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Effect of Urea Treatment and Concentrate Proportions on Dry Matter Degradation of Different Roughages in the Rumen of Jersey Cows

By Tesfayohannes S. T., Nsahlai I. V. & Bengaly K

University of KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa

Abstract - A study was conducted to determine the interaction of roughage quality and urea-ammonization on the luminal degradation properties of low quality roughage diets. Four rumen fistulae Jersey cows were fed on a basal diet of either urea-treated or untreated *Eragrostis uvula* hay. These basal diets were supplemented with concentrate composed of maize meal (78%) and cotton seed cake (22%). The concentrates contributed 0, 25, 50 and 75% of the total ration and hay the rest. The experiment consisted of 6 periods. Each period lasted 19 days, comprising 12 days of adaptation to the experimental diet followed by 6 days degradability measurements and 1-day collection of rumen fluid. During each period the 4 cows were randomly allocated to 4 of the 8 dietary treatments, ensuring that each diet was fed to 3 animals during the entire experimental period.

Keywords : urea-ammonization, rumen ammonia, rumen pH, dry matter, fiber, roughage, degradability.

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Effect of Urea Treatment and Concentrate Proportions on Dry Matter Degradation of Different Roughages in the Rumen of Jersey Cows

Tesfayohannes S. T.^α, Nsahlai I. V.^σ & Bengaly K.^ρ

Abstract - A study was conducted to determine the interaction of roughage quality and urea-ammonization on the luminal degradation properties of low quality roughage diets. Four rumen fistulae Jersey cows were fed on a basal diet of either urea-treated or untreated *Eragrostis uvula* hay. These basal diets were supplemented with concentrate composed of maize meal (78%) and cotton seed cake (22%). The concentrates contributed 0, 25, 50 and 75% of the total ration and hay the rest. The experiment consisted of 6 periods. Each period lasted 19 days, comprising 12 days of adaptation to the experimental diet followed by 6 days degradability measurements and 1-day collection of rumen fluid. During each period the 4 cows were randomly allocated to 4 of the 8 dietary treatments, ensuring that each diet was fed to 3 animals during the entire experimental period.

The pH of the rumen fluid ranged between 6.5 and 6.8 for all diets. Rumen ammonia (NH₃) concentration was higher ($P < 0.002$) when the basal diet consisted of urea-treated hay. Increasing the concentrate proportion in the diet had the desired effect of increasing rumen NH₃ concentration without severely affecting the pH. Urea-ammonization increased ($P < 0.0001$) the slowly degradable fraction (B), potential degradability (PD), effective degradability (ED) of dry matter (DM), decreased ($P > 0.05$) lag time (LT) but had no effect on the rate of degradation (c) of DM. Maximum and minimum degradability values of the B-fraction, PD and ED of DM were obtained at the 25 and 75% concentrate levels, respectively for both urea-treated and untreated diets. Within urea-ammonization, roughage type increased ($P < 0.001$) the B-fraction, PD and ED of DM. Ryegrass degraded almost three to four times faster than urea-treated oat or untreated wheat straw. Urea-ammonization was less effective in increasing DM degradation rate of ryegrass compared to wheat straw. Results show that low quality roughages such as wheat straw benefited relatively the most from urea-ammonization.

Keywords : urea-ammonization, rumen ammonia, rumen pH, dry matter, fiber, roughage, degradability.

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I. INTRODUCTION

Other the last two or three decades there has been a lot of research conducted to determine the benefit of using low quality roughages in livestock feeding in the tropics, particularly during the dry season when green pasture resources area not available. These roughages contain 70-80% cell wall (CW) components, which represent potential energy for ruminant animals. Availability of this energy to the animal is generally limited by the low voluntary intake, the chemical association with lignin and CW carbohydrates, and physical limitation of the CW components to microbial fermentation. Despite the limiting features roughages have enormous potential and can be used as sole feed, if their feeding value is improved.

Considerable efforts have been made worldwide to find ways of modifying roughages to improve degradability and upgrade their nutritive value to feed ruminants. Some of the methods for improving the availability of energy in roughages for ruminants involve treatment with ammonia (Sandston and Cox worth, 1984), Noah (Dixon and Parra, 1984; Escobar *et al.*, 1984) and urea (Had jipanayiotou, 1982a; Colette and Kissinger, 1984; Dias-Ad-Silva and Sandston, 1986). Urea is one of the major chemical agents used to improve the nutritive value of cereal straws and other fibrous by-products (Ray *et al.*, 1989; Got *et al.*, 1991; Tune *et al.*, 1991; Ghana *et al.*, 1993). Treatment with urea can break the ester bonds between lignin, hemicelluloses and cellulose, and physically cause structural fiber to swell. It has been suggested (Mason *et al.*, 1988; Many chi *et al.*, 1992) that urea-ammonization affects CW composition and improves extent of rumen degradability.

Eragrostis uvula is a popular hay grass, produced in vast quantities in Natal, with a mean crude protein (CP) content of less than 6 g kg⁻¹ (Galloway, 1980), which does not meet the minimum dietary CP concentration required for milk producing dairy cows (Flacon sky *et al.*, 1993). A large proportion of the potential hay crop is lost each year because difficulties are experienced with harvesting the hay at the correct

time. As a result a large proportion of the *E. uvula* hay produced is of little feed value. If urea has the same effect on *E. uvula* hay as on cereal straws then urea-ammonization of such low quality hay could increase its potential as a ruminant feedstuff. Concentrate supplementation for such low quality roughages also increase the rumen fermentation due to the supply of readily fermentable energy. However, it has been reported that high concentrate levels in the diet may reduce rumen fermentation and rumination time (Korsakov and Ryle, 1990). As a consequence, saliva production is low. It is not known; therefore, to what extent the changes in the rumen environment induced by feeding urea-treated roughages and concentrate supplements could affect fiber degradation.

The overall objective of this study was to determine how dietary manipulation and urea-ammonization affect degradation properties of roughage diets.

II. MATERIALS AND METHODS

a) Study Area

The experiment was conducted at the University of Natal's Ukulinga Research Farm outside Pietermaritzburg, in the subtropical hinterland of KwaZulu-Natal Province, South Africa. It lies at 30°24'S, 29°24'E and approximately 700 m above sea level. The mean annual rainfall in the study site is 735 mm, falling mostly in summer, between October and April, and the maximum and minimum mean annual temperatures are 25.7 and 8.9°C, respectively (Camp, 1999). Light to moderate frost occurs occasionally in winter.

b) Animals

Four adult Jersey cows (average body weight of 425.5 ± SD 58.4), fitted with permanent rumen canola of 120 mm internal diameter were used in this study. They were kept in individual feedlot pens under a roofed shed with floor beddings. Cows were provided with clean water and a mineral block supplement at all time throughout the experiment.

c) Diet and Feeding

All rumen fistulae Jersey cows were fed on a basal diet composed of either urea-treated or untreated *Eragrostis uvula* hay. These basal diets were supplemented with a concentrate mixture composed of maize meal (78%) and cottonseed oilcake meal (22%). The concentrate was formulated to contain 15% crude protein (CP). Concentrate contributed 0, 25, 50 or 75% of the total ration and treated or untreated *E. uvula* hay the rest (22%). Thus 8 different dietary treatments were formed.

d) Experimental Design

The experiment comprised six periods. Each period lasted 19 days, comprising 12 days of adaptation to the experimental diet followed by 6-days of

degradability measurements and 1-day of rumen fluid collection. During each period, the animals were randomly assigned to 4 of the 8 dietary treatments. It was however ensured that each diet was fed to 3 animals during the entire experiment (Table 1).

Before the initiation of the experiment, cows were allowed free access to diets to determine *ad libitum* intake. Cows were then subsequently fed 80% of the *ad libitum* intake to ensure complete consumption of feed so as to adhere to the roughage: concentrate ratio. Diets were fed twice a day, during morning (08:00) and afternoon (16:00).

e) Preparation of the urea ammoniated hay

Urea solution was prepared in a plastic container by adding 3 kg urea into 40 liters of water whilst stirring until all the urea was dissolved. The entire 40-litre solution was then sprayed onto 100 kg of hay (on a DM basis). Before the solution was made, a total of 240 bales of *E. uvula* hay were collected from Ukulinga Research Farm. One hundred and twenty of the 240 bales were ammoniated with urea and divided into 4 layer groups. The bottom layer, comprising 30 bales, was placed on the concrete floor. Using a 15-litre capacity plastic watering can fitted with a spray nozzle, the prepared urea solution was distributed evenly over the top surface of each layer of hay. The same procedures were applied until the fourth layer. The urea treated hay was covered with large plastic sheets and tightly sealed with tape at the four corners and round the edges with soils to exclude air. Immediately after sealing tightly, weights were strategically put on the top of the plastic sheet to hold it down. After 5 weeks, the treated hay was opened and aerated before feeding to the experimental animals. This treatment resulted in moisture content of approximately 35%, as calculated according to Chemist and Kaolin (1997). Representative samples of hay were taken for chemical analysis prior to and after treatment.

f) Preparation of roughages for rumen incubation study

Samples (2 kg) of 10 different roughages were chosen for this study. They were collected from different parts of South Africa. The experimental roughages were wheat (*Triticum sativa*) straw, barley (*Horde vulgare*) straw, coast cross (k₁₁) (*Condon* hybrid) hay, veldt hay (natural grass), oat (*Avena sativa*) straw, oat (*Avena sativa*) hay, maize (*Zeal Mays*) Stover, kikuyu (*Pennisetum clandestine*) grass, weeping love grass (*Eragrostis uvula*) hay and Italian ryegrass (*Folium multiflorum*).

The experimental barley, wheat and oat straws examined in this study originated from the Western Cape Province and oat hay from the Free State Province. The rest of the roughages were collected from Ukulinga Research Farm. Italian ryegrass was collected (cut) fresh and then sun-dried before use. Each sample was sub-divided into two equal portions. Each portion

was then treated with or without urea. The urea solution was wholly distributed over 1 kg of roughage. Addition of the urea solution would increase the moisture content of the roughages to 35%. Treated roughages were sealed tightly and stored at room temperature for 5 weeks in plastic bags. Immediately after opening, the different roughages, including the untreated ones, were sun-dried, chopped fine by hand and ground through a 2-mm screen in a laboratory mill.

g) Nylon bag incubation procedure

About 3 g of each ground forage sample was weighed into labeled nylon bags (ANKOM Co, Fairport, New York, USA; internal dimensions: 5 cm x 9 cm; pore size 50 μm). The bags were tied to a stainless steel disc with 10 evenly spaced small holes drilled through the periphery of the disc serving as anchor points. The bags were incubated (in duplicate per time interval) in the rumen for 120, 96, 72, 48, 24, 12, 6 and 3 h sequentially. The treated samples were incubated in the rumen of animals fed treated hay, while untreated samples were incubated in animals given untreated hay. Immediately after removal from the rumen, the bags, including the zero hour ones, which had not been incubated but soaked in warm water for one hour, were washed in 6 cycles (each lasting 4 minutes) in a semi-automatic washing machine. The washed bags were then dried in a forced draught oven at 60°C for 48 hours, cooled in a desiccator and weighed.

h) Rumen pH and ammonia concentration

After each incubation period, animals were maintained on the same diets and rumen fluid was collected from each animal for determination of ammonia (NH_3) concentration and rumen pH during the following times after morning feeding: 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12 and 24 hours. Immediately after collection, the rumen fluid was strained through a double layer of cheesecloth. Rumen pH was measured using a Crimson portable pH model 507 (Crimson Instruments, SA. 08328 Allele, and Barcelona, Spain). Samples of about 100 ml were put in 250 ml containers to which 5 drops of concentrated sulfuric were added and stored in a freezer maintained at -20°C until they were needed for NH_3 analysis.

i) Chemical analysis of basal diet and concentrate

Dry matter, organic matter (OM) and ash were analyzed using the procedures described by the Association of Official Analytical Chemists (AOAC, 1990). Nitrogen (N) or crude protein (CP) [(6.25*N)] content in feeds was determined using an automatic protein determinate (LECO FP2000, LECO, Pretoria, South Africa). Rumen NH_3 -N concentration was measured using an auto-analyzer with no sample preparation. Neutral detergent fiber and acid detergent fiber (ADF) contents in feeds were analyzed according to Van Soest *et al.* (1991) and hemicelluloses were estimated as the difference between NDF and ADF.

j) Calculations and statistical analysis

The degradation of DM was estimated by fitting the non-linear model proposed by McDonald (1981) and modified by Hanoi (1988) to the degradation data of each component: variables were determined using the secant method (SAS, 1987).

$$P = A + B [1 - \exp^{-c(T-LT)}] \quad (1)$$

Where P is the disappearance of DM or fibre fraction at time T, A = the water soluble fraction (washing losses) and is considered immediately degradable at time zero, B = the degradable part of the insoluble fraction, c = rate of disappearance of the degradable fraction "B", T = time of exposure and LT = the lag time. The PD was calculated as (A + B). A passage rate (k) of 0.03 h^{-1} was assumed in order to calculate ED of DM (Bonsai *et al.*, 1994; Nashua *et al.*, 1998a):

$$ED = A + B \times c / (k + c) \quad (2)$$

The model used for statistical analysis of DM degradation parameters was:

$$Y_{ijklm} = \mu + A_i + P_j + U_k + C(U)_{kl} + F(U)_{km} + \epsilon_{ijkl} \quad (3)$$

Where

Y = individual observation;

μ = overall mean;

A = animal effect;

P = period effect;

U = effect of urea-ammonization;

C(U) = effect of concentrate within urea-ammonization;

F(U) = effect of roughage within urea-ammonization; and

ϵ = random variation (assumed independent, identical and normally distributed).

The model used for the analysis of rumen NH_3 and rumen pH was:

$$Y_{ijklm} = \mu + T_i + TA_{ij} + TP_{ik} + TC_{il} + TU_{im} + TC(U)_{ilm} + \epsilon_{ijklm} \quad (4)$$

Where

Y = individual observation;

μ = overall mean;

T = effect of time;

A = animal effect;

P = period effect;

C = effect of concentrate;

U = effect of urea-ammonization;

C(U) = effect of concentrate within urea-ammonization; and

ϵ = random variation (assumed independent, identical and normally distributed).

Time was introduced in the model as a repeated measure.

III. RESULTS

a) Chemical composition of the feeds

The chemical composition of the urea-treated and untreated roughages is given in Table 2. Urea-ammonization resulted in marked increase in N content. There was a wide variation in the chemical composition of the treated and untreated roughage samples. Most of the roughages (Table 2) were characterized as high fibrous feedstuffs, with a high NDF value but low CP content. NDF and hemicelluloses contents of most feeds were decreased while ADF was increased due to urea-ammonization. Among the untreated roughages, ryegrass had the highest CP content, followed by coast cross hay, oat hay, maize Stover and the lowest was barley straw in descending order. The rest of the untreated roughages fell in between the two extremes.

b) Ammonia concentration and pH in the rumen

The least square means of the effects of urea-ammonization of dietary roughages and varying concentrate proportions on rumen NH_3 concentration and pH are given in Table 3. Urea-ammonization ($P < 0.01$) and concentrate proportions ($P < 0.001$) increased NH_3 concentration in the rumens of Jersey cows but concentrate proportions within urea-ammonization had no effect ($P > 0.05$). The lowest and highest rumen NH_3 concentrations were observed at 2 and 4 hrs, respectively, after feeding for animals fed urea treated hay, while for those on the untreated hay the lowest and the highest were recorded at 24 and 4 hrs after morning feeding. The profile of rumen NH_3 concentration of the untreated diet was maintained at a lower level than for urea-treated diet throughout the period of measurement.

As shown in Table 3, the effect of urea-ammonization and concentrate proportions on rumen pH levels was not significant ($P > 0.05$). There was, however, a tendency for increased ($P < 0.098$) rumen pH in animals fed urea-treated diets. Concentrate levels within urea-ammonization had no effect on rumen pH.

c) Degradation of Dry Matter

i. Effect of roughage type

The effect of roughage type within urea-ammonization on DM degradability of incubated roughages (treated and untreated) is given in Table 4. Within urea-ammonization, roughage type affected ($P < 0.0001$) all the degradability parameters of DM.

The slowly degradable fraction of untreated roughages varied from 442 g kg^{-1} of wheat straw to 650 g kg^{-1} of veldt hay with a mean value of 527 g kg^{-1} , while for urea-treated roughages it varied from 483 g kg^{-1} of

oat hay to 742 g kg^{-1} of veldt hay with a mean value of 599 g kg^{-1} . The rate of degradation of DM of untreated roughages varied from 0.022 h^{-1} for wheat straw to 0.087 h^{-1} for ryegrass, while for urea-treated roughages it varied from 0.022 h^{-1} for oat straw to 0.082 h^{-1} for ryegrass. Ryegrass degraded almost three to four times faster than urea-treated oat straw. The potential degradability ranged from 625 g kg^{-1} of untreated wheat straw to 950 g kg^{-1} of ryegrass, and from 733 g kg^{-1} of treated wheat straw to 964 g kg^{-1} of treated ryegrass. The effective degradability was lowest in untreated wheat straw (370 g kg^{-1}) and highest in ryegrass (799 g kg^{-1}), while in treated roughages wheat straw had the lowest (434 g kg^{-1}) and ryegrass the highest (797 g kg^{-1}) effective degradability. For the untreated feeds the lag time ranged from 0.6 h in *E. uvula* hay to 3.2 h in veldt hay, and from 0.3 h in treated oat straw to 3.0 h in treated veldt hay.

ii. Effect of urea-ammonization

The main effect of urea and concentrate proportions within urea-ammonization on degradability of treated and untreated roughages is given in Table 5. Urea-ammonization increased ($P < 0.0001$) the B-fraction, PD and ED, decreased ($P > 0.05$) the lag time that precedes the onset of degradation of DM but had no effect on rate of degradation of DM.

iii. Effect of concentrate proportion

Concentrate proportion affected ($P < 0.05$) the B-fraction, PD, LT and ED but had no effect ($P > 0.05$) on the rate of degradation of DM. For both urea-treated and untreated roughages, the B-fraction, the PD and the ED of DM increased to their maximum at 25% concentrate levels. Beyond this level, they decreased with increasing concentrate level, reaching a minimum at 75% concentrate level (Table 5). The pattern of decrease of each of these parameters was gentle for treated but rapid for untreated ones.

d) Relationships Among Variables

i. Correlation of chemical constituents with degradation of roughages

The degradability parameters: c, PD and ED were highly correlated ($P < 0.0001$) with the concentration of CP, ash, ADF and NDF (Table 6). The degradability of DM as measured by the above parameters increased with increasing CP and ash contents but decreased in the direction of increasing concentration of either NDF or ADF.

IV. DISCUSSION

a) Chemical composition

Urea-treated diets had higher N content than untreated ones due to urea-ammonization, as was reported previously (Colette and Kissinger, 1984; Brand *et al.*, 1991). Urea-ammonization generally caused a reduction in the NDF and hemicelluloses contents of the

low quality roughages. It was the reverse for the high quality roughages especially ryegrass and oat hay. Similar results regarding NDF and hemicelluloses contents of low quality roughages have been reported before (Colette and Kissinger, 1984) due to solubilization of hemicelluloses (Van Soest *et al.*, 1983/84; Mason *et al.*, 1988). Urea-ammonization may have removed some linkages within hemicelluloses and thus enhanced their solubility in detergent solution.

b) Rumen Environment

Rumen-NH₃ ammonia concentration steadily increased with increasing concentrate proportion in the diet. The highest DM degradation was observed when the mean value for rumen-NH₃ was close to 50 mg/l recommended by Setter and Slyer (1974). Ammonia is the preferred source of N for a large proportion of rumen microbes (Bryant and Robinson, 1963). The results of the present study indicate that the urea-treated hay, compared to the untreated diets, caused an increase in the DM degradation of the roughages. This might be attributed to the fact that urea treatment of basal diets provided more fermentable energy and N to the rumen microbes than untreated diets (Van Soest *et al.*, 1983/84; Got *et al.*, 1991; Tune *et al.*, 1991). Although the concentrate level had no effect ($P > 0.05$) on the luminal pH of cows, it tended to be lower in cows receiving 50 and 75% concentrate than in cows receiving 25% concentrate. This might have reduced the extent of DM degradability in the rumen of cows.

c) Effect of roughage type on dry matter degradability

The difference observed between the degradable parts of the insoluble fraction, the potential degradability and the effective degradability of DM of untreated and urea-treated materials might be related to the quality of the roughages before the treatment. Roughages such as barley, wheat and oat straw, coast cross hay, *E. uvula* hay and maize Stover, unlike ryegrass and oat hay, consist of cell walls that have undergone secondary thickening (Adebowale and Nakashima, 1992; Jung and Allen, 1995; Wilson and Martens, 1995) consequently they are very slowly degraded. This may explain why the washing losses of ryegrass and oat hay were almost two times higher than for the rest of the roughages. The high potential degradability values for ryegrass followed by oat hay resulted partly from very high washing losses of these roughages. This could be linked to their low NDF concentrations since the potential degradability of the roughages was found to be negatively correlated ($r = -0.797$, $P < 0.0001$) to NDF. This observation confirms a report that DM digestibility was positively correlated to crude protein content and negatively correlated to crude fiber, NDF and ADF (Manson, 1982b). This may also explain why wheat, oat and barley straws had low effective DM degradability values. The low potential degradability of wheat, oat and barley straws, veldt,

Kikuyu and *E. uvula* hays are closely linked to their low values of washing losses. The high effective degradability of DM for the ryegrass and oat hay before urea-ammonization could be linked to their low NDF concentrations.

Mature plants (straws) like barley, wheat and oat straw, *E. uvula* hay, coasters, hay and maize Stover are more lignified than the young grasses (ryegrass and oat hay). The deposition of lignin polymer commences with the initiation of secondary wall thickening (Trachoma *et al.*, 1993). In addition to deposition of lignin in these plants during secondary wall thickening, there is apparently an incorporation of some of the arabinoxylan ferulae esters of the primary wall into cross-linkages of the xylems to lignin (Imam *et al.*, 1990) and p-coumaric acid (Lam *et al.*, 1992). The phenol nature of lignin developed during the secondary wall thickening may act as an enzyme inhibitor and interfere with the digestion of cell wall components (Van Soest, 1994). Thus, the high slowly degradable fraction, PD and ED values of NDF (not reported) observed in this experiment, in ryegrass and oat hay may be attributed to the low levels of soluble phenol compounds as compared to wheat, barley and oat straws. These compounds are present in most mature grasses (Hartley *et al.*, 1985) and were reported to be linked to lignin, consequently limiting the degradability of cell walls (Thunder, 1985). Non-lignified tissues may also be poorly degraded due to binding with low molecular weight phenol compounds (Vadiveloo and Fidel, 1992).

d) Effect of urea-ammonization on the degradability of dry matter

Significantly higher rumen-NH₃ concentration may partly be responsible for a better rumen environment for roughage degradation in the animals fed urea-treated diets. The improvements observed in the degradability parameters of DM following urea treatment of the roughages could in part be attributed to the increased availability of carbohydrates in the dietary fiber fractions for microbes. According to Akin (1989), it is likely that any change in the degradation of the basal diet as a result of an increase in microbial activity may depend on the number of available sites for microbial attachment.

Treatment with urea increases the B-fraction. The mathematical procedure used to derive degradation parameters shows that an estimate of "B" is negatively correlated with the rate of degradation. Consequently, an increase in the B-fraction following urea-ammonization might reduce the possible effect of treatment on the rate of degradation.

The effect of urea-ammonization might have been more pronounced on the degradability of low quality roughages, such as wheat straw, relative to good quality roughage like ryegrass because urea-ammonization works best on low quality roughages. It

has been observed (Got *et al.*, 1991) that the extent of improvement in degradability following ammonia treatment of Golden Promise (a variety of wheat straw which had a DM degradability of 41.0% before treatment and 53.5% after treatment) was about four times higher than the corresponding value in Doublet (a variety of wheat straw which had a DM degradability value of 57% before ammonia treatment and 59% after treatment), indicating that the effect of ammonization was more pronounced for materials of lower inherent degradability. Utah *et al.* (1986) reported that the poorest quality straw benefited the most from urea-ammonization.

e) Effect of concentrate proportions on the degradation of dry matter

Although the highest rumen-NH₃ concentration was recorded in animals fed urea-treated *E. uvula* hay supplemented with 75% concentrate, its failure to improve the dry matter degradability of the incubated roughages may relate the fact that higher concentrate proportions in a diet may lower the cellulolytic activity of rumen microbes. Gal yeon and Goatish (1993) proposed that the inclusion rates of concentrate in a diet for dairy and beef cattle should be less than 40 and 20% of the total ration, respectively. In the experiment reported here, however, addition of concentrate up to 25% to urea-treated and untreated hay resulted in positive associative effects on dry matter degradation. Similar results were reported in another study (Niangua *et al.*, 1993) after goats and sheep were offered urea-treated sorghum stover with less than 25% concentrate supplementation. Beyond the 25% concentrate level, there was a negative associative effect on dry matter degradation. The pattern of negative effect was less pronounced in the urea-ammoniated diets. This might be due to the fact that urea is alkaline, which can neutralize the acidity caused by adding higher amount of concentrate in the diets of cows. Flaconsky *et al.*, (1993) also reported that dry matter degradability of ammonia-treated and untreated straw decreased when dietary straw was replaced by concentrate and that the extent of depression was higher for the untreated straw.

V. CONCLUSION

The results of this study have shown that urea-ammonization increased CP content as well as decreased NDF and hemicellulose contents of roughages. Addition of 25% concentrate in either urea-ammoniated or untreated *E. uvula* hay diets increased DM degradation. Increasing concentrate level beyond 25% of the diet was associated with decreased *in Sacco* DM degradation. It was observed that urea-ammonization tended to reduce the negative effect of feeding high concentrate compared to untreated diets. Therefore, this study suggests that there is much to gain by treating low quality roughages.

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Table 1 : Experimental design of feeding program (regime) in different periods

Periods	Treated : Concentrate ratio (T : C)**				Untreated : Concentrate ratio (UT : C)**			
	100 : 0	75 : 25	50 : 50	25 : 75	100 : 0	75 : 25	50 : 50	25 : 75
P ₁	1***			4	3	2		
P ₂		1	4				3	2
P ₃	2	3	1				4	
P ₄			2	1		4		3
P ₅	3	2			1			4
P ₆				3	4	1	2	

*P₁, P₂, P₃,...P₆ = Period.

**T : C = Urea-ammoniated hay : Concentrate ratio; UT : C = Untreated : Concentrate ratio.

***1 - 4 = Animal number.

Table 2 : Chemical composition (g kg⁻¹ DM) of feed ingredients and incubated sample of feeds

Items	Urea	DM	CP	Ash	NDF	ADF	HEM
Feed ingredients							
<i>E. curvula</i> hay	1	937	88.3	56.1	754	431	234
<i>E. curvula</i> hay	0	938	64.2	59.2	752	420	332
Maize meal		897	80.4	11.1	85	24	61
Cotton seed cake		895	363.5	56.7	287	234	544
Incubated roughages							
Barley straw	1	938	79.4	52.7	739	523	217
<i>E. curvula</i> hay	1	923	10.1	59.2	772	432	340
Coastcross hay	1	924	153.2	69.8	758	419	339
Kikuyu hay	1	909	117.6	78.9	659	381	279
Maize stover	1	912	124.3	46.9	720	434	287
Oat hay	1	887	177.5	105.4	479	318	162
Oat straw	1	938	80.4	68.5	724	516	208
Ryegrass	1	913	348.6	139.4	495	247	248
Veld hay	1	924	106.0	60.6	721	492	230
Wheat straw	1	932	76.0	48.3	727	518	209
Barley straw	0	930	37.0	54.5	795	541	254
<i>E. curvula</i> hay	0	936	71.2	58.1	765	426	339
Coastcross hay	0	951	118.3	70.2	764	398	369
Kikuyu hay	0	930	75.7	77.2	692	365	327
Maize stover	0	929	85.9	46.3	720	448	272

Oat hay	0	905	97.0	107.9	487	302	185
Oat straw	0	937	43.4	69.2	769	531	239
Ryegrass	0	924	302.7	136.2	438	233	206
Veld hay	0	945	64.7	79.3	698	454	245
Wheat straw	0	935	45.4	56.9	752	521	230

1, Urea-ammoniated; 0, Untreated; HEM, hemicelluloses (HEM = NDF – ADF).

Table 3: Least square means of the main effects of urea-ammonization of dietary roughages and variation in dietary concentrate proportion on the rumen ammonia concentration and rumen pH in Jersey cows

Parameters	Urea		SED	P value	Concentrate (%)				SED	P value
	0	1			0	25	50	75		
NH ₃ mg l ⁻¹	49.9	66.9	2.54	0.002	38.2	46.8	71.5	77.0	3.59	0.000
pH	6.6	6.5	0.03	0.098	6.7	6.6	6.5	6.5	0.05	0.169

0, untreated; 1, urea-ammoniated.

Table 4: Effect of roughage type within urea - ammonization on dry matter degradability of treated and untreated roughages incubated in the rumens of cows fed either treated or untreated hay with or without concentrate

Feed type	Urea	Degradation parameters				
		B (g kg ⁻¹)	c (h ⁻¹)	PD (g kg ⁻¹)	ED (g kg ⁻¹)	LT (h)
Barley straw	1	603	0.026	812	479	2.2
<i>E. curvula</i> hay	1	728	0.031	853	467	1.9
Kikuyu grass	1	551	0.043	755	517	0.9
Coastcross hay	1	622	0.032	808	498	2.7
Maize stover	1	593	0.032	799	504	1.5
Oat hay	1	483	0.050	912	723	0.6
Oat straw	1	578	0.022	788	439	0.3
Ryegrass	1	572	0.082	964	797	1.8
Veld hay	1	742	0.027	882	476	3.0
Wheat straw	1	517	0.023	733	434	1.6
Barley straw	0	559	0.027	719	423	2.2
<i>E. curvula</i> hay	0	629	0.025	787	442	0.6
Kikuyu grass	0	447	0.032	665	448	3.2
Coastcross hay	0	578	0.029	730	435	1.5
Maize stover	0	485	0.026	711	448	0.7
Oat hay	0	455	0.066	881	731	1.4
Oat straw	0	464	0.029	635	397	2.1
Ryegrass	0	565	0.087	950	799	1.5
Veld hay	0	650	0.026	808	453	3.2
Wheat straw	0	442	0.022	625	370	1.9
SED		46.3	0.011	46.3	26.9	1.2
Effect feed type (urea)		0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001

1, Urea-ammoniated; 0, Untreated; c, rate of degradation of slowly degradable fraction; B, slowly degradable fraction; h, hour; PD, potential degradability; ED, effective degradability; LT, lag time.

Table 5 : Effect of urea-ammonization and concentrate proportions on dry matter degradability of treated and untreated roughages incubated in the rumen of Jersey cows

Concen- trate (%)	Urea	Degradation parameters				
		B (g kg ⁻¹)	c (h ⁻¹)	PD (g kg ⁻¹)	ED (g kg ⁻¹)	LT (h)
0	1	596	0.036	827	534	1.4
25	1	614	0.040	846	548	1.6
50	1	592	0.038	823	541	2.3
75	1	594	0.033	826	511	1.3
0	0	529	0.039	753	507	2.3
25	0	553	0.039	776	511	1.8
50	0	525	0.036	749	488	1.9
75	0	503	0.034	727	473	1.4
Main effect of Urea						
	1	599	0.037	831	533	1.6
	0	527	0.037	751	495	1.8
SED (conc level)		32.8	0.0075	32.8	19.0	0.81
SED (urea)		16.4	0.0038	16.4	9.5	0.41
Effect of conc (urea)		0.0353	0.2589	0.0353	0.0001	0.0256
Urea		0.0001	0.9706	0.0001	0.0001	0.2804

1, Urea-ammoniated; 0, Untreated; c, rate of degradation of slowly degradable fraction; B, slowly degradable fraction; h, hour; PD, potential degradability; ED, effective degradability; LT, lag time

Table 6 : Correlation between the chemical composition of roughages and the degradability parameters of dry matter

Chemical constituents	c(h ⁻¹)		PD (g kg ⁻¹)		ED (g kg ⁻¹)	
	1	0	1	0	1	0
Crude protein	0.88**	0.83**	0.67**	0.72**	0.81**	0.80**
Ash	0.85**	0.93**	0.75**	0.78**	0.89**	0.91**
NDF	-0.86**	-0.94**	-0.74**	-0.80**	-0.95**	-0.97**
ADF	-0.86**	-0.84**	-0.67**	-0.77**	-0.88**	-0.87**

1, urea treated; 0, untreated; NDF, neutral detergent fiber; ADF, acid detergent fiber; c, rate of degradation of slowly degradable fraction; h, hour; PD, potential degradability; ED, effective degradability.





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Determination of Efficiency of Yield Components on Oil Yield Per Plant in Safflower Breeding by Different Statistical Methods

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Abstract - The aim of this study was to determine relationship oil yield and yield components and to show efficiency of components on oil yield by using statistical procedures under rainfed conditions in safflower (*Carthamus tinctorius* L.). Data of oil yield and yield components over the two years in the study were evaluated by statistical procedures; correlation and path analysis, regression analysis (multiple linear regression and best subsets regression), factor analysis, principal component analysis and cluster analysis. Results in this study revealed that high yielding new cultivars are evaluated, selected by using various yield components such as seed yield per capitalism, thousand kernel weight, oil content, yield per plant are getting used more and more for high grain/oil yield and for resistance to drought conditions.

Keywords : *safflower (carthamus tinctorius l.), oil content, seed yield, oil yield per plant.*

GJSFR-D Classification : *FOR Code: 820403, 820302, 070602*



Strictly as per the compliance and regulations of :



Determination of Efficiency of Yield Components on Oil Yield Per Plant in Safflower Breeding by Different Statistical Methods

Duran Katar

Abstract - The aim of this study was to determine relationship oil yield and yield components and to show efficiency of components on oil yield by using statistical procedures under rainfed conditions in safflower (*Carthamus tinctorius* L.). Data of oil yield and yield components over the two years in the study were evaluated by statistical procedures; correlation and path analysis, regression analysis (multiple linear regression and best subsets regression), factor analysis, principal component analysis and cluster analysis. Results in this study revealed that high yielding new cultivars are evaluated, selected by using various yield components such as seed yield per capitalism, thousand kernel weight, oil content, yield per plant are getting used more and more for high grain/oil yield and for resistance to drought conditions.

Keywords : safflower (*carthamus tinctorius* L.), oil content, seed yield, oil yield per plant.

1. INTRODUCTION

Being an oil seed crop, safflower (*Carthamus tinctorius* L.) is known as drought tolerant plant and is grown wide semiarid climates in the world (Christos and Seoul's, 2008). Due to deeper roots, this crop could be tolerant to water stress could join rotation with other crops and these phenomena make this crop drought tolerant (Usual et al., 2006). Safflower has been cultivated in the world for its oil content that is rich in polyunsaturated fatty acids playing important role to decrease blood cholesterol level (Bayar and Turgot, 1999). Moreover, this crop has about 75% linoleum acid, higher than corn, soybean, cottonseed, peanut or olive oils. This crop is therefore used first of all for edible oil products such as salad oils and soft margarines. High-quality oil feature makes safflower an important crop for vegetable oil (Conge et al., 2007).

The need of new cultivars having higher oil quality/content of oil leads to the objective of safflower breeding programs to develop new cultivars having higher oil quality/content, greater yielding ability and eventually resistance to drought and diseases (Volkman and Raj can, 2009). Grain yield and oil quality/content are important characters and subject to many variables affecting plant growth. Increasing genetic association between agronomic and quality

characters could improve the efficiency of breeding programs by determining and effectively using markers in selection of safflower genotypes (Volkman and Raj can, 2009).

Grain yield and naturally oil yield per plant in safflower are in general under effect of some components (the number of capitulate per plant, seed yield per capitalism, 1000 seed yield and seed yield per plant) that seem to be important elements for breeding programs (Aslant et al., 2008; Bonham et al., 2011). Usual (2006) stated that under rainfed conditions some components (seed yield per plant, oil content and 1000 seed weight) have been evaluated by several researchers and are considered as important measures for oil yield per plant. Several researchers evaluated components affecting oil yield per plant and plant adaptations for semi arid climatic conditions and drought stress may cause a reduction in certain components but particularly in seed yield per plant and seed oil content (Yilmazlar, 2008, Sade et al., 2012).

In addition, there are various statistical techniques covering correlation and path analysis, multiple linear regression, Factor Analysis, Principal component analysis, Best subsets regression and cluster analysis to evaluate yield and yield components for breeding programs (Massmart et al., 1997; Oldsmar, 1999; Slavonic et al., 2004; Skis et al., 2006). Correlation and path analyses are important procedures to examine dependent variable, and direct and indirect contribution of components and both correlation and path analyses could successfully be used in breeding programs (Massmart et al., 1997; Oldsmar, 1999; Hilt runner et al., 2007). Regression analyses, including multiple linear regression, best subsets regression are efficiently used in modeling crop yield analyses (Oldsmar, 1999; Skis et al., 2006). Principal component and factor analyses are multivariate statistical techniques for analyzing and making simplification in complex plant data sets (Slavonic et al., 2004). The characteristic of this statistical technique is to transform variables correlated in to simplified variables and to show features of components (Oldsmar, 1999). Cluster analysis is often used to reveal characteristics of components and classify components in to distinct groups and subgroups in the characteristics of similarity and dissimilarity levels (Otto, 1999; Beltane and Ojai, 2007). This study was carried

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out to help breeders, researching to reveal main components and their influences on oil yield per plant and plant productivity. The aim of this study was to determine relationship oil yield per plant and yield components and to show efficiency of components on oil yield per plant by using statistical procedures under rained conditions.

II. MATERIALS AND METHODS

This study was carried out in research area of Central Research Institute for Field Crops in Hayman-Ankara (32° 51' E; 39° 57' N; 860 m above sea level)/Turkey in 2010 and 2011 years. Soil characteristics in research area had lime-loamy soil structure, having 7.19 pH, 0.037 % salt, 1.30 % organic matter and 2.48 % lime. Hayman-Ankara/turkey where the trials were performed has a typical steppe climate with high temperature differences between day and night. Summers are dry and winters are relatively rainy. Total rainfall in 2010 and 2011 (379,9 mm and 401,5 mm, respectively) were lower than long-term years rainfall (402,1 mm). In 2010 period, total rainfall (March-September) was 176 mm so doing 213.2 mm in 2011 period. Rainfall in tailoring stage (in May), important for yield, was 22 mm in 2010 and 86 mm in 2011 period. Besides, mean temperatures in 2010 and 2011 (11.8°C and 10,5°C, respectively) were lower than long-term-years temperature (12.0°C).

Dancer (spineless), Remzibey (spiny), Yen ice and Shiva (spineless) cultivars and TAEK-sulk line (spiny) were used in trial as plant materials. Yen ice, Dancer and Remzibey cultivars were developed at Translational Zone Agricultural Research Institute in Turkey. Shiva cultivar was obtained from Tajikistan. TAEK-sulk pure line was developed at The Turkish Atomic Energy Authority by mutation. Field experiments in 2010 and 2011 growing seasons were conducted with four replications as 'Randomized Complete Block Design' in Ankara-Turkey ecological conditions. The cultivars and pure line (Dancer, Remzibey, Yenice, Shiva and pure line TAEK-sulk) were randomized into plots. Seeds were sown with 30 cm row spacing on plots of 6 m² harvest area (1.20 m width x 5 m length) on 25 March 2010 and 28 March 2011. After intra-row spacing was stabilized at 10 cm by thinning in both first and second years (Kizil vet ark. 1999). Weed controls were made by means of manual weeding in rows. A total of 50 kg ha⁻¹ of P₂O₅ and 40 kg ha⁻¹ of nitrogen were applied with sowing and 20 kg ha⁻¹ of nitrogen was applied as a top dressing at the beginning of stem elongation. On 10 September and 17 September at full maturity of the seeds plant harvests were made in 2010 and 2011, respectively. Thirty plants per plot were selected as randomly and made by hand. Seeds obtained from these plants were used for experiments. For all statistical analyses, SAS and Minitab 15 package programs were

used. Means of data taken from oil yield per plant and yield components during crop growing periods of 2010 and 2011 years are given in Table 1.

Data of oil yield per plant and yield components for the two years in the study were evaluated by statistical procedures; correlation and path analysis, regression analysis (multiple linear regression and best subsets regression), factor analysis, principal component analysis and cluster analysis.

III. RESULT AND DISCUSSION

Minimum, maximum, mean and standard deviation of all characters in safflower (*Carthamus tinctorius* L.) cultivars is shown in Table 2.

Correlation and path analyses between oil yield per plant and yield components and relationship between oil yield per plant and yield components are given Table 3 and Figure 1. Correlations close to 1 denotes that almost positive/similar results are taken from two variables and value close to -1 show that results in two characters are so opposite/dissimilar. Value close to zero also assign that two characters are so independent from each other (Ozdamar, 1999).

Table 3 and Figure 1 show that significant and positive relationship between oil yield per plant and capitalism yield, thousand kernel weight, yield per plant; significant and negative relationship between oil yield per plant and hull content. Path analysis is also a useful analysis to understand formation dependent variable and the effect of independent variables on dependent variable (Kang, 1990). In path analysis, direct and indirect effects of components having significant correlation in oil yield per plant per plant were considered (Table 3). Results revealed that capitalism yield (-0.1186 and 8.0866%) and thousand kernel weight (-0.2983 and 14.2114%) had negative direct effects, positive direct effects were taken from hull content (0.1151 and 8.7204%) and (0.1194 and 6.9851%). Nevertheless, the highest indirect effects were determined via capitalism number, capitalism yield, thousand kernel weight, yield per plant and hull content and these can considered as important characters. Studies emphasized that owing significant and positive relationship with oil or plant grain yield; capitalism number, capitalism yield, thousand kernel weights, could safely be used breeding programs (Badoglio et al., 2006). Sandal (1988) pointed out that oil yield per plant under rained climatic conditions was determined by capitalism number, capitalism yield, thousand kernel weight.

Multiple linear regression analysis, given in Table 4, explains the regression coefficients, the probability of the variables on estimation of oil yield per plant in safflower (*Carthamus tinctorius* L.).

T-test showed that capitalism yield and seed yield per plant had significant effect in oil yield per plant.

This formula show 95.8 variation in variables and the remaining 4.2 % assign residual effects. Yield estimation Formula is also shown below:

Oil yield per Plant (\hat{Y}) = - 2.71 - 0.00615 Plant Height + 0.0055 Branch Number - 0.0478 Capitalism Number + 0.068 Capitalism Yield - 0.0183 Thousand Kernel Weight + 0.400 Yield per Plant + 0.0309 Hull Content + 0.0598 Oil Content

These results show that capitalism yield and yield per plant are important variables and should be used in bread wheat breeding programs. Regression analysis is the better way to make crop yield/oil yield per plant prediction (Bonham et al., 2011) and linear regression model is one of best method to determine crop yield/oil yield per plant in safflower (*Carthamus tinctorius* L.) (Badoglio et al., 2006).

Best subsets regression determines the best-fitting regression models, constructed with the predictor characters specified. Best subsets regression is an important analysis to clarify models achieving targets with as less predictors as possible. Subset models could easily guess the regression coefficients and predict future responses with smaller variance than the full model using all predictors (Press and Wilson, 1978). The model with the highest adjusted R, low Mallows' value and the lowest S value is assumed as the best model for determination of best characters (Bonham et al., 2011).

Table 6 shows best subset regression explaining the best predictor characters. With 99.7 adjusted R², 3.2 Mallows' values variable 5 including plant height, capitalism yield, thousand kernel weight, and yield per plant, hull content and oil content appeared the best predictors and could be used for in safflower (*Carthamus tinctorius* L.) breeding programs. Best subset regression is widely used to determine best subsets and to describe dependent variables (Press and Wilson, 1978; Sachem et al., 2007) such as oil yield per plant.

Principal component analysis is so common procedure to alter observed and correlated variables to linearly uncorrelated variables by using orthogonal transformation. This analysis is a linear transformation, shifting the data to a new coordinate system that the greatest variance (called the first principal component), the second greatest variance on the second coordinate, then so. (Crosse et al., 1991; Potgieter et al., 2002).

Principal component analysis in Table 7 and relatively ballot analysis of safflower (*Carthamus tinctorius* L.) show that decrease in Eigen values is associated with increase of component numbers and maximum component number is determined at three factors.

According to results, variables could be grouped in three components and these components account for 93.6% of the total variation of oil yield per plant of safflower (*Carthamus tinctorius* L.). PC₁

correlated with capitalism yield, thousand kernel weight, and oil content. Besides, PC₂ correlated with yield per plant. PC₃ correlated with plant height. PC₁, PC₂ and PC₃ account for 53.8%, 80.9 and 93.6% of the variation in oil yield per plant (Table 7 and Figure 2). So, capitalism yield, thousand kernel weight, oil content, yield per plant and plant height showed up to be important characters for oil yield of safflower (*Carthamus tinctorius* L.). Studies revealed that correlation between oil yield per plant and capitalism yield, thousand kernel weight, oil content, yield per plant and plant height (Badoglio et al., 2006).

Factor analysis describes variance among observed, correlated variables for potentially lower number of unobserved variables. Factor analysis seeks joint variations related to unobserved latent variables. The observed variables are modeled as linear combinations of the potential factors, plus "error" terms (Harmon, 1976; Joreskog, 1977; Anderson, 1984). Factor analysis of characters in safflower (*Carthamus tinctorius* L.) is given in Table 8. Factor analysis revealed that factor variances in Factor I, Factor II Factor III and Community were 45.00, 27.30, 12.60 and 84.90%, respectively. According to results, yield per plant in Factor I, thousand kernel weight in Factor II and plant height in Factor III seemed important characters on oil yield per plant. As a result of factor analysis yield per plant, thousand kernel weight and plant height are important components in oil yield per plant. Oil yield per plant is important character and should be taken into consideration on selection of genotypes in breeding programs (Knowles, 1982). Besides seed yield and oil content are both efficient characters for oil yield per plant (Volkman and Raj can, 2009). It was stressed that capitalism yield, yield per plant, thousand kernel weight and oil content had significant correlation with oil yield per plant (Golparvar, 2011, Behnam et al., 2011).

Cluster technique is an agglomerative hierarchical method that begins with all variables separate, each forming its own cluster (Milligan, 1980; Murphy et al., 1986; Martin et al., 1995). In this study cluster analysis and den do gram are given in Table 9 and Figure 3. In cluster analysis, distance of each variable related to the others are calculated and groups observed are established by agglomeration process in which all variables start individually in one's group. Groups closed to each other gradually merged until all variables come to a single group. Repeated splitting of groups result in all evaluated variables being in groups of their own. For quantitative characters, cluster numbers are chosen from hierarchical analysis (Martin et al., 1995). Table 9 and Figure 3 denotes that both similarity level and cluster number increase. In distance of 70.1 % and similarity level of 88.33 %, all variables could be agglomerated in four clusters.

Cluster I includes plant height, while branch number and capitalism number belonged to Cluster II.

Cluster III constituted of oil yield per plant, capitalism yield, thousand kernel yield, oil content and yield per plant; hull content appeared in Cluster IV.

Cluster analysis showed that, capitalism yield, thousand kernel yield, oil content and yield per plant could be considered as important characters for high oil yielding genotypes in safflower (*Carthamus tinctorius* L.) breeding programs.

Results of explained the effect of oil yield components are given in Table 10. Results in this study revealed that capitalism yield, thousand kernel weight, yield per plant and oil content are most important characteristics and they are highly effective in grain yield (Table 10). Safflower (*Carthamus tinctorius* L.) breeding programs have been carried out all around the world. High yielding new cultivars are evaluated, selected by using various yield components such as capitalism yield, thousand kernel weight, oil content, yield per plant are getting used more and more for high grain/oil yield and for resistance to drought conditions.

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Table 1 : Means of data from oil yield per plant and yield components during on safflower (*Carthamus tinctorius* L.) in crop growing periods of 2010 and 2011 years

	Pl.He.	Br.Num.	Cp.Num.	Cp. Yld.	Th.Ke.W.	Yi.per Pl.	Hull Co.	Oil Co.	Oil Yld.
Yenice	100,75	5,85	11,70	0,68	35,92	7,95	56,82	25,00	1,98
Remzibey	78,40	6,60	12,90	0,80	37,95	10,30	51,52	29,20	3,01
Dinçer	84,90	5,45	9,60	0,92	41,46	8,50	54,05	28,85	2,46
Shifa	103,10	5,20	7,45	1,59	44,98	11,50	47,00	30,45	3,50
Taek	80,00	6,55	12,85	0,80	38,45	10,25	49,54	28,85	2,96
Mean	89,43± 11,69	5,93± 1,44	10,90± 2,78	0,95± 0,36	39,75± 3,54	9,70± 1,63	51,78± 3,66	28,47± 2,01	2,77± 0,61

Pl. He : plant height, Br. Num.: number of branch per plant, Cp. Num.: number of capitulum per plant, Cp. Old.: seed yield per capitulum, Th. Key. W.: thousand kernel weight, Yi. per Pl.: seed yield per plant, Hull Co.: hull content, Oil Co.: oil content and Oil Old.: oil yield.

Table 2 : Minimum, maximum, mean and standard deviation of all characters in safflower (*Carthamus tinctorius* L.) cultivars

Traits	Minimum	Maximum	Mean
Plant Height	76,73	109,10	89,43±11,09
Branch Number	4,10	8,10	5,93±1,37
Capitulum Number	6,10	14,30	10,90±2,63
Capitulum Yield	0,65	1,79	0,96±0,35
Thousand Kernel Weight	35,12	46,85	39,70±3,35
Yield per Plant	7,30	12,10	9,70±1,55
Hull Content	46,80	57,01	51,78±3,48
Oil Content	0,00	30,80	28,43±2,01

Table 3 : Correlation matrix and path analysis for characters in safflower (*Carthamus tinctorum* L.) cultivars

Traits	Oil yield per plant	Plant Height	Branch Number	Capitulum Number	Capitulum Yield	Thou. Ker.We.	Yieldper Plant	Hull content
Plant Height	0,055							
BranchNumber	0,343	-0,031						
Capit.Num.	-0,024	-0,317	0,827**					
Capit. Yield	0,705*	0,367	-0,448	-0,811**				
Thsnd. Ke.We.	0,778**	0,218	-0,387	-0,760**	0,921**			
Yield per Plant	0,976**	0,141	0,488	0,115	0,456	0,440		
Hull Content	-0,905**	0,020	0,001	0,273	-0,703*	-0,679	-	
Oil Content	0,005	0,245	-0,491	-0,422	0,307	0,415	0,837**	-0,217
Capitulum Yield						Correlation Coefficient		
Direct Effect	Path Coefficient			%				
	-0.1186			8.0866				
Indirect Effect	Path Coefficient			%				
Plant Height	0.1909			13.0184				
Branch Number	-0.0053			0.3605		0,705*		
Capit. Number	-0.2669			18.1973				
Thsnd. Ke.We.	-0.2106			14.3573				
Yield per Plant	0.0288			1.9619				
Hull Content	-0.0539			3.6745				
Oil Content	0.5917			40.3435				
Thsnd. Ke.We.						Correlation Coefficient		
Direct Effect	Path Coefficient			%				
	-0.2983			14.2114				
Indirect Effect	Path Coefficient			%				
Plant Height	0.1797			8.5610				
Branch Number	-0.0052			0.2480		0,778**		
Capit. Number	-0.3209			15.2856				
Capitulum Yield	-0.0837			3.9884				
Yield per Plant	0.0457			2.1771				
Hull Content	-0.0797			3.7944				
Oil Content	1.0860			51.7340				
Hull Content						Correlation Coefficient		
Direct Effect	Path Coefficient			%				
	0.1151			8.7204				
Indirect Effect	Path Coefficient			%				
Plant Height	0.0716			5.4250				
Branch Number	0.0051			0.3875		0,976**		
Capit. Number	0.0792			6.0033				
Capitulum Yield	-0.0297			2.2466				
Thsnd. Ke.We.	-0.1185			8.9744				
Yield per Plant	-0.1019			7.7199				
Oil Content	0.7989			60.5228				

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Yield per Plant			Correlation Coefficient
Direct Effect	Path Coefficient	%	-0,905**
	0.1194	6.9851	
Indirect Effect	Path Coefficient	%	
Plant Height	0.0194	1.1349	
Branch Number	0.0004	0.0248	
Capit. Number	0.0970	5.6736	
Capitulum Yield	0.0535	3.1332	
Thsnd. Ke.We.	0.1991	11.6473	
Hull Content	-0.0982	5.7486	
Oil Content	-1.1220	65.6524	

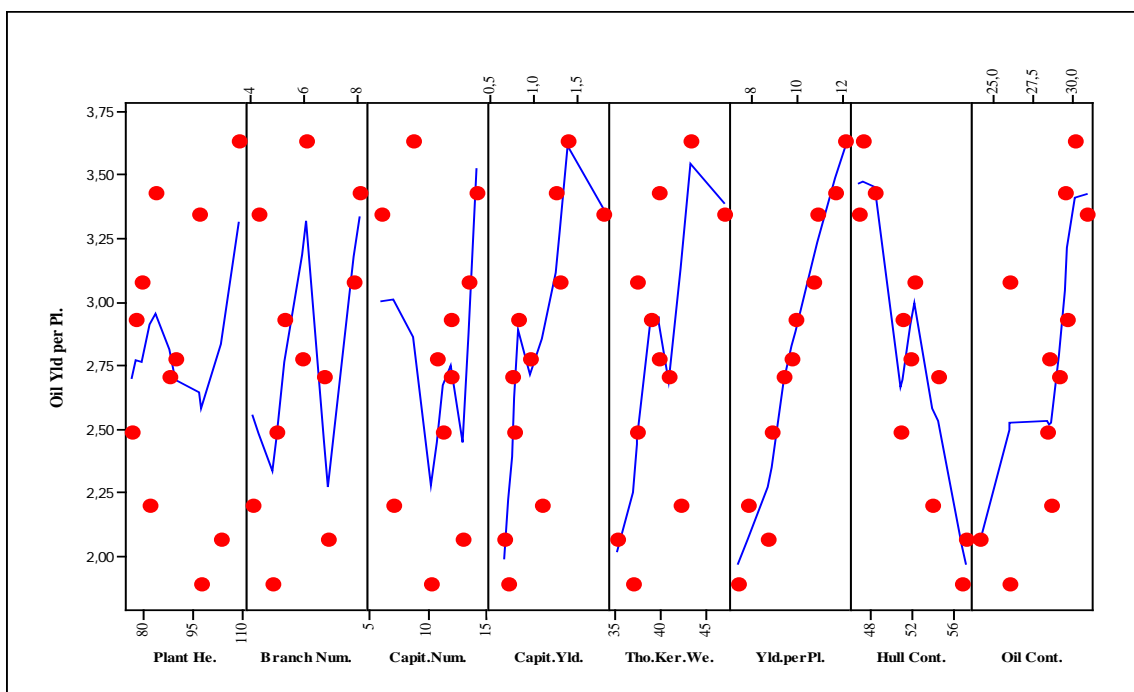


Figure 1 : Relationship between oil yield per plant and yield components in safflower (*Carthamus tinctorus* L.)

Table 4 : The regression coefficient (b), standard error (SE), T-value and probability of the characters in estimation of oil yield per plant in safflower (*Carthamus tinctorus* L.)

Source	Deg. of Freedom	M.S.	F _{auve}
Regression	8	0.414	80.97**
Error _{Resudial}	2	0.005	
Total	10		

R²: 95,8%

Traits	D.F.	Coef. of Regr.(B)	Std. Error (S _E)	T	P value
Plant Height	1	-0.0061	0.0036	-1.69	0.233ns
Branch Number	1	0.0054	0.0877	0.06	0.956ns
Capitulum Number	1	-0.0047	0.0633	-0.75	0.529ns
Capitulum Yield	1	0.1670	0.1673	2.57	0.042*

Thsnd Kernel Weight	1	-0.0182	0.0480	-0.38	0.740ns
Yield per Plant	1	0.3999	0.0874	4.57	0.017*
Hull Content	1	0.0309	0.0350	0.88	0.470ns
Oil Content	1	0.059	0.0472	1.27	0.333ns

$$\text{Oil yield per Plant } (\hat{Y}) = -2.71 - 0.00615 \text{ Plant Height} + 0.0055 \text{ Branch Number} - 0.0478 \text{ Capitalism Number} + 0.068 \text{ Capitalism Yield} - 0.0183 \text{ Thousand Kernel Weight} + 0.400 \text{ Yield per Plant} + 0.0309 \text{ Hull Content} + 0.0598 \text{ Oil Content}$$

* And **: r is significant at 5% and 1%, ns: not significant

Table 5 : Coefficient of determination (R² and Adjusted R²), measure of goodness of prediction (Mallows') and estimating the best characters by the best subsets regression analysis in safflower (*Carthamus tinctorius* L.)

Vars	R ²	Mallows Cp	Plant Height	Branch Number	Capit. Number	Capit. Yield	Thousand Ker. We.	Yield per Plant	Hull Content	Oil Content
1	95,2	24,1						X		
1	82,0	110,1							X	X
2	99,1	1,1					X	X		
2	97,9	8,5						X		
3	99,2	2,0					X	X		
3	99,2	2,0	X			X		X		X
4	99,5	2,0	X		X			X		X
4	99,5	2,3	X				X	X		X
5	99,7	3,2	X			X	X	X	X	X
5	99,6	99,1	X	X	X	X	X	X		X
6	99,7	99,2	X		X	X	X	X	X	X
6	99,7	99,2	X	X	X	X		X	X	X
7	99,7	99,0	X		X	X	X	X	X	X
7	99,7	98,9	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
8	99,7	98,5		X	X	X	X	X	X	X

Table 6 : Eigen value of the correlation matrix for the characters in safflower (*Carthamus tinctorius* L.) by the principal component analysis

	PC ₁	PC ₂	PC ₃	PC ₄	PC ₅	PC ₆	PC ₇	PC ₈	PC ₉
Plant He.	0,033	0,323	0,908	-0,067	-0,060	-0,375	-0,061	-0,009	-0,082
Branch Num.	-0,036	-0,407	0,162	0,374	-0,302	0,244	-0,397	-0,394	0,006
Capit.Num.	-0,197	-0,358	-0,133	-0,092	-0,188	-0,453	0,002	0,595	-0,168
Capit.Yield	0,411	-0,010	-0,153	0,647	0,332	-0,518	0,044	-0,090	0,025
Thd. Ke.We.	0,391	0,269	0,086	0,353	-0,379	0,358	-0,149	0,582	-0,098
Yld per Pl.	0,358	0,463	0,191	-0,149	0,142	0,169	0,294	0,173	0,718
Hull Cont.	-0,354	0,096	0,060	0,417	-0,392	-0,014	0,669	-0,067	0,156
Oil Content	0,403	0,116	-0,234	-0,301	-0,664	-0,357	-0,010	-0,297	0,149
Eigenbalue	4,8404	2,4400	1,1437	0,2619	0,1889	0,0928	0,0232	0,0078	0,0013
Proportion	0,538	0,271	0,127	0,029	0,021	0,010	0,003	0,001	0,000
Cumulative	0,538	0,809	0,936	0,965	0,986	0,996	0,999	1,000	1,00

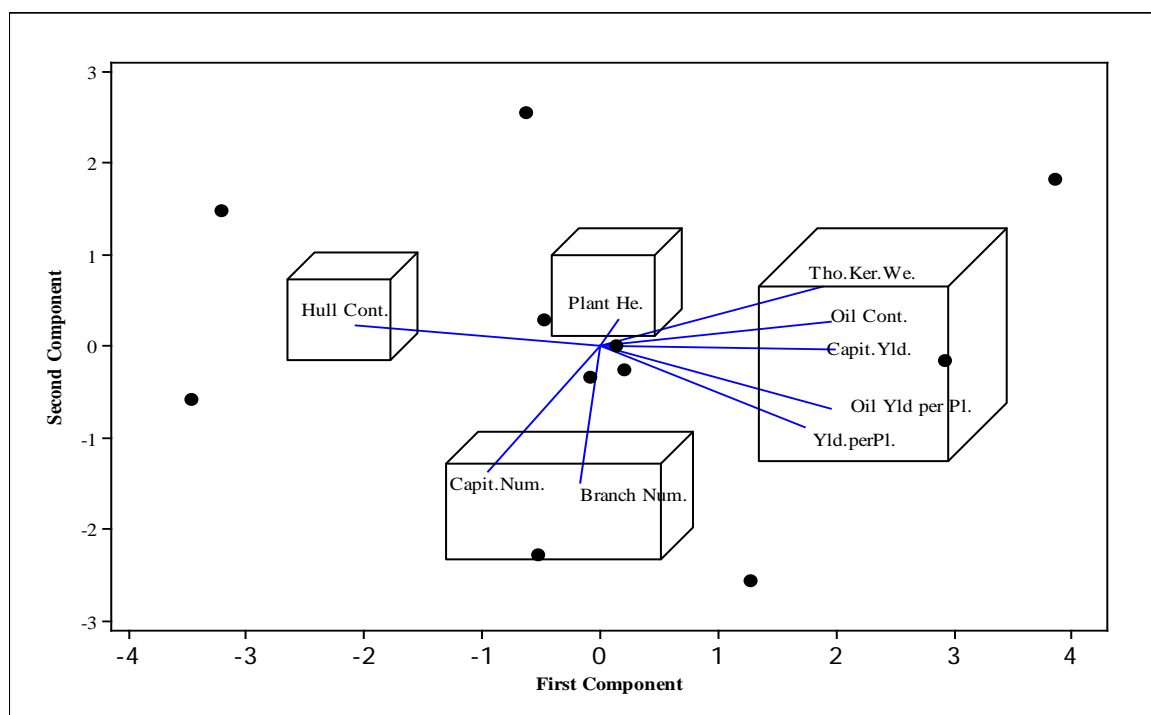


Figure 2: Biplot analyses of safflower (*Carthamus tinctorius* L.)

Table 7: Relationships of characters in safflower (*Carthamus tinctorius* L.) by the factor analysis

Characters	Factor I	Factor II	Factor III	Communality
Plant Height	0,024	0,106	0,993	0,58
Branch Number	0,205	0,301	0,060	0,65
Capitulum Number	-0,094	-0,239	-0,220	0,87
Capitulum Yield	0,726	0,217	0,456	0,77
Thousand Kernel Weight	0,543	0,569	0,158	0,79
Yield per Plant	0,935	0,287	0,651	0,88
Hull Content	-0,253	-0,199	0,056	0,62
Oil Content	0,674	0,389	-0,156	0,74
Latent Root	2,760	1,431	1,998	6,789
Factor Variance (%)	45,00	27,30	12,60	84,90
Characters	Loading	% Total Community	Suggested Factor	
Factor I		45,00	Yield per Plant	
Branch Number	0,205			
Capitulum Yield	0,726			
Thousand Kernel Weight	0,543			
Yield per Plant	0,935			
Hull Content	0,246			
Factor II		27,30	Thousand Kernel Weight	
Branch Number	0,301			
Thousand Kernel Weight	0,569			
Yield per Plant	0,287			
Oil Content	0,389			
Factor III		12,60	Plant Height	
Plant Height	0,993			
Yield per Plant	0,651			

Table 8 : Similarity and distance level of characters

Step	Clusters (No.)	Similarity Level	Distance Level
1	8	98,788	0,024
2	7	91,325	0,173
3	6	91,082	0,178
4	5	88,728	0,225
5	4	88,336	0,701
6	3	74,420	0,712
7	2	63,661	0,727
8	1	60,894	0,782

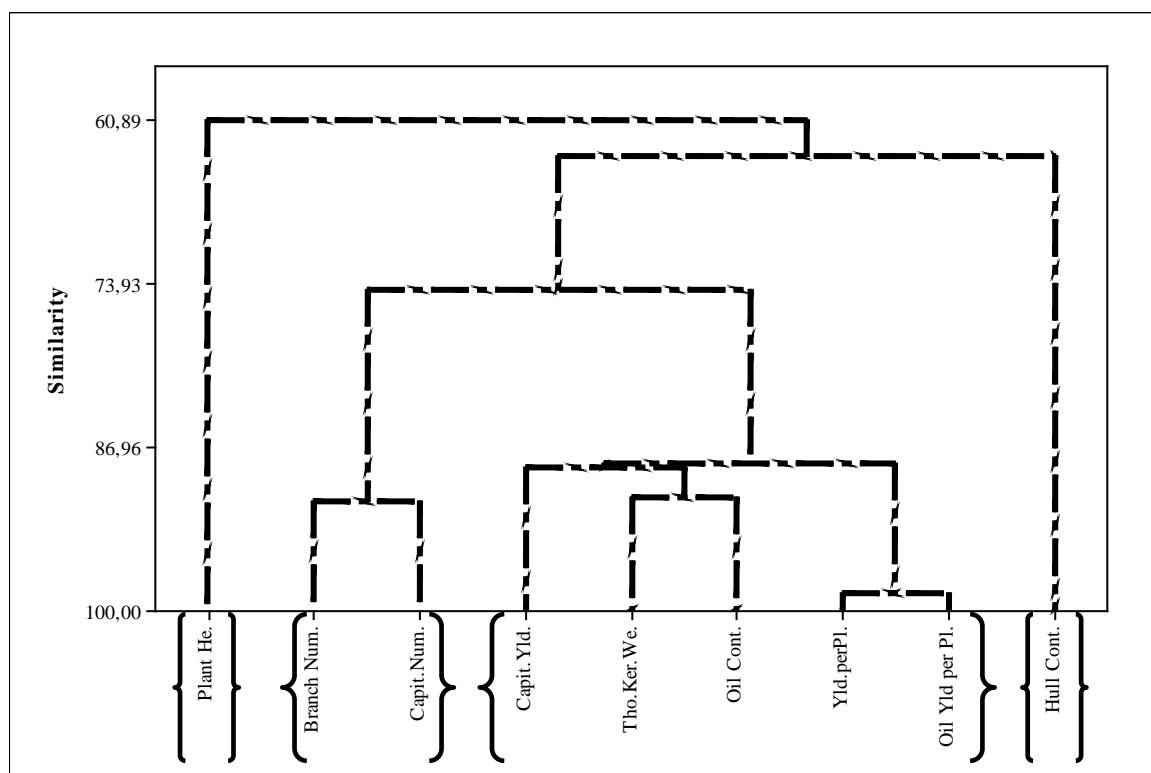


Figure 3 : Similarity levels of the variables

Table 9 : Essential variables effective on grain yield in safflower (*Carthamus tinctorius* L.)

	1	2	3	4	5	6
Plant Height			⊙		⊙	
Branch Number						
Capitulum Number	⊙					
Capitulum Yield	⊙	⊙		⊙	⊙	⊙
Thsnd Kernel Weight	⊙		⊙	⊙	⊙	⊙
Yield per Plant	⊙	⊙	⊙	⊙	⊙	⊙
Hull Content	⊙				⊙	
Oil Content				⊙	⊙	⊙

1: Correlation and path analysis, 2: multiple linear regression, 3: Factor Analysis, 4: Principal component analysis 5. Best subsets regression, 6: Cluster analysis.



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Keywords : *agronomic and quality traits, bread wheat, cluster analysis, correlation, SDS-PAGE method.*

GJSFR-D Classification : *FOR Code: 820507*



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Determination of Genetic Diversity in Bread Wheat (*T.Aestivum* L.) by Agronomic and Quality Traits and SDS-PAGE Method

Murat Olgun ^α, Imren Kutlu ^σ, N. Gözde Ayter ^ρ, Özcan Yorgancılar ^ω & Zekiye Başçiftçi [¥]

Abstract - The aim of this study was examine genetic diversities in bread wheat based on Agronomic and Quality Traits and SDS-PAGE Method. Bread wheat genotypes are Prostor, Eser, Daphan, Kinacı 97, Bağcı 2002, Tosunbey, Karahan 99, Katea 1, Nenehatun, Lancer, Karasu 90, Alparslan, Palandöken 97, Konya 2002 and Doğu 88 were used. Results revealed that Prostor wheat genotype differed from the other genotypes in three traits (gliadin subunits, agronomic and quality traits); Eser, Tosunbey and Kinacı 97 genotypes showed similarities in agronomic traits and gliadin subunits. Some genotypes presented similarities in each analysis and these similarities in terms of genotypes was different for each traits. Determination of genetic characteristic of genotypes in breeding programs provides genotype classification, genetic purity, similarities and dissimilarities early material selection. Gliadin pattern of wheat genotypes are free from environment, they are easy and forceful method in evaluation of genetic materials, breeding programs, pure seed productions in hexaploid wheat.

Keywords : agronomic and quality traits, bread wheat, cluster analysis, correlation, SDS-PAGE method.

I. INTRODUCTION

Wheat is the cultivated crop in the world. With the purpose of meet the increasing demand of food in tremendously increasing human population, aim in breeding programs is to develop high yielding cultivars possessing high quality, resistant to cold, drought and heat stress (Blum, 1988; Wilson, 1984). Success to overcome these troubles is not sufficient, sustainability in these properties of is also important, a number of studies have been made to increase for this purpose (Metakovsky and Branlard, 1998). Success in breeding programs is closely related to opulence in number of breeding materials affecting released cultivars. Reductions in the number of germplasm materials by using limited number of parents in breeding programs and diminish variation in new characters. Besides, keeping genetic purity in cultivars, in other words sustaining production pure seed production will create opportunity to address different market's demands, consequently, classification certain

physiological, physiological and quality traits vital (Akcura, 2006). Certain traits have been used to classify wheat genotypes such as physiological and quality traits and gliadin subunits (Weegels et al., 1996; Metakovsky et al., 1997; Metakovsky and Branlard, 1998; Ojaghi and Akhundova, 2010). Combinations for each trait create opportunity to distinguish genotypes each other (Ojaghi and Akhundova, 2010). Orth et al. (1996) stressed that many of physical and chemical tests could make the assessment of wheat genotypes for quality and these measurements strongly depend upon physical and chemical composition of wheat seed. Once physiological, physiological and quality traits are under genotype x environment interactions and a trait could be showed variations in different year or locations (Nevo et al., 1988). But gliadin sequence for each genotype is not affected by environment to identify genotypes (Zillman and Bushuk, 1979). Gliadins are the important seed proteins, evaluating and identifying genetic differences of genotypes could be safely made by them (Bushuk and Zillman 1978; Nevo and Payne 1987; Pfluger et al.2001). Reductions in the number of germplasm materials by using limited number of parents in breeding programs and diminish variation in new characters (Porceddu et al., 1988). Even tough morphometric characters (yield, yield components ect.) have been intensively used studies related to genetically diversity headed for protein bands such as gliadins (Metakovsky and Branlard, 1988). Gliadin (dissolved in etile alcohol, 70%) important part of wheat protein having high level of proline its named as prolamine (Zillman and Bushuk 1979). Gliadins as monomeric proteins could be classified to ω , γ , β , α groups (Jones et al.,1959). Most gliadin genes placed at first (Gli-1) and sixth (Gli-2) homology groups (Payne, 1987) and Gli-4 and Gli-5 groups in short arm of D chromosome (Rodrigve and Carrillo, 1996). Quality and agronomic traits have been commonly used in breeding programs, but determining quality and agronomic traits in genotypes needs long-term measurements to reach reliable results, since they are widely affected from environmental conditions (Metakovsky and Branlard, 1998; Ojaghi and Akhundova, 2010). Gliadin pattern of wheat genotypes are free from environment, they are easy and forceful method in evaluation of genetic materials, breeding programs, pure seed productions in hexaploid wheat.

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The aim of this study was to reveal genetic diversity by examining agronomic and quality traits, and gliadin patterns in bread wheat.

II. MATERIALS AND METHODS

Study was conducted in experimental station Osmangazi University Agricultural Faculty during 2009-2010 seasons. Long-term annual precipitation in Eskişehir province is 411.1 mm. Precipitation was 286.9 mm in 2009-2010 and 384.0 mm in 2010-2011 growing seasons. The soil had loamy-clay texture; 2.85 dS/m electrical conductivity, 7.21 pH (H₂O), 0.38% CaCO₃, 42,24 kg P₂O₅/ha available phosphorus, 3342 kg K₂O ha⁻¹ and 1.70% organic matter. In the study, ammonium sulphate (21%N) and triple super phosphate (46%) were used as fertilizers. Experimental design was randomised completed block design with three replication. Plot size was 6 m x 1.2 m (7.2m²). Seed were sown in 15 October and seed rate was 500 seed/m². 60 kg N/ ha (½ at sowing stage and ½ at tillering stage) and 60 kg P₂O₅/ha (at sowing) were applied. Wheat was sown in 1-15 September at the rate of 475 seed/m². Plot size was 6 m x 1.2 m (7.2m²) at sowing. No K fertilization was made. Plots received (2000 cc/ha) applications of 2,4-D ester [(2,4-dichlorophenoxy)acetic acid] in early spring to control winter annual broadleaf weeds. Plot size at harvest for determining grain yield was 0.80 m x 5 m (5.0

m²). Plots were harvested in 15th of July in 2009-2010 and 14th of July in 2010-2011. Bread wheat genotypes are Prostor, Eser, Daphan, Kinacı 97, Bağcı 2002, Tosunbey, Karahan 99, Katea 1, Nenehatun, Lancer, Karasu 90, Alparslan, Palandöken 97, Konya 2002 and Doğu 88 were used. Pedigree of wheat genotypes are given in Table 1. Agronomic characters; seed yield and plant height, seed number/spike, seed weight/spike, spikelet number, harvest index and 1000 grain weight (Slafer and Miralles, 1992) were evaluated. Quality characters; protein and gluten contents (Poehlman, 1987), zeleny sedimentation (Zeleny, 1947), farinograph, water absorption (Lehmensiek et al., 2006), alveograph, W_{energy} (Bettge et al., 1989), test weight (Sade et al., 1999), 1000 seed weight (Uluöz 1965) and PSI (Hruskova and Svec, 2009) were evaluated. Cluster analyses were made by MINITAB 16 Pocket Program. For gliadin subunits, sodium dodecylsulfate polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE) analysis was used. Gliadin proteins were performed on vertical slab (Rashed et al., 2007). Relative mobility measures were used to evaluate gliadin band models. Relative motilities of bands were measured by formula (Keskin et al., 1996).

$$Rm = \frac{\text{distance of bands measured from origin}}{\text{distance of reference band from origin}} \times 45,5$$

Table 1 : Pedigree of wheat genotypes

GENOTYPE	PEDIGREE	Releas. Year
Prostor	Russalka imp./Nadadores63	1999
Eser	AGRI/NAC//LIRA	2003
Daphan	JUP/4/CLLF/3/II4.53/ODIN//CI14431/WA00477	2002
Kinacı 97	YAMHILL/TOBARI-66//MCDERMID/3/LIRA	1997
Bağcı 2002	HN7/OROFEN//BJN8/3/SERI82/4/74CB462/TAPPER/VONA	2002
Tosunbey	EÇVD-12/KRÇ-66//CROW"S"	2004
Karahan 99	C-126-15/COLLAFEN/3/NORIN-10-BREVOR/P-14//PULLMAN-101/4/KIRAÇ-66	1999
Kate a 1	Hebros/Bez-1	1998
Nenehatun	ND//P101/BLUEBOY SWM584	2001
Lancer	TK/CNO//NE-451406	1977
Karasu 90	LOM11/B12973//MİR264	1990
Alparslan	TX69A509-2//BBY2/FOX	2001
Palandöken 97	AU//YT54*2/N10B/3/II8260/5/PNC/CM//NB6977/3/CC/INIA//BB/4/MXP//KR/FUNO	1997
Konya 2002	KANRED/TENMARG//P211-6/3/2183/CO652643/LANCER	2002
Doğu 88	Bez/Dane//CO725052	1990

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Genotypic/phenotypic diversity or classification in bread wheat genotypes are successfully made by using physiological, quality traits and gliadin subunits (Clarke et al., 1991; Yang et al., 1991; Metaovsky et al., 1990; Vaquero et al., 1990). Although physiological and quality traits are substantially connected to the environmental conditions, gliadin subunits are not

affected by environmental conditions (Zillman and Bushluk, 1979; Metakovsky and Branlard, 1998). Maximum, minimum values and means in agronomic and quality traits and relative mobility of gliadin subunits, are given Table 2. Introduction and selection are milestones in wheat breeding. To obtain information about genotypes are commonly revealing characteristics of genotypes by agronomic and quality and electrophoresis methods including protein analysis

(Soizow and Poperelya, 1980; Metakovsky and Branlard, 1998). Once gliadin structure remains unchanged through generations, agronomic and quality traits are under genotype x environment interactions, and electrophoresis is therefore safe method to describe protein characteristics of genotypes (Bushuk and Zillman, 1978; Metakovsky and Branlard, 1998). Table 1 sows that relative mobility of gliadin subunits were varied from 20,33 to 76,47 (20,33-25,29 in ω 44,33-49,49,08 in γ , 54,33-62,35 in β and 71,00-76,47 in α). Depending upon increasing mobility, gliadin protein fractions are grouped in four main groups ω , γ , β , α gliadin subunits (Bietz and Wall, 1973; Kharebian et al., 2008). Gepts (1990) stressed that genotypes can be successfully grouped or evaluated according to relative mobility of different gliadin groups.

Researchers stated that gliadin structures (Nevo and Payne, 1987; Bushuk and Zillman, 1978), agronomic and quality traits of genotypes are differed (Lee and Ronalds, 1967; Wrigley, 1970). Whole three traits could safely be used in genotype classification (Metakovsky and Branlard, 1998; Ojaghi and Akhundova, 2010), but the safest method is gliadin electrophoresis method (Zillman and Bushuk, 1979). A number of researches demonstrated the relationship of gliadin polymorphism with genetic diversity (Nevo and Payne, 1987). In our study each gliadin band fractions are evaluated in subgroups, ω , γ , β and α and are shown in Figure 1.

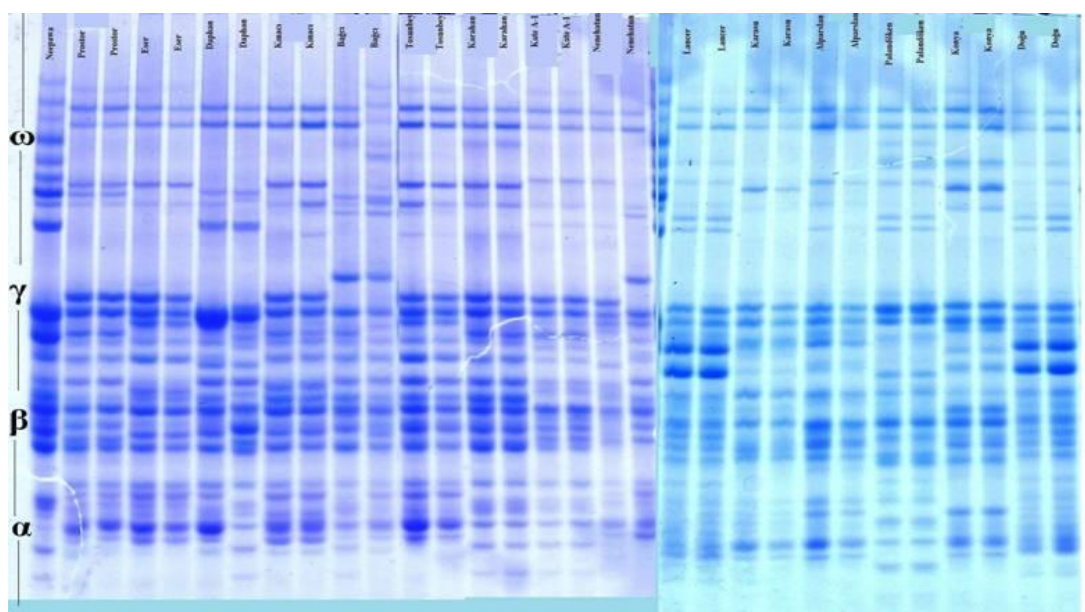


Figure 1 : Gliadin band subunits, ω , γ , β and α in bread wheat genotypes

Table 2 : Maximum, minimum values and means in agronomic and quality traits and relative mobility of gliadin subunits in bread wheat genotypes

Traits	Minimum	Maximum	Mean
Rm of Gliadin subunits			
ω	20,33	25,29	22,87±1,60
γ	44,33	49,08	46,19±1,96
β	54,33	62,35	63,38±1,40
α	71,00	76,47	73,45±1,59
Agronomic Traits			
Plant Height	85,40	142,47	109,12±14,83
Spike Heigh	7,73	11,35	9,61±1,02
Spikelet Number	14,40	18,67	16,38±1,27
Seed Number per Spike	28,47	57,87	38,92±8,36
Seed Weight per Spike	1,23	2,23	1,73±0,30
Harvest Index	42,34	56,67	25,08±7,21
Grain Yield	218,11	582,67	362,30±100,13

Quality Traits			
PSI	54,34	75,33	67,99±6,31
Thousand Seed Weight	38,02	55,04	44,94±5,38
Test Weight	72,49	79,28	76,88±1,65
Protein Content	10,81	13,36	12,17±0,62
Zeleny Sedimentation	27,66	43,80	35,23±4,96
Alveograph W _{Energy}	96,01	263,42	161,72±44,25
Farihograph Water Absorbtion	53,40	62,70	57,37±2,63
Gluten Content	23,00	38,00	28,00±3,87

We found notable polymorphisms among bread wheat genotypes on ω , γ , β and α gliadin subunits where γ and β have the heaviest molecular weights in Figure 1. Spectrum and density of molecular changed among ω , γ , β and α gliadin subunits in genotypes (Bietz and Wall, 1973; Nevo and Payne, 1987; Keskin et al., 1999). Kharabian et al. (2008) focused that ω has heaviest molecular weights. In our study, heavier molecular weights on γ , β gliadin subunits in Eser, Daphan, Kinacı 97, Tosunbey and Karahan 99 were found than that of the other genotypes. Moreover, differences in gliadin subunits assign differences of wheat genotypes, and ω , γ , β and α gliadin subunits are mostly located in Gli-A₁ and Gli-B₁ locus (Lafiandra and Kasarda, 1985; Kharabian et al., 2008), new gliadin genes in Gli-D₄ Gli-D₅ (Rodriquez and Carrillo, 1996). Rashed et al. (2007) focused that ω region were so rich in the number of bands. The dendogram tree showed the similarity index of wheat cultivars detected by Rm of gliadin pattern (Figure 2).

The dendogram divided wheat genotypes in seven clusters. Prostor, Konya 2002, Palandöken 97 and Karasu 90 placed in separate groups. Once Eser, Tosunbey, Karahan 99, Kinacı 97 and Daphan genotypes placed one group; Lancer, Alparslan, Doğu88 and Bağcı 2002 another group. Nevertheless,

Katea 1 and Nenehatun genotypes showed similar characteristics and placed same group (Figure 2). Gepts (1990) stressed that genotypes can be successfully grouped or evaluated according to relative mobility of different gliadin groups. According to Tanaka et al. (2003) wheat genotypes in Japan mainly different from other countries for gliadin pattern. Being main protein fragment in storage proteins, gliadins are important for bread making quality in hexaploid wheats (Kasarda et al., 1984). Nizar (2002) stated that determining gliadin pattern of wheat genotypes is safe method to classify cultivars and he successfully classified *T. durum* cultivars. Until recently, morphometric characters had been used in genetic diversities of wheat genotypes. Now, electrophoresis based techniques have been used for the determination and description of genotypes in cereals (Persson and Von Bothmer, 2000).

Genotypes segregate their own gliadin fraction; band pattern are characteristic of the genotype and aren't affected from environmental conditions (Bushuk and Zillman, 1978). Gliadin proteins having ω , γ , β , α gliadin subunits with combination of glutenins are play important role agronomic and bread making traits (Ojaghiand and Akhundova, 2010).

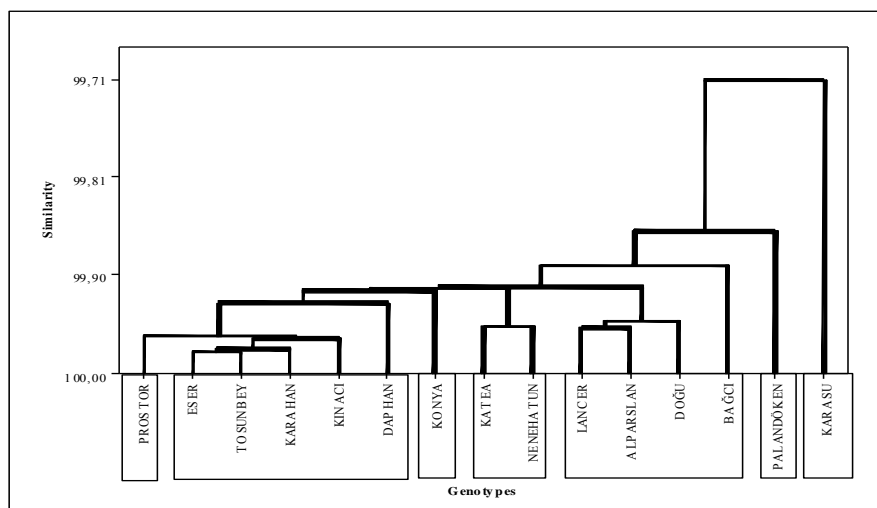


Figure 2 : Dendogram assigning genetic relationships among bread wheat genotypes for gliadin patterns

Agronomic characters are essential corner stones of breeding programs (Darwinkel et al., 1977; Genc, 1977; Poehlman, 1987). A number of yield components are used not only in breeding programs but genotype description. Monitoring such yield and yield components separately or their relationships each other lights the way for breeding programs, agronomic studies and genotype classification (Hsu and Walton, 1971; Nass, 1973; McVetty and Evans, 1980). Plant and spike heights, spikelet and seed numbers per spike, seed weight per spike, harvest index and grain yield are some of the most used characters and they could be used in genotypic classification (Ojaghi and Akhundova, 2010). Similar to gliadin patterns, agronomic traits ranged 85,40-142, 47 cm in plant height, 7,73-11,35 cm in spike height, 14,40-18,67 in spikelet number per spike, 28,47-57,87 in seed number per spike, 1,23-2,23 gr in seed weight per spike, 42,34-56,6 in harvest index and 218,11-582,67 kg/da in grain yield (Table 2). Agronomic characters are commonly are named as yield components. The dendrogram tree of agronomic traits is given in Figure 3.

Evaluated in eight were wheat genotypes (Figure 3). Prostor, Konya 2002 and Katea 1 drew their own single groups. The other wheat genotypes formed dual or multiple groups: dual groups; Nenehatun and Doğu 88, Karasu 90 and Karahan 99, Alparslan and Lancer wheat genotypes; multiple group; Eser, Tosunbey, Daphan, Bağcı 2002 and Kınacı 97 wheat genotypes. Even though agronomic traits are under genotype x environment interactions, with certain approaches they are used to show genotypic differences (Metakovsky and Branlard, 1998; Ojaghi and Akhundova, 2010). Similar to our findings, Nenehatun, Doğu 88, Alparslan and Karasu 90 have similar yield

capacity and they are suggested to Eastern Anatolia climatic conditions. In the same way, Tosunbey, Eser, Kınacı 97 and Bağcı 2002 were developed for Central Anatolia climatic conditions.

The aim of bread wheat breeding programs is to develop high yielding and high-quality wheat cultivars. To achieve this aim, in addition of yield potential, wheat genotypes are evaluated for high quality such as for protein content, zeleny sedimentation, energy value such as alveograph W_{energy} , water absorption and test weight (Dexter et al. 1981; Atlı 1999; Akcacak, 2006). Genotypes having higher values in protein content, zeleny sedimentation, alveograph W_{energy} , farinograph water absorption and test weight will be promising genotypes in breeding programs (Arat, 1949., Seçkin, 1970., Ünal, 1991., Atlı, 1999). The dendrogram tree of quality traits is given in Figure 4.

Genotypes could be divided into nine groups (Figure 4). Prostor, Daphan, Konya 2002, Bağcı 2002 and Eser wheat genotypes had single groups. Nenehatun, Palandöken 97 The other wheat genotypes formed dual or multiple groups: dual groups; and Doğu 88, Karasu 90 and Karahan 99, Alparslan and Lancer wheat genotypes; multiple group; Eser, Tosunbey, Daphan, Bağcı 2002 and Kınacı 97 wheat genotypes. Even though agronomic traits are under genotype x environment interactions, with certain approaches they are used to show genotypic differences (Metakovsky and Branlard, 1998; Ojaghi and Akhundova, 2010). Similar to our findings, Nenehatun, Doğu 88, Alparslan and Karasu 90 have similar yield capacity and they are suggested to Eastern Anatolia climatic conditions. In the same way Tosunbey, Eser, Kınacı 97 and Bağcı 2002 were developed for Central Anatolia climatic conditions.

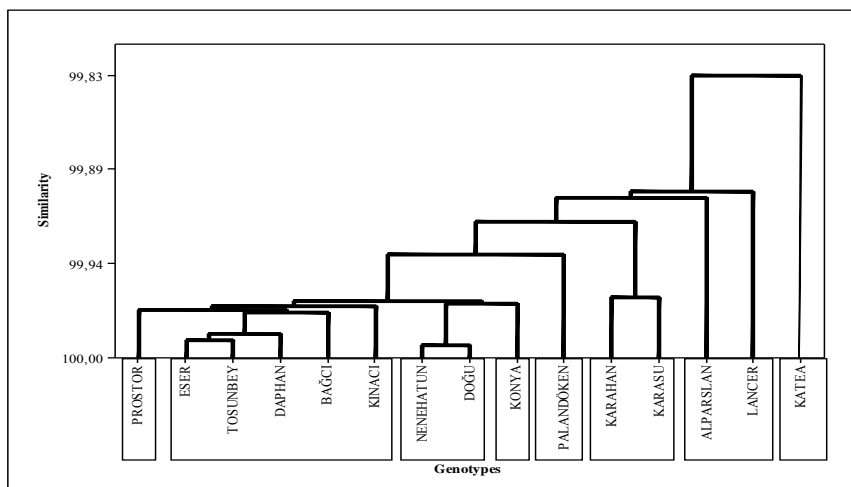


Figure 3 : Dendrogram of agronomic traits showing relationships among bread wheat genotypes

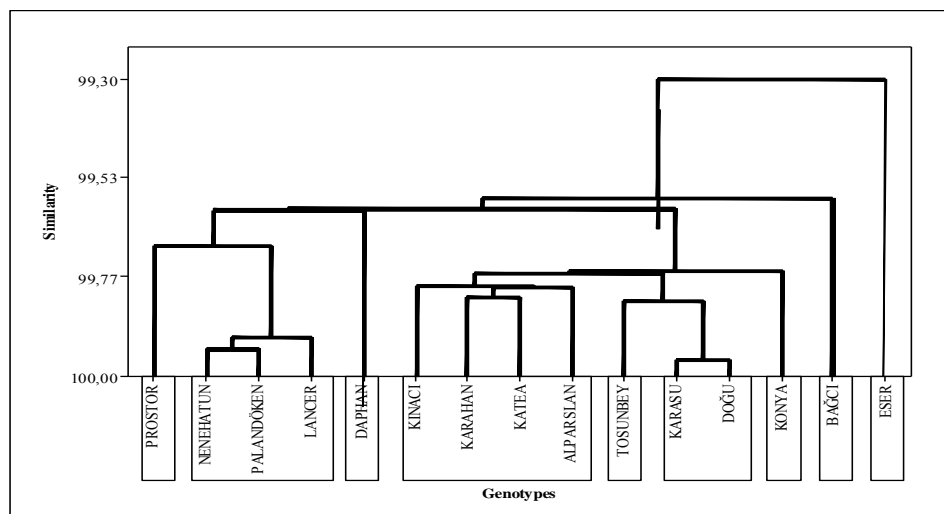


Figure 4 : Dendrogram of quality traits showing relationships among bread wheat genotypes

Table 3 shows joint analysis of wheat genotypes for gliadin subunits, agronomic and quality traits. Prostor wheat genotype differed from the other genotypes in three traits (gliadin subunits, agronomic and quality traits); Eser, Tosunbey and Kinacı 97 genotypes showed similarities in agronomic traits and gliadin subunits. As described earlier, some genotypes presented similarities in each analysis and these similarities in terms of genotypes was different for each trait (gliadin subunits, agronomic and quality traits).

Interesting phenomenon is that some genotypes could exhibit similarities by some traits (Eser, Tosunbey and Kinacı 97 genotypes in agronomic traits and gliadin subunits). or a genotype could significantly differ in all traits (Prostor genotype in all three traits). Studies revealed that agronomic and quality traits in wheat genotypes subject to genotype x environment interactions and this interaction differs in each genotype (Rodrigue and Carrillo, 1996; Şehirali and Özgen, 2007). Gliadin subunits stable with genotypes and don't change with changing environmental conditions (Bushuk and Zillman 1978; Rodrigue and Carrillo, 1996; Persson and Von Bothmer, 2000). Genetic diversity in genotypes can be controlled by polymeric markers and electrophoretic patterns of gliadin subunits in genotypes

are therefore very useful not only in genotype identification but in breeding programs (Nevo and Payne 1987; Metakovsky and Branlard, 1998; Pfluger et al., 2001). Studies stressed that agronomic and quality traits can be used in genotype classification (Kün, 1985; Şehirali, 2007), but both are influenced from genotype and environment conditions (Darwinkel et al., 1977; Genc, 1977; Poehlman, 1987; Gupta et al., 1993; Indrani and Venkateswara, 2000). Correlations between gliadin subunits, agronomic and quality traits are shown in Table 4. Positive and significant correlation ($P < 0.05$) was found between protein content and α gliadin pattern. Besides correlations between seed number per spike and ω gliadin pattern, seed number per spike and α gliadin pattern, seed number per spike and β gliadin pattern, seed weight per spike and ω gliadin pattern, spikelet number per spike and test weight, spikelet number per spike and thousand seed weight were determined as negative and significant ($P < 0.05$). Moreover, correlations between seed number per spike and γ gliadin pattern, seed number per spike and β gliadin pattern, seed weight per spike and ω , γ , β , α gliadin patterns, spike height and test weight were negative and significant at 1% (Table 4).

Table 3 : Joint analysis of wheat genotypes for gliadin subunits, agronomic and quality traits

Quality Traits	Prostor	Nenehatun	Palandöken 97	Lancer	Daphan	Kinacı 97	Karahan 99	Katea 1	Alparslan	Tosunbey	Karasu 90	Doğu 88	Konya 2002	Bağcı 2002	Eser
Gliadin Subunits	Prostor	Eser	Tosunbey	Karahan 99	Kinacı 97	Daphan	Konya 2002	Katea 1	Nenehatun	Lancer	Alparslan	Doğu 88	Bağcı 2002	Palandöken 97	Karasu 90
Agron. Traits	Prostor	Eser	Tosunbey	Bağcı 2002	Kinacı 97	Daphan	Nenehatun	Doğu 88	Konya 2002	Palandöken 97	Karahan 99	Karasu 90	Alparslan	Lancer	Katea 1

Table 4 : Correlations between gliadin subunits, agronomic and quality traits

	ω	γ	β	α		PSI	TeWe	ThSW	WAb
PSI	0,119	-0,010	0,185	0,308	Plant Height	-0,192	-0,194	0,154	0,297
Test Weight	0,104	0,210	-0,205	0,031	Spike Height	0,009	-0,689**	-0,246	-0,464
Thou. Seed We.	-0,049	-0,008	0,038	-0,320	Splt per Spk.	-0,071	-0,552*	-0,685*	-0,250
Protein Con	0,201	0,409	0,329	0,635*	Seed per Spk	-0,057	-0,553*	-0,177	-0,426
Zeleny Sedim.	0,128	0,178	-0,115	0,281	Seed W.per Spk	-0,093	-0,465	0,091	-0,347
Alveo. W _{en}	-0,061	0,237	-0,156	0,243	Harvest Index	-0,093	-0,189	0,392	-0,020
Farin. Water Ab	0,036	0,404	0,048	0,221	Yield	0,170	-0,219	0,439	-0,015
Gluten Index	-0,052	-0,035	-0,092	-0,105		PrCo	Sed	Wen	Gl
Plant Height	-0,025	0,357	0,497	0,265	Plant Height	0,010	0,061	-0,078	0,086
Spike Height	-0,239	-0,367	0,155	-0,069	Spike Height	-0,279	-0,195	-0,410	0,198
Splt per Spk.	-0,105	-0,240	-0,163	0,009	Splt per Spk.	-0,378	0,357	-0,134	0,177
Seed per Spk	-0,623*	-0,717**	-0,633*	-0,584*	Seed per Spk	-0,361	-0,053	-0,256	0,010
Seed W.per Spk	-0,767**	-0,853**	-0,698**	-0,663**	Seed W.per Spk	-0,378	-0,279	-0,330	-0,133
Harvest Index	0,184	-0,176	-0,284	-0,370	Harvest Index	-0,208	-0,231	-0,318	-0,315
Yield	0,219	0,330	0,322	0,156	Yield	0,142	-0,397	-0,312	-0,330

Determinations in correlation between gliadin patterns and agronomic and quality traits are hard due to high molecular weight subunits of glutenin (Fido et al., 1997). Branlard and Dardevet (1985) found a negative correlation between ω gliadin and a number of quality traits. Whereas, positive correlation was found between γ gliadin subunit and gluten quality (Rashed et al., 2007). Significant positive effects of gliadin isoforms were found on agronomic traits and environmental adaptation (Metakosky and Branlard, 1998). Metakovsky and Branlard (1998) stated that genetic diversity in genotypes can be controlled by polymeric markers and electrophoretic patterns of gliadin subunits in genotypes. Determination of gliadin subunits is therefore very useful not only in genotype identification but in breeding programs (Bushuk and Zillman 1978; Persson and Von Bothmer, 2000).

So, quality and agronomic traits, and gliadin electrophoretic profiles revealed that comprehensive diversity occurs among genotypes. Determination of quality and agronomic traits in genotypes needs long-term measurements to reach reliable results and they are widely affected from environmental conditions (Vaquero et al., 1990; Metakovsky and Branlard, 1998; Ojaghi and Akhundova, 2010). Gliadin pattern of wheat genotypes are free from environment, they are easy and forceful method in evaluation of genetic materials, breeding programs, pure seed productions in hexaploid wheat. It is well known that yield is controlled polygenic activities and it is difficult to increase directly, however certain traits are significantly correlated with yield. Assigning and monitoring traits could help to increase yield and quality.

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Nitrogen Management in Banana (*Musa Paradisica* L.) Cv. Basrai through Drip under Paired Row System

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Abstract - A field experiment was conducted under south Gujarat conditions at Fruit Research Station, Navsari Agricultural University, Gandevi, Dist. Navsari. The treatments comprised of three levels of nitrogen *viz.*, 100, 150 and 200 g per plant and three methods of application *viz.*, 100, 75 and 50 per cent through drip and rest as soil application. In control, recommended dose of 200-90-200 g NPK per plant was applied fully in soil. The phosphorus (90 g plant⁻¹) along with 5 kg FYM per plant were applied at the time of planting, while potassium (200 g plant⁻¹) was applied in three equal splits as soil application at monthly interval from third month onward. The experiment thus included ten treatments, which were replicated four times. The trial was laid out in randomized block design. The banana was planted at 1.0m x 1.2 m x 2.0 m spacing with pair row method (6250 plants ha⁻¹). In the drip system, daily irrigation at 0.75 pan evaporation rate was followed; while in control plot, surface irrigation was given at 12-15 days interval in winter season and at 8-10 days interval in summer.

Keywords : *banana, nitrogen, fertigation, yield, economics.*

GJSFR-D Classification : *FOR Code: 079999, 670104*



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Nitrogen Management in Banana (*Musa Paradisica* L.) Cv. Basrai through Drip under Paired Row System

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Abstract - A field experiment was conducted under south Gujarat conditions at Fruit Research Station, Navsari Agricultural University, Gandevi, Dist. Navsari. The treatments comprised of three levels of nitrogen viz., 100, 150 and 200 g per plant and three methods of application viz., 100, 75 and 50 per cent through drip and rest as soil application. In control, recommended dose of 200-90-200 g NPK per plant was applied fully in soil. The phosphorus (90 g plant⁻¹) along with 5 kg FYM per plant were applied at the time of planting, while potassium (200 g plant⁻¹) was applied in three equal splits as soil application at monthly interval from third month onward. The experiment thus included ten treatments, which were replicated four times. The trial was laid out in randomized block design. The banana was planted at 1.0m x 1.2 m x 2.0 m spacing with pair row method (6250 plants ha⁻¹). In the drip system, daily irrigation at 0.75 pan evaporation rate was followed; while in control plot, surface irrigation was given at 12-15 days interval in winter season and at 8-10 days interval in summer.

Results revealed that the banana plants fertilized with different doses of nitrogen through drip as well as soil application in three different methods were significantly affected on vegetative growth, quality and yield of banana under pair row method of planting. The maximum (103.44 cm) plant height and circumference (43.93 cm) of the pseudostem were registered in the treatment of 150 g N per plant applied through drip only. The number of leaves and leaf area were not influenced by various levels of nitrogen. Early flowering and early maturity were noticed in treatment of 150 g N per plant applied through drip only, while the plants treated with lower and higher levels of nitrogen showed late flowering and late maturity.

Yield and yield attributing characters like bunch length (60.05 cm), number of hands per bunch (8.97), number of fingers per bunch (147.41) and bunch weight (19.60 kg plant⁻¹) were significantly higher in above treatments. Significantly the treatment of 150 g N per plant applied through drip gave highest (122.52 t ha⁻¹) banana fruit yield and net return (Rs. 390167 ha⁻¹) with computing higher (1: 14.78) cost benefit ratio among all the treatments during study.

Keywords : banana, nitrogen, fertigation, yield, economics.

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I. INTRODUCTION

One of the major hurdles in development of Indian agriculture is low fertilizer consumption and low fertilizer use efficiency. Day by day prices of fertilizers are kissing to the sky. So in today's perspective, it is essential, especially in crops like banana which are the heavy feeder of nutrients that we study and suggest to the farmers the most efficient method of fertilizer application with its efficient form and splitting to get maximum fertilizer use efficiency and net profit. In recent years, liquid fertilizers are used as a strong alternative to solid fertilizers. The major advantage of liquid fertilizers is that, they are completely soluble in water and can be applied through drip system with an ease, without any harm and in number of splits. The second strong point goes in favour of liquid fertilizer is that they contain major essential nutrients in readily available form. It ultimately increases the FUE by increasing the nutrient uptake and minimizing the losses. Therefore in recent years task before agricultural scientists is that, while suggesting drip method of irrigation to farmer, side by side they also should suggest proper planting technique, which will help in minimizing the system cost and allow mechanization of farming.

Banana and plantain to be the fourth most important global feed commodity after rice, wheat and milk in terms of the gross value of production, are of great socio-economic significance in India. Banana belongs to Musaceae family, its botanical name is *Musa paradisiaca* L. Banana ranks first in production and second in area among the fruits grown in India. Banana is a tropical mesophyte plant and requires an ample and frequent supply of water. Many previous workers have reported that water deficiency adversely affects the crop growth and yield (Samson, 1980 and Young *et al.*, 1985). Shmeuli (1953) quoted that 66 per cent soil available water as a critical level, below which banana growth and development suffered.

II. MATERIALS AND METHODS

The field experiment entitled "Nitrogen management in banana (*Musa paradisiaca* L.) cv. Basrai through drip under pair row method of

planting” was conducted at the Fruit Research Station, Navsari Agricultural University, Gandevi (south Gujarat). The research station belongs to agro-climatic zone-I and agro-ecological situation-III. The experiment was laid out in a Randomized Block Design with ten treatments replicated four times. The treatments comprised of three levels of nitrogen 1/2, 100, 150 and 200 g per plant. These levels of nitrogen were applied in three methods 1/2, 100, 75 and 50 per cent through drip and the rest of nitrogen was applied in soil along with phosphorus and potassium as per recommended schedule. In control (T₁₀), total recommended dose 200-90-200 g NPK plant⁻¹ was applied in soil.

T ₁	100 g N through drip
T ₂	75 g N through drip + 25 g N as soil application
T ₃	50 g N through drip + 50 g N as soil application
T ₄	150 g N through drip
T ₅	112.5 g N through drip + 37.5 g N as soil application
T ₆	75 g N through drip + 75 g N as soil application
T ₇	200 g N through drip
T ₈	150 g N through drip + 50 g N as soil application
T ₉	100 g N through drip + 100 g N as soil application
T ₁₀	Control (Recommended 200 g N as soil application)

This experiment was framed out with a view to determine the optimum dose of nitrogen for banana under drip irrigation system, to obtain higher yield of better quality fruits by adopting pair row method of planting and to workout ultimate economics for saving water and fertilizers and its adaptability. Two years' pooled results of the experiment are summarized here.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The vegetative growth of banana plants like plant height and stem girth were significantly influenced while number of leaves and leaf area were not altered by the various levels of nitrogen applied through drip as well as in soil application (Table -1). The result indicates that the height and stem girth increased with the increase levels of nitrogen. The treatment of 150 g nitrogen per plant applied 100 per cent through drip recorded the highest plant height and stem girth while the lowest value were recorded

under treatment 200 g N per plant totally applied in soil up to 180 days after planting (DAP) during study period. It was observed that the plants treated with 100 per cent nitrogen through drip increase the height and girth of the plant, it might be due to increase in formation and elongation of meristematic tissues since nitrogen is responsible for the formation, growth and development of the cells. The nitrogen applied in soil may be lost and less available to plant after longer period as compared to drip method. Under drip system, as the moisture availability and nitrogen levels were increased, stem girth was also increased. Similar results were also reported by Hegde and Srinivas (1991).

Days to flowering and harvest were significantly affected by the application of varying doses of nitrogen applied through drip either fully or partly to banana under high density plantation. The results revealed that the early flowering and harvest were noticed in the treatment T₄ (150 g N per plant applied through drip only) which was statistically at par with all treatments containing application of different levels of nitrogen through drip except control (total recommended dose 200-90-200 g NPK plant⁻¹ was applied in soil). In the present investigation various levels of nitrogen were applied through the drip in liquid state after dissolving urea in water. The superiority of liquid fertilizers in advancing the flowering and that will leads to early harvesting over solid fertilizer in banana. The early maturity of banana obtained was in conformity with those reported by Hegde and Srinivas (1991) and Singh and Suryanarayana (1999).

Yield and yield contributing parameters were recorded the overall highest in the treatment with 150 g N per plant applied through drip during experimentation. Similar findings were observed by Srinivas (1977), while studying the effect of N, P and K fertilizers on banana cv. Basrai. Kohli *et al.* (1976) reported that the nitrogen application significantly influenced the fruit yield in all the three crops (plant crop, first ratoon and second ratoon) under closer spacing. Though the treatment T₄ (150 g N per plant) recorded the higher bunch length (60.06 cm) and bunch girth (106.43 cm), however the difference was non-significant. The highest (9.09) numbers of hands per bunch were recorded in the treatment T₇ where 200 g N per plant was applied through drip only. It was at par with T₄ (150 g N per plant). Similarly, higher numbers of fingers was also recorded in T₅ (148.24) and T₄ (147.41). The application of higher levels *i.e.* 200 g N per plant applied in soil registered lowest numbers of hands as well as number of fingers per bunch in banana cv. Basrai. Drip irrigated banana crop supplied with 50 per cent lesser quantity of fertilizer was found superior over the conventional

method as reported by previous workers Hegde and Srinivas (1991). In present investigation, the banana crop fertilized with 150 g N per plant through drip recorded significantly highest (122.52 t ha⁻¹) yield. This effect was obviously due to liquid form of nitrogen, which is in readily available form so as to increase uptake efficiency of plant. These results are in conformity with the previous work done by Arscott (1970).

IV. ECONOMICS

High density plantation in banana enabled to achieve higher yields. The trial was planted geometrically in pair row method at the spacing 1.0 m x 1.2 m x 2.0 m which accommodate 6250 plants per hectare. Further, the beneficial effect of drip irrigation was clearly reflected in yield with an application various levels of nitrogen to banana crop cv. Basrai. The nitrogen 100 per cent applied through drip proved its superiority in yield over rest of the other treatments. The treatment 150 g N per plant applied through drip only computed the highest net return Rs. 3,90,167 ha⁻¹ with highest (1:14.78) cost benefit ratio. The nitrogen applied through drip was found beneficial, 25 per cent (50 g N per plant) N and 40 per cent irrigation saved and proportionately the yield and income increased were more as compared to cost under drip with pair row method of planting. Similar finding was reported by Hegde and Srinivas (1991).

V. CONCLUSION

It is clear from the study that the treatment T₄ (150 g N per plant applied through drip only) registered the maximum plant height and stem girth. It also resulted in early flowering and early maturity. The yield attributing characters like bunch length, number of hands per bunch, number of fingers per

bunch, bunch weight per plant were also better under the same treatment. All these resulted into the production of maximum banana fruit yield (122.52 t ha⁻¹) under pair row planting method. The fruit quality parameters remained almost unaltered. Further, drip irrigation method saved 51 per cent water and 25 per cent nitrogen. Economically also it gave highest net profit (Rs. 3,90,167 ha⁻¹) with computing higher (1:14.78) cost benefit ratio during both the years of experimentation.

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Table 1 : Effect of different levels of nitrogen on growth, flowering and harvest of banana cv. Grand Nain

Treatments	Plant height (cm)		Stem girth (cm)		No. of leaves		Leaf area (sq. cm)		Days to flowering	Days to harvest
	180 DAP*	At shooting	180 DAP*	At shooting	180 DAP*	At shooting	180 DAP*	At shooting		
T ₁	99.77	165.09	40.94	67.12	15.20	24.27	0.449	0.87	358.30	455.66
T ₂	100.90	157.33	42.36	66.75	15.20	24.61	0.470	0.84	349.28	445.72
T ₃	96.16	158.22	40.71	64.98	15.30	24.37	0.433	0.85	360.83	452.72
T ₄	103.80	162.06	43.93	68.58	15.70	24.73	0.479	0.87	336.70	431.27
T ₅	100.80	164.20	42.92	68.16	15.86	24.86	0.471	0.87	353.48	449.21
T ₆	105.22	159.22	43.66	66.97	15.83	24.75	0.486	0.85	340.52	439.78
T ₇	100.08	161.50	42.60	68.36	15.37	24.86	0.452	0.87	351.05	448.78
T ₈	100.53	163.09	42.50	68.51	15.67	24.75	0.472	0.86	344.33	441.28

T ₉	100.64	159.08	41.63	66.62	15.33	24.83	0.456	0.85	350.39	452.53
T ₁₀	83.67	157.86	35.10	65.05	14.91	23.91	0.361	0.82	393.42	486.77
S.Em. ±	2.98	3.07	1.16	1.12	0.232	0.25	0.022	0.02	8.24	7.81
C.D.@5%	8.43	NS	3.27	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	26.37	24.97
C.V. %	7.89	2.48	7.78	2.75	4.25	1.95	9.21	2.91	2.68	2.16

* Days after planting

Table 2 : Effect of different levels of nitrogen on yield and yield parameters of banana cv. Grand Nain

Treatments	Bunch length (cm)	Bunch girth (cm)	No. of hands/ bunch	No. of fingers/ bunch	Bunch weight/ plant	Finger length (cm)	Finger girth (cm)	Weight of finger (g)	Days taken for ripening	Yield (t/ha)
T ₁	57.67	104.22	8.53	131.61	17.35	20.16	11.99	120.76	10.63	108.47
T ₂	55.80	98.55	8.74	135.14	16.55	18.63	11.19	112.40	9.80	103.47
T ₃	56.48	100.67	8.77	129.36	16.41	19.15	11.53	114.32	10.75	102.55
T ₄	60.05	106.43	8.97	147.41	19.60	20.29	12.10	118.78	9.58	122.52
T ₅	59.88	102.22	9.01	148.24	18.87	19.50	11.70	112.77	9.97	117.96
T ₆	58.32	100.73	8.97	139.16	17.82	19.07	11.47	114.77	9.57	111.39
T ₇	59.49	103.11	9.09	141.36	17.97	19.28	11.61	111.90	10.02	112.32
T ₈	58.97	102.23	8.91	142.85	17.33	19.54	11.75	114.46	9.43	108.34
T ₉	56.02	101.96	8.69	133.33	16.81	19.17	11.56	115.27	9.72	105.09
T ₁₀	53.96	99.03	8.10	118.95	13.90	19.18	11.82	106.14	11.12	86.87
S.Em. ±	1.07	2.57	0.13	4.95	0.76	0.63	0.27	4.57	0.35	4.77
C.D.@5%	3.18	NS	0.37	15.83	2.44	NS	NS	NS	0.99	15.27
C.V. %	4.92	2.59	4.06	6.05	8.19	2.14	1.62	4.63	9.59	8.19

Table 3 : Effect of different levels of nitrogen on economics of banana cv. Grand Nain

Treatments	Expenditure on fertilizers (Rs.)	Yield (t ha ⁻¹)	Gross income (Rs. ha ⁻¹)	Net profit (Rs. ha ⁻¹)	Cost benefit ratio (CBR)
T ₁	23884	108.47	368798	344914	1:14.44
T ₂	23884	103.17	351798	327914	1:13.73
T ₃	23884	102.55	348670	324786	1:13.60
T ₄	26401	122.52	416568	390167	1:14.78
T ₅	26401	117.96	401064	374663	1:14.19
T ₆	26401	111.39	378726	352325	1:13.35
T ₇	28919	112.32	381888	352969	1:12.21
T ₈	28919	108.34	368356	339437	1:11.74
T ₉	28919	105.09	357306	328387	1:11.36
T ₁₀	28919	86.87	295358	266439	1:9.21

* Price of urea, SSP and MOP were considered Rs. 3.71, Rs. 3.07 and Rs. 3.88 kg⁻¹, respectively

* Market price of banana fruit was considered Rs. 3.40 kg⁻¹ (Rs. 3400 t⁻¹)

* As per recommendation, 90 g phosphorus and 200 g potash were applied as common in each treatment



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Comparison of Microbial Load Associated with Smoked Fish (*Chrysichthys Nigrodigitatus*) from Oyan Lake and Ogun Waterside in Ogun State, Nigeria

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Abstract - This study compares the microbial load associated with smoked fish (*Chrysichthys nigrodigitatus*) from Oyan lake and Ogun waterside in Ogun State. Three samples each were purchased from Lafenwa and Makun-omi markets respectively. Microbial load in the skin, intestine and gills were assessed using Mac-conky Agar (MA), and Nutrient Agar (NA) to isolate bacteria while Sabouraud Dextrose Agar (SDA) was used to isolate fungi. The average bacterial counts for all the samples ranged from 3.1×10^6 to 4.9×10^6 in makun market while 6.8×10^6 to 13.8×10^6 in lafenwa market has the highest bacteria count. The microorganism isolated and identified in the markets include the following families of bacteria: *Bacillus* spp (10%, 10%), *Micrococcus* spp (10%, 10%), *Staphylococcus saprophyticus* (5%, 10%), *Escherichia coli* (10%, 15%) and *Staphylococcus aureus* (5%, 10%) of which *Staphylococcus saprophyticus*, *Escherichia coli* and *Staphylococcus aureus* percentage occurrence rate were higher in lafenwa market.

Keywords : *chrysichthys nigrodigitatus*, *smoked fish*, *microbial load*, *health*.

GJSFR-D Classification : FOR Code: 670103, 630399p



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Comparison of Microbial Load Associated with Smoked Fish (*Chrysichthys Nigrodigitatus*) from Oyan Lake and Ogun Waterside in Ogun State, Nigeria

Adelaja, Olusunmbo Adeolu^α, Olaoye, Olalekan Jacob^σ, Ikenweiwe Nofisat Bolatito^ρ & Ashley-Dejo. Samuel, Segun^ω

Abstract - This study compares the microbial load associated with smoked fish (*Chrysichthys nigrodigitatus*) from Oyan lake and Ogun waterside in Ogun State. Three samples each were purchased from Lafenwa and Makun-omi markets respectively. Microbial load in the skin, intestine and gills were assessed using Mac-conky Agar (MA), and Nutrient Agar (NA) to isolate bacteria while Sabouraud Dextrose Agar (SDA) was used to isolate fungi. The average bacterial counts for all the samples ranged from 3.1×10^6 to 4.9×10^6 in makun market while 6.8×10^6 to 13.8×10^6 in lafenwa market has the highest bacteria count. The microorganism isolated and identified in the markets include the following families of bacteria: *Bacillus* spp (10%, 10%), *Micrococcus* spp (10%, 10%), *Staphylococcus saprophyticus* (5%, 10%), *Escherichia coli* (10%, 15%) and *Staphylococcus aureus* (5%, 10%) of which *Staphylococcus saprophyticus*, *Escherichia coli* and *Staphylococcus aureus* percentage occurrence rate were higher in lafenwa market. The fungal family include; *Fusarium* spp (14.3%, 28.6%), *Mucor* spp (14.3%, 28.6%) and *Aspergillus fumigatus* (0.0%, 14.3%). The results therefore showed that smoked fish from Oyan lake were heavily contaminated than that of Ogun waterside when compared with the maximum recommended bacteria count for good quality product and this has effect on human health after consumption. The contamination of the surrounding environment with industrial and domestic waste should be controlled as well as ensure proper handling of fish. The health implication to consumers and the public health importance was also revealed in the study.

Keywords : *chrysichthys nigrodigitatus*, smoked fish, microbial load, health.

I. INTRODUCTION

Fish is a major source of protein and its harvesting, handling, processing and distribution provide livelihood for millions of people. It is the most important animal protein food available in the tropics, and it represents about 14% of all animal protein on a global basis, (Abolagba and Mella, 2008). Fish is eaten fresh, preserved or processed (smoked) and form a

much-cherished delicacy that cuts across socio-economic, age, religious and educational barriers (Adebayo-Tayo *et al.*, 2008).

Fish is soft and easily damaged; therefore rough handling and bruising results in contamination of fish flesh. Fish will become unfit for human consumption within about one day of capture, unless it is subjected to some form of processing or preservation. Even after the fish has been processed, particularly if traditional methods have been used, the fish is still subject to many forms of loss and spoilage (Shewan, 2000). The microbial flora associated with freshly harvested fish is principally a function of the environment in which the fish are caught and not of the fish species; hence, the indigenous microbial populations of fish can vary significantly (Shewan, 2000). Fish, because of their soft tissues and aquatic environment are extremely susceptible to microbial contamination. Millions of bacteria, many of them potential spoilers, are present in the surface slime, on the gills and in the intestines of live fish, although the flesh itself is normally sterile. Bacterial growth and invasion on the fish are prevented by the body's natural defence system during life but after death the defence system breaks down and the bacteria multiply and invade the flesh. And also immediately fish dies, it remains in first class quality only for a short while (Clucas and Ward, 1996). However, spoilage soon sets in which is occasioned by an increase in the ambient temperature that triggers favourable conditions for microorganisms to thrive.

According to (Aberoumand, 2010), *Escherichia coli* is a classic example of enteric bacteria causing gastroenteritis. *E. coli* including other coliforms and bacteria as *Staphylococcus* spp and sometimes enterococci are commonly used as indices of hazardous conditions during processing of fish. Scientists have shown that the contamination of food of fish origin with pathogenic *E. coli* probably occur during handling of fish and during the production process (Jimoh *et al.*, 2009). The microorganisms associated with smoked fish pose a great threat to the populace as the transfer of the microorganisms attack the immune

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system of the consumer, usually man, thereby, giving room for the invasion of disease.

II. MATERIALS AND METHODS

a) Sample Collection

Three samples each of smoked fish (*Chrysichthys nigrodigitatus*) were purchased from major market (Lafenwa and Makun-omi) of fish processors from Oyan lake and Ogun waterside in Ogun state, Nigeria. A total of six (6) samples of smoked *Chrysichthys nigrodigitatus* were purchased and collected with a sterile aluminium foil (3 smoked *Chrysichthys nigrodigitatus* from each location) and samples were transported to the Veterinary Microbiology Laboratory, Federal University of Agriculture, Abeokuta in a well covered ice cold cooler for analysis and these samples were labelled; OL1, OL2, OL3, OW1, OW2, OW3. A sterile scalpel was used to cut a large portion of the skin and flesh of the fish in a sterile container and analysed for bacteria and fungi.

b) Microbiological Analysis

The samples were analyzed for Total Plate Count (TPC), Total Coliform Count (TCC), occurrence of bacteria and fungi and identification of bacteria and fungi.

c) Sample Preparation

One gram of the fish sample for microbiological evaluation was weighed into 9ml of sterile water in the bijou bottle. This was done for samples gotten from each location and was taken as the original stock sample of each market location. One millimeter of the original stocks solution was transferred into 9ml of sterile distilled water and mixed thoroughly to give 10^{-2} dilution of the original sample and this was done for each market sample and the bottles were labelled: S1(10^{-1}), S1(10^{-2}), S2(10^{-1}), S2(10^{-2}).....S6(10^{-1}), S6(10^{-2}). The serial dilution was carried out using a sterilized micropipette from tube one to the last tube. The NA, PDA and MA were prepared according to manufacturer instruction and sterilized using autoclave for 15 minutes at 121° C. It was then removed and allowed to cool before it was poured into plates. The plates were then allowed to set, after which one millimetre of the serial diluted sample of 10^{-8} dilution was inoculated on the surface of the well dried NA, PDA and MA and gently swirled to completely spread. The inoculated NA and MA plates were incubated at 37° C for period of 18-24 hours while the PDA was incubated at room temperature for 5 days. Each bacteria isolates obtained was counted and estimated according to method of Miles and Misra (Baker and Beach, 2000) while the fungi colonies were also counted and estimated.

d) Estimation of bacteria total count according to Hedges (2002)

To 90ml of sterile water was homogenized 10g of the fish sample to make 1/10 dilution, while 9ml of

sterile water was put in 8 sterile test tubes and serial dilution of the homogenized samples was made to the 8th tube. One ml was discarded from the 8th tube and 1ml of the dilution was spread on well dried Nutrient agar. It was allowed to dry and incubated at 37° C for 18 – 24 hours. Bacteria colonies seen were counted and estimated accordingly.

e) Estimation of fungi total count according to Hedges (2002)

To 90ml of sterile water was homogenized 10g of the fish sample to make 1/10 dilution, while 9ml of sterile water was put in 5 sterile test tubes and serial dilution of the homogenized samples was made to the 5th tube. 1ml was discarded from the 5th tube and 1ml of the dilution was spread on well dried Sabouraud Dextrose agar. It was allowed to dry and incubated at room temperature for 5 days. Fungi colonies seen were counted and estimated accordingly.

f) Bacteria identification according to Monical (1996)

Homogenized fish sample was cultured on Blood agar and MacConkey agar using sterile wire loop and incubated at 37° C for 18 to 24 hours in aerated condition. Colonies seen were purify on nutrient agar and their colonial morphology such as shape, colour, consistency, edges, elevation, pigmentation and hemolysis were individually examined.

g) Biochemical Test

Each bacteria colony was identified by their Gram stain and biochemically characterized by their sugar fermentation test, coagulase, catalase, indole, citrate, oxidase, H_2S production and urea.

III. RESULTS

Table 1 shows the average bacteria count obtained from the skin of smoked *Chrysichthys nigrodigitatus* from Makun-omi market (Ogun waterside) was 3.1×10^6 while the mean count for intestine was 4.9×10^6 and the gill recorded average microbial count of 4.2×10^6 cfu/g. The average bacteria count obtained from the skin, intestine and gill of smoked *Chrysichthys nigrodigitatus* from Lafenwa market (Oyan lake) were 13.8×10^6 , 10.7×10^6 and 6.8×10^6 cfu/g respectively. The result showed that bacteria load obtained from the smoked fish (*Chrysichthys nigrodigitatus*) in Oyan lake were higher than the recommended value but fell within range in Ogun waterside. Table 2 shows the average fungi count obtained from smoked *Chrysichthys nigrodigitatus* while Table 3 and 4 revealed the results of percentage of occurrence of bacteria and fungi in smoked *Chrysichthys nigrodigitatus*. Table 5 and 6 shows the cultural and morphological characteristics of bacteria and fungi isolates while Table 7 revealed the biochemical test used in characterization of the bacteria isolates from smoked fish (*Chrysichthys nigrodigitatus*).

Table 1 : The average bacterial count in the fish samples

Location and fish specie	Body parts	Average Bacterial Count (X 10 ⁶ CFU/g)
OW (<i>Chrysichthys nigrodigitatus</i>)	Skin	3.1
	Intestine	4.9
	Gill	4.2
OR (<i>Chrysichthys nigrodigitatus</i>)	Skin	13.8
	Intestine	10.7
	Gill	6.8

KEY: CFU/g= colony forming unit per gram.

Table 2 : Average fungi count in the fish samples

Location and fish specie	Body parts	Average FungiCount (X 10 ⁶ CFU/g)
OW (<i>Chrysichthys nigrodigitatus</i>)	Skin	0.0
	Intestine	0.2
	Gill	0.0
OR (<i>Chrysichthys nigrodigitatus</i>)	Skin	0.3
	Intestine	0.3
	Gill	0.0

KEY: CFU/g= colony forming unit per gram.

Table 3 : Percentage occurrence of bacteria in the fish samples (*Chrysichthys nigrodigitatus*)

Locations	Isolate	Number	Percentage (%)
Ogun waterside	<i>Bacillus spp</i>	2	10.0
	<i>Staphylococcus saprophyticus</i>	1	5.0
	<i>Micrococcus spp</i>	2	10.0
	<i>Escherichia coli</i>	2	10.0
	<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>	1	5.0
Oyan lake	<i>Bacillus spp</i>	2	10.0
	<i>Staphylococcus saprophyticus</i>	2	10.0
	<i>Micrococcus spp</i>	2	10.0
	<i>Escherichia coli</i>	3	15.0
	<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>	3	15.0

Table 4 : Percentage occurrence of fungi in the fish samples (*Chrysichthys nigrodigitatus*)

Locations	Isolate	Number	Percentage (%)
Ogun waterside	<i>Fusarium spp</i>	1	14.3
	<i>Mucor spp</i>	1	14.3
	<i>Aspergillus fumigatus</i>	0	0.0
Oyan lake	<i>Fusarium spp</i>	2	28.6
	<i>Mucor spp</i>	2	28.6
	<i>Aspergillus fumigatus</i>	1	14.3

Table 5 : Cultural and morphological characteristics of bacteria in the fish samples (*Chrysichthys nigrodigitatus*)

Suspected isolates	Morphology	Microscopic
<i>Bacillus spp</i>	Creamy white, raised with rough edges	Gram positive bacilli
<i>Staphylococcus saprophiticus</i>	Creamy, slightly raised with smooth edges	Gram positive cocci in cluster
<i>Micrococcus spp</i>	Creamy deep yellow, slightly raised with smooth edges	Gram positive cocci
<i>Eschericia coli</i>	Whitish, raised with rough edges	Gram negative bacilli
<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>	Golden yellow, slightly raised with smooth edges	Gram positive cocci in cluister

Table 6 : Cultural and morphological characteristics of fungi in the fish samples (*Chrysichthys nigrodigitatus*)

Suspected isolates	Morphology	Microscopic
<i>Fusarium spp</i>	Whitish cotton aerial	Elongated ovoid curved microconidia
<i>Mucor spp</i>	Yellow-white fluffy strand with brown reverse side	Hyphae without rhizoids, dispersed, branched, large globose sporangiophore
<i>Aspergillus fumigates</i>	Creamy yellow filamentous colonies	Large/globose conidiphore, loose columna with biseriated hypha

Table 7 : Biochemical test of the bacteria isolated from the fish samples (*Chrysichthys nigrodigitatus*)

GRAM	MOTILITY	GLUCOSE	LACTOSE	MANNITOL	MALTOSE	INDOLE	METHYL RED	VOGUES PROKAMER	CITRATE	H ₂ S	SUCROSE	UREA	OXIDASE	COAGULASE	CATALASE	ORGANISM ISOLATED
-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	-	-	N/A	-	--	N/A	+	<i>Escherichia coli</i>
+	+	+	+	+	+	-	-	+	-	-	+	-	-	N/A	+	<i>Bacillus spp</i>
+	-	+	+	+	+	N/A	+	-	N/A	N/A	+	N/A	+	-	+	<i>Micrococcus spp</i>
+	N/A	+	+	+	+	N/A	-	+	N/A	N/A	+	-	-	+	+	<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>
+	N/A	+	+	+	+	N/A	-	+	N/A	N/A	+	-	+	+	+	<i>Staphylococcus saprophyticus</i>

KEY:

- : NEGATIVE
- + : POSITIVE
- N.A : NOT APPLICABLE

IV. DISCUSSION

This study shows that pathogenic bacteria and fungi are present in smoked *Chrysichthys nigrodigitatus* in Lafenwa and Makun-omi markets in Ogun State. According to International Commission on Microbiological Specification for Food (ICMSF, 1986), the maximum recommended bacteria count for good quality product is 5.0×10^5 (5.7Log cfu/g). The bacteria load obtained from the smoked fish (*Chrysichthys nigrodigitatus*) in Oyan lake was higher than the recommended value lake but fell within range in Ogun waterside. Bacteria present in the fish samples include, *Bacillus spp*, *Staphylococcus saprophiticus*,

Micrococcus spp, *Eschericia coli* and *Staphylococcus aureus*. The occurrence of *Staphylococcus aureus* and *Eschericia coli* in the smoked-dried fish samples were in accordance with Martin (1994) when he stated that these organisms were the commonest micro-organisms associated with smoked fish. The presence of *Staphylococcus aureus* in fish samples according to Okonko *et al.* (2008) might have been through contamination by handling.

The bacteria group of *Staphylococcus aureus* according to Herman *et al.* (2011) reported that it was one of the most common causes of human disease and they constitute the normal flora of the human skin and mucous membrane without resulting in a diseased

condition. This bacteria class may also cause superficial and systemic infections such as boils, impetigo and folliculitis while more serious and more common infections could be pneumonia, bacteremia and other infections of the bones and wounds. Also, *Escherichia coli* usually cause diarrhea and kidney damage as well as uncomplicated community acquired urinary tract infections. The fungi present in the fish samples are *Fusarium spp*, *Mucor spp* and *Aspergillus fumigatus*. It was observed in this study that the presence of fungi particularly aflatoxigenic molds in these fish specie is very significant as it was indicated by food safety standard that aflatoxigenic molds produce mycotoxins which have pathogenic effects on man; it destroys the liver and kidney resulting to death. The presence of the organisms could be as a result of handling during smoking and also cross contamination during storage, after smoking and handling during sales of smoked fish.

V. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, smoked fish (*Chrysichthys nigrodigitatus*) from Lafenwa market were heavily contaminated with many bacteria species including members of the genera *Escherichia* and *Staphylococcus* due to the greater unhygienic conditions of the environment than Makun-omi market. The public health concern of smoked *Chrysichthys nigrodigitatus* is therefore the poor handling and processing either by the processors, marketers or the consumers. This has greatly contributed to the contamination of these products by various pathogenic micro organisms which make their consumption hazardous to health.

VI. RECOMMENDATION

Environmental sanitation education and orientation should be organized for fish processors; this will enable them to reduce the unattractive environment that makes their operations smelly and repulsive. The relevant national and municipal authorities must ensure improve quality of smoked fish to safeguard public health and enhance food safety in the country.

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Variability of Soil Thermal Properties of a Seasonally Cultivated Agricultural Teaching and Research Farm, University of Ibadan, South- Western Nigeria

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Abstract - Knowledge of the thermal properties of the soil top layer is of great importance in agricultural meteorology where problems of heat exchange at the soil surface are encountered. The availability of these data is important because of the improvements in wider applications of soil heat and water transport models as well as seed germination and crop growth. This research work therefore intends to determine the variability of soil thermal properties of a seasonally cultivated Agricultural Teaching and Research Farm located within the University of Ibadan campus, South-western Nigeria with a view to have understanding of how different soils warm up in order to allow better planning of planting of crops and have knowledge for the control of thermal-moisture regime of soil in the field and greenhouse.

Forty-five points were located for the measurements of thermal properties in cultivated fields of maize, pineapple, cowpea, Okro and vegetables. A *KD-2 Pro* thermal analyzer was used for the measurements of these thermal properties such as thermal conductivity, thermal resistivity, volumetric specific heat and thermal diffusivity.

Keywords : *variability, thermal properties, moisture content, bulk density, agricultural farm, seed germination.*

GJSFR-D Classification : *FOR Code: 079999, 050303, 970107*



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Variability of Soil Thermal Properties of a Seasonally Cultivated Agricultural Teaching and Research Farm, University of Ibadan, South-Western Nigeria

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Abstract - Knowledge of the thermal properties of the soil top layer is of great importance in agricultural meteorology where problems of heat exchange at the soil surface are encountered. The availability of these data is important because of the improvements in wider applications of soil heat and water transport models as well as seed germination and crop growth. This research work therefore intends to determine the variability of soil thermal properties of a seasonally cultivated Agricultural Teaching and Research Farm located within the University of Ibadan campus, South-western Nigeria with a view to have understanding of how different soils warm up in order to allow better planning of planting of crops and have knowledge for the control of thermal-moisture regime of soil in the field and greenhouse.

Forty-five points were located for the measurements of thermal properties in cultivated fields of maize, pineapple, cowpea, Okro and vegetables. A *KD-2 Pro* thermal analyzer was used for the measurements of these thermal properties such as thermal conductivity, thermal resistivity, volumetric specific heat and thermal diffusivity. Samples were collected at each location for the laboratory determination of soil moisture content and bulk density. The variability of soil thermal properties was analysed using classical statistics such as mean, range, standard deviation and coefficient of variation.

The results show that for the whole site, the thermal conductivity, volumetric specific heat, thermal diffusivity and temperature ranges from 1.103-2.151 W/mK, 1.247-2.936 mJ/m³K, 0.486-1.000 mm²/s and 23.83-34.49 °C with mean values of 1.672 W/mK, 1.831 mJ/m³K, 0.785 mm²/s and 27.71 °C respectively. Also soil moisture content and bulk density ranges from 0.146-0.223 m³m⁻³ and 1.260-1.410 mg/m³ with an average of 0.191 m³m⁻³ and 1.340 mg/m³ respectively.

It was found out that the thermal properties of agricultural soils within University of Ibadan vary from one point to the other and the variations are related to soil moisture content and bulk density which would have significant effects on plant germination and growth. This implies that knowledge of the thermal-moisture regime of soils is quite essential for better planning in agriculture.

Keywords : variability, thermal properties, moisture content, bulk density, agricultural farm, seed germination.

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I. INTRODUCTION

Soil thermal properties are required in many areas of engineering, agronomy, and soil science, and in recent years considerable effort has gone into developing techniques to determine these properties. The thermal properties of soil are one of the factors that determine mass and energy exchange that takes place in soil-plant-atmosphere system. The determination of these properties such as thermal conductivity, thermal diffusivity and volumetric heat capacity, and their variability is therefore a very important factor in understanding these processes at an individual scale of crop field and larger areas. The investigation of these thermal properties can have significant practical consequences such as evaluation of optimum conditions for plant growth and development and can also be utilized for the control of thermal-moisture regime of soil in the field (Usowicz, 1991). Seed germination, seedling emergence, and subsequent stand establishment are influenced by the microclimate. Thermal properties of soils play an important role in influencing microclimate (Ghuman and Lal, 1985). These properties influence how energy is partitioned in the soil profile. The ability to monitor soil thermal properties is an important tool in managing the soil temperature regime to affect seed germination and growth. While related to soil temperature, it is more accurately associated with the transfer of heat throughout the soil, by radiation, conduction and convection. Plants processes such as root growth or germination do not occur until the soil reaches certain temperature depending on the particular plant. Another plant process adversely affected by cold temperature is transport of nutrients and water. A better understanding of how different soils warm up would benefit agriculture by allowing for better planning of planting of crops.

The use of a thermal probe called KD 2 Pro has made it possible to measure the thermal properties of soil (in-situ) as well as its spatial variability. Thermal properties and physical properties of soil in cultivated fields are modified by different treatments and crops. Hence the variability of thermal properties may be

different for an individual field with the growth of a specific crop compared with a group of fields with different crops.

For the agriculture farm within the premises of University of Ibadan, information on thermal properties has been lacking. These data are needed for constructing models to predict the thermal regime of soils. Such information assumes greater importance with increasing attention paid to developing the agricultural industry in University of Ibadan and its environs. Since the early growth and development of a crop may be determined to a large extent by microclimate, the practical significance of knowing the thermal properties of soils under a given set of conditions is most important.

This study therefore aims at determining the thermal properties of agricultural farm with different crops within University of Ibadan campus in order to establish the variability of thermal conductivity, thermal diffusivity and volumetric specific heat of soil as well as to investigate the distribution of soil water content and bulk density and its consequences on the variability of a particular thermal properties.

II. SITE DESCRIPTION

The study area is a Teaching and Research Farm for undergraduate and postgraduate students of Faculty of Agriculture and Forestry located within the University of Ibadan campus between longitudes 07° 26' 00" to 07° 27' 30" and latitudes 03° 53' 00" to 03° 54' 30". (Figure 1). Different plants such as maize, pineapple, cowpea, okro and vegetables are cultivated on each farm land. The farm land has been in use for the past twenty years.

III. METHOD OF STUDY

The thermal properties of soils in Teaching and Research Farm were determined using KD2 Pro (Plate 1). The KD2 Pro is a fully portable field and laboratory thermal properties analyzer. It uses the transient line heat source method to measure the thermal diffusivity, specific heat (heat capacity), thermal conductivity, and thermal resistivity. Sophisticated data analysis is based on over thirty years of research experience on heat and mass transfer in soils and other porous materials.

To measure the thermal resistivity, thermal sensor with one single needle (TR-1) (Plate 2) was employed. A small dual-needle sensor (SH-1) (Plate 3) was used to measure the thermal diffusivity and volumetric specific heat. These kind of sensors use the heat pulse methodology and yields reliable soil thermal resistivity (R) and the inverse thermal conductivity (λ), thermal diffusivity and volumetric specific heat estimations by a nonlinear least squares procedure during both processes.

The SH-1 is the only sensor that measures thermal diffusivity and specific heat. It is 30mm long, 1.28mm in diameter with 6mm spacing. TR-1 is a 10cm Sensor that measures thermal conductivity and thermal resistivity and conforms to IEEE Standard 442-1981 and ASTM Standard D5334-00. It is 100mm long and 2.4mm diameter

IV. FIELD PROCEDURES

The first step to develop a protocol to measure the thermal properties begins with the field sampling design. The measurements include scooping of the top surface of the ground and verification and preparation of the thermal sensor (calibration) using standard glycerol in order to check whether it was functioning properly (Rao and Singh, 1999; Krishnaiah, 2003). The thermal sensor to be used was then selected. The needle was positioned with respect to the scooped ground. Thermal diffusivity and volumetric specific heat were then measured by using the thermal sensor SH-1 while thermal resistivity and its inverse were measured with TR-1. To take measurements with the KD2 Pro; appropriate sensor was attached and the KD2 Pro was turned on; sensor was properly inserted into the material to be measured (for the dual needle sensor, the needles must remain parallel to each other during insertion); when the KD2 Pro turns on, one should be in the Main Menu, press enter to begin the measurement. Then the instrument was allowed to rest for about fifteen minutes before taking the next readings.

Forty-five sample points (Figure 2) were tested for various thermal properties while samples were collected at these points to determine the moisture content and soil bulk density in the laboratory. The samples were kept in polythene bags and stored in a cool dry place before the necessary tests were carried out on them. The variabilities of these soil thermal properties were analyzed using classical statistics such as mean and extreme values, standard deviation and coefficient of variability.

V. LABORATORY PROCEDURES

a) Moisture Content

The standard reference used for the determination of moisture content was AASTHO T 265. A representative test specimen of about 300g was selected. The tare mass of a clean, dry container and lid, was determined and recorded as W_c . Moist specimen was placed in the container and the lid was secured onto the container. The mass of the container, lid, and moist specimen was determined and recorded as W_1 . The lid was then removed and the container was placed with the sample in the drying oven for about 17 hours for the material to be dried to a constant mass. The container was then removed from the oven and the lid was replaced firmly. The material and container was

allowed to cool to room temperature. The mass of the container, lid, and dried specimen was measured and recorded as W_2 .

The calculations are as follow:

Mass of the Water:

$$Ww = W_1 - W_2$$

Mass of the Solid Particle:

$$Ws = W_2 - Wc$$

Moisture Content (%):

$$M_c = 100(Ww/Ws)$$

Where:

Wc = mass of container and lid, g

W_1 = mass of container, lid, and moist specimen, g

W_2 = mass of container, lid, and oven-dried specimen, g.

b) Bulk Density

i. Procedure

- The weight of a 25 mL graduated cylinder was determined. (Note: 1 mL = 1 cm³)
- the 25 mL was filled to the mark, by adding ~5 mL additions of soil and tapping lightly to pack the soil. (V_t for soil = 25 cm³)
- the weight of the graduated cylinder + soil and by difference the weight of the soil were determined. The soil's weight was corrected for moisture content.
- A 100 mL graduated cylinder with tap water was filled to the 50 mL mark. The soil was quantitatively transferred from the 25 mL graduated cylinder to the water and was stirred to expel the air. It was allowed to stand for ~ 5 minutes.
- The change in volume resulting from the addition of the soil was noted (V_s = volume change i.e volume after adding soil and stirring - 50 mL)

Calculations

Bulk density

$$\rho_b = OD \text{ wt}/V_t$$

$$V_t = 25 \text{ cm}^3$$

OD = Oven-dry weight OD wt = air-dry weight/(1 + water content)

Volume of solids (V_s) = (volume of soil + water) - (volume of water)

VI. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

a) Thermal Properties

i. Thermal Conductivity

For the whole site, the values of thermal conductivity range from 1.103 - 2.151 W/mK (Table 1) with a mean of 1.488 W/mK. Figure 3 shows the variation of thermal conductivity within the whole study

site that comprises maize, pineapple, cowpea, okro and vegetable fields. It could be observed from the figure that there are much variations in thermal conductivity from one point to the other. Figures 4 and 5 also show the variation of soil moisture content and soil bulk density from one point to the other. The variation of thermal conductivity from one point to another may be as a result of variation in soil moisture content and bulk density [(Oladunjoye and Sanuade, 2012a; Rubio et al. (2009) and Singh and Devid (2000)]. However the plots of thermal conductivity against moisture content and soil bulk density shows a positive correlation with moisture content having the highest value of correlation coefficient ($R = 0.4$) (Figure 6A and 6B).

Considering individual fields, the thermal conductivity values of maize, pineapple, cowpea and okro+vegetable fields ranged from 1.103 - 2.015 W/mK, 1.777 - 2.151 W/mK, 1.183 - 1.873 W/mK and 1.354 - 1.920 W/mK with average values of 1.581 W/mK, 2.021 W/mK, 1.494 W/mK and 1.620 W/mK respectively (Tables 2, 3, 4, and 5). However, these variations from one field to another may be as a result of variations in soil moisture content [(Figure 8A -D) and soil bulk density (Figure 9A-D)]. From Figure 8A-D, it could be observed that there are strong positive correlations between soil moisture content and thermal conductivity in all fields with $R = 0.98, 0.91, 0.92$ and 0.83 for maize, pineapple, cowpea and okro+vegetable fields respectively (Ghuman and Lal, 1985; Brandon and Mitchell, 1989; Salomone et al, 1984; Salomone and Marlowe, 1989; Salomone and Kovacs, 1984; IEEE, 1998; Adjepong, 1997; Rubio et al, 2009; Singh and Devid, 2000; Oladunjoye and Sanuade, 2012a). Also there are positive correlations between thermal conductivity and soil bulk density (Zhang and Liu, 2006) with values of R^2 being smaller than that of soil moisture content (Figure 9A-D). This therefore means that the distribution of thermal conductivity in all fields was determined mainly by soil moisture content and partly by soil bulk density. High thermal conductivity ensures movement of heat into the ground. Interestingly, soils with lower thermal conductivity retain more heat than those with higher thermal conductivity once the sun goes down. Therefore, a balance neither too high nor too low is necessary to ensure proper conditions for seed germination and emergence (Alex Tan, 2013). From the thermal conductivity values of all the fields, it could be observed that the values are moderate which range from 1.103 - 2.151 W/mK. (Standard Range of measurement is 0.02 - 4 W/mK).

ii. Thermal Diffusivity

For the whole study sites, the values of thermal diffusivity ranges from 0.439 - 1.000 mm²/s (Table 1, Fig. 10) with an average of 0.785 mm²/s. There are variations in thermal diffusivity values from one point to another. However, the plots of thermal diffusivity against soil

moisture content and bulk density show positive correlations with $R^2 = 0.81$ and 0.79 respectively (Figs. 11 & 12). This could mean that both soil moisture content and bulk density are contributing to the variation of thermal diffusivity in the whole study site. For the individual fields, the thermal diffusivity of maize, pineapple, cowpea and okro+vegetable fields have range of values from $0.605 - 0.925 \text{ mm}^2/\text{s}$, $0.740 - 1.000 \text{ mm}^2/\text{s}$, $0.486 - 0.740 \text{ mm}^2/\text{s}$ and $0.820 - 0.990 \text{ mm}^2/\text{s}$ with mean values of $0.768 \text{ mm}^2/\text{s}$, $0.868 \text{ mm}^2/\text{s}$, $0.578 \text{ mm}^2/\text{s}$ and $0.878 \text{ mm}^2/\text{s}$ respectively (Tables 2, 3, 4, and 5). Plots of soil moisture content against thermal diffusivity in all the fields (Figure 13A-D) show a moderate positive correlations except in cowpea field with relatively high positive correlation (Ghuman and Lal, 1985; Adjepong, 1997; Verhoef et al, 1996 and Rubio et al, 2009).

As shown in Figure 14 A-D, there are positive correlations between soil bulk density and thermal diffusivity in all the fields (Oladunjoye and Sanuade, 2012b). It could be observed that R^2 values in the relationship between thermal diffusivity and soil moisture content and bulk density are relatively high. This suggests that the distribution of thermal diffusivity in all the fields were controlled by both soil moisture and soil bulk density. High thermal diffusivity in soils favour root growth (Rodrigo et al., 2009). High thermal diffusivity will allow proper transport of nutrients and water. From the above results, it could be noted that the thermal diffusivity for all the fields ranged from moderate to high with fields that contained pineapple and okro+vegetable being the fields with the highest thermal diffusivity. This means that soils that contained pineapple and okro+vegetable will favour root growth than those that contained maize and cowpea.

iii. Volumetric Specific Heat

For the whole study site, volumetric specific heat ranges from $1.247 - 2.936 \text{ J/m}^3\text{K}$ (Table 1) with a mean of $1.831 \text{ J/m}^3\text{K}$. From Figure 15, it could be observed that there are variations in the volumetric specific heat in the whole study site from one point to the other. These variations could be as a result of soil moisture content or bulk density (Oladunjoye and Sanuade, 2012b). From both Figures 16 and 17, weak positive correlation exists between volumetric specific heat and soil moisture content and bulk density. Considering individual fields, volumetric specific heat values ranged from $1.605 - 1.980 \text{ J/m}^3\text{K}$, $1.522 - 1.822 \text{ J/m}^3\text{K}$, $1.247 - 1.645 \text{ J/m}^3\text{K}$ and $1.887 - 2.936 \text{ J/m}^3\text{K}$ with average values of $1.727 \text{ J/m}^3\text{K}$, $1.684 \text{ J/m}^3\text{K}$, $1.515 \text{ J/m}^3\text{K}$ and $2.208 \text{ J/m}^3\text{K}$ for maize, pineapple, cowpea and okro + vegetable fields respectively (Tables 2, 3, 4, and 5). The variation of volumetric specific heat with soil moisture contents and bulk density were determined.

From Figures 18A-D and 19A-D, it could be observed that the relationships between soil moisture content and volumetric specific heat are relatively higher

than that of soil bulk density and volumetric specific heat. This suggests that the distribution of volumetric specific heat in all the fields were controlled by soil moisture content. Volumetric specific heat affects soil temperature to a greater extent. All things being equal, a soil with a high volumetric specific heat exhibits lesser temperature change than those having a low volumetric heat capacity (Ghuman and Jalota, 2005). From the results above, it was observed that the volumetric specific heat in all the fields could be classified as moderate with ranges from $1.247 - 2.936 \text{ J/m}^3\text{K}$ (Standard Range of measurement is $0.5 - 4 \text{ J/m}^3\text{K}$). Therefore, the volumetric specific heat of the soils in all the field are good for planting of crops as the temperature will not be much affected.

iv. Temperature

For the whole site, temperature ranges from $23.21 - 34.49 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ (Table 1) with a mean of 27.71°C with lowest and highest values found in the field planted with okro and vegetables. Considering individual fields, temperature values range from $27.88 - 30.89 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$, $25.88 - 28.54 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$, $27.61 - 29.82 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ and $23.21 - 34.49 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ with mean values of $29.03 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$, $27.29 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$, $28.93 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ and $26.30 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ (Tables 2, 3, 4, and 5) in the fields that contain maize, pineapple, cowpea and okro+vegetable respectively. Figures 20 and 21 A-D show the variation of temperature in the whole site and in individual fields. However, Decagon Devices Inc. 2010 stated that for a soil in place, the temperature typically varies over a small enough range to have only a small effect on thermal properties unless the soil freezes. Minimum temperature or specific zero which is that temperature below which plants cease to grow and generally remain dormant is $6 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ for most plants while the maximum temperature is $55 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ beyond which most plants cannot live without water (Chima et al., 2011). From the above results, it could be seen that the temperature values in all the fields ranged from $23.21 - 34.49 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ which means that these values do not reach the maximum. At these temperatures, most and if not all plants can live and grow well, if other conditions for plant growth are met.

VII. STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

a) Mean

In the whole study site, the mean values of thermal conductivity, thermal diffusivity and volumetric specific heat are 1.672 W/mK , $0.785 \text{ mm}^2/\text{s}$ and $1.831 \text{ J/m}^3\text{K}$ respectively.

In the individual fields, the lowest mean values of thermal conductivity, thermal diffusivity and volumetric specific heat were obtained in the field that contained cowpea while the highest mean values were seen in both pineapple and okro + vegetable fields (thermal conductivity highest in pineapple field, thermal diffusivity and volumetric specific heat highest in Okro+vegetable field). The differences between the mean values in these

fields were calculated as 0.527 W/mK, 0.300 mm²/s and 0.693 J/m³K respectively for thermal conductivity, thermal diffusivity and volumetric specific heat. The mean temperature value for the whole site was calculated as 27.71 °C. Considering the individual fields, the lowest mean value of temperature was noticed in the field that contained both okro+vegetables while the highest was observed in the field that contained maize. The difference between the mean values of temperature in these fields was calculated as 2.73 °C.

b) Standard Deviation

i. Thermal Properties

Standard deviations were calculated as a measure of dispersion of the thermal properties. Considering the whole study site, the standard deviations of thermal conductivity, thermal diffusivity and volumetric specific heat were calculated as 0.342, 0.145 and 0.342 respectively. For the individual fields, the lowest standard deviation of thermal conductivity was seen in the field that has Pineapple while the highest was observed in the field that contained Maize. For thermal diffusivity, the field that has okro+vegetable has the lowest standard deviation while Maize field has the highest. Also for volumetric specific heat, the field that has Pineapple and Maize has the same and lowest standard deviation while the field with okro+vegetable has the highest standard deviation (Table 6).

c) Temperature

From Table 2, the standard deviation of the whole site was calculated as 2.299 which is very high. In the individual fields, the field that contained cowpea has the lowest standard deviation while okro+vegetable field has the highest standard deviation.

d) Coefficient of Variation

i. Thermal Properties

The coefficients of variation of particular thermal properties determined for the whole site vary from 18.5% to 23.0% with thermal diffusivity having the lowest CV while thermal conductivity has the highest. For the

individual fields, the coefficients of variation range from 5.7 % to 21.1 % with the lowest and highest from thermal conductivity of the field that contained pineapple and maize respectively (Table 6). From the statistical analysis, the standard deviation values of all the thermal properties in the entire whole site and in individual fields, it could be said that all the properties are relatively uniform with thermal diffusivity more uniform. However, standard deviation alone is not particularly useful for this conclusion, hence coefficient of variation. From the coefficient of variation together with standard deviation, it could be said that the data are greatly uniform (coefficient of variation ranges from 5.7% to 23%). The higher the coefficient of variation, the greater the dispersion in the variable while the lower the coefficient of variation, the smaller the residuals relative to the predicted mean value (Bruin, 2006). Therefore lower values of coefficient of variation are suggestive of a good model fit.

VIII. CONCLUSIONS

The variability of thermal properties over cultivated fields is mainly determined by soil moisture content and bulk density values and their variation which is also modified by meteorological conditions, agricultural treatments and crops. Thermal properties of soils play an important role in influencing the microclimate. These properties influence how energy is partitioned in the soil profile. As regards soil temperature, it is more accurately associated with the transfer of heat throughout the soil, by radiation, conduction and convection. Plants processes such as root growth or germination do not occur until the soil reaches certain temperature depending on the particular plant. Another plant process adversely affected by cold temperature is transport of nutrients and water. A better understanding of how different soils warm up would benefit agriculture by allowing better planning of planting of crops.

Table 1 : Thermal properties of all the sampling points

Sample No	Thermal Diffusivity (mm ² /s)	Thermal Conductivity (W/mK)	Volumetric Specific Heat (J/m ³ K)	Bulk Density (mg/m ³)	Moisture Content (m ³ /m ³)	Temperature (°C)
1	0.651	1.379	1.605	1.350	0.174	28.80
2	0.874	1.630	1.891	1.360	0.187	27.88
3	0.605	1.220	1.671	1.300	0.171	30.89
4	0.746	1.899	1.682	1.330	0.192	28.33
5	0.770	1.695	1.786	1.350	0.188	29.26
6	0.751	1.103	1.650	1.340	0.169	28.64
7	0.910	1.777	1.980	1.370	0.191	30.89

8	0.759	1.974	1.681	1.340	0.194	27.88
9	0.693	1.116	1.620	1.350	0.170	29.50
10	0.925	2.015	1.700	1.380	0.198	28.24
11	0.900	2.151	1.742	1.340	0.223	25.88
12	0.800	2.000	1.729	1.330	0.211	26.71
13	1.000	2.145	1.765	1.410	0.226	26.30
14	0.950	2.062	1.800	1.380	0.218	25.97
15	0.884	1.979	1.525	1.370	0.209	27.67
16	0.952	2.105	1.822	1.400	0.216	27.40
17	0.850	1.876	1.524	1.370	0.199	28.38
18	0.757	1.777	1.522	1.350	0.194	28.54
19	0.740	2.001	1.624	1.330	0.210	27.87
20	0.850	2.112	1.784	1.360	0.213	28.13
21	0.712	1.696	1.625	1.300	0.162	29.73
22	0.645	1.183	1.608	1.310	0.159	29.82
23	0.584	1.443	1.468	1.290	0.155	29.36
24	0.500	1.529	1.597	1.270	0.155	27.61
25	0.486	1.409	1.446	1.290	0.151	29.61
26	0.462	1.873	1.456	1.280	0.152	29.06
27	0.439	1.525	1.247	1.260	0.146	28.35
28	0.614	1.350	1.420	1.310	0.152	29.00
29	0.600	1.412	1.640	1.290	0.163	28.46
30	0.740	1.520	1.645	1.320	0.168	28.30
31	0.850	1.600	2.016	1.350	0.203	23.82
32	0.864	1.883	2.936	1.360	0.210	24.26
33	0.990	1.920	2.748	1.380	0.212	25.00
34	0.845	1.416	1.983	1.360	0.198	24.69
35	0.835	1.775	2.547	1.340	0.209	25.76
36	0.843	1.595	1.990	1.350	0.201	29.17
37	0.820	1.354	1.887	1.300	0.198	32.30
38	0.846	1.426	2.018	1.340	0.203	24.45
39	0.900	1.526	2.223	1.360	0.206	25.01
40	0.830	1.400	1.998	1.320	0.199	24.91
41	0.850	1.456	2.000	1.350	0.202	26.24
42	0.940	1.800	2.334	1.370	0.209	24.01
43	0.982	1.875	2.116	1.380	0.210	23.21
44	0.930	1.690	2.335	1.360	0.208	34.49
45	0.838	1.580	1.990	1.330	0.200	27.12

Table 2 : Thermal and physical properties of soil in the maize field

Sample No	Thermal Conductivity (W/mK)	Thermal Diffusivity (mm ² /s)	Volumetric Specific Heat (J/m ³ K)	Temperature (°C)	Moisture Content (m ³ /m ³)	Bulk Density (mg/m ³)
1	1.379	0.651	1.605	28.80	0.174	1.350
2	1.630	0.874	1.891	27.88	0.187	1.360
3	1.220	0.605	1.671	30.89	0.171	1.300
4	1.899	0.746	1.682	28.33	0.192	1.330
5	1.695	0.770	1.786	29.26	0.188	1.350
6	1.103	0.751	1.650	28.64	0.169	1.340
7	1.777	0.910	1.980	30.89	0.191	1.370
8	1.974	0.759	1.681	27.88	0.194	1.340
9	1.116	0.693	1.620	29.50	0.170	1.350
10	2.015	0.925	1.700	28.24	0.198	1.380

Table 3 : Thermal and physical properties of soil in the pineapple field

Sample No	Thermal Conductivity (W/mK)	Thermal Diffusivity (mm ² /s)	Volumetric Specific Heat (J/m ³ K)	Temperature (°C)	Moisture Content (m ³ /m ³)	Bulk Density (mg/m ³)
1	2.151	0.900	1.742	25.88	0.223	1.340
2	2.000	0.800	1.729	26.71	0.211	1.330
3	2.145	1.000	1.765	26.30	0.226	1.410
4	2.062	0.950	1.800	25.97	0.218	1.380
5	1.979	0.884	1.525	27.67	0.209	1.370
6	2.105	0.952	1.822	27.40	0.216	1.400
7	1.876	0.850	1.524	28.38	0.199	1.370
8	1.777	0.757	1.522	28.54	0.194	1.350
9	2.001	0.740	1.624	27.87	0.210	1.330
10	2.112	0.850	1.784	28.13	0.213	1.360

Table 4 : Thermal and physical properties of soil in the cowpea field

Sample No	Thermal Conductivity (W/mK)	Thermal Diffusivity (mm ² /s)	Volumetric Specific Heat (J/m ³ K)	Temperature (°C)	Moisture Content (m ³ /m ³)	Bulk Density (mg/m ³)
1	1.696	0.712	1.625	29.73	0.162	1.300
2	1.676	0.645	1.608	29.82	0.159	1.310
3	1.529	0.584	1.468	29.36	0.155	1.290
4	1.525	0.500	1.597	27.61	0.155	1.270
5	1.412	0.486	1.446	29.61	0.151	1.290
6	1.525	0.462	1.456	29.06	0.152	1.280
7	1.409	0.439	1.247	28.35	0.146	1.260
8	1.536	0.614	1.420	29.00	0.152	1.310
9	1.691	0.600	1.640	28.46	0.163	1.290
10	1.873	0.740	1.645	28.30	0.168	1.320

Table 5 : Thermal and physical properties of soil in the okro+vegetable field

Sample No	Thermal Conductivity (W/mK)	Thermal Diffusivity (mm ² /s)	Volumetric Specific Heat (J/m ³ K)	Temperature (°C)	Moisture Content (m ³ /m ³)	Bulk Density (mg/m ³)
1	1.600	0.850	2.016	23.82	0.203	1.350
2	1.883	0.864	2.936	24.26	0.210	1.360
3	1.920	0.990	2.748	25.00	0.212	1.380
4	1.416	0.845	1.983	24.69	0.198	1.360
5	1.775	0.835	2.547	25.76	0.209	1.340
6	1.595	0.843	1.990	29.17	0.201	1.350
7	1.354	0.820	1.887	32.30	0.198	1.300
8	1.426	0.846	2.018	24.45	0.203	1.340
9	1.526	0.900	2.223	25.01	0.206	1.360
10	1.400	0.830	1.998	24.91	0.199	1.320
11	1.456	0.850	2.000	26.24	0.202	1.350
12	1.800	0.940	2.334	24.01	0.209	1.370
13	1.875	0.982	2.116	23.21	0.210	1.380
14	1.690	0.930	2.335	34.49	0.208	1.360
15	1.580	0.838	1.990	27.12	0.200	1.330

Table 6 : Statistical summary of soil thermal properties, moisture content and bulk density on individual crop field

	Whole Site	Maize	Pineapple	Cowpea	Okro+vegetable
Thermal Conductivity					
SD	0.342	0.334	0.115	0.179	0.187
Mean	1.488	1.581	2.021	1.494	1.62
CV (%)	23	21.1	5.7	12	11.5
Volumetric Specific Heat					
SD	0.342	0.116	0.116	0.123	0.304
Mean	1.831	1.727	1.684	1.515	2.208
CV (%)	18.7	6.7	6.9	8.1	13.8
Thermal Diffusivity					
SD	0.145	0.1	0.082	0.099	0.055
Mean	0.785	0.768	0.868	0.578	0.878
CV (%)	18.5	13	9.4	17.1	6.3
Moisture Content					
SD	0.022	0.011	0.00936	0.0063	0.0047
Mean	0.191	0.183	0.212	0.156	0.205
CV (%)	11.5	6	4.4	4	2.3
Bulk Density					
SD	0.011	0.021	0.026	0.018	0.021
Mean	1.34	1.347	1.364	1.292	1.35
CV (%)	0.8	1.6	1.9	1.4	1.6



Plate 1 : KD 2 Pro



Plate 4 : KD 2 Pro Meter during measurement



Plate 2 : TR-1 Sensor

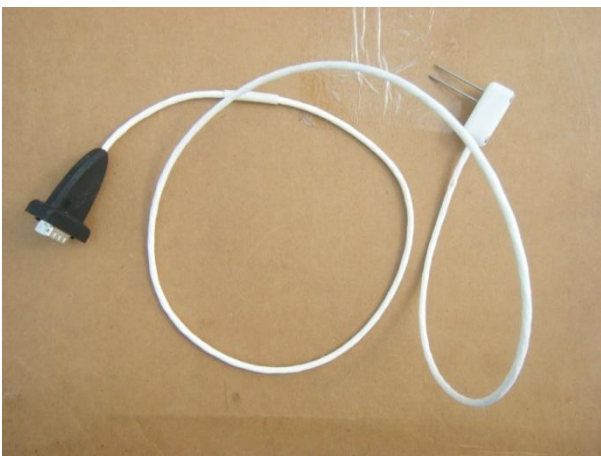


Plate 3 : SH-1 30mm Dual Sensor



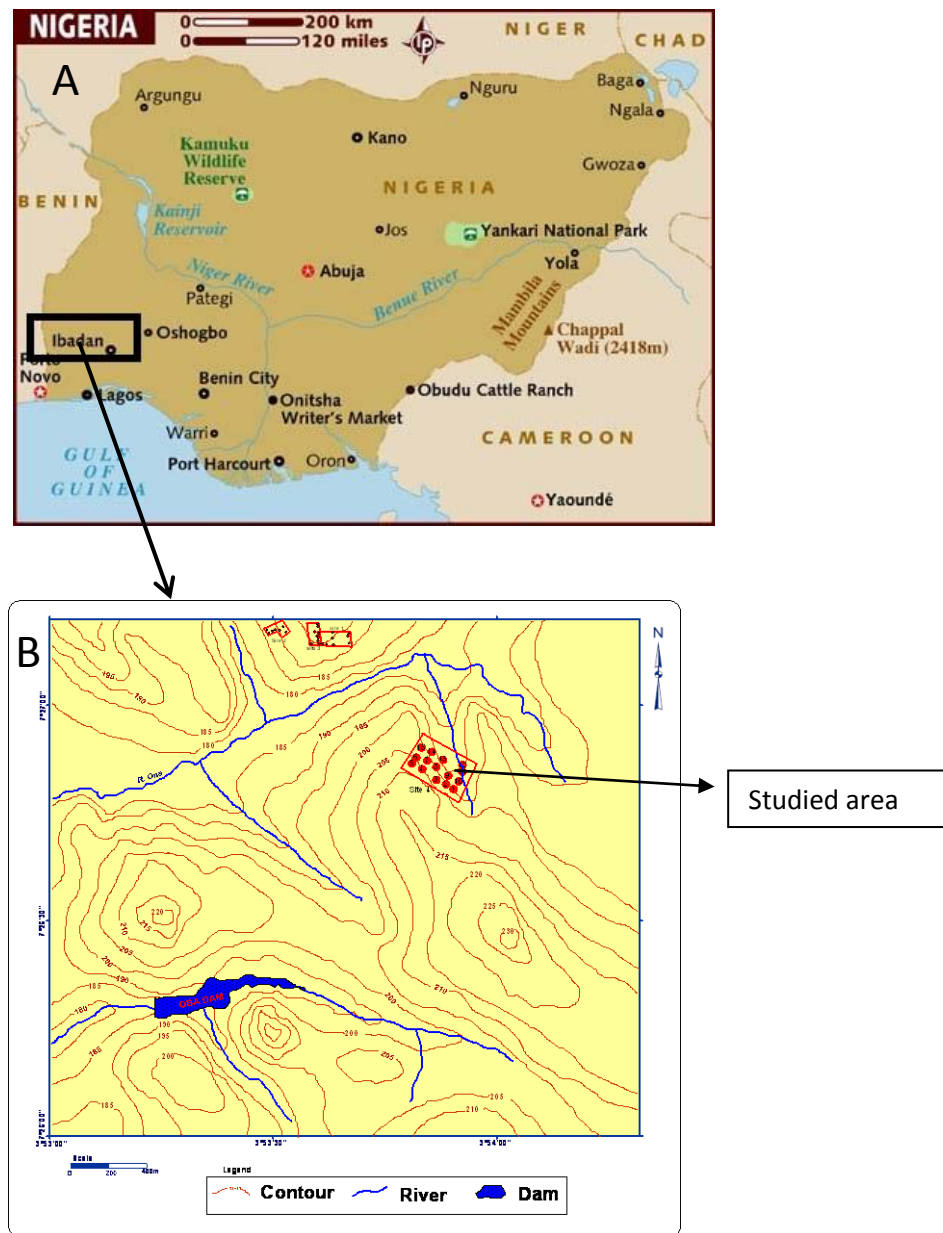


Figure 1 : (A) Topographical map of Nigeria showing Ibadan
(B) Topographical map of University of Ibadan showing studied area

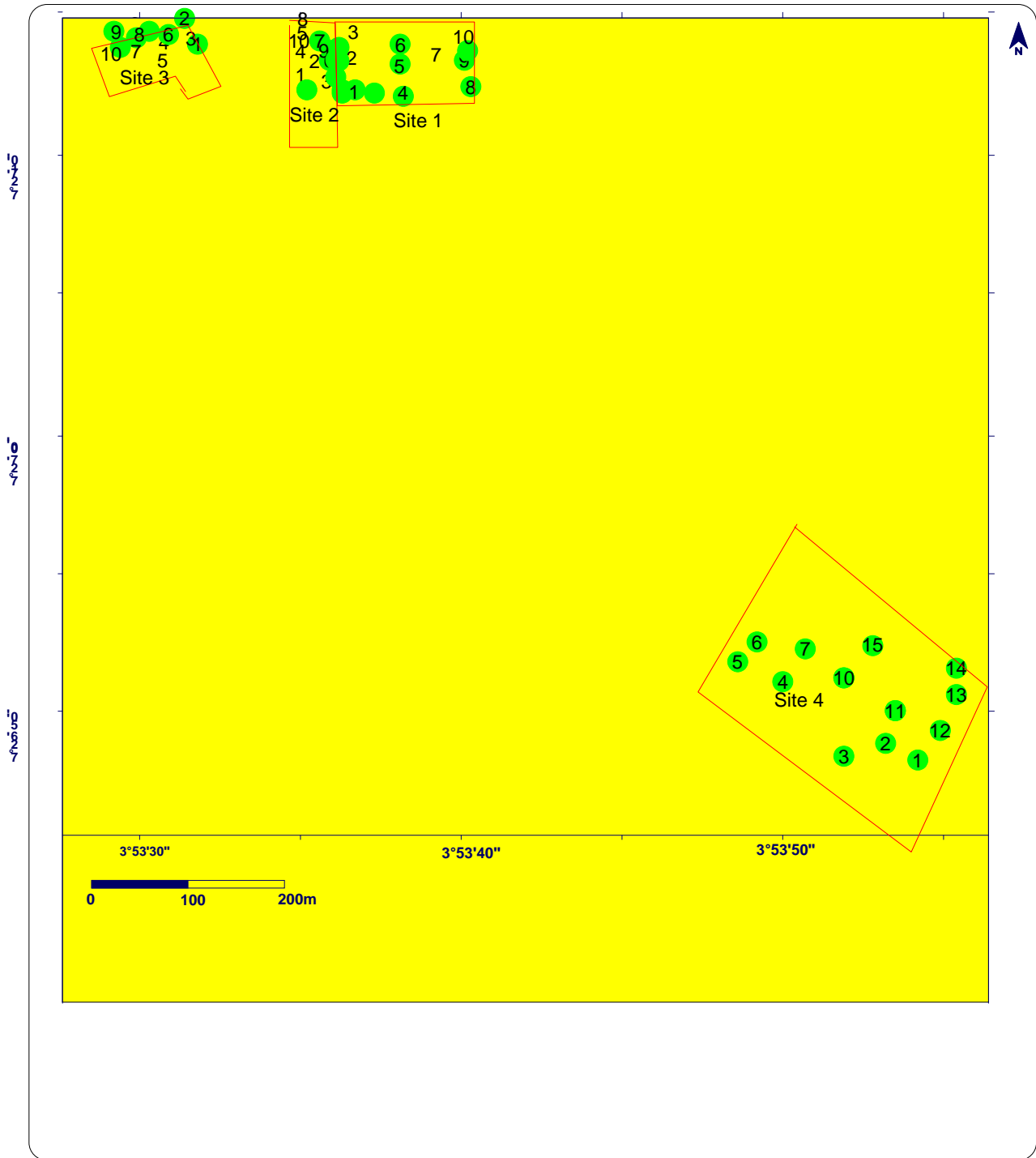


Figure 2 : Location map of the study area showing sites

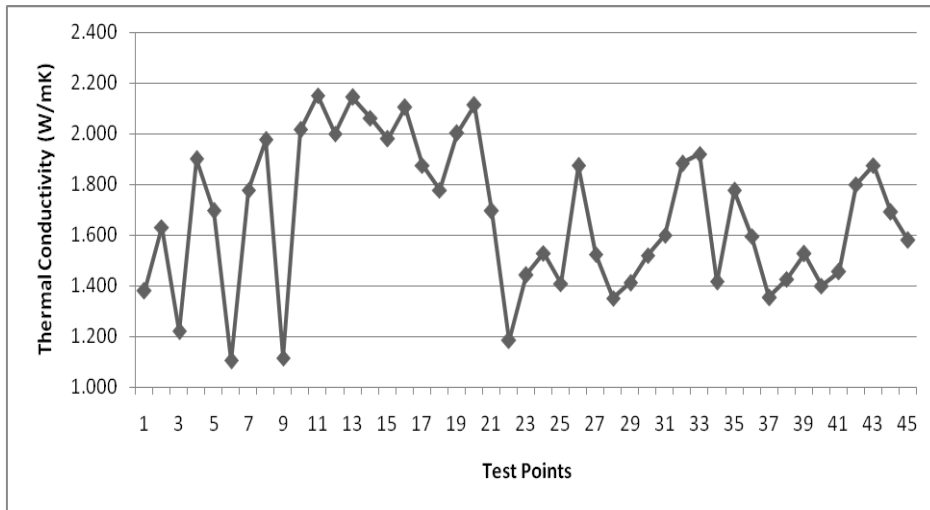


Figure 3: Variation of Thermal Conductivity within the whole study site

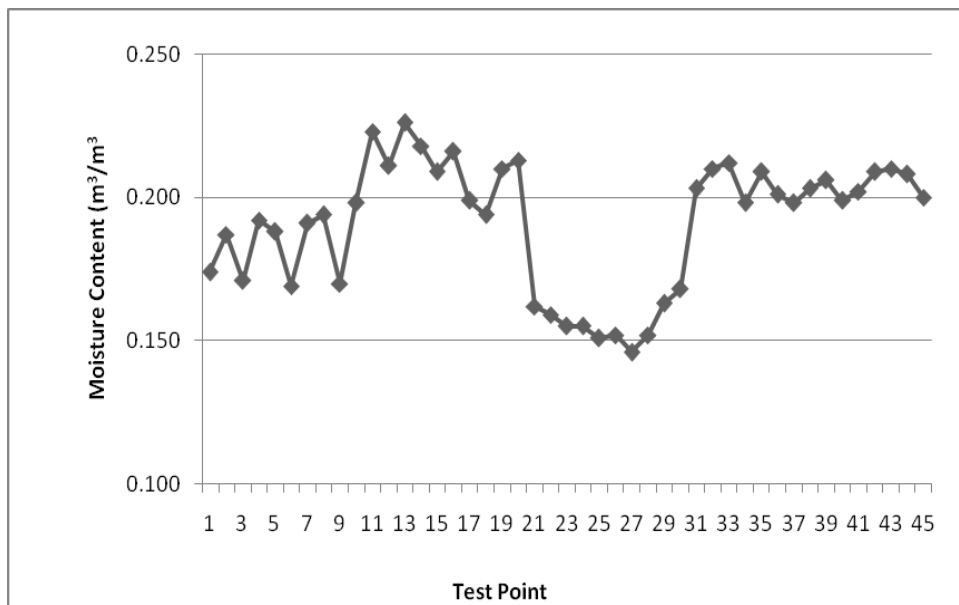


Figure 4: Variation of Moisture content in the study site

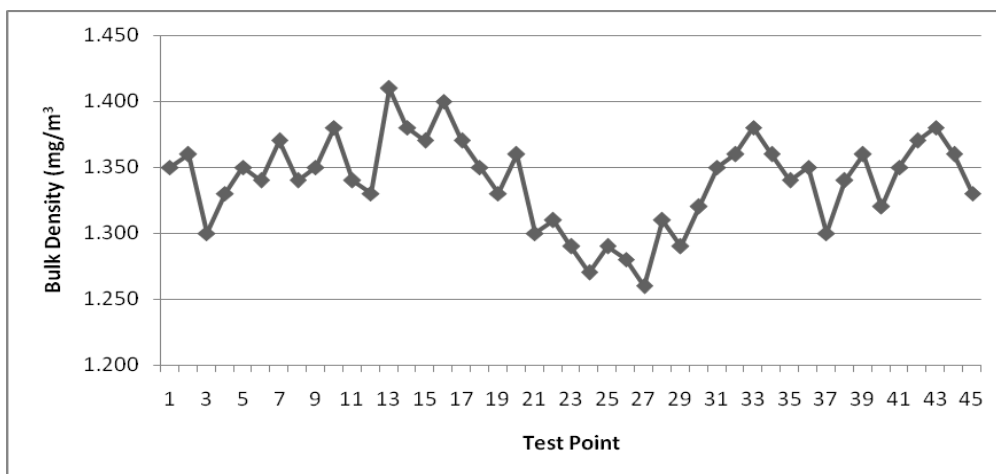


Figure 5: Variation of Bulk density in the whole study site

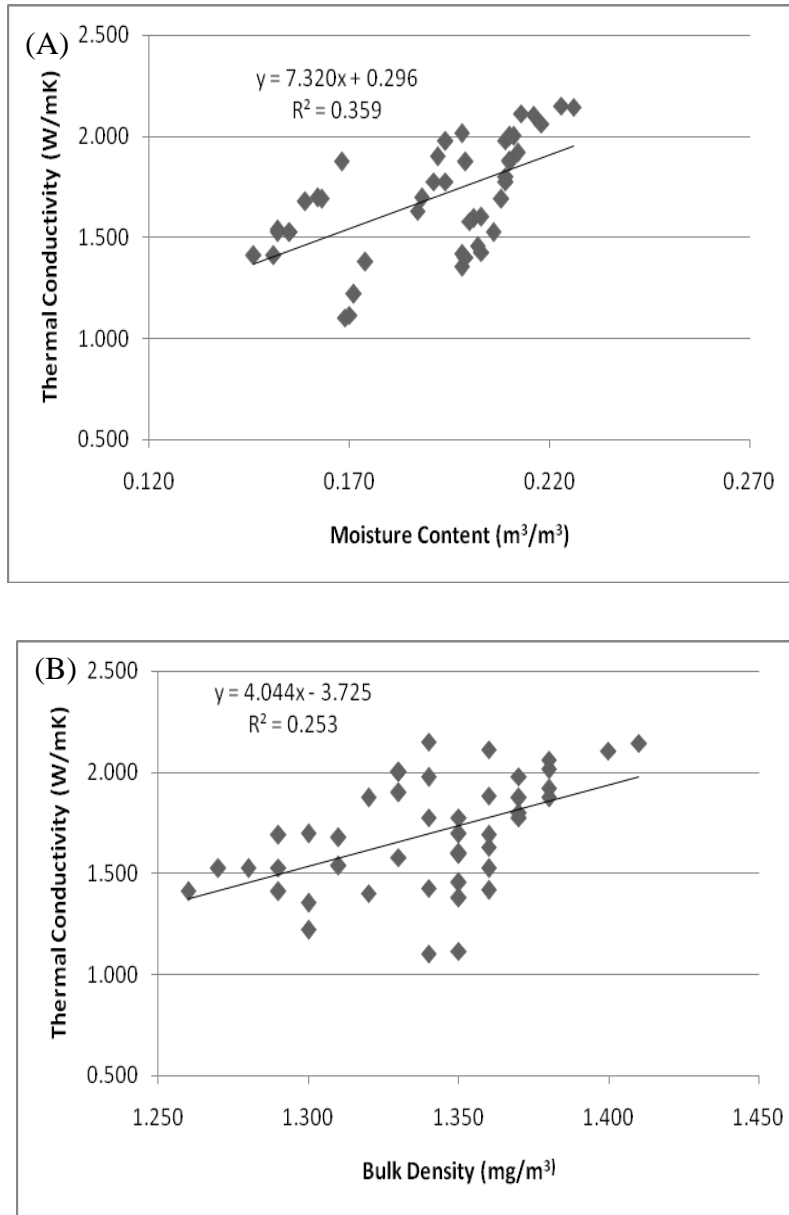
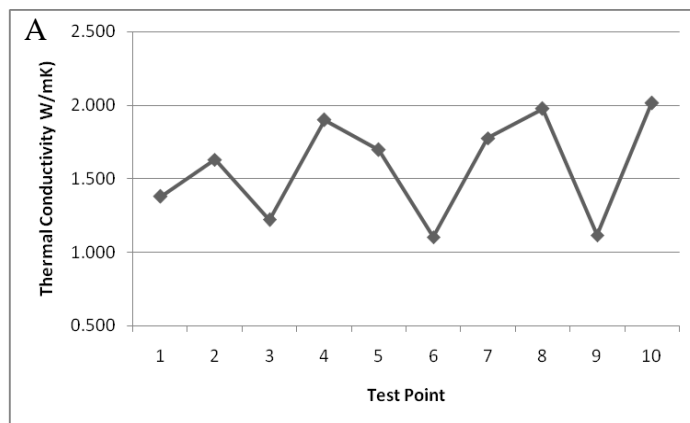


Figure 6: Variation of thermal conductivity with (A) Moisture content (B) Bulk density



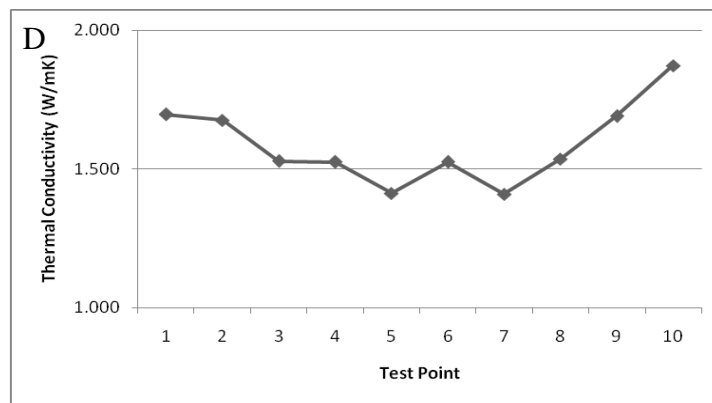
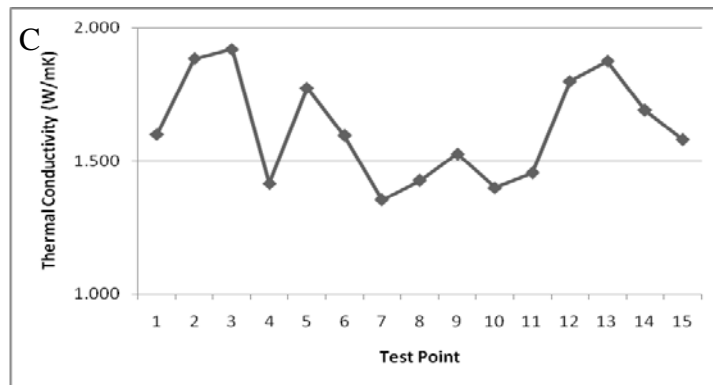
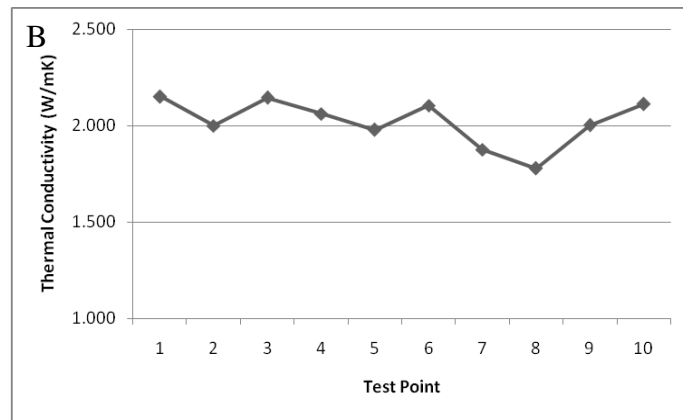
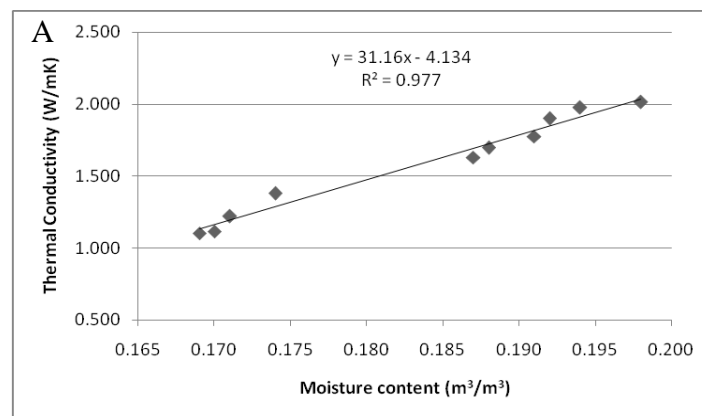


Figure 7: Variation of thermal conductivity in all the fields (A) maize (B) Pineapple (C) cowpea and (D) Okro+vegetables



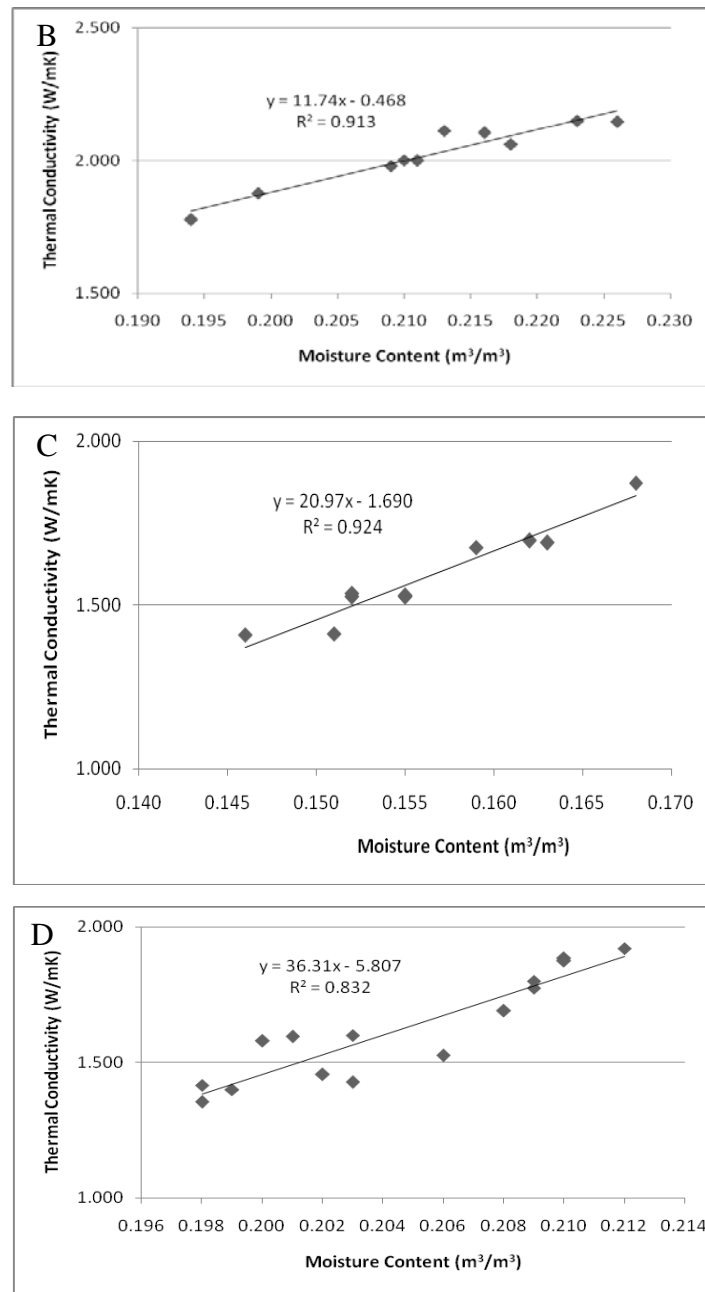
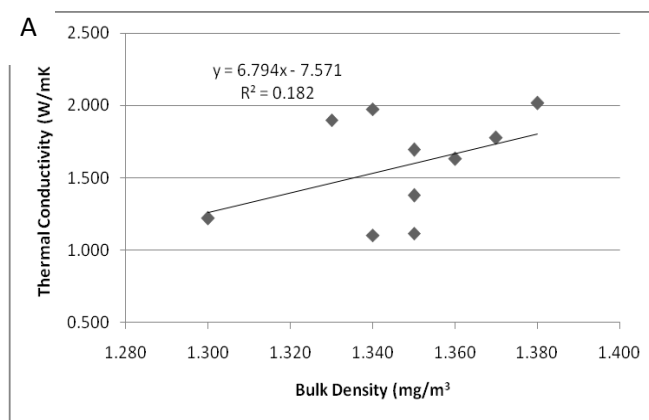


Figure 8 : Variation of thermal conductivity with moisture content in (A) maize (B) pineapple (C) cowpea and (D) okro +vegetable fields



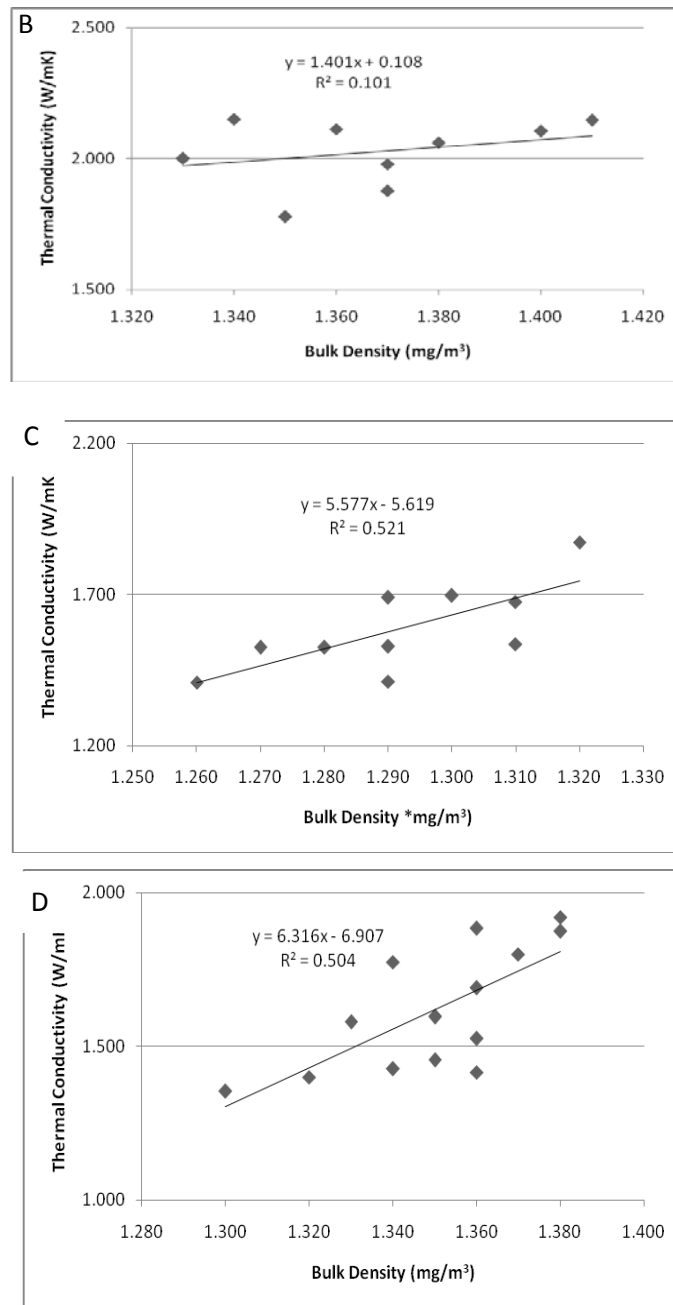


Figure 9 : Variation of thermal conductivity with Bulk density in (A) maize (B) pineapple (C) cowpea and (D) okro +vegetable fields

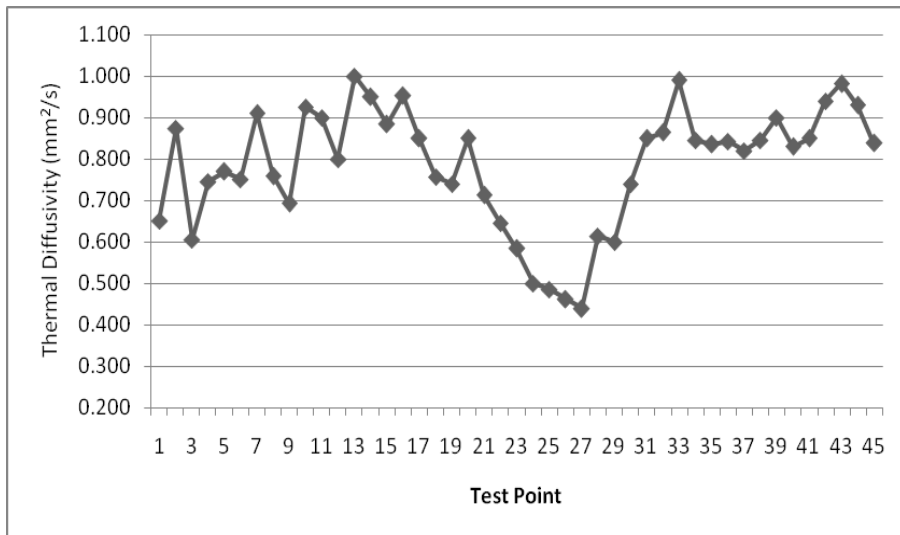


Figure 10 : Variation of thermal diffusivity in the whole study site

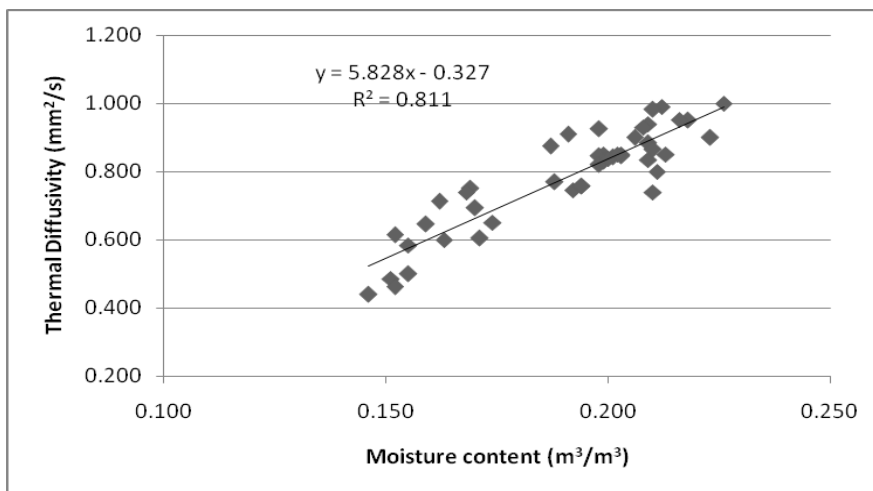


Figure 11 : Influence of Moisture content on thermal diffusivity in the whole study site

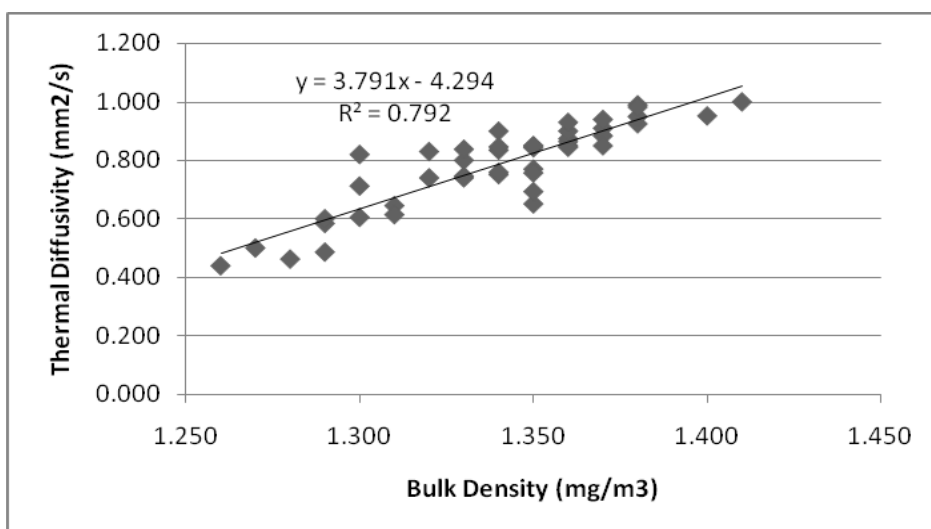


Figure 12 : Influence of Bulk Density on thermal diffusivity in the whole study site

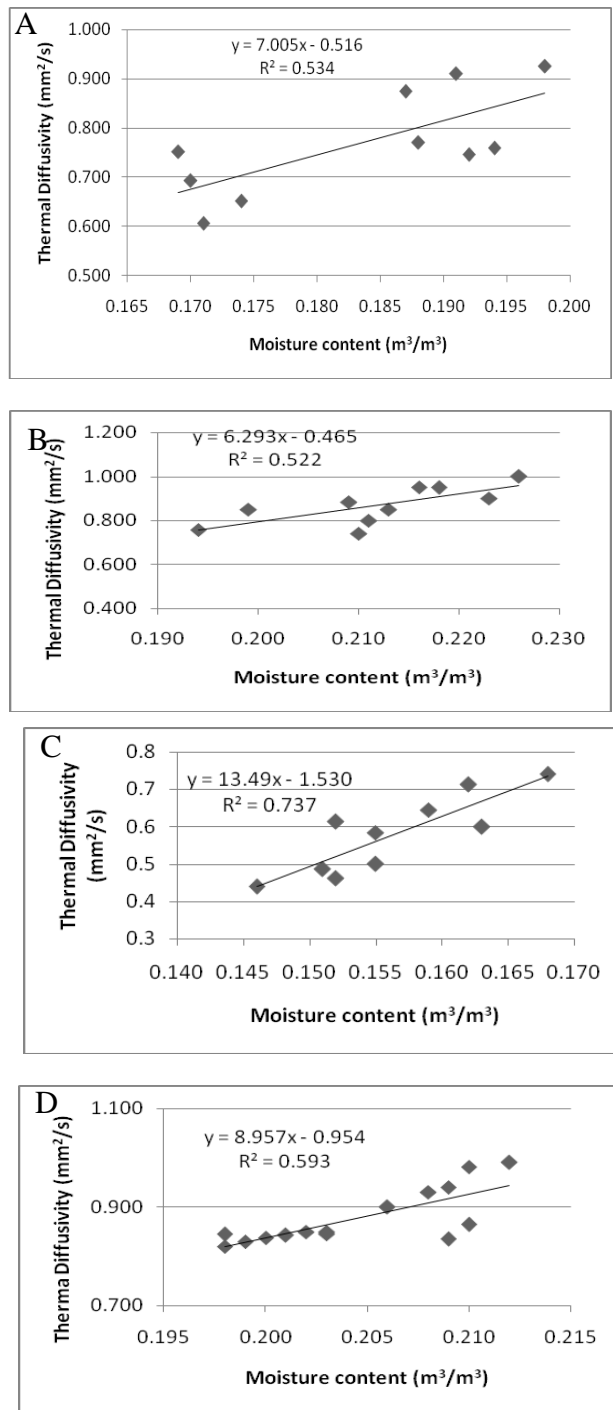


Figure 13 : Influence of moisture content on thermal diffusivity in (A) maize (B) pineapple (C) cowpea and (D) Okro+vegetable fields

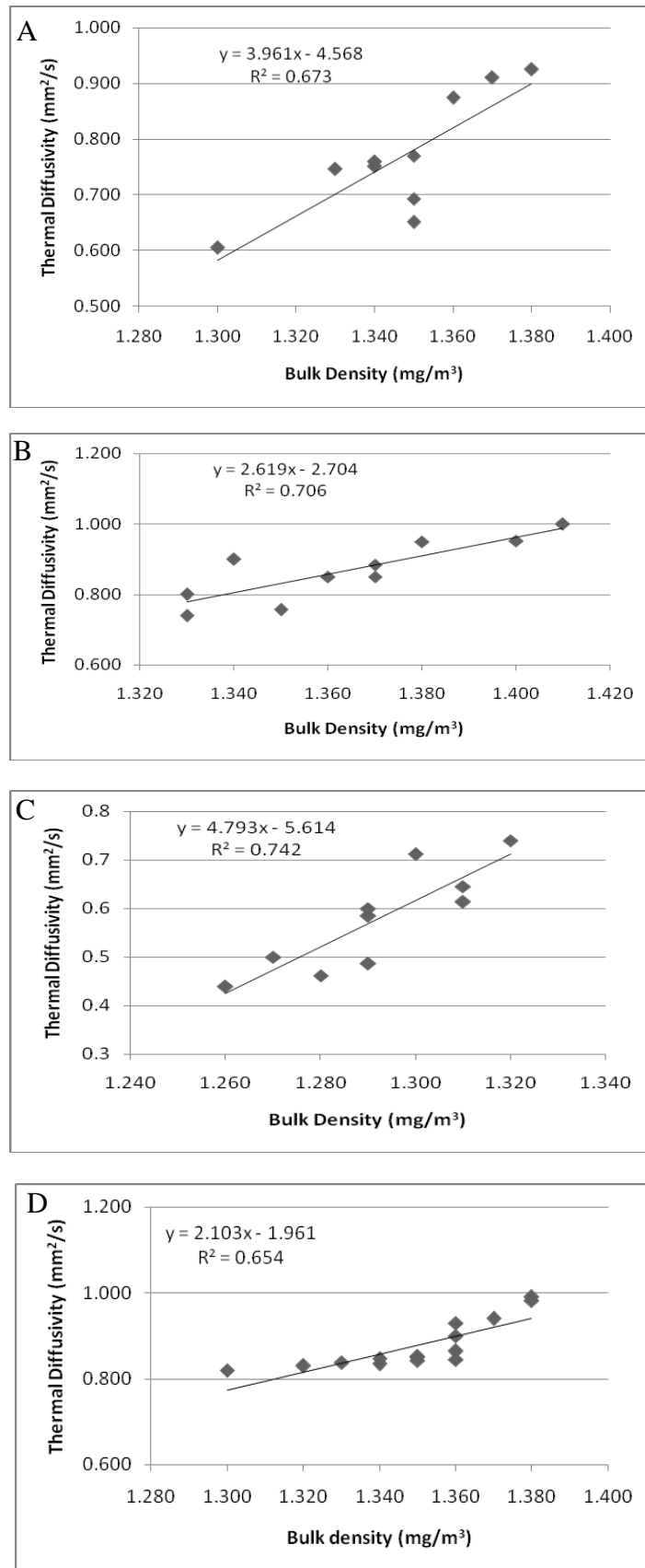


Figure 14 : Influence of Bulk density on thermal diffusivity in (A) maize (B) pineapple (C) cowpea and (D) Okro+vegetable fields

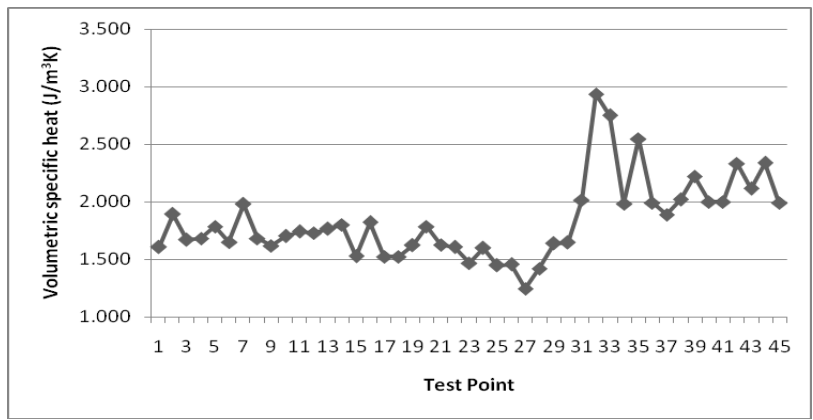


Figure 15 : Variation of volumetric specific heat in all the study sites

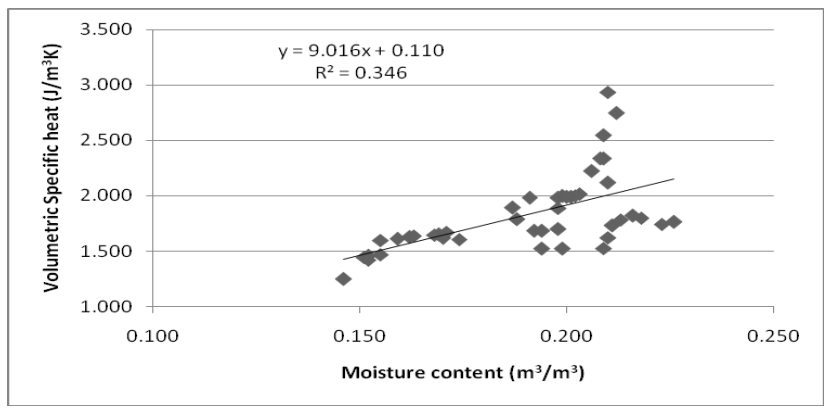


Figure 16 : Variation of volumetric specific heat with moisture content in the whole study site

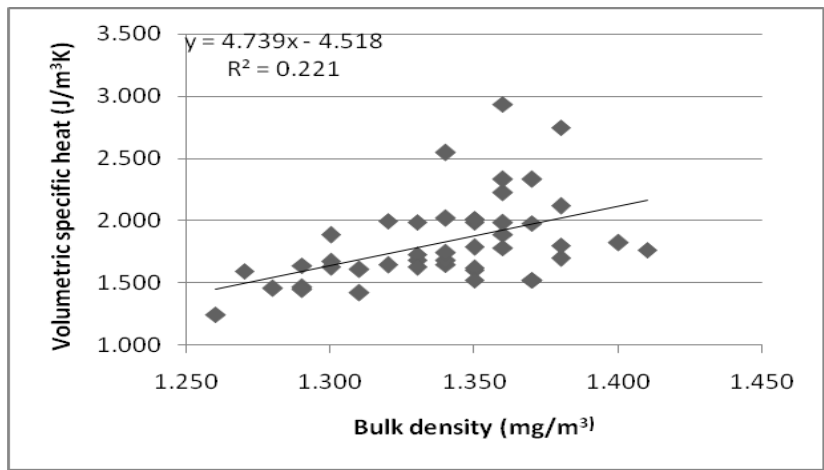


Figure 17 : Variation of volumetric specific heat with Bulk density in the whole study site

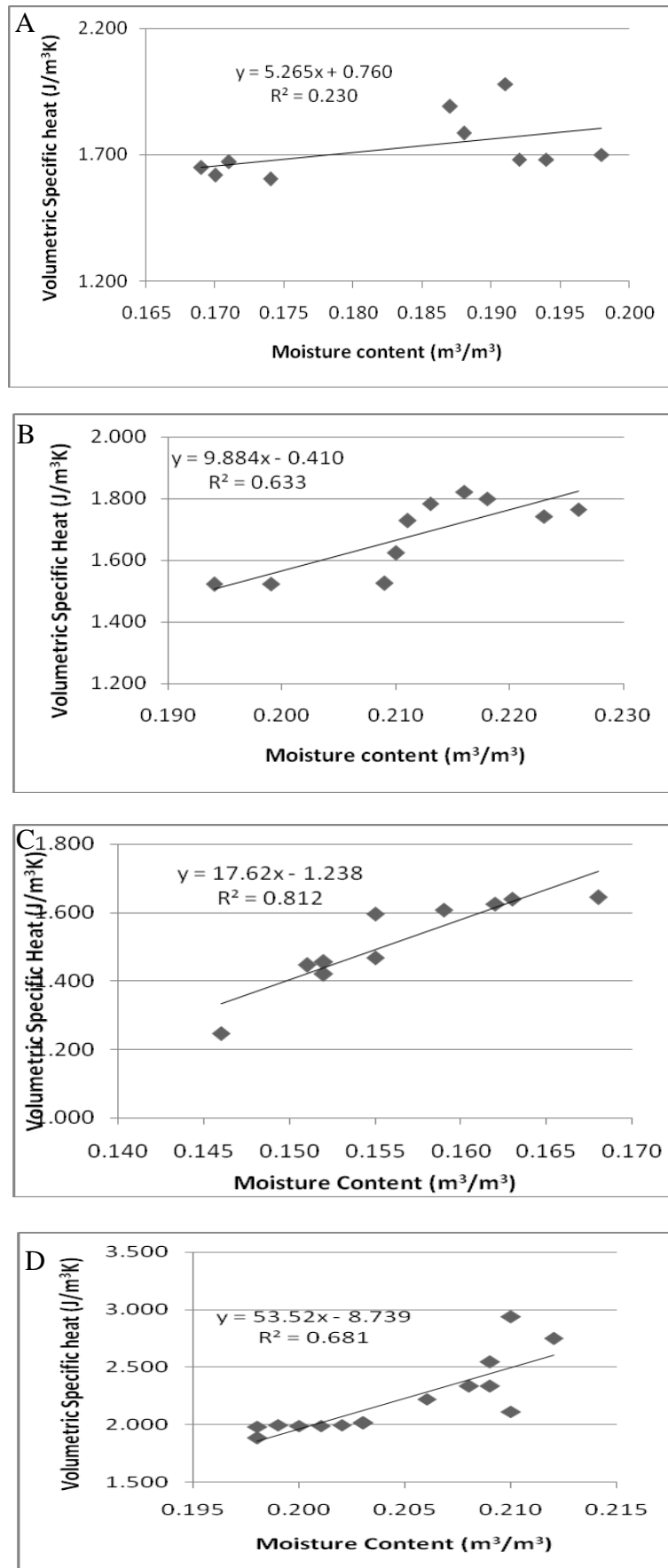


Figure 18 : Variation of volumetric specific heat with moisture content in (A) maize (B) pineapple (C) cowpea and (D) okro+vegetable fields

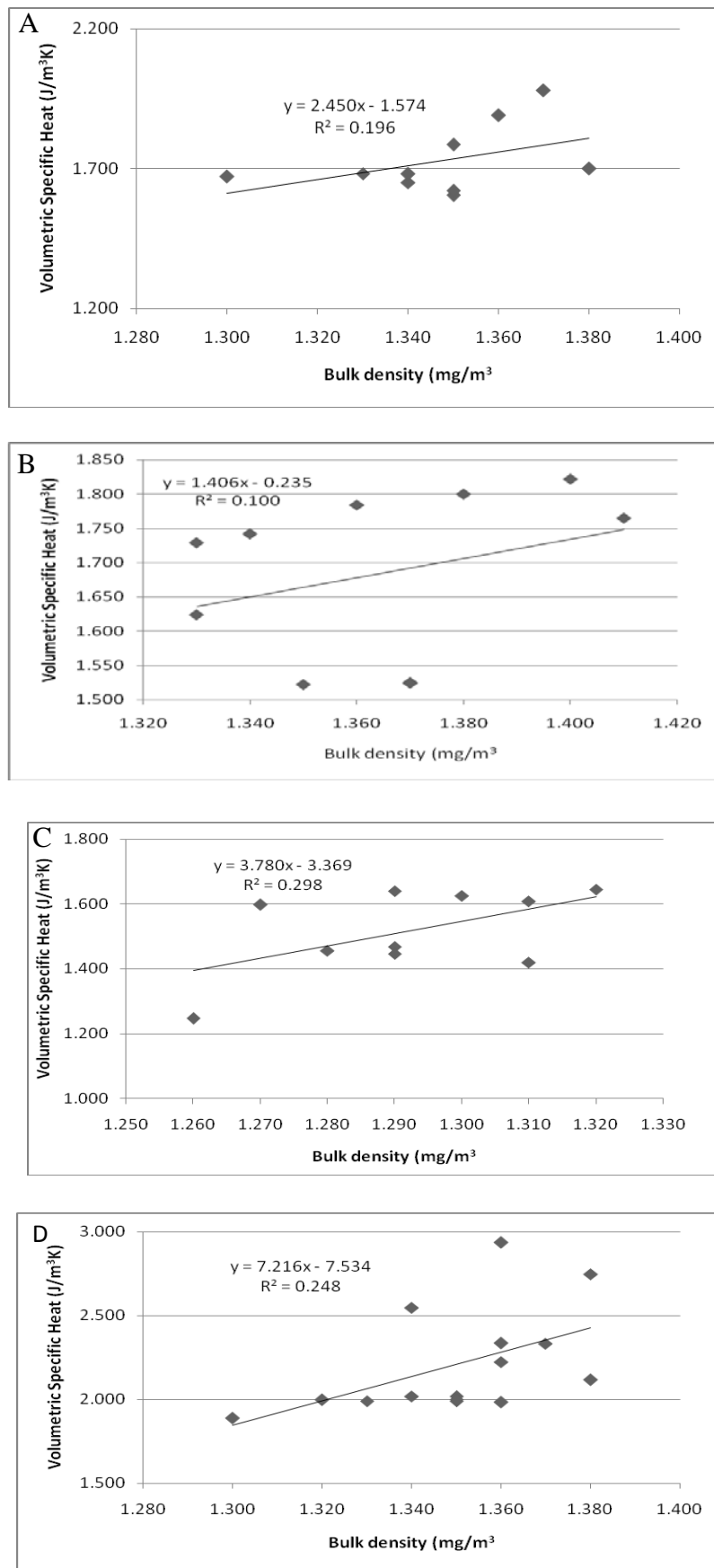


Figure 19 : Variation of volumetric specific heat with moisture content in (A) maize (B) pineapple (C) cowpea and (D) okro+vegetable fields

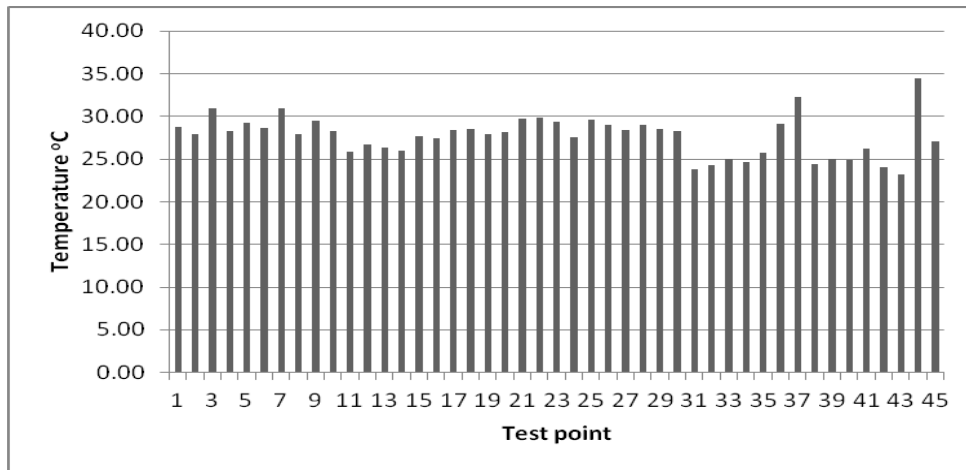
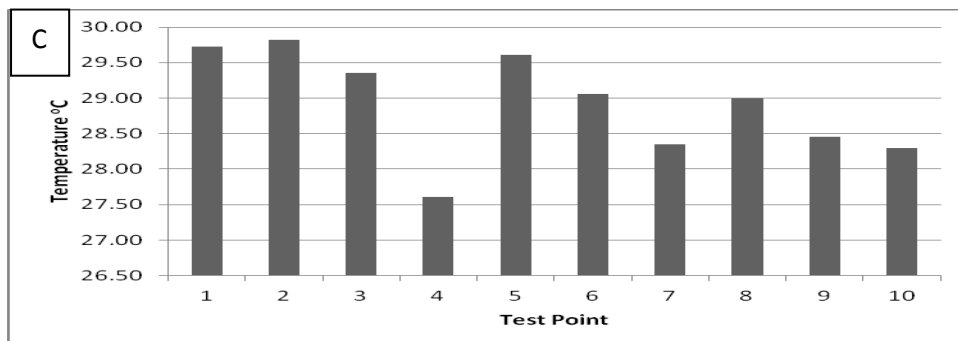
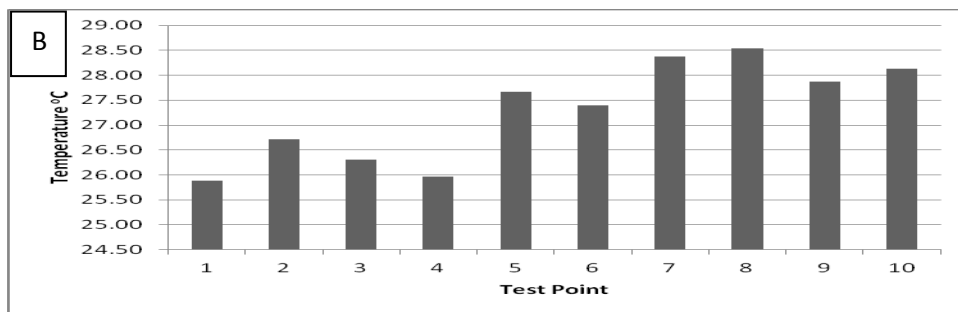
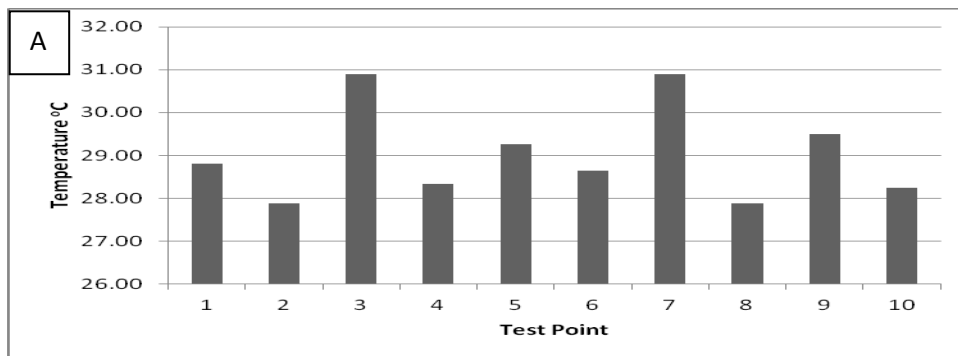


Figure 20 : variation of temperature in the whole site



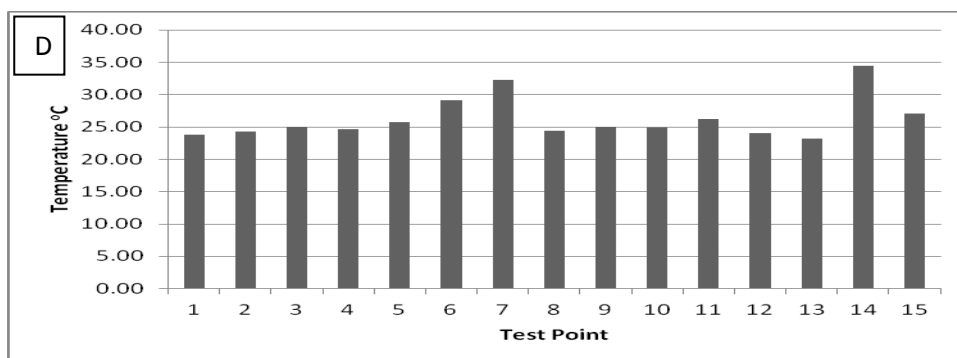


Figure 21 : Distribution of temperature in (A) maize (B) pineapple (C) cowpea and (D) okro+vegetable fields

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<i>References</i>	Complete and correct format, well organized	Beside the point, Incomplete	Wrong format and structuring

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