Original Research Article

Enhancing Growth and Zinc bioavailability in Rice (*Oryza sativa* L.) Cultivars through Agronomic Biofortification Strategies

ABSTRACT

A field experiment was conducted using four rice varieties viz., Uma, Pournami, Gouri and DRR Dhan 45 under varying levels of ZnSO₄ foliar application (control, 0.1 per cent, 0.5 per cent and 1.0 per cent) in a randomized complete block design. ZnSO₄ @ 1.0 per cent recorded taller plants at panicle initiation (80.5 cm) and harvest stages (113 cm) and was comparable with ZnSO₄ @ 0.5 per cent. Higher tillers per hill and dry matter production were also recorded at panicle initiation and harvest stages with ZnSO₄ @ 1.0 per cent which was statistically similar to ZnSO₄ @ 0.5 per cent. Zinc application at 0.5 per cent and 1.0 per cent enhanced Zn concentration in rough rice, brown rice, white rice, and rice bran. The highest Zn accumulation in white rice (21.2 mg kg⁻¹) was achieved with 1.0 per cent ZnSO₄ foliar spray, which was comparable to 0.5 per cent ZnSO₄ spray. Application of 1 per cent ZnSO₄ during maximum tillering and milk stage led to substantial reductions in the phytate: Zn molar ratio in rough rice (28.3), brown rice (32.7), white rice (6.31), and rice bran (25.9). Dhan 45 treated with 1.0 per cent ZnSO₄ achieved the lowest ratios in rough rice (18.9) and brown rice (21.8). Although the 1.0 per cent treatment yielded greater reductions in the phytate: Zn molar ratio, the 0.5 per cent ZnSO₄ treatment produced notable decrease in rough rice (30.2), brown rice (34.8), white rice (6.72), and rice bran (27.6) making it a viable option for lower Zn input. Overall, foliar application of Zn improved Zn bioavailability in both whole grains and milled rice, aligning phytate: Zn molar ratios closer to optimal levels for human nutrition.

Keywords: Bioavailability, Foliar application, ZnSO₄, Phytate: Zn molar ratio, Rice grain fractions

1. INTRODUCTION

The global challenge of micronutrient deficiencies, particularly Zn deficiency continues to affect millions of people worldwide. It is an essential nutrient with a crucial role in structural, regulatory and catalytic functions of human body (Li *et al.*, 2020). According to the National Institute of Health (NIH) dietary guidelines, adult women are advised to consume 8 mg Zn per day, whereas men should aim for 11 mg daily (NIH, 2022). Agronomic biofortification involves the use of micronutrient enriched fertilizer

and is an easy and rapid way to enhance the nutritional content of crops. Consuming these fortified crops helps to improve human nutrition (Cakmak and Kutman, 2018). The effectiveness of applying Zn based fertilizers to crops varies depending on factors such as the method of application (e.g., soil, foliar, seed priming, or combinations), the type of Zn used, timing of the application, as well as the crop's genetic makeup and the environmental conditions in which it is grown (Yaseen and Hussain, 2021 & Prasad et al., 2014). Most rice genotypes can mobilize foliar applied Zn from the leaves to the grains; however, this ability may differ depending on the plant genetic composition and soil Zn availability (Mabesa et al., 2013). The enrichment of Zn in grains should be evaluated in relation to changes in other key nutritional traits of the grain, such as concentrations of iron, phytic acid, the phytic acid to zinc molar ratio, and protein levels (Cakmak et al., 2010 & Hussain et al., 2012). These compositional changes in grains can influence Zn bioavailability, as it is well recognized that the two main factors affecting Zn absorption in adults are the levels of Zn and phytate in the diet (Miller et al., 2007). Bioavailability conveys the fact that not all of the consumed Zn is really absorbed by human body. Zinc bioavailability refers to the portion of absorbed Zn in the blood stream that is available for use in regular physiological functions (La Frano et al., 2014). The bioavailability of Zn in rice grains is affected by the Zn content in the grain, and enriching rice grains with Zn has significantly increased the amount of bioavailable Zn. However, certain antinutrients like phytic acid can lower Zn bioavailability by binding to Zn and forming indigestible complexes in the human body. Recently several approaches have been proposed to increase the Zn content in grains for enhanced nutritional value. The present study was conducted to assess the impact of Zn foliar application on growth, Zn concentration and bioavailability in grains of selected rice cultivars.

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1 Field Parameters

A field trail of rice was conducted on a farmer's field located at 8° 43' N latitude and 76° 45' E longitude, at an elevation of 52 meters above sea level in the southern coastal plains of Kerala during the kharif (rainy) season of 2020-21. The area received 935.8 mm of seasonal rainfall over 50 rainy days, which proved beneficial for crop growth and grain development. The average seasonal temperature ranged from a maximum of 30.3° to 32.7°C and a minimum of 24.5° to 25.9°C.

2.2 Experiment Layout

The field experiment was designed using a two factor factorial randomized complete block layout, with three replications and 16 treatment combinations.

2.3 Treatments

2.3.1 Varieties

The treatment included four medium duration rice varieties as factor (V):

V₁: Uma, V₂: Pournami, V₃: Gouri and V₄: DRR Dhan 45

2.3.2 Zinc foliar application

Four levels of foliar Zn application as factor (F)

F₁: control, F₂: ZnSO₄ @ 0.1 per cent, F₃: ZnSO₄ @ 0.5 per cent and F₄: ZnSO₄ @ 1 per cent.

2.3.3 Treatment combinations

V ₁ f ₁	V2 f 1	V 3 f 1	V4f1
V ₁ f ₂	V ₂ f ₂	V ₃ f ₂	V4f2
V ₁ f ₃	V ₂ f ₃	V ₃ f ₃	V ₄ f ₃
V ₁ f ₄	V ₂ f ₄	V ₃ f ₄	V ₄ f ₄

Note: The study involved both biofortified varieties and conventional rice varieties. The key characteristics of the rice varieties used in the study were given in Table 1. Foliar Zn application of the rice crop was applied in two stages with a uniform spray concentration. The initial spray was given during the maximum tillering and the second spray on the milk stage.

Table 1. Characteristics of the rice cultivars tested in the experiment

Cultivars	Station	Parentage	Duration in	Zn in grains	Phytic acid
			days	(mg kg ⁻¹)	(g kg ⁻¹)
Uma (MO-16)	Rice Research Station, Monkompu	Cul.12814/ Mo.6	120-135	13.8	<mark>6.12</mark>
Pournami (MO-23)	Rice Research Station,	Mo.4/ Cul. 25331	<mark>115-120</mark>	15.4	5.99
Gouri (MO-20)	Monkompu Rice Research Station,	KAUM 109-1-2- 1/ IET 23739	120	21.5	<mark>6.06</mark>
	Monkompu		105	00.0	0.00
DRR-Dhan 45	of Rice	IR 73707-45-3- 2-3/ IR 77080-B-	125	28.6	6.28
	Research, Hyderabad	34-3			

2.4 Soil Testing

Before the field experiment, a composite soil sample was collected from a depth of 0-15 cm and analysed for its physio chemical properties. The experimental soil was clay loam in texture, very strongly acidic (pH 5.4), high in organic carbon (1.32 per cent), sufficient in Zn (1.05 mg kg⁻¹), medium in available nitrogen (282 kg ha⁻¹), phosphorus (12.7 kg ha⁻¹) and potassium (187 kg ha⁻¹).

2.5 Application of foliar spray

In accordance with treatments, the spray solution for foliar Zn fertilization was applied to the crop in the late afternoon, continuing until the solution just started to drip off the leaves, following the recommendations of Cakmak *et al.* (2010).

2.6 Growth Parameters

2.6.1 Plant Height

Plant height was recorded at maximum tillering, panicle initiation, and at harvest stages using the method described by Gomez (1972). Height was measured from the base of the plant to the tip of the longest leaf or tip of the longest panicle, which ever was longer and the average was recorded in centimetres (cm).

2.6.2 Tillers per Hill

At maximum tillering, panicle initiation, and harvest stages, tiller counts were obtained from six tagged hills, and the mean value was expressed as number of tillers per hill.

2.6.3 Dry Matter Production

Dry matter production was recorded at maximum tillering and panicle initiation stages, six sample hills were randomly selected and uprooted from the area defined for destructive sampling outside the net plot area leaving the border rows. The samples were washed, air dried in shade and then oven dried till constant weight was attained. The total dry matter production was computed and was expressed in gram per hill. At harvest stage, six sample hills were uprooted, separated into grain and straw, air dried under shade and later oven dried to a constant weight. The dry weight of each sample plant was recorded separately as grain, straw and total dry matter and expressed in gram per hill.

2.7 Collection and analysis of rice grains

The rough rice from each plot was cleaned to eliminate foreign matter, washed to remove dust, air dried, and then oven dried to a constant weight. A representative sample of rough rice obtained from various Zn fertilization and cultivars was then dehulled to produce brown rice and husk. The entire amount of husk was collected, weighed and set aside for analysis. The total quantity of brown rice produced was milled into white rice and bran, and the white rice was used to prepare cooked rice. During milling both the white rice and bran were collected, weighed and stored for analysis. The dehulling and milling processes were conducted using a compact mill, resulting in husk, bran and white rice. These along with rough rice and brown rice were later analysed for Zn and phytate using the standard procedures.

2.8 Cooking of the processed grains

A 100 g portion of white rice was washed twice with 250 ml of water and then soaked in 250 ml of distilled water for 30 minutes before cooking. After rinsing water soaked grains were cooked on a hot plate at 380° C with 600 ml of water. Cooking was stopped when a few cooked kernels showed no white kernel left behind when pressed between two glass slides (opaque core of cooked rice just disappeared). After cooking, rice and decanted water were separated. Both were dried in a hot air oven at 60°C until they reached a constant weight. The samples were then ground using a pestle and mortar, passed through a 0.5 mm sieve, and stored in airtight polyethylene bags at room temperature prior to digestion (Suman, 2011). Zinc content in the samples were analysed as per the standard procedures.

2.9 Zinc and phytate analysis and Zinc bioavailability

Zinc can be analysed by nitric-perchloric acid (9:4) digestion and atomic absorption spectrometry (Jackson, 1973). Phytate was extracted with trichloroacetic acid and subsequently precipitated as ferric salt. The iron concentration of the precipitate was measured calorimetrically using a spectrophotometer at 480 nm. This value was used to compute the phytate concentration, assuming a constant 4Fe: 6P molecular ratio in the precipitate (Sadasivam and Manickam, 2016).

Phytate: Zn molar ratio was calculated using the following formula (Murphy *et al.*, 1992; Gibson, 2005).

Phytate: Zinc molar ratio =
$$\frac{Phytic\ acid\ concentration\ (mg\ kg^{-1})/\ 660}{Zn\ content\ in\ (mg\ kg^{-1})/65.4}$$

where, 660 is molecular weight of phytic acid and 65.4 is atomic weight of Zn. The inhibitory effect of phytate on Zn bioavailability in humans i.e., the absorbability of dietary Zn in humans, can be predicted from phytate: Zn molar ratio in human diet (Gibson, 2005). Algorithm of Murphy and co-workers to estimate bioavailability of Zn in humans, based on work of Murphy *et al.* (1992) is given as follows

Zn bioavailability estimate (per cent)	Phytate: Zn molar ratio
55	0-5: 1
35	5-15: 1
15	15-30: 1
10	>30: 1

2.10 Statistical Analysis

The data were subjected to statistical analysis, and critical difference at 5 per cent significance level was calculated for each parameter. The data generated were analysed by using the software GRAPES (Gopinath *et al.*, 2020).

3. Result and Discussion

3.1 Plant height

The plant height was affected significantly with foliar application of Zn during panicle initiation and harvest stage (Table 2.) and was not significantly influenced by the effect of varieties and their interaction with fertilization at panicle initiation and harvest stages. Higher plant height was recorded with 1.0 per cent ZnSO₄ and was comparable to 0.5 per cent ZnSO₄ at both the panicle initiation stage (80.5 cm, 79.1 cm) and harvest stage (113 cm,110 cm). The lower plant heights across all the growth stages were observed in the control. The enhancement in height can be attributed to the sufficient supply of Zn, which likely improved the availability and uptake of other essential nutrients leading to better crop growth. Sudha and Stalin (2015) reported that foliar application of micronutrients significantly increased plant height, attributing to the enhanced enzymatic activity and auxin metabolism in the plants. Shivay *et al.* (2016) noted that the application of ZnSO₄ at 0.5 per cent resulted in taller plants.

3.2 Tillers per hill

The variation in tillers per hill due to foliar Zn fertilization was also found to be significant. Data related to tillers per hill under the influence of different levels of foliar Zn fertilization and varieties has been shown in Table 2. Foliar fertilization of Zn had significant effect on the tiller count per hill. At the panicle initiation stage higher number of tillers per hill (20.2) were registered with ZnSO₄ at 1.0 per cent, which was at par with 0.5 per cent ZnSO₄ treatment (19.0). Similarly, at harvest the higher tiller count was recorded with 1 per cent ZnSO₄ application (15.7) and was on par with 0.5 per cent (15.4). The absence of Zn foliar fertilization resulted in lower tiller number across all the growth stages. Mustafa *et al.* (2013) stated that optimum quantity of Zn enhanced number of tillers at all growth stages. Increase in number of tillers due to Zn application was also reported by Slaton *et al.* (2005).

3.3 Dry Matter Production

The data presented in Table 2. revealed that at panicle initiation and harvest stages dry matter production was significantly influenced by Zn fertilization. It is clear from the data that higher dry matter production was recorded with ZnSO₄ @ 1.0 per cent at both the panicle initiation (12.0 g hill-1) and harvest stage (28.9 g hill-1) and was on par with ZnSO₄ @ 0.5 per cent. This was owing to the reason that dry matter generation in plant depends on potential photosynthetic capacity which in turn depends on leaf area, nutrient consumption and favourable environmental circumstances (De Datta, 1981). Higher dry matter production with varied Zn treatments could be ascribed to increased plant height and leaf area index, as Zn is essential for auxin and enzyme synthesis. Increase in dry matter production due to Zn application was also observed by Tetarwal *et al.* (2011), Kumar *et al.* (2011) and Ravi *et al.* (2012).

Table 2. Effect of Zn foliar application on Growth parameters

Treatments			Parameters Parameters	<mark>rs</mark>		
	Plant He	ight (cm)	Tillers Per Hill (nos)		Dry matter Production	
					(g hill ⁻¹)	
	Panicle Initiation	Harvest	Panicle Initiation	Harvest	Panicle Initiation	Harvest
Varieties (V)						
Uma	74.4	100	<mark>17.3</mark>	<mark>15.0</mark>	10.7	<mark>25.4</mark>
Pournami	70.5	97	<mark>16.3</mark>	14.4	10.3	24.8
Gouri	71.6	96	<mark>15.7</mark>	14.8	10.1	24.1
DRR Dhan-45	<mark>73.1</mark>	99	<mark>16.8</mark>	14.9	10.5	25.1
Sem ((±)	2.0	4	0.8	0.3	0.3	0.9
CD (0.05)	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
Zinc Foliar applic	cation (F)					
No ZnSO ₄	<mark>63.6</mark>	<mark>82</mark>	<mark>12.9</mark>	<mark>13.9</mark>	8.7	20.8
ZnSO ₄ @ 0.1%	<mark>66.4</mark>	<mark>86</mark>	14.0	14.1	9.5	22.4
ZnSO ₄ @ 0.5	<mark>79.1</mark>	110	19.0	<mark>15.4</mark>	11.4	<mark>27.3</mark>
ZnSO ₄ @ 1 %	80.5	113	20.2	<mark>15.7</mark>	12.0	28.9
Sem ((±)	2.0	4	0.8	0.3	0.3	0.9

CD (0.05)	<mark>5.85</mark>	<mark>10.9</mark>	<mark>2.16</mark>	0.71	<mark>1.06</mark>	<mark>2.53</mark>

Note: Interaction (V × F) non-significant

3.4 Effect of Zn application on Estimated Zn bioavailability in rice grain fractions

3.4.1 Zinc

The results of the study illustrated that the accumulation of Zn in white rice increased with the application of ZnSO₄ at 0.5 per cent (19.5 mg kg⁻¹), which was statistically similar to the level obtained with the application of ZnSO₄ at 1 per cent (21.2 mg kg⁻¹). Additionally, ZnSO₄ at 0.5 per cent enhanced the Zn content in harvested rough rice, brown rice, rice bran and cooked rice 22, 26,75.3, and 12.8 mg kg⁻¹ respectively, reaching levels comparable to those achieved with ZnSO₄ at 1 per cent (Fig.1.). The interaction between rice varieties and Zn foliar application was not significant. However, foliar application of ZnSO₄ consistently increased Zn content across all rice cultivars (Fig.2.). Notably, Dhan 45 showed higher Zn content when treated with 1 per cent ZnSO₄ followed by 0.5 per cent application as the next most effective treatment. Zinc applied through foliar spray is effectively absorbed by the leaves and can be translocated to the grains (Boonchuay *et al.*, 2013). The timing of foliar spray is also a key factor for enhancing Zn content in grains. Phuphong *et al.* (2018) reported that applying Zn foliar sprays after flowering significantly increases the Zn concentration in both polished and brown rice.

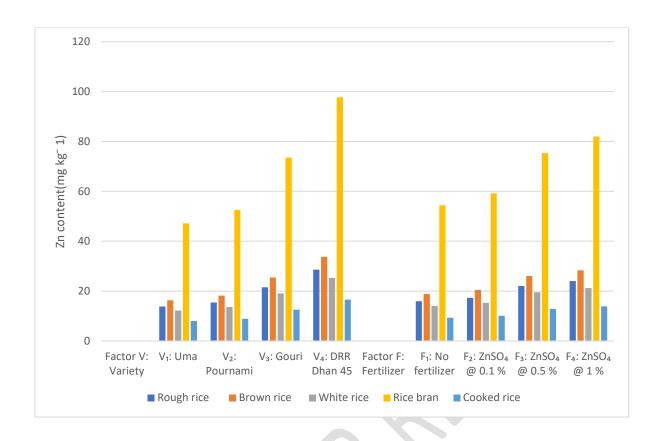


Fig.1. Effect of varying levels of Zn foliar fertilization on Zn content in grain fractions of various rice varieties

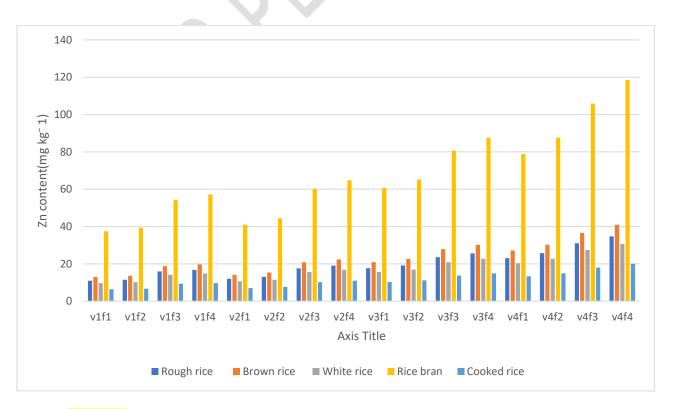


Fig.2. Interaction between rice varieties and Zn foliar fertilisation on Zn content of rice varieties

3.4.2 Phytate

The study found that varieties, Zn fertilization and their interactions had no significant effect on phytate concentrations in whole grain and milled fractions, in contrast to prior findings that showed that soil or foliar Zn application reduced phytate concentrations in rice grain considerably (Mabesa *et al.*, 2013 & Imran *et al.*, 2015). Possible explanation could be that foliar Zn application inhibits the conversion of inorganic phosphorus to phytate in rice grain.

3.4.3 Phytate: Zn molar ratio

The results of the study illustrated that Zn application significantly reduced the phytate: Zn molar ratio in polished and brown rice for all rice cultivars over control, the lowest phytate: Zn molar ratio was noted in foliar application with ZnSO₄ @ 1.0 per cent which was followed by foliar application with ZnSO₄ @ 0.5 per cent (Table 3.). These findings align with the established recommendation that a phytate: Zn molar ratio below 20 is optimal for Zn nutrition in human diets (Weaver and Kannan, 2002). Irrespective of the varieties and Zn fertilization levels, the phytate: Zn molar ratio in polished white rice consistently remained below 20, indicating optimum Zn nutrition in human diets. Among the rice varieties evaluated, the genetically biofortified Dhan 45 recorded significantly lower phytate: Zn molar ratios in rough rice (22.1), brown rice (25.5), white rice (5.12), and rice bran (21.3). Fertilization with ZnSO₄ @ 1.0 per cent at maximum tillering and milk stage resulted in significantly lower phytate: Zn molar ratios in rough rice (28.3), brown rice (32.7), white rice (6.31), and rice bran (25.9) respectively. In the case of rough rice (18.9) and brown rice (21.8), foliar application of ZnSO₄ @ 1.0 per cent in Dhan 45 recorded significantly lower phytate: Zn molar ratio. This suggests that varieties, in combination with Zn fertilization can further enhance Zn bioavailability. While the 1 per cent concentration achieved the greatest reduction in the phytate: Zn molar ratio, the 0.5 per cent treatment provided a substantial improvement, for instance the phytate: Zn molar ratio decreased to 30.2 in rough rice, 34.8 in brown rice, 6.72 in white rice, and 27.6 in rice bran with the 0.5 per cent ZnSO₄ treatment. This makes it a viable alternative where lower Zn input is preferred. Fertilization with higher Zn concentrations in whole grain and milled fractions resulted in decreased phytate: Zn molar ratios, bringing phytate: Zn molar ratios closer to desirable reference levels for improved Zn bioavailability. The result is in consonance with the observation of Hussain *et al.* (2012) & Hama-Salih et al. (2021) who reported that foliar Zn fertilization increased the estimated Zn bioavailability and decreased the molar ratio of phytate: Zn in rice. Saha et al. (2017) also reported a notable decrease in the phytate: Zn molar ratio with Zn foliar application at the maximum tillering and flowering stages in rice. The distribution of phytic acid within the rice kernel further explains the variations observed in the phytate: Zn molar ratio across different rice fractions. Brown rice is richer than milled rice in terms of phytic acid that may inhibit absorption of minerals. Major amount of phytic acid present in the aleurone layer will be removed by milling process (Itani et al., 2002).

Table 3. Effect different levels of Zn foliar fertilization on Phytate: Zn molar ratio of rough rice, brown rice, rice bran and white rice

Treatment	Rough rice	Brown rice	Rice Bran	White rice
Factor V: Variety				-
V ₁	<mark>45.5</mark>	<mark>52.6</mark>	42.3	10.21
V ₂	39.6	<mark>45.7</mark>	<mark>37.5</mark>	<mark>9.19</mark>
V ₃	28.3	32.7	27.3	<mark>6.56</mark>
V ₄	<mark>22.1</mark>	<mark>25.5</mark>	<mark>21.3</mark>	<mark>5.12</mark>
SEm(±)	0.1	0.1	0.3	<mark>0.08</mark>
CD (0.05)	0.26	0.30	0.90	0.247
Factor F: Fertilizer				
F ₁	38.0	43.9	<mark>38.6</mark>	<mark>9.29</mark>
F ₂	39.1	<mark>45.1</mark>	<mark>36.3</mark>	<mark>8.77</mark>
F ₃	30.2	<mark>34.8</mark>	<mark>27.6</mark>	<mark>6.72</mark>
F ₄	28.3	32.7	<mark>25.9</mark>	<mark>6.31</mark>
Sem (±)	0.1	0.1	0.3	<mark>0.08</mark>
CD (0.05)	0.26	0.30	0.90	0.247
Interaction (VxF)				
V₁f₁	<mark>54.9</mark>	<mark>63.3</mark>	<mark>51.0</mark>	<mark>12.31</mark>
v₁f₂	<mark>52.2</mark>	60.3	<mark>48.5</mark>	<mark>11.82</mark>
v₁f₃	38.0	<mark>43.9</mark>	<mark>35.3</mark>	<mark>8.46</mark>
∨ 1 f 4	<mark>37.1</mark>	<mark>42.8</mark>	34.4	<mark>8.27</mark>
V₂f₁	43.7	<mark>50.5</mark>	<mark>46.5</mark>	<mark>11.19</mark>

V₂f₂	<mark>46.5</mark>	<mark>53.7</mark>	<mark>43.2</mark>	<mark>10.39</mark>
V₂f₃	35.3	<mark>40.7</mark>	31.2	7.88
V 2 f 4	32.8	<mark>37.8</mark>	<mark>29.1</mark>	<mark>7.31</mark>
v₃f₁	<mark>29.7</mark>	<mark>34.3</mark>	<mark>31.8</mark>	<mark>7.65</mark>
V₃f₂	<mark>32.5</mark>	<mark>37.6</mark>	30.3	<mark>7.26</mark>
v₃f₃	<mark>26.4</mark>	<mark>30.5</mark>	<mark>24.6</mark>	<mark>5.89</mark>
V₃f₄	<mark>24.5</mark>	<mark>28.2</mark>	<mark>22.7</mark>	5.44
V ₄ f ₁	<mark>23.7</mark>	<mark>27.4</mark>	<mark>25.1</mark>	6.03
V4f2	<mark>25.1</mark>	<mark>29.0</mark>	<mark>23.3</mark>	<mark>5.61</mark>
V4f3	<mark>20.8</mark>	<mark>24.0</mark>	<mark>19.3</mark>	4.64
V4f4	<mark>18.9</mark>	<mark>21.8</mark>	<mark>17.5</mark>	4.20
Sem (±)	0.2	0.2	0.62	0.171
CD (0.05)	0.53	0.61	1.80	0.495

4. CONCLUSION

Growth parameters were significantly affected by Zn foliar fertilization in various rice varieties and was comparable between 0.5 per cent and 1.0 per cent ZnSO₄ concentrations. Foliar application with 1.0 per cent and 0.5 per cent ZnSO₄ reduced the phytate: Zn molar ratios. Although the 1.0 per cent ZnSO₄ concentration resulted in greater reductions, 0.5 per cent ZnSO₄ treatment proved to be the optimal, achieving significant zinc enrichment with minimal phytate interference. The results suggest that brown rice can be processed into white rice to produce desired phytate: Zn ratio for optimum Zn nutrition in humans.

DISCLAIMER (ARTIFICIAL INTELLIGENCE)

Author(s) hereby declare that generative AI technologies such as Large Language Models, etc. have been used during the writing or editing of manuscripts. This explanation will include the name, version, model, and source of the generative AI technology and as well as all input prompts provided to the generative AI technology.

Details of the Al usage are given below:

1.ChatGpT

COMPETING INTERESTS

Authors have declared no competing interests exists.

REFERENCES

Li D, Stovall DB, Wang W, Sui G. Advances of zinc signalling studies in prostate cancer. International Journal of Molecular Sciences. 2020; 21(2):667.

NIH (National Institute of Health). 2022. Zinc- Health professional fact sheet. Available: https://ods.od.nih.gov/factsheets/Zinc-HealthProfessional/

Cakmak I, Kutman UÁ. Agronomic biofortification of cereals with zinc: a review. European journal of soil science. 2018; 69(1):172-80.

Yaseen MK, Hussain S. Zinc-biofortified wheat required only a medium rate of soil zinc application to attain the targets of zinc biofortification. Archives of Agronomy and Soil Science. 2021; 67(4):551-62.

Prasad R, Shivay YS, Kumar D. Agronomic biofortification of cereal grains with iron and zinc. Advances in agronomy. 2014; 125:55-91.

Mabesa RÁ, Impa SÁ, Grewal D, Johnson-Beebout SE. Contrasting grain-Zn response of biofortification rice (Oryza sativa L.) breeding lines to foliar Zn application. Field Crops Research. 2013; 149:223-33.

Cakmak I, Kalayci M, Kaya Y, Torun AA, Aydin N, Wang Y, Arisoy Z, Erdem HA, Yazici A, Gokmen O, Ozturk L. Biofortification and localization of zinc in wheat grain. Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry. 2010; 58(16):9092-102.

Hussain S, Maqsood MA, Rengel Z, Aziz T. Biofortification and estimated human bioavailability of zinc in wheat grains as influenced by methods of zinc application. Plant and Soil. 2012; 361:279-90.

Miller LV, Krebs NF, Hambidge KM. A Mathematical Model of Zinc Absorption in Humans as a Function of Dietary Zinc and Phytate, 2. The Journal of nutrition. 2007; 137(1):135-41.

La Frano MR, de Moura FF, Boy E, Lönnerdal B, Burri BJ. Bioavailability of iron, zinc, and provitamin A carotenoids in biofortified staple crops. Nutrition reviews. 2014; 72(5):289-307.

Gomez AK. Techniques for Field Experiments with Rice. International Rice Research Institute, Los Banos, Philippines, 633p. 1972.

Suman. Effect of cooking methods on nutritional quality of rice (Oryza sativa L.) varieties. MSc thesis, Chaudhary Charan Singh Haryana Agricultural University, Haryana, 103p. 2011.

Jackson ML. Soil Chemical Analysis (2nd Ed.). Prentice-Hall of India (Pvt) Ltd, New Delhi, 498p.1973.

Sadasivam S, Manickam A. Biochemical Methods for Agricultural Science (3rd Ed.). New Age International Ltd., New Delhi, 270p. 2016.

Murphy SP, Beaton GH, Calloway DH. Estimated mineral intakes of toddlers: predicted prevalence of inadequacy in village populations in Egypt, Kenya, and Mexico. The American journal of clinical nutrition. 1992; 56(3):565-72.

Gibson RS. Dietary strategies to enhance micronutrient adequacy: experiences in developing countries. In: Anderson, P., Tuladar, J.K., Karki, K.B., Maskey, S.L. (eds), Micronutrients in South and South East Asia. Proceedings of an international workshop, Kathmandu, Nepal. International Centre for Integrated Mountain Development, Nepal, pp.3-7.2005.

Gopinath PP, Parsad R, Joseph B, Adarsh VS. GRAPES: General R shiny Based Analysis Platform Empowered by Statistics; 2020. Available: https://www.kaugrapes.com/hom e. version 1.0.0. DOI: 10.5281/zenodo.4923220.

Sudha S, Stalin P. Effect of zinc on yield, quality and grain zinc content of rice genotypes. International journal of farm sciences. 2015; 5(3):17-27.

Shivay YS, Prasad R, Kaur R, Pal M. Relative efficiency of zinc sulphate and chelated zinc on zinc biofortification of rice grains and zinc use-efficiency in Basmati rice. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, India Section B: Biological Sciences. 2016; 86:973-84.

Mustafa G, Ehsanullah, Akbar N, Qaisrani SQ, Iqbal A, Khan HZ Jabran K, Chattha, AA, Trethowan R, Chattha T, Atta MB. Effect of zinc application on growth and yield of rice (Oryza Sativa L.). International Journal of Advanced Veterinary and Medical Science. 2013; 5(6): 530-535.

Slaton NA, Gbur EE, Wilson CE, Norman RJ. Rice response to granular zinc sources varying in water-soluble zinc. Soil Science Society of America Journal. 2005; 69(2):443-52.

De Datta SK. Principles and practices of rice production. John Wiley & sons, Inc, 485p.1981.

Tetarwal JP, Ram B, Meena DS. Effect of integrated nutrient management on productivity, profitability, nutrient uptake and soil fertility in rainfed maize (Zea mays). Indian journal of Agronomy. 2011; 56(4):373-6.

Kumar V, Bhatia BK, Shukla UC. Effect of different levels of zinc on growth and yield of amaranth. Soil Science. 2011; 131:151-155.

Ravi N, Basavarajappa R, Chandrashekar CP, Harlapur SI, Hosamani MH, Manjunatha, M. V. Effect of integrated nutrient management on growth and yield of quality protien maize Journal of Agricultural Sciences. 2012; 25 (3): 395-396.

Boonchuay P, Cakmak I, Rerkasem B, Prom-U-Thai C. Effect of different foliar zinc application at different growth stages on seed zinc concentration and its impact on seedling vigor in rice. Soil science and plant nutrition. 2013; 59(2):180-8.

Phuphong P, Cakmak I, Dell B, Prom-u-thai C. Effects of foliar application of zinc on grain yield and zinc concentration of rice in farmers' fields. Chiang Mai University Journal of Natural Sciences. 2018; 17(3):181-90.

Imran M, Kanwal S, Hussain S, Aziz T, Maqsood MA. Efficacy of zinc application methods for concentration and estimated bioavailability of zinc in grains of rice grown on a calcareous soil. Pakistan Journal of Agricultural Sciences. 2015; 52(1).

Weaver CM, Kannan S. Phytate And Mineral Bioavailability. In: Reddy, N.R. and Sathe, S.K (eds) Food phytate. CRC Press, Boca Raton, 223p. 2002.

Hama Salih KH, Rasheed MS, Mohammed HJ, Saeed AA. The estimation of iron, zinc, phytic acid contents and their molar ratios in different types of bread and rice consumed in Halabja City, Iraqi Kurdistan. InIOP Conference Series: Earth and Environmental Science 2021 (Vol. 910, No. 1, p. 012131).

Saha S, Chakraborty M, Padhan D, Saha B, Murmu S, Batabyal K, Seth A, Hazra GC, Mandal B, Bell RW. Agronomic biofortification of zinc in rice: Influence of cultivars and zinc application methods on grain yield and zinc bioavailability. Field Crops Research. 2017; 210:52-60.

Itani T, Tamaki M, Arai E, Horino T. Distribution of amylose, nitrogen, and minerals in rice kernels with various characters. Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry. 2002; 50(19):5326-32.