

**RESPONSE OF SOYBEAN (*Glycine max* (L.)Merrill) TO PLANT
POPULATION AND NP FERTILIZER IN KERSA WOREDA OF JIMMA
ZONE, SOUTH WESTERN ETHIOPIA**

M.Sc. THESIS RESEARCH

HABTAMU DERIBE BIKILA

**NOVEMBER 2016
JIMMA, ETHIOPIA**

**RESPONSE OF SOYBEAN (*Glycine max* (L.) Merrill) TO PLANT
POPULATION AND NP FERTILIZER IN KERSA WOREDA OF JIMMA
ZONE, SOUTH WESTERN ETHIOPIA**

M.SC. THESIS RESEARCH

**SUBMITTED TO SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES,
JIMMA UNIVERSITY, COLLEGE OF AGRICULTURE AND VETERINARY
MEDICINE
DEPARTMENT OF HORTICULTURE AND PLANT SCIENCE**

**IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT FOR THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF
MASTER OF SCIENCE IN AGRICULTURE (AGRONOMY)**

BY

HABTAMU DERIBE BIKILA

NOVEMBER 2016

JIMMA, ETHIOPIA

DEDICATION

I dedicate this Thesis manuscript to my father Ato DeribeBikila, mam Mrs BeletechKebede who passed away without seeing my success today and to my youngest brother Tolossa Deribe for their responsibility in nurturing my life and constant encouragements to successfully complete my post-graduate study.

STATEMENT OF THE AUTHUR

First I declare that this thesis is my work and that all sources of the materials used for this thesis have been duly acknowledged. This thesis has been submitted to in partial fulfillment of the requirements for M.Sc. degree at Jimma University, College of Agriculture and Veterinary Medicine and deposited at the University Library to be made available to borrowers under the rules of the library. I solemnly declare that this thesis is not submitted to any other institution anywhere for the award of any academic degree, diploma or certificate.

Brief quotations from this thesis are allowable without special permission provided that accurate acknowledgement of source is made. Request for permission for extended quotation from or reproduction of this manuscript in the whole or any part may be granted by the Dean or Coordinator of the School of Graduate Studies or Head of the Department of Horticulture and Plant Sciences when the proposed use of material is in the interest of scholarship. In all other cases, however, permission must be obtained from the author.

Name: Habtamu Deribe Bikila

Place: Jimma University, Jimma

Date of submission.....

Signature.....

BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Habtamu Deribe Bikila was born on July 10, 1988 in SNNPRS Kafa Zone, Gesha woreda Yeeri Kichit kebele. He attended his education at Idiget Tesfa primary and secondary School, at Shishinda High School and Masha preparatory school from 1998 to 2007, respectively. After successfully passing the Ethiopian School Leaving Certificate Examination, he joined Mizan-Teppi University, College of Agriculture and Natural Resource in 2008 academic year and graduated with B.Sc. degree in Agriculture (Horticulture) in 2010. After graduation, he was employed by the SNNPR Bureau of Agriculture as an agronomist at Gesha District (Kafa Zone). Further he was employed by Seka Agro Processing Private Limited Company and totally served for four years. In September 2014, he joined the graduate studies program of the Jimma University College of Agriculture and Veterinary Medicine to pursue his M.Sc. degree in Agriculture (Agronomy).

AKNOWELEGEMENTS

Above all, my deepest thank and gratitude belongs to the almighty God who gave me the courage and the strength to accomplish my mission.

Special thanks go to my major advisor Dr. Taye Kufa and Co-advisor Dr. Amsalu Nebiyu who helped me in analyzing data and sharing ideas by spending their precious time. I am particularly very grateful to Dr. Taye Kufa for his meticulous guidance, encouragement, willingness to supervise my research and valuable comments from early stage of proposing the research to the final thesis manuscript write-up. I have learnt a lot from my association with him for which I am deeply indebted. The technical advice and close supervision from Dr. Amsalu Nebiyu was also very instrumental to the success of my work and improve the thesis to the present standard.

I would like to thank the Jimma University College of Agriculture and Veterinary Medicine for creating a good learning environment both in terms of education and providing resident and office facilities. I am indebted to the Jimma University College of Agriculture and Veterinary Medicine. My sincere appreciation also extended to the Jimma Agricultural Research Center (JARC) for identifying the research gap, provision of experimental sites and other field materials and equipments. I am also grateful to the JARC staff, especially Dr. TesfaBogale, Mr. GebresilassieHailu, Mr. SissayGurmu, Mr. Obsa Atnafu and the technicalassistants for their versatile help executing in the experiment, data collection and laboratory analysis. I am extremely lucky to have favorite friends: Belachew Beyene, Wakjira Kitessa, Ashenafi Haile, Buchura Negesse, Endale Bekele, BeyeneDugassa and Mrs. BiftuUmer who have special place in my heart for their good will in sharing life experiences and creating ideal environments to fell at home. Last but not least, I would like to express my deepest respect and gratitude to my beloved families Dad AtoDeribeBikila and Mam Beletech Kebede who passed away without seeing my success today and my youngest brother, Tolossa Deribeand Birhanu Deribe and my three youngest sisters Gete Deribe, Mesert Deribe and Burtukan Deribe and Aynalem Tsegaye for their untiring overall supportand patience, constant pray and encouragement to shape me who I am today.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
BoA	Bearu of Agriculture
CACC	Central Agricultural Census Commission
CSA	Central Statistical Agency
DAP	Diammonium Phosphate
EARO	Ethiopian Agricultural Research Organization
FAO	Food and Agricultural Organization
FAOSTAT	Food and Agricultural Organization Statistics
IFAD	International Fund for Agricultural Development
IITA	International Institute of Tropical Agriculture
IPCC	International Panel of Climate Change
JARC	Jimma Agricultural Research Center
JUCAVM	Jimma University College of Agricultural and Veterinary Medicine
LSD	List significance difference
MoA	Ministry of Agriculture
M AF S	Ministry of Agriculture and Food Security
Masl	Meter above sea level
N	Nitrogen
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
P	Phosphorous
SAS	Statically Analysis System
SNNPR	South Nations, Nationalities and Peoples' Region
UREA	Nitrogen fertilizer with the chemical formula $(\text{NH}_2)_2\text{CO}$
USDA	United State Department of Agriculture

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Contents	Pages
DEDICATION	ii
STATEMENT OF THE AUTHUR	iii
BIOGRAPHICAL SKITCH.....	iv
AKNOWELEGEMENTS.....	v
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS	vi
TABLE OF CONTENTS	vii
LIST OF TABLES.....	ix
LIST OF FIGURES	x
LIST OF APPENDICES	xi
ABSTRACT.....	xii
INTRODUCTION	1
2. LITERATURE REVIEW	4
2.1. Origin of Soybean.....	4
2.2. Botany of Soybean.....	4
2.3. Agro Ecologies of Soybean	4
2.4. Soybean Production in Ethiopia	5
2.5. Growth and yield response of Soybean to N and P fertilizers and plant population	8
2.5.1. Effects of Planting Density	10
2.5.2. Number of Leaves Per Plant	10
2.5.3. Plant height	11
2.5.4. Number of branch per plant.....	11
2.5.5. Leaf area	11
2.5.7. Number of Pod per plant.....	12
2.5.8. Number of Seed per pod	13
2.5.9. Harvest index	13
2.5.10. Grain yield	13
3. MATERIALS AND METHODS.....	14
3.1. Description of the Study Area	14
3.2 Planting material.....	16
3.3. Treatment and Experimental Design	17

3.4. Experimental Procedures	17
3.5. Soil Sampling and Analysis.....	18
3.6. Data Collected	19
3.6.1. Growth parameters.....	19
3.6.2. Yield and yield components	20
3.7. Stastical Analysis.....	21
3.8. Partial Budget Analysis (Economic Analysis).....	21
4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION	22
4.1. Phenological Growth Parameters.....	22
4.1.1. Days to 50% Flowering	22
4.1.2. Days to 50% maturity	23
4.2. Vegetative Growth and Root Nodule.....	24
4.2.1. Plant height	24
4. 2. 2. Number of leaves per plant.....	25
4.2.3. Total Leaf area per plant.....	25
4.2.4. Total Fresh weight of the leaves per plant	26
4.2.5. Total Dry weight of leaves per plant	26
4.2.6. Number of branches per plant.....	27
4.3.7. Number of nodules	28
4.3. Yield and yield components	29
4.3.1. Number of pods per plant	29
4.3.2. Pod length	30
4.3.2. Number of seeds per pod	31
4.3.3. Hundred Seed weight.....	32
4.3.4. Biomass yield.....	33
4.3.5. Grain Yield	34
4.3.6. Harvest index	35
4.4. Correlation Analysis	36
4.5. Partial Budget Analysis	39
5. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION.....	40
6. REFERENCES	42
7. APPENDIX	59

LIST OF TABLES

Tables	Pages
1. Treatment combinations.....	17
2. Effect of plant population and NP fertilizer rate on days to 50% flowering (DF) and days to 50% maturity (DM) of Soybean in Kersa Woreda of Jimma zone, south western Ethiopia	23
3. Main effect of plant population and NP fertilizer on Plant height (PH), Leaf area(LA), number of leaves(NL/plant), Leaf fresh weight(FW) and Leaf dry weight(DW) of Soybean in kersa woreda of Jimma zone, south western Ethiopia.....	27
4. Interaction effect of plant population and NP fertilizer on Number of branches per plant of Soybean in Kersa Woreda of Jimma zone, south western Ethiopia	28
5. Interaction effect of plant population and NP fertilizer on number of nodules per plant of Soybean at Kersa Woreda of Jimma zone, south western Ethiopia	28
6. Interaction effect of plant population and NP fertilizer on Pod length (cm) of Soybean in Kersa Woreda of Jimma zone, south western Ethiopia	30
7. Effect of plant population and NP fertilizer on number of seed per pod (NS) of Soybean in Kersa Woreda of Jimma zone, south western Ethiopia	31
8. Interaction effect of plant population and NP fertilizer on above ground biomass yield (kg/ha) of Soybean in Kersa Woreda of Jimma zone, south western Ethiopia	34
9. Effect of plant population and NP fertilizer on harvest index of Soybean in kersa Woreda of Jimma zone, south western Ethiopia	36
10. Pearson Correlation Coefficients of different growth yield and yield related parameters..	37
11. Partial budget analysis for yield of Soybean in response to NP fertilizer application.....	39
12. Partial budget analysis for yield of Soybean in response to Plant population	39

LIST OF FIGURES

Figures	pages
1. Map of the study Area.....	15
2. Effect of plant population and NP fertilizer on Number of pods per plant of Soybean.....	30
3. Effect of plant population and NP fertilizer on hundred seed weight of Soybean.....	33
4. Effect of plant population and NP fertilizer on grain yield of Soybean.....	35

LIST OF APPENDICES

Appendix Table	Pages
1. Summary of soil Lab results for the experimental field.....	60
2. Preliminary ANOVA for response of soybean to the combined treatment in a RCBD with three replications.....	61
3. Summary of ANOVA for soybean growth variables in 4 x 4 factorial experiment involving four levels of plant population and NP fertilizer in a RCBD with three replications.....	62

Response of Soybean(*Glycine max* (L) Merrill) to Plant Population and NP fertilizer in Kersa Woreda of Jimma Zone, South Western Ethiopia(Habtamu*et al.*, 2016)

ABSTRACT

Soybean (Glycine max (L.) Merrill) is a leading oil and protein crop of the world and can be used as a source of high quality edible oil, protein, and livestock feed. Declining soil fertility status and poor agronomic practices, including minimum use of inorganic fertilizers and inappropriate plant population are the major reasons for the lower yield of soybean. A field experiment was carried out to determine the response of soybean to plant population and NP fertilizer in Kersa woreda of Jimma zone, south western Ethiopia during the 2015/2016 cropping season. The study site is situated at an altitude of 1740 masl and the texture of the soil is clay. Each four levels of NP fertilizer (23/23, 23/46, 46/46 and 69/69 kg/ha) and plant population (166,667, 200000, 333,333 and 400,000 plants/ha) were laid out in a factorial experiment in randomized complete block design with three replications. The released and commonly used soybean variety Clark-63K was used for the study. Data on phenology, yield and yield components were collected and statistically analyzed to identify the best treatments. The analysis of variance showed that the interaction of plant population and NP fertilizer was significant for number of pods per plant, pod length, number of nodules per plant, hundred seed weight, total biomass yield and grain yield. Whereas, plant population had significant influences on days to 50% flowering, days to 50% maturity, number of branches per plant, number of nodules per plant, plant height, total leaf area, number of pods per plant, number of seed per pod, hundred seed weight, total biomass yield and grain yield per plot. Likewise, the main effects of NP fertilizer was significant for number of pods per plant, number of branches per plant, number of leaves per plant, total leaf area, plant height, days to maturity, leaf fresh and dry weights, pod length, hundred seed weight, grain yield and harvest index. The highest grain and biomass yields of 1960 and 5491.7 kg/ha were recorded at 400,000 plant/ha plant population and 23/46 kg/ha NP fertilizer. Moreover, the partial budget analysis also revealed that the highest net benefit and marginal rate of return (24063.6 birr/ ha and 276%) and (25456.4 birr/ha and 623%) were obtained from 400,000 plant/ha plant population and 23/46 kg/ha NP fertilizer. However, to generate more reliable information and technology, further studies need to be conducted by taking into consideration other factors, including different locations, varieties, fertilizers, plant population, cropping systems and growing seasons in Jimma zone and other suitable areas in southwestern Ethiopia.

Key words: NP fertilizer, plant nutrients, plant population, soil fertility management

1. INTRODUCTION

Soybean (*Glycine max* (L.) Merrill) is an important global legume crop that grows in the tropical, subtropical and temperate climates. Like peas, beans, lentils and peanuts, it belongs to the large botanical family, Leguminosae, in the subfamily Papilionideae. It has 40 chromosomes ($2n = 2x = 40$) and is a self-fertile species with less than 1% out-crossing (Shurtleff and Aoyagi, 2007). It is the leading oil and protein crop of the world, which is used as a source of high quality edible oil, protein and livestock feed (Rajcanet *et al.*, 2005). It has a potential to nourish humans worldwide in the near and distant future (Hartman *et al.*, 2011). The balanced combination of protein, fat and carbohydrates in soybean products could serve as a valuable food, feed and bio-feed stocks of crops (Gardner and Pyne, 2003). Many other products with a soybean basis are also directly used for human consumption (soymilk, soy yogurt, snacks, soya sauce, protein extract and concentrates, etc.) (Collombet, 2013). It improves soil fertility by fixing atmospheric nitrogen and its oil is also increasingly being used for biodiesel (Acikgozet *et al.*, 2009).

Global production has been on the rise, its estimated demand of about 300 million tons exceeds the current supply by over 40 million tons (FAOSTAT, 2010). With current yields estimated at less than 30% of the actual potential land, only about 7% of favorable land is allocated to soybeans, Sub-Saharan Africa presents a great opportunity for closing this global demand-supply gap (Hartman *et al.*, 2011). Soybean protein provides all eight amino acids in the amount needed for human health; hence, it is the best source of protein and oil and truly claims the title of the meat/oil on plants (Ali, 2010). The different climatic zones found in Africa include tropical wet, tropical summer rainfall, semiarid, arid, highland and Mediterranean (Newman *et al.*, 2007). It offers several advantages in sustainable cropping systems (Sinclair and Vadez, 2012), including an ability to fix atmospheric nitrogen (N_2) via symbiotic N_2 fixation. In particular, soybeans nutritional value and its high N_2 fixing potential could result in playing a major role in future cropping systems of Africa (IITA, 2009). Soybean production in this area is projected to grow from about 1.5 million tons in 2010 to about 2 million tons in 2020, representing a growth rate of 2.3% per annum to meet the predicted demand (Abate *et al.*, 2012).

The introduction of soybean crop to Ethiopia dated back to 1950s with the objective of supplementing the diet of Ethiopians, especially during long periods of partial fasting (Asrat,

1965). In 2014/15 cropping season, the total area nationally covered by soybean crop was about 35,259.76 ha and the total production of 721,837.45 quintal with a productivity of 20.47 qt/ha (CSA, 2015). Some of the constraints shown by studies (Shumba-Mnyulwa, 1996) carried out on smallholder soybean production. Soil pH, generally at values less than 5.5 to 6.0, can drastically affect rhizobia infection, root growth and legume productivity (Havlin *et al.*, 2005). Plant population is an important component of yield in soybean and hence, it is important to determine the optimum plant population density for different areas, since the areas have different potential for soybean growth, with some areas having the capacity to support high plant density without a compromise in yield (Masuda and Goldsmith, 2009). Studies by Taylor (1980) have shown that soybean respond differently to different environmental conditions and these environmental differences would lead to differences in yield between seasons. Rainfall and soil moisture must be optimized when considering effects of plant density on soybean yield (Bertram and Pedersen, 2004).

Higher plant densities compared to lower plant density have consistently produced higher seed yields in Northern USA where indeterminate early maturing varieties are used (Ball *et al.*, 2000). Increased seed rate influenced yield to a point, while yield will eventually reach a maximum at which addition of more seed will do nothing to increase yield (Ball *et al.*, 2000). The study done in Zimbabwe has revealed that soybean does well at 300 000 plants/ha in high potential areas and 150000 plants/ha in low potential areas (Whingwiri, 1986). A previous study conducted in this study area but with different varieties (Worku and Astatkie, 2011) reported an increase in seed yield per unit area as row spacing (RS) decreased, but it did not identify optimum plant density for high yield, nodulation and weed control.

In spite of many biotic and abiotic factors contribute to the low yield of soybean which includes, nitrogen and phosphorus are the major factors that significantly reduce the production and productivity of soybean (Kamara *et al.*, 2007; Tahir *et al.*, 2009). The low availability of phosphorus nutrition in soils has become the limiting factor for plant and root growth (Zafaret *et al.*, 2013). Legume plants that depend on biological N₂ fixation require more P, since, the reduction of atmospheric N₂ by the nitrogenous system is a very energy-consuming process and more P and other nutrients are needed for symbiotic N fixation than for general plant metabolism

(Israel, 1987). Nitrogen is the most important nutrient for crop production and its deficiency occurs in most countries of the world (Tahir *et al.*, 2009). Best timing for N top-dressing during reproduction is at the flowering stage, which increased seed yield by 21%, compared to the treatment without N top dressing (Ganet *et al.*, 2003). Currently, about 41% of potential arable land of Ethiopia is acidic among which south Western part of the country is highly affected (Abebe, 2007).

Therefore, the efficient use of mineral fertilizers on infertile soil is recognized to be a quick and direct way of boosting crop production (Tarekegne and Tanner, 2001). The use of leguminous crops for this inert nitrogen fixation and incorporation into agricultural soil is getting prime importance in Ethiopian context (Woldemeskel, 2007; Bekere and Hailemariam, 2012; Bekere *et al.*, 2013). In western Ethiopia, soybean reached a peak yield of 2406.7kg/ha with application of 46 kg P₂O₅/ha (Desta, 1986).Accordingly, nitrogen and phosphorus are, however, considered necessary for grain yield of soybean (Galarao, 1992).Soybean has a relatively high nitrogen requirement especially at later growing stages (Wantanabe *et al.*, 1983) and it has relatively higher phosphorus requirement which helps to stimulate root development (Patel *et al.*, 1992).

The low productivity of the crop is due to several constraints, including unbalanced plant nutrient (Sharma *et al.*, 1996) and plant population. The farmers have been attributed to lack of application of the right type and amount of fertilizers; poor soil fertility management, and poor agronomic management practices, such as improper weed management, inappropriate plant population and planting time. In addition, lack of improved varieties having desirable traits, such as nutrient use efficiency, disease resistance, and high yielding ability also magnified the problem. Therefore, this study was initiated with the objective to evaluate the response of soybean to different plant population and NP fertilizers in Kersa woreda of Jimma zone, south western Ethiopia.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Origin of Soybean

Soybean (*Glycine max* (L.)Merrill)is a legume native to East Asia perhaps in North and Central China (Laswaiet *al.*, 2005) and it is grown for its edible bean, oil and protein around the world. They are eaten in fresh green state and dry beans. Soybean is found in Family Fabacea and Species. The earliest documentation existing that mentions soybean as one of the five main plant foods of China comes from the year 2700 B.C(Hymowitz and Shurtleff., 2005). The spread of soybean from its native land of origin has been mainly due to its adaptability and predominant use as a food crop for human nutrition, source of protein for animals, medicinal plant and lately as an industrial crop (Yusuf and Idowu, 2001).

2.2. Botany of Soybean

Soybean is a short-day plant, which is a very important oil and protein crop. It is an annual plant with height of about 1m to 1.5m. The plant has a main root that goes down in the depth of 1.5 meters to the ground. Its stem is straight and has multiple branches covered by brown color corks. This is a plant with three leaflets. The straight pods consist of 2-4 grains which is covered by thin pads. The grain color is yellow, green and black. It can grow on all types of soil, but deep fertile loam with good drainage is most suitable for growth (Whigham, 1974). There is also a potential to intercrop soybean with long stem crops such as maize and sugarcane (Jagwe and Owuor, 2004).

2.3. Agro Ecologies of Soybean

Soybean in Ethiopia could be grown from sea level up to 2200meter above sea level and with annual rainfall as low as 500-700 mm, but performs best between 1300 and 1800masl with annual rainfall of 900-1300 mm, an average annual temperature between 20-25°C and a soil pH of 5.5 to 7 (Gurmu, 2007). The growing season ranges from 90 to over 150 days and three different soybean varieties can be distinguished (Gurmu, 2010). Early maturing group with 90-120 days (Awassa-95, Williams, Crawford and Jallale), medium maturing group with 121-150 days (Clarck-63K, Cocker-240, Davis, Cheri and AFGAT), late maturing group with >150 days (Belessa-95 and Ethiougozlvavia)

Soybean grows in areas where maize and common beans are grown. It grows to a height of 60–120 cm, maturing in 3 to 6 months depending on variety, climate and location. It is drought tolerant. At very high altitudes, flowering may not occur and the crop remains vegetative. Soybean is therefore a crop that requires warm climates and is suitable for low to medium altitudes (Ogemaet *al.*, 1988). It grows best when planted in pure stands. The presence of *Rhizobium japonicum* in the roots of soybean enables the crop to fix nitrogen in the soil contributing to improved soil fertility (Kasasaet *al.*, 2000).

2.4. Soybean Production in Ethiopia

Soybean production in Ethiopia is steadily growing to meet the ever-increasing food and market demands. Moreover, some soybean varieties that are categorized into three maturity groups: early-, medium- and late-maturing varieties, are recommended for different agro-ecological zones of Ethiopia (Worku and Astatkie, 2011). It is a multipurpose crop, which can be used for a variety of purposes, including preparation of different kinds of soybean foods, animal feed, soy milk and raw material for the processing industry, and it has counter effectson depletion of plant nutrients in the soil, resulting from continuous mono-cropping of cereals, especially maize and sorghum, thereby contributing to increasing soil fertility (Hailegiorgis, 2010). Yield of legumes in farmers' field is usually less than 0.65t/ha against the potential yield of 1.2t/ha suggesting a large yield gap (CACC, 2002).

In Ethiopia, pulse crops rank second as food after cereals and occupy about 15.2% of the total cultivated areas and contribute about 11.9% of the total production (CSA, 2013). Haricot bean and soybean are the two main lowland food legume crops. According to Hailu and Kelemu, (2014), a ten year (2002 to 2012) soybean data showed that the land coverage and total production increased by 10 and 21 fold, respectively; with average productivity of 1.06 ton/ha. However, the amount of land allotted for the production of soybean is very low compared to land allocated for other oil crops (Hailu and Kelemu, 2014). It is one of pre-eminent crops in providing cheap protein (40%) and oil (20%) which determines the economic worth of the crop on the globe (Thomas and Erostatus, 2008).

The importance of soybean emanates from the high nutritional value of its grain: 40% protein and 20% oil (Gurumuet *et al.*, 2009), making it an important raw material for food and oil processing industries; in crop rotation, due to its nitrogen fixing capacity that is important in improving soil fertility, and health benefits of its consumption (Tesfaye *et al.*, 2010). According to (Birtet *et al.*, 2004), soybean consumption can prevent some chronic human diseases. It is also considered as a strategic crop in fighting the worlds' food shortage and malnutrition problems, and most food aids to displaced and malnourished people are fortified with soybean (Thoenes, 2014).

In Southwestern Ethiopia, where maize is the major staple food crop, and grown in mono crop condition, the importance of soybean for crop rotation is paramount. This is mainly because of the fact that mono crop system causes depleted soil fertility, and unbalanced diet to the maize feeders over time (Tesfaye, 2012). Including soybean in the crop rotation is an indigenous practice in Ethiopia that has agricultural and social benefits. Soybeans offer the benefit of nitrogen sparing, meaning that they use less of the available nitrogen in the soil compared to a non-fixing plants, thereby “sparing” it for the succeeding crop. They may also supply a residual effect, where the biomass of the legume plant is returned to the soil, nitrogen available in the plant will be degraded and released in an inorganic, plant-available form to the crop that follows the legume in rotation (Giller, 2001). Thus, they have been used for centuries to maintain an adequate nitrogen balance in the cropping system.

Soybean was introduced to Ethiopia in the 1960's (IAR, 1982). Despite this early introduction, it was not easy to achieve wider dissemination and production of soybean; especially among the small holder farmers. The main limitations for this were: lack of knowhow by the local farmers on how to utilize the crop, unavailability of an attractive market for the produce, and lack of a systematic approach for popularizing the crop through training female farmers on how to prepare different meals from soybean. Consequently, the proportion of land in the country on which soybean was grown remained low for several years (Tesfaye *et al.*, 2010).

Besides, most farmers spare fertile soils for the production of cereals, especially maize, while pulses including soybean are grown on marginal soils usually for crop rotation. In addition,

farmers sometimes apply below the optimum level, but usually do not apply commercial fertilizers on pulse crops in general, and soybean in particular. The main reasons for low use of commercial fertilizers by subsistence farmers have been poor financial capacity (Vance *et al.*, 2003), high price of commercial fertilizers, poorly developed rural transportation and distribution systems particularly during rainy seasons (Mesfin, 1980).

Consequently, subsistence farmers grow most crops including soybean under very low levels of soil nutrients. For a leguminous crop, such as soybean, Nitrogen (N) nutrition is not a serious problem; as the plant has the inherent ability to obtain most of its N requirement from the atmosphere through N fixation by forming a symbiotic relationship with Rhizobium bacteria in the soil. Soybean requires 378 kg/ha of nitrogen to complete its growth cycle; however, it has the potential to obtain 60 to 70% of its requirement from nitrogen fixation (Abendroth and Elmore, 2000). Nonetheless, this relationship could not occur without inoculating the seed with appropriate strain of Rhizobium bacteria, the optimum amount of “inocula”, and proper method of inoculation. As the nitrogen requirement of the crop could be improved by nitrogen fixation; however phosphorus (P) nutrition remains the critical limiting factor of productivity. The problem is serious in developing countries where, according to Mesfin, (1980) commercial fertilizer use is very low or non-existent. Moreover, the proportion of available P is very low compared to the large P reserve in many soils. Al Abbas and Barber, (1964) indicated that total P is often 100 times higher.

The main production constraints responsible for low productivity of soybean in Ethiopia (i.e., national average yield 1410.1 kg/ha in the year 2010, which is far below the potential productivity of the crop in the research fields i.e., 2000-3500 kg/ha) (Tesfaye, 2007) are: poor soil fertility management practices, soil borne diseases, bird damage at early seedling stage, and low nutrient availability associated with pH of the soil. More importantly, the major soybean producing areas in South Western Ethiopia are characterized by high rainfall and acidic soil, which is also associated with high P fixation, and low P availability. In addition, farmers have limited capacity to purchase and apply commercial fertilizers, which is the principal cause of a very low productivity of soybean in Ethiopia. Hence, identifying crop varieties, which performs

well under P deficient soils and respond to high level of P, is gaining priority in several breeding programs (Tesfaye, 2007).

2.5. Growth and yield response of Soybean to N and P fertilizers and plant population

Phosphorus (P) and nitrogen (N) play specific role in symbiotic N₂-fixation through their effects on nodulation and N₂-fixation process (O' Hara *et al.*, 2002). Symbiotic nitrogen fixation has a high P demand because the process consumes large amounts of energy (Schulze *et al.*, 2006) and energy generating metabolism strongly depends upon the availability of P (Israel, 1987). Nodules are strong P sinks and nodule P concentration normally exceeds that of roots and shoots (Drevon and Hartwig, 1997). Soybean can be grown on almost all well-drained soils; however, the crop is more productive on fertile loam soils. For efficient production as a mono-crop, soil must be managed properly to allow optimum uptake of water and nutrients (Varco, 1999). Fertilizer application is important in the soybean production and has great effect on yield. A report indicated that application of 18 kg N /ha and 46 kg P₂O₅/ ha will give better yield (Anononymous, 2002).

Nitrogen requirement for soybean are typically met by a combination of soil-derived and nitrogen provided through the process of symbiotic fixation from Rhizobia bacteria in root nodules. In general, there was an increase in plant height and dry matter accumulation per plant in soybean (Manral and Saxena, 2003). Varonet *al.* (1984) have reported an increase in plant height with the application of nitrogen fertilizer. Improved plant nutrition, particularly nitrogen (N) uptake, has contributed to increased soybean yield. Adequate N supply throughout the growing season is important for high yield (Salvagiottiet *al.*, 2009). Nitrogen uptake is highest during early seed filling (Gutierrez-Boemet *al.*, 2004). Uptake during the seed filling period may be reduced due to the decline of nitrogen fixing bacteria and insufficient soil N (Salvagiottiet *al.*, 2009). To compensate, soybean remobilizes N from leaves causing senescence (Gutierrez-Boemet *al.*, 2004).

Phosphorus (P) is a major growth-limiting nutrient, and unlike the case for nitrogen, there is no large atmospheric source that can be made biologically available (Ezawaet *al.*, 2002). Soybean responds to P-fertilization and soil P level as well as soil location (Ogokeet *al.*, 2003). In the dry savanna zone of Nsukka (Southeastern Nigeria), significant response of soybean to 20 kg N and

20 kg P₂O₅/ha has been observed (Ochulor, 1999), however, obtained no response due to the high level of phosphorus in the experimental site. The importance of phosphorus in biological nitrogen fixation is well known, as it is an energy driven process (Haru and Ethiopia, 2012). Soil P dynamics is characterized by physicochemical (sorption-desorption) and biological (immobilization-mineralization) processes. P is needed in relatively large amounts by legumes for growth and nitrogen fixation and has been reported to promote leaf area, biomass, yield, nodule number, nodule mass, etc., in a number of legumes (Kasturikrishna and Ahlawat, 1999).

Phosphorus deficiency can limit nodulation by legumes and P fertilizer application can overcome the deficiency (Carsky *et al.*, 2001). Large amount of P applied as fertilizer enters in to the immobile pools through fixation reaction with highly reactive Aluminum (Al⁺) and Iron (Fe³⁺) in acidic, and Calcium (Ca²⁺) in calcareous or normal soils (Gyaneshwari *et al.*, 2002). Efficiency of P fertilizer throughout the world is around 10 - 25% (Isherwood, 1998), and concentration of bioavailable P in soil is very low reaching the level of 1.0 mg kg soil (Goldstein, 1994). Soil microorganisms play a key role in soil P dynamics and subsequent availability of phosphate to plants (Richardson, 2001). Microbial community influences soil fertility through soil processes viz. decomposition, mineralization, and storage/release of nutrients. Phosphorus specifically, enhances photosynthesis rates, enzymatic activity, root development, uptake and transfer of other nutrients and seed germination (Hao *et al.*, 2002). Phosphorus deficiency is reported to reduce nodule formation and growth while an adequate supply leads to good development of nodules (Wall *et al.*, 2000).

2.5.1. Effects of Planting Density

Plant population is an important agronomic factor that manipulates micro environment of the field and affects growth, development and yield formation of crops. Within certain limits, increase of plant population density decreases the growth and yield per plant but the reverse occurs for yield per unit area (Caliskan *et al.*, 2007). Higher populations can contribute to improved soybean yields as well. Monsanto demonstration trials have shown higher populations improve yields, but can vary by relative maturity. It was found in 2011 that soybean yield increased with an increase in population from 140,000-200,000 seeds/acre and for a 3.1 relative maturity soybean products but the yield remained the same or decreased with an increase in population for the 2.9 and 3.3 relative maturity products (Caliskan *et al.*, 2007). Final plant population depends on seedbed conditions and planter settings. Poor seedbed conditions, seed quality, inaccurate planter adjustment, soil crusting, extremely wet soil, disease and insect pressure, and hail or frost damage are factors that can reduce plant population. Increased plant population potentially could be used in a narrow row system to maximize space utilization. Prior research results indicate that optimal plant population can be obtained in a narrow row spacing system (Devlin *et al.*, 1995; Oplinger and Philbrook, 1992). Greater seeding rate is usually required to achieve the intended final plant population. Iowa State University estimates a 15 to 30% increase in seeding rate over the desired final plant stand and this is recommended to compensate for any plant loss (Pedersen, 2008).

Adjusting planting density is an important tool to optimize crop growth and the time required for canopy closure, and to achieve maximum biomass and grain yield (Liu *et al.*, 2008). High populations provide a way to optimize grain yields in short-season production systems (Liu *et al.*, 2006b).

2.5.2. Number of Leaves Per Plant

Application of fertilizers at the rate of 20 kg N with 35Kg P₂O₅/ha gave greater number of leaves and branches in soybean (Orellana *et al.*, 1990). Nitrogen supply has large effect on leaf growth because it increases the leaf area of plants and, in that way, it influences on photosynthesis function (Bojović *et al.*, 2009). In legumes and other leafy vegetables, N improves the quality and quantity of dry matter and protein (Uchida, 2000). Green colour in the leaf is vanished due to

nitrogen deficiency and this may cause the decrease in leaf area and intensity of photosynthesis as well (Chu *et al.*, 2005). P is limiting, the most prominent effects are a reduction in leaf expansion, leaf surface area and the number of leaves (Bekereet *et al.*, 2012). Nitrogen and Phosphorus are the major component of the leaf chlorophyll, which influences the plant to manufacture its own food through photosynthesis process, which ultimately increases yields and uptake of important nutrients in different plant tissues (Imsande, 1989).

2.5.3. Plant height

Plant height is one important agronomic trait in soybean cultivar selection. This selection is based on the association of these agronomic traits with seed yield and stability (Hiebschet *et al.*, 1990) indicates that soybean plant height increased with higher seeding rate and narrower row width. It can also be affected by planting date and the effect varies according to different growth habits or locations (Pedersen and Lauer, 2003). According to Weaver *et al.*, (1991) indicated plant height of indeterminate was reduced more with late planting. Plant height can be affected by planting date, but the result is location dependent (Pedersen and Lauer, 2003).

2.5.4. Number of branch per plant

According to Boquet, (1990) found that increasing plant population density can decrease both branch and main stem yields per plant. It resulted in a decrease in total branch yield but an increase in total stem yield because the increase in plant population offsets the stem yield loss but not the branch yield loss. An increase in plant population was necessary to obtain higher yields at later planting dates for determinate soybean planted in narrow rows. Soybean has the ability to compensate for low plant population densities through increased branching pods per plant, and seeds per plant (Ball *et al.*, 2000).

2.5.5. Leaf area

Leaf area compensation for defoliation may be expressed through changes in new leaf area expansion or in normal plant senescence. Experimental data measuring leaf area recovery were reported by Gazzoni, (1974), who found a general trend of high recovery when applied on vegetative stages, with recovery indexes being more intense at high defoliation levels. Ostlie and Pedigo, (1985) noted that soybeans compensated for development retarded by drought through

the rapid addition of new leaves and increased leaf area expansion when normal rain resumed. Soybean accumulation of photosynthetic energy, and the way this energy is divided between structural and reproductive components. Through their data, the same authors concluded that yield reductions were proportional to reduction in total plant weight; therefore soybean compensation evaluated by increased partitioning of energy was not present. The decrease in nitrogen content in the leaves and stems after bloom indicated translocation to pods and seeds, in spite of total nitrogen accumulation persisting late in the growth cycle.

2.5.6. Number of Nodules

According to Nyoki and Ndakidemi (2014), inoculation is not usually favoured below pH 5.5, and application of various levels of P did not produce nodule numbers that were significantly higher than the control plots. This finding is similar to the reports of Bekere and Hailemariam(2012),which showed that no differences in nodule number were produced when different phosphorus levels were used in Ethiopia.Tahir *et al.*, (2009) have been reported increase in nodule numbers with the use of inoculant.P stress reduces nitrogen fixation due to decreased nodule formation and reduced nodule sizes and finally affecting the yield, both grain quality and quantity (Sadeghipour and Abbasi, 2012).

2.5.7. Number of Pod per plant

Plant density affected soybean yield and yield components in narrow rows (Epler and Staggenborg, 2008). As plant population was increased, pods per plant decreased steadily; however, yield was not reduced by the loss of pods per plant, because pods per area increased as plant population increased (Robinson and Wilcox, 1998). Usually soybean Seed yield increases with decreasing row width up to a certain point (Oplinger and Philbrook, 1992), after that a further decrease in row width may negatively affect seed yields (Board and Harville, 1992). Increasing levels of nitrogen fertilization increased the number of pods per plant as indicated by (Tola, 1995). Similar results were reported by other investigators (Agha *et al.*, 2004; Akbari, 2001; Xuwen, 1990). In contrast, Maneechote, (1991) and Hantolo, (1995) observed that increasing the levels of nitrogen fertilization had no effect on mean number of pods per plant. Although, Hassan, (1987) reported that rhizobium inoculation had no effect on mean number of

Pods per plant in soybean, the work done by Dadson and Acquah, (1984) showed that rhizobium inoculation decreased the mean number of pods per plant.

2.5.8. Number of Seed per pod

In most legume plants, the number of seeds per pod for any given cultivar is a relatively stable character (Chapman, 1981). In soybean, the number of seeds per pod was slightly affected by the levels of nitrogen fertilization as noticed by others (Agha *et al.*, 2004; Akbari *et al.*, 2001). On the other hand, Hassan, (1987) stated that in soybean rhizobium inoculation had no effect on mean number of seeds per pod.

2.5.9. Harvest index

Harvest index of soybean increased with increasing plant population (Edwards and Purcell, 2005). It was relatively stable and was not affected by population (Ball *et al.*, 2000). Roy *et al.*, (1995) found that soybean seeds inoculation increased the nodules number per plant and thus increasing harvest index. Harvest Index is a measure of crop yield in that it expresses the weight of the harvested product as a percentage of the whole plant weight of the crop.

2.5.10. Grain yield

The work done by Starling *et al.* (2000) showed that plant growth and grain yield of soybean were higher when fertilizer nitrogen was applied as starter. Grain yield response of soybean to the nitrogen application may be because nitrogen plays an important role in the synthesis of chlorophyll and amino-acids which are the indispensable ingredients of the process of autotrophization. Nitrogen influenced grain yield through source-sink relationships resulting in higher production of photosynthesis and their increased translocation to reproductive parts Tripathi *et al.* (1992).

3. MATERIALS AND METHODS

3.1. Description of the Study Area

Jimma Zone is divided into 13 woredas (hosting a total population of over 2.2 million) with an agro-ecological setting of highlands (15%), midlands (67%) and lowlands (18%). The zone is one of the major coffee growing areas of Oromia region well-endowed with natural resources contributing significantly to the national economy of the country. The major crops grown, other than coffee, are maize, teff, sorghum, barley, pulses (soybeans, beans and peas), root crops (enset-false banana and potato) and fruits. Teff and honey production are another sources of cash after coffee. Enset is a strategic crop substantially contributing to the food security of the zone and is especially important in Setema and Sigimo woredas (highlands). In normal years, the rainy season extends from February to October. Bordered on the south by Dedo, on the southwest by SekaChekorsa, on the west by Mana, on the north by LimmuKosa, on the northeast by TiroAfeta, and on the southeast by Omo Nada.

The study was conducted in Kersa woreda of Jimma Zone, South western Ethiopia, under rain fed condition during the main cropping season in 2015/2016. The site is located at about 318 km from Addis ababa and 28 km East of Jimma town ($7^{\circ} 40' 0''$ N latitude and $36^{\circ} 50' 0''$ E longitude) at an altitude of 1740 masl. The average annual maximum and minimum air temperatures are 28.8°C and 11.8°C , respectively and the area receives adequate amount of rain fall, ranging from 1,200 to 2,800 mm per annum cropping season. According to Van Ranst *et al.* (2011), the major reference soil groups in the Gilgel-Gibe catchment are Nitisols, Acrisols, Ferralsols, Vertisols and Plano sols. The middle and high altitude soils are less rich in nutrients due to the fact that they have been under human land use practices for long period of time (BPEDORS, 2000). The soil type of the experimental area was Nitsol (Reddish brown) with a pH of around 5.2.

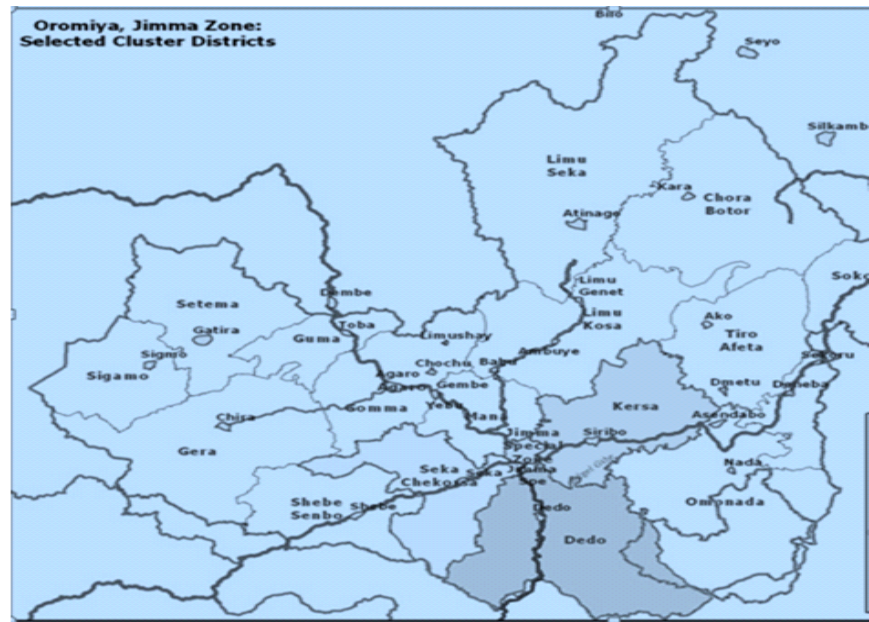


Figure.1 Map of the study Area

3.2 Planting material

The soybean variety named (Clark-63K), which was developed and released by Hawassa Agricultural Research Centre in 1982 was used for the experiment. Clark-63K is a highyielding cultivar adapted to a wide range of altitudes 300-1800masl and annual rain fall of 450-1500mm. The yield capacity of the crop both in research and farmers field was 15-25 and 9-11qt/ha respectively. Whereas its maturity date was medium 121-150 days ((EARO, 2004) and fertilizers Urea and DAP) were used as a source of nitrogen and phosphorus nutrient elements.

3.3. Treatment and Experimental Design

Table: 1 Treatment combinations

Treatments	NP fertilizer(kg ha ⁻¹)	Plant population(pl/ha)	Treatment Combinations
1	23/23	166,667	N1P1Pop1
2	23/23	166,667	N1P1Pop2
3	23/23	166,667	N1P1Pop3
4	23/23	166,667	N1P1Pop4
5	23/46	200000	N2P2 Pop1
6	23/46	200000	N2P2 Pop2
7	23/46	200000	N2P2 Pop3
8	23/46	200000	N2P2 Pop4
9	46/46	333333	N3P3 Pop1
10	46/46	333333	N3P3 Pop2
11	46/46	333333	N3P3 Pop3
12	46/46	333333	N3P3 Pop4
13	69/69	400000	N4P4 Pop1
14	69/69	400000	N4P4 Pop2
15	69/69	400000	N4P4 Pop3
16	69/69	400000	N4P4 Pop4

NP fertilizer = 23/23 kg/ha, 23/46 46/46, and 69/69 Kg/ha, and coded as N1P1, N2P2, N3P3 and N4P4, respectively and plant population levels = 166,667, 200,000, 333,333 and 400,000 (Plant /ha) also coded as Pop1, Pop2, Pop3 and Pop4, respectively. The experiment was carried out with factorial arrangement in RCBD with three replications. Thus, there were a total of 16 treatment combinations.

The experimental field consisted of forty-eight plots. Gross plot size was 5m x 4m (20m²) each accommodating 6 rows and the spacing between plots and blocks were 0.8m and 1 m, respectively, leaving the outer most rows on both sides of each plot to avoid border effects.

The four plant populations were 166,667, 200,000, 333,333 and 400,000 plants/ha, while the size of plot was equal for all and only the difference was between plant and row spacing. The trial was compared with previously done activities both on fertilizer and plant populations includes, 23/46kg/ha of NP and 333,333, respectively.

3.4. Experimental Procedures

The land was prepared on a farmer's field by removing all unwanted materials. Before sowing the crop, the field was plowed with oxen three to four times to make a fine seed bed, but depend on type of soil. The source of N and P was urea and DAP, respectively. As blanket recommendation, 100 kg DAP and 50 kg urea per ha were used for soybean [*Glycine max (L) Merrill*] around Ilubabor and Jimma (Getachew *et al.*, 1987). The soybean seeds were drilled in rows during the growing season on June 14, 2015 and thinned after emergence. The land was previously cropped with sorghum. The other management practices were applied as per the recommendation for the crop. The rate of nitrogen applied at time of planting was 9, 18, 18 and 27 kg/ha, while after thinning 30, 11,61 and 91kg/ha

3.5. Soil Sampling and Analysis

A composite soil sample was collected in a diagonal pattern from 0-20cm soil depth before planting and after harvesting. Uniform slices and volumes of soils were obtained in each sample by vertical insertion of an auger. The samples were air-dried, ground using a pestle and a mortar and allowed to pass through a 2 mm sieve. Working samples were prepared and analyzed at JARC soil laboratory for the selected physico-chemical properties. These include, texture, particle size distribution, soil pH, organic carbon, total N, available phosphorus and cat ion exchange capacity (CEC) using standard laboratory procedures. Soil pH was determined from the filtered suspension of 1:2.5 soils to water ratio using a glass electrode attached to a digital pH meter (potentiometer) (Page, 1982). Texture of the soil was determined by the hydrometer method. The soil was analyzed for total nitrogen, available phosphorus, CEC, and organic carbon contents. Organic carbon and total nitrogen were determined by the method of Walkely and Black and Kjeldhal methods, respectively (Jackson, 1973). Available phosphorus was determined using Bray II extraction method as described by Van Reeuwijk, (1992). Phosphorus in the extracts was determined with atomic absorption spectrophotometry calorimetrically according to the molybdenum blue color method described by Murphy and Riley (1962).

3.6. Data Collected

3.6.1. Growth parameters

Days to 50% flowering

It was determined by counting when 50% of the plants in the plot start to flower.

Days to 50% maturity

It was recorded when 50% of the plants showed a change in leaf color from the lower part to upper part of the plant. This was when plants showed a color change by half and expected to be harvested after 45 days.

Number of nodules per plant:

It was determined as the total number of nodules per plant when 50% days of the plants in a plot start flowering and it was counted using five randomly selected plants per plot. It was total number of nodules per selected plants in each plot (Tahir *et al.*, 2009).

Number of leaves per plant

It was determined as the total number of leaves per plant at flowering and at physiological maturity stages using five randomly selected plants per plot.

Number of branches per plant

It was estimated by counting the number branches of five randomly selected plants from each plot at maturity stage (Tesfaye *et al.*, 2011).

Total Leaf area per plant

It was measured for five plants, which were randomly taken from the two border rows, using leaf area meter (LI-3100C leaf area meter) and the average values was calculated for a plant (Tahir *et al.*, 2009).

Plant height

It was measured using ruler from the ground level to the tip of the plant at flowering and at physiological maturity and five randomly selected plants were taken from each plot for this purpose.

Total Fresh weight leaves per plant

It was measured from using five plants taken from the two border rows of each plot by using sensitive balance before oven drying and the average was estimated.

Total Dry weight of leaves per plant (g)

It was measured using five randomly taken mature plant from each plot after oven drying at 70°C until constant weight is attained the average value was calculated. After the weight was measured using digital balance, and percent dry matter was calculated using the formula:-

$$DW (\%) = \frac{[(DW+CW)-CW]}{[(FW+CW)-CW]} \times 100$$

Where:

DW=dry weight

CW=container weight

FW= fresh weight (Tahir *etal.*, 2009).

3.6.2. Yield and yield components

Number of pods per plant

The number of pods was counted for five randomly selected plants from the four middle rows of each at the time of harvesting and their averages were recorded(Kamara *etal.*, 2007).

Number of seeds per pod

It was determined as the total number of seeds per pod in each plot at the time of harvesting using the five randomly selected plants from each plot (Tesfaye *etal.*, 2011).

Pod length (cm)

It was measured at harvesting using pods of five randomly selected plants and the average was recorded.

Hundred seed weight

The weight of 100 seeds was taken from each plot at the time of harvesting, after adjusting the moisture content of the seeds between 10% and 13 % (Kamara *etal.*, 2007).

Total Dry Biomass yield (kg/ha)

Plants from the net plot area were harvested at physiological maturity, and weighed after plants dry including all above ground (Kamara *etal.*, 2007).

Grain yield (kg/ha)

It was measured for each plot and converted into hectare basis (Tesfaye *etal.*, 2011).

Harvest index

It was expressed as the ratio of economic yield per plant to the total above ground biomass.

$HI = \frac{GY}{TBY}$ (kg/ha)

TBY (Kg/ha)

Where,

HI= harvest index

GY=Grain yield (at 10% moisture base)

TBY=Total dry biomass yield (Tesfaye *etal.*, 2011)

3.7. Stastical Analysis

The collected data were summarized, checked through normality test by Minitab and statistically analyzed with the Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) procedure out lined for factorial experiment in a RCBD using SAS software (SAS, 2002). Treatments means that differed significantly were separated by using the LSD procedure at 5% probability level. Correlation coefficient was determined for parameters using the same software.

3.8. Partial Budget Analysis (Economic Analysis)

An economic assessment was done using partial budget procedure described by CIMMYT, (1988). The variable costs including the cost of DAP and urea were taken at time of planting from socio-economic research group of Jimma Agricultural Research Center (JARC) and the price of soybean grain data were taken from office of Kersa Woreda Trade, Transportation and

marketing. Labor cost per treatment was recorded and used for this analysis. The average yield was adjusted downward by 10% to reflect the farmer's field yield as described by CIMMYT, (1988).

All costs and benefits were calculated on Ethiopian Birr (EtB) in hectare basis. The inputs used in the partial budget analysis were mean grain yield of each treatment, field price of soybean grain (sale price minus the costs of harvesting, threshing, winnowing, bagging and transportation), gross field benefit (GFB) /ha (the product of field prices and mean yield for each treatment), field price of N and P /kg (nutrient cost plus the cost of transportation from the point of sale to the farm), the field cost of N and P (the product of the quantity required by each treatment and the field price of fertilizer), the total costs that varied (TCV), which included the sum of field cost of fertilizer, its application and seed cost.

The net benefit (NB) was calculated as the difference between GFB and TCV. Marginal rate of return (MRR) was calculated as the ratio of differences between net benefits of successive treatments to the difference between total variable costs of successive treatments or the net return was calculated as total gross return minus total variable cost.

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1. Phenological Growth Parameters

4.1.1. Days to 50% Flowering

The effect of plant population and NP fertilizer on days to 50% flowering was given in Table 2 and Appendix Table 3. NP fertilizer showed significant at $P < 0.05$, while the interaction and plant population did not show significant variations for days to 50% flowering. The maximum days to 50% flowering were recorded for Pop3 (61.51), while the minimum value was recorded for Pop2 (58.87). The maximum days to 50% flowering were recorded for N4P4 (71.99), while

the minimum days were recorded for N1P1 (50.85). Higher plant population and NP fertilizer rate prolong the flowering stage of soybean probably due to the low availability of nutrient. It could be also due to the fact that application of excessive nitrogen prolonged vegetative growth and flowering of soybean. This result agrees with some finding previous (Brady and Weil, 2002) which shows that phosphorous is helpful in flowering and hastens maturity of crops if applied in single dose without nitrogen. The results showed that nitrogen had delayed flowering, pod setting and maturity dates of soybean in this experiment because nitrogen enhances vegetative growth.

4.1.2. Days to 50% maturity

The effect of plant population and NP fertilizer showed significant difference at $P < 0.01$, while the interaction did not show significant effect on days to 50% physiological maturity (Table 2 and Appendix Table 3). The maximum value of days to 50% maturity was recorded for Pop2 (124.15), while minimum value for Pop4 (107.54). The maximum value of days to 50% maturity for NP fertilizer was recorded for N4P4 (127.22), while the minimum value was recorded for N1P1 (106.41). This could be due to the fact that the maximum plant population favors earlier maturity due to competition for nutrients, light and moisture, while in lower plant populations may be prolonged vegetative growth. Similarly, at high NP fertilizer rates plant matured later, probably because of higher soil nutrient various vegetative growth rather than maturity, while at low NP fertilizer rates plants matured earlier probably due to shortage of the resources. The current study agreed with that of (Wood *et al.*, 1993) who reported that application of N fertilizer significantly delayed physiological maturity of soybean.

Table: 2 Effect of plant population and NP fertilizer rate on days to 50% flowering (DF) and days to 50% maturity (DM) of Soybean in Kersa Woreda of Jimma zone, south western Ethiopia

Plant population	DF	DM
Pop1	59.55 ^a	119.32 ^{ab}
Pop2	58.87 ^a	124.15 ^a
Pop3	61.51 ^a	115.04 ^b
Pop4	59.82 ^a	107.54 ^c
LSD(0.05)	ns	5.7567
NP fertilizer		
N1P1	50.85 ^a	106.41 ^a

N2P2	55.37 ^b	110.27 ^a
N3P3	61.55 ^c	122.15 ^b
N4P4	71.99 ^d	127.23 ^b
LSD(0.05)	3.27	5.75
CV (%)	6.54	5.92

Means followed by the same letter(s) with in a column for a given treatment levels are not significantly different at 5% p level

4.2. Vegetative Growth and Root Nodule

4.2.1. Plant height

The analysis of variance for the effect of plant population and NP fertilizer on plant height is given in Table 2 and Appendix Table 3. The results revealed that the main effect of plant population and interaction were non-significant, while NP fertilizer were showed significant difference at $P < 0.05$. The maximum plant height was recorded for Pop1 (48.23cm) and the minimum was recorded for Pop4 (44.39). The maximum plant height was recorded for N4P4 (52.55cm), but the minimum value was recorded for N1P1 (38.81). This indicates that as plant population increases plant height decreases and also, as NP fertilizer increase there is plant height increases, which creates lodging problems, low branching and low pod per plant. As the number of plants increased in a given area the competition among the plants for nutrients uptake and sunlight interception also increased and the plant population and NP fertilizer was available for the plant.

This experiment is not in agreement with the findings of Elmore (1991), who reported increased plant height was associated with plant population, but only as final stands were lodging was not a significant problem with greater seeding rates. Conversely, provided that lodging does not increase, taller plants can lead to less grain loss during harvest and greater grain yields (Markoset *al.*, 2012).

4. 2. 2. Number of leaves per plant

The effect of plant population and NP fertilizer showed significant difference for leaf number per plant at $P < 0.01$ and $p < 0.05$ respectively, while the interaction did not show any significant difference (Table 3 and Appendix Table 3). The maximum number of leaves was produced for Pop1 (75.39), while the minimum was recorded for Pop3 (69.20). The maximum leaf number for NP fertilizer was recorded for N4P4 (83.07), while the minimum leaf number was recorded for N1P1 (61.92). Number of Leaves reduced with higher plant population, and this might be due to competition for assimilates, sunlight, moisture and nutrients, as the applied NP fertilizer is more consumed at higher populations. This result is in agreement with the findings Akbariet *al.*, (2001), who reported that increased levels of nitrogen fertilization increased the mean number of leaves per plant. However, Xuewen, (1990), showed that different nitrogen levels had slight influence on mean number of leaves per plant.

4.2.3. Total Leaf area per plant

Statistical analysis of the data revealed that the interaction of plant population and NP fertilizer was non-significant, while the effects of NP fertilizer and plant population was significant ($P < 0.01$) (Table 3 and Appendix Table 3). The maximum leaf area for plant population was recorded at Pop1 (174.04cm), while the minimum value was recorded for POP4 (149.27cm). The maximum value of leaf area was recorded for N4P4 (180.47cm), while the minimum value was recorded for N1P1 (150.47cm).

This is probably because of the effect of the plant competition for resources in higher plant populations and lower NP fertilizer rates. Higher NP fertilizer rates and plant populations resulted in larger leaf area, which could be because of a reduction in competition for space, moisture, sunlight and nutrients and an adequate nutrient supply to maintain and support lower plant populations. This result was in agreement with the findings of Harder *et al.* (2007) indicating that increasing plant population increased leaf area until the later reproductive stages. It has also been reported that Yield increases can be attributed to a greater leaf area index (LAI) in narrow compared to wide rows, and NPK (15:15:15) treated plots gave higher leaf area, followed by poultry manure, probably because of their capacity to release nutrients to plants faster with higher N content and lower C:N ratio (Awodun, 2007).

4.2.4. Total Fresh weight of the leaves per plant

Data regarding the effect of plant population and NP fertilizer on total fresh weight leaves per plant was given in Table 3 and Appendix Table 3. Statistical analysis of the data revealed that NP fertilizer and the interaction were non-significant, while the plant population was significant at $P < 0.01$. The maximum total fresh weight of leaves per plant for plant population was recorded at Pop1 (41.84g), while the minimum value was for Pop4 (27.87g). The maximum fresh weight of leaves for NP fertilizer was recorded for N3P3 (36.10g), while the minimum value was recorded for N4P4 (33.20g). This probably because of the leaf fresh weight is directly related with photo-synthesis and it's assimilating for the photosynthesis through photo synthetically active radiation and the growth facilitation of the plant with respect to vegetative growth. The current experiment aligned with the studies of Rahman *et al.*, (2004) have reported that as the plant growth and yield components increased at lower densities, yield per unit area decreased as a result of less canopy unit area with lower rate of photosynthesis and dry matter accumulation. Thus, the insufficient development of the canopy of leaves at earlier reproductive phase at lower densities limits yield (Edwards *et al.*, 2005).

4.2.5. Total Dry weight of leaves per plant

The interaction and NP fertilizer was non-significant, while the plant population was showed significant difference $P < 0.05$ for leaf dry weight Table 3 and Appendix Table 3. The maximum value was recorded for Pop1 (9.10 g), while the minimum value was recorded for Pop3 (6.85 g). Although it was not significant the maximum leaf dry weight was recorded for N1P1 (7.87 g), while the minimum value was recorded for N2P2 (7.65 g). This is probably because the leaf dry weight is directly related with grain yield of the plant which compensates competition among the plant and applied NP fertilizer with the plant population.

The current study agreed with the findings of Taylor and Philadelphia, (2006) who reported that phosphorus supply increased the top dry matter production at flowering and the dry matter production of seeds, pod shells, and roots at late pod filling of inoculated soybeans. However, Ebie and Ayolagha, (2006) also observed that poultry manure gave the highest dry matter.

Table: 3 Main effect of plant population and NP fertilizer on Plant height (PH), Leaf area(LA), number of leaves(NL/plant), Leaf fresh weight(FW) and Leaf dry weight(DW) of Soybean in kersa worda of Jimma zone, south western Ethiopia

Plant population	PH(cm)	NL	LA(cm ²)	FW(g)	DW(g)
Pop1	48.23 ^a	75.39 ^a	174.04 ^a	41.84 ^a	9.10 ^a
Pop2	46.24 ^a	73.67 ^{ab}	168.55 ^a	39.86 ^a	8.625 ^a
Pop3	44.39 ^a	69.20 ^b	163.22 ^a	28.53 ^b	6.44 ^b
Pop4	44.39 ^a	70.35 ^b	149.27 ^b	27.88 ^b	6.85 ^b
LSD(0.05)	ns	4.48	11.48	6.30	1.41
NP fertilizer					
N1P1	38.82 ^b	61.92 ^d	150.47 ^c	35.09 ^a	7.87 ^a
N2P2	46.41 ^{ab}	68.20 ^c	160.44 ^{bc}	33.69 ^a	7.66 ^a
N3P3	45.62 ^{ab}	75.42 ^b	163.71 ^b	36.11 ^a	7.75 ^a
N4P4	52.55 ^a	83.07 ^a	180.47 ^a	33.21 ^a	7.73 ^a
LSD(0.05)	8.19	4.48	11.48	ns	ns
CV (%)	21.44	7.46	8.42	21.90	24.23

Means followed by the same letter(s) within a column for a given treatment level and variable are not significantly different at 5% p level

4.2.6. Number of branches per plant

Analysis of variance for the effect plant population and NP fertilizer on number of branches per plant was given in Table 4 and Appendix Table 3. It was observed that plant population, NP fertilizer and their interaction had highly significant effect $P < 0.01$. The maximum number of braches was recorded for N2P2xPop4 (8.06), while the minimum value was observed for N1P1xPop1 (2.26). In general with increasing plant population and NP fertilizer rate number of braches per plant increases. It is because the minimum plant population has high branches per plant due to low completion and the applied nutrients are sufficient for branching. Besides, maximum branching indicates maximum yield, which can compensate for the low population. Yield through branching and number of pods per plant and number of seeds per pod. In field studies investigating population effects, increasing plant population m^{-2} resulted in decreased number of branches per plant, and decreased the number of pods per plant (Boquet, 1990). Branching typically occurs at low plant populations in order to maximize yield (Carpenter and Board, 1997).

Table: 4 Interaction effect of plant population and NP fertilizer on Number of branches per plant of Soybean in Kersa Woreda of Jimma zone, south western Ethiopia

NP fertilizer	Plant Population			
	Pop1	Pop2	Pop3	Pop4
N1P1	2.26 ^d	3.10 ^d	2.73 ^d	2.36 ^d
N2P2	3.33 ^d	5.23 ^c	5.43 ^c	8.06 ^a
N3P3	5.30 ^c	6.06 ^{bc}	5.93 ^{bc}	5.70 ^{bc}
N4P4	6.26 ^{bc}	6.36 ^{bc}	7.06 ^{ab}	6.56 ^{abc}
LSD (0.05)	1.52			
CV (%)	17.99			

Means followed by the same letter (l) with in columns and rows are not significantly different at 0.05 probability level.

4.3.7. Number of nodules

The interaction and NP fertilizer showed significant at $P < 0.05$ and $P < 0.01$ respectively for number nodules per plant Table 5 and Appendix Table 3, while plant population did not showed significant different. The maximum number nodules was recorded at N3P3xPop4 (8.66), while the minimum number was observed for N1P1xPop1 (3.36). This is because of the soil of experimental area was affect by environmental factors like acidic soils and couldn't fix any environmental nitrogen through rhizobium bacteria which facilitates low number of nodules at minimum fertilizer which contradicting one another. This result shows that application of NP fertilizer without inoculation of a seed with rhizobium bacteria can improve root development and nodulation for the plant. This result agrees with Giller (2001) who reported that the application of phosphorous is improves root development, providing more infection sites for rhizobia, hence, encouraging nodulation.

Table: 5 Interaction effect of plant population and NP fertilizer on number of nodules per plant of Soybean at Kersa Woreda of Jimma zone, south western Ethiopia

NP fertilizer	Plant population			
	Pop1	Pop2	Pop3	Pop4
N1P1	3.36 ^h	5.30 ^{defgh}	3.76 ^{fgh}	4.50 ^{fgh}

N2P2	5.56 ^{cdefg}	5.13 ^{efgh}	5.50 ^{cdefg}	5.06 ^{efgh}
N3P3	6.36 ^{bcdef}	7.40 ^{abcd}	5.26 ^{efgh}	8.66 ^a
N4P4	6.80 ^{abcde}	7.43 ^{abc}	7.96 ^{ab}	6.56 ^{abcdef}
LSD (0.05)	2.12			
CV (%)	17.66			

Means followed by the same letter (l) with in columns and rows are not significantly different at 0.05 probability level.

4.3. Yield and yield components

4.3.1. Number of pods per plant

Statistical analysis revealed that of plant population; NP fertilizer and their interaction were significant $P < 0.01$ for number of pods per plant Figure 2 and Appendix Table 3. The maximum number of pods per plant was recorded at combination of N2P2x Pop4 (67.26), While, the minimum number was resulted from N1P1xPop4 (25.66). The increase in number of pods per plant with increasing NP fertilizer rate might be due to availability of more resources to plants regardless of population density. This result also agrees with the findings of Lueschen and Hicks, (1977), indicating that soybean plants are capable of compensating for low densities by producing more branches and pods, resulting in yield levels remaining relatively constant over a wide range of populations. Increasing levels of nitrogen fertilization increased the number of pods per plant. As indicated by Tola (1995). Pod number per plant decreased while plant number in a unit area increased or plant population increased, pods per plant decreased steadily.

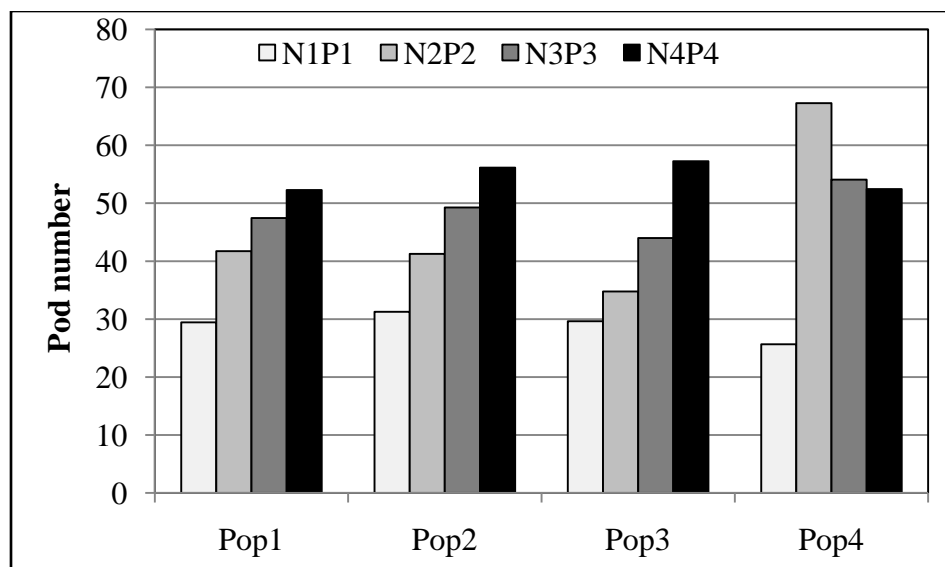


Figure: 2. Effect of plant population and NP fertilizer on Number of pods per plant of Soybean
Plant population/ha

4.3.2. Pod length

The effect of plant population and NP fertilizer on pod length was given in the Table 6 and Appendix Table 3. The effects of plant population, NP fertilizer and their interaction was highly significant ($P < 0.01$), while NP fertilizer showed significant difference at $P < 0.05$ for pod length. The maximum pod length was recorded at the combination of N2P2xPop4 (8.80 cm), while the minimum value was recorded for N1P1xPop1 (3.16 cm). This is because as plant population and NP fertilizer increases the pod length of plant for their role in the containing maximum number of seed. As plant population and NP fertilizer increases; pod length also increasing due to maximum nutrient supplied. The results agree with previous finding of Ogunlela *et al.*, (2012) who reported that phosphorous level revealed significant effect of pod length. First pod height values varied between 15.5 and 21.6 cm (Caliskan *et al.*, 2007).

Table: 6 Interaction effect of plant population and NP fertilizer on Pod length (cm) of Soybean in Kersa Woreda of Jimma zone, south western Ethiopia

NP fertilizer	Plant population
---------------	------------------

	Pop1	Pop2	Pop3	Pop4
N1P1	3.16 ^f	3.25 ^f	4.10 ^{ef}	3.60 ^f
N2P2	5.36 ^{de}	5.50 ^{de}	6.23 ^{bcd}	8.80 ^a
N3P3	5.43 ^{de}	5.75 ^{cde}	5.83 ^{cd}	7.26 ^{abc}
N4P4	7.60 ^{ab}	6.73 ^{bcd}	7.53 ^{ab}	5.40 ^{de}
LSD (0.05)	1.66			
CV (%)	16.04			

Means followed by the same letter(s) with in columns and rows are not significantly different at 0.05 probability level.

4.3.2. Number of seeds per pod

The effect of NP fertilizer showed highly significant difference ($P < 0.01$), while plant population and their interaction did not show significant variations for number of seeds per pod Table 7 and Appendix Table 3. The maximum number of seeds per pod was recorded for Pop2 (70.49), while the minimum value was observed for Pop4 (61.58). On the other hand, the maximum number of seed per pod resulted for N4P4 (78.13), while the minimum number of seeds per pod for NP fertilizer was recorded at N1P1 (50.75). As NP fertilizer increases number of seeds per pod also increase. This is probably because maximum NP fertilizer can compensate the resource competition. Similarly, at low plant population number of seeds per pod is maximum may be due to low competition and high interception of light. The current study aligns with the Cox and Cherney, (2011) who reported a strong relationship between plant population and seeds per plant. In most legume plants, the number of seeds per pod for any given cultivar is a relatively stable character. In soybean, the number of seeds per pod was slightly affected by the levels of NP fertilization as noticed by Akbariet al. (2001).

Table: 7 Effect of plant population and NP fertilizer on number of seed per pod (NS) of Soybean in Kersa Woreda of Jimma zone, south western Ethiopia

Plant population	NS
------------------	----

Pop1	67.85 ^a
Pop2	70.49 ^a
Pop3	60.42 ^a
Pop4	61.58 ^a
LSD(0.05)	Ns
NP fertilizer	
N1P1	50.76 ^c
N2P2	63.94 ^b
N3P3	67.51 ^{ab}
N4P4	78.13 ^a
LSD(0.05)	11.97
CV (%)	22.06

Means followed by the same letter(s) with in a column for a given treatment are not significantly different at 5% P level

4.3.3. Hundred Seed weight

The result revealed that plant population, NP fertilizer and their interaction highly significant ($P < 0.01$) for hundred seed weight (Figure 3 and Appendix Table 3). The maximum hundred seed weight was recorded for (N4P4 x Pop1) (21.3g), while the minimum value was recorded for N4P4 x Pop4 (18.50g). The increase in seed weight at higher NP fertilizers especially lower plant populations might be due to availability of more resources. The current result is in contrary with findings of Pedersen, (2008) who found that a seeding rate of 18.5 seeds m^{-2} had a 100-seed wt. of 14.2 g and seeding rates of 31.0 to 55.6 seeds m^{-2} had a 100-seed wt. of 14.4 g, but these differences were most likely due to different location conditions.

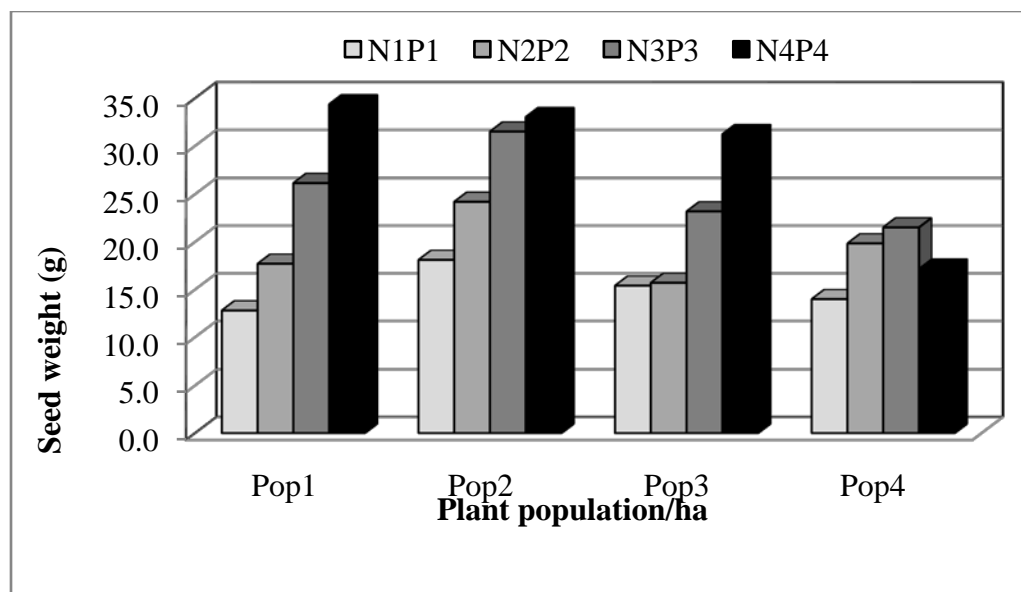


Figure: 3. Effect of plant population and NP fertilizer on hundred seed weight of Soybean

4.3.4. Biomass yield

The analysis of variance revealed that the interaction effects between plant population and NP fertilizer were showed significant difference ($P < 0.05$), while NP fertilizer showed a highly significance difference ($P < 0.01$) and plant population did not showed significance for biomass yield Table 8 and Appendix Table 3. Maximum biomass yield was recorded for the combination of N2P2x Pop4 is probably (5491.7 kg /ha), while the minimum value was obtained at N1P1 x Pop1 (3075 kg /ha). This is probably because of the biological yield increased by increasing plant density due to higher leaf area, number of branches and plant height. These results are in agreement with the findings of Bullock *et al.*, (1998) reported that narrow row spacing or maximum plant population more efficient use of available light and shaded the surface soil more completely during the early part of the growing season while the soil is still moist and, therefore, low population are more effective in producing biomass. In contrary biomass yield per plant decreases progressively as the number of plants in a given increases. This is because the production of individual plant is reduced (Hamidia *et al.*, 2010).

Table: 8. Interaction effect of plant population and NP fertilizer on above ground biomass yield (kg/ha) of Soybean inKersa Woreda of Jimma zone, south western Ethiopia

NP fertilizer	Plant population			
	Pop1	Pop2	Pop3	Pop4
N1P1	3075.0 ^e	3616.7 ^{ef}	3733.3 ^{def}	3808.3 ^{cdef}
N2P2	3775.0 ^{cdef}	4000.0 ^{bcde}	4616.7 ^{bc}	5491.7 ^a
N3P3	4225.0 ^{bcde}	4216.7 ^{bcde}	3966.7 ^{bcde}	4466.7 ^{bcde}
N4P4	4700.0 ^{ab}	4516.7 ^{bcd}	4483.3 ^{bcd}	4141.7 ^{bcde}
LSD (0.05)	865.24			
CV (%)	12.12			

Means followed by the same letter(s) with in columns and rows are not significantly different at 0.05 probability level.

4.3.5. Grain Yield

The effect of plant population and NPfertilizer on grain yield per hectare was presented in Figure 4 and Appendix Table 3. Statistical analysis of the data revealed that plant population and NP fertilizer showed highly significant effect ($P < 0.01$), while the interaction between two had significant difference ($P < 0.05$) for the grain yield per hectare. The maximum value of grain yield was recorded for the combination of N2P2xPop4 (1960.2 kg/ha), while the minimum grain yield was recorded for N1P1xPop1 (1106.3 kg/ha). The reason for increased grain yield with increasing plant population may be due to increased net crop assimilation rate and more number of plants harvested unit⁻¹ areas. The higher grain yield was probably due to higher leaf area, plant height, number of seed per pod and increased biomass yield at higher population. The grain yield increase due to increased rate of NP fertilizer application could be attributed to the improved leaf area development, which increases rate of assimilation by leaves.

This is supported by findings of Edwards and Purcell (2005), which showed that as soybean population increases, yield increases rapidly until it becomes asymptotic per plant. Adequate N supply throughout the growing season has also been shown to be important for high yield (Salvagiottiet *al.*, 2009). Adding 16 kg/ ha N as banded starter fertilizer had a 6% yield increase over the non-treated check (Osborne and Riedell, 2006). On the other hand Haq and Mallarino, (2000) have reported that the response to foliar N-P-K fertilizer application varies based on soil test levels and local weather conditions. Nerveless, it has been reported that nitrogen influenced

grain yield through source–sink relationships, resulting in higher rates of photosynthesis and, thus, soybean grain yield increased by 38.7% when application of N increased from 0 kg N/ha to 90 kg N/ha(Asfaw and Angaw, 2003) have observed that application of 120 kg P ha⁻¹ in faba bean at Holleta provided three times higher grain yield compared to the control, 0 kg P/ha. Similarly, it has been found that nitrogen rate had no effect on seed yield per plant across all N rates, but increasing the population reduced yield per plant and increased yield per unit area (Ball *et al.*, 2000).

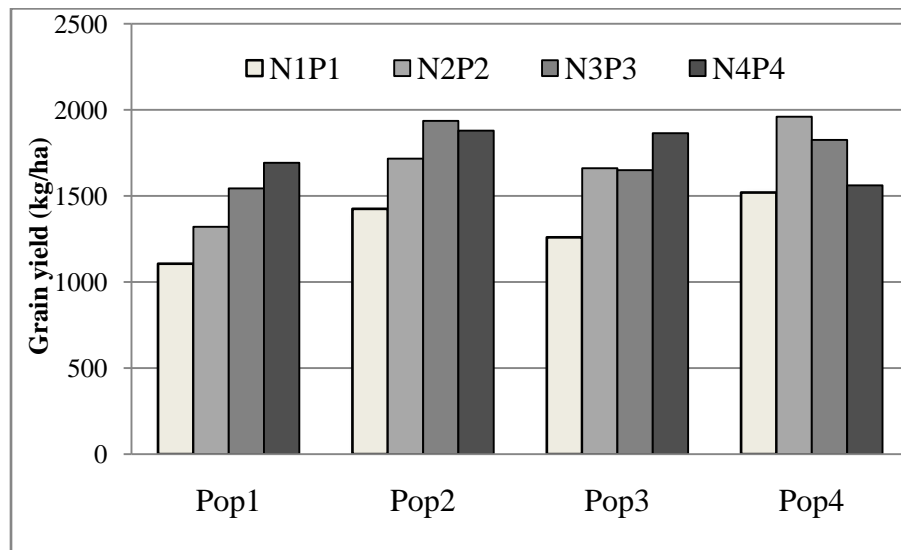


Figure: 4. Effect of plant population and NP fertilizer on grain yield of Soybean

4.3.6. Harvest index

The effects of plant population and NP fertilizer on harvest index were given in Table 9 and Appendix Table 3. The NP fertilizer and their interaction did not show significant variations in harvest index, while NP plant population showed significant difference ($P < 0.05$). The maximum harvest index was recorded for Pop2 (0.42), while the minimum value was recorded for Pop1 (0.35). Although, it was not significant maximum harvest index for NP fertilizer was recorded at N3P3 (0.40), while the minimum value was observed for N1P1 and N1P1 (0.37).

This result shows that harvest index decreased by increasing plant density probably due to the increased competition for resource in high densities. It could also be related with number of branches and total leaf area which are higher in low populations than in high populations. These results agree with the findings of Malik *et al.* (2006) who reported that N application has effect on

harvest index of soybean. In contrary, these results agree with Board (2000) and Green-Tracewicz (2011) has reported that HI is non-responsive to plant density and stable even after periods of stress throughout plant development.

Table: 9. Effect of plant population and NP fertilizer on harvest index of Soybean in kersa Woreda of Jimma zone, south western Ethiopia

Plant population	HI (%)
Pop1	0.36 ^b
Pop2	0.43 ^a
Pop3	0.38 ^b
Pop4	0.38 ^{ab}
LSD(0.05)	0.04
NP fertilizer	
N1P1	0.37 ^a
N2P2	0.37 ^a
N3P3	0.41 ^a
N4P4	0.39 ^a
LSD(0.05)	Ns
CV (%)	12.41

Means followed by the same letter(s) with in a column for a given treatment are not significantly different at 5% P level

4.4. Correlation Analysis

Correlation analysis for growth parameters, yield and yield related traits was presented in Table 10. The simple correlation analysis showed that days to 50% flowering was highly significantly ($P < 0.01$) and positively correlated with number of leaves ($r = 0.422$), number of branches ($r = 0.457$), number of pods per plant ($r = 0.373$) and pod length ($r = 0.504$). Number of leaves per plant has highly significant ($P < 0.01$) and positive correlation with fresh weight ($r = 0.477$), leaf area ($r = 0.403$), days to 50% maturity ($r = 0.528$), number of seeds ($r = 0.539$) and pod length ($r = 0.376$). This shows that these parameters have direct relationship with chlorophyll development and photo-assimilate supply for plant growth and yield. Number of branches was highly significantly ($P < 0.01$) and positively correlated with number of seeds ($r = 0.404$) and pod length ($r = 0.589$). Fresh weight was highly significantly ($P < 0.01$) and positively correlated with dry weight ($r = 0.661$), leaf area ($r = 0.685$), number of pods ($r = 0.568$) and number of

seeds($r=0.619$). Dry weight has highly significant ($P < 0.01$) and positive correlation with leaf area ($r=0.502$), and number of pods ($r=0.445$). Number of nodules was highly significantly ($P < 0.01$) and positively correlated with pod length($r=0.381$) and biomass yield ($r=0.405$). Plant height has also highly significant ($P < 0.01$) and positive correlation with leaf area ($r=0.558$), biomass yield ($r=0.511$) and grain yield ($r=0.501$). This implies that photosynthetically active radiation was highly contributed for photosynthesis and plant growth. This observation agreed with the findings of Malik *et al.*, (2011), indicating the correlation coefficients (r) and coefficients of determination (R^2) from the correlation and regression analyses of some morphological growth and yield component traits would estimate soybean seed yield.

Leaf area was highly significantly ($P < 0.01$) and positively correlated with number of pods per plant($r=0.436$) and number of seeds per pod ($r=0.529$). Days to 50% maturity was highly significantly ($P < 0.01$) and positively correlated with number of pod per plant ($r=0.412$). Number of pods per plant was highly significant ($P < 0.01$) and positively correlated with number of seed per pod ($r=0.423$) and hundred seed weight ($r=0.444$). Harvest index was highly significant ($P < 0.01$) and positive correlation with biomass yield ($r=0.550$). Hundred seed weight was significantly ($P < 0.05$) and positively correlated with pod length ($r=0.298$), which has highly significant ($P < 0.01$) and positive correlation with biomass yield($r=0.386$). The relationship between biomass yield and grain yield was highly significant ($P < 0.01$) and positive correlation with grain yield($r=0.922$). The physiological process during growth and development of plants, chemical contents of pods and other yield components were very high. Plant productivity related with the efficacious plant nutrition with its interaction with other factors of the environment (humidity, temperature, light conditions etc.), any change in the values of each factor results in many other changes. This also in agreement with the findings of Oladajo *et al.* (2011) noted pod weight as one of the agronomic traits that is most appropriate for selection of improved grain yield in cowpea.

Table: 10. Pearson Correlation Coefficients of different growth yield and yield related parameters.

	DF	NL	NB	FW	DW	NN	PH	LA	DM	NP	NS	HI	HS
DF	1												
NL	0.42**	1											
NB	0.45**	0.36*	1										
FW	0.30*	0.47**	0.27	1									
DW	0.28*	0.23	0.18	0.66**	1								
NN	0.24	0.18	0.29*	0.17	0.21	1							
PH	0.06	0.20	0.24	0.30*	0.17	0.27	1						
LA	0.26	0.40**	0.27	0.68**	0.50**	0.19	0.55**	1					
DM	0.05	0.52**	-0.15	0.22	0.04	-0.01	0.34*	0.19	1				
NP	0.37**	0.69**	0.25	0.56**	0.44**	0.14	0.09	0.43**	0.41**	1			
NS	0.28*	0.53**	0.40**	0.61**	0.36*	0.18	0.24	0.52**	0.24	0.42**	1		
HI	0.01	0.20	0.20	0.06	0.14	0.32*	0.22	0.09	0.08	0.08	0.17	1	
HS	0.10	0.39**	0.28	0.31*	0.12	0.24	0.11	0.26	0.23	0.44**	0.50**	0.29*	1
PL	0.50**	0.37**	0.58**	0.27	0.20	0.38**	0.10	0.27	-0.00	0.25	0.35*	0.27	0.29*
BM	0.13	0.27	0.31*	0.26	0.17	0.40**	0.51**	0.35*	0.10	0.04	0.14	0.55**	0.23
Gy	0.15	0.16	0.22	0.26	0.16	0.33*	0.50**	0.35*	0.08	-0.01	0.07	0.23	0.11

** . Correlation is highly significant at 0.01 P level (2-tailed). * . Correlation is significant at 0.05 P level (2-tailed). DF=Days to 50% flowering; NL=leaf number ; NB= number of branches; FW=Fresh weight; DW=Dry weight; NN=Number of nodules; PH=plant height; LA= leaf area; DM=Days to 50% maturity; NP=number of pods per plant; NS=number of seed per pod; HS=Hundred seed weight; PL=Pod length; BM=biomass yield and GY=grain yield

4.5. Partial Budget Analysis

The estimated partial budget analysis revealed that economically most advantageous yield of soybean can be obtained with the application of 23/46 kg NP /ha with 400,000 plant population ha,⁻¹ which gave the highest MRR, 276 % and 623%, respectively, which is above the minimum acceptable MRR of 100%. This suggests that farmers in Kersa area and its surroundings can profitably produce soybean by applying the given rates. It also shows that blanket recommendation of NP 23/46 kg /ha is applicable, while plant population of 333333 plant/ha is no longer advisable for enhancing soybean production in Kersa Woreda (Tables 11 and 12).

Table: 11 Partial budget analysis for yield of Soybean in response to NP fertilizer application

NP rates Kg /ha	Attainable yield kg /ha	Adjusted Yield kg /ha	Gross Benefit Birr /ha	Total Variable Cost Birr /ha	Net Benefit Birr /ha	MRR (%)
23/23	1106.3	995.67	19913.4	0	19913.4	
23/46	1420.2	1278.18	25563.6	1500	24063.6	276%
46/46	1543.4	1389.06	27781.2	2800	24981.2	70%
69/69	1592.0	1432.80	25656	3500	25156.0	24%

The yield was adjusted by 10% adjustment coefficient.

Table 12 Partial budget analysis for yield of Soybean in response to Plant population

Plant population /ha (seed rate kg/ha)	Attainable yield kg /ha	Adjusted Yield kg /ha	Gross Benefit Birr /ha	Total Variable Cost Birr/ha	Net Benefit Birr /ha	MRR(%)
166667(28kg /ha)	1106.3	995.67	19913.4	0	19913.4	
200000(34kg /ha)	1224.3	1101.87	22037.4	1100	20937.4	93%
333333(56kg /ha)	1359.0	1223.1	24462	1500	22962	506%
400000(67kg /ha)	1519.8	1367.82	27356.4	1900	25456.4	623%

The yield was adjusted by 10% adjustment coefficient.

5. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

The results of the present study showed that plant population and NP fertilizer rate as well as their interaction had considerable influence on different growth and yield parameters of soybean in the experimental area. Growing soybean with optimum plant population and NP fertilizer could make an important contribution to increase production and productivity of the crop in areas where the use of using inorganic fertilizers and higher plant population is limited. To this end, optimum level plant population and NP fertilizer for soybean could be one of the alternatives to improve productivity by small farmers.

In the present study, it was observed that the interaction of plant population and NP fertilizer significantly influenced number of branches, number of nodules and number of pods per plant, hundred seed weight, pod length, biomass yield and grain yield. The highest number of nodules (8.66), hundred seed weight (21.3g), number of branches (8.06), number of pods per plant (67.26), pod length (8.80 cm), biomass yield (5491.7 kg/ha) and grain yield (1960.2 kg/ha) were recorded from 400000 plant/ha plant population and 23/46 kg/ha NP fertilizer while the lowest, number of nodules (3.36), hundred seed weight (21.3g), number of branches (2.26), number of pod per plant (25.66) and pod length (3.16) biomass yield (3075 kg/ha), and grain yield (1106.3 kg/ha) were recorded from 166667 plant/ha plant population and 23/23 kg/ha NP fertilizer. It was also observed that the effect of plant population and NP fertilizer have significant effects on days to 50% flowering, days to 50% maturity, leaf area, plant height, number of leaves, leaf fresh weight, leaf dry weight, number of seeds per pod and harvest index.

Accordingly, it was also noted that among the yield components, increase in number of pod per plant and number of seed per pod were responsible for the observed yield advantage. In contrast, application of NP and plant population did not have considerable effect on number of branches, number of nodules, hundred seed weight and pod length. In general, optimum plant population and NP fertilizer rate were effective in improving growth, yield, economic benefits, production and productivity of soybean.

Increased the rate NP fertilizer from 23/46 kg/ha to 69/69 kg/ha significantly increased days to 50% flowering and days to 50% physiological maturity. Similarly, at lower plant population

significantly it decreased days to 50 % flowering. The combined effect of 69 kg of NP/ha and 400,000 plants/ha increased plant height, number of pods and total biomass yield, but significantly decrease dry matter content of leaves.

The correlation analysis also showed that the positive relationship between growth and yield parameters were highly for the higher yield in the biomass yield and grain yield. Both growth and yield parameters were highly and positively correlated on each other. Results of this experiment indicated significant differences in grain yield and biomass yield per ha. The highest grain yield and biomass yield per hectare was recorded due to the combination of 46/46 kg/ ha NP fertilizer and 166667 plant population per ha, but grain yield for 23/46 NP fertilizer and 333,333 plants/ha was also statistically comparable.

These results generally suggested that applying NP fertilizer at a rate of 23/46 kg/ha can give higher yield of soybean in Kersa area under normal growing conditions. This was supported by a partial budget analysis where application of 23/46 kg/ha NP fertilizer and plant population of 400,000 plant /ha gave the highest MRR, of 276 % and 623%, respectively, which is above the minimum acceptable MRR of 100%, suggesting that farmers in Kersa area and its surroundings can profitably produce soybean by applying the given rates. This shows that blanket recommendation of NP 23/46 kg /ha is applicable, while plant population of 333333 plants/ha is no longer advisable for enhancing soybean production in Kersa Woreda.

In conclusion, the present study reveals that soybean seed yield depends on plant population and NP fertilizer rate. Crop dry matter accumulation and leaf area showed significant positive relationship with seed yield. In the present trial, the highest soybean yield was achieved at 23/46 kg/ha NP fertilizer and plant population of 400,000 plant /ha which was recommended for the Kersa areas who produce soybean.

Nonetheless, it is too early to arrive at a conclusive recommendation since the experiment was conducted only with one variety at a single location for one season. Hence, future studies that consider varying, season, location, soil types and different fertilizers and plant populations with a detail cost-benefit analysis are needed to develop optimal fertilizer recommendations for increased production and productivity of soybean in Southwestern part of Ethiopia.

6. REFERENCES

- Abate T., A. Alene, D. Bergvinson, S. Silim and Asfaw S., 2012. Tropical Legumes in Africa and South Asia: Knowledge and opportunities. TL II Research Report No. 1, ICRISAT Nairobi vi + 104 p
- Abebe M., 2007. Nature and management of acid soils in Ethiopia. www.eiar.gov.et/Soil/soils_acid.pdf Accessed on December, 18 , 2015.
- Abendroth L., R. Elmore and R. Ferguson., 2006. Soybean inoculation University of Nebraska-Lincoln Extension pub G1621. University of Nebraska-Lincoln
- Acikgoz E., A. Sincik, O. Karasu, G. Tongel, U. Wietgreffe, M. Bilgili, Z. Albayrak, M. Turan and A. Goksoy., 2009. Forage soybean production for seed in Mediterranean environments *Field Crops Res.***110**: 213–218.
- Agha S., F. Oad and U. Buriro., 2004. Yield and yield components of inoculated and un inoculated soybean under varying Nitrogen levels. *Asian J. of plant Sci.* **3(3)**: 370-371
- Akbari G., D. Scarisbrick and W. Peat., 2001. Soybean (*Glycine max (L.)*Merrill)yield and yield components response to nitrogen supply and weather changes in south-east of England. *Agron. Tehran, Iran J. Agric.*,**3**: (1) 15-32.
- Al-Abbas A. and S. Barber., 1964. A soil test for phosphorus based upon fractionation of soil phosphorus: I Correlation of soil phosphorus fraction with plant available phosphorus. *Soil Science Society of America Proceedings*,**28**: 218-221.
- Ali K., G. Kenneni, S. Ahmed, R. Malhotra, S. Beniwal, K. Makkouk and M. Halila, (Eds.), 2003. Food and forage legumes of Ethiopia: Progress and prospects Proceedings of the workshop of food and forage legumes, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia ICARDA, Aleppo
- Ali N., 2010. Soybean processing and utilization In G. Singh (Ed.), the soybean (PP. 345–374).CABI

Anonymous, 2010. Soil Test Interpretation Guide. Mhtml://D:\Doc\Soil Test Interpretation.mht.

Anonymous., 1995. Production year book 49 Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, Rome.P.106

Asfaw A., Tesfaye A., Alamrie S. and Atnaf M., 2006. Soybean genetic improvement in Ethiopia, PP. 22-26,

Asrat F., 1965. Progress Report on Cereals, Pulses and Oilseeds Research, Branch Experiment Station DebreZeit Ethiopia.

Awoddunn A., 2007. Effect of Poultry Manure on the Growth, Yield and Nutrient Content of Fluted Pumpkin (*Telfaria occidentalis* Wook F). *Asian J. Agric. Res.***1(2)**:67-73.

Ayolagha G., F. Kio-Jack, N. Isirimah., 2000. Remediation of Crude Oil Polluted Soils using Municipal Waste Compost for Soybean Production in Niger Delta, In Olaolu Babalola (ed) Soil Science Society of Nigeria proceedings Ibadan Oct. 30 - Nov.3rd 2000. PP.161-169

Ball R., L. Purcell and E. Vories., 2000. Optimizing soybean plant population for a short-season production system in the Southern USA. *Crop Sci.*,**40**: 757-764

Bekere W., Kebede T. and Dawud J., 2013. Growth and Nodulation Response of Soybean (*Glycin max L.*) to Lime, *Bradyrhizobium japonicum* and Nitrogen Fertilizer in Acid Soil at Melko, South Western Ethiopia. *Int. J. Soil sci.*,**8 (1)**: 25-31.

Bereke, W., and A. Hailemariam. 2012. Influence of inoculation methods and phosphorus levels on nitrogen fixation attributes and yield of soybean (*Glycine max L.*) at Haru western Ethiopia. *American Journal of Plant Nutrition and Fertilization Technology***2**:44-45.

Bertram M. and P. Pedersen., 2004. Adjusting management practices using glyphosate-resistant soybean cultivars. *Agron J.*,**96**: 462-468.

Board, J. 2000. Light interception efficiency and light quality affect yield compensation of soybean at low plant populations. *Crop Sci.* **40**:1285–1294. [CrossRef](#)

Board J. and B. Harville., 1992. Explanations for greater light interception in narrow-vs wide-row soybean. *Crop Sci.*,**32**:198–202.

Board J., B. Harville and M. Saxton., 1990. Narrow-row seed-yield enhancement in determinate soybean. *Agron J.*,**82**:64-68.

Bojović B. and A. Marković., 2009. Correlation between nitrogen and chlorophyll content in wheat (*TriticumaestivumL.*).*Kragujevac Journal of Science*,**31** ;69-74.

Boquet D., 1990. Plant population density and row spacing effects on soybean at post-optimal planting dates. *Agron J.*,**82**: 59–64

Brady N. and R. Weil., 2008. *The Nature and Properties of Soils* 14thed., Prentice Hall, Upper Saddle River, NJ, USA

Brady, N.C., and R.R.,Weil. 2002. *The nature and property ofsoils* (13 th ed) Pearson Education Ltd., USA.

Bureau of Planning and Economic Development of Oromia Region State (BPEDORS)., 2000. Physical and socio economic profile of 180 district of Oromia regions Physical Planning Development, Finfinne, PP 248-251

CACC(Central Agricultural Census Commission)., 2002. Report on the preliminary results of area, production and yield of temporary crops (Meher season, private peasant holdings) part I. Central Agricultural Census Commission, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, PP: 200.

Caliskan S., M. Aslan, I. Uremis and E. Caliskan., 2007. The effect of row spacing on yield and yield components of full season and double cropped soybean. *Turk J. Agric. For.*,**31**: 147-154.

Carpenter, A.C. and J.E. Board. 1997. Branch Yield Components Controlling Soybean Yield Stability Across Plant Populations. *Crop Sci.***37**:885-891.

Carsky R., B. Singh and R. Oyewole., 2001. Contribution of early–season cowpea to late season maize in the savanna zone of West Africa. *BiolAgricHort* ,**18**: 303-315

Chuansong L., 1990. Nitrogen fertilizer effect on marketable yield of vegetable soybean AVRDC-TOP 9th Training Report 1990 Kasetsart University, Bangkok, China PP. 1-4.

Collombet R., 2013, Investigating soybean market situation in Western Kenya: constraints and opportunities for smallholder producer Wageningen University, PP. 1-43

CIMMYT. 1988. From Agronomic Data to Farmer Recommendations: An Economics Training Manual. Revised edition. Mexico, D.F.: CIMMYT.

Cox W. and H. Cherney., 2011. Growth and Yield Responses of Soybean to Row Spacing and Seeding Rate. *Agron J.*, **103**:123-128.

CSA (Central Statistical Authority of Ethiopia). 2015. Statistical report on area and production of crops, farm management practices, farm implements, machineries and storage mechanisms. Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.

CSA (Central Statistical Authority)., 2013. Report on the preliminary results of area, production and yield of temporary crops. Central Statistical Authority, Ethiopia.

CSA (Central Statistical Authority)., 2007. Agricultural sample survey, Report on area and production of crops, Statistical Bulletin, **1(388)**:1-118. Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.

Dadson B. and G. Acquaaah., 1984. Rhizobium japonicum, nitrogen and phosphorus effects on nodulation symbiotic nitrogen fixation and yield of Soybean (*Glycine max L. Merrill*) in the southern Savanna of Ghana. *Field crops Research*, **9**: 101-112.

Desta B., 1986. Biological nitrogen fixation research on grain legumes in Ethiopia: An Overview. In: Beck, D.P. and Materon, L.A. (eds.). Proceedings of a Workshop on Biological Nitrogen Fixation on Mediterranean-Type Agriculture, Pp.73-78. April 14-17, 1986, ICARDA, Syria.

Devlin, D.L., D.L. Fjell, J.P. Shroyer, W.B. Gordon, B.H. Marsh, L.D. Maddux, V.L. Martin, and S.R. Duncan. 1995. Row spacing and seeding rates for soybean in low and high yielding environments. *J. Prod. Agric.* **8**:215–222.

Drevon J. and U. Hartwig., 1997. Phosphorus deficiency increases the argon-induced decline of nodule nitrogenase activity in soybean and alfalfa. *Planta*, **200**: 463-469.

EARO (Ethiopian Agricultural Research Organization), 2000. Three-year strategic plan and management of the Ethiopian Agricultural Research Organization, 2003/04-2006/07 EARO, Addis Ababa

EARO (Ethiopian Agricultural Research Organization), 2004. Directory of released crop varieties and their recommended culutural practices

Ebie SJ, Ayolagha GA (2006). Remediation of Crude Oil Polluted Soil using Organic and Inorganic Fertilizers for maize product in Yenagoa, Bayelsa State. M.Sc Thesis Department, of Crop/Soil Science, Faculty of Agriculture, Rivers State University of Science and Technology, Port Harcourt Rivers State Nigeria. pp. 6-20

Edwards, G.R., L.C. Purcell and D.E. Karcher, 2005. Soybean yield and biomass responses to increasing plant population among diverse maturity groups: II. Light interception and utilization. *Crop Sci.*, **45**: 1778-1785.

Epler M. and S. Staggenborg., 2008. Soybean yield and yield component response to plant density in narrow row systems on line Crop Management.doi:10.1094/CM-2008-0925-01-RS

Ezawa T., S. Smith and F. Smith., 2002. Plant metabolism and transport in AM fungi. *Plant Soil*,**244**:221-230.

FAO (Food and Agriculture Organization), 2011. Plant nutrition for food security: A guide for integrated nutrient management. FAO, Fertilizer and Plant Nutrition Bulletin 16, Rome.

FAO., 2008. Fertilizer and plant nutrition bulletin: Guide to laboratory establishment for plant nutrient analysis. FAO, Rome, Italy. 203PP. Accessed on November, 12 , 2015.

FASOSTAT (Food and Agricultural Organization of the United Nations), 2011. Retrieved from <http://faostat3.org/home/index/html>. Accessed on December, 18 , 2015.

FAOSTAT, 2010. Agriculture data, agricultural production. <http://faostat.fao.org/site/567/>, last accessed 3.1.2015.

Galarao M., 1992. Application of micronutrient and chalk on soybean yield on varzea. *Soil and fertilizer*, **55** (3): 11-14.

Gan Y., I. Stulen, H. VanKeulen and P. Kuiper., 2003. Effect of fertilizer top dressing at various reproductive stages on growth N₂ fixation and yield of three soybeans (*Glycine Max L.*) genotypes. *Field Crops Res.*, **80** (2):147-155.

Gardner J. and T. Payne., 2003. Soybean biotechnology outlook AgBioForum, 6(1&2), 13 Available on the World Wide Web: <http://www.agbioforum.org/>. Accessed on November, 10, 2015.

Gehl R., P. Schmitt, L. Maddux and B. Gordon., 2005. Corn yield response to Nitrogen rate and Timing in sandy Irrigated soils. Site visited on November 14, 2015.

Getachew K., Sisay T. and Tadesse D., 1987. Soybean variety demonstration. IAR research programs, Institute of Agriculture Research (IAR), Addis Ababa.

Giller K., 2001. Nitrogen fixation in tropical cropping systems Second Edition, CAB International, Wallingford, 423 PP

Goldstein A., 1994. Involvement of the quinoprotein glucose dehydrogenases in the solubilization of exogenous phosphates by gram-negative bacteria *IN*: A. Torriani Gorini, E. Yagil and S. Silver (eds.), Phosphate in Microorganisms: Cellular and Molecular Biology. ASM Press, Washington, D.C., PP 197-203

Gurmu F., 2010. Overview of Soybean Research in Ethiopia, Hawassa: SARI. Gyaneshwar, P., Kumar, G.N., Parekh, L.J. and Poole, P.S, Role of soil microorganisms in improving P nutrition of plants. *Plant Soil*, **245**:83-93.

Gurmu F., 2007. Participatory Varietal Selection of Haricot Beans (*Phaseolus Vulgaris*L) Varieties in UmbulloWacho and Beresa watersheds in the Southern Region Operational Research

- Gutiérrez-Boem F., J. Scheiner, H. Korsakov and R. Lavado., 2004. Late season nitrogen fertilization of soybeans: effects on leaf senescence, yield and environment. *Nutrient Cycling in Agroecosystems*, **68**: 109-115.
- Green-Tracewicz, E. 2010. Exploring the Role of the R: FR Ratio in Glycine max L. Merrill (Soybean)-Weed Competition. M.Sc. dissertation. Guelph, ON: University of Guelph. Pp. 47–75.
- Hailegiorgis B., 2010. Export performance of oilseeds and its determinants in Ethiopia Haramaya University, College of Agriculture and Environmental Science, Department of Agricultural Economics
- Hailu M. and Kelemu K., 2014. Trends in Soy Bean Trade in Ethiopia. *Research Journal of Agriculture and Environmental Management*,**3(9)**: 477-484.
- Hantolo C., 1995. Nitrogen fertilizer effect on yield component of vegetable soybean AVRDC-TOP 9th Training Report 1995. Kasetsart University, Bangkok, and Zambia, PP 1-4
- Hao X., C. Cho, G. Racz and C. Chang., 2002. Chemical retardation of phosphate diffusion in an acid soil as affected by liming. *NutrCycl Agro-ecosys.*,**64**: 213-224
- Haq. M.U., and A.P. Mallarino. 2000. Soybean Yield and Nutrient Composition as Affected by Early Season Foliar Fertilization. *Agron. J.* **92**:16-24.
- Harder D., C. Sprague and K. Renner., 2007. Effects of Soybean Row Width and Population on Weeds, Crop Yield, and Economic Return. *Weed Technol.*, **21**:744-752.
- Hartman G., E. West and T. Herman., 2011. Crops that feed the World Soybean-worldwide production, use, and constraints caused by pathogens and pests. *Food Sec.*, **3**:5–17
- Hartman G. and C. Hill., 2010. Diseases of soybean and their management. In G. Singh (Ed.),The soybean(PP. 276–299). CABI

Haru A. and Ethiopia W., 2012. Influences of Inoculation Methods and Phosphorus Levels on Nitrogen Fixation Attributes and Yield of Soybean (*Glycine max L.*). *American Journal of Plant Nutrition and Fertilization Technology*,**2(2)**: 45-55

Hassan A., 1987. Effects of water stress and inoculation on soybean (*Glycine max L. Merrill*) at two seasons' winter and Summer M.Sc. Thesis (Agric) U. of K., Sudan

Havlin J., D. Beaton, S. Tisdale and W. Nelson., 2005. Soil Fertility and Fertilizers: An Introduction to Nutrient Management. 7th edition, Prentice Hall publishers, PP 102 -107

Hesse P., 1971. A Text Book of Soil Chemical Analysis John Nurray Williams Clowes and sons Ltd. London 324 PP

Hiebsch C., K. Salumu, F. Gardner and K. Boote., 1990. Soybean canopy structure, light interception, and yield as influenced by plant height, row spacing, and row orientation. *Soil Crop Sci. Soc. Fl.* **49**:117-124.

Hungria M. and M. Vargas., 2000. Environmental factors affecting N₂ fixation in grain legumes in the tropics, with an emphasis on Brazil. *Field Crops Research*,**65**: 151-164.

Hymowitz T. and W. Shurtleff., 2005. Debunking soybean myths and legends in the historical and popular literature. *Crop Sci.*,**45**:473-476

IITA(International Institute for Tropical Agriculture , 2008. Thirty years R4D in soybean: what's next r4dreview.org/tag/soybean/ (accessed 14/07/2010) accessed date 15/09/2015

Imsande J., 1989. Rapid dinitrogen fixation during soybean pod fill enhances net photosynthetic output and seed yield: A new perspective. *Agronomy Journal.*,**81**: 549-556.

Isherword K., 1998. Fertilizer use and environment *In*: N. Ahmed and A. Hamid (eds.), Proc. Symp. Plant Nutrition Management for Sustainable Agricultural Growth NFDC, Islamabad. PP.57-76

Israel D., 1987. Investigations of the role of phosphorus in symbiotic di nitrogen fixation. *Plant Physiol.*,**84**: 835-840.

- Jackson, M. L. 1973. Soil Chemical Analysis. Prentice Hall Grice. Englewood Cliffs, USA. 284pp.
- Jagwe J. and G. Owuor., 2004. Evaluating the marketing opportunities for soybean and its products in the East African countries of asareca: Kenya Report International institute of Tropical Agriculture-foodnet
- Kamara A., R. Abaidoo, J. Kwari and L. Omoigui., 2007. Influence of phosphorus application on growth and yield of soybean genotypes in the tropical savannas of northeast Nigeria. *Arch. Agron. Soil Sci.*,**53**: 539-552
- Kasasa P., S. Mpeperekwi and K. Giller., 2000. “Quantification of nitrogen fixed by promiscuous soybean varieties under Zimbabwean field conditions”, in forum 4 working Document 1, Program extended abstracts, Fourth regional meeting of the Forum for Agricultural Husbandry; Lilongwe, Malawi.
- Kashturikrishna S. and P. Ahlawat., 1999. Growth and yield response of pea (*Pisumsativum*) to moisture stress, phosphorus, sulphur and zinc fertilizers. *Ind J Agron*,**44**: 588-596
- Kayhan F., P. Dutilleul and D. Smith., 1999. Soybean Canopy Development as Affected by PPD and Intercropping with Corn Fractal Analysis in Comparison with Other Quantitative Approaches. *Crop Science Journal*,**39**:1748-1791.
- Laswai HS, Mpagalile JJ, Silayo VCK, Ballegu WR, (2005) (a).Use of soybeans in food formulation in Tanzania. In: Myaka FA, Kirenga G, Malema B (eds) 2006. Proceedings of the First National Soybean Stakeholders Workshop, 10th-11th November 2005, Morogoro-Tanzania. Pp. 52–59.
- Liu X., J. Jin, G. Wang and S. Herbert., 2008. Soybean yield physiology and development of high-yielding practices in Northeast China. *Field Crops Research*, **105**: 157–171.
- Liu X., S. Herbert, K. Baath and A. Hashemi., 2006a. Soybean (*Glycine max*) seed growth characteristics in response to light enrichment and shading. *Plant, Soil and Environment*,**52**: 178–185.

Liu X., S. Herbert., Q. Zhang and A. Hashemi., 2006b. Yield-density relation of glyphosate-soya beans and their responses to light enrichment in north-eastern USA. *Journal of Agronomy and Crop Science*, **193**: 55–62.

Lueschen, W. E. and D. R. Hicks (1977). Influence of Plant Population on Field Performance of Three Cultivars. *Agron. J.* **69**: 389-393.

Mabika V. and K. Mariga., 1996. An overview of Soybean Research in the Small-Holder Farming Sector of Zimbabwe in: Soybean in the Small-Holder Cropping Systems in Zimbabwe, Mpepereki, S., K.E. Giller and F. Makonese (Eds.). Government Printers, Zimbabwe, PP: 12-17.

Malik M., A. Muhammed, S.Qureshi and R. Muhammad., 2011. Investigation and comparison of some morphological traits of the soybean population using clusteranalysis. *Pak . Journal Bot.* **43(2)** : 1249-1255.

Malik, M.A., M.A. Cheema, H.Z. Khan, and M.A. Wahid.2006.Growth and yield response of soybean to inoculation and Plevels. *J. Agric. Res.* 44(1): 47-56.

Maneechote P., 1991. Fertilizer effect on vegetable soybean yield AVRDC-TOP 9th Training Report 1991. Kasetsart University, Bangkok, Thailand P. 52-57.

Markos D., U. Pal and Uragie E., 2012. Dry Matter Partitioning, Nodulation and Seed Traits of Medium and Late Maturing Soybean Varieties as Affected by Planting Pattern and Plant Density. *Journal of Agricultural Science and Technology B*, **2**, 142–150.

Masuda, T. and Goldsmith, P. D. (2008). World soybean production, area harvested and long term projections. International food and agribusiness management review. 30 pages

Mesfin A., 1980. State of soil science development for agriculture in Ethiopia. *Ethiopian Journal of Agricultural Sciences*, **2**: 139-157.

Mohamed A., T. Ananthi, K. Subramanian and P. Muthukrishnan., 2011. Influence of mycorrhiza, nitrogen and phosphorus on growth, yield and economics of hybrid maize. *Madras Agric J.* **98 (1-3)**: 62-66.

Murphy J., and J.P. Riley. 1962. A modified single solution method for the determination of phosphate in natural waters. *Anal. Chem. Acta.***27**: 31-36.

Nelson D. and L. Sommers., 1996. Total carbon, organic carbon, and organic matter. In: Sparks, D.L., Page, A.L., Helmke, P.A., Loeppert, R.H., Soltanpour, P.N., Tabatabai, M.A., Johnston, C.T., Sumner, M.E. (Eds.), *Methods of Soil Analysis, Part 3. Chemical Methods*. Soil Sci. Soc. Am. Book Series, Number 5, Madison, WI, PP. 961–1010

Newman J., A. Mehretu, K. Shillington and R. Stock., 2007. ``Africa'' Microsoft Student 2008. [DVD] Microsoft Corporation. Redmond, WA

Norman M., J. Pearson and P. Searle., 1995. *The Ecology of Tropical Food Crops*. 2nd Ed

Nyoki D. and P. Ndakidemi., 2014. Effects of *Bradyrhizobium japonicum* inoculation and supplementation phosphorus on macronutrients uptake in cowpea (*Vigna unguiculata* [L.] Walp). *American Journal of Plant Sciences*, **5**: 442–451.

O'Hara G., R. Yates and J. Howieson., 2002. Selection of strains of root nodule bacteria to improve inoculant performance and increase legume productivity in stress full environments In: Herridge D (Ed) *Inoculants and Nitrogen fixation of legumes in Vietnam. ACIAR Proceedings*, 109e: PP. 75-80.

O'Hara G., 2001. Nutritional constraints on root nodule bacteria affecting symbiotic nitrogen fixation: a review. *Aust. J. Exp. Agric.* **41**: 417-433.

Ochulor U., 1999. Effect of phosphorus fertilizer nodulation and yield of soybean cultivars in acid soil of south eastern Nigeria Department of crop and soil sciences, Federal University of Agriculture, Umudike

Ogema M., 1988. "Oil crop Production in Kenya: Vegetable Oil/Protein System program working paper series", Egerton University,; Njoro, Kenya.

Ogoke I., R. Carsky, A. Togun and K. Dashiell., 2003. Maturity Class and P Effects on Soybean grain yield in the moist savanna of West Africa. *J. Agron. Sci.* **189**: 422-427.

Ogunlela V., S. Ogendegeb, O. Olunjafo and E. Odion., 2012. Seed yield and yield attributes of lablab (*Lablab purpureus L. Sweet*) as influenced by phosphorus application, cutting height and age of cutting in semi-arid environment. *Asian J. Crop Sci.*,**4**: 12-22

Oladejo A.S., R. Akinwale and I.Obisesan., 2011. Interrelationship between grain yield and other physiological traits of cowpea cultivars. *African Crop Science Journal*. **19, 3**: 189-200.

Olsen S., C. Cole, F. Watanabe and L. Dean., 1954. Estimation of available phosphorus in soils by extraction with sodium bicarbonate. USDA Circular Nr 939, US Gov. Print Office, Washington, and D.C

Oplinger E. and B. Philbrook., 1992. Soybean planting date, row width and seeding rate response in three tillage systems. *J. Prod. Agric.***5**: 94-99.

Orellana M., R. Barber and O. Diaz., 1990. Effect of deep tillage and fertilization on soyabean. *J. Agron. Crop Sci.***190**: 216 - 223.

Osborne S. and W. Riedell., 2006. Soybean growth response to low rates of nitrogen applied at planting in the Northern Great Plains. *Journal of Plant Nutrition*, **29**, 985-1002 <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/01904160600686007>, Accessed on December, 16, 2015.

Page, A.L., Miller R.H. and Keeney D.R (eds). 1982. Methods of Soil Analysis. Part 2. Chemical and Microbiological Properties. 2nd ed. Agronomy Series 9. ASA. SSSA, Madison, Wis., U.S.A.

Patel S., M. Naik and V. Chandra., 1992. Effect of nitrogen and phosphorus levels on growth, yield and protein content of soybean (*Glycin Max L.*). *J.Oilseeds Res.***9 (2)**: 202-208.

Pedersen P., 2008. Soybean plant population Iowa State University Extension, <http://extension.agron.iastate.edu>, Accessed on May , 18 , 2015.

Pedersen P. and C. Lauer., 2003. Corn and soybean response to rotation sequence, row spacing, and tillage System. *Agron J.* **95**:965-971

Rahman M., M. Mwakangwale., J. Hampton and M. Hill., 2004. The effect of plant density on seed yield of two cool tolerant soybean cultivars in Canterbury. *Agron.*,**34**: 149-159.

Rajcan I., G. Hou and A. Weir., 2005. Advances in Breeding of Seed-Quality Traits in Soybean. In: Manjit and Kang (Eds.). Genetic and Production Innovations in Field Crop Technology: New Developments in Theory and Practice Food Products Press, 145-174.

Ray J., L. Heatherly and F. Fritsch., 2005. Influence of large amounts of nitrogen applied at planting on non-irrigated and irrigated soybean. *Crop Sci.***46**: 52–60.

Richardson A., 2001. Prospects for using soil microorganisms to improve the acquisition of phosphorus by plants. *Aust J. Plant Physio.* **128**: 897–906

Robinson S. and J. Wilcox., 1998. Comparison of determinate and indeterminate soybean near-isolines and their response to row spacing and planting date. *Crop Sci.***38**:1554-1557

Sadeghipour, O. and Abbasi, S. 2012. Soybean response to drought and seed inoculation. *Tehran, Iranian World Applied Science Journal***17** (1): 55-60

Salvagiotti F., J. Specht, K. Cassman, D. Walters, A. Weiss and A. Dobermann., 2009. Growth and nitrogen fixation in high-yielding soybean: impact of nitrogen fertilization. *Agron J.***101**:958-970

Salvagiotti F., K. Cassman, J. Specht, D. Walters, A. Weiss and A. Dobermann., 2008. Nitrogen uptake, fixation and response to fertilizer N in soybeans: A review. *Field Crops Res.* **108**:1–13.

Schulze J., G. Temple, S. Temple, H. Beschow and C. Vance., 2006. Nitrogen fixation by white lupin under phosphorus deficiency. *Ann. Bot.* **98**: 731-740

Shurtleff, W. and Aoyagi, A. (2007). The Soybean Plant: Botany, Nomenclature, Taxonomy, Domestication and Dissemination. Soy info Center, California. 40pp.

Sharma H., S. Nahatkar and M. Patel., 1996. Constraints of soybean production in Madhya Pradesh: An analysis. *BhartiyaKrishiAnusandhanPatrika*, **11** (2): 79-84.

- Shumba-Mnyulwa D., 1996. Soybean in some semi-arid communal areas of Zimbabwe: Production and utilisation. Proceedings of the Preparatory Workshop on Research into Promiscuous-nodulating Soybean, February 8-9, 1996, University of Zimbabwe, Harare, pp: 18-21.
- Shurtleff W. and A. Aoyagi., 2009 History of soybeans and soy foods in Africa (1857-2009). Soy Info Center ISBN: 978-19289114-25-9 Lafayette, CA
- Sinclair T., H. Marrou, A. Soltani and V. Valdez.,2014. Soybean production in Africa. *Glob Food Biol.*, doi:10.1016/j.fgs.11.
- Sinclair, T.R., Vadez, V., 2012. The future of grain legumes in cropping systems. *Crop Pasture***63**, 501–512.
- Smith K. and W. Huyser., 1987. World Distribution and Significance of Soybean P. 1. In J.R. Wilcox (ed.) soybeans: Improvement, Production, and Uses. Second Edition
- Starling M., C. Wood and D. Weaver., 2000. Late-planted soybeans respond to nitrogen starter. *Fluid J.***28**:26–30
- Tahir M., M. Abbasi., N. Rahim., A. Khaliq and M. Kazmi., 2009. Effect of Rhizobium inoculation and NP fertilization on growth, yield and nodulation of soybean (*Glycine max* L.) in the sub-humid hilly region of Rawalakot Azad Jammu and Kashmir, Pakistan. *Afr. J. Biotechnol.*,**8**: 6191-6200.
- Tamiru S., M. Lalit and Tsige A., 2012. Effects of inoculation by Brady rhizobium japonicum strains on nodulation, nitrogen fixation, and yield of soybean (*Glycine max* L. Merrill) varieties on Nitisols of Bako, Western Ethiopia. *International Scholarly Research Network* : 1-8.
- Tarekegne A. and D. Tanner., 2001. Effects of fertilizer application on N and P uptake, recovery and use efficiency of bread wheat grown on two soil types in central Ethiopia. *Ethiopian J. Nat. Resour.*, **3**: 219-244

Taylor, F., N.J. Philadelphia. 2006. The effects of phosphorus supply on growth, N₂ fixation, and soil N uptake by soybean (*Glycine max (L.) Merrill.*) Soil sci. div., dep. agriculture, Bangkok, Thilande.

Taylor H., 1980. Soybean growth and yield as affected by row spacing and by seasonal water supply. *Agron J.*,**72**: 543-547

Tesfaye A., M. Githiri, J. Derera and Debele T., 2011. Subsistence farmers' experience and perception about the soil and fertilizer use in Western Ethiopia. *Ethiopian Journal of Applied Sciences and Technology***2**: 61-74.

Tesfaye A., M. Githiri., J. Derera and Debele T., 2010. Smallholder Farmers' perception and experience on the importance, consumption and market of soybean in Western Ethiopia. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Rural Development*, **20**: 125-139.

Tesfaye A., 2007. A terminal report submitted to Ethiopian institute of agricultural research and Jimma agricultural research center upon leave for further studies. January 2007. Jimma, Ethiopia.

Thoenes P., 2014. "Soybean International Commodity Profile, Markets and Trade Division Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations", PP. 1-25.

Thomas D. and N. Erostat., 2008. Soybean Research in Africa for 30 years IITA Research for development review, [http://www IITA Research](http://www.IITA.org)

Tola P., 1995. Urea fertilizer and variety effect on vegetable soybean yield AVRDC- TOP 9th Training Report. AVRDC-TOP, Kasetsart University, Bangkok, Cambodia PP. 1-3. University press Khartoum Sudan

Tripathi B., R. Hazra and C. Srivas., 1992. Effect of nitrogen sources with and without phosphorus on oats. *Indian J. Agric. Res.*,**25(2)**: 79-84.

Uchida R., 2000. Essential nutrients for plant growth: Nutrient functions and deficiency symptoms. Plant nutrient management in Hawaii's soils. College of Tropical Agriculture and Human Resources, University of Hawaii at Manoa: 31-55.

- Van Ranst E., M. Dumon, Tolossa A., J. Cornelis, G. Stoops, R. Vandenberghe and J. Deckers., 2011. Revisiting ferrollysis processes in the formation of Planosols for rationalizing the soils with stagnic properties in WRB. *Geoderma*, 163: 265
- Van Reeuwijk L.P., 1992. Procedures for Soil Analyses. 3rd Edition. Int. Soil Reference and Information Centre Wageningen (ISRIC). The Netherlands. P.O. Box 353, 6700 AJ Wageningen.
- Vance C., 2002. Symbiotic nitrogen fixation and phosphorus acquisition Plant nutrition in a world of declining renewable resources. *Plant Physiol.*, **127**: 390-397.
- Varon R., B. Munoz, Z. Covaleda and U. Medina., 1984. Effect of level and stage of N fertilizer application and Rhizobium inoculation on soybean field in Ibague Revista Institute Colombians. *Agropecuaria*, **19(3)**: 291-295.
- Verdoot., 2009. Farmer's guide to soybean production in Rwanda – e Rails.
- Wantanabe I., K. Tabuchi and H. Nakano., 1983. Response of soybean to supplemental nitrogen after flowering. In proceeding of symposium soybean in tropical and subtropical cropping systems, held at Tsaukaba, Japan during 25 September- 1 October 1983. 301-308.
- Wall G., A. Hellesten and K. Huss-Danell., 2000. Nitrogen, phosphorus and the ratio between them affect nodulation in *Alnus incana* and *W. folium-prattense*. *Symbiosis*, **29**: 91-105
- Weaver D., R. Akridge and A. Thomas., 1991. Growth habit, planting date, and row-spacing effects on late-planted soybean. *Crop Sci.* **31**:805-810
- Whigham K., “1974. Soybean Production, Protection, and Utilization”, Proceedings of a Conf. for Scientists of Africa, The Middle East, and South Asia, University of Illinois International Soybean Program Urbana, Illinois 61801, PP.1-266.
- Whingwiri E., 1986. Small Scale Soybean Production in Communal and Small-Holder Sectors in: Soybeans in Southern Africa, Cole, D.C. (Ed.). University of Zimbabwe, Harare: 13-17

Wold-maskel E., 2007. Genetic Diversity of Rhizobia in Ethiopian Soils: Their Potential to Enhance Biological Nitrogen Fixation (BNF) and Soil Fertility for Sustainable Agriculture. *Ethiopian Journal of Biological Sciences*, **6** (1): 77-95.

Wood C., A. Torbert and D. Weaver., 1993. Nitrogen fertilizer effects on Soybean Growth, Yield and Seed Composition. *Journal of Production Agriculture*, **6**(3).

Woomer L., F. Baijukya and A. Turner., 2012. Progress towards Achieving the Vision of Success of N2Africa www.N2Africa.org 23 PP

Worku M. and Astatkie T., 2011. Row and Plant Spacing Effects on Yield and Yield Components of Soybean Varieties under Hot Humid Tropical Environment of Ethiopia. *Journal of Agronomy and Crop Science*, **197**, 67–74

Xuewen T., 1990. Effect of Nitrogen Fertilizer level on Soybean yield AVRDC-TOP 9th Training Report Kasetsart University, Bangkok, Thailand PP. 1-5.

Yusuf I. and A. Idowu., 2001. Evaluation of four soybean varieties for performance under different lime regimes on the acid soil of Uyo Trop. *Oil Seeds J.* **6**:65-70.

Zafar M., K. Abbasi, N. Rahim, A. Khaliq, A. Shaheen, M. Jamil and M. Shahid., 2013. Influence of integrated phosphorus supply and plant growth promoting rhizobacteria on growth, nodulation, yield and nutrient uptake in *Phaseolus vulgaris*. *Afr. J. Biotechnol.*, **10**: 16781-16792

7. APPENDIX

Appendix Table 1. Summary of soil Lab results for the experimental field

Soil property	
Particle size distribution	
% and textural class	
Sand	23
Clay	57
Silt	20
Chemical soil property	
pH	4.25
Total N(%)	0.18
OM(%)	3.01
P (ppm)	4
CEC(me/100g)	20.5

N=Total Nitrogen, OM=Organic Matter, P=Available Phosphorus, CEC(me/100g) cation exchange capacity

Appendix Table 2: Preliminary ANOVA for response of soybean to the combined treatment in a RCBD with three replications

Variable	Source of variation		
	Replication	Treatment	Error
Degree of freedom	2	15	30
Days to flower	72.66	206.53**	15.40
Leaf number	169.24	233.21**	29.00
Branch number	0.8	9.63**	0.84
Fresh Wt	1632.44	208.47**	57.19
Dry Wt	13.18	5.94NS	3.53
Node number	9.69	6.65**	1.09
Plant height	11.41	137.41NS	96.66
Leaf area	4371.26	774.66**	189.82
Days to maturity	219.34	401.17**	47.67
Number of Pod	66.04	430.52**	45.58
Number of seed	845.28	388.55NS	206.27
100-seed weight	81.31	153.30**	12.18
Pod length	3.379	8.020**	0.843
Biomass	480638	918347.22**	256651.91
Grain Yield	23034.16	188733.66**	27662.89
Harvest Index	0.007	0.004NS	0.002

*** highly significant (P< 0.001), ** highly significant (P<0.01), *Significant (P< 0.05), Ns = non-significant difference,

Appendix Table 3: Summary of ANOVA for soybean growth variables in 4 x 4 factorial experiment involving four levels of plant population and NP fertilizer in a RCBD with three replications

Plant variable	Source of variations					
	Replication	Treatment	Pop	NP	Pop x NP	Error
Degree of freedom	2	15	3	3	9	30
Days to flower	72.66	206.53**	15.14NS	1005.21**	4.10NS	15.40
Days to maturity	219.34	401.17**	595.47**	1149.86**	86.85NS	47.67
Plant height	11.41	137.41NS	38.86NS	378.90*	89.76NS	96.66
Number of branch	0.8	9.63**	4.11**	35.65**	2.80**	0.84
Leaf number	169.24	233.21**	98.91*	1000.93**	22.06NS	29.00
Leaf area	4371.26	774.66**	1355.07**	1867.49**	216.91NS	189.82
Leaf fresh weight	1632.44	208.47**	648.80**	21.02NS	120.85NS	57.19
Leaf dry weight	13.18	5.94NS	20.44**	0.09NS	3.05NS	3.53
Number of nodule	9.69	6.65**	1.92NS	23.34**	2.66*	1.09
Number of pod	66.04	430.52**	165.59*	1444.76**	180.76**	45.58
Pod length	3.379	8.020**	2.47*	26.78**	3.62**	0.843
Number of seed	845.28	388.55NS	283.73NS	1530.77**	42.74NS	206.27
Seed weight	81.31	153.30**	151.32**	464.10**	50.37**	12.18
Biomass yield	480638	918347.22**	611979.17NS	2204618.06**	591712.96*	256651.91
Grain yield	23034.16	188733.66**	261851.82**	473660.31**	69385.38*	27662.89
Harvest index	0.0068	0.004NS	0.009*	0.004NS	0.002NS	0.002

*** highly significant (P< 0.001), ** highly significant (P<0.01), *Significant (P< 0.05), Ns = non-significant difference,