

Using Available Soil Data to Populate Models to Address Public Concerns

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INTRODUCTION, OBJECTIVES

Simulation modeling provides a feasible alternative to field monitoring when large scale environmental concerns are to be addressed. However, various model inputs exist that cannot be collected – at least not in a feasible manner - at large scale. Soil physical and hydraulic properties are among those. In such cases simulation models mostly rely on using information collected from small-scale (point) samples. This practice, however, raises the need for an accurate and reliable up-scaling protocol. Water quality assessments, crop simulation studies and projects/programs like CEAP (Conservation Effects Assessment Project) and TMDL (Total Maximum Daily Load) typically utilize such up-scaled information. We provide an overview of potential pitfalls while up-scaling, with the objective to call attention to potential misuse of publicly available soil data.

PROBLEM DEFINITION

- There is no measurement technique or pedotransfer function (PTF) that will directly provide effective soil properties at large scale – therefore some up-scaling protocol is required.

- There are many potential pitfalls en route to obtaining large scale soil information.

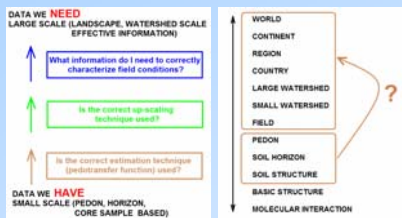


Figure 1. The up-scaling dilemma.

Figure 2. Diagram of scales of interest in soils related research and applications. (Adapted from Bouma and Hoosbeek, 1998)

Potential sources of uncertainty (after Shirmohammadi et al. 2006):

- input variables: measurement technique, expertise, heterogeneity
- model algorithm: - empirical – portability
- theoretical – calibration/validation
- model calibration/validation: data uncertainty
- application scale: - model procedure consistent with application scale?
- spatial data used – aggregation/generalization

POTENTIAL PITFALLS

Is the right data set and approach used to construct and use pedotransfer functions (PTFs)?

- biased database (e.g. temperate vs. tropical climate)
- incorrect/insufficient PTF type (e.g. complexity of equation)
- incorrect input selection (e.g. lack of influential properties)
- differences in measurement methods (e.g. definitions, methodology)
- differences in classification (e.g. FAO vs. ISSS particle-size distribution)

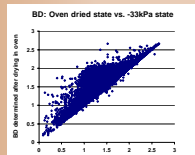


Figure 3. BD determined under different states of soil wetness. Data from NRCS NSSC.

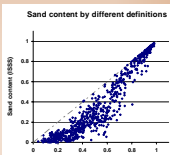


Figure 4. Soil texture (sand content) according to different definitions. Data from the HUNSOIDA database, Hungary (Nemes et al. 2002).

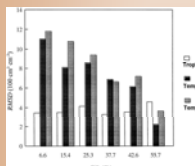


Figure 5. Root mean square error (RMSE) of estimators by a tropical and two temperate climate PTFs for tropical soils, grouped by 10% intervals of silt content. (adapted from Tomasella et al. 2000.)

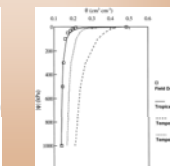


Figure 6. Comparison of performance of a tropical and two temperate climate PTFs for tropical soils. An example water retention curve. (adapted from Tomasella et al. 2000.)

Do we know the true distribution of properties?

- rare events may actually control most of the domain's effective behavior, but their distribution may not be known

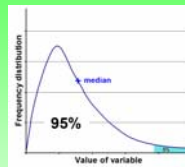


Figure 7. Distribution of properties within a domain.

How should we aggregate properties to represent larger scale behavior?

- Weighted average?
- Dominant soil type?
- Geometric vs. arithmetic mean?
- Correlation between soil hydraulic characteristic parameters are reported differently

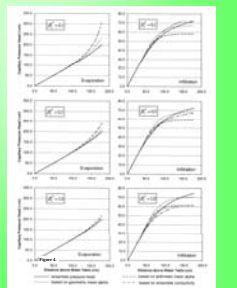


Figure 8. Capillary pressure head vs. distance above water table. Left: Evaporation, given a steady rate of 0.25 mm. Right: Infiltration, given a steady rate of 0.25 Ks for the Brooks-Corey model. (Zhu and Mohanty, 2002).

Do we know what property we really need?

- 33kPa water retention – or in fact that at any other fixed pressure – does not seem to be a uniformly good approximation of field capacity

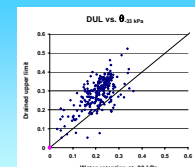


Figure 9. Field measured DUL vs. lab determined -33 kPa water retention for 260 samples – a data subset of Ritchie et al. (1987) was used.

- Laboratory measured saturated hydraulic conductivity (Ks) will not necessarily be a good approximation of the effective Ks term in the Green-Ampt infiltration formula (after Rawls et al. 1993):

(a) - presence of macroporosity

$$K_s(\text{eff}) = A K_s$$

$$A = \exp(2.82 - 0.099 \text{ Sand} + 1.94 \text{ BD}) \quad \text{-- range land}$$

$$A = \exp(0.26 - 0.032 \text{ Sand} + 0.04 \text{ Clay} - 0.032 \text{ BD}) \quad \text{-- agricultural areas}$$

(but $A \geq 1$)

(b) - surface crust formation

$$K_s(\text{eff}) = K_s \frac{SC}{1 + (\psi_s/L)}$$

$L = \text{depth of wetting front [cm]}$
 ψ_s and SC as in Table 1

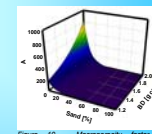


Figure 10. Macroporosity factor for range lands (after Rawls et al. 1993)

Soil texture	Matrix potential depth ψ_s [cm]	Reduction factor for wetland ψ_s [cm]	Reduction factor for wetland ψ_s [cm]
Loamy sand	3	0.59	0.59
Sandy loam	4	0.61	0.61
Loam	7	0.62	0.62
Silt loam	10	0.63	0.63
Sandy clay loam	5	0.65	0.65
Clay loam	8	0.62	0.62
Silty clay loam	10	0.74	0.74
Silty clay	11	0.73	0.73
Clay	9	0.72	0.72

Table 1. Mean steady-state matrix potential depth ψ_s across surface soils.

Source: Rawls et al. 1993

Additional concerns:

- Heterogeneity of soil units (related: Table 2)
- Dynamic soil properties (e.g. BD, Ks) (related: Tables 3 and 4)

Table 2. Simulated water deficit (mm) for the vegetation in the period May 15 - October 15 - under different irrigation schemes - for 3 points (profiles) within a field near Dunabeszeg, Hungary. (Adapted from Nemes et al. 2002)

Irrigation scheduling scenario	Profile 1	Profile 2	Profile 3
no irrigation	144.88 (22.46)	213.66 (49.18)	172.84 (34.62)
field observations based scheduling	317.26 (23.64)	144.44 (28.51)	14.17 (0.86)
limitation based scheduling	286.19 (16.71)	188.90 (34.52)	2.26 (0.39)

Table 3. Variation of BD [g cm⁻³] during the season and by management type on a sandy Loam brown forest soil near Godócs, Hungary (Adapted from Farkas 2002). **Non-significant values**: significance between treatments (vertical comparison); **Significant values**: significance between dates (horizontal comparison).

Tillage	depth: 5-10 cm			depth: 15-20 cm		
	Mean	Stdev	Max	Mean	Stdev	Max
no till	1.86 aA	1.68 aB	1.59 aB	1.63 aA	1.63 aA	1.63 aA
no till + ph	1.37 bA	1.46 bB	1.43 bB	1.29 bA	1.43 bB	1.23 aC
inversion + ph	1.27 bA	1.29 aB	1.23 bB	1.42 aA	1.46 aA	1.23 bB
disking	1.69 aB	1.73 aB	1.79 aB	1.62 aB	1.77 aB	1.69 aC
inversion + disk	1.53 aA	1.35 aB	1.45 aB	1.52 aA	1.49 aB	1.23 bB

Table 4. Variation of Ks [mm d⁻¹] during the season and by management type on a sandy Loam brown forest soil near Godócs, Hungary (Adapted from Farkas 2002).

Tillage	15-Mar			28-Apr			12-Jun			10-Jul			25-Aug			Mean
	Mean	Stdev	Max	Mean	Stdev	Max	Mean	Stdev	Max	Mean	Stdev	Max	Mean			
no till	278	888	1144	242	1144	489	994	778	441	248	213	576	576			
inversion + ph	956	874	461	508	230	576	163	319	883	149	516	364	364			
inversion + disk	132	446	1764	185	379	624										

RESEARCH NEEDS

- Typical errors (bias and variance) for widespread sampling methods (e. g. 33 kPa to infer field capacity) have to be summarized.
- Propagation of those errors through widespread hydrologic and crop models needs to be evaluated (e.g. errors in Ksat may not be important for a crop model).
- Functional evaluation of coarse scale models has to include the uncertainty caused by using publicly available data as inputs.
- It is not known currently how the hydrologic information uncertainty may affect risk-informed management and policy decisions.

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