscher et al., 2002). High concentration of O_2 and H_2O_2 indicates the presence of tolerance mechanism. Under Fe-toxicity condition, *ENA1* was strongly suppressed in roots, but *ENA2* was not suppressed. NA synthesized by *OsNAS3* and transported by *ENA2* protects the cell from oxidative damage and plays an important role in scavenging the Fe detoxification (Von Wiren et al., 1999; Aung et al., 2018). The transcription factors *viz, OsNAC4, OsNAC5* and *OsNAC6* are induced in rice roots at higher Fe levels in the field. *OsNAC4* controls programmed cell death and induces under excess Fe. Over expression of *OsNAC5* confers drought, cold, high salinity, abscisic acid (ABA), and methyl jasmonic acid stress tolerance in rice (Takasaki et al., 2010). In addition, *OsNAC6* is induced by drought, high salinity, and ABA treatment (Nakashima et al., 2014). Thus, *OsNAC4, OsNAC5* and *OsNAC6* genes are responsive to Fe toxicity stress and play role in Fe homeostasis in rice.

4. Enhancing Fe uptake in rice using genes/QTLs under Fedeficiency situations

Fe-deficiency stress to plants can be tolerated by improving the transporter genes. Two transporter genes, *OsIRT1* and *OsYSL15* are used to increase the Fe concentrations in seeds produced under low Fe availability condition by over expression approach (Table 1). Expression of transporter gene, *OsYSL15* increases the level of Fe^{3+} -MAs under Fe-deficiency situations to increase the uptake of Fe (Curie et al., 2001; Lee et al., 2009; Ueno et al., 2009; Li et al., 2016). Nicotianamine aminotransferase gene (naat1) expresses to increase the production of 2-deoxymugineic acid (DMA) for more Fe^{3+} uptake under Fe-deficiency conditions (Cheng et al., 2007). Two Fe^{2+} transporter genes, *OsIRT1* and *OsIRT2* in rice plants are highly expressed under soil Fe-deficiency condition (Ishimaru et al., 2006). Increase of ethylene in soil also indicates more acquisition of Fe^{2+} ions (Romera and Alcantara, 1994; Lucena et al., 2006; Waters et al., 2006; Giehl et al., 2009; Romera et al., 2011).

OsIRO2 (*Oryza sativa* Fe regulator 2), a transcription factor gene is up regulated during low Fe concentration and combines with expression of other genes for controlling Fe homeostasis during germination and grain filling (Ogo et al., 2007; Hindt and Guerinot, 2012; Li et al., 2016). Fe deficiency responsive elements (IDE) are positive regulator and binds to the specific sequence that promotes Fe regulation in plants. Positive Fe regulation role of IDE1 and IDE2 has been established (Kobayashi et al., 2003). Homologous sequences to IDE1 are detected in other Fe deficiency inducible promoters of genes viz., *OsNAS1*, *OsNAS2*, *OsIRT1*, *AtFRO2* and *AtIRT1*. IDE1 and IDE2 have sequences which match to *OsDEF1* and *OsDEF2* (Table 1; Fig. 3). *OsDEF1* induces positively for Fe uptake and Fe governing genes in rice viz., *OsIRO2*, *OsYSL15*, *OsYSL2*, *OsIRT1*, *OsNAS1*, *OsNAS2* and *OsNAS3* (Kobayashi et al., 2010; Li et al., 2016).

The transformed plants obtained by insertion of *SoyFERH2* gene using *OsGLUB1* and *OsGLB* rice promoters and barley genes *Nicotianamine aminotransferase* (*HvNAAT-A* and *HvNAAT-B*) and mugineic acid synthase (*IDS3*) were tolerant to Fe-deficiency situation (Table 1). Peanut *AhIRT1*, a key transporter gene of Fe under limiting condition was transferred to rice plant using Fe-deficiency-inducible artificial promoter (Xiong et al., 2013). The transgenic lines showed more Fe uptakes from soil under Fe deficiency condition. The transgenic line containing *AtIRT1*, *AtNAS1* and *PvFERRITIN* (*PvFER*) genes in a single cassette expressed together showed increased Fe content in rice under Fe deficiency condition (Boonyaves et al., 2017).

5. Approaches for enhancing Fe tolerance under iron toxicity condition in rice

5.1. Genes/QTLs useful for enhancing tolerance under Fe toxicity condition

Genes governing tolerance to Fe toxicity have been reported in rice using various mapping populations (Table 2). Using Azucena and IR64 derived population, it was observed that leaf bronzing index (LBI) is controlled by QTL present on chromosome 1 (Dufey et al., 2009). Seven QTLs were detected for LBI on chromosome 1, 2, 7, 8 and 12 showing 99% of phenotypic variation by analyzing the mapping population of Gimbozu and Kasalath (Shimizu, 2009). These chromosomal regions were also detected earlier for leaf bronzing tolerance in rice (Wu et al., 1998; Wan et al., 2003a). Three QTLs for leaf bronzing tolerance were

| Table Genes | .2 /QTLs useful for Fe transport and toxicity | ⁄ tolerance in rice. | | | | |
|----------------|--|----------------------------|------------|---|--|--|
| SI. | Trait/ | QTLs | Chromosome | Markers | Population used | Reference |
| 1 | LBI | | 1 | RG345/RG381 | BC ₁ F ₁ (Azucena) of Azucena/IR64 | Wu et al., 1997 |
| 7 | LBI, RDWS | | 1 | RG220B | Azucena/IR64 | Wu et al., 1997, Wu et al., 1998 |
| e | RDWS | | 8 | RM42 | Azucena/IR64 | Wu et al., 1997 |
| 4 | LBI | | 1,3,8 | C955/C885 | Nipponbare/Kasalath | Wan et al., 2003a |
| n j | LBI, RDWS | | 3,6,9,11 | STSI163 | Asominori/IR24 | Wan et al., 2003b |
| 9 1 | LBI | | - 0 | RM315-RM212 | Longza8503/IR64 | Wan et al., 2005 |
| | LBI | | | KM6-KM240 | Longza8503/IK64 | Van and Wan, 2005 |
| χc | LBI | | 4 | 1 C4M3-2 C2M3 | Longza8503/1K04 | Van and Wah, 2005 |
| ۲ 1 | 1 11 | | - | AMON LEADER | Assessed TD6.4 | NIII et al., 2000 Dufer of al. 2000 |
| 1 1 | 101 | | | NUIDST-NUIZ40 | Azucella allu IN04 | Durey et al., 2009 |
| 1 5 | | | | RM965_RM315 | Azucena anu 1K04 Azucena and 1R64 | Duifey et al., 2009 Duifey et al 2000 |
| 13 | | | 2 | RM254-RM224 | Azucena and IB64 | Dufev et al., 2009 |
| 14 | | | 1 01 | RM224-RM144 | Azucena and IR64 | Dufey et al., 2009 |
| 15 | Ferroportins | OsVIT1 OsVIT2 | 4 (| | | Zhang et al., 2012 |
| ţ | | | 9 | Usu9gu396900 | | |
| 10 | NKAMP genes | OSNKAMP1 to OSNKAMP8 | 7,3,6,7,12 | | | Victoria et al., 2012 |
| 10 | rerroporuns r br | OSFFINI OSFFINZ | , | 1000012: | IB30 @c[4/c]; | |
| 10 | LBI | 1-I-VIII-1-2 DEFTOV-1-2 | | 10100004 | IK29/POKKAII TD20/Dobbali | Wu et al., 2014 Winer al 2014 |
| 6T | 1 BT | 7-1-V012Jh | | 14102158 | IN29/FURNALI ID20 /Doldrali | Wu et al., 2014 Wii et al. 2014 |
| 03 E | L R I | AFFTOY-2 | - 6 | 00132420 DD1 | IR 20 /Dokkali | Wu et au., 2017 White al 2014 |
| 22 | 1.BI | qFETOX-4-1 | 1 4 | id4002852 | IR29/Pokkali | Wullet al., 2014 Will et al., 2014 |
| 53 | LBI | | . 4 | id4002913 | IR29/Pokkali | Wu et al., 2014 |
| 24 | LBI | | 4 | id4003259 | IR29/Pokkali | Wu et al., 2014 |
| 25 | LBI | | 4 | id4003727 | IR29/Pokkali | |
| 26 | | qFETOX-4-2 | 4 | id4005867 | IR29/Pokkali | Wu et al., 2014 |
| 27 | | qFETOX-7 | 7 | id7000519 | IR29/Pokkali | Wu et al., 2014 |
| 28 | | qFETOX-12 | 12 | id12010050 | IR29/Pokkali | Wu et al., 2014 |
| 29 | LBI, RFe, SDW, RDW | | 10 | RM184-RM258 | 0.sativa/0.glaberrina | Dufey et al., 2015a; Dufey et al., 2015b |
| 30 | LBI | Glutathione-S-transferase | c | LOC_Os01g49710 and LOC_Os01g49720 | | Mathus et al., 2015 |
| 31 | LBI | OSNAATT OSYSLI | - 5 | | | Finatto et al., 2015 |
| 32 | Relative root dry weight | qFRRDW1-1 | | C1S110-C1S124 10,514,742-11389991 | Minghui 63 and Shanyou 63 | Li et al., 2016 |
| 33 | Relative root dry weight | qFRRDW1-2 | 1 | C1S130-C1S142 11,788,361-12387454 | Minghui 63 and Shanyou 63 | Li et al., 2016 |
| 34 | Relative root dry weight | qFRRDW2 | 2 | C2S139-C2S143 15,875,115-1620220 | Minghui 63 and Shanyou 63 | Li et al., 2016 |
| 35 | Relative shoot dry weight | qFRSDW11 | 11 | C11S55-C11S59 4,342,500-4788363 | Minghui 63 and Shanyou 63 | Li et al., 2016 |
| 36 | Relative root dry weight | qFRRDW3 | 3 | C3S256–C3S260 16,186,851–16524031 | Minghui 63 and Shanyou 63 | Li et al., 2016 |
| 37 | Relative root dry weight | qFRRDW9-1 | 6 | C9S119-C9S124 9,104,463-9312653 | Minghui 63 and Shanyou 63 | Li et al., 2016 |
| 80.00 | kelative root dry weight | qFKKDW9-2 | ע | C95185-C95190 13,496,238-13/88/9/ | Minghui 63 and Shanyou 63 | Li et al., 2016 Missished at al. 2016 |
| 65 | LB Choot daw weight | 10100223 | c | 1 00 0.00-17350.1 00 0.00-17370 | Common rice varieties | Nugrana et al., 2016 |
| 1 | Shoot dry weight Shoot dry weight | qsawsa acdwsh | n n | LUC_USU384/380; LUC_USU384/3/U 1 DC_0:03:c630:50: 1 DC_0:03:c63060: 1 DC_0:03:c63170 | Genome-wide association study | Zhang et al., 2017 Zhang et al. 2017 |
| 4.2 | Shoot dry weight | aSdw12 | 12 | LOC_000202000, LOC_000202000, LOC_0002021/ 0 | Genome-wide association study | Zhang et al., 2017 |
| 43 | Root dry weight | aRdw3 | 1 00 | LOC 0s03g47370 | Genome-wide association study | Zhang et al., 2017 |
| 44 | Root dry weight | aRdw5b | л П | | Genome-wide association study | Zhang et al., 2017 |
| 45 | Root dry weight | gRdw6 | 9 | | Genome-wide association study | Zhang et al., 2017 |
| 46 | Root dry weight | qRdw8 | 8 | | Genome-wide association study | Zhang et al., 2017 |
| 47 | Root dry weight | qRdw9 | 6 | LOC_Os09g24700 | Genome-wide association study | Zhang et al., 2017 |
| 48 | Root dry weight | qRdw11 | 11 | | Genome-wide association study | Zhang et al., 2017 |
| 4 7 | Root dry weight chart iron content | dRdw12 Actor | 12 | | Genome-wide association study | Zhang et al., ZUT/ Throws at al 2017 |
| 3 6 | Fe storage protein & vacuolar transporter | Contra Devite | л т | | ochomic-wide association study | Anno et al. 2018 |
| 5 | re storage protein a racavia aumproce | 031112 | r | | | |
| | | | | | | (continued on next page) |

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| Reference | Aung et al., 2019 | |
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| Population used | | |
| arkers | | |
| Chromosome Ma | 7 | |
| QTLs | OsNAS3 | |
| Sl. Trait/ | 52 NAS | |

detected on chromosome 1, 3 and 8 in the backcross population of Nipponbare and Kasalath showing 11.6–18.6 % of phenotypic variation (Wan et al., 2003a). Another 3 QTLs controlling LBI were tagged from the population of Asominori/ IR24 in the marker interval of C515-XNpb279, R2638-C1263 and G1465-C950 on chromosome 3, 9 and 11, contributing 16.45%, 11.16% and 28.02% to the variation, respectively (Wan et al., 2003b). QTLs for LBI were detected in the marker region of RM315-RM212 on the 1, RM6-RM240 on the chromosome 2 and RM252-RM451 on the chromosome 4 (Wan and Wan, 2005). Another seven QTLs were reported for bronzing tolerance present on chromosome 1, 2, 4, 7 and 12 explaining 9.2–18.7% of the phenotypic variation using the mapping population of IR29/Pokkali F_8 recombinant inbred lines (Wu et al., 2014). OTLs controlling LBI, SDW and RDW were reported in the marker interval of RM184-RM258 on chromosome 10 by analyzing O. sativa/O. glaberrima population (Dufey et al., 2015a; Dufey et al., 2015b).

Fe toxicity tolerance is controlled by several QTLs which are induced by the surrounding Fe concentration in the rhizosphere. Research findings from earlier study reported few genes for Fe toxicity regulation viz., OsIRT1, OsIRT2, OsFRO2, OsIRO2, OsYSL15, OsYSL2, OsNAS1, OsNAS2 and OsNAS3 in rice (Narayanan et al., 2007; Banerjee et al., 2011; Aung et al., 2018) (Fig. 3). OsIRT1, a Fe transporter involves in the metabolic pathways of Fe uptake controls the Fe concentration and expression in roots, leaves and stems of the plant. Twelve homologs of this transporter are present in the rice genome under this ZIP (Zinc Iron Permease) family genes (Guerinot, 2000; Ishimaru et al., 2005; Lee et al., 2010). Among these genes, OsZIP8 (Os07g0232800), OsZIP10 (Os06g0566300) and OsZIP14 (Os08g0467400) were up-regulated under in iron toxicity condition (Finatto et al., 2015). OsFRO2 is up regulated by high concentration of Fe²⁺ and plays role in Fe uptake and mobilization (Finatto et al., 2015). Fe storage protein & vacuolar transporter gene OsVIT2 divert and store the excess iron in rice (Aung et al., 2018). OsNAS3 plays important role for Fe-toxicity and induced under excess Fe conditions in the older leaves (Aung et al., 2019).

The chelation and movement of Fe³⁺ ions are facilitated by phloem nicotianamine (NA) to maintain metal homeostasis (Takahashi et al., 2003). Transportation of Fe throughout the plant is governed by OsNAS (Inoue et al., 2003). Natural resistance-associated macrophage protein (NRAMP) family molecules play important role in Fe transportation throughout the plant. Eight NRAMP genes, namely OsNRAMP1 to OsNRAMP8 are reported in rice. These macrophage protein genes use to regulate the Fe transport at sub-cellular level and later transport to vacuoles and plastids. Out of these eight genes, OsNRAMP1 is expressed in roots; OsNRAMP2 in leaves and OsNRAMP3 in both roots and leaves (Belouchi et al., 1997; Curie et al., 2000; Victoria et al., 2012). Among these genes, OsNRAMP6 (Os01g0503400) was up regulated under Fetoxicity condition (Finatto et al., 2015). Transport of Fe to vacuole is facilitated by ferroportin (FPN) and the molecules of Vacuolar Iron Transporter (VITs) family (Morrissey et al., 2009; Zhang et al., 2012). Two transporter FPN genes were identified as OsFPN1 and OsFPN2 in rice (Bashir et al., 2011; Merlot et al., 2014). These ferroportins are attached to vacuolar membrane and express in seeds, embryo and voung seedlings (Kim et al., 2006). Ferroportin- genes, OsVIT1 and OsVIT2 initiate storage of Fe in flag leaves and suppression of these genes produces more Fe concentration in the seed (Zhang et al., 2012).

A linkage disequilibrium study on Fe toxicity tolerance has revealed significant association of single nucleotide polymorphism (SNPs) with leaf bronzing score. SNP id1016768 was located close to two putative glutathione-S-transferase genes locus *viz.* LOC_Os01g49710 and LOC_Os01g49720. Also, SNP id2015632 and SNP id1015380 were found to be associated with tolerance but at a lower significance level (Mathus et al., 2015). Transcriptome analysis showed up-regulation of *OsNAAT1, OsYSL1* and *OsYSL17* under Fe stress condition (Finatto et al., 2015). These induced three genes belong to multi drug and toxic compounds extrusion (MATE) family. It may govern the reduction of ROS synthesis in mitochondria.

5.2. Managing Fe toxicity tolerance through agronomic practice

Rice rhizosphere is considered as the first line of defence against excess Fe²⁺uptake. Rice roots produce more ethylene that helps in longer with more laterals roots. This increases aerenchymatous cells in the roots which facilitates diffusion of oxygen into roots under submerged condition. These aerenchyma cells occupy about 20% to 50% of the total root volume of rice under submerged condition for exchange of gases (Armstrong, 1979; Kawase, 1981). Rhizosphere collects oxygen from atmosphere for oxidation of Fe with the help of aerenchyma (Harahap et al., 2014). The mechanism behind the root growth under the Fe toxic condition might be related to decrease in mineral uptake at severe Fe²⁺ toxic situation (Liao et al., 2001; López-Bucio et al., 2002). Some conventional practices decrease the Fe-toxicity are good drainage to oxidize Fe, applications of P, K, Zn or Si fertilizers and lime to increase pH of soil solution (Ramirez et al., 2002; Abdoul, 2006; Fageria et al., 2008; Elec et al., 2013; Prasetyo et al., 2013; Dufey et al., 2014). But these methods are neither economically good nor practically improved. Farmers usually prefer Fe toxicity tolerant rice varieties than management practices due to more cost and lower rate of success.

6. Approaches for Fe biofortification in rice

6.1. Genes/QTLs identified for enhancing grain Fe content

A wide genotypic variation for grain Fe content is available in rice germplasms (Qui et al., 1995; Ahmed et al., 1998; Graham et al., 1999; Gregorio et al., 2000; Zhang et al., 2005; Anuradha et al., 2012a, b; Mahender et al., 2016; Swamy et al., 2016). Increasing the iron content in rice grain through breeding approach is a cheaper way and an easier option. Knowledge on genes/QTLs controlling grain Fe is pre-requisite for enhancement of the trait. Few reports on mapping results on grain-Fe content are available. Three loci on chromosomes 7, 8, and 9 explaining 19-30% phenotypic variance (PV) for Fe content were reported by Gregorio et al. (2000). A QTL on chromosome 2 exhibiting 16.5% of PV for the trait was reported from a DH population (Stangoulis et al., 2007). Another QTL on the same chromosome close to the marker RM6641 was also detected (Garcia-Oliveira et al., 2008). Using a DH population, James et al. (2007) reported three Fe linked QTLs on chromosomes 2, 8 and 12, explaining 17, 18 and 14% of the total PV, respectively. Norton et al. (2010) reported qFe-1 explaining 25.81% PV with LOD score of 7.66. Anuradha et al. (2012a, b) identified 14 QTLs for Fe and Zn from unpolished rice of Madhukar/Swarna RILs. Nawaj et al., 2015 have identified many Fe binding and transporters. These loci genes viz., OsZIP1, OsHMA4, OsACA2, OsZIP2, OsCNGC, OsZIP3, OsZIP5, OsZIP9, OsHma2, ABC transporter, OsNAS3, heavy metal transporter, Chy zinc finger and OsACA9 are useful for Fe enhancement (Table 3; Fig. 3). Seven QTLs, namely qFe3:1, qFe3:2, gFe7:1, gFe9:1, gFe9:2, gFe10:1 and Fe11:1 were detected through GWAS for Fe enhancement in rice (Descalsota et al., 2018). Recently, two novel QTLs, qFe3.3 and qFe7.3 controlling grain Fe-content have been detected through LD mapping (Pradhan et al., 2020).

6.2. Transgenic approach for Fe biofortification

Genetic enhancement of Fe content in rice seeds through transgenic approach seems to be highly effective compared to other methods (Table 4; Fig. 3). Goto et al. (1999) first reported 3-fold increase in grain-Fe content in transgenic rice than recipient genotype by soyabean *ferritin* gene transfer. Lucca et al. (2001) enhanced 2-fold Fe content by transfer of ferritin from common bean to rice. Vasconcelos et al. (2003) achieved 3-fold increase in Fe by transferring the soyabean ferritin gene to rice. Khalekuzzaman et al. (2006) claimed 2-fold increase in Fe content in transgenic rice lines. Many researchers have reported enhancement of the micronutrient by over expression of Fe-uptake genes from root, leaf shoot to grains, and by more storage of Fe in proteins (Lee et al., 2009; Ogo et al., 2011; Kobayashi and Nishizawa, 2012; Lee et al., 2012; Bashir et al., 2013; Masuda et al., 2013; Slamet-Loedin et al., 2015). Nicotianamine synthase genes viz., OsNAS1, OsNAS2 and OsNAS3 are expressed in rice and works as transporter genes. Transfer of NAS gene from Hordeum vulgare to rice enhanced 2- to 3-fold iron content in polished rice (Masuda et al., 2009). Therefore, overexpression of these NAS genes is useful to enhance the Fe content in rice (Lee et al., 2009; Lee et al., 2010; Zheng et al., 2010). Overexpression of NAS genes increased Fe accumulation to five-fold in rice grain (Zheng et al., 2010). Also, previous overexpression study using three NAS homologous proteins increased two-fold Fe-content in polished rice (Johnson et al., 2011). Similarly, by overexpressing ferritin gene, Fe content was increased many folds in transgenic rice lines (Paul et al., 2012). Overexpressing nicotianamine transporter gene, OsYSL2 increased iron content in rice (Koike et al., 2004; Ishimaru et al., 2010; Masuda et al., 2013). Transgenic rice lines containing mugineic acid synthase genes, namely HvNAS1 and HvNAAT-A,-B or IDS3 transferred from barley have resulted higher concentration of Fe in grains (Higuchi et al., 2001; Kobayashi et al., 2001; Masuda et al., 2008; Suzuki et al., 2008). Higher translocation of 1.4 -fold iron in rice grain was achieved from leaves to seeds by knockdown of transporter genes OsVIT1 and OsVIT2 in rice (Zhang et al., 2012). Similarly, knockdown of OsVIT2 showed 1.3-fold and 1.8-fold higher Fe content in brown and polished rice, respectively (Bashir et al., 2013). Transgenic rice containing nicotianamine synthase (OsNAS2) and soybean ferritin (SferH-1) genes enhanced 6-fold higher endosperm Fe without yield penalty or change in grain quality (Trijatmiko et al., 2016). The engineered plant with AtIRT1, AtNAS1 and PvFERRITIN (PvFER) genes expressed together showing increased grain iron content in rice (Boonyaves et al., 2017).

6.3. Fe biofortification through agronomic practices

Iron biofortification in rice through agronomic practices by application of Fe fertilizers/nutrients to enhance the nutritional status and health of crops (Prasad et al., 2020). This method improves the nutritional quality for the plant temporarily. Soil application of Fe fertilizers namely ferrous sulphate to the soil soon gets converted to ferric form and cannot be available to rice crop. Foliar application of Fe fertilizers is the preferred method than soil application for Fe fortification (Prasad et al., 2020). Grain Fe content of rice could be increased by 20–40% by this foliar application approach (Yadav et al., 2013; Prasad and Shivay, 2018a, Prasad and Shivay, 2018b). Supplementation of ferrous sulfate to germinating rice increases Fe concentration in the germinated brown rice up to 15.6 folds (Yuan et al., 2013). However, the agronomic approach has specific application method, environmental condition as well as effect on the environment. This may be practicable in developed countries as this approach require more cost than other approaches.

7. Iron deficiency and toxicity symptoms in rice

The Fe deficiency symptoms are commonly seen in young and emerging leaves because of its immobile nature. Interveinal yellowing and chlorosis of leaves are usually found but turn pale and plant die under severe deficiency situation (Kobayashi and Nishizawa, 2014). The roots may be affected and converted into chimeric and necrotic epidermis (Morrissey and Guerinot, 2009; Giehl et al., 2012; Gruber et al., 2013). Under deficiency of this nutrient, chlorophyll content reduces which decreases photosynthetic rate thereby result in stunted growth and finally produces low grain yield. Upland soils, with a pH of more than 6.5 are generally deficient in available Fe. The severity of the problem increases with increase in soil pH.

Bronzing, the Fe-toxicity symptom in leaves starts from the tip and progresses towards basal region in older leaves by formation of tiny brown spots (Tanaka and Loe, 1966; Dufey et al., 2009, Dufey et al., 2015a; Dufey et al., 2015b; Aung et al., 2018). These tiny spots rapidly amplify and coalesce under higher toxicity condition giving a purple

Table 3

Genes/QTLs responsible for iron biofortification in rice grain.

| Sl. | QTLs | Chromosome | Markers | Population used | Reference |
|-----|---|------------|-------------------|----------------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| 1 | qFe1.1 | 1 | RM243-RM488 | RILs Madhukar/Swarna | Anuradha et al., 2012a,b |
| 2 | qFe1.2 | 1 | RM488-RM490 | RILs | |
| 3 | qFe1 | 1 | RM259-RM243 | RILs Zhenshan 97/Minghui 63 | Kaiyang et al., 2008 |
| 4 | qFe2-1 | 2 | RM6641 | ILs O. rufipogon/Teqing | Garcia-Oliveira et al., 2008 |
| 5 | qFe.2 | 2 | RM53-RM300 | DHs of IR64/Azucena | James et al., 2007 |
| | Fe conc | 1 | STSI163 | | Wan et al., 2003a, Wan et al., 2003b |
| 6 | qFe.2 | 2 | RM452 | LT/TL-RILs Lemont/TeQing | Zhang et al., 2015 |
| 7 | qFe5.1 | 5 | RM574-RM122 | RILs of Madhukar/Swarna | Anuradha et al., 2012a,b |
| 8 | qFe7.1 | 7 | RM234-RM248 | RILs | |
| 9 | qFe.8 | 8 | RM137-RM325A | DHs IR64/Azucena | James et al., 2007 |
| 10 | qFe.11 | 11 | RZ536-TEL3 | RILs Zhenshan 97/Minghui 63 | Kaiyang et al., 2008 |
| 11 | qFe.12 | 12 | RM270-RM17 | DHs | |
| 12 | qFe12.2 | 12 | RM260-RM7102 | RILs Madhukar/Swarna | Anuradha et al., 2012a,b |
| 13 | qFe12.1 | | RM17-RM260 | RILs | |
| 14 | | 1 | RM246-RM5461 | | Du et al., 2013 |
| 15 | Gene and locus: OSZIP1 Os01g0972200 | 1 | RM431 | | Nawaz et al., 2015 |
| 16 | | 1 | C949+0 | | Norton et al., 2010 |
| 17 | | 3 | RM5864 and RM3400 | | Nawaz et al., 2015 |
| 18 | | 3 | RM8203 | | Nawaz et al., 2015 |
| 19 | | 2 | RM279 and RM555 | | Nawaz et al., 2015 |
| 20 | | 6 | RM340-RM494 | | Du et al., 2013 |
| 21 | | 3 | R1618-7 | | Norton et al., 2010 |
| 22 | | 4 | RM3217 | | Nawaz et al., 2015 |
| 23 | | 5 | RM161 | | Nawaz et al., 2015 |
| 24 | | 6 | RM162 | | Nawaz et al., 2015 |
| 25 | Gene and locus: Os10g0456800 CHY zinc finger family protein | 10 | RM271 | | Nawaz et al., 2015 |
| 26 | Gene and locus: OsACA9 Os12g0136900 | 12 | RM19 | | Nawaz et al., 2015 |
| 27 | qFe3.1 | 3 | S3_13026098 | MAGIC Plus population | Descalsota et al., 2018 |
| 28 | qFe3.1 | 3 | S3_29613916 | MAGIC Plus population | Descalsota et al., 2018 |
| 29 | qFe7.1 | 7 | S7_29288449 | MAGIC Plus population | Descalsota et al., 2018 |
| 30 | qFe9.1 | 9 | S9_11707990 | MAGIC Plus population | Descalsota et al., 2018 |
| 31 | qFe9.2 | 9 | S9_22203582 | MAGIC Plus population | Descalsota et al., 2018 |
| 32 | qFe10.1 | 10 | S10_13883426 | MAGIC Plus population | Descalsota et al., 2018 |
| 33 | qFe11.1 | 11 | S11_7122972 | MAGIC Plus population | Descalsota et al., 2018 |
| 34 | qFe3.3 | 3 | | Genome-wide association | Pradhan et al., 2020 |
| 35 | qFe7.3 | 7 | | Genome-wide association study | Pradhan et al., 2020 |

brown appearance and ultimately leaf dries. The symptoms are localized due to immovability of Fe to the emerging tissues and leaves. Leaf tip yellowing and then bronzing occurs particularly in older leaves and the symptom increases under high transpiration rate (Yamanouchi and Yoshida, 1981; Dufey et al., 2015a; Dufey et al., 2015b; Zhang et al., 2018). Fe toxicity stress increases inter-venal brown spots and the leaf may turn brown-yellow and finally senescence (Fairhurst and Witt, 2002). The symptoms of Fe toxicity in rice are generally observed during active tillering and heading stages of the crop, but may be seen at any growth stages depending on mobilization of Fe²⁺ ions in the plant tissue. The sensitive genotypes also show shortening of roots, appearance of brown coating with damaged root system and many nonfunctional roots (Sahrawat, 2005). Increase in Fe toxicity decreases the number of secondary roots in rice (Pawar et al., 2017). Growth and yield reduction are also observed in few cases without appearance of proportionate leaf bronzing (Sahrawat, 2005; Onaga et al., 2013). Fe imbalance in rice delays flowering, increases sterility and reduces grain vield from 10 to 100% (Audebert and Fofana, 2009; Masuda et al., 2013a, b; Abifarin, 1988, 1989). A reduction in shoot biomass is observed under Fe toxicity condition (Onaga et al., 2013). Formation of Fe plaque, a Fe-complex in the rhizosphere under Fe-toxicity prevents uptake of other nutrients by roots causing nutritional disorder for P, Ca, K, Mg, Mn, Zn (Genon et al., 1994; Sahrawat, 2005). Imbalance in uptake of these nutrients produces negative effect on the diversity of microbes and total microbial biomass of soil solution (Zhang et al., 2005). Presence of more Fe in available form in lowland soil shows reddish scum on the surface of water (Motomura and Yokoi, 1969).

8. Screening strategies for Fe deficiency and toxicity tolerance in rice

The commonly followed phenotypic screenings for Fe deficiency and toxicity tolerance in rice by researchers are performed in hotspot locations, potted plants and under hydroponic screening approaches. Hotspot screening is the most common screening method in a place where Fe toxicity or deficiency spots or locations exist naturally. The stress symptoms are easily observed in susceptible rice varieties. In pot screening, toxic or deficient soils for Fe ions are supplied in pots for screening of the germplasm lines. However, in hydroponics approach, a soil-free screening method is followed using nutrients solution wherein excess or very low Fe concentration is maintained to screen the germplasm lines for Fe toxicity or deficiency in rice, respectively. Many nutrient solutions are being used for screening of Fe toxicity or deficiency tolerance in rice as per the sources and amount of Fe, pH of solution and chelators used (Mori et al., 1991; Wang and Peverly, 1998; Shimizu et al., 2005; Dufey et al., 2009; Shi et al., 2012; Elec et al., 2013).

9. Progress of Fe toxicity tolerance and Fe Biofortification improvement in rice

9.1. Breeding for enhancing Fe toxicity tolerance in rice

Various breeding programs were started systematically in African countriessince 1974. Initially, rice varieties were introduced for testing and evaluation in Western African countries. Few good varieties were

Table 4

Fe enhancement in rice grain by deployment of genes through transgenic approach.

| Sl.No. | Gene | Fold increase of Fe concentration | Reference |
|--------|---|---|----------------------------|
| 1 | Osnas2 | 4.2-fold Fe | Johnson et al., 2011 |
| 2 | Gm ferritin, Afphytase, and Osnas1 | 4 to 6.3-fold Fe | Wirth et al., 2009 |
| 3 | Activation tagging of Osnas3 | 2.9-fold Fe | Lee et al., 2009 |
| 4 | Ferritin gene | 4.4-fold Fe | Vasconcelos et al., 2003 |
| 5 | Nicotianamine synthase (NAS) gene | 2.0-fold Fe | Masuda et al., 2009 |
| 6 | Camv35spro-OsNAS1, OsNAS2, and OsNAS3 | 4.0-fold Fe | Johnson et al., 2011 |
| 7 | Barley genes | 1.40-fold Fe | Masuda et al., 2013a,b |
| 8 | SoyferH1 | 3.0-fold Fe | Goto et al., 1999 |
| 9 | SoyFerH1 | 3.0-fold Fe | Qu et al., 2005 |
| 10 | PyFerritin, rgMT | 2.0-fold | Lucca et al., 2002 |
| 11 | OsIRO2 | 2.8-fold Fe | Ogo et al., 2011 |
| 12 | OsYSL15 | 1.3-fold Fe | Lee et al., 2009 |
| 13 | HvNAS1, HvNAS1, HvNAAT, and IDS3 | 1.2-fold Fe | Suzuki et al., 2008 |
| 14 | OsNAS1 | 1.0-fold Fe | Zheng et al., 2010 |
| 15 | SoyFerH1 | 2.5-fold Fe | Paul et al., 2012 |
| 16 | OsNAS2 | 3.0-fold Fe | Lee et al., 2012 |
| 17 | HvNAS1 | 2.5-fold Fe | Higuchi et al., 2001 |
| 18 | OsYSL2 | 4.4-fold Fe | Ishimaru et al., 2010 |
| 19 | AtNAS1, Pvferritin, and Afphytase | 6.3-fold Fe | Wirth et al., 2009 |
| 20 | SoyFerH2, HvNAS1, and OsYSL2 | 3.4-fold Fe | Aung et al., 2013 |
| 21 | SoyFerH2, HvNAS1, HvNAAT-A, -B and IDS3 | 2.5-fold Fe | Masuda et al., 2013 |
| | genome fragments | | |
| 22 | OsNAS3-D1 | 1.7-fold Fe in shoots, 1.6-fold in Fe roots | Lee et al., 2009 |
| 23 | Ferritine gene | 2.0-fold Fe | Khalekuzzaman et al., 2006 |
| 24 | Osfer2 | 2.09-fold Fe | Pal et al., 2012 |
| 25 | HvYS1 (Transporter gene) | 1.5 fold Fe in leaves | Gomez-Galera et al., 2012 |
| 26 | OsNAS2 & SoyferH-1 construct | 6 fold | Trijatmiko et al., 2016. |
| 27 | Promoter-OsGluB1- SoyferH2 | 6 fold | Masuda et al., 2012 |
| | Promoter- OsGlb1- SoyferH2 | | |
| 28 | AtNAS1, PvFERRITIN and ZmPSY | 2.5-3.3 fold | Singh et al., 2017 |

Table 5

Donor germplasm lines for biofortification, iron deficiency and toxicity tolerance in rice.

| Trait | Donor germplasm lines | Reference |
|---------------------------|--|-----------------------------|
| Iron deficiency tolerance | Prasanna | Hoan et al., 1993 |
| | IET7613 | |
| | Cauvery, ARC 10372, Tuljapur, Akashi, | Hoan et al., 1993 |
| | WBPH25 | Nerkar et al., 1984 |
| | Prabhavati (PBN1) | Nogiya et al., 2016 |
| | Pusa-33 | Naidu et al., 1981 |
| | IR36 | |
| | Dongdao-4 | Li et al., 2016 |
| Iron toxicity tolerance | Suakoko 8 | Virmani, 1977 |
| | WIA3 (IOX3100-32-2-3-5) | WARDA, 1998 |
| | FKK | Ouedraogo and Ouedraogo, |
| | WITTA (TOY2100 4 4 1 2 2 | 2003 Cridler et al. 2006 |
| | WITA4 (10A5100-44-1-5-5 | Abdeul 2006 |
| | | Abdoui, 2000 |
| | TOX.4216-25-2-3-1-3 | Gridley et al 2006 |
| | WAT 1050.8-51-2 | Gruney et al., 2000 |
| | WAT1282-B-3-3 | |
| | WAT131-B-26-2-1-2 | |
| | Nerica-L19 | Dramé et al., 2010 |
| | KD-2-6-3,Guwahati, Shahsarang, Pvzum and Phougak | Devi et al., 2018 |
| | IR61246-3B-15-2-2-3 | Elec et al., 2013 |
| | IR61612-3B-16-2-2-1 | |
| | IR61640-3B-14-3-3-2 | |
| | WITA 7 | |
| | Mahanadi, Ghanteswari, Bhanja, Surendrra, Sankar, Rajeswari, Lalat, Daya, Tejaswini, Khandagiri, Bhuban, | Rout et al., 2014 |
| | Udaygiri, Uphar, Rudra, Manika | |
| | EPAGRI 108 | Da Silveira et al., 2007 |
| Iron biofortification | MSE-9, Kalanamak, Kanchana, Karjat, Chittimutyalu, Udayagiri, Jyothi, VRM 7, Matta Triveni, Varsha | Babu, 2013 |
| | Enghi, Dakh Shail, Moina Moti, Hamai, Patnai, Khak Shail, Lal Gotal,Ful Kainja, Kakua Binni, Sada Binni, BRRI | Jahan et al., 2013 |
| | dhan5, BRRI dhan 28 & BRRI dhan 29 | |
| | Annada, ASD16, CH-45, Nagina 22, IR-29, | Mahender et al., 2016 |
| | Pusa Sugandha-1, IRGC-106187, IR68144-3B-2-2-3, IRGC-105320, IRGC-105320, IRGC-864/6, CH-45, Jyott, | |
| | HKK-126, Jaimagna, Zuchem, Kalabath, Pusa Basmati, Noothipattu, Pitchavari, Thanu, TKM-9, NDR-6279, and | |
| | Agnombora. Chittimuthulu RDT5204 Kalanamak ET25450 IET 24775 IET 24760 IET 24216 RDT5204 IET 22022 | Pradbap et al. 2020 |
| | Gintuniuuiyiu, Dr 13204, IEI 23832, IEI 24/73, IEI 24/00, IEI 24310, DP 13204, IEI 23832, IET 25441 IET 25865 IET 23 820 and IET 24770 | r Iaundii et di., 2020 |
| | 12123711, 12123703 , 121237027 and 12127777 | |

released from this program. Suakoko 8, a variety released for Liberia, become very popular and till date is being used as national check for Fe toxicity tolerance. Another introduced variety ROK 24 was released for Sierra Leone. These introduced varieties were good for Fe toxicity tolerance but longer in duration and low yielder. Therefore, many Fe toxicity tolerant breeding programs were continued and many varieties were developed to overcome yield loss due to high Fe toxicity (Abifarin, 1989; Masuda et al., 2013a, b; Winslow et al., 1989; Gregorio et al., 2000; Gridley et al., 2006; Ruskandar et al., 2011; Sikirou et al., 2015). Large germplasm screenings have been performed and good donor lines were reported to be tolerant to Fe-toxicity and deficiency in rice for various countries across the globe (Table 5). Initially organizations like IITA, WARDA and AfricaRice along with many national partners were involved in the breeding programs. Many promising lines were developed for cultivation in African countries particularly WITA3, WITA4, WITA8, FKR19, CK73 and CK92. Despite a lot of breeding efforts, these materials could not be so popular like earlier varieties, namely Suakoko 8 and CK4. The reasons for non-adoption of new varieties were due to higher GxE interactions and soil heterogeneity. However, the development of NERICAs (New Rice for Africa) could be a moderate success particularly with the lowland NERICAs like NERICA-L19 and CG14 varieties. Recent years, AfricaRice and its collaborators have a new breakthrough in new plant type rice in the name of ARICA (Advanced rice varieties for Africa) of next generation rice exhibiting higher grain yield and more stress tolerant compared to NERICA-L19 variety. Recent rice variety ARICA6 (IR75887-1-3-WAB1) released in Guinea and ARICA7 (WAS 21-B-B-20-4-3-3) in Senegal are tolerant to Fe toxicity and higher yielder than NERICA-L19. ARICA 7 and ARICA 8 (WAT 1046-B-43-2-2-2) were released in the rainfed and irrigated lowland ecologies of Burkina Faso, Ghana and Guinea. On the other hand, ARICA 6 was released for rainfed lowland environments of Ghana. Many ARICA varieties have been developed for African countries. Success of these varieties will depend on farmers 'adoption and consumers' acceptance in the Sub-Saharan African countries.

9.2. Breeding for higher Fe content in rice

Enhancing grain Fe content through molecular breeding approach is the most reliable and suitable approach in rice. The genetic mechanism of Fe-content inheritence is complex in nature. The trait is controlled by many QTLs and genes of which majority were identified in recent years. The genes, QTLs and various transporters useful for Fe enhancement are well characterized (Bashir et al., 2010; Conte and Walker, 2011; Garg et al., 2018; Majumder et al., 2019). Many germplasm lines containing high grain Fe content are screened and identified from rice gene pool (Babu, 2013; Jahan et al., 2013; Mahender et al., 2016; Pradhan et al., 2020). In addition, the transgenic donor lines are also available to be used in molecular breeding programs (Higuchi et al., 2001; Kobayashi et al., 2001; Lucca et al., 2001; Vasconcelos et al., 2003; Koike et al., 2004; Khalekuzzaman et al., 2006; Suzuki et al., 2008; Masuda et al., 2009; Lee et al., 2009; Lee et al., 2010; Zeng et al., 2010; Ishimaru et al., 2010; Ogo et al., 2011; Johnson et al., 2011; Pal et al., 2012; Kobayashi and Nishizawa, 2012; Lee et al., 2012; Zhang et al., 2012; Bashir et al., 2013; Masuda et al., 2013a, b; Slamet-Loedin et al., 2015; Trijatmiko et al., 2016; Boonyaves et al., 2017). Development of nutrient dense rice containing high Fe, Zn and protein through molecular breeding is a priority research area of ICAR-National Rice Research Institute, Cuttack, India, ICAR-Indian Institute of Rice Research, Hyderabad and International Rice Research Institute, Philippines. The major advantage of molecular breeding is that the presence of the target gene is checked through foreground selection by using linked or gene specific molecular markers in each backcross generation. This affirms the presence of the trait in the end product along with highest genome recovery of the recurrent rice variety which gets biofortified for Fe content. Pyramiding the major QTLs governing grain Fe content with Ferritin /IDS3/YSL/VIT genes can be good strategy for enhancing grain Fe content. For this purpose, multiple donor lines having the target genes can be used. Transgenic rice containing nicotianamine synthase (*OsNAS2*) and soybean ferritin (*SferH-1*) genes enhanced 6-fold higher endosperm Fe without yield penalty or change in grain quality (Trijatmiko et al., 2016). The two Fe enhancing genes were crossed with popular varieties from the Philippines (NSic Rc222), Indonesia (Ciherang), and Bangladesh (BR29). These two genes are very useful for enhancing Fe content in different popular varieties through molecular breeding approach.

10. Conclusion

Many genes/QTLs responsible for Fe-uptake from rhizosphere, transport from roots to shoots and other plant parts and their regulation are now known. Those reported genes/OTLs for the stress tolerance are still not properly validated and utilized in the breeding programs. Additionally, more genes/QTLs contributing towards high phenotypic variance to these stresses tolerance need to be identified. Hence, efforts are needed for inclusion of modern techniques like genome editing, genome wide-association mapping and tansgenics in the current research programs. A thorough understanding of the genetic dissections and the physiological mechanisms of those QTLs need to be examined. The relationship between rice rhizosphere to uptake right quantity of Fe from soils under stress condition and the genetic background of rice plant need to be studied more. The Fe dynamics in various tissues and cells of rice plants need more understanding. Genes/QTLs controlling Fe-content in grain endosperm need to be explored and deployment in Fe improvement programs to manage the iron loss due to milling.

Biofortification is an easier and cheaper way to enhance the content in rice grain. OTLs and genes controlling Fe-content are essential in the breeding programs. Transgenic rice carrying ferritin gene from other crops with many folds Fe content is available with us. The transgenic method of fortification is facing many challenges related to ethical issues. However, these lines may serve as potential source of donor parent in marker-assisted and genomic-assisted breeding programs to transfer high Fe- content into popular high yielding varieties. Understanding on regulation of homeostasis, uptake and efficiency enhancement under low or excess of the nutrient in soil are important. The consistent QTLs/genes involved during the stresses are needed for developing tolerant genotype (s) to the stress. More transcriptome studies are required though in the recent years much progress has been made for understanding and unravelling major gene actions under these stresses. Proteomic and epigenetic studies should be undertaken to understand more on tolerance to toxicity, Fe-deficiency and biofortification. Identification and understanding of path-ways related to the regulation of iron metabolism and the molecular markers associated with QTLs for these pathways will be useful to enhance yield under these stresses. Development of cheaper, effective and less polluting agro-techniques may also be explored for redressal of these stresses.

Author contributions

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