# **Degraded Soils: Origin, Types and Management**

# **Muhammad Zia-ur-Rehman , Ghulam Murtaza , Muhammad Farooq Qayyum , Saifullah , Muhammad Rizwan , Shafaqat Ali , Fatima Akmal, and Hinnan Khalid**

# **Contents**



 M. Zia-ur-Rehman (\*) • G. Murtaza • Saifullah • F. Akmal • H. Khalid Institute of Soil and Environmental Sciences, University of Agriculture Faisalabad, Faisalabad 38040, Pakistan e-mail: [ziasindhu1399@gmail.com](mailto:ziasindhu1399@gmail.com)

M.F. Oayyum Department of Soil Sciences, BZU, Multan, Pakistan

 M. Rizwan • S. Ali Department of Environmental Sciences, GC University, Faisalabad 38040, Pakistan

© Springer International Publishing Switzerland 2016 23

K.R. Hakeem et al. (eds.), *Soil Science: Agricultural and Environmental Prospectives*, DOI 10.1007/978-3-319-34451-5\_2



 **Abstract** The cultivated lands are continuously degrading and the extent is increasing because of different natural environmental and anthropogenic activities. Soil degradation due to salinization, erosion, water logging etc. makes environment difficult for plant growth resulting in reduced agricultural production. Soil physical, chemical and biological properties are affected due to alteration in hydraulic conductivity, bulk density, osmo-deregulation, poor aeration and specific ion toxicities. A number of management and reclamation technologies are available to counter these problem but the major concern is to optimize the most economical and eco- friendly technologies. Saline soils can be cultivated growing different halophyte plants and using modern irrigation practices. Conservation and effective and efficient use of good quality water help proper leaching of soluble salts in saline soils. Saline-sodic and sodic soils can be rehabilitated with different amendments, which can provide soluble calcium to replace exchangeable sodium adsorbed on clay surfaces. Different amendments can provide calcium directly to the soil or indirectly dissolving native calcium from calcium carbonate already resent in the soil. The eroded soils can be reclaimed by providing proper soil surface cover either in the form of mulching or vegetative cover by fodder or wild shrubs. Different studies demonstrate that under adverse conditions where chemical treatments are uneconomical tree plantations provide positive net returns to investment and significant net benefit and social outcomes from these lands. These findings suggest that there is great opportunity for capital investment in afforesting abandoned degraded soils with multipurpose approaches. This chapter covers the introduction to origin, extent and sources of degraded soils, along with their management and reclamation options.

 **Keywords** Soil pollution • Salinity stress • Soil erosion • Agroforestry • Soil management

# **1 Land Degradation**

# *1.1 Introduction*

 Degradation means undesirable and unwanted changes brought about by human activities along with natural phenomenon. Soil degradation is among serious prevailing issues in our modern era. It is badly affecting soil's natural fertility to enhance our economic values along with ecological issues. It is being caused due to natural and anthropogenic activities. The level of degradation depends on degree of degradative processes; duration of usage of such degraded land and its management. Land degradation causes exploitation of soil resources, reduces soil productivity and alters composition of vegetations; thus influencing billions of people around the globe directly or indirectly (Ravi and D'Odorico 2005).

 Degradation of soils can considerably decrease the soil's capacity to produce food and consequently about 66 % of the total world's population is malnourished (Pimentel and Burgess 2013; World Health 2000). To feed the ever increasing popu-lation of world, food production needs to be enhanced (Haub et al. [2011](#page-37-0)) It is important to reverse the land degradation to achieve this modest goal as 99.7 % of our human diet calories are fulfilled by our land resources and only  $0.3\%$  is being contributed by aquatic ecosystems (FAO [2004](#page-36-0)). To overcome our basic food demands it is most important to maintain productivity and quality of our land. Generally, soil formation process is 10 to 40 times slower compared to soil lost (Pimentel and Burgess 2013).

It is pertinent that we should look for alternative means of intensification specially use of sustainable land management techniques (SLM). It is said that utilization of land resources is to use the water, land, plants and animals resources to fulfill our present day human demands along with enhancing their productive potential and environmental functions (Quarrie 1992). SLM focus on four land sustaining techniques, improved irrigation management, rehabilitation of degraded soil, enhance pasture and grazing processes along with maintenance of our organic soil all these steps without further degradation of our resources come to meet our pres-ent food demands (World Bank [2006](#page-35-0)). Not only to maintain but also to enhance soil natural fertility it is important to increase its carbon sequester capacity along with ability to overcome climate change (FAO [2009](#page-36-0); FAO 2010). By using SLM technologies we meet our human food demands without further degradation of our land and water resources (IFAD 2011; Lal 1997). It is evident that allowing land degradation is expensive because it has long term effects on society as well as on land owners (Costanza et al. 2014).

# *1.2 Causes of Land Degradation*

 The cause of land degradation for a particular area can be one or combined effects of many. (Geist and Lambin 2004) classified the causes into two categories

- proximate causes (biophysical)
- overlying causes (anthropogenic)

 Biophysical have direct effect on all ecosystems like drought, soil salinity, soil acidity, metal contamination, related to extreme climatic conditions while on the other hand anthropogenic causes have indirect effect on ecosystem like intensive cropping, deforestation, overgrazing or poverty, urbanization and industrialization.

 Among the proximate causes, agriculture is most contributing source of land degradation but its effect on land is aggravated by inter-related relations with other causes. Severe land degradation is observed in combination like the effect of extreme climatic changes is augmented along with poor man management techniques (McIntyre and Tongway [2005](#page-38-0); Smith et al. 2007). It is widely reported that in Australia, repeatedly focus on annual plants can lead to soil erosion, acidity, salini-zation in short cause land degradation (Bouwman et al. [2005](#page-35-0); Lavelle and Spain 2001).

# *1.3 Processes of Land Degradation*

 Following are the some processes discussed which alone or in combination effect land quality.

### **1.3.1 Soil Erosion**

 Soil erosion is one of major factor causing land degradation. Erosion not only removes upper fertile layer but also causes soil crusting or sealing, soil compaction, poor soil structure, low organic matter, poor drainage and run-off. There are two agents of soil erosion i.e. wind and water, each loss significant amount of soil and reduces its productivity and quality (Lal [1990](#page-38-0); Troeh et al. 2004). 12  $\%$  of total land area is affected by erosion globally (Oldeman 1998).

### **1.3.2 Soil Salinization**

 Land Degradation occurs due to high concentration of soluble salts, exchangeable sodium or both in such amount that decline the plant growth and soil productivity. According to (FAO 2000), of the world's cultivated land;  $3.97 \times 10^8$  ha is affected by salinity and  $4.34 \times 10^8$  ha of land is affected by sodicity, thus making 6% of total land area.

### **1.3.3 Water Logging**

 Water-logging is the rise of ground water in root zone, thus having adverse effects on plant growth. According to GLASOD assessment, 4.6 M ha area of irrigated land of Pakistan and India is affected by water logging (Bridges et al. [2002 \)](#page-35-0).

### **1.3.4 Decline in Soil Fertility**

 According to FAO (1994), decline in soil fertility causes land degradation by (i) lowering soil organic matter, (ii) deteriorating soil physical properties, (iii) imbalance in soil nutrient status and (iv) accumulation of toxic metals.

 It is said that these processes are caused by natural (erosion, salinity etc), institutional factors (improper land policies, inadequate planning) and socio-economic activities (improper land use, exploitation of forests, contamination of resources etc) (Ezeaku and Davidson [2008 \)](#page-36-0). These phenomenons's have devastating impacts on human-beings and on environment.

# *1.4 Types of Land Degradation*

 Land degradation can be divided into different categories like soil erosion, soil salinity and soil acidity.

# **2 Soil Salinity**

### *2.1 Salt Affected Soils*

 Salt-affected soils can be divided into three different categories depending upon the nature of salts.

### **2.1.1 Saline Soils**

 Saline soil means soils with excessive soluble salts that retards seed germination and plant growth (Conway [2001](#page-35-0); Denise [2003](#page-36-0)). These soluble salts exist in soil as cations and anions. Cations are calcium  $(Ca^{++})$ , magnesium  $(Mg^{++})$  and sodium  $(Na<sup>+</sup>)$ , while anions are chloride (Cl<sup>-</sup>), and sulfate (SO4<sup>-2</sup>) ions. Mostly occurring salts in saline soils are sulfates and chlorides of calcium and magnesium. Small quantities of cations potassium  $(K^+)$  and  $(NH_4^+)$  and the anions bicarbonate  $(HCO_3^-)$ , nitrate (NO<sub>3</sub> ) and carbonates ( $CO<sub>3</sub><sup>-2</sup>$ ) are also present (Appleton et al. 2009; Majerus [1996](#page-38-0); Scianna [2002](#page-40-0)). In saline soils soluble salts are in excess while exchangeable sodium is present in small concentration thus having good physical properties, flocculated soil structure and high permeability like in normal soils (Appleton et al. [2009](#page-35-0); Jim [2002](#page-40-0); Majerus 1996; Scianna 2002). Such soils have electrical conductivity  $\geq 4$  dS m<sup>-1</sup> soil reaction (pH<sub>s</sub>) < 8.5, sodium adsorption ration  $(SAR)$  <13 (mmol L<sup>-1)1/2</sup> and exchangeable sodium percentage (ESP) < 15.

 Patchy crop growth and tip burn or chlorosis of leaves of plants is observed due to salt injury in salt effected soil. These soils are also called white kallar as large quantities of soluble salts on soil surface forms efflorescence. These soils can be identified by "White alkali" which is the white crust of salts on the soil surface.

#### **2.1.2 Saline-Sodic Soils**

 Soil containing both excessive soluble salts and high exchangeable sodium content to adversely affect plant growth; are known as saline-sodic soils (Majerus 1996). These soils have electrical conductivity > 4 dS  $m^{-1}$  soil reaction (pH<sub>s</sub>) > 8.5, sodium adsorption ration (SAR) >13 (mmol  $L^{-1}$ )<sup>1/2</sup> and exchangeable sodium percentage  $(ESP) > 15.$ 

 Saline-sodic soils are converted into sodic soils when excess soluble salts are leached down and thus the properties of saline sodic soils changes into sodic soils having pH above 8.5, dispersed soil structure and less permeability of air and water (Denise [2003](#page-36-0)).

#### **2.1.3 Sodic Soils**

 Soils having high exchangeable sodium concentration but low total soluble salts are called sodic soils (Jim 2002). Such soils are characterized by having electrical conductivity < 4 dS m<sup>-1</sup> soil reaction (pH<sub>s</sub>) > 8.5, sodium adsorption ration (SAR) > 13 (mmol  $L^{-1}$ )<sup>1/2</sup> and exchangeable sodium percentage (ESP) > 15.

 $CO3<sup>2</sup>$  and HCO3<sup>-2</sup> are dominant anions of sodic soils (Oadir and Schubert [2002 \)](#page-39-0). At high pH and in the presence of carbonate ions magnesium and calcium got precipitated, thus the concentration of sodium ion increased in soil solution compared to other cations concentration (Majerus 1996; Oadir and Schubert 2002).

 Such soils often occur in semiarid and arid areas, which are frequently mentioned as "slick spots." The combination of increased sodium concentration, decreased salt concentration and increase in Ph results in the dispersion of soil par-ticles, result in destruction of soil structure (Conway [2001](#page-35-0); Denise [2003](#page-36-0)). Sodic soils are termed as "black alkali" due to the deposition of organic matter on soil surface by evaporation, thus darkening the soil (Denise 2003).

# *2.2 Origin of Salt Effected Soils*

 There are various interconnected sources behind the origin of salt-affected soils; nevertheless weathering of minerals and rocks is the most predominant one in accumulating soluble salts in soils. Though the salts in ocean at present occur mainly due to the weathering process of earth crust, ocean now serves as important role in distribution of salts. Soil salinization originates from one or combination of following (Chhabra 1996):

### **2.2.1 Soil Weathering Process**

 Weathering of soils and minerals leads to the accumulation of soluble salts in soil. Under humid conditions, salts leached down in the soil due to heavy rainfall. Thus in humid regions the formation of salt affected soils is rare while in arid and semiarid regions there is not sufficient water available to leach down these salts and consequently more salts accumulate in soil surface and result in soil salinity development. This process of accumulation of salts in soil by weathering is known as primary salinization.

# **2.2.2 Accumulation on the Surface Due to Irrigation Under Inadequate Drainage**

Improper irrigation system transports the salt on the surface of soil profile and on evaporation this salt is left behind. So, the water build up more salt on surface compared to evenly distribution of salt in the soil profile. This leads to the formation of saline soil.

# **2.2.3 Shallow Water Table**

 Inadequate water management and unsuitable drainage system are the reason behind the rise in water table of command area. In some lands it is reported that water table rises at rate of 1–2 m per year. To some extent this water is mineralized and due to increase in water table, water continues to rise upward by capillary action and on evaporation leave the salt behind. Shallow water table is the foremost reason behind developing salty soils.

### **2.2.4 Fossil Salts**

 In arid regions, salt accumulation is also derived from fossil salts, involve some entrapped solution or some former deposits in marine. Salt release is either natural or due to anthropogenic activities. Example of naturally salt release is rise in saline ground water through impermeable layer overlying saline band. Example of human induced salt release is the construction of canals or water channels in saline strata that leads to development of salinity in the area because of using this ground water for irrigation.

### **2.2.5 Seepage from the Upslope Containing Salts**

Salinity of downslope areas is commonly observed due to water influx in the upslope areas particularly, under certain conditions when water movement in subsurface takes place through those regions which are salts rich.

### **2.2.6 Ocean**

 Soil near coastal areas usually has high salt concentration from the ocean in the course of:

- Flooding of soil surface by sea water when waves are high;
- Entrance of sea water through rivers, inlets, etc.
- Flow of groundwater
- Aerosols generated by salt-affected areas are transported many kilometers in coastal areas. It is reported that 20–100 kg/ha NaCl in land while 100–200 kg/ha NaCl in coastal areas are deposited every year. Continuous addition of this small amount of salts in soils leads to soil salinity.

### **2.2.7 Chemical Fertilizer and Waste Materials**

Excessive use of chemical fertilizers in fields also contributes augmentation of salts in soil, yet there input in salinity development is insignificant. Nevertheless addition of some manures like sewage sludge, cow dung or slurry and industrial material like pyrites or pressmud influence the build-up of certain ions in soil that has negative effect on soil productivity (Chhabra [1996](#page-35-0)).

# *2.3 Causes of Salt Affected Soils*

There are two main causes of sililinty

- primary salinity (Natural process)
- secondary salinity (Anthropogenically induced salinity)

 Secondary salinity is primarily due to improper irrigation system and use of poor quality water.

#### **2.3.1 Primary Salinity**

 Primary salinity is a naturally occurring process mostly occur in arid and semi-arid regions where rainfall is low while evapo-transpiration rate is high, thus there is not availability of sufficient water to leach salts down to avoid salinization (McDowell [2008 \)](#page-38-0). Due to low rainfall, high transpiration and evaporation, salinity rises as salt concentration on soil surface increases while availability of water decreases (Bridgman et al. 2008). It is estimated that 1000 million hactares of world's total land which is equal to 7% of world's area is salt affected (Rose [2004](#page-40-0)). The major contribution in salinity causes is primary salinity which is consequential of natural soil development. It mostly occurs in arid tropical areas where salinity occur naturally (Huumllsebusch 2007).

 Primary salinity is also caused by natural release of some soluble salts in soil by weathering of parent material during soil development process, these soluble salts are Cl<sup>-</sup> of Na<sup>+</sup>, Ca<sup>2+</sup> and Mg<sup>2+</sup> and sometimes  $SO_4^{2-}$  and  $CO_3^{2-}$ (Ashraf and Harris 2005; Thiruchelvam and Pathmarajah 2003).

 Inadequate drainage is another factor causing soil salinization; it may involve the low permeability of soil or elevated ground water. This high ground-water is often due to physiographic unevenness. The water moves from higher lands over the sloping surface towards the lower lands cause either salty lakes or temporary flooding. Under such conditions, removal of water from surface develops saline soil (Ashraf and Harris 2005). Indurate layers in soil profile and poor soil structure results in low permeability. This low permeability leads to poor drainage by restrict-ing downward movement of water (Ashraf and Harris [2005](#page-35-0); Thiruchelvam and Pathmarajah [2003](#page-41-0)).

#### **2.3.2 Secondary Salinity**

 Secondary salinity is mainly due to disruption in hydrological cycle either through the replacement of natural vegetation with deeply rooted vegetation or through the excessive utilization or ineffective supply of water for agriculture (Beresford et al. 2004; Rose [2004](#page-40-0)). Salt affected land area is increasing day by day due to anthropogenic land-use practices (Bridgman2008). Estimated global secondary salinity rate are submitted at around 74 million hectares, with 43 million hectares irrigated land and the remaining area of non-irrigated land (Rose 2004).

 Secondary salinity due to anthropogenic practices that alter the hydrologic cycle and disrupt the water balance of the soil between water irrigated and water used by crops (transpiration) (Manchanda and Garg 2008; Munns 2005). In many irrigated areas, the water table has raised due to unjustified amounts of applied water together with poor drainage. Most of the irrigation systems of the world have caused secondary salinity, sodicity or waterlogging (Manchanda and Garg [2008 \)](#page-38-0).

Natural salinity has been intensified from plant using more water to plant use less water cause rise in water table, when irrigation water quality is fringe or poorer (Thiruchelvam and Pathmarajah [2003 \)](#page-41-0). In addition, when the soil drainage may not be suitable for irrigation, the considerable rise in water table from depth of few inches to a few feet of the soil surface is occurred mainly due to irrigation. When the water table rises to 5 or 6 ft of the soil surface, ground water moves upward into the rooted area and to the soil surface. Under such circumstances, both ground water and irrigation water, contributes to the salinity. Another causes of secondary salinity are deforestation, intensive cropping, overgrazing of cattle, use of fertilizer and other amendments (Ashraf and Harris 2005; Thiruchelvam and Pathmarajah 2003).

#### 2.3.2.1 Deforestation

 Deforestation is recognized as a major cause of salinity and alkalinity of soils. Salinity is results due to migration of salts in both the upper and lower layers. That indirectly leads to the increase in temperature of surface water and reduction in average rainfall per year (Hastenrath 1991; Shukla et al. 1990). Tree covers and green vegetation's act as buffer between soil and rain. In absence of green vegetation cover top thin soil rapidly gets eroded. Rate of water run-off and sedimentation in the rivers and streams is increased due to soil erosion. That leads to flooding and soil salinization (Domroes 1991; Shukla et al. [1990](#page-40-0)).

### 2.3.2.2 Accumulation of Air-Borne or Water-Borne Salts in Soils

 Different salts and chemicals that release from the industry and factories can enter into the soil and water and thus problem of salinity rises in the soil (Pessarakli [2010 \)](#page-39-0). Similarly extra water that came out from municipalities and slush are responsible for the contamination of the soil which then become the part of salinity and or alkalinity causing factors (Bond [1998](#page-35-0)).

### 2.3.2.3 Contamination with Chemicals

 In present era use of chemicals and intense agricultural activities especially in green houses and intensive farming system playing important role in the contamination of the soil that leads to the generation of salt affected soils.

#### 2.3.2.4 Overgrazing

Overgrazing is common where the natural soil cover is poor and hardly satisfies the fodder contents of animal husbandry mainly occur in arid and semiarid regions (Pessarakli 2010). The natural vegetation becomes scanty and salinization develops, and this process ends up in desertification due to overgrazing.

#### 2.3.2.5 Fallowing

 Soil which is uncultivated for longer period of time invites salinity because it alters the net water movement in upwards direction which results in accumulation of salts. On the other hand a soil with green top cover is useful in diverting the hydrological cycle and movements of salts downwards (Hassan et al. 2011).

 Salts in the soil are electrically charged occur as ions. The main releasing sources of the ions are primary or natural sources and secondary or salinity caused by human influences (Pace and Johnson 2002).

# *2.4 Impact of Salt Affected Soil on Plant*

Severe salt affected soils have influential role on plant growth both chemically like nutritional effect or toxicity and physically like osmotic effect. Thus due to these affects plant growth is delayed and quality of agricultural production is reduced (Denise [2003](#page-36-0); Hakeem et al. [2013](#page-37-0); Gonzalez et al. 2004).

 There are three main reasons of soil salinization which can effect plant growth adversely (Conway 2001; Jim [2002](#page-37-0)).

- Osmotic effect hinders water uptake into the plants
- Specific ion effect causes nutritional imbalance in the plants
- Destruction of soil structure and reduction in permeability

### **2.4.1 Osmotic Deregulation**

 Water uptake by the plant from the root hairs is due to concentration gradient that exists among cell sap of root cells and soil solution. High salt concentration in the soil reduces water potential difference between plant cell and soil solution (BPMC 1996). High salt content in soil solution makes soil water potential more negative, this means that water is held more strongly in soils and reduces the movement of water into the cell. If salt concentration continues to increase making water potential more negative a level come when water may move out of cell to soil solution (Silvertooth and Norton 2000).

 Due to this high negative potential, plants are unable to use soil water in spite of sufficient water availability in soil. Thus in this condition plant requires more energy to take water and it effects plant proper growth and development. Under drought condition especially in clayey soil, osmotic deregulation is more prominent as plant require more energy to take the water from the soil at given moisture level (Conway 2001; Gonzalez et al. [2004](#page-37-0)).

 Reduction in plant growth, cell dehydration and possibly plant death are the consequences of high salinization in normal plant (less tolerant plants) but halophytes (salt tolerant plants) adopt certain physiological changes to survive under stress conditions (Scianna 2002). Salt stress symptoms appear in plants are similar to drought stress symptoms like stunted plant growth, change in color of leaves, curling of leaves and overall plant growth is suffered (Denise 2003). These indications may occur within a few days of plantation or after numerous weeks in young seedlings while in older or mature plants salt stress causes browning of leaves from tips and overall wilting of plants (BGS 2001).

 Salt stress increases the production of reactive oxygen species (ROS) such as such as superoxide  $(O_2^{\bullet-})$ , hydrogen peroxide  $(H_2O_2)$ , hydroxyl radical  $(OH\bullet)$  and singlet oxygen  $(1O<sup>2</sup>)$  because in salt stress carbon fixation is limited in plants due to little carbon dioxide availability (Ahmad and Sharma 2008; Ahmad et al. 2011;

Ahmad et al. [2010](#page-34-0); Parida and Das [2005](#page-39-0); Hakeem et al. [2013](#page-37-0)). Oxidation of proteins, nucleic acid and lipids is done by these highly reactive species (ROS) and thus damages plants cells (Ahmad et al. [2010](#page-34-0); Apel and Hirt 2004; Pastori and Foyer  $2002$ .

 Under saline conditions, production of ROS species in many plants is augmented (Hasegawa et al. [2000](#page-37-0) ). Due to these ROS species, membrane damage was observed which leads to cellular injury and toxicity cause by salinization in various crop plants for example pea tomato, mustard, soybean and rice (Ahmad et al. 2009; Dionisio-Sese and Tobita 1998; Gueta-Dahan et al. 1997; Mittova et al. 2004; Hakeem et al. 2012).

### **2.4.2 Nutrition Imbalance**

There are specific ions which have direct toxic effect on plants (Scianna 2002). Among these ions are boron, sodium and chloride which have negative effect on crop emergence, plant growth and crop development. Even the small quantities of these ions retard the plant growth (Gonzalez et al. [2004](#page-37-0)).

 Furthermore, if sodium ions are present in high concentration it hinders the uptake of other nutrient ions which are required by the plants for proper growth by altering soil physical and chemical properties (Scianna 2002). This can cause disturbance in nutrient balance in the plants and upset plant mineral nutrition by impeding nutrient uptake (Conway 2001).

For instance calcium and potassium deficiency is because of high sodium concentration and nitrate deficiency usually occurs when sulfate and chlorides are in high concentration (BPMC 1996). At higher pH i.e. above seven, nutrient availability is less. Sodic soils having high pH are usually deficit in nutrient concentration (Denise [2003](#page-36-0)). The symptoms associated with nutrient deficiencies and toxicities of plants can be described by tip burning, necrosis, chlorosis, dieback and abscission (BPMC 1996).

 Nutrient imbalances decrease the transport and availability of nutrients and effects plant growth. Nutrient deficiencies are usually due to the competitive effect among different ions like potassium, calcium and nitrate with sodium and chloride. Reduction in plant development and growth under saline conditions is due to ionic imbalance and specific ion toxicity i.e. Na<sup>+</sup> and Cl<sup>−</sup> (Grattan and Grieve [1998](#page-37-0)).

 It is reported that induction of Na and Cl concentrations while decrease in the concentration of other ions Ca, P, N, K and Mg due to rise in NaCl concentration (El-Wahab [2006](#page-36-0)).

 As salinity directly affects the nutrient availability, uptake and its distribution or transport in plant, consequently nutrition imbalance arises. It is repeatedly reported the effect of salinity in lowering nutrient accumulation and uptake in plants (Hu and Schmidhalter 2005; Rogers et al. 2003).

#### **2.4.3 Structure and Permeability Problem of Salts in the Soil**

 Soil salinity sometimes have negative effect on soil physical properties like soil structure and soil permeability and thus reducing plant growth (Scianna 2002).

 Due to certain physical methods like clay swelling or dispersion, slaking and some specific conditions like hard setting and surface crusting, soil structure is disturbed in saline-sodic and sodic soils. These disturbances in soil may limits water and air movement, restricts root penetration, lowers the water holding capacity of plants, delays seed emergence and enhances the problem of erosion and run-off (Qadir et al. [2003](#page-39-0) ). Sodic layer restricts roots emergence if it occurs near sodic soil surface. That's why if sodic clay layer develops on topsoil, most of roots movements are limited along with controlled movement of air and water (Fitzpatrick et al. 2003).

 Seed germination is also affected by salinity problem along with but it is reported that salinity problem does not influence seed viability (Conway 2001).

# *2.5 Reclamation of Salt-Affected Soils*

 The most important category of degraded soils is salt-affected soils which had severe effects of salinity and/ or sodicity on agriculture production and increasing on a global scale with every day. Approximately, one billion hectares of land is affected with various concentration and nature of salts worldwide (Wicke et al. 2011). The contribution of anthropogenic salinization and sodication is approximately 76 million hectares (Oldeman et al. [1991 \)](#page-39-0). These activities are degrading the lands continuously on an estimated rate of between 0.25 and 0.5 Mha annually (FAO 2000). The continuous expansion of salt-affected area is particularly important in South Asia where there is fresh water scarcity at one hand and on the other hand arid to semi-arid climate coupled with low rainfall. The large extent of degraded soils is responsible for the low production of agriculture crops both quantitatively as well as qualitatively. This agriculture product is insufficient to feed the massively increasing population of the world. The core reason of low productivity form these soils is hampering water absorption by plant roots (osmotic deregulation), cell injury (the specific ion toxicity) along with deterioration in the physical properties of these soil (Abrol et al. [1988](#page-34-0); Ghassemi et al. [1995](#page-37-0); Lamond and Whitney 1992).

 Saline soils are important land resources in world agriculture because saltaffected soils are usually abundant in natural resources like light and heat posing great potential to develop agriculture. Reclamation of salt-affected soils is of key importance to mitigate the pressure on every day squeezing agricultural soils. It will help in increasing the cultivated area and reducing the threats to our food security. Several methods have been experimented for the reclamation of salt-affected soils and the suitability of method depends upon physical, chemical and mineralogical characteristics of the soil including internal soil drainage, presence of hardpans in the subsoil, climatic conditions and types of salts, quality and quantity of available water, depth of ground water, replacement of excessive exchangeable Na+, lime or gypsum, cost of the amendments, topographic features of the land, and the time available for reclamation (Mashali 1991). The appropriate management of the constrained soil resources for the economic agricultural production is the main emphasis in agriculture. The prominent techniques include chemical, biological and agronomic or combination of these approaches to reduce the time of reclamation with in the economic bindings. The crop production and fertilizer use efficiency of these soils can be increased by an integrated approach, i.e. use of amendments preferably gypsum and organic/ inorganic manures which helps in maximizing and sustaining yields, improving soil health and input use efficiency (Swarp 2004).

Some of these possible techniques have been discussed in this section.

#### **2.5.1 Physical Methods**

 Physical methods are those approaches which involve physical treatment of the soil without the application of any organic or inorganic chemicals. The physical methods include sub-soiling, deep ploughing, sanding, horizon mixing, profile-inversion and channeling irrigation practices like drip irrigation etc. These treatments increase the permeability of the soil, which is generally a limiting factor during the reclamation of sodic and saline-sodic soils. Deep ploughing is very useful where the sub-soil has gypsum or lime (Ahmed and Qamar [2004](#page-34-0)). Salt-affected soils can be reclaimed by altering the methods of irrigation water applications for crop production may be providing adequate irrigation water or rainfall to leach down excessive salts from the root zone soil, and improving good internal soil drainage (Qadir and Schubert 2002; Zhang et al. [2008](#page-41-0)). In this regard, drip irrigation thought to be an effective approach to reclaim salt degraded soils. Research results proved that the leaching efficiency with drip irrigation remained higher compared to that with other irrigation methods (Bresler et al. [1982](#page-35-0)). It was observed that red effect drip irrigation on different soil properties on an unreclaimed salt-affected land (Tan and Kang 2009). Application of drip irrigation along with cropping significantly decreased salt concentration especially in upper 0–5 cm soil layer reducing salt concentration from 10.45 dS m<sup>-1</sup> to 1.65, 3.49, and 0.94 dS m<sup>-1</sup> on the 1st, 2nd, and 3rd cropping years respectively under field conditions. However, the big hindrance in this physical amelioration is availability of sufficient amount of good quality irrigation water and if available, have a high-cost in rural regions (Qadir and Schubert 2002; Zhang et al. 2006). For inland regions, ameliorating soil salinity can be achieved effectively by a plant-assisted approach than the physical approach (Li et al. [2008 ;](#page-38-0) Qadir and Schubert 2002; Zhang et al. [2006](#page-42-0)).

#### **2.5.2 Chemical Process**

 The chemical methods include application of chemicals, such as gypsum, sulphur, sulphuric acid and hydrochloric acid. Gypsum is effective on both sodic and salinesodic soils, while sulphur, sulphuric acid and hydrochloric acid are only effective for calcareous saline-sodic soils. These amendments remediate the soil by lowering the soil pH and react with soluble carbonates and replace the exchangeable sodium with calcium (Ahmed and Oamar [2004](#page-34-0)).

 The reclamation of sodic soils is usually the most expensive compared to saline and saline-sodic soils but can be reclaimed by addition of chemical amendments, organic matter, deep tillage (Seelig et al. [1991 \)](#page-40-0). Gypsum has been recommended as an economical amendment for the amelioration of sodic and saline sodic soils (Elshout and Kamphorst 1990; Oadir and Schubert 2002; Shainberg et al. 1982). Gypsum has very low relative solubility being  $0.2\%$  (0.2 g in 100 mL water) that may cause hinder and prolong the reclamation process for sodic soil (Carter and Pearen 1989). The solubility and efficiency of gypsum can be enhanced with application of fine ground material and with application methods. Application of gypsum in standing water can improve the efficiency of gypsum than application on dry soil surface (Choudhary et al. 2008) due to rapid dissolution in case of standing water. Similarly, powdered form of gypsum is more efficient in reclaiming sodic soils (Ali et al. 1999; Choudhary et al. 2008; Ghafoor et al. 2001). Dut et al. (1971) claimed that 52 to 72 cm water is required to dissolve 16.5 to 23.9 Mg ha<sup>-1</sup> gypsum applied on soil surface. The solubility of gypsum increases by 10 folds under sodic soil condition.

 Moreover, mixing of gypsum and fast removal of Na from the soil solution will speed up the exchange process (Frenkel et al. 1989). However, if the soil is dense and has poor drainage, little or none of the exchange will be removed and gypsum application will largely be ineffective rather it can increase the soil salinity. (Ilyas et al. 1997) observed higher Na, Ca, Mg, and EC values with gypsum application that were mainly attributed to poor soil permeability where the replaced Na remained in the soil solution. However, alter one year the EC and Na started to decline. Under soil conditions deep ploughing will facilitate the process of reclamation to allow leaching of Na salts.

 Application of gypsum improves physical as well as chemical properties of salt degraded soils (Ayers and Westcot [1985](#page-35-0)), soil porosity (Oster et al. [1996](#page-39-0); Shainberg and Letey 1984) and soil hydraulic conductivity (Scotter [1978](#page-40-0)). A significant decrease in soil bulk density was recorded when surface soil was treated with phos-phor gypsum (Southard and Buol [1988](#page-40-0)). Ghafoor et al. (1985) observed a significant increase in grain yield of wheat with gypsum application.

#### **2.5.3 Organic Matter**

 Addition of organic amendments improves soil structure increasing soil permeabil-ity (Tejada et al. [2006](#page-41-0)). Different studies revealed that there is a positive correlation between organic matter and microbial activity (Schnürer and Rosswall 1985).

Microbial population improved soil physical properties which accelerate the ame-liorative process of salt-affected soils. (McCormick and Wolf [1980](#page-38-0)) observed that alfalfa residues used as an organic amendment can reduce the deleterious effects of soil salinity. Biochar is widely used as an organic amendment now a days, has beneficial effect in ameliorating salt-affected soils. Biochar improves soil structure having positive on bulk density, pore-size distribution and particle size distribution (Roberts et al. [2009](#page-40-0); Sohi et al. 2009). Biochar benefits biophysical properties of soils increasing availability of air and water in rhizoshere which in turn improves germination and plant survival (Lehmann et al. [2006](#page-38-0); Zhang et al. 2014).

#### **2.5.4 Biological Methods**

 By planting salt tolerant plants on salt degraded soils, water evaporation consider-ably decreased from surface soil (Li et al. [2010](#page-38-0); Oadir and Schubert [2002](#page-39-0)). Many field experiments revealed that planting forages in salt degraded soil, physical properties were improved due to penetration and exclusion of an extensive and thick root system followed by leaching of excessive salts to deeper layers (Liang et al. 2007). In addition, the forage cover minimized water evaporation and salt accumulation in the surface layer soil (Ghaly [2002](#page-36-0) ). Phytoremediation of salt-affected soils, the soil productivity was significantly increased compared to that with simple leaching with irrigation water (Zhang et al. 2005). Biosaline (agro) forestry's most vital prospect is the controlling soil salinity and sodicity along with the reclamation of the degraded land for high yield and other agricultural production. It is reported that agroforestry have the potential to control the salinity and sodicity (Barrett-Lennard [2002](#page-35-0); Oster et al. [1996](#page-39-0); Qadir and Schubert 2002; Singh [1993](#page-40-0)). Thus forestry and agroforestry systems on salt-affected soils which is referred as the biosaline agroforestry can act as the supportive land use against the salinity problem. The reason behind this is the tolerance of the some salts against salinity/sodicity and their plantation can help the soil in elimination of the salinity of the soil (Singh 1993; Turner and Lambert 2000).

#### **2.5.5 Hydro-Technical Method**

 In this method a saline water of high electrolyte concentration (EC) is used by keeping in view the principle of valence-dilution effect to affect soil permeability and subsequently by successive dilutions. The valence dilution effect was first validated by (Eaton and Sokoloff [1935 \)](#page-36-0) for reclaiming sodic soils. After the establishment of equilibrium between monovalent and divalent cations in the soil solution and the ones which are found adsorbed, application of water to the system alter the equilibrium in such a way that it will be favorable for the adsorption of divalent cations such as  $Ca^{2+}$  after the adsorption of the monovalent cations such as Na<sup>+</sup>. Contrary to this situation when the soil solution is concentrated due to evapotranspiration adsorption of monovalent cations such as  $Na<sup>+</sup>$  occur first and then adsorption of divalent cations such as  $Ca^{2+}$ . The ratio of divalent to total cations when concentrations are stated in mmol<sub>c</sub>  $L^{-1}$  of water should be at least 0.3 and with the increase in

this value water requirement for the reclamation decreases. A few natural water sources have this value of this ratio but mostly some additional  $Ca<sup>2+</sup>$  is required that can be added by (1) soil application of gypsum followed by irrigation with high-salt water or (2) by placing gypsum stones in the water channels to add  $Ca^{2+}$  in the salty water through gypsum stone dissolution. The major problems with this method are limited facilities of collection, conveyance, and treatment of saline water.

#### **2.5.6 Electro-Reclamation Method**

 Electro-reclamation refers to the amelioration of salt-affected soils through electrodialysis. Laboratory and field investigations have shown that treatment with electric current may simulate reclamation of saline-sodic/sodic soils, although it cannot replace the conventional procedures of soil reclamation. By this method different anions such as nitrate, sulfate, fluoride, and chloride can be removed from the soil by the method of electro-reclamation. During electro kinetic reclamation, the pH increases adjacent to the anode and decreases around the cathode. The removed cations  $(Ca^{2+}, Mg^{2+}, K^+, and Na^+$  were 19.5%, 34.4%, 58.9%, and 89.6% respectively) and anions (Cl<sup>-</sup>, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> were 47.9%, 91.5%, and 67.6%) from saline soils having  $EC = 13.7$  dS m<sup>-1</sup> (Kim et al. 2013). Kim et al. (2011) found a significant decrease in EC of a saline soil ( $EC = 7.1$  dS m<sup>-1</sup>) using a hexagonal twodimensional electrode. Generally, the removed nitrate was relatively higher than either chloride or sulfate. Sulfate tends to form insoluble CaSO4, which may decrease its respond to electro reclamation. Another study showed that chloride was concentrated on the saline soil surface ( $EC = 7.8$  dS m<sup>-1</sup>). Magnesium was not removed but potassium was removed, and sulfate showed a uniform distribution (Kim et al. 2011). The removal of  $Ca^{2+}$  was increased during pulse electro remediation of saline soils with EC ranging from 6 to 21 dS m<sup>-1</sup>, as the process enhances the interactions of soil water solutions (Le et al. 2003).

#### **2.5.7 Combination of Organic and Chemical Amendments**

 Use of organic amendments manifolds the process of improvement of soil properties both physical and chemical as compared to the use of chemical amendments alone. Harms of salt affected soils can be lower down by the use of organic matter (organic amendment) along with gypsum (inorganic amendment). Wong et al. (2009) reported that use of organic matter improves the physico-chemical properties of soil of the salt affected areas. Addition of farm yard manure along with gypsum reduces the EC and ESP up to the great extends (Abou El-Defan et al. 2005). Solubility of the gypsum will become two times rapid with the addition of the citrate (Jones and Kochian 1996). Citrate enhances the reclamation process by causing the complexation of the Al from solution as well as from the minerals. More decrease in dispersion and EC was observed with the combined application of organic matter and gypsum (Vance et al 1998).

# *2.6 Management of Salt Effected Soils*

#### **2.6.1 Management of Saline Soils**

#### 2.6.1.1 Leaching

 Salt affected soils can be reclaimed by removing the salts from the root zone area of plants either with heavy irrigation or with the drainage (Feng et al. [2005 ;](#page-36-0) Qadir et al. 2001; Oureshi et al. [2008](#page-39-0)). Salt affected soils can be reclaimed as well as managed by irrigating the soil with plenty of good quality water. We can determine the reclamation rate by knowing the amount of water that reaches out of root zone after passing through soil referring as leaching fraction while leaching fraction is directly related to the drainage capacity of soil. Reclamation process initiates by drainage of salts and reducing the water table. There are some cases when reducing water table will no longer be beneficial but this problem can be solved by the utilization of land for crop cultivation. Brackish water used for irrigation purposes due to shortage of good quality water is the major cause of salinity problem. Salt affected soils can be reclaimed by leaching down the salts along with irrigation sources of good quality water rather using the poor quality water. 1.5 times of the EC of the irrigation water salts can be removed from the soil while adopting the good management activities. Thus if EC of the leaching water is high we need huge quantity of water to eliminate the salts from the salt affected soils. It is general recommendation that EC can be reduced up to half with every 6 in. good quality water that can pass through the soil along with salts. That's why if we have to remove the salts 30 in. downward having EC 1.5 dS/m we need 6 in. water that will move up to the 30 in. within the soil that will EC lower the EC to 0.75 dS/m. It is proved that organic matter improves the soil properties thus with the application of the organic matter drainage capacity of the soil will be enhanced that will reduce the problem of salinity. To enhance the organic matter into the soil vegetation is very important. Growing of maximum trees can act as the buffer of the soil against the generation of the salt affected soil. Addition of salts will lower down the free energy of the water by rising the osmotic potential or solute potential. Resultantly plants feel difficulty in the uptake of the water and growth and development of the plants become less. Now it is the need of the hour to reclaim the salt affected soil to get the maximum yield as food security and sustainability are becoming major problem of the world.

#### 2.6.1.2 Irrigation Method

 It is very important that how are we irrigating the soil to check down the high concentration of the salt in the root zone. It is reported that application of the large amount of water for the irrigation purposes plays supportive role for the adequate uptake of water by plants. Sprinkler irrigation is one of the best methods for irrigation especially when water shortage and salinity are the major problem. Soluble salts leach down from the root zone when irrigation is applied to the soil for the maximum time and quantity. Thus sprinkler irrigation ranks high in efficiency as compared to the flooding. It is reported by Nielsen et al. (1966) that requirement of water becomes 3 times more in flood irrigation when compared with the sprinkler irrigation for lowering the same amount of the salts. It is also beneficial that land leveling is not required for the uniform application of the water which is the basic necessity in the flooding irrigation. Similarly drip irrigation which is sometimes also called trickle irrigation is the best method of irrigation for the perennial crops and seasonal row crops. As it supply the water the water at one point only problem of salinity become minimized. Salt concentration will become less by this method by keeping the water table low. When water table will be low risk of salinity development reduces up to great extent.

#### 2.6.1.3 Mulching

 Salts come at the surface of the soil when process of the evaporation becomes faster that application of water. Even the leached down salts can come at the surface along with water with capillary rise process when irrigation will not be applied for long time especially during the fallowing of the land. Soil salinity is the major problem when water table is shallow along with the high EC of the irrigation water. But the problem salinity can be reduced by lowering the evaporation process. Evaporation become limited when soil remain covered with vegetation. It is recommended that the salinity problem become less when process of evaporation will be lowered by mulching or covering the soil (Sandoval and Benz 1966). Thus after the fallowing of land mulching will be helpful in controlling the salinity problem.

#### **2.6.2 Management of Sodic Soils**

Excess Na<sup>+</sup> on the cation exchange sites causes clay particles to disperse or swell, and as a consequence these soils have poor structure, low aggregate stability, and reduced water infiltration (Rengasamy and Olsson 1991). Overall, sodic soils are a poor rooting medium for plant growth and provide lowered or insufficient nutrients. Sodic soils also have reduced biological activity and function due to the limited availability of C substrates that are likely the result of lowered net primary productivity in these soils (Rao and Pathak 1996). Remediating the effects of excess  $Na<sup>+</sup>$  in sodic soils can be accomplished with soil amendments and land management. Calcium amendments have been shown to reduce the effects of sodicity. Calcium flocculates clay particles leading to improvements in soil structure (Frenkel et al. 1989). Calcium also replaces  $Na<sup>+</sup>$  on soil exchange sites and is frequently correlated with increases in soluble  $Na<sup>+</sup>$  (Ilyas et al. 1997). Rates of gypsum application can be calculated by taking into account soil cation exchange capacity, target SAR, and current SAR values (Ashworth et al. 1999). After chemical treatment subsurface tile drainage may be used to remove excess sodium from the rooting zone (Pessarakli

and Szabolcs [1999 \)](#page-39-0). Subsurface drainage can also prevent salt accumulation due to fluctuations in water table depth, capillary rise, and evaporation (Abrol et al. 1988). In order to provide advice to growers with respect to whether their management strategies have begun to bring about the changes they anticipated, a tool capable of detecting short term improvements is needed. Successful remediation of sodicity may take years and can be costly (Qadir and Oster [2002](#page-39-0)). Soil health is referred as ability of soil to perform within ecosystems and use of land to sustain high yield, good environmental quality and improve plant, animal, and human health (Doran and Parkin [1994](#page-36-0)). Soil health can be determined by the use of different indicators such as a proxy for shifts in nutrient cycling resulting from land use change, amendment application and tile drainage installation will aid in the early detection of effective remediation strategies, potentially reducing the cost and environmental impact of remediation (Ella et al. 2011; Fortuna et al. [2012](#page-36-0)). Additionally identifying soil health indicators and monitoring changes in these soil properties will aid landowners in ensuring the long–term productivity of the land. Currently, biological soil health indicators are not widely used to assess remediation progress. Reclamation of the sodic soil is very difficult and mostly expenses become high than income. By following the above procedures reclamation of the sodic soil is possible but it took many years to completely reclaim this problem while following the good crop management practices.

#### 2.6.2.1 Drainage

 Soil sodicity problem can be controlled by removing the high concentration of sodium from the root zone by good drainage practice. Low water table is helpful in reducing this problem. By the development of the tile drains and by changing the topography sodic soils can be reclaimed up to the great extent. Plantation of trees especially deep rooted is also beneficial when we want to low down the problem of sodicity. Sealing of canals or lining of canals become supportive for controlling the seepage which resultantly control the problem of the sodicity. Thus good drainage property of the soil is very important in controlling the problem of the sodicity.

#### 2.6.2.2 Tillage and Amendments

 Tillage practice is considered as the physical practice in reclaiming the problem of sodicity. Tillage cause the fragmentation of the big soil colloids having the high concentration of the sodium and amendments will become the part of the soil and reclaiming process become faster. Large organic matter which has the property of slow decomposition like straw, cornstalks, sawdust, or wood shavings used for animal bedding is reported beneficial for improving soil structure and infiltration properties of soil along with the other reclamation activities.

### 2.6.2.3 Supplying Calcium to Improve Water Infiltration

Refining water infiltration property of soil requires lowering of the exchangeable sodium percentage (ESP) along with raising the electrical conductivity (EC) up to more than 4 dS/m (4 mmhos/cm). It can be determined by the soil texture and irrigation method that how much exchangeable sodium percentage (ESP) is required to make the better infiltration. Sandy textured soils have the capacity to bear the exchangeable sodium percentage (ESP) upto the 12 while still having good infiltration and percolation. Surface irrigation similarly can retain good infiltration and percolation with high exchangeable sodium percentage (ESP) as compared to the sprinkler irrigation. Calcium is basic need in the reclamation process of the sodic soils as it can replace the sodium and that lowering the ESP as well as SAR.

### 2.6.2.4 Irrigation Water Management

 Irrigation water that comes from the deep wells has great concentration of bicarbonate and thus high sodium concentration as compared to the calcium and magnesium. Irrigation with such type of water for long time creates the problem of sodicity. EC and SAR are used to evaluate the infiltration problems by the application of the irrigation water.

### **2.6.3 Management of Saline-Sodic Soils**

To reclaim the saline-sodic soils it is the important to first reclaim the sodic soil with the use of calcium to resolve the problem of high concentration of the sodium. After reclaiming the problem of the high concentration of sodium (sodicity) problem of the high concentration of salts (salinity) can be resolved simply by the application of the high amount of irrigation water. It is the basic requirement of saline-sodic soil reclamation that to solubilize the sodium first before the leaching of all other salts. The reason behind it is that if we'll not make the sodium soluble before removing all salts from root zone problem of sodicity will left over after treating the soil for salinity problem. Thus soil structure will be deteriorated that will make infiltration process either completely stop or lower down. After this destruction remediation becomes very difficult. Therefore it is necessary to determine that how much sodium problem still remaining before applying good quality irrigation water to leach salts. High EC of irrigation water and soil supports for improving soil structure, increasing water infiltration, and resist sodium from accumulation into the soil. Except this positive effect of high EC (salt) irrigation water about soil structure it is not good for crop production.

#### **2.6.4 Adaptations of Salt Tolerant Plants**

 To choose the plants that have the tolerance against the salinity is the major step in reclamation of the salt affected soils. It is because different plants have different potential to uptake and accumulation of the salts to minimize the salinity problem (Conway [2001](#page-35-0)). Different species of plants show salt tolerance against salinity by developing the mechanisms like salt exclusion, uptake and compartmentalization of salts and extrusion of salts (Holly 2004). These salt tolerance plants are also referred as the halophytes. Physiological property of halophytes is usually expressed as morphological features like salt glands, salt hairs, and succulence. Plants depend on more than one tolerance mechanism for salt tolerance (Holly 2004; Naidoo and Naidoo 1999). Halophytes can adjust osmotic effects internally by accumulating high salt concentrations or they may become able to absorb more water from saline soils (AzevedoNeto et al. 2004). Salt exclusion permits plants to maintain and reduces the quantity of salts that go to growing leaves and young fruits. A few species have adopted excluder mechanisms to tolerate the salinity stress. Through this mechanism plants filter the salts in their roots and resist against the salt uptake towards the upper parts. Salt stress is tolerated by the plants by reducing germination, growth, and reproduction to specific seasons during the year and by growing roots into non-saline soil layers, or by less uptakes of the salts from the soil (BPMC 1996). Halophytes take salts from the soil and accumulate them in to their different cells and thus maintain their water potential (Andre et al. 2004). Salt tolerant plants accumulate ions in the vacuole and produce organic solutes into their cytoplasm (Marcum 2001; Taizand Eduardo 1998). This practice of accumulation of ions in the vacuole and production of the organic solutes helps the plant to take more water with an osmotic gradient without causing harm to the salt sensitive enzymes. Plants also accumulate the salts into their vascular tissues and try to avoid the exposure of chloroplast to the salts (Misra et al. [2001](#page-38-0)). Production of organic solutes also helps the plants to retain water balance between the cytoplasm and vacuoles (Holly 2004; Marcum 2001). Plants can uptake more water from the soil when water potential of the soil will be higher than the water potential of the cells of plant (Holly 2004; Taiz and Eduardo 1998).

# **3 Soil Erosion**

 Soil erosion is the detachment of soil particles by the action of wind or water. Though soil erosion is a natural process but is accelerated by anthropogenic activities like deforestation, overgrazing, improper agricultural practices and cultivation techniques. This is a widespread problem due to which our fertile ecosystems are losing their fertility and result in degradation of all ecosystems (Lal and Stewart 1990; Troeh et al. 2004).

 Loss of agricultural land is observed due to human induced erosion and other related damages. This leads to desertion and lowered productivity of agricultural lands which are also somewhat made up by addition of fertilizers over many years (Pimentel et al. [1995](#page-39-0); Young 1998). Every year almost 10 million hectares of cropland are deserted worldwide due to soil erosion (Pimentel 2006).

# *3.1 Types of Soil Erosion*

 Erosion is mainly caused by two agents, water and wind and thus soils erosion is divided into main categories *viz*. water erosion and wind erosion.

### **3.1.1 Water Erosion**

 Water erosion is the detachment of soil particles by the action of water. Particles are detached by raindrop impact or transported by overland water flow. Raindrop impact breaks down the aggregate of soil particles into smaller parts, these suspended particles deposited in the pores between the aggregates and clog them resulting in 'soil crust' formation. Soil crusting seals the surface by blocking the spaces between aggregates, lowering infiltration rate and drainage while increasing the run-off. Uncovered land is more susceptible to rain drop impact compared to vegetative covered land. Thus more and more water is lost due to run-off, the upper fertile layer of the soil is lost and soil becomes less productive. As soil forming process is a timetaken process, it is measured that a soil loss of 1 t/hac/year is considered irreparable within 50–100 years of time span (Van Camp and Vauterin 2005).

Raindrop impact is the first stage of water erosion; it leads to sheet erosion. Sheet erosion removes upper fertile layer of soil. Sheet erosion develops into rill erosion, forming small channels. These channels become widen and lead to gully formation (Hillel [1998](#page-37-0)).

### **3.1.2 Wind Erosion**

 Erosion caused by wind is known as wind erosion. It is the severe problem of arid and semiarid regions but also observed in humid regions. Wind erosion transports very fine particles and lowers soil fertility and thus degradation occurs. It is reported by Global Assessment of Soil degradation that 42 million hectare of European land is wind eroded (EEA 2003).

There are three modes of soil movement, depending on particle size:

- Creep (>500μmalong the surface)
- Saltation (70-500  $\mu$ m)
- Suspension (short-term suspension 20–70 μm; long term suspension < 20 μm) (Shao 2000).

 The extent of wind erosion is determined by soil's erodibility, climate's erosivity and also influence by various other components increasing the actual erodibility of site (Sterk and Warren 2003). Climate's erosivity depends on intensity, duration, direction and frequency of wind velocity; amount, intensity and distribution of rain-fall, radiation, humidity and evaporation (Funk and Reuter [2006](#page-36-0)).

# *3.2 Causes of Erosion*

 Main cause of soil erosion when land is remaining exposed to rain or wind storms. About 60,000 kcal of raindrop energy is recorded on hitting a hectare of land in New York with 1000 mm of rainfall (Troeh 1999). This highly energized raindrop result in erosion of land even on slopes to downwards. Among all types of erosion sheet erosion is most prominent of all (Troeh 2004; Oldeman 1998). The soil erosion becomes more degradable on slopes when water flowing above them carried fertile soil particles along with it into streams and valleys. Strong wind intensifies this situation displace the upper fertile layer soil particles to different distant areas.

#### **3.2.1 Soil Structure**

 Structure of the soil is an important factor in the soil erosion process. The soil with weak developed structure, medium to fine in texture and having low content of organic matter are most dominantly eroded in easy ways (Bajracharya and Lal 1992). Due to less water holding capacity and low water infiltration rates these soils are more favorable to be eroded by wind and water energy.

 Texture and organic matter content of soil provides ability to the soil to resist erosive conditions. They influence the water holding capacity of soil as well as make aggregates of soil particles (Chepil 1955).

#### **3.2.2 The Role of Vegetative Cover**

 Coverage of plant biomass serves as a protective blanket over the topsoil to prevent it from erosion by means of wind and water energy. Coverage of plant biomass, dead or living dissipated the rain and wind energy and as a result protects the underlying soil layer from erosion. Soil particles remains in contact and are held firmly due to upper coverage (Pimentel et al. 2005). It is reported in Utah and Montana, the rate of erosion increased 200 times as the result of ground cover decreased from 100 % to 1 % (Trimble and Mendel [1995](#page-41-0) ). About 60 % of forest coverage is essential to prevent forested areas from land sliding and soil erosion. Extensive loss of forests now days for irrigation lands and pasture is followed by soil erosion (Act 2002; Singh 1993).

 Degradation of topsoil is most widespread in developing countries where poor irrigation practices are being used to overcome their food demands. Crop residues are being used for heating and cooking purposes and poor agriculture practices are unable to protect land from erosion. In 1990s according to an estimate 60 % and 90 % crop residues in China and Bangladesh respectively were used for fuel purposes (Wen and Pimentel [1993 \)](#page-41-0). According to recent estimates still in Bangladesh 50% of all residues from rice fields and 80% non-rice fields are used for biomass energy (Hassan et al. 2011). In China due to availability of fossil fuels the usage of crop resides are decreased (Li et al. [2012 \)](#page-38-0). Even they planned to burn half of the 600 billion tons of straw residues to produce electricity annually (Lal 2007). In some areas where the fuel sources are limited the roots of shrubs and herbs are burned to use as a fuel source (Juo and Thurow [1997](#page-37-0) ). All such practices exposed the land surfaces and result in degradation of land by wind and water energy and result in formation of barren lands.

#### **3.2.3 Land Topography**

 The vulnerability of land to water and wind forces depends on its surface exposure as well as on its topography. It is estimated in Philippines and Jamaica where 58 % and 52 % of land respectively have slopes, face 400 times per hectare more erosion rates. Steep and marginal lands which changed from forest to crop lands are more susceptible to soil erosion (Lal and Stewart 1990). Arid lands are susceptible to soil erosion as observed in India the erosion rates are 5600 times per hectares per year (Gupta and Raina 1996). Even in developed countries like United States having massive farmlands faced 13 tons/ha/year average losses (USDA/NRCS 2007). In Europe 3 to 40 tons/ha/year loss happened after every 2 to 3 years are estimated regularly (Grimm et al. [2001](#page-37-0); Verheijen et al. 2009).

#### **3.2.4 Disturbances**

 According to estimation about three-quarters of the world's soil erosion is due to depletion of soil biomass coverage (Lal and stewart 1990). A number of factors contributing this phenomenon among which is construction sites of buildings and roads. Surface coverage of land with plant dead or living reduces level of soil ero-sion significantly (Pimentel [2006](#page-39-0); Soil and Water Conservation 1993).

 Along with anthropogenic activities natural processes also result in soil erosion especially along stream banks due to powerful action of flowing water.  $30\%$  or more soil erosion is recorded on steep slopes while on flat surfaces with only  $2\%$  of slope also faces the problem of soil erosion under powerful force of wind and water.

# *3.3 Assessing Soil Erosion*

 It is estimated that about 75 billion tons of fertile soil is lost every year throughout the world due to soil erosion process (Norman [1984 ;](#page-38-0) Padmanabhan and Hari [2008 \)](#page-39-0). Soil erosion due to water force is recorded to about 76 billion tons per year (Reich et al. 1999). In 2010, Central Soil Water conservation research and training institute in Dehradun, India estimated that the fertile land loss due to erosion is 16.4 billion tons per hectare annually with total annual loss estimated to be 5.334 billion tons (The Hindu 2010). Chinese Academy of Sciences, Chinese Academy of Engineering and Chinese Ministry of Water resources in 2009, after 3 years of study reported that China's  $646$  communities are facing about 3.75 million  $km<sup>2</sup>$  soil erosion issues (Stedman 2009). A further 2 year study revealed that if this rate of soil erosion continues with this rate the food production of China is reported to decline 40 % from current rate (Jie [2010](#page-37-0)). Both China and India which occupies about  $13\%$  of total land area with sustained agricultural practices facing about 75 billion tons of soil erosion annually. The rate of soil erosion in United States agricultural areas is estimated to decline from year 1982 to 2007, 3.06 billion tons to 1.725 billion tons (USDA/NRCS 2010).

#### **3.3.1 Worldwide Cropland**

 Currently it is estimated that 80 % of world land facing the problem of moderate to severe soil erosion problems only 10  $\%$  is facing the slight erosion issues (Lal 1994; Speth 1994). Erosion in cropland areas is about 30 t/ha/year on average that ranges from 0.5 to 400 t/ha/year (Pimentel et al. 1997). It is reported that about  $30\%$  of worlds land became unproductive and barren due to the soil erosion rates from last 40 years. Such lands are unable to utilize for agricultural purposes anymore (Kendall and Pimentel 1994; World Resources 1994).

## *3.4 Effects of Soil Erosion on Terrestrial Ecosystems*

Productivity of terrestrial ecosystems is significantly reduced due to soil erosion (Jones et al. [1997](#page-37-0); Pimentel et al. 2006). Water infiltration and water holding capacity of soil decreased due to increase water runoff with erosion from soil surfaces (Torah et al. 2004). Organic matter and essential soil nutrients also degraded with erosion process along with natural biota and biodiversity also significantly affected (Torah et al. 2004; Pimentel et al. 2006). Enhanced rate of erosion where increased water runoff also results in low water holding capacity along with overall damaging effect on valuable biota and soil's biodiversity (Brevik [2009](#page-35-0); Jones et al. [1997](#page-37-0)).

 As the top soil is removed by erosion, reduction in surface soil depth is observed. Due to erosion there is not sufficient soil available to support plant and thus, crop roots are exposed and consequently more yield loss. It is reported that soil erosion can alleviate the crop yield up to  $30\%$  (Pimentel [2006](#page-39-0)).

#### **3.4.1 Water Availability**

 All sorts of vegetable and fruit production require enormous amount of water for its productivity water serves as a main limiting factor on their production (Pimentel et al. [1997](#page-39-0)). According to an estimate one hectare of corn field utilize about 7 million liters of water during its 3 months of growing season (Pimentel et al. 2004) and additional 2 million of water loss due to evaporation from soil surface as result of soil erosion due to water and strong wind forces. All of these result in less water availability for growing vegetation. Enhance water runoff significantly affect water holding capacity which result less water availability for the growing crops (Pimentel et al. 1997).

### **3.4.2 Nutrient Losses**

 Essential plant nutrients such as nitrogen, phosphorous, potassium and calcium dominantly decline due to erosion. The eroded soil has three times more nutrients as compared to remaining soil surface (Young [1989 \)](#page-41-0). Fertile soil estimated to have 1 to 6 kg of nitrogen contents, 1 to 3 kg of phosphorous contents and 2 to 30 kg of potassium contents whereas the left over soil having only 0.1 to 0.5 kg per ton of average nitrogen contents (Schertz et al. 1989; Langdale 1992). To overcome these problems large quantities of fertilizers are being used. The cost of loss of basic soil nutrients is estimated to be about several billion dollars each year (Torah et al. 2004). If the surface of soil is about 300 nm deep the usage of commercial fertilizers and livestock manure replace the lost of nutrients but this practice is usually expensive for poor farmers and nations. Not only expensive these synthetic fertilizers also affect the human health and also result in soil, air and water pollution (Brevik [2013 ;](#page-35-0) Unnevehr et al. 2003; Hakeem et al. [2011](#page-37-0); Hakeem et al. [2014](#page-37-0)).

#### **3.4.3 Soil Organic Matter**

 100 tons of organic matter per hectare is usually present in fertile soil layers (Pimentel et al. 2005; Sundquist [2010 \)](#page-41-0). Fertile soil's organic matter typically consist about 95 % of nitrogen and 25 % to 50 % of the phosphorous (Allison 1973). Erosion typically affects the top fertile layer of soil because most of the organic matter of dead plants and animals lies in this upper layer. Fine soil particles are mostly degraded by wind and water erosion and larger particles and stones are left behind and making it unsuitable for growing vegetation. A large number of researches report that the eroded soil contain large amount of organic matter about 1.3 to 5 times more than left over soil (Lal [1994 \)](#page-38-0). The reduction of organic matter in left over soil from 0.9 % to 1.4 % results in about 50 % loss in crop production and ultimately in yield (Libert 1995; Sundquist 2010).

 Depletion of the nutrients, organic matter and structure of soil results in the degradation of ecosystem and also significantly affect the crop yield. Productivity of any area is dominantly affected by the results of strong wind and water erosion. Soil erosion not only affect crop yield but also significantly affect total biomass of biota and biodiversity of any ecosystem substantially (Lazaroff 2001; Walsh and Rowe  $2001$ ).

#### **3.4.4 Soil Depth**

 Suitable soil depth is required not only by plants for its roots extension but also by several soil biota's like earthworm (Pimentel et al. [1995](#page-39-0) ; Wardle et al. [2004 \)](#page-41-0). Soil erosion substantially reduces the soil depth from 30 cm to less than 1 cm. The space for plant roots become declined due to which plants show stunted growth.

# *3.5 Conservation Technologies*

 Mulching, vegetation, riprap, matting, terracing, retaining walls and reforestation are common treatments to overcome soil erosion (Rivas  $2006$ ). About  $30\%$  of the world's food production is suppressed by the agricultural land degradation for last 50 years by soil erosion (Kendall and Pimentel [1994](#page-37-0) ). Biomass mulches, crop rotations, no-till, ridge-till, added grass strips, shelterbelts, contour row-crop plantation are suitable techniques for soil conservation.

 All these strategies mainly focus on preventing the land from erosion by wind and water force by covering the surface layer with some sort of coverage and its residues. Not leaving the land open is the best remedy to prevent soil erosion even after harvesting the crop the coverage is provided by its remains. Thus, soil cover is the best remedy against soil erosion (Pimentel et al. [1995](#page-39-0); Troeh et al. 2004; Pimentel [2006](#page-39-0)). The risk of wind erosion alleviates if soil cover is less than  $10\%$ , while soil covered for more than 10% lowers wind erosion and when soil cover is 40 % complete prevention occurs against wind erosion (Morgan and Finney 1987; Sterk [2000](#page-40-0)).

 Throughout the world soil erosion is putting its disastrous effects. It is continuous, slow insidious problem. 1 mm of soil is lost every year and this is so minute amount that unnoticed by framers. About 15 t/ha of soil loss over one hectare of cropland area, rehabilitation of such soil takes about approximately 20 years even if this process continues the land is not available to support vegetation. Soil erosion severely affects if it goes unchecked and result in loss of overall biota, soil fertility, organic matter and soil water holding capacity (Pimentel and Burgess [2013 \)](#page-39-0).

# **4 Soil Acidity**

 Acidic soils mostly have pH values less than 7 on the pH scale (Soil Science Society [2008 \)](#page-40-0). Acidity of the soil mainly depends on the availability of exchangeable forms of hydrogen and aluminum ions (Brady 2001; Fageria and Baligar 2003). Higher the concentration of these exchangeable ions higher is the amount of acidity in the respective soil. Acidic soil is observed to have low fertility rates, poor in physical, biological and chemical properties. Poor management of such areas results in depressed crop yield to a significant level (He et al. [2003](#page-37-0)).

# *4.1 Causes of Soil Acidity*

 Both the natural and anthropogenic activities are responsible for soil erosion process. Natural processes happen gradually and affect the soil fertility in a gradual way but the anthropogenic effects are rapid.

# **4.1.1 Weathering and Leaching**

 The present soil is formed from the parent rocks which contain both the essential and non-essential nutrients of plants. The soil form is more acidic in nature if the parent rock and material is acidic and more alkaline in nature if the parent material is alkaline. Both the acidic and basic cations are released in soil during weathering. The influx of these nutrients is mostly overcome by leaching basic cations that counter act with acidic cations and the preponderance of the acidic ions enhances soil acidity. The process is more active where precipitation rate is higher than evaporation, plant's transpiration rate and high temperature boost the process of weathering and leaching (Nyarko 2012).

#### **4.1.2 Organic Matter Decomposition**

 Both the plants and animals take nutrients in various forms during the course of their lives. Even after their death when the process of decomposition starts these organic matters along with many sundry chemicals are again handed over to soil. In the course of this eternal process acids are continuously formed and consumed. Usually organic matter has reactive substances like phenolics and carboxylic groups. These reactive substances on dissociation release H+ ions which result in enhanced soil acidity (Seatz and Peterson [1964](#page-40-0)). Carbonic acid also formed as reaction of CO2 which is released during process of decomposition with water. Brady (2001) reported that very little soil acidity is contributed by decaying organic matter.

### **4.1.3 Acid Rain**

 Wherever there are large cities with dense concentration of vehicles and industries, acid rain forms. Rainfall is basically acid due to deposition of oxides of sulphur and nitrogen found in atmosphere due to combustion, burning of coal/petroleum products and agricultural activities. Due to these factors pH of rainwater becomes acidic and is found between 4 and 4.5 (Brady and Weil [1984](#page-35-0) ). With the excessive accumulation of these acids in the atmosphere, which if not controlled significantly affect the soil and plants growth (Brady and Weil [1984 \)](#page-35-0). Precipitation is also an enhancing factor in soil acidity (Donahue et al. [1983](#page-36-0)).

### **4.1.4 Crop Production and Removal**

 The main goal of any agricultural system is to produce saleable products. Soil acidification suffers as a limiting factor in this way. Respiration is necessary for both plants and microbes for their survival but it result in large amount of acid production in form of carbonic acid. Black ( [1968 \)](#page-35-0) reported that this is a very minute factor because most of carbonic acid produced during this process lost in atmosphere as  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  (Tang and Rengel 2003). Basic cations that are usually up-taken by plants are  $Ca^{2+}$ ,  $Mg^{2+}$ ,  $K^+$  and also NH<sup>4+</sup>, as result more H<sup>+</sup> dissociation by plants for their electrical balance specially when nutrients are absorbed in form of  $NH<sup>4+</sup>(Tisdale)$ and Nelson 1975). More the basic cations uptake more the  $H<sup>+</sup>$  ions release which leads to acidity in the soil.

 There are basic cations available in plant especially in leaves and stem than the grains, these basic cations neutralizes the acidic effect which is develop by different processes but when these crops are removed from field either burnt, or harvested or washed away by run-off this counter effect of basic cations is gone and ultimately soil acidity increases (Chen and Barber [1990](#page-35-0)).

 Type and part of crop harvested and stage of crop at harvest basically deals with the amount of these nutrient removed. Like grain has comparatively small amount of basic cations than leaves and stem portion of the plant so forages like Hay, bermuda grass and alfalfa show more positive effects on soil acidity comparative to high-yielding grain crops.

#### **4.1.5 Application of Acid Forming Fertilizers**

 The soils' inherent capacity is severely deteriorated by the result of high temperature, precipitation and incessant leaching of nutrients. This deteriorated land is unable to support any vegetative crop. Usage of agricultural land without proper management practices results in enhanced soil infertility problems. To overcome these problems most of farmers use fertilizers extensively. Mostly used chemical fertilizers are ammonium sulphate (AS), urea, muriate of potash and trisuperphosphate, etc (FAO 2004). Usage of these chemical fertilizers results in enhanced crop yield. As these fertilizers are essential for high production along with this, these chemical fertilizers significantly increase the soil acidification.

# *4.2 Effects of Soil Acidity on Crop Production*

Soil acidity significantly affects plants yield and productivity by decaling available nutrient contents. Two major factors associated with soil infertility are presence of phytotoxic substances like Al and Mn, and P, Ca, and Mg nutrient deficiency. Mostly plants uptake the nutrient in soluble form. Soil acidification cause profusion availability of elements such as Al and Mn and result in shortage of plant's essential nutrients such as P, Ca and Mg. it is noted previously that soil acidity is associated with  $H^+$  and  $Al^{3+}$ . Surprisingly, there is no deleterious effect found on plants growth by H<sup>+</sup>(Black 1968; Rao et al 1993). Acidic soil's most of the problems are associated with  $Al^{3+}$ . Higher  $Al^{3+}$  content in acidic soil results in reduced function and root proliferation. Roots mostly observed are stunted and club shaped. This reduces the plants availability to extract nutrients and water from soil. When aluminum is abundant it mostly fixed with phosphate in form of aluminum phosphate and making P unavailable for plant (Black [1968](#page-35-0); Rao et al. [1993](#page-39-0)). Except molybdenum the availability of micro-nutrient boosts the soil acidity.

# *4.3 Management of Soil Acidity*

Soil acidification is a natural ongoing phenomenon which is aggravated by human activities. With the usage of proper irrigation techniques and practices soil acidification and its harmful effects should be controlled. (Obiri-Nyarko 2012) reported techniques that how such soil acidified land should be used for sustained agricultural purposes. To overcome soil acidity issues use of organic material and lime, acid tolerant crop varieties are used. Among which use of lime and organic material combination is best in combating soil acidification problems and making soil vulnerable for irrigation practices. There is also an immense need to limit the extensive use of chemical fertilizers for combating soil acidification problems because such practices extensively enhanced soil acidity. In such areas where extensive use of lime along with organic material is a problem best remedy there is to use acid resistant crop verities.

#### **4.3.1 Liming**

Different liming materials such as dolomite lime  $(CaMgCO<sub>3</sub>)$ , limestone  $(CaCO<sub>3</sub>)$ , quick lime (CaO), slaked lime  $(Ca(OH)_2)$  usage are best remedies for overcoming soil acidity problems. They are used both separately and in combined forms. These

liming materials along with lowering soil acidity also counteract the effect of  $H<sup>+</sup>$  and  $Al<sup>3+</sup>$  ions (Fageria and Baligar 2005). Several other advantages of liming materials include increasing the plants essential nutrient such as Ca, P and Mg availability and reducing the toxic effect of various micro elements (Naidu et al. [1994](#page-38-0)). Liming material addition also reduce the leaching and solubility of heavy metals (Lindsay 1979; Sauve et al. [2000](#page-40-0)). Excessive nutrient availability significantly improve crop yield to substantial amounts by addition of liming materials. Soil texture, soil fertility, crop rotation, crop species and usage of organic manure are the several factors which affect the application of liming materials (Fageria and Baligar 2008).

(Sadiq and Babagana [2012](#page-40-0)) reported that application of lime material on paddy fields significantly lowers the soil acidity. In Southeast Asia acid sulfate is mostly recommended for this purpose. Application of lime in rice fields results in high Al and Fe precipitation which is responsible for their enhanced yield. Some authors also reported that high amount of Al ions contents result due to use of lime and put deleterious effects on underlying soil.

 At pH 5 aluminum ions starts precipitation from soil solution. This happened due to reaction of ground magnesium Limestone GML was combined with acid sulfate soil; both of these disintegrated immediately and start releasing hydroxyl ions. Shazana et al.  $(2013)$  reported that the actual reason behind increase in soil acidity is the release of hydroxyl ions on application of ground magnesium Limestone.

(Shazana et al.  $2013$ ) reported that ground basalt is advantageous for plants as it contain plant's essential nutrients like K and P, than ground magnesium Limestone GML. The one disadvantage of ground basalt applications is it takes time to completely dissolve in soil. It is reported that in Malaysia soil content is poor in organic matter. Application of ground basalt by acid sulphate ameliorate infertile land, is highly recommended for sustained rice yield along with different organic fertilizers few months before growing season.

### **4.3.2 Application of Organic Materials**

The organic material usage defines simply all the forms of organic materials originated from both the plants and animals. Application of organic material where improves soil's properties and fertility along with it also reduces the effect of soil acidity and aluminum ions concentration. Plants usually contain excessive amount of cations, synthesis of organic acid anions simply used for balancing cations and anions (de Wit et al. [1963](#page-36-0) ). Decarboxylation of these organic acid anions results due to microbial decomposition (Tang et al. 1999; Yan et al. 1996).

 It was reported that anion organic acid decarboxylation requires proton to complete its reaction during microbial decomposition (Noble et al. 1996). By up taking such proton, hydroxyl ions concentration increases which results in increase soil alkalinity. Higher the amount of cations in soil greater is the effect found on soil acidity. Plant species of legume plants such as soybean, red clover and acacia found to have higher concentration of Ca, Mg and total cations contents than non-legume crops such as maize and sorghum, also have higher content of ash alkalinity (Bessho and Bell [1992](#page-35-0); Pocknee and Sumner [1997](#page-39-0); Wong et al. 2000). Wong et al. (2000) also indicated that organic material associated functional groups results in increase alkalinity of soil by consuming higher content of protons.

#### **4.3.3 Use of Acid Tolerant Crops**

 Several plants grow well in acidic soil due to their variant degree of acidity tolerance. Thus, we can lower the acidification rate by using acid-tolerant crops. Acidtolerant crops are very helpful because:

- They reduce the rate of acidification by efficiently using the nitrate and soil moisture
- Limestone if not added where and when is required, the acid-tolerant crops continues the cash flow
- In liming cycle of 10–15 years, acid-tolerant crops are trying to match up with the declined pH
- On the soils having acidic sub-surface layers, it is more suitable or economical to use acid-tolerant crops rather than liming them (Upjohn [2005](#page-41-0)).

 Chillies, sweet and Irish potatoes show higher degree of acidity tolerant values. They show significant growth under pH values below 5.5. Cassava and rice are best grown crops for such acidified lands (Rao et al. [1993](#page-39-0)). It is reported that most of the lowland areas in Ghana show enhanced rice yield over 1 million hectares. This land is giving outstanding yields of rice (Wakatsuki et al. 2005).

 Upon the growth of most of the crops, soil acidity and aluminum toxicity put a limiting factor over their yield. Krstic et al. (2012) studied various factors of Western Serbia region such as soil pH, exchangeable acidity and aluminum ion toxicity of soil. Aluminum puts very hazardous effects on root growth and extension, significantly effecting roots water and ions uptake capacity. Usage of genetically adapted plants for aluminum toxicity is best remedy to use on such affected land under low environment impact. Availability of Aluminum tolerant germpalsm of maize had made it a suitable crop for this practice. Crops that reflect tolerance to aluminum toxicity are the best options to be chosen as acid-tolerant crops.

No doubt, acid-tolerant crops reduce the rate of acidification but they cannot stop the process. The process continues and eventually, if not properly treated, soil will become more acidic.

# **4.3.4 Agroforestry**

 Agroforestry refers to use the land for both woody perennial plants along with agricultural crops from very simple to dense systems. It comprises of very simple to complex systems. It involves a wide range of practices such as intercropping, multiple cropping, trees plantation on contours, establishing shelter belts etc. all these practices result in enhanced land yield and production by providing suitable <span id="page-34-0"></span>micro-climate, permanent cover, increased infiltration, improved soil structure, organic carbon content and promoted soil fertility (WOCAT 2011).

 All such practices lowers the demand of land for mineral fertilizers (Garrity et al. 2004; Schroth and Sinclair [2003](#page-40-0)).

 Agroforestry's main focus is on proper land management by conserving the soil along with enhancing soil fertility and productivity especially in tropics. It focuses on the deliberate use of land for trees and crops at the same time. A large number of effects have been reported through this interaction. Essential nutrient such as Ca, Mg, and nitrate's leaching to deeper soil zones are compensated by deep rooted species and return by litter fall. (Ridley et al. 1990) reported that significant reduction of nitrates is documented by growing crops with deep rooted species such as perennial grass, multipurpose trees or shrubs.

 Agroforestry plans also results in reduced rate of erosion through rain drop and by leachability of nutrients. By using proper tree species this agroforestry system also help in reducing soil acidification. It is reported that plantation of nitrogen fixing tress such as Gliricidiasepium and Albiziazygia ameliorate the acid infertile rice field in Ghana (Baggie et al. [2000](#page-35-0)). Both of these trees Albiziazygiaand Gliricidiasepium due to their high cation content increased the soil pH from 4.4 to 5.1 and 5.3 respectively.

 It was reported several strategies for understanding and management of Kenyan soil for enhanced crop yield (Kisinyo et al. [2014](#page-37-0)). They improved the soil by applying organic and inorganic materials and planating crop germplasm as Al tolerant varieties. Application of lime, Phosphorous fertilizers and OMs promote soil pH and lower the Al toxicity on Kenyan acidic soil. Application of lime, P fertilizers and OMs has resulted in increased maize production from 5–57, 18–93 and 70-100 % respectively on Kenyan soils. Development of crop cultivars for Al toxicity tolerant and low Phosphorous availability also results in significant increase in crop production on Kenyan soils.

# **References**

- Abrol IP, Yadav JSP, Massoud FI (1988) Salt-affected soils and their management. Food & Agriculture Organisation of the United Nations, Rome
- Act FC (2002) Riparian forest buffer panel (Bay Area Regulatory Programs)
- Ahmad P, Sharma S (2008) Salt stress and phyto-biochemical responses of plants. Plant Soil Environ 54:89–99
- Ahmad P, Nabi G, Ashraf M (2011) Cadmium-induced oxidative damage in mustard (Brassica juncea (L.) Czern. &Coss.) plants can be alleviated by salicylic acid. S Afr J Bot 77:36–44
- Ahmad P, Jeleel CA, Azooz MM, Nabi G (2009) Generation of ROS and non-enzymatic antioxidants during abiotic stress in plants. Bot Res Intern 2:11–20
- Ahmad P, Jaleel CA, Salem MA, Nabi G, Sharma S (2010) Roles of enzymatic and nonenzymatic antioxidants in plants during abiotic stress. Crit Rev Biotechnol 30:161–175
- Ahmed M, Qamar I (2004) Productive rehabilitation and use of salt-affected land through afforestation (a review). Sci Vis 9:1–14
- Allison FE (1973) Soil organic matter and its role in crop production. Elsevier, New York
- <span id="page-35-0"></span> Apel K, Hirt H (2004) Reactive oxygen species: metabolism, oxidative stress, and signal transduction. Annu Rev Plant Biol 55:373–399
- Appleton BL, Greene V, Smith A, French S, Kane B, Fox L, Downing A, Gilland T (2009) Trees and shrubs that tolerate saline soils and salt spray drift.Virginia Cooperative Extension Publiction No. 430-031
- Ashraf MA, Harris PJC (2005) Abiotic stresses: plant resistance through breeding and molecular approaches. Food Products Press, an imprint of Haworth Press, Binghamton
- Ayers RS, Westcot DW (1985) Water quality for agriculture. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, Rome
- AzevedoNeto ADd, Prisco JT, Enas-Filho J, Lacerda CFd, Silva JV, Costa PHAd, Gomes-Filho Ea (2004) Effects of salt stress on plant growth, stomatal response and solute accumulation of different maize genotypes. Braz J Plant Physiol 16:31–38
- Baggie I, Zapata F, Sanginga N, Danso SKA (2000) Ameliorating acid infertile rice soil with organic residue from nitrogen fixing trees. Nutr Cycl Agroecosyst 57:183-190
- Bajracharya RM, Lal R (1992) Seasonal soil loss and erodibility variation on a Miamian silt loam soil. Soil Sci Soc Am J 56:1560–1565
- Bank W (2006) Sustainable land management: challenges, opportunities, and trade-offs. World Bank, Washington, DC
- Barrett-Lennard EG (2002) Restoration of saline land through revegetation. Agric Water Manag 53:213–226
- Beresford Q, Bekle H, Phillips H, Mulcock J (2004) The salinity crisis: landscapes, communities and politics. ERA Trial 2009:42
- Bessho T, Bell LC (1992) Soil solid and solution phase changes and mung bean response during amelioration of aluminium toxicity with organic matter. Plant and Soil 140:183–196
- Black CA (1968) Soil-plant relationships. Wiley, New York
- Bond WJ (1998) Effuent irrigation-an environmental challenge for soil science. Aust J Soil Res 36:543–556
- Bouwman AF, Van Drecht G, Van der Hoek KW (2005) Global and regional surface nitrogen balances in intensive agricultural production systems for the period 1970–2030. Pedosphere 15:137–155
- Brady NC, Weil RR (1984) The nature and properties of soils. Macmillan, New York
- Bresler E, Dagan G, Hanks RJ (1982) Statistical analysis of crop yield under controlled line-source irrigation. Soil Sci Soc Am J 46:841–847
- Brevik EC (2009) Soil health and productivity in soils, plant growth and crop production. Encyclopedia of life support systems (EOLSS), developed under the auspices of the UNESCO. EOLSS Publishers, Oxford, UK. [http://www.eolss.net](http://www.eolss.net/). Accessed 10 Dec 2012
- Brevik EC (2013) Soils and human health—an overview. In: Brevik EC, Burgess LC (eds) Soils and human health. CRC Press, Boca Raton, pp 29–56
- Bridges EM, Hannam ID, Oldeman LR, Pening de Vries FWT, Scherr SJ, Sompatpanit S (eds) (2002) Responses to land degradation. Proceeding 2nd International Conference on Land Degradation and Desertification, Khon Kaen, Thailand. Oxford Press, New Delhi, India
- Carter MR, Pearen JR (1989) Amelioration of a saline sodic soil with low applications of calcium and nitrogen amendments. Arid Land Res Manag 3:1–9
- Chen JH, Barber SA (1990) Soil pH and phosphorus and potassium uptake by maize evaluated with an uptake model. Soil Sci Soc Am J 54:1032–1036
- Chepil WS (1955) Factors that influence clod structure and erodibility of soil by wind: V. organic matter at various stages of decomposition. Soil Sci 80:413
- Chhabra R (1996) Soil salinity and water quality. Balkema, Rotterdam
- Choudhary MR, MunirA MS (2008) Field soil salinity distribution under furrow-bed and furrowridge during wheat production in irrigated environment. Pak J Water Res 12:33–40
- Conway T (2001) Plant materials and techniques for brine site reclamation. Plant materials technical note
- <span id="page-36-0"></span> Costanza R, de Groot R, Sutton P, van der Ploeg S, Anderson SJ, Kubiszewski I, Farber S, Turner RK (2014) Changes in the global value of ecosystem services. Glob Environ Chang 26:152–158
- De Wit CT, Dijkshoorn W, Noggle JC (1963) Ionic balance and growth of plants. Versl Landbouwkd Onderz 69:1–68
- Denise MW (2003) Soil salinity and sodicity limits efficient plant growth and water use. Rio grande regional soil and water series guide A-140, New Mexico State University, New Mexico
- Dionisio-Sese ML, Tobita S (1998) Antioxidant responses of rice seedlings to salinity stress. Plant Sci 135:1–9
- Domroes M (1991) The tropical forest ecosystem: reviewing the effects of deforestation on climate and environment. In: Takeuchi K, Yoshino M (eds) The global environment. Springer-Verlag, Berlin, pp 70–80
- Donahue RL, Follett RH, Tulloch RW (1983) Our soils and their management. Interstate Printers & Publishers, Danville
- Doran JW, Parkin TB (1994) Defining and assessing soil quality. In: Doran JW, Coleman DC, Bezdicek DF, Stewart BA (eds) Defining soil quality for a sustainable environment. Soil science society of America special publication 35, ASA-SSSA, Madison, pp 3–21
- Eaton FM, Sokoloff VP (1935) Absorbed sodium in soils as affected by the soil-water ratio. Soil Sci 40:237–248
- El-Wahab A (2006) The efficiency of using saline and fresh water irrigation as alternating methods of irrigation on the productivity of Foeniculumvulgare Mill subsp. vulgare var. vulgare under North Sinai conditions. Res J Agr Biol Sci 2:571–577
- Ella WM, Stenberg M, Bru D, Hellman M, Welsh A, Thomsen F, Klemedtson L, Philippot L, Hallin S (2011) Spatial distribution of ammonia-oxidizing bacteria and archaea across a 44-hectare farm related to ecosystem functioning. ISME J 5:1213–1225
- Elshout S, Kamphorst A (1990) Suitability of coarse-grade gypsum for sodic soils reclamation: a laboratory experiment. Soil Sci 149:228–34
- Ezeaku PI, Davidson A (2008) Analytical situations of land degradation and sustainable management strategies in Africa. J Agric Soc Sci (Pakistan) 4: 42–52
- Fageria NK, Baligar VC (2008) Ameliorating soil acidity of tropical Oxisols by liming for sustainable crop production. Adv Agron 99:345–399
- FAO (2004) Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations; 2011. FAOSTAT database
- FAO (2009) Food security and agricultural mitigation in developing countries: options for capturing synergies. FAO, Rome
- Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO) (2010) Climate-smart agriculture: policies, practice and financing for food security, adaptation and migration. FAO, Rome
- Feng ZZ, Wang XK, Feng ZW (2005) Soil N and salinity leaching after the autumn irrigation and its impact on groundwater in Hetao Irrigation District, China. Agric Water Manag 71:131–143
- Fitzpatrick RW, Merry RH, Cox JW, Rengasamy P, Davies PJ (2003) Assessment of physicochemical changes in dryland saline soils when drained or disturbed for developing management options. CSIRO Land and Water Technical Report 2/03. South Australia, Australia
- Fortuna L, Nunnari G, Gallo A (2012) Model order reduction techniques with applications in electrical engineering. Springer Science & Business Media.
- Funk R, Reuter HI (2006) Wind erosion. In: Boardman J, Poeson J (eds) Soil erosion Eur, Wiley, pp, 563–582
- Garrity GM, Bell JA, Lilburn TG (2004) Taxonomic outline of the prokaryotes. Bergey's manual of systematic bacteriology. Springer, New York/Berlin/Heidelberg
- Geist HJ, Lambin EF (2004) Dynamic causal patterns of desertification. Bioscience 54:817–829. (ed) 2001. National workshop on agricultural use of gypsum. LRRI, NARC, PARC, Islamabad, Pakistan
- Ghaly FM (2002) Role of natural vegetation in improving salt affected soil in northern Egypt. Soil Tillage Res 64:173–178
- <span id="page-37-0"></span> Ghassemi F, Jakeman AJ, Nix HA (1995) Salinisation of land and water resources: human causes, extent, management and case studies. CAB international, Wallingford
- Gonzalez NLM, Toth T, Garcia D (2004) Integrated management for the sustainable use of saltaffected soils in Cuba. Ecosistemas y Recursos Agropecuarios 20:85–102
- Grattan SR, Grieve CM (1998) Salinity; "mineral nutrient relations in horticultural crops. Scientia horticulturae 78:127–157
- Grimm M, Jones R, Montanarella L (2001) Soil erosion risk in Europe. EUR 19939 EN. Joint Research Centre, European Commission, Luxembourg.
- Gueta-Dahan Y, Yaniv Z, Zilinskas BA, Ben-Hayyim G (1997) Salt and oxidative stress: similar and specific responses and their relation to salt tolerance in citrus. Planta 203:460–469
- Gupta JP, Raina P (1996) Wind erosion and its control in hot arid areas of Rajasthan. In: Wind erosion in West Africa: the problem and its control. Margraf Verlag, Berlin, pp 209–218
- Hakeem KR, Chandna R, Rehman R, Tahir I, Sabir M, Iqbal M (2013) Unraveling salt stress in plants through proteomics. In: Parvaiz A, Azooz MM, Prasad MNV (eds) Salt stress in plants: signelling, omics and adaptations. Springer science + Business Media LLC, New York, pp 47–61
- Hakeem KR, Khan F, Chandna R, Siddiqui TO, Iqbal M (2012) Genotypic variability among soybean genotypes under NaCl stress and proteome analysis of salt tolerant genotype. Appl Biochem Biotech 168:2309–2329
- Hakeem KR, Ahmad A, Iqbal M, Gucel S, Ozturk M (2011) Nitrogen-efficient cultivars can reduce nitrate pollution. Environ Sci Pollut Res 18:1184–1193
- Hakeem KR, Sabir M, Ozturk M, Mermut A (2014) Soil remediation and plants: prospects and challenges. Academic Press/Elsevier, New York, p 724
- Hasegawa PM, Bressan RA, Zhu JK, Bohnert HJ (2000) Plant cellular and molecular responses to high salinity. Annu Rev Plant Biol 51:463–499
- Hassan MK, Pelkonen P, Pappinen A (2011) Assessment of bioenergy potential from major crop residues and wood fuels in Bangladesh. J Basic Appl Sci Res 1:103
- Hastenrath S (1991) Climate dynamics of the tropics. Kluwer, Dordrecht
- Haub C, Gribble J, Jacobsen L (2011) World population data sheet 2011. Population Reference Bureau, Washington, DC
- He ZL, Yang XE, Baligar VC, Calvert DV (2003) Microbiological and biochemical indexing systems for assessing quality of acid soils. Adv Agron 78:89–138
- Hillel D (1998) Environmental soil physics: fundamentals, applications, and environmental considerations. Academic, San Diego
- Hu Y, Schmidhalter U (2005) Drought and salinity: a comparison of their effects on mineral nutrition of plants. J Plant Nutri Soil Sci 168:541–549
- Huumllsebusch C (2007) Organic agriculture in the tropics and subtropics: current status and perspectives. Kassel University Press GmbH, Kassel
- IFAD (2011) Rural poverty report 2011. New realities, new challenges: new opportunities for tomorrow's generation. IFAD, Roma (Italia)
- Jie D (2010) Chinese soil experts warn of massive threat to food security. SciDevNet
- Jim M (2002) Managing salt affected soils. NRCS, South Dakota
- Jones AJ, Lal R, Huggins DR (1997) Soil erosion and productivity research: a regional approach. Am J Altern Agric 12:185
- Juo ASR, Thurow TL (1997) Sustainable technologies for use and conservation of steeplands. Food & Fertilizer Technology Center for the Asian and Pacific Region, Taipei City
- Kendall HW, Pimentel D (1994) Constraints on the expansion of the global food supply. Ambio 23:198–205
- Kim S, Rayburn AL, Voigt T, Parrish A, Lee DK (2011) Salinity effects on germination and plant growth of prairie cordgrass and switchgrass. Bioenergy Res 5:225–235
- Kisinyo PO, Othieno CO, Gudu SO, Okalebo JR, Opala PA, Ngetich WK, Nyambati RO, Ouma EO, Agalo JJ, Kebeney SJ (2014) Immediate and residual effects of lime and phosphorus fertilizer on soil acidity and maize production in western Kenya. Exp Agric 50:128–143
- <span id="page-38-0"></span> Lal R (1990) Soil erosion and land degradation: the global risks. Advances in soil science, Springer, New York
- Lal R (1994) Water management in various crop production systems related to soil tillage. Soil Tillage Res 30:169–185
- Lal R (1997) Degradation and resilience of soils. Philos Trans R Soc Lond B Biol Sci 352:997–1010
- Lamond RE, Whitney DA (1992) Management of saline and sodic soils. Kansas State University/ Cooperative Extension Service, Manhattan
- Lavelle P, Spain AV (2001) Soil ecology. Kluwer Academic Pub, Dordrecht
- Lazaroff C (2001) Biodiversity gives carbon sinks a boost Environment News Service 13
- Lehmann J, Gaunt J, Rondon M (2006) Bio-char sequestration in terrestrial ecosystems; a review. Mitig Adapt Strat Glob Chang 11:395–419
- Li L, Ishikawa Y, Mihara M (2012) Effects of burning crop residues on soil quality inWenshui, Shanxi of China. Int J Environ Rural Dev 3:30–36
- Li P, Song A, Li Z, Fan F, Liang Y (2008) Silicon ameliorates manganese toxicity by regulating manganese transport and antioxidant reactions in rice (Oryza sativa L.). Plant and Soil 354:407–419
- Li Z, Sun WY, Ma WP, Yin HJ, Li HJ, Qu SG, Cao WD (2010) Review and prospects of improvement technology for saline-alkali soil. Shandong Agric Sci 2:273–277
- Liang Y, Sun W, Zhu YG, Christie P (2007) Mechanisms of silicon-mediated alleviation of abiotic stresses in higher plants: a review. Environ Pollut 147:422–428
- Libert B (1995) The environmental heritage of Soviet agriculture. CAB International, Wallingford Lindsay WL (1979) Chemical equilibria in soils. Wiley, New York
- Majerus M (1996) Plant materials for saline-alkaline soils. US Department of Agriculture, Natural Resources Conservation Service. Plant materials center, Bridger, Mont. Montana technical note:5
- Manchanda G, Garg N (2008) Salinity and its effects on the functional biology of legumes. ActaPhysiologiaePlantarum 30:595–618.(ed) 1991. In: Choukar-alla R (ed) Proceedings of the international conference on agriculture management of salt-affected area in Agadir Morocco. Publ. IAV Hassan, Morocco
- McCormick RW, Wolf DC (1980) Effect of sodium chloride on CO 2 evolution, ammonification, and nitrification in a Sassafras sandy loam. Soil Biol Biochem 12:153-157
- McDowell RW (2008) Environmental impacts of pasture-based farming. CABI, Cambridge
- McIntyre BS, Tongway D (2005) Grassland structure in native pastures: links to soil surface condition. Ecol Manage Restor 6:43–50
- Misra AN, Srivastava A, Strasser RJ (2001) Utilization of fast chlorophyll a fluorescence technique in assessing the salt/ion sensitivity of mung bean and Brassica seedlings. J Plant Physiol 158:1173–1181
- Mittova V, Guy M, Tal M, Volokita M (2004) Salinity up-regulates the antioxidative system in root mitochondria and peroxisomes of the wild salt-tolerant tomato species Lycopersiconpennellii. Journal of experimental botany 55:1105–1113.(ed) 1987. International geomorphology, 1986: proceedings of the first international conference on geomorphology/ed on behalf of the British Geomorphological Res Group by V. Gardiner and sectional ed, MG Anderson…[et al.]. Wiley, Chichester, c1987
- Munns R (2005) Genes and salt tolerance: bringing them together. New Phytol 167:645–663
- Naidu R, Bolan NS, Kookana RS, Tiller KG (1994) Ionic strength and pH effects on the sorption of cadmium and the surface charge of soils. Eur J Soil Sci 45:419–429
- Noble AD, Zenneck I, Randall PJ (1996) Leaf litter ash alkalinity and neutralisation of soil acidity. Plant and Soil 179:293–302
- Norman M (1984) GAIA: an atlas of planet management. Anchor press-doubleday, Garden city (ed) 2012. In: Proceedings of the international conference on agriculture science and engineering (ICASE2012)
- Oldeman LR (1998) Soil degradation: a threat to food security. Report.
- <span id="page-39-0"></span> Oldeman LR, Hakkeling RTA, Sombroek WG (1991) World map of the status of human-induced soil degradation: an explanatory note, 2nd. rev 9066720468. ISRIC [etc.].
- Oster JD, Shainberg I, Abrol IP (1996) Reclamation of salt-affected soil. In: Soil erosion, conservation and rehabilitation., pp 315–352
- Pace M, Johnson P (2002) Growing turf on salt-affected sites. HG-519, Cooperative Extension Service, Utah State University
- Padmanabhan E, Hari E (2008) Impact of microvariability on classification and management of peatlands, Curtin University, Bentley
- Parida AK, Das AB (2005) Salt tolerance and salinity effects on plants: a review. Ecotoxicol Environ Saf 60:324–349
- Pastori GM, Foyer CH (2002) Common components, networks, and pathways of cross-tolerance to stress. The central role of "redox" and abscisic acid-mediated controls. Plant Physiol 129:460–468
- Pessarakli M (2010) Handbook of plant and crop stress. CRC Press, Boca Raton
- Pessarakli M, Szabolcs I (1999) Soil salinity and sodicity as particular plant-crop stress factors. Handbook of plant and crop stress. Rev and expanded. Marcel Dekker, Inc., New York
- Pimentel D (2006) Soil erosion: a food and environmental threat. Environ Dev Sustain 8:119–137
- Pimentel D, Burgess M (2013) Soil erosion threatens food production. Agriculture 3:443–463
- Pimentel D, Harvey C, Resosudarmo P, Sinclair K (1995) Environmental and economic costs of soil erosion and conservation benefits. Science 267:1117
- Pimentel D, Houser J, Preiss E, White O, Fang H, Mesnick L, Barsky T, Tariche S, Schreck J, Alpert S (1997) Water resources: agriculture, the environment, and society. Bioscience 47:97–106
- Pocknee S, Sumner ME (1997) Cation and nitrogen contents of organic matter determine its soil liming potential. Soil Sci Soc Am J 61:86–92
- Qadir M, Schubert S (2002) Degradation processes and nutrient constraints insodic soils. Land Degrad Dev 13:275–294
- Qadir M, Schubert S, Ghafoor A, Murtaza G (2001) Amelioration strategies for sodic soils: a review. Land Degrad Dev 12:357–386
- Qadir M, Steffens D, Yan F, Schubert S (2003) Sodium removal from a calcareous saline-sodic soil through leaching and plant uptake during phytoremediation. Land Degrad Dev 14:301–307
- Quarrie J (1992) Earth Summit'92. The United Nations conference on environment and development, Rio de Janeiro 1992.
- Qureshi AS, McCornick PG, Qadir M, Aslam Z (2008) Managing salinity and waterlogging in the Indus Basin of Pakistan. Agric Water Manag 95:1–10
- Rao DLN, Pathak H (1996) Ameliorative influence of organic matter on biological activity of saltaffected soils. Arid Land Res Manage 10:311–319
- Rao IM, Zeigler RS, Vera R, Sarkarung S (1993) Selection and breeding for acid-soil tolerance in crops. Bioscience 43:454–465
- Ravi S, D'Odorico P (2005) A field-scale analysis of the dependence of wind erosion threshold velocity on air humidity. Geophys Res Lett 32 (ed) 1999. Sustaining the global farm. Selected papers from the 10th international soil conservation organization meeting
- Rengasamy P, Olsson KA (1991) Sodicity and soil structure. Soil Res 29:935–952
- Ridley AM, Slattery WJ, Helyar KR, Cowling A (1990) The importance of the carbon cycle to acidification of a grazed annual pasture. Anim Prod Sci 30:529–537
- Rivas T (2006) Erosion control treatment selection guide. Gen. Tech Rep. 0677 1203 SDTDC, USDA forest service. San Dimas Technology and Development Center, San Dimas, p 64
- Roberts KG, Gloy BA, Joseph S, Scott NR, Lehmann J (2009) Life cycle assessment of biochar systems: estimating the energetic, economic and climate change potential. Environ Sci Technol 44:827–833
- Rogers ME, Grieve CM, Shannon MC (2003) Plant growth and ion relations in lucerne (Medicago sativa L.) in response to the combined effects of NaCl and P. Plant and Soil 253:187–194
- <span id="page-40-0"></span> Rose CW (2004) An introduction to the environmental physics of soil, water and watersheds. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge
- Sadiq AA, Babagana U (2012) Influence of lime materials to ameliorate acidity on irrigated paddy fields: a review. Acad Res Int 3:413
- Sandoval FM, Benz LC (1966) Effect of bare fallow, barley, and grass on salinity of a soil over a saline water table. Soil Sci Soc Am J 30:392–396
- Sauve S, Hendershot W, Allen HE (2000) Solid-solution partitioning of metals in contaminated soils: dependence on pH, total metal burden, and organic matter. Environ Sci Technol 34:1125–1131
- Schnürer MC, Rosswall T (1985) Microbial biomass and activity in an agricultural soil with different organic matter contents. Soil Biol Biochem 17:611–618
- Schroth G, Sinclair FL (2003) Trees, crops, and soil fertility: concepts and research methods. CABI, Wallingford, UK
- Scianna J (2002) Salt-affected soils: their causes, measure, and classification. Res Method Hort. note 5
- Scotter DR (1978) Preferential solute movement through larger soil voids. I. Some computations using simple theory. Soil Res 16:257–267
- Seatz LF, Peterson HB (1964) Acid, alkaline, saline and sodic soils. In: Bear FE (ed) Chemistry of the soil. Reinhold Publishing Corporation, New York, pp 292–319
- Seelig BD, Richardson JL, Knighton RE (1991) Comparison of statistical and standard techniques to classify and delineate sodic soils. Soil Sci Soc Am J 55:1042–1048
- Shainberg I, Letey J (1984) Response of soils to sodic and saline conditions. Hilgardia 52:1–57
- Shainberg I, Keren R, Frenkel H (1982) Response of sodic soils to gypsum and calcium chloride application. Soil Sci Soc Am J 46:113–117
- Shao Y (2000) Physics and modelling of wind erosion, vol 23, Atmospheric and oceanographic sciences library. Kluwer Academic Publishers, Dordrecht
- Shazana M, Shamshuddin J, Fauziahand CI, Syed Omar SR (2013) Alleviating the infertility of an acid sulphate soil by using ground basalt with or without lime and organic fertilizer under submerged conditions. Land Degrad Dev 24:129–140
- Shukla J, Nobre C, Sellers P. (1990) Amazon deforestation and climate change. Science (Washington) 247:1322–1325
- Silvertooth JC, Norton ER (2000) Evaluation of a calcium-based soil conditioner in irrigated cotton. Cotton, A College of Agriculture Report
- Singh TV (1993) Development of tourism in the Himalayan environment: the problem of sustainability. In: Rawat MSS (ed) Himalaya, a regional perspective: resources, environment and development, Dehli, pp 63–77
- Smith DMS, McKeon GM, Watson IW, Henry BK, Stone GS, Hall WB, Howden SM (2007) Learning from episodes of degradation and recovery in variable Australian rangelands. Proc Natl Acad Sci 104:20690–20695
- Sohi S, Lopez-Capel E, Krull E, Bol R (2009) Biochar, climate change and soil: a review to guide future research. CSIRO Glen Osmond, Australia
- Soil and Water Conservation (1993) Alabama handbook for erosion control, sediment control, and stromwater management on construction sites and urban areas Alabama soil and water conservation committee
- Soil Science Society of Agriculture (2008) Glossary of soil science terms 2008 ASA-CSSA-SSSA
- Southard RJ, Buol SW (1988) Subsoil saturated hydraulic conductivity in relation to soil properties in the North Carolina Coastal Plain. Soil Sci Soc Am J 52:1091–1094. (ed.) 1994. (Unpublished) 1994. Presented at the Third INC-D session of the intergovernmental negotiating committee on the international convention on desertification United Nations New York 17 January 1994
- Sterk G (2000) Flattened residue effects on wind speed and sediment transport. Soil Sci Soc Am J 64:852–858
- <span id="page-41-0"></span> Sterk G, Warren A (2003) European conference on wind erosion on agricultural land, 30 April 2 May 2001, Thetford, UK. Catena 52:171–172
- Sundquist B (2010) Chapter 9, Food supply from soil. Topsoil loss and degradation: causes, effects and implications (ed) 2004. Advances in sodic land reclamation. INT. conf. on sustainable management of sodic lands, Lucknow
- Tan J, Kang Y (2009) Changes in soil properties under the influences of cropping and drip irrigation during the reclamation of severe salt-affected soils. Agric Sci China 8:1228–1237
- Tang C, Rengel Z (2003) Role of plant cation/anion uptake ratio in soil acidification. Handbook of soil acidity. Marcel Dekker, New York, pp 57–81
- Tang C, Sparling GP, McLay CDA, Raphael C (1999) Effect of short-term legume residue decomposition on soil acidity. Aus J Soil Res 37:561–561
- Tejada M, Garcia C, Gonzalez JL, Hernandez MT (2006) Use of organic amendment as a strategy for saline soil remediation: influence on the physical, chemical and biological properties of soil. Soil Biol Biochem 38:1413–1421
- Thiruchelvam S, Pathmarajah S (2003) An economic analysis of salinity problems in the Mahaweli River System H Irrigation Scheme in Sri Lanka Economy and environment program for Southeast Asia (EEPSEA)
- Tisdale SL, Nelson NL (1975) Soil fertility and fertilizers. Mac Millan Co. Inc, New York
- Trimble SW, Mendel AC (1995) The cow as a geomorphic agent-A critical review. Geomorphology 13:233–253
- Troeh FR, Hobbs JA, Donahue RL (2004) Soil and water conservation for productivity and environmental protection. Prentice-Hall Inc, Upper Saddle River
- Turner J, Lambert M (2000) Change in organic carbon in forest plantation soils in eastern Australia. For Ecol Manage 133:231–247
- Unnevehr LJ, Lowe FM, Pimentel D, Brooks CB, Baldwin RL, Beachy RN, Chornesky EA, Hiler EA, Huffman WE, King LJ (2003) Frontiers in agricultural research: food, health, environment, and communities. National Academies of Science, Washington, DC
- Upjohn B, Fenton G, Conyers M (2005) Soil acidity and liming. Agfact AC.19, 3rd edn. State of New South Wales, Department of Primary Industries
- Van Camp M, Vauterin P (2005) Tsoft: graphical and interactive software for the analysis of time series and Earth tides. Comput Geosci 31:631–640
- Verheijen FGA, Jones RJA, Rickson RJ, Smith CJ (2009) Tolerable versus actual soil erosion rates in Europe. Earth-Sci Rev 94:23–38
- Wakatsuki T, Buri MM, Fashola OO (2005) Ecological engineering for sustainable rice production and the restoration of degraded watersheds in West Africa. Rice is life: scientific perspectives for the 21st century:363–366.
- Walsh KN, Rowe MS (2001) Biodiversity increases ecosystems ™ ability to absorb CO2 and Nitrogen. Brookhaven National Laboratory
- Wardle DA, Bardgett RD, Klironomos JN, Setala H, Van Der Putten WH, Wall DH (2004) Ecological linkages between aboveground and belowground biota. Science 304:1629–1633
- Wen DH, Pimentel D (1993) Soil erosion and conservation in China. In: Pimentel D (ed) World soil erosion and conservation. Cambridge University, pp 63–86
- Wong MTF, Gibbs P, Nortcliff S, Swift RS (2000) Measurement of the acid neutralizing capacity of agroforestry tree prunings added to tropical soils. J Agric Sci 134:269–276
- World Health Organization (2000) The world health report 2000: health systems: improving performance. World Health Organization, Geneva/Switzerland
- Yan F, Schubert S, Mengel K (1996) Soil pH increase due to biological decarboxylation of organic anions. Soil Biol Biochem 28:617–624
- Young A (1989) Agroforestry for soil conservation. CAB International, Wallingford
- Zhang C, Wang L, Nie Q, Zhang W, Zhang F (2008) Long-term effects of exogenous silicon on cadmium translocation and toxicity in rice (Oryza sativa L.). Environ Exp Bot 62:300–307
- <span id="page-42-0"></span> Zhang JH, Liu YP, Pan QH, Zhan JC, Wang XQ, Huang WD (2006) Changes in membraneassociated H + −ATPase activities and amounts in young grape plants during the cross adaptation to temperature stresses. Plant Sci 170:768–777
- Zhang L, Sun X, Tian Y, Gong X (2014) Biochar and humic acid amendments improve the quality of composted green waste as a growth medium for the ornamental plant Calatheainsignis. Scientia horticulturae 176:70–78