



Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

Science of the Total Environment

journal homepage: [www.elsevier.com/locate/scitotenv](http://www.elsevier.com/locate/scitotenv)

# Simplifying field-scale assessment of spatiotemporal changes of soil salinity

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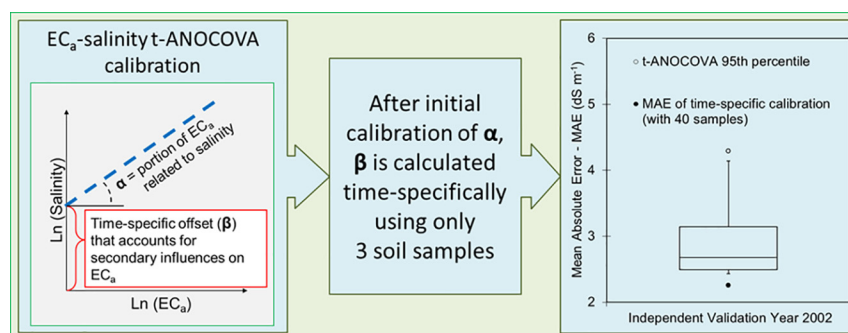
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## HIGHLIGHTS

- Calibrated apparent electrical conductivity ( $EC_a$ ) can be used to estimate soil salinity.
- A t-ANOCOVA calibration was used to monitor salinity using limited soil sampling.
- The t-ANOCOVA calibration was compared to established  $EC_a$  calibration approaches.
- The t-ANOCOVA calibration was reliable, especially at low salinity values.

## GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT



## ARTICLE INFO

### Article history:

Received 6 December 2016

Received in revised form 15 February 2017

Accepted 16 February 2017

Available online xxxx

### Keywords:

Soil spatial variability

Soil salinity

Electromagnetic induction

Mapping

Monitoring

## ABSTRACT

Monitoring soil salinity ( $EC_e$ ) is important for planning and implementing agronomic and irrigation practices. Salinity can be measured through soil sampling directed by geospatial measurements of apparent soil electrical conductivity ( $EC_a$ ). Using data from a long-term (1999–2012) monitoring study at a 32.4-ha saline field located in California, USA, two established field-scale approaches to map and monitor soil salinity using  $EC_a$  are reviewed: one that relies on a single  $EC_a$  survey to identify locations that can be repeatedly sampled to infer the frequency distribution of  $EC_e$ ; and another based on repeated  $EC_a$  surveys that are calibrated, each time, to  $EC_e$  estimation using ground-truth data from soil samples. The reviewed approaches are very accurate and reliable, but require extensive soil sampling. Subsequently, we propose a novel approach – temporal analysis of covariance (t-ANOCOVA) modeling – that results in accurate spatiotemporal salinity estimations using  $EC_a$  surveys with a significant reduction in the number of soil samples needed for calibration of  $EC_a$  to  $EC_e$ . In this modeling framework, the  $EC_e$ - $EC_a$  relationship is described with a log-transformed linear function. The regression slope indicates the magnitude of the contribution of  $EC_e$  to  $EC_a$  and is assumed to remain constant over time, while the intercept represents the secondary factors influencing  $EC_a$  that are not related to  $EC_e$  (e.g., soil tillage). Once the t-ANOCOVA slope is established for a field, in subsequent surveys as few as three soil samples are used to estimate a time-specific t-ANOCOVA intercept so that  $EC_a$  measurements can be converted to  $EC_e$  estimations. Our results suggest that this approach is reliable at

**Abbreviations:** t-ANOCOVA, temporal analysis of covariance;  $EC_a$ , apparent soil electrical conductivity ( $dS\ m^{-1}$ );  $EC_e$ , electrical conductivity of the saturation extract ( $dS\ m^{-1}$ );  $EMI_h$ , electromagnetic induction measurement in the horizontal coil configuration;  $EMI_v$ , electromagnetic induction measurement in the vertical coil configuration; MAE, mean absolute error; OLS, ordinary least squares; RSSD, response surface sampling design; SSMU, site-specific management units; TSC, time-specific calibration; WSJV, west side of the San Joaquin Valley.

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<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2017.02.136>  
0048-9697/Published by Elsevier B.V.

Please cite this article as: Scudiero, E., et al., Simplifying field-scale assessment of spatiotemporal changes of soil salinity, Sci Total Environ (2017), <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2017.02.136>

low salinity values (i.e., where common crops can grow). The t-ANOCOVA approach requires further validation before real-world implementations, but represents a significant step towards the use of EC<sub>a</sub> mobile sensor technology for inexpensive soil salinity monitoring at high temporal resolution.

Published by Elsevier B.V.

## 1. Introduction

Managing agricultural soil salinity is crucial to sustaining future food production. Soil salinity strongly limits global crop yields (FAO and ITPS, 2015). Over 20% of global irrigated farmland is affected by soil salinity (Tanji and Wallender, 2012; Wicke et al., 2011). More than half of that 20% belongs to four countries: China, India, Pakistan, and the United States of America (FAO and ITPS, 2015). Salinity is typically managed by irrigating soils beyond the consumptive water use of plants, leaching from the root zone soluble salts that would otherwise harm plant growth (e.g., sodium, chloride) due to osmotic effects, specific ion toxicity effects, nutrient imbalances, and influences on tilth and permeability. Reliable information on salinity levels of the soil root-zone (e.g., 0 to 0.9–1.5 m depth) is essential for developing salinity management strategies, particularly when water resources are limited.

The complex spatial patterns of salinity usually found on agricultural lands (Lesch et al., 1992) make it difficult to map salinity using grid or random sampling since tremendous numbers of samples (e.g., hundreds per field) are necessary. Clearly, there is a cost issue related to monitoring the spatiotemporal changes of soil salinity at field scale (e.g., <1 km<sup>2</sup>) over multiple fields. By using soil apparent electrical conductivity (EC<sub>a</sub>, dS m<sup>-1</sup>) measurements from mobile on-the-go sensors, expenses can be notably lowered (Lesch, 2005). Soil EC<sub>a</sub> is influenced by several properties, including: water content, texture, and soil salinity (Corwin and Lesch, 2005; Doolittle and Brevik, 2014). To estimate salinity, EC<sub>a</sub> measurements must be site-specifically calibrated to ground-truth measured soil salinity, generally measured as electrical conductivity of the saturation extract (EC<sub>e</sub>), by establishing a linear model between EC<sub>e</sub> and EC<sub>a</sub> (Lesch, 2012). Because it can be easily mobilized and coupled with GPS systems, EC<sub>a</sub> is measured intensively with tens of thousands of sampling locations per field.

Geospatial EC<sub>a</sub> measurements serve as a surrogate to characterize the spatial variability of soil properties correlated to EC<sub>a</sub> at a given site (Corwin and Lesch, 2003; Corwin and Lesch, 2005). In instances where salinity dominates the EC<sub>a</sub> measurement (i.e., EC<sub>a</sub> > 2 dS m<sup>-1</sup>), the spatial variability of EC<sub>a</sub> will represent the spatial variability of soil salinity (Corwin and Lesch, 2013). Therefore, the EC<sub>a</sub> surveys can be used to select representative (in terms of inferential statistics) soil sampling locations that will reflect the range and spatial variation in georeferenced EC<sub>a</sub> measurements (Corwin and Lesch, 2005). Model-based sampling design algorithms, such as the response surface sampling design (RSSD) (Lesch et al., 2000; Lesch, 2005), can be used to identify the optimal representative soil sampling locations. The RSSD identifies soil sampling locations so that the frequency statistics of the ancillary information used, be it EC<sub>a</sub> (Lesch, 2005) or remote sensing imagery (Fitzgerald et al., 2006) or radar data (Guo et al., 2015), is fully represented. Concurrently, the RSSD maximizes the distance between selected soil sampling locations. This latter step is directed to avoid (short-scale) autocorrelation of ordinary least squares (OLS) regression residuals (Hengl et al., 2003; Lesch and Corwin, 2008).

The first objective of this manuscript is to discuss two established approaches in which geospatial measurements of EC<sub>a</sub> are used to monitor soil salinity at field scale. The first methodology consists of using an initial EC<sub>a</sub> survey to identify representative soil sampling locations that are sampled for EC<sub>e</sub> over time at selected time intervals. The other consists of surveying the field for EC<sub>a</sub> at each sampling time and then calibrating the sensor readings using soil samples taken at the time of the EC<sub>a</sub> survey. If the spatial EC<sub>a</sub> patterns are unchanged, then the sample locations are the same as those determined in the first EC<sub>a</sub> survey. If

the spatial EC<sub>a</sub> patterns have changed, then new sample locations are identified that reflect the range and spatial variability of the new EC<sub>a</sub> survey.

The second objective is to propose a novel salinity monitoring approach based on the assumption of temporal covariance (t-ANOCOVA) of the EC<sub>e</sub>-EC<sub>a</sub> relationship, which should allow reducing the number of soil samples needed at each monitoring time. The t-ANOCOVA is a temporal application of the ANOCOVA EC<sub>e</sub>-EC<sub>a</sub> calibration model presented by Corwin and Lesch (2014) and later validated by Corwin and Lesch (2016) and Scudiero et al. (2016). After an initial calibration that requires from a half to several dozen soil samples per field depending on the extent of the variability, the t-ANOCOVA approach only requires as few as three soil samples to calibrate the EC<sub>a</sub> measurements taken at subsequent monitoring times.

## 2. Theoretical background

### 2.1. Temporal covariance of the EC<sub>e</sub>-EC<sub>a</sub> relationship

Apparent soil electrical conductivity measurements can be expressed as a multiplicative function of salinity, water content, and soil tortuosity, which depends on several soil properties, including soil texture, particle pore distribution, density and particle geometry, and organic matter content. According to Archie's Law (Archie, 1942), and other similar models (e.g., Rhoades et al. [1976]), EC<sub>a</sub> may be expressed as a function of pore-water salinity (EC<sub>p</sub>), soil water content, and other soil-specific parameters:

$$EC_a = \frac{EC_p \times \phi^m \times S^n}{k} \quad (1)$$

where  $\phi$  is soil porosity,  $S$  is the relative saturation, and  $k$ ,  $m$ , and  $n$  are fitting parameters that are dependent on soil texture, organic carbon content, and other physical and chemical properties (Allred et al., 2008). However, Eq. (1) is not applicable when soil is too dry because the water pathways for electrical conductivity are not continuous. As a rule of thumb, Corwin and Lesch (2013) suggest that volumetric water content should be at least 70% of field capacity when the EC<sub>a</sub> survey is carried out.

Because the pore-water electrical conductivity, EC<sub>p</sub>, can generally be expressed as a linear function of the total ion content in the soil (Rhoades et al., 1989), salinity (EC<sub>e</sub>) can be expressed as a function of EC<sub>a</sub> with a multiplicative error model (Corwin and Lesch, 2014):

$$EC_e = \beta \times EC_a^\alpha \times \varepsilon^* \quad (2)$$

where  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are coefficients that subsume  $\phi$ ,  $S$ ,  $k$ ,  $m$ , and  $n$ ; and  $\varepsilon^*$  is a multiplicative error component. In Eq. (2), the error component is a function of the ratio between EC<sub>e</sub> and the explanatory term of the equation (Baskerville, 1972; Tian et al., 2013).

After a log transformation of Eq. (1), the EC<sub>a</sub>-EC<sub>e</sub> relationship is:

$$\ln(EC_e) = \ln(\beta) + \alpha \times \ln(EC_a) + \varepsilon \quad (3)$$

where  $\varepsilon$  is a random additive error component, equal to  $\ln(\varepsilon^*)$ . Eq. (3) can be parameterized using an OLS approach, provided the underlying assumptions (including residuals being normally distributed and spatially independent) are respected (Lesch and Corwin, 2008).

The influence of salinity on EC<sub>a</sub> readings is reflected in the slope ( $\alpha$ ) of Eq. (3). The effects not due to salinity but to other soil properties (e.g.,

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