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Trace Elements in the Soils of Ropar and Garhshankar Forest division of Punjab

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Abstract

The main objective of the study is to determine the availability of trace elements in soils of Ropar and Garhshankar Forest division of Punjab. For analysis of the soils, 34 soil samples were collected from different nursery plantation of Ropar and Garhshankar Forest division in Punjab. The available trace elements can be determined in DTPA extract using AAS. The trace elements consider in this soils were Zn, Mn, Cr, Cu, Fe and Co. After analyses, the result found to be highly contaminated with heavy metals in the soils of this region. The ranges of available trace elements are Zn(0.003-8.084)ppm, Mn(1-5)ppm, Cr(0-9.5)ppm, Cu(0-1.7)ppm, Fe(0-8)ppm, Co(0-1.5)ppm. The increasing order of the trace elements of this soils were $Co < Cu < Mn < Fe < Zn < Cr$. The pH of Punjab soil is slightly alkaline which ranges from 7 to 8.9. The bulk density and porosity are dependent on soil texture and the densities of soil mineral (sand, silt, and clay) and organic matter particles, as well as their packing arrangement. The bulk density and porosity in soil of Punjab shows that the soils in this region are loosely arranged and less compact.

Keywords

Trace Elements; Ropar; Garhshankar; Punjab; Bulk density; Porosity.

Introduction

Chemical elements in soil are referred to as trace elements (TEs) because of their occurrence at concentrations less than 100 mg kg⁻¹. As a matter of fact, many of these elements are present at concentrations lower than this. Most of the trace

elements of environmental and human/animal health significance are metals, for example cadmium, chromium, cobalt, copper, gold, lead, mercury, molybdenum, nickel, palladium, platinum, rhodium, silver, thallium, tin, vanadium, and zinc. Trace elements have also been termed 'toxic metals', 'trace metals' or 'heavy metals'. 'Heavy metals' is the most popularly use and widely recognized term for large groups of elements with density greater than 6 g cm⁻³ but not at all TEs are metals.

The term 'trace elements' is useful as it embraces metals, metalloids, non-metals and other elements in the soil-plant-animal system, but it is vague because it can include any element regardless of its function. Trace elements occur naturally in soils. However, production-oriented policies in the twentieth century, which exploited land for mineral extraction, manufacturing industry and waste disposal have resulted in the input and accumulation of large quantities of TEs in the soils. There are variety of both natural and anthropogenic input sources of trace elements in soils. The major natural sources include weathering (including erosion and deposition of wind-blown particles), volcanic eruptions, forest fires and biogenic sources¹. The major anthropogenic sources of trace elements input to soils are: Atmospheric deposition, arising from coal and gasoline combustion, nonferrous and ferrous metal mining, smelting, and manufacturing, waste incineration, production of phosphate fertilizers and cement, and wood combustion; Land application of sewage sludge, animal manure and other organic wastes and co-products from agriculture and food industries; Land disposal of industrial co-products and waste, including

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paper industry sludge, coal fly ash, bottom fly ash and wood ash; Fertilizers, lime and agrochemicals (pesticides) use in agriculture.

The soil is the primary source of trace elements for plants, animals and humans. Elevated levels of TEs in the soil as a consequence of human activities therefore pose a range of environmental and health risks. Trace elements, unlike organic contaminants, are required in soils essentially indefinitely because they are not degradable. Consequently, soils contaminated with TEs pose a long-term risk of increased plant uptake and leaching, with potentially adverse implications for the wider environment, including human health. Arsenic, Cd, Hg, Pb, and Se are the most important in terms of the food chain contamination and ecotoxicity viewpoints. When the concentration of trace elements exceeds its critical level then the soil becomes polluted or contaminated. At elevated levels, trace elements are harmful to humans. For example, Pb, which is added to gasoline to reduce automobile engine knock, has become widespread in soils. Other additions of Pb to the environment include contamination from Pb paint, smelters, and Pb arsenate, an insecticide. Lead is toxic to humans, especially children, and damages the central nervous system, causing retardation and even death in extreme cases.

Trace elements are also of concern in the environment because of their potential to bioaccumulate in the food chain. The well-known Minamata disease, which occurred in Japan, was caused by bioaccumulation of methyl mercury in the fish of Minamata Bay. The local people consumed fish that had bioaccumulated the compound. Also in Japan, Itai-Itai disease, a form of Cd poisoning, caused many Japanese to fall ill when they ingested Cd contaminated rice.

Materials and Methods

Punjab is located in the northwest of India surrounded by Pakistan on the west, the Indian states of Jammu and Kashmir on the north, Himachal Pradesh on its northeast and Haryana and Rajasthan to its south. It covers a geographical area of 50,362 sq. km which is 1.54 % of country's total geographical area. Punjab state is located between 29° 30' N to 32° 32' N latitude and between 73° 55' E to 76° 50' E longitude. Its average elevation is 300 m from the sea level. A belt of swelling hills extends along the northeast at the foot of the Himalayas. Punjab state is situated between the great systems of the Indus and Ganges rivers. Most of the state is an alluvial plain, irrigated by canals; Punjab's arid southern border edges on the Thar, or Great Indian, Desert. The Siwalik Range rises

sharply in the north of the state. In Punjab, the soil characteristics are influenced to a very limited extent by the topography, vegetation and parent rock. The variation in soil profile characteristics are much more pronounced because of the regional climatic differences. Punjab is divided into three distinct regions on the basis of soil types. The regions are: South-Western Punjab, Central Punjab and Eastern Punjab. Rupnagar district is one of the twenty districts in the state of Punjab in North-West Republic of India. Rupnagar (formerly known as Ropar or Rugar) district, included in the Patiala Division of Punjab falls between north latitude 30°-32' and 31°-24' and east longitude 76°-18' and 76°-55'.

The experimental sites from where the soil samples were collected from Ropar and Garhshankar Forest Division were as follow:

Sampling and Analytical Procedure

Soil samples were collected from the above 11 sites, the term parent soil, planted soil and pot mixture soil. So, 33 soil samples were collected from different sites of Ropar and Garhshankar Forest division of Punjab. Collected soil samples were air dried for several days and ground to pass a 2 mm sieve and analysed for physical and Chemical attributes. The porosity was determined by the method described by Brady. The pH was estimated in soil: distilled water (1:2.5) suspension using a digital pH meter (Elico Model LI-10T) and Digital Conductivity Meter (CC-601), respectively. The available trace elements were determined by making a DTPA extract of the soil samples and fitted it to the Atomic Absorption Spectrophotometer (AA-6401 F, Shimadzu, Japan). The working standard solutions for each metal were prepared before every analysis. Concentrations of Fe, Mn, Cu, Co, Zn and Cr were measured by an air acetylene flame AAS.

Result and Discussion

The soil samples collected from Ropar and Garhshankar Forest Division of Punjab shows that The region of Balachur (parent soils) and Lamheri (parent soils) shows the minimum or least concentration of Zn i.e 0.003 ppm (table-1) the concentration of Zinc is highest in Lamheri (planted soil) region i.e. 8.084 ppm followed by Mait Majra (planted soils)(table-2) and Kathgarh (pot mixture soils) i.e 3.046 pm and 0.322 ppm (table-3). From the above results, we know that the Zn concentration

Map of the Study area			
Experimental sites	Latitude	Longitude	Forest Range
Mait Mojra	N 300 57' 03.3"	E 760 36' 49.2"	Ropar
Loghut	N 300 59' 16.3"	E 760 31' 29.1"	Ropar
Batarala	N 310 04' 34.2"	E 760 32' 01.2"	Nurpurbadi
Raessira	N 310 400' .9"	E 760 22' 25.4"	Nurpurbadi
Kalyanpur	N 310 10' 39.2"	E 760 34' 09.3"	Ananpur sahib
Lamheri	N 310 15' 30.5"	E 760 30' 08.6"	Ananpur Saheb
Tonsa	N 310 00' 06.6"	E 760 26' 31.9"	Kathgarh
Fathepur	N 310 00' 15.9"	E 760 25' 31.1"	Kathgarh
Bacchola	N 310 27' 58.5"	E 760 03' 07.8"	Mahilpur
Sahapur	N 310 13' 45.9"	E 760 10' 53.1"	Garhsankar
Balachur	N 310 04' 09.0"	E 760 16' 48.4"	Balachur

Fig. 1 (a) : Garhshankar Forest division

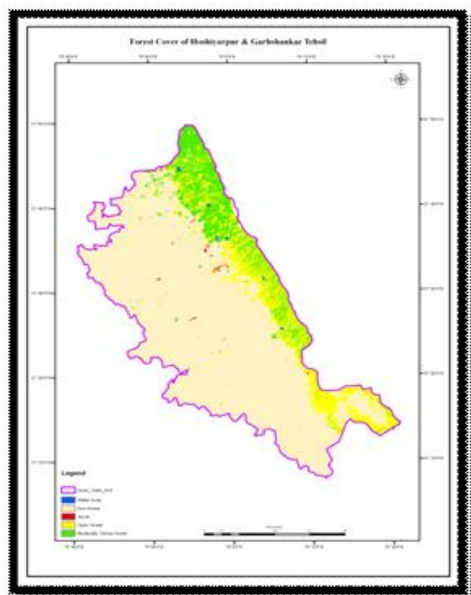
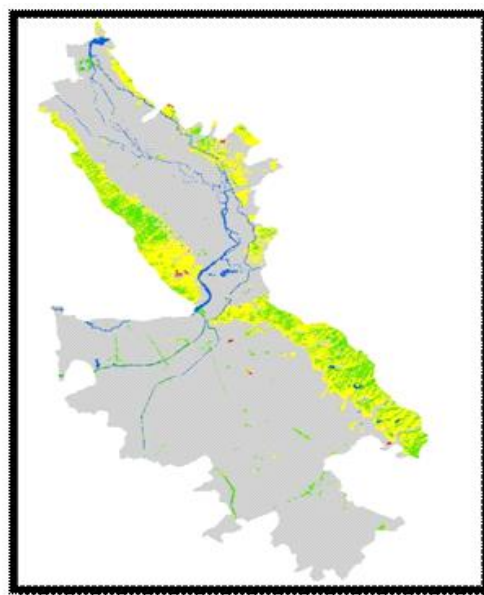


Fig. 1 (b) : Ropar Forest division



range from 0.003 to 8.084 ppm and it also shows that the concentration is highest in planted and pot mixture soils as compared to Parent soils. The manganese concentration range from 1 to 5 ppm. The Mn concentration is highest in Mait Majra nursery (pot mixture soils) i.e 5.937 ppm followed by Balachur (planted soil) i.e 4.481 ppm. The region of Loghut, Kathgarh and Baccholi has the least concentration of Mn i.e 1.011, 1.515ppm. The soils of these three regions are mainly of parent soil. Here also shows that the planted and pot mixture soils has highest concentration of Mn and the parent soil shows the least concentration. The soil of this two district i.e Ropar and Garhshankar has highest concentration of Chromium (Cr). It ranges from 0 to 9.5 ppm. The

region of Loghut (planted soil) and Batrala (planted soil) has the highest concentration i.e 9.525 ppm followed by Batrala (planted soil) and Lamheri (planted soil) i.e 7.885 ppm. The region of Kalyanpur, Baccholi and Batrala (pot mixture soil) has the minimum value of Cr concentration i.e 0.24 ppm. Copper (Cu) concentration is highest in Fathepur (parent soil) region i.e 1.704 ppm followed by Loghut (planted, clonal, Eu soil) i.e 0.943 ppm and least in Log hut (parent soil) i.e 0.453 ppm. All the parent soil sample has least concentration of copper except in Fathepur region as compared to pot mixture soil and planted soil. The concentration of Cu range from 0 to 1.7 ppm. The concentration of Iron (Fe) range from 0 to 8 ppm. The region of Mait Majra (planted soil) shows

Table 1 : Concentration of trace elements in Parent soil of Ropar and Garhshankar Forest division of Punjab

Site (Nursery)	Zn (ppm)	Mn(ppm)	Cr(ppm)	Cu(ppm)	Fe(ppm)	Co (ppm)
Sahapur (parent soil)	0.192	3.25	2.305	0.805	1.633	0.502
Balachur (parent soil)	0.003	2.97	6.722	0.591	1.133	1.39
Fathepur (parent soil)	0.900	2.466	1.020	1.704	2.133	0.248
Kathgarh (parent soil)	0.042	1.515	4.941	0.667	3.133	0.882
Raessira (parent soil)	0.086	2.466	6.722	0.692	1.300	0.248
Kalyanpur (parent soil)	0.150	2.522	6.722	0.742	1.467	0.375
Kalyanpur (parent soil/ Forest Soil)	0.105	2.802	5.769	0.679	0.800	0.882
Kalyanpur (parent soil)	0.150	2.522	6.722	0.742	1.467	0.375
Mait majra (parent soil)	0.081	2.802	3.521	0.541	1.633	0.248
Log hut (parent soil)	0.054	1.011	1.750	0.453	1.967	0.628
Batrala (parent soil)	0.105	3.754	9.525	0.931	1.633	1.009

Table 2 : Concentration of trace elements in planted soil of Ropar and Garhshankar Forest division of Punjab

Site (Nursery)	Concentration of Heavy Metals/ Trace Elements					
	Zn (ppm)	Mn(ppm)	Cr(ppm)	Cu(ppm)	Fe(ppm)	Co (ppm)
Sahapur (planted soil)	0.144	2.466	2.305	0.78	1.633	0.502
Balachur (planted soil)	0.374	4.481	2.893	0.931	1.467	0.882
Bachholi (planted soil)	0.096	2.243	0.240	0.780	1.300	0.248
Fathepur (planted soil)	0.195	2.354	2.893	0.642	1.633	0.121
Kathgarh (planted soil)	0.108	1.571	3.521	0.503	1.300	1.263
Raessira (planted soil)	0.295	1.683	0.721	0.704	1.800	0.375
Lamheri (planted soil)	8.084	2.187	7.885	0.73	3.300	0.628
Kalyanpur (planted soil)	0.162	3.530	0.240	0.906	2.967	0.375
Mait majra (planted soil)	3.046	3.642	3.521	0.881	8.300	1.009
Log hut (planted soil)	0.060	2.97	9.525	0.881	1.800	0.121
Batrala (planted soil)	0.120	2.802	7.885	0.918	2.133	1.517

Table 3 : Concentration of trace elements in Pot mixture soil of Ropar and Garhshankar Forest division of Punjab

Site (Nursery)	Concentration of Heavy Metals/ Trace Elements					
	Zn (ppm)	Mn(ppm)	Cr(ppm)	Cu(ppm)	Fe(ppm)	Co (ppm)
Sahapur (pot mixture soil)	0.368	3.306	1.223	0.742	0.800	0.121
Balachur(pot mixture soil)	0.292	2.522	0.721	0.818	3.633	1.136
Bachholi(pot mixture soil)	0.094	2.345	0.125	0.562	1.300	0.502
Fathepur (pot mixture)	0.009	1.907	0.492	0.642	0.967	0.375
Kathgarh(pot mixture soil)	0.322	3.082	1.223	0.629	1.300	0.121
Raessira (pot mixture soil)	0.048	3.25	4.941	0.855	1.800	0.882
Lamheri (pot mixture soil)	0.069	1.515	2.305	0.516	2.967	0.375
Kalyanpur (pot mixture soil)	0.182	2.354	3.521	0.704	0.633	0.121
Mait majra (pot mixture soil)	0.319	5.937	4.941	0.818	2.633	0.502
Log hut (planted, clonal,EU, soil)	0.009	2.690	3.521	0.943	3.967	0.882
Batrala(pot mixture soil)	0.090	3.082	0.240	0.906	0.633	0.375

the highest concentration of Fe i.e 8.3 ppm followed by Log hut (planted, clonal, Eu soil) and Balachur (pot mixture soil) i.e 3.967 ppm and 3.633 ppm. The region of Sahapur (pot mixture soil) and Kalyanpur (planted/ forest soil) has the least concentration of Fe i.e 0.8ppm. The Cobalt (Co) concentration range from 0 to 1.5 ppm. Batrala (planted soil) region shows the maximum concentration of Co i.e 1.517ppm and the region of Sahapur (pot mixture soil), Fathepur (planted soil), Kathgarh (pot mixture soil) and Lamheri (parent soil) shows the minimum concentration of Co i.e 0.121 ppm. From the above result, the increasing order of trace elements or heavy metals of Punjab are arranged as follows:

Co<Cu<Mn<Fe<Zn<Cr



Increasing order of heavy metals in soil of Punjab

This result shows that concentration of Cr is highest and Co is least in soil of Punjab. Although the soil sample collected from Planted and Pot mixture soils shows higher amount of trace element as

compared to Parent soil sample. This is due to the application of fertilization in pot mixture soil which changes their concentration.

Conclusion

The data presented above brings out that the soils of Ropar and Garhshankar forest Division of Punjab is highly contaminated with heavy metals. The soil where drain water is used for irrigation has higher DTPA-extractable metals contents as compared to the canal irrigated area. The vegetables grown using this polluted water also have much higher concentration of heavy metals. From the above result, we know that the concentration of heavy metal is higher in planted and pot mixture soils as compared to Parent soil due to the application of fertilization which altered its concentration. The concentration of Chromium (Cr) is highest followed by Zinc (Zn) and Iron (Fe) in the Ropar and Garhshankar forest division of Punjab. The toxicity of soil and interaction between soil particles and nutrient is depends upon the form

in which they exist in the environment 3. The most adverse effect of heavy metals is that they can be introduced into the food chain and threaten human health. Agricultural products growing on soils with high metal concentrations are represented by metal accumulations at levels harmful to human and animal health as well as to the bio-environment. High concentrations of heavy metals in soils around industrial facilities originate from an anthropogenic source which is associated with unrestrained solid release and untreated or poorly treated fluid wastes from these industrial facilities.

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Harvest Index in Productivity Management

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Abstract

Optimum diversion of total Biomass manufactured by plants to parts supporting economic end product is vital in commercial agriculture. The fraction of bio mass used for economic end product out of total biomass manufactured by the plants is termed as Harvest index. Factors that decide optimization of Harvest index for maximizing productivity in terms of economic end product vary with crops and their relevance. In Tea cultivation, they are brought out in this paper. The physiological concepts have helped Agronomist to formulate guide lines for managing Harvest in Tea culture.

Keywords

Harvest index. Biomass apportioning, productivity

Introduction

Plant growth could be defined as the continual addition of biomass to various parts. It has two stages ;1) fixing carbon – photosynthesis and manufacture of carbohydrates, 2) conversion of them to various organic chemicals by fixing Nitrogen, Phosphorus, Sulfur, and Calcium in various bio-cycles controlled by specific enzymes and associated mineral nutrients. Biomass production therefore is a function of 1) climate, defined in terms of rainfall, sun shine hours and temperature, 2) photo synthetic area expressed as leaf area index by Plant physiologist or as density of planting by Agronomist 3) nutrients for biomass production. and 4) soil factors for nutrient and water retentivity and release of them to plant growth. Biomass produced is used for overall growth of plants

and only a fraction of it is harvested as economic end product. Agronomic and cultural practices are evolved over the years to ensure optimal diversion of total bio-mass manufactured by the plants to maximize harvest of economic end product for which a particular crop is grown. In this article the discussions are limited to Tea. The economic end product in Tea is the growing points and the harvest index aims in keeping the health of plant by balancing diversion of biomass to growing points against their continual removal as harvest and, to other parts for overall growth and enough retention of foliage for supporting new growing points.

Biomass apportioning in TEA

A typical apportioning of biomass in tea is given in Table-1

In young Tea before first prune, the emphasis is on development of frame of the plants and hence harvest index is low as more biomass is needed for frame development. After the first prune when the plants are brought under regular plucking the harvest index is high. In tea, Harvest index is the fraction (expressed also as percentage) of total biomass produced in a given time that is plucked as crop to manufacture tea. The productivity in Tea could then be expressed as follows

“Productivity = Made Tea ($\text{kg ha}^{-1} \text{yr}^{-1}$) = Biomass produced ($\text{kg ha}^{-1} \text{yr}^{-1}$) * Harvest index”

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Table 1 : Apportioning of biomass to various parts in Tea

No.	Parts	Parts by weight as %			
		A	B	C	D
1	Plucks (made Tea)	12.5	8.0	20.0	22.0
2	Foliage on the bush	15.0	16.5	13.0	13.0
3	Fallen leaves (tea litters)	10.0	9.0	3.0	5.0
4	Wood(Stem ,Branches)	40.0	43.0	44.0	42.0
5	Roots	22.5	23.5	20.0	17.0
	Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

A,B – young tea prior to formative pruneMAGAMBO and OTHIENO 1977 *Personal communication*

C,D – High yielding bushes in regular pluckingAnnual Reports UPASI TRI 1976-1986

Under unlimited supply of nutrients and good climatic condition which determine biomass production, the productivity depends on management of Harvest index Data of on crop removal, annual leaf fall, and pruning weights and root weights maintained in various nutrient trials over the years are used to study the influence of Harvest index on productivity .

Absolute/Physiological and Apparent Harvest index

Harvest index is the ratio of economic biomass to total biomass produced by the plant. It is calculated based on total biomass produced and apportioned to all the parts of the plant including roots as show in Table 1 is called absolute Harvest index or the Physiological Harvest index. Digging the soil after pruning the plants to record root weight is laborious and carried out in limited measure to collect basic data on Harvest index. But it is easy to collect information on above ground parts at the time of pruning and it is done as a regular practice in

experimental plots. Harvest index calculated based on total biomass content of above ground parts pruned is called Apparent harvest index. While interpreting and making decisions, one should keep in mind that the amount of biomass removed as prunings decrease as the pruning height increases (the pruning becomes lighter) and the values appear unrealistically high. However, this index gives information on apportioning of biomass to growing points and non-photosynthetic parts . Wood portion removed at different degrees of severity of pruning are given and they can be used to get the absolute harvest index values Harvest index referred here afterwards in this article is apparent harvest index. Typical mean harvest index values observed in South India are shown in Table2 Generally the harvest index is low in the pruned year as more of biomass is utilized for developing new frame and foliage Harvest index is high in the second and third years of the pruning cycle and declines thereafterwards. Main reasons are ; 1) Accumulation of too much older foliage which and

Table 2 : Harvest Index (under South Indian conditions)

particulars		DMha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹	MTha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹	HI %
PRUNED YEAR				
1	Rejuvenation Pruned	5.0	0.6	12.0
2	Hard & medium pruned	7.2	1.3	18.0
3	Light pruned, cut-across / skiffing	10.9	2.0	18.3
Other years				
4	2 nd year of pruning cycle	13.9	3.6	25.8
5	3 rd year of pruning cycle	13.2	3.8	28.8
6	4 th year of pruning cycle	12.7	3.4	26.7
Whole cycle				
7	Hard & Medium pruned	47.0	12.1	25.7
8	Light pruned, cut-across / skiffing	50.7	12.8	25.3

HI- harvest index based on total biomass of above ground parts at the time of pruning

DM- Total dry matter : MT – Marketable Tea:RANGANATHAN . V *The PLANTERS' CHRONICLE* MAY 1986: 174-181

are less photo-synthetically active and use more carbohydrate than what they manufacture and, also physiologists have shown that foliage beyond a critical level enhances the diversion of biomass to non- photosynthetic parts particularly for thickening of wood and,2)the inefficient plucking due to increase in the height of plucking surface,smallness of leaves and increased bhanjiness. Factors that have bearing on Harvest index are discussed below.

A: Pruning Cycle

The influence of length of pruning cycle is shown in Table3.

As 2nd and 3rd year fields have maximum Harvest index ,the pruning cycles are managed in such a way that the percentage of 2nd and 3rd year fields form bulk of tea area under plucking all the time

B: Plucking rounds

As plucking alone activates the buds in leaf axils below the point of plucking for future crop, the plucking interval in relation to growing conditions it plays an vital role in achieving optimum Harvest index as the growing point are stimulated by regular plucking it leads to continual syphoning of biomass to growing points. The intensity of plucking that is plucking above 90 % of pluckable shoots at the time of plucking ensures sustaining growing points at high levels. The impact of plucking rounds on Harvest Index is shown in Table4.

Longer intervals , at the outset ,may appear beneficial to increase leaf weight but actually after 10 to 12 days there is a gradual loss of weight of leaves as their photosynthetic efficiency falls and

Table 3 : Harvest index For the pruning cycle – influence of Type of prune

No.	Type of Prune	Length of cycle in years				
		2	3	4	5	6
1	Medium Prune	21.9	24.2	24.8	23.9	23.0
2	Light prune, cut across prunes	22.4	24.5	25.6	24.5	23.4
Harvest index (%) based on total biomass of above ground parts at the time of pruning						

respiratory losses increase. A balance is struck for optimizing shoot weight and Harvest index and it is in between 7 and 10 days during growing season and 10 and 15 days during lean months .

former is important for quality control and it is related to type of manufacture practiced. How style and standard of plucking affect the harvest index is shown in Table 5.

C: Style and standard of Plucking

There are two facets of plucking- what is taken away for manufacture and what is left behind for

The light plucking is done over a fish leave or mother leaf from where the plucked leaf originated. Hard plucking refers to plucking over a scale leaf from

Table 4 : Harvest index-influence of plucking interval

No.	Plucking Interval	Harvest Index(%)
1	9 days	22.0to 30.0
2	7 days	39.0
Harvest index (%) based on total biomass of above ground parts at the time of pruning		

supporting future crop. The former is termed as 'Standard of plucking'- finemedium and coarse depending on the proportion of two leaf and a bud, three leaf and a bud, coarser than 3 leaf and a bud and banjhi leaves.The later is termed 'style of plucking', light, hard and combination of both of them and refers at what level the pluckings are done. The

where the mother leaf originated thus the style of plucking is related to the depth at which plucking is carried out. Light plucking ensures the health of tea bushes as adequate foliage is left on the surface to support future crop .If more foliage than what it is required to support the plucking points is left on the surface , then the biomass will be diverted to non-

Table 5 : Harvest index-influence of Style and Standard of plucking

No.	Standard of plucking	Light Plucking A	Hard Plucking B	Combination A & B
1	Fine	25.0	35.0	32.0
2	Medium Plucking	23.0	33.0	30.0
3	Coarse Plucking	20.0	30.0	27.0

Harvest index (%) based on total biomass of above ground parts at the time of pruning

Table 6 : Optimal ratios of Biomass apportioned to various parts

No.	Ratio between	Ratio
1	Shoot :root	2.5 to 4.5 : 1
2	Wood : Maintenance Foliage	2.0 to 3.5 : 1
3	Maintenance Foliage : Harvested crop in a year	0.8 to 1.2 : 1
4	Non-photosynthetic Parts : Photosynthetic parts	1.5 to 4.0 : 1
5	Non-photosynthetic Parts :Maintenance foliage	2.5 to 4.5 : 1

Non-photosynthetic Parts - wood (Stem + branches) + roots
Photosynthetic parts –Foliage on the bush (Maintenance Foliage) + harvested crop (growing points)

photosynthetic parts which on long run become sinks for biomass at the cost of growing points resulting in reduction in Harvest index. On the other hand Hard plucking stimulates diversion of biomass to growing points bestowing positive effect on Harvest Index , But continual hard plucking weaken the bushes as enough biomass is not diverted for non - photosynthetic parts for their sustenance. Therefore, in practice, a balance is struck between harvesting and retention of optimum foliage on the surface for health of the bush and adequate photo synthetic surface to support the next generation of crop. It is achieved by adopting a system in which a combination of light and hard styles are followed depending on weather conditions ,i.e., Hard plucking during rush season when the growing conditions favors high rate of biomass production and light plucking during dry or lean months when the growth is slow.

D: Leaf Area Index

Optimal ratios exist between various parts of a plant. They are divided mainly into two groups -non-photosynthetic and Photosynthetic ones. The ratio between them is important as it decides the health of the plant and the harvest of the economic end product. In tea, the economic end product is the growing points—buds, one leaf and a bud, two leaf and a bud and three leaf and a bud. Biomass has to

flow continually to growing points without affecting the supply to other parts for their specific activities. The ratios found in yielding Tea are given in Table 6.

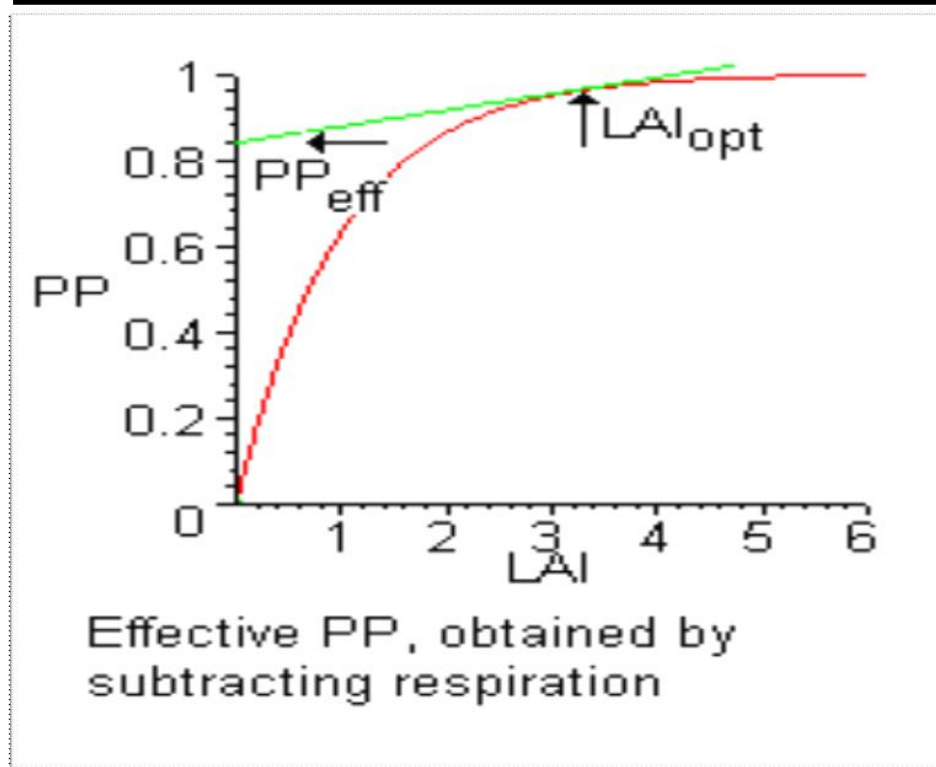
Roots act as sink for carbohydrates when the growing conditions are not favorable as in dry months. This also helps in restoring growth rates when the conditions turn favorable for growth and also for recovery of bushes after the prune. Shoot- root ratio thus becomes important in storing and distributing carbohydrates to various parts for their sustained activities .

E: Physiological aspects

Metabolic and growth studies by Physiologists have shown that the net growth rate (or biomass accumulation) increases with leaf area index up to an optimal level and then decreases up to a ceiling value, after which there is a negative growth and debilitation starts.(Fig-1)

Increasing the leaf area index beyond an optimum limit increases the fattening of non-photosynthetic parts resulting in more respiratory losses of carbohydrates .In tea optimum yield occurs before optimal leaf area for highest net growth rate is achieved. Any plucking policy in Tea culture should aim at keeping the leaf area index below the optimum

Fig. 1 : Leaf Area Index vs. primary product function
 the free encyclopedia Version ID: (641194753 2015 13:10 UTC)



required for getting highest net growth rate so as to ensure a constant demand for biomass for the new growing points activated after each plucking. Light penetration depends on canopy architecture. Hence to maintain optimal growth rates, a lower leaf area index is required for horizontal leaves (lower depth of maintenance foliage) and higher one for inclined and small leaves.

Summing Up

Harvest Index decides the productivity in terms of economic end product for which crops are grown. In Tea culture, Harvest index is optimized by manipulating 1) pruning cycle between 3 and 4 years, plucking interval between 8 and 15 days depending on growing conditions, 3) combination of light and hard plucking for a given standard of plucking for a given type of manufacture, 4) intensive plucking (plucking all available shoots (above 90%) to a given standard and style of plucking employing adequate number of pluckers. A rigid control of plucking in all its aspects is necessary to avoid addition of more than optimum foliage on the bush to eliminate the negative effect on Harvest index on the long run.

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Role of Meteorological Models in Estimating Yield of Sugarcane Based on Weather Variables

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Abstract

A field study was conducted at G.B.P.U.A.&T., Pantnagar to investigate the feasibility of estimating the yield of sugarcane crop based on weather variables. Five years (2004 to 2009) crop management data (sowing/harvest/irrigation etc.) for sugarcane were collected from Agricultural farm, Pantnagar. The development of multiple variable regression models employs that the dependent variable (yield) of multiyear is related with independent weather variables. SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) software was used for the statistical analysis and development of multiple regression models based on fortnightly meteorological parameters. A total number of 8 models were developed using different combinations of fortnightly weather variables at different crop growth stages. Among all models, the performance of the model 8 was superior as compared to other models. The predicted yield by this model ranged between 349.39q ha⁻¹ to 803.76q ha⁻¹ with the value of R² as 0.668, while the observed values ranged from 221.80q ha⁻¹ to 824.16q ha⁻¹. The RMSE between observed and predicted yield of sugarcane by model 8 was 15.49%, while the value of F test was 7.32 which is significant at 1% probability level. Hence, it can be concluded that the observed and predicted values were close enough in model 8 as compared to other meteorological models. The reason is obvious because model 8 used more number of weather variables.

Keywords

Weather parameters; Coefficient of correlation and Yield prediction models.

Introduction

Sugarcane (*Saccharum officinarum* L.) is a long duration tropical crop covering all the seasons' viz., *kharif*, rainy and *zaid* during its life cycle. A total of 1100mm-1500mm rainfall is adequate provided the distribution is right and abundant in the months of vegetative growth followed by a dry period for ripening. Optimum temperature for sprouting (germination) of stem cuttings is 32 to 38°C. Principal climatic components that control cane growth, yield and quality are temperature, light and moisture availability. Agriculture and climate are closely linked to crop growth, development and production[1] and is affected by both long term meteorological factors (the climate) and short term meteorological events (the weather). Forecasting of crop production is one of the most important aspects of agricultural statistics system. At present, yield forecasts are based on quite subjective estimates and the final crop production estimates based on objective crop cutting surveys become available long after the harvests. Crop weather models act as useful tools to predict crop yields in a vast country like India for planners and policy makers.[2] The weather parameters play an important role both in biology and control of pest.[3] There are numerous studies based on Fisher's (1924) techniques viz., linear, curvilinear and multiple regression techniques for prediction of yield. The relationship between crop yields and weather parameters is generally carried out with the help of multiple regression models.[4] The production of crop and prediction of crop yields have direct impact on national and international economy and thus, play an important role in the food management.[5] Therefore, the present study was undertaken to

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investigate the feasibility of estimating yield of sugarcane crop based on weather variables.

Materials and Methods

Field study was conducted at H and I block of Agricultural Farm of G. B. Pant University of Agriculture and Technology, Pantnagar. Geographically, this centre is situated at 29°N latitude and 79.3°E longitude. The elevation of this place from mean sea level is 216 meters. The soil of the present experimental site belongs to Beni silty clay loam series. Plant and management data (sowing/harvest date/irrigation scheduling, etc.) related to sugarcane form the year 2004 to 2009 were collected from Agricultural Farm of G. B. Pant University of Agriculture and Technology, Pantnagar.

The daily weather data of crop seasons such as temperature, relative humidity, wind speed, bright sunshine hours, evaporation and rainfall used in the study as indicators in crop yield prediction and were collected for a period of five years (2004 to 2009) from the agrometeorological observatory located at Norman E Borlaug Crop Research Centre (NEB-CRC), G.B. Pant University of Agriculture and Technology, Pantnagar. The daily values of the meteorological parameters were converted in to the fortnightly weather data. These fortnightly weather variables were taken after six to seven months from the date of sowing. Number of fortnightly were varied (increase or decrease) because sowing dates of the sugarcane is not same in all the fields during the study period. This resulted into the varying crop duration of sugarcane in the different fields.

The two main factors affecting crop yield are inputs and weather. Use of these factors forms one class of models for forecasting crop yields. Weather plays a very important role in crop growth and development and hence, can be conveniently used as an indicator of change in the crop yield. Weather variables like rainfall, temperature, bright sunshine hours and relative humidity were used as indicators in the development of empirical statistical models using multiple linear regression techniques.[6-7] The development of multiple variable regression models employs that the dependent variable usually multiyear yield is related with the independent weather variables. Multiple regression models were developed with the help of SPSS software by using different sets of independent variables. The forward stepwise parameter selection approach was used which describes F range criteria. An example of multiple regression equation is given below.

$$Y = a + bx_1 + cx_2 + dx_3 + \dots$$

Where,

Y	= Crop yield (q ha ⁻¹)
a	= Multiple regression constant
b, c, d...	= Slope of the curve
x ₁ , x ₂ , x ₃	= Average weather parameters.

Results and Discussion

Yield prediction of sugarcane

Each crop cultivar requires a set of weather conditions for its potential growth, development and finally economic yield. However, it may be noted that the variation in weather conditions introduce the year to year variability in yield. Sugarcane is a long duration crop which requires different types of weather conditions at its various phenophases. Even under optimum conditions small variations in weather influences growth and development of the crop. A total number of 8 models were developed using different combinations of meteorological parameters. All the models developed in the present study have been listed in Table 1.

Yield prediction of sugarcane: Model 1

Observed and predicted yield of sugarcane crop at H and I block of Agricultural Farm of G.B. Pant University of Agriculture and Technology is depicted in fig. 1. It was found that observed yield ranged from 221.80q ha⁻¹ to 824.16q ha⁻¹ and yield predicted by model 1 ranged from 457.02q ha⁻¹ to 755.71q ha⁻¹, respectively. The model 1 was developed using the weather variable wind speed of 13th fortnight from 6 to 7 month of sowing. Co-efficient of determination (R²=0.344) shows that about 34 per cent variability in yield of sugarcane may be addressed by the single weather variable of wind speed.

The RMSE (Root Mean Square Error) between observed and predicted sugarcane yield was 21.64 per cent while the value of F test was 18.91 which is significant at 1% probability level. Results show that wind speed is the most important factor in deciding sugarcane yield though it doesn't influence directly. But indirectly it supplies CO₂ which is an important gas required during photosynthesis. Wind increases the turbulence in atmosphere, thus increasing the supply of carbon dioxide to the plants resulting in higher photosynthetic process.[8]

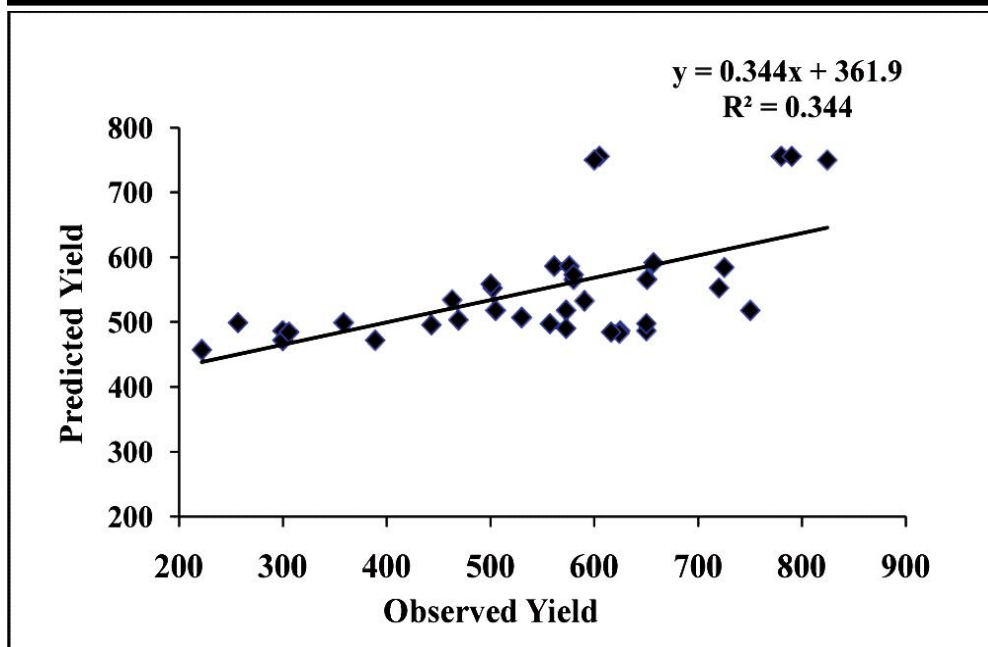
Table 1 : Meteorological yield models of sugarcane crop based on fortnightly weather data

Model No.	Meteorological model equation	R ²
1	$Y = 401.708 + 36.875(x_1)$	0.344
2	$Y = 523.577 + 39.524(x_1) + (-24.5280)(x_2)$	0.468
3	$Y = 438.79 + 41.767(x_1) + (-19.234)(x_2) + 0.236(x_3)$	0.515
4	$Y = 323.865 + 46.471(x_1) + (-23.9150)(x_2) + 0.229(x_3) + 21.457(x_4)$	0.544
5	$Y = 391.953 + 40.59(x_1) + (-20.314)(x_2) + 0.3(x_3) + 43.693(x_4) + (-66.977)(x_5)$	0.586
6	$Y = 402.155 + 43.211(x_1) + (-29.919)(x_2) + 0.41(x_3) + 51.274(x_4) + (-109.027)(x_5) + 19.197(x_6)$	0.620
7	$Y = 351.034 + 46.648(x_1) + (-35.979)(x_2) + 0.418(x_3) + 54.718(x_4) + (-100.479)(x_5) + 22.302(x_6) + 4.8(x_7)$	0.648
8	$Y = -33.078 + 46.729(x_1) + (-32.191)(x_2) + 0.549(x_3) + 58.828(x_4) + (-156.253)(x_5) + 26.286(x_6) + 4.745(x_7) + 6.485(x_8)$	0.668

Where, Y = Yield (q ha⁻¹), X₁ = Average wind speed of 13th fortnight, X₂ = Average Bright Sunshine Hours (BSS) 1st fortnight, X₃ = Sum of 2nd fortnight rainfall, X₄ = Average Bright Sunshine Hours (BSS) 12th fortnight,

X₅ = Average evaporation of 6th fortnight, X₆ = Average evaporation of 2nd fortnight, X₇ = Sum of 11th fortnight rainfall and X₈ = Average Relative Humidity of 6th fortnight.

Fig. 1 : Comparison between observed and predicted yield: Model 1



Yield prediction of sugarcane: Model 2

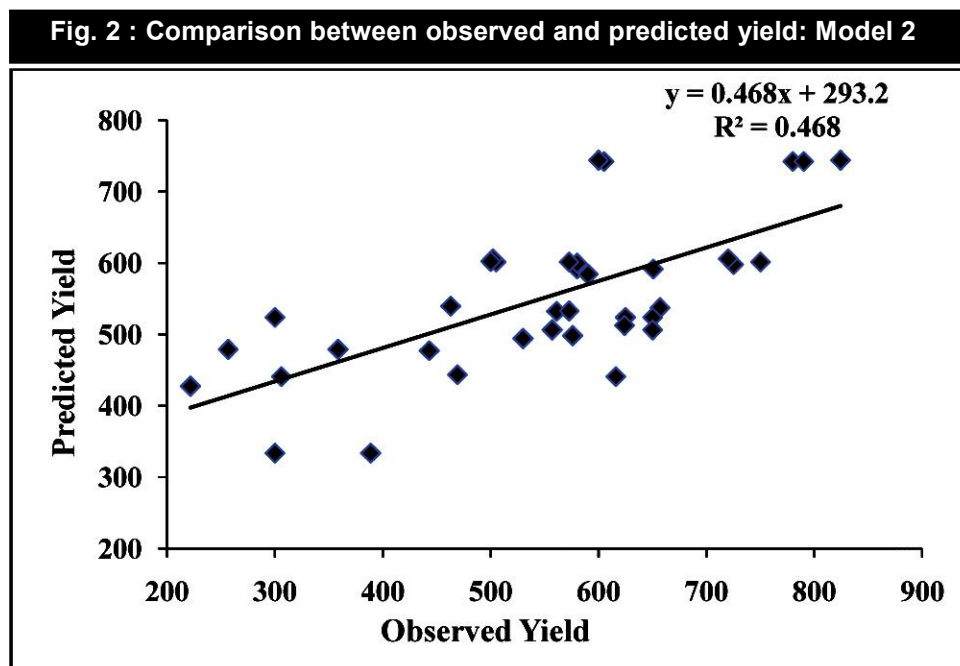
The comparison between observed and predicted yield of sugarcane crop by model 2 has been shown in fig. 2. The yield predicted by model 2 ranged from 333.77q ha⁻¹ to 743.78q ha⁻¹. The RMSE between observed and predicted sugarcane yield was 19.48 while the value of F-test was 15.45 per cent which is significant at 1% probability level. The value of co-

efficient of determination (R²=0.468) shows that there is slight improvement in model performance. Higher value of R² in model 2 reveals that BSS of 1st fortnight from 6 to 7 month of sowing is also a decisive factor in the final yield of sugarcane. The bright sunshine hours allows crop to participate in photosynthetic activities for a longer time. Sugarcane is a tropical plant and responds well to long period of sunlight (12

to 14 hours). A long and warm growing season with adequate long hours of bright sunshine permits rapid growth to build up adequate yield (more tonnage) and a ripening season of around 2-3 months duration having warm days, clear skies, cool nights and relatively a dry weather without rainfall for buildup of sugar are required.[9]

Yield prediction of sugarcane: Model 3

Fig. 3 shows the comparison between observed and predicted yield of sugarcane crop and it was found that yield predicted by model 3 ranged from 310.42q ha-1 to 746.81q ha-1, respectively. The RMSE between observed and predicted sugarcane yield was



reported as 18.60 per cent while the value of F-test was 12.07 which is significant at 1% level of probability. The value of co-efficient of determination was found to be 0.515 showing the improved performance of the model 3 over the previous two models. The additional parameter considered in model 3 in comparison to model 2 is rainfall, which shows that rainfall will significantly play an important role in cane development and sugar production. During the active growth period rainfall encourages rapid cane growth, cane elongation and internode formation. Sugarcane is highly dependent on the availability of sufficient amounts of rainfall on a seasonal cycle of wet and dry periods. Without irrigation it grows best in regions with annual rainfall in the range of 1500-2500mm.[10]

Yield prediction of sugarcane: Model 4

The predicted yields by model 4 ranged from 314.81q ha-1 to 770.93q ha-1, respectively. Fig. 4 shows the observed and predicted yield of the sugarcane crop by model 4. The RMSE between observed and predicted sugarcane yield was 18.04

per cent while the value of F-test was 9.85 which is significant at 1% probability level. $R^2 = 0.544$ shows that the inclusion of bright sunshine hours of 12th fortnight in the model improved accuracy of the yield prediction. Sugarcane is a sun loving plant and the plant thrives best in tropical hot sunny areas. Being a C4 plant, sugarcane is capable of high photosynthetic rates and the process shows a high saturation range with regards to light. Tillering is affected by intensity and duration of sunshine. High light intensity and long duration promote tillering while cloudy and short days affect it adversely. Stalk growth increases when daylight is within the range of 10-14 hours. Increase in leaf area index is rapid during 3rd to 5th month, coinciding the formative phase of the crop and attained its peak values during early grand growth phase.[11]

Yield prediction of sugarcane: Model 5

Fig.5 shows the comparison between observed and predicted yield of sugarcane crop by model 5. The predicted yields by model 5 ranged from 275.98q ha-1 to 755.28q ha-1, while, observed yield of sugarcane

Fig. 3 : Comparison between observed and predicted yield: Model 3

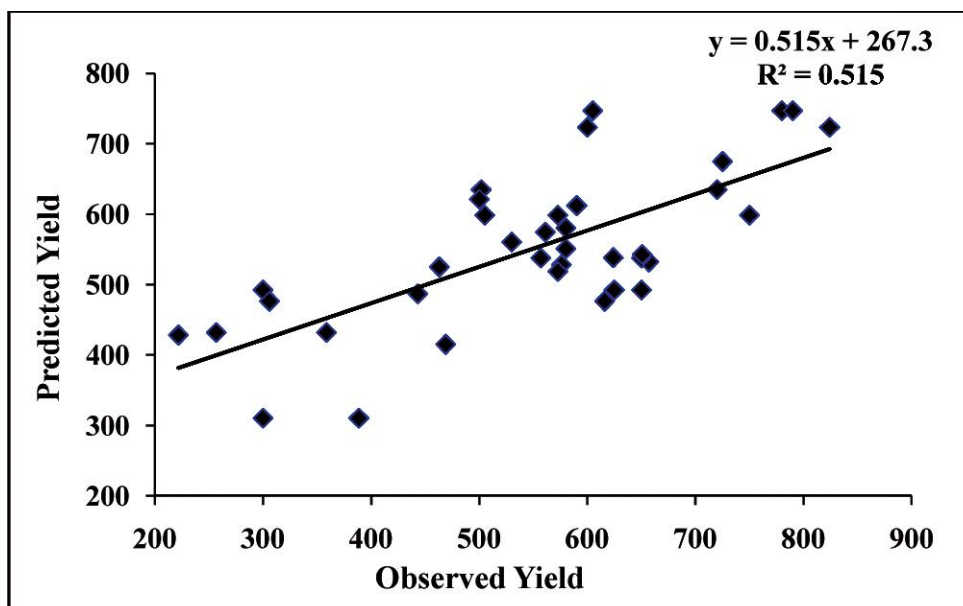
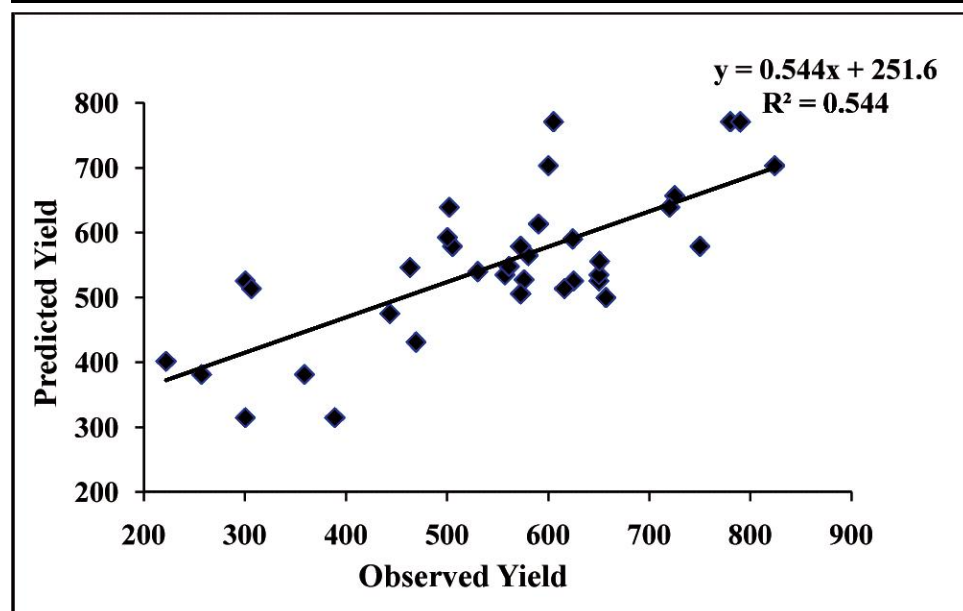
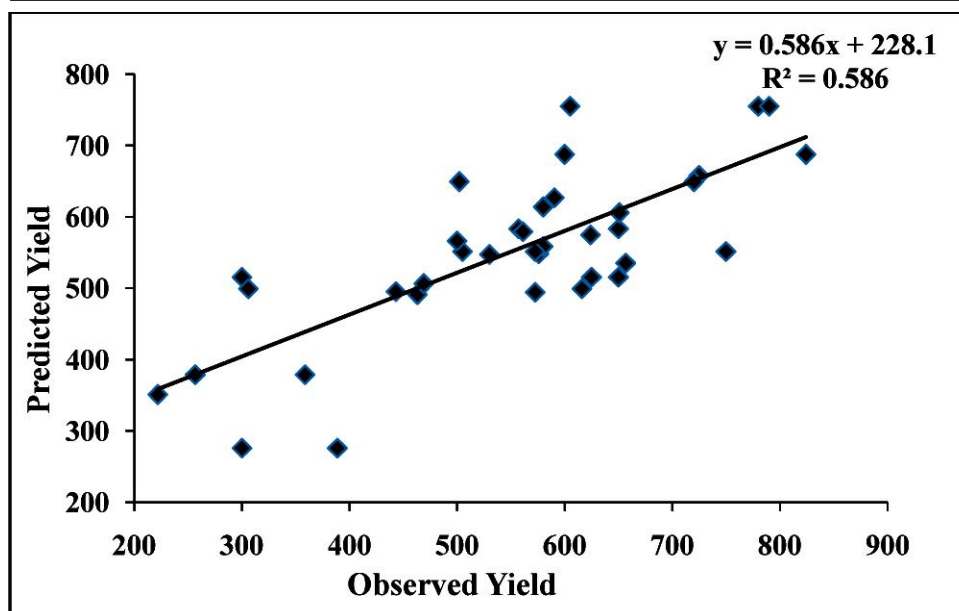
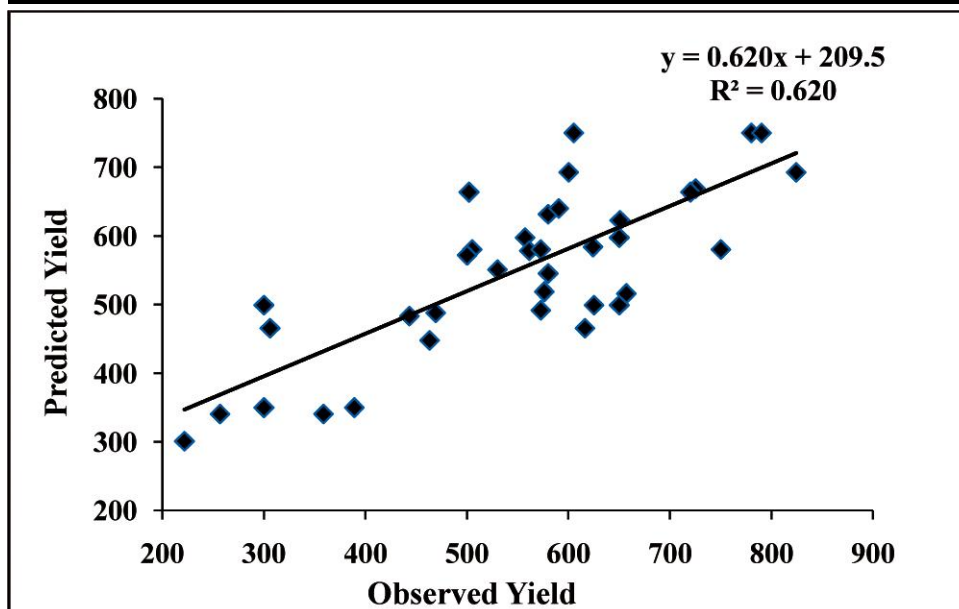


Fig. 4 : Comparison between observed and predicted yield: Model 4



was as discussed earlier. The RMSE between observed and predicted sugarcane yield reduced 17.18 per cent while the value of F-test was 9.09 which is significant at 1% probability level. The scatter plot between observed and predicted sugarcane yield produced R^2 as 0.586, which shows that again there is slight improvement in the model accuracy over previous models, which can be attributed to the inclusion of evaporation of 6th fortnight from 6 to 7 month of sowing as independent weather variable.

Evaporation does not influence the sugarcane yield directly however it shows the state of atmospheric conditions which will influence sugarcane yield. This stage (Boom stage) is the phase of maximum development in the sugarcane plant and is characterized by increases in stem size, weight and high leaf production. Evaporation at boom stage is the critical climatic factors affecting the variations in crop yield.[12]

Fig. 5 : Comparison between observed and predicted yield: Model 5**Fig. 6 : Comparison between observed and predicted yield: Model 6***Yield prediction of sugarcane: Model 6*

The observed and predicted yields of sugarcane crop by model 6 have been depicted in figure 6. The predicted yield by model 6 ranged from 301.09q ha⁻¹ to 750.18q ha⁻¹. The RMSE between observed and predicted sugarcane yield was found to be 16.46 per cent, while the value of F-test was 8.45 which is significant at 1% probability level. The value of coefficient of determination ($R^2 = 0.620$) shows that the

evaporation of 2nd fortnight is also an important factor for the growth of crop. On inclusion of evaporation of 2nd fortnight in the forecast model, forecast accuracy significantly improved.

Yield prediction of sugarcane: Model 7

From the fig. 7 it was found that, there is close relationship between the values of observed and predicted yields of sugarcane crop by model 7. The

Fig. 7 : Comparison between observed and predicted yield: Model 7

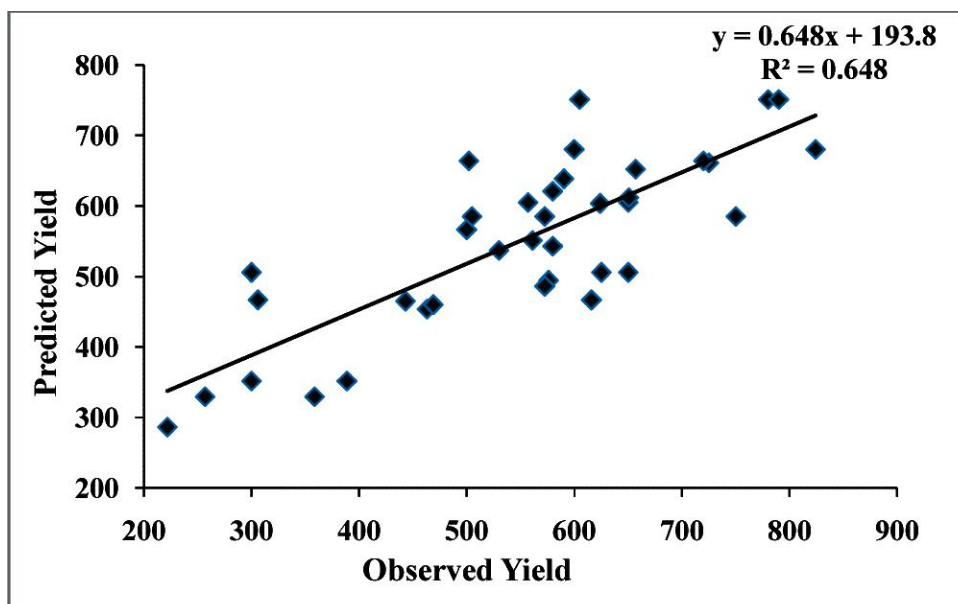
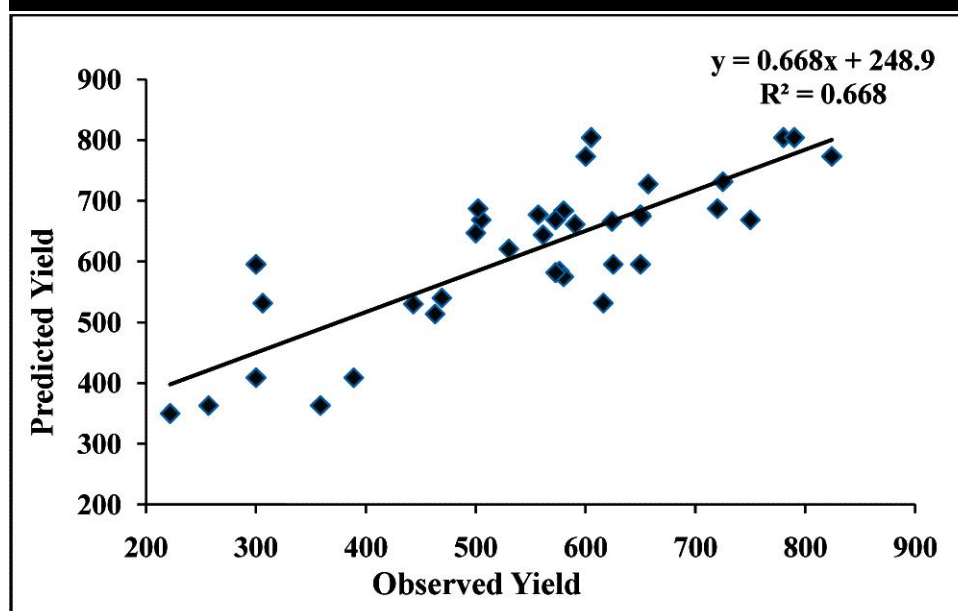


Fig. 8 : Comparison between observed and predicted yield: Model 8



predicted values of sugarcane yield by model 7 ranged from 286.44q ha⁻¹ to 751.35q ha⁻¹ with value of R² as 0.648. The RMSE between observed and predicted sugarcane yield was reported as 15.84 per cent, while the value of F-test was 7.92 (significant at 1% probability level). The addition of weather variable of rainfall of 11th fortnight significantly improved the model performance.

Yield prediction of sugarcane: Model 8

The comparison between the observed and predicted yields of sugarcane crop by model 8 has

been depicted in fig. 8. It was found that yield predicted by model 8 ranged from 349.39q ha⁻¹ to 803.76q ha⁻¹. The RMSE between observed and predicted sugarcane yield reduced to 15.49 per cent while the value of F-test was 6.38 (significant at 1% probability level). Inclusion of relative humidity of 6th fortnight from 6 to 7 month after sowing increased the value of co-efficient of determination from 0.648 to 0.668, which is slightly better than the previous meteorological models. Therefore, it can be drawn from the results that the relative humidity of 6th

fortnight is also an important weather variable in deciding the final yield of sugarcane in *Tarai* region. High humidities coupled with warm weather favours vegetative growth. Low environmental relative humidity levels can reflect a high vapor pressure deficit (VPD) which directly affects stomatal behavior and transpiration rates. High vapor pressure deficits initially induce high transpiration rates in plants causing them to lose water and turgor and in later stages may result in closure of the stomata and a reduction in the transpiration stream.[13-14-15]

Conclusion

A high degree of variability in the sugarcane yield prediction was observed as shown by the observed yields. Among all models, the performance of the model 8 was superior as compared to other models. The reason is obvious as model 8 incorporated more number of weather variables. These weather variables directly and indirectly affect the growth and development of sugarcane plant. Among all the wind speed of 13th fortnight was most important weather parameter influencing the sugarcane yield in *Tarai* region of Uttarakhand.

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Production of Rose and Marigold Flower in Allahabad City

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Abstract

This topic describes the production of rose and marigold flower in Allahabad city. We have some data which are collected by survey and presented here by table and graph in part of result and discussion. This topic explain the commercial activity of production and marketing of floriculture products is also a source of gainful and quality employment to scores of people. The harvesting processes of these crops are very drudgery prone. India being an agricultural country, where majority live in the rural areas, both men and women work very hard in the fields. The harvesting of rose comes under the severe drudgery prone activity (Ergonomic practices, 2003). Marigold is an annual flower plant. The harvesting of the Marigold flower is considered as the severe most drudgery prone activity (Ergonomic practices, 2003) where women have to keep their posture in bending position from the back facing the ground for the harvesting of flowers found that rose and marigold are the main cash crops of Allahabad that involves farmers at great number.

Keywords

Floriculture; Buds; Commercial; Agro-climate; Entrepreneurial; Drudgery; Rose; Marigold.

Introduction

India has a long tradition of floriculture. Appreciation of the potential of commercial floriculture has resulted in the blossoming of this field into a viable agri-business option. Availability of natural resources like diverse agro-climatic conditions permit production of a wide range of temperate and tropical flowers, almost all through the year in some part of the country or other. Improved communication facilities have increased their availability in every part of the country. The commercial activity of production and marketing of floriculture products is also a source of gainful and quality employment to scores of people.

Farmer involved into floriculture get very high entrepreneurial opportunities but, so far has found that rose and marigold are the main cash crops of Allahabad that involves farmers at great number. The harvesting processes of these crops are very drudgery prone. India being an agricultural country, where majority live in the rural areas, both men and women work very hard in the fields. The present study will be taken in Allahabad's rural areas where the women are engaged in harvesting of Roses and Marigolds. These two flowers- Rose and Marigold are very much in demand in Allahabad. Harvesting of these is a very drudgery prone activity for the rural women because Rose thorns make them bleed from their hands and over all body and their dress get torn. At the time of harvesting of Marigold, women feel pain in their backbone, thighs, and legs, neck etc. because

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bending during harvesting causes pain. These are major drudgeries of harvesting the Rose and Marigold for these rural women. These two flowers are planted frequently because Allahabad is a Holy and Religious city. Here every day in all the temples people use the flowers for worship God as well as the Dhoopbatti and Agarbatti sticks also used in temple which has fragrance and these two flowers are being used especially for fragrance. Rose and Marigold are cash crops in Allahabad city.

Rose is planted commercially by women in Allahabad city and nearby areas. The women are facing lot of difficulties in the cultivation of rose flowers. Rose thorns keep hurting them to their hands and other parts of body (that are in the contact with thorns) start bleeding and their clothes get thorn as well. Rose is grown in the city of Allahabad throughout the year. The Farm women have to harvest rose flower in standing posture by hand and collect them in a cloth wrapped around the waist, which result in decreasing the commercial value of flowers.

The harvesting of rose comes under the severe drudgery prone activity (Ergonomic practices, 2003).

Marigold is an annual flower plant. The harvesting of the Marigold flower is considered as the severe most drudgery prone activity (Ergonomic practices, 2003) where women have to keep their posture in bending position from the back facing the ground for the harvesting of flowers. It leads them to severe pain in their backbone, leg, and thigh and feet etc. To reduce such problems, the 'hybrid variety of tall plant' of Marigold as well as rose can help reduce or completely abandon the bending position of women while the harvesting process goes on.

Objective

The major objective of the study is to know number

of harvesters in block Chaka of Allahabad city.

To know the income which comes from production of rose and marigold?

Methodology

The research procedure and technique used in arriving at

(i) Location of the study:-

- District -Allahabad,
- Block- Chaka,
- Villages of Block Chaka

(ii) Sampling Procedure:- Sample selection and size –A sample of 106 farmer, 53 from each harvesting of Rose and Marigold respectively will be selected for the study.

A village inventory and interview schedule will be developed and administered with the BDO, Sabhapati and farm women respectively.

iii) Tools for the data collection: - The following tools will be selected for the data collection:

(A) Interview schedule:

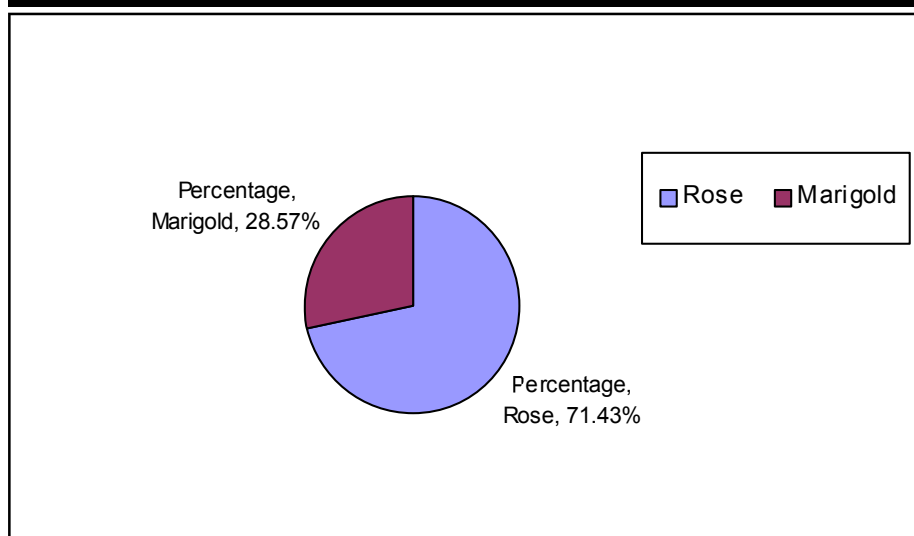
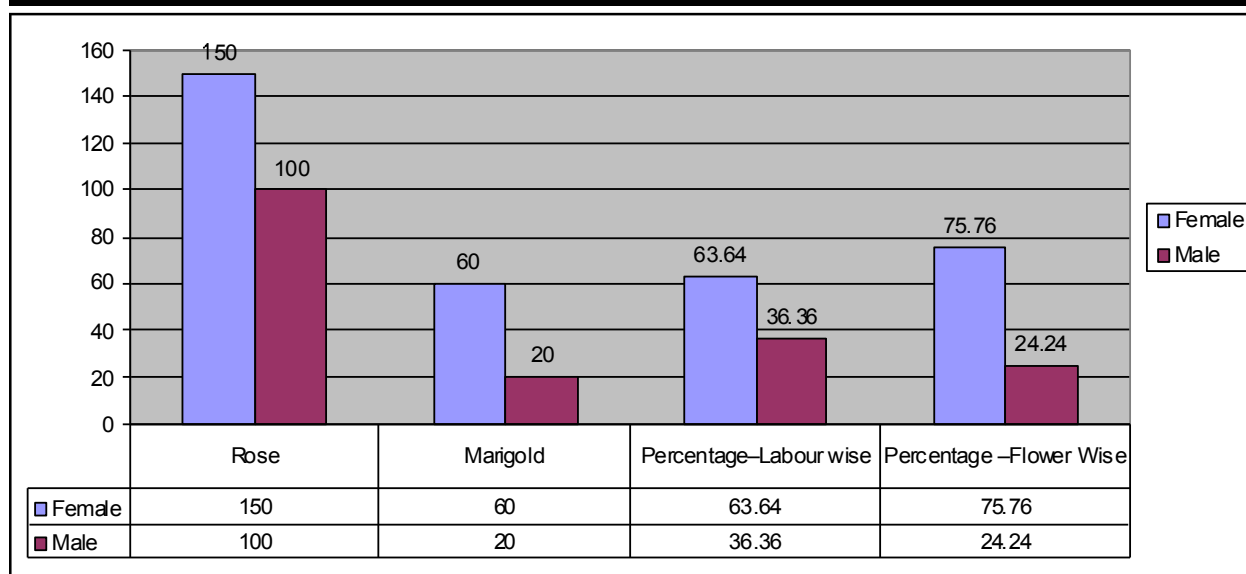
An interview schedule will be prepared to know the income of village by production of rose and marigold as well as got the information of male and female harvesters in selected area.

Table 1 : Flower's Incomes on Village

Flower	Income	Percentage
Rose	10,000	71.43%
Marigold	4000	28.57%
Total	14,000	100%

According to the table 3 of the study I got the information that the village earns approximately every

month, 10,000rs by rose and 4000 by the marigold .The reason of this result is the production of rose is more than marigold.

Fig. 1 : Flower's Incomes on Village**Fig. 2 : Labour involved in harveting of flower****Table 2 : Labour involved in harveting of flower**

Labour	Rose	Marigold	total	Percentage-Labour wise
Female	150	60	210	63.64 %
Male	100	20	120	36.36%
Total	250	80	330	100%
Percentage				
Flower Wise	75.76%	24.24%		100%

According to the study for rose harvesting 150 women and 100 men works and for marigold 60 women and 20 men works for marigold harvesting. Total 330

harvesters work for these flowers in which for study we select only 53 male and 53 female harvesters.

Table 3 : Type Of Flower Which Is Demanding

Type Of Flower	Flower Production GSR Analysis			
	Rose -area (%)	Rose (per kg. rate)	Marigold -Area (%)	Marigold (per kg. rate)
Cut Flower	50%	Rs. 180/	65%	Rs. 60/
Buds	35%	Rs. 16-20/- each	10%	Rs. 50/
Loose Flower	15%	Rs. 60/	25%	Rs. 35/

According to this table 4 of the study I got that 50%rose cut flower in market yet 65%maigold ,35%buds of roses available in market and marigold is only 10%,15%loose flower but marigold 25%. If talk its price the cut flower of rose is they sale in 180rs. / kg. While 60rs./kg. of marigold and buds of rose sale in 16-20 each yet 50 rs /kg. and loose flower in 60rs./ kg of rose in compeer of 35rs.of /kg of marigold. This data has been collected from market of Allahabad city. In village people work for only desi breed of both flowers means they sale only buds and loose flowers, the cut flower are comes from other areas of city.

Conclusion

This paper has been show that rose is costly flower then marigold and 210 female harvesters are working in compare of only 120 male for both flowers but in the research area famers use desi verities and are not able to sale cut flowers, they sale only buds and loose flowers in Allahabad market. There is need of awareness about different hybrid verities of both flowers for farmer's better income.

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