

2

3 **Zn-DTPA-HEDTA-EDTA application: a strategy to improve the**
4 **yield and plant quality of a barley crop while reducing the N**
5 **application rate**

6 Running-title: Zn-DTPA-HEDTA-EDTA application to reducing the N application rate

7

8 Patricia Almendros *, Ana Obrador, Jose Manuel Alvarez, Demetrio Gonzalez

9

10 Chemistry and food technology Department. ETSIAAB (Escuela Técnica Superior de
11 Ingeniería Agronómica, Alimentaria y de Biosistemas) Universidad Politécnica de Madrid.

12 Campus Ciudad Universitaria. Av. Puerta de Hierro, nº 2 – 4. 28040 Madrid

13 CEIGRAM, Research Centre for the Management of Agricultural and Environmental Risks,

14 Madrid, 28040, Spain

15 *p.almendros@upm.es

16

17 **Abstract**

18

19 Over-use of N fertilization has been common in order to obtain the highest possible grain yield.

20 This experiment was conducted to investigate the efficiency of combining the application of N

21 (30, 60 or 90 kg ha⁻¹; in the form of pig slurry –PS- or urea) and ZnCHE (0, 0.5, 1, or 1.5 kg

22 ha⁻¹). Nitrogen fertilization combined with soil Zn applications had a significant interaction on

23 various plant parameters (including grain protein concentration, yield, Zn uptake and N uptake).

24 An application rate of 90 kg N ha⁻¹ seems recommendable to obtain high values for both crop

25 yield and N uptake by the plant. PS application was associated with higher mean grain yield

26 and Zn utilization than urea application, but with lower grain protein concentration. On the

27 other hand, the lowest Zn application rate (0.5 mg Zn kg⁻¹) was sufficient to achieve a high

28 grain yield (> 3200 kg ha⁻¹). Higher Zn rates (1 and 1.5 mg Zn kg⁻¹) provided great Zn

29 concentrations in different parts of the plant (grain, leaf, stem and root). Furthermore, high grain

30 protein concentrations (> 9.6%) were obtained with combinations of N60 or N90 and ZnCHE-

31 1 or ZnCHE-1.5, both for PS and for urea. The application of this synthetic Zn chelate could be

32 recommended as a strategy for reducing the N application rate but still obtaining high grain
33 yield and nutritional value in barley.

34

35

36 **Keywords**

37 N-Zn combined fertilization, yield, nutritional composition, protein, agronomic efficiency,
38 utilization efficiency

39

40 **1. Introduction**

41

42 Barley (*Hordeum vulgare* L.) is primarily used for both malt and beer production and as animal
43 feed; it is also used as food for human consumption. Barley grain is high in carbohydrates and
44 also contains moderate amounts of protein, calcium and phosphorus and small quantities of
45 vitamin B. Barley is the world's fourth most important cereal crop (after wheat, rice and maize)
46 in terms of both quantity of production and area of cultivation. The increase in the total barley
47 production over the last half-century has mainly been due to increases in yield, since the total
48 area under production has remained relatively stable, or has even decreased in recent years
49 (FAOstat, 2018). *Hordeum* species are found in most areas with Mediterranean climates.

50 Nitrogen (N) is an essential element for crop development. The rate of N fertilizer application
51 is critical for cereal crops since N affects grain yield and plant quality (Lopez-Bellido, 2009).
52 Under Mediterranean climatic conditions, barley crops under rainfed Mediterranean conditions
53 extract approximately 25 kg of N per 1000 kg of grain produced from the soil. The need for N
54 fertilization in barley crops differs from region to region. Under wet conditions, such as parts
55 of the north of the Spain, with barley yields of between 3000 and 5300 kg ha⁻¹, it is
56 recommended to apply N at a rate of between 80 and 140 kg N ha⁻¹. In contrast, in the arid
57 drylands of Castilla-La Mancha, with average barley yields of around 2000 kg ha⁻¹, the N
58 application rate tends to be below 50 kg N ha⁻¹. In irrigated areas, with yield levels above 5000
59 kg ha⁻¹, the typical N application rate is around 125 kg N ha⁻¹ (Lopez-Bellido, 2009).

60 While the need for greater food production has increased, the global consumption of N in its
61 synthetic (commercial) and organic (manure) forms has increased at an even greater rate.
62 Several organic and inorganic N sources can supply the N required for optimum crop growth.
63 In 2018, Spain was the largest pig producer in the EU (Eurostat, 2018). These animals produce
64 large quantities of manure every year, which presents a problem in terms of the management of

65 the very large volume of waste produced. The agricultural use of this manure is recommended
66 not only for fertilizing but also to facilitate the disposal of these increasingly important residues.
67 Given its value as a fertilizer, pig slurry is commonly used in agriculture and this is a relatively
68 cheap way of decomposing it and offers a low-cost alternative to mineral fertilizers. However
69 excessive applications of manure may cause the pollution of groundwaters as a result of
70 leaching, especially involving nitrates.

71 In various regions of Spain, it has been traditional to apply high doses of N fertilizer with the
72 sole aim of achieving high yields. However, there are several drawbacks associated with the
73 over-use of N fertilizers: 1) the cost; from an agronomical point of view over-use does not
74 produce a significant increase in crop yield; and 2) environmental problems; normally
75 associated with N losses to the natural environment, through N leaching to groundwater, the
76 runoff of surface water and emissions of hazardous gases, such as ammonium, nitrous oxide
77 (N_2O) and nitric oxide (NO), as a result of soil microbial processes, nitrification and
78 denitrification (Sanchez-Martin *et al.*, 2008). The excessive use of fertilizers constitutes an
79 environmental risk and, according to the European Commission, farming is responsible for over
80 50 % of total nitrogen discharges into surface waters. Nitrogen application is usually based on
81 crop N requirements which are applied in accordance with the EU Nitrates Directive (Council
82 Directive 91/676/EEC). In most EU countries, slurry application is limited to 170 kg N ha^{-1}
83 year^{-1} . The original objective of the Nitrates Directive was to protect water quality across
84 Europe by preventing nitrates from agricultural sources polluting ground and surface waters
85 and by promoting the use of good farming practices. In line with this Council Directive, the
86 regional government of Castilla-La Mancha (central Spain) published a set of guidelines for the
87 N fertilization of crops, suggesting stricter limits in areas considered vulnerable to nitrate
88 pollution (Real Decreto 261/1996, DOCM 2011: Orden 07/02/2011).

89 It is also important for crops to have a high level of Agronomic Efficiency. Nitrogen agronomic
90 efficiency (AEN) is a parameter that expresses the ability of the plant to increase its yield in
91 response to N application. Improving N use efficiency (NUE) in crops is also economically
92 beneficial to producers and to the environment. A more efficient and ecologically responsible
93 use of N could be achieved by adopting a series of improved strategies and management
94 practices. Strategies commonly used to improve NUE include: genetic modification (new
95 varieties that take up more organic or inorganic N from soil N and use absorbed N more
96 efficiently); the selection of plant varieties with high harvest indexes; the genetic modification
97 of amino acid transport; and cropping practice-based or crop management-based methods (crop

98 rotation with N-fixing crops and the optimization of the use of chemicals, biofertilizers,
99 manures, and other N sources, tillage practices and cover cropping systems, etc.) (Perchlik and
100 Tegeder, 2017).

101 Zinc is an essential micronutrient for plant nutrition and human health. However, Zn deficiency
102 is a very widespread problem throughout the world and results in reduced crop yields and poor
103 crop quality. About 50% of the soils used for cereal production in the world contain low levels
104 of bioavailable Zn (Alloway 2008). Crop biofortification offers a sustainable and relatively
105 cheap way to provide essential micronutrients to people in both developing and developed
106 countries. Biofortification is a process that involves increasing the natural content of
107 bioavailable nutrients in crop plants (Guo *et al.*, 2016). The biofortification of cereals using Zn
108 has been the focus of considerable research in recent years and has become increasingly relevant
109 and important for both crops and humans (Guo *et al.*, 2016). Applying Zn to barley increases
110 both its fertility (number of grains per ear) and grain quality. Zinc concentrations and contents
111 have been progressively increased through the application of Zn fertilization. In cases of
112 extremely deficiency, Zn application may increase barley crop yields by as much as 48%
113 compared with control crops only receiving NPK fertilizer (Singh 2008).

114 Zinc deficiencies in plants have traditionally been corrected by the application of inorganic Zn
115 sources, such as ZnO, or salts, such as ZnSO₄ or Zn(NO₃)₂. Organic Zn sources, such as
116 synthetic chelates and organic complexes, are now commonly used. Applications of Zn to
117 calcareous soils in the form of chelates (such as Zn-EDTA –Zn- ethylenediaminetetraacetate-,
118 Zn-DTPA –Zn- diethylenetriaminepentaacetate or Zn-HEDTA–Zn- hydroxyethyl-
119 ethylenediaminetriacetate) can have important implications for crop nutrition and that these are
120 highly effective sources of Zn for crops. Zinc chelates provide the micronutrients needed to
121 produce high concentrations of water-soluble Zn and available Zn in soils, though the
122 effectiveness of these chelates depends on their stability. However, Zn chelates differ in their
123 physical state, chemical reactivity, cost, bioavailability and susceptibility to leaching. The
124 chelating agents EDTA (ethylenediaminetetraacetate acid), HEDTA (hydroxyethyl-
125 ethylenediaminetriacetate acid), and DTPA (diethylenetriaminepentaacetate acid) are some of
126 the strongest synthetic chelating agents and when used in combination with Zn form much
127 stronger chelates than naturally occurring organic ligands (Mortvedt and Gilkes, 1993). Zinc
128 chelates enhance Zn availability due to less Zn²⁺ ion interaction with soil components (Pagani
129 *et al.*, 2013).

130 Various authors have studied the effects of applying Zn-N combinations using inorganic
131 sources of Zn, such as ZnO, ZnSO₄ or Zn(NO₃)₂ (Cakmak *et al.*, 2010; Erenoglu *et al.*, 2011;
132 Kutman *et al.*, 2010). All these studies have focused on the impact of applying Zn-N
133 combinations on N and Zn concentrations in plants in just one way: N fertilization combined
134 with soil Zn applications has a significant interaction on grain Zn and N concentrations.
135 Improving the N nutritional status of the plant may enhance the abundance of transporter
136 proteins and nitrogenous chelators involved in the uptake, translocation, remobilization and
137 grain allocation of Zn in cereals (Cakmak *et al.*, 2010). For example, Kutman *et al.* (2011)
138 obtained increases of over 50% in Zn concentrations in whole grain wheat when the N supply
139 was increased from low to very high. Zinc-N management appears to offer a promising
140 agronomic strategy for the biofortification of cereals with Zn. On the other hand, to the best of
141 our knowledge, there have been no specific studies of the application of Zn chelates in
142 conjunction with N sources (organic *vs.* inorganic) to reduce the N rate with the aim of
143 minimizing the environmental impact of fertilization yet maintaining adequate plant nutrient
144 concentrations and a high crop yield.

145 The main objective of the present study was to determine the influence of the combined
146 application of Zn, in the form of a synthesized Zn chelate fertilizer (Zn-DTPA- EDTA-
147 HEDTA), and different N sources (pig slurry or urea) as a strategy to reduce the N application
148 rate in a barley crop grown in a calcareous soil in order to use fertilizer more rationally and
149 effectively and for improving both nitrogen use efficiency and Zn biofortification of barley.

150 The specific objectives were:

151 (1) to study the influence of Zn-DTPA-EDTA-HEDTA and N (pig slurry or urea) application
152 at different rates on grain yield, Zn content and protein content in a barley crop

153 (2) to compare the agronomic efficiency of Zn and N applied via different combinations of Zn
154 and N

155 (3) to establish the relative status of soil Zn fractions and the potential phytoavailability of soil-
156 applied Zn based on different extraction methods

157

158 **2. Material and Methods**

159

160 *2.1. Field locations*

161

162 The field experiment was conducted at the “El Encín” Research Farm (40.52° N 3.30° W, 599
163 m) Madrid, Spain. This area is near “Alcarria-Guadalajara”, which is in a part of Castilla-La
164 Mancha that has been classified as sensitive to nitrate pollution contamination (DOCM, 2011).
165 The average temperature from December to June was 1.1°C (average temperature range = 4.32–
166 21.01°C). The rainfall in the crop growth period was 344 mm.
167 The soil at the site is classified as Calcic Haploxerept (Soil Survey Staff, 2010). The soil texture
168 was silty-loam (31% Sand, 54% Silt and 15% Clay) with 8.20 pH, 188.1 $\mu\text{S cm}^{-1}$ EC, 1.26%
169 organic matter, 0.10% total nitrogen, 30.90 mg kg^{-1} extractable phosphorus, 51.70 mg total Zn
170 kg^{-1} soil and 0.98 $\text{mg DPTA-TEA extractable Zn kg}^{-1}$ soil.

171

172 *2.2. Experimental design*

173

174 The experiment was run with a randomised complete block design that included three replicate
175 plots (7.5 $\text{m}^2 \text{ plot}^{-1}$) for each treatment. Barley (*Hordeum vulgare* L. cv. Quench) was sown in
176 December and harvested in early-June in the following year. Basal fertilization included 90 kg
177 $\text{P}_2\text{O}_5 \text{ ha}^{-1}$ and 70 $\text{kg K}_2\text{O ha}^{-1}$ (aqueous solutions of KH_2PO_4 and H_3PO_4).

178 A combination of three nitrogen (N) levels (30, 60 and 90 kg ha^{-1}) and four zinc (Zn) levels (0,
179 0.5, 1, and 1.5 kg ha^{-1}) of two different sources was applied during the early vegetative stage
180 (February). Nitrogen was applied in the form of granular urea (46% N) or the liquid fraction of
181 pig manure (total N, 2.0 g kg^{-1} ; N-NH_4^+ , 1.23 g kg^{-1} ; total P, 97.5 mg kg^{-1} ; total K, 1.32 g kg^{-1} ,
182 total Zn 22.14 mg kg^{-1} ; total Cu 4.87 mg kg^{-1} ; oxidizable organic matter, 4.60 g kg^{-1} ; dissolved
183 organic carbon, 0.5 g kg^{-1} ; pH, 7.61 and DM, 16 g kg^{-1}). Zinc was applied as ZnCHE (Zn-
184 DTPA-EDTA-HEDTA) [Zn-DPTA (Zn-diethylenetriaminepentaacetate), EDTA (Zn-
185 ethylenediaminetetraacetate) and HEDTA (Zn-N-2-hydroxyethyl-ethylenediaminetriacetate)].
186 A control, without applications of either Zn or N fertilizer, was also performed (total plot
187 number: 75) to calculate the NUE. This treatment was not used for statistical analysis as it did
188 not conform to a real fertilization strategy used for this crop or in this region. Nitrogen fertilizer
189 applications of about 100 kg N ha^{-1} are typically recommended for barley crops in this area
190 (López-Bellido, 2009). The N application rates were therefore lower than typically
191 recommended (with approximate reductions of 70%, 40% and 10%, respectively, compared to
192 traditional application rates for the 30, 60 and 90 kg N ha^{-1} application rates).

193

194 *2.3. Sample preparation and chemical analysis*

195

196 A sample of six 0.5 m-long rows of barley plants were harvested from each plot. The different
197 plant parts (root, stem, leaf and grain) were then separated. The root samples were carefully
198 washed with deionized water and then all the samples were dried at 60 °C for 72 h. Grain from
199 the remaining plants was harvested using a plot combine (Weinterteiger Classic). Soil samples
200 from the rhizosphere were collected and homogenised, air-dried, sieved (< 2mm) and stored for
201 further analysis.

202 The Zn, Fe, Mn and Cu concentrations in the different parts of the plant (root, stem, leaf and
203 grain) were determined by wet digestion in Sample Preparation Block Systems (SPB PROBE
204 Perkin Elmer) using “Teflon tubes” kept at a maximum temperature of 150°C for 2 hours, with
205 1.5 g of dried samples, 10 mL of HCl (37%), 10 mL of HNO₃ (65%) and 5 mL of HF (48%).
206 The grain N concentration was determined using either the Kjeldahl or the Dumas method.
207 Protein concentration was calculated as the N concentration multiplied by 5.83.

208 Total Zn, potentially available Zn (DTPA-TEA and Mehlich-3) and Zn distribution in the
209 different soil fractions were all determined from the soil samples. Total Zn was determined by
210 acid digestion after treating 1 g of soil with 14 mL HNO₃ (65%) and 6 mL HF (48%) followed
211 by digestion in Teflon bombs in a microwave oven with a rotating tray. This involved a three-
212 step process at a maximum pressure of 700 kPa.

213 The concentration of potentially available Zn in the soil was estimated using two different
214 chemical extraction procedures: DTPA–TEA (Lindsay and Norvell, 1978) and Mehlich-3 (Tran
215 and Simard, 1993). The distribution of Zn in the different fractions was obtained by selective
216 sequential extraction (SSE). The SSE used was a six-step procedure which was performed
217 according to Leleyter *et al.* (1999). The soil (g)/extractant solution (mL) ratio was 1:10. The Zn
218 fractions were sequentially determined using a 2.5 g soil sample combined with the following
219 extractants: NH₄Ac 1.0 M, pH=7.0 (Water soluble plus exchangeable, WSEX); NaOAc 1.0 M,
220 pH = 4.5 (Carbonate bound, CAR); NH₂OH·HCl 0.1M in HNO₃, pH = 2.0 (Easily reducible
221 oxide bound, RMO); (NH₄)₂C₂O₄ 0,2M + H₂C₂O₄ 0,2 M, pH = 3,0 (Amorphous minerals
222 colloids bound, AMC); (NH₄)₂C₂O₄ 0.2 M + H₂C₂O₄ 0.2 M, pH = 3.0 in ascorbic acid 0.1 M
223 (Crystalline Fe oxide bound, CFeO). The organic material and sulphide bound + residual
224 fraction (OM + RES) was calculated as the difference between the total Zn extracted by wet
225 acidic digestion in a microwave oven and the sum of the other fractions.

226 “Perkin-Elmer Pure” standard checks were used for the Quality Assurance System (certified by
227 NIST–SRM). Standard solutions of Zn, Fe, Mn and Cu were prepared for each extraction in

228 background solutions of the extracting agents. In all cases, the Zn, Fe, Mn and Cu
229 concentrations were determined by flame atomic absorption spectrophotometry (Perkin-Elmer
230 AAnalyst 700).

231

232 *2.4. Statistical analysis*

233

234 Descriptive, simple and stepwise multiple regression analyses and other statistical studies were
235 conducted using Statgraphics Plus software, version 5.1 (Manugistic Inc., Rockville, MD).

236 Multifactor analyses of variance (ANOVA) of the parameters studied were carried out to
237 determine the main effects of the Zn application rate, N application rate, N source and
238 experimental repetition, and the interactions between them. When two-way interaction between
239 the Zn rate and N rate factors was significant, we performed a new multifactor analysis of
240 variance to determine the main effects of the combined factor. Means were compared using
241 Fisher's protected least significant difference (LSD) tests. Differences were considered
242 significant at $P < 0.05$.

243

244 **3. Results**

245

246 *3.1. Plant response to fertilizer treatments*

247

248 The analysis of variance (ANOVA) for the plant variables studied in the barley crop to
249 determine the main effects of the ZnCHE (Zn-DTPA-EDTA-HEDTA) application rate
250 (ZnCHE-0, ZnCHE-0.5, ZnCHE-1, ZnCHE-1.5), N application rate (N30, N60, N90) and N
251 source (pig slurry –PS- or urea) and the interaction between these main effects are shown in
252 Table 1. The Zn and N application rates caused significant differences in grain yield and Zn
253 concentrations in the different parts of plant. However, only grain yield was significantly
254 influenced by the N source. In leaf and grain Zn concentrations, there were interactions between
255 the Zn application rate and N source. In the grain Zn concentration there was also interaction
256 between the N application rate and N source.

257

(Table 1)

258 Figure 1 shows the grain yield for each treatment and also the mean values when all the data
259 were studied in combination. The highest grain yield was observed with PS + N90 treatments

260 when ZnCHE was applied at any of the three Zn application rates (3873, 3857 and 3928 kg ha⁻¹,
261 ¹, with ZnCHE-0.5, ZnCHE-1.0 and ZnCHE-1.5, respectively). The lowest grain yield was
262 obtained without a Zn treatment (ZnCHE-0) and with N30, applied either as PS or in the form
263 of urea treatments (3015 and 3026 kg ha⁻¹, respectively). According to the statistics, grain yield
264 increased when all of the ZnCHE application treatments were compared to the ZnCHE-0
265 treatments (by between 9.5 and 11.0% compared to the ZnCHE-0 treatments). An increase in
266 the N application rate also significantly increased the mean grain yield (by between 6.9 and
267 13.0%) and the application of PS produced a higher mean grain yield than urea (which increased
268 it by 6.0%). Orthogonal contrasts were used to compare the effects of the combined application
269 of Zn and N on mean grain yield. Increases were observed in the mean grain yield produced by
270 combined application of Zn and N compared with the combined application of the nil-Zn
271 treatment (ZnCHE-0) and N. The estimated difference between the treatment means was 1505
272 kg ha⁻¹ for ZnCHE-0 (N30+N60+N90) vs. ZnCHE-0.5 + ZnCHE-1.0 + ZnCHE-1.5
273 (N30+N60+N90) ($P < 0.05$).

274 (Figure1)

275 The mean Zn concentrations in root, stem, leaf and grain obtained with the different Zn and N
276 application rates and N sources and their respective interactions are shown in Table 2. The
277 different Zn rates employed had an effect on the mean Zn concentrations in the different parts
278 of the plant (root, stem, leaf and grain), with average increases of up to 75, 106, 59 and 30%,
279 respectively, when the ZnCHE-1.5 treatments were compared to the ZnCHE-0 treatments.

280 (Table 2)

281 Increasing the N application rate from N30 to N60 significantly increased the mean Zn
282 concentrations in the root and stem (by 10.2 and 26.0%, respectively). In contrast, the mean Zn
283 concentrations in the root and stem were not significantly affected by an increase in the N
284 application rate from N60 to N90. However, increases in the N application rate from N30 to
285 N60 and from N60 to N90 significantly increased the mean Zn concentrations in the leaf (by
286 8.2 and 14.7%) and grain (by 7.8% and 8.0%), respectively. In contrast, the different N sources
287 employed (PS or urea) had no effect on the mean Zn concentrations in the different parts of the
288 plant.

289 The combined factor of N sources \times Zn application rates significantly affected ($P < 0.0001$) the
290 leaf and grain Zn concentrations. The treatments in which ZnCHE-1.5 was applied (both with
291 urea and with PS), and also those involving PS + ZnCHE-1.0, produced the highest leaf and
292 grain Zn concentrations. The combined factor of N sources \times N application rates employed only

293 had a significant ($P < 0.05$) effect on grain Zn concentration. The highest grain Zn
294 concentrations were observed with the urea + N90 treatment. Even so, there were no significant
295 differences between the grain Zn concentration obtained with the urea + N90 treatment and the
296 PS + N90 and PS + N60 treatments.

297 The grain N and Zn uptake and grain protein concentrations obtained with each of the
298 treatments are shown in Fig. 2. As expected, the mean comparisons for the N application
299 showed that N uptake significantly ($P < 0.0001$) increased with each increment in the N
300 application rate; it increased by 26.9% with an increase in the N application rate from N30 to
301 N60 and by 16.4% with an increase from N60 to N90. The Zn rate administered also
302 significantly influenced ($P < 0.0001$) the N uptake. An increase in the mean N uptake was
303 observed when the Zn application rate was increased from ZnCHE-0 to ZnCHE-0.5 (with an
304 increase of 32.6% in the mean N uptake) and from ZnCHE-0.5 to ZnCHE-1.0 (with an increase
305 of 11.8% in the mean N uptake). There were, however, no significant differences between the
306 N uptake obtained with the ZnCHE-1.0 and ZnCHE-1.5 treatments.

307 (Figure 2)

308 As expected, the Zn uptake significantly increased ($P < 0.0001$) with increases in the Zn
309 application rate. Increases of 23.1 and 7.2% were observed in mean Zn uptake respectively,
310 when the PS + ZnCHE-0.5 and urea + ZnCHE-0.5 treatments were compared to the ZnCHE-0
311 treatments. Moreover, increases of 59.4 and 25.9% were observed in the mean Zn uptake by
312 changing from ZnCHE-0 to ZnCHE-1.5, applying PS and urea, respectively. Furthermore,
313 increases in the N application rate significantly ($P < 0.0001$) increased the Zn uptake (with
314 increases of 12.3% and 19.0% in the mean Zn uptake when the N application rate was increased
315 from N30 to N60, applying PS and urea, respectively, or with increases of 22.2% and 46.6% in
316 the mean Zn uptake when the N application rate was increased from N30 to N90, applying PS
317 and urea, respectively).

318 An increase in the N application rate significantly increased mean grain protein concentrations.
319 On the other hand, applying ZnCHE produced significantly ($P < 0.0001$) higher mean grain
320 protein concentrations than the ZnCHE-0 treatments. Increases in mean grain protein
321 concentrations of from 21.4% to 34.8% were observed when applying ZnCHE as opposed to
322 ZnCHE-0 treatments. The protein concentration was not significantly affected by an increase
323 in the Zn application rate from ZnCHE-1 to ZnCHE-1.5. Something similar occurred with total
324 N uptake by grain, although the grain protein concentration was significantly affected by the

325 different N sources employed, with higher mean grain protein concentrations being associated
326 with treatments using urea than those applying PS.

327 The Fe, Mn and Cu concentrations in several aerial parts of the plant (stem, leaf and grain) are
328 shown in Figure 3. In the case of stem Fe concentration, significant ($P < 0.0001$) differences
329 were observed between N sources. Greater increases in Fe levels were observed in the stem
330 with PS applications than with urea treatments (22.98 and 16.67 mg Fe kg⁻¹, respectively).
331 Significant differences (the P values ranged from 0.0000 to 0.05) were observed between N
332 application rates or N sources in leaf and grain Fe concentrations. As the statistical interaction
333 between the N source and N application rate factors were significant ($P < 0.05$) for leaf and
334 grain concentrations, we used a factor that combined both of them: N source \times N application
335 rates. Significant ($P < 0.0001$) differences were observed between the N source \times N application
336 rates factor in terms of Fe concentration in these parts of the plant. The highest concentrations
337 were observed for the treatment with the highest N application rate (N90) and where PS was
338 applied. Even so, there were no significant differences between the leaf or grain Zn
339 concentrations obtained with PS + N30 and any of the urea treatments. Furthermore, significant
340 differences ($P < 0.05$) were observed between N application rates or N sources in stem Mn
341 concentrations. Significant differences were also observed between the N source \times N
342 application rates interaction in the stem Mn concentration. The highest mean concentrations
343 were observed for the treatment with the highest N application rate (N90) and where PS was
344 applied.

345 (Figure 3)

346

347 3.2. Zinc, Fe, Mn and Cu status of the soil

348

349 The effect of the fertilizer treatment on the total Zn, DTPA-TEA- and Mehlich-3-extractable
350 Zn and Zn fractions in the soil at harvest are shown in Table 3. In total and available (Zn-DTPA-
351 TEA and Zn-Mehlich-3) Zn concentrations significant differences were observed between Zn
352 application rates. Significant differences were also observed between Zn application rates in all
353 of the fractions except the CFeO, OM and RES fractions. Zinc and N application rates and N
354 source factors did not show any statistically significant interactions in any of the cases studied.
355 As expected, when the Zn concentrations in the soil were statistically different, the highest Zn
356 concentrations were observed with ZnCHE applied at 1.5 mg Zn kg⁻¹ and the lowest Zn
357 concentrations were obtained with ZnCHE-0.

(Table 3)

358
359 The total available Fe, Mn and Cu concentrations in the soil (DTPA-TEA and Mehlich-3) and
360 distributions within the different soil fractions did not show any significant differences between
361 Zn application rates (data not shown). Potentially available (DTPA-TEA and Mehlich-3) Fe
362 concentrations in the soil showed significant ($P < 0.05$) differences between N application rates
363 or N sources. Furthermore, Fe-WSEX+CAR showed significant ($P < 0.001$) differences
364 between N application rates or N sources. The statistical interaction between N source and the
365 N application rates factors were significant ($P < 0.05$) in all these cases. Significant (P between
366 0.008 and 0.046) differences were observed between N source \times the N application rates
367 interaction for Fe concentration in the soil. The highest mean concentrations were observed for
368 the treatment with the highest N application rate (N90) and where PS was applied (Fe-DTPA-
369 TEA, 5.08 mg Fe kg⁻¹; Fe-Mehlich-3, 42.90 mg Fe kg⁻¹; Fe-WSEX+CAR, 2.12 mg Fe kg⁻¹).
370 The lowest mean concentrations were observed for the treatments including urea (Fe-DTPA-
371 TEA_{urea + N60} = 4.26 mg Fe kg⁻¹; Fe-Mehlich-3_{urea + N30} = 30.80 mg Fe kg⁻¹; Fe-WSEX+CAR
372_{urea + N60} = 1.27 mg Fe kg⁻¹). Even so, there were no significant differences between the
373 potentially available Fe concentration obtained with PS + N30 and the urea treatments.
374 On the other hand, Mn-Mehlich-3 showed significant ($P < 0.05$) differences between N
375 application rates or N sources. The statistical interaction between N source and the N
376 application rate factors was significant ($P < 0.05$). The Mn-Mehlich-3 concentrations ranged
377 from 61.75 mg Mn kg⁻¹ to 76.08 mg Mn kg⁻¹, urea + N60 and PS + N90, respectively.
378 Conversely, the potentially available (DTPA-TEA and Mehlich-3) Cu concentration in the soil
379 and its distribution within the different soil fractions did not show any significant differences
380 between N sources.

381

382 4. Discussion

383

384 4.1. Influence of combined application of Zn and N on yield, biofortification and plant quality

385

386 There was an improvement in grain yield when ZnCHE fertilizer was added. This enhancement
387 (9-11%) was similar to the mean yield increase observed when the N rate was increased from
388 N30 to N60 or N90 (7-13%) (see Fig. 1). This improvement, which was evident following the
389 application of Zn fertilization, could be attributed to an adequate Zn supply that might have

390 affected metabolic and enzymatic activity. There were no significant differences between the
391 grain yields obtained with the different treatments in which Zn was applied. The mean yields
392 obtained with the combined applications of Zn and N were greater than those obtained when
393 applying only N. Harapiak *et al* (2000) reported that, in general, the barley yield response to
394 micronutrients was 3% of the total response on the Canadian Prairies, while N was responsible
395 for 73 % of the increase in yield. Nitrogen is the key element for achieving high cereal yields.
396 In our experiment, grain yield increased with the N application rate (e.g. the application of N90
397 + ZnCHE-0 increases 23% and 12.5% in mean grain yield respect to the treatment N30 +
398 ZnCHE-0, for PS and urea, respectively). Plots fertilized using the lowest N application rate
399 produced the lowest grain yields. Limited N availability affects the supply of carbohydrates to
400 developing seeds and thereby reduces grain weight.

401 On the other hand, the application of PS rather than urea produced higher mean grain yields
402 (see Fig.1). Increases in the N + Zn application rates had a great impact on grain yield, with
403 mean values increasing by up to 30.3% with PS and by 23.1% with urea. This could have been
404 due to an increase in the available nutrients and dissolved organic carbon (DOC) to the crop
405 through the increase in their supply with the application of pig slurry. In our study, significant
406 correlations and positive coefficients were observed between grain yield and the Zn, Fe and Cu
407 concentrations in grain ($P < 0.05$, $n = 72$). Zeidan *et al* (2010) reported increases in grain yield
408 with respect to the control for the application of Zn and Fe of 42% and 40%, respectively, in a
409 wheat crop.

410 In our experiment, the combined application of N and Zn also had a significant, positive effect
411 on grain Zn concentrations (see Table 2). The use of agronomic strategies to increase
412 concentrations of mineral elements in edible plants is commonly known as Agronomic
413 Biofortification. In countries whose populations exhibit a high incidence of micronutrient
414 deficiencies, cereal-based foods generally represent a considerable proportion of the daily diet
415 (Cakmak *et al.*, 2010). According to Velu *et al.* (2014), the Zn concentration in wheat in many
416 countries ranges from 20 to 35 mg kg⁻¹. In our study, we observed a total Zn concentration in
417 barley of between 37 and 72.4 mg Zn kg⁻¹ and in grain we found Zn concentrations of between
418 17.4 and 27.5 mg Zn kg⁻¹ (PS × N30 + ZnCHE-0 and Urea × N90 + ZnCHE-1.5, respectively).
419 Erenoglu *et al.* (2011) and Kutman *et al.* (2010) observed that the N nutritional status of wheat
420 plants affects root uptake and shoot transport, retranslocation from vegetative tissues to seeds
421 and the seed allocation of Zn. The redistribution of Zn from leaves to sinks and from roots to
422 shoots is a mechanism that makes it possible to provide emerging organs and maturing seeds

423 with appropriate concentrations of Zn in all cereals. Various authors have studied the mobility
424 of metals within plants by calculating the TF (translocation factor); this is defined as the
425 relationship between the micronutrient concentrations in two different parts of a given plant
426 (Kabata and Pendias, 2001; Podlesakova et al., 2001). A high TF value indicates greater
427 mobility (Intawongse and Dean, 2006; Almendros et al., 2015).

428 In our study, significant differences in TF were noted for the different Zn treatments ($P < 0.0001$
429 in TF grain/leaf, TF grain/stem and TF grain/root; $P < 0.001$ in TF leaf/stem and $P < 0.05$ in
430 TF stem/root) and N rates applied ($P < 0.05$ in TF stem/root, TF grain/stem and TF leaf/stem).
431 The highest TF stem/root values were observed with the ZnCHE-1.5 and N60 or N90
432 treatments. Kutman *et al.* (2010) reported that the positive interaction between N and Zn in
433 cereals is due to improvements in root uptake and the translocation of Zn due to the presence
434 of N. Several nitrogenous compounds, such as amino acids and nicotianamine, could be
435 involved in the translocation of Zn from the root into the shoot. However, in our study it was
436 observed that the TF reached similar values with the N60 and N90 treatments when the highest
437 Zn rate was added (ZnCHE-1.5).

438 In contrast, for TF grain/leaf, TF grain/stem, TF grain/root ($P < 0.0001$) and TF leaf/stem ($P <$
439 0.001) the highest values recorded in our study were observed with the ZnCHE-0 treatments.
440 This seems to suggest that when the Zn concentration in plant is low, it assures the accumulation
441 of Zn in grain or leaves.

442 In our experiment, N application rates did not cause any significant differences in TF grain/leaf.
443 These results differed from those reported by Erenoglu *et al.* (2011) who, in a radiolabelled
444 experiment conducted with ^{65}Zn and carried out in wheat, found that plants with high levels of
445 N translocated more ^{65}Zn from flag leaves into seeds than those containing low levels of N.
446 This difference could be explained by the fact that the N doses applied in our experiment were
447 low (with approximate reductions of 70%, 40% and 10% compared to the traditional application
448 rates used in our area).

449 The Zn uptake in plants significantly increased at both of the Zn and N application rates (see
450 Fig 2). As Zn uptake is calculated as the product of grain Zn concentration and yield, the highest
451 values for this crop were obtained with applications of PS. Combined applications of Zn and N
452 also significantly increase the grain protein concentration and N uptake. Various authors have
453 reported increases in protein content associated with combined applications of N and Zn, in
454 different crops: rice (Guo *et al.*, 2016), maize (Sajad *et al.*, 2014), wheat (Cakmak *et al.*, 2010)
455 and fodder sorghum (Verma *et al.*, 2005). Speciation and localization studies conducted on

456 cereal grain indicate that Zn interacts with proteins in the grain and therefore grain proteins
457 constitute a physiological sink for Zn (Cakmak and Kutman, 2018). Zinc plays an indispensable
458 role in protein synthesis and Zn deficiency impedes this process and affects the health and
459 productivity of plants, resulting in low yields and poor plant quality. According to FEDNA
460 (2016), grain protein concentrations of between 9.6 (“lower protein level”) and 11.3% (“upper
461 protein level”) in barley grain are appropriate for feed use. In Spain, average analyses for the
462 last six years show a tendency towards a reduction in the protein content of barley grain and an
463 increase in the concentration of starch; this is probably due to the fact that N application has
464 been limited by the Nitrates Directive. In our study, all the treatments with N90 reached these
465 values when ZnCHE was applied (see Fig. 2). Moreover, treatments with N60 and ZnCHE-1
466 or ZnCHE-1.5 also achieved this range. Conversely, the only treatment involving the lowest N
467 rate applied to reach this range was the urea × N30 + ZnCHE-1.5 treatment. It is noteworthy
468 that in our study PS application affected the grain protein concentration, which decreased by
469 10% when PS was applied instead of urea. This may reflect a common characteristic of pig
470 slurry: once it has been added to soil, the ammoniacal N in slurry quickly changes into nitric N
471 and this may leach if plants do not assimilate it (Sanchez and Gonzalez 2005). Moreover, N
472 from manure is easily lost via gaseous emissions (NH₃, N₂O and NO).

473

474 *4.2. Influence of treatment added on the efficiency of Zn or N use.*

475

476 To evaluate the relative effectiveness of the different treatments, we established the agronomic
477 efficiency of Zn or N use (AEZn and AEN, respectively). These parameters were used to study
478 the capacity of yield increase per kg of Zn or N applied. Significant differences between N or
479 Zn application rates were observed in AEN (P between 0.009 and 0.0000). The factors studied
480 did not show any statistically significant interactions in any of the cases. As shown in Figure 4,
481 it was possible to observe a (non-significant) tendency for AEZn to decrease with increases in
482 the application rates of Zn and N and also with urea application. However, the mean AEN
483 obtained with the application of Zn fertilizer was significantly ($P < 0.001$) greater than that
484 obtained by only applying N. According to Cakmak (2010), N and Zn act synergistically when
485 they are both present in sufficient amounts. Arora and Singh (2004) reported the beneficial
486 effect of Zn application on N availability, possibly as a result of the activation of a physiological
487 process in which Zn acts as a co-enzyme and/or catalyst. Since the agronomic efficiency of N

488 use (AEN) describes the capacity to increase the yield per kg of N applied, the highest AEN
489 values for this crop were obtained with applications of the lowest N doses (N30 treatments).
490 These results are in line with Tilman *et al.*, (2002) who reported the highest efficiency of N
491 fertilizer use being associated with the first increments in added N, with AEN decreasing with
492 higher levels of N application.

493 (Figure 4)

494 According to Prasad and Sinha (1981), the percentage of Zn used, or Zn utilization, by the crop
495 is a decisive parameter for the relative effectiveness of any fertilizer treatment. In our study,
496 significant differences were observed between N sources ($P < 0.0001$) or Zn application rates
497 ($P < 0.05$). The factors studied did not show any statistically significant interactions in Zn or N
498 utilization. As expected, in this crop the highest Zn utilization values were obtained with
499 applications of the highest Zn doses (ZnCHE-1.5 treatments). There were differences between
500 the results obtained from treatments with ZnCHE-1.0 and ZnCHE-1.5, but these were not
501 significant. In addition, the application of Zn fertilizer produced significant ($P < 0.0001$)
502 increases in N utilization with respect to the control treatment. The highest N utilization values
503 were obtained with applications of the ZnCHE-1.0 and ZnCHE-1.5 treatments. According to
504 several studies (Hu *et al.*, 2003; Montoya *et al.*, 2018), ethylenediamine-based chelating agents,
505 such as DTPA and EDTA, may act as nitrification inhibitors. Nitrification inhibition caused by
506 heavy metals, such as Zn, has also been addressed in the literature (Kapoor *et al.*, 2015). The
507 application of nitrification inhibitors is a strategy employed to increase the efficiency of N use
508 in crops.

509 The highest level of N utilization was obtained with the lowest N doses (N30 treatments); this
510 result was in line with the AEN. The differences in Zn and N utilization between the different
511 N sources applied (PS and urea) were consistent with the results obtained for Zn uptake in plant
512 and grain protein concentration, which was, in itself, directly related to the N concentration in
513 the plant.

514

515 4.3. Soil status and nutrient availability to the plant

516

517 The amount of Zn in soils and plants depends on the source applied, its behaviour (fixation,
518 leaching, transformation, availability) and several other plant parameters (uptake, transport and
519 accumulation). Various authors have assessed the mobility of metals by calculating soil-to-plant

520 transfer factors (TF_{S-P}) (Kabata-Pendias, 2001; Prasad and Singh, 1981) this concept is defined
521 as the relationship between the Zn concentration in the plant root and the total concentration of
522 this element in the soil. A high TF_{S-P} value indicates greater soil-to-plant mobility and
523 availability, while a low value indicates a greater probability of there being a deficiency
524 (Alloway, 2008). In our study, significant differences between N application rates ($P < 0.0001$)
525 or Zn application rates ($P < 0.0001$) were obtained for TF_{S-P} . The mean TF_{S-P} concentration
526 increased with N application rates in the following order: N30 (0.31) < N60 (0.34) \approx N90
527 (0.35). Chaudhry *et al.* (1977) and Singh and Singh (1981) observed higher Zn contents in plant
528 tissues as a result of applying more N in response to an increase in Zn solubility. In contrast,
529 the mean TF_{S-P} concentration increased in the following order: ZnCHE-0 (0.24) < ZnCHE-0.5
530 (0.31) < ZnCHE-1 (0.38) < ZnCHE-1.5 (0.41). This Zn source: ZnCHE (Zn-DTPA-EDTA-
531 HEDTA), was associated with large amounts of bioavailable Zn in the soil and also with high
532 Zn concentrations resulting from the sum of the most labile fractions (water soluble plus
533 exchangeable fractions) in the soil with similar properties (Almendros *et al.*, 2015). This
534 behaviour could be related to differences in the stability constant (K) of the chelates studied
535 under these soil and plant conditions. The Zn sources that contain the most stable chelates (\log
536 $K_{Zn-EDTA} = 17.5$ and $\log K_{Zn-DTPA} = 19.5$ with an ionic strength of 0.01 mol L^{-1}) (Lindsay, 1979;
537 Smith *et al.*, 2004) maintain greater amounts of Zn in their soil solution. In contrast, in Zn
538 sources that contain fewer stable chelates, for example Zn-HEDTA ($\log K_{Zn-HEDTA} = 15.3$ with
539 an ionic strength of 0.01 mol L^{-1}), the metal is retained by the soil components.

540

541 **5. Conclusion**

542

543 Nitrogen-Zn interaction influences both plant yield and its nutritional composition. The
544 application of Zn is necessary in two ways: to increase the Zn concentration in the plant, and
545 because it also affects the amount of N in the plant. A judicious use of Zn and N in barley crops
546 could result in better crop production in both economic and sustainable terms. An application
547 rate of $0.5 \text{ mg Zn kg}^{-1}$ (ZnCHE-0.5) seems sufficient to achieve a great grain yield. However,
548 it is recommendable to increase the dose of Zn applied in order to reach high nutritional values
549 as this improves the Zn concentration in the plant or grain protein concentration. Higher Zn
550 doses are also advisable to achieve high levels of Zn and N uptake in plants and to increase
551 root-stem Zn translocation. These effects are probably due not only to Zn application, but also

552 to the possible influence of chelating agents, such as DTPA, HEDTA and EDTA, as nitrification
553 inhibitors. In contrast, the 90 kg N ha⁻¹ application rate would seem recommendable under these
554 conditions since it was associated with high values in terms of crop yield, grain protein
555 concentration and plant Zn and N uptake. These treatments would imply a reduction of 25% in
556 the “rational N application rate” for this crop under these dry-land conditions. Pig slurry
557 application produced a higher mean grain yield, Zn uptake and Zn utilization but a lower grain
558 protein concentration than urea applications. This could be due, on the one hand, to an increase
559 in the available nutrients to the crop through the increase in their supply with pig slurry and/or,
560 on the other hand, to the different behaviour of the forms of N applied to the soil (N losses and
561 availability).

562

563 **Acknowledgement**

564 This work was supported by the Community of Madrid (Agrisost Project, S2013/ABI-2717).

565

566 **References**

- 567 Alloway, B.J. 2008. Zinc in soils and crop nutrition. IZA Publications, International Zinc
568 Assoc.: Brussels.
- 569 Almendros, P., Obrador, A., Gonzalez, D., Alvarez, J.J. 2015. Biofortification of zinc in onions
570 (*Allium cepa* L.) and soil Zn status by the application of different organic Zn complexes.
571 *Sci. Hortic.* 186, 254–265.
- 572 Arora, S., Singh, M. 2004. Interaction effect of Zinc and Nitrogen on growth and yield of barley
573 (*Hordeum vulgare* L.) on typic Ustipsamments. *Asian J Plant Sci.* 3, 101-103.
- 574 Cakmak, I., Kutman, U.B. 2018. Agronomic biofortification of cereals with zinc: a review. *Eur.*
575 *J. Soil Sci.* 69,172–180
- 576 Cakmak, I. 2010. Biofortification of cereals with zinc and iron through fertilization strategy. In
577 19 th World Congress of Soil Science, Soil Solution for a Changing World. 1-6 August
578 2010, Brisbane, Australia.
- 579 Cakmak, I., Pfeiffer, W.H., McClafferty, B. 2010. Biofortification of durum wheat with zinc
580 and iron. *Cereal Chem.* 87,10-20.
- 581 Chaudhry, F.M., Kausar, M.A., Rashid, A. 1977. Mechanism of nitrogen effect on zinc nutrition
582 of flooded rice. *Plant Soil.* 46, 649-654.
- 583 Council Directive 91/676/EEC of 12 December 1991 concerning the protection of waters
584 against pollution caused by nitrates from agricultural sources.

585 Erenoglu, E.B., Kutman, U.B., Ceylan, Y., Yildiz, B., Cakmak, I. 2011. Improved nitrogen
586 nutrition enhances root uptake, root-to-shoot translocation and remobilization of zinc
587 (⁶⁵Zn) in wheat. *New Phytol.* 189, 438-448.

588 FEDNA. 2016. Fundación Española para el Desarrollo de la Nutrición Animal. In Spanish.
589 <http://www.fundacionfedna.org/node/495>

590 Guo, J.X., Feng, Z.M., Hu, X.Y., Tian, G.L., Ling, N., Wang, J.H., Shen, Q.R., Guo, S.W. 2016.
591 Affects of soil zinc availability, nitrogen fertilizer rate and zinc fertilizer application
592 method on zinc biofortification of rice. *J. Agric. Sci.* 154, 584-597.

593 Harapiak, J., Karamanos, R., Johnston, A. 2000. High Yielding Barley Production (Canadian
594 Prairies). *Better Crops.* 84.

595 Hu, Z., Chandran, K., Grasso, D., Smets, B.F. 2003. Nitrification inhibition by
596 Ethylenediamine-Based chelating agents. *Environ. Eng. Sci.* 20.

597 Intawongse, M., Dean, J.R. 2006. Uptake of heavy metals by vegetable plants grown on
598 contaminated soil and their bioavailability in the human gastrointestinal tract. *Food Addit*
599 *Contam.* 23, 36-48. Kabata-Pendias, A. 2001. *Trace Elements in Soils and Plants.* CRC
600 Press, Boca Raton, FL.

601 Kapoor, V., Li, X., Elk, M., Chandran, K., Impellitteri, C.A., Santo-Domingo, J.W. 2015.
602 Impact of Heavy Metals on Transcriptional and Physiological Activity of Nitrifying
603 Bacteria. *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 49, 13454–13462

604 Kutman, U.B., Yildiz, B., Cakmak, I. 2011. Effect of nitrogen on uptake, remobilization, and
605 partitioning of zinc and iron throughout the development of durum wheat. *Plant Soil.* 342,
606 149-164.

607 Kutman, U.B., Yildiz, B., Ozturk, L., Cakmak, I. 2010. Biofortification of durum wheat with
608 zinc through soil and foliar applications of nitrogen. *Cereal Chem.* 87, 1-9.

609 Leleyter, L., Probst, J.L., Depetris, P., Haida, S., Mortatti, J., Rouault, R., Samuel, J. 1999. REE
610 distribution pattern in river sediments: partitioning into residual and labile fractions. *C.*
611 *R. Acad. Sci., Series IIA, Paris* 329, 45-52.

612 Lindsay, W.L. 1979. Chelate equilibria. In: John Wiley and Sons (Ed.), *Chemical Equilibria in*
613 *Soils.* John Wiley and Sons, New York, NY, pp. 238–263.

614 Lindsay, W.L., Norvell, W.A. 1978. Development of a DTPA soil test for zinc, iron,
615 manganese, and copper. *Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J.* 42, 421–428.

616 Lopez-Bellido, L. 2009. Abonado de los cereales de invierno: trigo y cebada. In: Guía práctica
617 de la fertilización racional de los cultivos en España, parte II. Ministerio de Medio
618 Ambiente y Medio Rural y Marino.

619 Montoya, M., Castellano-Hinojosa, A., Vallejo, A., Alvarez, J.M., Bedmar, E.J., Recio, J.,
620 Guardia, G. 2018. Zinc fertilizers influence greenhouse gas emissions and nitrifying and
621 denitrifying communities in a non-irrigated arable cropland. *Geoderma*. 325, 208–217

622 Mortvedt, J.J., Gilkes, R.J. 1993. Zinc fertilizers. In: Robson AD (ed) *Zinc in soils and plants,*
623 *developments in plant and soil science 55.* Kluwer Academic, Dordrecht, p 33–34

624 Pagani, A., Sawyer, J.E., Mallarino, A. 2013. *Site-Specific Nutrient Management: For Nutrient*
625 *Management Planning To Improve Crop Production, Environmental Quality, and*
626 *Economic Return.* Extension and Outreach Publications. 116.

627 Perchlik, M., Tegeder, M. 2017. Improving plant Nitrogen use efficiency through alteration of
628 amino acid transport processes. *Plant Physiol*. 175, 235-247.

629 Podlesakova, E., Nemecek, J., Vácha, R. 2001. Mobility and bioavailability of trace elements
630 in soils. In: Iskandar, I.K., Kickham, M.B. (Eds.), *Trace Elements in Soil. Bioavailability,*
631 *Flux and Transfer.* Lewis Publishers, Boca Raton, FL, pp. 21–42.

632 Prasad, B., Sinha, M.K. 1981. The relative efficiency of zinc carriers on growth and zinc
633 nutrition of corn. *Plant Soil*. 62, 45–52.

634 Sajad, A., Jamil, M., Ahmad, M. 2014. An investigation of nitrogen-zinc interaction synergise
635 maize (*Zea mays* L.) fodder quality. *WASJ*. 31:91-95.

636 Sanchez, M., Gonzalez, J.L. 2005. The fertilizer value of pig slurry. I. Values depending on the
637 type of operation. *Bioresour. Technol*. 96, 1117–1123

638 Sanchez-Martín, L., Vallejo, A., Dick, J., Skiba, U.M. 2008. The influence of soluble carbon
639 and fertilizer nitrogen on nitric oxide and nitrous oxide emissions from two contrasting
640 agricultural. *Soil Biol. Biochem*. 40, 142-151.

641 Singh, M., Singh, S.P. 1981. Effect of nitrogen and zinc on the yield of submerged rice and
642 uptake of N and Zn on unlimed and limed soils. *Plant Soil*. 62, 183-192.

643 Singh, M.V. 2008. *Micronutrient Deficiencies in Crops and Soils in India.* In: Alloway B.J.
644 (eds) *Micronutrient Deficiencies in Global Crop Production.* Springer, Dordrecht.

645 Smith, R.M., Martell, A.E., Motekaitis, R.J. 2004. *NIST Critically Selected Stability Constants*
646 *of Metal Complexes.* Standard Reference Data program (National Institute of Standards
647 and Technology).

- 648 Soil Survey Staff. 2010. Keys to soil taxonomy. 11th ed. USDA (ed) - Natural Resources
649 Conservation Service, Washington, DC, USA.
- 650 Tilman, D., Cassman, K.G., Matson, P.A., Naylor, R., Polasky, S. 2002. Agricultural
651 sustainability and intensive production practices. *Nature* 418, 671–677.
- 652 Tran, T.S., Simard, R.R. 1993. Mehlich III-extractable elements. In: Carter, M.R. (Ed.), *Soil*
653 *Sampling and Methods of Analysis*. First ed. Can. Soc. Soil Sci., Lewis Publishers, Boca
654 Raton, FL, pp. 43–49.
- 655 Velu, G., Ortiz-Monasterio, J., Cakmak, I., Hao, Y., Singh, R.P. 2014. Biofortification
656 strategies to increase grain zinc and iron concentrations in wheat. *J. Cereal Sci.* 59, 365-
657 372.
- 658 Verma, S.S., Singh, N., Joshi, Y.P., Deodari, V. 2005. Effect of N and Zn on growth characters,
659 herbage yield, nutrient uptake and quality of fodder for sorghum. *Indian J of Agronomy*.
660 50:167-169.
- 661 Zeidan, M.S., Mohamed, M.F., Hamouda, H.A. 2010. Effect of foliar fertilization of Fe, Mn
662 and Zn on wheat yield and quality in low sandy soils fertility. *WJAS*. 6,696-699.
663

664 **Table 1:** Analysis of variance (ANOVA) of the effects of Zn application rate, N application
665 rate, N source and their interactions on grain yield; root, stem, leaf and grain Zn concentrations;
666 N and Zn uptake and grain protein concentration

	Zn application	N application	N source				
	rate (a)	rate (b)	(c)	a × b	a × c	b × c	a × b × c
df	3	2	1	6	3	2	6
Grain yield	< 0.05	< 0.05	< 0.05	NS	NS	NS	NS
Root Zn conc	< 0.0001	< 0.001	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
Stem Zn conc	< 0.0001	< 0.0001	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
Leaf Zn conc	< 0.0001	< 0.0001	NS	NS	< 0.05	NS	NS
Grain Zn conc	< 0.0001	< 0.0001	NS	NS	< 0.05	< 0.05	NS
N uptake	< 0.0001	< 0.0001	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
Zn uptake	< 0.0001	< 0.0001	< 0.05	NS	< 0.05	< 0.05	NS
Grain protein conc	< 0.0001	< 0.0001	< 0.001	NS	NS	NS	NS

667

668 NS, not significant

669

670 **Table 2:** Zinc concentrations in root, stem, leaf and grain obtained with the different Zn and N
671 application rates and N sources. *Italic values* show mean Zn concentrations and the ANOVA
672 of the effects of Zn application rate, N application rate, N source or their interactions when
673 these were significant.

674

Zn		ROOT [Zn] mg/kg			STEM [Zn] mg/kg			LEAF [Zn] mg/kg			GRAIN [Zn] mg/kg		
		N30	N60	N90	N30	N60	N90	N30	N60	N90	N30	N60	N90
PS	0	10.35	11.95	13.66	3.29	4.29	4.56	6.01	6.30	7.00	17.36	18.41	19.08
	0.5	14.66	16.86	17.08	4.56	5.98	6.45	7.27	7.61	8.91	19.74	20.25	20.91
	1	20.85	21.46	22.60	5.99	6.52	7.07	9.23	9.92	12.16	23.35	24.07	25.02
	1.5	21.10	22.92	23.89	7.19	8.17	9.22	8.98	9.84	12.28	24.38	26.23	27.01
UREA	0	12.47	13.69	14.00	3.36	3.98	4.15	5.98	6.86	7.04	17.86	19.95	21.98
	0.5	13.74	18.50	18.00	4.22	5.52	5.58	7.72	7.80	10.53	18.47	20.25	22.69
	1	19.41	19.75	19.98	5.36	7.19	7.29	7.96	9.17	10.23	18.71	21.13	24.39
	1.5	20.55	21.54	23.05	6.30	9.07	8.69	10.07	10.90	10.29	21.03	23.04	27.47
		<i>Zn-0</i> 12.69 a			<i>Zn-0</i> 3.94 a			<i>N30</i> 7.90 a			<i>PS × Zn0</i> 18.28 a		
		<i>Zn-0.5</i> 16.47 b			<i>Zn-0.5</i> 5.39 b			<i>N60</i> 8.55 b			<i>PS × Zn0.5</i> 20.30 ab		
		<i>Zn-1</i> 20.67 c			<i>Zn-1</i> 6.57 c			<i>N90</i> 9.81 c			<i>PS × Zn1</i> 24.14 c		
		<i>Zn-1.5</i> 22.17 d			<i>Zn-1.5</i> 8.11 d			<i>PS × Zn0</i> 6.44 a			<i>PS × Zn1.5</i> 25.87 c		
		<i>N30</i> 16.64 a			<i>N30</i> 5.03 a			<i>PS</i> 7.93 b			<i>U × Zn0</i> 19.93 ab		
		<i>N60</i> 18.33 b			<i>N60</i> 6.34 b			<i>PS × Zn1</i> 10.44 c			<i>U × Zn0.5</i> 20.01 ab		
		<i>N90</i> 19.03 b			<i>N90</i> 6.63 b			<i>PS</i> 10.37 c			<i>U × Zn1</i> 21.41 b		
		<i>PS</i> 18.11 a			<i>PS</i> 6.11 a			<i>U × Zn0</i> 6.63 a			<i>U × Zn1.5</i> 23.84 c		
		<i>UREA</i> 17.89 a			<i>UREA</i> 5.89 a			<i>U</i> 8.69 b			<i>PS × N30</i> 21.21 ab		
								<i>U × Zn1</i> 9.12 b			<i>PS × N60</i> 22.24 bc		
								<i>U</i> 10.42 c			<i>PS × N90</i> 23.00 bc		
											<i>U × N30</i> 19.02 a		
											<i>U × N60</i> 21.09 ab		
											<i>U × N90</i> 23.79 c		

675

676 Values compared using LSD multiple-range test at the 0.05 level of probability. Homogeneous
677 groups are denoted with the same letter

678

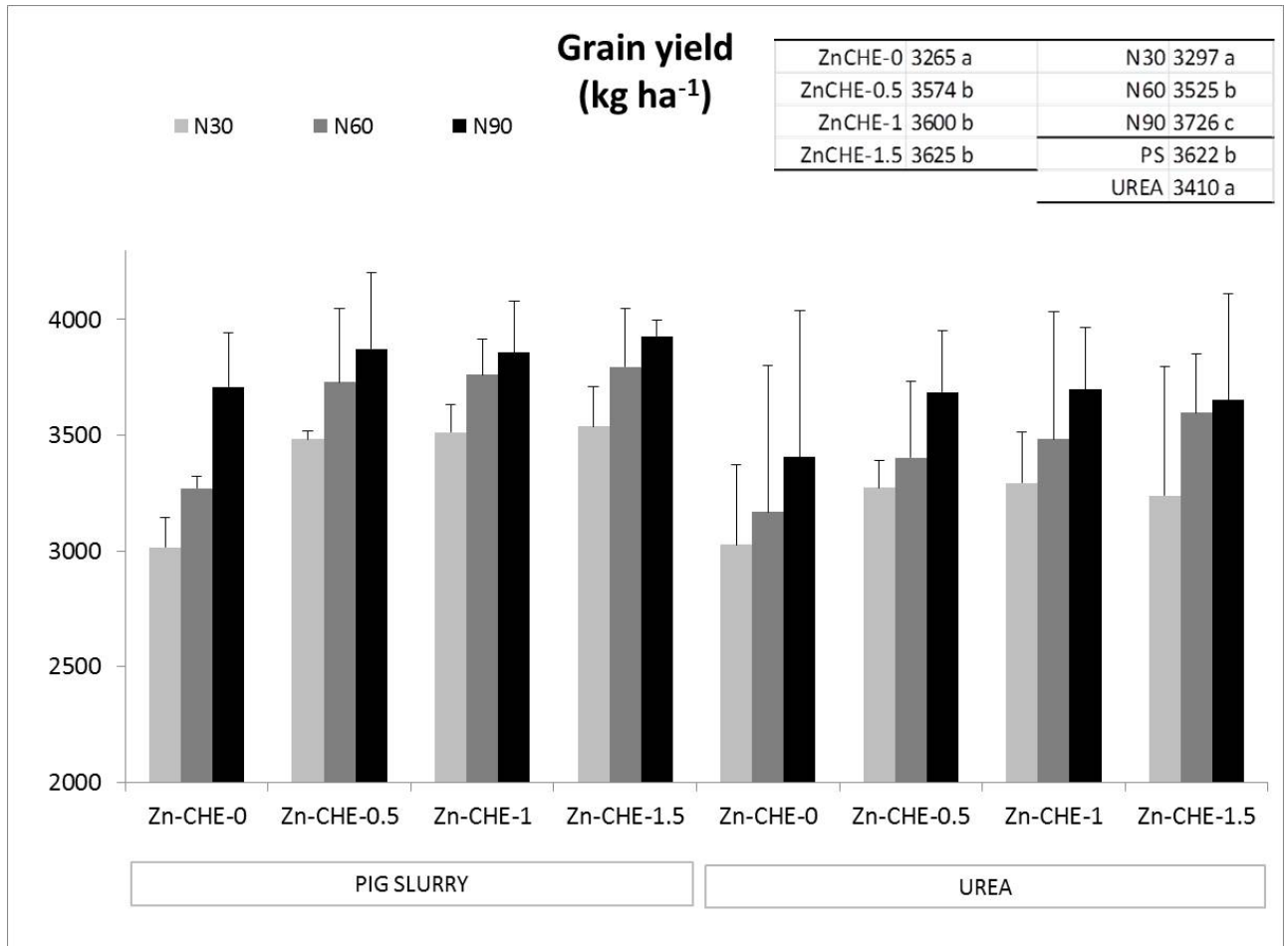
679 **Table 3:** Analysis of variance (ANOVA) and effect of fertilizer treatment on total Zn, DTPA-
680 TEA, and Mehlich-3 extractable Zn and Zn fractions in soil (mg kg⁻¹) at the time of barley
681 harvest
682

	Total Zn	Zn- DTPA- TEA	Zn- Mehlich- 3	Zn- WSEX	Zn- CAR	Zn- RMO	Zn-AMC	Zn- CFeO	Zn- OM + Zn- RES
Source of variation									
Zn application rate (a)	**	**	**	***	***	***	**	ns	ns
N application rate (b)	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
N source (c)	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
ZnCHE									
0	52.69 a	1.00 a	2.28 a	0.28 a	1.00 a	0.61 a	3.72 a	1.25 ab	46.49 a
0.5	53.50 b	1.10 ab	2.36 ab	0.29 ab	1.00 a	0.68 a	4.68 b	1.17 a	49.89 a
1	53.90 bc	1.18 bc	2.41 b	0.31 b	1.30 b	0.84 b	4.94 bc	1.18 a	49.70 a
1.5	54.30 c	1.29 c	2.47 b	0.34 c	1.41 b	0.92 b	5.18 c	1.16 a	51.33 a

683
684
685 *** , ** and * significant at 0.01 % , 0.1 % and 5 % levels. Values compared using LSD
686 multiple-range test at the 0.05 level of probability. Homogeneous groups are denoted with the
687 same letter.

688
689

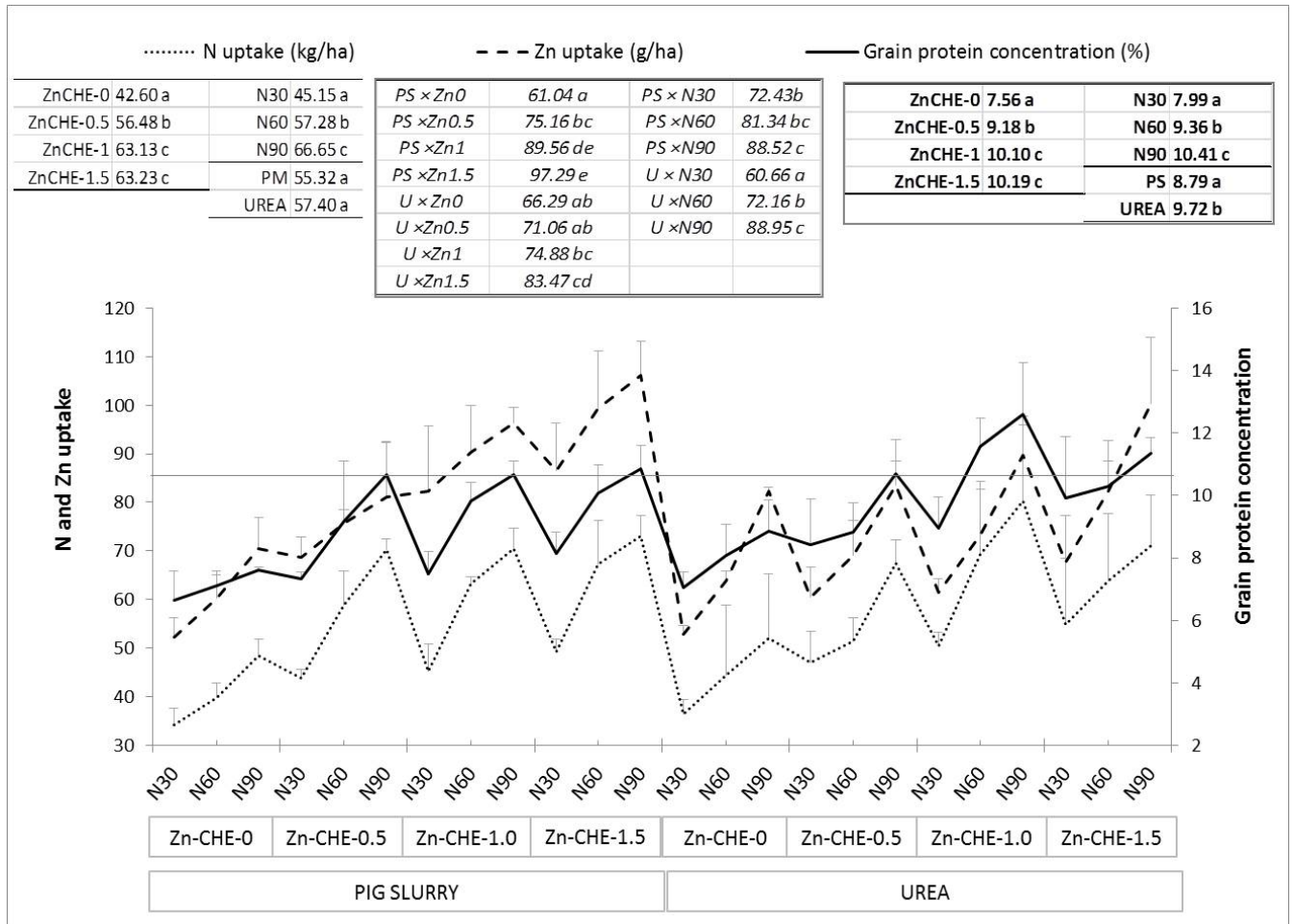
690 **Figure 1.** Effect of the different fertilizer treatment on grain yield. The vertical line at each of
 691 the data represents the standard deviation from the mean. Data table shows the mean values
 692 when all the data were studied in combination. Mean values followed by different letters are
 693 significantly different at $P \leq 0.05$ by the LSD test.



694

695

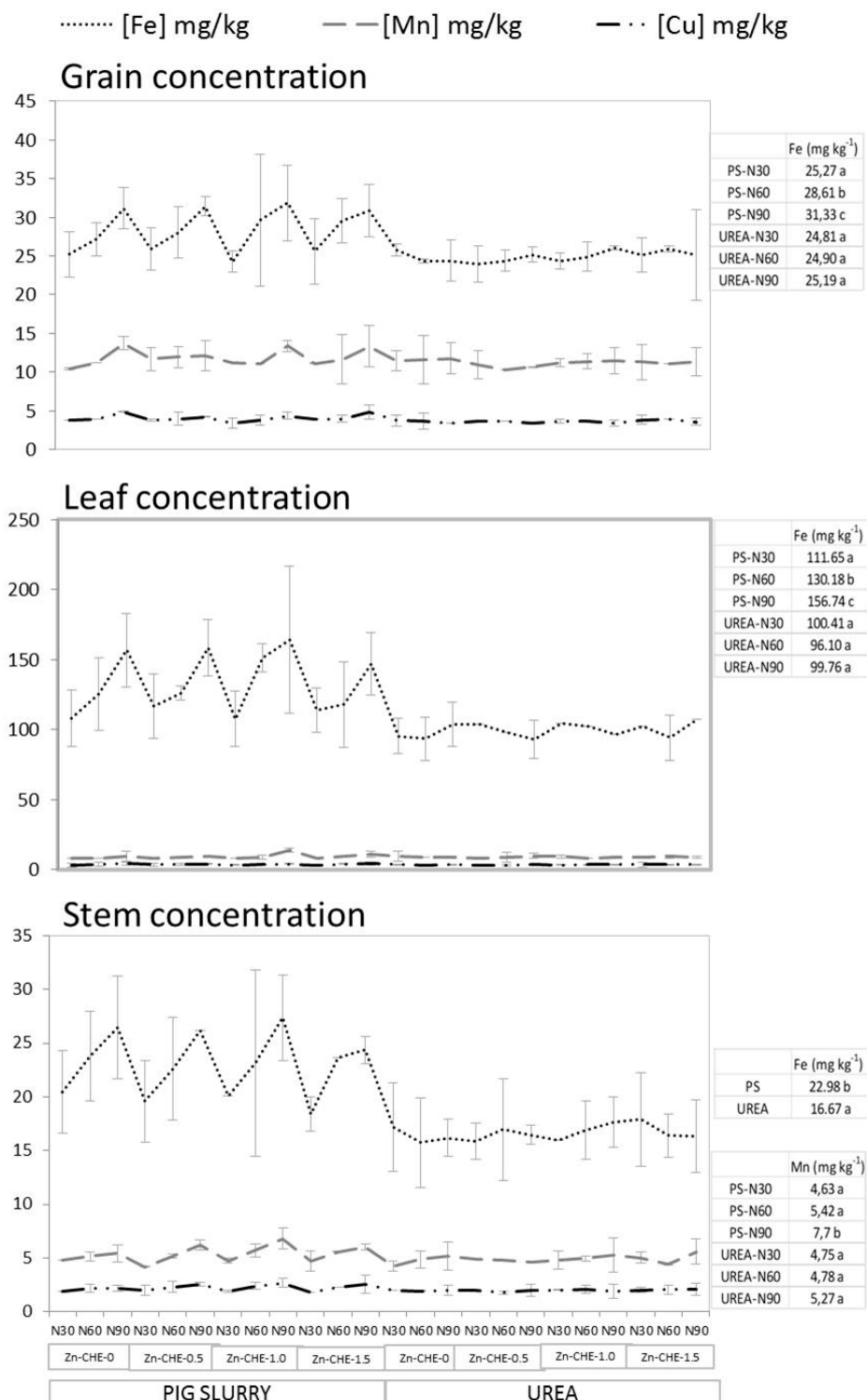
696 **Figure 2.** N and Zn uptake and grain protein concentrations obtained with each treatment. The
 697 vertical line at each of the data represents the standard deviation from the mean. Data table
 698 shows the mean values when all the data were studied in combination (N uptake, roman letters;
 699 Zn uptake, italic letters; grain protein concentration, bolt letters). Mean values followed by
 700 different letters are significantly different at $P \leq 0.05$ by the LSD test.



701

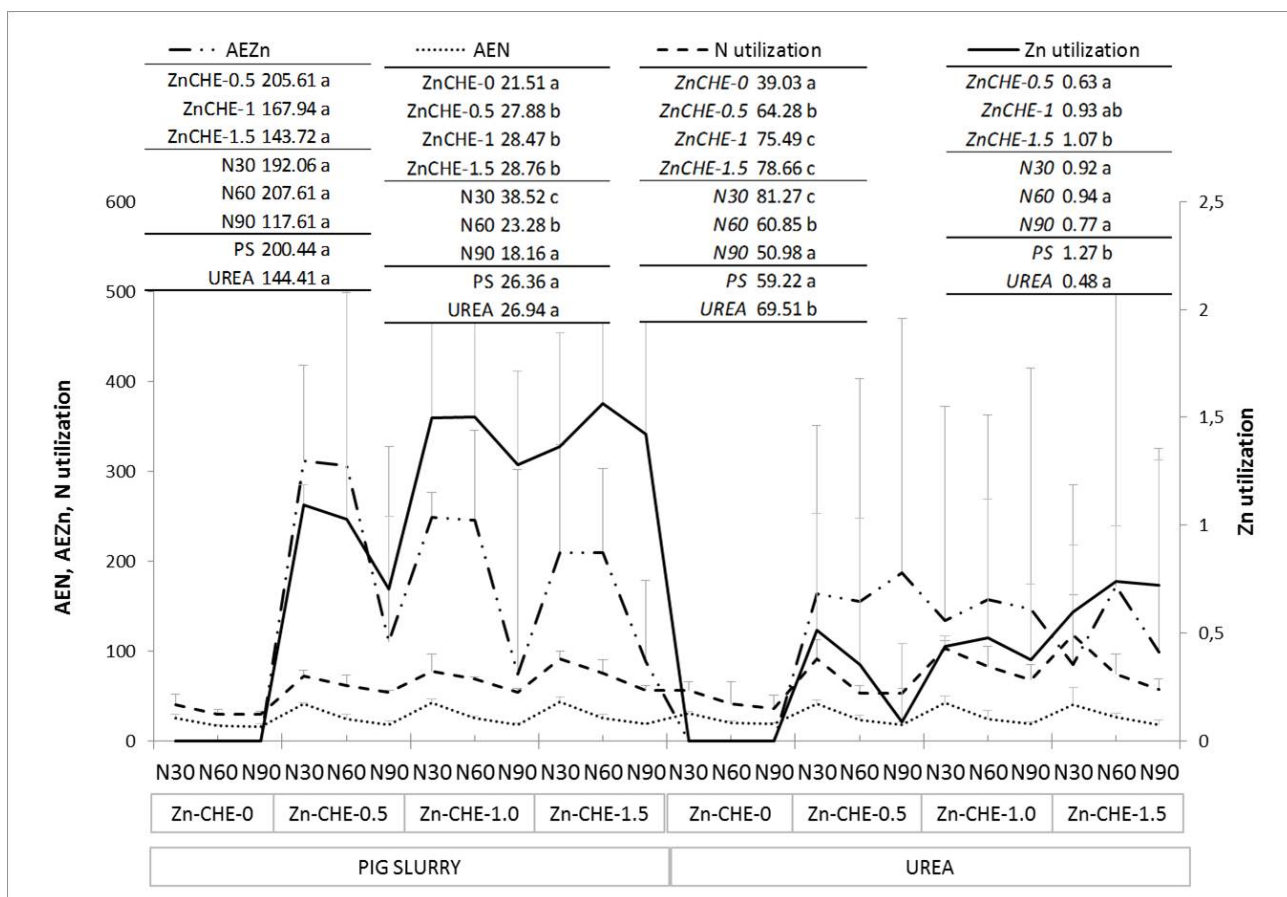
702

703 **Figure 3.** Fe, Mn and Cu concentrations in stem, leaf and grain, obtained with each treatment.
 704 The vertical line at each of the data represents the standard deviation from the mean.
 705 Data table shows the mean values when all the data were studied in combination. Mean values
 706 followed by different letters are significantly different at $P \leq 0.05$ by the LSD test.



707
708

709 **Figure 4.** Agronomic efficiency of Zn or N use (AEZn and AEN, respectively), Zn and N
 710 utilization obtained with each treatment. The vertical line at each of the data represents the
 711 standard deviation from the mean. Data table shows the mean values when all the data were
 712 studied in combination. Mean values followed by different letters are significantly different at
 713 $P \leq 0.05$ by the LSD test.
 714



715

716