

## Impact of Zincated nano-clay polymer composites (ZNCPC) and nano ZnO fertilizers on Zn fractionation and its uptake in rice crop of alluvial soils of Indo-Gangetic plains

AKHILA NAND DUBEY<sup>1</sup>, NILANJAN CHATTOPADHYAYA<sup>2</sup>, NINTU MANDAL<sup>2</sup>, SHIVAM SINGH<sup>3\*</sup> AND RICHA RAGHUVANSHI<sup>2</sup>

Birsa Agriculture University, Ranchi

Received: September, 2023; Revised accepted: November, 2023

### ABSTRACT

Zn use efficiency rarely exceeds 1-5%. Grain enrichment of Zn through scientific interventions (microbial and nano-formulation) were studied in a pot experiment using rice (cv. Rajendra mahsuri) as a test crop. Experimental soil was deficient in DTPA extractable Zn ( $0.48 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ ).  $\text{ZnSO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$  with two modes of application (Soil and foliar) was compared with Zn solubilizers (*Azospirillum brasilens*) and two types of nano formulation (ZnO as spray and Zincated nano-clay polymer composite (ZNCPC) as soil application) at three phenological growth stages of rice (maximum tillering, panicle initiation and harvesting). Zn content in the plant was recorded maximum at panicle initiation stage in ZNCPC. Sequential fractionation study revealed the significant increase in water soluble and exchangeable fractions of Zn in Zn solubilizer (*Azospirillum brasilens*) and ZNCPC treated soil simultaneously decreasing residual fraction. Apparent zinc recovery was maximum in treatments, ZNCPC (25.56%) followed by nano ZnO sprays (15.25%) and Zn solubilizer (10.76%). Use of ZNCPC, Nano ZnO and Zn solubilizer (*Azospirillum brasilens*) proved to be promising technology in increasing Zn use efficiency in rice.

**Keywords:** ZNCPC; Nano-zinc; Zinc solubilizers; Rice rhizosphere; Zn-fractions; Zn-uptake; Zn

### INTRODUCTION

Sustainability of crop production in modern scenario due to indiscriminate use of agrochemicals, forfeiture of biodiversity, prompt decline in the ground water level etc. causes multi-nutrient deficiency and affects plant growth (Mandal *et al.*, 2013). Negligence of deficient nutrients esp. micronutrients under intensive cropping system with improved high yielding varieties triggers their deficiency and causes yield loss. Indian soils are deficient in Zn thus, lower Zn inherited in grain content and causes malnutrition to highest order of food web (Cakmak, 2008; Cakmak *et al.*, 2010; Zaman *et al.*, 2018). Application of Zn fertilizers to soils is a general strategy to manage with Zn deficiency and to increase Zn content in grain. However, Zn use efficiency rarely exceeds 1-5 % despite sincere scientific effort globally, which is a major concern for the sustainable crop production. There are group of certain rhizospheric bacteria viz *Acinetobacter*, *Bacillus*, *Gluconacetobacter* and *Pseudomonas solubilises* Zn complex to mineral zinc ( $\text{ZnO}$  and  $\text{ZnCO}_3$ ) make available to growing plants (Gandhi and Murlidharan, 2016; Sachdev *et al.*, 2010). Soil Zn fractions are often distinguished with regard to chemical binding characteristics (Wang *et al.*, 2009). Distribution

between the solid fractions also depends on the physico-chemical properties, their bio-availability, mobility and toxicity in plant-soil consortium (Zahedifar, 2017; Baghernejad *et al.*, 2015; Narwal *et al.*, 1999). Plant availability is often associated with water soluble, exchangeable and some extent organic fractions however, rest of the fractions are labile but non-available (Krishnamurti and Naidu, 2008). Water soluble fraction dissociates readily on irrigation while exchangeable are adsorbed by weak electrostatic interaction. Organic bounded are chelated complex which avails at suitable pH (Baeyens *et al.*, 2003; Baghernejad *et al.*, 2015). Rest of the fractions are related with higher ordered chelation and complexations (Baghernejad *et al.*, 2015; Li *et al.*, 2007). Rice rhizosphere precipitate almost Zn content in its mineral forms (Smithsonite, Franklinite etc) thereby reduces Zn use efficiency thus, an innovative technological intervention in rice rhizosphere needs to be explored such as application of Zn at panicle initiation stage results high mobilization from leaves to grain (Khoshgoftarmanesh *et al.*, 2018; Rahman *et al.*, 2012).

Nano-tech is a science as well as art of transforming the matter at atomic or nano-scale ( $1\text{nm}=10^{-9} \text{ m}$ ), and plays importance role in

intervention, formulation and application in nano-fertilizer *viz* - smart delivery of agrochemicals, nano-biosensors, increasing shelf life of fruits and vegetables etc. (Mandal *et al.*, 2015). The development of the intelligent micronutrient fertilizer delivery platforms (IMNDP) may be possible on the basis of elucidating communication signals between plant roots and soil microbes (Monreal *et al.*, 2016). Zincated nano-clay polymer composites (ZNCPC) increases DTPA Zn, Olsen-P, soil enzymatic activities, Zn content and uptake under wheat (Mandal *et al.*, 2015; Mandal *et al.*, 2018-a; Mandal *et al.*, 2019). Comparative evaluation of nano Zn carriers along with Zn solubilizers, effect on changes in various Zn fractions under various phenological growth stages of rice need to be undertaken for understanding dynamics of nano Zn sources in soil-plant consortium. Keeping this view, an experiment has been embarked to investigate the efficacy of different

Zn sources, changes in sequential Zn fractions its relationship with Zn content in soil as well as uptake in increasing Zn use efficiency of transplanted rice crop.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

### Soil sampling, collection and chemical analysis

The initial soil samples were collected from experimental site with help of a spade from randomly selected places from the University research farm, BAU, Sabour. Soil sample was air dried, sieved through a 2mm sieve and stored in good quality polythene containers. The polythene contained soil samples were initially analyzed for physico-chemical properties including pH, EC, OC, Olsen-P, NH<sub>4</sub>OAC-K and DTPA extractable Zn content (Table 1).

Table 1: Initial Physical and Chemical analysis of Experimental site

Parameter	Value	Method employed
pH (1:2.5)	7.8	Jackson, 1973
EC (dSm <sup>-1</sup> )	0.20	Jackson, 1973
Soil moisture (%)	45	He, <i>et al.</i> , 2021
Alkaline KMnO <sub>4</sub> N (kg ha <sup>-1</sup> )	125.44	Sibbiah and. Asija., 1956
Olsen- P ( kg ha <sup>-1</sup> )	12.55	Olsen <i>et al.</i> , 1954
1 N NH <sub>4</sub> OAC K ( kg ha <sup>-1</sup> )	240.92	Hanway and Hiedal, 1952
DTPA Zn (mg kg <sup>-1</sup> )	0.48	Lindsay and Norvell, 1978
Organic carbon (%)	0.47	Walkley and Black, 1934
CEC cmol (P+) kg <sup>-1</sup> soil	18.57	Adamu <i>et al.</i> , 1989
Mechanical analysis (%)	-	Bouyoucos, 1962
Sand	50.8	-
Silt	40	-
Clay	9.2	-
Texture	Sandy loam	
Nomenclature according to 7 <sup>th</sup> approximation	<i>Typic Haplustepts</i>	

### Cultivation of the crop

The experiment was conducted in the net house with viable and healthy seedlings of rice (*Oryza sativa*, cv- Rajendra mahsuri) in pots having 10 kg soil. The recommended NPK were used as Urea (24.26 ml pot<sup>-1</sup>), KH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> (21.90 ml pot<sup>-1</sup>) and KCl (7.10 ml pot<sup>-1</sup>).

The treatments were laid in factorial completely randomized design with six treatments *viz* – 0 kg ZnSO<sub>4</sub>·7H<sub>2</sub>O ha<sup>-1</sup> (T<sub>1</sub>), 25 kg ZnSO<sub>4</sub>·7H<sub>2</sub>O ha<sup>-1</sup> (T<sub>2</sub>), 1% ZnSO<sub>4</sub>·7H<sub>2</sub>O with lime spray (T<sub>3</sub>), 25 kg ZnSO<sub>4</sub>·7H<sub>2</sub>O ha<sup>-1</sup> with *Azospirillum brasilense* (14×10<sup>3</sup> g<sup>-1</sup> dry soil ) (T<sub>4</sub>), 40 ppm nano ZnO spray (T<sub>5</sub>) and ZNCPC (T<sub>6</sub>). ZnSO<sub>4</sub>·7H<sub>2</sub>O with

lime spray and Nano Zinc spray were imposed at maximum tillering stage after maintaining the pot moisture at field capacity (18% moisture content).

### Plant sampling and analysis

Plant samples were taken at three different growth stages maximum tillering stage (S1), panicle initiation stage (S2) and harvesting stage (S3). For analysis, plants were harvested by cutting, washed thoroughly, kept in shade for air drying and oven dried at 65±1°C till constant weight (biomass yield) and ground thoroughly by a Wiley mill. Samples (1.0 g) were pre-digested

in conical flasks (100 mL capacity) with 5 mL of concentrated  $\text{HNO}_3$  and finally digested in a diacid mixture (8 mL) containing  $\text{HNO}_3$  and  $\text{HClO}_4$  acid (9:4) on an electric hot plate following standard procedure (Piper *et al.*, 1967). The digested material was cooled, diluted with distilled water and filtered through Whatman No. 1 filter paper. Volume was made up to 100 mL and stored in a polypropylene container for further analysis.

### ZnO nanoparticle and Zincated nanoclay polymer composites (ZNCPC) synthesis and characterization

ZnO nano-particles were synthesized as per Aneesh *et al.*, 2007. 0.1M Zn  $(\text{CH}_3\text{COO})_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$  stock solution was prepared in 50 mL methanol under stirring. The zincated methanol working solution was prepared at 10 pH by

adding 25mL of 0.2 M NaOH. Desired solution were transferred into teflon lined sealed stainless steel autoclaves and maintained at  $150^\circ\text{C}$  for 6 hour under autogenous pressure and allowed to cool naturally to room temperature. ZNCPC controlled released nano-Zn fertilizers composed of nanoclay as diffusion barrier, acrylic acid and acrylamide monomers, N, N, Methylene Bisacrylamide crosslinker and ammonium persulfate initiator. This is an exfoliated type nano-composite because of disappearance of typical bentonitic peak (11.49 Å) (Fig 1). Exfoliation results dispersion of clay into multiple small pellets. Zn-citrate was used as carrier of Zn within ZNCPC containing 6.59% Zn. Formation of ZNCPC was outlined by Mandal *et al.*, 2018-b.

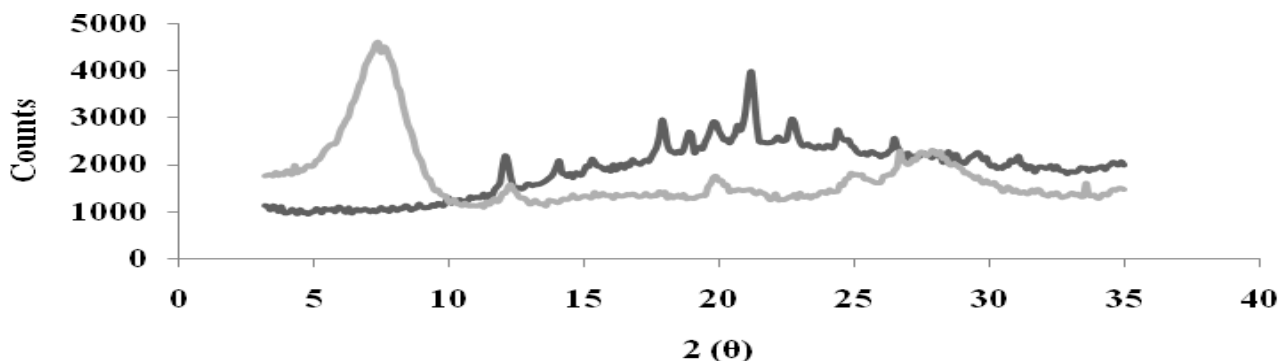


Figure 1: X-ray diffractogram of Nano Clay Polymer Composites (NCPC) based Zn

ZnO nanoparticle and ZNCPC were characterized through TEM and XRD. TEM images of ZnO and nano-clay nano-particle were taken through a TEM made by JEOL, Japan (JEN 1011, 100 KV). Specific instrumental set-up was 80 kV HV with magnification 80000 X. However, in XRD the powder diffractions of ZnO and nano-clay were taken and scanned separately in a Philips PW 1710 X-ray diffractometer, using automated powder diffraction software (PAN analytical, Spectris Technologies) with the setting of the instruments as hereunder : Radiation type: Cu K $\alpha$ ; Tube current : 20 mA ; Generator voltage: 40 kV; Start angle ( $^\circ 2\theta$ ): 3.00; End angle ( $^\circ 2\theta$ ): 40.00; Scan step size: 0.1; Scan type: Continuous; Scan speed ( $2\theta \text{ Sec}^{-1}$ ): 0.025 (Fig 1).

### Zinc fractionation study

To study the distribution of Zn among various binding forms, the sequential fraction procedures

with 1.5g sample mass were used in each step (Iwasaki and Yoshikawa, 1990; Miller *et al.*, 1986).

The Zn fractionation schemes were as follows:

- Water soluble Zinc: 25 mL  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  were shaken for 16 h.
- Exchangeable Zinc: 25 mL 0.5 M calcium nitrate  $[\text{Ca}(\text{NO}_3)_2]$ -solution was shaken for 16h.
- Specifically absorbed [lead (Pb)-displaceable fraction] Zinc: 25 mL of a solution of 0.05 M lead nitrate  $[\text{Pb}(\text{NO}_3)_2]$  and 0.5 M ammonium acetate at pH 6.0 were shaken for 2 h.
- Acid-soluble fraction Zinc: 25 mL of 2.5% acetic acid were shaken for 2 h.
- Manganese-oxide-bound fraction: 50 mL of 0.1 M hydroxylamine hydrochloride solution at pH 2.0 were shaken for 30 min.
- Organic-matter-bound fraction: 50 mL of 0.1 M potassium pyrophosphate solution at pH 10.0 were shaken for 2 h.

- Amorphous iron-oxide-occluded fraction: 50 mL of 0.1 M oxalic acid solution and 0.175 M ammonium oxalate [(NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>C<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>] solution at pH 3.25 were kept for 4 h in the dark.
- Crystalline iron-oxide-occluded fraction: 50 mL of 0.1 M oxalic acid solution, 0.175 M (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>C<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> solution (ammonium oxalate), and 0.1 M ascorbic acid was kept for 30 min in a boiling water bath.
- Residual fraction: The final soil residue was then digested in an HF-HClO<sub>4</sub> acid mixture.

### Mobility Factor (MF)

Some of the aforementioned six fractions are very mobile in nature and can be estimated according to absolute and relative content of relative weakly bounded fractions. MF is the indication of potential movement of metal of contaminating medium (Kabala and Singh, 2001) as follows:

$$MF = \frac{F_1 + F_2 + F_3 + F_5}{F_1 + F_2 + F_3 + F_4 + F_5 + F_6 + F_7 + F_8 + F_9} \times 100$$

Where F<sub>1</sub> – Water soluble fraction; F<sub>2</sub> – Exchangeable fraction; F<sub>3</sub> – Acid soluble fraction; F<sub>4</sub> – Magnese oxide fraction; F<sub>5</sub> – Organically bounded fraction; F<sub>6</sub> – Specifically absorbed; F<sub>7</sub> – Amorphous iron-oxide-occluded fraction; F<sub>8</sub> – Crystalline iron-oxide-occluded fraction; F<sub>9</sub> – Residual fraction.

The values of MF of heavy metals suggest the affinity rate of Zn in food chain. If MF < 1 considered as no risk, 1 < MF < 10 – low risk; 10 < MF < 30 – medium risk; 30 < MF < 50 – high risk; 50 < MF < 75 – severe risk (C. Kabala and B.R. Singh, 2001).

### Total Zn and Apparent Zn recovery

Mathematically, total zinc (mg kg<sup>-1</sup>) and apparent Zn recovery (%) were calculated as follows:

$$\text{Zn uptake (mg kg}^{-1}\text{)} = (\text{Zn content in grain} + \text{Zn content in straw}) \times \text{biological yield}$$

$$\text{Apparent Zn recovery (\%)} = \frac{\text{Zn uptake in applied pot} - \text{Zn uptake in control}}{\text{Amount of Zn applied}} \times 100$$

### Statistical analysis

The significant differences among the treatment means were calculated at 5% and 1% at probability levels p ≤ 0.05 and < 0.01 respectively using Excel (Microsoft, USA) and SPSS (SPSS, USA) software packages (Gomez and Gomez, 1984).

Regression and correlation analysis was also carried out to find out relationship among various parameters and presented in graphical form.

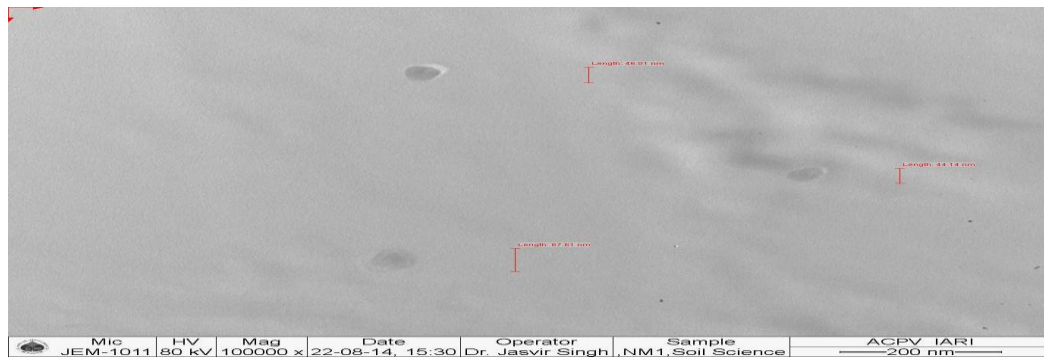
## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

### Effect of different treatments on DTPA extractable Zn content in soil and plants

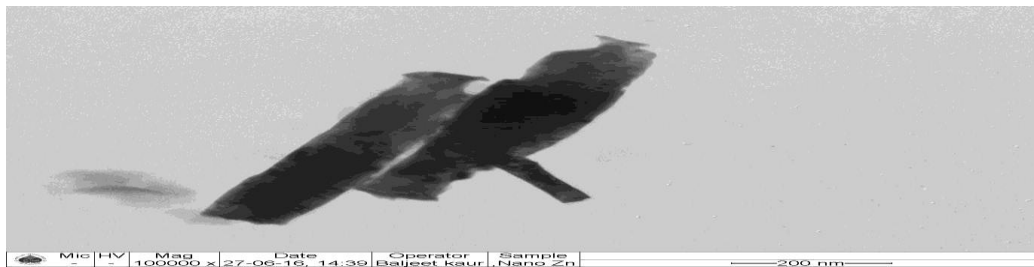
Nanoclay polymer composites (NCPC) acts as rhizosphere controlled release fertilizer formulations (Mandal *et al.*, 2018-b). Transmission electron microscopy image confirmed that clay was in nano-size (Fig. 1). X-Ray diffractogram (XRD) proved that the clay used were montmorillonite (12.6 Å first order peak) (Fig. 2). Release of Zn in soil solution from ZNCPC occurred through microbial mediated enzymatic breakdown of multiple linkages present within ZNCPC (Mandal *et al.*, 2018-b). Hence, relatively higher content of Zn in T<sub>6</sub> across different crop growth stages might be explained by slow release of Zn from ZNCPC thereby masking its interaction in ionic form with negatively charged clay particles which otherwise make complex with solution Zn resulting lower availability of this important micronutrients (Bais *et al.*, 2001). ZNCPC increased Zn content in soil by two fold action (i) slow release of Zn into solution (ii) release of citrate ion concomitantly in solution solubilising native or applied Zn present therein. Other researcher also observed a 9.7-fold increase in Zn solubility by applying root exudates to soil. Zn content in soil under conventional fertilizer treatment (ZnSO<sub>4</sub> · 7 H<sub>2</sub>O, soil application) was lower owing to higher solubility of sulphate salts and interaction of Zn<sup>2+</sup> with soil components particularly clay and organic matter (Alloway, 2009).

The maximum DTPA Zn in soil and plant at maximum tillering stage was found to be highest in T<sub>4</sub> (2.65 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> in soil, 29 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> in plant) however, at panicle initiation stage it results highest at T<sub>6</sub> (3.60 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> in soil, 33.33 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> in plant) and at the harvest stage T<sub>6</sub> (3.50 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> in soil, 37.67 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> in plant) (Table 2). The variation is due to solubilisation of native or applied Zn by low molecular weight organic acid (such as citrate, malate, oxalate etc) which increases phyto-availability in rhizosphere and involved in internal metal

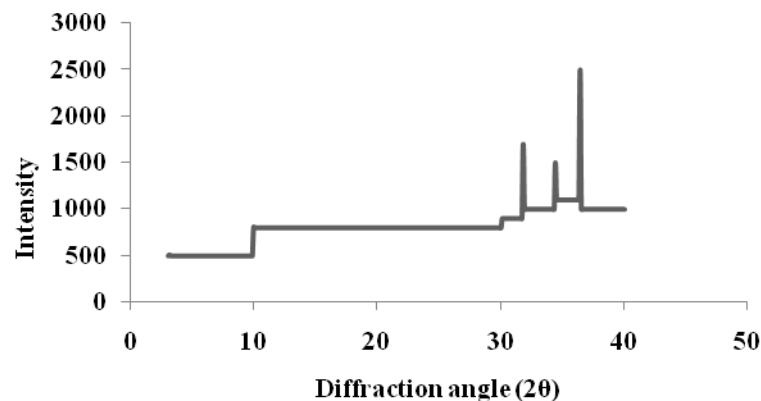




(a)



(b)



(c)

Figure 2 (a) – TEM of nano-Zn particles, (b) – morphology, (c) – XRD of nano-Zn particles

fractional study revealed that at panicle initiation stage in  $T_4$ , there was reduction in residual Zn (19%) whereas water soluble and exchangeable Zn increased by 2% each. The increase in exchangeable zinc might due to increase in the rate of mineralization of organic complexes and bound zinc from recalcitrant sources such as carbonates of zinc into exchangeable zinc under *Bacillus aryabhattai* inoculation (Ramesh *et al.*, 2014).

High-molecular-weight organic acids reduces the bioavailability and toxicity of heavy metals, while low-molecular-weight organic acids and amino acids can increase the bioavailability and plant accumulation of heavy metals through

#### **Amorphous iron-oxide-occluded, specifically absorbed [lead (Pb)-displaceable fraction] and Residual Zn fraction**

The mean values of amorphous iron-oxide-occluded, specifically absorbed [lead (Pb)-displaceable fraction] and residual Zn fraction varies as 1.64, 3.69 and 2.33% respectively on the application of different combination of Zn fertilizers. In amorphous iron-oxide-occluded and residual Zn fraction the control treated pot results atpar with some treatment. Amorphous iron-oxide bounded Zn fraction results highest concentration in  $T_2 > T_4 > T_1 > T_6 > T_5$  and least in  $T_3$ . However, specifically absorbed [lead (Pb)-

Table 2: Effect of treatments on DTPA extractable Zn in soil and plants ( $\text{mg kg}^{-1}$ ) at different growth stages of rice plants

Treatment	DTPA extractable Zn in soil ( $\text{mg kg}^{-1}$ )				DTPA extractable Zn in plant ( $\text{mg kg}^{-1}$ )			
	S <sub>1</sub>	S <sub>2</sub>	S <sub>3</sub>	Mean	S <sub>1</sub>	S <sub>2</sub>	S <sub>3</sub>	Mean
T <sub>1</sub>	0.50	0.73	0.64	0.62	16.67	19.33	22.00	19.33
T <sub>2</sub>	0.76	1.05	0.98	0.93	22.33	21.67	24.33	22.78
T <sub>3</sub>	0.58	1.59	1.54	1.24	20.67	28.67	32.67	27.33
T <sub>4</sub>	2.65	3.52	3.46	3.19	29.00	25.33	35.00	29.78
T <sub>5</sub>	0.64	1.39	1.43	1.15	21.00	33.00	36.67	30.22
T <sub>6</sub>	2.63	3.60	3.50	3.24	27.67	33.33	37.67	32.89
Mean	1.02	1.98	1.92	1.73	22.89	26.89	31.39	27.06
Particulars		SE <sub>m(±)</sub>	CD 5%	CD 1%		SE <sub>m(±)</sub>	CD 5%	CD 1%
Stage (S)		0.05	0.13	0.18		0.71	2.04	2.74
Treatment (T)		0.06	0.19	0.25		1.01	2.89	3.87

S<sub>1</sub> = Maximum tillering stage, S<sub>2</sub> = Panicle initiation stage and S<sub>3</sub> = Harvesting stage

displaceable fraction] varies as T<sub>2</sub>>T<sub>3</sub>>T<sub>5</sub>>T<sub>4</sub>=T<sub>6</sub>>T<sub>1</sub> and residual varies as T<sub>2</sub>>T<sub>1</sub>>T<sub>3</sub>>T<sub>5</sub>>T<sub>4</sub>>T<sub>6</sub> (Table 3).

### Dynamics of Zn fractions at different stages of sampling

Acid soluble specifically absorbed, amorphous and manganese oxide Zn fraction

contributes highest at harvesting stage whereas crystalline and organic fraction comprises maximum Zn fraction at initial stage. The water soluble and exchangeable Zn fraction optimizes at panicle initiation stage and residual fractions results same in both initial and panicle initiation stages (Fig 3 b). In all the three stages residual fraction contributes to maximum while water soluble fraction contributes to minimum (Fig 3 a).

Table 3: Effect of different treatment on soil sequential fractionation of Zn at harvesting stage

Treatment	Sequential fractionation of Zn										
	Wtr-so ( $\text{mgkg}^{-1}$ )	Ex ( $\text{mg kg}^{-1}$ )	Acid-sol ( $\text{mgkg}^{-1}$ )	MnO <sub>2</sub> Bound ( $\text{mgkg}^{-1}$ )	Om - Bound ( $\text{mgkg}^{-1}$ )	Al-Fe-Bound ( $\text{mg kg}^{-1}$ )	Crystalline ( $\text{mg kg}^{-1}$ )	Spec-absorbed ( $\text{mg kg}^{-1}$ )	Residual ( $\text{mg kg}^{-1}$ )	Total ( $\text{mgkg}^{-1}$ )	Mobility Fraction
T <sub>1</sub>	0.010	0.015	0.350	0.320	0.350	0.330	0.195	0.230	0.670	2.470	15.18
T <sub>2</sub>	0.019	0.029	0.400	0.480	0.560	0.710	0.230	0.560	0.820	3.808	15.97
T <sub>3</sub>	0.025	0.040	0.620	0.420	0.250	0.230	0.350	0.350	0.560	2.845	11.07
T <sub>4</sub>	0.030	0.053	0.750	0.650	0.650	0.620	0.580	0.310	0.410	3.690	18.09
T <sub>5</sub>	0.022	0.023	0.450	0.320	0.320	0.310	0.450	0.330	0.530	2.755	13.25
T <sub>6</sub>	0.040	0.060	0.950	0.350	0.590	0.320	0.720	0.310	0.410	3.750	18.4
CD (P=0.05)	0.002	0.002	0.002	0.002	0.002	0.002	0.002	0.002	0.002	0.002	-
CV (%)	3.83	4.63	1.23	2.73	2.64	1.64	5.67	3.69	2.33	1.18	-
SEm (+-)	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	-

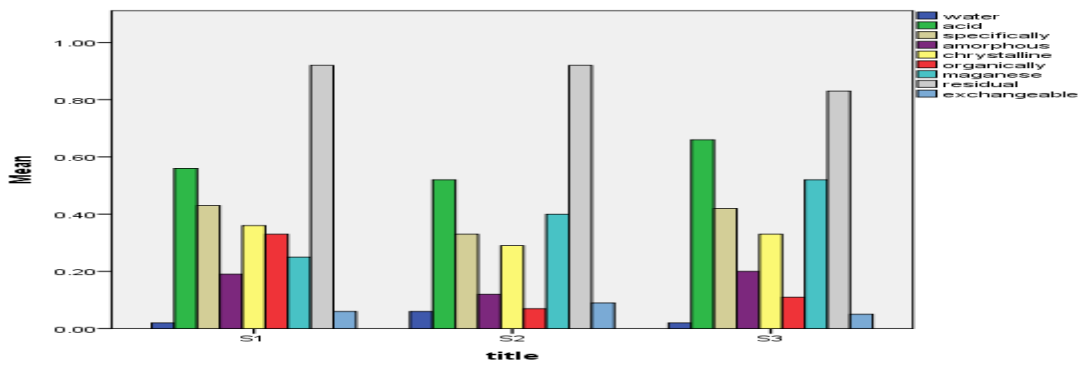
### Mobility factor

Application of Zn at various treated paddy pots ranges MF between 11.07 (T<sub>3</sub>) to 18.40(T<sub>6</sub>) with an average 15.33 shows medium risk of Zn mobilization (Kabala and Singh, 2001). MF follows sequence T<sub>6</sub>>T<sub>4</sub>>T<sub>2</sub>>T<sub>1</sub>>T<sub>5</sub>>T<sub>3</sub>. In Zn mobilization T<sub>1</sub> results atpar with T<sub>3</sub> and T<sub>5</sub>. Increase in mobility nature from treated pots results the Zn availability which is being up taken by plants and increase its biomass yield. Higher Zn content in water soluble and exchangeable Zn fraction in T<sub>6</sub> might due to controlled release

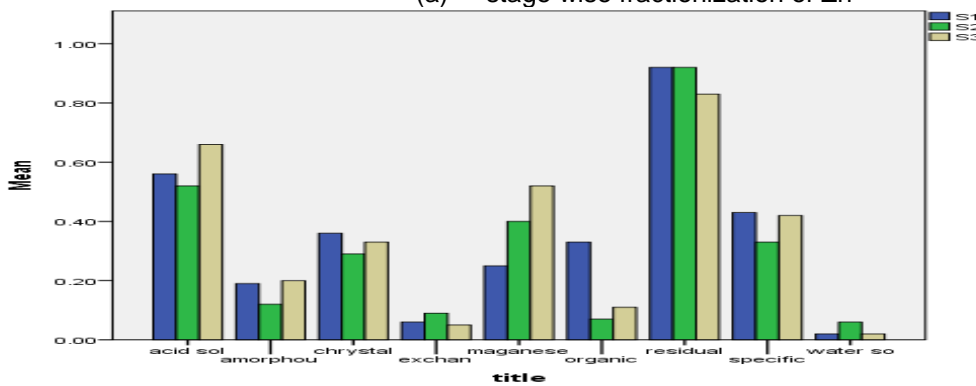
of Zn from NCPC and citrate solubilisation of native Zn present in soil (Simine *et al.*, 1998). Reduction of residual Zn fraction in T<sub>4</sub> (RDF+ Azospirillum) might be due to low molecular weight organic acid secretions which solubilised native or applied Zn (Impa *et al.*, 2012).

### Effect of treatments on biomass yield, total Zn ( $\text{mg kg}^{-1}$ ) uptake and content in grain of rice plants at different stages

The significant increase in biomass yield in all the treatment as compared to control was



(a) – stage wise fractionization of Zn



(b) – comparative study of different Zn fractions at three stages of paddy crop

Figure 3: Dynamics of Zn fractions

recorded on application of Zn fertilizers. Biomass yield in plant at maximum tillering stage was found to maximum in T<sub>6</sub> (3.95 g kg<sup>-1</sup>) however at panicle initiation stage and harvesting was out yielded by T<sub>6</sub> 6.81 g kg<sup>-1</sup> and 9.14 g kg<sup>-1</sup> respectively (Table 4). Total zinc content in the grain and uptake both observed highest in T<sub>6</sub> as 40.00 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> and 303.42 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> followed by T<sub>5</sub> > T<sub>4</sub> > T<sub>3</sub> > T<sub>2</sub> > T<sub>1</sub> and T<sub>4</sub> > T<sub>5</sub> > T<sub>3</sub> > T<sub>2</sub> > T<sub>1</sub> respectively. However, there was significant increase in total zinc content in grain in all the treatment as compared to control but Zn uptake varied non-significantly (Table 4).

Table 4: Effect of treatments on biomass yield (g kg<sup>-1</sup>soil) at different growth stages of rice plants

Treatment	S <sub>1</sub>	S <sub>2</sub>	S <sub>3</sub>	Mean
T <sub>1</sub>	2.34	4.99	6.64	4.32
T <sub>2</sub>	2.93	5.75	6.24	4.97
T <sub>3</sub>	2.89	5.61	6.57	5.02
T <sub>4</sub>	3.46	6.46	7.57	6.30
T <sub>5</sub>	2.83	5.53	7.67	5.27
T <sub>6</sub>	3.95	6.81	7.84	6.63
Mean	3.06	5.86	7.33	5.42
Particulars		SE <sub>m(±)</sub>	CD at 5%	CD at 1%
Stage (S)		0.17	0.48	0.64
Treatment (T)		0.24	0.68	0.91

S<sub>1</sub> = Maximum tillering stage, S<sub>2</sub> = Panicle initiation stage and S<sub>3</sub> = Harvesting stage

ZNCPC maintained relatively higher amount of Zn content in soil solution across the crop growth stages owing to its two fold actions (Controlled release and citrate solubilisation) resulting significantly higher Zn economy (Bais *et al.*, 2001). Nano ZnO foliar spray recorded

higher Zn content at panicle initiation and harvesting stage owing to its direct absorption (nano size) though foliage and translocation to grain. Zn solubilizers (Azospirillum) proved to be effective in maintaining relatively higher Zn content in rhizosphere soil owing to the secretion of low molecular weight organic acids and maintaining higher microbial activity (Increase in dehydrogenase activity) which facilitated solubilisation of native or applied Zn (Impa *et al.*, 2012). Inoculated ZSB (Zinc solubilizing bacteria) isolates solubilize the unavailable source of zinc at the maximum when there was high source of insoluble zinc in soil (Gandhi and Murlidharan, 2016).

**Effect of various Nano zinc sources with zinc mobilizers on Apparent Zinc Recovery (%)**

Apparent zinc recovery was found to be maximum in T<sub>6</sub> (ZNCPC) (25.56%) followed by

Table 5: Effect treatments on total Zn ( $\text{mg kg}^{-1}$ ) content in grain, Zn uptake ( $\text{mg kg}^{-1}$ ) and Apparent Zinc Recovery (%)

Treatment	Zn content ( $\text{mg kg}^{-1}$ )	Zinc uptake ( $\text{mg kg}^{-1}$ )	Apparent Zinc Recovery (%)
T <sub>1</sub>	9.67	134.50	-
T <sub>2</sub>	17.33	154.69	2.23
T <sub>3</sub>	21.00	186.29	3.14
T <sub>4</sub>	25.00	275.30	10.76
T <sub>5</sub>	34.00	214.36	15.25
T <sub>6</sub>	40.00	303.42	25.56
Particulars			
SE <sub>m(±)</sub>	0.90	-	-
CD at 5%	2.78		
CD at 1%	3.90	-	-

T<sub>5</sub> (15.25%), T<sub>4</sub> (10.76%), T<sub>3</sub> (3.14%) and T<sub>2</sub> (2.23%) (Table 5). Similar trends were observed for Zn content in grain and uptake by plants. Foliar application of conventional Zn sources (T<sub>3</sub>)

results higher Zn content in biomass and grain as compared to soil applications as it was directly absorbed through foliage.

Table 6: Pearson's correlation matrix

	A	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P
A	1														
C	-.667	1													
D	-.752	.816*	1												
E	-.454	.803	.901*	1											
F	-.528	.871*	.477	.426	1										
G	-.261	.485	.774	.772	.148	1									
H	-.621	.708	.966**	.893*	.331	.899*	1								
I	-.510	.789	.912*	.889*	.497	.916*	.954**	1							
J	-.592	.637	.951**	.870*	.242	.909*	.993**	.925**	1						
K	-.544	.651	.906*	.809	.331	.950**	.973**	.967**	.967**	1					
L	.339	.251	-.224	-.021	.490	-.045	-.187	.091	-.280	-.101	1				
M	-.566	.544	.763	.583	.324	.844*	.853*	.867*	.832*	.925**	.021	1			
N	-.895	.770	.773	.604	.573	.348	.687	.626	.625	.594	-.040	.635	1		
O	-.593	.811	.872*	.935**	.454	.533	.785	.723	.761	.639	-.175	.392	.687	1	
P	-.348	.839*	.657	.853*	.608	.363	.562	.612	.504	.429	.229	.198	.556	.896*	1

\*\*Correlation is significant at the  $p \leq 0.01$ , \*Correlation is significant at the  $p \leq 0.05$  level, Where A=pH, C=CEC, D=DTPA extractable Zn, E= water soluble Zn, F= exchangeable Zn, G= acid soluble Zn, H=Specifically adsorbed Zn, I= manganese oxide occluded Zn, J=organically bound Zn, K=aluminium iron oxide occluded Zn, L=crystalline iron oxide occluded Zn, M=residual or mineral form Zn, N= zinc content in grain ( $\text{mg kg}^{-1}$ ), O= zinc uptake ( $\text{mg kg}^{-1}$ ), P= biomass yield

### Relationship between DTPA extractable zinc in soil and total zinc content in plant in all growth stage

The study reveals that DTPA extractable Zn is significantly correlated with cation exchange capacity ( $r^2 = 0.816$ ), water soluble ( $r^2 = 0.901$ ), specifically absorbed ( $r^2 = 0.966$ ), MnO-bounded fractions ( $r^2 = 0.912$ ), organically bounded ( $r^2 = 0.951$ ), Fe/Al oxide bounded ( $r^2 = 0.906$ ) and Zn uptake ( $r^2 = 0.872$ ) (Table 6). This

clearly indicates that these fractions are responsible for the availability of available Zn to which plant uptakes. These fractions on the lowering of Zn concentration is being supplied mainly by acid soluble fractions, mineral fractions and plant biomass fraction as per correlation Table 6.

### CONCLUSIONS

DTPA Zn availability in soil, active



microbial activity, high organic carbon content and moisture availability results highest apparent Zn recovery for ZNCPC. Synergistic interactions among several parameters resulted significantly higher apparent Zn recovery for ZNCPC based Zn application. ZNCPC proved to be promising Zn fertilizer formulation under rice rhizosphere

for increasing Zn use efficiency. Efficacy of ZNCPC needs to be evaluated under long-term experiments via-a-vis ZnSO<sub>4</sub>. 7 H<sub>2</sub>O for the environmental sustainability and economically benefit: cost ratio and large scale farmers' adaptability.

## REFERENCES

- Adamu, C. A., Mulchi, C. L., and Bell, P. F. (1989) Relationships between soil pH, clay, organic matter and CEC and heavy metal concentrations in soils and tobacco. *Tobacco Science*, **33**, 96-100.
- Alloway, B.J. (2009) Soil factors associated with zinc deficiency in crops and humans. *Environmental Geochemistry and health* **31**: 537-548.
- Aneesh, P.M., Vanaja, K.A. and Jayaraj, M.K. (2007) Synthesis of ZnO nanoparticles by hydrothermal method. Nanophotonic Materials IV, edited by Zeno Gaburro, Stefano Cabrini, Proc. Of SPIE Vol. 6639, 66390J. 0277-786X/07/\$18. doi: 10.1117/12.730364.
- Baeyens, W., Monteny, F., Leermakers, M. and Bouillon, S. (2003) Evaluation of sequential extractions on dry and wet sediments. *Analytical and Bioanalytical Chemistry* **376**, 890–901.
- Baghernejad, M., Javaheri, F. and Moosavi, A.A. (2015) Adsorption isotherms of copper and zinc in clay minerals of calcareous soils and their effects on X-ray diffraction. *Archives of Agronomy and Soil Science* **61** (8), 1061–1077.
- Bais, H.P., Loyola-Vargas, V.M., Flores, H.E. and Vivanco, J.M. (2001) Invited review: root specific metabolism: the biology and biochemistry of underground organs. In *Vitro Cellular and Developmental Biology – Plant* **37**: 730–741.
- Bouyoucos, G.J. (1962) Hydrometer method improved for making particle size analysis of soils. *Agronomy Journal* **54**(5): 464– 465.
- Cakmak, I. (2008) Enrichment of cereal grains with zinc: Agronomic or genetic bio-fortification. *Plant and Soil* **302**: 1–17.
- Cakmak, I., Pfeiffer, W.H. and McClafferty, B. (2010) Biofortification of durum wheat with zinc and iron. *Cereal Chemistry* **87**(1):10–20.
- Gandhi, A. and Muralidharan, G. (2016) Assessment of zinc solubilizing potentiality of *Actinobacter* sp. isolated from rice rhizosphere. *European Journal of Soil Biology* **76**:1-8.
- Gao, X., Zhang, F. and Hoffland, E. (2009) Malate exudation by six aerobic rice genotypes varying in zinc uptake efficiency. *Journal of Environmental Quality* **38**: 2315–2321.
- Gomez, K. A., and Gomez, A. A. (1984). Statistical procedures for agricultural research. John Wiley & sons.
- Hanway, J.J. and Heidel, H. (1952) Soil analysis methods as used in lower State College Soil Testing Laboratory. *Iowa Agriculture* **57**:1-31.
- He, D., Oliver, Y., and Wang, E. (2021) Predicting plant available water holding capacity of soils from crop yield. *Plant and Soil*, **459**(1), 315-328.
- Hussain, S., Maqsood, M. and Rahmatullah, A. (2011) Zinc release characteristics from calcareous soils using diethylenetriaminepentaacetic acid and other organic acids. *Communications in Soil Science and Plant Analysis* **42**(15), 1870 – 1881.
- Impa, S.M., Sarah, E. and Beebout, J. (2012) Mitigating zinc deficiency and achieving high grain Zn in rice through integration of soil chemistry and plant physiology research. *Plant and Soil* **361**: 3–41.
- Iwasaki, K. and Yoshikawa, G. (1990) Fractionation of copper and zinc in green house soils. In *Transactions of 14<sup>th</sup> International Congress of Soil Science*; ICSS: Kyoto, Japan 2: 363–364.
- Jackson, M.L. (1973) Soil chemical Analysis. Prentice Hall of India Pvt. Ltd., New Delhi
- Kabala, C. and Singh, B.R. (2001) Fractionation and mobility of copper, lead and zinc in

- soil profiles in vicinity of a copper smelter. *Journal of Environmental Quality* **30**(2), 485–492.
- Khoshgoftarmansh, A.H., Afyuni, M., Norouzi, M., Ghiasi, S. and Schulin, R. (2018) Fractionation and bioavailability of zinc (Zn) in the rhizosphere of two wheat cultivars with different Zn deficiency tolerance. *Geoderma*, **309**, 1-6.
- Krishnamurti, G.S.R. and Naidu, R. (2008) Chemical speciation and bioavailability of trace metals. In: Violante, A., Huang, P.M., Gadd, G.M. (eds.) *Biophysico-Chemical Processes of Heavy Metals and Metalloids in Soil Environments*, pp. 419–466. Wiley Inter Science, New York.
- Li, J.X., Yang, X.E., He, Z.L., Jilani, G., Sun, C.Y. and Chen, S.M. (2007) Fractionation of lead in paddy soils and its bioavailability to rice plants. *Geoderma*, **141**(3-4): 174–180.
- Liao, M. and Huang, C.Y. (2002) Effects of organic acids on the toxicity of cadmium during ryegrass growth. *China Journal of Applied Ecology* **13**(1): 109-112.
- Lindsay, W.L. and Norvell, W.A. (1978) Development of a DTPA test for Zn, Fe, Mn and Cu. *Soil Science Society American Journal Proceeding* **42**: 421-428.
- Mandal, N., Datta, S.C. and Manjaiah, K.M. (2015) Characterization and controlled release study of Zn from Zincated nanoclay polymer composites (ZNCPCs) in relation to equilibrium water absorbency under Zn deficient Typic Haplustepts. *Annals of Plant and Soil Research* **17**(2):187-195.
- Mandal, N., Datta, S.C., Manjaiah, K.M., Dwivedi, B.S., Kumar, R. and Aggarwal, P. (2018-a) Zincated Nanoclay Polymer Composites (ZNCPCs): Synthesis, characterization, biodegradation and controlled release behaviour in soil. *Polymer-Plastic Technology and Engineering* **57**(17):1760-1770.
- Mandal, N., Datta, S.C., Manjaiah, K.M., Dwivedi, B.S., Kumar, R. and Aggarwal, P. (2019) Evaluation of zincated nanoclay polymer composite (ZCNPC) in releasing Zn, P and effect on soil enzyme activities in a wheat rhizosphere. *European Journal Soil Science* **70**(6): 1164-1182.
- Mandal, N., Datta, S.C., Manjaiah, K.M., Dwivedi, B.S., Nain, L., Kumar, R. and Aggarwal, P. (2018-b) Novel chitosan grafted zinc containing nanoclay polymer biocomposite (CZNCPBC): Controlled release formulation (CRF) of Zn<sup>2+</sup>. *Reactive and Functional Polymer* **127**: 55–66.
- Mandal, N., Dwivedi, B.S., Meena, M.C., Singh, D., Datta, S.P., Tomar, R.K. and Sharma, B. M. (2013) Effect of farmyard manure, sulphitation pressmud and pigeonpea leaf-litter on soil organic carbon fractions, mineral nitrogen and crop yields in a pigeonpea-wheat cropping system. *Field Crop Research* **154**:187-178.
- Miller, W.P., Martens, D.C. and Zeolazincy, L.W. (1986) Effect of sequence in extraction of trace metals from soils. *Soil Science Society of American Journal* **50** (3):598–601.
- Monreal, C.M., DeRosa, M., Mallubhotla, S.C., Bindraban, P.S. and Dimkpa, C. (2016) Nanotechnologies for increasing the crop use efficiency of fertilizer-micronutrients. *Biology and Fertility of Soils* **52**: 423–437.
- Narwal, R.P., Singh, B.R. and Salbu, B. (1999) Association of cadmium, zinc, copper and nickel with components in naturally heavy metal-rich soils studied by parallel and sequential extractions. *Communication in Soil Science and Plant Analysis* **30**(7-8), 1209–1230.
- Olsen, S.R., Cole, C.V. Watanabe, F.S. and Dean, A. (1954) Estimation of available phosphorus in soils by extraction with sodium bicarbonate. U. S. Department of Agriculture Circular pp-939.
- Patten, C. and Glick, B.R. (1996) Bacterial biosynthesis of indole-3-acetic acid. *Canadian Journal of Microbiology* **42**(3):207-220.
- Piper, C.S. (1967) *Soil and Plant Analysis*. University of Adelaide, pp 131-172, Adelaide, Australia.
- Ramesh, A., Sharma, S., Sharma, M., Yadav, N. and Joshi, O. (2014) Inoculation of zinc solubilizing *Bacillus aryabhatai* strains for improved growth, mobilization and biofortification of zinc in soybean and wheat cultivated in Vertisols of central India. *Applied Soil Ecology* **73**: 87-96.
- Rehman, H., Farooq, M. and Basra, S.M.A.

- (2012) High grain Zn content results from increased Zn supply and remobilization during grain filling in water saving rice cultivation. In: Abstracts of 14<sup>th</sup> Congress of Soil Sci., Lahore, Pakistan.
- Richard, L.A. (1954) Diagnosis and improvement of saline and alkaline soils. Agri. Hand book 60: USA, Washington, DC: pp160.
- Sachdev, D.P., Nema, P., Dhakephalkar, P., Zinjarde, S. and Chopade, B. (2010) Assessment of 16S rRNA gene-based phylogenetic diversity and promising plant growth promoting traits of Acinetobacter community from the rhizosphere of wheat. *Microbiological Research* **165**(8): 627-638.
- Simine, C.D., Sayed, J.A. and Gadd, G.M. (1998) Solubilization of zinc phosphate by a strain of *Pseudomonas fluorescens* isolated from a forest soil. *Biology and Fertility of Soils* **28**:87-94.
- Subbiah, B.V. and Asija, G.L. (1956) A rapid method for estimation of nitrogen in soil. *Current Science* **25**:259-260.
- Walkley, A. and Black, I.A. (1934) An examination of the Degtjareff method for determining soil organic matter, and a proposed modification of the chromic acid titration method. *Soil Science*, **37**(1), 29-38.
- Wang, J., Zhang, C.B. and Jin, Z.X. (2009) The distribution and phytoavailability of heavy metal fractions in rhizosphere soils of *Paulownia fortunei* (seem) hems near a Pb/Zn smelter in Guangdong, PR China. *Geoderma* **148**(3-4):299–306.
- Watanabe, F.S. and Olsen, S.R. (1965) Test of an ascorbic acid method for determining phosphorus in water and  $\text{NaHCO}_3$  extracts from soil. *Soil Science Society of American Journal* **29**: 677-678.
- Zahedifar, M. (2017) Sequential extraction of zinc in the soils of different land use types as influenced by wheat straw derived biochar. *Journal of Geochemical Exploration* **182**, 22–31.
- Zaman, Qamar, Uz, Zubair, Aslam, Muhammad, Yaseen, Muhammad, Zahid, Ihsan, Abdul Khaliq, Shah Fahad, Safder Bashir, P. M. A. Ramzani, and Muhammad, Naeem (2018) Zinc biofortification in rice: leveraging agriculture to moderate hidden hunger in developing countries. *Archives of Agronomy and Soil Science* **64**(2): 147-161.