Characterization and genesis of soils derived from sedimentary rocks in the Crocker Formation, Sabah, Malaysia

Wong Mum Keng^{1,2}, Paramananthan Selliah³, Ng Tham Fatt^{1,*}, Meor Hakif Amir Hassan¹

¹ Department of Geology, Faculty of Science, University of Malaya, Malaysia ² FGV Research and Development Sdn. Bhd., Malaysia ³ Param Agricultural Soil Survey (M) Pte. Ltd., Malaysia * Corresponding author email address: ntf@um.edu.my

Abstract: Soil properties in three rain forest types and six different elevations (921, 1173, 1317, 1556, 1727 and 1932 m above sea level) were studied at Mount Alab, Sabah. The chosen study site consisted of soils derived from sedimentary rocks of the Crocker Formation aged from Late Eocene to Early Miocene. Results of this study showed that soils with difference in elevation demonstrated considerable variations in term of morphological and physicochemical properties depending on the nature of the parent materials. At the highest elevation, the soil profile presented with a thin surface organic layer. On the other hand, the soils changed from Inceptisols to Ultisols with decreasing elevation. All soils were moderately acidic with an abundance of sand in these soil profiles due to the dominance of sandstones in their parent materials. Clay fraction of these soil profiles was dominated by clay-sized quartz while illite, kaolinite, interstratified illite-vermiculite, gibbsite and vermiculite were present in low or minor amounts. The chemical properties of the soils were significantly affected by topographical positions. The highest value of total organic carbon and total nitrogen were obtained at the summit, whereas, toeslope had relatively more exchangeable calcium and aluminium. Therefore, soil quality was better at higher topographical positions in this study.

Keywords: Soil physicochemical properties, sedimentary rocks, topographical positions

INTRODUCTION

The genesis and transformation of rocks into soils depends greatly on five soil forming factors, namely climate, organisms, topography, parent materials and time (Jenny, 1941). Malaysia is located near the equator, exhibiting tropical climate with high precipitation and temperature throughout the year. Consequently, soil formation underwent higher intensity of weathering when compared with temperate and arid regions. This was due to stronger and more intensive weathering processes that occurs continuously throughout the year (Verheye, 2008) and hence promoting a rapid leaching of nutrients (Radulovich & Sollins, 1991). Consequently, it is estimated that about 72% of Malaysia is dominated by Ultisols and Oxisols (Shamshuddin & Noordin, 2011). In addition, tropical soils are often characterized by their high acidity, low cation exchange capacity and poor base saturation in which the mineralogy of Oxisols is predominantly in quartz, kaolinite, oxides of iron, manganese and aluminum (Osman, 2013a).

Sedimentary rock formations consisting of sandstone, shale, claystone and limestone are widespread in Sabah, East Malaysia (Gopinathan *et al.*, 1977; Hutchison, 2005). Due to historical reasons, Peninsular Malaysia, Sabah and Sarawak used different criteria to define soil families and soil series. Reconnaissance and semi-detailed soil surveys classify the soils of Sabah state mainly in Acrisols, Fluvisols, Gleysols, Cambisols, Luvisols, Ferralsols, Lithosols, Podzols and Histosols with a limited extent of Rankers, Arenosols and Rendizinas (Gopinathan *et al.*, 1977). Specifically, the Crocker association comprised mostly of Cambisols and Lithosols which is the most extensive association in Sabah that stretched almost continuously from Kudat and Bengkoka Peninsulas in the north-east to the Kalimantan boundary in the south (Acres *et al.*, 1975).

Stauffer (1967) studied the typical flysch-type sequences that are present in the rhythmic sequences of interbedded sandstones and mudstones within the Crocker Formation. The sandstone beds are generally 10-80 centimeters thick, but vary from a few centimeters to several meters and are interbedded with mudstones and shales which are dark gray in colour and mostly 5-50 centimeters thick but vary from 1 centimeters to 2 meters in thickness. Major tectonic activities during Late Oligocene to Middle Miocene deposited the sandstones by turbidity current (Tongkul, 1990). More recently, Azfar et al. (2015) have described new outcrops exposed in the West Crocker Formation and identified eight sedimentary facies which can be divided into three main groups namely sand dominated facies, poorly-sorted unit of mixed sand and mud-dominated facies as well as mud-dominated facies. This interpretation corroborates with earlier finding by Abdullah et al. (2013) who subdivided seven facies types into three facies which were sand-dominated facies, debris flow-dominated facies and mudstone-dominated facies.

This study was carried out in Borneo Island, which resembled other mountainous landscape in Asia particularly in term of climate and land use. Therefore, more information which reflects soil health status under the natural ecosystem is indispensable for agriculture or conservation policy recommendations. The objective of the present study was to examine soil genesis and physicochemical properties of Mount Alab that is situated on a natural protected forest in the Crocker Formation in Sabah, Malaysia.

MATERIALS AND METHODS Site description and field study

Mount Alab (1964 m a.s.l.) is situated within the Crocker Range Park (CRP) that covered an area of 139,919 hectares (Suleiman *et al.*, 2002). It is considered to be the

largest terrestrial park in Sabah (Suleiman *et al.*, 2002). The present-day climate of that region is humid tropical type with a mean annual temperature of 17.9°C and a mean annual precipitation of 4,257 mm (unpublished CRP station records, 2008–2014). Relative humidity is estimated at 91 % with only 1°C difference between dry bulb and wet bulb temperatures.

The six described soil pedons (Paramananthan, 2010a; Paramananthan, 2010b; Soil survey staff, 2014; IUSS Working Group WRB, 2015) were sampled along the topographic sequence with approximately 200 m differences in altitude from the summit to the toeslope of Mount Alab (Figure 1). Such a landscape is well suited to an analysis of local spatial changes in soil properties and vegetation (upper montane forest, lower montane forest and dipterocarp forest). Location of soil pedons were assisted by the 1:125,000 scale reconnaissance scale soil maps, geological





CHARACTERIZATION AND GENESIS OF SOILS DERIVED FROM SEDIMENTARY ROCKS IN THE CROCKER FORMATION, SABAH

and vegetation maps. Pedon 1 to 5 (P1 - P5) were located within the protected virgin forest class VI while pedon 6 (P6) was located at a sub-rural settlement where the human impact on the vegetation were minimal.

Laboratory and statistical analysis

Soil samples were air-dried and gently crushed and then sieved to pass through a 2 mm sieve. Soil particle size distribution was determined by the pipette method (Pansu & Gautheyrou, 2006). Soil pH was measured in a suspension of soil:water in 1:2.5 ratio using pH meter (Cyberscan model 1500). Total organic carbon was analysed using the potassium dichromate oxidation method (Walkley & Black, 1934). Total nitrogen (TN) was determined by indophenol blue colorimetric method after digestion with sulfuric acid (Bremner 1982). Available phosphorus was quantified following the Bray-2 method (Kuo, 1996). Total phosphorus was determined through extraction by sulfuric acid:perchloric acid in 1:1 ratio followed by colorimetric measurement using molybdenum blue method (Murphy & Riley, 1962). Exchangeable base cations (Ca, Mg and K) were measured by the atomic absorption spectrophotometry (Perkin Elmer, AAnalyst 100). Exchangeable aluminium was determined by aluminon colorimetric method (Barnhisel & Bertsch, 1982). The soil cation exchange capacity (CEC) was determined by leaching the soil with 1 M ammonium acetate (pH 7) (Anonymous, 1980). Clay minerals of soil were determined by conducting powder X-ray diffraction by using PANalytical Empyrean X-ray Diffractometer. Sample preparation and identification of clay minerals following the procedures by U.S. Geological Survey (Poppe *et al.*, 2002) with the aid of the software PANalytical Highscore version 3.

Data from the soil samples were analyzed using SPSS software, version 20 (SPSS Incorporate, 2011). Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was utilized to determine significant differences between soil horizons and Tukey HSD test with $\alpha = 0.05$ was used for mean comparison between groups.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION Soil morphology and profile description

Of the six soil pedons (P1-P6) located along the toposequence on Mount Alab, one soil pedon (P1) is located at an elevation of 1932 m on the upper montane mossy forest (Table 1). Three soil pedons P2, P3 and P4 are located at elevations of 1727 m, 1556 m and 1317 m respectively.

Figure 1: Vegetation and soil climatic zones in Malaysia (Sources: Burgess, 1969¹; Paramananthan, 1977⁴; Ashton, 1995²; Majit *et al.*, 2014³).

			Vegetat	ion Zones		So	pil ⁴
Location of	Elevation (m)	Peninsula	r Malaysia ¹	Sabah/S	arawak ^{2,3}	Climatic zones	Soil moisture
Pedons (m)		Formation Type	Floristic Zones	Vegetation Types	Floristic Zones	Soil Temperature Regime	Regime
P1 (1932)	2000	Upper Montane	Montane Ericaceous Forest	Upper Montane (Mossy Forest)	Montane Elfin Woodland	Isomesic	
P2 (1727)	1800		Oak-Laurel Forest	Lower Montane Forest	Oak-Laurel Forest		
P3 (1556)	1600	-		-			Perudic
P4 (1317)	1400	Lower Montane	Upper			Isothermic	
		-	Dipterocarp Forest	Upper	Mixed		
P5 (1173)	1200			Forest	Forest		
P6 (921)	1000	-					
	800		Hill Dipterocarp	Hill Dipterocarp			
	600		Forest	Forest			
	400]			-	Isohyperthermic	Udic
	200	Lowland	Lowland Dipterocarp Forest	Lowland Dipterocarp Forest		isonypermerine	
	0						

These three soil pedons are located on the lower montane forest. Pedons P5 and P6 are located on the mix diterocarp forest at elevations of 1173 m and 921 m. The soil depth changed from shallow (<50 cm) at the summit to moderately deep (50-100 cm) at the upper slopes, and eventually to deep (>100 cm) at the lower slopes (Table 2). The depth of soils was mainly due to sandstone fragments or parent materials forming at the BC to C of soil horizons. Majority

of pedons surface layers exhibited dark brown colours due to the presence of litter and humus layers at the surface–as reflected by the higher total organic carbon contents at the surface due to decomposition of the surface litter (Figure 2). Likewise, the subsurface soil horizons colours varied from brownish yellow to reddish yellow or reddish brown depending on the presence of intermediate tuffs or red ironrich shales. The presence of moss organic soil material in

Horizon	Depth	Color	Texture ^a	Structure ^b	Consistence	Other properties
	(cm)	(dry)	(field)			
Pedon P1						
Om	0-10	10YR2/1	С	We, Fi, Sa	Vfr	Black moss organic soil material existed at soil
		10YR3/2				surface; many fine and medium roots at the
Bw	10-45	10YR6/6	CL-FSCL	We, Fm, Sa	Sfr	surface; rock fragments presented in BC (R)
BC(R)	45-120	10YR6/8	CL-FSCL		Sfi	horizon.
Pedon P2						
Ah	0-5	10YR3/1	SCL	We, Fi, Sa	Vfr	Many fine and few coarse roots up to 40 cm depth;
Bw_1	5-40	5YR4/4	SCL	We, Mc, Sa	Fr	rock fragment layer presented at 80-130 cm depth.
Bw ₂	40-80	5YR5/4	SCL	We, Mc, Sa	Sfi	
C(R)	80-130	5YR3/3				
Pedon P3						
Ah	0-5	10YR3/2	CL	We, Fi, Sa	Fr	Many fine and medium and a few coarse roots up
Bw	5-70	10YR6/8	SCL	Fm, Sa	Fr	to 60 cm depth; weathered rock mottles presented
C(R)	70-150	10YR5/4	SL	Fm, Sa	Fi	at 70-150 cm depth.
		5YR5/4				
		2.5YR6/3				
Pedon P4						
Ah	0-5	10YR4/4	CL	We, Fi, Sa	Vfr	Common fine and medium as well as few coarse
Bt ₁	5-80	5YR5/6	FSCL	We, Fm, Sa	Fr	roots at the surface.
Bt ₂	80-130	7.5YR6/8	FSCL	We, Fm, Sa	Sfi	
Pedon P5						
Ah	0-15	10YR4/4	SCL	We, Fm, Sa	Vfr	Many fine and medium roots up to 45 cm; thin patchy
Bt ₁	15-45	10YR5/6	FSCL	We, Fm, Sa	Vfr	clay skins; partly weathered pinkish gray sandstone
Bt ₂	45-110	7.5YR5/8	FSCL	Mo, Me, Sa	Sfi	presented on 110 cm and below.
C(R)	110-140	2.5YR7/2				
Pedon P6						
Ар	0-15	10YR4/3	CL	Wm, Me, Sa	Fr	Few fine roots and ants nest within 15 cm depth;
Bt ₁	15-38	7.5YR6/8	FSC-C	Mo, Mc, Sa	Sfi	common clay skins presented on 15-110 cm depth.
Bt ₂	38-110	5 YR6/8	FSC-C	St, Mc, Sa	Vfi	
R	110-130	2.5YR5/8				

Table 2: Morphological and physical characteristics of the soils of the Mount Alab.

^aTexture: SL = sandy loam; C = clay; CL = clay loam; SCL = sandy clay laom; FSC = Fine sandy clay; FSCL = Fine sandy clay loam ^b Structure: We = weak; Mo = moderate; St = strong; Wm = weak to moderate; Fi = fine; Me = medium; Fm = fine to medium; Mc = medium to coarse; Sa = subangular block

^c Consistence: Vfi = very firm; Fi = firm; Sfi = slightly firm; Vfr = very friable; Fr = friable; Sfr = slightly friable



Figure 2: Soil pedons in this study: (a) P1-Gunung Alab (shallow/organic phase) series; (b) P2-Crocker (moderately deep/reddish brown) series; (c) P3-Crocker (moderately deep) series; (d) P4-Kiau (deep/red) series; (e) P5-Kiau (deep) series; (f) P6-Mujan series.

pedon P1 near the summit was due to lower temperature that resulted in slower decomposition (Marian *et al.*, 2017).

The names of the soil series (Paramananthan, 2010b) for pedons P1-6 and the approximate classifications in the Keys to the Soil Taxonomy – 12th Edition (Soil Survey Staff, 2014), World Reference Base for Soil Resources 2015 (IUSS Working Group WRB, 2015) and the Malaysian Soil Taxonomy-Revised Second Edition (Paramananthan, 2010a) provided in Table 3. The clay mineralogy of the six pedons is presented in Table 4. As expected, clay-sized quartz, kaolinite and illite dominate the clay fraction. Pedon 1 and 4 have low amounts of gibbsite while illite-vermiculite and vermiculite are present in pedon 1, 3, 4 and 5. These distribution patterns could be explained by the interbedded parent materials which comprise of sandstone and shale that were found in the study site.

Soil chemical properties

The acidity of the soils ranging from strongly to moderately acidic with a pH range of 3.7–5.3, which is common for tropical soils (Table 5). The highest acidity of 3.7 was located in the mossy organic soil layer (Om) of pedon P1. One possible explanation was vegetation was known to play an important role in soil acidification. Changes in vegetation from upper montane forest to lower montane forest and finally to dipterocarp forest, triggered the effect of different tree species on soil pH where the most significant changes appeared in the few centimeters of the topsoil (Osman, 2013b).

The CEC soil values extending from low to very low, mainly due to high proportion of sand fraction. However, calculated CEC clay values were moderate (16-24 cmol_ckg⁻¹)

Pedon no.	Position	Elevation	Vegetation	Soil series	Key to Soil	World Reference	Malaysian Soil
		(m)	type	(Paramanathan,	Taxonomy	Base	Taxonomy- Revised
				2010b)	12 th Edition	(IUSS Working	Second Edition
					(Soil Survey	Group WRB, 2015)	(Paramanathan,
					Staff, 2014)		2010a)
P1	Summit	1932	Upper	Gunung Alab	Humic	Lithic Acrisols	Humic, lithic,
			montane	(shallow/	Hapludepts	(Dystric, clayic)	fine clayey, argillic,
			forest	organic			isomesic, red-yellow,
				phase)			Hapludepts
P2	Shoulder	1727	Lower	Crocker	Rhodic	Lithic Rhodic	Lithic, fine loamy,
			montane	(moderately	Hapludepts	Cambisol	siliceous,
			forest	deep/ reddish		(Dystric)	isothermic, red-yellow,
				brown)			Rhodic Hapludepts
P3	Backslope	1556	Lower	Crocker	Туріс	Lithic	Lithic, fine loamy,
			montane	(moderately	Hapludepts	Cambisol	siliceous, isothermic,
			forest	deep)		(Dystric)	red- yellow,
							Typic Hapludepts
P4	Backslope	1317	Lower	Kiau	Rhodic	Rhodic	Fine loamy, siliceous,
			montane	(deep/red)	Paleudult	Nitosols	isothermic, red,
			forest				Rhodic Paleudult
P5	Backslope	1173	Mix	Kiau (deep)	Туріс	Dystric	Fine loamy, siliceous,
			dipterocarp		Hapludult	Acrisols	isothermic, red-yellow,
			forest				Typic Hapludult
P6	Toeslope	921	Mix	Mujan	Туріс	Dystric Nitosols	Fine clayey, mixed,
			dipterocarp		Paleudult		isothermic, red-yellow,
			forest				Typic Paleudult

Table 3: Soil classification of the Mount Alab.

to high (>24 cmol kg⁻¹) for all the pedons. These high calculated CEC clay values were partly attributed to the loamy textures of the subsoils. The sandy clay loam textures and high porosity of these soils coupled with the high intensive rainfall results in intensive weathering, causing the soils to have low CEC and base saturation (Binkley & Fisher, 2013). Besides that, these moderate values were also dependent on the nature and the quantity of silicate clays, organic matter content and pH of the soils (Bache, 1976).

The soil organic carbon of the surface horizons in this study showed a clear decreasing trend with decreasing elevation and vegetation type. Total organic carbon was 13.38 % (P1) at summit with mossy organic soil materials. It was then reduced to 11.22 % (P2); 11.60 % (P3); 5.16 % (P4); 3.89 % (P5) and finally 2.01 % (P6) at the toeslope. There was a distinct correlation of total organic carbon content along the slopes on various topographical positions. Decrease in elevation leads to increase of temperature and therefore increased breakdown of surface litter and leaching. This clearly indicates that the total organic carbon in the surface layer is strongly dependent on the elevation and the vegetation types.

Total nitrogen in soil was low. Furthermore, it had a decreasing trend with depth and altitude-identical trend as total organic carbon. Total nitrogen of surface soil decreased from 0.70 % (P1) at the summit to 0.64 % (P2), 0.68 % (P3), 0.29 % (P4), 0.24 % (P5) and 0.16 % (P6) along the topographical positions. This trend was consistent with the trend in other tropical mountains (Kitayama & Aiba, 2002; Weintraub *et al.*, 2015). However, total nitrogen decreased sharply in all soil profiles from the surface to subsurface in agreement with Lee *et al.* (2015) and Schrumpf *et al.* (2014). C/N ratio of the topsoils decreased from 18.8 to 12.7 from the summit to the toeslope. Forest litter is known to have a high C/N ratio which decreases with an increase in its decomposition (Osman, 2013a).

The available phosphorus decreased with decreasing topographical positions except for P6. Likewise, total phosphorus values show a reducing but irregular trend with elevation. Furthermore, total and available phosphorus recorded in this study were in line with the results obtained by Kitayama & Aiba (2002) that revealed the differences of phosphorus were more prominent at higher elevation

Horizon	Quartz	Kaolinite	Illite	Gibbsite	Interstratified Illite-	Vermiculite
					Vermiculite	
Profile P1						
Om	++	±	-	+	+	-
Bw	+	±	-	+	-	+
BC(R)	+	+	+	-	-	-
Profile P2						
Ah	++	±	-	-	++	-
Bw	++	+	++	-	-	-
BC(R)	++	+	++	-	-	-
Profile P3						
Ah	++	±	+	-	-	±
Bt ₁	++	±	-	-	-	+
Bt ₂	+	±	++	-	-	-
Profile P4						
Ah	+	±	-	+	±	-
Bt ₁	+	±	-	+	-	+
Bt ₂	+	±	-	+	-	+
Profile P5						
Ah	++	+	+	-	+	-
Bt ₁	++	+	+	-	+	-
Bt ₂	++	+	+	-	+	-
Profile P6						
Ah	++	++	++	-	-	-
Bt ₁	++	++	++	-	-	-
Bt ₂	++	++	++	-	-	-

Table 4: Clay fraction composition for soil horizon from the soil profiles.

* Note: - = absent; ± = present in trace amount; + = present in low/minor amount; ++ = present in moderate amount

(2,700 m and 3,100 m) as compared with lower elevation (700 m and 1,700 m).

Among the exchangeable cations (Ca, Mg and K), both Ca and Mg appeared to be abundance in the soil. In addition, these exchangeable cations of middle elevations were lower than either higher or lower elevations. Therefore, no trend was observed for these exchangeable cations. However, exchangeable Al increased with soil depth and also increased along with decreasing topographical positions. This may explained by the destruction of clays by microorganisms led to the released of chelating organic acids (e.g. citric acid) which enhanced the leaching of Al and Fe from upper soil horizon before accumulating in the subsoils (Fujii *et al.*, 2018).

CONCLUSION

Tropical montane forest soils have a distinctive morphological and physicochemical characteristics when compared with lowland tropical rain forest and agricultural soils. At higher elevations with lower temperature, lower light availability and higher precipitation encouraged soil formations to accumulate soil organic carbon on surface horizons. Low-level disturbance such as soil movement on steep slopes did not adequately affect the physicochemistry of soils at the lower topographical positions (e.g. shoulder and backslope) as compared to anthropogenic disturbance at lowest topographical position (e.g. toeslope). Therefore, conservation of these soils should be prioritized to preserve biodiversity and carbon stock, rather than converting these high conservation value land for agricultural activities that maybe less appropriate due to steep slopes.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We gratefully acknowledge the laboratory of the University of Malaya for analytical support. We appreciate the board of trustees of Sabah Parks for their permission and assistance in conducting the field survey. This research was funded by FGV Research and Development Pte. Ltd. through the research project fund (FR-014-016-1512). Finally, we value the constructive comments of two anonymous

Table 5: Ch	emical pro	operties of	of the soils	; of the N	/ount Ala	b.								
Horizon	Depth	Ηd	00	ΤN	C:N	Pavai	TP	ExCa	ExMg	ExK	ExAl	CEC soil	CEC clay	BS
	(cm)	H_2O	(%)	(%)	ratio	mg kg ⁻¹	mg kg ⁻¹	cmol _c kg ⁻¹	cmol	cmol	cmol	$\mathrm{cmol}_{\mathrm{c}}\mathrm{kg}^{\mathrm{-1}}$	$\mathrm{cmol}_{\mathrm{c}}\mathrm{kg}^{-1}$	(%)
									kg-1	kg-1	kg^{-1}			
Profile P1														
Om	0-10	3.7 a	13.38 a	0.70 a	18.8 a	29.33 a	315.33 a	2.07 ab	1.17 a	0.36 a	0.28 a	9.94 ab	25.9 a	35.9 a
Bw	10-45	4.3 ab	1.44 b	0.10 b	14.0 b	2.00 b	170.33 a	1.85 b	0.97 a	0.21 a	1.00 b	8.01 a	30.2 a	40.3 a
BC(R)	45-120	4.9 b	0.42 b	0.06 b	7.4 c	1.00 b	294.33 a	2.74 a	1.34 a	0.22 a	1.32 c	10.62 b	49.1 a	41.0 a
Profile P2														
Ah	0-5	4.3 a	11.22 a	0.64 a	17.3 a	64.33 a	376.33 a	2.05 a	1.78 a	0.29 a	0.25 a	5.81 a	18.6 a	75.4 a
Bw	5-40	4.5 a	1.16 a	0.10 a	12.4 a	3.00 b	169.00 a	1.79 a	2.07 a	0.34 a	0.77 b	12.19a	47.0 a	38.6 a
Bw_2	40-80	4.8 a	0.35 a	0.09 a	7.2 a	1.00 в	183.67 a	1.67 a	1.99 a	0.24 a	0.81 b	8.37 a	34.0 a	60.0 a
Profile P3														
Ah	0-5	4.1 a	11.60 a	0.68 a	16.5 a	51.00 a	542.33 a	2.42 a	1.65 a	0.34 a	0.43 a	8.21 a	22.5 a	57.6 a
Bw	5-70	4.8 b	1.52 a	0.12 a	12.6 a	2.00 a	197.67 a	1.76 a	2.39 a	0.13 b	1.13 b	5.38 a	24.6 a	80.8 a
C(R)	70-150	4.9 b	0.91 a	0.10 a	9.9 a	1.00 a	242.00 a	2.00 a	2.07 a	0.22 ab	1.28 b	8.43 a	51.0 a	54.5 a
Profile P4														
Ah	0-5	4.4 a	5.16 a	0.29 a	17.7 a	4.00 a	180.00 a	1.81 a	0.47 a	0.28 a	0.55 a	4.76 a	13.3 a	54.8 a
Bt	5-80	5.3 b	1.28 b	0.08 b	15.1 a	1.00 в	146.33 a	0.92 b	0.11 a	0.15 b	0.94 b	3.83 a	22.7 a	30.7 b
Bt_2	80-130	5.1 b	0.65 b	0.04 b	14.7 a	1.33 b	124.67 a	1.03 b	0.77 a	0.14 b	1.02 b	4.94 a	18.8 a	37.7 b
Profile P5														
Ah	0-15	4.4 a	3.89 a	0.24 a	16.0 a	9.33 a	164.33 a	2.17 a	0.89 a	0.36 a	0.75 a	7.71 a	22.1 a	45.9 a
Bt	15-45	4.6 a	1.32 b	0.10 b	12.6 ab	1.67 b	119.00 b	1.46 a	1.34 a	0.30 Ь	0.92 ab	5.72 a	24.2 a	54.3 a
Bt_2	45-110	4.7 a	0.39 b	0.04 b	8.7 b	1.00 b	90.67 c	1.73 a	1.41 a	0.21 c	1.11 b	7.69 a	29.6 a	44.7 a
Profile P6														
Ap	0-15	4.9 a	2.01 a	0.16 a	12.7 a	58.67a	290.33 a	2.32 a	2.04 a	0.28 a	0.83 a	6.53 a	20.8 a	71.5 a
Bt_1	15-38	4.5 a	0.56 b	0.06 b	9.4 ab	2.33 a	118.00 a	1.58 ab	2.16 a	0.22 a	1.01 b	7.49 a	18.4 a	53.5 ab
Bt_2	38-110	4.8 a	0.35 b	0.05 b	7.6 b	1.33 a	113.67 a	1.31 b	2.15 a	0.19 a	1.03 b	8.31 a	17.9 a	44.5 b
Mean with th	ne same let	ter within	n a row are	notsign	ificantly d	ifferent at p	0.05.							

CHARACTERIZATION AND GENESIS OF SOILS DERIVED FROM SEDIMENTARY ROCKS IN THE CROCKER FORMATION, SABAH

reviewers as they significantly improved the quality of the final manuscript.

REFERENCES

- Abdullah, A.Z., Johnson, H.D., Jackson, C.A.-L. & Tongkul, F., 2013. Sedimentary facies analysis and depositional model of the Paleogene West Crocker Submarine Fan System, NW Borneo. Journal of Asian Earth Sciences, 76, 283–300.
- Acres, B.D., Bower, R.P., Burrough, P.A., Folland, C.J., Kalsi, M.S., Thomas, P. & Wright, P.S., 1975. The soil of Sabah, volume 1, classification and description. Land Resource Division, Ministry of Overseas Development, Tolworth Tower, Surbiton, Surrey, England. 135 p.
- Anonymous, 1980. Recommended methods for soil chemical analysis, Part I to V, MS 679. Malaysia Standard, Malaysia.
- Ashton, P.S., 1995. Biogeography and ecology. In: Soepadmo, E. and K.M. Wong (Eds.), Tree Flora of Sabah and Sarawak, 1st ed. Sabah Forestry Department, Forest Research Institute and Sarawak Forestry Department, Malaysia, XLIII–LI.
- Azfar, M., Abdul Hadi, R. & Mohd. Suhaili, I., 2015. Sedimentary facies of the West Crocker Formation North Kota Kinabalu-Tuaran area, Sabah, Malaysia. Journal of Physics: Conference Series 660, 012004.
- Bache, B.W., 1976. The measurement of cation exchange capacity of soils. Journal of the Food and Agriculture, 27, 273–280. https://doi.org/10.1002/jsfa.2740270313.
- Barnhisel, R.I. & Bertsch, P.M., 1982. Aluminum. In: Page, A.L., R.H. Miller and D.B. Keeney (Eds.), Methods of Soil Analysis. American Society of Agronomy, Madison, USA, 275-300.
- Binkley, D. & Fisher, R.F., 2013. Ecology and management of forest soils. John Wiley & Sons, United Kingdom, 291–304.
- Bremner, J.M., 1982. Total nitrogen. In: Page, A.L., R.H. Miller and D.B. Keeney (Eds.), Methods of Soil Analysis. American Society of Agronomy, Madison, USA, 1149–1178.
- Burgess, P.F., 1969. Ecological factors in hill and mountain forests of the states of Malaya. Malayan Nature Journal, 22, 119–128.
- Fujii, K., Shibata, M., Kitajima, K., Ichie, T., Kitayama, K. & Turner, B.L., 2018. Plant-soil interactions maintain biodiversity and functions of tropical forest ecosystems. Ecological Research, 33(1), 149–160. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11284-017-1511-y.
- Gopinathan, B., Paramanathan, S., Noordin, D., Lim, C.P., Kalsi, M.S., Eswaran, H., Pushparajah, E. & Chan, H.Y., 1977. Characteristic of some soils in Sabah and Sarawak. In: Conferences on Classification and Management of Tropical soil. The Malaysian Society of Soil Science, Kuala Lumpur, 1–13.
- Hutchison, C.S., 2005. Geology of North West Borneo: Sarawak, Brunei and Sabah. Elsevier, Amsterdam, 265–276.
- IUSS Working Group WRB, 2015. World Reference Base for Soil Resources 2014, update 2015. World Soil Resources Report No. 106, FAO, Rome, Italy. 192 p.
- Jenny, H., 1941. Factors of Soil Formation: A System of Quantitative Pedology. McGraw-Hill Book Company Inc., New York.
- Kitayama, K. & Aiba, S.-I., 2002. Ecosystem structure and productivity of tropical rain forests along altitudinal gradients with contrasting soil phosphorus pools on Mount Kinabalu, Borneo. Journal of Ecology, 90, 37–51. https://doi.org/10.1046/ j.0022-0477.2001.00634.x.
- Kuo, S., 1996. Phosphorus. In: Sparks, D.L., A.L. Page, P.A. Helmke, R.H. Loeppert, P.N. Soltanpour, M.A. Tabatabai, C.T. Johnston, and M.E. Sumner (Eds.), Methods of Soil Analysis. Part 3-Chemical Methods. American Society of Agronomy,

Madison, USA, 869-919.

- Lee, K.L., Ong, K.H., King, P.J.H., Chubo, J.K. & Su, D.S.A., 2015. Stand productivity, carbon content, and soil nutrients in different stand ages of *Acacia mangium* in Sarawak, Malaysia. Turkish Journal of Agriculture and Forestry, 39, 154–161. https://doi. org/10.3906/tar-1404-20.
- Majit, H.F., Lamb, A., Miadin, R. & Suleiman, M., 2014. The wild orchids of Crocker Range National Park, Sabah, Malaysia. Malayan Nature Journal, 66(4), 440–462.
- Marian F., Sandmann, D., Krashevska, V., Maraun, M. & Scheu, S., 2017. Leaf and root litter decomposition is discontinued at high altitude tropical montane rainforests contributing to carbon sequestration. Ecology and Evolution, 7, 6432–6443. https://doi.org/10.1002/ece3.3189.
- Murphy J. & Riley J.P., 1962. A modified single solution method for the determination of phosphate in natural waters. Analytica Chimica Acta, 27, 31–36. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0003-2670(00)88444-5.
- Osman, K.T., 2013a. Forest soil properties and management. Springer International Publishing, Switzerland. 217 p.
- Osman, K.T., 2013b. Soils: Principles, properties and management. Springer International Publishing, Switzerland. 261 p.
- Pansu, M. & Gautheyrou, J., 2006. Handbook of soil analysis: mineralogy, organic and inorganic methods. Springer, The Netherlands, 15–686.
- Paramananthan, S., 1977. Soil genesis on igneous and metamorphic rocks in Malaysia. Ph.D. thesis, Ghent University, Belgium.
- Paramananthan, S., 2010a. Keys to the identification of Malaysian soils using parent materials. Param Agricultural Soil Surveys (M) Sdn. Bhd., Petaling Jaya, Selangor, Malaysia. 15 p.
- Paramananthan, S., 2010b. Malaysian soil taxonomy revised second edition. Param Agricultural Soil Surveys (M) Sdn. Bhd., Petaling Jaya, Selangor, Malaysia. 236 p.
- Poppe, L.J., Paskevich, V.F., Hathaway, J.C. & Blackwood, D.S., 2002. U.S. Geological survey open-file report 01-041. A laboratory manual for X-ray powder diffraction. Geological Survey, Massachusetts, USA. 88 p.
- Radulovich, R. & Sollins, P., 1991. Nitrogen and phosphorus leaching in zero-tension drainage from a humid tropical soil. Biotropica, 23(1), 84–87. https://doi.org/10.2307/2388691.
- Schrumpf, M., Kaiser, K. & Schulze, E.,-D., 2014. Soil organic carbon and total nitrogen gains in an old growth deciduous forest in Germany. PLoS ONE, 9(2), e89364. https://doi. org/10.1371/journal.pone.0089364.
- Shamshuddin, J. & Noordin, W.D., 2011. Classification and management of highly weathered soils in Malaysia for production of plantation crops. In: Gungor, B.E.O. (Ed.), Principles, Application and Assessment in Soil Science. InTech, 75–86.
- Soil Survey Staff, 2014. Keys to Soil Taxonomy. 12th ed. Natural Resources and Conservation Service, USDA, Washington D.C. 359 p.
- SPSS Incorporate, 2011. IBM SPSS Statistics 20 core system user's guide. SPSS Incorporate, Chicago, Illinois, USA.
- Stauffer, P.H., 1967. Studies in the Crocker Formation, Sabah. Geological Survey Borneo Region Bulletin, 8, 1–13.
- Suleiman, M., Ishida, H., Said, I.M., Sugawara, A. & Repin, R., 2002. An Introduction to the Crocker Range Park Permanent Research Plot Project. Institute for Tropical Biology and Conservation, Kota Kinabalu, 1–7.
- Tongkul, F., 1990. Structural style and tectonics of western and

northern Sabah. Bulletin of the Geological Society of Malaysia, 27, 227–240.

- Verheye, W., 2008. Soils of the humid & sub-humid tropics. In: Verheye, W. (Eds.), Encyclopedia of Land Use, and Cover and Soil Sciences, Part 2. Eolss Publishers, Paris, 121–146.
- Walkley, A. & Black, I.A., 1934. An examination of the Degtjareff method for determining soil organic matter, and a proposed

modification of the chromic acid titration method. Soil Science, 37, 29–38.

Weintraub, S.R., Taylor, P.G., Porder, S., Cleveland, C.C., Asner, G.P. & Townsend, A.R., 2015. Topographic controls on soil nitrogen availability in a lowland tropical forest. Ecological Society of America, 96(6), 1561–1574. https://doi.org/10.1890/14-0834.1.

Manuscript received 20 June 2019 Revised manuscript received 26 August 2019 Manuscript accepted 27 August 2019