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# Identification of Subsoil Compaction Using Electrical Conductivity and Spectral Data Across Varying Soil Moisture Regimes in Utah

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## IDENTIFICATION OF SUBSOIL COMPACTION USING ELECTRICAL

## CONDUCTIVITY AND SPECTRAL DATA ACROSS VARYING

## SOIL MOISTURE REGIMES IN UTAH

by

Jay M. Payne

### A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

#### MASTER OF SCIENCE

in

Soil Science

Approved:

Dr. V. Philip Rasmussen Dr. Ralph E. Whitesides Major Professor Committee Member

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> UTAH STATE UNIVERSITY Logan, Utah

> > 2008

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#### **ABSTRACT**

Identification of Subsoil Compaction Using Electrical Conductivity and Spectral

Data Across Varying Soil Moisture Regimes in the Intermountain West

by

Jay M. Payne, Master of Science

Utah State University, 2008

Major Professor: Dr. V. Philip Rasmussen Department: Plants, Soils, and Climate

Subsoil compaction is a major yield limiting factor for most agricultural crops. Tillage is the most efficient method to quickly treat compacted subsoil, but it is also expensive, increases erosion, and accelerates nutrient cycling.

The use of real-time electrical conductivity (EC) and near-infrared (NIR) reflectance values to differentiate compacted areas from uncompacted areas was studied. This method has potential to reduce monetary and time investments inherent in traditional grid sampling and the resultant deep tillage of an entire field. EC and NIR reflectance are both very sensitive to spatial variability of soil attributes.

The objective of this research was to determine whether the amount of soil moisture affects the efficacy of EC and NIR spectroscopy (at 2151.9 nm) in identifying subsoil compaction through correlation analysis, and also to determine whether a

minimum level of compaction was necessary for these same methods to detect compaction in three different soil textures across a variable water gradient.

Bulk density measurements were taken in late 2007 from plots traversing an induced soil moisture gradient, and low, medium, and high levels of compaction at three locations with different soil textures. A Veris Technologies (Salina, KS) Near-Infrared Spectrophotometer equipped with an Electrical Conductivity Surveyor 3150 was used to measure and geo-reference EC and NIR reflectance data over the same plots. Analysis of the data for a correlation between compaction (bulk density values) and EC, as well as compaction and NIR reflectance, produced clear results.

It was found that electrical conductivity is not significantly different between compacted or uncompacted soils even when tested at all moisture extremes and in different soil textures in Utah. Also, NIR spectroscopy was unsuccessful at identifying subsoil compaction because all tested procedures to induce a spectrometer into the soil resulted in changes the physical properties of the soil.

(89 pages)

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Ultimately, I thank my wife, Ilene. Her love, patience, and support are more than I could ever wish for.

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#### **INTRODUCTION**

 The average farm size in the United States has nearly doubled within the last 50 years. At the same time, farmed acreage has decreased. This demands higher yields from less acres to maintain production levels (USDA, 2007). Farmers now need larger equipment in order to optimize efficiency and treat more acreage in a shorter amount of time. As shown below, U.S. producers in general have adapted to increase production, the management practices used have, in some cases, created new challenges. Subsoil compaction is one result of the use of larger tractors and implements and the practice of intense tillage.



**Figure 1. Total United States farmed area and average farm size for 1956-2006 (USDA, 2007).** 

 Subsoil compaction has negative effects on crop establishment, growth, and yield. Yield reductions of up to 38% have been documented in wheat (*Triticum aestivum L.*) and up to 50% in maize (*Zea mays L*.) (Sidhu and Duiker, 2006). While the negative impacts of soil compaction are significant, these effects are normally short-lived because subsequent tillage can alleviate compacted conditions.

However, tillage also has detrimental effects on soils. While it can alleviate compaction in some cultivated areas, tillage also causes compaction in other parts of the soil profile. Tillage increases soil erosion potential, accelerates loss of soil organic matter (SOM) in the surface layers, and causes a flush of soil nutrients by accelerating natural nutrient cycling. This results in increased fertilization needs, and increases labor and equipment costs. To remedy this conflict between benefits and drawbacks of tillage, some producers use conservation tillage methods. Conservation tillage is any tillage and planting system that maintains at least 30 percent of the soil surface covered by residue after planting to reduce soil erosion by water (CTIC, 1996). Where soil erosion by wind is the primary concern, any system that maintains the equivalent of at least 1000 pounds per acre of flat, small grain residue on the surface during the critical wind erosion period is considered conservation tillage. The type of tillage operations prior to and at planting affects the amount of residue on the surface (CTIC, 1996).

 Precision agriculture, or site-specific agriculture, is the science of using technology to solve agricultural problems through a better understanding of spatial and temporal variability of agronomic attributes. Once understood, site-specific agriculture is used to "treat the soil, not the field." It has the potential to alter decision making in agricultural production and to simultaneously achieve the objectives of enhancing

conservation tillage inputs and efficiency, reducing environmental pollution, increasing farm profits, and safeguarding a sustainable agriculture industry. There is a great need to develop site-specific tillage sensors and practices that can rapidly identify subsoil compaction (Srinivasan, 2006). Information about the location of compacted areas would allow a producer to employ the beneficial effects of tillage to compacted areas without the detrimental effects and costs of treating entire fields. Site-specific tillage involves delivering prescribed treatments to affected areas only. This reduces labor, maintenance, and fuel costs while optimizing an established conservation tillage system. The amount of energy conserved, and therefore money saved, by deep tilling only where it is needed, is very significant to a producer (Mouazen and Ramon, 2005).

 Current applications of real-time sensor data does not include a method to rapidly identify subsoil compaction. Electrical conductivity through the bulk soil is known to correlate well with changing soil characteristics including soil salinity, clay content, cation exchange capacity (CEC), clay mineralogy, soil pore size and distribution, and soil moisture content and temperature (McNeill, 1992; Rhoades et al., 1999; Sudduth et al., 2003). Rhoades et al.,(1989) developed a controversial model claiming electrical conductivity uses compacted soil particles as one of three electrical pathways through the bulk soil mass. Several researchers have attempted to define the influence of this electrical pathway but have not been able to isolate it from less resistant routes for EC through the soil.

Near-infrared reflectance spectroscopy (NIRS) is another measurement that is highly sensitive to changing soil physical and chemical attributes. It is well documented that NIRS can be used to classify moisture content, total C, total N, particle-size

distribution, CEC, pH, extractable Ca, K, Mg, and potentially mineralizable N (Chang et al., 2001; Shepherd and Walsh, 2002; Nanni and Demattê, 2006).

This project attempted to create conditions where the electrical pathway on the compacted soil particles would be the least resistant of the three routes through bulk soil. If strong correlations exist between EC and subsoil compaction, in-situ EC sensors could be used to rapidly identify subsoil compaction zones. These would be used in sitespecific tillage management systems. In addition, near-infrared reflectance (NIR) values were compared with soil bulk density to establish whether the measurements of a nearinfrared spectrometer will correlate to compacted soil conditions over variable water content, compaction levels, and textures at three sites in the Intermountain West.

 It was hypothesized that measured bulk electrical conductivity would increase as compaction, represented by soil bulk density, increased. Further, we felt this relationship would only exist where induced compaction by wheel traffic and uniform tillage had occurred in the driest extremes of the soil moisture gradients that would be created. Finally, we felt that this effect would be more evident in sandier soils at Greenville and Kaysville. This is because sand has less inherent capacity to conduct electrical current.

 It was also hypothesized that near-infrared reflectance would directly correlate with compaction in the induced compaction treatments in dry soils. This was hypothesized to be due to the effects of geometry of the soil on NIR reflectance when the soil was compacted. Finally, we investigated whether influences of soil moisture would confound reflectance values when compared to a uniformly dry soil.

A statistical analysis of variance (ANOVA) was carried out for each combination sampled. The null hypothesis of this test states that the sample population means for the

bulk density measurements will be similar to the population means for EC or reflectance values of the same plot. Acceptance of the null hypothesis signifies that there is no difference between the measured values, or, that EC and NIR reflectance cannot be used with any confidence to identify subsoil compaction. Rejection of the null hypothesis implies that the population means are not equal, or, that subsoil compaction can be identified through a regression equation that predicts bulk density with an acceptable degree of confidence.

#### **Null and Alternative Hypotheses**

 $H_O: \mu_{BD}$  Shallow =  $\mu_{EC}$  Shallow =  $\mu_{EC}$  Deep =  $\mu_{NIR}$  $\mu$ <sub>BD Deep</sub> =  $\mu$ <sub>EC Shallow</sub> =  $\mu$ <sub>EC Deep</sub> =  $\mu$ <sub>NIR</sub>

*H<sub>A</sub>*:  $\mu_i \neq \mu_j$  for some *i* and *j* 

#### **OBJECTIVES**

 The primary objective was to determine whether site-specific agricultural sensors measuring bulk soil electrical conductivity and near-infrared reflectance could be used to effectively identify subsoil compaction in the Intermountain West. Included in this main objective were four questions:

- 1. Does the amount of soil moisture influence the level at which the conductive pathway will follow compacted soil particles?
- 2. Is there a minimum level of compaction required to be able to detect subsoil compaction utilizing apparent soil electrical conductivity values?
- 3. Does a relationship exist between soil compaction and soil texture (found at different experimental plots) that could help to identify areas with subsoil compaction?
- 4. Do NIR reflectance values (2151.9 nm) correlate to known areas of compacted subsoil?

#### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### **SOIL PROPERTIES**

#### **Soil Compaction**

Compacted soil is a yield-limiting physical characteristic commonly found in cultivated agricultural fields. Soil compaction is the process by which the soil particles are rearranged to decrease void space, thereby increasing bulk density (SSSA, 1997). Bulk density is the most commonly used figure to describe compacted soil. Hillel (2004) defines bulk density  $(\rho_b)$  as the ratio of the mass of solids  $(M_s)$  to the total soil volume  $(V_t)$ . It is normally expressed in terms of g cm<sup>-3</sup>.

$$
\rho_b = M_s / V_t = M_s / (V_{soil} + V_{air} + V_{water})
$$

Soil bulk density values are most useful when comparing compaction levels at two or more locations or depths. Because plants tolerate and thrive on different levels of soil bulk density, the severity of compacted conditions is impossible to define within typical values. Optimal conditions are subject to the ideal range of soil bulk density best suited for the crop in question. Bulk density is also an elusive characteristic to measure, considering the extreme variability that exists in every soil profile and in any sampling scheme. Changes in texture, structure, moisture, soil strength, the presence of rock, etc., all affect the quality of the sample.

Soil compaction affects physical, chemical, and biological properties of the soil as well as impeding root growth and increasing a given soil's erosion potential. The zone of compaction is much greater than just where the tire or blade touches the soil (Soehne,

1958). The product of the vertical component of surface stress with the surface area on which it acts is equal to the total weight carried on any wheel or track. Theory suggests that the total axle load is a much more significant factor in controlling deep soil compaction than the surface contact pressure (Abu-Hamdeh et al., 2000). Soehne (1958) studied the effects of different load distributions and the resulting pressures on the soil at increasing depths and concluded that, "the pressure in the upper soil layer is determined by the specific pressure at the surface, and the pressure in the deeper soil layer is determined by the amount of load."

All cropping systems are negatively impacted when bulk densities approach the point where roots can no longer penetrate. Preliminary studies for this project were conducted by the author. Twelve PVC tubes were filled with the same sandy loam soil and compacted to create two replications of high, medium, and low bulk density treatments. Two corn seeds were planted into each of six tubes, with two tubes from each compaction treatment. In the same manner, soybeans were also planted into the remaining six tubes. After exposure to equal amounts of light, temperature, and nutrient solution in a controlled environment, the results of compaction on plant growth were visibly evident in the following photograph. Root and shoot limitations of corn and soybeans occurred, even between bulk density differences as small as  $1.22$  g cm<sup>-3</sup> and  $1.33$  g cm<sup>-3</sup>. It was clearly evident that soil compaction limits crop yields.

Poincelot (1986) found that corn yields were reduced by up to 50% on compacted clay soils compared with similar uncompacted soils. Abu-Hamdeh (2003) studied compaction and subsequent subsoiling effect on corn growth and bulk density.

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#### **Figure 2. Evidence of effects of high bulk density on crop yield**

Measuring compaction by calculating bulk density from core samples taken from each plot, he found that plots that were never compacted had greater yields than those that were compacted and later subsoiled, but subsoiled plots were better than the plots that were left compacted.

## **Soil Electrical Conductivity**

Research has shown that spatially referenced apparent electrical conductivity (EC) data is a useful tool to characterize the variable nature of soils (Lund et al., 1999; Corwin and Lesch, 2003; Corwin and Plant, 2005; Jung et al., 2005). Electrical

conductivity is the ability of a material to transmit (conduct) an electrical current and is commonly expressed in units of milliSiemens per meter  $(mS m<sup>-1</sup>)$ . Soil EC measurements are also commonly reported as deciSiemens  $m^{-1}$  (Deorge et al., 2007). Integrating a global positioning system (GPS) and EC sensors allows researchers to analyze and display soil attributes on a map easily.

A soil profile is a three-phase composition of solids, liquids, and air. Water, dissolved minerals, roots, air, etc. move through the soil constantly. When electrical current is introduced into the soil, it also flows through this medium, however, it is not clearly understood as to whether it travels though all three parts of the soil profile. These three pathways through which electricity may flow are defined by Corwin and Lesch (2005) as:

- 1. A liquid phase conductive pathway via dissolved solids contained in the soil's water occupying the large pores.
- 2. A solid-liquid phase conductive pathway primarily via exchangeable cations associated with clay minerals.
- 3. A solid-solid conductive pathway via soil particles that are in direct and continuous contact with one another.

Rhoades et al., (1999) and Corwin and Lesch (2005) claim that all three electrochemical pathways contribute to the apparent soil electrical conductivity. However, Friedman (2005) reports that the solid-solid phase of heterogeneous soils is nonconducting. Such conflicting definitions complicate the theory, but are not critical to whether or not anthropogenic soil attributes, such as compaction, are able to be detected with the use of EC sensors. The interactions between physical, chemical, electrochemical, anthropogenic, meteorological, and geologic characteristics are so interrelated that a variation of one property inevitably affects another property's effect on conductivity pathways.

When yield maps were found to correlate strongly with bulk soil EC maps from the same fields, producers and researchers sought to establish which soil properties affect bulk soil EC values. Several researchers (Lund et al., 1999; Gorucu et al., 2001; Corwin and Lesch, 2003; Corwin and Plant, 2005; Jung et al., 2005; Deorge et al., 2007) have outlined many of the correlations between bulk soil electrical conductivity and other soil characteristics. Correlations with apparent electrical conductivity exist for both directly measured soil properties and indirectly measured soil properties. Corwin and Lesch (2005) organized literature citations for the following categories of soil attributes that correlate with apparent soil EC: salinity and nutrients, water content attributes, textural attributes, bulk density (compaction), organic matter, cation exchange capacity, leaching, ground water recharge, herbicide partition coefficients, soil map unit boundaries, corn rootworm distribution, and soil drainage classes. All of the mentioned attributes influence the conductivity of the bulk soil, however it is difficult to distinguish which conductive pathway(s) is being followed. Electricity will primarily follow the pathway of least resistance.

Soil pore continuity affects bulk EC as water-filled pore spaces transmit electricity very well. The soil texture and structure cause the continuity to change. Clay soils tend to aggregate better and typically have more pore space than coarse textured soils. Deorge et al.,(2007) mention, while talking about the relationship between EC and pore continuity, that "curiously, compaction will normally increase soil EC." Soil compaction induced through tillage practices or wheel traffic affects the geometry and topology of the aqueous phase by changing the configuration of the solid-phase attributes (Friedman, 2005). Thus, changing the re-arrangement of particles caused by compaction may affect the EC of the bulk soil.

 The Rhoades et al., (1999) model also indicates that compaction would increase EC values in the third phase, through solids. By aligning soil particles into a compacted state, a continuous particle-to-particle connection would transmit electricity through the soil profile to a higher degree than un-compacted soils.

 Because of the broad spectrum of soil characteristics that change the electrical conductivity of soils, it is difficult to isolate the effect of any one of these attributes. Researchers have alluded to the possibility of identifying subsoil compaction with EC sensors but have not explained the influence of the other conductivity-influencing factors. Gorucu et al.,(2001) found strong negative correlations between soil EC and predicted tillage depths through the use of draft force strain gauges. These results however, were a product of textural changes and not of cultivation-induced compaction. Jung et al.,(2005) found that bulk density was generally not well correlated with EC in 0-15 cm depths. However, at depths from 15-30 cm EC was negatively correlated with bulk density. This correlation was attributed to the claypan horizon at these depths. These deep bulk density correlations closely followed the values for correlation between EC and cation exchange capacity (CEC) from increased clay content. Once again, because pore space increases with clay content, bulk density also decreases resulting in the strong negative correlation.

Heiniger et al.,(2003) suggest that the most important factor influencing EC is the volumetric water content of the soil (liquid phase) when the soil is near saturation. When the volumetric water content of the soil is low, the primary conductive pathway was through the soil-particle and discontinuous soil pore pathway. They found that the soil structure does not provide enough direct particle-to-particle contact to form a continuous pathway through solids when sufficient moisture is not present. Heiniger et al.,(2003) showed that even nutrient concentrations were associated with texture and its effect on volumetric particle content, volumetric water content, or both. This shows an indirect and incomplete link between conclusions about the ability to identify compaction without considering other variables.

Johnson et al.,(2001) looked for correlations between apparent soil electrical conductivity and physical and chemical attributes on a farm in the semiarid Central Great Plains. This study is significantly different from others because of the average precipitation level being only 420 mm (16.5 in) annually, which is similar to precipitation patterns in Utah. Likely, this would result in less of a hardened claypan at a certain depth. Similar to other researchers, Johnson et al.,(2001) found that clay content had a positive correlation ( $r = .50$  significant at the 0.001 probability level) to bulk EC values. However, they also found a positive correlation ( $r = .49$  significant at the 0.001 probability level) between apparent electrical conductivity and bulk density (compaction). Water content during these measurements was between 12-16%. The level of compaction is unknown and was not reported. Although this is not a strong correlation, it indicates that it may be possible to develop a model for arid climates, without dominate argilic horizons, for using electrical conductivity to identify subsoil

compaction, without submitting to expensive and time consuming grid sampling. In the low precipitation areas common to the West, heavy claypans are not as common as in the rain-fed agriculture in the South and Midwest regions. Also, it is not clear how a sandy soil with a compacted plowpan will affect electrical conductivity through the soil.

No other literature has been found about experimentation to find a correlation between EC and subsoil compaction, isolated from other factors, in soils without claypans in semiarid areas. The question still remains whether there is a correlation between EC and bulk density in the Intermountain West. Literature that has shown a relationship is mainly due to either moisture trends or claypans in other regions of the country.

#### **Near-Infrared Reflectance Spectroscopy (NIRS)**

NIRS normally involves a light source emitting near-infrared (NIR) radiation into the soil. The size, shape, arrangement, and chemistry of soil particles influence the degree that certain wavelengths of light will be reflected, transmitted, and absorbed by the bulk soil. Because soils are opaque, very little shortwave radiation is transmitted (Chang et al., 2001; Stephens, 2006). This property makes soil reflectance values extremely sensitive to many different soil attributes. The absorbance values, which are derived from the measured reflectance from a known light source at each wavelength, indicate a difference in the inherent properties of that soil. Through conventional soil analysis, a relationship between these properties and the obtained absorbance data is established and represented in tables and geographically in the form of field maps. Because these factors also affect important soil fertility, hydraulic, and thermal

properties, it is beneficial to geographically identify areas of interest for site-specific management of agricultural or environmental resources.

NIRS has come to the forefront of precision agriculture research in the last two decades as it has been used to efficiently classify the soil attributes of large areas. Previously, detailed soil maps were painstakingly assembled through a process of destructive grid sampling, laboratory analysis, and statistical interpretation. NIRS allows researchers to cover more area in very little time, and with better detail. This timely data facilitates the relevancy of in-field comparisons with ephemeral data such as soil moisture, volatile nutrients, etc. (Chang et al., 2001).

 Many soil characteristics have been found to correlate well with portions of the shortwave spectrum. These significant and highly correlated properties include moisture content, total C, total N, particle-size distribution, CEC, pH, extractable Ca, K, Mg, and potentially mineralizable N (Chang et al., 2001; Shepherd and Walsh, 2002; Nanni and Demattê, 2006). In addition, Nanni and Demattê (2006) found correlations with the sum of cations,  $Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>$  and  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$ . The above studies have been carried out to develop models, or libraries of information for models, with which to predict soil characteristics through the use of NIRS. However, none of these findings were done with in-situ measurements; all were extracted field samples, which were then dried, ground, and analyzed with a spectrophotometer in a laboratory. Coleman et al., (1991) found that correlations for particle-size distribution, OM, and  $Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>$  from in-field measurements were significantly weaker than when measured using laboratory equipment..

No available literature has been found in regard to the use of NIRS to identify subsoil compaction. Stephens (2006) used the ASTER 6 band (2185-2225 nm) as one variable in models for both soil water content and soil organic carbon for the same plots used in this experiment on the Greenville Experiment Farm in Logan, UT. This shows that significant differences are present in two attributes related to soil compaction, moisture content and soil C content. It is assumed that, if any reflectance values correlate to subsoil compaction, a wavelength in this band would very likely indicate that difference.

#### **SENSORS**

Due to its ease of measurement, reliability, and relative low cost, soil apparent electrical conductivity has become one of the most reliable and frequently used measurements to characterize spatial variability within a field for application to precision agriculture (Rhoades et al., 1999; Corwin and Lesch, 2003, 2005; Srinivasan, 2006). Several sensors are commercially available to collect EC data.

 Near-infrared reflectance spectroscopy is also a widely used measurement of variability in plants and soils. Precision agriculture may employ NIRS for purposes such as irrigation scheduling, early detection of chlorosis and nutrient deficiency, vegetation indices, and site-specific pesticide and nutrient application. NIRS measurements are made from many platforms such as satellites, aircraft, in-field, and laboratory-based instruments.

 Veris Technologies (Salina, KS) recently (2006) introduced a Near Infrared Spectrophotometer with the EC Surveyor 3150 module (known as the VERIS NIRS) on a ground-engaging, real-time platform that is drawn through a field by truck or tractor. The EC Surveyor 3150 module collects conductivity data in both shallow (0-25 cm) and deep



### **Figure 3. The Veris Technologies NIRS traversing the plots at the Greenville Research Farm in North Logan, Utah.**

 (0-75 cm) modes in mS/m. The NIR spectrophotometer, seen above, also simultaneously gathers reflectance values at an adjustable depth from 4-10 cm. The response range is from 400-2200 nm with a spectral resolution of 8 nm. All measurements are georeferenced with a Garmin global positioning system that is differentially corrected through the wide-area augmentation system.

 Electrical conductivity sensors introduce an electrical current into the soil through current electrodes; in this case, flat, metal coulters inserted perpendicular to the soil's surface. Current is introduced through one electrode and the difference in current flow

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#### **Figure 4. The Veris NIRS with soil conductivity mapping system uses two arrays to measure EC at two depths, 0-25 cm and 0-75 cm (Lund and Christy, 1998).**

potential is measured at potential electrodes at specific distances from the current electrode as seen above. This distance determines the depth to which EC measurements are taken. The depth depends on the many soil characteristics including the soil structure and texture. Because this current travels through a large volume of the soil profile, the measured values reflect very well the bulk, or apparent, soil electrical conductivity.

Electrical conductivity measuring techniques for soils were developed in the 1920s by Conrad Schlumberger in France and Frank Wenner in the United States (Telford, 1990; Burger, 1992; Corwin and Lesch, 2005). The four equally-spaced



### **Figure 5. The Veris NIRS unit includes a ground-engaging spectrophotometer module that slides along the smooth skid of a 10 cm wide shank preceding it.**

coulters configuration is commonly known as the Wenner array today. Since then, other configurations have been developed including that of the Veris NIRS instrument seen in the proceeding figures.

The Veris NIRS with EC Surveyor 3150 module carries both EC and spectral data collection equipment on board. The ground-engaging spectrophotometer module follows the cut of the shank and large diameter fluted coulter mounted immediately before it. The module consists of a light source, the lens to collect light that has interacted with the

soil, and the spectrometer to measure the collected light. Reflectance measurements are taken through a durable sapphire window on the bottom of this module which slides along the skid created by the shank. Data is output as a text file with catalogued, georeferenced absorbance values for each wavelength in the measured spectrum.

While this particular instrument is relatively new, it merely combines two wellknown technologies in a manner that allows synchronized measurement of soil properties. This combination is a powerful tool to qualitatively classify spatial variability of soils.

#### **METHODS AND MATERIALS**

#### **STUDY AREAS**

This study took place at three different Utah Agricultural Experiment Station farms that have different soil types representative of typical arable lands of the Intermountain West (Figure 6). The first location was the Greenville Research Farm, located in North Logan, Utah. The second location was the Evans Research Farm in Millville, Utah. Finally, the third farm was the Utah Botanical Center located in Kaysville, Utah.



**Figure 6. Location of Utah Agricultural Experiment Station farms involved in this study.** 

 Soils at the Greenville Research Farm are Millville, coarse-silty, carbonatic, mesic Typic Haploxerolls (Soil Survey Staff, 2007). Here, we find the most coarse soil conditions of the three locations. At the Evans Research Farm, the soils are Nebeker, fine, montmorillonitic, mesic Pachic Argixerolls (Soil Survey Staff, 2007). These plots are composed of significantly finer soil than the other sites. Finally, soils at the Kaysville Research Farm are Kidman, coarse-loamy, mixed, superactive, mesic Calcic Haploxerolls (Soil Survey Staff, 2007). The coarse-loamy soil is similar to those at the Greenville Farm, but has a slightly higher percentage of clays.

#### **METHODS**

Plots were created for this experiment to simulate high, medium, and low levels of compaction, soil water content, and coarseness of the soil. Dimensions were identical at all locations and were situated in a split-block design. The plots were bare soil strips 18.2 m (60 ft) long and 3 m (10 ft) wide. The entire area of each plot received one of three randomized compaction treatments creating high, medium, and low levels of compaction. The first treatment was used to relieve all possible compaction with a Miskin Parabolic Subsoiler (Ucon, Idaho) to a depth > 30.5 cm (12 in). Second, an induced compaction treatment was applied through tractor tire travel over the complete area of the plot with a Ford 1510 Tractor (Fargo, North Dakota) weighing 1036 kg (2285 lbs). Finally, an induced plowpan was created through repeated tillage with a Howard Rotavator HR7 (Sorø, Denmark) to a depth of 10 cm (4 in). All treatments were applied when soil moisture conditions were in unirrigated conditions during early August when soil and climatic conditions were dry.

After all treatments were applied, and shortly before data was collected, irrigation water was applied from one end of the plots using a line-source sprinkler method (Hanks et al., 1976), establishing a soil water gradient across the length of the plots. Each plot was divided into 6 water zones (Z1-Z6): Z6 being the wettest and nearest to the sprinklers, and Z1 being the furthest away and receiving virtually no irrigation.

This experimental plot layout (Figures 7-9) allows comparison between several different variables at one site and in one soil type. All of these factors potentially affect the null hypothesis.



Broken Plow Pan (Miskin Deep Ripper) 1 Bulk Density core is taken in each plot

#### **Treatments Measurements**

Wheel Traffic Compaction (Tractor) Shallow 5"-9" (12.7-22.9 cm) Plow Pan (Howard Rotavator) Deep 11"-14" (27.9-38.1 cm) Grass Barrier 1 Soil water content measurement taken in each plot Shallow 5"-9" (12.7-22.9 cm) Deep 11"-14" (27.9-38.1 cm) ECa Measured with Veris NIRS Tractor maintained in 2-2 Broad spectrum reflectance at 4 " (10 cm) Penetration resistance at depth (SC 900)

**Figure 7. Plot layout at the Greenville Research Farm.**



#### **Treatments**

Broken Plow Pan (Miskin Deep Ripper) Wheel Traffic Compaction (Tractor) Plow Pan (Howard Rotavator)

#### **Measurements**

1 Bulk Density core is taken in each plot Shallow 5"-9" (12.7-22.9 cm) Deep 11"-14" (27.9-38.1 cm) 1 Soil water content measurement taken in each plot Shallow 5"-9" (12.7-22.9 cm) Deep 11"-14" (27.9-38.1 cm) ECa Measured with Veris NIRS Tractor maintained in 2-2 Broad spectrum reflectance at 4 " (10 cm) Penetration resistance at depth (SC 900)




#### **Treatments Measurements**

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### **Figure 10. Line-source sprinkler method applying a differential water gradient over the six water zones across all tillage treatments at the Evans Research Farm.**

The variables that are considered here are soil water content, the degree of compaction, and soil texture. A soil moisture gradient was created uniformly across all the plots (Figure 10). Within the plots, four sets of three different tillage treatments were induced. Finally, this same plot design was created at three different Utah State University Research Farms, each with a different soil texture.

Data collection began in late August 2007 and was completed in early September 2007. A period of 36 hours between the last irrigation and the beginning of sampling ensured the soil surface was not saturated both for sample integrity and ease of traveling

over the plots with the sensors. Data collection started with simultaneous collection of shallow EC, deep EC, and reflectance data with the Veris NIRS instrument as outlined by the Veris Technologies Mobile Sensor Platform operation instructions. These instructions involved calibrating the spectrometer with the provided standards, initializing the GPS, checking that all systems were functioning properly, and finally traversing the plots with the EC coulters engaged with the soil from 3-5 cm deep and the spectrophotometer lowered to 10 cm. A continuous speed was maintained as the instrument measures and records EC, reflectance, and coordinate data every two seconds. Sampling was done traveling perpendicular to the length of the plots to group data into water zones.

Next, soil cores were taken at two depth ranges, 12.7–22.9 cm (5"- 9") and 27.9– 38.1 cm (11"- 15"). The Soil Survey Laboratory Procedures (Soil Survey Staff, 1996) were followed for bulk density and soil water content samples for each of the 72 plots at each site.

Finally, plot locations were recorded with a differentially corrected Trimble Pathfinder Pro XRS (Sunnyvale, California) GPS. Because EC and reflectance measurements are linked to coordinate data, they were easily displayed in a geographic information system (GIS) map using ArcGIS 9.2© (Redlands, California). Similarly, these GPS locations were also projected onto the map and used to group the EC and reflectance measurements with their corresponding plot numbers when displayed in ArcGIS 9.2© (Figure 11). Because several of these measured values exist within one plot, a summary database was created with the average shallow EC, deep EC, and reflectance value at 2151.9 nm for each plot.



## **Figure 11. Assigning EC and reflectance measurements to plots through the use of ArcGIS 9.2©. Measurements are selected through geographic proximity to a GPS point taken in each plot, then are labeled by plot number accordingly.**

Shallow and deep bulk density data were also added to the corresponding plot numbers. This allowed the researchers to choose the desired soil attributes to consider for regression analysis.

Identical plot design, procedures, and data management were followed at the Greenville, Evans, and Kaysville Research Farms. The Data Analysis Tool in Microsoft Excel 2007© was used to manage the data and perform statistical calculations. The regression function within the Data Analysis Tool generated several values for an

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analysis of variance (ANOVA) and analysis of regression including the F-value, probability level, and the  $r^2$  value. An F-distribution table (Hayter, 2007) was also used for determining the threshold for F-test values at the 90 percent probability level. A confidence level of 90% was chosen to include as much relevant data as possible. An Fvalue of at least 49.50 is required to obtain significant results at the  $(\alpha = 0.10)$  90% probability level (Hayter, 2007).

A successful F-test shows that there is sufficient distance between population means to produce significant regression results. In this case, the F-test values were used to test whether a difference existed between measured bulk density and EC (or reflectance) and warranted further analysis. The next step would then be to develop a regression equation. This analysis would produce an  $r^2$  value that shows the strength of correlation between the variables being compared. When F-tests do not meet the threshold value, no further analysis can be done because there is not any significance between the recorded values.

### **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

The primary objective of this research was to determine whether site-specific agricultural sensors measuring bulk soil electrical conductivity and near-infrared reflectance could be used to effectively identify subsoil compaction in the Intermountain West. ANOVA testing was used to determine whether a significant difference existed between the tillage, or compaction treatments as seen in Table 1. The F-value, which is a product of the ANOVA test, showed whether sufficient variance existed in the data, according to the degrees of freedom for the population, to achieve meaningful results from regression analysis. Significant variance was found between the induced compaction treatments and the control, or the deep ripped plots. This warrants further analysis because it was clear that there were differences in bulk density between the deep-ripped and compacted treatments.

# **Table 1. F-Test and threshold probability for significant bulk density between**  compaction treatments.  $(a = 0.10, \text{ degrees of freedom} = 23, \text{Mean squared appear}$ **in appendix, \* indicates significance)**



Next, ANOVA was used to discover whether a difference between bulk density values, shallow and deep EC, and NIR reflectance existed by category. Table 2 shows that all measurements grouped by category have sufficient variance one from another, and, once again, warranted further analysis between the water level, tillage treatment, and texture within the categories.

An ANOVA for all possible combinations of each of the 72 plots at all location showed how the treatments of each plot affected measured EC and reflectance values. The ANOVA results were based on three degrees of freedom, two from the treatment and one from the residual, or error, involved. Tables 3 through 5 show that only 34 of the 324 samples, slightly more than 10%, were within the 90% confidence interval. This data could not be interpreted to produce conclusive results because so few actually reached the significance threshold.

### **Table 2. One-way ANOVA of measurement categories without considering water or tillage treatments.** ( $\alpha = 0.10$ , degrees of freedom = 23,\* indicates significance)



BDS= bulk density shallow; BDD= bulk density deep; ECS= electrical conductivity shallow; ECD= electrical conductivity deep; REF= near-infrared reflectance at 2151.9nm

**Table 3. F-values for individual sub-plots at the Greenville Research Farm. The F-value threshold is set at**  $F \ge 49.50$ **. Only 5 of the 108 combinations had significant results at the 90% confidence level. (\* indicates significance, probability values, degrees of freedom and means squared are found in the appendices)**

			<b>Bulk Density Shallow</b>			<b>Bulk Density Deep</b>	
				1-Ripped 2-Traffic 3-Plowpan	1-Ripped		2-Traffic 3-Plowpan
	<b>EC Shallow</b>						
	$1$ (dry)	0.21	4.31	4.65	11.14	4.96	0.72
Water Zone	$\overline{2}$	0.08	0.44	0.09	0.45	3.52	1.47
	$\overline{3}$	0.95	1.35	0.12	0.96	1.41	4.24
	$\overline{4}$	0.23	0.98	0.32	0.07	3.19	661.11*
	5	0.61	0.09	0.39	0.38	10.60	0.29
	$6$ (wet)	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
	<b>EC</b> Deep						
	$1$ (dry)	1.00	2.79	1.82	16.65	3.19	0.29
	$\overline{2}$	7.30	0.45	0.15	1.24	4.28	0.58
Water Zone	$\overline{3}$	11.00	2.72	0.24	20.90	1.01	41.21
	$\overline{4}$	0.25	1.27	0.96	0.81	1.11	5.89
	$\overline{5}$	0.44	0.31	0.32	0.45	403.57*	1.02
	$6$ (wet)	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
	<b>NIR Reflectance</b>						
	$1$ (dry)	2.62	24.95	3.01	49.76*	24.32	0.54
Water Zone	$\overline{2}$	0.14	89.83*	0.39	0.04	9.31	354.82*
	$\overline{3}$	0.01	0.13	18.57	0.01	0.98	0.93
	$\overline{4}$	0.29	0.71	27.94	1.42	8.76	0.16
	5	2.78	0.46	43.08	0.02	21.46	4.75
	$6$ (wet)	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A

**Soil: Millville, coarse-silty, carbonatic, mesic Typic Haploxerolls** 

**Table 4. F-values for individual sub-plots at the Evans Research Farm. The F**value threshold is set at  $F \ge 49.50$ . Only 15 of the 108 combinations had significant **results at the 90% confidence level. (\* indicates significance, probability values, degrees of freedom and means squared are found in the appendices)**



**Soil: Nebeker, fine, montmorillonitic, mesic Pachic Argixerolls** 

**Table 5. F-values for individual sub-plots at the Kaysville Research Farm. The F**value threshold was set at  $F \ge 49.50$ . Only 14 of the 108 combinations had significant **results at the 90% confidence level. (\* indicates significance, probability values, degrees of freedom and means squared are found in the appendices)** 



# **Soil: Kidman, coarse-loamy, mixed, superactive, mesic Calcic Haploxerolls**

The null hypothesis must be accepted. There is no apparent, statistically reliable evidence from this study to prove a relation between measured values of electrical conductivity and soil bulk density, or near-infrared reflectance and soil bulk density. Because the analysis of variance for the individual subplots rarely produced significant data, further investigation would probably not be significant. However, although a correlation was not found, this information builds a further understanding regarding the extent of effectiveness when using EC and NIRS in precision agriculture to classifying soil characteristics.

What was not previously understood has been tested and explained. The lowmoisture soils, at levels typical to dry in-field levels, did not show that electricity preferentially follows the pathway of compacted soil particles over the liquid conductive pathway. Electrical conductivity will continue to correlate strongly with soil moisture and texture, but not compacted soil layers.

It has been shown that a minimum level of compaction was required before compacted conditions could be identified with EC or NIRS under typical field conditions in Utah. No significant EC data was collected that identified a difference between compacted and non-compacted soils under normal field conditions.

Soil texture did not influence whether significant results were obtainable using EC or NIRS. None of the three locations have more than 15% of the samples taken with a significant difference in measured values. This is not sufficient to infer that EC or NIRS correlates to bulk density stronger in one soil texture than another.

Finally, reflectance values at 2151.9 nm did not correlate to areas of known subsoil compaction. No significant difference was shown between reflectance of

compacted soil and normal soil as measured by this method. Part of the reason for this was that the measurements were taken from the bottom of a skid sliding along the path created by a 10 cm (2 in) wide shank. Such a blade will cause a compacted layer where it comes in contact with the soil. Consequentially, all the soil measured by this NIRS instrument was possibly compacted as the measurements were recorded. Further efforts to use NIRS to identify compacted soils would be limited to surface measurements where soil properties are not affected by ground engaging sensors.

 Of the 34 samples that were found to be significant, there is a meaningful pattern. Histograms showing the occurrence of significant measurements by category show that there is a small difference between number of significant samples between the compaction, water content, and location (soil texture) variables. See the Appendices (Tables 6-8) for actual graphs. This data is not statistically significant and only mentioned to better understand possible underlying contributing factors. This data only suggests that a very small portion of the electrical pathway is influenced by either location (soil texture) or soil water content.

 Data collected in this research, while not statistically significant, suggests that the ability to correlate EC and NIRS with bulk density in soil is better in dry soils, rather than wet soils. This speculation stems from a higher average occurrence of significant samples in the three drier water zones  $(Z1 - Z3)$  than the three wetter zones  $(Z4 - Z6)$ . It also suggests that the soil texture, which varied by location, also influences the ability to correlate with bulk density. Three times more significant results occurred at the Evans and Kaysville Research Farms than at the Greenville Research Farm. Both the Evans and Kaysville Research Farm soils contain considerably more clay than the soil found on the

Greenville Research Farm. As opposed to the original hypothesis, it appears that coarse-textured soils are not better indicators of soil compaction due to their lack of inherent conductivity. Soils that have a clay component are more likely to show a correlation between either EC or NIRS and bulk density.

### **CONCLUSIONS**

Subsoil compaction can severely limit crop yield potential. Treatment of compacted soil involves considerable financial, energy, and labor investments. Further, blanket treatment of fields in an effort to relieve soil compaction is inefficient and leads to increased soil erosion and loss of soil organic matter. Site-specific agriculture technology that accurately identifies these layers could prescribe tillage practices to affected areas only, thus preventing unnecessary intervention to entire fields.

Bulk electrical conductivity (EC) through the bulk soil is an excellent indicator of spatial variability due to a complex and interrelated group of physical and chemical soil attributes. While EC has been found to correlate to many different soil attributes, this study found that EC did not correlate to subsoil compaction under normal field conditions in the Intermountain West. Theories that claim electrical conductivity (through particleto-particle contact) is measurable are not substantiated by these in-field studies. Neither soil water content levels, certain soil textures, nor a particular level of compaction caused EC (through particle-to-particle contact) to dominate other conductive pathways of the bulk soil profile.

Near-infrared reflectance (NIR) can also be an effective tool to indicate spatial variability of soil attributes. However, in this study, NIRS using a 2151.9 nm wavelength was not an indicator of compacted subsoil conditions. Like EC, NIRS's ability to predict subsoil compaction is not significantly affected by moisture, degree of compaction, nor soil texture for in-field studies. Large, ground-engaging sensors cause the physical properties of the soil to change and therefore cannot be used to measure compaction.

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# **APPENDIX**









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Table 9. Greenville F-Test (Two-Sample) for Variances between Bulk Density for Compaction Treatment vs. Control **Table 1 Values Table 9. Greenville F-Test (Two-Sample) for Variances between Bulk Density for Compaction Treatment vs. Control**



# **Greenville Research Farm ANOVA Data for Table 2** 49



## **Bulk Density Deep and EC Shallow**





Table 11. Correlation Betwen Shallow Bulk Density and Shallow Elສ trical Conductivity بم the Gr eenville Research Farm



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**Table 1 Values Table 12. Evans F-Test (Two-Sample) for Variances between Bulk Density for Compaction Treatment vs. Control**

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	<b>Bulk Density Shallow and EC Shallow</b>					
Groups	Count	Sum	Average	Variance		
Column 1	72.00	109.17	1.52	0.08		
Column <sub>2</sub>	72.00	4359.50	60.55	639.17		
<b>ANOVA</b>						
Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	$\overline{F}$	$P-value$	F crit
<b>Between Groups</b>	125453.02	1.00	125453.02	392.50	0.00	3.91
Within Groups	45386.70	142.00	319.62			
Total	170839.72	143.00				
<b>Bulk Density Shallow and EC Deep</b>						
Groups	Count	Sum	Average	Variance		
Column 1	72	109.173	1.5162958	0.083045		
Column <sub>2</sub>	72	4471.67	62.106459	467.6583		
<b>ANOVA</b>						
Source of Variation	SS	df	M <sub>S</sub>	$\overline{F}$	P-value	F crit
<b>Between Groups</b>	132162.05	$\mathbf{1}$	132162.05	565.1074	$2.4E-51$	3.908
Within Groups	33209.634	142	233.87066			
Total	165371.68	143				
Groups	Count	Sum	Average	Variance		
<b>Bulk Density Shallow and Reflectance</b> Column 1	72	109.173	1.5162958	0.083045		
Column <sub>2</sub>	72	69.1162	0.9599479	0.050163		
<b>ANOVA</b>						
Source of Variation	SS	df	<b>MS</b>	$\overline{F}$	P-value	F crit
<b>Between Groups</b>	11.142827	$\overline{3}$	3.7142757	54.98116	1.5E-23 2.669	
<b>Within Groups</b>	9.4577595	140	0.0675554			

# **Evans Research Farm Anova Data for Table 2** 53



# **Bulk Density Deep and EC Shallow**

# **Bulk Density Deep and Reflectance**





Table 14. Correlation Between Shallow Bulk Density and Shallow Electrical **Table 14. Correlation Between Shallow Bulk Density and Shallow Electrical**  Conductivity at the Evans Research Farm **Conductivity at the Evans Research Farm**

**Electrical Consuctivity (dS/m)** 

54

Table 1 Values					
	S Ripped	S Wheel		D Ripped	D Wheel
Mean	1.790318739	1.90902502	Mean	1.776145522	1.791258679
Mean squared	3.205241187	3.644376526	Mean squared	3.154692915	3.208607656
Variance	8021991508	0.008387513	Variance	0.025459962	0.046126998
<b>Observations</b>	24	24	<b>Observations</b>	24	54
Ъf	23	23	Æ	23	23
ᆩ	3.337283432			0.551953578	
$P(F \leq = f)$ one-tail	0.002722608		$P(F \leq f)$ one-tail	0.080816415	
F Critical one-tail	1.427230481		F Critical one-tail	0.700657681	
	S Ripped	S PlowPan		D Ripped	$D$ PlowPan
Mean	1.790318739	1.967416885	<b>Mean</b>	1.776145522	1.857719763
Mean squared	3.205241187	3.870729201	Mean squared	3.154692915	3.451122717
Variance	8051664Z00	0.013219254	Variance	0.025459962	0.015540518
<b>Observations</b>	24	24	Observations	24	24
$\mathbf{H}$	23	23	Æ	23	23
ᆩ	2.1174801			1.638295577	
$P(F \leq = f)$ one-tail	0.039243642		$P(F \leq f)$ one-tail	0.12197842	
F Critical one-tail	1.427230481		F Critical one-tail	1.42723048	
	S Wheel	S PlowPan		D Wheel	$D$ PlowPan
Mean	1.90902502	1.967416885	Mean	1.791258679	1.857719763
Mean squared	3.644376526	3.870729201	Mean squared	3.208607656	3.451122717
Variance	0.008387513	0.013219254	Variance	0.046126998	0.015540518
<b>Observations</b>	24	24	Observations	54	24
ЪÊ	23	23	Æ	23	23
ᆔ	0.634492138			2.968176389	
$P(F \leq = f)$ one-tail	0.141288834		$P(F \leq = f)$ one-tail	0.005841892	
F Critical one-tail	0.700657681		F Critical one-tail	1.427230481	

**Table 1 Values Table 15. Kaysville F-Test (Two-Sample) for Variances between Bulk Density for Compaction Treatment vs. Control**



**Bulk Density Shallow and EC Shallow**

# **Kaysville Research Farm ANOVA Data for Table 2** 57



**Bulk Density Deep and EC Shallow**



58

Table

17. Correlation

Betw

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Shallow

Bulk

Density

and<br>D

Shallow

 $\mathbf{\overline{m}}$ ectrical

Conductivity

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# **Table 18. Greenville Tillage Statistics**

1 No Compaction 59 2 Wheel Traffic 3 Plow Pan









 $60$ 

# **Table 19. Evans Tillage Statistics**

1 No Compaction 61 2 Wheel Traffic

3 Plow Pan


# **Evans Statistics**

1 No Compaction 62 2 Wheel Traffic

3 Plow Pan



# **Table 20. Kaysville Tillage Statistics**

1 No Compaction 63 2 Wheel Traffic 3 Plow Pan



# **Kaysville Statistics**

1 No Compaction 64 2 Wheel Traffic 3 Plow Pan



#### **Table 21. Probability Values for Treatments at the Greenville, Evans** 65 **and Kaysville Research Farms**



**Greenville Soil: Millville, coarse-silty, carbonatic, mesic Typic Haploxerolls**

**Probability values at the Greenville Research Farm. The probability threshold is set**  at  $\alpha = 0.10$ , d.f. = 3. Only 5 of the 108 combinations had significant results.

## **Evans Research Farm Probability Levels** 66





Probability values at the Evans Research Farm. The probability threshold is set at  $\alpha$ **= 0.10, d.f. = 3. 15 of the 108 combinations had significant results.**



**Kaysville Soil: Kidman, coarse-loamy, superactive, mesic Calcic Haploxerolls**

**Probability values at the Kaysville Research Farm. The probability threshold is set**  at  $\alpha = 0.10$ , d.f. = 3. 14 of the 108 combinations had significant results.

 $\sum_{.} 68$ **Table 22. Measured** <u>Տ</u> **Characteristics** <u>բ</u> **the Greenville Research Farm**



ভূঁ **≤** 69

**Mass for BD and GWC** Payne

**Farm:**

**Greenville Greenville**



5.3307

**#** 38 3736353433323130295554535251504948474645444342414039

**Depth** A A A A A A A A AA A A A A A A A A A A A A A A A A A

**Rass for BD and GWC Mass for BD and GWC**

Jay

Payne

**WET**

**Farm:**

**Greenville Greenville**





4.5533

 $\overline{2}$ 

 $\varpi$ 

 $310.4$ 

 $\overline{z}$  $\varpi$ 

0.08

 $1.67$ 

 $z<sub>2</sub>$ 

4.9166

5.0100 4.4991

**#** 66 6564636261605958577170696867

**Depth** A A A A A A A A AA A A A A A

<u>Total</u><br>25.4 36.9 36.9 36.8 36.4 36.5 36.4 36.5 36.4 36.5 35.4 35.<br>3 3 3 30.3 31.8 30.8 30.9 31.8 31.8 33.4 31.8 31.8 3

**Depth** B B B B B B B B B B B B B B B

**#** 65 64 63 62 61 60 59 58 57 66 71 70 69 68 67

**Mass** Jay 11 11 11 11 22020.23 272.1025.1025.225.735.925.735.925.735.928 A 35.2 28 10 987654322726252423222120191817161514131211**#** 1**Mass for BD and GWC**71Payne **WETDepth** A A AA A A A A A A A A A A A A A A A A A $\triangleright$  $\triangleright$  $\triangleright$  $\triangleright$  $\triangleright$  $\triangleright$ for BD and GWC 401.6294.9<br>354.9<br>364.1 345.9<br>293.1 26.3<br>35<br>35.3 290.2 357.3 376.9 356.7 348.7 $235$  383.4 317.5დ<br>თ<br>თ 202.0 224.4 374.7 326.0ვ<br>თ<br>თ 348.495.8 **Table** 272 0 191.8183.5**Total 23.** 9 8 7 6 5 4 3 210 27 26 25 24 23 22 21 20 19 18 17 16 15 14 13 12 11**Measured #** 1**MET**  $\uppi$  B  $\uppi$  B  $\uppi$  B  $\uppi$  B  $\uppi$  B  $\uppi$   $\uppi$ B B B B B B B B B B B B B B B B B B 428.732.3<br>243.2<br>8 224.4 384.1 374.8 311.7 292.6 340.4 245.8 357.4 290.9369.3<br>م 301.4303.2 212.1 262.7 290.5 298.1324.9 213.8 379.9354.3 35.1<br>756.1 ین<br>515 375.1260.2 <u>S</u><br>≘ **Total Characteristics Farm: Evans** 2<br>26 27<br>27 2 2 2 2<br>2 2 3 2 2 8 <del>1</del><br>8 19 19 1<br>1<br>5<br>1<br>5<br>1 → → → → → → ∞ ∞ → ∞ ω → ∞ → <mark>#</mark> **Depth** A A A A A ADR<br>2<br>2 A A AA A A A A A A A A A A A A A A A A Aي<br>310.3 299.1 250.4345.9 305.8ى<br>311.9 239.2 249.7166.5 ی<br>721.2 340.3 318.0 300.2 284.2 322.4 281.9ي<br>916.6 175.433.2<br>23 354.1 286.8 328.9 296.0 302.4245 6 160.0191.1<u>բ</u> **Total the Evans** 9 8 7 6 5 410 27 26 25 24 23 22 21 20 19 18 17 16 15 14 13 12 11**#** 1دە  $\boldsymbol{\mathsf{v}}$ DR<br>2<br>2 **Research**  $\varpi$  B B  $\varpi$  B  $\varpi$ 235 213.9 269.2 190.3 324.4 322.7 280.8 251.8 284.5 205.9ین<br>313.3 251.3 ي<br>310.ع 25.1<br>75 252.7 180.4 248.3 257.725.5<br>25.5 280.3 185.9978.6 90<br>906 306.0 272.5 361.0ن<br>11.0 **Total Farm**  $^{\circ}$  $\vec{o}$ 27 28 Տ<br>Ծ 24 23 22  $\overline{2}$  20 $\vec{6}$ 18 17 18<br>18 17 18 13 13<br>20 13  $\overrightarrow{1}$ *#*  $\frac{1}{4}$  4ဖ  $\infty$ م ب c٦ ω  $\overline{c}$ ے  $\triangleright$  A A $\triangleright$  $\triangleright$  $\triangleright$ **D** 0<br>ರ ০<br>ত 0<br>21 0<br>71 0<br>21 0.10 0.140<br>ದ 0.100<br>0<br>0 0<br>11 0.140<br>ច ০<br>ə1 0<br>11 0<br>21 0<br>ದ 0<br>ದ 0.<br>51 0<br>11 0<br>21 0<br>712 0.<br>51 0<br>5<br>ወ  $\circ$ 0<br>10  $\subset$ Height $\frac{1}{\sigma}$  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$ VolumeRadius**GWC** 1.284<br>ئ<br>44 0.891.<br>23<br>27 1.61<br>1.71 1.5 1.5<br>1.5 1.7<br>1.5 1.7<br>1.5 1.7 0.94 0.86بر<br>53 1.<br>80 1.<br>061 ተ<br>ይገ با<br>كا 1.661.601.861.67د<br>23<br>27 1.59 $\frac{1}{2}$ စြ  $1.64$ 1.34 186.38 10.30 2.40 5 2 2 2 3 2 3 2 2 2<br>5 2 2 3 4 3 6 2 2 18 17 18<br>18 17 18 1 1 1<br>1 1 1 1<br>1 1 1 1 # ュ<br>- மல → o o + 4  $\omega$   $\sim$ ے cm  $\mathbf{\overline{w}}$ cm  $\overline{\mathtt{w}}$  B B $\overline{\mathtt{w}}$  $\overline{\mathtt{w}}$  $\overline{\mathtt{w}}$  $\overline{\mathtt{w}}$  B B $\overline{\mathtt{w}}$  $\overline{\mathtt{w}}$ cm 3 ০<br>ম 0.<br>ما ০<br>ত ০<br>৯ 0.14 0.10 0.14০<br>৯ ০<br>৯ 0<br>ದ 0.14০<br>৯ ০<br>৯ 0.17০<br>5 0.<br>50 0.11 0.13 0.140<br>ದ 0.13 0.13 0.14 0.14০<br>৯ 0.<br>ما 0<br>00 **GWC**  $\rightarrow$ )<br>51 بر<br>20 1.74بر<br>27 ب<br>بن )<br>ყ<br>ლ 1.<br>10  $\frac{1}{8}$ )<br>ვე<br>თ  $\vec{5}$ ب<br>بن \_<br>ვე 0.<br>26 ب<br>بن ب<br>89 ب<br>20 1.<br>00 ا '1 1.64 1.64 1.461.94 =၂<br>ဩ၀<sub>Β</sub>  $\ddot{44}$  $\overline{51}$ 1.502 5 2 2 2 3 2 3 2 2 2<br>5 2 2 3 4 3 6 2 2 9 7 9 9 7 9 7 7 7 7 7 8 9 9 7 9 9 #  $\Delta$ ω  $\overline{c}$ ے 115.0371113.6834110.9438118.8100 118.8100 45.3794 41.2981 41.1352 83.8813 24.5250 56.1081 56.0175 56.1218 86.4077 18.5300 53.1498 57.0330 13.6250 75.7480 95.9434 57.9639 87.7646 88.1473 52.5799 30.4120 64.6920 92.550858 0156 **EC Sh** 102.8706 102.5619 104.2267 40.6481 43.3021 04.2267 68.5099 67.9185 68.0794 79.5908 20.4107 63.1162 66.2440 11.3484 72.5149 96.2805 61.2604 61.9078 81.3078 95.2500 39.9389 39.9614 29.7875 57.1500 41.0673 79.7591 72.2059 68 5238 **EC Dp**





73







**EC Dp**

22.0929

21.3874

29 6274

19.8563

 $\geq$ A

71 B

0.<br>50

د<br>قا

 $\geq$ 

12.7465 15.4160

76

## **Table 25. Treatment Means Squared Values** 77



**Soil: Millville, coarse-silty, carbonatic, mesic Typic Haploxerolls** Greenville

**Means Squared values at the Greenville Research Farm. The probability threshold**  is set at  $\alpha = 0.10$ , d.f. = 3. Only 5 of the 108 combinations had significant results.

## **Evans Research Farm Means Squared Values** 78





**Means Squared values at the Evans Research Farm. The probability threshold is set**  at  $\alpha = 0.10$ , d.f. = 3. 15 of the 108 combinations had significant results.



**Soil: Kidman, coarse-loamy, mixed, superactive, mesic Calcic Haploxerolls**

**Means Squared values at the Kaysville Research Farm. The probability threshold is**  set at  $\alpha = 0.10$ , d.f. =3. 14 of the 108 combinations had significant results.