https://doi.org/10.17170/kobra-202104133654



Potassium iodide influence on iodine-leaf concentration and growth of amaranth (*Amaranthus cruentus* L.)

Eifediyi, E. K.^{a,*}, Idowu, S. A.^a, Ogedegbe, F. O.^b, Agbede, T. M.^c, Kareem, I.^a

^aDepartment of Agronomy, University of Ilorin, Nigeria ^bDepartment of Crop Science, Ambrose Alli University, Nigeria ^cDepartment of Agronomy, Adekunle Ajasin University, Nigeria

Abstract

Low iodine content in soils is a common feature in lowland and in mountainous regions far from oceans. The diets of the people living in these regions are often deficient in dietary iodine, resulting in chronic iodine deficiency syndrome, goiter, hearing loss and other debilitating diseases. A field experiment was conducted at the Teaching and Research Farm, University of Ilorin, Nigeria during the 2017 and 2018 cropping seasons, to evaluate the response of amaranths to iodine enrichment using an agronomic approach. The trial consisted of potassium iodide (KI) applied as foliar spray at 0, 3.5, 7, 10.5, 14 kg ha⁻¹ and soil applied at the rates of 4, 8, 12 and 16 kg ha⁻¹. These treatments were in four replicates laid out in a randomized complete block design. Data were collected on plant height, number of leaves, leaf area, crop growth rate, yield and iodine-leaf concentration. The data were subjected to analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed by mean separation using Duncan's Multiple range test p < 0.05. The results indicated that the use of KI improved the growth of amaranthus at the low level of application, but foliar application at 10.5 and 14 kg ha⁻¹ yielded the highest iodine leaf concentration. Although application of iodine in amaranthus improved iodine leaf concentration, there was a colour change at higher rates of application which may affect the acceptability of the vegetable by consumers.

Keywords: Bio-fortification, micronutrient malnutrition, performance, amaranths

1 Introduction

Iodine deficiency in soils is common in many parts of the world due to irregular distribution of the mineral in the earth crust (FAO, 2009). The phenomenon is more pronounced in lowlands and in mountainous regions, and in individuals who excessively consume food rich in goitrogenic substances such as cassava (*Manihot esculenta* Crantz) and cabbage (*Brassica oleracea* L.) (Abua *et al.*, 2008; Pearce *et al.*, 2013). Estimates show that over two billion of the world population is at the risk of iodine deficiency disorders (Mottiar, 2013; Lazarus, 2015). The sources of iodine supplementation are mainly sea foods, which are expensive, especially for inhabitants of developing countries, whose staple diets are cereals, roots and tuber crops. Iodized salt, an alternative source of iodine, is volatile and allergenic to some in-

dividuals especially to hypertensive patients. Although, iodine is naturally present in negligible amounts in eggs, meat, dairy products and to some extent in grains and vegetables (Kiferle *et al.*, 2013), for most adults its contents in these food sources cannot supply the recommended daily intake of $150 \,\mu g \, day^{-1}$ (WHO, 2014). To bridge this gap, the use of nutrient enrichment in food items or bio-fortification using agronomic approaches is necessary.

Bio-fortification refers to an enrichment of food crops with nutrients. Many methods are used for bio-fortification, but the cheapest is the agronomic method using mineral fertiliser. Substantial progress has been made in the biofortification of leafy vegetables such as spinach (Basella alba), Chinese cabbage (*Brassica campestris* var. *chinensis*), lettuce (*Lactuca sativa*) and celery (*Apium graveolens*) (Dai *et al.*, 2004; Hong *et al.*, 2009; Voogt *et al.*, 2010). These vegetables are exotic and do not form part of the daily diet of millions of people living in the savannah zone of Nigeria. Bio-fortification of edible crops for human consumption is

^{*} Corresponding author–Email: kevineifediyi@yahoo.ca; eifediyi.ek@unilorin.edu.ng

an approach for controlling malnutrition especially among dietary vulnerable groups in poor countries who have no access to mineral supplements (Nestel *et al.*, 2006).

Amaranth (*Amaranthus cruentus* L.) which belongs to the Amaranthaceae is an important vegetable crop, whose leaves are cultivated for human consumption (Fasuyi *et al.*, 2008). Apart from its use as a vegetable, it has also been used as an effective alternative to drug therapy of hypertensive and cardiovascular diseases (Martirosyan *et al.*, 2007). The crop is consumed by all population classes irrespective of their social status together with cereals, roots and tuber crops, the staple food of millions of people living in the savannah zone of Nigeria. The objective of this study was to determine the effects of potassium iodide (KI) amended to the crop on the iodine-leaf concentration, growth and yield of amaranth.

2 Materials and methods

2.1 Site description and treatments

A field experiment was conducted at the Teaching and Research Farm, University of Ilorin, Ilorin, Nigeria (8°29' N 04°35' E, 307 m above sea level), during the 2017 and 2018 cropping seasons. The site is located in the southern Guinea savannah zone of Nigeria on an Alfisol belonging to the Bolodunro Series (Ogunwale et al., 2002). The soil depth of the area ranges from shallow to deep with granite outcrops throughout the landscape. The surface soils are coarsely textured, low in organic matter content and in some locations, the soils are highly degraded and erosion of the top soil is common, leading to low soil fertility. The rainfall pattern of the location is bimodal, starting in late March to July with the first peak in late July followed by a break in August. The second part of the rainy season usually starts in late August with a peak in late September and ends in late October. The annual rainfall for the location was 1562 mm in 2017 and 991 mm in 2018. The mean annual temperature of the study area is 29 °C while the average annual relative humidity is about 85 %. The study was conducted under rain-fed conditions without supplemental irrigation.

2.2 Germination test of the seeds

Before the commencement of the study amaranth seeds were tested for their viability using a standard germination test whereby seed viability was > 96 %.

2.3 Experimental layout and sowing

The land was ploughed and harrowed before marking out the plots and making raised seed beds. Plot size was 3×3 m with 0.50 m between plots as suggested by Asher *et al.* (2002) for densely populated vegetable crops. Amaranthus cruentus seeds were obtained from the National Horticultural Research Institute of Nigeria (NIHORT), Ibadan Oyo State, Nigeria and drilled into the soil on 15 July 2017 and again on 15 July 2018. Subsequently, seeds were covered lightly with soil to prevent desiccation by sunlight and later thinned to one seedling per stand at a spacing of 30×30 cm between and within the rows resulting in 100 plants per plot (111,111 plants ha⁻¹); sixty plants constituted the net plot while the 40 remaining plants constituted the border rows.

2.4 Experimental design

The experiment was laid out as a randomized complete block design (RCBD) with four replications. The treatments imposed were potassium iodide (KI) applied as a foliar spray at the rates of 0, 3.5, 7, 10.5 and 14 kg ha⁻¹ and as fertiliser to the soil at 4, 8, 12, and 16 kg ha⁻¹. These treatments were combined with a basal NPK 15:15:15 fertiliser application (300 kg ha⁻¹) three weeks after sowing. Potassium iodide was soil-applied 5 cm away from the plant using a side-band placement method while the foliar treatments were applied mid-morning using a knapsack sprayer following Shaw *et al.* (2007) and Tschiersh *et al.* (2009). Both iodine treatments were repeated in the second season given low iodine accumulation in the soil (Lawson *et al.*, 2015).

2.5 Soil and leaf analyses

Soil samples from all experimental plots were collected at a depth of 0-30 cm using a 2.5×2.5 m grid and bulked before a composite was taken for physical and chemical analyses. The soil samples collected were air-dried, ground, and passed through a 2 mm sieve. The sieved soil samples were taken to the laboratory for chemical analysis as described by Carter & Gregorich (2007). Soil organic carbon (C) was determined according to Walkley& Black using the dichromate wet oxidation method (Nelson & Sommers, 1996). Organic matter was estimated by multiplying carbon by 1.724. Total N was determined by micro-Kjeldahl digestion and distillation techniques (Bremner, 1996), and available phosphorus (Bray-P) was determined in a 1N NH4F + 0.5N HCl extractant by the vanadomolybdophosphoric acid method (Kuo, 1996). Soil pH was measured in a soil: water ratio of 1:2 using a glass electrode. Particle-size analysis was done using the hydrometer method (Gee & Or, 2002) and the textural class was determined with a textural triangle (Hunt & Gilkes, 1992; Brady & Weil, 1999). Extraction of exchangeable bases was done by 1N ammonium acetate; exchangeable potassium (K) and sodium (Na) were determined by flame photometry while calcium (Ca) and magnesium (Mg) were analysed by atomic absorption spectrophotometry. The iodine content of the soil before and after cropping was determined by iodometry titration with sodium thiosulfate (Kolthoff *et al.*, 1969) while the total iodine concentration in the leaf samples was determined with the alkaline ash technique (Fisher *et al.*, 1986).

2.6 Vegetative traits

At 4, 6, 8 and 10 weeks after sowing (WAS) plant height was assessed as the distance from the soil level to the terminal point of the stem in fifteen randomly selected tagged plants using a measuring tape. At the same time, the number of leaves was determined and leaf area following the procedure of Law-Ogbomo & Ajayi (2009) which is length \times breadth \times 0.64. Two plants from the gross plots were harvested at each sampling period, oven dried at a temperature of 60 °C until a constant weight was attained to determine the Relative Growth Rate (RGR) according to Williams (1946):

$$RGR = \frac{\log_e W_2 - \log_e W_1}{t_2 = t_1}$$

Where, W_1 and W_2 are whole plant dry weight at t_1 and t_2 , respectively, and t_1 and t_2 are time interval in days.

2.7 Statistical analysis

Data were subjected to analysis of variance (ANOVA) using the Genstat statistical package 17^{th} Edition (Genstat, 2015). Means were separated using the Duncan's multiple range test at p < 0.05.

3 Results

3.1 Soil Properties

Soil pH was slightly acidic and organic carbon was very low, N, P, Ca and Mg concentrations were low, whereas soil K concentration was moderate (Table 1).

3.2 Plant height

Mean plant height of amaranth differed significantly at 4 WAS in the two seasons (Annex 1); however, at the following observation points only statistical differences have been found for the second season. These differences did not show a clear pattern between foliar and soil KI applications. At 7 WAS, foliar amended KI plots produced plants which were about 19 % and -2 % taller than the control in the first and second season, respectively, and soil amended KI plots showed 13 % and -15 % taller plants, respectively.

3.3 Number of leaves

In the first season at 4 WAS, the mean number of leaves produced did not show a clear pattern between treatments (Annex 2). However, in the second season, the foliar amended plots produced the highest number of leaves which was significantly different (p < 0.05) from the other treatments and the number of leaves produced were about 86.5 % higher than observed for the soil amended KI at 16 kg ha⁻¹. Treatment effects differed over the two seasons.

3.4 Leaf area

At 4 WAS, the soil amended KI treatments produced the highest leaf area which was about 50% and 100% more than

Table 1: Physical and chemical properties of the experimental soil at Ilorin (Nigeria) before sowing in 2017.

| Parameter | Before planting |
|--|-----------------|
| pH in H ₂ 0 | 6.37 |
| Organic C (%) | 0.09 |
| N (%) | 0.05 |
| Bray1-P (mg kg $^{-1}$) | 6.12 |
| Exchangeable Ca (cmol kg ⁻¹) | 3.12 |
| Exchangeable Mg (cmol kg ⁻¹) | 0.17 |
| xchangeable Na (cmol kg ⁻¹) | 0.15 |
| Exchangeable K (cmol kg ⁻¹) | 0.41 |
| Total I (mg kg ⁻¹) | 1.20 |
| Sand (%) | 89.0 |
| Silt (%) | 6.96 |
| Clay (%) | 5.24 |
| Textural class | sandy loam |
| Soil classification | Alfisol |

| | | 4–5 WAS | | 5–6 WAS | | 6–7 WAS | |
|---------------------------|-----------------------------------|---------|------|---------|------|---------|------|
| | | | | Seasons | | | |
| Treatments | KI Rate (kg ha ⁻¹) | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 |
| Control | 0 | 0.31 | 0.38 | 0.53 | 0.30 | 0.84 | 0.77 |
| Foliar | 3.5 | 0.21 | 0.30 | 1.43 | 1.54 | 1.16 | 1.00 |
| Foliar | 7.0 | 0.15 | 0.31 | 1.36 | 1.09 | 1.14 | 0.72 |
| Foliar | 10.5 | 0.12 | 0.37 | 1.37 | 1.12 | 0.67 | 0.63 |
| Foliar | 14.0 | 0.30 | 0.31 | 1.95 | 1.14 | 1.31 | 0.90 |
| Soil | 2.0 | 0.34 | 0.47 | 2.22 | 0.85 | 0.91 | 0.92 |
| Soil | 4.0 | 0.22 | 0.32 | 2.23 | 1.09 | 1.46 | 0.82 |
| Soil | 8.0 | 0.36 | 0.57 | 1.17 | 1.61 | 0.70 | 1.10 |
| Soil | 16.0 | 0.17 | 0.37 | 0.75 | 1.14 | 0.66 | 0.71 |
| s.e.d. (<i>p</i> < 0.05) | | NS | NS | NS | NS | NS | NS |

Table 2: Effect of different rates of foliar and soil applied potassium iodide (KI) on the relative crop growth rate (RGR) of amaranth in 2017 and 2018.

WAS: weeks after sowing; s.e.d.: Standard error of difference; NS.not significant

the control in the first and second season, respectively (Annex 3). At 5 WAS, the soil amended KI at 16 kg ha^{-1} produced the highest leaf area which was 44% and 56% more than the control in the first and second seasons, respectively. At 7 WAS, the soil amended KI treatments produced the highest leaf area which was 100% and 125% more than the foliar amended KI in the first and second seasons, respectively.

3.5 Crop growth rate

At 4–5 WAS, in the first and second season, no particular order in RGR was observed, but the soil amended KI at 8 kg ha⁻¹ had the fastest growth rate (Table 2). This increase in growth rate was about 14 % and 33 % higher as the control in the first and second season, respectively. Also in the period 5–6 WAS, no treatment effect in RGR was observed; however, the overall soil amended KI treatments showed a 67 % and 74 % higher RGR as compared to the control in the first and second season. Between 6–7 WAS in the first season the foliar applied KI treatments showed higher RGR values than the other treatments; the same was the case for the soil applied KI treatments during the second season.

3.6 Iodine - leaf concentration and consumable leaf yield per hectare

Iodine-leaf concentration was highest for foliar applied KI at 10.5 kg ha^{-1} and 14 kg ha^{-1} with 0.14 mg kg^{-1} in both seasons (Table 3) which was significantly different from the control (0.09 in the first and 0.11 mg kg⁻¹ in the second season). The overall seasonal and treatment mean showed a

21.6 % and 15.0 % higher Iodine - leaf concentration for foliar applied KI and soil applied KI, respectively, as compared to the control.

The effect of KI application on the amaranth yield per hectare indicated that soil applied KI at 4.0 kg ha⁻¹ produced the highest yield of 6.10 tha^{-1} followed by soil applied KI at 16.0 kg ha⁻¹ (5.28 t ha⁻¹) and soil applied KI at 8.0 kg ha⁻¹ (5.11 t ha⁻¹) in the first season while in the second season, the foliar amended KI plots produced the highest yield which was similar to the yield in the soil amended KI treatments at 4 kg ha⁻¹ and 16 kg ha⁻¹. The overall fertiliser effect of KI application on leaf yield was negligible, -1.8 % for foliar applied and 4.8 % for soil applied KI over all treatments and seasons as compared to the control.

4 Discussion

4.1 Soil properties

The low nutrient status of the experimental soil can be attributed to the granitic base rock as a parent material followed by continuous cropping with little or no fallow periods reflecting increasing population pressure and infrastructural development in the area. The soil texture was a sandy loam at a pH of 6.4 which is within a range ideal for vegetable production (Olaniyi & Ojetayo, 2010). The low iodine content of the experimental soil may be attributed to the fact that iodine binds firmly to organic matter and also to aluminium oxides (Johanson, 2000).

| Treatments | | | oncentration) dry matter | Consumable leaf Yield (t ha ⁻¹) | | |
|---------------------|-----------------------------------|---------|------------------------------|--|--------|--|
| | KI Rate (kg ha ⁻¹) | Seasons | | | | |
| | | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 | |
| Control | 0 | 0.09e | 0.11b | 4.20b | 4.00a | |
| Foliar | 3.5 | 0.11c | 0.11b | 2.75c | 3.94ab | |
| Foliar | 7.0 | 0.12b | 0.12b | 4.17b | 4.95a | |
| Foliar | 10.5 | 0.14a | 0.14a | 4.14b | 4.56a | |
| Foliar | 14.0 | 0.14a | 0.14a | 3.99b | 4.00a | |
| Soil | 2.0 | 0.10d | 0.11b | 4.46b | 2.50b | |
| Soil | 4.0 | 0.11c | 0.12b | 6.10a | 4.95a | |
| Soil | 8.0 | 0.13a | 0.12b | 5.11ab | 3.56b | |
| Soil | 16.0 | 0.12b | 0.13a | 5.28a | 3.50b | |
| s.e.d. $(p < 0.05)$ | | 0.006 | 0.017 | 1.12 | 1.071 | |

Table 3: Effect of different rates of foliar and soil applied potassium iodide (KI) on the iodine - leaf concentration and consumable leaf yield per hectare of amaranth in 2017 and 2018.

s.e.d.: Standard error of difference; NS: not significant; mean followed by the same letter(s) do not differ from each other

4.2 Effects of potassium iodide on the vegetative growth of amaranth

The KI application did not affect plant height of amaranths at early stages of the plant growth especially for soil applied KI. However, at later stages of growth, such positive growth effects started to become visible even when they were not statistically significant. The inconsistent response of amaranth to iodine application in the study could be attributed to the fact that iodine is not an essential plant nutrient (Johanson, 2000). There was no major effect of KI on the number of leaves especially at the first season and at early stages of plant establishment in both seasons. The decline in leaf number could be attributed to negative effects of foliar applied KI which resulted in a decolouration of leaves leading to lower assimilate production. This observation is in agreement with Mackowiak & Grossl (1999), Blasco et al. (2008), and Piatkowska et al. (2016). This effect was also in concordance with the results of Hong et al. (2008) and Weng et al.(2008) for different vegetable species as these authors observed deleterious effect of iodine doses $\leq 50 \text{ mg kg soil}^{-1}$. Our results were also consistent with those of Huang et al. (2003) stating that excessive iodine is poisonous to plants and different plants exhibit different sensitivities to iodine toxicity. However, there was no change in leaf colour after soil application of KI. Leaf number was reduced in foliar treated plants as the rate of application increased from 7 -14 kg ha⁻¹, especially the older leaves changed to mottled colour which may have infringed on photosynthesis and led to lower production of assimilates resulting in low biomass

production and also suggesting iodine toxicity. This agrees with the findings of Lehr et al. (1958) who reported that at higher concentrations, iodine can be toxic leading to leaf damage, stunted growth and death. The reduction in the leaf area at later stages of growth could be adduced to the reduction in the leaf size, chlorosis and senescence of older leaves, especially in foliar treated plants. This is consistent with the findings of Smolen et al. (2011) who reported no significant difference in biomass production in butter head lettuce and carrot with iodine bio-fortification. The lowest crop yield was noticed at the highest rates of application (both foliar and soil) which may be a result of detrimental effects on crop leaves while an application rate of 4 kg ha⁻¹ produced the highest yield. Also Dai et al. (2004) reported that iodine application rates $> 5 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ reduced the yields of many crops. Soil applied KI produced the highest amaranth yield which may have been due to a slower absorption of iodine by the crop compared to foliar sprays (Shaw et al., 2007). In all cases the accumulated iodine in the leaves was below the recommended dietary allowance for adults which is between 150 - 200 µmg per day (Pearce et al., 2004).

5 Conclusions

Foliar iodine application led to higher iodine leaf concentration compared to soil application, but soil application led to highest growth and yield. Higher rates of KI application resulted in severe discoloration of the leaves during the two cropping seasons. Leaf chlorosis and necrosis observed for foliar applied KI may hinder the acceptability of iodine sprayed leaves by amaranth producers and consumers. However, the use of KI foliar at 10.50 kg ha^{-1} is recommended for application by farmers for higher iodine-leaf content in amaranths.

Supplement

The supplement related to this article is available online on the same landing page at: https://doi.org/10.17170/kobra-202104133654.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

References

- Abua, S. N., Ajayi, A. O., & Sanusi, R. A. (2008). Adequacy of dietary iodine in two local Government areas of Cross River State in Nigeria. *Pakistan Journal of Nutrition*, 7, 40–43.
- Asher, C., Grundon, N., & Menzies, N. (2002).*How to unravel and solve soil fertility problems*. ACIAR Monograph No 83, 189 p.
- Blasco, B., Rios J. J., Cervilla, L. M., Sánchez-Rodrigez, E., Ruiz, J. M., & Romero, L. (2008). Iodine biofortification and antioxidant capacity of lettuce: potential benefits for cultivation sand human health. Ann. Appl. Biol., 152, 289–299. doi:10.1111/j.1744-7348.2008.00217.x
- Brady, N., & Weil, R. (1999). The Nature and Properties of Soils. Prentice Hall, Upper Saddle River.
- Bremner, J. M. (1996). Nitrogen-Total. In: Sparks, D. L.(ed.) Methods of soil analysis: Chemical methods. Part 3. Madison, Wisconsin, U.S.A. pp. 1085–1122.
- Carter, M. R., & Gregorich, E. G. (2007). Soil Sampling and Methods of Analysis. CRC Press, 2nd Edition, Boca Roton, FL., ISBN: 0849335868, pp. 427–444.
- Dai, J. L., Zhu, Y. G., Zhang, M., & Huang, Y. Z. (2004). Selecting iodine-enriched vegetables And the residual effect of iodate application to soil. *Biol. Trace Elem. Res.*, 101(3), 265–276.
- FAO (2009). The State of Food Insecurity in the World. Rome: Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations.
- Fasuyi, A. O., Dairo, F. A. S., & Adeniji, A. O. (2008). Tropical Vegetable (*Amaranthus cruentus*) Leaf Meal as Alternative Protein Supplement in Broiler Starter Diets: *Bio Nutritional Evaluation* 9 (1), 23–34.

- Fisher, P. W. F., L'Abbe, M. R., & Giroux, A. (1986). Colorimetric determination of total iodine in foods by iodidecatalyzed reduction of Ce⁺₄. J. Assoc. Official Anal. Chem.. 69, 687–689.
- Gee, W. G., & Or, D. (2002). Particle-Size Analysis. p. 255–293. In: Dane, J., & Topp, G. C. (eds.). *Methods of Soil Analysis*. Book Series: 5. Part 4. Soil Science Society of America. USA.
- GENSTAT (2015). *Genstat 17th edition*. Release 17.1 Oxford, UK: VSN International Ltd.
- Hunt, N. & Gilkes, R. (1992). Farm Monitoring Handbook – A practical down-to-earth manual for farmers and other land users. University of Western Australia: Nedlands, W.A., and Land management Society: Como, W.A. 280 p.
- Huang, Y.-Z., Zhu Y.-G., Hu, Y., Liu, Y.-X., & Dai, J. L. (2003). Iodine in soil–plant systems and prevention of iodine deficiency disorders. *Ecol. Environ.*, 12, 228–231 (in Chinese).
- Hong, C. L., Weng, H. X., Qin, Y. C., Yan, A. L., & Xie, L. L. (2008). Transfer of iodine from soil to vegetables by applying exogenous iodine. *Agron. Sustain. Dev.*, 28, 575–583. doi:10.1051/agro:2008033
- Hong, C. L., Weng, H. X., & Yan, A. L. (2009). Dynamic characterization of iodine uptake in vegetable plants (in Chinese). *Shengtai Xuebao / Acta Ecologica Sinica*, 29(3), 1438–1447.
- Kiferle, C., Gonzali, S., Holwerda, H. T., Real Ibaceta, R., & Perata, P. (2013). Tomato fruits: a good target for iodine biofortification. *Front Plant Sci.*, 4, 205. doi:10.3389/fpls. 2013.00205.
- Kolthoff, I. M. Sandell, E. B. Meehan, E. J., & Bruckenstein S. (1969). *Quantitative Chemical Analysis*. 4th ed. Macmillan Pub Co., New York, 599 p.
- Kuo, S. (1996). Phosphorus. In methods of soil analysis. Part 3 Chemical methods. Sparks, D. L. (Ed.) American Society of Agronomy, Madison. pp 869–919.
- Johanson, K.J. (2000). Iodine in soil. Department of Forest Mycology and Pathology The Swedish University of Agricultural Sciences, Uppsala 38 pp.
- Lawson, P. G., Daum, D., Czauderna, R., Meuser, H., & Härtling, J. W. (2015). Soil versus foliar iodine fertilization as a biofortification strategy for field-grown vegetables. *Front Plant Sci*, 6,450 doi.org/10.3389/fpls.2015. 00450.

- Law-Ogbomo, K. E., & Ajayi, S. O. (2009). Growth and Yield Performance of *Amaranthus cruentus* Influenced by Planting Density and Poultry Manure Application. *Notulae Botanicae Horti Agrobotanici Cluj-Napoca*. 37(2), 195–199
- Lazarus, J. H. (2015). The importance of iodine in public health. *Environmental Geochemistry and Health*, 37(4), 605–618. doi:10.1007/s10653-015-9681-4.
- Lehr, J. J., Wybenga, J. M., & Rosanow, M. (1958). Iodine as a micronutrient for tomatoes.*Plant Physiol*. 33, 421–427. doi:10.1104/pp.33.6.421
- Mackowiak, C. L., & Grossl, P. R. (1999). Iodate and iodide effects on iodine uptake and partitioning in rice (*Oryza* sativa L.) grown in solution culture. *Plant Soil.* 212(2), 135–143.
- Martirosyan, D. M., Miroshnichenko, L. A., Kulakova, S. N., Pogojeva, A. V., & Zoloedov, V. I. (2007). Amaranth oil application for coronary heart disease and hypertension. *Lipids Health Dis.* 6, 1.
- Mottiar, Y. (2013). Iodine biofortification through plant biotechnology. *Nutrition*. 29(11-12), 1431–1433.
- Nelson, D. W., & Sommers, L. E. (1996). Total carbon, organic carbon, and organic matter. In: Methods of Soil Analysis, Part 2, 2nd ed., A.L. Page et al., Ed. Agronomy. 9:961-1010. Am. Soc. of Agron., Inc. Madison.
- Nestel, P., Bouis. H. E., Meenakshi, J. V., & Pfeiffer, W. (2006). Biofortification of staple food: Presented as part of the symposium "Food Fortification in Developing Countries" given at the 2005 Experimental Biology meeting, April 5, 2005, in San Diego, CA.
- Pearce, E. N., Bazrafshan, H. R., He, X., Pino, S., & Braverman, L. E. (2004). Dietary iodine in pregnant women from the Boston, Massachusetts area. *Thyroid*, 13, 327–328.
- Pearce, E. N., Andersson, M., & Zimmermann, M. B. (2013) Global iodine nutrition: where do we stand in 2013? *Thyroid*, 23, 523–528. doi:10.1089/thy.2013.0128
- Piątkowska, E., Kopeć, A., Bieżanowska-Kopeć, R., Pysz, M., Kapusta-Duch, J., & Koronowicz A. A. (2016). The Impact of Carrot Enriched in Iodine through Soil Fertilization on Iodine Concentration and Selected Biochemical Parameters in Wistar Rats. *PLOS ONE*. 11(4), e0152680. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0152680

- Ogunwale, J. A., Olaniyan, J. O., & Aduloju, M. O. (2002), Morphological, physiochemical and clay mineralogical properties of soils overlaying basement complex rocks in Ilorin East, Nigeria. *Moor Journal of Agricultural Research.* 3(2), 147–154.
- Olaniyi, J. O., & Ojetayo, A. E. (2010). The Effect of Organomineral and Inorganic Fertilizers on the Growth, Fruit Yield and Quality of Pepper (*Capsicum frutescens*) Journal of Animal and Plant Sciences 8(3), 1070 – 1076.
- Shaw, G., Scott, L. K., & Kinnersley, R. P. (2007). Sorption of caesium, iodine and sulphur in solution to the adaxial leaf surface of broad bean (*Vicia faba* L.) *Environ. Exp. Bot.*, 59, 361–370. doi:10.1016/j.envexpbot.2006.04.008.
- Smoleñ, S., Rozek, S., Strzetelski, P. & Ledwozyw-Smoleň, I. (2011). Preliminary evaluation of the influence of soil fertilization and foliar nutrition with iodine on the effectiveness of iodine biofortification and mineral composition of carrot. *J. Elementol.* 16, 103–114. doi:10.5601/jelem. 2011.16.1.103-114
- Tschiersch, J., Shinonaga, T., & Heuberger, H.(2009). Dry deposition of gaseous radio iodine and particulate radio caesium on to leafy vegetables. *Sci. Total Environ.* 407, 5685–5693. doi:10.1016/j.scitotenv.2009.06.025.
- Voogt, W., Holwerda, H. T., & Khodabaks, R. (2010). Biofortification of lettuce (*Lactuca sativa* L.) with iodine: the effect of iodine form and concentration on growth, development and iodine uptake of lettuce grown in water culture. J. Sci. Food Agric. 90(5), 906–913.
- Weng, H. X., Weng, J. K., Yan, A. L., Hong, C. L., Yong, W. B., & Qin, Y. C. (2008). Increment of iodine content in vegetable plants by applying iodized fertilizer and the residual characteristics of iodine in soil. *Biol. Trace Elem. Res.*, 123, 218–228. doi:10.1007/s12011-008-8094-y.
- WHO (2014). Guideline: fortification of food-grade salt with iodine for the prevention and control of iodine deficiency disorders. Geneva. 55 p.
- Williams, R.F. (1946). The physiology of plant growth with special relation reference to the concept of net assimilation rate *Ann. Bot.* 10, 41-72.