

State of the art: Soil physical attributes

ABSTRACT

Proper soil management interferes **in** the result of the installed crop. The knowledge of the positive and/or negative influence on the production systems is essential to improve the physical, chemical and biological quality of the soil **and**, for that, there are some attributes that act as indicators of soil quality. Practices carried out improperly will result in problems in soil structure, **such** as compaction, lack of availability of water and air in the soil and for plants, soil loss among others. Some properties as soil porosity, aggregation, compaction, water infiltration are used to measure soil quality. Given this, the use of these attributes as indicators is **of utmost importance** for excellent productivity, since management practices can directly influence the development of plants.

Keywords: Soil quality, soil properties, soil management.

1. INTRODUCTION

The quality of the soil is variable to its formation, textural composition and type of management adopted, which determines **its** behaviour in the face of anthropogenic activities. The conversion of forest **in** agricultural areas or **in** pasture areas has been causing severe problems due to the adoption of inadequate management. There are indicators that determine soil quality and **that** verify the effectiveness of the practices adopted [1].

The use of unsuitable practices in the soil can result in severe problems to its structure, aggregate stability **and** degree of compaction, resulting in insufficient infiltration of water into it, which hinders the availability of the resource to crops, in addition to significantly increase erosive processes. Several attributes must be measured to evaluate how management influences soil characteristics as well as their relationship to the plant [2].

The use of inappropriate soil management practices directly affects organic carbon, being a component that directly influences some physical attributes of the soil, such as porosity and density, being determining factors of soil quality. The vulnerability of soil to compaction is determined by its intrinsic characteristics and by the development of the management used, through modifications in the carbon content and consequently in the present load bearing capacity, as well as its resilience to the applied loads in the soil [3].

The understanding of the physical behaviour of soil is of utmost importance since it guides the proper activities that must be performed in the system so that in this manner it reaches an adequate crops development. This diagnosis involves the arrangement of particles and pores, soil **solid** density, aggregation structure, mechanical penetration resistance, soil water infiltration, water availability to plants [4].

2. SOIL POROSITY

Due to structure or **spatial** arrangement between the soil particles, in addition to the fraction or volume of solids, there is also a volume of voids (pores), which **condition** factors such as retention, movement and availability of water, aeration, availability of nutrients, resistance to root penetration, aggregate stability and compaction, to a lesser or greater degree.

According to Teixeira et al. [5], porosity is a physical property defined by the relationship between the pore volume and the total volume of a particular material, and according to Embrapa [6], porosity is constituted by the porous space, after the arrangement of the components of the **solid** part of the soil and which, under natural conditions, is occupied by water and air, is divided into primary and secondary.

Primary porosity is developed with the sediment or rock, being characterized in the sedimentary rocks by the spaces between clasts or grains (intergranular porosity) or stratification planes. Worth noting that in sedimentary materials the size and shape of the particles, their degree

of selection and the presence of cementation influence the porosity. The secondary porosity develops after the formation of igneous, metamorphic or sedimentary rocks, by fracture or failure during their deformation (fracture porosity) [5].

Sands retain an inadequate amount of water because their large porous space allows free water drainage from the soils. Clays absorb relatively large amounts of water, and their smaller porous spaces hold it against the forces of gravity.

In short, porosity consists **in** the physical quantity given by the volume of the porous space constructed by the arrangement of the components of its **solid** part and which, under natural conditions, is occupied by water and air [7].

Regarding to the distribution and size of the pores, **it** is oriented by three types of classification, consisting of macropores (pores with **the largest** diameter, which directly influences the infiltration capacity, soil drainage and its aeration capacity); mesopores (pores with intermediate diameter, responsible for the conduction of water during the redistribution process, that is, after infiltration, when the macropores are emptied); micropores (pores with the smallest diameter responsible for the retention and storage capacity of water and solutes in the soil [8].

According to Lorenzo [6], the macropores are results of the arrangement of the aggregates, the action of the mesofauna and roots and **of** the expansion and contraction of the soil mass. They are related to the gas exchange of oxygen and carbon dioxide and the flow of water by gravity: infiltration, drainage and transport of solutes; micropores, **in turn**, are in-aggregated and are related to water retention due to molecular adhesion that entraps gases, vapours or **matters** in the surface of solid bodies. [9] classifies as macro and micropores pore with a larger and smaller diameter respectively than 0.06 mm. Several authors include mesopores in this classification as an intermediate class, such as Luxmoore [10], which suggested **a** classification in which the micropores have a diameter smaller than 0.01 mm; the mesopores have a diameter between 0.01 and 1.0 mm; and the macropores, diameter greater than 1.0 mm.

Soil porosity interferes **in** aeration, conduction and retention of water, resistance to penetration and root branching in the soil, consequently in the use of available water and nutrients [11]. **One way to increase total soil porosity is by adding organic wastes at appropriate rates and conditions, which results in the reduction of soil density and compaction, decreasing the resistance of the root system of crops and proportioning a condition of absorption of water and nutrients** [12].

Ideal soil must present a volume and size of pores suitable for the entry, movement and retention of water and air to meet crop needs [13]. The distribution of pores in the soil matrix plays a fundamental role in the relationships between the solid, liquid and gaseous phases, determining the spatial and temporal evolution of the processes that involve the movement of water in the soil [14]. **Yet**, according to Ribeiro et al. [14], soil porosity is determined by the way the solid particles are arranged, emphasizing that if they are arranged in close contact, predominance of solids occurs in the sample and the **total** porosity is low; and if, on the contrary, the particles are arranged in aggregates, there is a predominance of voids in the soil sample and the porosity is high.

3. PARTICLE SOIL DENSITY

The diversity of the mineral and organic components presents in the composition of the soils, as well as the proportion between them, determine the density of the material. This physical attribute besides being determinant of the composition is also related to soil texture and aggregation, water infiltration rate and erosion, macroporosity and root development, soil consistency (dry, **moist** and wet), the degree of compaction, which interferes **in** root development and management techniques and agricultural productivity. The density is oriented by determining the soil density (ratio of the sample mass to the volume occupied by solids, considering the pore space) and the density of particles (ratio of the sample mass to the volume occupied by the particles, disregarding the porous space).

3.1 Soil density

The soil density is defined by the ratio of the mass of dry solids to the soil volume, being affected by crops that alter the structure, consequently the arrangement and volume of the pores. These changes influence **relevant hydro-physical attributes to determine the quality of soil** such as aeration porosity, soil water retention, plant water availability and resistance to root penetration [4].

A soil sample of the surface horizon, rich in organic matter (substrate), when compared to a portion of any of the horizons in depth, it is perceived that the superficial sampling is lighter. The significant increase in soil density in depth can be explained by the pressures exerted by the upper layers, causing compaction and reduction of pore volume [9].

Association of the concepts of density and porosity between the masses and the volume of the soil constituents is developed by porosity, which determines the existent space between and inside the aggregates, occupied by air or water, being calculated from the measure of density; the pore space occupied varies in the inverse ratio of soil density [15].

This physical attribute is expressed in grams per cubic centimetres and the amplitudes of variation for each type of soil is within the following limits: clayey soils (0.90 to 1.25 g cm^{-3}); sandy soils (1.25 to 1.60 g cm^{-3}); humic soils (0.75 to 1.00 g cm^{-3}); turf soils (0.20 to 0.50 g cm^{-3}).

The determination methods are based on obtaining the mass and volume of the soil sample. The mass is easily determined by weighing the dry soil in an oven, and the determination of the volume is varied from the use of some methods, which are described below:

3.1.1 Volumetric ring method

There are several types of samplers. The most usual is a stainless-steel cylinder with sharp edges nailed directly into the soil. This method presents some difficulties in the removal of the ring from the soil, may occurring loss of sample, since there is no soil surplus at the top and bottom of the cylinder. Under comparable structure conditions, the higher the clay content of a soil, the lower its density, always considering the composition of the soil analyzed [4].

This method has been used since 1914, suitable for well-structured soils. However, when the soil has thick roots or is a compact horizon, it is unfeasible to use and is not recommended in these situations [9].

3.1.2 Method of the waterproofed clod

Based on the Archimedes' Law, which defines that the buoyancy of a body is equal to the weight of the volume of liquid displaced when such body is immersed in [it] this liquid. This method is not recommended for mobilized soils since in this condition the aggregates will be of equal density to that of before the preparation. The volume of the clouds is determined by the volume of water displaced by them when immersed [9].

This method presents a certain disadvantage due to the possibility of segregating the soil sample during the collection process, thus generating a disregard for the existence of macropores in the clouds.

3.2 Density of particles

This soil physical attribute aims to measure the average density of the mineral and organic particles of the soil, reflecting its average composition. This density is related to the volume effectively occupied by solid matter, without considering the porosity. The mineralogy and soil composition are characteristics that naturally influence the density of individual soil particles [16].

Some incorrect practices performed may increase soil density, such as excessive stirring or use of poor conservation practices which may cause structural alteration, a decrease of macroporosity and total porosity, among other damages [15,1].

The problem of having a compacted soil, and consequently an increase of its density and resistance, is the difficulty that the root system will have to penetrate and exploit this soil, thus reducing the pore diameter of it, reducing permeability and flow of water, as well the air capacity, which may affect the development of plants and the anatomical structures of its roots [18].

The average values for each soil type depend on its predominant mineral constituents, with an average variation between the limits of 2.3 to 2.9 g cm^{-3} . The plurality of soils is composed of quartz, feldspar and colloidal aluminium silicates, whose particle density is around 2.65 g cm^{-3} .

The methods for determining the density of soil particles are based on obtaining the sample mass value and then the volume of present solids. The mass is obtained by simple weighing, and the volume can be obtained by the volumetric flask method, considered the most accurate among existing methods. The differential of this method is the practicality offered, which is summarized in a single weighing, pipetting and buret reading of the displaced volume [9].

4. SOIL AGGREGATION

The aggregate is characterized as a grouping of strongly adhered particles. The size of the aggregate determines its susceptibility to movement by the wind, water, and by the porous space, interfering in the percolation of the water and in the volume occupied by the air of the soil, being conditioned from the environment to the growth of the root system of plants. Organic matter is a key cementing agent of soil particles, vegetation and its residues protecting the surface aggregates against disaggregation due to the impact of rainfall and sudden variations of humidity [4, 19].

The adequate soil structure is one that allows proper flow of water, inner aeration, resistance to erosion and traffic of machinery, development of living organisms and proper development of plant roots [20].

The soil structure is represented by the aggregation, that is, the result of the interaction among the size, shape and arrangement of the solid particles and porous spaces of the soil, being highly variable and associated with physical, chemical and biological factors [21]. These properties, with the genetic potential of the plants, determine the productivity of the crops [22].

The dynamics of soil aggregation is influenced by the soil management system. This management comprises a set of practices that, when rationally used, promote better crop productivity, but when improperly used, cause physical, chemical and biological degradation of the soil and, also, a reduction of productivity [23, 24].

The adoption of management strategies that allow increases in the content of organic carbon, together with the use of complementary soil conservation practices, are efficient measures for the improvement of the structural quality. Several studies have already shown the close relationship between the carbon content in the soil and the stability and size of the aggregates (Dissertation).

Due to the consequences of ill soil use, in the last years, soil quality studies have evolved given the need to evaluate the behaviour of different soil attributes [25].

Soil aggregation is one of the attributes used as indicators of soil quality, defined as the ability to sustain agricultural productivity, maintain the quality of the environment, and ensure the health of humans, animals, and plants [26] because it is related to essential processes, such as resistance to erosion and infiltration capacity [27].

Soil erosion is one of the most significant environmental problems, because in addition to soil and nutrient losses, it is associated with flooding, sedimentation, and pollution of water bodies, and this process is affected by different factors such as soil cover and management practices. However, soils with good aggregation are more resistant to erosion [28, 20].

Infiltration is also an important indicator of structuring and aggregation, influencing the improvement of soil support capacity [29]. Besides that, its knowledge is indispensable for the elaboration of an irrigation project, aimed at providing a greater yield to the crops, and the better the aggregation, the higher the water infiltration capacity [30].

Another important aspect is the protection of soil organic matter, and its increase is partially determined by the link between the recycling of macroaggregates, formation of micro-aggregates and stabilization of carbon within the micro-aggregates. In order to have a proper formation and stabilization of these aggregates, it requires the interaction of several factors such as, for example, soil fauna, roots, inorganic agents and environmental variables [23].

The organic compounds participate in the bonds between individual soil particles, acting as cementing agents of the structural units by their diverse surface characteristics, thus there is a correlation between the organic matter and the stability of the aggregates, since the organic compounds are the main cementing agents of the soil particles and, at the same time, the state of greater aggregation promotes greater physical protection of the organic matter of the soil thus allowing its accumulation [27, 31].

Cultural practices are primordial when optimum productivity is expected; besides that, an inadequately performed activity may cause degradation of soil and natural resources [32].

Conventional preparations break the aggregates in the prepared layer and accelerate the decomposition of the organic matter, reflecting negatively in the resistance of the soil aggregates. Bertol et al. [33], evaluating the physical properties of the soil under conventional tillage and direct sowing in rotation and succession of crops, compared to the field native ones, verified that the physical properties are altered with the management, in which conventional cultivation resulted in a lower organic carbon content, implying a greater soil degradation when compared to direct sowing.

Studies performed by Loss et al. [34] also observed when analyzing total organic carbon and soil aggregation in an agroecological and conventional no-tillage system of onion, that the use of

single or intercropping cover crops in the **no-tillage onion** planting system was efficient to recover and increase the weighted average diameter (WMD), geometric **average** diameter (DMG) indices in relation to the conventional tillage system, in which forage turnip increased the aggregation of the soil in the layer of 10-20 **when compared to** other treatments.

The intensity of the structural stability of the aggregates varies according to the type of soil and the cultural practices applied at the place of cultivation. When there is soil rotation, the percentage of aggregates in the larger diameter classes reduces consequently **and** there is an increase in the class of smaller diameter, resulting in an adverse effect on the stability of the aggregates [21].

In places arising from civil works, the common denominator of degraded areas is the removal of the superficial horizon containing organic matter, causing serious physical, chemical and biological problems to soil [29].

An alternative to maintaining or recovering soil quality is the usage of conservation practices as, **for example**, the no-tillage system, which, due to the absence of soil rotation and maintenance of the straw on the surface, contributes to the improvement of soil aggregation and consequently for the increase of carbon stocks in the soil, being more effective when associated with the use of cover crops, either by rotation or succession of crops [36].

Still according to Loss et al. (2014) **when** analyzing the aggregation, light organic matter and mineralizable carbon in soil aggregates, **it was** found that the conventional tillage system reduced the aggregation index (WMD and DMG) and the organic **light** matter and total organic carbon content in relation to the forest area and using the direct tillage system and pasture it was possible to recover these original values.

5. MECHANICAL RESISTANCE TO ROOT PENETRATION

Soil compaction is an old problem and has been intensified with the expansion of the agricultural frontier and the usage of basically two annual crops, mainly by use of more massive machinery and agricultural implements for the management of soils and exploited crops [36,37]. Soil compaction refers to the compression of the unsaturated soil during which there is an increase of its density **due** to the reduction of its volume, resulting from the expulsion of air from the pores, causing a denser rearrangement of the soil particles and consequent reduction of porosity [38].

Thus, the increase of soil density becomes a limiting factor for the development of the plants and, consequently, harming the achievement of higher yield indices [39,40], due to the decrease of the water infiltration capacity [41], the low development of the root system [42] **given** the mechanical impedance, which results in a lower volume of soil explored, a reduction in nutrient availability and losses of nitrogen by denitrification [41], causing the increase of CO₂ and phytotoxins [43].

The limitation to root growth is clearly guided by [44], within classes determined by the values found in the resistance analysis (Mpa) as without limitation (<1,1); little limitation (1.1 - 2.5); some limitations (2.6 - 5); serious limitations (5.5 - 10); roots hardly grow (10,1-15); roots do not grow (> 15).

The **decompaction** of soil is done through the application of organic matter into it in order to reduce its density, and green fertilization can be used [45,46], animal manures, compost prepared on the farm, vegetable cakes and various industrial wastes [17, 47], among others.

Several methods are used to recognize soil compaction, for example, trench opening, vegetation cover visualization, soil density, and soil penetration resistance.

The trench opening consists of the observation of the root system, especially about subsurface compaction or grid footing. When there is subsurface compaction, it is possible to observe a significant concentration of roots in the superficial layer, by not being able to cross the compacted layer [48].

There is also the determination of soil density, which is the ratio between the mass of a dry soil sample and the volume occupied by this sample, but the density values may vary from soil to soil and **besides it is also** difficult to correlate with plant growth [48].

In order to solve this problem relative density **can be used**, which is the ratio between the soil density to the maximum density, reached on the compacted sample in the Procter test or the uniaxial compression test. Hakansson and Lipiec [49] affirm that the relative density isolates the effect of the texture in the density of the soil, being possible to compare soils of different textures **according to** the level of compaction.

For determination of the resistance of soil to penetration, there can be used penetrometers or penetrometers. The penetrometers perform specific evaluations of resistance to penetration while penetrometers record the resistance throughout the soil profile. Both types of equipment use the same principle of operation, varying only as to the model, various types being applied as the impact, the torque spring and the digital ones, which use load cells [48].

Soil compaction has become a global problem due to the intensive cultivation, increased use of heavy machinery, short crop rotations, and inadequate soil management practices [50, 51].

The damages include both the compression and the shear of the structure of the pores of the soil, so that simple indexes, as changes in the density of the soil, generally provide a lousy indicator of damage to compaction [52, 53].

Soil resistance and aeration are dynamic parameters mainly affected by structure, texture, and water content of it. The interactions between water content and soil density on its resistance and aeration make it challenging to characterize soil compaction effects, considering individual soil properties [50].

It is essential to cultivate the soil with the correct humidity so that compaction is minimized [54]. As soil density increases and total porosity decreases, soil resistance to root penetration increases, preventing root growth and restricting water and air circulation throughout the profile resulting in poor aeration of the root system [51].

Intensive traffic of agricultural machinery is standard in most agricultural operations, even in no-tillage systems. Ploughing, harvesting and spreading chemicals or fertilizers are common operations on most farms. Most, if not all these operations are carried out by heavy wheeled machines. Soil compaction by wheels is characterized by a decrease in soil porosity located in the area below the wheel and formation of grooves in the soil surface [54, 55, 56].

The compaction degree depends on the mechanical strength of the soil, which is influenced by intrinsic properties of it, as texture and organic soil matter content; structure of the plow layer on the wheel and its state of water; and loading, which depends on axle load, tire size and speed, as well as tire solo interaction [54, 56].

Increasing the pressure on the soil also increases the chances of soil compaction. Increasing the frequency of machine traffic on a soil increases its bulk density and cone index, resulting in soil compaction and inadequate soil physical conditions for seed emergence. However, most of the total compaction of the soil is caused by the first or initial passages of the machine and ten passages can affect the soil up to 50 cm depth [56, 55].

The depth of compaction varies widely from 10 to 60 cm but is more evident on the surface soil (about 10 cm). However, cone index increments (penetrometer reading) between 16 and 76% may occur in the first 40 cm of the surface layer, and the bulk density may also increase, but increases were limited to a depth of 15 cm. Meanwhile, in a pasture situation, differences between heavy and light loads in the lower depth range (surface soil) were not found [54].

Soil type also influences soil compaction. In soil with a thick texture, the dominant stress penetration was in the vertical direction, while in thinner textured soil the propagation of stress was multidirectional. However, it was suggested that in soil with good structure (aggregate soil) the compaction due to the axle load was not as deep. The effects of axle load on soil compaction have been researched by many workers around the world in the last decade [54].

Animal trampling can cause compaction and degradation of soil structure. The compaction caused by the grazing of animals through the action of the hull will probably be more widespread in the pickets compared to the compaction caused by mechanical implements that are limited under the rails. The trampling of the animals on soil compaction can affect soil density, hydraulic conductivity, macropore volume and resistance to soil penetration. The effects of grazing animals on soil physical properties, nitrogen and soil carbon were discussed in detail in the literature [56].

Improved land management techniques are vital to ensure that physical soil conditions are not compromised and that practices which increase organic content reduce crop yield and sustainable agricultural land use [54].

Crops of coverage with aggressive and extensive root systems help in the formation of soil aggregates, thus facilitating root growth of later crops and increased water infiltration. Soil aggregation is generally improved by management systems, including crops with a high capacity to form roots and increase soil organic matter. The contribution of organic matter to the formation of stable aggregates is attributed to processes such as the formation of cationic bridges, cementation among particles and stability promoted by root and microbial exudates around and within

aggregates. Therefore, this could be a mechanism whereby the use of rotating hedge plants with the main crop would have a lasting effect on the alleviation of soil physical limitations [51].

6. INFILTRATION OF WATER IN SOIL

Infiltration is a process by which water crosses the surface of the soil and redistributes **itself** in its profile. An essential process for the supply of underground aquifers, determining the water balance in the root zone of the crops, directly interfering in the **superficial** runoff, responsible for erosion and flooding processes. The infiltration of water is a physical attribute sensitive to planning changes, management, and conservation **of soil**.

The distribution of water in the soil profile, submitted to a hydraulic load on the surface, is distinguished in four zones **respective** to the increase of depth, according to Brandão [57].

Saturation zone: is located below the surface of the soil, usually a narrow layer, in which the soil is saturated.

Transition zone: layer characterized by a marked decrease of humidity.

Transmission zone: the region where the water is transmitted, characterized by increasing thickness with the continuous increase of application of water load, with a small variation of humidity **relative to** space and time.

Moistening zone: narrow layer, with a significant reduction of humidity with increasing depth.

Moistening front is the visible limit of soil water movement, as a reflection of the variation of moisture **that** exists in the system (soil), which is also affected by the physical, chemical and biological conditions of the soil.

The infiltration process has relations of dependence with some factors which can be divided into classes, being soil-related factors, surface and soil preparation/management **related factors**. These relations of dependence exert a function in the properties related to the porous space of soil composition, combined with the flowing fluid **and** determining the hydraulic conductivity, as well the occurrence of the surface crushing process caused by the impact of the raindrops on the soil, **furthermore promoting** the rearrangement of the particles, densification and consolidation of a surface structure, modifying the thickness of the surface layer [58].

Soils with a sandy (thick) texture have a higher amount of macropores when compared to clayey (fine) soils, in which they present higher hydraulic conductivity and infiltration rate. The contribution of the clay as an inorganic solid having loads is **of** excellent value for the structuring and aggregation of the soil.

The aggregation of soil particles contributes positively to the process of water infiltration in soil, besides promoting spaces to soil organisms. Infiltration is an important attribute that controls the leaching, flow and availability of water to crops. Lack of residue coverage and direct exposure of soil to high-intensity rains result in poor aggregation, providing crust formation, as well **as** reducing the availability of water to crops, contributing to poor water quality [59]

The type of soil surface cover is a determinant factor for the infiltration process, being responsible for the increase of the macroporosity of the surface layer, **reducing** surface crumbling, **promoting** a high infiltration potential and considerably **reducing** water and soil losses.

Evaluation of water infiltration in the soil can contribute to a better understanding of the erosive dynamics, since the lower the infiltration rate, the higher the possibility of surface runoff, reflecting the degree of soil compaction [60]

Studies **performed** by Marchini et al. [29] showed that the values of the infiltration rate ranged from 19.62 for exposed soil and 36.06 cm⁻¹ for Gonçalves Alves + Pork Bean. The superiority of the treatment with vegetal cover can be explained by the factors of soil revolving, due to the preparation for the sowing, **as well as** by the effect of the roots of the green **fertilizer**.

The influence of the factors related to the surface in the infiltration process was found by Bonini et al. [61], where the crop-livestock-forest system presented lower rates of water infiltration. When compared to the eucalyptus forest and the crop-livestock system, this behaviour can be attributed to the higher compaction of these systems, verified by the high values of resistance to root penetration.

Similar results were also observed by Marchão [42], where the crop-livestock system presented higher infiltration rates **due to** three main effects: the absence of preparation during the grazing cycle, the presence of a dense root system and an increase in microbial and macrofauna **activity** of the soil.

The water infiltration process must be determined by simple methods with the potential to adequately represent the soil conditions [57].

In hydrological studies, types of equipment to determine the infiltration rate are used, with specific attributions, such as the ring infiltrator, rainfall simulator and infiltrometer of mini-disk.

7. CONCLUSIONS FINAL CONSIDERATIONS

Physical attributes reveal soil quality and indicate whether the management is appropriate or not. Attributes as soil mechanical resistance and water infiltration in the soil are fast and with low data acquisition costs. However, the porosity and density of the soil together with the aggregation take time to determine the same and are costly. Analyzing soil attributes is extremely important to excellent productivity since inappropriate practices can influence plant development. The knowledge of the positive and/or negative influence on the production systems is essential to improve the physical, chemical and biological quality of the soil and, for that, there are some attributes that act as indicators of soil quality. Practices carried out improperly will result in problems in soil structure, such as compaction, lack of availability of water and air in the soil and for plants, soil loss among others. Some properties as soil porosity, aggregation, compaction, water infiltration are used to measure soil quality. Given this, the use of these attributes as indicators is of utmost importance for excellent productivity, since management practices can directly influence the development of plants

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors have no conflicts of interest to declare.

8. REFERENCES

1. Soares MDR, Campos MCC, Oliveira IA, Fonseca JS, Souza ZM. Physical attributes of the soil in areas under different systems of uses in the region of Manicoré, AM. Rev Cienc Agrar.2016; 59: 9-15.
DOI: 10.4322 / rca.2020.
2. Loss A, Junior ES, Schmitz D, Veiga M, Kurtz C, Comin JJ. Soil physical attributes in onion cultivation under no - tillage and conventional tillage systems. Revista Colombiana de Ciencias Hortícolas.2017; 11 (1): 105-113.
DOI: 10.17584 / rcch.2017v11i1.6144
3. Viana TE, Batista MA, Tormena CA, Costa SAC, Inoue TT. Physical properties and organic carbon of an oxisol affected by different land use and soil management systems. R. Bras. Ci. Solo.2011; 35 (6): 2105-2114.
DOI:10.1590/s0100-06832011000600025
4. Klein VA. Soil physics.3th ed. Passo Fundo: UPF.; 2014.
5. Teixeira W, Fairchild TR, Toledo MCM, Taioli F. Deciphering the Earth - 2nd ed. São Paulo: Companhia Editora Nacional.; 2009.
6. EMBRAPA. Irrigated Cotton Crops. 2003.
Available:<http://systemsproduction.cnpia.embrapa.br/FontesHTML/Algodao/AlgodaoIrrigado>
(Accessed 10 March 2019)
7. Lorenzo, M. PEDOLOGIA - Morphology: Soil Porosity. 2010.
Available:<https://marianaplorenzo.com/2010/10/17/pedologia-%E2%80%93-orologia-porosidade-do-socio>
(Accessed 14 december 2018)
8. Richart A, Filho JT, Brito OR, Llanillo RF, Ferreira R. Soil compaction: causes and effects. Semina: Agrarian Sciences.2005; 26: (3) 321-344

9. Kiehl EJ. Manual of Edaphology. São Paulo: Agronomic, 1979.
10. Luxmoore RJ. Micro, meso and macroporosity of soil. Soil Science Society American Journal. 1981; 45: 671-672.
11. Tognon AA. Physical-water properties of the Purple Latosol of the Guairá-SP region under different cropping systems. School of Agriculture of Luiz de Queiroz, Piracicaba, p. 85, 1991.
12. Freitas JASD. Physical-mechanical properties and soil carbon after successive application of poultry and swine organic waste. 2018; 1-72.
13. Hillel D. Fundamentals of soil physics. New York: Academic, p. 413, 1980.
14. Ribeiro KD, Menezes SM, MGBF Mosque, Sampaio FMT. Physical properties of the soil, influenced by the pore distribution, of six classes of soils of the region of Lavras - MG. Science and agrotechnology 2007; 31: (4) 1167-1175.
DOI: 10.1590 / S1413-70542007000400033
15. Lepsch IF. Nineteen lessons of pedology. São Paulo: Oficina de Textos, 2011. 456 p.
16. Teixeira PC, Donagemma GK, Fontana A, Teixeira WG. Manual of Methods of Soil Analysis. 3rd ed. Brasília rev. ampl.: Embrapa. 2017; 574p.
17. Bonini CSB, AlvesMC. Physical quality of a Red Latosol recovering for seventeen years. R. Bras. Eng. Agríc. Environmental. 2012; 16 (4): 329-336.
18. Kormanek M, Głęb T, Banach J, Szewczyk G. Effects of soil bulk density on sessile oak *Quercus petraea* Liebl. Eur J Forest Res. 2015; 134 (6): 969-979.
DOI: 10.1007 / s10342-015-0902-2
19. Hassan M, Ahmed A AS, Hassan MA, Nasrin R, Rayhan AS, Musfiq-Us-Salehin S, Rahman MK. Changes of soil fertility status in some soil series of Tista Floodplain Soils of Bangladesh, during 1996-2016. Asian Research Journal of Agriculture. 2017; 5(3): 1-9.
DOI: 10.9734/ARJA/2017/34365
20. Salton JC, Tomazi M. Plant root system and soil quality. Press Release, Embrapa Agropecuária Oeste, 2014.
21. Prevedello J, Vogelmann ES, Kaiser DR, Fontanela E, Reinert DJ, Reichert JM. Aggregation and organic matter of an argisol under different soil preparation for Eucalyptus plantation. Pesq. flower. bras. 2014; 34 (78): 149-158.
DOI: 10.4336 / 2014.pfb.34.78.456
22. Tiecher T. Management and conservation of soil and water in small rural properties in southern Brazil: alternative management practices aiming at soil and water conservation. Porto Alegre, UFRGS, p. 186, 2016.
23. Arcângelo L, Costa EM, Pereira MG, Beutler SJ. Aggregation, light organic matter and mineralizable carbon in soil aggregates. Revista de la Facultad de Agronomía, La Plata. 2014; 113 (1): 1-8.
24. Beutler AN, Munareto JD, Greco AMF, Pozzebon BC, Galon L, Guimarães S, Burg G, Schmidt MR, Deak EA, Giacomeli R, Alves GS. Soil management, residual straw and flooded rice yield. Semina: Agrarian Sciences. 2014; 35 (3): 1153-1162.
DOI: 10.5433/1679-0359.2014v35n3p1153

25. Mantovanelli BC, Silva DAP, Campos MCC, Gomes RP, Soares MD, Santos LAC. Evaluation of soil attributes under different uses in the region of Humaitá, Amazonas. *Rev. Cienc. Agrar.*2015; 58 (2): 122-130.
DOI: 10.4322 / rca.1822
26. Parron LM, Garcia JR, Oliveira EB, Brown GG, Prado RB. Environmental Services in Agricultural and Forest Systems of the Atlantic Forest Biome. *Embrapa Forests*, 2015.
27. Borges CA, Ribeiro BT, Wendling B, Cabral DA. Soil aggregation, organic carbon and CO₂ emission in areas under different uses in the Cerrado, Triângulo Mineiro region. *Rev. Ambient. Water.*2015; 10 (3): 660-675.
DOI: 10.4136 / ambient-water.1573
28. Almeida WS, Carvalho DS, Panachuki E, Valim WC, Rodrigues SA, Varella CAA. Water erosion in different cropping systems and levels of soil cover. *Pesq. agropec. bras.*2016; 51 (9): 1110-1119.
DOI: 10.1590 / S0100-204X2016000900010
29. Marchini DC, Ling TC, Alves MC, Crestanha S, Filho SNS, Arruda OG. Organic matter, infiltration and tomographic images of Oxisol undergoing recovery under different types of management. *R. Bras. Eng. Agríc. Environmental.*2015; 19 (6): 574-580.
DOI: 10.1590/1807-1929/agriambi.v19n6p574-580.
30. Neto GS, Santos KP, Fernandes GAG, Oliveira CF. Determination of the equation and infiltration velocity curve of red latosol water. 5th Academic Seminar - Science, Innovation and Technology in the Closed Biome.2011; 5 (1).
31. Portugal AF, Juncksh I, Schaefer CERG, Neves JCL. Stability of aggregates in argisol under different uses, compared to forest. *Rev. Ceres.*2010; 57 (4): 545-553.
32. Loss A, Pereira MG, Giacomo SG, Perin A, LHC Angles. Aggregation, carbon and nitrogen in soil aggregates under no-tillage with crop-livestock integration. *Pesq. agropec. bras.*2011; 46 (10): 1269-1276.
33. Bertol I, Albuquerque JA, Leite D, Amaral AJ, Zoldan JWA. Physical properties of the soil under conventional tillage and direct seeding in rotation and succession of crops, compared to the native field. *R. Bras. Ci. Solo.*2004; 28 (1): 155-163.
DOI: 10.1590 / s0100-06832004000100015.
34. Loss A, Basso A, Oliveira BS, Koucher LP, Oliveira RA, Kurtz C, Lovato PE, Curmi P, Brunetto G, Comin JJ. Total organic carbon and soil aggregation in conventional agroecological and conventional onion system. *R. Bras. Ci. Solo.*2015; 39 (4): 1212-1224.
DOI: 10.1590 / 01000683rbc20140718
35. Loss A, Costa EM, Pereira MG, Beutler SJ. Aggregation, light organic matter and mineralizable carbon in soil aggregates. *Journal of The Faculty of Agronomy, La Plata*, 2014; 113 (1): 1-8.
36. Pedrotti A, Dias JMS. Soil compaction: how to avoid it. *Agropecuária Catarinense.*1996; 9 (4): 50-52.
37. Reichert JM, Suzuki LEAS, Reinert DJ. Soil compaction in agricultural and forest systems: identification, effects, critical limits and mitigation. *Topics Ci. Solo.*2007; 5 (1): 49-134.
38. Dias JMS, Pierce RJ. The process of soil compaction and its modeling. *Brazilian Journal of Soil Science.* 1996; 20 (2): 175-182.

39. Alakukk L, Elomen P. Long-term effects of a single compaction by heavy field traffic on yield and nitrogen uptake of annual crops. *Soil & Tillage Research*.1994; 36 (3-4): 141-152.
DOI: 10.1016 / 0167-1987 (95) 00503-X
40. Cavichiolo SBV, Dedecek RA, Gava JL. Modifications in the physical attributes of soils submitted to two systems of preparation in regrowth of Eucalyptus equine. *R. Árvore*.2005; 29 (4): 571-577.
41. Oliveira VS, Rolim MM, Vasconcelos RF, Costa YD, Pedrosa, E. M. Compaction of a ultisol submitted to different managements. *Rev. bras. eng. Agríc*.2010; 14 (9): 914-920.
DOI: 10.1590 / S1415-43662010000900002
42. Physical quality of a Red Latosol under systems of integrating livestock farming in the Cerrado, Brazil. *Pesq. agropec. bras* 2007; 42 (): 873-82.
DOI: 10.1590 / S0100-204X2007000600015
43. Marschner H. Mineral nutrition of higher plants. 2th ed. San Diego, Academic Press, p. 889, 1995.
44. Canarache A. Penetr-a generalized semi-empirical model estimating soil resistance to penetration. *Soil & Tillage Research*. nineteen ninety; 16 (1-2): 51-70.
DOI: 101016 / 0167-1987 (90) 90021-5
45. Kitamura AE, Alves MC, Suziki LGAS, Gonzalez AP. Recovery of degraded soil with the application of green manures and sewage sludge. *Rev. Bras. Ciênc. Solo*. 2008; 32 (1): 405-416.
DOI: 10.1590 / S0100-06832008000100038
46. EMBRAPA - Brazilian Agricultural Research Corporation. Ministry of Agriculture, Livestock and Supply. Technical information for common bean cultivation in Central-Brazilian region: 2012-2014. 1ed.Santo Antônio de Goiás-GO, p. 248, 2012.
47. Bonini CSB, Alves MC, Montanari R. Recovery of the structure of a degraded red Latosol using sewage sludge. *Brazilian Journal of Agricultural Sciences / Brazilian Journal of Agricultural Sciences* 2015; 10 (1): 34-42.
DOI: 10.5039/agraria.v10i1a4513
48. Sá MAC, Santos JJDG. Soil compaction: consequences for plant growth. Documents 136, Embrapa, p. 24, 2005.
49. Hakansson I, Lipiec JA. review of the usefulness of relative bulk density values in studies of soil structure and compaction. *Soil & Tillage Research*. 2000; 53(2):71- 85.
DOI:10.1016/S0167-1987(99)00095-1
50. Chen G,Weil RR,Hill RL. Effects of compaction and cover crops on soil least limiting water range and air permeability. *Soil & Tillage Research*.2014; 136(2):61-69.
DOI:10.1016/j.still.2013.09.004
51. Calonego JC,Rafhael JPA,RigonJPG,Neto LO,Rosolem CA. Soil compaction management and soybean yields with cover crops under no-till and occasional chiseling. *Europ. J. Agronomy*.2017; 85(5):31-37.
DOI:10.1016/j.eja.2017.02.001
52. Chamen WT, Moxey AP, Towers W, Balana B, Hallett PD. Mitigating arable soil compaction: A review and analysis of available cost and benefit data. *Soil & Tillage Research*. 2015; 146(2):10-25.
DOI:10.1016/j.still.2014.09.011
53. Alaoui A,Rogger M,Peth S,Blöschl G. Does soil compaction increase floods? A review. *Journal of hydrology*, 2017;557 (2), 631-642.

DOI:10.1016/j.jhydrol.2017.12.052

54. Hamza MA, Anderson WK. Soil compaction in cropping systems: A review of the nature, causes and possible solutions. *Soil & Tillage Research*. 2005; 82(2):121-145.

DOI:10.1016/j.still.2004.08.009

55. Lima RP, León MJ, Silva AR. Soil compaction of different textured classes in areas of sugarcane production. *Rev. Ceres*. 2015; 60 (1): 16-20.

DOI: 10.1590/S0034-737X2013000100003

56. Nawaz MF, Bourrie G, Trolard F. Soil compaction impact and modeling. A review. *Agronomy for sustainable development*. 2013; 33 (2): 291-309.

DOI: 10.1007/s13593-011-0071-8

57. Brandão VS, Cecílio RA, Pruski FF, Silva DD. *Infiltration of Soil Water*. 3rd ed. current and ampl. Viçosa: Editora UFV, 2012.

58. Valentin C, Bresson LM. Morphology, genesis and classification of surface crusts in loam and sandy soils. *Geoderma*. 1992; 55 (3-4): 225-245.

DOI: 10.1016 / 0016-7061 (92) 90085-L

59. Franzluebbbers AJ. Water infiltration and soil structure related to organic matter and its stratification with depth. *Soil & Tillage Research*. 2002; 66 (2): 197-205.

DOI: 10.1016/S0167-1987 (02) 00027-2

60. Mathias DT, Lupinacci CM, Moruzzi RB. Distribution of infiltration rates in areas affected by accelerated erosive processes and covered by anthropogenic materials. *Sanitary and Environmental Engineering*. 2018; 23 (5): 1-9.

DOI: 10.1590/S1413-41522018167570

61. Bonini CSB, Lupatini GC, Andrighetto C, Mateus GP, Heinrichs R, Aranha AS, Santana EAR, Meirelles GC. Fodder production and soil chemical and physical attributes in integrated agricultural production systems. *Pesq. agropec. bras*. 2016; 51 (9): 1695-1698.

DOI:10.1590/s0100-204x2016000900070