



The Abdus Salam
**International Centre
for Theoretical Physics**



2444-17

College on Soil Physics – 30th Anniversary (1983–2013)

25 February – 1 March, 2013

Soil water storage as related to water balances

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Soil water storage as related to water balances

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Soil water storage (S , mm) is the quantification of the amount of water present in the soil reservoir, at any time t . Soil water at time t might be moving in any direction or be at equilibrium. On several instances soil water movement is relatively slow and in such situation we will calculate S . It is the main component of water balances, that are the contabilization of the in and out water flows of an elemental soil volume (Figure 1).

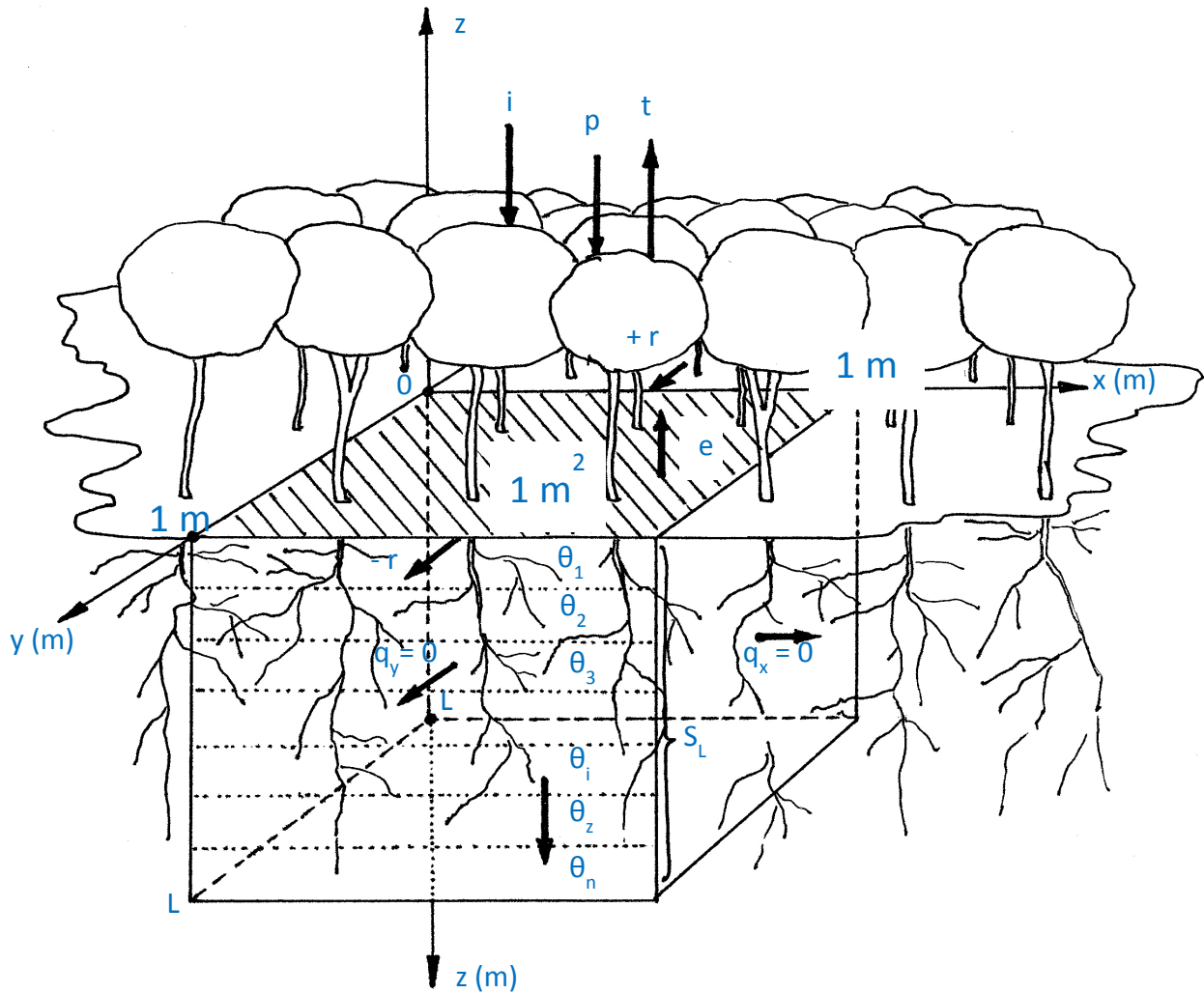


Figure 1. Schematic view of the volume element and of the fluxes that compose the water balance.

Figure 1 depicts a soil volume of surface area 1 m^2 and depth $L \text{ m}$. This area is representative of a crop, and its size is related to the unit mm of water, which corresponds to 1 L m^{-2} . The depth L is the crop rooting depth. This volume contains solid material (soil particles) and pores, each occupying about 50% of the total volume, depending on soil type and compaction. The pore volume is occupied by water and air, and the volume of water per unit soil volume is called volumetric soil water content ($\Theta, \text{ m}^3 \text{ m}^{-3}$), also shown in Figure 1). We here consider that Θ does not vary horizontally, only along the vertical coordinate (depth) $z, \text{ m}$.

In our previous presentation we saw the WB equation in three equivalent forms

$$p + i - et \pm r \pm q_L = \frac{\partial S}{\partial t} \quad (1)$$

$$\int_t^t (p + i - et \pm r \pm q_L) dt = \int_0^L \int_t^t \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial t} dz dt \quad (2)$$

$$P + I - ETa \pm R \pm Q_L = \Delta S = S(t_f) - S(t_i) \quad (3)$$

And they all indicate that S or ΔS is the result of the contabilization of all in- and out fluxes in the elementary soil volume depicted in Fig. 1.

So, for S calculation, Θ is measured in depth, at chosen intervals. There are several methods for the field measurement of Θ . Classical methods extract samples to be taken to the oven for further calculation of Θ , which are therefore destructive methods, i.e., they are invasive, destroying soil structure and not allowing the measurement of Θ at the same positions along time. This is a strong shortcoming because Θ varies in time, and so does S . More recent methods are almost non destructive, they are neutron probes, gamma or X ray attenuation instruments, TDR and TD? Other methods are called indirect because they estimate Θ from soil water potential measurements made with tensiometers, and the soil water retention curve.

Once having measured Θ at several depths of interest, The concept of S is used the transform $\text{m}^3 \text{ m}^{-3}$ into mm of water and is represented by the integral below:

$$S = \int_0^L \theta(z) dz \quad (4)$$

We take as an example five Θ measurements taken for the soil layers 0-0.2; 0.2-0.4; 0.4-0.6; 0.6-0.8 and 0.8-1.0 m, as shown in Figure 2, below:

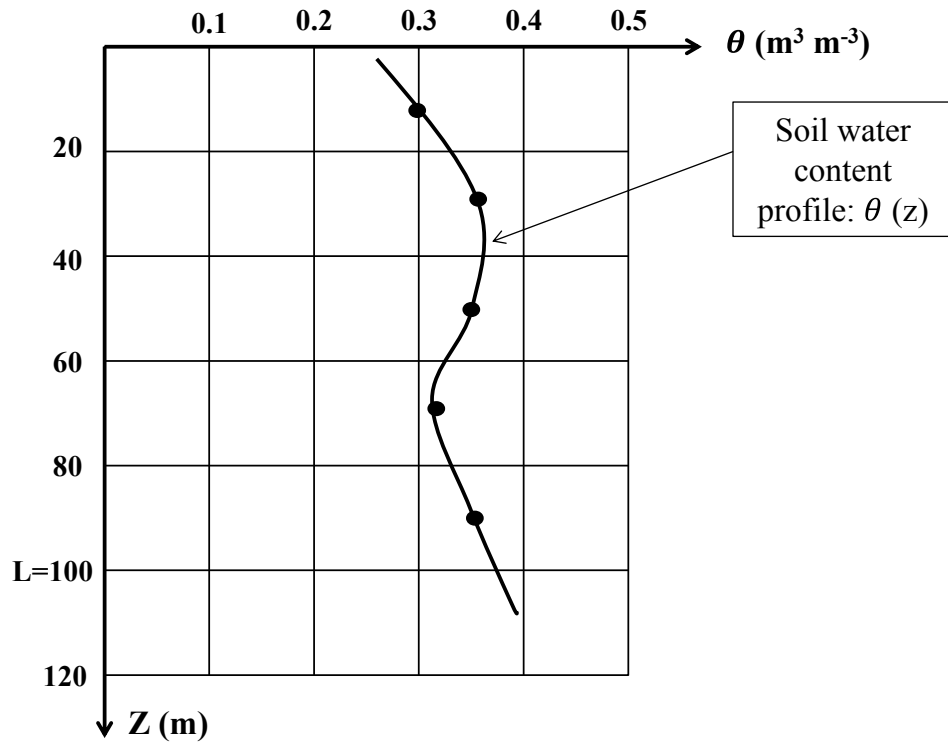


Figure 2. An example of a soil water content profile.

Because in most cases we do not have the function $\Theta(z)$, the integral of equation 4 has to be solved numerically:

$$\begin{aligned}
 S &= \sum_{i=1}^5 \theta_i \Delta_z = \theta_1 \Delta_z + \theta_2 \Delta_z + \dots + \theta_5 \Delta_z \\
 &= (\theta_1 + \theta_2 + \dots + \theta_5) \Delta_z \\
 &= \left[\frac{(\theta_1 + \theta_2 + \dots + \theta_5)}{5} \right] = 5 \Delta_z \\
 &= \bar{\theta} * L
 \end{aligned}$$

Which means that S is equal to the average of Θ multiplied by the layer L over which the average $\bar{\theta}$ was taken. Since Θ is dimensionless, if we express L in mm, S will also be obtained in

mm. for the case of Fig. 2, we have:

$$\begin{aligned}
 S &= (0.3 + 0.35 + 0.37 + 0.31 + 0.34) 200 \\
 &= 0.344 \text{ m}^3 \text{ m}^{-3} \times 1000 \text{ mm} \\
 &= 344 \text{ mm}
 \end{aligned}$$

Such S values are soil water storages at fixed times. However, as already mentioned, S varies in time due to in- and out flows of water in the elemental volume. Processes like infiltration and internal drainage can present very fast changes in S , so that measurements of Θ become difficult in order to apply equation 4. In Fig 3 we give an example of horizontal infiltration of water into a dry homogeneous soil:

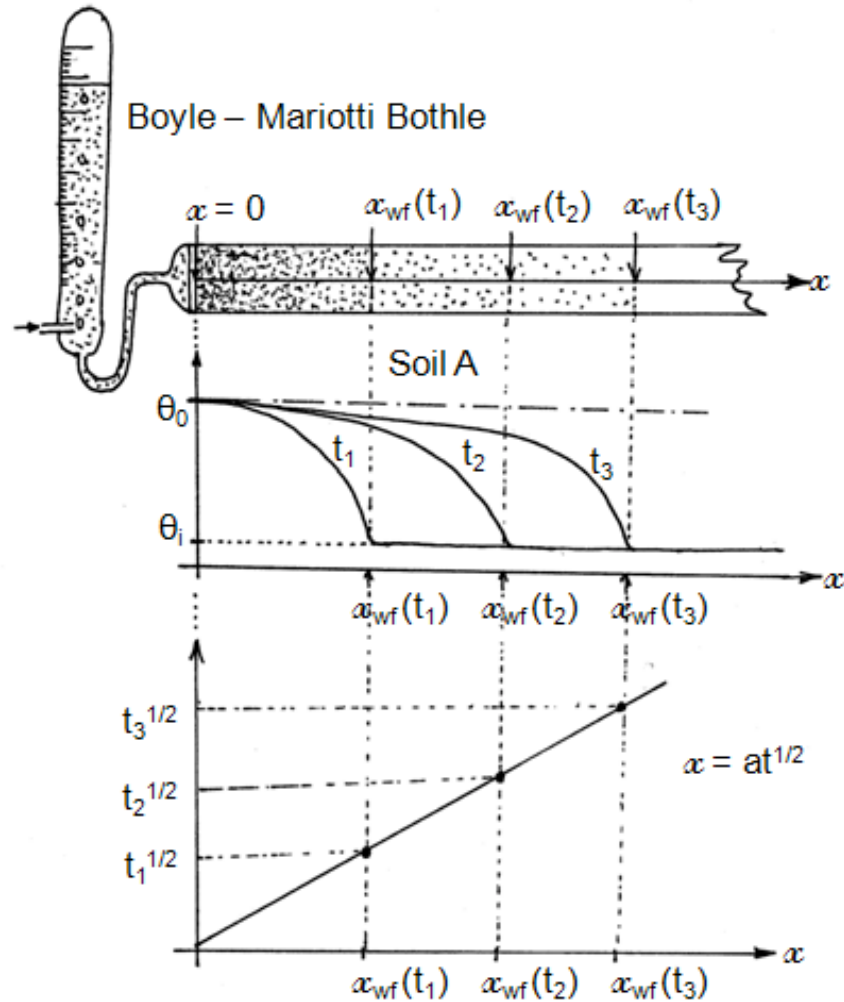


Figure 3. Experimental arrangement to study the horizontal infiltration using transparent acrylic columns for an initially dry soil and the advancement of wetting front as a function of the square root of time.

Note that for each time t_1 , t_2 , or t_3 , the areas between the water contents Θ_i and Θ_0 , and the Θ profile are equal to the integral of equation 4, and therefore the storages S_1 , S_2 and S_3 for the respective times. They also represent the cumulative infiltrations I of water into the soil.

In such cases, because water moves relatively fast, measurements of Θ by gamma of X ray attenuation, or by soil tomography, are excellent choices.

In several field water movement studies water moves relatively slow, and daily measurements can be sufficient. One good example of such processes is the internal drainage of a

soil profile, during a hydraulic conductivity $K(\Theta)$ measurement experiment, when soil surface is covered by a plastic sheet (Figure 4):

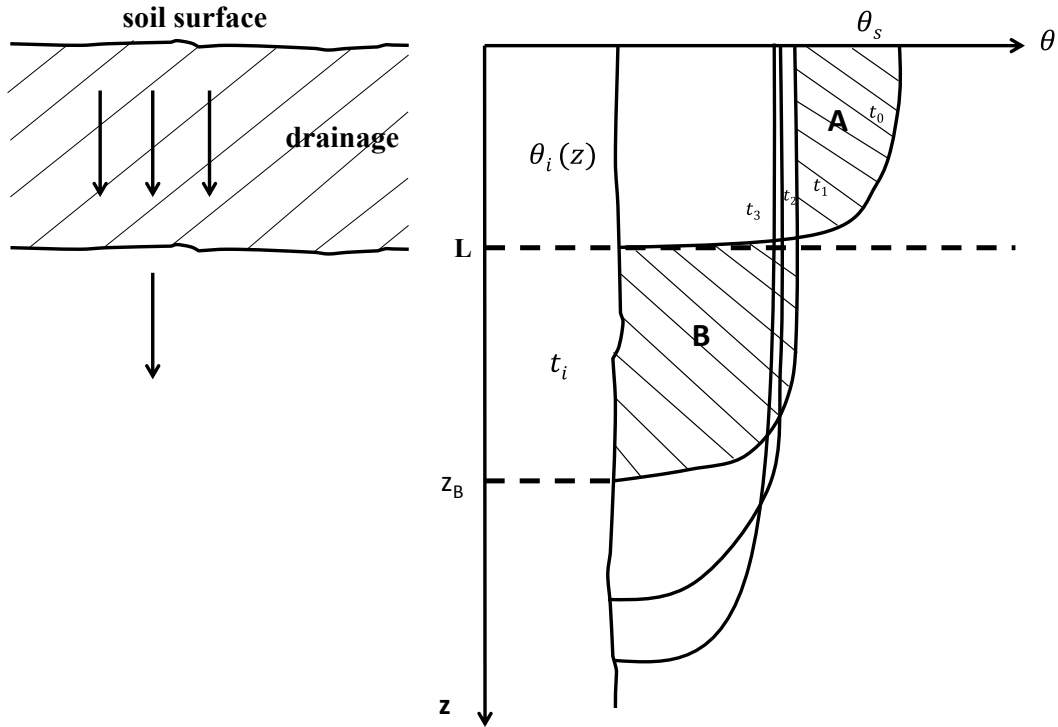


Figure 4. Soil water content profiles during an internal drainage experiment to calculate soil hydraulic conductivity of layer L.

Note that in Fig. 4 the area A represents ΔS of the soil layer 0 – L m, between times t_0 and t_1 , which is equivalent to area B (also between times t_0 and t_1) because the soil surface was covered with a plastic sheet so that eventual rainfall or irrigation could not contribute to changes in S, and also no evaporation was possible at soil surface:

$$A = \Delta S_L = S_L(t_0) - S_L(t_1) = \int_0^L \theta(t_0) dz - \int_0^L \theta(t_1) dz$$

$$B = \Delta S_{(z_b-L)} = \int_L^{z_b} \theta(t_1) dz - \int_L^{z_b} \theta(t_0) dz$$

Such Θ measurements are conveniently made with neutron or TDR probes. For the experiment to be discussed below, the following equation was used to estimate S with neutron probe data:

$$S_j(i) = \left[1.5\theta_{i,j}(1) + \theta_{i,j}(2) + \theta_{i,j}(3) + \theta_{i,j}(4) + 0.5\theta_{i,j}(5) \right] \frac{1000}{5} \quad (5)$$

with $\Delta z = 0.2\text{m}$. Soil water contents $\theta_{i,j}(1)$ measured at the depth 0.2m ($k = 1$) were considered to cover a layer of $1.5\Delta z = 0.3\text{m}$ which includes soil surface. The first measurement made at the depth of 0.2 m was evaluated to be deep enough not to lose slow neutrons to the atmosphere. $\theta_{i,j}(5)$ measured at 1.0m ($k = 5$) covered $0.5\Delta z = 0.1\text{m}$ since the lower level of the control volume for water balances was set at 1.0 m , and the total depth L was taken as $1,000\text{mm}$ to obtain data in mm.

In the case of field water balances, the time spell $t_f - t_i$ between two consecutive S measurements is of the order of days, weeks or months, as shown in equation (3). Table 1 shows S data collected in a coffee crop every 14 days, with neutron a neutron probe. They were used to establish WBs with the aim of studying the effects of soil spatial variability on these WBs.

Table 1. Soil water storage $S_L(t_i)$, standard deviations $s(S_L)$, and coefficients of variation (CV) of each period analyzed.

Balance	Period	DAB	S_L							
			1	2	3	4	5	$\overline{S_L}$	$s(S_L)$	CV
1	01/09 to 15/09	0_14	250.2	260.8	203.4	254.6	257.2	245.2	23.7	9.7
2	15/09 to 29/09	14_28	261.0	271.1	221.0	265.6	268.3	257.4	20.7	8.0
3	29/09 to 13/10	28_42	255.9	265.6	213.1	259.3	262.4	251.3	21.6	8.6
4	13/10 to 27/10	42_56	272.3	284.5	242.8	303.0	286.9	277.9	22.5	8.1
5	27/10 to 10/11	56_70	269.9	280.3	232.8	292.2	279.9	271.0	22.8	8.4
6	10/11 to 24/11	70_84	263.2	276.0	221.5	278.7	276.8	263.3	24.1	9.2
7	24/11 to 08/12	84_98	273.0	287.4	238.7	296.3	282.5	275.6	22.3	8.1
8	08/12 to 22/12	98_112	286.3	306.7	262.3	317.2	293.1	293.1	21.0	7.2
9	22/12 to 05/01	112_126	277.9	299.8	249.8	309.2	288.0	284.9	22.9	8.0
10	05/01 to 19/01	126_140	288.3	312.9	271.4	336.9	299.9	301.9	24.8	8.2
11	19/01 to 02/02	140_154	288.0	311.4	270.2	328.0	303.2	300.2	22.1	7.4
12	02/02 to 16/02	154_168	380.0	380.2	324.5	384.3	380.6	369.9	25.5	6.9
13	16/02 to 01/03	168_182	352.1	354.8	302.6	359.5	350.8	344.0	23.3	6.8
14	01/03 to 15/03	182_196	375.4	382.3	317.4	375.2	375.3	365.1	26.9	7.4
15	15/03 to 29/03	196_210	356.2	364.1	305.4	359.2	357.7	348.5	24.3	7.0
16	29/03 to 12/04	210_224	310.5	314.4	258.0	311.5	306.0	300.1	23.7	7.9
17	12/04 to 26/04	224_238	304.5	317.2	261.9	315.4	305.2	300.8	22.5	7.5
18	26/04 to 10/05	238_252	305.0	313.3	261.0	318.2	309.2	301.3	23.1	7.7
19	10/05 to 24/05	252_266	301.0	306.4	253.0	308.7	305.4	294.9	23.6	8.0
20	24/05 to 07/06	266_280	300.2	304.8	254.3	306.1	308.8	294.8	22.9	7.8
21	07/06 to 21/06	280_294	360.1	359.9	312.8	356.2	354.3	348.7	20.2	5.8
22	21/06 to 05/07	294_308	348.4	348.7	293.3	342.0	348.7	336.2	24.2	7.2
23	05/07 to 19/07	308_322	327.7	327.7	274.8	321.6	329.2	316.2	23.3	7.4
24	19/07 to 02/08	322_336	350.7	345.4	306.0	353.7	355.3	342.2	20.6	6.0
25	02/08 to 16/08	336_350	341.4	334.6	290.7	337.9	341.7	329.3	21.7	6.6
26	16/08 to 30/08	350_364	334.1	324.3	280.4	322.9	327.4	317.8	21.4	6.7

The daily variation between the five measurements represent the spatial variability of the field, and the 14 day changes represent the time variability due to all WB components, mainly rainfall and evapotranspiration.

SOIL WATER STORAGE CHANGES MEASURED IN A SOYBEAN CROP IN PIRACICABA, BRAZIL

A soybean (*Glycine max* (L.) Merrill) crop was established on a Oxisol in Piracicaba, Brazil, and for management purposes the soil water storage S was monitored during the whole cycle. The novelty of the experiment was the continuous measurement of the soil water matric potential h (m) using polymer tensiometers. Readings of h were then transformed into Θ through the use of a soil water retention curve, to further calculate water storages.

These tensiometers were developed by Bakker et al. (2007) at the University of Wageningen, Holland, with the objective of eliminating the tensiometry problems found with porous cup tensiometers filled with water. These new tensiometers are basically composed by a massive ceramic disc, an innox steel cover containing a polymer of high expansion capacity when absorbing water, and reversibly a high retraction capacity when losing water. Pressure changes are measured inside the small probe with a pressure transducer, which also has a temperature sensor (Figures 1 and 1a). Sensors are linked to a datalogger that records data every 15 minutes. More details can be found in Bakker et al. (2007). These tensiometers measure h in the interval 0 to -200 m of water (-20 atm or 2 MPa, well below the permanent wilting point (PWP)), while the traditional tensiometers reach only about -0.085 MPa (Durigon et al., 2011 and Durigon & De Jong Van Lier, 2011).



Figure 1. Polymer tensiometer. Source: Durigon; de Jong Van Lier (2011).

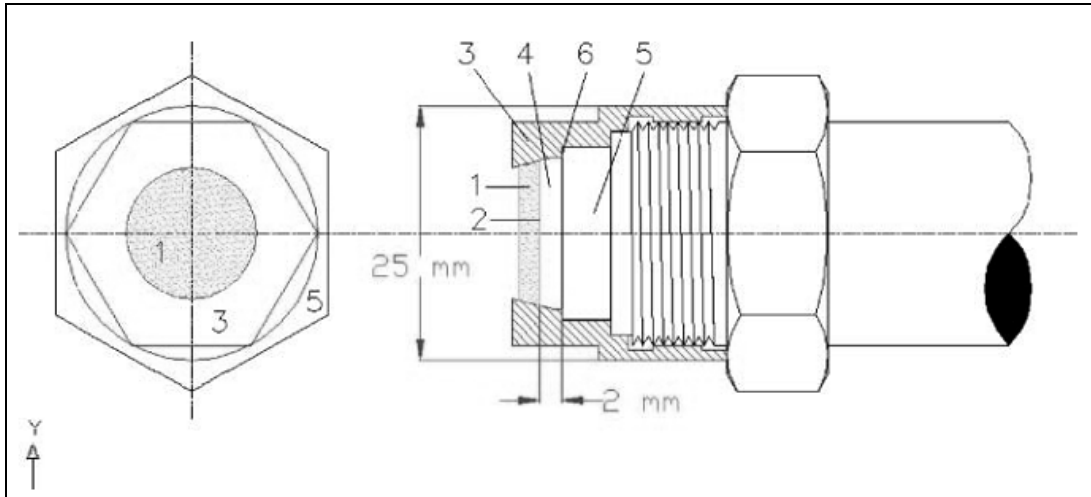


Figure 1a – Details of the polymer tensiometer showing the ceramic disc of α -Al₂O₃ (1), a membrane of γ -Al₂O₃ (2), inox steel capsule (3), polymer chamber (4), pressure transducer (5), and a synthetic ring (6) . Source: Bakker et al. (2007).

For this soil, MORAES (1991) presents an average soil water retention curve (SWRC), that was obtained from 250 locations of a 3 ha field and adjusted to the van Genuchten (1980) model, with the empirical coefficients α , m and n , the saturated soil water content θ_s and the residual water content θ_r .

A view of the initial stage of the soybean crop can be seen in Figure 2, and climatologic data of the experimental period in Figures 3 and 4, below:



Figure 2. View of the soybean crop at initial growth stage. Piracicaba, 2012.

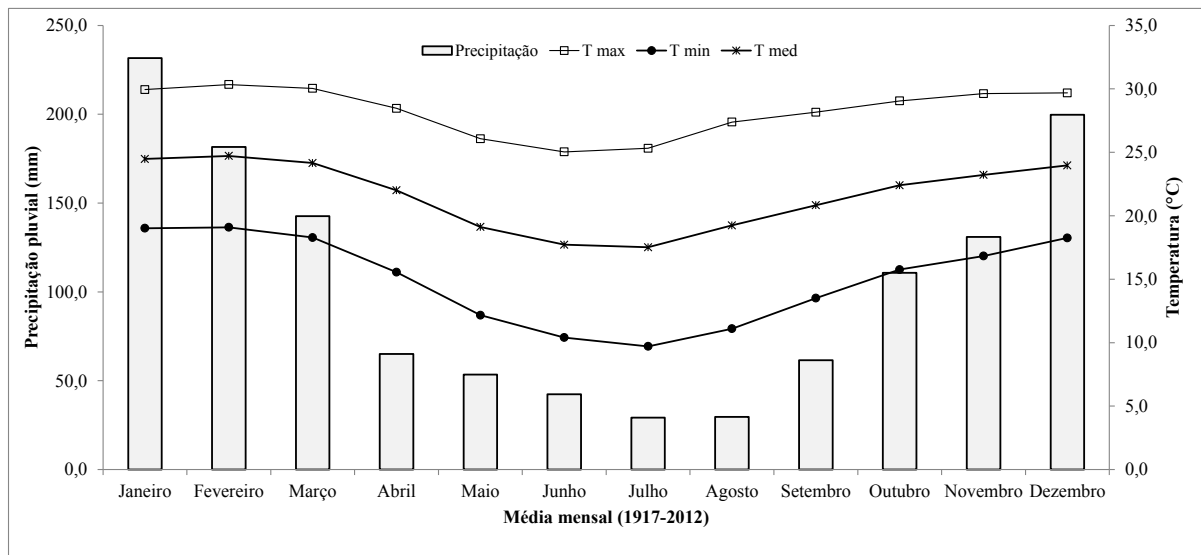


Figure 3. Average values of rainfall P and air temperatures (Tmax, Tmin and Tave) for Piracicaba, covering the period 1917 to 2012.

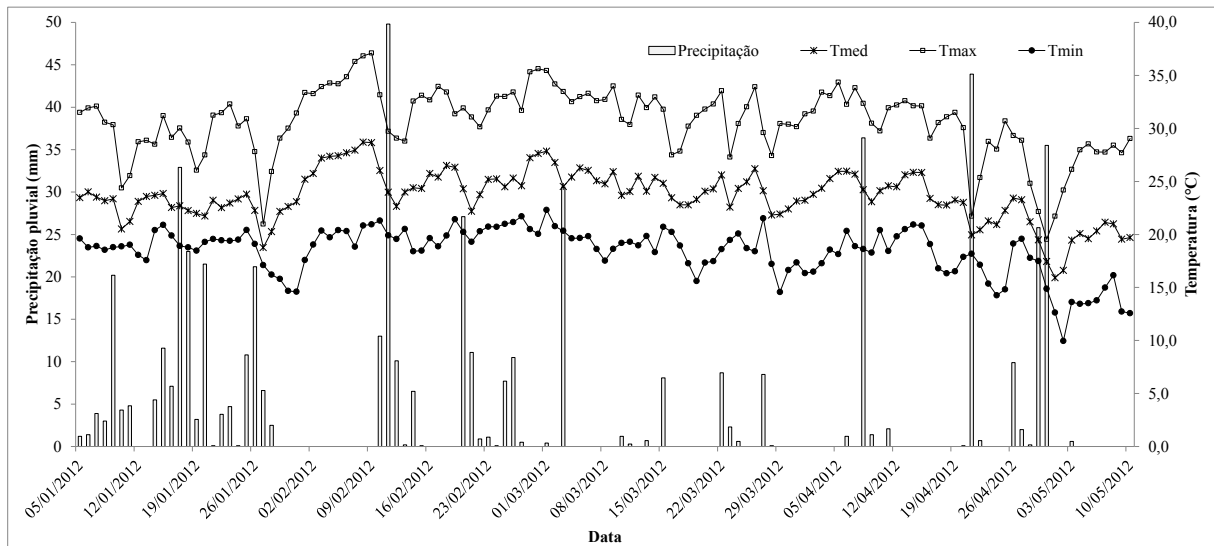


Figure 4. Actual rainfall P and air temperature data for the experimental period: 05 January to 10 May, 2012.

Polymer tensiometers were installed in the field on 09 January 2012, at two observation points within the experimental area, at three depths: 0.05 m; 0.15 m and 0.3 m to represent the soil profile layers: 0-0.1 m, 0.1-0.2 m and 0.2-0.4 m, respectively.

As mentioned above, soil water contents θ ($\text{m}^3 \text{m}^{-3}$) for each of the three soil layers were calculated by van Genuchten's (1980) model:

$$\theta = \theta_r + \frac{(\theta_s - \theta_r)}{[1 + (\alpha h)^n]^m} \quad (1)$$

With the parameters θ_s , θ_r , α , m and n . Figure 5 shows the experimental points and the model for this particular Oxisol, obtained with the values θ_s and θ_r of 0.468 and 0.296, e of α , m and n of 0.024220, 0.330056 and 1.580702, respectively.

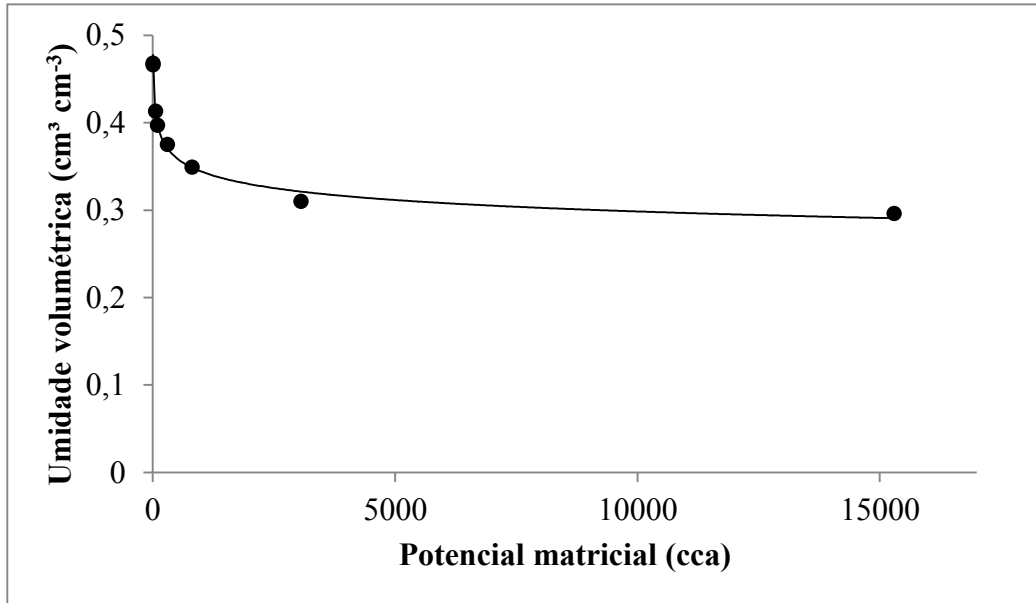


Figure 5 – Average soil water retention curve obtained with 250 points. Source: Moraes (1991).

Another way to look at soil water storage, is using the available water (AW) concept. This concept assumes that the available water to plants lies between a maximum θ value, called θ_{FC} fc, and a minimum θ_{PWP} . The water between θ_s and θ_{FC} is considered to be subject to gravitational drainage, not being available to plants. The water below θ_{PWP} is considered to be at such low matric potentials the plants cannot make use of it. With these concepts, we can define the water holding capacity of a soil (AWC) as $[\theta_{FC} - \theta_{PWP}]$, and soil water storages S can also be defined as:

$$S = (\bar{\theta} - \theta_{PWP}) * Z_e \quad (2)$$

Where Z_e is the rooting depth, considered in this soybean experiment as 0.4 m or 400 mm. Equation (4) was applied layer per layer to obtain the final value of S.

During the cropping cycle the crop receives water from rainfall P or irrigation I, and every time the soil reaches the AWC, the excess of water is drained below root zone or is lost at the surface as runoff. Within the AWC range, water is either evaporated at the soil surface or transpired by plants, resulting the evapotranspiration ET. Water is not equally available in the whole range of the AWC, water extraction becomes more and more difficult as the PWP is reached. This

is due to drastic decreases in soil hydraulic conductivity as the soil dries out. There are several models that try to describe the process of water extraction from the soil by plants, and in the previous lecture we mentioned three commonly used models: Thornthwaite & Mather; Rijtema & Aboukhaled; and Dourado & van Lier. For the first, the decrease in S follows the model:

$$S_i = AWC e^{-\frac{\theta}{(\theta_{FC} - \theta_{PWP})}} \quad (3)$$

Rijtema and Aboukhaled (1975) take into consideration a water availability factor p for the estimation of S, which decreases as:

$$S_i = (1 - p)AWC \exp\left(\frac{p - \frac{\theta}{(\theta_{FC} - \theta_{PWP})}}{(1 - p)}\right) \quad (4)$$

Dourado and van Lier (1993) assume a cossenoidal rate of ET decrease, and S decreases as:

$$S_i = (1 - p)AWC \left\{ 1 - \frac{2}{\pi} \arctg \left[\frac{\pi}{2} \left(\frac{\left(\frac{\theta}{(\theta_{FC} - \theta_{PWP})} \right)^{-p}}{1 - p} \right) \right] \right\} \quad (5)$$

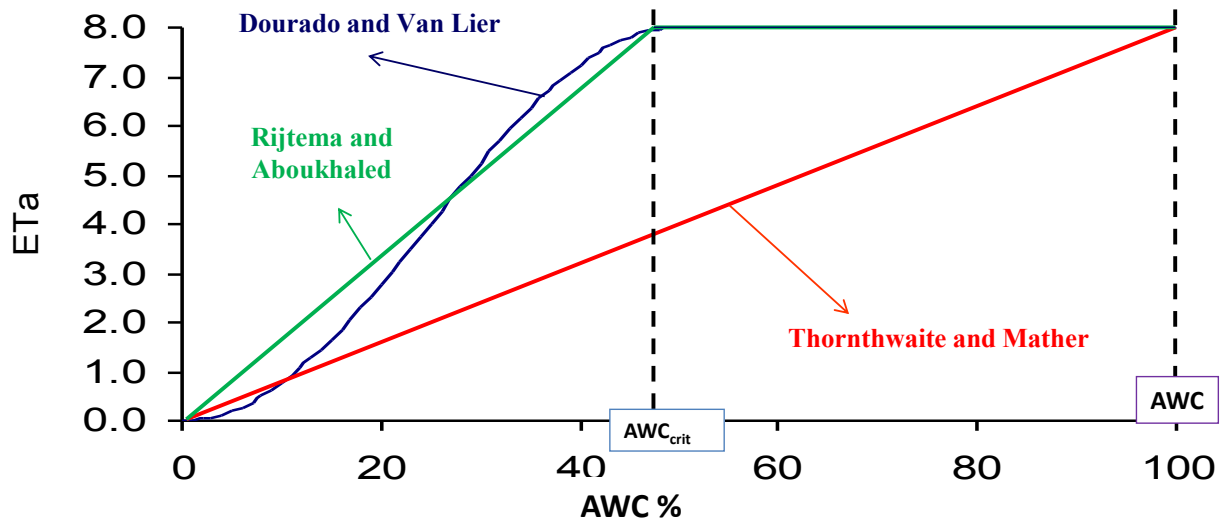


Figure 6. Rate of soil water loss (ETa, mm/period of time) as a function of storage (AWC, mm) for the methods of Thornthwaite and Mather, Rijtema and Aboukhaled and Dourado and Van Lier.

Crop yield is severely reduced by water shortage. Therefore, the concept of water depleted yield Y_r was defined by Doorenbos e Kassam (1994):

$$Y_r = \left[1 - ky \left(1 - \frac{ET_r}{ETC} \right) \right] * Y_o \quad (6)$$

ky being a crop water stress sensitivity factor, that changes as the crop develops; ET_r the actual evapotranspiration; and ETC the maximum evapotranspiration of the crop, and:

$$Y_o = Fb * C_{IAF} * C_{RESP} * C_{COL} * C_U * NDC \quad (7)$$

Fb is the Gross photosynthesis; C_{IAF} a correction factor related to growth phase and leaf area; C_{RESP} a correction factor related to plant respiration; C_{COL} a correction for the harvest index; C_U a correction the water content of the harvested matter, and NDC the length of the growth period, all proposed by Pereira; Angelocci; Sentelhas (2002).

The following Figures present the experimental data related to the above described considerations.