

Integrated Nutrient Management: A Sustainable Approach to Improve Soil Properties

ABSTRACT

Increased global food needs, as well as the need for an environmentally acceptable approach for a sustainable soil-plant-microbe-environmental system, necessitate special attention when it comes to agricultural productivity. Chemical fertilization is one approach to increase crop productivity as happened during the Green revolution. Food grain output in India increased from 115.6 million tonnes in 1960-61 to over 281.37 million tonnes in 2018-19 as a result of chemical fertilization. Similarly, yearly fertilizer use jumped from 0.07 million tonnes in 1951-52 to over 25.95 million tonnes in 2016-17. But due to injudicious use of chemical fertilizers soil, plant, human and animal health are at stake. Also, increased soil compaction and widespread multinutrient deficits have emerged as important restrictions limiting crop productivity and farm income. Because a major rise in fertilizer consumption is unlikely in the near future for economic and environmental reasons, there is a need to improve nutrient use efficiency through integrated and balanced fertilizer. On the other hand, organic manures, are unable to fulfill all of a crop's nutritional needs. Integrated nutrient management (INM) was created as a result of the aforesaid factors being taken into account. In this paper, role of INM in overcoming these difficulties is discussed, as it has been offered as a promising solution for tackling these issues. Plant performance and resource efficiency can be improved in a variety of ways with INM while also allowing for environmental and resource protection quality. With the use of advanced INM procedures, chemical fertilizer inputs are reduced, resulting in fewer human and environmental costs without any negative impact on crop production. Long-term research in various soil-crop situations have demonstrated the advantages of integrated nutrient management (INM), which includes the utilisation of organic and biological resources as well as fertilizers. The purpose of this article is to provide an overview of the effect of various INM components on Physical, chemical, and biological properties of soil, nutrient use efficiency, crop productivity and the role of these components in improving soil health.

INTRODUCTION

Maintaining and sustaining natural resources, such as soil and water, in order to enhance food production while protecting the environment is one of humanity's most important concerns today. The burden on natural resources increases as the world's population expands, making food security extremely difficult to attain. Long-term food security necessitates striking a balance between crop output, soil health, and environmental

sustainability. Effective nutrition management helped India achieve a massive rise in food grain production from 52 million tonnes in 1951-52 to 230 million tonnes in 2007-08. However, the application of unbalanced and/or excessive nutrients resulted in decreased nutrient-use efficiency, making fertilizer consumption uneconomical and causing negative effects on the atmosphere (Aulakh and Adhya 2005) and groundwater quality (Aulakh *et al.*, 2009), posing health risks and contributing to climate change. Soil organic carbon (SOC) losses have resulted from intensive farming systems that use synthetic fertilizers in an unbalanced manner to feed fertilizer-responsive cultivars (Singh *et al.*, 1999) and Soil health (Anwar *et al.*, 2005) is frequently linked to crop production system sustainability. Organic nutrition sources are becoming more popular in agriculture, however owing to challenges such a shortage of appropriate quality and quantity of organic materials, the system may not be adequate to achieve and sustain cereal crop output in the proportions necessary for food security. (Kumar *et al.*, 2018). Integrated nutrient management (INM), also known as integrated plant nutrient supply system (IPNS), entails monitoring of all plant nutrient supply pathways in crops and cropping systems, as well as judicious fertilizer use., organic manures and biofertilizers (Prasad, 2008). This strategy isn't new in India. Prior to the Green Revolution, practically all nutritional requirements were satisfied through organic means, and fertilizers were not widely used. INM's benefits include i) restoring and maintaining soil fertility and crop productivity, ii) preventing secondary and micronutrient deficiencies, iii) reducing fertilizer use and improving nutrient use efficiency, and iv) having a positive impact on soil physical, chemical, and biological health (Singh *et al.*, 2012). IPNS was described by Roy and Ange (1991) as the maintenance or adjustment of soil fertility and plant nutrient delivery to an optimum level for sustaining targeted crop yield by maximizing benefit from all available plant nutrient resources in an integrated way. IPNS is defined by the FAO (1998) as a method for maintaining or adjusting soil fertility and plant nutrient supply in order to attain a certain level of crop yield. Long-term food security necessitates striking a balance between crop production, soil health, and environmental sustainability. Effective nutrition management has contributed significantly to India's massive increase in food grain output from 52 million tonnes in 1951-52 to 230 million tonnes in 2007-08. However, the application of unbalanced and/or excessive nutrients resulted in a decrease in nutrient-use efficiency, making fertilizer consumption uneconomical and causing negative effects on the atmosphere (Aulakh and Adhya 2005) and groundwater quality (Aulakh *et al.*, 2009), posing health risks and contributing to climate change. INM, which actually involves maintaining/adjusting soil fertility to an optimum level for crop productivity in order to get

the maximum benefit from all possible sources of plant nutrients – organics and inorganics – in an integrated manner (Aulakh and Grant 2008), is a critical step in addressing the twin concerns of nutrient excess and depletion. INM is also important for marginal farmers who cannot afford to supply crop nutrients through costly chemical fertilizers. This review article examines the concepts, objectives, components, benefits of INM and its effect on soil.

PRINCIPLES OF INM:

INM's main principles are listed below, and they include the following: a) the overall goal of INM is to maximize the use of soil nutrients to promote agricultural productivity and resource efficiency; (b) Spatially and temporally matching soil nutrient availability with crop demand. In order to obtain maximum yields and enhance fertilizer utilization, INM demands that nutrient application amounts and timing be in compliance with crop nutrient requirements (Cassman *et al.*, 2002). N fertilizers applied in small amounts and frequently during periods of crop demand can potentially reduce N losses while enhancing crop yield and quality (Witt *et al.*, 2004) (c) lowering nitrogen losses while increasing crop output. Excessive use of nitrogen fertilizer can lead to increased nitrate leaching into groundwater and higher emissions into the atmosphere. The goal of INM is to reduce nitrogen losses and their negative environmental effects while increasing crop output (Giruhn *et al.*, 2000). Crop N intake, immobilization, and residues in the soil, as well as N losses to the environment, such as ammonia volatilization, NO_x emissions, denitrification, N leaching, and runoff, all affect the fate of N in the field (Li *et al.*, 2015). Furthermore, INM supports organic fertilisation regimes, which have enormous potential for agricultural sustainability as well as more immediate environmental advantages. Organic manure, when used in conjunction with other management practises such as crop residue incorporation and the development of conservation tillage (no-tillage or reduced-tillage practises), reduces GHG emissions, improves soil quality, and increases C-sequestration, all while producing high crop yields (Pittlekow *et al.*, 2015); (Meena *et al.*, 2013).

INGREDIENTS OF INM:

Fertilizers, organic manures, legumes, crop residues, industrial by-products and bio-fertilisers are the main ingredients of INM.

- 1. Fertilizers:** Fertilizers were still the most significant component of INM. Because of the requirement to supply significant amounts of nutrients in intensive cropping with high productivity, fertiliser use has been steadily growing. Despite this, fertiliser consumption is not only insufficient but also unbalanced. The ratio of N: P₂O₅:K₂O is relatively large,

although K, S, and micronutrients are frequently overlooked. Introduction of nutrient based subsidy (NBS) scheme during 2010 further distorted the fertilizer consumption ratio. Domestic fertiliser production is insufficient to fulfil demand, and the situation is unlikely to improve very soon. Constraints such as global price hikes in fertilizers and raw materials, on the other hand, would prevent large-scale fertiliser imports, resulting in a large disparity between supply and demand. While organics and bio-fertilizers are projected to fill some of the gap, fertilizer efficiency in closing the nutrient supply gap requires further attention. The utilisation of fertiliser nutrients by crops varies from 30-50 percent for nitrogen, 15-20% for phosphorus, and less than 5% for micronutrients. As a result, a significant amount of administered nutrients is lost via multiple mechanisms. Enhancing nutrient use efficiency should therefore be a priority study area for restoring and improving soil health while lowering crop production costs (Das *et al.*, 2015).

2. **Organic Manures:** Organic manures with high nutrient potential include urban compost, FYM, crop residues, human excreta, municipal garbage, rural compost, sewage-sludge, pressmud, and other agro-industrial wastes. Traditionally, compost and FYM have been the most significant manures for sustaining soil fertility and yield stability. There are also other potential organic sources of nutrients, such as non-edible oil cakes and food processing waste. Furthermore, there are a number of industrial by-products and municipal trash that have a reasonable nutritious potential. These nutrient-carriers, on the other hand, have not been thoroughly tested to determine their fertilizer equivalents. These sources must be integrated based on their availability in various crops and cropping systems. Industrial wastes such as spent-wash from distilleries, molasses, pressmud, and other sugar industry by products, as well as wastes from other food processing businesses, have a high manurial value (Das *et al.*, 2015). Sulphitation pressmud (SPM) has a lot of potential for supplying nutrients and improving soil characteristics. The use of decomposed SPM was found to be beneficial in studies conducted at Modipuram (Singh *et al.* 2010). Other major nutrient sources include municipal solid waste (MSW) and sewage sludge sources that can be integrated fertilizer inputs, despite the fact that should be handled with caution to prevent any possible threat of heavy metal load and pathogen. All India production of organic manures including FYM and composts is estimated at 229.4 million tonnes (Mt) (FAI, 2015). These nutrient sources are large and heavy, low nutritional content in nature and in scarce supply. As a result, their relative importance has diminished. Crop production takes time. However, fertilizer prices are high, and their

supply is limited which makes production equal to or slightly higher than sole fertiliser treatment at recommended rates higher when using the INM package (AICRP, 2002).

Table 1. Average nutrient composition of some organic manures/wastes				
Category	Sources	Nutrient content (%)		
		N	P₂O₅	K₂O
FYM/Composts	Farmyard manure	0.5-10	0.15-0.20	0.5-0.6
	Poultry manure	2.9	2.9	2.3
	Urban compost	1.5-2.0	0.2	0.5
	Rural compost	0.5-1.0	0.2	0.5
	Vermi compost	1.27	0.50	0.19
Biogas slurry	-	0.98	0.66	0.14
Sewage sludge	-	0.97	0.27	0.11
Animal wastes	Cattle dung	0.3-0.4	0.10-0.15	0.15-0.20
	Cattle urine	0.80	0.01-0.02	0.5-0.7
	Sheep and goat dung	0.65	0.5	0.03
	Night soil	1.2-1.5	0.8	0.5
Oil cakes	Castor	5.5-5.8	1.8	1.0
	Coconut	3.0-3.2	1.8	1.7
	Neem	5.2	1.0	1.4
Animal meals	Horn and hoof	13.0	0.3-0.5	-
	Fish	4-10	3-9	1.8
	Raw bone	3-4	20-25	-

(Diwedi *et al.*, 2016)

- 3. Legumes:** Because of their capacity to obtain nitrogen from the atmosphere in symbiosis with Rhizobia, legumes have a long history of being soil fertility restorers. When cultivated for grain or fodder in a cropping system, or when introduced for green manuring, legumes could be a significant component of INM. The productivity of the rice-wheat cropping system was improved and soil fertility gets rejuvenated by using legumes as green manure, fodder, or grain crops (Yadav *et al.*, 2000). Except for soybean, grain and fodder legumes, as well as green manures, can fix atmospheric N to the extent of 50-500 kg N ha⁻¹ before the plant starts flowering (about 40-60 days of growth). Because of the optimal lignin concentration, the remains of legumes after

grain harvest contain 25-100 kg N ha⁻¹, which is released at a consistent rate when incorporated. Grain legumes with deep roots can recycle subsoil nutrients for the benefit of the cropping system's succeeding cereal crops (Rao *et al.*, 2014). When a variety of leguminous crops were evaluated for satisfying the nitrogen need of a subsequent non-legume crop, it was discovered that legumes might provide as much as 50 to 60 kg N ha⁻¹ on average. When a legume was used as a preceding crop, grain yield of cereal crops increased significantly compared to when a cereal crop was used. On an Inceptisol, the influence of previous crops, rice or legume, was assessed in wheat, and the N use efficiency indices viz. AE_N and ARE_N, were considerably higher in wheat following a legume (cowpea grain crop) than in wheat following rice. (Yadav *et al.*, 2003) (Table 2). At Modipuram, the effects of including summer cowpea (fodder) after wheat harvest in a rice-wheat system were investigated, and it was discovered that cowpea inclusion resulted in a considerable increase in NUE when compared to summer fallow (Dwivedi *et al.*, 2003). In addition, incorporating a legume crop into the rice-wheat combination could reduce the negative impact of persistent puddling on soil compaction. Experiments demonstrated that continuous rice-wheat cropping increased soil bulk density in sub-surface layers, whereas raising a summer fodder crop of cowpea or a substitute crop of pigeonpea negated this effect of puddling (Dwivedi *et al.*, 2003; Singh *et al.*, 2005)

Table 2. N use efficiency of wheat grown after rice or cowpea on Modipuram's Inceptisol soil

Treatment	Agronomic efficiency of N (AE , kg grain kg ⁻¹ N)			Apparent recovery efficiency of N (ARE _N , %)		
	I year	II year	Mean	I year	II year	Mean
After rice						
N ₀	-	-	-	-	-	-
N ₆₀	20.0	19.2	19.6	47.5	38.2	42.9
N ₁₂₀	12.7	14.4	13.6	33.9	26.2	30.0
N ₁₈₀	8.7	10.2	9.5	25.9	17.9	21.9
Mean	13.8	14.6	-	35.8	27.4	-
After cowpea						

N ₀	-	-	-	-	-	-
N ₆₀	33.3	34.3	33.8	50.7	61.2	56.0
N ₁₂₀	19.4	22.0	20.7	40.7	35.4	38.1
N ₁₈₀	12.8	14.4	13.6	31.2	23.4	27.3
Mean	21.8	23.6	-	40.9	40.0	-
S.E.						
Preceding crop	0.64	0.61	-	1.72	2.00	-
N rates (N)	0.79	0.75	-	2.11	2.45	-
C : N	1.12	1.06	-	2.98	3.47	-
Source: Yadav <i>et al.</i> (2003)						

4. Green Manures: The practice of incorporating green succulent biomass into the soil is known as green manuring (GM). Prior to the introduction of mineral fertilisers, GM was regarded as a necessary management practise. Green manuring, on the other hand, began to lose its importance as fertilisers became more readily available and intensive agricultural techniques became more popular. However, there has been a resurgence of interest in this method in recent years. Due to atmospheric nitrogen fixation, green manuring with legumes enhances soil N. As green manure decomposes, it has a solubilizing impact on N, P, K, and micronutrients in the soil. GM improves the physical, chemical, and biological aspects of soil in addition to lowering leaching and gaseous losses of nitrogen. The most frequent GM crops are sunnhemp (*Crotalaria juncea*) and dhaincha (*Sesbania aculeata*), although *Sesbania rostrata* has the highest atmospheric N₂ -fixing capacity and can totally replace urea-N in rice farming (Chaudhury *et al.*, 2004). Cluster bean (*Cyamopsis tetragonoloba*), berseem (*Trifolium alexandrinum*), Indian clover (*Melilotus indicus*), and other crops are occasionally utilised for GM. Long-term research conducted under the supervision of AICRP-IFS on the integrated use of fertilisers and GM revealed that GM of yield response of rice-wheat system might be used to replace up to 50% of fertiliser N needs in various cropping systems (Hegde *et al.*, 1992). In around 50 days, GM collects 100-200 kg N ha⁻¹, of which 60-80% is fixed from the atmosphere, and can meet 60-120 kg ha⁻¹ of rice's N demand. Apart from nitrogen, the crop mobilises less accessible P and K from the soil, which can be recycled back into the system. A 60-

day GM was found to collect 20 kg P₂O₅ and 125 kg K₂O ha⁻¹ in its biomass, which is released after decomposition and is less susceptible to soil fixation because to the organic environment. In many cases, GM can supply a crop's whole N demand more efficiently than urea. The C: N ratio of the GM crops was 14-15 at 30 days and 18-19 at 60 days, and they mineralized 41-43 % of the biomass N of a 30-day-old crop in 15 days, whereas a 45-day-old GM crop took 30 days to mineralize the same amount of biomass N. When a 60-day-old GM crop was integrated, it released 20-30% biomass N after 15 days and 26-30% after 30 days. Biomass N release rates are influenced by plant properties such as lignin concentration, N ratio, N content, residue age, etc. (Rao *et al.*, 2014).

5. **Crop Residues:** Crop residues have a variety of competing uses and may not always be available as an ingredient in INM; nevertheless, in locations like North-West India where mechanical harvesting is prevalent, a significant amount of residues is left in the field, which can contribute to nutrient supply. There are significant numbers of residues from other crops, such as potato, sugarcane, vegetables, and so on, that are almost always wasted. Although cereal crop leftovers are valuable bovine fodder, they could be used to supplement fertilisers where supplies are in excess of local requirements (Das *et al.*, 2015). At numerous locations, studies conducted under the direction of the AICRP-IFS have revealed the feasibility of substituting cereal crop residues for a portion of the fertiliser N needs of monsoon crops in intensive cereal-cereal cropping systems (AICRP, 2010). During the wheat season, a 7-year study (Singh *et al.*, 2004). Found that rice and wheat productivity did not range from 6 to 9 kg N per hectare (Singh *et al.*, 2004). Rice straw mixed into wheat had no effect on the succeeding rice crop. Although crop residue input can considerably influence organic C accumulation in soil (Dalal *et al.*, 1992) (Lal *et al.*, 1997), the amount of C sequestered is determined by the inherent level of organic C in soil (Gulde *et al.*, 2008). (Thomson *et al.*, 2006).
6. **Biofertilizers:** Biofertilizers are products that include living cells from various agriculturally useful microorganisms. The majority of biofertilizers fall into one of three categories: N-fixing, P solubilizing and mobilising, or plant growth promoting rhizobacteria (PGPR). N-fixing biofertilizers convert atmospheric nitrogen into forms that plants can readily utilise. *Rhizobium*, *Azospirillum*, *Azotobacter*, blue green algae (BGA), and *Azolla* are among them. While *Rhizobium* requires a symbiotic relationship with legume root nodules to fix nitrogen, others can do so on their own. PGPR refers to a group of bacteria that promote plant growth by fixing nitrogen, solubilizing phosphorus,

or producing plant growth-promoting compounds. Many PGPR strains could be employed as microbial inoculants to improve crop productivity (Dwivedi *et al.*, 2016). In India, biofertilizer production has steadily increased from 2,000 t in 1992-93 to 65,500 t in 2013-14. (FAI, 2015). When applied correctly, biofertilizers containing effective microbial strains can effectively reduce a portion fertilizer N requirement of crops. Under field circumstances, *Azotobacter* and *Azospirillum* inoculants typically contribute 20- 25 kg N ha⁻¹, but the legume-Rhizobium symbiosis can meet more than 80% of the N need of legumes. Average N fixation through BGA and *Azolla*, on the other hand, is predicted to be 25-30 kg N ha⁻¹ and 30-40 kg N ha⁻¹, respectively. (Hegde *et al.*, 1993). P solubilizing bacteria and fungi have been identified in several strains, and inoculation with P solubilizing microbial cultures has been shown to promote the dissolution of sparingly soluble P in the soil. Using microbial cultures in combination with low-grade rock phosphate could add roughly 30-35 kg P₂O₅ per hectare. On Delhi's alluvial soil, soil inoculation with *Pseudomonas striata* increased wheat grain output while also having a residual effect on subsequent maize (Hedge *et al.*, 1993). Another major source of nitrogen for wetland rice is blue-green algae (BGA). The most commonly cited estimates of N fixed by BGA inoculation are in the 20-30 kg N ha⁻¹ range. Extensive field experiments have showed that incorporating *Azolla* would allow N applications to be lowered by at least 30-40 kg/ha while also increasing root growth (Das *et al.*, 2015).

IMPACT OF INM ON SOIL HEALTH AND PROPERTIES:

1. **Impact on Soil Physical Properties:** Because soil physical characteristics and microbial biomass are intimately related to SOC and OM, every soil management method that increases soil organic matter has a direct impact on soil physical properties and microbial biomass, for this a combination of organic and inorganic nutrient sources may be the best option, primarily for improving soil physical health. Many researchers have seen a significant improvement in the soil physical characteristics when organic manure and inorganic fertilisers are applied together (Jat *et al.*, 2015). Bulk density (BD) has been widely regarded as a significant metric for soil health evaluation among diverse soil physical qualities. Because of its interactions with other soil state (strength and porosity) and rate (moisture retention and flow characteristics) variables. Excessive ploughing with heavy agricultural machinery, erosion, and loss of soil organic matter can all contribute to a rise in BD and, as a result, decreased yields (Das *et al.*, 2012). . The addition of NPK fertilizers, organic manure, lime, and biofertilizers boosted the soil's SOC, WSA,

moisture-retention capacity, and infiltration rate while lowering the bulk density (Saha *et al.*, 2010). Organic matter, whether as crop residue, organic manure, or amendment, has a substantial impact on agricultural soil BD (Sharma *et al.*, 2015), soil aggregation (Sakia *et al.*, 2015), soil structure, soil moisture retention capacity (Abdollahi *et al.*, 2014), and infiltration rate (Sharma *et al.*, 2015). It is frequently documented that adding organic materials to soil at higher rates reduces BDs and hence increases soil porosity. After the fourth cropping cycle, integrated usage of NPK and FYM resulted in 5.6 percent lower BD than NPK alone in a soybean-wheat system (Bandopadhyay *et al.*, 2010). Long-term investigations have shown reductions in BD owing to the administration of cattle manure (Nymangra *et al.*, 2001), poultry manure (Tejada *et al.*, 2008), and FYM (Bandyopadhyay *et al.*, 2010). Higher organic matter build-up in soil (Hati *et al.*, 2006), better aggregation and subsequent improvement in total porosity, decrease in degree of compaction (Leroy *et al.*, 2008), and improved root growth (Bandopadhyay *et al.*, 2010) are likely to be responsible for these BD decreases. . The integration of organics with inorganics improved the soil's SOC, BD, WHC, WSA, and fertility status (Aziz *et al.*, 2015). Organic carbon and microbial biomass carbon increased in the treatments receiving organic manures (particularly FYM), green manure, and bio-fertilizers in combination with inorganic fertilizers. Because there is more organic matter in the surface layer (0-15 cm), the upper soil layer has a larger water holding capacity (WHC) than the deeper soil layers (Bandyopadhyay *et al.*, 2011). After 41 years of rice cropping, (Lee *et al.*, 2009) found that continuous compost treatment increased the proportion of large size aggregates while decreasing the proportion of small aggregates when compared to non-compost plots (NPK alone and the control). In comparison to micro-aggregates, the accumulation of organic carbon in soil was higher in macro-aggregates. (Singh *et al.*, 2010); (Bhattacharyya *et al.*, 2007); (Mahanta *et al.*, 2013)

2. Impact on Chemical Properties: According to several studies, converting forest lands to permanent cropping reduces SOC supplies, initially fast and then more slowly, eventually reaching a new equilibrium after 30 to 50 years (Arrouays *et al.*, 1995)(Nieder *et al.*, 2008) Continuous agriculture has also been linked to a decrease in the organic matter content of tropical soils (Brown *et al.*, 1990)(Lugo *et al.*, 1993). When compared to the inclusion of organic amendments, a 19-year-old LTE in West Bengal found that continued farming without organic inputs significantly depleted total C content by 39-43 percent (Gosh *et al.*, 2010). In contrast, in intensive irrigated rice systems in the lowland tropics with high temperatures and enough soil moisture

throughout the year, SOC was conserved or even increased (Doberman *et al.*, 2000). Under the AICRP-LTFE, studies on changes in SOC content due to continuous cropping and manuring revealed a decrease in SOC in unfertilized plots (control) by 41.5, 24.5, and 15.5 percent, respectively, compared to initial values under rice–wheat–jute, soybean–wheat, and sorghum–wheat systems, whereas treatments receiving NPK and NPK+FYM either maintained or improved SOC over initial content (Manna *et al.*, 2005). Enhancing C input through the return of crop residues and the addition of organic manures is critical for the RWS to sustain its productive capacity (Timsina *et al.*, 2001). The use of fertilisers and manure in intensive cereal–cereal systems other than RWS had a significant impact on SOC content over time, as the SOC content and soil microbial activity in a maize–wheat–forage cowpea system on a Typic Haplustept were boosted with the application of NPK+FYM (Manjaiah *et al.*, 2001). The LTEs at various locations in India's subtropical and tropical regions revealed that the recommended dose of NPK increased or at least maintained the SOC content over the initial values, whereas imbalanced (N or NP) and inadequate fertiliser use (50 percent of the recommended NPK) did not (Swarup *et al.*, 2000)(Yadav *et al.*, 2000). Sodhi *et al.* (2009) found that applying rice straw compost at 2 t ha⁻¹ along with fertilisers increased SOC and available N content significantly over control after 10 rice–wheat cycles on a sandy loam soil in Punjab, and that using rice straw compost at 8 t ha⁻¹ increased SOC and available N content even further. The labile C pool is useful for determining the SOC state under various soil management methods. Changes in C inputs to the soil are especially responsive to labile fractions, which produce a quantifiable impact before any change in total organic matter (Gregorich *et al.*, 1996). The more stable (humified) pools, on the other hand, are most likely the most relevant and representative fractions for C sequestration characterisation (Cheng *et al.*, 2001). According to Sleutel *et al.* (2006) Manure and fertiliser application, can increase the amount of OC present in free particulate organic matter, occluded particulate organic matter, and mineral linked organic matter over several decades. Data from a 20-year LTE on a wheat–maize cropping system on a loess soil in China demonstrated that the most efficient method for enhancing TOC and its labile pools was to combine manure and NPK, followed by NPK fertiliser+crop waste, and finally NP (Yang *et al.*, 2012). According to Moharana *et al.* (2012), labile C increased considerably in six-year-old pearl millet wheat plots receiving NPK+FYM compared to NPK and unfertilized controls. Mandal *et al.*

(2013) discovered that incorporating organic manures, especially FYM, into the fertilisation schedule improved SOC and mineral-N levels in the pigeonpea-wheat system. When imposed in the recommended NPK or NPK+organics plots, the addition of pigeonpea leaf-litter through forced defoliation increased labile SOC fractions larger than organic manures and increased wheat yield. SPM, on the other hand, showed to be an excellent nutrient source for increasing production, however its influence on SOC fractions was not as strong as FYM. The inclusion of more fresh plant residues and humified organic matter to these treatments may have caused this rise (Gregorich *et al.*, 1996).

3. **Impact on Biological Properties:** Among the biological properties, Soil Microbial Biomass (MBC) is one of the most prominent property to be affected. Soil Microbial Biomass is a major labile fraction that comprises primarily of bacteria and fungi and accounts for 1-5 % of SOC (Haynes *et al.*, 2005). The microbial quotient (MQ), which is defined as the ratio of MBC to TOC, has been shown to alter over time and to be a helpful indication of soil biological activity (Anderson *et al.*, 1989). After six years of pearl millet-wheat cropping on an Inceptisol of New Delhi, Moharana *et al.* (2012) observed a 76.5 % increase in MBC with NPK+FYM treatments above control and a 43 percent increase under NPK fertiliser alone. Other researches have also reported that INM has a positive influence on soil MBC content (Gosh *et al.*, 2010); (Mandal *et al.*, 2007); (Nayak *et al.*, 2012). Dehydrogenase activity is also an important property that is related to MBC and organic matter content. Dehydrogenase is a component of the respiratory chain of microorganisms, and its activity is frequently used as a measure of microbial biomass. Chu *et al.*, (2007) stated that the amount of organic matter in the soil influences enzyme activity. The addition of a balanced amount of fertilisers and manures increased the organic matter and MBC content of soils, resulting in increased enzyme activity (Mandal *et al.*, 2007). According to an LTE at IARI, the maximum DHA was found under NPK+FYM. Dehydrogenase activity may be connected to increased substrate availability in the soil when organic sources are used. This is due to increased biological activity in the soil and the stability of extracellular enzymes through humic material complexation. Increases in DHA and microbial biomass were likewise related to the addition of nutrients in terms of both quantity and number (Manjaiah *et al.*, 2001).

4. **Impact on Soil Fertility:** Due to an uneven use of mineral fertilizers, the majority of agricultural soil fertility is degrading day by day. According to many reports, the state of soil fertility has improved by the adoption of INM. The amount of mineralizable N in the soil is frequently proportional to the amount of SOC in the soil (Ferguson *et al.*, 1967); (Zielke *et al.*, 1986). Consistent use of FYM on an annual basis for the past seven years on an Alfisol resulted in a large rise in the Contents of $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ and $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$, in contrast to the addition of a green leaf manures that didn't left behind any significant impact (Udayasoorian, *et al.*, 1989). Puranik *et al.* (1978) and Prasad and Rokima (1991) reported a decrease in $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ content of the soil with the application of FYM alone, but the maximum N content was observed with the combined use of NPK and FYM. The majority of the research findings clearly demonstrated that INM increases crop yield potential beyond what can be achieved with recommended fertilisers, and results in better synchrony of crop N needs due to (a) slower organics mineralization; (b) lower N losses via denitrification and nitrate leaching; (c) improved nutrient use efficiency and recovery by crops; and (d) improvements in soil health and productivity, and thus could sustain high crop yields in the future (Sharma *et al.*, 2013) (Aulakh *et al.*, 2010). Aulakh *et al.*, (2000) during a 4 years study observed higher apparent N recovery in rice with green manuring. Similarly, green manuring with millet and colza in wheat recorded higher yield, N uptake and NUE (Dayegamiye and Tran, 2001). In the treatments where N was given simply only through fertilisers, soil $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ content was low, although a beneficial effect of 50% and 75% N replacement through FYM or vermicompost was detected in terms of improved $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ contents of the soil due to slow release and retention by soil (Duraismi *et al.*, 2001) (Mndal *et al.*, 2013) (Yadav *et al.*, 1991). In comparison to other treatment combinations, judicious application of mineral fertilisers and organic manure, as well as biofertilizers and micronutrients, resulted in the maximum available NPK in soil (Jat *et al.*, 2013) (Meena *et al.*, 2013) (Aulakh *et al.*, 2010). Verma *et al.*, (2010) discovered that the amount of FYM applied in the soybean-wheat combination was directly proportional to the extent of improvement in extractable P content in soil. They also found that several nutrient management strategies, including integrated and solo organic sources, significantly enhanced the extractable P status of soil in puddled conditions under RWS. Organic P mineralization is vital for its availability in soils, especially in soils with a high SOC. The level of SOM is also said to affect the transformation of applied P fertilisers. Several researchers have found an increase in available P in soils as a result of adding legume residues to soils with or without fertilisers

(Dhillon *et al.*, 1991); (Gupta *et al.*, 1988). Because S deficiencies are common (Tiwari *et al.*, 2006), and latest AICRP estimates on Secondary and Micronutrients, and pollutant Elements show that 41% of the soil samples is in limited supply of S (Shukla *et al.*, 2012). Dwivedi *et al.* (2001) investigated a large number of soils from RWS farms in Western Uttar Pradesh and found a substantial positive correlation between SOC and available S. In addition, in soils with high SOC concentration, the amount of S deficiency was always reduced. Because the organic S percentage of the soil is favourably connected to SOC (Takkar *et al.*, 1988); (Pasricha *et al.*, 2009) and is widely considered an important donor pool of available S (Tripathi *et al.*, 2000), soils with high organic C or those getting organic manure together with fertilizers should have less S deficits. On Inceptisols (New Delhi), the highest levels of readily soluble and specifically adsorbed B (0.82 and 0.86 mg kg⁻¹, respectively) were found highest when NPK+FYM was used for long-term, while the lowest levels (0.61 and 0.60 mg kg⁻¹, respectively) were found when N was used alone. Organically bound B showed a similar trend, with the maximum level (5.86 mg kg⁻¹) under NPK+FYM and the lowest content (2.50 mg kg⁻¹) under control (AICRP, 2012). Increased chelation of B by organic matter and subsequent release on decomposition may explain the higher proportion of organically bound B under NPK+FYM. Under NPK+FYM, a significant increase in easily soluble B appears to be linked to a large organically bound proportion (Dey *et al.*, 2011).

5. Impact on Nutrient Use Efficiency: The efficiency with which different nutrients are used is still remarkably low, and improving it has always been a top priority. Overall fertilizer efficiency has been estimated to be about or below 50% for nitrogen, less than 10% for phosphorus, and around 40% for potassium (Baligar *et al.*, 2001). Long-term investigations revealed that INM aided in increasing the use efficiency of N at various locations. The N use efficiency in maize measured in Inceptisols (Ludhiana) under 100 % N (alone) was 16.7%, which climbed to 23.5, 36.4, and 40.2 % when combined with P, PK, and FYM, respectively (Table 3) (Singh *et al.*, 2012). Similar trend was noted in Mollisols (Pantnagar) in RWS. Absorption of N and K was significantly higher in the treatment with RD of NPK + FYM @ 10 t/ha in Cotton. Using 50 percent RD of NPK + FYM @ 10 t/ha + urea spray, considerably improved P uptake, agronomic efficiency, and partial factor productivity (Devraj *et al.*, 2008). Baishya *et al.*, (2010) found that applying 100 % inorganic fertiliser (120:120:60 NPK kg ha⁻¹) or a combination of 25 % organic N + 75 % inorganic fertiliser resulted in higher NPK uptake and nutrient use efficiency in potato. In comparison to cereal-

cereal cropping systems, Singh *et al.*, (2015) found that including legumes in the cereal-based farming system resulted in improved N recovery efficiency. In a long-term fertility experiment, (Jate *et al.*, 2017) discovered that continuous application of mineral N and P fertilisers with FYM resulted in higher NFUE, PFUE, and KFUE in potatoes than continuous application of simply FYM. Under 50 percent N through urea + 50 percent through pressmud vermicompost treatment, Ramesh (2018) observed the maximum agronomic efficiency, apparent N recovery, physiological, and internal efficiency in rice crop. A 50:50 split of P2 O5 and arbuscular mycorrhiza (AM) biofertilizer improved agronomic phosphorus use efficiency and partial factor pro productivity in sugarcane. (Patil *et al.*, 2020).

Table 3. Nitrogen use efficiency in different crops as affected by long-term nutrient supply with and without FYM

Soil Type	Location	Crop	Nitrogen use efficiency (%)			
			N	N P	NPK	NPK+FY M
Inceptisol	Ludhiana	Maize	16.7	23.5	36.4	40.2
		Wheat	32.0	50.6	63.1	67.8
Alfisol	Palampur	Maize	6.4	34.7	52.6	63.7
		Wheat	1.9	35.6	50.6	72.6
Mollisol	Pantnagar	Rice	37.5	40.7	44.4	61.7
		Wheat	42.4	46.1	48.4	47.9

CONCLUSION

INM involves integration of all organic and inorganic nutrient sources which aims at improving the productivity of crop as well as soils. INM not only enhances the Nutrient Use Efficiency (NUE) but also improves the physical, chemical and biological properties of soils which further improves soil health and sustainability.

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