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1 **What is a good level of soil organic matter? An index based**
2 **on organic carbon to clay ratio**

3 **Running Title:** Soil carbon index

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11 **Abstract**

12 Simple measures of appropriate levels of soil organic matter are needed for soil
13 evaluation, management and monitoring, based on readily-measurable soil properties.

14 We test an index of soil organic matter based on the soil organic carbon (SOC) to clay
15 ratio, defined by thresholds of SOC/clay ratio for specified levels of soil structural
16 quality. The thresholds were originally delineated for a small number of Swiss soils.

17 We assess the index using data from the initial sampling (1978–83) of the National Soil
18 Inventory of England and Wales, covering 3809 sites under arable land, grassland and
19 woodland. Land use, soil type, annual precipitation and soil pH together explained 21%

20 of the variance in SOC/clay ratio in the dataset, with land use the most important
21 variable. Thresholds of SOC/clay ratio of 1/8, 1/10 and 1/13 indicated the boundaries
22 between ‘very good’, ‘good’, ‘moderate’ and ‘degraded’ levels of structural condition.

23 On this scale, 38.2, 6.6, and 5.6% of arable, grassland and woodland sites, respectively,
24 were degraded. The index gives a method to assess and monitor soil organic matter at
25 national, regional or sub-regional scales based on two routinely measured soil
26 properties. Given the wide range of soils and land uses across England and Wales in
27 the dataset used to test the index, we suggest it should apply to other European soils in
28 similar climate zones.

29 **Highlights**

- 30 • We assess the use of SOC/clay ratios as guidelines for soil management in England
31 and Wales.
- 32 • We use data from 3809 sites to assess thresholds based on work for Polish, French
33 and Swiss soils.
- 34 • SOC/clay threshold values can indicate degraded and good soil structural condition.
- 35 • The thresholds show the effect of land use and provide an index for use in England
36 and Wales.

37 **Keywords:** land use, soil clay content, soil organic carbon, soil structure.

39 1 | INTRODUCTION

40 What is a good level of soil organic matter? Maintaining and if possible increasing the
41 level of soil organic matter is generally a good thing for most functions expected of
42 soils, including carbon sequestration, and increased levels improve soil structure.
43 Farmers, food producers and governments need to know their soil status in relation to
44 a critical value of soil organic matter. However, as soil organic matter varies with land
45 use, soil type, location and other variables an index for gauging the level of soil organic
46 matter under given conditions needs to account for these variables.

47 Verheijen *et al.* (2005) derived indicative ranges of soil organic carbon (SOC)
48 content for arable soils of England and Wales that are potentially attained under
49 different types of management and environmental conditions, and they found that clay
50 content, precipitation and depth of topsoil could explain 25% of the variation in SOC
51 content. Clay soils under wetter conditions had higher values than more-sandy soils,
52 and grassland soils had higher values than arable soils with similar clay content. Clay
53 content is a key factor because of its effects on SOC protection including adsorption on
54 mineral surfaces and within soil aggregates (Dungait *et al.*, 2012; Six *et al.*, 2002).
55 Under constant land management and organic matter inputs, soils tend towards a
56 steady-state SOC content, with a capacity for stabilising SOC modelled as a function
57 of clay content (Hassink, 1997; Hassink & Whitmore, 1997; Six *et al.*, 2002; Stewart
58 *et al.*, 2007).

59 Dexter *et al.* (2008) found that soil physical properties (bulk density, water
60 retention characteristics and clay dispersibility) could be better explained by the relative
61 amounts of SOC and clay content to each other than by their total contents. In their
62 analysis of data on French and Polish arable and grassland soils, maxima of correlations
63 between the mass of clay per unit mass of SOC and soil physical properties

64 corresponded to $\text{SOC/clay} = 1/10$, the SOC/clay content ratio was a good indicator of
65 soil physical conditions, and this ratio gave a general separation between the different
66 land uses. These findings were subsequently supported by others in Danish and (de
67 Jonge *et al.*, 2009; Jensen *et al.*, 2019; Schjøning *et al.*, 2012). Johannes *et al.* (2017)
68 developed the approach further, and, in an analysis of Swiss soils, defined SOC/clay
69 thresholds of 1/8, 1/10 and 1/13 as indicating the boundaries between ‘very good’,
70 ‘good’, ‘suggest improvement’ and ‘poor’ levels of structural condition.

71 In this paper, we assess the three SOC/clay thresholds of Johannes *et al.* (2017) for
72 soils across different land uses and climates in England and Wales. We use data from
73 the original sampling of the National Soil Inventory (NSI) which contains information
74 on soils at 5662 sites under agricultural and non-agricultural land uses across the two
75 countries (Bellamy *et al.*, 2005). This is a far larger dataset with greater variation in
76 soils, environments and land use than the datasets used by Dexter *et al.* (2008) and
77 Johannes *et al.* (2017), and so provides a more comprehensive test of the SOC/clay
78 ratio. We have three objectives. First, to assess the variation in SOC/clay ratio and its
79 drivers across the NSI dataset. Second, to test its ability to delineate soils of different
80 structural quality. Third, to illustrate the use of the SOC/clay index for mapping soil
81 carbon across England and Wales, and for gauging changes in a long-term experiment
82 with contrasting organic and inorganic fertiliser treatments.

83 **2 | MATERIALS AND METHODS**

84 **2.1 | National-scale data**

85 The NSI was first conducted between 1978 and 1983. Topsoil (0–15 cm depth) samples
86 were collected at the intersections of an orthogonal 5 km grid over the entire area. A
87 full description of the survey methods, analytical methods and available data is given

88 in the LandIS database (www.landis.org.uk; Proctor *et al.*, 1998). We considered only
89 arable, ley grassland, permanent grassland and woodland sites, and excluded sites
90 without measurements of soil clay content, pH or depth of topsoil, or that were
91 classified as ‘peat’. To reduce the impact of sites with very high SOC content relative
92 to clay content, we excluded 290 outliers with $\text{SOC/clay} > \text{third quartile} + 1.5 \times$
93 $\text{interquartile range}$. This gave 3809 sites. Figure 1 shows the distribution of the sites
94 across the two countries and Table 1 gives summary statistics for SOC and clay
95 contents.

96 Soils at each site were classified by major soil group (Avery, 1980). Data on soil
97 carbonate content were obtained from field observations of fizzing on addition of HCl
98 to samples on a five-point scale from non-calcareous to very calcareous.

99 Soil structural quality was characterised using the Agricultural Land Classification
100 of England and Wales (MAFF, 1988), which gave scores of good, moderate or poor
101 structural quality according to the texture and shape, size and development of
102 aggregates, and friability of subsoil. The NSI contains values for each of these except
103 friability, therefore we estimated based on the shape and size criteria (and where
104 possible development of aggregates was taken into account) (Table S1).

105 Monthly average precipitation was obtained from the UKCP09 dataset (Met Office,
106 2017). Mean accumulated annual precipitation was calculated for the years 1910–1983,
107 and values at each NSI site were intersected using ArcGIS version 10.4. (ESRI, 2015).
108 Ranges for precipitation classes were taken from Verheijen *et al.* (2005): < 650, 650–
109 800 and 800–1100 mm year⁻¹ with the addition of “very wet” for annual precipitation
110 > 1100 mm year⁻¹.

111 **2.2 | Data analysis**

112 Statistical analyses were performed in R version 3.5.0 (R Core Team, 2017). Random
113 Forest analysis (package: randomForest; Liaw & Wiener, 2002) was used to analyse
114 the variance of SOC/clay with land use, average annual precipitation, major soil group,
115 pH, lower depth of topsoil, calcareous score and risk of flooding. A square-root
116 transformation was applied to SOC/clay to reduce the skewness of the data. Three-
117 quarters of the data ($n = 2857$) was used as a training set, and the RMSE and R^2 values
118 of predictions of the remaining set ($n = 952$) were calculated. Training and sample sets
119 were randomly selected. Spatial or other correlations across training and validation sets
120 were unlikely because only topsoil samples were used and the minimum distance
121 between sites was 5 km.

122 Chi-square tests were used to compare numbers of sites within SOC/clay ranges
123 under different land uses and precipitation classes and to test the relationship between
124 the SOC/clay thresholds and soil structure. We used the results of statistically
125 significant chi-square tests to interpret interactions between variables, with
126 contributions by specific combinations of variables to the chi-square statistic inferred
127 from the differences between observed frequency and that expected if there was no
128 interaction between the variables.

129 We tested SOC/clay thresholds of 1/8, 1/10 and 1/13 as indicating the boundaries
130 between 'very good', 'good', 'moderate' and 'degraded' levels of structural condition,
131 following Johannes *et al.* (2017).

132 Figures were produced using R package ggplot2 (Wickham, 2016) and maps were
133 produced using QGIS 3.0.1-Girona (QGIS Development Team, 2020).

134 **2.3 | Field-scale data**

135 We assessed the effects of field-scale soil management on SOC/clay ratios relative to
136 the threshold values using data from a long-term organic manuring experiment at

137 Woburn, Bedfordshire, UK (Mattingly, 1974). The experiment had eight treatments
138 with four replicates: (1) peat for 6 yr then ley, (2) farmyard manure (FYM), (3) grass
139 ley plus nitrogen, (4) grass-clover ley, (5) green manure (GM) for 6 yr then ley, (6)
140 straw, and (7) and (8) two inorganic fertiliser treatments (details in Mattingly, 1974).
141 Treatments were applied in two cycles (1965 to 1972 and 1979 to 1987), second cycle
142 treatment denoted by 'then' above if different from first. We calculated SOC/clay ratios
143 for each plot and then averaged the values for each treatment. The plot-level soil clay
144 content ranged from 78 to 131 g kg⁻¹ and the initial SOC content ranged from 5.7 to 8.6
145 g kg⁻¹ (Table S2).

146 **3 | RESULTS**

147 **3.1 | Variation in SOC and clay contents and SOC/clay ratio**

148 Mean SOC contents increased in the order arable << ley grass < permanent grass ≈
149 woodland soils (Table 1). Mean clay contents and their ranges were similar across land
150 uses, except those of woodland soils were smaller. The dominant soil types in all land
151 uses were brown soils and surface-water gleys; the proportions of other soil groups
152 varied (Table S3). Arable sites tended to have smaller average annual precipitation than
153 the other land uses (Tables S4 and S5).

154 The proportions of sites above and below the three SOC/clay thresholds differed
155 between land uses, particularly for the SOC/clay = 1/13 threshold (Figure 2 and Table
156 2). A greater proportion of arable sites had SOC/clay < 1/13 (i.e. depleted in SOC for
157 their clay content) and a greater proportion of permanent grassland and woodland sites
158 had SOC/clay > 1/8 (i.e. enriched in SOC for their clay content; $\chi^2(9) = 681.3$, $p <$
159 0.001).

160 Analysis of the influence of land use, soil and other variables on SOC/clay ratio by
161 random forest analysis showed that 21.0% of the variance was explained by the
162 variables examined (Table 3). Land use, average annual precipitation, major soil group
163 and pH were more important than carbonate score, flood risk and depth of topsoil. When
164 the model was run with just the top four variables, the variance explained did not
165 change, however the importance of land use increased relative to the other variables.

166 **3.2 | Effects of land use and precipitation**

167 The effect of land use was clear with lower SOC/clay ratios observed for arable and
168 predominantly higher SOC/clay ratios for grassland and woodland (Table 2). As there
169 was some geographical relationship between the distributions of land use and
170 precipitation, the effects of each on numbers of sites relative to the SOC/clay thresholds
171 were considered. Verheijen *et al.* (2005) suggested that dry sandy soils were more at
172 risk of lower SOC content than wetter clayey soils and that grassland soils would have
173 higher SOC content than (ley-) arable soils. Comparing SOC/clay threshold ranges,
174 land uses, and precipitation classes (< 650, 650 to 800, 800 to 1100 and > 1100 mm
175 yr⁻¹; Table S6), two questions were asked: 1) were arable soils under dry climate
176 conditions more likely to have SOC/clay < 13 than arable soils under wetter climate
177 conditions, and 2) for soils under dry climate conditions (< 650 mm yr⁻¹), were arable
178 soils more likely to have SOC/clay < 13 than other land uses?

179 In answer to the first question, chi-squared analysis showed that precipitation class
180 was not independent of SOC/clay ratio for arable soils ($X^2(9) = 78.9$, $p < 0.001$).
181 Comparing the contributions of each combination to the chi-square statistic showed that
182 a larger number of soils receiving less than 650 mm yr⁻¹ and smaller numbers of soils
183 receiving more than 650 mm yr⁻¹ than expected had SOC/clay < 1/13. Also, a smaller
184 number of dry soils and larger number of soils with greater than 800 mm yr⁻¹ had

185 SOC/clay > 1/8. This suggests that lower precipitation conditions were related to
186 SOC/clay < 13 for arable soils.

187 Chi-squared analysis to answer the second question showed that land use was not
188 independent of SOC/clay ratio for soils under dry climate conditions ($\chi^2(9) = 94.0$, $p <$
189 0.001). A larger number of arable soils and smaller number of grassland and woodland
190 soils than expected had SOC/clay < 1/13 than if the land use was independent of
191 SOC/clay ratio range for soils receiving < 650 mm yr⁻¹ annual precipitation. For soils
192 with SOC/clay > 1/8, the reverse was true (i.e. arable < grassland or woodland). This
193 suggests that land use was affecting the number of dry climate soils with SOC/clay <
194 1/13.

195 The relative effects of land use, precipitation and soil type were evident from the
196 distribution of the 820 sites with SOC/clay ratio < 13 across England and Wales (Figure
197 S1). These sites were predominantly arable, and their distribution across eastern and
198 central England confirmed the lesser statistical effect of precipitation and major soil
199 group observed. Northwest England and Wales had notably few degraded sites though
200 soils sampled there were mostly under non-arable land uses.

201 **3.3 | Effects of soil type and soil pH**

202 The statistical effect of major soil group appeared to be driven by three of the soil
203 groups and some of this might already have been accounted for by land use (Figure 3).
204 Podzolic soils tended to have SOC/clay > 1/8 and were mostly not arable, whereas clay-
205 rich pelosols were more likely to have SOC/clay < 1/13 and a higher proportion were
206 arable. The lower importance of soil group might be linked to the smaller sample sizes
207 of the podzolic and pelosol soils compared with brown and gley soils for which
208 SOC/clay ratios showed similar variation.

209 As pH decreased below pH = 5, the SOC/clay ratio tended to increase (Figure S2).
210 Above pH = 5 there was less of a trend when considering permanent grass and
211 woodland soils, however, arable and ley grass soils showed decreasing minimum
212 SOC/clay ratio particularly above pH = 7, though sites with SOC/clay > 1/8 were still
213 observed.

214 **3.4 | Relation between structural quality and SOC/clay ratio**

215 Structural quality – classified as good, moderate, moderate-degraded and degraded –
216 tended to improve with increasing SOC/clay ratio as shown by the box plots in Figure
217 4 and the chi-squared test result for the relation between SOC/clay range between the
218 thresholds and structural quality ($\chi^2(9) = 129.3$, $p < 0.001$). Most (82%) of the
219 relationship between SOC/clay and structural quality was explained by (a) a larger than
220 expected frequency of sites with SOC/clay < 1/13 and moderate-degraded or degraded
221 structure; (b) a smaller than expected frequency of sites with SOC/clay > 1/8 and
222 degraded structure; and (c) smaller than expected frequency of sites with SOC/clay <
223 1/13 and good structure.

224 **3.5 | Variation in SOC/clay ratio across England and Wales**

225 Mapping the index across the two countries (Figure 5) showed the effect of land use
226 and geography at the time of survey. For any land use, degraded sites were not limited
227 to a particular region. But, as previously mentioned, there were fewer degraded sites
228 towards the northwest and in Wales. Calculating summary values of SOC/clay by land
229 use (Table 4) showed that the minimum value increased slightly in the order: arable =
230 ley grass < permanent grass < woodland. The median results showed a stronger
231 difference between arable sites and the other land uses, with arable in the moderate

232 category and the other land uses equal to or above the very good threshold. The different
233 land uses have similar upper SOC/clay values as a result of excluding outliers.

234 **3.6 | Changes in SOC/clay ratio with field management**

235 Figure 6 shows changes in SOC/clay ratios over 30 years of the Woburn organic
236 manuring experiment. Leys and treatments with organic matter application (straw,
237 manures) showed similar trends of increasing SOC/clay ratio during the application
238 period and decreasing ratio after the treatment was stopped, but with differing
239 magnitudes. Peat and farmyard manure gave the largest increases, followed by the ley
240 treatments and then straw. Inorganic fertiliser only treatments showed a general trend
241 of decreasing SOC/clay ratio, and consistently occupied the degraded class.

242 **4 | DISCUSSION**

243 **4.1 | Variation in SOC/clay ratio with land use and soil type**

244 In agreement with Dexter *et al.* (2008) and Johannes *et al.* (2017), arable soils had a
245 larger proportion of sites with SOC/clay ratios below 1/10, and permanent grassland
246 soils had a larger proportion above 1/10. Dexter *et al.* (2008) did not consider soil group
247 or structural condition of the soils in their study, and Johannes *et al.* (2017) chose only
248 one soil type. Based on the agreement of their results with previous studies on the
249 importance of the SOC/clay = 1/10, Johannes *et al.* (2017) suggested it should apply to
250 a range of soils. Our finding that few grassland and woodland sites had SOC/clay <
251 1/13 supports the use of SOC/clay = 1/13 as an indicative threshold for degradation, as
252 grassland and woodland soils are not generally subject to major disturbance and are
253 close to semi-natural systems. Our analysis shows that many arable soils were depleted
254 in SOC compared with the more natural systems. Ley grassland soils were intermediate
255 between arable and permanent grassland soils. The NSI survey did not include

256 information on the length of leys nor the time under ley at sampling, but typically this
257 is between 3 and 8 years. Some proportion of arable sites will have been part of ley
258 rotations at the time of sampling.

259 The large variation of SOC/clay ratio within each land use and soil group
260 demonstrates that clay content is not the only determinant of SOC dynamics, especially
261 considering land use history before the sampling will have big effects too. As discussed
262 above, despite the scatter, the thresholds show differences between soils under different
263 land management.

264 The variance of the SOC/clay ratio explained by random forest analysis was similar
265 to the variance of SOC content explained by Verheijen *et al.* (2005) with step-wise
266 general regression modelling, using similarly-derived precipitation data, and the same
267 soil dataset (though a different subset). We would expect the variance explained to
268 increase with more specific measures of land management within land use classes (crop
269 type, residue treatment, land-use history and, for grassland systems, grazing
270 management). Interpolated precipitation data is another estimation which could be
271 improved, however this is what is generally available at this scale.

272 The effect of major soil group on SOC/clay ratio suggests some consideration
273 should be given to soil type, as highlighted by Johannes *et al.* (2017). Comparing the
274 variation in SOC/clay ratio between major soil groups, similar variation and medians
275 were found for lithomorphic, brown, gley and man-made soils. The tendency for higher
276 SOC/clay ratio of podzolic soils might be attributed to concentrated organic horizons
277 in the topsoil. The tendency for lower SOC/clay ratios of Pelosols might be attributed
278 to higher clay contents combined with a higher proportion (62%) being arable than most
279 major soil groups. Whilst acidic soils had a tendency for higher SOC/clay ratios, there

280 appeared to be little relationship between pH and SOC/clay ratio in agriculturally
281 productive pH ranges (circa. pH = 5.5 to 7).

282 **4.2 | Significance of the threshold values**

283 The fact that the empirical threshold values found by Johannes *et al.* (2017) for Swiss
284 soils also hold for the wide range of soils and land uses across England and Wales in
285 our study, suggests they have some fundamental basis, and that they may apply in soils
286 in similar climate zones across Europe. An association of soil structural quality with
287 the SOC/clay = 1/10 ratio was expected from physico-chemical considerations (de
288 Jonge *et al.*, 2009; Jensen *et al.*, 2019). Intuitively there will be some minimum range
289 of SOC/clay ratio below which soil structure is impaired, and some maximum range
290 above which the capacity of soil clays of given mineralogy to bind SOC is exceeded.
291 However, there are no obvious reasons why the precise threshold values indicated by
292 our and the Swiss study should be absolute.

293 The observed decrease in soil structural quality with decreasing SOC/clay ratio was
294 statistically significant, though there was overlap between the boxplots of SOC/clay
295 ratio between structure classes. Our analysis was limited by the quality of the available
296 data on structure. This was based on the scheme defined for the Agricultural Land
297 Classification of England and Wales, which includes a measure of friability. Since
298 friability was not recorded in the NSI, we had to estimate structural quality without it,
299 introducing error.

300 The mechanistic link between structural quality and SOC/clay ratio should reduce
301 errors due to cross correlation with spatial and temporal variations in the data. We
302 found, as did Verheijen *et al.* (2005), that SOC content tended to decrease with
303 decreasing precipitation across England and Wales, partly in interaction with land use.
304 However, low SOC/clay ratios were not limited to particular combinations of land use

305 and precipitation; therefore, we would not consider precipitation to limit SOC/clay ratio
306 in this data set and geographical range. Land management was shown to affect
307 proportions of very good and degraded soils under dry (< 650 mm year⁻¹) climate
308 conditions. So, SOC/clay ratios of at least 1/10 should be attainable in such soils.

309 **4.3 | Practical usefulness of the index**

310 The SOC/clay index is a simple measure to evaluate the SOC status of any given soil
311 in England and Wales, independent of the land use. It will therefore be meaningful for
312 experts and non-experts and has consequences for many soil functions beyond
313 agricultural uses. It could allow farmers to identify degraded soils on their farms and
314 adjust their management accordingly. It could also be used to monitor and understand
315 the state of soils at a national scale to inform decision making and policy.

316 Application of the index to data from the long-term Woburn experiment showed its
317 behaviour was consistent with expectations, with an improving index in treatments
318 favouring organic matter accumulation, and a deteriorating index in soil-degrading
319 treatments. This illustrates the magnitude and time taken for the various contrasting
320 managements to change SOC and the index. The soil in the Woburn experiment is a
321 sandy loam; the results show that the index can be used for soils with low clay content,
322 despite the narrowing of the SOC/clay thresholds with decreasing clay content, and the
323 relatively small changes in SOC content between the treatments. It should be noted that,
324 to be useful for monitoring purposes, measurements of SOC and clay over time and
325 between sites need to be consistent.

326 It would be interesting to look at other longer-term studies to explore a wider range
327 of clay contents, treatments and time periods. Saturation concepts suggest that a soil
328 closer to steady state or saturation limit should accumulate carbon more slowly than

329 one further from saturation (Six *et al.*, 2002; Stewart *et al.*, 2007). Hence, whether sites
330 with lower index values (higher degradation) improve more quickly could be tested.

331 **5 | CONCLUSIONS**

332 An index of soil organic matter with threshold SOC/clay ratios of 1/8, 1/10 and 1/13
333 satisfactorily separates the soils of England and Wales into very good, good, moderate
334 and degraded classes of SOC content and physical structure condition. In agreement
335 with previous publications, grassland and woodland soils mostly had SOC/clay ratio >
336 1/10, indicating that their SOC contents are close to or above the capacity for protection
337 of SOC by interaction with clay particles. That these more natural systems tend to have
338 SOC/clay ratio > 1/10 supports this as a suitable threshold for good condition.

339 Arable soils and soils receiving less annual rainfall were most likely to be physically
340 degraded, though rainfall was a less important factor determining SOC/clay ratio. Very
341 good status soils (SOC/clay > 1/8) occurred in low rainfall areas, even under arable
342 management, suggesting that rainfall does not fundamentally limit SOC content in this
343 climate.

344 The SOC/clay ratio index allows the evaluation of soils on a scale from degraded to
345 good soil conditions. It therefore gives a ready metric for communication to experts and
346 non-experts, enabling users to adjust their practices and decision makers to develop
347 adequate policies. A SOC/clay ratio greater than 1/10 should be achievable for all
348 managed soils of different textures. Many arable soils in England and Wales evidently
349 have a substantial SOC deficit, suggesting a significant opportunity to increase SOC
350 storage to both improve soil conditions and sequester carbon.

351 Being based on two routinely measured soil properties, the index provides a suitable
352 means of monitoring SOC at national, regional or sub-regional scales. Given the wide
353 range of soils and land uses across England and Wales in the dataset used to test the

354 index and agreement with literature using French, Polish and Swiss soils, it should
355 apply to other European soils in similar climate zones.

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371 **Data Sharing and Data Accessibility statement**

372 The NSI dataset is held by Cranfield University and accessed via LandIS
373 (www.landis.org.uk). UKCP09 data are available from the Centre for Environmental
374 Data Analysis (CEDA) archive
375 (<http://catalogue.ceda.ac.uk/uuid/94f757d9b28846b5ac810a277a916fa7>). Data for the
376 Woburn Organic Manuring experiment can be obtained via the Electronic Rothamsted
377 Archive (era.rothamsted.ac.uk).

378 **Conflict of interest statement**

379 The authors have no conflicts of interest related to the work presented in this
380 manuscript.

381 **Authorship**

382 Study concept and design: all. Analysis and interpretation of data: Prout, Shepherd,
383 Haefele. Drafting of the manuscript: Prout. Critical revision of the manuscript for
384 important intellectual content: Kirk, McGrath, Haefele, Shepherd. Statistical analysis:
385 Prout and Shepherd.

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464 **Table 1** Soil organic carbon (SOC) and clay contents by land use class in the National
 465 Soil Inventory

	n	SOC content (g kg ⁻¹)				Clay content (g kg ⁻¹)			
		Mean	Med.	Min.	Max.	Mean	Med.	Min.	Max.
Arable	1661	25	22	4	126	262	247	26	879
Ley grass	602	34	31	7	109	267	257	60	756
Permanent grass	1277	42	39	6	138	281	260	47	795
Woodland	269	40	37	1	158	251	242	10	606
All land uses	3809	34	30	1	158	268	252	10	879

466

468 **Table 2** Percentages of sites above, below and between SOC/clay thresholds of 1/8,
 469 1/10 and 1/13 for each land use and land use precipitation class combination.

	<i>n</i>	Percentage of sites with indicated SOC/clay ratio			
		$\geq 1/8$	$<1/8 \geq 1/10$	$<1/10 \geq 1/13$	$<1/13$
Arable	1661	28.8	14.0	19.0	38.2
Ley grass	602	50.2	20.3	14.6	15.0
Permanent grass	1277	66.9	15.4	11.1	6.6
Woodland	269	67.7	16.0	10.8	5.6

470

472 **Table 3** Contributions of indicated variables to variance in SOC/clay ratio analysed
 473 using random forests. Training data was a random selection of 75% of the data ($n =$
 474 2857). With all seven explanatory variables, root mean square error (RMSE) for
 475 training data = 0.06, $R^2 = 0.21$; RMSE for remaining data = 0.07; $R^2 = 0.21$. With only
 476 top four variables, RMSE for training data = 0.06, $R^2 = 0.21$; RMSE for remaining data
 477 = 0.06; $R^2 = 0.22$.

	Increase of mean square error (%)	
Land use	32.7	39.8
Annual precipitation	28.0	26.0
Major soil group	26.4	20.3
pH	22.5	20.3
Depth of topsoil	10.4	
Carbonate score	10.0	
Risk of flooding	5.2	

481 **Table 4** Summary of SOC/clay ratio decimal values calculated for each land use in
482 the NSI subset

	SOC/clay ratio			
	Mean	Median	Min.	Max.
Arable	0.109	0.090	0.018	0.357
Ley grass	0.139	0.125	0.018	0.359
Permanent grass	0.165	0.154	0.022	0.360
Woodland	0.174	0.160	0.025	0.355

484 **FIGURE CAPTIONS**

485 **FIGURE 1** Map of arable, ley grass, permanent grass and woodland sites in the
486 National Soil Inventory sampled between 1978 and 1983 ($n = 3809$).

487 **FIGURE 2** Soil organic carbon content as a function of clay content for different land
488 uses. Lines are SOC/clay thresholds: solid = $1/8$, dashed = $1/10$, dot-dash = $1/13$.

489 **FIGURE 3** Box plots of SOC/clay ratio for each major soil group. Horizontal lines
490 are SOC/clay thresholds: solid = $1/8$, dashed = $1/10$, dotted = $1/13$. Abbreviated major
491 soil groups: Terr. raw = terrestrial raw, Lith. = lithomorphie, SW gley = surface-water
492 gley, GW gley = ground-water gley.

493 **FIGURE 4** Box plots of SOC/clay ratio for each structural quality score. Horizontal
494 lines are SOC/clay thresholds: solid = $1/8$, dashed = $1/10$, dotted = $1/13$. Numbers of
495 samples in each group were $n = 2250, 1111, 229$ and 208 for Good, Moderate,
496 Moderate-Degraded and Degraded, respectively.

497 **FIGURE 5** Maps of SOC/clay ratio across England and Wales under (a) arable, (b)
498 ley grass, (c) permanent grass, and (d) woodland coloured by SOC/clay index.

499 **FIGURE 6** Changes over time in SOC/clay ratio in the Woburn long-term manuring
500 experiment. Points are treatment means. Horizontal lines are thresholds separating
501 degraded (SOC/clay $< 1/13$), moderate (SOC/clay = $1/13$ – $1/10$), good (SOC/clay =
502 $1/10$ – $1/8$) and very good (SOC/clay $> 1/8$) soil conditions. Treatments were applied in
503 two cycles (1965 to 1972 and 1979 to 1987); peat and green manure (GM) treatments
504 were replaced by grass ley for the second cycle. Fert. 1 = (PKMg) \equiv Straw plus P, Fert.
505 2 = (PKMg) \equiv FYM.