



1 **Sensitivity analysis of point and parametric pedotransfer functions for**
 2 **estimating soil water retention**

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13

 14 **Abstract**

15 Improving the accuracy of pedotransfer functions (PTFs) requires studying how the uncertainty in
 16 prediction can be apportioned to different sources of uncertainty in inputs. In this study, the question
 17 is, which variable input is the principal one or the better complimentary predictor of water retention,
 18 and at which water potential? Two approaches were adopted to generate PTF—multiple linear
 19 regressions (MLR) for point PTF and the multiple non-linear regressions (MNLR) for parametric PTFs.
 20 Reliability tests show that the point PTF provides better estimates than the parametric model (RMSE:
 21 0.0414; 0.0444 and 0.0613; 0.0605 at -33 kPa and -1500 kPa, respectively). The local parametric
 22 PTFs provided better estimates than Rosetta PTFs at -33 kPa. However, no significant difference in
 23 accuracy was found between the parametric PTFs and Rosetta-H2 at -1500 kPa with RMSE values
 24 (0.0605 cm³ cm⁻³ and 0.0636 cm³ cm⁻³). The results of the global sensitivity analyses show that the
 25 mathematical formalism of PTF and its input variables react differently in terms of point pressure and
 26 texture. The point and parametric PTFs are sensitive primarily to the sand fraction in fine and medium
 27 textural classes. A favourable impact of bulk density and clay content is recorded with accuracy in the
 28 estimation of PTFs at -33 kPa in the medium class.

29 **Keywords:** soil water retention, multiple regressions, pedotransfer function, sensitivity

30
 31 **I. Introduction**

32
 33 The predictive information on the spatial distribution of soil water and its availability for plants will
 34 allow producers to take effective decisions to maximise profitability (e.g. nutrient management and
 35 plant cover). The soil-water balance is in the centre of many processes that influence plant growth and
 36 the degradation of soil and water resources. However, due to high temporal and spatial variability in
 37 the hydraulic characteristics, a large number of samples are generally required to accurately
 38 characterise field conditions (Khodaverdilloo et al., 2011).

39 Hydrologists are often faced with the situation where one or more of the pedotransfer functions
 40 (PTFs) inputs are not available. Reports on the evaluation of PTFs outside the area of
 41 development are rare, and the results reveal that extrapolation of PTF in different agroclimatic
 42 context is limited (Touil et al., 2016). The development of local PTF could be useful to meet the
 43 agricultural requirements for modelling with reasonable accuracy.



44 Soil water retention curves can usually be constructed by two approaches: the point and
45 parameter PTFs. In the point PTFs, the soil water retention is estimated at defined pressure points
46 (Pachepsky et al., 1996; Minasny et al., 1999). The parameterisation method estimates the
47 parameters of soil water retention models such as Θ_s , Θ_r , α and n , by fitting it to the data and then
48 relating by empirical correlation to basic soil properties (Vereecken et al., 1992; Wösten et al., 1995;
49 Schaap et al., 1998; Minasny and McBratney, 2002; Rawls and Brakensiek, 1985; Van Genuchten et
50 al., 1992; Wösten et al., 2001; Vereecken et al., 2010). One of the most commonly used water
51 retention curves is the Van Genuchten model (1980). Schaap et al. (2001) developed the Rosetta
52 package based on the artificial neural network method (ANN), which implements five hierarchical
53 models to predict these parameters with well-defined limits (the soil texture classes only) and the most
54 widespread input data (texture, density, and one or two points of water retention).

55 PTFs for point and parametric estimation of water retention curves from basic soil properties
56 can be developed by using multiple regression methods (Lin et al., 1999; Mayr and Jarvis, 1999;
57 Tomasella et al., 2000). An advantage of regression techniques is that most fundamental input
58 parameters can be determined using stepwise regression.

59 Moreover, using pedotransfer functions in different environments either underestimate or
60 overestimate the water retention. Several studies have shown that water retention is a complex
61 function of soil structure and composition (Rawls et al., 1991; Wösten et al., 2001; Rawls et al., 2003).
62 Applications of PTFs on different textural or structure classes may also be a source of uncertainty.
63 Soil-water potential and hydraulic conductivity vary widely and non-linearly with water content for
64 different soil textures. Experience has shown that soil texture predominantly determines the water-
65 holding characteristics of most agricultural soils (Saxton et al., 1986). The relationship between the
66 soil water retention curve (SWRC) and particle size distribution, was investigated in many studies
67 (Jonasson et al., 1992; Minasny et al., 2006; Ghanbarian et al., 2009; Xu Yang et al., 2013; Tae-Kyu
68 Lee et al., 2014). Williams et al. (1983) and Saxton et al. (1986) report that the PTFs depend mostly
69 on texture, and other factors such as bulk density, structure, organic matter, clay type, and hysteresis
70 may all have a secondary impact.

71 The variability of PTF response depends on variability and uncertainty of one or more input
72 variables. The uncertainty analysis in the variety of pedotransfer (PTF) available approaches is a
73 necessity to minimise the error in estimation and identify its source. Recently, sensitivity analysis
74 techniques and uncertainty analysis have received considerable attention in the study of PTF (Nemes
75 et al., 2006b; Kay et al., 1997; Grunwald et al., 2001; Deng et al., 2009; Moeys et al., 2012; Loosvelt
76 et al., 2013). The question is, which variable input is the principal one or the better complimentary
77 predictor of water retention, and at which potential? The global sensitivity analysis (GSA) allows us to
78 study how the uncertainty in the output of a model can be apportioned to different sources of
79 uncertainty in the model input (Saltelli et al., 2000). Generally, the GSA is very useful to know which
80 variables mostly contribute to output variables (Jaques et al., 2004).

81 The objective of this study is:



82 1. Deriving and validating two approaches of PTFs from basic soil properties, using regression
83 methods:

- 84 • Point PTFs for estimation of soil water retention at -33 kPa and at -1500 kPa;
- 85 • Parametric PTFs for estimating the Van Genuchten curve parameters and comparing the
86 predictive performance with the Rosetta models;

87 2. Studying the impact of each input perturbation on the PTFs output.

88 **II. Materials & methods**

89
90 1. The database

91
92 The PTFs are developed by using a database collected from some Algerian regions. Subset 1
93 containing 70 % of the samples (n = 189) from the coastal plain of Annaba located in the north-eastern
94 part of Algeria (n=13), the plain of Beni Slimane of Media (n=42), the Kherba El Abadia plain of Ain
95 defla (n=54) and samples randomly selected from Lower Chelif plain in northwestern of Algeria (n=
96 80), soil series was used as the calibration set. Subset 2 with the remaining 21% (n = 53)
97 from Benziane valley in the south west lower Chelif plain, soil series was selected to verify the PTFs
98 (Table 1). The depth of the two upper horizons varies from site to site with maximum of 30 cm for
99 surface horizons and upper than 30 cm for subsurface horizons.

100 The particle size analysis, conducted using the international Robinson's pipette method. Soil samples
101 taken by cylinders of 500-1000 cm³ (According to the case) were used to determine soil bulk density
102 (BD).The water retention values at -33 kPa and -1500 kPa were obtained by Richards's apparatus for
103 samples were collected in moisture nearby to field capacity, by cylinders with a volume of 100 cm³.
104 The water content measurements were conducted by gravimetric method at 105 C° (24h). The organic
105 carbon content was determined by wet oxidation method

106 The soil water retention model of Van Genuchten (1980) is defended as:

$$108 \quad \theta(h) = \theta_r + \frac{\theta_s - \theta_r}{(1 + |\alpha h|^n)^m} \quad (1)$$

109
110 Where θ_r and θ_s are the residual and saturated soil water contents (cm³ cm⁻³), respectively, and α
111 (cm⁻¹) and n are the shape factors of the water retention function. The Van Genuchten parameters will
112 be calculated for each soil sample using the RETC code (Schaap et al., 2001). The "m" parameter
113 was calculated as follows: $m = 1 - 1 / n$

114
115 2. Evaluation criteria

116
117 The PTF are regularly assessed by the comparison of the values that they predicted and the
118 measured values (Pachepsky and Rawls, 1999). To discuss the validity of PTF developed, we used
119 the following: the mean prediction error (ME) to inform the bias of the estimate; the mean square error
120 (RMSE) as an estimator of quality prediction that was frequently used in the literature on the
121 pedotransfer functions; and the index of agreement (d) developed by Willmott and Wicks (1980), and
122 Willmott (1981) as a standardised module in order to measure the model prediction error. They are
123 calculated using the following equation, respectively:



$$124 \quad \mathbf{ME} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (\theta_p - \theta_m) \quad (2)$$

125 with n , number of horizons, θ_p , and the predicted volumetric water content and θ_m the measured
126 volumetric water content. The estimate is even less skewed than ME and is close to 0. When ME is
127 positive, PTF tested overestimated θ_m and when it is negative PTF tested underestimated θ .

$$128 \quad \mathbf{RMSE} = \left\{ \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (\theta_p - \theta_m)^2 \right\}^{\frac{1}{2}} \quad (3)$$

129 Thus, when the mean square error (RMSE) is low, the better the estimate.

130

$$131 \quad \mathbf{d} = 1 - \frac{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (\theta_p - \theta_m)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n \left[|(\theta_p - \bar{\theta}_m)| + |(\theta_m - \bar{\theta}_m)| \right]^2} \quad (4)$$

132

133 The index of agreement (d) Varies between 0 and 1. Close to of 1 indicates a better matching between
134 measured and predicted values (Willmott and Wicks, 1980; Willmott, 1981).

135

136 3. Global sensitivity analysis (GSA)

137 The global sensitivity analysis consists of determining which part of the variance of model response is
138 due to the variance of which input variable or group of inputs. These methods quantify the impact of
139 the parameters by the calculation of global sensitivity indices.

140 The Sobol method (Sobol, 1990) is an independent global sensitivity analysis that is based on
141 decomposition of the variance or may manage the functions and non-linear and non-monotonic
142 models. The Sobol model is represented by the following function:

$$143 \quad Y = f(X_1, X_2, X_3, \dots, X_p) \quad (5)$$

144 Where Y is the model output (or objective function) and $X = (X_1, \dots, X_p)$ is the variable set.

145 a. Sobol decomposition of variance

146 The total variance of Y is defined; then:

$$147 \quad V(Y) = V(E(Y|X)) + E(Var(Y|X)) \quad (6)$$

148 When the input variables X_i are independent, the variance decomposition of the model is:

$$149 \quad V(Y) = \sum_{i=1}^p V_i + \sum_i \sum_j V_{ij} + \sum_i \sum_j \sum_p V_{ijp} + \dots + V_{1,2,3,\dots,p} \quad (7)$$

$$150 \quad V_i = V[E(Y|X_i)]$$

$$151 \quad V_{ij} = V[E(Y|X_i, X_j)] - V_i - V_j$$

$$152 \quad V_{ijp} = V[E(Y|X_i, X_j, X_p)] - V_i - V_j - V_p - V_{ij} - V_{ip} - V_{jp} - V_j - V_j - V_p$$

153 Dividing V_i by $V(Y)$ we obtain the expression of the first-order sensitivity index noted S_i such that:

154

$$155 \quad S_i = \frac{V_i}{V(Y)} = \frac{V[E(Y|X_i)]}{V(Y)} \quad (8)$$

156 The term S_i is the measure that guarantees an informed choice in the cases where the factors are
157 correlated and interact (Saltelli and Tarantola, 2002). This index is always between [0,1], and
158 represents a proper measure of the sensitivity used to classify the input variables in order of
159 importance (Saltelli and Tarantola, 2001).



160 To calculate the variation of sensitivity index (V_{si}) we propose:
161
$$V_{si} = \left(\frac{V[E(Y/X)]}{V(Y)} - \frac{V[E(Y/X_i=X_i^*)]}{V(Y)} \right) * 100 \quad (9)$$

162 $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} V_{si} > 0 \text{ and } S_i \text{ close to } 1 \text{ indicate increasing accuracy of PTFs (+: favourable impact);} \\ V_{si} < 0 \text{ and } S_i \text{ close to } 1 \text{ indicate increasing accuracy of PTFs (+: favourable impact);} \\ V_{si} > 0 \text{ and } S_i \text{ close to } 0 \text{ indicate decreasing accuracy of PTFs (- : adverse impact);} \\ V_{si} < 0 \text{ and } S_i \text{ close to } 0 \text{ indicate decreasing accuracy of PTFs (- : adverse impact).} \end{array} \right.$

166 Moreover, coupling the RMSE and sensitivity index S_i allowed us to detect the contribution of each
167 variable for the improvement of the quality of prediction of PTFs.

168 III. Results and discussion

169
170 1. The PTF derived

171
172 We chose to use the Rosetta PTFs in this study because it is one of the latest PTFs and gave
173 reasonable predictions in several evaluation studies (Nemes et al., 2003). The quality prediction of
174 point and parametric PTF developed in this study will be compared with the three Rosetta PTFs (H1,
175 H2, and H3). Three Rosetta models (H1, H2, and H3) were selected because they require the texture
176 and bulk density as inputs.

177 In Table 3, the majority of PTFs evaluated underestimate the soil water retentions except the
178 point model at the two pressure points (-33 kPa and -1500 kPa). The hierarchy Rosetta model H2,
179 which considers only texture as input, gave a smaller ME value compared with both H1 and H3
180 hierarchies models (- 0.0728; -0.0436 cm³ cm⁻³ at -33 kPa and -1500 kPa, respectively).

181 The poor ME values indicate better estimates of PTFs; they were produced after the
182 application of PTF points followed by the PTF parameters.

183
184 Among the five tested models in the Lower Cheliff soils, the PTF points (MLR) derived from a
185 database taken from some Algerian soils had the lowest values of RMSE (0,041 and 0,044 cm³ cm⁻³ at
186 -33 kPa and -1500 kPa, respectively). Performances equivalent or superior to PTFs derived by
187 multiple regression methods have been reported (Minasny et al., 1999; Nemes et al., 2003). However,
188 the non-linear models (parametric PTF) adapt better than the Rosetta models based on the artificial
189 neurons network (RMSE: 0.0613; 0.0605 cm³ cm⁻³ at -33 kPa and -1500 kPa, respectively).
190 Furthermore, the RMSE and the ME values of three Rosetta models show that H2 is better than H1
191 and H3 (Table 3).

192 In term of predictors, the results show that the OM improves the quality of adjustment.

193 Other evaluation criteria noted that the index of agreement also shows that the point PTF is
194 more suitable for Lower Cheliff soils than the parametric PTF (Fig. 6) with values of (*d*) (0.9975,
195 0.9911 cm³ cm⁻³). A similar comparison in different regions was made by Minasny et al. (1999),
196 Tomasella et al. (2003) and Ghorbani Dashtaki et al. (2010). All have reported similar
197 differences between these two types of PTFs.

198



199 While no significant difference in accuracy was found between the parametric PTFs and
200 Rosetta-H2 at -1500 kPa with RMSE value ($0.0605 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ and $0.0636 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ cm}^{-3}$). The poor accuracy
201 of Rosetta PTFs can depend on several factors such as the similarity between the application region
202 and the database region source, geology, and bioclimatic context (Wagner et al., 2001; Wösten et al.,
203 2001; Ghorbani et al., 2011; Touil et al., 2016).

204
205 2. Sensitivity index before the textural classification
206

207 In the development of pedotransfer functions, using the particle-size distribution (PSD) as
208 input is generally the common approach (texture as a global expression of the particle size
209 distribution, clay, silt and sand content), and its contribution is fundamental to understanding the
210 process of retaining water at different pressure points, although various physical and chemical
211 characteristics are used to describe the water retention curve such as the bulk density and organic
212 matter.

213 In this section, the importance of each input variable is assessed by the first order sensitivity
214 index (S_i). It is clear for the PTFs developed, the organic matter (OM %) and the clay percentages (C
215 %) are the variables that have the most impact particularly on point PTF (MLR) estimation in two
216 pressure points with S_i in order to (OM: 0.821; 0.630) and (C %: 0.782; 0.585) at -33 kPa and -1500
217 kPa, respectively (Fig. 2). The percentage of silt (S_i %) is in a second range of importance in
218 parametric PTF (0.576 at -33 kPa) after OM, followed by the bulk density and clay (Fig. 2). The
219 S_i values class the sand content in third order in MLR (0.262; 0.162), thus its impact on the
220 parametric model is almost insignificant with very low values index (S_i : 0.077; 0.017) at -33 kPa and -
221 1500 kPa, respectively.

222 The prediction quality of point PTF developed by linear multiple regression (MLR) can be
223 explained first by taking into account the basic characteristics of soil as an input through the texture
224 and structure information given by the bulk density. Secondly, the MLR formation is mainly based on
225 these input variables compared to parametric PTF using the non-linear multiple regression (MNLr),
226 which has as input more than texture and the bulk density, but also other parameters (parameters of
227 the Van Genuchten curve: Θ_r , Θ_s , α , n , m).

228
229 3. Sensitivity and uncertainty analysis after the textural classification
230

231 This section will analyse the sensitivity of multiple regression methods (linear and non-linear) developed
232 for the basic soil characteristics on estimating water retention in different textural classes. Water
233 retention and conductivity are directly related to the geometry of the pore network, depending on the
234 size and assemblage of the elementary soil particles. In this order we have grouped the samples
235 into three classes of particles according to textural classes of the FOA guidelines (FOA, 1990),
236 which give a very fine class (N = 12), fine (N = 31) and medium (N = 10).

237
238 The results show the improvement of the quality estimation of PTFs after textural stratification,
239 particularly in medium class (Fig. 4). Indeed, a better prediction was recorded by point PTF (RMSE
240 = $0.027 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ cm}^{-3}$) and parametric PTF (RMSE = $0.038 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ cm}^{-3}$) at -1500 kPa. The stability in



241 estimation of PTF before and after classification is noted in the very fine class (Fig. 4). This can be
242 explained by the difficulties there are for linking the water retention properties of the samples with
243 their size distribution as their structural state may be variable.

244 **1. Sand content:** After textural classification, PTFs developed (MLR and MNLR) are always
245 sensitive primarily to the sand fraction in fine and medium classes (Table 5). The variation of the
246 first sensitivity index in point PTF is significantly greater in the medium texture class at the two
247 pressure points (-33 kPa and -1500 kPa). Into the MNLR, sand has the most influence particularly
248 when it is applied to the fine class (-40.9%, 18.9% at -33 kPa and 1500 kPa) and medium class (-
249 16.7% at -1500 kPa).

250
251 The sensitivity index of a variable quantifies the influence of its uncertainty on the output. This
252 is the part of the variability output explained by the variability input. What has been confirmed after
253 calculating the variation of the first order sensitivity index (V_{Si}), is that the PTFs developed are still very
254 influenced by the variability of sand at -33 kPa more than at -1500 kPa. This impact can be explained
255 by the irregularity of the dispersion of sand content in the validation database with a coefficient of
256 variation (CV) approximately 119% compared to the other input variables (33%; 18%; 9%; 57% for
257 clay, silt, bulk density, organic matter, respectively). This heterogeneity of the sand data series clearly
258 influences the uncertainty of pedotransfer functions response.

259 Moreover, looking at the matrix correlation (Table 6), the clay and silt fraction are significantly
260 correlated with the sand content. Saltelli and Tarantola (2002) observe that when X_1 and X_2 are
261 correlated with a third factor X_3 , the sensitivity index calculated depends on the force of this correlation
262 as well as the distribution of X_3 . In this case, the index power may be influenced by this statistical
263 association, as we can explain the higher value difference of index variation of sand percentage
264 compared with the other variables (Fig. 2).

265 We can see that point PTF (MLR) produces a lower error of estimation when the variation
266 sensitivity index calculated for sand is the leading [MLR in the medium class: RMSE (0.030; 0.027 cm³
267 cm⁻³) with V_{Si} = (-103%, 86.4%) at -33 kPa and -1500 kPa, respectively]. A negative V_{Si} of sand
268 content when the latter is fixed is noticed on all texture classes (Table 5). This can be explained by the
269 proportional relationship between the sand and clay content, particularly in the dataset of validation
270 with dominant clay texture. Insignificant sensitivity of sand was recorded in very fine texture. Rawls et
271 al. (2003) observed that 10% of sand provides an increase in water retention at low clay content and a
272 decrease in water retention at high clay content of more than 50%.

273 It is important to note the relationship of the Van Genuchten water retention curve parameters
274 (especially n and α) and particle size distribution were conducted recently in many studies (e.g.
275 Minasny et al., 2007; Benson et al., 2014) in order to explain why the sand impact increase in fine
276 texture class in parametric PTF. It can be explained by the majority presence of sand and clay content
277 as input on parametric PTFs. For soils with clay content between 35% and 70%, water content is
278 highly influenced by the percentage of sand in the soil (Loosvelt et al., 2013).

279 Moreover, when the sand content of the sample increases to 60%, the drying rate is quicker
280 and water absorbing ability is weaker compared with the small sand content. When the sand content



281 decreases to 20% the small pores occupy a large part of the pore structure, making the soil compact
282 (Hao et al., 2015).

283 **2. Bulk density:** the second most influential variable on the point PTF (MLR) response is by variation
284 of sensitivity index on all textural class, mainly in the very fine textural class with elevated values at -
285 33 kPa ($V_{si} = -50, 5\%$). In the parametric PTF, the bulk density influences the medium class at -33
286 kPa. The result shows that the favourable impact of BD is according to the accuracy of quality
287 estimation at -33 kPa in the medium class on two developed approaches of PTFs (Table 5). The very
288 fine textural class represents 16 surface samples (0–30 cm) with a dominance of clay texture. In a
289 similar study on clay soils, the volumetric water content is hugely related to the inverse of bulk density
290 at field capacity (Bruand et al., 1996). It may also explain the fact that many soils with high clay
291 content in the database are vertisols in which they increase in organic matter, decrease bulk density
292 and decrease the volumetric water content (Rawls et al., 2003). The inclusion of the bulk density in the
293 development PTFs leads to a pore volume that cannot retain water for the potential range studied (-33
294 kPa and -1500 kPa).

295 In addition, the soil structural information characterised by measurements of bulk density is an
296 indirect measurement of pore space and is affected primarily by texture and structure. For structure-
297 less soils, primarily coarse and medium textured soils, the capillary pore-size distribution can be
298 satisfactorily described by particle size distribution. The medium texture relates in a general way to the
299 pore-size distribution, as large particles give rise to large pores between them, and therefore, is a
300 major influence on the soil water retention curve (Arya and Paris, 1981; Nimmo, 2004). With this
301 variable, and the texture used as inputs in point PTF (MLR), the nearest experimental results are
302 obtained. The results of this study can confirm that the effect of the use of the soil structural
303 information on the estimation of the soil water retention depends on the use of regression techniques
304 (Nguyen et al., 2015).

305
306 **3. Clay content:** For medium texture the favourable sensitivity is determined by clay content at -33
307 kPa. This can be explained by the reduction of clay percentage in the medium class (mean of clay (%)
308 = 23%), which produces fewer errors at -33 kPa. The highest impact of clay (%) was observed at -
309 1500 kPa on the point and parametric PTF in different textural classes (Fig. 4). The clay content of
310 soils is a major predictor for modelling the permanent wilting point of soils (Minasny et al., 1999).

311 Moreover, in this study, the accuracy of PTFs decrease when they were applied to some soil
312 samples with the Clay (%) > 60% (Fig. 4). In the very fine class, insignificant sensitivity is recorded at
313 all pressures defined in this study. In this class, the variation of clay is much lower, for the reason that
314 the latter is only the dominant solid fraction, and this can explain the smaller variation of sensitivity
315 index after fixing the clay percentage. The very fine and fine classes have advanced water retention t
316 more those of the medium class, because it quickly drains water initially retained. In other words, the
317 use of clay as PTF input in medium textured soils leads to results that are more or less erroneous.

318 **4. Silt content:** In this study silt was introduced as an explanatory variable only in MNLr parametric
319 PTFs. This fraction is known for its ability to retain water to high and medium potential. The analysis
320 results show that the global sensitivity class and the silt as the second input were the most disturbing



321 estimates of water retention at -1500 kPa more than at -33 kPa on MNLR model. After textural
322 stratification, the main values of V_{si} have been found in medium class (-36.7% to -1500 kPa). The
323 lowest were recorded in the very fine class, or the texture is pure clay. It is clear that the percentage of
324 silt has a very important role in estimating of the Van Genuchten parameters (α , n), and consequently,
325 its use as input in MNLR influences the estimate in the medium and fine class. Nevertheless, there is
326 a favourable impact recorded in fine class at -1500 kPa. Its presence with the clay content in the fine
327 class has led to a better pedological interpretation of the soil water retention in silty-clay texture. The
328 plant-available water content variation is more related to sand and silt than to clay content (Reichert et
329 al., 2009).

330 **5. Organic matter content:** The most insignificant variation of sensitivity index (V_{si}) after textural
331 stratification is attributed to the organic matter content. This can be explained firstly by the poor OM on
332 the Algerian soils. Lal (1979) and Danalatos et al. (1994) did not find any effect of organic matter
333 content on water retention; the latter attributed it to the generally low organic matter content in their
334 samples. Secondly, homogeneity of the data for OM content in every textural class decreases the
335 variation of PTFs response, as the latter is always considered the better predictor of soil water
336 retention particularly in clayey soils. However, positive sensitivity impact is observed on parametric
337 PTF in medium-textured soils at -33 kPa where the OM is used as input to predict saturated soil water
338 contents. Soil water retention at -33 kPa is affected more strongly by the organic carbon than at -1500
339 kPa (Rawls et al., 2003). The sensitivity analysis made by Rawls et al. (2003), in order to study the
340 role of organic matter content as predictor, shows that water retention of coarse-textured soils is much
341 more sensitive to changes in organic carbon as compared with fine-textured soils. Bauer and Black
342 (1981) found that the effect of organic carbon on water retention in disturbed samples was substantial
343 in sandy soil and marginal in medium and fine textured soils.

344 IV. Conclusion

345 The present study suggests that the soil water retention is controlled by different variables such as
346 organic matter, clay content and sand content at different points of soil water potential, and not directly
347 related to the parameters of the water retention curve such as the van Genuchten model. The
348 reliability tests show that the point PTF predicts more accuracy than the parametric models. Indeed,
349 the derived parametric PTFs provide better estimates than the Rosetta models that were originally
350 developed from a large intercontinental database.

351 Furthermore, the global sensitivity analyses show that the mathematical formalism of PTF
352 models and their input variables react differently in terms of point pressure and textural class:

- 353 • It is clear that the soil water retention is highly related to the OM and clay content.
- 354 • After textural classification, the two approaches of PTFs developed (MLR and MNLR) are
355 always sensitive primarily to the sand fraction in fine and medium class at -33 kPa more
356 than at -1500 kPa.
- 357 • The results show that the favourable impact of BD is according to the accuracy of quality
358 estimation of the two approaches of PTFs developed at -33 kPa in the medium class.



- 359 • The accuracy of PTFs decrease when they were applied to some soil samples with the
360 Clay (%) > 60%.
- 361 • The most insignificant variation of sensitivity index V_{Si} after textural stratification is
362 attributed to the organic matter content in Algerian soils.

363

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510 **Tables:**

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512 **Table 1.** Soil characteristics used for the development and validation.

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	Granulometry				VWC (cm ³ cm ⁻³)		
	S (%)	Si (%)	C (%)	BD (g/cm ³)	OM (%)	- 33 kPa	-1500 kPa
Samples used for Deriving PTF (n = 189)							
Average	17.81	39.23	42.97	1.71	0.95	0.44	0.27
Standard Deviation	10.32	10.76	13.90	0.20	0.93	0.09	0.08
Min	1.00	9.20	4.00	0.60	0.08	0.13	0.03
Max	50.00	67.00	84.30	2.10	8.40	0.73	0.56
Coefficient of Variation (CV)	0.58	0.27	0.32	0.12	0.98	0.21	0.31
Samples used for testing the PTF (n = 53)							
Average	12.50	41.58	45.92	1.49	0.87	0.40	0.21
Standard Deviation	14.84	7.62	14.94	0.13	0.50	0.10	0.07
Min	-	29.00	9.00	1.15	0.20	0.14	0.07
Max	59.00	58.00	70.00	1.73	2.74	0.57	0.45
Coefficient of Variation (CV)	1.19	0.18	0.33	0.09	0.57	0.24	0.35

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518 **Table 2.** Multiple regression coefficient R² and regression coefficients of models developed.

	Inputs (*)	Points PTF (MLR)			Parametric PTFs (MNL : Cubic Model)		
		-33 kPa	-1500 kPa	Θs(cm ³ cm ³)	Θr(cm ³ cm ³)	α	n
		S%, C%, BD, OM	S%, C%, BD,	S%, C%, BD, OM	C%,S%	Si%, S%	C%, Si%
Regression Coefficients	R² multiple	0.74	0.66	0.62	0.67	0.60	0.66
	a	0.0246	-0.0627	0.4136	9.00 × 10 ⁻⁰²	3.00 × 10 ⁻⁰³	2.90
	b	-0.0040	-0.0029	-0.0013	7.78 × 10 ⁻⁰⁴	-1.00 × 10 ⁻⁰⁴	-2.77 × 10 ⁻⁰³
	c	0.0012	0.00165	0.0002	3.20 × 10 ⁻⁰⁴	8.90 × 10 ⁻⁰⁵	-9.48 × 10 ⁻⁰²
	d	0.2554	0.1837	0.0177	-6.36 × 10 ⁻⁰⁵	5.40 × 10 ⁻⁰⁶	-3.66 × 10 ⁻⁰⁴
	e	0.0067	-	-0.0018	1.20 × 10 ⁻⁰⁵	-4.50 × 10 ⁻⁰⁶	2.03 × 10 ⁻⁰³
	f	-	-	-	9.30 × 10 ⁻⁰⁷	-7.30 × 10 ⁻⁰⁸	2.49 × 10 ⁻⁰⁶
	g	-	-	-	-1.00 × 10 ⁻⁰⁷	4.50 × 10 ⁻⁰⁸	-1.50 × 10 ⁻⁰⁵
	h	-	-	-	9.00 × 10 ⁻⁰²	7.70 × 10 ⁻⁰⁶	2.84 × 10 ⁻⁰⁴
	i	-	-	-	7.78 × 10 ⁻⁰⁴	-3.10 × 10 ⁻⁰⁸	4.91 × 10 ⁻⁰⁶
j	-	--	-	3.20 × 10 ⁻⁰⁴	-3.10 × 10 ⁻⁰⁸	-5.32 × 10 ⁻⁰⁶	

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(*) S: sand, C: clay, Si: silt, BD: bulk density, OM: organic matter (respectively)



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Table 3. Evaluation criteria of PTFs at -33 kPa and -1500 kPa.

			-33 kPa	-1500 kPa
<i>ME (cm³ cm⁻³)</i>	<i>PTF Point</i>	MLR	0.0188	0.0261
		<i>Parametric PTF</i>	MNLR	-0.0016
	<i>Rosetta</i>	H1	-0.0902	-0.0458
		H2	-0.0728	-0.0436
H3		-0.0991	-0.0552	
<i>RMSE (cm³ cm⁻³)</i>	<i>PTF Point</i>	MLR	0.0414	0.0444
		<i>Parametric PTF</i>	MNLR	0.0613
	<i>Rosetta</i>	H1	0.1170	0.0738
		H2	0.0970	0.0636
H3		0.1280	0.0749	
<i>d (cm³ cm⁻³)</i>	<i>PTF Point</i>	MLR	0.9975	0.9911
		<i>Parametric PTF</i>	MNLR	0.9938
	<i>Rosetta</i>	H1	0.9623	0.9427
		H2	0.9775	0.9597
H3		0.9519	0.9331	

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Table 5. The variation of first order sensitivity index in the textural classes.

			Si (%)		S (%)		C (%)		BD (g/cm ³)		OM (%)	
	Tex-class		V _{Si}	A.E	V _{Si}	A.E	V _{Si}	A.E	V _{Si}	A.E	V _{Si}	A.E
RML	at -33 kPa	VF	Abs	-1.2	-	-0.4	-	-50.5	-	4.6		
		F	Abs	-43.2	-	-10.7	-	-39.9	-	0.2		
		M	Abs	-103.3	-	-27.5	+	-44.4	+	-5.7		
	at -1500 kPa	VF	Abs	-0.3	-	0.9	-	-27.3	-	1.1		
		F	Abs	-46.2	-	-20.7	-	-41.6	-	0.1		
		M	Abs	-86.4	-	-52.9	-	-22.9	-	-2.3		
MNLR	at -33 kPa	VF	0.4	-0.2	-	0.1	-	-0.1	-	-0.05		
		F	-1.6	-40.9	-	-1.1	-	-2.5	-	-0.1		
		M	15.0	-5.2	-	15.1	+	21.6	+	22.3	+	
	at -1500 kPa	VF	-4.6	-0.3	-	-1.8	-	-1.4	-	-0.05		
		F	28.6	+	18.9	-	4.6	-	0.4	0.1		
		M	-36.7	-	-16.7	-	-22.6	-	8.9	-8.4		

532 V_{Si}: variation first sensitivity index; A.E.: improving estimation; +: favourable impact; -: adverse
 533 impact.

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Table 6. Correlation matrix (coefficient of Pearson) of validation database (n=53).

Variables	Si%	S %	C (%)	BD (g/cm ³)	OM (%)
S%	1				
S %	-0.334	1			
C %	-0.159	-0.878	1		
BD (g/cm ³)	0.164	-0.185	0.11	1	
OM (g/100g)	-0.174	-0.166	0.263	-0.19	1

The values which are in bold are different from 0 to a level of signification
 $\alpha = 0.05$

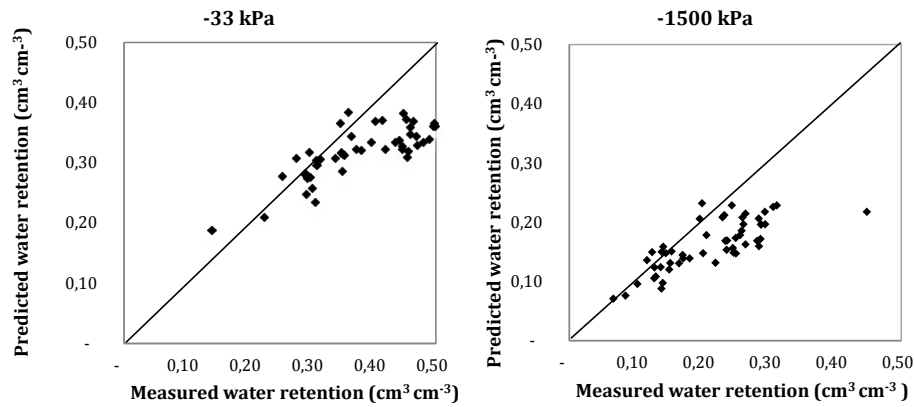
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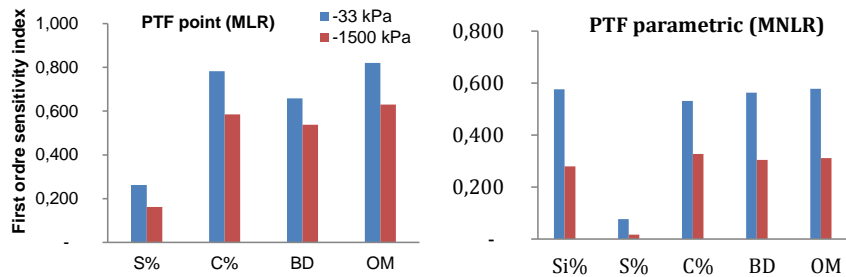
Figures:

Figure 1. Scatter plots of measured versus predicted soil water retention by H2 Rosetta.



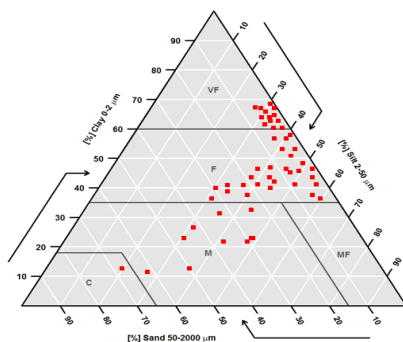
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Figure 2. First order sensitivity index



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Figure 3. Textural triangle proposed by FOA (1990).

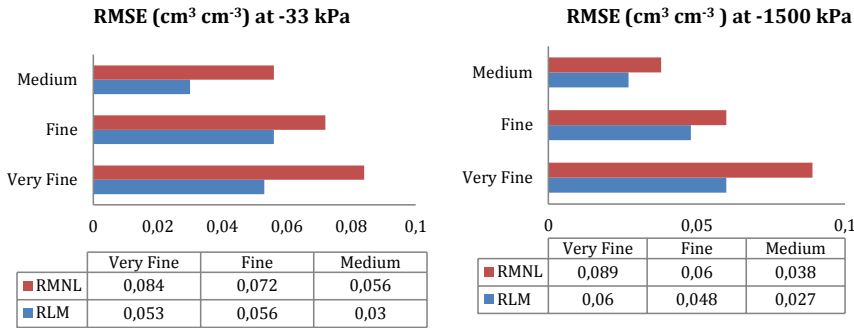


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Figure 4. The RMSE criteria calculated with textural classification.

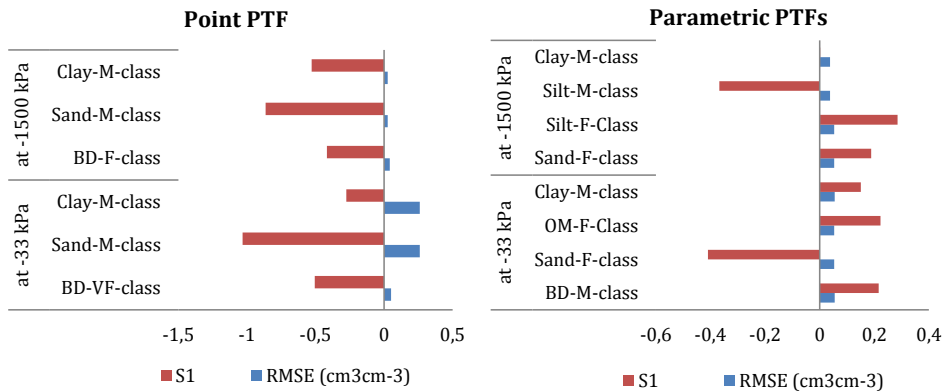


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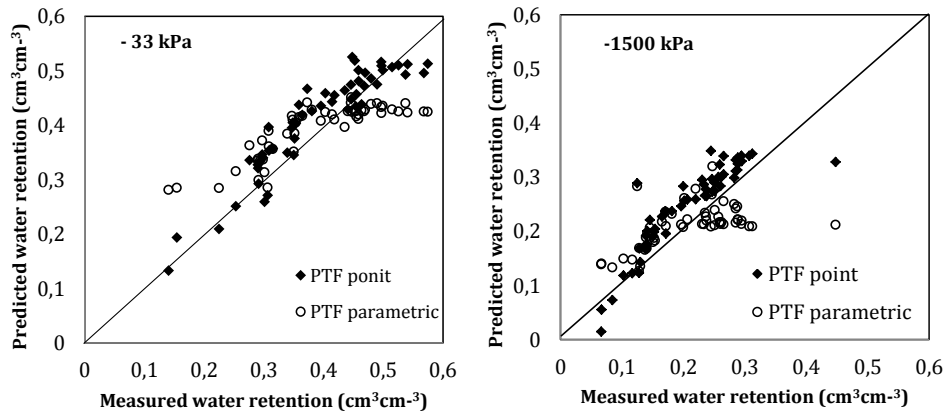
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Figure 5. Variation of first sensitivity index with RMSE criteria after textural classification.



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Figure 6. Scatter plots of measured soil water retention versus predicted soil water retention.



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