

PKV RESEARCH JOURNAL



**Dr. PANJABRAO DESHMUKH
KRISHI VIDYAPEETH**

**(AGRICULTURAL UNIVERSITY)
AKOLA (Maharashtra), INDIA**

DR. PANJABRAO DESHMUKH KRISHI VIDYAPEETH, AKOLA

RESEARCH JOURNAL

Council of Management :

President : Vice-Chancellor, Dr. PDKV, Akola

Executive Chairman : Director of Research,
Dr. PDKV, Akola

Secretary : Secretary of Editorial Board

Publisher : Director of Research, Dr. PDKV, Akola

Members : All Deans of the Faculties, Dr. PDKV, Akola
Director of Extension Edn., Dr. PDKV, Akola
Director of Instruction, Dr. PDKV, Akola
All Associate Deans, Dr. PDKV, Akola
All Heads of Departments, Dr. PDKV, Akola
Registrar, Dr. PDKV, Akola
Comptroller, Dr. PDKV, Akola
University Librarian, Dr. PDKV, Akola
One Scientist Nominated by the
President (Vice-Chancellor)
One Patron Nominated by the
President (Vice-Chancellor)

Editorial Board :

Editor-in-Chief

Dr. V. K. Kharche
Director of Research,
Dr. P.D.K.V., Akola

Editor :

Dr. A. N. Paslawar
Professor of Agronomy

Associate Editor :

Dr. A. K. Sadawarte
Dy. Director of Research

Members :

Dr. V. S. Tekale
Head, Extension Education
Dr. S. G. Bharad
Head, Dept. of Fruit Science
Dr. R. N. Katkar
Professor of SSAC

Secretary :

Research Editor :

Dr. A. D. Warade
Asstt. Professor of Horticulture
Email : editor.pkvrj@gmail.com

1. PKV Research Journal is published twice a year in January and July by Dr. Panjabrao Deshmukh Krishi Vidyapeeth, Akola.
2. The contribution of paper is open only to active members and subscribers.
3. Annual membership of Journal subscription (with effect from 1-4-2015)
 - i) Active member Rs. 500/- per annum
 - ii) Students Rs. 300/- per annum
 - iii) Libraries/Institutes Rs. 500/- per annum
 - iv) Other subscribers Rs. 1000/- per annum (for overseas)
 - v) Life members/Donors Rs. 3000/- (Rs. 5000/- for overseas)
 - vi) Patrons Rs. 5000/-
 - vii) Sustaining Associates Rs. 10,000/-
4. A limited space will be provided for the advertisement pertaining to various branches of Agriculture and Veterinary Science.
5. **Correspondence** : All correspondence regarding subscription and business matter may please be addressed to the Secretary, PKV Research Journal, Dr. Panjabrao Deshmukh Krishi Vidyapeeth, Krishi Nagar, Akola - 444 104 Maharashtra State (India).

This publication is included in the abstracting and indexing coverage of Biosciences Information Service of Biological Abstracts and Field Crop Abstracts.

I N D E X

Vo.143	No. 1	January, 2019
Avenues to Improve Farm Income from Cotton under Changing Climatic Scenario, M. V. Venugopalan		1
Soil Sustainability and Quality Assessment from Long Term Fertilizer Experiments: A Step Forward to Improve and Revive Crop Productivity and Soil Health, R. H. Wanjari and Muneshwar Singh		9
Effect of Organic Manures on Yield and Essential Oil of Sweet Flag in Konkan Region, P. C. Arekar, S. S. Narkhede, A. D. Rane, G. D. Shirke, V. G. More and M. C. Kasture		16
Productivity of Castor, Economics and Energetics as Influenced by Castor Genotypes, Plant Geometry and Nitrogen Management under <i>Rainfed</i> Condition of Vidarbha, A. N. Paslawar, P. G. Ingole, V. M. Bhale, A. P. Karunakar and G. J. Bhagat		19
Soil Fertility Management Through Pigeonpea Based Intercropping System - <i>Bt</i> Cotton Rotation with Conservation Tillage Practices Under Rainfed Condition of Vidarbha Region, A. N. Paslawar, V. M. Bhale, P. V. Shingrup and N. M. Konde		28
Safed Musli Yield and Micronutrient Status under Safed Musli + Pigeonpea Intercropping System, Yogita Gore, S. G. Wankhade, S. S. Wanjari, N. K. Patke and N. M. Konde		35
Influence of Fumigants and Exposure Period on Seed Quality and Storability of Groundnut, M. Y. Ladole, A. G. Kute, P. N. Mane and A. R. Bhuyar		41
Yield and Monetary Returns of Chickpea (<i>Cicer arietinum</i> L.) as Influenced by Organic Fertilizers under Irrigated Condition, K. S. Korade, B. V. Saoji, B. S. Morwal, R. D. Walke and P. H. Bansod		52
Effect of Foliar Nutrition on Productivity of Soybean under rainfed condition, M. S. Dandge, Y. V. Ingle, P. V. Mohod, P. D. Peshattiwar and N. R. Dange		56
Effect of Manures and Fertilizers on Nutrient Uptake by Chickpea (<i>Cicer arietinum</i> L.) and Soil Nutrient Status Under Irrigated Condition, K. S. Korade, B. V. Saoji, B. S. Morwal, D. S. Kankaland P. H. Bansod		65
Assessment of Spatial Variability of Major and Micro Nutrients in Soils of Akola District of Maharashtra, India, R. N. Katkar, S. R. Lakhe, S. S. Hadole and P. A. Sarap		69
Effect of Sulphur and Zinc Containing Customized Fertilizers on Onion Yield and Soil Nutrient Status in Inceptisols, P.H. Rathod, R.N. Katkar, S. M. Ghawade, N. M. Konde, S.R. Lakhe and Vrushi R. Bhende		77
Assessment of Spatial Variability of Major and Micro Nutrients in Soils of Amravati District of Maharashtra, R. N. Katkar, S. R. Lakhe, S. S. Hadole and P. A. Sarap		81
Effect of Post-shooting Foliar Spray of Potassium on Yield and Quality Attributes of Banana, Aparna Peche, S. G. Bharad, P. L. Deshmukh and P. S. Joshi		90
Effect of Different Media and Time of Cutting on Rooting and Growth of Pomegranate Cuttings, Sneha Deshmukh, S. G. Bharad, P. L. Deshmukh and S. V. Gholap		97
Root Biomass and Quality of <i>Gmelina arborea</i> - a Species of Brihatpanchmool as Influenced by Plant Geometry and Organic Manure, S. G. Wankhade, R. B. Sarode, S. B. Nandanwar and S. P. Nandapure		106

Influence of Plant Growth Regulators on Seed Yield and Economics of Fenugreek (<i>Trigonella foenum-graecum</i> L.), A. M. Sonkamble, D. P. Ingole, V. S. Kale, S. R. Patil and P. S. Umbarkar	118
Short Term Root Biomass Production with Quality of <i>Oroxylum indicum</i> - a Species of Brihatpanchmool as Influenced by Plant Geometry and Organic Manure, S. G. Wankhade, R. B. Sarode, S. B. Nandanwar, S. P. Nandapure and S. S. Wanjari	121
Influence of Fertigation on Yield, Quality and Economics of Potato, A. M. Sonkamble, H. V. Wagh, S. R. Patil, D. S. Kankal, P. S. Umbarkar and R. S. Munghate	131
Effect of Plant Geometry and Organic Manure on Short Term Root Biomass Production with Quality of <i>Aegle marmelos</i> - a Species of Brihatpanchmool, S. G. Wankhade, R. B. Sarode, S. B. Nandanwar and S. P. Nandapure	134
Management of Pulse Beetle (<i>Callosobruchus chinensis</i> L.) in Stored Chickpea with Some Vegetable Oils, P. K. Rathod, P. A. Borkar, D. B. Undirwade, R. P. Murumkar, S. K. Bhalkare and V. N. Mate	147
Effect of Neem Leaf (<i>Azadirachta indica</i>) and Ginger Powder Supplementation on Feed Intake of Giriraj Poultry Birds, S. R. Shegokar, S. D. Chavan, R.R. Shelke, S. P. Nage, S. J. Manwar, R. N. Katkar and K. U. Bidwe	152

Avenues to Improve Farm Income from Cotton under Changing Climatic Scenario

M. V. Venugopalan

ABSTARCT

During the last decade (2007-08 to 2017-18) cotton yields have plateaued in the country and remained between 500 and 550 kg lint ha⁻¹, despite near saturation with BG II Bt hybrids. Technology fatigue, climate change, emergence of new pests and diseases, resistance to cry toxins in pink bollworms are some reasons attributed to this scenario. Profit of cotton farmers can be increased through improving cotton yields, reducing production costs and/or increasing the output prices. This paper analysed the impact of climate scenarios on future cotton productivity, cause for low productivity of rainfed cotton and discusses the best management practices (BMPs), validated through research conducted at ICAR-CICR and AICRP on Cotton for improving cotton yield and farm income. Simulation studies indicated that under rainfed conditions, compared to the base-line scenario, adoption of improved BMPs have a potential to increase the rainfed cotton yields by 22.8 per cent and 21.7 per cent in the projected (MIROC HI 3.2 A1b and B1, PRECIS A1b, A2, B2) 2050 and 2080 climatic scenarios, respectively. Low yield of rainfed cotton is mainly due to the mismatch of the monsoon window with the late season flowering and fruiting stages that in turn starve the cotton plant of water and nutrients besides aggravating the loss due to Pink Boll Worm (*Pectinophora gossypiella*). Our studies conducted on research farms as well as farmers field helped us to conclude that short duration, early maturing Bt *G. hirsutum* varieties and long linted *G. arboreum* varieties with high harvest-index and heat tolerance, timely planting using High Density Planting Systems (HDPS), conservation tillage and crop residue management practices and synchronized nutrient delivery systems can be helpful in adapting to climatic uncertainties, improve cotton yields, increase input use efficiency and reduce production costs. Based on these findings a road map for improving farm income is also discussed.

The honourable Prime Minister’s Shri Narendra Modi’s call for doubling the income of farmers by 2022 was formalized in the Union Budget 2016-17. Since then several scholars expressed their views, possibilities and reservations about its feasibility. Chand (2017) Member, NITI Ayog suggested a three pronged strategy focussing primarily on development initiatives, technological breakthroughs and policy reforms. Under technological breakthroughs, he suggested agronomic opportunities to improve resource use efficiency. The income of cotton

farmers can be increased through technological innovations aimed at improving cotton yields per unit of inputs added, reducing production costs and/or increasing the output prices. However, under the current national cotton scenario, low cotton yields, limited opportunity for diversification and wide year to year fluctuation are serious obstacles in doubling the income of rainfed cotton farmers.

Figure 1 depicted the cotton scenario in India during the last 17 years. After the introduction of Bt

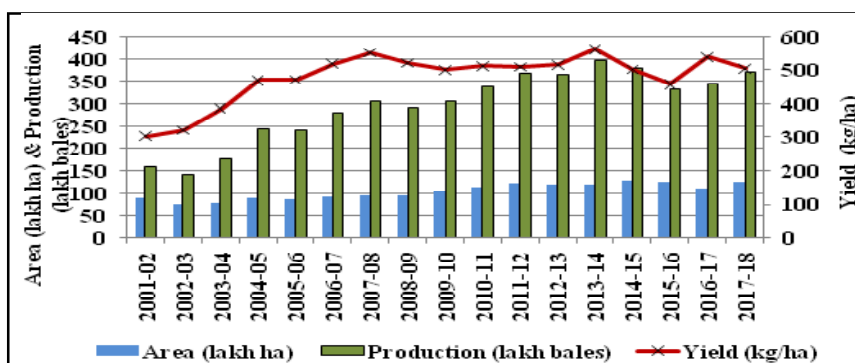


Figure 1: Trends in Area, Production & Productivity of Cotton in India

Principal Scientist (Agronomy), ICAR-Central Institute for Cotton Research, Nagpur, 440010

hybrids in 2002-03, the productivity of cotton steadily increased till 2007-08 and plateaued thereafter and remained between 500 and 550 kg lint ha⁻¹, despite near saturation with BG II Bt hybrids. It is pertinent to note that during 2017-18; only 68 per cent of the 94.13 lakh hectares area was under Bt hybrids (Singh, 2017). The highest yield of 568 kg ha⁻¹ was during 2007-08 and in the subsequent years, yields have declined despite progressive increase in area under Bt hybrids, release of new Bt hybrids, the introduction of the Bollgard II, approval of new Bt events, increased use of fertilizers and insecticides (Venugopalan *et al.*, 2018). Analysis of the yield data also indicates a high coefficient of variation in cotton productivity to the tune of 15.7 per cent, a sign of instability in productivity. The weighted average cost of production using actual prices increased from Rs 1846 q⁻¹ in 2007-08 to Rs 4803 q⁻¹ in 2015-16 with huge variation across states (Reddy *et al.*, 2016). Today, labour cost alone account to nearly 50 per cent of the production cost of cotton.

Global warming induced inter-annual monsoon rainfall variability in India is one of the reasons for high degree of temporal variation in cotton yields. Climate change projections for India indicate an overall increase in temperature by 1 to 4°C and precipitation by 9-16 per cent towards 2050s with an increase in the frequency of occurrence of extreme events such as droughts, floods and cyclones (Krishna Kumar *et al.*, 2011). These changes are likely to have an impact on cotton productivity further jeopardizing the goal of doubling farm income. It is recognized widely that both that adaptation and mitigation strategies are equally important in dealing with climate change (Rama Rao *et al.*, 2013). About 60 per cent of the cotton is rainfed. In this context, the objectives of this study was to understand the impact of climate change on under future climatic scenarios on cotton productivity, simulate the effect of adaptation strategies on cotton under future climatic scenarios and validate simple management techniques to improve cotton yields and income of farmers.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

This paper analysed the impact of climate scenarios on future cotton productivity, cause for low productivity of rainfed cotton and discusses the best adaptation strategies developed and validated through

research conducted at ICAR-CICR and AICRP on Cotton for dealing with climatic uncertainties and improving the income of cotton farmers.

The inferences are drawn from the following research projects conducted at ICAR-Central Institute for Cotton Research, Nagpur

- * Climate change- adaptation and mitigation strategies in cotton (under National Initiative on Climate Resilient Agriculture).
- * Evaluation of genotypes and standardization of agro-techniques for high density planting and surgical cotton production (Technology Mission on Cotton)
- * Exploring the productivity potential of long-linted *G. arboreum* cotton.
- * Development of Bt cotton varieties using deregulated and non deregulated transgenic events and from the outcome of workshops conducted at ICAR-CICR on prioritizing the research agenda for cotton.

Using Info Crop, a generic crop growth process based dynamic simulation model, we assessed the impact of climate change on cotton productivity and the adaptation opportunities in the different cotton growing states of India. For simulating yields in future scenarios, temperature (minimum and maximum) and rainfall data from MIRO HR -A1b, B1 for 2050 and 2080 scenarios; the PRECIS A1b, A2 and B2 for 2080 scenarios were used for analysis. 'Delta method' - used to overcome variation between observed weather and climate model outputs for baseline period (Naresh Kumar *et al.*, 2014).

Gridded daily data 1° x 1° on rainfall and temperatures (IMD Pune-22 years (1969-1990) and solar radiation calculated by Hargreaves method, best suited for Indian conditions (Bandyopadhyay *et al.*, 2008) was used for simulation. Soil data generated by the National Bureau of Soil Science and Land Use Planning, Nagpur and Harmonized Global Soil Profile Dataset (Batjes, 2008) were used and appropriate PTFs were employed to obtain the soil hydraulic characteristic coefficients. Varietal coefficients were developed for medium and short duration cotton hybrids through field studies. Analysis for irrigated-timely sown or rainfed monsoon season (C and S zone and summer sown irrigated N zone) was done assuming recommended package of practices. In view of limited understanding on the crop-pest interaction in future climates, it was assumed that crop was maintained free of

pest and diseases.

For the estimation of baseline yield, seed cotton yield of all the 22 years (1969-1990), were simulated. District-wise baseline yield was obtained as sum of the weighted yield from each grid fraction in district. The simulated yield output was calibrated to district yield (district mean yield of 2000-2005 period ; DES, 2012) to get ‘baseline yields calibrated to 2000-05 period’.

For simulating the impact of adaptation strategies, several low cost and easy-to-adopt options were tested independently or in combination for 2020, 2050 and 2080 scenarios under rainfed condition. These include, timely sowing, switch over to short duration compact (150 days) cotton varieties, high planting density, split application of N, life saving irrigation and integrated N management. Combination which gave highest yield in each grid was taken as best suitable adaptation option. The net change in mean yield of all 22 years was expressed as relative difference from mean baseline yield. For evaluation and validation of improved agro-techniques, field experiments were conducted and data was analysed using standard statistical procedures (Gomez and Gomez,1984)

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Impact of projected climate scenarios on future cotton productivity

The simulated net impact of future climatic scenarios, on mean seed cotton yields, expressed as a

percentage of baseline yield is presented and discussed.

Table 1: Impact of projected future climate scenarios on the simulated productivity of irrigated cotton in North India and rainfed cotton in Central and South India (per cent change over baseline yield)

States	Mean 2050	Mean 2080
Punjab (I)	-19.79	-22.01
Haryana (I)	-16.39	-18.42
Rajasthan (I)	-25.05	-26.05
Gujarat (R)	3.49	2.08
Madhya Pradesh (R)	12.01	12.30
Maharashtra (R)	8.09	4.10
Andhra Pradesh (R)	14.20	4.33
Karnataka (R)	6.80	9.30
Tamil Nadu (R)	16.06	19.33

The results presented in Table 1 indicated that under irrigated conditions, over baseline yield the simulated seed cotton yields are likely to decline in all the three states of North Zone under 2050 and 2080 scenarios. The magnitude of yield reduction would be highest in Rajasthan. The impact of climate change scenarios in the rainfed cotton growing regions indicated a moderate increase in the productivity under 2050 and 2080 scenarios. The mean productivity would increase by 6.4 per cent and 5.1 per cent per cent from the baseline yields by 2050 and 2080, respectively. The magnitude of gain is likely to be lower in Andhra Pradesh, Maharashtra and Gujarat. Earlier Hebbar *et al.* (2013) concluded that the impact of

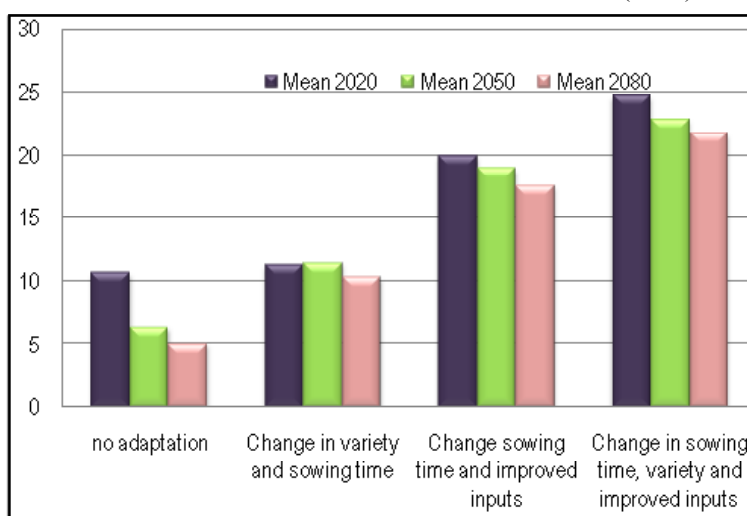


Fig. 2: Quantification of adaptation gains (per cent) due to technological interventions in rainfed cotton

climate change on Indian cotton was likely to be minimal on account of increase in rainfall in rainfed areas of central and south zone would compensate the likely decline in yield in the north zone due to high temperature.

Impact of adaptation strategies on seed cotton yields under projected future climatic scenarios

Adaptation strategies in the short term are aimed at minimizing the negative impacts and capitalize on the new opportunities provided by future climatic situations.

Results depicted in figure 2 indicated that under rainfed conditions, compared to the present no adaption scenario, improved management strategies *viz.* short duration, compact varieties and early sowing dates and improved water and N management have a potential to increase the rainfed cotton yields by 24.3, 22.8 per cent and 21.7 per cent in the 2020, 2050 and 2080 scenarios, respectively.

Challenges for cotton research and development

Venugopalan *et al.* (2016) enumerated the following challenges confronting the contemporary Indian cotton production system

1. Genetic erosion and narrowing of genetic diversity in the cultivated varieties and hybrids makes the crop vulnerable to biotic and abiotic stresses and absence of public sector varieties with broader genetic base
2. Resistance development in pink boll worm to Cry I AC and Cry 2 Ab toxins present in Bt cotton
3. Low productivity levels (around 500-550 kg lint ha⁻¹).
4. Rising production costs and declining profit margin.
5. Poor fibre quality in terms of strength and micronaire. Decline in ELS cotton production
6. Decline in partial factor productivity of inputs particularly fertilizers.
7. Low soil organic carbon content of cotton growing soils and non availability of organic manures in sufficient quality and non-adoption of soil regenerating cropping systems.
8. Imbalanced fertilizer use (more N) and micro nutrient deficiencies resulting in increased insect pests, insect resistance to insecticides and concomitant increased insecticide use.

9. Non availability of irrigation facilities even to provide protective, life saving irrigation in 60 per cent of the planted area.
10. Climate change, erratic monsoon and aberrant distribution of rainfall.
11. Non availability of low cost machines (sowing, picking) for adoption by small farmers. Labour shortage and enhanced wages.

Reasons for low yields in India

Kranthi (2017) listed these few unique features of Indian cotton responsible for low yields.

1. Fascination for more bolls plant⁻¹ : Ever since hybrid cotton was introduced in 1970s, cotton breeders in India have developing bushy hybrids and also varieties that produce the highest number of bolls plant⁻¹. In this process the duration of fruiting period and in turn, the duration of the variety increased. However, globally cotton breeders developed compact varieties with only 10-15 bolls plant⁻¹. It is difficult to get more number of bolls plant⁻¹ particularly under marginal growing conditions resulting in poor yields.

2. High input oriented technologies: Hybrids are developed under ideal conditions and are later grown in sub-optimal growing conditions. The yield potential of hybrids can be exploited only with 'high input intensive' practices that are beyond the reach of majority of the farmers. Hence, the true potential of hybrids is seldom realized.

3. Long duration of cultivars and moisture stress: Majority of hybrids are long duration (200-220 days). They encounter moisture stress during the peak boll formation stage in rain-fed regions. In the absence of protective/supplemental irrigation, fewer bolls are set and the bolls forming late, open before maturing fully giving low yield with immature fibres.

4. Need for more pesticides and use for mixtures: Because of the longer duration and susceptibility to sucking pests, majority of the hybrids need more pesticides for protection against pests and diseases. Most of the hybrids are highly susceptible to sap sucking insects. Wrong choice of molecules and their combinations lead to disruption of the naturally occurring bio-eco-systems and thus necessitate the need for more and more insecticides.

5. Leaf reddening, para-wilt and leaf curl virus: Owing to a combination of biotic and abiotic reasons, cotton crop succumbs to leaf reddening and parawilt. Hasty release of Bt hybrids without proper screening has also aggravated the menace of leaf curl virus

6. Late sowing: Hybrids are sown only when soil moisture is adequate for proper germination. Late sowing even by 7-10 days leads to 20-30 per cent reduction in yields.

7. High cost of cultivation and decline in factor productivity: Hybrid seed production is highly labour intensive, cumbersome and expensive making the seeds expensive. Due to wider spacing, hybrids need continuous inter-culture and weeding upto 90 days. The nominal cost of cultivation (at current prices) increased @ 9.5 per cent per annum during triennium ending 2001-02 to triennium ending 2009-10. In absolute terms, the increase was from Rs 16037 ha⁻¹ to Rs 35275 ha⁻¹ during the same period (Suresh *et al.*, 2013) and there has been a reduction in partial factor productivity of fertilizers

Thrust areas to increase cotton yield and profits from cotton cultivation:

From the list of Global Best Management Practices, during the last few years, ICAR-CICR along with the centres of AICRP on cotton have developed, standardized and validated a few strategies that can establish sustainable cotton production systems for high yields and low production costs. These are High density planting systems, Bt varieties, long linted desi cottons, canopy management for square and boll retention management, cover cropping green manure crop and incorporation; intercropping, integrated pest management (IPM) and insect resistance management (IRM) for pest, disease and weed management and timely termination and crop residue management. Results under these studies are enumerated below.

1. High density planting system (HDPS)

* Over 75 semi-compact genotypes were evaluated at over a wide range of plant densities ranging from 30 x10 cm to 90 x10 cm at 13 locations in 11 states over a six year period from 2010-11 to 2015-16. Results indicated that under rainfed conditions, the available semi-compact *G. hirsutum* genotypes can be planted at two or three

times the currently recommended density (of 50000-55000 plants ha⁻¹) adopted spacing of around 20,000 plants ha⁻¹.

- * The average yield improvement over the recommended (55000 plants ha⁻¹) in these genotypes was around 25 per cent.
- * The plants matured a week to 10 days earlier under high density planting (Venugopalan *et al.*, 2013).
- * The nutrient requirement under HDPS would be 25 per cent extra (over the recommended dose of 60:30:30) but was lower than that recommended for hybrids. The nutrient uptake efficiency improved under HDPS but there was no improvement in nutrient utilization efficiency.
- * Results also indicated significant interactions between genotypes and spacing, genotypes and soil depth, Genotypes and growing condition (rainfed/irrigated), spacing and soil depth and spacing and location. Suraj, which is widely cultivated under HDPS is a medium duration, semi-compact genotype. On deep soils Suraj performs well at 75 x10 cm under rainfed (assured rainfall) or even at 90 x10 cm under irrigated conditions. On medium deep soils 60 x10 cm was the best spacing for Suraj. On the contrary, early and more compact genotypes like PKV081 and Anjali need to be planted at 45x10 cm on shallow soils and 60x10 cm on medium and deep soils. Genotype NH 615 performed best at 60x10 cm on medium deep soils on deltaic soils of Guntur, genotype ADB 39 gave best yield when planted at 75x10 cm under rainfed conditions. The genotypes identified for HDPS in various states and the recommended spacings are presented in Table 2.

Table 2 : Semi compact genotypes of *G. hirsutum* for HDPS-different locations

S.N.	State	Variety	Spacing(cm)
1.	Gujarat	G Cot 16, Suraj	60x10
2.	Haryana	F2383, CSH 3075	67.5x10
3.	Madhya Pradesh	JK 4, Suraj	60x10
4.	Maharashtra	PKV 081, NH 615, Suraj	45x10, 60x10 and 75x10
5.	Karnataka	DSC 99, ARBC 64	90x10cm

6.	Orissa	BS 279, BS 30	60x10
7.	Andhra Pradesh	ADB 39, NDLH 1938, ADB 538	60x10
8.	Tamil Nadu	Anjali, Suraj, KC3	60x10 and 75x10
9.	Punjab	F 2383	67.5x10

More than 5000 participatory demonstrations of this technology were undertaken. In a drought year, drought in 2015-16, trials in 12 cotton growing states (1294 farmers in 190 villages) recorded average yields of 5.91 q acre⁻¹ with Cost: Benefit ratio of 1:1.5.

2. Deployment of Bt-varieties as alternatives to Bt hybrids

Based on a multiplication evaluation, 8 Bt varieties were approved for commercialization in 2017 (Table 3).

Table 3: Bt varieties approved for cultivation in different states

S.N.	Name of the variety	Area of adaptation
1	CICR Bt 6 (RS 2013)	Haryana
2	PAU Bt1	Punjab & Rajasthan
3	ICAR-CICR Bt 9	Maharashtra
4	ICAR-CICR Bt 14 (CPT 2)	Maharashtra
5	ICAR-CICR GJHV 374 Bt	Maharashtra
6	ICAR-CICR PKV 081 Bt	Maharashtra
7	ICAR-CICR Rajat Bt	Maharashtra & South Rajasthan
8	ICAR-CICR SurajBt	Central Zone - Maharashtra, Gujarat, Madhya Pradesh

These varieties have several desirable traits such as short duration; sympodial architecture; early maturing with synchronous flowering and fruiting; high initial root and shoot vigor; high harvest index and can be a boon to resource poor farmers under irrigated and rainfed conditions.

3. HDPS of long linted *G arboretum* varieties for marginal soils under rainfed conditions

- * Our trials with long linted arboreums under HDPS indicated that genotypes - PA 740, PA 785, PA 812, and PA 255 gave significantly higher seed cotton yield than Ajeet BG II planted under normal density. The yields were higher under shallow soils (Vertic Inceptisols) than on deep soils (Vertisols)
- * These genotypes had longer fibre length than Ajeet 155 BG II. The genotypes PA 812, PA 760, PA 785, PA 08 and PA 528 recorded Spinning Consistency Index values SCI values higher than 130 as against 130 by Ajeet 155.

4. Adoption of conservation tillage, cover crops, intercrops, crop residue recycling / mulching to reduce soil loss, improve soil health

- * At Nagpur, soil moisture conservation were achieved through ridge-furrow, bio-mulch with sesbania and sunhemp and BBF (Figure 3). The yield realized in control (without conservation was 1198 kg ha⁻¹) and the yield gain (over control) was 120 kg ha⁻¹ with Pusa Hydrogel (single dose) @ 3.25kg ha⁻¹, 300 kg ha⁻¹ with ridges-furrow system, 299 kg ha⁻¹ with bio-mulch of Sesbania

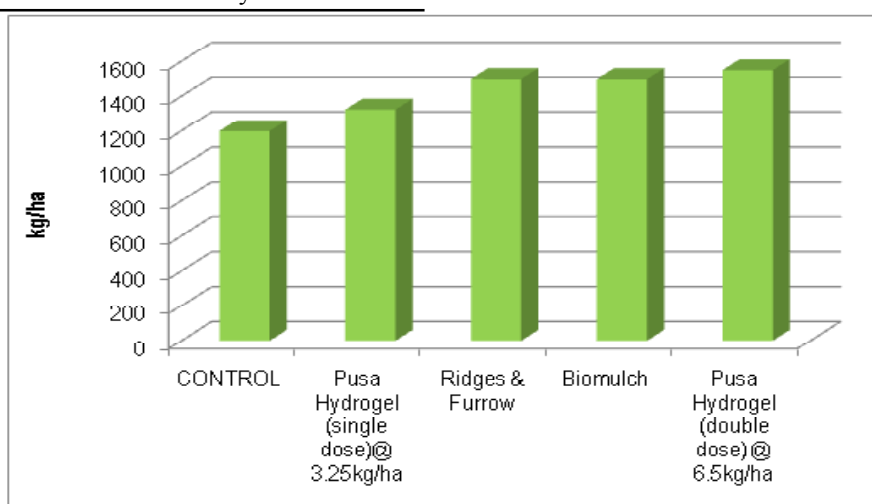


Figure 3: Effect of soil moisture conservation measures on seed cotton yield in Vertisols of Nagpur

Avenues to Improve Farm Income from Cotton under Changing Climatic Scenario

and 350 kg ha⁻¹ with Pusa Hydrogel (double dose) @ 6.5kg ha⁻¹. Pusa hydrogel was not economical. At Coimbatore, ridge-furrow method gave significantly higher seed cotton yield (2900 kg ha⁻¹) over raised bed method (2820 kg ha⁻¹) and control (2370 kg ha⁻¹).

- * Intercropping with short duration legumes provides adequate nitrogen exactly at the flowering and boll formation stage. Legume intercropping provides a wide range of beneficial natural enemies that assist in IPM, thereby reducing the need for insecticides. Cultivation of legume intercrops in between rows in high density systems or in crop rotation reduces the need for repeated weeding and can assist in conservation agriculture. Among the different intercrops evaluated, clusterbean, groundnut, cowpea and soybean were found promising on rainfed black soils.

5. **Mulching to reduce soil temperature, smother weeds and conserve soil moisture**

6. **Canopy management to modify plant architecture**

- * A growth retardant, Mepiquat chloride @ 50 gai ha⁻¹ in 2 equal splits at peak squaring (55-65 days stage) and peak flowering (75-85 days stage) was effective in modifying crop architecture and bringing in the desired canopy. Its application reduced plant height, curtailed excessive vegetative growth, ensured a more efficient translation of photosynthates to bolls, increased boll weight and further enhanced yield at high planting densities (Venugoplan *et al.*, 2016).

7. **Precision input management including synchronized nutrient delivery, to improve factor productivity.**

8. **Selective mechanization of sowing, weeding and picking to reduce cost of weeding**

- * Inclined plate planter was found effective for planting cotton under HDPS.

Roadmap to increase the cotton yield and cotton farmers income

Productivity improvement in cotton to 700 kg ha⁻¹ through effective containment of on-farm and off farm losses.

- * Deployment of compact, short duration (150 days), sucking pest tolerant Bt *G. hirsutum* - varieties in 20 per cent area – North India, South and Central India (with supplementary irrigation), assured rainfall regions.

- * Deployment of Hybrids in 60 per cent area- Well drained soils and irrigated regions of Gujarat, deltaic soils of South India and valleys of Central India and deep soils with assured rainfall (rainfed)

- * Deployment of Desi cotton: 20 per cent area under long-linted (drylands of Central and South India) and 5per cent short staple desi in N. India and North east.

- * High Density Planting System (1-2 lakh plants ha⁻¹ - varieties and 30,000 plants ha⁻¹ - hybrids) of Bt varieties and desi cotton

- * Widespread adoption of Best Management Practices (HDPS, legume based cropping systems, residue recycling, microbial consortia, intercropping, soil moisture conservation, Integrated Pest Management/ Insecticide Resistance Management) through skill improvement of farmers through demonstrations of best management practices.

- * Effective utilization of cotton stalk for charcoal, pellets / briquettes, substrate for mushroom rearing, vermi-compost etc., to improve farm income by 5 – 10 per cent.

- * Timely dissemination weather based advisories and scientifically validated cotton crop care advisories to cotton farmers through ICT tools.

- * Intensification of efforts to augment the production of extra long staple cotton to reduce imports

CONCLUSION

Low cotton yields, limited opportunity for diversification and wide year to year fluctuation are serious obstacles in doubling the income of rainfed cotton farmers. BMPs conclude that short duration, early maturing varieties with high harvest-index and heat tolerance, timely planting, selective deployment of high density planting systems and *desi* cotton varieties, conservation tillage and crop residue management practices and synchronized nutrient delivery systems can be helpful in adapting to climatic uncertainties, improve cotton yields, increase

input use efficiency and reduce production costs. New short duration varieties, both long-lint Desi (*Gossypium arboreum*) and Bt-varieties have great potential to enhance yields at low production costs in consonance with ecology and environment. Farmers need to adopt these yield enhancing, cost saving technologies and switch over to more sustainable production systems to reduce risks, improve farm income under the uncertain climate change scenario.

LITERATURE CITED

- Bandyopadhyay, A., A. Bhadra, N. S. Raghuwanshi and R. Singh, 2008. Estimation of monthly solar radiation from measured air temperature extremes, *Agric. For. Meteorol.*, 148, 1707–1718.
- Batjes, N. H., 2008. ISRIC-WISE Harmonized Global Soil Profile Dataset (Ver. 3.1). Report 2008/02, ISRIC – World Soil Information, Wageningen (with dataset). (http://www.isric.org/isric/Webdocs/Docs/ISRIC_Report_2008_02.pdf)
- Chand, Ramesh, 2017. Doubling Farmers' Income, Rationale, Strategy, Prospects and Action Plan. NITI Policy paper, No 1/2017, NITI Ayog, Govt of India, New Delhi : 33.
- Gomez, K. A. and A. A. Gomez, 1984. *Statistical Procedures for Agricultural Research*, 2nd edn. John Wiley, New York, USA.
- Hebbar, K. B., M. V. Venugopalan, A. H. Prakash and P. K. Aggarwal, 2013. Simulating the impacts of climate change on cotton production in India, *Climatic Change*, 118(3-4), 701-713.
- Naresh Kumar S, P. K. Aggarwal, D. N. Swarioopa Rani and S. Jain, 2014. Vulnerability of wheat production to climate change in India, *Climate Res.*, 59(3)173-187
- Kranthi, K.R., 2017. Unlearn A Few And Learn Some New. *Cotton Statistics and News*, No 43, 24th January 2017 : 1-4.
- Krishna Kumar, K., S. K. Patwardhan, A. Kulkarni, K. Kamala, K. Koteswara Rao and R. Jones, 2011. Simulated projections for summer monsoon climate over India by a high-resolution regional climate model (PRECIS), *Current Sci.*, 101(3): 312-326
- Rama, Rao C. A., B. M. K. Raju, A. V. M. Subba Rao, K. V. Rao, V. U. M. Rao Kausalya Ramachandran, B. Venkateswarlu, and A. K. Sikka, 2013. Atlas on Vulnerability of Indian Agriculture to Climate Change, Central Research Institute for Dryland Agriculture, Hyderabad : 116.
- Reddy, A. R.M., V. Venugopalan, Isabella Aggrawal and Anuradha Narala, 2016. Is MSP Relevant for Cotton Farmers in India, *Cotton Res. J.*, 7(2) 82-85
- Singh, R. P., 2017. Status Paper of Indian Cotton, DCD, Ministry of Agriculture and Farmers Welfare Govt of India : 41
- Suresh, A., P. Ramasundaram, S. Samuel and S. Wankhade, 2013. Impact of Technology and Policy on Growth and Instability of Agricultural Production: The Case of Cotton in India, *Indian J. Agri. Sci.*, (83) : 939-48.
- Venugopalan, M.V., KR Kranthi, D. Blaise, Shubhangi Lakde and K. Sankaranarayana, 2013. High density planting system in cotton - The Brazil Experience and Indian Initiatives, *Cotton Res. J.*, ISCI. 5(2):172-185.
- Venugopalan, M. V., V. N. Waghmare, D. Blaise, S. Kranthi and K. R. Kranthi. 2016. Cotton Production and Development in India, In Proc Cotton Technology Exchange Program in SAARC Region, December 2016. : 41-60.
- Venugopalan, M. V., K. R. Kranthi, Shubhangi Lakade and N.R. Tandulkar, 2016. Development of agro-technology to increase yields of a shy-bearer desi cotton species, *Gossypium arboreum* race cernuum in a non-traditional area of cultivation, *Current Sci.*, 110(4) : 692-695
- Venugopalan, M. V., A. R. Reddy, K. R. Kranthi, M. S. Yadav, Vandana Satish and Dhanashree Pable, 2018. A Decade of Bt Cotton in India: Land Use Changes and Other Socio-Economic Consequences, In Reddy, GPO, Patil, ND and Chaturvedi A eds. Sustainable Management of Land Resources - An Indian Perspective, Apple Academic Press : 669-698.



Received on 15.10.2018

Soil Sustainability and Quality Assessment from Long Term Fertilizer Experiments: A Step Forward to Improve and Revive Crop Productivity and Soil Health

R. H. Wanjari¹ and Muneshwar Singh²

ABSTRACT

Soil health, the underlying principle in the use of this term is that it is not just an inert, lifeless growing medium, which modern farming tends to represent, rather it is a living, dynamic and ever-so-subtly changing whole environment. It turns out that soils highly fertile from the point of view of crop productivity are also lively from a biological point of view. Soil health is the condition of the soil in a defined space and at a defined scale relative to a set of bench marks that encompass healthy functioning. Soil health encompasses the state of soil in terms of biological, physical and chemical properties. Soil health is very vital because there is a fatigue in soil in terms of productivity, quality and sustainability. Concerns are growing about the long-term sustainability of agriculture. Both the over- and under-application of fertilizers and the poor management of resources not only deteriorated soil health but also raised environmental concerns. In developing countries, harsh climatic conditions, population pressure, land constraints and ignoring traditional soil management practices have often reduced soil fertility (Kumwenda *et al.*, 1996). It is often said that Indian agriculture is operating at a negative nutrient balance of about 10 million tonnes of NPK. This is to happen when nutrient supplies through external sources are less than nutrient removal by crops from the soil. Negative balances could well indicate that the soils are being mined and that farming systems are unsustainable over the long-term. Because agriculture is a soil-based industry that extracts nutrients from the soil, effective and efficient approaches to slowing the pace of most of the nutrients essential for plant growth and that the way in which nutrients are managed will have a major impact on plant growth, soil fertility and agricultural sustainability. Farmers, researchers, fertilizer industry and governments all have an important role to play in this context. Integrated nutrient management (INM) is not a new concept. It is an age-old practice when almost all the nutrient needs were met through organic sources to supply secondary and micronutrients besides primary nutrients. Keeping this in view, in India long term fertilizer experiments were started in September, 1970. In this paper the research findings emerged out of these experiments are narrated.

J. B. Lawes and J. H. Gilbert started nine long-term experiments between 1843 and 1856, these are called the '*Rothamsted Classical Experiments*'. In India also a series of long-term fertilizer experiments were established at different locations in the country in the beginning of 20th century. During late sixties high yielding varieties (HYV) were introduced which later on proved to be the main pillar of Green Revolution. Intensification of agriculture under irrigated condition resulted in acceleration of nutrient mining from soil to harness the potential of the HYV for long term. Under this situation, it has become imperative to maintain nutrient supply in sufficient quantity without external use of fertilizers. In view of these emerging compulsions the Indian Council of Agricultural Research initiated the "All India Coordinated Research Project on Long-Term Fertilizer

Experiments (AICRP-LTFE)" in September 1970. The purpose of conducting long term fertilizer experiments at fixed sites in different agroecological zones (AEZ) with important cropping systems was not only to monitor the changes in soil properties and yield responses and soil environment due to continuous application of plant nutrient inputs through fertilizers and organic sources. The results from LTFEs further used in developing strategies and policies in national perspectives as well as management of fertilizers to improve soil quality and to minimize environment degradation. Thus, the thrust of AICRP- LTFE is on productivity, sustainability and environment safety.

In India, fertiliser found to be a key factor to enhance agricultural production and its use has increased rapidly in the last few decades, mainly due to adoption of

1. Principal Scientist and 2. Project Coordinator, All India Coordinated Research Project on Long Term Fertilizer Experiments ICAR-Indian Institute of Soil Science, Nabibagh, Berasia Road, Bhopal

high yielding and nutrient responsive cultivars in large parts of the country. Adoption of fertilisers has largely replaced traditional practices, such as recycling of crop residues and application of organic manures. Introduction of irrigation further enhanced fertiliser use. However, the likely high fertilizer cost in years to come, deterioration of soil health as a result of imbalanced use of nutrients and questions of sustainability have led to a renewed interest in the use of organic manure. Now, sustainability refers to the maintenance and/or enhancement of productivity on a long-term basis continuously through integrated land management (Randhawa, 1994). No system of agriculture will be sustainable unless the productivity and quality of the soil are continuously maintained (Kanwar, 1994). Low and declining soil fertility are the main causes of low productivity under intensive cropping systems (Nambiar and Ghosh, 1982; Nambiar and Abrol, 1989; Nambiar, 1994; Swarup and Wanjari, 2000). Nevertheless, integrated effect of both organic manure and fertilizer sources of plant nutrients has been found to be quite promising not only in maintaining higher productivity but also in providing stability in soil fertility and crop production. In this context the results of the long-term fertilizer experiments provide an opportunity to measure sustainable management systems in agriculture (Rasmussen, 1998). These are records of the past and may serve as early warning systems for the future (Dawe *et al.*, 2000). In order to monitor the changes in soil fertility and yield responses due to continuous application of plant nutrient from fertilisers and organic manures, the first step in analysing the results of fertilizer in long-term experiment is to identify one or more characters to be used as an index of crop sustainability.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

The long term fertiliser experiments (LTFEs) started in September, 1970 and they have fixed set of treatments. These LTFEs covers four major soil types, eleven agro-ecological zones with predominant cropping systems under vivid climatic situations. The long term fertilizer experiments were being conducted in intensive and irrigated system with predominant cropping systems of different agro-ecological zones exists in India. The experimental sites are located in different State Agricultural Universities (SAUs) and ICAR Institutes (Table 1). The

details of soil type, cropping system, agro-ecological sub-region (AESR), latitude, longitude and altitude of different experimental sites spread over country. There are 10 treatments in each experiment. These are: 50 per cent optimal NPK dose; 100 per cent optimal NPK dose; 150 per cent optimal NPK dose; 100 per cent optimal NPK dose + hand weeding; 100 per cent optimal NPK dose + Zinc or lime; 100 per cent optimal NP; 100 per cent optimal N; 100 per cent optimal NPK + FYM; 100 per cent optimal NPK (Sulphur free/sulphur source); Control with a provision of one or two additional treatments that may be of local or regional interest. The treatments are replicated four times in a randomized block design.

Impact of Long term Fertilizer and Manures on Soil Health

Soil Physical Properties

Physical properties are important to assess the soil that help in deciding the management required for particular activities. The data clearly indicated that bulk density of soil decreased considerably on continuous application of FYM along with the recommended dose of fertilizers (NPK) as compared to that of control where no fertilizer was applied. Increase in mean weight diameter (MWD) on application of nutrient with organic manure compared to control is due to incorporation of more residual biomass. The largest reduction in bulk density, improvement in MWD and water holding capacity on application of FYM confirms that organic matter play an important role in maintaining physical condition of soil. Among various soil physical properties, bulk density (BD) has been widely considered as a critical parameter for soil health assessment, largely due to its relationships with other soil state (strength and porosity) and rate (moisture retention and flow characteristics) variables. In long-term experiments a reduction in BD due to application of manure have been observed (Singh and Wanjari, 2007; Singh and Wanjari, 2012). Soil aggregation in general composes soil structure which greatly influenced with addition of organic sources.

Soil Biological Properties

Biological properties of soil are equally important in assessing the soil health. In soil all the nutrients are mediated through biochemical reactions which are performed by the soil organisms. The activities of the organisms in soil give an idea about the soil condition.

Table 1. Details of AICRP-LTFE experimental sites in India

Location	Soil Type	Taxonomic Class	Cropping system	AESR	Latitude	Longitude	Altitude
Akola	Vertisols	TypicHaplustert	Sorghum-wheat	6.2	20°42' N	77°02' E	307 m
Bangalore	Alfisols	KandicPaleustalf	Fingermillet-maize	8.1	12°58' N	77°35' E	930 m
Barrackpore	Inceptisols	TypicEutrochrept	Rice-wheat	15.1	22°45' N	88°26' E	9 m
Coimbatore	Inceptisols	VerticUstopept	Finger millet-maize	8.1	11°02' N	76°59' E	426 m
Jabalpur	Vertisols	TypicChromustert	Soybean-wheat	10.1	23°10' N	79°59' E	411 m
Jagtial	Inceptisols	TypicTropaquept	Rice-rice	7.2	18°48' N	78°55' E	263 m
Junagadh	Vertisols	VerticUstochrept	Groundnut-wheat	2.4	21°30' N	70°26' E	61 m
Ludhiana	Inceptisols	TypicUstochrept	Maize-wheat	4.1	30°54' N	75°48' E	247 m
New Delhi	Inceptisols	TypicUstochrept	Maize-wheat	4.1	28° 38' N	77° 09' E	228 m
Palampur	Alfisols	TypicHapludalf	Maize-wheat	14.3	32°07' N	76°31' E	1472 m
Pantnagar	Mollisosl	Typic Hapludoll	Rice-wheat	14.1	29°05' N	79°52' E	243 m
Pattambi	Alfisols	TypicHaplustalf	Rice-rice	19.2	10°48' N	76°12' E	25 m
Raipur	Vertisols	TypicHaplusterts	Rice-wheat	11.0	21°17' N	81°45' E	695 m
Ranchi	Alfisols	TypicHaplustalf	Soybean-wheat	12.3	23°23' N	85°23' E	625 m
Udaipur	Inceptisols	TypicUstochrept	Maize-wheat	4.2	24°36' N	73°44' E	577 m

AESR = Agro-Ecological Sub-Region (Source: Wanjari and Singh, 2010)

Biological properties are influenced by nutrient management practices. Soil organic matter acts as substrate for soil macro and micro flora and fauna. These organisms maintain their population by using organic matter as substrate. The data on population of various organism under different treatment indicated that irrespective of nutrient combination, balance application of chemical fertilizer resulted increase in population of bacteria, fungi and actinomycetes. Data further indicated that imbalance use of nutrient say N alone had negative effect on population compared with balanced treatment but superior to control. Incorporation of biomass in larger quantity through root and stubble added to soil as a result of higher productivity in plot receiving balanced nutrient application favoured microbial population.

Dehydrogenase activity in soil has been considered as an index of overall microbial activity. Hydrolysis of fluorescein diacetate (FDA) appears to be important among the primary producers, bacteria and fungi. This hydrolysis is mediated by a number of enzymes like proteases, lipases and esterase, at a single time. Microbial biomass carbon (MBC) is another biological

indicator which gives status of soil. The data demonstrated that absence of P and K reduced microbial biomass carbon may be due to imbalance of nutrient status in soil.

Soil Chemical Properties

Soil pH

Soil pH is an intrinsic property that takes longer time to change. In general, data indicated that application of fertilizer over the years resulted in slight reduction in pH of soil in Alfisols. But effect of application of 100 per cent N alone lowered the soil pH in Alfisols group of soils. Soil pH data further revealed decline at several other centres also where initial soil pH was in alkaline range. Decline in soil pH irrespective of initial status is due to acidic nature of nitrogenous fertilizer.

Electrical Conductivity

Across the treatments the EC of soil remain more or less stable with little variation. The EC is below critical limit for crop growth at all the sites. Therefore, it is not adversely affecting the crop growth.

Soil Organic Carbon (SOC)

Soil organic carbon is key soil parameter to assess

physical condition as well as source- sink for nutrients depending upon soil parameters to form good structure for root growth, infiltration of water and exchange of air for respiration of roots. Data indicated that growing of crops with balance nutrient management option resulted increase in organic carbon at almost all the centres. The increase in SOC was found to be more under balanced and integrated nutrient management. The increase in SOC on application of fertilizer is due to increase in quantity of residual biomass as a result of higher production. More increase in SOC under balanced and integrated nutrient management support the statements that under these treatments productivity is proportionately greater than other treatments. Therefore, in these treatments amount of residual biomass added is relatively larger which is reflected in SOC.

Soil Nutrient Status

Available N

Balanced and integrated use of nutrient resulted increase in N status at most of the sites, if not then at least maintained. Imbalance use of nutrient or their less application could not maintain the available status of N with respect to initial. Data further indicated that cropping system also played a role in maintaining the N status. For example, soybean based cropping system at Jabalpur and Parbhani resulted significant improvement in available N status in all the treatments. The larger N content in residual biomass of soybean could be a reason for increase in soil N content in all treatments. Here, it could be supplemented that at these sites increase in SOC was also in larger quantity. Rainfall and soil type are also important factors which decide N status of soil. In-spite of soybean based system at Ranchi improvement in available N was not recorded. In general, integrated use of nutrient, incorporation of lime/FYM, exclusive use of FYM resulted increase in available status of N in soil. Comparison of trend of available N with SOC under different management practices, it is found that available N status followed trend similar to SOC.

Available P

Regular supply of P to crop is essential to sustain the productivity over the years. Irrespective of soils, all crops have shown response to applied P. In Alfisols, P is

second most important nutrient after K. Available P soil status indicated built up in soil P. Continuous application of fertilizer P resulted increase in P status and relatively more increase was noted in Alfisols compared to Inceptisols and Vertisols of Jabalpur and Akola. This could be because of calcareous nature of Vertisols soil. Even after 40 years increase in P status in soils of Coimbatore is of very low order. These soils are rich in CaCO_3 and fixation of P as calcium phosphate could be possible reason for low available P status in-spite of application of similar amount of P. Incorporation of FYM resulted for the increase in available P status at all sites. This is because of additional supply of P and secondly application of FYM during decomposition produces organic complex which block P fixation sites. Decline in available P status in 100 per cent N and control treatment is obviously due to no application of P in fertilizer schedule.

Available K

Potassium is also most required element by majority of crops. Even though K is not a constituent of plant but required in larger quantity almost equal to nitrogen. Available K status revealed decline in Vertisols and associated soils (Jabalpur, Akola, Junagadh) whereas in Alfisols (Bangalore, Bhubaneshwar, Pattambi) reverse trend was noted. However, an increase in estimates of available K were noted in other soils like Mollisols of Pantnagar and Inceptisols of New Delhi and Ludhiana. It indicates that absence of K over a long period invariably resulted in decline of K status irrespective of soil type. In Alfisols, sufficiently larger amount of K need to be added to soil to maintain the crop productivity and soil fertility. Thus, it is the reason that crop show response to applied K in Alfisols.

Available Micronutrients

Growing of high yielding varieties along with high use of irrigation and fertilizers lead to emergence of micro and secondary nutrients. Similarly, increase in cropping intensity and application of high analysis fertilizer accelerated the mining of nutrients from soil including micronutrient. In addition to this, little/no use of organic matter further aggravated the magnitude of micronutrient deficiency in crop. Amongst the micronutrients, Zn cation was found highly deficient in different pockets of country.

Perusal of micronutrient status indicated that Zn level has gone down to critical limit at Jabalpur and Akola wherein crop may respond to applied Zn in near future. Mollisols at Pantnagar Zn is one of the deficient element and available status is at the verge of inadequacy. Otherwise at other centres still the level of Zn is far above the critical limit. As far as available status of Cu, Fe and Mn is concerned, these nutrients are in sufficient range in almost all soils and crops are not expected to suffer in near future. Application of organic manure irrespective of quantity and location improved available status of all micronutrients (Zn, Cu, Fe and Mn). The balanced application of nutrient is also taking care of these cations by mobilization from the reserve source during decomposition residual biomass added to soil. Thus, from the results it is concluded that incorporation of organic matter (FYM, GM) not only maintained the supply of these nutrients but also improved their status.

Crop Productivity

Crop yield is the reflection of soil fertility and crop growth and weather situation. Yield trends revealed gradual decline in yield of major crops like rice, wheat and soybean compared to initial productivity. It implies that more attention has to be required to these factors. The crop productivity follows the order as NPK+FYM > 150 per cent NPK > 100 per cent NPK+Zn or lime > 100 per cent NPK > 100 per cent NP > 100 per cent N > control. In Alfisols, 100 per cent N is found to be more deleterious than control.

Sustainability

The data on sustainable yield index (SYI) indicated that imbalance nutrient application resulted in decline of SYI values indicating unfit for continuation (Table 2). On the contrary, balance nutrient application found sustainable compared to imbalance treatments. The integrated nutrient management gave highest index values across the soil type and cropping systems (Table 2).

Soil Quality

Soil quality index (SQI) indicate the condition of soil at that point of time under a particular management practice. More is the SQI better is the soil quality. The SQI was estimated by using principal component analysis

(PCA) and using their relative contribution in productivity. In general, the balanced nutrient application recorded higher SQI values than imbalanced treatments. However, in Alfisols NPK+ FYM, NPK+ lime gave relatively higher SQI than control which suggest that balanced application of nutrient improved soil quality. Incorporation of organic manure further improved the soil quality. In these treatments yields were also sustained at higher level at almost all the locations suggesting that balanced use of nutrient not only sustained the yield but also improved the soil quality.

Revival of Soil Fertility and Crop Productivity

The imbalance nutrient application over the years not only declined the crop yields but also soil fertility. Such deteriorated soils can be revived by application of manure or amendments in addition to the recommended dose of fertilizers. Taking into account such emerging factors, corrective measures were considered in the form of superimposition of treatments at respective LTFE sites. The superimposition of FYM and lime moderates soil pH and improved soil organic carbon. Application of both FYM and lime resulted in improvement of soil fertility, moderated soil condition and eventually resulted into higher crop yields. These superimposition has also overall improved physical, chemical and biological conditions of soils. Thus, application of FYM or lime improved the productivity of almost all the crops across the major soils. However, the results are conspicuous in all the crops grown on Alfisols.

CONCLUSION

Nitrogen or NP alone has deleterious effect on crop yield and soil quality, the effects are more pronounced in acid soils such as Alfisols. The application of NPK along with FYM improves the physical, chemical and biological properties of soil and thereby enhanced soil health. The deteriorated soil and crop productivity through imbalance nutrient application can be revived either with amendments and FYM application. Thus, integrated use of fertilizer along with manure is vital for sustaining crop productivity and soil health over the years. Balance and integrated nutrient management is the option to maintain crop productivity, sustainability and soil health

Table 2. Sustainable yield index (SYI) estimates for long term fertilizer experiments in India

Centre	Crop	Control	N	NP	100 % NPK	150 % NPK	NPK+Zn	NPK+FYM	NPK+Lime
Barrackpore	Rice	0.15	0.29	0.34	0.35	0.41	0.30	0.40	-
	Wheat	0.11	0.30	0.36	0.38	0.47	0.37	0.41	-
Pantnagar	Rice	0.13	0.39	0.43	0.41	0.38	0.47	0.50	-
	Wheat	0.15	0.46	0.51	0.51	0.50	0.56	0.62	-
Ludhiana	Maize	0.03	0.18	0.24	0.29	0.32	0.37	0.44	-
	Wheat	0.14	0.43	0.63	0.70	0.76	0.74	0.78	-
Palampur	Maize	0.01	0.07	0.15	0.35	0.36	0.34	0.53	0.47
	Wheat	0.04	0.05	0.15	0.28	0.28	0.27	0.42	0.40
Ranchi	Soybean	0.10	0.01	0.21	0.49	0.47	-	0.62	0.60
	Wheat	0.03	0.02	0.29	0.35	0.36	-	0.43	0.41
Bangalore	F. Millet	0.06	0.06	0.07	0.50	0.61	-	0.56	0.49
	H. Maize	0.00	0.01	0.01	0.21	0.22	-	0.27	0.25
New Delhi	Maize	0.25	0.34	0.38	0.44	0.50	0.47	0.51	-
	Wheat	0.38	0.58	0.67	0.74	0.81	0.76	0.82	-
Coimbatore	F. Millet	0.08	0.12	0.36	0.37	0.41	0.36	0.46	-
	Maize	0.06	0.09	0.36	0.39	0.43	0.41	0.47	-
Junagadh	Groundnut	0.22	0.20	0.21	0.27	0.30	0.28	-	-
	Wheat	0.27	0.23	0.37	0.40	0.43	0.38	-	-
Udaipur	Maize	0.34	0.50	0.62	0.67	-	0.72	0.79	-
	Wheat	0.26	0.45	0.54	0.60	-	0.62	0.69	-
Raipur	Rice	0.60	0.43	0.61	0.61	0.68	0.62	0.66	-
	Wheat	0.26	0.38	0.68	0.67	0.81	0.69	0.75	-
Jagtial	Kharif Rice	0.32	0.46	0.52	0.55	0.57	0.54	0.58	-
	Rabi Rice	0.24	0.31	0.45	0.46	0.50	0.46	0.48	-
Jabalpur	Soybean	0.13	0.14	0.26	0.32	0.30	0.29	0.35	-
	Wheat	0.14	0.15	0.49	0.54	0.56	0.53	0.59	-
Akola	Sorghum	0.01	0.15	0.21	0.29	0.40	0.33	0.40	-
	Wheat	0.00	0.13	0.18	0.31	0.41	0.31	0.00	-
Parbhani	Soybean	0.23	0.25	0.36	0.41	0.44	0.39	0.44	-
	Safflower	0.29	0.35	0.37	0.45	0.49	0.44	0.49	-
Pattmbi	Kharif/Rice	0.33	0.44	0.46	0.48	0.50	-	0.61	0.49
	Rabi/Rice	0.47	0.58	0.62	0.68	0.69	-	0.82	0.67
Bhubneshwar	Kharif/Rice	0.26	0.31	0.34	0.46	0.51	-	0.00	-
	Rabi/Rice	0.23	0.33	0.48	0.55	0.61	-	0.00	-

LITERATURE CITED

- Dawe, D., A. Dobermann, P. Moya, S. Abdulrachman Bijay Singh, P. Lal, S.Y. Li, B. Lin, Panaullah Sariam, G., Y. Singh, A. Swarup, P.S. Tan and Q. X. Zhen, 2000. *Field Crops Res.*, 66: 175-193.
- Debarup Das, B.S. Dwivedi, M.C. Meena, V.K. Singh and K.N. Tiwari, 2015. *Integrated Nutrient Management for Improving Soil Health and Crop Productivity*, *Indian J. Fert.*, 11 (4) : 64-83.
- Kanwar, J.S., 1994. Relevance of soil management in sustainable agriculture in dryland agriculture : 1-11. *In: T.D. Biswas (ed.) Soil Management for Sustainable Agriculture in Dryland Areas*, Indian Society of Soil Science, New Delhi, India.
- Kumwenda, J.D.T., S.R. Waddington, S.S. Snapp, R.B. Jones, and M.J. Blackie, 1996. NRG Paper 96-02, CIMMYT, Mexico.
- Nambiar, K.K.M., 1994. *In: K.K.M. Nambiar (ed) Soil Fertility and Crop Productivity Under Long-term Fertilizer Use in India*. ICAR, New Delhi, India : 98-122.
- Nambiar, K.K.M. and I.P. Abrol, 1989. *Fertiliser News* 34 (4): 11-20, 26
- Nambiar, K.K.M. and A. B. Ghosh, 1982. *LTFE Research Bulletin 1*, IARI, New Delhi, India.
- Randhawa, N.S. 1994. *Bulletin Indian Society of Soil Science*, 16: 135
- Rasmussen, P.E., K.W.T. Goulding, J.R. Brown, P.R. Grace, H.H. Janzen, and M. Korschens 1998. *Science*, 282: 893-896.
- Singh, M. and R.H. Wanjari, 2007. *AICRP on Long-term Fertilizer Experiments (LTFE) to Study Changes in Soil Quality, Crop Productivity and Sustainability Research Bulletin*, IISS, Bhopal.
- Singh, M. and R.H. Wanjari, 2012. *AICRP on Long-term Fertilizer Experiments (LTFE) to Study Changes in Soil Quality, Crop Productivity and Sustainability Research Bulletin*, IISS, Bhopal (2012).
- Swarup, A. and R.H. Wanjari, 2000. *In: Three decades of All India Coordinated Research Project on Long Term Fertilizer Experiments to study Changes in Soil Quality, Crop Productivity and Sustainability*, Indian Institute of Soil Science, Bhopal : 59.
- Wanjari, R.H and M. Singh, 2010. Yield trend, nutrient efficiency and sustainability of major cropping systems under long term experiments in India, *Indian J. Fertil.*, 6 (11) : 122-196.



Received on 10.10.2018

Effect of Organic Manures on Yield and Essential Oil of Sweet Flag in Konkan Region

P. C. Arekar¹, S. S. Narkhede², A. D. Rane³, G. D. Shirke⁴, V. G. More⁵ and M. C. Kasture⁶

ABSTRACT

Acorus calamus (Sweet flag) is one of the endangered medicinal plants mostly grown in wild without much attention. Also it is in high demand in pharmaceutical and perfumery industries. Hence, a study was undertaken of 2017-18 to assess the possibility of optimizing its rhizome yield and essential oil recovery by different source of organic manures based on recommended doses of nitrogen under field condition. Significantly maximum rhizome yield (4674.7 kg ha⁻¹) and essential oil recovery (1.87%) was obtained with Farm yard manure 100 per cent of RDN. Hence this study illustrates the possibility of optimizing rhizome yield and essential oil content of *A. calamus* through organic manures only.

Acorus calamus Linn. is a tall perennial wetland monocot plant from the Acoraceae family and commonly known as Sweet flag in English, *Vacha* in Sanskrit and *Vekhand* in Hindi and Marathi. Sweet flag is a semiaquatic perennial herb with a stout midrib, with creeping and many branched aromatic rhizomes. It consists of long creeping rhizomes which spread out just below the surface of the soil. The rhizomes are whitish pink internally, cylindrical in shape. Leaves are free, alternate, green and wavy having thin testa which is cylindrical in shape. (Prakash *et al.*, 2015).

Acorus calamus is one of the endangered medicinal plant; mostly growing in wild form without much attention (Singh and Nongmaithem, 2013) and found near swamps and banks of perennial wetlands in Asia, Europe, and North America. It is indigenous to the marshes of the mountains of India and found in Kashmir, Shirmaur (Himachal Pradesh), Manipur and Naga Hills (Shetty *et al.*, 2015). It is cultivated throughout India, ascending to an altitude of about 2200 metres. It is regularly cultivated in the Koratagere taluka of Karnataka state in an area of 100 acres and the annual production is 400 tonnes of dried rhizomes (Lokesh, 2004).

Demand for the crop material of sweet flag is a derived demand and that is based on Ayurvedic medicines. This has increased substantially during the recent years due increased dependence on Ayurvedic medicines. The dramatic increase in exports of medicinal plants in the

past decade upholds the worldwide demand for these products as well as in traditional health systems. (Deshpande, *et al.*, 2006)

Medicinal plants are natural resources as they are unique, indispensable and an estimate of their availability is complex. These provide a good source of income if cultivated aggressively and traded, as the demand is fast increasing. According to National Medicinal Plant Board (NMPB), the annual demand of *Acorus* roots by the herbal industries and crude drug producers in all over India nearly 500-1000 M.T.. The current price of *Acorus* roots is Rs.100 Kg⁻¹.

Acorus calamus contains yellow aromatic volatile oils; α -asarone and β -asarone are the major constituent in the leaves (27.4 to 45.5%), whereas, acorenone is dominant in the rhizomes (20.86 %) followed by isocalamendiol (12.75%). Monoterpene hydrocarbons, sequestrine ketones, (trans or alpha) asarone (2,4,5- trimethoxy -1-propenylbenzene), and α asarone (cis - isomer) and eugenol have also been identified. *A. calamus* is also a source of alkaloids, flavanoids, gums, lecithins mucilage, phenols, quinine, saponins, sugars, tannins and triterpenes, etc. (Prakash *et al.* 2015).

Extracts of different parts and essential oil of *Acorus calamus* are widely used in pharmaceuticals, traditional systems of medicines for a number of ailments. The species are used in traditional medicine for the treatment of cough, epilepsy, mental ailments, chronic

1. PG Student, 2. Dean, Faculty of Agriculture, 3 & 6. Assoc. Professor, 4&5. Assit. Professor, Dr. Balasaheb Sawant Konkan Krishi Vidyapeeth, Dapoli (M.S.)

diarrhoea, dysentery, bronchial catarrh, skin diseases, intermittent fevers, and glandular and abdominal tumours (Paithankar *et al.*, 2011). Different drug types with varying content of B-asarone were obtained from *Acorus calamus*. The plant extracts shows various biological activities including as anti-bacterial, anti-fungal, insecticidal, nematocidal, antiulcer and cytoprotective activity, anti-inflammatory, anticonvulsant (Kumar and Vandana, 2013).

For a long crop duration (about 10 months) and its rhizomatous nature, it requires heavy input of fertilizers. But, continuous use of inorganic chemical fertilizer negatively affects soil environment and pollutes underground water (Naguib, 2011). It is essential to reduce indiscriminate use of inorganic chemical fertilizer and to simultaneously increase the use of organic manures which improve soil, plant health. Therefore, the present investigation was carried out to assess organic manures on rhizome yield and essential oil of Sweet flag in Konkan region.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

The study was conducted in the experimental farm of College of Forestry, Dr. Balasaheb Sawant Konkan Krishi Vidyapeeth, Dapoli, District Ratnagiri of Maharashtra during 2017-2018. The study area is located between 17° 45" N and 73° 12" E. The climate of Dapoli is warm and humid. During study period maximum and minimum temperature ranged from 19.3 to 31.4°C, respectively. The total rainfall received during the period of study was 3605.6 mm in 109 days. The relative humidity during the crop period ranged 71.52 to 93.54 per cent.

The experiment was laid out in Randomised Block Design. For these objectives, Vermicompost, Farm yard manure, Leaf litter, Neem cake were used. Total five treatments having three different source of Nitrogen such as 75 per cent, 100 per cent and 125 per cent were given to plots. The treatment was replicated thrice. A total 42 numbers of rhizomes were planted at 30 cm x 30 cm spacing in every treatment (July 2017). The treatment plot size was 2.1 m x 1.8 m. For the rhizome yield, the plants were harvested after 270 days in the month of April 2018 from all the plots rhizomes were cleaned and taken the fresh weight. The essential oil was extracted and carried out by soxhlet's extraction method at temperature (100°C) at

extraction time of 4-5 hrs.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The results of experiment on the biomass yield and the essential oil content are presented in Tables 1. Data on rhizome yield, irrespective of organic manures was highest T₅ Farm yard manure 100 per cent of RDN (4674.7 kg ha⁻¹) when harvested after 270 days (Table 1) followed by T₄ Farm yard manure 75 per cent of RDN (4632.7 kg ha⁻¹). The variation in yield of sweet flag as affected by different levels of application of organic manures and date of planting was also reported by Jarman (2009), Thakur and Agrawal (2009) and Tiwari *et al.*, (2012). The plant age had significant effect on total fresh yield and leaves and rhizomes fresh weights (Osman *et al.*, 2008). Fresh and dry yield of sweetflag is significantly affected by FYM treatment (Lokesh, 2004). FYM and GA3 are beneficial for increasing the rhizome yield of Sweet flag (Datta *et al.*, 2009).

Table 1. Effect of organic manure on rhizome yield and oil content of Sweet flag

Treatment	Rhizome Yield (kg ha ⁻¹)	Oil content (%)
T ₁ Vermicompost 75 % of RDN	2189.50	1.45
T ₂ Vermicompost 100 % of RDN	2420.10	1.42
T ₃ Vermicompost 125 % of RDN	2119.20	1.48
T ₄ Farm yard manure 75 % of RDN	4632.70	1.85
T ₅ Farm yard manure 100 % of RDN	4674.70	1.87
T ₆ Farm yard manure 125 % of RDN	4011.70	1.80
T ₇ Leaf litter 75 % of RDN	2513.00	1.60
T ₈ Leaf litter 100 % of RDN	2474.70	1.56
T ₉ Leaf litter 125 % of RDN	2030.90	1.63
T ₁₀ Neem cake 75 % of RDN	1592.60	1.05
T ₁₁ Neem cake 100 % of RDN	1675.00	1.17
T ₁₂ Neem cake 125 % of RDN	2020.40	1.12
T ₁₃ 75 % of GRDF	3342.00	1.73
T ₁₄ 100 % of GRDF	3282.70	1.77
T ₁₅ 125 % of GRDF	4598.10	1.81
SE (m) ±	3.98	0.01
CD at 5%	11.52	0.04

In the present investigations (Table 1) it has been observed that the various organic manures significantly affected the oil content in rhizome of *A. calamus*. Maximum oil content was recorded in with T₅ - FYM 100% + RDN (1.87%) followed by T₄ i.e. Farm yard manure 75 per cent of RDN (1.85%). Essential oil recovery has been reported in the range of 1.1-3.3 per cent for super critical carbon dioxide extraction (SFE) and 1.0-2.4 per cent in the case of simultaneous distillation and extraction (SDE) (Gretsusnikova *et al.*, 2009, Andola *et al.*, 2012). Organic manures significantly effect the oil content of *A. calamus* (Lokesh 2004).

CONCLUSION

From the present findings, it may be concluded that increased rhizome yield and essential oil content of *Acorus calamus* can be obtained with the application of Farm yard manure @ 100 per cent recommended dose of nitrogen. Hence, FYM is beneficial for increasing the rhizome yield and essential oil content of Sweet flag.

LITERATURE CITED

Andola H. C., HemaL., N. Chauhan and U. Bhandari, 2012. Variations of essential oil composition of *Acorus calamus*: from Uttarakhand Himalaya, J. Pharmacy Res., 5(2): 1246-1247.

Datta S., A. N. Dey and S. Maitra, 2009. Effect of FYM and GA3 on growth and yield of Sweet flag (*Acorus calamus* L.) under Terai zone of West Bengal, J. Hort. Sci., 4 (1): 59-62.

Deshpande R. S., N. T. Neelakanta and N. Hegde, 2006. Cultivation of medicinal crops and aromatic crops as a means of diversification in agriculture, Agricultural Development and Rural Transformation Unit Institute for Social and Economic Change Nagarbhavi, Bangalore :104

Gretsusnikova T., M. Koel and A. Orav, 2009. Comparison of the essential oil composition of *Acorus calamus* obtained by supercritical carbon dioxide extraction and hydrodistillation methods. <https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/f807/>

Jarman, S., 2009. Studies on date of planting and post harvest processing of Sweet flag (*Acorus calamus* L.) M.Sc. Thesis (Unpub.), JNKVV, Jabalpur : 55

Kumar A. and Vandana, 2013. Medicinal Properties of *Acorus calamus*, J. Drug Delivery & Therapeutics, 3(3): 143-144.

Lokesh G. B., 2004. Sweet flag (*Acorus calamus*) cultivation and economics aspects, Natural Product Radiance 3(1): 19-21.

Naguib N. Y. M., 2011. Organic vs Chemical Fertilization of Medicinal Plants: A Concise Review of researches Advances in Environmental Biology, 5(2): 394-400.

Osman M. A., J. R. Bahl, M. P. Darokar, S. N. Garg, R. K. Lal and S. P. S Khanuja, 2008. Effect of plant age on fresh rhizome yield and volatile oil composition of *Acorus calamus* Linn., J. Agril. Sci., 16(1): 48-60.

Paithankar, V.V., S.L. Belsare, R.M. Charde and J.V. Vyas, 2011. *Acorus calamus*: An overview, International J. Biomed. Sci., 2, 518-529.

Prakash O., Archana, N. Sarki and A. K. Pant, 2015. *Acorus calamus* (sweet flag): a medicinally important plant, International J. Instit. Pharm. and Life Sci., 5(1): 2249-6807.

Shetty R. G. and A. M. Shruthi, 2015. A review on pharmacology of *Acorus calamus*, International J. Pharma and BioSciences, 6(1): 605- 621.

Singh M. S. and D. Nongmaithem, 2013. Growth attributes and rhizome yield of sweet flag (*Acorus calamus* L.) As influenced by spacing, The Bioscan, 8(4): 1207-1209.

Thakur A. and V. K. Agrawal, 2009. Effect of planting date on yield and essential oil content of rhizomes in sweet flag (*Acorus calamus* L.), J. Biomed 4(1):33-35.

Tiwari, R. K. S., K. Das, D. Pandey, R. B. Tiwari and Jola Dubey, 2012. Rhizome yield of sweet flag (*Acorus calamus* L.) as influenced by planting season, harvest time and spacing, International J. Agron., 2012: 1-8.



Received on 16.6.2019

Productivity of Castor, Economics and Energetics as Influenced by Castor Genotypes, Plant Geometry and Nitrogen Management under Rainfed Condition of Vidarbha

A. N. Paslawar¹, P. G. Ingole², V. M. Bhale³, A. P. Karunakar⁴ and G. J. Bhagat⁵

ABSTRACT

A field experiments was conducted during *Kharif* 2008-09 and 2009-10 on a silty clay loam soil at the Agronomy Department Farm, Dr. Panjabrao Deshmukh Krishi Vidyapeeth, Akola to study the yield of castor , economics and energetics as influenced by castor genotypes, plant geometry and nitrogen management under rainfed . The treatment consisted of two genotypes (AKC-1 and GCH-4) and three plant spacing (90 cm x 45 cm, 120 cm x 45 cm and 90 cm x 90 cm) and four nitrogen management (125 % N, 100 % N, 75 % N +25 % FYM+ *Azospirillum*). The experiment was laid out in split plot design and replicated thrice. All recommended practices were adopted for better crop growth during the two seasons. Across the crop growth period rainfall amounted to 371.9 and 376.6 mm during 2008-09 and 2009-10, respectively. Seed yield, biological yield of castor, energy productivity , GMR, NMR were significantly higher in castor hybrid GCH 4 over AKC-1 when planted at 90 cm x 45 cm and nitrogen management with 125 per cent N (75 kg N ha⁻¹) followed by 100 per cent N (60 kg N ha⁻¹) in two split with basal dose of 40 kg P₂O₅ and 20 kg K₂O. The highest seed yield of castor hybrid recorded by GCH 4 (2855 kg ha⁻¹) with plant density of 90 cm x 45 cm (24619 plants ha⁻¹)

Castor (*Ricinus communis* L.) is a high value industrial crop, belonging to the family Euphorbiaceae. It is non edible due to the presence of toxic protein ricin in seed. The oil content in castor seed ranges from 48 to 55 per cent out of which 90 per cent is extracted. India has highest area 11.48 lakh ha with higher productivity 1666 kg ha⁻¹ and meet about 90 per cent of world's requirement of castor oil. India is earning about Rs.2253 crores foreign exchange through export of oil and derivatives with high level of demand rising annually at 3-5 per cent per annum. The castor oil is unique in terms of its dominance of a single fatty acid ricinoleic acid (90 %) due to which all the special properties of oil and its uses are ascribed. There are varied applications for castor oil and its derivatives that have widespread application in many industries like lubricant, paint, pharmaceutical, textiles etc. Castor is one of the important oilseed crop having high plasticity suiting to wide range of soil environments and capacity to adjust its growth according to moisture availability conditions of the soil.

Castor is nitro-positive and indeterminate in growth habit. For maximizing the yield potential of hybrids/ varieties, proper fertilizer use plays an important role. Bio-fertilizers are an important component of IPNS particularly

in rainfed condition where farmers are tending to rely either on 'no cost' or 'low cost' technologies. In addition to plant population, adequate fertilization is congenial for getting higher yields of castor. The chances of multiple harvests of beans are more and it may bring assured income to the farmers even under remaining moisture conditions. Abiotic stress cause extensive losses to agricultural production worldwide (Boyer, 1982 and Bray *et al*, 2000). Among those stresses, the availability of nitrogen (N) and water are considered as two of the major limiting factors in crop growth development and final economic yield (Glass, 2003). Information on suitable nitrogen management to castor is lacking in this region and it can be grown as contingent crop in Vidarbha. Hence, an investigation was done to study the yield of castor, economics and energetics as influenced by Castor Genotypes, Plant geometry and Nitrogen management under rainfed.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

The study was conducted during *kharif* 2008-09 and 2009-10 on a silty clay loam soil at the Agronomy Department Farm, Dr. Panjabrao Deshmukh Krishi Vidyapeeth, Akola to study the impact of nutrient management on soil fertility, crop productivity and nutrient

1. Professor of Agronomy, Dr. PDKV, Akola, 2. Director of Extension Education, Dr. VNMKV, Parbhani, 3. Vice Chancellor, Dr. PDKV, Akola and 4 & 5. Associate Professor & Assistant Professor (Agronomy), Dr. PDKV, Akola

uptake by castor genotypes under different plant geometry. The treatment consisted of two genotypes (AKC-1 and GCH-4) and three plant geometry (90 cm x 45 cm, 120 cm x 45 cm and 90 cm x 90 cm) and four nitrogen management (125 per cent N, 100 per cent N, 75 per cent N+25 per cent N through (FYM) and 50 per cent N+ 25 per cent N through (FYM) + *Azospirillum*). The experiment was laid out in split plot design and replicated thrice. The castor crop was dibbled on 20 and 21 July 2008 and 2009 respectively. All recommended practices were adopted for better crop growth during two seasons. The experimental data were collected during the course of investigation were statistically analyzed with split plot design programme on computer by adopting standard statistical techniques of analysis of variance (Panse and Sukhatme 1985). Across the crop growth period rainfall amounted to 371.9 and 376.6 mm during 2008-09 and 2009-10, respectively. Picking wise seed yield of castor and total seed yield ha⁻¹ castor was recorded. Economics were worked out with prevailing market price and the energetic in castor were calculated on the basis of inputs required ha⁻¹ for castor production. Energy input was calculated from sowing to harvesting pertaining to each treatment of individual experiment of castor crop. It was estimated by Mega Joule (MJ) ha⁻¹ with reference to the standard value prescribed by the Mittal and Dhawan (1998). Energy output workout by using the item energy values of each treatment. Energy output was worked out from Castor seed and stalk of castor crop.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Seed yield of Castor

The seed yield of castor was obtained from primary, secondary and tertiary spikes and recorded significantly highest yield.

Effect of castor genotypes

Seed yield obtained from primary, secondary and tertiary spikes in GCH-4 was significantly higher compared to AKC-1 (Table 1). The seed yield was 2052 and 2712 and 2381 kg ha⁻¹ during 2008 and 2009 in pooled respectively ha⁻¹. As compared to AKC-1, GCH-4 yielded more 13.4 per cent (2008-09), 8 per cent (2009-10) and 10.2 per cent in pooled. Superior yields with hybrid GCH-4 were due to better expression of growth characters and yield

components. The genotypes of GCH-4 produced higher seed yield also had higher number of spikes, capsules and seed yield plant⁻¹. These results are in agreement with findings of Patel *et al.*, (1991) and Kiran (2003).

Effect of plant geometry

Regulating the plant densities to an optimum level is essential to exploit the yield potential by allowing the inter and intra row spacing competitiveness without any detriment to total output. In the present investigation, seed yield from primary, secondary and tertiary spikes and total seed yield with a population of 24691 plants ha⁻¹ (90 cm x 45 cm) was significantly higher compared to 18518 and 12345 plants ha⁻¹ in both the years as well as pooled data. Lower seed yield was obtained with lower population ha⁻¹ though the seed yield per plant was highest could not compensate the yield ha⁻¹. It indicates seed yield per plant increases with decrease in plant density but decrease in seed yield will be compensated by increased plant population.

The yield increase with S₁ over S₃ and S₂ over S₃ was 53.5 and 19 per cent in 2008 and 40.7 and 15.7 per cent in 2009 and 46.0 and 17.2 per cent under pooled data (Table 1).

Optimum plant spacing (90 x 45 cm) had reduced the competition between plants for moisture, nutrients, light and space hence seed yield was increased. The results are in accordance with the findings of Raghavaiah and Sudhakar Babu (2000) and Sudha Rani (2007).

Effect of nitrogen management

Seed yield from primary, secondary and tertiary spikes and total seed yield revealed that seed yield increased with increase in nitrogen level up to 80 kg ha⁻¹ (125 % N through inorganic) during both the years as well as in pooled data. Application of 125 per cent N through inorganic (80 kg N ha⁻¹) significantly increased the total seed yield compared to 50 per cent N + 25 per cent N through (FYM) and seed treatment with *Azospirillum*.

But it was at par with 100 per cent N (60 kg N ha⁻¹) and 75 per cent N + 25 per cent N through FYM and seed yield was lowest with N₄ (50 % N + 25 % N (FYM) + *Azospirillum*). The per cent increase in total seed with N₁, N₂, N₃ over N₄ (50 % N + 25 % N (FYM) + *Azospirillum*

was 19.9, 15.0 and 8.3 per cent, respectively. Nitrogen is known to be required formation of vegetative structure of nutrient absorption and photosynthesis, formation of reproductive structures and determination of sink strength and the production of assimilates to fill the economically important sink

Interaction effect

Interaction between castor genotype and plant geometry in respect of total seed yield was found significant (Table 2). The combination of $S_1 \times V_1$ (2855 kg ha⁻¹) in pooled mean was significantly superior over rest of the treatments. It indicates the optimum plant density of 90 cm x 45 cm spacing with GCH-4 found to be best for highest yield.

Biological yield

The biological yield of castor was 5889, 7019 and 6449 kg ha⁻¹ during 2008-09, 2009-10 and pooled data respectively (Table 1). The highest biological yield during 2009-10 was due to receipt of good amount of rainfall during development of secondary and tertiary spikes capsules and seed development.

Effect of castor genotypes

Differences in biological yield due to genotypes were significant during 2008 and 2009 and in pooled data. GCH-4 recorded significantly highest biological yield (6242 kg ha⁻¹) over AKC-1 (5497 kg ha⁻¹). Superior biological yields with hybrid GCH-4 were due to better expression of growth characters particularly dry matter weight per plant and yield components as compared to variety AKC-1 and better utilization of resources by GCH-4.

Effect of planting geometry

Biological yield was produced significantly highest with a population of 24619 plants ha⁻¹ (90 x 45 cm) followed by (120 x 45 cm) and (90 x 90 cm) in both the years as well as in pooled mean over two years. The highest pooled mean of biological yield (7465 kg ha⁻¹) with 90 x 45 cm and lowest (5517 kg ha⁻¹) biological yield with 90 x 90 cm. It might be due to optimum utilization of resources by narrow spacing (90 x 45 cm) produced maximum dry matter weight and ultimately maximum

biological yield.

Effect of nitrogen management

The highest biological yield was significantly recorded with 125 per cent N (80 kg ha⁻¹) over rest of the treatments in 2008-09 and in pooled data but which was at par with 100 per cent N (60 kg ha⁻¹) during 2008-09. Significantly highest biological yield (7026 kg ha⁻¹) was recorded with 125 per cent N (80 kg ha⁻¹) through inorganic in pooled data. This was due to highest plant height and greater dry matter accumulation.

Interaction effect

Adequate nitrogen supply has promoted the growth and increased yield attributes such as number of spikes and capsules per spikes and seed weight of castor resulted in the highest seed yield, as noticed in the presentation confirms the documented evidence of Hafeezuddin Khan (1974), Mathukia and Modhwadia (1995).

Harvest Index

Effect of castor genotypes

Differences in harvest index due to different genotypes were not significant in both the years. Numerically GCH-4 recorded the maximum harvest index over AKC-1. GCH-4 recorded highest harvest index which was due to the efficiency of that genotypes to accumulate dry matter and partition the accumulated dry matter to the sink.

Effect of plant geometry

Harvest index obtained with 24619 plants ha⁻¹ (90 cm X 45 cm) was significantly highest over other densities. The maximum harvest index percent with narrow spacing (90 cm x 45 cm) during both the years as well as in pooled data.

Effect of nitrogen management

The harvest index did not differ significantly due to nitrogen management in both the years as well as pooled over two years. The increased number of capsules per plant, which increased the seed yield/ plant resulted higher harvest index and it increased with increasing dose of nitrogen.

Table 1 : Seed yield, biological yield (Kg ha⁻¹) and H.I. (per cent) of Castor and pooled means as influenced by different treatments

Treatments	Seed yield (Kg ha ⁻¹)			Biological yield (Kg ha ⁻¹)			Harvest index (%)		
	2008	2009	Pooled	2008	2009	Pooled	2008	2009	Pooled
Main Plot									
A) Genotypes (V)									
V1 - AKC-1	1810	2509	2159	5497	6192	6144	32.9	36.9	34.9
V2 - GCH-4	2052	2712	2381	6242	7245	6754	32.6	37.4	35
S.E. (m)±	14.9	16.3	10.9	29.6	40.7	32.4	0.2	0.25	
CD at 5 %	47.1	51.4	34.3	93.9	128.4	102.1	0.6	0.78	
B) Plant Geometry (S)									
S1 - 90x45 cm	2387	3093	2739	6890	8040	7465	34.7	38.6	36.65
S2 - 120x45 cm	1851	2542	2196	5736	6896	6316	32.4	36.9	34.65
S3 - 90x90 cm	1555	2197	1875	5016	6119	5567	31.1	35.9	33.5
S.E. (m)+	18.2	19.9	13.3	36.2	49.9	39.7	0.3	0.30	
CD at 5%	57.6	62.9	42	114.2	157.0	125.0	0.9	0.95	
Sub plot- Nitrogen management (N)									
N1 - 125 % N	2090	2829	2462	6382	7670	7026	32.7	36.9	34.8
N2 - 100 % N	2009	2673	2361	6106	7201	6654	32.8	37.0	34.9
N3 - 75 N + FYM (25 % N)	1885	2565	2225	5731	6845	6288	32.8	37.4	35.1
N4 - 50 N + FYM + Azos.	1734	2373	2053	5302	6357	5829	32.6	37.3	34.95
S.E. (m)±	39.7	152	43	143	161	116	0.7	1.04	
CD at 5 %	114.0	436	124	412	463	334	2.1	3.00	
Interaction effect									
V x S									
S.E. (m)+	25.9	28.2	18.8	51.3	70.6	56.1	0.4	0.43	
CD at 5 %	82.0	89.0	59.4	162	NS	176.8	NS	NS	
S x N									
S.E. (m)±	56.1	96.4	61.0	202.8	228	164.2	1.0	1.48	
CD at 5 %	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	
V x N									
S.E. (m)+	68.7	118	70.7	248.3	279	201.2	1.2	1.81	
CD at 5 %	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	
V x S x N									
S.E. (m)±	97.2	166	145.7	351.2	395	284.5	1.8	2.6	
CD at 5 %	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	
General Mean	1931	2610	2270	5881	7019	6449	32.7	37.2	34.95

Table 2: Seed yield (pooled) as influenced by Interaction between genotype and plant geometry

Treat-ments	Seed yield (kg ha ⁻¹)								
	2008			2009			Pooled		
	S1	S2	S3	S1	S2	S3	S1	S2	S3
AKC-1	2250	1663	1516	2995	2391	2141	2622	2027	1828
GCH4	2524	2038	1594	3191	2692	2253	2855	2365	1923
S.E. (m) ±	25.9			28.2			18.8		
CD at 5 %	82.0			89.0			59.4		

Table 3: Biological yield (pooled) as influenced by interaction between genotype and plant geometry

Treatments	Biological yield (kg ha ⁻¹)					
	2008			Pooled		
	S ₁	S ₂	S ₃	S ₁	S ₂	S ₃
AKC-1	6470	5148	4873	7183	5854	5395
GCH4	7310	6324	5159	7746	6777	5740
S.E. (m) ±	51.3			56.1		
C.D. at 5%	162			176.8		

Economics**Effect of castor genotypes**

Genotype GCH-4 recorded significantly highest gross monetary returns (Rs.41035 ha⁻¹), net monetary returns (Rs 18917 ha⁻¹) in 2008-09 and GMR (Rs. 54239 ha⁻¹), NMR (Rs. 32122 ha⁻¹) in 2009-10 and in pooled GMR (Rs. 47637 ha⁻¹) and pooled NMR (Rs. 25519 ha⁻¹) (Table 4). Benefit cost ratio was 1.85, 2.45 and 2.16 in 2008-09 and pooled mean, respectively. The higher the gross returns due to higher seed yield of castor hybrid GCH-4.

Effect of plant geometry

GMR and NMR were significantly influenced with different plant geometry. Gross monetary returns were Rs.47736 ha⁻¹, Rs.61857 ha⁻¹ and Rs 54796 ha⁻¹ significantly highest with a spacing 90 x 45 cm (24619 plant ha⁻¹) during 2008-09, 2009-10 and pooled data, respectively. Net monetary returns were Rs. 25605, Rs.39726 and Rs. 32665 ha⁻¹ accrued with the spacing 90 x 45 cm followed by 120 x 45 cm and minimum GMR, NMR with wider spacing (90 x

90 cm). The higher gross and net returns might be due to higher seed yield and higher plant population ha⁻¹.

Effect of nitrogen management

Economics of different levels of nitrogen management revealed that the highest gross returns Rs 41912, Rs. 56580, respectively during 2008-09, 2009-10 and pooled data, respectively were significantly accrued with 125 per cent N (80 kg ha⁻¹ through inorganic) but which was at par with 100 per cent N (60 kg ha⁻¹). However, significantly highest NMR of Rs. 21228 ha⁻¹, Rs. 35896 ha⁻¹ and Rs. 28652 ha⁻¹ during 2008-09, 2009-10 and pooled data respectively was recorded. Sarda Devi (1999) reported that higher level of N of castor accrued maximum B:C ratio.

Interaction effect

Interaction between genotype and plant geometry in pooled analysis (Table 5) indicated highest gross returns (Rs. 57152 ha⁻¹) were received with GCH-4 when planted at 90 x 45 cm (24619 plant ha⁻¹). Similarly net returns (Rs. 34600 ha⁻¹) in pooled data. It proved higher

Table 4: Economics of Castor as influenced by various treatments during 2008-09 and 2009-10.

Treatments	GMR(Rs ha ⁻¹)			NMR(Rs ha ⁻¹)			B:C		
	2008	2009	pooled	2008	2009	pooled	2008-	2009	pooled
Main plot									
A) Genotypes (V)									
V ₁ - AKC-1	36193	50177	43185	14682	28666	21674	1.68	2.33	2.02
V ₂ - GCH4	41035	54239	47637	18917	32122	25519	1.85	2.45	2.16
S.E. (m)±	298	326	218	298	326	218			
CD at 5 %	941	1028	618	941	1028	618			
B) Plant Geometry (S)									
S ₁ - 90x45 cm	47736	61857	54796	25605	39726	32665	2.15	2.79	2.49
S ₂ - 120x45 cm	37011	50835	43923	15241	29064	22152	1.70	2.33	2.03
S ₃ - 90x90 cm	31095	43933	37514	9554	22392	15973	1.44	2.03	1.75
S.E. (m)±	366	399	267	366	399	267			
CD at 5 %	1153	1259	840	1153	1259	240			
Sub plot-Nitrogen Management (N)									
N ₁ - 125 % N	41912	56580	49246	21228	35896	28562	2.02	2.73	2.38
N ₂ - 100 % N	40178	53469	46824	19944	33235	26589	1.98	2.64	2.31
N ₃ - 75 N + FYM(25 %N)	37694	51317	44505	14447	28069	21258	1.62	2.21	1.91
N ₄ - 50 N + FYM + Azospirillum	34671	47467	41069	11579	24375	17977	1.50	2.05	2.00
S.E. (m)±	793	1363	863	793	1363	863			
CD at 5 %	2279	3917	2480	2279	3971	2480			
Interaction effects									
V x S									
S.E. (m)±	517	565	377	517	565	377			
CD at 5 %	1630	1780	1188	1630	1780	1188			
V x N									
S.E. (m)±	1121	1927	1221	1121	1927	1221			
CD at 5 %	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS			
S x N									
S.E. (m)±	1347	2361	1495	1347	2361	1495			
CD at 5 %	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS			
V x S x N									
S.E. (m)±	1943	3338	2114	1943	3338	2114			
CD at 5 %	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS			
GM	38614	52208	45411	16800	30394	23597	1.76	2.39	2.09

Table 5: GMR as influenced by interaction between genotype and plant geometry

Treatments	GMR (Rs ha ⁻¹)								
	2008			2009			Pooled		
	S ₁	S ₂	S ₃	S ₁	S ₂	S ₃	S ₁	S ₂	S ₃
AKC-1	44991	33268	30320	59890	47825	42815	52441	40545	36568
GCH4	50480	40755	31870	63823	53845	45050	57152	47300	38460
S.E.m±	517			565			377		
CD at 5%	1630			1780			1188		

Table 6: NMR as influenced by Interaction between genotype and plant geometry

Treatments	NMR (Rs ha ⁻¹)								
	2008			2009			Pooled		
	S ₁	S ₂	S ₃	S ₁	S ₂	S ₃	S ₁	S ₂	S ₃
AKC-1	23280	11771	8989	31879	26333	21484	30730	19055	15236
GCH4	27929	18704	10119	40127	31794	23299	34600	22152	15973
S.E. (m)±	517			565			377		
CD at 5 %	1630			1780			1188		

returns with higher plant density due to higher seed yield ha⁻¹. V₂XS₁ was found to be remunerative (Table 6).

Energetics

Effect of genotype

Significant variation in the energy output, output: input ratio and energy use efficiency was due to genotypes were observed (Table 7). The highest energy output was obtained with GCH-4 over AKC-1 due to higher seed and stalk yield of castor. Similarly maximum output: input ratio and energy use efficiency was recorded with GCH-4 over ACK-1 during both the years and in pooled data.

Effect of plant geometry

Differences in energy output, output: input ratio were found to be significant in respect of various plant geometry. Energy output was maximum in plant geometry of 90 x 45 cm than other plant. Similar trend was noticed in output input ratio and energy use efficiency.

Effect of nitrogen management

Energy output: input ratio was significantly

influenced with nitrogen management. The highest energy output was obtained with 125 per cent N (80 kg N ha⁻¹) and which is at par 100 per cent N and lowest with 50 per cent N +25 per cent N (FYM)+ Azospirillum. However, output: input ratio was significantly maximum with 100 per cent N (60 kg N ha⁻¹) followed by 50 per cent N + 25 per cent N FYM + Azospirillum and similar trend was with energy use efficiency. It might be due to higher seed and stalk yield which produced maximum energy output.

Interaction effect

GCH-4 when planted at 90 x 45 cm recorded highest output energy value and maximum output: input ratio

CONCLUSION

For getting maximum economic returns castor genotypes GCH- 4 could be sown at planting geometry of 90 x 45 cm (24615 plants ha⁻¹) with an application of 75 kg N ha⁻¹ in two splits and basal dose of 40 kg P₂O₅ and 20 kg K₂O ha⁻¹ under rainfed condition of Vidarbha region.

Table 7: Energetics in castor as influenced by various treatments during 2008-09 and 2009-10.

Treatments	Energy output(MJ Kg ¹)			Energy input (MJ Kg ¹)	Energy output: input ratio			Energy use (g MJX10 ³) efficiency
	2008	2009	Pooled		2008	2009	Pooled	
Main plot								
A) Genotypes (V)								
V ₁ - AKC-1	111610	139821	125716	10171	11.0	13.7	12.35	60.4
V ₂ - GCH4	127119	146970	137045	10171	12.5	14.7	13.6	66.4
S.E. (m)±	582	636	512		0.047	0.08	0.06	
CD at 5 %	1835	2006	1612		0.147	0.25	0.18	
B) Plant Geometry (S)								
S ₁ - 90x45 cm	140727	166377	153552	10364	13.6	16.1	14.8	72.0
S ₂ - 120x45 cm	116198	141929	129063	10225	11.4	13.9	12.6	61.8
S ₃ - 90x90 cm	101170	121882	111526	9923	10.2	12.7	11.5	56.3
S.E. (m)±	713	779	627		0.06	0.10	0.07	
CD at 5 %	2247	2457	1995		0.18	0.31	0.22	
Sub plot								
Nitrogen Management								
N ₁ - 125 % N	129549	157866	143707	11452	11.3	13.8	12.5	61.3
N ₂ - 100 % N	123977	148347	136162	9928	12.4	14.9	13.7	66.8
N ₃ - 75 N + FYM (25 % N)	116358	141188	128772	10106	11.5	14.0	12.7	62.1
N ₄ - 50 N + FYM + Azospirillum	107575	126182	116899	9197	11.7	14.2	12.9	63.3
S.E. (m)±	2740	3025	2216		0.27	0.30	0.22	
CD at 5 %	7874	3696	6369		0.28	0.87	0.63	
CV%								
Interaction effects								
V x S								
S.E. (m)±	1009	1103	886		0.08	0.14	0.10	
CD at 5 %	3179	3475	2793		0.25	0.44	0.32	
V x N								
S.E. (m)±	3875	4279	3134		0.41	0.43	0.3	
CD at 5 %	NS	NS						
S x N								
S.E. (m)±	4745	5241	3839		0.47	0.52	0.38	
CD at 5 %	NS	NS						
V x S x N								
S.E. (m)±	6711	7421	5429		0.90	0.74	0.54	
CD at 5 %	NS	NS						
GM	119365	143395	131380	10171	11.7	14.2	13.0	63.3

Table 8: Energy output as influenced by interaction between genotype and plant geometry

Treatments	Energy output MJ ha ⁻¹								
	2008			2009			Pooled		
	S ₁	S ₂	S ₃	S ₁	S ₂	S ₃	S ₁	S ₂	S ₃
AKC-1	132199	104302	98330	163114	134852	121499	147656	119577	109914
GCH4	149255	128093	104011	169460	149005	122265	159447	138549	113138
S.E.m±	1009						886		
CD at 5 %	3179						2793		

Table 9 : Energy output input ratio as influenced by interaction between genotype and plant geometry

Treatments	Energy output input ratio								
	2008			2009			Pooled		
	S ₁	S ₂	S ₃	S ₁	S ₂	S ₃	S ₁	S ₂	S ₃
AKC-1	12.8	10.2	9.9	15.7	13.2	12.3	14.25	11.79	11.11
GCH4	14.4	12.5	10.5	16.4	14.6	13.9	15.40	13.56	11.82
S.E.m±	0.08			0.14			0.10		
CD at 5 %	0.25			0.44			0.32		

LITERATURE CITED

- Boyer, J.S., 1982. Plant Productivity and Environment. Science, 218 : 443-448.
- Bray, E.A., J. Bailey-Serres, E. Weretilnyk, 2000. Responses to abiotic stress. Directorate of Oil Seeds Research, 1990. Seed production in castor technology bulletin.
- Glass, A.D.M., 2003. Nitrogen use efficiency of crop plants: physiological constraints upon nitrogen absorption, Crit. Rev. Plant Sci. 22: 453-470.
- Hafeezuddin Khan, 1974. Studies on the influence of fertilizer levels, plant densities, spacings and nipping operations on the performance of castor, M.Sc. (Ag.) Thesis (Unpub), APAU, Hyderabad.
- Kiran P., 2003. Production potential of castor genotypes under irrigation in winter, M.Sc. (Ag.) Thesis (Unpub), Acharya N.G. Ranga Agricultural University, Hyderabad.
- Mathukia R.K. and M.M. Modhwadia, 1995. Influence of different levels of nitrogen and phosphorus on yield and nutrient uptake by castor (*Ricinus communis* L.), Gujrat Agril. Univ. Res. J. 21(1):149-151.
- Mittal J.P. and K. C. Dhawan, 1988. Research Manual on Energy Requirements in Agricultural Sector. Ludhiana : A.C.R.I.P, 1988.
- Panse V.C. and P.V. Sukhatme, 1967. Statistical methods for agricultural workers, IV Edn. published by Indian Council of Agricultural Research, New Delhi : 359.
- Patel D.R., P.S. Patel and I.D. Patel, 1991. High yielding GCH 4 castor hybrid is resistant to wilt, Indian Farming, June :11-12.
- Raghavaiah C.V. and S. M. Sudhakara Babu, 2000. Influence of sowing date, plant density and nitrogen nutrition on the foundation seed production of female parent (VP 1) of GCH 4 castor hybrid (*Ricinus communis* L.), J. Oilseeds Res. 17(2) : 320-327.
- Sarda Devi Y., 1999. Performance of rainfed castor intercropped with *Melia azaderach*, L. under different cropping system and nitrogen level, M.Sc. (Ag.) Thesis (Unpub), ANGRAU, Hyderabad.



Received on 3.5.2019

Soil Fertility Management Through Pigeonpea Based Intercropping System - *Bt* Cotton Rotation with Conservation Tillage Practices Under Rainfed Condition of Vidarbha Region

A. N. Paslawar¹, V. M. Bhale², P. V. Shingrup³ and N. M. Konde⁴

ABSTRACT

Conservation Agriculture techniques involve minimum soil disturbance providing a soil cover through crop residue or other crop cover and rotation for achieving higher productivity, while protecting the natural resources and environment. An integrated nutrient management with moisture conservation has influence on chemical and biological properties of soil for sustainable production. An experiment was conducted at Department of Agronomy farm Dr. Panjarao Deshmukh Krishi Vidyapeeth, Akola (Maharashtra) during 2010-11 to 2015-16 (Six years with three rotations of pigeonpea intercropping followed by *Bt* cotton). As *Bt* cotton demands continuous supply of moisture and nutrients at the time of boll development stage and which intercropping system will provide organic matter to improve the moisture supply and nutrients during stress period. The treatments consist of tillage practices, conventional and minimum tillage with three cropping systems during first year and rotated with rainfed *Bt* cotton with four nutrient management levels in next season. FRBD was used for first year and split plot design was used for second year.

Pigeonpea equivalent yield (PEY) and economics were not influenced by tillage practices with intercropping system during first year followed by *Bt* cotton. The highest mean pigeonpea equivalent yield (1779 kg ha⁻¹) was obtained from pigeonpea +soybean 1:2. However, maximum biomass was available for recycling from pigeonpea +sunn hemp 1:2 cropping system where sunn hemp was green manured and shed biomass (leaf litter) of pigeonpea also added (6195 kg ha⁻¹) for next season crop. The mean seed cotton yield (1387 kg ha⁻¹) was significantly highest, when pigeonpea +sunn hemp was grown in previous year. Seed cotton yield of *Bt* cotton was highest (1367 kg ha⁻¹) with nutrient management through shed biomass of previous year intercropping + 100 per cent RDF was applied to cotton. Bulk density was decreased with minimum tillage and when pigeonpea + sunn hemp (1:2) was grown. The highest values of organic carbon, soil microbial biomass carbon and NPK, when pigeonpea + sunn hemp (1:2) was grown in previous year and also improved after shed biomass + 50 per cent RDF + 50 per cent RDN through vermi compost to cotton.

Cotton, soybean and pigeonpea are the important crop of the Vidarbha region of Maharashtra. Pigeonpea based intercropping system is widely accepted by farmers of this region in different row proportions with soybean as per farmers convenience and also growing cotton/soybean on same piece of land to earn income every year. Growing of crops one after another without giving due consideration to nutrient requirement has resulted in decline in soil fertility (Ghosh *et al.*, 2003). Intercropping of pulses and oilseeds is one of the ways to increase pulse and oilseed production as it is more advantageous than sole cropping of both pulses and oilseeds (Louduraj *et al.*, 1998). Pigeonpea and soybean intercropping system not only provides organic matter to the soil but also proved to be profitable cropping system. To break the life cycle of pest, diseases and weeds and to maintain

soil health crop rotation is must. Farmers could not apply recommended FYM to maintain soil fertility. Farmers facing the problems in rearing of cattle because of non-availability of fodder and drinking water throughout the year in rainfed ecosystem. *Bt* cotton demands continuous supply of moisture and nutrients at the time of boll development stage.

An integrated nutrient management with moisture conservation has influence on chemical and biological properties of soil for sustainable production. Residue recycling is an important component to increase level of organic carbon in the soil.

Tillage based conventional agriculture is assumed to have led to soil organic matter decline, water runoff and soil erosion (Derpsch *et al.*, 1991) and other

1. Professor of Agronomy, 2. Vice Chancellor, 3. Senior Research Assistant and 4. Assistant Professor, Department of Agronomy, Dr. PDKV, Akola

manifestation of physical, chemical and biological soil degradation (Benites, 2008). Besides minimizing soil erosion, conservation tillage can promote input saving through reduced usage of tillage equipment. This lower tillage aspects decrease fuel consumption, promotes longer machinery life, allows utilization of reduced horse power implements and lower requirement. However, these benefits can be slightly offset by increased chemical weed control costs. Conservation tillage greatly reduces leaching of fertilizer, pesticide and herbicides in the ground water. Conservation tillage improves activity of earthworm and other soil microflora. It also increases soil infiltration rate and reduces soil evaporation there by it increases soil water storage. Due to higher residues in soil it will improve soil organic carbon content, it gives smothering effect to weed and by it increases yield of crops. To conserve and optimum the use of natural resources with profitability as guiding factors of sustainability farming practices have to be redesigned. Hence, it was felt necessary to identify suitable intercropping system, which supply *in-situ* indigenous organic material to improve the organic carbon status and fertility of soil and productivity of rainfed *Bt* cotton with different tillage practices and integrated nutrient management.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Conservation Agriculture techniques involve minimum soil disturbance providing a soil cover through crop residue or other crop cover and rotation for achieving higher productivity, while protecting the natural resources and environment. Based on the principles of Conservation Agriculture, the field experiment was conducted on same site for six years at Department of Agronomy farm, Dr. Panjabrao Deshmukh Krishi Vidyapeeth, Akola (Maharashtra) during 2010-11 to 2015-16 (Six years with three rotations of pigeonpea intercropping followed by *Bt* cotton). Treatment consists of tillage practices, conventional and minimum tillage with three inter cropping systems during first year *viz.* pigeonpea + soybean (1:2), pigeonpea + soybean (1:5) which is farmers practice and pigeonpea + sunhemp (1:2). The sunhemp was buried after 45 days after sowing in two rows of pigeonpea row in conventional tillage and under minimum tillage, sunhemp was mulched in between two rows of pigeonpea.

This system was rotated with rainfed *Bt* cotton with four nutrient management levels i.e. shed biomass of previous cropping system, shed biomass (leaf litter) + 50 per cent RDN through prepared vermicomposting (VC) from left over pigeonpea and soybean straw, shed biomass + 50 per cent RDN through VC + 50 per cent RDF and shed biomass + 100 per cent RDF (60:30:30 NPK kg ha⁻¹). The experiment was laid out in FRBD for first year where, Pigeonpea based cropping system with tillage practices were taken. Split plot design was used for second year where, nutrient management was imposed on previous cropping system with tillage practices. The soil of experimental field was well drained, clayey in texture, moderately high in available nitrogen (210 kg ha⁻¹), moderate in available phosphorus (15.4 kg ha⁻¹), rich in available potassium (318 kg ha⁻¹) with slightly alkaline in reaction. In conventional tillage practices were adopted ploughing + harrowing + sowing and two hoeing and under minimum tillage harrowing before sowing + sowing + recommended herbicide + one hoeing was adopted. Pigeonpea variety PKV Tara, Soybean variety JS 335 and local sunhemp for green manuring were used. Next season *Bt* cotton hybrid Ajeet 155 was used. The yields of intercrop were converted into pigeonpea equivalent (PEY) on prevailing market prices. Sunhemp and weed biomass, leaf litter of both crop and root biomass from m² were dried and dry biomass was calculated. Available biomass for *in-situ* recycling were studied for next season *Bt* cotton. Bulk density, pH, available nutrients in soil were analyzed at initial and after harvest of system and soil microbial biomass carbon was taken at flowering stage of crops as per standard procedure. Balance of nutrients was calculated over initial content of available NPK in the soil.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Rainfall

Rainfall and rainy days during experimentation was indicated the first and third season was better for growth and yield of intercrops and their biomass. However, fifth season was hampered due to less rainfall and rainy days. Whereas, *Bt* cotton was suffered during second and sixth season due to less rainfall and rainy days. Only fourth season was good for *Bt* cotton growth and yield (Table 1).

B. Biomass production

Total biomass of leaf litter of pigeonpea, soybean and dry biomass of sunhemp after uprooting at 45 days for green manuring and dry weed biomass after weeding and root biomass of both crop in tillage practices indicated that mean biomass for *in-situ* recycling was higher under minimum tillage than conventional tillage i.e. 4808 and 4386 kg ha⁻¹, respectively (Table 2). The mean total biomass of the intercropping from pigeonpea + sunhemp was highest (6195 kg ha⁻¹) where sunhemp was green manured and weed biomass was also more in pigeonpea after sunhemp green manuring. The slow growth of pigeonpea upto flowering stage favoured weeds as compared to other system. This biomass was available for *in-situ* recycling in the same season as well as next season. This biomass was used for integrated nutrient management practices with inorganic fertilizer and vermicomposting for next season Bt cotton.

C. Pigeonpea equivalent yield (PEY)

The tillage practices did not influenced the pigeonpea equivalent yield during first,third and fifth season as well as in pooled mean. Numerically higher values were recorded with conventional tillage. Results indicated that with minimum tillage also same level of yield could be achieved with intercropping of this crops. Pigeonpea equivalent yield (PEY) was significantly influenced with different intercropping system in individual as well as in pooled data. The highest mean PEY (1779 kg ha⁻¹) was obtained from pigeonpea +

soybean (1:2). Similar results were noted by Paslawar *et al*, (1989) and Jagtap and Holkar (1995). PEY of pigeonpea + soybean 1:5 and pigeonpea +sunhemp (1:2) was at par with each other.

Table 1: Rainfall and Rainy days for six years

Year	Rainfall (mm)	Rainy Days
2010-11	1006.5	46
2011-12	464.3	34
2012-13	684.1	50
2013-14	908	49
2014-15	593.1	29
2015-16	645	28

Seed cotton Yield (SCY)

The effect of tillage practices did not show significant effect on seed cotton yield but numerically higher values were observed in conventional tillage as compared to minimum tillage in first and third cycle of rotation. However, second rotation was significant in respect of SCY when good distribution of rainfall. As tillage practices helped in conservation of moisture,which improved the growth and yield of Bt cotton.

The pooled seed cotton yield (1304 kg ha⁻¹) was produced when pigeonpea + sunhemp (1:2) was grown in previous year.Crop residue recycling might have helped in moisture conservation and supplied continuous nutrient to cotton (Table 4).

Table 2: MeanBiomass (leaf litter, root biomass and weeds) available for *in-situ* recycling from pigeonpea based cropping system

Treatments	Biomass available for in-situ recycling from intercropping (Kg ha ⁻¹)			Mean
	First season	Third season	Fifth season	
A) Tillage Practices				
Conventional Tillage	3305	6089	3764	4386
Minimum Tillage	4330	6312	3782	4808
B) Cropping systems				
Pigeonpea + Soybean (1:2)	4342	5261	4293	4632
Pigeonpea + Sunhemp (1:2)	6659	6801	5127	6195
Pigeonpea + Soybean (1:5)	4338	6733	4750	5273

Table 3: Pigeonpea equivalent yield as influenced by tillage practices and intercropping system. (2010, 2012 & 2014)

Treatments	Pigeonpea Equivalent Yield (Kg ha ⁻¹)			
	2011-12	2013-14	2015-16	Pooled
A) Tillage Practices				
Conventional tillage	1726	1956	793	1492
Minimum tillage	1654	1979	790	1474
SE (m±)	54	64	19	31
CD at 5%	NS	NS	NS	NS
B) Cropping System				
Pigeonpea +Soybean (1:2)	1939	2447	951	1779
Pigeonpea +Sunhemp (1:2 GM) at 45 DAS	1434	1805	738	1326
Pigeonpea +Soybean (1:5)	1697	1650	686	1344
SE (m)±	66	79	23	38
CD at 5%	200	239	70	116

Application of integrated nutrient sources at proper quantity which was significantly boosted the yield of cotton in individual year and in pooled data. The maximum seed cotton yield (1387 kg ha⁻¹) was recorded with 100 per cent RDF + shed biomass of previous cropping system followed by shed biomass + 50 per cent RDF + 50 per cent

N through vermicomposting applied to *Bt* cotton. The seed cotton yield was increased by 22.2 per cent due to application of 100 per cent RDF + shed biomass of previous cropping system over only shed biomass. Shed biomass of previous cropping system + 100 per cent RDF might be provided the nutrient requirement of *Bt* cotton

Table 4: Seed Cotton Yield (2011-12, 2013-14 and 2015-16) as influenced by tillage practices, cropping system and integrated nutrient management to *Bt* cotton

Treatment	Seed Cotton Yield (Kg ha ⁻¹)			
	2011-12	2013-14	2015-16	Pooled mean
Main Plot A) Tillage Practices				
T ₁ - Conventional tillage	1193	1643	1132	1285
T ₂ - Minimum tillage	1181	1577	1137	1266
SE (m)±	6	23	19	6
CD at 5%	NS	74	NS	NS
B) Cropping System				
C ₁ - Pigeonpea +Soybean (1:2)	1183	1571	1109	1267
C ₂ - Pigeonpea +Sunhemp (1:2 GM) at 45 DAS	1219	1635	1162	1304
C ₃ - Pigeonpea +Soybean (1:5)	1159	1579	1133	1256
SE (m)±	7	29	24	10
CD at 5%	23	NS	NS	33
Sub Plot – Nutrient management to cotton (2, 4, 6th season of second rotation)				
N ₁ - Shed biomass of previous crop (Control)	1078	1434	854	1135
N ₂ - Shed biomass + 50 % VC from residue	1155	1510	1173	1275
N ₃ - Shed biomass + 50 % RDF + 50 % N (VC)	1228	1647	1223	1325
N ₄ - Shed biomass + RDF (60:30:30 NPK kg ha ⁻¹)	1288	1791	1299	1387
SE (m)±	33	30	31	20
CD at 5%	96	87	91	59

and moisture supply during crop growth. Results are in conformity with the Bhalerao *et al.* (2008).

E. Physico-Chemical and biological properties

Soil reaction, bulk density, organic carbon, soil microbial biomass C and available nitrogen, phosphorous and potassium were influenced after sixth year after Bt cotton over initial values (Table 5).

Due to addition of leaf litter, weeds and root biomass of all three crops in their respective cropping system the values of organic carbon, soil microbial biomass C and available nitrogen, phosphorous and potassium were higher over initial values and these values were higher with minimum tillage. Similarly, higher values were observed in pigeonpea + sunhemp (1:2) system. This might be due to addition of sunhemp as mulch as well as leaf litter of pigeonpea and weeds. More and Hangarge 2003 and He *et al.*, 2009 reported that pH reduced slightly with application of FYM, crop residues and green manures. The organic carbon content was also increased over initial values due to green manuring of sunhemp. Available NPK values were improved under pigeonpea + sunhemp (1:2) system. This might be due to *in-situ* addition of shed biomass in this system. Similar results were reported by Prasad and Singh 1997 and Paslawar *et al.* (2007). SMBC was maximum at 90 days after sowing, when moisture was higher under minimum tillage and pigeonpea + sunhemp due to soil disturbances were less in minimum tillage.

Bulk density was slightly reduced under minimum tillage and in cropping system and INM practices. Organic carbon content, soil microbial biomass and NPK values of soil were increased after harvest of cotton crop (sixth season). The highest values of OC, SMBC and available NPK, when intercropping of pigeonpea + sunhemp (1:2) was grown in previous year. Whereas these values were improved under shed biomass + 50 per cent RDF + 50 per cent RDN through vermicomposting applied to Bt cotton. Similar results were observed by Katkar *et al.*, (2012) when combined use of FYM @10 tonne ha⁻¹ with 100 per cent NPK increased microbial biomass carbon.

CONCLUSION

In conservation agriculture, bio-mulching of sunhemp at 45 DAS in Pigeonpea inter cropping (1:2) in

first year followed by rotation system of Bt cotton under minimum tillage (1 Harrowing + 1 hoeing + herbicide) with 100 per cent RDF (60:30:30 NPK kg ha⁻¹) is recommended for higher returns from Bt cotton and enhancing soil health. Bio-mulching of sunhemp along with shedded biomass of pigeonpea saves application of compost.

LITERATURE CITED

- Benites, J. 2008. Effect of no tillage on conservation of soil and soil fertility. In: Goddard, T., Zobbisch, M. A. Gan, Y.T., Ellis w. Watson, A. sombatpaint, S. (Eds.) No till farming system. Special publication no. 3, World Association of soil and water conservation, Bangkok. Thailand : 1-554.
- Bhalerao ,P.D., B.R.Patil, P.P. Gawande and P.V.Ghatol 2008. Response of Bt cotton hybrids to various spacing and fertilizer levels under rainfed conditions, PKV Research J., 32 (2) : 259-262.
- Derpsch, R., C. Roth, N. Sidiras and U. Kopke, 1991. Control de erosao no parana Brazil: Sistemas de cobertura do solo, plantio direto e preparo conservacionista do solo, Deustsche Gesellschaft fur Technische Zusammenarbeit (GTZ) GmbH, Eschborn, Germany.
- Ghosh , P.K., D. Dayal, K.G. Mandal, R. H. Wanjari, and Hati, 2003. Optimization of Fertilizer Schedules in fallow and groundnut based cropping system sustainability, Field Crop Research 80 : 83-98.
- He, J., N.J. Kuhn, X.M. Zhang, X.R. Zhang and H.W. Li, 2009. Effect of 10 year of conservation tillage on soil properties and productivity in the farming-pastoral acetone of Inner Mongolia, China, Soil use and Management, 25: 201-209.
- Jagtap, J.G. and S. Holkar, 1995. Soybean + pigeonpea- remunerative intercropping system for Malwa region of Madhya Pradesh, International chickpea and pigeonpea newsletter, (2) : 63-64.
- Katkar R.N., V.K. Kharache, B.A. Sonune , R.H. Wanjari and Muneshwar Singh 2012. Long term effect nutrient management on soil quality and sustainable productivity under sorghum- wheat crop sequence in Vertisols of Akola, Maharashtra, Agropedology 22(2) 103-114.

Table 5: Bulk Density, organic carbon and NPK as influenced by different treatments after six years of season.

Treatments	Bulk Density Mg m ⁻³	Organic carbon (g kg ⁻¹)		Nitrogen (kg ha ⁻¹)		Phosphorous (kg ha ⁻¹)		Potassium (kg ha ⁻¹)		SMBC (Kg ha ⁻¹) at (90DAS)	Soil (ug g ⁻¹) carbon organic stock (0-15 cm depth) Mg ha-1
		Initial	At harvest	Initial	At harvest	Initial	At harvest	Initial	At harvest		
A) Main Plots- Tillage Practices											
T ₁	1.29	4.9	5.1	212	217	15.7	18.2	324	333	240	9.86
T ₂	1.27	5.0	5.2	213	219	15.7	18.5	323	335	261	9.90
B) Cropping System											
C ₁	1.28	4.8	5.1	212	222	15.6	18.7	323	336	242	9.79
C ₂	4.9	5.4	212	226	15.7	19.3	324	339	265	10.28	1.27
at 45 DAS											
C ₃	1.28	4.9	5.2	212	223	15.7	18.8	234	335	237	9.98
C) Sub plots-Nutrient Management to Cotton (2nd Season)											
N ₁	1.28	4.9	5.1	212	218	15.5	17.7	322	331	238	9.79
N ₂	1.27	4.9	5.4	212	225	15.8	20.5	323	334	261	10.28
from residue											
N ₃	1.27	4.9	5.5	213	227	15.8	21.7	325	335	251	10.47
+ 50% N (VC)											
N ₄	1.29	5.0	5.2	213	215	15.8	20.1	324	330	248	10.06
Shed biomass + RDF (60:30:30)											

- Loundraj, A.C., S. Pannerelvam and S. Sanbagavalli, 1998. Intercropping in groundnut, *Agriculture Science Digest*, 18(3):195-7
- More, S. D and D. S. Hangare, 2003. Effect of integrated nutrient supply on crop productivity and soil characteristics with cotton-sorghum cropping sequence in vertisol, *J. Maharashtra Agri. Univ.*, 28 (1): 8-12.
- Paslawar, A. N., R. P. Gawande, P. V. Shingrup, Sonali Thakare and D.V. Mali, 2007. Use of organic, inorganic and biofertilizer in pigeonpea + soybean intercropping system and its effect on yield, protein and physio-chemical properties of soil, *Annals of Plant Physiology*, 21 (1), 96-98.
- Paslawar, A. N., K. K. Thakare and G. H. Pund, 1997. Parallel cropping of soybean with pigeonpea under rainfed conditions, *J. Soils and Crops*, (7) 210-212.
- Prasad, K. and V. C. Srivastava, 1991. Effect of row combination of soyabean (*Glycine max*) intercropping system under rainfed situation, *Indian J. Agri.Sci.*, 61 (4): 243-246
- Prasad, S.N. and R. Singh, 1997. Productivity, economics and residual fertility under rainfed soybean based intercropping system in south-eastern Rajasthan, *Indian J. Soil Conservation*, 25(3):236-240.



Received on 3.5.2019

Safed Musli Yield and Micronutrient Status under Safed Musli + Pigeonpea Intercropping System

Yogita Gore¹, S. G. Wankhade², S. S. Wanjari³, N. K. Patke⁴ and N. M. Konde⁵

ABSTRACT

The present investigation entitled was carried out at Nagarjun Medicinal Plants Garden, Dr. Panjabrao Deshmukh Krishi Vidyapeeth, Akola (M.S.) to find out the effect of safed musli and pigeonpea intercropping on safed musli yield and micronutrient status. The experiment was framed as Safed musli+ Pigeonpea intercropping with various row proportions T1 – Safed musli + Pigeonpea 2:1, T2 – Safed musli+ Pigeonpea 3:1, T3 – Safed musli + Pigeonpea 2:2, T4 – Safed musli + Pigeonpea 1:2, T5 – Sole Safed musli, T6 – Sole Pigeonpea. The experiment was laid in Randomized Block Design with four replications and six treatments. In yield contributing characters of safed musli significantly highest no. of roots plant⁻¹, root length and root girth of safed musli was increased in treatment T2 i.e. safed musli + pigeonpea (3:1). Similarly fresh and dry root yield g plant⁻¹ was significantly increased under treatment T2 i.e. safed musli + pigeonpea (3:1). The micronutrients status in soil was significantly increased under T4 i.e. safed musli + pigeonpea in 1:2 row proportion.

The main concept of intercropping is to increasing total productivity per unit area and time, as well as equitable and judicious utilization of land resources and inputs. One of the main reasons for getting higher yields from intercropping systems are mainly due to the component crops are able to use face natural resources than grown separately (Willey and Rao, 1979). A careful selection of crops having different growth habits can reduce the mutual competition to a considerable extent. Hence, choice of component crops in intercropping needs to be suitably maneuvered to harvest the synergism among them towards efficient utilization of resource base and to increase overall productivity (Mandal, *et. al.*, 1986).

Chlorophytum borivilianum is a perennial important herb known as 'Safed musli' which is a root crop belonging to the family Liliaceae. The roots of *Chlorophytum borivilianum* have great medicinal value due to saponin content and used extensively in Ayurvedic medicines and is well known tonic and aphrodisiac drug given to cure general debility.

Pigeonpea is an important legume food and drought tolerant crop and having potential to sustain productivity and profitability in drought prone areas. Being a legume, the residual nitrogen available to subsequent crop is estimated to around 40 kg ha⁻¹.

Intercropping with Pigeonpea provides an opportunity to grow them together as they have different growth habits and maturity period. The Pigeonpea being deep rooted and comparatively slow growing in its early growth stage, during which the more rapidly growing crops like Safed musli can be conveniently intercropped to utilize natural resources more efficiently. The sole cropping of safed musli has a risk. The replacement of traditional crops with alternative crops like Safed musli may be unsustainable in large context and therefore, it is necessary to explore the possibilities of the growing these crops as an intercrop with the traditional crop in efficient cropping systems. In order to generate useful information for such type of potential areas, present investigation to study safed musli yield and micronutrient status under Safed musli + Pigeonpea intercropping under rainfed condition.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

The field experiment was conducted at Nagarjun medicinal plant Garden Dr. PDKV Akola during kharif season 2015-2016 and 2016-2017. Experiment was laid out in Randomized Block Design with four replications and six treatments. The experimental soil order was inceptisol, the fertility status of soil was moderate in organic carbon, low in available nitrogen and available phosphorus and very high in available potassium while the soil

1. PG Student, 2. Professor, 3&4. Associate Professor, 5. Assistant Professor, Nagarjun Medicinal Plant Garden, Dr. PDKV, Akola

micronutrient contents (Zn, Fe, Mn, Cu) were above the critical level. FYM @ 20 t ha⁻¹ was applied common for all treatments of Safed musli and for Pigeonpea: FYM @ equivalent to RDN (25 kg N ha⁻¹).

Treatment details

- T₁ Safed musli + Pigeonpea 2:1 row proportion
- T₂ Safed musli+ Pigeonpea 3:1 row proportion,
- T₃ Safed musli + Pigeonpea 2:2 row proportion
- T₄ Safed musli + Pigeonpea 1:2 row proportion,
- T₅ Sole Safed musli,
- T₆ Sole Pigeonpea.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Yield contributing characters

Number of Roots

The number of roots per plant was significantly influenced by the intercropping in both the year. Number of roots of safed musli were ranged from 7.75 to 9.25 plant⁻¹ and 7.80 to 10.20 roots plant⁻¹ during 2015-16 and 2016-17, respectively (Table 1). Further, the highest no of roots of safed musli (9.25 plant⁻¹) was recorded with safed musli + pigeonpea in 3:1 row proportion (T₂) which was at par with treatments T₃ (2:2 row proportion) and T₅ (sole safed musli) during first year. However, during second year (2016-17) data showed that highest number of roots (10.20 plant⁻¹) was recorded under safed musli + pigeonpea in 3:1 row proportion which was at par with treatment T₅ (sole safed musli).

Pooled data indicated that the application of safed musli+ pigeonpea in 3:1 row proportion (T₂) recorded

significantly highest number of roots (9.70 plant⁻¹) followed by sole safed musli (T₅).

Root Length

The root length was significantly influenced by the intercropping in both the years. Root length varied from 6.35 to 7.00 cm and 6.39 to 7.24 cm during 2015-16 and 2016-17 respectively. Further, it was noticed that highest root length of safed musli (7.00 cm) was recorded under safed musli + pigeonpea in 3:1 row proportion (T₂) which was at par with T₃ (2:2 row proportion) and T₄ (1:2 row proportion) during first year. However, during second year (2016-17) data showed that highest root length (7.24 cm) was recorded under safed musli + pigeonpea in 3:1 row proportion (T₂) while lowest (6.39 cm) root length was observed in treatment under safed musli + pigeonpea in 2:2 row proportion (T₃).

The pooled data also indicated that the root length was significantly highest (7.12 cm) with treatment T₂ (3:1 row proportion) as compared to T₁ (2:1 row propotion), T₃ (2:2 row proportion) and T₅ (sole safed musli), however, at par with T₄ (1:2 row proportion).

Root Girth

Root girth varied from 5.38 to 6.10 mm and 5.44 to 6.05 mm during 2015-16 and 2016-17, respectively and the highest root girth of safed musli (6.10 mm) was recorded under sole safed musli (T₅) which was at par with treatment T₁ (2:1 row proportion), T₂ (3:1 row proportion) and T₄ (1:2 row proportion) during first year study except T₃ (2:2 row proportion). During second year and in pooled data the

Table 1. Number of roots, root length and root girth of safed musli as influenced by safed musli + pigeonpea intercropping system

Treatments	No. of Roots plant ⁻¹			Root Length (cm)			Root Girth (mm)		
	2015-16	2016-17	Pooled	2015-16	2016-17	Pooled	2015-16	2016-17	Pooled
T ₁ - Safed musli + Pigeonpea (2:1)	8.03	8.53	8.28	6.35	6.65	6.50	5.48	5.60	5.54
T ₂ - Safed musli + Pigeonpea (3:1)	9.25	10.20	9.70	7.00	7.24	7.12	5.95	6.05	6.00
T ₃ - Safed musli + Pigeonpea (2:2)	8.30	8.50	8.25	6.61	6.39	6.50	5.38	5.44	5.41
T ₄ - Safed musli + Pigeonpea (1:2)	7.75	7.80	7.78	6.59	6.68	6.63	5.66	5.59	5.63
T ₅ - Sole Safed musli	8.75	9.00	8.87	6.41	6.60	6.50	6.10	5.85	5.97
T ₆ - Sole Pigeonpea	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
SE (m) ±	0.39	0.41	0.31	0.29	0.30	0.20	0.24	0.26	0.17
CD at 5 %	1.14	1.20	0.93	0.50	0.75	0.59	0.63	0.48	0.51

Safed Musli Yield and Micronutrient Status under Safed Musli + Pigeonpea Intercropping System

highest root girth was also recorded under safed musli + pigeonpea in 3:1 row proportion (T_2) which was also at par with treatments T_5 (sole safed musli) and T_1 (2:1 row proportion).

As the safed musli is partial shade loving plant the intercropping with pigeonpea might have beneficial effect on safed musli crop growth which ultimately recorded in improvement of yield contributing characters. These results are in confirmiy of findings of studies on safed musli + Pigeonpea intercropping conducted at Akola (Anonymous, 2015 and Shivankar, 2015).

Safed musli fresh root yield

The fresh root yield (Table 2) significantly influenced by different intercropping proportions and the higher fresh root yield (33.40 q ha⁻¹) was obtained with the intercropping of safed musli + pigeonpea intercropping in 3:1 row proportion which was at par with treatment T_5 (sole safed musli). While, the lowest fresh root yield (13.31 q ha⁻¹) was recorded with of safed musli + pigeonpea in 1:2 proportion (T_4).

During second year and in pooled data also the highest fresh root yield was recorded in T_2 (safed musli + pigeonpea in 3:1 row proportion) which was at par with T_5 (sole safed musli). Whereas, lowest fresh root yield (12.38 q ha⁻¹) was recorded in treatment T_4 *i.e.*, safed musli + pigeonpea in 1:2 proportion.

Safed musli dry root yield

The dry root yield was significantly influenced by intercropping with various row propotion of safed musli + pigeonpea and it was significantly higher (5.67 q ha⁻¹) under treatment T_2 *i.e.*, in 3:1 row proportion. In second year, significantly highest dry yield (5.17 q ha⁻¹) was recorded in T_2 *i.e.*, safed musli + pigeonpea in 3:1 row proportion. While, lowest (2.26 q ha⁻¹) dry yield per hector was recorded in treatment T_4 under 1:2 row proportion. Pooled data also indicated that significantly higher dry yield (5.42 q ha⁻¹) was recorded with treatment T_2 followed by treatment T_5 (5.30 q ha⁻¹).

Significantly highest root yield obtained with the intercropping of safed musli + pigeon pea in 3:1 row might

be due to favorable partial shade effect which recorded in better crop growth and ultimately the root yield. These results are in accordance with the findings of Shivankar (2019).

Available micronutrients after harvest

Available Iron

The data in respect of DTPA extractable iron as influenced by various treatments is presented in Table 3. The availability of iron content in soil differs among various treatments and it was varied from 4.84 to 4.96 mg kg⁻¹ and 4.90 to 5.00 mg kg⁻¹ after harvest of safed musli and pigeonpea grown in year 2015-16 and 2016-17 respectively.

Further, it was observed that the available iron was significantly highest (4.96 mg kg⁻¹) in treatment T_4 *i.e.*, safed musli + pigeonpea in 1:2 row proportion during 1st year which was at par with rest of treatments except T_6 *i.e.*, sole pigeonpea. Similar results were also observed during second year of study.

The enhancement in available iron may be due to addition of organic manure which contain appreciable quantity of iron and due to the ability of organic substances to form stable water soluble complexes preventing the reaction of soil constituents and also increasing the Fe content through release from the native sources. The results are in agreement with Lohakare (1980), Prakash *et al.* (2002) and Naguib (2011).

Available Manganese

The availability of manganese content in soil after harvest of safed musli was differs among various treatments and it was varied from 2.82 to 2.95 mg kg⁻¹ and 2.83 to 2.98 mg kg⁻¹ in year 2015-16 and 2016-17 respectively.

Further, it was observed that the available manganese was significantly highest (2.95 mg kg⁻¹) with the safed musli + pigeonpea in 1:2 row proportion (T_4) which was at par with treatment T_2 (3:1 row proportion). However, during 2nd year data indicated that available manganese was significantly highest (2.98 mg kg⁻¹) under safed musli + pigeonpea in 1:2 row proportion (T_4) which was at par under 3:1 row proportion (T_2).

Table 2. Fresh and Dry root yield of safed musli as influenced by safed musli + pigeonpea intercropping system

Treatments	Safed musli fresh root yield (q ha ⁻¹)			Safed musli dry root yield (q ha ⁻¹)		
	2015-16	2016-17	Pooled	2015-16	2016-17	Pooled
T ₁ - Safed musli + Pigeonpea (2:1)	24.43	22.54	23.48	4.15	3.84	3.99
T ₂ - Safed musli + Pigeonpea (3:1)	33.4	30.44	31.92	5.67	5.17	5.42
T ₃ - Safed musli + Pigeonpea (2:2)	22.55	21.6	22.07	3.83	3.67	3.75
T ₄ - Safed musli + Pigeonpea (1:2)	13.31	12.38	12.84	2.26	2.1	2.18
T ₅ - Sole Safed musli	32.14	30.22	31.18	5.46	5.13	5.3
T ₆ - Sole Pigeonpea	-	-	-	-	-	-
SE(m) ±	0.68	0.72	0.46	0.07	0.09	0.006
CD at 5 %	2	2.1	1.4	0.23	0.3	5.4

Available Zinc

The availability of zinc content in soil after harvest of safed musli was varied from 0.64 to 0.66 mg kg⁻¹ and 0.65 to 0.67 mg kg⁻¹ in year 2015-16 and 2016-17 respectively. Further, it was observed that the available zinc was significantly highest (0.66 mg kg⁻¹) with the safed musli + pigeonpea in 1:2 row proportion (T₄) during 1st year. However, during 2nd year available zinc was highest (0.67 mg kg⁻¹) with all the treatments except T₃ and T₆ also

Available Copper

The availability of copper content in soil after harvest of safed musli was differs among various treatments and it was varied from 2.30 to 2.34 mg kg⁻¹ and 2.31 to 2.35 mg kg⁻¹ in year 2015-16 and 2016-17, respectively. The available copper was significantly highest (2.34 mg kg⁻¹) under the safed musli + pigeonpea in 1:2 row proportion (T₄) which was at par with safed musli + pigeonpea in 2:1 row proportion (T₁) and safed musli + pigeonpea in 3:1 row proportion (T₂) during 1st year. Whereas, during 2nd year data indicated that available copper was significantly highest (2.35 mg kg⁻¹) under safed musli + pigeonpea in 1:2 row proportion (T₂) which was at par with safed musli + pigeonpea in 3:1 row proportion.

The possible reason for increased micronutrient status could be and enhanced microbial activity in the soil and consequent release of complex organic substances which acts as (chelating agents), which could have

prevented micronutrient precipitation, fixation, oxidation and leaching. The results are line with Bellakki *et al.* (1998) and Guled *et al.* (2002). Available status of iron, manganese, zinc and copper (mg kg⁻¹) (Table 3) after 2 cycles of experimentation revealed that there was with all the intercropping treatments and except sole crop pigeon pea.

LITERATURE CITED

- Anonymous, 2015. Annual Progress Report of AICRP on Medicinal and Aromatic plants and Betelvine (2014-2015), Dr. PDKV, Akola.
- Bellakki, M.A., V.P. Badanur and R.A. Setty, 1998. Effect of long term integrated nutrient management on some important properties of Vertisol, J. Indian Soc. Soil Sci., 46(2): 176-180.
- Bhakare, B.D., B.P. Patil, A.C. Joshi and N.K. Umbrani, 1991. Effect of fertilizer application and cropping sequence on soil nutrients N and P in a Vertisol, J. Maharashtra Agric. Univ., 16(3):417.
- Guled, M.B., S.S. Gundlur, K.A. Hiremath, V.S. Surkod and S.R. Balanagoudar, 2002. Effect of organic and inorganic fertilizer on soil properties of Vertisols under rainfed conditions, Karnataka J. Agric. Sci., 15(3): 509-513.
- Lohakare, V.P., 1980. Effect of long term manuring and fertilization on micronutrients status of Vertisol. M.Sc. Thesis (unpub), Dr. Panjabrao Deshmukh Krishi Vidyapeeth, Akola.

Table 3. Effect of safed musli + pigeonpea intercropping on available iron, manganese, zinc and copper after harvest.

Treatments	Available iron (mg kg ⁻¹)		Available manganese (mg kg ⁻¹)		Available Zinc (mg kg ⁻¹)		Available Copper (mg kg ⁻¹)	
	2015-16	2016-17	2015-16	2016-17	2015-16	2016-17	2015-16	2016-17
T ₁ - Safed musli + Pigeonpea (2:1)	4.92	4.96	2.85	2.88	0.65	0.67	2.32	2.32
T ₂ - Safed musli + Pigeonpea (3:1)	4.91	4.95	2.91	2.92	0.65	0.67	2.33	2.34
T ₃ - Safed musli + Pigeonpea (2:2)	4.91	4.97	2.84	2.9	0.65	0.66	2.31	2.32
T ₄ - Safed musli + Pigeonpea (1:2)	4.96	5.00	2.95	2.98	0.66	0.67	2.34	2.35
T ₅ - Sole Safed musli	4.9	4.96	2.84	2.9	0.65	0.67	2.31	2.32
T ₆ - Sole Pigeonpea	4.84	4.9	2.82	2.83	0.64	0.65	2.3	2.31
initial	4.80	-	2.8	-	0.65	2.3	-	-
SE (m) ±	0.02	0.02	0.03	0.02	0.002	0.003	-	0.01
CD at 5%	0.06	0.05	0.08	0.07	0.005	0.008	0.03	0.003

- Mandal, S. C., D. E. Leihner and J. J. Vorst, 1986. Cassava-cowpea and cassava-peanut intercropping. 1. Yield and land use efficiency, *Agron. J.*, 78: 43-46.
- Naguib, N.Y.M., 2011. Organic Vs chemical fertilization of medicinal plants: concise review of researches, *Adv. Environ. Biol.*, 5(2):394-400.
- Prakash, Y.S., P.B.S. Bhadoria and Amitava Rakshit, 2002. Comparative efficacy of organic manures on the changes in soil properties and nutrient availability in an Alfisol, *J. Indian Soc. Soil Sci.*, 50(2):219-221.
- Shivankar, P. R., 2015. Fertility status under safed musli + pigeonpea intercropping system M.Sc. Thesis (Unpub.) Dr. Panjabbrao Deshmukh Krishi Vidyapeeth, Akola.
- Willey, R. W. and M. R. Rao, 1979. A competitive ratio for quantifying competition between intercrops, *Expl. Agric.*, 16:105-117.

❖ ❖ ❖
Received on 14.4.2019

Influence of Fumigants and Exposure Period on Seed Quality and Storability of Groundnut

M. Y. Ladole¹, A. G. Kute², P. N. Mane³ and A. R. Bhuyar⁴

ABSTRACT

The present study was conducted during 2014-2015 at the laboratory of Seed Technology Research Unit, Dr. PDKV, Akola to find out ideal fumigant with proper exposure period to control groundnut beetle and maintenance of seed quality of groundnut. The results revealed that groundnut seed pods fumigated with both the fumigants (Aluminium phosphide and Ethylene dibromide) retained satisfactory germination of 70 per cent (MSCS) up to four months of storage period. Among the exposure period, groundnut seeds fumigated with an exposure period up to 96 hours maintained the germination per cent above minimum seed certification standard (70 %) up to six months whereas, groundnut seeds fumigated with an exposure periods beyond 96 hours, could retain 70 per cent germination upto two months only. In interaction of fumigants and exposure period, groundnut seeds fumigated with ethylene dibromide for 24 hours exposure period (F_2P_1) was found to be superior by recording highest germination (64.00 %), speed of germination (26.82) seedling length (11.60 cm) and seedlings vigour index (743) at the end of experiment. Besides, this treatment also recorded lower electrical conductivity of seed leachate (0.820 dSm⁻¹) and less per cent reduction germination (31.91 %) and beetle population (3.21) at the end of tenth months of storage.

Groundnut (*Arachis hypogaea* L.) is the king of oil seed crops containing 48 -50 per cent edible oil and 25 per cent high quality protein and being a legume it occupies a unique position in the farming system. It is the world's six most important source of edible oil and third most important source of vegetable protein (Nigam, 2014).

Over 60 per cent of the global production is crushed for extraction of oil for edible and industrial uses, while 40 per cent is consumed for food and other uses (seed for sowing) (Birtal *et al.*, 2010). For seed purpose the pods are to be stored for longer period during which it is prone to various insect particularly bruchids which causes greater losses.

During storage, quality of groundnut seed gets deteriorated due to several reasons, out of which, storage pest infestation contributes its major share. The loss in seed quality may be quantitative or qualitative or both. Damage by *Caryedon serratus* (Olivier) in groundnut seeds to the extent of 45 per cent results in 65 per cent loss in dry weight of damaged seeds (Kapadia, 1994). The qualitative loss of seed can be attributed to biochemical changes in protein, carbohydrates, fatty acids and vitamins (Girish *et al.*, 1972).

During storage, quality of seed can be maintained for a longer period by adopting several prophylactic measures viz., disinfestation of storage room, physical and chemical treatments, fumigation, etc. Among these methods, fumigation is said to be a convenient, rapid and effective method to control infestation of store pests. For fumigation, many chemicals are in use to achieve the desired results. Aluminum phosphide is one of the most toxic fumigant used to kill stored grain pests like insects, mites and rodents. Despite its harmful effect, aluminum phosphide, being highly inflammable is a safe and convenient fumigant. Ethylene dibromide (EDB) has high boiling point and its vapours are non-inflammable and is absorbed by many materials, but does not penetrate well. Ethylene dibromide does not normally react with constituents of foodstuff. The seed quality changes during storage, the quality parameters such as germination and vigour index decreased from 84-79 per cent and 2581-2005, respectively while moisture contents increased from 7.1 to 8per cent (Junaithal Begum *et al.*, 2013).

A thorough knowledge of these factors is very much required for successful fumigation process with a given gas. Hence, in the present study an attempt has

1. Associate Professor, 2. PG Student, 3. Assistant Professor and 4. Sr. Research Fellow, Oilseed Research Unit, Dr. PDKV, Akola

been made to find out ideal fumigant with proper exposure period to control bruchids and maintenance of seed quality parameters of groundnut.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

The present investigation entitled “Influence of fumigation on seed quality during storage of groundnut (*Arachis hypogaea* L.)” was conducted during 2014-2015 at the laboratory of Seed Technology Research Unit, Dr. Panjabrao Deshmukh Krishi Vidyapeeth, Akola. The variety TAG-24 was selected for seed treatment of groundnut.

The experiment consisted of 16 treatment combinations involving two fumigants (F) viz., Aluminium phosphide (0.9 g q^{-1}) and Ethylene dibromide (3 ml q^{-1}) (Ranga Rao et al. 2010). The calculated quantities of fumigants were placed in the plastic tins measuring 30 cm (length) 30 cm (breadth) and 44 cm (height) containing pods and the boxes were closed with lids. The cover portion of lid was made air tight by plastering with cellophane tape. After the required exposure period, the cover was opened and pods were removed from boxes and were stored in aerated gunny bags under ambient storage conditions. This process of fumigation was repeated as per the treatment combinations for effecting repeated fumigation of the pods. Exposure period viz., no fumigation (control), 24, 48, 72, 96, 120, 144 and 168 hours exposure period were followed. The seed quality parameters like germination percentage, speed of germination, seedling length, seedling vigour index, per cent reduction in germination, electrical conductivity and beetle population were recorded bimonthly. The germination test was conducted as per ISTA rules (Anon., 1999), SVI as per Abdul- Baki and Anderson (1973) and speed of germination using the formula suggested by Maguire (1962). The data were statistically analysed for completely randomized design with factorial concept with three replications (Panse and Sukhatme, 1978).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The result revealed that germination percentage, speed of germination, seedling length, seedling vigour index and electrical conductivity differed significantly among the exposure periods, irrespective of fumigants in

all the months of storage. The result revealed that, the seeds fumigated with EDB recorded higher seed quality parameters namely the germination percentage (55.92 per cent), speed of germination (20.23), seedling length (9.72 cm), seedling vigour index (547), and lower electrical conductivity of seed lachates (1.085 dSm^{-1}), less percent reduction in germination (40.51 %) than the seeds fumigated with Aluminium phosphide at the end of tenth month of storage. This clearly indicated that ethylene dibromide has less deleterious effect on seed quality compared to Aluminium phosphide since, it is being highly inflammable penetrates more in to the seed and having more residual effect on fumigated seeds than EDB. Similar results were reported by Lindgren et al (1962). The fumigants retained in the seed might have caused adverse effect on chemical balance of the seed (Harrington and Douglas, 1970).

The seed fumigated with Aluminium phosphide noticed less (3.21) number of groundnut beetle population compared to EDB (4.33) at the end of ten month of storage indicating the toxicity of respective fumigant but affected the seed quality parameters adversely. Aluminium phosphide could maintained the satisfactory germination (70 %) up to four months with less pest population. Similar results were reported by Kamble *et al.*, (2013) and Lindgren *et al.*, (1962). The seed quality parameters declined with the increase in exposure period from 24 hours to 168 hours in all the months of storage and more prominent after 96 hours of exposure period and discussed here parameter wise.

Germination percentage (per cent)

Germination percentage differed significantly among the exposure periods, irrespective of fumigants in all the months of storage. While, the seeds exposed to 168 hours exposure period recorded significantly lesser (79.67, 69.83, 60.83, 59.00 and 49.84 %) germination during second, fourth, sixth, eighth and tenth month of storage period respectively (Table 1). The seeds fumigated with an exposure period up to 96 hours maintained the germination per cent above the minimum seed certification standard (70 %) up to six months of storage. Whereas, beyond 96 hours could retain 70 per cent germination up to four months only.

Table 1. Influence of fumigants and exposure periods on germination percentage of groundnut seeds.

Treatment	Months after storage														
	Two			Four			Six			Eight			Ten		
	F1	F2	Mean	F1	F2	Mean	F1	F2	Mean	F1	F2	Mean	F1	F2	Mean
P0	83.67 (66.16)	84.00 (66.43)	83.84 (66.30)	75.67 (60.44)	76.33 (60.89)	76.00 (60.67)	70.33 (57.00)	71.33 (57.63)	70.83 (57.31)	65.67 (54.13)	67.33 (55.14)	66.50 (54.64)	55.67 (48.25)	56.67 (48.83)	56.17 (48.54)
P1	83.00 (65.66)	89.00 (70.64)	86.00 (68.15)	74.00 (59.35)	88.00 (69.74)	81.00 (64.54)	69.67 (56.58)	77.67 (61.80)	73.67 (59.19)	65.33 (53.93)	71.67 (57.84)	68.50 (55.89)	55.33 (48.06)	64.00 (53.13)	59.67 (50.60)
P2	84.00 (66.43)	84.67 (66.95)	84.34 (66.69)	79.67 (63.20)	80.00 (63.44)	79.84 (63.32)	72.00 (58.05)	75.00 (60.00)	73.50 (59.03)	66.00 (54.33)	67.67 (55.35)	66.84 (54.84)	58.33 (49.80)	58.67 (49.99)	58.50 (49.89)
P3	86.33 (68.31)	83.67 (66.17)	85.00 (67.24)	84.00 (66.43)	77.33 (61.57)	80.67 (64.00)	75.00 (60.00)	71.33 (57.63)	73.17 (58.82)	69.33 (56.37)	66.00 (54.33)	67.67 (55.35)	59.67 (50.57)	57.00 (49.02)	58.34 (49.80)
P4	84.00 (66.43)	83.00 (65.66)	83.50 (66.04)	81.33 (64.40)	73.67 (59.13)	77.50 (61.77)	73.00 (58.70)	68.00 (55.55)	70.50 (57.12)	67.67 (55.35)	61.33 (51.55)	64.50 (53.45)	58.67 (49.99)	54.00 (47.29)	56.34 (48.64)
P5	84.00 (66.43)	81.67 (64.66)	82.84 (65.54)	71.00 (57.42)	71.33 (57.63)	71.17 (57.52)	66.33 (54.53)	69.67 (56.58)	68.00 (55.56)	60.33 (50.96)	62.67 (52.34)	61.50 (51.65)	51.33 (45.76)	53.67 (47.10)	52.50 (46.43)
P6	82.00 (64.90)	81.00 (64.16)	81.50 (64.53)	70.33 (57.00)	70.67 (57.21)	70.50 (57.10)	62.00 (51.94)	62.67 (52.34)	62.34 (52.14)	59.67 (50.57)	61.00 (51.36)	60.34 (50.96)	51.00 (45.57)	53.33 (46.91)	52.17 (46.24)
P7	79.33 (62.97)	80.00 (63.44)	79.67 (63.20)	70.33 (57.00)	69.33 (56.37)	69.83 (56.69)	61.33 (51.55)	60.33 (50.96)	60.83 (51.26)	57.33 (49.22)	60.67 (51.16)	59.00 (50.19)	49.67 (44.81)	50.00 (45.00)	49.84 (44.90)
Mean	83.29 (65.91)	83.38 (66.01)	83.33 (65.96)	75.79 (60.65)	75.83 (60.75)	75.81 (60.70)	68.71 (56.05)	69.50 (56.56)	69.10 (56.30)	63.92 (53.11)	64.79 (53.63)	64.35 (53.37)	54.96 (47.85)	55.92 (48.41)	55.44 (48.13)
For comparing means of	SE(m)±	SE(m)±	SE(m)±	SE(m)±	SE(m)±	SE(m)±	SE(m)±	SE(m)±	SE(m)±	SE(m)±	SE(m)±	SE(m)±	SE(m)±	SE(m)±	SE(m)±
F	0.16	0.16	0.16	NS	NS	0.12	NS	0.11	0.33	0.33	0.09	0.27	0.09	0.09	0.26
P	0.31	0.31	0.31	0.90	0.90	0.23	0.67	0.23	0.66	0.66	0.19	0.54	0.18	0.18	0.53
F x P	0.44	0.44	0.44	1.28	1.28	0.33	0.94	0.32	0.93	0.93	0.26	0.76	0.26	0.26	0.75

*Figures in the parenthesis indicates arc sine transformed values

NS : Non significant

Fumigant (F)Exposure periods (P)

- F₁ : Aluminium phosphide
- F₂ : Ethylene dibromide
- P₀ : No fumigation
- P₁ : 24 hours exposure period
- P₂ : 48 hours exposure period
- P₃ : 72 hours exposure period
- P₄ : 96 hours exposure period
- P₅ : 120 hours exposure period
- P₆ : 144 hours exposure period
- P₇ : 168 hours exposure period

Table 2. Influence of fumigants and exposure periods on speed of germination of groundnut seeds

Treatments	Months after storage														
	Two			Four			Six			Eight			Ten		
	F1	F2	Mean	F1	F2	Mean	F1	F2	Mean	F1	F2	Mean	F1	F2	Mean
P0	24.53	24.08	24.31	24.76	24.46	24.61	23.90	23.17	23.54	23.00	23.10	23.05	20.10	20.00	20.05
P1	24.00	29.52	26.76	24.66	28.51	26.58	26.40	26.90	26.65	22.90	26.70	24.80	19.35	26.82	23.09
P2	24.70	26.73	25.71	25.60	26.75	26.18	25.22	24.88	25.05	23.11	24.10	23.60	21.75	21.16	21.46
P3	27.00	24.30	25.65	27.00	25.00	26.00	23.68	23.94	23.81	24.20	23.14	23.67	23.80	20.82	22.31
P4	25.80	23.93	24.87	27.10	24.10	25.60	24.30	23.07	23.68	24.05	22.82	23.44	22.84	19.08	20.96
P5	22.80	23.10	22.95	22.52	22.70	22.61	22.12	22.65	22.38	21.80	21.91	21.86	18.00	18.80	18.40
P6	20.89	22.00	21.45	22.08	22.33	22.21	21.07	21.35	21.21	21.00	21.11	21.05	17.41	17.75	17.58
P7	20.72	21.21	20.97	21.13	21.86	21.50	20.00	20.16	20.08	19.50	19.70	19.60	17.15	17.40	17.27
Mean	23.81	24.36	24.08	24.36	24.46	24.41	23.34	23.26	23.30	22.45	22.82	22.63	20.05	20.23	20.14
For comparing means of	SE(M)±	CD at 5%	SE(M)±	SE(M)±	CD at 5%	SE(M)±	SE(M)±	CD at 5%	SE(M)±	SE(M)±	CD at 5%	SE(M)±	SE(M)±	SE(M)±	CD at 5%
F	0.16	0.47	0.15	0.15	NS	0.16	0.16	NS	NS	0.15	NS	NS	0.15	NS	NS
P	0.33	0.95	0.30	0.30	0.87	0.32	0.32	0.91	0.91	0.31	0.89	0.89	0.30	0.87	0.87
F x P	0.46	1.34	0.43	0.43	1.23	0.45	0.44	NS	NS	0.44	1.25	1.25	0.43	1.24	1.24

Influence of Fumigants and Exposure Period on Seed Quality and Storability of Groundnut

In interaction between fumigants and exposure periods, the treatment combination involving fumigation of seeds with ethylene dibromide for 24 hours exposure period (F_2P_1) recorded significantly higher per cent germination of (89.00, 88.00, 77.67, 71.67 and 64.00 %). While, it was lowest (79.33, 70.33, 61.33, 57.33 and 49.67%) in seeds fumigated with aluminium phosphide for 168 hours exposure period (F_1P_7) at the end of two, four, six, eight and ten months of storage respectively. Results of similar nature were reported by Alam, *et al.* (2014) and Kamble, *et al.* (2013).

Speed of germination

The seed pods fumigated with EDB recorded numerically higher speed of germination of (24.36), While it was lower (23.81) in Aluminium phosphide fumigated seeds at the end of two months of storage respectively. During fourth, sixth, eighth and tenth month non-significant difference on germination were noticed due to fumigants (Table 2). The seeds fumigated for 24 hours exposure period recorded significantly highest speed of germination of (26.76, 26.58, 26.65, 24.80 and 23.09). While, it was lowest in 168 hours exposure period at second, fourth, sixth, eighth and tenth month of storage.

The interaction effect between fumigants and exposure periods noticed significant differences for speed of germination throughout storage period. The (Aluminium Phosphide for 24 hours exposure period) F_2P_1 treatment recorded significantly highest (29.52, 28.51, 26.90, 26.70 and 26.82) while F_1P_7 recorded lowest (20.72, 21.13, 20.00, 19.50 and 17.15) speed of germination during two, four, six, eight and ten months of storage respectively. Results of similar nature were reported by Vasudevan *et al.* (2014), Alam *et al.* (2014) and Kamble *et al.* (2013).

Seedling length

The seeds fumigated with EDB recorded numerically higher seedling length of (12.29 cm), While it was lower (11.85 cm) in Aluminium phosphide fumigated seeds at the end of six months of storage, respectively. During second, fourth, eighth and tenth month non-significant differences on germination of seed were noticed due to fumigants. The seeds exposed to 24 hours fumigation recorded significantly higher seedling length

of (14.30, 13.80, 13.25, 12.07 and 10.98 cm) followed by 48, 72 and 96 hours exposure periods. While, 168 hours exposure period of fumigation recorded lowest seedling length in all the month of storage (Table 3). Similar results were reported by Vasudevan *et al.* (2014) and Kamble *et al.* (2013).

In interaction effect between fumigants and exposure periods, the treatment F_2P_1 recorded significantly highest (16.08, 15.10, 14.09, 12.96 and 11.60 cm) seedling length, while it was lowest (11.21, 10.60, 10.20, 9.30 and 8.10 cm) in F_1P_7 treatment combination during two, four, six and eight months of storage respectively.

Seedling vigour index

The EDB fumigated seeds recorded significantly higher (1107, 859 and 547) seedling vigour indices. While, lower indices of (1070, 819 and 525) were recorded with aluminium phosphide at the end of two, six and ten months of storage, respectively. During fourth and eight months non-significant differences were noticed between the fumigants (Table 4).

Significantly higher vigour indices values were recorded in seeds fumigated for 24 hours exposure period (P_1) followed by 48 hours exposure period throughout the storage period. Statistically, higher vigour indices values of (1235, 1127, 979, 829 and 657) were recorded in seeds exposed to fumigation for 24 hours exposure period (P_1) while the 168 hours exposure period (P_7) registered significantly lower indices values of (898, 757, 648, 551 and 407) during two, four, six, eight and ten months of storage, respectively. Results of similar nature were reported by Vasudevan *et al.* (2014) and Kamble *et al.* (2013).

In the interaction between fumigants and exposure periods, treatment combination F_2P_1 recorded significantly higher (1431, 1329, 1094, 929 and 743) vigour indices, while F_1P_7 treatment recorded lower indices values of (889, 746, 625, 533 and 402) at the end of second, fourth, sixth, eighth and tenth month of storage, respectively.

Electrical conductivity of seed leachate

Irrespective of the exposure periods, non-significant difference were recorded. The fumigant EDB

Table 3. Influence of fumigants and exposure periods on seedling length (cm) of groundnut seeds

Treatments	Months after storage														
	Two			Four			Six			Eight			Ten		
	F1	F2	Mean	F1	F2	Mean	F1	F2	Mean	F1	F2	Mean	F1	F2	Mean
P0	13.10	13.25	13.17	12.84	12.90	12.87	12.20	12.25	12.23	11.20	11.25	11.23	9.11	9.35	9.23
P1	12.52	16.08	14.30	12.50	15.10	13.80	12.41	14.09	13.25	11.17	12.96	12.07	10.35	11.60	10.98
P2	13.10	15.11	14.10	13.00	14.11	13.55	12.68	13.50	13.09	11.40	12.60	12.00	10.40	11.20	10.80
P3	14.80	13.09	13.94	14.10	13.13	13.62	13.50	12.54	13.02	12.46	11.30	11.88	10.00	10.20	10.10
P4	14.10	12.51	13.31	13.30	12.70	13.00	12.73	11.80	12.26	11.80	10.70	11.25	10.80	9.15	9.98
P5	12.28	12.39	12.34	11.80	11.90	11.85	10.75	11.60	11.18	9.60	10.50	10.05	8.70	9.20	8.95
P6	11.50	12.07	11.79	10.70	11.30	11.00	10.30	11.41	10.85	9.50	9.65	9.58	8.60	8.80	8.70
P7	11.21	11.35	11.28	10.60	11.10	10.85	10.20	11.11	10.66	9.30	9.36	9.33	8.10	8.22	8.16
Mean	12.83	13.23	13.03	12.36	12.78	12.57	11.85	12.29	12.07	10.80	11.04	10.92	9.51	9.72	9.61
For comparing means of	SE(m)±	CD at 5%	SE(m)±	SE(m)±	CD at 5%	SE(m)±	SE(m)±	CD at 5%	SE(m)±	SE(m)±	CD at 5%	SE(m)±	SE(m)±	CD at 5%	SE(m)±
F	0.14	NS	NS	0.16	NS	NS	0.14	0.41	0.41	0.14	NS	NS	0.13	NS	NS
P	0.29	0.83	0.93	0.32	0.93	0.81	0.29	0.82	0.82	0.28	0.81	0.81	0.25	0.72	0.72
F x P	0.41	1.17	1.31	0.45	1.31	1.14	0.40	1.16	1.16	0.40	1.14	1.14	0.36	1.02	1.02

Table 4. Influence of fumigants and exposure periods on seedling vigour index of groundnut seeds

Treatments	Months after storage														
	Two			Four			Six			Eight			Ten		
	F1	F2	Mean	F1	F2	Mean	F1	F2	Mean	F1	F2	Mean	F1	F2	Mean
P0	1096	1112	1104	972	985	978	858	874	866	735	758	747	507	530	518
P1	1039	1431	1235	925	1329	1127	864	1094	979	730	929	829	572	743	657
P2	1100	1279	1190	1036	1129	1082	914	1013	963	752	853	803	607	657	632
P3	1278	1095	1186	1185	1015	1100	1012	894	953	864	746	805	597	581	589
P4	1185	1039	1112	1082	936	1009	929	802	865	799	656	727	634	494	564
P5	1031	1012	1022	838	849	844	713	809	761	579	657	618	447	494	470
P6	943	978	961	753	798	776	639	715	677	567	589	578	438	469	454
P7	889	908	898	746	769	757	625	671	648	533	568	551	402	411	407
Mean	1070	1107	1088	942	976	959	819	859	839	695	719	707	525	547	536
For comparing means of	SE(m)±	CD at 5%	SE(m)±	SE(m)±	CD at 5%	SE(m)±	SE(m)±	CD at 5%	SE(m)±	SE(m)±	CD at 5%	SE(m)±	SE(m)±	CD at 5%	SE(m)±
F	11.9	34.4	13.1	NS	NS	9.9	28.6	9.0	NS	7.1	20.5	7.1	20.5	20.5	20.5
P	23.9	68.8	26.1	75.3	75.3	19.9	57.2	18.1	52.1	14.2	41.0	14.2	41.0	41.0	41.0
F x P	33.8	97.3	37.0	106.5	106.5	28.1	80.9	25.6	73.7	20.1	58.0	20.1	58.0	58.0	58.0

Table 5. Influence of fumigants and exposure periods on electrical conductivity of seed leachate (dSm⁻¹) of groundnut seeds

Treatments	Months after storage																					
	Two				Four				Six				Eight				Ten					
	F1	F2	Mean	SE(m)±	F1	F2	Mean	CD at 5%	F1	F2	Mean	SE(m)±	F1	F2	Mean	SE(m)±	F1	F2	Mean	SE(m)±	CD at 5%	
P0	0.660	0.675	0.668	0.840	0.850	0.845	0.860	0.880	0.870	0.940	0.950	0.945	0.970	0.975	0.973		0.970	0.975	0.973			
P1	0.710	0.480	0.595	0.880	0.540	0.710	0.890	0.690	0.790	0.960	0.750	0.855	0.990	0.820	0.905		0.990	0.820	0.905			
P2	0.730	0.520	0.625	0.840	0.780	0.810	0.850	0.730	0.790	0.880	0.810	0.845	0.930	0.900	0.915		0.930	0.900	0.915			
P3	0.500	0.730	0.615	0.690	0.890	0.790	0.710	0.910	0.810	0.780	0.930	0.855	0.880	0.960	0.920		0.880	0.960	0.920			
P4	0.540	0.760	0.650	0.830	0.895	0.862	0.840	0.930	0.885	0.880	0.970	0.925	0.900	1.002	0.951		0.900	1.002	0.951			
P5	0.690	0.770	0.730	0.900	0.910	0.905	0.970	0.950	0.960	0.990	0.980	0.985	1.160	1.080	1.120		1.160	1.080	1.120			
P6	0.770	0.780	0.775	0.845	0.930	0.888	0.979	0.960	0.970	1.110	0.995	1.053	1.510	1.330	1.420		1.510	1.330	1.420			
P7	0.871	0.720	0.795	0.970	0.945	0.958	0.998	0.988	0.993	1.200	1.200	1.200	1.810	1.612	1.711		1.810	1.612	1.711			
Mean	0.684	0.680	0.682	0.849	0.842	0.846	0.887	0.880	0.883	0.968	0.948	0.958	1.144	1.085	1.114		1.144	1.085	1.114			
For comparing means of	SE(m)±	CD at 5%	SE(m)±	SE(m)±	CD at 5%	SE(m)±	SE(m)±	CD at 5%	SE(m)±	SE(m)±	CD at 5%	SE(m)±	SE(m)±	CD at 5%	SE(m)±	SE(m)±	SE(m)±	SE(m)±	SE(m)±	SE(m)±	SE(m)±	CD at 5%
F	0.014	NS	0.014	0.014	NS	NS	0.013	NS	NS	0.020	NS	NS	0.052	NS	NS		0.052	0.052	NS			
P	0.027	0.079	0.027	0.027	0.079	0.079	0.026	0.075	0.075	0.040	0.116	0.103	0.103	0.298	0.298		0.103	0.103	0.298			
F x P	0.039	0.112	0.039	0.039	0.111	0.111	0.037	0.106	0.106	0.057	NS	0.146	0.146	NS	NS		0.146	0.146	NS			

Influence of Fumigants and Exposure Period on Seed Quality and Storability of Groundnut

recorded numerically minimum (0.680, 0.842, 0.880, 0.948 and 1.085 dSm⁻¹) seed leachate values. While, it was maximum (0.684, 0.849, 0.887, 0.968 and 1.144 dSm⁻¹) in aluminium phosphide fumigated seeds during second, fourth, sixth, eighth and tenth month of storage respectively. In general with the advancement of storage period increase in seed leachate values were noticed in the seeds fumigated with both the fumigants (Table 5).

The seeds exposed to 24 hours recorded significantly minimum (0.595, 0.710, 0.790, 0.855 and 0.905 dSm⁻¹) seed leachate value while, it was maximum (0.795, 0.958, 0.993, 1.200 and 1.711 dSm⁻¹) in 168 hours exposure period during two, four, six, eight and ten months of storage respectively.

In interaction between fumigants and exposure periods, the treatment combination F₂P₁ recorded significantly minimum (0.480, 0.540 and 0.690 dSm⁻¹) seed leachate values during two, four and six months of storage respectively. While, F₁P₇ treatment combination recorded maximum seed leachate values during two, four, six and eight and ten months of storage, respectively. Kamble *et al.* (2013) reported the similar results in an experiment conducted on groundnut seed.

Table 6. Influence of fumigants and exposure periods on per cent reduction in germination after ten months of storage of groundnut seeds

Treatments	Per cent reduction in germination(%)		
	F1	F2	Mean
P0	40.77	39.71	40.24
P1	41.13	31.91	36.52
P2	37.94	37.58	37.76
P3	36.52	39.36	37.94
P4	37.58	42.55	40.07
P5	45.39	42.90	44.15
P6	45.74	43.26	44.50
P7	47.15	46.80	46.98
Mean	41.53	40.51	41.02

Per cent reduction in germination

Initial germination per cent of the seed was 94 per cent and data on per cent reduction in germination due to fumigants, exposure periods and their interactions

are presented in Table 6. Irrespective of exposure periods between the fumigants, EDB recorded minimum (40.51 %) reduction in germination while, it was maximum (41.53 %) in aluminium phosphide fumigated seeds from initial germination value to the tenth month of storage.

The exposure periods, 24 hours recorded minimum (36.52 %) reduction in germination while it was maximum (46.98 %) in 168 hours exposure period. 24, 48 and 72 hours exposure period registered minimum per cent reduction in germination compared to others from initial value to the end of storage period.

The interaction treatments, F₂P₁ and F₁P₇ recorded minimum (31.91%) and maximum (47.15 %) reduction in germination respectively at the end of storage period from the initial value (Table 6).

Beetle population

The data on beetle population are presented in Table 7. The seeds fumigated with aluminium phosphide allowed least (1.08, 2.17, 2.13, 2.71 and 3.21) number of groundnut beetles to survive while, maximum number (1.33, 2.58, 2.75, 3.67 and 4.33) survived in EDB fumigated seeds during two, four, six, eight and ten months of storage, respectively.

Among the exposure periods, unfumigated seeds recorded highest (5.50, 8.00, 10.00, 11.33 and 12.50) number of groundnut beetle while, it was least (0.00, 0.00, 0.00, 0.00 and 1.00) in seeds exposed to 168 hours for fumigants at the end of two, four, six, eight and ten months of storage, respectively.

With the advancement of storage period, per cent infestation of seeds was increased whereas, increase in exposure periods for fumigants reduced the pest population.

The seeds fumigated with EDB for 24 hours exposure period (F₂P₁) recorded highest (3.00, 4.33, 4.67, 5.33 and 5.33) number of insects while, the insect population was considerably reduced (0.00, 0.00, 0.00, 0.00 and 1.00) in seeds fumigated with aluminium phosphide for 168 hours exposure period (F₁P₇) during second, fourth, sixth, eighth and tenth month of storage respectively. Kamble *et al.* (2013) reported the similar results in an experiment conducted on groundnut seed.

Table 7. Influence of fumigants and exposure periods on beetle population in groundnut seeds.

Treatments	Months after storage														
	Two			Four			Six			Eight			Ten		
	F1	F2	Mean	F1	F2	Mean	F1	F2	Mean	F1	F2	Mean	F1	F2	Mean
P0	5.33	5.67	5.50	7.33	8.67	8.00	9.33	10.67	10.00	11.00	11.67	11.33	11.67	13.33	12.50
P1	2.33	3.00	2.67	3.33	4.33	3.83	3.33	4.67	4.00	3.33	5.33	4.33	4.00	5.33	4.67
P2	1.00	1.00	1.00	3.00	2.00	2.50	2.00	2.33	2.17	3.67	4.67	4.17	3.33	5.00	4.17
P3	0.00	1.00	0.50	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.00	1.00	0.50	1.00	2.00	1.50	1.00	2.67	1.83
P4	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.67	2.00	1.83	1.33	2.00	1.67	1.67	2.67	2.17	2.00	3.33	2.67
P5	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.00	1.67	1.33	1.00	1.33	1.17	1.00	2.00	1.50	1.67	2.33	2.00
P6	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.00	0.50	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.00	0.50	1.00	1.67	1.33
P7	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Mean	1.08	1.33	1.21	2.17	2.58	2.38	2.13	2.75	2.44	2.71	3.67	3.19	3.21	4.33	3.77

CONCLUSION

The seeds fumigated with Ethylene dibromide for 24 hours exposure period (F2P1) recorded higher seed quality parameters during entire storage period. This was followed by the seeds fumigated with Aluminium phosphide for 72 hours exposure period (F1P3). The seeds fumigated with Ethylene dibromide for 24 hours exposure period recorded satisfactory germination of 70 per cent up to eight months of storage while, the seeds fumigated with aluminium phosphide for 96 hours exposure period could maintain it up to six month of storage period only.

LITERATURE CITED

- Abdul-Baki, A. A. and J.D. Anderson, 1973. Vigour determination in soybean by multiple criteria, *Crop Sci.*, (13): 630-633.
- Alam, M. M., M. M. Rahman, M. A. Samad, R. Ashrafi and M. M. Rahman, 2013. Effect of storage container and initial seed moisture content on quality of shelled groundnut seed, *J Agro for. Environ.*, 7(1): 23-26.
- Anonymous., 1999. International Rules of Seed Testing (Supplement rules), *Seed Sci. & Tech.*, (27): 25-30.
- Birthal, P. S., P. P. Rao, S. N. Nigam, C. S. Bantilan and S. Bhagvatulu, 2010. Groundnut and Soybean Economies in Asia: Facts, Trends and outlook. Patancheru: International Crop Research Institute for the Semi- Arid Tropics.
- Girish, G. K., R. K. Goyal and Krishnamurthy, 1972. *Bulletin of Grain Techn.*, 10 (2): 120-130.
- Harrington, J. F. and J.F. Douglas, 1970. Stored pests and their control, from 'seed Storage and packaging application for India (Edt. Christensen and Published by N.S.C). : 21-22,
- Junaithal Begum, M. A., P. Balamurugan and K. Prabakar. 2013. Seed Quality Deterioration in Groundnut due to Fungi during Storage. *Plant Path. J.* 12(4): 176-179.
- Kamble V. R., S. N. Vasudevan, D. S. Airani, A. Nagangouda, B. M. K. Naik and S. I. Macha, 2013. Influence of fumigants and number of fumigation on seed quality and storability of groundnut (*Arachis hypogaea* L), *Global J. of Sci. Frontier Res.*, 13 (3).
- Kapadia, M. N., 1994. Losses in weight and germination in groundnut due to seed beetle, *Caryedon serratus* Oliv, *J. Applied Zoological Res.*, (5) : 134.
- Lindgren, D. L., F. A. Guntherand and L. E. Vincent, 1962. Bromine residues in wheat and milled wheat fractions fumigated with methyl bromide, *J. Econ. Ento.*, 55: 773-776.
- Maguire, J. D., 1962. Speed of germination, aid in selection evaluating for seedling emergence and vigour, *Crop Sci.*, (2): 176-177.
- Nigam, S. N., 2014. Groundnut at a glance : 121
- Panse, V. G. and P. V. Sukhatme, 1978. *Statistical Methods for Agricultural Workers*, ICAR, New Delhi.
- Ranga Rao G. V., V. Rameshwar Rao and S. N. Nigam, 2010. Post-harvest Insect Pests of Groundnut and their Management, *ICRISAT Information Bulletin* No. 84.
- Vasudevan, S.N., N.M. Shakuntala, S. Teli, S. Goud, B. Gowda and Ravi, 2014. Studies on Effect of Modified Atmospheric Storage Condition on Storability of Groundnut (*Arachis Hypogaea* L.) Seed Kernels, *International J. of Res. Studies in Bio. sciences (IJRSB)*, 2 (2): 25-36.



Received on 30.8.2019

Yield and Monetary Returns of Chickpea (*Cicer arietinum* L.) as Influenced by Organic Fertilizers under Irrigated Condition

K. S. Korade¹, B. V. Saoji², B. S. Morwal³, R. D. Walke⁴ and P. H. Bansod⁵

ABSTRACT

A field experiment was conducted during *Rabi* season, 2016-17 at the Research Farm of All India Coordinated Research Project on Integrated Farming System, Dr. Panjabrao Deshmukh Krishi Vidyapeeth, Akola (MS) with an objective to study the effect of organic fertilizers on yield and monetary returns of chickpea. Result revealed that the seed yield (1972 kg ha⁻¹) of chickpea was recorded significantly highest with 100 per cent N (RDF) + 200 per cent P&K (through organic fertilizers) and found at par with 100 per cent N (RDF) + 150 per cent P&K (through organic fertilizers) and 100 per cent N (RDF) + 150 per cent K (through organic fertilizers) and significant over the rest of treatments. Straw yield (3966 kg ha⁻¹) and biological yields (5938 kg ha⁻¹) were also observed significantly higher in 100 per cent N (RDF) + 200 per cent P&K (through organic fertilizers) and found at par with 100 per cent N (RDF) + 150 per cent P&K (through organic fertilizers) and superior over other treatments. Significantly highest gross monetary return was noticed with 100 per cent N + 200 per cent P & K (through organic fertilizers) which was nearly followed by treatment T₄. Likewise, net monetary return was obtained significantly higher in 100 per cent N & P (RDF) + K (through organic fertilizers) with highest B:C ratio of 2.88. Whereas, the harvest index was recorded maximum (37.32 %) in 100 per cent N (RDF) + 100 per cent P&K (through organic fertilizers) but found at par with treatments T₇, T₆ and T₄ and significant over other treatments.

India is self-sufficient in respect of food grain production but still lags behind in production of pulses. Moreover, burgeoning population pressure and increasing protein malnutrition aggravate the problem and call for stepping up the pulses production. Pulses are major and cheaper source of protein particularly for vegetarians and contribute about 14 per cent of Indian diet. Further 16.7 per cent of the total protein of an Indian average diet is derived from pulses. Their inclusion as main, catch, cover, green manure and intercrop rotation in farming system is found all over the World. Production of pulses is far below the requirement to meet even the minimum level of per capita consumption (70 g day⁻¹ capita⁻¹ prescribed by ICMR) which causes malnutrition among the growing people.

Chickpea, a member of Fabaceae family, also known as 'Gram or Bengal gram', It is one of the major pulse in India and in many other countries. It is predominantly grown in cool, dry periods on receding soil moisture. Pulses are a primary source of nourishment and, when combined with cereals, provide a nutritionally balanced low cost food for human being. In addition, chickpea is a good source of energy, protein, minerals,

vitamins, fiber and contains potentially health beneficial phytochemicals. It is the main source of vegetable protein in human diet as it contains 21 per cent protein and 38-59 per cent carbohydrates (Gupta, 1989).

In India, chickpea is grown on 9.93 million hectare area with 9.53 million tones production and 960 kg ha⁻¹ productivity in rabi season (Anonymous, 2015^a). Among the chickpea producing states in India, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Karnataka, Andhra Pradesh and Rajasthan are the major chickpea states. Maharashtra is one of the important chickpea growing state in India and ranked second next to the state of Madhya Pradesh. In Maharashtra the area under chickpea was 17.74 lakh hectares with production of 15.07 lakh tones and productivity of 850 kg ha⁻¹, whereas, in Vidarbha region, chickpea was grown on an area of 5.53 lakh hectares with production of 3.80 lakh tones and productivity of 1355 kg ha⁻¹ (Anonymous, 2015^b).

The management of organic fertilizer might have significant effect on growth, yield and economy of chickpea. Balanced fertilization is always necessary to maintain good residual soil fertility status. Besides

1&5. PG student, 2. Chief Agronomist and 3.&4. Assist. Professor, All India Coordinated Research Project on Integrated Farming System, Dr. PDKV, Akola (MS)

inorganic fertilizers, the use of organic source of nutrients to the chickpea enhances the productivity in terms of seed yield. The organic fertilizer not only enhances the productivity but also maintain good soil health.

Among the several nutrients responsible for crop production, phosphorous and potassium plays an important role. The current trend is to explore the possibility of supplementing phosphorous and potassium through chemical fertilizers with organic one to sustain yield and economic level.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

A field experiment was carried out during *rabi* season, 2016-17 at the research farm of All India Coordinated Research Project on Integrated Farming System, Dr. Panjabrao Deshmukh Krishi Vidyapeeth, Akola (MS) with an objective to study the effect of organic fertilizers on yield and economics of chickpea. The field selected for the experimentation was fairly uniform and leveled. Soil of experimental plot was inceptisol and clayey (58.3 %). It was low in available nitrogen (208.32 kg ha⁻¹) and phosphorous (17.65 kg ha⁻¹), moderate in organic carbon (0.58 %), rich in available potassium (351.70 kg ha⁻¹) and slightly alkaline (7.7) in reaction. The total rainfall recorded from October, 2016 to February, 2017 during crop growing season was 91.0 mm received in 5 rainy days as against normal rainfall of 102.6 mm and total rainy days of 7.2. Bright sunshine hours temperature, wind speed were lower than normal that helped the crop to utilize available soil moisture for longer period and kept the evaporation losses less which favored the crop growth. The experiment was laid out in randomized block design with eight treatments and three replications. The crop variety was JAKI-9218 drilled at the spacing 30 cm × 15 cm under protective irrigation. The treatments comprising, T₁- 100 per cent NPK (RDF) through chemical fertilizers, T₂-100 per cent N + 50 per cent P&K (RDF)+ 50 per cent P&K (through organic fertilizers), T₃-100 per cent N (RDF) + 100 per cent P & K (through organic fertilizers), T₄- 100 per cent N (RDF) + 150 per cent P & K (through organic fertilizers), T₅- 100 per cent N (RDF) + 200 per cent P & K (through organic fertilizers), T₆- 100 per cent N & P (RDF) + 100 per cent K (through organic fertilizers), T₇- 100 per cent N & P (RDF) + 150 per cent K (through organic fertilizers) and T₈- 100 per cent N & K (RDF) + 100 per cent

P (through organic fertilizers). The recommended dose of fertilizers for chickpea is 25 + 50 + 30 NPK kg ha⁻¹. The organic P & K fertilizers were used in the present experiment for investigation, by keeping the common (100 %) recommended dose of nitrogen for all the treatments and the doses of P & K, were adjusted as per treatments were applied through chemical fertilizers. Similarly, treatment wise, recommended doses were calculated for phosphorous and potassium and applied through organic fertilizers. The organic phosphatic fertilizer (pre-mixture) contains rock phosphate, compost, leaf extract of banyan, bermuda, kokum and tulsii. The pre-mixture contents 10.42 per cent phosphate, 0.43 per cent nitrogen, 7.87 per cent organic carbon, having 18.30 C: N ratio and 25 per cent moisture by weight. While, potassic fertilizer (pre-mixture) contains ash, compost & leaf extract of banyan, bermuda, kokum & tulsii. The pre-mixture contents 10 per cent potash, 15 per cent potassium humate and 7.48 per cent organic carbon. All the fertilizers and time to time field operations were carried out in the experiment as per the treatments and University recommended package of practice

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Seed, straw, biological yields and harvest index of chickpea

The data (Table 1) on seed, straw, biological yields and harvest index of chickpea were significantly influenced by various organic treatments. Result revealed that significantly highest seed yield (1972kg ha⁻¹) was recorded in 100 per cent N (RDF) + 200 per cent P&K (through organic fertilizers) which was found at par with 100per cent N (RDF)+ 150 per cent P&K (through organic fertilizers) and 100 per cent N & P (RDF) + 150 per cent K (through organic fertilizers) and superior over the rest of treatments. Lower seed yield was observed in 100per cent NPK (RDF) applied through chemical fertilizers. The increase in yield might be due to increased photosynthetic production and translocation of photosynthetic product towards seed production. These results were in agreement with the findings of Jadeja *et al.* (2016).

The significantly highest straw yield of chickpea (3966 kg ha⁻¹) was recorded in 100 per cent N (RDF) + 200 per cent P & K (through organic fertilizers) and found at par with 100 per cent N (RDF) + 150 per cent P & K (

Table 1: Seed yield, straw yield, biological yield and harvest index of chickpea as influenced by different treatments

Symbol	Treatment	Seed yield (kg ha ⁻¹)	Straw yield (kg ha ⁻¹)	Biological yield (kg ha ⁻¹)	Harvest index (%)
T ₁	100% NPK (RDF) through chemical fertilizers	1126	3074	4200	27.03
T ₂	100% N + 50% P & K (RDF) + 50% P & K (through organic fertilizers)	1188	2880	4069	29.39
T ₃	100% N (RDF) + 100% P & K (through organic fertilizers)	1796	3063	4859	37.32
T ₄	100% N (RDF) + 150% P & K (through organic fertilizers)	1942	3848	5791	33.71
T ₅	100% N (RDF) + 200% P & K (through organic fertilizers)	1972	3966	5938	33.37
T ₆	100% N & P (RDF) + 100% K (through organic fertilizers)	1682	3240	4921	34.46
T ₇	100% N & P (RDF) + 150% K (through organic fertilizers)	1849	3344	5193	35.64
T ₈	100% N & K (RDF) + 100% P (through organic fertilizers)	1271	2864	4135	31.02
	SE (m) ±	32.69	145.21	149.65	1.30
	CD @5%	99.16	440.5	453.98	3.94

through organic fertilizers) and superior over the rests. Likewise, treatment T₇ recorded significantly maximum straw yield and found at par with T₆, T₁ and T₃. The lowest straw yield was noticed in treatment T₈ followed by T₂.

The significantly highest biological yield (5938 kg ha⁻¹) was observed in 100 per cent N (RDF) + 200 per cent P & K (through organic fertilizers) but found at par with treatment T₆ and T₃. Treatments T₁, T₈ and T₂ were found at par with each other. The lowest biological yield was noticed in treatment T₂. It might be due to various organic fertilizer levels that attributed to variation in the number of branches, plant height and seed yield. Similar results were corroborated by Verma *et al.* (2017).

The mean harvest index (32.74 %) was recorded and significantly highest harvest index (37.32 %) was observed in 100 per cent N (RDF) + 100 per cent P&K (through organic fertilizers) but found at par with treatments T₇, T₆ and T₄. Whereas, the lowest values of harvest index was noted in 100 per cent NPK (RDF) through chemical fertilizers.

Economics of chickpea

Gross monetary returns

Data pertaining to gross monetary returns, net monetary returns and B:C ratio were influenced by various treatments (Table 2). Results revealed that the highest gross monetary returns (Rs.94735 ha⁻¹) was recorded significantly highest in 100 per cent N (RDF) +

200 per cent P&K (through organic fertilizers) which was nearly followed by 100 per cent N (RDF) + 150 per cent P&K (through organic fertilizers) but found at par with each other and superior over others. Similarly treatment 100 per cent N (RDF) + 150 per cent K (through organic fertilizers) recorded significantly more gross monetary returns and comparable with 100 per cent N (RDF) + 100 per cent P and K (through organic fertilizers) and found superior over rests. Whereas, the lowest gross monetary returns was noted in treatment of 100 per cent NPK (RDF) applied through chemical fertilizers. Higher gross monetary returns might be due to producing more seed and straw yields of chickpea. Similar results were obtained by Kadam *et al.* (2014).

Cost of cultivation

Numerically higher cost of cultivation (Rs. 44964 ha⁻¹) was noticed in 100 per cent N (RDF) + 200 per cent P and K (through organic fertilizers) and lowest in 100 per cent NPK (RDF) applied through chemical fertilizers.

Net monetary returns

Significantly highest net monetary returns (Rs.57205 ha⁻¹) were recorded in 100 per cent N and P (RDF) + 150 per cent K (through organic fertilizers) and found superior over rest of the treatments. Whereas, the lowest net monetary returns were observed in 100 per cent N + 50 per cent P and K (RDF) + 50 per cent P and K (through organic fertilizers). These results are supported by the findings of Meena and Biswas (2013).

Table 2: Gross monetary, net monetary and benefit : cost ratio (Economics) in chickpea as influenced by different treatments

Symbol	Treatment	GMR (Rs ha ⁻¹)	COC (Rs ha ⁻¹)	NMR (Rs ha ⁻¹)	B:C ratio
T1	100% NPK (RDF) through chemical fertilizers	56513	24645	29948	2.13
T2	100% N + 50% P & K (RDF) + 50% P & K (through organic fertilizers)	58551	28986	27645	1.89
T3	100% N (RDF) + 100% P & K (through organic fertilizers)	84620	33327	49373	2.40
T4	100% N (RDF) + 150% P & K (through organic fertilizers)	93123	39145	52058	2.27
T5	100% N (RDF) + 200% P & K (through organic fertilizers)	94735	44964	47851	2.02
T6	100% N & P (RDF) + 100% K (through organic fertilizers)	80349	27065	51364	2.77
T7	100% N & P (RDF) + 150% K (through organic fertilizers)	87690	28565	57205	2.88
T8	100% N & K (RDF) + 100% P (through organic fertilizers)	61961	30907	29134	1.89
	Se (m) ±	1451	-	1451	-
	CD@5%	4443	-	4443	-

Benefit : cost ratio

Similarly, the highest benefit cost ratio (2.88) was noticed in 100 per cent N and P (RDF) + 150 per cent K (through organic fertilizers) and found at par with 100 per cent N and P (RDF) + 100 per cent K (through organic fertilizers). While, the lower and similar benefit cost ratio (1.89) was observed in 100 per cent N and K (RDF) + 100 per cent P (through organic fertilizers) and 100 per cent N + 50 per cent P and K (RDF) + 50 per cent P and K (through organic fertilizers). These results were in agreement with the findings of Patil *et al.* (2011).

LITERATURE CITED

- Anonymous, 2015^a. Chickpea production (<http://faostat.fao.org>)
- Anonymous, 2015^b. (<http://www.mahaagri.gov.in>)
- Gupta, A., 1989. Response of urdbean grown after potato under fertilizer application, Indian J. Pulses Res. 2 (2): 177-178.
- Jadeja, A. S., A. V. Rajani, F. Chapdiya, A. Kaneriy and N. R. Kavar, 2016. Soil application of potassium and sulphur and effect on growth and yield components of chickpea (*Cicer arietinum* L.) under south

Saurashtra region of Gujrat, Int. J. Sci., Environ. Tech. 5(5): 3172-3176.

- Kadam, C. S., J. D. Thanki and N. N. Gudadhe, 2014. Response of chickpea to Irrigation methods, fertilizers and biofertilizers under south Gujrat condition, Indian J. Fert. 10 (4): 20-24.
- Patil, S. V., S. I. Halikatti, S. M. Hiremath, H. B. Babalad, M. N. Sreenivasa, N. S. Hebsur and G. Somanagauda, 2011. Effect of organic manures and rock phosphate on growth and yield of chickpea (*Cicer arietinum* L.) in vertisols, Karnataka J. Agric. Sci. 24 (5): 636-638.
- Meena, M. D. and D. R. Biswas, 2013. Residual effect of rock phosphate and waste mica enriched compost on yield and nutrient uptake by chickpea, Legume Res. 36 (5): 406-413.
- Verma, N. K., B. K. Pandey, R. D. Mahan and A. Kumar, 2017. Response of mode of application with integrated nutrient management on growth and yield of chickpea (*Cicer arietinum* L.), Int. J. of Agric. Innovations and Res. 6 (1): 1473-2319.



Received on 25.6.2019

Effect of Foliar Nutrition on Productivity of Soybean under rainfed condition

M. S. Dandge¹, Y. V. Ingle², P. V. Mohod³, P. D. Peshattiwar⁴ and N. R. Dange⁵

ABSTRACT

The field experiment was conducted at Regional Research Center, Amravati during three *kharif* season from 2015-16 to 2017-18. The experiment was laid out in Randomized block design with three replications consisting of nine treatments comprising of RDF + water spray at pod initiation (T1), RDF + Urea @ 2 per cent spray at pod initiation (T2), RDF + DAP @ 2 per cent spray at pod initiation (T3), RDF + MOP @ 0.5 per cent at pod initiation (T4), RDF + 19:19:19 (NPK) @ 2 per cent at pod initiation (T5), RDF + Molybdenum @ 0.5 per cent at pod initiation (T6), RDF + Boron @ 0.5 per cent at pod initiation (T7), RDF + Zinc chelated @ 0.5 per cent at pod initiation (T8) and RDF only (T9). Yield attributes viz., branches plant⁻¹, pods per plant, seed index and seed yield and straw yield was recorded at the time of harvesting. Highest number of pods per plant was observed in treatment RDF + DAP @ 2 per cent at pod initiation stage (20.42) followed by RDF + 19:19:19 (NPK) @ 2 per cent at pod initiation and RDF + Boron @ 0.5 per cent at pod initiation. Seed and straw yield (2056 and 2706 kg ha⁻¹, respectively) was recorded significantly highest in treatment RDF + DAP @ 2 per cent at pod initiation stage but found at par with RDF + 19:19:19 (NPK) @ 2 per cent at pod initiation.

Soybean (*Glycine max* (L.) Merrill.) is known as Chinesepea or Manchurian bean which belongs to family Leguminaceae and originated in Asia. It is the miracle crop which has phenomenal growth and production. It has vital importance in Indian Agriculture, but also plays a decisive role in oil economy of India. It is the cheapest and main source of dietary protein of majority vegetarian Indians. Soybean seed consists of 18-20 per cent oil and 30-50 per cent protein (Vahedi, 2011). The increasing cost of fertilizer nutrients have led to search for alternative practices of managing the fertilizer nutrients more judiciously, efficiently and in balance proportions. Such approach would reduce the depletion of macro and micronutrients from soil. Among the nutrients, macro-nutrients have been given the priority and little attention has been paid towards micronutrients. In the absence of micronutrients, plant shows physiological disorders which eventually lead to low crop yield and impaired quality. Now a day's most of the farmers are alert regarding adoption of recommended dose of fertilizer, incorporation of FYM, compost and crop residues as well as seed treatment with bio-fertilizers etc. for getting higher yield. Many references are quoted by scientist that supplemental nutrients applied at proper growth stage of crop through foliar application increases the yield of soybean. At reproductive growth stage i.e. flowering or pod initiation stage, crop requires more nutrients for development of reproductive organ along with sufficient soil moisture.

Foliar spraying is a method for crop feeding in which micronutrients in the form of liquid are used on leaves (Nasiri *et al.*, 2010). Foliar application of micronutrient is beneficial like soil application. Since application rates are lesser as compared to soil application, same quantity of nutrient application could be supplied easily and crop reacts to nutrient application immediately. Foliar spraying of micronutrient is very helpful when the roots are not able to provide necessary nutrients. Crop roots are unable to absorb some important nutrients such as zinc, because of soil properties, such as high pH, lime or heavy texture and in this situation, foliar spraying is better as compared to soil application (Kinaci and Gulmezoglu, 2007).

At reproductive growth stage, application of only major nutrients is not sufficient. The crop also requires micronutrient for development. Considering their importance the present investigation was undertaken to supply the major and micronutrients through foliar at reproductive growth stage of soybean to get higher seed yield.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

The field experiment was conducted in field at Regional Research Center, Amravati during three successive *kharif* season from 2015-16 to 2017-18. The experiment site was fairly uniform, leveled and have

1,2 & 4 Asstt. Prof., and 3 & 4. Senior Research Assistant, Regional Research Center, Amravati

Effect of Foliar Nutrition on Productivity of Soybean under rainfed condition

medium black soil. The experiment was laid out in Randomized block design with three replications consisting of nine treatments comprising of RDF + water spray at pod initiation (T1), RDF + Urea @ 2 per cent spray at pod initiation (T2), RDF + DAP @ 2 per cent spray at pod initiation (T3), RDF + MOP @ 0.5 per cent at pod initiation (T4), RDF + 19:19:19 (NPK) @ 2 per cent at pod initiation (T5), RDF + Molybdenum @ 0.5 per cent at pod initiation (T6), RDF + Boron @ 0.5 per cent at pod initiation (T7), RDF + Zinc chelated @ 0.5 per cent at pod initiation (T8) and RDF only (T9)

Soil type was medium black with 0.52 per cent OC and initial status of soil was 190, 15.50, 338.09 kg NPK respectively. After seed bed preparation, sowing of soybean cv JS-95-60 was done by dibbling. Recommended dose of fertilizer (30:75:30:20 NPKS kg ha⁻¹) was given at the sowing time. Foliar application of molybdenum and boron were given through ammonium molybdate and borax, respectively. The observation on dry matter was recorded at 30 DAS, 45 DAS and 60 DAS, CGR and RGR on 30-45 and 45-50 DAS. Yield attributes *viz.*, branches plant⁻¹, pods plant⁻¹, seed index and seed yield kg ha⁻¹ and straw yield kg ha⁻¹ was recorded at the time of harvesting.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Yield attributes

The significantly highest number of branches per plant was observed in treatment of RDF + Molybdenum @ 0.5 per cent spray at pod initiation stage (2.46) but found at par with almost all treatments except RDF + water spray and RDF (Table 1).

Significantly higher number of pods per plant was observed in treatment of RDF + DAP @ 2 per cent spray at pod initiation (20.42) but found at par with RDF + 19:19:19 (NPK) @ 2 per cent spray at pod initiation (19.48) and RDF + Boron @ 0.5 per cent spray at pod initiation (19.47). Similar results were reported by Vinoth Kumar *et al.* (2013). The foliar application of nutrients through 2 per cent DAP at flower initiation and pod formation stage might have reduced flower drop. This might have significantly increased the number pods plant⁻¹ as reported by Ganapathy *et al.* (2008). The pooled data over three years, indicated that at 45 DAS, highest dry matter

(Table 2) was recorded in treatment of RDF + water spray at pod initiation (6.92 g), but it was observed at par with treatment of foliar spray of urea, DAP and 19:19:19 in addition to RDF. While at 60 DAS, treatment of RDF + DAP @ 2 per cent spray at pod initiation proves significantly superior over rest of the treatment and highest dry matter accumulation (11.87 g).

Significantly highest dry matter accumulation was found in RDF + 19:19:19 (NPK) @ 2 per cent at pod initiation (23.46 g) but found on par with treatment of RDF + Urea @ 2 per cent, RDF + DAP @ 2 per cent and RDF + chelated zinc @ 0.5.

Seed and Straw yield

The pooled data indicated that significantly highest seed and straw yield (2056 and 2706 kg ha⁻¹) was recorded in treatment of RDF + DAP @ 2 per cent spray at pod initiation stage and found at par with RDF + 19:19:19 (NPK) @ 2 per cent at pod initiation (Table 3).

The result showed positive effect of supplying soybean with supplementary nitrogen to have beneficial effects on enhancing growth and seed yield. Similar observations were also reported by Ashour and Thalooh (1983) and Das and Jana (2015). According to Mannan (2014), foliar spraying during the pod filling stage is more effective than vegetative stage because nutrients applied during pod filling is readily used for photosynthesis and assimilates quickly mobilized towards grain filling and protein accumulation in grain.

The highest Harvest Index was observed in treatment RDF + chelated Zinc @ 0.5 per cent spray at pod initiation (44.39%). The seed index was not influenced significantly.

Maximum rain use efficiency and grain production efficiency was recorded in treatment RDF + DAP @ 2 per cent spray at pod initiation (T3) i. e. 2.94 kg ha⁻¹ mm and 22.85 kg⁻¹ ha⁻¹ day⁻¹, respectively.

Monetary return

The pooled data showed that, maximum cost of cultivation of Rs. 41509 per ha was observed with treatment of RDF + Molybdenum @ 0.5 per cent at pod initiation while significantly highest gross and net monetary returns

Table 1. Effect of foliar nutrition on branches and pods plant¹

Treatment	Branches plant ¹				Pods plant ¹			
	2015-16	2016-17	2017-18	Pooled	2015-16	2016-17	2017-18	Pooled
T ₁ RDF + water spray at pod initiation	2.00	1.47	2.20	1.89	14.53	18.67	17.40	16.87
T ₂ RDF + Urea @ 2 % spray at pod initiation	2.33	2.23	2.27	2.28	13.93	20.87	16.80	17.20
T ₃ RDF + DAP @ 2 % spray at pod initiation	2.07	2.23	2.53	2.28	15.73	23.87	21.67	20.42
T ₄ RDF + MOP @ 0.5 % at pod initiation	1.47	2.33	2.80	2.20	14.13	22.40	19.20	18.58
T ₅ RDF + 19:19:19 (NPK) @ 2 % at pod initiation	2.43	2.40	2.07	2.30	15.40	22.87	20.17	19.48
T ₆ RDF + Molybdenum @ 0.5 % at pod initiation	2.03	2.40	2.93	2.46	11.87	23.90	19.73	18.50
T ₇ RDF + Boron @ 0.5 % at pod initiation	2.37	2.47	2.33	2.39	14.87	23.40	21.33	19.87
T ₈ RDF + chelated Zinc @ 0.5 % at pod initiation	2.00	2.47	2.73	2.40	12.87	22.80	17.27	17.64
T ₉ RDF only	1.57	1.53	2.40	1.83	11.13	19.47	16.93	15.84
SE (m) ±	0.13	0.10	0.32	0.13	0.87	1.03	1.14	0.59
CD (P=0.05)	0.39	0.29	NS	0.38	2.61	3.09	3.42	1.77

Effect of Foliar Nutrition on Productivity of Soybean under rainfed condition

Table 2. Effect of foliar nutrition on dry matter accumulated (g plant⁻¹) at periodical intervals

Treatment	At 30 DAS			at 45 DAS			At 60 DAS			At Harvest						
	2015-16	2016-17	2017-18	Pooled	2015-16	2016-17	2017-18	Pooled	2015-16	2016-17	2017-18	Pooled				
T ₁ RDF + water spray at pod initiation	1.56	1.61	2.03	1.74	7.92	6.04	6.80	6.92	8.48	8.70	8.74	8.64	19.17	19.57	16.85	18.53
T ₂ RDF + Urea @2% spray at pod initiation	2.67	2.79	2.36	2.61	6.66	6.26	7.16	6.70	8.63	10.53	12.17	10.44	23.41	24.07	21.09	22.86
T ₃ RDF +DAP @2% spray at pod initiation	2.32	2.43	2.32	2.36	6.91	6.13	7.58	6.87	8.78	13.98	12.86	11.87	23.12	23.30	22.33	22.92
T ₄ RDF + MOP @0.5% spray at pod initiation	1.83	1.95	2.20	1.99	6.10	5.48	6.44	6.01	6.87	10.76	10.98	9.54	19.43	20.14	17.11	18.89
T ₅ RDF + 19:19:19 (NPK) @2% spray at pod initiation	2.35	2.46	2.31	2.37	6.23	6.93	7.28	6.81	9.60	10.61	11.23	10.48	24.34	24.02	22.02	23.46
T ₆ RDF + Molybdenum @0.5% spray at pod initiation	2.69	2.80	2.30	2.60	5.59	5.80	6.77	6.05	7.80	9.59	11.20	9.53	20.02	20.84	17.70	19.52
T ₇ RDF + Boron @0.5% spray at pod initiation	1.80	1.88	2.26	1.98	5.22	5.72	6.11	5.68	7.72	9.14	11.27	9.38	19.85	19.98	17.53	19.12
T ₈ RDF + chelated Zinc @0.5% spray at pod initiation	2.32	2.43	2.20	2.31	5.51	6.16	6.57	6.08	8.61	8.13	10.25	9.00	22.27	22.15	19.95	21.46
T ₉ RDF only	1.70	1.92	2.05	1.89	5.10	5.66	6.90	5.89	7.78	7.35	8.35	7.83	19.04	19.41	16.72	18.39
SE(m) ±	0.14	0.17	0.11	0.13	0.39	0.36	0.29	0.16	0.46	0.52	0.68	0.37	1.16	1.01	1.16	1.09
CD at 5%	0.42	0.51	NS	0.38	1.16	NS	NS	0.49	1.37	1.55	2.04	1.10	3.48	3.01	3.49	3.26

Table 3. Effect of foliar nutrition on seed and straw yield of soybean

Treatment	Seed Yield (kg ha ⁻¹)				Straw Yield (kg ha ⁻¹)			
	2015-16	2016-17	2017-18	Pooled	2015-16	2016-17	2017-18	Pooled
T ₁ RDF + water spray at pod initiation	1468	1837	1565	1623	1970	2489	1967	2142
T ₂ RDF + Urea @2 % spray at pod initiation	1368	2104	1576	1682	1827	2882	1930	2213
T ₃ RDF + DAP @2 % spray at pod initiation	1571	2433	2165	2056	2084	3358	2677	2706
T ₄ RDF + MOP @0.5 % at pod initiation	1424	2268	1852	1848	1816	2953	2215	2328
T ₅ RDF + 19:19:19 (NPK) @2 % at pod initiation	1599	2340	1898	1946	2131	3114	2334	2526
T ₆ RDF + Molybdenum @0.5 % at pod initiation	1169	2422	1846	1812	1539	3254	2265	2353
T ₇ RDF + Boron @0.5 % at pod initiation	1454	2333	1951	1913	1894	2996	2430	2440
T ₈ RDF + chelated Zinc @0.5 % at pod initiation	1278	2291	1579	1716	1520	3022	1981	2174
T ₉ RDF only	1108	1930	1536	1525	1350	2466	1966	1927
SE(m)±	91.22	99.14	117.61	53.80	118.46	142.21	152.48	70.90
CD at 5%	273.45	297.20	352.56	161.28	355.10	426.29	457.08	212.55

Table 4. Effect of foliar nutrition on seed and harvest index of soybean

Treatment	Seed Index (g)			Harvest Index (per cent)			
	2015-16	2016-17	2017-18	2015-16	2016-17	2017-18	Pooled
T1 RDF + water spray at pod initiation	12.67	11.74	11.03	42.68	42.44	44.31	43.14
T2 RDF + Urea @2% spray at pod initiation	12.33	11.77	11.23	42.87	42.19	45.10	43.39
T3 RDF + DAP @2% spray at pod initiation	12.37	11.80	11.80	42.98	42.02	44.67	43.22
T4 RDF + MOP @0.5% at pod initiation	12.40	11.72	11.41	43.91	43.50	45.47	44.29
T5 RDF + 19:19:19 (NPK) @2% at pod initiation	12.73	11.85	11.16	42.93	42.93	44.86	43.58
T6 RDF + Molybdenum @0.5% at pod initiation	12.27	11.74	11.16	43.20	42.68	44.91	43.60
T7 RDF + Boron @0.5% at pod initiation	12.23	11.79	11.10	43.36	43.77	44.58	43.90
T8 RDF + chelated Zinc @0.5% at pod initiation	12.13	11.77	11.01	45.66	43.11	44.39	44.39
T9 RDF only	12.23	11.75	11.09	45.14	43.93	43.86	44.31
SE(m)±	0.13	0.02	0.18	—	—	—	—
CD at 5%	NS	NS	NS	—	—	—	—

Table 5. Effect of foliar nutrition on grain production efficiency and rain use efficiency of soybean

Treatment	Grain Production Efficiency (kg ha ⁻¹ day ⁻¹)				RUE (kg ha ⁻¹ -mm)			
	2015-16	2016-17	2017-18	Pooled	2015-16	2016-17	2017-18	Pooled
T1 RDF + water spray at pod initiation	16.31	20.41	17.39	18.04	2.16	2.15	2.64	2.32
T2 RDF + Urea @2% spray at pod initiation	15.20	23.37	17.51	18.69	2.01	2.46	2.66	2.38
T3 RDF + DAP 2% spray at pod initiation	17.45	27.03	24.05	22.85	2.31	2.84	3.65	2.94
T4 RDF + MOP @0.5% at pod initiation	15.83	25.19	20.58	20.53	2.10	2.65	3.12	2.62
T5 RDF + 19:19:19 (NPK) @2% at pod initiation	17.77	26.00	21.09	21.62	2.36	2.73	3.20	2.76
T6 RDF + Molybdenum @0.5% at pod initiation	12.99	26.91	20.52	20.14	1.72	2.83	3.11	2.56
T7 RDF + Boron @0.5% at pod initiation	16.15	25.92	21.68	21.25	2.14	2.73	3.29	2.72
T8 RDF + chelated Zinc @0.5% at pod initiation	14.20	25.46	17.54	19.06	1.88	2.68	2.66	2.41
T9 RDF only	12.31	21.45	17.07	16.94	1.63	2.25	2.59	2.16
SE (m)±	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
CD at 5%	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

Effect of Foliar Nutrition on Productivity of Soybean under rainfed condition

Table 6. Effect of foliar nutrition on Economics of soybean

Treatment	Cost of Cultivation (Rs ha ⁻¹)			Gross Monetary Returns (Rs ha ⁻¹)			Net Monetary Returns (Rs ha ⁻¹)			B:C Ratio						
	2015-16	2016-17	2017-18	Pooled	2015-16	2016-17	2017-18	Pooled	2015-16	2016-17	2017-18	Pooled	2015-16	2016-17	2017-18	Pooled
T ₁ RDF + water spray at pod initiation	28146	29894	29378	29139	48205	53007	49703	50305	20059	23113	20326	21166	1.71	1.77	1.69	1.73
T ₂ RDF + Urea @2 % spray at pod initiation	28026	30461	29458	29315	44916	60736	49996	51883	16890	30275	20538	22568	1.60	1.99	1.70	1.76
T ₃ RDF + DAP @2 % spray at pod initiation	28591	31287	30747	30208	51558	70266	68709	63511	22967	38979	37961	33302	1.80	2.25	2.23	2.09
T ₄ RDF + MOP @0.5 % at pod initiation	28238	30882	30043	29721	46682	65311	58712	56902	18444	34429	28668	27181	1.65	2.11	1.95	1.91
T ₅ RDF+19:19:(NPK) @2 % at pod initiation	29583	32051	30911	30848	52515	67478	60236	60077	22932	35427	29326	29228	1.78	2.11	1.95	1.94
T ₆ RDF+Molybdenum @ 0.5per cent at pod initiation	39608	43006	41912	41509	38360	69862	58583	55601	-1248	26856	16670	14093	0.97	1.62	1.40	1.33
T ₇ RDF+Boron @ 0.5 % at pod initiation	28711	31427	30701	30280	47692	67161	61941	58931	18981	35734	31240	28652	1.66	2.14	2.02	1.94
T ₈ RDF+chelated Zinc@ 0.5 % at pod initiation	29964	32917	31564	31481	41768	66026	50134	52643	11805	33109	18570	21161	1.39	2.01	1.59	1.66
T ₉ RDF only	27138	29672	28923	28578	36255	55554	48829	46879	9116	25882	19905	18301	1.34	1.87	1.69	1.63
SE(m) +	—	—	—	—	2985	2857	3721	1657	2985	2857	3721	1657	—	—	—	—
CD at 5%	—	—	—	—	8949	8565	11155	4967	8949	8565	11156	4967	—	—	—	—

Urea = Rs 6 kg⁻¹, DAP = Rs. 26 kg⁻¹, MOP = Rs. 17.32 kg⁻¹, 19:19:19 = Rs. 120 kg⁻¹, Mo = Rs. 4000 kg⁻¹, Boron = Rs. 480 kg⁻¹, Zinc = Rs. 760 kg⁻¹

per ha were found in treatment of RDF + DAP @ 2 per cent at pod initiation (Rs. 63511 and 33302, respectively). but found at par with treatment of foliar spray of boran and 19:19:19 fertilizer grade along with RDF (Table 6).

The highest B:C ratio (2.09) was recorded in RDF + DAP @2 per cent spray at pod initiation .

LITERATURE CITED

Ashour, N.I. and A. T. Thalooh, 1983. Effect of soil and foliar application of nitrogen during pod development on the yield of soybean (*Glycine max* L.), Field Crop Res., 6 : 261-266.

Mannan, M. A., 2014. Foliar and soil fertilization effect on seed yield and protein content of soybean, Bangladesh, Agron.J., 17(1) : 67-72

Das, S. K. and K. Jana, 2015. Effect of foliar spray of water soluble fertilizer at pre flowering stage on yield of pulses, Agric. Sci. Digest, 35 (4):275-279.

Ganapathy, M., G. Baradhan and N. Ramesh, 2008. Effect of foliar nutrition on reproductive efficiency and grain yield of rice fallow pulses, Legume Res., 31: 142-144.

Kinaci, E. and N. Gulmezoglu, 2007. Grain yield and yield components of triticale upon application of different foliar fertilizers, Interciencia, 32(9) : 624-628.

Nasiri, Y., S. Zehtab-Salmasi, S. Nasrullahzadeh, N. Najafi, and K. Ghassemi-Golezani, 2010. Effects of foliar application of micronutrients (Fe and Zn) on flower yield and essential oil of chamomile (*Matricaria chamomilla* L.), J. Med. Plants Res., 4(17): 1733-1737.

Vahedi, A., 2011. The effects of micronutrient application on soybean seed yield and on seed oil and protein content, J. American Sci., 7(6) : 44-49.

Vinoth Kumar C., K. Vaiyapuri, M. Mohamed Amanullah and G. Gopaldaswamy, 2013. Influence of Foliar Spray of Nutrients on Yield and Economics of Soybean (*Glycine max* L. Merrill), J. Bio. Sci., 13:563-565.



Received on 10.6.2019

Effect of Manures and Fertilizers on Nutrient Uptake by Chickpea (*Cicer arietinum* L.) and Soil Nutrient Status Under Irrigated Condition

K. S. Korade¹, B. V. Saoji², B. S. Morwal³, D. S. Kankal⁴ and P. H. Bansod⁵

ABSTRACT

A field experiment was conducted during *rabi* season, 2016-17 at the Research Farm of All India Coordinated Research Project on Integrated Farming System, Dr. Panjabrao Deshmukh Krishi Vidyapeeth, Akola (MS) with an objective to study the effect of organic manures and fertilizers on nutrient uptake by chickpea (*Cicer arietinum* L.) and soil nutrient status under irrigated condition. Result revealed that the total uptake of N (104.73 kg ha⁻¹), P (22.16 kg ha⁻¹) and K (84.34 kg ha⁻¹), respectively, were recorded significantly highest in 100 per cent N (RDF) + 200 per cent PandK (through organic fertilizers) which was found at par with 100 per cent N (RDF) + 150 per cent P&K (through organic fertilizers) and superior over the rests. Whereas, the available Nitrogen (235 kg ha⁻¹), P (23 kg ha⁻¹) and K (377 kg ha⁻¹) was noticed with the application of 100 per cent N (RDF) + 200 per cent P&K (through organic fertilizers).

Pulses are major and cheaper source of protein particularly for vegetarians and contribute about 14 per cent of Indian diet. Their inclusion as main, catch, cover, green manure and intercrop rotation in farming system is found all over world to keep the soil alive and productive as they have the ability to fix the atmospheric nitrogen. Pulses are the wonderful gift of nature having unique ability of biological nitrogen fixation, deep root system, mobilization of insoluble soil nutrients and bringing changes in soils physical properties make them known as 'soil fertility restorer'. They fix and utilize atmospheric nitrogen and add up to the 30 kg N ha⁻¹ to the soil. They have been valued as food, feed and fodder.

Fertilizer feeds the world through feeding the soils and in turns plants, no country in the world has been able to increase agricultural productivity without expanding the use of mineral fertilizers. In India, contribution towards increase in food grain production is estimated to be 50 per cent.

The heavy fertilization policy has an adverse effect on the soil and environment which leads to heavy pollution. Integrated nutrient management is the maintenance or the adjustment of soil fertility and plant nutrient supply at an optimum level to sustain the desired crop productivity. In crop production, nutrient availability from organic fertilizer has been recognized for many centuries. Recently there has been a renewed interest in

the use of organic fertilizer. This interest is attributed to concerns for maintaining sustainable agricultural production while preserving the environment.

In view of the above, the present investigation was undertaken to study the "Effect of manures and fertilizers on nutrient uptake by chickpea and soil nutrient status under irrigated condition".

MATERIAL AND METHODS

The field selected for the experimentation was fairly uniform and leveled. Soil of experimental plot was inceptisol with clay content (58.3 %). It was low in available nitrogen (208 kg ha⁻¹) and phosphorous (18 kg ha⁻¹), moderate in organic carbon (5.8 g kg⁻¹), high in available potassium (352 kg ha⁻¹) and slightly alkaline (7.7) in reaction. The total rainfall recorded from October, 2016 to February, 2017 during crop growing season was 91.0 mm received in 5 rainy days as against normal rainfall of 102.6 mm and total rainy days of 7.2. Bright sunshine hours temperature, wind speed were lower than normal that helped the crop to utilize available soil moisture for longer period and kept the evaporation losses less which favored the crop growth. The experiment was laid out in randomized block design with eight treatments and three replications. The crop variety was JAKI-9218 sown at the row spacing of 30 cm distance. The treatment comprising at T₁- 100 per cent NPK (RDF) through chemical fertilizers, T₂-100 per cent N + 50 per cent P & K (RDF) + 50 per cent

1. PG Student, 2. Chief Agronomist, 3. Assistant Professor, 4. Assistant Professor, 5. PG Student, All India Coordinated Research Project on Integrated Farming System, Dr. PDKV, Akola (MS)

P & K (through organic fertilizers), T₃-100 per cent N (RDF) + 100 per cent P and K (through organic fertilizers), T₄- 100 per cent N (RDF) + 150 per cent P & K (through organic fertilizers), T₅- 100per cent N (RDF) + 200 per cent P and K (through organic fertilizers), T₆- 100 per cent N and P (RDF) + 100 per cent K (through organic fertilizers), T₇- 100 per cent N and P (RDF) + 150per cent K (through organic fertilizers) and T₈- 100 per cent N and K (RDF)+ 100 per cent P (through organic fertilizers). The recommended dose of fertilizers for chickpea was 25 + 50 + 30 NPK kg ha⁻¹. The organic fertilizers used for the experiment, by keeping the constant recommended dose of nitrogen for all the treatments and applied through chemical fertilizer only. The organic phosphatic fertilizer (pre- mixture) contains rock phosphate, compost, leaf extract of banyan, bermuda, kokum and Tulsi. The pre-mixture contents 10.42 per cent phosphate, 0.43 per cent nitrogen, 7.87 per cent organic carbon, having 18.30 C: N ratio and 25 per cent moisture by weight. While, potassic fertilizer (pre- mixture) contains ash, compost and leaf extract of banyan, bermuda, kokum

and tulsi. The pre-mixture contents 10 per cent potash, 15 per cent potassium humate& 7.48 per cent organic carbon. All the fertilizers and time to time field operations were carried out in the experiment as per the treatments and University recommended package of practice.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Uptake of nutrients by chickpea

Uptake of Nitrogen

Significantly highest nitrogen uptake in seed (69.55 kg ha⁻¹) was observed in 100 per cent N (RDF) + 200per cent P&K (through organic fertilizers) which was found at par with 100per cent N (RDF) + 150 per cent P&K (through organic fertilizers) and 100 per cent N (RDF) + 150 per cent K (through organic fertilizers) and superior over rests (Table1). While, treatment T₃(100 % N (RDF) + 100 per cent P and K (through organic fertilizers) was found significantly better than other treatments but comparable with treatment T₆(100 % N and P (RDF) + 100 % K (through organic fertilizers). Whereas, lower values of nitrogen

Table 1: NPK uptake in seed and straw of chickpea as influenced by different treatments

Symbol	Treatment	Total NPK uptake by chickpea (kg ha ⁻¹)								
		Seed	Straw	Total N	Seed	Straw	Total P	Seed	Straw	Total K
T ₁	100 % NPK (RDF) through chemical fertilizers	35.68	26.72	62.40	4.68	6.80	11.48	17.70	33.25	50.95
T ₂	100 % N + 50 % P and K (RDF) + 50 % P and K (through organic fertilizers)	37.84	24.40	62.24	5.39	7.22	12.61	19.45	32.77	52.22
T ₃	100 % N (RDF) + 100 % P and K (through organic fertilizers)	60.63	26.38	87.01	8.43	8.79	17.22	29.94	36.48	66.42
T ₄	100 % N (RDF) + 150 % P and K (through organic fertilizers)	67.35	34.01	101.36	9.89	11.69	21.58	33.49	47.57	81.06
T ₅	100 % N (RDF) + 200 % P and K (through organic fertilizers)	69.55	35.18	104.73	10.23	11.93	22.16	34.71	49.63	84.34
T ₆	100 % N and P (RDF) + 100 % K (through organic fertilizers)	55.88	25.32	81.20	7.49	8.83	16.32	27.90	38.17	66.07
T ₇	100 % N and P (RDF) + 150 % K (through organic fertilizers)	63.48	27.50	90.98	9.02	9.63	18.65	31.23	41.01	72.24
T ₈	100 % N and K (RDF) + 100 % P (through organic fertilizers)	41.08	23.06	64.14	5.66	7.64	13.30	20.62	32.57	53.19
	SE (m)±	2.01	1.52	-	0.80	0.67	-	1.12	1.98	-
	CD @5 %	6.10	4.62	-	2.43	2.04	-	3.39	6.02	-

uptake by seed was recorded in 100 per cent NPK applied through chemical fertilizers. The beneficial effect of organic fertilizers might be due to their role in adequate nutrient supply, enhanced mobilization of nutrients, activation of beneficial soil microbes, biological N- fixation and improved physical conditions of soil which resulted in better root establishment, better translocation of absorbed nutrients from soil and its translocation to plant and seed and ultimately increased content of nitrogen. The results are in conformity of Dalvi (2011).

However, nitrogen uptake in straw was noticed significantly higher (35.18 kg ha⁻¹) in treatment 100 per cent N (RDF) + 200 per cent P and K (through organic fertilizers) which was found at par with 100 per cent N (RDF) + 150 per cent P and K (through organic fertilizers) and superior over rest of the treatments. While, remaining treatments were at par among each other. The lower value for phosphorous uptake in straw was noted in treatment T₈ (100 % N and K (RDF) + 100 per cent P (through organic fertilizers)).

Uptake of Phosphorous

Significantly highest phosphorus uptake in seed (10.23 kg ha⁻¹) and straw (11.93 kg ha⁻¹) was observed in 100 per cent N (RDF) + 200 per cent P and K (through organic fertilizers) but observed at par with 100 per cent N (RDF) + 150 per cent P and K (through organic fertilizers), 100 per cent N and P (RDF) + 150 per cent K (through organic fertilizers) and 100 per cent N (RDF) + 100 per cent P and K (through organic fertilizers). Phosphorus uptake

in straw was noted higher with the application of 100 per cent N (RDF) + 200 per cent P and K (through organic fertilizers) and at par with 100 per cent N (RDF) + 150 per cent P and K (through organic fertilizers) and superior over rest of treatments (Table 1). Remaining treatments were found at par with each other. The increase in uptake of phosphorous might be due to enhanced physiological processes within the plant system which resulted in the increased absorption of phosphorus by chickpea and thereby, translocation of phosphorus might have occurred and get accumulated in straw which resulted in higher P uptake. These results are in close confirmation of Neenu *et al.* (2014).

Uptake of Potassium

Significantly highest potassium uptake in seed (34.71 kg ha⁻¹) and straw (49.63 kg ha⁻¹) were observed in 100 per cent N (RDF) + 200 per cent P and K (through organic fertilizers) which was at par with 100 per cent N (RDF) + 150 per cent P and K (through organic fertilizers) and significantly superior over rest of the treatments (Table). The increase in uptake of potassium might be due to the initial higher availability of potassium in experimental soil, mobile nature of K and high root biomass resulted higher absorption of potassium by plant. These results are in line of the findings of Das *et al.* (2016).

Soil nutrient status of soil after crop harvest

Available nitrogen

The available nitrogen in soil was significantly improved by the different combination of organic and

Table 2: Nutrient status in soil after harvest of crop (kg ha⁻¹) as influenced by different treatments

Symbol	Treatment	Available N	Available P	Available K
T ₁	100% NPK (RDF) through chemical fertilizers	210	15	342
T ₂	100% N + 50% P & K (RDF) + 50% P & K (through organic fertilizers)	211	16	351
T ₃	100% N (RDF) + 100% P & K (through organic fertilizers)	222	19	359
T ₄	100% N (RDF) + 150% P & K (through organic fertilizers)	231	22	364
T ₅	100% N (RDF) + 200% P & K (through organic fertilizers)	235	23	377
T ₆	100% N & P (RDF) + 100% K (through organic fertilizers)	219	17	355
T ₇	100% N & P (RDF) + 150% K (through organic fertilizers)	228	21	365
T ₈	100% N & K (RDF) + 100% P (through organic fertilizers)	218	17	348
	Se (m) ±	2.69	1.25	3.77
	CD @5%	8.17	3.79	11.43

inorganic fertilizers (Table 2). The highest available nitrogen (235kg ha^{-1}) was recorded in treatment 100 per cent N (RDF) + 200 per cent P and K (through organic fertilizers) but found at par with 100 per cent N (RDF) + 150 per cent P and K (through organic fertilizers) and 100 per cent N and P (RDF) + 150 per cent K (through organic fertilizers). The application of 100 per cent N (RDF) + 100 per cent P and K (through organic fertilizers) recorded significantly higher available N in soil followed by treatment 100 per cent N & P (RDF) + 100 per cent K (through organic fertilizers) and 100 per cent N and K (RDF) + 100 per cent P (through organic fertilizers). Whereas, the lower nitrogen status in soil was noticed in treatment 100 per cent NPK (RDF) through chemical fertilizers closely followed by treatment 100 per cent N + 50 per cent P and K (RDF) + 50 per cent P and K (through organic fertilizers). The higher values of available nitrogen might be due to activity of microorganism in soil which helped to fix atmospheric nitrogen. Available N content further increased might be due to the combined application of organic fertilizers with inorganic one. Similar results were obtained by Chandrashekhar *et al.* (2014).

Available phosphorus

Available phosphorus in soil was significantly improved by different organic and inorganic fertilizers (Table 2). The highest available phosphorus (23 kg ha^{-1}) was observed in treatment 100 per cent N (RDF) + 200 per cent P and K (through organic fertilizers) and statistically it was comparable with 100 per cent N (RDF) + 150 per cent P and K (through organic fertilizers), 100 per cent N and P (RDF) + 150 per cent K (through organic fertilizers) and 100 per cent N (RDF) + 100 per cent P and K (through organic fertilizers). The remaining treatments were on par with each other. Available phosphorus increased with increasing levels of fertilizers in soil and it was increased in soil after harvest of crop. These results are in agreement with the findings of Thakur *et al.* (2011).

Available potassium

Significantly higher available potassium (377 kg ha^{-1}) in soil was observed in 100 per cent N (RDF) + 200 per cent P and K (through organic fertilizers) and lower in 100 per cent NPK (RDF) applied through chemical fertilizers (Table 2). Treatment 100 per cent N and P (RDF)

+ 150 per cent K (through organic fertilizers) recorded significantly higher available potassium in soil and observed comparable with treatments of 100 per cent N (RDF) + 150 per cent P and K (through organic fertilizers), 100 per cent N (RDF) + 100 per cent P and K (through organic fertilizers) and 100 per cent N and K (RDF) + 100 per cent P (through organic fertilizers) and rest of treatments were found on par with each other. Organic fertilizers found beneficial than inorganic fertilizers. These results are in agreement with the findings of Vidyavathi *et al.* (2012).

LITERATURE CITED

- Chandrashekhar, K., V. Sailaja and P. Chandrasekhar, 2014. Effect of integrated use of organic and inorganic sources of phosphorus on soil physico-chemical and chemical properties of chickpea (*Cicer arietinum* L.), J. of Soils & Crops. 24 (1): 25-33.
- Dalvi, S. S., 2011. Effect of rock phosphate with organic manures on nutrient uptake and yield of wheat. M. Sc. Thesis (unpub.) submitted to Mahatma Phule Krishi Vidyapeeth, Rahuri (M.S.), India.
- Das, S.K., B. Biswas and K. Jana, 2016. Effect of farm yard manure, phosphorus and sulphur on yield parameters, yield, nodulation, nutrient uptake and quality of chickpea (*Cicer arietinum* L.), J. Applied and Natural Sci., 8(2): 545-549.
- Neenu, S., K. Ramesh, S. Ramana, A. K. Biswas and A. Subba Rao, 2014. Growth and yield of different varieties of chickpea (*Cicer arietinum* L.) as influenced by the phosphorus nutrition under rainfed conditions on vertisols, Interatioal J. Bio-resource and Stress Mngm. 5 (1): 53-57.
- Thakur, R., S. D. Savarkar, U. K. Vaishya and M. Singh, 2011. Impact of continuous Use of inorganic fertilizers and organic manure on soil properties and productivity under soybean- wheat intensive cropping of a Vertisols, J. Indian Soc. Soil Sci. 59 (1): 74-81.
- Vidyavathi, G. S., H. B. Dasog, N. S. Babalad, S. K. Hebsur, S. G. Gali, A. Patil and A. R. Alagawadi, 2012. Nutrient status of soil under different nutrient and crop management practices, Karnataka J. Agri. Sci., 25 (2): 193-198.

Assessment of Spatial Variability of Major and Micro Nutrients in Soils of Akola District of Maharashtra, India

R. N. Katkar¹, S. R. Lakhe², S. S. Hadole³ and P. A. Sarap⁴

ABSTRACT

Georeferenced surface soil samples from seven tehsils in Akola district of Maharashtra were collected using Global Positioning System (GPS) to study the variability in availability of major and micro nutrients. The stratified random sampling method was used to locate the sampling villages in each tehsils. The fertility maps were prepared using Geographical Information System for each nutrient. The results revealed that pH, EC, CaCO₃ and OC of soils collected across different tehsils of Akola district varied from 6.91 to 8.89, 0.11 to 0.99 dS m⁻¹, 1.25 to 31.87 per cent and 1.20 to 11.20 g kg⁻¹, respectively. Whereas available N, P, K and S in soils ranged from 94.3 to 305.5 kg ha⁻¹, 1.06 to 16.71 kg ha⁻¹, 63.6 to 985.6 kg ha⁻¹ and 1.03 to 56.94 mg kg⁻¹, respectively. The DTPA-Zn, Fe, Cu and Mn in soil of Akola district ranged from 0.11 to 6.09 mg kg⁻¹, 1.15 to 94.44 mg kg⁻¹, 0.14 to 11.11 mg kg⁻¹ and 1.39 to 62.17 mg kg⁻¹, respectively. The CaCl₂-B in soils of all the tehsils ranged from 0.17 to 1.00 mg kg⁻¹. The low nutrient indices were found in respect to nitrogen (1.03), phosphorus (1.00) and zinc (1.36), medium for sulphur (1.68), potassium (1.87), boron (1.71) and iron (1.79) and high for copper (2.83) and manganese (2.61). The results obtained in the present study clearly showed a large variability in physio-chemical properties of soil across the Akola district. This information could aid in decision making for application of plant nutrients and selection of cropping sequence for higher monetary returns to the farmers.

Information technology has provided tools *viz.*, Global Positioning System (GPS) which helps in collecting a systematic set of georeferenced soil samples and generating the spatial data about the distribution of nutrients through Geographical Information System (GIS). Understanding of spatial variability and distribution of soil properties is critical for farmers attempting to increase nutrients use efficiency and crop productivity. Application of fertilizers on the basis of soil characteristics associated with fertilizers recommendation may aid in minimizing the fertilizers input without any yield loss (Yadav *et al.*, 2018). The information about spatial variability in physio-chemical properties of soil had great importance in the selection of crops and cropping system and also extent the ideas about prevailing management practices (Weindorf and Zhu, 2010 and Liu *et al.*, 2013). Spatial variability in pH, organic matter, total and available NPK and micronutrients has been studied by various researchers under contrasting soil and management systems to refine and implement the site-specific management (Franzen *et al.*, 2002 and Li *et al.*, 2011). Imbalanced and inadequate use of fertilizers coupled with low use efficiency of other inputs led to decline in the

response efficiency of chemical fertilizer nutrients under intensive agriculture in recent years. Micronutrients are important for maintaining soil health and increasing use efficiency of major nutrients and ultimately the crop productivity. The deficiency of micronutrients has become major constraint in sustainable crop productivity of soils and hence there is need to know the spatial variability of nutrients of the soil (Katkar *et al.*, 2018). Keeping this in view, the present investigation was undertaken to assess the status of major and micronutrients in soils and to identify and delineate areas of nutrient deficiencies in Akola district of Maharashtra.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Description of the study area

Akola district of Maharashtra is situated between 19° 44' to 21° 16' North latitude and 76° 38' to 77° 44' East longitude. Total geographical area of the district is 5,41,700 ha and is divided into seven tehsils (Telhara, Akot, Balapur, Akola, Murtizapur, Patur and Barshitakali).

Soil sampling and analysis

GPS based four hundred ninety eight surface soil samples (0-20 cm) were collected from 83 villages across

1. Professor, 2. Research Associate, 3. Associate Professor and 4. Assistant Professor, Department of Soil Science and Agril. Chemistry, Dr. PDKV, Akola

all the seven tehsils of Akola district. The sampling villages were selected using stratified random method. Six farmers from each village were selected based on land holdings. The soil samples were processed and analyzed for pH and EC in soil:water suspensions (1:2.5 w/v) as described by Jackson (1973). Organic carbon was determined by wet oxidation method described by Walkley and Black (Nelson and Sommers, 1982) and free CaCO₃ was determined by Rapid titration method (Piper, 1966). Available N was estimated by alkaline permanganate method (Subbiah and Asija, 1956), available P by Bray's method (Bray and Kurtz, 1945), available K by ammonium acetate extraction method (Jackson, 1967) and available S was estimated by turbidimetric method (Chesnin and Yien, 1951). Soil samples were extracted with 0.005 M diethylene triamine penta acetic acid (DTPA) for estimation of available Zn, Fe, Cu and Mn using Atomic Absorption Spectrophotometer (Lindsay and Norvell, 1978). Available boron was determined by 0.01 M CaCl₂ extract with Azomethine method (Berger and Troug, 1939). The nutrient indices were calculated by using the formula given by Parker *et al.* (1951) and categorized into low (<1.66), medium (1.66–2.33) and high (>2.33).

$$\text{Nutrient index} = \frac{\text{per cent samples low} \times 1 + \text{per cent samples medium} \times 2 + \text{per cent samples high} \times 3}{100}$$

The major and micronutrients were categorized as low, medium and high which is followed in maharashtra state (Table 1).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Soil properties :

The pH of soils in Akola district was recorded neutral to alkaline (6.91 – 8.89) (Table 2). The highest pH was observed in Balapur tehsil (8.89) and lowest in Patur tehsil (6.91). Maximum soil samples were found slightly to moderately alkaline in nature. All the soils were non-saline (0.11 to 0.99 dS m⁻¹) in nature and suitable for healthy plant growth with a mean value of 0.34 dS m⁻¹ which was in normal range (< 1 dS m⁻¹). The organic carbon content in soils ranged from 1.20 to 11.20 g kg⁻¹. Calcium carbonate content in soils of the district varied from 1.25 to 31.87 per cent, which indicated, the soils are calcareous in nature. High calcium carbonate is harmful; it reduces the

Table 1. Categorization of soil parameters and nutrients

S.N.	Parameters	Low	Medium	High
1	pH(1:2.5)	<6.5 (Acidic)	6.5-7.5 (Neutral)	>7.5 (Alkaline)
2	EC (dS m ⁻¹)	<1.0	1-2	>2.0
3	O.C. (g kg ⁻¹)	<4.0	4-8	>8.0
4	CaCO ₃ (per cent)	<3.0	3-8	>8.0
5	N (kg ha ⁻¹)	<280	280-560	>560
6	P (kg ha ⁻¹)	<14	14-28	>28
7	K (kg ha ⁻¹)	<150	150-250	>250
8	S (mg kg ⁻¹)	<10.0	10-20	>20.0
9	Zn (mg kg ⁻¹)	<0.60	0.6-1.80	>1.80
10	Fe (mg kg ⁻¹)	<4.50	4.50-18.0	>18.0
11	Cu (mg kg ⁻¹)	<0.20	0.20-0.80	>0.80
12	Mn (mg kg ⁻¹)	<2.0	2.0-8.0	>8.0
13	B (mg kg ⁻¹)	<0.50	0.50-1.0	>1.0
14	Mo (mg kg ⁻¹)	<0.10	0.10-0.40	>0.40

(Source : Dr. PDKV, Akola)

concentration of micronutrient cations in soils to such a level that the sensitive plant suffers from deficiency of micronutrients (Deb *et al.* 2009). The higher calcium carbonate content was noticed in Murtizapur, Akola, Balapur, and Akot tehsils. Organic carbon deficiency was recorded in 35.1 per cent soil samples across the district. The high temperature during summer and non-addition of organic matter regularly might have shown its deficiency in Akola district. The soil samples collected from tehsils Telhara, Murtizapur, Akot and Barshitakali showed organic carbon deficiency in 53.7, 47.6, 44.0 and 38.9 per cent samples respectively.

Major nutrients status

Available nitrogen was noticed in the range of 94.3 to 305.5 kg ha⁻¹, which showed widespread deficiency (Table 3). The deficiency of available nitrogen might be due to very less addition of organic manures and heavy uptake under intensive cultivation of improved high yielding varieties of different crops. Available P varied from very low to medium (1.06 – 16.71 kg ha⁻¹) indicating 99.6 per cent deficiency in almost all the tehsils. The deficiency of available P ascribed to its fixation in the form of aluminum and iron phosphate due to slightly acidic nature of soil. The available K ranged from 63.6 to 985.6 kg ha⁻¹ and 28.71 per cent samples were found deficient while 56.23 per cent samples were found medium. This could be attributed to more intense weathering, release of labile K from organic residues, application of K fertilizers and upward translocation of K from lower depths along with capillary rise of ground water (Sharma and Anil Kumar, 2003). During post green revolution era, the available potassium was considered very high in many soils. The recent trends indicated that slight potassium deficiency occurred, showing response to its addition. The available sulphur varied from very low to very high (1.03 to 56.94 mg kg⁻¹) with 53.21 per cent deficiency whereas 27.71 per cent samples were found medium (Table 3). The intensive cultivation of crops and application of fertilizers devoid of sulphur might be depleting the sulphur from soil. The application of balanced nutrition to the crops under intensive cultivation is essential for maintaining the soil fertility and sustainable productivity.

Micronutrients status

Data pertaining to DTPA-Zn in soils of Akola

district showed that DTPA-Zn of Akola district as a whole, varied from 0.11 to 6.09 mg kg⁻¹ (Table 4) indicating 70.5 per cent deficiency, whereas 23.9 per cent samples of available Zn were noticed in medium category showing widespread deficiency of zinc. The highest deficiency of zinc was observed in Akola tehsil followed by Murtizapur, Balapur and Barshitakali. The availability of micronutrient cations is generally low in alkaline soils and crops grown on these soils suffer from hidden hunger (Malewar, 2005). Major crops grown in these tehsils are cotton, soybean, pigeonpea, sorghum, pulses (blackgram, greengram and chickpea), pearl millet, maize, safflower, sunflower and sesamum etc., and their intensive cultivation might have mined the zinc along with N, P and K over a long period. All the tehsils indicated wide spread zinc deficiency in Akola district. The deficiency of nutrients creates imbalance in soils which results into nutritional stress in plants. High pH and high contents of CaCO₃ can fix Zn in the soil and results in reduction of available zinc (Hafeez *et al.*, 2013).

DTPA-Fe content showed wide variation (1.15 to 94.44 mg kg⁻¹) in the soils of Akola district. Considering the soils having < 4.5 mg kg⁻¹ as low, 4.5 to 18.0 mg kg⁻¹ as medium and > 18.0 mg kg⁻¹ as high in iron status, the distribution of soil samples under these categories was 31.7, 57.1 and 11.2 per cent, respectively indicating that the soils are becoming deficient in iron followed by zinc. Shukla *et al.* (2016) reported low Fe content in forage and food grains produced in arid and semi-arid regions is attributed to acute Fe deficiency in soils (85 per cent in Rajasthan, 23 per cent in Gujrat, 22 per cent in Haryana and 21 per cent in Maharashtra). Patil *et al.* (2004) reported 40.0 and 34.7 percent soils deficient in zinc and iron respectively in Vidarbha.

The DTPA extractable Cu in the soils of Akola district ranged from 0.14 to 11.11 mg kg⁻¹ (Table 4). Patil and Sonar (1994) reported available Cu in range of 0.58 to 1.7 mg kg⁻¹ in swell-shrink soils of Maharashtra. The majority of soils in Akola district were found sufficient in Cu content.

The DTPA-Mn status of soils ranged from 1.39 to 62.17 mg kg⁻¹ (Table 4). Gajbhe *et al.* (1976) reported available Mn content in surface soils of Marathwada ranged from 13.3 to 65.20 mg kg⁻¹. Soils of Akola district

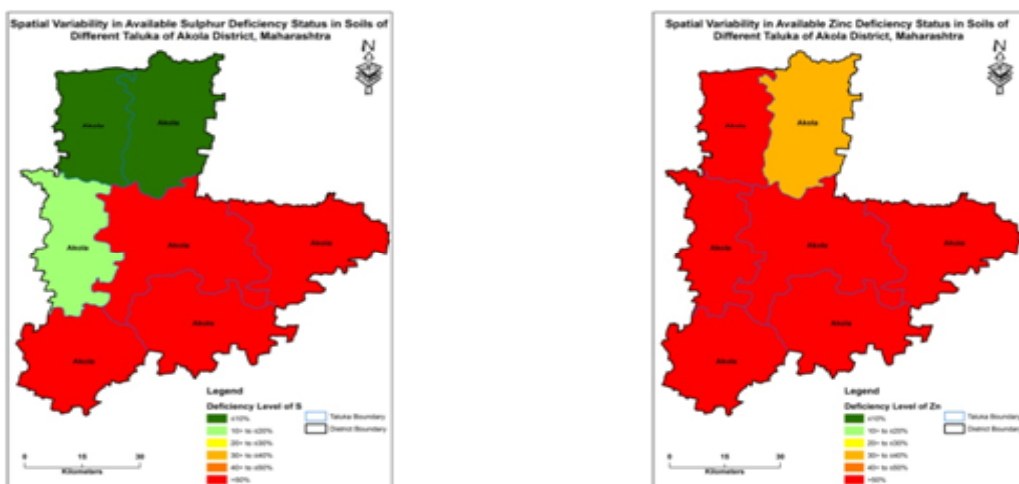


Fig. 1. Spatial variability of available S and Zn in soils of Akola district of Maharashtra

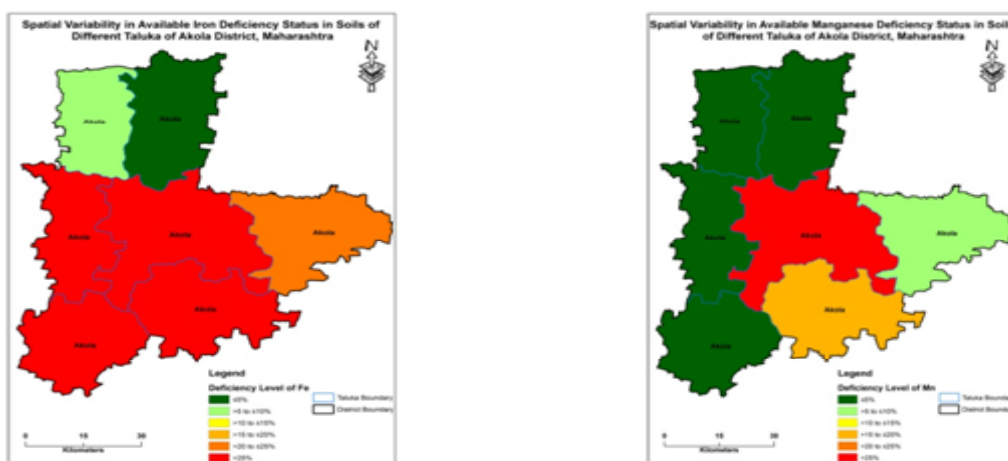


Fig. 2. Spatial variability of available Fe and Mn in soils of Akola district of Maharashtra

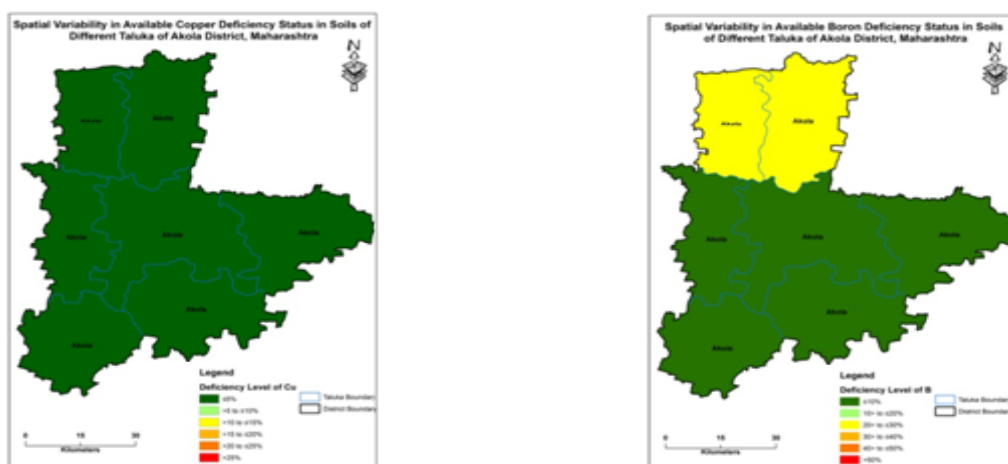


Fig. 3. Spatial variability of available Cu and Bo in soils of Akola district of Maharashtra

Table 2. Chemical properties of soils in Akola district

S. N.	Tehsils	pH (1:2.5)		EC (dS m ⁻¹)		CaCO ₃ (%)		Organic carbon (g kg ⁻¹)	
		Range	Mean	Range	Mean	Range	Mean	Range	Mean
1	Telhara	7.25 - 8.88	8.11	0.14 - 0.98	0.33	1.25-16.25	9.02	1.45 - 9.47	4.32
2	Akot	7.23 - 8.71	7.96	0.11 - 0.80	0.34	2.12-21.12	11.29	1.20 - 9.64	4.64
3	Balapur	7.50 - 8.89	8.03	0.11 - 0.71	0.30	4.50-27.37	13.85	1.39 - 9.21	5.88
4	Akola	7.21 - 8.63	7.91	0.11 - 0.67	0.36	2.37-27.75	13.99	1.24 - 9.90	5.86
5	Murtizapur	7.20 - 8.71	7.93	0.11 - 0.99	0.35	2.00-31.87	14.27	1.47 - 9.10	4.30
6	Patur	6.91 - 8.04	7.51	0.23 - 0.87	0.39	2.62-19.25	8.95	2.85 - 9.96	7.17
7	Barashitakali	7.08 - 8.57	7.73	0.16 - 0.81	0.34	2.38-25.87	11.29	1.40 - 11.20	5.05
	Akola district	6.91 - 8.89	7.89	0.11 - 0.99	0.34	1.25-31.87	12.11	1.20 - 11.20	5.22

Table 3. Macronutrients status of soils in Akola district

S. N.	Tehsils	N (kg ha ⁻¹)		P (kg ha ⁻¹)		K (kg ha ⁻¹)		S (mg kg ⁻¹)	
		Range	PSD	Range	PSD	Range	PSD	Range	PSD
1	Telhara	94.8 - 305.5	81.5	2.33 - 16.71	98.1	134.4 - 481.6	1.85	9.87 - 39.55	1.86
2	Akot	94.8 - 284.4	98.8	2.13 - 15.80	98.8	112.0 - 694.4	14.28	8.80 - 56.94	4.76
3	Balapur	94.3 - 273.9	100.0	3.63 - 8.67	100.0	100.8 - 616.0	33.34	4.05 - 41.52	16.66
4	Akola	105.4 - 252.3	100.0	2.01 - 9.72	100.0	67.2 - 560.0	33.34	1.03 - 31.11	96.08
5	Murtizapur	94.8 - 263.4	100.0	2.04 - 10.49	100.0	67.2 - 403.2	28.57	1.71 - 28.26	80.95
6	Patur	115.9 - 263.3	100.0	1.15 - 9.59	100.0	67.2 - 481.6	20.0	1.03 - 23.00	85.42
7	Barashitakali	115.8 - 284.5	98.6	1.06 - 13.51	100.0	63.6 - 985.6	41.67	1.84 - 42.55	61.11
	Akola district	94.3 - 305.5	97.6	1.06 - 16.71	99.6	63.6 - 985.6	28.71	1.03 - 56.94	53.21

PSD – Percent sample deficient

Table 4. Micronutrients status (mg kg⁻¹) of soil in Akola district

S.N.	Tehsils	Zn			Fe			Cu			Mn			B		
		RANGE	PSD	PSD	RANGE	PSD	PSD	RANGE	PSD	PSD	RANGE	PSD	PSD	RANGE	PSD	PSD
1	TELHARA	0.12-4.40	64.8	3.17-13.54	5.5	1.09-11.11	0	3.92-32.56	0	0.38-0.73	19.0					
2	AKOT	0.16-6.09	29.8	1.82-94.44	3.6	0.91-6.83	0	5.41-62.17	0	0.29-0.70	28.5					
3	BALAPUR	0.11-2.00	85.2	1.30-18.58	25.9	0.96-5.76	0	3.54-39.80	0	0.53-1.00	4.8					
4	AKOLA	0.11-2.57	88.2	1.17-14.78	57.8	0.14-4.40	4.9	1.39-24.0	6.0	0.17-0.75	14.3					
5	MURTIZAPUR	0.15-6.00	86.9	1.42-37.66	23.8	0.18-5.28	1.2	2.64-23.78	0	0.38-0.79	14.3					
6	PATUR	0.39-1.25	52.1	1.15-14.50	39.6	0.30-4.86	0	4.50-15.88	0	0.35-0.79	23.8					
7	BARASHITAKALI	0.15-1.67	79.2	1.36-35.72	55.6	0.24-7.82	0	2.05-28.58	0	0.40-0.69	4.8					
	AKOLA DISTRICT	0.11-6.09	70.5	1.15-94.44	31.7	0.14-11.11	1.2	1.39-62.17	1.2	0.17-1.00	15.6					

PSD – Percent sample deficient

Table 5. Nutrient index values of soil available nutrients in different tehsils of Akola district

S.N.	Name of the tehsils	No. of samples	Nutrient Index										Value Fertility rating							
			N	P	K	S	Zn	Fe	Cu	Mn	B	N	P	K	S	Zn	Fe	Cu	Mn	B
1	Telhara	54	1.18	1.01	2.44	2.42	1.14	1.94	2.65	2.90	1.80	L	L	H	H	L	M	H	H	M
2	Akot	84	1.01	1.01	2.03	2.44	1.91	2.33	3.0	2.94	1.80	L	L	M	H	M	H	H	H	M
3	Balapur	54	1.00	1.0	1.79	1.80	1.17	1.78	3.0	2.65	1.85	L	L	M	M	L	M	H	H	M
4	Akola	102	1.00	1.0	1.73	1.05	1.13	1.42	2.65	2.03	1.42	L	L	M	L	L	L	H	H	L
5	Murtizapur	84	1.00	1.0	1.79	1.20	1.17	1.96	2.61	2.58	1.42	L	L	M	L	L	M	H	H	L
6	Patur	48	1.00	1.0	1.58	1.16	1.48	1.60	2.98	2.77	1.76	L	L	L	L	L	L	H	H	M
7	Barashitakali	72	1.01	1.0	1.72	1.73	1.21	1.53	2.93	2.43	1.95	L	L	M	M	L	L	H	H	M
	Over all Mean	498	1.03	1.0	1.87	1.68	1.36	1.79	2.83	2.61	1.71	L	L	M	M	L	M	H	H	M

Low - < 1.66, Medium - 1.66 - 2.33, High - > 2.33

were sufficient in Mn and Cu. $\text{CaCl}_2\text{-B}$ in soils of all the tehsils ranged from 0.17 to 1.00 mg kg^{-1} . Boron deficiency was observed in 16 per cent samples while 84 per cent samples were noticed in medium category. The highest deficiency was noticed in Akot, Patur and Telhara tehsils followed by Akola and Murtizapur tehsils.

Nutrient indices

The nutrient indices across the Akola district ranged from 1.0-1.18 for N, 1.0-1.01 for P, 1.58-2.44 for K, 1.05-2.44 for S, 1.13 - 1.91 for Zn, 1.42 – 2.33 for Fe, 2.61 – 3.00 for Cu, 2.03 – 2.94 for Mn and 1.42 - 1.95 for B. Notably low fertility rating was recorded for N, P and Zn in most of the tehsils, high for Cu and Mn, medium for K, S, Fe and B. In nutshell, overall fertility rating for nutrients in the soils of Akola district revealed low N, P and Zn, marginal K, S, Fe and B, high Cu and Mn status. The areas where the status of nutrients are medium, may show deficiency in near future if the due care is not taken for addition of organic manures and inorganic micronutrient fertilizers based on soil testing by the cultivators in the districts for intensive cultivation of different crops (Malewar, 2005).

CONCLUSION

The information technology based GPS-GIS technique has been found useful for systematic mapping of spatial variability of macro and micro nutrients. Among the major nutrients, nitrogen (97.6%) and phosphorus (99.6 %) was found deficient. The micronutrients viz., zinc (70.5 %), iron (31.7%) and boron (15.6%) showed deficiency. The current status of spatial variability of micronutrients in soils of Akola district will be helpful to suggest the efficient ways and methods of balanced nutrient application for enhancing the yields by using recommended quantities of organic manures and inorganic fertilizers in the areas of major and micro-nutrients deficiency.

LITERATURE CITED

- Berger, K.C. and E. Truog, 1939. Boron determination in soils and plants, *Indian Eng. Chem. Anal. Ed.* 11: 540-545.
- Bray, R.H. and L.T. Kurtz, 1945. Determination of total, organic and available forms of phosphorus in soil, *Soil Science*, 59:39-45
- Chesnin, L and C. H. Yein, 1951. Turbidimetric determination of available sulphates, *Soil Sci. Soc. of America Proceedings*, 15: 149-157.
- Deb, D. L., L. R. Sakal and S. P. Datta, 2009. Micronutrients in fundamental of Soil Science, *J. Indian Soc. Soil Sci.*, 441-490.
- Gajbhe, M. V., M. G. Lande and S. B. Varade, 1976. Soils of Marathwada, *J. Maharashtra Agricultural Universities*, 1 (2-6): 55-59.
- Hafeez B., Y.M. Khanif and M. Saleem, 2013. Role of zinc in plant nutrition- A Review, *American J. Experimental Agric.*, 3(2): 374-391.
- Jackson, M. L. 1967. *Soil Chemical Analysis* Prentice Hall of India, Pvt. Ltd, New Delhi.
- Jackson, M. L. 1973. *Soil Chemical Analysis* (Eds.) Prentice Hall of India, Pvt. Ltd, New Delhi.
- Katkar, R.N., S.R. Lakhe, V.K. Kharche, P.N. Magare, and G.S. Laharia, 2018. Spatial variability of major and micro nutrients in soils of Bhandara District, Maharashtra, *Agropedology*, 27 (01) : 56-62.
- Li, S.F., Z.B. Chen, G.B. Chen and Z.Q. Chen, 2011. Spatial distribution of soil nutrients and their response to land use in eroded area of South China, *Proc. Environmental Sci.*, 10: 14-19.
- Lindsay, W. L., and W. A. Norvell, 1978. Development of a DTPA soil test for zinc, iron, manganese and copper, *Soil Sci. Soc. America J.*, 42: 421-428.
- Liu, Z.P., M. A. Shao and Y.Q. Wang, 2013. Spatial patterns of soil total nitrogen and soil total phosphorus across the entire Loess Plateau region of China, *Proc. Environmental Sci.*, 10: 14-19.
- Malewar, G. U., 2005. Micronutrient stresses in soils and crops: Serious sickness and clinical approaches for sustainable agriculture, *J. Indian Soc. Soil Sci.*, 53 (4) : 484-499
- Nelson, D. W. and L. E. Sommers, 1982. In : *Methods of Soil Analysis, Part II, Chemical and Microbiological Methods* by Page, A. L., R. H. Miller and D. R. Keeney (eds.) *Agronomy Monograph No. 9* (2nd edition) American Society of Agronomy and Soil Science Society of America, Madison, Wisconsin, USA : 570-572.

- Parker, F. W., W. L. Nelson, E. Winters and I. F. Miles, 1951. The broad interpretation and application of soil test information, *Agronomy J.*, 43:105-112.
- Patil, D. B., P. R. Bharambe, P. W. Deshmukh, P. V. Rane and V. D. Guldekar, 2004. Micronutrient status in soils of Vidharba, *Technical Bulletin*, Dr. PDKV, Akola.
- Patil, Y. M. and K. R. Sonar, 1994. Status of major and micronutrients in swell-shrink soils of Maharashtra, *J. Maharashtra Agri. Univ.*, 19 (2): 169-172
- Piper, C. S., 1966. *Soil and Plant Analysis*, Hans Pub. Bombay, Asian Ed. : 368-374.
- Sharma, V. K. and Anil Kumar, 2003. Characterization and classification of soil of upper Maul Khad catchment in wet temperate zone of Himachal Pradesh, *Agropedology*, 13 : 39-49.
- Shukla Arvind K., Pankaj K. Tiwari, Abhijit Pakhare and Chandra Prakash, 2016. Zinc and Iron in Soil, Plant, Animal and Human Health, *Indian J. Fertilizers*, 12(11) : 133-149
- Subbiah, B. V. and G. L. Asija, 1956. A rapid procedure for the estimation of available nitrogen in soils, *Current Sci.*, 25 : 258 - 260.
- Weindorf, D. C. and Y. Zhu, 2010. Spatial variability of soil properties at Capulin Volcano, New Mexico, USA : Implications for sampling strategy. *Pedosphere*, 20(2) : 185-197.
- Yadav Tikam Chand, H. K. Rai, G. S. Tagore, Dayanindhi Chaubey and R. Dhakad, 2018. Assessment of spatial variability in physico-chemical properties of soils in Alirajpur district of Madhya Pradesh using Geostatistical approach, *J. Soil and Water Conservation*, 17(4) : 317-324.



Received on 25.6.2019

Effect of Sulphur and Zinc Containing Customized Fertilizers on Onion Yield and Soil Nutrient Status in Inceptisols

P.H. Rathod¹, R.N. Katkar², S. M. Ghawade³, N. M. Konde⁴, S.R. Lakhe⁵ and Vrushali R.Bhende⁶

ABSTRACT

The present investigation was conducted during *rabi*- 2016-17 to study the “Evaluation of efficacy of sulphur and zinc containing customized fertilizers on onion yield and soil nutrient status Inceptisols” at Research Farm, Chilli and Vegetable Research Unit, Dr. PDKV, Akola. The experiment was laid out in Randomized Block Design with eleven treatments replicated thrice. The soil samples were collected, analyzed for different soil properties and availability of major and micronutrients. The results revealed that, the highest onion bulb yield was recorded with the application of balanced fertilizer dose of NPKS Zn (100:50:50:40:17.50 kg ha⁻¹ N, P₂O₅, K₂O, S, Zn) followed by application of recommended dose through customized fertilizer grade (12:45:00:05:01) NPKS Zn + compensation of N and K through conventional fertilizer. The recommended dose applied through grade III (12:45:00:05:01) and compensation of N and K through conventional source recorded highest onion bulb yield and availability of major and micronutrients in soil. The application of recommended dose of fertilizer (NPKS Zn) through conventional fertilizer recorded higher available nitrogen and potassium in soil after harvest of onion. Whereas, available phosphorus was recorded highest with application of recommended dose through customized grade III NPS Zn compensation of N and K through conventional fertilizer after harvest of onion. Available sulphur and zinc were found highest with the application of balanced fertilizer dose of NPKS Zn through conventional fertilizer. Thus, it can be concluded that, the balanced application of nutrients (N,P,K,S and Zn) either through conventional or customized fertilizer grades (NPS Zn) found beneficial in enhancing onion bulb yield and sustaining soil fertility.

Onion (*Allium cepa* L.) is one of the most popular bulb vegetables and commercially important vegetable worldwide. The productivity and quality of any crop depends on nutrients and environment under which it is cultivated. Although plants obtain certain quantity of nutrients from the soil, they are inadequate to meet the demand for higher production. Therefore, it is most essential to provide major, secondary and micronutrient in balanced way towards sustainable production of a crop. Sulphur is a constituent of secondary compounds viz., allin, cycloallin and thiopropanol which not only influence the taste, pungency and medicinal properties of onion but also induce resistance against pests and diseases. Sulphur is required for the synthesis of essential amino acids such as cystine (27% S), cysteine (26% S) and methionine (21% S) besides increasing allyl propyl disulphide (alkaloid) (43% S) and the capsaicin, the principle alkaloids responsible for pungency in onion and chilli (Randle and Bussard, 1993). The continuous adaptation of sulphur free fertilizer in recent years coupled with decreased atmospheric input of sulphur has lead to a marked increase in the incidence of sulphur deficiency in the crops.

Zinc play active role in plant metabolic process such as nitrogen fixation, enzyme activity and is essential for tryptophan synthesis, which is prerequisite for auxin formation, the amount of auxin decreases with zinc deficiency. Zinc deficiency decreases the plant growth when concentration of phosphorus increases in soil as well as plant. Favourable effect of zinc on plant growth is observed in many physiological process and cellular function within plant. It plays an essential role in improving plant growth through the biosynthesis of endogenous hormone which is responsible for plant growth (Hansch and Mendel, 2009).

Customized fertilizers are multi-nutrient carrier designed to contain macro and micro nutrient forms, both from inorganic and organic sources, manufactured through a systematic process satisfying the crops nutritional needs, for specific site, soil and stage validated by a scientific crop model developed by an accredited fertilizer manufacturing company. The customized fertilizer is the use of fertilizer best management practices and intended to maximize crop yields without risking the environment and human health. Application of customized fertilizers are expected to be compatible with existing farming

1. PG Student, 2. Professor, 3. Associate Professor, 4. Assistant Professor, 5. Research Associate and 6. SRF, Department of Soil Science & Agril. Chemistry, Dr. PDKV, Akola

systems and making them acceptable to the farmers. Adoption of such fertilizers would enhance the nutrient use efficiency which is currently 40 per cent for N, 20 per cent for P per cent 50 per cent for K, 2-5 per cent for other micronutrients. In view of above, the present investigation was undertaken to study the effect of sulphur and zinc application along with NPK on yield and fertility status of soil after harvest of onion.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

The experiment was initiated during rabi season 2015-16 at Research Farm, Chilli and Vegetable Research Unit, Dr. Panjabrao Deshmukh Krishi Vidyapeeth, Akola. The study was conducted during rabi 2016-17. The experiment was laid out in randomized block design with eleven treatments and three replications. The treatment comprised of T₁-Control, T₂-RDF (100:50:50 kg ha⁻¹ N, P₂O₅, K₂O), T₃-RDF(100:50:50 kg ha⁻¹ N, P₂O₅, K₂O), along with 40 kg ha⁻¹ S, T₄-RDF S+ Zn 3.50, T₅-RDF + FYM @ 5 t ha⁻¹, T₆-RDF of P through NPS-1(compensation N and K through conventional fertilizers), T₇-RDF of P through NPS-2(compensation N and K through conventional fertilizers), T₈-RDF of P through NPS Zn (compensation N and K through conventional fertilizers), T₉-RDF+ Sulphur equivalent to NPS-1, T₁₀-RDF + Sulphur equivalent to NPS-2, T₁₁-RDF + Sulphur and Zn equivalent to NPS Zn. The treatment wise bulb yield of onion was recorded. The treatment wise soil samples upto 20 cm depth were collected. The processed soil samples were analyzed for different soil properties following standard procedures;

Available N by Alkaline potassium permanganate method (Subbiah and Asija, 1956). Available P by Olsen method (NaHCO₃, 0.5M) pH 8.5 colorimetric (Watanabe and Olsen, 1965), Available K by Neutral normal ammonium acetate using Flame photometer (Jackson, 1973), Available S by Turbidimetrically (CaCl₂ extract) Chesnin and Yien (1951), DTPA-Zn, Fe, Mn and Cu extracted with DTPA and recorded using atomic absorption spectrophotometer (Lindsay and Norvell, 1978).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Onion Bulb yield

The significantly highest onion bulb yield (397.75 q ha⁻¹) was recorded (Table 1) with the combined application of recommended dose of NPKS Zn (100:50:50:40:17.50 kg ha⁻¹ N, P₂O₅, K₂O, S and Zn) which was found at par with recommended dose NPKS through conventional fertilizer (387.79 q ha⁻¹) and recommended dose grade III (12:45:00:05:01) containing NPS Zn (compensation of N and K through conventional fertilizers). Among the customized fertilizer grades, the treatment of grade III (12:45:00:05:01) recorded significantly highest onion bulb yield (382.80 q ha⁻¹) as compared to the treatments of grade I (19:38:00:07) and grade II (12:46:00:07). This could be attributed to the supply of balanced nutrition which led to higher onion bulb yield. Similar results were recorded by Ghotekar *et al.* (2015) and Kamble and Kathmale (2015).

Table 1. Bulb yield of onion as influenced by various treatments

Treatments	Bulb Yield (q ha ⁻¹)
T ₁ Absolute Control	258.86
T ₂ RDF of NPK	316.39
T ₃ RDF of NPKS	387.79
T ₄ RDF of NPKS Zn	397.75
T ₅ RDF of NPK + FYM	383.28
T ₆ RDF of P through NPS-1(N and K through conventional fertilizers)	381.04
T ₇ RDF of P through NPS-2(N and K through conventional fertilizers)	379.15
T ₈ RDF of P through NPS Zn(N and K through conventional fertilizers)	382.80
T ₉ RDF of NPK + Sulphur equivalent to NPS 1 supplied in T ₆	377.96
T ₁₀ RDF of NPK + Sulphur equivalent to NPS 2 supplied in T ₇	374.84
T ₁₁ RDF of NPK + Sulphur and Zn equivalent to NPS Zn supplied in T ₈	380.02
SE (m) ±	15.20
CD at 5 %	44.82

Available major nutrients

The soil fertility exhibits the status of soil with regard to the quantity and availability of nutrients essential for plant growth. The significantly highest available N (192.1 kg ha⁻¹) was recorded with recommended dose of NPKS Zn (Table 2). Among the customized fertilizers grades treatments, the treatment of grade III (12:45:00:05:01) recorded significantly highest available nitrogen (184.7 kg ha⁻¹) as compared to the treatment of grade I (19:38:00:07) and grade II (12:46:00:07). Among the

customized grades treatments, the treatment of grade III (12:45:00:05:01) recorded significantly highest available phosphorus content (21.81 kg ha⁻¹) as compared to the treatment of grade I (19:38:00:07), grade II (12:45:00:07) and all other treatments and at par with application of RDF (NPKS Zn). Kamble and Kathmale (2015) reported highest available nitrogen and phosphorus in 125 per cent recommended dose of NPK through customized fertilizer in two equal splits.

Table 2. Available major nutrients in soil after harvest of onion

Treatments	Available nutrients (kg ha ⁻¹)			Av. S (mg kg ⁻¹)
	N	P	K	
T ₁ Absolute Control	140.3	14.28	302.8	7.34
T ₂ RDF of NPK	166.7	17.71	337.6	8.03
T ₃ RDF of NPKS	187.2	19.21	368.1	12.11
T ₄ RDF of NPKS Zn	192.1	21.62	387.1	13.06
T ₅ RDF of NPK + FYM	170.4	18.99	367.3	11.30
T ₆ RDF of P through NPS-1(N and K through conventional fertilizers)	182.2	19.73	366.3	11.75
T ₇ RDF of P through NPS-2(N and K through conventional fertilizers)	179.4	19.48	362.6	11.44
T ₈ RDF of P through NPS Zn(N and K through conventional fertilizers)	184.7	21.81	368.9	11.59
T ₉ RDF of NPK + Sulphur equivalent to NPS 1 supplied in T ₆	176.1	20.14	363.9	11.48
T ₁₀ RDF of NPK + Sulphur equivalent to NPS 2 supplied in T ₇	180.1	19.88	361.8	11.23
T ₁₁ RDF of NPK + Sulphur and Zn equivalent to NPS Zn supplied in T ₈	183.1	20.32	367.3	11.52
SE (m)±	5.0	0.25	4.81	0.50
CD at 5 %	14.8	0.76	14.2	1.47

Table 3. Available micronutrients in soil after harvest of onion

Treatments	Available micronutrients (mg kg ⁻¹)			
	Zn	Fe	Cu	Mn
T ₁ Absolute Control	0.52	9.34	3.45	11.07
T ₂ RDF of NPK	0.55	9.36	3.48	11.14
T ₃ RDF of NPKS	0.58	9.37	3.55	11.20
T ₄ RDF of NPKS Zn	0.67	9.42	3.59	11.27
T ₅ RDF of NPK + FYM	0.63	9.43	3.61	11.28
T ₆ RDF of P through NPS-1(N and K through conventional fertilizers)	0.55	9.37	3.52	11.21
T ₇ RDF of P through NPS-2(N and K through conventional fertilizers)	0.56	9.38	3.52	11.21
T ₈ RDF of P through NPS Zn(N and K through conventional fertilizers)	0.64	9.40	3.56	11.24
T ₉ RDF of NPK + Sulphur equivalent to NPS 1 supplied in T ₆	0.56	9.37	3.53	11.21
T ₁₀ RDF of NPK + Sulphur equivalent to NPS 2 supplied in T ₇	0.56	9.38	3.54	11.19
T ₁₁ RDF of NPK + Sulphur and Zn equivalent to NPS Zn supplied in T ₈	0.62	9.40	3.55	11.21
SE (m)±	0.017	0.03	0.05	0.04
CD at 5 %	0.050	NS	NS	NS

The significantly highest available potassium (387.1 kg ha^{-1}) was recorded in treatment of recommended dose of NPK + FYM which was followed by treatment recommended dose grade III through NPS Zn compensation of N and K through conventional fertilizers. Waikar *et al.* (2015) was also reported similar findings. The significantly highest available S (13.06 mg kg^{-1}) was recorded with application of RDF along with S and Zn whereas, customized grades treatments, through grade I NPS (19:38:00:07) recorded highest S (11.75 mg kg^{-1}) as compared to the treatment of grade II (12:46:00:07) and grade III (12:45:00:05:01), but these treatments found on par with each other. This could be attributed to the supply of S and Zn which showed synergistic effect on S in soil solution. In brief, it is noticed that, the availability of N, P, K, and S increased with the balanced application of nutrients through conventional fertilizers or customized fertilizers. The findings are in line with the results reported by Ghotekar *et al.* (2015).

Available micronutrients

The micronutrients are required in very less quantity by plant which is influenced by available nutrients in soil after harvest of onion. The significantly highest available Zn content (0.67 mg kg^{-1}) was recorded in treatment application of RDF +S and Zn (Table 3). Higher available iron (9.43 mg kg^{-1}), available copper (3.61 mg kg^{-1}), available manganese (11.28 mg kg^{-1}) were recorded with application of RDF + FYM. The slight increase in Fe with combined application of inorganic fertilizers and FYM may be due to the fact that FYM increased the available Fe in soil. Organic matter may hasten soil reduction and cause more CO_2 production resulting faster and greater accumulation of available Fe in the soil. This may be attributed to increased stability of Cu complex implicating presence of greater amount DTPA -Cu bound with organic matter. Waikar *et al.* (2015) also reported application of 100 per cent RDF +Grade II noticed highest availability of micronutrients (Zn, Fe Cu and Mn) as compared to other treatments.

CONCLUSION

It is inferred that, the application of balanced nutrition through conventional as well as customized fertilizers increased the onion bulb yield and improved available nutrients in soil after harvest of onion crop.

LITERATURE CITED

- Chesnin, L. and C.H. Yien, 1950. Turbidimetric determination of available sulphur. *Soil Sci. Soc. America. Proc.*, 15:149-151.
- Ghotekar, Pallavi, R.N. Katkar, V.K. Kharche, G.S. Laharia, S.M. Ghawade and S.R. Lakhe, 2015. Effect of sources & levels of sulphur on yield and quality of onion and soil fertility status, *J. Agric. Res. Tech.*, 40(1):163-166.
- Hänsch, R. and R. Mendel, 2009. Physiological functions of mineral micronutrients (Cu, Zn, Mn, Fe, Ni, Mo, B, Cl), *Current Opinion in Plant Biology*, 12:25-66.
- Jackson, M.L., 1973. *Soil Chemical Analysis* (Edn. 2) Prentice Hall of India Pvt. Ltd, New Delhi. 69-182.
- Kamble, B.M. and D.K. Kathmale, 2015. Effect of different levels of customized fertilizers on soil nutrient availability, yield and economics of onion, *J. Applied Natural Sci.*, 7(2): 817-821.
- Lindsay, W.L. and W.A. Norvell, 1978. Development of a DTPA soil test for zinc, iron, manganese and copper, *Soil Sci. Soc. America J.*, 42: 421-428.
- Randle, W. M and M. L. Bussard, 1993. Pungency and sugars of short day onion as affected by sulphur nutrition, *J. American Soc. Hort. Sci.*, 118:766-70.
- Subbiah, B.V. and G.L. Asija, 1956. A rapid procedure for the estimation of available nitrogen in soils, *Current Sci.*, 25: 259-260.
- Waikar, S.L., A.L. Dhamak, N.A. Meshram and V.D. Patil, 2015. Effect of speciality fertilizers on soil fertility, nutrient uptake, quality and productivity of cotton in Vertisols, *J. Agric. Sci.*, 8(2): 76-79.
- Watanabe, F.S. and S.R. Olsen, 1965. Test of ascorbic acid method for determining phosphorus in water and sodium bicarbonates extracts of soils, *Proc. Soil Sci. Soc. America*. 29: 677-678.



Received on 8.2.2019

Assessment of Spatial Variability of Major and Micro Nutrients in Soils of Amravati District of Maharashtra

R. N. Katkar¹, S. R. Lakhe², S. S. Hadole³ and P. A. Sarap⁴

ABSTRACT

Delineation of major and micronutrients was carried out by randomly collected georeferenced surface (0-20) cm soil samples representing different soil units from 768 sites of 128 villages in Amravati district of Maharashtra using Global Positioning System (GPS) to study the variability in availability of major and micro nutrients during 2011-12. The results revealed that pH, EC, CaCO₃ and OC of soils collected across different tehsils of Amravati district varied from 6.00 to 9.15, 0.101 to 0.510 dS m⁻¹, 1.62 to 12.12 per cent and 1.00 to 9.88 g kg⁻¹, respectively. Whereas, available NPK and S in soils ranged from 101.7 to 296.5 kg ha⁻¹, 2.21 to 46.80 kg ha⁻¹, 134.4 to 1019.2 kg ha⁻¹ and 8.83 to 47.93 mg kg⁻¹, respectively. The DTPA-Zn, Fe, Cu and Mn in soil of the study area ranged from 0.11 to 5.31 mg kg⁻¹, 2.49 to 49.62 mg kg⁻¹, 0.77 to 6.84 mg kg⁻¹ and 1.22 to 58.20 mg kg⁻¹, respectively. The low nutrient index was found in respect to available nitrogen (1.03), medium for available phosphorus (1.87), sulphur (2.02), zinc (1.68) and iron (1.71) and high for available potassium (2.76), copper (2.99) and manganese (2.68). The results obtained in the present study clearly showed a large variability in chemical properties of soil across the Amravati district. This information could aid in decision making for application of plant nutrients for higher monetary returns to the farmers and extension functionaries.

Green revolution has triggered to achieve higher production and nutritional security in the country. However, intensive cultivation of high yielding varieties, increased imbalanced use of fertilizers devoid of secondary and micronutrients, decreased use of organic manures and lack of crop residue recycling have led to depletion of native nutrient fertility and resulted in wide spread deficiencies of all nutrients. Application of fertilizers on the basis of soil characteristics associated with fertilizers recommendation may aid in minimizing the fertilizers input without any yield loss (Yadav *et al.*, 2018). Understanding of nutrient variability and distribution of soil properties is critical for farmers attempting to increase nutrients use efficiency and crop productivity. Information technology has provided tools *viz.*, Global Positioning System (GPS) which helps in collecting a systematic set of georeferenced soil samples and generating the spatial data about the distribution of nutrients through Geographical Information System (GIS). The information about spatial variability in chemical properties of soil had great importance in the selection of crops and cropping system and also extent the ideas about prevailing management practices (Weindorf and Zhu, 2010; Liu *et al.*, 2013). Imbalanced and inadequate use of fertilizers coupled with low use efficiency of other inputs led to

decline in the response efficiency of chemical fertilizer nutrients under intensive agriculture in recent years. The deficiency of major and micronutrients has become major constraint in sustainable crop productivity of soils and hence, there is need to know the spatial variability of nutrients of the soil (Katkar *et al.* 2018). Keeping this in view, the present investigation was undertaken to assess the status of major and micronutrients in soils and to identify and delineate areas of nutrient deficiencies in Amravati district of Maharashtra.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Description of the study area

Amravati district of Maharashtra is situated between 20° 32' to 21° 46' North latitude and 76° 37' to 77° 27' East longitude. Total geographical area of the district is 12,21,700 ha and is divided into fourteen tehsils (Dharni, Chikhaldara, Anjangaon, Achalpur, Chandur bazaar, Morshi, Warud, Tiwasa, Amravati, Bhatkuli, Daryapur, Nandgaon (Khandeshwar), Chandur (Railway) and Dhamangaon. Average annual temperature of the district is maximum of 44.5°C and minimum of 12.40°C with mean annual rainfall of 842 mm.

Soil sampling and analysis

GPS based seven hundred sixty eight surface

1. Professor, 2. Research Associate, 3. Associate Professor and 4. Assistant Professor, Department of Soil Science and Agricultural Chemistry, Dr. Panjabrao Deshmukh Krishi Vidyapeeth, Akola

soil samples (0-20 cm) were collected from 128 villages across all the fourteen tehsils of Amravati district. The sampling villages were selected using stratified random method. Six farmers from each village were selected based on land holdings. The soil samples were processed and analyzed for pH and EC in soil:water suspensions (1:2.5 w/v) as described by Jackson (1973). Organic carbon was determined by wet oxidation method described by Walkley and Black (Nelson and Sommers, 1982) and free CaCO₃ was determined by Rapid titration method (Piper, 1966). Available N was estimated by alkaline permanganate method (Subbiah and Asija, 1956), available P by Bray's method (Bray and Kurtz, 1945), available K by ammonium acetate extraction method (Jackson, 1967) and available S was estimated by turbidimetric method (Chesnin and Yien, 1951). Soil samples were extracted with 0.005M diethylene triamine penta acetic acid (DTPA) for estimation of available Zn, Fe, Cu and Mn using Atomic Absorption Spectrophotometer (Lindsay and Norvell, 1978). The nutrient indices were calculated by using the formula given by Parker *et al.* (1951) and categorized into low (<1.66), medium (1.66 – 2.33) and high (>2.33).

The major and micronutrients were categorized as low, medium and high which is followed in Maharashtra state (Table 1).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Soil properties

Data regarding various chemical properties of soils is depicted in Table 2. The pH of soils in study area was recorded slightly acidic to alkaline (6.00 – 9.15). The highest pH was observed in Amravati tehsil (9.15) and lowest in Chikhaldara tehsil (6.00). Maximum soil samples were found neutral to moderately alkaline in nature. All the soils were non-saline (0.101 to 0.510 dS m⁻¹) in nature and suitable for plant growth with a mean value of 0.17 dS m⁻¹ which was in normal range (< 1 dS m⁻¹). The organic carbon content in soils ranged from 1.00 to 9.88 g kg⁻¹. Calcium carbonate content in soils of the district varied from 1.62 to 12.12 per cent, which indicated, the soils are calcareous in nature. High calcium carbonate is harmful; it reduces the concentration of micronutrient cations in soils to such a level that the sensitive plant suffers from deficiency of micronutrients (Deb *et al.* 2012). The higher calcium carbonate content was noticed in Achalpur,

Anjangaon, Bhatkuli and Dhamangaon tehsils. Organic carbon deficiency was recorded in 43.61 per cent soil samples across the district. The high temperature during summer and meager use of organic matter might have shown its deficiency in Amravati district. The soil samples collected from tehsils Warud, Chandur, Chandurbazar and Anjangaon showed organic carbon deficiency in 68.75, 63.90, 54.54 and 52.10 per cent samples respectively, indicating soils are heavily depleted in soil organic carbon.

Table 1. Categorization of soil parameters and nutrients

S.N.	Parameters	Low	Medium	High
1	pH (1:2.5)	<6.5 (Acidic)	6.5-7.5 (Neutral)	>7.5 (Alkaline)
2	EC (dS m ⁻¹)	<1.0	1-2	>2.0
3	O.C. (g kg ⁻¹)	<4.0	4-8	>8.0
4	CaCO ₃ (%)	<3.0	3-8	>8.0
5	N (kg ha ⁻¹)	<280	280-560	>560
6	P (kg ha ⁻¹)	<14	14-28	>28
7	K (kg ha ⁻¹)	<150	150-250	>250
8	S (mg kg ⁻¹)	<10.0	10-20	>20.0
9	Zn (mg kg ⁻¹)	<0.60	0.6-1.80	>1.80
10	Fe (mg kg ⁻¹)	<4.50	4.50-18.0	>18.0
11	Cu (mg kg ⁻¹)	<0.20	0.20-0.80	>0.80
12	Mn (mg kg ⁻¹)	<2.0	2.0-8.0	>8.0

(Source: Dr. PDKV, Akola)

Macronutrients status

Data pertaining to macronutrients status of soils in all tehsils of the study area presented in Table 3. Available nitrogen was noticed in the range of 101.7 to 296.5 kg ha⁻¹, which showed widespread deficiency to the extent of 97 per cent. The deficiency of available nitrogen might be due to very less addition of organic manures and heavy uptake under intensive cultivation of improved high yielding varieties of different crops. Available P varied from very low to medium (2.21 – 46.80 kg ha⁻¹) indicating 34.38 per cent deficiency across the district. The deficiency of available P ascribed to its fixation in the form of calcium phosphate due to alkaline nature of soil. The available K ranged from 134 to 1019 kg ha⁻¹ and 3.12 per cent samples were found deficient while 17.05 per cent samples were found medium. The higher K status under these soils could be attributed to more intense weathering

Table 2. Chemical properties of soils in Amravati district

S.N.	Tehsils	Total No. of samples	pH (1:2.5)		EC (dS m ⁻¹)		CaCO ₃ (%)		Organic carbon(g kg ⁻¹)	
			Range	Mean	Range	Mean	Range	Mean	Range	Mean
1	Dharni	72	6.10-7.30	6.68	0.101-0.241	0.16	1.62-9.37	6.79	1.09-9.88	5.84
2	Chikaldara	78	6.00-8.51	7.32	0.102-0.260	0.15	3.12-11.9	7.06	1.31-9.24	6.25
3	Anjangaon	48	8.01-8.90	8.55	0.138-0.225	0.17	5.87-11.75	9.78	1.06-8.90	4.52
4	Achalpur	66	8.10-8.91	8.45	0.124-0.510	0.17	7.50-12.12	10.16	1.00-8.79	4.68
5	Chandurbazar	66	7.10-8.40	7.93	0.101-0.414	0.15	4.87-10.87	7.58	1.08-8.99	4.50
6	Morshi	48	7.11-8.06	7.65	0.102-0.184	0.14	5.12-10.25	7.72	1.05-9.11	4.31
7	Warud	48	6.97-8.05	7.61	0.108-0.181	0.14	3.12-9.50	6.66	1.08-8.95	3.56
8	Tiwasa	36	7.15-7.92	7.72	0.111-0.189	0.15	5.25-9.75	7.45	1.06-8.99	4.69
9	Amravati	48	8.05-9.15	8.49	0.115-0.330	0.21	6.30-10.87	8.83	1.07-8.93	4.64
10	Bhatkuli	54	7.38-8.75	8.41	0.101-0.393	0.19	7.00-11.25	9.36	1.02-8.78	3.91
11	Daryapur	66	7.45-8.71	8.23	0.125-0.285	0.21	5.00-11.25	8.14	1.01-8.93	3.98
12	Nandgaon Kh.	60	7.35-8.25	7.90	0.110-0.218	0.17	3.0-10.25	7.72	1.10-8.96	4.36
13	Chandur	36	7.08-8.12	7.73	0.101-0.221	0.16	2.00-10.75	8.17	1.04-8.18	3.84
14	Dhamangaon	42	7.35-8.25	7.78	0.134-0.225	0.17	4.75-11.00	8.19	1.15-9.10	4.60
	Amravati district	768	6.00-9.15	7.86	0.101-0.510	0.17	1.62-12.12	8.08	1.00-9.88	4.65

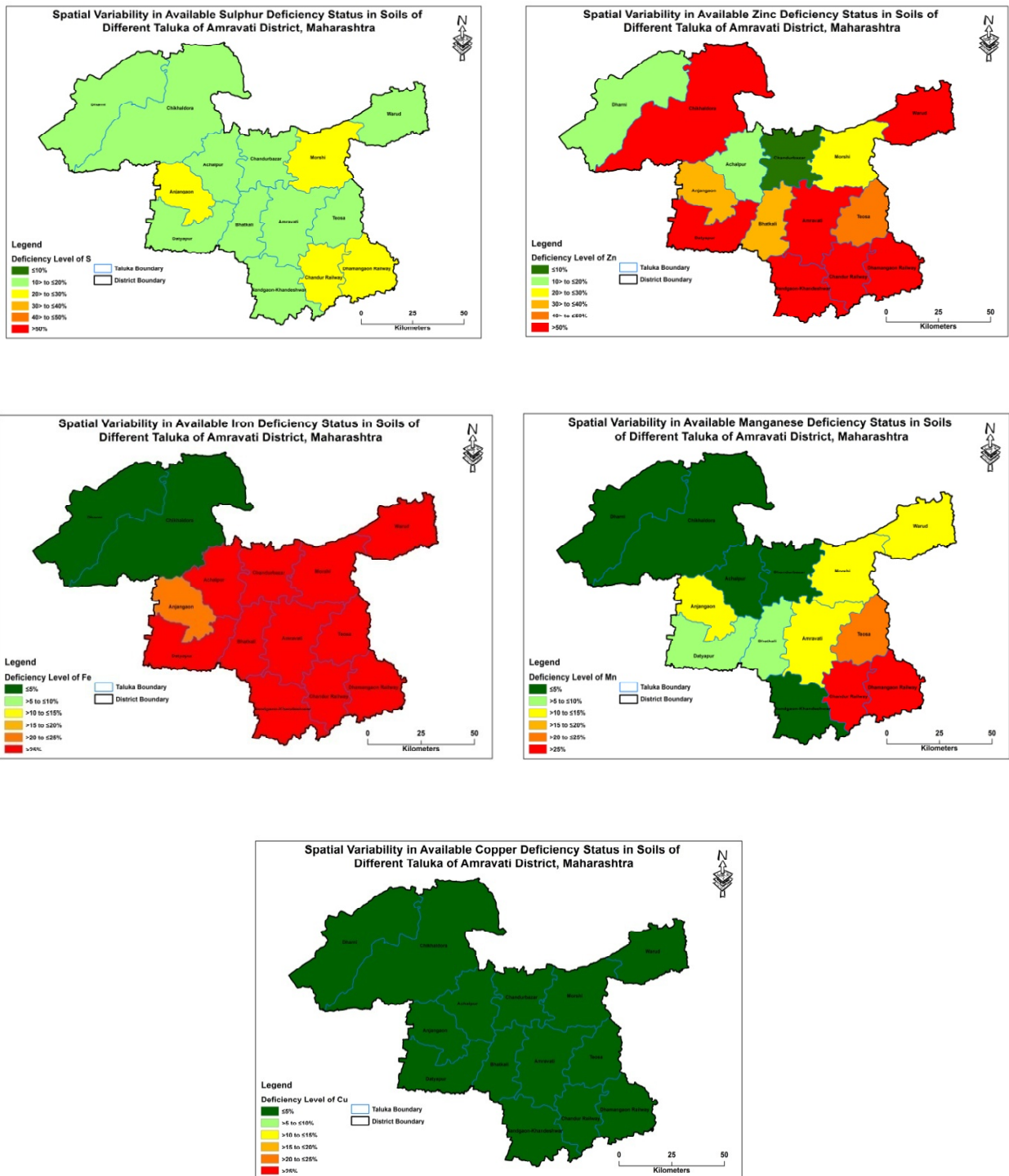


Fig. 1. Spatial variability of secondary and micronutrients in soils of Amravati district of Maharashtra

of K bearing minerals, release of labile K from organic residues, application of K fertilizers and upward translocation of K from lower depths along with capillary rise of ground water (Sharma and Anil Kumar, 2003). During post green revolution era, the available potassium was considered very high in many soils. The recent trends indicated that slight potassium deficiency occurred, showing response to its addition. The available sulphur varied from low to very high (8.83 to 47.93 g kg⁻¹) with 17.19 per cent deficiency, whereas 63.15 per cent samples were found medium (Fig. 1). The intensive cropping coupled with high analysis fertilizers devoid of sulphur might be depleting the sulphur status of soil. The application of balanced nutrition to the crops under intensive cultivation is essential for maintaining the soil fertility and sustainable productivity.

Micronutrients status

Data regarding micronutrients status of soils in Amravati district of Maharashtra are presented in Table 4 and Fig. 1. DTPA-Zn of Amravati district as a whole, varied from 0.11 to 5.31 mg kg⁻¹ indicating 43.3 per cent deficiency, whereas 44.7 per cent samples of available Zn were noticed in medium category showing widespread deficiency of zinc. The highest deficiency of zinc was observed in Dhamangaon tehsil followed by Daryapur, Amravati and Chandur. The availability of micronutrient cations is generally low in alkaline soils and crops grown on these soils suffer from hidden hunger (Malewar, 2005). Major crops grown in these tehsils are cotton, soybean, pigeonpea, sorghum, pulses (blackgram, greengram and chickpea), pearl millet, maize, safflower, sunflower and sesamum etc. The fruit crops like oranges and banana are also grown primarily in Warud tehsil. Intensive cultivation of these crops might have mined the zinc along with N, P and K over a long period. All the tehsils indicated wide spread zinc deficiency in the district. The deficiency of nutrients creates imbalance in soils which results into nutritional stress in plants. High pH and high contents of CaCO₃ can fix Zn in the soil and give rise to the reduction of available zinc (Hafeez *et al.*, 2013).

DTPA-Fe content showed wide variation (2.49 to 49.62 mg kg⁻¹) in the soils of Amravati district. Considering the soils having < 4.5 mg kg⁻¹ as low, 4.5 to 18.0 mg kg⁻¹ as medium and > 18.0 mg kg⁻¹ as high in iron

status, the distribution of soil samples under these categories was 47.8, 33.2 and 19.0 per cent, respectively indicating that the soils are becoming deficient in iron like that of zinc. Shukla *et al.* (2016) reported low Fe content in forage and food grains produced in arid and semi-arid regions is attributed to acute Fe deficiency in soils (85% in Rajasthan, 23% in Gujrat, 22 % in Haryana and 21% in Maharashtra). Patil *et al.* (2004) reported 40.0 and 34.7 percent soils deficient in zinc and iron respectively in Vidarbha.

The DTPA extractable Cu in the soils of the study area ranged from 0.77 to 6.84 mg kg⁻¹. Patil and Sonar (1994) reported that, in swell-shrink soils of Maharashtra, available Cu was in the range of 0.58 to 1.7 mg kg⁻¹. The majority of soils in Amravati district were found sufficient in Cu content.

The DTPA-Mn status of soils ranged from 1.22 to 58.20 mg kg⁻¹. Gajbhe *et al.* (1976) reported that available Mn content in surface soils of Marathwada ranged from 13.3 to 65.20 mg kg⁻¹. Soils of Amravati district were sufficient in Mn and Cu.

Nutrient indices

The nutrient indices across the Amravati district (Table 5) ranged from 1.0-1.11, 1.52-2.09, 2.38-3.00 for available N, P and K, respectively, whereas it ranged from 1.82-2.38, 1.31 – 2.08, 1.04 – 2.81, 2.97 – 3.00 and 1.52 – 2.90 for available S, Zn, Fe, Mn and Cu, respectively. Notably low fertility rating was recorded for N in most of the tehsils, high for K, Cu and Mn, medium for P, S, Zn and Fe. In nutshell, overall fertility rating for nutrients in the soils of Amravati district revealed low N, high K, Cu and Mn and medium P, S, Zn and Fe status. The areas where the status of nutrients is medium may show deficiency in near future if the due care will not be taken for addition of organic manures and inorganic micronutrient fertilizers based on soil testing by the cultivators in the districts for intensive cultivation of different crops.

CONCLUSION

The information technology based GPS-GIS technique has been found useful for systematic mapping of spatial variability of macro and micro nutrients. Among the macro nutrients, nitrogen with 97 per cent samples was found deficient, phosphorus with 34.38 per cent

Table 3. Macronutrients status in soils of Amravati district

S. N.	Tehsils	Available nutrients (kg ha ⁻¹)					
		N		P		K	
		Range	PSD	Range	PSD	Range	PSD
1	Dharni	158.0 - 294.8	91.66	2.25 - 41.78	54.14	145.6 - 638.4	4.16
2	Chikaldara	164.9 - 296.5	88.46	2.50 - 35.10	42.30	201.6 - 840.0	00
3	Anjangaon	105.4 - 295.0	89.60	6.24 - 37.06	18.75	148.0 - 873.6	2.08
4	Achalpur	101.7 - 289.0	93.93	6.02 - 39.04	22.72	146.8 - 1019.2	4.54
5	Chandurbazar	108.2 - 273.9	100	8.45 - 35.17	40.90	134.4 - 974.4	3.03
6	Morshi	115.9 - 210.7	100	6.29 - 33.26	27.08	190.4 - 1019.2	00
7	Warud	110.2 - 221.3	100	2.21 - 34.57	35.41	134.4 - 806.4	4.16
8	Tiwasa	103.5 - 200.0	100	8.26 - 46.80	25.00	302.4 - 974.4	00
9	Amravati	104.9 - 242.3	100	8.33 - 41.18	20.83	146.8 - 918.4	4.16
10	Bhatkuli	126.4 - 259.8	100	6.39 - 36.60	48.14	134.4 - 918.4	5.55
11	Daryapur	106.3 - 242.3	100	7.37 - 33.52	42.42	201.6 - 996.8	00
12	Nandgaon Kh.	115.9 - 238.9	100	8.64 - 41.54	25.00	208.9 - 851.2	00
13	Chandur	119.8 - 231.8	100	8.39 - 32.42	38.88	138.8 - 638.4	5.55
14	Dhamangaon	116.6 - 245.9	100	6.16 - 41.57	21.42	134.4 - 795.2	14.28
	Amravati district	101.7 - 296.5	96.9	2.21 - 46.80	34.38	134.4 - 1019.2	3.12

PSD - Per cent sample deficient

Table 4. Micronutrients status in soils of Amravati district

S.N.	Tehsils	Available micronutrients (mg kg ⁻¹)											
		Zn			Fe			Cu			Mn		
		Range	PSD		Range	PSD		Range	PSD		Range	PSD	
1	Dhami	0.35-5.31	15.3		4.53-48.06	0		2.30-6.63	0		5.20-58.20	0	
2	Chikaldara	0.11-3.21	50.0		4.67-49.62	0		1.06-6.62	0		4.42-52.65	0	
3	Anjangaon	0.26-3.67	45.8		3.45-39.93	25.0		0.86-6.36	0		1.80-39.34	0	
4	Achalpur	0.34-4.93	24.2		2.49-35.0	28.8		1.38-6.52	0		4.26-48.00	0	
5	Chandurbazar	0.26-4.42	19.70		3.90-20.58	30.3		1.33-6.84	0		1.82-39.88	0	
6	Morshi	0.44-3.58	25.0		4.05-14.12	50.0		1.24-6.82	0		1.57-45.36	0	
7	Warud	0.25-2.78	58.33		4.22-18.71	62.5		0.77-6.14	0		2.63-19.86	0	
8	Tiwasa	0.22-3.85	44.4		3.26-16.40	94.4		1.02-6.78	0		2.26-37.14	0	
9	Amravati	0.16-3.99	64.6		3.13-11.7	95.8		1.40-6.82	0		1.47-19.93	0	
10	Bhatkuli	0.27-4.34	37.0		3.24-16.82	33.3		0.88-5.35	0		1.22-19.95	1.8	
11	Daryapur	0.17-1.60	65.15		3.53-15.87	74.2		1.24-5.21	0		1.79-49.67	1.5	
12	Nandgaon Kh.	0.35-2.51	51.7		4.12-11.05	73.3		1.14-6.79	0		3.04-39.02	0	
13	Chandur	0.23-1.00	261.1		3.49-13.9	92.7		1.03-6.63	0		2.12-17.98	0	
14	Dhamangaon	0.19-1.38	69.1		4.16-7.12	90.5		1.25-6.00	0		2.17-16.54	0	
	Amravati district	0.11-5.31	43.3		2.49-49.62	47.8		0.77-6.84	0		1.22-58.20	0.3	

PSD - Per cent sample deficient

Table 5. Nutrient index values of soil available nutrients in different tehsils of Amravati district

S.N.	Name of the tehsils	No. of samples	Available nutrients					Available micronutrients				
			N	P	K	S	Zn	Fe	Cu	Mn		
1	Dharni	72	1.08	1.52	2.62	1.82	2.01	2.67	3.00	2.90		
2	Chikaldara	78	1.11	1.73	2.79	1.96	1.58	2.81	3.00	2.81		
3	Anjangaon	48	1.10	2.08	2.91	2.21	1.60	1.96	3.00	2.54		
4	Achalpur	66	1.06	2.09	2.75	2.38	1.93	1.84	3.00	2.83		
5	Chandurbazar	66	1.0	1.83	2.84	2.08	2.08	1.80	3.00	2.77		
6	Morshi	48	1.0	1.99	2.87	1.94	2.02	1.58	3.00	2.43		
7	Warud	48	1.0	1.93	2.70	1.98	1.54	1.48	2.97	2.75		
8	Tiwasa	36	1.0	1.91	3.00	2.17	1.75	1.06	3.00	2.31		
9	Amravati	48	1.0	2.10	2.72	2.13	1.48	1.04	3.00	2.58		
10	Bhatkuli	54	1.0	1.72	2.64	2.04	1.69	1.67	3.00	2.70		
11	Daryapur	66	1.0	1.72	2.93	2.20	1.45	1.26	3.00	2.67		
12	Nandgaon Kh.	60	1.0	2.05	2.78	1.88	1.50	1.27	3.00	2.80		
13	Chandur	36	1.0	1.66	2.69	1.83	1.39	1.08	3.00	2.33		
14	Dhamangaon	42	1.0	1.99	2.38	1.89	1.31	1.10	3.00	1.52		
	Over all Mean	768	1.03	1.87	2.76	2.02	1.68	1.71	2.99	2.68		

Low - < 1.66, Medium - 1.66 - 2.33, High - > 2.33

sample was found medium and potassium with 3.12 per cent sample was found sufficient, whereas sulphur with 17.19 per cent sample was found medium. The soils of Amravati district showed wide spread deficiency of zinc (43.3%) and iron (47.8%). The current status of spatial variability of micronutrients in soils of Amravati district will be helpful to suggest the efficient ways and methods of balanced nutrient application for enhancing the yields by using recommended quantities of organic manures and inorganic fertilizers in the areas of major and micronutrients deficiency.

LITERATURE CITED

- Bray, R.H. and L.T. Kurtz, 1945. Determination of total, organic and available forms of phosphorus in soil, *Soil Sci.*, 59 : 39-45.
- Chesnin, L and C. H. Yein, 1951. Turbidimetric determination of available sulphates, *Proc. Soil Sci. Soc. of America*, 15: 149-157.
- Deb, D. L., L. R. Sakal, and S. P. Datta, 2012. Micronutrients : In *Fundamental of Soil Science*, Indian Soc. Soil Sci., : 441-490.
- Gajbhe, M. V., M. G. Lande, and S. B. Varade, 1976. Soils of Marathwada, *J. Maharashtra Agri. Univ.*, 1 (2-6) : 55-59.
- Hafeez B., Y.M. Khanif and M. Saleem, 2013. Role of zinc in plant nutrition- A Review, *American J. Experimental Agric.*, 3(2) : 374-391.
- Jackson, M. L. 1967. *Soil Chemical Analysis* Prentice Hall of India, Pvt. Ltd New Delhi.
- Jackson, M. L. 1973. *Soil Chemical Analysis* (Eds.) Prentice Hall of India, Pvt. Ltd New Delhi.
- Katkar, R.N., S.R. Lakhe, V.K. Khariche, P.N. Magare and G.S. Laharia, 2018. Spatial variability of major and micro nutrients in soils of Bhandara District, Maharashtra, *Agropedology*, 27 (01) : 56-62.
- Lindsay, W. L., and W. A. Norvell, 1978. Development of a DTPA soil test for zinc, iron, manganese and copper, *Soil Sci. Soc. America J.*, 42: 421-428.
- Liu, Z.P., M. A. Shao, and Y.Q. Wang, 2013. Spatial patterns of soil total nitrogen and soil total phosphorus across the entire Loess Plateau region of China, *Proc. of Environ. Sci.*, 10 : 14-19.
- Malewar, G. U., 2005. Micronutrient stresses in soils and crops: Serious sickness and clinical approaches for sustainable agriculture, *J. Indian Soc. Soil Sci.*, 53 (4) : 484-499.
- Nelson, D. W. and L. E. Sommers, 1982. In : *Methods of Soil Analysis, Part II, Chemical and Microbiological Methods* by Page, A. L., R. H. Miller and D. R. Keeney (eds.) *Agronomy Monograph No. 9* (2nd edition), American Soc. Agronomy and Soil Sci. Soc. of America, Madison, Wisconsin, USA : 570-572.
- Parker, F. W., W. L. Nelson, E. Winters and I. F. Miles, 1951. The broad interpretation and application of soil test information, *Agronomy J.*, 43 : 105-112.
- Patil, D. B., P. R. Bharambe, P. W. Deshmukh, P. V Rane and V. D. Guldekar, 2004. Micronutrient status in soils of Vidharba, *Technical Bulletin Dr. PDKV, Akola*. 1-68
- Patil, Y. M. and K. R. Sonar, 1994. Status of major and micronutrients in swell-shrink soils of Maharashtra, *J. Maharashtra Agril. Univ.* 19(2) : 169-172
- Piper, C. S. 1966. *Soil and Plant Analysis*, Hans. Pub. Bombay. Asian Ed. Pp 368-374.
- Sharma, V. K. and Anil Kumar, 2003. Characterization and classification of the soil of upper Maul Khad catchment in wet temperate zone of Himachal Pradesh, *Agropedology* 13: 39-49.
- Shukla Arvind K., Pankaj K. Tiwari, Abhijit Pakhare and Prakash Chandra, 2016. Zinc and Iron in Soil, Plant, Animal and Human Health, *Indian J. Fertilizers*, 12(11) : 133-149
- Subbiah, B. V. and G. L. Asija, 1956. A rapid procedure for the estimation of available nitrogen in soils, *Current Sci.*, 25 : 258 - 260.
- Weindorf, D.C. and Y. Zhu, 2010. Spatial variability of soil properties at Capulin Volcano, New Mexico, USA : Implications for sampling strategy, *Pedosphere*, 20(2) : 185-197.
- Yadav Tikam Chand, H. K. Rai, G. S. Tagore, Dayanindhi Chaubey and R. Dhakad, 2018. Assessment of spatial variability in physico-chemical properties of soils in Alirajpur district of Madhya Pradesh using Geostatistical approach, *J. Soil & Water Conservation*, 17(4) : 317-324.



Received on 15.5.2019

Effect of Post-shooting Foliar Spray of Potassium on Yield and Quality Attributes of Banana

Aparna Peche¹, S. G. Bharad², P. L. Deshmukh³ and P. S. Joshi⁴

ABSTRACT

The present experiment entitled “Studies on post-shooting foliar application of potassium on yield and quality of banana” was conducted at Department of Horticulture, Dr. Panjabrao Deshmukh Krishi Vidyapeeth, Akola with an objective to study the effect of post shooting foliar applications of potassium on yield and quality of banana and find out suitable source and concentration of potassium to maximize yield and quality in banana. The results of experiment revealed that, the post shooting foliar spraying of sulphate of potash at 1.5 per cent resulted in obtaining higher quality yield with relatively higher benefit: cost ratio. The plant growth in terms of higher number of leaves per plant, maximum leaf chlorophyll with minimum days required to maturity were recorded in the plants which received foliar application of sulphate of potash @ 1.5 per cent. The yield attributing characters viz. maximum bunch weight, more number of hands per bunch and number of fingers per hand with maximum finger weight were found associated with post shooting foliar application of 1.5 per cent Sulphate of potash. Similarly maximum fruit yield ha⁻¹ was also recorded in the same treatment with a minimum physiological losses and maximum shelf life. The superior fruit quality in respect of fruit size, total soluble solids, titratable acidity, total sugars and sugar: acid ratio was also recorded in 1.5 per cent SOP through foliar applications. The same treatment was also found superior in respect of benefit: cost ratio.

Banana (*Musa* spp.) is one of the oldest tropical fruits cultivated by man from the pre-historic time in India with great socio-economic significance. It is grown in all tropical regions and plays a key role in the economics of many developing countries. Banana and plantains are grown in about 120 countries. Banana is cultivated in the world in area of 4.80 million ha with global production of 99.99 million tones having productivity of 20.80 Mt ha⁻¹. India contributes 33.40 per cent in total world production of banana and ranked first in area and production in the world. In India, Maharashtra is leading state in banana production where banana is grown on 83,000 ha having a total production of 4.83 million tons with the productivity of 58.20 tons ha⁻¹ (Anon., 2017).

Banana being a gross feeder requires high amount of nutrients for proper growth and production. However, it draws the nutrients from a very limited soil depth because of its shallow root system. The choice and dosage of nutrients to be applied depends on the cultivar, initial soil fertility, stage of plant growth, climate etc. Now-a-days, the practices of application of chemicals on banana bunch for improving the growth, maturity, yield and quality of fruits is gaining popularity.

A judicious use of fertilizers not only gives high yield but also improves the quality of the fruit. Banana is a potassium loving crop and high potassium availability is important at fruiting stage. Any limitation in the supply of nutrients at the shooting stage affects bunch size and quality in banana. Among the several factors affecting fruit quality, adequate potassium application is considered to be of utmost importance in banana cultivation. Potassium is known to influence fruit yield in general and fruit quality in particular (Tandon and Sekhon, 1988). It helps in photosynthesis thus, reflecting in fruit size and yield. The higher chlorophyll content in leaves and developing fruits reflects the efficiency of photosynthesis.

Even though K is abundant in many banana growing soils, the bulk of soil K is unavailable to plants due to both plant and environmental factors, therefore additional application through bunch feeding has been found beneficial. In high value crop like banana quality standards have become the most important factor influencing yield and farmer's income.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

The present investigation entitled “Studies on

1 & 3 PG Scholar, 2. Professor & Head and 4. Asstt. Professor, Department of Fruit Science, Faculty of Horticulture, Dr. Panjabrao Deshmukh Krishi Vidyapeeth, Akola, Maharashtra.

post-shooting foliar application of potassium on yield and quality of banana” was conducted during 2013-14 at Main garden Department of Horticulture and analytical work was carried out at analytical laboratory of Department of Horticulture, Dr. Panjabrao Deshmukh Krishi Vidyapeeth, Akola.

The experiment was laid out in Randomized Block Design with nine treatments with two different sources of potash fertilizers viz., SOP and KH_2PO_4 @ 0.5, 1.0, 1.5 and 2.0 per cent respectively along with control treatment which were replicated three times. The treatments were imposed to the crop during two different stages of crop growth. The first spray was given immediately after opening of the last hand and second, exactly one month after first spray.

The observations on the total number of leaves retained at harvest, the total chlorophyll content (Yoshida *et al.*, 1971), number of days taken from shooting to harvest (maturity days), weight of the bunch, total number of hands and fingers in a bunch, average weight of the finger, pulp weight, peel weight and their ratio (Gottreich *et al.*, 1964), TSS, the total sugars (Somogyi, 1952), titrable acidity (A.O.A.C., 1960), sugar/acid ratio and physiological loss in weight and shelf life were made.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Growth parameters

Foliar spray of potassium significantly increased the number of leaves at harvest and recorded highest (15.0) with the application of 1.5 per cent SOP treatment. Baruah and Mohan, (1991) indicated that reduced longevity of banana leaves can be due to high mobility of K from old leaves to other plant parts and as a result, leaf duration can be severely hampered by low K content.

In the present investigation, the relative decrease in leaf number at harvest was low in plants receiving foliar spray. The data regarding leaves per plant is depicted in Fig.1. The synthesis and transport of plant assimilates to the developing banana fruit is greatly affected by the retention of green leaves after the flowering stage, especially when assimilate flow from other plant parts becomes limiting. Senescing leaves also contribute their own stored assimilates to developing fruit.

Banana plants receiving foliar spray of potassium had significantly higher leaf chlorophyll content (2.03 mg leaf⁻¹) at harvest. The data regarding leaf chlorophyll content is depicted in Fig.1. Retention of chlorophyll pigment during the post-shooting growth stage helps fruit bunches accumulate photosynthates, thus contributing to fruit bunch size, days to maturity and yield (Kannan, 1980).

Post shooting spray of SOP significantly reduced the maturity days. When compared to other treatments, SOP spray took lesser number of days (58.67) for fruit maturity and it was the shortest at 1.5 per cent SOP. In post shooting nutrient spray investigation, the reduction in bunch development phase was noticed due to faster growth rate of fingers that was evident from higher leaf chlorophyll contents owing to additional nutrient supply and faster rate of translocation of assimilates from source to sink, aided by additional K (Evans, 1971).

Physicochemical parameters

All plant bunches treated with different potassium sources and their concentrations were significantly different. An application of 1.5 per cent SOP produced the heaviest fingers (160.17 g) which was at par with 2.0 per cent SOP (149.63 g) and 2.0 per cent KH_2PO_4 (147.97 g). On the contrary, control plant bunches produced the lightest fingers (113.93 g). The data regarding finger weight is depicted in Fig. 2. Increase in finger weight by foliar applications of potassium might be due to the increase in production of promoting endogenous and enhancement of nutrient uptake in addition to the role of potassium on productivity of banana plants (Nijjar, 2000).

The bunch sprayed with the potassium substances had significant effects on pulp weight per finger. The maximum pulp weight (134.80 g) was recorded when the bunch sprayed with 1.5 per cent sulphate of potash. While, the minimum pulp weight (92.70 g) was recorded in control (T_0).

The bunch sprayed with the potassium substances had significant effects on peel weight. The maximum peel weight (25.37 g) was recorded in where the bunch sprayed with 1.5 per cent sulphate of potash, while, the minimum peel weight (21.23 g) was recorded in control (T_0).

Increase in pulp and peel weight might be due to efficient partitioning of carbohydrates and mobilization in developing bunches resulting in good pulp and peel recovery. The accelerated rate of cell division and enlargement favoured by auxin biosynthesis prompted by nitrogen and potassium recorded higher pulp and peel weight per finger (Mulagund *et al.*, 2015). And also influence of potassium on filling of banana fingers has been registered by earlier workers like Mustaffa *et al.*, (2004) in Cv. Nendran.

Perceptible differences were realized for pulp: peel ratio among the different concentration of SOP and KH_2PO_4 . However, spraying of 1.5 and 2.0 per cent of SOP relatively registered higher ratios (5.32 and 5.19 respectively).

The increase in pulp weight, peel weight and pulp to peel ratio of banana might be due to post shooting foliar applications of potassium in which potassium plays an important role in the translocation of newly synthesized photosynthates and had a beneficial effect on the mobilization of stored material (Mengal and Kirkby, 1987). Potassium also involved in the activation of more than 60 enzymes, which are necessary for essential plant processes such as energy utilization, starch synthesis, N metabolism and respiration (Wallingford, 1980).

Quality parameters

The data presented in table 1 showed the quality character viz., TSS, Total sugar Titratable acidity, Sugar: Acid ratio, shelf life and organoleptic test in banana which were affected due to various foliar applications of fertilizers. All these parameters had significant difference through various treatments. The maximum TSS percentage was noted in foliar spray of SOP @ 1.5 per cent. This might be due to post shooting application of K favours the conservation of starch into simple sugars during ripening by activating sucrose synthase enzyme, resulting higher sugar content in fruits. Similar results were also noted by Kumar and Kumar (2008) and Kumar (2010) in banana.

In banana, fruit quality is mainly judged by the sugar content and acidity in the pulp. The maximum total sugar was noted in SOP 1.5 per cent and this might be due to potassium is involved in carbohydrate synthesis,

breakdown and translocation and synthesis of protein and neutralization of physiologically important organic acids (Tisdale and Nelson, 1966).

The PLW from harvested fruits, especially under tropical conditions, causes severe economic losses. Several workers have tried nutrient treatments at post-shoot stage to reduce PLW (Swietlik and Faust, 1984). Grand naine variety receiving foliar spray at 1.5 per cent SOP had similar significant reductions in PLW.

The days to edible ripening were fewer in foliar spray treatments - an observation which could be related to the reduced PLW experienced in these treatments. Both the green-life and shelf-life of fruit were significantly lengthened by a maximum of 5.3 and 8.7 days past the control, respectively.

Foliar SOP sprays improved final fruit yield and net income (Table 1). The 1.5 per cent SOP treatment was most profitable and doubled net income compared to the control. Yield, quality, and economic traits all suggest significant advantages from foliar spray application during the post-shoot growth stage.

Yield and yield attributing characters

Improvements in fruit bunch weight and yield are the culmination of all desirable traits that perform well under optimum conditions including balanced nutrition. Foliar spray concentration of potassium had a significant and positive impact on bunch weight. Fruit bunch components including: hand and finger number, finger length, girth, and weight, were positively impacted by treatment with foliar spray (Table 1).

Post shooting foliar spray concentration of potassium had a significant and positive impact on bunch weight. The significantly highest bunch weight (29.67kg) was observed with the application of 1.5 per cent SOP which at par with 2.0 per cent KH_2PO_4 (25.67 kg), while minimum bunch weight (19.00 kg) registered under control treatment.

The favourable influence of SOP as compared to KH_2PO_4 on the production of heavier bunches might be attributed to the heavier dry matter and starch accumulation and additionally promoted by the sulphur

Table 1. Influence of post shooting foliar applications of potassium on quality and yield contributing parameters of banana

Treatment	No. Fruit quality parameters					Yield and yield attributing character					Economics	
	TSS(°B)	Total Sugar (%)	Titratable acidity (%)	Sugar: acidratio	PLW (p%)	Shelf life (Days)	Bunch weight (Kg)	Hands bunch ⁻¹	Fingers bunch ⁻¹	Fruit yield ha ⁻¹ (tones)	B:C ratio	B:C ratio
T ₁ (0.5 per cent SOP)	20.50	15.04	0.53	28.48	13.0	8.33	23.33	9.00	146.33	103.69	1.42	1.42
T ₂ (1.0 per cent SOP)	21.80	15.78	0.34	53.74	8.3	8.67	22.67	9.00	147.67	100.73	1.37	1.37
T ₃ (1.5 per cent SOP)	22.97	18.15	0.30	63.03	6.2	10.67	29.67	9.67	157.67	131.84	1.77	1.77
T ₄ (2.0 per cent SOP)	21.37	16.29	0.38	45.21	11.2	8.00	22.67	9.00	151.00	100.73	1.34	1.34
T ₅ (0.5 per cent KH ₂ PO ₄)	20.47	14.80	0.55	27.55	10.0	9.00	22.67	9.33	144.00	100.73	1.33	1.33
T ₆ (1.0 per cent KH ₂ PO ₄)	20.67	15.01	0.58	26.07	10.0	8.67	22.33	9.00	146.67	99.25	1.25	1.25
T ₇ (1.5 per cent KH ₂ PO ₄)	21.23	17.40	0.32	56.03	12.5	8.67	24.33	9.00	146.00	108.14	1.31	1.31
T ₈ (2.0 per cent KH ₂ PO ₄)	22.47	15.39	0.36	45.81	11.8	9.00	25.67	9.00	151.00	114.06	1.32	1.32
T ₉ (Control)	19.70	13.35	0.85	16.94	12.4	7.67	19.0	8.33	128.33	84.44	1.18	1.18
SE (m) ±	0.52	0.05	0.08	—	0.20	0.29	1.39	0.19	2.58	6.17	—	—
CD at 5 per cent	1.57	0.15	0.24	—	—	0.86	4.18	0.57	7.76	18.58	—	—

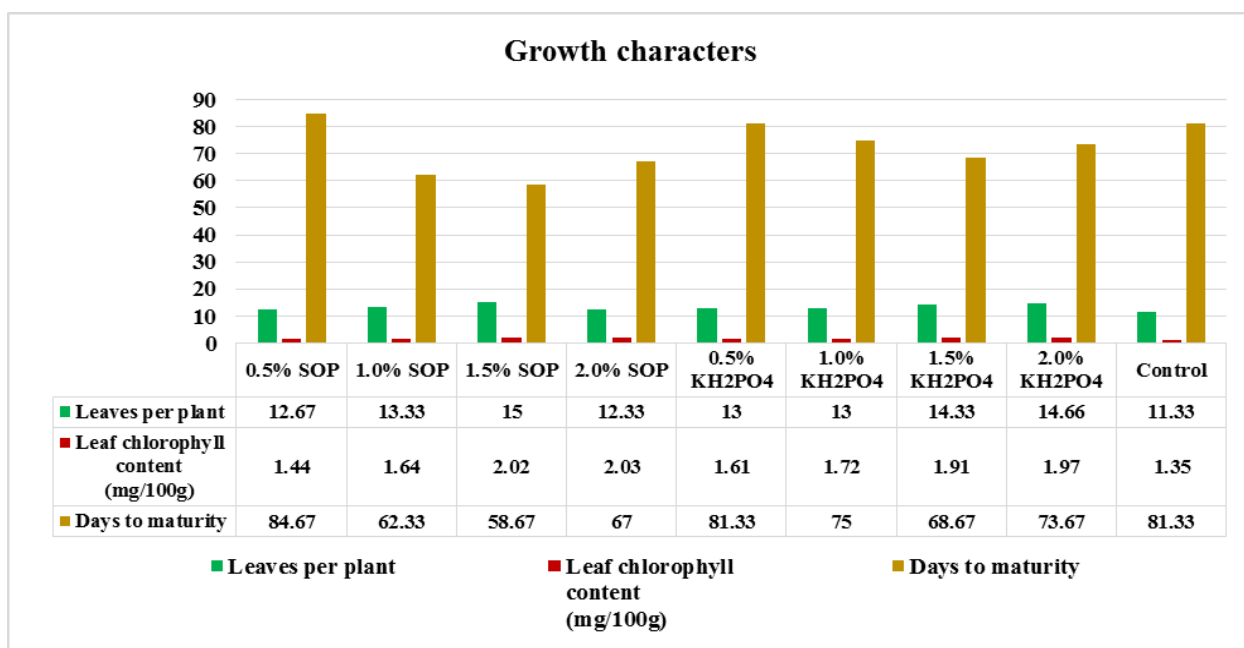


Fig. 1. Influence of post shooting foliar applications of potassium on leaves per plant, leaf chlorophyll content and days to maturity of banana

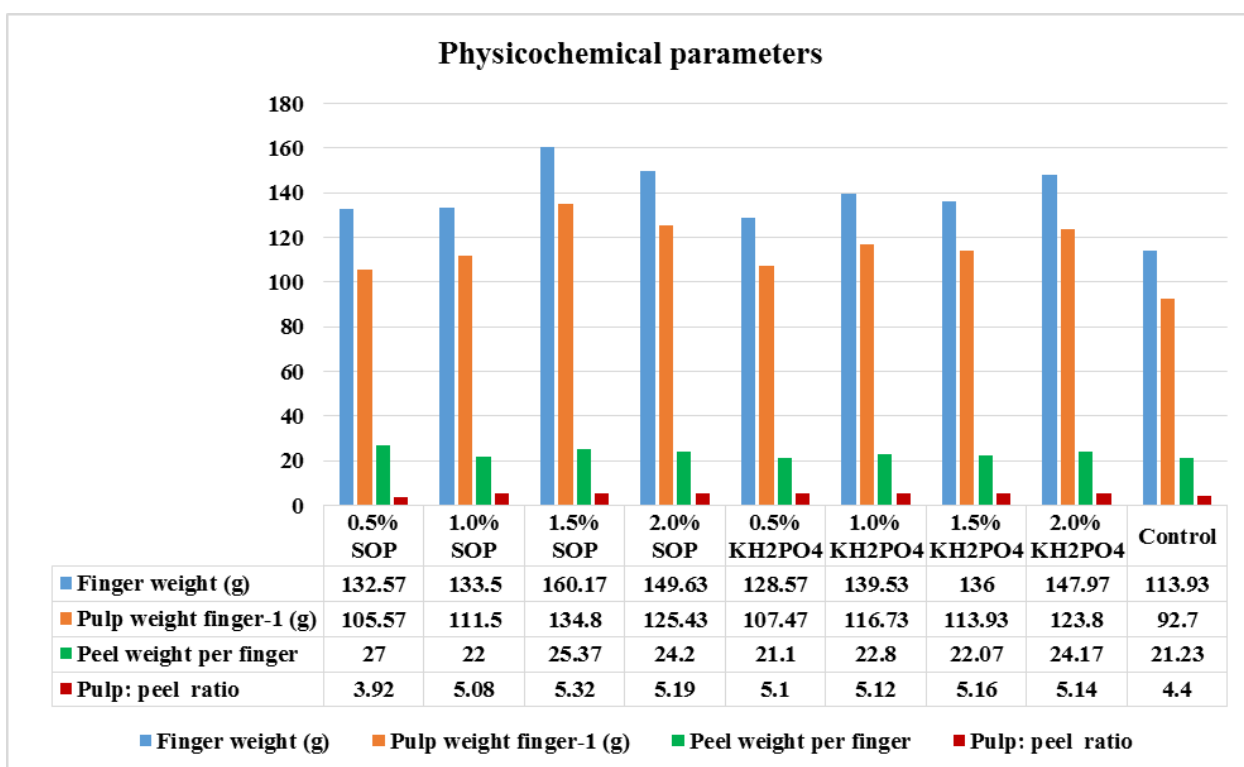


Fig. 2. Influence of post shooting foliar applications of potassium on finger weight, pulp weight per finger peel weight per finger and pulp: peel ratio of banana

presented in SOP. The influence of sulfur in enhancing fruit yield in bananas was stressed by Kumar and Kumar (2008).

The SOP concentrations exerted significant influence on number of hands per bunch. The spray of sulphate of potash at 1.5 per cent (T_3) resulted in production at higher number of hands (9.67 hands bunch⁻¹). Increase in number of hands it might be due to K application which might be attributed to the improvement in vegetative growth of plant as well as efficient transfer of photosynthates to the economic part of the plant (Dutta *et al.* 2011). Potassium not only promotes the translocation of newly synthesized photosynthates but also has a beneficial effect on the mobilization of stored material (Mengel and Kirkby, 1987).

Number of fingers per bunch was registered maximum with 1.5 per cent SOP (157.67 fingers bunch⁻¹) which was at par with treatment 2.0 per cent SOP and KH_2PO_4 (151.0 fingers bunch⁻¹) each while minimum number of fingers per bunch was recorded in control (128.33 fingers bunch⁻¹). The increase in the number of fingers per bunch might be due to K application which attributed to the improvement in vegetative growth of plant as well as efficient transfer of photosynthates to the economic part of the plant (Marshner, 1995) and (Dutta *et al.*, 2011).

The fruit yield per hectare was recorded maximum with foliar applications of sulphate of potash at 1.5 per cent (131.84 tonnes ha⁻¹) which was at par with 2.0 per cent KH_2PO_4 (114.06 tonnes ha⁻¹), while minimum fruit yield recorded by control treatment (84.44 tonnes ha⁻¹). Higher in fruit yield might be due to the post shooting foliar application of potassium because potassium application causes accumulation of more food material in the plants and lead to an efficient utilization of the same for development of fruit. It increases the efficiency of metabolic processes of the plant and thus encouraged the growth of plant and fruit (Singh *et al.*, 1986).

The highest benefit cost ratio (1.77) was recorded with the application of SOP 1.5 per cent spray, whereas the least by control treatment. KH_2PO_4 treatment noted lower benefit cost ratio as compared to SOP treatments

which was due to higher cost of KH_2PO_4 which denoted the usefulness of post shooting nutrient spray in terms of economics. These results are in close agreement with Kumar and Kumar (2008) who recorded higher benefit cost ratio for SOP spray.

LITERATURE CITED

- A.O.A.C., 1960. Official methods of analysis. Published by A.O.A.C., Washington, D.C.
- Anonymous, 2017. National Horticulture Board Data Base Published by National Horticulture Board Department of Agriculture and Co-operation Government of India.
- Baruah, P.J. and N.K. Mohan, 1991. Effect of potassium on leaf area index, phyllochron and number of leaves of banana Cv. Jahaji, Banana News Letter., 14: 21-22.
- Dutta, P., B. Ahmed and S. Kundu, 2011. Effect of different sources of potassium on yield, quality and leaf mineral content of mango in west Bengal, Better crops- South Asia :16-18.
- Evans, L.T., 1971. Flower induction and the floral concept, Rev. Pl. Physiol., 22: 365-94.
- Gottreich, M., D. Bradu and Y. Halovy, 1964. A simple method for determining average banana fruit weight, Ktavim, 14: 161-162. Cited from Lahav, E. 1972, Trop. Agric. Trin., 49: 321-335.
- Kannan, S., 1980. Mechanism of foliar uptake of plant nutrients: Accomplishments and prospects, J. Plant Nutr., 2: 717-735.
- Kumar, A. R., 2010. Effect of post-shooting spray of certain nutrients on yield and quality of banana cv. Neypoovan (AB), Agric. Sci. Digest., 30 (2): 125- 128.
- Kumar, A.R. and P. Kumar, 2008. Effect of Post-shooting spray of sulphate of potash (SOP) on yield and quality of banana Cv. Robusta (AAA-Cavendish), Res. J. Ag. and Bio. Sci., 4(6) : 655-659.
- Marschner, H., 1995. Mineral nutrition of higher plants, 2nd Ed. Academic Press, London.
- Mengel, K and E.A. Kirkby, 1987. Principles of plant nutrition. International Potash Institute, Bern: 436-437.

- Mulagund J, H Porika, K Soorianathasundaram, C. Deepika, 2015. Influence of Growth Regulators Combined with Chemicals to Improve Postharvest Fruit Quality in Banana cv. Nendran (Musa AAB), J Food Process Technol., 2015; 6:3.
- Mustaffa, M.M., 2004. Growth and yield of Robusta banana in relation to potassium nutrition, J. of Pot. Res., 3(3): 129-132.
- Nijjar, G.S. 2000. Nutrition of fruit trees. Kalyani publishers, 2nd Ed. New Delhi.
- Singh, R.R., K. S. Chauhan and H. K. Singh. 1986. Effect of various doses of N,P,K on physico-chemical composition of ber fruit cultivar-Gola, Prog. Hort., 18(1-2) : 35-38.
- Somogyi, N., 1952. Notes on sugar determination, J. Biol. Chem., 200: 145-154.
- Swietlik, D. and M. Faust. 1984. Foliar nutrition of fruit crops, Hort. Rev., 6: 287-355.
- Tandon, H. L. S. and Sekhon, G. S. 1988. Potassium Research and Agricultural Production in India, CAB Direct.
- Tisdale, S.L. and W.L. Nelson, 1966. Soil fertility and fertilizers, Macmillan Co., London : 81.
- Wallingford, W. 1980. In: potassium for Agriculture. Potash and Phosphate Institute, Atlanta, ga : 10-27.
- Yoshida, S., D.A. Forno and J.H. Cock, 1971. Laboratory Manual for Physiological Studies of Rice, IRRI, Philippines : 36-37.



Received on 5.5.2019

Effect of Different Media and Time of Cutting on Rooting and Growth of Pomegranate Cuttings

Sneha Deshmukh¹, S. G. Bharad², P. L. Deshmukh³ and S. V. Gholap⁴

ABSTRACT

An experiment was carried out during the year 2017-18 at Main Garden, Department of Horticulture, Akola with objectives to find out suitable media and time of cutting for better rooting and growth of pomegranate cuttings. The experiment was laid out in Factorial Randomized Block Design. The treatment consisted of nine different rooting media (M₁ - soil, M₂ - silt, M₃ - soil + cocopeat, M₄ - soil + vermicompost, M₅ - silt + cocopeat, M₆ - silt + vermicompost, M₇ - soil + silt, M₈ - soil + silt + vermicompost, M₉ - soil + silt + cocopeat) and three different time of cutting (T₁ - 15th January, T₂ - 30th January and T₃ - 15th February) with 27 combination and replicated three times. The result of present investigation indicated that, the response of different media varied with respect to different time of cutting. The treatment combination M₈T₁ (soil + silt + vermicompost and cutting taken on 15th January) took the minimum period required for rooting (23.09 days), maximum final survival of rooted cutting (86.66%), fresh weight of root (2.88 g) and dry weight of root (0.90 g). The maximum number of roots per cutting (29.27) observed in treatment combination M₉T₁ (soil + silt + cocopeat media and cutting taken on 15th January). In the analytical observations viz., maximum nitrogen uptake by cutting (1.94%) and maximum potassium uptake by cutting (2.12%) obtained when cutting planted in soil + silt + vermicompost media and Maximum phosphorus uptake by cutting (8.93 %) in silt + vermicompost media. Similarly, maximum nitrogen, potassium and phosphorus uptake by cutting (1.42%, 4.02% and 7.72%), respectively obtained when cutting taken on 15th January.

Pomegranate (*Punica granatum* L.) belongs to family Punicaceae is one of the preferred table fruits in tropical and sub-tropical regions of the world. The wide adaptability, hardy nature, low input needs, high yields, better keeping quality and therapeutic values of fruits establish its value as a remunerative fruit crop in India and elsewhere. India is one of the largest producers of pomegranate in the world. A native to Iran (Persia), it is found from Kanyakumari to Kashmir, but it is cultivated commercially only in Maharashtra. Large-scale plantations are also seen in Gujarat, Rajasthan, Karnataka, Tamil Nadu, Andhra Pradesh, Uttar Pradesh, Punjab and Haryana. In India, it is considered as a crop of arid and semi-arid regions because it withstands different soil and climatic stresses. It occupies a cultivated area of 180.64 thousand hectares with 1789.31 thousand MT of production (Anon., 2017). Recently, Pomegranate is described as nature's power fruit, is a plant used in folklore medicine for the treatment of various diseases (Moneim and Abdel, 2012; Ajaikumar *et al.* 2005) widely growing in the Mediterranean region. *Punica granatum* L. can be propagated by seed, sucker, cuttings, grafting and layering. Rooting of pomegranate can be enhanced by the use of various

suitable growing media, which directly affects the development and later maintenance of the extensive functional rooting system.

Use of suitable growing media or substrates is essential for the production of quality horticultural crops. Some of the soilless media used are vermiculite, perlite, cocopeat, peat, sand, soil, silt etc. A good growing medium would provide sufficient encourage or support to the plant, serves as reservoir for nutrients and water, allow oxygen diffusion to the roots and permit gaseous exchange between the roots and atmosphere outside the root substrate (Hartman *et al.*, 2000). It is, therefore, necessary to find out the standard rooting media for better survival and maximum rooting of cuttings in any horticultural crop. The present study aims, to find out the effect of different media and time of cutting on root-initiation of pomegranate cuttings.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

The research studies were carried out at Main Garden, Department of Horticulture, Dr. Panjabrao Deshmukh Krishi Vidyapeeth, Akola during the year 2017-18. For planting cuttings of *Punica granatum* L., nine

1 & 3. PG Scholar, 2. Professor & Head and 4. Asstt. Professor, Department of Fruit Science, Faculty of Horticulture, Dr. PDKV, Akola

rooting media were selected viz., M₁ - soil, M₂ - silt, M₃ - soil + cocopeat, M₄ - soil + vermicompost, M₅ - silt + cocopeat, M₆ - silt + vermicompost, M₇ - soil + silt, M₈ - soil + silt + vermicompost and M₉ - soil + silt + cocopeat with three different time of cutting T₁ -15th January, T₂ -30th January and T₃ -15th February) with 27 combination and replicated three times.

The plants of cultivar Bhagwa selected for preparing cutting were vigorous, healthy and free from insects, pests and diseases. Cuttings of pencil size having 12-15 cm length with the help of sharp secateurs. The basal portion was made just below the node without any injury to the bud and the proximal end, a slanting cut was made about 1.3 cm above the node. At the time of planting, 7.5 cm basal portion of cuttings was inserted in the rooting media followed by light watering. Statistical analysis was performed under Factorial Randomized Block Design (Snedecor and Cochran, 1968).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Effect of different rooting media and time on period required for rooting

The data presented in Table 1, showed the significant effect due to different media. The minimum period required for rooting in cutting was observed in media (M₈) soil + silt + vermicompost (23.36 days). While, the maximum period required (31.97 days) in the cutting which were planted in media (M₆) soil + silt + vermicompost.

The effect of time of cutting on period required for rooting was found to be significant (Table 1). The cutting taken on (T₁) 15th January took shortest duration for rooting in cutting (25.93 days), Whereas, the longest duration for rooting in cutting were taken in cutting taken (T₃) on 15th February (27.58 days).

The interaction effect of different media and time of cutting on period required for rooting in cutting was significantly influenced by the different combinations. The minimum days (23.09 days) required for rooting in cutting was observed in treatment combination (M₈T₁) soil + silt + vermicompost media and cutting taken on 15th January. While the maximum period (33.53 days) required for rooting in cutting found in treatment combination (M₆T₂) silt + vermicompost media and cutting taken on 30th January.

The above results might be due to the fact that congenial weather conditions like optimum temperature and high relative humidity helped in early rooting. The similar findings have also been reported by Shah *et al.* (2006) in *Ficus sp.* and Shadparvar *et al.*, (2011) in *Hibiscus*.

Effect of different media and time on final survival of rooted cutting

The significant effect due to different media on final survival of rooted cutting were also found to be significant. The maximum final survival of rooted cutting (75.55 per cent) was observed in media (M₈) soil + silt + vermicompost. While, the minimum final survival of rooted cutting (40.00 per cent) was observed in (M₂) silt media.

Similarly, the time of cutting influence the final survival of rooted cutting significantly. Amongst the different time of cutting, maximum final survival of rooted cutting (56.29 %) were observed in (T₁) cutting taken on 15th January. While the minimum final survival percentage of rooted cutting (45.51 %) was found in (T₂) cutting taken on 15th February.

The interaction effect of different media and time of cutting on final survival of rooted cutting were also found to be significant. The maximum final survival of rooted cutting (86.66 %) was noted in treatment combination (M₈T₁) soil + silt + vermicompost media and cutting taken on 15th January, while the minimum final survival of rooted cutting (33.33 %) was found in treatment combination (M₂T₃) silt media and cutting taken on 15th February.

It might be attributed due to the fact that, cutting taken during spring (January) had the favourable temperature, humidity and other weather parameters which might be help in better sap flowing condition that ultimately reflect in better final survival percentage. Similar findings have been reported by Sharma (1993) in mulberry, Singh and Nair (2003) in ornamental plants and Irshad *et al.* (2014) in kiwi fruit.

Effect of different rooting media and time of cutting on percentage of rooted cutting

The significant effect of different media on percentage of rooted cutting was found at 90 days after planting of cutting. The maximum percentage of rooted

Effect of Different Media and Time of Cutting on Rooting and Growth of Pomegranate Cuttings

cutting was observed in (M₈) soil + silt + vermicompost media which was significantly superior over all treatments. Whereas minimum percentage of rooted cutting (52.22 %) was noted in (M₁) soil media (Table 1).

The different time of cutting influences the percentage of rooted cutting significantly. The maximum percentage of rooted cutting (68.52 %) was observed in (T₁) cutting taken on 15th January. While (52.22 %) was observed in (T₃) cutting taken on 15th February.

The presence of rooting inhibitor is minimum and rooting stimulator is maximum in the month of January. These factors cause that higher percentage of rooted cutting was observed in the month of January as compared to October. The findings are in agreement with earlier researchers like Waheb *et al.* (2011) in citrus rootstock cuttings and Omer (2003) in kiwifruit.

An interaction effect of different rooting media and time of cutting on percentage of rooted cutting was found to be non-significant at 90 days after planting of cutting.

Effect of different media and time of cutting on number of roots per cutting

Significantly maximum numbers of roots (28.32) were noted in (M₈) cuttings planted in the media soil + silt + vermicompost. However the minimum number of roots (13.40) recorded in the (M₂) silt media (Table 1).

This result might be due to vermicompost which has maximum pore space, aeration and water holding capacity and has ability to supply nutrients in available form such as nitrate, nitrogen and soluble phosphorus which are necessary for root growth. Results obtained are in accordance with the results of Ferguson and Young (1985) in passion fruit and Omer (2003) in kiwi fruit.

The significant effect due to different time of cutting on number of roots was noticed and the maximum number of roots (22.06) was observed in (T₁) cutting taken on 15 January was found to be significantly superior over all treatments. However the minimum number of roots (21.28) were recorded in (T₃) cutting taken on 15 February. The findings are in agreement with earlier researchers like Waheb *et al.* (2011) in guava and Ansari (2013) in pomegranate.

Significantly maximum number of roots (29.27) was observed in treatment combination (M₉T₁) soil + silt + cocopeat media and cutting taken on 15 January. However the minimum number of roots (13.28) was obtained from (M₂T₁) silt media and cutting taken on 15 January.

Cocopeat encourages the induction of adventitious roots, perhaps its richness in cytokinin, a hormone which alongside Auxins, favours cell division, being responsible for adventitious root development (Davis *et al.*, 1991). The above results are in similar line of earlier findings reported by Nagwa (2007) in *ficus spp.* and Bosila *et al.* (2010) in bougainvillea.

Effect of different rooting media and time of cutting on length of root

The significant effect due to different media on length of root was found to be significant. The longest length of root (17.17 cm) was obtained from the cutting planted in (M₈) soil + silt + vermicompost media. While minimum length of root (6.62 cm) was found in (M₃) silt + cocopeat (Table 2).

It might be attributed due to the fact that, vermicompost is the rich source of mineral nutrition and its addition to media increases quality of media by increasing microbial activity and microbial biomass which are key components in nutrient cycling and production of plant growth regulators. The above results are in similar line of earlier findings reported by Shadparwar *et al.* (2011) in hibiscus and Manila *et al.* (2017) in pomegranate.

Nonsignificant variation effect due to different time of cutting on length of root was noticed.

An interaction effect of different rooting media and time of cutting on length of root were also found significant. Treatment combination (M₈T₁) soil + silt + vermicompost media and cutting taken on 15 January showed longest root (18.0) per cutting. However minimum length (6.24 cm) was found in treatment combination (M₅T₃) silt + cocopeat media on and cutting planted taken on 15 February.

This might be due to the fact that, the combined effect of vermicompost and more bright sunshine in summer

Table 1. Effect of different media and time of cutting on rooting characteristics

Treatment	Period required for rooting (days)				Final survival of rooted cutting				Percentage of rooted cutting				Number of roots per cutting			
	Time of cutting				Time of cutting				Time of cutting				Time of cutting			
	T ₁ (15 th January)	T ₂ (30 th January)	T ₃ (15 th February)	Mean	T ₁ (15 th January)	T ₂ (30 th January)	T ₃ (15 th February)	Mean	T ₁ (15 th January)	T ₂ (30 th January)	T ₃ (15 th February)	Mean	T ₁ (15 th January)	T ₂ (30 th January)	T ₃ (15 th February)	Mean
M ₁ (soil)	24.46	23.28	28.14	25.29	46.66	36.66	40.00	41.11	50.00	60.00	46.66	52.22	16.72	16.32	16.29	16.44
M ₂ (silt)	24.19	33.42	33.5	30.37	46.66	40.00	33.33	40.00	60.00	60.00	46.66	55.55	13.28	13.41	13.51	13.40
M ₃ (soil + cocopeat)	26.59	30.22	30.29	29.03	53.33	36.66	50.00	46.66	70.00	66.66	56.66	64.44	19.47	20.55	19.36	19.79
M ₄ (soil + vermicompost)	27.86	24.7	23.33	25.30	66.66	50.00	56.66	57.77	76.66	60.00	66.60	67.75	28.22	27.66	27.38	27.75
M ₅ (Silt + cocopeat)	26.85	27.67	27.44	27.32	46.66	40.00	46.66	44.44	60.00	60.00	63.33	61.11	21.16	21.37	21.35	21.29
M ₆ (Silt + vermicompost)	29.07	33.53	33.32	31.97	53.33	43.33	63.33	53.33	73.33	80.00	70.00	74.44	20.44	20.27	19.68	20.13
M ₇ (Soil + silt)	24.58	24.27	24.22	24.36	56.66	53.33	50.00	53.33	66.66	60.00	66.66	64.44	21.65	22.26	22.3	22.07
M ₈ (Soil + silt + vermicompost)	23.09	23.25	23.75	23.36	86.66	73.33	66.66	75.55	90.00	80.00	70.00	80.00	28.58	28.27	28.11	28.32
M ₉ (soil + silt + cocopeat)	26.67	24.16	24.26	25.03	50.00	63.33	46.66	53.33	70.00	73.33	60.00	67.78	29.27	23.6	23.53	25.47
Mean	25.93	27.17	27.58	-	56.29	48.51	50.37	-	68.52	66.67	60.73	-	22.06	21.52	21.28	-
INTERACTION (M X T)																
	M	T	M X T	M	T	M X T	M	T	M X T	M	T	M X T	M	T	M X T	
SE(M)±	0.13	0.08	0.23	2.86	1.65	4.96	9.48	6.33	6.37	0.12	0.07	0.2				
CD at 5%	0.39	0.22	0.68	8.15	4.7	14.12	-	-	-	0.34	0.2	0.6				

Effect of Different Media and Time of Cutting on Rooting and Growth of Pomegranate Cuttings

Table 2. Effect of different media and time of cutting on length, fresh weight, dry weight of root and root density.

Treatment	Length of root (cm)			Root density (ml)			Fresh weight of root (g)			Dry weight of root (g)						
	T ₁ (15 th January)	T ₂ (30 th January)	T ₃ (15 th February)	Mean	T ₁ (15 th January)	T ₂ (30 th January)	T ₃ (15 th February)	Mean	T ₁ (15 th January)	T ₂ (30 th January)	T ₃ (15 th February)	Mean				
M ₁ (soil)	9.19	9.18	9.17	9.18	13.14	12.67	12.31	12.71	2.1	1.68	1.43	1.74	0.84	0.76	0.89	0.83
M ₂ (silt)	13.67	13.26	13.15	13.36	11.85	11.18	10.86	11.30	2.29	2.1	1.67	2.02	0.86	0.57	0.6	0.68
M ₃ (soil + cocopeat)	12.54	12.59	14.46	13.20	13.34	13.32	13.13	13.26	1.36	1.33	1.35	1.35	0.31	0.26	0.34	0.30
M ₄ (soil + vermicompost)	15.4	15.41	15.42	15.41	14.24	14.15	14.18	14.19	2.66	2.22	2.26	2.38	0.88	0.29	0.34	0.50
M ₅ (Silt + cocopeat)	6.77	6.84	6.24	6.62	12.22	12.22	12.05	12.16	2.87	2.33	2.45	2.55	0.26	0.23	0.32	0.27
M ₆ (Silt + vermicompost)	12.25	14.45	14.45	13.72	13.44	12.89	12.87	13.07	2.28	2.21	2.31	2.27	0.29	0.23	0.34	0.29
M ₇ (Soil + silt)	12.54	12.38	12.64	12.52	11.92	11.89	11.73	11.85	2.44	2.08	2.04	2.19	0.77	0.34	0.33	0.48
M ₈ (Soil + silt + vermicompost)	18	17.5	16	17.17	16.56	15.99	15.76	16.10	2.88	2.8	2.55	2.74	0.9	0.89	0.89	0.89
M ₉ (soil + silt + cocopeat)	14.66	14	14	14.22	15.06	14.98	15.03	15.02	1.81	1.14	2.93	1.96	0.81	0.89	0.85	0.85
Mean	12.78	12.84	12.83	-	13.53	13.25	13.1	-	2.3	1.99	2.11	-	0.66	0.49	0.54	-
INTERACTION (M X T)																
	M	T	M X T	M X T	M	T	M X T	M X T	M	T	M X T	M X T	M	T	M X T	M X T
SE(M)±	0.13	0.07	0.23	0.08	0.11	0.06	0.08	0.08	0.06	0.03	0.11	0.11	0.02	0.03	0.03	0.03
CD at 5%	0.38	-	0.66	-	0.32	0.18	-	-	0.19	0.11	0.33	0.33	0.06	0.01	0.01	0.1

season causes lesser growth of shoot might indirectly reflects more root growth. The findings are in agreement with Ansari (2013) in pomegranate.

Effect of different rooting media and time of cutting on root density

Significantly highest root density (16.10 ml) obtained from (M_8) cutting planted on soil + silt + vermicompost media. While minimum root density (11.30 ml) was obtained in (M_2) silt media (Table 2).

Whereas, significantly highest root density (13.53 ml) was observed in (T_1) cutting taken on 15th January. However the lowest root density (13.10 ml) was obtained in (T_2) cutting taken on 30 January.

An interaction effect of different rooting media and time of cutting on root density was found to be non-significant.

This might be due to the fact that, rooting media content high C:N ratio, antifungal character and more spaces due to silt, vermicompost as the rooting media combination. Thus, increase the number of roots, resulting in maximum root density. Similar results were also observed by Ari (2016) in *Vitexagnus-castus* L.

Effect of different media and time on fresh weight of roots

The significant effect due to different media on fresh weight root in soil was recorded maximum fresh weight of root (2.74 g) was found in (M_8) Soil + Silt + Vermicompost media which was significantly superior over all treatments. However minimum fresh weight of root (1.35g) was found in (M_3) soil + cocopeat.

The data presented in Table 2, showed the significant effect due to different time of cutting on fresh weight of root. The maximum fresh weight of root (2.30 g) found in (T_1) cutting taken on 15 January. However minimum fresh weight of root (1.99 g) was found in (T_2) cutting taken on 30 January.

An interaction effect of different rooting media and time of cutting on fresh weight of root were also found to be significant. The maximum fresh weight of root (2.88g) was found in treatment combination (M_8T_1) soil + silt + vermicompost media and cutting taken on 15th January. While the minimum fresh weight of root (1.14 g) noticed in

treatment combination (M_9T_2) soil + silt + cocopeat media and cutting taken on 30 January.

The increases in number of roots and length of roots have directly influenced the fresh weight of roots. These results are in close conformity with Waheb *et al.* (2011) in guava and Khajehpour *et al.* (2014) in olive.

Effect of different media and time of cutting on dry weight of root

Significantly, maximum dry weight of root (0.89 g) noted in (M_8) soil + silt + vermicompost media. However the minimum dry weight of root (0.27g) was found in (M_3) silt + cocopeat. Dry weight of accumulation in roots significantly differ among the rooting media.

The data presented in Table 2 also showed the significant effect due to different time of cutting on dry weight of root. The maximum dry weight of root (0.66 g) found in (T_2) cutting taken on 15th January. While minimum dry weight of root (0.49 g) was observed in (T_1) cutting taken on 30 January. The results are in conformity with those of Khajehpour *et al.* (2014) in olive, Singh and Nair (2003) in phalsa.

The treatment combination (M_8T_1) soil + silt + vermicompost media and cutting taken on 15 January recorded significantly maximum dry weight of root (0.90 g), whereas the minimum dry weight of root (0.23 g) was found in treatment combination (M_3T_2) Silt + cocopeat media and cutting taken on 30 January.

It might be due to lacuna of one media may be compensated by the characteristic property of other media. As soil has poor drainage properties might have compensated by good aeration and porosity character of silt and vermicompost. The results are in agreement with the earlier findings of Kaur *et al.* (2016) in grapevine and Ajaiumar *et al.* (2011) in patchouli cuttings.

Effect of different rooting media and time of cutting on nitrogen uptake of content by cutting

The significant effect due to different media on nitrogen contain by cutting was noticed. The maximum nitrogen uptake by cutting (1.94 %) was noted in (M_8) in soil + silt + vermicompost media, while minimum nitrogen contain by cutting (0.59 %) was noted in (M_1) cutting planted in soil media (Table 3).

Effect of Different Media and Time of Cutting on Rooting and Growth of Pomegranate Cuttings

Treatment	Nitrogen uptake by cutting %			Phosphorus uptake by cutting %			Potassium uptake by cutting %					
	Time of cutting			Time of cutting			Time of cutting					
	T ₁ (15 th January)	T ₂ (30 th January)	T ₃ (15 th February)	Mean	T ₁ (15 th January)	T ₂ (30 th January)	T ₃ (15 th February)	Mean	T ₁ (15 th January)	T ₂ (30 th January)	T ₃ (15 th February)	Mean
M ₁ (soil)	1.62	1.58	1.56	1.59	2.35	2.35	2.3	2.33	2.03	2.12	2.13	2.09
M ₂ (silt)	0.63	0.62	0.62	0.62	1.99	1.99	2.25	2.15	1.19	1.18	1.18	1.18
M ₃ (soil + cocopeat)	1.63	1.62	1.63	1.63	2.32	2.63	2.88	2.61	1.81	1.79	1.76	1.79
M ₄ (soil + vermicompost)	1.66	1.64	1.63	1.64	4.01	4.2	3.4	3.87	1.68	1.67	1.67	1.67
M ₅ (Silt + cocopeat)	0.97	0.93	0.92	0.94	3.36	2.21	3.26	2.94	1.35	1.32	1.31	1.33
M ₆ (Silt + vermicompost)	0.95	0.94	0.93	0.94	9.22	8.86	8.7	8.93	1.34	1.34	1.31	1.33
M ₇ (Soil + silt)	1.66	1.64	1.63	1.64	3.62	2.21	3.26	3.03	2.11	2.04	1.18	1.78
M ₈ (Soil + silt +vermicompost)	1.97	1.94	1.92	1.94	7.02	4.4	5.74	5.72	2.13	2.11	2.12	2.12
M ₉ (soil + silt +cocopeat)	1.74	1.75	1.66	1.72	2.35	2.2	2.16	2.24	1.88	1.77	1.73	1.79
Mean	1.42	1.4	1.39	-	4.02	3.57	3.75	-	1.72	1.7	1.6	-
INTERACTION (MXT)												
	M	T	MXT	M	T	MXT	M	T	M	T	MXT	MXT
	0.005	0.003	0.009	0.002	0.001	0.004	0.006	0.004	0.004	0.004	0.011	0.011
CD at 5%	0.014	0.008	0.025	0.007	0.004	0.012	0.018	0.011	0.018	0.011	0.032	0.032

The significant effect of different time of cutting on nitrogen contain cutting was recorded and the maximum nitrogen contain in cutting (1.42 %) was noted in (T₁) cutting taken on 15th January, while minimum nitrogen contain by cutting (1.39 %) was found in (T₃) cutting taken on 15th February.

The high C: N ratio is observed in cutting taken in early January which results into maximum availability of plant nutrients. The findings are in agreement with earlier researchers like Kasim *et al.* (2009) in bitter almond cuttings.

An interaction effect of different rooting media and time of cutting on nitrogen contain by cutting was also found significant. The maximum nitrogen contain by cutting (1.97 per cent) was observed in treatment combination (M₈T₁) soil + silt + vermicompost media and cutting taken on 15th January, While minimum nitrogen contain by cutting (0.62 %) was found in treatment combination (M₁T₃) soil media and cutting taken on 15th February.

Effect of different media and time of cutting on phosphorus uptake by cutting

Significantly maximum phosphorus contain by cutting (8.93 %) was observed in (M₆) silt + vermicompost media, while minimum phosphorus uptake by cutting (2.15 %) was found in (M₂) silt media (Table 3).

The significant effect due to different time of cutting on phosphorus contain in cutting was observed and the maximum phosphorus contain in cutting (4.02 %) was observed in (T₁) cutting taken on 15th January, while the minimum phosphorus contain (3.57%) was observed in (T₂) cutting taken on 30th January.

An interaction effect of different rooting media and time of cutting on phosphorus contain in cutting was found significant and maximum phosphorus contain in cutting (8.86 %) observed in treatment combination (M₆T₂) silt + vermicompost media and cutting taken on 15th January, while minimum phosphorus contain (1.99 %) in cutting was found in treatment combination (M₂T₂) silt media and cutting taken on 30th January (Table 3).

The above findings are in close agreement with Bemkairmia *et al.* (2012) in Passionfruit.

Effect of different media and time of cutting potassium contain incutting

The significant effect of different media on potassium contain in cutting was observed and maximum potassium contain in cutting (2.12 %) was observed in (M₈) soil + silt + vermicompost, while minimum phosphorus contain (1.18 %) by cutting was found in (M₂) silt media.

The effect of different time of cutting on potassium contain in cutting was maximum potassium contain in cutting (1.72 %) observed in (T₁) cutting taken on 15th January, while minimum potassium contain by cutting (1.60 %) was found in (T₃) cutting taken on 15th February.

An interaction effect of different rooting media and time of cutting on potassium contain in cutting was found to be significant. The maximum potassium contain in cutting (2.13 per cent) observed in treatment combination (M₈T₁) soil + silt + vermicompost media and cutting taken on 15th January and (M₁T₃) soil media and cutting on 15th February, while the minimum potassium contain in cutting (1.18 %) observed in treatment combination (M₂T₂) silt media and cutting taken on 30th January and (M₂T₃) silt media and cutting taken on 15th February.

The maximum availability of organic compounds in the soil + silt + vermicompost media results into greater amount of nutrient uptake through maximum number of roots. The above findings are in close agreement with Bemkairmia *et al.* (2012) in passion fruit.

LITERATURE CITED

- Ajaikumar, K. B., M. Asheef, B. H. Babu and J. Padikkala, 2005. The inhibition of gastric mucosal injury by *Punica granatum* L. methanolic extract, J. Ethnopharmacol., 9(6) : 171-176.
- Anonymous, 2017. NHB Data Base, <http://nhb.gov.in>.
- Ansari, K., 2013. Effect of different collecting time and different medium on rooting of pomegranate "Malustorsh cv." cuttings, Bulletin of Environment, Pharmacology and Life Sci., 2(12) : 164-168.
- Ari, E., 2016. Effects of different substrates and iba concentrations on adventitious rooting of native

Effect of Different Media and Time of Cutting on Rooting and Growth of Pomegranate Cuttings

- Vitexagnus-castus* L. cuttings. Acta Sci. Hortorum., 15(2):27-41.
- Bemkairema, K., T. Angami and M. Sanju Singh, 2012. Response of different size and growth regulator on cuttings of passion fruit var. Purple (*Passiflora edulis* var. *edulis* Sims), The Asian J. Hort., 7(2): 515-520.
- Bosila, H. A., M. A. Zewil, M. A. Hawza and M. M. Amin, 2010. Influence of planting date and media on rooting of stem cutting of *Bougainvillea glabra*, J. Plant Production, Mansoura University, 1 (7) : 1033- 1040.
- Davis, T.D., S. W. George, A.Y.Upadhyay and J. Persons, 1991. Propagation of firebush (*Hamelia patens*) by stem cuttings, J. Environ. Hort., 9 : 57-61.
- Ferguson, J. and M. Young, 1985. Propagation of citrus rootstock by stem cuttings, Proc. Flo. State Hort. Soc. 98 : 39-42.
- Hartman, H. D. and F. D. Kester, 2000. 'Plant propagation, principles and methods', Shiraz university press, page 273.
- Irshad, M., A. Rab, J. Rehman, M. Sajid, I. Khan, S. Ali, S. Razaq and M. Sallabuddin, 2014. Influence of different planting dates and media on growth of kiwi (cv. Haward) cuttings, Sarhad J. Agri., 30(4): 419-424.
- Kasim, N.E., AbouRavya, M.S., Shaheen, M. A., Yahia, T. A. and E. I. Ali, 2009. Effect of different collection times and some treatments on rooting and chemical internal constituents of bitter almond hardwood cuttings, Res. J. Agri. and bio. Sci., 5(2):116-122.
- Kaur, S., A. Kaur and G. Kaur, 2016. Effect of iba, phb and time of planting on rooting of pomegranate cuttings cv. Ganesh, Asian J. Sci. Tech., 7(11): 3557-3561.
- Khajehpour, G., Vahid Jam eizadeh and Nematollah Khajehpour, 2014. Effect of different concentrations of IBA hormone and cutting season on the rooting of the cuttings of olive (*Olea europaea* var. *Manzanilla*), Int. J. Adv. Bio. and Bio. Res., 2(12): 2920-2924.
- Manila, T., D. K. Rana and D. C. Naithani, 2017. Effect of different growing media on vegetative growth and rooting in pomegranate Cv. "Kandhari" hardwood stem cutting under mist, Plant Archives, 17(1): 391-394.
- Moneim, A. and E. Abdel, 2012. Antioxidant activities of *Punica granatum* (pomegranate) peel extract on brain of rats, J. Med. Plants Res., 6(2) : 195-199.
- Nagwa, Y.O., 2007 Propagation of *Ficus nitida* L. by stem cuttings techniques. M.Sc. (Horti.) Thesis (Unpub.) University of Zalingei west Darfur, Sudan.
- Omer A., 2003. Effects of IBA and cutting dates on the rooting ability of semi-hardwood kiwi fruit cuttings, Turk J. Agric., 28 : 195 - 201.
- Shadparvar, V., Mohammadi Torkashv and and A. Alinejad Alamshiri, 2011. Effect of IBA and soil mixtures on rooting of (*Hibiscus rosa- Sinensis*) Euro. J. Exp. Bio., 1(4):142-146.
- Shah, M., A. Mateen and Noor ul Amin, 2006. Effect of different growing media on the rooting of *Ficus binnendijkii* 'Amstel Queen' cuttings. J. Agric. & Bio. Sci., 1(3):220-227.
- Sharma, Y., 1993. Studies on the effect of different rooting media on rooting of hardwood and semi hardwood cuttings of mulberry (*Morus nigra* L.) M.Sc. (Agri) Hort. Thesis (Unpub), BAU.
- Singh, D.R. and S. A. Nair, 2003. Standardization of rooting media for cutting of certain house plants, J. Orn. Hort., 6(1):78-79.
- Snedecor, G.W. and W. G. Cochran, 1968. Statistical Methods. 6th Edn., Oxford and IBH Publishing Company, New Delhi, India.
- Waheb, F., G. Nabi, N. Ali and M. Shah, 2011. Rooting response of semi- hardwood cuttings of guava to various concentrations of different auxins, J. Bio. Sci., 1(4): 184-187.



Received on 5.5.2019

Root Biomass and Quality of *Gmelina arborea* - a Species of Brihatpanchmool as Influenced by Plant Geometry and Organic Manure

S. G. Wankhade¹, R. B. Sarode², S. B. Nandanwar³ and S. P. Nandapure⁴

ABSTRACT

To assess the growth and root yield performance of Gambhari/Shivan a tree species was planted under different geometry and soil fertility during *Kharif* season of 2008-09 the treatments comprising of three plant spacings 100 x 150 cm (S1-6,666 Plant population ha⁻¹), 100 x 100 cm (S2-10,000 Plant population ha⁻¹), 100 x 50 cm (S3-20,000 Plant population ha⁻¹) and four levels viz. 0.0(F1), 2.0(F2), 4.0(F3), 6.0(F4) t ha⁻¹. with the plot size of 6.0 x 6.0 m. The observations on plant height, No. of branches, root length and girth, fresh and dry root yield were recorded up to 3 years at an interval of six months growth period. The plants of Gambhari (*Gmelina arborea*), were completely uprooted at 6, 12 and 18 month's growth period for recording the root yield including tap root. The woody and hard tap root is rather less pharmaceutical important and therefore at 24, 30 and 36 months growth period only lateral roots were harvested. Plant height, root length, root girth and dry root yield per plant of Gambhari was highest with the plant spacing of 100 x 150 cm and FYM @ 2 t ha⁻¹ (S1xF2) after 6 months of growth period. The per cent WSE values were very high with spacing of 150x100 cm (S1) and 100x100 cm (S2) than 100x50 cm (S3) without much difference with FYM levels i.e 0 t (F1) & 2.0 t (F2).

At 12 months of growth period, the number of branches, root length, root girth and dry root yield per plant and total alkaloids were highest with the plant spacing of 100 x 150 cm and FYM @ 2 t ha⁻¹ (S1xF2). The per cent WSE values however were less than required (20 %) by Ayurvedic Pharmacopoeial Standards with all the treatments. After 18 months growth period, highest no of branches, root length, root girth dry root yield, per cent WSE and total glycosides were observed, with the plant spacing of 100 x 150 cm and FYM @ 2 t ha⁻¹ (S1xF2). The dry root yield per plant (991 g) was highest amongst all the other treatments. Total alkaloids, total phenols and total flavonoids were highest with plant spacing of 100x100 cm with FYM @ 2 t ha⁻¹ (S2xF2). Since the harvesting of roots after 18 months was very difficult with increased requirement of labour, time and cost, lateral roots were harvested from 24 months and analysed. At 24 months stage, the root girth, dry root yield per plant, total alkaloids and total phenols were highest with S1x F2, while per cent WSE and per cent ASE were slightly lower (22.78 & 12.48 %) than the highest which were observed with 100 x 100 cm plant spacing (24.06 & 14.14 %). At 30 and 36 months age, the values of per cent WSE, were less than at 18 and 24 month and also much less than the standard pharmacopoeial requirement i.e 20 per cent with all the treatments.

Many of the manufacturing units of Ayurvedic drugs are experiencing the shortage of raw material for the plant products from medicinal plant species being used as a Dashmool. The supply of the raw material particularly to that of root based material from trees of dashmool group is very-very meagre and hardly there are reliable data available which support supply scenario. This kind of short supply may lead to the use of either substitutes or in a very low quantity in the ayurvedic formulations and ultimately affect the efficacy of the formulations. In view of above, it is imperative to develop the agrotechnologies of these species. Hence, there is an urgent need for an intervention to develop and conserve the resource base for dashmool.

The present investigation was carried out with the objectives to develop the agronomic protocols for high density, short term plantation for Gambhari/Shivan (*Gmelina arborea*) a species of Brihatpanchmool and to study the yielding potential as influenced by age of the plant and time of harvesting.

Dashmoola is a fixed dose combination of 10 roots obtained from *Aegle marmelos* (Tree), *Gmelina arborea* (Tree), *Oroxylum indicum* (Tree), *Stereospermum suaveolens* (Tree) *Clerodendron multiflorum* (Shrub), *Desmodium gangeticum* (Herb), *Uraria picta* (under shrub) *Solanum indicum* (Shrub), *Solanum xanthocarpum* (Herb), *Tribulus terrestris* (Herb). Habit-

1. Professor & Principal Investigator, 2. Assitt. Professor & Co-Principal Investigator, 3 & 4 Sr. Res. Fellows, AICRP on Medicinal, Aromatic Plants & Betelvines, Dr PDKV, Akola

wise, it includes 5 tree species, 2 shrub / under shrub species and 3 herb species. These species belong to six different families of Angiosperms: Verbenaceae (2 species), Fabaceae (2 species), Solanaceae (2 species), Bignoniaceae (2 species), Rutaceae (1 species) and Zygophyllaceae (1 species).

Dashmoola is indicated for aggravations of the nervous system and pain when there are signs of debility. It is used as a decoction or enema for lower back pain, sciatica, tremors, Parkinson's disease and inflammation in the pelvic and sacral region. For dry cough and respiratory weakness when there is high *vata* Dashmoolarisht can be used as a tonic to strengthen the system. When the immune system is depleted and is not throwing off fevers the decoction can cause diaphoresis and release the trapped *ama* toxins. It is also good for influenza, colds, neuralgia, and headaches. One-quarter cup consumed daily for twenty-one days functions as a rapid cell rejuvenator.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

To assess the growth and root yield performance of Gambhari/Shivan a tree species was planted under different geometry and soil fertility during *Kharif* season 2008-09 the treatments comprising of three plant spacings 100 x 150 cm (S₁ 6,666 Plant population ha⁻¹), 100 x 100 cm (S₂ 10,000 Plant population ha⁻¹), 100 x 50 cm (S₃ 20,000 Plant population ha⁻¹) and four levels viz. 0.0, 2.0, 4.0, 6.0 t ha⁻¹ with the plot size of 6.0 x 6.0 m. The observations on plant height, No. of branches, root length and girth, fresh and dry root yield were recorded up to 3 years at an interval of six months growth period. The plants of Gambhari (*Gmelina arborea*), were completely uprooted at 6, 12 and 18 month's growth period for recording the root yield including tap root. The woody and hard tap root is rather less pharmaceutical important and therefore at 24, 30 and 36 months growth period only lateral roots were harvested. The physicochemical and phyto-chemical analysis of the roots harvested at 6, 12, 18, 24, 30 and 36 months growth period was carried out by standard methods (Torel, *et al.*, 1986; Agrawal and Paridhavi, 2007 and Padma, *et al.*, 2010).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Plant height

Significantly maximum plant height was recorded

with the closer plant spacing 100 x 50 cm except the plant height recorded at 30 and 36 months and was highest with the plant spacing of 100 x 100 cm, however it was at par with the closer spacing of 100 x 50 cm. (Table 1).

Application of FYM at various levels significantly influenced the plant height and significantly maximum plant height was noticed with the application 6 t FYM per hectare at all the growth period under study except the plant height recorded at 24 months growth period. It was significantly highest with the application of 2 t FYM per hectare. The interaction effect was found to be significant at all the growth periods. The plant spacing of 100 x 50 cm with the application of 6 t FYM per hectare (S3x F4) recorded significantly maximum plant height at all the growth period except 24 and 36 months growth periods. The plant height noticed at 24 and 36 months growth periods under the plant spacing 100 x 100 cm with 6 t FYM per hectare (S2 x F4) was significantly highest.

No. of branches:

The number of branches was also successively found to increase with each growth period and it was noticed that significantly maximum number of branches were recorded with the wider plant spacing 100 x 150 cm except the branches recorded at 36 months growth period and were maximum with the plant spacing of 100 x 100 cm (Table-2).

Application of FYM at various levels significantly influenced the number of branches plant⁻¹ and significantly maximum branches were noticed with the application 6 t FYM ha⁻¹ at all the growth period under study. The interaction effect was found to be significant at all the growth periods. The plant spacing of 100 x 150 cm with the application of 6 t FYM ha⁻¹ (S1x F4) recorded significantly maximum branches plant⁻¹. However, number of branches noticed at 36 months growth periods under the plant spacing 100 x 100 cm with 6 t FYM ha⁻¹ (S2x F4) was significantly highest.

Root length and girth

The data presented in Table 3(a) revealed that the root length and girth of completely uprooted plants of Shivan at 6, 12 and 18 months growth periods were successively found to increase with each growth period.

Table 1. Relative plant height of Gambhari/Shivan (*Gmelina arborea*) as influenced by plant spacing and FYM levels.

Treatments	Growth Period (Months)					
	6	12	18	24	30	36
Plant spacing (cm)	Plant Height (cm)					
S1-(100 X 150)	46.94	101.54	232.97	342.81	372.50	443.74
S2-(100 X 100)	50.23	107.71	251.50	350.25	470.25	548.75
S3-(100 X 50)	60.59	110.63	258.18	357.29	469.89	538.97
SE (m)±	0.77	1.59	1.63	3.50	16.32	10.94
CD at 5%	2.26	4.67	4.78	10.26	47.89	32.11
	FYM levels (t ha⁻¹)					
F 1 -0.0	44.72	94.78	226.22	325.78	353.33	469.44
F 2 -2.0	49.61	102.97	250.91	362.25	456.86	504.86
F 3 -4.0	52.78	113.21	254.80	357.19	460.25	510.19
F 4 -6.0	63.23	115.55	258.27	355.25	479.75	557.46
SE (m)±	0.89	1.84	1.88	4.04	18.85	12.64
CD at 5%	2.61	5.39	5.53	11.85	55.29	37.08
	Interaction S x F					
S1F1	31.75	88.67	209.16	308.75	337.50	391.25
S1F2	46.50	97.75	236.25	355.00	376.25	443.33
S1F3	50.00	108.75	240.00	382.50	396.25	452.91
S1F4	59.50	111.00	246.50	325.00	380.00	487.50
S2F1	41.00	95.67	229.67	302.00	390.83	515.83
S2F2	47.00	104.33	254.50	342.00	497.67	543.33
S2F3	50.33	113.17	260.00	355.83	475.00	539.17
S2F4	62.60	117.67	261.83	401.17	517.50	596.67
S3F1	61.42	100.00	239.83	366.58	331.67	501.25
S3F2	55.33	106.83	262.00	389.75	496.67	527.92
S3F3	58.00	117.71	264.40	333.25	509.50	538.50
S3F4	67.60	118.00	266.49	339.58	541.75	588.22
SE (m)±	1.54	3.18	3.26	6.996	32.65	21.89
CD at 5%	4.52	9.34	9.57	20.52	95.78	64.22

Further, it was noticed that significantly maximum root length and girth was recorded with the wider plant spacing 100 x 150 cm, except the root length recorded at 6 months and was highest with the plant spacing of 100 x 100 cm, however it was at par with the spacing of 100 x 150 cm.

Application of FYM at various levels significantly influenced the root length and girth and significantly maximum root length and root girth was noticed with the application 6 t FYM per hectare at all the growth period under study. The interaction effect was

found to be significant at all the growth periods. The plant spacing of 100 x 150 cm with the application of 6 t FYM ha⁻¹ (S1 x F4) recorded significantly maximum root length and girth at all the growth period except 6 months growth periods. The root length and girth noticed at 6 months growth periods under the plant spacing 100 x 100 cm with 6 t FYM ha⁻¹ (S2 x F4) was significantly highest, however at par under plant spacing of 100 x 150 cm with the application of 6 t FYM per hectare (S1 x F4).

During the growth periods of 24, 30 and 36 months

Table 2 : Relative number of branches of Gambhari/Shivan (*Gmelina arborea*) as influenced by plant spacing and FYM levels.

Treatments	Growth Period (Months)					
	6	12	18	24	30	36
Plant spacing (cm)	No. of branches					
S1-(100 X 150)	3.43	7.60	8.20	11.21	17.61	18.54
S2-(100 X 100)	2.93	7.00	6.48	10.06	16.50	21.20
S3-(100 X 50)	2.64	6.05	4.62	9.13	10.25	18.07
SE (m)±	0.06	0.19	0.13	0.25	0.35	0.60
CD at 5%	0.18	0.57	0.41	0.75	1.03	1.76
FYM levels (t ha⁻¹)						
F 1 -0.0	2.94	6.19	5.75	8.61	10.36	14.49
F 2 -2.0	2.66	6.88	6.13	9.69	14.09	18.23
F 3 -4.0	3.16	6.94	6.87	10.70	16.28	20.86
F 4 -6.0	3.25	7.51	6.98	11.53	18.41	23.48
SE (m)±	0.07	0.22	0.16	0.29	0.40	0.69
CD at 5%	0.21	0.66	0.47	0.86	1.19	2.03
Interaction S x F						
S1F1	3.25	6.67	6.75	9.50	11.08	14.66
S1F2	3.50	7.75	7.50	10.50	16.70	18.50
S1F3	3.50	8.00	9.33	11.67	19.17	19.00
S1F4	3.50	8.00	9.25	13.17	23.50	22.00
S2F1	3.00	6.00	6.17	8.33	12.00	13.83
S2F2	2.50	7.33	6.33	9.58	15.83	20.80
S2F3	3.00	6.67	6.60	10.92	18.17	23.50
S2F4	3.25	8.00	6.83	11.42	20.00	26.67
S3F1	2.58	5.91	4.33	8.00	8.00	15.00
S3F2	2.00	5.58	4.58	9.00	9.75	15.40
S3F3	3.00	6.17	4.70	9.50	11.50	20.10
S3F4	3.00	6.55	4.88	10.00	11.75	21.78
SE (m)±	0.12	0.39	0.27	0.51	0.70	1.20
CD at 5%	0.37	1.14	0.82	1.49	2.06	3.53

only lateral roots were harvested and the data generated on the lateral root length and girth is presented in Table-3(b). The lateral root length and girth was also successively found to increase with each growth period. Further, it was noticed that significantly maximum root length and girth was recorded with the wider plant spacing 100 x 150 cm.

Application of FYM at various levels significantly influenced the root length and girth and

significantly maximum root length and root girth was noticed with the application 6 t FYM ha⁻¹ at all the growth period (24, 30 and 36 months) under study. The interaction effect was found to be significant at all the growth periods. The plant spacing of 100 x 150 cm with the application of 6 t FYM ha⁻¹ (S1xF4) recorded significantly maximum root length and girth at all the growth period, except root girth recorded at 12 and 18 months growth period.

Table-3 (a) Relative root length and girth of completely uprooted plants of Gambhar/Shivan (*Gmelina arborea*) as influenced by plant spacing and FYM levels.

Treatments	Growth Period (Months)					
	6	12	18	6	12	18
Plant spacing (cm)	Root length (cm)			Root girth (cm)		
S1-(100 X 150)	20.81	31.48	83.63	1.16	2.25	4.64
S2-(100 X 100)	21.58	25.71	78.94	1.07	1.94	4.61
S3-(100 X 50)	19.87	25.04	66.31	0.98	1.53	4.39
SE (m)±	0.59	0.56	0.72	0.03	0.02	0.05
CD at 5%	1.75	1.64	2.14	0.09	0.05	0.16
	FYM levels (t ha⁻¹)					
F 1 -0.0	20.05	25.72	74.52	0.98	1.47	4.17
F 2 -2.0	20.42	26.67	75.78	1.04	1.65	4.64
F 3 -4.0	20.83	28.16	77.01	1.10	1.72	4.67
F 4 -6.0	21.71	29.05	77.86	1.16	2.78	4.69
SE (m)±	0.69	0.65	0.84	0.03	0.02	0.06
CD at 5%	2.02	1.89	2.47	0.10	0.60	0.18
	Interaction S x F					
S1F1	20.25	28.67	80.50	1.00	1.67	4.30
S1F2	20.50	30.75	82.75	1.15	2.13	4.73
S1F3	20.75	32.50	85.25	1.23	2.18	4.75
S1F4	21.75	34.00	86.00	1.28	3.03	4.75
S2F1	20.75	24.17	77.83	1.00	1.52	4.18
S2F2	21.33	24.83	78.33	1.00	1.58	4.72
S2F3	21.67	26.50	79.29	1.07	1.72	4.75
S2F4	22.60	27.33	80.33	1.22	2.93	4.77
S3F1	19.17	24.33	65.25	0.95	1.23	4.04
S3F2	19.44	24.42	66.25	0.97	1.24	4.47
S3F3	20.08	25.57	66.50	1.00	1.27	4.51
S3F4	20.80	25.82	67.25	1.00	2.37	4.54
SE (m)±	1.19	1.12	1.46	0.06	0.04	0.11
CD at 5%	3.51	3.28	4.27	0.18	0.11	0.31

Root yield

The data presented in Table-4(a) revealed that the dry root yield of completely uprooted plants of Shivan at 6, 12 and 18 months growth periods was found to increase markedly with each growth period. The root yield was in the range of 0.23-0.74 q ha⁻¹ at 6 months, 4.27-5.22 q ha⁻¹ at 12 months and 49.51-94.28 q ha⁻¹ at 18 months

growth period. Further, it was noticed that significantly highest root yield was recorded with the closer plant spacing 100 x 50 cm.

Application of FYM at various levels significantly influenced the dry root yield and significantly maximum root yield was noticed with the application 6 t FYM per hectare, however it was at par with the

Table-3 (b) Lateral root length and girth of Gambhar/Shivan (*Gmelina arborea*) as influenced by plant spacing and FYM levels.

Treatments	Growth Period (Months)					
	24	30	36	24	30	36
Plant spacing (cm)	Root length (cm)			Root girth (cm)		
S1-(100 X 150)	67.14	70.53	74.21	0.67	0.98	1.06
S2-(100 X 100)	66.69	67.94	70.73	0.62	0.88	0.95
S3-(100 X 50)	53.45	66.79	67.45	0.57	0.85	0.91
SE (m)±	0.52	1.09	1.14	0.01	0.01	0.02
CD at 5%	1.52	3.20	3.35	0.02	0.04	0.06
FYM levels (t ha⁻¹)						
F 1 -0.0	54.85	60.89	65.57	0.54	0.70	0.89
F 2 -2.0	58.44	64.24	67.91	0.65	0.87	0.98
F 3 -4.0	64.61	70.25	71.28	0.63	1.00	0.99
F 4 -6.0	71.79	78.29	74.43	0.65	1.03	1.01
SE (m)±	0.60	1.26	1.14	0.01	0.02	0.02
CD at 5%	1.76	3.69	3.35	0.02	0.05	0.60
Interaction S x F						
S1F1	56.13	59.38	70.13	0.59	0.71	1.01
S1F2	56.13	65.75	70.17	0.73	1.06	1.08
S1F3	72.53	72.00	71.80	0.64	1.11	1.10
S1F4	83.75	85.00	84.75	0.73	1.04	1.04
S2F1	60.92	63.75	64.58	0.55	0.70	0.83
S2F2	68.00	66.17	69.83	0.63	0.81	0.97
S2F3	68.00	66.83	73.25	0.61	1.02	0.99
S2F4	69.83	75.00	75.25	0.70	0.98	1.00
S3F1	47.50	59.54	62.00	0.49	0.70	0.85
S3F2	51.20	60.80	63.73	0.60	0.75	0.89
S3F3	53.29	71.92	68.80	0.65	0.89	0.89
S3F4	61.79	74.88	75.28	0.53	1.06	1.00
SE (m)±	1.04	2.18	2.28	0.01	0.03	0.40
CD at 5%	3.04	6.40	6.69	0.04	0.09	0.12

application 4 t FYM per hectare at all the growth period under study. The interaction effect was found to be significant at all the growth periods. The plant spacing of 100 x 50 cm with the application of 6 t FYM ha⁻¹ (S3xF4) recorded significantly maximum dry root yield at all the growth period, however at par with plant spacing of 100 x 50 cm the application of 4 t FYM ha⁻¹ (S3xF4).

During the growth periods of 24, 30 and 36 months

only lateral roots were harvested and the data generated on the lateral root yield is presented in Table 4(b). The lateral root yield was also successively found to increase with each growth period. The root yield was in the range of 8.04-11.66 q ha⁻¹ at 24 months, 15.10-26.02 q ha⁻¹ at 30 months and 17.13-45.44 q ha⁻¹ at 36 months growth period. Further, it was noticed that significantly highest root yield was recorded with the plant spacing 100 x 100 cm.

Table- 4 (a) Relative dry root yield of completely uprooted plants of Gambhari/Shivan (*Gmelina arborea*) as influenced by plant spacing and FYM levels.

Treatments	Growth Period (Months)					
	6	12	18	6	12	18
Plant spacing (cm)	Dry root yield (g plant ⁻¹)			Dry root yield (q ha ⁻¹)		
S1-(100 X 150)	5.47	71.73	980.00	0.36	4.79	65.39
S2-(100 X 100)	4.55	45.48	779.25	0.45	4.55	77.99
S3-(100 X 50)	3.31	24.70	459.25	0.66	4.94	91.92
SE (m)±	9.68	0.71	24.09	0.01	0.08	2.73
CD(P=0.05)	0.28	2.09	70.65	0.03	0.26	7.99
FYM levels (t ha⁻¹)						
F 1 -0.0	3.17	42.38	636.33	0.37	4.28	70.15
F 2 -2.0	4.07	46.46	744.67	0.44	4.66	78.85
F 3 -4.0	4.63	49.19	783.00	0.52	4.94	82.13
F 4 -6.0	5.90	51.20	794.00	0.63	5.14	82.60
SE (m)±	0.11	0.82	27.81	0.01	0.10	3.14
CD(P=0.05)	0.32	2.41	81.56	0.04	0.30	9.23
Interaction S x F						
S1F1	3.50	64.00	742.00	0.23	4.27	49.51
S1F2	5.38	70.67	991.00	0.36	4.72	66.12
S1F3	5.75	75.25	1074.00	0.38	5.02	71.66
S1F4	7.25	77.00	1113.00	0.48	5.14	74.26
S2F1	3.15	40.33	726.00	0.31	4.04	72.66
S2F2	3.83	44.50	783.00	0.38	4.45	78.36
S2F3	4.50	46.60	804.00	0.45	4.66	80.46
S2F4	6.75	50.50	804.00	0.67	5.05	80.46
S3F1	2.88	22.80	441.00	0.57	4.56	88.27
S3F2	3.00	24.20	460.00	0.60	4.84	92.07
S3F3	3.64	25.71	471.00	0.73	5.15	94.28
S3F4	3.72	26.10	465.00	0.74	5.22	93.07
SE (m)±	0.19	1.42	48.18	0.02	0.18	5.45
CD(P=0.05)	0.56	4.18	141.31	0.07	0.53	15.99

Application of FYM at various levels significantly influenced the root yield and significantly highest root yield was noticed with the application 6 t FYM ha⁻¹ at all the growth period under study. The interaction effect was found to be significant at all the growth periods. The plant spacing of 100 x 150 cm with the application of 6 t FYM ha⁻¹ (S1xF4) recorded significantly highest root yield at 24 months growth period. Whereas the plant spacing of 100 x 150 cm with the

application of 4 t FYM ha⁻¹ (S1xF3) recorded significantly highest root yield at 30 months growth period and the plant spacing of 100 x 100 cm with the application of 6 t FYM ha⁻¹ (S2xF4) recorded significantly highest root yield at 36 months growth period. These results are supported by the findings of Mohit Kumar and Rajesh Kumar (2013) and Adegun and Ayodele (2015). The application of organic manures influences the plant growth by enhancing root biomass thereby total root surface

facilitates higher absorption of nutrients ultimately increase the biomass yield (Farhad *et al*, 2019).

Physicochemical analysis of roots of Gambhari/Shivan (*Gmelina arborea*) as influenced by plant spacing and FYM levels.

The data on physico and phyto-chemical parameters of roots of Gambhari/Shivan (*Gmelina arborea*) are presented in Table-5-7.

The data on water soluble extractive values revealed that the various plant spacing had influenced the WSE and highest values of WSE were noticed with wider spacing i.e. planting at 100 x 150 cm. The manurial treatments i.e. application of different levels of Farm Yard Manure under the plant spacing of 100 x 150 and 100 x 50 cm recorded favourable effect on WSE, however the results were non consistent. On the basis of general mean the WSE values were in the range of 10.28-23.72 per cent

Table-4(b) Relative lateral dry root yield of Gambhari/Shivan (*Gmelina arborea*) as influenced by plant spacing and FYM levels.

Treatments	Growth Period (Months)					
	24	30	36	24	30	36
Plant spacing (cm)	Dry root yield (g plant⁻¹)			Dry root yield (q ha⁻¹)		
S1-(100 X 150)	145.19	327.31	394.75	9.69	21.84	26.34
S2-(100 X 100)	86.92	766.04	351.29	8.70	16.62	35.16
S3-(100 X 50)	39.60	74.73	103.37	7.93	14.95	20.69
SE (m)±	1.91	8.13	4.48	0.16	0.60	0.45
CD at 5%sd	5.59	23.86	13.12	0.48	1.78	1.31
FYM levels (t ha⁻¹)						
F 1 -0.0	75.14	134.83	195.86	7.06	12.59	19.89
F 2 -2.0	79.78	171.72	251.07	7.65	16.66	25.50
F 3 -4.0	99.69	225.11	322.70	9.80	20.69	30.44
F 4 -6.0	107.66	225.78	852.92	10.58	21.26	33.76
SE (m)±	2.20	9.39	5.17	0.19	0.70	0.51
CD at 5%	6.45	27.56	15.16	0.56	2.06	1.51
Interaction S x F						
S1F1	120.50	226.25	256.75	8.04	15.10	17.13
S1F2	125.50	273.50	356.00	8.37	18.25	23.75
S1F3	160.00	419.50	477.50	10.68	27.99	31.86
S1F4	174.75	390.00	488.75	11.66	26.02	32.61
S2F1	78.67	129.83	236.67	7.87	12.99	23.69
S2F2	82.17	166.17	327.50	8.22	16.63	32.78
S2F3	91.00	171.00	387.00	9.11	17.11	38.73
S2F4	95.83	197.17	454.00	9.59	19.73	45.44
S3F1	26.25	48.40	94.17	5.25	9.69	18.84
S3F2	31.67	75.50	99.73	6.34	15.11	19.96
S3F3	48.08	84.83	103.60	9.62	16.98	20.74
S3F4	52.40	90.17	116.00	10.49	18.05	23.22
SE (m)±	3.81	16.27	8.95	0.33	1.21	0.51
CD at 5%	11.18	47.73	26.26	0.96	1.72	2.61

in the roots harvested from 6th months onwards up to 36th months at an interval of 6 months growth period. Further, it was observed that the WSE values (23.72%) was highest in the roots harvested at 6th months (i.e. December 2008) followed by WSE (21.39 %) recorded at 24th months (i.e. June 2010) and WSE (20.36%) observed at 18th months (i.e. December, 2009). Comparatively lowest WSE values were noticed in the roots harvested at 30th months (December 2010), followed by 36th months (June, 2011) and 12th months (June, 2009).

The data on alcohol soluble extractive values revealed that the various plant spacing and the manurial treatments i.e. application of different levels of Farm Yard Manure did not influenced the ASE values in the roots of Gambhari. On the basis of general mean the ASE values were in the range of 7.55-13.12 per cent in the roots harvested from 6th months onwards up to 36th months at an interval of 6 months growth period. Further, it was observed that the ASE values (13.12 %) was highest in the roots harvested at 24th months (i.e. June 2010) followed by ASE (10.64%) recorded at 18th months (i.e. December, 2009) and ASE (10.20 per cent) observed at 12th months (i.e. June, 2009). Comparatively lowest ASE values (7.55%) were noticed in the roots harvested at 30th months (December 2010), followed by 6th months (December, 2008) and 36th months (June, 2011). On the basis of general mean the total ash values were in the range of 2.31-6.79 per cent and acid insoluble ash values were in the range of 0.79-4.21 per cent in the roots harvested from 6th months onwards up to 36th months (Table 6).

As the results obtained on physico-chemical constituents were not consistent with the manurial treatments i.e. application of different levels of FYM, the composite samples for each plant spacing (i.e. S1, S2 and S3) with FYM @ 2 t FYM ha⁻¹ were analysed for phyto-chemical constituents. The results obtained are presented in Table-7.

The total flavonoids values were in the range of 2.00-6.46 per cent, Alkaloid values were in the range of 0.33-2.35 per cent, Phenols values were in the range of 0.77-1.19 per cent and Glycosides values were in the range of 1.29-5.88 per cent in the roots harvested from 6th months onwards up to 36th months at an interval of 6 months growth period. Further, it is observed that the values of

these phyto-chemical constituents were maximum in the roots harvested at 24th months onwards. The WSE values observed in the roots of Gambhari, harvested at 18-24th months under the study conforms the accepted limits and is having higher relevance in context of Ayurvedic methods of drug usage as these values are indicative of phyto-constituents in a given quantity medicinal plant material (Padma, *et.al* 2010).

Further, it is observed that the values of these phyto-chemical constituents were maximum in the roots of the brihat-panchmoola species under study harvested at 18th-24th months onwards. Phyto-chemicals, polyphenols are largely recognized as anti-inflammatory, antiviral, antimicrobial and antioxidant agent (Narayana, *et.al*. 2001). As such, phenolics and flavanoides constitute major group of compounds which act as primary antioxidants (Adesegun *et.al*. 2009) are known to react with hydroxyl radicals (Hussain *et.al*. 1987) super-oxide anion radicals (Afanaslev *et.al*. 1989), lipid peroxiradicals (Torel *et.al*. 1986), protect DNA from oxidative damage inhibitory against tumor cells and possess anti-inflammatory and antimicrobial properties. Thus, the results of this study signify that the roots of Gambhari/Shivan (*Gmelina arborea*) of the age of 18-24 months growth period could be a source of natural antioxidant and anti-inflammatory drug.

CONCLUSION

Considering various aspects such as dry root yield, per cent WSE, total alkaloids, total flavonoids, total glycosides standards provided by Ayurvedic Pharmacopoeia of India and the most importantly the feasibility and cost effectiveness of root harvesting, it can be concluded that the roots of *Gmelina arborea* (Gambhari/Shivan) can be harvested at the age of 24 months. The plant spacing of 100 x 100-150 cm with FYM application @ 2 t ha⁻¹. found superior among all the treatments under study.

LITERATURE CITED

- Adegun M.K. and O.J. Ayodele, 2015. Growth and yield of *Moringa oleifera* as influenced by spacing and organic manures in South Western Nigeria. Int.J. Agron. & Agric. Res. (IJAAR) Vol.6: 30-37.
- Adesegun, S.A., A., Fajana, C.I. Orabueze, and H.A.B.

Table 5 : Water and Alcohol Soluble Extractive values of Gambhari/Shivan (*Gmelina arborea*) roots as influenced by plant spacing and FYM levels.

Treatment combinations	Growth Period (Months)					
	6	12	18	24	30	36
Plant spacing x FYM levels						
Water Soluble Extractive (%)						
S 1 100 x 150 cm						
F 1 0.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	27.83	12.36	21.89	23.64	11.80	12.97
F 2 2.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	26.72	14.90	22.81	22.78	10.20	12.87
F 3 4.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	29.47	14.51	21.18	22.44	11.30	11.43
F 4 6.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	29.53	15.11	20.76	24.68	8.80	10.61
Mean	28.39	14.22	21.66	23.39	10.53	11.97
S 2 100 x 100 cm						
F 1 0.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	28.45	15.23	21.33	24.06	9.06	14.05
F 2 2.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	28.12	12.63	16.31	—	12.60	12.67
F 3 4.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	18.10	14.01	19.96	19.72	6.38	12.33
F 4 6.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	21.08	13.46	19.37	20.16	12.25	13.53
Mean	23.94	13.83	19.24	21.31	10.07	13.15
S 3 100 x 50 cm						
F 1 0.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	19.20	13.66	19.10	17.78	12.32	12.49
F 2 2.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	18.24	15.68	19.58	18.24	9.75	13.66
F 3 4.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	18.41	15.93	20.63	19.82	8.86	11.08
F 4 6.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	19.47	19.85	21.39	22.08	10.04	10.77
Mean	18.83	16.28	20.18	19.48	10.24	12.00
General Mean	23.72	14.78	20.36	21.39	10.28	12.37
Plant spacing x FYM levels						
Alcohol Soluble Extractive (%)						
S 1 100 x 150 cm						
F 1 0.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	8.92	8.72	11.87	11.36	8.65	9.18
F 2 2.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	7.55	7.44	12.37	12.48	7.16	10.00
F 3 4.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	7.88	9.41	12.63	13.72	7.16	8.67
F 4 6.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	8.44	11.03	11.41	13.46	7.88	9.62
Mean	8.20	9.15	12.07	12.76	7.71	9.37
S 2 100 x 100 cm						
F 1 0.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	7.30	11.63	12.66	14.14	6.23	10.59
F 2 2.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	7.97	10.41	8.90	—	8.34	11.42
F 3 4.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	8.24	9.85	10.78	13.82	8.82	9.67
F 4 6.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	8.75	10.12	9.47	14.44	7.99	10.55
Mean	8.06	10.50	10.45	14.13	7.85	10.56
S 3 100 x 50 cm						
F 1 0.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	8.77	9.61	9.07	10.76	7.18	11.00
F 2 2.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	9.42	11.35	9.23	12.60	7.20	9.23
F 3 4.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	9.27	10.74	9.15	13.52	7.01	10.84
F 4 6.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	8.34	12.15	10.23	13.00	7.00	10.20
Mean	8.95	10.96	9.42	12.47	7.10	10.32
General Mean	8.40	10.20	10.64	13.12	7.55	10.08

Table-6 Total ash and Acid insoluble ash of Gambhar/Shivan (*Gmelina arborea*) roots as influenced by plant spacing and FYM levels

Treatment combinations	Growth Period (Months)					
	6	12	18	24	30	36
Plant spacing x FYM levels	Total ash (%)					
S 1 100 x 150 cm						
F 1 0.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	7.11	3.82	2.36	3.47	4.59	6.27
F 2 2.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	5.95	4.80	2.56	3.46	3.65	4.94
F 3 4.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	7.29	2.83	2.41	5.41	3.81	5.22
F 4 6.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	6.18	3.36	2.68	5.07	4.46	6.08
Mean	6.63	3.70	2.50	4.35	4.13	5.63
S 2 100 x 100 cm						
F 1 0.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	6.01	3.62	2.41	12.58	4.43	4.36
F 2 2.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	7.95	3.84	1.85	—	4.95	7.38
F 3 4.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	7.01	4.51	2.22	4.51	6.03	7.69
F 4 6.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	5.35	3.35	2.44	3.84	5.85	6.47
Mean	6.58	3.83	2.23	6.98	5.32	6.48
S 3 100 x 50 cm						
F 1 0.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	6.25	3.60	2.05	5.25	6.30	4.90
F 2 2.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	12.27	5.12	1.91	4.99	4.03	4.80
F 3 4.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	2.59	5.86	2.58	6.29	3.37	5.08
F 4 6.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	7.51	5.23	2.26	5.55	5.42	5.29
Mean	7.16	4.95	2.20	5.52	4.78	5.02
General Mean	6.79	4.16	2.31	5.61	4.74	5.71
Plant spacing x FYM levels	Acid insoluble ash (%)					
S 1 100 x 150 cm						
F 1 0.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	4.12	1.39	0.62	0.95	2.14	3.62
F 2 2.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	3.56	2.32	0.80	1.25	1.40	3.12
F 3 4.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	4.80	1.07	0.67	2.39	1.83	3.08
F 4 6.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	3.92	1.63	0.92	2.10	2.51	3.89
Mean	4.10	1.60	0.75	1.67	1.97	3.43
S 2 100 x 100 cm						
F 1 0.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	3.15	1.52	0.71	9.70	1.60	2.85
F 2 2.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	4.70	1.93	0.91	—	2.57	4.81
F 3 4.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	4.72	2.24	0.86	1.92	2.84	4.51
F 4 6.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	3.58	1.43	0.82	1.85	3.74	4.05
Mean	4.04	1.78	0.83	4.49	2.69	4.06
S 3 100 x 50 cm						
F 1 0.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	3.78	1.65	0.65	2.35	2.60	2.60
F 2 2.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	8.48	2.56	0.69	0.83	1.43	2.94
F 3 4.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	1.18	2.77	0.88	2.33	2.74	2.73
F 4 6.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	4.60	2.25	0.95	2.69	1.79	2.97
Mean	4.51	2.31	0.79	2.05	2.14	2.81
General Mean	4.21	1.89	0.79	2.73	2.26	3.43

Table 7 : Total flavonoids, Alkaloid, Phenols and Glycosides in Gambhar/Shivan (*Gmelina arborea*) roots as influenced by different plant spacing.

Treatment combinations	Growth Period (Months)				
	12	18	24	30	36
Plant spacing x FYM levels	Total Flavonoids (%)				
S 1 100 x 150 cm xF 2 2.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	1.50	1.70	4.77	4.00	3.06
S 2 100 x 100 cm xF 2 2.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	–	2.70	6.27	3.34	4.34
S 3 100 x 50 cm xF 2 2.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	2.50	1.80	8.34	3.90	3.62
Mean	2.00	2.07	6.46	3.75	3.67
	Alkaloid (%)				
S 1 100 x 150 cm xF 2 2.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	0.68	0.24	1.39	2.13	2.07
S 2 100 x 100 cm xF 2 2.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	–	0.44	0.38	2.14	2.16
S 3 100 x 50 cm xF 2 2.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	0.17	0.31	0.70	2.07	2.83
Mean	0.43	0.33	0.82	2.11	2.35
	Phenols (%)				
S 1 100 x 150 cm xF 2 2.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	0.90	0.75	1.11	0.87	1.18
S 2 100 x 100 cm xF 2 2.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	–	0.85	1.02	0.95	1.20
S 3 100 x 50 cm xF 2 2.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	1.10	0.70	0.90	0.95	1.18
Mean	1.00	0.77	1.01	0.92	1.19
	Glycosides (%)				
S 1 100 x 150 cm xF 2 2.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	3.30	5.48	6.16	4.30	1.13
S 2 100 x 100 cm xF 2 2.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	–	4.40	7.15	5.08	1.09
S 3 100 x 50 cm xF 2 2.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	4.20	4.10	4.32	4.60	1.65
Mean	3.75	4.66	5.88	4.66	1.29

Cocker, 2009. Evaluation of antioxidant properties of *Phaulopsis fascicarpa* C.B.Cl. (Acanthaceae). *eCAM*. 6 : 227-31.

Afanaslev I.B;A.I.,Dorozhko and A.V.Bordskii, 1989. Chelating and free radical scavenging mechanisms of inhibitory action of rutin and quercetin in lipid peroxidation, *Biochem Pharmacol.*, 38:1763-9

Agrawal S.S. and M. Paridhavi, 2007. Herbal Drug Technology, Published by Universities Press (India) Pvt. Ltd Hyderabad.

Farhad H., H. Saeid , M.Gholamhoseini , Delara H. and Diako Khodaei, 2019. Evaluation of quantitative and qualitative characteristics of strawberry in response to bio and chemical fertilizers, *GESUNDE PFLANZ*, March 2019.

Hussain,S.R.,J.Cillard,and P.Cillard,1987. Hydroxyl radical

scavenging activity of flavonoids, *Phytochem.*, 26:2489-91

Mohit Kumar and Rajesh Kumar, 2013. Response of organic manures on growth and yield of Mango (*Mangifera indica* L.) CV. Dashehari, *Hortflora Res. Spectrum*, 2(1):64-67

Narayana, R.K, M.S.Reddy, M.R.Chaluvadi, and D.R. Krishna, 2008. Bioflavonoid classification, pharmacological, biochemical effects and therapeutic potential, *Indian J. Pharmacol*, 33:2-16

Padma,V, S. Preethi, and Lalitha, 2010. Quality control of Indian Traditional Medicines, Institute of Ayurveda & Integrative Medicine, Bangalore.

Torel,J., J. Cillard ,and P.Cillard,1986. Antioxidant activity of flavonoids and reactivity withperoxy radicals, *Phytochem.*, 25:383-385

❖ ❖ ❖
Received on 11.6.2019

Influence of Plant Growth Regulators on Seed Yield and Economics of Fenugreek (*Trigonella foenum-graecum* L.)

A. M. Sonkamble¹, D. P. Ingole², V. S. Kale³, S. R. Patil⁴ and P. S. Umbarkar⁵

ABSTRACT

The present investigation was carried out during *Rabi* season of 2018-2019 at Instructional farm Department of Vegetable Science, Dr. Panjabrao Krishi Vidyapeeth, Akola. The experiment was laid out in Randomized Block Design with three replications. The treatment consisted of two concentrations of each plant growth regulator namely GA₃ 75 ppm, GA₃ 100 ppm, NAA 25 ppm, NAA 50 ppm, Cycocel 200 ppm, Cycocel 250 ppm, Paclobutrazol 20 ppm, Paclobutrazol 30 ppm and Control (water spraying). The experiment was thus conducted with nine treatments. Among the PGRs, an application of NAA 25 ppm recorded maximum number of pod plant⁻¹, number of seed pod⁻¹, seed yield plant⁻¹, seed yield plot⁻¹, seed yield ha⁻¹, test weight and B:C ratio.

Fenugreek (*Trigonella foenum-graecum* L.) is an important condiment occupying third place in area and fourth in production among all the minor spices grown in our country. It is a small seed with yellowish brown colour. It is a rich source of proteins, minerals, vitamin-A and C (Das, 1992). Fenugreek belongs to family Leguminosae, subfamily Papilionaceae and genus *Trigonella*. It is an annual crop. The nodules found at the tip of side roots have nitrogen fixing bacteria which fix nitrogen in the soil and thus add to the fertility of the soil.

Growth regulators are organic compounds other than nutrients, small amount of which are capable of modifying growth (Lepold, 1963). Among the growth regulators, auxin causes enlargement of plant cell and gibberellins stimulate cell division, cell enlargement or both (Nickell, 1982). Gibberellic acid (GA₃) may be a contributor in achieving the desired goal. Plant growth regulators have great potential in increasing agricultural production and helps in removing many of the barriers imposed by genetics and environment. Exogenous application of PGR's has been reported to improve the growth and yield of various crops (Bharud *et al.* 1988). It is well known that all the PGRs regulate the physiological functions or processes of plant.

Though the plant growth regulators are useful and also available in the market but their use and concentrations have not been standardized in fenugreek.

In India several research workers have studied the effect of plant growth regulators on various vegetable crops, especially on seed treatments, seedling treatments and foliar application. However, scanty information is available on the effect of foliar application of plant growth regulators in fenugreek seed production.

Plant growth regulators have been tried to improve the growth and ultimately yield. Among the growth regulators Cultar, CCC, NAA and GA₃ exhibits beneficial effect in several crops. However, information on effect of Cultar, CCC, NAA and GA₃ on fenugreek seed production under Vidarbha condition is not available. Therefore, the present investigation was undertaken to study the effect of Cultar, CCC, NAA and GA₃ on seed yield and economics of fenugreek.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

A field experiment was conducted during the *Rabi* season of 2018-2019 at Instructional farm Department of Vegetable Science, Dr. Panjabrao Deshmukh Krishi Vidyapeeth, Akola. The experiment was laid out in Randomized Block Design with three replications. The treatment consisted of two concentrations of each plant growth regulator namely GA₃ 75 ppm, GA₃ 100 ppm, NAA 25 ppm, NAA 50 ppm, Cycocel 200 ppm, Cycocel 250 ppm, Paclobutrazol 20 ppm, Paclobutrazol 30 ppm, Control (water spraying). Seeds of CO-1 variety were sown in the plot of 2m x 1.5m at spacing of 30 cm x 10 cm. The crop was

1. Head, 2. PG Student, 3 & 4. Associate Professor and 5. SRA, Department of Vegetable Science, College of Horticulture, Dr. P.D.K.V Akola

Table 1. Effect of plant growth regulators on seed yield of fenugreek.

Treatments	Number of pods plant ⁻¹	Number of seed pod ⁻¹	Seed yield g plant ⁻¹	Seed yield plot ⁻¹	Seed yield q ha ⁻¹	Test weight (g)
T ₁ - GA ₃ 75 ppm	30.93	15.48	5.82	363.00	12.10	15.09
T ₂ - GA ₃ 100 ppm	31.14	17.21	6.76	382.67	12.31	14.81
T ₃ -NAA 25 ppm	32.83	17.22	7.20	532.67	17.76	18.04
T ₄ -NAA 50 ppm	32.59	15.23	7.02	494.67	16.48	16.17
T ₅ -Cycocel 200 ppm	31.44	16.11	6.65	384.67	12.82	14.51
T ₆ -Cycocel 250 ppm	32.31	15.34	5.66	394.00	13.13	17.09
T ₇ -Paclbutrazol 20ppm ppm	30.00	14.27	7.04	369.33	12.76	15.30
T ₈ -Paclbutrazol 30ppm ppm	31.33	15.24	6.44	465.00	15.50	17.26
T ₉ -Control	15.07	13.42	4.65	281.67	7.22	13.83
SE(m)±	0.21	0.47	0.07	0.95	0.09	0.49
CD at 5 %	0.63	1.40	0.21	2.85	0.27	1.47

Table 2. Effect of plant growth regulators on Economics of fenugreek

Treatments	Yield (q ha ⁻¹)	Cost of Cultivation (Rs. ha ⁻¹)	GMR (Rs. ha ⁻¹)	NMR (Rs. ha ⁻¹)	B:C Ratio
T ₁ - GA ₃ 75 ppm	12.10	46126	96800	50674	1.9
T ₂ - GA ₃ 100 ppm	12.31	49489	98480	48991	2.4
T ₃ -NAA 25 ppm	17.76	39855	142080	102225	3.5
T ₄ -NAA 50 ppm	16.48	40665	131840	93175	3.4
T ₅ -Cycocel 200 ppm	12.82	57045	102560	45515	1.8
T ₆ -Cycocel 250 ppm	13.13	62045	105040	42995	1.7
T ₇ -Paclbutrazol 20 ppm ppm	12.76	62712	102080	39368	1.6
T ₈ -Paclbutrazol 30 ppm ppm	15.50	76045	124000	47955	1.6
T ₉ -Control(water spray)	7.22	39045	57760	21833	1.4
SE(m)±	0.09			1566.51	0.27
CD at 5 %	0.27			4736.82	0.81

fertilized with 12 tons of FYM ha⁻¹ along with NPK @ 45:40:30 Kg ha⁻¹ as basal dose. Another 15 kg N ha⁻¹ was top dressed at 60 days after sowing. Growth regulators were applied as foliar spray at 30 and 60 DAS as per the treatments and untreated control plots were sprayed with water. Need based intercultural operations were taken. Five plant samples from each replication were selected at random to record morphological, yield and quality

attributing characters. The economics of treatment was calculated on the basis of prevailing market rate.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Seed yield and yield attributing characters

The significant differences in seed yield attributing characters like number of pod plant⁻¹, number of seed pod⁻¹, seed yield plant⁻¹, seed yield plot⁻¹ and seed

yield ha⁻¹, test weight were recorded among different growth regulators and their different concentration. The maximum numbers of pod plant⁻¹ (32.83) were recorded with application of NAA 25 ppm, while minimum (15.07) was recorded in the control treatment. The highest number of seeds pod⁻¹ (17.22) was observed in treatment with NAA 25 ppm, however it was lowest (13.42) under the control treatment. Similarly the maximum seed yield plant⁻¹ (7.20 g) was recorded under the treatment of NAA 25 ppm and it was minimum (4.65 g) in the control treatment. The highest seed yield plot⁻¹ (532.67 g) was recorded with the application of NAA 25 ppm, however it was minimum (281.67 kg) in the control treatment. The treatment receiving NAA 25 ppm recorded significantly highest seed yield (17.76 q ha⁻¹) and it was minimum (7.22 q ha⁻¹) under the control treatment. The test weight (18.04 g) was recorded highest in treatment wherein NAA 25 ppm was applied. However, minimum test weight was observed (13.83 g) under the control treatment.

The makeable improvement in fenugreek seed primarily appears to be a function of greater photosynthetic efficiency per unit land area, maintenance of its higher rate for longer period, especially during post-flowering period and at the late pod filling stage leads to increase greater accumulation of dry matters which resulted in higher productivity of crop. Significant improvement in yield is in accordance with the findings of Gour *et al.* (2009), Singh *et al.* (2012) and Meena *et al.* (2013) in fenugreek.

The maximum net return and B:C ratio (Rs.102225 ha⁻¹ and 3.5, respectively) was obtained with the application of NAA 25 ppm followed by the application of NAA 50 ppm (Rs.93175 ha⁻¹ and 3.4, respectively). However, the minimum net return and B:C ratio (Rs.21833 ha⁻¹ and 1.4) was obtained under the control treatment.

This might be due to the fact that the price of NAA was very less and the seed yield was also higher.

CONCLUSION

From the findings of the present investigation, it can be concluded that, the application of NAA 25 ppm noted the better yield attributing characters viz. number of pod plant⁻¹, number of seed pod⁻¹, seed yield plant⁻¹, seed yield ha⁻¹ were maximum with highest B:C ratio.

The economics of plant growth regulators treatment also indicated that foliar application of NAA 25 ppm at 30 days, 45 days and 60 days after sowing was more profitable in terms of net returns and B:C ratio in comparison to rest of the treatments.

LITERATURE CITED

- Bharud, R. W., B.P. Deore and V.A. Patil, 1988. Effects of growth substances on the growth and yield of methi, J. Maharashtra Agric. Univ., 13 : 340-341.
- Das, P.C. 1992. Vegetable crops of India. Hyderabad. Kalyani Publishers : 118-190
- Lepold, A.C., 1963. Auxins and Plant Growth Regulator. Berkeley and Los Angeles, University of California Press : 5.
- Meena, S.S., M. Bairwa, and R.S. Mehta, 2013. Effect of Bio-fertilizers and plant growth regulators on growth and yield of fenugreek (*Trigonella foenum-graecum* L.) Proceedings of National Conference of Plant Physiology on Current Trends in Plant Biology Research, Junagadh, Gujarat. 802.
- Nickell, L.G. 1982. Plant Growth Regulators. Springer-Verlag Berlin Heidelberg, New York : 1-3.
- Gour, R., I.S. Naruka, P.P. Singh, S.S. Rathore and R. P. S. Shaktawat, 2009. Phosphorus and plant growth regulators on growth and yield of fenugreek (*Trigonella foenum-graecum* L.), J. Spices & Aromatic Crops, 18 (1): 33-36.
- Singh, D., P. P. Singh, I.S. Naruka, S.S. Rathore and R.P.S. Shaktawat, 2012. Effect of plant growth regulators on growth and yield of coriander, Indian J. Hort., 69 (1): 91-93.



Received on 30.6.2019

Short Term Root Biomass Production with Quality of *Oroxylum indicum* - a Species of Brihatpanchmool as Influenced by Plant Geometry and Organic Manure

S. G. Wankhade¹, R. B. Sarode², S. B. Nandanwar³, S. P. Nandapure⁴ and S. S. Wanjari⁵

ABSTRACT

To assess the growth and root yield performance of Shonak/Tetu a tree species was planted under different geometry and soil fertility during *Kharif* season 2008-09 the treatments comprising of three plant spacings 100 x 150 cm (S_1 6,666 Plant population ha^{-1}), 100 x 100 cm (S_2 10,000 Plant population ha^{-1}), 100 x 50 cm (S_3 20,000 Plant population ha^{-1}) and four levels of FYM viz. 0.0(F_1), 2.0(F_2), 4.0(F_3), 6.0(F_4) $t ha^{-1}$ with the plot size of 6.0 x 6.0 m. The observations on plant height, number of branches, root length and girth, fresh and dry root yield were recorded up to 3 years at an interval of six months growth period. The plants of Shonak/Tetu (*Oroxylum indicum*), were completely uprooted at 6, 12 and 18 months' growth period for recording the root yield including tap root. The woody and hard tap root is rather less pharmaceutical important and therefore at 24, 30 and 36 months growth period only lateral roots were harvested. The physicochemical and phyto-chemical analysis of the roots harvested at 6, 12, 18, 24, 30 and 36 months growth period was carried out. After 6 months of growth period, the plant height, root length, root girth and dry root yield $plant^{-1}$ of Shonak was highest with the plant spacing of 100 x 150 cm and FYM @ 2 $t ha^{-1}$ ($S_1 \times F_2$). Similarly, at 12 months of growth stage, the root length, root girth and dry root yield $plant^{-1}$ and total glycosides were also highest with the plant spacing of 100 x 150 cm and FYM @ 2 $t ha^{-1}$ ($S_1 \times F_2$). However highest flavonoid content was observed with the plant spacing of 100 x 100 cm with FYM application @ 2.0 $t ha^{-1}$ ($S_2 \times F_2$). The per cent WSE values however, were less than required (37.61 % Vs 42 %) by Ayurvedic Pharmacopoeial Standards. At the growth period of 18 months, highest no. of branches, root length, root girth dry root yield and total flavonoids and total alkaloids were observed with the plant spacing of 100 x 150 cm and FYM @ 2 $t ha^{-1}$ ($S_1 \times F_2$). The dry root yield $plant^{-1}$ (247g) and total flavonoids contents were highest (5.3 %) with this treatment amongst all the other treatments at all the age groups tested. Flavonoids are important bioactive group in Shonak as reported in Ayurvedic Pharmacopoeia of India. The water soluble extractive (% WSE) values, though not highest, were also much above the required value (54.70 % Vs 42 %) as per the standards given in Ayurvedic Pharmacopoeia of India. At 24 months stage, the trend was random and different parameters showed highest values with different treatments. The dry root yield was highest with 100 x 100 cm plant spacing with FYM application @ 2 $t ha^{-1}$. Total flavonoids were highest with 100 x 150 cm plant spacing with FYM application @ 2 $t ha^{-1}$. At 30 months age, the values of most of the parameters such as root length, dry root yield, per cent WSE, total flavonoids and total alkaloids were highest with the plant spacing of 100 x 150 cm and FYM application @ 2 $t ha^{-1}$ ($S_1 \times F_2$). The values of total flavonoids, however were much less than at 18 month age with $S_1 \times F_2$ treatment (5.3 % Vs 1.33 %).

The supply of the raw material particularly to that of root based material from trees of dashmool group is very meagre and hardly there are reliable data available which support supply scenario. This kind of short supply may lead to the use of either substitutes or in a very low quantity in the ayurvedic formulations and ultimately affect the efficacy of the formulations.

In view of above, it is imperative to develop the agrotechnologies of these species. and there is an urgent need for an intervention to develop and conserve the resource base for dashmool. Therefore, the present

investigation was carried out with the objectives to develop the agronomic protocols for high density, short term plantation for Shonak/Tetu (*Oroxylum indicum*) a species of Brihatpanchmool and to study the yielding potential as influenced by age of the plant and time of harvesting.

Dashmoola is a fixed dose combination of 10 roots obtained from five tree species Shonak/Tetu (*Oroxylum indicum*) is one of them, two shrub / under shrub species and three herb species. These species belong to six different families of Angiosperms:

1-Professor & Principal Investigator, 2-Assist. Professor & Co- Principal Investigator, 3 & 4 Sr. Res. Fellows and 5. Associate Professor, AICRP on Medicinal, Aromatic Plants & Betelvine, Dr PDKV, Akola

Verbenaceae (2 species), Fabaceae (2 species), Solanaceae (2 species), Bignoniaceae (2 species), Rutaceae (1 species) and Zygophyllaceae (1 species).

Dashmoola is indicated for aggravations of the nervous system and pain when there are signs of debility. It is used as a decoction or enema for lower back pain, sciatica, tremors, Parkinson's disease and inflammation in the pelvic and sacral region. For dry cough and respiratory weakness when there is high *vata* Dashmoolarisht can be used as a tonic to strengthen the system. When the immune system is depleted and is not throwing off fevers the decoction can cause diaphoresis and release the trapped *ama* toxins. It is also good for influenza, colds, neuralgia, and headaches.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

To assess the growth and root yield performance of Shonak/Tetu a tree species was planted under different geometry and soil fertility during *Kharif* season 2008-09. The treatments were comprising of three plant spacings 100 x 150 cm (S1-6,666 Plant population ha⁻¹), 100 x 100 cm (S2-10,000 Plant population ha⁻¹), 100 x 50 cm (S3-20,000 Plant population ha⁻¹) and four levels viz. 0.0, 2.0, 4.0, 6.0 t ha⁻¹ with the plot size of 6.0 x 6.0 m. The observations on plant height, number of branches, root length and girth, fresh and dry root yield were recorded up to 3 years at an interval of six months growth period. The plants of Shonak/Tetu (*Oroxylum indicum*) were completely uprooted at 6, 12 and 18 month's growth period for recording the root yield including tap root. The woody and hard tap root is rather less pharmaceutical important and therefore at 24, 30 and 36 months growth period only lateral roots were harvested. The physicochemical and phyto-chemical analysis of the roots harvested at 6, 12, 18, 24, 30 and 36 months growth period was carried out by standard methods (Torel, *et al.*, 1986; Agrawal and Paridhavi, 2007 and Padma, *et al.*, 2010).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Plant height

The data presented in Table-1 revealed that the plant height was successively found to increase with each growth period. Further, it was noticed that significantly maximum plant height was recorded with the closer plant spacing 100 x 50 cm except the plant height recorded at 6

and 36 months was highest with the plant spacing of 100 x 150 cm.

Application of FYM at various levels significantly influenced the plant height and significantly maximum plant height was noticed with the application 6 t FYM per hectare at all the growth period under study. The interaction effect was found to be significant at all the growth periods. The plant spacing of 100 x 50 cm with the application of 6 t FYM per hectare (S3xF4) recorded significantly maximum plant height at 12, 18 and 30 months growth periods. The plant height noticed significantly highest at 6 and 36 months growth periods under the plant spacing 100 x 150 cm with 6 t FYM per hectare (S1xF4) and under plant spacing of 100 x 100 cm with 6t FYM (S2xF4).

No. of branches

There was no branching to the Tetu (*Oroxylum indicum*) up to 6 months growth period. The data presented in Table-2 revealed that the number of branches was also successively found to increase with each growth period. Further, it was noticed that significantly maximum number of branches were recorded with the wider plant spacing 100 x 150 cm except the branches recorded at 12 and 36 months growth period were maximum with the plant spacing of 100 x 100 cm.

Application of FYM at various levels significantly influenced the number of branches per plant and significantly maximum branches were noticed with the application 6 t FYM per hectare at 12 and 18 months growth period. Although the number of branches per plant was significantly highest with 2 and 4 t FYM at 24-30 months growth period, however it was at par with 6t FYM per hectare. The interaction effect was found to be significant at all the growth periods. The plant spacing of 100 x 100 cm with the application of 6 t FYM per hectare (S2xF4) recorded significantly maximum branches per plant at 12, 18 and 36 months growth period. However, number of branches was noticed significantly highest at 24 and 30 months growth periods under the plant spacing 100 x 150 cm with 4 t and 2 t FYM per hectare (S1xF3, S1xF2), respectively.

Root length and girth

The data presented in Table-3(a) revealed that the root length and girth of completely uprooted plants of

Table 1 : Relative plant height of Shonak/Tetu (*Oroxylum indicum*) as influenced by plant spacing and FYM levels.

Treatments	Growth Period (Months)					
	6	12	18	24	30	36
Plant spacing (cm)	Plant Height (cm)					
S1-(100 X 150)	29.18	77.25	89.92	171.08	230.70	341.56
S2-(100 X 100)	24.79	82.99	94.28	217.61	236.00	329.04
S3-(100 X 50)	17.29	86.17	95.42	232.63	248.75	317.50
SE (m)±	0.81	0.65	1.67	3.08	3.24	5.41
CD at 5%	2.37	1.91	4.88	9.05	9.51	15.88
FYM levels (t ha⁻¹)						
F 1 -0.0	20.58	76.67	85.90	171.67	223.10	308.58
F 2 -2.0	23.33	79.61	94.00	188.94	237.17	321.11
F 3 -4.0	25.21	84.42	96.00	245.97	243.33	335.55
F 4 -6.0	25.89	87.86	96.92	226.83	250.33	352.22
SE (m)±	0.93	0.75	1.92	3.56	3.74	6.25
CD at 5%	2.74	2.21	5.63	10.44	10.98	18.34
Interaction S x F						
S1F1	25.25	72.50	80.50	118.33	203.30	318.75
S1F2	27.83	75.50	92.00	160.99	237.50	328.33
S1F3	31.63	78.25	93.67	215.00	240.00	347.50
S1F4	32.00	82.75	93.50	190.00	242.00	371.67
S2F1	20.50	75.83	88.20	152.50	215.00	307.00
S2F2	25.17	80.33	94.00	171.67	234.00	325.00
S2F3	26.33	86.33	96.67	268.75	242.00	336.67
S2F4	27.17	89.50	98.25	277.50	253.00	347.50
S3F1	16.00	81.67	89.00	244.17	251.00	300.00
S3F2	17.00	83.00	96.00	219.16	240.00	310.00
S3F3	17.67	88.67	97.67	254.17	248.00	322.50
S3F4	18.50	91.33	99.00	213.00	256.00	337.50
SE (m)±	1.62	1.31	3.33	6.17	6.64	10.82
CD at 5%	4.74	3.83	9.77	10.09	19.03	31.77

Tetu at 6, 12 and 18 months growth periods were successively found to increase with each growth period. Further, it was noticed that significantly maximum root length and girth was recorded with the wider plant spacing 100 x 150 cm.

Application of FYM at various levels significantly influenced the root length and girth and significantly maximum root length and root girth was noticed with the application 6 t FYM per hectare at all the

growth period under study, except the root girth recorded at 6 months growth period. The root girth was maximum with 4 t FYM, however, it was at par with 6 t FYM per hectare. The interaction effect was found to be significant at all the growth periods. The plant spacing of 100 x 150 cm with the application of 6 t FYM per hectare (S1xF4) recorded significantly maximum root length and girth at all the growth period except the root girth recorded at 6 months growth period. The root girth noticed at 6 months

growth period under the plant spacing 100 x 150 cm with 4 t FYM per hectare (S1xF3) was significantly highest, however at par under plant spacing of 100 x 150 cm with the application of 6 t FYM per hectare (S1xF4).

During the growth periods of 24, 30 and 36 months only lateral roots were harvested and the data on the lateral

root length and girth is presented in Table-3(b). The lateral root length and girth was also successively found to increase with each growth period. Further, it was noticed that significantly maximum root length and girth was recorded with the wider plant spacing 100 x 150 cm.

Application of FYM at various levels

Table 2 : Relative number of branches of Shonak/Tetu (*Oroxylum indicum*) as influenced by plant spacing and FYM levels.

Treatments	Growth Period (Months)					
	6	12	18	24	30	36
Plant spacing (cm)	No.of branches					
S1-(100 X 150)	—	7.87	8.23	9.48	3.93	6.06
S2-(100 X 100)	—	8.04	8.06	9.01	3.86	7.01
S3-(100 X 50)	—	7.00	7.16	8.72	3.50	5.99
SE (m)±		0.16	0.28	0.09	0.18	0.25
CD at 5%		0.46	0.83	0.27	0.54	0.73
FYM levels (t ha⁻¹)						
F 1 -0.0	—	6.36	6.71	7.96	3.50	5.37
F 2 -2.0	—	7.67	7.78	9.45	4.11	6.43
F 3 -4.0	—	8.22	8.28	9.47	3.61	6.87
F 4 -6.0	—	8.31	8.50	9.40	3.85	6.00
SE (m)±		0.18	0.32	0.11	0.21	0.29
CD at 5%		0.53	0.95	0.32	0.62	0.84
Interaction S x F						
S1F1	—	6.25	7.00	7.67	3.50	5.50
S1F2	—	8.50	8.50	9.75	4.50	6.00
S1F3	—	8.50	8.67	10.50	4.00	6.75
S1F4	—	8.25	8.75	10.00	3.75	6.00
S2F1	—	6.83	6.80	8.00	3.67	6.60
S2F2	—	8.17	8.17	9.60	4.17	7.00
S2F3	—	8.50	8.50	9.25	3.83	7.20
S2F4	—	8.67	8.75	9.20	3.80	7.25
S3F1	—	6.00	6.33	8.20	3.33	4.00
S3F2	—	6.33	6.67	9.00	3.67	6.30
S3F3	—	7.67	7.67	8.67	3.00	6.67
S3F4	—	8.00	8.00	9.00	4.00	7.00
SE (m)±		0.31	0.56	0.19	0.37	0.50
CD at 5%		0.92	1.65	0.55	1.07	1.46

significantly influenced the root length and girth and significantly maximum root length and root girth was noticed with the application 6 t FYM per hectare at all the growth periods (24, 30 and 36 months) under study. The interaction effect was found to be significant at all the growth periods. The plant spacing of 100 x 150 cm with the application of 6 t FYM per hectare (S1xF4) recorded significantly maximum root length and significantly highest root girth under plant spacing of 100 x 100 cm and 4 t FYM per hectare (S2xF3) at all the growth periods.

Root yield

The data presented in Table 4 (a) revealed that the dry root yield of completely uprooted plants of Tetu at 6, 12 and 18 months growth periods was found to increase markedly with each growth period. The root yield was in the range of 0.33-1.30 q ha⁻¹ at 6 months, 2.53-8.07 q ha⁻¹ at 12 months and 14.87-40.03 q ha⁻¹ at 18 months growth period. Further, it was noticed that significantly highest root yield at 6, 12 and 18 months growth periods was recorded with the closer plant spacing 100 x 50 cm

Table-3(a) Relative root length and girth of completely uprooted plants of Shonak/Tetu (*Oroxylum indicum*) as influenced by plant spacing and FYM levels.

Treatments	Growth Period (Months)					
	6	12	18	6	12	18
Plant spacing (cm)	Root length (cm)			Root girth (cm)		
S1-(100 X 150)	19.02	32.75	34.25	1.42	2.97	3.79
S2-(100 X 100)	17.69	32.00	34.09	1.25	2.86	3.77
S3-(100 X 50)	16.54	30.83	32.21	1.05	2.08	3.61
SE (m)±	0.38	0.54	0.68	0.02	0.04	0.03
CD at 5%	1.25	1.57	1.99	0.07	0.11	0.10
FYM levels (t ha⁻¹)						
F 1 -0.0	16.83	29.47	29.84	1.09	2.33	3.57
F 2 -2.0	17.05	31.50	33.67	1.20	2.57	3.71
F 3 -4.0	18.28	32.05	35.22	1.36	2.74	3.78
F 4 -6.0	18.83	34.42	35.33	1.31	2.91	3.84
SE (m)±	0.44	0.62	0.78	0.03	0.04	0.04
CD at 5%	1.30	1.82	2.30	0.08	0.13	0.12
Interaction S x F						
S1F1	17.75	30.75	30.00	1.28	2.63	3.6
S1F2	18.33	32.00	34.50	1.38	2.87	3.78
S1F3	20.00	32.50	36.00	1.53	3.10	3.87
S1F4	20.00	35.75	36.50	1.48	3.28	3.93
S2F1	17.08	29.00	30.20	1.07	2.43	3.62
S2F2	17.50	31.50	34.17	1.22	2.80	3.78
S2F3	18.17	32.33	36.00	1.42	3.00	3.83
S2F4	18.00	35.17	36.00	1.30	3.22	3.85
S3F1	15.67	28.67	29.33	0.93	1.93	3.50
S3F2	15.38	31.00	32.33	1.00	2.03	3.57
S3F3	16.67	31.33	33.67	1.13	2.13	3.63
S3F4	18.50	32.33	33.50	1.15	2.23	3.75
SE (m)±	0.77	1.07	1.36	0.05	0.05	0.07
CD at 5%	2.25	3.14	3.99	0.14	0.22	0.20

Application of FYM at various levels significantly influenced the dry root yield and significantly maximum root yield was noticed with the application 6 t FYM per hectare, at all the growth period, however it was at par with the application 4 t FYM per hectare at 18 months growth period under study. The interaction effect was found to be significant at all the growth periods. The plant spacing of 100 x 50 cm with the application of 6 t FYM per hectare (S3x F4) recorded significantly maximum dry root yield at all the growth period (6, 12 and 18 months).

During the growth periods of 24, 30 and 36 months only lateral roots were harvested and the data generated on the lateral root yield is presented in Table 4(b). The lateral root yield was also successively found to increase with each growth period. The root yield was in the range of 7.67-29.86 q ha⁻¹ at 24 months, 8.82-33.10 q ha⁻¹ at 30 months and 14.77-43.83 q ha⁻¹ at 36 months growth period. Further, it was noticed that significantly highest root yield was recorded with the closer plant spacing of 100 x 50 cm.

Table-3(b) Lateral root length and girth of Shonak/Tetu (*Oroxylum indicum*) as influenced by plant spacing and FYM levels.

Treatments	Growth Period (Months)					
	24	30	36	24	30	36
Plant Spacing (cm)	Root length (cm)			Root girth (cm)		
S1-(100 X 150)	56.21	57.33	60.91	1.95	1.20	1.32
S2-(100 X 100)	46.61	48.40	58.65	1.18	1.22	1.25
S3-(100 X 50)	45.61	46.41	49.75	1.06	0.99	1.15
SE (m)±	0.95	0.91	0.75	0.02	0.02	0.03
CD at 5%	2.78	2.66	2.20	0.06	0.06	0.10
FYM levels (t ha⁻¹)						
F 1 -0.0	38.39	43.56	48.23	0.86	0.96	1.10
F 2 -2.0	48.17	50.94	57.67	0.98	1.15	1.17
F 3 -4.0	51.02	54.34	58.63	1.34	1.17	1.25
F 4 -6.0	60.33	54.01	61.22	1.40	1.26	1.45
SE (m)±	1.09	1.05	0.86	0.02	0.02	0.04
CD at 5%	3.21	3.06	2.54	0.06	0.06	0.12
Interaction S x F						
S1F1	46.60	43.17	50.25	0.96	1.1	1.25
S1F2	58.00	55.40	63.00	1.07	1.20	1.30
S1F3	56.92	64.75	63.70	1.32	1.24	1.29
S1F4	63.33	66.00	66.70	1.43	1.26	1.45
S2F1	33.90	45.00	50.70	0.76	0.97	1.00
S2F2	45.25	50.67	60.00	1.17	1.27	1.15
S2F3	50.13	51.08	60.70	1.46	1.30	1.32
S2F4	57.17	46.83	63.20	1.35	1.32	1.55
S3F1	34.67	42.50	43.75	0.85	0.82	1.05
S3F2	41.25	46.75	50.00	0.70	0.98	1.05
S3F3	46.00	47.20	51.50	1.25	0.98	1.15
S3F4	60.50	49.20	53.75	1.43	1.20	1.35
SE (m)±	1.90	1.81	1.49	0.04	0.04	0.07
CD at 5%	5.56	5.31	4.39	0.12	0.12	0.20

Application of FYM at various levels significantly influenced the root yield and significantly highest root yield was noticed with the application 6 t FYM per hectare at all the growth period (24, 30 and 36 months) under study. The interaction effect was found to be significant at all the growth periods. The plant spacing of 100 x 150 cm with the application of 6 t FYM per hectare (S1x F4) recorded significantly highest root yield at 24, 30 and 36 months growth periods. These results are in

agreement with the findings of Mohit Kumar and Rajesh Kumar (2013) and Adegun and Ayodele (2015). The application of organic manures influences the plant growth by enhancing root biomass thereby total root surface facilitates higher absorption of nutrients ultimately increase the biomass yield (Farhad *et al* ,2019).

Physicochemical analysis of roots of Shonak/Tetu (*Oroxylum indicum*) as influenced by plant spacing and FYM levels.

Table- 4(a) Relative dry root yield of completely uprooted plants of Shonak/Tetu (*Oroxylum indicum*) as influenced by plant spacing and FYM levels.

Treatments	Growth Period (Months)					
	6	12	18	6	12	18
Plant Spacing (cm)	Dry root yield (g plant ⁻¹)			Dry root yield (q ha ⁻¹)		
S1-(100 X 150)	6.89	43.43	259.75	0.45	2.89	17.33
S2-(100 X 100)	5.75	42.50	206.25	0.57	4.25	20.64
S3-(100 X 50)	4.71	36.25	188.25	0.94	7.25	37.68
SE (m)±	0.21	0.59	4.68	0.02	0.07	0.74
CD at 5%	0.62	1.74	13.74	0.06	0.21	2.18
FYM levels (t ha⁻¹)						
F 1 -0.0	4.39	35.61	210.33	0.50	4.21	25.41
F 2 -2.0	4.72	40.36	207.00	0.55	4.72	23.70
F 3 -4.0	5.53	42.11	224.00	0.63	4.98	25.14
F 4 -6.0	8.50	44.83	231.00	0.95	5.30	25.61
SE (m)±	0.24	0.68	5.41	0.02	0.08	0.86
CD at 5%	0.72	2.01	15.87	0.07	0.25	2.52
Interaction S x F						
S1F1	5.00	38.00	223.00	0.33	2.53	14.87
S1F2	5.33	43.25	247.00	0.35	2.88	16.48
S1F3	6.75	45.00	283.00	0.45	3.00	18.88
S1F4	10.50	47.50	286.00	0.70	3.17	19.08
S2F1	4.50	36.83	203.00	0.45	3.68	20.32
S2F2	4.83	43.17	202.00	0.48	4.32	20.22
S2F3	5.17	43.33	213.00	0.52	4.33	21.32
S2F4	8.50	46.67	207.00	0.85	4.67	20.72
S3F1	3.67	32.00	205.00	0.73	6.40	41.03
S3F2	4.00	34.67	172.00	0.80	6.94	34.42
S3F3	4.67	38.00	176.00	0.93	7.61	35.23
S3F4	6.50	40.33	200.00	1.30	8.07	40.03
SE (m)±	0.42	1.19	9.37	0.04	0.14	1.48
CD at 5%	1.24	3.49	27.48	0.12	0.43	4.37

The data (Table 5) on water soluble extractive values revealed that the various plant spacing had influenced the WSE and highest values of WSE were noticed the closer spacing i.e. planting at 100 x 50 cm. The manurial treatments i.e. application of different levels of Farm Yard Manure under the plant spacing of 100 x 150 to 100 x 50 cm recorded favourable effect on WSE, however the results were non consistent. On the basis of general mean the WSE values were in the range of 14.08-54.15 per cent in the roots harvested from 6th months onwards up to

36th months at an interval of 6 months growth period. Further, it was observed that the WSE values (54.15 per cent) was highest in the roots harvested at 18th months (i.e. December 2009) followed by WSE (52.51 per cent) recorded at 6th months (i.e. December 2008) and WSE (42.61 per cent) observed at 12th months (i.e. June, 2009). Comparatively lowest WSE values were noticed in the roots harvested at 36th months (June, 2011), followed by 30th months (December, 2010) and 24th months (June, 2010).

Table- 4(b) Relative lateral dry root yield of Tetu (*Oroxylum indicum*) as influenced by plant spacing and FYM levels.

Treatments	Growth Period (Months)					
	24	30	36	24	30	36
Plant Spacing (cm)	Dry root yield (g plant⁻¹)			Dry root yield (q ha⁻¹)		
S1-(100 X 150)	183.58	261.98	309.37	12.24	17.47	20.64
S2-(100 X 100)	169.41	175.66	244.90	16.95	17.58	24.50
S3-(100 X 50)	115.52	125.55	175.33	23.12	25.13	35.09
SE (m)±	1.82	5.87	4.67	0.22	0.66	0.50
CD at 5%	5.36	17.23	13.70	0.67	1.95	1.49
FYM levels (t ha⁻¹)						
F 1 -0.0	98.08	110.97	172.83	11.49	12.64	18.50
F 2 -2.0	139.93	162.08	219.97	15.97	17.60	25.53
F 3 -4.0	185.50	223.89	266.66	19.81	23.11	29.12
F 4 -6.0	201.17	253.97	313.33	22.48	26.88	33.83
SE (m)±	2.11	6.78	5.39	0.26	0.76	0.58
CD at 5%	5.18	19.90	15.82	0.77	2.25	1.72
Interaction S x F						
S1F1	115.00	132.20	221.50	7.67	8.82	14.77
S1F2	146.00	215.50	240.00	9.74	14.38	16.01
S1F3	237.00	336.17	342.00	15.81	22.43	22.82
S1F4	236.33	364.00	434.00	15.77	24.28	28.96
S2F1	90.67	110.50	187.00	9.07	11.06	18.71
S2F2	166.00	157.34	234.60	16.61	15.74	23.48
S2F3	203.00	202.30	271.00	20.32	20.24	27.12
S2F4	218.00	232.50	287.00	21.82	23.27	28.72
S3F1	88.60	90.20	110.00	17.73	18.05	22.02
S3F2	107.80	113.40	185.33	21.58	22.70	37.09
S3F3	116.50	133.20	187.00	23.32	26.66	37.43
S3F4	149.20	165.40	219.00	29.86	33.10	43.83
SE (m)±	3.65	11.75	9.34	0.45	1.33	1.01
CD at 5%	10.72	34.47	27.41	1.34	3.90	2.98

The data on alcohol soluble extractive values revealed that the various plant spacing and the manurial treatments i.e. application of different levels of Farm Yard Manure did not influenced the ASE values in the roots of Shonak. On the basis of general mean the ASE values were in the range of 5.37-9.64 per cent in the roots harvested from 6th months onwards up to 36th months at an interval of 6 months growth period. Further, it was observed that the ASE values (9.64%) was highest in the roots harvested at 30th months (i.e. December, 2010) followed by ASE (8.57%) recorded at 12th months (i.e. June, 2009) and ASE (7.28%) observed at 24th months (i.e. June, 2010). Comparatively lowest ASE values (5.37%) were noticed in the roots harvested at 36th months (June, 2011), followed by 6th months (December, 2008) and 18th months (December, 2009). On the basis of general mean the total ash values were in the range of 3.19-5.65 per cent and acid insoluble ash values were in the range of 0.64-2.82 per cent in the roots harvested from 6th months onwards up to 36th months at an interval of 6 months growth period (Table 6).

As the results obtained on physico-chemical constituents were not consistent with the manurial treatments i.e. application of different levels of FYM, the composite samples for each plant spacing (i.e. S₁, S₂ and S₃) with FYM @ 2 t FYM per hectare were analysed for phyto-chemical constituents (Table 7).

The total flavonoids values were in the range of 1.07-2.63 per cent, Alkaloid values were in the range of 0.32-1.08 per cent, Phenols values were comparatively higher and found in the range of 1.95-2.57 per cent and Glycosides values were also higher and noticed in the range of 3.57-18.30 per cent in the roots harvested from 6th months onwards up to 36th months at an interval of 6 months growth period. Further, it is observed that the values of these phyto-chemical constituents were maximum in the roots harvested at 18th months onwards.

The WSE values reported/observed in the roots of Shonak harvested at 18-24th months under the study conforms the accepted limits and is having higher relevance in context of Ayurvedic methods of drug usage as these values are indicative of phyto-constituents in a given quantity medicinal plant material (Padma, *et.al* 2010).

Further, it is observed that the values of these phyto-chemical constituents were maximum in the roots of the brihat-panchmoola species under study harvested at 18th-24th months onwards. Phyto-chemicals, polyphenols are largely recognized as anti-inflammatory, antiviral, antimicrobial and antioxidant agent (Narayana, *et.al.2001*). As such, phenolics and flavanoides constitute major group of compounds which act as primary antioxidants (Adesegun *et.al.* 2009) are known to react with hydroxyl radicals (Hussain *et.al.* 1987) super-oxide anion radicals (Afanaslev *et.al.* 1989), lipid peroxiradicals (Torel *et.al.* 1986), protect DNA from oxidative damage inhibitory against tumor cells and possess anti-inflammatory and antimicrobial properties. Thus, the results of this study signify that the roots of Shonak/Tetu (*Oroxylum indicum*) at the age of 18 months growth period could be a source of natural antioxidant and anti-inflammatory drug.

CONCLUSION

Considering various aspects such as dry root yield, per cent WSE, total alkaloids, total flavonoids, total glycosides standards provided by Ayurvedic Pharmacopoeia of India and the most importantly the feasibility and cost effectiveness of root harvesting, it can be concluded that the roots *Oroxylum indicum* (Shonak) at the age of 18 months. The plant spacing of 100 x 100-150 cm with FYM application @ 2 t ha⁻¹ found superior among all the treatments under study.

LITERATURE CITED

- Adegun M.K. and O.J. Ayodele 2015. Growth and yield of *Moringa oleifera* as influenced by spacing and organic manures in South Western Nigeria, International J Agron. & Agric. Res. (IJAAR), 6:30-37.
- Adesegun, S.A., A., Fajana, C.I. Orabueze and H.A.B. Cocker, 2009. Evaluation of antioxidant properties of *Phaulopsis fascisepala* C.B.Cl. (Acanthaceae), *eCAM*. 6:227-31.
- Afanaslev I.B; A.I., Dorozhko, and A.V. Bordskii, 1989. Chelating and free radical scavenging mechanisms of inhibitory action of rutin and quercetin in lipid peroxidation, *Biochem Pharmacol.*, 38:1763-9.

Table 7 : Total flavonoids, Alkaloid, Phenols and Glycosides in Shonak/Tetu (*Oroxylum indicum*) roots as influenced by different plant spacing.

Treatment combinations	Growth Period (Months)				
	12	18	24	30	36
Plant spacing x FYM levels	Total Flavonoids (%)				
S 1 100 x 150 cm xF 2 2.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	1.20	5.30	2.65	1.33	1.80
S 2 100 x 100 cm xF 2 2.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	1.17	1.10	2.17	1.17	2.11
S 3 100 x 50 cm xF 2 2.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	—	1.50	1.20	0.71	1.75
Mean	1.19	2.63	2.01	1.07	1.89
	Alkaloid (%)				
S 1 100 x 150 cm xF 2 2.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	0.20	0.13	0.24	1.50	1.16
S 2 100 x 100 cm xF 2 2.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	0.83	0.12	0.47	0.99	1.13
S 3 100 x 50 cm xF 2 2.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	—	0.70	1.30	0.60	0.94
Mean	0.52	0.32	0.67	1.03	1.08
	Phenols (%)				
S 1 100 x 150 cm xF 2 2.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	1.90	2.14	2.32	2.19	2.40
S 2 100 x 100 cm xF 2 2.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	2.00	2.28	2.28	2.00	2.70
S 3 100 x 50 cm xF 2 2.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	—	2.77	2.36	2.26	2.60
Mean	1.95	2.40	2.32	2.15	2.57
	Glycosides (%)				
S 1 100 x 150 cm xF 2 2.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	7.50	2.50	8.62	19.61	15.67
S 2 100 x 100 cm xF 2 2.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	6.30	4.40	13.16	19.60	14.38
S 3 100 x 50 cm xF 2 2.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	—	3.80	9.44	15.70	15.93
Mean	6.90	3.57	10.41	18.30	15.33

Agrawal S.S. and M. Paridhavi, 2007. Herbal Drug Technology, Published by Universities Press (India) Pvt. Ltd., Hyderabad.

Farhad H., H. Saeid , M.Gholamhoseini , Delara H. and Diako Khodaei, 2019. Evaluation of quantitative and qualitative characteristics of strawberry in response to bio and chemical fertilizers, GESUNDE PFLANZ, March 2019.

Hussain, S.R, J. Cillard, and P. Cillard, 1987. Hydroxyl radical scavenging activity of flavonoids, Phytochem., 26 : 2489-91.

Mohit Kumar and Rajesh Kumar 2013. Response of organic manures on growth and yield of Mango (*Mangifera*

indica L.) CV. Dashehari, Hortflora Res. Spectrum, 2 (1): 64-67.

Narayana, R.K, M.S.Reddy, M.R.Chaluvadi and D.R. Krishna, 2008. Bioflavonoid classification, pharmacological, biochemical effects and therapeutic potential, Indian J. Pharmacol., 33 :2-16.

Padma, V, S. Preethi, and Lalitha, 2010. Quality control of Indian Traditional Medicines, Institute of Ayurveda & Integrative Medicine, Bangalore.

Torel, J., J. Cillard and P. Cillard, 1986. Antioxidant activity of flavonoids and reactivity with peroxy radicals. Phytochem., 25 : 383-385.



Received on 11.6.2019

Influence of Fertigation on Yield, Quality and Economics of Potato

A. M. Sonkamble¹, H. V. Wagh², S. R. Patil³, D. S. Kankal⁴, P. S. Umbarkar⁵ and R. S. Munghate⁶

ABSTRACT

The field experiment was conducted during *Rabi* season in 2018-19 to study the effect of fertigation on yield, quality and economics of potato. The experiment was laid out in a Randomized Block Design with treatments consisting of seven NPK levels replicated three times. The results showed that drip fertigation of 225:200:175 dose of N, P and K at 3rd day interval after planting markedly increased yield attributes like number of tuber plant⁻¹, weight of tuber (g), fresh weight of tuber plant⁻¹ (g), yield of Tuber plot⁻¹ (kg), tuber yield (q ha⁻¹), quality attributes like starch and protein (%) and economics of potato. Further, this method had improved yield and quality of potato. The highest net returns (Rs. 2,55,333 ha⁻¹) and maximum B: C ratio (2.69) was recorded with application of 225:200:175 kg NPK ha⁻¹.

Potato (*Solanum tuberosum* L.) belongs to family Solanaceae and is one of the most important vegetable cum starch supplying crop having high production per unit area per unit time. The potato is the third most important food crop in the world after Rice and Wheat which is consumed by more than a billion people worldwide. Potato, an underground tuber occupies prime position among the cash crops in India.

Potato is grown in almost all states of India except Kerala. The leading states in terms of area, production and productivity are Gujarat, Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, West Bengal and Punjab. Potato contains practically all essential dietary constituents like carbohydrates, essential nutrients, protein, vitamins and minerals. Normally some potato tubers of Indian cultivars contain less than 20 mg glycoalkaloids per 100 g fresh weight and cause no harmful effects.

The potato plant consumes high level of nutrients during a short growth period (90 days). Variations in soil fertility affect on several characters that influence the growth and yield. Good vegetative growth and tuberization, which lead to good yield, are possible only when adequate quantities of mineral nutrients are supplied (Benepal 1967). One ton of potato tubers remove 5 kg N, 1.8 kg P₂O₅ and 9 kg K₂O (Shnek, 1994). Significant response to NPK application on potato crops has also been reported by Singh and Singh (1995) and Singh *et al.* (1993). Similarly, vegetative growth and yield performance of cultivar varies depending on the soil and climatic

condition. Significant potato responses to NPK application have been reported by various workers in different agro-climatic condition and optimum dose of NPK varied with the soil and potato varieties.

Fertigation of water soluble fertilizers through drip ensures even distribution of nutrients and water to plant with precise timing to meet crop nutrient demand, while minimizing nutrients losses through leaching, reduces environmental pollution and soil erosion. However, response of different varieties varies with management practices such as methods of nutrient application and irrigation. Keeping these points in view the present investigation was planned to study the effect of different methods of drip fertigation on yield, quality and economics of potato.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Field experiment was conducted at Instructional Farm, Department of Vegetable Science, Dr. Panjabrao Deshmukh Krishi Vidyapeeth, Akola during *rabi* season in 2018-19. The soil of the experimental site was clay loamy in texture with pH (7.18). The experiment was laid out in Randomized Block Design with seven treatments i.e; T₁-100:75:50 NPK kg ha⁻¹, T₂-125:100:75 NPK kg ha⁻¹, T₃-150:125:100 NPK kg ha⁻¹, T₄-175:150:125 NPK kg ha⁻¹, T₅-200:175:150 NPK kg ha⁻¹, T₆-225:200:175 NPK kg ha⁻¹ and T₇-250:200:200 NPK kg ha⁻¹ Fertigation with 3rd days of interval after 10 days planting. Water soluble fertilizer sources used during experimentation were urea, phosphoric acid and sulphur of potash. The Kufri Pukhraj

1. Head, 2. PG Student, 3. Associate Professor, 4. Assistant Professor, 5. Senior Research Assistant and 6. Junior Research Assistant, Department of Vegetable Science, Dr. PDKV, Akola

variety was planted on broad bed furrow with spacing 45 x 20 cm.

Yield attributes like number of tuber per plant, weight of tuber (g), fresh weight of tuber per plant (g), yield of tuber per plot (kg), tuber yield (q ha⁻¹) of potato were recorded at harvest and quality attributes like starch and protein.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Yield and Yield Attributing Parameters

The data presented showed that the maximum weight of tuber (41.66 g) was obtained when 225:200:175 NPK kg ha⁻¹ was applied, which was significantly at par with application of 250:200:200 NPK kg ha⁻¹, 200:175:150 NPK kg ha⁻¹ and 175:150:125 NPK kg ha⁻¹. The maximum number of tubers plant⁻¹ (6.27) was recorded with application of 225:200:175 NPK kg ha⁻¹. Which was at par with application of 200:175:150 NPK kg ha⁻¹, 150:125:100 NPK kg ha⁻¹, 175:150:125 NPK kg ha⁻¹ and 250:200:200 NPK kg ha⁻¹.

Significantly maximum fresh weight of tuber plant⁻¹ (261.20 g), tuber yield plot⁻¹ (5.22 kg) and yield ha⁻¹ (290 q) were obtained with application of 225:200:175 kg NPK ha⁻¹, which found statistically at par (240.22 g) with application of 200:175:150 NPK kg ha⁻¹. However, the minimum fresh weight of tuber (149.11 g), tuber yield

plot⁻¹ (2.98 kg) and yield per hectare (165.55 q) was recorded in treatment with 100:75:50 kg NPK ha⁻¹. These results are in close conformity with the findings reported by Singh *et al.* 2000. Favorable effect of NPK in promoting yield and yield parameters might be due to the fact that the NPK improved the carbohydrate content of the plants and it extended tuber growth, which ultimately increased the total yield and yield parameters of potato.

Quality Parameters

The data in Table 2 revealed that the effect of NPK levels on quality parameters was found to be non significant. However, there was numerical increase in starch and protein content particularly at higher level of NPK 250:200:200 and 225:200:175 kg ha⁻¹.

The amount of starch accumulated is a function of the rate of photosynthesis, translocation of photosynthates from leaves to tubers and subsequent conversion to starch (Praveen *et al.*, 2008). Potassium which was applied along with nitrogen played a greater role in translocation of sugars from leaves to tubers and synthesis of starch. Similar results were also reported by Sujatha and Krishnappa (1995).

The increase in protein content might be due to the synergetic effect of N and K in absorption and their role in protein synthesis, translocation of amino acids and their polymerization (Falak *et al.*, 2011).

Table 1. Effect of NPK levels on yield attributing parameters of potato

Treatments (NPK kg ha ⁻¹)	Number of tuber plant ⁻¹	Weight of tuber (g)	Fresh weight of tuber (g) plant ⁻¹	Yield of Tuber plot ⁻¹ (Kg)	Tuber Yield q ha ⁻¹
T ₁ - 100:75:50	4.87	30.62	149.11	2.98	165.55
T ₂ - 125:100:75	5.20	34.60	179.92	3.59	199.44
T ₃ - 150:125:100	5.73	36.16	207.19	4.14	230.00
T ₄ - 175:150:125	5.60	38.60	216.16	4.32	240.00
T ₅ - 200:175:150	5.93	40.51	240.22	4.80	266.66
T ₆ - 225:200:175	6.27	41.66	261.20	5.22	290.00
T ₇ - 250:200:200	5.47	41.12	224.92	4.49	249.44
S.E. (m) ±	0.26	1.594	9.51	0.24	8.26
CD at 5 %	0.82	4.966	29.63	0.77	25.73

Table 2. Effect of NPK levels on quality attributing parameters of potato

Treatments (NPK ha ⁻¹)	Starch (%)	Protein (%)
T ₁ - 100:75:50	10.00	0.40
T ₂ - 125:100:75	10.67	0.83
T ₃ - 150:125:100	10.87	1.00
T ₄ - 175:150:125	11.03	1.33
T ₅ - 200:175:150	11.45	1.65
T ₆ - 225:200:175	12.20	2.50
T ₇ - 250:200:200	11.79	2.00
S.E. (m) ±	1.73	0.48
CD at 5 %	-	-

Economics

Cost of cultivation per hectare is presented in Table 3 and found maximum (Rs. 151990 ha⁻¹) with application of 250:200:200 kg NPK ha⁻¹ whereas, the lowest cost of cultivation (Rs.112310 ha⁻¹) was found when 100:75:50 kg NPK ha⁻¹ was applied. However, the maximum gross income (Rs. 406000.00) and net income (Rs. 255333) was obtained with application of 225:200:175 kg NPK ha⁻¹. The maximum B: C ratio (2.69) was obtained when 225:200:175 kg NPK ha⁻¹ applied which was at par (2.61) with treatment 200:175:150 NPK ha⁻¹.

Table 3. Economics of potato crops due to different NPK levels of fertigation

Treatments (NPK ha ⁻¹)	Tuber yield (q ha ⁻¹)	Cost of cultivation (Rs ha ⁻¹)	Gross monetary return (Rs ha ⁻¹)	Net monetary return (Rs ha ⁻¹)	B:C ratio
T ₁ - 100:75:50	165.55	112310.00	231770.00	119460	2.06
T ₂ - 125:100:75	199.44	119982.00	279216.00	159234	2.33
T ₃ - 150:125:100	230.00	127655.00	322000.00	194345	2.52
T ₄ - 175:150:125	240.00	135325.00	336000.00	200675	2.48
T ₅ - 200:175:150	266.66	142995.00	373324.00	230329	2.61
T ₆ - 225:200:175	290.00	150667.00	406000.00	255333	2.69
T ₇ - 250:200:200	249.44	151990.00	349216.00	197226	2.30
S.E. m.±	8.26	4364.35	786.79	526.44	0.03
CD at 5 %	25.73	13596.86	2451.21	1640.1	0.09

CONCLUSION

It can be concluded that, application of 225:200:175 NPK kg ha⁻¹ through drip fertigation recorded maximum yield attributes like number of tuber plant⁻¹, fresh weight of tuber plant⁻¹, and tuber yield ha⁻¹, higher monetary return and B:C ratio in potato crop.

LITERATURE CITED

Benepal P.S., 1967. Inter relations among plant nutrients, application levels on yields of potatoes, American Potato J., 44(6):187-194.
 Falak N, Asad Ali, Zafar Iqbal, Naveed Akhtar, Syed Asghar and Bashir Ahmad, 2011. Effect of different levels of NPK fertilizers on the proximate composition of potato crop at abbotabad, Sarhad J. Agric., 27(3):353-356
 Praveen, K., S.P. Trehan, B. P. Singh, S. Rawal and M.A. Khan, 2008. Precising nitrogen requirement of table potato cultivars for different growth periods, Indian J. Agron. 53 (4): 314-317.

Shnek M.1994. Multi-k 13-0-46 for potatoes. Haifa chemicals Ltd, Haifa Bay, Israel : 8.
 Singh J., M. Singh., M.S. Saimbni and K.S. Kooner, 1993. Growth and yield of potato cultivars as affected by plant density and potassium levels, J. Indian Potato Assoc. 20(3-4):279-282.
 Singh V.N. and S.P. Singh, 1995. Effect of levels and methods of potassium application on vegetative growth and yield of potato Cv Kufri Badshah, J. Indian Potato Assoc. 22(3-4):118-121.
 Singh, J.P., Lal, S.S and R.C. Sharma, 2000. Productivity and sustainability of potato based cropping systems with reference to fertilizer management in North-Western Plains of India, In Proceedings of Global Conference on Potato, 2 : 929-934.
 Sujatha, N.T and K.S. Krishnappa, 1995. Quality attributes of potato tubers as influenced by different fertilizer levels. South Indian Hort., 43: 128-130.

Effect of Plant Geometry and Organic Manure on Short Term Root Biomass Production with Quality of *Aegle marmelos* - a Species of Brihatpanchmool

S. G. Wankhade¹, R. B. Sarode², S. B. Nandanwar³ and S. P. Nandapure⁴

ABSTRACT

To assess the root biomass in short term period *Aegle marmelos* (Bael/Bilva) a tree species was planted under different geometry and soil fertility during *Kharif* season 2008-09 the treatments comprising of three plant spacings 100 x 150 cm (S1-6,666 Plant population ha⁻¹), 100 x 100 cm (S2-10,000 Plant population ha⁻¹), 100 x 50 cm (S3-20,000 Plant population ha⁻¹) and four levels viz. 0.0, 2.0, 4.0, 6.0 t ha⁻¹ with the plot size of 6.0 x 6.0 m. The observations on plant height, No. of branches, root length and girth, fresh and dry root yield were recorded up to 3 years at an interval of six months growth period. As there was no significant growth at 6 months period, the plants of Bilva/Bael (*Aegle marmelos*) were completely uprooted at 12 and 18 months' growth period for recording the root yield including tap root. The woody and hard tap root is rather less pharmaceutical important and therefore at 24, 30 and 36 months growth period only lateral roots were harvested. At 12 months of growth stage, the root length, root girth and dry root yield plant⁻¹ and total glycosides were highest with the plant spacing of 100 x 150 cm and FYM @ 2 t ha⁻¹ (S₁ x F₂). After 18 months stage, highest dry root yield and phytochemical values were observed with the plant spacing of 100 x 150 cm and FYM @ 2 t ha⁻¹ (S₁ x F₂). Although the water soluble extractive (% WSE) values were much above the required value i.e. 7 per cent as per the standards given in Ayurvedic Pharmacopoeia of India. Since the harvesting of roots after 18 months was very difficult with increased requirement of labour, time and cost, lateral roots were harvested from 24 months and analysed. At 24 months stage, highest plant height, no. of branches, root length, dry root yield and per cent water soluble extractives were obtained with the plant spacing of 100 x 150 cm and FYM @ 2 t ha⁻¹ (S₁ x F₂). However, root girth, per cent ASE, total alkaloids, total phenols and total glycosides were found to be highest with the plant spacing of 100 x 100 cm with FYM 2.0 t ha⁻¹ (S₂ x F₂). The values of total glycosides were highest amongst all the growth stages and treatments. Glycosides are the important bioactive group of Bilva as reported in Ayurvedic pharmacopoeia of India. The per cent WSE and per cent ASE values were as per the standards given in Ayurvedic Pharmacopoeia of India i.e. higher than 7 per cent. Although the values of total flavonoid were higher at the age of 30 months, the dry root yield and the total glycosides were less than 24 month age. Also the per cent ASE was found to be much less with all the treatments than 24 month age.

Many of the manufacturing units of Ayurvedic drugs are experiencing the shortage of raw material for the plant products from medicinal plant species being used as a Dashmool. The supply of the raw material particularly to that of root based material from trees of dashmool group is very-very meagre and hardly there are reliable data available which support supply scenario. This kind of short supply may lead to the use of either substitutes or in a very low quantity in the ayurvedic formulations and ultimately affect the efficacy of the formulations. In view of above, it is imperative to develop the agrotechnologies of these species. Hence, there is an urgent need for an intervention to develop and conserve the resource base for dashmool. The present investigation was carried out with the objectives to develop the

agronomic protocols for high density, short term plantation for Bilva/Bael (*Aegle marmelos*) a species of Brihatpanchmool and to study the yielding potential as influenced by age of the plant and time of harvesting.

Dashmoola is a fixed dose combination of 10 roots obtained from 5 tree species *Aegle marmelos* (Bilva/Bael) is one of them, 2 shrub / under shrub species and 3 herb species. These species belong to six different families of Angiosperms: Verbenaceae (2 species), Fabaceae (2 species), Solanaceae (2 species), Bignoniaceae (2 species), Rutaceae (1 species) and Zygophyllaceae (1 species). Dashmoolarishta prepared from these species can be used as a tonic to strengthen the system. When the immune system is depleted and is not throwing off

1. Professor & Principal Investigator, 2. Assitt. Professor & Co- Principal Investigator, 3 & 4 Sr. Res. Fellows, AICRP on Medicinal, Aromatic Plants & Betelvine, Dr. PDKV, Akola

fevers the decoction can cause diaphoresis and release the trapped *Ama* toxins. It is also good for influenza, colds, neuralgia, and headaches. One-quarter cup consumed daily for twenty-one days functions as a rapid cell rejuvenator.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

To assess the growth and root yield performance of Bael/Bilva a tree species was planted under different geometry and soil fertility during *Kharif* season 2008-09 the treatments comprising of three plant spacings 100 x

150 cm (S1-6,666 Plant population ha⁻¹), 100 x 100 cm (S2-10,000 Plant population ha⁻¹), 100 x 50 cm (S3-20,000 Plant population ha⁻¹) and four levels viz. 0.0, 2.0, 4.0, 6.0 t ha⁻¹ with the plot size of 6.0 x 6.0 m. The observations on plant height, No. of branches, root length and girth, fresh and dry root yield were recorded up to 3 years at an interval of six months growth period. As there was no significant growth, the plants of Bael (*Aegle marmelos*), were completely uprooted at 12 and 18 month's growth period for recording the root yield including tap root. The

Table 1. Relative plant height (cm) of Bilva/Bael (*Aegle marmelos*) as influenced by plant spacing and FYM levels.

Treatments	Growth Period (Months)				
	12	18	24	30	36
Plant spacing (cm)	Plant Height (cm)				
S ₁ - (100 X 150)	64.38	94.81	136.05	146.00	161.95
S ₂ - (100 X 100)	66.46	110.92	137.91	147.65	174.67
S ₃ - (100 X 50)	67.04	112.53	144.50	153.08	173.19
SE (m)±	0.69	5.01	2.33	3.77	4.14
CD (P=0.05)	2.04	14.70	6.83	11.06	13.14
FYM levels (t ha⁻¹)					
F ₁ - 0.0	60.11	99.50	120.01	133.01	161.13
F ₂ - 2.0	66.54	104.56	133.66	138.58	165.45
F ₃ - 4.0	67.98	115.31	144.22	151.15	172.41
F ₄ - 6.0	69.68	104.97	160.05	172.89	180.75
SE (m)±	0.80	5.78	2.69	4.36	4.78
CD at 5%	2.35	16.97	13.66	12.77	14.02
Interaction S x F					
S ₁ F ₁	58.00	93.33	109.45	129.00	150.30
S ₁ F ₂	65.50	102.75	135.64	134.75	160.00
S ₁ F ₃	66.33	108.00	142.50	155.25	168.75
S ₁ F ₄	67.67	75.17	156.60	165.00	168.75
S ₂ F ₁	61.00	102.50	126.83	139.83	168.83
S ₂ F ₂	66.83	103.83	130.60	142.60	169.67
S ₂ F ₃	67.17	118.00	139.40	145.50	179.67
S ₂ F ₄	70.83	119.33	154.80	162.67	180.50
S ₃ F ₁	61.33	102.67	123.75	130.20	164.25
S ₃ F ₂	67.30	107.09	134.75	138.40	166.67
S ₃ F ₃	70.43	119.92	150.75	152.70	168.82
S ₃ F ₄	70.55	120.42	168.75	191.00	193.00
SE (m)±	1.39	10.02	4.66	7.54	8.28
CD at 5%	4.07	29.4	13.66	22.13	24.28

woody and hard tap root is rather less pharmaceutical important and therefore at 24, 30 and 36 months growth period only lateral roots were harvested. The physicochemical and phyto-chemical analysis of the roots harvested at 12, 18, 24, 30 and 36 months growth period was carried out by standard methods (Torel, *et al*, 1986; Agrawal and Paridhavi, 2007 and Padma, *et al.*, 2010).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Plant height

As Bael (*Aegle marmelos*) is very slow growing species the growth observations were recorded from the 12 months growth period onwards. The data presented in Table-1 revealed that the plant height was successively found to increase with each growth period. Further, it was noticed that significantly maximum plant height was recorded with the closer plant spacing 100 x 50 cm except the plant height recorded at 36 months was highest with the plant spacing of 100 x 100 cm, however it was at par with the plant spacing of 100 x 50 cm

Application of FYM at various levels significantly influenced the plant height and significantly maximum plant height was noticed with the application 6 t FYM per hectare at all the growth periods, except the plant height recorded at 18 months growth period under study. However, it was at par with 4 t FYM ha⁻¹. The interaction effect was found to be significant at all the growth periods. The plant spacing of 100 x 50 cm with the application of 6 t FYM per hectare (S3xF4) recorded significantly maximum plant height at all the growth periods.

No. of branches

The data presented in Table 2 revealed that the number of branches was also successively found to increase with each growth period. Further, it was noticed that significantly maximum number of branches were recorded with the wider plant spacing 100 x 150 cm, except the branches recorded at 12 and 36 months growth period were maximum with the plant spacing of 100 x 100 cm.

Application of FYM at various levels significantly influenced the number of branches per plant and significantly maximum branches were noticed with the application 6 t FYM ha⁻¹ at all growth periods. The

interaction effect was found to be significant at all the growth periods. The plant spacing of 100 x 100 cm with the application of 6 t FYM ha⁻¹ (S2xF4) recorded significantly maximum branches plant⁻¹ at 12, 24 and 36 months growth period. However, number of branches were noticed significantly highest at 18 and 30 months growth periods under the plant spacing 100 x 150 cm with 6 t FYM per hectare (S1xF4).

Root length and girth

The data presented in Table-3(a) revealed that the root length and girth of completely uprooted plants of Bael at 12 and 18 months growth periods were successively found to increase with each growth period. Further, it was noticed that significantly maximum root length and girth was recorded with the wider plant spacing 100 x 150 cm.

Application of FYM at various levels significantly influenced the root length and girth and significantly maximum root length and root girth was noticed with the application 6 t FYM ha⁻¹ at all the growth periods under study, except the root girth recorded at 12 and 18 months growth periods. The root girth was maximum with 4 t FYM, however, it was at par with 6 t FYM ha⁻¹. The interaction effect was found to be significant at all the growth periods. The plant spacing of 100 x 150 cm with the application of 6 t FYM ha⁻¹ (S₁xF₄) recorded significantly maximum root length and girth at all the growth periods except the root girth recorded at 18 months growth period. The root length noticed at 18 months growth period under the plant spacing 100 x 150 cm with 4 t FYM ha⁻¹ (S₁xF₃) was significantly highest, however at par with plant spacing of 100 x 150 cm and the application of 6 t FYM ha⁻¹ (S₁xF₄).

During the growth periods of 24, 30 and 36 months only lateral roots were harvested and the data generated on the lateral root length and girth is presented in Table 3(b). The lateral root length and girth was also successively found to increase with each growth period. Further, it was noticed that significantly maximum root length and girth was recorded with the wider plant spacing 100 x 150 cm.

Application of FYM at various levels significantly influenced the root length and girth and

Table 2. Relative number of branches of Bilva/Bael (*Aegle marmelos*) as influenced by plant spacing and FYM levels

Treatments	Growth Period (Months)				
	12	18	24	30	36
Plant spacing (cm)	No. of branches				
S ₁ - (100 X 150)	2.17	7.69	7.75	8.54	11.14
S ₂ - (100 X 100)	2.21	7.12	7.47	8.45	11.67
S ₃ - (100 X 50)	2.04	5.84	6.14	6.48	11.38
SE (m)±	0.07	0.08	0.14	0.12	0.23
CD(P=0.05)	0.22	0.25	0.42	0.35	0.67
FYM levels (t ha⁻¹)					
F ₁ - 0.0	1.94	6.14	6.19	7.40	9.89
F ₂ - 2.0	1.96	6.94	6.82	7.75	11.31
F ₃ - 4.0	2.29	7.01	7.01	8.02	11.61
F ₄ - 6.0	2.35	7.44	8.47	8.13	12.77
SE (m)±	0.09	0.10	0.17	0.14	0.26
CD at 5%	0.25	0.29	0.49	0.41	0.77
Interaction S x F					
S ₁ F ₁	2.00	6.75	6.50	7.80	10.25
S ₁ F ₂	2.00	7.75	7.75	8.50	11.00
S ₁ F ₃	2.33	8.00	7.75	8.87	10.50
S ₁ F ₄	2.33	8.25	9.00	9.00	12.80
S ₂ F ₁	2.00	6.33	6.80	8.20	9.67
S ₂ F ₂	2.00	7.50	7.20	8.40	11.17
S ₂ F ₃	2.33	6.83	6.67	5.60	12.33
S ₂ F ₄	2.50	7.83	9.20	8.60	13.50
S ₃ F ₁	1.82	5.33	5.27	6.20	9.75
S ₃ F ₂	1.89	5.58	5.50	6.35	11.75
S ₃ F ₃	2.22	6.19	6.60	6.60	12.00
S ₃ F ₄	2.22	6.25	7.20	6.80	12.00
SE (m)±	0.15	0.17	0.29	0.24	0.46
CD at 5%	0.43	0.51	0.85	0.71	1.34

significantly maximum root length and root girth was noticed with the application 6 t FYM ha⁻¹ at all the growth periods (24, 30 and 36 months) under study. The interaction effect was found to be significant at all the growth periods. The plant spacing of 100 x 150 cm with the application of

6 t FYM ha⁻¹ (S1xF4) recorded significantly maximum root length and root girth, except root length recorded at 30th months growth period. It was significantly highest under plant spacing of 100 x 50 cm and 6 t FYM ha⁻¹ (S3xF4).

Table 3 (a). Relative root length and girth of completely uprooted plants of Bilva/Bael (*Aegle marmelos*) as influenced by plant spacing and FYM levels.

Treatments	Growth Period (Months)			
	12	18	12	18
Plant spacing (cm)	Root length (cm)	Root girth (cm)		
S ₁ - (100 X 150)	34.44	108.23	0.96	2.87
S ₂ - (100 X 100)	33.40	83.88	0.94	2.75
S ₃ - (100 X 50)	29.84	79.49	0.94	2.33
SE (m)±	0.57	0.87	0.01	0.02
CD at 5%	1.66	2.56	0.02	0.05
FYM levels (t ha⁻¹)				
F ₁ - 0.0	27.28	79.67	0.92	2.53
F ₂ - 2.0	32.21	91.61	0.95	2.57
F ₃ - 4.0	34.46	94.92	0.96	2.77
F ₄ - 6.0	36.28	95.86	0.95	2.72
SE (m)±	0.65	1.01	0.01	0.02
CD a 5%	1.92	2.95	0.03	0.06
Interaction S x F				
S ₁ F ₁	31.58	85.67	0.93	2.70
S ₁ F ₂	32.50	111.50	0.95	2.78
S ₁ F ₃	34.00	118.75	0.97	2.98
S ₁ F ₄	39.67	117.00	0.97	3.03
S ₂ F ₁	29.60	76.83	0.92	2.55
S ₂ F ₂	32.33	83.50	0.95	2.58
S ₂ F ₃	35.67	86.00	0.95	2.93
S ₂ F ₄	36.00	89.17	0.95	2.92
S ₃ F ₁	20.67	78.50	0.92	2.34
S ₃ F ₂	31.80	79.82	0.94	2.35
S ₃ F ₃	33.70	80.00	0.95	2.39
S ₃ F ₄	33.18	81.42	0.94	2.22
SE (m)±	1.13	1.74	0.02	0.03
CD at 5%	3.32	5.12	0.05	0.11

Root yield

The data presented in Table 4 (a) revealed that the dry root yield of completely uprooted plants of Bael at 12 and 18 months growth periods was found to increase markedly with each growth period. The root yield was in the range of 0.52-1.29 q ha⁻¹ at 12 months and 6.65-16.81 q ha⁻¹ at 18 months growth period. Further, it was noticed that significantly highest root yield at 12 and 18 months

growth periods was recorded with the closer plant spacing of 100 x 50 cm.

Application of FYM at various levels significantly influenced the dry root yield and significantly maximum root yield was noticed with the application 4 t FYM ha⁻¹, at all the growth period, however it was at par with the application 6 t FYM ha⁻¹. The interaction effect

Table 3 (b) Lateral root length and girth of Bilva/Bael (*Aegle marmelos*) as influenced by plant spacing and FYM levels.

Treatments	Growth Period (Months)					
	24	30	36	24	30	36
Spacing (cm)	Root length (cm)			Root girth (cm)		
S1 - (100 X 150)	66.85	70.00	79.31	0.71	0.74	0.90
S2 - (100 X 100)	57.99	65.48	75.35	0.69	0.69	0.77
S3 - (100 X 50)	55.39	65.72	70.70	0.66	0.68	0.75
SE (m)±	1.30	1.27	1.33	0.01	0.01	0.01
CD 5%	3.82	3.73	3.89	0.02	0.03	0.03
FYM levels (t ha⁻¹)						
F 1 - 0.0	51.01	58.58	62.26	0.61	0.65	0.69
F 2 - 2.0	59.38	64.21	71.74	0.67	0.66	0.78
F 3 - 4.0	62.41	69.33	81.08	0.73	0.76	0.86
F 4 - 6.0	67.51	76.15	85.40	0.74	0.75	0.89
SE (m)±	2.60	1.47	1.53	0.01	0.01	0.01
CD at 5%	7.64	4.31	4.49	0.02	0.04	0.03
Interaction S x F						
S1F1	54.75	59.50	67.50	0.65	0.68	0.70
S1F2	62.63	71.50	77.25	0.59	0.70	0.90
S1F3	73.75	73.13	86.00	0.74	0.78	1.00
S1F4	73.25	75.88	86.50	0.74	0.80	1.00
S2F1	45.09	60.42	63.58	0.63	0.62	0.68
S2F2	55.30	63.83	70.83	0.68	0.68	0.72
S2F3	59.30	64.17	81.75	0.72	0.75	0.80
S2F4	72.27	73.50	85.75	0.74	0.76	0.87
S3F1	53.20	55.82	55.71	0.54	0.64	0.70
S3F2	57.20	57.30	67.13	0.64	0.65	0.71
S3F3	54.17	70.70	75.50	0.73	0.74	0.78
S3F4	57.00	79.06	84.45	0.73	0.70	0.80
SE (m)±	2.60	2.54	2.65	0.02	0.03	0.02
CD 5%	7.64	7.46	7.77	0.05	0.08	0.06

was found to be significant at all the growth periods. The plant spacing of 100 x 50 cm with the application of 4 and 6 t FYM per hectare ($S_3 \times F_3$ and $S_3 \times F_4$) recorded significantly maximum dry root yield at all the growth periods (12 and 18 months).

During the growth periods of 24, 30 and 36 months only lateral roots were harvested and the data generated on the lateral root yield is presented in Table 4(b). The

lateral root yield was also successively found to increase with each growth period. The root yield was in the range of 4.67-14.65 q ha⁻¹ at 24 months, 4.77-14.81 q ha⁻¹ at 30 months and 7.94-36.41 q ha⁻¹ at 36 months growth period. Further, it was noticed that significantly highest root yield was recorded with the closer plant spacing of 100 x 50 cm.

Application of FYM at various levels significantly influenced the root yield and significantly

highest root yield was noticed with the application 6 t FYM ha⁻¹ at all the growth periods (24, 30 and 36 months) under study. The interaction effect was also found to be significant at all the growth periods. The plant spacing of

100 x 150 cm with the application of 6 t FYM ha⁻¹ (S₁x F₄) recorded significantly highest root yield at 24, 30 and 36 months growth periods.

Table- 4 (a) Relative dry root yield of completely uprooted plants of Bilva/Bael (*Aegle marmelos*) as influenced by plant spacing and FYM levels.

Treatments	Growth Period (Months)			
	12	18	12	18
Spacing (cm)	Dry root yield (g plant⁻¹)		Dry root yield (q ha⁻¹)	
S ₁ - (100 X 150)	8.85	149.45	0.59	9.97
S ₂ - (100 X 100)	6.84	109.45	0.68	10.96
S ₃ - (100 X 50)	6.14	74.20	1.23	14.85
SE (m)±	0.28	1.51	0.04	0.15
CD at 5%	0.82	4.44	0.10	0.44
FYM levels (t ha⁻¹)				
F ₁ - 0.0	6.49	89.67	0.75	10.08
F ₂ - 2.0	7.37	101.43	0.84	10.91
F ₃ - 4.0	7.60	127.60	0.87	13.51
F ₄ - 6.0	7.66	125.43	0.88	13.20
SE (m)±	0.32	1.75	0.04	0.17
CD at 5%	0.95	5.13	0.12	0.50
Interaction S x F				
S ₁ F ₁	7.75	99.70	0.52	6.65
S ₁ F ₂	9.00	132.50	0.60	8.84
S ₁ F ₃	9.33	185.80	0.62	12.40
S ₁ F ₄	9.33	179.80	0.62	12.00
S ₂ F ₁	6.00	102.80	0.60	10.29
S ₂ F ₂	7.00	104.80	0.70	10.49
S ₂ F ₃	7.17	113.00	0.72	11.31
S ₂ F ₄	7.17	117.20	0.72	11.73
S ₃ F ₁	5.71	66.50	1.14	13.31
S ₃ F ₂	6.10	67.00	1.22	13.41
S ₃ F ₃	6.30	84.00	1.26	16.81
S ₃ F ₄	6.47	79.30	1.29	15.87
SE (m)±	0.56	3.03	0.07	0.30
CD at 5%	1.64	8.88	0.21	0.87

Table 4 (b) : Relative lateral dry root yield of Bilva/Bael (*Aegle marmelos*) as influenced by plant spacing and FYM levels.

Treatments	Growth Period (Months)					
	24	30	36	24	30	36
Spacing (cm)	Dry root yield (g plant⁻¹)			Dry root yield (q ha⁻¹)		
S1 - (100 X 150)	82.44	99.25	141.41	5.50	6.62	9.44
S2 - (100 X 100)	75.65	71.38	133.75	7.57	7.15	13.39
S3 - (100 X 50)	47.01	58.56	128.58	9.41	11.72	25.74
SE (m)±	1.85	1.67	2.11	0.28	0.22	0.29
CD at 5%	5.42	4.91	6.20	0.83	0.64	0.86
FYM levels (t ha⁻¹)						
F 1 - 0.0	52.52	57.07	105.91	5.47	6.37	12.00
F 2 - 2.0	59.22	66.28	118.83	6.19	7.48	14.25
F 3 - 4.0	74.22	84.89	138.35	8.20	9.50	16.86
F 4 - 6.0	87.51	97.33	175.43	10.11	10.64	21.63
SE (m)±	2.14	1.93	2.44	0.33	0.25	0.34
CD at 5%	6.26	5.67	7.16	0.96	0.74	0.99
Interaction S x F						
S1F1	70.00	71.50	119.00	4.67	4.77	7.94
S1F2	72.50	76.25	123.50	4.84	5.09	8.24
S1F3	87.75	114.25	143.75	5.85	7.62	9.59
S1F4	98.00	135.00	179.40	6.54	9.01	11.97
S2F1	55.60	56.17	117.00	5.56	5.62	11.71
S2F2	72.25	72.00	120.00	7.33	7.21	12.01
S2F3	82.40	72.33	133.00	8.25	7.24	13.31
S2F4	91.33	85.00	165.00	9.14	8.51	16.51
S3F1	30.45	43.55	81.73	6.09	8.72	16.36
S3F2	31.90	50.60	112.38	6.39	10.13	22.49
S3F3	52.50	68.10	138.30	10.51	13.63	27.68
S3F4	73.20	76.00	181.90	14.65	14.81	36.41
SE (m)±	3.70	3.35	4.23	0.57	0.44	0.59
CD at 5%	10.85	9.82	12.41	1.67	1.28	1.72

Physicochemical analysis of roots of Bilva/Bael (*Aegle marmelos*) as influenced by plant spacing and FYM levels.

The data on physico and phyto-chemical parameters of roots of Bilva/Bael (*Aegle marmelos*) are presented in Table 5-8.

The physico and phyto-chemical analysis of composite sample of 6 months age roots of Bilva/Bael (*Aegle marmelos*) was done and the data is presented in

Table-5. The WSE and ASE values were in the range of 15.97-21.77 per cent and 7.12-8.38 per cent, respectively. Total flavonoides (2.6%), Alkaloids (1.24%), Phenols (0.55%) and Glycosides (1.97%) were also found in the roots. The data (Table19) on water soluble extractive values revealed that the various plant spacing had influenced the WSE and highest values of WSE in the roots harvested at 12-24 months growth period were noticed with the wider spacing i.e. planting at 100 x 150 cm. No

consistent data was observed due to the manurial treatments i.e. application of different levels of Farm Yard Manure under various plant spacing. On the basis of general mean the WSE values were in the range of 10.62-18.05 per cent in the roots harvested from 12th months onwards up to 36th months at an interval of 6 months growth period. Further, it was observed that the WSE values (18.05%) was highest in the roots harvested at 36th months (i.e. June, 2011) followed by WSE (17.21%) recorded at 12th months (i.e. June, 2009) and WSE (15.10%) observed at 24th months (i.e. June, 2010). Comparatively lowest WSE values were noticed in the roots harvested at 30th months (December, 2010), followed by 18th months (December, 2009).

The data on alcohol soluble extractive values revealed that the various plant spacing and the manurial treatments i.e. application of different levels of Farm Yard Manure did not influence the ASE values in the roots of Bilva. On the basis of general mean the ASE values were in the range of 5.22-11.41 per cent in the roots harvested from 12th months onwards up to 36th months at an interval of 6 months growth period. Further, it was observed that the ASE values (11.41%) was highest in the roots harvested at 24th months (i.e. June, 2010) followed by ASE (9.91%) recorded at 36th months (i.e. June, 2011) and ASE (9.71%) observed at 12th months (i.e. June, 2009).

Comparatively lowest ASE values (5.22%) were noticed in the roots harvested at 18th months (December, 2009), followed by 30th months (December, 2010).

On the basis of general mean the total ash values were in the range of 2.96-5.82 per cent and acid insoluble ash values were in the range of 0.74-2.51 per cent in the roots harvested from 12th months onwards up to 36th months at an interval of 6 months growth period (Table 7).

As the results obtained on physico-chemical constituents were not consistent with the manurial treatments i.e. application of different levels of FYM, the composite samples for each plant spacing (i.e. S₁, S₂ and S₃) with FYM @ 2 t FYM ha⁻¹ were analysed for phyto-chemical constituents. The results obtained are presented in Table 8.

The total flavonoids values were in the range of 2.30-3.78 per cent and Alkaloid values were in the range of 1.60-5.22 per cent. Further, it was noticed that these constituents found to increase with the age and highest value were recorded with the roots harvested at 36th months growth period. The Phenols content was found in the range of 0.42-0.90 per cent and Glycosides content was noticed in the range of 1.60-2.58 per cent in the roots harvested from 18th months onwards up to 36th months at an interval of 6 months growth period.

Table: 5 Physico and Phyto-chemical analysis of 6-month-old root sample of Bilva/ Bael (*Aegle marmelos*)

Treatments	WSE, %	ASE, %	TA, %	AIA, %
Sample-1	21.77	8.38	5.43	1.42
Sample-2	17.03	8.36	5.05	0.63
Sample-3	17.80	8.05	5.17	0.89
Sample-4	15.97	8.05	5.16	0.72
Sample-5	16.51	7.65	4.99	0.50
Sample-6	16.78	7.12	4.73	0.41
Mean	17.64	7.94	5.09	0.76
Phyto-chemicals				
	Total Flavonoids (%)	Alkaloids (%)	Phenols (%)	Glycosides (%)
Composite sample	2.6	1.24	0.55	1.97

Table-6 Water and Alcohol Soluble Extractive values of Bilva/Bael (*Aegle marmelos*) roots as influenced by plant spacing and FYM levels.

Treatments combinations Plant spacing x FYM levels	Growth Period (Months)				
	12	18	24	30	36
S₁ 100 x 150 cm	Water Soluble Extractive (%)				
F ₁ 0.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	18.62	16.45	13.44	12.27	17.70
F ₂ 2.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	19.21	16.65	17.44	10.08	19.79
F ₃ 4.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	20.40	16.36	12.76	10.96	18.35
F ₄ 6.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	16.76	14.56	17.72	11.36	16.15
Mean	18.75	16.01	15.34	11.17	18.00
S₂ 100 x 100 cm					
F ₁ 0.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	17.48	19.78	16.54	7.44	14.60
F ₂ 2.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	19.35	19.31	16.30	10.68	19.60
F ₃ 4.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	17.04	11.91	19.44	7.76	19.50
F ₄ 6.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	14.76	10.02	14.46	12.13	16.15
Mean	17.16	15.26	16.68	9.50	17.46
S₃ 100 x 50 cm					
F ₁ 0.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	14.90	10.07	12.68	19.80	22.42
F ₂ 2.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	14.39	8.85	10.56	7.58	16.95
F ₃ 4.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	17.12	12.50	16.28	10.13	17.80
F ₄ 6.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	16.50	10.39	13.56	7.28	17.65
Mean	15.73	10.45	13.27	11.20	18.70
General Mean	17.21	13.90	15.10	10.62	18.05
	Alcohol Soluble Extractive (%)				
S₁ 100 x 150 cm					
F ₁ 0.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	10.05	5.37	8.92	5.24	8.00
F ₂ 2.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	8.13	4.71	11.08	5.48	8.30
F ₃ 4.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	10.22	5.01	12.12	5.38	10.46
F ₄ 6.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	7.40	5.86	14.52	5.17	9.40
Mean	8.95	5.24	11.66	5.31	9.04
S₂ 100 x 100 cm					
F ₁ 0.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	9.21	5.88	13.52	5.77	10.40
F ₂ 2.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	10.17	5.30	13.70	6.58	11.11
F ₃ 4.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	9.43	6.42	13.56	6.16	11.36
F ₄ 6.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	9.49	5.44	10.60	6.17	12.80
Mean	9.58	5.76	12.85	6.17	11.42
S₃ 100 x 50 cm					
F ₁ 0.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	10.87	4.91	8.22	6.28	9.30
F ₂ 2.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	10.79	4.82	7.42	6.18	9.72
F ₃ 4.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	10.37	4.69	12.68	5.89	7.30
F ₄ 6.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	10.46	4.23	10.56	5.32	10.73
Mean	10.62	4.66	9.72	5.92	9.26
General Mean	9.71	5.22	11.41	5.80	9.91

Table 7 : Total ash and Acid insoluble ash of Bilva/Bael (*Aegle marmelos*) roots as influenced by plant spacing and FYM levels.

Treatments combinations Plant spacing x FYM levels	Growth Period (Months)				
	12	18	24	30	36
S₁ 100 x 150 cm	Total ash(%)				
F ₁ 0.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	6.31	2.90	2.99	4.65	5.64
F ₂ 2.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	4.93	2.64	9.23	4.72	5.41
F ₃ 4.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	6.31	2.81	4.95	4.37	6.02
F ₄ 6.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	5.51	3.16	1.76	4.04	6.17
Mean	5.77	2.88	4.73	4.45	5.81
S₂ 100 x 100 cm					
F ₁ 0.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	5.36	2.57	4.82	3.80	6.35
F ₂ 2.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	4.77	2.74	6.24	3.00	5.91
F ₃ 4.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	5.05	3.00	3.91	4.37	5.73
F ₄ 6.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	4.64	2.85	4.17	4.09	5.65
Mean	4.96	2.79	4.79	3.82	5.91
S₃ 100 x 50 cm					
F ₁ 0.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	6.75	3.26	3.83	4.89	6.20
F ₂ 2.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	6.41	3.75	3.77	3.60	5.42
F ₃ 4.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	4.86	2.96	3.81	4.79	5.77
F ₄ 6.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	6.31	2.90	3.74	4.20	5.57
Mean	6.08	3.22	3.79	4.37	5.74
General Mean	5.60	2.96	4.43	4.21	5.82
	Acid insoluble ash (%)				
S₁ 100 x 150 cm					
F ₁ 0.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	2.99	0.62	0.30	0.90	3.60
F ₂ 2.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	1.91	0.65	6.15	0.60	2.09
F ₃ 4.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	3.08	0.66	0.98	0.55	2.77
F ₄ 6.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	2.52	0.84	0.42	1.35	2.95
Mean	2.63	0.69	1.96	0.85	2.85
S₂ 100 x 100 cm					
F ₁ 0.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	2.04	0.54	1.50	0.90	3.32
F ₂ 2.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	1.79	0.49	1.73	0.55	2.31
F ₃ 4.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	1.81	0.82	0.81	0.70	2.22
F ₄ 6.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	1.85	0.92	0.85	0.90	2.35
Mean	1.87	0.69	1.22	0.76	2.55
S₃ 100 x 50 cm					
F ₁ 0.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	3.03	1.03	1.00	0.50	2.30
F ₂ 2.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	2.45	0.90	0.94	0.80	2.14
F ₃ 4.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	1.5	0.87	0.92	0.70	2.25
F ₄ 6.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	2.29	0.71	0.78	0.50	1.88
Mean	2.32	0.88	0.91	0.63	2.14
General Mean	2.27	0.75	1.36	0.74	2.51

Table 8 : Total flavonoids, Alkaloid, Phenols and Glycosides in Bilva/Bael (*Aegle marmelos*) roots as influenced by different plant spacing.

Treatment combinations	Growth Period (Months)				
	12	18	24	30	36
Plant spacing x FYM levels					
Total Flavonoids (%)					
S ₁ 100 x 150 cm xF 2 2.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	ND	3.10	2.12	4.14	3.05
S ₂ 100 x 100 cm xF 2 2.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	ND	2.00	2.20	3.37	4.25
S ₃ 100 x 50 cm xF 2 2.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	ND	1.80	2.49	2.90	4.05
Mean		2.30	2.27	3.47	3.78
Alkaloid (%)					
S ₁ 100 x 150 cm xF 2 2.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	ND	2.00	2.45	3.46	5.54
S ₂ 100 x 100 cm xF 2 2.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	ND	1.00	2.85	3.13	5.26
S ₃ 100 x 50 cm xF 2 2.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	ND	1.80	0.58	4.76	4.87
Mean		1.60	1.96	3.77	5.22
Phenols (%)					
S ₁ 100 x 150 cm xF 2 2.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	ND	0.50	0.56	0.41	0.52
S ₂ 100 x 100 cm xF 2 2.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	ND	0.41	0.56	0.41	0.56
S ₃ 100 x 50 cm xF 2 2.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	ND	1.80	0.35	0.43	0.52
Mean		0.90	0.49	0.42	0.53
Glycosides (%)					
S ₁ 100 x 150 cm xF 2 2.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	ND	2.00	2.80	2.33	1.46
S ₂ 100 x 100 cm xF 2 2.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	ND	1.80	3.18	2.41	1.60
S ₃ 100 x 50 cm xF 2 2.0 t FYM ha ⁻¹	ND	1.00	1.76	2.34	2.24
Mean		1.60	2.58	2.36	1.77

The WSE values reported/observed in the roots of Bilva harvested at 18-24th months under the study conforms the accepted limits and is having higher relevance in context of Ayurvedic methods of drug usage as these values are indicative of phyto-constituents in a given quantity medicinal plant material (Padma, *et.al* 2010).

Further, it is observed that the values of these phyto-chemical constituents were maximum in the roots of the brihat-panchmoola species under study harvested at 18th-24th months onwards. Phyto-chemicals, polyphenols are largely recognized as anti-inflammatory, antiviral, antimicrobial and antioxidant agent (Narayana, *et.al.*, 2001). As such, phenolics and flavanoides constitute major group of compounds which act as primary antioxidants (Adesegun *et.al.*, 2009) are known to react

with hydroxyl radicals (Hussain *et.al.* 1987) super-oxide anion radicals (Afanaslev *et.al.*, 1989), lipid peroxiradicals (Torel *et.al.*, 1986), protect DNA from oxidative damage inhibitory against tumor cells and possess anti-inflammatory and antimicrobial properties. Thus, the results of this study signify that the roots of Bilva/Bael (*Aegle marmelos*) at the age of 24 months growth period could be a source of natural antioxidant and anti-inflammatory drug.

LITERATURE CITED

Adegun M.K. and O.J. Ayodele, 2015. Growth and yield of *Moringa oleifera* as influenced by spacing and organic manures in South Western Nigeria, International J Agron. & Agric. Res. (IJAAR) Vol.6: 30-37.

- Adesegun, S.A., A., Fajana, C.I. Orabueze and H.A.B. Cocker, 2009. Evaluation of antioxidant properties of *Phaulopsis fascisepala* C.B.Cl. (Acanthaceae), *eCAM*. 6:227-31.
- Afanasiev I.B.; A.I., Dorozhko and A.V. Bordskii, 1989. Chelating and free radical scavenging mechanisms of inhibitory action of rutin and quercetin in lipid peroxidation, *Biochem Pharmacol.*, 38:1763-9.
- Agrawal S.S. and M. Paridhavi, 2007. *Herbal Drug Technology*, Published by Universities Press (India) Pvt. Ltd Hyderabad.
- Farhad H., H. Saeid, M. Gholamhoseini, H. Delara and Diako Khodaei, 2019. Evaluation of quantitative and qualitative characteristics of strawberry in response to bio and chemical fertilizers, *GESUNDE PFLANZ*, March 2019.
- Hussain, S. R., J. Cillard and P. Cillard, 1987. Hydroxyl radical scavenging activity of flavonoids, *Phytochem.*, 26:2489-91.
- Mohit Kumar and Rajesh Kumar, 2013. Response of organic manures on growth and yield of Mango (*Mangifera indica* L.) Cv. Dashehari, *Hortflora Res. Spectrum*, 2 (1) : 64-67.
- Narayana, R. K., M. S. Reddy, M. R. Chaluvadi and D. R. Krishna, 2008. Bioflavonoid classification, pharmacological, biochemical effects and therapeutic potential, *Indian J. Pharmacol.*, 33 : 2-16.
- Padma, V, S. Preethi and Lalitha, 2010. Quality control of Indian Traditional Medicines, Institute of Ayurveda & Integrative Medicine, Bangalore.
- Torel, J., J. Cillard and P. Cillard, 1986. Antioxidant activity of flavonoids and reactivity with peroxy radicals, *Phytochem.*, 25 : 383-385.



Received on 11.6.2019

Management of Pulse Beetle (*Callosobruchus chinensis* L.) in Stored Chickpea with Some Vegetable Oils

P. K. Rathod¹, P. A. Borkar², D. B. Undirwade³, R. P. Murumkar⁴, S. K. Bhalkare⁵ and V. N. Mate⁶

ABSTRACT

An experiment was conducted in laboratory of AICRP on PHET, Dr. PDKV, Akola(M.S) during 2015-16 to 2017-18 to find out effective, safer plant products as an alternative to synthetic insecticide and to evaluate eco-friendly and effective material against pulse beetle. Different vegetable oils as seed treatment with various doses were tested against pulse beetle in stored chickpea. Minimum per cent grain damage, minimum per cent grain weight loss in stored chickpea and maximum per cent mortality in bruchids was observed in grains treated with castor oil and groundnut oil @10 ml kg⁻¹ grain, 7.5 ml kg⁻¹ and 5 ml kg⁻¹ grain, respectively which were at par with each other. Minimum number of eggs 100⁻¹ grains were recorded in the grain treated with ground nut oil @ 10 ml kg⁻¹ grain and castor oil @ 10 ml kg⁻¹ grain followed by groundnut oil and castor oil @ 0.5 and 7.5 ml kg⁻¹ grain treatments.

Chickpea is the most important pulse crops after dry bean and peas. India has a record of chickpea area and production of 3.55 million ha and 7.17 million tones respectively (Annon., 2017). Maharashtra is the largest producer of chickpea accounting 14.00 per cent of the total production followed by Madhya Pradesh (39%).

In India there are about 200 species of insect pests which cause damage to grains and grains products in storage. *Callosobruchus chinensis* is a major, economically important pest of all pulses and cause 40-50 per cent losses of pulses in storage (Ghosh *et al.*, 2003).

Heavy qualitative and quantitative losses occur due to the attack of pulse beetle (*C. chinensis* L.) on the stored chickpea grains and other stored grains such as beans, gram and lentil seeds in the developing countries. Invasion of this insect causes reduction in germination of grains, weight loss and lower market value (Raja and William, 2008; Patel, 2011; Sagheer *et al.*, 2013; Islam *et al.*, 2013 and Tefsu and Eman, 2013). Numerous control methods have been used for the control of *C. chinensis* including the use of larval parasitoids as biological control agent, changes in temperature of storage house, microwave energy use and chemical control.

Success achieved so far in making the stored products free from pests has been largely dependent on pesticides alone. Pesticides are the most powerful tool available for pest control. Despite these credentials, the

long and indiscriminate use of pesticides has been found ecologically unsound. Insecticides were found to cause toxic effects on the produce intended for consumption, which forced a processor to look towards plants and plant products as protectants for stored products as an alternative to the highly persistent synthetic chemicals.

Success achieved so far in making the stored products free from pests has been largely dependent on pesticides alone. Pesticides are the most powerful tool available for pest control. Despite these credentials, the long and indiscriminate use of pesticides has been found ecologically unsound. Insecticides were found to cause toxic effects on the produce intended for consumption, which forced a processor to look towards plants and plant products as protectants for stored products as an alternative to the highly persistent synthetic chemicals.

There is a need to find some alternative procedure for the control of *C. chinensis*. These methods should be cheaper, safe to environment and human health and highly effective in use of alternative method found is the use of plant part and their products as repellent and deterrents (Sagheer *et al.*, 2013; Khan *et al.*, 2014 and Hasan *et al.*, 2014).

Plant-derived materials are more readily biodegradable, relatively specific in the mode of action and easy to use (Das, 1986); they are environmentally safe, less hazardous, less expensive and readily available.

1 & 5. Assistant Professor, 2. Research Engineer, 3. Head and 4 & 6. Asst. Res. Engineer, Department of Entomology, Dr. PDKV, Akola

Some are less toxic to mammals, may be more selective in action, and may retard the development of resistance. Their main advantage is that they may be easily and cheaply produced by farmers and small-scale industries as crude, or partially purified extracts. It was reported that when mixed with stored-grains, leaf, bark, seed powder, or oil extracts of plants reduce oviposition rate and suppress adult emergence of bruchids, and also reduced seed damage rate (Talukder and Howse, 1994 and Tapondjou *et. al.*, 2002). This article describes reasons to carry out an investigation for “Efficacy of vegetable oils against pulse beetle (*Callosobruchus. spp*) in stored chickpea”.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

An experiment was conducted in laboratory of AICRP on PHET, Dr. PDKV, Akola(M.S) during 2015-16 to 2017-18 in completely randomized design with sixteen treatments replicated thrice to find out effective, safer plant products as an alternative to synthetic insecticide and to evaluate eco-friendly and effective material against pulse

beetle. Different vegetable oils as seed treatment with various doses were tested against pulse beetle in stored chickpea. Mass culture of *C. chinensis* L. was maintained in laboratory. Sample of 1000 g of seed was used for each treatment. The requisite quantity of each oil was used for treating the sample. Treated sample was shaken slowly so that grains get treated properly. A stock of chickpea treated with the oil was stored in perforated polythene bags. The observation on percent grain weight loss and per cent grain damage was recorded after 30, 60, 90, 120, 150 and 180 days.

Separately, one hundred grams of chickpea was thoroughly mixed with the botanicals at @ given in table 1. Effect of these material was evaluated against bruchids in chickpea in a plastic container of 250 ml capacity. Randomly selected 20 bruchid adults were exposed to each concentration of main treatment. The no. of dead and morbid adult was counted at an interval of 48 hrs. and such observations were recorded for 12 days for actual

Table 1. Effect of different vegetable oils on per cent grain damage of stored chickpea (3 years pooled data)

Tr.No.	Treatment	Dose ml kg ⁻¹	Per cent grain damage after					
			30 days	60 days	90 days	120 days	150 days	180 days
1	Mustard oil	5	1.17(1.14)	3.17(1.71)	4.33(2.19)	6.0(2.87)	10.83(3.35)	14.33(3.84)
2	Mustard oil	7.5	1.00(1.09)	2.67(1.76)	3.67(2.03)	5.67(2.46)	8.17(2.93)	12.17(3.54)
3	Mustard oil	10	0.83(1.05)	2.17(1.60)	3.33(1.95)	4.5(2.22)	7.00(2.72)	11.33(3.43)
4	Ground nut oil	5	0.0(0.71)	0.67(1.00)	0.83(1.05)	1.00(1.09)	2.0(1.52)	3.33(1.92)
5	Ground nut oil	7.5	0.0(0.71)	0.33(0.85)	0.67(1.00)	1.00(1.09)	1.67(1.43)	2.67(1.77)
6	Ground nut oil	10	0.0(0.71)	0.0(0.71)	0.50(0.94)	0.83(1.05)	0.83(1.05)	1.33(1.26)
7	Castor oil	5	0.0(0.71)	0.0(0.71)	0.0(0.71)	0.0(0.71)	1.00(1.17)	1.33(1.61)
8	Castor oil	7.5	0.0(0.71)	0.0(0.71)	0.0(0.71)	0.0(0.71)	0.67(1.02)	0.67(1.05)
9	Castor oil	10	0.0(0.71)	0.0(0.71)	0.0(0.71)	0.0(0.71)	0.0(0.71)	0.33(0.88)
10	Coconut oil	5	3.17(1.90)	6.17(2.57)	9.0(3.07)	10.67(3.33)	14.5(3.86)	18.17(4.32)
11	Coconut oil	7.5	2.83(1.80)	5.17(2.37)	7.33(2.79)	9.33(3.13)	11.83(3.50)	15.33(3.97)
12	Coconut oil	10	2.33(1.67)	4.33(2.19)	7.17(2.77)	8.17(2.92)	10.17(3.26)	14.67(3.89)
13	Palm oil	5	3.33(1.95)	5.83(2.50)	7.83(2.88)	9.50(3.14)	12.00(3.52)	16.17(4.07)
14	Palm oil	7.5	2.83(1.80)	4.67(2.26)	8.00(2.57)	9.67(3.16)	11.67(3.47)	14.33(3.84)
15	Palm oil	10	2.67(1.76)	4.67(2.26)	7.00(2.65)	8.83(3.05)	10.50(3.30)	13.0(3.65)
16	Untreated control	-	4.83(2.26)	8.33(2.91)	12.33(3.57)	15.83(4.06)	20.17(4.56)	24.83(4.69)
	SE(m)±	0.14	0.14	0.19	0.22	0.26	0.31	
	CD at 5%	0.43	0.42	0.57	0.66	0.78	0.94	

Figures in parenthesis are Square root (X+0.5) transformed values

effects of each treatment. Thus per cent mortality and per cent grain weight loss was also worked out. The data thus obtained was analyzed statistically in CRD.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Per cent grain damage in stored chickpea

It is revealed from table 1 that significantly minimum (0.33%) grain damage in stored chickpea was observed in the treatment castor oil @10 ml kg⁻¹ grain which was found at par with castor oil @7.5 ml kg⁻¹ grain (0.67%), castor oil @5.0 ml kg⁻¹ grain (1.33%), groundnut oil @10 ml kg⁻¹ grain (1.33%), groundnut oil @7.5 ml kg⁻¹ grain (2.67%) and groundnut oil @5.0 ml kg grain (3.33%). The next best treatment was palm oil @10ml kg⁻¹ grain (13.0%). The maximum per cent grain damage was recorded in untreated control (24.83%).

Per cent grain weight loss in stored chickpea

It is revealed from Table 2 that the minimum (0.03%) grain weight loss in stored chickpea was observed in the treatment castor oil @10 ml kg⁻¹ grain which was found

at par with groundnut oil @10.0 ml kg⁻¹ grain(0.05%), castor oil @7.5 ml kg⁻¹ grain (0.10%), castor oil @5.0 ml kg⁻¹ grain (0.11%), groundnut oil @7.5 ml kg grain (0.31%), groundnut oil @5.0 ml kg⁻¹ grain (0.35%). The next best treatment was palm oil @10 ml kg⁻¹ grain (1.0%). The maximum per cent grain damage was recorded in untreated control (7.07%).

Per cent mortality of bruchids in stored chickpea

Maximum (25.0%) mortality in bruchids in stored chickpea was observed in the treatment with castor oil @10 ml kg⁻¹ grain, groundnut oil @10 ml kg⁻¹ grain and groundnut oil @ 7.5 ml kg⁻¹ grain. These treatment were found at par with castor oil @7.5 ml kg⁻¹ grain, castor oil @5.0 ml kg⁻¹ grain, groundnut oil @7.5 ml kg⁻¹ grain and groundnut oil @5.0 ml kg⁻¹ grain (Table 3.) .

Maximum no. of eggs (70.0 eggs)of bruchidswere recorded in untreated control (table 4).Minimum number (17.33) of eggs 100⁻¹grains were recorded in the grain treated with ground nut oil @ 10ml kg⁻¹ grain which was at par with castor oil @ 10 ml kg⁻¹ grain (18.17 eggs 100⁻¹

Table 2. Effect of different vegetable oils on per cent grain weight loss of stored chickpea (3 years Pooled Data)

Tr.No.	Treatment	Dose ml kg ⁻¹	Per cent grain weight loss after					
			30 days	60 days	90 days	120 days	150 days	180 days
1	Mustard oil	5	0.08(0.76)	0.28(0.88)	0.40(0.95)	0.57(1.02)	1.01(1.22)	1.63(1.44)
2	Mustard oil	7.5	0.03(0.73)	0.19(0.83)	0.35(0.92)	0.50(1.00)	0.76(1.12)	1.27(1.32)
3	Mustard oil	10	0.02(0.72)	0.17(0.81)	0.24(0.86)	0.34(0.94)	0.55(1.02)	1.10(1.25)
4	Ground nut oil	5	0.00(0.71)	0.03(0.73)	0.05(0.74)	0.08(0.79)	0.21(0.83)	0.35(0.90)
5	Ground nut oil	7.5	0.00(0.71)	0.02(0.72)	0.03(0.73)	0.07(0.75)	0.16(0.80)	0.31(0.88)
6	Ground nut oil	10	0.00(0.71)	0.0(0.71)	0.00(0.71)	0.0(0.71)	0.03(0.73)	0.05(0.74)
7	Castor oil	5	0.00(0.71)	0.00(0.71)	0.00(0.71)	0.00(0.71)	0.03(0.73)	0.11(0.78)
8	Castor oil	7.5	0.00(0.71)	0.00(0.71)	0.00(0.71)	0.00(0.71)	0.03(0.73)	0.10(0.77)
9	Castor oil	10	0.00(0.71)	0.00(0.71)	0.00(0.71)	0.00(0.71)	0.03(0.73)	0.03(0.73)
10	Coconut oil	5	0.32(0.90)	0.48(0.99)	0.64(1.06)	1.03(1.24)	1.43(1.38)	2.63(1.74)
11	Coconut oil	7.5	0.24(0.86)	0.36(0.93)	0.59(1.04)	0.90(1.19)	1.25(1.32)	1.92(1.53)
12	Coconut oil	10	0.14(0.80)	0.29(0.88)	0.37(0.93)	0.61(1.05)	1.00(1.23)	1.57(1.43)
13	Palm oil	5	0.15(0.80)	0.36(0.93)	0.46(0.97)	0.74(1.11)	1.20(1.30)	1.70(1.48)
14	Palm oil	7.5	0.05(0.74)	0.24(0.85)	0.37(0.92)	0.64(0.73)	1.05(1.24)	1.31(1.35)
15	Palm oil	10	0.02(0.72)	0.17(0.81)	0.31(0.89)	0.43(0.96)	0.77(1.12)	1.00(1.22)
16	Untreated control	-	0.32(0.90)	0.76(1.12)	1.14(1.27)	2.65(1.73)	4.62(2.21)	7.07(2.71)
	SE(M)±		0.01	0.01	0.01	0.021	0.07	0.10
	CD at 5%		0.03	0.03	0.03	0.063	0.22	0.30

Figures in parenthesis are Square root (X+0.5) transformed values

Table 3. Effect of different vegetable oils on per cent mortality of bruchids in stored chickpea (3 years Pooled Data)

Tr.No.	Treatment	Dose ml kg ⁻¹	Per cent mortality of bruchids after					
			2 days	4 days	6 days	8 days	10 days	12 days
1	Mustard oil	5	0.0	0.0(0.71)	1.67(1.26)	8.33(2.94)	10.00(3.21)	13.33(3.69)
2	Mustard oil	7.5	0.0	1.67(1.26)	2.50(1.40)	10.83(3.36)	14.17(3.80)	17.5(4.22)
3	Mustard oil	10	0.0	1.67(1.26)	9.17(3.06)	11.67(3.45)	15.83(4.02)	18.33(4.33)
4	Ground nut oil	5	0.0	9.33(3.06)	12.50(3.59)	18.33(4.10)	20.00(4.53)	23.33(4.88)
5	Ground nut oil	7.5	0.0	10.83(3.32)	14.50(3.82)	18.33(4.10)	25.00(5.04)	25.00(5.04)
6	Ground nut oil	10	0.0	13.33(3.67)	13.33(3.71)	20.00(4.31)	25.00(5.04)	25.00(5.04)
7	Castor oil	5	0.0	8.33(2.94)	11.67(2.94)	11.67(3.47)	16.67(4.14)	18.33(4.32)
8	Castor oil	7.5	0.0	8.33(2.94)	13.33(3.71)	13.33(3.71)	16.67(4.14)	21.67(4.68)
9	Castor oil	10	0.0	12.50(3.56)	15.0(3.88)	20.00(4.53)	20.00(4.53)	25.00(5.04)
10	Coconut oil	5	0.0	1.67(1.25)	3.33(1.55)	5.00(2.07)	7.50(2.79)	9.17(3.09)
11	Coconut oil	7.5	0.0	1.67(1.25)	3.33(1.52)	6.67(2.61)	10.00(3.18)	10.00(3.17)
12	Coconut oil	10	0.0	3.33(1.55)	6.67(2.31)	9.17(3.01)	11.67(3.47)	11.67(3.47)
13	Palm oil	5	0.0	0.0(0.71)	1.67(1.26)	3.33(1.80)	5.0(2.10)	7.50(2.79)
14	Palm oil	7.5	0.0	1.67(1.26)	3.33(1.55)	5.0(2.10)	9.17(2.01)	10.83(3.32)
15	Palm oil	10	0.0	1.67(1.26)	3.33(1.55)	7.50(2.79)	9.17(2.76)	14.17(3.69)
16	Untreated control	-	0.0	0.0(0.71)	0.0(0.71)	0(0.71)	1.67(1.26)	3.33(1.80)
	SE(m)±	-	-	0.23	0.21	0.22	0.32	0.31
	CD at 5%	-	-	0.69	0.63	0.66	0.96	0.93

Figures in parenthesis are Square root (X+0.5) transformed values

grains), groundnut oil @7.5 ml kg⁻¹ grain (23.33 eggs), castor oil @7.5 ml kg⁻¹ grain (24.83 eggs), groundnut oil @5.0 ml kg⁻¹ grain (27.33 eggs), castor oil @5.0 ml kg⁻¹ grain (27.67 eggs). The next best treatment was palm oil @10ml kg⁻¹ grain (33.67 eggs).

CONCLUSION

Minimum per cent grain damage, minimum per cent weight loss, minimum number of eggs laid and minimum adult emergence recorded in the pulse grain treated with Castor oil 10 ml kg⁻¹ and Groundnut oil 10 ml kg⁻¹ pulse grain /stored chickpea and which were found on par with the lower doses of castor oil and groundnut oil 7.5 ml and 0.5ml kg⁻¹ pulse grain

LITERATURE CITED

Anonymous, 2017. Area, production and productivity in Maharashtra, District wise statistical information of State Department (M.S.).
 Das, G.P., 1986. Pesticidal efficacy of some indigenous plant oils against the pulse beetle, *Callosobruchus chinensis*

Linn. (Coleoptera: Bruchidae), Bangladesh J. Zoology, 14(1): 15-18.
 Ghosh, S.K. and Durbey, S.L. 2003. Integrated management of stored grain pests. International Book Distribution Company, 263.
 Hasan, M.UL. M. Sagheer, M. Farhan, M.N.UL. Hasan, S.R. Haidri, M. Bukhari, H.T. Gul and F.Z.A. Khan, 2014. Repellent potential of *Azadirachta indica* juss. and *glycyrrhiza glabra* L. against cowpea bruchid, *Callosobruchus chinensis* L. (Coleoptera: Bruchidae), J. Biodiversity and Environ. Sci., 5(1) : 405-409.
 Islam, M.S., Haque, M.A., Ahmed, K.S., Mondal, M.F. and C.K. Dash, 2013. Evaluation of some spices powder as grain protectant against pulse beetle, *Callosobruchus chinensis* (L), Universal J. Plant Sci., 1 : 132-136.
 Khan, F.Z.A., Sagheer, M., Hasan, M., Hassan, M.N., Farhan, M. and A. Rahman, 2014. Bioactivity of *Nigella sativa*, *Syzygium maticum* and *Trachysper*

Table 4. Effect of different vegetable oils on no. of eggs and adult of bruchids in stored chickpea(3 year Pooled Data)

Tr.No.	Treatment	Dose ml kg ⁻¹	<i>C. chinensis</i>		Cost of Treatment (Rs.) Q ⁻¹ Pulse grain
			No. of eggs/100 grains ⁻¹	No. of adult emerged	
1	Mustard oil	5	39.50(6.29)	28.33(5.33)	65
2	Mustard oil	7.5	35.50(6.01)	24.33(4.93)	97.5
3	Mustard oil	10	29.17(5.39)	20.83(4.60)	130
4	Ground nut oil	5	27.33(5.18)	12.33(3.35)	54
5	Ground nut oil	7.5	23.33(4.84)	9.17(2.92)	81
6	Ground nut oil	10	17.33(4.19)	8.17(2.77)	108
7	Castor oil	5	27.67(5.25)	6.73(2.65)	70
8	Castor oil	7.5	24.83(4.97)	4.75(2.25)	105
9	Castor oil	10	18.17(4.28)	3.87(2.07)	140
10	Coconut oil	5	46.83(6.83)	36.33(5.97)	110
11	Coconut oil	7.5	42.00(6.51)	32.33(5.63)	165
12	Coconut oil	10	39.00(6.23)	27.17(5.13)	220
13	Palm oil	5	42.17(6.51)	31.67(5.63)	39
14	Palm oil	7.5	37.0(6.14)	26.67(5.17)	59
15	Palm oil	10	33.67(5.82)	22.17(4.71)	78
16	Untreated control	-	70.0(8.38)	63.33(7.99)	
	SE (m) ±	0.34	0.28		
	CD at 5%	1.02	0.84		

Figures in parenthesis are square root transformed values

Market price :Chickpea as on 2017-18= Rs.5000/q,

Mustard Oil= Rs. 130 kg⁻¹

Groundnut Oil=Rs=108 kg⁻¹

Castor Oil=Rs.140 kg⁻¹

Coconut Oil = Rs.220,

Palm Oil = Rs. 78 kg⁻¹

mumammi extracts against *Tribolium castaneum* (Herbst.) (Coleoptera: Tenebrionidae), J. Entomol. & Zool. Stud., 2 : 103-106.

granarium (Everts.) (Coleoptera : Dermestidae) collected from Vehari and Faisalabad districts of Punjab, Pakistan, Pak. Entomol.,35 : 37-41.

Patel, N.G. 2011. A Study on control measure of pulse beetle *Callosobruchus chinensis* (L.) Bruchida coleoptera. *Internat. J. Biotechnol. & Biosci.*, 1 : 25-35.

Talukder, F.A. and P.E. Howse, 1994. Repellent, toxic and food protectant effects of pithraj, *Aphanamixi polystachya* extracts against the pulse beetle, *Callosobruchus chinensis* in storage, J. Chemical Ecol., 20(4): 899-908.

Raja, M. and William, S.J., 2008. Impact of volatile oils of plants against the cowpea beetle *Callosobruchus maculatus* (Fab.) (Coleoptera: Bruchidae), *International J. Integrat. Biol.*, 2 : 62-69.

Tapondjou, L.A., C. Adler, H.Bouda and D.A.Fontem, 2002. Efficacy of powder and essential oil from *Chenopodium ambrosioides* leaves as post-harvest grain protectants against six-stored product beetles, J. Stored Products Res., 38 (4) : 395-402.

Sagheer, M., Hasan, M., Ali, Z., Yasir, M., Ali, Q., Ali, K. and Khan, F.Z.A., 2013. Evaluation of essential oils of different citrus species against *Trogoderma*



Received on 15.4.2019

Effect of Neem Leaf (*Azadirachta indica*) and Ginger Powder Supplementation on Feed Intake of Giriraj Poultry Birds

S. R. Shegokar¹, S. D. Chavan², R.R. Shelke³, S. P. Nage⁴, S. J. Manwar⁵, R. N. Katkar⁶ and K. U. Bidwe⁷

ABSTRACT

A study was conducted at Department of Animal Husbandry and Dairy Science, Dr. PDKV., Akola during 2017 to evaluate the effect of neem leaf powder (NLP) and Ginger powder (GP) with sole and in combination for Giriraja Chicken breed with diet supplemented with T₁ (Control), T₂ (0.5% NLP), T₃ (1 % NLP), T₄(1% GP), T₅ (1.5% GP), T₆ (0.5% NLP +1% GP), T₇ (1% NLP + 1.5 % GP), T₈ (1% NLP + 1% GP) and T₉ (1% NLP + 1.5 % GP) in the diet. The average weekly feed consumption during 4th week under different treatments observed were T₁ (398.80), T₂ (385.80), T₃ (385.70), T₄(386.93), T₅ (381.13), T₆ (386.30), T₇ (381.0), T₈ (377.27) and T₉ (373.33) g/bird. This indicates that decreasing trend in feed consumption in sole supplementation and in combination group. It is concluded that, saving on feed requirement of birds by 32 per cent during rearing from day old to 7th week of age in spite of lower feed consumption more live body weight by 54 per cent at 7th week of rearing due to more body weight gain by 52 per cent.

The poultry production system have led a marked increase in production of poultry meat and eggs throughout the world (Armstrong, 1986). It has triggered the discovery and wide spread use of number of “feed additives”. The term feed additives is applied in a broad sense, to all products other than these commonly called feed stuffs which could be added to the ration with the purpose of obtaining some special effects. The main objective of adding feed additives is to boost animal performance by increasing their growth rate, better feed conversion efficiency, greater livability and lowered mortality in poultry birds. The production of healthy birds with quality meat and eggs without harmful residue within a short time interval is the major concern to modern poultry farmers. The use of synthetic drugs as antibiotics and growth promoters has high cost implication.

Sometimes, with attending adverse side effects on birds health if prolonged withdrawal period and increases risk of accumulation in tissues and eggs which could have harmful effect on human health (Jawad *et al.*, 2014). In view of this consumers of poultry product dwellers, demanding for drug residue free meat and eggs. This has triggered the search for alternatives means to produce birds at reduced cost using natural growth and health promoters.

Herbs and spices are most important parts of the human diet in addition to boosting flavor herb and spices are also known for their preservative and medicinal values (Punita Kumari *et.al.*,2014). The neem (*Azadirachta indica*) is a tropical evergreen tree native to Indo-Pak subcontinent (*Anonyms, 1985*). Presently neem trees can be neem growing successfully in about 72 countries worldwide (Girish and Shankara, 2008).Biologically active principles isolated from different parts of the plant include azadiractin, meliacin, gedunin, salanin, nimbin, valassin and many other derivatives of these principles. Miliacin forms the bitter principles of its leaves (Annonymous, 1912).

Ginger (Zingiber officinale) have been successfully used as supplement to enhance the health and performance of livestock particularly monogastric animals including poultry (Obun and Ayanwale, 2008). It has good source of dietary fiber has particularly no fat and cholesterol.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Procurement of Neem tree leaves

The Neem tree leaves were collected from nearby campus of Department of Animal Husbandry and Dairy Science, Dr. PDKV., Akola. The collected fresh tree leaves were washed with water and clean from dust with the view to maintain hygienic condition.

1,3,4,7. Assist. Prof., 2. Head and 6. Professor, Dept. of Animal Husbandry and Dairy Science, Dr. PDKV, Akola

Drying and preparation of Neem leaf powder

The fresh clean, succulent green leaves of neem tree were put into the tray for drying and these fresh leaves were kept into the mechanical tray dryer machine for drying. The temperature for drying was maintained up to 40 °C for 2-4 hours. The dried neem tree leaves were ground into fine powder at the laboratory. The powder was stored in air tight polythene bag with the aim to reduce the moisture and development of fungus during storage until use. The dried ginger was ground in mechanical grinder at Department of Agronomy laboratory into fine powder. This was stored in air tight polythene bags until use.

Selection of Experimental chicks

The 270 number of day old chicks of Giriraja Poultry birds were purchased from Government Hatchery

On arrival of chicks were weighted and distributed randomly into nine treatment groups viz T₁ (Control), T₂ (0.5% NLP), T₃ (1% NLP), T₄ (1% GP), T₅ (1.5% GP), T₆ (0.5% NLP + 1% GP), T₇ (1% NLP + 1.5% GP), T₈ (1% NLP + 1% GP) and T₉ (1% NLP + 1.5% GP) with 30 chicks in each group on nearly equal weight basis. The birds were randomly divided into three replicate group of each treatment and the chicks were housed in separate compartment. All the chicks were vaccinated as per the

schedule carried out at Central Poultry Development Organization, Mumbai. The statistical method for data analysis used was CRD.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The feed consumption in last 7th week of the trial was 731.93, 712.36, 712.30, 701.93, 702.50, 695.43, 688.83, 682.23 and 660.60 g bird⁻¹ under T₁, T₂, T₃, T₄, T₅, T₆, T₇, T₈ and T₉ groups respectively. The present range of feed consumption (660 to 731 g bird⁻¹) gets confirmation from the results of Mali *et al* (2015) and Bajad *et al.*, (2017), they reported the consumption of Giriraja between 653 to 675, 675 to 678 and 672 g bird⁻¹, respectively. Thus, the results on feed consumption pattern of birds over 7th week trial clearly indicated that, there was consistency in lower intake of feed in birds with the supplementation of sole NLP and GP as well as their combinations at different levels in diet in reference to T₁ control birds. This means the herbal NLP and GP growth promoters did not help to improve the feed intake in birds. However, one has to assess this lower feed consumption in birds due to inclusion of NLP and GP growth promoters on the basis of its positive or negative influence on growth performance of birds.

The feed consumption recorded in treatment

Table 1 : Effect of feeding Neem leaf powder (NLP), Ginger powder (GP) and their mixtures on weekly feed consumption of Giriraja birds

Treatment	Average weekly feed consumption g bird ⁻¹						
	1 st	2 nd	3 rd	4 th	5 th	6 th	7 th
T ₁ - Control	71.77 ^a	238.67 ^a	320.47 ^a	398.80 ^a	464.92 ^a	661.70 ^a	731.93 ^a
T ₂ - 0.5% NLP	71.64 ^a	235.50 ^a	315.03 ^b	385.80 ^b	438.05 ^b	645.40 ^b	712.37 ^b
T ₃ - 1% NLP	71.49 ^b	233.17 ^b	313.08 ^b	385.70 ^b	436.57 ^b	655.73 ^c	712.30 ^b
T ₄ - 1% GP	71.37 ^b	233.33 ^b	313.33 ^b	386.93 ^b	428.17 ^b	619.50 ^d	701.93 ^c
T ₅ - 1.5% GP	71.41 ^b	233.90 ^{ab}	309.47 ^c	381.13 ^c	436.20 ^b	628.00 ^e	702.50 ^c
T ₆ - 0.5% NLP + 1% GP	71.44 ^b	236.30 ^a	310.60 ^c	386.30 ^b	438.20 ^b	636.30 ^f	695.43 ^d
T ₇ - 1% NLP + 1.5% GP	71.41 ^b	230.43 ^b	309.40 ^d	381.00 ^c	427.63 ^b	622.30 ^d	688.83 ^c
T ₈ - 1% NLP + 1% GP	71.59 ^{ab}	228.37 ^b	311.23 ^c	377.27 ^d	435.27 ^b	638.03 ^f	682.23 ^f
T ₉ - 1% NLP + 1.5% GP	71.36 ^b	229.97 ^b	299.17 ^d	373.33 ^e	425.30 ^b	608.70 ^g	660.60 ^g
SE (m) ±	0.091	2.43	1.08	1.25	5.68	1.15	1.13
CD at 5 %	0.253	6.74	3.01	3.49	15.77	3.21	3.15

groups were significantly lower by 2.74 to 10.80 per cent than that of T₁ control group, as well as the feed intake of T₉ group was significantly lower by 7.83 per cent as compare to other treatment groups (T₂ to T₈). Similarly the feed intake of sole NLP (T₂ - T₃) supplementation groups were significantly higher than that of sole GP (T₄ - T₅) inclusion and its mixture with NLP (T₆, T₇ and T₈) groups.

Moreover, Herawati (2010), Gbemiga *et al.*, (2013) reported decrease in feed consumption due to addition of 1.5 per cent to 2 per cent ginger, 0.5 per cent NLP and Tulsi + Neem leaves in the diet of broilers, respectively. Rebh *et al* (2014) also noticed decrease in feed intake due to inclusion of 0.75 to 2.25 g kg⁻¹ of ginger root powder in diet with reference to control. But the differences were non-significant. These observations support the present trend on feed intake with inclusion of herbal growth promoters in the diet. On the contrary Ademola *et al* (2009) reported higher intake of feed in birds as a supplementation of 1 to 2 per cent ginger powder in diet, which does not agree with present results on Ginger supplementation to diet.

However, majority of the past workers like Doley *et al* (2009), Zhang *et al.* (2009), Elagib *et al.* (2013), Obun *et al.* (2013) reported that supplementation of 0.25 per cent Ginger powder, 5 g kg⁻¹ feed Ginger powder, 2 per cent Ginger powder, 5 per cent to 15 per cent NLP powder, 1 to 1.75 per cent mixture of Garlic + Ginger and 1 to 3 g kg⁻¹ feed NLP respectively to poultry diet did not influence significantly the feed consumption in birds. These observations are contradictory to present results where there was significant decrease in feed intake of birds due to provision of sole NLP, Ginger and their combinations as herbal growth promoters in the diets. However, it is pointed out that, the Giriraja birds consumed approximately less feed by (62 %) in 7th week as compared to expected BIS standard for 7th week recommended for broiler production. It is pointed out that Giriraja bird are dual purpose and one cannot expect the application of BIS standard. Hence one can expect an optimum growth performance on the consumption of feed noticed in treatment groups, though it was lower than that of the group without supplementation of any growth promoters.

At the end of starter phase (3rd week) total feed intake of Giriraja birds in T₁ (630.90) and T₉ (600.50) were significantly higher and lower, respectively over T₂ to T₈ groups. The cumulative feed intake of birds between T₃, T₄, T₅, T₆, T₇ and T₈ differ non-significantly. More or less same trend was maintained at finisher age of 7th week, where the average total feed intake was 2809.93, 2733.11, 2735.42, 2678.97, 2690.94, 2698.87, 2659.41, 2677.95 and 2594.26 bird⁻¹ in T₁, T₂, T₃, T₄, T₅, T₆, T₇, T₈ and T₉ groups, respectively. Significantly highest and lowest total feed intake was recorded in T₁ (control) and 1 per cent NLP + 1.5 GP (T₉) groups, respectively. The birds from treatment groups consumed significantly more quantity of total feed by 5.44, 3.72 and 3.22 per cent under sole NLP (T₂ and T₃) sole GP (T₄ and T₅) and their mixture (T₇ and T₈) than that of (T₉) group, respectively. Thus one has to assess the lower cumulative consumption of feed on incorporation of herbal growth promotion in diet in reference to their impact on growth rate in birds in relation to economic viability.

CONCLUSION

It was concluded that, saving on feed requirement of birds by 32 per cent during rearing from day old to 7th week of age in spite of lower feed consumption more live body weight by 54 per cent at 7th week of rearing due to more body weight gain by 52 per cent. This clearly indicates that, the combination group i.e. 1 per cent NLP + 1.5 per cent GP powder inclusion level in the diet of Giriraja poultry birds was better suited in respect of feed intake and growth.

LITERATURE CITED

- Ademola S.G., G.O. Farinu and G. M. Babatunde 2009. Serum lipid, growth and hematological parameters of broilers fed Garlic, Ginger and Their mixtures, World J. of Agril. Sci., 5(1):99-104
- Announymous 1992. Neem a free for solving global problems Washington D.C. National Academy Press.
- Anonymous, 1985. The Wealth of India Raw Materials. New Delhi Publication and information Directorate, CSIR

- Armstrong, D. G., 1986 Gut active growth promoter In: control and manipulation of animal growth, Eds. By Butter P.J. Lindsay D B and Haynes N B :21-37
- Bajad, M. N., 2017. Studies on optimization level of Garlic powder (*Alium sativum*) on growth performance of Giriraj poultry birds, M.Sc. Thesis (Unpub.) submitted to Dr. P.D.K.V., Akola
- Doley S., J.J. Gupta and P. B. Reddy, 2009. Effect of supplementation of ginger, garlic and turmeric in broiler chicken, Indian Vet. J., 86: 644-645
- Elagib H. A.A., A. A. Saadia and M. Khalid Elamin, 2013. Effect of different natural feed additives compared to antibiotic on performance of broiler chicks under high temperature, Bulletin of Environment, Pharmacol. and Life Sci. 2(11):139-144
- Gbemiga O., Adeyemo and A. M. Akanmu. 2013. Effect of neem (*Azadirachta indica*) and pawpaw (*Carica papaya*) leaves supplementation of on performance and Carcass characteristics of broiler, International J. of Current Res. 4(12):268-271
- Girish K. and B. S. Shankara, 2008. Neem a green treasure, Electronic J. Bio., 4 (3) :102-111
- Herawati 2010. The effect of feeding red ginger as photobiotic on body weight gain, feed conversion and internal organs condition of broiler, International J. Poult. Sci., 9 : 963-967.
- Jawad, Z., M. Younus, M. U. Rehman, R. Munir, A. Maqbool and W. Shahzad, 2014. Effect of *Azadirachta indica* on the hepatorenal functions of broiler chickens, The J. Anim. and Pl. Sci. 24(4) : 1012-1018.
- Mali ,R.G, S. R. Shegokar, S. B. Adangle and T. R. Walkunde 2017. Effect of supplementation of Ashwanadha (*Withonia somnifera*) and Shatavari (*Asparagus recemosus*) on growth performance of Giriraja Poultry birds, Trends in Biosciences, 10(36):7558-7562.
- Manwar S.J., P. Thirumurugan, D. Konwan , D. K. Chidanandiah Karna, 2007. Effect of *Azadirachta indica* leaf powder supplementation on broiler performance, Indian veterinary J., 84: 159-162
- Obun C.O., O.A. Olafadehan, B. A. Ayanwale and M. Inuwa 2008. Growth, carcass and Organ weights of finisher broilers fed differently processed *Detarium microcarpum* (Guill and Sperr) seed meal, Livestock Res, for Rural Development, 20 (8)
- Obun C.O. 2013. Utilization of sun-cured neem leaf meal (*Azadirachta indica A. Juss*) based diets by finisher broiler chickens, Poultry Industry, 2431-2435
- Punita Kumari, Chandramani, Kaushalendra Kumar and Sanjay Kumar, 2014. Effect of dietary supplement of sugar beet, neem leaf, linseed and coriander on growth performance and carcass trait of Vanaraja Chicken. 7:639-643.
- Rebh, A., Y. Kumar and P. Neeraj 2014. Effect of supplementation of Ginger root powder in ration on performance of broilers, European Academic Res. 2 (3) :4204-4213.
- Zhang G.F., Z. B. Yang, Y. Wang, W. R. Yang, S.Z. Jiang and G.S. Gai. 2009. Effect of ginger root *Zingiber officinale* process to different particle sizes on growth performance, antioxidant status and serum metabolites of broiler chickens, Poultry Sci. 88 : 2159-2166

❖ ❖ ❖
25.8.2019

**Particulars about PKV Research Journal
as per Press and Regulation of Book Act (Clause 8)**

FORM IV

1. Place of Publication : Dr. Panjabrao Deshmukh Krishi Vidyapeeth, Akola
2. Periodicity of Publication : Six monthly
3. Printer's Name : Mr. Mohan G. Thakre
4. Nationality : Indian
5. Address : Tanvi Graphics,
Ranpise Nagar, Akola
6. Publisher's Name : Dr. V. K. Kharche
7. Nationality : Indian
8. Address : Director of Research, Dr. PDKV,
P.O. Krishi Nagar, Akola
9. Editor-in-Chief : Dr. V. K. Kharche
10. Nationality : Indian
11. Address : Editor-in-Chief
Dr. PDKV, P.O. Krishi Nagar,
Akola - 444 104 (Maharashtra)
12. Owner's Name : Dr. Panjabrao Deshmukh Krishi
Vidyapeeth, Akola

I, V. K. Kharche declare that the particulars given above are true to the best of my knowledge and belief.

Date : September, 2019

Dr. V. K. Kharche
Publisher

SUGGESTIONS FOR AUTHORS

General : The PKV Research Journal is published twice a year to promote the cause of research and disseminate the knowledge in the field of agricultural sciences. Subject matter should fall in the categories of (i) Original research articles (ii) Research notes and (iii) Review papers.

Manuscript : It should be typed on full scape good quality, double spaced, on one side of the page only, with sufficient margin, 5 cm on the left side and 2.5 cm on each of the remaining sides. The author(s) may submit paper in duplicate. He may not type his name, designation and acknowledgement on the first copy. All sheets in the copy should be of one side only and should not ordinarily exceed 10 in numbers including tables. Writing style should be simple, concise and precise. Presentation of article should have the components in the following sequence : TITLE, NAME (S) OF AUTHOR(S), FOOT NOTE, ABSTRACT, INTRODUCTION (without heading), MATERIAL AND METHODS, RESULTS AND DISCUSSION, ACKNOWLEDGEMENT if any and LITERATURE CITED. Format of Research note may be as per the pattern of PKV Res. J. Vol. 17 No. 2 of 1992. All calculations, tables, figures, names, quotations, citations, etc. should be carefully verified before submission.

The metric system of measurements should be followed and standard abbreviations be used.

The paper need necessarily to be accompanied by an undertaking that it is not published earlier in any journal. The author(s) are advised to adhere to the format of this journal strictly. In the event of not following the format, the paper(s) may not be attended to.

Title : The title of the article should be short and precise and should be followed in the next line, by name(s) of author(s). Foot note on the first page should include the department(s) contributing the article, designation and present address of author(s).

Abstract : Concise summation of findings not exceeding 200 words should be written at the beginning of the papers. The abstract should start with the objective. It should be intelligible without reference to the original paper. It should be written in such a way that will facilitate abstracting of the paper in the world of abstracts.

Table : Type each table on a separate sheet. They should be numbered in arabic numerals with title of the table in the same line. Table should be placed at the end of the manuscript, but its place in the text should be indicated.

Figures : Identify graphs, line drawings and photographs with consecutive arabic numbers as Fig. 1, Fig. 2. Place figures after tables. Photographs must be clear, glossy prints, original graphs and drawing must be in Indian ink or equivalent on plain white drawing paper. Lettering should be large and bold enough to permit reduction. Each figure number should placed on the back of each figure in pencil for identification.

Nomenclature : The latin binomial or trinomial and authority must be should for all plants, insects and pathogens at first listing either in the title or when first mentioned in the text. Crop varieties (not experimental lines and strains) should be identified by a single quotation mark at first listing only. Generic and specific names should be in italic e.g. *Lycopersium esculentum* Mil Morgtobe.

Reference : They should be double space throughout and arranged alphabetically according to author's names and should be placed under the heading "LITERATURE CITED" at the end of the article. Each reference should contain the name of author with initials, the year of publication, title of article, the abbreviated title of publication, volume and page e.g.

Sarode, S.V. and U.S. Kulkarni, 1998. Sustainability of *Helicoverpa armigera* (Hubner) on weed partheninum hysterochorous, Indian J. Entomol., 60 (4) : 421-422
Kawarkhe, V.J., R.N. Jane and Manisha Deshmukh, 2003. Effect of nitrogen and specing levels on growth and flower yield of China Aster, PKV Res. J., 27 (2) : 163-165.

In the text, the reference should be indicated by author's name followed by year of publication. When more than one paper by the same author appears in a single year they should be distinguished as a, b, c,.....

Please refer to annexure of PKV Res. J. Volume 11(2), 1987 for abbreviation of journals to be given under LITERATURE CITED.

Correspondence : Manuscripts should be sent in duplicate directly to Editor-in-Chief, PKV Research Journal, Director of Research, Dr. Panjabrao Deshmukh Krishi Vidyapeeth, Akola - 444 104 (Maharashtra). Manuscripts are examined by the Editorial Board and referred to competent referees.

The Editorial Board takes no responsibility for the facts of the opinions expressed in the journal which rests with the authors.