Research Article

Stimulatory Effects of Gamma Irradiation on Phytochemical Properties, Mitotic Behaviour, and Nutritional Composition of Sainfoin (Onobrychis viciifolia Scop.)

Sadegh Mohajer, Rosna Mat Taha, Ma Ma Lay, Arash Khorasani Esmaeili, and Mahsa Khalili

1 Institute of Biological Sciences, Faculty of Science, University of Malaya, 50603 Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia
2 Department of Analytical Chemistry, Chemistry and Chemical Engineering Research Center, Tehran 14968-13151, Iran

Correspondence should be addressed to Sadegh Mohajer; mohajer.ae@gmail.com

Received 3 May 2014; Revised 25 June 2014; Accepted 1 July 2014; Published 23 July 2014

Academic Editor: Luigi Cattivelli

Copyright © 2014 Sadegh Mohajer et al. This is an open access article distributed under the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

Sainfoin (Onobrychis viciifolia Scop. Syn. Onobrychis sativa L.) is a bloat-safe forage crop with high levels of tannins, which is renowned for its medicinal qualities in grazing animals. Mutagenesis technique was applied to investigate the influence of gamma irradiation at 30, 60, 90, and 120 Gy on mitotic behavior, in vitro growth factors, phytochemical and nutritional constituents of sainfoin. Although a percentage of plant necrosis and non-growing seed were enhanced by irradiation increment, the germination speed was significantly decreased. It was observed that gamma irradiated seeds had higher value of crude protein and dry matter digestibility compared to control seeds. Toxicity of copper was reduced in sainfoin irradiated seeds at different doses of gamma rays. Anthocyanin content also decreased in inverse proportion to irradiation intensity. Accumulation of phenolic and flavonoid compounds was enhanced by gamma irradiation exposure in leaf cells. HPLC profiles differed in peak areas of the two important alkaloids, Berberine and Sanguinarine, in 120 Gy irradiated seeds compared to control seeds. There were positive correlations between irradiation dose and some abnormality divisions such as laggard chromosome, micronucleus, binucleated cells, chromosome bridge, and cytomixis. In reality, radiocytological evaluation was proven to be essential in deducing the effectiveness of gamma irradiation to induce somaclonal variation in sainfoin.

1. Introduction

Domestic animals feed on the fundamental nutrients comprising energy, protein, amino acids (macronutrients), minerals, vitamins, and other micronutrients. Sainfoin is a safe-bloating fodder crop which contains excessive protein. It is used for cattle, sheep, deer, and elk either as fodder feeding or as a grain concentrate. Grain concentrates are generally including a high intensity of nutrients and elevated degree of edible nutrients with low crude fibre substance (less than 18% of the dry matter).

Genetic variability is the most significant requirement for crop effective development with variant selections. In this respect, genetic variability can occur through the hybridization process, recombination, mutation, and selection. Natural selection has been exhausted in the sainfoin, which was not so productive [1]. Generated mutation is a reliable option for the sainfoin diversity which revives and redevelops in the variability.

Irradiation has been utilized effectively to cause suitable mutations for plant breeding improvement [2]. Many researchers have mentioned somaclonal differences for crop development by physical mutagens in particular, gamma irradiation. Gamma sources are exploited to irradiate varied plant components, such as seed, flower, anther, pollen grain, and single cell. Gamma irradiation mostly affects the plant growth by variation in production through cytology, biochemistry, physiology, and morphogenetic of the cells [3].

Various doses of gamma irradiation generate unrestricted radicals, which may induce unfavorable or useful components in plant cells. Some studies observed preventive effects in greater exposure of gamma rays, while lower exposures
were occasionally more stimulating [4, 5]. In addition, the lower intensity of mutagenic treatment could improve the biochemical components, which has been consumed for enhancement of economical traits [2].

Mokobia and Anomohanran [6] realized that gamma irradiation was very notable not only for medical sterilization but also for seed nutritional maintenance. Moreover, the positive effects of gamma irradiation were indicated to raise the flavonoid, alkaloid, phenolic compound, and antioxidant activity [7]. Chlorophyll mutation is also one of the most dependable indicators to assess the genetic influences of mutagenic treatments. Impact of γ-irradiation could enhance seed quality traits, such as crude protein and digestibility, which are important in grain concentrate [8].

The present study was designed to observe the effects of gamma irradiation intensities on seed growing stages, investigate the feasibility of gamma irradiation to improve the phenolic compound, flavonoid, alkaloid, anthocyanin, and other pigments, evaluate the effect and role of gamma irradiation on seed nutritional improvement, and determine the appropriate irradiation dose for somaclonal variation which is subsequently verified by cytological assessment.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Plant Materials and Gamma Treatment. Gamma treatment was obtained from 60 Cobalt, 0026 Pool Irradiator with isotope model, while the dose rate was 0.0627 Gy/second. Seeds of Onobrychis vicifolia were exposed to 4 different levels of 30, 60, 90, and 120 Gy. Non-irradiated seeds were also used as the control treatment.

Seeds were sterilized after gamma irradiation. Sterilized seeds were germinated on MS medium supplemented with 30 g/L sucrose and 7.8 g/L agar (at pH 5.8). Cultures were maintained at 25 ± 2°C under 70% humidity and 16 h light photoperiod provided by fluorescent lamps [9].

2.2. Growth Parameters. In order to determine the growth rate of cells, control and irradiated seeds were assessed based on their growing stages after 2 months. Speed of germination was calculated based on the following formula during the first week [10]:

\[
\text{Speed of germination} = \frac{X_1 + \frac{X_2 - X_1}{Y_2} + \cdots + \frac{X_n - X_{n-1}}{Y_n}}{Y_1}
\]  

(1)

(where \(X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n\) were number of seeds germinated of the first, second, and \(n\)th day, resp. \(Y_1, Y_2, \ldots, Y_n\) were number of sowing days of the first, second, and \(n\)th count, resp.).

2.3. Measurement of Pigment Contents. After germination, two grams of fresh leaves was homogenized using chilled mortar containing 10 mL of methanol (80% v/v) and some MgCO₃. Sample extract was collected and filtered using the Buchner funnel through Whatman filter paper no. 5. Extract volume was topped up to 50 mL with methanol (80% v/v). Samples were centrifuged at 3000 rpm for 5 minutes.

Adsorption values were measured at 666 nm, 653 nm, and 470 nm using Shimadzu spectrophotometer. Contents of chlorophyll a (Cₐ), chlorophyll b (Cₐ), and total carotenoid were assessed based on the modified formulæ by Lichtenthaler and Wellburn [11] based on micro g/g FW:

\[
C_a = 15.65A_{666} - 7.340A_{653}, \quad C_b = 27.05A_{653} - 11.21A_{666}, \quad C_{x+c} = 1000A_{470} - 2.860C_a - (129.2C_b/245).
\]  

(2)

For measurement of anthocyanin content, 0.1 g of samples was grounded in 3 mL of acidified methanol (99:1 of methanol:HCl). Samples were then centrifuged at 12000 rpm for 20 minutes and the supernatant was kept in the dark, at 4°C for 24 h. Absorbance was recorded at 550 nm, and anthocyanin content was calculated based on an extinction coefficient of 33000/Mol cm [12].

2.4. Total Flavonoid Determination. Aluminium chloride colorimetric method [13] was used for the evaluation of flavonoid in fresh leaves of in vitro grown plants. Each methanol extract (0.5 mL of 1:10 g/mL) was separately mixed with 1.5 mL methanol, 0.1 mL 10% aluminum chloride, 0.1 mL 1M potassium acetate, and 2.8 mL distilled water. Extracts were kept at room temperature for 30 min. Absorbance of mixed reaction was measured at 415 nm using Shimadzu spectrophotometer. Calibration curve was prepared by measuring the methanol quercetin solutions at 20 to 100 µg/mL concentrations.

2.5. Total Phenolic Compounds. Total phenolic compounds were determined by Folin Ciocalteu reagent in fresh leaves [14]. Each methanol diluted extract (0.5 mL of 1:10 g/mL) was mixed with the Folin Ciocalteu reagent (5 mL, 1:10 dilution using distilled water) and aqueous Na₂CO₃ (4 mL, 1M). The mixtures were retained for 15 min. Total phenols were determined by absorption measurement at 765 nm using Shimadzu spectrophotometer. A standard curve was prepared by using the methanol Gallic acid solutions at 20 to 100 µg/mL concentrations.

2.6. HPLC-UV Analysis. Standard solution of Sanguinarine and Berberine was purchased from Sigma (USA). Chemical structures of alkaloids are shown in Figure 2. HPLC system (Knauer K-26000) coupled with UV detector was used for quantitative determination of two alkaloids in both non-irradiated (control) and 120 Gy irradiated seed powder. UV detector was set at the wavelength of 280 nm and area was used for quantification. Chromatographic separation was carried out on Kromasil C18 analytical column (5μm, 250 mm × 4.6 mm) at 30°C. Linear gradient elution of A (100% acetonitrile) and B (0.1% phosphoric acid aqueous solution) was used. Time program for multistep gradient was initially 27% (A), 0–5 min keeping 27% (A), 5–17 min linear gradient to 54% (A), 17–20 min from 54% to 75% (A), 20–25 min from 75% to 80% (A), 25–35 min keeping 80% (A), 35–40 min linear gradient to 27% (A), and keeping 27%
(A) at 40–45 min. The flow rate was 0.8 mL/min and injection volume was 5 μL. Calibration curves were drawn based on the reference (standards) areas against their respective concentrations.

2.7. Quality Traits Assessment. A percentage of crude fibre (CF), crude protein (CP), dry matter digestibility (DMD), water soluble carbohydrates (WSC), acid detergent fibre (ADF), neutral detergent fibre (NDF), and ash of both non-irradiated (control) and irradiated samples were determined in dry seed powder using near infrared radiation (NIR) spectroscopy. After calibration, percentages of quality traits were calculated using the method by Jafari et al. [15].

2.8. Atomic Absorption Spectrometry. Seed powder was also analyzed for different elements of Mn, Cu, Ca, P, and N (based on the ratio of irradiated samples to control) according to the methods described by AOAC [16] using atomic absorption spectrometry (Young Lin AAS-8020).

2.9. Cytometric Parameters. Permanent slides of meristematic root cells were prepared based on the methods described by Conger and Fairchild [17] from irradiated and non-irradiated in vitro grown plants. Slides were evaluated using a light microscope (Zeiss Axioscope, Germany) connected to a Sony Video Camera. Image analyzer was used for the assessment of mitotic index, cell and nuclear areas. Various abnormality divisions were also estimated based on the chromosome disorder.

2.10. Statistical Analysis. The frequency of mitosis was determined by counting the number of dividing cells in total 150 of the cells. Results were expressed as mean ± standard error. The effects of treatments were tested by variance analysis and differences between samples were determined by Duncan’s multirange test at P < 0.05 using SAS 9.2 software.

3. Results

While irradiated and non-irradiated seeds were germinated simultaneously after 2-3 days of sowing, germination rate was only indicated to be 100% in the control seeds (Table 1). A percentage of necrosis and non-growing seeds were found to increase gradually when the seeds were exposed to gamma irradiation. Germination speed was revealed to decrease with an increment of gamma irradiation intensities. Approximately, the highest shooting percentage was observed in control seeds after one month with 82.11%. Maximum shoot number was observed when the seeds were not treated with the gamma irradiation (Table 1).

Gamma irradiation intensities were indicated to reduce the anthocyanin content significantly in in vitro grown plants. Fresh leaf extractions exhibited an initial enhancement of chlorophyll content. In this regard, chlorophylls a and b had the highest amount at 30 Gy and 60 Gy of gamma irradiation, respectively. Carotenoid content also rose gradually with the increasing of irradiation intensity up to 90 Gy (Table 2). Carotenoid plays an important role in light protection of chlorophyll from photo-oxidative damage. Thus, the carotenoid content reduction could have a serious impact on photosynthetic and chlorophyll pigments.

Flavonoid content derived extracts confirmed the highest amount in 90 Gy intensity of gamma irradiation in terms of quercetin equivalent ($y = 0.148x - 0.0242, R^2 = 0.991$). Total phenolic contents measured by Folin Ciocalteu reagent were assessed in terms of Gallic acid equivalent ($y = 0.1077x - 0.0377, R^2 = 0.979$). Remarkable increase was observed in phenolic contents of 90 Gy irradiated leaf extract compared to non-irradiated (control) extract (Figure 1).

Two alkaloid compounds (Berberine and Sanguinarine) were also measured in both 120 Gy irradiated and non-irradiated seed powder (Figure 2). Good linearity ($R^2 = 0.995$) was achieved in both calibration curves of the alkaloids. Sanguinarine content decreased when the seeds were subjected to 120 Gy intensity of gamma irradiation, from 0.000121% to 0.000112%. Furthermore, Berberine content was improved when the seeds were exposed to gamma irradiation, from 0.000152% to 0.000203%. Sanguinarine and
Nutritional quality had also an inverse relation with acid detergent fibre (ADF) and crude fibre (CF). A percentage of CP and DMD were significantly different in gamma irradiated seeds compared to control seeds. The highest CP (34.20%) and DMD (94.53%) were observed when the seeds were exposed to 30 Gy and 120 Gy irradiation, respectively. In addition, the exposure of gamma irradiation had the positive effect in seed quality improvement with reduction of CF percentage. Percentage of water-soluble carbohydrates (WSC) went up with increasing gamma irradiation intensity. On the other hand, percentage of acid detergent fibre (ADF) was gradually decreased with enhancement of gamma irradiation gray. No significant difference was indicated in terms of the ash percentage between gamma treated seeds and control seeds (Table 3).

Ratio of trace metals (Mn and Cu) and macronutrients (Ca, P, and N) in irradiated seeds to non-irradiated seeds was determined using atomic absorption spectrophotometry (AAS) as shown in Figure 4. Exposure to 30 Gy gamma irradiation had positive effects on improving the N contents. In reality, the novel efficiency of gamma exposure was observed in the amount of P. In contrast, ratio of Ca, Mn, and Cu were found to decrease with gamma irradiation (Figure 4).

Mitotic index (MI) was used as an indicator to describe the cell activity and proliferation. It was observed that MI of root meristematic cells increased from 26.51% to 34.53% when the seedswere exposed to 60 Gy of gamma irradiation. The majority of the cells were found to be in prophase stage in both in vitro irradiated and non-irradiated samples (Table 4 and Figure 5). In general, mean cell and nuclear areas were significantly increased in the treated plants compared to control plants. The highest nuclear and cell areas were noted at the lowest intensity (30 Gy) of gamma irradiation with 188.44 μm² and 875.40 μm², respectively (Table 5).

Although, the most of the cell cycle segregation displayed regular mitosis in both control and irradiated cells, some mitotic abnormalities were also observed. Effect of gamma irradiation intensities on mitotic irregularities was assessed in terms of the chromosome laggards and bridge, binucleated cells, chromosome fragmented, asynchronous

![Figure 3: HPLC chromatograms of control and γ-irradiated seeds (120 Gy) according to standard mixture. Retention time has been adjusted based on the centesimal unit in this experiment.](image)

**Table 1: Effect of gamma irradiation on growth stages of Onobrychis vicifolia seeds after 4 weeks.**

| Gamma irradiation (Gy) | Non-growing (%) | Necrosis (%) | Shooting (%) | Mean number of shoots | Germination speed |
|------------------------|----------------|-------------|-------------|-----------------------|-----------------|
| Control                | 0.00±          | 17.89±      | 82.11±      | 3.55±                 | 20.41±          |
| 30                     | 5.56± ± 0.85   | 22.52±      | 72.22±      | 2.46± ± 0.18          | 18.24± ± 1.84   |
| 60                     | 7.26± ± 0.64   | 32.38±      | 60.18±      | 2.04± ± 0.24          | 17.01± ± 1.31   |
| 90                     | 9.54± ± 1.17   | 40.49±      | 50.07±      | 2.75± ± 0.15          | 15.27± ± 1.33   |
| 120                    | 10.15± ± 1.12  | 48.01±      | 42.23±      | 2.84± ± 0.16          | 14.37± ± 1.65   |

The means of samples with the same small letters were not significantly different as per Duncan’s multirange test at $P < 0.05$.

**Table 2: Effect of gamma irradiation on chlorophyll, carotenoid, and anthocyanin contents of in vitro leaves.**

| Gamma irradiation (Gy) | Chlorophyll a (μg/g FW) | Chlorophyll b (μg/g FW) | Carotenoid (mg/g FW) | Anthocyanin (mMol/g FW) |
|------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|----------------------|-------------------------|
| Control                | 15.86± ± 0.24           | 10.54± ± 0.33           | 1.59± ± 0.07         | 14.8± ± 0.86            |
| 30                     | 19.45± ± 1.01           | 12.65± ± 0.94           | 2.22± ± 0.08         | 14.5± ± 0.96            |
| 60                     | 18.04± ± 0.64           | 13.66± ± 1.06           | 2.19± ± 0.05         | 10.6± ± 0.85            |
| 90                     | 17.74± ± 1.14           | 12.68± ± 0.92           | 2.14± ± 0.05         | 10.9± ± 1.07            |
| 120                    | 16.59± ± 1.06           | 11.13± ± 0.71           | 1.84± ± 0.03         | 7.88± ± 0.72            |

The means of the samples with the same small letters were not significantly different as per Duncan’s multirange test at $P < 0.05$. Berberine of irradiated seeds were detected after control seeds in HPLC chromatogram due to the different dilutions used (Figure 3).

Seed quality and nutritional value were directly correlated with crude protein (CP) and dry matter digestibility (DMD). Nutritional quality had also an inverse relation with acid detergent fibre (ADF) and crude fibre (CF). A percentage...
Table 3: Mean comparison of nutritional traits among irradiated and non-irradiated *O. viciifolia* seeds.

| Gamma irradiation (Gy) | CP (%) | DMD (%) | WSC (%) | ADF (%) | NDF (%) | ASH (%) | CF (%) |
|------------------------|--------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|--------|
| Control                | 32.24±2.1 | 89.68±2.3 | 34.31±1.2 | 11.39±0.8 | 9.99±0.6 | 5.35±0.2 | 23.35±1.6 |
| 30                     | 34.80±2.2 | 93.35±2.2 | 34.40±1.4 | 8.43±0.9 | 10.78±0.8 | 5.87±0.4 | 23.63±1.3 |
| 60                     | 33.53±1.5 | 92.13±1.8 | 34.90±1.1 | 9.81±0.7 | 12.35±0.6 | 5.65±0.5 | 23.52±1.4 |
| 90                     | 33.13±1.3 | 92.22±1.8 | 34.91±0.9 | 9.41±0.7 | 9.92±0.6 | 5.73±0.5 | 23.06±1.4 |
| 120                    | 34.02±2.3 | 94.53±2.1 | 35.42±1.2 | 7.17±0.8 | 9.83±0.7 | 5.91±0.4 | 22.87±1.8 |

The means of samples with the same small letters were not significantly different as per Duncan’s multirange test at *P* < 0.05.

Crude protein (CP), crude fibre (CF), acid detergent fibre (ADF), dry matter digestibility (DMD), water soluble carbohydrates (WSC), and neutral detergent fibre (NDF).

Table 4: Effect of gamma irradiation on mitotic behavior of *Onobrychis viciifolia* in *in vitro* growth culture.

| Gamma irradiation (Gy) | Interphase | Prophase | Mitosis stages | Anaphase | Telophase | Mitotic index (MI) |
|------------------------|------------|----------|----------------|----------|-----------|-------------------|
| Control                | 73.47±2.1 | 20.33±2.1 | 3.82±0.24      | 1.49±0.21 | 0.97±0.09 | 26.51±1.65        |
| 30                     | 63.97±2.1 | 25.41±2.2 | 5.58±0.12      | 2.11±0.11 | 2.38±0.12 | 35.07±1.74        |
| 60                     | 65.25±2.2 | 24.24±2.2 | 6.13±0.14      | 2.42±0.14 | 2.02±0.18 | 34.53±1.57        |
| 90                     | 65.55±2.1 | 22.06±2.3 | 7.57±0.17      | 2.35±0.39 | 2.24±0.15 | 34.32±1.66        |
| 120                    | 67.15±2.1 | 21.30±2.2 | 7.32±0.17      | 2.06±0.51 | 2.13±0.12 | 32.82±1.63        |

The means of samples with the same small letters were not significantly different as per Duncan’s multirange test at *P* < 0.05.

4. Discussion

Gamma rays belong to ionizing radiation that reacts with atoms or molecules to generate free radicals in cells. These radicals can transfigure essential constituent of plant cells. Some studies have been accomplished to show the influence distinctively in biochemistry, physiology and morphology by different doses of gamma irradiation [18]. The variety improvement through radiation needs an essential study to distinguish whether/how it can affect each species. So, the positive and negative consequences of gamma intensities were evaluated in this paper. Although, gamma intensities had the negative influence on plant growth, the positive effects were observed at 60 and 90 Gy in phytochemical properties of sainfoin. It has been found that plant growth was stimulated at 10 Gy in *Citrus sinensis* and inhibition occurred at radiation intensities more than 10 Gy [19]. Correspondingly, Norfadzrin et al. [20] observed that the high gamma ray doses had a negative influence on the morphological traits of tomato and okra seedlings obtained from irradiated seeds. Results of 120 Gy were not significantly different compared to 90 Gy in nutritional composition of sainfoin. Some researchers have shown that the higher exposures of gamma radiation were usually inhibitory by reduction of mitotic activity, whereas low doses of gamma irradiation could be used as safer and more stimulatory tools to improve variations [21, 22]. Some scientists stated that low doses of irradiation stimulate growing by changing the hormonal influence in the plant cells. In addition, low intensities improved the antioxidative capability of cells to dominate stress factors such as temperature in *in vivo* growth culture [23]. As a whole, gamma irradiation considerably reduced...
shoot formation and rate of germination as compared with control treatment, which is presented in Table 1. Growth blockage caused through the high amount of irradiation resulted in the cell cycle arrest at the G2/M phase during somatic cell division or genome damage [24].

Biochemical variations were observed in chlorophyll, carotenoid, and anthocyanin contents of irradiated and non-irradiated leaves after four weeks of this study. Strid et al. [25] indicated that gamma irradiation can damage pigments with simultaneous loss of photosynthetic ability which was not adapted in our outcomes of chlorophylls a and b. Respectively, low intensities of gamma irradiation were more effective to produce the chlorophyll mutations in sainfoin. Observations of this research were in accordance with those acquired by Rascio et al. [26], Osama [27], and Rejili et al. [28]. They found chlorophyll improvement after applying different mutagenic treatments such as E.M.S, sodium azide, and gamma rays. Apparently, the mutation of chlorophyll b was moderately less than chlorophyll a through gamma irradiation. It was as a result of more selective damage of decadenosis biosynthesis in chlorophyll (a) precursors. It was revealed that the higher amount of irradiation led to anthocyanin degradation. This result was not in agreement with those stated by Abo-El-Seoud et al. [29], since they realized that the capability of 40 Gy increased the anthocyanin content.

Phytochemical properties such as flavonoid, phenol, and alkaloid have an indirect effect on fodder quality. Phytochemical analysis showed changes in the status of phenol content, flavonoid content (in leaves), and alkaloid presence (in seeds) in the sainfoin as a result of irradiation treatment. Irradiation may cause oxidative damage and impair the flavor in plants. However, the effective action and radiostable nature of antioxidants can protect the chemical oxidation of biomolecules in irradiated plants. Similar to our observations, the ability of gamma irradiation has been also confirmed to increase the phenolic acids of plant metabolites in soybean samples treated with gamma irradiation at levels ranging from 50 to 150 Gy [30].

Grain concentrates are utilized by many ruminant production systems. Grain concentrates may develop a high amount of diets for milk and meat production (over 30% and 70%, resp.). Sainfoin seed concentrates can also provide high crude protein and dry matter digestibility, consisting of a mixture of vegetable proteins, urea, important vitamins, and minerals. The highest proportion of crude protein was verified at 30 Gy treated seeds compared to control seeds. Dhopte et al. [31] also indicated significant differences in protein percentage of chickpea seeds in various intensities. Therefore, there is a high possibility to improve the crude protein in some kinds of genotypes by utilizing gamma ray.

Based on previous research [32], there are significant and direct relations between seed and forage quality in sainfoin. In this regard, nutritional composition of seed was evaluated after irradiation. Some parameters like crude protein, crude fibre, and digestibility were analyzed, which have a direct effect on either grain concentrate or hay quality. Development of the defensive systems is the most significant reaction of plant cells to gamma irradiation. The CP was calculated for the significant difference between control seeds and irradiated seeds, which was in conformity with the results obtained by Lawal et al. [33]. Increasing the amount of crude protein has been used as a protective mechanism against the damages of gamma irradiation [34]. Consistent with assessment results of the present study, Osunde [35] reported no significant difference in the crude fibre content. Unlike our evaluation, Štajner et al. [36] implicated that gamma treatment did not induce significant increment in water soluble components such as minerals, nitrogenous constituents, and sugars. The
ash percentage remained unaffected by irradiation processing, which was associated with mineral content in sainfoin. However, the ash content was lower in the control seeds.

A mutation in availability of Ca is not probably the main objective of a study, since the amount involved in metabolic processes is usually small compared to those present in the soil. Likewise, gamma irradiation increased the amount of P and N released in the soil after 2 weeks of incubation, which was observed in the studied sainfoin seeds [37]. Nitrogen and P are constituents of both the living and dead plants in the soil. Cells death and the subsequent degradation can occur due to the ionization effect of gamma ray on living organisms, which results in increasing the P and N release rate.

Despite the fact that a number of mutant plants are identified in M$_2$ generation, there is convincing evidence of correlation between M$_1$ treated plant and mutation frequency in M$_2$ induced by ionizing radiations. That is why a quantitative determination of M$_1$ destruction can be an inevitable step in mutation breeding, especially for plant species such as sainfoin that has not been studied extensively for crop improvement. The assessments of the mitotic cycle in shoot or root meristem cells offered a reliable test to determine the influence of the mutagens in M$_1$ [38]. The evaluation of chromosome configuration by cytological analysis provides a direct vision of induced chromosomal rearrangements. In this regard, the frequency and spectrum of chromosomal aberrations were analyzed at anaphase in this study. The induction of cytological disturbances is important in the mitotic division, since genome damage is handed over to the next generation [39]. Increment of nuclear and cell areas confirmed that various mutagens had different mutagenic potential. In the present investigation, the mutagenic treatments exhibited higher types of aberrations in sainfoin. Along this line, abnormality division variations have been widely evaluated to understand the mechanisms of induced chromosomal damage. A higher proportion of chromosomal aberrations were indicated to chromosomes stickiness, which might have been enhanced due to depolymerization of nucleic acid and partial dissociation of the nucleoproteins [40]. Laggard chromosome generally leads to micronuclei

Figure 5: Root meristem cells of *O. viciifolia* showing normal and abnormal mitosis. (a) prophase, (b) metaphase, (c) anaphase, (d) telophase, (e) fragmented chromosomes, (f) micronucleus, (g) asynchronous nucleus, (h) binucleated cells, and (i) cytomixis. Bars = 10 μm.
formation [41]. Micronuclei were induced when the laggard chromosomes fail to reach the poles in time of the telophase [42]. Chromosomes bridges could also occur through breaks in two chromosomes followed by the union of centric fragments [43]. Ultimately, more abnormalities accumulated which cause nonviable gametes and plant fertility reduction.

**Conflict of Interests**

The authors declare that there is no conflict of interests regarding the publication of this paper.

**Acknowledgment**

The authors would like to thank the University of Malaya, Malaysia, for the facilities and financial support provided (IPPP Grant PV025/2011B and UMRG Grant RP025-2012A).

**References**

[1] A. A. Wani and M. Anis, “Gamma rays induced bold seeded high yielding mutant in chickpea,” *Mutation Breeding Newsletter*, vol. 45, pp. 20–21, 2001.

[2] A. Muthusamy, K. Vasanth, and N. Jayabalan, “Response of physiological and biochemical components in *Gossypium hirsutum* L. to mutagens,” *Journal of Nuclear Agriculture and Biology*, vol. 32, no. 1, pp. 44–51, 2003.

[3] M. M. Rahimi and A. Bahrani, “Effect of gamma irradiation on qualitative and quantitative characteristics of Canola (*Brassica napus* L.),” *Middle-East Journal of Scientific Research*, vol. 8, no. 2, pp. 519–525, 2011.

[4] D. S. Radhadevi and N. K. Nayar, “Gamma rays induced fruit character variations in Nendran, a variety of banana (*Musa paradisiaca* L.),” *Geobios*, vol. 23, no. 2, pp. 88–93, 1996.

[5] C. B. Thapa, “Effect of acute exposure of gamma rays on seed germination of *Punuskeiya* Gord and *P. wallichiana*,” *Botanica Orientalis*, pp. 120–129, 1999.

[6] C. E. Mokobia and O. Anomohanran, “The effect of gamma irradiation on the germination and growth of certain Nigerian agricultural crops,” *Journal of Radiological Protection*, vol. 25, no. 2, pp. 181–188, 2005.

[7] J. K. Kim, C. Jo, H. J. Hwang, H. J. Park, Y. J. Kim, and M. W. Byun, “Color improvement by irradiation of *Carcuma aromatica* extract for industrial application,” *Radiation Physics and Chemistry*, vol. 75, no. 3, pp. 449–452, 2006.

[8] A. Yami, *Nutrition and Feeding of Sheep and Goats*, chapter 7, Ethiopia Sheep and Goat Productivity Improvement Program, 2008.

[9] S. Mohaier, R. M. Taha, A. Khorasani, and J. S. Yaacob, “Induction of different types of callus and somatic embryogenesis in various explants of *Sainfoin (Onobrychis sativa)*,” *Australian Journal of Crop Science*, vol. 6, no. 8, pp. 1305–1313, 2012.

[10] J. D. Maguire, “Speed of germination—aid in selection and evaluation for seedling emergence and vigor,” *Crop Science*, vol. 2, pp. 176–177, 1962.

[11] H. K. Lichtenthaler and A. R. Wellburn, “Determination of total carotenoids and chlorophylls A and B of leaf in different solvents,” *Biochemical Society Transactions*, vol. 11, pp. 591–592, 1985.

[12] S. H. Sargejin, J. Carapetian, and J. Khara, “Effects of UV radiation on photosynthetic pigments and UV absorption compounds in *Capsicum longum L*,” *International Journal of Botany*, vol. 4, pp. 486–490, 2008.

[13] C. Chang, M. Yang, H. Wen, and J. Chen, “Estimation of total flavonoid content in propolis by two complementary colometric methods,” *Journal of Food and Drug Analysis*, vol. 10, no. 3, pp. 178–182, 2002.

[14] S. McDonald, P. D. Prenzler, M. Antolovich, and K. Robards, “Phenolic content and antioxidant activity of olive extracts,” *Food Chemistry*, vol. 73, no. 1, pp. 73–84, 2001.

[15] A. A. Jafari, V. Connolly, A. Frolich, and E. K. Walsh, “A note on estimation of quality parameters in perennial ryegrass by near infrared reflectance spectroscopy,” *Irish Journal of Agricultural and Food Research*, vol. 42, no. 2, pp. 293–299, 2003.

[16] AOAC, *Official Methods of Analysis of the Association of Official's Analytical Chemists*, Association of Official Analytical Chemists, Arlington, VA, USA, 17th edition, 2003.

[17] A. D. Conger and L. M. Fairchild, “A quick-freeze method for making smear slides permanent,” *Stain Technology*, vol. 28, no. 6, pp. 281–283, 1953.

[18] S. G. Wi, B. Y. Chung, J. H. Kim et al., “Ultrastructural changes of cell organelles in *Arabidopsis* stems after gamma irradiation,” *Journal of Plant Biology*, vol. 48, no. 2, pp. 195–200, 2005.

[19] A. P. K. Ling, J. Y. Chia, S. Hussein, and A. R. Harun, “Physiological responses of *Citrus sinensis* to gamma irradiation,” *World Applied Sciences Journal*, vol. 5, pp. 12–19, 2008.

[20] F. Norfadzrin, O. H. Ahmed, S. Shaharudin, and D. A. Rahman, “A preliminary study on pigments and antioxidant machineries of red pepper (*Capsicum annuum* L.) seedlings from gamma-irradiated seeds,” *Journal of Plant Biology*, vol. 47, pp. 314–321, 2007.

[21] R. Kumari and Y. Singh, “Effect of gamma rays and EMS on seed germination and plant survival of *Pisum sativum* L. and *Lens culinaris*,” *Medicine Neo Botanica*, vol. 4, no. 1, pp. 25–29, 1996.

[22] S. J. Khalil, S. Rehman, K. Afridi, and M. T. Jan, “Damage induced by gamma irradiation in morphological and chemical characteristics of barley,” *Sarhad Journal of Agriculture*, vol. 2, pp. 45–54, 1986.

[23] S. S. Moghaddam, H. Jaafar, R. Ibrahim, M. A. Aziz, and E. Philip, “Effects of acute gamma irradiation on physiological traits and flavonoid accumulation of *Centella asiatica*,” *Molecules*, vol. 16, no. 6, pp. 4994–5007, 2011.

[24] S. B. Preuss and A. B. Britt, “A DNA-damage-induced cell cycle checkpoint in arabidopsis,” *Genetics*, vol. 164, no. 1, pp. 323–334, 2003.

[25] A. Strid, W. S. Chow, and J. M. Anderson, “Effects of supplementary ultraviolet-B radiation on photosynthesis in *Pisum sativum*,” *Biochimica et Biophysica Acta: Bioenergetics*, vol. 1020, no. 3, pp. 260–268, 1990.

[26] A. Rascio, M. Russo, L. Mazzucco, C. Platani, G. Nicastro, and N. Di Fonzo, “Enhanced osmotolerance of a wheat mutant selected for potassium accumulation,” *Plant Science*, vol. 160, no. 3, pp. 441–448, 2001.

[27] M. S. Osaka, *Molecular genetic studies on irrigated wheat plants [Ph.D. thesis]*, Department of Genetics, Ain Shams University, 2002.

[28] M. Rejili, D. Telahigue, B. Lachiheb, A. Mrabet, and A. Ferchichi, “Impact of gamma radiation and salinity on growth and K’/Na’ balance in two populations of *Medicago sativa* (L.) cultivar Gabès,” *Progress in Natural Science*, vol. 18, no. 9, pp. 1095–1105, 2008.
[29] M. A. Abo-EI-Seoud, M. F. Hashim, and A. M. Farid, “Combined Effect of Gamma radiation and potassium fertilization on growth and coloring matter contents of roselle (Hibiscus Sabdariffa L.),” in Proceedings of the 2nd Arab Conference on the Peaceful Uses of Atomic Energy, pp. 863–874, Cairo, Egypt, 1994.

[30] P. S. Variyar, A. Limaye, and A. Sharma, "Radiation-induced enhancement of antioxidant contents of soybean (Glycine max Merrill),” Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry, vol. 52, no. 11, pp. 3385–3388, 2004.

[31] A. M. Dhopte, P. G. Thombre, and V. K. Patil, "Physiological studies of radiation induced mutants in gram,” Journal of Tropical Agriculture, vol. 130, pp. 97–105, 1974.

[32] S. Mohajer, A. A. Jafari, and R. M. Taha, "Studies on seed & forage yield in 10 populations of sainfoin (Onobrychis sativa) grown as spaced plants & swards,” Journal of Food, Agriculture & Environment, vol. 9, no. 1, pp. 222–227, 2011.

[33] A. O. Lawal, E. C. Akueche, S. T. Anjorin et al., “Effects of gamma irradiation on the sprouting, nutritional and phytochemical composition of Meccakusha yam tubers in Abuja, Nigeria,” Journal of Agriculture and Biological Sciences, vol. 2, no. 7, pp. 203–207, 2011.

[34] M. M. Al-Rumaih, "Influence of ionizing radiation on antioxidant enzymes in three species of Trigonella,” American Journal of Environmental Sciences, vol. 4, no. 2, pp. 151–156, 2008.

[35] Z. D. Osunde, "Minimising Postharvest losses in Yam (Dioscorea spp.),” in Treatment and Techniques: In: Using Food Science and Technology: In Improving Nutritional and Promote National Development, pp. 1–12, International Union of Food Science & Technology, 2008.

[36] D. Štajner, M. Milošević, and B. M. Popović, "Irradiation effects on phenolic content, lipid and protein oxidation and scavenger ability of soybean seeds,” International Journal of Molecular Sciences, vol. 8, no. 7, pp. 618–627, 2007.

[37] F. Eno and H. Popenoe, "The effect of gamma radiation on the availability of nitrogen and phosphorus in soil," Division S-3-Soil Microbiology 299–301, 1963.

[38] H. Gaul, Mutagen Effects in the First Generation after Seed Treatment, Manual on Mutation Breeding Technical Reports Series 119, IAEA, Vienna, Austria, 1977.

[39] G. Kumar and P. Rai, "Comparative genotoxic potential of mercury and cadmium in soybean,” Turkish Journal of Biology, vol. 31, no. 1, pp. 13–18, 2007.

[40] G. Kumar, S. Kesarwani, and V. Sharma, "Clastogenic effect of individual and combined treatment of Gamma rays and EMS in Lens culinaris,” Journal of Cytology and Genetics, vol. 4, pp. 149–154, 2003.

[41] G. Kumar and P. Rai, "Partial genome elimination through micronuclei in soybean (Glycine max),” National Academy of Science Letters, vol. 29, no. 11-12, pp. 417–421, 2006.

[42] K. S. Utsunomiya, N. C. P. Bione, and M. S. Pagliarini, "How many different kinds of meiotic abnormalities could be found in a unique endogamous maize plant?" Cytologia, vol. 67, no. 2, pp. 169–176, 2002.

[43] V. Shreekrishna, "Cytological Abnormalities in Amaranthus paniculatus treated with Ethyl Methyl sulphonate,” Journal of Cytology and Genetics, vol. 7, pp. 101–104, 2006.