

This is a repository copy of Spatial and temporal variation of hydraulic conductivity and vegetation growth in green infrastructures using infiltrometer and visual technique.

White Rose Research Online URL for this paper: http://eprints.whiterose.ac.uk/113608/

Version: Accepted Version

Article:

Gadi, VK, Tang, Y-R, Das, A et al. (4 more authors) (2017) Spatial and temporal variation of hydraulic conductivity and vegetation growth in green infrastructures using infiltrometer and visual technique. CATENA, 155. pp. 20-29. ISSN 0341-8162

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.catena.2017.02.024

© 2017 Elsevier B.V. This manuscript version is made available under the CC-BY-NC-ND 4.0 license http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/

Reuse

Unless indicated otherwise, fulltext items are protected by copyright with all rights reserved. The copyright exception in section 29 of the Copyright, Designs and Patents Act 1988 allows the making of a single copy solely for the purpose of non-commercial research or private study within the limits of fair dealing. The publisher or other rights-holder may allow further reproduction and re-use of this version - refer to the White Rose Research Online record for this item. Where records identify the publisher as the copyright holder, users can verify any specific terms of use on the publisher's website.

Takedown

If you consider content in White Rose Research Online to be in breach of UK law, please notify us by emailing eprints@whiterose.ac.uk including the URL of the record and the reason for the withdrawal request.



	Spatial and temporal variation of hydraulic conductivity and vegetation
	growth in green infrastructures using infiltrometer and visual technique
	Vinay Kumar Gadi, Yi-Rui Tang, Arka Das, Charu Monga, *Ankit Garg, Christian Berretta,
	Sahoo Lingaraj
	Name: Vinay Kumar Gadi
	Title: Research student
]	Affiliation: Department of Civil Engineering, Indian Institute of Technology Guwahati, India.
1	Address: Department of Civil Engineering, Indian Institute of Technology Guwahati, India
]	E-mail: vinay.gadi@iitg.ernet.in, Telephone: +91-9440381364
]	Name: Yi-Rui Tang
r	Title: PhD Student
	Affiliation: Department of Electromechanical Engineering, University of Macau
/	Address: Department of Electromechanical Engineering, University of Macau, Macau SAR, China
]	E-mail: <u>terrantang@yahoo.com</u>
	Name: Arka Das
	Title: Under graduate student
	Affiliation: Department of Civil Engineering, Indian Institute of Technology Guwahati, India.
	Address: Department of Civil Engineering, Indian Institute of Technology Guwahati, India
	E-mail: d.arka@iitg.ernet.in, Telephone: +91-9085279671
	Name: CharuMonga
	Title: Assistant Profesosr
	Affiliation: Department of Design, Indian Institute of Technology Guwahati, India.
	Address: Department of Design, Indian Institute of Technology Guwahati, India
	E-mail: charum@iitg.ernet.in, Telephone: +91-8812870435

33	Title:	Assistant	Professor
----	--------	-----------	-----------

34	Affiliation:	Department	of	Civil	Engineering,	Indian	Institute	of	Technology	Guwahati,
35	India.									

- 36 Address: Department of Civil Engineering, Indian Institute of Technology Guwahati, India
- 37 E-mail: g.ankit2@iitg.ernet.in, Telephone: +91-9085028605

Name: Dr Christian Berretta
Title: Academic Research Fellow
Affiliation: water@leeds, Department of Civil Engineering, University of Leeds, UK
Address: Department of Civil Engineering, University of Leeds, UK
E-mail: c.berretta@leeds.ac.uk, Telephone: +44-1133431000
Name: Dr LingarajSahoo
Title: Professor
Affiliation: Department of Biosciences and Bioengineering Engineering, Indian institute o
Technology Guwahati, India.
Address: Department of Biosciences and Bioengineering Engineering, Indian Institute of
Technology Guwahati, India
E-mail: ls@iitg.ernet.in, Telephone: +91-9957467836

68 Abstract

Hydraulic conductivity of a vegetated soil (i.e., mixed grass cover) is an important parameter 69 governing the hydrological performance of green infrastructure (GI). This paper focuses on 70 71 GI with mixed grass cover in the presence of trees. Due to shading effects (interception of radiant energy) of tree canopy, mixed grass cover in the vicinity of trees may not receive 72 direct photosynthetically active radiation (PAR). This can hinder the growth rates resulting in 73 74 the low grass cover (i.e., in density). The hydraulic conductivity and the performance of GI can be further affected. Several field studies were conducted to investigate hydraulic 75 76 conductivity in different types of vegetated covers. However, any variation in growth and hydraulic conductivity of mixed grass cover in the vicinity of trees was rarely investigated. 77 The objective of this study is to quantify spatial and temporal variation of vegetation growth 78 79 and hydraulic conductivity in a mixed grass cover in the vicinity of a tree. Field monitoring of a mixed grass cover in the vicinity of a tree in a GI was conducted for about six months. 80 Hydraulic conductivity tests were carried out using mini disk infiltrometer (MDI) at 149 81 locations in a selected site once every month. Vegetation density was quantified using image 82 analysis and the images were captured by a DJI Phantom drone. The growth of mixed grass 83 84 cover around tree vicinity (within 5 m radial distance) was found to be more uniform during months characterized by high rainfall depth. Spatial heterogeneity in both vegetation density 85 86 and hydraulic conductivity is found to be more significant during a dry period than wet 87 period. Variation of hydraulic conductivity with respect to the change in vegetation density is 88 found to be significant in a wet period than dry period. It is also found that hydraulic conductivity is higher at the portions where shredded leaves are present. The obtained 89 90 dynamic spatio-temporal relationship of soil, vegetation and atmospheric parameters can support the design of green infrastructures and contribute to a better understanding of the 91 maintenance practices. 92

93	Key words: Hydraulic conductivity; green infrastructures; mixed grass cover; tree vicinity;
94	vegetation density
95	
96	
97	
98	
99	
100	
101	
102	
103	
104	
105	
106	
107	
108	
109	
110	
111	
112	
113	
114	
115	
116	
117	

118 **1. Introduction**

Hydraulic conductivity of a vegetated soil is an important parameter governing 119 available water content in vadose zone (Nielsen et al., 1973; Bordoloi et al., 2015), ground 120 121 water table recharge (Gee and Hillel, 1988) and slope stability (Simon and Collison, 2002; Leung et al., 2015a). It is also important for understanding the hydrological performance of 122 urban green infrastructures, which are widely adopted as sustainable drainage systems 123 (SuDS) for management of surface water runoff (Dunne et al., 1991; Woolhiseret al., 1996; 124 Berretta et al., 2014; Stovin et al., 2015). The hydraulic conductivity behavior can have an 125 126 influence on the long-term performance of SuDS and maintenance practices.

The hydraulic conductivity of vegetated soil is affected by available water content and 127 evapotranspiration induced suction in root zone (Fredlund and Xing, 1994; Fredlund et al., 128 129 1994). Available water content as well as evapotranspiration induced suction depends on the area of vegetated soil exposed to various atmospheric parameters, such as air temperature 130 (Penman, 1948; Chahal, 1965), relative humidity (Delage et al., 1998; Cuisinier and 131 Masrouri, 2005), rainfall (Eltahir, 1998; Knapp et al., 2002) and photosynthetically active 132 radiation (PAR) (Ng et al., 2013). However, PAR may not intercept vegetated soil due to 133 134 shading effect (Atwell et al., 1999). In such case, evapotranspiration induced suction in vegetated soil as well as vegetation growth may be relatively low (Garg et al., 2015a). This 135 can further influence hydraulic conductivity (Gadi et al., 2016). Vegetation growth is 136 commonly expressed by the term of vegetation density. Vegetation density (m^2/m^3) is defined 137 138 as the projected area of vegetation per unit volume (Warmink, 2007).

139 Vegetation density =
$$\frac{\sum A_v}{A_L}$$

140 where:

141

 A_v = Area covered by vegetation,

A = plot area,

143 L = Length of plot in flow direction.

144 Grass growth in grass lands is found to be responsive to atmospheric parameters such as rainfall and temperature (Whitford, 2002; Went, 1949; Peacock, 1976; Khan and Rizvi, 145 1994). Mixed grass lands, in which more than one type of species can be seen, occur widely 146 (Walker and Noy-Meir, 1982; Bourlière et al., 1983; Scholes and Archer, 1997; Scholes and 147 Walker, 2004). In the cases of mixed grass and the grass in the vicinity of trees, root systems 148 overlap (Van Noordwijk and Purnomosidhi, 1995). Grass growth may become slow due to 149 150 the overlap (Casper and Jackson, 1997). Grass cover changes on vegetated soil can influence the proportion of CO₂ in atmosphere, which is a key factor for global warming (Auerswald et 151 al., 2009; Auerswald et al., 2012). However, previous studies rarely investigated the 152 153 vegetation cover change (vegetation parameters such as vegetation density and shoot growth) explicitly. 154

155 Extensive field studies were conducted to investigate hydraulic conductivity of vegetated soil (Gish and Jury, 1983; Noordwijk et al., 1991; Mitchell et al., 1995; Leung et 156 al., 2015a). Few studies show that, increase in hydraulic conductivity with vegetation growth 157 (i.e., root growth) occurs due to preferential flow through the channels formed around the live 158 or dead roots (Noguchi et al., 1997; Newman et al., 2004). Whereas, some other studies show 159 that, decrease in hydraulic conductivity with growth of vegetation occurs due to water 160 repellency exhibited by roots (Aubertin, 1971). However, previous researchers rarely studied 161 the hydraulic conductivity of mixed grass cover. In addition, the hydraulic conductivity of 162 mixed grass cover in tree vicinity was rarely investigated. Furthermore, any understanding of 163 164 the correlation of spatial and temporal variation of hydraulic conductivity with that of vegetation density in a mixed vegetated area with trees is rarely interpreted. The objective of 165 166 this study is to investigate the spatial and temporal variation of hydraulic conductivity and vegetation density in a mixed grass cover in the tree vicinity. In addition, spatial variation of the hydraulic conductivity for six months was compared and interpreted with quantified spatial variation of vegetation density.

170

171 **2. Materials and methods**

172 *2.1 Site description*

Pongamiapinnata tree vicinity with mixed grass cover is located in front of a building called core-4, IITG (IIT Guwahati), as shown in Fig. 1. The *Pongamiapinnata* tree vicinity contains *Cyperus, Poaceae* and *Bauhuniapurpurea* species on a flat ground. In this study, field monitoring was conducted on mixed grass cover in the tree vicinity. Field monitoring is designed to better understand the spatial and temporal variation of vegetation density and hydraulic conductivity.

179

180 *2.2 Soil properties*

Eight disturbed soil samples are collected from eight different locations i.e., four 181 samples from right side of tree stem and the remaining samples from left side of tree stem for 182 determining index properties. In these eight samples, four samples were collected within 2.5 183 m radial distance from tree stem and the remaining samples were collected from the space 184 between 2.5 m and 5 m radial distances from tree stem. It was found that in situ dry densities 185 of the eight samples varied between 1315 kg/m³ and 1387 kg/m³, with an average value of 186 1351 kg/m³. The average in situ dry density was approximately equal to 78.3% of the 187 maximum dry density. The average contents of gravel (particle size $D \ge 2$ mm), sand (0.63) 188 mm $\leq D \leq 2$ mm), silt and clay (D ≤ 0.63 mm) were found to be 0%, 98.6% and 1.4%, 189 respectively. Based on the measured particle size distribution, the soil covered with mixed 190

vegetation in the tree vicinity is classified as poorly graded sand (SP; ASTM, 2011), according to the unified soil classification system. Saturated hydraulic conductivity of the soil is found to be $2.4 \pm 0.9 \times 10^{-4}$ m/sec.

194

195 2.3 Overview of testing site containing mixed grass cover in the tree vicinity

Cyperus, Poaceae and Bauhinia purpurea were selected for the present study based 196 on (i) the wide spread presence in sub-tropical regions (Santos et al., 1997; Cheng et al., 197 2002; Au et al., 1992) and (ii) the ability to tolerate drought, which is suitable for slope 198 199 stabilization (Picard, 1982; Louis, 1990; Ghosh et al., 2003; Awanyoet al., 2011). Pongamiapinnata is selected based on its wide availability in natural slopes and plane 200 grounds in sub-tropical regions (Karmee and Chanda, 2005). It was identified as the resource 201 of agroforestry and landscaping (Scott et al., 2008). Fig.2 shows the overview of tree vicinity 202 with the mixed grass cover. It can be seen that, tree vicinity is categorized into five concentric 203 204 semicircles. This categorization of tree vicinity is aimed to quantify the spatial variability of vegetation density and hydraulic conductivity. Radii of these semicircles are 1 m, 2 m, 3 m, 205 4m and 5 m, respectively. These radii are considered based on visual observation, within 206 207 which vegetation density appears to be less variable. Groundwater table depth at the tree vicinity is 5.6 m. Groundwater depth data was collected from the WRIS India (Water 208 resource information system (WRIS), India); http://www.india-wris.nrsc.gov.in/wris.html). 209 Non-uniform distribution of vegetation density and shredded leaves can be observed over the 210 tree vicinity. 211

212

213 2.4 Instrumentation on the vegetated soil in the tree vicinity

Typical layout showing locations (149 measurements), where vegetation density and hydraulic conductivity were quantified is shown in Fig. 3. The selected area of tree vicinity is

categorized into small grids for quantifying spatial heterogeneity in hydraulic conductivity
and vegetation growth. The selected grid size was determined based on the initial trial
measurements of hydraulic conductivity and vegetation growth. Maximum area of grid size is
0.125 m x 0.125 m.

A commercially available drone (DJI Phantom; Themistocleous et al., 2015) which 220 has a high-resolution camera onboard was used to capture images in the tree vicinity. 221 Resolution of the camera installed underneath the airframe is 12 megapixels. The service 222 ceiling of the aircraft is 6000 m above sea level. Photographs of the drone and its transmitter 223 224 during field monitoring are individually shown in Fig. 4(a) and Fig. 4 (b). Focal length, ISO speed and exposure time were maintained at 35 mm, ISO-640 and 1/8000 sec, respectively. 225 Images were captured from the angle of 90° to the ground at a height of 2 m. To avoid any 226 227 observational errors, ambient light was ensured during image capture operations.

MDI (Decagon Devices, 2013) is used to measure hydraulic conductivity in the mixed 228 grass cover. Measurement of hydraulic conductivity and the overview of the MDI are 229 separately shown in Fig. 5 (a) and 5 (b). The MDI consists of two chambers, i.e., upper and 230 lower chambers, which are filled with water. Suction is controlled in the top chamber which 231 232 is also known as bubble chamber. Lower chamber contains a sintered disk at the bottom, which would not allow water in free air due to its high air entry value. Air entry value is the 233 suction above which air starts to enter the pore of soil. In MDI, the flow through sintered disk 234 235 at the bottom of the lower chamber is controlled by the suction value adjusted in the upper chamber. This suction controlled flow through sintered disk is capable of eliminating the flow 236 through macro pores such as cracks, whose air entry value is smaller than the suction of the 237 MDI. The suction value in the infiltrometer can be adjusted between 0.5 cm and 6 cm, 238 depending on soil type and density (Zhang, 1997a). MDI measures hydraulic conductivity in 239 240 relatively shallow area, which is a major limitation of the MDI. Due to this fact, relatively 241 large number of hydraulic conductivity measurements need to be performed in relatively242 small area for capturing spatial variation.

Axis-symmetric flow was ensured by firmly placing the MDI on the vegetated soil 243 vertically and maintaining good contact between the sintered disk and soil. Accumulated air 244 bubbles in the disk were removed frequently by placing the disk in boiled water. Removal of 245 air bubbles assures accurate measurements of hydraulic conductivity. Hydraulic conductivity 246 measurements were taken in the afternoon to account for the preferential flow in this study. 247 This is because it was found from the study by Noguchi et al. (1997) that the diameter of fine 248 root may decrease and become 40 % of its original diameter during noon, when radiant 249 energy is maximum. During this period, preferential flow through soil-root interface is 250 significant (Aubertin, 1971; Ghestem et al., 2011). 251

252

253 2.5 Field monitoring programme

The field monitoring programme for quantifying spatial and temporal variation of 254 vegetation density and hydraulic conductivity in mixed grass cover in the vicinity of trees 255 was conducted from 1st January, 2016 to 30th, June 2016. The tree vicinity was instrumented 256 for six months at the locations shown in Fig. 3. It is clear that vegetation density and 257 hydraulic conductivity are quite uncertain spatially (Warmink, 2007; Gui et al., 2000; Hazra 258 et al., 2016). To quantify spatial uncertainty, vegetation density was quantified in the areas 259 enclosed within grids (Fig. 3). Whereas, hydraulic conductivity was measured at 149 260 different points (refer to asterisk (*) in Fig. 3) once every month. 261

Atmospheric parameters such as wind speed, net radiation, air temperature, relative humidity and monthly rainfall were monitored by micro-climate monitoring system. Monthly rainfall depths during the monitoring period are shown in Fig. 6. It can be observed that the 265 lowest rainfall depth of 5 mm occurred in the month of February and the highest value of 275 mm occurred in April. Rainfall depths in April, May and June are much higher than those in 266 January, February and March. This clearly shows that the first three months of observation 267 268 (i.e., January, February and March) correspond to the dry period, which implies the relatively lower availability of water content in vegetated soil. The three months period of April, May 269 and June can be referred as the wet period, which implies the relatively higher available water 270 content in vegetated soil. Temperature is found to vary between 9 °C and 36 °C during the 271 monitoring period. 272

The duration (January, 2016 to June, 2016) of the testing was able to capture maximum and minimum values of meteorological parameters (air temperature, rainfall and relative humidity corresponding to region of study; Laskaret al., 2014) as well as vegetation cover growth (vegetation density of approximately 0 m³/m³ to 1 m³/m³). Hence, the selected field monitoring period is reasonable to understand the effects of variation in mixed vegetation cover on hydraulic conductivity.

Images were captured using drones in ambient light, over the entire tree vicinity in 279 three successive days at the end of each month. Vegetation density of each small area as 280 281 shown in Fig. 3 was determined by dividing the surface area of vegetation cover by total surface area considered. Surface area of vegetation cover was determined by means of image 282 analysis using ImageJ (Rasband, 2012; public domain image processing program, which can 283 284 quantify pixel value statistics and density of user-defined selections, i.e., vegetation cover on soil). Captured image was imported into the ImageJ and cropped to only account for the 285 desired portion or size (see Fig. 3). The cropped image was converted into a binary image. 286 Pixel values of vegetation cover in the binary image were then converted into surface area. 287 This shows the area covered by mixed grass in the selected portion. Vegetation density 288 (m^2/m^3) was calculated as the surface area covered by mixed grass in the selected portion 289

divided by the total area of the selected portion. Grid size of the selected portion was considered as 1 m x 1 m for the present study. By definition, vegetation density will vary from $0 \text{ m}^2/\text{m}^3$ to $1 \text{ m}^2/\text{m}^3$, which is consistent with that found in the study by Warmik (2007).

A series of hydraulic conductivity experiments were performed at the designated 293 locations (149 number as indicated with *; Fig. 3) in three successive days at the end of each 294 month. After placing the MDI on vegetated soil, water is allowed to infiltrate at the preset 295 suction. The suction was set at 0.5 cm as adopted in the study by Zhang (1997a). Initial 296 condition is assumed as time zero condition. Water that infiltrates into vegetated soil through 297 298 the disk is measured as a function of time. Cumulative depth of water infiltrating was plotted as a function of time. Three dimensional transient infiltration rate can be approximated using 299 300 equation 1 (Zhang, 1997a, b).

 $I = c_1 t + c_2 \sqrt{t} \tag{1}$

302 Where:

303
$$C_1, C_2 = fitting constants,$$

304 t= time.

The near saturated hydraulic conductivity (k or k_h corresponding to the suction applied on the disk (h)) defined by Zhang (1997a) is given by equation (2)

$$307 \quad k \text{ or } k_h = \frac{c_4}{4} \tag{2}$$

308 where:

309 "A"= Parameter dependent on van Genuchten (vG) SWRC parameters suction applied
310 on disk and radius of disk as represented by equation (3.1 and 3.2).

311
$$A = \frac{11.65(n^{0.1}-1)\exp\left[2.92(n-1.9)\alpha h\right]}{(\alpha r)^{0.91}}$$
; For $n > 1.9$

312 (3.1)

313
$$A = \frac{11.65(n^{0.1}-1)\exp\left[7.5(n-1.9)\alpha h\right]}{(\alpha r)^{0.91}}; \qquad \text{For } n < 1.9$$

314 (3.2)

315 where:

316 n, α = the vG parameters of vegetated soil,

r =the disk radius,

318 h = the suction applied on the disk.

The vG parameters n and α were adopted using the method prescribed by Carsel and Perish (1988). They were obtained with the help of measured soil water retention curve of bare soil. However, it must be noted in general, these parameters may not be the same for bare soil and vegetated soil (Leung et al., 2015b; Gadi et al., 2016). As the main focus of present study is to develop a working knowledge on hydraulic conductivity spatial variation at different locations in the tree vicinity, vG parameters of bare soil (i.e., poorly graded sand; Carsel and Perish, 1988) were adopted.

326

327 **3. Results and discussions**

328 *3.1 Vegetation cover change during monitoring period*

Figures 7 (a)-(f) show the overview of variation in surface area of the selected site during monitoring period. It can be observed that very small area of the selected site is covered with vegetation during the initial stage of monitoring period (Refer to image captured in January, 2016; Fig. 7(a)).Whereas, Fig. 7 (b) (28 February 2016) shows yellow 333 shredded leaves with relatively minor vegetation growth. Shredding of leaves occurred during 334 the month of February, which also marks the transition from a dry to a wet season (refer to Fig. 6). This phenomenon of shredding of leaves was also observed at similar times in the 335 336 field study by Wright (1990). Fig. 7 (c) is the image captured on 31 March 2016, which shows greening and vegetation regrowth during March. Only Cyperus and Poaceae species 337 were found in the tree vicinity till the end of March. Majority of the tree vicinity area is found 338 to be densely covered by the end of April (Fig. 7 (d)). Growth of *Bauhinia purpurea* species 339 also occurred during April. The vegetation species in the tree vicinity were observed to keep 340 341 on growing during May and June, as shown in Fig. 7 (e) and Fig. 7 (f). This indicates that abundant growth of new vegetation species was experienced during wet period, while that 342 was hardly present during dry period. 343

344

345 *3.2 Measured vegetation density*

Fig. 8 (a), (c), (e), (g), (i) and (k) illustrate the spatial variation of vegetation density range in the tree vicinity for six months. Contours were used for illustrating vegetation density. The range from the minimum to maximum values of vegetation density in contour was divided into seven intervals.

Vegetation density is found to vary between 0.001 m^2/m^3 and 1.000 m^2/m^3 . Vegetation growth is found to be highly dissimilar on right and left side portions of tree stem. Vegetation density around tree vicinity is found to fluctuate much more significantly than away from tree stem. At the end of January and March, vegetation density variation with change in radial distance on the left side of tree stem is found to be more significant as compared to that on the right side (see Fig. 8 (a) and (e)). Unlike at the end of other months in dry period, difference in vegetation density ranges between left side and right side of tree stem is low at the end of February. This is due to the presence of shredded leaves at the end
of February (see Fig. 8(c)). This implies that the vegetation growth around tree vicinity is not
axi-symmetric, which is usually assumed in many of numerical studies (Fatahi et al., 2010;
Garg and Ng 2015).

Unlike during dry period, significance of vegetation density variation with change in radial distance is found more on the right side of tree stem than that on the left side at the end of April, May and June (see Fig. 8 (g), (i) and (k)). However, vegetation densities on right and left sides of tree stem are found to be similar in smaller region of annuli during wet period. This shows that, spatial variation of vegetation density is more significant during dry period than wet period.

Vegetation density in the annuli at greater radial distances from tree stem is found to 367 368 be higher as compared to that in the annuli nearer to the tree stem. This is observed during the entire monitoring period except in the month of February during which shredding of leaves 369 occurred. This may be attributed to the presence of tree roots and tree shading at near 370 distance from tree stem. Mixed grass root systems overlap tree roots, because of which roots 371 growth may be slow (Casper and Jackson, 1997). At the end of February, vegetation density 372 373 within around 2 m radial distance from tree stem is observed to be higher than that in between the radial distances of 1.7 m and 4.2 m. This is due to the presence of shredded 374 leaves. Substantial increase (16 % - 498 %) in vegetation density over the entire tree vicinity 375 376 at the end of April is found, as compared to that at the end of other months. However, any vegetation density variation trend is not found with respect to various rainfall depths during 377 the observation period (see Fig. 6 and Fig. 8). This shows that, rainfall depth may not effect 378 spatial variation of vegetation density significantly. Effect of season change on spatial 379 variation of vegetation density is observed to dominate the effect of rainfall depth. 380

382 *3.3 Spatial variation of measured hydraulic conductivity*

Fig. 8 (b), (d), (f), (h), (j) and (l) illustrate the spatial variation of measured hydraulic 383 conductivity range in the tree vicinity for six months. Difference between maximum and 384 minimum measured hydraulic conductivities during six months was divided into seven 385 ranges, which are shown in colour scale. Significance of hydraulic conductivity range 386 variation with change in radial distance can be observed from the number of hydraulic 387 conductivity ranges found in the tree vicinity. Unlike vegetation density, any trend of 388 389 variation is not found in case of hydraulic conductivity with respect to the change in radial distance from tree stem. Fig.8 (b), (d) and (f) show hydraulic conductivity range for spatial 390 variation at the end of January, February and March, respectively. At the end of January, 391 392 February and March, measured hydraulic conductivities are found to be dissimilar on the right and left sides of stem. However, the dissimilarity in measured hydraulic conductivity 393 between the right and left sides of tree stem is relatively lower during wet period. The 394 observation is consistent with that of observed dissimilarity in vegetation density around tree 395 stem. This indicates that during modeling of water flow around tree stem, it is important to 396 397 consider the heterogeneity in it with respect to seasons.

Fig.8 (h), (j) and (l) show the spatial variation of hydraulic conductivity range at the end of April, May and June, respectively. At the end of April, May and June, hydraulic conductivities at similar radial distances on the left and right sides of tree stem are found to be the same. Unlike during dry period, significant variation of hydraulic conductivities with change in radial distance from tree stem was found during wet period.

403

381

404 *3.4 Effect of vegetation density on hydraulic conductivity*

In the right side of tree stem, hydraulic conductivity is found to vary between 1.43×10^{-6} 405 m/sec and 2.86 x 10⁻⁶m/sec over majority area of the region in which vegetation density 406 varies between 0.001 m²/m³ and 0.143 m²/m³at the end of January. However, over a minor 407 region between 1 m and 2m radial distances from tree stem in right side, hydraulic 408 conductivity is found between 0.01 x 10⁻⁶ m/sec to 1.43 x 10⁻⁶ m/sec. In this region, 409 vegetation density is observed to be very low i.e., close to $0.001 \text{ m}^2/\text{m}^3$, which may be the 410 reason for less hydraulic conductivity. Hydraulic conductivity is found to vary between 2.86 411 x 10^{-6} m/sec and 4.28 x 10^{-6} m/sec over the majority of the region in which vegetation density 412 varies between 0.144 m²/m³ and 0.714 m²/m³ at the end of January. 413

Hydraulic conductivity range variation trend with respect to the change in vegetation density at the end of February and March is similar to that at the end of January over majority area of the tree vicinity. Difference of 33% - 99 % occurred between hydraulic conductivities of soil with higher vegetation density and those with lower vegetation density during dry period. This may be due to the dissimilarity of preferential flow through the channels around the roots.

During dry period, for variation of vegetation density range between 0.144 m²/m³ and 420 $0.714 \text{ m}^2/\text{m}^3$, hydraulic conductivity varies from 2.86 x 10^{-6} m/sec to 4.28 x 10^{-6} m/sec . The 421 variation is relatively smaller as compared to that during wet period (400% increase in the 422 month of April). This may be due to the occurrence of relatively low rainfall depths during 423 424 January, February and March. Low rainfall depth indicates less available water content in root zone (Walker and Rowntree, 1977). Suction in vegetated soil increases due to root water 425 uptake by higher vegetation density (Garg et al., 2015a). As the suction in vegetated soil 426 increases, flow through the soil decreases (Leung et al., 2015a). Hence, although higher 427 preferential flow occurs at greater vegetation density, however this effect may be countered 428 429 by the presence of higher suction in dry period. Furthermore, hydraulic conductivity is found to be 49 % - 100 % higher in the region (2 m radial distance from tree vicinity) covered with
shredded leaves than that in other areas of the site without shredded leaves. This may be
attributed to lowering of evapotranspiration induced suction due to the covering of surface
with vegetation.

At the end of April, substantial increase (24 % - 149 %) in hydraulic conductivity can 434 be found over the tree vicinity. This may be due to considerable increase in vegetation 435 density during April. Unlike during dry period, hydraulic conductivity is found to increase by 436 24 % - 66 % with rise in vegetation density between 0.430 m^2/m^3 and 1.000 m^2/m^3 during wet 437 438 period. Higher hydraulic conductivity is observed to be exhibited by soil vegetated with greater vegetation density during wet period. This may be due to higher rainfall depth values 439 occurred during wet period. Higher rainfall depth implies greater available water content 440 441 (Tohariet al., 2007). Suction induced in vegetated soil decreases with the increase in available water content (Garg et al., 2015b). Higher hydraulic conductivities occur at lower suction 442 values (Ho et al., 2007). 443

An increase of 250 % - 400 % in hydraulic conductivity is found at the end of June, as 444 compared to that in January. Results reported by Noordwijk et al.,(1991), Ghestemet 445 446 al.,(2011) and Mitchell et al.,(1995) also showed that increase in hydraulic conductivity by up to 400 % is possible with increase in growth of roots in soil. This (i.e., increased hydraulic 447 conductivity) is revealed to be attributed to preferential flow through the pore space around 448 449 the roots (Nieber and Sidle, 2010). However, effect of spatial variation in vegetation growth was not demonstrated by previous studies. This study shows that hydraulic conductivity may 450 increase or decrease with vegetation growth depending on atmospheric conditions. 451

In previous literature, any variability in hydraulic conductivity and its understanding with respect to grass growth in presence of tree vicinity is rarely understood. This is important for improving water balance estimations in green infrastructures. Results of the

455 present study also expose the longevity of leaves and its effect on hydraulic conductivity, which is a key factor to devise drainage. This study has a great implication on analyzing the 456 performance of green roof systems in urban regions, where there is high tendency of 457 458 occurrence of trees in the vicinity of such systems. Such occurrence of tree vicinities is due to strategic plantation of trees in urban areas, which is adopted broadly for landscape (Smardon, 459 1988; Honjo and Takakura, 1990; Robitu et al., 2006). These hydraulic conductivity results 460 help the numerical modelers to better understand the non-uniformity of vegetation density 461 and hydraulic conductivity to simulate the ground water flow (i.e., ground water recharge 462 463 estimation) accurately.

464

465 **4. Conclusions**

This study explored the interpretation of spatial variation of hydraulic conductivity and vegetation density of mixed grass cover in tree vicinity during drying and wetting periods. Vegetation density is found to increase from as low as $0.001 \text{ m}^2/\text{m}^3$ in the dry period (January) to $1.000 \text{ m}^2/\text{m}^3$ in the wet period (June). Whereas, hydraulic conductivity is found to change from 0.01×10^{-6} m/sec to 9.97×10^{-6} m/sec in the dry and wet periods, respectively.

471 Spatial variation of vegetation density is more significant during dry period as compared to wet period. Vegetation density in the annuli at greater radial distances from tree 472 stem is found to be higher as compared to that in the annuli nearer to the tree stem. This may 473 474 be attributed to competition due to presence of tree roots and tree shading near tree stem. Root growth of mixed grass cover is therefore slowed by this competition (Casper and 475 476 Jackson, 1997). During dry period, with an increase in vegetation density from 0.144 m^2/m^3 to 0.714 m^2/m^3 (4.8 times), hydraulic conductivity was found to increase by 50 % (i.e., 477 from 2.86 x 10⁻⁶ m/sec - 4.28 x 10⁻⁶ m/sec). However, during wetting period, the increase in 478 hydraulic conductivity with respect to change in vegetation density (2.3 times; from 0.43 479

 m^2/m^3 to 1 m^2/m^3) is much higher (i.e., 66%). This may be attributed to relatively high 480 rainfall depth in wet period, which might have caused higher vegetation density and hence 481 preferential flow. Substantial increase (24 % - 149 %) in hydraulic conductivity is found in 482 the tree vicinity at the end of April. This may be due to considerable (16 % - 498 %) increase 483 in vegetation density during April. Hydraulic conductivity in the vegetated soil covered with 484 shredded leaves is found to be 49 % - 100 % higher than that in soil without the presence of 485 shredded leaves. In addition, the presence of growth of new vegetation species during wet 486 period could also contribute to significant rise in hydraulic conductivity in the month of 487 488 April.

The obtained results can be useful to support the design of green infrastructures with similar characteristics to the studied one. Further, long term monitoring with consideration of more number of cycles of seasons, vegetation species and vegetation growth can be useful.

492

493 **References**

- 494 Atwell, B.J., Kriedemann, P.E. and Turnbull, C.G., 1999. *Plants in action: adaptation in*495 *nature, performance in cultivation*. Macmillan Education AU.
- Au, D.W.T., Hodgkiss, I.J. and Vrijmoed, L.L., 1992. Fungi and cellulolytic activity
 associated with decomposition of Bauhinia purpurea leaf litter in a polluted and
 unpolluted Hong Kong waterway. *Canadian Journal of Botany*, *70*(5), pp.1071-1079.
- Aubertin, G.M., 1971. Nature and extent of macropores in forest soils and their influence onsubsurface water movement.

501	Auerswald, K., Wittmer, M.H., Bai, Y., Yang, H., Taube, F., Susenbeth, A. and Schnyder, H.,
502	2012. C4 abundance in an Inner Mongolia grassland system is driven by temperature-
503	moisture interaction, not grazing pressure. Basic and Applied Ecology, 13(1), pp.67-75.

- Auerswald, K., Wittmer, M.H.O.M., Männel, T.T., Bai, Y.F., Schäufele, R. and Schnyder, H.,
 2009. Large regional-scale variation in C3/C4 distribution pattern of Inner Mongolia
 steppe is revealed by grazer wool carbon isotope composition. *Biogeosciences*, 6(5),
 pp.795-805.
- Awanyo, L., Attuah, E.M. and McCarron, M., 2011. Rehabilitation of forest-savannas in
 Ghana: The impacts of land use, shade, and invasive species on tree
 recruitment. *Applied Geography*, *31*(1), pp.181-190.
- Berretta, C., Poë, S. and Stovin, V., 2014, Moisture content behaviour in extensive green
 roofs during dry periods: The influence of vegetation and substrate characteristics,
 Journal of Hydrology, 511: 374-386.
- Bordoloi, S., Yamsani, S.K., Garg, A., Sreedeep, S. and Borah, S., 2015. Study on the
 efficacy of harmful weed species Eicchorniacrassipes for soil reinforcement. *Ecological Engineering*, 85, pp.218-222.
- Bourlière, F., Sarmiento, G., Tothill, J.C., Zech, W.L., Amelung, V., Thomas, W., R Ayarza,
 M.A., Ayarza, M.A., Zech, D.V.S., Renz, W. and Neufeldt, T.E., 1983. *Tropical*
- 519 *savannas* (No. 574.52643 T856). CIAT, Cali (Colombia).
- 520 Carsel, R.F. and Parrish, R.S., 1988. Developing joint probability distributions of soil water
 521 retention characteristics. *Water Resources Research*, 24(5), pp.755-769.
- 522 Casper, B.B. and Jackson, R.B., 1997. Plant competition underground. *Annual review of*523 *ecology and systematics*, 28(1), pp.545-570.

- 524 Chahal, R.S., 1965. Effect to temperature and trapped air on matric suction. *Soil*525 *Science*, 100(4), pp.262-266.
- Cheng, S., Grosse, W., Karrenbrock, F. and Thoennessen, M., 2002. Efficiency of
 constructed wetlands in decontamination of water polluted by heavy metals. *Ecological engineering*, 18(3), pp.317-325.
- 529 Cuisinier, O. and Masrouri, F., 2005. Hydromechanicalbehaviour of a compacted swelling
 530 soil over a wide suction range. *Engineering Geology*, *81*(3), pp.204-212.
- Delage, P., Howat, M.D. and Cui, Y.J., 1998. The relationship between suction and swelling
 properties in a heavily compacted unsaturated clay. *Engineering geology*, *50*(1), pp.3148.
- 534 Devices, D., 2012. Mini disk infiltrometer user's manual, Version 10. *Decagon Devices*,
 535 *Pullman, WA*.
- Dunne, T., Zhang, W. and Aubry, B.F., 1991. Effects of rainfall, vegetation, and
 microtopography on infiltration and runoff. *Water Resources Research*, 27(9), pp.22712285.
- Eltahir, E.A., 1998. A soil moisture–rainfall feedback mechanism: 1. Theory and
 observations. *Water Resources Research*, *34*(4), pp.765-776.
- Fatahi, B., Khabbaz, H. and Indraratna, B., 2010. Bioengineering ground improvement
 considering root water uptake model. *Ecological Engineering*, *36*(2), pp.222-229.
- Fredlund, D.G. and Xing, A., 1994. Equations for the soil-water characteristic
 curve. *Canadian geotechnical journal*, *31*(4), pp.521-532.

- Fredlund, D.G., Xing, A. and Huang, S., 1994. Predicting the permeability function for
 unsaturated soils using the soil-water characteristic curve. *Canadian Geotechnical Journal*, *31*(4), pp.533-546.
- Gadi, V.K., Bordoloi, S., Garg, A., Kobayashi, Y. and Sahoo, L., 2016. Improving and
 correcting unsaturated soil hydraulic properties with plant parameters for agriculture
 and bioengineered slopes. *Rhizosphere*, *1*, pp.58-78.
- Garg, A. and Ng, C.W.W., 2015. Investigation of soil density effect on suction induced due
 to root water uptake by Schefflera heptaphylla. *Journal of Plant Nutrition and Soil Science*, 178(4), pp.586-591.
- Garg, A., Coo, J.L. and Ng, C.W.W., 2015b. Field study on influence of root characteristics
 on soil suction distribution in slopes vegetated with Cynodondactylon and
 Scheffleraheptaphylla. *Earth Surface Processes and Landforms*, 40(12), pp.1631-1643.
- Garg, A., Leung, A.K. and Ng, C.W.W., 2015a. Comparisons of soil suction induced by
 evapotranspiration and transpiration of S. heptaphylla. *Canadian Geotechnical Journal*, 52(12), pp.2149-2155.
- Gee, G.W. and Hillel, D., 1988. Groundwater recharge in arid regions: review and critique
 of estimation methods. *Hydrological Processes*, 2(3), pp.255-266.
- Ghosh, T., Bhandari, G. and Hazra, S., 2003. Application of a 'bio-engineering'technique to
 protect Ghoramara Island (Bay of Bengal) from severe erosion. *Journal of Coastal Conservation*, 9(2), pp.171-178.
- Gish, T.J. and Jury, W.A., 1983. Effect of plant roots and root channels on solute
 transport. *Trans. ASAE*, 26(2), pp.440-444.

- Gui, S., Zhang, R., Turner, J.P. and Xue, X., 2000. Probabilistic slope stability analysis with
 stochastic soil hydraulic conductivity. *Journal of Geotechnical and Geoenvironmental Engineering*, *126*(1), pp.1-9.
- 570 Hazra, B., Gadi, V., Garg, A., Ng, C.W.W. and Das, G.K., 2017. Probabilistic analysis of
- suction in homogeneously vegetated soils. *CATENA*, *149*, pp.394-401.
- 572 Karmee, S.K. and Chadha, A., 2005. Preparation of biodiesel from crude oil of
 573 Pongamiapinnata. *Bioresource technology*, *96*(13), pp.1425-1429.
- Khan, M.A. and Rizvi, Y., 1994. Effect of salinity, temperature, and growth regulators on the
 germination and early seedling growth of Atriplexgriffithii var. stocksii. *Canadian Journal of Botany*, 72(4), pp.475-479.
- 577 Knapp, A.K., Fay, P.A., Blair, J.M., Collins, S.L., Smith, M.D., Carlisle, J.D., Harper, C.W.,
- Danner, B.T., Lett, M.S. and McCarron, J.K., 2002. Rainfall variability, carbon cycling,
 and plant species diversity in a mesic grassland. *Science*, 298(5601), pp.2202-2205.
- Laskar, S.I., Kotal, S.D. and Bhowmik, S., 2014. Analysis of rainfall and temperature trends
 of selected stations over North East India during last century. *MAUSAM*, 65(4), pp.497508.
- Leung, A.K., Garg, A. and Ng, C.W.W., 2015b. Effects of plant roots on soil-water retention
 and induced suction in vegetated soil. *Engineering Geology*, *193*, pp.183-197.
- Leung, A.K., Garg, A., Coo, J.L., Ng, C.W.W. and Hau, B.C.H., 2015a. Effects of the roots
 of Cynodondactylon and Scheffleraheptaphylla on water infiltration rate and soil
 hydraulic conductivity. *Hydrological Processes*, 29(15), pp.3342-3354.
- Louis, I., 1990. A mycorrhizal survey of plant species colonizing coastal reclaimed land in
 Singapore. *Mycologia*, pp.772-778.

590	Mitchell, A.R., Ellsworth, T.R. and Meek, B.D., 1995. Effect of root systems on preferential
591	flow in swelling soil. Communications in Soil Science & Plant Analysis, 26(15-16),
592	pp.2655-2666.

- Newman, B.D., Wilcox, B.P. and Graham, R.C., 2004. Snowmelt-driven macropore flow
 and soil saturation in a semiarid forest. *Hydrological Processes*, *18*(5), pp.1035-1042.
- Ng, C.W.W., Woon, K.X., Leung, A.K. and Chu, L.M., 2013. Experimental investigation of
 induced suction distribution in a grass-covered soil. *Ecological engineering*, *52*, pp.219223.
- 598 Nieber, J.L. and Sidle, R.C., 2010. How do disconnected macropores in sloping soils
 599 facilitate preferential flow?. *Hydrological Processes*, 24(12), pp.1582-1594.
- Nielsen, D.R., Biggar, J.W. and Erh, K.T., 1973. *Spatial variability of field-measured soil- water properties*. University of California, Division of Agricultural Sciences.
- Noguchi, S., Tsuboyama, Y., Sidle, R.C. and Hosoda, I., 1997. Spatially distributed
 morphological characteristics of macropores in forest soils of Hitachi Ohta
 Experimental Watershed, Japan. *Journal of Forest Research*, 2(4), pp.207-215.
- Noordwijk, M.V., Heinen, M. and Hairiah, K., 1991. Old tree channels in acid soils in the
 humid tropics: important for crop root penetration, water infiltration and nitrogen
 management. *Developments in plant and soil sciences*.
- Peacock, J.M., 1976. Temperature and leaf growth in four grass species. *Journal of Applied Ecology*, pp.225-232.
- Penman, H.L., 1948, April. Natural evaporation from open water, bare soil and grass.
 In *Proceedings of the Royal Society of London A: Mathematical, Physical and Engineering Sciences* (Vol. 193, No. 1032, pp. 120-145). The Royal Society.

- Pickard, J., 1982. Catastrophic disturbance and vegetation on little slope, Lord Howe
 Island. *Australian Journal of Ecology*, 7(2), pp.161-170.
- Rasband, W.S., 1997. ImageJ. US National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, MD.
- Santos, B.M., Morales-Payan, J.P., Stall, W.M., Bewick, T.A. and Shilling, D.G., 1997.
- Effects of shading on the growth of nutsedges (Cyperus spp.). *Weed Science*, pp.670-673.
- Scholes, R.J. and Archer, S.R., 1997. Tree-grass interactions in savannas. *Annual review of Ecology and Systematics*, pp.517-544.
- Scholes, R.J. and Walker, B.H., 2004. *An African savanna: synthesis of the Nylsvley study*.
 Cambridge University Press.
- Scott, P.T., Pregelj, L., Chen, N., Hadler, J.S., Djordjevic, M.A. and Gresshoff, P.M., 2008.
 Pongamiapinnata: an untapped resource for the biofuels industry of the future. *Bioenergy Research*, *1*(1), pp.2-11.
- Simon, A. and Collison, A.J., 2002. Quantifying the mechanical and hydrologic effects of
 riparian vegetation on stream bank stability. *Earth Surface Processes and Landforms*, 27(5), pp.527-546.
- Stovin, V., Poë, S., De-Ville, S. and Berretta, C., 2015. The influence of substrate and
 vegetation configuration on green roof hydrological performance. *Ecological Engineering*, 85, pp.159-172.
- Themistocleous, K., Ioannides, M., Agapiou, A. and Hadjimitsis, D.G., 2015, June. The
 methodology of documenting cultural heritage sites using photogrammetry, UAV, and
 3D printing techniques: the case study of Asinou Church in Cyprus. In *Third*

- International Conference on Remote Sensing and Geoinformation of the *Environment* (pp. 953510-953510). International Society for Optics and Photonics.
- Tohari, A., Nishigaki, M. and Komatsu, M., 2007. Laboratory rainfall-induced slope failure
 with moisture content measurement. *Journal of Geotechnical and Geoenvironmental Engineering*, 133(5), pp.575-587.
- Van Noordwijk, M. and Purnomosidhi, P., 1995. Root architecture in relation to tree-soilcrop interactions and shoot pruning in agroforestry. In *Agroforestry: Science, Policy and Practice* (pp. 161-173). Springer Netherlands.
- Walker, B.H. and Noy-Meir, I., 1982. Aspects of the stability and resilience of savanna
 ecosystems. In *Ecology of tropical savannas* (pp. 556-590). Springer Berlin Heidelberg.
- Walker, J. and Rowntree, P.R., 1977. The effect of soil moisture on circulation and rainfall
 in a tropical model. *Quarterly Journal of the Royal Meteorological Society*, *103*(435),
 pp.29-46.
- Warmink, J., 2007. Vegetation Density Measurements using Parallel Photography and
 Terrestrial Laser Scanning (Doctoral dissertation, MSc Thesis, Utrecht University).
- Went, F.W., 1949. Ecology of desert plants. II. The effect of rain and temperature on
 germination and growth. *Ecology*, *30*(1), pp.1-13.
- 652 Whitford, Walter G. *Ecology of desert systems*. Academic Press, 2002.
- Woolhiser, D.A., Smith, R.E. and Giraldez, J.V., 1996. Effects of spatial variability of
 saturated hydraulic conductivity on Hortonian overland flow. *Water Resources Research*, 32(3), pp.671-678.
- Wright, S.J. and Cornejo, F.H., 1990. Seasonal drought and leaf fall in a tropical
 forest. *Ecology*, *71*(3), pp.1165-1175.

- Zhang, R., 1997a. Determination of soil sorptivity and hydraulic conductivity from the disk
 infiltrometer. *Soil Science Society of America Journal*, *61*(4), pp.1024-1030.
- Zhang, R., 1997b. Infiltration models for the disk infiltrometer. *Soil Science Society of America Journal*, *61*(6), pp.1597-1603.



Fig. 1. Map of India showing the location of field testing site (core IV, IITG campus,

668 Guwahati, Assam)

-



680 Fig. 2. Over view of test site (*Pongamia pinnata* tree vicinity with mix vegetation (grass))







Fig. 4. Photogrammetric view of (a) UAV (ARLab, IIT Guwahati) in air during field

- 693 monitoring; and (b) UAV and its controller in the study area



Fig. 5 (a) Measurement of hydraulic conductivity in the tree vicinity; and (b) Over view ofMDI







(**f**)

716

Fig. 7. Vegetation cover at the end of six different months: (a) 31 January 2016 (b) 28

(e)

718 February 2016 (c) 31 March 2016 (d) 30 April 2016 (e) 31 May 2016 (f) 30 June 2016

- 720
- 721
- 722















Fig. 8. Spatial variation of vegetation density and hydraulic conductivity ranges at the end of:

- (a) & (b) January 2016; (c) & (d) February 2016; (e) & (f) March 2016; (g) & (h) April 2016;
- 732 (i) & (j) May 2016; (k) & (l) June 2016