# Effectiveness of Sulfidic Materials on the N, P, K, Mg and S Nutrient Uptake by Rice Plants Grown in Sulfur Deficient Soil under Field Experiment

Abul Hasnat Md. Shamim<sup>1, 2</sup>, Md. Harunor Rashid Khan<sup>3</sup> and Takeo Akae<sup>1</sup>

 <sup>1</sup>Department of Environmental Management Engineering, Faculty of Environmental Science and Technology, Okayama University, Okayama 700-8530, Japan
<sup>2</sup>School of Agriculture and Rural Development, Bangladesh Open University, Gazipur-1705, Bangladesh
<sup>3</sup>Department of Soil, Water and Environment, Dhaka University, Dhaka-100, Bangladesh E-mail: abulhasnats@yahoo.com, duharun@yahoo.com, akae@cc.okayama-u.ac.jp

**Abstract:** The experiment was conducted to evaluate the effectiveness of sulfidic materials (SM) and Gypsum (G) application at the rates of 0, 20, 30, 40, 50 and 60 kg S ha<sup>-1</sup> on the N, P, K, Mg and S nutrient in rice (*Oryza sativa* L., var. BR11: Mukta) grown in sulfur deficient soil were evaluated under field experiment. The contents of N, P, K, Mg and S nutrient in rice shoots at different growth stages of rice were increased by the application of SM and G fertilizer. But the increments were surprisingly high in case of SM compared to G application. In addition, the applied SM increased the average organic matter and available sulfur contents in the soils by 72 % and 229 % increased over control (IOC), respectively, while these increments were 58 % and 196 % IOC for gypsum treatments, indicating that the SM have potential and effective impacts than that of gypsum not only as a source of fertilizer but also to enrich the fertility and productivity status of soil. Moreover, the SM treatment was found to be maintained the high nutrient status in the soil till the final harvest at maturity of rice, reflecting a good indication for its long term use. It is noted that the use of SM did not show any adverse effect on the plant and soil in this study. [New York Science Journal. 2009;2(4):33-41]. (ISSN: 1554-0200).

Key words: sulfur deficient soil, effectiveness of sulfidic materials, gypsum, N, P, K, Mg and S nutrient, rice, field

#### 1. Introduction

Sulfur is the tenth most abundant element in the universe (Stevenson, 1986; Stevenson and Cole, 1999) and ranks thirteenth in abundance in the Earth's crust (Trudinger, 1975). It is one of the major essential nutrients required by all human beings, animals and plants. Agricultural crops require S in amounts similar to phosphorus P, and S is as important as nitrogen (N) in plant growth and in the formation of crop yield and quality (Morris, 2007). In today's agriculture with the emphasis on higher crop yields, there is an increased need for calcium, magnesium and sulfur. To produce at optimum yields, all crops must have an adequate supply of all of the 16 essential plant nutrients. If one or more is lacking in the soil, crop yields will be reduced even though an adequate amount of the other 13 elements are available. This is somewhat analogous to the fact that a wooden bucket will hold no more water than its shortest stave. Crop yields may be limited by the element that is in shortest supply.

Sulfur deficiency has become widespread over the past several decades in most of the agricultural areas of the world, becoming a limiting factor to higher yields and fertilizer efficiency. Maintenance of field S fertility is often overlooked, and S deficiency symptoms in crops are sometimes confused with P or N deficiencies or Al toxicity. Since concentrated fertilizers with a low S content are now widely used, S deficiency problems appear more often (Hitsuda, et. al., 2005). According to estimates of The Sulphur Institute (TSI) based on crop demand, fertilizer efficiency and current inputs, the current S deficit is about 9.6 million tonnes annually. With increased food production raising S requirements and assuming slower expansion rates for S application, this S deficit is projected to grow to 11.9 million tonnes by 2015 (Ming Xian FAN and Donald L MESSICK, 2007) In Asia: In the late 1990s and early 2000s, intensified agricultural production, pressured by the backdrop of food self-sufficiency goals and limited land resources in the globe's two most populous nations, China and India, has created the S nutrient imbalance. This imbalance is expected to grow due to the widespread gap between available production and supply, and crop requirements. Asia's annual S fertilizer deficit is projected to increase from over 5 million tonnes by 2013, with over 70 % represented by China and India (Morris, 2007). It is noted that about 7 M ha (about 52 %) of agricultural lands are reported to consists of sulfur deficient soils

in the northern region of Bangladesh (SRDI, 1999). The current intensive use of agricultural land for crop production has extended the sulfur deficient areas to about 80 % in the Northern region of Bangladesh (Khan, et al., 2007). Poor crop production as a result of acute sulfur deficiency has frequently been reported by many scientists in different regions of India (Tiwari, et al., 1985) and Bangladesh (Khan, 2000). The current use of gypsum, ammonium sulfate, zinc sulfate, etc. as sulfur fertilizers to the soils can instantly supply the sulfur to crops but the fertilization has to be done for each crop in every year, which was even unable to give satisfactory yield of crop and it is not a good practice for the soils as well as environments. Therefore, a suitable and sustainable source of sulfur is indispensable.

Highest levels of S are found in wetlands, mainly in soils containing acid-sulfate materials, and in alkaline, gypsiferous soils in arid and semiarid regions (Ribeiro, et. al., 2001). The utilize of sulfidic materials (SM) or layers obtaining from acid sulfate soils (ASSs) as sulfur fertilizer for crop production is very scanty. Khan, et al., (2002) reported that the high organic matter (2-9 %) total sulfur (3-7 %) and micronutrients in ASSs or SM deserve attention to use these soil materials for the reclamation of alkaline, calcareous or sulfur deficient soils and also for the amendment for ASSs themselves by the removal of SM from the soil. Khan, et al. (1994) also reported that the ASSs contained high Mg (1.3 to 2.6 c mol kg<sup>-1</sup>) and Al (1 to 2 c mol kg<sup>-1</sup>). But the use of high Al contained ASSs or SM did not notice any harmful effects when applied in the soils having pH > 4.5 (Khan, et al., 2002). The present studied SM in an ASS layer, which occupies 0.7 M ha land area in Bangladesh, had low pH (< 3), high sulfate and organic matter (Khan, et al., 2006)

The elimination of SM from the ASSs is not only reclaimed the ASSs for a long time but its use in sulfur deficient or non-fertile soils at the rate of about 300 to 1500 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> may improve the fertility and productivity of the soils. Khan, et al. (2007) reported that the application of SM at the rate of 75 kg S ha<sup>-1</sup> for sulfur deficient soils had no negative effect on soil pH, nutrient status in the soils and Sunflower production under pot experiment. They suggested that the application of SM was not only effective as sulfur fertilizer but also enriched the organic matter in the soils. Moreover, many studies have been conducted on the mineralization of elements such as N, P, and K from animal manures in various climates and soil conditions (Ebeling, et al., 2003; Egrinya-Eneji, et al., 2003; Eghball, et al., 2002; Schmitt, et al., 2001). However, there are relatively few that focus on nutrients such as Ca and S (Egrinya-Eneji, et al., 2003). Against this background, the present study was considered to evaluate the impacts of SM or ASSs compared with gypsum as sulfur fertilizer in relation to rice production in sulfur deficient soil under field experiment.

#### 2. Materials and Methods

#### 2.1 Soil collection and analyses

The SM (Cheringa acid sulfate soil) used for this study was obtained from the surface soil (depth of 0-15 cm) at Dulahazara in the Cox' Bazar district (Latitude 1206.2 rad or 21°3' N, Longitude 5220.0 rad or 91°6' E) in Bangladesh. Soils were collected from each replicated pots using Cork borer (2 cm diameter), then air-dried and screened by 1 mm sieve. The soils were oven dried at 105°C before analysis. The particle size distribution of the initial soil was determined by the pipette method (Day, 1965) with 1 M CH<sub>3</sub>COONH<sub>4</sub> (pH 5.0) and with 30 % H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> to remove free salts and organic matter. Soil pH was measured by the soil-water ratio 1:2.5 and for the oven dried soil 0.02M CaCl<sub>2</sub> (1:2.5) suspension (Jackson 1973) using a Corning pH meter Model-7. For saturation extract of soils, the electrical conductivity (soil solution has extracted from saturated soil paste through vacuum pump: Richards, 1954), water soluble Na and K (Gallenkamp flame photometry using 589 and 766 nm filters, respectively: Black 1965),  $Ca^{2+}$  and  $Mg^{2+}$ (Pye UniCam-SP 9 atomic absorption spectrometry: Hesse, 1971) were determined. Organic matter content was determined (Nelson and Somners, 1982) by wet combustion with K<sub>2</sub>Cr<sub>2</sub>O<sub>7</sub>. Available N (1.3M KCl extraction, Jackson, 1973), available P (0.002 N H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>, pH 3 extraction, Olsen, et al., 1954) and available S (BaCl<sub>2</sub> turbidity, Sakai, 1978) were determined. Cation exchange capacity was determined by saturation with 1 M CH<sub>3</sub>COONH<sub>4</sub> (pH 7.0), ethanol washing,  $NH_4^+$  displacement with acidified 10 % NaCl, and subsequent analyses by steam (Kjeldhal method) distillation (Chapman, 1965). Exchangeable Na<sup>+</sup>,  $K^+$ ,  $Ca^{2+}$ and  $Mg^{2+}$  were extracted with 1 M CH<sub>3</sub>COONH<sub>4</sub> (pH 7.0) and determined by flame photometry (Na<sup>+</sup>, K<sup>+</sup>) and atomic absorption spectrometry  $(Ca^{2+}, Mg^{2+})$ . Total sulfur was obtained by digestion with a mixture of concentrated HCl/HNO<sub>3</sub> (1:3) and determined by turbidity method (Sakai, 1978).

# 2.3 Field experiment

The field experiment was conducted at Tongi, Gazipur district, Bangladesh during the period for June to October, 2000 to evaluate the impacts of SM compared with G as a source of sulfur fertilizer in relation to rice (*Oryza sativa* L., var. BR11: Mukta) production grown in sulfur deficient soil. The experimental treatments on the basis of furrow slice of the studied soils were: Control, 0 (no application of SM and G); SM<sub>20</sub>, SM<sub>30</sub>, SM<sub>40</sub>, SM<sub>50</sub>, SM<sub>60</sub> (SM 20, 30, 40, 50, 60 kg S ha<sup>-1</sup>) and G<sub>20</sub>, G<sub>30</sub>, G<sub>40</sub>, G<sub>50</sub>, G<sub>60</sub> (G 20, 30, 40, 50, 60 kg S ha<sup>-1</sup>). Each treatment was replicated thrice. Thirty three plots were selected as per experimental design (2 fertilizers X 6 doses = 12-1 = 11 X 3 = 33) having each plot size of 2 square meter (2 X 1 meter).

The soil in each plot was fertilized with N, P and K at the rates of 80, 40 and 60 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> as urea, triple super phosphate (TSP) and murate of potash (MP), respectively. The full dose of TSP and MP and half of urea were mixed with the soil during plot preparation. The remaining urea was applied in equal splits, one at the active tillering stage of rice and the other at the panicle initiation stage. As per treatments, the soils in the plot were also subjected to the application of SM and G at the rates of 0, 20, 30, 40, 50 and 60 kg S ha<sup>-1</sup> during plot preparation. Both the SM and G were dried, milled and sieved (1 mm sieve). Thirty five days old healthy and uniform seedlings were transplanted at the rate of five plants per hill and 60 hills per plot (row to row and hill to hill distance were 15 cm). The soils in the plots were irrigated by river water whenever necessary to maintain the soil under moist to wet conditions required for the production of rice. Seedlings were collected by the courtesy of Bangladesh Rich Research Institute (BRRI), Gazipur, Bangladesh.

## 2.4 Plant collection and analysis

At different stages of growth of rice shoot, the nutrients content were determined at 30 (20-40 early tillering stage = ETS), 60 (41-70 maximum tillering stage = MTS) and 110 (harvesting at maturity) days after transplanting (DT). The N contents were analyzed by the  $H_2SO_4$  digestion through the micro-Kjeldhal method (Jackson, 1973) and P contents by spectrometry (Jackson, 1973); K content by Gallenkamp flame photometry (Black, 1965); S contents by turbidometry (Jackson, 1973) and Mg contents by atomic absorption spectrometry (Hesse, 1971) in  $HNO_3$ - $HCIO_4$  acid (2:1) digest. The level of significance of the different treatments was determined at different stages of growth using Duncan's New Multiple Range Test (DMRT) and least significance different (LSD) techniques (Zaman, et al., 1982).

#### **3. Results and Discussion**

#### 3.1 Sulfidic Materials (SM)

The SM was collected from the surface (depth: 0-15 cm) of an acid sulfate soil (Typic Sulfic Halaquept, detailed: Khan, et al., 2006) showed a silty clay loam texture with pH values of 3.3 (0.02 M CaCl<sub>2</sub>) and 3.8 (field), indicating that the SM had probably accumulated a large amount of pyrite which had produced  $H_2SO_4$  in the laboratory by oxidation. The EC, available and total sulfur and organic matter content in the SM were very high (Table 1). The content of Ca in SM was low compared with the Mg content, which might be due to occasional flooding with sea water rich in Mg. The Na content was also high due to the flooding with high saline water. The SM was in fact a fertile but unproductive soil due to its high acidity, salinity and imbalance of nutrients.

#### 3.2 Conditions of initial and post harvested soils

The studied soil had silty clay loam textures, initial pH values of 5.0 to 5.3 as determined by the different conditions. These sulfur deficient soil was subjected to the application of SM and G in relation to rice production. The pH values at different conditions of the average soil data of all the treatments at post harvesting were found to be decreased by 0.1 to 0.3 pH units compared with the initial soil, indicating that the application of acidic SM on these soils had negligible influences on the pH of the soils. On the other hand, the SM strikingly increased the initial low content of organic matter, N, P, K, Ca, Mg, available and total sulfur in the soil by 2 to 233 % compared with the initial soils (Table 1), which was due to the high nutrient status of the applied SM though there might be a little contribution from the plant roots. The base saturation of the initial soil was 85 % which was increased to 89 % at the final harvesting of rice, (Table 1). These increases of base saturation were attributed to the high content of basic cations in the applied SM. The EC values of the soils were found to be increased from 1.0 to 2.1 dS m<sup>-1</sup>, which are attributed to the higher EC values of the SM used. However, these increased levels of EC values might not have remarkable

influence on the production of rice.

### 3.3 Sulfur and organic matters in the soils

The available S contents of the soil was found to be increased by the application of SM and G but the effects were more pronounced in case of SM and the increments were significantly ( $p\leq0.05$ ) stronger with the passes of time (Table 2 and Figure 1). Apart from fertilizer rates, the applied SM and G increased the available S contents by 295 and 218 %, respectively at post harvesting of rice at maturity (Table 2). This might be due to the contents of other essential nutrients especially N in SM (Table 1), which enhanced sulfur uptake by the rice compared with the G treated plots. On the other hand, S content was found to be increased by the treatments but decreased in few cases by the passes of time was attributed to the uptake of rice plant (Table 2).

The content of organic matter in the soil throughout the experimental period was found to be improved a little by the different rates of gypsum fertilization, whereas almost all the doses of SM significantly increased the organic matter status in the soils and the increments were more striking with the higher doses of SM (Table 2). The application of SM increased the average organic matter in the soil by 72 % IOC at post harvesting of rice at maturity, while these increments were 58 % for G treatments. These increments in organic matter status in the soil were attributed to the high content of organic matter in the applied SM and the little enrichment of organic matter by the G treatments were attributed to the contribution of cultivation processes. Shamim, et al. (2008) also found the same findings and reported that the application of SM at the rate of 160 kg S ha<sup>-1</sup> for sulfur deficient soils had no negative effect on nutrient status in the soils and rice production under pot experiment.

# 3.4 Nutrition of rice

At different growth stages of rice, the contents of N, P, K, Mg and S in rice shoot were increased by the SM and G application. The increments were more striking in case of SM compared to G application (Table 3). The lowest contents of these nutrients were observed for the control treatments in the soil. The average S contents in plant tissue of all the SM treatments at the final harvesting (110 DT) of rice were increased by 156 % compared with the control treatments. But these increments of S by the average of all G treatments were 133 % for the rice plants grown in sulfur deficient soils. It is mentioned that sulfur concentration in rice shoots decreases over time. These findings suggest that the impacts of SM as S-fertilizer were much higher than G and would also be effective for the subsequent crops as indicated by the high contents of nutrient in rice plants at final harvesting (110 DT) stages. The use of SM from ASSs not only recover S deficiency of rice plants but also enhanced the growth of rice and improved the fertility status of the studied soils compared to gypsum. Moreover, the removal of SM from ASSs may lead the reclamation of acute problem of the ASSs. Khan, et al., (2002, 2007) reported that the nutrient uptake by tomato, onion and sunflower were strikingly increased by the application of SM compared to G and MgSO<sub>4</sub>.

Soil properties		Studied soi	Sulfidic Materials	
	Before	After	%	( <sup>‡</sup> ASSs)
	use	use	<sup>†</sup> IOC	
Textural class	S	Silty clay lo	Silty clay loam	
Soil pH (Field)	5.3	5.2	-	3.8
Soil pH (Soil: Water=1: 2.5)	5.2	4.9	-	3.6
Soil pH (CaCl <sub>2</sub> =1.2.5)	5.0	4.7	-	3.3
$E C (1: 5 dS m^{-1})$	1.0	2.1	110.0	19.0
Organic matter (g kg <sup>-1</sup> )	7.0	9.2	31.4	40.0
Extractable N (m M kg <sup>-1</sup> )	0.2	0.25	25.0	3.6

**Table 1.** Some selected properties of initial soils (depth 0-15 cm, oven dry basis), sulfidic materials and the average soils of all the treatments at post harvesting of rice used during field experiment.

New York Science Journal, 2009, 2(4), ISSN 1554-0200 http://www.sciencepub.net/newyork , sciencepub@gmail.com

	1			I
Available P (m M kg <sup>-1</sup> )	0.5	0.51	2.0	0.1
CEC (c mol kg <sup>-1</sup> )	16.1	17.8	10.6	17.2
Base saturation (%)	84.6	89.2	5.4	21.1
Exchangeable cations (c mol kg <sup>-1</sup> )				
Sodium	0.37	0.65	75.7	2.13
Potassium	0.07	0.14	100.0	0.24
Calcium	6.45	6.62	2.6	0.31
Magnesium	3.61	3.99	10.5	0.95
Water soluble ions (c mol kg <sup>-1</sup> )				
Sodium	0.12	0.21	75.0	4.8
Potassium	0.24	0.32	33.3	0.3
Calcium	3.8	3.94	3.7	0.3
Magnesium	2.64	3.6	36.4	3.3
Available sulfur	0.03	0.1	233	35.1
Total sulfur	1.56	2.87	84.0	165.6

<sup>†</sup>IOC = Increased over control, <sup>‡</sup>ASS = Acid sulfate soil

<b>Table 2</b> Contents of sulfur and organic matter of the soils at different growth stages of rice as influenced by the
application of sulfidic material (SM: kg S ha <sup>-1</sup> ) and gypsum (G: kg S ha <sup>-1</sup> ) in the sulfur deficient soil.

Treatment	Available sulfur (m M kg <sup>-1</sup> )			Total sulfur (m M kg <sup>-1</sup> )			Organic matter (g kg <sup>-1</sup> )			
denotation	$30 \text{ DT}^{\dagger}$	60 DT	110 DT	30 DT	60 DT	110 DT	30 DT	60 DT	110 DT	
Studied soil: Silty clay loam, pH 5.2, Organic matter=7.0 g kg <sup>-1</sup> , Total S=15.6 and available-S=0.30 m M kg <sup>-1</sup>										
Control	0.32d	0.28e	0.26d	15.9d	15.4d	13e	7.1c	6.6b	6.1d	
$SM_{20}$	0.38c	0.61c	0.74b	18d	15.7d	13.2e	7.3b	6.6b	6.9c	
SM <sub>30</sub>	0.46b	0.68b	0.79b	24.3c	22.1c	19.4d	7.4b	7.1b	8.1b	
$SM_{40}$	0.59a	0.72b	0.81a	32.1b	28.2b	25.3b	7.8a	7.3a	8.3b	
SM <sub>50</sub>	0.62a	0.81a	0.87a	38.5a	35.1a	32.1a	8.1a	7.8a	9.2a	
$SM_{60}$	0.65a	0.86a	0.9a	40a	36.3a	32.2a	8.4a	8.1a	9.4a	
G <sub>20</sub>	0.34c	0.56d	0.63c	17.4d	14.5d	12.8e	6.3c	6.4b	6.8c	
G <sub>30</sub>	0.4c	0.59c	0.67c	21.2c	16.6d	13.5e	6.9b	6.5b	7.3c	
G <sub>40</sub>	0.52b	0.65c	0.71b	23.5c	19.2c	15.6e	7.3b	6.7b	7.6b	
G <sub>50</sub>	0.59a	0.74b	0.78b	32.3b	28.6b	24.1c	7.6a	7.2b	8.1b	
G <sub>60</sub>	0.61a	0.78a	0.83a	36.2a	31.4b	27.8b	8a	7.8a	8.8a	
LSD at 5%	0.06	0.08	0.09	3.8	3.5	3.0	0.8	0.75	0.9	
SM-IOC (%)	110.94	228.57	295.19	140.41	123.05	135.00	37.32	39.77	71.72	
G-IOC (%)	92.19	196.43	218.08	105.35	79.06	80.38	27.11	31.06	58.20	

<sup>†</sup>DT = days after transplanting, <sup>‡</sup>In a column, means followed by a common letter are not significantly different at 5% level by LSD. IOC = Increased over control.

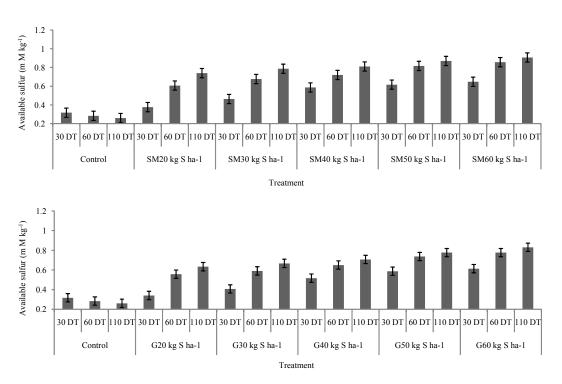
Treatment	Nitrogen		Phosphorus		Potassium		Magnesium		Sulfur	
denotation	$60 \text{ DT}^{\dagger}$	110 DT	60 DT	110 DT	60 DT	110 DT	60 DT	110 DT	60 DT	110 DT
	( <sup>‡</sup> MTS)	( <sup>¶</sup> Maturity)	(MTS)	(Maturity)	(MTS)	(Maturity)	(MTS)	(Maturity)	(MTS)	(Maturity)
Control	20.2	7.8d	1.1	0.9e	22.3	15.5c	5.2	2.8c	1.9	1.3d
$SM_{20}$	20.7	9.2c	1.5	1.2d	26.2	16.4b	5.5	3.1b	2.6	1.8c
$SM_{30}$	21.5	9.9b	1.9	1.4c	26.7	16.7b	6.1	3.2b	3.1	1.9c
$SM_{40}$	22.3	11.4a	2.2	1.8b	27.4	17.5b	6.9	3.4b	3.7	2.5b
$SM_{50}$	23.6	11.8a	2.5	2.1a	29.6	18.8a	7.3	3.8a	4.2	3.4a
$SM_{60}$	24.2	12.5a	2.6	2.3a	30.1	19.7a	7.7	4.1a	4.4	3.7a
G <sub>20</sub>	20.3	8.6c	1.2	1.1d	25.8	15.8b	5.3	3c	2.1	1.5c
G <sub>30</sub>	20.6	9.1c	1.5	1.3c	26.4	15.9b	5.6	3.1b	2.3	1.8c
G <sub>40</sub>	21.5	9.7c	1.8	1.5c	26.9	16.7b	6.2	3.2b	2.8	2.6b
G <sub>50</sub>	21.9	10.4b	2.2	1.8b	28.1	17.5b	6.7	3.2b	3.5	2.9b
G <sub>60</sub>	22.8	11b	2.3	2b	29.3	18.6a	7.1	3.5b	4.1	3.3a
LSD at 5%		1.2		0.2		1.8		0.38		0.36
SM-IOC (%)	38.99	75.64	143.18	144.44	56.95	43.71	61.06	57.14	136.84	155.77
G-IOC (%)	32.55	56.41	104.55	113.89	53.03	36.29	48.56	42.86	94.74	132.69

**Table 3** Effect of sulfidic materials (SM) and Gypsum (G) on the nutrients contents ( $g kg^{-1}$ ) at different stages of growth of rice shoot in the sulfur deficient soil.

<sup>†</sup>DT=days after transplantation of rice, <sup>‡</sup>MTS=maximum tillering stage of rice, <sup>¶</sup>Maturity=maturity stage of rice, In a column, means followed by a common letter are not significantly different at 5% level by LSD. IOC=Increased over control.

# 4. Conclusion

In rice shoots, the content of N, P, K, Mg and S at different growth stages was increased by the application of sulfidic materials (SM) and gypsum (G). But the increments were surprisingly high in case of SM compared to G fertilizer. The use of SM and G increased the available S by 295 and 218 % increased over control (IOC) at post harvesting of rice at maturity, suggesting that the SM compared with G as a source of S-fertilizer was potential and effective for the recovery of S deficiency as well as fertility status of the soils. In addition, the improved knowledge of the available and total sulfur in the soil and plant over time can help or lead to a more rational use of fertilizers. The high organic matter (40.0 g kg<sup>-1</sup>), available-S (35.1 c mol kg<sup>-1</sup>) and total S (165.6 c mol kg<sup>-1</sup>) and other nutrient contents, specially micro-nutrient of the SM deserve attention to use these soil materials for the reclamation of poor soils like saline, alkaline, calcareous, sulfur deficient soils, etc. But further field research is essential to find out the optimum doses of SM for different soils under variable conditions.



**Figure 1.** Effect of sulfidic material (SM) and gypsum (G) on the available sulfur at different growth stages of rice in the sulfur deficient soil. Vertical bars indicate  $\pm$  standard errors of means.

#### Acknowledgements

This research was supported by the Volkswagen Foundation (Ref.: 1/73802 dated 03.08.98) and Alexander von Humboldt (AvH) Foundation of Germany. The senior author gratefully acknowledges to Japanese Government (Monbukagakusho: MEXT) Scholarship and the Graduate School of Environmental Science, Okayama University, Japan for their cooperation.

#### References

- Abul Hasnat Md. Shamim, Md. Harunor Rashid Khan and Takeo Akae. Impacts of Sulfidic Materials on the Selected Major Nutrient Uptake by Rice Plants Grown in Sulfur Deficient Soils under Pot Experiment. Journal of American Science, 2008; 4(3):68-74.
- Black CA. Methods of Soil Analysis, Part 2, Series 9, Am Soc. Agron. Inst. Publ., Madison, WI, 1965; 894-1372.
- Chapman HD. Cation exchange capacity. In: Methods of Soil Analysis. Part 2, Agron. Series 9. CA Black (ed.). Am. Soc. Agron, Publ. Madison, WI, USA, 1965; 891-900.
- Day PR. Particle fractionation and particle size analysis. In: Methods of Soil Analysis. Part 2, Agron. Series 9. CA Black (ed.). Am. Soc. Agron., Publ. Madison, WI, USA, 1965; 545-566.
- Ebeling AM, Cooperband LR and Bundy LG. Phosphorus source effects on soil test phosphorus and forms of phosphorus in soil. Commun. Soil Sci. Plant Anal, 2003; 34:1897–1917.
- Eghball B and Power JF. Phosphorus and nitrogen based manure and compost applications: Corn

production and soil phosphorus. Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J, 1999; 63:895–901.

Eghball B, Wienhold BJ, Gilley JE and Eigenberg RA. Mineralization of manure nutrients. J. Soil Water Conserv, 2002; 57:470–473.

Egrinya-Eneji A, Irshad M, Honna T, Yamamoto S, Endo T and Masuada T. Potassium, calcium and magnesium mineralization in manure treated soils. Commun. Soil Sci. Plant Anal, 2003; 34: 1669–1679. Hesse PR. A text Book of Soil Chemical Analysis. John Murry Publ., London, 1971.

- Hitsuda K, Yamada M and Klepker D. Sulfur requirement of eight crops at early stages of growth. Agronomy Journal, 2005; 97:155-159.
- Jackson ML. Soil Chemical Analysis. Prentice Hall of India Pvt. Ltd., New Delhi, 1973; 41-330.
- Khan HR, Blume H-P, Kabir SM, Bhuiyan MMA, Ahmed F, Syeed SMA. Quantification of the severity, reserve and extent of acidity in the twenty profiles of acid sulfate soils and their threats to environment. Soil & Environ, 2007; 26 (in press).
- Khan HR, Kabir SM, Bhuiyan MMA, Blume H-P, Adachi T, Oki Y and Islam K R. Physico-chemical amendments of acid sulfate soils for rice production in Bangladesh. The 18<sup>th</sup> World Congress of Soil Science Abstract, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, USA, July 9-15, 2006. p. 682.
- Khan HR, Bhuiyan MMA, Kabir SM, Oki Y and Adachi T. Effects of selected treatments on the production of rice in acid sulfate soils in a simulation study. Jpn. J. Trop. Agr, 2006; 50:109-115.
- Khan HR, Bhuiyan MMA, Kabir SM, Ahmed F, Syeed SMA and Blume H-P. The assessment and management of acid sulfate soils in Bangladesh in relation to crop production. In: The restoration and management of derelict land, MH Wong and AD Bradshaw (ed.), World Scientific Publishing Co. Pte. Ltd. UK, 2002; 254-262.
- Khan HR. Problem, prospects and future directions of acid sulfate soils. Proc. Inter. Conference on Remade Lands 2000, A Brion and RW Bell (ed.). Perth, Australia, Nov. 30 to Dec. 2, 2000; 66-67.
- Khan HR, Rahman S, Hussain MS, Adachi T. Growth and yield response of rice to selected amendments in an acid sulfate soil. Soil Sci. Plant Nutr., 1994; 40: 231–242.
- Ming Xian FAN and MESSICK Donald L. Correcting Sulphur Deficiency for Higher Productivity and Fertilizer Efficiency, IFA CROSSROADS, ASIA-PACIFIC 2007, 17-19 December Bail, Indonesia, 2007.
- Morris RJ. Sulphur in Agriculture: Global Overview, FERTILIZER FOCUS, JANUARY/FEBRUARY 2007
- Nelson DW and Sommers LE. Total carbon, organic carbon and organic matter. In: Methods of Soil Analysis. Part 2, Agron. Series 9. AL Page (ed.). Am. Soc. Agron., Publ. Madison, WI, USA, 1982; 539-579.
- Olsen SR, Cale CV, Watanabe FS and Dean LA. Estimation of available phosphorus in soils by extraction with sodium bicarbonate. USDA Circ. 939, Washington, USA, 1954.
- Ribeiro ES, Dias LE, Alvarez VH, Mello VJWV and Daniels WL. Dynamics of sulfur fractions in Brazilian soils submitted to consecutive harvests of sorghum. Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J, 2001; 65: 787-794.
- Richards LA. Diagnosis and improvement of saline and alkali soils. In: USDA Handbook No. 60. US Government Printing Office, Washington, USA, 1954; 84-156.
- Sakai H. Some analytical results of sulfur deficient plant, soil and water. Workshop on sulfur nutrition in rice, December, BRRI, Publication, no. 41, 1978; 35-59.
- Schmitt MA, Schmidt JP, Randall GW Lamb JA, Orf JH and Gollany HT. Effect of manure on accumulation of dry matter, nitrogen, and phosphorus by soybean. Commun. Soil Sci.Plant Anal, 2001; 32:1931–1941.
- SRDI (Soil Resources Development Institute). Map of the nutrient status of sulphur and upazila land soil resource utilization guide, 1999.

Stevenson F J. "Cycles of Soil" John Willy and Sons, New York, 1986.

- Stevenson FJ and Cole MA. "Cycles of Soil-Carbon, Nitrogen, Sulfur, Phosphorous Micronutrients" John Willy and Sons, New York, 1999; 330-368.
- Tiwari KN, Dwivedi BS and Pathak AN. Iron pyrites as sulfur fertilizer for legumes. Plant soil, 1985;

86:295-298.

Trudinger PA. The biogeochemistry of sulfur. In: "Sulfur in Australian Agriculture," KD McLachlan (ed.), Sydney University Press, Sydney, 1975; 11-20.

Zaman SMH, Rahman K and Howlader M. Simple lessons from biometry. Bangladesh Rice Research Institute (BRRI), Publication, no. 54, Gazipur, Bangladesh, 1982.

February 23, 2009