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1 **Global meta-analysis of soil hydraulic properties on the same soils with**
2 **differing land use**

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19 **Running head**

20 Meta-analysis: habitat and soil hydraulics.

21 **Keywords**

22 Soil hydraulic conductivity, infiltration, Earth System Model, land use change, porosity

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27 **This PDF file includes:**

28 Main Text: Words ~ 6000

29 Tables 3

30 Figures 1 to 7

31

32 **Abstract:** Global land use change has resulted in more pasture and cropland, largely
33 at the expense of woodlands, over the last 300 years. How this change affects soil
34 hydraulic function with regard to feedbacks to the hydrological cycle is unclear for earth
35 system modelling (ESM). Pedotransfer functions (PTFs) used to predict soil hydraulic
36 conductivity (K) take no account of land use. Here, we synthesize >800 measurements
37 from around the globe from sites that measured near-saturated soil hydraulic
38 conductivity, or infiltration, at the soil surface, on the same soil type at each location,
39 but with differing land use, woodland (W), grassland (G) and cropland (C). We found
40 that texture based PTFs predict K reasonably well for cropland giving unbiased results,
41 but increasingly underestimate K in grassland and woodland. In native woodland and
42 grassland differences in K can usually be accounted for by differences in bulk density.
43 However, heavy grazing K responses can be much lower indicating compaction likely
44 reduces connectivity. We show that the K response ratios (RR) between land uses
45 vary with cropland ($C/W=0.45$ [$W/C=2.2$]) and grassland ($G/W=0.63$ [$W/G=1.6$])
46 having about half the K of woodland.

47 **Introduction**

48 Soil hydraulic conductivity near saturation (K) alters infiltration-runoff
49 partitioning at the land surface and is thus an important component in Earth System
50 Models (ESM) (Fatichi et al., 2020). For the last four decades, K has been increasingly
51 determined from pedotransfer functions (PTFs) based on laboratory measurements of
52 simple soil properties (Van Looy et al., 2017), primarily soil texture, bulk density and/or
53 organic carbon content (Schaap et al., 2001; Zhang and Schaap, 2019). These derived
54 K values can differ substantially, orders of magnitude, from field measurements (Gupta
55 et al., 2021). The databases of soil hydraulic properties used globally tend to be heavily
56 populated by measurements from agricultural soils (Rahmati et al., 2018). This has
57 generated a bias towards measurements from cropland soils (Batjes, 2008; Rahmati
58 et al., 2018; Weynants et al., 2013). As a result, K determined from PTFs is largely
59 unresponsive to the effects of land use and climate change, especially where
60 vegetation changes occur.

61 Figure 1 illustrates the problem; the amount of water retained in soil, expressed as a
62 volumetric water content, depends on the soil suction (h) and can be modelled using
63 a classical Van Genuchten (Van Genuchten, 1980) retention (Fig 1A) or hydraulic
64 conductivity (Fig 1B) model. The grey lines in both figures are models for a clay loam
65 soil and estimate a porosity $\sim 0.4 \text{ m}^3\text{m}^{-3}$ and $K \sim 6 \text{ cm/day}$. This response is largely
66 controlled by soil texture, however, other processes generate macropores, cracks,
67 worm burrows, and the root systems of vegetation that tend not to be captured by a
68 data set mostly focused on tilled, homogenised cropland soils. These macropores
69 generate what is termed structural porosity which can be modelled using a dual
70 porosity approach. Together the textural and structural porosity make up the total soil
71 porosity. While PTFs were largely used for agricultural modelling, texture based PTFs
72 proved adequate. However, PTFs are increasingly utilised for ecological modelling and
73 ESMs to predict earth system function for the vast majority of land that is not covered
74 by crops. Emerging research shows that land use is an important factor in determining
75 soil hydraulic properties (Jarvis et al., 2013).

76 Moreover, researchers recently found that the structural soil porosity, defined
77 as the macro-porosity or effective porosity, is more dynamic than previously thought;
78 responding to climate change on a decadal time scale, with mechanisms, yet to be

79 identified driving this(Hirmas et al., 2018). Fatichi et al. (2020) have shown that
80 incorporating soil structure into ESMs is important, as it significantly alters the
81 infiltration-runoff partitioning and recharge in wet and vegetated regions of the earth;
82 moreover with implications for processes impacted by run-off such as erosion(Borrelli
83 et al., 2021; Borrelli et al., 2017). This presents a substantial challenge because while
84 PTFs provide reasonable prediction of textural porosity and hydraulic properties,
85 structural porosity must be added through bulk density which is often unknown and
86 changes due to biological activity and hence land use(Robinson et al., 2022). To
87 incorporate soil structural effects into ESMs, Bonetti et al. (2021) proposed a
88 framework using vegetation metrics obtained from earth observation. Whereas, of the
89 handful of land surface models developed globally, the Joint UK Land Environment
90 Simulator (JULES)(Best et al., 2011; Blyth et al., 2010; Clark et al., 2011) tries to
91 account for land use on K by altering its effect on infiltration through the introduction
92 of empirical correction factors based on modelling experience. This provides some
93 sense of the direction and magnitude of the expected impact.

94 While these approaches attempt to deal with the potential impact of vegetation and
95 management on K there is still no empirically based assessment of the impact of land
96 use on K for a given soil across land uses. In order to address this, a general
97 hypothesis is proposed:

98 H_0 : The ratio of hydraulic conductivity for highly managed land use to native land use
99 will be $=1$ for a given soil type, where the soil type is the same under each land use.

100 With the alternative hypothesis:

101 H_1 : Ratio of hydraulic conductivity for highly managed land use to native land use will
102 be $\ll 1$ for a given soil type, where the soil type is the same under each land use.

103 The effect of land use management is expected to decrease progressing from
104 cropland > grassland > woodland, hence seeing K increase with, cropland < grassland
105 < woodland, accordingly.

106 A global meta-analysis is presented to test the hypothesis. For the purposes of
107 this study woodland (W), includes native broadleaf, evergreen and plantations;
108 grassland (G) includes native and pasture systems and cropland (C) was dominated
109 by arable crops such as corn and maize. ESM's tend not to differentiate beyond these

110 high level groupings hence we adopt a similar approach. Thus an analysis approach
111 compatible with JULES was chosen, using response ratios (RR) to determine the
112 extent to which land use alters K. The RR approach is widely used in ecological
113 studies(Hedges et al., 1999) with the natural logarithm transformed response ratio
114 ($\text{Ln}(\text{RR})$). The denominator is the land use expected to have the higher infiltration rate
115 (e.g. W). This approach was chosen for the analysis to try to constrain the results to
116 between 0 and 1, although individual ratios can, and do, occur above 1. However, in
117 some results reported and discussed, the inverse, which is a multiplication factor and
118 is more intuitive in practical applications is used. Note that the land use pairs used to
119 calculate the RR of K do not reflect the direction of land use change i.e. cropland to
120 grassland, or grassland to cropland; nor in most cases do they report grazing intensity
121 which will lead to compaction. Fig 1B proposes that RR reflect a change in the
122 proportion of structural K (associated with macroporosity) and textural K (associated
123 with the meso and micro porosity), and that cropland soils dominantly present textural
124 K, while in grassland and woodland soils the structural K is expressed to a greater
125 extent. As a result, the RR for K are expected to diverge for grassland and woodland
126 from cropland, as proposed in Fig 1C. Table 1 presents a conceptual framework in the
127 form of a matrix in this regard, indicating the expected change in RR for K for different
128 land use combinations. Values of 1 indicate no difference between land uses, while
129 values of less than 1 indicate a higher K for the denominator, usually woodland. Native
130 woodland and grassland are expected to express structural K to a greater extent
131 leading to a similar RR; while, RR are expected to diverge to lower than 1 as
132 management increases under cropland. Note, the expectation that intensively
133 managed woodland, such as orchards, are also expected to have less structural
134 porosity compared to native grassland or woodland, and hence may present higher
135 RR. Initial survey of the global literature indicated that there were insufficient studies
136 to fully test the matrix including management, thus, a pragmatic approach was adopted
137 and the studies were aggregated into woodland (W), grassland (G) and cropland (C).
138 The dominant characteristics of the studies found were, native woodland, extensive
139 pasture and tilled cropland; with corn, maize and wheat being the dominant crop types
140 represented. Studies with cropping were considered during the growing season when
141 crop growth was active. Hence, three RR were determined between the different
142 major land uses (Fig 1C). By determining the RR for K, based on firm observational
143 evidence, for different land uses, factors can be obtained to adjust K predicted from

144 textural PTFs for different land uses, thus improving process description of surface
145 hydrology made with ESMs.

146 **Methods**

147 The analysis framework presented follows from the hypotheses using a
148 comparison of RR to test for the presence of an effect size for K when comparing the
149 following pooled land use combinations C/W; G/W and C/G. Given the aggregation of
150 the studies, a single effect size was not anticipated, but that there will be a range of
151 effect sizes, hence, the analysis was constrained to mixed effect models and not fixed
152 effect models (See supplementary for details of statistical methods). Soil K is highly
153 dependent on soil type, ranging from $>450 \text{ cm day}^{-1}$ in organic or sandy soils to $<8 \text{ cm}$
154 day^{-1} in clay soils(Gupta et al., 2021). Measurements of K or infiltration are made using
155 a number of different methods and at different degrees of soil saturation. Exploratory
156 data analysis was conducted using the reported K values for each land use. However,
157 in order to minimize differences due to measurement methods and soil types RR were
158 used. Structural porosity across a transition is expected to be hysteretic, with
159 degradation reducing structural pores much quicker than biological activity is able to
160 regenerate them, hence, Fig 1C indicates only the expected trajectory. Evidence for
161 this is supported by similar changes in soil organic matter(Or et al., 2021), compiled
162 for cropland / grassland transitions.

163 In order to complete the meta-analysis, a global database, comprising over 800
164 measurements of soil K or infiltration rate, was compiled from 58 papers, published in
165 the last four decades. The database includes both studies where K or infiltration
166 measurements were reported and were co-located and made on the same soil texture
167 and classification type but for different land uses i.e. C, G or W. The database also
168 contains ancillary data, where reported, such as latitude, climate (MAT & MAP), soil
169 type, texture, organic matter, crop type and whether the trees were broadleaf or needle
170 leaf. While other databases have been compiled for K measurements(Rahmati et al.,
171 2018), for each soil the data are on single land uses and thus do not easily support a
172 study on determining how land use affects K independently of soil texture and without
173 additional assumptions. The data reported here represents a latitudinal spread,
174 diversity in soil type for soil textures ranging from 75% sand to 75% clay; porosity
175 between $0.30\text{-}0.93 \text{ m}^3\text{m}^{-3}$ and soil organic carbon (SOC) between $1\text{-}25 \text{ g } 100 \text{ g soil}^{-1}$,

176 where reported. Some of the organic soils did not have SOC reported and are likely to
177 be close to 55 g 100 g soil⁻¹.

178

179 **Results and Discussion**

180 The meta-analysis shows that land use modifies K, given the same soil. Texture
181 based PTFs are shown to hold reasonably well for cropland, but diverge for grassland
182 and woodland. This is important because for global ESMs cropland covers only ~7%
183 of the land surface; while grassland covers 27% and woodland 26%(Ritchie and
184 Roser, 2013) (others, Glaciers 20%; Barren land 19%; shrubland 8%; urban 1%).
185 Analysis supports the use of PTFs to determine K for cropland soils, which tend to be
186 mineral soils with relatively low organic matter content; the determination of RR with
187 other land uses therefore offers the possibility to adjust K in a simple manner for the
188 same soil type. The study provides a first approximation of the expected difference in
189 K for different land uses using global data and it equips ESM modellers with simple
190 ratios as a starting point to adjust hydraulic behaviour based on land use.

191 **Global measurements of soil hydraulic conductivity and infiltration.**

192 The analysis extracted measurements from 58 papers from across the globe
193 (Fig 2). All papers contained data that allowed the calculation of RR values for at least
194 *GW* (182 *Qualitative WG*), whereas 30 papers yielded 79 *GW* RR with numbers and
195 error terms (*Quantitative WG*). Finally, 13 papers contained measurements for *C/G/W*
196 providing 34 RR, often with different woodland densities or crop types (*Quantitative*
197 *WGC*). Of those 13 studies, three used rainfall simulators to determine infiltration.
198 Noticeably, no data was found from the northern latitudes in Russia and few in Canada
199 or Australia. The data set gives a reasonable global coverage but appears to show a
200 bias, as expected, towards areas where land use change is a reported issue, South
201 America, Europe and the Eastern USA.

202 Initial data analysis compared the measured K with that predicted based on a
203 popular global PTF for study sites where soil texture was available. PTFs were
204 generated using the Rosetta1 program (<https://www.handbook60.org/home/>) which
205 uses machine learning based on a large soil database(Zhang and Schaap, 2017).
206 Rosetta-predicted PTFs based on sand, silt and clay, model H2 were then compared

207 with measured K values from the literature. Using a sensitivity plot (Fig 3) the median
208 value of the difference between measured vs predicted K will be zero if the PTF
209 predictions do not show bias compared with the measured data. It can be seen that
210 the cropland soil K measurements in the database minus the predicted PTF values
211 are similar, with a median deviation of 10 cm day^{-1} , ($n=19$, arithmetic mean measured
212 $K = 239 \text{ cm day}^{-1}$ or 63 cm day^{-1} when 2 outliers removed), i.e. the median deviation
213 is within an order of magnitude. The median deviations for grassland and woodland
214 are progressively greater than zero with the grassland median deviation being 46 cm
215 day^{-1} ($n=64$; mean measured $K = 203 \text{ cm day}^{-1}$) and the woodland median deviation
216 being 183 cm day^{-1} ($n=73$, mean measured $K = 1058 \text{ cm day}^{-1}$), both with right skew,
217 i.e. tending toward greater values. The data supports the use of PTFs for estimating
218 K for cropland soils that dominate the underlying global database and other similar
219 commonly used databases(Weynants et al., 2013; Wösten, 2000). This also means
220 cropland soil K predicted from global PTFs potentially serve as a lower boundary for
221 K in grasslands and woodlands, however, the magnitudes of K in land uses other than
222 cropland are clearly different based on Fig 3 and require the structural porosity to be
223 accounted for in some way.

224 Response ratios are ideal for determining differences between K for different
225 land uses independent of soil type and are summarised in Fig 4. A value of 1 indicates
226 no difference in RR between two land uses, whereas values less than 1 indicate higher
227 K in the denominator. Starting with croplands and grasslands (C/G), grasslands clearly
228 have higher K values than the same soil under cultivation. There are some distinct
229 outliers with $RR > 3$, these refer to a study in Nigeria on an Ultisol where the grass was
230 heavily grazed by cattle, likely reducing the grassland K compared to cultivated and
231 woodland soils(Mbagwu, 1997). The RR for croplands and woodlands (C/W) shows
232 that three quartiles have values with RR below 1, indicating higher K values in the
233 woodlands. The median for the grassland and woodland sites falls between the C/G
234 and C/W RR. Boxplot D in Fig 4 plots the G/W RR (*Quantitative WG*, $n=79$), while
235 boxplot E contains all the RR found (*Qualitative WG* $n=182$). Incorporating more
236 studies from C to D reduces the spread of data while marginally decreasing the median
237 of the bigger study (D). Increasing the number of studies from D to E maintains a
238 similar spread but decreases the median of E more. The data provide good evidence
239 that K is higher in woodlands than in other land uses on the same soil type. RR

240 between 2-3 correspond mostly to a study in China on loess soils(Yu et al., 2015). The
241 study site was part of an afforestation scheme where the woodland was planted in the
242 1980's with black locust, while the grassland was abandoned cropland and allowed to
243 regenerate, both without human management. The researchers measured fine root
244 density, showing that in the surface horizons density was almost twice as high under
245 the grassland as under woodland or cropland. They also observed that the woodland
246 was compacted when afforested and structural porosity didn't rebound. Therefore,
247 those woodland sites had similar bulk densities to those in cropland, explaining the
248 higher infiltration rates observed in the grasslands.

249 Meta-analysis was conducted on the data to determine the mean effect size
250 using the "meta" package in R(Schwarzer et al., 2015) which is a more robust analysis
251 that uses more of the data than simply comparing medians; however, it means limiting
252 the analysis to the *quantitative WGC* and *WG* data sets, given they contained the
253 required replicate numbers and error terms for analysis. A random effects model was
254 chosen because the assumption of the fixed effects model, that all studies come from
255 the same population, is unlikely, as previously discussed. Hence, interpretation using
256 the results of the random effects model is emphasised. The results are summarized in
257 Table 2. All studies indicated high degrees of heterogeneity using the I^2 measure,
258 which indicates the percentage of variation across studies; due to heterogeneity and
259 not chance(Higgins and Thompson, 2002). This being the case, the random-effects
260 model used was more appropriate as it doesn't assume that sampling error alone
261 explains the effect size, but that there is another source of variance given that the
262 studies are drawn from a distribution of populations (environments, etc). High
263 heterogeneity is to be expected with measurements of K where it is considered that
264 effect size, in reality, is from a distribution of effect sizes. This makes physical sense
265 because different soils may have the same porosity but different levels of connectivity
266 and tortuosity yielding a distribution of K values. Moreover, the direction of land use
267 change for most studies is unknown, with an anticipated change in K being hysteretic,
268 giving a spread of K for similar physical conditions depending on whether the soil is
269 degrading or regenerating. This will depend on a variety of intrinsic biological (e.g. root
270 growth, bioturbation), physical (e.g. particle shape, orientation and arrangement) and
271 management factors. This is intuitively why H_1 makes sense, in that there should be

272 differences in land use RR, as these factors, especially rooting and direction of
273 transition, are generally unaccounted for.

274 Looking at the *quantitative* data set of all C/G/W, soil K between cropland and
275 woodland on the same soil type (C/W) (n=13) showed an effect size of 0.45 and a
276 moderate heterogeneity if outliers were removed as calculated by the random effect
277 model (Table 2). The reciprocal value for the mean random effect size (1/0.45) gives
278 a slightly more intuitive value, indicating that K in woodlands is ~2.2 times greater than
279 in croplands. Comparing K between cropland and grassland, the effect size of 0.77
280 and its reciprocal suggests that K is only 1.3 times greater in grassland than cropland.
281 Lastly, differences in K between grassland and woodland (n=13, outliers removed)
282 was 0.63 and its reciprocal of 1.59 times higher K in woodland than grassland.

283 Unfortunately, most studies do not indicate if the grassland was grazed or
284 ungrazed, or mention the intensity of grazing. However, it was observed that studies
285 indicating native grassland tended to have RR of 1, supporting the assertions in Table
286 1. Moreover, this also supports the contention that compaction in grasslands with
287 grazing is one of the drivers of the effect size between G and W, and that the effect
288 might be expected to be less if more native grasslands were observed. The effect
289 sizes support the analysis with the medians (Fig 4) and confirm the order, that K in
290 Woodland > Grassland > Cropland for the aggregated land use data. The data for the
291 grassland and woodland indicates that more than doubling the size of the data set had
292 only a marginal impact on the effect size increasing from 1.59 to 1.75 for G/W (Table
293 1), suggesting that the effect size values obtained for the smaller set of studies (n=13)
294 that included results for all three land uses, are representative results.

295 **Hydraulic response ratios and ancillary data.**

296 Hydraulic RR were correlated with a range of ancillary data to look for any
297 potential relationships. No distinct patterns were observed for the G/W RR with latitude
298 (Fig 5A), or soil type (Fig 5B; The pale blue points indicate there was data but it did
299 not specify leaf type or soil type). Figure 6 A&B compared the G/W RR with the soils'
300 sand and clay content, again no discernible pattern was observable. Figure 6 C&D
301 compared the G/W RR with the porosity (C) and soil organic carbon, SOC (D) ratios
302 respectively. A porosity or SOC ratio of 1 indicates both woodland and grassland have
303 the same porosity or SOC content. Values below 1 indicate woodland has higher

304 values (porosity or SOC), while values above 1 indicate grassland has higher values.
305 The data for porosity (Fig. 6C) indicates in general that woodland has higher porosities
306 and that this is consistent with higher K values (lower RR). The same pattern is not as
307 distinct with SOC (Fig. 6D) as there are substantial numbers of data with SOC G/W
308 higher than 1. While data suggest that woodlands often have higher porosity, this is
309 not necessarily dependent on having higher SOC content, perhaps suggesting other
310 factors such as root morphology and structure in the woodlands, or compaction in
311 grasslands, may be at play(Chandler et al., 2018).

312 Further exploring the relationship of the RR for G/W with porosity, an attempt
313 was made to extract additional information that helped isolate factors that could be
314 contributing to the differences (Fig. 7). Figure 7 is the same as Fig. 6C, but with studies
315 where grazing intensity could be identified. By extracting this qualitative grazing
316 intensity information from the articles, it was possible to pick out sites that specifically
317 mentioned that there was no grazing (green), or that the site was heavily grazed (red
318 dots), which is a useful indicator of compaction in grasslands. We found that RR
319 identified as outliers were associated with heavy cattle grazing in one study(Mbagwu,
320 1997). In addition, Fig. 7 contains a black line that is a PTF modelled response for K
321 that would be expected based on keeping soil texture constant and altering only the
322 porosity. The Rosetta1 program was used to predict K with parameters (60%sand,
323 20%silt and 20%clay) and the bulk density varied between (0.90-1.86 g cm⁻³; porosity
324 0.66-0.30). The reference bulk density was 1.3 g cm⁻³ with response ratios calculated
325 based on K at the equivalent porosity. The interpretation of the data around the line is
326 that the RR values can simply be accounted for by the change in K expected as the
327 bulk density (porosity) changes. Most of the green data points, where grazing wasn't
328 present follow this curve, indicating that changes to RR are due to the difference in
329 bulk density between the grassland and woodland. However, this also indicates that
330 the red dots, indicating heavy grazing, cannot be accounted for by changes in porosity
331 alone. This is interpreted as the heavy grazing altering other factors such as pore
332 connectivity or soil sealing resulting in lower K in the grasslands than would be
333 expected for the given porosity. This insight is important suggesting that in soils not
334 subject to compaction changes in bulk density or porosity, which may be due to SOM
335 or rooting, can account for changes in K. However, compaction results in alteration to
336 the pore connectivity resulting in lower values of K. This supports the previous

337 assertion that in native grassland and woodland similar values of porosity and K
338 emerge, in the absence of grazing. This is most likely driven by bulk density that is a
339 function of SOM and rooting as previously proposed. The results also suggest that
340 estimating K for grasslands may be more uncertain when grazing status is unknown.

341

342 **Comparison with the literature.**

343 The results indicate that land use is an important factor influencing K, most
344 likely with land use acting as a surrogate for both biological (root and faunal) and
345 anthropogenic activities (compaction by machinery or grazing). This interpretation is
346 supported by recent research that shows the importance of tree species and rooting
347 on hydraulic function(Webb, 2021), something that PTFs do not explicitly account for.
348 It is known that root architectures differ across plant types, species and
349 biomes(Schenk and Jackson, 2002), and reflect different strategies for accessing
350 nutrient and water resources while maintaining stability. Hence, intuitively one would
351 expect the vegetation to modify the effective soil hydraulic characteristics. Moreover,
352 we recognise that the link the plant growth and rooting means that there is likely a
353 temporal dynamic to K that can be attributed to both management such as
354 tillage(Green et al., 2003), root dynamics and land use more broadly(Hu et al., 2012;
355 Hu et al., 2009). Indeed, it is an important ambition in soil physics research and linked
356 modelling applications that the temporal variability of such properties is accounted for.
357 Given management and plant growth in particular impact this, this meta-analysis goes
358 some way to illustrating the importance of at least the vegetation component. At
359 present, the data are limited if at all available, and most (if not all) hydrological models
360 are unable to account for seasonally variable soil hydraulic properties without the
361 model being stopped and re-parameterized.

362 The soil science community has historically focused on covering spatial
363 variability of K by repeated measurements (and reported mean values based on
364 replicates), which has a comparable or often even greater degree of variability than
365 the temporal change. This has its imprint on data availability in both national and the
366 most broadly used international databases in soil physics and hydrology research (e.g.
367 UNSODA, HYPRES, EU-HYDI, GRIZZLY, WISE or NRCS-NSSC). These databases
368 severely underrepresent soils under grasslands, but especially woodlands, and they

369 are yet to facilitate credible, generalizable research on temporal evolution/variability of
370 K despite the subject's recognized importance. For a recent acknowledgement of the
371 unresolved problem of temporal variability in global soil hydrology see van Looy et
372 al(Van Looy et al., 2017). Whilst acknowledging these issues, the validity of our
373 findings is under the assumption that temporal variability is embedded in the statistical
374 distribution of sampling (times) under each of the examined land uses, and minimised
375 by focusing on the growing season. This global meta-analysis supports the findings,
376 limited for drylands, of the importance of biotic factors in determining soil hydraulic
377 properties(Thompson et al., 2010) and lends support to the work in(Bonetti et al.,
378 2021) developing a framework to incorporate such processes in hydrological process
379 models. In arid systems the enhancement of infiltration capacity due to vegetation is
380 well documented(Thompson et al., 2010); Thompson et al.(Thompson et al., 2010)
381 showed that infiltration increased with biomass in arid ecosystems. Furthermore,
382 modification of hydraulic properties by vegetation plays an important role in both the
383 water balance and the spatial structure of vegetation, often resulting in pattern
384 formation due to feedbacks(Rietkerk et al., 2004). Compaction caused by machinery
385 or animals is challenging to measure spatially, but as shown, even a simple
386 assessment of grazing intensity such as low, medium or high, could prove useful in
387 interpreting and understanding hydraulic processes and developing adjustment
388 factors for modelling exercises.

389 Land use transitions and their direction are likely to be important in determining
390 the level of structural porosity and hydraulic function. It is known for example that SOC
391 plays an important role in determining soil bulk density or porosity(Reynolds et al.,
392 2013; Robinson et al., 2022). Moreover, compilations of results showing the change
393 of SOC through time after a transition from cropland to grassland or grassland to
394 cropland indicate that the degradation and loss of SOC transitioning from cropland to
395 grassland is much quicker than regeneration(Or et al., 2021). Given that the total pore
396 space is related to the SOC it is more than likely that the direction of the transition will
397 impact K and RR. Studies found in this work, such as(Yu et al., 2015) support this
398 potentially slow regeneration path, where they found that K didn't increase under
399 plantation woodland, with the soil having remained compacted from the time of
400 planting. This shows that care must be taken, to avoid unintended consequences, and

401 maximise soil regeneration when it comes to afforestation or agro-forestry used to
402 mitigate climate change or increase functional agro-biodiversity (FAB).

403 The results indicate complex interactions with land use that result in a
404 quantifiable increase in K from C<G<W. The results in this work are also consistent
405 with(Jarvis et al., 2013); using multiple linear regression techniques they found that
406 the saturated hydraulic conductivity, Ks, in topsoil (< 0.3 m depth) was only weakly
407 related to texture, but depended more on bulk density (porosity), SOM, and land use
408 and management factors. The regression analysis, not based on paired sites,
409 indicated that intensive agriculture reduced topsoil Ks by, on average, a factor of ca.
410 2 to 3 compared to perennial agriculture, natural vegetation and forests; the results
411 are in firm agreement with the findings presented in this work.

412 The results in this work, using co-located K measurements on the same soil
413 type, under different land uses, puts this finding on a more robust footing, with tangible
414 effect sizes that might be used as K adjustment parameters for vegetation type in
415 biophysical models and ESMs. Both this, and the study of Jarvis et al. (2013) indicate
416 that it is the disturbance by tillage, and its associated effects on soil, that leads to K
417 being dominated by textural porosity. It implies that one of the degradation effects of
418 cropping is the loss of structural porosity and reversion of hydraulic characteristics to
419 those predominantly related to soil texture. Our understanding of soil hydraulic
420 properties across biomes is skewed by a paucity of measurements in pristine or native
421 ecosystems and much better data for croplands(Rahmati et al., 2018). However, even
422 for cultivated soils Green et al. (Green et al., 2003) argued that the greatest challenge
423 for the future was to improve the process-based prediction of hydraulic properties
424 using a systems approach to include tightly coupled process interactions in space and
425 time.

426 The results presented here indicate that while there is a spread about the
427 median prediction using PTFs, this spread is much greater for grassland and woodland
428 soils and needs to be understood. Further research is needed, but it may well be that
429 relatively undisturbed soils in grassland and woodland converge on an emergent state
430 with similar structural characteristics and hydraulic function at maturity. The results
431 suggest how further research could be improved in the following ways:

- 432
- Experimentalists should always report means with uncertainty and the number of replicates for inclusion in the meta-analysis methodology.
- 433
- Experiments incorporating a measurable degree of compaction may shed light on the structural impact that grazing or land use has on K, over and above changes to porosity.
- 434
- Rooting metrics are rarely presented in hydraulic studies, and determining how root traits impact K would be valuable in linking K prediction to vegetation when soil texture is held constant.
- 435
- Determining the extent to which K depends on SOM, roots and the interplay with different plant species and their diversity would provide new insight.
- 436
- Incorporating temporal dynamics into K due to management and roots will require the above. Potential may exist for linking K dynamics to root trait libraries.
- 437
- Studies which include a broader set of land uses would be helpful, the number of studies with reliable data for three land uses was limited in the literature. Data for shrubs would be a useful addition.
- 438
- Determining a surrogate measure for bulk density or porosity, related to land use, would be helpful to determine this parameter for PTF input and improved prediction.
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452 The approach adopted in this work means that evidence based adjustment
453 factors for ESMS for predicting K under different land uses are provided. Land surface
454 modellers are aware that infiltration behaviour is affected by land use, despite a
455 paucity of empirical evidence in the literature. Of the handful of ESMS, the Joint UK
456 Land Environment Simulator (JULES)(Best et al., 2011; Blyth et al., 2010; Clark et al.,
457 2011) tries to account for land use altering infiltration by introducing empirical
458 correction factors to the hydraulic properties to constrain infiltration with a maximum
459 value (I_{max}) (Table 3). In the standard version of JULES the maximum infiltration is
460 given by $I_{max} = \beta K_s$, where K_s is determined from a Brooks and Corey or van
461 Genuchten PTF and β is an infiltration enhancement factor(Best et al., 2011; Largeon
462 et al., 2018) which varies from 4 for broadleaf and needle leaf trees, to 0.5 for bare
463 soil and with grasslands in-between at 2. It is unclear how these enhancement factors
464 were derived, but most likely from calibration in different biomes or catchments similar

465 to rainfall interception(Johannes Dolman and Gregory, 1992). Comparison with the
466 meta-analysis results suggests these are appropriate as a general upper bound for
467 woodland and grassland but too low with respect to cropland or bare soil. The findings
468 here for example indicate that a standard PTF from Rosetta(Schaap et al., 2001)
469 predicts K in cropland without major bias (Fig 3). Grassland, was 1.3 times greater,
470 while woodland was 2.2 times greater. Determining more appropriate values and
471 bounds for β and the implementation of infiltration in models like JULES, will be
472 important for improving the hydraulic representation of processes within ESMs,
473 perhaps more importantly, like us, the JULES modellers recognise that β is an
474 adjustable parameter that likely has a distribution depending on land use and
475 management(Largergeron et al., 2018; Van den Hoof et al., 2011).

476 While substantial areas of the globe are under agricultural management, there
477 is clearly a need to obtain empirical evidence for soil K values in more pristine
478 ecosystems. This will determine whether soils converge to an emergent structural
479 condition with associated porosity and K on the same soil type but under different land
480 uses. Both this study and others (Jarvis et al., 2013) point to this being the case and
481 it needs to be understood and incorporated into land surface models to improve
482 hydrological and climate modelling. Finding a surrogate measure for bulk density or
483 porosity is key and land use might at least provide some estimation. Correction factors
484 are proposed based on cultivated soils, for which PTFs are better established, it is
485 then intuitive to consider native or pristine systems as requiring adjustment for the
486 presence of structural porosity, appreciating that these higher values may be reduced
487 through degradation, either by change of land use, management or compaction. By
488 documenting K for an emergent state in native woodland or grassland a much better
489 understanding of the processes and factors that lead to a reduction in K due to different
490 forms of degradation may be obtained. Moreover, this may lead to a much better
491 representation of the impact of anthropogenic activities on soil hydraulic function and
492 global hydrological cycling in response to both land use and climate change.

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495

496 Data availability statement

497 The data presented in this study were compiled from literature references that are all
498 provided in the supplemental data.

499

500 The authors declare that all other data supporting the findings of this study are
501 available within the article and its Supplementary Information files, or are available
502 from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

503

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513

514 Table 1. Matrix for the hypothesised impact of land use on soil hydraulic conductivity
 515 ratios. (G/W); (C/W) & (C/G) (~ indicating about the same).

			Grassland (G)			Cropland (C)	
			G1	G2	G3	C1	C2
			Native grassland	Extensive pasture	Intensive pasture	No / min tillage	Deep tillage
Woodland (W)	W1	Native woodland	1 (G/W)	<1	<<1	<1 (C/W)	<<1
	W2	Silvo pasture / savannah	>1	1	<1	1	<<1
	W3	Managed orchards / plantations	>>1	>1	1	1	<1
Grassland (G)	G1	Native grassland				<1 (C/G)	<1
	G2	Extensive pasture				~1	~1
	G3	Intensive pasture				~>1	~>1

516

517 Table 2 Meta-analysis results for soil hydraulic conductivity Response Ratios (RR) for comparison of K on cropland (C), grassland
 518 (G) and woodland (W) soils. The smaller the number the more dominant the denominator. Inverse response ratios are given in round
 519 brackets e.g. woodland is 2.21 times higher than crops. The grey rows are prior to outlier removal and the black rows are after. Outlier
 520 removal reduced the heterogeneity (I^2) in the dataset from substantial to moderate.

Land use response ratio	Random effects model Effect size, lower CI, upper CI, and inverse in round brackets to 2d.p.	Heterogeneity (I^2) [lower CI, upper CI]	Median 2d.p.	Number of studies
1) RR C/W	0.4337 [0.3301; 0.5698]	91.4% [89.1%; 93.2%]	0.54	13 studies 34 RR combinations
2) RR C/W Outliers removed	0.4535 [0.3553; 0.5788] (1/0.45=2.21) Expt n = 187; Control n = 219	65.5% [44.7%; 78.5%]	0.54	7 studies after outliers removed 20 RR combinations
3) RR C/G No outliers	0.7696 [0.5860; 1.0107] (1/0.77=1.30) Expt n = 228; Control n = 230	90.2% [87.1%; 92.6%]	0.84	13 studies 28 RR combinations
4) RR G/W	0.5416 [0.4039; 0.7263]	96.8% [96.2%; 97.3%]	0.60	13 studies 34 RR combinations
5) RR G/W Outliers removed	0.6327 [0.5019; 0.7977] (1/0.63=1.59) Expt n = 198; Control n = 171	52.9% [20.6%; 72.0%]	0.60	7 studies after outliers removed 19 RR combinations
6) RR G/W	0.4898 [0.4127; 0.5813] (1/0.49=2.04)	99.9%	0.60	30 studies 79 RR combinations
7) RR G/W Outliers removed	0.5676 [0.4907; 0.6565] (1/0.57=1.75) Expt n = 437; Control n = 405	51.6% [30.4%; 66.3%]	0.62	19 studies 40 RR combinations
8) RR G/W	NA	NA	0.41	58 studies 182 RR combinations

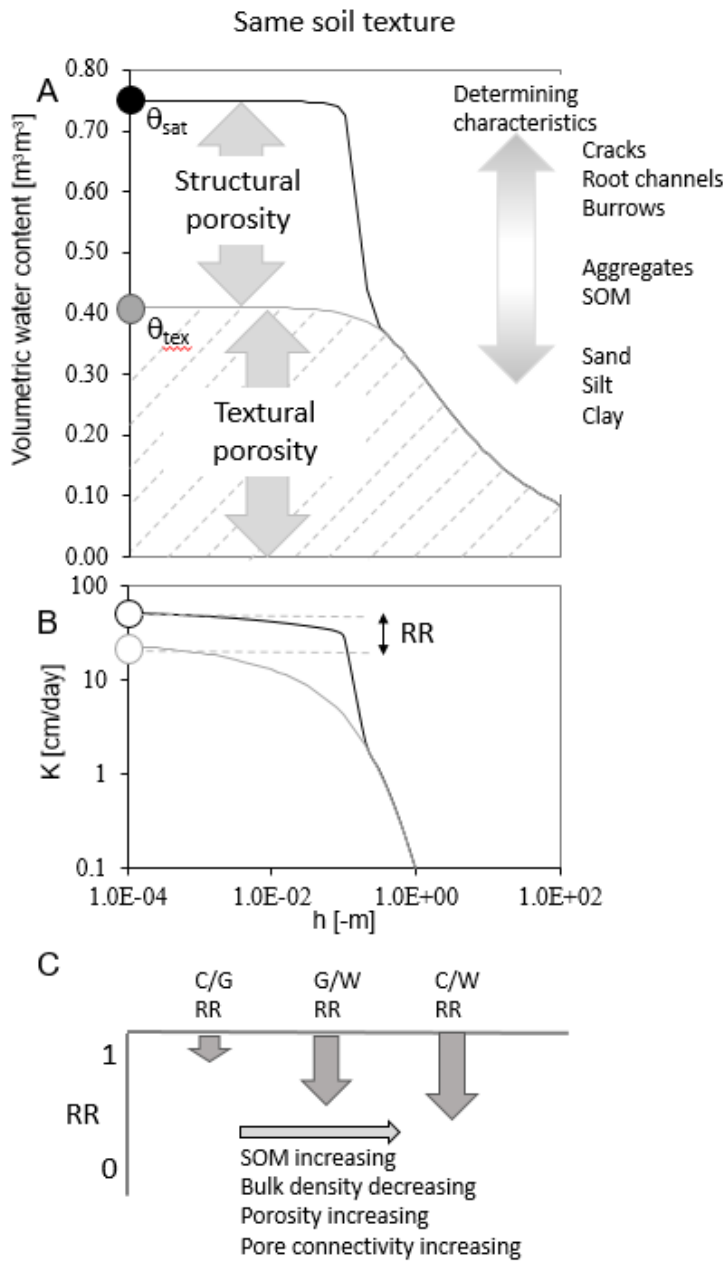
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523 Table 3 comparison of lookup values for the maximum infiltration rate ($I_{max} = \beta K_s$) used in JULES, with the response ratios
 524 determined in this work. Based on the results in Fig3 for PTF predictions for croplands, we place cultivated, or bare soil with a value
 525 of 1.00.

5 Plant Functional Types in JULES	β value to determine I_{max} , upper bound	Surface infiltration response ratio this work, corresponding to cropland = 1.00
•Broadleaf trees	4.00	2.21 (1.73-2.81)
•Needleleaf trees	4.00	2.21 (1.73-2.81)
•Temperate grass	2.00	1.30 (0.99-1.71)
•Tropical grass	2.00	1.30 (0.99-1.71)
•Shrub	2.00	Not determined in this work
4 Non Vegetated Surfaces		
•Urban	0.10	NA
•Inland water	NA	NA
•Bare Soil	0.50	1.00
•Ice	NA	NA

526



528

529 Figure 1. A, water retention curve with suction, h (-m) along the x-axis for A&B, showing the
 530 textural and structural hydraulic regions with the dominant characteristics that determine the
 531 properties of each region listed on the right. B, the corresponding hydraulic conductivity (K)
 532 with the grey line indicating the textural contribution to K and the black line the structural
 533 contribution. The expected change in response ratio (RR) when comparing cropland,
 534 grassland and woodland (RR of 1 indicates numerator and denominator are the same, values
 535 less than 1 that the denominator is greater).

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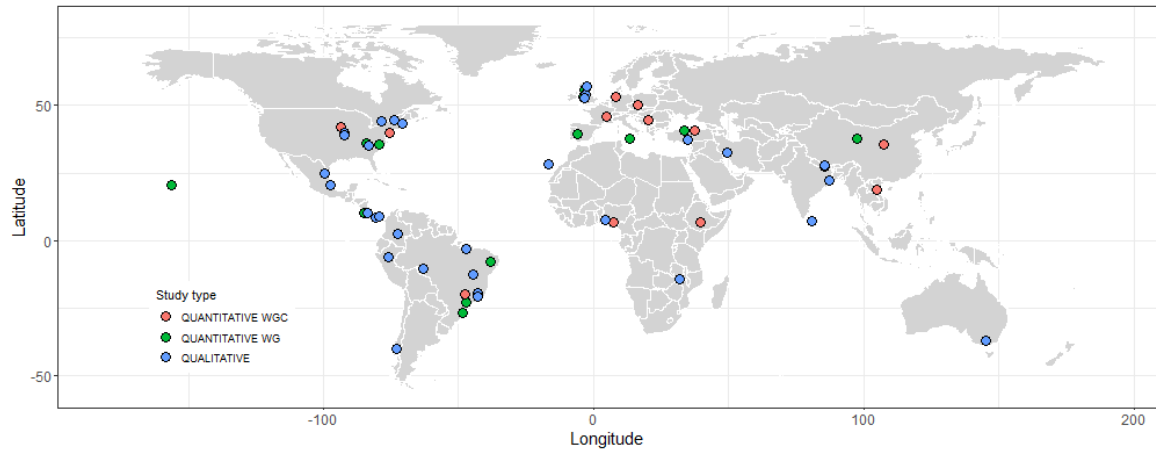


Fig. 2 Locations of the 58 study sites where published hydraulic conductivity and infiltration data allowed the calculation of response ratios (RR). The red dots show sites where information was available for woodland, grassland and cropland; green dots are where only woodland and grassland data were available, and the blue dots show the rest of the dataset that provides qualitative supporting data on response ratios but lacked details on the variance and number of replicates to be included in this meta-analysis.

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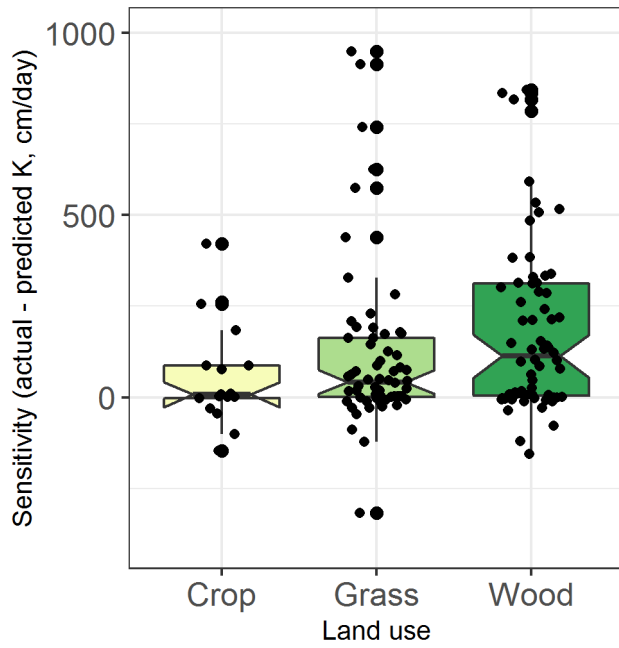


Fig 3. Sensitivity plot showing the actual (measured) K minus the predicted K using PTF and soil texture information. The data show that the median K for cropland is close to zero indicating unbiased correspondence between the measured and predicted K. Measured and predicted K increasingly diverge for grassland and woodland, indicating that these land uses have higher K values than predicted using the PTF.

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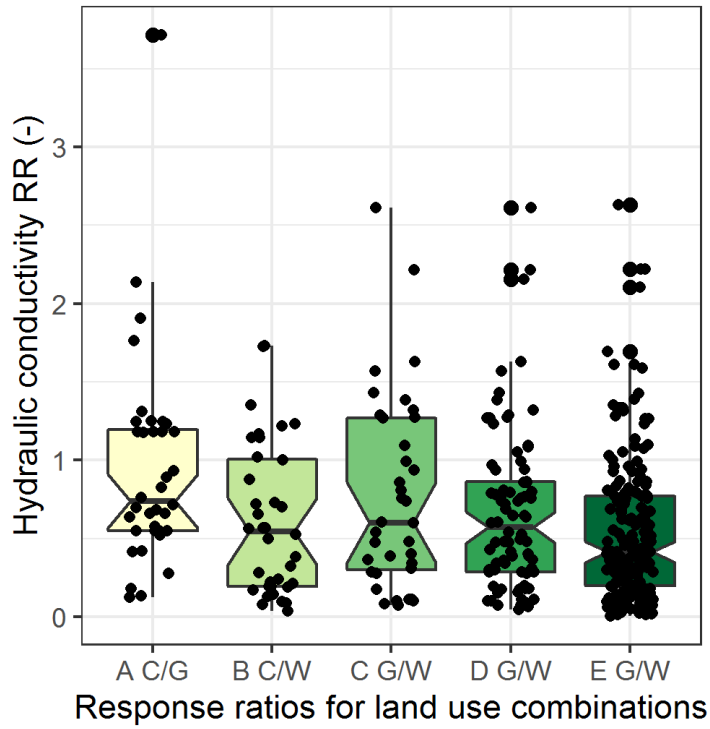


Fig. 4 Hydraulic conductivity response ratios (RR) as a function of the different land use comparisons as published. Medians of RR less than 1 indicate that the hydraulic conductivity (K) of the denominator is higher than the numerator. A, B and C are the main data set for C/G/W. D is the larger data set for G/W and E is the extended grassland / woodland data set with all available RR.

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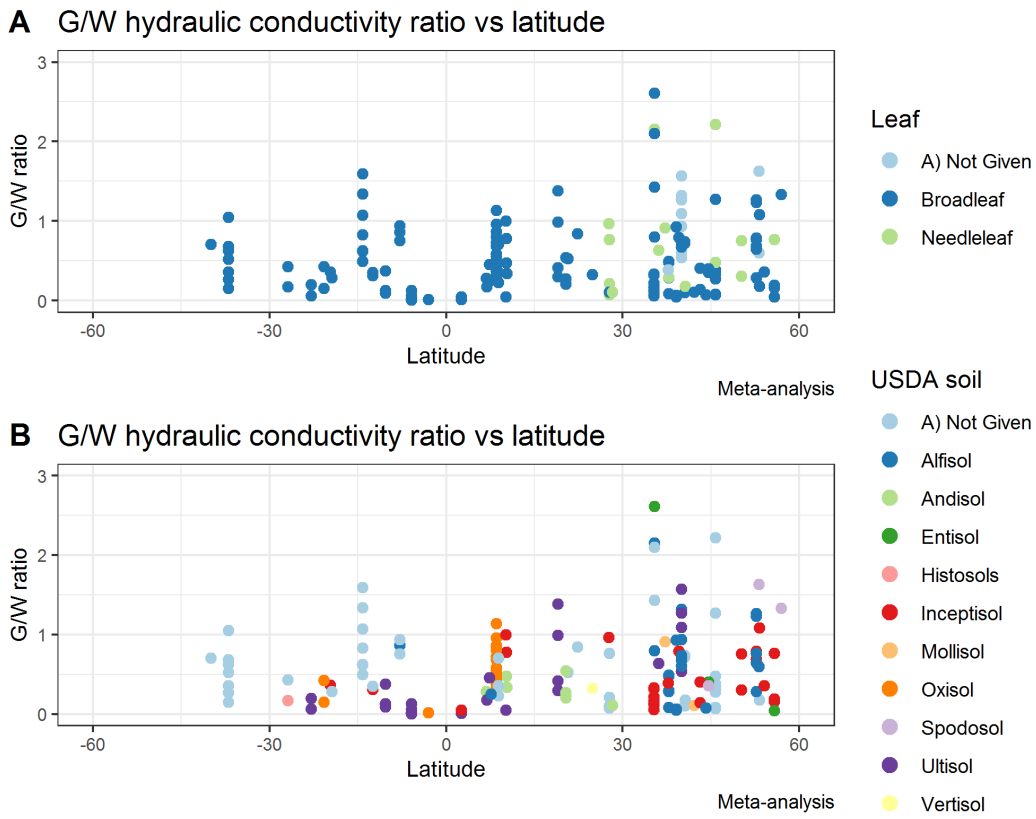
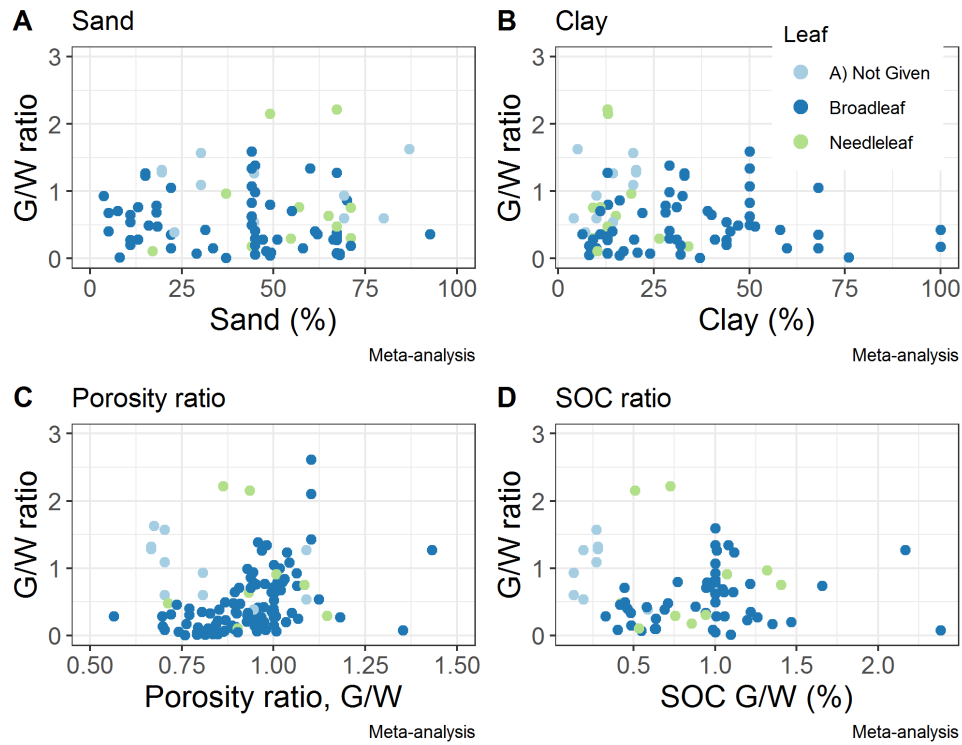


Fig. 5 Response ratios (RR) for G/W as a function of latitude. A is coloured by woodland leaf type while B is coloured by soil type. The pale blue colour indicates data but with no leaf or soil type given.



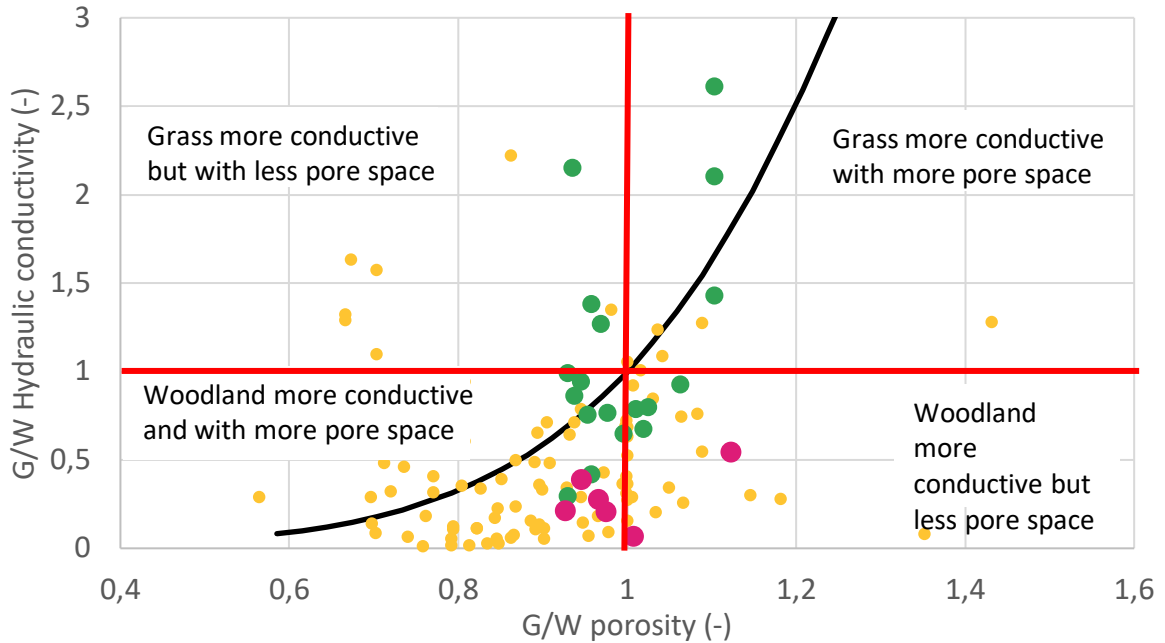
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576 Fig. 6 Response ratios (RR) for G/W as a function of soil texture (A and B), where
 577 values lower than 1 indicate higher values of K in woodlands. RR for G/W with
 578 difference ratios for porosity and SOC on the x-axis. A difference ratio of 1 on the x-
 579 axis indicating no difference, whereas values below 1 indicate higher values in
 580 woodland and those above 1 higher values in grassland.

581

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584

585 Fig. 7 The K response ratio (RR) for G/W vs the difference in porosity RR (Fig 6C).
586 Where the red lines meet there is no difference between the woodland and grassland
587 samples. The colours represent: green, native or no grazing; red heavily grazed and
588 orange everything else. The black line is the expected K (RR) for a generic soil
589 (60%sand, 20%silt and 20%clay) and the porosity difference determined from bulk
590 density where a bulk density of 1.3 (porosity = 0.51) is set as the reference. Modelled
591 with Rosetta (Skaggs, 2022: <https://www.handbook60.org/rosetta/>).

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682

Supplementary information

Global meta-analysis of soil hydraulic properties on the same soils with differing land use

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Methods

Prisma method

PRISMA (Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic reviews and Meta-Analyses) methodology was used for this study with the relevant material and methods detailed further on.

Data preparation and meta-analysis

Searches were conducted in the literature using Google Scholar and Scopus (see supplemental information). Data was extracted from papers identified from the structured searches. The data were converted to common units and as much ancillary data was extracted as possible. Meta-analysis was undertaken using the Meta package in R¹ and following the procedures described in². Data were visualised using a combination of Forest, Baujat, Funnel and GOSH plots. The Forest plots were used to visualise the data and determine the RR using a random effects model. Baujat plots and funnel plots were used to identify the influence of studies and data heterogeneity respectively. In addition, Graphic display of heterogeneity (GOSH) plots were used to explore the patterns of heterogeneity for the random effects model. Outliers were detected and removed using the function call `find.outliers`, which detects and removes outliers using the `dmetar` package described in². Eggers' test of the intercept for bias was used to determine the presence of funnel plot asymmetry. Data were accepted for analysis when there was no asymmetry.

Cropland and Woodlands (C/W): In Table 1 (main text) rows 1 & 2 contain the data for the cropland and woodland (C/W), based on 13 studies that contained measurements for cropland, grassland and woodland. The results in pale grey represent all 13 studies, while on the row below the data set has had the outliers removed. The effect size increases marginally from 0.4337 to 0.4535, with the forest plot for the data with outliers removed presented in Fig S1a. The between-study heterogeneity variance reduced from $\tau^2 = 0.5432$ [0.3631; 1.2563] to $\tau^2 = 0.1544$ [0.0482; 0.6479], with an I^2 value that dropped from 91.4% [89.1%; 93.2%] to an $I^2 = 65.5%$ [44.7%; 78.5%] after outlier removal. Plots are presented for the influence, Baujat plot (Fig S1b) and heterogeneity, funnel plot (Fig S1c). The Eggers' test confirming the absence of funnel plot asymmetry following the removal of the outliers. Further exploration of the effect size and heterogeneity was conducted using a GOSH³ plot (Fig S1d) which shows relative homogeneity for the effect size and the absence of clustering. While the heterogeneity shows some spread and a cluster close to zero.

S1a Corresponding to Table 1 (main text) row 2. Meta-analysis for C/W response ratios after outliers removed shown using a forest plot.

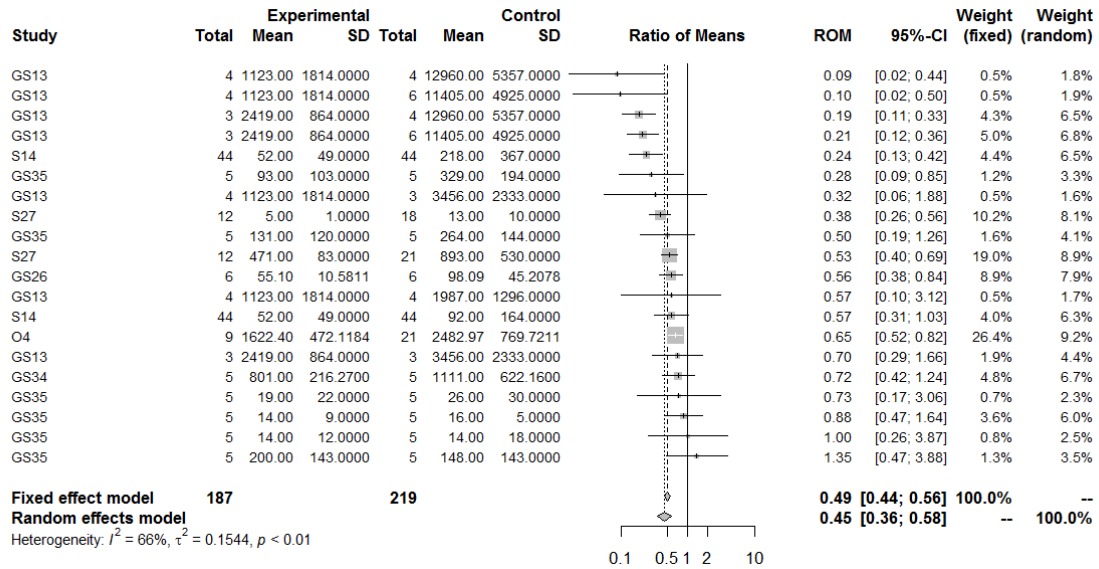


Fig S1b Corresponding to Table 1 (main text) row 2. Baujat plot and S1c funnel plot indicating the influence and data heterogeneity patterns for the C/W (n=7 studies, 20 RR). Eggers' test of the intercept for bias, intercept -0.756; 95% CI [-2.13 - 0.61]; t -1.081; p 0.2939785. Eggers' test does not indicate the presence of funnel plot asymmetry.

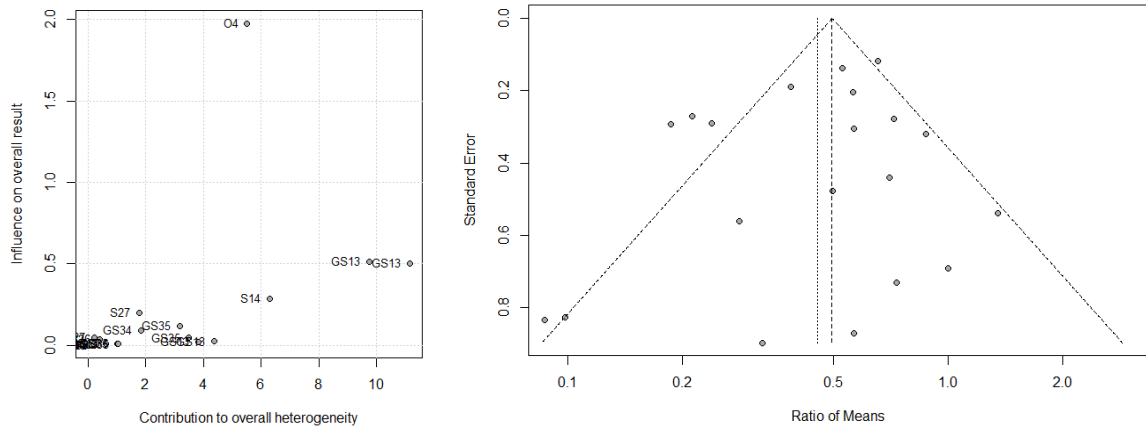
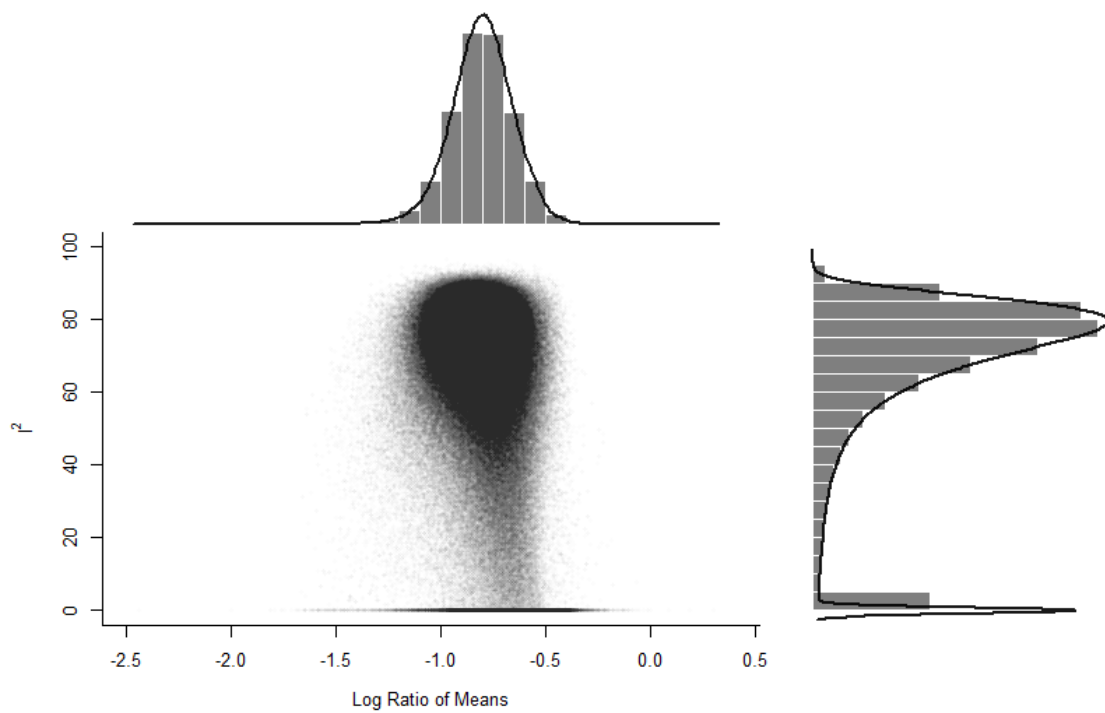


Figure S1d Corresponding to Table 1 (main text) row 2. Graphic display of heterogeneity (GOSH) plot to explore the patterns of heterogeneity for the random effects model Trikalinos 2012)



Cropland and Grassland (C/G): In Table 1 (main text) row 3 contains the data for the cropland and grassland (C/G), based on the same 13 studies, with no outliers detected. The effect size = 0.7696 [0.5860; 1.0107] and its reciprocal 1.3 indicated a small but significant increase in K in grassland compared to cropland. The forest plot for the data is presented in Fig S2a. The between-study heterogeneity variance was high $\tau^2 = 0.4179$ [0.2289; 0.9423], with an I^2 value of 90.2% [87.1%; 92.6%]. The corresponding Baujat plot for the influence is (Fig S2b) and the funnel plot for heterogeneity is (Fig S2c). The Eggers' test confirms the absence of funnel plot asymmetry. The GOSH plot (Fig S2d) shows relative homogeneity for the effect size and the absence of clusters, but the range is quite broad

S2a Corresponding to Table 1 (main text) row 3. Meta-analysis for C/G response ratios after outliers removed shown using a forest plot.

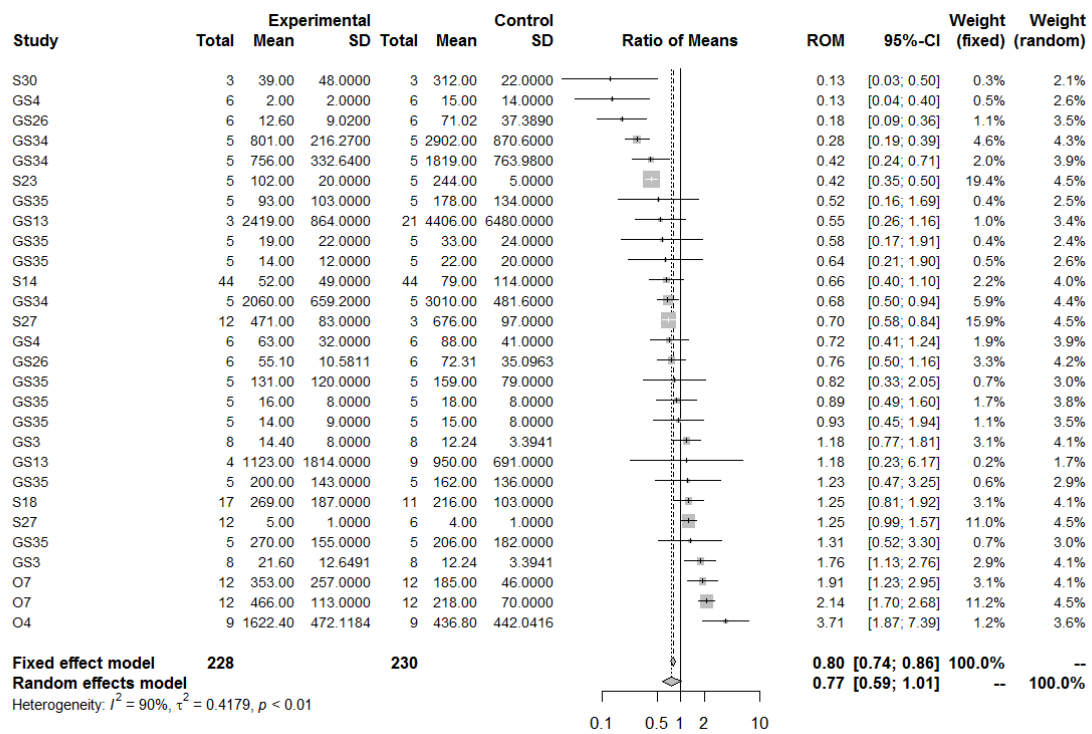


Fig S2b Corresponding to Table 1 (main text) row 3. Baujat plot and S2c funnel plot indicating the influence and data heterogeneity patterns for the C/G RR (n=13 studies, RR = 28). Eggers' test of the intercept for bias, intercept -0.069; 95% CI [-2.28 – 2.15]; t -0.061; p 0.9520215. Eggers' test does not indicate the presence of funnel plot asymmetry.

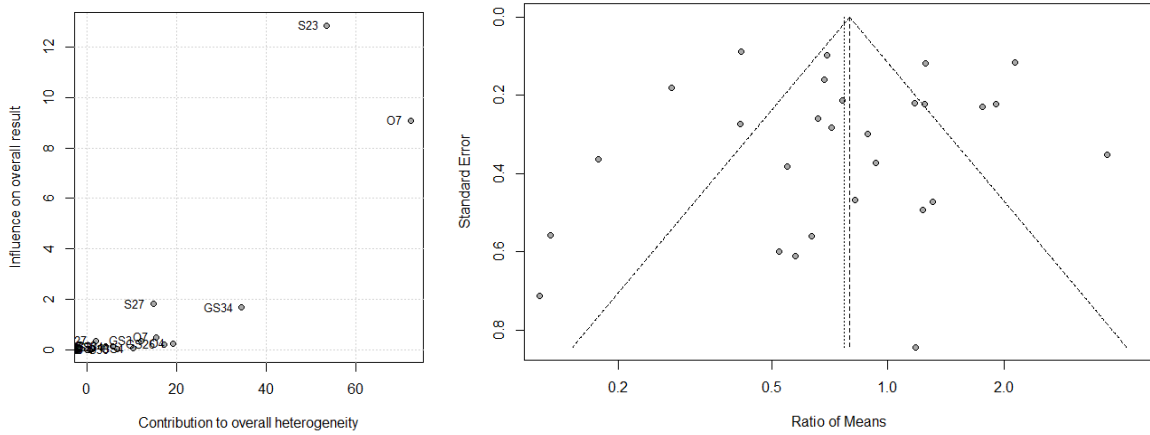
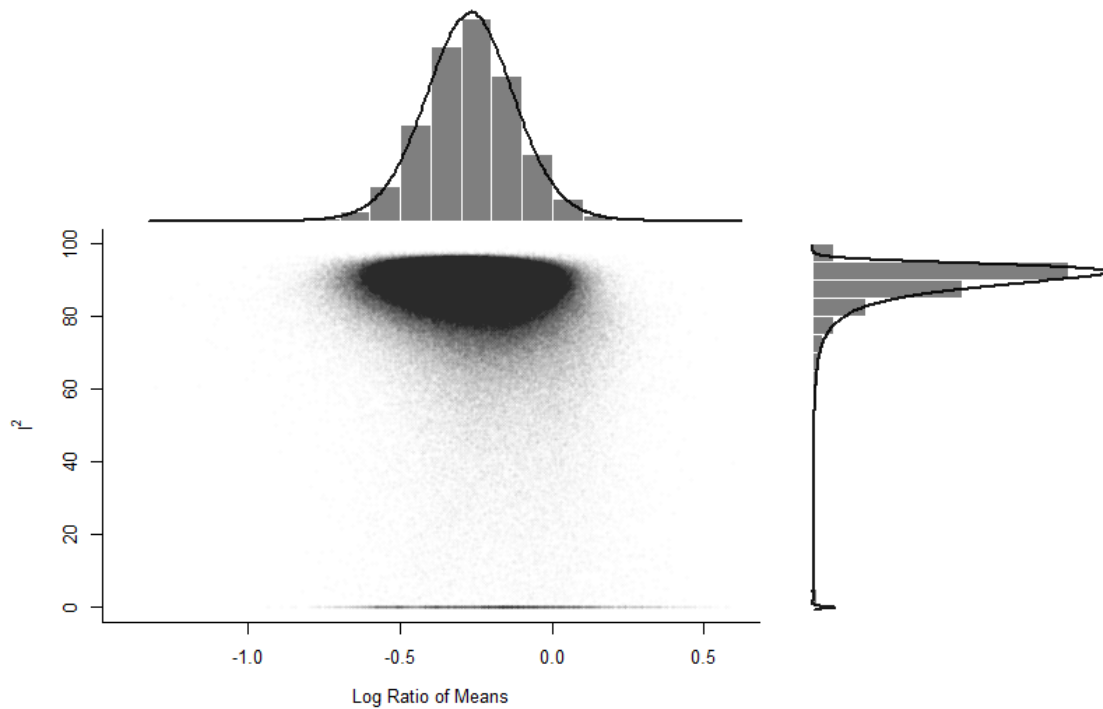


Figure S2d Corresponding to Table 1 (main text) row 3. GOSH plot for random effects



Grassland and Woodlands (G/W): In Table 1 (main text) rows 4-8 contain data for the grassland and woodland (G/W), results for the 13 studies (C/G/W) are in rows 4 and 5 (outliers removed), while the results from the larger data set of 30 studies are in rows 6 and, with the outliers removed, 7; row 8 contains the median of data for all 58 studies and 182 RR. The effect size for the 13 studies increased from 0.5415 to 0.6327 after the outliers were removed, with the forest plot for the data with outliers removed presented are in Fig S4a. The between-study heterogeneity variance reduced from $\tau^2 = 0.6471$ [0.3341; 1.8995] to $\tau^2 = 0.1478$ [0.0419; 0.5657], with an I^2 value that dropped from 96.8% [96.2%; 97.3%] to an $I^2 = 52.9%$ [20.6%; 72.0%]. Plots for the influence, Baujat plot (Fig S4b) and heterogeneity, funnel plot (Fig S4c) are presented in the supplemental data; the Eggers' test confirming the absence of funnel plot asymmetry following the removal of the outliers. The GOSH plot (Fig S3d) again indicates homogeneity for the effect size and the absence of clusters, while the heterogeneity is quite broad with a small spike at low values.

S3a Corresponding to Table 1 (main text) row 5. Meta-analysis for G/W response ratios after outliers removed shown using a forest plot.

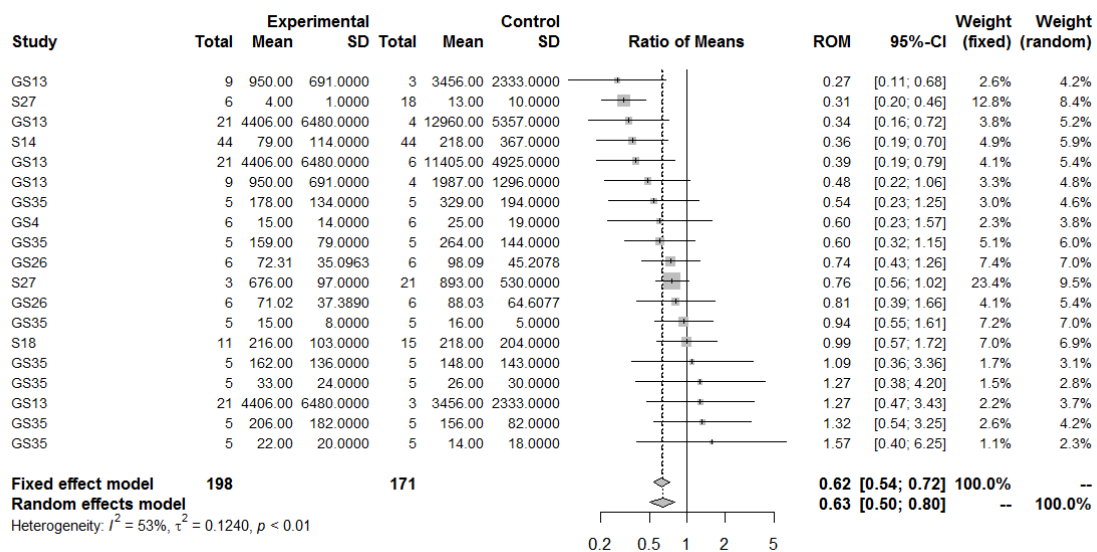


Fig S3b Corresponding to Table 1 (main text) row 5. Baujat plot and S3c funnel plot indicating the influence and data heterogeneity patterns for the G/W RR (n=7 studies, RR=19). Eggers' test of the intercept for bias, intercept 0.51; 95% CI [-1.23 - 2.25]; t 0.573; p 0.5744352. Eggers' test does not indicate the presence of funnel plot asymmetry.

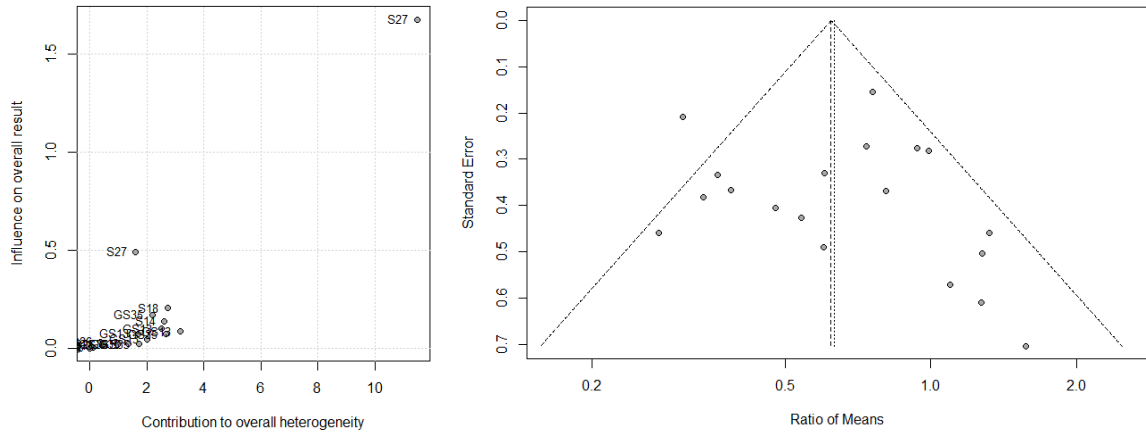
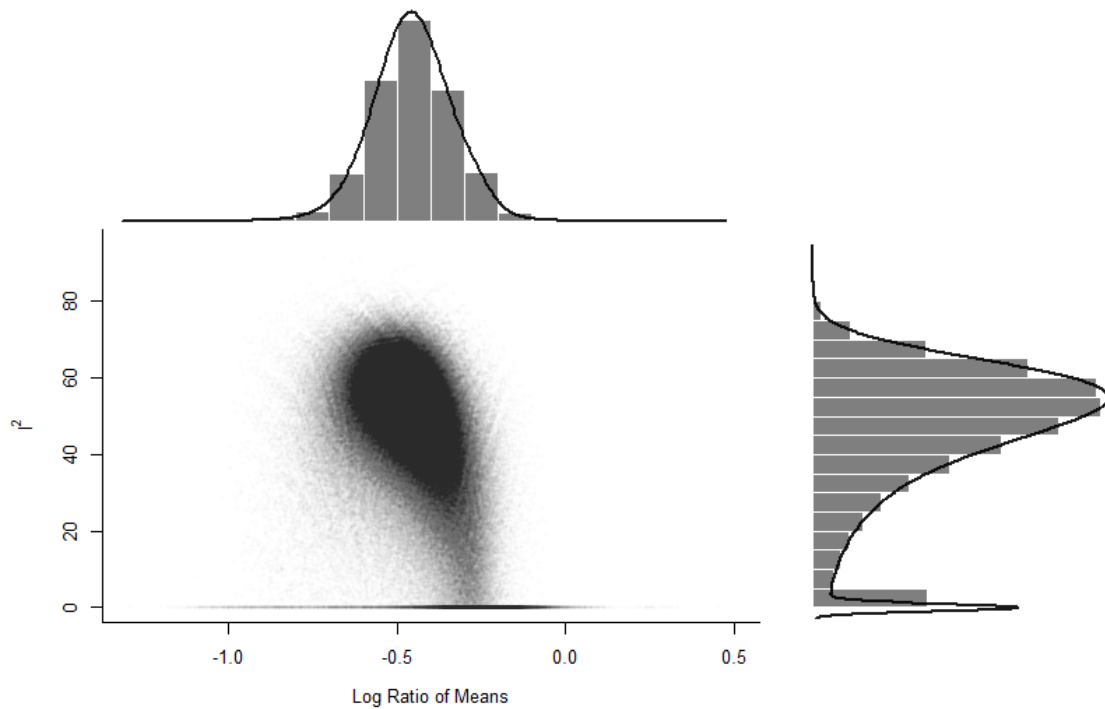
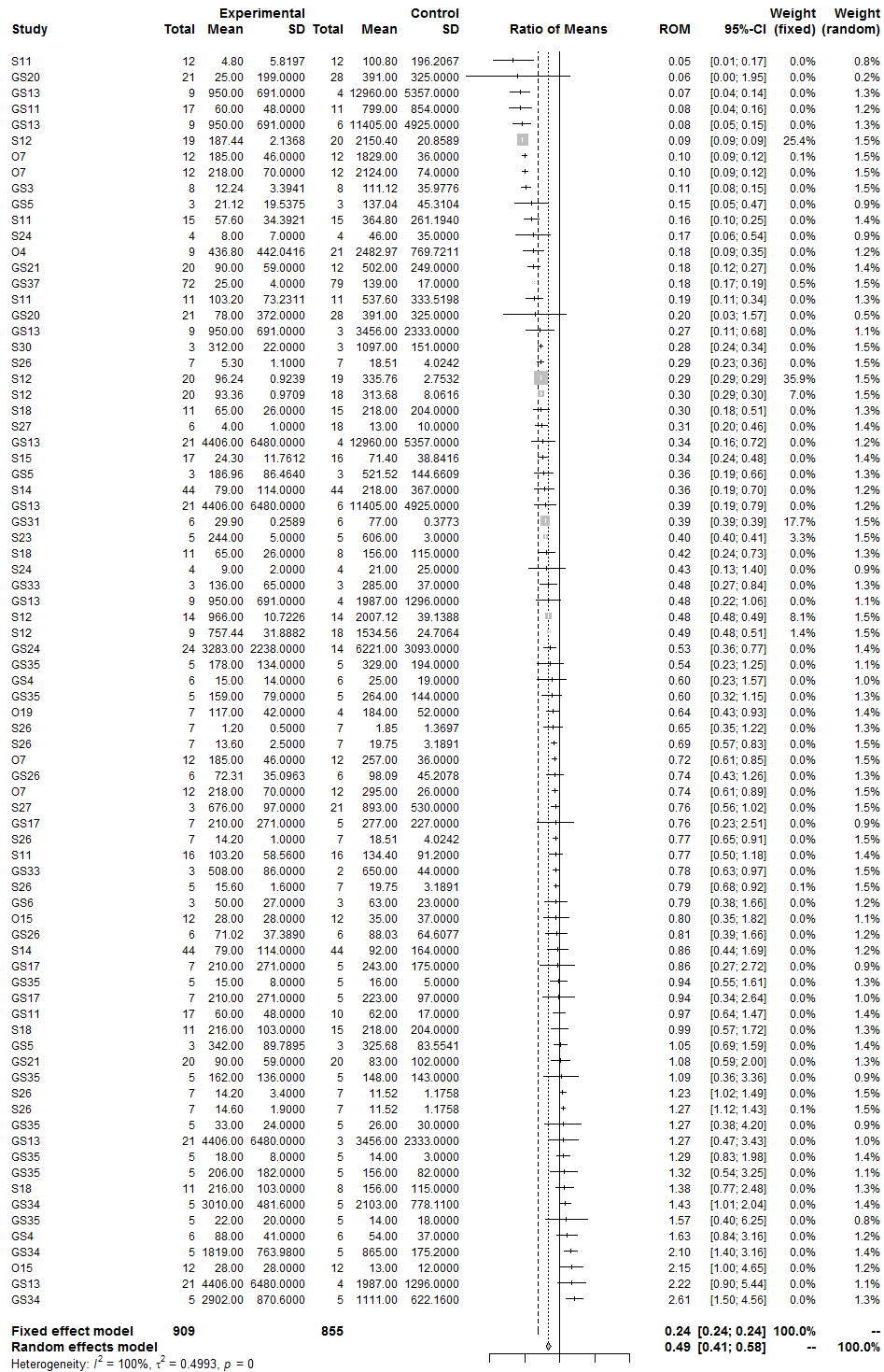


Figure S3d Corresponding to Table 1 (main text) row 5. GOSH plot for random effects



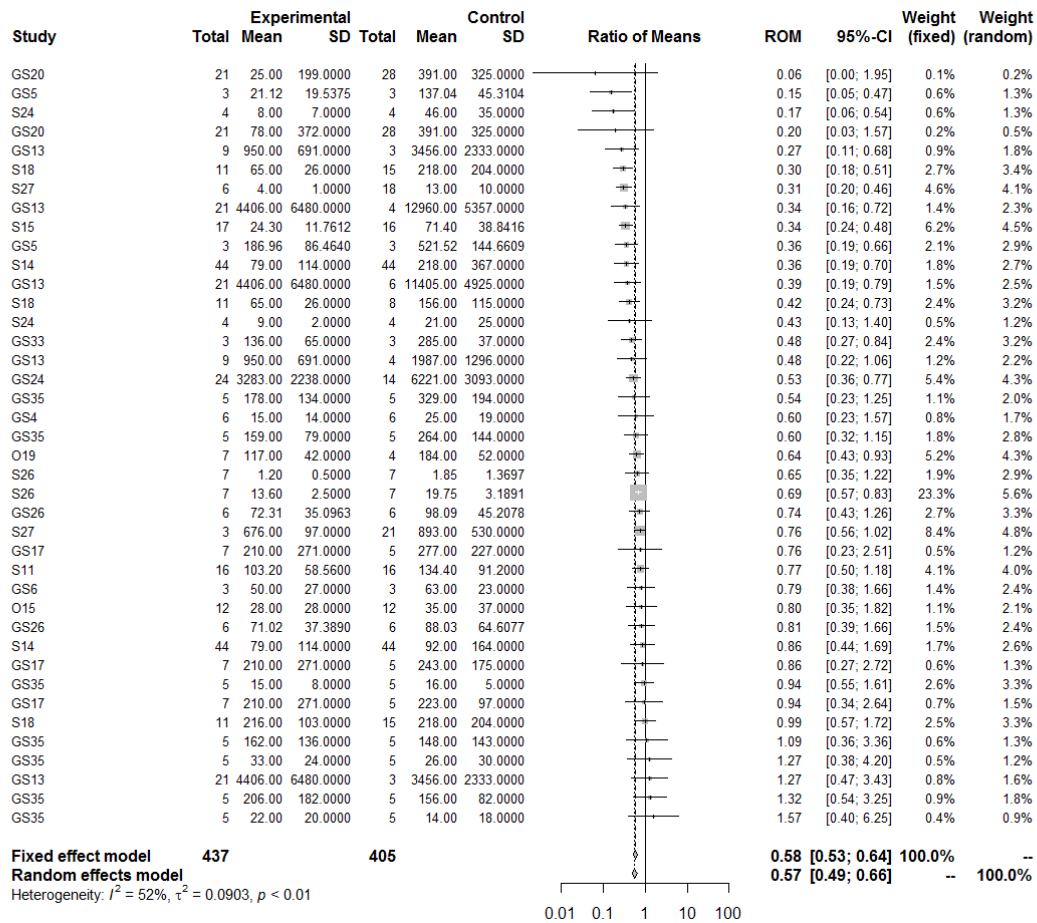
A forest plot for 30 studies (RR = 79) with G/W data prior to outlier removal is presented in Fig S4a and has an effect size of 0.4898 before the removal of outliers.

S4a Corresponding to Table 1 (main text) row 6. Meta-analysis for G/W response ratios for all papers with grassland and woodland data (n=30 studies 79 RR).

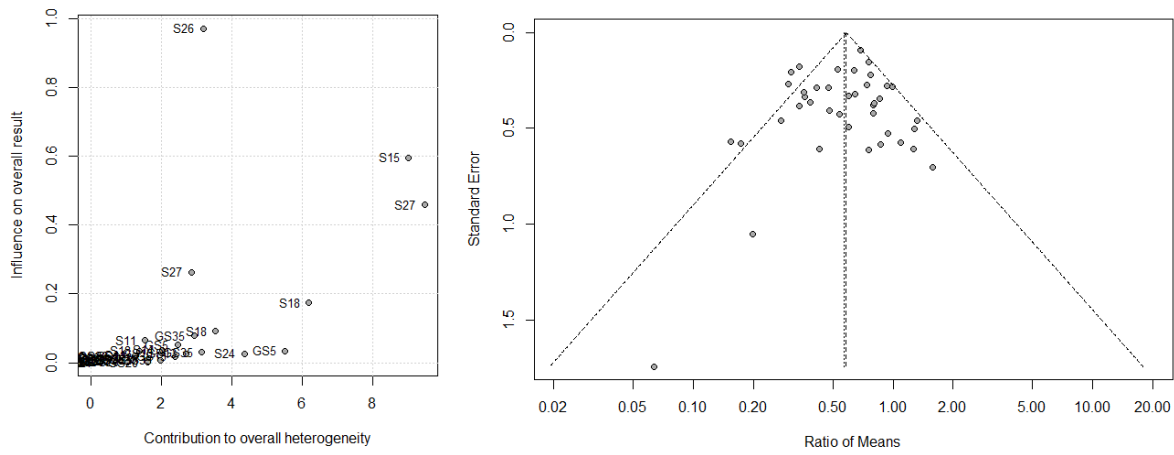


19 studies were left following outlier removal (Fig S5a) . The reciprocal value for the mean random effect size for the larger study group (n=19, RR =40) table 1 row 7 (1/0.5676) was 1.75; in contrast to the smaller study group Table 1 row 5 (1/0.6327) which was similar at 1.59. These both indicate that K in woodland is somewhere close to one and three quarter times higher than in grassland.

S5a Corresponding to Table 1 (main text) row 7. Meta-analysis for G/W response ratios for all papers with grassland and woodland data after the outliers were removed (n=19 studies).



S4b Corresponding to Table 1 (main text) row 7. Baujat plot and S4c funnel plot for the main data set after the outliers were removed G/W RR (n=19 studies, RR=40). Eggers' test of the intercept, intercept -0.327; 95% CI [-1.22 - 0.56]; t -0.722; p 0.4749672. Eggers' test does not indicate the presence of funnel plot asymmetry.



PRISMA 2009 checklist

Section/ topic	#	Checklist item
TITLE		
Title	1	<p>Identify the report as a systematic review, meta-analysis, or both:</p> <p>Global meta-analysis of soil hydraulic properties on given soils under differing land use</p>
ABSTRACT		
Structured summary	2	<p>Provide a structured summary including, as applicable: background; objectives; data sources; study eligibility criteria, participants, and interventions; study appraisal and synthesis methods; results; limitations; conclusions and implications of key findings; systematic review registration number.</p> <p>See details in main text.</p>
INTRODUCTION		
Rationale	3	<p>Describe the rationale for the review in the context of what is already known.</p> <p>See details in main text</p>
Objectives	4	<p>Provide an explicit statement of questions being addressed with reference to participants, interventions, comparisons, outcomes, and study design (PICOS).</p> <p>The aim is to determine to what extent the land use or habitat, coarsely separated into woodland, grassland, and cultivated land (WGC) affects the hydraulic conductivity such that response ratios for hydraulic conductivity differ for different land uses given the same soil type.</p> <p>Hypothesis: Overarching hypothesis:</p> <p>H0: The ratio of hydraulic conductivity for highly managed land use to native land use will be =1 for a given soil type, where the soil type is the same under each land use.</p> <p>With the alternative hypothesis: H1: Ratio of hydraulic conductivity for highly managed land use to native land use will be <<1 for a given soil type, where the soil type is the same under each land use.</p> <p>The effect of land use management is expected to decrease progressing from cropland > grassland > woodland, hence seeing K increase with, cropland < grassland < woodland, accordingly.</p> <p>The objective of this work is to determine any effect size associated with the hydraulic conductivity response ratio so that it can be used in the development of land surface and ecosystem models to adjust hydraulic parameters such as hydraulic conductivity under different land uses on the same soil type.</p> <p>Test response ratios for cropland / grassland; cropland / woodland and grassland / woodland</p>

METHODS																						
Protocol and registration	5	Indicate if a review protocol exists, if and where it can be accessed (e.g., Web address), and, if available, provide registration information including registration number. (NA)																				
Eligibility criteria	6	Specify study characteristics (e.g., PICOS, length of follow-up) and report characteristics (e.g., years considered, language, publication status) used as criteria for eligibility, giving rationale. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • All languages • Articles, reports, PhD's • Masters thesis excluded 																				
Information sources	7	Describe all information sources (e.g., databases with dates of coverage, contact with study authors to identify additional studies) in the search and date last searched. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Google Scholar • Scopus • Colleagues 																				
Search	8	<p>Present full electronic search strategy for at least one database, including any limits used, such that it could be repeated.</p> <table border="0"> <thead> <tr> <th>Records</th> <th>First pass</th> <th>Selected</th> <th></th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>Google Scholar 900</td> <td>214</td> <td>37</td> <td>08/09/2020</td> </tr> </tbody> </table> <p>allintitle: Soil topsoil ("hydraulic *" "infiltration" "hydrological *" "physical * properties") ("land *" forestation forest trees woodland grass grassland grazing rangeland pasture arable agricultural crops cropping)</p> <table border="0"> <tbody> <tr> <td>Scopus 906</td> <td>50</td> <td>8</td> <td>15/09/2020</td> </tr> </tbody> </table> <p>"soil hydraulic conductivity" AND tree* OR forest OR wood* AND grass* OR pasture</p> <p>TITLE-ABS-KEY ("soil hydraulic conductivity" AND tree* OR forest OR wood* AND grass* OR pasture)</p> <table border="0"> <tbody> <tr> <td>Scopus 1</td> <td>0</td> <td>0</td> <td>17/09/2020</td> </tr> </tbody> </table> <p>TITLE-ABS-KEY (infiltration AND "land use" AND tree* or forest or wood* and grass* or pasture)</p> <table border="0"> <tbody> <tr> <td>Scopus 1332</td> <td>78</td> <td>10</td> <td>17/09/2020</td> </tr> </tbody> </table> <p>TITLE-ABS-KEY (infiltration AND soil AND "land use")</p> <p>Others (within articles etc) 14 e.g. Chandler</p> <p>Duplicates then removed</p>	Records	First pass	Selected		Google Scholar 900	214	37	08/09/2020	Scopus 906	50	8	15/09/2020	Scopus 1	0	0	17/09/2020	Scopus 1332	78	10	17/09/2020
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Scopus 1332	78	10	17/09/2020																			

Study selection	9	<p>State the process for selecting studies (i.e., screening, eligibility, included in systematic review, and, if applicable, included in the meta-analysis).</p> <p><i>Qualitative woodland grassland dataset WG</i> 58 studies 182 RR All papers that contained at least RR values for G/W.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Qualitative data selection • Must have infiltration for trees and grass, primary target • Must be on the same soil type or in a similar soil texture range <p><i>Quantitative woodland and grassland dataset WG</i> 30 studies 79 RR Papers must have RR values for G/W and have the number of measurements and the error terms.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Meta analysis selection required: mean, standard deviation and number <p><i>Quantitative woodland, grassland and cropland dataset WGC</i> 13 studies 34 RR Papers must have RR values for G/W/C and have the number of measurements and the error terms.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Meta analysis selection required: mean, standard deviation and number
Data collection process	10	<p>Describe method of data extraction from reports (e.g., piloted forms, independently, in duplicate) and any processes for obtaining and confirming data from investigators.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Three independent researchers selected and reviewed the publications • Web plot digitizer used to extract some qualitative data, e.g. medians
Data items	11	<p>List and define all variables for which data were sought (e.g., PICOS, funding sources) and any assumptions and simplifications made.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Hydraulic conductivity / infiltration rate • Soil type, soil texture, porosity, carbon, SOM • Location, mean T, Mean rainfall, • Woodland, grassland / pasture land, cultivated land
Risk of bias in individual studies	12	<p>Describe methods used for assessing risk of bias of individual studies (including specification of whether this was done at the study or outcome level), and how this information is to be used in any data synthesis.</p> <p>The following sources of bias were considered: Sample selection bias: choosing where to measure infiltration, choosing more sites in cropland for example and less in woodland. Experimenter bias: where the scientists performing the research influence the results, e.g. selecting sites where the highest difference in infiltration is likely to maximise response ratio. Measurement bias: where errors occur in the data collection and the process of measuring. Hydraulic conductivity measured at tension or at saturation. Seemingly high infiltration rates, checked with authors.</p>
Summary measures	13	<p>State the principal summary measures (e.g., risk ratio, difference in means).</p> <p>Response ratio (RR) – Hedges g'</p>

		Hedges, L.V., Gurevitch, J. and Curtis, P.S., 1999. The meta-analysis of response ratios in experimental ecology. Ecology, 80(4), pp.1150-1156. ⁴
Synthesis of results	14	<p>Describe the methods of handling data and combining results of studies, if done, including measures of consistency (e.g., I^2) for each meta-analysis.</p> <p>Meta package in R https://cran.r-project.org/web/packages/meta/meta.pdf</p> <p>Doing meta-analysis in R² https://bookdown.org/MathiasHarrer/Doing_Meta_Analysis_in_R/</p> <p>metacont: Meta-analysis of means and standard deviations of two groups using Hedges g' Description: Calculation of random effects estimates for meta-analyses with data on means and standard deviation using sm=ROM.</p> <p>Heterogeneity: Higgin's & Thompson's I^2 (Harrer et al, 2021)²</p> <p>I^2 (Higgins and Thompson 2002)⁵ is the percentage of variability in the effect sizes which is not caused by sampling error. It is derived from Q: $I^2 = \max[0, (Q - (K - 1)) / Q]$</p> <p>$I^2$ is not sensitive to changes in the number of studies in the analyses. I^2 is therefore used extensively in medical and psychological research, especially since there is a "rule of thumb" to interpret it^{5, 6}:</p> <p>$I^2 = 25\%$: low heterogeneity $I^2 = 50\%$: moderate heterogeneity $I^2 = 75\%$: substantial heterogeneity</p> <p>References:</p> <p>Harrer, M., Cuijpers, P., Furukawa, T.A, & Ebert, D. D. (2019). Doing Meta-Analysis in R: A Hands-on Guide. https://bookdown.org/MathiasHarrer/Doing_Meta_Analysis_in_R/.</p> <p>Higgins, Julian PT, and Simon G Thompson. 2002. "Quantifying Heterogeneity in a Meta-Analysis." Statistics in Medicine 21 (11). Wiley Online Library: 1539–58</p> <p>Higgins, Julian PT, Simon G Thompson, Jonathan J Deeks, and Douglas G Altman. 2003. "Measuring Inconsistency in Meta-Analyses." BMJ: British Medical Journal 327 (7414). BMJ Publishing Group: 557.</p>

Section/topic	#	Checklist item
Risk of bias across studies	15	<p>Specify any assessment of risk of bias that may affect the cumulative evidence (e.g., publication bias, selective reporting within studies).</p> <p>The following sources of bias were considered: Sample selection bias: choosing where to measure infiltration, choosing more sites in cropland for example and less in woodland.</p>

		<p>Experimenter bias: where the scientists performing the research influence the results, e.g. selecting sites where the highest difference in infiltration is likely to maximise response ratio.</p> <p>Measurement bias: where errors occur in the data collection and the process of measuring. Hydraulic conductivity measured at tension or at saturation. Seemingly high infiltration rates, checked with authors.</p> <p>Publication bias, within the meta analysis bias was detected using the meta package in R and identifying and excluding outliers. This was checked using funnel plots on the data and Eggers' test confirming the absence of funnel plot asymmetry.</p> <p>We considered bias in terms of location, soil types studied, range of habitats and methodological. Hydraulic conductivity is measured in many different ways, to avoid this bias we used response ratios.</p>
Additional analyses	16	Describe methods of additional analyses (e.g., sensitivity or subgroup analyses, meta-regression), if done, indicating which were pre-specified.

RESULTS

Study selection	17	<p>Give numbers of studies screened, assessed for eligibility, and included in the review, with reasons for exclusions at each stage, ideally with a flow diagram.</p> <div data-bbox="512 929 1289 1809" data-label="Diagram"> <p>PRISMA 2009 Flow Diagram</p> <p>The diagram illustrates the PRISMA 2009 flow diagram, showing the number of records identified, screened, assessed for eligibility, and included in the synthesis. The process is divided into four stages: Identification, Screening, Eligibility, and Included.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Identification: Records identified through database searching (n = 3138) and Additional records identified through other sources (n = 14) are combined to form Records after duplicates removed (n = 3000 (152 removed)). Screening: Records screened (n = 3000) result in Records excluded (n = 2659). Eligibility: Full-text articles assessed for eligibility (n = 341) result in Full-text articles excluded, with reasons (n = 283). Included: Studies included in qualitative synthesis (n = 58) and Studies included in quantitative synthesis (meta-analysis) (WGC (n = 13) and WG (n = 13+17=30)). </div> <p>From: Moher D, Liberati A, Tetzlaff J, Altman DG, The PRISMA Group (2009). Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses: The PRISMA Statement. <i>BMC Med</i> 6(7): e1000097. doi:10.1371/journal.pmed1000097</p> <p>For more information, visit www.prisma-statement.org.</p>
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		The most common causes for rejection included, not having data on the same soil type or data on multiple land uses.																																								
Study characteristics	18	<p>For each study, present characteristics for which data were extracted (e.g., study size, PICOS, follow-up period) and provide the citations.</p> <p>List of citations chosen for the study, light grey colour indicates the reference contained data on CG & W.</p> <table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th>Number & reference number</th> <th>Code</th> <th>Land use</th> <th>Reference</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>1⁷</td> <td>S12</td> <td>GW</td> <td>Agnese, C., Bagarello, V., Baiamonte, G. and Iovino, M., 2011. Comparing physical quality of forest and pasture soils in a Sicilian watershed. <i>Soil Science Society of America Journal</i>, 75(5), pp.1958-1970.</td> </tr> <tr> <td>2⁸</td> <td>S11</td> <td>GW</td> <td>Archer, N.A.L., Bonell, M., Coles, N., MacDonald, A.M., Auton, C.A. and Stevenson, R., 2013. 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10 ¹⁶	O7	CGW	Gol, C., 2009. The effects of land use change on soil properties and organic carbon at Dagdami river catchment in Turkey. <i>Journal of Environmental Biology</i> , 30(5), p.825.
11 ¹⁷	GS13	CGW	Gonzalez-Sosa, E., Braud, I., Dehotin, J., Lassabatère, L., Angulo-Jaramillo, R., Lagouy, M., Branger, F., Jacqueminet, C., Kermadi, S. and Michel, K., 2010. Impact of land use on the hydraulic properties of the topsoil in a small French catchment. <i>Hydrological processes</i> , 24(17), pp.2382-2399.
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13 ¹⁹	GS17	GW	Leite, P.A., de Souza, E.S., dos Santos, E.S., Gomes, R.J., Cantalice, J.R. and Wilcox, B.P., 2018. The influence of forest regrowth on soil hydraulic properties and erosion in a semiarid region of Brazil. <i>Ecology</i> , 99(3), p.e1910.
14 ²⁰	S24	GW	Lopes, E., Marenzi, R.C. and Almeida, T.C.M.D., 2018. Comparison of soil use in the infiltration of rainwater: pasture and forest. <i>Revista Facultad Nacional de Agronomía Medellín</i> , 71(3), pp.8593-8600.
15 ²¹	GS20	GW	Lozano-Baez, S.E., Cooper, M., Frosini de Barros Ferraz, S., Ribeiro Rodrigues, R., Castellini, M. and Di Prima, S., 2019. Recovery of soil hydraulic properties for assisted passive and active restoration: assessing historical land use and forest structure. <i>Water</i> , 11(1), p.86.
16 ²²	GS21	GW	Lunka, P. and Patil, S.D., 2016. Impact of tree planting configuration and grazing restriction on canopy interception and soil hydrological properties: implications for flood mitigation in silvopastoral systems. <i>Hydrological Processes</i> , 30(6), pp.945-958.
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19 ²⁵	GS24	GW	Perkins, K.S., Nimmo, J.R. and Medeiros, A.C., 2012. Effects of native forest restoration on soil hydraulic properties, Auwahi, Maui, Hawaiian Islands. <i>Geophysical Research Letters</i> , 39(5).
20 ²⁶	S14	CGW	Pinto, L.C., Mello, C.R.D., Norton, L.D. and Curi, N., 2019. Land-use influence on the soil hydrology: An approach in upper Grande River basin, Southeast Brazil. <i>Ciência e Agrotecnologia</i> , 43.
21 ²⁷	S27	CGW	Podrazsky, V., Holubík, O., Vopravil, J., Khel, T., Moser, W.K. and Prknová, H., 2015. Effects of afforestation on soil structure formation in two climatic regions of the Czech Republic. <i>Journal of Forest Science</i> . 61 (5): 225-234., 61(5), pp.225-234.
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		23 ²⁹	O15	GW	Thompson, S.E., Harman, C.J., Heine, P. and Katul, G.G., 2010. Vegetation-infiltration relationships across climatic and soil type gradients. <i>Journal of Geophysical Research: Biogeosciences</i> , 115(G2).
		24 ³⁰	GS31	GW	Tian, J., Zhang, B., He, C. and Yang, L., 2017. Variability in soil hydraulic conductivity and soil hydrological response under different land covers in the mountainous area of the Heihe River Watershed, Northwest China. <i>Land Degradation & Development</i> , 28(4), pp.1437-1449.
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		26 ³²	GS33	GW	Weerts, G.J., 1991. Soil hydraulic conductivity on two tropical soil types under forest and a 25 year old pasture: field measurements and data application (Vol. 69). Bib. Orton IICA/CATIE.
		27 ³³	S30	CGW	Yimer, F., Messing, I., Ledin, S. and ABdelkadir, A., 2008. Effects of different land use types on infiltration capacity in a catchment in the highlands of Ethiopia. <i>Soil use and management</i> , 24(4), pp.344-349.
		28 ³⁴	GS34	CGW	Yu, M., Zhang, L., Xu, X., Feger, K.H., Wang, Y., Liu, W. and Schwärzel, K., 2015. Impact of land-use changes on soil hydraulic properties of Calcaric Regosols on the Loess Plateau, NW China. <i>Journal of Plant Nutrition and Soil Science</i> , 178(3), pp.486-498.
		29 ³⁵	GS35	CGW	Zhou, X., Lin, H.S. and White, E.A., 2008. Surface soil hydraulic properties in four soil series under different land uses and their temporal changes. <i>Catena</i> , 73(2), pp.180-188.
		30 ³⁶	S18	CGW	Ziegler, A.D., Giambelluca, T.W., Tran, L.T., Vana, T.T., Nullet, M.A., Fox, J., Vien, T.D., Pinthong, J., Maxwell, J.F. and Evett, S., 2004. Hydrological consequences of landscape fragmentation in mountainous northern Vietnam: evidence of accelerated overland flow generation. <i>Journal of Hydrology</i> , 287(1-4), pp.124-146.
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		32 ³⁸	S25	GW	Berry, Z.C., Jones, K.W., Aguilar, L.R.G., Congalton, R.G., Holwerda, F., Kolka, R., Looker, N., Ramirez, S.M.L., Manson, R., Mayer, A. and Muñoz-Villers, L., 2020. Evaluating ecosystem service trade-offs along a land-use intensification gradient in central Veracruz, Mexico. <i>Ecosystem Services</i> , 45, p.101181. Reproduced in: López-Ramírez, S.M., Sáenz, L., Mayer, A., Muñoz-Villers, L.E., Asbjornsen, H., Berry, Z.C., Looker, N., Manson, R. and Aguilar, L.R.G., Land use change effects on catchment streamflow response in a humid tropical montane cloud

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38 ⁴⁴	O14	GW	De Moraes, J.M., Schuler, A.E., Dunne, T., Figueiredo, R.D.O. and Victoria, R.L., 2006. Water storage and runoff processes in plinthic soils under forest and pasture in eastern Amazonia. <i>Hydrological Processes: An International Journal</i> , 20(12), pp.2509-2526.
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40 ⁴⁶	S22	GW	Dörner, J., Dec, D., Peng, X. and Horn, R., 2010. Effect of land use change on the dynamic behaviour of structural properties of an Andisol in southern Chile under saturated and unsaturated hydraulic conditions. <i>Geoderma</i> , 159(1-2), pp.189-197.
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45 ⁵¹	GS15	GW	Islam, A., Mailapalli, D.R. and Behera, A., 2019. Comparison of saturated hydraulic conductivity methods for sandy loam soil with different land uses. <i>Water resources and environmental engineering I</i> , pp.99-117.

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		47 ⁵³	GS16	GW	Kumar, S., Anderson, S.H., Bricknell, L.G., Udawatta, R.P. and Gantzer, C.J., 2008. Soil hydraulic properties influenced by agroforestry and grass buffers for grazed pasture systems. <i>Journal of soil and water conservation</i> , 63(4), pp.224-232.
		48 ⁵⁴	GS18	GW	Litt, G.F., Ogden, F.L., Mojica, A., Hendrickx, J.M., Kempema, E.W., Gardner, C.B., Bretfeld, M., Regina, J.A., Harrison, J.B.J., Cheng, Y. and Lyons, W.B., 2020. Land cover effects on soil infiltration capacity measured using plot scale rainfall simulation in steep tropical lowlands of Central Panama. <i>Hydrological Processes</i> , 34(4), pp.878-897.
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		51 ⁵⁷	O3	GW	Martinez, L.J. and Zinck, J.A., 2004. Temporal variation of soil compaction and deterioration of soil quality in pasture areas of Colombian Amazonia. <i>Soil and Tillage Research</i> , 75(1), pp.3-18.
		52 ⁵⁸	GS25	GW	Price, K., Jackson, C.R. and Parker, A.J., 2010. Variation of surficial soil hydraulic properties across land uses in the southern Blue Ridge Mountains, North Carolina, USA. <i>Journal of hydrology</i> , 383(3-4), pp.256-268.
		53 ⁵⁹	S28	GW	Safaei, M., Bashari, H., Mosaddeghi, M.R. and Jafari, R., 2019. Assessing the impacts of land use and land cover changes on soil functions using landscape function analysis and soil quality indicators in semi-arid natural ecosystems. <i>Catena</i> , 177, pp.260-271.
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		57 ⁶³	S29	GW	Yáñez-Díaz, M.I., Cantú-Silva, I., González-Rodríguez, H. and Sánchez-Castillo, L., 2019. Effects of land use change and seasonal variation in the hydrophysical properties in Vertisols in northeastern Mexico. <i>Soil Use and Management</i> , 35(3), pp.378-387.
		58 ⁶⁴	GS36	GW	Zimmermann, B., Elsenbeer, H. and De Moraes, J.M., 2006. The influence of land-use changes on soil hydraulic

					properties: implications for runoff generation. <i>Forest ecology and management</i> , 222(1-3), pp.29-38.
Risk of bias within studies	19	Present data on risk of bias of each study and, if available, any outcome level assessment (see item 12).			
Results of individual studies	20	For all outcomes considered (benefits or harms), present, for each study: (a) simple summary data for each intervention group (b) effect estimates and confidence intervals, ideally with a forest plot. See Forest plots in supplementary			
Synthesis of results	21	Present the main results of the review. If meta-analyses are done, include for each, confidence intervals and measures of consistency See Table 1 in main text			
Risk of bias across studies	22	Present results of any assessment of risk of bias across studies (see Item 15). See Funnel plots in supplementary.			
Additional analysis	23	Give results of additional analyses, if done (e.g., sensitivity or subgroup analyses, meta-regression [see Item 16]).			
DISCUSSION					
Summary of evidence	24	Summarize the main findings including the strength of evidence for each main outcome; consider their relevance to key groups (e.g., healthcare providers, users, and policy makers). See main text			
Limitations	25	Discuss limitations at study and outcome level (e.g., risk of bias), and at review-level (e.g., incomplete retrieval of identified research, reporting bias). See main text			
Conclusions	26	Provide a general interpretation of the results in the context of other evidence, and implications for future research. See main text			
FUNDING					
Funding	27	Describe sources of funding for the systematic review and other support (e.g., supply of data); role of funders for the systematic review. This paper is supported by the European Union's Interreg North-West Europe programme, part of the European Territorial Cooperation Programme and ERDF funding. The work was supported by grant agreement No. NWE 810, project FABulous Farmers (Functional Agro-Biodiversity in farming). In addition, UKCEH staff were supported by the Natural Environment Research Council award number NE/R016429/1 as part of the UK-SCaPE programme delivering National Capability. The Research Council of Norway, Climasol, Project number: 325253.			

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