CHAPTER - V

SOIL RESOURCES OF THE STUDY AREA

PREAMBLE

Soils are one of the most precious resources of the earth, while forming a carpet of variable thickness over the land, it has sustained a succession of varied life-forms and civilizations, providing food, fodder, fuel and fibre, storing life-giving water, supporting shelters and dwellings and all other major and minor man built structures. It is integrally and intimately connected with the rocks beneath, the vegetation growing above and water percolating through it (Valdiya, 1987).

Soils consist of products of the weathering of rocks, intermixed with living organisms and the product of their decay, the moisture and air filling the interstitial space. It thus, has a microclimate of its own. The silt particles constitute the framework (skeleton), the clays (such as montmorillonite, illite, kaolinite, etc.) and the organic matter (humus) hold together the frame work, serving as the nutrient base. The colloidal clays and the humus are endowed with the ability of cation as well as anion exchange, and are thus chemically active; they also hold molecules of water which form a sort of atmosphere around the clay particles. It is these water attracting and holding capabilities of the colloidal clays and humus that keep the soil moist even during the drier seasons and permit microbial activities. It is undeniably a living system (Valdiya, 1987).

According to Charles E. Kellog, Chief of Soil Survey, U.S.A., "Soil is that thin film between earth and sky that supports all living things. Beneath lie the sterile rocks, above it are the air and sunshine. From it, all plants and animals, and man himself draw their nourishment, either directly or indirectly from other things that live in soil. There is no life without soil, and no soil without life" (in Narayan and Shah, 1986).

Hilgard, another great American scientist, gave an edaphic definition of soil as : "the more or less loose and friable material in which, by means of their roots, plants may or do find foothold and nourishment as well as other conditions of growth" (in Narayan and Shah, 1966).

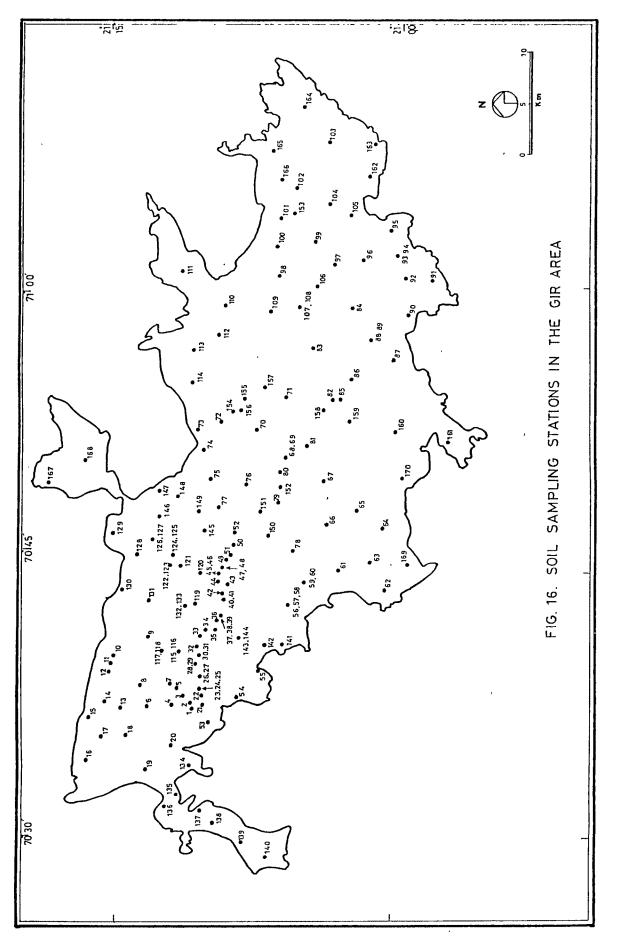
Joffe (1936), a representative of the Russian school of soil that "The soil is science states a natural body, horizons of mineral differentiated into and organic constituents, usually unconsolidated, of variable depth, which differs from the parent material below in morphology, physical properties and constitution, chemical properties and composition, and biological characteristics".

One reason for the lack of concern for soils is the different concepts as to what soils are (Brady, 1990). Thus, the definition of soil is a relative term, as a geologist considers it as the upper part of the weathering mantle (regolith) resting on the bed rock and containing inorganic and organic nutrients. A civil engineer looks upon it as a superficial material which can be easily removed without resorting to blasting by explosives. But according to an environmentalist, soil is a dynamic living layer which forms the foundation of all ecosystems.

Methodology

In general, the soils of the study area are of `in situ' or `zonal' category. The soil study was carried out by using 1:50,000 scale Survey of India Topographical Map Nos. 41 K/8, K/11, K/12, K/15, K/16; L/9 & 10, L/13; O/4, and P/1, as a base. Traverses were made along available roads or approaches taking into consideration the variation in topography. All permanent reference points such as villages/ness, streams, temples, roads, railways, etc., indicated on the base map were made use of for the location of sampling sites. Soil samples were taken at frequent intervals (Fig. 16), according to the change in geomorphic units, colour, past erosional conditions, slope and the surface conditions.

Since the study area is extremely rugged and thickly vegetated, complete soil profiles were difficult to get. As the study area forms a wildlife sanctuary, digging of pits



for study of soil profiles was not permitted by the Forest Department officials. However, in general, the soil cover in most of the areas was thin, and the samples were collected from a depth of 15-30 cm, with the help of a hand auger or by digging, for both physical and chemical studies, to augment the morphological observations in the field.

PHYSICAL PROPERTIES

The following physical properties were studied:

- (1) Soil colour,
- (2) Soil texture, and
- (3) Soil moisture.

(1) Soil colour

Colour is the most obvious and easily determined of soil characteristics. The significance of soil colour is almost entirely an indirect measure of other more important characteristics or qualities that are not so easily and accurately observed. For example, the content of organic matter in soil is a characteristic that is commonly indicated only approximately by soil colour.

Soil colours are most conveniently measured by comparison with a colour chart. In the present study, Munsell Soil Colour Chart (1954) was used to determine the soil colour. The arrangement is by `hue', `value', and `chroma'-the three simple variables that combine to give all colours.

Hue-is the dominant spectral (rainbow) colour. The hue notation of a colour indicates its relation to red, yellow, green, blue and purple.

Value - refers to the relative lightness of colour and is a function, (approximately the square root) of the total amount of light.

Chroma - (sometimes called saturation) is the relative purity or strength (or departure from a neutral of the same lightness) of the spectral colour and increases with decreasing grayness.

The different colour notations for the soils, of the study area are given in Table : 7.

(2) Soil Texture

Soil texture is determined by carrying out particle size analysis. Particle size analyses are also referred to as particle size distribution (PSD) tests, sizing tests or mechanical analyses (MA) tests. Two separate and quite different procedures are used, in order to scan the very wide range of particle sizes which are encountered. These are the sieving and sedimentation procedures. Sieving cannot be used for the very much smaller silt and clay size (fine) particles, so a sedimentation procedure is used instead. Measurements are made either by sampling a suspension with a special pipette (the pipette method), or by determining its density with a special hydrometer (the hydrometer method).

General Principle

Mechanical analysis separates the inorganic mineral portion of soil into classified grades according to particle size and determines their relative proportions by weight.

As the study area comprises of soils containing both coarse and fine particles, composite tests using both sieving and sedimentation by hydrometer methods were carried out for particle size analysis (IS:2720 part IV, 1975; Head, 1980).

Methodology

A 100 gm air-dry soil sample is first passed through ASTM sieve No.10 (2 mm) to separate coarse fragments (i.e. material retained on 2 mm sieve). The amount of coarse fragments (gravels) is then calculated in percentage. Before proceeding with the hydrometer sedimentation test, the soil is chemically treated to remove organic matter, and possible calcareous matter using a dispersent followed by thorough agitation, to ensure that discrete particles are separated. The following reagents are used for the pretreatment test :

- (1) Hydrogen peroxide (20 volume solution),
- (2) `standard' dispersent solution i.e. 33 gm of sodium hexametaphosphate and 7 gm of sodium carbonate in distilled water to make 1 litre, and
- (3) Hydrochloric acid (N solution).

The pretreated soil is then transferred to a 1000 ml measuring cylinder and made upto exactly 1000 ml with distilled water. This suspension is then used for the sedimentation analysis. With knowledge of the settling velocity, Stoke's law is used to calculate the radius of the particles as they settle and the percentage of each size fraction in the sample.

The principle involved is simple. When soil particles are suspended in water, they tend to sink. Because there is little variation in the density of most soil particles, their velocity (v) of settling is proportional to the square of the radius (r) of each particle. Thus, according to Stoke's law $V = Kr^2$.

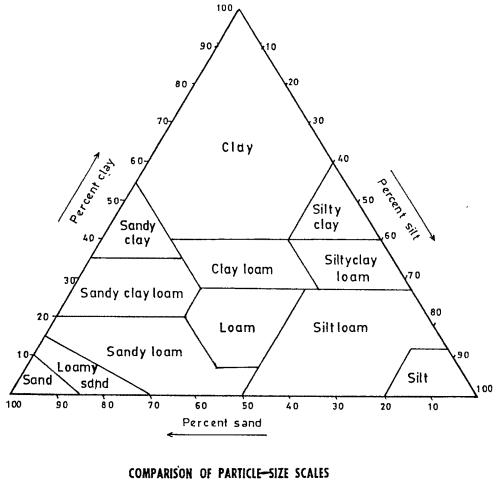
In connection with soil classification based on grain size characteristics, different names are assigned viz. gravel, sand, silt, and clay to different grain size fractions (Fig. 17).

Particle-size analysis was carried out in the Soil Mechanics Division, Gujarat Engineering Research Institute, Baroda.

Textural Classification

Soil texture refers to the relative proportions of the various size groups of individual soil grains in a mass of soil. Specifically, it refers to the proportions of clay, silt, and sand below 2 mm in diameter. Classification of composite soils exclusively based on the particle size distribution is known as textural classification. The best known triangular textural classification given by the United States Department of Agriculture (U.S.D.A., 1966) is followed in this text (Fig. 17). The classification is based on the percentage of sand, silt and clay size fractions (Table 7 & 8).

The results obtained from particle size analyses were plotted on the triangular textural classification to record the various soil types of the study area (Figs 18,19,20,21,& 22). Three broad groups of these classes are recognized; sands, loams, and clays. Within each group, specific textural class



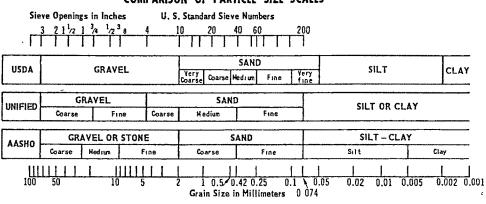


FIG. 17. GUIDE FOR TEXTURAL CLASSIFICATION (USDA, 1966)

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/4 13.4 LOAM /.// 0.12 0.46 L 0.6/ 0.13 0.007 62.3 L 6 15.1 LOAM 7.50 0.12 0.48 L 0.65 0.15 0.0075 55.0 L	10 YR 3/2		Baa		22.2	0.12	0.43	: 	0.65	0.13	0.0055	ୟ କୁନ୍ଦୁ	:	4	. ب ا
	IV TK //4		Loam		7.50	김 김 - 0	0.48 0.48	J	0.65 0.65	0.15	0.0075	22.0	نے اب	9.9 9.9	بہ بہ

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	Texture	
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	Moisture %	86.53 8.55
able-7 contd.	Colour	5 YR 2/4 5 YR 4/8 10 YR 5/3 10 YR 5/3 10 YR 3/4 55 YR 2/4 75 YR 2/4 75 YR 2/4 75 YR 2/4 755 YR 2/4
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Colour	Mo1sture X	·	Texture	Ħ	ບ. ພັ [%]	Organic Ca X	Carbon Grade	បឹង	D× X	eN N	k₂0 kg/Ac 6	rade	kg/Ac ⁵ 6	6rade
05 YR 4/8 7.5 YR 4/4 10 YR 6/4 7.5 YR 4/4		Silt lo Sandy lo	Can Dan Loan Dan	7.50	0.00	0.62 0.46 0.18	x:	1.050	0.210 0.150 0.120 0.120	0.020 0.080 0.070 0.070 0.020	50.00 50.00 50.00 50.00 50 50 50 50 50 50 50 50 50 50 50 50 5	نب این اس این	04.0 14.0 14.0	lern
7.5 YR 4/4 5.0 YR 4/4 7.5 YR 4/4				299.02 99.02	8999	0.78	*****	069.0	0.150	0.000	92-91 8-5-81	، اس اس ا	14.00	: 30: 30: 30: 3
7.5 YR 4/6 5.0 YR 3/3 10 YR 7/6 7.5 YR 4/4		Clay 10 Coam Bandy 1 Sandy 1 Sandy 1 Sandy 1 Sant 10	Dan Ican Ican Can	7.70	0.000 0.000 0.000	0.94 0.31 94 0.34 0.34	xx	0.720 0.700 0.710 0.710 0.720	0.170		2009-138 100-139 100-130	- -	14-0 14-0 14-0 14-0 14-0 14-0 14-0 14-0	E XI XI XI XI XI
153 10 YR 3/3 154 5.0 YR 3/2 155 5.0 YR 4/6 156 5.0 YR 3/3 157 7.5 YR 5/2		Loam Silt cl Loam Clay lo Silt lo	lay loan can can	88855 88855	0.08 0.08 0.08	0.79 1.56 0.88 0.88	XXXX	0.800 800 830 830 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9	0.140 0.180 0.180 0.180	0.050 0.050 0.050 0.050 0.050	6.050 6.050 6.050 6.050	اس اس اس اس ا	16.0 16.8 0.4 0.4 0.4 0.4 0.4 0.4 0.4 0.4 0.4 0.4	eeee
7.5 YR 6/8 5.0 YR 4/6 5.0 YR 4/6 5.0 YR 5/8 10 YR 5/4	10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 1	Sandy Loam Loam Loam Loam	loan	- 	0.00.000 51.000 61.0000 61.0000 61.0000	0.17 0.19 0.84 0.60 0.81 0.60	س س ۲ ۲ ۲ ۲	1.050 0.550 0.051 0.058 0.058	0.130 0.003 0.003 0.003 0.003 0.003 0.003	0.020 0.020 0.020 0.020 0.020 0.020 0.020 0.020	୶ଌୢୢଢ଼ୢୢୢୢୢୢୡୢୄୡୢ ଽ୶ୢୄୖୄୄୢୄୢୄୄୄୄୄୡୢ	ᆈᆈᆍᆈᄣᄣ	444444 90000000000000000000000000000000	XZJEXE
7.5 YR 4/2 5.0 YR 4/8 10 YR 3/3 10 YR 4/3 7.5 YR 4/4		Sandy Loam Sandy Sandy	loans cans loans loans	7 30	0.00	0.50 0.93 0.93 0.93 0.95 0.95 0.95 0.95 0.95 0.95 0.95 0.95	: x x x _ J	0.058 0.058 0.081 0.081	0.003	0.000	50.0 50.0 50.0 50.0 50.0 50.0 50.0 50.0	:≖ചച⊻≖	ය. දේ සි සි සි සි සි සි සි සි සි සි සි සි ස	TETT
7.5 YR 3/2 7.5 YR 4/2		Silt l Loam	Dan	7.40	0.06 0.32	0.45 0.43	- 1	0.080	0.015	0.090	78.0 46.0	نہ ع د	20.6	EX

M = Medium H = High

Sr.No. = Location code L = Low

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Textural Analysis of the soils

		- *** ***						
Sr. No.		F	Fraction	ns in	percen	tage		
NO.	Gravel		San	d		Silt	Clay	Texture
		Coarse	Medium	Fine	Total			
1		09	13	30	52	37	11	Sandy loam
5	_	13	15	06	34	37	29	Clay loam
з	-		12	30	42	50	08	Loam
4	-		11	24	35	45	20	Loam
5	-		09	38	47	44	09	Loam
6			13	28	41	42	17	Loam
7	-	10	16	16	42	40	18	Loam
8		09	19	12	40	40	20	Loam
9	-	30	17	09	56	26	18	Sandy loam
10	-	30	42	10	82	16	02	Loamy sand
11		04	06	06	16	62	22	Silt loam
12		04	26	18	48	45	07	Loam
13	-	19	28	08	55	35	10	Sandy loam
14	-	15	37	21	73	23	04	Sandy loam
15	10	14	31	11	56	23	11	Sandy loam
16	_	06	28	16	50	30	50	Loam
17		08	26	16	50	37	13	Loam
18	-	02	22	37	61	30	09	Sandy loam
19	_	02	20	22	44	52	04	Silt loam
20	_	02	06	14	22	57	21	Silt loam
21	_	24	28	08	60	26	14	Sandy loam
25		10	07	07	24	43	33	Clay loam
23		08	07	07	26	40	34	Clay loam
24	_	12		12	40	30	30	Clay loam
	-		16					•
25	16	13	21	16	50	30	04	Sandy loam
26		EО	12	20	35	50	15	Silt loam
27	-	02	15	23	40	50	10	Silt loam
28	-		07	39	46	47	07	Loam
29	-	05	35	10	50	40	10	Loam
30		10	35	14	56	34	10	Sandy loam
31	-	17	35	18	70	20	10	Sandy loam
32	09	08	19	13	40	34	17	Loam
33		02	07	12	21	58	21	Silt loam
34	-	15	25	20	60	30	10	Sandy loam
35	-	01	05	08	14	52	34	Silt clay loam
36		04	21	28	53	38	09	Sandy loam
37	-	-	05	37	42	51	07	Silt loam
38	-	02	16	17	35	60	05	Silt loam
39		01	13	20	34	52	14	Silt loam
40	-	01	05	12	18	64	18	Silt loam

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•		F	Fractior	ns in	percen	tage		
•	Gravel							lexture
		Coarse	Medium	Fine	Total			
1		02	08	10	20	 60	20	Silt loam
5	-		17	02	30	45	25	Loam
Э	-	02	12	11	25	58	17	Silt loam
4		02	15	Ů6	23	62	15	Silt loam
5		01	13	11	25	55	20	Silt loam
6		02	11	14	27	52	21	Silt loam
7		-	04		20		28	Silt clay loam
8	_	-	04		10		30	,
9		01	05	05	11	49		
Ó	-	01	03	05	09	56	35	
1	_	02	04	07	13	45	42	Silty clay
2		12	24	10	46	37	17	Loam
З	-	-	12	24	З6	55	09	Silt loam
4		05	15	24	44		15	Loam
5	-	_	07	41	48		05	Sandy loam
6		01	06	07	14	70	16	Silt loam
7	-	01	05	04	10	70	20	Silt loam
8		02	07	03	12	72	16	Silt loam
9	-		10	12	28		16	Silt loam
0		02	13	15	30		10	
1	-	EΟ	10		42		21	
2		01	07			43	12	Loam
з	_		12	13	40		50	Loam
4		12	10	12	34		16	Loam
5	_	04	10	05	19		20	Silt loam
6	-	27	12	15	50	40	10	Loam
7	19	21	07	09	37	36	08	Loam
8	<u> </u>	18	09	13	40	35	25	Loam
9		28	10	12	50	30	20	Loam
ó	09	15	10	15	40		13	Loam
ĩ	-		13	10		40	14	
è			05					Silt loam
Э	_	ŬЗ	оз	08	14	72	14	Silt loam
4		06	11	13	30	51	19	Silt loam
5	-	05	11	25	41	48	11	Loam
6	-	05	01	26	40	50	10	Loam
7		14	10	07	31	38	31	Clay loam
é	_	14	12	11	37	47	16	Loam
9	72	05	03	02	10	12	06	Loam
7 0	/=	03	10	08	25	47	28	Clay loam
1	_	18	55	12	52	35	13	Loam
5		05		16	38	45	13	Loam
2	_	08	17 28	10	38 46	42	12	Loam

lable -8 contd.

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Table -8 contd.

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Sr. No.		F	-raction	ns in	percer	ntage		
NU.	Gravel		Sand	1		Silt	Clay	Texture
		Coarse	Medium	Fine	Total			
84		05	23	10	38	40	22	Loam
85	-	07	26	04	37	39	24	Loam
86		05	12	18	35	35	30	Clay loam
87		08	17	11	36	44	50	Loam
88	-	02	12	26	40	42	18	Loam
89	~	07	18	08	33	48	19	Loam
90	-	53	17	10	50	20	30	Sandy clay loam
91		24	19	16	59	18	23	Sandy clay loam
92	-	18	30	14	62	24	14	Sandy loam
93		05	09	16	30	52	18	Silt loam
94		02	07	11	50	70	10	Silt loam
95		20	26	11	57	21	22	Sandy clay loam
96	13	30	27	07	64	19	04	Sandy loam
97		01	35	12	48	39	13	Lòam
98	-	32	24	04	60	30	10	Sandy loam
99		07	13	24	44	47	09	Loam
100	-	07	21	12	40	40	50	Loam
101	-	07	31	14	52	32	16	Sandy loam
102		05	19	09	33	45	55	Loam
103		05	16	14	35	45	20	Loam
104		03	04	06	13	64	23	Silt loam
105		27	15	08	. 50	50	30	Sandy clay loam
106	-	13	20	16	49	33	18	Loam
107		06	04	24	Э4	50	16	Loam
108		06	09	30	45	42	13	Loam
109	-	07	27	24	58	33	09	Sandy loam
110		03	49	22	74	19	07	Sandy loam
111		04	28	08	4Ŭ	50	10	Silt loam
112		05	10	14	29	50	21	Silt loam
113			06	08	14	60	56	Silt loam
114		10	15	09	34	45	21	Loam
115	- .	05	06	10	21	58	51	Silt loam
116		02	14	14	30	60	10	Silt ľoam
117		14	22	20	56	40	04	Sandy loam
118		05	10	19	34	51	15	Silt loam
119	-	05	07	12	24	50	26	Silt loam
120		10	04	04	18	49	33	Silt clay loam
121	-	07	05	04	16	55	29	Silt clay loam
122	4000	04	05	18	10	60	30	Silt clay loam
123		04	02	06	12	58	30	Silt clay loam
124		05	13	22	40	40	20	Loam
125		07	18	10	35	42	23	Loam
126	11	04	07	10	21	54	14	Silt Íoam
127		05	13	11	29	51	50	Silt loam

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Table -8 contd.

•		ا 	Fraction	ns in 	percer	ntage 		
	Gravel		Sand	±		Silt	Clay	Texture
		Coarse	Medium	Fine	lotal			
3	_	16	27	11	 54	33	13	Sandy loam
7		10	17	13	40	52	08	Silt loam
)	-	08	16	12	36	52	12	Silt loam
L		15	43	12	70	20	10	Sandy loam
2	_	01	05	16	22	67	11	Silt loam
3	—	05	02	13	20	70	10	Silt loam
ŀ	-	03	07	20	З0	53	17	Silt loam
5	-	02	03	11	16	36	48	Clay
5	-	05	10	14	29	53	18	Silt loam
,	-invat	02	04	06	12	48	40	Silt clay
3	-	01	11	17	29	37	34	Clay loam
>		05	22	10	37	44	19	Loam
)	· 09	29	29	06	64	13	14	Sandy loam
	-	09	11	ŬБ	26	52	55	Silt loam
2	-	03	09	07	19	51	30	Silt clay loa
}		02	02	18	55	60	18	Silt loam
ł		01	09	42	52	43	05	Sandy loam
5	25	04	09	09	22	38	15	Silt loam
5		08	08	08	24	56	20	Silt loam
7	-	06	13	11	30	57	13	Silt loam
3		04	12	12	28	54	18	Silt loam
7	-	14	06	06	26	42	32	Clay loam
)	-	09	17	14	40	45	15	Loam
	-	02	44	24	70	23	07	Sandy loam
2	-	01	21	34	56	34	10	Sandy loam
3	-	05	12	17	Э4	52	14	Silt loam
F		EO	07	15	25	56	19	Silt loam
ž	-	05	15	12	32	43	25	Loam
,		04	04	04	12	53	36	Silt clay loa
,		05	27	13	45	38	17	Loam
3		05	10	07	22	45	33	Clay loam
>	-	03	09	24	36	57	07	Silt loam
)		01	35	23	59	35	06	Sandy loam
	-	10 -	13	21	44	38	18	Loam
2		12	16	19	47	41	12	Loam
3	-	06	21	13	40	47	13	Loam
ł		06	25	18	49	41	, 10	Loam
; ;		11	24	15	50	42	08	Loam
5		15	33	12	60	32	08	Sandy loam
,		14	34	20	68	24	OB	Sandy loam
3		02	18	20	40	52	08	•
2	_	10	28	15	53	40	07	Sandy loam
		12	27	03	42	42	16	Loam

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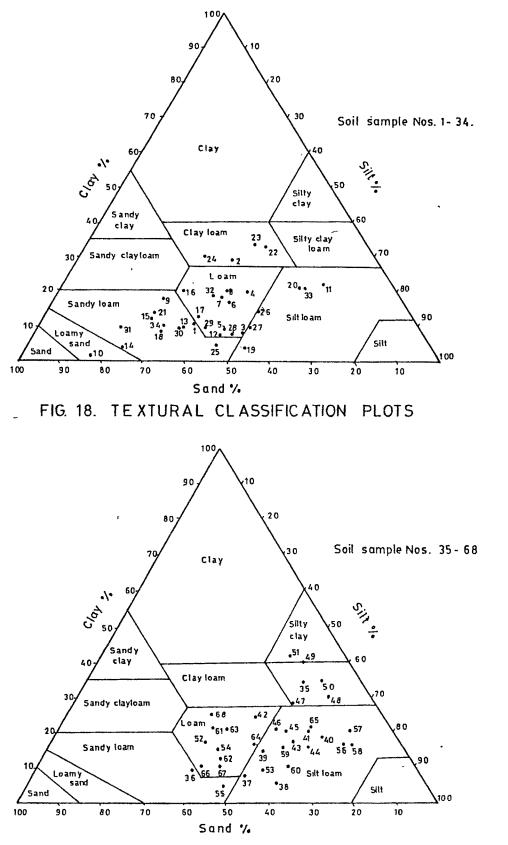


FIG. 19, TEXTURAL CLASSIFICATION PLOTS

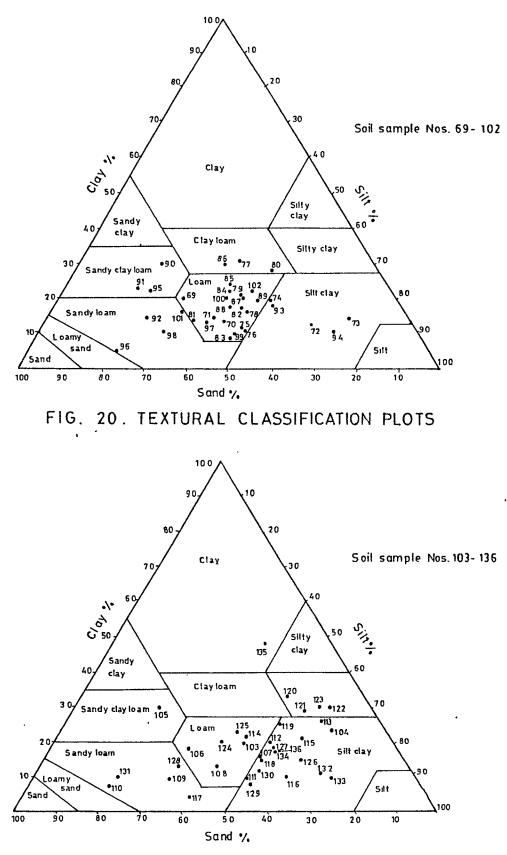
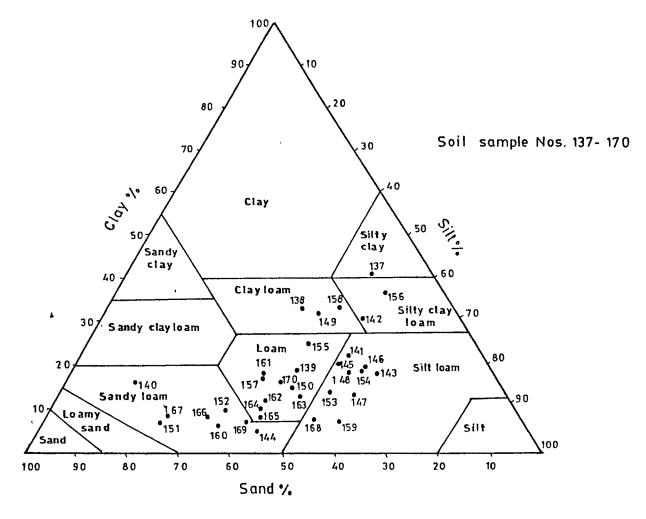
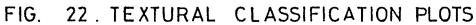


FIG. 21. TEXTURAL CLASSIFICATION PLOTS

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names have been devised (Table : 9). A generalized soil map has been prepared based on the various soil textural classes (Fig. 23).

SOIL TYPES

Soil types of the study area based on the soil texture are given below.

(A) SANDY SOILS

The sand group includes all soils in which the sand separate makes up at least 70% and the clay separate 15% or less of the material by weight. The properties of such soils are therefore characteristically those of sand in contrast to the stickier nature of clays.

(i) Loany sands

Soil material that contains at the upper limit 85 to 90% sand, and the percentage of silt plus one and half time the percentage of clay is not less than 15%; at the lower limit it contains not less than 70 to 85% sand, and the percentage of silt plus twice the percentage of clay does not exceed 30%. In particular, loamy sand has 25% or more very 'coarse, coarse and medium sand, and less than 50% fine or very fine sand.

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General Terms used to describe soil texture in relation to the basic soil textural class names

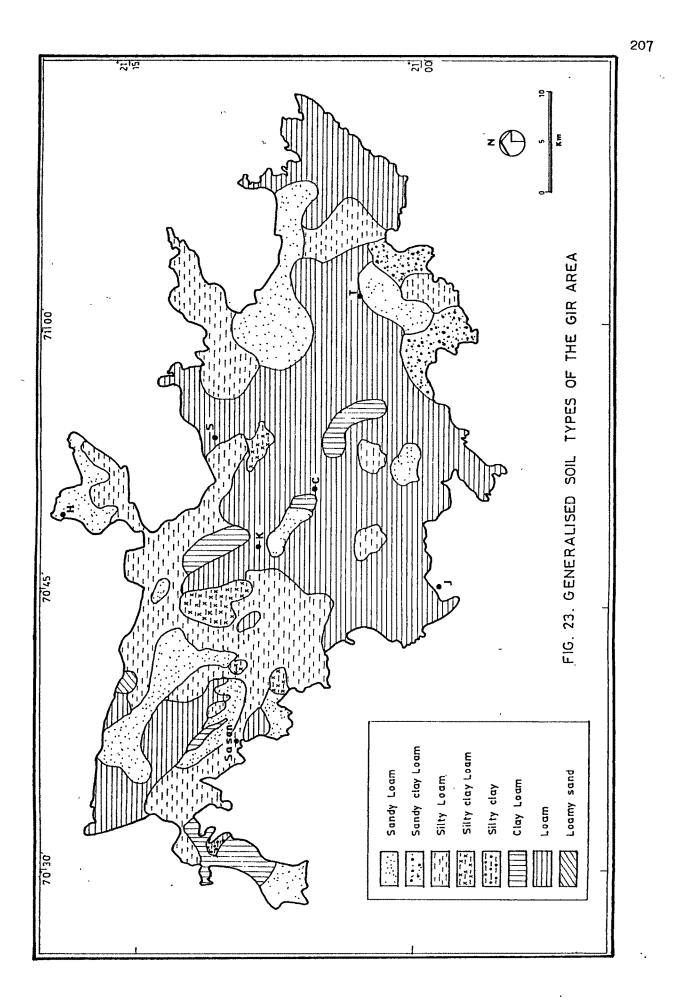
[U.S.Department of Agriculture classification system (in Brady, 1990)].

General Terms

<u>Common names</u>	<u>Texture</u>	<u>Basic Soil Textural</u> <u>Class Names</u>
Sandy soils	Coarse	(Sands ((Loamy sands
	(Moderately ((Sandy loam coarse ((Fine sandy loam
Loamy soils	(((Medium (((Very fine sandy loam ((Loam ((Silt loam ((Silt
	(((Moderately	(Sandy clay loam (fine (Silty clay loam ((Clay loam
Clayey soils	Fine	(Sandy clay ((Silty clay ((Clay

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Areal extent

This soil type occurs in a very small pocket in the northwestern part of the study area occupying an area of approximately 3.30 sq.km.

(B) LOANY SOILS

The loam group, which contains many sub-divisions, is a more complicated soil texture class. An ideal loam may be defined as a mixture of sand, silt, and clay particles that exhibit the properties of these separates in about equal proportions.

(i) Sandy loam

Soil material that contains either 20% clay or less, and the percentage of silt plus twice the percentage of clay exceeds 30, and 52% or more sand; or less than 7% clay, less than 50% silt, and between 43% and 52% sand. In particular, sandy loam soil has 30% or more very coarse, coarse and medium sand. but less than 25% very coarse sand, and less than 30% very fine or fine sand.

Areal extent

This soil type is well distributed throughout the area and covers approximately 232.51 sq.km.

(ii) Loam

Soil material that contains 7 to 27% clay, 28 to 50% silt, and less than 52% sand.

Areal extent

This soil type is well distributed and covers extensive areas. It is the most dominant soil type of the study area covering an area of about 665.28 sq.km.

(iii) Silt loam

Soil material that contains 50% or more silt and 12 to 27% clay (or) 50 to 80% silt and less than 12% clay.

Areal extent

This soil type covers large areas in the western portion and occurs as small pockets in the central and eastern portions. It occupies an area of approximately 356.69 sq.km.

(iv) Sandy clay loam

Soil material that contains 20 to 35% clay, less than 28% silt, and 45% or more sand.

Areal extent

This soil type covers a small area (24.18 sq.km) in the south eastern part of the study area.

(v) Clay loam

Soil material that contains 27 to 40% clay and 20 to 45% sand.

Areal extent

This soil type forms small pockets in the central and western parts of the study area and occupies an area of about 58.40 sq.km. It is totally absent in the southern and eastern parts of the study area.

(vi) Silty clay loam

Soil material that contains 27 to 40% clay and less than 20 percent sand.

Areal extent

This soil type forms very small pockets in the central part of the study area. It occupies an area of about 69.43 sg.km.

(C) CLAYEY SOILS

To be designated a clay, a soil must contain at least 35% of the clay separate and, in most cases not less than 40%. Only silty clay is found in the study area.

(i) Silty clay

Soil material that contains 40% or more clay, and 40% or more silt.

Areal extent

This soil type occurs in a very small pocket (2.34 sq.km) in the western most part of the study area.

(3) Soil moisture

It is defined as the ratio of weight of water to the weight of solids in a given mass of soil. The moisture content of the soil samples was determined by the oven-drying method.

Methodology

Weigh 2 gm soil into a tared, shallow, stoppered weighing bottle and heat with the bottle uncovered for several hours, or overnight, in a drying oven at 110°C. Cover, cool in a desiccator, and weigh. Report percentage loss in weight as moisture. All moisture determinations are stated on the dry weight basis, that is expressed as percentages where the oven-dry soil is taken as 100.

Areal behaviour

There is a consistent decline in moisture content from west to east. Maximum moisture content (24.6%) is found in the western part of the area, whereas, the eastern part shows minimum moisture content (4.4%). The northern and southern parts show intermediate moisture content ranging between 7.4% and 21.6%. However, moisture content is high in the areas bordering major streams. Development of reservoirs in the study area has probably increased the moisture content in their adjoining and downstream areas.

CHEMICAL PROPERTIES

The following chemical properties were analysed (Table : 7) :

(1) pH,

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- (2) electrical conductivity,
- (3) organic carbon,
- (4) calcium,
- (5) magnesium,
- (6) sodium,
- (7) potassium, and
- (8) phosphorous.

(1) pH

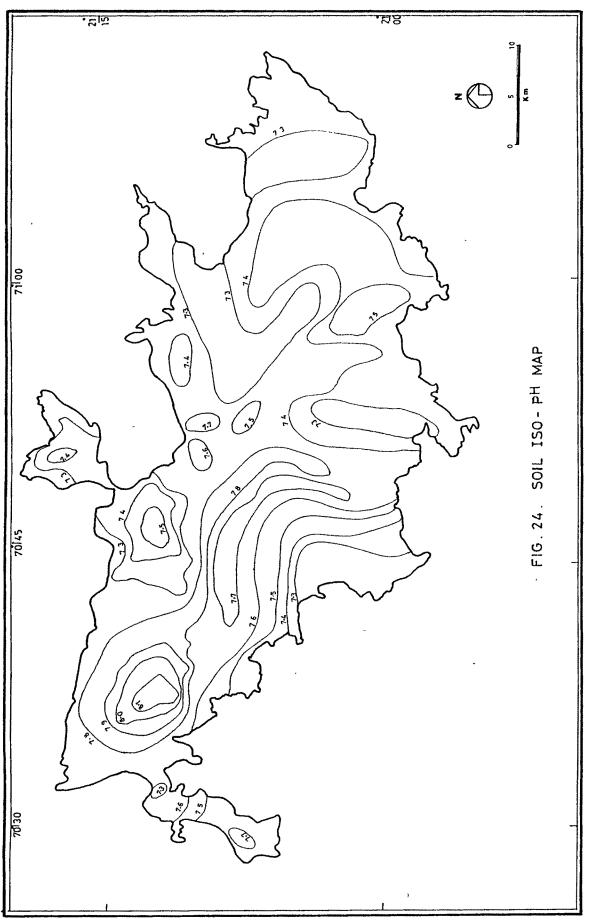
The soil solution contains small but significant quantities of soluble inorganic and organic compounds, some of which contain elements that are essential for plant growth.

One of the critical properties of the soil solution is its `acidity' or `alkalinity'. Many chemical and biological reactions are dependent on the levels of hydrogen ions (H+) and hydroxide ions (OH-) in the soil. These levels influence the solubility, and in turn the availability to plants, of several essential nutrient elements such as iron, manganese, phosphorous, zinc, and molybdenum. The concentration (activity) of hydrogen and hydroxide ions in the soil solution is commonly ascertained by determining its pH.

The pH of an aqueous solution is defined as the negative logarithm of the hydrogen ion activity in that solution. Thus, each unit change in pH represents a tenfold change in the activity of the hydrogen and hydroxide ions. Soil pH was determined by glass electrode method.

Methodology

Transfer 50 gm < 2 mm air-dry soil to a 100 ml beaker, add 50 ml H_2O and stir occasionally for 1 hour. Determine pH of sample with glass electrode and pH meter while stirring.



Areal behaviour

In the study area, soil pH ranges from 7.3 in the east to 8.1 in the west (Table : 7). Iso-curves for soil pH of the study drawn (Fig. 24) to indicate the area were pattern of `acidity' `alkalinity' of soil. The soils of or the study area are slightly alkaline and exhibit the pH range common for arid region mineral soils (Fig. 25).

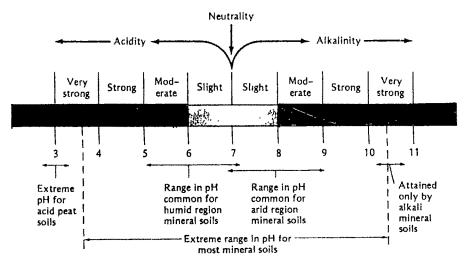


FIGURE-25

Extreme range in pH for most mineral soils and the ranges commonly found in humid region and arid region soils. Also indicated are the maximum alkalinity for alkali soils and the minimum pH likely to be encountered in very acid peat soils

(after Brady, 1990)

In the northern and eastern parts, the soil pH ranges from 7.3 to 7.5. In the central and southern parts it ranges from 7.5 to 7.8, whereas in the western part it ranges from 7.5 to 8.1.

(2) **ELECTRICAL CONDUCTIVITY:** (B.C.)

Electrical conductance is the reciprocal of resistance. As it increases with salt content, it is more suitable for salinity measurements. Electrical conductivity of samples were measured using the E.C. meter, and the results are always reported in terms of millimhos/cm i.e. E.C. $\times 10^3$.

Methodology

Weigh a 50 gm sample of soil into a 250 ml Erlenmeyer flask. Add 100 ml of distilled water and let it stand at least 30 minutes, shaking occasionally. Filter or pour off supernatant liquid and measure conductivity of liquid with a bridge and conductivity cell.

Areal behaviour

Iso-curves for the electrical conductivity of the soils of the study area were drawn (Fig. 26). In the northern and north-eastern parts the values of electrical conductivity range from 0.06 to 0.12 mmhos/cm. In the southern and eastern portions it ranges from 0.06 to 0.09 mmhos/cm. Whereas in the central and western parts it ranges from 0.09 to 0.12 mmhos/cm. The electrical conductivity increases towards the centre of the study area. However, it is very clear (Table : 7 & 10) that the soils of the study area are normal and not saline.

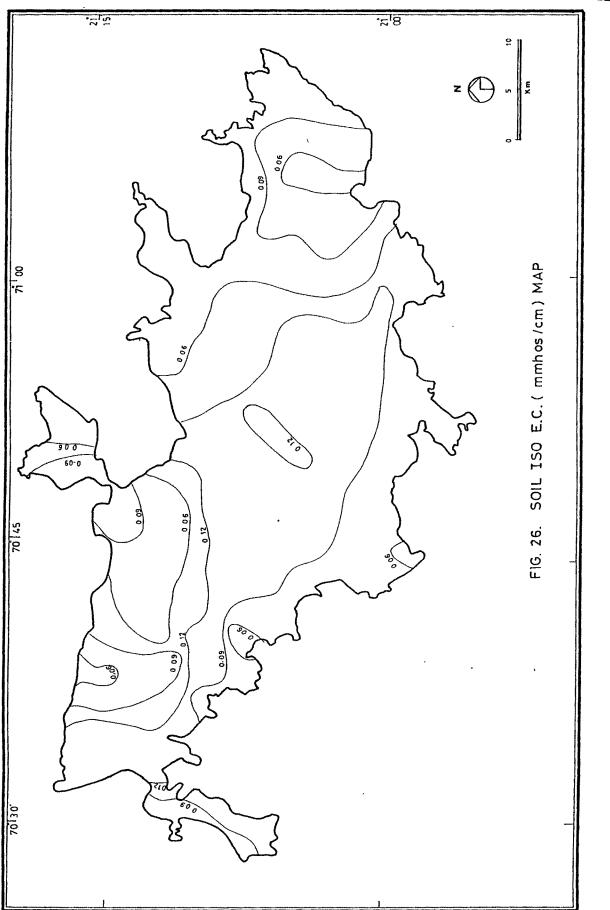


TABLE - 10

Interpretation of Rlectrical Conductivity Readings (after Bear, 1964) Conductivity Relative level (1 x 10⁻⁵mhos) Plant response 0 - 20 Low No injury to any plants; may indicate lack of nutrients. 20 - 80 Medium Optimum level for most plants; salt-sensitive plants may be injured. 80 - 150 High Injury to salt-sensitive plants; germinating seeds or seedlings are likely to be injured. Excessive > 150 Definitely injurious to most plants of all ages.

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(3) ORGANIC CARBON

Organic matter influences physical and chemical properties of soils far out of proportion to the small quantities present. It commonly accounts for as much as one third or more of the cation exchange capacity of surface soils and is responsible, perhaps more than any other single factor, for the stability of soil aggregates. Furthermore, organic matter supplies energy and body-building constituents for most of the soil micro-organisms.

The remarkable effects of this all-important constituent on a number of soil properties are summarized below (after Brady, 1990) :

- (1) effect on soil colour brown to black,
- (2) influence on physical properties:
 - a. granulation encouraged,
 - b. plasticity, cohesion, and so on, reduced,
 - c. water-holding capacity increased,
- (3) high cation exchange capacity,
- (4) supply and availability of nutrients :
 - a. easily replaceable cations present on humus colloids,
 - b. nitrogen, phosphorous, sulfur, and micronutrients
 held in organic forms, and
 - c. release of elements from minerals by humic acid.

Because of its complex nature, numerous difficulties beset the accurate determination of soil organic matter. Organic matter is far more generally calculated from a determination of organic carbon on the assumption that the organic matter of the average soil contains 58% of carbon. Since organic carbon can be determined directly, and with considerable accuracy, by any of the usual methods of dry combustion, it is preferable to report it as such, rather than a value for organic matter derived from it on the above assumption (Piper, 1950).

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Methodology

Waksman and Stevens (1930); Wright (1990) consider that the most reliable way for the estimation of the soil organic matter is the determination of the organic carbon, the percentage of which is multipled by 1.724. This factor is based on the assumption that the soil organic matter contains 58% of carbon.

The most accurate procedure for determination of organic carbon in soils is the dry cumbustion method. In this method the soil is ignited in a current of purified air and the carbon dioxide, produced by the combustion of organic matter is absorbed in a suitable absorbent and weighed. If carbonates are present in the soil they are first removed by treatment with sulphuric acid. For the combustion, a silica tube packed with copper oxide is preferred. The detailed procedure as mentioned by Piper (1950) was followed for determining organic carbon.

Areal behaviour

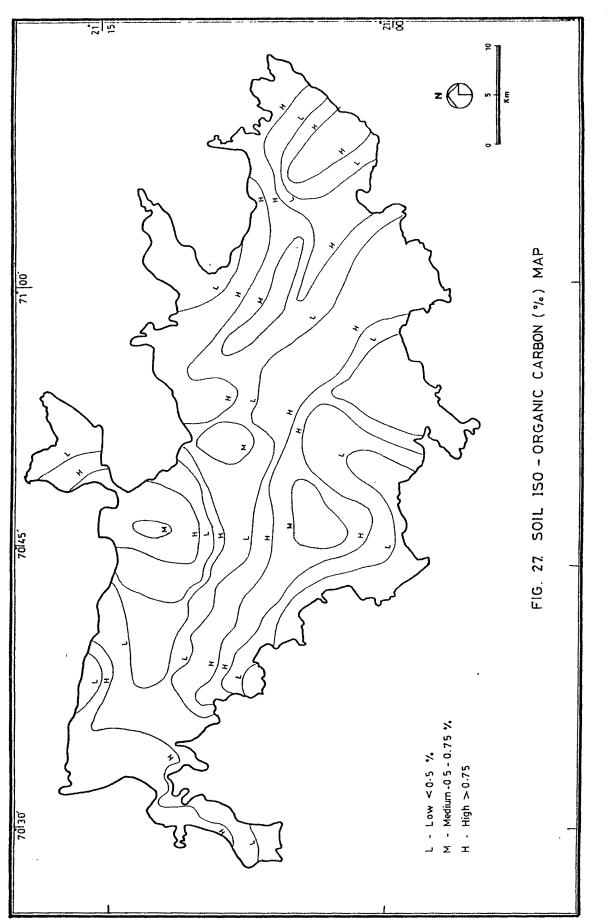
Iso-curves of organic carbon (Fig. 27) shows low values along the periphery of the study area. There are a few pockets showing medium values ranging from 0.5 to 0.75%. A major part of the study area shows higher values of organic carbon (Table : 7). The low values coincide with areas having extensive biotic pressure. The medium and high values correspond to zones of moderately and densely forested areas respectively.

(4) CALCIUM

An adequate supply of calcium appears to stimulate the development of root hairs and in fact, of the entire root system. It is necessary for normal leaf development (Millar, 1955).

Methodology

A finely ground 2 gm soil sample is subjected to sodium carbonate fusion. The resulting dehydrated silica residue is used to determine silicon content. Concentrate the combined filtrates (200 ml) from the Na₂CO₃ fusion and Si

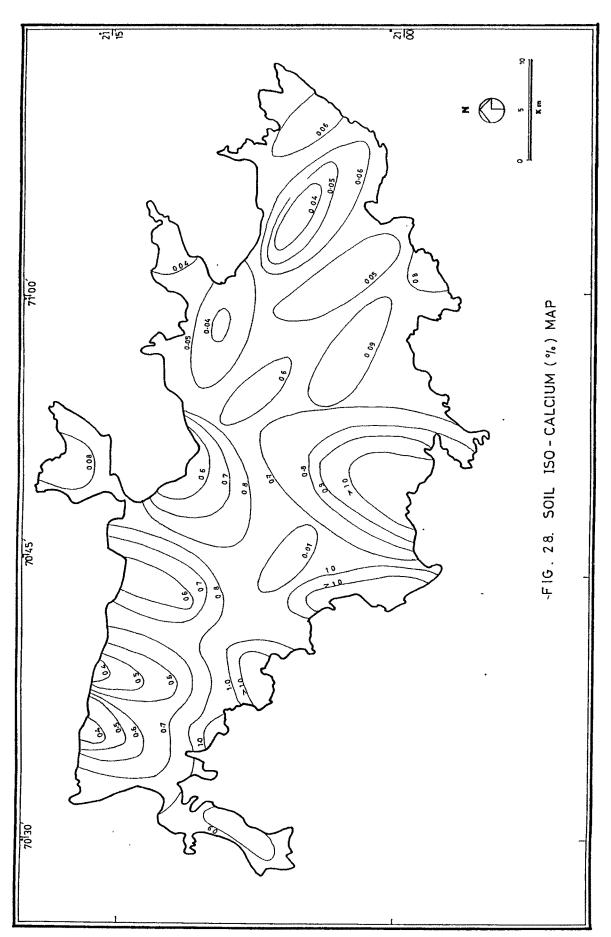


determination by evaporation to about 150 ml, transfer to 250 ml flask, and make to volume with H_2O . Designate as solution A, remove two 50 ml aliquots, and reserve for determination of phosphorous. Wash the remaining 150 ml into a 400 ml beaker and evaporate to 100 ml. Add NH_4OH solution, carefully with stirring, to pH 6.3.

Cover beaker with watchglass, bring to boil on hot plate or low flame, remove from heat, allow precipitate to settle for 2 to 3 minutes, and stir and filter rapidly through Whatman No.41 paper. Wash beaker and filter several times with hot NH₄NO₃ solution. Return the paper containing the precipitate to the original beaker, add 10 ml HCl solution, macerate the paper with a stirring rod, add 75 ml H_2O , and heat to boiling. Remove from heat, adjust pH to 8.3 with the NH4OH solution, heat to boiling, and filter as before. Wash precipitate free of chlorides with hot NH4NO3 solution; combine the filtrates and save for Ca and Mg determinations (Solution B). Determine Ca and Mg in solution using the flame photometer and report the results in terms of percentage.

Areal behaviour

Iso-calcium contour map (Fig. 28; Table : 7) indicates that calcium is comparatively low in the north-west and east, and high in the south. This could be attributed to the presence of miliolite limestone along the southern fringe of the study



area. The calcium value ranges from 0.08% to 0.8% in the north, and from 0.8% to > 1.0% in the south. In the east it ranges from 0.04% to 0.8%, and from 0.4% to 1.0% in the west.

(5) MAGNESIUM

Magnesium is essential in the growth of all green plants, as it is a constituent of chlorophyll. The element is also connected with the transportation of phosphorus in the plant (Millar, 1955).

Methodology

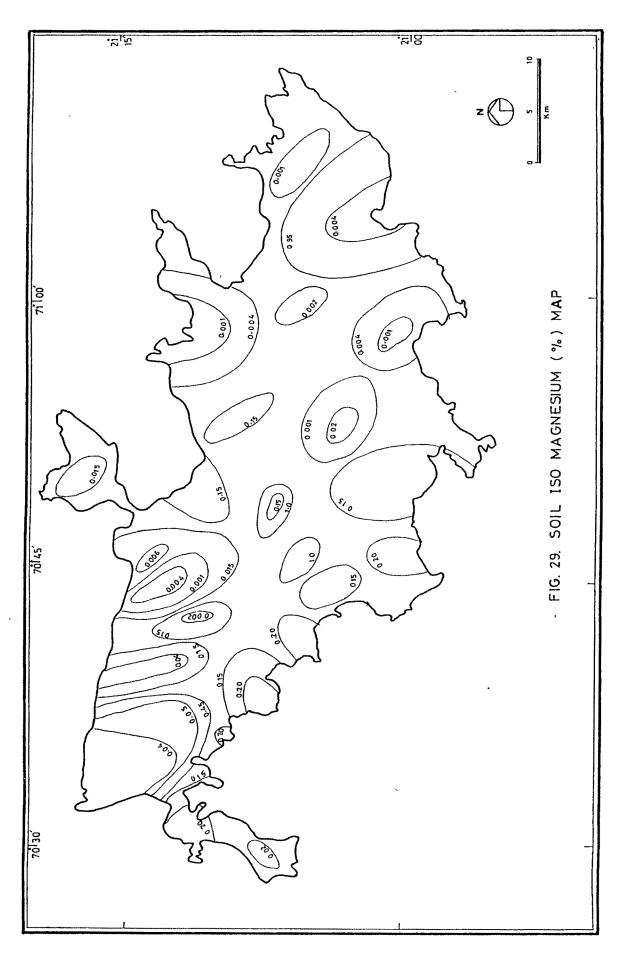
As described in calcium.

Areal behaviour

Iso-curves of magnesium (Fig. 29; Table : 7) indicate comparatively high values in the central and southern parts. In the north and east, the values of magnesium range from 0.001 to 0.15%, and from 0.15 to 1.0 % in the south. Whereas in the west it ranges from 0.004 to 0.20 %.

(6) SODIUM

Most plants contain considerable quantities of sodium, and certain groups of plants absorb quite large quantities of it when the supply in the soil permits. Nevertheless, the evidence is not sufficient to prove that the element is



essential for the normal growth of plant (Millar, 1955). Sodium has been found partially to take the place of potassium in the nutrition of certain plants. Where there is deficiency of potassium, native soil sodium may be useful (Brady, 1990).

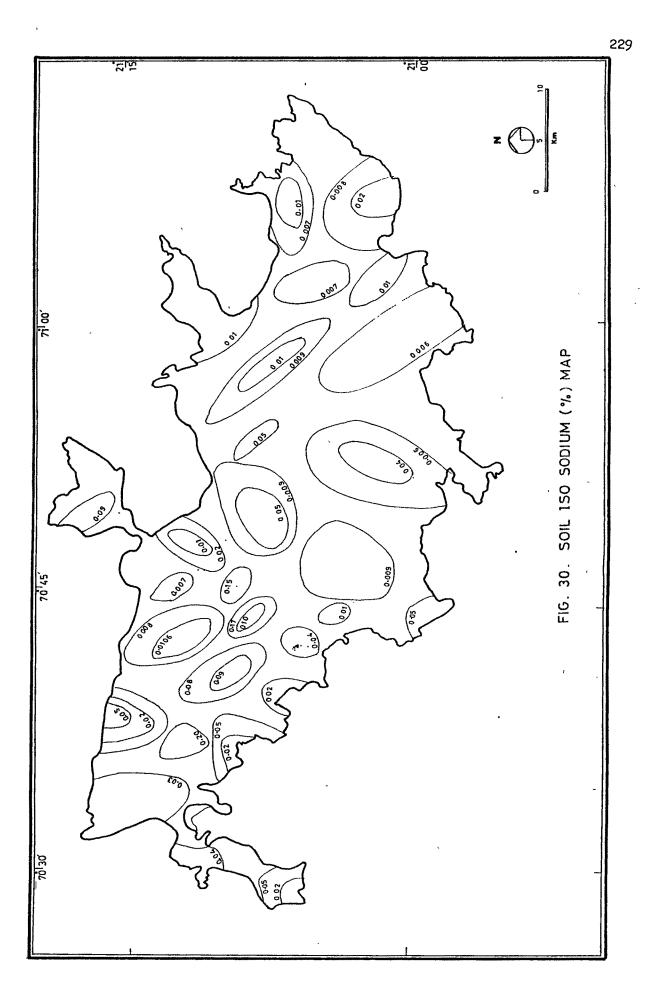
Methodology

Grind together in an agate mortar 0.5 to 1.0 gm of soil and an equal weight of NH4C1. Add 4 to 5 gm CaCO3 powder and mix thoroughly. Put approximately 0.2 gm CaCO3 at the bottom of a platinum crucible and add mixture from mortar. Clean mortar of all the sample mixture with an additional 0.5 gm CaCO₃ and add this to the top of the mixture in the crucible. Tap to settle, cover, and heat over very low flame until release of ammonia ceases. Do not let temperature in any part of the crucible get high enough to cause NH4Cl to be lost. When all ammonia has evolved, increase the flame until the crucible is dull red, and continue heating at this temperature for 40 to 60 minutes or until the mass is completely fused. Cool and transfer the shrunken fusion to a 150 mlprocelain evaporating dish. Wash all remains of the fusion from the crucible and its cover into the dish with hot $\mathrm{H}_{2}\mathrm{O}.$ Cover the dish with a watchglass and digest on steam bath for several hours until fusion mass is thoroughly disintegrated. If after digesting overnight the mass is not completely slaked, crush

any lumps remaining with a stirring rod or pestle. Filter through Whatman No.2 paper into a 400 ml beaker. Wash the dish and filter with hot H₂O in small portions until the filtrate volume is 300 ml. Add 50 ml $(NH_4)_2CO_3$ solution to precipitate most of the Ca. Concentrate by evaporation to about 50 ml, filter into 250 ml beaker and wash paper and residue with at least 100 ml hot H_20 in small portions. Concentrate volume of 50 ml on steam bath and transfer to 150 ml porcelain evaporating dish. Rinse beaker with hot H₂O and add rinsings to dish. Evaporate contents of dish to dryness and ignite to expel ammonia salts. Dissolve residue in hot H_2O ; cool, transfer to 100 ml volumetric flask, and make to volume with H_2O . Determine Na and K on aliguots of this solution on flame photometer after adding Li as internal standard and diluting to an appropriate volume, depending on Na and K content of soil. Results of Na are usually presented in terms of percentage.

Areal behaviour

Sodium values of the study area indicate that the soils are poor in sodium content (Table : 7). Iso-curves of sodium (Fig. 30) expressed as Na_2O , indicate that it ranges from 0.01 to 0.09% in the northern, southern and eastern parts, whereas in the western part it ranges from 0.02 to 0.07%. The central region shows the highest sodium content and the widest range from 0.01 to 0.1%.



(7) POTASSIUM

Potassium is essential for photo- and protein synthesis, for starch formation, and for the translocation of sugars. It increases plant resistance to certain diseases and encourages strong root and stem systems. It helps regulate the opening and closing of stomatoes in the leaves and the uptake of water by root cells (Brady, 1990).

Methodology

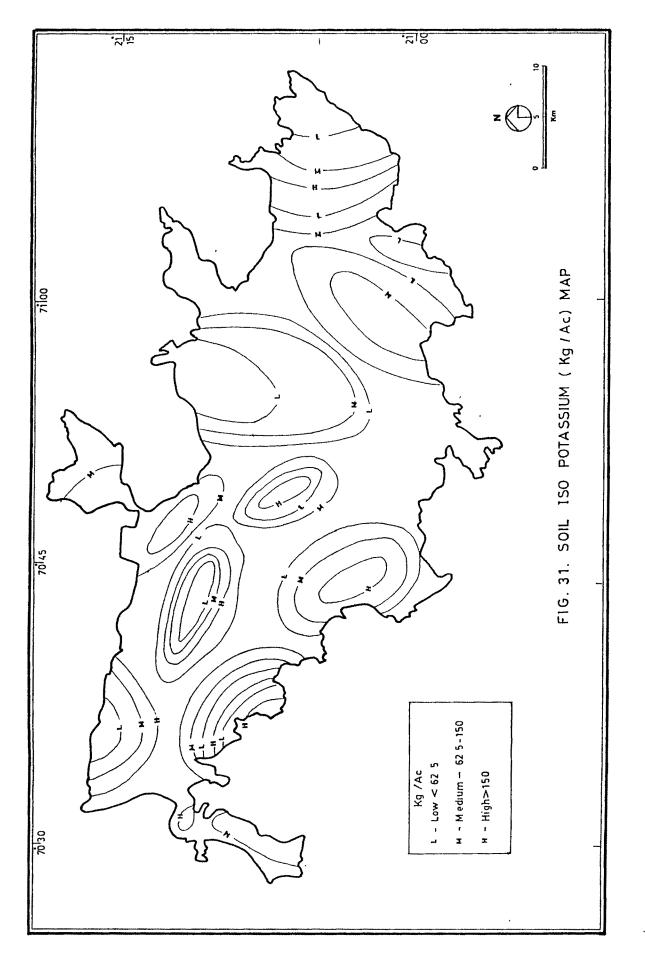
As described in sodium. The potassium content is presented in terms of kg/Ac (1 acre = 1000000 kg of soil) using the standard curve, for comparing with the specified range. However, if required, percentage values can be derived by using 1 gm = 0.10%.

Areal behaviour

Iso-curves of potassium (Fig. 31) show that potassium is well distributed over the area and ranges from low to high (Table : 7). Only in the northern, north-eastern and southeastern parts, the values range from low to medium.

Potassium (K₂0)

Low	=	62.5 kg/Ac
Medium	=	62.5-150 kg/Ac.
High	=	150 kg/Ac (after Perur et al.,1973)



(8) PHOSPHOROUS

Phosphorous is essential for plant growth and plays a critical role in the life cycle of plants (Brady, 1990). It is an essential component of deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA), the seat of genetic inheritance in plants as well as animals, and of the various forms of ribonucleic acid (RNA) needed for protein synthesis. Obviously, phosphorus is essential for numerous metabolic processes.

Methodology

Pass the 50 ml aliquot reserved for phosphorous determination from solution A (from Ca & Mg methodology) above through a small Jones reductor into a 100 ml volumetric flask. Rinse the Jones reductor column with several small portions of H₂0 bring the volume in the flask to the mark. Mix and to transfer an aliquot to a 50 or 100 ml volumetric flask. Dilute with H_2O to about half the volume of the flask, add 1 ml ammonium molybdate solution, and mix well. Add 5 drops stannous chloride solution, mix at once, and make to volume with H_2O . Read the intensity of the blue colour after 5, but within 20 minutes at 660 m . From the standard curve of solution find out the unknown values. phosphorous In accordance with potassium values, phosphorous content is also presented in terms of kg/Ac.

Phosphorous P20

Low	=	10 kg/Ac
Medium	=	10-25 kg/Ac
High	=	25 kg/Ac (after Perur et al.,1973)

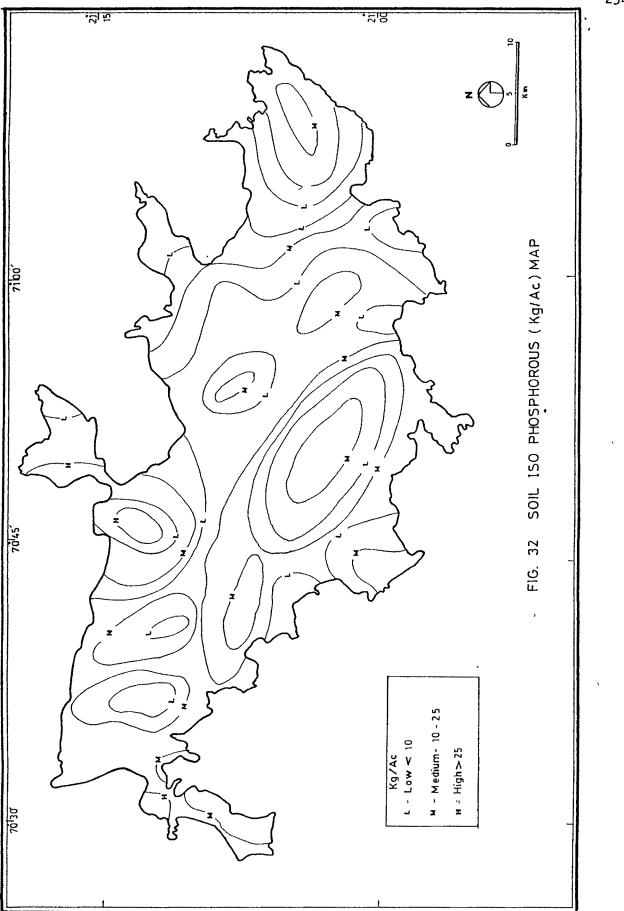
Areal behaviour

Iso-curves of phosphorous distribution (Fig. 32) shows high values (Table : 7) in the northern and western parts of the study area. Whereas medium and low values are found to occur all throughout the area.

Great variability is a characteristic of the phosphorous content of soils. Soils of the semi-arid regions are usually richer in phosphorous than are those of similar texture in humid areas, and also there is less variation in the amount of the element in different horizons (Millar, 1955).

TOPOGRAPHY - SOIL RELATIONSHIPS

local relief, controls much the Topography, of or distribution of soils in the landscape, to such an extent of markedly contrasting morphologies that soils and properties can merge laterally with one another and yet be in equilibrium under existing local conditions (Birkeland, 1984). Soil properties vary laterally with topography; one reason for this is the orientation of the hill slopes on



which soils form; this affects the microclimate and, hence, the soil. Another is the steepness of the slope; this affects soil properties because the rates of surface water runoff and erosion vary with the slope.

Slope orientation results in micro-climatic and vegetational differences, and thus in soil differences. Jenny (1958, 1980) argues that topography is the primary factor in explaining soil variation. In the study area, as there is a topographic leap of meters, or tens of meters, the regional climate can be considered a constant.

An attempt has been made to correlate the distribution of soils with major geomorphic landforms.

From (Fig. 13 & 18) it can be clearly seen that there is a general geomorphological control over the distribution of soils, which is aptly brought out in Table : 11. Another observation is the merger of soils of markedly contrasting properties with one another.

VEGETATION-SOIL RELATIONSHIPS

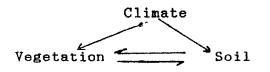
The biotic factor in pedogenesis is difficult to assess because of the dependence of both vegetation and soil on climate and the interaction of soil and vegetation. Jenny (1941, 1958, 1980) depicts the inter-relationship of these three factors as :

	Soil Type	Geomorphic Unit		
(1)	Loamy sand	Moderately dissected plateaux.		
(2)	Sandy loam	Dissected plateaux and denudational		
		hills.		
(3)	Loam	Dissected plateaux, denudational		
		hills, buried pediments and buried		
		pediplains.		
(4)	Silt loam	Buried pediments and buried		
		pediplains.		
(5)	Sandy clay loam	Moderately dissected plateaux.		
(6)	Clay loam	Buried pediments and buried		
		pediplains.		
(7)	Silty clay loam	Highly dissected plateaux and		
		denudational hills.		
(8)	Silty clay	Buried pediplains.		

Table - 11

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POSSIBLE CORRELATION BETWEEN SOIL TYPES AND GEOMORPHIC UNITS



The lower part of the triangle is of concern, specifically, the influence of soil on vegetation including any geomorphological control.

An attempt has been made to the correlate major forest types and the various soil types (Table : 12).

It can be seen from the above table that loam, silty loam and sandy loam types of soils are most conducive for vegetal growth.

SOIL MOISTURE BALANCE OF THE GIR AREA

It has been demonstrated by plant ecologists and physiologists that when moisture supply to a region is adequate within certain limits, the rate of plant growth and abundance of vegetation vary directly with temperature. In the same way where thermal, edaphic and cultural conditions are constant there is a direct relation between the abundance of vegetation on an area and effectiveness of precipitation. Thus, temperature efficiency and precipitation effectivity are equivalent phenomena in the growth and development of vegetation. The most favourable thermal conditions for plant growth are in the tropical regions.

Table - 12

POSSIBLE CORRELATION BETWEEN SOIL TYPES AND FOREST TYPES

	Forest Type	Soil Type
(1)	Dry deciduous teak	Loam, silt loam, silty clay
		loam, clay loam and sandy
		loam.
(2)	Dry deciduous mixed	Loam, silt loam, sandy loam
		and sandy clay loam.
(3)	Thorn scrub	Sandy loam, silt loam, loamy
		sand, clay loam and silty
		clay.
(4)	Open scrub	Loam, silt loam, sandy loam,
		sandy clay loam, silty clay
		loam and clay loam.
(5)	Savanna	Loam and sandy loam.
(8)	Riverine	Loam, silt loam, sandy loam
		and clay loam.

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When the soil moisture is continuously high so that plants can get as much water as they need, transpiration to air and carbon dioxide from air both respond in the same way to the various factors of climate. The greater the incoming energy, the more rapid is the plant development and the greater the water use. Because solar radiation is not ordinarily measured, it is customary to relate plant development and water use to temperature instead. If there is always enough water in the soil for the use of vegetation, water-losses to the atmosphere and, therefore, the development of plant are related to the thermal factors of climate than to the type of vegetation.

In developing a rational scheme of classification of world climates Thornthwaite (1948) introduced a parameter called "Potential Evapotranspiration" (P.E.) defined as the maximum amount of water that would evaporate and transpire from a thickly vegetated extensive territory with no deficiency of water for full use at any time.

Thornthwaite (1948) evolved a formula for the computation of P.E. from temperature records provided the latitude of the place is known.

Since P.E. is derived from air temperature and length of the day (duration of the sunshine), both of which determine the growth and development of vegetation in the absence of water

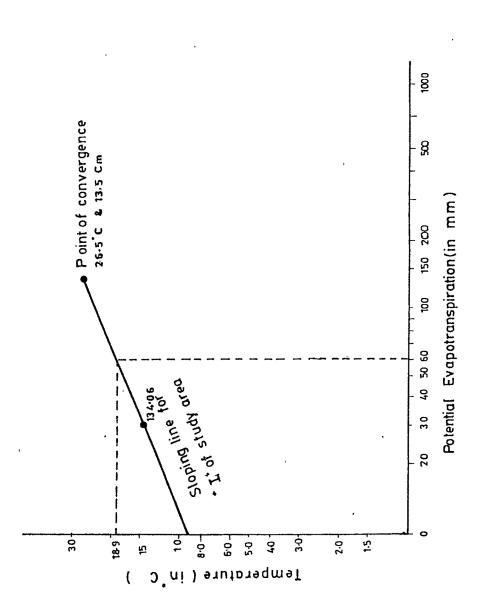
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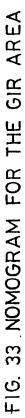
deficiency, Thornthwaite (1948) considered it as an index of thermal efficiency too, for many phyto-biological purposes.

Computation of Potential Evapotranspiration (P.E.) according to the method of Thornthwaite (1948)

In order to determine the potential evapotranspiration or thermal efficiency, three steps are involved in the computation and all the three are accomplished by means of a nomogram and standard values (given in Subramanyam 1982).

- 1. The first step is to obtain the annual Heat Index "I"; Monthly value of "i" corresponding to mean monthly temperatures of the station are obtained from the standard values. Summation of the twelve monthly values of "i" gives the Annual Heat Index "i".
- 2. The next step is to determine the unadjusted values of thermal efficiency from the nomogram in Fig. 33. Since there is a linear relation between the logarithm of temperature and the logarithm of unadjusted thermal efficiency, straight lines on the nomogram define the relationship. All the lines pass through the point of convergence at $t = 26.5^{\circ}C$ and thermal efficiency = 13.5 cm. The slope of the line is determined by the annual heat index (I) of the station. Based on the standard monthly mean heat index, the Annual Heat Index for Sasan (Table : 13) is 134.60 and the line ruled on the nomogram represents the relationship between thermal





efficiency and temperature at that place. At the mean temperature of 18.9° C for January, the unadjusted thermal efficiency (UTE) is 6.00 cm.

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Knowing the annual Heat Index (I) of the station from the straight edge of the nomogram, one can derive the value of thermal efficiency corresponding to the mean temperature of the month. The nomogram is used only, when the mean

Table - 13

Thermal Efficiency (TE) or Potential Evapotranspiration (PE) of the study area (based on Thornthwaite Method)

Station	: Sasan Gir 1	Lat:21 ⁰ N Long	:70 ⁰ 30'E Pe	eriod -1985-90
Month	Monthly mean Temp.(T ^O C)	Monthly mean heat index "i"	Thermal	Adjusted Thermal Efficiency ATE cm
Jan Feb Mar Apr May Jun Jul Aug Sep Oct Nov Dec	18.9 20.9 23.9 29.5 29.9 27.1 25.6 24.8 25.6 26.4 22.1 19.3	07.49 08.72 10.68 14.69 14.99 12.85 11.85 11.37 11.85 12.42 09.42 07.73	06.00 07.60 10.90 15.89 16.13 14.30 12.50 11.00 12.50 13.30 08.90 06.20	$\begin{array}{c} 05.60\\ 06.80\\ 11.22\\ 16.68\\ 18.22\\ 15.87\\ 14.37\\ 12.21\\ 12.75\\ 13.30\\ 08.18\\ 05.82 \end{array}$
Annual	24.5	=134.60		141.00

temperature of the month is 26.5°C or less. Thermal efficiency values corresponding to higher temperatures are obtained from the table of standard values. Twelve values are obtained for the twelve months. These are the unadjusted values for months of 30 days of twelve hours of bright sunshine each day.

3. Finally these values of thermal efficiency are adjusted for the length of the day (i.e. actual number of hours of sunshine between sunrise and sunset) and the actual number of days in the month. The appropriate correction factors obtained from standard chart is multiplied with the unadjusted thermal efficiency value of each month. The summation of the twelve monthly values gives the annual TE in cm.

Discussion

From Table : 14 & Fig. 33a, it is clear that only during the monsoon month of August there is positive soil moisture, while during the ensuing dry winter and summer months, there is negative soil moisture. In fact, there is a negative soil moisture balance of -69.9 cm.

This is an indication of :

- that there is heavy run off, and less precipitation, possibly due to the highly rugged terrain.
- the regional semi-arid climatic regime has played a big hand in controlling the micro-climate of this forested area.

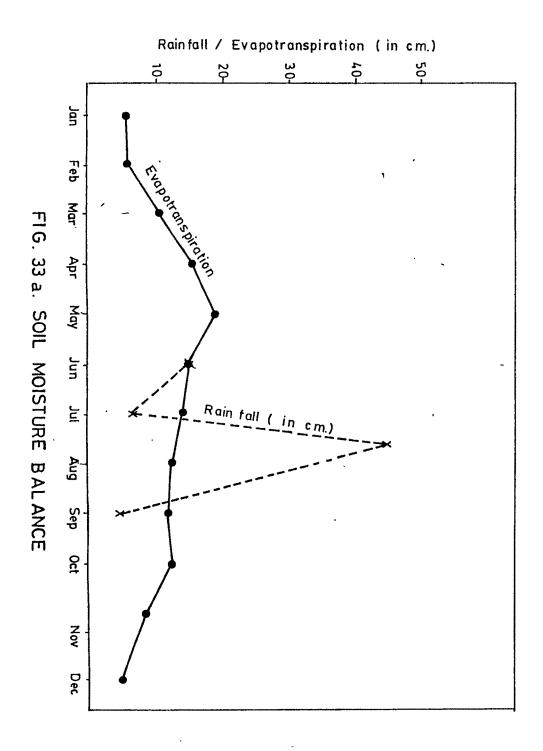
So	Soil moisture balance of the study area			
Months		Parameters		
	P (in cm)	PE(ATE) (in cm)	(P-PE)	
Jan		5.60	-5.60	
Feb	-	6.80	-6.80	
Mar	-	11.22	-11.22	
Apr	-	16.68	-16.68	
May	-	18.22	-18.22	
Jun	15.07	15.87	-00.80	
Jul	06.50	14.37	-07.90	
Aug	44.91	12.21	32.70	
Sep	04.62	12.75	-08.13	
Oct .	_	13.30	-13.13	
Nov	-	08.18	-08.18	
Dec	-	05.82	-05.82	
Annual	71.10	141.00	-69.90	
+ve = 32	2.7		ve = 171.85	

T	ab	le	 14	
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P = Precipitation

PE = Potential evapotranspiration

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Moisture Index

When precipitation is in excess of the water-need (i.e. potential evapotranspiration) then the climate is moist, while when the water deficiency is large in comparison with the water-need, the climate is dry.

Where there is only a water surplus and no water deficit, the relation between water surplus and water need constitutes an Index of Humidity (I_h) .

Similarly, where there is only water deficiency and no surplus, the ratio between water deficiency and water need constitutes Index of Aridity (I_B) .

Expressed as percentages, the two Indices are

 $I_{h} = ----- \text{ and } I_{a} = ------$

Where s is water surplus, d is water deficiency and n is the water-need all on an annual basis.

 $I_{h} = \frac{100 \times 32.7}{141} & I_{a} = \frac{100 \times 102.65}{141}$ $I_{h} = 23.2\% \qquad I_{a} = 72.8\% \text{ at the station.}$

The Thornthwaite Moisture Index

Since water surplus and water deficiency occur in different seasons at most places, both must go into an Index of Moisture effectivity (or, simply, `Moisture Index', I_m as Thornthwaite (1948) calls it), the one affecting it positively, the other negatively.

Thornthwaite and Mather (1955), Mather and Carter (1956), proposed a definition of Moisture Index, viz.

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I_m = (I_h - I_a) = 23.2 - 72.8
I_m = -49.6\%
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Table - 15

Moisture Index and Climatic Types (after Thornthwaite and Mather, 1955)

Symbol	Climatic Type	Moisture Index (%)
c ₁	Dry Sub-humid	-33.3 to O
D	Semi-arid	-66.5 to -33.4
E.	Arid	-66.6 and below

The calculation of the moisture index and its relation with climatic types (Table :15), shows that the area belongs to the `semi-arid type', indicating that, though the area is forested, the regional semi-arid climatic regime has had a very firm imprint on it. This poses a severe geoenvironmental problem. -