The impact of the permanent grass cover or conventional tillage on hydraulic properties of Haplic Cambisol developed on paragneiss substrate

Miroslav Fér*, Radka Kodešová, Antonín Nikodem, Veronika Jirků, Ondřej Jakšík & Karel Němeček

Czech University of Life Sciences Prague, Dept. of Soil Science and Soil Protection, Kamýcká 129, CZ-16521 Prague 6, Czech Republic; e-mail: mfer@af.czu.cz

Abstract: This study is focused on the comparison of soil structure and soil hydraulic properties of a Haplic Cambisol on paragneiss under two different land managements. Soil samples were taken from all diagnostic horizons (A, Bw and C) of the soil profile under the permanent grass cover (grassland) and under the conventional tillage (arable land). Basic soil properties were measured. Aggregate stability was assessed using the WSA index. Soil composition was evaluated using micromorphological images. Tension disk infiltrometers with two diameters of 2.22 and 10.25 cm (and applied pressure head of -2 cm) and Guelph permeameter were used to measure unsaturated and saturated hydraulic conductivities, respectively. Soil hydraulic properties were measured in the laboratory using the multistep outflow experiment, which was performed on the undisturbed 100 cm³ soil samples. Results showed that the unsaturated and saturated hydraulic conductivities measured in all horizons were lower at the arable land than conductivities at the grassland. The shapes of the soil water retention curves for A and Bw horizons were also different, indicating that soil below the grass contained larger fraction of the large capillary pores, which also corresponded to measured hydraulic conductivities and soil structure characteristics. Differences between both locations were caused by a negative impact of tillage (inflicting soil degradation) and positive influence of grass (increasing organic matter content and improving soil aggregation).

Key words: aggregate stability; conventional tillage; grassland; hydraulic conductivity; soil micromorphology; soil water retention curve.

Introduction

One of the most important factors that determine soil quality and capability of soil to serve the ecosystem are soil hydraulic properties (Horel et al. 2015). It is well known that chemical and mainly hydro-physical soil properties are variable in space (e.g. Herbst et al. 2006; Sándor et al. 2015; Huang et al. 2016) and time (e.g. Schwen et al. 2011; Jirků et al. 2013). In agricultural soils, cultivation frequently leads to soil degradation and thereby to change the soil structure, porosity and hydraulic properties (e.g. Pagliai & Vignozzi 2002; Lipiec et al. 2006; Kodešová et al. 2009; Bartlová et al. 2015). Permanent vegetation cover usually improves soil chemical, physical and hydraulic conditions of topsoil (Schwartz et al. 2003; Skukla et al. 2003; Bormann & Klassen 2008; Noellemeyer et al. 2008; Bachmair et al. 2010; Kodešová et al. 2011; Kelishadi et al. 2014). On the other hand grass or various trees cover may induce soil water repellency (e.g. Orfánus et al. 2008, 2014, 2016; Lichner et al. 2010, 2011; Lozano et al. 2014; Bachman et al. 2016).

Above mentioned studies dealing with the soil physical quality usually evaluated mainly topsoils or assessed soil quality only from some points of view (i.e. using selected tests). Our previous study (Kodešová et al. 2011) evaluated quality of grassland and arable soils within the entire soil profiles of a Haplic Luvisol using a complex set of methods: analysis of chemical properties, micromorphological analysis, laboratory analysis of soil hydraulic properties using the multistep outflow method and filed measurements of saturated and unsaturated (for pressure head of -2 cm) conductivities using the Guelph permeameter and disk infiltrometers, respectively. We found that the different soil management influenced evaluated soil properties approximately to the depths of 60 cm. The similar study has been performed for the Haplic Cambisol. In this case, an analysis of aggregate stability extended the set of applied methods. The goal was to assess the land use impact on soil quality and to compare the extent of soil properties alternation (i.e. with respect to depth etc.) with those of our previous study.

^{*} Corresponding author

Material and methods

Site description and soil sampling

The study area is at the Humpolec experimental station of the Crop Research Institute in Prague (Czech Republic). The elevation of the location above the sea level is 523 m. The average annual temperature and average annual precipitation (for 30 yr) is 7.4 °C and 660 mm, respectively. Two places in distance of 200 meters from each other were chosen to study different land use and management impact on the soil properties: 1. grassland and 2. arable land (with 5yr rotation system and conventional tillage, tillage depth of 25 cm). The soil type at both places determined according WRB (2014) was the Haplic Cambisol on paragneiss. However, the thickness of three diagnostic horizons A, Bw and C differed from each other (Table 1). Soil sampling and field tests at both sites were carried out in the same time (July 2009) immediately after the harvest of winter barley planted at the arable land. The soil properties of the arable land were from various points of view studied before by Kodešová et al. (2008, 2012). Disturbed, undisturbed (volume 100 cm³) soil samples and soil blocks $(3 \text{ cm} \times 3 \text{ cm} \times 10 \text{ cm})$ were taken from all horizons to analyze soil chemical, physical and hydraulic properties. Disk infiltrometer and Guelph permeameter measurements were performed at both sites in each horizon to obtain unsaturated and saturated hydraulic conductivities, respectively.

Basic physical and chemical properties

The basic physical and chemical properties of the A, Bw and C diagnostic horizons were determined in three replicates using the standardized laboratory techniques. Disturbed soil samples were used for measuring particle density (Flint & Flint 2002), particle size distribution (Gee & Or 2002), oxidable organic carbon content (Skjemstad & Baldock 2008), $pH_{\rm KCl}$, $pH_{\rm H2O}$ (ISO 10390:1994).

Soil aggregate stability

Aggregate stability was assessed using the WSA index proposed by Nimmo & Perkins (2002). Four grams of air dry soil aggregates (segregates) of the size of 2–5 mm was sieved for 3 min in distilled water (sieve 0.25 mm). Aggregates remaining on the sieve were next sieved in sodium hexametaphoshate until only sand particles remained on the sieve. The index of water-stable aggregates, WSA [-], was then determined as:

$$WSA = \frac{W_{\rm ds}}{W_{\rm ds} + W_{\rm dw}} \tag{1}$$

where $W_{\rm ds}$ [M] is the weight of aggregates dispersed in dispersing solution and $W_{\rm dw}$ [M] is the weight of aggregates dispersed in distilled water.

$Micromorphological\ images$

Micromorphological properties characterizing the soil composition of the A, Bw and C diagnostic horizons were studied in thin soil sections prepared from soil blocks. These thin sections were prepared according to methods presented by Stoops (2003). Two soil sections were made for each horizon. The final thin section size was 1.5 by 2 cm. Images were taken with the polarization microscope OLYMPUS BX51 with the digital camera OLYMPUS DP70 (using software Deep Focus 3.0) at a magnification $2\times$ and a resolution of 300 dpi.

Multistep outflow test

Laboratory multistep outflow test was used to gain soil hydraulic properties. Three undisturbed soil samples of volume 100 cm³ (soil core on height of 5.1 cm and cross-sectional area of 19.60 cm²) were taken and analyzed from each horizon (A, Bw, C). Samples were placed into Tempe cells. Fully saturated soil samples in Tempe cells were slowly drained for 3 weeks. Nine pressure head steps were used as follows, -10, -30, -50, -100, -170, -250, -350, -500 and -1000 cm. Program HYDRUS 1-D (Šimůnek et al. 2008) with the single-porosity model was applied to simulate water flow in the soil samples, and to optimize parameters of the van Genuchten (1980) soil hydraulic function, the soil water retention curve, $\theta(h)$, and the hydraulic conductivity function, $K(\theta)$:

$$\theta_{\rm e} = \frac{\theta - \theta_{\rm r}}{\theta_{\rm s} - \theta_{\rm r}} \quad \theta_{\rm e} = \frac{1}{\left(1 + (\alpha \mid h \mid)^n\right)^m}, \text{ for } h < 0$$

$$\theta_{\rm e} = 1 \text{ for } h \ge 0 \tag{2}$$

$$K(\theta) = K_{\rm s}\theta_{\rm e}^l \left[1 - \left(1 - \theta_{\rm e}^{1/m}\right)\right]^2, \text{ for } h < 0$$

$$K(\theta) = K_{\rm S}, \text{ for } h \ge 0$$
(3)

where $\theta_{\rm e}$ is the effective soil water content (dimensionless), $\theta_{\rm r}$ is the residual soil water content $[{\rm L}^{3}{\rm L}^{-3}]$, $\theta_{\rm s}$ is the saturated water content $[{\rm L}^{3}{\rm L}^{-3}]$, h is the pressure head $[{\rm L}]$, α is the reciprocal of the air-entry pressure head $[{\rm L}^{-1}]$, lis the pore-connectivity parameter equal here 0.5 (dimensionless), n (dimensionless) is related to the slope of the retention curve at the inflection point (dimensionless), m = 1-1/n (dimensionless), and $K_{\rm s}$ is the saturated hydraulic conductivity $[{\rm LT}^{-1}]$.

Tension disk infiltrometer

Unsaturated hydraulic conductivities were evaluated at the depths of 5 (A), 30 (Bw grassland) and 45 (Bw, arable land), 63 (C, grassland) and 85 (C, arable land) cm. Cumulative water infiltrations were measured with two tension disk infiltrometers with different disk radiuses (2.22 and 10.25 cm, 12 and 4 replicates, respectively). Pressure head was always set at value of -2 cm as proposed by Watson & Luxmoore (1986) as limit between gravitational and capillary pores. The soil surface was carefully leveled using knife before the tension disk infiltrometer test. Then 1 mm layer from the same soil, sieved through a 2-mm sieve, was formed to ensure close contact between the soil and disk (Kodešová et al. 2010, 2011). The tension disk infiltration test lasted at least 60 min. The unsaturated hydraulic conductivity $K(h_0)$ for $h_0 = -2$ cm was calculated according to Zhang (1997). Cumulative infiltration I [L] in time t [T] was fitted using the following equation:

$$I = C_1 t + C_2 t^{1/2} \tag{4}$$

 C_1 [LT⁻¹] a C_2 [LT⁻¹] are parameters related to the hydraulic conductivity $K(h_0)$ and sorptivity $S(h_0)$:

$$C_1(h_0) = A_1 K(h_0) \text{ and } C_2(h_0) = A_2 S(h_0)$$
 (5)

where $A_1 [LT^{-1}]$ and $A_2 [LT^{-1}]$ are dimensionless constants. The $K(h_0)$ value was calculated using Eq. (5) and following expressions for A_1 constant:

$$A_1 = \frac{11.65(n^{0.1} - 1) \exp\left[2.92(n - 1.9)\alpha h_0\right]}{(\alpha r_0)^{0.91}} \text{ for } n \ge 1.9$$
(6)

Table 1. The average values of measured physical and chemical properties obtained from 3 replicates: the particle density (ρ_S), bulk density (ρ_D), porosity (P), active (pH_{H2O}) and potential (pH_{KCl}) soil reaction, oxidable organic carbon content (C_{OX}), soil texture and WSA index.

Soil profile	Horizont	Depth (cm)	$_{\rm (g\ cm^{-3})}^{\rho_{\rm S}}$	$\stackrel{\rho_{\rm D}}{({\rm g~cm^{-3}})}$	Р (-)	pH_{H2O} (-)	$\stackrel{\rm pH_{\rm KCl}}{(-)}$	C _{OX}) (%)	Clay (%)	Silt (%)	$_{(\%)}^{\rm Sand)}$	WSA (-)
Grassland	A Bw C	$egin{array}{c} 0 - 20 \\ 20 - 55 \\ 55 - 94 \\ 0 - 28 \end{array}$	2.60 2.62 2.57 2.57	$1.16 \\ 1.34 \\ 1.48 \\ 1.40$	$0.55 \\ 0.49 \\ 0.42 \\ 0.42$	5.17 5.58 5.60	4.24 4.46 4.82 4.71	$2.34 \\ 1.33 \\ 0.58 \\ 1.77$	10 10 10	$42 \\ 36 \\ 26 \\ 42$	$ 48 \\ 54 \\ 65 \\ 42 $	0.977 0.873 0.488 0.576
Arable land	A Bw C	0 - 28 28 - 61 61 - 118	2.57 2.61 2.57	$1.49 \\ 1.50 \\ 1.46$	$0.42 \\ 0.44 \\ 0.43$	$5.76 \\ 5.78 \\ 5.02$	$4.71 \\ 4.47 \\ 3.93$	1.77 0.43 0.98	$15 \\ 28 \\ 15$	$\frac{43}{36}$ 37	$\begin{array}{c} 42\\ 36\\ 48\end{array}$	$0.376 \\ 0.305 \\ 0.362$

$$A_{1} = \frac{11.65(n^{0.1} - 1) \exp\left[7.5(n - 1.9)\alpha h_{0}\right]}{(\alpha r_{0})^{0.91}}$$

for 1.35 < n < 1.9 (7)

or using modified expression by Dohnal et al. (2011):

$$A_1 = \frac{11.65(n^{0.82} - 1) \exp\left[34.65(n - 1.19)\alpha h_0\right]}{(\alpha r_0)^{0.6}} \text{ for } n < 1.35$$
(8)

where α and n are the van Genuchten parameters (parameters obtained from the multistep outflow experiment), r_0 is the disk radius (2.22 or 10.25 cm) and h_0 is the applied pressure head (-2 cm).

Another method to evaluate the unsaturated hydraulic conductivity from disk infiltrometer measurements has been proposed by Wooding (1968). Wooding proposed the following algebraic approximation of steady state unconfined infiltration rates into soil from a circular source of radius r[L]:

$$Q = \pi r_0^2 K(h_0) \left(1 + \frac{4}{\pi r_0 \alpha_{\rm G}} \right) \tag{9}$$

where Q is the steady water flux $[L^{3}T^{-1}]$, r_{0} is the disk diameter (2.22 or 10.25 cm), h_{0} is the applied pressure head (-2 cm), α_{G} $[L^{-1}]$ is the constant in Gardner equation (1958) describing relationship between the unsaturated hydraulic conductivity and the pressure head.

$$K(h) = K_{\rm S} \exp(\alpha_{\rm G} h) \tag{10}$$

value $\alpha_{\rm G}$ characterizing soil structure was measured by Reynolds & Elrick (1991) for sand 0.36 cm⁻¹, loam 0.12 cm⁻¹ and clay 0.04 cm⁻¹. The value for loam was applied in this study to evaluate the $K(h_0)$ values.

Guelph permeameter

A Guelph permeameter was used to measure in the field cumulative water flux under well ponding condition. The tests with the Guelph permeameter were performed in each horizon, lasted at least 30 minutes and they were done in four replications. The depth of the drilled well was 10 (A), 35 (Bw grassland), 50 (Bw, arable land), 68 (C, grassland) and 90 (C, arable land) cm, the well radius was 3 cm, and the well ponding depth was 5 cm. The standard procedure recommended in the Guelph permeameter manual (Soil Equipment Corp. 2008) was used to prepare the infiltration well. Well with the radius 3 cm was drilled using a soil auger, than for final well shaping a size auger was used and finally well brush was applied to remove the smear layer on the well sides. From these measurements the results of the saturated hydraulic conductivity K_s were calculated according to Elrick et al. (1989) and Reynolds et al. (2002):

$$K_{\rm s} = \frac{CQ}{2\pi H^2 + \pi a^2 C + 2\pi H/\alpha_{\rm G}}$$
(11)

where $K_{\rm s}$ is the saturated hydraulic conductivity, Q is steady water flux [L³T⁻¹], H is ponding depth [L] (5 cm), ais well radius [L] (3 cm), $\alpha_{\rm G}$ is the constant characterizing soil structure [L⁻¹] (Equation 10) and C is dimensionless constant calculated for $\alpha_{\rm G} = 0.12$ cm⁻¹ according to the following equation (Zhang et al. 1998):

$$C = \left(\frac{H/a}{2.074 + 0.093(H/a)}\right)$$
(12)

Results and discussion

The basic soil properties and soil structure characteristics

The basic soil properties of all diagnostic horizons for both soil profiles are shown in Table 1. There are no differences between particle densities of grassland and arable land. However resulting values of the bulk densities from of soil samples taken from A and Bw horizons of grassland soil profile are lower when compared with the values for the same horizons in arable land. Thus average porosities are considerably higher in the A and Bw horizons of grassland in comparison with arable field. Similar results were obtained also by Borman & Klarsen (2008) for a Podzol and Stagnosol (except of subsoil of Stagnosol) and Kodešová et al. (2011) for the Luvisol. Oxidable carbon content (Cox) was higher in A and Bw horizons of grassland but lower in the C horizon than those at the arable land, which is again consistent with other studies (e.g. Kodešová et al. 2011; Noellemeyer et al. 2008). Moderately different soil textures were probably again obtained due to soil destruction by periodical tillage and also due to increased weathering processes induced by the soil management, for instance by agrochemicals (e.g. Matocha et al. 2016), periodical root growth and decay etc. That is also documented by the fact that cordierite (that is usually more easy weathered) was found in samples from grassland (Zigová et al. 2013). Soil pH of different horizons slightly varied due to different Cox content and agricultural practice at both locations. The almost 2times higher soil aggregate stability (WSA index) was at the grassland than at arable land, which can be attributed to the higher organic content, positive impact of roots and no affect of tillage at grassland in comparison to that of the arable land (Jirků et al. 2013). The largest WSA index was always found in the A horizon



Fig. 1. Images of thin soil sections at grassland (left) and arable land (right) taken in polarized light: A - voids; B - organic matter, and C - large grains.

and decreased with depth. Positive correlation between oxidable carbon content and WSA index was described for example in Jakšík et al. (2015), Jirků et al. (2013), Kodešová et al. (2009) or Zádorová et al. (2011).

Images of soil structure (Fig. 1) show large differences between soil compositions of the A and Bw horizons at both locations. In the case of the grass land, soil was not long time affected by tillage. Thus soil from the A horizon contained a large among of organic matter (which is present in the image in clumps). Another reason may be slower mineralization process taking place in Cambisols in comparison to other soil types (e.g. Kodešová et al. 2011). Similar organic matter features were observed in overlaying organic matter horizon and topsoils of Cambisols and Podzols at grassland sites by Kodešová et al. (2007) and Nikodem et al. (2013). Soils samples from the A and Bw horizons of the arable land contained large amount of fine particles in comparison to those from grassland. The images from C horizons show similar difference (but less significant).

The soil hydraulic properties

The resulting average van Genuchten soil hydraulic parameters $(\theta_{\rm S}, \theta_{\rm R}, \alpha, n, K_{\rm s})$ obtained using the multistep outflow experiment and their standard deviations from both soil types and all horizons are shown in Table 2. The shapes of the soil water retention curves are presented in Fig. 2. While very similar results were obtained for the C horizons of grassland and arable land, considerably different curves were measured in the A and Bw horizons at both locations. These results are consistent with results of Kodešová et al. (2011) and Schwartz et al. (2003), who also documented that land use practices had a greater effect on the water retention. As discussed above, repeated agricultural management mainly soil tillage on the arable land led to destruction of soil texture and structure in topsoil and had influence also on the Bw horizons probably due to increased weathering induced by the soil management.

Soil hydraulic conductivity curves obtained from the multistep outflow experiments (Fig. 2) and val-

Table 2. Average values obtained from 3 replicates of van Genuchten soil hydraulic parameters obtained using the multistep outflow experiment in the Tempe cells and numerical inversion using the HYDRUS-1D program of saturated water content (θ_S), residual water content (θ_R), parameters (α , n) and hydraulic conductivity (K_s) and their standard deviations.

Soil type	Horizon	$ heta_{ m S} \ ({ m cm}^3 { m cm}^{-3})$	$ heta_{ m R} \ ({ m cm}^3 { m cm}^{-3})$	(cm^{-1})	n (-)	$K_{ m s}$ (cm h ⁻¹)
Grassland Arable land	A Bw C A Bw C	$\begin{array}{c} 0.553 \pm 0.015 \\ 0.486 \pm 0.011 \\ 0.416 \pm 0.046 \\ 0.418 \pm 0.041 \\ 0.433 \pm 0.011 \\ 0.428 \pm 0.078 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 0.344 \pm 0.048 \\ 0.253 \pm 0.021 \\ 0.228 \pm 0.037 \\ 0.295 \pm 0.037 \\ 0.248 \pm 0.008 \\ 0.198 \pm 0.171 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{l} 0.031 \pm 0.007 \\ 0.042 \pm 0.005 \\ 0.076 \pm 0.026 \\ 0.047 \pm 0.014 \\ 0.037 \pm 0.024 \\ 0.053 \pm 0.032 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 1.44 \pm 0.16 \\ 1.50 \pm 0.13 \\ 1.55 \pm 0.21 \\ 1.50 \pm 0.09 \\ 1.37 \pm 0.02 \\ 1.35 \pm 0.21 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 0.132 \pm 0.076 \\ 0.574 \pm 0.342 \\ 0.904 \pm 0.690 \\ 0.083 \pm 0.061 \\ 0.147 \pm 0.141 \\ 0.151 \pm 0.073 \end{array}$

Table 3. Average values and standard deviations of unsaturated hydraulic conductivities obtained from disk infiltrometer (K TDI, radius = 10.25 cm), minidisk infiltrometer (K TDI, radius = 2.22 cm) evaluated according to Zhang (^a) and Wooding (^b) and saturated hydraulic conductivity ($K_s GP$) measured using the Guelph permeameter.

Soil type	Horizon	$K(h_0 = -2 \text{ cm})^a$ TDI $r_0 = 10.25 \text{ cm}$ cm h ⁻¹	$K(h_0 = -2 \text{ cm})^a$ TDI $r_0 = 2.22 \text{ cm}$ cm h ⁻¹	$K(h_0 = -2 \text{ cm})^b$ TDI $r_0 = 10.25 \text{ cm}$ cm h ⁻¹	$K(h_0 = -2 \text{ cm})^b$ TDI, $r_0 = 2.22 \text{ cm}$ cm h ⁻¹	$K_{\rm s}GP$ cm h ⁻¹
Grassland	А	${0.125\ (3)^c} \ 0.114^d$	${0.420\ (7)^c} \ 0.334^d$	${0.225\ (3)^c\over 0.160^d}$	${0.636\ (7)}\ {0.554^d}$	${0.256\ (3)^c\over 0.193^d}$
	Bw	${0.218\ (3)^c\over 0.055^d}$	${0.668\ (8)^c}\over {0.530^d}$	${0.132\ (3)^c\over 0.016^d}$	${0.678\ (7)\ 0.584^d}$	${0.162\ (3)^c\over 0.089^d}$
	С	$2.573 \ (6)^c \ 2.71^d$	$5.760 \ (2)^c \ 3.783^d$	${1.283\ (3)^c}\ {1.128^d}$	$\begin{array}{c} 0.952 \ (8) \\ 0.852^d \end{array}$	${\begin{array}{c} 1.962 \ (3)^c \\ 1.093^d \end{array}}$
Arable land	А	$0.665 (1)^c$	${0.028\ (4)^c\over 0.021^d}$	${0.450\ (3)^c\over 0.029^d}$	$\begin{array}{c} 0.057 \ (7) \\ 0.029^d \end{array}$	${\begin{array}{c} 0.149 \ (3)^c \ 0.106^d \end{array}}$
	Bw	-	${0.058\ (7)^c\over 0.041^d}$	${0.032\ (3)^c\over 0.012^d}$	$\begin{array}{c} 0.115 \ (4) \\ 0.056^d \end{array}$	$0.063(1)^{c}$
	С	_	${0.248\ (6)^c\over 0.107^d}$	${\begin{array}{c} 0.435 \ (2)^c \ 0.557^d \end{array}}$	$\begin{array}{c} 0.338 \; (6) \\ 0.146^d \end{array}$	${0.069\ (3)^c} \ {0.051^d}$

a, calculated according to Zhang (1997); b, calculated according to Wooding (1968); c, measurement replicates; d, standard deviation.



Fig. 2. Soil-water retention and hydraulic conductivity curves at grassland and arable land obtained by the multistep outflow experiment and numerical inversion using HYDRUS-1D program.

ues of unsaturated and saturated hydraulic conductivities (Table 3) resulted from the tension disk and Guelph permeameter tests, respectively, for grassland were mostly higher than those for arable land. This may be again explained by the soil aggregate destruction and accelerated weathering process. It should be noticed that despite the similar shape of the soil water retention curves and almost the same porosities (Table 1) obtained for the C horizons of both soil profiles, large K values were obtained in the grassland in comparison to those in arable land. In some cases the K_S values obtained using the Guelph permeameter were lower than unsaturated hydraulic properties obtained using both disk infiltrometers. Similar results (but in fewer cases) were observed by Kodešová et al. (2011) for the Haplic Luvisol. These lower values were possibly caused by smearing of the soil in the well, and by the well preparation or due to experimental and mathematical procedures, and selection or calculation of used parameters $\alpha_{\rm G}$, α and n (Kodešová et al. 2011).

Our previous study (Kodešová et al. 2011) showed that land use mostly impacted the A1, A2 and Bt1 horizons but not the Bt2 and C horizons of the Haplic Luvisol on loess. Results in present study indicate large differences between the A and Bw horizons but also slight modification of the C horizon. The main reasons are: 1. The depth of the Cambisol was smaller than the Luvisol. 2. Soil types were developed on different substrates (i.e. spatially homogeneous stable loess versus weathered paragneiss of the larger areal variability). 3. Different soil forming process took place in both soil types (i.e. iluviation/eluviation process resulted in well developed aggregates in the Bt horizons versus process altering under-laying soil substrate resulted in poor soil structure in the Bw horizon).

Conclusion

Study showed how different management of soils impacted the soil structure and consequently soil hydraulic properties. While soil water retention curves in the C horizons of both soil profiles were relatively similar, soil water retention curves in the A and Bw horizons were considerably different. Despite of the soil water retention curve similarity in the C horizons, the larger values of soil hydraulic conductivities were always obtained at the grassland than those at the arable land, which was attributed to the soil structure and even particle destruction due to periodical tillage and probably more intensive weathering processes taking place at the arable land.

Acknowledgements

Authors acknowledge the financial support of the Czech Science Foundation grants no. 526/08/0434 and 13-12477S, and Dr. Žigová for taking micro-morphological images.

References

- Bachmair S., Weiler M. & Nűtzmann G. 2010. Benchmarking of two dual-permeability models under different land use and land cover. Vadose Zone J. 9: 226–237.
- Bachmann J., Krüger J., Göbel M.-O. & Heinze S. 2016. Occurrence and spatial pattern of water repellency in a beech forest subsoil. J. Hydrol. Hydromech. 64: 100–110.
- Bartlová J., Badalíková B., Pospíšilová L., Pokorný E. & Šarapatka B. 2015. Water stability of soil aggregates in different systems of tillage. Soil Water Res. 10: 147–154
- Bormann H. & Klassen K. 2008. Seasonal and land use dependent variability of soil hydraulic and soil hydrological properties of two Northern German soils. Geoderma **145**: 295–302.
- Dohnal M., Dusek J. & Vogel T. 2010. Improving hydraulic conductivity estimates from Minidisk Infiltrometer measurements for soils with wide pore-size distributions. Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J. 74: 804–811.
- Elrick D. E., Reynolds W.D. & Tan K. A. 1989. Hydraulic conductivity measurements in the unsaturated zone using improved well analyses. Ground Water Monit. Rew. 9: 184–193.
- Flint A.L. & Flint L.E. 2002. Particle density, pp. 229–240. In: Dane J.H. & Topp G.C. (eds). Methods of Soil Analysis, Part 4 – Physical Methods, Soil Science Society of America, Inc. Madison, USA.
- Gardner W. R. 1958. Some steady state solutions of unsaturated moisture flow equations with application to evaporation from a water table. Soil Sci. 85: 228–232.
- Gee G.W. & Or D. 2002. Particle-size analysis, pp. 255–294. In: Dane J.H. & Topp G.C. (eds), Methods of Soil Analysis, Part 4 – Physical Methods, Soil Science Society of America, Inc. Madison, USA.

- van Genuchten M.Th. 1980. A closed-form equation for predicting the hydraulic conductivity of unsaturated soils. Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J. 44: 892–898.
- Herbst M., Diekkrüger B. & Vereecken H. 2006. Geostatistical coregionalization of soil hydraulic properties in a micro-scale catchment using terrain attributes. Geoderma 132: 206-221.
- Horel Á., Tóth E., Gelybó G., Kása I., Bakacsi Z. & Farkas C. 2015. Effects of land use and management on soil hydraulic properties. Open Geoscience 1: 742–754.
- Huang M., Zettl J.D., Barbour S.L. & Pratt D. 2016. Characterizing the spatial variability of the hydraulic conductivity of reclamation soils using air permeability. Geoderma 262: 285–293.
- International Organization of Standardization, Standard of Soil quality – Determination of pH (ISO 10390:1994).
- IUSS Working Group WRB. 2014. World Reference Base for Soil Resources 2014. International soil classification system for naming soils and creating legends for soil maps. World Soil Resources No. 106. FAI, Rome.
- Jakšík O., Kodešová R., Kubiš A., Stehlíková I., Drábek O. & Kapička A. 2015. Soil aggregate stability within morphologically diverse areas. Catena 127: 287–299.
- Jirků V., Kodešová R., Nikodem A., Mühlhanselová M. & Žigová A. 2013. Temporal variability of structure and hydraulic properties of topsoil of three soil types. Geoderma 204-205: 43–58.
- Kelishadi H., Mosaddeghi M.R., Hajabassi M.A. & Ayoubi S. 2014. Near-saturated soil hydraulic properties as influenced by land use management systems in Koohrang region of central Zagros, Iran. Geoderma 213: 426–434.
- Kodešová R., Jirků V., Kodeš V., Mühlhanselová M., Nikodem A. & Žigová A. 2011. Soil structure and soil hydraulic properties of haplic Luvisol used as arable land and grassland. Soil Till. Res. 111: 154–161.
- Kodešová R., Kočárek M., Kodeš V., Šimůnek J. & Kozák J. 2008. Impact of soil micromorphology features on water flow and herbicide transport in soils. Vadose Zone J. 7: 798–809.
- Kodešová R., Němeček K., Kodeš V. & Žigová A. 2012. Using dye tracer for visualization of preferential flow at macro- and microscales. Vadose Zone J. 11, vzj2011.0088.
- Kodešová R., Pavlů L., Kodeš V., Žigová A. & Nikodem A. 2007. Impact of spruce forest and grass vegetation cover on soil micromorphology and hydraulic properties of organic matter horizon. Biologia 62: 565–568.
- Kodešová R., Rohošková M. & Žigová A. 2009. Comparison of aggregate stability within six soil profiles under conventional tillage using various laboratory tests. Biologia 64: 550–554.
- Kodešová R., Šimůnek J., Nikodem A. & Jirků V. 2010. Estimation of parameters of the radially-symmetric dualpermeability model using tension disc infiltrometer and Guelph permeameter experiments. Vadose Zone J. 9: 213– 225.
- Lichner L., Eldridge D.J., Schacht K., Zhukova N., Holko L., Šír M. & Pecho J. 2011. Grass cover influences hydrophysical parameters and heterogeneity pf water flow in sandy soil. Pedosphere 21: 719–729.
- Lichner L., Hallett P.D. & Orfanus T. 2010. Vegetation impact on the hydrology of an aeolian sandy soil in a continental climate. Ecohydrology 3: 413–420.
- Lipiec J., Kuś J., Słowińska-Jurkiewicz A. & Nosalewicz A. 2006. Soil porosity and water infiltration as influenced by tillage methods. Soil Till. Res. 89: 210–220.
- Lozano E., García-Orenes F., Bárcenas-Moreno G., Jiménez-Pinilla P., Mataix-Solera J., Arcenegui V., Morugán-Coronado A. & Mataix-Beneyto J. 2014. Relationships between soil water repellency and microbial community composition under different plant species in a Mediterranean semiarid forest. J. Hydrol. Hydromech. 62: 101–107.
- Noellemeyer E., Frank F., Alvarez C., Morazzo G. & Quiroga A. 2008. Carbon content and aggregation related to soil physical and biological properties under a landuse sequence in the semiarid region of central Argentina. Soil Till. Res. 99: 179– 190.

- Nikodem A., Pavlů L., Kodešová R., Borůvka L. & Drábek O. 2013. Study of podzolization process under different vegetation cover in the Jizera Mountains region. Soil Water Res. 8: 1–13.
- Matocha C.J., Grove J.H., Karathanasis T.D. & Vandiviere M. 2016. Changes in soil mineralogy due to nitrogen fertilization in an agroecosystem. Geoderma 263: 176–184.
- Nimmo J.R. & Perkins K.S. 2002. Aggregate stability and size distribution, pp. 317–328. In: Dane J.H. & Topp G.C. (eds), Methods of Soil Analysis, Part 4 – Physical Methods. SSSA, Madison.
- Orfánus T., Stojkovová D., Rajkai K., Czachor H. & Sándor R. 2016. Spatial patterns of wetting characteristics in grassland sandy soil. J. Hydrol. Hydromech. 64: 167–175.
- Orfánus T., Bedrna Z., Lichner L., Hallet P.D., Kňava K. & Sebiň M. 2008. Spatial variability of water repellency in pine forest soil. Soil Water Res. 3: 123–129.
- Orfánus T., Dlapa P., Fodor N., Raikai K., Sandor R. & Novakova K. 2014. How severe and subcritical water repellency determines the seasonal infiltration in natural and cultivated sandy soils. Soil Till. Res. **125**: 49–59.
- Pagliai M. & Vignozzi N. 2002. The pore system as an indicator of soil quality. In: Pagliai M. & Jones R. (eds), Sustainable Land Management – Environmental Protection – A Soil Physical Approach. Advances in Geology **35**: 71–82.
- Reynolds W.D. & Elrick D. E. 1991. Determination of hydraulic conductivity using a pension infiltrometer. Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J. 55: 633–639.
- Reynolds W.D., Elrick D.E., Youngs E.G., Amoozegar A., Booltink H.W.G. & Bouma J. 2002. Saturated and fieldsaturated water flow parameters, pp. 797–878. In: Dane J. & Topp C. (eds), Methods of Soil Analysis. Part 4: Physical Methods. Soil Science Society of America, Inc., Madison, USA.
- Sándor R., Lichner L., Filep T., Balog K., Lehoczky É. & Fodor N. 2015. Spatial variability of hydrophysical properties of fallow sandy soils. Biologia 70: 1468–1473.
- Schwartz R.C., Steven R.E. & Unger P.W. 2003. Soil hydraulic properties of cropland compared with reestablished and native grassland. Geoderma **116**: 47–60.

- Schwen A., Bodner G., Scholl P., Buchan G.D. & Loiskandl W. 2011. Temporal dynamics of soil hydraulic properties and the water-conducting porosity under different tillage. Soil Till. Res. 113: 89–98.
- Skukla M.K., Lal R., Owens L.B. & Urikefer P. 2003. Land use and management impact on structure and infiltration characteristics of soils in the North Appalachian region of Ohio. Soil Sci. 168: 167–177.
- Šimůnek, J. van Genuchten M. Th. & Šejna M. 2008. Development and applications of the HYDRUS and STANMOD software packages, and related codes. Vadose Zone J. 7 (2): 587–600.
- Skjemstad J. & Baldock J.A. 2008. Total and organic carbon, pp. 225–238. In: Carter M. (ed.), Soil Sampling and Methods of Analysis, (2nd Edition), Soil Science Society of Canada, CRC Press, Boca Raton, FL, USA.
- Soilmoisture Equipment Corp. 2008. Model 2800K1 Guelph Permeameter Operating Instructions. Soilmoisture Equipment Corp., Santa Barbara, CA.
- Stoops G. 2003. Guidelines for Analysis and Description of Soils and Regolith Thin Sections. Soil Science Society of America, Inc. Madison, Wisconsin, USA, 184 pp.
- Watson K.W. & Luxmoore R.J. 1986. Estimating macroporosity in a forest watershed by use of a tension infiltrometer. Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J. 50: 578–582.
- Wooding R.A. 1968. Steady infiltration from a shallow circular pond. Water Resour. Res. 4: 1259–1273.
- Zádorová T., Jakšík O., Kodešová R. & Penížek V. 2011. Influence of terrain attributes and soil properties on soil aggregate stability. Soil Water Res. 6: 111–119.
- Zhang Z.F., Groenevelt P.H. & Parkin G.W. 1998. The well-shape factor for the measurement of soil hydraulic properties using the Guelph permeameter. Soil Till. Res. **49**: 219–221.
- Zhang R. 1997. Determination of soil sorptivity and hydraulic conductivity from the disk infiltrometer. Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J. 61: 1024–1030.
- Žigová A., Šťastný M. & Kodešová R. 2013. Development of soils on paragneis and granite in the southearn part of Bohemia. Acta Geodyn. Geomater. 10: 85–95.

Received June 6, 2016 Accepted July 20, 2016