

**ENHANCING GRAIN YIELD AND QUALITY THROUGH SOIL AMELIORATION
AND FOLIAR NUTRITION IN RICE (*Oryza sativa* L.) IN VAIKOM KARI SOILS**

by

SREELEKSHMI S

(2019-11-261)

THESIS

*Submitted in partial fulfilment of the
requirements for the degree of*

MASTER OF SCIENCE IN AGRICULTURE

Faculty of Agriculture

Kerala Agricultural University



**DEPARTMENT OF AGRONOMY
COLLEGE OF AGRICULTURE
PADANNAKKAD, KASARAGOD-671314
KERALA, INDIA
2022**

DECLARATION

I, hereby declare that this thesis entitled “**ENHANCING GRAIN YIELD AND QUALITY THROUGH SOIL AMELIORATION AND FOLIAR NUTRITION IN RICE (*Oryza sativa* L.) IN VAIKOM KARI SOILS**” is a bonafide record of research work done by me during the course of research and the thesis has not previously formed the basis for the award to me of any degree, diploma, associateship, fellowship or other similar title, of any other University or Society.

Padannakkad

Date: 30-04-2022



Sreelekshmi S

(2019-11-261)

CERTIFICATE

Certified that this thesis entitled “**Enhancing grain yield and quality through soil amelioration and foliar nutrition in rice (*Oryza sativa* L.) in Vaikom kari soils**” is a record of research work done independently by Ms. Sreelekshmi S (2019-11-261) under my guidance and supervision and that it has not previously formed the basis for the award of any degree, diploma, fellowship or associateship to her.

Padannakkad

Date: 30-04-2022



Dr. Devi V.S

(Major Advisor, Advisory Committee)

Assistant Professor (Agronomy)

RARS, Kumarakom

CERTIFICATE

We, the undersigned members of the advisory committee of Ms. Sreelekshmi S., a candidate for the degree of **Master of Science in Agriculture** with major in **Agronomy**, agree that the thesis entitled **“Enhancing grain yield and quality through soil amelioration and foliar nutrition in rice (*Oryza sativa* L.) in Vaikom kari soils”** may be submitted by Ms. Sreelekshmi S., in partial fulfilment of the requirement for the degree.

Dr. Devi V. S.
30/04/2022

Dr. Devi V. S.

(Chairperson, Advisory Committee)

Assistant Professor (Agronomy)

RARS, Kumarakom

Dr. Meera .V. Menon
30/04/2022

Dr. Meera .V. Menon

(Member, Advisory Committee)

Professor (Agronomy)

Cashew Research Centre, Madakkathara

Dr. Binitha N. K.
30/4/22

Dr. Binitha N. K.

(Member, Advisory Committee)

Assistant Professor

Dept. of Soil Science and Agri. Chemistry

College of Agriculture, Padannakkad.

Dr. Jinsy V. S.
30/4/22

Dr. Jinsy V. S

(Member, Advisory Committee)

Assistant Professor

Dept. of Agronomy

College of Agriculture, Padannakkad.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

First and foremost, I bow my head to the Almighty for giving me the strength, courage, health and good spirit to complete this work successfully.

*It is with immense pleasure and profound respect I extend my sincere and heartfelt gratitude and reverence to my major advisor **Dr. Devi V.S**, Assistant professor, Department of Agronomy, RARS, Kumarakom for her expert advice, valued guidance, constructive ideas, unfailing patience, sustained inspiration, meticulous guidance, friendly approach and kind concern during the conduct of research work and preparation of thesis. I really consider it my greatest fortune in having her guidance for my research work. Without her enthusiasm, continuous encouragement and optimism this thesis would hardly have been completed.*

*I take this opportunity to express my sincere thanks to **Dr. Meera V Menon**, Professor, Cashew research Station, Madakkathara, and member of advisory committee for all the support and suggestions, expert advice and constructive criticism in ameliorating the manuscript.*

*I am grateful to **Dr. Binitha N. K**, Assistant Professor, Department of Soil Science and Agricultural chemistry, College of Agriculture, and member of my advisory committee for esteemed advice, insightful comments and encouragement during the entire course of study period.*

*I owe my sincere thanks to **Dr. Jinsy V.S**, Assistant Professor, Department of Agronomy, College of Agriculture, Padannakkad and member of my advisory committee for all the support and suggestions, positive advices and instructions which were always informative and helpful to me throughout the course of investigation.*

*I think it is my privilege to express my heartfelt thanks to **Dr. Bridjit T.K**, former professor and Head, Department of Agronomy, College of Agriculture, for her valuable suggestions, criticism, boundless support, ever willing help, valuable counsel and encouragement during the entire course work and research activities.*

*I thankfully acknowledge **Dr. Mini P.K**, Dean, College of Agriculture, and Padannakkad for providing me with all the necessary facilities from the university during the whole course of study.*

*I express my heartfelt gratitude to, **Dr. Gayathri Karthikeyan** and **Mrs. Ancy Francis** Assistant professors of Department of Agronomy for their ever-willing help, profound support and guidance at various phases of my study.*

*I am deeply obliged to my teachers, **Dr. Manikandan N**, **Mr. Shameer Mohammed E**, **Dr. Radhika N.S**, and **Dr. N. Raji Vasudevan** for their timely support and suggestions throughout the programme. I gladly acknowledge **Dr. Jayalekshmi. G** Programme coordinator, K.V.K, Kumarakom for her friendly approach, timely help and support during the present study.*

*I express my sincere thanks to **Dr. V. P. Ajitha Kumari**, Assistant Librarian College of Agriculture, and Padannakkad for assisting me with library facilities during my entire study period. I am also indebted to **Mrs. Remya.V** and **Mr. Manjunath**, Research Assistants, Department of Soil Science and Agricultural chemistry for sincere help and technical support in my research work. I express my sincere gratitude to all administrative and nonteaching staff of College of Agriculture Padannakkad, and KVK, Kumarakom who has involved during the conduct of my research programme. I am thankful to Kerala Agricultural University for the technical and financial assistance for carrying out my study and research work.*

*I am filled with emotions of gratitude to my great farmer **Sri. Suresh**, for the heartfelt support, suggestions and sincere help during my entire research work. I also express my special thanks to the labours involved during my work.*

*It is my pleasure to express my special thanks to my beloved seniors **Deepa**, **Sugina**, **Adarsh**, **Sajay**, **Christy** and **Karishma** for their help and support during my academic period and also I express my gratitude to **Reni**, **Giffy**, **Sarin**, **Mubarack ikka**, and **Billy chettan** for their help and valuable suggestions during my research work.*

*I am forever thankful to my friends **Amaya**, **Anjitha**, **Arya**, **Pranavya** and **Sai Parvathy**, for their selfless help and moral support throughout the period of my study. I would also thank my batch mates **Swathi**, **Aishwarya**, **Ramya**, **Archana**, **Haritha**, **Krishnakeerthi**, **Ramesh**, **Akshay**, **Alan**, **Aswin**, **Vishnu**, **Tejas** and my juniors **Sai Kumar** and **Sai Aprana** for their support and help rendered at times of need.*

*I will be forever grateful to my sincere and best friends **Veena** and **Akhil** who stood with me in my hard times and for their love, care and support, I am extremely thankful to them for their unwavering friendship and support.*

*Above all, success would have remained an illusion without ambitious encouragement, unquantifiable love, unbound sacrifices, constant support and affection showered on me throughout the educational endeavor from my beloved parents which gave me enough mental strength and preservance to get through all odd and tedious circumstances. Words fail to express my gratitude towards my father **Mr. Sreekumar**, mother **Mrs. Beena** and to my beloved sister **Ms. Sreevidhya** without which I would not have been what I am today. It is immense pleasure to express my sincere gratitude to my grandparents **Smt. Sreedeviyamma**, **Sri. Arjunan Pillai** and **Smt. Thankammal** for their care, love, affection and support.*

I express my immense and whole hearted thanks to all my near and dear for their cooperation, help and loving care and concern during the course of study and research. Any omission in this acknowledgement does not mean lack of gratitude.

Sreelekshmi S

CONTENTS

Sl. No.	Chapter	Page No.
1	INTRODUCTION	1-3
2	REVIEW OF LITERATURE	5-21
3	MATERIALS AND METHODS	23-33
4	RESULTS	35-61
5	DISCUSSION	63-78
6	SUMMARY	79-83
7	REFERENCES	85-112
	APPENDICES	113-114
	ABSTRACT	115-116

LIST OF TABLES

TableNo.	Title	PageNo.
1	Abstract of weather data during experimental period	24
2	Chemical properties of soil of the experimental site	24
3	Procedures followed for soil analysis	32
4	Procedures followed for plant analysis	33
5	Effect of soil amelioration practices on growth characters	36
6	Effect of soil amelioration, foliar nutrition and their interaction effects on total dry matter production at harvest	38
7	Effect of dolomite application, foliar nutrition and their interaction effects on yield attributes and yield	39
8	Effect of soil amelioration practices on pH, EC and OC in soil at PI stage	42
9	Effect of soil amelioration practices on N, P and K in soil at PI and harvest stages	43
10	Effect of soil amelioration practices on Ca, Mg and S in soil at PI and harvest stages	44
11	Effect of soil amelioration practices on Fe, Mn and Zn in soil at PI and harvest stages	45
12	Effect of soil amelioration practices on Cu, B and Na in soil at PI and harvest stages	46
13	Effect of dolomite application foliar nutrition and their interaction effects on N, P and K content in grain and straw after harvest	49
14	Effect of dolomite application, foliar nutrition and their interaction effects on Ca, Mg and S in grain and straw after harvest	50
15	Effect of dolomite application, foliar nutrition and their interaction effects on Fe, Mn and Zn in grain and straw after harvest	54

16	Effect of dolomite application, foliar nutrition and their interaction effects on Cu, B and Na in grain and straw after harvest	55
17	Effect of dolomite application, foliar nutrition and their interaction effects on uptake of N, P and K in grain and straw after harvest	59
18	Effect of dolomite application, foliar nutrition and their interaction effects on uptake of Ca, Mg and S in grain and straw after harvest	60
19	Effect of different treatments on economics of cultivation	61

LIST OF FIGURES

Fig No.	Title	Between pages
1	Weather data prevailed during the crop season in standard weeks	24-25
2	Layout of the experimental field	26-27
3	Effect of soil amelioration practices on plant height	64-65
4	Effect of soil amelioration practices on number of tillers m ⁻²	64-65
5	Effect of soil amelioration practices on LAI	64-65
6	Effect of soil amelioration practices and foliar nutrition on yield	66-67
7	Effect of soil amelioration practices on Ca, Mg, S, Fe and Na at PI stage	70-71
8	Effect of soil amelioration practices on Ca, Mg, S, Fe and Na at harvesting stage	70-71

LIST OF PLATES

Plate No.	Title	Between pages
1	Field layout	34-35
2	Sowing	34-35
3	Gap filling	34-35
4	Dolomite application	34-35
5	Maximum tillering stage	34-35
6	Panicle initiation stage	34-35
7	Foliar nutrition at PI stage	34-35
8	Harvesting stage	34-35
9	Harvesting	34-35
10	Harvested paddy	34-35
11	Threshing	34-35
12	General view of the experimental plot at 30 DAS	34-35
13	General view of the experimental plot at harvesting stage	34-35
14	Brown spot	62-63
15	Sheath rot	62-63
16	Grain discolouration	62-63
17	Stem borer attack	62-63

LIST OF APPENDICES

Sl. No.	Title	Page No.
1	Weather data during the cropping period of Experiment	115
2	Rating of nutrient availability in the soil	116

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND SYMBOLS

%	-	Per cent
@	-	at the rate of
B	-	Boron
°C	-	Degree Celsius
BCR	-	Benefit / cost ratio
Ca	-	Calcium
CD	-	Critical difference
CEC	-	Cation exchange capacity
cm	-	Centimeter
cm ²	-	Centimeter square
Cu	-	Copper
CuSO ₄	-	Copper sulphate
DAS	-	Days after sowing
dSm ⁻¹	-	deci Siemens per meter
°E	-	East
EC	-	Electrical conductivity
<i>et al</i>	-	And others
Fe	-	Iron
FeSO ₄	-	Iron sulphate
Fig.	-	Figure
g	-	Gram
ha ⁻¹	-	Per hectare
K	-	Potassium
K ₂ O	-	Potassium oxide
K ₂ SiO ₃	-	Potassium silicate
KAU	-	Kerala Agricultural University
Kg	-	Kilogram
kg ha ⁻¹	-	Kilogram per hectare
KNO ₃	-	Potassium nitrate
L	-	Litre
m	-	Meter

Mg	-	Magnesium
mg g ⁻¹	-	Milli gram per gram
mg kg ⁻¹	-	milligram per kilogram
ml	-	Milli litre
mm	-	Milli meter
mmol g ⁻¹	-	Milli moles per gram
Mn	-	Manganese
MnSO ₄	-	Manganese sulphate
Mo	-	Molybdenum
MOP	-	Muriate of potash
MRP	-	Maximum retail price
MSP	-	Minimum support price
MT/ha	-	Metric tonnes per hectare
N	-	Nitrogen
NS	-	Not significant
OC	-	Organic carbon
P	-	Phosphorus
P ₂ O ₅	-	Phosphorus pentoxide
pH	-	Soil reaction
PI	-	Panicle initiation
ppm	-	parts per million
RARS	-	Regional Agricultural Research Station
RDF	-	Recommended dose of fertilizers
Rs. ha ⁻¹	-	Rupees per hectare
S	-	Sulphur
SE	-	Standard error
t ha ⁻¹	-	Tonnes per hectare
<i>viz.</i>	-	namely
Zn	-	Zinc
ZnSO ₄	-	Zinc sulphate

Dedicated to
Achan and Amma

Introduction

1. INTRODUCTION

Rice (*Oryza sativa* L.) is the major food crop grown all over the world. It can be grown on a variety of soils including silts, loams and gravels and can tolerate acidic as well as alkaline soils. It is the third largest produced crop in the world with an output of about 116.42 million tonnes. India is the second largest producer of rice with a production of 122.27 million tonnes from an area of 44 million ha (GOI, 2021). Rice is the most important food crop grown and consumed in Kerala. It occupies about 7.46 percent of the total cropped area of the state, and covers an area of 2.01 lakh ha with 6.26 lakh tones of annual production (GOK, 2021).

Kuttanad, known as “Granary” or “Rice Bowl” of Kerala, is a unique agricultural tract lying 0.6 to 2.2 m below MSL distributed in and around Vembanad Lake in Alappuzha, Kottayam and Pathanamthitta districts. Low lying areas of Kuttanad soils are highly acidic and saline in nature with high level of toxic salts. Several parts of this delta have subsoil layers containing pyrites which on oxidation produce severe acidity. Share of Kuttanad region to the state’s rice area is 15% and production is 18 % respectively. Rice cultivation in Kuttanad faces severe problems associated with waterlogging, severe acidity and iron and aluminium toxicities (Thampatti and Jose, 2000).

Based on geomorphology, soils, and salinity intrusion, the Kuttanad region is divided into six agronomic zones: Upper Kuttanad, Lower Kuttanad, North Kuttanad, Kayal lands, Vaikom Kari, and Purakkad Kari. Based on acidity, salinity, texture and electro-chemical qualities, the soil type in Kuttanad is further divided into three distinct zones: Kayal lands (upland rice fields, 13000 ha), Karappadams (wetland rice fields, 33000 ha.) and Kari lands (land buried with black coal like materials, 9000 ha). Paddy is Kuttanad's principal crop, and the traditional paddy crop season here is known as *puncha* (November - March).

Kari lands cover around 6075 hectares and are characterised by deep black soils. '*Kari*' literally means 'charcoal,' and these soils are unusually dark in colour and high in organic carbon, with deep buried, partly burned out large chunks of old timber species, most likely from the Pleistocene period. The *Kari* soils are found in the

taluks, Vaikom and Kottayam in the Kottayam district (Vaikom *kari*), as well as Cherthala (Cherthala *Kari*) and Ambalapuzha (Purakad *Kari*) in the Alappuzha district. Vaikom *Kari* faces more severe yield constraints than Purakad *Kari*. They are acid sulphate soils that are black, peaty and heavy textured. Excessive acidity and nutrient disequilibrium throughout the year, as well as high salinity, particularly during periods of low rainfall, are important limiting factors for rice cultivation in these soils. In addition to lower pH, soil is also low in macronutrients such as N, P, K, Ca and Mg and high in S, Fe, Mn, Al and Na. Crop productivity in these soils are found to be low due to imbalance of nutrients in the soil and there is a scope to improve the productivity of these soils by different management practices. They are strongly to extremely acidic in nature which can be ameliorated by the application of liming materials.

Iron toxicity is a prevalent nutrient disorder of lowland rice grown on acid sulphate soils with a low cation exchange capacity (CEC), high acidity, and active Fe and low to moderately high in organic matter. Higher Fe^{2+} concentrations in the rhizosphere have antagonistic effects on the uptake of various essential nutrients, resulting in reduced yields. Rice production can be increased in acid sulphate soils by proper management practices.

Soil acidification is mostly restrained by application of lime in agricultural soils. Burnt lime (calcium oxide) produced from lime shell is commonly used for the liming purpose, but however, has the constraints of poor availability and high cost. Dolomite [$\text{CaMg}(\text{CO}_3)_2$] is a cheap and effective substitute for lime for improving acidic soils as it contains both calcium (Ca^{2+}) and magnesium (Mg^{2+}) which are generally deficient in the acid soils of Kerala. Dolomite dissolution releases calcium (Ca^{2+}) and magnesium (Mg^{2+}) into the soil solution, which increase base saturation by forming $\text{Ca}(\text{HCO}_3)_2$ and $\text{Mg}(\text{HCO}_3)_2$ respectively. Aluminium (Al^{3+}) ions are replaced by Ca and Mg ions and neutralised by OH ions at the same time. As a result, dolomite application raises the pH of acidic soils (Paradelo *et al.*, 2015). Hence, the study includes two types of dolomite as treatments one which is ordinary industrial waste (17.16% Ca and 10.15% Mg) and other a granulated dolomite (23% Ca and 13% Mg) developed as a start up in collaboration with INVENT Social Incubation Program of IIT Kanpur.

The low pH combined with low aeration reduces the soil microbial activity affecting the availability of nutrients. The shallow water table with poor drainage enhances the problem of Fe and Al toxicity damaging the roots and hampering the nutrient uptake by plants. This necessitates foliar nutrition at critical growth stages especially at the panicle initiation stage. Recently, poor grain filling and grain discolouration were found to be associated with reduction in grain quality upsetting the smooth procurement of paddy. Low pH and high Fe toxicity causes deficiency of K which is essential for grain filling and K application through foliar spray may be beneficial to rice crop in this soil. Hence it is necessary to evaluate different sources of potassium fertilizers *viz.*, potassium nitrate and potassium silicate as foliar spray on the growth, yield and agronomic efficiency of rice. Micronutrient deficiencies of B due to low pH, Cu due to the chelation by high organic carbon content and Zn due to Fe toxicity have also been found frequently in these soils.

Soil amelioration practices along with foliar nutrition of potassium fertilizers *viz.* potassium nitrate, potassium silicate and micronutrients are likely to enhance the grain yield, quality and productivity of rice in acid sulphate soils by correcting soil reaction and different nutrient deficiencies. Hence the present study on enhancing grain yield and quality through soil amelioration and foliar nutrition in rice in Vaikom *Kari* soils has been proposed with the following objectives.

- To augment the grain yield and quality of rice crops in Vaikom *Kari* soils through standardization of different soil amelioration practices.
- To manage soil acidity and standardization of foliar spray of K and different micronutrients for supplementing nutrients at PI stage.

Review of literature

2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The present investigation entitled "Enhancing grain yield and quality through soil amelioration practices and foliar nutrition in rice (*Oryza sativa* L.) in Vaikom *Kari* soils" was undertaken with an objective of augmenting the yield and quality of rice in Vaikom *Kari* soils through soil amelioration practices for managing soil acidity, and to supplement nutrition at panicle initiation stage through foliar application of K and micronutrients. Hence relevant literature of acid sulphate soils, effect of soil ameliorants on rice in acid soils and foliar nutrition of potassium and micronutrient fertilizers on rice are reviewed in this chapter.

2.1 ACID SULPHATE SOILS

The term "acid sulphate soils" was coined by Chenery (1954). He claims that drained soils have absorbed sulphate and a pale yellow colour Jarosite, as well as a pH less than 4.0 in water. When soils are drained or exposed to air owing to a dip in the water table, sulphides react with oxygen to produce sulphuric acid. Sulphide-bearing soils that have not been drained can also be found in situations where reclamation has been attempted.

Acid sulphate soils are problem soils suitable for various crops under controlled water logging that helps to keep reduced sulphide horizon by preventing pyrite oxidation (Dent, 1986). Acid sulphate soils are of three types *viz.* actual, potential and post active acid sulphate soils. Soils containing sulphuric acid formed by the oxidation of pyrites are termed as actual acid sulphate soils. Poorly drained soils which are rich in pyrite with the potential to produce sulphuric acid under drained and oxidised condition are known as potential acid sulphate soils. Soils in which acid have been leached away or neutralised so that microbiological activation and root development are no longer inhibited are known as post active acid sulphate soils (Breemen and Pons, 1978).

Acid sulphate soils forms naturally under anaerobic conditions. These soils either contain sulphuric acid or have the capacity to produce it in sufficient amounts which significantly affect other soil parameters (Dent and Pons, 1995).

According to Yoshida (1981) and Sahrawat (2005), high S content can trigger the development of sulphides and organic acids in submerged rice soils, which can cause toxicity to rice plants. Acid sulphate soils are typically unsuitable for agricultural production unless they have been thoroughly ameliorated and their fertility has been increased Shamshuddin (2014).

Bian *et al.* (2013) reported that acid sulphate soils are deficient in nutrients, particularly P, which results in poor plant development, and their pH is low (3.5), containing hazardous levels of Fe and Al, both of which are harmful to rice crops.

Keene *et al.* (2004) pointed out that K deficiency in acid sulphate soils is linked with the formation of jarosite, a sulphide mineral oxidation product that functions as an endless sink for K in the upper sulphuric horizon, lowering available K for plant growth and Ca deficiency is a limiting factor for rice production in acid sulphate soils (Moore and Patrick, 1989).

Marschner (1991) reported that Al inhibits root growth in acid sulphate soils either by inhibiting cell division, cell elongation, or by both. Acid sulphate soils have in high quantities of Fe and Al and due to its excess levels they are toxic to plants including rice. (Panhwar *et al.*, 2016).

Acid sulphate soils, which are abundant in Southeast Asia and virtually solely on its coastal plains, are one of the areas that can be used for rice production. (Anda *et al.*, 2009). Langenhoff (1986) reported that acid sulphate soils covers an area of 0.4 million hectares in India along both the west and east coastal lines.

2.1.1 Acid sulphate soils of Kuttanad

The acid sulphate soils span an area of 14227.51 ha in Kerala's Kuttanad region with total of 54000 ha wetlands. The acid sulphate soil series of Kuttanad includes Kallara, Ambalappuzha, Purakkad, Thakazhi, Thottappally, and Thuravur (Beena, 2005). Kallara series occupied largest area among different soil series.

Kari soils are the most problematic area in Kuttanad region for rice cultivation. The characterization of acidity in key wetlands of Kerala by Usha and Vargheese (2006) revealed the highest exchange acidity in *Kari* soils (16.4 cmols). Beena and Thampatti

(2013), reported that the Kuttanad soils are extremely acidic in nature showing a range of pH from 2.5 to 5.2 and compared to exchangeable acidity, potential acidity being very high in *Kari* soils ranging from 13.32 to 112.1 cmol kg⁻¹. Beena (2013) conducted an incubation experiment to confirm acid sulphate nature of Kuttanad soils that revealed potential acid sulphate condition of soil that increased with reduction in soil pH.

2.1.2 Physico-chemical characteristics of Kari soils

The lower pH of *Kari* soils is due to the acid sulphate nature and the presence of undecomposed organic matter in soil. These soils are dark brown to black in colour, rich in organic carbon, sandy to clayey in texture, with random deposits of lime shells and humus. (Chattopadhyay and Sidharthan, 1985) reported that *Kari* soils are highly acidic in nature despite of large deposit of lime shells in the soil. *Kari* soils are affected by severe acidity and periodic saline water inundation with constant accumulation of salts (Neenu *et al.*, 2020).

Marykutty and Aiyer, (1987) reported that *Kallara* in Kerala has highly acidic *Kari* soils with a pH as low as 2.6. Kannan *et al.* (2014) reported that the OC content percentage in Kuttanad soils ranges from 2.79 to 7.70 %. Despite the high OC content of *Kari* soils, available N is deficient in the soil due to low microbial activity (Koruth *et al.*, 2013). Devi (2017) reported that phosphorus levels in *Kari* soils are typically low due to the fixation of P by hydroxides of Fe and Al.

Kari soils was found to be deficient in available K (Nair and Money, 1972; Money and Sukumaran, 1973). Koruth *et al.*, 2013 reported that, S is adequate in 96 per cent of Kuttanad soils, with the most of these soils having a high S content. Total S is more in *Kari* soils than the other two types, *Kayal* and *Karappadam* of Kuttanad soils. The deficiency of B in *Kari* soils was reported by Sasidharan and Ambikadevi (2013).

2.1.3 Iron toxicity and nutrient status in acid soils

Fe toxicity occurs in soils formed from acidic parent material like acid igneous rocks in Kerala soil which are high in Fe and Al sesquioxides (Ponnamperuma, 1972). Becker and Asch (2005) reported that low land rice production is mainly affected by Fe

toxicity as the toxicity of Fe occurs only in flooded soils. Fe and Al toxicity is a widespread problem in acid sulphate soils of Kuttanad, resulting in 50 to 70% yield reduction in rice (Thampatti *et al.*, 2005).

Lowland rice yields are said to be affected by Fe concentrations in the soil solution ranging from 10 to >2000 mg L⁻¹. Poor soil nutrient status is frequently linked to iron-induced yield decrease (Benckiser *et al.*, 1984). Rice yields are extremely low on highly acidic soils due to the inhibitory effects of specific elements. A high nutrient concentration in the leaves, whether in the soil or in the plant, is not an indicator of high yield (Bridgit, 1999). According to John *et al.* (2001), toxicities of Fe, Al and Mn hinder crop productivity in laterites, and these nutrient imbalances must be corrected in order to continue sustained crop production. Bridgit and Potty (1992) found that high Fe levels in the leaf resulted in reduced chlorophyll 'a' content, which contributed to low yield. Higher Fe concentrations in the rhizosphere have an antagonistic effect on the uptake of essential nutrients, resulting in lower rice yields (Fageria *et al.*, 2008). Basic cation deficiency and excessive saturation of soil CEC with H⁺ and Al₃⁺ ions are problems that limit agricultural yields in these heavily weathered soils. (Ryan *et al.*, 2011; Nair *et al.*, 2013).

Fageria and Rabelo (1987), reported that reduction in shoot dry weight is one of the most sensitive growth character in rice plants to Fe toxicity. Majumder *et al.* (1995) observed stunted growth, highly reduced tillering, an extended vegetative period, increased spikelet sterility, and lower grain yield in rice due to toxicity of Fe. Olaleye (2001) reported that increasing Fe levels reduced dry matter yields, tiller numbers per pot, and plant height considerably. Bridgit and Potty (2002) reported that iron toxicity in wetland rice is a yield limiting element which results in reduced long roots, less number of tillers and low dry matter resulting in low rice yield. Toxicity of iron reduces lowland rice yield by 12 to 100 per cent based on genotype, intensity of Fe toxicity and nutrient status of the soil (Sahrawat, 2010).

Ottow *et al.* (1993) reported that Fe toxicity is a complex nutritional disorder in which high concentrations of Fe in the soil diminishes the availability of P, K and Zn to plants, resulting in deficiencies, and increases the availability of S resulting in H₂S toxicity. Fe²⁺ toxicity is a major constraint to long-term rice production, and it is the

most prevalent micronutrient problem in wetland rice, along with Zn deficiency (Savithri *et al.*, 1999; Dobermann and Fairhurst, 2000). Low soil pH and associated concerns such as Fe toxicity and inadequate availability of other nutrients are the important yield limiting factors related to rice soils of Kerala (Moossa *et al.*, 2012). Deficiencies of P and K occur in acid soils affected by Fe toxicity than in soils without Fe toxicity (Wissuwa *et al.*, 2005; Suriyagoda *et al.*, 2014).

Due to low pH and the prevalence of active forms of Fe and Al in acid soils, P becomes immobilised and unavailable to plants. Extreme soil acidity causes Fe and Al sesquioxides to fix P (Audebert and Sahrawat, 2000; Dixit, 2006). Soils with low pH (less than 5.5) are problematic due to severe deficiencies of phosphorus, calcium, magnesium and molybdenum and due to high toxicities of Fe and Al (Panda and Chamuah, 2002).

Soil acidity causes a decrease in basic cations like Ca and Mg, resulting in a shortage in these essential nutrients for plant growth. The majority of Ca in acid soils is soluble, but both soluble and exchangeable Ca decreases as soil pH drops. Furthermore, high concentrations of Al limit Ca bioavailability at low pH. (Haynes and Ludecke, 1981). Iron toxicity, along with Zn deficiency is the most common micronutrient disorder in wetland rice, and is one of the most serious constraints to rice production on acid soils. (Neue *et al.*, 1998). Manganese, Zn and K deficiency increases with increasing availability of Fe (Fageria 1988; Jugsujinda and Patrick 1993), and the Fe uptake decreases with the application of potassium (Sahrawat *et al.*, 1996).

With the use of balanced fertilizers, the nutrient stress related with iron toxicity in wetland rice can be reduced (Patra and Mohanty, 1994). Ramirez *et al.* (2002) reported that the application of fertilizers such as N, P, K, S and Zn mitigated the negative effects of iron toxicity. Fageria *et al.* (1995) reported the release of P ions from Fe and Al oxides increased soil P when pH climbed from 5.0 to 6.5. Increased pH with liming improves CEC in soils with pH dependent charges, and boost the ability to retain potassium (Ernani *et al.*, 2012).

2.2 EFFECT OF SOIL AMELIORANTS ON RICE IN ACID SOILS

Amelioration of acid soils can be done by chemical neutralization methods like application of lime, dolomite, calcite, magnesite etc. Liming is the most common agronomic procedure used to remediate acid sulphate soils for crop cultivation around the world. Suswanto *et al.* (2007) and Shazana *et al.* (2013) reported that the soil fertility restriction of acid sulphate soils can be substantially enhanced by using amendments such as dolomite limestone, basalt, and organic materials.

2.2.1 Effect of Lime

2.2.1.1 Effect on Soil Chemical Properties

Liming is the most common method used to neutralize the soil acidity and improves production capacity, increases the availability of nutrients, and reduce toxic element levels in the soil (Caires *et al.*, 2001). Application of lime is the prevalent management practice which helps to increase the soil pH and to reduce the Al toxicity in acid sulphate soils (Lestari *et al.*, 2016).

Improving the fertility of acid soils by the application of various liming materials is common practice to increase the crops productivity (Rengel, 2003). Pankova *et al.* (2009) suggested that liming on acid soils lowers the activity of Al and increases the P availability and also enhance the rate of N mineralization from organic materials. In acid soils, lime application can improve soil biological processes and, release of organically derived CO₂ through decomposition of organic matter. (Biasi *et al.*, 2008; Tamir *et al.*, 2011). Solubility of Fe, Al and other metals in the soil can be reduced by increasing the soil pH by liming (Haby, 2002) and increases the availability of nutrients *viz.*, P, Ca, Mg and Mo effectiveness of fertilizers (Halim *et al.*, 2014). The yield benefits of liming can be ascribed to the increase in soil pH along with the associated improvement in nutrient availability, reduced Fe availability and many other attributes of soil fertility (Kumar *et al.*, 2012).

Liming and lowering soil acidity are well known for increasing P availability, however, high lime application can also cause P fixation. (Rahman *et al.*, 2002). Shamshuddin *et al.* (2004) suggested that application of lime at a high rate of more than

4 t ha⁻¹ under acid sulphate soils will help to maintain the critical pH value for rice (5.5-6.0). Rastija *et al.* (2014) found that liming improved the available P content in the acid soil. Significantly lower P concentrations was reported by Rose *et al.* (2016) and Vandamme *et al.* (2016) in grains of crops suffering from P deficiency because P level in rice grain reflects the soil P status.

The beneficial functions of lime for crop growth can also be linked to better Ca nutrition, soil structure improvement, and pH neutralisation, all of which lead to an increase in P availability (Curtin and Syers 2001). As liming raises the Ca concentration in the soil solution, cation adsorption, such as K, can be influenced (Bolan, 2003). Merino *et al.* (2010) found that Ca plays a critical role in reducing pH and Al toxicity, as well as in enhancing physiological and biochemical processes in plants through aluminium- calcium interactions. The Ca ions present in liming materials is readily adsorbed to soil particles and organic matter and the carbonates in turn react with H⁺ ions in solution that lead to increase in soil pH (Buni, 2015). Lime raises soil pH and precipitates active Al and Fe as insoluble hydroxy-Al and hydroxy-Fe, respectively (Haling *et al.*, 2010). Hence it is commonly utilised as a standard amendment to ameliorate acid sulphate soils for agricultural production (Shazana *et al.*, 2013).

Patil and Ananthanarayana, (1989) reported that increase in exchangeable Ca was directly proportional to the increase in lime level. Liming increased the base saturation and reduced Al saturation and thus increases the Mg concentration in soil solution. Application of lime increased Mg adequately. Liming of acidic red and lateritic soil not only alleviates soil acidity-related issues, but also increases Ca availability and uptake (Samui and Mandal, 2003). Lime is a source of Ca and Mg that also reduces the amount of acetate extractable Fe in soils. (Seng *et al.*, 2006). Shetty *et al.* (2012) and Azman *et al.* (2014) also reported that the application of lime decreases Fe and Al concentration and will increase the Ca and Mg content in the soil. Sulphur concentration in rice crop after 60 days of growth as well as in grain and straw after harvest were significantly reduced by liming (Karan *et al.*, 2014).

2.2.1.2 Effect on growth, yield and quality of rice

Soil amelioration with lime significantly increased the rice yield components such as number of panicles, grains per panicle and thousand grain weight (Chang and Sung, 2004). Devi (2017) found that liming materials considerably improved grain yield and yield attributes such as panicle number and reduced sterility percentage over control. Suswanto *et al.* (2007) reported that rice production on acid sulphate soils can be improved by the application of lime along with judicious application of fertilizers. Rattanapichai *et al.* (2013) also reported that combined application of lime along with chemical fertilizers can increase rice productivity. Liming along with recommended dose of chemical fertilizers enhanced yields by 37% in paddy (Attanandana and Vacharotayan, 1986) and 49 per cent in crops (Sharma and Sarkar, 2005).

2.2.2 Dolomite

2.2.2.1 Effect on soil chemical properties

In rice soils, dolomite with 56% of CaO and 40% of MgO was used to improve pH and available P. (Rahman *et al.*, 2002). The results of an incubation experiment by Rosilawati *et al.* (2014) found that on acid sulphate soil the application of dolomite increased the soil pH by increasing the doses applied. Similar results were also obtained by Wijanarko and Taufiq (2016).

Rastija *et al.* (2014) pointed out that liming with dolomite had a significant impact on soil chemical characteristics and it also raised the pH levels. Reducing the acidity of soil resulted in the enhancement of available P in the soil. Dolomite application at high rates raised the P availability by 8% in the soils with high P content and 45% in the soils with poor available P. Mowidu *et al.* (2017) reported that dolomite application can increase the soil pH and thus release phosphates from Al and Fe ions. Dolomite application in both field and pot experiment decreased the soil Fe concentration by increasing soil pH and P availability (Suriyagoda *et al.*, 2017).

Application of dolomite significantly increased the Ca and Mg contents in leaves as dolomite is a good source of these nutrients (Soratto and Crusciol, 2008). Similar results were also found by Duarte *et al.* (1999). Dolomite application is used as

a management intervention in various cropping systems and as a magnesium source when an increase in soil pH and efficiency of phosphorus fertiliser use are required (Takijima *et al.* 1970); Wijewardena ,2005). Stevens *et al.* (2005) found that in soils that are deficient in Mg, dolomite can be used to reduce soil acidity and to enhance the soil Mg content.

2.2.2.2 Effect on growth, yield and quality of rice

Varghese and Money (1965) conducted a pot culture experiment to study and found that fertiliser application, along with application of Ca and Mg, enhanced grain yield and nitrogen content. In Mg deficient soils, Mg application in the form of MgSO₄, magnesite, or dolomite increased rice grain and straw yield significantly according to Biswas *et al.* (2013). Koruth *et al.* (2013) stated that application of Mg as basal dose was very significant increased the grain and straw yield of rice in Mg deficient soils. Suriyagoda *et al.* (2017) reported that application of dolomite to lowland rice fields, affected by Fe toxicity, will improve plant height, shoot dry weight, and root dry weight and grain yield by increasing plant P and K contents and decreasing Fe content. In acidic soils, the application of dolomite along with recommended dose of fertilizers resulted in higher grain and straw yield and higher returns under rice cultivation. Mansingh *et al.* (2019)

2.3 EFFECT OF FOLIAR APPLICATION

Foliar application is a fastest method to provide elements required in plants as the nutrients are absorbed very quickly, compared plant root absorptions. (Hashemy *et al.*, 1998). Latha and Nadanassababady (2003) also pointed out foliar fertilisation to be a significant method as it is very easy and rapid. Fageria *et al.* (2009) also found that crops respond to soil-applied fertilisers in five to six days, whereas foliar fertilisers respond faster within 48 hours.

Jamal *et al.* (2006) reported that foliar application of nutrients is preferred as it gives better and quicker results than the soil application. Alam *et al.* (2010) also reported the same, as foliar application could be considered only as a supplement to soil application of fertilizers.

Foliar spray of nutrients enhances root growth and nutrients flow from terminal leaves to depth roots, promoting root absorption of the same nutrient or additional nutrients (El-Fouly and El-Sayed, 1997). Dixon (2003) revealed that foliar feeding is more efficient than soil application in the following ways as N was six times more efficient, boron was four times more efficient, Mn was thirty times more efficient, zinc and phosphorus was twenty times more efficient, and Mo was fourteen times more efficient. Liew (1988) claimed that application of micronutrients as foliar spray is six to twenty times more efficient than soil application on various soil types. According to Girma *et al.* (2007), foliar spray is a visible and cost-effective technique to boost nutrient uptake.

Foliar spraying of nutrients is an established practice in crop production which help to increase the yield and quality of crops (Roemheld and El-Fouly, 1999). Hasewaga *et al.* (2000) reported that foliar nutrition has a significant effect on rice growth and yield. A study by Lin and Zhu (2000) revealed that application of fertilizers as foliar spray at flowering stage enhanced the productivity of rice crop. Ahamad and Jabeen (2005) reported that foliar nutrition increased the grain yield and decreased the amount of fertilizers applied as soil application. Ali *et al.* (2005) found that the metabolic activity of plant was increased by foliar nutrition. Foliar nutrition increased nutrient uptake throughout critical growth stages, leading to increased physiological activity and yield (Kundu and Sarkar, 2009). Application of nutrients as foliar spray is an efficient way to increase the yield and quality of crops (Roemheld and El-Fouly, 1999; Sarkar *et al.*, 2007). Bhuyan *et al.* (2012), reported that foliar application of N during late growth stages reduced sterility and boosted thousand grain weight and yield of rice crop. Jagathijothi *et al.* (2012) found that foliar nutrients increase the photosynthetic rate and translocation of carbohydrates and in turn it also increases the dry matter production. Rani *et al.* (2014) found that combined fertilizer application at recommended doses with foliar spray of NPK significantly increased the grain yield in rice. According to Mohan *et al.* (2017) foliar nutrition in correct quantity with RDF increases yield and yield attributes in rice.

2.4.1 Effect of foliar spray of potassium fertilizers

Potassium is an essential and required nutrient for plant growth and development. It also helps in photosynthesis, distribution of carbohydrates, and synthesis of starch in storage organs, which results in increased grain yield (Imas and Magen, 2007; White *et al.*, 2010). Utilization of K by plants through foliar nutrition is well known and is practiced in different agriculturally advanced countries (Ali *et al.*, 2007). Yang *et al.* (2003) stated that in rice producing soils, K is one of the limiting factors for enhancing rice yield. Singh *et al.* (2013) reported that application of K fertilizers increased rice and wheat yields irrespective of different soil texture, soil K content, climate and irrigation. Ye *et al.* (2019) stated that with the increase of K application, growth condition of rice crop is improved and in turn it flowered earlier.

Foliar nutrition of K may be beneficial when uptake of K through the root zone is low mainly due to the competition of cation in saline or sodic soils with high content of Na (Weinbaum *et al.*, 2001). According to Ebrahimi *et al.* (2012) potassium application as foliar spray and as soil intake is the best method under salinity conditions. It plays essential roles in stomata movement, energy transfer, phloem transport, cation-anion balance and stress resistance (Wang *et al.*, 2013 and Salami and Saadat, 2013).

Narang *et al.* (1997) recorded effects of K fertilisation on rice and wheat under maximum yield research strategies and found that foliar K application increased grain production. Ali *et al.* (2005) reported significant increase in rice yield with foliar application of K using different K sources over control where no K was applied. According to him foliar spray of K_2SO_4 at different concentrations enhanced the yield components of rice and increased the uptake of K by rice grain and straw. Kundu *et al.* (2020) reported that foliar spray of K salts resulted in increased plant height, chlorophyll content, grain yield and nutrient uptake by rice. There was a significant increase in number of grains per panicle and the panicle numbers after the application of K fertilizers (Ye *et al.*, 2019).

2.4.1.1 Foliar spray of potassium nitrate

Foliar spray of potassium nitrate at critical stages of crop production increase the growth attributes of rice which tend to the overall improvement in plant growth, vigour and photosynthates production of leading to increased availability, absorption and translocation of nutrients in rice. Nitrogen and K supplied in the form of KNO_3 improves the factors affected by high salinity and also correct deficiencies of both n and K. The N absorbed at PI stage increased the number of spikelet number and that absorbed at maturity helps in better filling of grains (De Datta, 1981). Potassium nitrate is an important nutrient for the production of boro rice. It plays a key role in increasing the tillering capacity of plant, which leads to increased production (Ali *et al.*, 2005). Foliar nutrition of KNO_3 had greater effect on vegetative growth than other applications (Marchand and Bourrie, 1999). Foliar application of potassium nitrate had significant influence on grain protein and grain yield (Ahmad and Jabeen, 2005). Bhuyan *et al.* (2012) stated that foliar spray of N fertilizers at late growth stages resulted in reduced sterility percentage enhanced thousand grain weight and increased the yield in rice. Even though there are different methods of fertilizer application, foliar application of KNO_3 is the better method compared to others (Son *et al.*, 2012).

The foliar spray of KNO_3 reduces the harmful effects of salts and in turn increases the production of rice (Ahmad and Jabeen, 2005). The grain yield and straw yield of rice was increased with foliar nutrition of 0.5% KNO_3 solution at flowering stage of the crop (Sarkar and Bandopadhyay, 1991). Ravi *et al.* (2007) found that foliar spray of 0.5 % KNO_3 resulted a significant increase in rice yield over control. Son *et al.* (2012) found increased yield and net income responses from one to three foliar spray of KNO_3 with spring and summer rice grown on soils with low exchangeable K. Foliar nutrition of KNO_3 also increased the number of panicles per m^2 , numbers of grains per panicle, 1000 grain weight, and decreased the percentage of unfilled grains. Arif *et al.*, (2010); and Zain *et al.* (2014) found that foliar application of potassium nitrate was effective in increased growth and production of rice. Surya (2015) conducted an experiment in wetland rice and recorded the highest grain and straw yield by flag leaf nutrition with 0.5% KNO_3 .

Sarkar and Mukhopadhyay (1990) investigated the response of rice cultivars to foliar application of KNO_3 and found that foliar spray with KNO_3 solution at 1.5 % at flowering stage significantly enhanced the grain yield of high yielding and traditional cultivars compared to control cultivars. Foliar application of 0.4% calcium nitrate followed by 0.5% potassium nitrate during 50% flowering stage improved the growth characters and yield attributes which in turn resulted in higher rice grain yield (Kundu and Sarkar, 2009). Mahajan *et al.* (2012) claimed that rice grain yield can be improved by a single spray of 1 % potassium nitrate at flowering stage and there was no advantages in yield found with two sprays of 1% potassium nitrate compared to single spray of 1% potassium nitrate. Foliar application of KNO_3 at 1.5 per cent and 2.0 per cent solutions on 40 and 60 days after planting of rice increased the net returns and also enhanced the rice yield. (Khan *et al.*, 2012). Jothi *et al.* (2019) opined that foliar spray of 2% KNO_3 at tillering, panicle initiation and flowering stages could be recommended as alternative K management strategy against soil application of K at 50 kg/ha for higher productivity, agronomic efficiency and benefit cost ratio of rice under sodic soil condition. Foliar KNO_3 application had significant effect on the yield performances of BRRI dhan 28 and application of KNO_3 at 0.25 kg ha^{-1} recorded the highest grain yield when applied at the panicle initiation (PI) stage of boro rice (Hasan *et al.*, 2020).

2.4.1.2 Foliar spray of potassium silicate

Rice is known as Si accumulator (Takahashi *et al.*, 1990) and huge amounts of Si are required for the healthy and productive growth of rice (Savant *et al.*, 1997; Singh *et al.*, 2005). Rice's growth and grain yield can be promoted by silicon application (Okuda and Takahashi, 1962). Ma and Takahashi (2002), reported that adequate uptake of Si increases the tolerance of agronomic crops particularly rice to both biotic stress and abiotic stress. Some studies revealed that the soil application of Si at the root zone may significantly enhance the rice yield (Epstein, 1999; Prychid *et al.*, 2003). Deposition of Si increases the strength and rigidity of cell walls, and enhances resistance in plants (Epstein 1994, Epstein, 1999; Ma and Takahashi 2002). (Korndorfer *et al.*, 2001) reported that effects of Si on yield are based on the deposition of silicon under the leaf epidermis which results a physical mechanism of defense, reduces the lodging, and enhances photosynthesis capacity and minimum transpiration losses.

Silicon solution has the ability to reduce various impacts of plant diseases which is clearly elucidated in case of rice blast (Kim *et al.*, 2002).

Silicon content in the plant affects plant growth, quality of the crop, photosynthesis stimulation, reduction of transpiration and increased plant resistance to biotic stresses (Lu and Cao, 2001; Raven, 2003 and Savvas *et al.*, 2002). Jinhong *et al.* (2002) concluded that Si has increased the N, P and K concentrations in both shoots and grains of rice. Silicon is considered as an important fertilizer for improving vegetative growth and development and also nutrition of optimum amount of Si is required for cell development and for its differentiation (Liang *et al.*, 2005). Silicon is an essential element to enhance and sustain rice productivity (Sudhakar *et al.*, 2006). Application of Si to plants develops photosynthetic efficiency of leaf, enhance growth parameters and increase the grain yield in cereal crops particularly in rice (Shashidhar *et al.*, 2008). Gholami and Falah (2013) stated that application of Si improved the growth parameters, enhanced yield, yield attributes and quality of rice crops. According to Chalmardi *et al.* (2014), application of silicon helps to mitigate the detrimental effects of Fe toxicity by lowering plant Fe concentrations and increasing antioxidant enzyme activity. Yogendra *et al.* (2014) found that with application of calcium silicate at 2 t ha⁻¹ along with the application of N at 100 kg ha⁻¹ increased the grain yield and straw yield significantly. Malav *et al.* (2015) revealed that Si application in soil up to 200 mg kg⁻¹ significantly enhanced rice grain and straw yield over control.

Concentration of nutrients and its uptake were significantly affected with the foliar treatment of Si (Abou-Baker *et al.*, 2011). Foliar application of Si at 0.5 % obtained maximum grain protein and grain diameter whereas silicon at 1 % solution produced the highest number of productive tillers, straw yield, thousand grain weight, and grain yield and grain starch. (Ahamad *et al.*, 2013). Shah *et al.* (2020) observed that foliar application of potassium silicate at the rate of 1% at different growth stages such as tillering stage, PI stage and grain formation stage significantly influenced the growth parameters and yield attributes in rice such as panicle length, panicle weight, number of grains per panicle and weight of grains per panicle, grain yield and straw yield, as well as gross return, net return and benefit cost ratio over control. Foliar application of Si increased the percentage of filled grains and as an impact the grain yield also

increased. Foliar nutrition of Si is economically and environmentally efficient to enhance the rice yield and also in providing sufficient food for the increasing world population (Dehaghi *et al.*, 2018). Nagula *et al.* (2015) reported that application of boron and silicon fertilizers through soil and foliar obtained the highest plant height and number of tillers. Gladis (2015) observed that the application of 0.5% K_2SiO_3 + 0.5% borax was very effective in reducing the toxicity of Fe, Mn and Al in the soil and significantly enhanced the Si content and uptake by the plant, and in turn improves the rice yield.

2.4.2 Effect of foliar spray of micronutrients

Foliar application of Zn, Cu and B has been shown to be similarly or even more effective in overcoming micronutrient deficiency as compared to soil application (Ali *et al.*, 2009; Hussanin *et al.*, 2012). Lahijani *et al.* (2020) reported that micronutrients delivered through the leaf have a significant impact on rice yield and yield components, it can also reduce the postponement time, which is critical for rice plants during their rapid growth phase. A single leaf spraying of essential micronutrients has a considerable impact on rice yield. Mohan *et al.* (2017) reported that foliar application of nutrients in an optimum quantity with recommended doses of fertilizer help to improve the growth characters of the rice crop. Foliar nutrition of Zn, B and S along with recommended dose of fertilizers in rice increased growth parameters and protein content of rice crop.

Micronutrient application as foliar spray under saline soil conditions is favourable for rice growth and yield (Zayed *et al.*, 2011). Foliar nutrition of micronutrients enhanced the yield, yield components and protein content of rice, wheat, maize, sorghum and barley (Boorboori *et al.*, 2012).

Adequate B nutrition is essential for high yield and quality of crops (Brown and Shelp, 1997). Both soil and foliar application of B found to be helpful in increasing plant growth and yield in rice (Sakal *et al.*, 2002). Jena *et al.* (2006) revealed that application of boron to rice increased the yield and decreased the panicle sterility. Boron deficiency is one of the most common factor seen in rice growing soils. Even though being tolerant, rice plants suffering with B deficiency results in significant yield

loss (Cakmak and Romheld, 1997; Rashid *et al.*, 2009). According to Rao *et al.* (2013), boron application increased the number of grains while decreased the number of unfilled spikelets.

El-Magid *et al.* (2000) found that application of NPK along with foliar application of various micronutrient combination such as Fe, Mn, Cu, Zn, B, and Mo enhanced the rice grain yield. Shueadshen (1991) reported that foliar nutrition of 0.1 per cent of Zn, Fe, Co, B and Mn at tillering stage increased the number of spikelets per panicle and grain yield while lowering the spikelet sterility. Asad and Rafique (2002) studied the effect of various micronutrients such as Fe, Mn, Zn, Cu and B and a commercial micronutrient mixture and the result revealed that the application of various micronutrients had a significant influence on grain yield, straw yield and dry matter of wheat. Patel *et al.* (2008), reported that foliar application of micronutrient mixture at 1 % (containing Fe - 4 %, Mn - 1 %, Zn - 6 %, Cu - 0.5 % and B - 0.5 %) at 30, 40 and 50 days after sowing recorded the highest plant height, number of tillers, shoot and grain weight and increased micronutrients uptake. Agostinho *et al.* (2017) reported that application of B at the rate of 1.0 % as foliar application and the combine application of both 1.5 % Si and 1.0 % B at the rate of can produce better yield.

Foliar spray of micronutrients with 1% of Fe, Cu and B and 2% of Zn and Mn, on wheat enhanced the plants height, number of grains per spike, biological yield, harvest index, thousand grain weight, grain yield and straw yield (Khan *et al.*, 2010). Foliage application of micronutrients is beneficial for growth and yield of rice under saline soil conditions. Combined foliar application of Zn, Fe and Mn significantly improved the growth characters, yield and yield attributes of rice (Zayed *et al.*, 2011). Samanta *et al.* (2017) proposed that application of micronutrients such as Mo and B as foliar spray at active tillering and PI stages of rice had intense effect on yield and yield attributes of hybrid rice. Esfahani *et al.* (2014) revealed that in rice crop, the highest number of grains per panicle was obtained when a mixture of Fe+Zn and the Fe+Zn+Si were applied as foliar spray and the highest thousand grain weight was recorded with foliar spray of Zn + Si and also the combined application of these elements recorded the highest biomass weight and grain yield.

2.5 EFFECT OF NUTRIENTS ON PEST AND DISEASE

Plant nutrition is an important component of disease control (Huber and Wilhelm, 1988). Application of K profoundly improves plant tolerance to infection by most fungal pathogens (Amtmann *et al.*, 2008). Fertilization of soils deficient in available K reduces the pressure from diseases such as stem rot and sheath spot in rice (Williams and Smith, 2001). Potassium improves the rice tolerance to adverse climatic conditions, lodging, insect pests and diseases (Tiwari, 2002). Singh *et al.* (2003) stated that K imparts resistance against diseases and high concentrations of K ions in the cell sap will restricts insect attack. Vaithilingam and Baskaran (1985) examined the mechanism of resistance induced to insects in rice with increased application of K. Application of K decreases leaf blight severity and enhance the grain yields in wheat (Sharma and Duveiller, 2004; Sharma *et al.*, 2005).

Buck *et al.* (2008) found that foliar application of potassium silicate reduced the incidence of blast disease on rice. Abad-Ashtiani *et al.* (2012) reported that silicon fertilization is effective in controlling and reducing the rice blast severity. Application of Si is an effective method to reduce and to control the rice blast disease (Datnoff *et al.*, 1991; Seebold *et al.*, 2001; Hayasaka *et al.*, 2005). Silicon fertilization have significantly lowered the development of blast disease in rice plants (Qin, 1979; Zang, 1989). Rezende *et al.* (2009) found that foliar spray of silicon can reduce the intensity of brown spot in rice. Guevel *et al.* (2007) studied the foliar and root applications of different Si-based formulations for powdery mildew control in wheat.

Micronutrient disorders of Zn, Mn, B, Cu and Fe are widespread in India and correction of these nutritional disorders resulted in resistance to plant diseases (Agrios, 2005). The effect of micronutrients on reducing severity of diseases can be attributed with physiology and biochemistry of plants (Marschner, 1995). Micronutrient concentrations in plants are important in host ability to resist or tolerate infectious pathogens. Graham and Webb (1991) reported that application of Zn lowered the disease severity, by the toxic effect of Zn on the pathogen. Mn helps in controlling number of diseases as it plays an important role in lignin biosynthesis, phenol biosynthesis and photosynthesis.

Materials and methods

3. MATERIALS AND METHODS

An experiment entitled “Enhancing grain yield and quality through soil amelioration and foliar nutrition in Rice (*Oryza sativa* L.) in Vaikom *Kari* soils” was carried out during *puncha* season (October 2020 to February 2021), at farmer’s field in Vechoor area of Kottayam district of Kerala. The objective of the experiment was to augment the grain yield and quality of rice crops in Vaikom *Kari* soils through standardization of different soil amelioration practices to manage soil acidity and standardization of foliar spray of K and different micronutrients for supplementing nutrition at PI stage. Relevant details of methodologies adopted, materials used and practices employed at the time of research are described in this chapter.

3.1. MATERIALS

3.1.1 Experimental Site

The experiment was carried out in the field of Sri. Suresh Babu at Vechoor panchayat in Kottayam district during *Puncha* season (oct-feb) 2020-21. It is located at 9°44’56.02’’N latitude, 76°23’51.18’’E longitude and an altitude of about 3 m above MSL.

3.1.2 Soil

The soil of the experimental field which falls in the order Entisol (GoK, 1999) was sandy clay loam in texture, extremely acidic in reaction, with high OC and low available N and available P. Initial soil samples were collected from 15 cm depth of the experimental site and analysed for the chemical properties and is presented in Table 2.

3.1.3 Climate

The climate of experimental site was classified as humid tropical. Data on weather parameters were obtained from the Class B Agromet Observatory at Regional Agricultural Research Station, Kumarakom, Kottayam. The average maximum temperature was 32.73 °C and minimum temperature was 20.86 °C. Abstract of weather data is given in Table 2. The mean values of weather parameters recorded during the crop period (October to February) are furnished in Fig. 1.

3.1.4 Cropping Season

The field experiment was conducted during October 2020 to February 2021 (*puncha* in Kuttanad).

Table 1. Abstract of weather data during experimental period

Weather element	Range	Mean
Maximum temperature(°C)	29.35 - 34.30	32.73
Minimum temperature(°C)	18.50 - 22.10	20.86
Rainfall(mm)	78.64 - 82.86	80.44

Table 2. Chemical properties of soil in the experimental site

Sl.no.	Soil parameters	Unit	Content	Rating
1	pH	-	4.28	Extremely acidic
2	EC	dS m ⁻¹	0.70	Low
3	Organic carbon	%	3.93	High
4	Available Nitrogen	kg ha ⁻¹	188.16	Low
5	Available Phosphorus	kg ha ⁻¹	9.08	Low
6	Available Potassium	kg ha ⁻¹	210.88	Medium
7	Available Calcium	mg kg ⁻¹	301.56	High
8	Available Magnesium	mg kg ⁻¹	84	Low
9	Available Sulphur	mg kg ⁻¹	365	High
10	Available Iron	mg kg ⁻¹	351	Toxic
11	Available Manganese	mg kg ⁻¹	2.01	High
12	Available Zinc	mg kg ⁻¹	6.88	High
13	Available Copper	mg kg ⁻¹	3.58	High
14	Available Boron	mg kg ⁻¹	0.36	Low
15	Available Sodium	mg kg ⁻¹	220.73	High

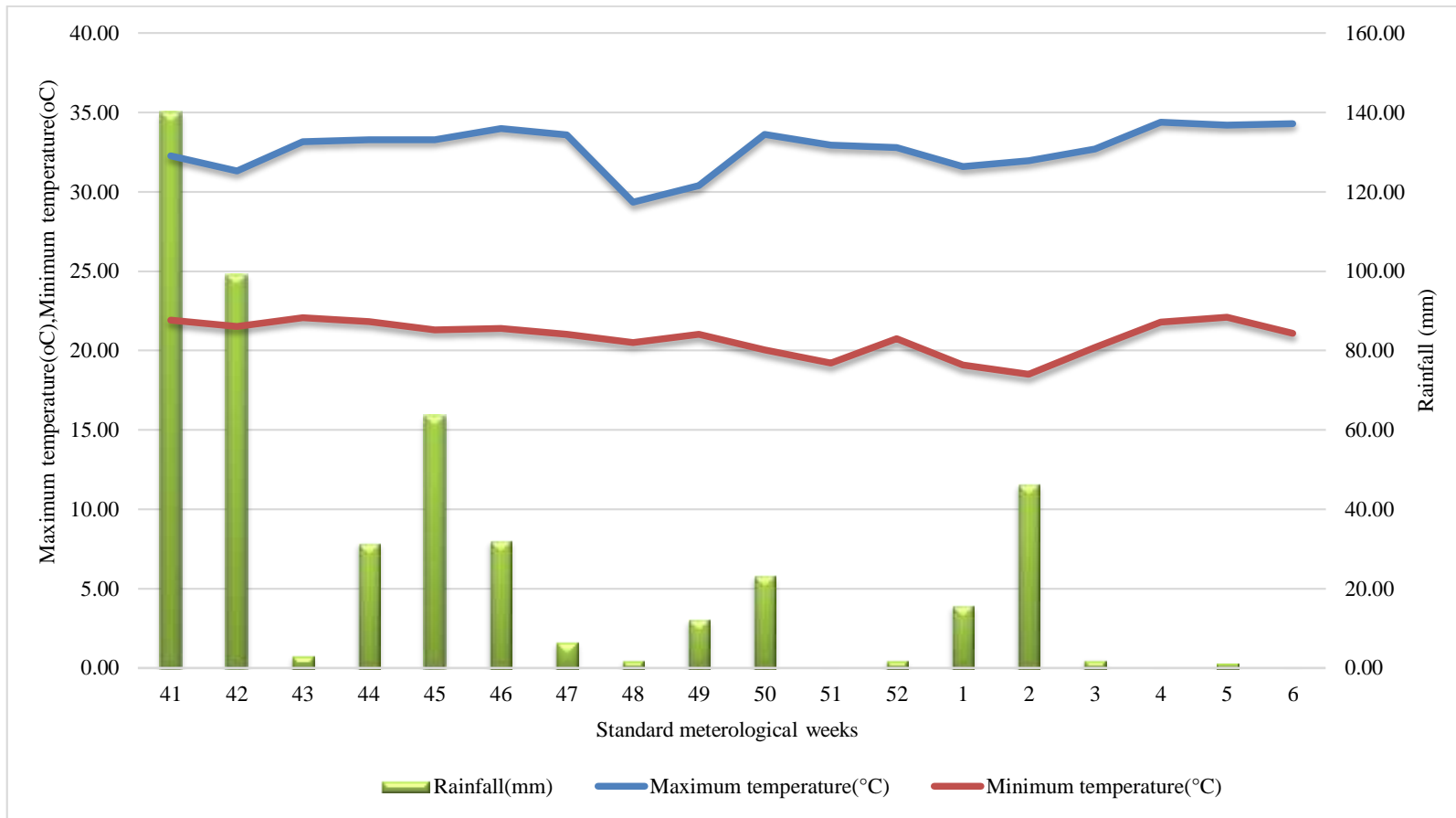


Fig. 1. Weather data prevailed during the crop season in standard weeks

3.1.5 Crop Variety

The rice variety Uma (MO-16) was used for the study. It is having red and medium bold grains and is a medium duration variety with duration of 115 to 120 days. It is non-lodging and resistant to brown plant hopper. It is suited for all the three seasons and is best suited for the additional crop season of Kuttanad (KAU, 2011).

3.1.6 Soil ameliorants

Ordinary dolomite (17.16 % Ca and 10.15% Mg) and Granulated dolomite (23 % Ca and 13 % Mg) were used as soil ameliorants for the correction of acidity and applied as per treatments.

3.1.7 Manures and Fertilizers

Urea (46% N), rajphos (20% P₂O₅) and muriate of potash (60% K₂O) were used as the sources of N, P, and K for soil application. Water soluble potassium nitrate (13:0:45), potassium silicate (34% K₂O) and micronutrient solution were used for foliar nutrition as per treatments.

3.1.8 Micronutrient solution

Micronutrient solution formulated at College of Agriculture, Padannakkad under Kerala Agricultural University was used for the experiment. It is a combination of two solutions, in which one litre of solution A contains ZnSO₄.7H₂O (50 g), CuSO₄.5H₂O (20 g), FeSO₄.7H₂O (10 g), H₃BO₃ (10 g), MnSO₄.H₂O (0.5g) and (NH₄)₆Mo₇O₂₄.4H₂O (0.5g) and solution B contains organic chelate.

3.2 METHODS

3.2.1 Design

Design	: Randomised Block design (RBD)
Number of treatments	: 15
Number of replications	: 3
Plot size	: 20 m ²
Spacing	: 20 cm x 10 cm

3.2.2 Treatments

Factor A- Dolomite (soil application; basal + 30 DAS application) (D)

1. D₀- without dolomite application.
2. D₁-Dolomite (ordinary) @500 kg ha⁻¹
3. D₂-Granulated dolomite @500 kg ha⁻¹

Factor B - Foliar nutrition (N)

1. N₀ - without foliar application.
2. N₁- FS* of K₂NO₃ (1%) at PI⁺⁺ stage.
3. N₂- FS of K₂SiO₃ (1%) at PI stage.
4. N₃- FS of KNO₃ (1%) + Micronutrient solution (0.5%) at PI stage.
5. N₄- FS of K₂SiO₃ (1%) +Micronutrient solution (0.5%) at PI stage.

Treatment combinations

- T₁ - Without dolomite application +Without foliar application.
- T₂ - Without dolomite application + FS of KNO₃ (1%) at PI stage.
- T₃ - Without dolomite application + FS of K₂SiO₃ (1%) at PI stage.
- T₄ - Without dolomite application + FS of KNO₃ (1%) + Micronutrient solution (0.5%) at PI stage.
- T₅ - Without dolomite application + FS of K₂SiO₃ (1%) +Micronutrient solution (0.5%) at PI stage.
- T₆ - Dolomite (ordinary) @500 kg ha⁻¹ + Without foliar application.
- T₇ - Dolomite (ordinary) @500 kg ha⁻¹ + FS of KNO₃ (1%) at PI stage.
- T₈ - Dolomite (ordinary) @500 kg ha⁻¹ + FS of K₂SiO₃ (1%) at PI stage.
- T₉- Dolomite (ordinary) @500 kg ha⁻¹+ FS of KNO₃ (1%) + Micronutrient solution (0.5%) at PI stage.
- T₁₀ - Dolomite (ordinary) @500 kg ha⁻¹+ FS of K₂SiO₃ (1%) +Micronutrient solution (0.5%) at PI stage.
- T₁₁- Granular dolomite @500 kg ha⁻¹ +Without foliar application.
- T₁₂ - Granular dolomite @500kg ha⁻¹ + FS of KNO₃ (1%) at PI stage.
- T₁₃ - Granular dolomite @500 kg ha⁻¹ + FS of K₂SiO₃ (1%) at PI stage.
- T₁₄ - Granular dolomite @500 kg ha⁻¹ + FS of KNO₃ (1%) + Micronutrient solution (0.5%) at PI stage.
- T₁₅ - Granular dolomite @500 kg ha⁻¹ + FS of K₂SiO₃ (1%) +Micronutrient solution (0.5%) at PI stage.

*FS-foliar spray, ++ PI- panicle initiation stage.

R₁ T₂	R₁ T₁₄	R₁ T₈	R₁ T₁	R₁ T₇
R₁ T₉	R₁ T₃	R₁ T₁₅	R₁ T₁₂	R₁ T₅
R₁ T₁₁	R₁ T₁₀	R₁ T₄	R₁ T₁₃	R₁ T₆
R₂ T₆	R₂ T₁₃	R₂ T₁₀	R₂ T₂	R₂ T₁₄
R₂ T₃	R₂ T₇	R₂ T₁	R₂ T₁₁	R₂ T₈
R₂ T₁₂	R₂ T₄	R₂ T₁₅	R₂ T₉	R₂ T₅
R₃ T₁₄	R₃ T₇	R₃ T₃	R₃ T₁₀	R₃ T₁₂
R₃ T₈	R₃ T₁	R₃ T₁₄	R₃ T₄	R₃ T₆
R₃ T₂	R₃ T₁₃	R₃ T₉	R₃ T₁₁	R₃ T₅

Fig. 2. Layout of the experimental field

The data on growth characters and soil analysis are not influenced by foliar nutrition at panicle initiation stage of crop. Hence the effect of foliar nutrition and the interaction effect of main treatments are not relevant on the same and was assessed in simple RBD with three treatments *viz.* levels of dolomite application same as mentioned above (D₀, D₁, D₂) and fifteen replications.

3.3 Field Experiment

3.3.1 Land Preparation

The experimental field was ploughed, puddled and laid out as per the technical programme. Soil samples were collected from the field for initial analysis. Proper irrigation facilities and drainage channels were provided.

3.3.2 Application of Soil Ameliorants

Ordinary dolomite and granulated dolomite @ 500 kg ha⁻¹ were applied in two splits of 300 kg as basal dose and 200 kg at 30 DAS.

3.3.3 Application of Fertilizers

Nitrogen, phosphorus and potassium fertilizers @ 90:45:45 kg ha⁻¹ were applied uniformly in all plots. Full dose of P as rajphos was applied as basal application along with ploughing. Nitrogen was applied through urea and K was applied through muriate of potash in three equal splits at 20 DAS, at tillering stage and at panicle initiation stage. Potassium nitrate and potassium silicate @ 1 % and micronutrient solution @ 0.5% were given as foliar spray as per treatment.

3.3.4 Seeds and Sowing

Seeds of rice var. Uma was soaked in water overnight, and kept for germination for 24 hours in gunny bag. The pre-germinated seeds were dibbled using seed drum at a spacing of 20 cm x 10 cm. The seeds are sown on 07.10.2020.

3.3.5 After cultivation

Post emergent herbicide Affinity (Carfentrazone Ethyl 40% DF) @ 4 g *a.i.* ha⁻¹ + 0.2% surfactant was sprayed at 15 DAS and gap filling, thinning and hand weeding were done at 30 DAS.

3.3.6 Plant Protection

The incidence of stem borer was noticed at PI stage of the crop which was controlled by soil application of Fertera (chlorantraniliprole 0.4% GR). Rice blast and brown leaf spot symptoms were also observed in the field.

3.3.7 Harvest

The crop was harvested manually on 08.02.2021. The observation plants were harvested separately. Each plot was harvested individually, threshed, winnowed and dried separately. The weight of grains from each plot was recorded.

3.4 OBSERVATIONS

Five plant samples were chosen at random from each plot avoiding the border rows within the plots and labelled as observation plants for recording biometric data.

3.4.1 Growth Characters

3.4.1.1 Plant Height (cm)

Plant height was recorded at different growth stages such as maximum tillering (MT), Panicle initiation (PI) and harvest stages. The height was measured from the base of the plant at ground level to the tip of the longest leaf or ear head and expressed in centimetres.

3.4.1.2 Leaf Area Index

Leaf area index (LAI) was calculated at maximum tillering and Panicle initiation stages by using the formula proposed by Watson (1947).

$$\text{LAI} = \frac{\text{Total functional leaf area per plant (cm}^2\text{)}}{\text{Land area occupied per plant (cm}^2\text{)}}$$

3.4.1.3 Number of Tillers

Total number of tillers was recorded from the observation plants at MT, PI and harvest stages, average was worked out and recorded as number of tillers m⁻².

3.4.1.4 Total Dry Matter Production (TDMP)

The observation plants from each plot were uprooted at harvest and fresh weight was recorded. Uprooted plants were washed and separated into grain and straw, initially shade dried and later oven dried at 60°C to a constant weight. The average values were recorded and used for computing total dry matter production and expressed in t ha⁻¹.

3.4.2 Yield and Yield Attributes

3.4.2.1 Number of Productive Tillers

Number of productive tillers in observation plants was counted at harvest and expressed as number of productive tillers m⁻².

3.4.2.2 Thousand Grain Weight

Thousand grains were counted from sample grains of each individual plot and the weight was recorded in g.

3.4.2.3 Percentage of filled grains

Percentage of filled grains was calculated using the formula,

$$\text{Percentage of filled grains} = \frac{\text{Number of filled grains panicle}^{-1}}{\text{Total number of grains panicle}^{-1}} \times 100$$

3.4.2.4 Grain Yield

After harvesting, threshed and cleaned grains were dried to 14 per cent moisture level and grain yield per individual plot was recorded and expressed in t ha⁻¹.

3.4.2.5 Straw Yield

Straw harvested from each individual plot was dried to a constant weight and the weight was expressed as t ha⁻¹.

3.4.2.6 Harvest Index (HI)

HI was calculated using the equation suggested by Donald and Hamblin (1976).

$$\text{HI} = \frac{\text{Economic yield (grain yield t ha}^{-1}\text{)}}{\text{Biological yield [(grain yield + straw yield) t ha}^{-1}\text{]}}$$

3.4.3 Soil Analysis

A composite soil sample was collected at a depth of 0-15 cm from the experimental field before the experiment. After the experiment soil samples were collected from each individual plot at PI stage and harvest. Samples were air dried, grinded and sieved through 2 mm sieve and preserved for analysis. Analysis for OC, available macronutrients, micro nutrients and Na was carried out using standard procedures. Procedures followed for soil analysis is presented in Table 3.

3.4.4 Plant analysis

3.4.4.1 Nutrient Content of Grain and Straw

Plant samples were collected at harvest, separated into grain and straw, oven dried at 60°C to a constant weight and analysed for N, P, K, Ca, Mg, S, Fe, Mn, Zn, Cu, B and Na. Procedures followed for plant analysis is presented in Table 4.

3.4.5 Uptake of nutrients

Uptake of N, P, K, Ca, Mg and S by grain and straw was computed by multiplying nutrient content of each part with respective dry matter production in kg ha⁻¹. The total uptake of nutrients was also recorded and expressed in kg ha⁻¹.

3.5 PEST AND DISEASE INCIDENCE

Incidence of pest and disease was recorded from each experimental plot throughout the cropping period.

3.6 ECONOMIC ANALYSIS

Cost of cultivation was calculated considering the prevailing market price of inputs and MSP of paddy during the cropping periods.

3.6.1 Gross return

Gross return was calculated using the market price of grain and straw. For calculating gross returns marketable yield is considered instead of total yield.

3.6.2 Net returns

The net return per hectare under each treatment was obtained by subtracting cost of cultivation from gross returns.

3.6.3 Benefit cost ratio (BCR)

Benefit cost ratio is the ratio of gross returns to the total cost of cultivation.

$$\text{BCR} = \frac{\text{Gross return ha}^{-1} \text{ (Rs)}}{\text{Cost of cultivation ha}^{-1} \text{ (Rs)}}$$

3.7 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

The data collected from the field experiments was statistically analyzed by using analysis of variance (ANOVA) for Factorial RBD. It was then tested for its significance using GRAPES software for drawing conclusion.

Table 3. Procedures followed for soil analysis

Sl.no	Parameters	Method	Reference
1	pH	pH meter (1:2.5 soil water suspension)	Jackson (1973)
2	EC	Conductivity meter (1:2.5 soil water suspension)	Jackson (1973)
3	Organic carbon	Chromic acid wet oxidation method	Walkley and Black (1934)
4	Available N	Alkaline permanganate method	Subbiah and Asija (1956)
5	Available P	Bray No. 1 extraction and and spectrophotometer estimation	Bray and Kurtz (1945) and Jackson (1973)
6	Available K	Neutral normal ammonium acetate extraction and estimation using flame photometry	Jackson (1973)
7	Available Ca	Versanate titration method	Hesse (1971)
8	Available Mg	Versanate titration method	Hesse (1971)
9	Available S	Calcium chloride extraction and turbidimetry and estimation using spectrophotometer	Tabatabai (1982)
10	Available Fe	HCl extraction and estimation using Atomic absorption spectroscopy	Sims and Johnson (1991)
11	Available Mn	HCl extraction and estimation using Atomic absorption spectroscopy	Sims and Johnson (1991)
12	Available Zn	HCl extraction and estimation using Atomic absorption spectroscopy	Emmel <i>et al.</i> (1977)
13	Available Cu	HCl extraction and estimation using Atomic absorption spectroscopy	Emmel <i>et al.</i> (1977)
14	Available B	Hot water extraction and spectrophotometer estimation	Bingham (1982)
15	Exchangeable Na	Neutral normal ammonium acetate extraction and estimation using flame photometry	Jackson (1973)

Table 4. Procedures followed for plant analysis

Sl.no.	Parameters	Procedure of analysis	Reference
1	Total N	Single acid (H ₂ SO ₄) digestion followed by distillation	Jackson (1973)
2	Total P	Di-acid digestion followed by vanado molybdo-phosphoric yellow colour method	Jackson (1973)
3	Total K	Di-acid digestion followed by flame photometry	Piper (1967)
4	Total Ca	Di-acid digestion followed by Atomic Absorption Spectroscopy	Issac and Kerber (1971)
5	Total Mg	Di-acid digestion followed by Atomic Absorption Spectroscopy	Issac and Kerber (1971)
6	Total S	Di-acid digestion followed by CaCl ₂ turbidimetry and spectrophotometer estimation	Bhargava and Raghupathi (1995)
7	Total Fe	Di-acid digestion followed by Atomic Absorption Spectroscopy	Lindsay and Norvell (1978)
8	Total Mn	Di-acid digestion followed by Atomic Absorption Spectroscopy	Lindsay and Norvell (1978)
9	Total Zn	Di-acid digestion followed by Atomic Absorption Spectroscopy	Lindsay and Norvell (1978)
10	Total Cu	Di-acid digestion followed by Atomic Absorption Spectroscopy	Lindsay and Norvell (1978)
11	Total B	Dry ashing and azomethine yellow colour method followed by spectrophotometer estimation	Gaines and Mitchel (1979) and Bingham (1982)
12	Total Na	Di-acid digestion followed by flame photometry	Piper (1967)



Plate 1. Field layout



Plate 2. Sowing



Plate 3. Gap filling



Plate 4. Dolomite application



Plate 5. Maximum tillering stage



Plate 6. Panicle initiation stage



Plate 7. Foliar nutrition at PI stage



Plate 8. Harvesting stage



Plate 9. Harvesting



Plate 10. Harvested paddy



Plate 11. Threshing



Plate 12. General view of the experimental plot at 30 DAS



Plate 13. General view of the experimental plot at harvesting stage

Results

4. RESULTS

A field experiment entitled “Enhancing grain yield and quality through soil amelioration and foliar nutrition in Rice (*Oryza sativa* L.) in Vaikom Kari soils” was conducted in farmer's field at Vechoor, during *pucha* season of October 2020 to February 2021 to augment grain yield and quality of rice crops in *Vaikom kari* soils. The results that are obtained from the experiment were statistically analysed and presented in this chapter.

4.1 GROWTH CHARACTERS

Growth characters such as plant height (cm), number of tillers (m^2), leaf area index and total dry matter production ($t\ ha^{-1}$) were recorded during different growth stages of crop. The data on growth characters were not influenced by foliar nutrition at PI stage of crop. Hence the effect of foliar nutrition and the interaction effect of main treatments are not relevant on the same except in total dry matter production ($t\ ha^{-1}$).

4.1.1 Plant height (cm)

The mean data on plant height recorded at different growth stages *viz.* MT, PI and harvesting stages are given in Table 5. Effect of dolomite application on plant height was not significant at maximum tillering stage. Application of granulated dolomite as basal + 30 DAS (D_2) recorded the highest values (89 cm and 103.73 cm respectively) at PI and harvest stages compared to other treatments.

4.1.2 Number of tillers (m^{-2})

Data on treatment effect of dolomite application on number of tillers are presented in Table 5. The data on number of tillers showed significant difference between the treatments. Granulated dolomite application as basal + 30 DAS (D_2) recorded the highest number of tillers m^{-2} at MT and PI stages (562.16 and 779.04 respectively) which was on par with ordinary dolomite application as basal + 30 DAS (D_1).

4.1.3 Leaf Area Index (LAI)

Dolomite application showed significant effect on LAI at MT and PI stages and are presented in Table 5. The data on LAI at MT and PI stages were found to be the highest (5.47 and 6.33 respectively) with application of granulated dolomite as basal +30 DAS (D₂) and was on par with ordinary dolomite application (D₁) at PI stage.

Table 5. Effect of soil amelioration practices on growth characters

Treatment	Plant height (cm)			No of tillers m ⁻²		LAI	
	MT	PI	Harvest	MT	PI	MT	PI
T1	67.33	78.20	100.66	428.84	548.88	4.76	5.27
T2	65.93	82.80	98.73	515.50	750.97	5.32	6.32
T3	69.13	89.00	103.73	562.16	779.04	5.47	6.33
SEm (±)	1.03	1.99	0.73	21.03	32.35	0.07	0.03
CD(0.05)	NS	5.72	2.11	61.33	93.73	0.20	0.08

4.1.4 Total dry matter production (TDMP)

Data on influence of soil amelioration, foliar nutrition and their interaction effects on total dry matter production are given in Table 6. The data on TDMP was recorded during harvesting stage. Application of granulated dolomite as basal + 30 DAS recorded significantly higher dry matter production (15.05 t ha⁻¹) than the other treatments.

Foliar application of potassium nitrate at 1% gave the highest dry matter production (14.96 kg ha⁻¹) which was on par with all other treatments except treatment without foliar application.

4.2 YIELD AND YIELD ATTRIBUTES

Soil amelioration, foliar nutrition and their interaction effects influenced the yield and yield attributes of rice such as number of productive tillers m⁻², thousand grain weight (g) and percentage of filled grains (%) which are given in Table 7. The mean data on grain yield, straw yield and harvest index recorded are also presented in Table 7.

4.2.1 Number of productive tillers

Number of productive tillers m^{-2} was significantly influenced by soil amelioration, foliar nutrition and their interaction (Table 7). Number of productive tillers was significantly higher (564.38) in granulated dolomite as basal + 30 DAS (D_2) compared to D_0 and D_1 .

Foliar nutrition and the interaction of main treatments failed to produce a significant effect on number of productive tillers m^{-2} .

4.2.2 Percentage of filled grains (%)

The influence of soil amelioration practices and foliar nutrition on filled grain percentage is shown in Table 7. Treatment with granulated dolomite as basal + 30 DAS (D_2) registered higher percentage (89.32%) of filled grains. In case of foliar nutrition, application of potassium nitrate (1%) obtained the highest percentage (89.04 %) of filled grains which was on par to all other treatments except treatment without foliar application.

Effect of main treatment interactions were not significant on filled grain percentage.

4.2.3 Thousand grain weight (g)

Treatment effect of thousand grain weight with respect to soil amelioration, foliar nutrition and their interaction are given in Table 7. Thousand grain weight was the highest in D_2 (28.35 g) with granulated dolomite as basal + 30 DAS compared to D_0 and D_1 .

In case of foliar application higher 1000 grain weight was recorded in N_1 (28.56 g) which was on par with N_3 (28.42 g) compared to other treatments.

Thousand grain weight was not significantly influenced by the interaction of soil amelioration practices and foliar nutrition.

Table 6. Effect of soil amelioration, foliar nutrition and their interaction effects on total dry matter production at harvest (t ha⁻¹)

Treatments	Grain dry matter yield (t ha ⁻¹)	Straw dry matter yield (t ha ⁻¹)	Total dry matter yield (t ha ⁻¹)
Dolomite Application			
D ₀	5.65	7.12	12.78
D ₁	6.07	6.84	12.91
D ₂	6.50	8.54	15.05
SEm (±)	0.196	0.305	0.45
CD(P < 0.05)	0.569	0.884	1.32
Foliar nutrition			
N ₀	5.18	6.32	11.50
N ₁	6.40	8.56	14.96
N ₂	6.08	7.55	13.64
N ₃	6.43	7.77	14.21
N ₄	6.29	7.31	13.60
SEm (±)	0.254	0.394	0.590
CD(P < 0.05)	0.735	1.141	1.710
Interaction effects			
D ₀ N ₀	4.64	5.56	10.21
D ₀ N ₁	5.85	8.10	13.95
D ₀ N ₂	5.72	7.16	12.89
D ₀ N ₃	6.13	7.26	13.39
D ₀ N ₄	5.92	7.53	13.46
D ₁ N ₀	5.23	5.89	11.12
D ₁ N ₁	6.36	8.48	14.85
D ₁ N ₂	6.08	7.46	13.55
D ₁ N ₃	6.45	6.72	13.17
D ₁ N ₄	6.23	5.65	11.88
D ₂ N ₀	5.66	7.50	13.16
D ₂ N ₁	6.98	9.11	16.09
D ₂ N ₂	6.45	8.02	14.47
D ₂ N ₃	6.72	9.35	16.08
D ₂ N ₄	6.71	8.76	15.47
SEm (±)	0.439	0.682	1.02
CD(0.05)	NS	NS	NS

Table 7. Effect of dolomite application, foliar nutrition and their interaction effects on yield attributes and yield

Treatments	Productive tillers m ⁻²	Percentage of filled grains (%)	Thousand grain weight (g)	Grain yield (t ha ⁻¹)	Straw yield (t ha ⁻¹)	Harvest index
Dolomite Application						
D ₀	413.41	87.19	25.94	5.86	7.09	0.44
D ₁	488.84	87.81	27.19	6.38	7.41	0.47
D ₂	564.38	89.32	28.35	6.79	8.78	0.43
SEm (±)	23.48	0.492	0.247	0.185	0.331	0.008
CD(0.05)	68.03	1.42	0.716	0.535	0.959	0.023
Foliar nutrition						
N ₀	485.34	86.10	25.09	5.47	6.58	0.456
N ₁	503.65	89.04	28.56	6.63	8.91	0.429
N ₂	455.51	88.49	27.11	6.29	7.81	0.447
N ₃	499.95	88.59	28.42	6.76	7.94	0.464
N ₄	499.95	88.30	26.62	6.57	7.57	0.472
SEm (±)	30.32	0.635	0.319	0.238	0.427	0.010
CD(0.05)	NS	1.83	0.924	0.691	1.23	NS
Interaction effects						
D ₀ N ₀	445.03	85.80	23.54	4.83	5.85	0.45
D ₀ N ₁	388.85	88.07	25.83	6.21	8.50	0.43
D ₀ N ₂	399.96	87.47	26.98	5.80	7.51	0.44
D ₀ N ₃	411.07	87.87	26.00	6.33	7.40	0.46
D ₀ N ₄	422.18	86.74	27.39	6.14	7.81	0.44
D ₁ N ₀	422.18	83.71	25.37	5.50	6.08	0.47
D ₁ N ₁	555.50	89.09	27.18	6.55	8.75	0.42
D ₁ N ₂	411.07	88.33	28.99	6.30	7.70	0.45
D ₁ N ₃	566.61	88.96	26.53	6.91	7.01	0.50
D ₁ N ₄	488.84	88.95	27.88	6.65	5.93	0.53
D ₂ N ₀	588.83	88.79	26.38	6.08	7.83	0.44
D ₂ N ₁	566.61	89.98	28.33	7.13	9.48	0.43
D ₂ N ₂	555.50	89.69	29.71	6.76	8.21	0.45
D ₂ N ₃	522.17	88.94	27.35	7.05	9.40	0.43
D ₂ N ₄	588.83	89.21	29.98	6.93	8.96	0.44
SEm (±)	52.51	1.10	0.553	0.413	0.74	0.018
CD(0.05)	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS

4.2.4 Grain yield (t ha⁻¹)

The influence of soil amelioration, foliar nutrition and their interaction effect on grain yield are presented in Table 7. The effect of dolomite application was found to be significant among treatments. Granulated dolomite as basal + 30 DAS (D₂) registered the highest (6.79 t ha⁻¹) grain yield which was on par with D₁ and the lowest grain yield (5.86 t ha⁻¹) was recorded for treatment without dolomite application (D₀).

Foliar spray of 1% potassium nitrate + 0.5% micronutrient solution (N₃) obtained higher yield (6.76 t ha⁻¹) which was on par with all other treatments except treatment without foliar application (N₀) which recorded the lowest grain yield (5.47 t ha⁻¹).

No significant difference was observed on grain yield with regard to interaction of dolomite application with foliar nutrition.

4.2.5 Straw yield (t ha⁻¹)

The straw yield after harvest was recorded and given in the Table 7. The straw yield was significantly influenced by soil amelioration practices. The highest straw yield was obtained by the treatment with granulated dolomite as basal + 30 DAS (8.78 t ha⁻¹) and the lowest straw yield was obtained for treatment without dolomite application.

With regard to foliar nutrition, foliar spray of KNO₃ at 1% recorded higher straw yield (8.91 t ha⁻¹) which was on par with N₃ and the lowest yield was recorded for N₀.

Interaction effect of soil amelioration and foliar nutrition was not significant with respect to straw yield.

4.2.6 Harvest index

Harvest index was significantly influenced by soil amelioration practices (Table 7) and was not influenced by foliar nutrition and their interaction effects. Ordinary dolomite application as basal+30 DAS obtained highest HI (0.47) compared to other treatments.

4.3 SOIL ANALYSIS

The data on chemical properties of the soil analysed at PI stage and after harvest are presented in Tables 8 to 12. The soil characteristics were not influenced by foliar nutrition at PI stage of crop, hence the effect of foliar nutrition and the interaction effect of main treatments are not relevant for the same.

4.3.1 Soil pH

The data presented in Table 8 reveals that pH was significantly influenced by soil amelioration practices. Soil pH gradually increased from the initial value of 4.28 (Table 4) in all the treatments at PI stage. The highest pH (5.40) was obtained on application of granulated dolomite as basal + 30 DAS (D₂) and the lowest pH (4.38) was obtained in D₀.

After harvest the soil pH declined in all the treatments. At harvest also the highest pH was obtained for D₂ (4.26) and the lowest pH was obtained in D₀ (3.13).

4.3.2 Electrical conductivity

The soil EC was significantly influenced by soil amelioration practices. EC decreased at panicle initiation stage and increased at harvest stage from the initial value 0.70 dS m⁻¹ (Table 4) as seen in Table 8. The treatment without dolomite application (D₀) recorded the highest EC at both panicle initiation and harvest stages (0.71 dS m⁻¹ and 1.80 dS m⁻¹ respectively) compared to D₁ and D₂.

4.3.3 Organic carbon

Soil amelioration practices had a significant influence on OC content both at panicle initiation and harvesting stages (Table 8). Initial value obtained was 3.93% (Table 4) which increased at PI stage and decreased at harvesting stage. The highest OC content (4.26% and 3.31% respectively) was recorded with granulated dolomite as basal + 30 DAS (D₂), at both PI and harvest stage compared to D₀ and D₁.

Table 8. Effect of soil amelioration practices on pH, EC and OC in soil at PI stage

Treatment	pH		EC (dS m ⁻¹)		OC (%)	
	PI	Harvest	PI	Harvest	PI	Harvest
D ₀	4.38	3.13	0.71	1.80	3.18	2.19
D ₁	5.06	4.09	0.55	1.71	3.91	3.15
D ₂	5.40	4.26	0.47	1.51	4.26	3.31
SEm (±)	0.03	0.02	0.01	0.01	0.05	0.01
CD(0.05)	0.09	0.07	0.02	0.05	0.16	0.05

4.3.4 Available N

The data on available N in the soil are given in Table 9. The available N was significantly influenced by soil amelioration practices at PI stage. Application of granulated dolomite as basal + 30 DAS recorded the highest N content of soil (369.58 kg ha⁻¹) compared to D₀ and D₁.

Different soil amelioration practices did not have any significant influence on available N content of soil at harvest stage.

4.3.5 Available P

Available P content of the soil was significantly influenced by soil amelioration practices at panicle initiation stage (Table 9). The highest soil available P (16.05 kg ha⁻¹) was obtained with granulated dolomite as basal + 30 DAS (D₂) which was on par with ordinary dolomite as basal + 30 DAS (D₁).

It can be seen from Table 9 that the soil amelioration practices failed to express significant effect on available P content of soil at harvest.

4.3.6 Available K

Data on available K status of the soil as influenced by soil amelioration practices are given in Table 9. Soil amelioration practices had significant effect on soil available K at PI and harvest stages. Granulated dolomite as basal + 30 DAS recorded significantly higher status (404.71 kg ha⁻¹ and 246.38 kg ha⁻¹) of available K which was on par with ordinary dolomite application at both the stages.

Table 9. Effect of soil amelioration practices on N, P and K in soil at PI and harvest stages.

Treatment	N (kg ha ⁻¹)		P (kg ha ⁻¹)		K (kg ha ⁻¹)	
	PI	Harvest	PI	Harvest	PI	Harvest
D ₀	303.05	250.88	11.58	6.71	321.97	185.82
D ₁	354.86	275.96	16.05	7.07	372.06	244.18
D ₂	369.58	257.15	14.75	6.56	404.71	246.38
SEm (±)	4.88	19.88	0.42	0.42	17.25	13.48
CD(0.05)	14.13	NS	1.22	NS	49.97	39.07

4.3.7 Available Ca

The data obtained for soil available Ca are depicted in Table 10. At PI stage, application of granulated dolomite as basal + 30 DAS recorded the highest available Ca content in soil (576 mg kg⁻¹) compared to other treatments. At harvest, soil available Ca content was less compared to PI stage and D₂ obtained the highest (424 mg kg⁻¹) calcium content which was on par with D₁.

4.3.8 Available Mg

Available Mg content was significantly influenced by soil amelioration practices as seen in Table 10. The initial Mg content (84 mg kg⁻¹) in soil was very low and it increased during cropping period. At PI stage the highest soil Mg content (131.70 mg kg⁻¹) was obtained in treatment with application of granulated dolomite as basal + 30 DAS (D₂) and at harvesting stage (113.53 mg kg⁻¹), it was on par with D₁.

4.3.9 Available S

Data on effect of soil amelioration practices on available sulphur in the soil is shown in Table 10. The soil was initially higher in S (301.5 mg kg⁻¹) which gradually decreased during cropping period. The treatment without dolomite application recorded significantly higher content of soil available sulphur at both PI and harvesting stages (177.04 mg kg⁻¹ and 227.06 mg kg⁻¹ respectively) which was on par with treatment with ordinary dolomite application as basal + 30 DAS. Granulated dolomite as basal+30 DAS registered significantly lower values at PI and harvest stages.

Table 10. Effect of soil amelioration practices on Ca, Mg and S in soil at PI and harvest stages

Treatment	Ca (mg kg ⁻¹)		Mg (mg kg ⁻¹)		S (mg kg ⁻¹)	
	PI	Harvest	PI	Harvest	PI	Harvest
D ₀	444.31	341.33	110.98	95.86	177.04	227.06
D ₁	543.30	408.00	120.65	106.36	173.05	212.73
D ₂	576.00	424.00	131.70	113.53	158.92	191.73
SEm (±)	6.73	19.08	2.81	4.14	4.06	7.12
CD(0.05)	19.49	55.56	8.15	8.15	11.77	20.62

4.3.10 Available Fe

Data on available Fe content in the soil as influenced by soil amelioration practices are furnished in Table 11. The soil was with high iron toxicity. The soil available Fe content decreased due to soil amelioration practices. The treatment without dolomite application was superior with respect to soil available Fe at both PI and harvesting stages (411.99 mg kg⁻¹ and 333.20 mg kg⁻¹) compared to other treatments. Granulated dolomite as basal + 30 DAS registered significantly lower values at both the stages.

4.3.11 Available Mn

The data on available Mn status as influenced by soil amelioration practices is depicted in Table 11. Significantly higher soil Mn content (3.74 mg kg⁻¹) was recorded by the treatment with ordinary dolomite as basal+30 DAS (D₁) which was on par with D₂ at harvesting stage. No significant effect of soil amelioration practices on available Mn status of soil was noticed at PI stage.

4.3.12 Available Zn

The data on available Zn content in soil is given in Table 11. Effect of soil amelioration practices was found to be non - significant on soil available zinc content at both PI and harvest stages.

4.3.13 Available Cu

Available Cu content also showed similar trend as in Zn (Table 12). Soil amelioration practices failed to express significant effect on soil available Cu at both PI and harvesting stages.

Table 11. Effect of soil amelioration practices on Fe, Mn and Zn in soil at PI and harvest stages

Treatment	Fe (mg kg ⁻¹)		Mn (mg kg ⁻¹)		Zn (mg kg ⁻¹)	
	PI	Harvest	PI	Harvest	PI	Harvest
D ₀	333.20	411.99	2.60	3.44	2.93	6.01
D ₁	312.13	335.32	2.72	3.74	3.17	6.53
D ₂	283.46	325.03	2.70	3.72	3.20	6.57
SEm (±)	4.57	7.74	0.12	0.089	0.10	0.22
CD(0.05)	13.25	22.42	NS	0.258	NS	NS

4.3.14 Available B

Available B content in the soil was significantly influenced by soil amelioration practices as presented in Table 12. Granulated dolomite as basal + 30 DAS (D₂) recorded the highest soil available B (0.550 mg kg⁻¹) at PI stage and at harvest the available B status was on par with D₁ (0.430 mg kg⁻¹ and 0.410 mg kg⁻¹ respectively). The lowest available B was obtained for treatment without dolomite application (D₀).

4.3.15 Available Na

Table 12 depicts the effect of soil amelioration practices on available Na content in soil. The sodium content in the soil decreased from the initial value (220.73 mg kg⁻¹) at all the stages. At both PI and harvesting stage treatment without dolomite application (D₀) obtained the highest value (211.79 mg kg⁻¹ and 209.87 mg kg⁻¹ respectively) compared to all other treatments.

Table 12. Effect of soil amelioration practices on Cu, B and Na in soil at PI and harvest stages

Treatment	Cu (mg kg ⁻¹)		B (mg kg ⁻¹)		Na (mg kg ⁻¹)	
	PI	Harvest	PI	Harvest	PI	Harvest
D ₀	0.95	1.88	0.460	0.353	211.79	209.87
D ₁	0.95	1.99	0.480	0.410	175.27	175.87
D ₂	1.03	2.04	0.550	0.430	183.81	174.31
SEm (±)	0.05	0.07	0.02	0.018	5.90	5.54
CD(0.05)	NS	NS	0.06	0.053	17.10	16.07

4.4 PLANT ANALYSIS

4.4.1. Nutrient Content in Grain and Straw at Harvest

Nutrient status of grain and straw at harvest stage as influenced by soil amelioration, foliar nutrition and their interaction effects are presented in Table 13, 14, 15 and 16.

4.4.1.1 Nitrogen

The N content in grain and straw was analysed at harvest and the values are presented in Table 13.

Nitrogen content in grain responded significantly to soil amelioration practices and higher N content was recorded in D₂ (1.79%) which was on par with D₁. With regard to N content in straw no significant difference was observed between soil amelioration practices.

Foliar nutrition of potassium nitrate (1%) + micronutrient solution (0.5%) (N₃) recorded the highest N content in grain (2.30%) and foliar nutrition of 1% potassium nitrate (N₁) and N₃ obtained significantly higher N content in straw (1.94 % and 1.93%, respectively). Significantly lower N content was obtained in N₀ for both grain and straw.

Among the treatment combinations, granulated dolomite as basal + 30 DAS along with potassium nitrate (1%) + micronutrient solution (0.5%) (D₂N₃) recorded higher N content in grain (2.71 %) which was on par with D₂N₄, D₁N₃ and D₁N₁ and

ordinary dolomite as basal + 30 DAS along with N₃ (D₁N₃) obtained the highest N content in straw (2.25 %).

4.4.1.2 Phosphorus

Phosphorus content of grain and straw was significantly influenced by soil amelioration practices, foliar nutrition and their interaction and data are given in Table 13. Among soil amelioration practices, the highest P content in grain was observed with D₂ (0.345 %), which was on par with D₁ (0.344 %) and in straw, the highest P content was observed with D₀.

In grain, foliar nutrition of potassium nitrate (1%) + micronutrient solution (0.5%) (N₃) recorded the highest P content (0.347%) which was on par with N₀ and was significantly superior to other treatments. Maximum P content in straw (0.208%) was observed with foliar nutrition of (1%) potassium nitrate (N₁).

Among treatment combinations, D₁N₁ recorded higher P content in grain (0.376%) which was on par with D₂N₃ and in straw higher P content was obtained in D₀N₁ (0.247 %).

4.4.1.3 Potassium

Potassium content in grain and straw was significantly influenced by individual treatments and their interactions (Table 13). In grain and straw, higher K content (1.31% and 1.79% respectively) was recorded in D₂ compared to other treatments.

Foliar application of 1% potassium nitrate (N₁) recorded the highest K content in both grain and straw (1.49 % and 1.86 % respectively).

Significant interaction effects between soil amelioration practices and foliar nutrition on K content was observed. Significantly higher K content in grain (1.77 %) was recorded by application of granulated dolomite as basal + 30 DAS along with foliar application of 1 % potassium nitrate (D₂N₁) and in straw, treatment with application of ordinary dolomite along with foliar spray of 1 % potassium silicate (D₁N₂) obtained the highest (1.99%) K content which was on par with D₂N₁, D₂N₂, D₂N₃ and D₂N₄.

4.4.1.4 Calcium

Soil amelioration practices, foliar nutrition and their interaction significantly influenced the Ca content in grain and straw (Table 14). The highest Ca content in both grain and straw was obtained by application of granulated dolomite as basal + 30 DAS (0.266% and 0.287% respectively). Foliar nutrition of potassium nitrate (1%) + micronutrient solution (0.5%) (N₃) registered higher Ca content in both grain and straw (0.267% and 0.288%) which was on par with foliar application of (1%) potassium nitrate (N₁) and was significantly superior to other treatments.

Application of granulated dolomite as basal + 30 DAS along with foliar nutrition of potassium nitrate (1%) + micronutrient solution (0.5%) (D₂N₃) obtained highest Ca content in grain (0.329 %) which was on par with D₂N₂ and D₁N₁. In straw, granulated dolomite as basal+30 DAS along with foliar nutrition of potassium silicate (1%) (D₂N₂) recorded higher Ca content (0.330%) which was on par with D₂N₃ and D₁N₁.

4.4.1.5 Magnesium

Treatment effect on Mg with respect to soil amelioration practices, foliar nutrition and their interaction is depicted in Table 14. Magnesium content in both grain and straw was significantly enhanced by granulated dolomite as basal + 30DAS (0.150% and 0.195 % respectively) compared to D₁ and D₀. Maximum Mg content in grain (0.155%) was recorded in treatment with foliar nutrition of 1 % potassium nitrate (N₁) which was on par with application of potassium silicate (1%) + micronutrient solution (0.5%) (N₄). In straw also, N₁ obtained the highest Mg content (0.184%) which was on par with N₀ and N₄.

Application of granulated dolomite as basal + 30 DAS along with foliar application of potassium silicate (1%) (D₂N₂) significantly enhanced the Mg content of grain (0.186%) and Mg content in straw was increased (0.213%) by the application of granulated dolomite as basal +30 DAS along with foliar nutrition of potassium nitrate (1%) + micronutrient solution (0.5%) followed by D₂N₂, D₂N₀, D₁N₄ and D₁N₁.

Table 13. Effect of dolomite application, foliar nutrition and their interaction effects on N, P and K content in grain and straw after harvest (%)

Dolomite Application	N (%)		P (%)		K (%)	
	Grain	Straw	Grain	Straw	Grain	Straw
D ₀	1.22	1.34	0.329	0.185	1.11	1.60
D ₁	1.72	1.43	0.344	0.173	1.19	1.67
D ₂	1.79	1.51	0.345	0.163	1.31	1.79
SEm (±)	0.097	0.081	0.003	0.002	0.017	0.026
CD(0.05)	0.282	NS	0.010	0.007	0.049	0.075
Foliar nutrition						
N ₀	0.97	0.85	0.346	0.171	1.00	1.41
N ₁	1.92	1.94	0.335	0.208	1.49	1.86
N ₂	1.02	1.19	0.331	0.158	1.14	1.75
N ₃	2.30	1.93	0.347	0.172	1.27	1.69
N ₄	1.66	1.25	0.337	0.160	1.13	1.73
SEm (±)	0.126	0.104	0.003	0.003	0.022	0.034
CD(0.05)	0.365	0.303	0.008	0.009	0.009	0.097
Interaction effects						
D ₀ N ₀	0.81	0.60	0.353	0.167	0.97	1.29
D ₀ N ₁	1.73	1.76	0.289	0.247	1.28	1.63
D ₀ N ₂	0.37	0.85	0.329	0.168	1.30	1.72
D ₀ N ₃	1.83	1.87	0.340	0.182	1.40	1.70
D ₀ N ₄	1.37	1.62	0.335	0.163	1.11	1.65
D ₁ N ₀	0.77	1.10	0.329	0.179	0.93	1.51
D ₁ N ₁	2.24	1.86	0.376	0.204	1.41	1.64
D ₁ N ₂	1.98	1.02	0.350	0.154	1.27	1.99
D ₁ N ₃	2.36	2.25	0.341	0.168	1.22	1.62
D ₁ N ₄	1.23	0.94	0.325	0.160	1.14	1.60
D ₂ N ₀	1.34	0.85	0.356	0.166	1.11	1.43
D ₂ N ₁	1.79	2.16	0.339	0.171	1.77	1.98
D ₂ N ₂	0.71	1.69	0.314	0.151	0.85	1.85
D ₂ N ₃	2.71	1.68	0.361	0.167	1.11	1.74
D ₂ N ₄	2.39	1.20	0.353	0.157	1.14	1.93
SEm (±)	0.200	0.181	0.006	0.005	0.038	0.158
CD(0.05)	0.591	0.524	0.016	0.015	0.109	0.169

Table 14. Effect of dolomite application, foliar nutrition and their interaction effects on Ca, Mg and S in grain and straw after harvest (%)

Dolomite Application	Ca (%)		Mg (%)		S (%)	
	Grain	Straw	Grain	Straw	Grain	Straw
D ₀	0.168	0.205	0.131	0.155	0.206	0.327
D ₁	0.245	0.275	0.136	0.167	0.240	0.263
D ₂	0.266	0.287	0.150	0.195	0.217	0.281
SEm (±)	0.004	0.003	0.002	0.004	0.035	0.009
CD(0.05)	0.012	0.010	0.004	0.011	NS	0.027
Foliar nutrition						
N ₀	0.213	0.250	0.144	0.176	0.183	0.303
N ₁	0.260	0.282	0.155	0.184	0.247	0.302
N ₂	0.237	0.263	0.138	0.164	0.227	0.209
N ₃	0.267	0.288	0.109	0.164	0.223	0.335
N ₄	0.153	0.197	0.151	0.173	0.225	0.302
SEm (±)	0.005	0.004	0.002	0.005	0.035	0.015
CD(0.05)	0.016	0.013	0.006	0.015	0.012	0.045
Interaction effects						
D ₀ N ₀	0.183	0.207	0.115	0.150	0.152	0.288
D ₀ N ₁	0.222	0.250	0.159	0.177	0.290	0.435
D ₀ N ₂	0.145	0.170	0.147	0.170	0.213	0.267
D ₀ N ₃	0.206	0.240	0.098	0.120	0.157	0.350
D ₀ N ₄	0.104	0.160	0.137	0.160	0.220	0.293
D ₁ N ₀	0.241	0.290	0.142	0.177	0.238	0.303
D ₁ N ₁	0.303	0.317	0.159	0.190	0.233	0.388
D ₁ N ₂	0.261	0.290	0.081	0.117	0.237	0.168
D ₁ N ₃	0.283	0.303	0.135	0.160	0.273	0.260
D ₁ N ₄	0.147	0.177	0.169	0.193	0.216	0.193
D ₂ N ₀	0.225	0.253	0.174	0.200	0.160	0.318
D ₂ N ₁	0.264	0.280	0.147	0.187	0.218	0.082
D ₂ N ₂	0.315	0.330	0.186	0.207	0.230	0.192
D ₂ N ₃	0.329	0.320	0.098	0.213	0.238	0.395
D ₂ N ₄	0.220	0.253	0.147	0.167	0.238	0.420
SEm (±)	0.009	0.008	0.003	0.009	0.021	0.027
CD(0.05)	0.027	0.022	0.01	0.025	0.061	0.077

4.4.1.6 Sulphur

The mean data on S content of grain and straw are presented in Table 14. No significant effect on S content in grain was seen by soil amelioration practices. In straw, treatment without dolomite application (D_0) recorded the highest (0.327%) S content compared to other treatments. Foliar nutrition of 1 % potassium nitrate (N_1) obtained higher S content in grain (0.247%) and in case of straw foliar nutrition of potassium nitrate (1%) + micronutrient solution (0.5%) (N_3) recorded the highest (0.335%) S content followed by all other treatments except N_2 .

Among interaction effects, treatment without dolomite application along with foliar nutrition of potassium nitrate (1%) recorded the highest S content (0.290% and 0.435% respectively) in both grain and straw and in straw it was on par with D_2N_4 , D_2N_3 and D_1N_1 .

4.4.1.7 Iron

The Fe content in grain and straw was significantly influenced by soil amelioration, foliar nutrition and their interaction and data are presented in Table 15. The treatment without dolomite application obtained the highest Fe content in both grain and straw (250.46 mg kg⁻¹ and 581.93 mg kg⁻¹ respectively) and in grain which was on par with D_1 . Foliar nutrition of potassium nitrate (1%) registered the highest Fe content in both grain and straw (256.33 mg kg⁻¹ and 655.60 mg kg⁻¹ respectively) compared to all other treatments.

Among interaction effects, application of granulated dolomite as basal+30 DAS along with foliar nutrition of potassium nitrate (1%) + micronutrient solution (0.5%) (D_2N_3) recorded the highest Fe content (293 mg kg⁻¹ and 944.33 mg kg⁻¹ respectively) in both grain and straw and in straw it was on par with D_1N_1 and D_0N_4 .

4.4.1.8 Manganese

Manganese content in grain and straw was significantly influenced by soil amelioration practices, foliar nutrition and their interactions and are presented in Table 15. The higher Mn content in grain (15.14 mg kg⁻¹) was obtained by application of ordinary dolomite as basal + 30 DAS and was on par with D_2 , and in straw application

of granulated dolomite as basal + 30 DAS recorded the highest (12.68 mg kg⁻¹) Mn content. Foliar nutrition of potassium nitrate (1%) + micronutrient solution (0.5%) recorded the highest (15.53 mg kg⁻¹ and 14.66 mg kg⁻¹ respectively) Mn content in both grain and straw compared to other treatments.

Application of granulated dolomite as basal + 30 DAS along with foliar nutrition of potassium nitrate (1%) + micronutrient solution (0.5%) (D₂N₃) obtained highest Mn (16.32 mg kg⁻¹) content in grain which was on par with D₂N₄ and D₁N₃. In straw foliar nutrition of potassium silicate (1%) + micronutrient solution (0.5%) recorded highest (16.01 mg kg⁻¹) Mn content which was on par with D₂N₃

4.4.1.9 Zinc

Zinc content of grain and straw was significantly influenced by soil amelioration practices, foliar nutrition and their interaction (Table 15). Among soil amelioration practices treatment without dolomite obtained the highest Zn content in grain (52.22 mg kg⁻¹) and in straw, application of dolomite as basal + 30 DAS recorded the highest Zn content (55.56 mg kg⁻¹). Foliar nutrition of potassium silicate (1%) + micronutrient solution (0.5%) (N₄) obtained highest Zn content (50.27 mg kg⁻¹ and 62 mg kg⁻¹ respectively) in both grain and straw compared to other treatments.

Treatment without dolomite application along with potassium silicate (1%) + micronutrient solution (0.5%) (D₀N₄) showed the highest Zn content (61.70 mg kg⁻¹) in grain and granulated dolomite as basal + 30 DAS along with FS of potassium silicate (1%) + micronutrient solution (0.5%) (D₂N₄) showed the highest Zn content (74.56 mg kg⁻¹) in straw which was significantly superior to all other treatments.

4.4.1.10 Copper

Data on the effect of soil amelioration practices, foliar nutrition and their interaction effects on Cu content in grain and straw are given in Table 14. The highest Cu content in grain (9.72 mg kg⁻¹) was obtained by treatment without dolomite application compared to other treatments. Significant effect was not observed in Cu content in straw with respect to soil amelioration practices. Foliar nutrition and their

interaction with soil amelioration practices did not influence the Cu content in grain significantly.

No major influence of soil amelioration practices, foliar nutrition and their interaction were observed in Cu content in straw.

4.4.1.11 Boron

The effect of soil amelioration, foliar nutrition and their interaction effects on B content in grain and straw are shown in Table 15. No significant effects were found on B content in grain due to soil amelioration practices, foliar nutrition and their interaction.

The effect of soil amelioration practices and foliar nutrition significantly influenced the B content in straw. Application of granulated dolomite as basal + 30 DAS obtained the highest (19.73 mg kg⁻¹) B content. In case of foliar nutrition, N₃ significantly enhanced the B content (20.44 mg kg⁻¹) followed by N₄. Interaction effects of main treatments were not significant.

4.4.1.12 Sodium

Soil amelioration practices, foliar nutrition and their interactions significantly influenced Na contents in grain and straw (Table 15). Sodium content in grain was highest (418.73 mg kg⁻¹) in application of granulated dolomite as basal+30 DAS and was on par with D₁. In straw, application of ordinary dolomite as basal + 30 DAS obtained highest (7047.60 mg kg⁻¹) Na content. With regard to foliar nutrition, in grain, foliar spray of potassium silicate (1%) was significantly superior (445.66 mg kg⁻¹) to other treatments and in straw N₄ obtained the highest Na content (7908.67 mg kg⁻¹) which was on par with N₁.

Among interactions, treatment with no dolomite along with potassium silicate (1%) (D₀N₂) obtained the highest (604.66 mg kg⁻¹) Na content in grain and in straw ordinary dolomite as basal+30 DAS along with of potassium silicate (1%) + micronutrient solution (0.5%) (D₁N₄) recorded the highest (9939.33 mg kg⁻¹) Na content.

Table 15. Effect of dolomite application, foliar nutrition and their interaction effects on Fe, Mn and Zn in grain and straw after harvest (mg kg⁻¹)

Dolomite Application	Fe (mg kg ⁻¹)		Mn (mg kg ⁻¹)		Zn (mg kg ⁻¹)	
	Grain	Straw	Grain	Straw	Grain	Straw
D ₀	250.46	581.93	13.26	10.97	52.22	40.95
D ₁	241.20	492.80	15.14	12.31	33.11	45.21
D ₂	233.33	472.93	14.86	12.68	33.34	55.56
SEm (±)	3.53	9.47	0.093	0.089	0.23	0.59
CD(P < 0.05)	10.25	27.44	0.271	0.258	0.68	1.73
Foliar nutrition						
N ₀	235.77	504.11	13.23	10.97	36.92	39.51
N ₁	256.33	713.66	13.72	12.31	36.85	45.41
N ₂	220.55	403.88	14.73	12.68	32.71	37.04
N ₃	254.11	609.44	15.53	14.66	41.02	52.24
N ₄	241.55	593.11	14.89	14.19	50.27	62.00
SEm (±)	4.56	12.23	0.121	0.115	0.30	0.77
CD(0.05)	13.23	35.43	0.350	0.333	0.88	2.23
Interaction effects						
D ₀ N ₀	241.33	283.33	11.03	10.11	45.26	37.10
D ₀ N ₁	266.00	806.33	12.68	11.24	46.73	36.20
D ₀ N ₂	237.00	447.66	15.35	12.04	38.73	28.46
D ₀ N ₃	218.66	408.33	14.18	13.16	58.66	37.46
D ₀ N ₄	289.33	419.00	13.07	12.35	61.70	65.53
D ₁ N ₀	211.66	563.33	15.39	11.54	30.46	43.80
D ₁ N ₁	291.00	487.66	14.12	13.12	32.83	43.80
D ₁ N ₂	228.00	371.00	14.68	12.89	27.10	38.36
D ₁ N ₃	250.66	475.66	16.10	15.15	31.03	54.20
D ₁ N ₄	224.66	566.33	15.42	14.21	44.13	45.90
D ₂ N ₀	254.33	665.66	13.28	11.27	35.03	37.63
D ₂ N ₁	212.00	847.00	14.36	12.57	31.00	56.23
D ₂ N ₂	196.66	393.00	14.18	13.11	32.30	44.30
D ₂ N ₃	293.00	944.33	16.32	15.67	33.36	65.06
D ₂ N ₄	210.66	794.00	16.19	16.01	35.00	74.56
SEm (±)	7.91	21.18	0.209	0.199	0.52	1.33
CD(0.05)	22.92	61.37	0.609	0.577	1.53	3.87

Table 16. Effect of dolomite application, foliar nutrition and their interaction effects on Cu, B and Na in grain and straw after harvest (mg kg^{-1})

Dolomite Application	Cu (mg kg^{-1})		B (mg kg^{-1})		Na (mg kg^{-1})	
	Grain	Straw	Grain	Straw	Grain	Straw
D ₀	9.72	6.27	17.06	18.33	418.73	4,875.40
D ₁	6.40	5.21	16.93	18.66	387.20	7,047.60
D ₂	5.66	5.67	16.60	19.73	356.53	6,531.93
SEm (\pm)	0.53	0.49	1.05	0.316	10.985	167.11
CD(0.05)	1.56	NS	NS	0.916	31.821	484.10
Foliar nutrition						
N ₀	7.63	4.51	15.77	18.22	390.33	5,235.89
N ₁	7.72	6.32	16.66	18.77	354.22	7,361.67
N ₂	7.29	5.33	16.66	18.11	445.66	3,653.22
N ₃	6.67	6.95	17.44	20.44	359.00	6,598.78
N ₄	7.00	5.46	17.77	19.00	388.22	7,908.67
SEm (\pm)	0.69	0.64	1.35	0.40	14.18	215.73
CD(0.05)	NS	NS	NS	1.18	41.08	624.97
Interaction effects						
D ₀ N ₀	11.60	6.01	16.00	17.66	405.66	3,093.33
D ₀ N ₁	8.46	6.05	17.00	17.33	432.00	8,016.00
D ₀ N ₂	11.73	5.43	17.00	18.66	604.66	2,981.00
D ₀ N ₃	7.69	7.69	17.00	19.33	406.33	5,210.33
D ₀ N ₄	9.14	6.17	18.33	18.66	327.00	5,076.33
D ₁ N ₀	5.99	4.74	16.00	18.00	348.66	8,831.67
D ₁ N ₁	7.87	6.28	16.33	18.66	368.66	5,345.67
D ₁ N ₂	5.50	5.20	17.33	17.33	367.33	4,698.00
D ₁ N ₃	6.43	5.23	17.00	20.00	365.00	7,652.33
D ₁ N ₄	6.24	4.60	18.00	19.33	333.00	9,939.33
D ₂ N ₀	5.31	2.77	15.33	19.00	416.66	3,782.67
D ₂ N ₁	6.84	6.64	16.66	20.33	262.00	8,723.33
D ₂ N ₂	4.63	5.38	15.66	18.33	365.00	3,280.67
D ₂ N ₃	5.89	7.94	18.33	22.00	305.66	6,933.67
D ₂ N ₄	5.63	5.62	17.00	19.00	504.66	9,939.33
SEm (\pm)	1.20	1.11	2.35	0.70	24.56	430.23
CD(0.05)	NS	NS	NS	NS	71.15	1,252.79

4.5 UPTAKE OF NUTRIENTS

4.5.1 Nutrient uptake by grain and straw

Mean data on uptake of nutrients such as N, P, K, Ca, Mg and S by grain and straw are depicted in Table 17 and Table 18.

4.5.1.1 Nitrogen uptake

Application of granulated dolomite as basal + 30 DAS increased the uptake of nitrogen ($117.48 \text{ kg ha}^{-1}$ and $131.60 \text{ kg ha}^{-1}$) by grain and straw significantly (Table 17). In grain it was on par with ordinary dolomite application as basal + 30 DAS. Foliar nutrition of potassium nitrate (1%) + micronutrient solution (0.5%) (N_3) recorded the highest ($149.41 \text{ kg ha}^{-1}$) N uptake by grain and in straw, foliar spray of potassium nitrate (1%) alone recorded higher ($164.79 \text{ kg ha}^{-1}$) uptake of N which was on par with N_3 .

Among the interaction, application of granulated dolomite as basal + 30 DAS along with (1%) potassium nitrate + (0.5%) micronutrient solution (D_2N_3) recorded higher N uptake ($182.96 \text{ kg ha}^{-1}$) by grain. In straw higher N uptake ($196.77 \text{ kg ha}^{-1}$) was obtained by application of granulated dolomite as basal + 30 DAS along with of potassium nitrate (1%) alone.

4.5.1.2 Phosphorus uptake

The mean data on P uptake (Table 17) showed that higher P uptake by grain and straw (22.43 kg ha^{-1} and 13.91 kg ha^{-1} respectively) was obtained with granulated dolomite as basal + 30 DAS (D_2) which was on par with D_1 in grain and D_0 in straw.

Application of potassium nitrate (1%) + micronutrient solution (0.5%) (N_3) as foliar nutrition recorded higher (22.37 kg ha^{-1}) P uptake by grain which was on par with all other treatments except treatment without foliar nutrition. In straw, foliar nutrition of potassium nitrate (1%) recorded the highest (17.64 kg ha^{-1}) P uptake compared to all other treatments. Effect of interaction did not differ significantly with respect to P uptake by both grain and straw.

4.5.1.3 Potassium uptake

The effect of soil amelioration, foliar nutrition and their interaction effects on K uptake in grain and straw is presented in Table 17. Uptake of K by straw was found the highest ($153.95 \text{ kg ha}^{-1}$) in application of granulated dolomite as basal + 30 DAS. Soil amelioration practices failed to produce significant effect on uptake of potassium in grain.

Foliar nutrition of potassium nitrate (1%) obtained higher (94.42 kg ha^{-1} and $150.85 \text{ kg ha}^{-1}$ respectively) K uptake by grain and straw and in straw ($150.85 \text{ kg ha}^{-1}$) it was on par with N_2 and N_3 . Among interaction effects, the highest uptake of K ($103.60 \text{ kg ha}^{-1}$) by grain was observed in treatment with granulated dolomite application along with potassium nitrate (1%) followed by D_1N_1 and D_0N_1 and interaction effects were not significant on K uptake by straw.

4.5.1.4 Calcium uptake

Calcium uptake by grains and straw was significantly influenced by soil amelioration practices, foliar nutrition and their interaction (Table 18). Calcium uptake by grain and straw was significantly higher (18.73 kg ha^{-1} and 24.60 kg ha^{-1} respectively) in granulated dolomite application as basal + 30 DAS (D_2) compared to other treatments.

Higher Ca uptake (18.53 kg ha^{-1}) by grain was obtained with foliar nutrition of potassium nitrate (1%) + micronutrient solution (0.5%) (N_3) which was on par with N_1 and uptake of calcium (24.21 kg ha^{-1}) by straw was higher by the application of potassium nitrate (1%) alone and was on par with N_3 .

In case of interaction, application of granulated dolomite as basal + 30 DAS along with potassium nitrate (1%) + micronutrient solution (0.5%) (D_2N_3) recorded higher (21.49 kg ha^{-1} and 29.90 kg ha^{-1} respectively) Ca uptake by grain and straw.

4.5.1.5 Magnesium uptake

Magnesium uptake by grain and straw (Table 18) was found to be significantly superior (9.71 kg ha^{-1} and 16.63 kg ha^{-1} respectively) in the application of granulated dolomite as basal +30 DAS (D_2). Foliar nutrition of potassium nitrate (1%) alone (N_1) recorded higher (9.90 kg ha^{-1} and 15.85 kg ha^{-1} respectively) Mg uptake by grain and straw and in grain it was on par with N_4 and in straw N_1 was superior in Mg uptake.

Among interaction effects, granulated dolomite as basal + 30 DAS along with potassium silicate (1%) (D_2N_2) recorded the highest (12 kg ha^{-1}) Mg uptake by grain which was on par with D_1N_4 . Application of potassium nitrate (1%) + micronutrient solution (0.5%) (D_2N_3) as foliar nutrition obtained significantly higher (19.94 kg ha^{-1}) Mg uptake by straw which was on par with D_2N_2 and D_2N_1 compared to all other treatments.

4.5.1.6 Sulphur uptake

Sulphur uptake by grain and straw was significantly influenced by soil amelioration practices, foliar nutrition and their interaction (Table 18). Ordinary dolomite application as basal+30 DAS recorded higher (14.45 kg ha^{-1}) uptake of S by grain which was on par with D_2 . Higher S uptake by straw was (24.15 kg ha^{-1}) obtained by application of granulated dolomite as basal + 30 DAS (D_2) and was on par with D_0 .

Foliar nutrition with potassium nitrate (1%) alone (N_1) recorded the highest sulphur uptake by grain (15.65 kg ha^{-1}) and significantly higher uptake of S (26.45 kg ha^{-1}) by straw was obtained by application of potassium nitrate (1%) + micronutrient solution (0.5%) (N_3) which was on par with N_1 and N_4 .

Application of ordinary dolomite as basal + 30 DAS along with potassium nitrate (1%) micronutrient solution (0.5%) (D_1N_3) registered higher (17.53 kg ha^{-1}) S uptake by grain and in straw, higher S uptake (37.02 kg ha^{-1}) was recorded by application of granulated dolomite as basal + 30 DAS along with potassium nitrate (1%) + micronutrient solution (0.5%) (D_2N_3) followed by D_2N_4 , D_1N_1 and D_0N_1 .

Table 17. Effect of dolomite application, foliar nutrition and their interaction effects on uptake of N, P and K in grain and straw after harvest (kg ha⁻¹)

Treatments	N uptake (kg ha ⁻¹)		P uptake (kg ha ⁻¹)		K uptake (kg ha ⁻¹)	
Dolomite Application	Grain	Straw	Grain	Straw	Grain	Straw
D ₀	71.36	97.23	18.55	13.35	72.94	115.34
D ₁	106.49	101.34	20.96	11.86	73.12	125.35
D ₂	117.48	131.61	22.43	13.91	75.04	153.95
SEm (±)	6.74	6.88	0.687	0.57	2.34	5.59
CD(0.05)	19.53	19.95	1.991	1.65	NS	16.19
Foliar nutrition						
N ₀	51.89	54.54	17.95	10.72	52.06	89.68
N ₁	123.07	164.79	21.50	17.64	94.42	150.85
N ₂	61.73	89.85	20.17	11.86	69.23	140.37
N ₃	149.41	148.98	22.37	13.31	81.84	131.88
N ₄	106.11	92.15	21.24	11.68	70.88	128.29
SEm (±)	8.70	8.89	0.887	0.73	3.02	7.21
CD(0.05)	25.21	25.75	2.57	2.13	8.76	20.90
Interaction effects						
D ₀ N ₀	37.47	33.32	16.38	9.25	45.09	72.24
D ₀ N ₁	101.64	139.13	16.92	20.00	89.69	132.80
D ₀ N ₂	21.32	57.843	18.82	12.02	74.61	123.80
D ₀ N ₃	112.83	135.58	20.84	13.21	86.31	123.53
D ₀ N ₄	83.54	120.31	19.79	12.29	65.33	124.37
D ₁ N ₀	41.78	66.82	17.29	10.44	48.14	89.13
D ₁ N ₁	142.68	158.48	23.93	17.34	89.91	139.45
D ₁ N ₂	121.44	75.46	21.34	11.42	77.66	148.76
D ₁ N ₃	152.45	153.05	21.97	11.15	79.28	108.91
D ₁ N ₄	74.10	52.90	20.26	8.98	70.59	90.50
D ₂ N ₀	76.43	63.48	20.19	12.48	62.95	107.67
D ₂ N ₁	124.88	196.77	23.66	15.59	103.60	180.32
D ₂ N ₂	42.44	136.25	20.34	12.14	55.42	148.57
D ₂ N ₃	182.96	158.33	24.30	15.57	79.94	163.21
D ₂ N ₄	160.70	103.237	23.673	13.76	76.74	170.02
SEm (±)	15.07	15.40	1.53	1.27	5.24	12.49
CD(0.05)	43.68	44.61	NS	NS	NS	NS

Table 18. Effect of dolomite application, foliar nutrition and their interaction effects on uptake of Ca, Mg and S in grain and straw after harvest (kg ha⁻¹)

Treatments	Ca uptake (kg ha ⁻¹)		Mg uptake (kg ha ⁻¹)		S uptake (kg ha ⁻¹)	
Dolomite Application	Grain	Straw	Grain	Straw	Grain	Straw
D ₀	11.62	14.67	7.44	11.11	11.70	23.42
D ₁	16.69	19.17	8.28	11.32	14.45	18.16
D ₂	18.73	24.60	9.71	16.63	14.25	24.15
SEm (±)	0.49	0.73	0.303	0.58	0.59	1.18
CD(0.05)	1.42	2.12	0.87	1.69	1.72	3.42
Foliar nutrition						
N ₀	13.04	15.85	7.54	11.23	9.47	19.37
N ₁	18.11	24.21	9.90	15.85	15.65	25.16
N ₂	16.24	20.11	8.46	12.51	13.77	15.63
N ₃	18.53	22.47	6.97	13.03	14.42	26.45
N ₄	12.484	14.760	9.51	12.50	14.02	22.96
SEm (±)	0.63	0.94	0.39	0.75	0.76	1.52
CD(0.05)	1.83	2.746	1.13	2.19	0.22	4.42
Interaction effects						
D ₀ N ₀	9.59	11.49	5.33	8.32	7.03	16.03
D ₀ N ₁	14.65	20.26	9.30	14.39	16.99	35.09
D ₀ N ₂	9.78	12.27	8.43	12.27	12.24	18.90
D ₀ N ₃	14.59	17.22	6.00	8.51	9.54	25.21
D ₀ N ₄	9.50	12.12	8.13	12.08	12.69	21.86
D ₁ N ₀	15.13	17.05	7.43	10.33	12.18	18.17
D ₁ N ₁	20.17	26.87	10.16	16.11	14.81	32.89
D ₁ N ₂	17.68	21.63	4.96	8.65	14.34	12.51
D ₁ N ₃	19.52	20.30	8.33	10.64	17.53	17.11
D ₁ N ₄	10.95	10.01	10.53	10.90	13.39	10.15
D ₂ N ₀	14.39	19.03	9.86	15.03	9.19	23.91
D ₂ N ₁	19.53	25.51	10.23	17.05	15.16	17.49
D ₂ N ₂	21.26	26.43	12.00	16.61	14.73	15.48
D ₂ N ₃	21.49	29.90	6.60	19.94	16.19	37.02
D ₂ N ₄	16.99	22.15	9.86	14.51	15.97	36.88
SEm (±)	1.10	1.64	0.68	1.31	1.33	2.64
CD(0.05)	3.18	4.75	1.96	3.79	3.85	7.66

4.6 DISEASE AND PEST INCIDENCE

Sheath rot caused by the fungus *Sarocladium oryzae* and Brown spot by *Helminthosporium oryzae* were the major diseases observed in the plants during the cropping period. Grain discoloration due to iron toxicity was also noticed in the field. The major pests noticed in the experimental field were white stem borer (*Scripophaga innotata*), and rice bug (*Leptocorisa acuta*).

4.7 ECONOMIC ANALYSIS

The economics of cultivation is presented in Table 19. The highest gross income was obtained by the treatment D₂N₁ (Rs 213900 ha⁻¹). The maximum net return (Rs 123788 ha⁻¹) and maximum BCR (2.48) were obtained by the treatment D₁N₃.

Table 19. Effect of different treatments on economics of cultivation

Treatments	Cost of cultivation (Rs ha ⁻¹)	Gross income (Rs ha ⁻¹)	Net income (Rs ha ⁻¹)	BCR
D ₀ N ₀	77512	144900	67388	1.86
D ₀ N ₁	78512	186300	107788	2.37
D ₀ N ₂	81512	174000	92488	2.13
D ₀ N ₃	81012	189900	108888	2.34
D ₀ N ₄	84012	184200	100188	2.19
D ₁ N ₀	80012	165000	84988	2.06
D ₁ N ₁	81012	196500	115488	2.42
D ₁ N ₂	84012	189000	104988	2.24
D ₁ N ₃	83512	207300	123788	2.48
D ₁ N ₄	86512	199500	112988	2.30
D ₂ N ₀	91512	182400	90888	1.99
D ₂ N ₁	92512	213900	121388	2.31
D ₂ N ₂	95512	202800	107288	2.12
D ₂ N ₃	95012	211500	116488	2.22
D ₂ N ₄	98012	207900	109888	2.12



Plate 14. Brown spot



Plate 15. Sheath rot



Plate 16. Grain discolouration



Plate 17. Stem borer attack

Discussion

5. DISCUSSION

An investigation entitled “Enhancing grain yield and quality through soil amelioration and foliar nutrition in Rice (*Oryza sativa* L.) in *Vaikom Kari* soils” was undertaken during *puncha* season (2020-21) to augment grain yield and quality of rice crop in *Vaikom Kari* soils, and the results of the experimental research presented in previous chapter are discussed below.

5.1 GROWTH CHARACTERS

5.1.1 Effect of soil amelioration practices on plant height, number of tillers and LAI

Soil amelioration practices had a significant effect on growth characters of rice at all the growth stages. This is evident from the higher values of plant height, number of tillers and LAI registered by dolomite applied plots as seen in Table 5 and Fig .3, Fig.4 and Fig. 5. Application of dolomite significantly influenced the plant height at both PI and harvesting stages and it was non-significant at maximum tillering stage. The highest value of plant height was obtained in treatment with granulated dolomite application as basal + 30 DAS and the lowest was obtained in treatment without dolomite application. LAI and number of tillers was also significantly superior in treatments with granulated dolomite application at both MT and PI stages and the lowest was recorded in treatment with no dolomite application. Increase in plant height and number of tillers resulted in more number of leaves which in turn resulted in higher LAI. The increased plant height, maximum number of tillers and the highest LAI on treatment with granulated dolomite might be due to the action of dolomite reducing the Fe and Al toxicity of soil which resulted in improved plant growth. Dolomite reduces the soil pH as well as provide additional supply of Ca and Mg which improves the growth characters. This is evident from the findings of Aslam *et al.* (2002), who reported the improved growth characteristics such as tillering capacity and shoot lengths and root lengths by an external supply of Ca resulting in higher yield of rice. Bose *et al.* (2011), stated that Mg is an essential element for various physiological and biochemical processes which affect the development and growth and also ameliorate

Al phytotoxicity. Similar results were also reported by Suswanto *et al.* (2007); Soltani *et al.* (2016) and Elisa *et al.* (2016).

5.1.2 Effect of soil amelioration and foliar nutrition on total dry matter production

The data of results revealed that dry matter production at harvest was influenced by the treatments. The application of granulated dolomite as basal and at 30 DAS recorded higher dry matter production than ordinary dolomite and no dolomite application and foliar application of 1% KNO₃ gave the highest dry matter production which was on par with all other treatments except treatment without foliar application. Interaction of main treatments were not significant on TDMP. The plant growth characters such as plant height, number of tillers and more number of leaves are favourably influenced by dolomite application which might have contributed to higher dry matter production. Higher leaf area for photosynthesis along with more number of tillers increased the growth of the plant and hence obtained higher dry matter production. Foliar application of potassium fertilizers might have increased the chlorophyll content and grain yield which resulted in higher TDMP. In *Kari* soils the plants suffer from poor root health during PI stage. In case of treatment without foliar nutrition the uptake of nutrients especially N and K during critical stage of plant growth might have been affected resulting in lower grain yield, straw yield and TDMP. Potassium is a major element which involved in enzyme activation which controls metabolic reactions, helps in uptake and translocation of photosynthates and in turn resulted in accumulation of dry matter in plants. Jagathijothi *et al.* (2012) observed that foliar nutrients tend to increase the rate of photosynthesis and carbohydrate translocation which in turn increased the dry matter production.

5.2 YIELD AND YIELD ATTRIBUTES

5.2.1 Effect of soil amelioration and foliar nutrition on yield attributes

Results of the study revealed that various yield attributes such as number of productive tillers m⁻², percentage of filled grains and thousand grain weight were significantly influenced by soil amelioration practices and by foliar nutrition. The interaction of treatments failed to produce significant effect on yield attributes. Number of productive tillers, percentage of filled grains and thousand grain weight was

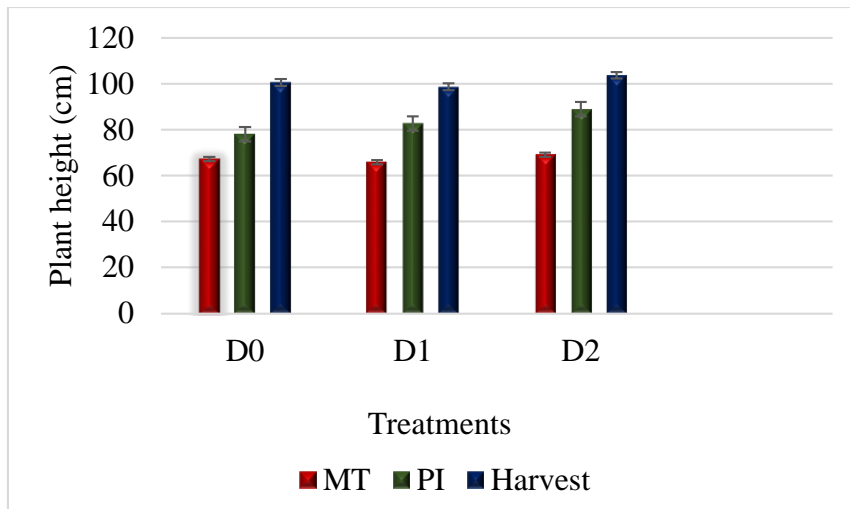


Fig.3 Effect of soil amelioration practices on plant height

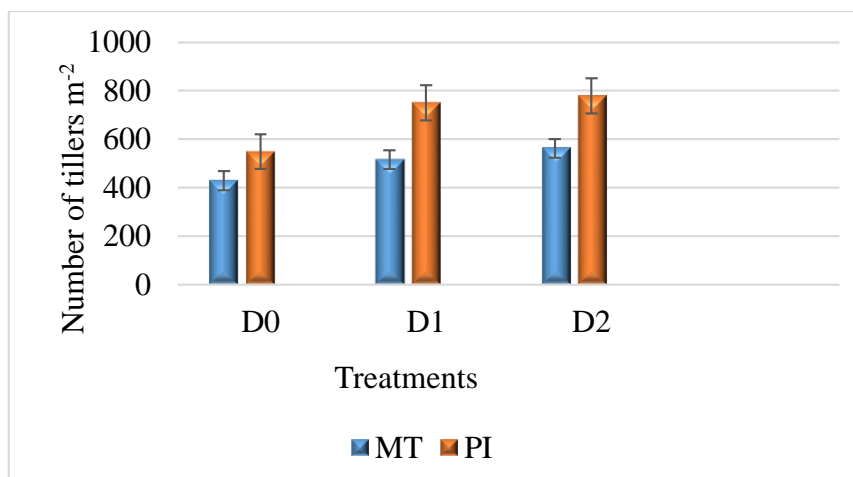


Fig.4 Effect of soil amelioration practices on number of tillers m⁻²

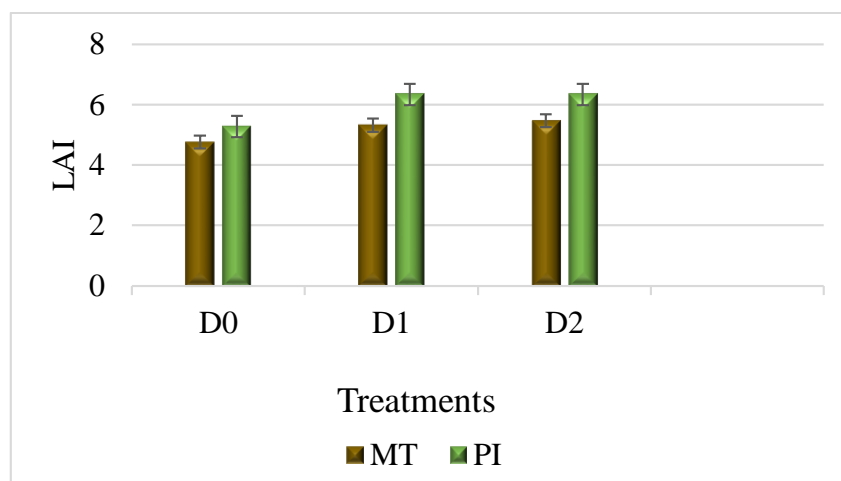


Fig.5 Effect of soil amelioration practices on LAI

significantly higher in treatment with application of granulated dolomite as basal and 30 DAS (D₂) compared to D₀ and D₁. Higher value of yield attributes in dolomite treated plots might be due to the increase in soil pH which resulted in increased availability of nutrients, reduction in Fe availability and many other attributes of soil fertility. The same result was obtained by Mansingh *et al.* (2019) and Kumar *et al.* (2012). Among foliar nutrition, FS of 1% KNO₃ recorded the highest percentage of filled grains and thousand grain weight and it was on par with all other treatments except treatment without foliar application in case of filled grain percentage. Foliar application of N and K might have increased the availability of those nutrients and increased the absorption and the translocation of nutrients to the rice grain. Similar results were also reported by Jagathjothi *et al.* (2012). This was also in agreement with the result of Son *et al.* (2012) who reported that foliar nutrition of KNO₃ increased the number of panicles per m², numbers of grains per panicle, 1000 grain weight, and decreased the percentage of unfilled grain. These findings are also supported by Ali *et al.* (2007). Foliar application did not show any significant influence in case of productive tillers m⁻².

5.2.2 Effect of soil amelioration and foliar nutrition on yield and harvest index

The data of grain yield, straw yield and HI of rice significantly influenced by different treatments is shown in Table 7 and Fig. 6. Granulated dolomite as basal and 30 DAS (D₂) registered higher grain yield which was on par with ordinary dolomite application (D₁) and the lowest grain yield was recorded for treatment without dolomite application (D₀). Foliar spray of 1% KNO₃ + 0.5% micronutrient solution (N₃) obtained higher grain yield which was on par with all other treatments except treatment with no foliar application (N₀) which recorded the lowest grain yield. The increased grain yield by dolomite application might be due to the ameliorating effect of dolomite which reduced Fe and Al toxicity and increased the Ca and Mg content which also enhanced the soil conditions for better growth. The supply of magnesium in Mg deficient soils is also a factor that enhanced the grain yield. Similar results were also reported by Martin *et al.* (1988), Biswas *et al.* (2013), Elisa *et al.* (2016) and Soltani *et al.* (2016). Higher yield of treatments with foliar spray of KNO₃ or combined spray of KNO₃ and micronutrient solution might be due to improved growth characters and yield attributes which in turn resulted in higher rice grain yield. Application of potassium fertilizers

also helps in photosynthesis, carbohydrates distribution, and synthesis of starch in storage organs, which results in increased grain yield (Imas and Magen, 2007; White *et al.*, 2010). Foliar nutrition of K may be beneficial when uptake of potassium through the root zone is low mainly due to the competition of cation in saline or sodic soils with high content of Na (Weinbaum *et al.*, 2001). Devi (2017) opined that application of N and K as foliar spray is especially important in *Kari* soils deficient in available nitrogen and high in iron and calcium that are antagonistic to potassium. Micronutrient fertilization helps to increase enzymatic reactions and hormone productions which results in increased yield. Similar results were noted by El-Magid *et al.* (2000); Zayed *et al.* (2011) and Shueadshen (1991). Results of increased grain yield due to application of potassium nitrate fertilizers were also reported by Ahmad and Jabeen (2005), Ravi *et al.* (2007) and Khan *et al.* (2012).

The highest straw yield was obtained by the treatment with granulated dolomite as basal and 30 DAS and the lowest straw yield was obtained for treatment without dolomite application. In case of foliar nutrition, FS of 1% KNO₃ recorded higher straw yield which was on par with 1% KNO₃ + 0.5 % micronutrient solution and the lowest yield was recorded for treatment with no foliar nutrition. Higher straw yield might be due to the increased plant growth by the action of dolomite and N. Similar results were also reported by Sarkar and Bandopadhyay (1991) and Surya (2015). Interaction effect of soil amelioration and foliar nutrition was not significant in case of both grain yield and straw yield.

Harvest index was significantly influenced by soil amelioration practices and was not influenced by foliar nutrition and their interaction effects. Ordinary dolomite application as basal and 30 DAS obtained the highest HI compared to granulated dolomite application and treatment with no dolomite application. Higher HI is in accordance with grain yield and straw yield.

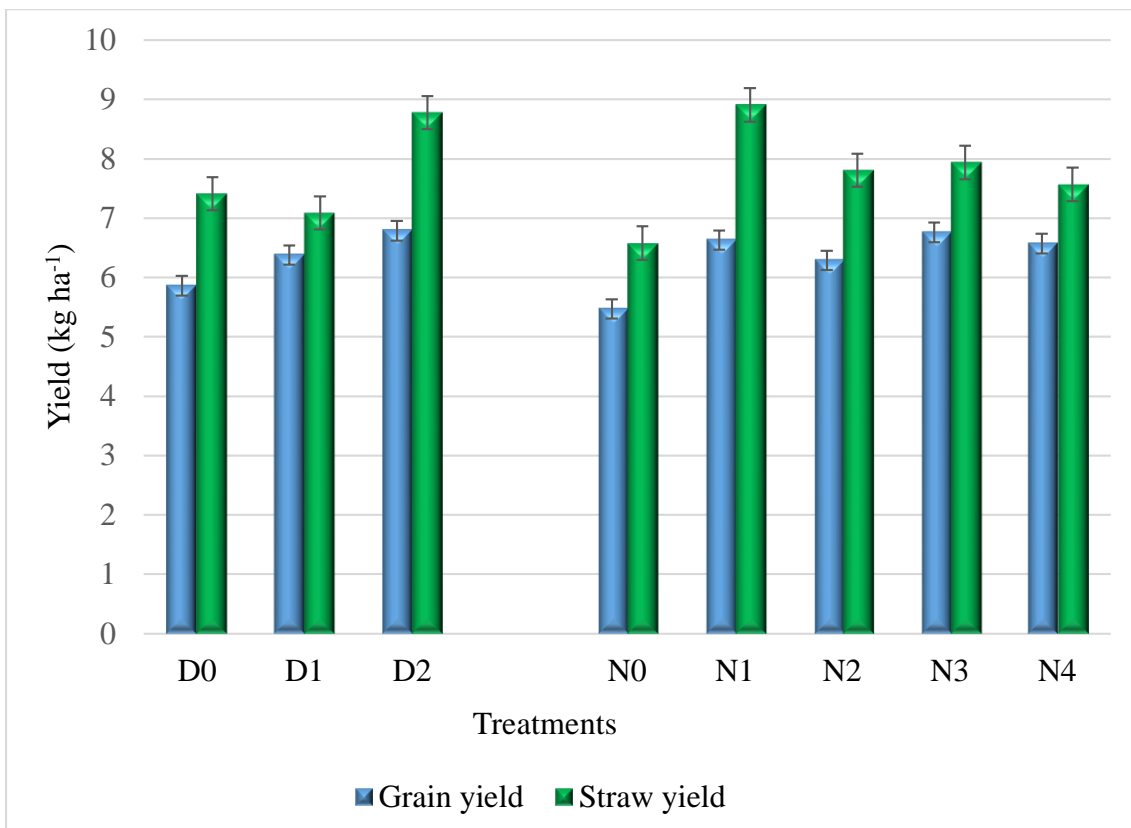


Fig 6. Effect of soil amelioration practices and foliar nutrition on yield

5.4 SOIL NUTRIENT CONTENT

5.4.1 Effect of soil amelioration on nutrient content of soil

5.4.1.1 Soil pH and EC

Soil pH and EC were significantly influenced by soil amelioration practices. Initially soil was extremely acidic in nature which was in conformity with the result of Chattopadhyay and Sidharthan (1985) and Beena and Thampatti (2013). Profound effect was seen on soil pH by the application of dolomite. The highest pH was obtained on application of granulated dolomite as basal and 30 DAS (D₂) and the lowest pH was obtained in treatment with no dolomite in both PI and harvest stages. This was in line with the findings of Rastija *et al.* (2014). Calcium present in dolomite increased the soil pH by reducing the soil acidity. Soil pH increased from initial value during the crop period and decreased at the time of harvest. The decrease in soil pH at the time of harvest might be due to the drying of soil, which resulted in the formation of sulphuric acid in acid sulphate soils, and increased the soil acidity. This was in agreement with the report of Chenery (1954).

Electrical conductivity decreased at PI stage and increased at harvest stage from the initial value and is presented in Table 8. The treatment with no dolomite application (D₀) recorded the highest EC at both PI and harvest stages and the lowest was obtained in treatment with granulated dolomite application. This may be due to the effect of dolomite in reducing the soluble salts by making them insoluble in the soil. Increase in EC at harvest stage may be because, as the soil dries at the time of harvest, the subsurface salinity comes on the soil surface by capillary action which in turn increases the EC of the soil. Similar trends of result were also obtained by Devi (2017).

5.4.1.2 Soil organic carbon status

Soil amelioration practices had a significant influence on OC content both at PI and harvesting stages as presented in Table 8. Soil OC increased from the initial value at PI stage and decreased at harvesting stage. The highest OC content was recorded with granulated dolomite as basally and 30 DAS (D₂), at both PI and harvesting stages and the lowest was obtained with treatment with no dolomite application (D₀).

The increase in OC might be due to the mineralisation process, by the application of dolomite the pH of the soil increases that enhances the process of mineralisation in soil and thus OC status also increased. This is in agreement with result obtained by Wu *et al.* (2021) that the dolomite application increased soil organic carbon mineralization and also stimulate microbial growth and activity, which resulted from the increase in soil pH. Moreover, the effect was greater for the finer particle size, suggesting that the particle size of lime material has the role in regulating the soil organic matter mineralization in acidic soils.

5.4.1.3 Availability of macro nutrients

The available N was significantly influenced by soil amelioration practices at panicle initiation stage and did not have any influence at harvest stage. Application of granulated dolomite as basal and 30 DAS (D₂) recorded the highest N content of soil and the lowest was obtained in treatment without dolomite application (D₀). Initial status of available N was low which increased by the application of dolomite and decreased at the time of harvest. Higher available N content in the soil by dolomite application might be due increase in pH which in turn improving the microbial activity and N availability of the soil. Castro *et al.* (2016) also reported similar results. The decrease in available N at the time of harvest may be due to reduced pH which reduces the microbial activity. Similar findings were also reported by Koruth *et al.* (2013).

Available P content of the soil was significantly influenced by soil amelioration practices at PI stage and failed to express significant effect at harvesting stage as seen in Table 9. The highest soil available P was obtained with granulated dolomite basally and 30 DAS (D₂) which was on par with ordinary dolomite as basally and 30 DAS (D₁). Initial status of available P was low in the soil which increased at PI stage and then decreased at harvesting stage. Low availability of P at initial stage might be due to P fixation by Fe and Al oxides in highly acidic soil condition. This is in agreement with findings of Dixit (2006) and Audebert and Sahrawat (2000). Dolomite application increased the soil pH which also enhanced the P availability in the soil and at the time of harvest, decrease in pH due to diminishing effect of dolomite reduced the soil pH and dropped the availability of P. These findings are supported by the results obtained by Rahman *et al.* (2002) and Suriyagoda *et al.* (2017). Phosphorus availability can be

increased through liming by changing organic P mineralization due to increased microbial activity and by enhancing the utilization of soil phosphate by plants through the amelioration of Fe toxicity (Haynes, 1981)

Soil amelioration practices had significant effect on soil available K at both panicle initiation and harvesting stages. Initial available K was medium which increased at PI stage and decreased at harvest stages. The increase of soil K at PI stage might be owing to the soil application of K. Granulated dolomite as basal and 30 DAS (D₂) recorded significantly higher status of available K which was on par with ordinary dolomite application (D₁) at both the stages and the lowest available K was recorded in treatment with no dolomite application (D₀). The reduction of available K might be due to antagonistic effect of Ca and Fe on soil K. Rasouli *et al.* (2013) stated that potassium availability of the soil can be enhanced by the application of Ca and Mg. Bishnoi *et al.* (1987) reported that the increase of available K content of acid soils by liming may be due to the release of K from non-exchangeable fraction to the available pool.

Significant influence of soil amelioration was observed in available Ca content as seen in Table 9. Application of granulated dolomite as basal + 30 DAS recorded the highest available Ca content in soil at both PI and harvesting stages, and at harvest it was on par with ordinary dolomite application. The lowest was obtained in treatment with no dolomite application at both stages. The initial status of available Ca content was high in the soil due to the deposit of CaCO₃ shells and the value increased at PI stage and decreased at harvesting stages. The increase in Ca content at cropping period from initial value may be due to the increase in pH and addition of Ca ions by the application of dolomite.

Available Mg content was significantly influenced by soil amelioration practices as seen in Table 10. The highest soil Mg content was obtained in treatment with application of granulated dolomite as basal and 30 DAS (D₂) at both PI and harvesting stage but was on par with ordinary dolomite application at harvest. The initial available Mg in soil was very low and it increased during cropping period due to the application of dolomite as it is a good source of Mg. This was in accordance with the result reported by Wood *et al.* (2005) that soil Mg is increased by the application of dolomite or dolomitic limestone by correcting the soil pH.

The soil was initially higher in available S which gradually decreased during cropping period. The treatment without dolomite application recorded significantly higher content of soil available S at both PI and harvesting stages which was on par with treatment with ordinary dolomite application as basally and 30 DAS. Granulated dolomite basally and 30 DAS registered significantly lower values at PI and harvest stages. Initial status of available S is high due to acid sulphate characteristics of *Kari* soils. It decreased during cropping period and at harvest. Decrease in available S at cropping period may be due to formation of Fe sulphides under flooded condition as well as due to the application of dolomite. Drying of soil at harvest may lead to oxidation of sulphides which in turn increased the available soil S status at harvest over PI stage. Astrom *et al.* (2007) opined that sulphur content of soil can be decreased by liming.

5.4.1.4 Availability of micronutrients

The initial status of available Fe was very high in the soil, which was also reported by Thampatti *et al.* (2005). The treatment without dolomite application was superior with respect to soil available Fe at both PI and harvesting stages compared to other treatments. Granulated dolomite as basal and 30 DAS registered the lowest value at both the stages. Significant reduction of Fe content was observed by the application of dolomite. This was in accordance with the findings of Benckinser *et al.* (1984). Application of dolomite gradually decreased the Fe content at both the stages and it increased at harvest from that at PI stage. The increased status may be due to the diminishing effect of dolomite and reduced pH.

Significantly higher soil available Mn was registered by the treatment with ordinary dolomite basally and 30 DAS (D₁) which was on par with granulated dolomite application at harvesting stage and no significant effect of soil amelioration practices was noticed at PI stage. Application of dolomite improved the Mn status of soil. Availability of Mn increased from the initial status to PI stage and decreased at harvest, high Ca and Fe contents present in the soil at the time of harvest may be the reason of reduced Mn content as these elements are antagonistic to Mn (Tisdale *et al.*, 1993).

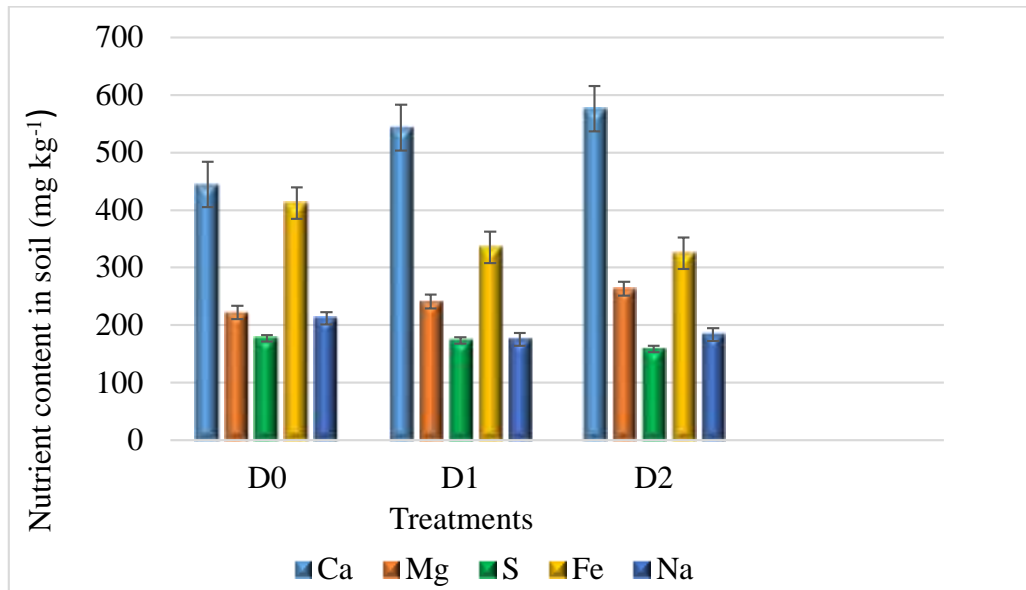


Fig 7. Effect of soil amelioration practices on available Ca, Mg, S, Fe and Na at PI stage

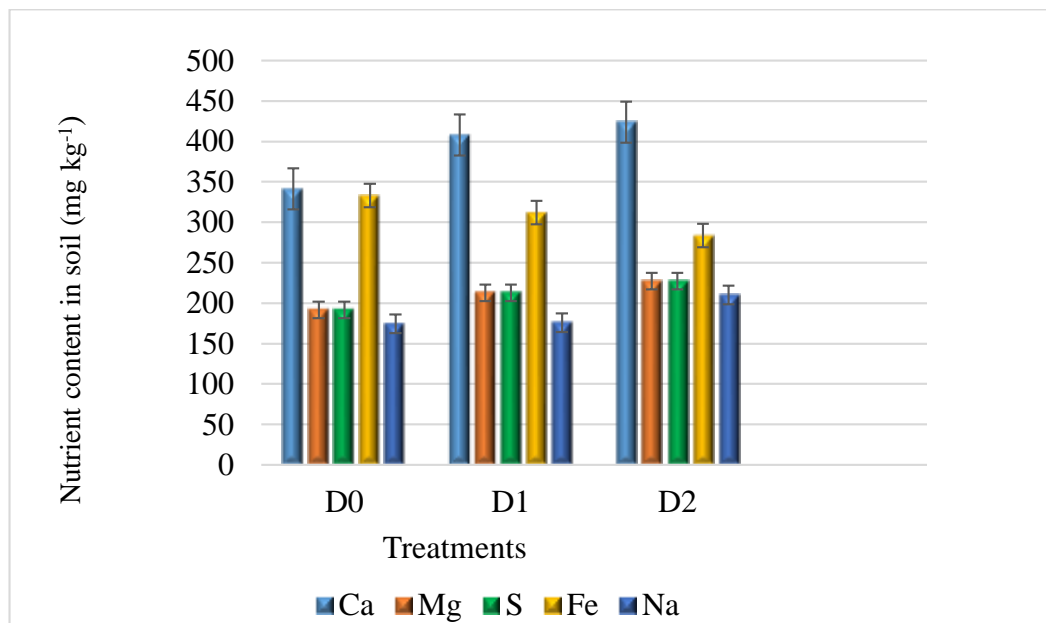


Fig 8. Effect of soil amelioration practices on available Ca, Mg, S, Fe and Na at harvesting stage

Effect of soil amelioration practices was found to be non-significant on available Zn and Cu content in the soil at both PI and harvesting stages. Available Zn and Cu content in the soil decreased from the initial values at both PI and harvest stages.

Available B content in the soil was significantly influenced by soil amelioration practices as presented in Table 12. Granulated dolomite as basal+30 DAS (D₂) recorded the highest soil available B at PI stage and at harvest and it was on par with ordinary dolomite application. The lowest available B was obtained for treatment with no dolomite application (D₀). Initial available B was very low in the soil, which was also reported by Sasidharan and Ambika Devi (2013), later it increased during cropping period by the application of dolomite as B availability can be increased by reducing acidity.

5.4.1.5 Exchangeable Na status

Initially, exchangeable Na was high in the soil, due to increased salinity by sea water intrusion which gradually decreased at PI and harvesting stages. Soil amelioration practices had a significant effect on exchangeable Na content of the soil. The sodium content in the soil decreased from the initial value at all the stages. At both PI and harvesting stage treatment without dolomite application obtained the highest value of exchangeable Na and the lowest was obtained by the application of granulated dolomite as basal + 30 DAS (D₂).

5.5 PLANT NUTRIENT CONTENT

5.5.1 Effect of soil amelioration and foliar nutrition on nutrient content of grain and straw

Plant parts were analysed to obtain the nutrient content of grain and straw after harvest and to reckon the nutrient uptake by the crop

5.5.1.1 Nitrogen, Phosphorus and Potassium

Nitrogen content in grain responded significantly to soil amelioration practices whereas N content in straw does not have any significant effect. Higher N content in grain was recorded in granulated dolomite application which was on par with D₁. Foliar

nutrition of 1% potassium nitrate + 0.5% micronutrient solution (N_3) recorded the highest N content in grain and foliar nutrition of 1% potassium nitrate (N_1) and N_3 obtained significantly higher N content in straw. Significantly lower N content was obtained in treatment with no foliar nutrition for both grain and straw. Among the treatment combinations, D_2N_3 recorded higher N content in grain and (D_1N_3) obtained the highest N content in straw. The increased N content in grain and straw may be the positive effect of foliar application of KNO_3 and also due to increased uptake of nutrients due to soil amelioration practices which increased the availability of nutrients. Varghese and Money (1964) also found increase in N content in plant by the application of Mg contained amendments.

Phosphorus content of grain and straw was significantly influenced by soil amelioration practices, foliar nutrition and their interaction (Table 13). Among soil amelioration practices, the highest P content in grain was observed with D_2 which was on par with D_1 and in straw, the highest P content was observed with D_0 . In grain, foliar nutrition of 1% KNO_3 + 0.5% micronutrient solution (N_3) recorded the highest P content which was on par with N_0 and was significantly superior to other treatments. The highest P content in straw was observed with foliar nutrition of potassium nitrate (1%) alone (N_1). Among treatment combinations, D_1N_1 recorded higher P content which was on par with D_2N_3 and in straw higher P content was obtained in D_0N_1 . The increased availability of nutrients by soil amelioration practices enhanced the uptake of nutrients and thus increased the P content in grain. Dolomite application increased the pH, and available nutrients thus P and K contents were also enhanced. This is in line with the findings of Suriyagoda *et al.* (2017).

Potassium content in grain and straw was significantly influenced by individual treatments and their interactions (Table 13). In both grain and straw the highest K content was recorded in D_2 and lowest was in D_0 . Foliar application of KNO_3 (1%) alone recorded the highest K content in both grain and straw. Significant interaction effects between soil amelioration practices and foliar nutrition on potassium content was observed. Significantly higher K content in grain was recorded by application of granulated dolomite along with FS of 1 % KNO_3 (D_2N_1) and in straw, treatment with application of ordinary dolomite along with FS of 1 % K_2SiO_3 (D_1N_2) obtained the

highest K content and was on par with D₂N₁, D₂N₂, D₂N₃ and D₂N₄. Foliar spray of potassium fertilizers increased the concentration of K in both grain and straw, and also application of dolomite enhanced the uptake of K which in turn increased the K content in both grain and straw. Koruth *et al.* (2013) reported an increase in potassium content in plant by the application of magnesium sources in the soil. Ali *et al.* (2005) observed that K concentration in grain and straw were enhanced by the application of different K sources.

5.5.1.2 Calcium, Magnesium, Sulphur

Soil amelioration practices, foliar nutrition and their interaction significantly influenced the calcium content in grain and straw (Table 14). The highest Ca content in both grain and straw was obtained by application of granulated dolomite (D₂) and the lowest was in control. Foliar nutrition of 1% KNO₃ + 0.5% micronutrient solution (N₃) registered higher Ca content in both grain and straw which was on par with FS of 1% KNO₃ alone (N₁) and was significantly superior to other treatments. Application of granulated dolomite along with FS of 1% KNO₃ + 0.5% micronutrient solution (D₂N₃) obtained highest Ca content in grain which was on par with D₂N₂ and D₁N₁. In straw, granulated dolomite along with FS of (1%) K₂SiO₃ (D₂N₂) recorded higher Ca content which was on par with D₂N₃ and D₁N₁. High initial status of Ca have reflected in the respective nutrient contents in grain and straw. Application of dolomite significantly increased the Ca and Mg contents in leaves as dolomite is a good source of these nutrients (Soratto and Crusciol, 2008).

Magnesium content in both grain and straw was significantly enhanced by granulated dolomite compared to ordinary dolomite application and treatment without dolomite application. Higher Mg content in grain was recorded in treatment with FS of 1% KNO₃ (N₁) which was on par with application of 1% K₂SiO₃ + 0.5% micronutrient solution (N₄). In straw also N₁ obtained highest Mg content which was on par with N₀ and N₄. Application of granulated dolomite along with FS of 1% K₂SiO₃ (D₂N₂) significantly enhanced the Mg content of grain and in straw it was increased by the application of granulated dolomite along with FS of 1% KNO₃ + 0.5% micronutrient solution (D₂N₃) followed by D₂N₂, D₂N₀, D₁N₄ and D₁N₁. The lowest Mg content in treatment with no dolomite application might be due to low available Mg content in the

soil and increased Mg content in dolomite applied treatment might be due to increased supply of Mg due to dolomite application.

Soil amelioration practices failed to express significant effect on S content in grain. In straw, treatment with no dolomite application (D_0) recorded the highest S content compared to other treatments. Foliar nutrition of 1 % KNO_3 (N_1) obtained higher sulphur content in grain and in case of straw FS of 1% KNO_3 + 0.5% micronutrient solution (N_3) recorded the highest S content followed by all other treatments except N_2 . Among the interaction effects, treatment without dolomite application along with FS of 1% KNO_3 recorded the highest S content in both grain and straw and in straw it was on par with D_2N_4 , D_2N_3 and D_1N_1 .

5.5.1.3 Iron, Manganese, Zinc

The treatment without dolomite application obtained the highest Fe content in both grain and straw and in grain it was on par with D_1 . Foliar spray of 1% KNO_3 registered the highest Fe content in both grain and straw. Among interaction effects, application of granulated dolomite along with FS of 1% KNO_3 + 0.5% micronutrient solution (N_3) recorded the highest Fe content in both grain and straw and in grain it was on par with D_1N_1 and D_0N_4 . The highest Fe content in control plot is due to the high available Fe content during the initial status of the soil and was the lowest in treatment with dolomite application. This result was previously supported by Benckiser *et al.* (1984), because the uptake of Fe^{2+} decreased with increased K, Ca and Mg nutrition in soil.

The higher Mn content in grain was obtained by application of ordinary dolomite and was on par with D_2 , and in straw application of granulated dolomite obtained the highest Mn content. FS of 1% KNO_3 + 0.5% micronutrient solution (N_3) recorded the highest Mn content in both grain and straw compared to other treatments. Application of granulated along with FS of 1% KNO_3 + 0.5% micronutrient solution (D_2N_3) obtained the highest Mn content in grain which was on par with D_2N_4 and D_1N_3 . In straw FS of 1% K_2SiO_3 + 0.5% micronutrient solution (D_2N_4) recorded the highest Mn content which was on par with D_2N_3 . Application of micronutrient solution enhanced the Mn content in both grain and straw.

Among soil amelioration practices treatment with no dolomite obtained the highest Zn content in grain and in straw granulated dolomite application recorded the highest zinc content FS of 1% K_2SiO_3 + 0.5% micronutrient solution (N_4) obtained the highest zinc in both grain and straw. Treatment without dolomite application along with FS of 1% K_2SiO_3 + 0.5% micronutrient solution (D_0N_4) showed the highest Zn content in grain and granulated dolomite along with of 1% K_2SiO_3 + 0.5% micronutrient solution (D_2N_4) showed the highest Zn content in straw which was significantly superior to all other treatments. Application of micronutrient solution might be the reason behind increased Zn content in both grain and straw. This is in agreement with the result obtained by Jin *et al.* (2008) where combined foliar application of Fe, Zn and B significantly increased nutrient concentration of these in rice grain.

5.5.1.4 Copper, Boron, Sodium

No significant effect on Cu content in the grain and straw due to soil amelioration, foliar nutrition and by their interaction was noticed except in grain Cu content by the influence of soil amelioration. The highest Cu content in grain was obtained with no dolomite application.

No significant effects were found on B content in grain due to interaction of soil amelioration practices and foliar nutrition, but the amelioration practices and foliar nutrition influenced the B content in straw. Application of granulated dolomite obtained the highest B content and in case of foliar nutrition, the highest was recorded by N_3 followed by N_4 . Jin *et al.* (2008) also reported similar results.

Sodium content in grain was the highest in application of granulated dolomite and in straw, application of ordinary dolomite obtained the highest Na content. With regard to foliar nutrition, in grain, FS of 1% K_2SiO_3 was significantly superior to other treatments and in straw N_4 obtained highest Na content which was on par with N_1 . Among interactions, granulated dolomite along with FS of 1% K_2SiO_3 (D_2N_2) obtained highest Na content in grain and in straw granulated dolomite along with FS of 1% K_2SiO_3 + 0.5% micronutrient solution (D_2N_4) recorded the highest Na content.

5.5.2 Effect of soil amelioration and foliar nutrition on uptake of nutrients

5.5.2.1 Uptake of primary nutrients

Application of granulated dolomite increased the uptake of N by grain and straw significantly (Table 17). In grain it was on par with ordinary dolomite application FS of 1% KNO_3 + 0.5% micronutrient solution (N_3) recorded the highest N uptake by grain and in straw, FS of 1% KNO_3 alone recorded higher uptake of N which was on par with N_3 . Among the interaction, application of granulated dolomite along with 1% KNO_3 + 0.5% micronutrient solution (D_2N_3) recorded higher N uptake by grain. Kundu *et al.* (2020) reported that foliar spray of potassium salts enhanced the uptake of N, P, K and S by rice. In straw higher N uptake was obtained by application of granulated dolomite along with FS of 1% KNO_3 . Son *et al.* (2012) also reported higher uptake of N and K in rice along with higher grain yield by one to three foliar application of potassium nitrate.

The mean data on P uptake showed that higher P uptake by grain and straw was obtained with granulated dolomite (D_2) which was on par with D_1 in grain and D_0 in straw. Application of 1% KNO_3 + micronutrient solution 0.5% (N_3) recorded P uptake by grain which was on par with N_1 and N_4 . In straw, FS of 1% KNO_3 recorded the highest P uptake compared to all other treatments. This is in agreement with findings of Kundu *et al.* (2020).

Uptake of K by straw was the highest in application of granulated dolomite. Soil amelioration practices failed to produce significant effect on uptake of potassium in grain. K_2SiO_3 (N_2) obtained higher K uptake by grain which was on par with all other treatments except N_0 . Application of 1% KNO_3 alone (N_1) recorded the highest uptake of K by straw followed by N_2 and N_3 . Among interaction effects, higher uptake of K by grain was observed in treatment with granulated dolomite application along with 1% KNO_3 followed by D_1N_1 and D_0N_1 .

5.5.2.2 Uptake of secondary nutrients

Calcium uptake by grain and straw was significantly higher in granulated dolomite application. Higher Ca uptake by grain was obtained with 1% KNO_3 + 0.5% micronutrient solution (N_3) which was on par with N_1 and uptake of Ca by straw was higher by the application of 1% KNO_3 (N_1) and was on par with N_3 . In case of interaction, application of granulated dolomite along with 1% KNO_3 + 0.5% micronutrient solution (D_2N_3) recorded higher Ca uptake by grain and straw.

Magnesium uptake by grain and straw was found to be significantly superior in the application of granulated dolomite. FS of 1% KNO_3 alone (N_1) recorded higher Mg uptake by grain and straw and in grain it was on par with N_4 and in straw N_1 was superior in Mg uptake. Among interaction effects, granulated dolomite along with 1% K_2SiO_3 + 0.5% micronutrient solution (D_2N_4) recorded the highest Mg uptake by grain which was on par with D_1N_4 . Application of 1% KNO_3 + 0.5% micronutrient solution (D_2N_3) obtained higher Mg uptake by straw which was on par with D_2N_2 and D_2N_1 .

Ordinary dolomite application recorded higher uptake of S by grain which was on par with D_2 . Higher S uptake by straw was recorded by application of granulated (D_2) and was on par with D_0 . Foliar nutrition with 1% KNO_3 (N_1) recorded the highest S uptake by grain and higher uptake of sulphur by straw was obtained by FS of 1% KNO_3 + 0.5% micronutrient solution (N_3) which was on par with N_1 and N_4 . Application of ordinary dolomite along with 1% KNO_3 + 0.5% micronutrient solution (D_1N_3) registered S uptake by grain and in straw, higher uptake was recorded by application of granulated dolomite along with 1% KNO_3 + 0.5% micronutrient solution (D_2N_3). This was in line with the findings of Kundu *et al.*, 2020.

5.6 PEST AND DISEASE INCIDENCE

Sheath rot caused by the fungus *Sarocladium oryzae* and Brown spot by *Helminthosporium oryzae* were the major diseases observed in the plants during the cropping period which was controlled by spraying Nativo [Tebuconazole 50% + Trifloxystrobin 25% [75 (WG)]]. The major pests noticed in the experimental field were white stem borer (*Scirpophaga innotata*), and rice bug (*Leptocorisa acuta*) which was

brought under control by the application of Fertera (chlorantraniliprole 0.4% GR) in the soil and Malathion 50 EC respectively. FS of (1%) K_2SiO_3 was found to reduce the disease and pest incidence compared to other treatments and in control disease severity was high. This was in agreement with the result obtained by Buck *et al.* (2008) that the application of K_2SiO_3 as foliar spray have reduced the incidence of rice blast. Potassium is effective in lowering down the infestation of insect-pests of rice crops (Chatterjee and Mondal, 2020).

5.7 ECONOMICS OF CULTIVATION

The highest gross income was obtained by the treatment D_2N_1 (Rs 213900 ha^{-1}). The maximum net return (Rs 123788 ha^{-1}) and maximum BCR (2.48) were obtained by the treatment D_1N_3 . Higher grain yield obtained with these treatments has reflected in their economics. Application of granulated dolomite obtained higher yield compared to ordinary dolomite application, but as the cost of granulated dolomite is four times more than ordinary dolomite the highest BCR was obtained in treatment with application of ordinary dolomite along with foliar spray of potassium nitrate, hence they can be recommended for economic rice cultivation in *Kari* soil. Granulated dolomite can be recommended for cultivation after conducting trials with reduced rate of application compared to ordinary dolomite for making it more cost effective.

Summary

6. SUMMARY

The investigation entitled “Enhancing grain yield and quality through soil amelioration and foliar nutrition in rice (*Oryza sativa* L.) in *Vaikom Kari* soils” was carried out in *Vaikom Kari* soils of Kuttanad during *puncha* season from October 2020 to February 2021 for managing soil acidity, and to supplement nutrition at panicle initiation stage through foliar application of K and micronutrients and the results of the experiment are summarized below.

The experiment was laid out in Randomized Block Design (RBD). The effect of soil amelioration on soil parameters and growth characters was assessed in simple RBD with three treatments and fifteen replications. The treatments were, no dolomite application (T_1), application of ordinary dolomite basally and at 30 DAS at the rate of 500 kg ha⁻¹ (T_2) and application of granulated dolomite basally and at 30 DAS at the rate of 500 kg ha⁻¹ (T_3). The effect of soil amelioration and foliar nutrition on yield and yield attributes, plant nutrient content and uptake were analysed in factorial RBD with two factors and three replications. Factor A consisted of three levels of dolomite application, D_0 , D_1 and D_2 , similar to treatments mentioned above (T_1 , T_2 , and T_3), and factor B consisted of five levels of foliar nutrition at PI stage *viz.* without foliar application (N_0), FS of 1% KNO_3 (N_1), FS of 1% K_2SiO_3 (N_2), FS of 1% KNO_3 + 0.5% micronutrient solution (N_3) and FS of 1% K_2SiO_3 + 0.5% micronutrient solution (N_4). The treatment combinations were no dolomite application + without foliar application (D_0N_0), no dolomite application + FS of 1% KNO_3 (D_0N_1), no dolomite application + FS of 1% K_2SiO_3 (D_0N_2), no dolomite application + 1% KNO_3 + 0.5% micronutrient solution (D_0N_3), no dolomite application + 1% K_2SiO_3 + 0.5% micronutrient solution (D_0N_4), ordinary dolomite application + without foliar application (D_1N_0), ordinary dolomite application + FS of 1% KNO_3 (D_1N_1), ordinary dolomite application + FS of 1% K_2SiO_3 (D_1N_2), ordinary dolomite application + 1% KNO_3 + 0.5% micronutrient solution (D_1N_3), ordinary dolomite application + 1% K_2SiO_3 + 0.5% micronutrient solution (D_1N_4), granulated dolomite + without foliar application (D_2N_0), granulated dolomite + 1% KNO_3 (D_2N_1), granulated dolomite + 1% K_2SiO_3 (D_2N_2), granulated dolomite + 1% KNO_3 + 0.5% micronutrient solution (D_2N_3), granulated dolomite + 1%

K_2SiO_3 + 0.5% micronutrient solution (D_2N_4). The medium duration rice variety Uma (Mo 16) was used for the study.

Studies regarding growth characters revealed that application of granulated dolomite as basal and 30 DAS (D_2) enhanced the plant height at PI and harvesting stages along with higher LAI at MT and PI stages, and the same treatment recorded the highest number of tillers at both MT and PI stages on par with ordinary dolomite application. Application of granulated dolomite as basal+ 30 DAS recorded significantly higher dry matter production. Foliar spray of 1% KNO_3 gave higher dry matter production which was on par with all other treatments except treatment without foliar application.

The results of the experiment revealed that soil amelioration practices had significant effect on yield and yield attributes. The highest grain yield, straw yield, productive tillers, total grains per panicle, thousand grain weight and percentage of filled grains were obtained in treatment with application of granulated dolomite basally and 30 DAS in which grain yield was on par with D_1 . In case of foliar nutrition, application of 1% KNO_3 + 0.5% micronutrient solution at PI stage (N_3) resulted in higher grain yield which was on par with all other treatments except the treatment without foliar nutrition. Higher straw yield and thousand grain weight were obtained with application of 1% KNO_3 (N_1) at PI stage which was on par with N_3 . The higher percentage of filled grains was recorded in (N_1) which was on par with all other treatments except in treatment without foliar application. The interaction of soil amelioration and foliar nutrition did not show any influence on yield and yield attributes.

Soil analysis was carried out at PI and harvest stages, and soil amelioration practices had significant influence on pH, EC, OC and all available macro and micronutrient contents in the soil except Zn and Cu. Available N and P contents in the soil at harvest stage were also not influenced by the treatments. Addition of granulated dolomite (D_2) significantly enhanced available Ca and Mg contents and reduced S and Fe contents in the soil. Among various treatments, granulated dolomite application (D_2) recorded the highest soil pH, OC, available K, available Ca, available Mg and available B at both PI and harvesting stages and the highest N content at PI stage and the lowest S and Na contents at harvesting stages were also observed with the same treatment.

Treatment without dolomite application recorded the lowest pH, highest EC, available S, Na, and available Fe at both PI and harvesting stages.

Plant nutrient contents and uptake were significantly influenced by soil amelioration practices, foliar nutrition and by their interaction effects. The highest N, P, K, Ca and Mg content in grain was increased with application of granulated dolomite as basal+30 DAS. Same trend was observed with the highest content of K, Ca and Mg in straw. The highest P and S content in straw was obtained with treatment with no dolomite application. Soil amelioration practices failed to express significant effect on N content in straw. In case of foliar nutrition, FS of 1% KNO₃ + 0.5 % micronutrient solution recorded the highest N content in grain and the same treatment recorded higher P content in grain followed by N₀, Ca content in grain followed by N₁ and the highest Ca and S content in straw followed by N₁. In grain, FS of 1% KNO₃ recorded the highest content of K, Mg and S in which Mg content was on par with N₄. Similar trend of result was observed in N, P, K and Mg content in straw in which N was on par with N₃ and Mg on par with N₀ and N₄. Among interaction, D₂N₃ obtained the highest N and Ca content in grain and Mg content in straw. In grain, the highest P content was obtained by D₁N₁ followed by D₂N₃, K content in D₂N₁, Ca content in D₂N₃ followed by D₂N₂ and D₁N₁, Mg content in D₂N₂ and S content in D₀N₁. In straw, the highest N content was obtained by D₁N₃, the highest K content in D₁N₂ followed by D₂N₂, D₂N₀, D₁N₄ and D₁N₁, highest Ca content in D₂N₂ followed by D₂N₃ and D₁N₁, the highest Mg content in D₂N₃ followed by D₂N₂, D₂N₀, D₁N₄ and D₁N₁, the highest P and S content on D₀N₁, and in S content it was on par with D₂N₄, D₂N₃ and D₁N₁.

Soil ameliorants significantly decreased the uptake of iron, hence Fe content in both grain and straw was the highest in D₀ and was on par with D₁. In case of grain, Mn content was enhanced by D₁ followed by D₂ and highest Zn and Cu content was obtained by D₀. D₂ obtained higher content of Mn and Zn in straw. Foliar spray of 1% KNO₃ recorded highest Fe content in both grain and straw. N₃ enhanced Mn and Zn content in both grain and straw and B content in straw. N₂ obtained the highest Na content in grain and N₄ recorded the highest Na content in straw. With regard to interaction effects, FS of 1% KNO₃ + 0.5% micronutrient solution (D₂N₃) recorded the highest Fe content in both grain and straw and in straw it was on par with D₁N₁ and

D₀N₄. The treatment (D₂N₃) obtained the highest Mn content in grain which was on par with D₂N₄ and D₁N₃ and in straw FS of 1% K₂SiO₃ + 0.5% micronutrient solution (D₂N₄) recorded the highest Mn content followed by D₂N₃. Treatment with no dolomite application along with FS of 1% K₂SiO₃ + 0.5% micronutrient solution (D₀N₄) showed the highest Zn content in grain and (D₂N₄) showed the highest Zn content in straw. The treatment (D₂N₂) obtained the highest Na content in grain and in straw (D₂N₄) recorded highest Na content.

Nitrogen, phosphorus, calcium and magnesium uptake in both grain and straw were enhanced by granulated dolomite application in which N and P uptake by grain was on par with D₁ and P uptake was on par with D₀. Foliar spray of 1% KNO₃ + 0.5% micronutrient solution (D₂N₃) increased the uptake of N, P and Ca in grain and S uptake in straw in which P uptake was on par with N₁ and N₄. Foliar spray of 1% KNO₃ alone recorded higher uptake of N, P, K and Ca in grain, Mg uptake in both grain and straw and S uptake in straw. Among interaction, D₂N₃ recorded higher N uptake by grain and D₂N₁ increased the uptake of N in straw. Higher uptake of K by grain was observed in D₂N₁ followed by D₁N₁ and D₀N₁. (D₂N₃) recorded higher Ca uptake by grain and straw. D₂N₄ recorded highest Mg uptake by grain which was on par with D₁N₄. Application of granulated dolomite along with 1% KNO₃ + 0.5% micronutrient solution (D₂N₃) obtained higher Mg uptake by straw which was on par with D₂N₂ and D₂N₁. The treatment D₁N₃ registered higher S uptake by grain and in straw, higher uptake was recorded by D₂N₃.

The highest gross income was obtained by the application of granulated dolomite along with FS of 1% KNO₃ (D₂N₁). However, maximum net return and maximum BCR were obtained by ordinary dolomite application along with FS of 1% KNO₃ + 0.5% micronutrient solution (D₂N₃).

Future line of work

1. More foliar nutrition studies with different doses of KNO_3 should be experimented at PI and post PI stages like flag leaf stage as the effect of nutrient deficiency is more pronounced at these stages.
2. Grain discoloration which reduces grain quality is hindering the process of paddy procurement in Vaikom Kari soil. This is a complex problem of nutrient deficiency as well as fungal infection of grains. Hence research on compatible mixing of fungicides with foliar nutrients may be taken up.
3. The granulated dolomite is more effective but their cost is comparatively high. Hence investigation on effect of lower doses of granulated dolomite on ameliorating acidity may also be carried out.

References

7. REFERENCES

- Abed-Ashtiani, F., Kadir, J.B., Selamat, A.B., Hanif, A.H.B.M. and Nasehi, A.2012. Effect of foliar and root application of silicon against rice blast fungus in MR219 rice variety. *Plant Pathol J.* 28(2), pp.164-171.
- Abou-Baker, N.H., Abd-Eladl, M. and Abbas, M.M. 2011. Use of silicate and different cultivation practices in alleviating salt stress effect on bean plants. *Aust. j. basic appl. sci.* 5(9): 769-781.
- Agostinho, F.B., Tubana, B.S, Martins, M.S., Datnoff, L.E. 2017. Effect of different silicon sources on yield and silicon uptake of rice grown under varying phosphorus rates. *Plants.*6 (3):35.
- Agrios, G.N. (2005) *Plant Pathology.* 5th Edition, Elsevier Academic Press, Amsterdam.
- Ahmad, A., Afzal, M., Ahmad, A., Tahir, M. 2013. Effect of foliar application of silicon on yield and quality of rice (*Oryza Sativa L.*). *Cercet. agron. Mold.* 46(3):21-28.
- Ahmad, R. and Jabeen, R. 2005. Foliar spray of mineral elements antagonistic to sodium-a technique to induce salt tolerance in plant growing under saline condition. *Pak. J. Bot.* 37(4):913-920
- Alam, S.S., Moslehuddin, A.Z.M., Islam, M.R., and Kamal, A.M. 2010. Soil and foliar application of nitrogen for boro rice (BRRI dhan 29). *J. Bangladesh Agric. Univ.* 8 (2): 199-202.
- Ali, A., Mahmood, I.A., Hussain.F. and M. Salim.2007. Response of rice to soil and foliar application of K₂SO₄ fertilizer. *Sarhad J. Agric.* 23(4):847-850.
- Ali, A., Salim, M., Zia, M.S., Mahmood, I.A., and Shahzad, A. 2005. Performance of rice as affected by foliar application of different K fertilizer sources. *Pak J. Agri. Sci.* 42(1-2):38-41.

- Ali, S., Shah, A., Arif, M., Mirja, G., Ali, I., Khan, M.F.A., and Moula, N. 2009. An introduction of plant nutrients and foliar fertilization: A Review. *J. Agric.* 25: 1–10.
- Amtmann, A., Troufflard, S., Armengaud, P. 2008. The effect of potassium nutrition on pest and disease resistance in plants. *Physiol Plant.* 133(4):682–691.
- Anda, M., Shamsuddin, J., Fauziah, C. I, Omar, S, R, S .2009. Dissolution of ground basalt and its effect on an Oxisol chemical properties and cocoa growth. *Soil Sci* .174(5):264–271.
- Arif, M., Arshad, M., Asghar, H. N. and Basra, S. M. A. (2010). Response of rice (*Oryza sativa*) genotypes varying in K use efficiency to various levels of potassium. *Int. J. Agric Biol.* 12 (6):926–930.
- Asad, A. and Rafique, R. 2002. Identification of micronutrient deficiency of wheat in the Peshawar Valley, Pakistan. *Commun. Soil Sci. Plant Anal.* 33 (3–4): 349–364.
- Aslam, M., Mahmood, I. H., Qureshi, R. H., Nawaz, S., Akhtar, J., and Ahmad, Z. 2002. Nutritional role of calcium in improving rice growth and yield under adverse conditions. *Int. J. Agric.* 3(3):292- 297.
- Astrom, M., Osterholm, P., Barlund, I., and Tattari, S. 2007. Hydrochemical effects of surface liming, controlled drainage and lime-filter drainage on boreal acid sulfate soils. *Water Air Soil Pollut.* 179(1):107–116.
- Attanandana, T. and Vacharotayan, S. 1986. Acid sulfate soils: Their characteristics, genesis, amelioration and utilization (Problem Soils in Southeast Asia). *Southeast Asian Stud.* 24(2):154-180.
- Audebert, A. and Sahrawat, K. L. 2000. Mechanisms of iron toxicity tolerance in lowland rice. *J. Plant Nutr.* 27(11-12): 1877-1885.

- Azman, E. A., Jusop, S., Ishak, C. F., and Ismail, R. 2014. Increasing rice production using different lime sources on an acid sulphate soil in Merbok, Malaysia. *Pertanika J. Trop. Agric.l Sci.* 37 (2) 223 – 247.
- Becker, M. and Asch, F. 2005. Iron toxicity in rice conditions and management concepts. *J. Plant. Nutr. Soil Sci.* 168(4):558-573.
- Beena, V. I. 2005. Land evaluation and crop suitability rating of the acid sulphate soils of Kuttanad for sustainable land use planning. Ph. D. thesis, Kerala Agricultural University, Thrissur, 207p.
- Beena, V. I. and Thampatti, K. C. 2013. Characterization of acid sulphate soils in Kerala. *J. Life sci.* 7(8), 907 – 912.
- Benckiser, G., Santiago, S., Neue, H. U., Watanabe, I., and Ottow, J. C. G. 1984. Effect of fertilization on exudation, dehydrogenase activity, iron-reducing population and Fe formation in rhizosphere of rice (*Oryza sativa* L.) in relation to iron toxicity. *Plant Soil* 79(3): 305-316.
- Bhargava, B. S., and Raghupathi, H. B. 1995. Analysis of plant material for macro and micronutrients. In: Tandon, H.L.S. (ed.), *Methods of analysis of soils, plants, water and fertilizers*. Malhotra publishing house, New Delhi, pp. 61-62.
- Bhuyan, M.H.M., Ferdousi, M.R., and Iqbal, M.T. 2012. Foliar spraying of nitrogen fertilizer increases the yield of rice over conventional method. *ISRN Agron*, pp.12-20.
- Bian, M., Zhou, M., Sun, D., Li, C. 2013. Molecular approaches unravel the mechanism of acid soil tolerance in plants. *Crop J.* 1(2):91–104.
- Biasi, C., Lind, S. E., Pekkarinen, N. M., Huttunen, J. T., Shurpali, N. J., Hyvonen, N. P., Repo, M. E., and Martikainen, P. J. 2008. Direct experimental evidence for the contribution of lime to CO₂ release from managed peat soil. *Soil Biol. Biochem.* 40(10): 2660-2669.

- Bingham, F. T. 1982. Boron. In: Page, A. L. (ed.). *Methods of Soil Analysis* (2nd Ed.). *Am. Soc. Agron.* pp. 431-447.
- Bishnoi, S. K., Tripathi, B. R., and Kanwar, B.S. 1987. Toxic metals and their relationships with soil characteristics in acid soils of Himachal Pradesh. *India. J. Agric. Chem.* 20:231-242.
- Biswas, B., Dey, D., Pal, S., and Kole, N. 2013. Integrative effect of magnesium sulphate on the growth of flowers and grain yield of paddy: a chemist's perspective. *Rasayan J. Chem.* 6(4): 300-302.
- Bolan, N. S., Adriano, C. D., and Curtin, D. 2003. Soil acidification and liming interactions with nutrient and heavy metal transformation and bioavailability. *Adv. Agron.* 78.
- Boorboori, M.R., Asli, E.D., and Tehrani, M. 2012. Effect of micronutrient application by different methods on yield, morphological traits and grain protein percentage of barley (*Hordeum vulgare* L.). *J. Adv. Environ. Biol.* 6 (2): 740.
- Bose, J., Babourina, O., and Rengel, Z. 2011. Role of magnesium in alleviation of aluminium toxicity in plants. *J. Exp. Botany* 62(7): 2251-2264.
- Bray, R. H., and Kurtz, L. T. 1945. Determination of total, organic, and available forms of phosphorus in soils. *Soil Sci.* 59(1): 39-46.
- Breemen, N., and Pons, L. J. 1978. Acid Sulfate Soils and Rice. *Soils and Rice*. IRRI. pp. 739-761.
- Bridgit, T. K. 1999. Nutritional balance analysis for productivity improvement of rice in iron rich lateritic alluvium. Ph.D. Thesis, Kerala Agricultural University, Thrissur.
- Bridgit, T. K. and Potty, N. N. 1992. Chlorophyll content in rice and its significance. In: *Proceedings of the Fourth Kerala Science Congress, Thrissur*, 220-230.

- Bridgit, T. K. and Potty, N. N., 2002. A new production technology for rice in iron toxic-laterite soils, SAIC News let.pp.12-10.
- Brown, P.H., Shelp, B.J .1997. Boron mobility in plants. *Plant Soil*. 193:85–101.
- Buck, G.B., Korndorfer, G.H., Nolla, A., and Coelho, L. 2008. Potassium silicate as foliar spray and rice blast control. *J Plant Nutr*. 31(2): 231-237.
- Buni, A. 2015. Effects of liming acidic soils on improving soil properties and yield of haricoat bean. *J. bioremediat. biodegrad*. 6 (2): 1-3.
- Caires, E.F., Fonseca, A.F., Feldhaus, I.C., Blum, J. 2001. Root growth and nutrient uptake by soybean as affected by lime and gypsum, under a no-tillage system. *Rev. Bras. Cienc. Solo*. 25: 1029-1040.
- Cakmak, I. and Romheld, V. 1997. Boron deficiency induced - impairments of cellular functions in plants. *Plant Soil*. 193(1): 71–83.
- Castro, G. S. A., Crusicol, C. A. C., da costa, C. H. M., Ferrari Neto ,J.,and Mancuso, M.A.C.2016.Surface application of limestone and calcium –magnesium silicate in a tropical no-tillage system.*J.Soilsci.Plant Nutr*.16(2):362-379.
- Chalmardi, Z K., Abdolzadeh, A., and Sadeghipour, H R. 2014. Silicon nutrition potentiates the antioxidant metabolism of rice plants under iron toxicity, *Acta Physiol Pl*. 36(2): 493-503.
- Chang.C.S. and Sung, J.M.2004. Nutrient uptake and yield responses of peanuts and rice to lime and fused magnesium phosphate in an acid soil .*Field Crops Res*. 89 (2-3):319-325.
- Chatterjee, S. and Mondal, P. 2020. Impact of nitrogen and potash on the incidence of *Scirpophaga incertulas* and *Cnaphalocrocis medinalis* and yield of rice. *Int. j. bio-resource. Stress manag*.11 (5): 482-487.

- Chattopadhyay, S. and Sidharthan, S. 1985. Regional analysis of the greater Kuttanad, Kerala. *Technical Report No. 43*, Centre for Earth Science Studies, Trivandrum. 120p.
- Chenery, E.M., 1954. Acid sulphate soils in Central Africa. *Trans. 5th Int. Cong. Soil Science*, Leopoldville, 4, pp.195-198.
- Curtin, D. and Syers, J, K. 2001. Lime-induced changes in indices of soil phosphate availability. *Soil Sci Soc Am J* .65(1):147–152.
- Datnoff, L. E., Raid, R. N., Snyder, G. H., and Jones, D. B. 1991. Effect of calcium silicate on blast and brown spot intensities and yields of rice. *Plant Dis.* 75(7): 729-732.
- De Datta, S. K. 1981. *Principles and Practices of Rice Production*. John Wiley and Sons, Singapore. 618p
- Dehaghi, M.A., Agahi, K., Kiani, S., 2018. Agro morphological response of rice (*Oryza sativa* L.) to foliar application of potassium silicate. *Biharean Biol.* 12 (1): 33-36.
- Dent, D. L. 1986. Acid Sulphate Soils: A Baseline for Research and Development 39, *International Institute for Land Reclamation and improvement Publication*, Wageningen, The Netherlands, 24 pp.
- Dent, D.L. and Pons, L. J. 1995. A world perspective on acid sulphate soils. In: *Geoderma*, Vol.67, Elsevier, pp.263-276.
- Devi, V. S. 2017. Acidity amelioration and nutrient management practices for mitigating yield constraints of rice in *Vaikom Kari*, PhD. Thesis, Kerala Agricultural University, Thrissur, 42p.
- Dixit, S. P. 2006. Effect of lime and phosphorus on yield and nutrients uptake by maize in mountain acidic soils of HP. *Ann. Agric. Res. New Ser.* 27(3): 277- 282.

- Dixon, R.C. 2003. Foliar fertilization improves nutrient use efficiency. *Fluid J.* 11:22-23.
- Dobermann, A. and Fairhurst, T.2000. Rice nutrient disorders and nutrient management. Handbook series. Potash & Phosphate Institute of Canada (PPIC), east and southeast Asian programs, Singapore; and International Rice Research Institute (IRRI), Makati City 1271, IRRI, Manila, Philippines, 191p.
- Donald, C. M. and Hamblin, J. 1976. Biological yield and harvest index of cereals as agronomic and plant breeding criteria. *Adv. Agron.* 28: 361-405.
- Duarte, A.P., R.B. Queiroz-Voltan, P.R. Furlani, and R. A.D. Kanthack. 1999. Resposta de cultivares de arroz-de-sequeiro à calagem. *Bragantia* 58(2):353–361.
- Ebrahimi, R.F., Rahdari, P., Vahed, H.S., and Shahinrokhsar, P.2012. Rice response to different methods of potassium fertilization in salinity stress condition. *J. Agric. & Environ. Sci.* 12 (11): 1441-1445.
- El-Fouly, M.M., and El-Sayed, A.A. 1997. *Foliar fertilization: An environmentally friendly application of fertilizers*. Dahlia Greidinger International Symposium on “Fertilization and Environment” 24-27 March, pp. 346–357.
- Elisa, A.A., Ninomiya, S., Shamsuddin, J., and Roshan, I.2016. Aluminating aluminium toxicity in an acid sulphate soil from peninsular Malaysia by calcium silicate application. *Solid Earth*.7 (2), p.367.
- El-Magid, A. A. A., Knany, R.E., El-Fotoh, H. G.A. 2000. Effect of foliar application of some micronutrients on wheat yield and quality. *J. Annals of Agric. Sci.* 1(Special): 301-313.
- Emmel, R. H., Solera, J. J., and Stux, R. L.1977. Atomic adsorption methods manual. Instrumentation Laboratory Inc., Wilmington, pp.67-190.
- Epstein E. 1999. Silicon. *Annual Review of Plant Biology*50: 641–664.

- Epstein, E. 1994. The anomaly of silicon in plant biology. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the USA 91: 11–17.
- Ernani, P.R., Mantovani, A., Scheidt, F.R., and Nesi, C., 2012. Liming decreases the vertical mobility of potassium in acidic soils. *Commun Soil Sci Plant Anal.* 43(19): 2544–2549.
- Esfahani, A. A., Pirdashti, H., and Niknejhad, Y. 2014. Effect of iron, zinc and silicon application on quantitative parameters of rice (*Oryza sativa* L. CV. Tarom Mahalli). *Intl. J. Farm & Alli. Sci.*, 3 (5): 529-533.
- Fageria, N. K., Zimmermann, F.J.P., and, Baligar, V.C. 1995. Lime and phosphorus interactions on growth and nutrient uptake by upland rice, wheat, common bean, and corn in an Oxisol. *J. Plant Nutr.* 18(11): 2516–2532.
- Fageria, N.K. 1988. Influence of iron on nutrient uptake by rice. *Int. Rice Res Newslett.* 13:20–21
- Fageria, N.K. and Rabelo, N.A. 1987. Tolerance of Rice Cultivars to Iron Toxicity. *J. Plant Nutr.* 10(6): 653-661.
- Fageria, N.K., Filho, M.B.P., Moreira, A., and Guimaraes, C.M. 2009. Foliar fertilization of crop plants. *J. Plant Nutr.* 32(6): 1044-1064.
- Fageria, N.K., Santos, A.B., Filho, M.P.B., Guimaraes, C.M., 2008. Iron toxicity in lowland rice. *J. Plant Nutr.* 31(9), 1676–1697
- Gaines, T. P. and Mitchell, G. A. 1979. Boron determination in plant tissue by the azomethine-H method. *Commun. Soil Sci. Plant Anal.* 10(8): 1099-1108.
- Gholami, Y. and A. Falah. 2013. Effects of two different sources of silicon on dry matter production, yield, and yield components of rice, Tarom Hashemi variety and 843 lines. *Int. j. agric. crop sci.* 5(3):227–231.
- Girma, K., Martin, K.L., Freeman, K.W. Mosali, J., Teal, R.K., Raun, W., Moges, R.S.M., and Arnall, D.B. 2007. Determination of optimum rate and growth for

- foliar applied phosphorus in corn. *Commun. Soil Sci. Plant Anal.* 38(9-10): 1137-1154.
- Gladis, R. 2015. Effect of silicon and boron on nutrient status and yield of rice in laterite. 17 (3), pp. 299– 302.
- GoI (Government of India). 2021. Annual Report 2020-21 [on-line]. Available: https://agricoop.nic.in/sites/default/files/Web%20copy%20of%20AR%20%28Eng%29_7.pdf. [31 March 2021]
- GoK (Government of Kerala). 2021. Agricultural Statistics 2020-21 [on-line]. Available: <http://www.ecostat.kerala.gov.in/index.php/agricultures>. [31 March 2021].
- Goldberg, S. 1997. Reactions of boron with soils. *Plant Soil.* 193, 35–48.
- Graham, R.D. and Webb, M.J. 1991. Micronutrients and disease resistance and tolerance in plants. *Micronutrients in agriculture*, 4:329-370.
- Guevel, M.H., Menzies, J.G. and Belanger, R.R. 2007. Effect of root and foliar applications of soluble silicon on powdery mildew control and growth of wheat plants. *Eur. J. Plant Pathol.* 119 (4):429-436.
- Haby, V.A., 2002. Soil fertility and management of acid coastal plain soils for crop production. *Commun. Soil Sci. Plant Anal.* 33(15-18):2497-2520.
- Halim, A., Siddique, M.N.E.A., Sarker, B. C., Islam, M. J., Hossain, M. F., and Kamaruzzaman, M. 2014. Assessment of Nutrient Dynamics Affected By Different Levels of Lime in a Mungbean Field of the Old Himalayan Piedmont Soil in Bangladesh. *J. Agri. Veterinary Sci*, 7: 101-112.
- Haling, R.E., Simpson, R.J., Delhaize, E., Hocking, P.J., and Richardson, A.E. 2010. Effect of lime on root growth, morphology and the rhizosphere of cereal seedlings growing in an acid soil. *Plant Soil* .327(1):199–212.

- Hara T., Gu M. H., and Koyama, H. 1999. Ameliorative effect of silicon on aluminium injury in the rice plant. *Soil Sci. Plant Nutr.* 45(4): 929–936.
- Hasan, M., Akter, M. B., Karim, M. M., Yasmine, F., and Hasan, A. K. 2020. Response of potassium nitrate on yield and yield contributing characters of boro rice cv. BRRI dhan28. *Int. j. multidiscip. res. Anal.* 1(1): 5-13.
- Hasewaga, P., Bressan, R.A., Zhu, J.K., and Bohnert, H.J. 2000. Plant cellular and molecular responses to high salinity. *Annu. Rev. Plant Mol. Biol.* 51(1): 463- 499.
- Hashemy, M.K., Malakoty, M.J., and Tabatabaey, V.S.J. 1998. Effect of foliar application of micronutrients in quality and quantity potato crop in Eastern Azarbyjan Province. *J. Sci. Res. Soil Water* 12: 44–55.
- Hayasaka, T., Fujii, H., and Namai, T. 2005. Silicon content in rice seedlings to protect rice blast fungus at the nursery stage. *J. Gen. Plant Pathol.* 71(3): 169-173.
- Haynes, R.J. and Ludecke, T.E. 1981. Effect of lime and phosphorus application on concentration of available nutrients and on P, Al, and Mn uptake by two pasture legumes in an acid soil. *Plant and Soil* .62(1): 117-128.
- Hesse, P.R. 1971. A text book of Soil chemical Analysis. John Murray Ltd.: London.
- Huber, D.M., Wilhelm, N.S. 1988. The role of manganese in resistance to plant diseases. *Dev. Plant Soil Sci* .33:155-173.
- Hussanin, M., Khani, A, M., Khan, M.B., Farooq, M., and Farooq, S. 2012. Precision Farming: A New Approach. *J. Rice Sci.* 19: 24–30.
- Imas P, Magen H. Management of potassium nutrition in balanced fertilization for soybean yield and quality – Global perspective. In: Proceedings of Region-al Seminar on Recent Advances in Soybean-based crop-ping system. National Research Centre for Soybean, Indore. 28-29 September, 2007, 1-20.
- Issac, R.A. and Kerber, J. D. 1971. Atomic adsorption and flame photometry techniques and uses in soil, plant and water analysis. In: Walsh, I.M. (ed.), Instrumental

methods for analysis of soil and plant tissue. Soil Science society America, Madison, USA, pp.17-37.

Jackson, M. L. 1973. Soil Chemical Analysis (2nd Ed.). Prentice Hall of India, New Delhi, 498p.

Jagathjothi, N., Muthukrishnan, P., and Amanullah, M.M. 2012. Influence of foliar nutrition on growth and yield of transplanted rice. *Madras Agric. J.* 99 (4-6): 275-278.

Jamal, Z., Hamayun, M., Ahmad, N., and Chaudhary, M.F. 2006. Effect of soil and foliar application of different concentrations of NPK and foliar application of $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$ on different parameters in wheat. *J. Agron.* 5 (2): 251–256.

Jena, K.K., Jeung, J.U., Lee, J.H., Choi, H.C. and Brar, D.S. 2006. High-resolution mapping of a new brown planthopper (BPH) resistance gene, Bph18 (t), and marker-assisted selection for BPH resistance in rice (*Oryza sativa* L.). *Theor. Appl. Genet.* 112(2), pp.288-297.

Jin, Z., Minyan, W., Lianghuan, W., Jiangguo, W. and Chunhai, S. 2008. Impacts of combination of foliar iron and boron application on iron biofortification and nutritional quality of rice grain. *J. Plant Nutr.* 31(9):1599-1611.

Jinhong, C., Guojuan, M., Guoping, Z. and Hengde, G., 2002. Effects of silicon on dry matter and nutrient accumulation and grain yield in hybrid Japonica rice (*Oryza sativa* L.). *J Zhejiang Univ-Sc* .28(1): 22-26.

John, P. S., Mercy, G., and Jacob, D. 2001. Nutrient mining in agro climatic zones of Kerala. *Fert. News*, 46 (8): 45-57.

Jothi. Keerthana, M.P., Gomathi, S., B Priya, B., Ramesh, T., and Rathika, S .2019. Effect of foliar spray of potassium on rice under sodic soil. *J. Pharm. Innov.* 8(8): 244-247.

- Jugsujinda, A. and Patrick, W.H. 1993. Evaluation of toxic conditions associated with orangng symptoms of rice in a flooded Oxisol in Sumatra, Indonesia. *Plant Soil*. 152(2):237–243
- Kannan, V. M., Augustine, T., Navya., and Mahesh. 2014. Geochemistry and heavy metals in the soils of unique tropical rice agricultural ecosystem. *J. Environ.* 3(1): 5-11
- Karan, A.K., Singh, V.K. and Kar, S.2015. Effects of liming, soil moisture regimes and application of sulphur and some micronutrients on soil plant availability of nutrients and yield of rice (*Oriza Sativa L*) in acid laterite soil. *Int. j. environ* .8(3):625-637.
- KAU (Kerala Agricultural University), 2011. Package of Practices Recommendations: Crops (14th Edn.). Kerala Agricultural University, Thrissur, 360.
- Keene, W. C., Pszenny, A. A. P., Maben, J. R., Stevenson, E., and Wall, A. 2004., Closure evaluation of size-resolved aerosol pH in the New England coastal atmosphere during summer, *J. Geophys. Res.*, 109.
- Khan, A. W., Mann, M. Saleem and A. Majeed. 2012. Comparative rice yield and economic advantage of foliar KNO_3 over soil applied K_2SO_4 . *Pak. J. Agric. Sci.* 49(4): 481-484.
- Khan, M.B., Farooq, M., Hussain, M., Shanawaz, and Shabir, G. 2010. Foliar application of micronutrients improves the wheat yield and net economic return. *Int. J. Agric. Biol.* 12 (6): 953–956.
- Kim, S. G., Kim, K. W., Park, E. W., and Choi, D. 2002. Silicon-induced cell wall fortification of rice leaves: a possible cellular mechanism of enhanced host resistance to blast. *Phytopathology* 92(10):1095–1103.
- Korndofer, G.H., Snyder, G.H., Ulloa, M., Powell, G., and Datnoff, L.E.2001. Calibration of soil and plant silicon analysis for rice production. *J. Plant Nutr.* 24 (7):1071-1084.

- Koruth, A., Suresh Kumar, P., Indira, M., and Jayaraj P. 2013. Soil fertility: Special Zones. In: Rajasekharan, P., Nair, K. M., Rajasree, G., Sureshkumar, P., and Narayanan Kutty, M. C. (eds). Soil Fertility Assessment and Information Management for Enhancing Crop Productivity in Kerala. Kerala State Planning Board, Thiruvananthapuram, pp. 458-477.
- Kumar, M., Hazarika S., Rajkhowa D.J., Ramesh T., Bordoloi L. J., and Krishnappa .R. 2012. Integrated nutrient management for enhancing maize productivity on an acid alfisol of Meghalaya, India. In: Compendium of Abstracts, 8th PSILPH, UAS, Bangalore pp: 323-324
- Kundu, A., Raha, P., Dubey, A. N., Rani, M., Paul, A., and Patel, R. 2020. Differential responses of rice (*Oryza sativa* L.) to foliar fertilization of organic potassium salts. *J. Plant Nutr.* 44 (9):1330-1348.
- Kundu, C. and Sarkar, R. K. 2009. Effect of foliar application of potassium nitrate and calcium nitrate on performance of rainfed lowland rice (*Oryza sativa* L.). *Indian J. Agron.* 54(4): 428-432.
- Lahijani, A.D., Mosavi, A. A., Moballeghi, M. 2020. Effects of micronutrients foliar application on rice (*Oryza Sativa* L. cv. Shiroodi) morphological traits, yield and yield components. *Int J Agric & Biol Eng.* 13 (1): 217–223.
- Langenhoff, R. 1986. *Distribution, mapping, classification and use of acid sulphate soils in the tropics: a literature study* (No.74). Soil Survey Institute.
- Latha, M.R., and Nandanassababady T. 2003. Foliar nutrition in crops. *Agric.Rev.* 24 (3): 229-234.
- Lestari, Y., Maas, A., Purwanto, B.H., and Utami, S.N.H. 2016. The Influence of Lime and Nitrogen Fertilizer on Soil Acidity, Growth and Nitrogen Uptake of Corn in Total Reclaimed Potential Acid Sulphate Soil. *J. Agric. Sci.* 8(12):1916-9752.

- Liang, Y.C., Sun, W.C., Si, J., and Römheld, V. 2005. Effects of foliar-and root-applied silicon on the enhancement of induced resistance to powdery mildew in *Cucumis sativus*. *Plant Pathology*. 54(5):678-685.
- Liew, C.S. 1988. Foliar fertilizers from Uniroyal and their potential in Pakistan. *Proceedings of Seminar on micro-nutrient in soils and crops in Pakistan*. 277p.
- Lin, X. and Zhu, D.F. 2000. Effect of regent on growth and yield in rice. *Acta. Agric.* 12 (2):70-73.
- Lindsay, W.L. and Norvell, W.A. 1978. Development of a DTPA Soil Test for Zinc, Iron, Manganese, and Copper. *Soil Set. Sac. Am. J.* 42(3): 421-428.
- Lu, G. and Cao, J. 2001. Effects of silicon on earliness and photosynthetic characteristics of melon. *Acta Horticulture Sinica*, 28(5): 421-424.
- Ma, J.F., and E. Takahashi .2002. Soil fertilizer and plant silicon research in Japan. *Elsevier sci.* The Netherland. 281 pp.
- Ma, J.F., Tamai, K., Yamaji, N., Mitani, N., Konishi, S., Katsuhara, M., Fujiwara, T., and Yano, M. 2007. An efflux transporter of silicon in rice. *Nature* 448(7150):209-212.
- Mahajan, G., Sarlach, R.S., and Gill, M.S. 2012. Effect of foliar application of potassium nitrate and urea on performance of transplanted rice. *Ecol. Environ. Conserv.* 18:533-534.
- Majumder, N. D., Mandal, A. B., Ram, T., Singh, S., and Ansari, M. M. 1995. Improvement of crop productivity in Bay Islands-approaches and achievements, Res Bull-10. Central Agricultural Research Institute, Port Blair, 132p.
- Malav, J. and Sajid, M. 2015. Influence of Silicon Fertilization on Yield and Nutrients Uptake (Si, P, K, S & Na) of Rice (*Oryza Sativa* L.). *The Ecoscan*. 9(1-2):629-634.
- Mansingh, M.D.I., Suresh, S., Raj, M.A., and Vignesh, S .2019. Effect of liming on yield and nutrient uptake of rice in acidic soils. *Int. J. Chem. Stud.* 7(3): 2540-2543.

- Marchand, M., and B. Bourrie, 1999. Use of potash fertilizers through different application methods for high yield and quality crops. *Dev. Plant and Soil Sci*, 86(1): 13-17.
- Marschner, H .1991. Mechanisms of adaptation of plants to acid soils. *Plant Soil* 134:1–20.
- Marschner, H.1995.Functions of Mineral Nutrients: Micronutrients. In: Mineral Nutrition of Higher Plants, 2nd Edition, Academic Press, London, 313-404.
- Martin, P. A., and Thomas, P. C.1988. Dietary manipulation of the yield and composition of milk: effects of dietary inclusions of barley and oats in untreated or formaldehyde-treated forms on milk fatty acid composition. *J. Sci. Food Agric.*, 43 (2): 145-154.
- Marykutty, K. C. and Aiyer, R. S. 1987. Effect of liming and washing on soil characters. *Agric. Res. J. Kerala*. 25: 27-35.
- Mason, M.G., Porter, W.M., and Cox, W.J. 1994. Effect of an acidifying nitrogen fertilizer and lime on soil pH and wheat yields. 1. Soil effects. *Aust. J. Exp. Agric.*34 (2):237-246.
- Merino, G. C., Alberdi, M. Ivanov, A. G., and Reyes-Diaz, M. 2010. Al³⁺- Ca²⁺ interaction in plants growing in acid soils: Al-phytotoxicity response to calcareous amendments. *J. Soil. Sci. Plant Nutr.* 10(3): 217 -243
- Mohan, A., Tiwari, A., Kumar, M., Pandey, D., Singh, A., and Singh, B. 2017. Effect of foliar spray of various nutrients on performance of rainfed rice (*Oryza sativa* L.) *J. pharmacogn. phytochem.* 6(5): 2252-2256.
- Money, N. S., and Sukumaran, K. M. 1973. Chemical, microbiological and agronomic aspects of the acid saline water-logged soils of Kerala. Technical Bull. No 1, Directorate of Extension Education, Kerala Agricultural University, Mannuthy, Thrissur, 26p.

- Moore, P.A. and Patrick, W.H. 1989. Iron availability and uptake by rice in acid sulphate soils. *Soil Sci.Soc.Am.* 53 (2), 471-476.
- Moossa, P. P., Thulasi, V., and Johnkutty, I. 2012. The impact of lime application on lime requirement of soil under long term fertilizer experiment. In: Proceedings of the Kerala Environment Congress, 16-18 Aug.2012, Thiruvananthapuram, Rajiv Gandhi Centre for Biotechnology, Thiruvananthapuram, Ministry of Environment and Forests, Government of India and Kerala State Council for Science, Technology and Environment, Government of Kerala, pp.284-287.
- Mowidu, I. Sunarminto, B.H., Purwanto, B.H., and Nurayani.S.2017. P and Fe uptake of Rice with high soil Fe amended by compost and dolomite with different water management. *ARPN J. Agric. Biol. Sci.* 12(2):1990-6145.
- Nagula, S., Joseph, B., and Gladis, R. 2015. Effect of silicon and boron on nutrient status and yield of rice in laterite soils. *Ann. plant soil res.* 17(3): 299-302.
- Nair, K.M., Suresh Kumar, P., Narayanankutty, M.C., 2013. Soils of Kerala. In: Rajasekharan, P., Nair, K.M., Rajasree, G., Suresh Kumar, P., Narayanankutty, M.C. (Eds.), Soil Fertility Assessment and Information Management for Enhancing Crop Productivity in Kerala. Kerala State Planning Board, Thiruvananthapuram, 72–92.
- Nair, P. G. and Money, N. S. 1972. Studies on some chemical and mechanical properties of salt affected rice soils of Kerala. *Agric. Res. J. Kerala.* 10(1): 51- 53.
- Narang, R.S., Mahal, S.S., Seema, B., Gosal K.S., and Bedi.S. 1997. Response of rice and wheat of K-fertilization under maximum yield research strategies. *Enviro. Eco.* 19(2): 474-477.
- Neenu, S., Karthik, K.S., Kumar, A.K.S., Nair, K.M.2020. Kuttanad soils: the potential acid sulphate soils of Kerala. *Harit dhara* 3(2):19-23.

- Neue, H. U., Quijano, C., Senadhira, D. and Setter, T. 1998. Strategies for dealing with micronutrient disorders and salinity in lowland rice systems. *Field Crop Res.*, 56(1-2): 139-155
- Okuda, A. and Takahashi. E. 1962b: Studies on the physiological role of silicon in crop plants (Part 9). Effect of metabolic inhibitor on silicon uptake by rice plant. *J. Sci. Soil Manure.* 33:453-455.
- Olaleye, A.O., Tabi, F.O., Ogunkunle, A.O., Singh, B.N., and Sahrawat, K.L.2001.Effect of toxic iron concentrations on the growth of lowland rice. *J.Plant.Nutr.*24 (3):441-457.
- Ottow, J. C. G., Prade, K., Bertenbreiter, W., Jacq, V. A. (1993): Iron toxicity mechanisms of flooded rice (*Oryza sativa* L.) in Senegal and Indonesia, in Raunet, M.: Bas-Fonds et Riziculture. CIRAD-CA, Montpellier, France, pp. 231–241.
- Panda, N. and Chamuah, G.S. 2002. Soil acidity, In *Fundamentals of Soil Science* (G.S. Sekhon et al., Eds.), pp. 281-290. Indian Society of Soil Science, New Delhi.
- Panhwar, Q., Naher, U., Shamshuddin, J., Othman, R., and Hakeem, K. 2016. Management of Acid Sulfate Soils for Sustainable Rice Cultivation in Malaysia. In: *Soil Science: Agricultural and Environmental Perspectives*, Springer, Cham, pp.91-104.
- Pankova, Ye. I., Khitrov, N. B., Novikova, A. P., Koroleva, I. B., Utkaeva, V. F., Varobeva, L. A., and Redly, M. 2009. Chemical Amelioration of Soils. In: B. S. Maslov (Ed.), *Agricultural Land Improvement Ameliorant and Reclamation.*, Vol. 2, EOLLS publishers, United Kingdom pp. 144-184.
- Paradelo, R., Virto, I. and Chenu, C.2015. Net effect of liming on soil organic carbon stocks: a review. *Agric. Ecosyst. Environ.*202, pp.98-107.
- Patel, K.P., Patel, A.K., Patel, A.M., Patel, K.C., and Patel, V.P. 2008. Effect of multi-micronutrient mixture on yield and uptake of micronutrients by Wheat (*Triticum*

- aestivum* L.) growth on sandy loam soils of North Gujarat. *Asian J. Soil Sci.* 3 (1): 84–87.
- Patil, P.L. and Ananthanarayana, R. 1989. Effect of Lime Level as Indicated by Different Methods on Soil Properties. *Karnataka J. Agric Sci.* 2:273-380.
- Patra, B. N. and Mohanty, S. K. 1994. Effect of nutrients and liming on changes in pH, redox potential, and uptake of iron and manganese by wetland rice in iron – toxic soil. *Biol. Fert. Soils.* 17(4): 285-288.
- Piper, C. S. 1967. Soil and Plant Analysis. Asia Publishing House, Bombay 368p.
- Ponnamperuma, F.N. 1972. The chemistry of submerged soils. *Adv. Agron.* 24.
- Prychid, C.J., Rudall, P.J. and Gregory, M., 2003. Systematics and biology of silica bodies in monocotyledons. *Bot. Rev.* 69(4), pp.377-440.
- Qin, S. C. 1979. Effects of Si fertilizer on the enhancement of resistance of against fungal diseases and yield. *J. Zhejiang Univ. - Agric.* 1:12-15.
- Rahman, M. A., Meisner, C. A., Duxbury, J. M., Lauren, J., and Hossain, A. B. S. 2002. Yield response and change in soil nutrient availability by application of lime, fertilizer and micronutrients in acidic soil in a rice- wheat cropping system. In: Proceedings of the Seventeenth World Conference on Soil Science, 14-21 August 2002, Thailand.
- Ramirez. L., Classen, N., Ubiera, A., Werner, H., and Movad, A. 2002. Effect of phosphorus, potassium and zinc fertilizers on iron toxicity in wetland rice (*Oryza sativa*) *Plant soil* .149(2) 227-234.
- Rani, S.B., Krishna, G.T., and Munirathnam, P. 2014. Studies on the effect of foliar fertilization in combination with conventional fertilizers on yield, economics and nutrient uptake of rice (*Oryza sativa* L.) under K.C. canal ayacut area of Andhra Pradesh. *Indian Agric. Sci. Digest.* 34 (1): 15-20.

- Rao, P.R., Subrhamanyam, D., Sailaja, B., Singh, R.P, Ravichandran, V., Rao, G.S., Swain ,P., Sharma ,S.G., Saha, S., Nadaradjan, S., and Reddy, P.J. 2013. Influence of boron on spikelet fertility under varied soil conditions in rice genotypes. *J Plant Nutr* .36(3):390–400.
- Rashid, A., Yasin, M., Ali, M.A., Ahmad, Z., Ullah, R. 2009. Boron deficiency in rice in Pakistan: a serious constraint to productivity and grain quality. In: M. Ashraf, M. Ozturk, H.R. Athar (eds.). *Salinity and Water Stress*, pp. 213–219. SpringerVerlag, Berlin-Heidelberg, Germany.
- Rasouli, F., Pouya, A.K., and Karimian, N.2013. Wheat yield and physio – chemical properties of sodic soil from semi-arid area of Iran as affected by applied gypsum. *Geoderma*, 193, pp.246-255.
- Rastija, D., Zebec, V., and Rastija, M. 2014. Impacts of liming with dolomite on soil pH and phosphorus and potassium availabilities. In: *Proceedings of the Thirteenth Alps-Adria Scientific Workshop, Austria*. pp. 193-196.
- Rattanapichai, W., Kren, J., Duangpatra, P., Kanghae, P. 2013. Effects of soil conditioner on growth and yield of rice grown under acid sulfate soil. *Mendelnet* (1), pp147-153.
- Raven, J.A., 2003. Cycling silica-the role of accumulation in plants. *New Phytol.* 158: 419-421.
- Ravi, S. Ramesh, S and Chandrasekharan. (2007). Influence of foliar application of phytohormones and nutrients on yield and nutrient uptake of transplanted rice in Annamalainagar (TN), India. *Int. J. Plant Sci.* 2(1):69–71.
- Rengel, Z. 2003. Heavy Metals as Essential Nutrients. In: Prasad, M.N.V. and Hagemeyer, J., (Eds) *Heavy Metal Stress in Plants: Molecules to Ecosystems*, Springer-Verlag, Berlin, Heidelberg, 271-294.

- Rezende, D., Rodrigues, F., Carre-Missio, V., Schurt, D., Kawamura, I., and Korndorfer, G. 2009. Effect of root and foliar applications of silicon on brown spot development in rice. *Australas. Plant Pathol.* 38(1):67-73.
- Roemheld, V. and El-Fouly, M.M. 1999. Foliar nutrient application Challenge and limits in crop production. *Proceedings of the 2nd International Workshop on Foliar Fertilization*, Bangkok, Thailand, 4-10 April 1999.
- Rose, T. J., Kretschmar, T., Liu, L., Lancaster, G., and Wissuwa, M. 2016. Phosphorus deficiency alters nutrient accumulation patterns and grain nutritional quality in rice. *Agron.* 6(4): 52.
- Rosilawati, A. K., Shamsuddin, J., and Fauziah, C. I. 2014. Effects of incubating an acid sulfate soil treated with various liming materials under submerged and moist conditions on pH, Al and Fe. *Afr. J. Agric. Res.* 9 (1), 94-112.
- Ryan, P.R., Tyerman, S.D., Sasaki, T., Furuichi, T., Yamamoto, Y., Zhang, W.H., and Delhaize, E. 2011. The identification of aluminium-resistance genes provides opportunities for enhancing crop production on acid soils. *J. Exp. Bot.* 62(1): 9–20.
- Sahrawat, K. L. 2005. Fertility and organic matter in submerged rice soils. *Curr. Sci.* 88(5):735-739.
- Sahrawat, K. L. 2010. Plant Stress [e book]. Global Science Books
- Sahrawat, K.L., Mulbah, C.K., Diatta ,S., Delaune, R.D., Patrick ,W.H., Singh, B.N., Jones ,M.P. 1996.The role of tolerant genotypes and plant nutrients in the management of iron toxicity in lowland rice. *J Agric Sci* .126(2):143–149.
- Sakal, R., Singh, A.P., and Sinha, R.B.2002.Evaluation of rate and frequency of boron application in cropping system. *Fert. News.* 47(10):37-38
- Salami, M. and Saadat, S .2013. Study of potassium and nitrogen fertilizer levels on the yield of sugar beet in jolge cultivar. *J. Nov. appl. sci.* 2(4):94-100.

- Samanta, S., Saha, A., Deb, N., and Saha, A. 2017. Application of micronutrients on growth and productivity of hybrid rice under boro cultivation in lower gangetic alluvial zone. *New Agric.* 28(1): 125–128
- Samui, R. C. and Mandal, B. 2003. Crop response to secondary and micronutrients in red and laterite group of soils. *Fert. News*, 48(4): 39-45.
- Sarkar, A. K. and Mukhopadhyay, M. 1990. Response of rice cultivars to post-flowering foliar application of potassium nitrate solution. *Indian Agric.* 34(2):119–122.
- Sarkar, A.K. and Bandopadhyay, S.K. 1991. Response of wheat cultivars to post flowering application of potassium nitrate solution. *Indian Agric.* 35 (4): 269-272.
- Sarkar, D., Mandal, B., and Kundu, M.C. 2007. Increasing use efficiency of boron fertilisers by rescheduling the time and methods of application for crops in India. *Plant Soil* .301(1): 77–85.
- Sasidharan, N. K. and Ambikadevi, D. 2013. Karinilakrishi - Prasnangalum, Parihara margangalum. Regional Agricultural Research Station, Kiunarakom and ATMA, Kottayam, Kerala, 16p.
- Savant, N., Datnoff, L., and Snyder, G. 1997. Depletion of plant-available silicon in soils: A possible cause of declining rice yields. *Commun Soil Sci Plant Anal.* 28:1245-1252.
- Savithri, P., Perumal, R., and Nagarajan, R. 1999. Soil and crop management technologies for enhancing rice production under micronutrient constraints. In: Balasubramaniam, V., Ladha, J. K., and Denning, G. L. (eds) Resource Management in Rice System: Nutrients Kluwer Academic Publisher, Netherlands, pp. 121-135.
- Savvas, D., Manos, G., Kotsiras, A., and Souvaliotis, S. 2002. Effects of silicon and nutrient-induced salinity on yield, flower quality and nutrient uptake of gerbera grown in a closed hydroponic system. *J. Appl. Bot.*, 76: 153-158.

- Seebold, K., Kucharek, T., Datnoff, L., Correa-Victoria, F., and Marchetti, M. 2001. The influence of silicon on components of resistance to blast in susceptible, partially resistant, and resistant cultivars of rice. *Phytopathology*.91 (1):63-69.
- Seng, V., Bell, R.W., and Willett, I.R. 2006. Effect of lime and flooding on phosphorus availability and rice growth on two acidic lowland soils. *Commun Soil Sci Plant Anal* .37:313–336.
- Shah, K. A., Nayaka, P., and Lad. A. N.2020. Response of Transplanted Paddy to Foliar Spray of Silicon in South Gujarat, India. *Int.J.Curr.Microbiol.App.Sci* .9(5): 1051-1057.
- Shamshuddin, J. 2014. Acid Sulphate Soils in Malaysia: Occurrence, properties and utilization for rice cultivation. *Academy of Sciences Malaysia*, Kuala Lumpur, p.52.
- Shamshuddin, J., S. Muhrizal, I. Fauziah and E.R. Van, 2004. A laboratory study of pyrite oxidation in an acid sulphate soils. *Commun. Soi. Sci. Plan. Anal.*, 35(1-2): 117–129.
- Sharma, P. D., and A. K. Sarkar. 2005. Managing acid soils for enhancing productivity. New Delhi: NRM Division, ICAR
- Sharma, R.C. and Duveiller, E. 2004.Effect of helminthosporium leaf blight on performance of timely and late seeded wheat under optimal and stressed levels of soil fertility and moisture. In: *Field Crops Research*, Vol. 89, Elsevier, and pp. 205-218.
- Sharma, S., Duveiller, E., Basnet, R., Karki, C., and Ram, S .2005. Effect of potash fertilization on Helminthosporium leaf blight severity in wheat, and associated increases in grain yield and kernel weight. In: *Field crop res*. Vol.93, Elsevier, pp.142-150.
- Shashidhar, H.E., Chandrashekhar, N., Narayanaswamy, C., Mehendra, A.C. and Prakash, N.B., 2008. Calcium silicate as silicon source and its interaction with

- nitrogen in aerobic rice. In: *Silicon in agriculture: 4th international conference*, pp. 26-31.
- Shazana, M., Shamshuddin, J., Fauziah, C., and Syed Omar, S .2013. Alleviating the infertility of an acid sulphate soil by using ground basalt with or without lime and organic fertilizer under submerged conditions. *Land Degrad Dev.*24 (2):129–140.
- Shetty, V.Y., Ravi, N. C., Ganapathi, Vageesh, T. S., Kumar, D. M., and Prakash, N. B. 2012.Effect of different liming materials on productivity of maize (*Zea mays* L.) and related changes in properties of acid soil. Paper presented at the 8th PSILPH, UAS, and Bangalore.
- Shueadshen, A.K.H. 1991. Foliar application of trace elements to rice. *Khimizatsiya-Sel's Kogo- Khozaistva.*3: 46–50.
- Sims J, T. and Johnson, G. V. 1991. Micronutrient soil tests in agriculture. In: Mortvedt, J.J., Cose, F.R., Shuman, L.M., and Welch, R.M.(eds.), *Method of Soil Analysis*. Soil Survey Society of America, Madison, USA, pp.427-472.
- Singh, A. K., R. Singh, and K. Singh. 2005. Growth, yield, and economics of rice (*Oryza sativa*) as influenced by level and time of silicon application. *Indian J. Agron* 50 (3):190–93.
- Singh, B., Singh, Y., Imas, P., Chang, X.J.2003. Potassium nutrition of the rice- wheat cropping system. *Adv. Agron.*81: 203-259.
- Singh, V.K., Dwivedi, B.S., Buresh, R.J., Jat, M.L., Majumdar, K., Gangwar, B., Govil, V. and Singh, S.K., 2013. Potassium fertilization in rice–wheat system across Northern India: Crop performance and soil nutrients. *Agronomy.*105 (2):471-481.
- Soltani, S.M., Hanafi, M.M., Samsuri, A.W., Muhammed, S.K.S., and Hakim, M.A.2016.Rice growth improvement and grains bio-fortification through lime and zinc application in zinc deficient tropical acid sulphate soils.*Chem.Speciation Bioavail.*28 (1-4):152-162.

- Son, T.T, Anh, L. X., Ronen, Y., and Holwerda, H.T.2012.Foliar Potassium Nitrate Application for Paddy Rice”. *Better Crops*, 96 (1):29-31.
- Soratto, R.P., and Crusciol, C.A. 2008. Dolomite and phosphogypsum surface application effects on annual crops nutrition and yield. *Agron. J.* 100(2):261-270.
- Stevens, G., Gladbach, T., Motavalli, P., and Dunn, D.2005 .Soil Calcium: Magnesium Ratios and Lime Recommendations for Cotton, *J. Cotton Sci.* 9:65–71.
- Subbaiah, B.V. and Asija, G.L.1956.A rapid procedure for the estimation of available nitrogen in soils. *Curr.Sci.* 25:259-260.
- Sudhakar, P.C., Singh, J.P., Yogheshwar, S., and Raghavendra, S.2006. Effect of grade levels and silicon sources on crop yield, uptake and nutrient use efficiency in rice. *Indian J. Agron*, 51(3): 186-188.
- Suriyagoda, L., De Costa, W.A.J.M., and Lambers, H.2014. Growth and phosphorus nutrition of rice when inorganic fertiliser application is partly replaced by straw under varying moisture availability in sandy and clay soils. *Plant Soil*, 384(1): 53-68.
- Suriyagoda,L.D.B., Sirisena,D.N .,Somaweera,K.A.T.N , Dissanayake,A., De Costa, W.A.J.M and Lambers,H.2017. Incorporation of dolomite reduces iron toxicity, enhances growth and yield, and improves phosphorus and potassium nutrition in lowland rice (*Oryza sativa* L) *Plant Soil* .410(1):299–312.
- Surya, M.S. 2015. Flag leaf nutrition for enhancing resource use efficiency in rice (*Oryza sativa* L.). M.Sc. (Ag.) thesis, Kerala Agricultural University, Thrissur, 122 p.
- Suswanto, T., Shamshuddin, J., Omar, S.S., Mat, P. and Teh, C.B.S., 2007. Alleviating an acid sulfate soil cultivated to rice (*Oryza sativa*) using ground magnesium limestone and organic fertilizer. *Jurnal Ilmu Tanah dan Lingkungan*, 9(1):1-9.
- Tabatabai, M.A. and Bremner, J. M. 1969.Use of p-nitrophenyl phosphate for assay of soil phosphate activity. *Soil biol. biochem.* 34(3):387-401.

- Takahashi E, Ma JF, Miyake Y. 1990. The possibility of silicon as an essential element for higher plants. *Comments on Agricultural and Food Chemistry*.2: 99–102.
- Takijima, Y., Wijayarathna, H.M.S., and Seneviratne, C.J.1970. Nutrient deficiency and physiological disease of lowland rice in ceylon: III. Effect of silicate fertilizers and dolomite for increasing rice yield. *Soil Sci. Plant Nutr*.16 (1):11-16.
- Tamir, G., Shenker, M., Heller, H., Bloom, P. R., Fine, P., and Bar-Tal, A., 2011. Can soil carbonate dissolution lead to overestimation of soil respiration? *Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J.* 75 (4): 1414-1422.
- Thampatti, K.C.M. and Jose, A.I. (2000). Characterization of acid saline rice based wetland ecosystems of Kuttanad, Kerala, and their salinity protection by Thanneermukkom regulator. *Agropedology*, 10: 108 -115.
- Thampatti, K.C.M., Cherian, S., and Iyer, M.S.2005.Managing Iron toxicity in acid sulphate soils by integrating genetic tolerance and nutrition. *International Rice Research Notes* 30:37-39.
- Tisdale, S. 1, Nelson, W. L., Beaton J. D., and Havlin, J. L. 1995. *Soil Fertility and Fertilizers*. MacMillan Publishing Co. Ltd., New York, 528p.
- Tiwari KN (2002). Nutrient Deficiency Symptoms in Rice. *Rice Production (Special Supplement Publication*, Ed: D.L. Armstrong, International Program Saskatoon, Saskatchewan, Canada. *Better Crops Int*.16: 23-25.
- Usha, P.B. and Vargheese, T. 2006. Characterization of acidity and its management in wetland ecosystems of tropics. In: 18th World Congress of Soil Science, 9 - 15 July 2006, U.S.A
- Vaithilingam, C. and Baskaran, P.1985. Induced resistance to insect pests in rice with enhanced potassium application. Role of potassium in crop resistance to insect pests. *Potash Res. Inst. India*, pp.43-51.
- Vandamme, E., Rose, T., Saito, K., Jeong, K. and Wissuwa, M.2016. Integration of P acquisition efficiency, P utilization efficiency and low grain P concentrations into

- P-efficient rice genotypes for specific target environments. *Nutr. Cycl. Agroecosystems*.104 (3):413-427.
- Varghese, T. and Money, N.S. 1965. Influence of Ca and Mg in increasing efficiency of fertilizers for rice in Kerala. *Agric.Res.J.Kerala*.3:40-45.
- Venugopal, V. K., Nzdr, K. M., Vijayan, M. R., John, K. S., Sureshkumar, P., and Ramesh, C. R. (eds). 2013. Manual on Soil, Plant and Water Analysis, Department of Agriculture, Government of Kerala, 157p.
- Vergheese, T., Thampi, P.S., and Money, N.S. 1970. Some preliminary studies on Pokkali saline soils of Kerala. *Journal of the Indian Society of Soil Science* 18, 65-69.
- Walkley, A.J. and Black, I. A. 1934. Estimation of soil organic carbon by chromic acid and titration method. *Soil Sci*.31:21-38.
- Wang, M., Zheng, Q., Shen, Q., and Guo, S. 2013. The critical role of potassium in plant stress response. *Int. J. Mol. Sci*, 14(4):7370-7390.
- Watson, D. J. 1947. Comparative physiological studies in the growth of field crops. I: Variation in net assimilation rate and leaf area between species and varieties, and within and between years. *Ann. Bot.* 11: 41-76.
- Weinbaum, S.A., Brown, P.H., and Johnson, R.S. 2001. Application of selected macronutrients (N, K) in deciduous orchards: physiological and agro technical perspectives. In: *International Symposium on Foliar Nutrition of Perennial Fruit Plants* .594, pp. 59-64.
- White, P.J., Broadley, M.R. and Gregory, P.J. 2012. Managing the nutrition of plants and people. *Appl Environ Soil Sci*. pp.1155-1167.
- White, P.J., Hammond, J.P., King, G.J., Bowen, H.C., Hayden, R.M., Meacham, M.C., Spracklen, W.P., and Broadley, M.R. 2010. Genetic analysis of potassium use efficiency in Brassica oleracea. *Ann. Bot.*105 (7):1199-1210.

- Wijanarko, A. and Taufiq, A. 2016. Effect of lime application on soil properties and soybean yield on tidal land. *AGRIVITA, J. Agric. Sci.* 38 (1):14-23.
- Wijewardena, J. D. H. 2005. Improvement of plant nutrient management for better farmer livelihood, food security and environment in Sri Lanka. In: *Improving Plant Nutrient Management for Better Farmer Livelihoods, Food Security and Environmental Sustainability*. Proceedings of a Regional Workshop, FAO, Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific.
- Williams, J. and Smith, S.G., 2001. Correcting potassium deficiency can reduce rice stem diseases. *Better crops*. 85 (1):7-9.
- Wissuma, M., A.M. Ismail and R.D. Graham, 2008. Rice grain zinc concentrations as affected by genotype native soil –zinc availability, and zinc fertilization. *Plant Soil*, 306: 37-48.
- Wissuwa, M., Gamat, G., and Ismail, A.M. 2005. Is root growth under phosphorus deficiency affected by source or sink limitations? *J. Exp. Bot.* 56(417):1943–1950.
- Wood, C.W., Adams, J.F., and Wood, B.F. 2005. Macronutrients. In: *Encyclopaedia of Soils in the Environment*, Elsevier, pp.87-393.
- Wu, H., Hu, J., Shaaban, M., Xu, P., Zhao, J. and Hu, R., 2021. The effect of dolomite amendment on soil organic carbon mineralization is determined by the dolomite size. *Ecol. Process.* 10(1):1-12.
- Yang, X.E., Liu, J.X., Wang, W.M., Li, H., Luo, A.C., Ye, Z.Q., and Yang, Y. 2003. Genotypic differences and some associated plant traits in potassium internal use efficiency of lowland rice (*Oryza sativa* L.). *Nutr. Cycl. Agroecosyst.* 67(3): 273–282.
- Ye, T., Li, Y., Zhang, J., Hou, W., Zhou, W., Lu, J., Xing, Y. and Li, X. 2019. Nitrogen, phosphorus, and potassium fertilization affects the flowering time of rice (*Oryza sativa* L.). *Glob. Ecol. Conserv.* 20, p.e00753.

- Yogendra, N.D., Kumara, B.H., Chandrasekhar, N., Prakash, N.B., Anantha, M.S. and Jeyadeva, H.M. 2014. Effect of silicon on real time nitrogen management in a rice ecosystem. *Afr. J. Agric. Res.* 9 (9):831-840.
- Yoshida, S. 1981. Fundamentals of Rice Crop Science, International Rice Research Institute, Manila, Philippines 159p.
- Zain, N. A. M., Ismail, M. R., Mahmood, M., Puteh, A., and Ibrahim, M. H. 2014. Alleviation of water stress effects on MR220 rice by application of periodical water stress and potassium fertilization. *Molecules*, 19(2):1795–1819.
- Zang, H. L. 1989. Effect of Si fertilizer on rice and the source of Si fertilizer. *Chemical Industry*. 16(4):12-14.
- Zayed, B.A., Salem .A.K.M., and Sharkawy, H.M.E.2011.Effect of different micronutrient treatments on rice (*Oryza sativa* L.) growth and yield under saline soil conditions. *World j. agric. sci.* 7 (2): 179-184.

Appendices

APPENDIX I

Weather data during the cropping period of Experiment (08 October 2020 to 08 February 2021)

Standard week	Maximum temperature (°C)	Minimum temperature (°C)	Relative humidity (%)
41 (Oct 08 - Oct 14)	32.26	21.93	81.64
42 (Oct 15 - Oct 21)	31.31	21.51	81.14
43 (Oct 22 - Oct 28)	33.16	22.09	80.21
44 (Oct 29 - Nov 04)	33.27	21.83	80.86
45 (Nov 05 - Nov 11)	33.29	21.30	81.00
46 (Nov 12 - Nov 18)	33.99	21.40	80.21
47 (Nov 19 - Nov 25)	33.58	21.03	79.50
48 (Nov 26 - Dec 02)	29.35	20.51	79.38
49 (Dec 03 - Dec 09)	30.40	21.01	80.93
50 (Dec 10 - Dec 16)	33.63	20.03	78.64
51 (Dec 17 - Dec 23)	32.94	19.23	78.86
52 (Dec 24 - Dec31)	32.79	20.74	79.31
1 (Jan 01 - Jan 07)	31.60	19.10	79.93
2 (Jan 08 - Jan 14)	31.96	18.50	80.21
3 (Jan 15 - Jan 21)	32.70	20.20	80.86
4 (Jan 22 - Jan 28)	34.40	21.80	81.64
5 (Jan 29 - Feb 04)	34.20	22.10	80.71
6 (Feb 05 - Feb 11)	34.30	21.10	82.86

APPENDIX II

Rating of nutrient availability in the soil

Nutrient	Deficiency	Sufficiency	Toxicity
Available N (kg ha ⁻¹)	<280	280-560	-
Available P (kg ha ⁻¹)	<10	10-25	-
Available K (kg ha ⁻¹)	<110	110-270	-
Available Ca (mg kg ⁻¹)	<300	>300	-
Available Mg (mg kg ⁻¹)	<120	>120	-
Available S (mg kg ⁻¹)	<5	5-10	-
Available Fe (mg kg ⁻¹)	<5	>5	>300
Available Mn (mg kg ⁻¹)	<1	>1	-
Available Zn (mg kg ⁻¹)	<1	>1	-
Available Cu (mg kg ⁻¹)	<1	>1	-
Available B (mg kg ⁻¹)	<0.5	>0.5	-
Available Na (mg kg ⁻¹)	<80	80-120	>160
Exchangeable Al (mg kg ⁻¹)	-	-	>120

Source: Venugopal *et al.* (2013)

**ENHANCING GRAIN YIELD AND QUALITY THROUGH SOIL AMELIORATION
AND FOLIAR NUTRITION IN RICE (*Oryza sativa* L.) IN VAIKOM KARI SOILS**

by

SREELEKSHMI S

(2019-11-261)

ABSTRACT OF THE THESIS

*Submitted in partial fulfilment of the
requirements for the degree of*

MASTER OF SCIENCE IN AGRICULTURE

Faculty of Agriculture

Kerala Agricultural University



**DEPARTMENT OF AGRONOMY
COLLEGE OF AGRICULTURE
PADANNAKKAD, KASARAGOD-671314
KERALA, INDIA
2022**

Abstract

ABSTRACT

A field experiment entitled “Enhancing grain yield and quality through soil amelioration and foliar nutrition in rice (*Oryza sativa* L.) in Vaikom *Kari* soils” was conducted in a farmer's field at Vechoor, during *puncha* season of 2020. The objectives were to augment the yield and quality of rice in Vaikom *Kari* soils through soil amelioration practices for managing soil acidity, and to supplement nutrition at panicle initiation stage through foliar application of K and micronutrients.

The field experiment was laid out in Randomized Block Design. The effect of soil amelioration on soil parameters and growth characters was assessed in simple RBD with three treatments and fifteen replications. The treatments were: no dolomite (T_1), application of ordinary dolomite basally and at 30 DAS (T_2) and application of granulated dolomite basally and at 30 DAS (T_3). The effect of soil amelioration and foliar nutrition on yield and yield attributes, and plant nutrient content and uptake were analysed in factorial RBD with two factors. Factor A consisted of three levels of dolomite application, D_0 , D_1 and D_2 , similar to treatments mentioned above (T_1 , T_2 , and T_3), and factor B consisted of five levels of foliar nutrition at PI stage: without foliar application (N_0), foliar spray of 1% KNO_3 (N_1), foliar spray of 1% K_2SiO_3 (N_2), foliar spray of 1% KNO_3 + 0.5% micronutrient solution (N_3) and foliar spray of 1% K_2SiO_3 + 0.5% micronutrient solution (N_4). The medium duration rice variety Uma (Mo 16) was used for the study.

Analysis of experimental results indicated that treatments had significant effect on growth characters, yield and yield attributes, soil nutrient content, and plant nutrient content and uptake in grain and straw as compared to control. Application of granulated dolomite (D_2) produced taller plants with higher LAI at PI and harvest stages, and the highest number of tillers at both maximum tillering and PI stages. The same treatment recorded the highest grain yield (6.79 t ha^{-1}), straw yield (8.78 t ha^{-1}), total dry matter production (15.05 kg ha^{-1}), productive tillers (564.38 m^{-2}), total grains per panicle (85.93), thousand grain weight (28.35 g), and percentage of filled grains (89.32%). Application of 1% KNO_3 + 0.5% micronutrient solution at PI stage (N_3) resulted in the highest grain yield (6.76 t ha^{-1}) which was on par with all other treatments except the treatment without foliar nutrition, and the highest straw yield (8.91 t ha^{-1}) and thousand grain weight (28.56 g) were

obtained with application of 1% KNO₃ alone at PI stage (N₁). The interaction of soil amelioration and foliar nutrition did not show any influence on yield and yield attributes.

Soil analysis was carried out at PI and harvest, and soil amelioration practices had significant effect on pH, EC, OC and all available macro and micronutrient contents in the soil except Zn and Cu. Available N and P contents in the soil at harvest stage were also not influenced by the treatments. Addition of granulated dolomite (D₂) significantly increased available Ca and Mg contents and reduced S and Fe contents in the soil. Among various treatments D₂ recorded the highest soil pH, OC, available K, available Ca, available Mg and available B at both PI and harvest stages and the highest N content at PI stage and the lowest S and Na contents at harvest stages were observed in the same treatment. Treatment without dolomite application recorded the highest EC, available S, Na, and available Fe at both PI and harvest stages.

Plant nutrient contents and uptake were significantly influenced by soil amelioration practices, foliar nutrition and by their interaction effects. Higher uptake of nutrients such as N, P, K, Ca, Mg and S was observed on dolomite application along with foliar nutrition. Plant nutrient content and uptake of nutrients varied among different treatments.

The results obtained from the experiment revealed the significant influence of soil amelioration practices, foliar nutrition and their interaction effect on growth and yield attributes, soil pH, EC, OC, available nutrients and plant nutrient uptake in rice as compared to control. Application of granulated dolomite basally and at 30 DAS was effective in reducing soil acidity, thereby increasing the available nutrient content in soil, which resulted in increased grain yield and quality. Foliar nutrition of 1% KNO₃ or combined spray of 1% KNO₃ with 0.5% micronutrients at PI stage were found to be more effective in enhancing grain yield and quality in rice in Vaikom *Kari* soils.

സംക്ഷിപ്തം

“വൈക്കം കരി മണ്ണിലെ നെല്ലിൻ്റെ (ഒറൈസ സഭൈവ L.) ധാന്യവിളവും ഗുണനിലവാരവും അമൃത ലഘുകർമ്മത്തിലൂടെയും പർണപോഷണത്തിലൂടെയും വർദ്ധിപ്പിക്കൽ” എന്ന തലക്കെട്ടിൽ ഒരു ഗവേഷണം 2019-2021 കാലയളവിൽ നടത്തുകയുണ്ടായി. ഇതിൻ്റെ ഭാഗമായി കോട്ടയം ജില്ലയിൽ വെച്ചുർ പഞ്ചായത്തിലെ നെൽ കർഷകൻ്റെ നിലത്തിൽ ഇടത്തരം നെല്ലിനമായ ഉമ പുഞ്ചകൃഷി ചെയ്യുകയുണ്ടായി. മണ്ണിൻ്റെ അമൃതം നിയന്ത്രിക്കുന്നതിനുള്ള മണ്ണ് മെച്ചപ്പെടുത്തൽ രീതികളിലൂടെയും, കതിർ നാമ്പിടൽ ഘട്ടത്തിൽ പൊട്ടാസ്യം, സൂക്ഷ്മമൂലകങ്ങൾ എന്നിവ പർണപോഷണത്തിലൂടെ നല്ലിയും വൈക്കം കരി മണ്ണിൽ നെല്ലിൻ്റെ വിളവും ഗുണനിലവാരവും വർദ്ധിപ്പിക്കുക എന്നതായിരുന്നു പഠനത്തിൻ്റെ പ്രധാന ലക്ഷ്യം.

റാൻഡമൈസ്ഡ് ബ്ലോക്ക് ഡിസൈനിലാണ് ഫീൽഡ് പരീക്ഷണം നടത്തിയത്. മണ്ണിൻ്റെ രാസഘടകങ്ങളിലും, നെല്ലിൻ്റെ വളർച്ചാ പ്രതീകങ്ങളിലും സിമ്പിൾ റാൻഡമൈസ്ഡ് ഡിസൈനിൽ 3 ട്രീട്മെന്റ്കളും 15 ആവർത്തനങ്ങളോടു കൂടിയാണ് പരീക്ഷണം നടത്തിയത്. ഡോളോമൈറ്റ് ഇല്ലാതെ (T₁) സാധാരണ ഡോളോമൈറ്റ് അടിസ്ഥാനമായും 30 ദിവസത്തിന് ശേഷവും (T₂) ഗ്രാനുലേറ്റഡ് ഡോളോമൈറ്റ് അടിസ്ഥാനമായും 30 ദിവസത്തിന് ശേഷവും (T₃) പ്രയോഗിക്കുക എന്നിവയായിരുന്നു പഠനത്തിനായി ഉപയോഗിച്ച പരിചരണ മൂറുകൾ. നെല്ലിൻ്റെ വിളവ്, വിളവ് സംബന്ധിച്ച ഘടകങ്ങൾ എന്നിവയിൽ മണ്ണ് മെച്ചപ്പെടുത്തലിൻ്റെയും പർണപോഷണത്തിൻ്റെയും സ്വാധീനം, സസ്യങ്ങളുടെ പോഷക ഉള്ളടക്കം അവയുടെ ആഗീരണം എന്നിവ രണ്ട് പ്രതീകങ്ങളുള്ള ഫാക്ടോറിയൽ റാൻഡമൈസ്ഡ് ഡിസൈനിൽ വിശകലനം ചെയ്തു. പ്രതീകം എയിൽ മുകളിൽ സൂചിപ്പിച്ച ട്രീട്മെന്റ് സമാനമായി (T₁, T₂, T₃), മൂന്ന് തലത്തിലുള്ള ഡോളോമൈറ്റ് പ്രയോഗം, D₀, D₁, D₂ എന്നിവ അടങ്ങിയിരിക്കുന്നു, കൂടാതെ പ്രതീകം ബിയിൽ കതിർ നാമ്പിടൽ ഘട്ടത്തിൽ അഞ്ച് തലത്തിലുള്ള പർണപോഷണവും ഉൾക്കൊള്ളുന്നു: പർണപോഷണം പ്രയോഗിക്കാതെ (N₀), 1% പൊട്ടാസ്യം നൈട്രേറ്റ് (N₁), 1% പൊട്ടാസ്യം സിലിക്കേറ്റ് (N₂), 1% പൊട്ടാസ്യം നൈട്രേറ്റ് + 0.5% സൂക്ഷ്മമൂലകലായനി (N₃), 1% പൊട്ടാസ്യം സിലിക്കേറ്റ് + 0.5% സൂക്ഷ്മമൂലകലായനി (N₄). നെല്ലിൻ്റെ വളർച്ചാ സ്വഭാവം, വിളവ്, വിളവ് സംബന്ധിച്ച ഘടകങ്ങൾ, മണ്ണിലെ മൂലകങ്ങളുടെ അളവ്, സസ്യങ്ങളുടെ മൂലകങ്ങളുടെ അളവ്, എന്നിവയിൽ വിവിധ ട്രീട്മെന്റുകൾ നിയന്ത്രണവുമായി താരതമ്യപ്പെടുത്തുമ്പോൾ കാര്യമായ സ്വാധീനം ചെലുത്തുന്നുവെന്ന് പരീക്ഷണ

ഫലങ്ങളുടെ വിശകലനം സൂചിപ്പിച്ചു. ഗ്രാനുലേറ്റഡ് ഡോളോമൈറ്റ് (D₂) പ്രയോഗം കതിർ നാമ്പിടൽ, വിളവെടുപ്പ് ഘട്ടങ്ങളിൽ ഉയർന്ന ലീഫ് ഏരിയ ഇൻഡക്സ്സാടെയുള്ള ഉയരമുള്ള ചെടികളും, കൂടാതെ ടില്ലറിങ്, കതിർ നാമ്പിടൽ ഘട്ടങ്ങളിൽ ഏറ്റവും കൂടുതൽ ടില്ലറുകളും ഉൽപ്പാദിപ്പിച്ചു. ഇതേ ട്രീക്മെന്റിൽ തന്നെ ഏറ്റവും ഉയർന്ന ധാന്യവിളവ് വൈക്കോൽ വിളവ്, മൊത്തം ഉണങ്ങിയ പദാർത്ഥങ്ങളുടെ ഉത്പാദനം ഉൽപ്പാദനക്ഷമമായ ടില്ലറുകൾ, കതിരിലെ മൊത്തം ധാന്യങ്ങൾ, ആയിരം ധാന്യ തൂക്കവും, നിറഞ്ഞ ധാന്യങ്ങളുടെ ശതമാനം എന്നിവയും രേഖപ്പെടുത്തി. കതിർ നാമ്പിടൽ ഘട്ടത്തിൽ 1% പൊട്ടാസ്യം നൈട്രേറ്റ് + 0.5% സൂക്ഷ്മമൂലകലായനി (N₃) പ്രയോഗിച്ചതിന്റെ ഫലമായി ഏറ്റവും ഉയർന്ന ധാന്യ വിളവ് ലഭിച്ചു, ഇത് പർണപോഷണം കൂടാതെയുള്ള ട്രീക്മെന്റ് ഒഴികെ മറ്റൊരു ട്രീക്മെന്റുകൾക്കും തുല്യമായിരുന്നു, കൂടാതെ ഏറ്റവും ഉയർന്ന വൈക്കോൽ വിളവും, ആയിരം ധാന്യ തൂക്കവും കതിർ നാമ്പിടൽ ഘട്ടത്തിൽ 1% പൊട്ടാസ്യം നൈട്രേറ്റ് മാത്രം (N₁) പ്രയോഗിച്ചപ്പോൾ ലഭ്യമായി. മണ്ണ് മെച്ചപ്പെടുത്തലിന്റെയും പർണപോഷണത്തിന്റെയും പരസ്പര സ്വാധീനം വിളവ്, വിളവ് ഗുണങ്ങൾ എന്നിവയിൽ ഒരു സ്വാധീനവും കാണിച്ചില്ല.

കതിർ നാമ്പിടൽ, വിളവെടുപ്പ് ഘട്ടങ്ങളിൽ മണ്ണ് വിശകലനം നടത്തിയപ്പോൾ, മണ്ണ് മെച്ചപ്പെടുത്തൽ രീതികൾ പി എച്ച്, വൈദ്യുത ചാലകത, ജൈവാംശം എന്നിവയിലും സിങ്ക്, കോപ്പർ എന്നിവ ഒഴികെയുള്ള മണ്ണിൽ ലഭ്യമായ മറ്റു എല്ലാ മൂലകങ്ങളിലും കാര്യമായ സ്വാധീനം ചെലുത്തിയതായി കാണിച്ചു. വിളവെടുപ്പ് ഘട്ടത്തിൽ മണ്ണിൽ ലഭ്യമായ നൈട്രജൻ, ഫോസ്ഫറസ് എന്നിവയുടെ അളവ് ട്രീക്മെന്റുകളാൽ സ്വാധീനിക്കപ്പെട്ടില്ല. ഗ്രാനുലേറ്റഡ് ഡോളോമൈറ്റ് (D₂) ചേർക്കുന്നത് മണ്ണിൽ ലഭ്യമായ കാൽസ്യം, മഗ്നീഷ്യം എന്നിവ ഗണ്യമായി വർദ്ധിപ്പിക്കുകയും മണ്ണിലെ സൾഫർ, ഇരുമ്പ് എന്നിവ കുറയ്ക്കുകയും ചെയ്തു. വിവിധ ട്രീക്മെന്റുകളിൽ കതിർ നാമ്പിടൽ, വിളവെടുപ്പ് ഘട്ടങ്ങളിൽ D₂ വിൽ ഉയർന്ന പി എച്ച്, ഓർഗാനിക് കാർബൺ, ലഭ്യമായ പൊട്ടാസ്യം, കാൽസ്യം, മഗ്നീഷ്യം, ബോറോൺ എന്നിവയും കതിർ നാമ്പിടൽ ഘട്ടത്തിൽ ഉയർന്ന നൈട്രജനും രേഖപ്പെടുത്തി. ഡോളമൈറ്റ് പ്രയോഗമില്ലാതെയുള്ള ട്രീക്മെന്റുകൾ കതിർ നാമ്പിടൽ വിളവെടുപ്പ് ഘട്ടങ്ങളിൽ ഏറ്റവും ഉയർന്ന വൈദ്യുത ചാലകത, ലഭ്യമായ സൾഫർ, ഇരുമ്പ്, സോഡിയം, എന്നിവയും രേഖപ്പെടുത്തി.

മണ്ണ് മെച്ചപ്പെടുത്തൽ രീതികളും പർണപോഷണവും അവയുടെ പാരസ്പര്യ ഫലങ്ങളും നെല്ലിന്റെ മൂലകങ്ങളുടെ അളവിനെയും അവയുടെ ആഗീരണത്തെയും ഗണ്യമായി സ്വാധീനിച്ചു. ഡോളമൈറ്റ് പ്രയോഗത്തോടൊപ്പം പർണപോഷണം നൽകുന്നത് നൈട്രജൻ, ഫോസ്ഫറസ്, പൊട്ടാസ്യം, കാൽസ്യം,

മഗ്നീഷ്യം, സൾഫർ എന്നീ മൂലകങ്ങൾ കൂടുതലായി സ്വീകരിക്കുന്നു എന്നും നിരീക്ഷിക്കപ്പെട്ടു.

പഠന ഫലങ്ങൾ സംഗ്രഹിച്ചാൽ,, മണ്ണ് മെച്ചപ്പെടുത്തൽ രീതികളും പർണപോഷണവും അവയുടെ പരസ്പര സ്വാധീനവും നെല്ലിന്റെ വളർച്ചയിലും വിളവിലും, ഗുണനിലവാരത്തിലും, മണ്ണിന്റെ പി എച്ച്, വൈദ്യുത ചാലകത, ജൈവാംശം, മണ്ണിൽ ലഭ്യമായ മൂലകങ്ങൾ, നെല്ലിൽ അടങ്ങിയിട്ടുള്ള മൂലകങ്ങളും അവയുടെ ആഗീരണം എന്നിവയിലും നിയന്ത്രണവുമായി താരതമ്യപ്പെടുത്തുമ്പോൾ ഗണ്യമായ സ്വാധീനം വെളിപ്പെടുത്തി. ഗ്രാനുലേറ്റഡ് ഡോളോമൈറ്റ് അടിസ്ഥാനപരമായും 30 ദിവസത്തിന് ശേഷവും പ്രയോഗിക്കുന്നത് മണ്ണിന്റെ അസിഡിറ്റി കുറയ്ക്കുന്നതിന് ഫലപ്രദമാണെന്ന് കണ്ടെത്തുകയും അതുവഴി മണ്ണിൽ ലഭ്യമായ മൂലകങ്ങളുടെ അളവ് വർദ്ധിപ്പിക്കുകയും ഇത് ധാന്യവിളവും ഗുണനിലവാരവും വർദ്ധിപ്പിക്കുകയും ചെയ്തതായി കണ്ടെത്തുകയുണ്ടായി. 1% പൊട്ടാസ്യം നൈട്രേറ്റ്ന്റെ പർണപോഷണം അല്ലെങ്കിൽ 1% പൊട്ടാസ്യം നൈട്രേറ്റ്+ 0.5% സൂക്ഷ്മമൂലകലായനി സംയുക്തമായി തളിക്കുന്നത് വൈക്കം കരി മണ്ണിൽ ധാന്യവിളവും നെല്ലിന്റെ ഗുണനിലവാരവും വർദ്ധിപ്പിക്കുന്നതിന് കൂടുതൽ ഫലപ്രദമാണെന്ന് കണ്ടെത്തി.