



Research article

Effect of potassic fertilization on yield of fodder sorghum-sudan grass hybrid and selection of extractants for determination of plant potassium availability

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Abstract

The current study was carried out to assess the effect of potassium (K) fertilization on K-uptake and yield of fodder sorghum-sudan grass hybrid and to choose extractant(s), delineating the K-availability for routine soil testing method. Hybrid sorghum-Sudan grasses were grown in three different soils (red, alluvial, and black) with 100, 50, and 0% recommended K-doses for five seasons. Seven extractants, namely, cold H₂SO₄, Mehlich-1, 0.1 N CH₃COONa, 1 N CH₃COONH₄ (pH 7), 0.1 N BaCl₂, and sodium tetraphenylborate (NaTPB) with 5 and 15 minutes of contact times, were evaluated for elucidating forage K-availability. Results have revealed that biomass yields from all soils were higher ($p < 0.05$) in K-100% than in K-0%; whereas NaTPB (5 minutes) and ammonium acetate were found as better extractants for the determination of forage K-availability.

Keywords: Ammonium acetate, Sodium tetraphenylborate, Sorghum-Sudan grass hybrid

Introduction

With the pressure from India's growing population and its demand for food, an expansion of agricultural land has been extensively observed in the past few decades with the abatement of pasture lands and areas under fodder cultivation. The country has nearly 20% of the world's livestock population that has been facing ~ 36% shortage of green fodder (Singh *et al.*, 2022). Green fodder is an important nourishment to the milch breeds of cattle (Mahanta *et al.*, 2020). As India's share in global milk production has risen to 21%, this supply gap of green fodder should be maintained at a minimum (GOI, 2023). The government of India already subsidized the beneficiaries for setting up fodder value addition units under the National Livestock Mission Scheme (GOI, 2022). However, the area under cultivated fodder accounted for only 4% of the total cultivated area in this country (Singh *et al.*, 2022).

Due to quick growth habits and palatable nature, fodder sorghum, *i.e.*, forage sorghum or Sudan grass or sorghum-Sudan grass hybrid, is considered nutritious green fodder (Prajapati *et al.*, 2022). However, fodder sorghum is a heavy feeder of soil nutrients. Care should be taken to maximize its production by optimizing nutrient management. In this aspect, nitrogen (N), phosphorus

(P), and micronutrients were given priority by many researchers (Dhar *et al.*, 2003; Dixit *et al.*, 2014; Prajapati *et al.*, 2022). Very little effort was made to understand the effect of external potassium (K) application on the yield of fodder sorghum (Tokas *et al.*, 2021). This is because there has been a common assumption that Indian soils are dominated by K-rich micaceous clay minerals (Sanyal 2014). Besides, K-application in Indian agriculture has long been dependent upon imports which increased the price of K-fertilizers (Sanyal, 2014; Das *et al.*, 2022). Thus, external K-application was ignored in maximum cases of crop production, resulting in the depletion of non-exchangeable soil-K through mining (Das *et al.*, 2019; Das *et al.*, 2022). Further indiscriminate use of N- and P-fertilizers aggravated this situation. As the plant available-K pools are in dynamic equilibrium with non-exchangeable-K, fixed within the interlayers of 2:1 clay minerals, the K-mining might go unnoticed. However, alteration of these minerals could occur in the long run and this can render future K-fertilization ineffective due to K-fixation within those vacant sites (Das *et al.*, 2019, 2022). India is dominated by alluvial soil, followed by red and black soils (Das *et al.*, 2019; Datta *et al.*, 2020; Das *et al.*, 2022). These soils have varying chemical and mineralogical compositions. Therefore,

the K-supplying power of these soils was found to be different (Das et al., 2019, 2022; Datta et al., 2020). Though 1 N ammonium acetate was reported to provide a good estimate of the plant K-availability, the method was proven inadequate in some cases, especially when there is an abundance of K-fixing 2:1 clay minerals (Hanway and Heidel, 1952; Biliias and Barbayiannis, 2016). Hence, for a comprehensive evaluation of K-availability to fodder sorghum in Indian soil, suitable extractants must be assessed based on routine soil testing methods. Thus, the objectives of the experiment were to evaluate (i) the effect of graded doses of K-fertilization on K-uptake and yield of fodder sorghum-Sudan grass hybrid and (ii) different extractants befitting the forage K-availability for the routine soil test.

Materials and Methods

Experimental sites: Three major soil types (15 cm depth) of India were sampled for this study to take the diverse soil physicochemical properties into account. The alluvial soil, which belonged to Typic Haplustept, was taken from the ICAR-Indian Agricultural Research Institute, New Delhi with a latitude 28° 38' N and a longitude 77° 10' E. Red soil represented Typic Haplustalf and was collected from Hazaribagh, Jharkhand with latitude 23° 57' N and longitude 85° 22' E. The black soil was sampled from Bhopal, Madhya Pradesh (23° 18' N latitude and 77° 24' E longitude) and it represented the Typic Haplustert.

Physicochemical properties of the initial sampled soils: The soil reactions of alluvial and black soils were slightly alkaline in nature, i.e., pH 7.6-7.8; while the red soil was acidic (pH 5.3). All soils possessed very low salt concentrations (range of electrical conductivity 0.1– 0.5 dS m⁻¹). Black soil had a higher amount of organic carbon (~ 0.8%); whereas the contents were found low in the case of red (< 0.5%) and alluvial soils (< 0.5%) (Walkley and Black, 1934). As per the method proposed by Sumner and Miller (1996), the cation exchange capacity (CEC) of black was found to be very high (~ 49 cmol kg⁻¹) in comparison to red (~ 13 cmol kg⁻¹) and alluvial soils (~ 15 cmol kg⁻¹). Available-K was very high for all soils as determined by 1 N CH₃COONH₄ at pH 7 (Hanway and Heidel, 1952). Both alluvial and red soils contained 136 mg kg⁻¹ soil and black soil contained 250 mg kg⁻¹ soil. Previous K-fertilization during crop cultivation was the reason behind the higher availability of plant-K in these soils. Bouyoucos's (1962) hydrometer was used to find out soil texture. Black and red soils had clay textures with higher clay content in the former soil. Alluvial soil had a sandy clay loam texture with lower clay content than the other two soils.

Pot experiment: A total of 27 pots (3 soils, 3 K-doses, and 3 replications) were stacked with 4 kg soil after

screening with a 2 mm sieve. Each pot was treated with equal doses of nitrogen (100 kg N ha⁻¹) and phosphate (P₂O₅) fertilizers (80 kg ha⁻¹). Then, three graded doses of K₂O were added as follows:

K-100%: Recommended dose of K-fertilization (40 kg K₂O ha⁻¹), i.e., 60 mg K pot⁻¹, K-50%: 50% of the recommended dose of K-fertilization, i.e., 30 mg K pot⁻¹, and K-0%: No external K-fertilization or control.

The sorghum-sudan grass hybrids (*Sorghum bicolor* × *Sorghum bicolor* var. *sudanese*) were grown for five seasons in these pots. A total of seven plants were nurtured for 35 days, i.e., before flower initiation, in each cycle and were harvested thereafter. After the completion of each cycle, similar doses of N and P₂O₅ and graded doses of K₂O were applied (except K-0%) to their respective treatments, and seeds were sown. Cutting and regrowth were avoided. Only single distilled water was used for irrigation to exclude additional K-input in the pots. The aboveground harvested forages were dried at 65 ± 2°C. The below-ground portions or roots were retained in the soils during the study period. Otherwise, the K balance would not be possible to maintain. The roots were cut into small pieces and mixed thoroughly within their respective pots. The oven-dried biomasses of forage were weighed to get the fodder yield. From these, 1 g of dry samples was digested with an acid mixture of HNO₃: HClO₄ (3:1) and heated in a hot plate at 180°C until the solution color changed to white. The K-content in biomass was determined in the flame photometer. The dry biomass weights and K-uptakes over five seasons were averaged for every replicate of each treatment, separately for every soil.

Soil potassium release with different extractants: Different extractants were evaluated for routine analysis of plant available-K. Readings were taken in the initial soils and soils after completion of cropping for five seasons. Soil sample (5 g) was shaken for 30 minutes with Mehlich-1 (0.05 N HCl + 0.025 N H₂SO₄), 0.1 N CH₃COONa (NaOAc), 0.1 N BaCl₂, and 1 N CH₃COONH₄ at pH 7 (NH₄OAc), separately and filtered thereafter (Hanway and Heidel, 1952; Mehlich, 1973; Page et al., 1982; Pal et al., 2001). For K-extraction with cold H₂SO₄, 10 g soil was mixed thoroughly for 30 minutes with 25 mL distilled water and 1-mL concentrated H₂SO₄. The filtrate was collected in 100 mL volumetric flask and the volume was made up by repeated washing with 0.1 N H₂SO₄ (Page et al., 1982). About 0.5 g soil was incubated for 5 and 15 minutes, separately, with 0.2 M sodium tetraphenylborate (NaTPB) + 1.7 M NaCl + 0.01 M ethylene diamine tetra-acetic acid (EDTA) reagent. Then, 25 mL of 0.14 M CuCl₂ + 0.5 M NH₄Cl was added to the system to stop the reaction. The system was heated in the water bath at 110°C for 60 minutes. After that, these systems were cooled and volume was made up to 50 mL with distilled

water. About 20 mL of the suspension was centrifuged for 10 minutes at $2500 \times g$ after acidifying the suspension with 6 N HCl (Cox *et al.*, 1999; Wang *et al.*, 2016). All the K-readings were taken with the flame photometer. The sensitivity of extractants over K-released from graded doses of fertilization after 5 seasons of cropping was evaluated for each soil with respect to K-released from initial soil samples and was calculated as follows:

$$\text{Variation (\%)} = \frac{(\text{Extracted-K from treatments} - \text{Extracted-K from initial soil}) \times 100}{\text{Extracted-K from initial soil}}$$

Statistical analysis: The analysis of variance (ANOVA; $p < 0.05$) was carried out in a completely randomized design using R (4.2). The honest significant difference (HSD; $p < 0.05$) test of Tukey was done to compare the mean values. Pearson's correlation coefficients (r ; $p < 0.05$) were determined between K-released by different extractants in the initial soil samples and average (over 5 seasons) forage K-uptake from K-0% treatments and between forage K-uptake and yield, averaged over 5 seasons, using R.

Results and Discussion

Average yield and potassium uptake by forage: In red and alluvial soils, the average yields had significantly ($p < 0.05$) increased in K-100% over K-50% and K-0% treatments (Fig 1b). However, yields from K-50% and K-100% in black soil were found at par with each other but greater ($p < 0.05$) than K-0% (Fig 1a). The red and black soils showed comparatively ($P < 0.05$) higher yields than alluvial soil over the different K-doses (Fig 1b).

Black soil showed an increase in average K-uptake with a concomitant increase in K-doses (Fig 2a). In the case of alluvial soil, the average K-uptake by sorghum-Sudan grass of K-100% was found to be significantly ($p < 0.05$) higher than the K-0% treatment. The average K-uptake by K-50% treatment was statistically at par with both K-100% and K0% in alluvial soil; whereas the forage K-uptakes in K-50% and K-0% treatments of red soil showed a lower ($p < 0.05$) K-uptake than K-100% (Fig 2a). Regardless of the different K-doses, average forage K-uptake followed a decreasing order: black soil > red soil > alluvial soil (Fig 2b). The reason behind the higher average yields and average K-uptakes in black and red soils was due to the presence of higher clay combined with higher plant available-K contents in these soils.

Sanyal (2014) and Datta *et al.* (2020) explained that as alluvial soils have higher amounts of vermiculite and illite, the K-availability became lower due to fixation. Thus, even after applying a high amount of K (K-100%), the average forage K-uptake from alluvial soil remained lower than in other soils. On the other hand, black and red soils were dominated by smectite and kaolinite,

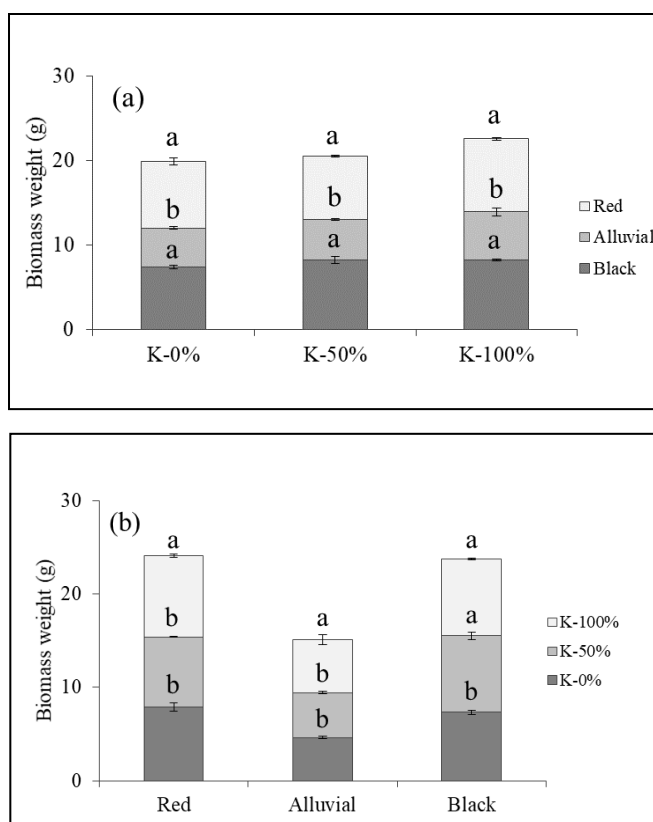


Fig 1. Comparison of average sorghum-sudan grass hybrid yields (g) over five cropping seasons (a) among soils for a particular K-dose and (b) among K-doses for each soil. Bars represent standard deviations (replication = 3). Different letters in the segments of each column are significantly ($p < 0.05$) different mean values as per Tukey's HSD test performed for each dose of potassium

respectively, other than illite (Das *et al.*, 2019; Datta *et al.*, 2020). Hence, fixations of applied-K were comparatively lesser than alluvial soil; while their biomass yields were higher than the same.

A strong positive correlation ($r = 0.83$, $p < 0.05$) between average K-uptake and average yield signified that with an increase in K-uptake dry biomass weight of sorghum-Sudan grass hybrid also increased. The sorghum-Sudan grass is a heavy feeder of soil-K and thus, the yield was very much dependent upon the forage K-uptake (Prajapati *et al.*, 2022). Therefore, adequate K-nutrition should be provided to get better fodder yield. Karforma *et al.* (2016) found higher rainfed fodder maize yield under optimum K supply in an integrated nutrient management practice. Chaudhary *et al.* (2016) also found that higher K fertilization ensured fodder yield than control. Similarly, higher yield and nutritive value addition were found by Choudhary *et al.* (2019) under integrated K management along with sulfur fertilization and crop residue incorporation.

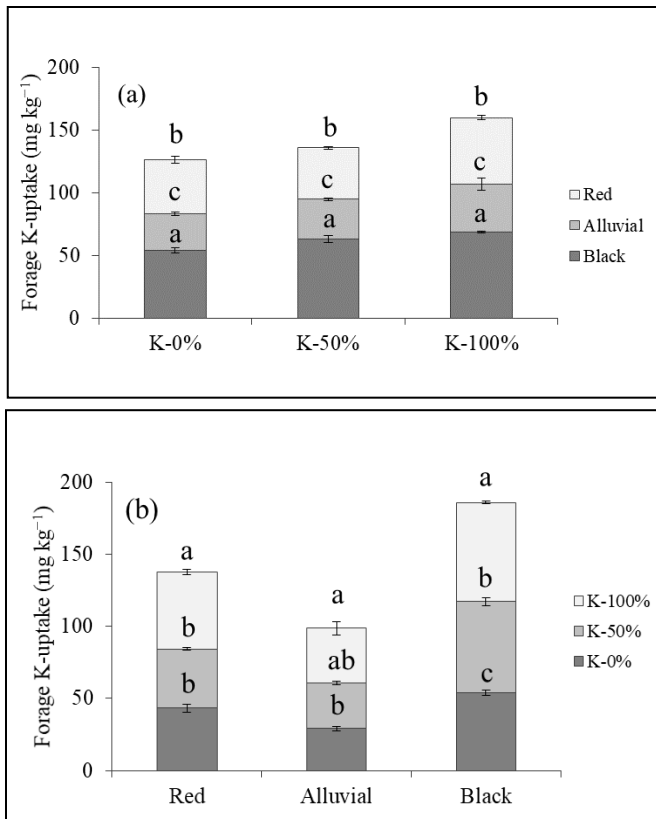


Fig 2. Comparison of average potassium (K) uptakes (mg kg^{-1}) by sorghum-sudan grass hybrid over five cropping seasons (a) among soils for a particular K-dose, and (b) among K-doses for each soil. Bars represent standard deviations (replication = 3). Different letters in the segments of each column are significantly ($p < 0.05$) different mean values as per Tukey's HSD test performed for each dose of potassium

Comparison of different extractants for soil potassium release:

The K-released from three soils (initial soils and soils after five cropping seasons with graded K-doses) by seven extractants were recorded (Table 1). From all soils, NaTPB (15 minutes) extracted the highest amounts of soil-K. Potassium extracted by H_2SO_4 was also statistically at par with NaTPB (15 minutes) in K-0% and K-50% treatments of alluvial soil. The NH_4OAc , NaTPB (5 minutes), Mehlich-1, and H_2SO_4 also removed comparatively higher ($p < 0.05$) soil-K than BaCl_2 and NaOAc. All these extractants followed different ways of drawing out soil-K. Mehlich-1 and cold H_2SO_4 acidified the soil, increasing the dissolution of clay minerals near edge and wedge positions (Najafi-Ghiri *et al.*, 2023). Acetate of Na^+ could only replace K^+ (hydrated radius: 0.331 nm) from the planar sites of clay minerals due to its bigger hydrated size (0.358 nm) that reduced the accessibility of Na^+ into interlayers (Dhillon *et al.*, 1989; Jalali, 2006). Effective electrostatic attraction force between negatively charged clay particles and hydrated

Na^+ also made it less effective against K-exchange from planar positions. Similarly, NH_4OAc had the capacity to replace more K^+ than NaOAc because it is a dipole with 4 H^+ attached to the four corners of NH_4^+ -tetrahedron, possessing lower hydration energy than Na^+ (Pironon *et al.*, 2003). Therefore, it could block the wedge zone of 2:1 clay minerals, rendering only exchangeable and solution K-pools to be available to forage (Martin and Sparks, 1983; Dhillon *et al.*, 1989; Pironon *et al.*, 2003; Jalali, 2006). The Ba^{2+} held both lower hydration energy ($-308 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$) and divalent charge than monovalent Na^+ ($-95 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$) (Rodriguez-Cruz *et al.*, 1999; Teppen and Miller, 2006). Thus, the K-replacing tendency of BaCl_2 was found to be superior to NaOAc (Table 1). Nevertheless, NaTPB formed complexes with K^+ in soil solution and from the exchangeable sites, allowing the further release of interlayer-K to enter into solution or exchangeable positions through diffusion as well as exchange processes (Cox *et al.*, 1999; Wang *et al.*, 2016). It actually mimicked the K-uptake by the forage root system. The more contact time would be given, the more amount of K^+ would be drawn out of the soil (Wang *et al.*, 2016). Hence, a contact time of 15 minutes allowed higher extraction of K^+ by NaTPB over 5 minute period (Table 1). There were certain depressions in K-release by all extractants from the soils of K-0% treatments than their respective initial samples (Tables 1 and 2). This inferred that soil K-reserves failed to maintain the plant-K availability after continuous removal from the control pots by sorghum-Sudan grass hybrid. The result had also been reflected in the forage K-uptake and yield, averaged over five seasons, from the K-0% pots (Figs 1a and 2a).

The percent variation in K-released by an extractant over graded K-doses reflected the detection of minute change in K-release with response to external K-fertilization (Table 2). Negative values indicated that lesser amount of K-extraction relative to initial soils. In the case of NaTPB (5 minutes), NaTPB (15 minutes), and NH_4OAc , significant variations ($p < 0.05$) were observed among graded-K treatments of all soils.

Except for K extracted by Mehlich-1 from black soil, all other extractants showed negative variations in K-0% (Table 2). The positive variation in K extracted by Mehlich-1 from K-0% treatment of black soil suggested that planner sites of smectite-rich black soil retain more K in the exchangeable pool, which the acid-based extractants can easily access. The remaining positive variations in K-50% and K-100% inferred that the amount of added K has a direct influence on plant K availability. Thus, NaOAc extracted a higher proportion of planner K which got built up after external K additions. These planner K were more prone to acid extraction, i.e., H_2SO_4 and Mehlich-1, than neutral salts and NaTPB. However, these K might not be able to indicate plant K availability fully, as the cropping cycles were reported to deplete added K along with the native K from any soil during its life

Sorghum-sudan grass hybrid yield under K-fertilization

Table 1. Soil potassium (K) release by different extractants (mean \pm standard deviation)

Extractant	Initial	K-0%	K-50%	K-100%
	(mg kg ⁻¹)	(mg kg ⁻¹)	(mg kg ⁻¹)	(mg kg ⁻¹)
Red soil				
BaCl ₂	19.4 \pm 1.38 ^e	14.8 \pm 0.78 ^e	15.6 \pm 1.06 ^e	18.1 \pm 0.75 ^e
H ₂ SO ₄	63.4 \pm 1.75 ^d	58.3 \pm 1.76 ^{cd}	65.4 \pm 2.12 ^d	72.2 \pm 2.33 ^d
Mehlich-1	51.9 \pm 2.36 ^d	48 \pm 2.72 ^d	58.6 \pm 3.55 ^d	64.8 \pm 2.96 ^d
NaOAc	10.6 \pm 0.87 ^e	8.2 \pm 0.79 ^e	10.2 \pm 0.62 ^e	12.5 \pm 0.61 ^e
NaTPB (15 minutes)	476 \pm 18.33 ^a	328 \pm 10 ^a	365.3 \pm 23.35 ^a	426 \pm 13.11 ^a
NaTPB (5 minutes)	205.3 \pm 8.32 ^b	85.3 \pm 12.05 ^{bc}	127.3 \pm 13.31 ^b	161.3 \pm 10.26 ^b
NH ₄ OAc	135.9 \pm 1.18 ^c	91.5 \pm 4.79 ^b	105.5 \pm 4 ^c	130.5 \pm 8.93 ^c
Alluvial soil				
BaCl ₂	61.4 \pm 0.64 ^d	44.7 \pm 2.17 ^e	49.9 \pm 3.27 ^d	58.4 \pm 1.81 ^e
H ₂ SO ₄	191.4 \pm 3.92 ^b	182 \pm 5.79 ^a	197.2 \pm 3.85 ^a	209.5 \pm 5.7 ^b
Mehlich-1	134.3 \pm 5.55 ^c	130.9 \pm 3.17 ^b	148 \pm 9.27 ^b	161.3 \pm 14.77 ^c
NaOAc	26.8 \pm 1.61 ^e	24.7 \pm 0.62 ^f	31.1 \pm 0.65 ^d	32.4 \pm 1.02 ^f
NaTPB (15 minutes)	332 \pm 9.16 ^a	164 \pm 14 ^a	210.6 \pm 14.18 ^a	292.6 \pm 13.01 ^a
NaTPB (5 minutes)	176 \pm 15.09 ^b	80 \pm 4 ^d	104 \pm 7.21 ^c	135.3 \pm 9.01 ^d
NH ₄ OAc	131.6 \pm 0.77 ^c	100 \pm 5.89 ^c	109.9 \pm 4.43 ^c	138.1 \pm 5.05 ^{cd}
Black soil				
BaCl ₂	28.3 \pm 2.3 ^e	23.3 \pm 0.88 ^d	23.6 \pm 0.93 ^e	27.9 \pm 0.97 ^e
H ₂ SO ₄	195.5 \pm 6.97 ^c	184 \pm 2.3 ^b	195.3 \pm 4.39 ^c	202.4 \pm 0.9 ^b
Mehlich-1	126.3 \pm 5.61 ^d	126.9 \pm 2.87 ^c	140.7 \pm 5.5 ^d	143.6 \pm 7.07 ^d
NaOAc	10.4 \pm 0.07 ^e	9.9 \pm 0.7 ^d	11.1 \pm 0.95 ^e	11.3 \pm 0.7 ^f
NaTPB (15 minutes)	414.6 \pm 4.16 ^a	212.6 \pm 7.02 ^a	232 \pm 4 ^a	242.6 \pm 3.05 ^a
NaTPB (5 minutes)	209.3 \pm 18.03 ^c	114 \pm 9.16 ^c	142 \pm 6 ^d	165.3 \pm 8.32 ^c
NH ₄ OAc	251.3 \pm 3.16 ^b	194.2 \pm 6.63 ^b	214 \pm 7.44 ^b	249.2 \pm 8.63 ^a

Superscripts in each column for each soil denote significantly ($P < 0.05$) different means as per Tukey's HSD test. NaOAc, 0.1 N CH₃COONa; NaTPB, sodium tetraphenyl borate; NH₄OAc, 1 N CH₃COONH₄

cycle (Wang *et al.*, 2016). Cox *et al.* (1999) also reported that K⁺ extracted from soils grown with ryegrass by NaTPB (both 5 and 15 minutes) were sensitive to K-management practices. They also reported that soil-K extraction by NH₄OAc was also responsive to the K-fertility treatments but less efficient than the NaTPB method. There were no significant variations in K-released by BaCl₂, H₂SO₄, Mehlich-1, and NaOAc over graded-K treatments in black soils. The black soil contained swelling-type 2:1 minerals, which opened up the interlayers to facilitate K-exchange easily (Datta *et al.*, 2020). However, changes in variations could be observed for these extractants in red and alluvial soils. Except for K-100% treatment in alluvial soil of NH₄OAc, a lesser amount of K-extraction occurred by BaCl₂, NaTPB (5 minutes), NaTPB (15 minutes), and NH₄OAc from K-0%, K-50%, and K-100% treatments as compared to the initial soils; whereas, comparatively

more K was extracted by Mehlich-1, H₂SO₄, and NaOAc in K-50% and K-100% treatments than initial samples (except K-50% of NaOAc). These two acidic extractants showed significantly higher ($p < 0.05$) K-release power than NaOAc because the dissolution of mineral structure might have released exchangeable-K and some of the interlayer-K into the solution (Najafi-Ghiri *et al.*, 2023). Whereas, only adsorbed-K, being high in K-treated pots, was released by NaOAc with respect to initial samples (Jalali, 2006).

Correlation between extractants and crop potassium

uptake: As external K-doses were applied continuously in K-50% and K-100% treatments to supply K to the forage crops, the correlations between K-released by various extractants from initial soils and average forage K-uptake from these two treatments were avoided. It was clear that 1 N NH₄OAc ($r = 0.83$, $p < 0.05$) and NaTPB (5

Table 2. Sensitivity of extractants over varying doses of soil potassium (K) in each soil (mean \pm standard deviation)

Extractant	Soil	Variation (%) in respect to initial soil		
		K-0%	K-50%	K-100%
BaCl ₂	Red	-22.9 \pm 9.44 ^a	-19.3 \pm 1.81 ^a	-6.2 \pm 10.42 ^a
	Alluvial	-27.1 \pm 4.31 ^b	-18.7 \pm 5.78 ^b	-4.8 \pm 3.9 ^a
	Black	-17.2 \pm 6.8 ^a	-16.1 \pm 8.64 ^a	-1 \pm 7.72 ^a
H ₂ SO ₄	Red	-8.1 \pm 2.38 ^b	3.2 \pm 6.17 ^{ab}	13.8 \pm 5.71 ^a
	Alluvial	-4.9 \pm 2.75 ^b	3 \pm 1.99 ^{ab}	9.4 \pm 5.06 ^a
	Black	-5.7 \pm 3.92 ^a	0 \pm 3.4 ^a	3.6 \pm 4.15 ^a
Mehlich-1	Red	-7.2 \pm 9.03 ^b	12.8 \pm 3.02 ^{ab}	25.1 \pm 11.49 ^a
	Alluvial	-2.4 \pm 4.32 ^a	10.2 \pm 7.76 ^a	20.3 \pm 15.01 ^a
	Black	0.5 \pm 2.61 ^a	11.4 \pm 2.28 ^a	14 \pm 10.53 ^a
NaOAc	Red	-22 \pm 1.63 ^c	-3.1 \pm 2.17 ^b	19 \pm 7.14 ^a
	Alluvial	-7.6 \pm 3.99 ^b	16.2 \pm 4.4 ^a	21.3 \pm 3.54 ^a
	Black	-5.2 \pm 7.04 ^a	6.2 \pm 9.37 ^a	8.4 \pm 5.97 ^a
NaTPB (15 minutes)	Red	-30.9 \pm 4.24 ^b	-23.2 \pm 4.35 ^b	-10.3 \pm 6.14 ^a
	Alluvial	-50.5 \pm 5.13 ^c	-36.4 \pm 5.41 ^b	-11.8 \pm 1.55 ^a
	Black	-48.6 \pm 2.2 ^b	-44 \pm 0.45 ^a	-41.4 \pm 0.33 ^a
NaTPB (5 minutes)	Red	-58.4 \pm 5.44 ^b	-37.8 \pm 7.47 ^a	-21.2 \pm 6.96 ^a
	Alluvial	-54.4 \pm 3.02 ^b	-40.3 \pm 9.42 ^b	-22.9 \pm 4.88 ^a
	Black	-45.3 \pm 5.26 ^b	-31.6 \pm 8.71 ^{ab}	-20.4 \pm 10.63 ^a
NH ₄ OAc	Red	-32.5 \pm 4.11 ^b	-22.3 \pm 2.98 ^b	-3.9 \pm 7.03 ^a
	Alluvial	-24 \pm 4.03 ^b	-16.5 \pm 2.92 ^b	4.8 \pm 3.23 ^a
	Black	-22.7 \pm 1.67 ^b	-14.8 \pm 2.95 ^b	-0.7 \pm 4.5 ^a

Superscripts in each row for each soil denote significantly ($p < 0.05$) different means as per Tukey's HSD test. NaOAc, 0.1 N CH₃COONa; NaTPB, sodium tetraphenylborate; NH₄OAc, 1 N CH₃COONH₄

Table 3. Pearson's correlation coefficient (r) among potassium (K) released with various extractants and average forage K-uptake from three soils without K-application (K-0%)

r	K-uptake	BaCl ₂	NaOAc	Mehlich-1	H ₂ SO ₄	NH ₄ OAc	NaTPB (5 minutes)	NaTPB (15 minutes)
K-uptake	1*							
BaCl ₂	-0.78*	1*						
NaOAc	-0.88*	0.97*	1*					
Mehlich-1	-0.14 ⁿ	0.72*	0.57 ⁿ	1*				
H ₂ SO ₄	-0.05 ⁿ	0.64 ⁿ	0.46 ⁿ	0.98*	1*			
NH ₄ OAc	0.83*	-0.34 ⁿ	-0.53 ⁿ	0.39*	0.5 ⁿ	1*		
NaTPB (5 minutes)	0.79*	-0.76*	-0.76*	-0.32 ⁿ	-0.32 ⁿ	0.48 ⁿ	1*	
NaTPB (15 minutes)	0.6 ⁿ	-0.96*	-0.88*	-0.86*	-0.79*	0.11 ⁿ	0.62 ⁿ	1*

* indicates significant r at $p < 0.05$; ⁿ indicates nonsignificant r at $p > 0.05$

minutes) ($r = 0.79, p < 0.05$) could extensively be useful to evaluate soil K-availability to the sorghum-sudan grass hybrid (Table 3).

Though K-extracted by $BaCl_2$ and NaOAc possessed higher correlations ($r = -0.78$ and -0.88 , respectively at $p < 0.05$) with average forage K-uptakes, the negative values did not clarify whether the low plant-K availability would enhance forage K-uptake. Our results were at par with Cox *et al.* (1999) who found that plant available-K in ryegrass was strongly associated with NH_4OAc and NaTPB (5 minutes) extractable K-contents. Biliyas and Barbayiannis (2016) have also found that K-uptake by winter wheat in each cropping season positively correlated with K-extracted by NH_4OAc (30 minutes) and NaTPB (5 minutes).

Conclusion

Potassium application at optimum dose is necessary to obtain a higher yield of fodder sorghum-sudan grass hybrid. Correlation with average forage potassium uptake revealed that potassium extracted by sodium tetraphenylborate with a contact time of 5 minutes and neutral normal ammonium acetate could be used as the two best extractants for the determination of potassium availability to sorghum-sudan grass hybrid.

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