Review Article

2 Soil Quality Attributes for a Sustainable Agriculture: A Review

3

1

4 ABSTRACT

5 Soil quality is the capacity of a specific kind of soil to function, within natural or managed ecosystem boundaries, to 6 sustain plant and animal productivity, maintain or enhance water and air quality, and support human health and 7 habitation. The definition of soil quality encompasses physical, chemical and biological characteristics, and it is 8 related to fertility and soil health. Many indicators can be used to describe soil quality, but it is important to take 9 into account sensitivity, required time, and related properties, than can be explained. Soil quality often is related to 10 soil degradation, which can be defined as the time rate of change in soil quality. Soil quality should not be limited to 11 soil productivity, but should encompass environmental quality, human and animal health, and food safety and 12 quality. In characterizing soil quality, biological properties have received less emphasis than chemical and physical properties, because their effects are difficult to measure, predict, or quantify. Improved soil quality often is 13 14 indicated by increased infiltration, aeration, macropores, aggregate size, aggregate stability, and soil organic 15 matter, and by decreased bulk density, soil resistance, erosion, and nutrient runoff.

Keywords: dynamic soil quality, inherent soil quality, soil function, soil health, soil indicator,
sustainable agricultural

18 **1. INTRODUCTION**

Soil, like air and water, is a fundamental natural resource supporting a variety of ecosystem 19 goods and services to the benefit of the mankind (Maikhuri and Rao 2012). Soil is the greatest 20 reservoir and the last frontier of biodiversity which is composed of the four basic components 21 viz. mineral solids, water, air and organic matter including living biota (Brady and Weil 2002; 22 Elias 2016; Gugino et al. 2009b). It is a complex body which subsist as many forms, each with 23 diverse properties that may vary widely across time and space as a function of many factors. This 24 25 complexity makes the evaluation of soil quality much more challenging than that of water or air quality. Evaluation of soil quality now considers environmental implications as well as economic 26 27 productivity, seeking to be more holistic in its approach. Thus, soil quality research draws from a

wide range of disciplines, blending the approaches of biologists, physicists, chemists, ecologists,
economists and agronomists, among others (Carter et al. 1997; Gregorich et al. 1997).

Water movement, water quality, land use and vegetation productivity all have relationships with 30 soil and plays a vital role in sustaining life on the planet. But many of us fail to consider the 31 importance of preserving the health of the earth's soils for now and generations to come by 32 considering soil are a highly valuable and non-renewable dynamic natural resource which is 33 34 essential to life. Nearly all of the food that humans consume, except for what is harvested from marine environments, is grown in the Earth's soils. In more recent years, due to concerns with 35 36 soil degradation and the need for sustainable soil management in agroecosystems, there has been 37 a renewed scientific attention to soil variables. Coupled with this is the idea of soil use which has emphasized the value of soil and soil properties for a specific function. Generally, modern 38 concerns with soil quality evolve around the various functions that soils perform in ecosystems. 39 40 Thus, soil quality becomes inseparable from the idea of system sustainability, and is considered a 41 key indicator of ecosystem sustainability. The emphasis for soil quality shifts away from suitability for use to whether soil functions are operating at some optimum capacity or level 42 within an ecosystem (Schoonover and Crim 2015). 43

Placing a value upon soil in regard to a specific function, purpose or use leads to the concept of soil quality. However, in contrast to water and air, for which the function can be directly related to human and animal consumption, the function placed upon soil is often diverse and usually not directly linked or involved with human health and the concept of quality here is relative to a specific soil function or use (Doran and Parkin 1994).

Understanding soil quality attributes and their relationships with sustainable agriculture is very 49 important to recognize associated problems and to set appropriate resolving measures. The 50 51 concept of soil quality has grown out of concern about the sustainability of agriculture (Parr et al. 1992; Warkentin 1995). Authors (De la Rosa and Sobral 2008) also indicated that environmental 52 sustainability will only be achieved by maintenance and improvement of soil quality because soil 53 also affects water quality, air quality, and biotic quality. Thus, Protecting and/or improving soil 54 55 quality can provide a stepping stone to improving environmental quality as a whole. For example, planting cover crops when a field would otherwise be bare, helps reduce soil erosion 56

and aids in soil and nutrient retention on site, limiting its transportation to waterways wherewater quality would be affected.

Hence, soil quality is not a perceived technology; instead, it is a concept that can be used in 59 making land management decisions. Researchers have generally agreed upon the soil properties 60 that determine soils' capacity to function and have emphasized that soil quality must be 61 understood in context and research has included the following viz. (1) soil management research, 62 63 where the effects of management on soil properties and dependent processes are assessed; (2) measurement development for soil quality assessment to be carried out by the farmers 64 themselves, by advisors, or consultants and (3) systems assessments, that consider the physical 65 and cultural contexts that impact soil quality decision-making. Therefore, the main objective of 66 67 this seminar review is to congregate and synthesize the available information related to soil quality, soil assessments, the role of soil quality for sustainable agriculture. Moreover, the paper 68 69 includes issues and/or constraints and research implications related to soil quality in Ethiopia.

70 1.1.Conception and Definitions of Soil Quality

71 Soil quality is not a new topic because early scientific endeavors recognized the importance of categorizing soil type and soil variables in regard to land or soil use, especially for agricultural 72 purpose (Carter et al. 1997). Historically, soil quality meant suitability or limitations of a soil for 73 74 a particular use (Warkentin and Fletcher 1977). Warkentin and Fletcher (1977) also discussed soil quality from the perspective of soils having value in the biosphere. These authors clinched 75 that the soil quality concept has both intrinsic and current use components and added that soil 76 quality is a key element for evaluating the sustainability of agricultural systems. According to 77 (Bremer and Ellert 2004) concerns about soil quality stem from three major issues in agriculture: 78 (i) Are the land resources required for continued agricultural productivity being maintained? (ii) 79 Are agricultural lands harming the environment (water quality, air quality, biodiversity)? and (iii) 80 Are agricultural products safe and nutritious? In fact, for many soil scientists, ecologists, 81 agronomists, and other professionals around the world, the continuing degradation of natural 82 resources is closely associated with a loss of soil quality and their rationale is that if soils are 83 84 managed/maintained in a manner that ensures the biological, chemical, and physical properties and processes are sustained and functioning properly, much of the current degradation can be 85 mitigated. 86

87 The concept of soil quality literally to some group seems unnecessary and redundant among the soil science profession because they assume that "everyone" knows what a good soil constitutes 88 and where it found. To others, quantifying soil quality is impossible because of "natural 89 differences" among soil orders and even between the same soil series found in different places. 90 91 What constitutes good soil quality may be different according to land use and/or geographic region. For this reason, (Karlen et al. 1997) and (Doran and Parkin 1996) suggest that soil quality 92 93 should be evaluated based on how well a soil functions within its specific ecosystem (agriculture, urban, etc.). For example, in an agricultural field, the capacity of a soil to function and sustaining 94 crop growth would depend on several soil characteristics including bulk density, soil moisture, 95 infiltration, and biological activity, to name a few. Many of these properties can be changed by 96 management and soil quality can be improved according to its function. 97

98 Presently, soil quality has been defined by some scientists as the "*fitness for use*" (Acton and 99 Gregorich 1995a; Pierce and Larson 1993), and by others as the "*capacity of the soil to function*" 100 (Arshad and Martin 2002; Doran and Parkin 1994; Karlen et al. 2001) but the soil science expert 101 community and others are used the second definition of soil quality which balances the physical, 102 biological, and chemical components of soil as proposed by Karlen *et al.* (2001) and the 103 expanded version of this functional definition is:

104 "The capacity of a specific kind of soil to function, within natural or managed ecosystem
105 boundaries, to sustain plant and animal productivity, maintain or enhance water and air
106 quality, and support human health and habitation."

107 The imbedded concept in this definition is the capacity of the soil to carry out ecological 108 functions that support terrestrial communities (including agroecosystems and humans), resist 109 erosion, and reduce negative impacts on associated air and water resources with the fitness of 110 soils to perform particular ecosystem functions.

The concept of soil quality has undergone an evolutionary process that began with a definition and the identification of parameters that could be used to assess soils in a holistic fashion and relate soil properties to processes and management practices. Basically, the conception of soil science dates back to the 1970s when Warkentin and Fletcher (1977) suggested the development of a concept of soil quality. These authors portray that the concept of soil quality was introduced for proper stratification and allotment of agricultural inputs by making our understanding of soils

more complete. According to (Loganathan and Narendiran 2016) the interest in soil quality can 117 be traced back to the ancient agricultural civilization. In the course of time, understanding the 118 119 use of agricultural residues, application of organic matter, crop rotation, and tillage practices has been fundamental in maintaining soil fertility. Thus, the soil quality discussion which has 120 121 developed since the late 1980's has raised important issues about soil assessment and management. At the same time, it is often frustrating due to the lack of direct testing of the 122 123 proposed concepts. The current discussion of soil quality is distinguished from previous soil assessment efforts by its attention to the dynamic soil characteristics that are affected by 124 management choices. 125

126 The characteristics that define a high-quality soil depend on the inherent features of the soil, 127 landscape, climate, and land use. But there are some general features that most authors imply are necessary for a soil to be described as healthy or of high quality. Quality soil is thought to be: 128 129 high in organic matter and biological activity, friable with stable aggregates, easily penetrated by 130 plant roots, easily infiltrated by water rather than running over the surface and low in weed and disease pressure. Quality soil will produce healthy crops over the long-term without increasing 131 levels of inputs. It will control water flow and will filter and degrade potential environmental 132 133 contaminants. Healthy soil is buffered against wide swings in temperature, moisture and other environmental conditions. This buffering capacity will be reflected in low levels of pest 134 outbreaks and relatively stable production levels. 135

These definitions (Table 1) imply that quality with respect to soil can be viewed in two ways: (1) 136 137 as inherent properties of a soil; and (2) as the dynamic nature of soils as influenced by climate, and human use and management (Seybold et al. 1999). With respect to inherent properties, a soil 138 139 is a result of the factors of soil formation viz. climate, topography, vegetation, parent material, and time (Brady and Weil 2002; Elias 2016). Each soil, therefore, has an innate capacity to 140 141 function, e.g., some soils will be inherently more productive or will be able to partition water much more effectively than others. This view of the definition is useful for comparing the 142 143 abilities of one soil against another, and is often used to evaluate the with or suitability of soils for specific uses. Thus, an intrinsic part of the soil quality is covering a soil's inherent capacity 144 145 for crop growth. For example, sandy soil drains faster than clayey soil. Deep soil has more room for roots than soils with bedrock near the surface. These characteristics do not change easily. 146

However, it can be influenced by pedogenic processes and the changes are more pronounced in
tropical climate due to physical and chemical weathering enhanced by high temperature and
precipitation.

The dynamic soil quality part is influenced by the soil user or manager which underlines the 150 151 lessons of history that good quality soils can be degraded by poor management practices. This argument is further strengthened by (Larson and Pierce 1994) who reported as dynamic soil 152 153 quality changes in response to soil use and management. As (Richter 1987) proposed also as the distinction between inherent and dynamic soil quality can also be characterized by the genetic (or 154 155 static) pedological processes versus the kinetic (or dynamic) processes in soil. (Koolen 1987) and 156 (Carter 1990) also make a distinction between state properties and behavioral properties in soil, 157 which correspond to the concepts of inherent and dynamic soil quality.

Therefore, dynamic soil quality is how soil changes depending on how it is managed. 158 Management choices affect the amount of soil organic matter, soil structure, soil depth, and 159 water and nutrient holding capacity and one goal of soil quality/health research is to learn how to 160 manage soil in a way that improves soil functions because soils respond differently to 161 162 management depending on the inherent properties of the soil and the surrounding landscape. As 163 a result, understanding soil quality/health means assessing and managing soil so that it functions 164 optimally now and is not degraded for future use and by monitoring changes in soil health, a land manager can determine if a set of practices is sustainable or not. 165

166 The concept of soil quality has been suggested by several authors (Acton and Padbury 1993; Granatstein and Bezdicek 1992; Karlen et al. 1992; Lal 1991; Papendick and Parr 1992; Sanders 167 168 1992) as a tool for assessing long-term sustainability of agricultural practices at local, regional, 169 national, and international levels. Sustainable management of soils and land supports agricultural productivity, food security, climate change mitigation and resilience, and a range of ecosystem 170 services. Indeed, many of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) are closely related to soil 171 health, SDG 15 specifically calls for halting and reversing land degradation by 2030. As (Doran 172 173 and Parkin 1994) suggested that soil quality assessments could be used as a management tool or aid to help farmers select specific management practices and as a measure of sustainability. They 174 also suggested that approaches used to define and assess soil quality should be tailored for 175

specific applications such as sustainable production, environmental quality, and animal or human
health. Soil quality may also provide a focal point or vocabulary for communication between
scientists and non-scientists, if the concept can be clearly defined.

Concepts and Definition of soil quality	References
"The concept of soil quality encompasses the following facts: Land resources are being evaluated for different uses; Multiple stakeholder groups are concerned about resources; Priorities of society and the demands on land	(Warkentin and Fletcher 1977)
'The sustained capability of a soil to accept, store and recycle water, nutrients and energy."	(Anderson and Gregorich 1984)
Soil qualities are defined as inherent characteristics or properties of a soil, such as texture, slope, structure, and soil color.	(USDA 2006)
"The capacity of a soil to function within its ecosystem boundaries and interact positively with the environment external to that ecosystem."	(Larson and Pierce 1994)
"A composite measure of both a soil's ability to function and how well it functions, relative to a specific use".	(Gregorich et al. 1994)
"Reflect the fitness of a soil body, within land use, landscape and climate boundaries, to protect water and air quality, sustain plant and animal productivity and quality, and promote human health".	(Harris and Bezdicek 1994)
"How effectively soils accept, hold, and release nutrients and other chemical constituents; accept, hold, and release water to plants, streams and groundwater; promote and sustain root growth; maintain suitable biotic habitat; and respond to management and resist degradation".	(Larson and Pierce 1994)
"The capacity of soil to function within ecosystem boundaries to sustain biological productivity, maintain environmental quality, and promote plant and animal health"	(Doran and Parkin 1994)
"The soils capacity or fitness to support crop growth without resulting in soil degradation or otherwise harming the environment"	(Acton and Gregorich 1995b)
"capacity of a soil to function, within ecosystem and land-use boundaries, to sustain biological productivity, maintain environmental quality, and promote plant, animal and human health".	(Doran 1996)
Assert that soil quality is intended to protect the ability of ecosystems to function properly.	(Cook and Hendershot 1996)
"The capacity of a specific kind of soil to function, within natural or managed ecosystem boundaries, to sustain plant and animal productivity, maintain or enhance water and air quality, and support human health and habitation."	(Karlen et al. 1997)
soil quality can only be evaluated on assessing the outcomes of soil functions, i.e., by comparing 'what the soil does' to 'what the soil is asked to do'	(Carter et al. 1997)
The whole thrust of soil quality research arose from the recognition that soils are a vital component of and provide necessary services to the ecosystem and that the ability of soils to continue to provide those services is threatened by degradation.	(Daily et al. 1997)
Soil quality is a measure of the conditions of soil relative to the requirement of one or more species and	(Johnson et al. 1997; Lal

/or to any human need or purpose.	1997)
Stated that the concept of soil quality includes soil fertility, potential productivity, resource sustainability, and	(Singer et al. 2000)
environmental quality.	
The soil-quality concept is related to the concepts of sustainability of soil use and management	(USDA 2006)
"Soil quality is the capacity of a specific kind of soil to function, within natural or managed ecosystem boundaries,	(SSSA 2008)
to sustain plant and animal productivity, maintain or enhance water and air quality, and support human health and	
habitation".	

185 **1.2.Soil Health versus Soil Quality and Basic Functions**

186 Only "living" things can have health, so viewing soil as a living ecosystem reflects a fundamental shift in the way we care for our nation's soils. Soil isn't an inert growing medium, 187 188 but rather is teaming with billions of bacteria, fungi, and other microbes that are the foundation of an elegant symbiotic ecosystem. In the scientific community, soil quality and soil health are 189 190 used and defined synonymously (Acton and Gregorich 1995b; Doran and Parkin 1994; Harris and Bezdicek 1994; Karlen and Stott 1994; Larson and Pierce 1994) and currently the terms are 191 192 becoming increasingly familiar worldwide. A modern consensus definition of soil health is "the continued capacity of the soil to function as a vital living ecosystem that sustains plants, animals 193 194 and humans". Whereas, concise definitions for soil quality include "fitness for use" and "the capacity of a soil to function." Combining these, soil quality is the ability of a soil to perform the 195 functions necessary for its intended use (USDA-NRCS 2012). According to Moebius et al. 196 (2016) soil health is a concept that deals with the integration and optimization of the chemical, 197 physical, and biological processes of soil that are important for sustained productivity and 198 environmental quality (Figure 1). 199



Figure 1. The concept of soil health deals with integrating the physical, biological and chemical
 components of the soil (Source: the *Rodale Institute* and *AgSource Laboratories*,
 respectively).

204 Doran and Parkin (1994), defined soil quality as "the capacity of a soil to function, within 205 ecosystem and land use boundaries, to sustain productivity, maintain environmental quality, and 206 promote plant and animal health." Moreover, soil health is a concept which deals with the integration and optimization of the physical, chemical and biological properties of soil for 207 improved productivity and environmental quality. Essentially the Rodale Institute stated that 208 there is no standard definition of soil health, since there are a few clear indicators of a healthy 209 210 soil community many of which have informed organic farming practices. Organic growers rely on the surrounding soil and ecosystem biology to support their crops rather than the chemistry of 211 pesticide, herbicide and fertilizer companies (https://rodaleinstitute.org/our-work/soil-health/). 212

Consideration of soil as a finite and living resource, led to the concept of soil health defined as the continued capacity of soil to function as a vital living system, within ecosystem and land-use boundaries, to sustain biological productivity, maintain or enhance the quality of air and water, and promote plant, animal and human health (Doran and Parkin 1996; Doran and Zeiss 2000).

In general, soil health and soil quality are considered synonymous and can be used interchangeably, with one key distinction conceptualized by scientists and practitioners over the last decades: soil quality includes both inherent and dynamic quality. Inherent soil quality refers to the aspects of soil quality relating to a soil's natural composition and properties (soil type) influenced by the natural long-term factors and processes of soil formation which cannot be influenced by human management. Whereas, dynamic soil quality, which is equivalent to soil health, refers to soil properties that change as a result of soil use and management over the human time scale. Thus, soil health invokes the idea that soil is an ecosystem full of life that needs to be carefully managed to regain and maintain our soil's ability to function optimally and the term 'soil health' has been generally preferred by farmers, while scientists have generally preferred 'soil quality' (Gugino et al. 2009a; Moebius-Clune et al. 2016).

Healthy soil gives us clean air and water, bountiful crops and forests, productive grazing lands, diverse wildlife, and beautiful landscapes. Soil does all this and others (Figure 2) by performing five essential functions: (1) Regulating water, (2) Sustaining plant and animal life, (3) Filtering and buffering potential pollutants, (4) Cycling nutrients and Physical stability and support. At the heart of soil health is the integration of soil physical, chemical and biological processes and functions. A healthy soil will be a balance of all three components. For years we have relied on inexpensive soil testing procedures to assess chemical properties, but methods for rapid assessment of the physical and biological status of the soil are not generally offered. The Cornell Soil Health Assessment can be used to evaluate and integrate these different processes and functions for the purpose of improving soil health.



Figure 2. Soil functions adopted from FAO fact sheet prepared for 2015 international year of soil.

Features of healthy soil	Descriptions	
Good soil tilth	Soil tilth refers to the overall physical character of the soil in the context of its suitability for crop production	
Sufficient depth	Sufficient depth refers to the extent of the soil profile to which roots are able to grow and function. A soil with a shallow depth as a result of a compaction layer or past erosion is more susceptible to extreme fluctuations in the weather, thus predisposing the crop to drought or flooding stress.	
Sufficient but not excess supply of nutrients	An adequate and accessible supply of nutrients is necessary for optimal plant growth and for maintaining balanced cycling of nutrients within the system. Excess nutrients can lead to leaching and potential ground water pollution, high nutrient runoff and greenhouse gas losses, as well as toxicity to plants and microbial communities.	
Small population of plant pathogens and insect pests	In agricultural production systems, plant pathogens and pests can cause diseases and damage to the crop. In a healthy soil, the population of these organisms is low and/or inactive. This could result from direct competition from other soil organisms for nutrients or niche habitats, hyperparasitism, etc. Also, healthy plants are better able to defend themselves against a variety of pests (similar to the human immune system).	
Good soil drainage	Even after a heavy rain, a healthy soil will drain more rapidly as a result of good soil structure and an adequate distribution of different size pore spaces, but also retain adequate water for plant uptake.	
Large population of beneficial organisms	Soil microbes are important to the functioning of the soil. They help nutrient cycling, decomposition of organic matter, maintenance of soil structure, biological suppression of plant pests, etc. A healthy soil will have a high and diverse population of beneficial organisms to carry out these functions and thus help maintain a healthy soil status.	
low weed pressure	Weed pressure is a major constraint in crop production. Weeds compete with crops for water and nutrients that are essential for plant growth. Weeds can interfere with stand establishment, block sunlight, interfere with harvest and cultivation operations, and harbor disease causing pathogens and pests.	
Free of chemicals and toxins that may harm the crop	Healthy soils are either devoid of harmful chemicals and toxins or can detoxify and/or bind such chemicals making them unavailable for plant uptake due to their richness in stable organic matter and diverse microbial communities.	
resistant to degradation	A healthy, well aggregated soil is more resistant to adverse events including erosion by wind and rain, excess rainfall, extreme drought, vehicle compaction, etc.	
Resilience when unfavorable conditions occur	A healthy soil will rebound more quickly after a negative event such as harvesting under wet soil conditions or if land constraints restrict or modify planned rotations.	

Table 2. Characteristics of a healthy/quality Soil

228 Source: Gugino *et al.*, 2009

229 1.3.Soil Quality Attributes/Indicators and their roles in soil system

Soils have chemical, biological, and physical properties that interact in a complex way to give a soil its quality or capacity to function (genesis and classification). Thus, soil quality and many soil ecosystem functions cannot be measured directly, but must be inferred from measuring changes in its attributes or attributes of the ecosystem, referred to as indicators (Box 3), which are easily measurable soil properties to determine the status of soil quality (Acton and Padbury 1993).

236 Because of the multiple and complex functions associated with soil quality, its assessment necessitates the integration of chemical, physical, and biological soil properties. Of particular 237 interest are properties that can serve as early and sensitive indicators of ecosystem stress or 238 changes in soil productivity. Given the pervasive role of organic matter in promoting soil 239 ecosystem functions, it is not surprising that researchers have found soil organic matter-related 240 properties to be important indicators of soil quality (Arshad and Coen 1992; Gregorich et al. 241 1994; Islam and Weil 2000; Kennedy and Papendick 1995; Larson and Pierce 1991; Wander and 242 Bollero 1999). Popp et al., (2002) cited in (Weil and Magdoff 2004) highlighted that soil pH and 243 SOM are the two most commonly included soil quality indicators in many studies. Dumansky 244 245 (1994) also concluded that "soil organic matter is emerging as a key indicator for assessing sustainability" of land management systems. 246

247

Box 3. What are indicators?

Indicators are representations that communicate correct and relevant information quickly and easily to people who are not necessarily experts in the field. In contrast, data are values 248 that need further processing before they provide meaningful information, such as a statistic. Statistics describe real phenomena according to exact definitions, but they often require 249 interpretation. Indicators communicate a correct message without further interpretation (note: the term 'indicator' is also used generically for any variable related to the information 250 of interest). Indicators may be based on a simple relationship between observation and information needs, e.g., a fuel gauge. Indicators might also be based on a proxy relationship 251 between observation and information needs, e.g., the "canary in a coalmine". Finally, indicators might be based on many measurements related to the needed information, e.g., gross domestic product. When expressed relative to an agreed standard, indicators are often 252 referred to as indices, e.g., greenhouse gas index, consumer price index and soil quality index. 253

Table 3. Key soil indicators for soil quality assessment (after Arshad and Coen, 1992, Doran and Parkin, 1994, Gregorich et al. 1994 Larson and Pierce 1991 Carter et al. 1997 Karlen et al. 1997)

Selected	Rationale for selection	
indicator		
Organic matter	Defines soil fertility and soil structure, pesticide and water retention	
Topsoil-depth	Estimate rooting volume for crop production and erosion	
Aggregation	Soil structure, erosion resistance, crop emergence an early indicator of soil	
	management effect	
Texture	Retention and transport of water and chemicals	
Bulk density	Plant root penetration, porosity, adjust analysis to volumetric basis	
Infiltration	Runoff, leaching and erosion potential	
pН	Nutrient availability, pesticide absorption and mobility	
EC	Defines crop growth, soil structure, water infiltration	
Pollutants	Plant quality, and human and animal health	
Soil respiration	Biological activity, process modeling; estimate of biomass activity, early	
	warning of management effect on organic matter	
Forms of N	Availability of crops, leaching potential, mineralization/ immobilization rates,	
Extractable N,	Capacity to support plant growth, environmental quality indicator	
P and K		

Table 4. Proposed MDS of physical, chemical, and biological indicators for screening the quality or health of soils (After Doran *et al.*, 1996 and Larson and Pierce, 1994)

Indicators	Relationship to soil condition and function: rationale as a priority measurement	
Physical		
Texture	Retention and transport of water and chemicals; modeling use, soil erosion and variability estimate	
Depth of soil and rooting	Estimate of productivity potential and erosion; normalizes landscape and geographic variability	
Infiltration and bulk density	Potential for leaching, productivity, and erosivity; bulk density: SBD needed to adjust analyses to volumetric basis	
Water holding capacity	Related to water retention, transport, and erosivity; available H ₂ O; calculate from SBD, texture, and OM	
Chemical		
Soil organic matter (OM)	Defines soil fertility, stability, and erosion extent; matter (OM); use in process models and for site normalization	
pH	Defines biological and chemical activity thresholds; essential to process modeling	
Electrical conductivity	Defines plant and microbial activity thresholds; presently lacking in most process models	
Extractable N, P, and K	Plant available nutrients and potential for N loss; productivity and environmental quality indicators	
Biological		
Microbial biomass C and N	Microbial catalytic potential and repository for C and N; modeling: early warning of management effects on OM	
Potentially mineralizable N	Soil productivity and N supplying potential; mineralizable N; process modeling (surrogate indicator of biomass)	
Soil respiration	Microbial activity measure (in some cases plants); process modeling; estimate of biomass activity	

Category	Indicator	How soil texture relates to soil function
	Soil texture	Texture affects many important soil processes due to the total amount of pore space and how varied pore space is within aggregates. Soils with higher clay contents generally have higher ability to retain nutrients (more CEC) and can accumulate, or sequester, more organic matter. In addition, soil organisms and plant roots live and function in pore spaces. When the soil loses porosity (generally due to management), roots cannot grow as well, and many organisms have more difficulty surviving.
	Available Water Capacity	Water is stored in medium and small sized soil pores and in organic matter. Available Water Capacity is an indicator relating the laboratory measured weight of soil to water storage capacity in the field, and therefore how crops may fare in extremely dry conditions. Soils with lower storage capacity have greater risk of drought stress. Sandy soils, which tend to store less organic matter and have larger pores, tend to lose more water to gravity than clayey and loamy soils.
Physical	Surface and subsurface hardness	Field penetration resistance is an indicator of the soil compaction status. Compaction occurs when large pores are packed closer together through tillage or traffic with heavy equipment, particularly on wet soils. Large pores are necessary for water and air movement and to allow roots and organisms to explore the soil. When surface soils are compacted, runoff, erosion, slow infiltration, and poor water storage result.
	Wet Aggregate Stability	Wet Aggregate Stability tests the soil's physical ability to hold together and sustain its aggregation, or structure, during conditions with the most impact: a heavy rain storm or other rapid wetting event, such as irrigation, after surface drying weather. This is a good indicator of both physical and biological health. Soils with low aggregate stability tend to form surface crusts and compacted surface soils, which can reduce air exchange and seed germination, increase plant stress and susceptibility to pathogen attack, and reduce water infiltration and thus storage of water received as rainfall. This leads to runoff, erosion and flooding risk downstream during heavy rainfall, and higher risk of drought stress later. Poor soil aggregation also makes the soil more difficult to manage, as it reduces its ability to drain excess water, so that it takes longer before field operations are possible after rain events.
	Total soil organic matter	Soil organic matter is where soil carbon is stored. OM in its various forms greatly impacts the physical, biological and chemical properties of the soil. OM acts as a long-term carbon sink, and as a slow-release pool for nutrients. It contributes to ion exchange capacity (nutrient storage), nutrient cycling, soil aggregation, and water holding capacity, and it provides nutrients and energy to the plant and soil microbial communities.
Biologica	Soil Protein Index	Plant residues are ultimately the source of much of the SOM. Microbial biomass builds up as plant residues and other organic matter amendments decompose in the soil. Residues are made up of several types of compounds that are largely similar in composition, of these compounds, protein contains the largest fraction of N. Protein content, as organically bound N, influences the ability of the soil to store N, and make it available by mineralization during the growing season. Soil protein content has also been associated with soil aggregation and thus water storage and movement.
	Soil Respiration	Respiration is a direct biological activity measurement, integrating abundance and activity of microbial life. Thus, it is an indicator of the biological status of the soil community, which can give

Table 5. Soil health indicators and their relation to soil function compiled from Moebius *et al.*, 2016

		insight into the ability of the soil's microbial community to accept and use residues or amendments, to mineralize and make nutrients available from them to plants and other organisms, to store nutrients and buffer their availability over time, and to develop good soil structure, among other important functions.	
	Active Carbon	Due to its role in providing available food and energy sources for the soil microbial community, active carbon is positively correlated with percent organic matter aggregate stability, a with measures of biological activity (such as respiration) and Microbial biomass. Research has shown that active carbon is a good "leading indicator" of soil her response to changes in crop and soil management, usually responding to management much soo (often years sooner) than total organic matter percent.	
Chemical	Standard Nutrient Analysis (pH and extracts plant macro- and micronutrients)	Nutrient availability is critical to crop production. Of the eighteen elements needed by plants, only three N, P, and K are commonly deficient in soils. Deficiencies of micronutrients such as Mg, S, B, Mn and Zn can occur, but it is unusual. Crops do not grow properly if nutrients are not present at the right time of the season in sufficient quantities and in balance with one another. When plants don't grow well they are more susceptible to disease, loss of yield, and poor crop quality which leads to reduced economic returns.	
Adds-on	Potentially Mineralizable Nitrogen	The PMN test provides us with one indication of the capacity of the soil biota to recycle organic nitrogen that is present into plant available forms	
	Root Health Bio-assay	Pathogen pressure refers to the degree to which plants encounter potentially growth-limiting attack by disease causing organisms. This is a function of: • The presence of pathogen • The host • The environmental condition	
	Heavy Metal Contamination	Most heavy metals are adsorbed strongly to clays and organic matter, which limits the potential for plants to take these up when soil pH is not in the acid range	
Salinity High salinity decreases the osmotic potential of the soil water relative		High salinity decreases the osmotic potential of the soil water relative to plant water.	



261

Figure 3. Graphical representation of the concept of soil quality using soil functions and indicators of soil quality, adapted from Seybold *et al.*, 1997.

Soil quality is estimated by observing or measuring different properties or processes, and, several 264 of these indicators can be used to determine soil quality indices. According to different authors 265 266 (Doran and Zeiss, 2000), indicators should be limited and manageable in number by different types of users, simple and easy to measure, cover the largest possible situations (soil types), 267 including temporal variation, and be highly sensitive to environmental changes and soil 268 management (Dick et al. 2000). The selection of indicators thus depends on the soil and 269 functions being assessed. These features include, among others: support for the development of 270 living organisms, water and nutrient flows, diversity and productivity of plants and animals, 271 elimination or detoxification of organic and inorganic contaminants. Likewise, the selection 272

273 depends on the sensitivity of these properties to soil management or changes in climate, as well 274 as the accessibility and usefulness to producers, scientists, conservationists and policy makers (Doran and Parkin 1996; Rezaei et al. 2006)). The selection of indicators implies knowing 275 research needs, and the power to interpret the indicator: the land use, the relationship between 276 the indicator and the soil function that is being evaluated, the easiness and reliability of the 277 measurement, the variation in time of the crop, application of organic matter or crop rotation in 278 relation to sampling, the sensitivity of the soil property to be measured against changes in the 279 ecosystem (Rezaei et al. 2006). 280



281 282

Figure 4. Proposed flowchart for the evaluation of soil quality (Bremer and Ellert 2004).

In fact, some authors suggest that a soil quality indicator is not adequate if it is not directly related to the target user. If the goal is a quality index for soil crop production, then soil organic matter, infiltration, soil aggregation, pH, microbial biomass, N forms, bulk density, electrical conductivity or salinity, and available nutrients, represent a group of indicators that can be used to describe most of the soil basic functions like the ability to accept, hold and release water to plants, maintain productivity, and respond to management and erosion processes (Rezaei *et al.* 2006). As (Brejda and Moorman 2001) stated that soil quality cannot be measured directly but 290 can be measured through some sensitive indicators. Further, they emphasized that the changes in 291 these indicators are used to determine whether soil quality is improving, stable, or declining with 292 changes in management, land-use, or conservation practices. Indicators of soil quality can be defined loosely as those soil properties and processes that have greatest sensitivity to changes in 293 294 soil functions (Andrews et al. 2004). Indicators are a composite set of measurable attributes which are derived from functional relationships and can be monitored via field observation, field 295 296 sampling, remote sensing, survey or compilation of existing information (Walker and Reuter 297 1996). Indicators signal desirable or undesirable changes in land and vegetation management that have occurred or may occur in the future. These indicators may directly monitor the soil, or 298 monitor the outcomes that are affected by the soil, such as increases in biomass, improved water 299 300 use efficiency, and aeration. Soil quality indicators can also be used to evaluate sustainability of land-use and soil management practices in agroecosystems (Shukla et al. 2006). 301

302 Several researchers have observed different set of key indicators for assessing soil quality depending upon the soil types and other variations. The integration of scientific and farmer's 303 304 evaluation of soil quality indicators is reported by (Mairura et al. 2007) and emphasized that the indicators for distinguishing productive and non-productive soils include crop yields and 305 306 performance, soil colour and its texture. Parr et al. (1992) suggested that increased infiltration, 307 aeration, macropores, aggregate distribution and their stability and soil organic matter and 308 decreased rate of bulk density, soil resistance, erosion and nutrient runoff are some of the 309 important indicators for improved soil quality.

310 However, while selecting the indicators, it is important to ensure that the indicators should i) correlate well with natural processes in the ecosystem (this also increases their utility in process-311 312 oriented modeling, ii) integrate soil physical, chemical, and biological properties and processes, and serve as basic inputs needed for estimation of soil properties or functions which are more 313 difficult to measure directly, iii) be relatively easy to use under field conditions, so that both 314 specialists and producers can use them to assess soil quality, iv) be sensitive to variations in 315 316 management and climate and v) be the components of existing soil databases wherever possible (Doran et al., 1996; Doran and Parkin, 1996). Interpreting soil quality by merely monitoring 317 318 changes in individual soil quality indicators may not give complete information about soil.

Physical	Biological	Chemical
Texture	Root pathogen pressure assessment	Phosphorus
Bulk density	Beneficial nematode population	Nitrate nitrogen
Macro-porosity	Parasitic nematode population	Potassium
Meso-porosity	Potentially mineralizable nitrogen	pH
Micro-porosity	Cellulose decomposition rate	Magnesium
Available water capacity	Particulate organic matter	Calcium
Residual porosity	Active carbon	Iron
Penetration resistance at 10 kPa	Weed seed bank	Aluminum
Saturated hydraulic conductivity	Microbial respiration rate	Manganese
Dry aggregate size (<0.25 mm)	Soil proteins	Zinc
Dry aggregate size (0.25 - 2 mm)	Organic matter content	Copper
Dry aggregate size (2 - 8 mm)		Exchangeable acidity
Wet aggregate stability (0.25 - 2 mm)		Salinity
Wet aggregate stability (2 - 8 mm)		Sodicity
Surface hardness with penetrometer		Heavy metals
Subsurface hardness with penetrometer		
Field infiltrability		

320 Table 6. Potential indicators initially evaluated for use in the soil health assessment protocol.

321 Source: (Moebius-Clune et al. 2016)

322 The Cornell Comprehensive Assessment of Soil Health (CCASH) protocol emphasizes the integration of soil biological, physical, and chemical measurements. These measurements 323 324 include soil texture, available water capacity, field penetrometer resistance, wet aggregate 325 stability, organic matter content, soil proteins, respiration, active carbon, and macro- and micro-326 nutrient content assessment. Additional indicators are available as add-ons, including root pathogen pressure, salinity and sodicity, heavy metals, boron and potentially mineralizable 327 nitrogen. These measurements were selected from 42 potential soil health indicators (Table 6) 328 that were evaluated for: Sensitivity to changes in soil management practices; Ability to represent 329 agronomically and environmentally important soil processes; Consistency and reproducibility; 330 Ease and cost of sampling; cost of analysis and ease of interpretation for users. 331

332

334	Table 7. Potential biological, chemical, and physical indicators of soil quality, measurable at various scales of assessment (compiled
335	from Karlen et al. 2001; Singer and Ewing, 2000)

Scale	biological Indicators	Chemical Indicators	physical Indicators
Point scale indicators	Microbial biomass	pH	Aggregate stability
	Potential N mineralization	Organic C and N	Aggregate size distribution
	Particulate organic matter	Extractable macronutrients	Bulk density
	Respiration	Electrical conductivity	Porosity
	Earthworms	Micronutrient concentrations	Penetration resistance
	Microbial communities	Heavy metals	Water-filled pore space
	Soil enzymes	CEC and cation ratios	Profile depth
	Fatty acid profiles	-	Crust formation and strength
	Mycorrhizal populations	-	Infiltration
Field - farm or	Crop yield	Soil organic matter changes	Topsoil thickness and color
watershed scale	Weed infestations	Nutrient loading or mining	Compaction or ease of tillage
indicators	Disease pressure	Heavy metal accumulation	Ponding (infiltration)
	Nutrient deficiencies	Changes in salinity	Rill and gully erosion
	Growth characteristics	Leaching or runoff losses	Surface residue cover
Regional – national or	Productivity (yield stability)	Acidification	Desertification
international scale	Species richness, diversity	Salinization	Loss of vegetative cover
indicators	Keystone species and ecosystem engineers	Water quality changes	Wind and water erosion
	Biomass, density and abundance	Air quality changes	Siltation of rivers and lakes

336		\mathbf{i}
	Box 4 . Some key functions of soil microbes include:	
337	Decomposition of organic matter (crop residue)	
338	Mineralization and recycling of nutrients	
220	Fixation of nitrogen	
222	Detoxification of pollutants	
340	Maintenance of soil structure	
241	Biological suppression of plant pests	
541	Parasitism and damage to plants	
342		

343 1.4. Soil Quality Indices

344 In considering soil quality, attempts have been made to examine the factors that indicate 'good' soil health or soil quality, to reach consensus on the definition, upon the key soil attributes that 345 translate into variables (Pedotransfer functions) to be examined, on their data value ranges, their 346 value limits, threshold values, comparability; and to aggregate or integrate the variables/values in 347 348 such a way as to then develop meaningful indices that characterize the quality/health of varying soils in various world regions, across nations, or in local areas, and at the farm level 349 (Synonymous, 2003). Thus, an appropriate Soil Quality Index (SQI) may have three component 350 351 goals: environmental quality, agronomic sustainability, and socio-economic viability (Andrews et al., 2002). 352

353 Soil quality indices are decision tools that effectively combine a variety of information for multiobjective decision making (Karlen and Stott, 1994). A number of soil quality and fertility indices 354 355 have been proposed (Andrews et al. 2004; Beck 1984; Karlen et al. 1998; Stefanic et al. 1984; Trasar-Cepeda et al. 1997), none identifies state of soil degradation that affects its 356 functionality.(Bastida et al. 2008), build on the approach of (Andrews et al. 2002), suggested 357 microbiological degradation index. While many workers appreciated and recommended the use 358 359 of soil quality indices, reservations about their utility also expressed. Many times, the concepts associated with soil quality are used in close association with the concepts of sustainability, 360 leading to a degree of confusion and inappropriate use of the term soil quality (Sojka and 361 Upchurch 1999). Even though the importance of evaluation of soil quality is being increasingly 362 realized, there is yet no global consensus on how this should be defined. 363

One way to integrate information obtained from MDS measurements is to develop a soil quality index. Such an index could be used to monitor and predict the effects of farming systems and management practices on soil quality, or could provide early signs of soil degradation (Parr *et al.*, 1992). Granatstein and Bezdicek (1992) suggest also the need for a soil quality index that reflects both the general potential for human use and unique biophysical conditions of a specific location. The first concept of a soil quality index was introduced by (Rust et al. 1972) who related soil quality to the environmental impacts of agrochemicals (e.g., soluble N fertilizers).

Selections of soil quality indicators or synthetic indices are guided by the goal of ecosystem management. If achieving sustainability is the goal of agroecosystems management, a soil quality index will constitute one component within a nested agroecosystems sustainability hierarchy (Figure 5). Management goals may also differ by the interests and visions of different sections of people concerned with agriculture (Table 7).

Once the management goals are identified, soil quality indexing involves three steps: (i) selection of soil properties/indicators constituting the minimum data set(ii) transformation of indicator scores enabling quantification of all indicators to a common measurement scale and (iii) combining the indicator scores into the index (Figures 5 a and b).



380

Figure 5. (a) Nested hierarchy of agroecosystems sustainability showing the relationship of soil quality to the larger agroecosystems, (b) Conceptual relationship between soil quality MDS, scoring functions, and index values. Adopted from (Maikhuri and Rao 2012).

2. FACTORS INFLUENCING SOIL QUALITY

385 Due to improper land use and management, soil degradation is threatening food security (Oldeman *et al.*, 1990). Soil quality and its importance for sustainable agricultural development 386 has received much attention in recent years (Dumanski and Pieri 2000; Liu et al. 2010). Karlen et 387 al. (1992) stated that inherent interactions among the five-basic soil forming factors [parent 388 material, climate (including water and temperature effects), macro- and micro-organisms, 389 topography and time] create a relatively stable soil quality that has distinct physical, chemical, 390 and biological characteristics in response to prevailing natural or non-anthropogenic factors. 391 However, humankind, the anthropogenic force described as a sixth soil forming factor in the 392 basic model for describing a soil (SSSA 2008) interacts with the non-anthropogenic factors and 393 394 influences soil quality both negatively and positively.

395 Soil and crop management practices imposed on land resources by humankind thus determine whether inherent soil quality will be lowered, sustained, or improved over relatively short time 396 397 intervals. The relative importance of anthropogenic or management factors compared to nonanthropogenic physical, chemical, or biological factors will generally be determined by the 398 function or application for which a soil quality assessment is made (Karlen, n.d). There are 399 several fundamental properties of soils that influence soil quality. A well balanced healthy soil is 400 401 one that is likely to be the most robust and capable of meeting the requirements for a wide range of uses. Some properties, such as texture, are static and cannot be changed readily. Others are 402 more sensitive to change and it is these which in need to be monitored carefully to maintain 403 404 optimum levels.

405 2.1. Processes Influencing Soil Quality

Ecosystem processes which were relevant to environmental quality and agricultural sustainability are (1) soil structure, including form, stability, and resiliency to respond to stress; (2) nutrient cycling, involving transformations such as mineralization and immobilization; and (3) biological interactions, including trophic relations within food webs. These processes may influence soil quality because they are easily influenced by soil and crop management inputs into agroecosystems. Tillage, fertilization, practices, and pest control are identified as practices capable of influencing soil structure, nutrient cycling, and biological interactions, respectively (Bronick and Lal 2005). They also stated that by understanding agroecosystems processes, it
would be possible to identify practices or mechanisms to mitigate environmental degradation
through surface water eutrophication, groundwater contamination, soil erosion, sedimentation,
and contamination by pesticide residues.

417 2.2. Management Practices Influencing Soil Quality

418 Management practices that influence soil organic matter content are the most important with 419 respect to soil quality; because soil organic matter was the component that showed the greatest 420 decline when virgin prairie was first broken for cultivation (Karlen, n.d; Bauer and Black, 421 1981). The use of management strategies that add or maintain soil carbon, therefore, appear to be 422 needed to improve the quality of our soil resources (Karlen *et al.*, 1992).

	Process	Effect on soil attributes/quality	Possible effect on environment
	Erosion	Topsoil removed, nutrients lost;	Deposition of soil material and
		capacity to regulate water and energy	pesticides in streams and rivers
		flow in soil reduced	
	Loss of OM	Soil fertility and structure reduced;	Increased soil erosion and degradation,
		capacity to regulate energy flow in soil	and enhanced greenhouse effect from
		reduced	released CO ₂
Ī	Loss of structure	Soil porosity and stability reduced;	Increased runoff and soil water erosion
		capacity to store and transmit water	
		reduced	
	Salinization	Excess soluble salts and nutrient	Increased bare soil and soil wind erosion
		imbalance; adverse medium for crop	
		growth	
	Chemical contamination	Presence of toxins; capacity to act as an	Movement of chemical via runoff and/or
		environmental buffer exceeded	leaching

Table 8. Processes associated with land use and management practices that reduce soil quality

424 Source: Carter *et al.*, 1997

425

426

427

429 **3. SOIL QUALITY/HEALTH ASSESSMENT**

430 Soil quality is an effective tool for monitoring soil function. Assessing soil quality (Box 1) involves measuring physical, chemical, and biological soil properties and using these measured 431 values to identify properties of the soil that may be inhibiting soil function or to monitor how 432 changes in management are affecting soil functions (Arnold et al. 2005). Soil quality can only be 433 assessed by measuring properties and therefore involves both an observer and an interpreter. The 434 concepts of soil quality/health, and soil quality/health assessment are highly contentious within 435 the soil science community (Karlen et al. 2008), because many believe those terms have 436 generalized and oversimplified the collective knowledge and wisdom developed through several 437 centuries of intensive, in depth, global studies of soil resources (Letey et al. 2003). 438

439	Box 1: Why assess soil quality/health?			
	Increase awareness of soil health			
440	Understand constraints beyond nutrient deficiencies and excesses			
	 Target management practices to alleviate soil constraints 			
441	Monitor soil improvement or degradation resulting from management practices			
	Facilitate applied research, compare management practices to develop recommendations for farm and			
440	field specific soil health management planning			
442	Land valuation – facilitate the realization of equity embodied in healthier soils			
	 Enable assessment of farming system risk. Source:(Moebius-Clune et al. 2016) 			
443				
444	Soil quality assessment is a tool to assess management-induced changes in the soil and to link			
445	existing resource concerns to environmentally sound land management practices. Soil quality			
446	assessments are conducted by evaluating indicators. Indicators can be physical, chemical, and			
447	biological properties, processes, or characteristics of soils. They can also be morphological or			
448	visual features of plants. Useful Indicators (Box 2) are measured to monitor management			
449	induced changes in the soil.			
450	Box 2 : Useful indicators are: (Source:(Moebius-Clune et al. 2016)			
451	Easy to measure.			
	♦ Able to measure changes in soil functions.			
452	Assessed in a reasonable amount of time.			
453	Accessible to many users and applicable to field conditions.			
	Sensitive to variations in climate and management.			
454	Representative of physical, biological or chemical properties of soil.			
455	Assessed by qualitative and/or quantitative methods.			

Soil quality indicators are selected because of their relationship to specific soil properties and soil quality. For example, soil organic matter is a widely used indicator, because it can provide information about a wide range of properties such as soil fertility, soil structure, soil stability, and nutrient retention. Similarly, plant indicators, such as rooting depth, can provide information about the bulk density or compaction of the soil.

461 Assessment of soil quality is a sensitive and dynamic way to document soils condition, its response to management, or its resistance to stress imposed by natural forces or human uses 462 (Larson and Pierce 1991). As stated earlier, soil quality can be assessed by measuring soil 463 attributes or properties that serve as soil quality indicators. The changes in these indicators signal 464 the changes in soil quality (Brejda and Moorman 2001). The first step is selecting the appropriate 465 466 soil quality indicators to efficiently and effectively monitor critical soil functions as determined by the specific management goals for which an evaluation is being made. These indicators 467 together form a minimum data set (MDS) that can be used to determine the performance of the 468 critical soil functions associated with each management goal. In order to combine the various 469 470 chemical, physical and biological measurements with totally different units, each indicator is then scored using ranges established by the soil's inherent capability to set the boundaries and 471 472 shape of the scoring function. As (Andrews and Carroll 2001) suggested that dynamic soil quality assessment could be viewed as one of the components needed to quantify agroecosystems 473 474 sustainability.

In general, soil quality assessment is carried out by selecting a set of soil properties which are 475 476 considered as indicators of soil quality. Soil functions are sensitive to soil quality indicators (Aparicio and Costa 2007), hence the indicators should be easy to measure (Dumanski and Pieri 477 478 2000). The selection of minimum soil data set (MDS) is based on methods such as principal component analysis (PCA) (Andrews and Carroll, 2001), expert opinion (EO) (Andrews et al., 479 2002) and factor analysis (Shukla et al. 2006). PCA reduces the dimension of large volume of 480 data and facilitate the indicator selection by categorically grouping the soil properties into 481 482 principal components (PC). Expert opinion, primarily based on available literature, field experience and knowledge of soil scientists, emphasizes on the cause-effect relationship of soil 483 484 properties influenced by pedogenic processes (Pal et al. 2014).

485 **4. SOIL QUALITY ISSUES AND CONSTRAINTS IN ETHIOPIA**

Ethiopia is trapped in a vicious cycle of poverty (Esser et al. 2002) and in many parts of Ethiopia, land degradation in the form of soil erosion, nutrient depletion, soil compaction, and increased salinization and acidity pose a serious threat to sustainable intensification and diversification of agricultural production systems. Moreover, prevailing soil management practices including over tillage and blanket fertilization are key factors in Ethiopian agriculture's contribution to climate change (Zelleke et al. 2010). The key soil level bottlenecks identified in various parts of Ethiopia are:

- Nutrient depletion (-122 (N), -13 (P) and -82 (K) kgha⁻¹yr⁻¹, the highest in Sub-Saharan Africa)
- OM depletion(crop residue removal, intensive tillage, dung burning and deforestation)
- Biological deterioration (Loss of SOM and decline in the biotic activity of soil fauna but
 the ignored part due to measurement facility)
- Chemical degradation (Salinity, sodicity, and Acidity)
- Physical land degradation (deterioration of soil structure, crusting, compaction, erosion, and desertification).

Poor land-use practices and population pressure are the major drivers. There is a lack of reliable
and consistent data on the extent and rate of soil loss (t/ha/yr) (Eyasu 2003; Gebreselassie et al.
2016). Different data sources report different estimates on the amount of soil loss from arable
land (Table 10).

Soil Loss (t/ha/yr)	Method used	Sources
130	USLE and guess estimation	(Constable and Belshaw 1986)
42	Measurement from 8 runoff plot across the country	(Hurni 1988)
75	Measurement from runoff plots	(Tegene 1992)
300	Secondary data and estimates	(Hawando 1997)
100	Guess estimate	(Bekele-Tesemma 1997)

Table 9. Estimates of rates of soil loss on croplands in Ethiopia

505 Source: (Eyasu 2003; Gebreselassie et al. 2016)

506 Ethiopia faces a wider set of soil fertility issues beyond chemical fertilizer use, which has historically been the major focus for extension workers, researchers, policymakers, and donors. 507 508 If left unchecked, this wider set of issues will limit future output and growth in agriculture across the country; in some areas, they already limit the effectiveness of chemical fertilizer. These 509 chemical, physical, and biological issues interact and include loss of organic matter, 510 macronutrient, and micronutrient depletion, topsoil erosion, acidity, salinity, and deterioration of 511 512 other physical soil properties. In addition, Ethiopia has soil types with inherent characteristics which can be problematic for crop production and which need special management. 513

514 515

516

Table 10. From (Zelleke et al. 2010) working paper identified four major areas in which on-farm practices need major change across Ethiopia

Fertility problem	Cause	References
Severe organic matter	Organic matter depletion is driven by competing	Bojo and Cassels
depletion	uses for crop residues and manure as livestock feed	(2005)
	and fuel, respectively.	
Limited intercropping	Even though the benefit is clear and have been	Reddy and Kidane
and crop rotation	identified by research but have not been translated	(1993); Getachew
	into widespread use.	<i>et al.</i> (2006)
Limited use of	Absence of up-to date, comprehensive, and	(Zelleke et al.
integrated, locally	actionable soil data. Much of this data is based only	2010)
tailored solutions to	on N and P nutrient levels and yield response, with	
tackle complexity of	very little information available on other aspects of	
constraints	soil health (micronutrients, organic matter, physical	
	properties).	

517

518

519

520 5. SUMMARY AND IMPLICATIONS

521 **5.1.Summary**

Although soil quality can be simply defined as a soil's "fitness for use", it is in reality a complexconcept and significantly more challenging in its assessment than air or water quality. Soil

524 quality can basically be divided into inherent and dynamic quality. The former is a component of 525 land quality, whereas the latter is strongly influenced by the soil manager. Measurement of soil 526 quality involves placing a value upon soil in relation to its fitness to perform a specific function or purpose. Functions can vary in relation to both use of soil and scale. Once a function has been 527 established, it is possible to identify and characterize soil processes and attributes that describe 528 the function, the indicators that are related to the attribute(s), and methodologies for measuring 529 530 these. This allows the development of soil quality standards and control techniques, and subsequently the design of sustainable land management systems. 531

Accurate information about soil fertility is critical to develop smart policies regarding the 532 preservation and rehabilitation of natural resources especially soil. Information on the fertility 533 534 properties of the diverse soils will enable to continue its tremendous gains in crop production and productivity, while simultaneously ensuring that growth is achieved through sustainable means. 535 536 Soil quality has emerged as a unifying concept for educating professionals, producers, and the public about the important processes that soils perform and as an assessment tool for evaluating 537 538 current management practices and comparing alternative management practices. Soil attributes comprising a MDS have been identified and both laboratory and field methods have been 539 540 developed for measuring these attributes.

541 Overall, the following conclusions can be given in regard to the concept of soil quality:

- The concept of soil quality is not altogether new, but is undergoing development in
 response to the idea that soils are part of land or terrestrial ecosystems. Thus, soil quality
 brings together old and new ideas about soil and land.
- It is important to recognize the difference between inherent and dynamic soil quality, as
 well as the difference between soil and land quality. Further, although soil quality
 describes an objective state or condition of the soil, it is also subjective or evaluated
 partly on the basis of personal and social determinations.
- Ecosystem concepts such as function, processes, attributes, and indicators, provide a useful and robust framework to describe soil quality. This framework is also useful when it is directed towards the intensive manipulation, engineering, and/or management of the soil resource.

- In the context of using soil intensively as a resource, soil quality becomes a technology or
 an applied science, directed towards problem solving (e.g., better soil management) and
 can be seen as a key to sustainable land management.
- The basic idea of "fitness for use" in regard to agricultural and/or industrial use of soil, reflected in early attempts to classify "soil suitability" or "land capability", is the basic premise of soil quality. If a soil is not suitable for specific use then it is not appropriate to assign or describe quality for that specific use or function. In many cases, however, it is not possible to make a perfect match between the soil and its intended use, and quality must be built into the system.
- A large range of attributes, such as chemical, physical, and biological properties, can be used to describe soil quality. Attributes need to be selected for specific soil uses.
 However, some attributes have a wide utility and can serve a wide range of purposes.
 Thus, a "minimum data set", composed of a limited number of key attributes, is the usual approach in soil quality investigations,
- A major impediment to the evaluation of soil quality is the lack of standardization,
 related to both methodology and "critical limits". Soil quality standards are required to
 ensure that soil sampling, description, and analysis can set the limits for a quality soil and
 detect adverse changes in soil quality.

571 **5.2.Policy and Research Implications**

572 In the way forward, we need ways of monitoring, on a reasonably regular basis, the quality of 573 soils at all levels from global, through to continental, national, regional and landscape/ catchment areas. It is only in this way that we shall be able to evaluate the sustainability of the use to which 574 we are putting the land. It should be in the mind of everyone that is not many years hence we 575 576 shall reach the critical stage when there are more people than the land can feed. It is therefore in 577 the interest of everyone to ensure that soils will be well-managed into the future. Equally important in the quest for sustainable development is that there be measures put in place that 578 579 protect the land, prevent the continuously increasing damage to land, and for those in authority to bring in protection measures. 580

581 MoARD, local experts, and stakeholders have identified six priority areas for action to improve
582 soil fertility in Ethiopia:

- 583 > Implement soil fertility solutions appropriate to Ethiopia's extremely diverse agro 584 ecology and varied local soil fertility needs through ISFM.
- 585 Make effective use of organic carbon resources by increasing the amount of manure and
 586 crop residues used as organic nutrient sources.
- 587 Mitigate severe topsoil erosion in cultivated highlands through interventions at the
 588 individual farm level as well as through large-scale community and regional projects in
 589 targeted areas.
- Reduce constraints on value chains for chemical and bio-fertilizers to ensure that uptake
 and use of these interventions are not constrained.
- 592 Create a central repository of national and local soil data and effective knowledge
 593 dissemination channels to ensure that this information provides the fact base for actions
 594 to improve soil health.
- Link major soil fertility efforts to relevant international projects and experts to maximize
 relevance of projects already underway and ensure transfer of applicable knowledge and
 experiences.

This generation has a responsibility for safeguarding and sustaining the environment and handing 598 it on to the next generation in a reasonable condition. There is much evidence to date that we 599 have not been looking after the environment, including soils, adequately, and there is much 600 601 evidence of temporary and permanent damage. Yet the population of the world is increasing rapidly – expected to be 10 billion by 2050. Thus, there will be increasing pressure to produce 602 more and more food to feed this growing population but there is more and more evidence of 603 widespread land degradation and in some developing countries including Ethiopia declining soil 604 fertility. Therefore, essential improvements to safeguard the soils will require: 605

- 606
- A good understanding of the nature of soils and their properties
- Strong national soil/land databases which can be regularly added to and which provide
 basic information on which to develop a sustainable land use policy
- A better knowledge of soil quality, and the soil quality requirements for particular land
 uses, involving the identification and change of the important parameters with time.

- A much better understanding of the effects of particular types of land use and
 management practice on soils.
- A much better knowledge of ecosystems in which soils occur and, in particular, the soil
 ecosystem.
- Lastly and very importantly better knowledge of the fate and behavior of pollutants
 entering the soil from a wide range of sources

618 **6. REFERENCES**

- 619Acton, D., & Gregorich, L. (1995a). The health of our soils-towards sustainable agriculture in Canada.620Centre for Land and Biological Resources Research, Research Branch, Agriculture and Agri-Food621Canada, Ottawa, Ont. xiv+ 138 pp. Each chapter can be cited as follows:[Name (s) of chapter622author (s)]. 1995.[Chapter heading]. Pages [...]-[...]. The health of our soils-toward sustainable623agriculture in Canada. Centre for Land and Biological Resources Research, Research Branch,624Agriculture and Agri-Food Canada, Ottawa, Ont, 3
- Acton, D., & Gregorich, L. (1995b). Understanding soil health. *PUBLICATIONS-CANADA DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE*, 5-10
- Acton, D., & Padbury, G. (1993). A conceptual framework for soil quality assessment and monitoring. A
 Program to Assess and Monitor Soil Quality in Canada: Soil Quality Evaluation Program Summary. Research Branch, Agriculture and Agri-Food Canada: Ottawa, Ontario
- Anderson, D., & Gregorich, E. (1984). Effect of soil erosion on soil quality and productivity. In, Soil
 erosion and degradation. Proceedings of 2nd Annual Western Prov. Conference on National
 Water Soil Research management, Saskatoon, Canada (pp. 105-113)
- Andrews, S., Karlen, D., & Mitchell, J. (2002). A comparison of soil quality indexing methods for
 vegetable production systems in Northern California. *Agriculture, Ecosystems & Environment,* 90, 25-45
- Andrews, S.S., & Carroll, C.R. (2001). Designing a soil quality assessment tool for sustainable
 agroecosystem management. *Ecological Applications*, 11, 1573-1585
- Andrews, S.S., Karlen, D.L., & Cambardella, C.A. (2004). The soil management assessment framework.
 Soil Science Society of America Journal, 68, 1945-1962
- 640 Aparicio, V., & Costa, J.L. (2007). Soil quality indicators under continuous cropping systems in the 641 Argentinean Pampas. *Soil and Tillage Research, 96*, 155-165
- Arnold, S., Doran, J.W., Schepers, J., Wienhold, B., Ginting, D., Amos, B., & Gomes, S. (2005). Portable
 probes to measure electrical conductivity and soil quality in the field. *Communications in soil science and plant analysis, 36*, 2271-2287
- Arshad, M., & Coen, G. (1992). Characterization of soil quality: physical and chemical criteria. *American Journal of Alternative Agriculture*, 7, 25-31
- Arshad, M.A., & Martin, S. (2002). Identifying critical limits for soil quality indicators in agro-ecosystems.
 Agriculture, Ecosystems & Environment, 88, 153-160
- Bastida, F., Zsolnay, A., Hernández, T., & García, C. (2008). Past, present and future of soil quality indices:
 a biological perspective. *Geoderma*, 147, 159-171

- Beck, T. (1984). Methods and application domain of soil microbiological analysis at the Landesanstalt
 fuer Bodenkultur und Pflanzenbau (LBP) in Munich for the determination of some aspects of soil
 fertility [Germany, Federal Republic]. In, *5. Symposium on Soil Biology, Jassy (Romania), Feb 1981*
- 655 Bekele-Tesemma, A. (1997). *A participatory agroforestry approach for soil and water conservation in* 656 *Ethiopia*. Landbouwuniversiteit
- 657 Brady, N.C., & Weil, R.R. (2002). The nature and properties of soils, Upper Saddle River. *New Jersey*
- 658 Brejda, J.J., & Moorman, T.B. (2001). Identification and interpretation of regional soil quality factors for 659 the Central High Plains of the Midwestern USA. *Sustaining the global farm*, 535-540
- 660 Bremer, E., & Ellert, K. (2004). Soil quality indicators: a review with implications for agricultural 661 ecosystems in Alberta. AESA
- Bronick, C.J., & Lal, R. (2005). Soil structure and management: a review. *Geoderma*, 124, 3-22
- 663 Carter, M. (1990). Relationship of strength properties to bulk density and macroporosity in cultivated 664 loamy sand to loam soils. *Soil and Tillage Research*, *15*, 257-268
- 665 Carter, M.R., Gregorich, E., Anderson, D., Doran, J., Janzen, H., & Pierce, F. (1997). Concepts of soil 666 quality and their significance. In: Elsevier
- 667 Constable, M., & Belshaw, D. (1986). The Ethiopian highlands reclamation study: major findings and
 668 recommendations. In, ONCCP (Office of the National Committee for Central Planning). Towards
 669 a food and nutrition strategy for Ethiopia: Proceedings of the national workshop on food
 670 strategies for Ethiopia (pp. 8-12)
- Cook, N., & Hendershot, W.H. (1996). The problem of establishing ecologically based soil quality criteria:
 The case of lead. *Canadian journal of soil science, 76*, 335-342
- Daily, G.C., Matson, P.A., & Vitousek, P.M. (1997). Ecosystem services supplied by soil. *Nature's services: societal dependence on natural ecosystems*, 113-132
- De la Rosa, D., & Sobral, R. (2008). Soil quality and methods for its assessment. Land use and soil
 resources (pp. 167-200): Springer
- Dick, W., Cheng, L., & Wang, P. (2000). Soil acid and alkaline phosphatase activity as pH adjustment
 indicators. Soil Biology and Biochemistry, 32, 1915-1919
- 679 Doran, J.W. (1996). Soil health and sustainability. *Advances in Agron., 56*, 1-54
- Doran, J.W., & Parkin, T.B. (1994). Defining and assessing soil quality. *Defining soil quality for a sustainable environment*, 1-21
- Doran, J.W., & Parkin, T.B. (1996). Quantitative indicators of soil quality: a minimum data set. *Methods for assessing soil quality/editors, John W. Doran and Alice J. Jones; editorial committee, Richard P. Dick...[et al.]; editor-in-chief SSSA, Jerry M. Bigham; managing editor, David M. Kral; associate editor, Marian K. Viney*
- Doran, J.W., & Zeiss, M.R. (2000). Soil health and sustainability: managing the biotic component of soil
 quality. *Applied Soil Ecology*, *15*, 3-11
- Dumanski, J., & Pieri, C. (2000). Land quality indicators: research plan. Agriculture, Ecosystems &
 Environment, 81, 93-102
- Elias, E. (2016). Soils of the Ethiopian highlands: geomorphology and properties. *ALTERA Wageningen University Research Centre, The Netherlands. ISBN*, 978-99944
- 692Esser, K., Vågen, T.-G., & Haile, M. (2002). Soil conservation in Tigray. Ethiopia. Eldis.693org/vfile/upload/1document/0708/DOC1, 2388
- Eyasu, E. (2003). National assessment on environmental roles of agriculture in Ethiopia. Unpublished
 Research Report Submitted to EEA, Addis Ababa
- Gebreselassie, S., Kirui, O.K., & Mirzabaev, A. (2016). Economics of land degradation and improvement
 in Ethiopia. Economics of land degradation and improvement–a global assessment for
 sustainable development (pp. 401-430): Springer

- Granatstein, D., & Bezdicek, D. (1992). The need for a soil quality index: local and regional perspectives.
 American Journal of Alternative Agriculture, 7, 12-16
- Gregorich, E., Carter, M., Doran, J., Pankhurst, C., & Dwyer, L. (1997). Biological attributes of soil quality.
 Developments in soil science (pp. 81-113): Elsevier
- Gregorich, E., Monreal, C., Carter, M., Angers, D., & Ellert, B. (1994). Towards a minimum data set to
 assess soil organic matter quality in agricultural soils. *Canadian journal of soil science*, 74, 367 385
- Gugino, B., Idowu, O., Schindelbeck, R., van Es, H., Moebius-Clune, B., Wolfe, D., Thies, J., & Abawi, G.
 (2009a). Cornell Soil Health Assessment Training Manual, Edition 2.0. Cornell University, Geneva,
 NY. In
- Gugino, B.K., Abawi, G.S., Idowu, O.J., Schindelbeck, R.R., Smith, L.L., Thies, J.E., Wolfe, D.W., & Van Es,
 H.M. (2009b). *Cornell soil health assessment training manual*. Cornell University College of
 Agriculture and Life Sciences
- Harris, R., & Bezdicek, D. (1994). Descriptive aspects of soil quality/health. *Defining soil quality for a sustainable environment*, 23-35
- Hawando, T. (1997). Desertification in Ethiopian highlands. *Rala report, 200*
- Hurni, H. (1988). Degradation and conservation of the resources in the Ethiopian highlands. *Mountain research and development*, 123-130
- Islam, K.R., & Weil, R. (2000). Soil quality indicator properties in mid-Atlantic soils as influenced by
 conservation management. *Journal of soil and water conservation, 55*, 69-78
- Johnson, D.L., Ambrose, S.H., Bassett, T.J., Bowen, M.L., Crummey, D.E., Isaacson, J.S., Johnson, D.N.,
 Lamb, P., Saul, M., & Winter-Nelson, A.E. (1997). Meanings of environmental terms. *Journal of environmental quality, 26*, 581-589
- 722 Karlen, D., Andrews, S., & Doran, J. (2001). Soil quality: current concepts and applications
- Karlen, D., Eash, N., & Unger, P. (1992). Soil and crop management effects on soil quality indicators.
 American Journal of Alternative Agriculture, 7, 48-55
- Karlen, D., Gardner, J., & Rosek, M. (1998). A soil quality framework for evaluating the impact of CRP.
 Journal of production agriculture, 11, 56-60
- Karlen, D., Mausbach, M., Doran, J., Cline, R., Harris, R., & Schuman, G. (1997). Soil quality: a concept,
 definition, and framework for evaluation (a guest editorial). *Soil Science Society of America Journal, 61*, 4-10
- Karlen, D.L., Andrews, S.S., Wienhold, B.J., & Zobeck, T.M. (2008). Soil quality assessment: past, present
 and future
- Karlen, D.L., & Stott, D.E. (1994). A framework for evaluating physical and chemical indicators of soil
 quality. *Defining soil quality for a sustainable environment*, 53-72
- Kennedy, A., & Papendick, R. (1995). Microbial characteristics of soil quality. *Journal of soil and water conservation, 50*, 243-248
- Koolen, A. (1987). Deformation and compaction of elemental soil volumes and effects on mechanical soil
 properties. *Soil and Tillage Research, 10*, 5-19
- Lal, R. (1991). Soil structure and sustainability. *Journal of Sustainable Agriculture*, 1, 67-92
- Lal, R. (1997). Degradation and resilience of soils. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences*, 352, 997-1010
- Larson, W., & Pierce, F. (1991). Conservation and enhancement of soil quality. In, *Evaluation for sustainable land management in the developing world: proceedings of the International Workshop on Evaluation for Sustainable Land Management in the Developing World, Chiang Rai, Thailand, 15-21 September 1991*: [Bangkok, Thailand: International Board for Soil Research and Management, 1991].

- 746Larson, W.E., & Pierce, F.J. (1994). The dynamics of soil quality as a measure of sustainable747management. Defining soil quality for a sustainable environment, 37-51
- Letey, J., Sojka, R.E., Upchurch, D.R., Cassel, D.K., Olson, K.R., Payne, W.A., Petrie, S.E., Price, G.H.,
 Reginato, R.J., & Scott, H.D. (2003). Deficiencies in the soil quality concept and its application. *Journal of soil and water conservation, 58*, 180-187
- Liu, X., Zhang, X., Wang, Y., Sui, Y., Zhang, S., Herbert, S., & Ding, G. (2010). Soil degradation: a problem
 threatening the sustainable development of agriculture in Northeast China. *Plant soil environ*,
 56, 87-97
- Loganathan, M., & Narendiran, J. (2016). Role of NGO's in Protecting Environment and Health.
 Integrated Waste Management in India (pp. 221-228): Springer
- Maikhuri, R.K., & Rao, K.S. (2012). Soil quality and soil health: A review. *International Journal of Ecology and Environmental Sciences*, *38*, 19-37
- Mairura, F.S., Mugendi, D.N., Mwanje, J., Ramisch, J.J., Mbugua, P., & Chianu, J.N. (2007). Integrating
 scientific and farmers' evaluation of soil quality indicators in Central Kenya. *Geoderma*, 139, 134 143
- Moebius-Clune, B., Moebius-Clune, D., Gugino, B., Idowu, O., Schindelbeck, R., & Ristow, A. (2016).
 Comprehensive assessment of soil health: The Cornell Framework Manual, Edition 3.1, Cornell
 Univ., Ithaca, NY. In
- Pal, D.K., Wani, S., Sahrawat, K., & Srivastava, P. (2014). Red ferruginous soils of tropical Indian
 environments: A review of the pedogenic processes and its implications for edaphology. *Catena*,
 121, 260-278
- Papendick, R.I., & Parr, J.F. (1992). Soil quality—the key to a sustainable agriculture. *American Journal of Alternative Agriculture*, 7, 2-3
- Parr, J.F., Papendick, R.I., Hornick, S.B., & Meyer, R.E. (1992). Soil quality: Attributes and relationship to
 alternative and sustainable agriculture. *American Journal of Alternative Agriculture*, 7, 5-11
- Pierce, F.J., & Larson, W. (1993). Developing criteria to evaluate sustainable land management. In,
 Proceedings of the eighth international soil management workshop: utilization of soil survey
 information for sustainable land use (pp. 7-14)
- Rezaei, S.A., Gilkes, R.J., & Andrews, S.S. (2006). A minimum data set for assessing soil quality in
 rangelands. *Geoderma*, *136*, 229-234
- Richter, J. (1987). *The soil as a reactor: modelling processes in the soil*. Catena Verlag
- Rust, R.H., Adams, R.S., & Martin, W.P. (1972). Developing a soil quality index. *Indicators of Environmental Quality* (pp. 243-247): Springer
- Sanders, D. (1992). International activities in assessing and monitoring soil degradation. *American Journal of Alternative Agriculture*, 7, 17-24
- Schoonover, J.E., & Crim, J.F. (2015). An introduction to soil concepts and the role of soils in watershed
 management. *Journal of Contemporary Water Research & Education, 154*, 21-47
- Seybold, C., Herrick, J., & Brejda, J. (1999). Soil resilience: a fundamental component of soil quality. *Soil Science*, *164*, 224-234
- Shukla, M., Lal, R., & Ebinger, M. (2006). Determining soil quality indicators by factor analysis. *Soil and Tillage Research*, *87*, 194-204
- 787 Singer, M., Ewing, S., & Sumner, M. (2000). Handbook of soil science. Handbook of soil science
- 788 Sojka, R., & Upchurch, D. (1999). EDITORIAL up. Soil Science Society of America Journal, 63, 1039-1054
- 789 SSSA (2008). Glossary of soil science terms 2008. ASA-CSSA-SSSA
- Stefanic, G., Eliade, G., & Chirnogeanu, I. (1984). Researches concerning a biological index of soil fertility.
 In, 5. Symposium on Soil Biology, Jassy (Romania), Feb 1981
- Tegene, B. (1992). Farmers' perceptions of erosion hazards and attitudes towards soil conservation in
 Gunono, Wolayita, southern Ethiopia. *Ethiopian Journal of Development Research*, 14, 31-58

- Trasar-Cepeda, C., Leiros, C., Gil-Sotres, F., & Seoane, S. (1997). Towards a biochemical quality index for
 soils: an expression relating several biological and biochemical properties. *Biology and Fertility* of soils, 26, 100-106
- 797USDA-NRCS (2012). (United state Department of Agriculture -Natural Resources Conservation Services).798SoilHealth.RetrievedDec23,2017from799http://www.nrcs.usda.gov/wps/portal/nrcs/main/soils/health/.TheSoilRenaissanceaccepted800this definition in 2014., 37-51
- 801USDA (2006). Soil Quality Institute. Natural Resources Conservation Service. Available at802http://soils.usda.gov/sqi/. Retrieved on 20 February 2006., 315
- 803 Walker, J., & Reuter, D.J. (1996). *Indicators of catchment health: a technical perspective*. CSIRO 804 publishing
- Wander, M., & Bollero, G. (1999). Soil quality assessment of tillage impacts in Illinois. Soil Science Society
 of America Journal, 63, 961-971
- Warkentin, B.P. (1995). The changing concept of soil quality. *Journal of soil and water conservation, 50*,
 226-228
- Warkentin, B.P., & Fletcher, H. (1977). Soil quality for intensive agriculture. In, *Proceedings of the* International Seminar on Soil Environment and Fertility Management in Intensive Agriculture
- 811 Weil, R.R., & Magdoff, F. (2004). Significance of Soil Organic in. *Soil organic matter in sustainable* 812 *agriculture*, 1-2
- Zelleke, G., Agegnehu, G., Abera, D., & Rashid, S. (2010). Fertilizer and soil fertility potential in Ethiopia:
 Constraints and opportunities for enhancing the system. *International Food Policy Research Institute (IFPRI), Washington, DC, USA*