Dear Editor,

The authors would like to thank the reviewers for their contributions to this manuscript. We must acknowledge that the incorporation of the recommended suggestions improved the quality of the manuscript. All concerns were meticulously addressed. We believe that this work will be a great addition to Solid Earth.

Response to Reviewers Comments

P. Sarah (Referee)

General comment

The paper aims to examine the potential management-induced alteration in soil salinity indicators in golf course facilities and to develop predictive relationships for a more rapid soil salinity examination within urban landscape soils using findings from portable x-ray fluorescence (PXRF) spectrometer. The authors give attention to the risk of salinization because of irrigation in golf courses which are major users of irrigation water per unit area.They provide evidences on the alteration of soil characteristics because of land management. Their findings are of great importance for the urban system.

The description of the "study sites" and" materials and methods" needs more information and more clarified information. I recommend to separate "Results and discussion" into "results" and "discussion". The" Introduction" and "Materials and methods" should be improved by more citations and information, respectively. This is the basis for analysis of the data and for comparison with other studies.

The authors would wish to remain with combined results and discussion since the manuscript has already been written in that format. I think the style may be field-specific. A number of final revised papers on Solid Earth particularly in the field of soil science, have a combined results and discussion. Please see final papers in SE published with combined "Results and Discussion" below:

Scale effect on runoff and soil loss control using rice straw mulch under laboratory conditions
S. H. R. Sadeghi, L. Gholami, E. Sharifi, A. Khaledi Darvishan, and M. Homaee
Solid Earth, 6, 1-8, 2015

Soil organic carbon along an altitudinal gradient in the Despeñaperros Natural Park, southern Spain
L. Parras-Alcántara, B. Lozano-García, and A. Galán-Espejo
Solid Earth, 6, 125-134, 2015

Impact of the addition of different plant residues on nitrogen mineralization–immobilization turnover and carbon content of a soil incubated under laboratory conditions

M. Kaleeem Abbasi, M. Mahmood Tahir, N. Sabir, and M. Khurshid
Solid Earth, 6, 197-205, 2015

Kinetics of potassium release in sweet potato cropped soils: a case study in the highlands of Papua New Guinea
B. K. Rajashekhar Rao
Solid Earth, 6, 217-225, 2015

Factors driving the carbon mineralization priming effect in a sandy loam soil amended with different types of biochar
P. Cely, A. M. Tarquis, J. Paz-Ferreiro, A. Méndez, and G. Gascó
Page(s) 585-594

Conventional tillage versus organic farming in relation to soil organic carbon stock in olive groves in Mediterranean rangelands (southern Spain)
L. Parras-Alcántara and B. Lozano-García
Page(s) 299-311

Specific comments Additional references related to the introduction (such as Soil sodium and potassium adsorption ratio along a Mediterranean-arid transect. J. Arid Environments 59(4), 731-741; Soluble salts dynamics in the soil under different climatic regions. Catena 43(4), 307-321) should be given.

We appreciate the suggestion. The following reference(s) has been added to strengthen the introduction:
Pariente, S. (2001). Soluble salts dynamics in the soil under different climatic conditions. Catena, 43(4), 307-321. (line 71 and 395-396)

P 3 L 15: Add values of “relatively higher level of soluble salts”. Higher than what?

This sentence has been modified to read “Given the chemical properties of soils in the semi-arid and arid regions, which are typified by high pH (>7.0) and limited leaching of soluble salts (IUSS Working Group, 2006), poor management practices could lead to soil salinization (line 66-68)

A detail description of the study sites might support the discussion. Information on climate rainfall amount and distribution, temperature, relative humidity), lithology, topography and history (date of construction) should be completed.

The requested information has been added as shown below: (line 121-125)

This area is characterized by semi-arid climatic conditions. Mean weather parameters recorded in year 2013 when soil sampling was conducted were 320 mm (for precipitation), 61°F (ambient air temperature), 53% (relative humidity), and 18.2 mph (wind speed) (NOAA, 2015). Geological materials are composed mainly of Quaternary aeolian sand and loess (Nordstrom and Hotta, 2004).

Supporting references added:

NOAA: NOAA Online Weather Data (Lubbock Area), available: http://www.weather.gov/climate/xmacis.php?wfo=lub, accessed Feb. 22, 2015.

Nordstrom, K. F., and Hotta, S.: Wind erosion from cropland in the USA: a review of problems, solutions and prospects, Geoderma, 121(3), 157-167, 2004.

P 5 L 15: "seven golf course facilities spread all over the city were selected". Selected in random? Are they similar in their structure (organization), topography, history? What is the area of each facility? All of these might explain the range of the results in these areas (and added to the discussion too).

Almost all the golf courses in the city selected for this purpose, so not random. They are located all over the city. The golf courses are similar in topography but varies size and age (all > 12 years old). The average golf course fairway contains 10 to 12 hectares of irrigated fairways (line 121).

But it is important to note that our goal was not to compare golf courses (we are not accounting for differences among golf courses) but rather to examine the differences between the managed and non-managed zones at each golf course. Information of the history (age) of the golf courses have been added (line 127).

P 5 L22: ". . .
non-managed areas were composed of poorly managed grass cover, native vegetation, or bare soil." Assessment of the cover percentage of each type of cover should be added. The root system of different types of veg. might affect soil depth characteristics including leaching, upwards movement of salts. It might give an additional explanation to the differences between the managed and non-managed treatments. The species (full names) are also indicative for treatment type.

The non-managed sites were more like zones adjacent to the fairways that are not receiving irrigation, fertilization, and other management practices. They were sparsely covered by vegetation so the % cover of the native vegetation was not taken into account. We agree that the root system of the different types of vegetation could affect soil depth characteristics but in this instance, there are not many different types of vegetation. We don't think this is of interest to this study since we are mainly examining changes in chemical properties which will be influenced more by management (irrigation and possibility fertilization) and minimally by the grass species.

In the summary you mentioned that the research area is characterized by wind erosion. Don't you think that the difference between the treatments in soil salinity can be attributed, in addition to irrigation etc', to the roughness of the land, i.e., differences in the potential of vegetation cover and type to trap dust? (Soluble salts dynamics in the soil under different climatic regions. Catena 43(4), 307-321)

This is a very good question. However, we do not think the differences in vegetation and possible dust trapping will be sensitive enough to cause differences in soluble salt dynamics within almost the same geological and geographical boundaries and climate as the case in this study.

P 6. . .L 1: How many samples? In what season the samples were taken? More details/description on the biomass of the sites is needed. Such details can improve the discussion (For example: P 8 L 21).

The number of samples has been added. Likewise the season of sampling has also been added. More supporting information has also been added (line 138, 141-144).

P 10 L 26: "Besides irrigation, this shift toward salinization is further supported by the semi-arid condition of the study site, characterized by low rainfall and less leaching of the soluble salts, leading to their build up in the top soil." Salts in the soil represent . . ...Can you relate to the hydraulic conductivity of each soil layer? Is it similar/not similar in both the managed and no-managed? The HD in depth can affect the EC in the upper soil layers.

Good suggestion! However, our focus was more on the chemical properties. The physical properties are also important but not the focus of this study and may be covered in any upcoming study at some of these facilities. We also believe that differences in hydraulic conductivity (if existing) could also factor into the resultant effect of management practices as well.

P 13 L 10-11:
"This is an area characterized by semi-arid climatic conditions, typified by drought, wind erosion, salinization, etc." What other characteristics are included in "etc"

The "etc" has been removed and the sentence modified to:

"This is an area characterized by semi-arid climatic conditions, typified by drought, wind erosion, and potential for soil salinization" (line 321-323).

One of your findings was "Irrigation tended to increase the salinity and sodicity properties of the soils. . ." . Based on the values of soil EC, ESP and SAR that you have found, do you think that there is a risk for salinization of the golf areas.

With the evidence gathered from this study and the increasing dependence on the Ogallala Aquifer which is declining in both quantity and quality, coupled with the unique management practices at these facilities, there could be a possibility of soil salinization over time (years). Na is already an issue at some of these facilities.

<u>Anonymous Referee #2</u>

Received and published: 5 February 2015

General Overview

This manuscript reports on an interesting and relevant phenomena, namely, the salinization of soil through irrigation and other management practices. While this has received a fair amount of attention in agricultural settings, it has been less studied in urban/recreational settings and is thus worthy of attention. Given the Introduction, I expected to read more about the potential use of PXRF in tracking soil salinization, including advantages and disadvantages of the PXRF itself and some comparisons to other options. Instead, the PXRF is relegated to a rather minor mention at the tail end of the manuscript which I found to be, in my opinion, overly brief in its treatment of the topic. In addition, other means of determining soil salinity and sodicity, particularly EMI, have been highly reported on in the literature (e.g., Williams and Baker, 1982; van der Lelij, 1983; Ammons et al., 1989; Cook et al., 1989; Diaz and Herrero, 1992; Lesch et al., 1992; Nettleton et al., 1994; Doolittle et al., 2001; Williams et al., 2006; Thomas et al., 2009; Ganjegunte and Braun, 2011; Heilig et al., 2011, etc.). How, or does, the use of PXRF improve on other available techniques? What are the advantages and disadvantages in relation to these other technologies? For that matter, how, or is, PXRF an improvement over traditional sampling and laboratory analysis? In other words, why should I as a soil scientist be interested in using PXRF in an investigation of soil salinity versus the other options that are available to me? I'm sure the authors can answer these questions; doing so would significantly improve the manuscript.

We appreciate the contribution of the reviewer. However, the title of this manuscript was modified before its publication in <u>Solid Earth Discuss.</u>, to read "<u>Evaluating management-induced soil salinization in golf courses in semi-arid landscapes</u>" This was done to reduce the weight on PXRF. This study was not solely PXRF-based, a portion of the work dealt with the application of the tool to urban landscape (golf courses).

Information on the advantage of this tool has been highlighted (line 101-106) and one of the major limitations (disadvantages) which is it's inability to measure a number of important elements such as Na was already mentioned (line 313-315).

Yes, EMI has been widely reported but the advantage of the PXRF over the EMI is that it can be used to examine the chemical species that contribute and or control salinity as highlighted by our findings (see section 3.4 and the abstract). Also see the changes made in line104-106

Finally, the entire manuscript needs to be carefully read through and edited for English. I have certainly read far worse, but there are enough places where the writing is a bit weak that it distracts from the overall paper. Addressing the issues above would lead to a paper that, in my opinion, Soil Earth should welcome into their journal.

The entire paper has been carefully read through again.

Specific Comments Page 92, Line 3 – An example of English that needs to be cleaned up. This should be “. . better assessments of their. . .”, not “. . .better assertions of their. . .”. I won’t spend time pointing out all such issues, but the manuscript needs a good editing.

This has been corrected (line 29).

Page 94, Lines 8 and 9 – The USGA reference cited gives water use in length/yr/area units, which makes more sense than the 1200 mm/yr and 600 mm/yr units given here. I assume these should be 1200 mm/yr/ha and 600 mm/yr/ha?

This represents the depth of water needed in length, irrespective of size of the area, so this is correct.

Page 94, Lines 17-19 – The Weindorf group has done good work with the application of the PXRF to soils work, but this statement would be significantly strengthened by introducing some references that do not come from theWeindorf research group (every single reference in this list is from the Weindorf group). There are many that would work; examples include Bernick et al., 1995; Clark et al., 1999; Kilbride et al., 2006; and Jang, 2010. I suggest working references from some other research groups into the manuscript here.

Kilbride et al., 2006; and Jang, 2010 have been incorporated (line 376-380).

Page 95, Line 8 – “...for a more rapid soil salinity examiniation. . .” More rapid than what? I assume this is a very underdeveloped attempt to work in a comparison of the use of PXRF for salinity studies versus other techniques (something I noted was needed in my general comments), but this idea needs to be developed and clearly communicated. As currently written, it is just a vague suggestion that doesn’t carry any weight. Other techniques to investigate soil salinization could be discussed earlier in the Introduction. Then, here, you introduce the idea that this study is looking to investigate whether PXRF might be a (more rapid/less expensive/any other advantages that are applicable) technique than those currently available to investigate soil salinization.

This has been addressed. The advantages of the PXRF over the traditional wet chemistry techniques and electromagnetic induction have been highlighted (line 101-106).

Page 97, Lines 17-18 – Study sites A-G = 7 facilities being studied. Here, the numbers of facilities providing water quality data only add up to 4 facilities. Please explain the discrepancy.

We specified that the all the golf course are pumping water from the same aquifer and thus and not all the golf course have documented water report. Since they are all pumping from the same aquifer within the same city, there is no much need for individual golf course water report (176-178).

Page 101, Lines 4 and 8 – It refers to “2-folds” and “2-11 folds” here. It would be better to use “2-times” and “2-11 times”.

These have been modified (line 264-269).

Page 101, Lines 5-7 – It speculates here that pollutants in the retention pond water were taken up by vegetation and/or settled to the bottom of the pond. What about the idea that the pollutants were never there to begin with? My bet is the source of the salt ions in the well water is the geologic formations that water flows through, and the salts are dissolved into the groundwater as it makes its way through the rocks and sediments. The water in the retention pond is from runoff, which never interacted with these deeper geologic units. Ideally you would have water quality data for runoff entering the retention pond, which would clarify the situation, but that data probably isn't available. Given that, a more complete discussion of potential reasons the retention pond water is lower in dissolved ions would be appropriate.

This has been modified to read:
These differences could be most likely attributed to the inherently low pollutant concentration in rain water, filtration of pollutants as it flows over vegetation on its way to the pond, and further settling of pollutants and uptake by vegetation in the reservoir (line 265-268)

Page 101, Line 13 – Again, should this be 120 cm/yr/ha? Also, back on page 94 the units were mm, now they are cm. This should be changed to 1200 mm to be consistent in unit use.
We appreciate this and it has been changed. The correct number and unit is 1200 mm yr^{-1} (line 273)

Page 101, Line 21 – It is Terrel and Johnson, 1999, not Terrel et al., 1999.

These have been modified to read "Terrel and Johnson, 1999; Terrel et al., 2002" (line 280-281).

Page 101, Line 23 – I have passed by many writing issues, but can't pass this one by.". . .water sources justifies the. . ." The water sources don't justify anything, however, they probably "explain" the higher SAR and ESP values.

This has been changed to "likely explains" (line 283).

Page 101, Line 26 – ". . .that still impacted higher. . ." should be ". . .that still led to higher. . ."

This has been changed to "led" (line 285)

Pages 102-103, Section 3.4 – Comparisons of PXRF to other methods of determining soil salinity? Strengths and weakness of PXRF itself and as compared to other methods?
This section should be expanded to be a more complete discussion of where PXRF may fit, based on this study, within the various methods we have available to investigate soil salinity issues.
We appreciate this suggestion. This has been done as earlier suggested (line 101-106)

Page 102, Line 28 – “. . .that could be. . .” should be “. . .that could possibly be. . .” This study does not demonstrate that the PXRF technique will work in other places, but it does provide justification for researching that possibility.

We agree, thus, the use of the word “could”.

Page 103, Line 16 – Delete “. . .in the semi-arid region of the USA. . .” It has already been established that the study took part in a semi-arid region of the USA.

This has been deleted (327).

Page 104, Lines 2 and 3 – The word “quantity” is used twice here, but the way the sentence is written it seems like one of these should be quantity and the other quality.

Thanks! The second “quantity” has been changed to “quality” (line 338).

Page 104, Author contributions – The contributions of every author except D.C. Weindorf are explained, the Weindorf contributions should be added.

The contribution of D.C Weindorf has been added (line 346-347)

Tables – Retention pond needs to be used consistently in these. On Table 1 “surface” is used, I assume that should be “retention pond”. On Table 3 “lake” is used, again I assume that should be “retention pond”. Consistency in labeling is very important.

All the changes have been made with respect to retention pond in Tables 1, 2, and 3.

Figure 2 – The choice of pattern for the bar graphs is poor. While I can tell the difference between the patterns in the bar graphs, they don’t differentiate in the small windows for the key. Solid Earth is an online journal that doesn’t charge for color. I suggest using a dark color for managed and a light color for non-managed. This will show up well on a computer screen and will also work if someone prints out and then photocopies the paper in black and white (grayscale).

Figure 2 has been modified as suggested and legend enlarged to show the difference.

Figure 3 caption – Is this data for a golf course or for multiple golf courses? Please reword to make this more clear. Also, Table 3 says the n for the wells is 15, but adding up the n values in the Figure 3 caption gives 21. Why the difference?

Thanks for the observation.
Clarification: “n” in Table 3 has been changed to number of years, while “n” in Figure 3 represents number of data point used, all from one golf course that has well documented history of water quality (as indicated in the title). Note in some years, the golf course in question conducted water analysis twice.

Suggested References:

We appreciate the contribution of the reviewer. A number of the suggested references relevant to the study has been selected and incorporated into the manuscript.

Jang, M., 2010. Application of portable X-ray fluorescence (pXRF) for heavy metal analysis of soils in crop fields near abandoned mine sites. Environmental Geochemistry and Health 32(3), 207-216.

Kilbride, C., Poole, J., Hutchings, T.R., 2006. A comparison of Cu, Pb, As, Cd, Zn, Fe, Ni and Mn determined by acid extraction/ICP–OES and ex situ field portable X-ray fluorescence analyses. Environmental Pollution 143(1), 16-23.

Evaluating management-induced soil salinization in golf courses in semi-arid landscapes

Joseph Young[1], Theophilus K. Udeigwe[1]*, David C. Weindorf[1], Tarek Kandakji[1], Prativa Gautam[1], and Mahmoud M.A. Mahmoud[2]

[1]Department of Plant and Soil Science, Texas Tech University, Lubbock, TX 79409, USA

[2]Soil, Water & Environment Research Institute (SWERI), Agricultural Research Center (ARC), Giza, Egypt

*Corresponding author: Theophilus K. Udeigwe

Address: Department of Plant and Soil Science, Texas Tech University

2907 15th Street, Lubbock, TX 79409, USA.

Tel: 1-806-834 6664

Fax: 1-806-742-0775

E-mail: theo.udeigwe@ttu.edu

Abstract

Site-specific information on land management practices are often desired to make better ~~assertions~~ assessments of their environmental impacts. A study was conducted in Lubbock, TX, in the Southern High Plains of the United States, an area characterized by semi-arid climatic conditions, to (1) examine the potential management-induced alteration in soil salinity indicators in golf course facilities, and (2) develop predictive relationships for a more rapid soil salinity examination within these urban landscape soils using findings from portable x-ray fluorescence (PXRF) spectrometer. Soil samples were collected from managed (well irrigated) and non-managed (non-irrigated) areas of seven golf course facilities at 0–10, 10–20, and 20–30 cm depths, and analyzed for a suite of chemical properties. Among the extractable cations, sodium (Na) was significantly ($p < 0.05$) higher in the managed zones of all the golf facilities. Soil electrical conductivity (EC), exchangeable sodium percentage (ESP), and sodium adsorption ratio (SAR), parameters often used in characterizing soil salinity and sodicity, were in most part significantly ($p < 0.05$) higher in the managed areas. Water quality report collected over a 22-year period (1991–2013, all years not available) indicated a gradual increase in pH, EC, SAR, total alkalinity, and extractable ions, thus, supporting the former findings. Findings from the PXRF suggested possible differences in chemical species and sources that contribute to salinity between the managed and non-managed zones. PXRF quantified Cl and S, and to a lesser extent Ca, individually and collectively explained 23–85% of the variability associated with soil salinity at these facilities.

Keywords: salinity, sodicity, Ogallala, drought, water quality, management practices, chemical properties.

1 Introduction

Soil salinization is a global environmental problem that has gained a lot of research attention over the years (Pitman and Läuchli, 2002; Martinez-Beltran and Manzur, 2005; Herrero and Pérez-Coveta, 2005; Fan, 2012). Site-specific research on soil salinization are often needed because generalization of findings could be misleading. The Southern High Plains (SHP) of the United States (US), an area characterized by semi-arid climatic conditions (Peel et al., 2007), is noted for complex environmental challenges such as drought, dust, wind erosion, soil salinization, and nutrient deficiency. Nevertheless, in this region lie very important economic cities, such as Lubbock that substantially contributes to US cotton production (USDA-NASS, 2014). Lubbock, located in the northwestern part of Texas, among other environmental challenges is currently plagued by extreme water scarcity, attributed to low precipitation (a 30-year average annual precipitation of approximately 470 mm) and the declining local aquifer, the Ogallala. Recent observations have also shown an increasing pollutant concentration in well waters (Scanlon et al., 2005), therefore, a concern over the water quality of the aquifer. Thus, the intensification of agricultural and municipal activities could have a substantial impact on water quantity and soil quality in this region.

Given the chemical properties of soils in the semi-arid and arid regions, which are typified by high pH (>7.0) and ~~the relatively higher level~~limited leaching of soluble salts (IUSS Working Group, 2006), poor management practices could ~~lead to~~induce soil salinization. In most semi-arid and arid regions of the world, the unavailability of sufficient rainfall is often associated with impaired soil quality as salts tend to accumulate in the soil as a result of limited leaching (Pariente, 2001). This could result to soil salinization; a process where salts build up in the soil to a potentially toxic level (Pitman and Lauchli, 2002; Rengasamy, 2006). Such altered chemical properties could affect the soil hydraulic properties and its susceptibility to erosion (Morgan, 2009), environmental fate of soil pollutants (Du et al., 2009), and nutrient availability to agronomic crops (Havlin et al., 2005). Poor quality irrigation water could also worsen such scenarios as more contaminants from the water are continuously added; a typical case being the declining Ogallala aquifer, which has been noted as a potential source of arsenic (As) and nitrate (NO_3^-) to irrigated agricultural soils in the SHP (Hudak, 2000; Scanlon et al., 2005). Although a common topic, but there are still very limited scientific reference materials on soil salinization in agricultural and urban landscapes in the study area.

The first approach to addressing environmental degradations resulting from contaminations is usually the identification of the major contributors. Evidently, in this region, management (irrigation)-induced soil salinization has received less attention, particularly within urban landscape facilities such as golf courses, despite its severity. Golf courses are major users of irrigation water per unit area; a typical 18-hole golf facility in Southwest region could use an average of approximately 1200 $mmyr^{-1}$ of water (USGA, 2012) compared to 600 $mmyr^{-1}$ for a fully irrigated cotton in the same region (Snowden et al., 2013). Thus, in assessing the potential impact of impaired water quality on soil and other environmental media in any setting, it will be logical to examine the contributions of major irrigation water users in that given region of interest. With the increasing severity of environmental degradation in the SHP region, it will be of great interest to attempt to extend the applications of modern tools such as the portable x-ray fluorescence (PXRF) for a more rapid investigation of environmental contamination, particularly relating to soil salinization in golf course facilities. This tool is gaining importance in the fields of soil and environmental sciences (Kilbride et al., 2006; Jang, 2010; McWhirt et al., 2012; Gardner et al., 2013; Hu et al., 2014; Weindorf et al., 2014). Swanhart et al. (2015) demonstrated the utility of using PXRF for soil salinity determination. This approach was further refined by Aldabaa et al. (2015) who coupled PXRF data with visible near infrared diffuse reflectance spectra as well as hyperspectral satellite data for improved measurement of salinity in playas of West Texas, USA. This tool has also been extended to gypsum determination in arid soils (Weindorf et al., 2013). The proposed study serves as an attempt to extend the application of the PXRF to soil salinity examination in urban landscapes of the semi-arid climates. The main advantage of this tool is its ability to quantify elements in an environmental medium such as soil with minimal need for sample preparation, thereby, saving time and labor (Kalnicky and Singhvi, 2001) compared to the traditional wet chemistry techniques. Likewise, other tools for field-scale salinity measurement such as electromagnetic induction, will not provide information on the chemical species contributing or controlling salinity.

We hypothesize that there will be significant differences in key chemical properties between managed and non-managed areas of golf course facilities. This was deduced from the fact that in addition to the unique management practices of golf course facilities such as perennial monoculture, less soil pulverization, and extended irrigation window, the managed zones are frequently irrigated and would reflect the state of the irrigation water quality. Given the semi-arid climatic condition of the study area and the characteristically alkaline nature of the soils, these hypothesized differences could be more obvious in their salinity and/or sodicity properties. Thus, the objective of this study were to (1) examine the possible management-induced changes in soil chemical properties, particularly those significant to salinization, within golf course facilities in a semi-arid climate, and (2) develop predictive relationships for a more rapid soil salinity examination within these urban landscape soils using findings from PXRF.

2 Materials and methods

2.1 Study site description

This study was conducted in Lubbock, Texas, USA. Lubbock lies within 33° 34′ N and 101° 53′ W and sits on an elevation of 990 m.a.s.l. (USGS, 2014). This area is characterized by semi-arid climatic conditions. Mean weather parameters recorded in year 2013 when soil sampling was conducted were 320 mm (for precipitation), 61°F (ambient air temperature), 53% (relative humidity), and 18.2 mph (wind speed) (NOAA, 2015). Geological materials are composed mainly of Quaternary aeolian sand and loess (Nordstrom and Hotta, 2004). To achieve our objectives, seven golf course facilities spread all over the city were selected for this study. Each facility has been under management for at least 12 years. Figure 1 shows the locations of the selected facilities, which are designated as A, B, C, D, E, F, and G. Using web soil survey, soil types at the sites were broadly identified to belong to the Amarillo series (Fine-loamy, mixed, superactive, thermic Aridic Paleustalfs) and Acuff series (Fine-loamy, mixed, superactive, thermic Aridic Paleustolls). The average golf course contains 10 to 12 ha of irrigated fairways. All managed fairways were planted with hybrid bermudagrass (*Cynodon dactylon* (L.) Pers. x *C. transvaalensis* Burtt-Davy) while the non-managed areas were composed of poorly managed grass cover, native vegetation, or bare soil.

2.2 Soil sampling and handling

The fairways which are consistently irrigated were designated as the "managed areas", whereas adjacent areas of similar soil types that are not irrigated or managed were designated as the "non-managed areas" in each facility. In each area, 3-4 core samples were randomly collected using a 30 cm long x 6 cm wide (diameter) core sampler and then separated into three depths of 0–10, 10–20, and 20–30 cm, then samples from same depth were combined to get a representative sample. Soil sampling was conducted once within months of June and July in

2013. Sampling was conducted only once since the aim of the study was to evaluate the resultant cumulative effect of many years (> 12 years) of management practices on soil chemical properties of interest. Collected soil samples were then transported to the lab, air dried, ground and passed through a 2 mm sieve.

2.3 Soil characterization

Soil samples were analyzed for a suite of chemical properties. Soil electrical conductivity (EC) and pH were measured in a 1:2 solid (soil) to water suspension (Rhoades, 1996). Total carbon (C) and nitrogen (N) were analyzed using a TruSpec C/N analyzer (LECO, St Joseph, MI). Organic matter (OM) was determined using a modified Walkley and Black method (Nelson and Sommers, 1996), using sodium (Na) dichromate and read on Gilford unit. Percent calcium carbonate ($CaCO_3$) was determined by the tensimeter approach (Soil Survey Staff, 1996); a modification of the pressure calcimeter approach (Loeppert and Suarez, 1996). Exchangeable Na, calcium (Ca), magnesium (Mg) and potassium (K) were measured in ammonium acetate extract (Soil Survey Staff, 2009) using atomic absorption spectrometer (AAS) (Spectra AA 220, Varian, Palo Alto,California). Exchangeable sodium percentage (ESP) was calculated using measured exchangeable cation values (Sparks, 2003). Sodium adsorption ratio (SAR) was determined using the established relationship between ESR and SAR of saturated extract developed by US Salinity Laboratory (Richards, 1954; Sparks, 2003). For the purpose and scope of this study, water extractable chloride (Cl^-) and bicarbonate (HCO_3^-) were measured in 1:5 soil water extract and Cl^- concentration determined by titration with 0.005M silver nitrate (AgNO3) standard following Mohr titration approach (Soil Survey Staff, 1996), and HCO_3^- by titration with 0.01M sulfuric acid (H2SO4) (Soil Survey Staff, 1996).

2.4 PXRF scanning

Collected samples were scanned using a PXRF (DP-6000 Delta Premium, Olympus, Waltham, MA, USA) equipped with a Rh-X-ray tube which is operated at 10–40 kV with integrated silicon drift detector (165 eV) (USEPA, 2007). The tool was operated in the Soil Mode to measure a suite of elements, among which only Cl, K, S, and Ca were selected for our purpose. Importantly, PXRF is not able to quantify Na, given its small, stable electron cloud. Soil mode consist of three beams operating sequentially, each set to scan for 30 s for a total scan time of 90 s per sample. Calibration of the instrument was conducted before sample analysis using a 316 alloy chip fitted to the aperture. Each soil sample was scanned in triplicate and the average value reported. The data on elemental concentration and limit of detection (LOD) (three times the standard error) were obtained and compiled.

2.5 Water quality

Water quality reports were obtained from the various golf course facilities, where available. Since the facilities pump from the same groundwater source, the available reports were enough to achieve the objectives of this study. In summary, 12 years (1991–2013, not all years were included) of data were provided by one of the facilities, 2 years by another (2009–2010), 1 year each (2011 and 2013) by the remaining two facilities. The data sets broken down by water sources were: well (12 years of data), retention pond (3 years) and recycled wastewater (1 year). Water quality parameters reported include, EC, pH, SAR, Na, Mg, K, Ca, HCO_3^-, S in SO_4^{-2}, Cl^-, and total alkalinity.

2.6 Statistical analyses

All statistical analyses were performed using the Statistical Analysis Software (SAS 9.3, SAS Institute, Cary, NC). Differences among means were examined using PROC GLM. Single and multiple linear regression analyses using the stepwise technique were performed using the

PROC REG procedure to establish the relationships among parameters.

3 Results and discussions

3.1 Soil pH, $CaCO_3$, and OM

Soil pH, %$CaCO_3$ and %OM between the managed and non-managed areas of each golf course facility are summarized in Table 1. Salinity parameters will be discussed separately (see Section 3.2). The results indicated little differences in mean pH (range= 7.7-8.8, mean= 8.25, n = 42) between managed and non-managed areas of all the courses examined (Table 1). The differences in means between managed and non-managed areas at each facility ranged between 0.1-0.3 pH units and there was no consistent trend observed between the areas. However, these differences were significant ($p < 0.05$) in three (B, C and F) of the seven facilities. Percent $CaCO_3$ (range= 0.09–15.7 %, mean= 3.01, n = 42) showed no definite trend with depth and no consistent differences between managed and non-managed areas (Table 1). Although not significantly different, %$CaCO_3$ was higher in the non-managed zones of 4 (D, E, F, and G) of the seven courses examined. Organic matter (range= 0.2–3.3 %, mean= 0.9, n = 42) tended to be higher in the managed areas as was observed in six (A, B, C, D, F and G) of the seven sites, although these were not statistically significant. The higher values observed in the managed zones could be attributed to more biomass (Havlin et al., 2005) resulting from better management. The exact same trend observed for soil OM also reflected in the soil TC as well as TN which could be influenced by N fertilizer additions and N in irrigation water. Apart from OM, TC, and TN, there was no consistent trend between managed and non-managed areas at these set of facilities examined. The lack of significant differences between managed and non-managed zones for most of the examined soil properties reported here somewhat indicates there are no major external sources of these introduced through irrigation or other management activities.

3.2 Extractable ions and salinity parameters

The differences in selected extractable ions and some salinity indicators between managed and non-managed sites at each golf course are summarized in Table 2. Among the extractable cations (Ca, K, Mg, and Na), Na (range = 37–407mgkg^{-1}, mean = 67mgkg^{-1}, n = 42) was significantly higher ($p < 0.05$) in the managed zone of each facility. This finding could somewhat be attributed to the Na contained in the irrigation water originating mainly from groundwater sources (see Section 3.3) because Na is not typically added through fertilization. Exchangeable Ca (range= 1360–5477 mgkg^{-1}, mean= 2968 mgkg^{-1}, n = 42) was higher in the non-managed zones of six (A to F) of the seven facilities, and this finding was significant ($p <$ 0.05) at 3 of the facilities. This observed difference could be attributed to the possible leaching of Ca (possibly in the form of sulfates and chlorides) from the more frequently irrigated areas. Extractable Mg (range= 145–1381mgkg^{-1}, mean = 738mgkg^{-1}, n = 42) and K (range = 215–1491 mgkg^{-1}, mean = 587mgkg^{-1}, n = 42) were found to be higher in the irrigated areas of six of the seven and five of the seven examined facilities, respectively, with significant differences ($p <$ 0.05) observed in some facilities (Table 2). The higher levels of these elements in the managed areas is likely due to their addition to the soil from irrigation water (see Section 3.3) because they are not typically added through fertilization in this region. In general, the chloride salts of Ca are more soluble than those of Mg and K, while the sulfate salts of Mg and K are more soluble than those of Ca, and carbonate salts are generally insoluble (Clugston and Flemming, 2000). Thus, using their solubility characteristics, it could be inferred that Na, Mg, and K in these soils could be more of carbonate salts because they will be less soluble and thus mildly leached by irrigation water. Conversely, Ca which tended to be more susceptible to leaching from these irrigated zones could be predominantly in the form of chloride salts of Ca. The slight positive relationship (R^2 = 0.65, p < 0.05, n = 42) observed between Na and Cl^- could suggests the presence of chloride salts of Na as well.

The water extractable anions examined revealed that HCO_3^- (range= 77.6–326mgkg^{-1}, mean = 170, n = 42) and Cl^- (range = 0–604 mgkg^{-1}, n = 42) were mostly higher in the managed areas compared to the non-managed areas, some of which were significantly different (Table 2). The only exception was HCO_3^- in facility F. The higher levels of these anions in the managed zones of these facilities could be attributed to their addition to the soil from irrigation water sources. The dominant anions in the soil solution of most semi-arid salty soils are Cl^-, SO_4^{-2}, HCO_3^- (at pH values of 6.0–8.0) and some NO_3^- (Dierickx, 2013). Thus, significant increases in these ions could reflect a shift toward soil salinization. In this study, less emphasis was placed on soil SO_4^{-2} , NO_3^-, and PO_4^{-3} concentrations because these are commonly added through fertilization and thus, possible contribution from irrigation sources would not be easily quantified.

The potential contribution of the management practices to salinity and sodicity could be evidenced from the examination of the soil EC (range = 0.15–2.28 dSm^{-1}, mean = 0.643, n = 42), ESP (range = 0.80–7.10 %, mean = 3.20 %, n = 42) and SAR (range =1.40–6.04, mean = 3.12, n = 42) values. It is apparent that the practices at the facilities and possibly irrigation water tended to increase the salinity and sodicity properties of these soils. This is supported by the significantly higher EC, ESP and SAR values generally observed in the managed areas of these facilities (Table 2). A comparison was made among depths to examine the distribution of EC, ESP, and SAR between all managed and non-managed sites (Fig. 2). When all the managed zones were grouped and compared against the non-managed zone, at each depth, the salinity parameters were significantly higher in the managed zones, suggesting the effects were similar within all the depths examined. Besides irrigation, this shift toward salinization is further supported by the semi-arid condition of the study site, characterized by low rainfall and less leaching of the soluble salts, leading to their build up in the top soil.

3.3 Influence of local aquifer water quality

The water quality reports obtained from the facilities are summarized in Table 3. Of interest, the concentration of each parameter examined (with the exception of pH) was on the average approximately 2-~~folds~~ times higher in the well water compared to the retention pond, which is mainly a collection of runoff and rain water (Table 3). These differences could be most likely attributed to the inherently low pollutant concentration in rain water, filtration of pollutants as it flows over vegetation on its way to the pond, and further settling of pollutants and uptake by vegetation in the reservoir. The concentrations of the examined parameters in the effluent treated water were 2–11 ~~folds~~ times higher than those of the well water. Using the water quality information, pollutant addition to soil from the water sources could be estimated. For instance, using the average values of contaminants in the well water, approximately 5.60 g Cl^-, 7.60 g SO_4^{-2}, 9.0 g HCO_3^- and 3.80 g Na^+ will be added to 1.0 kg of the receiving soil over a 10-year period if a field receives approximately 1200 mm~~cm~~yr~~ear~~$^{-1}$ of irrigation water from well sources in this area. The limited rainfall and thus minimal leaching of salts in the semi-arid and arid areas could make the situation described above more realistic.

The well water quality, which is a better representation of that of the local aquifer was further examined. The available data were grouped into three sets: 1991–1993, 2004–2008, and 2009–2013, and the average values for each parameter in a set calculated. A striking feature observed was the gradual increase in pH, EC, SAR, total alkalinity, Na, K, HCO_3^- and Cl^- over the years (Fig. 3), suggesting that the declining aquifer (Terrel and Johnson, 1999; Terrel et al., 2002) could be associated with an increase in contaminant concentration, particularly salts. Using the mean values, the Na^{+}:Ca^{+2} ratio of approximately 2:1 in the well water sources ~~justifies~~ likely explains the higher SAR and ESP in the managed areas that are irrigated using water from well sources. This ratio is higher than those of recycled wastewater (1.5:1) and ditch water (1:1) reported by Qian and Mecham (2005) that still ~~impacted~~ led to higher SAR in soils after years of irrigation in Denver and Fort Collins, Colorado. Thus, our findings suggest that continuous irrigation with well water could increase the salt contents of the receiving soils overtime, a situation that is already apparent in the managed zones of the facilities examined in this study as discussed under Section 3.2. The water quality data and the observed differences in salinity parameters between managed (irrigated) and non-managed (non-irrigated) areas establish a possible influence of the aquifer water quality on soil quality at these facilities.

3.4 Application of PXRF to salinity prediction

The PXRF quantified Ca, Cl, K, and S were individually and collectively used to explain the variability associated with salinity, approximated using EC. The findings are presented in Table 4. As evidenced from the R^2 values, when all the sites were considered (n = 42), approximately 70% of the variability associated with salinity was explained by the Cl alone, 82% by Cl and S, and 85% by Cl, S, and K. The findings here suggest the likely contributions of salts of Cl^{-} and SO_4^{-2} to soil salinity within these facilities. When studied individually, the strengths of these relationships were notably higher within the managed area (n = 21) compared to the non-managed area (n = 21) (Table 4) as evidenced from R^2 average of 0.72 (managed) vs. 0.29 (non managed) for all the relationships examined. The stronger relationships observed within the managed group support part of our hypothesis that salinity (EC) is influenced by anthropogenic sources, thus, the more the input of these cation and anion-forming elements through irrigation, fertilization, etc., the higher the salinity. The weaker relationships observed within the non-managed group suggest a limited influence of the anthropogenic sources of the elements (particularly Cl and S), further suggesting that salinity could be controlled by other parameters that were not accounted for by the PXRF. From this information, it can be inferred that the chemistry of salinity, i.e., the elemental species contributing to it, could be different within the managed and the non-managed groups. This is an important piece of information that was rapidly obtained using the PXRF. Overall, the relationships developed when all data points (managed and non managed) were collectively considered suggest that the PXRF could be used for rapid in situ prediction of and examination of chemistry of salinity in the semi-arid urban soils, an application that could be extended to other semi-arid regions. Although, it is important to note that the capability of this tool is still limited since the contributions of some elements such as Na, and anions such as HCO_3^- and CO_3^{-2} cannot be ascertained yet.

4 Conclusions

The impacts of management practices on environmental quality could vary with climate and thus, site specific investigations are often desired because extending findings from one practice and location to others could be misleading. Thus, this study, serves as an initial probe into the potential management-induced changes in soil chemical properties with a focus on salinity in golf courses in Lubbock, TX, located in the SHP of the USA. This is an area characterized by semi-arid climatic conditions, typified by drought, wind erosion, and potential for soil salinization, etc. Evaluation of soil chemical properties of managed (irrigated) and non-managed (non-irrigated) areas at seven different golf course facilities and information on well water quality revealed possible differences in soil properties. The major findings are summarized as thus: (1) among the exchangeable cations, Na was significantly higher in all the managed and well irrigated zones of all the seven golf courses~~ in the semi-arid region of the USA~~, suggesting the addition of Na salts (possibly in the forms of carbonates and chlorides) to irrigated soils from irrigation water sources. (2) Irrigation tended to increase the salinity and sodicity properties of the soils as evidenced from the significantly higher Soil EC, ESP, and SAR observed in majority of the managed areas compared to the non-managed areas. This finding was supported by the water quality data of the local aquifer which showed an increase in pH, EC, SAR, total alkalinity, and extractable ions over the years. (3) PXRF quantified Cl and S, and to a lesser extent Ca, individually and collectively explained most of the variability associated with salinity within the soils of these facilities. The strengths of the relationships were generally higher in the managed area.

Although in the SHP and other semi-arid and arid regions, the emphasis is more on water quantity; however, it is important to point out that salt build up can affect water ~~quantity~~quality, by altering the hydrological properties of soils such as hydraulic conductivity, infiltration, permeability, water holding capacity and thus water availability to crops. This study was an initial investigation into an observed environmental issue and findings will support future research effort in the subject area.

Author contributions

J. Young and T. K. Udeigwe planned and implemented the study. T. Kandakji and P. Gautam assisted in field and laboratory activities. M. A. Mahmoud suggested ideas and assisted in various aspect of the project as needed. D.C. Weindorf provided assistance with the portable x-ray fluorescence spectrometer.

References

Aldabaa, A. A. A., Weindorf, D. C., Chakraborty, S., Sharma, A., and Li, B.: Combination of proximal and remote sensing methods for rapid soil salinity quantification, Geoderma, 239–240, 34–46, 2015.

Clugston, M. and Flemming, R.: Advanced Chemistry, Oxford University Press, Oxford, UK, 2000.

Dierickx, W.: The salinity and alkalinity status of arid and semi-arid lands, Land Use, Land Cover and Soil Sciences V, 163–189, 2013.

Du Laing, G., Rinklebe, J., Vandecasteele, B., Meers, E., and Tack, F. M. G.: Trace metal behaviour in estuarine and riverine floodplain soils and sediments: a review, Sci. Total Environ., 407, 3972–3985, 2009.

Fan, X., Pedroli, B., Liu, G., Liu, Q., Liu, H., and Shu, L.: Soil salinity development in the yellow river delta in relation to groundwater dynamics, Land Degrad. Dev., 23, 175–189, 2012.

Gardner, D., Weindorf, D. C., and Flynn, M.: Presence of chromium, copper, and arsenic in schoolyard soils, Soil Horizons, 54, 1–5, doi:10.2136/sh12-12-0032, 2013.

Havlin, J. L., Beaton. J. D., Tisdale, S. L., and Nelson, W. L.: Soil fertility and fertilizers: an introduction to nutrient management, Vol. 515, Pearson Prentice Hall, Upper Saddle River, NJ, 2005.

Herrero, J. and Pérez-Coveta, O.: Soil salinity changes over 24 years in a Mediterranean irrigated district, Geoderma, 125, 287–308, 2005.

Hu, W., Huang. B., Weindorf, D. C., and Chen, Y.: Metals analysis of agricultural soils via portable X-ray fluorescence spectrometry, B. Environ. Contam. Tox., 92, 420–426, 2014.

Hudak, P. F.: Distribution and sources of arsenic in the southern high plains aquifer, Texas, USA, J. Environ. Sci. Heal. A, 35, 899–913, 2000.

IUSS Working Group WRB: World Reference Base for Soil Resources, 2nd edn., World Soil Resources Reports No. 103, FAO, Rome, ISBN 92-5-105511-4, 2006.

Jang, M.: Application of portable X-ray fluorescence (pXRF) for heavy metal analysis of soils in crop fields near abandoned mine sites, Environ. Geochem. Hlth, 32(3), 207-216, 2010.

Kilbride, C., Poole, J. and Hutchings, T. R.: A comparison of Cu, Pb, As, Cd, Zn, Fe, Ni and Mn determined by acid extraction/ICP–OES and ex situ field portable X-ray fluorescence analyses, Environ. Pollut, 143(1), 16-23, 2006.

Loeppert, R. H. and Suarez, D. L.: Carbonate and gypsum, in: Methods of Soil Analysis, Part 3, Chemical Methods, edited by: Bartels, J. M. and Bigham, J. M., Soil Science Society of America, Inc., Madison, USA, SSSA Book Series 5, 437–474, 1996.

Martinez-Beltran, J. and Manzur, C. L.: Overview of salinity problems in the world and FAO strategies to address the problem, in: Proceedings of the international salinity forum, Riverside, California, 311–313, 2005.

McWhirt, A., Weindorf, D. C., and Zhu, Y.: Rapid analysis of elemental concentrations in compost via portable x-ray fluorescence spectrometry, Compost Sci. Util., 20, 185–193, 2012.

Morgan, R. P. C.: Soil Erosion and Conservation, Blackwell Publishing, Oxford, UK, 2009.

Nelson, D. W. and Sommers, L. E.: Total carbon, organic carbon, and organic matter, in: Methods of Soil Analysis, Part 3, Chemical Methods, edited by: Sparks D. L., Soil Science Society of America Book Ser. 5, SSSA and ASA, Madison, Wis., 961–1010, 1996.

Sarah, P.: Soluble salts dynamics in the soil under different climatic regions, Catena, 43(4), 307-321, 2001.

Peel, M. C., Finlayson, B. L., and McMahon, T. A.: Updated world map of the Köppen-Geiger climate classification, Hydrol. Earth Syst. Sci., 11, 1633–1644, doi:10.5194/hess-11-1633-2007, 2007.

Pitman, M. G. and Läuchli, A.: Global impact of salinity and agricultural ecosystems, in: Salinity: Environment-Plants-Molecules, Springer Netherlands, Part A, 3–20, doi:10.1007/0-306-48155-3_1, 2002.

Qian, Y. L. and Mecham, B.: Long-term effects of recycled wastewater irrigation on soil chemical properties on golf course fairways, Agron. J., 97, 717–721, 2005.

Rengasamy, P.: World salinization with emphasis on Australia, J. Exp. Bot., 57, 1017–1023, 2006.

Rhoades, J. D.: Salinity: electrical conductivity and total dissolved solids, in: Methods of Soil Analysis, III, Chemical Methods, edited by: Sparks, D. L., SSSA, Madison, WI, 417–435, 1996.

Richards, L. A.: Diagnosis and Improvement of Saline and Sodic Soils, USDA Agric. Handb.60, USDA, Washington, DC, 1954.

Scanlon, B. R., Nicot, J. P., Reedy, R. C., Tachovsky, J. A., Nance, S. H., Smyth, R. C., Keese, K., Ashburn, R. E., and Christian, L.: Evaluation of arsenic contamination in Texas, The Univ. of Texas at Austin, Bureau of Economic Geology, final report prepared for Texas Commission on Environmental Quality, under umbrella contract no. 582-4-56385 and work order no. UT-08-5-70828, 177, p. 167, 2005.

Snowden, C., Ritchie, G., Cave, J., Keeling, W., and Rajan, N.: Multiple irrigation levels affect boll distribution, yield, and fiber micronaire in cotton, Agron. J., 105, 1536–1544, 2013.

Soil Survey Staff: Chemical analyses, calcium carbonate (4E) HCl treatment (4E1) manometer, electronic (4E1) < 20mm basis (4E), in: Soil Survey Laboratory Manual, USDA-NRCS SSRI #42, Version 4.0, 269–273, 1996.

Soil Survey Staff: Soil Survey Field and Laboratory Methods Manual, Soil Survey Investigations Report No. 51, Version 1.0, edited by: Burt, R., U.S. Department of Agriculture, Natural Resources Conservation Service, 2009.

Sparks, D. L.: Environmental Soil Chemistry, Academic Press, San Diego, California, 2003.

Swanhart, S., Weindorf, D. C., Chakraborty, S., Bakr, N., Zhu, Y., Nelson, C., Shook, K., and Acree. A.: Measuring soil salinity via portable x-ray fluorescence spectrometry, Soil Sci., in press, 2015.

Terrell, B. L. and Johnson, P. N.: Economic impact of the depletion of the Ogallala aquifer: a case study of the southern high plains of Texas, in: American Agricultural Economics Association annual meeting, Nashville, TN, 8–11 August 1999.

Terrell, B. L., Johnson. P. N., and Segarra, E.: Ogallala aquifer depletion: economic impact on the Texas high plains, Water Policy, 4, 33–46, 2002.

U.S. Environmental Protection Agency: Method 6200: Field Portable X-Ray Fluorescence Spectrometry for the Determination of Elemental Concentrations in Soil and Sediment, USEPA, 2007.

USDA-NASS: Cotton ginning 2013 summary, available at: http://usda.mannlib.cornell.edu/usda/current/CottGinnSu/CottGinnSu-05-09-2014.pdf (last access: 9 July 2013), 2014

USGA: How Much Water Does Golf Use and Where Does It Come From?, available at: http://www.usga.org/uploadedFiles/USGAHome/Course_Care/Golf_and_the_Environment/ Water/214418%20Lyman,%20Greg%20-%20How%20Much%20Water%20Does%20 Golf%20Use.pdf (last access: 11 April 2014), 2012.

USGS: National Elevation Dataset, available at: http://ned.usgs.gov/ (last access: 28 March 2014), 2014.

NOAA: NOAA Online Weather Data (Lubbock Area), available: http://www.weather.gov/ climate/xmacis.php?wfo=lub, accessed Feb. 22, 2015.

Weindorf, D. C., Zhu, Y., Chakraborty, S., Bakr, N., and Huang, B.: Use of portable X-ray fluorescence spectrometry for environmental quality assessment of peri-urban agriculture, Environ. Monit. Assess., 184, 217–227, 2012.

Weindorf, D. C., Herrero, J., Castañeda, C., Bakr, N., and Swanhart, S.: Direct soil gypsum quantification via portable x-ray fluorescence spectrometry, Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J., 77, 2071–2077, 2013.

Weindorf, D. C., Bakr, N., and Zhu, Y.: Advances in portable x-ray fluorescence (PXRF) for environmental, pedological, and agronomic applications, Adv. Agron., 128, 1–45, 2014.

Table 1: Selected soil properties examined at the managed and non-managed areas of the seven golf facilities in Lubbock, TX, USA

Golf Course	Management	Irrigation Source	pH	$CaCO_3$	TC	TN	OM
				-----------------------%-----------------------			
A	Managed	Well	8.2a	1.1a	1.88a	0.19a	1.5a
	Non-managed		8.1a	0.2b	0.77a	0.07a	0.7a
B	Managed	Well	8.3b	8.8a	2.31a	0.14a	1.0a
	Non-managed		8.4a	4.5a	1.20b	0.07a	0.5a
C	Managed	Well	8.2b	1.9a	1.68a	0.13a	1.2a
	Non-managed		8.5a	1.2a	0.89a	0.07a	0.5a
D	Managed	Well	8.6a	0.5a	0.87a	0.08a	0.8a
	Non-managed		8.6a	0.7a	0.47a	0.03a	0.3a
E	Managed	Well	8.2a	4.6a	2.24a	0.18a	1.1a
	Non-managed		7.9a	6.4a	2.96a	0.22a	1.3a
F	Managed	Well & RW	8.0a	0.7a	1.91a	0.18a	1.3a
	Non-managed		8.1b	1.6a	1.57a	0.13a	0.9a
G	Managed	Well & RP	8.1a	4.2a	2.86a	0.21a	1.5a
	Non-managed		8.3a	4.7a	1.48a	0.06a	0.7a

TC, Total Carbon; TN, Total Nitrogen; OM, Organic Matter; RW, Recycled Wastewater; RP, Retention Pond. Mean values in a column within a golf course with the same letter are not statistically different (Fisher's LSD, $\alpha = 0.05$)

Table 2: A summary of extractable ions and soil salinity parameters for the managed and non-managed areas of the seven golf facilities in the study in Lubbock, TX, USA

Golf Course	Management	Irrigation Source	NH$_4$-Acetate Extractable				Water Extractable		EC	ESP	SAR
			Na^+	Ca^{2+}	Mg^{2+}	K^+	HCO_3^-	Cl^-			
			------------------mg kg^{-1}------------------				------mg kg^{-1}-------		µs/cm	%	
A	Managed	Well	271a	2165a	810a	534a	253a	5.9	445a	5.8a	5.0a
	Non-managed		42.0b	2259a	160b	321b	90.3b	nd	199b	1.3b	1.8b
B	Managed	Well	322a	2757b	1058a	633a	170a	307.7	1561a	5.4a	4.7a
	Non-managed		47b	3684a	569b	386b	125a	nd	417b	0.8b	1.4b
C	Managed	Well	309a	2355a	1109a	600a	186a	236.7	1187a	5.7a	5.1a
	Non-managed		68b	2786a	806b	520a	125a	nd	219b	1.3b	1.8b
D	Managed	Well	132a	1610b	657a	380a	160a	88.8	426a	3.9a	3.6a
	Non-managed		65.2b	2328a	293b	253a	125a	nd	221b	1.9b	2.2b
E	Managed	Well	264a	2732b	826a	441b	192a	88.8a	815a	5.1a	4.5a
	Non-managed		107b	5134a	912a	888a	176a	71.0a	699a	1.3b	1.7b
F	Managed	Well & RW	255a	2428a	776a	381b	189a	166a	991a	5.4a	4.7a
	Non-managed		114b	3038a	667a	786a	214a	76.9b	605a	2.1b	2.3b
G	Managed	Well & RP	270a	4401a	1140a	1272a	230a	59.2	810a	3.3a	3.2a
	Non-managed		78b	3872a	551b	822b	144a	nd	409b	1.3b	1.7b

EC, Electrical Conductivity; ESP, Exchangeable Sodium Percentage; RW, Recycled Wastewater; RP, Retention Pond; SAR, Sodium Adsorption Ratio (estimated using calculated Exchangeable Sodium Ratio); nd, not detected. Mean values in a column within a golf course with the same letter are not statistically different (Fisher's LSD, $\alpha = 0.05$).

Table 3: Typical concentrations ranges (mean) of selected water quality indicators from well, retention pond, and recycled wastewater sources summarized from four different golf courses in the city of Lubbock, TX, USA, from 1991-2013 (number of years = 15, 4 and 1 for well, retention pond, and recycled wastewater sources, respectively)

Parameters	**Well**	**Retention pond**	**Recycled Water**
SAR	2.09-3.18 (2.70)	1.42-1.76 (1.92)	7.87
EC (dS m-1)	0.89-2.38 (1.58)	0.49-1.27 (0.74)	8.26
pH	7.03-8.23 (7.78)	7.73-8.67 (8.22)	6.41
Chloride (mg L-1)	101-338 (205)	31.2-110 (57.2)	2400
Sulfate (mg L-1)	140.8-447 (277)	55.7-196 (98.5)	1329
Bicarbonate (mg L-1)	251-426 (330)	178-383 (230)	615
Carbonate (mg L-1)	16.8 (16.8)	----	----
Potassium (mg L-1)	13.8-21.9 (17.26)	8.60-14.5 (10.17)	47.31
Sodium (mg L-1)	79.3-188 (139)	40.5-126 (68.6)	792
Calcium (mg L-1)	42.5-111 (77.0)	25.3-43.3 (33.0)	332
Magnesium (mg L-1)	37.3-134.3 (75.3)	18.7-71.5 (35.5)	264

Table 4: Regression equation and coefficients for the relationships between electrical conductivity (EC) and the selected PXRF quantified elements within managed and non-managed facilities of the golf courses in Lubbock, TX, USA

	All facilities (n = 42)	
Parameter (s)	Equation	R^2
Cl	EC = 0.0015Cl + 0.2476	0.70^c
S	EC = 0.0007S - 0.5716	0.63^c
Ca	EC = 0.00001Ca + 0.3813	0.23
K	EC = 0.0341K+ 160.28	0.06
Cl + S	EC = 0.001Cl + 0.0004S - 0.3063	0.82^c
Cl + K	EC = 0.0015Cl + 0.00004K - 0.2876	0.77^c
Cl + Ca	EC = 0.0014Cl + 0.000006Ca + 0.1490	0.75^c
Cl + S + K	EC = 0.0012Cl + 0.00003S + 0.00003K + -0.5931	0.85^c
Cl + S + Ca	EC = 0.0010Cl + 0.0004S + 0.000003Ca - 0.3004	0.83^c
Cl + Ca + K	EC = 0.0014Cl + 0.000003Ca + 0.00003K - 0.2085	0.78^c
	Managed (n = 21)	
Parameter (s)	Equation	R^2
Cl	EC = 0.0017Cl + 0.1987	0.85^c
S	EC = 0.0007S -0.4108	0.52^b
Ca	EC = 0.00002Ca + 0.5547	0.43^b
K	EC = 0.0444K + 275.83	0.09
Cl + S	EC = 0.0014Cl + 0.0002S - 0.1399	0.89^c
Cl + K	EC = 0.0017Cl + 0.1987K- 0.1459	0.88^c
Cl + Ca	EC = 0.0015Cl + 0.000005Ca + 0.1796	0.87^c
Cl + S + K	EC = 0.0014Cl + 0.0002S + 0.00002K- 0.4151	0.91^c
Cl + S + Ca	EC = 0.0013Cl + 0.0002S + 0.000004Ca - 0.1250	0.91^c
Cl + Ca + K	EC = 0.0015Cl + 0.0000003Ca + 0.00002K - 0.0718	0.89^c
	Non managed (n = 21)	
Parameter (s)	Equation	R^2
Cl	EC = 0.0003Cl + 0.3598	0.03
S	EC = 0.0005S - 0.3238	0.39^b
Ca	EC = 0.000005Ca + 0.2884	0.10
K	EC = 0.0392K - 171.05	0.26
Cl + S	EC = 0.00035Cl +0.000516S - 0.3803	0.43^b
Cl + K	EC = 0.0004Cl + 0.000004K - 0.2820	0.33^a
Cl + Ca	EC = 0.00037Cl + 0.000006Ca + 0.2321	0.15
Cl + S + K	EC = 0.00042Cl + 0.0004S + 0.00002K- 0.5226	0.49^b
Cl + S + Ca	EC = 0.0003Cl + 0.0005S - 0.00000007Ca - 0.3946	0.43^b
Cl + Ca + K	EC = 0.0005Cl + 0.000000008Ca + 0.00004K - 0.2804	0.33

[a] = Significant at 0.05 probability level; [b] = Significant at 0.01 probability level;
[c] = Significant at 0.001 probability level; EC in dS m^{-1}; Cl, S, Ca, and K in mg kg^{-1}

Figure Captions

Figure 1: Map showing the study area located in Lubbock, Texas, USA and the locations of the seven golf facilities. The facilities are designated as A, B, C, D, E, F, and G.

Figure 2: Differences in selected soil chemical properties examined within depths between managed and non-managed zones of all seven golf courses examined in Lubbock, TX, USA. Each data point represents the average of seven points. Mean values within a soil depth with the same letter are not statistically different (Fisher's LSD, $\alpha = 0.05$).

EC, Electrical Conductivity; ESP, Exchangeable Sodium Percentage; SAR, Sodium Adsorption Ratio.

Figure 3: The observed trend in selected water quality parameters from 1991-2013. Water samples were obtained from well sources utilized by a golf course in Lubbock, TX, USA. For each parameter, data were averaged over 1991-1993 (n = 9), 2004-2008 (n = 6) and 2009-2013 (n = 6), error bars are for the standard deviations. Mean values within a parameter with the same letter are not statistically different (Fisher's LSD, $\alpha = 0.05$).

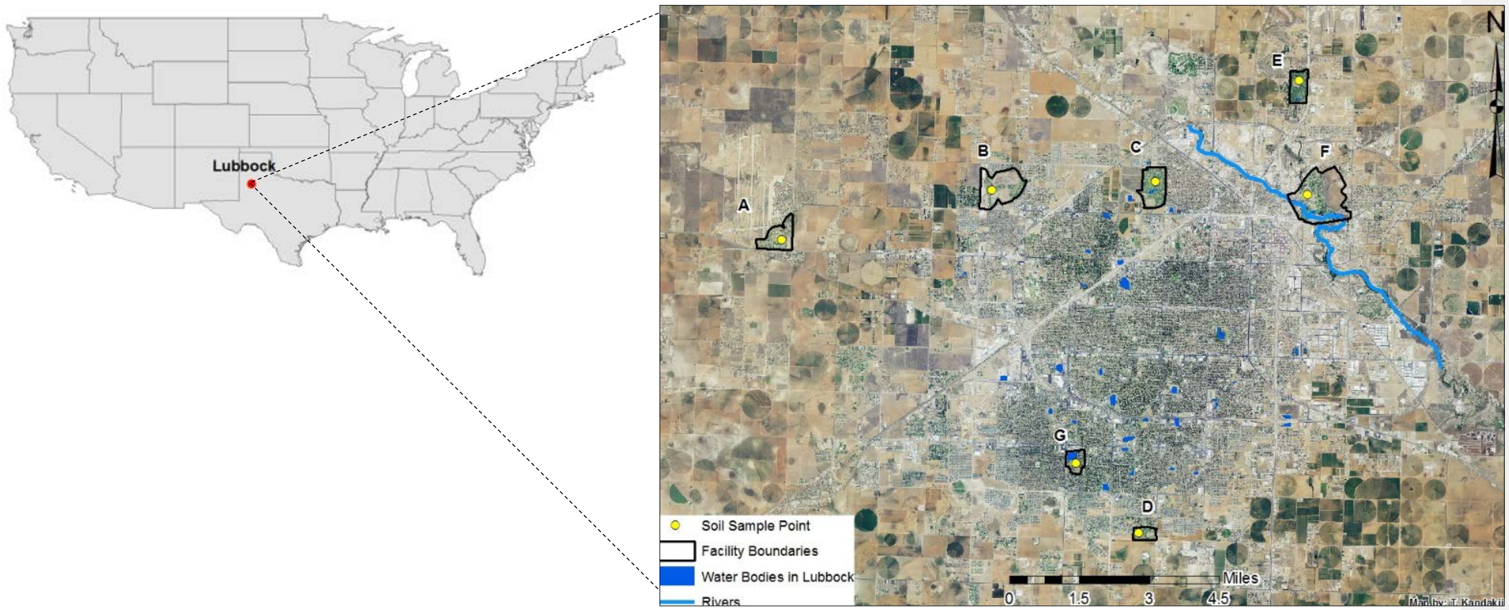
Lubbock
A
B
C
D
E
F
G
N
Soil Sample Point
Facility Boundaries
Water Bodies in Lubbock
Rivers
0
1.5
3
4.5
Miles

Figure 1:

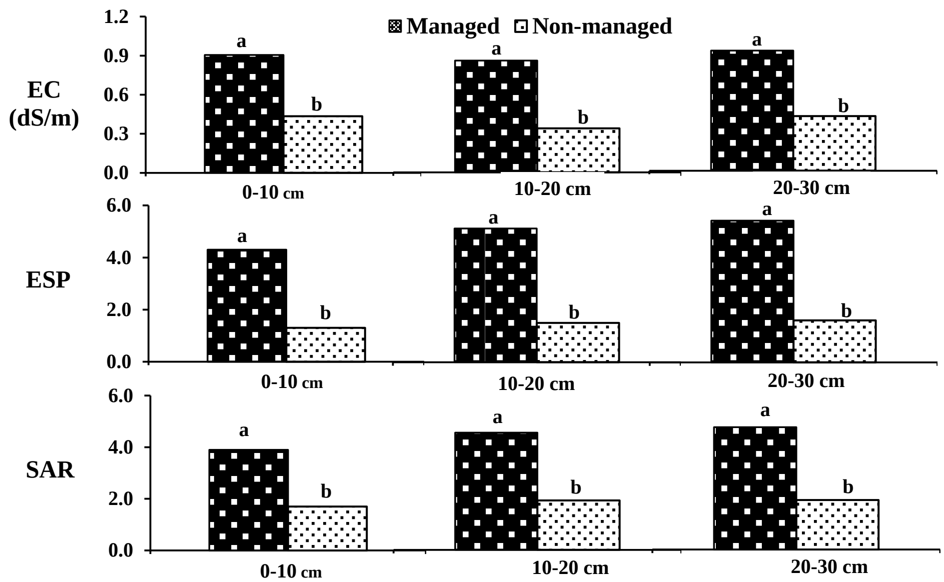
Managed
Non-managed
EC (dS/m)
ESP
SAR
1.2
0.9
0.6
0.3
0.0
6.0
4.0
2.0
0.0
a
b
0-10 cm
10-20 cm
20-30 cm

Figure 2:

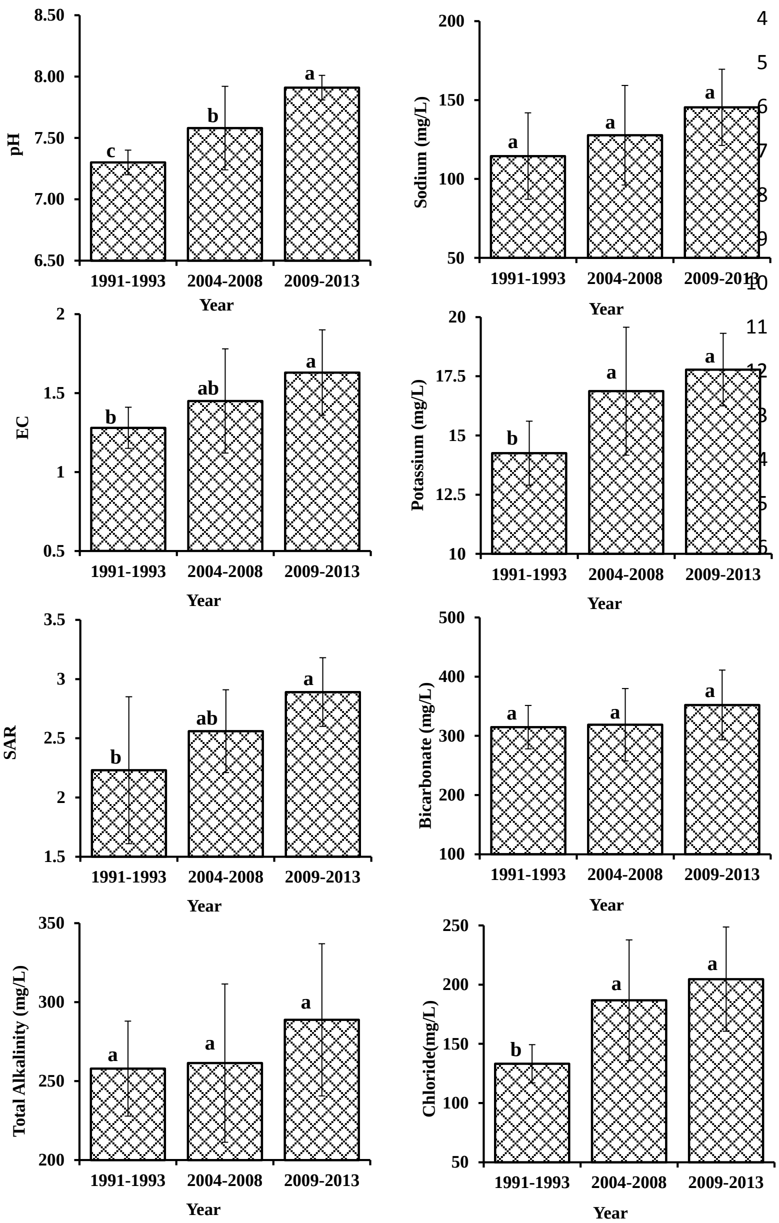
pH
Sodium (mg/L)
EC
Potassium (mg/L)
SAR
Bicarbonate (mg/L)
Total Alkalinity (mg/L)
Chloride(mg/L)
1991-1993
2004-2008
2009-2013
Year

Figure 3:

19