

High density soil survey of CRC -1 by the use of laboratory methods

ABSTRACT

A field experiment was carried out during the year 2024 in the Department of soil science & Agricultural Chemistry, School of Agriculture, ITM, Gwalior. Surface (0-15 cm) and sub surface (15-30 cm) depth are soil sample are collected by systematic survey were collected using global position system from CRC-1 farm, ITM, Gwalior District, Madhya Pradesh. From CRC-1, we collected 120 soil sample. pH was varied between 7.21 to 8.69 at 0–15 cm depth and 7.18 to 8.57 at 15–30 cm depth. The pH is slightly alkaline. The Electrical conductivity (EC) ranging from 0.23 to 0.52 dsm^{-1} at 0 -15 cm depth and 0.31 to 0.59 dsm^{-1} at 15 -30 cm depth emphasizing that the fact that the soil is safe limit of EC. Organic carbon was varied between 0.31 to 0.39 in 15–30 cm depth and 0.35 to 0.42 in 0–15 cm depth. The OC status is low to medium. N was ranged between 134.5 to 139.9 kg ha^{-1} at a depth of 0–15 cm and 132.4 to 135.5 kg ha^{-1} at a depth of 15–30 cm. K ranging from 8.42 to 12.20 kg ha^{-1} at 0–15 cm depth and 6.28 to 10.68 kg ha^{-1} at 15–30 cm depth. S was ranged between 15.36 to 20.54 kg ha^{-1} at a depth of surfaced and 13.64 to 18.74 kg ha^{-1} at a depth of sub surfaced.

Keywords: Soil survey, Soil pH, Electrical conductivity, Organic carbon, Nitrogen, Phosphorus, Potassium.

1. INTRODUCTION

Madhya Pradesh is the second-largest state area in the nation. It lies between latitudes $21^{\circ}6'$ and $26^{\circ}54'$ N and longitudes 74° and $82^{\circ}47'$ E. There are 50 districts and 10 divisions. Approximately 9.38% of India's total land area, or 308,245 square kilometers, are occupied by it. The distance between the ground and the water table is always 300 kilometers or more. It is located on the Central Indian tableland, which is bordered to the north by the Upper Gangetic plains, to the south by the Godavari valley, to the west by the Gujarat plains, and to the east by the plateaus of Bundelkhand and Chhattisgarh. The State extends east-west by the Vindhya, Satpura, and Maikal hill ranges. There are 87.2 million people living there, according to the 2023 census. The state has three distinct seasons with a typical tropical climate: winter, summer, and monsoon. Every year, 1200 millimeters of rain fall on Madhya Pradesh. These regions also don't have as much forest cover as the state's eastern and central regions. Due to its location in the state's western and northwestern districts, this state district is regarded as being susceptible to desertification. Its soils are rich, clayey, and gravelly, ranging widely. The state's soils can be divided into four primary categories: alluvial, medium and deep black, shallow and medium black, and mixed red and black. It has frequently experienced drought in the last ten years, which harms agriculture and causes a scarcity of drinking water.

Agriculture is unlikely to spread horizontally in Madhya Pradesh due to the soils' generally low micronutrient condition. Consequently, increasing agricultural yield in soil area combined with vertical growth will be necessary to meet the state's future needs for food, fruit, and fiber. The availability of micronutrients for crops may be impacted by the factors. The most important variables are drainage, plant nutrition interactions, soil pH and organic matter, and parent material type. The soil's micronutrient shortage is one of the primary

micronutrient barriers to crop productivity in Madhya Pradesh. However, Madhya Pradesh, India, has a lot of Zn, S, and Fe-poor soil. The fact that a large area of Madhya Pradesh is affected by the pH of the soil has exacerbated the problem. Naturally occurring to somewhat alkaline soil is common in Madhya Pradesh. The steady depletion of native reserves in Madhya Pradesh's rain-fed and irrigated systems is caused by crop removal, fertilizer application to the soil, and the use of organic manures.(Patidar *et al*, 2017). A dynamic natural feature that is susceptible to change as a result of both natural and man-made influences are the nutrients in the soil.

The soil-forming elements that influence the characteristics and formation of soil are climate, relief, parent material (bedrock), organisms, and time (Jenny, 1941; Birkeland, 1999). Since soil scientists are continuously creating local, regional, and global databases, they are essential to the creation of spatial data. Since soils and the landscape are closely related, land form, geomorphology, and physiography are crucial to understanding soil pedological processes. Understanding these correlations helps to investigate the pedologic basic level, which in turn helps to understand the geographical distribution of modern soils. Although human activity can degrade productive soils in a matter of decades, it takes nature thousands of years to generate a unit soil out of sterile bedrock (Hill,2003). A farmer's interest in soil conditions and how they affect crop productivity and growth often ends at the depth at which a plough disturbs the soil, but the carrying capacity of the ecosystem has been severely reduced by current global population growth, especially in the soil system. Consequently, farmers are preventing land degradation in the field of agricultural management (White, 2006).

2. MATERIALS AND METHOD

The CRC -1, ITM University, Gwalior, Madhya Pradesh, where the research work is conducted in 2024 under the Department of soil science & Agricultural Chemistry, School of Agriculture. We take surface (0-15 cm) and sub surface (15-30 cm) depth are soil sample are collected by systematic survey were collected using global position system from CRC-1 farm, ITM, Gwalior District, Madhya Pradesh. The region is exposed to both summer and winter conditions. The rainfall is moderate amount to 780 millimeters (30.7 inches) per year. A humid subtropical climate characterises Gwalior with dry hot summer (late march to June) and winter (Mid November to February).

Chemical Parameter

1. Soil pH
2. Electrical conductivity (EC).
3. Organic carbon (OC)
4. Available Nitrogen
5. Available Phosphorus
6. Available Potassium
7. Available sulphur

1. Soil pH

Soil pH was conceived by Soren Sorensen (1909) as convenient way of expressing acidity. Weigh out about 10 gram of soil and 50ml of distilled water. Ensuring a 1:5 diluted will suffice respectively. Shake the container and settle the soil for 10 minutes. Measure the

pH value on the water above the soil. Ensure you get a steady reading on the digital readout. Always wash your containers out before testing your next sample.

2. Electrical conductivity (E.C)

Using an electrical conductivity meter as described by Jackson (1973), the electrical conductivity of the soils was ascertained in soil water extract. Wait ten minutes after activating conductivity bridge. Using 0.01N KCl and saturated Ca SO₄ solution give the device a test. Use the same soil water solution that was used to measure pH to calculate EC. Give the mixture a brief swirl and then let the dirt to sit for five minutes. The electrodes should be well cleaned before being immersed in a dirt solution. Make the required temperature adjustment. This point's readings on the scale display the electrical conductivity. Multiply this by the cell constant (given on the cell itself) to get a specific conductivity.

3. Organic carbon

Walkley-Black (1934) method was used to estimate organic carbon. By using concentrated H₂SO₄ and potassium dichromate (K₂Cr₂O₇) in combination with the heat of dilution of H₂SO₄, organic matter in the soil is oxidised in this process back-titrating K₂Cr₂O₇ with ferrous ammonium sulphate.

4. Available nitrogen (N)

Alkaline permanganate method was used to determine the amount of available nitrogen. Using this method, fill a digestive tube with 5 g of dirt and a tiny amount of water. After mixing the sample with 20 milliliters of a 0.32% KMnO₄ solution, place the tube into the distillation machine. Apply 20 ml of 2.5% NaOH solution with the distyl-em dosing pump. About 20 ml of 2.5% boric acid into the conical flask, then clip the distyl-receiving em's end. Take the ammonia gas out of the tube and combine it with the acid that was given. After that, titrate with 0.02N NH₂SO₄ and add 5 drops of mixed indicator. A blank correction (without soil) must be included in the final calculations.

5. Available phosphorus(P)

Olsen's method was used to calculate the availability of phosphorus in the soil. (Olsen et al. 1954). About 2.5 g of the soil sample was shaken for 30 minutes in a 100 ml, conical flask on a mechanical shaker with 50 ml of 0.5N NaI-IC₃(adjusted to pH 8.5) as an extractant and 1 g of Darco G-60 (Free from soluble phosphorus)

6. Available potassium(K)

A flame photometer is used to measure the potassium concentration in the filtrate obtained from filtering the TC suspension through Whatman No. 42 filter paper. M.L. Jackson (1973) uses the Neutral Ammonium Acetate Method to determine the accessible potassium concentration in the soil. The material was transferred into a 100 ml conical flask, and five minutes were spent shaking it. Twenty-five milliliters of 1 N ammonium were added to the solution.

7. Available Sulphur

Available sulphur was determined by the method given by Chesnin, L and Yien, C.H. (1951)

i) Preparation of standard curve

Dissolved 0.5434 grams of oven-dried K₂SO₄ (A.R.) in one liter of purified water. 100 parts per million of sulfur were present in this solution. A range of concentrations ranging from 5,

10, 15, 20, 25, 30, 35, 40, 45, and 50 parts per million was created using S solution. 25 milliliter volumetric flasks were filled with 10 milliliters of standard solution at different concentrations. Each flask was then shaken after adding one milliliter of the 0.25 per gum acacia solution and one milliliter of 6N HCl (seed solution). With distilled water, the final volume was adjusted. After transferring the contents of the flasks to a beaker, 0.5 g of crystals of barium chloride (30 mesh) were added, and the mixture was gently stirred for half a minute. The transmittance per cent was used to measure the resultant turbidity using a spectrophotometer set at 420 m μ . Plotting the transmittance percent against the sulfur concentration (ppm) in solution led to the construction of a standard curve.

ii) Extraction

A 10g sample of soil was collected, and after being thoroughly agitated for approximately half an hour and filtered using Whatman number 40 filter paper, 50 ml of extractant ($\text{CH}_3\text{CooNH}_4 + \text{CH}_3\text{CooH}$) and 0.5 g of sulfur-free activated charcoal were added.

ii) Development of turbidity

In a 25 ml volumetric flask, 10 ml of the aforementioned extract was shaken. It was shook after adding 1 ml of 0.25 per cent gum acacia solution and 1 ml of 6 N HCl (seed solution). Distilled water was used to get the final volume up to par. The flask's contents were moved into a beaker. After adding 0.25 g of barium chloride crystals (30 mesh), gently stir for a duration of two minutes. The transmittance per cent was used to measure the resultant turbidity using a spectrophotometer set at 420 m μ . Once the device has been calibrated to read 100% transmittance, prepare a blank. The sulfur content was computed as S kg/ha.

3)Result and discussion

3.1pH

The pH range of the CRC-1 soil under study was 7.18 to 8.57 at 15–30 cm depth and 7.21 to 8.69 at 0–15 cm depth. In general, the pH trended downward with depth. In response, the soils ranged from slightly acidic to slightly alkaline. In addition to the calcium carbonate concentration, bases may leach from the surface and deposit at lower layers, causing the pH

to fall with depth. Previous reports of the pH decreasing with depth came from Rajeshwar and Khan (2008), Bhat (2010), and Wani et al. (2017).

Table 1 :Variation in pH concentration in different blocks

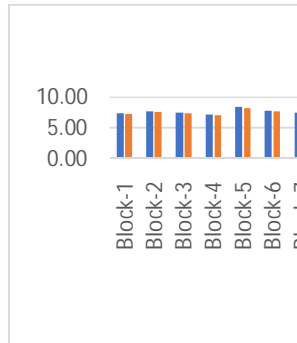


Fig 1 Depth wise distribution of Soil pH in the soil.

3.2 Electrical

The soil in the CRC-1 electrical conductivity 0.52 dsm⁻¹ at 0 to 15 0.59 dsm⁻¹ at 15 to 30 increased, it displayed was discovered that normal (EC < 1.0 dSm-explanation for the increase in electrical leaching of bases from horizons. The outcomes Tuba and Kaleem (2009).

Table 2 :Variation in different blocks

Location	pH	
	Depth(cm)	
	0-15	15-30
Block-1	7.44	7.37
Block-2	7.79	7.65
Block-3	7.52	7.45
Block-4	7.21	7.18
Block-5	8.56	8.26
Block-6	7.81	7.76
Block-7	7.56	7.49
Block-8	8.70	8.57
Block-9	7.58	7.45
Block-10	8.34	8.25
Block-11	7.42	7.38
Block-12	8.67	8.52
Block-13	8.27	8.12
Block-14	8.34	8.29
Block-15	7.49	7.38
Block-16	8.44	8.35
Block-17	7.97	7.82
Block-18	8.35	8.28
Block-19	7.45	7.32
Block-20	7.67	7.45
C.D.	0.04	0.03
SE(m)	0.01	0.01
SE(d)	0.02	0.01
C.V.	0.28	0.21

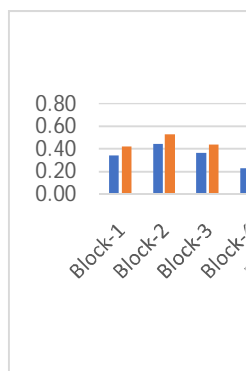
distribution of Soil pH

conductivity (dsm⁻¹)

study area had ranging from 0.23 to cm depth and 0.31 to cm depth. As soil depth an increasing trend. It every soil sample was 1).One possible depth-dependent conductivity is the surface to subsurface concur with those of (2016) and Najar

EC concentration in

Location	EC	
	Depth(cm)	
	0-15	15-30
Block-1	0.34	0.423
Block-2	0.45	0.53
Block-3	0.37	0.44
Block-4	0.23	0.31
Block-5	0.43	0.49
Block-6	0.35	0.43
Block-7	0.46	0.48
Block-8	0.52	0.59
Block-9	0.45	0.52
Block-10	0.24	0.32
Block-11	0.27	0.34
Block-12	0.43	0.51



Block-13	0.25	0.32
Block-14	0.38	0.41
Block-15	0.29	0.34
Block-16	0.28	0.32
Block-17	0.29	0.33
Block-18	0.25	0.32
Block-19	0.33	0.37
Block-20	0.51	0.58
C.D.	0.03	0.032
SE(m)	0.01	0.011
SE(d)	0.015	0.016
C.V.	5.018	4.593

Fig 2 Depth wise distribution EC in the soil.

3.3 Organic carbon

The range of organic carbon in the soil of the CRC-1 study area was 0.31 to 0.39 in 15–30 cm depth and 0.35 to 0.42 in 0–15 cm depth. With depth, the organic carbon content showed a declining tendency. The reduced organic carbon was caused by erosion removing surface soils with high levels of organic carbon. (Rajeswar *et al.* 2009). These soils have a medium level of organic carbon because of the rapid burning of organic matter brought on by the high temperatures in the area. Similar findings were observed by Lathwal(2006) in the soil and Sharma *et al.* (2008) in the soils of the Amritsar district.

Table 3 :Variation in organic carbon concentration in different blocks

Location	OC	
	Depth(cm)	
	0-15	15-30
Block-1	0.38	0.33
Block-2	0.36	0.31
Block-3	0.39	0.35
Block-4	0.35	0.34
Block-5	0.39	0.36
Block-6	0.36	0.33
Block-7	0.41	0.37
Block-8	0.42	0.39
Block-9	0.37	0.34
Block-10	0.39	0.35
Block-11	0.36	0.32
Block-12	0.38	0.35
Block-13	0.39	0.34
Block-14	0.37	0.32
Block-15	0.36	0.33
Block-16	0.38	0.34
Block-17	0.37	0.34
Block-18	0.36	0.33

Block-19	0.40	0.36
Block-20	0.42	0.37
C.D.	0.033	0.031
SE(m)	0.011	0.011
SE(d)	0.016	0.015
C.V.	5.218	5.353

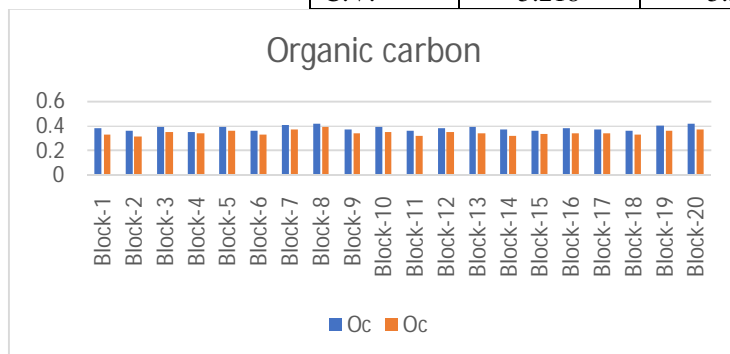


Fig 3 Depth wise distribution of organic carbon in the soil.

3.4 Available nitrogen

The range of available nitrogen in the soil of the CRC-1 study area was 134.5 to 139.9 cm at a depth of 0–15 cm and 132.4 to 135.5 cm at a depth of 15–30 cm. Higher levels of nitrogen were found in surface soils, however the amount of nitrogen that was available decreased with depth. These data points are also noted by Dar *et al.* (2012), Najar *et al.* (2009), and Mushki, (1994). Surface soils had larger levels of accessible nitrogen, which decreased linearly as soil depth increased.

Table 4 :Variation in nitrogen concentration in different blocks

Location	Nitrogen(kg ha ⁻¹)	
	Depth(cm)	
	0-15	15-30
Block-1	135.4	131.4
Block-2	136.3	133.0
Block-3	135.6	131.3
Block-4	135.5	131.4
Block-5	136.9	133.4
Block-6	135.2	130.6
Block-7	138.6	133.8
Block-8	139.6	135.5
Block-9	138.5	134.6
Block-10	135.1	132.9
Block-11	136.9	134.5
Block-12	135.1	132.9
Block-13	138.5	133.9
Block-14	136.7	133.6
Block-15	138.5	132.6
Block-16	137.3	133.3

Block-17	135.7	131.9
Block-18	136.3	130.3
Block-19	138.9	132.6
Block-20	139.5	134.2
C.D.	2.423	1.556
SE(m)	0.843	0.542
SE(d)	1.192	0.766
C.V.	1.066	0.706

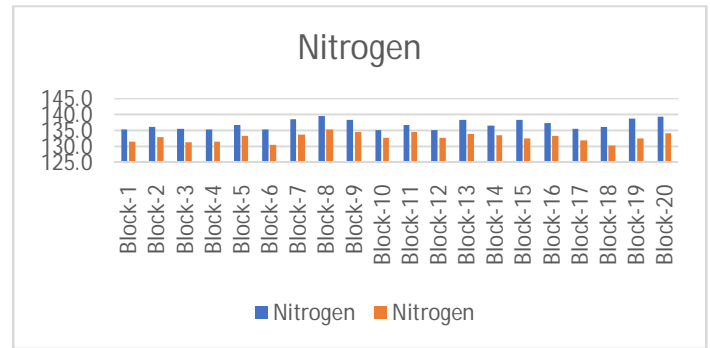


Fig 4 Depth wise distribution of Nitrogen in the soil.

3.5 Available Phosphorus

The soil in the CRC-1 study region had available phosphorus ranging from 8.42 to 12.20 cm at 0–15 cm depth and 6.28 to 10.68 cm at 15–30 cm depth. With depth, the amount of phosphorus that was available trended downward; the highest level was found in surface soils. The present results are consistent with those of Mostara (2002), who reported that a medium amount of phosphorus was present in most Karnataka soils, particularly in the Mal Prabha command. The Nirar *et al.* (2009) and Kumar *et al.* (2009) samples from Jharkhand's Dumka had moderate levels of phosphorus.

Table 5 :Variation in phosphorus concentration in different blocks

Location	Phosphorus (kg ha ⁻¹)	
	Depth	
	0-15	15-30
Block-1	9.34	7.52
Block-2	11.45	9.63
Block-3	10.32	8.54
Block-4	8.42	6.28
Block-5	11.32	9.52
Block-6	9.68	7.84
Block-7	11.12	9.72
Block-8	12.21	10.68
Block-9	10.52	8.74
Block-10	10.36	8.58
Block-11	8.48	6.64
Block-12	11.52	9.72
Block-13	10.62	8.48
Block-14	9.82	7.18
Block-15	8.54	6.74
Block-16	10.74	8.52
Block-17	9.32	7.48

Block-18	10.34	8.52
Block-19	11.12	9.38
Block-20	12.13	10.42
C.D.	0.016	0.017
SE(m)	0.006	0.006
SE(d)	0.008	0.008
C.V.	0.095	0.117

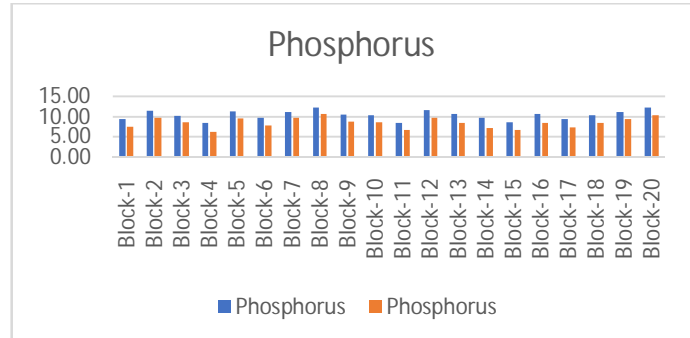


Fig 5 Depth wise distribution of Phosphorus in the soil.

3.6 Available potassium

The range of available potassium in the soil of the CRC-1 study area was 296.2 to 302.7 cm at a depth of 0–15 cm and 291.2 to 297.8 cm at a depth of 15–30 cm. These data points are also noted by Verma *et al.* (2005), Nirawar *etal.* (2009) and Sharma (2017). The comparable predominance of K-rich micaceous and feldspar minerals may be responsible for this higher value outcomes in the-soils of Sardulgarh, Bhikhi, and Budhlada block sand.

Table 6 :Variation in potassium concentration in different blocks

Location	Potassium(kg ha ⁻¹)	
	Depth(cm)	
	0-15	15-30
Block-1	295.4	290.1
Block-2	297.9	292.5
Block-3	300.4	295.8
Block-4	296.2	291.2
Block-5	298.3	293.5
Block-6	297.3	292.7
Block-7	301.3	289.4
Block-8	302.7	297.8
Block-9	298.7	292.3
Block-10	296.6	291.5
Block-11	301.4	296.8
Block-12	297.3	292.3
Block-13	299.3	294.8
Block-14	296.7	291.3
Block-15	301.3	296.4
Block-16	297.2	292.8
Block-17	299.3	294.4

Block-18	296.8	291.7
Block-19	298.8	293.3
Block-20	302.4	297.3
C.D.	1.701	4.317
SE(m)	0.592	1.502
SE(d)	0.837	2.124
C.V.	0.343	0.887

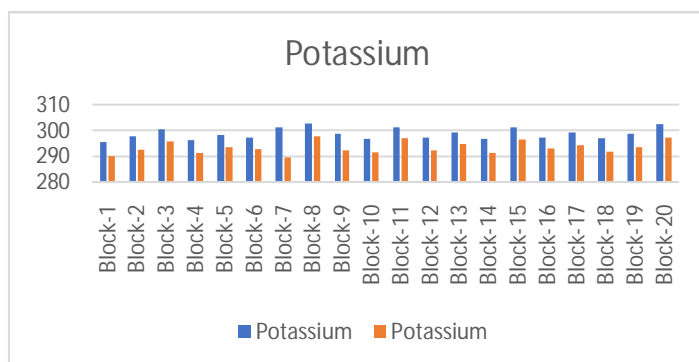


Fig 6 Depth wise distribution of Potassium in the soil.

3.7 Available Sulphur

The range of available sulphur in the soil of the CRC-1 study area was 15.36 to 20.54 cm at a depth of 0 -15 cm and 13.64 to 18.74 cm at a depth of 15 - 30 cm. For the Rewa district as a whole 45.10 per cent samples were tested low in available sulphur. Similar findings were reported by Rathore et al. (1995), Singh and Sarkar (1999), Bhatnagar et al. (2003) and Singh and Bansal (2007). The correlation coefficients was found to be significant at 5 percent level of significance ($r=0.1502$). Similar relationship have also been reported by Dhane and Shukla (1995) and Sahoo et al. (1998).

Table 7 : Variation in sulphur concentration in different blocks

Sulphur (kg ha⁻¹)		
Location	Depth(cm)	
	0-15	15-30
Block-1	18.63	16.463
Block-2	18.72	16.32
Block-3	16.24	14.58
Block-4	15.36	13.64
Block-5	17.82	15.35
Block-6	19.29	17.42
Block-7	20.23	18.64
Block-8	20.54	18.74
Block-9	18.28	16.84
Block-10	17.52	15.36
Block-11	19.82	17.62
Block-12	18.64	16.82
Block-13	16.25	14.63
Block-14	17.32	15.71

Block-15	18.63	16.43
Block-16	16.25	14.63
Block-17	17.84	15.43
Block-18	15.46	13.74
Block-19	20.18	18.35
Block-20	20.21	18.32
C.D.	0.029	0.027
SE(m)	0.01	0.009
SE(d)	0.014	0.013
Block	0.097	0.101

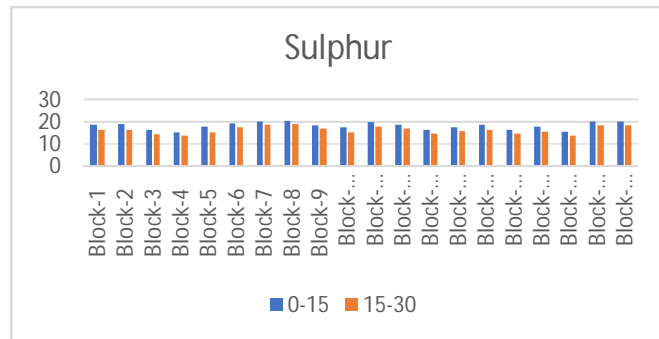


Fig 7 Depth wise distribution of sulphur in the soil.

CONCLUSIONS

The research examined the simultaneous prediction of chemical characteristics. As soil depth increased, pH moved upward and EC moved downward. The research farms at ITM University have a pH that is between neutral and slightly alkaline, and the outcomes are typical. The soils of the ITM research farm had low levels of phosphate, nitrogen, and organic carbon. It is suggested that integrated nutrient management and fertilizer be employed in order to grow crops.

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