

Refining physical aspects of soil quality and soil health when exploring the effects of soil degradation and climate change on biomass production: an Italian case study.

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Abstract

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ABSTRACT

This study ~~is restricted to~~ focuses on soil physical aspects of soil quality and - health with the objective to define procedures with worldwide rather than only regional applicability, reflecting modern developments in soil physical and agronomic research and ~~focusing on addressing~~ important questions regarding possible effects of soil degradation and climate change. In contrast to water and air, soils cannot, even after much research, be characterized by ~~an~~ universally accepted quality definition and this hampers the internal and external communication process. Soil quality expresses the capacity of the soil to function. Biomass production is a primary function, next to filtering and organic matter accumulation, and can be modeled with soil-water-~~plant~~-atmosphere-~~plant~~ simulation models, as used in the agronomic yield-gap program that defines potential yields (Y_p) for any location on earth determined by radiation, temperature and standardized crop characteristics, assuming adequate water and nutrient supply and lack of pests and diseases. The water-limited yield (Y_w) reflects, in addition, the often limited water availability at a particular location. Real yields (Y_a) can be considered in relation to Y_w to indicate yield gaps, to be expressed in terms of the indicator: $(Y_a/Y_w) \times 100$. Soil data to calculate Y_w for a given soil type (the genoform) should consist of a range of soil properties as a function of past management (various phenofoms) rather than as a single “representative” dataset. This way a Y_w -based ~~soil~~ characteristic soil quality range for every soil type is defined, based on semi-

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28 permanent soil properties. In this study effects of subsoil compaction, overland flow following surface
 29 compaction and erosion were simulated for six soil series in the Destre Sele area in Italy, including
 30 effects of climate change. Recent proposals consider soil health, which appeals more to people than
 31 soil quality and is now defined by separate soil physical, ~~chemical~~ and ~~biological~~ indicators. Focusing
 32 on the soil function biomass production, physical soil health at a given time of a given type of soil can
 33 be expressed as a point (defined by a measured Ya) on the defined soil quality range for that particular
 34 type of soil, thereby defining the seriousness of the problem and the scope for improvement. The six
 35 soils showed different behavior following the three types of land degradation and projected climate
 36 change up to the year 2100. Effects are expected to be major as reductions of biomass production of
 37 up to 50% appear likely under the scenarios. Rather than consider soil physical, chemical and biological
 38 indicators separately, as proposed now elsewhere for soil health, a sequential procedure is
 39 ~~suggested~~discussed logically linking the separate procedures.

40 **Keywords:** soil quality, soil health, climate change, simulation modeling, water-limited crop yield.

43 1. INTRODUCTION

44 The concept of Soil Health has been proposed to communicate the importance of soils to stakeholders
 45 and policy makers (~~Moebius-Clune et al., 2016~~)(~~Moebius-Clune et al., 2016~~). This follows a large
 46 body of research on soil quality, recently reviewed by ~~Bünemann et al., (2018)~~Bünemann et al., (2018).
 47 The latter conclude that research so far has hardly involved farmers and other stakeholders, consultants
 48 and agricultural advisors. This may explain why there are as yet no widely accepted, operational soil
 49 quality indicators in contrast to quality indicators for water and air which are even formalised into
 50 specific laws (e.g. EU Water Framework Directive). This severely hampers effective communication
 51 of the importance of soils which is increasingly important to create broad awareness about the
 52 devastating effects of widespread soil degradation. New soil health initiatives, expanding the existing
 53 soil quality ~~discours~~discourse, deserve therefore to be supported. A National Soil Health Institute has
 54 been established in the USA (www.soilhealthinstitute.org) and Cornell University has published a

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55 guide for its comprehensive assesment after several years of experimentation (Mobius-Clune et al,
56 2016). Soil health is defined as:”*the continued capacity of the soil to function as a vital living ecosystem*
57 *that sustains plants, animals and humans*”(NRCS, 2012). ~~Confining~~Focusing attention in this paper to
58 soil physical conditions, the Cornell assessment scheme (Moebius-Clune et.al, 2016) distinguishes
59 three soil physical parameters: wet aggregate stability, surface and subsurface hardness to be
60 characterized by penetrometers and the available water capacity (AWC: water held between 1/3 and
61 15 bar). The National Soil Health Institute reports 19 soil health parameters, including 5 soil physical
62 ones: water-stable aggregation, penetration resistance, bulk density, AWC and infiltration rate.

63 Techniques to determine aggregate stability and penotrometer resistance have been introduced many
64 years ago (e.g. ~~Kemper and Chepil, 1965; Lowery, 1986; Shaw et al., 1943~~;~~Kemper and Chepil, 1965;~~
65 ~~Lowery, 1986; Shaw et al., 1943~~). Aggregate stability is a relatively static feature as compared with
66 dynamic soil temperature and moisture content with drawbacks in terms of (1) lack of uniform applied
67 methodology (e.g. Almajmaie et al., 2017), (2) the inability of dry and wet sieving protocols to
68 discriminate between management practices and soil properties (Le Bissonnais, 1996; Pulido Moncada
69 et al., 2013) and above all: (3) the mechanical work applied during dry sieving is basically not
70 experienced in real field conditions (Díaz-Zorita et al., 2002). Measured ~~Penetrometer~~penetrometer
71 resistances are known to be quite variable because of different modes of handling in practice and
72 seasonal variation. Finally, the AWC is a static characteristic based on fixed values as expressed by
73 laboratory measurements of the pressure head for “field capacity” and “wilting point” that don’t
74 correspond with field conditions ~~in most soils~~ (e.g. Bouma, 2018).

75 These drawbacks must be considered when suggesting the introduction for general use as physical soil
76 health indicators. More recent developments in soil physics may offer alternative approaches, to be
77 explored in this paper, that are more in line with the dynamic behavior of soils.

78 The definition of soil health is close to the soil quality concept introduced in the 1990’s:”*the capacity*
79 *of the soil to function within ecosystem and land-use boundaries to sustain productivity, maintain*
80 *environmental quality and promote plant and animal health*” (~~Bouma, 2002; Bünemann et al., 2018;~~
81 ~~Doran and Parkin, 1994; Karlen et al., 1997~~)(~~Bouma, 2002; Bünemann et al., 2018; Doran and Parkin,~~
82 ~~1994; Karlen et al., 1997~~). Discussions in the early 2000’s have resulted in a distinction between
83 *inherent* and *dynamic* soil quality. The former would be based on relatively stable soil properties as
84 expressed in soil types that reflect the long-term effect of the soil forming factors corresponding with
85 the basic and justified assumption of soil classification that soil management should not change a given
86 classification. Still, soil functioning of a given soil type can vary significantly as a result of the effects
87 of past and current soil management, even though the name of the soil type does not change (this can

88 be the soil series as defined in USDA Soil Taxonomy (~~Soil Survey Staff, 2014 as expressed in Table~~
89 ~~1~~)(~~Soil Survey Staff, 2014 as expressed in Table 1~~) but the lowest level in other soil classification
90 systems would also apply. In any case, the classification should be unambiguous. *Dynamic* soil quality
91 would reflect possible changes as a result of soil use and management over a human time scale, which
92 can have a semi-permanent character when considering , for example, subsoil plowpans (e.g. Mobius-
93 Clune et al, 2016). This was also recognized by ~~Droogers and Bouma, (1997) and Rossiter and~~
94 ~~Bouma~~Droogers and Bouma, (1997) and Rossiter and Bouma (2018) when defining different soil
95 phenoforms reflecting effects of land use for a given genoform as distinguished in soil classification.
96 Distinction of different soil phenoforms was next translated into a range of ~~characteristic different soil~~
97 ~~qualities by using simulation techniques (Bouma and Droogers, 1998). Soil health at a given time could~~
98 ~~next be considered to represent actual quality conditions, fitting into this particular soil quality~~
99 ~~range.~~characteristically different soil qualities by using simulation techniques (Bouma and Droogers,
100 1998). The term soil health appears to have a higher appeal for land users and citizens at large than the
101 more academic term soil quality, possibly because the term “health” has a direct connotation with
102 human wellbeing in contrast to the more distant and abstract term: “quality”. Humans differ and so do
103 soils; some soils are genetically more healthy than others and a given soil can have different degrees
104 of health at any given time, which depends not only on soil properties but also on past and current
105 management and weather conditions. Mobius-Clune et al- (2016) have recognized the importance of
106 climate variation by stating that their proposed system only applies to the North-East of the USA and
107 its particular climate and soil conditions. This represents a clear limitation and could in time lead to a
108 wide variety of local systems with different parameters that would inhibit effective communication to
109 the outside world. This paper will therefore explore possibilities for a science-based systems approach
110 with general applicability. To apply the soil health concept to a wider range of soils in other parts of
111 the world, the attractive analogy with human health not only implies that “health” has to be associated
112 with particular soil individuals (~~usually expressed in terms of a given soil series~~), but also to climate
113 zones. In addition, current questions about soil behavior often deal with possible effects of climate
114 change. In this paper, the proposed systems analysis can – in contrast to the procedures presented so
115 far- also deal with this issue. Using soils as a basis for the analysis is only realistic when soil types can
116 be unambiguously defined, as was demonstrated by ~~Bonfante and Bouma (2015) for five soil series in~~
117 ~~the Italian Destre Sele area.~~Bonfante and Bouma (2015) for five soil series in the Italian Destre Sele
118 area that will also be the focus of this study. In most developed countries where soil surveys have been
119 completed, soil databases provide extensive information on the various soil series, including
120 parameters needed to define soil quality and soil health in a systems-analysis as shown, for example,
121 for clay soils in the Netherlands (~~Bouma and Wösten, 2016).~~(Bouma and Wösten, 2016). The recent

report of the National Academy of Sciences, Engineering and Medicine (2018) ~~also~~ emphasizes the need for ~~the type of~~ systems ~~approach~~ approaches as followed in this study.

The basic premise of the Soil Health concept, as advocated by Moebius-Clune et.al. 2016 and others, is convincing. Soil characterization programs since the early part of the last century have been exclusively focused on soil chemistry and soil chemical fertility and this has resulted in not only effective recommendations for the application of chemical fertilizers but also in successful pedological soil characterization research. But soils are living bodies in a landscape context and not only chemical but also physical and biological processes govern soil functions. The Soil Health concept considers therefore not only soil chemical characteristics, that largely correspond with the ones already present in existing soil fertility protocols, but also with physical and biological characteristics that are determined with well defined methods, with particular emphasis on soil biological parameters (Moebius-Clune et al, 2016). However, the proposed soil physical methods by Moebius-Clune et al (2016) don't reflect modern soil physical expertise and procedures need to have a universal rather than a regional character, while pressing questions about the effects of soil degradation and future climate change need to be addressed as well. The proposed procedures do not allow this. Explorative simulation studies can be used to express possible effects of climate change as, obviously, measurements in future are not feasible. Also, only simulation models can provide a quantitative, interdisciplinary integration of soil-water-~~plant~~-atmosphere-~~plant~~ processes that are key to both the soil quality and soil health definitions, as mentioned above.

In summary, the objectives of this paper are to: (i) explore alternative procedures to characterize: "soil physical quality and health" applying a systems analysis by modeling the soil-water-~~plant~~-atmosphere-~~plant~~ system, an analysis that is valid anywhere on earth; (ii) apply the procedure to develop quantitative expressions for the effects of different forms of soil degradation ; and (iii) explore effects of climate change for different soils also considering different forms of soil degradation. ~~Expressions for chemical and biological soil health will not be discussed here but are needed to be integrated with the soil physical analysis, to allow a classification of overall soil health.~~

~~2.~~ 2. MATERIALS AND METHODS.

2.1. Soil functions as a starting point

The soil quality and - health definitions both mention: "*the continued capacity of a soil to function*". Soil functions have therefore a central role in the quality and health debate. EC (2006) defined the following soil functions: (1) Biomass production, including agriculture and forestry; (2) Storing,

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154 filtering and transforming nutrients, substances and water: (3) Biodiversity pool, such as habitats,
 155 species and genes; (4) Physical and cultural environment for humans and human activities; (5) Source
 156 of raw material; (6) Acting as carbon pool, and (7) Archive of geological and archaeological heritage.

157 Functions ~~iv, v4, 5~~ and ~~vii7~~ are not covered in this contribution since ~~they are considered special as~~
 158 ~~they require~~, if considered relevant, specific measures have to be taken to set soils apart by legislative
 159 measures. The other functions are directly and indirectly related to function 1, biomass production. Of
 160 course, soil processes not only offer contributions to biomass production, but also to filtering,
 161 biodiversity preservation and carbon storage. Inter- and transdisciplinary approaches are needed to
 162 obtain a complete characterization, requiring interaction with other disciplines, such as agronomy,
 163 hydrology, ecology and climatology and, last but not least, with stakeholders and policy makers. Soil
 164 functions thus contribute to ecosystem services and, ultimately, to all seventeen UN Sustainable
 165 Development Goals (e.g. ~~Bouma, 2016, 2014; Keesstra et al., 2016~~; Bouma, 2016, 2014; Keesstra et
 166 al., 2016). However, in the context of this paper, attention will be focused on the soil functions function
 167 1, biomass production.

168 Soil physical aspects play a crucial role when considering the role of soil in biomass production, as
 169 expressed by Function 1, which is governed by the dynamics of the soil-water-~~atmosphere-plant-~~
 170 ~~climate~~ system- in three ways:

171 (1) Roots provide the link between soil and plant. Rooting patterns as a function of time are key factors
 172 for crop uptake of water and nutrients. Deep rooting patterns imply less susceptibility to moisture stress.
 173 Soil structure, the associated bulk densities, and the soil water content determine whether or not roots
 174 can penetrate the soil. When water contents are too high, either because of the presence of a water table
 175 or of a dense, slowly permeable soil horizon impeding vertical flow, roots will not grow because of
 176 lack of oxygen. For example, compact plow-pans, resulting from applying pressure on wet soil by
 177 agricultural machinery, can strongly reduce rooting depth. In fact, soil compaction is a major form of
 178 soil degradation that may affect up to 30% of soils in some areas. (e.g. FAO & ITPS, 2015).

179 (2) Availability of water during the growing season is another important factor that requires, for a start,
 180 infiltration of all rainwater into the soil and its containment in the unsaturated zone, constituting “green-
 181 water” (e.g. ~~Falkenmark and Rockström, 2006~~; Falkenmark and Rockström, 2006). When precipitation
 182 rates are higher than the infiltrative capacity of soils water will flow laterally away over the soil surface,
 183 possibly leading to erosion and reducing the amount of water available for plant growth, and:

184 (3) the climate and varying weather conditions among the years govern biomass production. Rainfall
 185 varies in terms of quantities, intensities and patterns. Radiation and temperature regimes vary as well.

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186 In this context, definitions of location-specific potential yield (Y_p), water-limited yield (Y_w) and actual
187 yield (Y_a) are important, as will be discussed later .

188 Soil Function 2 requires first soil infiltration of water ~~in the first place~~ followed by good contact
189 between percolating water and the soil matrix, where clay minerals and organic matter can adsorb
190 cations and organic compounds, involving chemical processes that will be considered when defining
191 soil chemical quality. However, not only the adsorptive character of the soil is important but also the
192 flow rate of applied water that can be affected by climatic conditions or by management when
193 irrigating. Rapid flow rates generally result in poor filtration as was demonstrated for viruses and fecal
194 bacteria in sands and silt loam soils (~~Bouma, 1979~~)(Bouma, 1979).

195 Soil Functions 3 and 6 are a function of the organic matter content of the soil (or %C), the quantity of
196 which is routinely measured in chemical soil characterization programs (also in the soil health protocols
197 mentioned earlier that also define methods to measure soil respiration). The organic matter content of
198 soils is highly affected by soil temperature and moisture regimes and soil chemical conditions. Optimal
199 conditions for rootgrowth in terms of water, air and temperature regimes will also be favorable for soil
200 biological organisms, linking soil functions 1, 3 and 6.

201 When defining soil physical aspects of soil quality and soil health, focused on soil function 1,
202 parameters will have to be defined that integrate various aspects, such as: (1) weather data, (2) the
203 infiltrative capacity of the soil surface, considering rainfall intensities and quantities, (3) rootability as
204 a function of soil structure, defining thresholds beyond which rooting is not possible, and: (4) hydraulic
205 and root extraction parameters that allow a dynamic characterization of the soil-water-plant-
206 atmosphere system that can only be realized by process modeling, that requires these five parameters
207 and modeling is therefore an ideal vehicle to realize interdisciplinary cooperation. Simulation models
208 of the soil-water-atmosphere-plant system are ideal to integrate these various aspects.

209 **2.2. The role of dynamic modeling of the soil-water-plant-atmosphere system**

210 When analysing soil quality and soil health, emphasis must be on the dynamics of *vital, living*
211 *ecosystems* requiring a dynamic approach that is difficult to characterize with static soil characteristics
212 (such as bulk density, organic matter content and texture) except when these characteristics are used
213 as input data into dynamic simulation models of the soil-water-plant-climate system. Restricting
214 attention to soil physical characteristics, hydraulic conductivity (K) and moisture retention properties
215 ($\Theta(h-\theta)$) of soils are applied in such dynamic models. Measurement procedures are complex and
216 can only be made by specialists, making them unsuitable for general application in the context of soil
217 quality and health. They can, however, be easily derived from *pedotransferfunctions* that relate static

218 soil characteristics such bulk density, texture and %C to these two properties, as recently summarized
 219 by ~~Van Looy et al., (2017)~~[Van Looy et al. \(2017\)](#). The latter soil characteristics are available in existing
 220 soil databases and are required information for the dynamic models ~~characterizing the soil predicting~~
 221 ~~biomass production function.~~

222 Simulation models of the soil-water-plant-atmosphere system, such as the Soil Water Atmosphere,
 223 Plant model (SWAP) ~~(Kroes et al., 2008)~~[\(Kroes et al., 2008\)](#) to be discussed later in more detail,
 224 integrate weather conditions, infiltration rates, rooting patterns and soil hydrological conditions in a
 225 dynamic systems approach that also allows exploration of future conditions following climate change.

226 The worldwide agronomic Yield-Gap program (www.yieldgap.org) ~~can be quite helpful when~~
 227 ~~formulating a soil quality and – health program with a global significance. So-called water-limited~~
 228 ~~yields (Yw) can be calculated, assuming optimal soil fertility and lack of pests and diseases (e.g~~
 229 ~~Gobbett et al., 2017; van Ittersum et al., 2013; Van Oort et al., 2017). Yw reflects climate conditions~~
 230 ~~at any given location in the world as it is derived from potential production (Yp) that reflects radiation,~~
 231 ~~temperature and basic plant properties, assuming that water and nutrients are available and pests and~~
 232 ~~diseases don't occur. Yw reflects local availability of water and is always lower than Yp. Yw can~~
 233 ~~therefore act as a proxy value for physical soil quality, focusing on function 1.-) can be quite helpful~~
 234 ~~when formulating a soil quality and – health program with a global significance. So-called water-~~
 235 ~~limited yields (Yw) can be calculated, assuming optimal soil fertility and lack of pests and diseases~~
 236 ~~(e.g Gobbett et al., 2017; van Ittersum et al., 2013; Van Oort et al., 2017). Yw reflects climate~~
 237 ~~conditions at any given location in the world as it is derived from potential production (Yp) that reflects~~
 238 ~~radiation, temperature and basic plant properties, assuming that water and nutrients are available~~
 239 ~~and pests and diseases don't occur. Yw reflects local availability of water. Yw is usually, but not~~
 240 ~~always, lower than Yp. Yw can therefore act as a proxy value for physical soil quality, focusing on~~
 241 ~~function 1. Note that Yp and Yw, while providing absolute science-based points of reference, include~~
 242 ~~assumptions on soil fertility and crop health.~~

243 Actual yields (Ya) are often, again, lower than Yw (e.g. Van Ittersum et al, 2013). The ratio Ya/Yw is
 244 an indicator of the so-called “yield-gap” showing how much potential there is at a given site to improve
 245 production (www.yieldgap.org) ~~(Bouma, 2002)~~[\(Bouma, 2002\)](#). When multiplied with 100, a number
 246 between 1 and 100 is obtained as a quantitative measure of the “yield gap” for a given type of soil .
 247 Yw can be calculated for a non-degraded soil. Ya ~~should~~~~should~~ ideally be measured but can also be
 248 calculated ~~as was done~~ in this exploratory study (in terms of Yw values) on the basis of the assumed
 249 effects of different forms of soil degradation, such as subsoil soil compaction, poor water infiltration
 250 at the soil surface due to surface compaction or crusting and erosion. This requires introduction of a

251 compact layer (plowpan) in the soil, a reduction of rainfall amounts with the volume of estimated
252 overland flow and by removing topsoil. ~~This was done in~~Each variant of the analyzed soil series
253 represents a Phenoform.In this ~~exploratory~~exploratory study Ya values were simulated but, ideally,
254 field observations should be made in a given soil type to define effects of management as explored
255 ~~by Pulleman et al., (2000) for clay soils and Sonneveld et al., (2002) for sandy soils. Such field work~~
256 ~~also includes emphasis on important interaction with farmers as mentioned by Moebius-Clune et al.,~~
257 ~~(2016). Sometimes, soil degradation processes, such as erosion, , for example, by Pulleman et al.,~~
258 ~~(2000) for clay soils and Sonneveld et al., (2002) for sandy soils. They developed Phenoforms based~~
259 ~~on different %C of surface soil and such Phenoforms could also have been included here to provide a~~
260 ~~link with soil biology but field data were not available to do so. Field work identifying phenoforms~~
261 ~~includes important interaction with farmers as also mentioned by Moebius-Clune et al. (2016).~~
262 Sometimes, soil degradation processes, such as erosion, may be so severe that the soil classification
263 (the soil genoform) changes. Then, the soil quality and soil health discussion shifts to a different soil
264 type.

265 This approach will now be explored with a particular focus on the Mediterranean environment. Physical
266 soil quality is defined by Yw for each soil, considering a soil without assumed degradation phenomena
267 (the reference) and for three variants (hypothetical Ya, expressed in terms of Yw) with: (1) a compacted
268 plowlayer, (2) a compacted soil surface resulting in overland flow, and (3) removal of topsoil following
269 erosion, without a resulting change in the soil classification. This way a characteristic range of Yw
270 values is obtained for each of the six soil series, reflecting positive and negative effects of soil
271 management and representing a range of soil physical quality values of the particular soil series
272 considered. Within this range an actual value of Ya will indicate the soil physical health of the particular
273 soil at a given time and its position within the range of values will indicate the severity of the problem
274 and potential for possible improvement.

275 The ratio $(Y_a/Y_w) \times 100$ is calculated to obtain a numerical value that represents “soil health” as a point
276 value, representing actual conditions. Health is relatively low when real conditions occur in the lower
277 part of the soil quality range for that particular soil and relatively high when it occurs in the upper
278 range. Again, in this exploratory study measured values (at current climate conditions) for Ya have not
279 been made, so Ya only applies to the three degraded soil forms being distinguished here where
280 hypothetical effects of soil degradation have been simulated as related to the corresponding calculated
281 Yw values. Of course, actual measured Ya values can't be determined at all when considering future
282 climate scenario's- and simulation is the only method allowing exploratory studies. We assume that

283 climate change will not significantly affect soil formation processes until the year 2100. Soil properties
 284 will therefore stay the same.

285 ~~To allow this, attention will be paid to the possible effects of climate change applying RCP 8.5 IPCC~~
 286 ~~scenario. Obviously, only computer simulations can be used when exploring future conditions, another~~
 287 ~~important reason to use dynamic simulation modeling in the context of characterizing soil quality and~~
 288 ~~soil health. The approach in this paper extends earlier studies on soil quality for some major soil types~~
 289 ~~in the world that did not consider aspects of soil health nor effects of climate change (Bouma, 2002;~~
 290 ~~Bouma et al., 1998).~~

292 2.3. To allow estimates of the possible effects of climate change RCP 8.5- IPCC scenario will be
 293 applied. Obviously, only computer simulations can be used when exploring future conditions, another
 294 important reason to use dynamic simulation modeling in the context of characterizing soil quality and
 295 soil health. The approach in this paper extends earlier studies on soil quality for some major soil types
 296 in the world that did not consider aspects of soil health nor effects of climate change (Bouma, 2002;
 297 Bouma et al., 1998).

299 **2.3. Simulation modeling**

300 ~~The Soil–Water–Atmosphere–Plant (SWAP) model (Kroes et al., 2008)~~~~The Soil–Water–Atmosphere–~~
 301 ~~Plant (SWAP) model (Kroes et al., 2008) was applied to solve the soil water balance. SWAP is an~~
 302 ~~integrated physically-based simulation model of water, solute and heat transport in the saturated–~~
 303 ~~unsaturated zone in relation to crop growth. In this study only the water flow module was used; it~~
 304 ~~assumes unidimensional vertical flow processes and calculates the soil water flow through the Richards~~
 305 ~~equation. Soil water retention $\theta(h)$ and hydraulic conductivity $K(\theta)$ relationships as proposed by van~~
 306 ~~Genuchten (1980) were applied, van Genuchten (1980) were applied. The unit gradient was set as the~~
 307 ~~condition at the bottom boundary. The upper boundary conditions of SWAP in agricultural crops are~~
 308 ~~generally described by the potential evapotranspiration ET_p , irrigation and daily precipitation. Potential~~
 309 ~~evapotranspiration was then partitioned into potential evaporation and potential transpiration according~~
 310 ~~to the LAI evolution, following the approach of Ritchie(Leaf Area Index) evolution, following the~~
 311 ~~approach of Ritchie (1972). The water uptake and actual transpiration were modeled according to~~
 312 ~~Feddes et al. (1978)~~~~Feddes et al. (1978), where the actual transpiration declines from its potential value~~
 313 ~~through the parameter α , varying between 0 and 1 according to the soil water potential.~~

~~The model was calibrated and validated by measured soil water content data at different depths for Italian conditions (Bonfante et al., 2010; Crescimanno and Garofalo, 2005) and in the same study area by (Bonfante et al., 2017, 2011). In particular, the model was evaluated in two farms inside of Destra Sele area, on three different soils (Udic Calcicustert, Fluventic Haplustept and Typic Calcicustoll), under maize crop (two cropping seasons) during a Regional project “Campania Nitrati” (Regione Campania, 2008) (Tab.2).~~

The model was calibrated and validated by measured soil water content data at different depths for Italian conditions (Bonfante et al., 2010; Crescimanno and Garofalo, 2005) and in the same study area by (Bonfante et al., 2011, 2017). In particular, the model was evaluated in two farms inside of Destra Sele area, on three different soils (Udic Calcicustert, Fluventic Haplustept and Typic Calcicustoll), under maize crop (two cropping seasons) during a Regional project “Campania Nitrati” (Regione Campania, 2008) (Table.2).

Soil hydraulic properties of soil horizons in the area were estimated by the pedotransfer function (PTF) HYPRES (~~Wösten et al., 1999~~). ~~A test of reliability~~(Wösten et al., 1999). ~~A reliability test~~ of this PTF was performed on $\theta(h)$ and $k(\theta)$ measured in the laboratory by the evaporation method (~~Basile et al., 2006~~)(Basile et al., 2006) on 10 undisturbed soil samples collected in the Destra Sele area. The data obtained were compared with estimates by HYPRES and were considered to be acceptable (RMSE = $0.02 \text{ m}^3 \text{ m}^{-3}$) (~~Bonfante et al., 2015~~)(Bonfante et al., 2015).

Simulations were run considering a soil without assumed degradation phenomena (the reference) and for three variants with a compacted plowlayer, surface runoff and erosion, as discussed above:

(i) The compacted plowlayer was applied at -30cm (10 cm of thickness) with following physical characteristics: 0.30 WC at saturation, 1.12 n, 0.004 "a" and Ks of 2 cm/day. Roots were restricted to the upper 30 cm of the soil. (ii) Runoff from the soil surface was simulated removing ponded water resulting from intensive rainfall events. Rooting depth was assumed to be 80 cm. (iii) Erosion was simulated for the Ap horizon, reducing the upper soil layer to 20 cm. The maximum rooting depth was assumed to be 60 cm (A+B horizon) with a higher root density in the Ap horizon.

Variants were theoretical but based on local knowledge of the Sele Plain. Compaction is relevant considering the highly specialized and intensive horticulture land use of the Sele plain which typically involves repetitive soil tillage at similar depth. Runoff and erosion easily occur at higher altitude plain areas especially where the LON0, CIF0/RAG0, GIU0 soil types occur (~~Fig.Figure~~ 1).

2.4. Soils in the Destra Sele area in Italy.

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346 The “Destra Sele” study area, the plain of the River Sele (22,000 ha, of which 18,500 ha is farmed) is
 347 situated in the south of Campania, southern Italy (~~Fig-Figure~~ 1). The main agricultural production
 348 consists of irrigated crops (maize, vegetables and fruit orchards), greenhouse-grown vegetables and
 349 mozzarella cheese from water buffalo herds. The area can be divided into four different ~~environmental~~
 350 ~~systems~~~~landform classes~~ (hills/footslopes, alluvial fans, fluvial terraces and dunes) with heterogeneous
 351 parent materials in which twenty different soil series were distinguished (within Inceptisol, Alfisol,
 352 Mollisol, Entisol and Vertisol soil orders) (~~Regione Campania, 1996~~), ~~according to Soil Taxonomy~~
 353 ~~(Soil, 1999)~~.~~(Regione Campania, 1996)~~, ~~according to Soil Taxonomy (Soil Survey Staff, 1999)~~. Six
 354 soil series were selected in the area to test application of the soil quality and soil health concepts.
 355 Representative data for the soils are presented in Table 1.

356 Decision trees were developed to test whether the selection process of the soil series was based on
 357 stable criteria, allowing extrapolation of results from measured to unmeasured locations when
 358 considering effects of climate change. While extrapolation in space of soil series data has been a
 359 common procedure in soil survey (e.g. ~~Soil Survey Staff, 2014~~~~Soil Survey Staff, 2014~~; Bouma et al.,
 360 2012), extrapolation in time has not received as much attention. A basic principle of many taxonomic
 361 soil classification systems is a focus on stable soil characteristics when selecting diagnostic criteria for
 362 soil types. Also, ~~emphasis on morphological features allows, in principle, a soil classification without~~
 363 ~~requiring elaborate laboratory analyses. (e.g. Soil Survey Staff, 2014). A given soil classification~~
 364 ~~should, in order to obtain permanent names, not change following plowing or other traditional~~
 365 ~~management measures, such as long as this plowing. This does, of course however, not result in removal~~
 366 ~~of soil or in invasive anthropic activity. apply to all soils and then a different name will have to be~~
 367 ~~assigned.~~

368 This way, soil classification results in an assessment of the (semi)-permanent physical constitution of
 369 a given soil in terms of its horizons and textures. That is why soil quality is defined for each soil type
 370 as a characteristic range of Yw values, representing different effects of soil management that have not
 371 changed the soil classification.

372

373 2.5. Climate information

374 ~~Future climate scenario were obtained by using the high resolution regional climate model (RCM)~~
 375 ~~COSMO-CLM (Rockel et al., 2008), with a configuration employing a spatial resolution of~~
 376 ~~0.0715°(about 8 km), which was optimised over the Italian area. The validations performed showed~~
 377 ~~that these model data agree closely with different regional high resolution observational datasets, in~~

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378 ~~terms of both average temperature and precipitation in Bucchignani et al. (2015) and in terms of~~
379 ~~extreme events in Zollo et al. (2015).~~

380 ~~In particular, the RCP[†] 8.5 scenario was applied, based on the IPCC (Intergovernmental Panel on~~
381 ~~Climate Change) modelling approach to generate greenhouse gas (GHG) concentrations (Meinshausen~~
382 ~~et al., 2011). Initial and boundary conditions for running RCM simulations with COSMO-CLM were~~
383 ~~provided by the general circulation model CMCC-CM (Scoccimarro et al., 2011), whose atmospheric~~
384 ~~component (ECHAM5) has a horizontal resolution of about 85 km. The simulation was performed~~
385 ~~cover the period from 1979 to 2100; more specifically, the CMIP5 historical experiment (based on~~
386 ~~historical greenhouse gas concentrations) was used for the period 1976–2005 (Reference Climate~~
387 ~~scenario – RC), while, for the period 2006–2100, a simulation was performed using the IPCC scenario~~
388 ~~mentioned.~~

389 ~~Daily reference evapotranspiration (ET_0) was evaluated according to Hargreaves and Samani, (1985)~~
390 ~~equation (HS). The reliability of this equation in the study area was performed by Fagnano et al.,~~
391 ~~(2001) comparing the HS equation with the Penman–Monteith (PM) equation (Allen et al., 1998).~~

393 Future climate scenarios were obtained by using the high resolution regional climate model (RCM)
394 COSMO-CLM (Rockel et al., 2008), with a configuration employing a spatial resolution of
395 0.0715°(about 8 km), which was optimised over the Italian area. The validations performed showed
396 that these model data agree closely with different regional high-resolution observational datasets, in
397 terms of both average temperature and precipitation in Bucchignani et al. (2015) and in terms of
398 extreme events in Zollo et al. (2015).

399 In particular, the Representative Concentration Pathway (RCP) 8.5 scenario was applied, based on the
400 IPCC (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change) modelling approach to generate greenhouse gas
401 (GHG) concentrations (Meinshausen et al., 2011). Initial and boundary conditions for running RCM
402 simulations with COSMO-CLM were provided by the general circulation model CMCC-CM
403 (Scoccimarro et al., 2011), whose atmospheric component (ECHAM5) has a horizontal resolution of

[†] Representative Concentration Pathway

about 85 km. The simulations covered the period from 1971 to 2100; more specifically, the CMIP5 historical experiment (based on historical greenhouse gas concentrations) was used for the period 1976–2005 (Reference Climate scenario - RC), while, for the period 2006–2100, a simulation was performed using the IPCC scenario mentioned. The analysis of results was made on RC (1971–2005) and RCP 8.5 divided into three different time periods (2010–2040, 2040–2070 and 2070–2100). Daily reference evapotranspiration (ET_0) was evaluated according to Hargreaves and Samani, (1985) equation (HS). The reliability of this equation in the study area was performed by Fagnano et al., (2001) comparing the HS equation with the Penman–Monteith (PM) equation (Allen et al., 1998).

Under the RCP 8.5 scenario the temperature in Destra Sele is expected to increase approximately two degrees celsius respectively every 30 years to 2100 starting from the RC. The differences in temperature between RC and the period 2070–2100 showed an average increase of minimum and maximum temperatures of about 6.2°C (for both min and max). The projected increase of temperatures produces an increase of the expected ET_0 . In particular, during the maize growing season, an average increase of ET_0 of about 18% is expected until 2100.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1. Soil physical quality of the soil series, as expressed by Yw, under current and future climates.

Soil physical quality of the six soil series, expressed as calculated Yw values for the reference climate and for future climate scenario RCP 8.5, expressed for three time windows periods are shown in Figure 2. Considering current climate conditions, the Longobardo Longobarda and Cifariello soils with loamy textures have the highest values, while the sandy soil Lazzaretto is lower. This can be explained by higher water retention of loamy soils (180 and 152 mm of AWC in the first 80 cm for Longobarda and Cifariello respectively) compared to the sandy soil (53 mm of AWC in the first 80 cm for Lazzaretto). The effects of climate change are most pronounced and quite clear for the two periods after 2040. Reductions compared with the period up to 2040 range from 20–40%, the highest values associated with sandier soil textures. This follows from the important reduction of projected rainfall during the cropping season (Fig. Figure 3) ranging from an average value of 235 (± 30) mm in the 2010–2040 period to 185 (± 26) mm (-21%) and to 142 (± 24) mm (-40%) in the 2040–2070 and 2070–2100 periods, respectively (significant at $p < 0.01$). The figure also includes a value for Yp, potential production (under RC with optimal irrigation), which is 18 t ha⁻¹, well above the Yw values. Only a Yp value is presented for current conditions because estimates for future climates involve too many unknown factors.

3.2. Projected effects of soil degradation processes

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437 *3.2.1. Projected effects of subsoil compaction.*

438 The projected effects of soil compaction are shown in Figure 4. The effects of compaction are very strong
 439 in all soils, demonstrating that restricting the rooting depth has major effects on ~~soil~~biomass production.
 440 Compared with the reference, reductions in Yw do not occur in the first time window (2010-2040), ~~as a~~
 441 ~~function of the soil characteristics of the upper 30 cm of the soils,~~ while the projected lower precipitation
 442 rates ~~in future climates will~~are expected to have a significant effect on all soils, strongly reducing Yw
 443 values by 44-55% with, again, highest values in the sandy soils. Clearly, any effort to increase effective
 444 rooting patterns of crops should be a key element when considering ~~attempts~~attempts to combat effects
 445 of climate change. Data indicate that reactions are soil specific.

446 *3.2.2. Projected effects of overland flow.*

447 Results, presented in Figure 5, show relatively small differences (5% or less) with results presented in
 448 Figure 2 that was based on complete infiltration of rainwater. This implies that surface crusting or
 449 compaction of surface soil, leading to lower infiltration rates and more surface runoff, does not seem to
 450 have played a major role here in the assumed scenario's. Real field measurements may well produce
 451 different results. Even though projected future climate scenario's predict rains with higher intensities,
 452 that were reflected in the climate scenario's being run, the effects of lower precipitation, as shown in
 453 Figure 3, appear to dominate.

454 *3.2.3. Projected effects of erosion.*

455 Results, presented in Figure 6, show significant differences with results presented in Figure 2. Yw values
 456 are lower in all soils as compared with reference climate conditions, but loamy and clayey subsoils still
 457 can still provide moisture to plant roots, leading to relatively low reductions of Yw (e.g 10%-20% for the
 458 Longobarda and Cifariello soils, with an AWC ~~to~~of the remaining 60 cm depth of 150 mm and 120 mm,
 459 respectively) even though topsoils with a relatively high organic matter content have been removed. Next
 460 are the Picciola, Giuliarossa and San Vito soils with reductions between 35 and 45%, all with an AWC
 461 of appr. 107 mm. Effects of erosion are strongest in the sandy Lazzaretto soil, where loss of the A horizon
 462 has a relatively strong effect on the moisture supply capacity of the remaining soil with an AWC of 33
 463 mm up to the new 60 cm depth. The reduction with the reference level is 30%, which is relatively low
 464 because the reference level was already low as well. Projected effects of climate change are; again; strong
 465 for all soils, leading to additional reductions of Yw of appr. 30%.

466 *3.2.4. Indicators for the soil quality range.*

467 Figure 7 presents the physical soil quality ranges for ~~all the six soils~~soil series, expressed separately as
 468 bars for each of the ~~four~~climate periods. The (Ya/Yw) x100 index illustrates that ranges are significantly
 469 different. The upper limit is theoretically 100%. But Van Ittersum et al (2013) have suggested that an
 470 80% limit would perhaps be more realistic ~~and this limit is indicated in~~ Figure 7, ~~wher~~eranging to 100%.

471 shows the lower limits for the range ranges to vary from e.g. 35 (Longobarda) to 55 (Lazaretto) for the
 472 reference climate with other-values for the three phenoforms in between ~~and decrease~~. (Ya/Yw) x100
 473 decreases as ~~the~~ projected reaction to climate change (e.g. 20 for ~~Longobardo~~ Longobarda and 40 for
 474 Lazaretto). This provides important signals for the future.

475 As discussed, the presented ranges are soil specific and are based on hypothetical conditions associated
 476 with different forms of land degradation. Field research may well result in different ranges also possibly
 477 considering different soil degradation factors beyond compaction, surface runoff and erosion. Still,
 478 principles involved are identical. Ranges presented in Figure 7 represent a physical soil quality range that
 479 is characteristic for that particular type of soil. Actual values (Ya) will fit somewhere in this range and
 480 will thus indicate how far they are removed from the maximum and minimum value, thereby presenting
 481 a quantitative measure for soil physical health. This can not only be important for communication
 482 purposes but it also allows a judgment of the effects of different forms of degradation in different soils
 483 as well as potential for improvement.

484

485 **4. DISCUSSION**

486 Linking the soil quality and soil health discussion with the international research program on the yield
 487 gap allows direct and well researched expressions for crop yields, defining soil function 1, as discussed
 488 above. The potential yield (Yp) and water-limited yield (Yw) concepts apply worldwide and provide,
 489 therefore, a sound theoretical basis for a general soil quality/health classification, avoiding many local
 490 and highly diverse activities as reviewed by Büneman et al, (2017). Of course, different indicator crops
 491 will have to be defined for different areas in the world.

492 Linking soil quality and health to specific and well defined soil types is essential because soil types, such
 493 as the soil series presented in this paper, uniquely reflect soil forming processes in a landscape context.
 494 They provide much more information than just a collection of soil characteristics, such as texture, organic
 495 matter content and bulk density. They are well known to stakeholders and policy makers in many
 496 countries. A good example is the USA where State Soils have been defined.

497 Defining (semi-permanent) soil quality for specific soil types, in terms of a characteristic range of Yw
 498 values reflecting effects of different forms of land management, represents a quantification of the more
 499 traditional Soil Survey interpretations or land evaluations where soil performance was judged by
 500 qualitative, empirical criteria. (e.g. FAO, 2007, Bouma et al 2012).

501 In this exploratory study, hypothetical effects of three forms of soil degradation were tested. In reality,
 502 soil researchers should go to the field and assemble data for a given soil series as shown on soil maps,
 503 establishing a characteristic range of properties, following the example of Pulleman et al (2000) for a
 504 clay soil and Sonneveld et al, (2002) for a sand soil, but not restricting attention to %C, as in these two

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505 studies, but including at least bulk density measurements. This way, a characteristic series of Phenoforms
 506 can be established. Physical soil quality (~~based on the genoform for a given soil type=Genoform~~) has a
 507 characteristic range of Yw values, as shown in Figure 7. Soil physical health at any given time is reflected
 508 by the position of real Ya values within that range and can be expressed by a number $(Y_a/Y_w) \times 100$.

509 One could argue that this “range” acts as a “thermometer” for a particular type of soil allowing
 510 determination of the physical “health” of a given soil by the placement of Ya.
 511 ~~determination of the physical “health” of a given soil by the placement of Ya.~~ But calculating Yw has

512 implications beyond defining physical soil quality and health. ~~As discussed, Yw not only reflects~~
 513 the effects of soil moisture regimes but also assumes that chemical conditions for crop growth are
 514 optimal and that pests and diseases don’t occur. Defining Yw can thus function as a starting point
 515 of ~~the~~

516 a general soil quality/soil health discussion. As discussed, Yw assumes that nutrients, pests and diseases
 517 ~~don’t inhibit biomass production.~~ If Ya is lower than 80% of Yw the reasons must be found.

518 ~~Chemical conditions in the-~~ Is it lack of water, nutrients or occurrence of pests and diseases? Irrigation
 519 may be difficult to realize but fertility can be restored rather easily and many methods, biological or
 520 chemical, are available to combat pests and diseases. If Phenoforms would be included that consider
 521 different %C of surface soil that affect plant growth may be (as discussed above) , also low %C contents
 522 could be a reason, as may be unfavorable biological conditions or poor for relatively low Yw values. This
 523 would cover soil biological quality with %C acting as proxy value. This way, the Yw analysis can be a
 524 logical starting point for follow-up discussions defining appropriate forms of future soil management.

525 ~~Tillage practices, crop rotations or poor handling pests and diseases may be reasons as well. This will~~
 526 ~~cover soil functions 2, 3 and 6, as discussed above completing consideration of all soil functions.~~

527 This paper has focused on physical aspects but the proposed procedure has potential to extend the
 528 discussion to chemical and biological aspects, to be further explored in future. Rather than consider
 529 the physical, chemical and biological aspects separately, each with their own

530 ~~Indicators, indicators~~ as proposed by Moebius-Clune et al. (2016), following a logical and interconnected
 531 sequence considering first pedological, (soil types), and soil physical, (Yw) characterizations, to be
 532 followed by analysing chemical and ~~logical~~ biological aspects, that can possibly explain relatively low
 533 Ya values, could be more effective. This is the more relevant because definition of reproducible
 534 biological soil health parameters are still object of study (~~Wade et al., 2018~~) and ~~%C might be an~~

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~~acceptable proxy for the time being.~~(Wade et al., 2018) and %C might be an acceptable proxy for soil biology for the time being. Recent tests of current soil-health protocols have not resulted in adequately expressing soil conditions in North Carolina (Roper et al, 2017), indicating the need for further research as suggested in this paper.

5. CONCLUSIONS

1. Lack of widely accepted, operational criteria to express soil quality and soil health is a barrier for effective external communication of the importance of soil science
2. Using well defined soil types as “carriers” of information on soil quality and soil health can improve communication to stakeholders and the policy arena.
3. A universal system defining soil quality and soil health is needed based on reproducible scientific principles that can be applied all over the world, avoiding a multitude of different local systems. Models of the soil-water-plant-atmosphere system can fulfil this role.
4. Connecting with the international *yield gap* program, applying soil-water-plant-atmosphere simulation models, will facilitate cooperation with agronomists which is essential to quantify the important soil function 1: biomass production.

~~5. Cooperation and initiating a joint learning process with stakeholders and policy makers is essential to achieve acceptance of derived protocols.~~

~~6.5.~~The proposed system allows an extension of classical soil classification schemes, defining genoforms, by allowing estimates of effects of various forms of past and present soil management (phenoforms) within a given genoform that often strongly affects soil performance. Quantitative information thus obtained can improve current empirical and qualitative soil survey interpretations and land evaluation.

~~7.6.~~Rather than consider physical, chemical and biological aspects of soil quality and - health separately, a combined approach starting with pedological and soil physical aspects followed by chemical and biological aspects, all to be manipulated by management, is to be preferred.

~~8.7.~~Only the proposed modeling approach allows exploration of possible effects of climate change on future soil behaviour which is a necessity considering societal concerns and questions.

~~9.8.~~Field work, based on existing soil maps to select sampling locations for a given genoform, is needed to identify a characteristic range of phenoforms for a given genoform, which, in turn, can define a characteristic soil quality range by calculating Yw values.

568
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570
571 6 ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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576 work.

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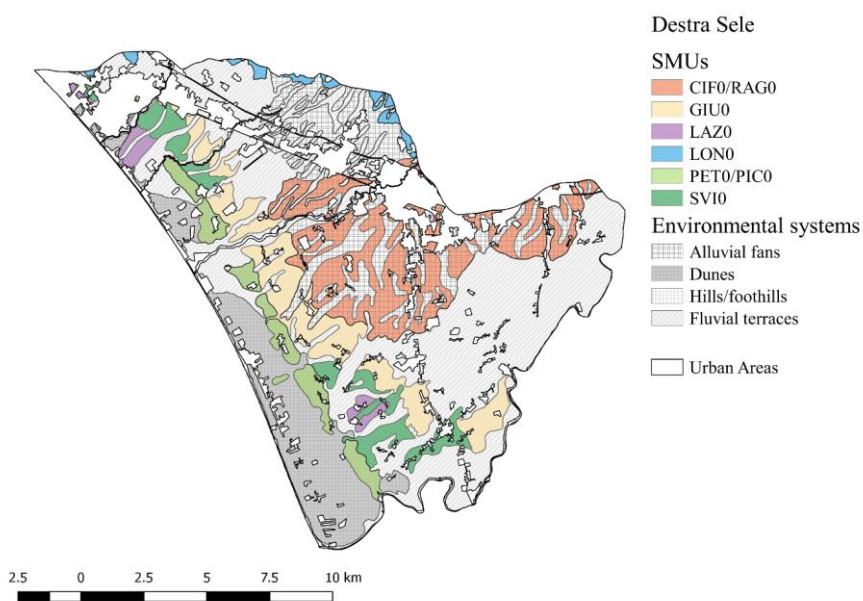
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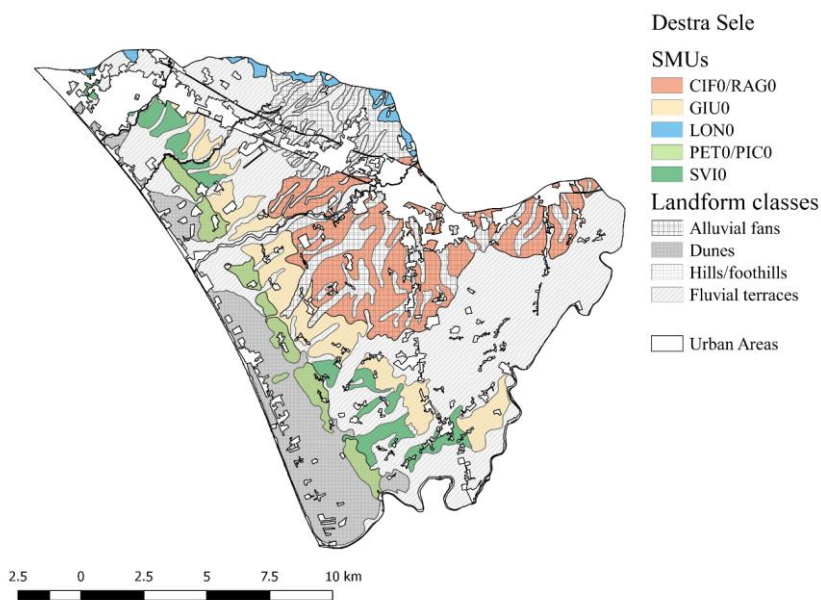
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786 **List of Figures**

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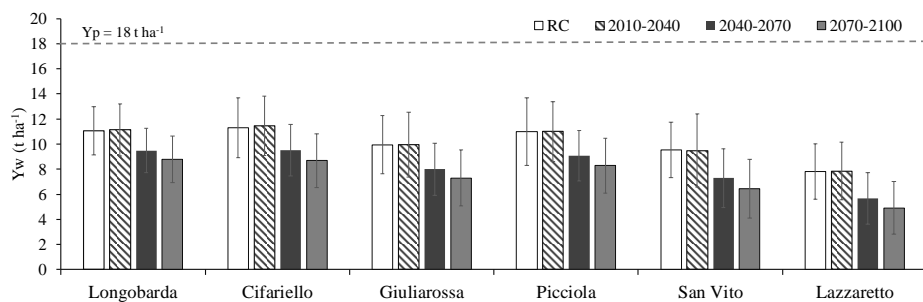
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Figure 1: The four landform classes of the “Destra Sele” area and the Soil Map Units (SMU) of selected six Soil Typological Units (STUs, which are similar to the USDA soil series) (CIF0/RAG0= Cifariello; GIU0= Giuliarossa; LAZ0= Lazzaretto; LON0= Longobarda; PET0/PIC0= Picciola; SVI= San Vito).

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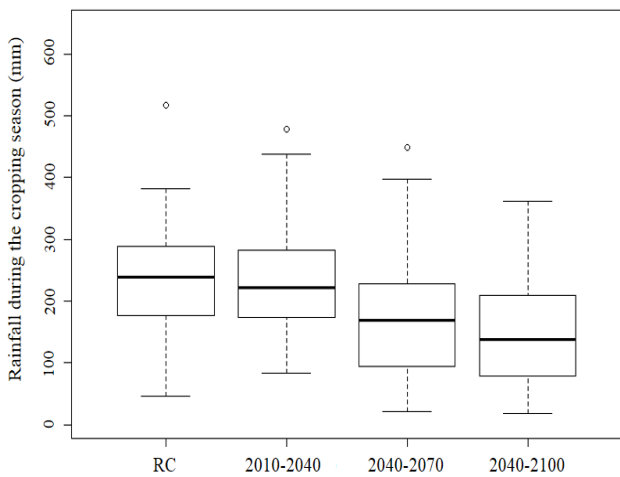
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Fig-Figure 2: Simulated Yw values for ~~six~~ all soil series, considering the reference climate (~~1976~~ RC: 1971-2005) and future climate ~~scenario-s~~ scenarios (RCP 8.5) expressed ~~in~~ for three time ~~windows~~ periods (2010-2040; 2040-2070; 2070-2100). The Yp (potential yield) is the ~~average~~ maize production ~~with~~ for the Destre Sele area assuming optimal irrigation ~~under~~ and fertilization and no pests and diseases. Yp is only calculated for the reference climate ~~calculated over all soil series.~~

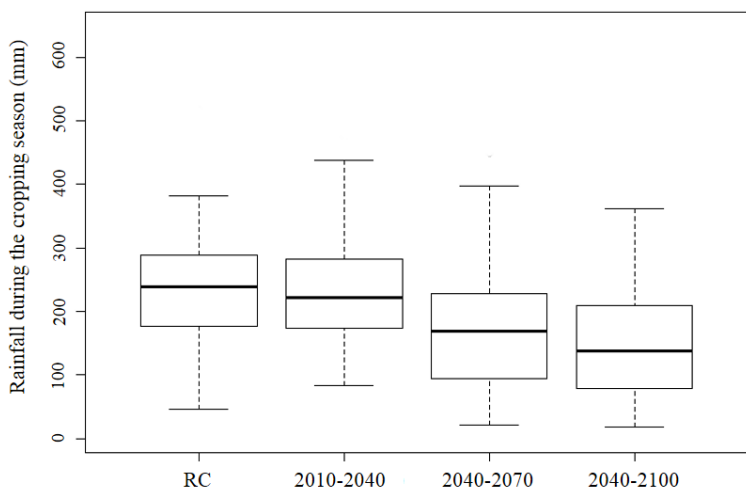
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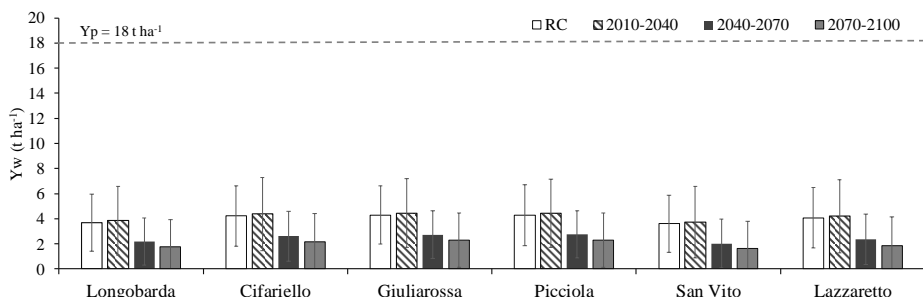
822 **Fig.**
823 **Figure 3:** Cumulated rainfall during the maize growing season (April–August) in the four climate
824 **periods.**
825 periods.

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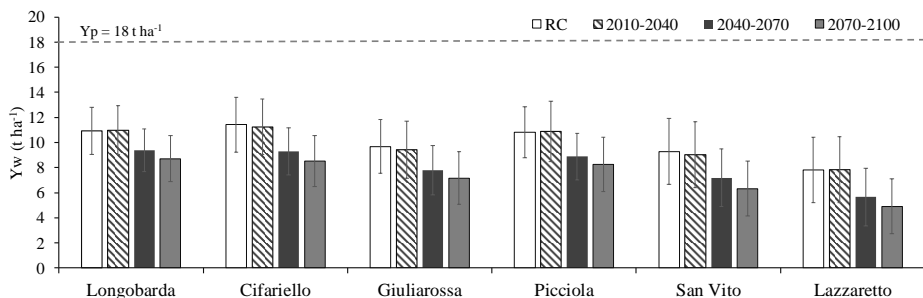
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828 **Fig-Figure 4:** The projected effects of simulated soil compaction on Yw **infor all the four climate**
 829 **periods, soil series** assuming the presence of a compacted plowlayer at 30 cm depth. **The Yp (potential**
 830 **yield) is the average production with optimal irrigation, under reference climate calculated over all soil**
 831 **series under reference soil conditions.** Other terms are explained in Figure 2.

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835 **Fig-Figure 5:** The projected effects of simulated surface runoff of water on Yw **infor all the four climate**
 836 **periods, occurring soil series.** **Runoff occurs when precipitation rates exceed rainfall intensity is higher than the**
 837 **infiltrative assumed in infiltrative capacity of the soil.** Other terms are explained in Figure 2.

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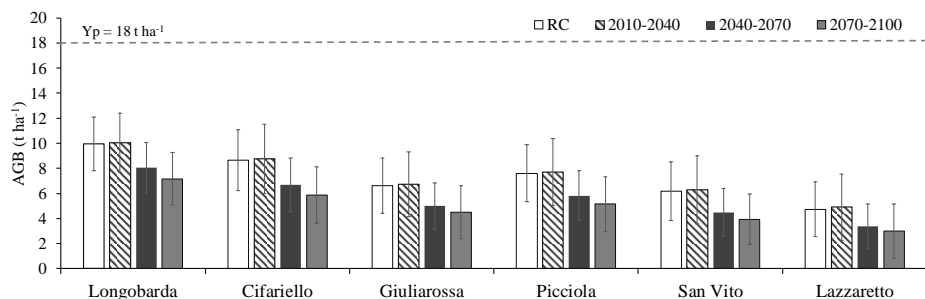
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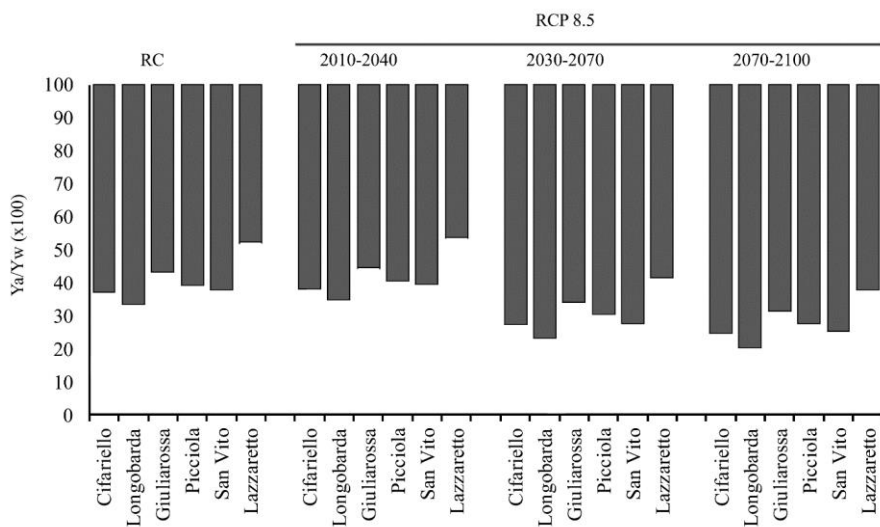
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848 Fig. Figure 6: The projected effects of simulated Yw following erosion, reducing to 20 cm the topsoil. Results are
 849 reported for the four climate on Yw for all the soil series. Other terms are explained in periods.
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857 Fig. 7. Range of soil physical quality indexes (Ya/Yw) x 100) for the six soils, expressed for four different
 858 climate periods.
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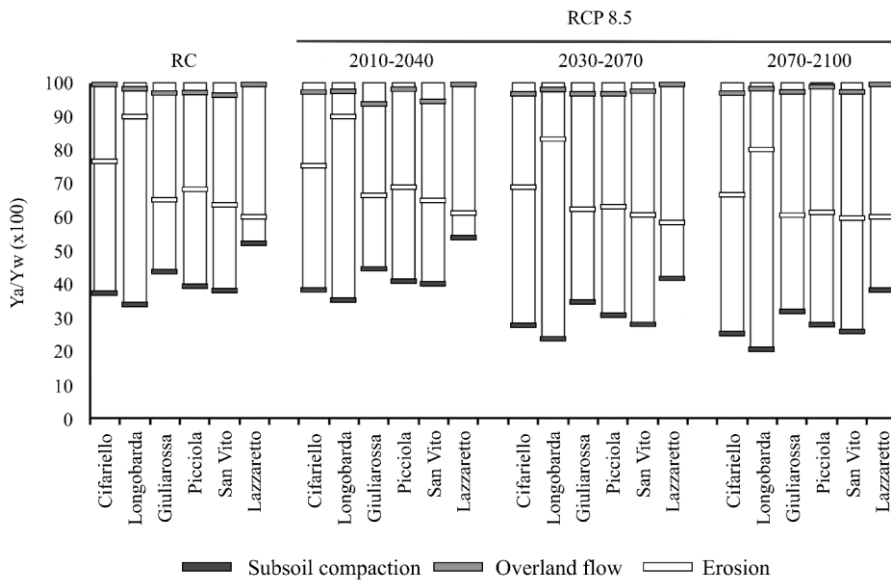
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869**List of Tables**

Tab. 1. Main soil features of selected soil series.

Env. Systems	SMU	STU	Soil family	Soil description		Texture			Hydrological properties				
				Horiz.	Depth (m)	sand (g 100g ⁻¹)	silty	clay	Θ _s (m ³ m ⁻³)	K ₀ (cm d ⁻¹)	α (1 cm ⁻¹)	l	n
Hills/foothills	LONO	Longobarda	Pachic Haploxerolls, fine loamy, mixed, thermic	Ap	0-0.5	33.0	40.6	26.4	0.46	27	0.04	-3.44	1.15
				Bw	0.5-1.5	21.7	48.9	29.4	0.61	69	0.02	-1.79	1.18
Alluvial fans	CIFO/ RAGO	Cifariello	Typic Haploxerepts, coarse loamy, mixed, thermic	Ap	0-0.6	33.0	49.5	17.5	0.42	18	0.03	-2.52	1.21
				Bw1	0.6-0.95	33.2	50.2	16.6	0.47	37	0.03	-2.14	1.20
				Bw2	0.95-1.6	29.8	52.2	18.0	0.50	49	0.03	-2.02	1.20
Fluvial Terraces	GIUO	Giularossa	Mollic Haploxeralf, fine, mixed, thermic	Ap	0-0.4	27.1	31.9	41.0	0.47	39	0.04	-3.72	1.13
				Bw	0.4-0.85	19.8	28.9	51.3	0.49	7	0.02	-1.28	1.10
				Bss	0.85-1.6	46.3	28.8	24.9	0.40	18	0.05	-2.75	1.16
	SVIO	San Vito	Typic Haploxererts fine, mixed, thermic	Ap	0-0.5	17.3	39.4	43.3	0.44	31	0.03	-3.58	1.15
				Bw	0.5-0.9	16.1	39.6	44.3	0.49	11	0.02	-3.35	1.09
				Bk	0.9-1.3	11.2	40.5	48.3	0.49	10	0.02	-2.52	1.10
LAZO	Lazzaretto	Typic Xeropsamments, mixed, thermic	Ap	0-0.45	75.3	12.8	11.9	0.38	77	0.07	-2.26	1.30	
			C	0.45- >0.65	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.34	123	0.08	2.04	1.85	
Dunes	PETO/ PICO	Picciola	Typic Haploxerepts, coarse loamy, mixed, thermic	Ap	0-0.6	33.3	34.7	32.0	0.48	36	0.04	-3.60	1.13
				Bw	0.6-0.95	30.5	41.2	28.3	0.44	18	0.03	-3.61	1.13
				2Bw	0.95-1.35	28.6	50.0	21.4	0.42	21	0.03	-2.77	1.17

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875**Figure 2.**



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878 Figure 7: Range of soil physical quality indexes (Ya/Yw) x 100 for all the soil series, expressing the
879 effects of different forms of soil degradation and climate change. The vertical bars for each type of soil
880 (the Genofom) represent a “Thermometer” indicating a characteristic range of values obtained by
881 establishing a series of Phenoforms, represented by their Yw values. Soil Quality for a given soil is thus
882 represented by a characteristic range of values. Soil Health is indicated by the particular location of an
883 actual Ya within this range.

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				Bw2	0.95-1.6	29.8	52.2	18.0	0.50	49	0.03	-2.02	1.20
Fluvial Terraces	GIUO	Giuliarossa	Mollic Haploxeralf, fine, mixed, thermic	Ap	0-0.4	27.1	31.9	41.0	0.47	39	0.04	-3.72	1.13
				Bw	0.4-0.85	19.8	28.9	51.3	0.49	7	0.02	-1.28	1.10
				Bss	0.85-1.6	46.3	28.8	24.9	0.40	18	0.05	-2.75	1.16
	SVI0	San Vito	Typic Haploxererts fine, mixed, thermic	Ap	0-0.5	17.3	39.4	43.3	0.44	31	0.03	-3.58	1.15
				Bw	0.5-0.9	16.1	39.6	44.3	0.49	11	0.02	-3.35	1.09
				Bk	0.9-1.3	11.2	40.5	48.3	0.49	10	0.02	-2.52	1.10
LAZ0	Lazzaretto	Typic Xeropsamments, mixed, thermic	Ap	0-0.45	75.3	12.8	11.9	0.38	77	0.07	-2.26	1.30	
			C	0.45- >0.65	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.34	123	0.08	2.04	1.85	
Dunes	PETO/ PICO	Picciola	Typic Haploxerepts, coarse loamy, mixed, thermic	Ap	0-0.6	33.3	34.7	32.0	0.48	36	0.04	-3.60	1.13
				Bw	0.6-0.95	30.5	41.2	28.3	0.44	18	0.03	-3.61	1.13
				2Bw	0.95-1.35	28.6	50.0	21.4	0.42	21	0.03	-2.77	1.17

Codice campo modificato

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Formattato: Allineato al centro

Tab. 2. Main performance indexes of SWAP application in the three soils (Udic Calcicustert, Fluventic Haplustept and Typic Calcicustoll) under maize cultivation (data from "Nitrati Campania" regional project, Regione Campania, 2008.).

Soil	RMSE*	R di Pearson*	n° of soil depths meas.	number of data
Udic Calcicustert	0.043 (± 0.03)	0.716 (± 0.11)	7	1964
Typic Calcicustoll	0.044 (± 0.03)	0.72 (± 0.13)	6	190
Fluventic Haplustept	0.031 (± 0.02)	0.821 (± 0.09)	6	318

* (average value \pm standard deviation)

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Formattato: Allineato al centro

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