



**Hydraulic properties and plant coverage of a closed-landfill soil**

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**Relation between hydraulic properties and plant coverage of the closed-landfill soils in Piacenza (Po Valley, Italy)**

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## Abstract

In this paper the results of a study of soil hydraulic properties and plant coverage of a landfill located in Piacenza (Po Valley, Italy) are presented, together with the attempt to put the hydraulic properties in relation with plant coverage. The measured soil water retention curve was first compared with the output of some pedotransfer functions taken from the literature and then with the output of the same pedotransfer functions applied to a reference soil. The landfill plant coverage was also studied. The relation between soil hydraulic properties and plant coverage showed that the landfill soils have a low water content available for plants and this fact, together with their lack of depth and compacted structure, justifies the presence of a nitrophilous, disturbed-soil vegetation type, dominated by ephemeral annual species (therophytes).

## 1 Introduction

The soil water is a fundamental resource for the components of the ecosystem. The knowledge of the hydraulic properties of soils is therefore fundamental in many scientific disciplines, from agriculture to ecology, since the amount of water and the strenght with which it is held by the soil represent the prerogatives for the development of the vegetation and all other organisms.

Direct measurements of soil hydraulic properties are rarely performed because they require lengthy and costly analysis; as an alternative, analysis of existing databases of measured soil hydraulic data may result in pedotransfer functions (PTFs) (Wösten et al., 2001); these functions often prove to be good predictors for missing soil hydraulic data. The PTFs are empirical relationships between soil hydraulic properties and some basic soil properties more easily available such as texture, bulk density, organic carbon content (Baker, 2008; Bouma and van Lanen, 1986; Pachepsky and Rawls, 2004; Vereecken et al., 2010; Wösten et al., 2001). To derive the PTFs, databases of soils from all over the world were used. Generally soil databases

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emphasize on soil taxonomy and have limited unsaturated soil hydraulic data. With this in mind, the international Unsaturated Soil Database (UNSODA) (Leij et al., 1996) and subsequently, the European database of soil hydraulic properties (HYPRES) (Nemes et al., 2001a; Wösten et al., 1999; Wösten and Lilly, 2004) were developed. Both these databases contain a wealth of information about soil hydraulic data, measurement method and other relevant soil data (Nemes et al., 2001a).

The processing of the PTFs can be performed using some computer programs such as CalcPTF 3.0 (Guber and Pachepsky, 2010), ROSETTA (Schaap et al., 2001) (which is available as stand-alone program and also as a part of the simulation model HYDRUS 1-D Simunek, et al., 2008), SOILPAR 2.00 (Acutis and Donatelli, 2002) and SPAW (Saxton and Willey, 2006).

The relationship between volumetric water content and matric potential is the soil water retention curve, which allows to derive available water for plants by comparing the water content at the different rates of suction (negative pressure) applied.

In recent decades the increase in human population and activities has resulted in an ongoing depletion of soil resources, to the point that the authorities have included in their priorities the recovery of degraded areas. Among the degraded soil characters there is a lower ability to make water available for plants and microorganisms, thus, in order to carry out soil restoration, it is important to know its hydraulic properties.

In this work a degraded cover soil of a landfill located in Piacenza was studied. This cover soil is made by natural soils coming from different sites near Piacenza, and can be classified as an Anthrosol (FAO World Reference Base for Soil Resources): a soil formed or profoundly modified through long-term human activity, such as from addition of organic waste or household waste, irrigation or cultivation. This soil showed very low fertility during more than 30 years: there is no chemical contamination justifying its condition, so the soil can be described as a degraded soil.

Recently the nature of landfill soils and the vegetation were studied, and so it was possible to evaluate the environmental quality: the relationship between soil chemical analysis and ecological indicators (Manfredi et al., 2012), the floristic-vegetational



## 2.2 Soil

### 2.2.1 Physical-chemical analysis of the soil

Eleven sampling points were chosen as representative of the closed landfill area after a preliminary study. Initially they were sampled in the area 51 points, following a grid division NE–SW NW–SE; and the distribution of the observed different vegetation types – the plant communities differ in structure and floristic composition according to the different environmental factors such above all the type of soil. By statistical elaboration of the 51 chemical analysis 11 soils resulted to be the most representative of the area.

The eleven soil samples were taken at 25 cm depth and chemical and physical routine analyses were carried out based the Methods of Soil Chemical and Physical Analysis as described in the Official Gazette of the Italian Republic: texture and grain size (Italian position Method II.5 Suppl. Ord. G.U. no. 248/21 October 1999; international position ISO 11277), primary and secondary structure, organic carbon (Italian position Method VII.3, Suppl. Ord. G.U. no. 248/21 October 1999, Walkley-Black), salinity (Italian position Method IV.1 Suppl. Ord. G.U. no. 248/21 October 1999, international position ISO 11265, aqueous extract 5:1), total limestone (Italian position Method V.1, Suppl. Ord. G.U. no. 248/21 October 1999, international position ISO 10693), water potential (Italian position Method VIII.3, Suppl. Ord. G.U. no. 173/02 September 1997, international position ISO/DIS 11274, sand box and Richards plates; measurements performed on undisturbed samples). The results of the physical-chemical analyses were used as input for the elaboration of 18 different PTFs (Tables 1 and 2). As the bulk and particle density of samples aren't measured, the literature values for loamy soils were used: bulk density  $1.3 \text{ g cm}^{-3}$  and particle density  $2.3 \text{ g cm}^{-3}$ .

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## 2.2.2 Water retention models

Most of the mathematical models that describe the soil hydrologic behavior are based on non-linear relationships between the volumetric water content in the soil,  $\theta$ , the suction applied by the soil,  $h$ , and the hydraulic conductivity (Hillel, 1998); the functions  $\theta(h)$  and  $K(h)$  describe the hydraulic properties of a soil through a parametric equation (Leij et al., 1997). Some predictive methods for estimating hydraulic conductivity are based on direct observations of water content in the soil measured at different values of suction (Romano and Palladino, 2002). To overcome all the cases in which it is not possible to measure it, some functions called pedotransfer functions (PTFs) have been developed. PTFs correlate the water retention and hydraulic conductivity with some easily-measurable chemical and physical properties of the soil such as texture, density, porosity, and organic carbon content (Elsenbeer, 2001; Tietje and Hennings, 1996; Tapkenhinrichs and Tietje, 1993). Most PTFs are regression equations that are derived from data collected during specific campaigns and are reliable for describing the soil hydraulic properties (Romano and Palladino, 2002).

In this work the measured water retention curves were compared with those obtained using 17 PTFs proposed in the literature that are based on databases of soils distributed worldwide following two models: Brooks and Corey (1964) and van Genuchten (1980), (Rawls et al., 1998, 1992, 1982a; Saxton and Rawls, 2006; Saxton et al., 1986; Taniij, 1990).

The functions used to describe water retention properties are the following:  
the van Genuchten (1980) water retention equation

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

the Brooks and Corey (1964) equation

$$\frac{\theta - \theta_r}{\theta_s - \theta_r} = \begin{cases} \left(\frac{h}{h_b}\right)^\lambda, & h > h_b \\ 1, & h \leq h_b \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

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where:  $\theta$  = volumetric soil water content ( $\text{cm}^3 \text{cm}^{-3}$ );  $\theta_r$  = residual soil water content ( $\text{cm}^3 \text{cm}^{-3}$ );  $\theta_s$  = saturated soil water content, ( $\text{cm}^3 \text{cm}^{-3}$ );  $\phi$  = soil porosity, ( $\text{cm}^3 \text{cm}^{-3}$ );  $\lambda$  = pore size distribution index (dimensionless);  $h$  = capillary pressure (cm);  $h_b$  = air-entry pressure (cm);  $\alpha$  = parameter of the van Genuchten equation corresponding approximately to the inverse of the air-entry value, ( $\text{cm}^{-1}$ );  $m, n$  = empirical shape-defining parameters in the van Genuchten equation, (dimensionless).

The values of the parameters ( $\theta$ ,  $\theta_r$ ,  $\theta_s$ ,  $\phi$ ,  $\lambda$ ,  $h_b$ ,  $\alpha$ ,  $m$ ,  $n$ ) are predicted by PTFs, which are developed from measured data set (Wösten et al., 2001).

In this study the processing of the PTFs was performed using the program CalcPTF 3.0 (Guber and Pachepsky, 2010) – it contains a class of PTFs generated from database HYPRES – Table 3.

CalcPTF 3.0 is a computer program PTFs calculator developed to estimate parameters of the Brooks and Corey and the van Genuchten models. The input used in this program are: soil texture, organic carbon content, bulk density and particle density.

The database HYPRES (Hydraulic Properties of European Solis – Wösten et al., 1999) draws together some basic soil information and soil hydraulic data from which PTFs applicable to Europe can be derived (Nemes et al., 2001b). By the HYPRES database two different sets of PTFs were derived: class pedotransfer functions and continuous pedotransfer functions. Class PTFs predict the hydraulic characteristics for each of the five texture classes (coarse: clay < 18 % and sand > 65 %, 18 % < clay < 35 % and 15 % < sand; medium: clay < 18 % and 15 % < sand < 65 %; medium fine: clay < 35 % and sand < 15 %; fine: 35 % < clay < 60 %; very fine: 60 % < clay) and for two pedological classes within them (topsoils and subsoils) plus an additional class which encompassed the organic soil horizons. Continuous pedotransfer functions can predict hydraulic properties from individual measurements of soil texture, organic carbon content and bulk density.

The goodness of the PTFs and their ability to describe the hydraulic characteristics of the landfill coverage soils was calculated through the root mean square error (RMSE) test based on the difference between the values of volumetric content of water, at

different suctions, measured and estimated, starting from the following equation:

$$\text{RMSE} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (\theta_i - \theta_i^*)^2} \quad (3)$$

where:

$N$  = number of measurements;

$\theta_i$  and  $\theta_i^*$  = volumetric water content ( $\theta$  %) measured and estimated.

The hydraulic data of the landfill cover soils obtained instrumentally and through PTFs were also compared with those of a reference soil. The reference soil chemical-physical characteristics are chosen to describe a not degraded natural soil with the same texture – silt loam, bulk and particle density –1.3, 2.3 gcm<sup>-3</sup> of landfill soils, but with an average organic carbon content of Piacenza natural soils (1 %), well structured and depth 1 m. The volumetric water content of the reference soil at different suctions was calculated through the arithmetic mean of the water contents from the 17 PTFs, so it is possible to achieve an estimate of available water content.

### 2.3 Flora and vegetation

The vegetation data were collected by making up 52 phytosociological relevés using the method of the Zurich–Montpellier school (Braun–Blanquet, 1964). The sampling sites were selected to summarise the vegetation of the whole area. Each relevé involved an area of 16 m<sup>2</sup> (4 m × 4 m) and was georeferenced. For each sampling site the present plant species were listed and their cover estimated using the values of the Braun–Blanquet conventional scale ( $r$  = sporadic species; + = < 1 %, 1 = 1–5 %, 2 = 5–25 %, 3 = 25–50 %, 4 = 50–75 %, 5 = 75–100 %). The relevés were periodically monitored from April to September 2012.

Pignatti (1982) was consulted for the identification of the species, while the specific nomenclature is according to Conti et al. (2005). In order to process the biological spectrum of the plant list, the data concerning the biological form



according to Raunkiaer (1934) (Therophytes – T: annual herbs; Hemicryptophytes – H: perennial herbs; Geophytes – G: perennial herbs with underground storage organs; Chamaephytes – Ch: woody plants with buds at no more than 25 cm above the soil surface; Phanerophytes – P: trees and shrubs with buds over 25 cm above the soil surface) were taken from Romani and Alessandrini (2001).

Landolt's *F* index (soil moisture) (Landolt, 1977), updated by Landolt et al. (2010), provides guidance on the water needed by the plant species during their growth period. The *F* values range from 1 to 5 (1 = very dry; 1.5 = dry; 2 = moderately dry; 2.5 = fresh, 3 = moderately moist; 3.5 = moist; 4 = very moist; 4.5 = wet, 5 = flooded or submerged) and were attributed to all the species recorded in order to obtain information on the degree of humidity of the landfill soil cover. To each species was also assigned its respective life strategy according to Grime (2001, 1979) (*c* = competitive strategists, *r* = ruderal strategists, *s* = stress-tolerant strategists), retrieving this information from Landolt et al. (2010), according to the adjustments proposed by the author. Starting from the climate, soil and vegetation data reference crop evapotranspiration (ET<sub>o</sub>), the total available moisture (TAM) and the readily available moisture (RAM) were calculated using the CropWat 8.0 software (©FAO 2009) according with Allen et al. (1998) and Doorenbos and Kassam (1979).

### 3 Results

#### 3.1 Soil

Table 2 shows the measured volumetric water contents of all the samples at the different suctions investigated and Fig. 1 shows their water retention curves. The water retention curves – with the exception of the sample 8 – have similar trend, for suction values less than 10 kPa they don't present very different values while in the final part – when the suction is high – shows some differences. The curves slope increases

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from 10 to 33 kPa due to the different water extractor used – sand box for 10 kPa and Richards plate for 33 kPa.

The first part of these study focused on sample 5 because this sample has the same organic carbon content of reference soil.

Figure 2 shows the 17 water retention curves related to sample 5 developed starting from the PTFs compared with the measured one; in Fig. 2 the curves by Wösten et al. are highlighted. From a comparison of the 17 curves with the measured one it clearly emerges that for suction values lower than 100 kPa all PTFs except one overestimate the measured data, whereas for suction values of 1500 kPa for 12 cases the measured value is higher than the predicted one.

The PTFs were also used to develop reference soil water retention curves. In Fig. 3 the sample 5 water retention curve is comparing with the reference one – described as the arithmetic mean of volumetric water content at different suction values obtained from processing PTFs. This comparison reveals that the reference soil PTFs data always overestimate the measured data for all suction values lower than 100 kPa, whereas for suction values higher of 300 kPa measured data are greater than reference soil.

Through the calculation of RMSE (Fig. 4, Table 4) it was possible to identify which of the authors, and thus of the models, are more accurate in describing the hydraulic behavior of the landfill soils. It emerges that the curve by Wösten al. (1999) – continuous pedotransfer function – is the closest to the measured data; on the contrary the curve by Tomasella and Hodnett (1998) is the worst – it is no wonder because the curve by Tomasella and Hodnett is processed by a Brazil soils database. The results of this test and the comparisons indicate the need to conduct studies to develop new parameters values able to describe the behavior of degraded soils.

The histogram in Fig. 5 shows the water content at a suction of 0.10 kPa; soils have values which are very similar to each other (average  $\theta$  % = 48.61 %, SD 3.18 %), and also similar to the reference soil ( $\theta$  % = 46.32 %).

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The field capacity is described as the optimal relationship between water and air in the soil; this condition is verified when the micropore volume is entirely occupied by water while macropore volume is entirely occupied by air. In the literature the field capacity is representing by the water content at suction values in the range of 10 and 33 kPa (10 kPa for sandy soil and 33 kPa for other soils). At field capacity (histogram Fig. 6) the sample soil average  $\theta$  % is 26.05, SD 4.68 %, this value lower than that of the reference soil ( $\theta$  % = 30.16 %).

The histogram in Fig. 7 shows the soils at a suction of 1500 kPa (wilting point); the average of volumetric water content of soils sampled is  $\theta$  % = 19.98 %, SD 5.97 %; the trend in this case is very variable, with one soil that has a water content of  $\theta$  % = 27.91 % and another  $\theta$  % = 10.86 %. The reference soil instead has a value of  $\theta$  % = 13.66 %; in 9 soils the water content is higher than that of the reference soil.

In general terms the available water for plant is defined as the difference between soil water content at suction 33 kPa – soil water content at field capacity – and 1500 kPa – soil water content at wilting point – (histogram Fig. 8). For the investigated soils the average amount of available water has a value of  $\theta$  % = 6.06 %, very high SD 4.70 %, with a minimum value of  $\theta$  % = 0.55 % and a maximum of  $\theta$  % = 12.14 %; the reference soil has a value of  $\theta$  % = 16.50 %. All the sampled soils have a much lower  $\theta$  % of available water than the reference soil, despite having an organic carbon content of approximately double compared to the reference soil.

### 3.2 Flora and vegetation

The total number of plant species sampled amounts to 90 (see Appendix A), almost all of them are very common and abundant in the province of Piacenza (Bracchi and Romani, 2010; Romani and Alessandrini, 2001). Most of the species were found to be competitive-ruderal (43 %) and ruderal (13 %) (Grime, 2001) and belonging to the phytosociological class *Stellarietea mediae* R. Tx. Lohm. et PRSG. in Tx. 1950 which includes nitrophilous annual vegetation (Mucina et al., 1993; Oberdorfer, 1993; Ubaldi, 2008).

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Figure 9 shows the biological spectrum of the flora list. The study area has a particularly high percentage of therophytes (44 %) when compared to the values of the biological range of the province of Piacenza (23 %; Romani and Alessandrini, 2001) and Emilia-Romagna (28 %; Pignatti et al., 2001). Typically, ephemeral annual species tend to concentrate in urban environments (Sukopp and Werner, 1983) and in Italy, regardless of human disturbance, their percentage increases gradually from north to south in response to the emergence of a distinctly arid climate (Pignatti, 1994, 1976).

Figure 10 represents the monthly rainfall and evapotranspiration and it should be noted that the ETo is greater than the rainfall in the period from May to August, indicating a summer drought.

The histogram referring to the  $F$  index (Fig. 11) shows that most of the found species require soils with a moisture content ranging from moderately dry to moderately moist. The typically xerophyte species and those found in submerged soils are absent, while there are two (*Bolboschoenus maritimus* (L.) Palla and *Eleocharis palustris* (L.) Roem. and Schult) that need wet soil.

In Fig. 12 the graphs referring to the amount of water lost from a common agricultural soil of medium texture 1 m deep (a), and the soil cover of the landfill (b) are presented, considering for both the climatic conditions of Piacenza and as a cover a grassland vegetation of perennial grasses (cool season grass varieties including bluegrass, fescue and ryegrass; Allen et al., 1998). The soil of the landfill has less water available to vegetation compared to agricultural soil.

## 4 Discussion

The study of the hydraulic properties of landfill cover soils has outlined that these soils have less available water content in comparison with a natural soil; this represents an aspect of degradation.

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On the base of PTFs some conclusion can be formulated: PTFs have the advantage of being relatively inexpensive and easy to derive and use, but for application at a specific point and for soils that are outside the range of soils used to derive them, prediction with PTFs might be inadequate. In this case direct measurement is the only option (Wösten et al., 2001) and it can be interesting to make studies to develop degraded soils new PTFs parameters and to put them in relation to the type of soil organic content. Generally, high values of soil organic carbon correspond to high levels of organic matter, which enhances permeability and water availability. In this key it would be interesting to study why a soil, presenting characters of physical degradation – compaction<sup>1</sup> – associated with a lack of organic carbon content, has, on the contrary, a high organic carbon content. It would be interesting, also, to study the carbon decomposition in humic and fulvic acids in association with limestone content.

The low water content, together with the lack of depth and compacted structure, would justify the current presence of a vegetation cover which consists predominantly of therophytes instead of a more developed and stable perennial vegetation with shrubs and trees, as observed for other landfills several years after their coverage (El-Sheikh et al., 2012; Huber-Humer and Klug-Pümpel, 2004; Rebele and Lehmann, 2002). In fact the high frequency of therophyte does not seem to be justified by summer drought and by the low level of human disturbance that affected the area in recent years, given that, under the same climatic conditions, the potential vegetation of the area should be represented by riparian forests of *Populetalia albae* Br.-Bl. 1935 (Puppi et al., 2010) which, although not very widespread, are present and contiguous to the landfill.

The presence of *Bolboschoenus maritimus* (L.) and *Eleocharis palustris* (L.) that need wet soil is explained by the fact that *F* refers to soil water availability during the time of year when the species carry out their vegetative cycle (Landolt et al., 2010).

<sup>1</sup>The loamy soils with a predominantly multi-faceted structure, such as those investigated, have low porosity and, by their nature, are compact; in this case, the compaction was induced by compression of the ground during works that are generally carried out at the closure of a landfill in order to avoid the leakage of gas and infiltration by rainwater.

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In this case the above-mentioned hydrophilic plants were detected only in the spring months when the monthly evapotranspiration is less than or equal to rainfall.

In comparison with agricultural soil in the same climatic conditions the landfill soil has less water available to vegetation and this contributes to causing water stress for plants over a longer period (March to September) and is more pronounced, as the amount of water absorbed by plants during the summer is close to their permanent wilting point (TAM line).

By the low water content in association with high organic carbon, the lack of depth, compacted structure of these soils and the current presence of a vegetation cover which consists predominantly of therophytes the aim of New Life project, studying a treatment for restoring degraded soils is very important; and it will be also interesting to study the hydraulic properties of degraded soil in comparison with the same one reconstituted.

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**Table 1.** Results of chemical and physical analyses performed on soils. Legend: A.B.: Angular Blocky; Sa.B.: Subangular Blocky; G.: Granular; P.: Platy; S.G.: single grain.

Sample	Organic carbon content %	CaCO <sub>3</sub> g kg <sup>-1</sup>	Electrical conductivity ds m <sup>-1</sup>	Sand %	Silt %	Clay %	Soil thickness cm	Structure of soil
1	1.94	130.2	0.197	21.9	12.3	65.8	55	A.B. – Sa.B.
2	4.13	147.7	0.212	17.5	12.9	69.6	30	G. –Sa.B.
3	4.14	190.4	0.152	27.9	12.3	59.8	60	G. –Sa.B.
4	1.67	38.5	0.232	11.5	14.7	73.8	30	Sa.B. – G.
5	1.04	134.8	0.167	12.2	12.4	75.4	62	P.
6	1.35	57.4	0.196	10.3	14.7	75	32	Sa.B. – G.
7	1.92	229.8	0.130	33.3	12.5	54.2	45	S.G. – Sa.B.
8	4.10	266.7	0.288	16.7	16.8	66.5	47	A.B. – G.
9	2.35	138.1	0.252	25	12.3	62.7	47	A.B. – Sa.B.
10	2.68	59.9	0.136	18	9.8	72.2	50	Sa.B. – A.B.
11	3.63	128.9	0.248	17.8	12.3	69.9	40	Sa.B. – G.

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**Table 2.** Volumetric water content ( $\theta$  %) from instrumental analysis at different suction values.

Sample	Suction (–kPa)							
	0.10	0.25	1	3	6	10	33	1500
1	49.45	43.58	39.21	37.23	35.88	34.54	27.60	24.66
2	48.75	44.27	41.05	38.62	37.61	36.98	28.46	27.91
3	47.77	45.12	41.83	37.00	34.80	33.83	25.71	13.57
4	49.42	45.87	40.40	35.46	32.77	31.13	22.91	22.32
5	44.09	41.77	37.31	33.07	31.20	30.01	21.73	18.92
6	47.46	45.06	41.60	38.08	36.02	34.85	25.29	14.59
7	44.55	40.98	38.32	33.25	30.97	29.48	19.37	10.86
8	45.63	45.15	44.21	43.46	42.71	42.30	37.02	26.50
9	51.01	47.71	42.76	37.37	33.58	30.55	23.27	20.84
10	54.43	52.41	47.81	41.39	38.38	35.18	26.08	14.02
11	52.16	43.94	39.52	37.90	37.27	36.78	29.09	25.69

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**Table 3.** Authors, localization of database and model used for the different PTFs. Legend: VG = van Genuchten, BC = Brooks Corey.

PTF	Region	Model
HYPRES	Europe	VG
Saxton et al. (1986)	USA, nationwide	BC
Campbell and Shiosawa (1992)	No particular	BC
Rawls and Brakensiek (1985)	USA, nationwide	BC
Williams et al. (1992)	Australia	BC
Williams et al. (1992)	Australia	BC
Oosterveld and Chang (1980)	Canada, Alberta	BC
Mayr and Jarvice (1999)	UK	BC
Wösten et al. (1999)	Europe	VG
Varallyay et al. (1982)	Hungary	VG
Vereecken et al. (1989)	Belgium	VG
Wösten et al. (1999)	Europe	VG
Tomasella and Hodnett (1998)	Brazil	VG
Rawls et al. (1982b) (corrected for OM according to Nemes et al., 2009)	USA, nationwide	VG
Gupta and Larson (1979)	Central USA	VG
Rajkai and Varallyay (1992)	Hungary	VG
Rawls et al. (1983) (corrected for OM according to Nemes et al., 2009)	USA, nationwide	VG

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**Table 4.** Results of the calculation of RMSE.

PTF	RMSE % (for samples)										
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
HYPRES	4.6	4.2	3.6	5.5	6.2	3.2	5.3	2.3	4.5	3.7	4.4
Saxton et al. (1986)	5.9	6.3	3.2	6.7	6.8	4.0	4.5	5.6	6.0	5.6	6.2
Campbell and Shio-sawa (1992)	3.7	3.6	2.8	5.7	6.0	4.6	4.8	2.4	4.7	5.2	3.9
Rawls and Braken-siek (1985)	5.4	5.9	2.3	6.0	5.9	3.4	2.9	5.5	4.9	5.0	5.9
Williams et al. (1992)	3.6	4.0	2.0	4.2	4.2	2.8	4.2	3.8	4.0	4.8	4.2
Williams et al. (1992)	4.5	5.0	2.7	5.0	5.0	2.7	3.0	3.5	4.5	4.8	5.0
Oosterveld and Chang (1980)	4.4	5.1	1.7	5.0	4.8	2.4	2.8	4.9	4.0	4.8	5.1
Mayr and Jarvice (1999)	14.5	16.0	12.7	12.6	11.2	13.2	10.0	18.9	12.6	14.5	15.6
Wösten et al. (1999)	3.7	5.7	1.9	5.7	5.6	3.2	4.5	5.4	4.0	4.8	4.4
Varallyay et al. (1982)	6.5	7.7	3.7	4.7	3.6	3.2	1.5	8.2	5.4	7.9	7.5
Vereecken et al. (1989)	4.8	4.7	3.1	7.5	6.4	5.5	5.2	2.0	5.0	4.4	4.7
Wösten et al. (1999)	4.7	4.3	3.0	5.2	5.7	2.6	4.6	3.2	4.5	4.2	4.5
Tomasella and Hod-nett (1998)	13.6	15.2	12.2	17.5	19.4	16.8	12.4	13.1	12.4	12.1	14.8
Rawls et al. (1982)*	5.5	7.1	6.5	7.2	6.8	4.7	5.9	4.1	6.4	5.5	6.6
Gupta and Larson (1979)	8.3	9.2	8.4	11.5	12.5	10.3	9.6	6.3	8.9	7.8	8.9
Rajkai and Varallyay (1992)	9.8	7.3	8.8	12.2	14.5	11.6	12.4	4.2	10.5	9.4	8.0
Rawls et al. (1983)*	4.7	5.4	4.6	6.1	5.6	3.6	4.8	2.7	5.5	5.3	5.3

\* = corrected for OM according to Nemes et al. (2009).

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**Table A1.** Species, life form, *F* index, plant strategies and presence of plant sampled.

<i>n</i>	Species	Life form	<i>F</i> index	Plant strategy	Presence
1	<i>Abutilon theophrasti</i> Medik.	T	2.5	cr	3/52
2	<i>Agrimonia eupatoria</i> L.	T	2	cr	2/52
3	<i>Allium</i> spp.	–	–	–	1/52
4	<i>Alopecurus myosuroides</i> Huds.	T	3	r	10/52
5	<i>Alopecurus pratensis</i> L.	T	3.5	cs	5/52
6	<i>Alopecurus rendlei</i> Eig	T	3	crs	7/52
7	<i>Amaranthus retroflexus</i> L.	T	2.5	cr	18/52
8	<i>Ambrosia artemisiifolia</i> L.	T	2	cr	15/52
9	<i>Amorpha fruticosa</i> L.	H	3.5	crs	1/52
10	<i>Aristolochia clematidis</i> L.	G	3.5	cr	2/52
11	<i>Arrhenatherum elatius</i> (L.) P. Beauv. ex J. and C. Presl	H	3	cr	21/52
12	<i>Artemisia vulgaris</i> L.	G	2.5	crs	13/52
13	<i>Atriplex patula</i> L.	T	2.5	cr	10/52
14	<i>Avena fatua</i> L.	T	2.5	cr	14/52
15	<i>Ballota nigra</i> L.	T	2.5	cr	4/52
16	<i>Bolboschoenus maritimus</i> (L.) Palla	T	4.5	cs	1/52
17	<i>Bromus hordeaceus</i> L.	T	3	cr	14/52
18	<i>Bromus sterilis</i> L.	T	2	r	30/52
19	<i>Capsella bursa-pastoris</i> (L.) Medik.	T	2	r	6/52
20	<i>Cardamine hirsuta</i> L.	T	3	rs	3/52
21	<i>Cerastium</i> spp.	–	–	–	9/52
22	<i>Chenopodium album</i> L.	T	2	r	27/52
23	<i>Cichorium intybus</i> L.	T	2.5	crs	2/52
24	<i>Cirsium arvense</i> (L.) Scop.	T	3	cr	6/52
25	<i>Cirsium vulgare</i> (Savi) Ten.	T	3	cr	1/52
26	<i>Convolvulus arvensis</i> L.	T	2.5	cr	50/52
27	<i>Crepis setosa</i> Haller f.	H	1.5	r	5/52
28	<i>Crepis vesicaria</i> L.	T	2	cr	2/52
29	<i>Cynodon dactylon</i> (L.) Pers.	T	2	cs	44/52
30	<i>Dactylis glomerata</i> L.	H	3	crs	6/52
31	<i>Dipsacus fullonum</i> L.	T	3.5	cr	1/52
32	<i>Echinochloa crusgalli</i> (L.) P. Beauv.	G	3.5	cr	3/52
33	<i>Eleocharis palustris</i> (L.) Roem. and Schult.	H	4.5	crs	2/52
34	<i>Elymus repens</i> (L.) Gould	T	3	cs	52/52
35	<i>Erigeron annuus</i> (L.) Desf.	H	2.5	cr	2/52

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Table A1. Continued.

<i>n</i>	Species	Life form	F index	Plant strategy	Presence
36	<i>Euphorbia cyparissias</i> L.	H	2	crs	1/52
37	<i>Galium aparine</i> L.	G	3	cr	8/52
38	<i>Galium verum</i> L.	H	2.5	crs	2/52
39	<i>Geranium dissectum</i> L.	T	3	cr	17/52
40	<i>Geranium molle</i> L.	H	2.5	cr	9/52
41	<i>Hordeum murinum</i> L.	T	2	r	23/52
42	<i>Humulus japonicus</i> Siebold and Zucc.	T	3.5	cr	1/52
43	<i>Hypericum perforatum</i> L.	G	3	crs	2/52
44	<i>Lactuca serriola</i> L.	H	2	cr	9/52
45	<i>Lamium purpureum</i> L.	T	3	r	7/52
46	<i>Lapsana communis</i> L.	T	3.5	cr	2/52
47	<i>Lepidium draba</i> L.	G	2	cr	3/52
48	<i>Lolium perenne</i> L.	H	3	cr	4/52
49	<i>Lythrum salicaria</i> L.	T	4	cs	1/52
50	<i>Malva alcea</i> L.	T	2.5	cs	2/52
51	<i>Malva sylvestris</i> L.	T	2.5	crs	2/52
52	<i>Matricaria chamomilla</i> L.	H	3	r	2/52
53	<i>Medicago lupulina</i> L.	T	2	rs	3/52
54	<i>Medicago sativa</i> L.	H	2	cs	8/52
55	<i>Melilotus albus</i> Medik.	H	2.5	cr	3/52
56	<i>Mentha arvensis</i> L.	H	3.5	crs	2/52
57	<i>Myosotis arvensis</i> (L.) Hill	T	2	cr	2/52
58	<i>Onopordum acanthium</i> L.	T	2	cr	2/52
59	<i>Ornithogalum umbellatum</i> L.	H	3	crs	1/52
60	<i>Papaver rhoeas</i> L.	H	2	r	1/52
61	<i>Persicaria lapathifolia</i> (L.) Delarbre	H	2.5	cr	2/52
62	<i>Plantago lanceolata</i> L.	H	3.5	crs	8/52
63	<i>Poa pratensis</i> L.	T	3.3	crs	1/52
64	<i>Poa trivialis</i> L.	H	3.5	crs	14/52
65	<i>Polygonum aviculare</i> L.	T	3.5	r	23/52
66	<i>Portulaca oleracea</i> L.	H	2.5	r	1/52
67	<i>Potentilla reptans</i> L.	H	3	crs	3/52
68	<i>Ranunculus bulbosus</i> L.	H	2	crs	10/52
69	<i>Robinia pseudoacacia</i> L.	H	2.5	c	1/52
70	<i>Rumex crispus</i> L.	H	3.5	cr	44/52

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Table A1. Continued.

<i>n</i>	Species	Life form	F index	Plant strategy	Presence
71	<i>Rumex pulcher</i> L.	H	3	crs	5/52
72	<i>Salix alba</i> L.	T	4.5	c	1/52
73	<i>Salvia pratensis</i> L.	H	2	crs	2/52
74	<i>Solanum nigrum</i> L.	G	3	r	2/52
75	<i>Sonchus asper</i> (L.) Hill	H	3.5	cr	3/52
76	<i>Sonchus oleraceus</i> L.	H	3	cr	2/52
77	<i>Sorghum halepense</i> (L.) Pers.	H	2	c	2/52
78	<i>Stellaria media</i> (L.) Vill.	H	3	cr	14/52
79	<i>Tanacetum vulgare</i> L.	H	3.5	c	2/52
80	<i>Taraxacum officinale</i> Weber	G	3	crs	3/52
81	<i>Torilis arvensis</i> (Huds.) Link	H	2	cr	2/52
82	<i>Trifolium fragiferum</i> L.	H	3	crs	2/52
83	<i>Trifolium pratense</i> L.	G	3	crs	3/52
84	<i>Trifolium repens</i> L.	H	3	crs	4/52
85	<i>Valerianella</i> spp.	–	–	–	2/52
86	<i>Verbascum thapsus</i> L.	P	2.5	crs	4/52
87	<i>Verbena officinalis</i> L.	P	3	cr	8/52
88	<i>Veronica persica</i> Poir.	P	3	cr	15/52
89	<i>Vicia sativa</i> L.	T	3	cr	19/52
90	<i>Xanthium orientale</i> L. subsp. <i>italicum</i> (Moretti) Greuter	G	3	cr	4/52

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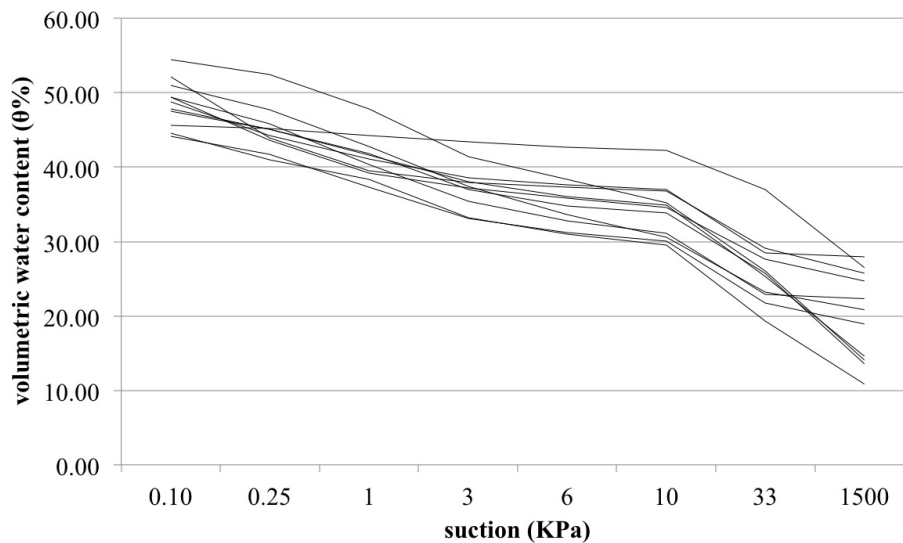


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**Figure 1.** Water retention curves of sampled soils.

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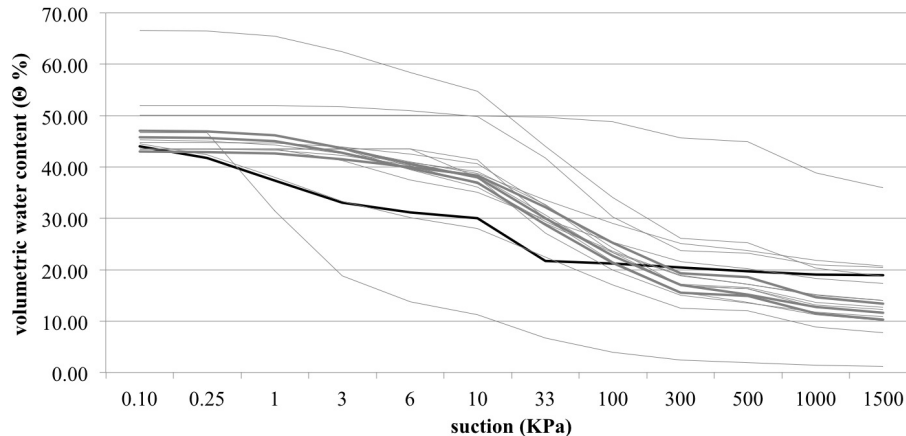
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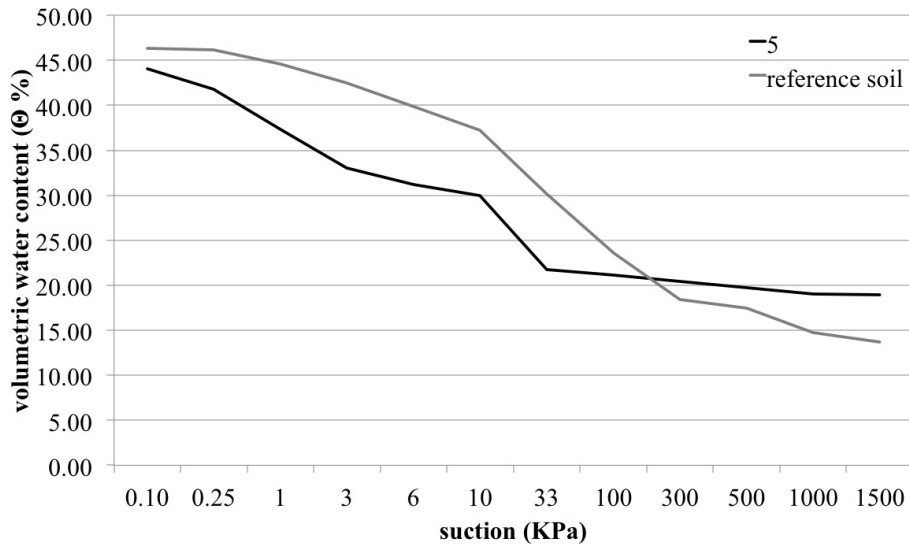
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**Figure 2.** Sample 5: real (black) and PTFs water retention curves; the curves by Wösten et al. (1999) are highlighted.

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**Figure 3.** Comparison between sample 5 water retention curve and reference curve – described as the arithmetic mean of PTFs values.

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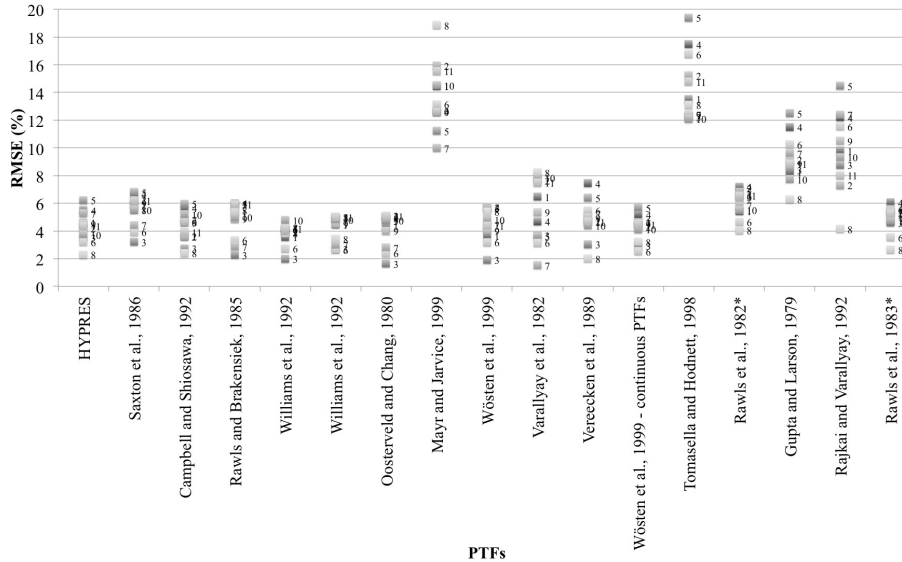
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**Figure 4.** Matrix representing the result of RMSE test, each pixel for a combination of soil's PTF and RMSE.

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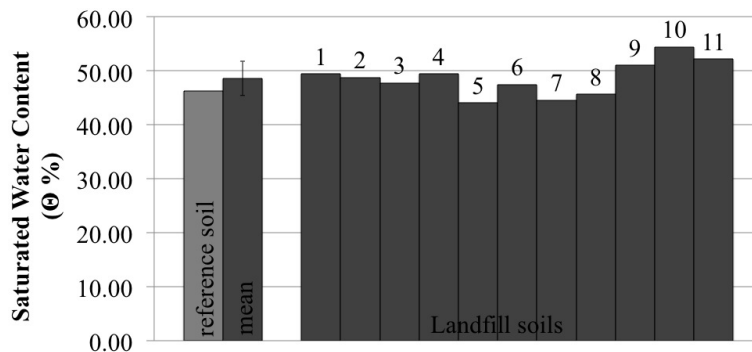
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**Figure 5.** Volumetric water content ( $\theta$  %) at suction 0.10 kPa: comparison between reference soil and landfill soils.

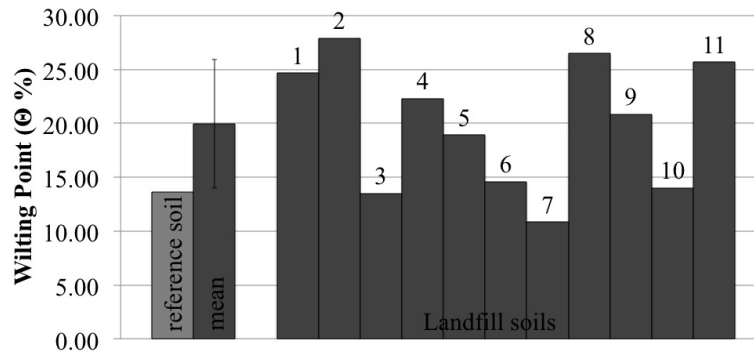
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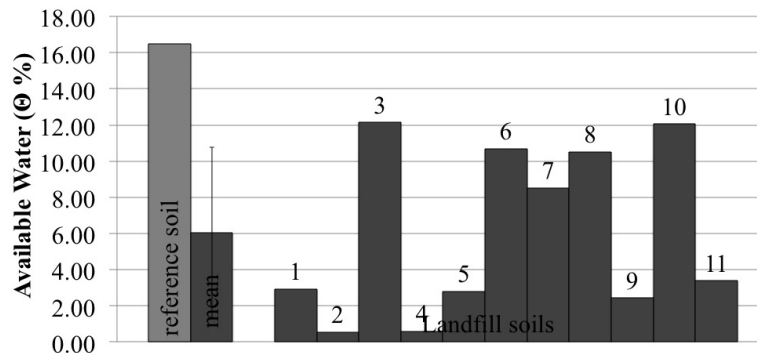
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**Figure 7.** Volumetric water content ( $\theta$ %) at a suction of 1500 kPa: comparison between reference soil and landfill soils.

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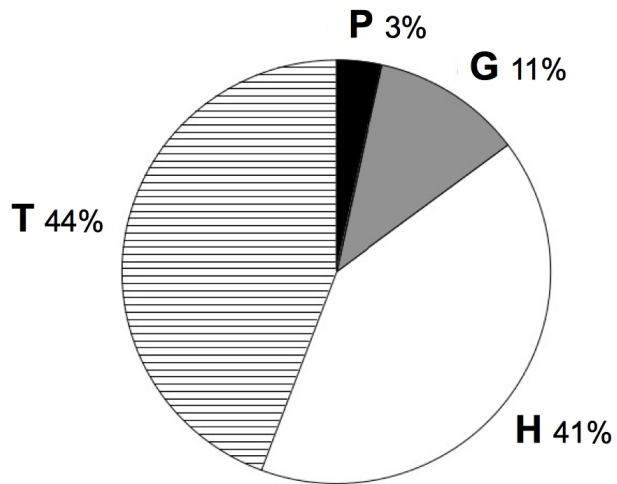
**Figure 8.** Available water to plants ( $\theta$  %): comparison between reference soil and landfill soils.

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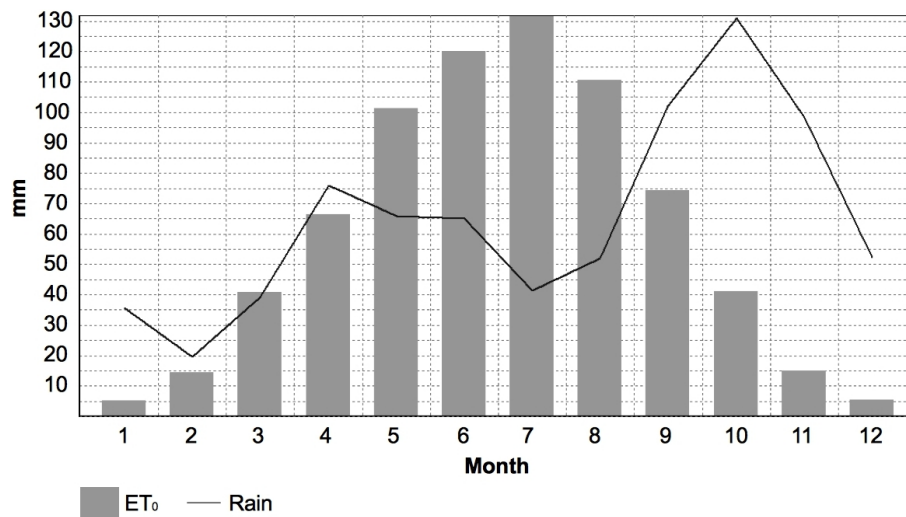


**Figure 9.** Biological spectrum of flora list (T = Therophytes; H = Hemicryptophytes; G = Geophytes; P = Phanerophytes).

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**Figure 10.** Monthly rainfall and evapotranspiration (ET<sub>0</sub>). Climate data source: San Lazzaro Alberoni weather station (Piacenza 1961–2005).

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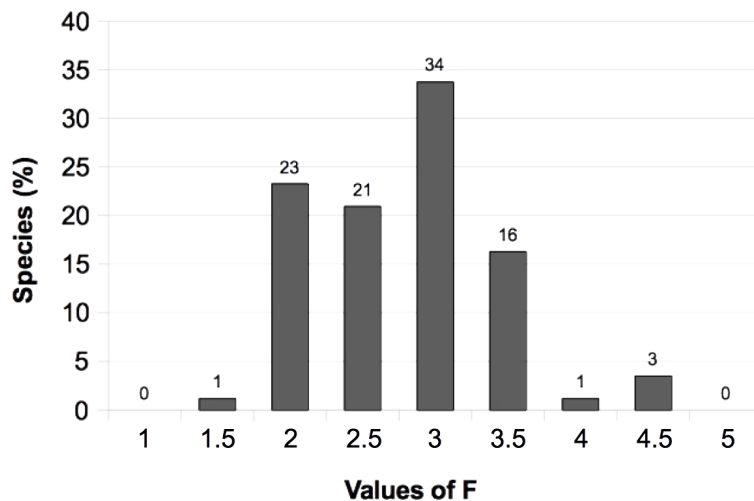
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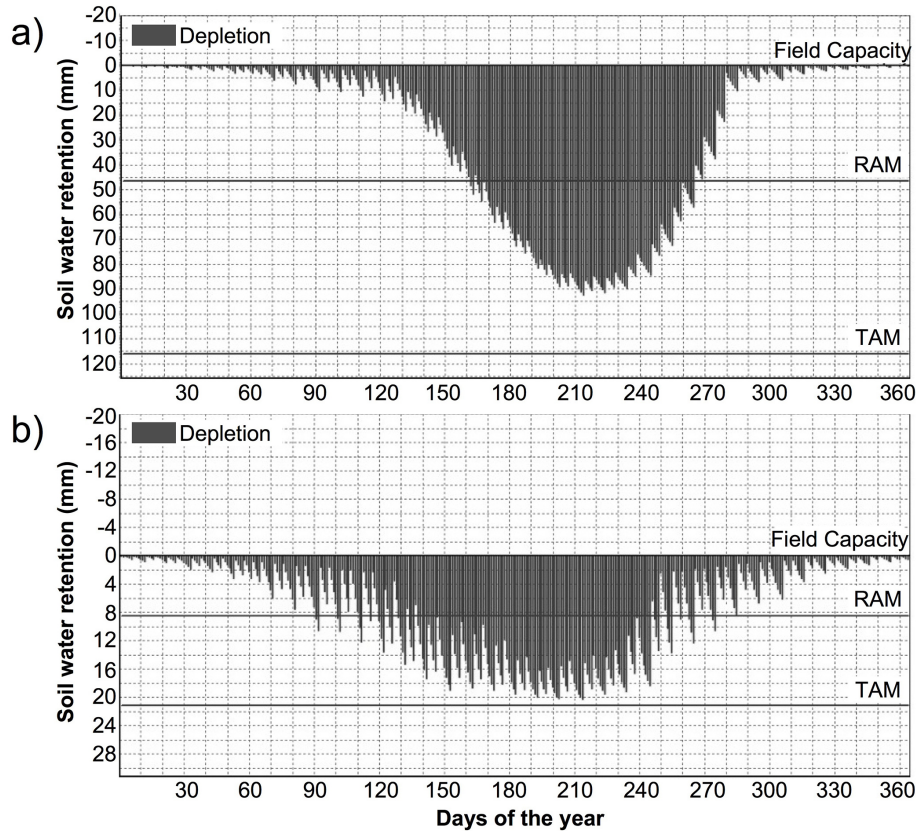
**Figure 11.** F index (soil moisture). Percentages are weighted by the frequency of the species in the monitoring sites (see column “Presence” in the Appendix). Legend: 1 = very dry, 1.5 = dry, 2 = moderately dry; 2.5 = fresh, 3 = moderately moist; 3.5 = moist, 4 = very moist, 4.5 = wet, 5 = flooded or submerged.

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**Figure 12.** Water lost from agricultural soil (a) and from the landfill cover soil (b) by Crop Wat 8.0 software. Legend: RAM = readily available moisture; TAM = total available moisture.

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