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8 **How Alexander von Humboldt's life story can inspire innovative soil research**
9 **in developing countries.**

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15 Footnote: The Humboldt lecture, presented by the 2017 recipient of the Alexander von Humboldt
16 lecture, prof. Johan Bouma, can be accessed at : (<http://client.cntv.at/equ2017/ml1>)

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Abstract

6 The pioneering vision of Alexander von Humboldt on science and society of the early
7 1800's is still highly relevant today. His open mind and urge to make many
8 measurements characterizing the: "interconnected web of life" are crucial ingredients
9 as we now face the worldwide challenge of the UN Sustainable Development Goals.
10 Case studies in the Phillipines, Vietnam, Kenya, Niger and Costa Rica demonstrate,
11 in Alexander's spirit, interaction with stakeholders and attention for unique local
12 conditions applying modern measurement and modeling methods, allowing inter- and
13 transdisciplinary research approaches. But relations between science and society are
14 increasingly problematic , partly as a result of the information revolution and "post-
15 truth" , "fact-free" thinking. Overly regulated and financially restricted scientific
16 communities in so-called developed countries may stifle intellectual creativity.
17 Researchers in developing countries are urged to "leapfrog" beyond these problems
18 in the spirit of Alexander von Humboldt as they further develop their scientific
19 communities. Six suggestions to the science community are made with particular
20 attention for soil science.

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23 1. Introduction

24 The scientific career of Alexander von Humboldt , a name linked with the medal for
25 research in developing countries by the European Geosciences Union, is highly
26 inspiring for scientists operating in the current scientific arena as one realizes after
27 reading the impressive biography by Andrea Wulff (2015). He was the first in the
28 early 1800's to emphasize the importance of the: "interconnected web of life" rather
29 than isolated disciplinary and Taxonomic issues as was the custom at the time and
30 still is in some quarters. He saw man as part of nature rather than as its justified and
31 exclusive consumer, the dominant view at the time and still present today. It is now



1 generally accepted that the geosciences are not only closely linked with other
2 environmental sciences but with society itself. Modern measuring, sensing and
3 modeling facilities offer now the possibility to express ecosystem dynamics in
4 quantitative terms rather than in terms of the flowery illustrated books, reports, letters
5 and drawings by von Humboldt, but the basic message is the same. But perhaps his
6 greatest contribution has been his enthusiastic and uncompromising dedication to
7 be receptive to new ideas (“keep learning”) and to maintain an open, inquisitive mind
8 when observing phenomena in nature or when interacting with land users in Latin
9 America and The United States. He always encouraged young colleagues and
10 shared his data freely. As a scientist he carried his instruments everywhere,
11 meticulously documenting his many observations to be systematically analysed later,
12 often deep into the night. At the same time he was, in dialogue with poets like
13 Goethe, quite aware that “facts” are experienced differently by different people, as it
14 involves personal emotions and values. Two centuries before terms like inter- and
15 transdisciplinarity were coined they were acted out in real life by von Humboldt. As,
16 for example, he observed the misery of farmers in the Aragua valley in the Andes
17 following erosion and soil degradation as a side effect of cutting upland forests. In
18 general he warned against developments where science may feed the brain with
19 abstract data while ignoring imagination in the process: a message with high
20 relevance to the current scientific arena.

21 The relation between science and society has dramatically changed in the early 21th
22 century and has become problematic not only in the so-called developed world but
23 also globally as internet reaches all corners of the world, mobile phones are used
24 everywhere and social media are prominent in daily life (e.g. Kahan, 2015, Bouma,
25 2015). “Citizen science” is promoted while many see science as providing only “yet
26 another opinion”. “Post-truth”, “fact-free” and “alternative facts” become prominent in
27 the public debate. Effects differ among scientific disciplines but issues develop, in
28 particular, in land-related environmental and food science addressing concerns in
29 everyday lives of citizens. On the other side of the fence, governmental funding of
30 environmental research is decreasing in many countries and researchers are
31 increasingly forced to generate research contracts with industrial or commercial
32 partners. Ever larger numbers of students follow tight curricula that leave limited time
33 for side activities and scientific workers are being judged and squeezed by tight



1 performing indicators where publication requirements figure prominently. Emphasis
2 on writing publications in, preferably, internationally refereed journals has resulted in
3 an explosion of the number of new journals and a structural lack of competent
4 referees (e.g. Munafo et al, 2017). As disciplinary papers, developing yet another
5 new technique or introducing yet another new model, are relatively rapid to generate,
6 very much needed time-consuming inter- and transdisciplinary approaches suffer.
7 There are, in short, reasons for concern.

8 All these developments are of particular concern to researchers in so-called
9 developing countries. They often don't have the facilities or equipment to generate
10 papers that are acceptable for the big journals, restricting their professional
11 development , while they perform good research in many cases. How to proceed ?
12 Aren't we all, in fact, developing countries be it that development moves in opposite
13 directions in different countries?

14 Considering these observations the objectives of this paper are to briefly review and
15 analyse work done by our group in developing countries and discuss how what
16 appear to be unfavorable developments in science-society relations in so-called
17 developed countries can be avoided in developing countries. How can they possibly
18 "leapfrog" to a more stimulating, productive, less stressful and sustainable condition
19 in the spirit of Alexander von Humboldt? Attention will be confined to the soil science
20 discipline, which is an essential part of environmental sciences.

21 **2. Examples of ecoregional research in developing countries .**

22 Work by the chair-group Soil Inventarisation and Land Evaluation of Wageningen
23 University in the Philippines, Vietnam, Kenya, Niger and Costa Rica and projects
24 executed in the context of the Ecoregional Methodology Fund will be briefly reviewed
25 with reference to source publications, with the intention to reflect and document the
26 background of the 2017 von Humboldt medal. Certainly, many other reports and
27 papers on research in developing countries have been written in the von Humboldt
28 spirit.

29 **2.1. Growing rice in the Philippines**

30 Rice is the main food source in South East Asia and in approximately 75% of the
31 area irrigation is used to submerge the growing rice plants with water on top of a
32 slowly permeable puddled layer of topsoil. To produce 1 kg of rice, 5000 liters of



1 water are needed and because fresh water is scarce in many areas, understanding
2 soil water regimes is crucial to define optimal irrigation regimes intended to save
3 water. Wopereis et al (1994) developed a field test to measure infiltration rates
4 through the puddled surface layer of soil and this value varied significantly in different
5 soils, following different puddling practices that could be refined based on such
6 measurements. Statistical techniques were used to estimate the minimum number of
7 samples needed. (Wopereis et al, 1992, 1993). Rice is also grown without irrigation
8 and then natural soil moisture regimes determine development of the rice plants.
9 Here, bypass flow (which is rapid downward movement of water and solutes beyond
10 the rootzone along air-filled cracks in the soil) is an important process that cannot be
11 characterized with existing physical flow theory that implicitly assumes soils to be
12 homogeneous. Application of a new technique to measure bypass flow allowed the
13 development of innovative soil management procedures, restricting the potential for
14 bypass flow (Wopereis et al, 1994). Data obtained were extended to the Tarlac
15 province (300000ha) for a regional analysis, predicting rice yields with the newly
16 developed simulation model ORYZA as a function of soil differences and
17 management practices. Stein et al (1988) applied geostatistics to interpolate point to
18 area data using units of the soil map as a basis for sample stratification, combining
19 more traditional soil information with innovative new techniques.

20 **2.2. Managing acid sulphate soils in Vietnam**

21 A major program in Vietnam by van Mensvoort, le Quang Tri, le Quang Minh and
22 Husson, in close cooperation with Can Tho University, focused on agricultural use of
23 acid sulphate soils (Minh et al, 1997a,b; Husson et al, 2000a, 200b). These soils
24 occur in marine deposits near the sea, containing pyrite that upon aeration and
25 oxidation can result in strong acidification making soils unfit for plant growth.
26 Chemical processes have been well documented in literature but local implications
27 for land and water management remained undefined. In Vietnam alone, 2 million ha's
28 of these soils occur and 12 million ha's in the world at large. As long as the pyrite-
29 containing soil layers are submerged nothing happens and soils can be highly
30 productive. Properly managing water regimes is therefore of crucial importance to
31 avoid aeration and oxidation of pyrite-containing layers and as local soil and
32 hydrological conditions vary significantly on short distances, it is impossible to devise
33 generalized modeling procedures. Farmers' experience, assisted by local



1 measurements and observations, played therefore a key role when defining
2 appropriate management by digging ditches and heightening soil surfaces in
3 between. Depending on soil conditions, different system dimensions were developed
4 in three key areas. When vertical cracks form as soils dry out, the effects of bypass
5 flow on acidification can be significant as was demonstrated by bypass
6 measurements (Minh et al, 1997c).

7 **2.3. Integrated nutrient management in Africa**

8 A major problem of African agriculture is the negative soil nutrient balance: more
9 nutrients are extracted than supplied. Smaling et al (1992) developed a framework
10 for integrated nutrient management in the tropics, presenting Kenya as a case study,
11 showing significant differences among regions and soils. He successfully continued
12 development of the QUEFTS model relating natural fertility and fertilization rates to
13 nutrient uptake and crop yields, allowing assessment of local potentials and
14 limitations (Smaling and Janssen, 1993). Bypass flow was prominent in well
15 structured clay soils, leading to loss of surface-applied nutrients up to 60%.
16 Reductions could be achieved by modifying surface structures (Smaling and Bouma,
17 1992). The interdisciplinary approach of this work was emphasized by investigating
18 the effects of parasitic weeds on crop yields (Smaling et al, 1991).

19 **2.4. Agricultural development in the Sahelian region in Africa (Niger).**

20 The arid Sahalian Region in West Africa is particularly vulnerable in terms of
21 agricultural productivity, not only because of the low natural fertility of sandy soils but
22 also because of low and erratic rainfall that is expected to become even more
23 problematic in future due to climate change. Brouwer and Bouma (1997), Gandah et
24 al (2003) and Brouwer (2008) studied farming systems in Niger in a comparable
25 manner as in Vietnam by focusing on farmer's management practices, trying to cope
26 with the severe constraints to farming. Theoretical studies on potential crop yields,
27 assuming optimal water and nutrient availability are irrelevant in an extremely poor
28 country like Niger with limited agricultural policies, where farmers cannot afford
29 fertilizers, and with no water for irrigation in agricultural land. Impressive coping by
30 farmers include corralling cattle to gather manure that is spread over the land, leaving
31 crop residues on the land and growing crops near certain trees species or
32 abandoned termite mounds where fertility is higher and competition for water limited.
33 A scoring technique was introduced to allow reliable estimates of crop yields that had



1 a very high spatial variability even within fields (with a factor up to 30) and this was
2 quantified with statistical techniques, showing strong negative relations of yields with
3 distances to settlements (Stein et al, 1997) or with lack of shrubs(Van Groenigen et
4 al, 2000). The research showed that corralling the cattle at night was effective to
5 collect manure but application rates to the land , varying in practice from 3-17
6 tons/ha, were often considerably higher than a threshold value of 3 tons/ha that was
7 developed in the program (Brouwer and Powell 1998, Gandah et al. 2003). Higher
8 values result in leaching of nutrients during rains in these highly permeable sandy
9 soils. The locally developed “tesse” system, where plants are grown in individual
10 small pits filled with fertilized soil, is effective but highly labor intensive. Studies also
11 showed that surface sealing and runoff was a dominant process in areas farther
12 away from settlements, explaining results of a statistical analysis .showing a higher
13 effect of water shortages as compared with nutrient shortages (Gaze et al, 1997).

14 **2.5. Soil-related land use patterns in Costa Rica.**

15 After studying land use in Costa Rica with remote sensing combined with extensive
16 field work , Huising et al (1994) introduced the concept of Land Use Zones (LUZ) in
17 the Guacimo region of 900 km square defining large geographic units with particular
18 land use patterns and dynamic behavior. Applying this concept, the study indicated
19 that soils in 18% of the area were over-used, leading to degradation processes, while
20 in 50% of the soils more intensive management practices would be feasible,
21 providing a guide for regional land-use policies. Studies in banana Finca's showed
22 that soil differences could explain 67% of the yield respons (Veldkamp et al, 1990).
23 Soil moisture regimes could be related to nematode development (Stoorvogel et al,
24 1999). Stoorvogel also developed innovative soil databases , based on soil surveys
25 incorporated in Geographical Information Systems , based on a functional approach,
26 in this case in terms of the risk of pesticide leaching. This way, simulation models of
27 crop growth and nutrient regimes could logically be linked with the GIS system,
28 strongly increasing its applicability, as was demonstrated when developing alternative
29 land-use systems for the Neguev area in Costa Rica and banana finca's (e.g.
30 Stoorvogel et al, 2004). Comparing the behavior of young volcanic soils (Andosols)
31 with old ones (Ultisols) showed that the former had a higher resilience as shown by a
32 better recovery of soil structure after compaction following deforestation practices
33 (Spaans et al, 1989, 1990).



1 **2.6 The ecoregional methodology program.**

2 In addition to the above activities, considerable attention has been paid to coordinate
3 and actively participate in an Ecoregional Methodology Program funded by the Dutch
4 Government, as summarized in Bouma et al (2007). Taking the policy cycle as a
5 guiding principle studies were made on: (i)land use change in the Kenyan Highlands;
6 (ii) the effects of trade liberalization in Peru; (iii) Water Resources on the Tibetan
7 Plateau; (iv)land use problems and conflicts in the Philippines; (v) effects of
8 environmental conditions on human health in Ecuador; (vi) soil erosion in the Kenyan
9 Highlands , and (vii) re-establishing farmers credits in the Highveld Region of South
10 Africa.

11 **3. Learning from developed countries when relating soil science to society:
12 possibilities for leapfrogging?**

13 As soil scientists we should not forget how our profession was established by people
14 like Dukochaev in Russia and Marbut in the USA, who travelled widely in the late
15 19th Century observing different soils in different landscapes, in a manner that
16 resembles the endeavours of Alexander von Humboldt. Like Alexander, they saw
17 something that others before them had not seen: then as well as now the very key to
18 progress in science. Soil turned out to be more than “ dirt obscuring rocks ”.
19 Researchers in developing countries would be well advised to take note of
20 developments in the so called developed world and work actively to define ways and
21 means avoiding problems encountered elsewhere,taking advantage of many
22 available studies (e.g. World Bank, 2008, Rockstrom et al, 2009, 2010, IFAD, 2011,
23 Schwilch et al, 2012, Lal, 2013, Bouma et al, 2014, FAO-ITPS, 2015, Ittersum et al,
24 2016). The following six points are intended to stimulate discussions on future soil
25 research that may also be relevant for other scientific disciplines:

26 **3.1.Define clear goals** . The amount of basic soil data in information systems, the
27 number of available methods and models and continuous streams of monitoring data
28 present an overwhelming challenge to the 21th century soil scientist. Without clear
29 goals, only “trees” will be seen while “the forest” gets out of sight. Sustainable
30 development is an excellent overall goal and the 17 Sustainable Development Goals
31 (SDG’s) , defined by the UN and approved by all its members at the General
32 Assembly in September 2015 are excellent goals to aim for (e.g. Bouma, 2014,
33 2016, Keesstra et al, 2016, Bouma and Montanarella, 2016) and so is the 4per1000



1 proposal, accepted at the Paris Climate conference also in 2015, focused on
2 increasing the %C of soils as a climate change mitigation measure.

3 **3.2. Adhere strictly to scientific principles.** The scientific method, when followed,
4 does not produce “just an other opinion”. Define the problem, reframe it in terms of a
5 object that can be researched, formulate a hypothesis to be tested, choose methods
6 and procedures that have proven their reliability and reproducibility in previous
7 research or develop new methods if needed. Make measurements in adequate
8 number to allow statistical expression of results in terms of reliability and accuracy
9 and pay attention to the way results are communicated. Also show hypothetical
10 results when no or highly simplified soil data are applied.

11 **3.3. Engage stakeholders but stay in charge.** The need to engage stakeholders
12 and policy makers in transdisciplinary research has been acknowledged widely but
13 the question still lingers how to best do it. My suggestion: Try the step-by-step
14 approach (Hoosbeek and Bryan, 1992; Bouma, 1997, Bouma et al, 2008). In
15 summary: stakeholder knowledge is empirical and qualitative in nature. As scientists
16 get involved, presented procedures become more quantitative and underlying
17 mechanisms can be better explained. Starting discussions with stakeholders, the
18 conclusion can be reached that their knowledge is inadequate to answer the problem
19 being recognized, or, better, to reach the intended goal. Next, relatively simple and
20 available techniques are tested. If they yield satisfactory results, then the project can
21 be terminated. If not, more elaborate techniques are needed and new methods may
22 need to be developed. Costs will increase step by step and the ultimate project
23 design will be the result of a cost-benefit analysis. This approach has a number of
24 advantages: (i) stakeholders are taken along in a “scientific journey” involving joint
25 learning and increasingly shared ownership. Stakeholders are shown that they are
26 taken seriously by not being “talked-down” to (by the “elite”), the latter a major
27 reason for the science-society divide and “fact-free” and “post-truth” attitudes. (ii)
28 many problems can be solved by applying existing data and methods, not needing
29 new research. Bouma et al (2015) showed six examples of research programs, three
30 of which could be completed without developing new methods. But in three cases
31 new basic research was needed and this was documented providing a rational
32 argument for new research. Not having fancy equipment and supercomputers does
33 not necessarily imply that effective research cannot be realized. (iii) the scientific



1 method applies to all knowledge levels, ranging from empirical to mechanistic and
2 from qualitative to quantitative.

3 **3.4.Avoid atomisation of soil science and associate with physical**
4 **geographers.** When interacting with other disciplines, stakeholders and policy
5 makers, soil science is more effective when the various subdisciplines work together
6 rather than separately. The following sequence may be adhered to: Start with
7 pedology, defining the physical constitution of a dynamic soil in a landscape context,
8 next add hydrology, chemistry and biology in that particular sequence. When this
9 sequence is not followed, the potential of soil science contributions to interdisciplinary
10 research may not be reached. Physical geographers are a good source of spatial
11 landscape data.

12 **3.5.Develop storylines to facilitate communication.** Soil research as presented in
13 scientific papers or reports often makes an isolated, clinical impression. Putting
14 research in a storyline context is quite useful to improve communication. Addressing
15 the SDG's is one way, another is to express the work in the DPSIR scheme, defining
16 drivers, pressures, state, impacts and responses of external effects on land use (Van
17 Camp et al, 2004, Bouma et al, 2008) Realizing that different stakeholder or policy
18 groups have different goals, based on their particular perceptions of the "truth", a
19 range of scenarios can be formulated that do justice to each of these perceptions.
20 The key premise in all of this should be that: "anything can be done anywhere". The
21 scientific analysis will show what the likely economic, social and environmental
22 consequences are of each scenario. The stakeholders and the politicians decide by
23 choosing the ultimate scenario, not the scientist.

24 **3.6.Preserve intellectual vigor.** Make sure that regulations, guidelines, indicators
25 and judgement criteria for research and researchers don't become too restricting
26 leading to a routine, all too pragmatic and risk-averse attitude of researchers. Initiate
27 long-duration programs, allowing continued interaction with stakeholders when
28 preparing, executing and implementing research. Actively engage in a pro-active
29 manner agronomists, hydrologists, ecologists and climatologists in joint programs
30 focusing on SDG's. Judge researchers on their main papers not only on the number
31 of papers or citations. Create conditions where research is fun rather than a burden.
32 Important is the education of young scientists and innovative educational approaches



1 are important and deserve a wide follow-up (e.g. Field et al, 2011, 2013, Jarvis et al,
2 2012, Hartemink et al, 2014)).

3 And, finally, all soil science students should read the biography of Alexander von
4 Humboldt as a source of inspiration.

5 As their scientific network is being established, researchers and policy makers in
6 developing countries would be well advised to take these signals seriously and apply
7 them in establishing vital scientific regimes. And, above all: look at Alexander von
8 Humboldt as an inspiring example as to what science in the real world can be all
9 about.

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11 **Acknowledgements.** Thanks to our PhD students: Marco Wopereis, Tini van Mensvoort, le
12 Quang Tri, le Qung Minh, Olivier Husson, Eric Smaling, Mohamadou Gandah, Jeroen Huising and
13 Jetse Stoorvogel. Thanks to the (co) promotors: Martin Kropff, Vo Tong Xuan, To PhucTuong, Louise
14 Fresco, Eric Smaling, Joost Brouwer, Niek van Duivenbooden, Alfred Stein and Martin Moolenaar.
15 Contributions by the Ecoregional Development Fund are also gratefully acknowledged: Rudy
16 Rabbinge, Roberto Quiroz, Mario Herrera, Stephen Staal, Water Immerzeel, Raymund Roetter, Geert
17 Sterk, Jetse Stoorvogel, Rick van den Bosch, Patrick Gichera and Fred Muchena. Contributions by
18 Damien Field are gratefully acknowledged.

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