

# 1 Interpretation of soil quality indicators for land suitability assessment – A multivariate approach 2 for Central European arable soils

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14

## 15 Abstract

16 Soils and their functions are critical to ensure the provision of various ecosystem services. Many  
17 authors nevertheless argue that there are a lack of satisfactory operational methods for quantifying  
18 the contributions of soils to the supply of ecosystem services. Therefore, it is difficult to automate  
19 and standardize the mathematical and statistical methods for the selection of indicators and their  
20 scoring. Our objective is the development of a novel soil quality and ecological indicator selection  
21 and scoring method based on a database representing the most common Hungarian soils typical for  
22 arable lands of Central Europe (Chernozems, Phaeozems, Luvisols, Cambisols, Gleysols, Solonetz,  
23 Arenosols). For evaluation purposes, soil texture, depth to groundwater table, soil organic matter  
24 (SOM), pH, calcium carbonate equivalent (CCE), electrical conductivity (EC), Na, available N, P, K, Mg,  
25 S, Cu, Zn and Mn of 1045 plots representing a total land area of about 5,000 hectares at 0-30 cm  
26 layer were analyzed. We classified the samples into 25 soil types. Using correlation, principal  
27 component analysis and discriminant analysis the direction and strength of the intercorrelation of  
28 indicators and their combinations were determined. Indicators were classified into the following  
29 categories: (1) indicators that characterize nutrient retention and cation exchange capacity: texture,  
30 SOM, EC and Na; (2) available nutrients, relatively independent from management practices: K, Mg,  
31 Cu; (3) indicators that determine base saturation: pH, CCE, available Mn; (4) highly variable available  
32 nutrients: N, S, P, Zn. By reviewing the results of Hungarian long-term experiments, we interpreted  
33 the soil indicators as a function of agricultural suitability. Following the parameterized and non-linear  
34 interpretation of the indicators, we analysed the variance of soils, in terms of their agricultural land  
35 suitability. According to the intercorrelation of input indicators and variance of scored indicators the  
36 minimum data set for soil quality assessment includes texture, depth of groundwater table, SOM, pH,  
37 Na, available K, P and Zn. In order to further advance our soil quality assessment model, our  
38 following goals target the determination the hierarchical ranking and grouping of soil parameters in a  
39 combined manner.

40 **Keywords:** indicator scoring functions, principal component analysis, soil quality index, available  
41 nutrients, soil moisture regime

42

## 43 1. Introduction

44 To prevent and mitigate soil degradation processes, spatial and temporal heterogeneity pedological  
45 data with readily measurable indicators, are essential for appropriate soil management strategies.  
46 Soil quality refers to the capacity of soils to function and sustain plant and animal life within natural  
47 and managed environments (Karlen et al., 1997). Soil quality cannot be directly obtained but rather  
48 inferred by measuring the appropriate soil physical, chemical and biological indicators (de Paul  
49 Odabe and Lal, 2016).

50 Soil Quality Indices (SQIs) synthesize soil attributes into a format that enhances the understanding of  
51 soil processes and promotes appropriate management. The Soil Management Assessment  
52 Framework (SMAF) is an example of an SQI that operates in three steps (Andrews et al., 2004): (1)  
53 indicator selection; (2) interpretation of the selected indicators (scoring); and (3) aggregation of  
54 indicators in an index through weighted additive technique. Site-specific adaptations of these SQI are  
55 the most commonly used approaches today to evaluate impacts of agricultural practices, cropping  
56 systems (Armenise et al., 2013; Li et al., 2013; Ivezić et al., 2015; Raiesi and Kabiri, 2016; Biswas et al.,  
57 2017), land use change and land degradation (Masto et al., 2016; Raiesi, 2017). During a land  
58 suitability assessment (Kurtener and Badenko, 2000; Baja et al., 2007), the most important task is the  
59 evaluation of the productivity function of soils and the impact of soil properties on yield. However,  
60 this is complicated as soil properties, in various combination and to a different degree, influence crop  
61 yields and determine soil functions in a mixed manner.

62 Among the available soil quality indicators selection methods, Total Data Set (TDS) and Minimum  
63 Data Set (MDS) have been commonly used (Ghaemi et al., 2014; Rojas et al., 2016). In the MDS  
64 indicators are selected based on expert opinion or multivariate statistical analyses, most commonly  
65 through principal component analysis (PCA) (Andrews et al., 2004).

66 The second step is normalizing the MDS indicators by different numerical scales (usually between 0  
67 and 1) using linear and non-linear scoring functions. The mathematical basis of this scheme is  
68 provided by the Fuzzy logic (Zhang et al., 2004; Busscher et al., 2007). This method is a clustering  
69 approach in which the true values of variables (membership) may be any real number between 0 and  
70 1, where, in our case, 0 completely fails to fulfil, while 1 completely fulfils the demands of land use.  
71 Globally, the most commonly accepted linear and non-linear functions and integrating method of  
72 scaled indicators with a weighted additive manner provided by the SMAF (Andrews et al., 2004). In  
73 some cases, the selection, the linear interpretation, and determination of scoring thresholds of the  
74 indicators are based on linear correlation between the indicators and yield (Thuithaisong et al., 2011;  
75 de Paul Obade and Lal, 2016; Biswas et al., 2017).

76 The need for the standardization of indices is a vital issue (de Paul Obade and Lal, 2016). We believe  
77 that the automation of the statistical selection of MDS is insufficient as the impact of selected soil  
78 parameters for the ecological functions is usually non-linear. Evidently, the functions of soils and soil  
79 quality are manifested under given conditions (climatic, hydrologic and topographic), and can only be  
80 interpreted according to land use type or the specific necessities of the plant grown in a specific soil.  
81 When selecting indicators soil quality indexes should be meet the needs of a variety of soil types  
82 even in relatively small areas (Juhos et al., 2015).

83 There is a limited number of Central European SQI references available (Ivezic et al., 2015; Teodor et  
84 al., 2018). In Hungary, soil quality indices based on simple indicators, are not in use for land  
85 evaluation (Makó et al., 2007; Debreczeniné et al., 2003; Tóth et al., 2007a). The adaptation of soil  
86 quality indices to different environmental conditions is influenced by the employed soil analytical  
87 methods. In our opinion, the development of soil quality indices, especially for land suitability

88 assessment, under the temperate climate of Central Europe requires a more complex multivariate  
89 approach.

90 Our objective, therefore, is the development of a novel soil quality assessment method based on a  
91 database representing some Central European cultivated soil types and Hungarian soil analytical  
92 methods. We intend to elaborate a multivariate soil evaluation method, which expresses the rate,  
93 quality and combination of the limiting factors on soil productivity. Our specific goals in this study  
94 included (1) the multivariate assessment of indicators determined according to the existing  
95 Hungarian standards (2) the determination of the direction and strength of their intercorrelation and  
96 (3) the comprehensive evaluation of the indicators by mathematical modelling and according to the  
97 scored indicators by soil types identification of limiting factors for plant growth. These goals were  
98 achieved by reviewing the results of Hungarian long-term experiments, the complex and mutual  
99 interpretation of the indicators by mathematical modelling as a function of agricultural land  
100 suitability.

101

## 102 **2. Materials and methods**

### 103 *2.1. Site description*

104 The employed soil database, representative of Hungary's farmlands, was compiled from the  
105 laboratory analyses of 1045 soil samples collected from a total land area of about 5,000 hectares.  
106 Each soil sample represents a homogeneous land parcel of maximum of 5 hectares. In all cases,  
107 samples were taken from a depth of 0 to 30 cm. The geographical location of the sampling sites is  
108 shown in *Figure 1*. The soil types of the research sites and their qualifiers are shown in *Table 1*  
109 according to the World Reference Base (WRB) (FAO, 2014) classification. The climate of the studied  
110 sites is characterized by cool winters and hot, dry, drought-prone summers, with a mean annual  
111 precipitation of 580 mm and mean annual temperature of 10.5°C (Fábián and Matyasovszky, 2010).  
112 Each of the experimental sites is uniformly cultivated by conventional tillage techniques. The  
113 following crops have been grown in a crop rotation: winter wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L.) and maize  
114 (*Zea mays* L.), and occasionally alfalfa (*Medicago sativa* L.), sunflower (*Helianthus annuus* L.) and  
115 rape (*Brassica napus* L.).

### 116 *2.2. Soil analyses*

117 The total analysed soil data set is composed of parameters determined according to the responsible  
118 authorities. Soil pH was determined at a soil/1 M KCl solution ratio of 1:2.5 and electrical  
119 conductivity (EC) was measured in a 1:5 soil/water mixture potentiometrically (MSZ-08-0206-  
120 2:1978). Determination of the calcium carbonate equivalent (CCE) was conducted using the  
121 volumetric method (MSZ-08-0206-2:1978). Soil organic matter (SOM) was measured by the Tyurin  
122 method (Kononova, 1966). Available nutrient contents were determined with acidic (pH 3.75)  
123 ammonium lactate extraction (Egnér et al., 1960) for phosphorus (P) and potassium (K), in 1 M KCl  
124 extraction for nitrogen (N), magnesium (Mg) and sulfur (S), in nKCl + EDTA extraction (MSZ  
125 20135:1999) for zinc (Zn), copper (Cu) and manganese (Mn). The determination of soluble and  
126 exchangeable sodium (Na) was based on extraction with acid ammonium lactate (Egnér et al., 1960).  
127 Soil texture was characterized using a plasticity test by the water volume (cm<sup>3</sup>) for consistency  
128 change to fluid for 100 g of soil (MSZ-08-0205:1978). This water volume highly correlates with the  
129 clay content and the exchangeable Na, and it well characterizes the water retention capacity of soils  
130 (Várallyay, 2008). We also monitored the mean annual groundwater table depths for Solonetz soils  
131 and Gleysols at multiple sites.

132 *2.3. Statistical analyses*

133 The paired relation between the variables was examined by the Pearson correlation coefficient ( $r$ ). To  
134 determine intercorrelation among the indicators, we also performed a Principal Component Analysis  
135 (PCA) based on the standardized database. For standardization, we used the formulae  $\log(x+1)$  in  
136 order to enhance normality and linearity and to reduce the effect of outliers. The suitability of the  
137 sampling (selected variables) was determined with Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett tests. Only  
138 principal components (PCs) with eigenvalue  $> 1.0$  were analysed (Andrews et al., 2004). The PCs were  
139 evaluated based on the loadings of the individual variables (the correlation between the variable and  
140 the principal component). To determine the explanatory power of the soil forming processes of input  
141 indicators, for the WRB orders as dependent category variable, discriminant analysis (DA) was  
142 performed with the PCs as independent variables. Normality of data was analysed by the  
143 Kolmogorov-Smirnov test and skewness and kurtosis of variables. All data were statistically  
144 processed using *IBM SPSS Statistics 22* and *MS Excel*.

145 *2.4. Indicator scoring and mathematical modelling*

146 To develop novel site-specific soil indicator scoring functions, we analysed the results of the  
147 Hungarian fertilization and soil amendment long-term experiments and land management methods  
148 (*Table 2*). According to our findings, the indicators and their critical threshold values were analysed  
149 and interpreted. By reviewing the literature, we also incorporated the ecological requirements of the  
150 crops but we did not evaluate indicators plant-specifically. Practically, however, crop rotation is  
151 employed, therefore, a general evaluation was applied to the most common crop cultures. All  
152 indicators were scored on a scale of 0 to 1 expressed either on the linear or non-linear scale, where 0  
153 completely contradicts the demands of land use, while 1 completely corresponds with that. As  
154 individual parameters cannot be evaluated independently, we took into consideration the soil  
155 properties most directly influences each other, i.e. the models were differentiated by soil categories  
156 in some cases. The models of soil quality properties and their parameters are shown in *Table 3*. The  
157 mathematical modelling was performed in *MS Excel* software.

158 The pH was interpreted with a bilogistic model that has a saturation value ( $p_0$ ) with slope and  
159 inflexion parameters in both the increasing ( $p_1, p_2$ ) and decreasing phases ( $p_3, p_4$ ). Asymmetric  
160 saturation and degradation models were used to score the texture properties. Based on the  
161 groundwater depth their increasing and decreasing slope parameters ( $p_1, p_2$ ) and axis shift and peak  
162 point parameters ( $p_3, p_4$ ) were changed. The EC and Na were interpreted using logistic models (“less  
163 is better”) where  $p_0, p_1, p_2, p_3$  are their limit, slope and inflexion point parameters, respectively. The  
164 logistic models (“more is better”) of the available K and P are significantly influenced by soil texture  
165 and pH hence their parameters were changed accordingly. The SOM, available Mg, Zn and Cu were  
166 interpreted with saturation models (where  $p_1$  is the saturation parameter,  $p_2$  is the slope parameter)  
167 but when modelling we made a difference by soil texture. In the case of the saturation model of  
168 available Mn, the parameters of function were differentiated by soil pH. The mineralized N and S  
169 contents were linearly ranked („more is better”) using the formulae  $y = x/x_{\max}$  where  $x_{\max}$  is the  
170 maximum value in the database.

171

172 **3. Results**

173 *3.1. Bivariate correlations between soil quality indicators*

174 The descriptive statistics and the linear correlation matrix of the pedological indicators are shown in  
175 *Table 4* and *Table 5*, respectively. On the analysed database a strong correlation ( $r > 0.8$ ) was found  
176 between pH and the CCE indicators, while the influence of base saturation was clearly observable on  
177 both parameters., a significant, but weak ( $r < 0.39$ ) or moderate ( $r = 0.40-0.59$ ) correlation exists among  
178 pH, Na and EC since salt accumulation and Na adsorption do not always occur together. In addition,  
179 the depth of CaCO<sub>3</sub> accumulation zone also indicated a great variability among the studied soils. Only  
180 a few Solonchak soils were found in the analysed database and in general, this soil type is rarely  
181 cultivated and used as farmland. EC strongly correlated with available Mg and S, therefore, besides  
182 Na, Mg and S must also be present among the water-soluble salts. Although Na did not indicate  
183 exchangeable sodium percentage (ESP), the physical impact of Na-saturated colloids on water  
184 retention and drainage properties of soils is well represented in the texture indicator based on  
185 consistency change. A weak but significant linear correlation was observed between Na and soil  
186 texture. SOM showed a moderate correlation with texture. In the analyzed dataset, available Mg and  
187 Cu indicated a high correlation with texture, while only a weak and moderate correlation was found  
188 between available K, N, S and Zn and texture. Consequently, these nutrients are adsorbed most  
189 commonly to the mineral colloids of soils. Among the available nutrients, Cu, Mn and P showed the  
190 highest but only weak-moderate correlation with soil pH.

### 191 3.2. Multivariate statistical analyses

192 According to the eigenvalues greater than 1, the PCA yielded four principal components (PCs)  
193 explaining a total of 75.658% of the variance for the entire set of variables (*Table 6*). The  
194 commonality of the variables, which expresses the rate of preserved heterogeneity of the given  
195 parameter, were larger than 0.588. The particle size distribution and the influenced properties by  
196 texture are expressed in PC1 based on the larger loading value of texture, Mg, Cu, EC, SOM, K and  
197 Na. PC1 explains 33.55% of the total variance of the input indicators. The second factor accounted  
198 for 22.044% of the total variance. PC2 was considered as a specific chemical parameter due to the  
199 high loadings of the Mn and CCE and pH indicators. Available P and Zn indicator loading values were  
200 the largest in PC3. The variance reached 10.931% in the latter case. The PC4 accounted for 9.134% of  
201 the total variance. PC4 was labelled as available nitrogen and sulphur due to the high loadings of the  
202 N and S indicators.

203 The linear discriminant analysis was carried out for the WRB classification at the values of PC1, PC2,  
204 PC3 and PC4 as independent variables. Our results indicated a prediction accuracy of only 47.5% for  
205 the four principal components of the WRB categories. The canonical correlation analyses showed  
206 that the first and second discriminant functions (DFs) explain 70.9% and 27.1% variance of the  
207 independent variables, respectively, i.e. they almost completely account for the total variance.  
208 According to the values of the structure matrix, the ranking order of the principal components is PC1  
209 (0.709), PC2 (-0.497), PC4 (0.100) and PC3 (0.089) in DF1, whereas PC2 (0.792), PC1 (0.542), PC3  
210 (0.354) and PC4 (-0.022) in DF2. Soil types primarily differentiated as a function of PC1 and PC2  
211 values indicating the physical and chemical properties of soils (*Fig 2*). At the same time, the influence  
212 of PC3 and PC4 proved to be less important.

### 213 3.3. Scored indicators

214 The statistics of the scored indicators is shown in *Table 7*, whereas the mean values according to the  
215 soil types are presented in *Table 8*. The distribution of the obtained  $y_{pH}$  values was skewed left  
216 significantly due to the higher frequency of acidic values in the database. The lowest  $y_{pH}$  values are  
217 usually found for dystric Gleysols and dystric fluvisols (No 11, 16, 20, 23). The distribution of  
218 interpreted Na and EC variables are markedly skewed to the left. The  $y_{EC}$  value was found relatively

219 low for Solonetz and sodic Gleysols. The mean  $y_{Na}$  value was between 0.28 and 0.67 for the latter  
220 soil types (No 21-25).

221 Due to their extremely high spatial variability in terms of texture and location, the studied soils of  
222 Hungary showed a relatively high standard deviation of  $y_{texture}$  values. The lowest values were  
223 obtained for reductigleyic and clayic Gleysols soils (No 7 and 8) with a mean value of 0.32 to 0.37.  
224 The mean  $y_{texture}$  value was between 0.57 and 0.68 for arenic Cambisols és Arenosols (No 17-20).

225 The mean value of  $y_{SOM}$  for the entire database was 0.69 with a normal (Gaussian) distribution.  
226 Values of less than 0.6 were typical for some Gleysols and Solonetz soils due to their high clay  
227 contents and anaerobic conditions (No 8, 10, 15, 16, 22, 23). Values below 0.6 were also found for  
228 Arenosols owing to their low SOM content and loose structure with large pore spaces (No 20). Scored  
229 values between 0.6 and 0.7 were common for Phaeozems, Cambisols and Luvisols formed under  
230 dense forest canopies, where soils are characterized by reduced organic matter and humus  
231 accumulation. Unsurprisingly, the highest  $y_{SOM}$  values were found in Chernozem soils (No 1 and 3).

232 Among the interpreted parameters, the  $y_N$  and  $y_S$  parameters have the largest variance, and  
233 unlike the other factors, they are skewed to the right and consequently their mean scored values are  
234 extremely low (0.13 and 0.08). The highest scored values of  $y_S$  were characteristic for the saline and  
235 sodic soils (No 22 and 23), thus this parameter indicates the accumulation of water-soluble salts.

236 Compared with other nutrients, the mean of the scored values of  $y_P$  (0.56) is the lowest in the  
237 entire database, indicating lowered and depleted phosphorous availability (and lowered release  
238 rates) in the studied soils. The phosphorus imbalance and deficiency (low dissolution and  
239 mineralization rates) in the soil may have been caused by insufficient fertilization practices or  
240 extreme pH conditions.

241 Based on the  $y_K$  and  $y_{Mg}$  values, potassium imbalance and deficiency likely occurs in the studied  
242 soils, as low potassium availability and concentration may be observed in many different soil types  
243 (e.g. No 5, 6, 11, 16, 20). The magnesium-supplying and releasing capacity of the analysed soils is  
244 generally high, with a mean scored value of  $y_{Mg}$  (0.98) and a standard deviation of 0.058. The  
245 lowest  $y_{Mg}$  values were found for Arenosols due to the highest ratio of nutrient loss by leaching,  
246 low surface charge density and the reduced specific surface area of colloids.

247 The average values and the standard deviation values of  $y_{Mn}$  were similar to the corresponding  
248 parameters of magnesium. Lower values were commonly found a reductigleyic dystric Gleysols and  
249 acidic soils of sandy textures (No 7, 18, 20). Based on the values of the interpreted variables, we  
250 learned that the Cu-supplying capacity of the studied soils is generally good, with scored values less  
251 than  $y_{Cu} < 0.8$  only found in a very few soil samples. In accord with phosphorous, low Zn-supplying  
252 capacity characterizes each analysed soil type, and  $y_{Zn}$  ranged widely between 0.144 and 1.000  
253 with a mean value of 0.64.

254

## 255 **4. Discussion**

### 256 *4.1. Indicators used for soil quality indices*

257 To estimate the impact of soil chemical properties on nutrient cycle as well as water and nutrient  
258 uptake, most authors studied pH-H<sub>2</sub>O (occasionally pH-CaCl<sub>2</sub>), electrical conductivity, cation exchange  
259 capacity (CEC) and exchangeable cations (Zhang et al., 2004; Qi et al., 2009; Mastro et al., 2015).  
260 Under arid climates, exchangeable sodium percentage (ESP), sodium adsorption ration (SAR) and

261 calcium carbonate equivalent (CCE) complete the list of analysed parameters. Nevertheless, due to  
262 the correlation of the above-listed parameters, only one or two indicators have been selected and  
263 used in the development of soil quality indices. From the results of multivariate statistical analyses, it  
264 is claimed that under typical soil conditions in Hungary, pH, CCE, EC and AL-soluble Na were found to  
265 be suitable indicators of soil quality.

266 Among the indicators that characterize the physical properties of soils, available water retention  
267 capacity, bulk density, aggregate size distribution and stability (especially the mean weight diameter)  
268 and the particle size distribution (clay, silt and sand percentage) have been extensively studied by  
269 former studies (Ghaemi et al., 2014; Rabbi et al., 2014; Göndöcs et al., 2015; Raiesi, 2017). In our  
270 assessments, due to its impact on soil water and air dynamics, soil texture, as a physical parameter,  
271 was preferably implemented during the elaboration of the evaluation algorithm. Under the drought-  
272 prone climatic conditions of Hungary, water retention capacity of soils profoundly influences the  
273 yield of dryland crops (Farkas et al., 2005; Tóth et al., 2007).

274 The organic matter dynamics of soils influences both their nutrient cycle rate and the functional  
275 activity of soil biota (Greiner et al., 2017; Fekete et al., 2017). To characterize this ecosystem  
276 function, many indicators have been applied. Among them, soil organic matter, carbon content  
277 (SOM/SOC or TC) have been used the most commonly (Yao et al., 2014; Nakajima et al. 2015; Biswas  
278 et al. 2017; Nabiollahi et al. 2017). Biological indicators allow the detection of the impacts of  
279 management practices and different crops as they are not limited to specific influences (e.g. Karlen  
280 et al., 1997; Lima et al., 2012; Zobeck et al., 2014; Raiesi and Kabiri 2016).

281 Chemical and physical properties also impact soil organisms and consequently, biological indicators  
282 would be distinct indicators for the identification of soils in this study (Matics and Biro, 2015; Dudás  
283 et al. 2017). Nevertheless, we did not employ this approach as a comprehensive database on the  
284 biological activity of soils is not available in Hungary. Furthermore, our database was based on the  
285 farmlands of similar cultivation and land use management practices and our primary goal was to  
286 interpret the most basic physical and chemical parameters. After validation, it would be the  
287 incorporation of biological parameters into the evaluation would considerably improve assessment  
288 accuracy.

289 Comparison of available and soluble nutrient contents, measured with different extracting solutions,  
290 is often difficult, as their comparison and data usability are influenced by the physical and chemical  
291 properties of the studied soils. For the determination of available phosphorous, the most commonly  
292 used extraction solution is the 0.5 M NaHCO<sub>2</sub> (pH 8.5) (Armenise et al., 2013; Li et al., 2013). In  
293 contrast, in Hungary the acidic ammonium lactate (pH 3.7) method is used, which dissolves the less  
294 available Ca- and Mg-phosphates of alkaline soils (Buzás et al., 1979; Ivezic et al., 2015). Therefore, it  
295 is indispensable to include the chemical properties of soils in the evaluation algorithms. Some  
296 authors used ammonium-acetate-soluble potassium content (Sharma et al. 2014; Singh et al. 2014;  
297 Yao et al. 2014), which is more in line with the latest Hungarian datasets. Available magnesium is  
298 rarely analysed in soil quality studies and is only interpreted by a few authors (Saglam et al., 2015;  
299 Sharma et al., 2014). DTPH-extractable Fe, Mn, Cu and Zn were interpreted by some authors (Lima et  
300 al., 2012; Ramachandran et al., 2016; Biswas et al., 2017). In Hungary, available sulphur and  
301 magnesium were determined with 1 M KCl solution and metallic micronutrients were measured  
302 using EDTA +1 M KCl extraction (Buzás et al., 1979). This extraction method enables only a limited  
303 comparison with similar parameters published in the international literature.

304 *4.2. Multivariate statistical methods for selecting and weighting soil quality indicators*

305 Based on the literature review, it can be stated that the selection of MDS indicators is automated  
306 using principal component analysis (PCA) (Zobeck et al., Nakajima et al., 2015; de Paul Obade and Lal,  
307 2016; Nabiollahi et al., 2017). PCA generates the linear combination of input parameters, namely  
308 principal components (PCs) that do not intercorrelate. By using PCA results (eigenvalues of PCs and  
309 loadings), indicators, characterized by low intercorrelation, can be selected, in our case, these are the  
310 texture, K, Na, CCE, Mn, P, Zn, N and S (Table 6). These indicators explain the majority of TDS  
311 variance and the results of the PCA are also used to weight the indicators for calculation the soil  
312 quality indices (Andrews et al., 2004). Nevertheless, the question may arise whether the variables of  
313 the highest variance are at the same time the most important? Following our variance analyses of  
314 the parameterized and non-linear interpretation of the indicators, in terms of their agricultural land  
315 suitability, we may ponder whether the MDS variables should be selected before or after the scoring.

316 In our opinion, the complex interpretation of the principal components (PCs) is more vital regarding  
317 their information source on the latent relationship among the individual indicators, including soil  
318 forming processes and the impacts of land use (Juhos et al., 2015; Raiesi and Kabiri, 2016; Vinhal-  
319 Freitas et al., 2017). PC1 specifies the amount of mineral and organic colloids, and consequently, the  
320 cation adsorption capacity of the soil. Eventually and indirectly, it identifies the relative maturity level  
321 of soils, water and nutrient retention capacity which subsequently determines soil fertility and  
322 productivity (Makó et al., 2003; 2007; Rajkai et al., 2015). Indicators that specify the process of  
323 salinization and sodification are not separated in the PCA. The PC2 shows that acidity and alkalinity  
324 very strongly controlled by the CaCO<sub>3</sub> content of the analysed soils (Csathó, 2001). Accumulation of  
325 Na-salts is not significantly expressed by pH measured in KCl solution. Mn availability and solubility  
326 are also influenced by CaCO<sub>3</sub> content, as pronounced negative linear correlation exists between  
327 these two parameters (Buzás, 1979). The significant correlation between the available P and Zn  
328 indicators and their segregation in the PC3 are explained by multiple factors. Zinc is strongly  
329 adsorbed on the surface of clay minerals and has a low concentration in the soil solution. The  
330 solubility of various Zn-salts is low and increases with decreasing pH (Fomina et al., 2010). In soils of  
331 high phosphate concentration, Zn-phosphates of low solubility are formed, which can be detected by  
332 standard extracting solutions. According to PC4, the elements N and S have similar biogeochemical  
333 cycles and the concentration of their mineral forms rapidly changes in the soil.

334 According to the significant predictive power of the PC1 and PC2 in discriminant functions, it can be  
335 stated that the zonal, climate-determined soil types, like Luvisols and Chernozems, are easily  
336 identified based on their chemical properties, while Arenosols and sandy Cambisols are recognized  
337 according to their physical (textural) attributes (Makó et al., 2007). *Figure 2* reveals the diverse  
338 character of Gleysols and the variable depth of CaCO<sub>3</sub>-rich and natric horizons of Solonetz soils. Our  
339 results pointed out the common prediction power of the texture, SOM, K, Mg, Na, Cu, EC, CCE, pH  
340 and Mn by soil genetic types and the active soil forming processes.

341 We propose that the pedological indicators can be classified into four major groups. (1) Water  
342 balance and salt dynamics indicators that characterize nutrient retention and cation exchange  
343 capacity of soils: texture, SOM, EC and Na. (2) Nutrients, relatively independent from and  
344 management practices and associated with and adsorbed on the surface of soil colloids and clay  
345 minerals: K, Mg, Cu (3) Indicators that determine base saturation and available nutrients, where  
346 nutrient availability is primarily determined by the base saturation of soils: pH, CCE, Mn (4) Highly  
347 variable nutrients and/or nutrients greatly influenced by climate and type of land management.  
348 Available nutrient concentrations of N, S, P, Zn, however, are primarily influenced by fertilizer  
349 application intensity. Consequently, the critical evaluation of the PCs and indices according to soil



350 types may prove useful in multiple analytical algorithms (Mukherjee and Lal, 2014; de Paul Obade  
351 and Lal, 2016; Biswas et al., 2017).

#### 352 4.3. Indicator scoring functions

353 We believe that the individual environmental and soil parameters cannot be evaluated  
354 independently. Furthermore, the functions of soils and soil quality are revealed under given  
355 conditions and can only be interpreted specifically according to land use type or the exact necessities  
356 of the plant grown under the given environmental conditions. In contrast, based on former literature,  
357 it is often necessary to use and adapt individually analyzed indicators and scoring functions from  
358 other studies conducted under different ecological conditions. The most common indicator scoring  
359 functions in the literature are summarized in *Table 9*.

360 We believe that the linear interpretation of indicator scoring thresholds is based on the linear  
361 correlation between the indicators and yield. However, this correlation only proved successful for  
362 certain a limited number of soil types, where only one or two soil parameters limit yield and soil  
363 productivity (Thuithaisong et al., 2011; de Paul Obade and Lal, 2016; Biswas et al., 2017). In addition,  
364 the soil quality-yield relation is not necessarily linear, while other soil parameters explain yield in a  
365 given combination (Cox et al., 2003; Ayoubi et al., 2009; Juhos et al., 2015).

366 The scored pH values ( $y_{\text{pH}}$ ) indicate that the crops favoured the high base saturation in soils and  
367 they were less sensitive to acidity than to high alkalinity (Csathó, 2001; Debreczeniné and Németh,  
368 2009; Nagy, 2011). Therefore, pH-KCl values of 5.5 to 7.5 were considered non-limiting, which  
369 corresponds to the scored values of  $y = 0.9$  to 1.0. Any pH value below 4.5 and above 8.0 were  
370 evaluated as strongly limiting values for crop growth, therefore scored values of lower than 0.5 were  
371 assigned to them. Many crops are commonly unresponsive to high  $\text{CaCO}_3$  concentration, therefore  
372 CCE was not interpreted separately. CCE is an important indicator in terms of nutrient availability and  
373 solubility, hence it was evaluated and included in the statistical analyses during nutrient dynamics  
374 evaluations.

375 The interpreted EC and Na values point out the moderate tolerance of crops against salinity and high  
376 sodium contents and the unfavourable impact of adsorbed Na on soil aeration and hydraulic and  
377 physical properties (Prettenhoffer, 1969; Szabolcs, 1971). All investigated crops poorly tolerated high  
378 salinity and excess concentration of alkaline Na-salts. This property was already partially included in  
379 the evaluation of pH. EC values of  $<0.4 \text{ dS m}^{-1}$  and Na values  $<75 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$  were assumed non-limiting  
380 for crop growth (where  $y>0.9$ ), whereas EC higher than  $0.8 \text{ dS m}^{-1}$  and Na values exceeding  $200 \text{ mg}$   
381  $\text{kg}^{-1}$  were assumed critical for crop growth, corresponding to  $y$  values of less than 0.5.

382 In terms of the soil physical characterization, our analyses focused on the water retention potentials  
383 of soils and soil aeration; i.e. parameters primarily determined by texture and the depths of the  
384 capillary fringe zone and the groundwater table (Makó et al., 2003; Farkas et al., 2005; Tóth et al.,  
385 2007; Tóth et al., 2014; Rajkai et al., 2015). Whereas higher water retention capacities correspond to  
386 better moisture availability during periods of drought, rainy periods enhance the development of  
387 reductive and anoxic soil conditions. Our mathematical model shows that the highest available water  
388 capacity exists for loamy, and clayey loam soils (Várallyay, 2008; Rajkai et al., 2004). Furthermore, the  
389 higher the clay content of the soils is the deeper is located the optimal depth of the groundwater  
390 table (between 85 and 180 cm) (Géczy, 1968; Lóczy and Dezső, 2013; Lóczy et al. 2017). Our model  
391 was poorly applicable for alfalfa due to its preference for deep groundwater table.

392 When interpreting SOM, the biological functions (nitrogen-supply, water retention and soil structure)  
393 of organic matter was evaluated (Greiner et al., 2017). Since the mineralization and release of

394 nitrogen is primarily the function of air and water availability and textural properties under the given  
395 climate (Fekete et al., 2017), the same SOM content provides better conditions for sandy loam soils  
396 than clayey soils (Buzás et al., 1979; Debreczeniné and Németh, 2009). SOM, through its influence on  
397 nitrogen-supply, water retention and soil structure, significantly affects yield in Hungary  
398 (Debreczeniné and Németh, 2009; Hermann et al., 2014b). Although the relationship is rather  
399 complex between yield and SOM, using significant non-linear regression between SOM and yields of  
400 winter wheat, maize and alfalfa, saturation functions were given by Csathó (2003a; 2003b; 2003c) for  
401 the period of 1960 to 2000 based on long-term fertilizer experiments. Their results and saturation  
402 functions are in a good correspondence with the model-based findings of the current study.

403 Our scoring functions indicate the nutrient-response of crops and nutrient availability, as soil fertility  
404 is rather determined by nutrient dynamics (mobilization/mineralization-immobilization) and not  
405 nutrient concentrations (Kismányoky and Debreczeni, 2001; Debreczeniné and Németh, 2009).

406 The P scoring model illustrates that the same ammonium-lactate-soluble  $P_2O_5$  content (AL-P) in a  
407 moderately acidic soil provides better nutrient supply for crops than is the case of alkaline and  
408 calcareous soils (Sarkadi et al., 1987; Hermann et al., 2014a). The models of the available K and Mg  
409 indicate that dynamics of these elements (adsorption, desorption and mass flow) is significantly  
410 influenced by soil texture and charge density on the surface of clay minerals (Buzás et al., 1979; Stout  
411 and Baker, 1981). In other words, identical ammonium-lactate-soluble  $K_2O$  and 1 M KCl-soluble Mg  
412 concentrations represent higher release rates and more readily available nutrient mineralization and  
413 mobilization in a sandy soil compared to clayey soil. Non-linear statistical relations between AL-  
414 soluble P and K contents and yields are also significant (Csathó 1997; 2003d; 2003e; 2003f).

415 As Mn availability is primarily determined by pH (Buzás et al., 1979; Gupta et al., 2008), this indicator  
416 was interpreted by taking into account the pH with a saturation model. Owing to its high adsorption  
417 capacity to the surface of clay minerals (Buzás et al., 1979; Gupta et al., 2008), Zn and Cu were  
418 interpreted as a function of soil texture. Nonetheless, Zn and Cu availability are also significantly  
419 influenced by other factors, including the presence of organic complexes and ion-antagonism  
420 mechanisms.

421 The majority of N and S is stored in organic compounds under the moderately arid climate of  
422 Hungary and are mineralized (mobilized) by microorganisms if their concentration decreases in soil  
423 solution (Tkaczyk et al., 2017). The mineralized N and S content and release rates are primarily  
424 influenced by soil water balance (precipitation and evaporation) and moisture regime of soils,  
425 therefore the linear interpretation of N and S was found sufficient for the current model („more is  
426 better”). However, the question may arise whether the most changeable mineralized N and S  
427 variables are adequate for a soil quality index? For almost all soil type, the means of scored N and S  
428 values were the lowest but it is highly unlikely that these indicators would be the most important  
429 limiting factors. These indicators rather show a momentary state in soils.

430 Our goal was to indicate the relative values of the interpreted indicators and show their impacts on  
431 soil properties. However, the simple addition of scores commonly gives a misleading result and  
432 contradicts the findings of the former Hungarian land evaluation studies (Géczy, 1969; Debreczeniné  
433 et al., 2003; Makó et al., 2007). Since the productivity of the soil is generated by the complex  
434 interaction of the simple soil properties, therefore, the combined analysis of indicators is crucial for  
435 the assessment of soil quality (Juhos et al., 2015). For example, some unfavourable properties can be  
436 compensated by other parameters, but in addition to synergies, antagonisms may also occur.  
437 Therefore weighting is usually indispensable.

438

## 439 5. Conclusions

440 Instead of the separate interpretation of soil indicators, their inter-correlations should be taken into  
441 account. Various soil physical and chemical properties must be incorporated as the nutrient  
442 availability of the soil is also affected by other soil properties. Soil moisture regime is also a more  
443 complex parameter and it is difficult to express using one simple indicator.

444 During the development of a soil quality index, the number of variables should be reduced relying on  
445 the outcomes of the multivariate statistical analyses (principal component analysis and discriminant  
446 analysis) of the total data base. However, the selection of the minimum dataset should not be  
447 exclusively based on these findings. Although individual PCs (PC3 and PC4) have a little impact on soil  
448 quality (for a given soil type), still, based on statistical analyses, they could be important indicators  
449 for e.g.: another soil type, or more specifically, could significantly impact soil physical and chemical  
450 properties from an agricultural viewpoint, like the availability of Zn and P. In the case of the  
451 Hungarian indicators and arable lands, we suggest to look at the variance and existing combinations  
452 of the interpreted scores and to rank the limiting factors according to the scores for each soil type.

453 In the current paper, however, our major objective was the identification of limiting factors for plant  
454 growth on the studied soil types. The most common limiting factors after their non-linear  
455 interpretation are texture, depth of groundwater table, SOM, pH, Na, available K, P and Zn which  
456 would be a minimum data set for a soil quality assessment. However, soil properties do not influence  
457 fertility and soil productivity independently, but rather in a complex and combined manner. When a  
458 land suitability index is based on these scores, the simple additive method for integration insufficient.  
459 In order to further advance a soil quality assessment model and improve the methodology of soil  
460 quality index development, our following goals target the determination the hierarchical ranking and  
461 grouping of soil parameters in a combined manner. For the given specific soil types the combination  
462 of these limiting factors should be studied and their weights need to be determined.

463

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467

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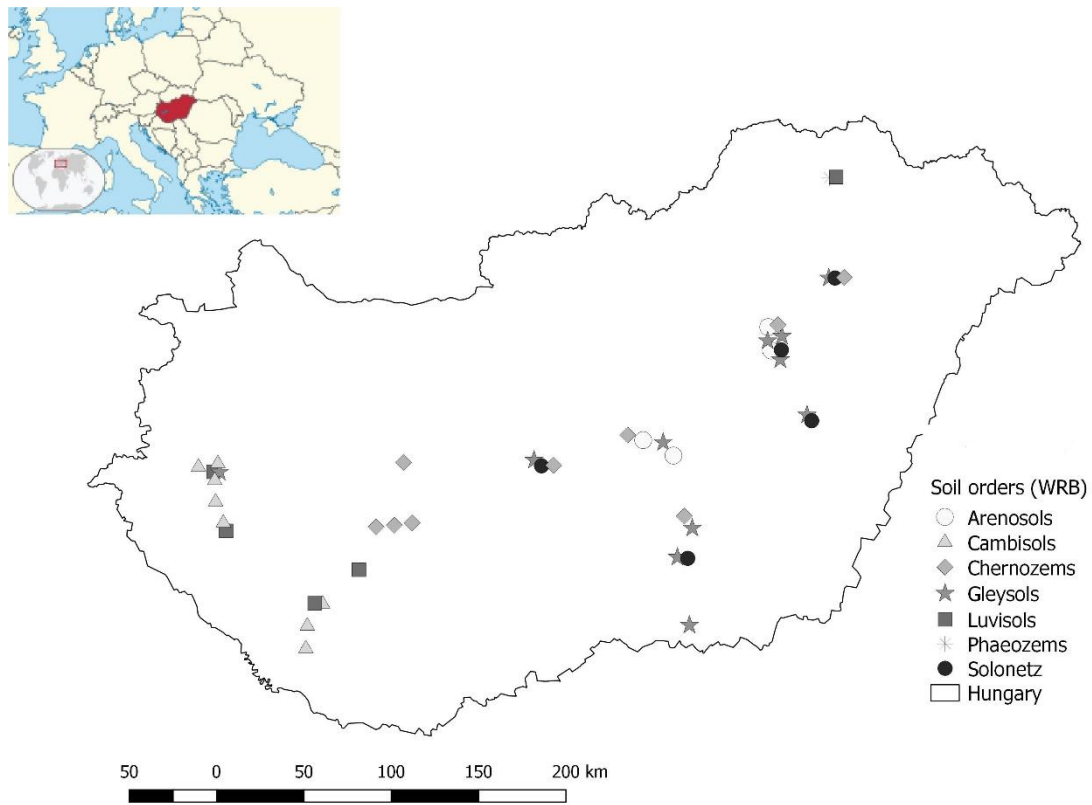


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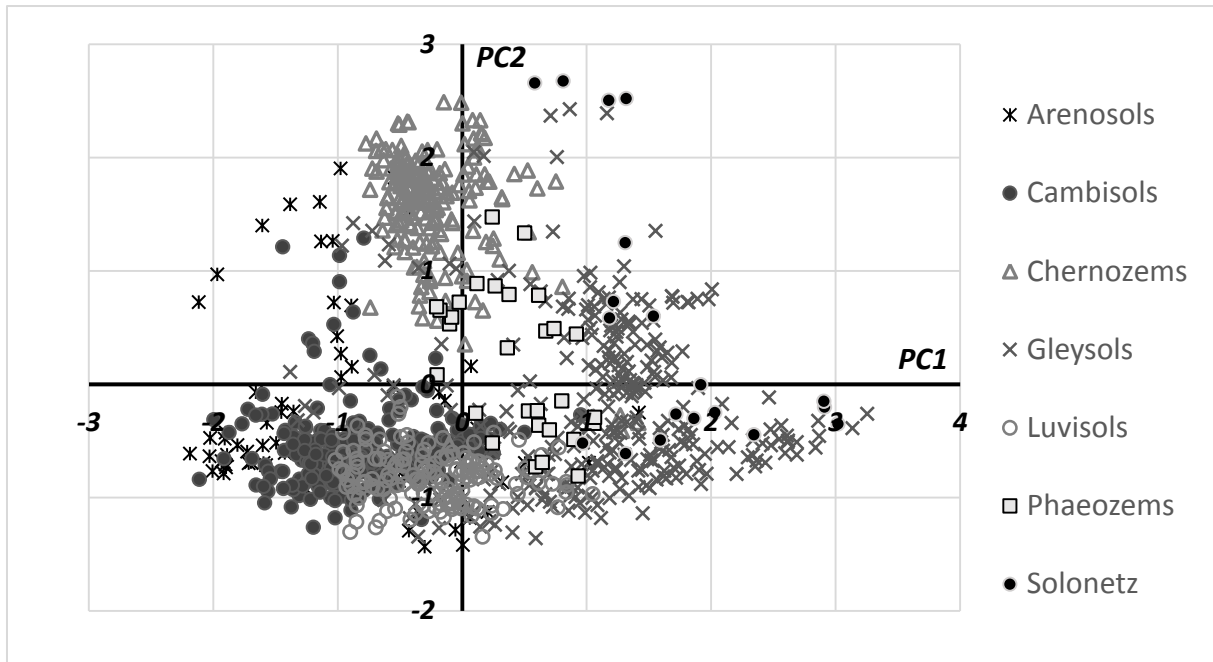
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### Figures



*Fig 1* The geographical location of the sampling sites.



**Fig 2** The first and second principal components (PCs) of soil orders.

Soil types primarily differentiated as a function of PC1 and PC2 values indicating the amount of mineral and organic colloids, and consequently, the cation adsorption capacity of the soil (PC1) and the acidity and alkalinity (PC2). The results of the discriminant analysis pointed out the common prediction power of the texture, SOM, K, Mg, Na, Cu, EC, CCE, pH and Mn by soil genetic types and the active soil forming processes.

## Tables

**Table 1**

The soil types of the research sites and their qualifiers according to the World Reference Base (FAO, 2014) classification



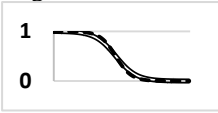



No.	Order	Principal qualifiers	Supplementary qualifiers	Depth of groundwater table (cm)	Number of samples
1	CHERNOZEMS	Calcic	Loamic/Siltic, Cambic	>500	178
2	CHERNOZEMS	Endogleyic, Calcic/Endocalcic	Loamic/Siltic	250-300	11
3	CHERNOZEMS	Calcic	Loamic/Siltic, Endosalic, Endosodic	300	8
4	PHAEZEMS	Endocalcic, Cambic, Calcaric	Loamic	>500	29
5	CAMBISOLS	Endocalcaric, Eutric	Loamic/ Siltic	>800	91
6	LUVISOLS	Haplic	Loamic/Siltic	>800	164
7	GLEYSOLS	Mollic, Reductigleyic, Dystric (Eutric)	Clayic, (Endosodic)	80-120	73
8	GLEYSOLS	Mollic, Reductigleyic, (Endocalcaric), Eutric	Clayic, (Endosodic)	60-120	63
9	GLEYSOLS	Mollic, Fluvic, Reductigleyic, Dystric (Eutric)	Siltic/Arenic	50-120	16
10	GLEYSOLS	Mollic, Reductigleyic, (Endocalcaric), Eutric	Loamic	80-120	21
11	GLEYSOLS	Mollic, Reductigleyic, Dystric (Eutric)	Loamic	80-110	17
12	GLEYSOLS	Mollic, Oxigleyic, Dytric	Clayic	150-170	11
13	GLEYSOLS	Mollic, Oxigleyic, (Endocalcaric), Eutric	Loamic/Siltic	130-150	13
14	GLEYSOLS	Mollic, Oxigleyic, Dystric	Loamic/Siltic	150-180	16
15	GLEYSOLS	Mollic, Oxigleyic, Calcaric/Endocalcaric, Eutric	Clayic/(Loamic), Endosodic	140-150	16
16	GLEYSOLS	Mollic, Oxigleyic, Dystric	Clayic/Loamic, Endosodic	140-160	16
17	CAMBISOLS	Eutric, (Calcaric)	Arenic	>800	65
18	CAMBISOLS	Dystric/(Eutric)	Arenic	>800	103
19	ARENOSOLS	Fluvic, Calcaric/endocalcaric, Eutric	(Aeolic)	>200	35
20	ARENOSOLS	Fluvic, Dystric	-	>250	34
21	SOLONETZ	Endogleyic, Endosalic, Calcic	Loamic	200-250	7
22	SOLONETZ	Endogleyic, Endosalic (Endocalcic)	Clayic/Loamic	200-250	12
23	GLEYSOLS	Oxygleyic, Mollic, Dystric	Clayic /(Loamic), Endosalic, Sodic	150-170	30
24	GLEYSOLS	Oxygleyic, Mollic, Endocalcic/(Calcic), Eutric	Clayic /(Loamic), Endosalic, Sodic	150-170	10
25	GLEYSOLS	Oxygleyic, Fluvic, (Endocalcic), Eutric/Dystric	Siltic, Endosalic, Sodic	150	7

**Table 2**

References used for the indicator scoring and mathematical modelling

<b>Soil quality indicator</b>	<b>Hungarian fertilization and soil long-term experiments; land evaluation methods</b>
<b>pH (CCE)</b>	Géczy, 1968; Ángyán et al., 1982; Csathó, 2001; Debreczeniné and Németh, 2009; Nagy, 2011
<b>Texture (depth of groundwater table)</b>	Géczy, 1968; Várallyay, 2008; Makó et al., 2003; Rajkai et al., 2004; Farkas et al., 2005; Tóth et al., 2007b; Tóth et al., 2014; Rajkai et al., 2015
<b>EC</b>	Prettenhoffer, 1969; Szabolcs, 1971
<b>SOM</b>	Buzás et al., 1979; Csathó, 2003a; 2003b; 2003c; Debreczeniné and Németh, 2009; Hermann et al., 2014b;
<b>P</b>	Sarkadi et al., 1987; Csathó, 2003d; 2003e; 2003f; Hermann et al., 2014a
<b>K</b>	Buzás et al., 1979; Csathó, 1997
<b>Mg</b>	Buzás et al., 1979
<b>Na</b>	Prettenhoffer, 1969; Szabolcs, 1971
<b>Zn</b>	Buzás et al., 1979
<b>Cu</b>	Buzás et al., 1979
<b>Mn</b>	Buzás et al., 1979
<b>S</b>	Buzás et al., 1979; Debreczeniné and Németh, 2009
<b>N</b>	Buzás et al., 1979; Debreczeniné and Németh, 2009

**Table 3** Scoring functions of soil quality indicators

Dependent variables	Models	Formula parameters depending on soil properties					
		p0	p1	p2	p3	p4	
y_pH	Bilogistic 	-	1.085	1.470	4.416	2.906	7.992
	$y=p0/(1+\exp(-p1*(x-p2)))-p1/(1+\exp(-p3*(x-p4)))$						
y_texture	Asym. saturation and degradation 	<b>groundwater t. depth</b>					
		<85 cm		0.099	0.001	19.760	24.648
		85-120 cm		0.200	0.002	17.681	34.407
		120-180 cm		0.200	0.001	18.243	39.429
		>180 cm		0.169	0.001	17.661	43.765
	$y=(1-\exp(-p1*(x-p3)))-(1-\exp(-p2*(x-p4)^2))$						
y_EC	Logistic 	-	1.150	0.000	3.942	0.784	
y_Na	$y=p0+(p1-p0)/(1+\exp(-p2*(x-p3)))$	-	1.106	0.092	0.015	173.216	
y_P	Logistic 	<b>CCE</b>					
		<0.1 m/m%	0.000	1.000	0.034	66.649	
		0.1-1 m/m%	0.000	1.007	0.031	85.049	
		1.1-5 m/m%	0.000	1.002	0.029	108.089	
		5.1-10 m/m%	0.000	0.995	0.026	126.954	
		>10 m/m%	0.000	0.984	0.024	153.817	
y_K	$y=p0+(p1-p0)/(1+\exp(-p2*(x-p3)))$	<b>Soil texture</b>					
		sand	0.000	1.017	0.041	90.469	
		sandy loam	0.000	1.018	0.038	124.185	
		loam, s.loam	0.000	1.040	0.037	151.272	
		c.loam, s.clay	0.000	1.016	0.040	161.541	
		clay	0.000	1.011	0.041	171.385	
y_SOM		sand		1.039	1.179		
		s. loam		1.087	0.770		
		loam, s. loam		1.199	0.454		
		c.loam, s.clay		1.978	0.167		
		clay		4.124	0.060		
y_Mg	Saturation 	sand		1.032	0.035		
		s.loam, loam, s.loam		1.074	0.018		
		c.loam, s.clay, clay		1.215	0.009		
y_Zn		sand, s. loam		1.016	1.646		
		loam, s.loam, c.loam, s.clay		1.298	0.408		
		clay		2.639	0.120		
y_Cu		sand, s.loam		1.013	6.002		
		loam, s.loam, c.loam, s.clay		1.075	2.278		
		clay		2.632	0.345		
y_Mn		<b>Soil pH</b>					
		pH<6		1.090	0.031		
		pH 6-8		1.031	0.139		
		pH>8		1.000	5.867		
y_N	Linear 	-					
y_S	$y=x/x_{max}$	-					

The parameters are valid for  $0 \leq y \leq 1$

**Table 4**

Descriptive statistics including mean, standard deviation (SD), kurtosis, skewness, and minimum and maximum values for measured soil indicators of the research sites (n=1046).

Parameter	Dimension	Min	Max	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
<b>pH</b>	-	3.65	7.80	6.08	1.11	-0.066	-1.269
<b>Texture*</b>	cm <sup>3</sup> 100 g <sup>-1</sup>	25	71	39.24	9.79	0.682	0.071
<b>EC</b>	dS cm <sup>-1</sup>	0.04	0.80	0.14	0.11	1.653	2.763
<b>CCE</b>	m/m % CaCO <sub>3</sub>	0.00	30.00	1.92	3.88	2.796	10.060
<b>SOM</b>	m/m %	0.32	5.16	1.89	0.77	0.578	0.146
<b>P</b>	mg kg <sup>-1</sup> P <sub>2</sub> O <sub>5</sub>	12	1980	154	171	4.824	33.534
<b>K</b>	mg kg <sup>-1</sup> K <sub>2</sub> O	40	1190	241	143	1.945	5.774
<b>Mg</b>	mg kg <sup>-1</sup> MgO	18	1360	348	270	1.151	0.377
<b>Na</b>	mg kg <sup>-1</sup> Na	1.00	751.00	36.50	52.94	5.485	48.097
<b>Zn</b>	mg kg <sup>-1</sup> Zn	0.10	10.20	1.39	0.95	3.641	20.645
<b>Cu</b>	mg kg <sup>-1</sup> Cu	0.36	21.70	4.08	3.45	1.898	4.042
<b>Mn</b>	mg kg <sup>-1</sup> Mn	11.00	598.00	175.76	126.69	1.044	0.978
<b>S</b>	mg kg <sup>-1</sup> SO <sub>4</sub> -S	0.90	89.00	7.27	10.93	4.318	20.155
<b>N</b>	mg kg <sup>-1</sup> NO <sub>2</sub> +NO <sub>3</sub> -N	0.00	78.13	9.76	8.79	2.671	10.107

\* Soil texture was characterized by the water volume (cm<sup>3</sup>) for consistency change to fluid for 100 g of soil. This water volume highly correlates with the particle size distribution. The values can be interpreted as follows: <25 – coarse sand, 25-30 – fine sand, 31-37 – sandy loam, 38-42 – loam and silty loam, 42-50 – clay loam and silty clay, >51 – clay texture.



**Table 5**

The Pearson correlation coefficients (r) matrix of the measured soil indicators.

	pH	Text.	EC	CCE	SOM	N	P	K	Mg	Na	Zn	Cu	Mn	S
pH	1													
Text.	-0.01	1												
EC	-0.12**	0.71**	1											
CCE	0.64**	0.00	-0.190**	1										
SOM	0.35**	0.60**	0.31**	0.43**	1									
N	-0.12**	0.21**	0.42**	-0.03	0.07*	1								
P	0.30**	-0.06*	0.00	0.17**	0.11**	-0.01	1							
K	0.15**	0.42**	0.45**	0.03	0.47**	0.19**	0.46**	1						
Mg	-0.24**	0.80**	0.68**	-0.26**	0.36**	0.15**	-0.12**	0.39**	1					
Na	0.01	0.32**	0.40**	0.17**	0.23**	0.27**	0.01	0.26**	0.41**	1				
Zn	-0.10**	0.16**	0.16**	-0.14**	0.20**	0.16**	0.36**	0.35**	0.18**	0.09**	1			
Cu	-0.33**	0.71**	0.68**	-0.29**	0.30**	0.32**	-0.04	0.38**	0.75**	0.40**	0.35**	1		
Mn	-0.34**	-0.10**	0.02	-0.50**	-0.26**	0.14**	-0.04	0.19**	0.10**	-0.02	0.30**	0.10**	1	
S	-0.19**	0.32**	0.48**	-0.06	0.14**	0.53**	-0.04	0.17**	0.26**	0.41**	0.12**	0.55**	-0.08*	1

\*\*. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level

\*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level

**Table 6**

Results of the principal component analysis of soil indicators

Principal components	PC1	PC2	PC3	PC4
Eigenvalues	4.697	3.086	1.530	1.279
% of variance	33.550	22.044	10.931	9.134
Cumulated % of total variance	33.550	55.594	66.525	75.658
Indicators (communalities)	Factor loadings			
Texture (0.875)	<b>0.879</b>	0.128	-0.177	-0.234
Mg (0.871)	0.845	-0.198	-0.071	-0.336
Cu (0.835)	0.839	-0.321	0.080	-0.145
EC (0.668)	0.807	-0.098	-0.053	0.066
K (0.736)	<b>0.672</b>	0.241	0.460	-0.124
SOM (0.748)	0.645	0.543	-0.002	-0.191
Na (0.676)	<b>0.638</b>	0.305	-0.391	0.153
CCE (0.908)	-0.073	<b>0.943</b>	-0.117	0.014
Mn (0.766)	0.094	<b>-0.812</b>	0.298	-0.092
pH (0.742)	-0.073	0.812	0.223	-0.164
P (0.816)	0.023	0.445	<b>0.717</b>	0.321
Zn (0.627)	0.425	-0.163	<b>0.602</b>	0.239
S (0.733)	0.434	0.086	-0.289	<b>0.673</b>
N (0.588)	0.438	-0.178	-0.079	<b>0.601</b>

**Boldface** component-loadings are considered Minimum Data Set according to Andrews et al. (2004) (PCs have eigenvalues  $\geq 1$ ; highly weighted indicators have factor loading  $\geq 0.40$  and correlation coefficient between the indicators with highest loadings are  $< 0.60$ )

**Table 7**

Descriptive statistics including mean, standard deviation (SD), kurtosis, skewness, and minimum and maximum values for interpreted soil indicators of the research sites (n=1046).

<b>Parameter</b>	<b>Min</b>	<b>Max</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>SD</b>	<b>Skew</b>	<b>Kurt</b>
<b>y_pH</b>	0,266	1,000	0,846	0,156	-1,038	0,547
<b>y_texture</b>	0,066	1,000	0,772	0,232	-1,067	-0,036
<b>y_EC</b>	0,557	1,000	0,995	0,024	-9,621	128,517
<b>y_SOM</b>	0,169	1,000	0,689	0,147	-0,100	-0,571
<b>y_P</b>	0,031	1,000	0,556	0,311	-0,015	-1,459
<b>y_K</b>	0,007	1,000	0,809	0,240	-1,202	0,396
<b>y_Mg</b>	0,478	1,000	0,982	0,058	-4,328	21,852
<b>y_Na</b>	0,049	1,000	0,961	0,123	-4,535	23,264
<b>y_Zn</b>	0,144	1,000	0,643	0,233	-0,147	-1,188
<b>y_Cu</b>	0,767	1,000	0,999	0,011	-16,054	299,033
<b>y_Mn</b>	0,478	1,000	0,991	0,049	-7,015	53,427
<b>y_S</b>	0,010	1,000	0,082	0,123	4,320	20,172
<b>y_N</b>	0,001	1,000	0,125	0,112	2,669	10,103

**Table 8**

The means of scored indicators by the soil types (the name of the soil types are given in *Table 1*)

Scored indicators	Soil classification																																										
	CH						PH						CM						LV						Reductigleyic GL					Oxigleyic GL					CM (Arenic)		AR		SN		GL (Sodic)		
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25																		
y_pH	0,83	0,95	0,84	0,95	1,00	<b>0,79</b>	<b>0,77</b>	0,99	0,82	0,97	<b>0,68</b>	<b>0,76</b>	0,98	<b>0,73</b>	0,98	<b>0,69</b>	0,99	<b>0,75</b>	0,93	<b>0,69</b>	0,86	0,84	0,68	0,94	0,91																		
y_texture	0,95	0,97	0,94	0,97	0,92	0,92	<b>0,32</b>	<b>0,37</b>	0,85	0,85	0,82	0,82	0,98	0,96	0,81	0,92	0,61	<b>0,57</b>	0,68	<b>0,66</b>	0,97	0,95	0,81	0,86	0,93																		
y_EC	1,00	1,00	1,00	0,99	1,00	1,00	1,00	0,99	1,00	1,00	0,99	1,00	1,00	1,00	0,98	0,99	1,00	1,00	1,00	1,00	1,00	0,96	0,93	0,99	1,00																		
y_SOM	0,86	<b>0,75</b>	0,81	<b>0,63</b>	<b>0,62</b>	<b>0,65</b>	<b>0,62</b>	<b>0,55</b>	0,81	0,54	<b>0,58</b>	<b>0,67</b>	<b>0,77</b>	<b>0,78</b>	<b>0,53</b>	<b>0,61</b>	<b>0,75</b>	<b>0,71</b>	<b>0,76</b>	<b>0,61</b>	<b>0,71</b>	<b>0,55</b>	<b>0,53</b>	<b>0,63</b>	<b>0,78</b>																		
y_P	<b>0,42</b>	0,86	<b>0,51</b>	<b>0,58</b>	<b>0,39</b>	<b>0,56</b>	<b>0,61</b>	<b>0,53</b>	<b>0,57</b>	<b>0,52</b>	<b>0,26</b>	<b>0,77</b>	<b>0,50</b>	<b>0,29</b>	<b>0,64</b>	<b>0,49</b>	<b>0,57</b>	0,81	0,64	<b>0,64</b>	0,96	<b>0,67</b>	<b>0,69</b>	<b>0,68</b>	<b>0,38</b>																		
y_K	0,86	0,96	0,90	0,98	<b>0,72</b>	<b>0,65</b>	0,85	0,92	0,94	0,82	<b>0,69</b>	0,99	0,92	0,96	0,96	0,63	0,84	<b>0,75</b>	0,87	<b>0,64</b>	1,00	0,91	0,97	0,98	0,99																		
y_Mg	0,98	1,00	0,97	0,99	1,00	1,00	1,00	0,99	1,00	0,97	1,00	1,00	1,00	1,00	1,00	1,00	0,99	0,92	0,95	0,91	1,00	1,00	1,00	1,00	1,00																		
y_Na	0,99	0,99	0,92	1,00	1,00	1,00	0,98	0,99	0,99	0,99	1,00	0,99	0,99	0,97	0,86	0,85	1,00	1,00	0,99	1,00	<b>0,28</b>	<b>0,36</b>	<b>0,68</b>	<b>0,64</b>	<b>0,47</b>																		
y_Zn	<b>0,51</b>	<b>0,72</b>	<b>0,62</b>	<b>0,61</b>	<b>0,72</b>	<b>0,67</b>	<b>0,59</b>	<b>0,32</b>	<b>0,78</b>	<b>0,50</b>	<b>0,37</b>	<b>0,77</b>	<b>0,78</b>	<b>0,75</b>	<b>0,35</b>	<b>0,56</b>	0,87	0,82	0,87	<b>0,78</b>	<b>0,64</b>	<b>0,63</b>	<b>0,51</b>	<b>0,45</b>	0,91																		
y_Cu	1,00	0,99	1,00	1,00	1,00	1,00	1,00	1,00	1,00	1,00	1,00	0,98	1,00	1,00	1,00	1,00	1,00	1,00	0,99	0,99	1,00	1,00	1,00	1,00	1,00																		
y_Mn	1,00	1,00	1,00	1,00	1,00	1,00	0,94	1,00	0,99	1,00	0,99	1,00	1,00	1,00	1,00	1,00	1,00	0,99	1,00	0,92	1,00	1,00	1,00	1,00	1,00																		
y_S *	0,07	0,12	0,09	0,07	0,06	0,06	0,08	0,06	0,04	0,05	0,03	0,15	0,07	0,05	0,08	0,28	0,04	0,05	0,05	0,05	0,08	0,34	0,57	0,06	0,04																		
y_N *	0,08	0,29	0,16	0,19	0,10	0,13	0,11	0,11	0,06	0,11	0,12	0,21	0,11	0,17	0,12	0,22	0,12	0,10	0,11	0,15	0,28	0,20	0,40	0,17	0,08																		

Normal scores: y=0.81-1.00 No to Slight limitation; **Bold-italic scores** y=0.61-0.80 Moderate limitation; **Boldface scores:** strong limitation y=0.41-0.60; **Underlined boldface scores:** y≤0.40 not suitable for crops

\* Low means due to the large scale and skewness

**Table 9**

The most common indicator scoring functions in the literature

<b>Soil quality indicator</b>	<b>bell-shaped curve ('mid-point optimum')</b>	<b>non-linear sigmoid curve</b>	<b>linear function</b>
<b>pH</b>	Rahmanipour et al., 2014; Mukherje and Lal, 2014; Sharma et al., 2014		
<b>Texture, clay content</b>	Armenise et al., 2013; Vasu et al., 2016		„more is better“ Masto et al., 2015
<b>depth of groundwater table and relative topography</b>			„less is better“ or „more is better“ Zhang et al., 2004; Yao et al., 2014; Zobeck et al., 2014; Jamil et al. 2017
<b>EC and SAR</b> „less is better“		Andrews et al., 2004; Rahmanipour et al., 2014; Nabiollahi et al., 2017	Liebig et al., 2001; Raiesi, 2017; Vasu et al., 2016
<b>SOM</b> “more is better”		Li et al., 2013; Yao et al., 2014; Ivezic et al., 2015; Thomazini et al., 2015; Raiesi, 2017	Mukherje and Lal, 2014; Sharma et al., 2014; Singh et al., 2014; Nakajima et al. 2015; Raiesi, 2017; Ramachandran et al. 2016; Vasu et al. 2016; Biswas et al. 2017; Nabiollahi et al. 2017
<b>available P</b> “more is better”		Armenise et al., 2013; Li et al., 2013; Ivezic et al., 2015	Sharma et al., 2014, Singh et al., 2014; Ramachandran et al., 2016
<b>available K</b> “more is better”	Yao et al. 2014	Armenise et al. 2013; Li et al. 2013	Rahmanipour et al. 2014; Sharma et al. 2014; Singh et al. 2014
<b>available Mg, Zn, Cu, Mn, S, N</b> “more is better”	Lima et al., 2012	Andrews et al., 2004; Qi et al., 2009	Saglam et al., 2015; Sharma et al., 2014; Singh et al., 2014; Ramachandran et al., 2016; Biswas et al., 2017