

A thermodynamic approach to the assessment of soil ecosystem function:
Towards the development of agro-ecological principles rooted in new
ecological perspectives

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ABSTRACT

The Anthropocene has been linked to a widespread loss of ecosystem structure and function. It is believed that repercussions of this extend to climate change and agriculture is deemed as a leading industry behind environmental decline. The need for a concise understanding of ecological function is ever more pressing, as well as the development of an agricultural framework that is both productive and ecologically sustainable. Over the last century, thermodynamics has found its place in the development of ecological theory. A theoretical consistency among thermodynamic principles points to circular interaction as a fundamental process in the development of complex systems. Although receiving significant attention recently with the publication of FAO's 'Nature Positive', its application in sustainable agriculture remains a mystery. This requires the development of effective indicators that are equipped to capture the complexity of energy and matter interchange. However, energetics cannot be measured directly and this thesis explores proxies of energy metrics, in the context of sustainable agriculture. Following on from over a decade of research, the study explores soil temperature, as well as a novel measure of soils chemical environment (REDOX potential), discussing their utilization in a thermodynamic approach to the assessment of agricultural soils. The indicators show potential and data corroborates previous research. The greatest limitation is the simplified experimental design; however the research provides a first insight into application of thermodynamics to soil assessment, highlighting a range of potential avenues for future research. To finish, an attempt to reconcile new developments in ecological theory with agricultural practice is made. Referring to results from the experimentation and drawing on the literature, to make some assumptions of the necessary conditions needed, for agriculture to move from the greatest cause of environmental decline, to the biggest driver of positive change.

Acronyms

AMB	Control groups. Subject to ambient temperatures	MEANCoeffVAR	The temperature CoeffVAR, averaged across the whole experiment period
BIN	Biomass, information and networks	MEANDTR	The Diurnal Temperature variation, averaged across the whole experiment period
BJ	<i>Brassica Juncea</i>	MEANSTDEV	The mean temperature STDEV averaged across the phase of experiment the whole experiment period
		LNC	Leaf Nitrogen Content
BS	Bare soil	LDMC	Leaf Matter Dry Content
BZ	Belousov- Zhabotinsky	LoMIN	The lowest MIN across the whole experiment period.
CoeffVAR	The coefficient of variation – calculated as $STDEV/MEAN \times 100$	MPP	The maximum power principle
CBD	Convention on Biological Diversity	NP	Niche partitioning
CSR	Competitive, specialist and ruderal	OD	Organic soil at 30cm below surface
DTR	Diurnal temperature range – calculated as the difference between the MAX and the MIN.	OM	Organic matter
EA	Ecological autocatalysis	OS	Organic soil at 10cm below surface
Eco-RAF	Ecological RAF	PAR	Photosynthetically active radiation
Eh	REDOX potential	R	Reduced – irrigation at 25% field capacity (2lph)
Eh _{pH}	Eh standardized to pH 7	RAF	Reflexively autocatalytic and food-generated
E°	Standard cell potential	REDOX	Reduction/ oxidation reactions
EROI	Energy return on investment	REF	Reference soil – Good loam sterilized at 65°C for 48 hours
Evo-RAF	Evolutionary RAF	ROM	Reference soil with added organic matter

EXP	Experiment, relating to the different experiments within the research relevant to individual chapters	S	Sand
FAO	Food an Agricultural Organisation	SLA	Specific Leaf Area
FC	Fairy Circles	SDG	Sustainable Development Goals
HD	Higher density plant spacing (6 plants per pot)	Sh	Shaded samples
HDF	Higher density plant spacing (6 plants per pot) with water flow rate of 8lph	SR	Specialist Ruderal
HDR	Higher density plant spacing (6 plants per pot) with water flow of 2lph	STDEV	Standard deviation for the 8 hours leading up to solar maximum
HiMAX	Highest MX across the whole experiment period	Sub	Sandy soil (equal clay content to REF, but higher sand and less silt)
IPCC	Intergovernmental Panel for Climate Change	TE	Thermodynamic equilibrium
LB	Biodynamic soil at 10cm below surface	TEA	Terminal Electron Acceptor
LD	Lower density plant spacing (3 plants per pot)	TI	<i>Trifolium incarnatum</i>
LOI	Loss on Ignition	WRC	Another Writtle soil
MAX	The maximum temperature per day	WrD	Writtle soil at 30cm below surface
MC	Moisture content of the soil	WrS	Writtle soil at 10cm below surface
MEAN	The average temperature per day		
MEANMAX	The MAX temperature averaged across the whole experiment period	WRT	Sterilized Writtle soil
MEANMEAN	The MEAN temperature averaged across the whole experiment period	YW	Young woodland

MEANMIN	The MIN temperature averaged across the whole experiment period	YWC	Young woodland control
		YWT ΔG	Young woodland sterilized Change in Gibbs free energy (G)

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1 Introduction

In less than 100 years, a baseline shift in Earth's functioning has destabilized the planet, moving from the most stable period in the Earth's history, the Holocene, in to a new epoch, the Anthropocene (Steffen *et al.*, 2015). The effects of Land use change and degradation of habitats through human activities is well known (IPBES, 2019; Newbold *et al.*, 2019). Causing global biodiversity declines (Newbold *et al.*, 2015) and a, as well as changes in species composition, with an expansion in generalist species, coupled to a diminishing of specialists (González-Moreno *et al.*, 2013; Gaertner *et al.*, 2017). All leading to a biotic homogenization within human landscapes (McKinney, 2006; Marull *et al.*, 2023). The combined effects of soil degradation and habitat decline are forcing the need for a new paradigms in agriculture (Kassam and Kassam, 2021). What more, the current climate crisis is having an ever-increasing impact on ecological systems. There is an opportunity in agriculture as a land-based sector, to mitigate the devastating effects of land use change and alleviate the pressures of climate change.

In accordance with the latest Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) report, multiple habitats and continents across the globe have been negatively impacted by climate change (Pörtner *et al.*, 2022). It states with high confidence that ecosystems have been exposed to unprecedented conditions over millennia, due to anthropogenically driven climate change, greatly impacting species on land and in the oceans (Pörtner *et al.*, 2022). The greatest concern is the shift of species' geographic range and timing of critical life cycle processes (Pörtner *et al.*, 2022). These range shifts have impacted ecosystem structure and resilience by lowering levels of biodiversity in the warmest regions, right where it is needed most; as well as homogenizing biodiversity in receiving areas (Pörtner *et al.*, 2022). Disproportionate impacts, that homogenize communities, will lead to severe consequences for ecosystem function and ultimately human wellbeing (Newbold *et al.*, 2019).

In Europe alone the severity of impacts from extreme heat and drought has tripled in the last 50 years (Pörtner *et al.*, 2022). This has had a debilitating effect on agricultural productivity, hindering efforts to meet human needs, altering the suitability of growing areas, and disrupting the timing of key ecological events such as pollination (Pörtner *et al.*, 2022). With an increasing emergence of climate related food security risks across the globe, the need for adaptable agricultural systems is ever more pressing

(Pörtner *et al.*, 2022). Without immediate action the world risks failing to meet the UN sustainable development goals (SDG), many of which are closely associated with soil health; ‘no poverty’, ‘zero hunger’, ‘clean water and sanitation’, ‘climate action’ and life on land’ (Ganlin and Huayong, 2018; Tóth *et al.*, 2018; Wang *et al.*, 2023). With an estimated 35% of the surface of the Earth altered and degraded, by land conversion to agriculture and rapid urban development (Ramankutty and Foley, 1999) only about 1/5 of land is deemed truly wild (Sanderson *et al.*, 2002). The extent of land use change has enabled humans to appropriate an ever-increasing share of planetary resources, and wild animals only now account for approx. 4% of the total biomass of all mammals (Bar-On *et al.*, 2018). Global changes to land use are being driven by the need to provide food, fibre, water and shelter to an exponentially increasing human population, but these changes are undermining the capacity of the planet to continue to sustain these resources (Foley *et al.*, 2005). At what point will the planet reach a crunch point, and what will this bring?

New protocols to stem the exponential decline of eco-system stability, seek to stay within identified planetary boundaries, to decrease the risk of irreversible and potentially catastrophic shifts in the Earth system. For one, the goal of the Paris agreement set out in 2015 aims to keep global warming below 2°C (Willett *et al.*, 2019). Barry (2014) proposed terrestrial ecosystem loss as the ‘tenth planetary boundary’, suggesting that the *Ebola* epidemic, California drought and Middle East revolutions, indicate planetary boundaries have been exceeded and biosphere collapse is imminent. Comparisons have been drawn with terrestrial ecosystem collapse at the Triassic – Jurassic boundary and today’s increasing carbon dioxide, global warming and fire activity (Williford *et al.*, 2014). Planetary boundaries set limits or thresholds, within which ecological function is relatively unaffected. In a quantitative global analysis of biotic intactness, Newbold *et al.*, (2016) showed that 65% of the terrestrial surface has seen a decline beyond the 10% proposed safe boundary. With the most significant changes in grassland biomes and biodiversity hotspots (Newbold *et al.*, 2016). Biodiversity losses are clearly observed, however uncertainty still remains around safe-limit thresholds (Oliver, 2016). With as much as 3 boundaries already overstepped, more is expected to follow. Especially with the global expansion of industrialised forms of agriculture, that further increase environmental degradation, with potentially irreversible consequences (Rockström *et al.*, 2009).

Historical studies and integrated assessment modelling reveal the catastrophic impact that climate change is likely to have on agricultural yield and income (Vermeulen *et al.*, 2012). Impinging on the price of food, the general quality of the food produced and more importantly food security as a whole. 1 in 9 people are currently estimated to be undernourished (FAO, IFAD and WFP, 2014) and future populations are predicated to top 9 billion by 2050 (UN DES, Population Division, 2015), rising to 11 billion by 2100 (FAO, 2018); requiring an increase of 59 % to 98 % by 2050 (Elferink and Schierhorn, 2016), alongside energy and water demands equalling this figure (Valin *et al.*, 2014; Ferroukhi *et al.*, 2015). Farmers will need to produce more food per unit land mass and need more resources like water, while the threat of climate change looms, alongside the scarcity of just about every physical factor relating to food production (Giovannucci *et al.*, 2012). As pressure on the environment builds with the growing population (Blum, 2005), the need for effective mitigation strategies is becoming increasingly more urgent. Managing these environmental, socio-economic and food security issues will need significant global reforms (Luna Juncal *et al.*, 2023).

In a concerted effort to stem the exponential decline of the natural world, the convention on biological diversity (CBD) states in principle 5 of its manifesto, that *conservation of eco-system structure and functioning, in order to maintain ecosystem services, should be a priority target of the eco-system approach.*

At the centre of the water, energy and food nexus, is the soil (Biggs *et al.*, 2015; Jónsson *et al.*, 2016) and this emphasizes evermore the drive for a holistic management of this precious resource (Weigelt *et al.*, 2014; McCormick and Kapustka, 2016). One of the major challenges over the coming years is the need to intensify agricultural production without further impact on the environment (Harmel *et al.*, 2004; Luna Juncal *et al.*, 2023). This calls for a sustainable intensification of agriculture, that meets the demands of population expansion, whilst still placing the ecosystem framework at the centre of political decisions. Although alternate systems exist, their impact is little understood and some evidence even suggests that practices such as organic may use less energy, but require more land, cause more eutrophication and still emit the same greenhouse gasses as intensive practices (Clark and Tilman, 2017). That said, the definition of sustainable intensification is still very

much under debate (Rockström *et al.*, 2017), along with the recognition of a set of practices for land owners to follow.

The shift in agricultural paradigm aims at turning agriculture from the single largest driver of environmental decline, in to being the leading industry behind positive change and global transition to a sustainable world, within safe operating boundaries (Rockström *et al.*, 2017). This can only be achieved through a multi-disciplinary approach (Duru *et al.*, 2015) to fundamentally re-design agricultural landscapes (Landis, 2017). Researchers should be willing to learn from the disciplinary knowledge of each other as an innovative way to influence decision making (Brown *et al.*, 2023).

Meeting this bold target requires the understanding of progress towards them and it is necessary to find relevant bioindicators. Historically, soil indicators mostly focus on biological, chemical and physical attributes (Jónsson *et al.*, 2016). Comprehensive reviews give a detailed overview of existing indicators (Bastida *et al.*, 2008; Ritz *et al.*, 2009; Cluzeau *et al.*, 2012; Havlicek, 2012; Pulleman *et al.*, 2012). However, at the international and national level, no standardized soil sustainability indicator suite has yet been established (Ludwig *et al.*, 2018, 2018), that can capture the inherently complex dynamic between the physical, chemical and biological components that consists ecosystem functionality.

A new ecological metaphysic presented by Nielsen *et al.*, (2019) utilizes thermodynamic principles, that have followed 100 years of research and theoretical development (Lotka, 1922) to provide a new understanding of ecological systems. These concepts have only very recently been explored in the context of sustainable agriculture (Jordan, 2016; Ferri and Arnés García, 2023). The new ecological metaphysic (Nielsen *et al.*, 2019) applies a systems perspective to the understanding of ecological function. It recognizes the cyclical and dissipative nature of ecosystems and their tendency to move away from thermodynamic equilibrium (TE), through the storage of Exergy (energy available work). Ecosystems have been hypothesized to develop according to and increases in four separate system attributes (elaborated in the chapters ahead): (1) ascendancy, (2) storage of exergy, (3) the ability to dissipate external gradients in exergy and (4) network aggradation (Ulanowicz *et al.*, 2006; Nielsen *et al.*, 2020). A theoretical consistency among these 4 attributes points to

Ecological Autocatalysis and centripetality as a central principle binding the separate descriptions (Ulanowicz, 1997; Ulanowicz *et al.*, 2006).

Exergy has become a valuable tool in the assessment of ecological structure and function (Jørgensen, 1995; Zhang *et al.*, 2010; Xu *et al.*, 2011; Tang *et al.*, 2015). Exergy is often intimated as a thermodynamic explanation of Darwin's 'survival of the fittest' (Nielsen *et al.*, 2020), where the fittest are those that can most effectively store energy and matter flows (exergy). Although exergy seems extremely well suited as an ecosystem health indicator by showing changes in structure and function, the greatest issue is that it cannot be measured directly and can only be calculated (Nielsen *et al.*, 2020).

Above ground research in forests has drawn patterns that corroborate thermodynamic theory, utilizing a thermodynamic property, temperature, as a proxy of ecological function. Research teams have shown that structure and function correlates rather well with temperature attenuation and microclimate (Norris *et al.*, 2012; Michaelian, 2015; Avelar *et al.*, 2020). However, the research is limited to above ground structures and little evidence exists for below ground, particularly in agricultural soils.

What differs in the soil is the chemical environment for metabolism, compared to above ground in the significantly less dense atmospheric medium. The soil is a surface catalyst whereby micro-organisms exchange energy and matter with plants and the environment, depended on the conditions present. In the past pH has been used as an indicator of the soils chemical environment and is capable of distinguishing between an array of different soil types and conditions. However, pH has a sibling, the Reduction/ Oxidation (REDOX) potential (Eh), that is much less explored and has the potential to further explain variation in the soil. If pH is a measure of the proton activity (power of hydrogen), then Eh measures the electron activity and is intrinsically linked to microbial activity. Studies have recently confirmed the applicability of Eh as an effective soil measure of agricultural soils (Husson, 2013; Husson *et al.*, 2015), however, it has not been explored nor discussed as a thermodynamic indicator. There is also significant variability in soil REDOX that warrants the establishment of deeper understanding (Husson, 2013; Husson *et al.*, 2015). Particularly in relation to soil water/ oxygen ratios which correlate to rapid changes in REDOX status (Mattila, 2023).

As a result, its interpretation can be extremely difficult in complex mediums such as soil (Husson, 2013; Husson *et al.*, 2015).

In order to effectively inform a new era of agricultural sustainability this research attempts to confirm the application of these novel indicators to soil structure and function, discussing the results in the context of a thermodynamic approach to sustainable agriculture. To begin this thesis sets the framework from which a thermodynamic assessment may develop, starting with a central principle in the new ecological metaphysic; self-organisation.

Aims and objectives:

Aim:

To explore a thermodynamic approach to the development of soil metrics and to inform a new agricultural paradigm rooted in thermodynamics.

Objectives:

1. Examine the plausibility of applying a new ecological-thermodynamic metaphysic to agricultural soil assessment.
2. Devise and qualify methods and techniques for a thermodynamic assessment of soil function and test the efficacy of thermodynamic soil metrics.
3. Begin to reconcile new thermodynamic theories with agroecological principles.

2 Self-organisation: A central principle in non-equilibrium thermodynamic theories of ecosystem growth

2.1 Self-organisation and the origins of life

Self-organisation is where, out of an initially disordered system, some form of order emerges. The concept of self-organisation was first formulated by the cybernetician William Ross Ashby (1947), who believed any deterministic and dynamic systems automatically evolve toward a state of equilibrium. Although, this was somewhat disconnected from the current understanding of natural systems (later discussed), that reside far from equilibrium and are emphatically indeterminate (Peirce, 1892; Elsasser, 1981; Popper, 1990; Ulanowicz, 2009a; Fiscus and Fath, 2018; Kauffman, 2019). It was however, the beginning of a theoretical construct with huge ramifications. Soon after, the brilliant mind of Alan Turing, (1952), conceived a mathematical basis for self-organisation, in his paper on morphogenesis. Turing 'patterns', as they are referred to, are the result of non-linear feedback mechanisms and this theoretical construct has been observed on an unprecedented scale, with application to theories on the origin of life itself (Brakmann, 2001; Hordijk *et al.*, 2013; Kauffman, 2019). Darwin had put forth a mechanism for evolution, but Turing had started to describe how life began and why.

Around the same era, Edward Lorenz was starting to experiment with Chaos theory. Bearing in mind that at this time the mechanistic universal views of Isaac Newton were highly regarded, chaos theory took the scientific community by storm. Not that chaos theory invalidates Newtonian physics, it adds significant depth to the understanding of how complex systems, although governed by deterministic laws, can exhibit unpredictable behavior. In tribute to Karl Popper, Ulanowicz, (1999) demanded a reconciliation of the Newtonian world view adopted by eco-system theorists (Hagen, 1992) resonating the need for a new and coherent view of the processes of nature.

Inherently directional (Jørgensen *et al.*, 2007) configurations of processes are driven by the trade-off between constraint (order) and flexibility (chaos; Ulanowicz and Abarca-Arenas, 1997). Autocatalysis applies selection pressure to its components and mechanisms, pruning flows and rewarding changes that make components more catalytically sensitive or better catalysts. This choice imposes modifications that bring more material or energy into the participating element, resulting in what Newton in fact

termed "centripetality,". The importance of centripetality to the phenomenon of life cannot be overstated (Ulanowicz, 2011). This chapter discusses recent advances in ecological perspectives and the central role that autocatalysis has come to play. It is time ecology was taken seriously and the new ecological metaphysics truly realized.

2.1.1 Order from chaos

Many features distinguish living matter from non-living; reproduction, self-organisation, evolution, etc. Life's origin is consequence of the prebiotic evolution of organic material (Brakmann, 2001). Theories about the origin of life largely attempt to explain how seemingly inert chemical mixtures can spontaneously evolve into a living, breathing organism. Darwin's origin of species although apt to describe evolution, was criticised by Sir Richard Owen and Adam Sedgwick as he could not use it to explain the origin of life. The first real reference to life origins, was a letter to Joseph Dalton Hooker dated February 1, 1871, which mentions a warm little pond. However, the first documented theory of this aptly named "primordial soup" came from Alexander Oparin in 1924 and J. B. S. Haldane in 1929 and has fascinated the scientific community for almost a century. The theory gained real credibility in 1953 with the Miller-Urey experiment, in which Stanley Miller and Harold Urey formed basic amino acids from a highly reduced mixture of methane, ammonia and hydrogen (see Hill and Nuth, 2003). Unfortunately, the mechanisms behind this almost biblical evidence of spontaneous self-organisation remained a mystery for some time.

Until, a chemist by the name of Boris Pavlovich Belousov stumbled upon what he believed to be a spontaneous oscillating solution (an autocatalytic reaction) and the era of modern non-linear chemical dynamics was born. At the time, Belousov's efforts to publish his findings were rejected, however, nearly a decade later a graduate student named Anatol Zhabotinsky, revisited the reactions and was able to develop a better formulation. Multiple papers were accepted in Russian at first (Zhabotinsky, 1964) and then in English (Degn, 1967), and these publications caught the attention of a number of western chemists (Chance *et al.*, 2014). An advancement in the method (Zaikin and Zhabotinsky, 1970), allowed for the study of the Belousov-Zhabotinsky (BZ) reaction in thin layers of unstirred solutions, in which they discovered propagating chemical waves (Plate 1). For the first time spatial and temporal self-organisation was observed in a homogenous system. These oscillations are the result of autocatalytic, intermediate compounds, that catalyze the ingredients of the next

reaction, which subsequently catalyze the first (Rossi and Liveri, 2009). Application to the origins of life, is based in the statistically and thermodynamically favored configurations of autocatalytic loops (Eigen and Schuster, 1979; Morowitz *et al.*, 2000; Lincoln and Joyce, 2009; Giri and Jain, 2012; Veldhuis *et al.*, 2018). In addition, the heart is known to oscillate in a similar fashion.

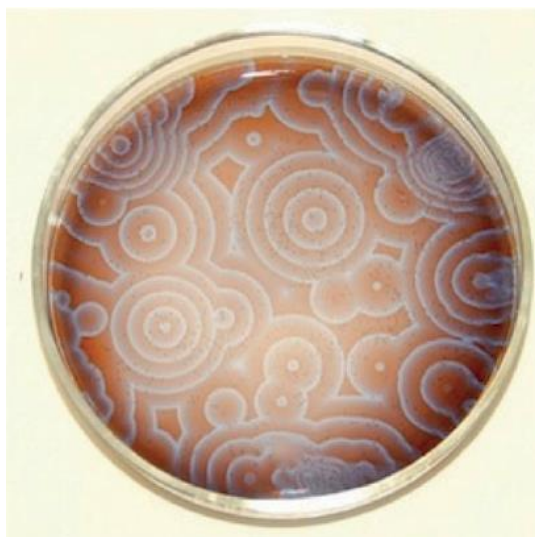


Plate 1 - Turing oscillations in Belousov'-Zhabotinsky reaction. Source: (Ball, 2015).

Throughout this period of establishment for BZ reactions, a number of papers were published arguing that truly homogenous oscillating reactions were in fact impossible (Epstein *et al.*, 2006). This was motivated by what was later to be discovered as an incorrect understanding of the second law of thermodynamics and a failure to appreciate the application of non-equilibrium thermodynamics to spontaneous reactions (Epstein *et al.*, 2006). Many chemists failed to distinguish an oscillator from a pendulum (Epstein *et al.*, 2006). A pendulum works magnificently in classical thermodynamics, however, oscillating reactions differ in that they never pass through their equilibrium point. In isolated systems, spontaneous chemical reactions proceed to equilibrium and a global minimum of free energy:

$$G = H - TS$$

[1]

Where G is gibbs free energy, H is enthalpy, T is temperature and S is entropy

Chemical oscillations on the other hand operate in open systems and are governed by the laws of non-equilibrium thermodynamics (Groot and Mazur, 2013). Their error stemmed from the believe that reactants converted to products and back again, requiring a decrease followed by an increase in Gibbs free energy (equation 1), violating the second law (Epstein *et al.*, 2006). The actual mechanism for this reaction is quite complex and is subject to a number of publications (Field and Foersterling, 1986; Sirimungkala *et al.*, 1999), but theoretically the reaction resembles an ideal Turing pattern.

What is different about open systems that reside far from equilibrium is that energy and matter can exchange across the boundary. It was Prigogine (1967) who realised that thermodynamics can be applied to non-equilibrium systems, but a new theory was required. The decrease in entropy that was required to create order, was possible if the net entropy to the universe increased (Prigogine and Rysselberghe, 1963; Prigogine, 2017). Matter can oscillate in a reaction while the free energy monotonically declines and any drop in entropy is compensated by increases from other processes. On the planet Earth, provided entropy export, in the form of infra-red radiation, is much higher than the structural decrease of living things, the order generated by Earth's inhabitants complies with the second law (Henry and Schwartz, 2019).

What Prigogine and his colleagues had started to explain really began at the turn of the century, when the highly revered Alfred Lotka started to put together his theories on the cyclical dynamics of dissipative systems. Lotka (1922) put forth a model of ecosystem development (Vallino and Algar, 2016) unlike no other that had been seen, stating that:

'In every instance considered, natural selection will so operate as to increase the total mass of the organic system, to increase the rate of circulation of matter through the system, and to increase the total energy flux through the system, so long as there is presented an unutilized residue of matter and available energy'.

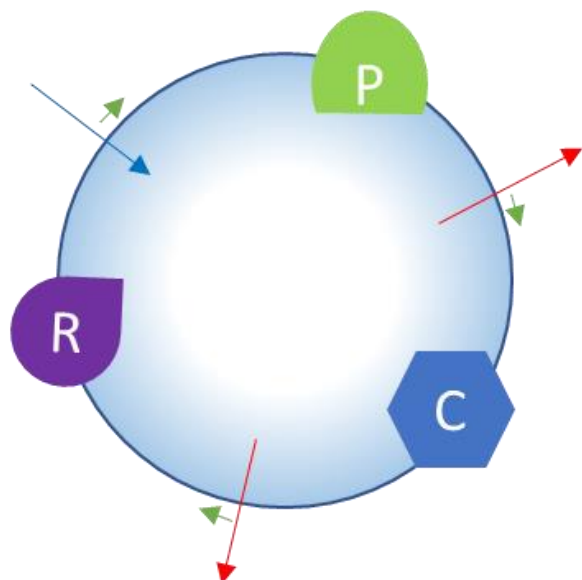


Figure 1 - Ecosystems dissipate incoming photosynthetically active radiation (PAR) (blue arrow) by converting it to infrared radiation (i.e., heat) (red arrows). Phototrophs (P) capture PAR and use available elemental resources (R) to build biomass and release oxygen, which increases chemical potential and decreases system entropy. Heterotrophs and other consumers (C) oxidize phototrophic biomass, producing infrared radiation and recycling resources. The faster the cycle spins, the greater the dissipation of free energy and the production of entropy are, as described by Lotka (1922). Source: (Vallino and Algar, 2016).

2.1.2 Centripetality and the order of selfhood

Understanding the openness and non-equilibrium state of primordial soup, was groundbreaking, however, the origins of life is by no means exhausted here; it is still unclear how simple laws of chemical reactions, manifests properties of life (Joyce, 1979; Luisi, 1998; Peng *et al.*, 2020). First, there is the fundamental problem of the 'epistemic cut' that separates the world from the organism (Pattee, 1997). Measuring processes are encoded in the DNA and the cell is the simplest natural case of an observing system (Pattee, 2012). Subcellular entities are not sophisticated enough to count as measuring devices and this epistemic cut position, makes it difficult to imagine life evolving at all (Hoffmeyer, 2001). That said, if the idea that life's semiotic constraints of energy and matter flows, are analogous to more general universal constraints (Christiansen, 1999), it begs the question that Hoffmeyer (2001) challenged, how do physical constraints manifest semiotic controls?

Prebiotic systems, perceived to be abiotic in nature, spontaneously emerging into a biotic system is a baffling concept, as they are fundamentally different in their organisation in terms of structure, function and complexity. Although abiotic systems can have complex interactions (e.g., atmospheric processes or the hydrologic cycle),

the cycles create predictable and influential patterns, they are however primarily physical or chemical and lack the biologically driven mutual dependencies that biotic systems exhibit (Carnwath and Nelson, 2017; Devi, 2024). Abiotic components influence each other through cycles and physical interactions but lack the mutual dependency that characterizes biotic interdependence. This is an important distinction in ecological organization, where abiotic interactions shape environments, while biotic interdependence actively adapts and sustains ecosystem stability (Shu *et al.*, 2022; Devi, 2024). Abiotic systems do not exhibit ecological relationships like symbiosis, competition, or mutualism (Melián *et al.*, 2018; Bullock *et al.*, 2022).

What Hoffmeyer, (2001) conveyed, is a conceptual reason for how replicative molecules, were preceded by the formation of a semi-permeable membrane, around an autocatalytic chemical system. A membrane creates a point of reference, an asymmetry between the inside and outside, that can move the entity away from equilibrium (Jørgensen *et al.*, 2000). For example, by comparing the internal reference with the external environment, a single cell organism such as a bacteria can move in response to nutrient concentrations (Parkinson and Blair, 1993).

A membrane creates a certain individualization, a semiotic niche and a potential internalized environment (Hoffmeyer, 2001), that can exchange energy and matter with its surroundings. Ulanowicz (1997) finds the origins of selfhood in this (box 1); an asymmetry between inside and out (Hoffmeyer, 1998), with even suggestions of a telos (intimation of final cause; Rosen, 1991; Hoffmeyer, 2001).

Box 1

The key to persistent structures, is creating a digital code (DNA), for purposes of coping more effectively with their environment (Hoffmeyer, 2001). What follows is the selfication scheme (Hoffmeyer, 2001):

Interiorization -> communication -> analog maps -> digital maps.

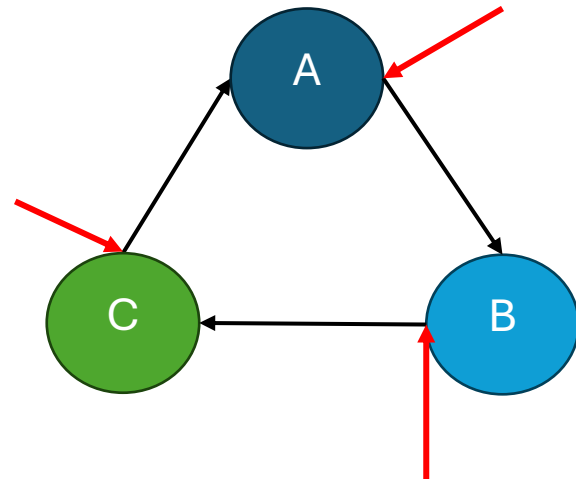
The Common Developmental Road suggests that Eastern philosophy has focused more so on the cyclical, since the enlightenment, whereas, western thought is predominantly linear (Xu *et al.*, 2018). Cycles maintain organisation, as state changes are reversible, returning again and again to the same state (Xu *et al.*, 2018). Cycles give autonomy and stability (Ho and Ulanowicz, 2005), which is also the case for eco-systems (Ulanowicz, 1983). The above selfication scheme is analogous to four stages of evolution proposed by Xu *et al.*, (2018; *sensu* Taoism).

Autognosis -> autocatalytic loop formation -> self-control -> self-realization.

Ulanowicz, (1999) points to autocatalysis, as the unitary agent behind growth. Following from Popper (1990) who took a probability-based approach to replace Newtons mechanistic concept of force, in what Popper (1990) termed 'propensity'. Autocatalysis engenders mutuality among the components and autocatalytic loop formation comes from considering propensities in proximity; in a simple network, of 3 propensities, any one process can have a negative (-), a positive (+) or a neutral (0) effect on the next process, the second can then have any of the three effects and the third similarly (Ulanowicz, 1999). Undoubtedly, 1 of the 9 differs from the rest (e.g. +,+,+) and a mutualistic loop is formed (Ulanowicz, 1999). This supports the widely accepted notion of positive feedback loops being responsible for the self-organized structure in living systems (Eigen, 1971; O'Neill *et al.*, 1986; Haken, 1988; Kauffman and Macready, 1995; Peterson, 2000; Haken and Portugali, 2016). In a mutualistic loop of 3 components (Figure 2), A has a positive impact on B, B has a positive impact on C and C on A again. Any increase in one of the components is likely to increase the others (up to the energy capacity of the system). In support of growth it follows, propensities within the loop would support changes that bring ever more resources in

to the loop, in a centripetal fashion (Figure 2). The cycle becomes the epicenter of a centripetal pattern of flows upon which resources converge. This property of an autocatalytic loop, actively creates its own domain of influence (Hoffmeyer, 2001) focusing the centripetal vortex to define its selfhood (Ulanowicz, 2006, 2016).

Figure 2 - Centripetal action as engendered by autocatalysis. A positively impacts B, which positively impacts C and positively impacts A again. The positive reward system selects pathways which actively draw in resources (red arrows). Source: (Ulanowicz, 2006)



Empirical data supports this, when nutrient limiting factors can produce so called 'islands of fertility' (Schlesinger et al., 1990; Belsky, 1994; Callaway *et al.*, 2002; Bruno *et al.*, 2003). Where plant establishment is linked to soil conditions (Maurice *et al.*, 2023) and nutrients accumulate beneath the canopy as result of combined abiotic and biotic processes, such as plant cover, litter volume and enzymes (Zhang *et al.*, 2022). Research highlights how abiotic factors such as climate, soil composition, and water availability shape the ecological niches that organisms occupy, influencing the diversity and functionality of ecosystems (Carnwath and Nelson, 2017). Plants improve the physicochemical properties of soil through the rhizosphere (Chen *et al.*, 2022) and litter decomposition (Zhang *et al.*, 2022), both of which affect each other through various feedbacks. The rhizosphere/litter decomposition-influence mechanism is more obvious in arid regions (Mora and Lázaro, 2013; Yang *et al.*, 2015). Evidence suggests that fertile island formation is largely driven by soil fungal abundance and plant functional traits (Ochoa-Hueso *et al.*, 2018; Martins *et al.*, 2024). In particular perennial plants, that create biodiverse hotspots and can determine the structure and functioning of drylands worldwide (Eldridge *et al.*, 2024).

Although this centripetal property of autocatalytic reaction networks, does show some level of evolvability (Vasas *et al.*, 2010, 2012; Hordijk *et al.*, 2012; Hordijk and Steel, 2014; Hordijk, 2016; Goldford and Segrè, 2018), it is still unclear how structures and the complexity that life exhibits, can in fact evolve (Peng *et al.*, 2020). In their model, that assumes all reactions reversible, Peng *et al.*, (2020) show a fractal relationship between single autocatalytic cycle dynamics and population dynamics of a biological species. However, they challenged existing models of autocatalysis in the origins of life, suggesting its interpretation in models (Gatti *et al.*, 2017) can be ambiguous and that they lack realistic chemical kinetics (Peng *et al.*, 2020). This presents difficulties in connecting them to plausible prebiotic settings, perhaps due to the complexity in open non-equilibrium systems, contributed by irreversible processes (Peng *et al.*, 2020).

2.1.3 Pattern formation and ecological feedback

None the less, ecological feedback mechanisms are credible and have shown to create patterns even at landscape scales! Turing's paper in 1952 explicitly described how patterns in nature, like animal patterns, can arise from a homogenous uniform state (Turing, 1952). Similar processes of pattern formation in nature are starting to show up across the globe. For example the origins of Fairy circles (FC) in Namibia or Mima mounds in Washington state (Plate 2), have long been the subject of controversy (Sahagian, 2017). Many recent theories have argued that it is an emergent phenomena, reflecting an aridity response at the population level; where geometric patterns form, from ecohydrological biomass-water 'feedbacks' (Plate 2; Cramer and Barger, 2013; Getzin *et al.*, 2015, 2016, 2019, 2020; Zelnik *et al.*, 2015; Cramer *et al.*, 2017; Ravi *et al.*, 2017). The pattern and wavelength of the gap, is an expression of the spatial scale that water is most limiting to the plants (Meron, 2016; Getzin *et al.*, 2020). Getzin *et al.*, (2020) concluded that the vegetation gaps maintain ecosystem functioning at lower precipitation values, than if vegetation was uniform in corroboration with Meron (2016). Interestingly, soil temperature plays a significant role in maintaining bare discs, by limiting germination of the grass species within them (Vlieghe and Picker, 2019).



Plate 2 - Fairy circles of Namibia (left). Mima mounds of Washington State (right). Source: (Kelly *et al.*, 2017)

Pattern formation in this sense is an active research area (Rossi and Liveri, 2009; Hsia *et al.*, 2012) and while Turing pattern in nature has a robust mathematical background, there are too little field studies. Partly as the phenomenon has more so drawn the interest of physicists over experimental ecologists (Lefever and Lejeune, 1997; Klausmeier, 1999; von Hardenberg *et al.*, 2001; Rietkerk *et al.*, 2002; Yizhaq and Bel, 2016). Nonetheless, a few studies have empirically linked measured processes, with theoretical modelling, of ecohydrological feedback induced, vegetation self-organisation. In arid grasslands (Getzin *et al.*, 2020), African shrublands (Barbier *et al.*, 2008), Israelian desert plants (Yizhaq *et al.*, 2019), as well as in wetter climates such as Siberian peatlands (Eppinga *et al.*, 2008, 2009), where scale dependent, positive feedbacks, were confirmed to drive underlying nutrient concentrations (Eppinga *et al.*, 2008). Matching of pattern modelling to empirical data has also been demonstrated for completely different systems, such as the Everglades in Florida (Acharya *et al.*, 2015) and even under the Mediterranean sea (Ruiz-Reynés *et al.*, 2017). However, more field-work is needed and Getzin *et al.*, (2020) called for mutual collaboration between physicists and ecologists, to deepen our understanding of feedback, in complex ecological systems. In particular, investigating timescales of patterns, which in the case of fairy circles, can form over hundreds of years (Caviedes-Voullième and Hinz, 2020).

2.2 Ecological autocatalysis and the evolution of diversity

Cycles provide the dynamical closure necessary for life (Ho, 2003). Nested configurations form (Kauffman, 1986; Hordijk and Steel, 2004; Mossel and Steel, 2005), and the eco-system is a fractal analogue of the organisms that inhabit it. The

same processes of circular interaction found in the prebiotic state, are found in the chains of consumer-resource interactions that organisms partake (Gatti *et al.*, 2017, 2018; Veldhuis *et al.*, 2018). Philosophers also draw similar analogies between the organisation of cells and of ecosystems (Nunes-Neto *et al.*, 2014; Gatti *et al.*, 2018). Furthermore, the hierarchal link between chemical autocatalysis and ecological autocatalysis (EA; Veldhuis *et al.*, 2018) is akin to the well documented link between chemical stoichiometry and ecological stoichiometry (Elser *et al.*, 2000; Sterner and Elser, 2002).

Probably the most profound advancement in evolution, since life rose from the ooze, is the union of two important organisms on the planet; fungi and algae. In a mutual thermodynamic relationship, energy and matter are exchanged between the two organisms otherwise known as Lichen (Plate 3)



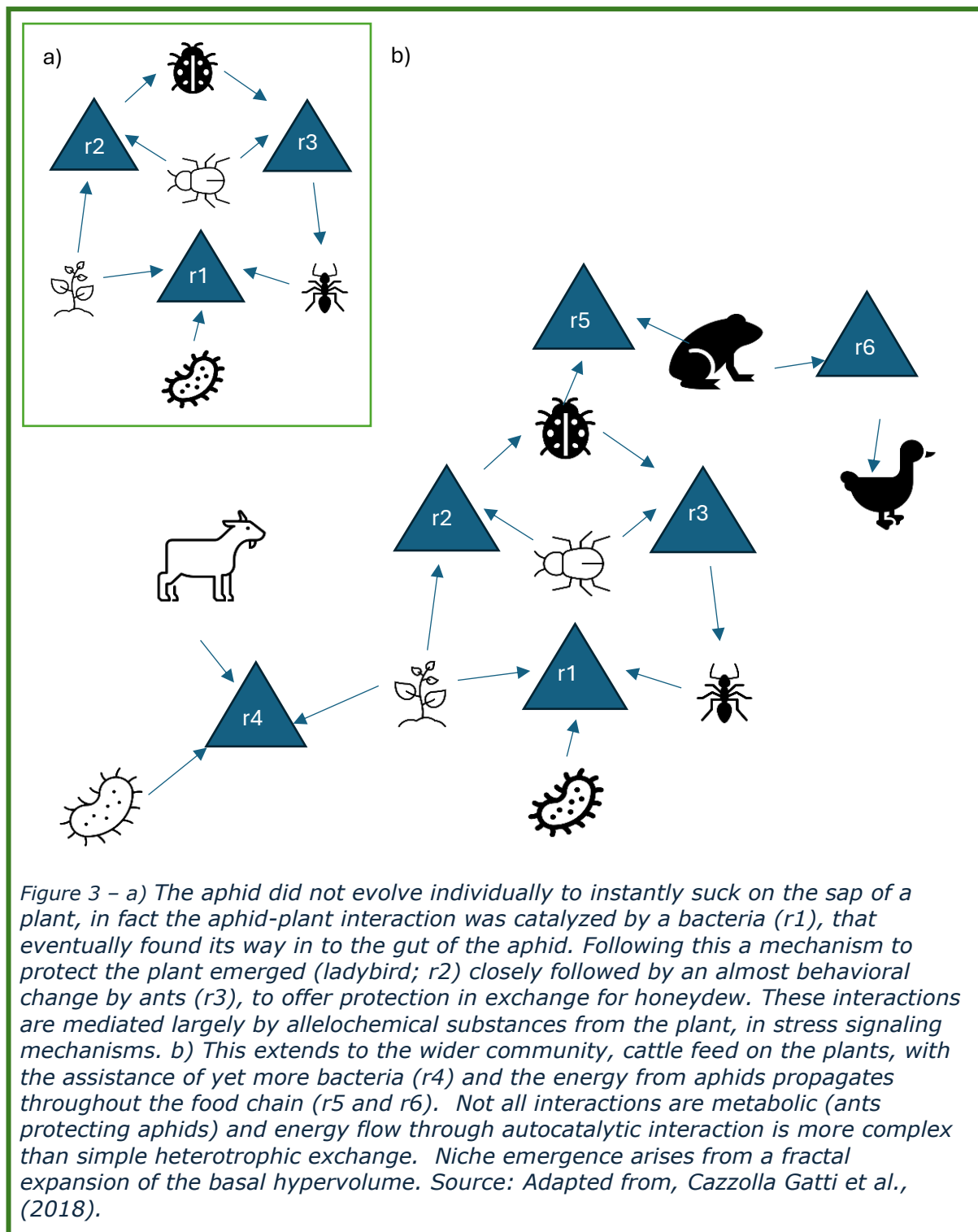
Plate 3 - Photo of lichen on a tree trunk (left), on and rock (right). Source: Authors own

2.2.1 Autocatalytic sets and the emergence of niches

The concept of autocatalytic sets was formalized mathematically as 'reflexively autocatalytic and food-generated sets' (RAFsets; Hordijk and Steel, 2014, 2017; Cazzolla Gatti *et al.*, 2018). From this, higher levels of autocatalytic sets can emerge at the ecological level, comprising one species guild (Eco-RAF) and the evolutionary level, comprising multiple Eco-RAFTs, to form Evo-RAF sets (Cazzolla Gatti *et al.*, 2018). Recent studies suggest that natural selection can act on whole RAF sets,

rather than just individual species or genotypes (Calcagno *et al.*, 2017; Gatti *et al.*, 2017). Through catalytic efficiency selection processes favor reactions that convert reactants to products quickly with minimal loss (Hordijk and Steel, 2017). At higher levels, in terms of resource utilization and competition of multiple RAF sets, selection pressures favor those sets that more efficiently utilize available substrates with minimal waste (Vasas *et al.*, 2010). This can lead to the emergence of more complex reaction networks capable of sustaining larger systems, that are more resilient (Smith and Morowitz, 2016). This notion of a single species, enabling multiple species' evolution, contrasts the old natural philosophy, *Natura non facit saltus* (nature does not jump). Something that Darwin used to defend the gradual and minute changes of evolution from one species to another. For example, take a common pest in agriculture, the Aphid. Aphids are part of guild of 5 species that maintain a balance between them (Figure 3). It highlights that species autocatalyze their own and other species' evolution, simultaneously, without the need to partition resources, as in NP theory (Gatti *et al.*, 2018). The species in this guild occupy a niche that interacts with a number of RAF sets (Figure 3). And not one species evolved individually, in fact the set evolved together, with the emergence of niches and the set as a whole is the most stable state, given the conditions.

Stability in ecology is defined by the system's (whether a single species guild or whole ecosystem) ability to return to its equilibrium (to be clear this is not TE), state following perturbation (Levin *et al.*, 2012). A flexibility often referred to as resilience, however this can over simplify the definition of resilience, which is far more related to ecosystem processes rather than species alone (Zaccarelli *et al.*, 2008) and actually depends more on the level of redundancy (Rutledge *et al.*, 1976; Naeem, 1998; Elmqvist *et al.*, 2003; Petchey *et al.*, 2007; Ludwig *et al.*, 2018; Biggs *et al.*, 2020; Ulanowicz, 2020) and competitive loops driven by environmental conditions (later discussed). Resilience defined by Holling, (1973) is the capacity of the system to absorb disturbance and reorganize, still retaining same structure, function and feedbacks. The IPCC 6th assessment (IPCC, 2022) defines resilience as "not just the ability to maintain essential function, identity and structure, but also the capacity for transformation".



Cazzolla Gatti et al., (2018) discuss the concept of how RAF sets can evolve from 'unprestatable' (Longo et al., 2012) conditions and are associated with niche emergence and biodiversity. This work builds and extends on theories of eco-systems as complex and adaptive systems, where organisation is central (Levin, 1998). Positive feedbacks are arranged in autocatalytic structures, that operate across scales

and give way to evolutionary outcomes, enhancing biodiversity (Gatti *et al.*, 2018). These nested autocatalytic sets now require further quantification and theoretical study, especially with regard to the interplay of ecological and evolutionary dynamics (Gatti *et al.*, 2018).

For example, Niche Partitioning (NP) is the process of natural selection, driving species in to differing patterns of resource use (MacArthur, 1955, 1958; Hector and Hooper, 2002). This differentiation, promotes coexistence (Chesson, 2000; Levine and HilleRisLambers, 2009) and NP theories have long underpinned our understanding of biodiversity. However, in NP theory, physical limitations act to restrict niche variables to accommodate a new niche, that is to say, no new resources or conditions can be added through NP alone (Gatti *et al.*, 2018). This challenges the classical view that niche differences are key to coexistence and Cazzolla Gatti *et al.*, (2018) have proposed, that only Niche Emergence (NE) can push evolution ahead. NP does not allow for the creation of new niches, contrary to archaeological interpretations of fossil records (Brokaw and Busing, 2000; Albrecht and Gotelli, 2001; Silvertown, 2004; Finke and Snyder, 2008; Di Bitetti *et al.*, 2010; Cardinale, 2011). With NE New niches emerge from the eco-space following a 'fractal hypervolume expansion', according to Cazzolla Gatti *et al.*, (2018); principally derived from the capacity dimension or box-counting dimension, applied to fractal objects (Schroeder, 1991). Put simply, a species can expand from the base resource fractally, through a power law, multiplying available niches (niche emergence; Gatti *et al.*, 2017; Cazzolla Gatti *et al.*, 2018). Species tend to increase the number of potentially available niches for other species, enhancing the limit of the basal hyper-volume up to the eco-system carrying capacity (Gatti *et al.*, 2018).

Examples of this specificity within eco-systems is rife, from the well-known mutual dependency of flowers and a suitable pollinator, to far more curious and obscure interactions such as the fungi, *Ophiocordyceps unilateralism*, zombifying ants for its own propagation. Species possess certain distinguishing traits in order to support the functioning of the eco-system as a whole (Grime and Pierce, 2012). Each species occupies their niche and the emergence and configuration of niches will tend toward that which draws in more resources (centripetality). A niche represents a pathway for

energy flow, with its own individual limitations. Reproduction in plants, for instance, represents the ultimate goal for the individual, to promote longevity for future generations and involves multiple processes and species. The sheer diversity of plant reproduction (flowers, fruits, seeds) suggests interactions between consumer diversity at multiple levels of hierarchy, in evolutionary feedbacks (Georgiadis *et al.*, 1989).

2.2.2 From simple laws to complex outcomes.

Species guilds are quite miraculous in themselves, to then place them in the context of the wider eco-system is unfathomable, yet there it is. Here lies the mystery in evolution, the sheer complexity of abundant interaction. It is difficult to comprehend how and where it all came from. However, in a famous thought experiment, the Polya process speculates how from seemingly simple laws, complex outcomes can manifest.

In the generalized Polya process (Cha and Finkelstein, 2018), two colored balls are placed in an urn and one is drawn at random, this is replaced in the urn with another ball of the same color and the process continues (Figure 4). One may assume that the probability of drawing either coloured ball is $50/50 = 0.5$. However, what occurs is that the probability never sits at this figure, but instead deviates from it above and below. It can be said that the outcome, although completely indeterminable, is none the less constrained by the previous draws, non-random, yet indeterminate (Ulanowicz, 2011, 2018).

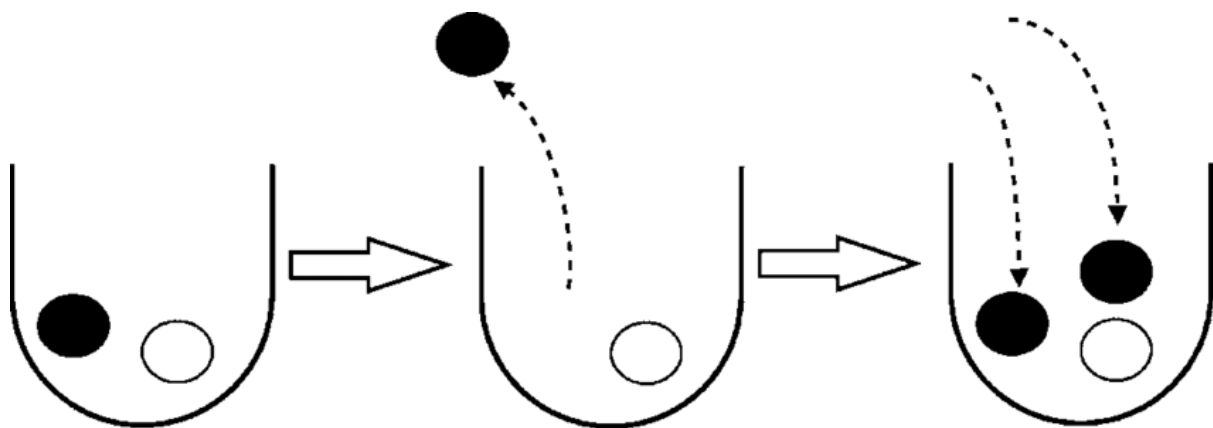


Figure 4 - A depiction of the polya process. For every coloured ball that is pulled from the urn at random, a ball of that colour is added. The ratio of coloured balls is principally driven by chance, however becomes increasingly influenced by the previous draws and actually rarely falls at the expected probability of 0.5. Source: (Cha and Finkelstein, 2018)

What can be ascertained from this experiment is, firstly, the outcome is driven principally by chance and as discussed above, order springs from background chaos, from the many contingencies. Secondly, it involves a kind of self-reference, in the way that a membrane creates an internal reference system, an asymmetry from its surroundings. Finally, the draw is based on a history of previous draws, as too is the final outcome; a necessary tool to create progressive order.

This dilutes to the three dimensions of what (Ulanowicz, 1999) prescribed as, *Life after Newton: An ecological metaphysic*:

- Radical contingency
- Autocatalysis
- Memory

The idea that multiple species can spontaneously evolve into a perfect marriage seems almost supernatural. In Cazzolla Gatti's *et al.*, (2018) aphid model (Figure 3), at least one of the autocatalytic sets had to occur spontaneously, prior to inclusion of other catalysts. Although this is always possible, it is much slower compared with if it were catalyzed (Gatti *et al.*, 2018). This suggests that the overall probability of an event with constraint (mutualism), is higher than without. True, but unique (rare) events are actually more common than one might think (Ulanowicz, 2004; Jørgensen *et al.*, 2007). In fact, the overwhelming majority of events in biology are unique (Elsasser, 1981, 1982; Henning and Scarfe, 2013) and contingency has a spectrum (Ulanowicz, 2004, 2016, 2019). Ecosystems are not causally closed, they are open to non-mechanical agency (Ulanowicz, 2004). As such, spontaneous events may occur at any level of the hierarchy at any time (Ulanowicz, 2004).

For example, Elsasser defines an enormous number as the maximum possible events, that may have occurred in the history of the universe, by multiplying the number of elementary particles in the known universe, with the number of nano seconds since the big bang, to give, $\sim 10^{85} \times 10^{25} = 10^{110}$ (Henning and Scarfe, 2013). Then consider that at the rudimentary level, everything in the known universe is made up from a concoction of the 100 or so naturally occurring elements, the number of contingencies among them can be calculated as a factorial, $100! = 9.3 \times 10^{157}$. It's clear that the probability of a unique contingency is extremely high, as this many possible configurations ensures non-repeatable events; as the number of types increases, the possible combinations grow, which engenders the unprestateability of the phase space (space of possibilities; Longo *et al.*, 2012). This expresses the depth of possibilities from the known elements on Earth. Now of course the vast majority of reactions are not thermodynamically possible and would not happen, however it provides the necessary heterogeneity for autocatalysis to occur.

In fact, as little as 75 distinct types is all that is required to equal the same number of individual events since the big bang (Elsasser, 1969; Henning and Scarfe, 2013; Ulanowicz, 2019). This heterogeneity of distinct types, vastly increases probability of autocatalysis to occur (Kauffman, 1986; Ulanowicz, 2019). 75 distinct components, non specific, is all that is required to have enough interactions to reach Ellassers number. If the interactions discussed in the formulation of Ellassers number created everything in the Universe, then as little as 75 components has the potential to do the same and in fact likely will tend to do so. Ecosystems regularly exceed 75 components and many exceed 75 species, *let alone* other physical and chemical components that they interact with, depending on what one considers a “component”. The probability demonstrates the extent and almost necessity of unique events in natural systems. It defines what Ellasser referred to as ‘Ontic Openness’ (Ulanowicz, 2006; Nielsen and Emmeche, 2013). All living systems are ontologically open, implying the extremely high level of uncertainty that guarantees a system to develop (Nielsen and Emmeche, 2013). It also reveals difficulty in determining what that system may actually develop in to. Laws constrain evolution, but cannot determine outcomes (Ulanowicz, 2009b). Complex systems, as causal circuits (Bateson, 1980), can react non-randomly to random stimuli (order from chaos; Prigogine *et al.*, 1984) and autocatalysis is molded by a stream of unique events, behaving like a propensity rather than a mechanistic force (Popper, 1990). There is none more apt example of this than the self-organising oscillations of Turing’s (1952) patterns, where order emerges from chaos.

What more, this legion of uniqueness allows for the residency of weaker flows to continue as redundant pathways (Ulanowicz, 2020). In this sense redundancy in the form of response diversity (Elmqvist *et al.*, 2003; Ludwig *et al.*, 2018) is crucial to sustaining ecosystem growth, primarily through enhancing the temporal stability of associated ecosystem function (Naeem, 1998; Petchey *et al.*, 2007; Biggs *et al.*, 2020). This is biodiversity at its finest! A balance between constraint and flexibility (Ulanowicz, 2020), where simple rules can create complex outcomes (Ulanowicz, 2007). It is why primary production of a given area can vary so tremendously; as it is dependent on the traits of the photosynthetic individuals involved and the availability of limiting resources (light, nutrients and water; Jänes *et al.*, 2017). Biodiversity influences ecosystem function and high diverse communities tend to be capable of higher productivity. The effect of biodiversity on ecosystem function, is then also

dependent upon the temporal and spatial scale of the interactions within these complex systems (Barry *et al.*, 2021).

2.2.3 Temporal and spatial scales

Uniqueness provides a platform for species to inhabit a diverse range of environments. Habitats where the conditions change dramatically, either daily as in tidal areas or even seasonally as in flood lands, are tasked at providing the necessary energetic pathways to sustain both scenarios, or succumb to significant energy losses and the poor ability to export entropy (Prigogine and Nicolis, 1985). This creates a heterogenous landscape, as these habitats are exposed to the fluctuating environmental conditions. Feedback modifications of Eco-RAF sets, promote alternative niche constructions (Post and Palkovacs, 2009; Kylafis and Loreau, 2010; Odling-Smee *et al.*, 2013). Interactions of organisms modulate the resources, by causing state changes (Veldhuis' *et al.*, 2018) and certain species have key roles; keystone species (Power *et al.*, 1996), ecosystem engineers (Jones *et al.*, 1994) or foundation species (Whitham *et al.*, 2006).

Veldhuis' *et al.*, (2018) give an example through flooding, where a macro detritivore dominated grassland loop, switches to a microbe dominated grassland loop. With increasing rainfall, grazing intolerant grasses, evolve to cycle nutrients and energy

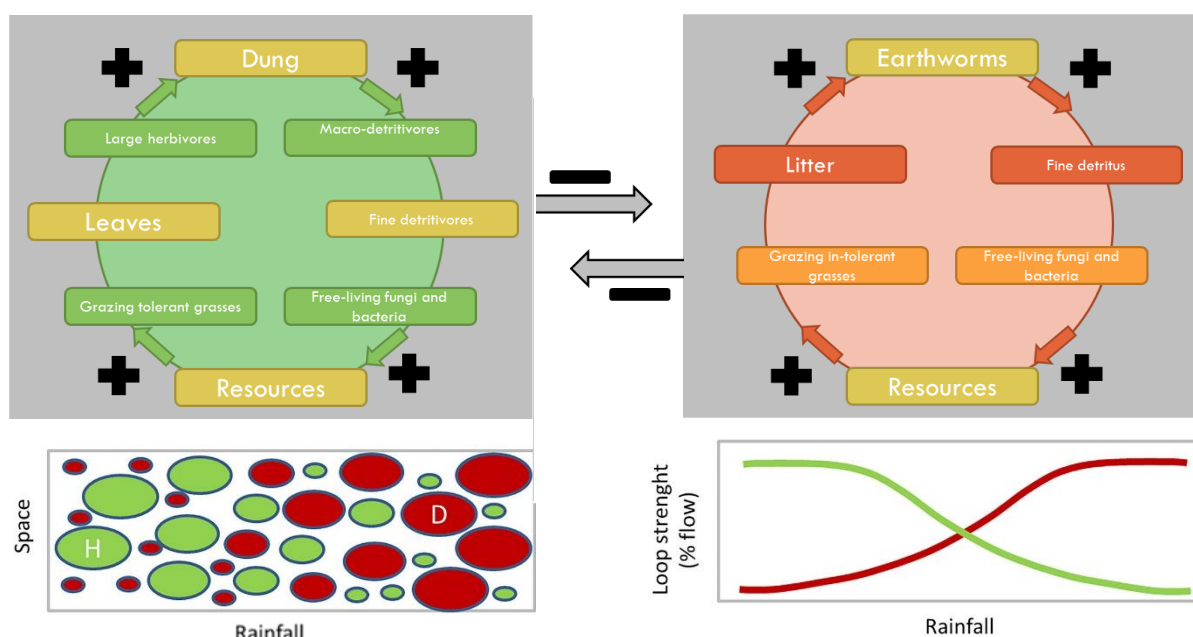


Figure 5 - Conceptual model of two competitive autocatalytic loops, in a semi flood land habitat. With water as the limiting factor, two stable states have been established to ensure energy dissipation prevails. With rainfall, loop strength for detritivore pathway (D; red) increases and heterotrophic pathway (H; green), diminishes. This is reversed when rainfall is minimum.

through a leaf litter and earth worm path; shifting from grazing tolerant plants and a macro detritivore path (Figure 5). The evolution of either grazing tolerance or intolerance, is simple to see here and either strategy generally contributes to enhanced nutrient cycling or conservation (McNaughton *et al.*, 1997; Steinberg *et al.*, 1997; Loreau, 1998; Mazancourt *et al.*, 1998; Belovsky and Slade, 2000; Veldhuis *et al.*, 2018). Like the fairy circles the system finds the most stable situation based on the limitations of the environment (in both cases water).

Competition between loops (Ulanowicz, 1999) generates negative feedback, with the extreme hydrological cycle. The system flips backwards and forwards between the two 'alternate stable states' and as a whole, maintains stability in the limiting conditions (Howison *et al.*, 2017; Veldhuis *et al.*, 2018). During times of extreme conditions the less tolerable loop becomes redundant but still exist, with reduced flows, until the event that conditions become more favorable again. This may be visible as a grazing mosaic and Howison *et al.*, (2017) proposed that the alternating patches, are governed by the interplay between the two biotic processes. The patches expand the range of conditions, under which grazing mosaics can persist (Howison *et al.*, 2017). Smit *et al.*, (2023) go on to produce a patch dynamic model that confirms how feedbacks between large herbivores, vegetation and soil fauna alter patches over space and through time. Grazing tends to have a non linear, both a negative and positive effect on species diversity dependent largely on the grazing intensity. Overgrazing can disrupt positive associations between biodiversity and nutrient availability (Wang *et al.*, 2020), where as abeyance can lead to homogenization of food webs and biodiversity loss (Schrama *et al.*, 2023). Traditional methods that employ light – moderate grazing management, tend to be more sustainable and lead to sustainable grazing management and promote biodiversity (Mu *et al.*, 2016; Dong *et al.*, 2020).

This presents the existence of both a positive (facilitative) and negative (competitive) interaction between species (Bruno *et al.*, 2003), that contributes resilience. Maestre *et al.*, (2005) observed, through density data, that in low and high abiotic stress levels, the net effect of neighbours can be positive or negative, respectively. The combined positive feedback within loops and negative feedback between them, results in competition between sets (autocatalytic loops) of species (Ulanowicz, 1997; Verhoef and Morin, 2010; Veldhuis *et al.*, 2018). This self-reinforcing nature, of coexisting loops, can explain spatial and temporal heterogeneity (Veldhuis *et al.*, 2018). It follows

that the higher the amount of resources a species can produce or acquire, the greater amount of loops it can participate in. This balance between positive feedback within loops and negative feedback between loops, corresponds well with interaction–redistribution models of vegetation dynamics (Lejeune *et al.*, 2002; Rietkerk *et al.*, 2002; Veldhuis *et al.*, 2018). Furthermore, it can be used to explain the competitive exclusion principle. As previously mentioned the centripetal property of an autocatalytic system actively selects paths that draw in the most resources, weakening flows across others making them redundant (Ulanowicz, 1997; Ulanowicz *et al.*, 2006). For example, two species competing for the same resources will undoubtedly result in the more efficient one outcompeting with the other establishing a positive feedback loop, that further reinforces its occupation in the niche (Jørgensen and Fath, 2004). In the above grazing example, the competitive traits of the two systems exclude them from one another and as a result the overall landscape achieves a semi stable state. A species can cross a threshold and become dominant (the herbivore or the detritivore in this example), which can alter the ecosystem structure and function, until such a time as conditions allow the other to cross a threshold in to dominance (Vasas *et al.*, 2010).

What this demonstrates is that natural selection is not only driven by the competitive exclusion principle and natural selection, acting in a downward motion to shed components not participating as effectively in autocatalysis, it is also working in an upward motion to build efficient loops. Veldhuis *et al.*, (2018) goes on to postulate, that this also confirms how nutrients and their availability are in fact emergent properties that arises from the fractal eco-space (Gatti *et al.*, 2018), contrary to classical accepted views that it determines community structure (Veldhuis *et al.*, 2018). Food web models are shown to stimulate nutrient flow rates (de Ruiter *et al.*, 1994), food web structure is an important factor in nutrient mineralization (Berg *et al.*, 2001) and macro-detritivore identity drives leaf litter diversity (Vos *et al.*, 2011). Community structure then, is not only consequence of functional traits and assembly rules but also loop formation and competition (Veldhuis *et al.*, 2018). Emergent properties such as resilience and alternate stable states, are then consequence of competition between autocatalytic loops and mutualism within them (Veldhuis *et al.*, 2018). This can be adaptive both ecologically and evolutionary under certain conditions (Loreau, 1998; Mazancourt *et al.*, 1998). However, the interplay between

ecological and evolutionary outcomes is so complex, it requires redefining mutualism (Mazancourt *et al.*, 1998; Gatti *et al.*, 2018).

In this sense evolutionary cycles across both space and time, alternate between long periods of aggradation, (accumulation of exergy , evidenced by movement from TE) and short periods of innovation, with abundant opportunity (Gunderson and Pritchard, 2012). They are 'adaptive' (Gunderson and Holling, 2003) and this is a fundamental concept for understanding complex systems. The adaptive cycle as proposed by (Gunderson and Holling, 2003) exhibits two major transitions (Figure 6). The first, r to K is a time of slow incremental growth and accumulation (the fore loop), the second, Ω to α , is a time of rapid renewal and reorganisation following collapse. As in the transitional habitats described above, the two competitive systems collapse and re-organise with the changing conditions. This of course propagates up to the highest scale (the biosphere). Cycles are nested and the concept extends to what Gunderson (2002) termed, panarchy (nested adaptive cycles). Gunderson (2002) proposed that panarchy operates within distinct spatial and temporal scales, shaped by a limited number of key processes (Sundstrom and Allen, 2019). Subsequent research has provided substantial evidence supporting this idea (Allen and Holling, 2008; Wardwell *et al.*, 2008; Sundstrom, 2009; Nash *et al.*, 2014; Spanbauer *et al.*, 2016; Sundstrom and Allen, 2019).

The k phase is the most vulnerable stage, although highly efficient the system is brittle with low resilience but high resistance. A strong enough perturbation (such as flooding, or drought) is enough to drive the system to collapse and it will reorganises in a different stable state. Extreme events can completely tip the scales and throw the system back to a previous successional stage, it is forced to remember the configuration (Figure 6). Similarly, the accumulation of fast events at smaller scales can overwhelm larger slower ones and processes, structures at the lower scales then overthrow those at higher scales. The revolt may lead to new processes and structures at those higher scales (Figure 6).

The adaptive cycle metaphor gives a qualitative description of processes, characteristic of a complex system (Castell and Schrenk, 2020). In accordance with Gunderson and Holling, (2003), complex systems pass through the two unique phases as a means to adapt and evolve.

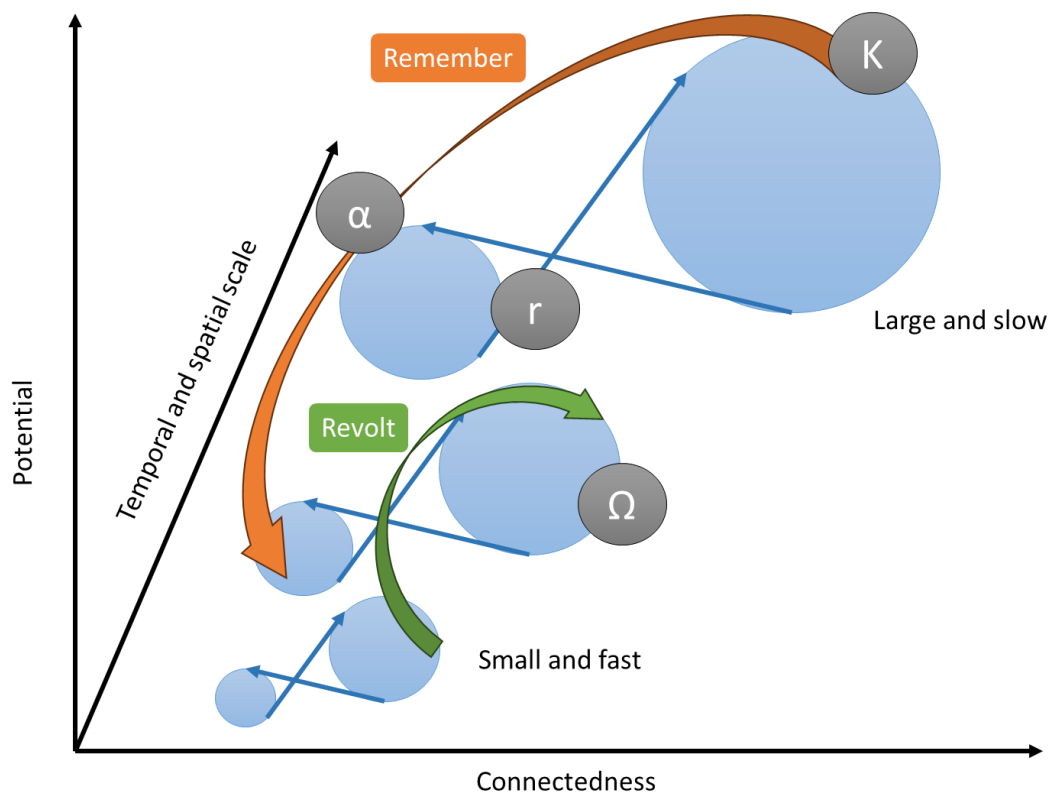


Figure 6 - The cross-scale interaction of the adaptive cycle. Introducing a 3rd dimension of spatial and temporal scale, where the larger (biosphere) scales are slower and smaller (organism) scales are faster. 4 distinct phases plot the trajectory of an adaptive system: The r phase (r), a period of rapid resource exploitation and growth, with innovation and flexibility, but low stability. The system is experimenting and expanding and energy and resources are plentiful. In the K phase (K), energy efficiency and accumulation dominate, accompanied by high stability, however this creates rigidity and the system is vulnerable to collapse (Ω). Ω is a rapid breakdown where accumulated resources and structures are released, trigger by perturbations that push the system beyond its threshold. Finally, the organisation phase (α), is a period of high uncertainty, but a window of opportunity, as the system prepares for a new growth cycle. The two cross-scale interaction that facilitate systematic change are revolt and remember. Remember exerts a top down influence and occurs during the α phase, where legacies from larger, slower systems remember past structures and influence faster smaller systems. The revolt, has a triggering effect and occurs during Ω , where a faster smaller system in collapse can cascade up to the next scale.

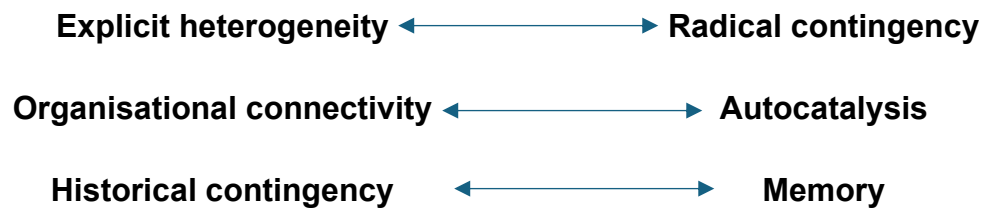
Complexity and order emerge from relative simplicity and disorder through “periodic but transient setbacks involving relaxation and restructuring of organization” (Kurakin, 2011). Thermodynamic principles, used to investigate the dynamics of change in

complex adaptive systems, such as exergy, infrared thermal measurements, and electron and proton transport in autocatalytic processes (E.D Schneider and Kay, 1994; Jørgensen and Fath, 2004; Kurakin, 2011; Sundstrom and Allen, 2019), align closely with the concepts of adaptive cycles and panarchy. These authors argue that setbacks to the trajectory of increasing complexity, occurring across all spatial and temporal scales (e.g., small forest fires, mass extinctions, or the decline of civilizations), have not altered the overall trend of increasing complexity. While individual components may change, the underlying organization and relationships tend to persist and evolve over time (Kurakin, 2011; legacies form).

2.2.4 Complex systems as webs of autocatalytic loops

Complexity in the context of its raw definition, although extremely apt to describe the intricate and complicated state of natural systems, has far deeper connotations; moving in to a whole scientific field of its own. Ecological complexity embodies the study of diverse components, connectivity and emergent properties, encompassing key eco-system variables, like trophic interactions and functional diversity (Bullock *et al.*, 2022); referring to structural complexity and complex behaviors (Peipoch *et al.*, 2015). Complexity at the landscape scale is contingent on variation in biological form and function at finer scales and the relationship between diversity and complexity has been the focus of ecological theory (Hutchinson, 1957; Rutledge *et al.*, 1976; Peipoch *et al.*, 2015). The literature surrounding ecological and/or biological complexity find an accessible ground for ecologists, physicists and systems theorists alike to explore the fundamentals of complexity, with ecological structure as the entry point for the framework (Cadenasso *et al.*, 2006).

In spite of the relatively recent general increase of interest in complexity, the theory and associated concepts such as non-linear dynamics, self-organisation, irreversibility, emergence, etc., have been a rich topic for study in physics, thermodynamics and systems theory (Kay and Schneider, 1994, Bak, 1996, Auyang, 1998, Milne, 1998). This framework is based on three dimensions of complexity; spatially explicit heterogeneity; organisational connectivity; and historical contingency (Cadenasso *et al.*, 2006). There is something reassuringly familiar in the three dimensions of complexity, with the new ecological metaphysic (Ulanowicz, 1999).



2.2.5 Developing the necessary structures for effective energy dissipation

Autocatalytic systems undergo a centripetal migration of material and energy towards the loop itself (Figure 2), rewarding modifications that provide additional material or energy to aid operations. This selection applies to all aspects of the loop, making the cycle the focal point of an inward migration of energy and matter (Ulanowicz, 1997; Ulanowicz *et al.*, 2006). However, this flow of resources leads in the siphoning of essential elements away from system members that do not engage in autocatalysis as effectively (Ulanowicz, 1999; Jørgensen *et al.*, 2007). The total mutual information (ascendency) increases as a result of the steady pruning of exchanges connecting system elements, while flows over remaining links rise due to the acceleration of autocatalysis (Ulanowicz, 1999).

Autocatalytic interaction imposes increasing constraint and channels system flows along fewer, but more efficient, paths that are more beneficial to the process. This "pruning" increases the occurrence of these flow events (Jørgensen *et al.*, 2007). That said, autocatalytic cycles are not always rigorously coupled, to return to Figure 2; A's action does not always reinforce B's. Instead, they are variable biotic constituents and processes. Autocatalysis is a mechanism in simple chemical systems, but when chance and variation enter the picture, it exhibits nonmechanical characteristics. Autocatalysis among indeterminate processes causes selection pressure, where a change in a process B's characteristic improves B's catalytic influence on C or makes B more sensitive to A. Changes in process B, on the other hand, reduces its effect on C or makes it less responsive to A, resulting in atrophy (Ulanowicz, 1999). This selection is not the same as natural selection (Ulanowicz, 1999), which operates downwardly (Veldhuis *et al.*, 2018) to strip redundant components. The selection pressure from self-organisation acts in an upward fashion, building ecological feedback structures (Veldhuis *et al.*, 2018).

Take the energy characteristics of a desert, largely it is the movement of water that separates a desert from a rainforest. Evapotranspiration is a fundamental process that drives photosynthesis and primary productivity (Fisher *et al.*, 2017). Heterogenous features enable the increasing ability to draw in resources like water and dissipate energy. Through entropy transfer tools Yuan *et al.*, (2021) showed that information transfer from solar radiation and vegetation activity to evaporative fraction, increased in forested areas compared to non-forested areas. Indicating that energy dissipation is enhanced through transpiration in increased vegetation. Similarly, transpiration helps to build the energy into biomass of the plant, or at least to maintain the vigor of the plant so that it can effectively dissipate energy. In the fairy circles (Plate 2) energy dissipation is maximized on the perimeter of the ring, as resources converge there (Meron, 2016; Getzin *et al.*, 2020).

Desert



Aridity in a dessert is by far the greatest limiting factor and although species have developed specialized structures and functions, to harvest energy in the extreme conditions, the habitat remains largely homogenous with poor interconnectivity that lets a large fraction of the available energy go to waste.

Rainforest



Higher surface area, interconnected network and increased biomass, develops the necessary structures for effective energy dissipation. Largely through evapotranspiration.

Figure 7 - The difference in energy flow through evapotranspiration between a desert and a forest. Dense vegetation has more surface area and greater thermodynamic mass, leading to greater evapotranspiration and energy dissipation. Source: Stock images

If given the right information, a configuration that allows a more efficient path for energy flow will be favored and promote greater energy dissipation. In a chrono sequence of soil pedogenesis and ecological succession, a homogenous substrate (like a desert sand) lacks the necessary structure, to retain valuable resources such as water, nutrients, etc. With limited prospects for autocatalytic interaction, energy dissipation is poor. What is crucially important is that this is only dependent on the ability of the components to access resources. Hence why biodiversity is so important. Abundance and diversity in living biomass, is representative of an abundant and diverse departure from TE (Jørgensen *et al.*, 2000). Where it becomes extremely important to understand, is the environmental impact that simplification of landscapes, like agricultural ones, may have. Climate change is often attributed to greenhouse gases and the role of biodiversity in mitigating climate change is given to carbon sequestration (Pörtner *et al.*, 2022). However, diverse eco-systems are an effective climate buffer by reducing surface temperatures and climate regulation is a significant eco-system service (Landis, 2017). Eco-systems cool themselves, through self-organisation, exporting entropy to the atmosphere as heat and these transformations are mainly achieved by water movement (evapotranspiration; Pokorný *et al.*, 2010). As such, afforestation could significantly reduce surface temperatures and contribute to the positive change needed to mitigate climate change (Ellison *et al.*, 2024).

The role of water vapour from evapotranspiration, in cooling ecosystems forms an integral part of understanding energy dissipation and is discussed in more detail in chapters 4 and 5. Its cooling effect is primarily the result of the proportion of sensible and latent heat (Norris *et al.*, 2012; Michaelian, 2015; Avelar *et al.*, 2020). It is also true that aerosols contribute to a net cooling effect (Myhre *et al.*, 2013), however this is largely through the formation of cloud condensation nuclei, enhancing cloud formation and albedo effect (Merikanto *et al.*, 2009; J *et al.*, 2016; Rejano *et al.*, 2023; Kubečka *et al.*, 2024). Interestingly, water vapour in the atmosphere is thought to have the opposite effect and makes up 50% of known greenhouse gases. However, atmospheric water is far more a result of global warming increasing sea temperatures, as a mere (yet considerable) 10% of atmospheric water vapour is from evapotranspiration. Interestingly, Patel *et al.*, (2024), found strong relationships between an increase in atmospheric water vapour and desert greening. Also, (Laguë *et al.*, 2023) used global climate models to show how terrestrial evaporation can

increase atmospheric water vapour through generating cloud feedbacks; the suppression of evaporation, increases energy input to surface and surface moist static energy over land (the thermodynamic state of an air parcel). This emphasises the dual local and global effects of water vapour in cooling and warming the planet, further promoting the role of ecosystems in terrestrial cooling and the importance of complex ecosystems across the planet. It is clear that research in to evapotranspiration and energy dissipation is needed and this will become increasingly more evident as the thesis progresses.

2.3 Conclusions

Although science is still some distance from a 'unified theory' of ecology, it is clear that autocatalysis plays a pivotal role. Theoretical models and empirical evidence is changing our understanding of nature and evolution, where concepts such as niche partitioning and natural selection, that have thus far underpinned knowledge, are found to be only part of the story (Gabora , 2006; Gatti *et al.*, 2018). Autocatalytic loops are consistent across theories of the origins of life, to complex systems.

Empirical evidence of Turing (1952) patterns in ecological phenomena such as FC, are for the first time being realized. However, too little field studies exist and there is poor communication between ecologists and physicists. Although it is still unclear how simple laws of chemical reactions, manifests properties of life, new research is emerging.

Autocatalytic loops are found to be the unitary agency behind growth and EA is identified as the central principle in the development of complex systems. There are two timescales at work and positive mutualism at the faster scale is abetted by negative competition at the slower scale, creating a heterogenous landscape that maintains stability in limiting conditions. In addition, nutrient cycling is an emergent property of the combined effects of positive and negative feedback at the faster and slower timescales, respectively.

Through autocatalysis, species and communities develop toward a state of the most effective energy dissipation within the limitations of the system. Complexity, through the development of structure and function will always maximize this as it is intrinsically linked to thermodynamic laws, in particular entropy production (the second law). Scale becomes extremely important in the context of energy flows in managed landscapes.

In agriculture for instance, the individual that is the crop has certain needs to build biomass and provide a competitive yield, in order to facilitate economic gain. The factors that denote that profit margin are related to the ability of the farmer to supply those needs.

Diversion of critical ecosystem services, for the benefit of mankind (from higher scales), is resulting in significant environmental decline and ability to supply those resources sustainably. In order to progress, a deeper understanding of energy and matter flows in managed systems is needed. This first requires the development of effective indicators and is the premise of the following chapters.

3 Developing a framework for the thermodynamic assessment of structure and function in agricultural soils

3.1 The pitfalls of contemporary soil bioindication

An indicator is a metric that enables a verification of the soil's situation in respect to its conservation state, pollution, productivity, or any other characteristic that offers information about its existing and potential status (Bonilla *et al.*, 2002; Camacho, 2008; Tapia-Báez, 2015; Huera-Lucero *et al.*, 2020). Multiple reviews have been carried out on existing bioindicators (Bastida *et al.*, 2008; Ritz *et al.*, 2009; Cluzeau *et al.*, 2012; Havlicek, 2012; Pulleman *et al.*, 2012) alongside EcoFINDERS (Faber *et al.*, 2013; Griffiths *et al.*, 2016; Stone *et al.*, 2016) and outputs of recent international initiatives for soil monitoring, ENVASSO (Bispo *et al.*, 2009). Yet no standardized soil sustainability indicator suite has been established (Ludwig *et al.*, 2018). Soil indicators tend to focus on the biological, physical and chemical characteristics (Vallejo-Quintero, 2013; Jónsson *et al.*, 2016; Huera-Lucero *et al.*, 2020). Approaches either focus on a single indicator or a suite of indicators (Zhou and Ang, 2008). A single indicator is often unfavorable, as it is not believed to capture the complexity of natural systems (Nourry, 2008). On the other hand too many is timely, costly and messy to say the least (Ludwig *et al.*, 2018). As such an indicator set requires careful crafting. One of the greatest potential causes of error is in the estimation of data from other parameters, which ultimately are considered as true values, such as estimating moisture content from a collection of parameters like precipitation, soil structure, texture and land use. This can make their true connection with reality questionable (Baveye, 2017). Furthermore, some indicators are scale dependent and become unpredictable when scaling up (Baveye, 2017).

The need for further data on the condition of our soils is well acknowledged (Shepard, 2015) and crucial to effectively create policies and programs, that safeguard this vital resource. As such, they are central to land-based decision making. In a recent and very comprehensive systematic review, Bathaei and Štreimikienė, (2023) inspect a myriad of current indicators with only a small handful related to soil. Jónsson *et al.*, (2016) provide a transdisciplinary approach for indicator development. Wang *et al.*, (2023) discuss progress and perspectives in remote sensing of soil degradation. Details of these studies has not been included here, but they provide great detail to the plethora of soil bioindicators available to the scientific community. In addition,

technological advances have made soil sampling more precise and has enabled access to vast data sets through satellite imagery. The most current data sets were collected in the 1980s as part of the National Soil Inventory (LandIS, n.d.). However, there are limitations with satellite data, such as spatial and spectral resolution, temporal constraints, atmospheric and environmental interferences, data costs and access, integration challenges and uncertainty in measurements, all which are discussed in detail in the comprehensive reviews by Karakuş, 2023; Vitousek *et al.*, (2023). These limitations highlight the need to complement satellite data with other sources, such as ground-based observations or aerial surveys, to create a more comprehensive understanding of the phenomena being studied.

Soil sustainability indicators cover a broad spectrum of ecological processes and functions, and consider factors related to species richness, biodiversity, invasive species etc; as well as vulnerability to stressors and other chemical factors such as nutrient content and contamination (Bastida *et al.*, 2008; Bispo *et al.*, 2009; Ritz *et al.*, 2009; Havlicek, 2012; Pulleman *et al.*, 2012). However, in an agricultural setting, due to its inherently modified environment from intensive management regimes, it is difficult to make an assessment with these measures. Species are often predetermined, resilience is often artificially created (Ludwig *et al.*, 2018) and fertility is often fabricated. These factors can take time to stabilize following conversion to regenerative or ecologically based practice and so far, there is no existing monitoring approach that can directly monitor the progress of sustainable transition.

Indicators that compartmentalize biological, chemical or physical compartments of the soil (Huera-Lucero *et al.*, 2020; Bathaei and Štreimikienė, 2023), do not have the necessary reach to capture the flow of energy and matter that defines a natural system, residing far from equilibrium. Soil sustainability indicators must reflect the capability of the soil to continue to function under the pressure of anthropogenic disturbances such as farming. As the previous chapter began to discern, ecological function relies on the thermodynamically open characteristic. Unlike isolated systems that have specific mass and energy, thermodynamically open systems are subject to fluctuations as they transfer energy to and from the surroundings.

For example, the majority of terrestrial plants get their energy from the sun. Energy from the sun's radiation crosses a boundary when photons hit Photosystem 1 and the

catalysis of electrons across the thylakoid membrane (Meredith *et al.*, 2021), converts that energy in to mass and eventually fuels the growth of the plant. This is happening across the whole of the community or ecosystem in question and further exemplifies the fuzzy boundaries that exist in the natural world, that are largely scale dependent (Post *et al.*, 2007). Boundaries are perhaps much better understood from a quantum understanding of the universe, based on probabilities and Holling (2002), began to discuss this with the panarchy concept. Nested systems in panarchy exhibit boundaries as multiscale, hierarchical entities and from a thermodynamic perspective these boundaries persist in time by contributing to the energy production at higher hierarchical levels (Yarrow and Salthe, 2008). Ecosystems such as forests are typical thermodynamically open systems (Lisitsyn and Matveev, 2022), evidenced by the flux of energy, matter and entropy used to build and organize matter (Svirezhev, 2000). Failing to appreciate this fundamental prerequisite for complex systems and compartmentalizing chemical physical and biological components (Huera-Lucero *et al.*, 2020; Bathaei and Štreimikienė, 2023), instead of capturing the multiscale, hierarchical flux of energy, mass and entropy, is where soil bioindication will fail.

It is important at this point to stress that agricultural systems are too thermodynamically open and should be considered nothing other than thermodynamic systems.

3.2 Recognizing the farm as a thermodynamic system.

Humanity has undergone several revolutions in the last 200 years or more, which have increased productivity and prepared the ground for the current exponential population growth. England's total land area is 13,031,001 hectares (GOV.UK, 2013), of which around 70% is utilized for farming (GOV.UK, 2017), mostly for improved grassland, horticulture, and arable land. 11% is used for urban development and 10% classified as forest (National Statistics, 2023); which more than halved between the Domesday book of 1086 and the start of the industrial revolution (GOV.UK, 2013). This has since improved, however, it will be difficult to return to the ancient state of England's land, where agricultural development has replaced forests for thousands of years and the long-term impact of which is very much an unknown.

The only energy sources available to farmers prior to the 19th century were man and animal, who used stick-like ploughs to score the soil's surface. At the turn of the

industrial revolution, devices like the mouldboard plough, drawn by steam-powered tractors, improved cultivation of crops, encouraging the growth of towns and a range of occupations. These developments, nevertheless, paled in comparison to what transpired following World War II, when petroleum replaced other energy sources, powering machinery and enabling the synthesis of herbicides and fertilizers. This led to an explosion in the sector as higher-yielding crop types were developed. Both scientists and agronomists saw enormous promise and the end of world hunger. However, The World Bank estimates that although the green revolution significantly reduced world hunger (from 34% in 1950 to around 7% in 2022) it has not, by any means, put an end to it and it has come at a great cost to the planet (John and Babu, 2021).

Farms like natural systems are open and self-organising, in that they convert solar energy into biomass that can be extracted as yield; supplying energy in the form of food, feed or biofuels, to humans and animals. However, what differs from natural systems is they subsidize energy inputs in the form of fuels, fertilizers, pesticides etc, to maintain “order” (Jordan, 2016). They use external, non-metabolic energy sources, otherwise known as exosomatic energy (Odum *et al.*, 1979), which is unique to humans (King and Jones, 2023), to boost production by essentially pumping energy into the system. In natural systems the energy that ultimately and successively leads to the production of biomass, is achieved through autocatalytic interaction (Chapter 2). These processes are predominantly metabolic or endosomatic (embodied in an organism) and are linked to physiological activities, providing a range of ecosystem services.

According to the Office for National Statistics, the agriculture, fishing and forestry sector utilizes over 3% of the national fossil fuel consumption and this is predominantly Gas Oil (ONS.GOV.UK, 2023). In commercial agriculture, 50% of energy consumption is for production, logistics and application of fertilizers (Woods *et al.*, 2010; Paris *et al.*, 2022) and 55% is from indirect sources (Paris *et al.*, 2022). Although modern fertilizer production and application techniques have significantly slashed the energy demand, the environmental impact remains and has increased with the rising demand for food. As long as agriculture is dependent on fossil fuels, food prices will be driven

by energy costs and agriculture will continue to contribute to greenhouse gas emissions (Woods *et al.*, 2010).

The ratchet tightens ever more as humanity advances technologies in agriculture. The adoption of fertilizers has enabled and will continue to enable population growth and lessen world hunger. However, due to the economic model of demand, increases in yield from multiple farmers adopting new technologies results in lower profits as supply increases. There is no turning back as demand meets supply through population increase and to overcome profit losses, farmers seek newer and newer technologies; the cycle continues. There are examples of agricultural related environmental decline all over the world; nutrient pollution in the Gulf of Mexico, the Baltic Sea, the Adriatic Sea, and the Black Sea (Mitsch *et al.*, 2001) and similarly for India's soil and water resources (Pingali, 2012). Numerous strategies have been put forth to relieve the burden on the environment, owed to the increasing scientific and media coverage. Nevertheless, despite the significant financial and ecological costs to society, there is little adoption and the issue appears to persist, largely a result of poor knowledge transfer from extension agents (people and infrastructure designed to synthesise and disseminate scientific information to agricultural practitioners; Pham *et al.*, 2021).

According to (Jordan, 2016) industrial agriculture's objectives and environmental preservation are mutually incompatible. In order to maximize output while preventing agricultural degradation, energy subsidies are needed. For instance, successional species (weeds) might supplant the crop in the absence of pesticides or the organic alternative (E.D Schneider and Kay, 1994). An economic model of short-term efficiency, i.e. money in/ money out, is ill equipped to consider the environmental fallout of pseudo natural systems like agriculture. Instead, a favourable management, is one that increases endosomatically derived feedback and in turn the exosomatic energy use efficiency (Figure 8; Jordan, 2016). Recently the Food and Agricultural Organisation (FAO) published a substantial paper on agricultural thermodynamics (Ferri and Arnés García, 2023), bringing it in to the light of the public eye. 'Nature positive' proposes three most critical structures, in accordance with three main features and ecosystem components affecting productivity, which is embedded into the endosomatic feedback (Figure 8).

Above-ground and below-ground biomass for energy storage - More biomass means more energy units available within the system.

Soil biota, soil fertility and trophic levels for energy mobilization - A rich soil and longer food chains ensure more efficient recycling and longer residence time within the system for each energy unit.

Landscape diversity and biodiversity for systemic complexity - Diversity of habitats, species and gene pools increase.

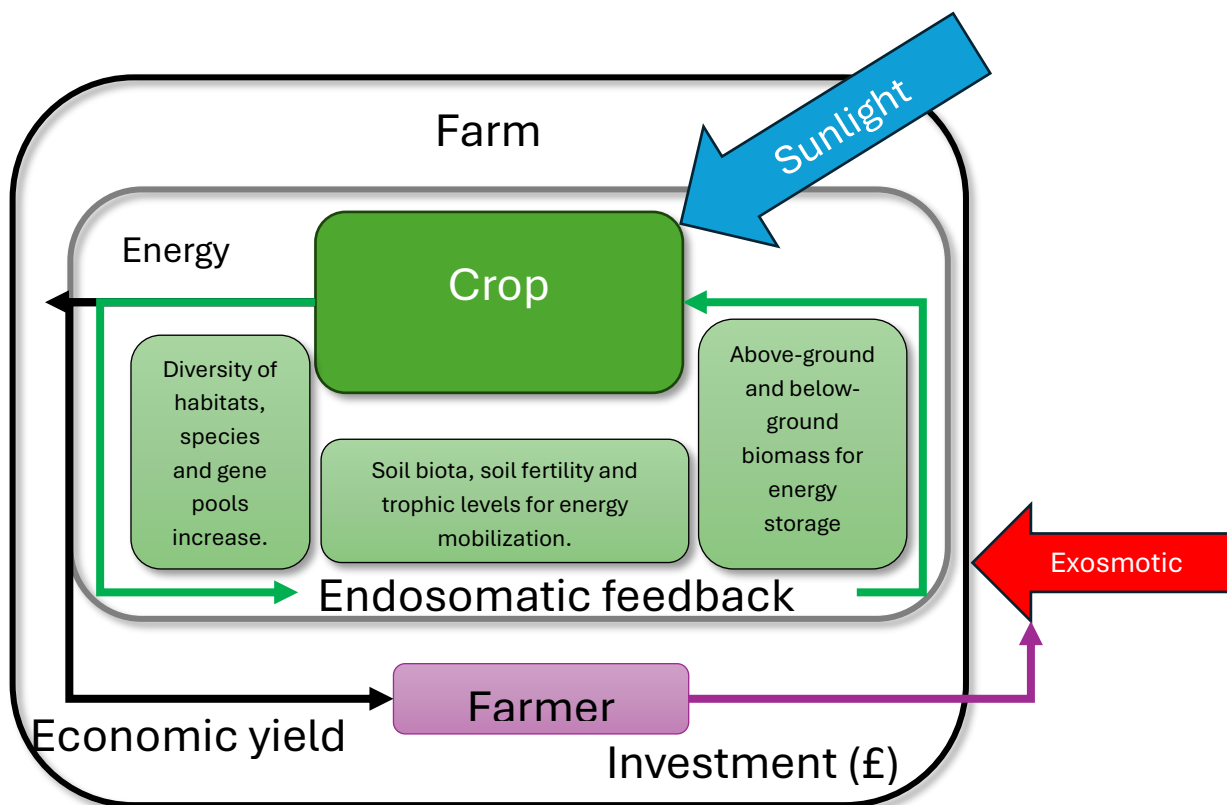


Figure 8 - A thermodynamic model of a farm. Farmers extract crops from the system (Energy out), for financial gain (Economic yield), investing a proportion of this (Investment (£)) in to energy subsidies (Exosomatic energy). However, soil functioning is dependant on a positive feedback loop linking to soil communities (endosomatic energy), possible through the three main components affecting productivity. Source: Adapted from, Jordan (2016) and Ferri and Arnés García (2023)

3.3 Toward a thermodynamic approach to ecological assessment

Lotka, (1922, 1925) stated that natural selection will operate to increase total mass, increase circulation of matter and increase energy flux through the system; so far as compatible with the constraints to which the system is subject. This is the golden thread anchoring thermodynamic theories of ecological function. The maximum power principle (MPP), which states that effective systems are those that maximize the flow of usable energy (Figure 9), served as the foundation for (Lotka, 1922, 1925) research. A theory that Odum employed to explain a great deal of the architecture and functions of eco-systems (Odum and Pinkerton, 1955).

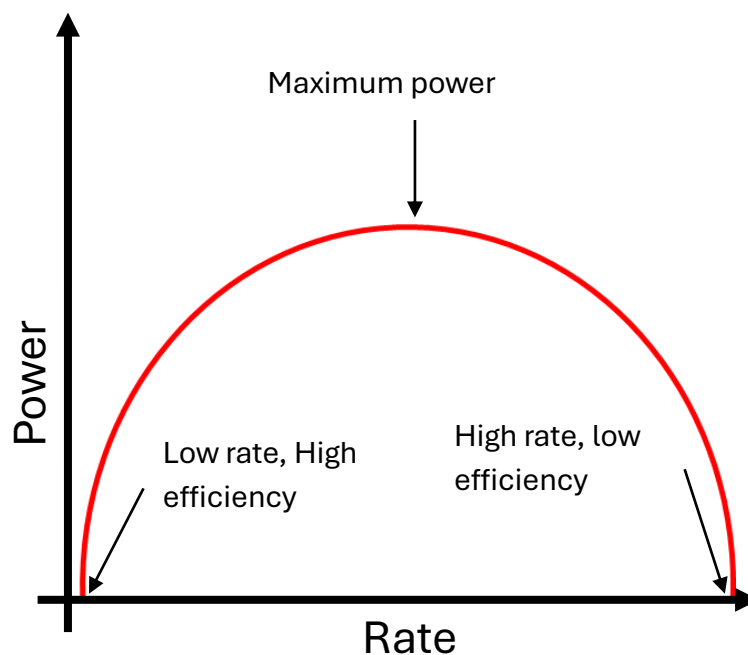


Figure 9 - The maximum power principle, there is a trade-off between high power and rate, which means the extremely efficient systems would run infinitely slowly.

Much earlier Boltzmann (1905) had observed that life is a fight for free energy that may be used for labor. Similarly, Schrödinger, (1944) pointed out that organization is maintained by extracting order from the environment. A consistency among these statements and the MPP is that successful eco-systems are ones that can gain the most free energy under the given conditions, e.g. move away from TE. Lotka, (1922, 1925) and those that followed made invaluable contributions to the development of modern ecological theory, however, the insights remained largely descriptive. That is until Schneider and Kay (1994) put forth a model of ecosystem growth, that could bring ecological theory in to the realms of predictive science, founded on the most basic

principles of physics. Survival of the fittest shapes ecosystem structure and function, with the fittest species being those that achieve a balance between channeling energy in to their own production and reproduction, as well as contributing to autocatalytic processes (chapter 2), that increase the total dissipation of the ecosystem, as a whole (E.D Schneider and Kay, 1994). In essence, ecosystems choose development paths that systematically increase their ability to degrade the incoming solar energy (E.D Schneider and Kay, 1994), this is evidenced by movement away from TE. As such a healthy system configures itself to this limitation, which must be reflected in any development of a thermodynamic indicator suite.

In his book *Maximum Power: The ideas and applications of H. T. Odum*, O'Neill and Hall (1996) use some real-life examples of how MPP works. The principle recognizes a tradeoff between a high rate and high efficiency that yields most useful energy or work. O'Neill and Hall (1996) use a seminatural experiment to illustrate this. Streams were stocked with different levels of predatory cut-throat trout and it was deduced that maximum production occurred at intermediate stocking rates. At a low predator density, an abundance of invertebrate food meant the fish used relatively little maintenance energy on the hunt, whereas in high densities, food was less available and the fish had to use more energy searching. In another example O'Neill and Hall (1996) mention how leaf area index, can be predicted from the MPP applied to net energy from Photosynthesis, where deciduous forests and wet climates tend to have a leaf area index of about $6\text{m}^2/\text{m}^2$. This is because higher leaf area index produces more photosynthate, less efficiently, due to the higher metabolic demand of the extra leaves, whereas lower leaf area indexes are more efficient but draw less power. Furthermore, this concept applies to the basis of all thermodynamic enquiry, the Carnot engine, well known for its application to modern physics. High efficiency is of course possible, but the engine would run infinitely slowly, and mankind would have much more use for a machine that is less efficient but delivers a lot more power. These examples display just how embedded MPP is in the irreversibility of the universe. High efficiency can be achieved through endoreversible processes (internally reversible and externally irreversible), however, they operate far too slowly and increasing the rate increases the irreversibility which must decrease the efficiency (Hoffmann, 2008; Nielsen *et al.*, 2019)

Odum later revised the MPP, replacing power with Emergy, stating Emergy is the available energy of one kind previously used up directly and indirectly to a service or product” (Odum, 1995). Total flow of Emergy is its ‘empower’ and can be regarded as the work required for maintaining an eco-system’s steady state. System configurations that maximize empower will inevitably prevail (Odum, 1995). What started with Lotka (1922) had now evolved into one of the first quantifiable indices of eco-system function, derived from thermodynamics (Nielsen *et al.*, 2019). Empower calculates the solar cost to obtain a unit of biomass, accounting for the quality of the energy by measuring the path that was taken to reach a certain configuration (Odum, 1995). It measures the flow of energy and is calculated by first identifying all energy inputs (solar, wind, water, chemical energy, etc). converting them in to emergy units, using conversion factors known as transformities. The sum of all emergy calculations is the Empower and equates to the level of reliance on renewable energies, a positive figure in favor of a more efficient ecosystem (Odum, 1969, 1995).

As the application of thermodynamics in ecological assessment became more evident, multidisciplinary researchers began integrating thermodynamic principles from physics with ecological theory. A key realization was that ecosystems maintain a steady state far from equilibrium by working against gradients (Müller 1998). The formation of such gradients distinguishes classical from non-equilibrium thermodynamic systems, and life utilizes these gradients to perform work. Müller (1998) introduced the gradient concept, rooted in the non-equilibrium thermodynamic principle, supported by empirical evidence from a study in Northern Germany. He proposed that ecosystem function is defined by the dynamics of these gradients, despite many theoretical hypotheses relying on non-measurable variables.

Another important consideration here is that non-equilibrium systems require openness. The definition of an open system is that it exchanges energy, information and mass with its environment, compared to an isolated system that exchanges nothing (Nielsen *et al.*, 2019). Isolated systems would eventually die, they would reach a maximum entropy event in which they are in TE with their surroundings (Nielsen *et al.*, 2019). What more, an open system like an ecological one is only kept alive by a continual in flow of energy (Nielsen *et al.*, 2019). Due to the irreversible process of dissipation, energy is always degraded in to heat and matter is always spread out in the universe, hence why entropy always increases in accordance with the second law

of thermodynamics. What is interesting is that the same flow of energy can both evolve a beautiful garden or turn it in to a crater, the big difference is in one case entropy decreases and in the other it increases, respectively. This is the truly wonderful feature of biological and ecological systems, is how they use energy flows to create organization and structure (chapter 2).

It is the basis of Lovelock and Margulis (1974); Lovelock (1995) Gaia hypothesis, where in a closed system (like the universe perhaps), the second law dictates that Entropy is always increasing, however, living matter evades decaying to TE (a maximum entropy event) by investing in negative entropy (Schrödinger, 1944; Figure 10). Lovelock and Margulis, (1974), presented a CoEvolutionary concept not unlike the Aphid example in Chapter 2 (Gatti *et al.*, 2018), where life and environment evolve in a coupled way and the Homeostatic concept, where life maintains the stability of the planet and enables life to exist and more importantly evolve. This is of particular importance when reflecting upon the declining biodiversity, habit destruction and soil degradation.

Because entropy production is an irreversible process, entropy has an energy term plus a time term. Energy and mass are reversible and have no temporal constraints. Entropy reveals the direction of events, the arrow of time (Blum, 1951). The dead Dear Analogy (Figure 10) represents the asymmetry of living systems, from the moment after the dear takes its last breath, the energetics of the organism shift from its steady state, toward TE (Tiezzi *et al.*, 2007). Energy and mass stay the same (law of conservation), however entropy increases, and information is lost. Entropy can change irrespective of energy and mass, seen in many naturally occurring phenomena in the universe, not only that, but it also inevitably increases. Life demonstrates the intrinsic evolutionary characteristic of entropy and the fate of the universe (Henry and Schwartz, 2019). Entropy has the broken time symmetry (Blum, 1951), necessary to sustain the directionality of eco-systems (chapter 2). What the dead dear analogy illustrates, is that classical thermodynamics breaks down far from equilibrium systems and a redefining of entropy and other energy terms is required, for non-equilibrium thermodynamics.

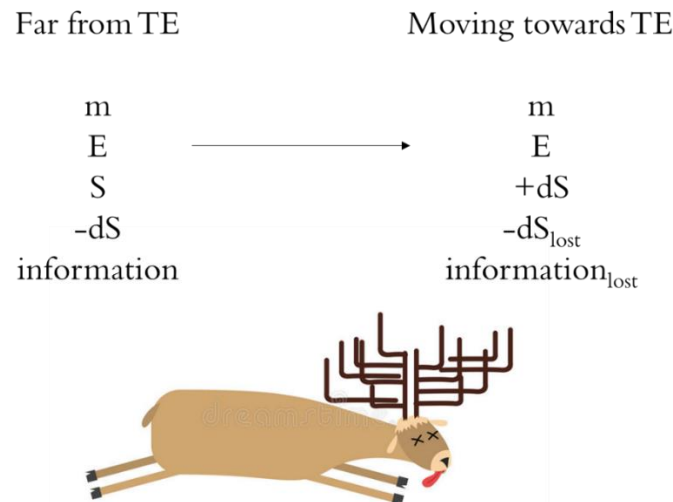


Figure 10 - Dead deer analogy. m = mass, E = energy, S = entropy, $-dS$ = negative entropy. Following death mass and energy stay the same but entropy increases, negative entropy is lost and information is lost. Source: (Tiezzi et al, 2007)

3.4 The dimensions of energy flow.

The second law of thermodynamics is crucial in understanding the development of self-organizing systems, as observed by Prigogine and his colleagues (Prigogine *et al.*, 1972; Prigogine and Nicolis, 1977, 1985; Nicolis and Prigogine, 1989). However, application of thermodynamics to complex system behavior, requires a full comprehension of current thinking in non-equilibrium thermodynamics (Kay and Schneider, 1992). The key difference of non-equilibrium systems is that at steady states they can reduce their structural entropy, in fact it is a prerequisite for life. Prigogine (1955) pointed out that open systems could create order and decrease entropy, by dissipating energy to their surroundings (Prigogine, 1967; See definition of thermodynamically open and ontologically open above and in chapter 2 respectively). In the natural world, a reduction in structural entropy is more than matched by an increase from other processes. Closed systems, as they plunge to equilibrium, exhibit only transient oscillations (like the Belousov- Zhabotinsky reactions; Chapter 2). The sustained oscillations required for life demand openness, coupled to a continuous flow of new reagents and removal of waste products (entropy; Epstein *et al.*, 2006).

An ecosystem will choose growth pathways that most consistently promote a deviation from TE. The mechanisms of this are synthesized in three growth forms: Biomass, Information and Networks; a distillation of Von Bertalanffy and Odum's attributes for

ecosystem development and Constanza's six descriptors of ecosystem health (Jørgensen, 2006b). All are reflected in a single measure '**Eco-Exergy**'. This metric captures the abundance and diversity of biomass as a divergence from TE.

If numerous development routes are available from a given starting state, those yielding highest exergy storage are more likely to occur, because these demand the most energy dissipation to construct and sustain, consistent with the second law (Jørgensen *et al.*, 2000). The autocatalytic assembly (Chapter 2) acts as a center on which to centripetally concentrate increasing quantities of exergy that the system absorbs into itself (Ulanowicz, 2000; Jørgensen, 2002). Energy storage alone is insufficient, but the increase in specific exergy, or exergy/energy ratios, that indicates improved usability, reflects an increasing ability to perform work (Jørgensen *et al.*, 2000).

Exergy was first defined by Zoran Rant in 1956, an idea already developed by J. Williard Gibbs in 1873 (Gibbs, 1948), however it was Jørgensen and Svirezhev (2004) who provided a concise explanation (Vihervaara *et al.*, 2019). The contributions of Jørgensen and his co-workers on the establishment of eco-exergy models is highly regarded (Jørgensen, 1992; Jørgensen *et al.*, 1995, 2005; Marques and Jørgensen, 2002; Marchi *et al.*, 2011; Wu *et al.*, 2017). Eco-exergy has been successful as a thermodynamic variable in the assessment of eco-system health (Jørgensen, 1995; Zhang *et al.*, 2010; Xu *et al.*, 2011; Tang *et al.*, 2015) for various ecosystem types (Jørgensen, 2010; Zhang *et al.*, 2010; Draganovic *et al.*, 2013; Molozzi *et al.*, 2013; Puzachenko *et al.*, 2016), including agricultural systems (Chen *et al.*, 2009; Zhang *et al.*, 2019; Amiri *et al.*, 2020; J. Wang *et al.*, 2021; Valero *et al.*, 2022).

More recently, The FAO brought to light a number of methodologies for ecosystem health and sustainability assessment in agriculture (Ferri and Arnés García, 2023), in reference to material and energy flows, or *Energy return on investment* (EROI). It reflects the capacity of the system to generate rather than consume energy, ranked by efficiency. The basic EROI indicators interestingly do not account for the solar energy intake from primary producers, taking the standpoint that the sun is a given environmental factor. As such inclusion of an indicator for photosynthetic production is suggested, that can be measured through remote sensing. The net primary

production, which when divided by the EROI can indicate the amount of energy units fixed into new biomass per unit of total input by farmers.

Both Emergy (empower) (Odum, 1995) and Eco-exergy Jørgensen, 1992) are long established tools used to help explain energy and matter flows (Bastianoni and Marchettini, 1997; Sciubba and Ulgiati, 2005; Bastianoni, 2008; Buonocore *et al.*, 2020, 2021; Grande *et al.*, 2023). Also, EROI has been proposed as the most suitable indicator to assess ecosystem recovery activities in farm landscapes (Ferri and Arnés García, 2023). However, they lack a certain practicality which maybe holds back their effective uptake. Calculations of energy terms such as Eco-exergy and Emergy will never be exact, as it is not possible to measure the concentrations or determine all possible contributions to it. Eco-systems are far too complex to discern every detail (Sven E. Jørgensen and Nielsen, 2007) or to grasp the contribution of all the elements (Jørgensen *et al.*, 2000). EROI requires thorough data collection and processing, there may be challenges in accounting for human labour, energy for machineries, fuel and other energy inputs and a risk of double counting energy flows. In addition, these indicators also tend to have more application to sustainability, in the context of renewable energies, rather than ecological health. Although valuable in the assesment of ecosytem growth due to interrelationship with energy flow, Emergy is burdened with a number of rather important limtations too. Such as, subjectivity in transformities, challeges in accounting all inputs (Odum, 1969, 1995), lack of consideration of transience in ecosystems that are in a constant state of flux (Ulgiati and Brown, 2009). That said, although exergy seems well equipped for ecosystem diagnostics, the fundamental issue here is that it cannot be measured directly (Nielsen *et al.*, 2020). Application of thermodynamics to assessing agroecological intervention would benefit from the development of metrics that could serve as a proxies for energy and material flow.

3.5 Conclusions

Traditional soil indicators are ill equipped to encompass the complex dynamical nature of ecological systems and a new framework for soil assessment is required. Ecological thermodynamics has found itself as one of the foundational columns in systems ecology (Jørgensen, 1992; Jørgensen *et al.*, 1995, 2005; Marques and Jørgensen, 2002; Marchi *et al.*, 2011; Wu *et al.*, 2017) and agricultural systems like ecological systems are emphatically thermodynamic. What makes thermodynamic

indicators distinct from conventional metrics, is they are concerned not with static quantities of components, but with flows of energy and material. A framework rooted in thermodynamics shows promise and the efficacy of thermodynamic indicators is quite robust, in particular the well evidenced application of Eco-exergy to a variety of eco-systems including agriculture. Exergy is both qualitative and quantitative of a system's flow of energy. On one hand, it refers to the quality of the energy and declines as it is utilized in processes. On the other, it measures the distance from TE, that the system is in reference to its surroundings (Sven E. Jørgensen and Nielsen, 2007; González *et al.*, 2023). Features that give eco-exergy great credence as a holistic measure of eco-system development (Jørgensen, 2006b). However, supported by Nielsen *et al.*, (2020) the author argues that direct measurements of energy terms are not possible and will always require estimates of the systems variables. Many indicators require complex calculations, using estimates of energy flows. What is outlined in the proceeding chapters is the exploration into novel indicators that may serve as proxies of energy and matter flow.

4 Application of temperature to assess structure and function of agro-ecological soils.

4.1 Introduction

4.1.1 The loss of soil structure and function in the Anthropocene

The Anthropocene is regarded as a period of significant ecological simplification, defined as a loss of landscape complexity and ecological integrity (Peipoch *et al.*, 2015). The resultant reduction of plant species diversity leaves the soil exposed to erosion and other forms of degradation, especially on already vulnerable land such as sloped ground (Berendse *et al.*, 2015). With the expansion of anthropogenic developments (Ramankutty and Foley, 1999) and through misuse of the land, 24 billion tonnes of fertile soil is lost every year worldwide (Bartz *et al.*, 2015). The global annual loss of topsoil is approximately twice that of formation (Verheijen *et al.*, 2009; Borrelli *et al.*, 2017). One hectare of soil provides habitat for 15 tonnes of organisms, or 1.5 kilograms of biomass per square metre (Bartz *et al.*, 2015), distributed in the biomass of millions, if not billions of individuals. Therefore, soil loss undoubtedly impacts species global biodiversity (Pimentel, 2006). This in turn can impact fundamental processes such as nutrient cycling (Naiman *et al.*, 2005; Hatten and Liles, 2019), microbial activity (Weil and Brady, 2017) and plant productivity (Hatten and Liles, 2019).

This isn't to say that degradation is not a natural phenomena (Gunderson and Pritchard, 2012). On the contrary, disturbance is woven into the evolution of the planet. The cyclical and adaptive processes of collapse and reorganization drive evolutionary jumps (Cazzolla Gatti's *et al.*, 2018). Collapse is a necessary process. Following collapse, eco-systems shift from high biomass building early stages, through to high efficiency mature stages. However, large enough disturbances (fire, volcanic eruptions or heavy storms) can revert the system to an earlier stage of development, causing the loss of ecological niches (Gunderson and Holling, 2001). Stages of growth (Fath *et al.*, 2004) do not necessarily follow a linear trajectory and while individual organisms may appear to have a linear growth direction, from birth to death (dead deer analogy; chapter 3), ecosystems themselves tend to stabilize at dynamical states (chapter 2).

Agroecosystems can be held in an early stage of development, with low biodiversity, due to the continuous removal of biomass (Ferri and Arnés García, 2023) and sterilization of the soil. Whether a single pulse disturbance or gradual multiple press disturbances; agricultural soils can be held in to highly depleted conditions known as a poverty trap, or a state of artificial resilience, where the system is no longer self-organised and high performance cultivars rely on fertilizers and other inputs; known as a rigidity trap (Gunderson and Holling, 2003; Ludwig *et al.*, 2018). Through a loss of structure and function, poor resilience impairs agricultural system's ability to reorganise (Gunderson and Holling, 2001; Aoki, 2012) ultimately impacting on their delivery of services to support human wellbeing (Johnson *et al.*, 2017). However, it is believed that holistic agricultural practices, such as the use of cover crops and low tillage that minimizes disturbance, can maintain at an intermediate stage of growth with the potential to increase energy cycling in the form of biomass (Ferri and Arnés García, 2023).

4.1.2 Unique and functional ecosystems

It is important to draw attention to the uniqueness of species and landscapes (Elsasser, 1981, 1982; Henning and Scarfe, 2013). The more unique and heterogenous an assemblage of species is, the more likely autocatalysis (chapter 2) will occur (Kauffman, 1986; Ulanowicz, 2019) and the greater the exergy storage (Chapter 3). Each organism has its role for the period it exists, the species however, plays a bigger evolutionary role, spanning multiple lifetimes. Species exhibit functional traits, which are characteristics (either physiological, phenological or morphological) that influence growth and development (Violle *et al.*, 2007; Lueder *et al.*, 2022). They fall into a spectrum along three axis in what (Grime and Pierce, 2012) coined as Universal Adaptive Strategy Theory or CSR models, referring to Competitive, specialized and ruderal traits, respectively (Figure 11). Ruderal plants tend to be annuals, with an investment into genetic adaptations (genotypic plasticity; seeds) over generations, whereas competitive species have more phenotypic plasticity and can change their structure dependent upon environmental conditions. Specialized species tend to live in very harsh environments and have specialized adaptations to survive. Traits are expressed in numerous ways, such as specific leaf area, leaf nitrogen content, etc. Agricultural succession tends to be dominated by ruderal 'weeds' due to the high disturbance and high stress environment (Figure 11), unless in the case of

low intensity agriculture, where it is likely that more competitive or specialized species are able to establish.

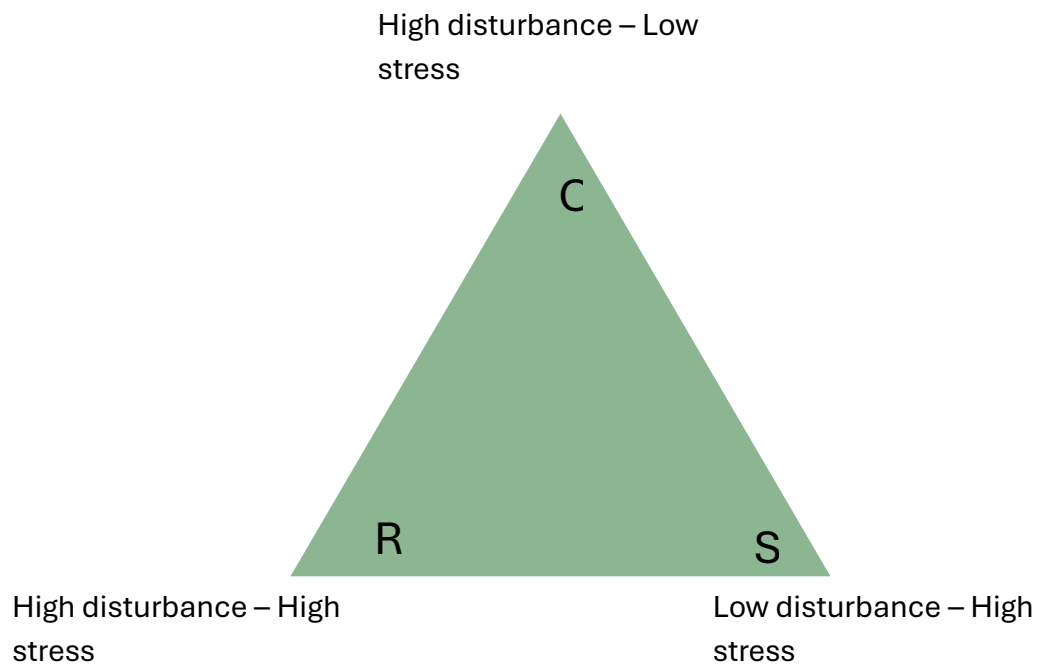


Figure 11 – Grime's CSR model. A tri axis of species traits, evolved through adaptation to stress and disturbance. The framework is built around the 3 main environmental pressures that plants face: Competition for resources, stress from harsh environmental conditions and disturbance events that damage or destroy biomass. The three primary plants strategies according to Grime and Pierce (2012), are competitors (C), who are adapted to low stress low disturbance environments, their strategy to maximize resource acquisition. Stress tolerators (S), are adapted to high stress low disturbance environments, tending to be slow growing, long lived and capable of surviving with limited resources. Ruderals (R) are adapted to low stress and high disturbance conditions and invest in rapid growth, with high seed production and short life cycles.

The enormous variety of organisms in the soil, through their moving and feeding activities, influence multiple soil processes such as the aggregate stability (Rillig and Mummey, 2006) and the infiltration of water (Wall *et al.*, 2015), playing a significant role in soil structure and function (Orgiazzi and Panagos, 2018). Through typical feedback processes, vegetation and soils develop together (Chapin *et al.*, 1998; Hooper *et al.*, 2000; Ehrenfeld *et al.*, 2005; Bardgett and van der Putten, 2014). A micro-topography of mounds in vegetated and unvegetated patches can develop throughout landscapes (similar to fairy circles in Chapter 2) resulting from an array of mechanisms that shift soil particles and transform the soil matrix (Barth and Klemmedson, 1978; Sanchez and Puigdefabregas, 1994; Martinez-Turanzas *et al.*, 1997). Like in fertility islands (Chapter 2), the centripetal vortex, created through mutual interaction draws in resources (Ulanowicz, 1999, 2006, 2016). Then in the

absence of feedback loops, predominantly following plant death, the fertility diminishes (Tiedemann and Klemmedson, 1986; Butterfield and Briggs, 2009). Remove the phytomass (biomass generated from photosynthesis) and the micro-system breaks down. Evidence of the requirement of effective energy dissipation pathways to sustain a complex system. A product of CSR is that species richness and spatial heterogeneity, tend to fall within conditions at intermediate stress levels, for example, how both high and low level halophytes coexist at intermediate salinity levels (Chen *et al.*, 2015).

4.1.3 Applying thermodynamics to soil health in agriculture

Soil health is deeply intertwined with ecological thermodynamics, as both involve the flow and transformation of energy and matter within ecosystems. Life on Earth advances through the necessity to maximize the dissipation of solar energy and convert in to exergy (chapter 3; Jørgensen *et al.*, 2000). Biodiversity and the complexity of species interactions are a manifestation of the investment in to eco-exergy, identified through the three growth forms; biomass, information and networks (BIN; see chapter 3; Jørgensen, 2006, 2008a). Following maintenance and growth, any remaining usable energy is utilized to move the system away from equilibrium, evidenced by BIN (E. D. Schneider and Kay, 1994; Fath *et al.*, 2004; Jørgensen and Fath, 2004; Jørgensen, 2006a; Schick, Porembski, Peter R. Hobson, *et al.*, 2019). Furthermore, following a non-equilibrium thermodynamic view of natural systems and due to their inherently open character, growth and development is only possible through a continual flow of energy to and from surroundings (Chapter 3; Boltzmann, 1905; Schneider and Kay, 1995; Vihervaara *et al.*, 2019).

About the time that Darwin was compiling his theory of evolution (Darwin, 2003 (1859)), Boltzmann the physicist, took a keen interest in the second law of thermodynamics, under which natural systems in the universe inevitably decay in to complete disorder, seeking an equilibrium (Chapter 3; Boltzmann, 1905; Schneider and Kay, 1995; Vihervaara *et al.*, 2019). Boltzmann realised on the other hand, that what Darwin proposed was quite the opposite, living systems form organised structures, with complexity and specialisation, that brings order from chaos, moving away from TE (Boltzmann, 1905; Schneider and Kay, 1995; Vihervaara *et al.*, 2019). Natural systems reduce their structural entropy, exporting it to surroundings to create order (Chapter 3; (Lotka, 1922; Schrödinger, 1944; Prigogine and Nicolis, 1985;

Martyushev and Seleznev, 2006; Henry and Schwartz, 2019). They form dissipative structures, accumulating highly complex organic compounds to store energy (Eco-exergy) and dumping entropy, as low complexity biomass (Ferri and Arnés García, 2023). In photosynthesis plants absorb low entropy photons (see chapter 6) and emit radiation at a lower temperature, then most animals feed on the lower entropy matter they have built, producing higher entropy waste (Epstein *et al.*, 2006; Virgo and Harvey, 2007). Schrödinger (1944) described this as “feeding on negative entropy” in the environment (Virgo and Harvey, 2007).

Exergy informs us of the complexity of an eco-system in relation to its energy stored in organic matter (OM) and genetic information (Vihervaara *et al.*, 2019). Complexity follows a successive trajectory (Figure 12) and reflects the increase in 3 separate variables related to heterogeneity; number of components, number of connections and emergent properties (Bullock *et al.*, 2022). Specific exergy increases throughout the succession however the growth forms themselves can be distinguished in stages (Fath *et al.*, 2004). Structure dominates early stages of growth (biomass). In middle stages, energy throughflow increases between components and boundary, indicating informational advancement (information). In maturity, internal cycling in complex networks typically dominates and specific dissipation decrease, indicating advanced organization (networks), see Figure 12. During a collapse, declines in energetic states like energy storage, entropy production, specific dissipation, and specific exergy, reflect an ecosystem returning toward equilibrium (Jørgensen *et al.*, 2000). As in the dead deer analogy (Chapter 3).

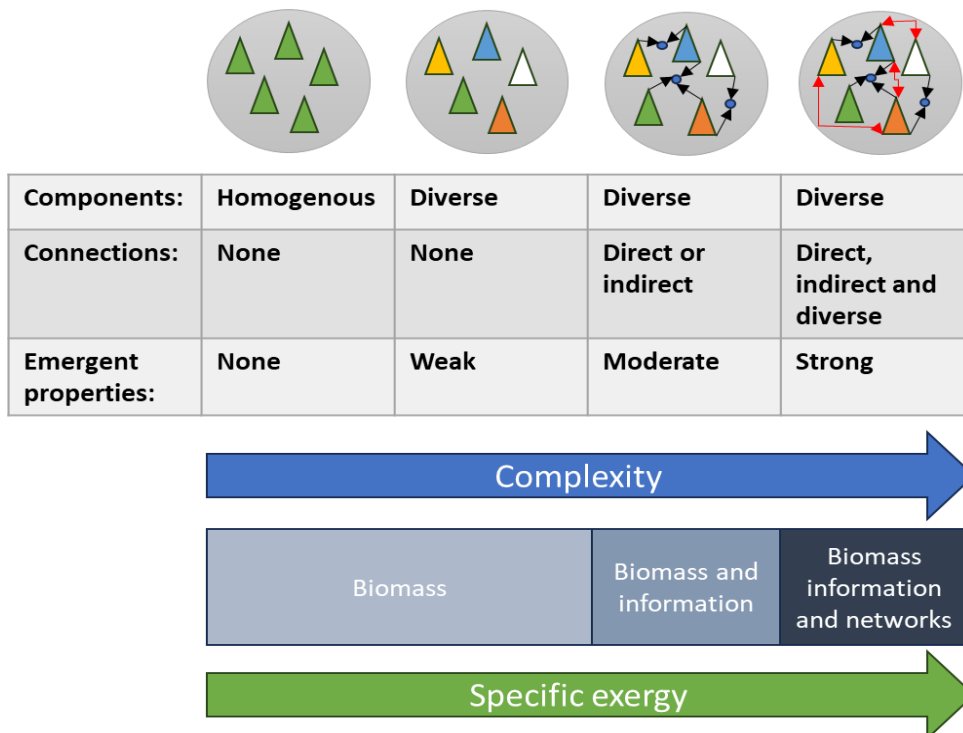


Figure 12 – The increase in number of components, number of connections and emergent properties increases with complexity. This succession is mirrored in the increase of specific exergy and the 3 components of eco exergy (biomass information and networks) emerge separately in stages. Source: Adapted from Bullock et al., (2022) and Fath et al., (2004)

Plant-soil development of a given area reflects the trajectory of complexity and exergy (Figure 12). Within the constraints of the local environment diverse environmental conditions give rise to diverse communities. Exergy losses from various biological processes like photosynthesis, microbial activity, and nutrient cycling, are often linked with inefficiencies in these processes (Bararzadeh Ledari *et al.*, 2020). In soil ecosystems, microbial diversity and network complexity are crucial for sustaining ecological functions and supporting the stability of the soil-plant system (Griffiths and Philippot, 2013; Chen *et al.*, 2023). As environmental factors affect soil microbial interactions, the complexity of these networks can influence the system's response to changes in biodiversity or external stressors, such as climate shifts or land-use changes (Chen *et al.*, 2023).

According to Jørgensen and Mejer, (1977), the amount of exergy conserved among ecosystem components can indicate the directionality of succession. They predicted that as ecosystems age, they collect more stored exergy, which may be measured by studying species biomass densities, chemical potentials, and genetic diversity

(Jørgensen, 2006a; Jørgensen *et al.*, 2007). In fact, exergy has been found to quite accurately quantify changes in structure and function, capturing coherent structural changes in biological communities (Molozzi *et al.*, 2013) and has been valuable in informing the health of ecosystems (Jørgensen, 1995; Zhang *et al.*, 2010; Xu *et al.*, 2011; Tang *et al.*, 2015). However, due to the structurally complicated and unknown thermodynamic properties of biomass (Qian *et al.*, 2017), the total eco-exergy cannot be measured directly (Nielsen *et al.*, 2020), approximations are needed, not all the components of life processes are known and more often than not a simplification of the eco-system is used (Doty, 2021). Exergy calculations often assume that the system is in a static condition, that the inflow and outflows are balanced over time, simplifying the calculations and measuring as if the system components remain constant (Odum, 1969). Temperature and pressure figures are often set at ambient conditions and considering the inherent fluctuations of these factors, it can make Exergy calculations unmanageable (S. E. Jørgensen and Nielsen, 2007). Furthermore, as this thesis has explained in detail, ecological systems are emphatically non-linear and these processes are often linearized, for practical purposes, introducing approximations (Jørgensen and Fath, 2004). This has driven the quest for effective proxies of exergy, rooted in thermodynamics. Of particular interest is temperature.

Radiant, thermal and latent energy exchange processes primarily take place at the surface and vary soil temperature responses, the effects of which propagate through the soil profile, at rates affected by soil physical properties (Hillel, 2003). These include, bulk density, texture, structure, water content, etc and affect thermal properties such as specific heat capacity, thermal diffusivity and thermal conductivity (Van Wijk and De Vries, 1963; Al-Kaisi *et al.*, 2017). Table 1 displays the average thermal properties for two soil fractions as well as moisture properties. Clay particles tend to have a higher thermal conductivity than sand particles alongside their ability to hold moisture (Abu-Hamdeh, 2003). Wet clay soils respond better than dry sands due to the structure and moisture retention. Soil temperatures are determined by transport processes of heat and exchange with atmosphere. This is through either convection, conduction or radiation (Koorevaar *et al.*, 1983). Convection with phase change can increase heat transfer, especially for water which has very high values for latent heat

(Koorevaar *et al.*, 1983). In addition, the evaporative process of moisture from the soil is known to follow three distinct stages. Going from a relatively high rate in stage 1, followed by a lower rate in stage two and a very low rate in stage 3 (Han and Zhou, 2013). Evaporation rates are high for a wet soil, but a dry soil layer (a crust) forms in later stages that limits diffusivity and slows evaporation (Lehmann, 2023).

Table 1 – Thermal properties of two soil fractions, sand and clay. Clay has a reduced thermal conductivity, however, has the same volumetric wetness and volumetric heat capacity compared to sand. Source: (van Wijk and de Vries, 1963).

Soil Type	Porosity	Volumetric Wetness (cm³ cm⁻³)	Thermal Conductivity (10⁻³ cal cm⁻¹ s⁻¹ deg⁻¹)	Volumetric Heat Capacity (cal cm⁻¹ s⁻¹ deg⁻¹)
<i>Sand</i>	0.4	0.0	0.7	0.3
	0.4	0.2	4.2	0.5
	0.4	0.4	5.2	0.7
<i>Clay</i>	0.4	0.0	0.6	0.3
	0.4	0.2	2.8	0.5
	0.4	0.4	3.8	0.7

Plants respond to abiotic changes, such as extreme events and the sum of changes constitutes the eco-system's thermodynamic function. Through evapotranspiration, plants remove the heat of dissipated photons and convert it into latent heat. Much of the free energy dissipated by plants is constituted by photon dissipation and transpiration, and can be measured by micro-climate (Norris *et al.*, 2012; Michaelian, 2015; Avelar *et al.*, 2020). In the case of soils, dynamics of free energy dissipation, heat flux and latent heat is similarly controlled, primarily by moisture content (Abu-Hamdeh, 2003), as water has a greater specific heat (Howe and Smith, 2021; later discussed in chapter 5). Water and heat flows are interactive and the moisture potential, alongside the movement of liquid and vapour are affected by temperature gradients (McInnes, 2002; Al-Kaisi *et al.*, 2017). Moisture in the upper living layers of the soil affects energy fluxes at the interface between land and atmosphere

(Srivastava *et al.*, 2013; Chaube *et al.*, 2019; Suman *et al.*, 2020) directly impacting the flow of energy through the system. Water is a primary limiting factor to crucial energetic transformations such as in photosynthesis (Green *et al.*, 2019; Y. Zhang *et al.*, 2020; Hu *et al.*, 2023; Peng *et al.*, 2024) and microbial mediated nutrient cycling (Bauke *et al.*, 2022; Lv *et al.*, 2023). As such, soil moisture is a key variable in exploring temperature as a proxy for exergy.

Soil temperature is further influenced by ground cover and habitat type (Howe and Smith, 2021), affecting the reflectance of incident shortwave radiation (Chapin *et al.*, 2002; Santos *et al.*, 2019). In the case of agricultural systems, the higher surface albedo from lower vegetation will have the effect of increasing warming compared to highly vegetated habitats. This is well documented (van Wijk *et al.*, 1959; Lal, 1974; Jiménez *et al.*, 2007; Savva *et al.*, 2010; Santos *et al.*, 2019). Previous studies that have made connection between ecosystem structure and temperature, mainly focus on the positive impact that biodiversity has on micro-climate (Jiménez-Gutiérrez *et al.*, 2021; Maillard *et al.*, 2022; Vopravil *et al.*, 2022). However little research makes the connection with ecological structure and function and the use of temperature as an indicator of structure and function.

In a thermodynamic model of soil structure and function, species form interactions with other system components (Autocatalysis; Ulanowicz' (1997; 2009; chapter 2), that impact on the dissipation of energy through the system. For example, nodulation on legumes, enabling the more efficient uptake of nutrients in exchange for carbon. Systems effectively select pathways with the least resistance, pruning the flows (Ulanowicz, 1999; Jørgensen *et al.*, 2007) in favor of interactions that better move away from TE (Chapter 3; Boltzmann, 1905; Schneider and Kay, 1995; Vihervaara *et al.*, 2019). What more, species unique traits (Grimes CSR) enable specialization and the fulfillment of niches to maximize the dissipation of solar radiation (Jørgensen *et al.*, 2000). Any energy that cannot be converted to exergy, is lost as heat to the environment, at the temperature of the environment (Jørgensen, 2008b). Which presents the case for temperature as a proxy indicator of exergy and so soil health.

This principle has been applied in studies on forest ecosystems to test for differences in thermodynamic function between old growth and new plantations (E. D. Schneider and Kay, 1994; Norris *et al.*, 2012; Avelar *et al.*, 2020). More impressively, is the

inclusion of thermal imaging and satellite data to conclude the correlation between NDVI and TIR (Avelar *et al.*, 2020). Avelar *et al.*, (2020) made a valuable contribution to the field, utilizing satellite imagery to detect thermal differences between natural and human induced disturbance. Agricultural systems, through their intensive management, abate effective energy dissipation (Jørgensen *et al.*, 2000) and alter the thermodynamic signature. This and along with many other studies, fundamentally highlights how structure and function can affect local abiotic habitat conditions (Norris *et al.*, 2012; Aalto *et al.*, 2013), as well as how new technologies such as satellite imagery can improve rapid assessment of eco-system health (Avelar *et al.*, 2020; Xu *et al.*, 2020). These studies have focused on surface temperature and research is yet to investigate this in the soil, especially in an agricultural setting. The soil is inherently complex, with tightly coupled physical, chemical and biological processes that often behave in nonlinear, counterintuitive ways, and must be better understood if scientists aim to progress on issues of sustainable land management (Turner, 2021).

The hypothesis of this study is that, through the development of structure and function and coupled progression of complexity, soil has increasing rates of entropy production and greater exergy storage leading to lower and attenuated temperatures (Figure 13); (Ulanowicz, 1997; Jørgensen and Fath, 2004; Ulanowicz, 2009c; Norris *et al.*, 2012; Molozzi *et al.*, 2013; Michaelian, 2015; Avelar *et al.*, 2020).

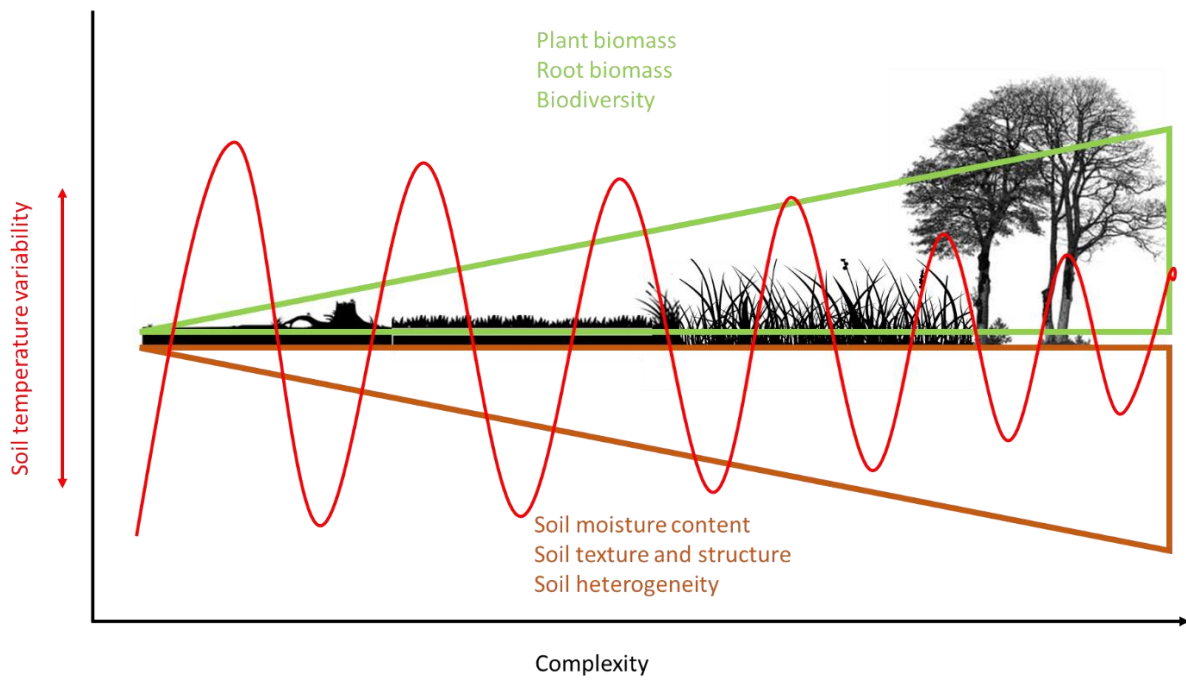


Figure 13 - Model of complexity against soil temperature variability. In lower complexity configurations, the above ground structures are limited and the soils structure is poor, this gives rise to a highly fluctuating temperature regime. With increasing complexity, temperature attenuation occurs. This is reflected by the improved soil structure and increased biomass, information and networks.

4.2 Methods

4.2.1 Experimental design

A series of experiments (EXP1, EXP2, , EXP3 and EXP4) were carried out utilizing temperature as an indicator to explore a thermodynamic approach to soil health, a summary of the experiments is presented in Table 2. The experiments were designed to represent different stages of eco-system development (Jørgensen *et al.*, 2000; Gunderson and Holling, 2001; Jørgensen and Fath, 2004). They consisted of 3 controlled environment experiments and one field trial, with a consistency among them that they all contained a bare soil example, which was later used in analysis to compare them all together. Each controlled experiment followed the same layout, with pots containing soil and different species in a randomized pattern, all attached to drippers on an irrigation system (Plate 4). These pot trials represented different degrees of early stages of development and experimentation focused on structure and function as an entry point to design. Structure was distinguished in two ways; one, the structural properties of the soil itself, as in the textural class; and two, the structure of the plant-soil system, where the addition of plants adds biological structure. Function



Plate 4 – Left - pots in glasshouse experiments laid out in a randomized pattern connected to two irrigation drippers. Right, a close up of one of the pots with plants young *Brassica Nigra* plants growing.

can be related to structure, in that different structural properties may influence the function of the system, but also functional traits of different plant species were included in the comparison. All experiments used a bare soil scenario as control group (later used as baseline to compare between experiments). The key differences are that

EXP1 included pure Sand and used a different soil to EXP2 and EXP3, which both used the same soil. EXP2 included more plant models and EXP 3 used the same plant but changed the soil moisture. Then finally in EXP4, removal of all plant material and high disturbance through rotivation in an established meadow served as a bare soil comparison to the undisturbed meadow.

The controlled environment trials were carried out in a glasshouse at Writtle University College. The trials were situated in the warmest compartment of the glasshouse, in the South East corner and the analysis period for the most focused on specifically the vegetative growth period (growth phase) using 5l pots that were assessed prior to the experimentation, to see if that pot size was sufficient to capture temperature differences from ambient temperatures in the glasshouse, without the influence of radial heat transfer to the surroundings. The soil was first dried and heat sterilized in an oven at 65°C for 72 hours, before being ground to 4-6mm, to allow for consisted filling of the pots and at the same time preserving the integrity of macro-aggregates (Kravchenko *et al.*, 2015; Zhou *et al.*, 2020). Before filling the pots, a fine woven pourous membrane was placed in the bottom of the pot to stop soil erosion form the irrigation.

After the pots were filled a set up phase followed in order to let the samples settle and test equipment, to ensure the pots were filled correctly and the experiment is functional. Drip irrigation maintained soil moisture where needed and the timing was determined during the setup phase, by slowly increasing 1 minute per day over 4-7 days, until the moisture content stabilized at moisture levels that were not too much that overwatering would occur. This was estimated at twice that of permanent wilting point (PWP) for the given soil (Ratliff *et al.*, 1983) and separate irrigation lines were installed for different soils that reduced the flow rate but delivered water for the same amount of time. For information on the irrigation and other variables considered in the trials please see Table 2 - Due to the limited access to resources and a multitude of variables that were considered important. Multiple experiments were carried out in different scenarios, detailed in the table below. Table 2.

Moisture measurements were carried out using ExTech Moisture Metre, by inserting the probe in to 3 locations in the soil and averaging the 3 readings. This was carried out at the outset of the experiment and was then checked a 2nd or 3rd (see appendix).

The measurements were minimized as they were quite destructive. A visual assessment of soil was carried out regularly and in the event that plants showed signs of wilting or that soil surface was very dry, in which case, 1-2 mins were administered to recover moisture levels; this occurred on one occasion during EXP2 on the 11th MAY when MAX temperatures peaked at 5°C above the Mean for 3 consecutive days. If in the case of EXP1 (16th June) where soil moisture consistently appeared too dry, the irrigation time was increased by 1 min. Then in the event of over watering (as in EXP3 on the 4th May), where the samples all fell outside of the range of the moisture metre ($0 > 50\%$), time was decreased by 1-2 min.

Following the setup phase, in pots with added plants, seeds were sown before they were thinned to the desired density (see Table 2), this marked the beginning of the experiment and when the moisture levels monitored to visually maintain at field capacity. Shading in EXP2 (Table 2) was created by placing an oversized opaque plastic cover (visible in Plate 4). This allowed air flow but fully blocked the solar radiation.

The 5th field trial was carried out in a meadow in Sussex that had been managed for grazing until 2019 where it has since been left undisturbed. This was included to represent a more intermediate stage of development that might be seen on agricultural systems. The site slopes to the North East and 5ft strips that followed the contours of the slope, visible from satellite image (Plate 5), were alternated between undisturbed and heavily rotavated and maintained for bare soil, before temperature loggers were distributed randomly across the two treatments, at 10cm and on the surface of the soil, 5 for each (n=20).

Table 2 - Due to the limited access to resources and a multitude of variables that were considered important. Multiple experiments were carried out in different scenarios, detailed in the table below.

Experiment (EXP)/ ID code	Plant spacing	Plant -soil combinations	Soils	OM (%)	Water threshold (%)	Irrigation
EXP1	Normal spacing	Bare soil (BS), Sand (S),	Black soil	>20	35-40	5 mins per day

	(5-6 plants per pot)	<i>Brassica Juncea</i> (BJ), <i>Trifolium incarnatum</i> (TI)	Sand	<0.1	5-10	
EXP2	Normal spacing (5-6 plants per pot)	<i>Bare soil</i> (BS), <i>Sub soil</i> (Sub), <i>Brassica Juncea</i> (BJ), <i>Trifolium incarnatum</i> (TI) and Shade treatment (Sh)	Tops oil	~ 4.2	20-25	5 mins per day
			Subs oil	~ 1.5	15-20	
EXP 3	Sparse - 3 plants/ pot (LD) and Normal spacing - 6 plants/ pot (HD)	<i>Bare soil</i> (BS) <i>Brassica Juncea</i> (BJ)	Tops oil	~ 4.2	20-25	2 mins per day. Flow rate reduced to half for reduced watering samples (R)
EXP4	None	Disturbed and Meadow	<i>In-situ</i>	None	N/A	N/A



Plate 5 - Satellite image of the field trial site (EXP4). Shows the boundary of the field and the slope. Strips are visible where the Disturbed areas were.

4.2.1.1 Drought simulation

On two occasions a drought scenario was simulated by switching off the water and desiccating the samples. The experimental setup followed EXP 2, however following the 20 days growth period the drought simulation was carried out. The reason for drought simulation was to explore the role of soil water in energy dynamics (Srivastava *et al.*, 2013; Chaube *et al.*, 2019; Suman *et al.*, 2020;. Soil drying has a direct relationship with exergy, as it affects the availability and flow of energy within the soil-plant system, influencing biological processes and ecosystem functionality (Green *et al.*, 2019; Y. Zhang *et al.*, 2020; Hu *et al.*, 2023; Peng *et al.*, 2024; Bauke *et al.*, 2022; Lv *et al.*, 2023). The lack of water diminishes energy flow and storage capabilities, impacting microbial activity, plant growth, and nutrient cycling, ultimately leading to a loss of ecosystem efficiency and resilience (Chapter 3).

This was undertaken at two different times of the year (Drought1 and Drought2), which captured a broader range of seasonal variation. In Drought1 , desiccation was carried out over 4 days in May 2022, three moisture readings were taken on the first, second and fourth day of desiccation (24th, 25th and 27th May). Maximum local temperatures were 17°C for the 24th, 18°C for the 25th May and 19°C for the 27th May. In Drought2 ,

desiccation was carried out over 4 days in July/August 2022. Three moisture readings were taken on the first, second and fourth day of desiccation. The hottest local temperatures were experienced on the 30th July and the 2nd August (days 1 and 3), reaching 26°C.

4.2.2 Analysis methods

4.2.2.1 Temperature

Continuous collection of temperature data was the key measurement framework, identified as a proxy of exergy storage and energy dissipation (see above). Temperature is a measure of heat and is often discussed with association to entropy. Temperature and entropy have long had a place in describing the universe. After all everything in the universe has a temperature. Temperature is not a surrogate of entropy by any means, it can however allude to energy dissipation through its relationship to entropy production. As previously described, ecosystems dissipate energy to the maximum of the entropy production (Martyushev and Seleznev, 2006), building order in structures through the accumulation of exergy. This moves the system away from equilibrium. A degrading system, lacks the necessary structures to maintain its steady state, plunging toward equilibrium. The corresponding reduction in entropy production and exergy storage, cumulatively hamper energy dissipation, resulting in a build-up of high entropy wastes (Epstein *et al.*, 2006). As all energy inevitably degrades to heat, temperature is affected. Heat is best considered as a measure of the movement of particles, where an increase in entropy is calculated from the decrease in organization of the particles. When measuring the temperature of the soil, we are in fact measuring the heat flux from the soil to its surroundings; the proportion of degraded (longer wavelength) energy from the sun. It is the average kinetic molecular energy of the soil system, it is not a direct measure of the thermal energy, but the transfer of thermal energy, as it comes into equilibrium with its surroundings. Driven by the energy flux created in diurnal solar fluctuations. Effective energy dissipation leads to a lower amount of degraded energy (greater exergy) and an attenuation of temperature (Norris *et al.*, 2012; Schick, Porembski, Peter R. Hobson, *et al.*, 2019; Avelar *et al.*, 2020).

For the glasshouse trials a custom-built temperature array was designed using Arduino hardware and coding. The array utilized the DS18B20 temperature probe, logged time with the DS3231 real time clock and stored the data on an SD card. Prior

to utilization the temperature array was tested against Hobo data loggers (a high-quality research grade temperature logger) and the probes were found on average to be have a maximum deviation 0.631°C from these precision instruments, across a temperature range of 15-25 degrees C. The experiments presented here focused on soil temperatures at 10cm below the surface, both in the pots and the field; surface temperatures were also recorded in the field and utilized the Hobo data loggers. In the field, loggers were distributed at 20m transects. In all 5 trials temperature was logged every 15 mins.

4.2.2.2 Moisture content

Moisture content was measured using an ExTech moisture probe inserted so that the tip of the probe was at 10cm in the soil. This was consistent across all experiments. 3 measurement were taken at different locations within a 20cm radius. The pot trials were limited to 3 sets of measurements per pot, as each time a hole was left in the soil and too many started to impact upon the structure of the soil.

4.2.3 Species selection

In the controlled experiments plants, were used to represent a slight advance in complexity by introducing higher level organisms, with more complex structures to dissipate energy. Bare soil for example is only dependant upon photosynthetic microorganisms (cyanobacteria, mosses, etc). Two different species were selected representing different traits.

Grimes CSR model recognises that species display measurable traits, in a universal three-way trade off to produce adaptive strategies that facilitate the survival of the species. In agriculture, several semi wild plant species have been utilized as cover crops in a new wave of sustainable agriculture. The leaf functional traits of a select few of these species were identified and used in the experimentation here (Table 3 ; Tribouillois *et al.*, 2015). In accordance with universal adaptive strategy theory, *Brassica Juncea* is more of a competitive species, whereas *Trifolium incarnatum* is more of a ruderal species. Functional traits dictate the organisms ability to assimilate energy in the form of biomass, dependant upon the abiotic factors. In EXP1 and EXP2, dry weight of the samples was measured and averaged per plant, to give the average biomass per plant.

Table 3 – Difference in trait expressions between *Brassica Juncea* and *Trifolium incarnatum*. *Brassica juncea* shows lesser SLA (specific leaf area) by $6.1 \text{ m}^2\text{kg}^{-1}$, greater LDMC (leaf dry matter content) by 16.6Mgg^{-1} , greater LNC (leaf nitrogen content) by 5.5mgg^{-1} and much greater LA (leaf area) by 60.1 cm^2

	SLA (m^2kg^{-1})	LDMC (mgg^{-1})	LNC (mg g^{-1})	LA(cm^2)
<i>Brassica juncea</i>	24.2 $\pm$ 2.8	116.6 $\pm$ 8.9	47.7 $\pm$ 6.9	79.4 $\pm$ 31.6
<i>Trifolium incarnatum</i>	30.1 $\pm$ 3.7	101.0 $\pm$ 7.9	42.2 $\pm$ 4.6	19.3 $\pm$ 4.2

For the field trial a species survey was carried out to indicate the diversity (Figure 14). Frequency and abundance was estimated using DOMIN scale and the C-S-R plot was determined using the C-S-R signature calculator, from UCPE Sheffield (Hunt *et al.*, 2004). The community was quite central to the plot, but sat more on the specialist/ ruderal axis and the nearest strategy type was Specialist ruderal/ competitive, specialist, ruderal (SR/CSR).

BSBI species name	% Abun
<i>Rubus fruticosus</i>	<0.1
<i>Trifolium repens</i>	<0.1
<i>carduus crispus</i>	2.0
<i>ranunculus acris</i>	0.2
<i>Rumex obtusifolius</i>	0.2
<i>Lotus corniculatus</i>	<0.1
<i>Rumex acetosa</i>	2.6
<i>Stellaria graminea</i>	4.3
<i>Urtica dioica</i>	0.6
<i>Taraxacum officinale</i>	0.1
<i>Senecio jacobaea</i>	<0.1
<i>Sisymbrium officinale</i>	<0.1
<i>Anthoxanthum odoratum</i>	36.6
<i>Poa trivialis</i>	32.0
<i>Festuca pratensis</i>	21.4

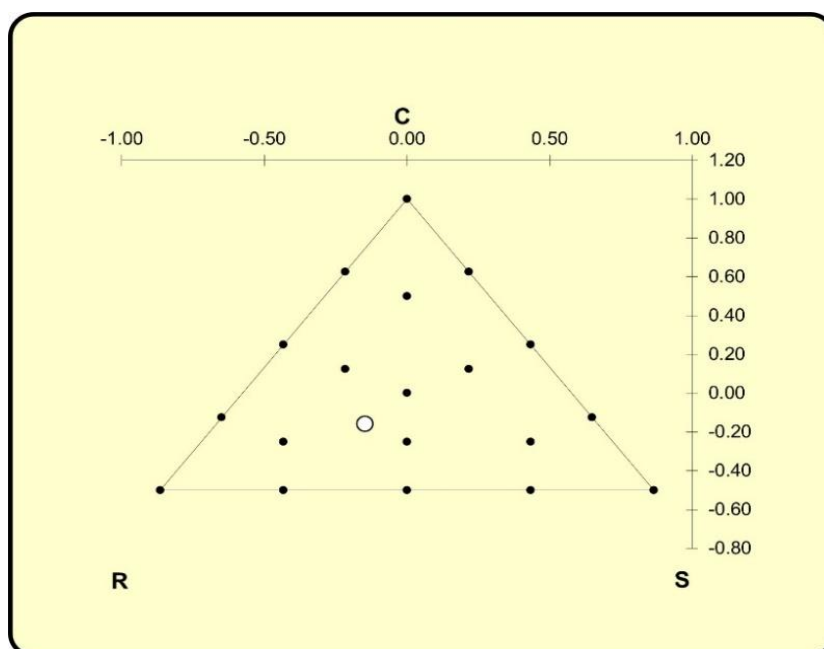


Figure 14 – Left, results from species and abundance survey, showing the species and the % abundance estimated from the DOMIN assesment. Right, the C-S-R plot generated from UCPE C-S-R signature calculator. The nearest strategy type was SR/CSR.

4.2.4 Soil selection

4 textural classes were examined in the glasshouse trials (Figure 15). Ranging from an extremely homogenous, pure sand, representative of a genesis state of soil, to a sub soil with very high sand content and low clay and silt content, a good loam soil and furthermore a sandy silt soil with high OM content, manufactured for optimum plant growth (Black soil). Although not all soils were included together due to sample size constraints an attempt was made to compare them across experiments.

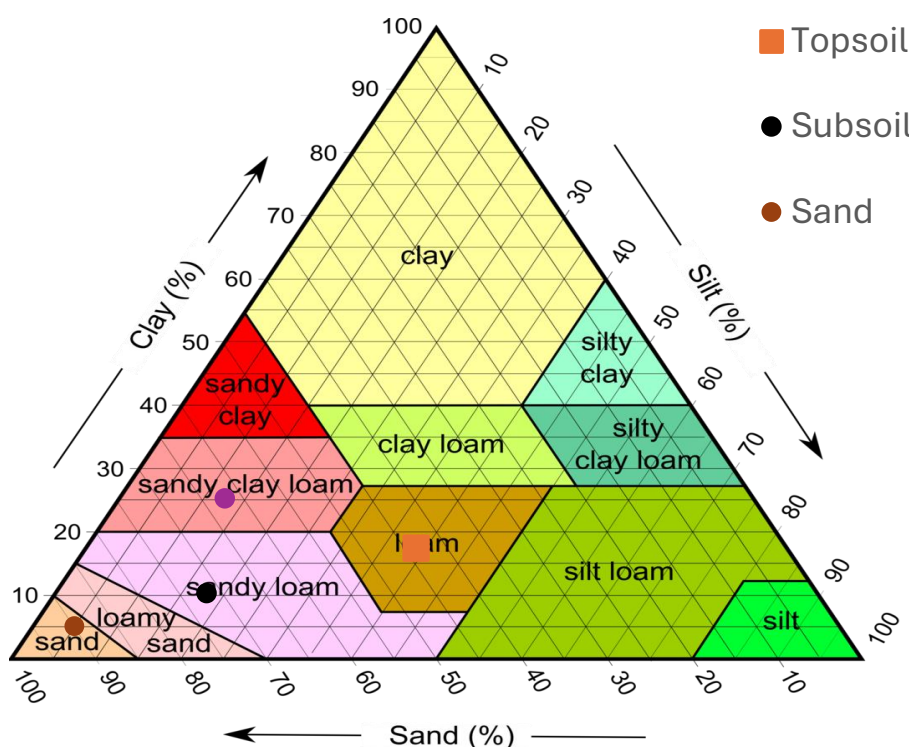


Figure 15 – Ternary plot for soil textural classification, taken from particle size distribution analysis of the soils. The analysis identifies the soils distinct textural classes.

4.2.5 Statistical analysis and variability calculations

It is important to note here that due to the frequency and volume of temperature data points, the analysis of these vast data sets would have been extremely time consuming without the use of a bespoke python script developed to extrapolate the key variables and measures, derived from ecosystem thermodynamics. Furthermore, the RAW data sets have not been given in appendices as it would take up many

hundreds of pages, however one experiment was exported as the RAW data it would take up many hundreds of pages; instead summary statistics and any statistical tests have been provided (Appendix A through F) where relevant.

The study is primarily concerned with the flow of energy from solar radiation through the system (soil). As such the rising sun is of particular interest as it represents the increasing input of energy. The soils response to that energy input can then be measured in the form of several temperature-based metrics. Taking the maximum temperature (MAX) as the solar peak, the mean (MEAN) was calculated for the 8 hours leading up to that point. Also, the ability of the system to dissipate and store exergy is related to the rate of heat loss and as such, the daily minimum temperatures (MIN) were considered. These were averaged across the experiment periods (MEANMAX and MEANMIN) as well as calculating lowest MIN and the Highest MAX (LoMIN and HiMAX respectively).

The 8 hours before the MAX was used as the key sampling zone and measures of variability during this period were calculated; the temperature variability, measured as the standard deviation of the 8 hours before MAX (STDEV); the diurnal temperature range (DTR), measured as the average difference between the MAX and the MIN; and the intra diurnal variation, measured as the coefficient of variation (CoeffVAR), which was calculated by $\frac{STDEV}{MEAN} \times 100$ (see Elagib, 2010).

STDEV In statistics, is a measure of the amount of variation of a random variable about its mean. It shows the variability of temperature within the timeframe. CoeffVAR is a relative measure of variability that indicates the size of a standard deviation in relation to its mean. It shows the extent of variability in reference to the MEAN, the higher the CoeffVAR the greater the level of dispersion around the mean. DTR shows the amount of change over the time period.

4.3 Results

4.3.1 Temperature indices of growth phase for controlled experiments

The following graphs are a sample of data for each of the temperature metrics across 3 experiments (EXP1, EXP2 and EXP3), summary data and statistics are given in Appendix A. To simplify the results not all data sets were included for all experiments and representative plant-soil combinations were chosen for each graph. Above all, soils with more homogenous structure (less particle heterogeneity), such as sand and sub soil were more variable (Figure 22 and Figure 24), alongside higher MAX temperatures (Figure 16, Figure 17 and Figure 18) and lower MIN temperatures (Figure 19). Shaded soils responded more similarly to plants and on some occasions were less variable than those with plants (Figure 22). In EXP3, a higher input of water (8lph compared to 2lph), resulted in less variable (Figure 23) and lower MAX temperatures (Figure 18), however there was no statistical difference between water regimes or plant-soil combinations for MIN temperatures (Figure 19). The data consistently oscillates about the average trendlines throughout the experiments (Figures 16 through 24) and often, the more complex plant-soil combinations (samples with plants and even bare soil) showed least deviation from the line of best fit compared to sub soils and sands (Figure 20). Furthermore, STDEV and confidence limits tended to be greater in samples with plants (see appendices). Table 4 summarizes the soils and plants in each of the graphs, relative to the temperature metric they are representing.

Table 4 - Summary of the soils and plants used for each of the graphs, from what experiment they are from and what metric they will represent.

Metric	EXP1	EXP2	EXP3
MEAN		Subsoil (Sub), Bare soil (BS) and <i>Brassica juncea</i> & <i>Trifolium incarnatum</i> (BJ&TI)	
MAX		Subsoil (Sub), <i>Brassica juncea</i> (BJ), <i>Trifolium</i>	6 plants per pot with 8lph watering (HDF), 6 plants per pot with 2lph watering (HDR)

		<i>incarnatum</i> with inoculant (TI+)	
MIN	Sand (Sand), Bare soil (BS), <i>Trifolium incarnatum</i> (TI)		
STDEV	Sand (Sand), Bare soil (BS), <i>Brassica juncea</i> (BJ)		3 plants per pot with 8lph watering (LDF), 3 plants per pot with 2lph watering (LDR)
DTR		Shaded soil (Sh), <i>Brassica juncea</i> (BJ)	Bare soil with 8lph watering (BSF), Bare soil with 2lph watering (BSR)
CoeffVAR		Subsoil (Sub), Bare soil (BS), <i>Trifolium incarnatum without inoculant</i> (TI)	

4.3.1.1 MEAN

MEAN temperatures (calculated as the daily temperature mean for the 12 hours preceding daily MAX), tended to differ very little between soils and with and without plants (Figure 16). This was irrespective of soil type and particularly evident in lower values (Figure 16). The glasshouse conditions as expected intensified the thermal regime evident by the difference between ambient temperatures and the average glasshouse soil temperature (Figure 16). The glasshouse soil was on average 5.4°C (+/-0.66°C) hotter than the recorded ambient temperature from Writtle weather station.

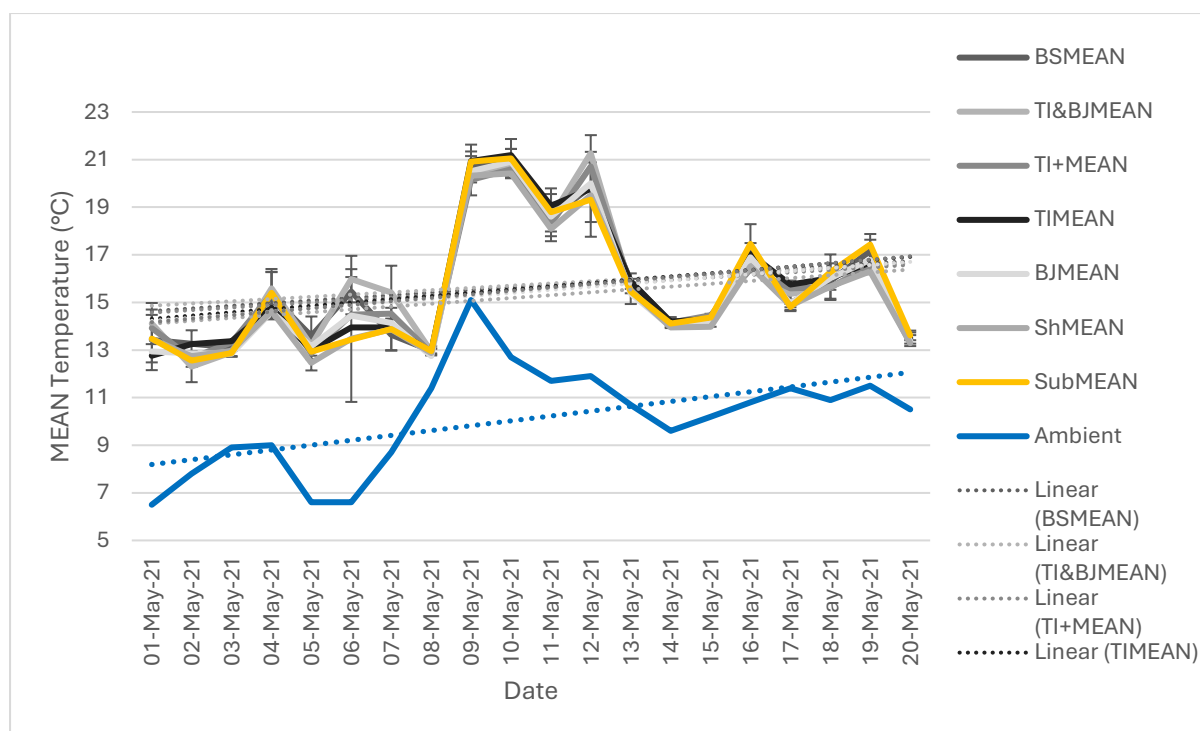


Figure 16 – Daily MEAN temperatures for Bare soil (BS), Subsoil (Sub) and Trifolium incarnatum (TI) & Brassica Juncea (BJ), Results are from EXP2, where two soils were compared and multiple plant models. No statistical difference was evident between Sub and other plant-soil combinations (TI and BJ) for MEAN temperatures. Daily mean ambient temperatures, taken from Writtle University College weather station, were plotted (Blue Line) and show how the glasshouse conditions affect soil temperatures, with an increase between 4.74°C and 6.06°C, compared to the ambient temperature recorded at the weather station. Error bars are confidence limits. Total N = 60 across 20 days.

4.3.1.2 MAX temperature

MAX temperatures, as the daily maximum temperature averaged for each plant-soil combination, tended to be higher in soils with more homogenous structure (Figure 17) or reduced water content (Figure 18). As in the MEAN, MAX temperatures in the glasshouse were much higher than ambient temperatures (Figure 17). Individual plant species such as TI+ and BJ, were similar and the Sub soil was statistically far hotter for average MAX temperatures ($p < 0.001$, t test; Figure 17). In samples with reduced water input (60ml per day), were on average hotter at the peak compared to samples receiving a sustained water input enough for field capacity 266ml per day.

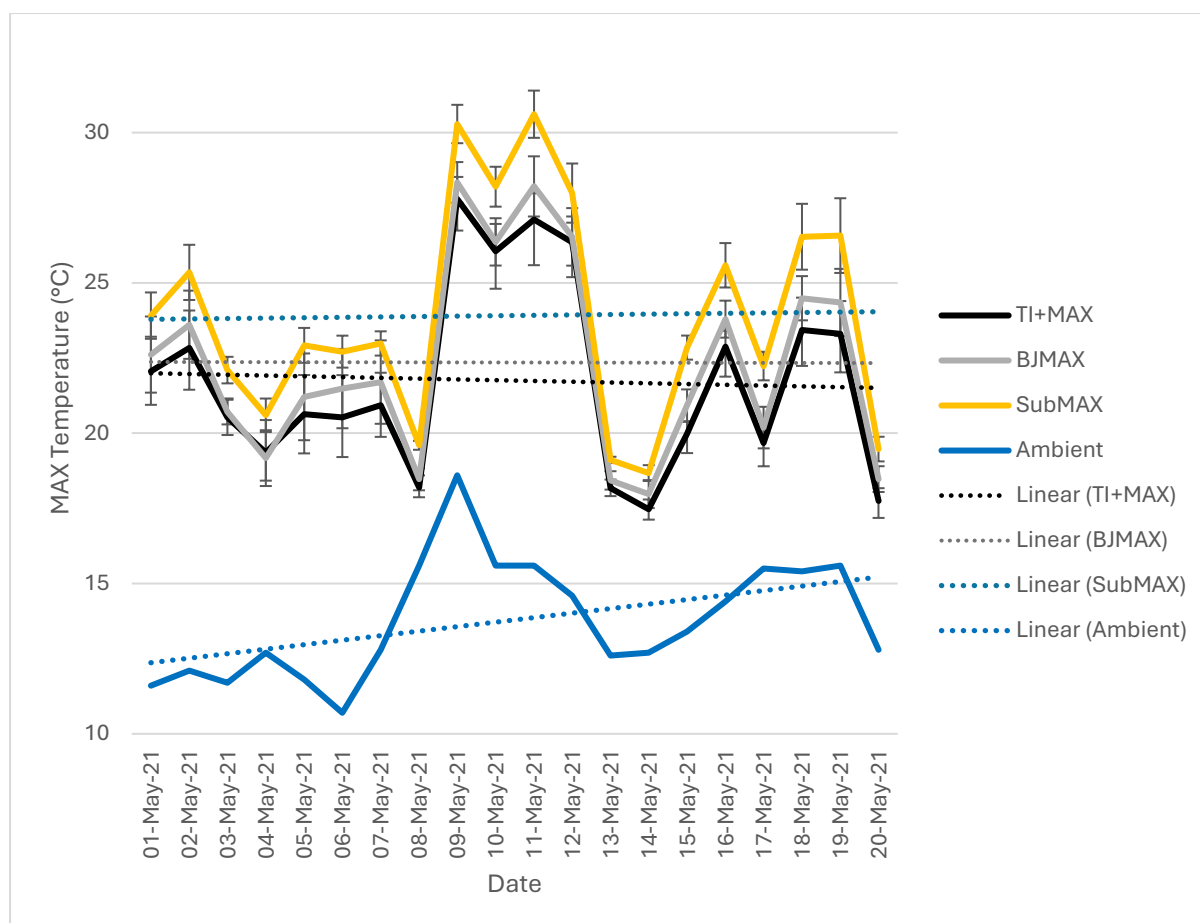


Figure 17 – Daily MAX temperatures overtime and averaged for *Trifolium incarnatum* with inoculant (TI+ in topsoil), *Brassica juncea* (BJ in topsoil) and Sub soil (Sub). Results are from EXP2 where two soils were compared and multiple pant models. MAX temperatures were statistically greater for Sub, than both TI+ ($p < 0.0001$, t-test) and BJ ($p = 0.002$ t-test) and there was no statistical difference between TI+ and BJ. Error bars represent confidence limits The daily maximum ambient temperatures, taken from Writtle university college weather station and show a difference of between 8°C-10°C ($\pm 0.95^\circ\text{C}$) and as much as 12°C for Sand on 9th May ($\pm 0.6^\circ\text{C}$). Total $N=60$, across 20 days.

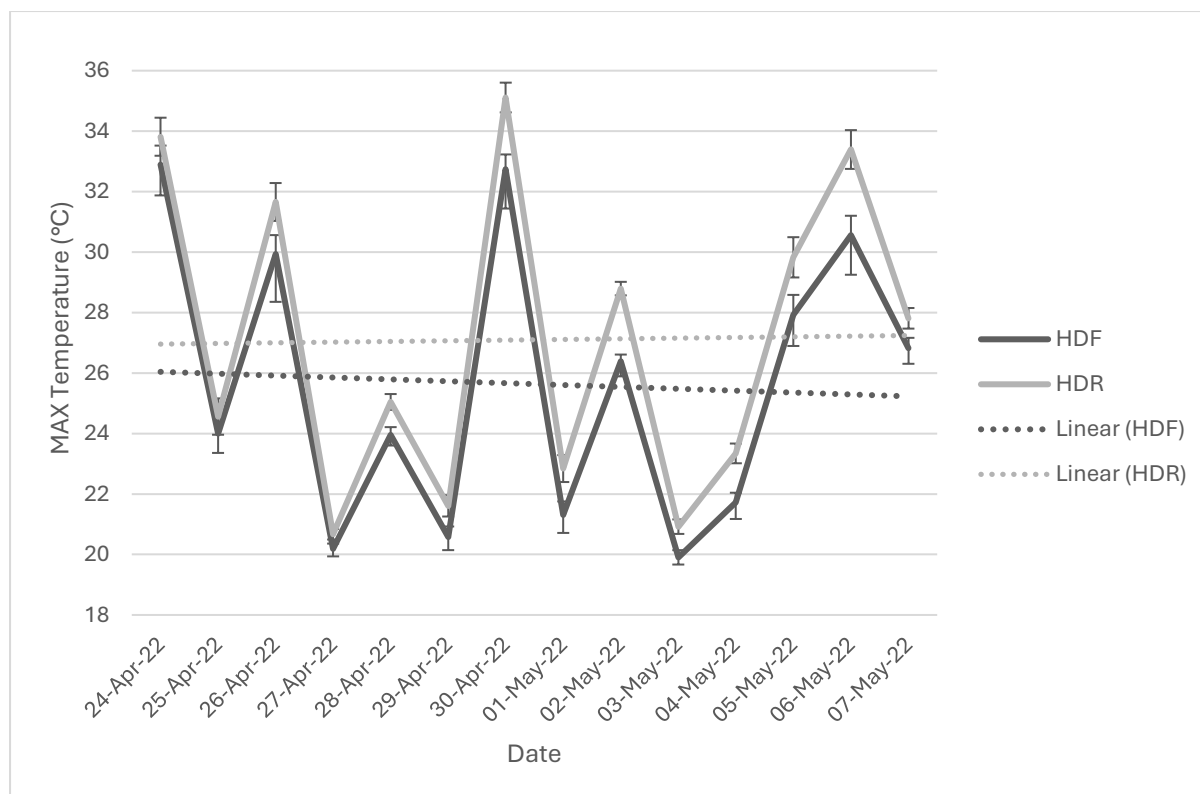


Figure 18 – Daily maximum temperatures (MAX) over time for EXP3, which compared two different watering regimes and two different plant spacing compared to control of bare soil. This graph shows the two watering regimes for higher density spacing of 6 plants per pot (HDF and HDR). Reduced watering, compared to standard watering (HDF) exhibited generally greater MAX ($p=0.02$, t-test). Error bars are confidence limits. Total $N=30$ across 14 days.

4.3.1.3 MIN temperature

Minimum temperatures (MIN), calculated as the daily absolute minimum had the opposite effect in that more homogenous soils were for the most part lower than other plant-soil combinations. Although not shown here in EXP2, MIN temperatures were statistically lower in the Sub compared to the TI+, but not with any other samples ($p=0.02$). In Figure 19, Sand in EXP1, compared to BS and BJ, tended to reach lower minimums and was on average 1.19°C to 1.46°C cooler. Confidence limits are less in MIN data, indicating a greater variability between samples in hotter temperatures (Figure 19).

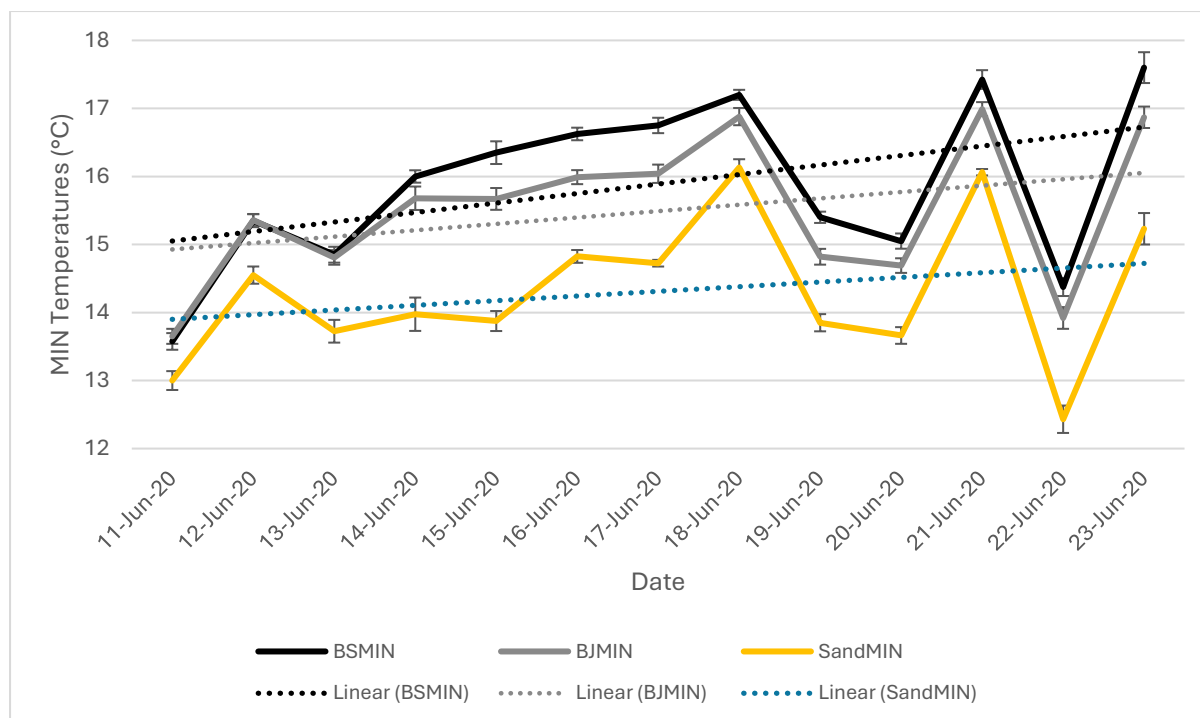


Figure 19 - Minimum temperatures (MIN) graph for EXP1, where Sand was compared with 3 other plant soil combinations. This graph shows the averaged MIN temperatures were lower in both the Sand ($p < 0.0001$, Mann-Whitney) and Brassica juncea (BJ; $p = 0.04$, Mann-Whitney) compared to Bare soil (BS) and the Sand was also statistically lower than BJ ($p < 0.0001$; Mann-Whitney). Total $N = 39$ across 13 days

4.3.1.4 STDEV

More homogenous soils tended show greater STDEV when compared to other plant-soil combinations. For example, In EXP 1 the BS and the Sand were both statistically greater STDEV (Figure 20) than the soils with plants ($p < 0.002$ for Sand and $p < 0.03$ for BS). Sand differed by up to 2.68°C ($\pm 0.57^{\circ}\text{C}$) and the BS by up to 1.05°C ($\pm 0.42^{\circ}\text{C}$).

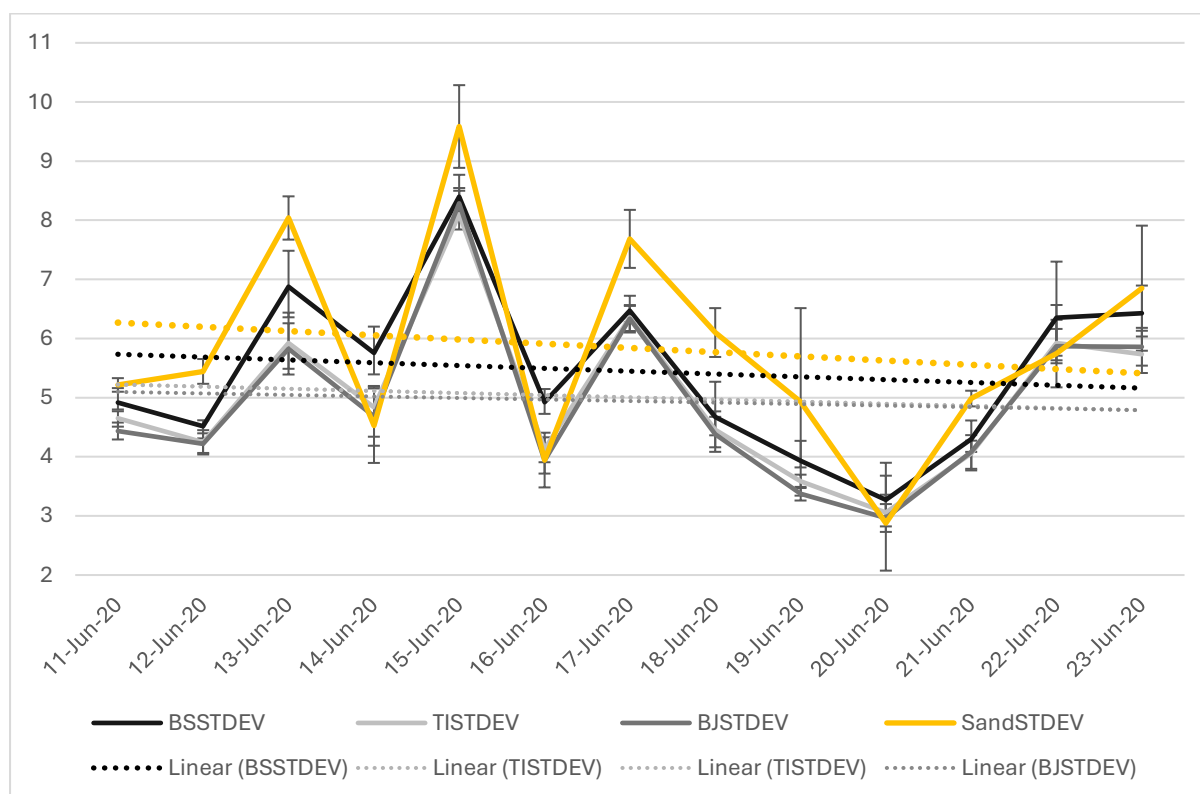


Figure 20 – Temperature STDEV over time for all soils and plants in EXP 1, where a pure sand (Sand), was compared with the bare black soil (BS), black soil with *Trifolium incarnatum* (TI) and black soil with *Brassica Juncea* (BJ). Linear trend lines stack in order, Sand, BS, then TI and BJ, error bars are confidence limits. Total $N = 351$, across 13 days.

Soil moisture also tended to reduce STDEV, for example in In EXP3, the STDEV (Figure 21) was greater for BS ($p = 0.02$, Mann Whitney) in the reduced irrigation (2lph) compared to irrigation that sustained the water threshold (Table 2; 8lph). With the reduced irrigation STDEV differed on average between 0.184°C and 0.866°C .

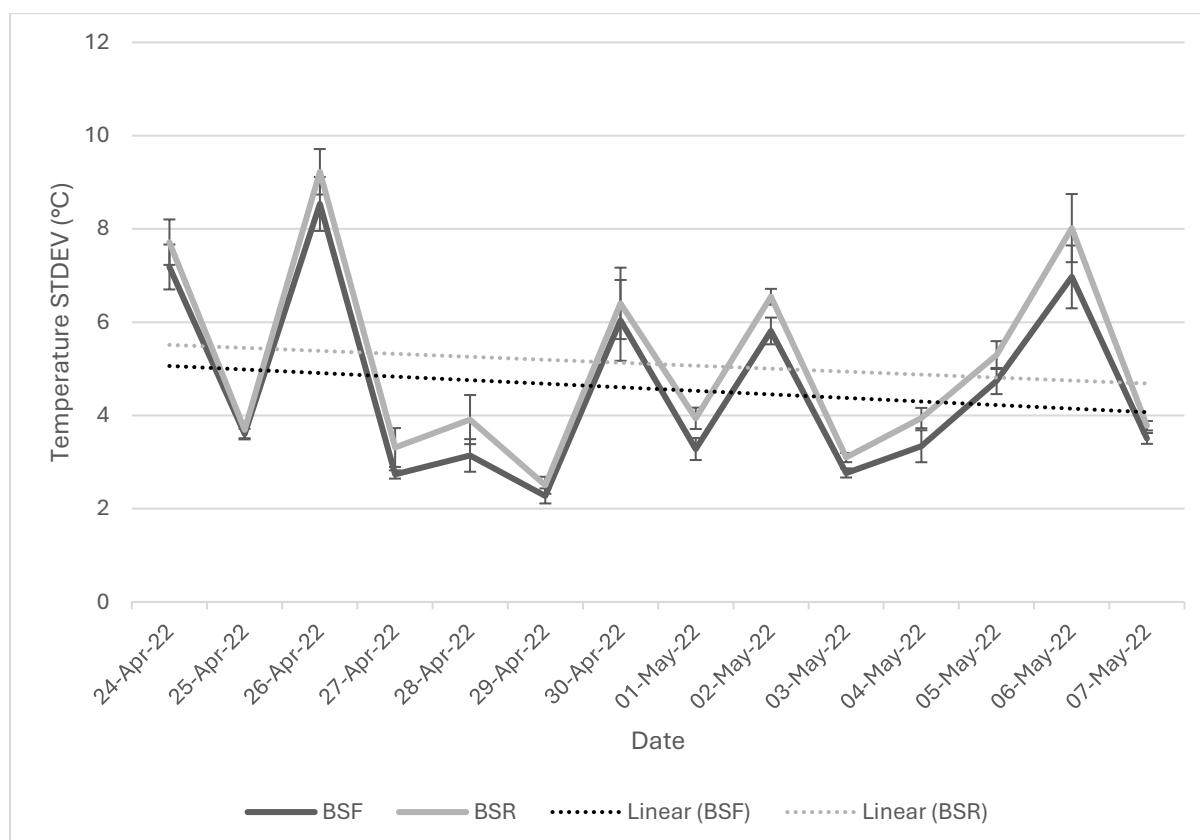


Figure 21 - Temperature STDEV over time for EXP3, which compared two different watering regimes and two different plant spacing with control of bare soil. This graph shows the two watering regimes for bare soil, where reduced watering (BSR) exhibited greater STDEV ($p=0.02$, Mann Whitney), compared to standard watering (BSF). Error bars are confidence limits BS higher by as much as 1.25°C . Total $N=28$ across 14 days.

4.3.1.5 DTR

In EXP2, shaded soils (Sh) were statistically lower in DTR (Figure 22) than both BS ($p=0.009$, Mann-Whitney) and Sub ($p<0.001$, Mann-Whitney). Although not significant ($p=0.056$), DTR for LDF was slightly lower on average compared to LDR (Figure 23). On the hottest day (11th May), where temperatures reach over 30°C (Figure 17), the difference in DTR between Sub and Sh was 3.79°C ($\pm 0.72^{\circ}\text{C}$). Interestingly, DTR on the 11th May was $\sim 2^{\circ}\text{C}$ greater than on the 9th May, despite both days reaching a similar MAX (30.28°C on 9th and 30.61°C on 11th; Figure 17) evidence of the progressive and high variability of the temperature data.

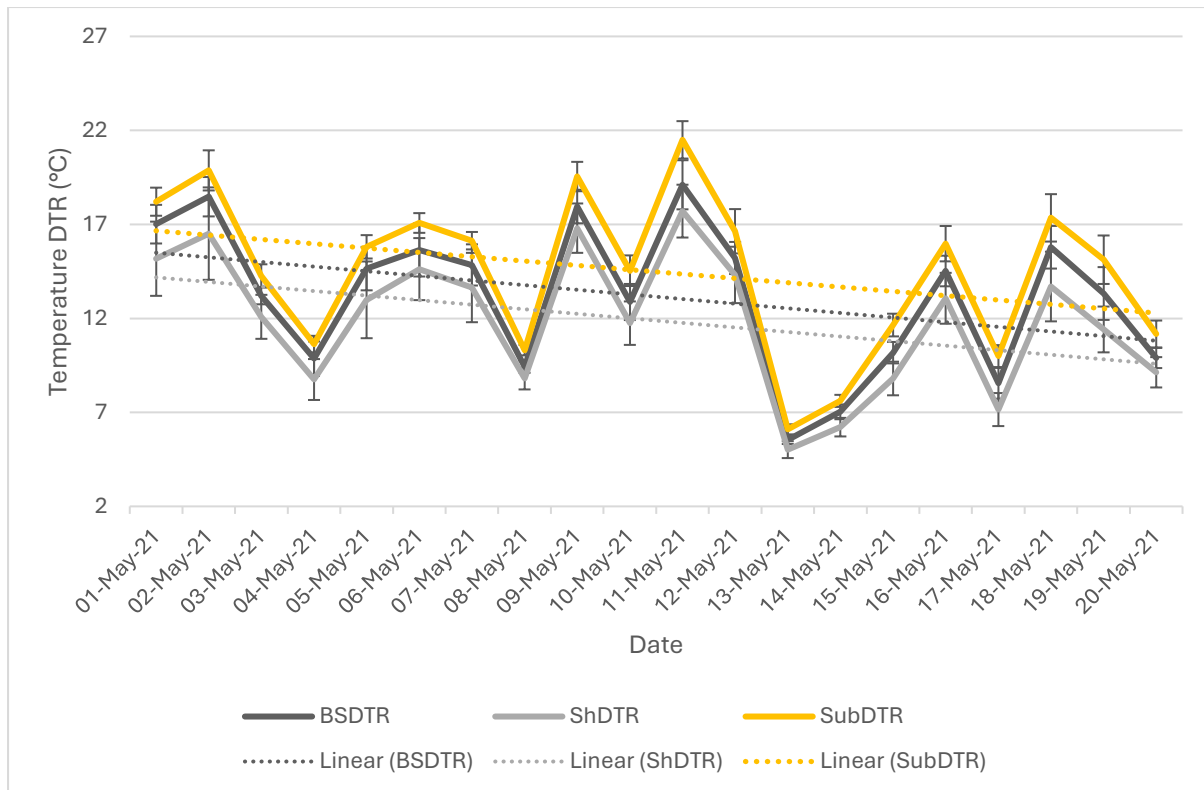


Figure 22 – Diurnal temperature range (DTR) for EXP2 where two soils were compared and multiple pant models. DTR was statistically greater for Sub, than both bare soil (BS; $p < 0.0001$, t-test) and Shaded soil samples (Sh; $p = 0.002$ t-test). Error bars are confidence limits. Sub soil greater than BS and Sh less than BS by as much as 1.4°C and sub by as much as 3.7°C . Total $N = 80$ across 20 days

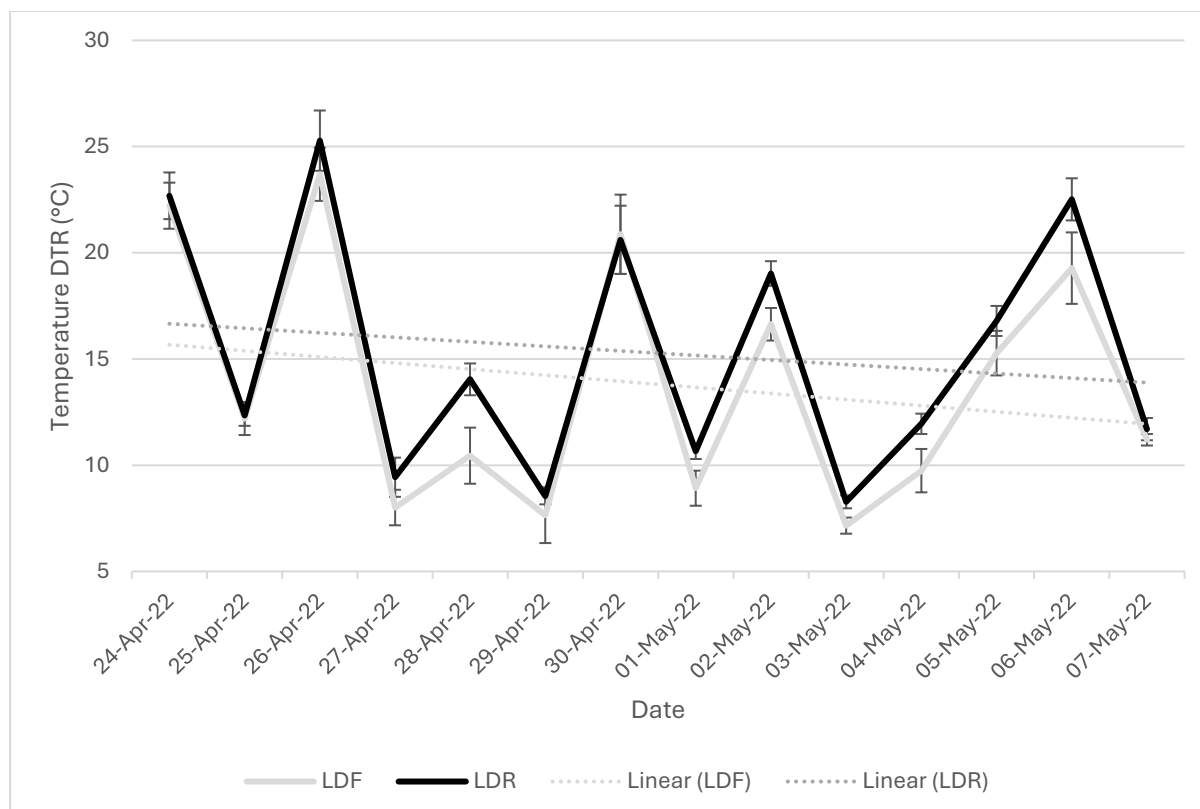
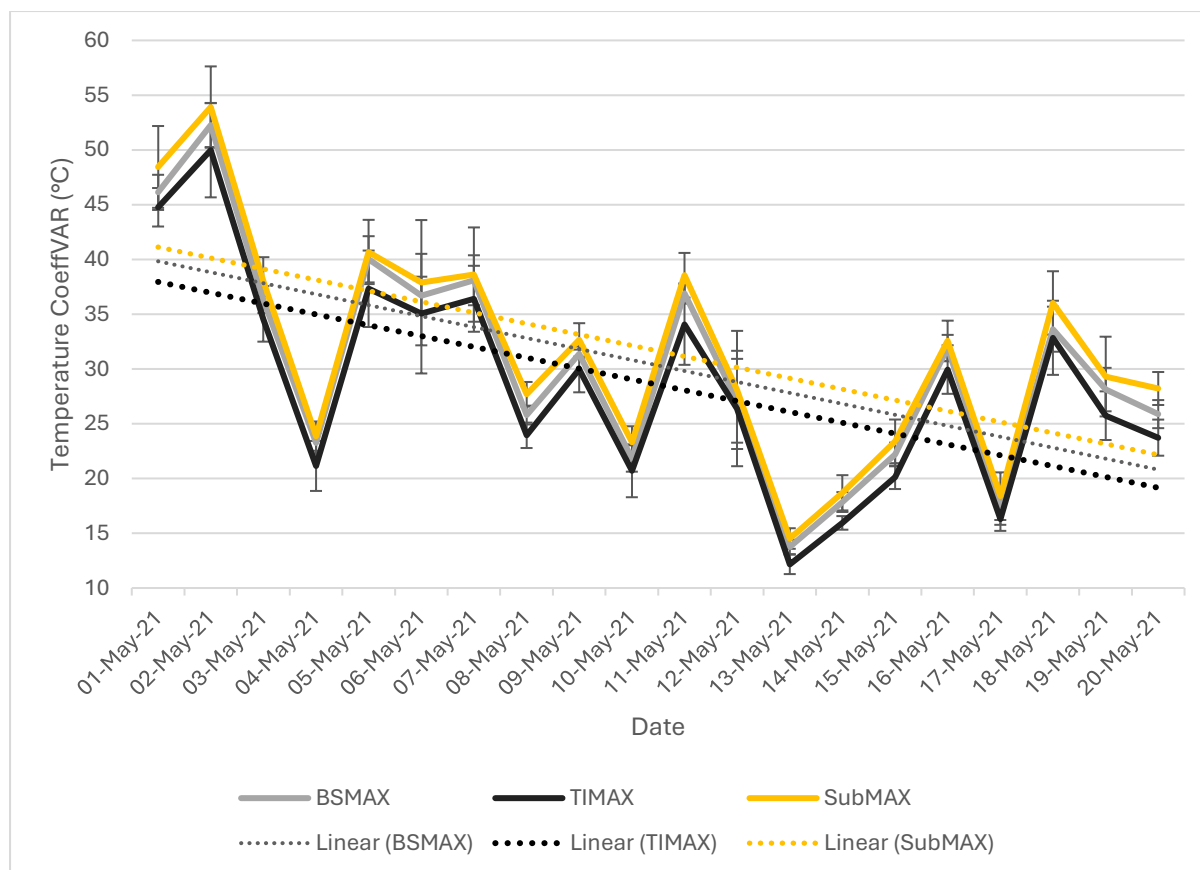


Figure 23 - DTR for EXP3, which compared two different watering regimes and two different plant spacing with control of bare soil. This graph shows the two watering regimes for low density plant spacing of 3 plants per pot, in the two watering regimes; where reduced watering (LDR) exhibited greater but not significant ($p=0.056$, Mann-Whitney) DTR compared to standard watering (LDF). Error bars are confidence limits. LDR for the most part higher than LDF by as much as 3.3°C . Total $N=28$ across 14 days.

4.3.1.6 CoeffVAR

On average CoeffVAR for Sub soil in EXP2 was significantly higher than both the BS ($p=0.03$, Mann-Whitney) and TI ($p=0.001$, Mann-Whitney), however BS and TI did not differ (Figure 24). As for DTR and STDEV, CoeffVAR (Figure 24) tended to have confidence limits with more crossover compared to MAX (Figure 17 and Figure 18) and MIN (Figure 19), indicating that MAX



*Figure 24 – Temperature Coefficient of variation (CoeffVAR) overtime for EXP2, where two soils were compared and multiple pant models. CoeffVAR was statistically greater for Sub compared to bare soil (BS; $p=0.03$) and soil with *Trifolium incarnatum* (TI; $p=0.001$). Error bars are confidence limits. Sub soil was on average 3% greater than BS (+/- 1.49%) and as much as 5% greater than TI (+/- 2.5%). Total N=60 over 20 days.*

4.3.2 Field trial

Precipitation and moisture content (MC) followed a similar pattern (Figure 25). The difference in moisture content between Meadow and Disturbed was variable and on the final data point, MC was approx. 3%, with no statistical difference. In general, temperatures in Meadow were significantly ($p<0.05$) lower and more attenuated in both the soil and the surface (Figure 26 and Figure 27). Temperature at 10cm was up to 20°C less than surface, at solar maximum, in both Meadow and Disturbed. The difference between the soil and the surface was calculated for each of the scenarios and there was no significant difference ($p=0.302$, t test), meaning that the contrast between soil and surface was consistent across Meadow and Disturbed. Furthermore, Disturbed soil showed a highly significant difference ($p=5.2377 \times 10^{-84}$, $n=2693$) in

STDEV (between samples), indicating greater spatial heterogeneity, compared to Meadow.

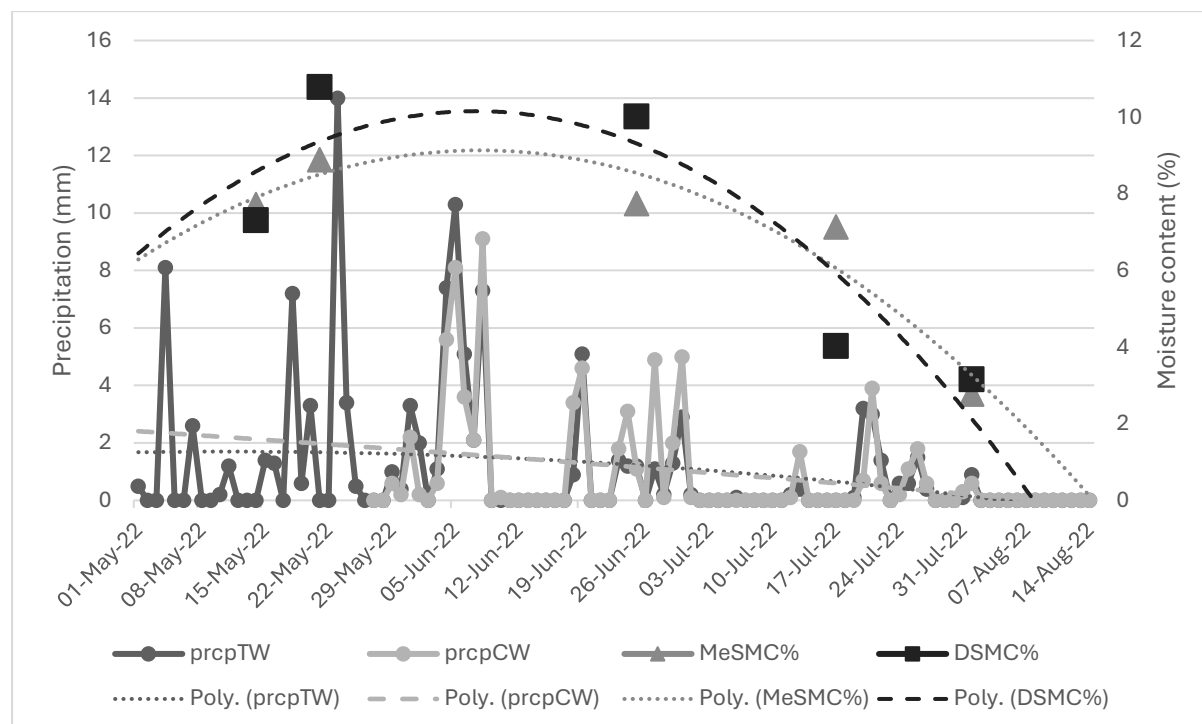


Figure 25 - Relationship between precipitation and moisture content for Meadow (MeSMC%) and Disturbed soil (DSMC%). Greater rainfall (average of 2mm per day) early on (1st May to 6th June), followed by a period of lower rainfall (average 0.8mm per day) up to 31st August, contributed to the declining soil moisture. Precipitation data available at (MET Office, n.d.) from two nearby weather stations, Tunbridge wells, 15.3 miles away (prcpTW) and Charlwood, 28 miles away (prcpCW). Left axis corresponds to precipitation data (prcpTW and prcpCW), right axis is moistureN=80 (for moisture data) across 5 data collection points.

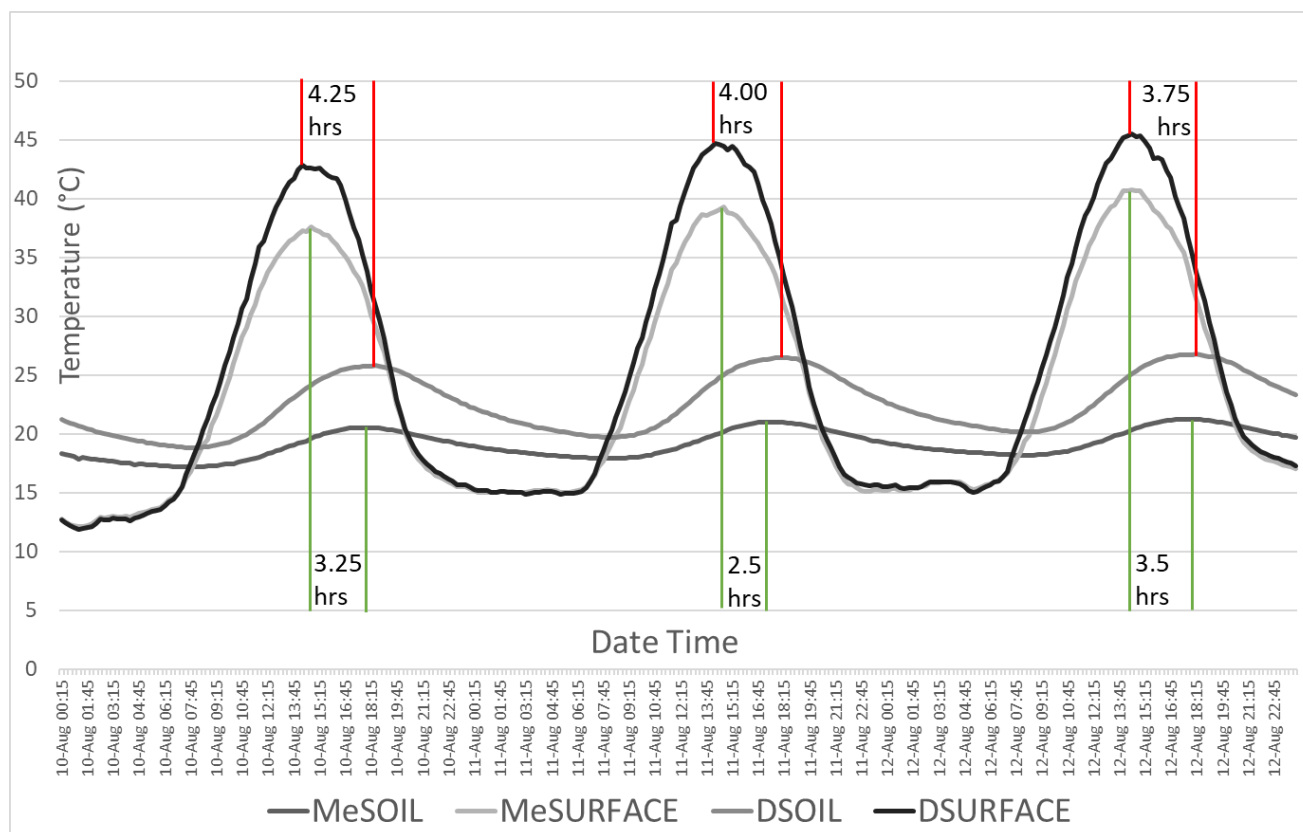


Figure 26 - Soil at 10cm and surface temperature across 3 of the hottest days during the experiment. Temperatures in the Disturbed soil at the surface (DSURFACE and DSOIL) peaked statistically higher ($p < 0.05$) than the Meadow (MeSOIL and MeSURFACE). The time difference between peaks of surface and soil was evident and the average time difference between peaks of surface and soil was 2.75hrs – 3.5hours for Meadow and 3.11hrs – 4.06hrs for Disturbed soil, however they did not differ significantly.

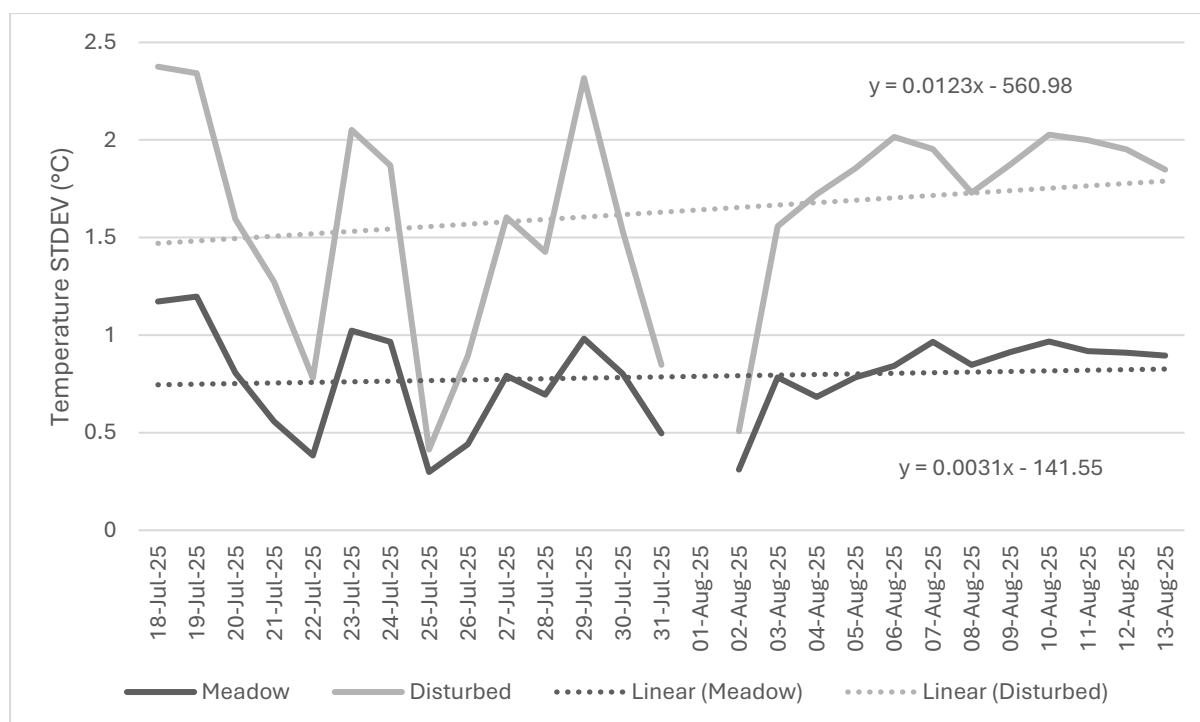


Figure 27 – Soil temperature STDEV across 26 days of the experimental period. Data between 31st July and the 2nd August is missing due to a technological failure in the sensors following data collection.

4.3.3 Correlations between variability indices

Temperature measures such as MIN, MAX and MEAN were compared with variability indices such as DTR, Coeff VAR and STDEV, to assess goodness of fit to the model in Figure 13. Summary data and statistics are given in Appendix B. MIN temperature indices tended to correlate negatively with variability metrics, whereas MEAN and MAX tended to correlate positively (Table 5). Table 5 displays rank values for ordinal correlation. Figure 28 shows how STDEV correlates with MAX across all experiments. When grouped as glasshouse trials and field trial, the correlation shows good linear fit for both groups (Figure 28) and although experiments were carried out at different times all glasshouse experiments fit the slope well ($R^2=0.94$).

Table 5 – Correlations between MEAN temperature, variability indices (STDEV, DTR and CoeffVAR) and other temperature measures (LoMIN, MEANMIN, HIMAX, MEAN MAX and MEANMEAN, see methods). Figures are correlations of Spearmans rank, where negative values show negative correlation and positive values show positive correlation. MIN temperatures tended to correlate negatively with variability indices

(first 2 rows) and MEAN and MAX tended to correlate positively (Last 3 rows). All correlations shown are significant (Spearman's Rank, $p < 0.05$).

	MENSTD	MEANDTR	MEANCoeffVAR
LoMIN	-0.50803 to -0.44548	-0.59111 to -0.44538	-0.62662 to -0.39493
MEANMIN	-0.50803 to -0.46459	-0.38731 to -0.36801	-0.81338 to -0.62662
HiMAX	0.77934 to 0.80632	0.82378 to 0.87955	0.68939 to 0.71669
MEANMAX	0.90159 to 0.9386	0.94382 to 0.97734	0.75699 to 0.86081
MEANMEAN	0.51526 to 0.65391	0.4171 to 0.72907	0.2967 to 0.46889

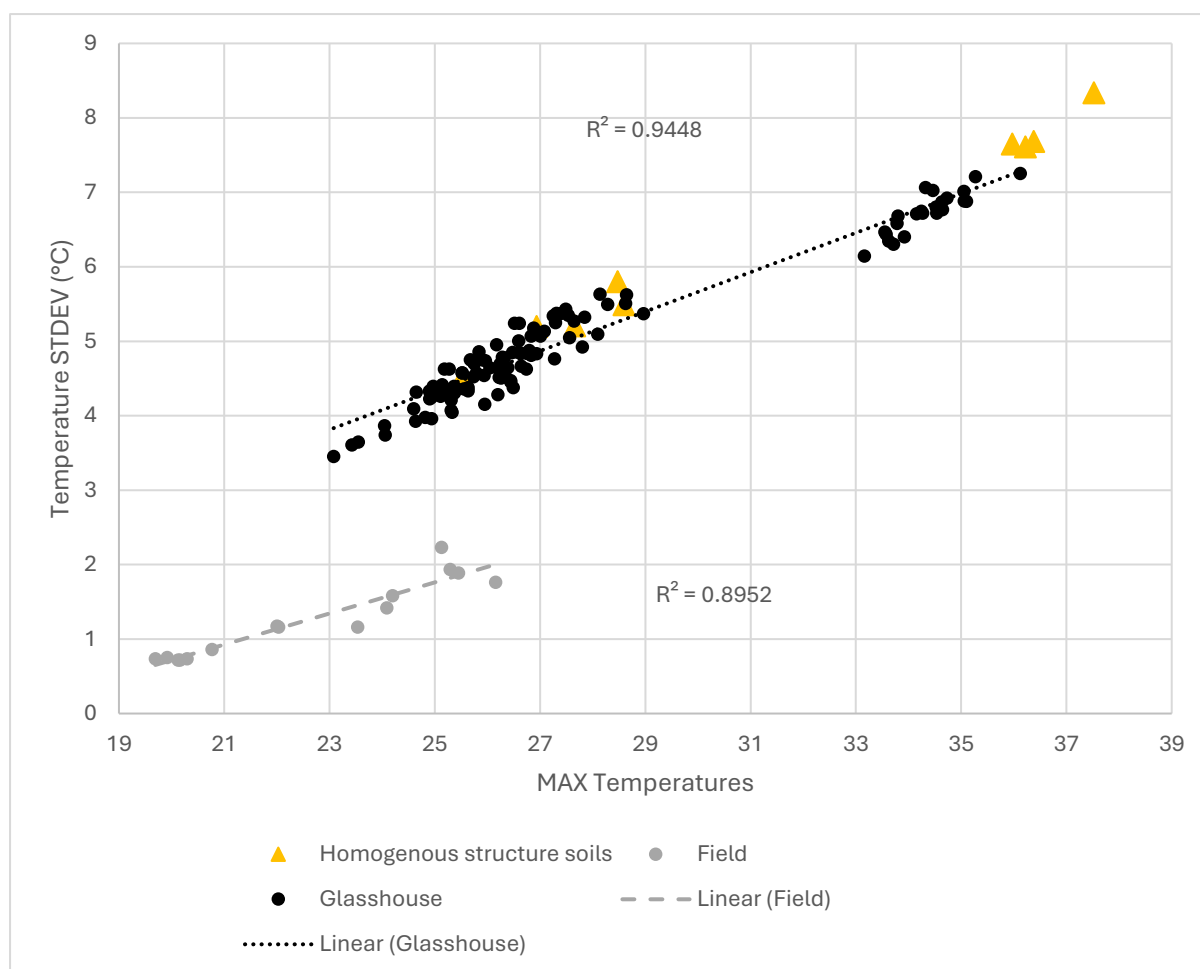


Figure 28 - Correlation between STDEV and MAX. Field trial (EXP4) was analysed separately from the glasshouse trials and occupied a comparatively lower MAX and STDEV domain. Both data sets showed good linear fit ($R^2 > 0.89$), however, the linear trendline in glasshouse trials was slightly steeper. Poor soil (Sand and Sub), tended to be in the upper quartile of each experiment and the coefficient (Stdev/MAX) was significantly higher ($p = 0.001$) than other plant-soil combinations. .

4.3.4 Temperature rate of change

The change in temperature between data collection points (15 mins) was calculated and compared with the average temperature at that time (Figure 29), see Appendix C for data used to generate Figure 29. The rise and fall of the diurnal temperature flux was separated into three episodes; the lower third of temperatures that surround the MIN, the middle that represents the rising and falling of temperatures between the MAX and MIN, then the upper third of temperatures that surround the MAX. Sand in EXP1 was significantly faster in the upper ($>24^{\circ}\text{C}$; $p<0.0001$) and middle ($>17<24$; $p<0.0001$) thirds of the data but not the lower third ($>17^{\circ}\text{C}$). With increasing temperature, the rate of temperature change in lower complexity plant-soil systems is faster than at lower temperatures (HB&S Temp rate 3). The distribution of the data and the shape creates, implies that at peaks and troughs the sample comes in to thermal equilibrium with its surroundings as there is no difference in temperature change. Rate increases in between the peaks when temperature is either rising or falling.



Figure 29 - Rate of temperature change every 15 minutes (y axis) and average temperature every 15 minutes (x axis), from EXP1 and EXP4. A bell curve is evident where very little differences are observable in the extremes (maximum and minimum of y axis). The extreme environment caused by the pots in glasshouse, extends the curve to over 40°C. Sub soil (orange points) seems to extend the furthest for both temperature rate and averages. Bares soil (black points) and samples with plants (green points), are reduced but still extend over 40°C. The field trial on the other hand, seems to occupy a completely different temperature:rate space entirely and the distinctions between Meadow (green data points) and Disturbed (pink data points) soil is very clear.

4.3.5 Difference between bare soil and treatment

The MEANSTDEV of samples containing plants (TI, TI+, BJ), with shading (Sh) or with different soils (Sand, Sub) was subtracted from the bare soil (BS) across all experiments (Figure 30). Appendix D shows the calculations and data analysis. The more homogenous soils (Sand and Sub soil), tended to result in a significant ($p < 0.05$) negative change (MEANSTDEV was greater), whereas samples containing plants were generally a significant ($p < 0.05$) positive change (MEANSTDEV was lesser). The greatest positive change was exhibited by the Meadow when compared to the Disturbed site (Figure 30). When organised as plants and non-plants there is a highly significant difference between them ($p < 0.006$, t test).

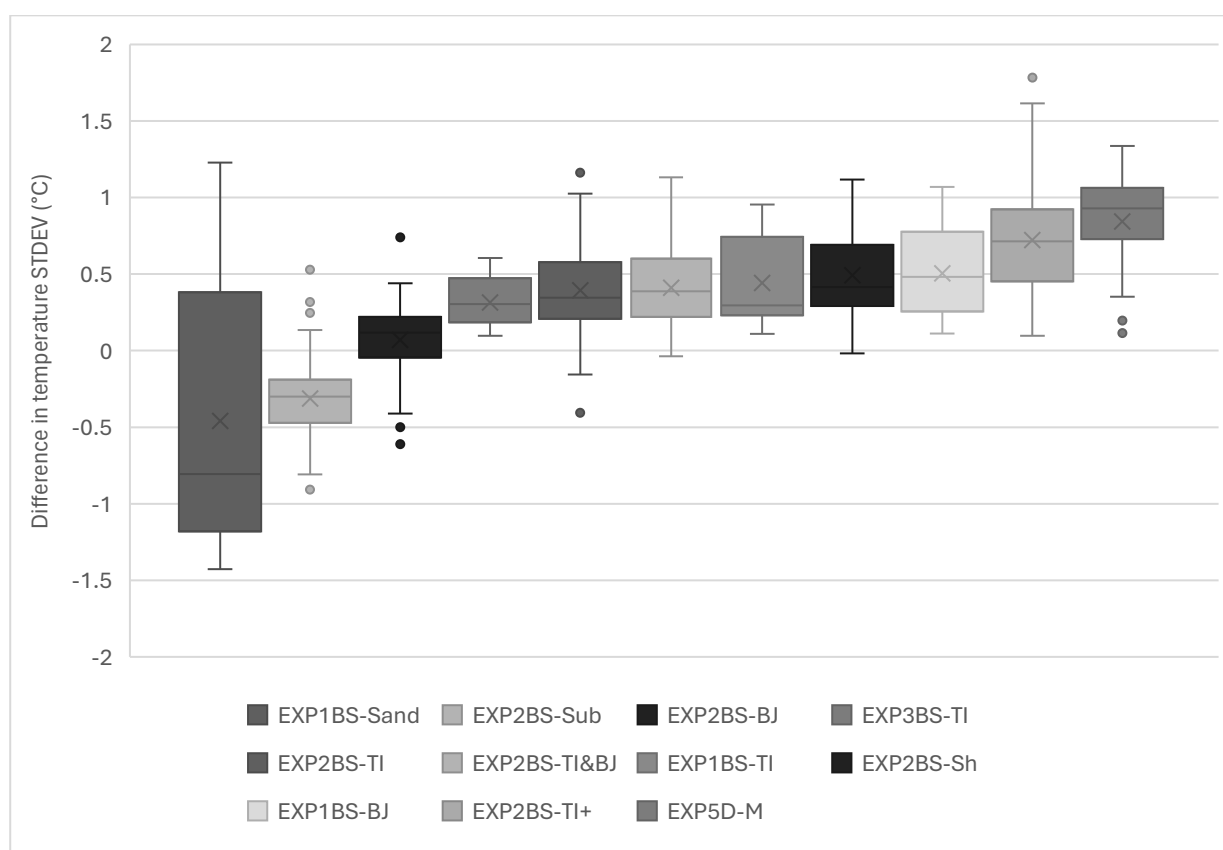


Figure 30 – Box plot of the difference in MEANSTDEV between bare soil (BS) and other samples containing plants or different soils, across all trials. All samples with plants showed positive difference to BS and all samples with more homogenous soil showed a negative difference, on average. Total N=226. Boxes are standard deviation and whiskers a ranges.

When compared against the Black soil, pure sands are both hotter at peak temperatures and cooler at minimums (**Error! Reference source not found.**), whereas the samples with plants in are the opposite, warmer in low temperatures and

cooler in high temperatures. The average difference in temperature (**Error! Reference source not found.**), between bare soil and the Sand at the solar maximum was 8.9°C ($\pm 0.26^{\circ}\text{C}$), whereas the BJ and TI were -0.324 ($\pm 0.03^{\circ}\text{C}$) and -0.499 ($\pm 0.03^{\circ}\text{C}$) respectively.

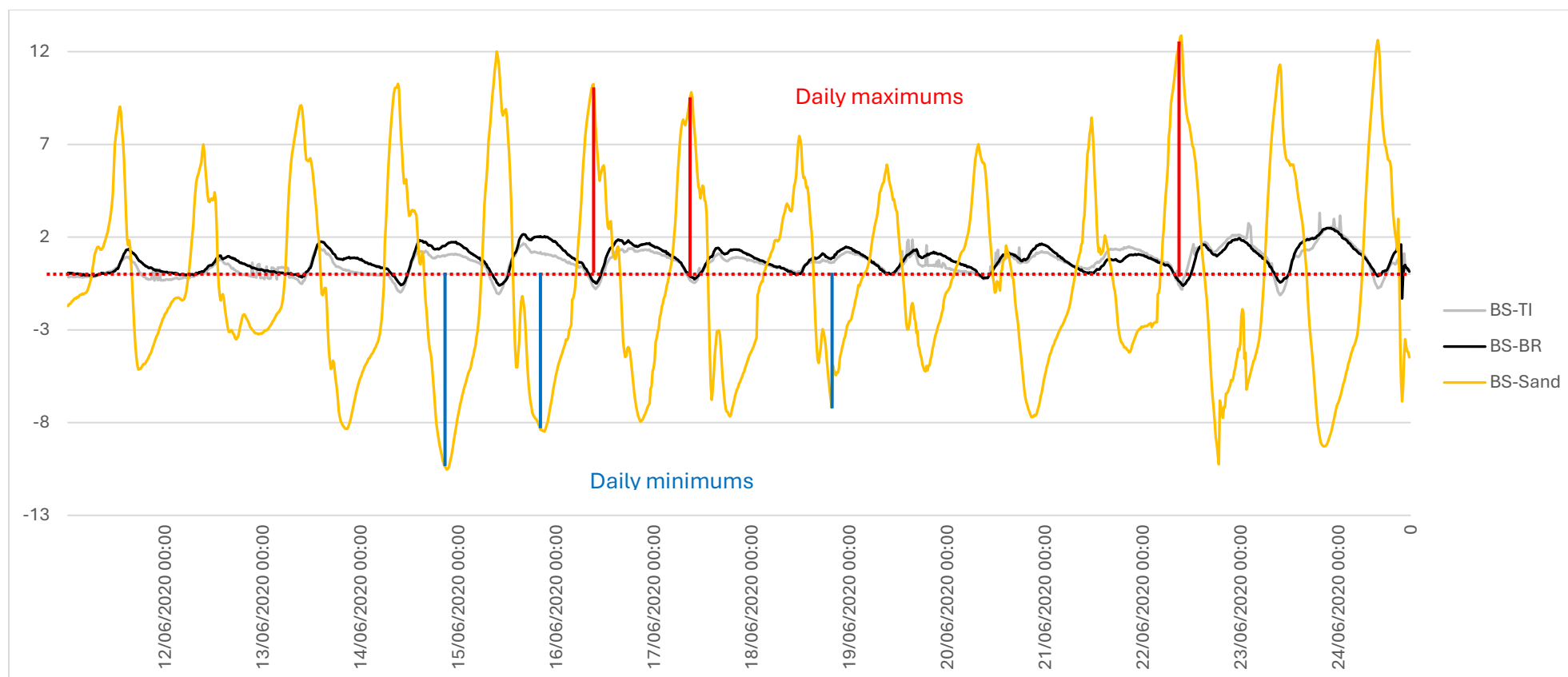


Figure 31 - The difference between plant-soil combinations and bare soil, calculated by subtracting Sand (yellow), TI (dark grey) and BJ (light grey) from the bare soil control over a period of 14 days in EXP1, where a pure sand was compared with bare black soils and *Trifolium incarnatum* (TI) and *Brassica juncea* (BJ), both in black soil. Data is continuous with data points every 15 minutes. The Sand (orange line) oscillates dramatically and the difference is significantly higher ($p < 0.0001$) compared to the samples with plants. Peaks and troughs from the daily average bare soil baseline (red dotted line) are steeper and opposite for Sand compared to both TI (dark grey line) and BJ (black line), in that, at daily minimum temperatures (vertical blue lines), TI and BJ are higher and at daily maximums (vertical red lines) they are lower, whereas Sand is much higher at maximums and much lower at minimums.

4.3.6 Dry weight for EXP1 and EXP2

In EXP 1 there was no statistical difference for dry mass per plant between *Brassica Juncea* and *Trifolium incarnatum*. However, in EXP 2, both sample sets containing *Brassica juncea*, were close to twice that of sample sets with just *Trifolium incarnatum* ($p < 0.001$; Figure 32). Although, this did not show any correlation with temperature variables.

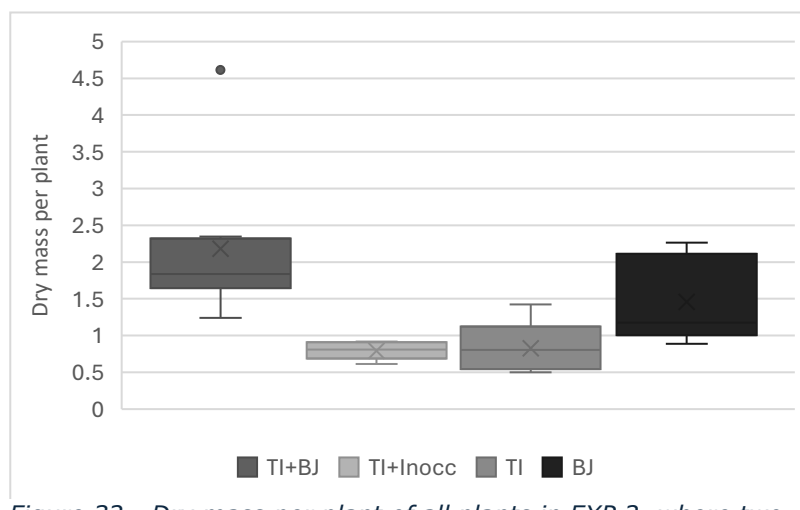


Figure 32 - Dry mass per plant of all plants in EXP 2, where two soils were compared and multiple plant models. Samples containing *Brassica Juncea* (BJ) contained on average ~1g more dry mass per plant ($\pm 0.4g$) of those containing *Trifolium incarnatum* (TI). Boxes are standard deviation and whiskers a ranges.

4.3.7 Changes in STDEV at different temperature bands

STDEV of the 8 hours leading up to MAX temperature was calculated for days when MAX temperatures were within certain temperature bands, see Appendix E for calculations and data analysis. For the most part STDEV increased with MAX temperatures, similarly observed in the correlation table (Table 5). In addition, samples containing plants were distinguished from bare soil and the more homogenous soils primarily between temperature bands 25-35°C. For example, in EXP1 samples containing plants were significantly different ($p < 0.03$) from both Sub and BS for 25-30 and 30-35 (Figure 33), but not for 35-40. Similarly, in EXP2, differences were not significant until band 25-30 (Figure 34). However, looking at the field trial (EXP4), differences were visible at the 20-25 band (Figure 35).

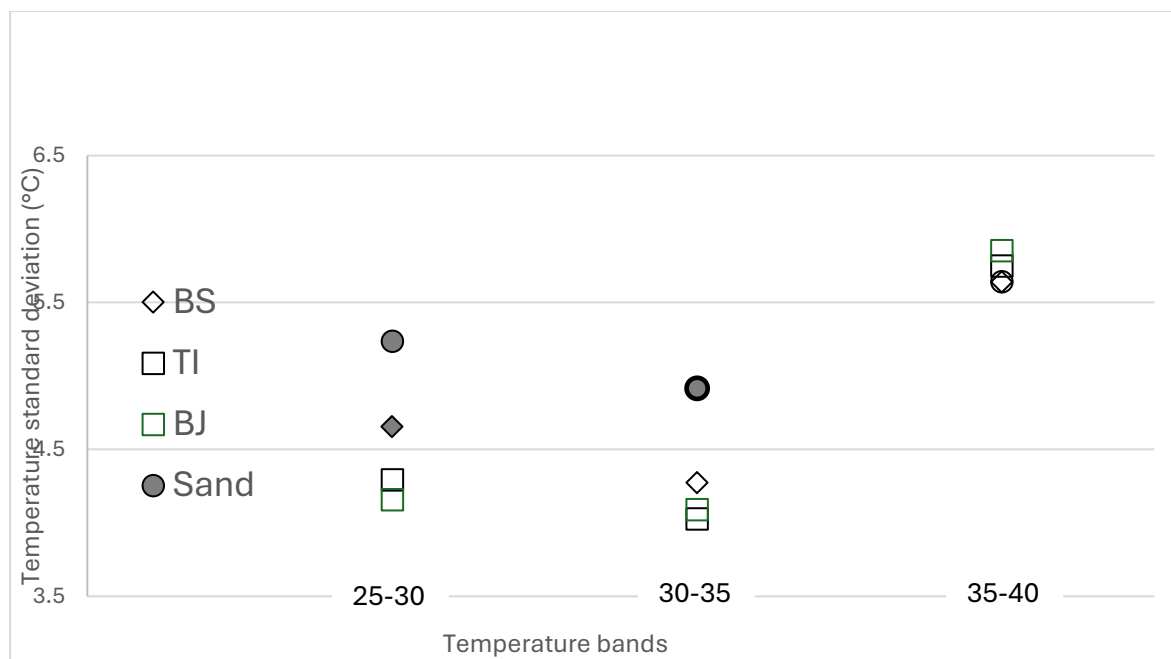


Figure 33 – MEANSTDEV for temperature bands, in EXP1, when maximum temperatures are within certain temperature bands. Plant treatments have lower STDEV in lower temperature bands but not in higher temperature bands. Samples containing plants (squares) were significantly different ($p < 0.03$) from both Sub and BS for 25-30 and 30-35, but not for 35-40. Greyed out points are significant.

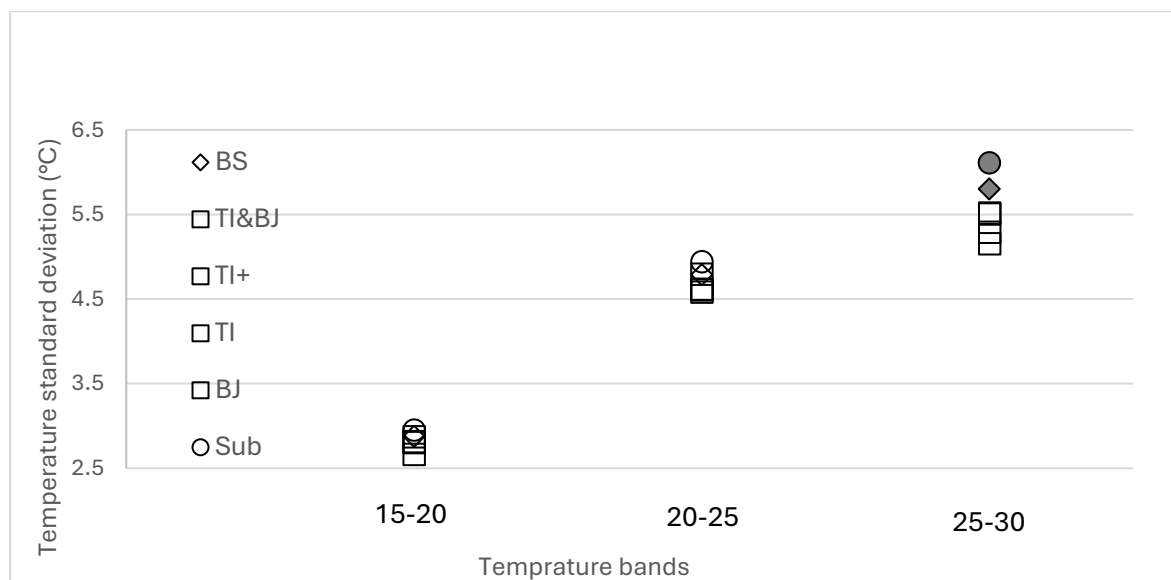


Figure 34 – MEANSTDEV for temperature bands in EXP2, when maximum temperatures are within certain temperature bands. Treatments more distinguished in temp band 25-30. Differences were not significant until band 25-30 and the clustering is evident in the 15-20 and 20-25 band. In the 25-30 band, the BS (circle) and Sub (diamond) are significantly different (greyed out).

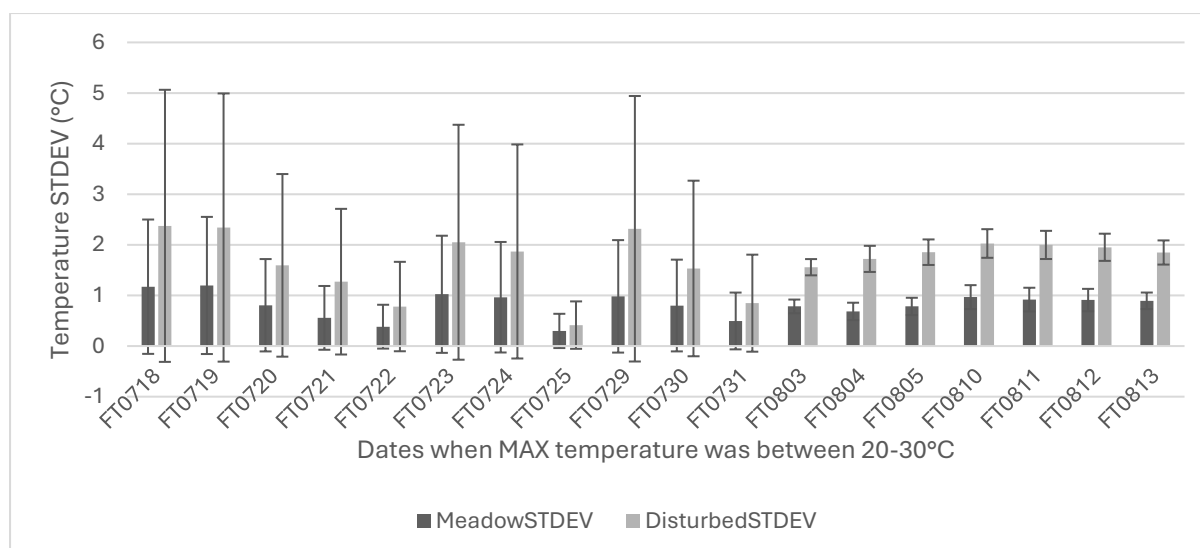


Figure 35 - STDEV of soil temperatures in EXP4 during the 8 hours leading up to daily MAX, for 17 days during the trial period, when MAX temperatures were as low as 19°C. Disturbed site consistently greater STDEV ($p < 0.001$) except a few days (5, 8, 9 and 12). Confidence limits (error bars) were quite dramatic for the Disturbed soil (grey columns), this is likely due to logger malfunction on those days resulting in lower n . Total $N = 129$

4.3.8 Desiccation period

Over the desiccation period in both drought simulation experiments (Drought1 and Drought2), soil moisture content declined more in the first 2 days and was lower in the final day, but the difference was much less (Figure 36). Samples with plants tended to show the most water loss (Figure 36). MC reflected temperature variables and on the final day both MAX and DTR were statistically higher for all samples, despite similar ambient temperatures (Figure 36) in Drought2 (Figure 37).

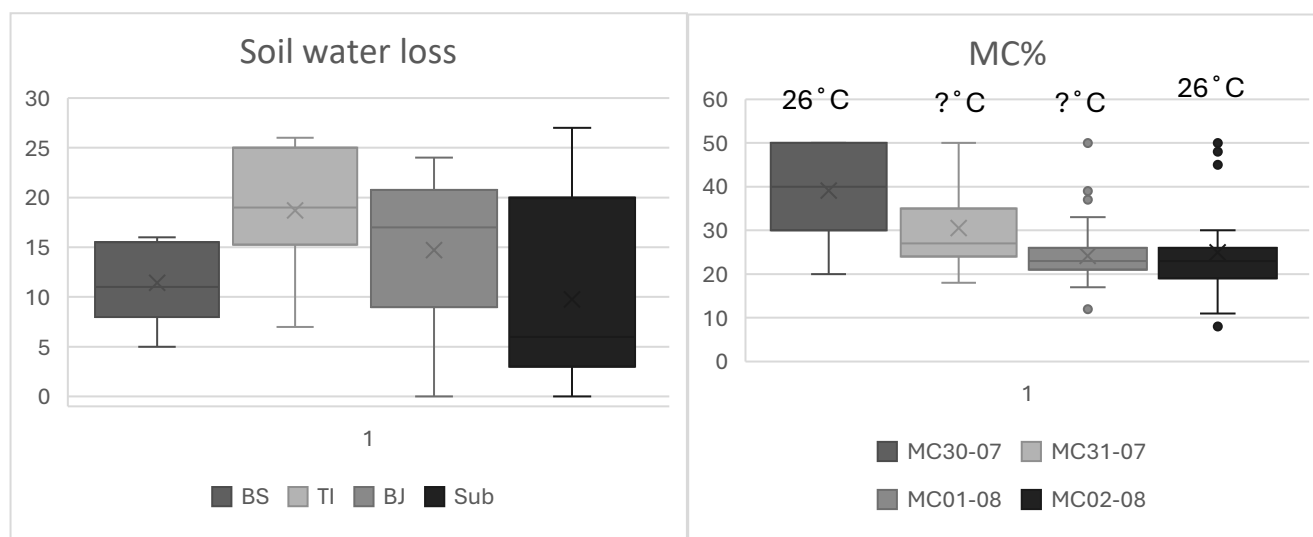


Figure 36 – Moisture content and soil water loss during Drought1 (24th-27th May) and Drought2 (30th July – 2nd August). Left, total water loss for each sample group in Drought1, where water loss was greater in sample groups with plants; Brassica Juncea (BJ) and Trifolium incarnatum (TI) Right, Moisture content (MC%) for all samples across the period of desiccation. Water reduced more rapidly in the first two days compared to the last two days. Ambient temperatures on the final day (above boxes) were on average the same as the first day $n=192$. Boxes are standard deviation and whiskers a ranges.

4.3.9 Temperature, moisture correlations

Across both desiccation periods, there was a clear highly significant negative correlation between moisture and temperature metrics such as DTR and MAX temperatures. Interestingly bare soil treatments showed lesser linear fit (lower r^2), than with plants (Figure 37). Most temperature metrics correlated negatively with MC% (MAX $p= 6.7361 \times 10^{-13}$, MIN $p= 7.4902 \times 10^{-12}$, MEAN $p= 1.806 \times 10^{-15}$, STDEV $p=0.022376$, DTR $p=8.0919 \times 10^{-12}$, CoeffVAR $p=0.065376$, Spearmans rank).

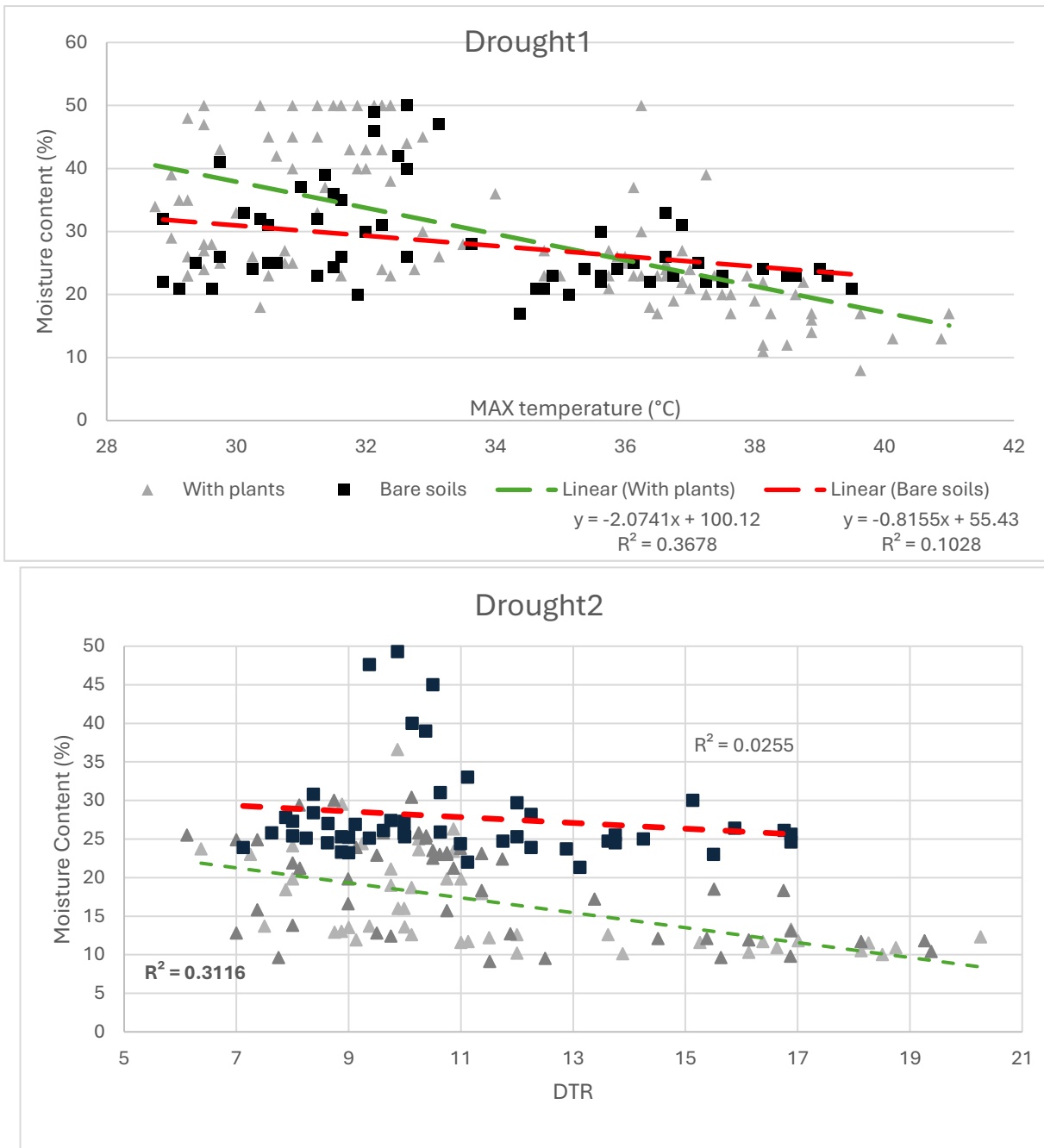


Figure 37 - Temperature and soil moisture correlations of two drought experiments (Drought 1 and Drought 2). . In both occasions samples with plants (triangle; green linear dashed trendline) showed better linear fit ($R^2=0.36$) compared to bare soils ($R^2=0.1$; square; red linear dashed trendline).

4.4 Discussion

4.4.1 Temperature variability as a soil health indicator

The utilization of temperature as an indicator of soil health is little discussed and complicated by a number of environmental factors, such as changes in weather, landscape formation, vegetation differences, soil management practices, etc (Al-Kaisi *et al.*, 2017). The experiments here have attempted to minimize these interferences and work in a controlled environment to better understand its implications in soil health monitoring. In many ways this has made the analysis more complicated, because ecosystems are emphatically open (Boltzmann, 1905; Schneider and Kay, 1995; Vihervaara *et al.*, 2019) and by closing them off, the trends that were expected have become a little obscure. However, some expectations were realised.

Soils with less structural heterogeneity (Sand and sub soil) in EXP1 and EXP2 were less attenuated (greater STDEV, DTR and CoeffVAR) than those with more distributed textural properties. Sand being the most variable overall (Figure 20, Figure 30 and Figure 31), followed by Subsoil (Figure 22, Figure 24 and Figure 30). In the first instance higher thermal conductivity of clay particles (Abu-Hamdeh, 2003) found in the loam soils compared to sand, has shown in previous literature to impact how fast the soils change in temperature (Sauer and Horton, 2005). That said, both the sub soil and the Loam soil contained the same amount of clay particles (Figure 15), indicating further contributing factors of the Subsoil's thermodynamic response. With its higher content of sand particles, the Subsoil had a lower density per surface area, which is known to increase the radiation of heat to the surroundings (Farouki, 1981). Furthermore, the reduced moisture holding capacity of the free draining sand soils would have undoubtedly had an impact. Water acts as a thermal mass, with high values of latent heat (Koorevaar *et al.*, 1983) and through the evaporation process, contributes to free energy dissipation (Abu-Hamdeh, 2003; see chapter 5).

Although both temperature variability indices (STDEV, DTR, CoeffVAR) and temperature metrics (MAX, MEAN and MIN), provided adequate distinction between the expected plant-soil models, MAX, MEAN and MIN, by far showed the greatest confidence (Figure 16, Figure 17, Figure 18 and Figure 19). Deviation from average trend lines in Figures 16 through 24, is indicative of the high variability as a result of a myriad of different interacting abiotic and biotic factors that drive energy flux (Lotka,

1922; Odum, 1969; Pokorný *et al.*, 2010; Michaelian, 2015; Vihervaara *et al.*, 2019; Suman *et al.*, 2020). Note that in most circumstances (Figure 16, Figure 17, Figure 18 and Figure 19), with the increase in soil structural heterogeneity or inclusion of plants (increasing complexity), deviation from the average trend line shallows, evidenced by the decrease from MAX and the increase from MIN, with similar decrease in variability indices. This demonstrates the buffering capacity of the plant-soil system (E. D. Schneider and Kay, 1994; Schneider and Kay, 1995; Jørgensen, 2006b, 2008b; Ferri and Arnés García, 2023) and fits the model presented in Figure 13, supporting the utilization of temperature as a thermodynamic indicator of ecological structure and function (Norris *et al.*, 2012; Michaelian, 2015; Avelar *et al.*, 2020).

The behaviour of soil temperature variability at extremes is different from the behaviour at mid-range temperatures. Overall there is a strong correlation between STDEV and MAX temperatures, a result of the relationship that STDEV has with the MEAN. However, Figure 28 highlights the influence that increasing temperatures has on temperature variability and how a loss of structure and function can negatively impact the systems ability to regulate itself (Santos *et al.*, 2019; Howe and Smith, 2021). The rate of temperature change is also affected (Figure 29) and diminishes toward the extremes, likely a result of the soil coming in to equilibrium with its surroundings at minimum and maximum events. At both extreme ends of the temperature scale (very low and very high), the rate of temperature change tends to be slower due to the physics of heat transfer and the limited capacity for molecules to absorb or release energy at those extremes; essentially, it takes more energy to significantly change the temperature when already very hot or very cold. The higher rates experienced are also reflected in the temperature bands (Figure 33 and Figure 34), where STDEV levels out between samples in lower temperature bands (15-25) and upper temperature bands (35-40), with significant differences experienced in mid-range temperature bands (25-35). That said, the fact that in EXP4 (field trial) showed differences between Disturbed and Meadow between 20-25, indicates that variation at relative to the specific conditions of the experiment. These novel findings warrant further research into the evolution of temperature variability at different temperature bands.

Drought scenarios were tested by desiccation, to explore the relationship with moisture content and thermal properties in water limiting conditions. MC was mostly negatively correlated with temperature measures and variability. As moisture decreases the system becomes increasingly more unable to dissipate the solar energy. The role of moisture and evapotranspiration is discussed in more detail in the following chapter 5, however it can be noted that the correlations drawn here support just how important moisture is in the dissipation of energy (Norris *et al.*, 2012; Michaelian, 2015; Avelar *et al.*, 2020). Interestingly, the results in Figure 19 and Figure 22 show that MIN temperature is a good indicator of the soils structural properties rather than soil moisture, whereby Sub soil in EXP2 and Sand in EXP1 were statistically lower MIN temperatures to other samples, but in EXP 3 there was no statistical difference between the 2 water regimes. Exploration into the relationship between soil temperature metrics and soil properties like moisture content and soil structure in this context could perhaps identify more specific uses of the individual temperature metrics, for example MIN temperatures indicative of soil structure and MAX temperatures indicative of soil function.

Complications of the simplified experimental design are more noticeable when examining the moisture content, in relation to the temperature. In some circumstances such as EXP3, the relationship to temperature is clear. Over the desiccation period in both drought simulation experiments (Drought1 and Drought2), soil moisture content declined more in the first 2 days and was lower in the final day, but the difference was much less (Figure 36). Samples with plants tended to show the most water loss (Figure 36). MC reflected temperature variables and on the final day both MAX and DTR were statistically higher for all samples, despite similar ambient temperatures (Figure 36) in Drought2 (Figure 37). However, with a lack of a true control group, careful analysis is required to distinguish the thermal regime as a result of the treatment (soil texture or with and without plants), or that influenced by the ambient temperatures. The ambient temperature of the final day of desiccation, when moisture levels were at a minimum (wilting point), was on both occasions, the highest. This challenges the ability to validate the results, due to the external influence of the ambient temperature. However, day 1 (30-07) of EXP3, was the same MAX ambient temperature (26°C) as day 4, despite a significantly lower MAX temperature experienced by the samples – day 1, 32.63 and day 4, 37.97 (Figure 36 and Figure 18). This shows disparity between

the ambient temperatures and the temperatures experienced within the soil samples, supporting the case for moisture influence. For the most part, correlation between moisture content and temperature metrics in is as expected and this experiment supports the consensus that soil thermal properties are somewhat driven by moisture content (Abu-Hamdeh, 2003), its variability with porosity and the volume fractions of solids (Farouki, 1981), however, needs further investigation, i.e. a more effective way to control the moisture content of the samples (explored in chapter 5).

The correlations drawn between temperature measures (MAX, MIN and MEAN) and variability indices (STDEV, DTR and Coeff VAR) validate the data with Figure 13 in support of temperature as a proxy of energy dissipation (Ulanowicz, 1997; Jørgensen and Fath, 2004; Ulanowicz, 2009c; Norris *et al.*, 2012; Molozzi *et al.*, 2013; Michaelian, 2015; Avelar *et al.*, 2020). Maximum temperatures, including the HiMAX and the LoMAX tend to correlate with measures of variability (Table 5 and Figure 28). As pressure from solar radiation increases so does variability. Increasing solar radiation inputs more energy in to the system and without the necessary structures and functioning to effectively dissipate the energy, a greater fraction is lost as heat, essentially due to a breakdown in entropy production and exergy storage (E. D. Schneider and Kay, 1994; Schneider and Kay, 1995; Jørgensen, 2006b, 2008b). Interestingly MIN temperatures, especially the LoMIN mostly correlated negatively with measures of temperature variation (Table 5). This fits the model in Figure 13 and the more homogenous soils were at the upper end of variability (Figure 28), corroborating previous research exploring temperature as an indicator of complexity and exergy storage (Norris *et al.*, 2012; Michaelian, 2015; Avelar *et al.*, 2020). Through the relationship with structure and function. This demonstrates that temperature can effectively determine the ability of a system to dissipate incoming solar radiation by examining the variability of temperature during the period leading up to the MAX.

Where this research is most open to refute is the impact of shading on the results in EXP2. Shading blocks the solar radiation and the energy of which is either absorbed by the object or reflected into the surroundings, which is of course true for the plant as well, but the mechanisms are different, one being where the energy is degraded or dissipated through biological processes and the other being a purely physical one. These figures were not gathered, however, shading (Sh) performed high in the ranking

of cross comparison (Figure 30), more similarly behaving like samples with plants, rather than bare soil. Indicating that the shading has a similar effect on thermal performance as biomass. On one hand this shows just how effective plants are at dissipating solar radiation, on the other hand it questions whether temperature is more a result of the plants simply acting as a shading object. In EXP 2, perhaps measurements of surface temperatures would facilitate the ability to discern the contributions of both the biological processes and the physical ones. However, despite there being a significant difference in temperatures overall between Disturbed and Meadow in the field trial, the difference between the surface and soil in each of the treatments was not found to be significant ($p=0.30252$), indicating that vegetation cover impacted both systems with strong biological influence. As such, none of the results here clarify whether shading is an influential factor and future research needs to understand this factor, before progressing with the concept.

4.4.2 In support of a thermodynamic approach to soil assessment and management

In the various experiments within this study the scientific enquiry compared samples/plots differing in their structural and functional properties, representing degrees of exergy. From pure sands and more homogenous soils to heterogenous textures, with and without plants, and diverse meadows. Temperature variability overall tended to decrease with more complex scenarios (Figure 30). This was expected, especially in the field trial, where previous research showed similar trends in forest eco-systems (Norris *et al.*, 2012; Michaelian, 2015; Avelar *et al.*, 2020). Heterogeneity within the physical and ecological structures, formed through plant-soil interactions (Ehrenfeld *et al.*, 2005) create gradients as the system distances from equilibrium (Chapter 3; Boltzmann, 1905; Schneider and Kay, 1995; Vihervaara *et al.*, 2019). High disturbance and/or in scenarios of highly eroded soils, where texture and structure is poor (Peipoch *et al.*, 2015; Parrish *et al.*, 2003); gradients diminish and thermodynamic growth factors such as entropy production, specific dissipation and specific exergy all decrease (Jørgensen *et al.*, 2000). Internal entropy builds (Lotka, 1922; Prigogine, 1955; E. D. Schneider and Kay, 1994; Aoki, 2012) and poor dissipation degrades energy in to heat.

As complexity builds (in scenarios containing plants or in the meadow), systems reduce their structural entropy, exporting it to the surroundings (Prigogine, 1967) and this is expressed in the individual temperature regimes (micro climate) of the samples.

Alter the mass of the system and the data indicates that it changes both the rate of temperature change (Figure 29) and the extreme values of temperature, both in terms of extreme highs (Figure 17 Figure 18 and lows Figure 19). An ecological succession, as in Figure 12 can be visualized from the results here (Figure 31). Thermodynamic performance is related to structure and function (Boltzmann, 1905; Schneider and Kay, 1995; Vihervaara *et al.*, 2019). Interestingly the meadow overall displayed the greatest significant difference from bare soil. Complex structures and greater levels of biomass and functional diversity, act to enhance the degradation of solar energy and regulate microclimate (Norris *et al.*, 2012). Despite soil moisture content converging between the disturbed and meadow sites (Figure 25), in the field trial, temperature variability is consistently significantly greater in the disturbed site. This provides exceptional evidence of how complexity builds more efficient structures to dissipate energy. A number of species cohabit the meadow habitat (Figure 14) and their interactions whether through promoting soil structure or promoting functionality appear to have a positive impact on the thermal properties and so the thermodynamic behaviour. Furthermore, soil texture (the heterogeneity of particle distribution) can also modulate the effects of climate change with its influence on carbon cycling in forests, including tree growth response and OM retention (Gómez-Guerrero and Doane, 2018).

During desiccation, samples containing plants for the most showed an increase in moisture loss, this is due to enhanced evapotranspiration and did not always reflect in temperatures. In this circumstance the expected trends became less obvious, but in many ways highlights the openness of natural systems (Chapter 3; Boltzmann, 1905; Schneider and Kay, 1995; Nielsen *et al.*, 2019; Vihervaara *et al.*, 2019). Evapotranspiration is a combined effect of evaporation from the soil and transpiration from plants and the latter moves water at a significantly higher rate, drying out the soil faster (chapter 5). This is evidenced by the greater moisture loss on average for the pots containing plants (Figure 36). It is worth noting at this point that previous literature suggests that vegetation and organic residues play a role in moisture retention (Howe and Smith, 2021), contrary to the perceived results here. However, as mentioned previously, this is a result of the isolation of the samples in this experiment. When the enquiry looks at the field trial where higher diversity samples yield significantly lower temperature variability despite similarly low moisture levels (at 10cm that is), it's clear how openness contributes to thermodynamic performance (Chapter 3; Boltzmann,

1905; Schneider and Kay, 1995; Nielsen *et al.*, 2019; Vihervaara *et al.*, 2019). With a consistent supply of moisture in the soil, free energy dissipation and the associated entropy production (Lotka, 1922; Prigogine, 1955; E. D. Schneider and Kay, 1994; Aoki, 2012), constituted by photon dissipation and transpiration, is reflected in the micro-climate of the meadow (Norris *et al.*, 2012; Michaelian, 2015; Avelar *et al.*, 2020).

This study provides evidence for the important role that structure and function play in energy dissipation (Jørgensen *et al.*, 2000). Supporting previous studies that examined complexity in the form of biomass, information and networks and its relation to ambient thermal properties (Eric D. Schneider and Kay, 1994; Norris *et al.*, 2012; Avelar *et al.*, 2020). To expand the knowledge base and explore belowground. The soil is often considered separate from the above ground structures, however they are in fact subsystems nested in larger interconnected systems (Gunderson and Holling, 2001). With cross scale interaction (chapter 2). Defined by an exchange of matter and energy across their individual boundaries. Overtime and with the advancement of complexity, these structures and autocatalytic loops refine, favouring loops with the least resistance (Ulanowicz, 1999, 2006, 2016). The resultant network is a more efficient version of itself based on the current constraints, reducing its structural entropy and therefore exporting entropy to its surroundings (Lotka, 1922; Epstein *et al.*, 2006; Henry and Schwartz, 2019). These changes can be measured in the form of microclimate and this research corroborates previous papers with similar objectives (Eric D. Schneider and Kay, 1994; Norris *et al.*, 2012; Avelar *et al.*, 2020).

To a certain degree, this study evidences the impact of plant-soil interactions and the uniqueness of individual species. First let it be stated that by no means does the author feel it is scientifically appropriate to directly compare two different species as 'treatments', as there are too many factors and variables that are not accounted for in the simplified experimental design here. It is merely to represent the potential investigation into the role of functional traits in the context of this thesis. An improved experimental design would perhaps follow a traditional approach and breed model organisms to have functional deficiencies of certain traits, in which to compare.

If then, the different species are in fact considered as functional representatives, from the results here, it is possible to speculate that the traits associated with *Trifolium*

incarnatum tend to result in a greater improvement in temperature variability compared to bare soil (Figure 30). This could of course be explained by a reduced transpiration from the smaller leaf area compared to BJ (Tribouillois *et al.*, 2015), that was leaving moisture in the soil, but this was not always consistent based on the data. Instead, it is also important to consider additional structures on this species that may enable more efficient energy dissipation. For instance, its rosette formation compared to the upright structure of the BJ. In EXP 2 dry weight as an indicator of biomass in both of the sample groups containing BJ, was twice that of TI (Figure 32), likely a result of the much greater leaf area (Tribouillois *et al.*, 2015). Again referring to the openness of ecological systems, here the greater biomass production is resulting in a poorer attenuation of temperature, indicative of limiting energy dissipation (Eric D. Schneider and Kay, 1994; Norris *et al.*, 2012; Avelar *et al.*, 2020). TI is operating within the boundaries of the species' resource utilization, whereas the competitive trait of BJ requires more resources that exceed the limit of the semi-isolated system. Further supporting the case for openness in agricultural systems. Moreover, the combined effects of enhanced biomass production and greater evapotranspiration that is perhaps using more water, exasperates the BJ's thermal performance and explains the hotter and more variable temperatures experienced in the *Brassica juncea* samples. Functional traits related to leaves (Tribouillois *et al.*, 2015b), may be a key variable in the difference between *Brassica Juncea* and *Trifolium incarnatum*. Although it was not measured, it fits well that leaf traits would influence energy dissipation, as they are closely related to both accumulation through photosynthesis and to control evapotranspiration, through stomata.

Although nodulation was not estimated due to the need for destructive sampling. Nodulation contributes to the uniqueness of the species. Legumes form refined autocatalytic loops that abate energy dissipation. Nodulation of Leguminous plants is a well-known structure that supports nutrient uptake and so structure formation. Although nodulation was not recorded here, it's fair to include in the assessment of the TI performance. An inoculant was added to one group of TI (TI+), but showed no statistical difference between the two. It is however difficult to make an assumption without data that confirms the extent of nodulation and could be an interesting avenue to take.

When the soil is viewed through the lens of different temperature bands, it shows that a goldilocks zone of thermodynamic function may be evident. In lower temperature bands, energy dissipation throughout all levels of complexity is similar and likewise in very high temperatures. Differences are primarily observed between 25° and 35° peak temperatures (Figure 33 and Figure 34). That said, the probes were not tested above 25°C which may mean that above this temperature they are not as accurate. Also, a stress response could be evident as low as 20°C as seen in the field trial (Figure 35). Understanding temperature thresholds better would further support the application of thermodynamics to soil health and further knowledge on the implications of ecological simplification on climate change.

Finally, In the field trial, surface temperatures mirrored soil temperatures. It highlights the relationship between soil and surface and how the soils ability to dissipate energy, influences microclimate at the surface (Sauer and Horton, 2005). Still maintaining their own temperature regime but intrinsically linked (Figure 26). Above all this along with many other results here bring to the attention of the scientific community, the necessity for openness that agricultural systems must adhere, to be truly sustainable.

4.4.3 Conclusions

Concepts of ecosystem health are rooted in systems-based perspectives, associated with theories on biodiversity and resilience (Michaelian, 2015). As such health indicators often look to species-based metrics and vulnerability to biotic and abiotic stressors, as well as quantitative measures of components, such as nutrient content (chapter 3). At present there is a lack of sufficient monitoring approaches to soil health (Lausch *et al.*, 2018a), which are simple and cost effective that practitioners can easily adopt (Michaelian, 2015; Avelar *et al.*, 2020).

Recently, enquiry into thermodynamics has shown potential for holistic indicators of soil health. This study corroborates research into thermodynamic indicators in mixed landscapes, taking the enquiry below ground and considering a holistic interpretation of plant-soil systems. The reason that temperature is a firm indicator of ecosystem function is due to the inherently thermodynamic character of living things. Ecosystem function can be extended to climate and temperature regulation through the development of structures that abet effective energy dissipation. Although it is important to maintain caution due to the simplified experimental design, the results

exemplify the intrinsically open character of eco-systems and the role this plays, in the structuring and functioning of the natural world.

The impact of shading on the soils thermal response needs to be properly understood in any future research into temperature as a thermodynamic indicator. What the results here show is that shading can give rise to a similar temperature response as vegetation. On one hand this does display the significance of above ground biomass on thermodynamic behaviour, however on the other hand it points out that temperature response may be a result of shading from vegetation rather than energy and matter flows, if they are in fact different.

One can surmise many structural and functional properties of eco-system's, yet none are more important and equally less investigated than the function of cycling energy and matter, that is driven by the interactions between above and below ground structures (Chapin *et al.*, 1998; Hooper *et al.*, 2000; Bardgett and van der Putten, 2014). This research has shown that feedback mechanisms between above ground biomass and the soil are tightly coupled and changes in the above ground thermodynamics (addition of living biomass) has an influence on the soils thermodynamic response. Temperature and micro-climate regulation is hypothesized to be a function of these processes and research in to temperature, with relation to structure and function, is only now emerging (Hobson and Ibisch, 2010; Norris *et al.*, 2012; Stoutjesdijk and Barkman, 2014; Zhang *et al.*, 2016; Greiser *et al.*, 2018). As far as the author is concerned; in agronomy, the transition to cropping systems that consider thermodynamics, is a number one pre-requisite to a sustainable future.

Temperature has shown its usefulness in determining energetics, through its relationship to exergy and complexity. The measures derived from temperature data here do effectively capture the variability and temperature attenuation has shown a formidable relationship to structure and function. However, many other metrics can be derived from the temperature data that may be of interest in future research, for example, considering the temperature data as a wave and examining metrics such as frequency, wavelength, and amplitude.

Finally, this study has highlighted the importance of soil moisture in energy dissipation. Without inflow of this precious resource, the thermodynamics break down and the

system heats up. The following chapter explores soil water and temperature in a controlled environment with the use of a novel methodology.

5 Investigating the relationship between temperature, water and energy dissipation.

5.1 Introduction

The experiment detailed here attempts to overcome some of the limitations in experimental design from the previous chapter, utilizing a novel method for drought simulation (Marchin *et al.*, 2020), to reveal the extent of moisture/temperature correlations. Exploring further their relationship with energy dissipation, their potential in soil bioindication and even identifying thresholds.

5.1.1 Soil moisture decline and the impact on ecological function

Evidence suggests that soil moisture is declining on a global scale. Between 2009 and 2019 in a study by the European Environment agency, soil moisture in the growing seasons of multiple years, was several times below the long term average (EEA, 2021). The increased frequency and intensity of drought pressure supports the investigation into drought tolerant and resilient agricultural practices. Global warming will undoubtedly accelerate water cycles, impacting soil moisture content (MC) in unknown ways. In a comprehensive study of the last 70 years Qin *et al.*, (2023) found that MC in the top 200cm of the soil is decreasing on average by a rate of 1.284 kg/m², increasing to 2.251 kg/m² from 2010-2020 specifically. This is attributed to global warming and precipitation reduction, and will continue to decay in the future; further aggravating the global water cycle and the variability of extreme meteorological disasters (Qin *et al.*, 2023).

Future climate models within already arid regions like the mediterranean, predict soil moisture deficits 5x over the standard deviation and up to 7x in extreme models (Soares and Lima, 2022). The frequency and severity of both precipitation and drought events are predicted to increase globally, impacting on critical soil processes such as microbial mediated decomposition of soil organic Carbon (Soares and Lima, 2022). In future scenario based simulations, Liang *et al.*, (2021) discovered that soil organic carbon decomposition rates were more sensitive to drying than wetting, emphasising a nonlinear response, where decreased decomposition by microbes during drying is not compensated by wetting. What more the decline in soil moisture is accompanied by an increase in temperature and vapor pressure deficit (Meng *et al.*, 2022). A fairly recent drought map developed by Pinke *et al.*, (2022), provides

alarming evidence of the extent of soil moisture decline across the entire continent, between 1981 and 2017. With half of European countries experiencing a deficit, the most severe in Southeastern countries and around the Mediterranean, soil moisture is predicted to continue declining, with deep connotations for soil processes (Qin *et al.*, 2023). In fact, in extreme arid areas of the world such as Portugal, this has even been predicted as much as a 20% decrease (Soares and Lima, 2022). Furthermore, without addressing climate related soil drying, up to 29% of global land could experience significant soil moisture depletion (Joo *et al.*, 2020).

In corroboration with Huang and van den Dool (1993) and Illston *et al.*, (2004), Agboma and Itenfisu, (2020) demonstrated that precipitation anomalies of less than the average long term rainfall amounts, decrease the upper soil moisture and lead to above average summer temperatures. This has been evidenced in many studies related to climate, or the predictability of soil moisture and temperature. The amazon basin, for example, where anomalies on air temperature correlate with anomalies in soil moisture (Tang and Chen, 2017). In Arctic-alpine environments, soil moisture and temperature can be extremely variable (Aalto *et al.*, 2013). Temperature can vary by 5 degrees and moisture by 50% over 1m distance (Aalto *et al.*, 2013). This is strongly effected by local vegetation (Aalto *et al.*, 2013). Different vegetation covers can lead to differences in water retention and there is a strong correlation between average MC and soil OM content (Wang *et al.*, 2013). Soil organic carbon in particular, influences soil hydrology due to its structural properties and its impact on soil wettability (Védère *et al.*, 2022). On the other hand, water availability influences biological activity itself across all scales, from precipitation levels shaping plant communities at the landscape scale, to the facilitation of OM decomposition at the micro scale (Védère *et al.*, 2022).

The relationship between temperature and moisture in the soil has been studied for some time (Al-Kayssi *et al.*, 1990; Z. Zhang *et al.*, 2020), largely considered a product of the increased solar energy absorption resulting in greater heat storage capacity at higher MC (Al-Kayssi *et al.*, 1990), which was also found to positively impact plant growth rate (Al-Kayssi *et al.*, 1990). As such, soil moisture and temperature are significant factors affecting crop growth and development in agriculture, as well as being extremely influential factors for regional climate change, making their relationship increasingly more important to understand. Z. Zhang *et al.*, (2020) reported an inverse proportional relationship with soil moisture and temperature in a

farmland setting and being that temperature is a strong determinate of crop growth, this exemplifies the need to address soil drying in agricultural landscapes. Furthermore, recent investigation in the field of ecosystem thermodynamics has started to draw comparisons between soil moisture, temperature and ecosystem function, exploring their utilization in health monitoring (Ulanowicz and Hannon, 1987; E. D. Schneider and Kay, 1994; Ibisch *et al.*, 2010; Norris *et al.*, 2012; Michaelian, 2015; Lin *et al.*, 2018a, 2020; Avelar *et al.*, 2020). As drought severity increases alongside the prospect of concurrent drought scenarios (Hoover *et al.*, 2021), understanding thresholds of soil drying and how it may impact on key ecological processes, such as energy dissipation, is a necessity.

5.1.2 Evapotranspiration as a key process in energy dissipation

Thermo-hydrological processes are critical processes in the Earth system. The Earth is emphatically thermodynamic and the thermal and hydrological regimes are intrinsically linked. Work that began a century ago with Lotka (1922), concerning energy flows (see chapters 2 and 3), shifted early reductionism to systemic approaches rooted in physical laws, discussed extensively in chapter 3.

The second law is reflected in soil water movement as it depletes gradients in soil water potential (Hildebrandt *et al.*, 2016). Energy is dissipated as the molecules in water spread out (Hildebrandt *et al.*, 2016). Water along with every other substance in the universe, exists in one of three phases, dependent upon the temperature and the pressure, and (unless at triple point) distinct boundaries of phase change exist, manipulated by thermodynamics. Water vapour has a higher entropy than liquid and for every infinitesimal amount of vaporized water, a quanta of entropy is exported to the surroundings. In fact nearly half of the entropy production by atmospheric circulation is through the hydrological cycle (Pauluis, 2005). The evapotranspiration process dissipates the energy in the water inside the plant/soil, by dumping high entropy water vapour into the surroundings. This acts to cool the system primarily due to the phase shift as particles at the surface of the water gain energy from the medium. At a fundamental level, evaporation defines a phase change of energetic molecules, lowering the average energy of the molecules that remain, which are then open to absorb energy from the surroundings. Temperature is not a limiting factor as some of the molecules always have enough energy to enter the gas phase. Soil evaporation drives water availability and the portioning of sensible and latent heat (Koorevaar *et*

al., 1983; Abu-Hamdeh, 2003; Hesslerová *et al.*, 2019). Evaporation occurs primarily at the soil surface, dependant on atmospheric demand (Or and Lehmann, 2019), dropping below the surface in low moisture levels due to the formation of a dry soil crust, which significantly slows evaporation (Lehmann, 2023).

Networks of plant-soil interactions that characterize ecological systems can be considered as part of a water column and are primarily active in the top 60cm of the soil horizon, which is the main water consumption area. Soil moisture is affected by evapotranspiration and as such, it moves upwards through the soil matrix (Y. Wang *et al.*, 2021). Soil moisture fluctuation signals reflect evapotranspiration and when evapotranspiration is large water transport increases (Y. Wang *et al.*, 2021). Below 60 cm is the main water storage area. Surface layers respond much quicker to precipitation whereas it can take over 260 hours for deeper layers to respond and movement of water can occur over 7 hours after the upper layers (Y. Wang *et al.*, 2021). Deeper layers respond a lot slower to temperature and/or precipitation anomalies (Yuan *et al.*, 2015; Yin *et al.*, 2018) and soil moisture persists longer in deep layers rather than shallow (Wang and Shi, 2019). Moisture anomalies in the deep soil exhibit the longest hydrological memory compared to shallow and intermediate soil levels (Agboma and Itenfisu, 2020), as such, MC at surface soil layers are better at predicting short term drought and MC at deeper soil layers are better at predicting long term drought (Xu *et al.*, 2021).

Evapotranspiration accounts for much of the energy dissipation within plant-soil systems and can be measured in the form of microclimate regulation (Norris *et al.*, 2012; Michaelian, 2015; Avelar *et al.*, 2020). As demonstrated by Pokorný *et al.*, (2010), through the process of evapotranspiration, solar energy utilized by ecosystems for self-organization (chapter 2) acts to cool the system by exporting entropy to its surroundings, in the form of heat. Forests and wetlands are often discussed in terms of their mitigation potential to climate change through their function as a sink or source of greenhouse gases. However, the permanent vegetation has a direct impact on climate change through the process of evapotranspiration (Hesslerová *et al.*, 2019). The water held in wet vegetation transforms solar energy into a greater proportion of latent heat within water vapor. This phase change of water that occurs through evapotranspiration has a significant cooling effect, mitigating thermal extremes and closing water cycles. For example, a desert oasis forms a stable cool microclimate

which is not only helpful for vegetation growth, it creates a thermal circulation between the oasis and the adjacent desert that conserves water vapour over the oasis (Gao *et al.*, 2004). These processes slowdown in simplified and degraded eco-systems, increasing the proportion of sensible heat, creating a warming effect (Norris *et al.*, 2012; Michaelian, 2015; Avelar *et al.*, 2020). Although transpiration is largely considered to be light limiting, in soil water abundant tropical forests, however, Meng *et al.*, (2022) provided some interesting evidence to support a switch to water limiting under drought conditions, during the 2015-2016 El Nino drought.

Evapotranspiration rate seems to hold significance to structure and even function, a body of water for instance will evaporate water at a slower rate than a saturated bare soil, related to the difference in thermal properties between soil and water, driven by their structural properties (Li *et al.*, 2020). The additional structure of plants further increases the rate (Chapter 4) and vegetation restoration even at landscape scales can cumulatively increase evapotranspiration rate (Qingming *et al.*, 2022). Interestingly, increasing vegetation cover can lead to soil water deficits and a decrease in rainfall infiltration (He *et al.*, 2024). In fact He *et al.*, (2024) found that bare patches facilitated the recharge of and retention of soil water. Similarly, C. Zhang *et al.*, (2020) found that introduced shrubs decreased soil water resources which led to degradation and lower species richness, concluding that in water limiting areas, grassland establishment may be a more suitable restoration goal. As such, restoration efforts must pay particular attention to soil moisture dynamics.

Hydrological cycles are linked to the surface energy balance and water emissions from soil through evaporation is a key process, limited by soil surface characteristics (albedo, roughness, residues) and hydraulic properties, as well as precipitation and solar energy (Lehmann, 2023). Evapotranspiration is an important ecological process, substantiated by comprehensive information on transpiration, in both natural settings ((Meng *et al.*, 2022) and agroforestry systems (Zhao *et al.*, 2022) on open-water evaporation (Shaw, 2005; Harwell, 2012) and well-watered crop lands (Allen *et al.*, 1998; Jensen and Allen, 2016). However little is discussed from bare soil (Quinn *et al.*, 2018), especially in reference to temperature and ecological function. It is the hysteresis between drying and wetting that is thought to dominate energetic dissipation, where significant heating is caused (McNamara, 2014).

5.1.3 Hypothesis

“During limited moisture conditions, the energy dissipation associated with evaporation and the ability of the soil to store energy are impeded, leading to hotter and less attenuated temperatures” (Norris *et al.*, 2012; Michaelian, 2015; Avelar *et al.*, 2020).

5.2 Methods

5.2.1 Experimental design

The design of the experiment followed a revisitation to a novel method for maintaining constant MC in potted soil from Marchin *et al.*, (2020). The method utilizes the capillary action of floral foam in combination with a water reservoir to achieve fairly precise soil moisture constants. Four tanks, each containing a slab of floral foam, were fed by two reservoirs on stop cocks, one of which was height adjustable to simulate the slowly reducing water table. The four tanks (two for each treatment) were connected using low-density polyethylene piping and were arranged to achieve the best variation in positioning as possible, given the constraints of the experiment (see diagram below). Following leak testing of the tanks the floral foam was placed inside them and water level brought up to the highest in all four to begin the experiment.

3L pots were used that were slender enough to fit 6 on each floral foam slab (Plate 6). Large holes were made in the base of the pots that was then lined with a tightly woven, thin fleece material to allow moisture to pass but contain the soil above. This was so that when the pots were placed on to the foam, there would be sufficient contact with the soil to ensure water transport. The pots were then filled to equal volumes and weighed before being placed on the saturated floral foam slabs.



Plate 6 - Photograph of experiments setup. The wet and dry treatments were separated in to 2 sets of 6 pots and were positioned diagonally from each other to minimize to a certain degree the location influence on temperature.

The soil used was purchased from a nearby top soil quarry and was sterilised and sieved at 4-6mm, for ease of filling the pots, whilst preserving the integrity of macro-aggregates (Kravchenko *et al.*, 2015; Zhou *et al.*, 2020). Analysis of the particle size distribution measured as a pure loam (refer to Loam soil in chapter 4) . pH was 6.5 on average. Field capacity is approximated at 30% for good loams and less than 10% for permanant wilting point (Romano and Santini, 2002).

5.2.2 Data collection

Two data sets were collected, continuous temperature and regular MC estimates. Temperature data was measured by way of bespoke built temperature array and data logger. The system utilized Arduino prototyping boards alongside Dallas precision temperature sensors, that stored data on to an SD card at 15 minute intervals. Time was kept by a regularly synced real time clock and the system logged following an external clock source that switched the system on and off at the desired intervals. The temperature sensors were positioned at a 10cm depth from the top of the soil surface,

through a hole made in the side of the pots, that was moisture sealed using IP65 rated glands, to minimize moisture exchange with the atmosphere in the sides of the pots. Ambient temperature data was available but limited and the daily highs of some days are included in Appendix F (Summary data for Figure 38).

MC was measured by weight of the samples and in the control group was maintained at approx. 30% to follow field capacity (Romano and Santini, 2002). The initial dry weight was used as a reference and the subsequent increase in weight was taken as water in the sample, calculated as a mass percentage of the total weight of the whole sample. This was taken weekly and sometimes twice a week. Plants were not included in this trial, firstly to remove the influence of plants on the weight of the samples. Secondly, to remove any interreference of transpiration and create a baseline to work from of a worst-case scenario for an agricultural system.

5.2.3 Statistics and data analysis

Continuous temperature data recording at intervals of 15 minutes generates vast data sets of thousands of data points and can be extremely time consuming to analyse. As such a bespoke basic analytical programme was written using Python's data analytics toolkits. This was primarily to speed up the analysis process, but also to rectify some occasional faults in the temperature array. The Python script took the raw data and firstly identified any missing data points that were due to power issues, or other glitches in the operations, it did this by comparing the date column to a complete date series. With these infrequent gaps identified the code interpolated the data as it needed complete data sets to run the next step. The code looked 8 hours back from the maximum (MAX) temperature of each day and calculated the average (MEAN) and standard deviation (STDEV), these three parameters (MAX, MEAN and STDEV) were then used in statistical analysis. A further step to save time was employed on Excel to automatically extract and transpose the data into workable columns and rows.

Looking back 8 hours from the MAX temperature, gave the rise in solar radiation up to the peak incidence. The STDEV of this shows the variability of this solar flux in the system. These two parameters were compared between treatments on a daily basis and correlations between moisture and temperature were analysed. MC was also interpolated between analysis dates to give an estimate for each and every day of the

experiment, that could be correlated with temperature data. Correlations were examined in terms of the difference between the control and the treatment.

5.3 Results

5.3.1 Soil moisture and temperature over time

Both the STDEV and the MAX temperatures deviated in conjunction with soil moisture content Figure 38. Significant at juncture from the 31st May ($p=0.0164$; Mann-whitney). Occurring on a day where MAX temperatures were 34.80°C-37.27°C and a difference of 10.6% SMC was recorded between drought and control group corresponding to a temperature difference of 2.46 degrees. Preceding this a consistent difference in STDEV ($p>0.00117<0.05$) followed and on average there was an increase in MAX temperature of 1°C for every 4.33% drop in moisture, during this period (+/- 0.87%).

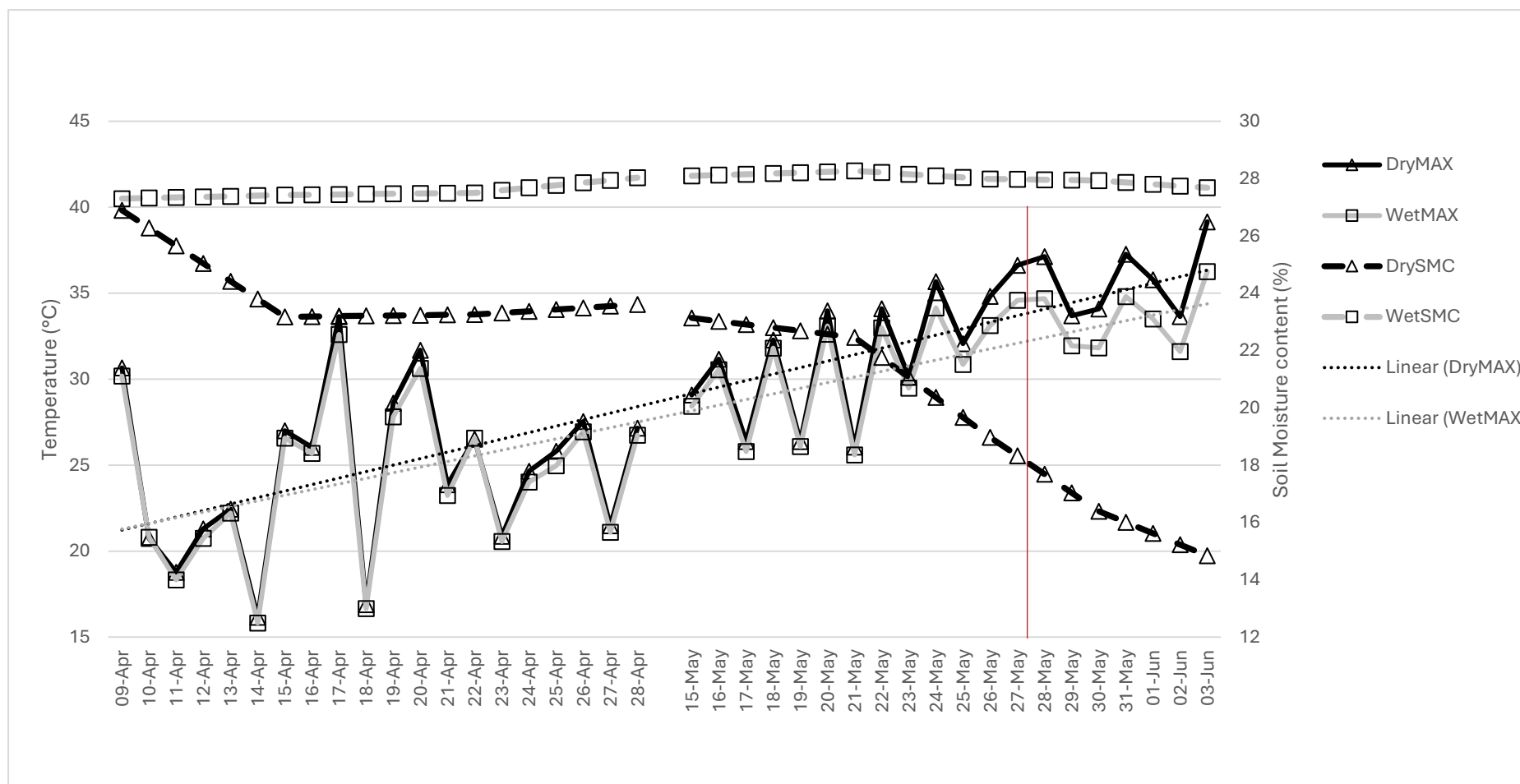


Figure 38 – Combined graph of maximum temperature (MAX; solid lines) measured as temperature (°C) on the left axis; with soil moisture content as a percentage (SMC; dashed lines), on the right axis. SMC was steady in the control group (WetSMC; grey) and the slow reduction of soil moisture in the treatment is evident (DrySMC; red) Temperature indices of treatments (MAX and STDEV) mirror each other and the drought treatment begins to separate around the 24th May, to a significant difference on 31st May ($p > 0.00117 < 0.05$; red vertical line). Total N=120.

5.3.2 Soil moisture and temperature correlations

The difference in MAX and the difference in MC were calculated and compared to create a model of soil water and temperature with soil drying (Figure 39). The graph shows an exponential curve with high regression fit (0.841) and that a 12% (+/- 0.7%) decrease in soil moisture can increase MAX by nearly 3 degrees (+/-0.22°C). Refer to Appendix F for summary statistics.

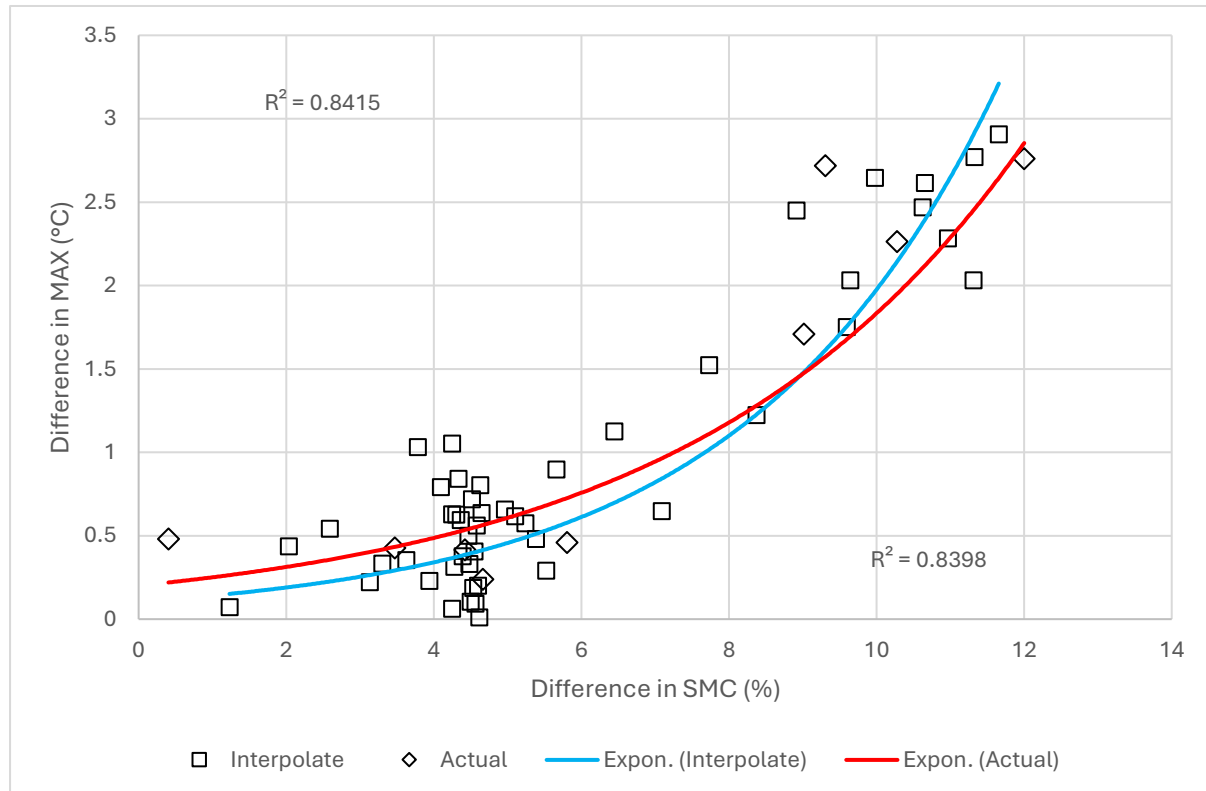


Figure 39 – The difference in MAX temperatures between Wet and Dry soil as compared to the difference in MC. At similar moisture contents MAX difference between Wet and Dry show little deviation and don't begin to separate until around 6% becoming significant at 10% difference, occurring around the 31st May ($p < 0.0001$, Mann-Whitney). Each data point is the average difference between wet and dry for one day of the trial period. The trend shows good regression fit to exponential curve and the interpolated moisture data (square) fits well to the actual moisture data (diamond). $n=24$, over 54 days).

5.3.3 Thermodynamic recovery

Following re-wetting, a recovery of the temperature regime was evident, indicating that soil thermodynamics have an inherent resilience to drought, following soil water recovery (Figure 40). Appendix F gives summary data for the figure.

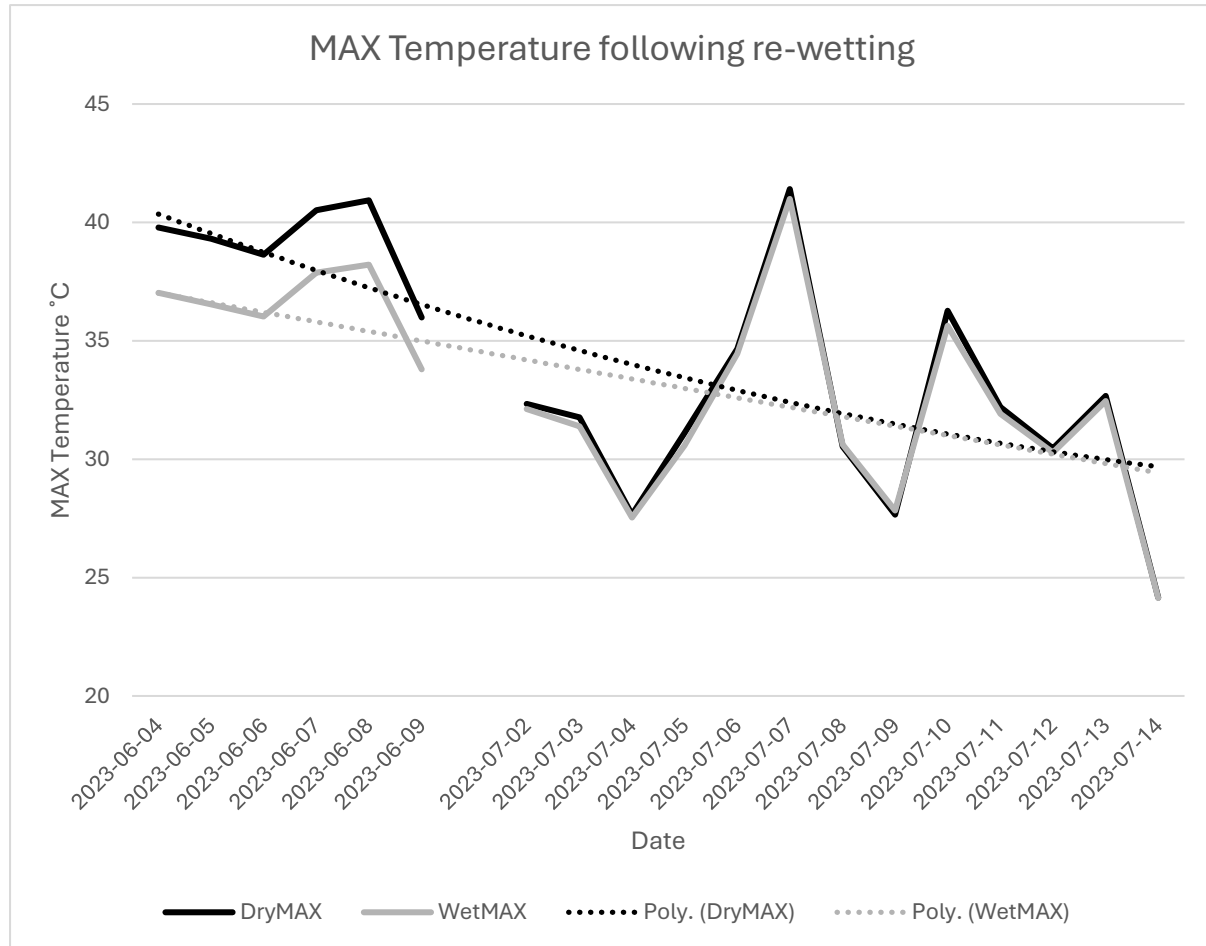


Figure 40 – MAX temperatures averaged across both treatments overtime, whilst the soil moisture was equalised between wet and dry. Dry samples re converged with the wet samples sometime in between 9th June and 2nd July, the exact date is unknown due to data loss from sensor malfunction. Total N=102

5.4 Discussion

5.4.1 Temperature and moisture as functional indicators.

Above all, this data confirms temperature's intrinsic relationship with soil moisture and the two as potential functional indicators. As indicators of function within managed landscapes such as agricultural systems, continuous measuring of temperature and moisture offer an accessible and simplistic way of monitoring the soil. Continuous measurements allow the inspection of temporal variation, capturing the systems state of flux. MAX indicates the peak solar incidence and STDEV (of the 8 hours before MAX) the variability as solar radiation increases to that point. The results here support the findings of similar studies investigating the relationship with soil temperature and moisture (Al-Kayssi *et al.*, 1990; McNamara, 2014; Z. Zhang *et al.*, 2020). In particular, Figure 39 shows an exponential relationship between the two and although this correlation is fairly well documented (Al-Kayssi *et al.*, 1990), it is poorly understood (Z. Zhang *et al.*, 2020) and reference to ecosystem functioning is very little discussed. It does however have some meaningful relevance to field studies in to thermodynamic indicators above ground (Ulanowicz and Hannon, 1987; Eric D. Schneider and Kay, 1994; Ibisch *et al.*, 2010; Norris *et al.*, 2012; Michaelian, 2015; Lin *et al.*, 2018a; Avelar *et al.*, 2020).

As evapotranspiration is the main form of energy dissipation (Michaelian, 2015) and it is intrinsically linked to ecosystem function (Pokorný *et al.*, 2010; Hesslerová *et al.*, 2019), it follows that MC has an influence on thermodynamic stability. As moisture evaporates from the soil and disperses, entropy is exported with it (Pauluis, 2005; Hesslerová *et al.*, 2019). In optimum soil water conditions (likely close to field capacity), the system responds with a greater ability to dissipate incoming solar radiation and an increase in entropy export (Jørgensen, 2002; Fath *et al.*, 2004; Aoki, 2012). In water limiting conditions, energy dissipation and entropy export diminish (Hildebrandt *et al.*, 2016; Pauluis, 2005) and the resulting build-up of high entropy wastes, yields erratic temperature readings (Norris *et al.*, 2012; Michaelian, 2015; Avelar *et al.*, 2020). The results support the case for temperature as an effective indicator of function, hinting at a fundamental role of soil moisture in maintaining thermodynamic stability and ecosystem function in bare soil.

The correlation between moisture loss and difference in temperature (Figure 39) has a high R^2 for the exponential curve, indicating that nearly 90% of the variability in the results can be explained by this curve. This provides evidence of the profound influence moisture has on the thermodynamic stability of the soil and so the ecosystem function (Jørgensen, 2006b). Moisture enhances the ability of the soil to store and dissipate incoming energy through supporting the formation of biomass, information and networks (Jørgensen, 2006b), see chapter 3. Moisture lubricates the growth and development of biological activity which in turn supports ecosystem function.

The movement of water through the soil and in to the atmosphere creates the necessary gradient in soil water potential to enable effective energy dissipation (Hildebrandt *et al.*, 2016). A statistical difference between wet and dry occurred on the 31st May (Figure 38) and corresponded to a difference in MC of 10%. Could this represent a threshold?

5.4.2 Understanding thresholds and mechanisms of water retention

Historical predictions from arid environments carried out by Soares and Lima, (2022), revealed a potential 5x over the standard deviation and current soil moisture deficits of between 5 and 20%. The data here shows that although 5% deficits do not impact ecological function, 20% certainly will. The 5% decrease in MC remained thermodynamically stable for the period of the analysis (Figure 38). The first significant difference occurred on the 30th May 2023 (Mann Whitney, $p=0.00060352$), when the Drought samples averaged at 34.085 and the Control group at 31.8225, a difference of 2.2625°C. This represented a MC difference of 10.2%. Precipitation anomalies that may cause soil moisture deficit are shown to increase temperatures in accordance with Agboma and Itenfisu, (2020). This is proposed to have a detrimental affect on fundamental processes such as soil organic carbon decomposition (Liang *et al.*, 2021). What is more interesting is that the thermodynamic destabilization appears exponential, in that a mere 3% further decrease in MC takes the MAX temperatures up to 3 degrees on average. This is a significant increase in MAX temperature!

Understanding thresholds more clearly can support the more sustainable use of water in agriculture. For example, if the temperature response becomes significant at 10% below field capacity, which can be interpreted as a threshold for MC, it suggests that

eco-system function can still perform to the same level, in MC as low as 10% below field capacity. If soil moisture and temperature was recorded regularly in the soil this threshold could inform when to irrigate more sustainably. With recommendations based on thermodynamic performance rather than solely crop growth factors. These are of course an important consideration, however a trade-off must be met between this and ecological integrity. Of course, this threshold is only representative of the physical constraints of the experimental design here and no way reflects natural conditions (likely more exaggerated). However, it still provides some insight and prompts further investigation, giving a starting point for future study.

The difference in temperature indices increased exponentially with the difference in MC between the wet and dry samples. Indicating that at high moisture levels, when MC is low, the slower evaporation (Han and Zhou, 2013) is not as effective at dissipating solar energy (Pokorný *et al.*, 2010). Without a steady supply of moisture in the soil, solar radiation is converted in to a higher proportion of sensible heat (Koorevaar *et al.*, 1983; Abu-Hamdeh, 2003; Hesslerová *et al.*, 2019) which creates a warming effect, especially at solar maximum (MAX). This corroborates previous studies that have investigated above ground micro-climate (Norris *et al.*, 2012; Michaelian, 2015; Avelar *et al.*, 2020).

The evaporative process of moisture from the soil is known to follow three distinct stages. Going from a relatively high rate in stage 1, followed by a lower rate in stage two and a very low rate in stage 3 (Han and Zhou, 2013), a saturated bare soil will evaporate water faster than a dry bare soil (Li *et al.*, 2020). Although evaporation rate was not estimated, it can be assumed that in the latter stages of moisture loss the evaporation rate was slowed significantly, impacting the ability of the samples to dissipate solar energy, resulting in the exponential curve of temperature indices and MC correlation (Figure 39). Re-wetting and the short-term recovery from drought (Figure 40), appeared to return the dry soils back to baseline (mirroring the wet samples). This confirms that the MAX temperatures relate to soil moisture and the soil here may show some level of resilience to short term drought.

This experiment only looked at bare soil, so it is not possible to confirm the influence of plant addition. However, crop growth consumes a lot of soil water, especially when vigorously growing, and will likely exasperate the situation (Z. Zhang *et al.*, 2020). This

begs the question, how do natural systems regulate themselves and what are the mechanisms of soil moisture retention and acquisition present in the natural world, to inform agricultural practice. The development of effective mitigation strategies for the emerging climatic threats is compromised by a lack of understanding of how natural and managed eco/biological systems respond to shifting hydrological and climatological regimes. Evapotranspiration is the key variable linking eco-system functioning, climate feedbacks, agricultural management and resource (water) use (Fisher *et al.*, 2017).

5.5 Conclusions

The research here confirms to some degree that moisture and temperature are effective together as indicators of soil function. This is related to the role of moisture in evapotranspiration, which is a fundamental process that promotes effective energy dissipation. Although MC measurements were not continuous, interpolation was carried out and assumes a linear decline of MC following drying which may not be the case. However, due to the stability of MC given by the equipment in the experimental design (i.e. the floral foam), it is satisfactory for the results of this experiment. In addition the actual data showed good linear fit to the interpolated data.

The experiment promotes utilization of a novel experimental design for drought simulation, that has been revisited by Marchin *et al.*, (2020). Compared to digital mechanisms for controlling MC, this method is very cost effective, although the floral foam in that volume is not cheap and it is also not reusable once dried, not to mention the adverse environmental impact. There is perhaps a need to explore other materials with similar properties, to make this type of experimental design more cost effective with lower environmental impact.

Evidence is presented that conforms to expectations, of the correlation between soil moisture and temperature. However, the role of evapotranspiration was only speculated and measurements of evapotranspiration itself would have supported the argument further. Long term monitoring of evapotranspiration and temperature in the field would enable a deeper understanding of the concepts here. Eddy covariance method is considered a reasonable method for estimating evapotranspiration and linking to temperature variables, however this is extremely costly. Temperature alone

is a fraction of the cost and if temperature can be utilized just as effectively, this would make the monitoring of energy dissipation much more accessible to farmers and agronomists.

The recovery of temperature regime with rewetting, both confirms the relationship and is quite reassuring. Indicating that short term drought situations are recoverable. However, the research here makes no effort to explore longer term drought scenarios, or perhaps the hysterical drying and wetting regimes. Future research would benefit from the exploration in to how drought legacies may effect long term ecological function (Hoover *et al.*, 2021).

Above all, the study shows how moisture is an important factor in energy dissipation and that the ability of a system to sustain evapotranspiration, is fundamental to its effective thermodynamic functioning. This experiment was carried out under laboratory conditions and may not reflect real life situations. It was also carried out with bare soil and no inclusion of plants, however this process is expected to exacerbate the results here, due to the openness of ecological systems. The experiment only looked at bare soil and significantly underrepresents the effects that plants have in the system. Future research would benefit from exploring relationship with plant biomass and temperature in drought scenarios, to further understanding of the role of soil moisture in energy dissipation. However, estimations of mass would need a robust method to ensure accuracy.

Moisture has revealed itself as a key variable in energy dissipation. Agricultural practice would benefit from research in to mechanisms of soils moisture acquisition and retention to support sustainable and resilient agro-ecological systems. Resilient soil is dependant on the ability of soil to dissipate energy, mediated by microorganisms. The following chapter explores holistic management in the context of resilience whilst introducing a novel indicator related to energy and matter interchange.

6 Novel analysis of REDOX potential, as a resilience indicator, in the transition to holistic agricultural practice.

6.1 A shift in soil management

The ability to predict the evolution of the planet, as mankind faces unpredictable climatic changes, is high on the agenda of politicians; as is measurables of key descriptors of eco-system health, such as resilience (Nielsen *et al.*, 2020). Resilience is defined by the systems ability to bounce back to its stable state . Perturbations caused by stressors (heat, flooding, etc), destabilize systems and depending upon severity, can cause a collapse and reorganisation, shifting the soil in to a new regime (Gunderson and Holling, 2003). Resilience is the flexibility inherent in complex systems, and is not to be confused with resistance which is far more a result of constraint (Ulanowicz, 2020). In the case for species compositions, Resilience and resistance form thresholds that relate to both response diversity and functional diversity, respectively (Ludwig *et al.*, 2018). The former being the range of reactions to environmental change among species, contributing to the same function; the latter being a community of functionally dissimilar, but complementary species (Elmqvist *et al.*, 2003). A focus on resilience over resistance would help to increase effectiveness of agro-ecological management (Elmqvist *et al.*, 2003).

Land use change from agricultural development impairs soils physical, chemical and biological processes (Kv *et al.*, 2019). Proper planning and management is crucial and healthy soils can only be achieved by conserving key traits that involve biomass, structure, water storage, nutrient cycling, biological activity and biodiversity (Lal, 2004; Khormali *et al.*, 2009; Ayoubi *et al.*, 2014; Azizsoltani *et al.*, 2019). Holistic management is slowly being regarded as an important feature to developing sustainable agro-ecosystems. Low tillage systems for example have been found to improve soil structure, aggregate stability, biological diversity, OM and nutrients, water and water use efficiency; reducing degradation, erosion and greenhouse gas emissions (Hassan *et al.*, 2022). Organic farming has been shown to offer greater protection and resilience to environmental changes (Jouzi *et al.*, 2017). Furthermore, it is slowly becoming apparent that OM is a key variable in soil resilience and in a comprehensive assessment of soil degradation through novel analysis of satellite imagery, Nascimento *et al.*, (2022) found that locations with less OM presented a higher degradation level, supporting the case for exploration in to management

regimes that promote OM retention in the soil (Alexander, 1978; Afshar *et al.*, 2010; Sanderman and Berhe, 2017).

Soil resilience is the “Capacity of the soil to recover its **functional and structural** integrity after a disturbance; where this integrity can be considered as soils capacity to perform essential soil functions” (Karlen *et al.*, 1997). As discussed in previous chapters structure and function is seen to be closely related to the thermodynamic character of a system. Natural systems abide to thermodynamic laws, in that, living things utilize energy from photons to drive mass flows, that contribute to maintenance and growth and in line with second law, export entropy to their surroundings (chapter 3). From a thermodynamic perspective, holistic management seeks to preserve the natural processes evolved over millions of years, that maintain eco-system function (see chapter 2 and 3). In the thermodynamic model of a farm in chapter 3, by Jordan (2016), the system relies on energy subsidies to maintain order. Jordan (2016) argued that holistic management is favourable, as endosmotically derived feedback mechanisms promote natural organisation and thus less reliance on energy subsidies. For example, under heat and drought stress conditions Yuan *et al.*, (2024) found a dynamic interplay between plant and soil, whereby plants leverage on microbes to improve resilience.

A thermodynamic characterisation of agricultural soils would help to study and understand the complex interactions between organisms, substrate and atmosphere and better inform transition to sustainable practices. A challenging goal considering the difficulties in direct measurement of thermodynamic variables, such as exergy (Chapter 3; Nielsen *et al.*, 2020). The previous chapters have explored temperature metrics as viable proxies of thermodynamic variables, showing their ability to distinguish between levels of complexity and their intrinsic relationship to soil water. This chapter explores another soil metric with huge potential. Recent studies have emphasized the application of REDOX potential in health monitoring, due to its intrinsic link to microbial activity and OM (biomass) (Husson *et al.*, 2015; Mattila, 2023). What more, these studies have shown Eh response to holistic management, indicating that carbon farming practices result in lower oxidation due to the build-up of OM (Husson *et al.*, 2015; Mattila, 2023) and conservation agriculture tends to restore favourable EhpH conditions for plant growth (Husson *et al.*, 2018).

6.2 Soil REDOX as a biochemical proxy of matter interchange.

Application of REDOX as a thermodynamic metric involves the consideration of soil microbial functions as key pathways for matter and energy flow, between the soil and the environment (Barros, 2021). Interchange of matter essentially drives nutrient cycling and is for the most part a microbial mediated process, emerging from the cyclical interactions of species (chapter 2). Nutrient cycling in this sense has been investigated since the turn of the century (Fallou, 1857). Many studies focus on elemental compositions, in particular the mass balance of Carbon (C) and Carbon Dioxide (CO₂) that defines the soil as both a carbon sink and source (Conant, 2010). Differing abiotic and biotic reactions constitute the interchange of matter and the biotic part involves the interactions of multiple different organisms, through metabolic reactions (Barros, 2021). Without these organisms, the soil is incapable of maintaining function and sustaining other life forms.

Eh, especially when standardized with pH (EhpH) is an emerging dynamic of the soil, that shows potential as an indicator of soil health and has received a lot of attention over the last decade for this purpose, particularly in agriculture (Husson, 2013; Husson *et al.*, 2015). However, authors have not yet emphasised the relationship with ecological thermodynamics. The soil is a surface catalyst and through electron transfer, organisms build their biomass and perform work that contributes to the ecosystems functioning as a whole. Soil microbiomes metabolically require a multitude of substrates, acting as suppliers of chemical elements, in complex molecules that constitute OM (Barros, 2021). A chemical characterization of OM is challenging due to its high chemical and physical complexity, coupled with a lack of knowledge and poor synergies across disciplines (Hedges *et al.*, 2000; Šimon, 2007; Tfaily *et al.*, 2015).

In electrochemistry, Eh has a direct relationship to Gibbs Free Energy, where the standard cell potential (E°) calculates the difference in potential between an anode and a cathode. In nonstandard conditions, E° can be substituted in the Nernst equation with Eh. In this circumstance Eh measures the tendency of a reaction to lose or gain electrons and in the soil constitutes to a more reductive (lower Eh), or oxidising (higher Eh) conditions. Standard cell potentials are measured at 298K and 1

atmosphere, in 1M solutions. Internal energy can be calculated from E° through an inverse relationship to ΔG :

$$\Delta G = -nFE^\circ$$

Where ΔG is the change in Gibbs free energy, n is the number of electrons transferred in the reaction, F is the Faraday constant

Due to E_h basically dictating the energy available for metabolism and the form that nutrients take (later discussed). It is becoming recognized as a key environmental factor shaping microbial community structure and function (DeAngelis *et al.*, 2010) (Vincent *et al.*, 2021). Gibbs free energy, denoted G , combines enthalpy and entropy into a single value. The change in free energy, ΔG , is equal to the sum of the enthalpy plus the product of the temperature and entropy of the system:

$$\Delta G = \Delta H - T\Delta S$$

Where ΔH is the change in Enthalpy, T is the temperature and ΔS is the change in entropy.

E_h is the energy of the products minus the energy of the reactants. Given that both can be used to forecast whether processes are spontaneous, it is not unexpected that variations in the quantities of ΔG and E_h are related to one another. A negative ΔG corresponds to a spontaneous reaction, therefore as soon as E_h becomes negative reactions are no longer spontaneous and require energy. An example of this is photosynthesis. Photosynthesis is a REDOX reaction where excitation of chlorophyll provides energy needed to transfer electrons from oxygen in water and synthesise glucose. The oxygen in water is the most electronegative substance and the half-cell potential = +0.82V. Partially reduced carbon, like that found in glucose is equal to -0.42V. The synthesis of a molecule of glucose requires the transfer of 24 electrons from oxygen to carbon and the E° can be calculated as follows:

The redox potential of oxygen in water = +0.82 eV

$$E^\circ = E(\text{acceptor}) - E(\text{donor}). \text{ Or, } E^\circ = -0.420 - (0.82) = -1.24V.$$

$$\Delta G = - (1) \times 96000 \times (-1.14) = 109440 \text{ J mol}^{-1} (=109.4 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1})$$

ΔG is positive and indicates a non-spontaneous reaction (requires energy). This is because the complex and organised structure of phytomass is a negative entropy product (Epstein *et al.*, 2006; Virgo and Harvey, 2007), evidenced by the positive ΔG . Considering that plants are primary producers in trophic chains, it's clear what Schrödinger (1944) meant by “feeding on negative entropy”. Examples of how plant biotic activity can alter EhpH to more favorable conditions, are in rice paddy fields, where plants adjust the soil REDOX around the root rhizome, by as much as 300mV and up to 4mm away from the root tips (Flessa and Fischer, 1992). This hypothesized to be a result of elevated CO₂ promoting root radial oxygen loss (Li *et al.*, 2024).

Exergy has been previously discussed as an important thermodynamic metric in soil health (chapter 3 and 4). ΔG is related to exergy, in that it is a measure of internal/available energy. However, this is only fully accurate in an isothermal/ isobaric ensemble. ΔG , enthalpy and entropy are the three fundamental and connected elements that make up a thermodynamic system's internal energy state (Engel and Reid, 2006). They are state functions as opposed to exergy, which is a state variable according to (Jørgensen, 2007) since it depends on the system and environment (Wu *et al.*, 2017). Exergy and ΔG are related concepts, but exergy is a general term for work extracted from a thermodynamic system, while Gibbs is for a specific process. Exergy is dependent on the system's surroundings, while ΔG is independent. Like Exergy, G, enthalpy and entropy have shown adequacy as indicators of ecological structure and function (Wu *et al.*, 2017), they similarly require the establishment of proxies such as REDOX potential, as they cannot be measured directly.

EhpH drives mass flows of nutrients throughout the soil substrate. The chemical evolution of soils is mainly determined by proton and electron fluxes that define the predominant soil mineral fields (Schwertmann and Murad, 1983; Chesworth *et al.*, 2006). The mobility of several nutrients in complicated chemical and biological milieu is substantially influenced by pH and Eh (Gambrell and Patrick Jr, 1978; Laanbroek, 1990). EhpH diagrams (Pourbaix diagrams) plot the stability zones of an element's several chemical forms in a solution as a composite function of pH and Eh, based on thermodynamic laws (Pourbaix, 1945;). In Figure 41 for example at pH 7 nitrogen (N) shifts from thermodynamic stability in NH₄⁺ to NO₂⁻ at approx. 350mV and as REDOX climbs over 400mV nitrogen shifts again to stabilize as NO₃⁻. Eh and pH then predominantly influence in which form N is assimilated by plants, having a

considerable effect on cellular regulation (Marschner, 1991). As plants strictly use NH_4^+ to synthesis proteins, assimilation of N from its NO_3^- form, induces an energy cost for the plant to reducing NO_3^- to NH_4^+ (Marschner, 2012) According to Figure 41 this occurs above approx. 350mV at pH 7 (Husson 2013).

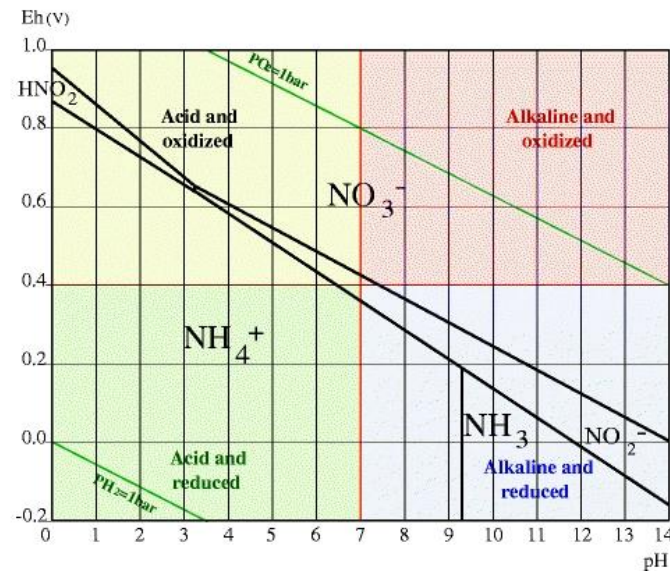


Figure 41 - Pourbaix diagram of nitrogen stability zones representing the various forms of N in a 100 μM solution at 25 °C as a function of Eh (in V) and pH. Diagram adapted from MEDUSA Software. Puigdomenech 2009–2011 as a function of Eh and pH. Source: (Husson, 2013)

REDOX status in the soil has profound effects on the nutrient use efficiency. The oxidized conditions that a low OM content bring, reduces nitrogen use efficiency and may contribute to poor fertilizer efficiency (Tittonell *et al.*, 2008). The drop in fertilizer efficiency is a result of plants needing to adjust the Eh/pH through root exudates that utilize a large share of their photosynthetic production (Husson, 2013). A role otherwise filled by micro-organisms in the presence of sufficient energy from OM.

Redox kinetics determine the dominant reactions among those that are thermodynamically available at any given moment (Chadwick and Chorover, 2001). As a result, it is important to carefully evaluate the complex kinetics of oxidation-reduction reactions in heterogeneous and changing soils (Sparks, 2001). Since microbial activity catalyzes these processes, Eh and pH also have an effect on their kinetics (Fenchel *et al.*, 2012) (Husson, 2013). Eh/pH in many ways is a measure of the electrochemical environment for the exchange of energy and matter. Of course, microbial metabolism is the conduit for this exchange, within the communities of micro-

organisms. Metabolic types emergent in bacterial communities are largely determined by the Eh and pH of the milieu they reside within (Stumm, 1966; Billen, 1973). Research in to Eh and its relation to the development of microbial communities dates back to Heintze (1934), who proposed that Eh can characterize groups of microorganisms. More recently Dick and Tan (2021) provide genomic evidence for Eh chemical link to community composition.

Microorganisms are adapted to specific Eh conditions, characterized by the range in which they can develop, as is equally true with pH. Eh/pH fluctuations are likely to be a strong selective force on the composition of microbial communities and may promote metabolic plasticity or redox-tolerance mechanisms (Pett-Ridge and Firestone, 2005). On the other hand, micro-organisms have the ability to modify their surroundings, more so than other organisms (Rabotnova and Schwartz, 1962). Furthermore, bacterial growth correlates directly with changes in Eh/pH (Kimbrough *et al.*, 2006) and in anaerobic soils, both microbial and enzymatic activity are negatively correlated with Eh/pH (Snakin and Dubinin, 1980; Kralova *et al.*, 1992; Brzezińska, 2004; Husson, 2013; Dick and Tan, 2021; Mattila, 2023).

It is particularly important to consider the response from significant disturbance, such as flooding or perhaps extreme temperatures. Crossing a tolerance thresholds puts the microbial community at risk of collapse and it is the inherent resilience, in the way of response diversity (Elmqvist *et al.*, 2003; Ludwig *et al.*, 2018), that enables the system to re-stabilize and recover from the perturbation, by either a return to base line conditions, or stabilization at a new steady state ((Prigogine, 1955; Prigogine and Nicolis, 1977; Müller, 1998; Ulanowicz *et al.*, 2006; Nielsen *et al.*, 2019). For example, in soils prone to flooding, the fluctuating Eh creates dynamical conditions and this can drive microbial diversity (Randle-Boggis *et al.*, 2017). Resilience is engendered by the microorganisms ability to shift between active and quiescent states, to match REDOX shifts (Fierer and Jackson, 2006). In addition, it is the availability of nutrients that shapes community structure, far more than pH alone (Zhang *et al.*, 2024), driven largely by REDOX conditions. Plants function within a specific internal Eh/pH and following a disturbance, the plant microbial network will act to alter the Eh and pH in the rhizosphere to reach cell homeostasis (Husson, 2013).

EhpH in the soil is highly variable, with daily and seasonal cycles (Snakin *et al.*, 2001; Mansfeldt, 2003). Sabiené *et al.*, (2010) also documented inter-annual variations in relation to climatic conditions and soil moisture. This is primarily a result of the oxygen status in the soil. Generally, microbes lower the Eh (Potter, 1911; Rabotnova and Schwartz, 1962) and in anaerobic soils this is due to the consumption of oxygen (Kralova *et al.*, 1992; Bohrerova *et al.*, 2004). Soil water has a similar effect (Savant and Ellis, 1964), with rapid decreases reported after flooding and restoration after drainage (Balakhnina *et al.*, 2010). Pore space oxygen becomes quickly consumed in saturated soils and the significant depletion of oxygen as a terminal electron acceptor (TEA) may slow organic carbon decomposition (Sexstone *et al.*, 1985; Keiluweit *et al.*, 2017; Lacroix *et al.*, 2021; Wilmoth, 2021). Perhaps the reason why lakes are such successful carbon sinks. Both microbial activity and flooding also tend to lead to acidification (Rabotnova and Schwartz, 1962) especially in organic soils (Kashem and Singh, 2001). In fact, pH is changed and regulated by the metabolism of the microorganisms in the acidification of a culture medium (Rabotnova and Schwartz, 1962). Fungi similarly influence soil chemical environment close to their hyphae (Garrett, 1963; Twining *et al.*, 2004).

Rapidly fluctuating environmental conditions can significantly stress organisms, especially when thrown outside the thresholds of normal physiological tolerance (DeAngelis *et al.*, 2010). To prevent significant oxidative damage, a network of buffering mechanisms exist in the soil (Noctor *et al.*, 2000; Dietz, 2003; Kandlbinder *et al.*, 2003; Hansen *et al.*, 2006; Lambers *et al.*, 2008; Hanke *et al.*, 2009) and the simultaneous presence of highly reducing and highly oxidising compounds is the basis for regulation (Scheibe *et al.*, 2005). The soils EhpH buffering capacity is an important factor pertaining to soil health. EhpH buffering mechanisms determine the evolution of oxidation-reduction conditions and the soils response to an injection of electrons (von der Kammer *et al.*, 2000). OM is one of the biggest drivers of EhpH conditions, in the soil (Oglesby, 1997). It is the most reduced fraction of the soil and the most thermodynamically unstable (Macías and Camps Arbestain, 2010). OM is a prolific source of electrons (Chesworth, 2004) and constitutes the bulk of the soils reduction capacity (Lovley *et al.*, 1998; Chadwick and Chorover, 2001). During decaying processes OM acts as a carrier of electrons (Lovley *et al.*, 1998), supplying them to more oxidized species in the soil (Chesworth, 2004). In most circumstances, an

increase in OM lowers Eh, as oxygen consumption leads to the formation of compounds with reducing properties (Lovley *et al.*, 1998; Husson, 2013).

Different fractions of the soil organic matter have varying impacts on the soil REDOX status, in terms of buffering mechanisms. Labile substances are typically in a reduced state and undergo rapid oxidation, in high redox conditions; high redox activity is promoted by their quick degradation (Baldock and Smernik, 2002). Recalcitrant substances are less prone to oxidation, persisting across varying redox conditions, decomposing slowly and utilized primarily under extreme conditions (Zabel and Morrell, 2020). Humic substances have the greatest buffering capacity, as they exhibit a mix of redox active groups, acting as electron shuttles, but can also alternate between oxidation and reduction depending on conditions (Kögel-Knabner *et al.*, 2008). Dou *et al.*, (2020) argued that the distinctiveness of humic substances is fundamental to the soil, and thus further studies should be focused on revealing this.

Changes in mass, such as textural differences, water content, fractions of OM and microbial biomass, seem are key drivers of Eh-pH conditions in the soil (Tano *et al.*, 2020), promoting the applicability as a thermodynamic indicator of mass flows. This is likely a result of the changing oxygen status of the soil, with these mass properties. Oxidative processes involve electron extraction, electrons are passed through electron transport systems to a TEA, this generates energy and pumps protons. In an oxygen rich environment energy acquisition is high as O₂ yields the most energy per unit, in low Eh decomposition is slow (think lake sediment) and can actually cost energy. Both circumstance exist on the planet, but neither are ideal. Buffering mechanisms act to keep soils within ranges where decomposition of OM is neither too fast (highly oxic) or too slow (highly anoxic) (Bayer and Mielniczuk, 1997). Soil microbes, such as ectomycorrhizal, saprophytic or pathogenic fungi, can modify the rhizosphere by producing organic acids (Chaignon *et al.*, 2002; Hinsinger *et al.*, 2009).

The literature demonstrates how the root system, the soil structure and microbes interact to produce Eh-pH conditions in the rhizosphere (Husson, 2013). Soil structure creates Eh-pH niches, home to various microorganisms, causing soil suppressiveness (Husson *et al.*, 2021). The Eh-pH homeostasis paradigm is the foundation of soil and plant health. An Eh-pH perspective can be an effective tool for a "one health approach" that unifies various bio-physical processes (Husson *et al.*, 2021). Eh in the soil dictates

the conditions for energy and matter flow by limiting certain nutrients (matter) and the yield from chemical reactions (energy). Hence why Eh_{pH} dynamics may be suitable candidates for resilience indicators, however, its application in soil health analysis lacks empirical evidence.

6.3 Hypothesis

“Changes in the soils Eh reflect its response to disturbance, with holistic management promoting favourable conditions”

6.4 Methods

6.4.1 Samples sites

The study here examines Eh in a range of different management regimes. The enquiry included soils collected from 3 locations in Essex (Figure 42):

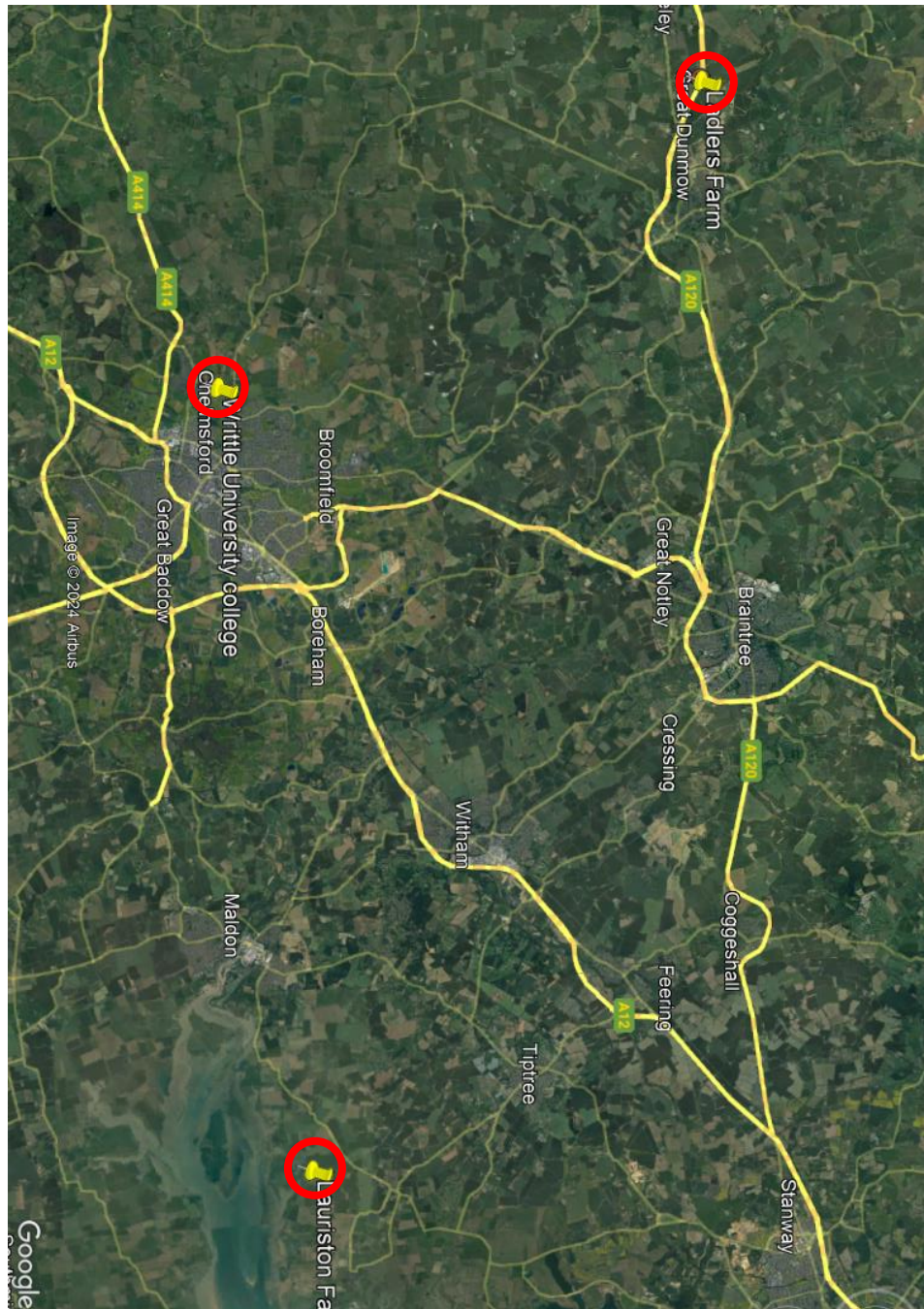


Figure 42 - Locations of study sites.

1. Writtle University College (Conventional):

Representative of an intensive agricultural farm, simple monocultures of crops are grown with the use of conventional fertilizers and herbicide applications. The soil is

characterized as a silt loam (Figure 43) and geographically located within the Landis Soilscape 6: Freely draining slightly acid loamy soils, bordering Soilscape 8: Slightly acid loamy and clayey soils with impeded drainage. Situated in an area surrounding the confluence of the rivers Wid and Can, that lead to the river Chelmer. Young woodland (YW) refers to a small copse within the grounds and adjacent to one of the agricultural fields (Figure 43).



Figure 43 – Map showing the fields where soil was collected at Writtle site. Two fields previously growing Rapeseed oil.

2. Ladlers Farm (Organic)

Located further North than WUC Ladlers farm is representative of organic management practices (Figure 44), non-reliant on chemical inputs, rather organic ones, with the utilization of cow manure from semi-naturally roaming Red Pole cattle in a rotation of crops. The location sits on an area of Landis Soilscape 9: Lime-rich loamy and clayey soils with impeded drainage.

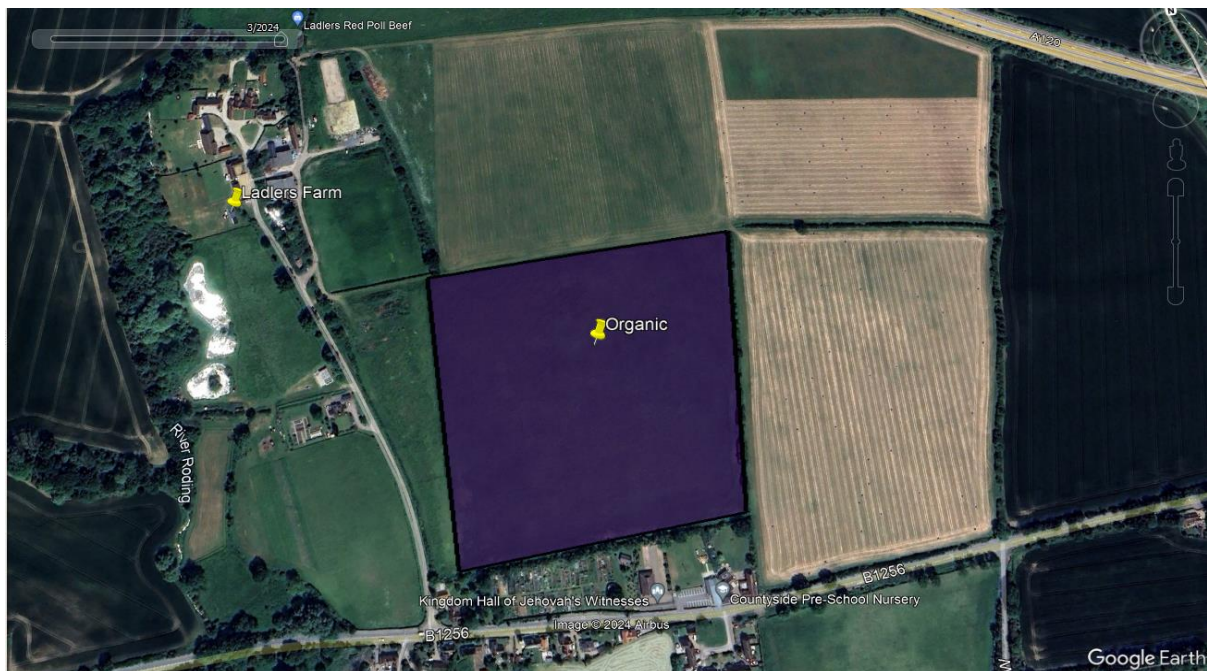


Figure 44 - Map showing the fields where soil was collected at Ladlers farm. An Organic farm North of Chelmsford.

3. Lauriston Farm (Biodynamic)

Situated almost on the banks of the River Blackwater, Lauriston represents a biodynamic farm, similarly reliant on organic inputs with a number of traditions that focus on soil health (Figure 45). The site is on the edge of an area of Soilscape 6: Freely draining slightly acid loamy soils. Bordering Landis Soilscape 18: Slowly permeable seasonally wet slightly acid but base-rich loamy and clayey soils.

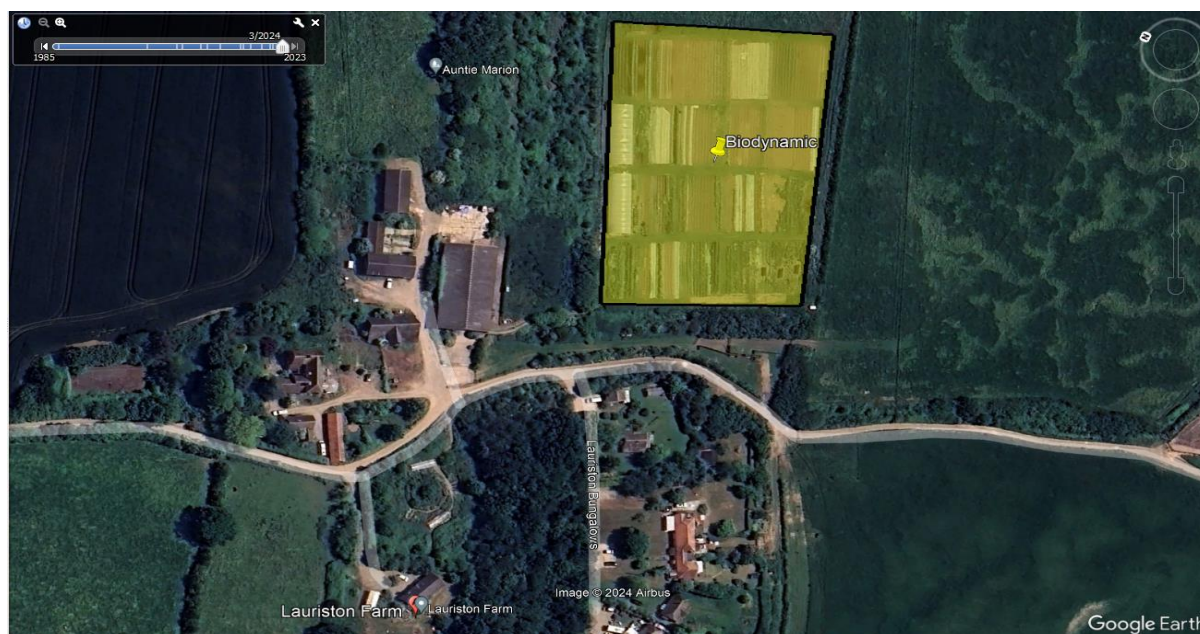


Figure 45 - Map showing the fields where soil was collected at Lauriston farm. An Biodynamic farm North of Chelmsford

6.4.2 Experimental design

Data collection was carried out across 4 experiments with the intention to explore the efficacy of Eh as an indicator of soil health as well as the impact of holistic management. The first experiment (Baseline) was a one-off assessment of a number of soils that represented soil types and management principles (

Table 6). A further 3 experiments examined varying degrees of stress upon the soil; full heat sterilization, flooding and short-term heat stress. Summarized in table 6, the experiments were designed to explore the boundaries of Eh_{pH} under extreme conditions. The baseline assessment compared soils of different textural classes, as well as soils with similar soil texture, but different management regime (Figure 46).

Full heat sterilization was carried out by placing the dry samples (prepared using the method shown later for REDOX potential) in an oven at 65°C for 3 hours, while a

control group on the same soil mixes was left at room temperature. The following analysis continued as in the method. Flooding and recovery was simulated by measuring the Eh_{pH} at field capacity (see REDOX potential method), but in free draining containers, before saturating the soils in a shallow tray of water, bringing them over field capacity. The samples were weighed to estimate water content. Finally, Eh_{pH} was recorded alongside water content, over 3 hours of heat stress at 38°C. This time in open topped beakers containers that do not drain, 4 randomized samples per soil were individually measured every 15 minutes outside of the oven and again the samples were weighed before each measurement to estimate water content.

Table 6 – Summary of experiments with a brief description of the intention and key to treatments and samples, that indicates any important information about the soil like depth and texture.

<i>Experiment</i>	<i>Description</i>	<i>Samples and Treatments key</i>
<i>Baseline</i>	Direct comparison of soils taken from different locations representing differing holistic management.	WrS – Writtle (10cm) WrD – Writtle (30cm) OS – Organic surface (10cm) OD – Organic at 30cm LB – Biodynamic surface (10cm) REF – Reference soil, sterilized at 65°C for 48 hours (good loam) Sub – Sandy soil (equal clay content to REF, but higher sand and less silt)
<i>Sterilization</i>	Thermal sterilization of two soils at 65°C for 3 hours and compared to control group of unsterilized	WRC – Writtle soil control WRT – Writtle soil sterilized YWC – Young woodland control YWT – Young woodland sterilized
<i>Flooding</i>	Soils saturated in a tray of water). Followed by 24 hour recovery at room temperature	LB – Biodynamic surface (10cm) WrS – Writtle surface (10cm)

<i>Heat stress</i>	Heat stress after 1, 2 and 3 hours (38°C).	LB – Biodynamic surface (10cm)
		WrS – Writtle surface (10cm)
		REF – Reference soil (good loam)
		ROM – Reference with added organic matter.
		AMB – control groups at ambient room temperature.

6.4.3 Soil collection

Soil samples were collected in a W pattern across the fields. Approximately 24 samples were taken from each field and mixed together, before they were air dried. Textural analysis was carried out when possible, as in previous chapters (Figure 46), resource limitations during the analysis meant that it was not possible to analyse Ladlers farm.

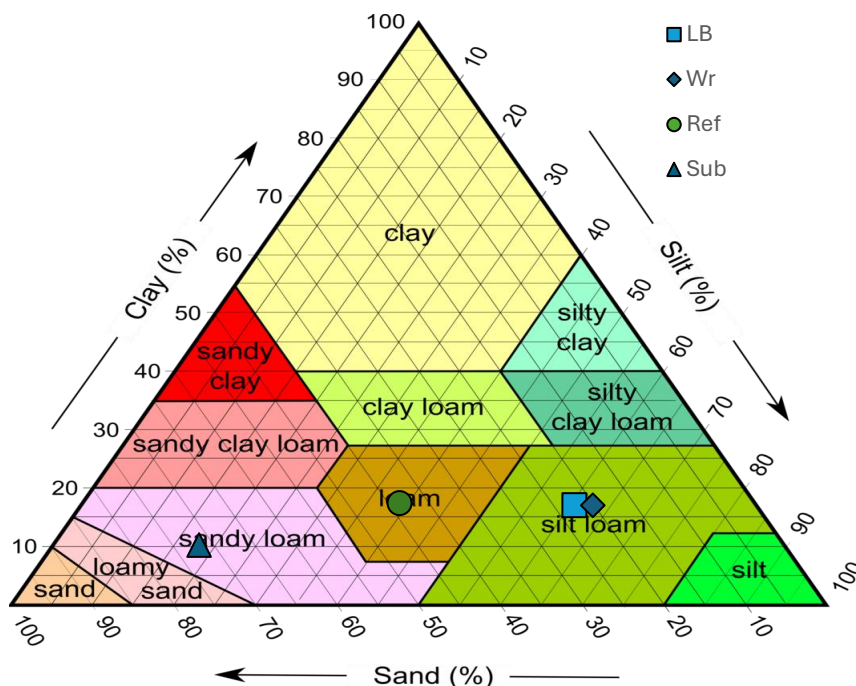


Figure 46 - Soil textural analysis of sampled soils. Lauriston farm (LB) occupied the silty loam quadrant and was most similar to Writtle soil (Wr). The reference soil (Ref) was chosen as it was the most even distribution of soil fractions (Loam) then the Sub Soil (Sub) was more of a Sandy Loam. All soils were considered to have similar clay contents (within 5%).

6.4.4 Loss on ignition

OM was estimated by using loss on ignition (LOI) method, taking in to consideration guidance from (Schulte and Hopkins, 1996; Combs and Nathan, 1998)

1. Place a 5 g scoop of soil into a tared 20-ml beaker.
2. Dry for 2 hours or longer at 105° C
3. Record weight to ± 0.001 g
4. Bring oven to 360° C. Samples must then remain at 360° C for two hours.
5. Cool to $< 150^{\circ}$ C
6. Weigh to ± 0.001 g, in a draft-free environment

Calculate percent weight loss-on- ignition (LOI):

6.4.5 Moisture content

Moisture content in the relevant experiments was calculated by weight. Losses were calculated as the difference between the starting wet weight and the finishing wet weight. For the water Eh/pH correlations, the % change in moisture content was taken from the weights of the samples through the heating process. A final dry weight was measured so that moisture losses could be corrected from the loss of material between each REDOX measurement. This gave the overall loss of water during the period as a percentage.

6.4.6 REDOX potential

Soil preparation and measurement for REDOX potential (Eh) meticulously followed the protocol extensively researched by (Husson *et al.*, 2015). The samples of soil were air dried under an infrared light at 35°C for approx. 72 hours (up to 96h). It was ensured that the location was free from any electromagnetic interference, this included turning off florescent lights and any other electronic equipment in the vicinity of the recording. The probes used were dedicated for use directly in to soil. Prior to measurements the probes were calibrated, pH using pH 4 and 7 buffers and REDOX followed this protocol; the Eh probes were placed in a high poise REDOX buffer solution (Lights solution in this instance), before being placed in a low poise (poised solution diluted in 0.1 M KCl at 1:100) as in Husson *et al.*, (2015b). Then the first measurement is discarded. For the soil preparation, 50 ml of the air-dried soil was measured out into a conical flask and brought to field capacity by adding a pre-determined volume of deionised water. Field capacity was determined prior to experimentation, by calculating the difference in weight between heavily wetted soil,

that no longer drains, and dried soil at 105°C for 48 hours. This was between 10ml for sandy soils and up to 30ml for clay soils. The samples were then shaken for 10s, with a parafilm over the top, before the probes are gently inserted in to the soil. An Eh reading is taken when there is no change in mV on the meter after 1 min, this often took 15-20 mins. After each sample the electrodes are washed with a squirt of deionised water, followed by an abrasive paper and a further squirt with the water. A maximum of 12 measurements were taken before the probes were calibrated again. Both temperature and pH are measured alongside Eh for further calculations.

6.4.7 Statistical analysis

In order to better define the redox conditions of a system, some authors (Glinski, 1985; Pidello, 2003; Husson *et al.*, 2015) have proposed to correct the Eh to pH = 7 (EhpH7). Due to the great influence of pH on the Eh, this helps by standardizing the figures to pH 7 and can be achieved through the following equation:

$$E_{hpH} = E_h - \frac{RT}{F} \times (7 - pH)$$

where Eh is measured in volts, R is the perfect gas constant (8.314471 JK⁻¹ mol⁻¹), F is the Faraday constant (96485.3383 C mol⁻¹) and T is the temperature (in K).

This is necessary due to the relationship between pH and Eh. The upper and lower limits of nutrient stability in poubaix diagrams are linear slopes of 59mV per unit of pH at 25°C. The above equation standardizes the results to the given pH and temperature in order to significantly reduce this influence.

The result of the above calculation was the final figure used for comparison within the experiments. Mean Ehph was used to inform the main differences between treatments and/or soils in each of the experiments,. In addition, variability measures were employed like coefficient of variation (EhpHCoeffVAR) and Standard deviation (EhpHSTDEV), as well as utilization of the Fligner Kileen test to compare variation between treatments.

6.5 Results

6.5.1 Baseline Assessment

6.5.1.1 REDOX

Soil from Lauriston Biodynamic farm (LB) and Ladlers Organic farm (OS and OD) were the statistically lowest Eh_{pH} averages. Writtle surface (WrS) and Writtle 30 cm (WrD) was also statistically higher in Eh_{pH} than OS and OD. The highest Eh_{pH} was the Sub soil (Sub) and despite it being deeper in the soil profile WrD was almost as high as Sub. Soils from holistic farms were significantly lower in Eh_{pH} compared to conventional soils and the reference soil ($p=0.0001$, Mann Whitney). Furthermore there was no significant difference between the reference soil and the reference soil ammended with compost (ROM). See poubaix diagram (Figure 47).

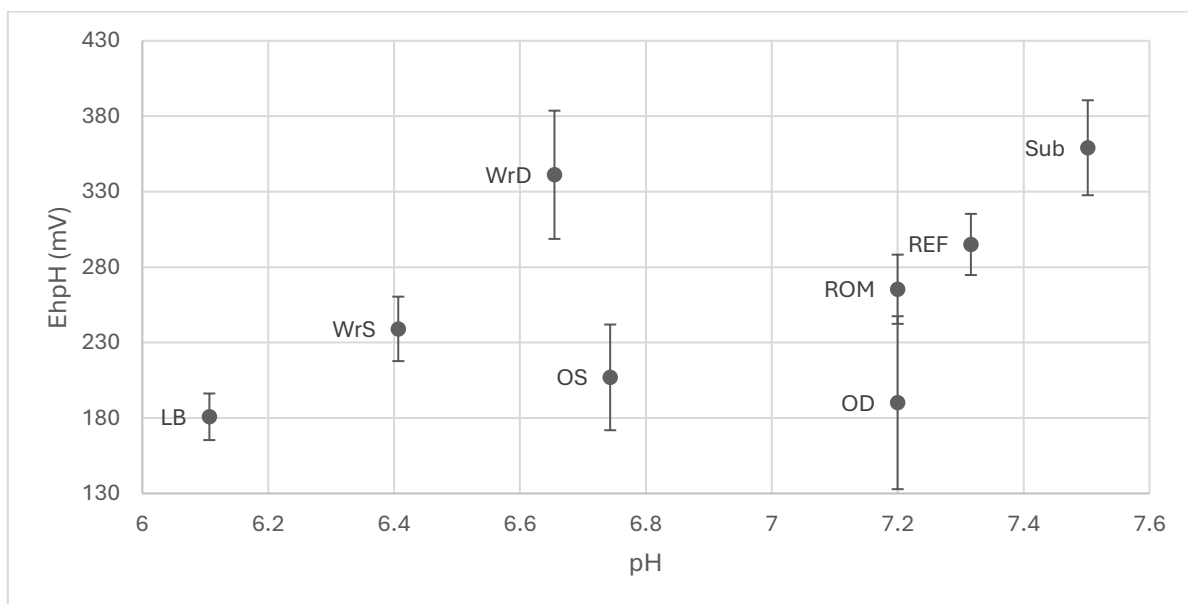


Figure 47 – Pourbaix diagram of the baseline survey, showing each of samples averaged in the Eh-pH space. Samples from organic soils under holistic management (LB, OS, OD) tended to have a lower Eh_{pH} ($p<0.01$, Kruskal-Wallis). The sub soil was statistically the highest ($p<0.02$, Mann-Whitney). Total $N = 102$. Error bars are confidence limits.

6.5.1.2 Organic Matter

From the OM estimates of soils, taken from loss on ignition (Figure 48), both the holistic sites were statistically higher than Writtle soils and the addition of compost to REF (ROM) increased LOI on average by 1% (an increase of approx. 25%). WrS was

on average 1.2% lower in LOI% (+/- 0.12%), compared to OS. Furthermore, there was a statistical correlation ($p=0.049$, Pearson's Linear r) between Eh_{pH} and OM.

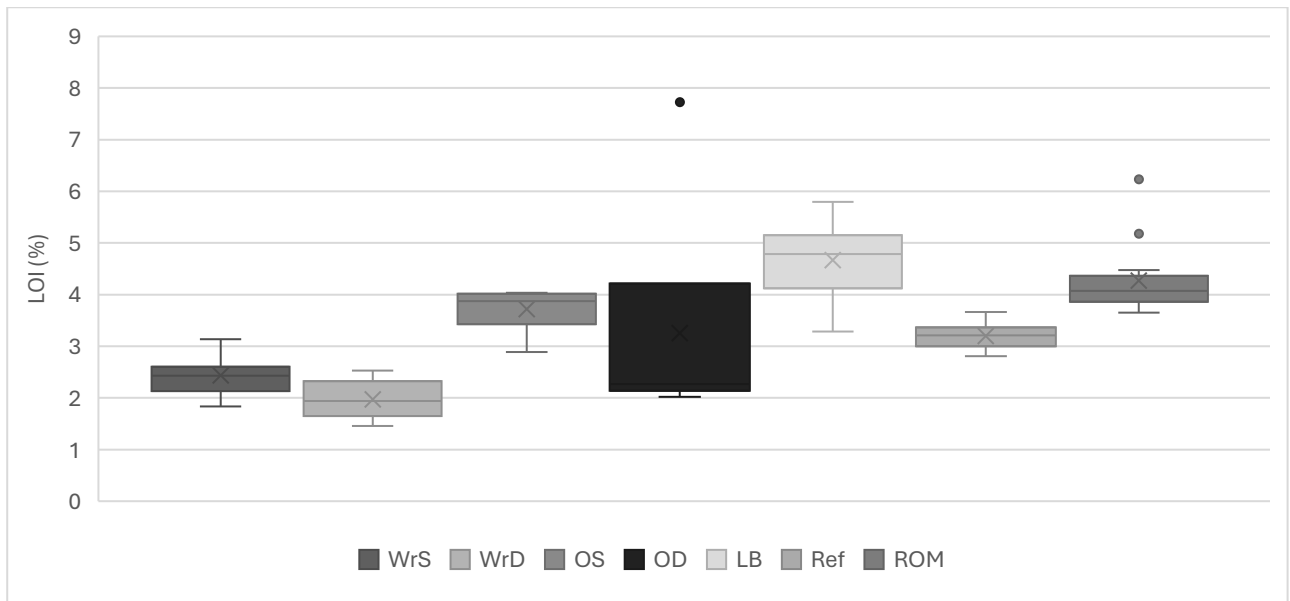


Figure 48 – Box plot of Loss on ignition at 360°C (LOI%) estimates for all soils recorded at baseline assessment. Total N = 95. Both Writtle soils (WrS at 10cm and WrD at 30cm) contained as much as half that of other soils ($P<0.006$). Holistic soils (OS and LB) had highest content ($p<0.001$, Mann-Whitney). Boxes are standard deviation and whiskers a ranges.

6.5.2 Sterilization

Sterile soil was statistically lower in Eh_{pH} compared to control of unsterilized soil (Figure 49), in soil taken from both WrS and YW. YW was also statistically lower than Wr in both sterilized ($p=0.02$) and control group ($p=0.001$, Mann Whitney). See Figure 49.

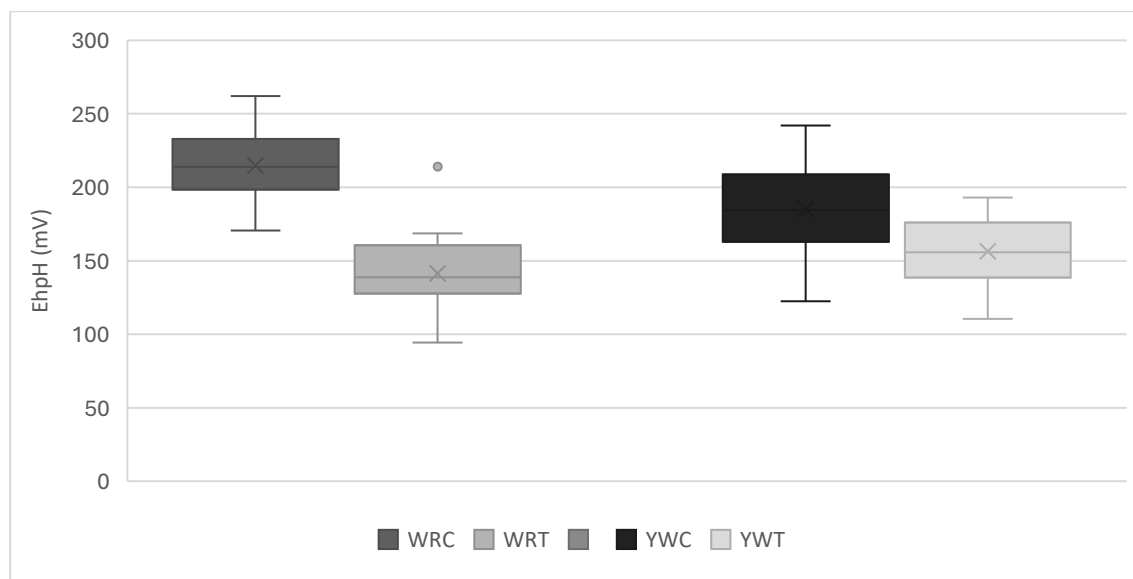


Figure 49 – EhpH comparison of sterilized (WrT and YWT) and control group from (WrC and YWC) Writtle 10cm (WrS) and Young woodland (YW). WrS was on average 73.22mV (+/- 10.28mV) lower once sterilized and YW was 28.65mV (+/- 9.16mV) lower once sterilized. N=96. Boxes are standard deviation and whiskers a ranges.

6.5.3 Heat stress

EhpH showed statistically greater variability (Fligner Kileen test for equal coefficient of variation, $p=0.007$ for one tailed test), over the course of the 3 hours, when exposed

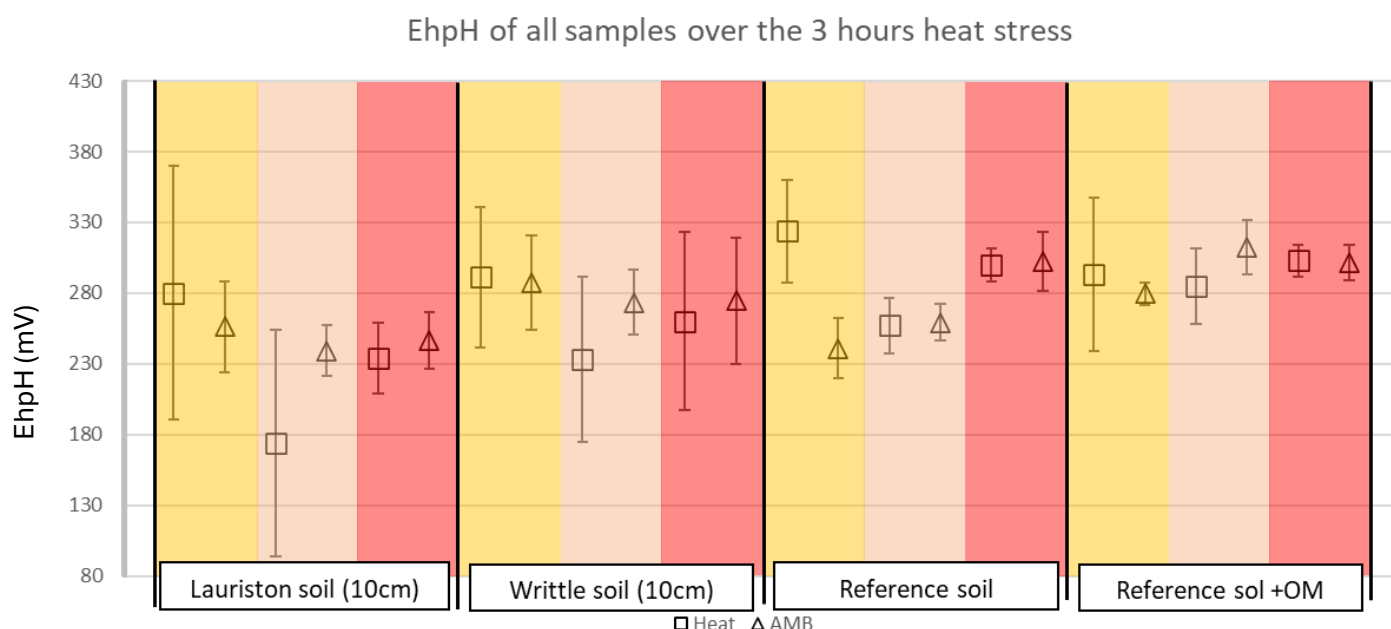


Figure 50 - EhpH of samples across the three hours of heat stress. Control groups (AMB) were statistically less variable than Heat stressed $p=0.007$, Fligner Kileen). The first and second hour (amber and light pink colour bands) showed the greatest deviation of 106mV (+/- 78mV) $n=12$ for each sample group. Error bars are standard deviation.

to high temperatures compared to ambient temperatures (Figure 50). This was for the most irrespective of management regime, however, was far more pronounced in the agricultural plots (LB and WrS) than the sterile Ref and ROM soils.

For samples under heat stress the variability (both STDEV and CoeffVAR) was statistically correlated (STDEV, $p=0.023$ and CoeffVAR, $p=0.014$, Spearmans rank) with the difference between initial water content and final water content (water loss %) and Heat samples resulting in higher variability compared to AMB samples (Figure 51). This is not statistically different between soils.

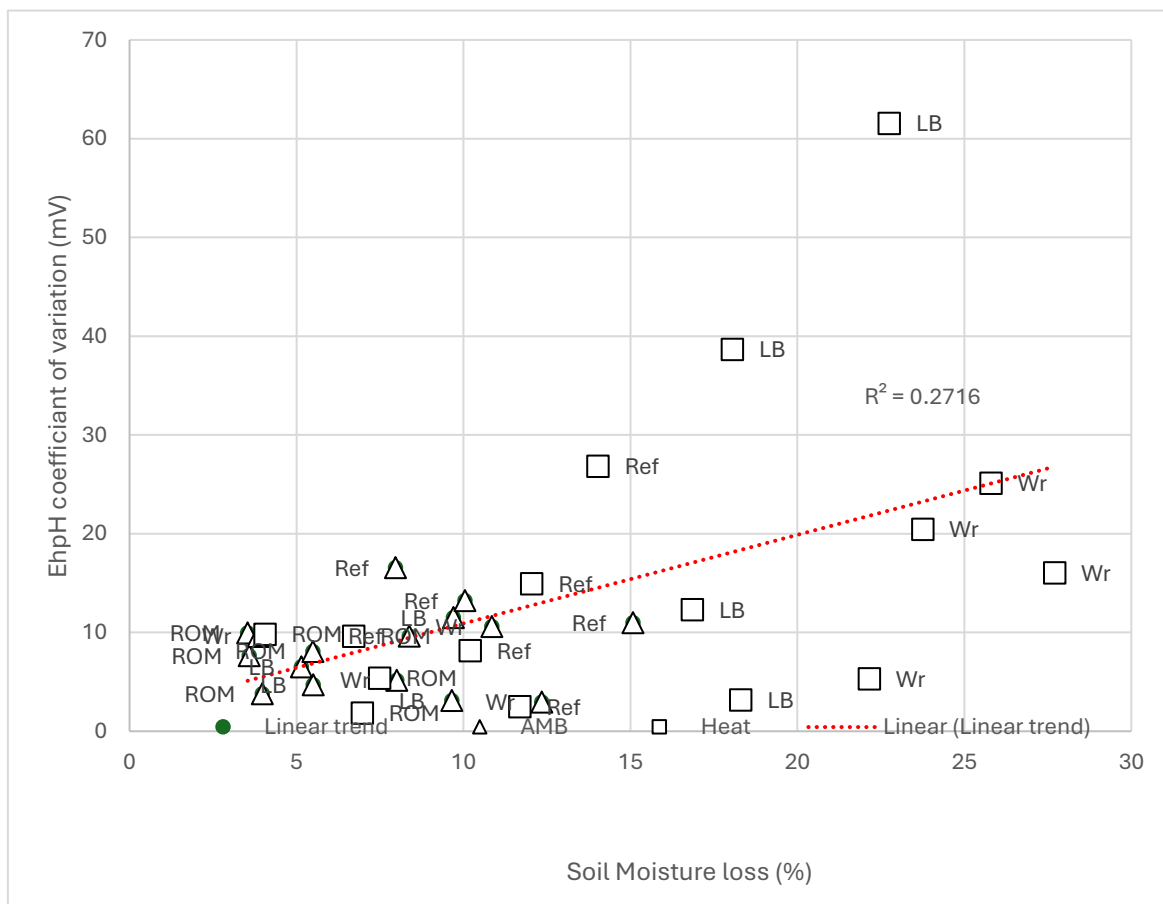


Figure 51 - Correlation between Eh pH Coefficient of variation (CoeffVAR) and water loss over the period of heat stress, for 4 soils; Lauriston farm (LB), Writtle university farm (WrS), reference soil (Ref) and reference soil with added compost (ROM). Heat stressed samples (orange dots) tended to have higher variability than AMB (blue dots), associated with greater water loss over the heating period (y axis). Total N=32

6.5.4 Flood and recovery

Flooding resulted in a drop in Eh_{pH} for both the WrS and LB, although far more pronounced in LB (-671 compared to -395). Interestingly, WrS recovery Eh_{pH} was statistically higher ($p < 0.05$, Mann Whitney) than the baseline, compared to LB which was not different (Figure 52).

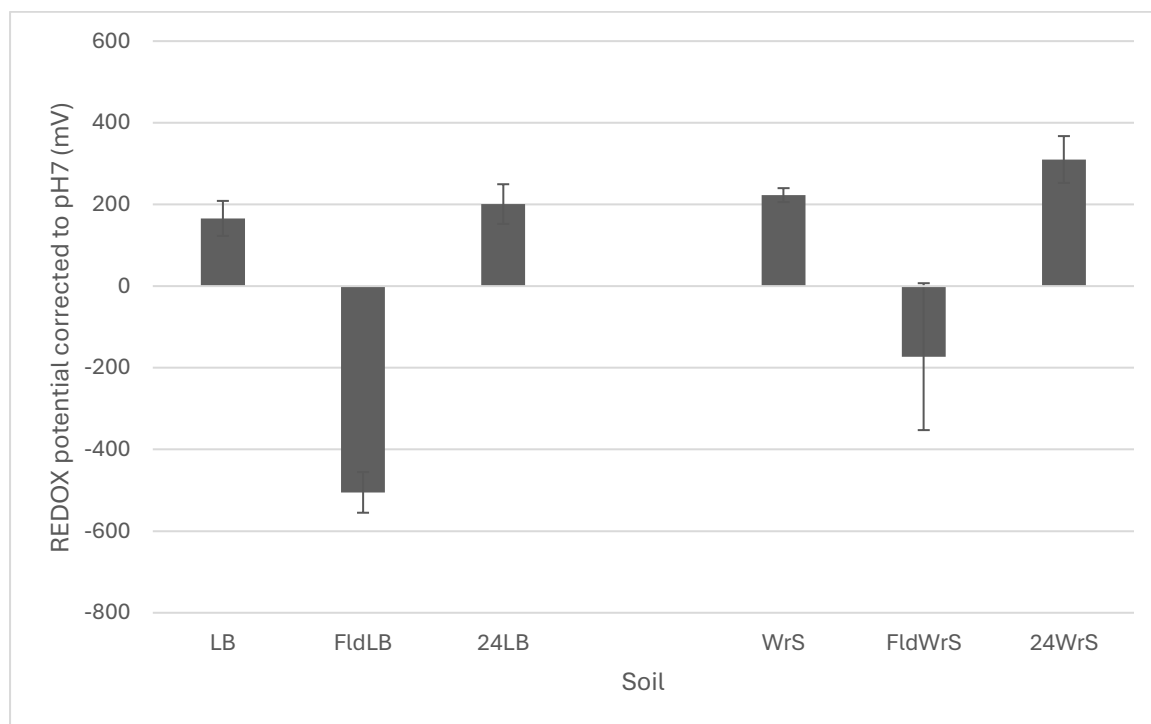


Figure 52 – The change in REDOX conditions following flooding and drainage for 24 hours. Flooding led to a significant decrease in Eh_{pH} that recovered after drainage. The recovery of Lauriston soil (24LB) was statistically closer to its original state (LB), compared to Writtle soil (24WrS and WrS). For Lauriston soil, flooding (FldLB) dropped the Eh_{pH} by far more than Writtle (FldWrS). Error bars are confidence limits. Total N=50.

6.6 Discussions

6.6.1 Supporting REDOX as a soil resilience indicator

Eh_{pH} has the potential to unify a large range of biophysical processes (Husson *et al.*, 2021). It is however subject to immense variability (Snakin *et al.*, 2001; Mansfeldt, 2003), through a myriad of biotic and abiotic processes (Pett-Ridge and Firestone 2005; Rabotnova and Schwartz 1962; Husson, 2013). This on one hand, gives great depth to its utilization in soil health assessment (Husson *et al.*, 2021), but at the same time significantly challenges its interpretation. One of the greatest limitations of this

study is that one-off measures of parameters are never a true representation of the overall status of what one is measuring. Therefore, the following interpretation is open for further investigation and at the very least this chapter highlights avenues of enquiry.

It seems a lowering of the Eh_{pH} through OM favours a promotion in bacterial colonisation, whereas fungi would dominate in more oxidised conditions (Soares and Rousk, 2019; Barros, 2021). In this case it is difficult to assume the overall health of the soils microbiome from this measure, but perhaps predict microbial communities (Heintze 1934; Dick and Tan 2021), or more so the changes in bacterial to fungi diversity relations (Soares and Rousk, 2019; Barros, 2021). Although these measures were not taken, the results can be discussed in reference to microbial communities by way of their utilization of OM as an energy source. In many situations Eh_{pH} was able to detect small changes in the soil that may elude to its utilization in soil assessment. Common mass related variables that have been found to impact Eh_{pH} are OM, soil structure and moisture content. Expectations of the correlation to moisture and OM were satisfied, with further connotations related to holistic management. In corroboration with (Husson *et al.*, 2015, 2018; Mattila, 2023) the results here demonstrate that REDOX can detect changes to soil structure and function related to holistic management through its relationship with OM. Likely a result of the build up of plant residues (Mattila, 2023). OM being a prolific energy source, clear relationships with thermodynamics can be drawn from the results and in this regard, Eh_{pH} presents as a highly effective soil proxy of thermodynamic variables, through its relation to ΔG . A lowering of Eh_{pH} indicates an increase in ΔG , i.e. the internal energy of the system increases. This results in an inflow of electrons and primes the metabolic activity of microbes. Based on relationship to ΔG and energy transformations in soil metabolism (Engel and Reid, 2006, DeAngelis *et al.*, 2010, Wu *et al.*, 2017), the results here show the average state of these factors within the soils; favouring holistic management toward enhanced energy dissipation (metabolic activity) and availability of resources (Veldhuis *et al.*, 2018), leading to more favourable conditions for ecosystem function (Husson *et al.*, 2015; Mattila, 2023).

The lowering of Eh_{pH} from flooding in this study (Figure 52), is a result of the depletion of oxygen in pore spaces (Balakhnina *et al.*, 2010), either driven out by water infiltration or used up by microbes (Kralova *et al.*, 1992; Bohrerova *et al.*, 2004). Following this any metabolic activity will require energy at the value corresponding to Gibbs. In this

sense flooding limits the exchange of energy, due to oxygen as the terminal electron acceptor (Sexstone *et al.*, 1985; Keiluweit *et al.*, 2017; Lacroix *et al.*, 2021; Wilmoth, 2021). Upon recovery, Figure 52 shows that Eh_{pH} detects differences in the return to baseline of the WrS soil compared to the LB, where LB returned close to baseline and WrS was significantly higher (more oxidized). This indicates that following flooding soils can shift to a state that may experience oxidative damage (Noctor *et al.*, 2000; Dietz, 2003; Kandlbinder *et al.*, 2003; Hansen *et al.*, 2006; Lambers *et al.*, 2008; Hanke *et al.*, 2009) however, soils with higher OM, due to its buffering capacity could remain within a 'safe' level of REDOX conditions. This supports the concept of REDOX homeostasis in plant-soil health (Husson *et al.*, 2021), as it shows that and organic rich soil likely able to support a diverse community of micro-organisms can better support homeostasis of REDOX conditions in the soil following perturbations.

For the most part, Eh_{pH} change was able to quite effectively show the impact of heat stress and is forthcoming in its use as a resilience indicator. Heat stress creates a recognizable disturbance that destabilizes the REDOX conditions. A correlation was drawn between percentage moisture loss and Change in Eh_{pH} (Figure 51), but only under heat stress, as AMB changed very little in both regards compared to Heat treatments. As moisture loss increases, the variability in Eh_{pH} increases, movement of water out of the soil seems to destabilizes the REDOX conditions. This corroborates the literature, as REDOX is known for its relationship to moisture (Rabotnova and Schwartz, 1962). However, in this context it shows its relationship to the flow of water out of a system. Water being the key mechanism for energy dissipation (Chapters 4 and 5), we can start to draw links with energy flow. Correlations drawn between Eh_{pH} and both water and OM, are likely a result of the connection to microbial activity, the functioning of which are key to energy and matter flows (Barros, 2021), that impact upon system resilience (Karlen *et al.*, 1997). Interestingly, sterile OM as in the reference soil amended with compost (ROM), did not respond in the same way as the holistic soils did (Figure 47), perhaps indicative of endosomatic feedback mechanisms (Jordan, 2016; Ferri and Arnés García, 2023) and the role of microbial organisms in supporting soil resilience (Yuan *et al.*, 2024). If OM is energy in the system and Eh does not respond to just simply adding compost, it shows that Eh is more measuring the changes in the availability of that energy – going from unavailable sterile biomass to live OM feeding the microbes in the soil.

What may contradict some literature and perhaps is product of the simplified design of the experiments, is how the oxidation status changed under heat stress. Instead of increasing the Eh_{pH} due to the driving of water out of the system and creating more oxic conditions (Noctor *et al.*, 2000; Dietz, 2003; Kandlbinder *et al.*, 2003; Hansen *et al.*, 2006; Lambers *et al.*, 2008; Hanke *et al.*, 2009). Eh_{pH} decreased in some of the trials, in particular extreme heat stress (Sterilization), which may be explained by a release of mass in the system, whether through biomass loss from death of micro-organisms, or water loss embodied in the organisms. Never the less, it requires further exploration.

Although this study did not measure long term fluctuations in the soil in a natural setting, it does highlight just how variable the Eh. Eh fluctuations could perhaps be interpreted similarly to the above chapters utilizing temperature, however, field measurements are in no way as accurate and well researched (Husson, 2013; Husson *et al.*, 2015, 2021) as temperature (see chapter 4 and 5), which is widely used across many industries. Challenges lie in the fluctuating soil moisture conditions, where facultative anaerobes may be active in one microsite and 1cm away inactive (Fiedler *et al.*, 2007). The method developed by Husson (2015), can be used on fresh soil however careful assessment of moisture content should be followed and this method still does not capture the REDOX poisoning capacity (Pidello, 2003), or the stability of the chemical environment and this area is in need of more research.

6.6.2 Implications for agro-ecological management

The consideration of Eh_{pH} kinetics as fundamental determinants of energy and matter interchange, reveals the importance of supporting a biomass rich soil and should be a high priority in the development of agro-ecological principles. Transition to holistic management shifts soil Eh_{pH}, in corroboration with (Husson *et al.*, 2015; Mattila, 2023), through mechanisms related primarily to OM, evidenced by Figure 47 and Figure 48. Conventional agriculture is subject to a more intensive management regime, where less attention is paid on preserving important natural processes (Jordan, 2016). This long term press disturbance, that keeps soils held in a poverty trap (Gunderson and Holling, 2003; Ludwig *et al.*, 2018), significantly reduces OM in the soil, changing its structure and impacting on key energy pathways of microbial organisms. Sterilization is then behaving like a single pulse disturbance, dumping energy in the form of OM in to the soil system and lowering Eh_{pH}. Sub soil presented

the highest Eh-pH and was expected due to its podzolic character. These low fertility soils are free draining and are poor at retaining energy and matter (water, nutrients, etc), coupled with their low OM content, Eh-pH increases, sometimes outside of the optimum ranges for plant nutrient assimilation (Marschner, 1991, 2012; Husson, 2013).

This study provides evidence that holistic management regimes can create the necessary conditions for effective microbial mediated energy and matter exchange. OM content and soil textural properties maintained by biological activity help to keep the soil within the preferred range for ecosystem function and normal physiological tolerance (DeAngelis *et al.*, 2010; Husson, 2013). Promoting the microfauna appears to be a sensible management objective in agro-ecological systems. The flood recovery in Figure 52 shows that modifications of the REDOX conditions by micro-organisms, can stabilize fluctuating soils back in to normal ranges and promote homeostasis (Husson, 2013; Husson *et al.*, 2021). Plant homeostasis is thought to play a central role in plant defences to pathogens and is driven by multiple interactions between microorganisms and root systems (Husson *et al.*, 2021). This study provides compelling evidence that holistic management overrides textural properties and creates variable Eh-pH conditions, necessary for a diversity of micro-organisms – The LB samples appear more responsive to change (greater fluctuations, perhaps indicating greater REDOX plasticity). The Highly significant drop with flooding compared to WrS, is perhaps indicative of greater microbial activity using up the oxygen faster (Kralova *et al.*, 1992; Bohrerova *et al.*, 2004). Both flooding and microbial activity acidifies soils especially in organic soils (Kashem and Singh, 2001). LB resulted in a highly significant drop compared to WrS, indicating that perhaps the increased microbial activity already present, utilized oxygen at a faster rate (Kralova *et al.*, 1992; Bohrerova *et al.*, 2004). Similarly, LB was far more variable in the heat stress experiment (Figure 50), compared to WrS, perhaps a result of the greater internal energy from increased OM. However, in the recovery from flooding (Figure 52), LB stabilized closer to its original conditions compared to WrS, which seem to push in to a more oxidised state.

With the natural processes of Eh_{pH} regulation, less energy is needed by plants to adjust the chemical environment, promoting fertilizer efficiency (Tittonell *et al.*, 2008) (Husson, 2013) (Husson, 2013). Eh_{pH} drives the thermodynamic stability of certain nutrients (Pourbaix, 1945) and effective reactions promote efficient cycling, to support maintenance and growth. The fact that interactions between microbes and their milieu have such profound influences on the Eh_{pH} of the soil, demonstrates the role of living organisms in maintaining function. For example, following flooding, recovery of the WrS soil shifted to a new regime in which Eh_{pH} was moving dangerously close to destabilizing NH₄ and could lead to significant energy costs to the plants (Marschner, 1991, 2012; Husson, 2013). Eh is very limiting to plant growth and from this perspective any management or disturbance regime that has an impact on Eh will undoubtedly impact the ability of the system to harvest energy in the first place.

Redundancy is important due to the constant state of flux. In terms of REDOX the highly fluctuating environment is a strong selective force on the bacterial communities that are present (Pett-Ridge and Firestone, 2005; DeAngelis *et al.*, 2010). Without the ability of microorganisms to turn on and off in response to optimum conditions and there being a functional analogue that is better equipped to the new conditions is switched on, then large fluxes will wipe out the community and perhaps this is what is seen in the results. Where the LB with its higher biomass and potentially more diverse community it was able to function more effectively following the perturbation. As systems accumulate exergy, they can stabilize and adapt to environmental changes by reconfiguring energy flows, which in turn allows them to maintain optimal functioning and resist perturbations (Michaelides, 2021). Exergy and entropy fluxes enable the system to maintain homeostasis (Yildiz *et al.*, 2020).

Soil OM (OM) is highly regarded as one of the most crucial soil attributes for buffering soil degradation (Bayer and Mielniczuk, 1997). High levels of OM enhance fertility and improve soil structure and poor management may increase OM decomposition (Alexander, 1978; Afshar *et al.*, 2010; Sanderman and Berhe, 2017; Nascimento *et al.*, 2022), leading to a significant reduction in buffering capacity. This study confirms the buffering capacity of OM, in the recovery from flooding where LB was brought back to its original state and WrS ended up statistically higher than its baseline, indicating a shift to a new regime. Similarly, in the Baseline assessment, both the holistic soils (LB and Os), exhibited lower Eh_{pH}, despite LB being a similar soil texture to WrS, the

only measured difference here being the OM content. The expectation that OM content lowered Eh_{pH} (Oglesby, 1997; Lovley *et al.*, 1998; Macías and Camps Arbestain, 2010; Husson *et al.*, 2015), was for the most confirmed, however interestingly simply adding compost was not enough to have the same effect as holistic management. OM as source of electrons (Chesworth, 2004) requires metabolising to release the reducing properties (electrons). Supporting the case for holistic management that promotes OM storage in the soil.

6.7 Conclusions

Thermodynamics seems to drive soil properties and appears sensitive to biochemical processes, defining microbial community structure and function. Functions of which evolve through adaptations to thermodynamic constraints related to REDOX state of OM and the ΔG . As such, interpretation of these is essential in understanding resilience dynamics (Barros, 2021).

Embedded into thermodynamic theories of ecological systems, health is often discussed in terms of resilience and flexibility when confronted with perturbations. The study looked at two common stresses (heat and flooding) to examine the changes in Eh_{pH} with application to resilience. Both stress experiments provide compelling evidence of an Eh_{pH} response and confirm to some degree application to resilience monitoring.

Eh_{pH} responded to stress by an increase in variation, as disturbance factors develop, there are much more dramatic fluctuations – in keeping of a system reaching its boundaries and then restabilizing in a new regime, in the case of WrS. LB on the other hand although overall more variable in both the stress experiments, showed more elasticity, returning back to its stable state. Evidence of the buffering capacity of OM in holistic management regimes.

The more biomass (OM) the greater thermodynamic mass and redox potential is being regulated by mass and energy flows (the movement of water, the decomposition of OM). Interestingly LB was far more variable in the heat stress and the flooding compared to WrS, perhaps indicative of metabolic plasticity or redox-tolerance mechanisms (Pett-Ridge and Firestone, 2005) due to the increased energy in the system. However, it is not clear whether the response is a chemical or biological response and there is not a linear relationship. For soils to be an effective medium in

the pedosphere, they require finding the balance between reducing components (OM) that stop oxidation and oxidising components that ensure energy is maximized.

In agriculture, the trade-off between productivity and the negative environmental fall out from excessive use of fertilizer to boost productivity, is the greatest challenge in the development of agricultural sustainability. Thus, sustainable fertilizer use is an important factor to consider in resilience models.

Overall, redox heterogeneity at the level of minerals, microbial cells, OM, and the rhizosphere is a fundamental soil property. Further exploration may allow the more accurate prediction of soil and climate interactions and their sweeping impact on environmental sustainability.

Over the previous chapters this study has explored the application of thermodynamics to soil indicators. The following final chapter begins to speculate the connotations this has on agricultural management.

7 Reconciling thermodynamic theory with agricultural practice

7.1 The need for radical thinking

It is becoming increasingly more evident that a total reform of the agricultural sector is necessary to overcome the extent of environmental decline evident across the globe. Historically, agricultural production has risen to meet the demands of globalization, but at great cost to the environment (Rundgren, 2002; Altieri, 2009; Bazuin *et al.*, 2011; Jouzi *et al.*, 2017). Healthy soils are essential to sustainable development (Amundson *et al.*, 2015; Wang *et al.*, 2023), this is undoubted. However, achieving this requires a fundamental shift in socio-economic activities related to the land based sectors (Jouzi *et al.*, 2017). With high spatial variability and an extremely complex interaction between land management and soil health, accounting for the legion of important factors is difficult (Löbmann *et al.*, 2022).

The pedosphere is nested in the Earth system as an interface between the lithosphere, biosphere, hydrosphere and atmosphere (Weil and Brady, 2017). As such, soils embody the most critical natural resources, driving growth and innovation of life, and providing essential eco-system services (ITPS, 2015; Wang *et al.*, 2023). Soils have critical relevance to global issues (Keesstra *et al.*, 2016; Wang *et al.*, 2023). They are the foundation of agricultural production (Nascimento *et al.*, 2022) and maintaining their health is vital for sustainable development, as well as ecological stability. Without an effective framework, meeting the demands of anthropogenic growth and the intensified human use of land, will undoubtedly lead to the irreversible decline of ecosystem structure and function (Field *et al.*, 2016; Wang *et al.*, 2023).

Agriculture as a land use type, connects the soil as a resource to anthropogenic activities. To plausibly integrate new developments in ecological theory into a new agricultural paradigm depends on our ability to recognize the inherent cyclical and dissipative character of the natural world. This study promotes exploration in to new principles of agriculture, rooted in thermodynamics and recognizing the need to establish appropriate indicators that move away from the prescriptive biological, chemical and physical compartments of the soil (Huera-Lucero *et al.*, 2020; Bathaei and Štreimikienė, 2023; Chapter 3), toward a more holistic interpretation. A thermodynamic approach based on flows of energy and matter.

7.2 Toward a thermodynamic approach

Introducing thermodynamic perspectives to ecological theory is often met with opposition from all fields in the scientific community, on account of the philosophical reductions needed to simplify the innate complexity of nature (Nielsen, 2019). At the lowest hierarchy of pre-biotic systems, energy terms like entropy, energy and exergy are well equipped to accurately determine the system state, more similarly operating like that of a Carnot engine. However, a slight imperceptible step up the evolutionary ladder and classical descriptions of energy terms completely break down. The asymmetry of higher organisms (Hoffmeyer, 1998), shift them to stabilize at dynamical states, away from equilibrium (Jørgensen *et al.*, 2000). Classical and mechanistic laws are dependent upon the reversibility of equilibrium thermodynamics and this is straying in to the realms of irreversibility, as such, thermodynamic descriptors can still serve as metaphors, but it is necessary to redefine the concepts to make them suitable for non-equilibrium thermodynamic systems (Nielsen, 2019; Nielsen *et al.*, 2020).

Despite this rather conspicuous challenge, non-equilibrium thermodynamics has still proven best use to describe natural systems. They are open to the exchange of energy and matter (Prigogine, 1955), as opposed to classical equilibrium-based thermodynamics, that by definition only applies to isolated systems. The fact that autotrophic organisms generate more than 200TW of energy in photochemistry, is a strong indicator that energy and matter exchange involved in biotic, activity operates far from equilibrium (Kleidon, 2012). The dissipation of solar energy that is accompanied by the emergence of entropy (chapter 3; (Zotin, 1990; Aoki, 2012) reveals the directional and irreversible tendency of ecological processes (Jørgensen *et al.*, 2007). These cyclical and dissipative formations, (Lotka, 1922; Raymond L. Lindeman, 1942; Hutchinson, 1948; Odum *et al.*, 1971; Bertness and Callaway, 1994; Ulanowicz, 1995; DeAngelis *et al.*, 2012) are at the forefront of a new ecological metaphysic (chapter 2).

Recent advances in the field of evolutionary biology have revealed a hidden unexplored feature of evolution, that abets natural selection (self-organisation) and has been able to explain significant grey areas in theories of niche development and coexistence. New developments, posit that species evolve together, not consecutively as once presumed (chapter 2). Niches develop to occupy vacant domains in space-time (chapter 2), under the prescription that they advance the system further from

equilibrium (chapter 3). In addition, novel structures develop that may participate in the formation of autocatalytic loops with other species, catalysing their own and other species' evolution simultaneously (chapter 2). Substantiation of autocatalysis and the centripetal vortex it creates, has been pivotal to advancements in ecological theory (see chapter 2; Gatti *et al.*, 2017, 2018; Veldhuis *et al.*, 2018). Evolutionary processes combining the opposing forces of natural selection and self-organization (chapter 2; Veldhuis *et al.*, 2018), give rise to biological structures that capture and dissipate solar energy to the maximum of the entropy production (Lotka, 1922; Raymond L Lindeman, 1942; Odum, 1988; Aoki, 1991, 2012; Fath *et al.*, 2004; Chapman *et al.*, 2016; Vallino and Algar, 2016), in accordance with the second Law (Zotin, 1990; Aoki, 2012).

In order to maintain a complex organized structure, eco-systems maximize the flow of useable energy (Silow and Mokry, 2010) and invest in to eco-exergy (E. D. Schneider and Kay, 1994; Fath *et al.*, 2004; Jørgensen and Fath, 2004; Jørgensen, 2006c, 2008b; Schick, Porembski, Peter R Hobson, *et al.*, 2019), maintaining a steady state away from equilibrium ((Prigogine *et al.*, 1972; Müller, 1998; Ulanowicz *et al.*, 2006; Jørgensen *et al.*, 2007; Nielsen *et al.*, 2019). It is now widely acknowledged that the core mechanisms of this are in the cyclical and dissipative arrangements of autocatalytic structures. What more, these structures are successive and adaptive (Odum, 1969; Gunderson and Holling, 2001), behaving more like a propensity (*sensu* Karl Popper), that is in an open and nested system (in panarchy), enabling cross-scale interaction; a phenomena now used to explain new dimensions of heterogeneity – internal symbiosis at smaller scales and external competition at larger scales (chapter 2).

Agricultural production must rise to the challenges of closely mimicking natural processes, in order to minimize environmental impact whilst sustaining a growing population. Practitioners must come to terms with the duplexity between structurally maintaining processes and the decay and disorder that entropy evokes (Ulanowicz, 2009c, 2018). What follows, is the realization that agricultural systems, like natural systems are constrained by the boundaries of physical laws, but at the same time, require flexibility and responsiveness to change, with a successive (Fath *et al.*, 2004), adaptive, and cyclical character (Gunderson and Holling, 2001). To install resilience, agricultural systems require networks of symbiotic associations, entangled in positive feedback loops in adaptive cycles (Gunderson and Holling, 2001) and strings of

redundant pathways, to create opportunities that respond to perturbation. This duality, supports eco-system functioning and widens the thresholds of ecological performance (resilience and resistance; (Gunderson, 2000; Chapin *et al.*, 2011; Ludwig *et al.*, 2018). Society now finds itself on the doorstep of a new paradigm in agriculture, one that recognizes the circular interaction of species and components that is abetted by a through flow of energy, in thermodynamically and ontologically open configurations. Herein proposed as 'circular openness'.

7.3 Circular openness

Circularity in agriculture is certainly not a new concept and fundamentally is heading in the right direction by closing leaks in the system and recycling resources. However, could benefit from understanding the open character of the natural world, that promotes resilience. A system with greater capacity for energy capture and dissipation is considered more resilient to entropic collapse (Hobson & Ibsch 2010). Over time, enhanced rates of energy loss result in the build-up of high entropy wastes and reduced resilience (Odum, 1969). Combining the literature with the findings of this study, it is possible to put forth a revisitation of Jordan's (2016) thermodynamic farm model and concepts from Nature Positive (Ferri and Arnés García, 2023), to include this notion (Figure 53).

Figure 53 – A conceptual model for circular openness in an agricultural setting. Incorporating new developments in ecological theory and elaborating on the farm as a thermodynamic system. Source: Adapted from (Jordan, 2016; Ferri and Arnés García, 2023).

7.3.1 Focus on the dynamic.

A road map to sustainability in the agricultural sector, requires both an understanding of the true dynamics of ecosystem function, as well as the ability to transcribe these understandings into appropriate indicators. For without effective measurables, rooted to ecological processes, how does one intend to at least show what is working. Indicators often focus on serving as a surrogate for biological processes, which are fundamentally difficult to measure directly. The author argues that physical, biological and chemical compartmentalization, such as the utilization of single species or components, or even sets of species and components; is inadequate under the remit of modern understandings of the natural world. As described in previous chapters, ecosystem function is driven by thousands, if not millions of interactions across multiple temporal and spatial scales (Gunderson and Holling, 2001; Howison *et al.*, 2017; Veldhuis *et al.*, 2018).

Propositions of eco-exergy as a method for evaluating soil health and the complexity of ecosystems is well backed (Sciubba, 2004; Nielsen and Müller, 2009; Jørgensen, 2010; Vihervaara *et al.*, 2019). Defined as the amount of work a system can perform when it is brought into equilibrium with its surroundings (Jørgensen, 1990), eco-exergy has been successfully applied to many studies to assess eco-system health, primarily in wetlands (Jørgensen, 2002; Lu *et al.*, 2011; Romero and Linares, 2014; Lin *et al.*, 2018b). However, it is not possible to measure Eco-exergy directly and it must be calculated (Nielsen *et al.*, 2020). What follows is the need to identify appropriate proxies of exergy that are both effective at capturing the flow of energy and matter, as well as efficient in their acquisition.

Proxies of energy terms should focus on dynamics of the system, the interaction between the compartments and the flow of energy. Individual components like basic nutrient contents for example, are irrelevant in an inherently dynamic system, especially if the chemical environment makes the nutrient unavailable (Pourbaix, 1945). At the very least it is important to show the cycling of nutrients before an assessment can be made of the nutrient status; i.e. what proportion of nutrients are locked up in the system, or are mobilized within the fabric of the cycle itself, at the moment of analysis. That said, to be truly sustainable, practices should focus less on trying to artificially right the soil nutrient status, rather organically do so, through natural processes. What is perhaps far more appropriate instead of quantities or content of

nutrients, is the movement of elements as they are whisked about and act as a vessel for energy transformations.

This research explored temperature and REDOX as proxies of thermodynamic functions such as exergy and internal energy. It provides compelling evidence that thermodynamically derived soil proxies based on flows of energy and matter, are responsive to functional and structural changes in the soil (chapter 4), as well as an ability to distinguish between conventional and holistic soil management (chapter 6). An increase in solar radiation is compensated in a complex system, by the diversity of components and emergence of effective energy pathways, this is evident in the diverse meadow compared to disturbed site and the glasshouse trials in chapter 4, where more complex plant-soil systems yields to improved temperature attenuation (Norris *et al.*, 2012; Michaelian, 2015; Avelar *et al.*, 2020).

In chapter 6, REDOX was highly responsive to heat stress and flooding, showing a certain relationship with resilience. This was due to its relationship to the change in water content of the samples, indicating its ability to capture the flow of energy and matter (movement of water). Temperature by its definition measures the transfer of heat from system to surroundings and is well backed in above ground research (Norris *et al.*, 2012; Avelar *et al.*, 2020). This study confirms the same trends are evident in the soil. Furthermore, results from chapters 4 and 5 show that temperature is also closely linked to soil moisture, where the results go on to show that thermal attenuation is dependent on a consistent supply of water, only possible in thermodynamically open systems. Finally, the trials examined a range of biotic factors (plant biomass and soil organic matter) and abiotic factors (soil texture, soil water, and microclimate). The results illustrate how thermodynamic variables (e.g., Eh_{pH} and temperature) reflect the interdependence among these factors (Shu *et al.*, 2022; Devi, 2024).

The research here is limited to controlled environments and is quite far removed from a natural setting. Although some evidence of field-based study is presented, the research community needs to move deeper into this *in-situ* analysis. Exploration of both temperature and REDOX as proxies of energy flow are in their infancy. Future research can start to explore these same principles in the field and practitioners can utilize the methodologies here to develop their own monitoring approach to soil management rooted in thermodynamics. For example, this study started to

differentiate between individual species and their thermodynamic character. A plant community is a sub ecosystem and due to variations in environmental conditions, different communities may have different energy states (Wu *et al.*, 2017). Understanding the energetics of plant communities and establishing the relationship between individual communities energy states and the surrounding environment, would help to better predict environmental impact and to establish site specific thresholds.

7.3.2 Getting in to the flow of things

In an open system energy flow is maximised with complexity (Bullock *et al.*, 2022 and Fath *et al.*, 2004). Chapter 4 indicates that the presence of plants enhances water movement through evapotranspiration, this is increasing energy dissipation (Jørgensen *et al.*, 2000) and is evident by the greater attenuation of temperature. Limit the inflow of water (as in drought scenario in chapter 4 and chapter 5) and the very mechanism that is increasing energy dissipation acts to drive the system to collapse (as seen when the plants thermal signature changed under drought). Similarly in chapter 6, heat stress pushes water out of the system and gives rise to highly variable conditions. Chapter 5 shows that in open systems, thresholds are evident that impede energy dissipation to a critical point. Finally in chapter 6 the presence of available energy in the form of OM gives rise to greater REDOX plasticity, indicating a responsive complex system.

Eh and pH are factors that strongly influence the stability of nutrients (Pourbaix, 1945; Gambrell and Patrick Jr, 1978; Laanbroek, 1990; Husson, 2013). If Eh/pH conditions strongly influence the stability of nutrients and so their availability to react, and organisms have the potential to modify their environment, then it's clear how much influence microbial activity has on nutrient cycles. Chapter 6 results suggest that holistic management can alter soil conditions and impact the availability of nutrients, keeping them within a more suitable range for metabolic efficiency. This corroborates what Veldhuis *et al.*, (2018) postulate, that nutrient cycling and availability are emergent properties that arise from the fractal eco-space (Cazzolla Gatti *et al.*, 2018), contrary to classical accepted views that they determine community structure (Veldhuis *et al.*, 2018). In this sense REDOX relates well with theories of centripetality (Chapter 2 and 3), in that the adequate presence of biomass (OM) and an increase in endosomatic energy (E.D Schneider and Kay, 1994; Eric D. Schneider and Kay,

1994);; Jordan, 2016; Ferri and Arnés García, 2023), actively makes resources (nutrients) more available. Evidence here in Chapter, where holistic management, tends to place soil in favourable conditions. With this in mind, simple measures of nutrient content do not accurately quantify the nutrient status of the plant-soil system, for example, soil N fails to encompass nitrogen mobilized in living organisms, throughout the whole nitrogen cycle (Loreau, 1998; 2010; Lotka, 1925).

The farm is not independent from the surrounding environment, the panarchy interconnects them (Gunderson and Holling, 2001; Gunderson and Pritchard, 2012) through a flow of energy and matter across the boundaries of many hierarchical sub systems (micro and macro-organisms), enables exergy storage. These can be crops that have associations with other organisms (nitrogen fixation for example), but they can also be wild, in fact as seen in chapter 4, a diverse assemblage of native species has profound influences on the thermal regime. Sharp physical boundaries set between farm and environment, fail to acknowledge the cross-boundary flow evident in the transient flow networks characteristic of natural systems (Gunderson and Holling, 2001; Post *et al.*, 2007; Yarrow and Salthe, 2008; Gatti *et al.*, 2018); such as, species migration across ecosystems or atmospheric dynamics. Energy and matter is imported and exported between local interactions at smaller scales (mammals or invertebrates foraging across the plot), to larger scales (such as migration corridors and climate influence). It is perhaps not simply a matter of strong interactions within components and weak interactions across boundaries (Nielsen *et al.*, 2019), the extent of cross scale interaction, throughout the panarchy, suggests that boundaries are interwoven into the fabric of the landscape.

The farm is nested in its surrounding environment (Figure 53) and dependant upon the flow of energy and export of entropy, carried out by endosomatic processes to maintain its distance from TE (Prigogine and Nicolis, 1985; Jordan, 2016; Prigogine, 2017; Caviedes-Voullième and Hinz, 2020). By severing the connection between farm and environment, through fertilizer inputs (otherwise part of the wider network in autocatalytic interaction), pesticide and herbicide use (destroying important energy and matter carriers), this essentially isolates the system and as seen in Chapters 4 and 6, this can drive to collapse. There becomes a disconnect of energy and matter flow mechanisms. In the same way that (Lovelock and Margulis 1974; Lovelock 1995) and other authors hypothesised that the dissipation of Energy through the Earth

system is indicative of strong biotic activity, the endosomatic feedback (E. D. Schneider and Kay, 1994; Jordan, 2016; Ferri and Arnés García, 2023) coupled to open energy inflow (Chapter 3; Boltzmann, 1905; Schneider and Kay, 1995; Nielsen *et al.*, 2019; Vihervaara *et al.*, 2019) (circular openness), regulates the biosphere, with implications to climate change.

7.3.3 The role of biodiversity in mitigating climate change

Sustainable and resilient agronomic systems are needed to support the ever more demanding food-energy-water security nexus (Hatfield *et al.*, 2017). Through simplification of the once heterogeneous landscape, intensification has resulted in a loss of biodiversity and ecological function, heavily impacting critical eco-system services (Norris *et al.*, 2012; Landis, 2017; Graaff *et al.*, 2019). Climate regulation is one of the most important services that regulates atmospheric processes and above all, moderates temperature (Zari, 2017). The current climate crisis has been attributed to widespread land degradation and loss of biodiversity (García *et al.*, 2018). Steps to increase production without addressing resilience and long-term provision of ecosystem services, can lead to highly undesirable environmental outcomes (Bennett *et al.*, 2014). Biodiversity is often thought of as a carbon sink, this is true and Eco-exergy is stored in the biomass of carbon based lifeforms. However, climate change mitigation in the sense of circular openness recognizes biodiversity as a climate regulator, where structure and function promote effective energy dissipation and mediates local climate extremes (chapter 4).

In chapter 6, although certain stresses such as heat or flooding do destabilize the energy flow (evidenced by more variable EhpH in this instance) and this appears more exaggerated in a higher biomass regime (Lauriston compared to Writtle). The OM content (biomass) buffers recovery enabling a return to the baseline (as in the flooding recovery in chapter 6). Holistic management acts to increase OM in the soil, working to stabilize and lower EhpH. This has a direct impact on the flow of energy and more importantly, the availability of resources, such as nutrients.

One of the truly astounding features of biodiversity, is the sheer volume of species that can coexist in proximity. As discussed in chapter 2, new understandings in niche emergence predicts that species themselves exponentially create and manipulate available niches (Gatti *et al.*, 2017), rather than being set in stone, which is where the

challenges of conventional biodiversity theories lie (Gatti *et al.*, 2017). Biodiversity can be considered as a system of RAF sets and this can explain species coexistence (Gatti *et al.*, 2017). As previously mentioned, biodiversity, is emphatically indeterminate (Peirce, 1892; Elsasser, 1981; Popper, 1990; Ulanowicz, 2009a; Fiscus and Fath, 2018; Kauffman, 2019). Laws constrain events, but they are incapable of determining outcomes, due to the deeply heterogenous features; biodiversity is unpredictable. This is often overlooked (Ulanowicz, 2009a, 2020), likely down to a lack of mathematical models of biodiversity, that quantify indeterminacy (Shannon, 1948; Grad, 1965; Ulanowicz, 2020).

The homeostatic effect (Lovelock and Margulis, 1974, 1974) of diverse assemblages, exhibiting feedback mechanisms (E.D Schneider and Kay, 1994; Jordan, 2016; Ferri and Arnés García, 2023) that efficiently utilize resources (Ulanowicz, 2006, 2016), coupled to redundant pathways that build resilience (Naeem, 1998; Petchey *et al.*, 2007; Biggs *et al.*, 2020; Ulanowicz, 2020), regulates ecosystems and even the biosphere. In the context of thermodynamics, the failings of conventional agro-ecosystems (largely monocultures), is the substitution of biological function with external, fossil fuel based, high energy inputs (Jordan, 2016). The self-regulating capacity inherent in natural systems is replaced by artificial resilience, in the form of fertilizers, machinery and soil amendments (Ludwig *et al.*, 2018) (Romero and Linares, 2014). With biodiversity decline, agro-ecosystems capacity for energy dissipation is reduced and eco-system productivity is functionally dependant on biodiversity (Ferri and Arnés García, 2023). Agricultural practice must think more about maximizing energy storage and allowing a throughflow of energy toward a nature positive production (Ferri and Arnés García, 2023). This study provides evidence that this can be achieved by increasing system complexity. Chapter 4 explicitly details how complexity can directly impact energy dissipation and how soil temperature is an effective indicator of this. If energy output exceeds input then some degree of resource depletion is occurring at the likely expense of health. Fundamentally, agricultural systems spend too much focus on yield and not enough on eco-system function. The most important consideration is to ensure energy is naturally flowing through the development of a complex assemblage of species.

Results for the trials here indicate that with diverse assemblages of species and the advancement of complexity that brings in more energy and matter (biomass,

information and networks), mechanisms develop to buffer disturbances such as heat and drought, evidenced primarily by the attenuation for temperature in the Meadow compared to Disturbed (EXP4, chapter 4), despite a similarly low moisture content. In addition, the holistic sites in chapter 6 with their enhanced OM, did show a level of resilience in flood recovery. Within natural systems, multiple fail safes exist so the network may persist through disruptions (Woolley *et al.*, 2017). Degradation of land means it can support fewer plants and implementation of appropriate regenerative practices, can mitigate the negative effects of anthropogenic development.

7.3.4 Life cannot exist without water

Perhaps the most obvious but with the furthest reaching connotations of the principles within circular openness. Water is well known to be a definitive indicator of life on planets and even in the most barren of deserts; where there is moisture, there is life. The limiting action of water was introduced early on in this narrative, with the Fairy Circles in Namibia. Water activates the soil, in the way that a professional baker would mix yeast with water first to activate it. Through hydrological feedback mechanisms, bio-physical formations create geometric, heterogeneous patterns (Getzin *et al.*, 2020), to combat the limited moisture conditions in arid landscapes. In semi flood plains, moisture levels in the soil control the rate of matter degradation and so energy dissipation (Veldhuis *et al.*, 2018). These water driven processes create landscape patterns both spatially and temporally. These phenomena, evidence how heterogeneous features create stability in limiting conditions. With the fairy circles and other habitats found in limiting environments, the most stable solution is to develop a heterogeneous patch dynamic, drawing resources to specific areas (islands of fertility).

The evidence toward moisture acquisition as a fundamental process in circular openness is quite compelling, a closed system cannot obtain the necessary energy/matter (water in this instance) to sustain the system. The drought experiments in chapters 4 and 5 illustrate this rather well, when the system is open to an inflow of energy and matter (in this case water) thermodynamic function is as expected and the complexity yields to thermodynamic efficiency - evapotranspiration with a steady supply of moisture attenuates temperature. Isolate the system, by stopping the inflow of water and the thermodynamic function appears to almost reverse, the evapotranspirative action that once regulated the system, now drives it faster in to declining thermodynamic function (Figure 37). This begs the question then – how do

natural systems sustain adequate moisture levels and how can agriculture meet the demand sustainably?

It's easy to irrigate our agricultural fields but this comes at great environmental cost. Abstraction from water bodies is leading to drought in many precious seas and lakes. The Aral Sea, Spain, is a sad case of this, which has had all sorts of repercussions like the release of salts and pesticides into the atmosphere, poisoning land and people for miles around. Due to the inherent openness, mankind must be ever cautious of 'quick fixes' in agriculture. The new agricultural paradigm must look to harnessing natural processes of autocatalysis and centripetality, to draw in resources like water.

Chapter 5 explicitly evidences how moisture levels affect thermodynamic function and identifies a threshold of approx. 10% decline in soil moisture content. That said, in the species rich meadow (chapter 4), despite moisture levels reaching an alarming low level and converging with the disturbed site, thermodynamic function persists, evidenced by the more attenuated temperature regime. This shows how regular monitoring of soil moisture and temperature, can promote the efficient and sustainable use of water; looking not just at the moisture level and assuming an irrigation point from that, but more to the thermodynamic function, and discerning an irrigation regime from this standpoint. Furthermore, in chapter 4, despite converging to a common moisture content, the Meadow remained significantly more attenuated than the disturbed plot. Perhaps indicative of better acquisition of the little water available, factoring in depth of roots and density of root mass could present some interesting relationships to energy dissipation. Due to the seemingly huge impact that moisture has on the soil temperature, research would benefit from further investigation in to controlling moisture content perhaps in drought scenarios, utilizing novel methods like the one presented in chapter 5.

A quite profound example of biological influence on water cycling, is tropical rainforests. They act as hydrological pumps, controlling rain frequencies and most of the humid air. Considering that water movement from the soil increases with plants (Yuan et al., 2021), one starts to wonder about the role of plant-soil:water-energy dynamics. Especially being that it's clear how diverse assemblages seem to mediate energy dissipation rather well in drought scenarios (Chapter 4; Figure 25, Figure 26 and Figure 27).

A diversity of species traits supports diverse water acquisition (Figure 54). Recording plant moisture content and evapotranspiration in the study here, would have supported the argument better. However, it is fair to assume that with plants water moves from soil to plant and actually in this system, the plants have a certain element of control over the process (stomata). What more plant communities have heterogenous rooting structures (depth, fine root mass, etc), that promote water acquisition (Figure 54).

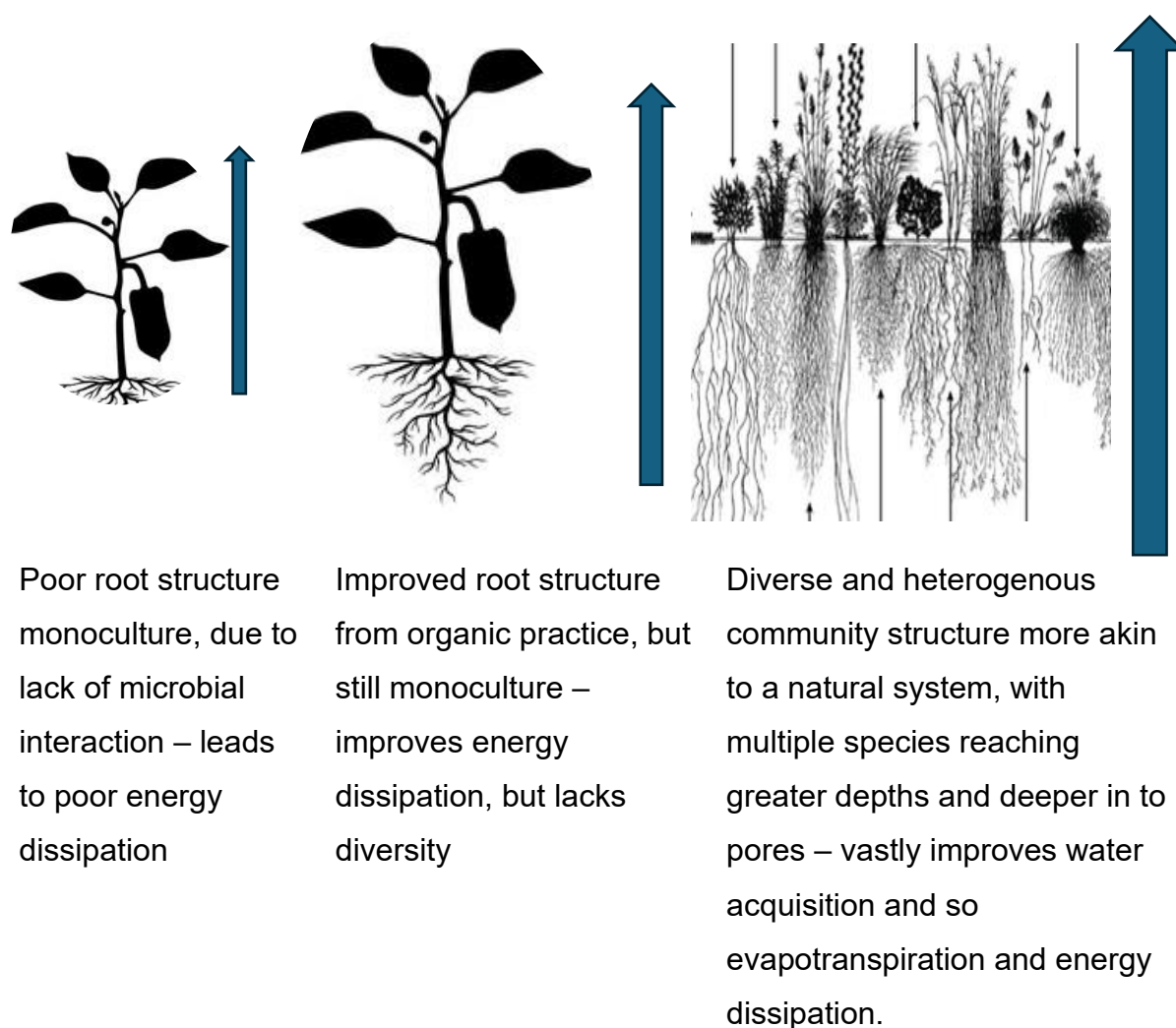


Figure 54 Relationship between evapotranspiration and plant-soil structure and function. Diverse assemblages of species with diverse rooting structures and extensive microbial interaction (right), enables more effective water movement, compared to monocultures with poor structure and lack of microbial interaction (left and middle). Both spatial and temporal distribution of roots and rhizosphere mechanisms, aid complementarity through niche differentiation and facilitation (Homulle et al., 2022).

This concept is however dependant on the understanding that evapotranspiration is a key mechanism behind effective energy dissipation in natural systems (Zotin, 1990;

Jørgensen, 2006c; Aoki, 2012; Hildebrandt *et al.*, 2016). Careful investigation into the dynamics of energy flow in water limited situations would further support its application.

7.3.5 Finding the perfect balance between constraint and flexibility

Symmetry in the universe constrains what is possible through time-reversible laws ($E=mc^2$); symmetries are conservative, as transformations can be inverted (Fraassen *et al.*, 1989; Longo *et al.*, 2012; Korenić *et al.*, 2020). Just as in the dead deer analogy, where the energy and mass remain the same (Tiezzi *et al.*, 2007). Time-reversible laws, cannot however exert the 'symmetry-breaking selection' needed for progressive order found in living systems (Ulanowicz, 2019); the functional incompleteness (Koreníc *et al.*, 2020). An unavoidable and irreversible decay of energy defines the entropic nature of the universe and is reflected in the arrow of time (Blum, 1951).

Some authors view the second law as the final cause (*sensu* Aristotle; Salthe, 1993), or a major direction behind evolutionary change (Schneider and Sagan, 2005), where the sole purpose of living systems is to accelerate entropy production (Swenson, 1989). However, Ulanowicz (2009) argued that classical views of the second law, as the fundamental essence of universal dynamics and order being an accidental consequence, are over simplified versions of its true nature. Entropy does decay the existing configurations, it acts to withdraw and shed constraint, but it also creates new opportunities (Ulanowicz, 2019). It is a measure of the parallel pathways in a diverse trophic network (Rutledge *et al.*, 1976; Ulanowicz, 2019).

From a thermodynamic view of growth, one could posit, that departures from equilibrium (Jørgensen *et al.*, 2000) and rates of growth are a product of positive feedback. Without the generation of energy gradients, a flow of exergy would not move a system away from equilibrium, it would remain there (Jørgensen *et al.*, 2000). However, without throughput, decay and degradation, associated with negative growth (Jørgensen *et al.*, 2000), the second law is not satisfied, to say the least. Autocatalysis enables the co-evolution of species that form guilds and in the event that a species or species guild, for whatever reason is diminished, a functionally similar analogue exists to take its place (Elmqvist *et al.*, 2003; Ludwig *et al.*, 2018). Stability is maintained through spatial and temporal heterogeneity (creating landscape mosaics), in response to the changing environmental conditions (Howison *et al.*, 2017; Veldhuis *et al.*, 2018).

The continual maintenance of ecological function is through both; mutual necessity (with positive feedback loops among components) at one scale and negative feedback between competing loops at the next scale up (Howison *et al.*, 2017; Veldhuis *et al.*, 2018). Negative feedback is the basis of cybernetics (Wiener, 1961) and eco-systems up to the highest scale (Lovelock, 1995; Allen and Holling, 2008; Wardwell *et al.*, 2008; Sundstrom, 2009; Nash *et al.*, 2014; Spanbauer *et al.*, 2016; Sundstrom and Allen, 2019). are emphatically cybernetic (Raymond L. Lindeman, 1942; Hutchinson, 1948; Bateson, 1980; Jørgensen *et al.*, 2000; Guddemi, 2020).

However, to quote Korenić *et al.*, (2020), 'Life is not simply a thermostat controlled by positive and negative feedback' (Lovelock and Margulis, 1974), this does not capture the dual nature of eco-system dynamics (Ulanowicz, 2009b); a symmetry breaking, creation of constraints (such as a membrane) opposed by negative regulation (such as natural selection; Korenić *et al.*, 2020). Laws do not determine evolution, they are instrumental and constraining, but not definitive (Ulanowicz, 2014). With this comes the realization that no positivist tools are available to quantify what is perhaps not there, the apophatic character of biodiversity (Ulanowicz, 2012, 2014). This feature cannot yield to historical events, as determinacy opens to vulnerabilities (Ulanowicz, 2012, 2014), nonetheless, integrity is maintained through repair of disturbance (Gunderson and Holling, 2001; Ulanowicz, 2009c) and the system continues to function. What is now required is the redefining of thermodynamic terms to align with the new ecological metaphysic (Ulanowicz, 1999).

When it comes to agriculture, there is no hard answer for farming practice! It is clear that prescriptive agricultural techniques do not have a broad enough application to meet the inherently individual nature of landscapes. If Chapter 4 tells anything, it's that plant-soil systems are inherently heterogeneous and complexity yields to effective energy dissipation (Jørgensen *et al.*, 2000). In chapter 4, even the simple transition from bare soil to one species shows an improvement in energy dissipation. Both chapters 4 and 6 show how this small increase in complexity not only improves thermodynamic efficiency but also creates heterogeneous features, especially under stress. For example, the plant samples were more variable than bare soil and Sub under stress in Section 4.3.1, similarly LB was far more variable than WrS in Chapter 6 (Figure 50 and Figure 52).

Extensive literature exists on the many elaborate ways in which a multitude of biophysical formulations can impact functioning (slope, aspect, soil type, etc.; (Aalto *et al.*, 2013; Bartz *et al.*, 2015). Why would the microcosm of agricultural soils behave any differently. With significant compositional and structural differences observed within extremely short spatial ranges (Howison *et al.*, 2017; Veldhuis *et al.*, 2018; Löbmann *et al.*, 2022), how can the possibility of a one size fits all model even be considered.

In conjunction with constraining formations of species guilds and mutual interaction (RAF sets), agricultural systems, like natural systems require flexibility; in the form of competitive loops (Howison *et al.*, 2017; Veldhuis *et al.*, 2018) and redundancy (Rutledge *et al.*, 1976; Naeem, 1998; Elmqvist *et al.*, 2003; Petchey *et al.*, 2007; Ludwig *et al.*, 2018; Biggs *et al.*, 2020; Ulanowicz, 2020). These stem from their ontologically and thermodynamically open character (Ulanowicz, 2006; Nielsen and Emmeche, 2013; Nielsen *et al.*, 2019, 2020; Biggs *et al.*, 2020). This requirement for radical contingency (Ulanowicz, 1999) is useful, particularly for the emergence of life and the evolvability of autocatalytic sets (Hordijk and Steel, 2014; Gatti *et al.*, 2018). Organization in the biosphere then is the association of the two antagonistic processes (Longo *et al.*, 2015), constraint and flexibility.

How can practitioners expect to maintain ecological function in such simplified systems as agriculture has become?

The combined flexible and constrained behaviors are far from mechanistic and clashes with the conventions on how nature has been perceived (Ulanowicz, 2004). Natural selection is only part of the story (Lotka, 1922, 1925; Calcagno *et al.*, 2017; Gatti *et al.*, 2017; Veldhuis *et al.*, 2018) and redundancy is an important feature of stability (Biggs *et al.*, 2020). In fact, what one observes is that a wide variety of eco-systems are more flexible than they are constrained (Zorach and Ulanowicz, 2003; Ulanowicz, 2009c, 2020). This not only confirms the extent of redundancy, but it also deems it necessary. This is where our agricultural systems must take heed. Kaufman spoke of the end of the era of physics, what lies ahead is the era of ecology, a world of contingencies, 'Circular openness' perhaps?

“With only positivist tools at one's disposal, one cannot hope to encompass the interplay between constraint and looseness that characterizes sustainability”

(Karl Popper, see Ulanowicz, 2020).

8 References

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Appendix A - Summary statistics and data analysis of 'Temperature indices of Growth phase for controlled experiments'

Figure 16

Sensor	2021-05-01	2021-05-02	2021-05-03	2021-05-04	2021-05-05	2021-05-06	2021-05-07	2021-05-08	2021-05-09	2021-05-10	2021-05-11	2021-05-12	2021-05-13	2021-05-14	2021-05-15	2021-05-16	2021-05-17	2021-05-18	2021-05-19	2021-05-20
C1	15.98632653	14.110612	13.453061	18.187347	14.643265	17.864898	14.933265	13.474694	22.211224	22.267959	19.620408	23.196939	16.52	14.862755	14.812245	17.952449	16.012857	17.362245	18.512653	14.168878
C2	15.11326531	13.161224	13.13	15.554694	13.446531	15.448163	13.566735	13.118776	20.063878	20.409796	18.467551	17.753878	16.20551	14.371327	14.549796	16.888367	15.174898	16.132653	17.238571	13.672653
C3	12.25571429	13.931429	13.164898	13.778571	14.002857	14.164286	14.453265	12.847143	20.733469	20.619184	18.682449	19.373469	15.806327	13.959592	14.247143	17.271224	14.645714	15.933673	17.152041	13.526531
C4	15.25	13.604694	13.2249	15.749388	14.278367	15.949796	13.791429	13.12857	19.977959	20.265918	18.047347	21.599184	16.08	14.235102	14.410612	16.638163	15.184082	14.958571	17.336735	13.378367
C5	11.84265306	14.049592	12.2244	15.168776	13.2244	15.933469	14.061224	14.35102	12.532449	21.999592	21.598776	20.133673	19.472653	14.899796	13.971224	14.276531	17.925306	14.45	16.759592	17.442857
C6	13.824498	12.422449	12.81898	14.967551	12.801224	14.439184	12.997959	12.729592	19.705102	19.93449	17.580408	17.66551	15.902245	13.976531	14.202653	16.22102	14.759184	16.812449	16.672245	13.026735
C7	11.70734694	12.967755	12.762653	15.460612	13.358776	15.712653	13.210612	12.943469	20.700408	21.565918	18.126939	21.866327	15.778367	13.837143	14.192857	16.743878	14.504286	14.842857	16.707959	13.222449
C8	11.44693878	11.862653	13.18551	13.4306	11.211667	13.614082	11.862959	12.963469	20.149184	20.33388	18.015306	17.888776	15.967347	14.015714	14.299796	16.929184	14.843265	14.391837	16.824898	13.577755
L&M1	14.92469388	13.710408	12.876531	16.394898	13.849184	16.979388	18.068571	13.100204	21.986531	21.555102	18.895714	22.553673	15.114286	14.211429	14.312653	17.586735	15.125918	16.86102	17.127551	13.811837
L&M2	14.61	12.798571	13.021837	15.198163	13.216735	17.023469	16.139592	13.04	20.376531	21.386122	19.656327	21.978776	15.996939	14.164694	14.268367	17.205714	15.106735	15.592857	17.052551	13.443898
L&M3	15.77938776	10.846327	12.898163	14.36449	11.736939	13.976122	14.128163	12.669184	18.551633	19.363469	15.582041	19.562449	15.315306	14.193265	13.765102	15.976735	14.663878	14.640816	15.822653	13.124898
L&M4	13.90836735	11.89449	12.537959	14.797347	13.182449	15.002653	15.00898	12.969184	19.478122	20.310408	17.538367	20.937551	15.65306	14.205408	14.16102	14.062653	15.026894	15.84049	17.301387	13.425306
L&M5	13.9477551	12.488367	12.710816	16.470204	13.797755	16.765949	16.332957	12.777347	20.158571	20.992653	19.906122	20.562653	15.712265	13.869918	13.951429	16.166939	16.64286	15.067959	16.83878	12.878163
L&M6	12.1014287	11.986531	12.05102	16.704694	13.880388	17.232449	13.755102	13.148367	21.182245	21.719796	18.824698	22.072857	15.845306	14.135102	14.216735	16.721224	16.500408	15.494082	16.821224	13.641224
L&M7	13.51102041	12.383265	13.34061	15.196939	12.698163	14.882449	14.487347	12.866531	20.526122	20.509184	17.532857	21.201224	15.613878	14.483673	14.17551	16.766122	14.713469	15.830612	16.138163	13.443061
L+1	15.17673469	13.511224	13.491633	15.873265	13.852653	16.740612	17.326531	13.105102	20.687959	21.53	18.406122	22.577347	16.123469	14.32602	14.462449	17.151224	15.755306	16.80102	17.671633	13.806327
L+2	13.99632653	12.463469	13.380612	15.825102	12.583878	15.83551	16.207959	12.692449	20.429184	20.529653	18.869592	21.014286	15.738163	14.072755	15.472245	16.502653	14.739388	15.690816	16.311429	13.514592
L+3	15.39306122	13.451633	13.226122	17.113469	13.820612	15.387755	13.376531	13.232857	20.515714	21.927755	18.070816	21.992857	16.069184	14.40949	14.304082	16.450204	16.713673	15.562449	17.090816	13.412041
L+4	13.11857143	11.31	13.37102	12.850408	12.246939	12.90102	12.844082	12.671837	18.795952	18.77	15.572041	19.618367	15.30102	14.061837	14.683081	15.372245	14.605122	14.50449	15.740204	12.611224
L+5	14.04326531	12.436735	13.14449	16.158367	13.12449	16.618776	12.785306	12.845306	19.732653	20.141837	18.793961	20.052024	15.638571	14.41	13.940204	16.04551	16.459592	15.080408	16.60361	13.267347
L+6	12.42163285	13.650816	12.585714	15.516731	11.4225	10.842157	12.135889	12.656531	21.626735	21.404408	18.987143	22.602245	15.558776	14.229388	14.109184	17.143061	16.194694	14.406327	17.119184	13.343469
L+7	12.87367347	11.472653	13.26	14.023673	13.367143	12.81551	14.012857	13.089796	18.815918	19.592449	16.686327	19.742245	15.490408	13.968367	14.700612	15.531429	15.463878	14.819388	15.432449	12.833469
L+8	14.36428571	13.182449	13.115918	15.414082	13.474694	15.744286	14.576735	12.712041	20.673673	20.615918	19.036939	18.094286	15.829184	13.704694	14.029184	16.989796	14.759388	16.271837	16.878367	13.582857
L+1	13.40571429	12.798735	13.666327	17.383673	14.815306	17.903673	14.710612	13.532041	21.957143	22.403265	21.041837	22.912857	16.371224	14.611531	14.722449	17.237143	14.389796	17.596494	17.801429	13.909388
L2	12.38979592	14.241224	13.394694	13.749608	11.933673	10.902979	13.13265	12.713878	21.322245	20.998367	13.27143	19.37449	15.875918	14.060612	14.149388	17.941224	14.877347	17.009184	16.840816	13.722041
L3	13.5693878	11.527143	13.309592	15.41449	12.296122	14.200408	14.696327	12.837755	19.240204	20.083878	17.120204	20.389388	15.569184	14.400816	14.785306	15.700408	15.849796	14.88551	16.402857	13.060408
L4	12.86979592	12.635952	13.169592	13.589184	12.250568	10.410444	12.30398	12.715306	20.536939	20.350612	18.553061	17.247959	15.698776	14.11551	13.879592	16.9598	15.908163	13.89592	15.955306	13.29388
L5	12.1777551	13.587755	13.306735	13.721224	13.65449	16.356531	14.024592	17.791837	16.133265	22.108776	19.908571	18.939388	15.635306	13.740612	14.033673	17.286122	14.746327	16.085714	16.663878	13.373061
M1	14.74040816	13.281633	13.074898	15.766122	14.606939	16.708571	17.964694	13.092449	20.892449	21.900204	17.63327	22.338163	15.370816	14.627755	14.717347	15.939388	15.367959	16.251633	14.802449	14.079184
M2	12.63591837	13.735918	13.096939	17.426939	14.659592	17.299592	14.52898	13.086939	21.938367	22.597551	19.263878	22.820204	16.012245	14.412857	14.43551	17.097551	15.317755	15.636531	17.490816	13.573673
M3	11.44681818	13.531837	12.991224	13.593889	12.09449	10.985385	12.164634	12.537551	21.553265	21.305918	17.998776	17.798776	14.756122	13.849592	14.089796	14.273447	16.40551	16.684286	13.389388	
M4	15.44751012	12.96327	12.663673	14.998571	13.494286	15.026327	13.793878	12.882653	20.118163	20.243673	18.05102	18.301837	15.85102	14.121122	14.243469	17.033265	15.15633	17.273878	17.148367	13.553265
M5	13.82244988	12.374694	12.386327	14.316122	13.416122	15.81163	15.246531	12.518571	19.466122	19.906939	16.676327	17.881837	15.452041	13.719592	13.906122	16.336735	17.12245	13.90592	16.405714	13.037347
M6	11.96877551	12.706939	12.68449	13.38265	13.034286	15.943061	12.940204	12.84	20.86531	21.051429	18.869388	21.20449	15.472041	13.727551	13.964988	16.379796	16.090408	15.514286	13.044286	
M7	11.5516873	12.420408	12.897143	13.105952	11.248125	10.631765	14.869184	11.85449	12.476939	20.571224	12.228571	18.737143	14.650204	13.744694	13.83449	14.223878	16.194082	16.194082	16.105306	13.44082
M8	12.90795918	11.876531	12.529184	14.237959	12.674694	14.473061	14.540204	12.539796	19.547959	19.960816	17.753061	20.857143	15.439592	13.523061	13.754694	16.19898	14.381429	15.51224	15.871837	12.966939
Sh1	12.68183673	13.256939	13.267347	13.874074	11.973542	11.1568	13.033182	12.876735	22.24102	21.491429	14.93265	17.758163	14.957347	13.978776	14.279592	17.423469	15.030204	17.770204	17.148776	13.588571
Sh2	16.234498	14.789796	13.271837	14.879184	13.320612	14.761429	14.652857	14.791429	19.139796	19.791429	17.985102	15.546122	14.362551	13.852857	15.757143	15.908571	14.900408	16.402041	13.222041	
Sh3	14.92263056	13.362245	13.281837	17.320204	14.139796	16.960816	15.205918	13.318163	21.553469	22.422857	19.345918	22.373061	16.357551	14.40898	14.50449	16.987143	15.4	15.328163	17.275306	13.567143
Sh4	12.63673469	11.291429	12.931837	13.944082	12.233061	10.32653	12.75449	18.76531	18.728776	16.676327	19.669388	15.477755	13.931837	13.650816	15.501429	14.44449	14.840816	15.690204	13.037551	
Sh5	11.76489796	13.342286	12.91	13.46981	11.246875	10.5546	12.042273	12.623061	12.623061	12.889776	17.269327	15.598571	13.727551	14.022653	13.979796	16.48367	16.48367	16.230612	13.38347	
Sub1	12.5142857	11.416327	12.116327	14.322857	11.862449	14.369184	11.85449	12.382449	19.515102	17.419796	20.201633	15.12408								

Figure 17

Scenario	2021-05-01	2021-05-02	2021-05-03	2021-05-04	2021-05-05	2021-05-06	2021-05-07	2021-05-08	2021-05-09	2021-05-10	2021-05-11	2021-05-12	2021-05-13	2021-05-14	2021-05-15	2021-05-16	2021-05-17	2021-05-18	2021-05-19	2021-05-20	T+	BJ	Sub	Turkey's Penetration	T+	BJ	Sub	
C1	25.87	27	22.37	22.87	25.69	26.25	25.69	20.06	31.31	29.56	31.75	28.87	19.56	16.62	23.25	26.06	23.44	27.75	29.37	19.81	24.5	23.5	24.06					
C2	24.56	24.75	21.56	20.87	23	22.25	22.19	19.25	28.84	27.25	29.12	26.87	19.06	16.62	21.56	24.31	21	24.81	24.75	18.75	22.56	24.31	25.31					
C3	21.35	19.84	21.35	19.84	22	20.75	22.06	16.62	29.81	20.45	27.44	27.81	16.62	16.12	21.75	23.94	21.25	26.12	22.25	16.61	24.56	24.75	23.69	1.323		0.618		
C4	23.87	24.87	21.37	20.69	23.12	22.37	22.31	19.06	26.69	26.69	28.44	26.06	16.87	16.37	21.25	23.62	20.75	24.62	25.81	18.5	21.5	22.75	22.84			6.162	5.002	
C5	25.44	21.84	19.75	21.81	22.56	21.84	16.84	30.56	26.37	31.19	29.62	18.81	16.56	22.44	26.31	22.06	26.87	29.87	19.56	21.44	21.12	23.66						
C6	21.5	22.25	20.37	19.19	20.19	20.31	21.19	18.56	27.62	26.06	27.56	26	18.56	17.81	20.84	23.81	20.75	25.5	23.87	17.81	22	21	25					
C7	21.62	22.5	21.5	20.12	21.5	20.62	21.84	19.31	28.5	26.62	26.36	26.36	16.84	19.19	21.31	23.87	20.56	25.87	24.12	16.62	19.62	22.06	26.56					
C8	21.84	22.94	21.5	16.5	19.75	19.5	19.81	19.06	26.51	26.69	26.94	26.06	16.75	17.84	21.12	23.81	19.5	22.69	22.44	16.81	22.75	20.44	24.94					
LMB1	22.75	24	20.69	19.84	21.25	23.25	21.69	18.69	29.19	27.56	29.19	27.81	16.5	16.37	21.06	24.37	20.62	29.19	25.12	16.94	24.75	23.84	24					
LMB2	23.56	20.94	20.12	21.37	22.44	21.62	16.87	26.25	26.56	27.84	27.37	19.75	16.44	21.06	23.81	20.37	24.87	24.19	19.81	23.06	25.62	26.25						
LMB3	19.09	19.19	18.56	16.94	17.44	19.06	18.5	17.5	26	24	25.37	24.37	17.69	17.37	19.75	22.19	18.75	21.56	22.5	17.5	24.94	26.19	21.5					
LMB4	22.25	22.5	20.31	19.31	20.84	21.44	20.94	18.69	29.12	25.84	27.34	26.12	16.56	16.31	21.19	23.62	21.06	24.81	26.75	19.56	20.87	22.87	22.31					
LMB5	21.81	22.44	20.56	20.61	21.06	23.19	21.56	16.69	28.37	27.37	27.06	16.5	17.87	20.44	22.94	20.69	22.75	23.44	26.25	20.87	22.81	22	21.69					
LMB6	22	23.75	21.12	19.56	22	21	22.06	19.06	26.12	26.5	27.25	27	18.81	17.94	20.37	22.67	20.12	23.94	23.69	18.25	23.37	22.25	22.25					
LMB7	20.12	21.44	20.25	17.44	18.19	18.5	16.81	16.06	27.5	25.37	27.12	25.87	16.12	17.44	20.19	23.12	22.06	26.87	22.75	16.12	20.19	24.06	22.75					
L+1	24.5	24.75	21.44	21.62	23.25	23.87	23.44	18.94	29.44	27.69	29.5	27.81	18.81	16.62	21.25	24.5	21.69	25.87	27.06	19.06	25.12	21.84	21.12					
L+2	22.56	23.06	20.31	19.5	20.75	21.44	21	17.84	26.25	27.69	26.12	27.5	16.12	17.62	20.25	22.94	19.75	23.44	23.19	18	21.44	21.19	16.69					
L+3	24.56	24.94	21	21.06	22.81	22.56	22.69	16.69	28.87	27.69	26.62	26.19	16.69	16.06	23.06	23.67	20.12	23.94	23.69	18.25	20.31	21.44	21.12					
L+4	21.5	20.87	19.69	18.44	19.56	18.67	20.06	17.75	26.25	24.25	25.06	24.19	17.75	17	19.06	21.25	16.37	21.62	21.56	16.69	21	21.25	20.87					
L+5	22.31	20.31	19.84	20.62	21.5	20.87	16.12	27.75	26.25	27.12	26.5	16.19	17.66	19.81	22.94	20.19	23.19	24.44	17.31	19.69	20.44	20.19						
L+6	22	23.37	20.75	18	19.44	19.25	20.12	18	27.62	25.5	26.56	26.19	18.06	17.75	20.31	23.75	19.44	24.5	22.37	18.44	20.31	19.69	23.87					
L+7	19.62	20.19	19.69	17.94	18.25	19	19.84	17.84	25.87	23.62	24.19	24.37	17.81	16.69	16.75	21.94	20.87	21.06	17	20.06	20.19	22.81						
L2	22.75	25.12	21.54	20.62	23	22.06	22.81	16.94	29.94	26	30.12	27.5	16.56	17.62	21.31	21	20.87	26.25	24.44	18.75	19.69	20.81	23.37					
L3	24.5	25.56	21.5	20.84	23.81	22.62	24.37	19	26.5	26.87	24.47	27.84	19	18.75	21.06	23.94	21.56	26.19	26.06	16.69	21.84	20.62	21.81					
L4	23.51	25.62	21.44	21.06	23.84	23.84	24.69	19.31	29.75	26.12	24.44	26.81	16.84	16.75	21	24.19	21.5	23.06	26.19	17	21.62	21.25	23.25					
L5	21.81	20.81	19.75	19	18.81	20.62	20.31	17.87	27.19	25.5	26.81	25.44	17.94	17.37	19.5	21.75	19.06	22.12	22.69	17.25	19.5	21.06	22.69					
M1	23.87	24.84	21.84	19.69	23.27	21.44	22.5	16.81	16.44	27.75	25.12	26.12	27.5	16.25	17.31	19.87	23.31	20.87	24.37	21.69	16.12	21.06	16.56	22.5				
M2	23.5	23.84	21.19	21.25	21.81	24.31	22.69	19.12	29.75	26.06	30.75	28	19.06	19.06	22.06	25.06	21.19	25.06	26.37	19.62	19.84	16.06	22.44					
M3	25.75	26.19	21.25	18.56	24.44	22.69	24.37	18.44	28.84	25.87	26.12	27.44	18.69	18	21.56	24.75	20.75	26.06	24.87	18.81	17.84	17.5	23.37					
M4	22.75	22.87	20.44	19.25	21.25	20.84	19.56	27.84	26.06	26	26	18.56	16.25	21	23.75	20.87	24.81	26.12	16.62	18.62	20.87	20.19	23.12					
M5	21.12	22	19.69	18.06	19.44	20.31	20.06	17.87	27.62	25.84	27.75	25.19	17.94	17.66	23	19.69	23.87	23.06	17.87	23.25	21.81	23.19						
M6	21	22.25	20.19	18.69	20.37	19.69	20.62	16.37	27.06	25.06	29.51	25.31	18.19	17.5	20.06	22.37	19.31	24.37	23.56	17.62	20.75	23.84	22.19					
M7	24.06	20.81	17.5	19.62	19.44	19.81	16.19	27.75	25.44	27.44	26.19	17.86	17.66	20.06	23.87	19.25	24.25	22.5	16.69	16.06	20.81	24.44	20.87					
M8	20.44	21.84	20.62	19	18.81	20.56	19.81	17.87	28.44	26.37	26.37	25.31	18	17.12	20.25	23.37	19.84	22.44	22.87	18.19	19.56	21.25	19.37					
M9	25.06	26.19	21.5	19.12	23.25	22.37	23.84	18.69	26.75	26.06	26	26	18.44	16.37	21.25	24.75	21.06	26.75	24.31	18.84	20.82	19.19	19.5					
M10	20.37	19.56	18.75	18.5	17.81	20.5	19.44	17.75	26.5	26	26.25	24.84	17.94	17.37	19.56	22	19.06	21.12	23.25	17.44	20.37	23.37	19.62					
M11	23.69	25.06	22	21.69	23.81	24	23.62	19.75	30.25	26.31	30.44	26.06	19.56	18.44	21.31	24.19	21.12	24.25	25.81	18.44	18.25	19.62	19.81					
M12	19.84	19.37	19.12	17.75	16.31	18	16.56	17.81	26.56	24.25	26.69	24.06	17.84	19.84	18.84	21.31	18.56	21.62	21.37	17.21	21.44	23.84	20.37					
M13	25.06	22.19	24.25	21.25	18.19	21	20.81	21.37	18.5	26.87	26.56	26.12	27.5	18.31	25	19.75	25	23.06	19.84	23.87	24.31	21.37	20.37					
M14	21	19.81	21	19.75	18.75	19.31	19.56	16.69	18.25	27	26.12	25.06	26.25	24.81	17.84	18.87	21	21.62	17.81	17.62	20.87	20.19	23.12					
M15	24.06	25	21.5	21.12	23.37	22.69	23.37	19.75	27.5	29.81	26.84	16.84	18.81	22	24.75	22.37	26.56	27	18.87	22.56	22.69	30						
M16	25.31	26.56	22.31	19.69	22.81	22.5	23.12	19.5	30.25	27.69	30.25	26.75	19.25	18.75	20.06	22.25	27.37	26.62	19.81	18.67	20.84	30.44						
M17	24.84	24.84	21.69	21.12	23.37	23.75	21.19	16.62	30	26.12	30.25	27.84	19.19	19.06	23.12	25.31	22.87	26.12	26.44	19.31	21.5	27.37	24.84					
M18	22.94	24	22.25	20.87	21.81	22.44	22.19	19.81	30.44	28.25	30.62	26.87	19.06	18.31	22.69	25	21.37	24.69	24.5	19.31	19.25	19.69	17.5					
M19	25.56	26.25	20.19	19.19	23.25	22.19	23.56	19.69	31.37	29.44	32.13	26.47	19.12	18.44	23.25	26.81	22.31	27.94	26.51	20.06	22.06	25.56	26.12					
Average	01-May-21	02-May-21	03-May-21	04-May-21	05-May-21	06-May-21	07-May-21	08-May-21	09-May-21	10-May-21	11-May-21	12-May-21	13-May-21	14-May-21	15-May-21	16-May-21	17-May-21	18-May-21	19-May-21	20-May-21	23.44	22.69	26.25					
BSMAX	23.341025	24.625	21.4825	20.11625	22.2025	21.6625	21.6625	18.1075	29.6025	26.6675	26.82	27.1025	18.6625	16.40375	21.7025	24.59125	21.1475	25.63075	25.185	19.83375	22.69	24.37	26.25					
TBLMAX	21.65	22.411429	20.347143	19.178571	20.321429	21.268571	20.74	18.508571	27.935714																			

Figure 18

	2022-04-24	2022-04-25	2022-04-26	2022-04-27	2022-04-28	2022-04-29	2022-04-30	2022-05-01	2022-05-02	2022-05-03	2022-05-04	2022-05-05	2022-05-06	2022-05-07			Tests for equal means	
BSF1	33.63	24.5	31.62	20	24.5	20.87	33.88	21	26.75	20	12	22	29.37	31.62	27.5	33.13	35.38	
BSF2	32.38	24.75	31.37	20.25	23.75	21	32.63	22	26.5	20	22.37	28.75	32.13	26.75		32.88	35.75	HDFMAX HDFMAX
BSF3	32.38	24	29.5	20.37	24.25	21.12	32.25	21.12	26.12	20.12	21.75	28.37	30	27.5		33.5	34	N: 112 N: 112
BSF4	32	24.37	28.12	20.12	24	20.75	32.88	20.5	25.87	19.87	21.5	28.5	29.62	27.62		33.38	33.38	Mean: 25.635 Mean: 27.099
BSF5	30.87	23.5	28.37	19.87	23.25	20.25	30.12	20.62	25.5	19.37	21	26.5	29.5	26.37		31.25	32.5	95% conf. (24.784 & 95% conf. (26.157 28.041)
BSF6	34	24.12	30.87	20.12	24.37	20.25	32.5	20.75	26.87	20.25	22	27	30.5	26.75		32.5	31.5	Variance: 20.633 Variance: 25.317
BSF7	32.5	23.75	29.37	20.12	24.5	20.62	29.62	20.5	26.37	20	21.5	26.37	29.75	26.62		34.25	33.13	
BSF8	34.38	23.37	31.5	19.5	23.87	19.87	35.13	21.12	27.5	20.12	21.87	28.5	32.25	27.5		32.25	34.88	Difference 1.4644
BSR1	34.75	26	34	21	25.37	22.37	38.25	24.37	29.5	21.37	24.62	33.13	37	29.25		25.25	26	95% conf. (0.2021 2.7266)
BSR2	34.13	25.87	33.88	21.12	25.5	22.5	36.63	24	29.37	21.75	24.75	31.87	35.88	28.75		23.87	25.5	95% conf. (0.22661 2.733)
BSR3	34.75	25.75	33.5	20.87	24.75	21.75	36.25	22.25	28.25	21.12	23	31.5	33.5	28.62		24.75	25	
BSR4	33.5	24.37	31.37	20.5	25.12	21.75	34.25	22.37	28.87	21.12	23.25	29.62	32.63	27.5		24.87	24.25	t: 2.2862 p (same n) 0.02318 Critical t v 1.9707
BSR5	33.88	24.87	32	20.5	24.67	21.75	35.5	23	28.75	20.75	23.25	30.25	34.25	27.87		23.5	24.62	Uneq. var. 2.2862 p (same n) 0.02319
BSR6	32.25	22.62	30.5	19.5	24	20.37	32.88	21	27.5	20.25	22.25	28	31.75	26.62		22.87	24.25	Monte Car p (same n) 0.0221
BSR7	32.63 <td>24</td> <td>28.87<td>20.62<td>24.62<td>21.12</td><td>35.25<td>23.12</td><td>28</td><td>20.37</td><td>22.62<td>29.25<td>32.38<td>27.37</td><td></td><td>23.75<td>23.25</td><td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td>	24	28.87 <td>20.62<td>24.62<td>21.12</td><td>35.25<td>23.12</td><td>28</td><td>20.37</td><td>22.62<td>29.25<td>32.38<td>27.37</td><td></td><td>23.75<td>23.25</td><td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td>	20.62 <td>24.62<td>21.12</td><td>35.25<td>23.12</td><td>28</td><td>20.37</td><td>22.62<td>29.25<td>32.38<td>27.37</td><td></td><td>23.75<td>23.25</td><td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td>	24.62 <td>21.12</td> <td>35.25<td>23.12</td><td>28</td><td>20.37</td><td>22.62<td>29.25<td>32.38<td>27.37</td><td></td><td>23.75<td>23.25</td><td></td></td></td></td></td></td>	21.12	35.25 <td>23.12</td> <td>28</td> <td>20.37</td> <td>22.62<td>29.25<td>32.38<td>27.37</td><td></td><td>23.75<td>23.25</td><td></td></td></td></td></td>	23.12	28	20.37	22.62 <td>29.25<td>32.38<td>27.37</td><td></td><td>23.75<td>23.25</td><td></td></td></td></td>	29.25 <td>32.38<td>27.37</td><td></td><td>23.75<td>23.25</td><td></td></td></td>	32.38 <td>27.37</td> <td></td> <td>23.75<td>23.25</td><td></td></td>	27.37		23.75 <td>23.25</td> <td></td>	23.25	
BSR8	32.5	22.25	32.38 <td>20</td> <td>24.37<td>20.37<td>33.75<td>22.5</td><td>28.62</td><td>20.5</td><td>23.25</td><td>28.5</td><td>34.88<td>27.37</td><td></td><td>23.12</td><td>23.62</td><td></td></td></td></td></td>	20	24.37 <td>20.37<td>33.75<td>22.5</td><td>28.62</td><td>20.5</td><td>23.25</td><td>28.5</td><td>34.88<td>27.37</td><td></td><td>23.12</td><td>23.62</td><td></td></td></td></td>	20.37 <td>33.75<td>22.5</td><td>28.62</td><td>20.5</td><td>23.25</td><td>28.5</td><td>34.88<td>27.37</td><td></td><td>23.12</td><td>23.62</td><td></td></td></td>	33.75 <td>22.5</td> <td>28.62</td> <td>20.5</td> <td>23.25</td> <td>28.5</td> <td>34.88<td>27.37</td><td></td><td>23.12</td><td>23.62</td><td></td></td>	22.5	28.62	20.5	23.25	28.5	34.88 <td>27.37</td> <td></td> <td>23.12</td> <td>23.62</td> <td></td>	27.37		23.12	23.62	
HDF1	33.13	25.25	31.25	20.25	23.75	20.87	32.75	21.37	26.37	20.12	21.87	28.37	31	27.12		31.25	34.88	
HDF2	32.88	32.87	30.37	19.75	24.25	20.5	32.88	20.37	26	19.87	21.12	28.5	30.37	26.62		30.37	33.88	
HDF3	33.5	24.75	30.62	20.5	23.87	21.12	33.63	22.25	26.87	20.25	22.62	29.12	31.25	27.25		30.62	32	
HDF4	33.38	24.87	30.37	20.5	24.62	21.37	33.63	21.5	26.75	20.37	22	29.12	31	27.62		30.37	31	
HDF5	33.15	24.5	28.37	20.25	23.37	20.37	31.5	21.62	26.12	19.62	21.75	27.12	31	26.12		28.37	31.75	
HDF6	32.5	22.87	29.75	20.12	23.75	20.37	32.13	20.87	26.25	19.62	21.25	26.87	29.87	26.37		29.75	28.12	
HDF7	34.25	23.75	29.5	20	24.12	20.12	32.63	20.62	26.62	20	21.5	27.25	28.62	26.87		29.5	29	
HDF8	32.25	23.12	29.25	20.12	23.87	19.87	32.75	21.87	26.12	19.37	21.62	27	31.37	26.62		29.25	32.63	
HR1	35.38	26	34.88	21	25.62	22.37	37.75	24.12	29.62	21.37	24.75	32.5	36.63	28.75		20.25	21	
HR2	35.75	25.5	33.88	20.87	26.62	22	36.5	22.62	29.37	21.25	23.75	30.5	33.75	28.5		19.75	20.87	
HR3	34	25	32	20.75	25.12	22	35.88	23.5	29.25	21	23.75	30.62	34.88	27.75		20.5	20.75	
HR4	33.38	24.25	31	20.62	24.62	21.75	34.75	22.62	28.62	20.75	23	30	33.13	27.87		20.5	26.62	
HR5	32.5	24.62	31.75	20.62	25	21.75	33.5	22.25	28.12	20.87	22.75	28.75	32.25	27.62		20.25	20.62	
HR6	31.5	24.25	28.12	21.12	25	21.62	32.13	23.75	28.37	20.87	23.37	28	32.5	26.5		20.12	21.12	
HR7	33.13	23.25	29	20	24.12	20.5	33.88	21.62	27.62	20.25	22.12	28.25	30.25	27.12		20	20	
HR8	34.88	23.62	32.63	20.37	25.25	20.87	36.5	22.25	29.37	21	23.25	30	33.75	28.37		20.12	20.37	
LD1	34.13	25.25	32.38	20.62	24.75	21.37	34.5	22	27.37	20.5	22.75	30.12	32	27.87		23.75	25.62	
LD2	34.12	24.12	31.37	19.87	24.5	20.62	33	20.5	26.87	20	21.37	28	30.5	28.62		20.37	21.62	
LD3	34.63	25	31	20.37	24	21	34.38	21.87	27	20.25	22.25	29.37	31.87	27.75		23.87	25.12	
LD4	32	23.62	28.62	20.12	24	20.62	32.25	20.37	26.25	20	21.25	28	29	27		24.62	24.62	
LD5	31.25	22.75	28.25	19.87	23.25	20.12	31.75	21.37	26.12	19.5	21.62	26.87	30.25	26.12		23.37	25	
LD6	31.25	23.62	28.12	19.87	24.25	20.25	29.25	22.37	26.37	20	21.5	25.62	30.37	26.37		20	21	
LD7	34.38	22.75	31.87	19.87	23.87	19.62	33.5	21	26.75	19.62	21.37	27	31.75	27		24.12	24.12	
LD8	31.37	21.62	30.62	19.75	23.87	19.87	31.75	21.5	26.37	19.5	21.75	27	32.13	26.75		23.87	25.25	
LD1	33.5	25.5	33.25	21.12	25.37	22.5	36.63	24.37	29.5	21.62	24.75	31.75	35.75	28.37		20.87	22.37	
LD2	33.75	25.12	33.5	20.75	25.25	21.87	34.38	22.75	29.12	21.37	24.12	29.87	33.88	27.62		20.5	22	
LD3	33.13	24.25	31	20.75	24.75	21.75	34.88	23.37	28.75	20.75	23.5	30.5	34	27.75		21.12	22	
LD4	32.75	24	29.75	20.62	24.75	21.5	33.88	22.12	28	20.87	22.5	28.62	31.25	27.37		21.37	21.75	
LD5	33.63	23.75	32.38	20.25	24.87	21.12	33.25	21.75	28.87	20.87	23.12	28.5	32.75	27.37		20.37	21.75	
LD6	31.12	23.25	28.5	20.5	24.25	21.12	30.87	22.37	27.5	20.5	22.25	27	31.75	26.25		20.37	21.62	
LD7	34.63 <td>24<td>32.38<td>20<td>24.5<td>20.5<td>35.75<td>21.62<td>28.37<td>20.62<td>23<td>29.37<td>33.13<td>27.75</td><td></td><td>20.12<td>20.5</td><td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td>	24 <td>32.38<td>20<td>24.5<td>20.5<td>35.75<td>21.62<td>28.37<td>20.62<td>23<td>29.37<td>33.13<td>27.75</td><td></td><td>20.12<td>20.5</td><td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td>	32.38 <td>20<td>24.5<td>20.5<td>35.75<td>21.62<td>28.37<td>20.62<td>23<td>29.37<td>33.13<td>27.75</td><td></td><td>20.12<td>20.5</td><td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td>	20 <td>24.5<td>20.5<td>35.75<td>21.62<td>28.37<td>20.62<td>23<td>29.37<td>33.13<td>27.75</td><td></td><td>20.12<td>20.5</td><td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td>	24.5 <td>20.5<td>35.75<td>21.62<td>28.37<td>20.62<td>23<td>29.37<td>33.13<td>27.75</td><td></td><td>20.12<td>20.5</td><td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td>	20.5 <td>35.75<td>21.62<td>28.37<td>20.62<td>23<td>29.37<td>33.13<td>27.75</td><td></td><td>20.12<td>20.5</td><td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td>	35.75 <td>21.62<td>28.37<td>20.62<td>23<td>29.37<td>33.13<td>27.75</td><td></td><td>20.12<td>20.5</td><td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td>	21.62 <td>28.37<td>20.62<td>23<td>29.37<td>33.13<td>27.75</td><td></td><td>20.12<td>20.5</td><td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td>	28.37 <td>20.62<td>23<td>29.37<td>33.13<td>27.75</td><td></td><td>20.12<td>20.5</td><td></td></td></td></td></td></td>	20.62 <td>23<td>29.37<td>33.13<td>27.75</td><td></td><td>20.12<td>20.5</td><td></td></td></td></td></td>	23 <td>29.37<td>33.13<td>27.75</td><td></td><td>20.12<td>20.5</td><td></td></td></td></td>	29.37 <td>33.13<td>27.75</td><td></td><td>20.12<td>20.5</td><td></td></td></td>	33.13 <td>27.75</td> <td></td> <td>20.12<td>20.5</td><td></td></td>	27.75		20.12 <td>20.5</td> <td></td>	20.5	
LD8	34.38 <td>23.25<td>33.63<td>20.62<td>25.37<td>21.12<td>35<td>23<td>29.75<td>21.25<td>23.75<td>29.87<td>35.38<td>28.5</td><td></td><td>19.87<td>20.87</td><td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td>	23.25 <td>33.63<td>20.62<td>25.37<td>21.12<td>35<td>23<td>29.75<td>21.25<td>23.75<td>29.87<td>35.38<td>28.5</td><td></td><td>19.87<td>20.87</td><td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td>	33.63 <td>20.62<td>25.37<td>21.12<td>35<td>23<td>29.75<td>21.25<td>23.75<td>29.87<td>35.38<td>28.5</td><td></td><td>19.87<td>20.87</td><td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td>	20.62 <td>25.37<td>21.12<td>35<td>23<td>29.75<td>21.25<td>23.75<td>29.87<td>35.38<td>28.5</td><td></td><td>19.87<td>20.87</td><td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td>	25.37 <td>21.12<td>35<td>23<td>29.75<td>21.25<td>23.75<td>29.87<td>35.38<td>28.5</td><td></td><td>19.87<td>20.87</td><td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td>	21.12 <td>35<td>23<td>29.75<td>21.25<td>23.75<td>29.87<td>35.38<td>28.5</td><td></td><td>19.87<td>20.87</td><td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td>	35 <td>23<td>29.75<td>21.25<td>23.75<td>29.87<td>35.38<td>28.5</td><td></td><td>19.87<td>20.87</td><td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td>	23 <td>29.75<td>21.25<td>23.75<td>29.87<td>35.38<td>28.5</td><td></td><td>19.87<td>20.87</td><td></td></td></td></td></td></td></td>	29.75 <td>21.25<td>23.75<td>29.87<td>35.38<td>28.5</td><td></td><td>19.87<td>20.87</td><td></td></td></td></td></td></td>	21.25 <td>23.75<td>29.87<td>35.38<td>28.5</td><td></td><td>19.87<td>20.87</td><td></td></td></td></td></td>	23.75 <td>29.87<td>35.38<td>28.5</td><td></td><td>19.87<td>20.87</td><td></td></td></td></td>	29.87 <td>35.38<td>28.5</td><td></td><td>19.87<td>20.87</td><td></td></td></td>	35.38 <td>28.5</td> <td></td> <td>19.87<td>20.87</td><td></td></td>	28.5		19.87 <td>20.87</td> <td></td>	20.87	
Average	2022-04-24	2022-04-25	2022-04-26	2022-04-27	2022-04-28	2022-04-29	2022-04-30	2022-05-01	2022-05-02	2022-05-03	2022-05-04	2022-05-05	2022-05-06	2022-05-07	32.75	37.75		
BSF1	32.7675	24.045	30.09	20.04375	24.06125	20.59125	32.37625	20.96125	26.435	19.98125	21.74875	27.92	30.67125	27.07625		32.98	36.5	
BSR1	33.54875	24.46625	32.0625	20.51375	24.825	21.4975	35.345	22.82625	26.6075	20.90375	23.37375	30.265	34.03375	27.91875		33.63	34.75	
HDF	32.8925	23.9975	29.935	20.18625	23.95	20.57375	32.7375	21.30875	26.3875	19.9025	21.71625	27.91875	30.56	26.82375		31.5	33.5	
HR	33.815	24.56125	31.6575	20.68875	25.04375	21.6075	35.1125	22.84125	28.7925	20.92	23.3425	29.8275	33.3925	27.81		32.13	32.13	
LD1	33.0775	23.59125	30.52875	20.0425	24.06125	20.43375	32.5475	21.1225	26.6375	19.92125	21.7325	27.7475	30.90625	26.96625		32.63	33.88	
LD1	33.36125	24.14	31.79875	20.57625	24.88875	21.435	34.33	22.66875	28.7325	20.98125	23.37375	29.435	33.48625	27.6225		32.75	36.5	
Standard Deviation	24-Apr-22	24-Apr-22	24-Apr-22	24-Apr-22	24-Apr-22	24-Apr-22	24-Apr-22	24-Apr-22	01-May-22	02-May-22	03-May-22	04-May-22	05-May-22	06-May-22	07-May-22	23.25	23.62	
BSF1	1.1603294	0.49653292	1.426396	0.265703	0.428823	0.413523	1.809774	0.49521862	0.6237903	0.2716846	0.415986206	1.1296017	1.15425223	0.50097786		22.25	23.5	
BSR1	0.9613011	1.44802202	1.78951	0.539024	0.503882	0.814384	1.264284	0.6751453	0.98832491	0.5245389	0.88624234	1.8189765	0.88007203	0.2126		22.62	22.6	
HDF	0.9079608	0.86705989	0.903865	0.250368	0.377397	0.508469	1.707023	0.6421268	0.3230988	0.3464823	0.47071185	0.96040821	0.9249556	0.49132202		21.62	22.25	
HR	1.4691494	1.27666377	1.2280481	0.399884	0.621145	0.782142	0.8605221	0.1767735	0.3395375	0.78242754	0.188966172	0.7472678	0.1742762	0.2087		20.87	23.75	
LD1	1.3028158	1.2141127	1.47199	0.350041	0.45376	0.582947	1.711089	0.661983	0.4302408	0.3600174	0.51627097	1.45418362	1.18929676	0.6476376		20.62	21.62	
LD1	1.015577	0.81043198	1.860224	0.308945	0.412603	0.609309	1.748501	0.9131333	0.7541078	0.3912777	0.83141768	1.43147277	1.59526923	0.694113		20.21	22.25	
N																26.37	29.37	
BSF1	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8		26.87	29.25	
BSR1	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8		26.75	28.62	
HDF	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8		28.12	28.12	
HR	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8		26.25	28.37	
LD1	8	8	8	8	8	8</												

Figure 19

Sensor	2020-06-11	2020-06-12	2020-06-13	2020-06-14	2020-06-15	2020-06-16	2020-06-17	2020-06-18	2020-06-19	2020-06-20	2020-06-21	2020-06-22	2020-06-23	BS	T1	BJ	Sand	MannWhitney pairwise	BS	T1	BJ	Sand
BS1	13.5	15.3	14.8	16	16.4	16.5	16.7	17.1	15.4	15.2	17.4	14.4	17.6	13.5	13.5	13.8	13.1	BS				
BS2	13.5	15.3	14.7	16	16.4	16.7	16.7	17.1	15.4	14.9	17.5	14.4	17.7	13.5	14	13.7	13	T1	2.822	0.1917	0.1339	2.30E-11
BS3	13.7	15.4	15	16	16.4	16.7	16.8	17.4	15.4	15.1	17.4	14.4	17.4	13.7	13.7	13.4	13.1	BJ	3.068	0.2601	0.9978	2.12E-09
BS4	13.6	15.4	14.9	16	16.2	16.6	16.8	17.2	15.4	15	17.4	14.3	17.7	13.6	13.8	13.8	12.8	Sand	10.16	9.136	9.078	2.70E-09
T11	13.5	15.3	14.8	15.9	15.4	16	16	16.7	14.6	14.8	16.7	13.7	16.5	15.3	13.5	13.9	14.7					
T12	14	15.7	15.3	16.2	16	16.2	16.1	17	14.9	15	17.1	13.9	16.7	15.3	13.6	13.6	14.5					
T13	13.7	15.4	15	15.8	15.5	16	15.8	16.7	14.7	14.7	16.7	13.5	16.4	15.4	13.5	13.7	14.6					
T14	13.8	15.5	15.1	16	15.8	16.3	16.1	16.9	14.8	15	17	13.9	16.7	15.4	13.9	13.6	14.4					
T15	13.5	15.4	14.9	15.9	15.9	16.1	16.1	16.8	14.7	14.9	17	13.8	16.7	14.8	13.8	13.8	13.9					
T16	13.6	15.4	14.9	16.1	16	16.4	16.4	17	15	15.3	17.4	14.2	16.9	14.7	15.3	13.5	13.7					
T17	13.5	15.4	14.9	16	16	16.2	16.1	16.8	14.7	14.8	16.9	13.8	16.6	15	15.7	15.5	13.8					
T18	13.9	15.7	15.3	16.1	15.9	16.3	16	16.9	14.8	14.9	17	13.7	16.7	14.9	15.4	15.1	13.5					
T19	13.8	15.6	15	16.2	16.2	16.3	16.3	16.9	14.9	14.9	17	13.6	15.7	16	15.5	15.2	14.3					
BJ1	13.8	15.5	14.9	15.9	15.8	16.1	16.2	17.1	15	14.9	17.2	14.3	17	16	15.4	15.5	13.9					
BJ2	13.4	15.1	14.6	15.3	15.4	15.8	15.7	16.6	14.6	14.5	16.8	13.6	16.5	16	15.4	15.5	14					
BJ3	13.4	15.2	14.7	15.4	15.4	15.7	15.8	16.7	14.6	14.5	16.7	13.7	16.7	16	15.4	15.4	13.7					
BJ4	13.8	15.5	15	16	16.1	16.2	16.4	17.1	15.1	14.8	17.1	14.1	17.3	16.4	15.7	15.3	14					
BJ5	13.9	15.5	15.1	16	16	16.2	16.2	17.1	15	15	17.2	14.3	17.1	16.4	15.6	15.3	14					
BJ6	13.6	15.4	14.7	15.5	15.5	15.9	15.9	16.7	14.6	14.5	16.9	13.7	16.7	16.4	14.8	15.5	13.8					
BJ7	13.7	15.3	14.7	15.4	15.5	15.9	15.9	16.7	14.8	14.7	17.1	13.8	16.6	16.2	15.3	15.3	13.7					
BJ8	13.6	15.3	14.7	15.7	15.6	16	16.1	16.9	14.9	14.6	16.9	13.8	16.9	16.5	15	14.9	14.9					
BJ9	13.8	15.5	15	16	15.9	16.1	16.2	17.1	14.9	14.7	17	14.1	17.1	16.7	15.1	14.6	14.8					
BJ10	13.5	15.3	14.7	15.6	15.5	16	16	16.8	14.7	14.7	17	13.8	16.8	16.7	14.9	14.7	14.9					
Sand1	13.1	14.7	13.9	14.3	14	14.9	14.8	16.3	13.9	13.8	16.1	12.7	15.4	16.6	14.9	15	14.7					
Sand2	13	14.5	13.7	13.9	14	14.8	14.7	16.125	13.8	13.65	16.05	12.425	15.225	16.7	14.9	15.1	14.8					
Sand3	13.1	14.6	13.8	14	13.8	14.9	14.7	16.1	14	13.7	16.1	12.4	15.4	16.8	10	14.7	14.7					
Sand4	12.8	14.4	13.5	13.7	13.7	14.7	14.7	16	13.7	13.5	16	12.2	14.9	16.8	10	14.7	14.7					
Sensor	11-Jun-20	12-Jun-20	13-Jun-20	14-Jun-20	15-Jun-20	16-Jun-20	17-Jun-20	18-Jun-20	19-Jun-20	20-Jun-20	21-Jun-20	22-Jun-20	23-Jun-20	MEAN AV	17.1	16.2	15	16.3				
BSMIN	13.575	15.35	14.85	16	16.35	16.625	16.75	17.2	15.4	15.05	17.425	14.375	17.6	15.8885	17.1	15.8	14.7	16.125				
T1MIN	13.7	15.48888889	15.02222	16.02222	15.85556	16.2	16.1	16.85556	14.78889	14.92222	16.97778	13.78889	16.54444	15.559	17.4	16	15.9	16.1				
BJMIN	13.65	15.36	14.81	15.68	15.67	15.99	16.04	16.88	14.82	14.69	16.99	13.92	16.87	17.2	15.9	15.3	16					
SandMIN	13	14.55	13.725	13.975	13.875	14.825	14.725	16.13125	13.85	13.6625	16.0625	12.43125	15.23125	14.3111	15.4	16.1	15.4	13.9				
Standard Deviation	0.09574271	0.057735027	0.129099	0	0.1	0.095743	0.057735	0.141421	0	0.129099	0.05	0.05	0.141421	15.4	16	15.6	13.8					
	0.18708287	0.145296631	0.17873	0.139443	0.255495	0.141421	0.173205	0.113039	0.12693	0.171594	0.210819	0.202759	0.346811	15.4	16.2	15.5	13.7					
	0.1779513	0.142984071	0.172884	0.278089	0.258414	0.166333	0.217051	0.204396	0.18738	0.172884	0.166333	0.257337	0.254078	15.2	15.4	15.4	13.8					
	0.14142136	0.129099445	0.170783	0.25	0.15	0.095743	0.05	0.124791	0.129099	0.125	0.047871	0.205523	0.235739	14.9	16	15.7	13.65					
N	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	15.1	15.5	16	13.7					
	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	15	15.8	15.6	13.5					
	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	17.4	15.9	15.8	16.1					
	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	17.5	16	15.4	16.05					
Confidence Limits	0.09382613	0.056579287	0.126515	0	0.097998	0.093826	0.056579	0.13859	0	0.126515	0.048999	0.048999	0.13859	17.4	15.9	16.1	16					
	0.12222523	0.094925388	0.116768	0.091101	0.16682	0.092394	0.113159	0.073851	0.082926	0.112106	0.137732	0.132467	0.226579	14.4	16	15.5	12.425					
	0.11029333	0.08962017	0.107153	0.172358	0.160164	0.103092	0.134527	0.126864	0.116137	0.107153	0.103092	0.159496	0.157476	14.4	16.2	15.6	12.4					
	0.13859038	0.126515131	0.167364	0.244995	0.146997	0.093826	0.048999	0.122293	0.126515	0.122498	0.046913	0.201409	0.23102	14.3	16	15.6	12.2					

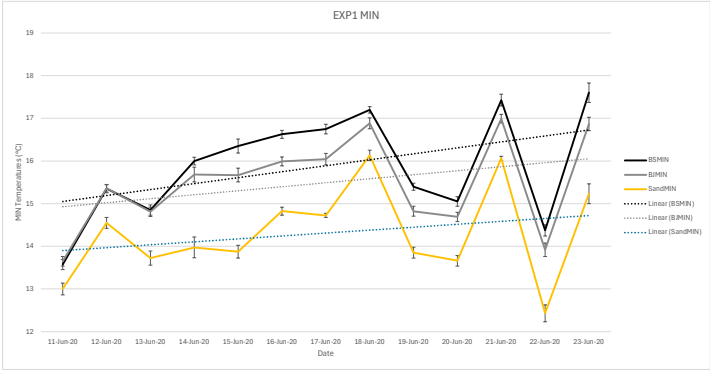
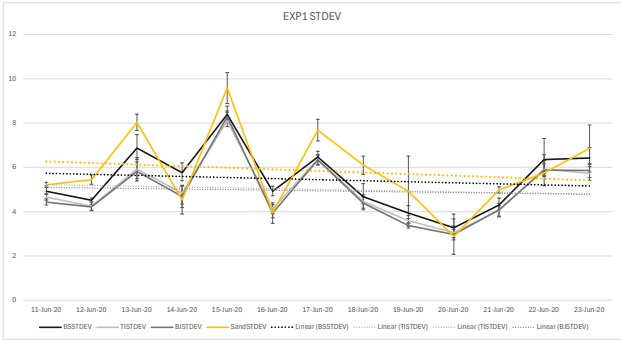


Figure 20

Sensor	2020-06-11	2020-06-12	2020-06-13	2020-06-14	2020-06-15	2020-06-16	2020-06-17	2020-06-18	2020-06-19	2020-06-20	2020-06-21	2020-06-22	2020-06-23
BS1	4.64591707	4.42152106	7.56083682	5.730282	8.057296	4.77239934	6.185721	3.823596	4.020101	2.60267563	3.925246	5.18184111	6.75666478
BS2	5.22391246	4.61761696	6.45031322	6.396233	8.667901	5.2664662	6.760354	5.170559	4.332799	3.83171111	4.581214	7.27233758	6.74854923
BS3	4.99319992	4.43826551	6.3094806	5.531783	8.088847	4.94404677	6.331325	5.038733	3.868403	3.80434112	4.551517	7.00384229	6.46573134
BS4	4.80527843	4.59254584	7.66970254	5.353058	8.777742	4.74305313	6.59877	4.664343	3.500279	2.84550416	4.142847	5.95616723	5.74358832
TI1	4.51023037	3.98191461	5.82008161	5.092629	7.638306	4.47325385	6.226008	3.710173	3.660749	2.79661253	4.457954	5.94452256	5.84371911
TI2	4.44077397	3.94845878	5.07530414	5.079243	7.682316	4.07749041	5.993744	4.712822	3.661292	2.97783796	4.198642	5.7362847	5.71323508
TI3	4.65160855	4.2029819	5.34063047	5.090601	7.950855	4.01019534	6.419476	4.836481	3.633965	3.41134749	3.937165	6.14327669	5.63823191
TI4	4.77971566	4.18561072	5.94945726	5.517119	8.202518	4.51382346	6.431957	4.97067	3.528214	3.68892949	3.858081	6.67982603	6.48095955
TI5	4.97330373	4.85699667	6.88867168	4.134468	9.082571	3.73891037	6.86126	4.681876	3.511502	2.65177185	3.872135	5.00334169	5.52499667
TI6	4.59865079	4.40983749	7.15594905	4.114053	8.449806	4.00570616	6.307025	3.719973	3.488624	2.41471537	3.856576	4.4119951	4.91750314
TI7	4.78550328	4.45210837	5.85436576	5.514766	6.884185	4.53719059	6.498371	4.832575	3.591298	2.88411927	4.496027	6.54224037	6.85175547
TI8	4.7021594	4.3403258	6.38880138	4.821692	8.173354	4.01586579	6.522707	4.45064	3.290068	2.94965875	4.321984	5.17013386	5.45596178
TI9	4.42928871	3.81488562	4.80977343	4.25367	7.055693	3.79998505	5.877061	4.16839	3.907147	3.74706703	3.491681	7.6689691	5.18178811
BJ1	4.27707286	4.2240944	5.6862358	4.925135	8.533037	4.21115402	6.559357	4.590271	3.516522	2.8628002	4.373448	6.04544031	6.68412865
BJ2	4.62326749	4.5422574	5.30483984	5.300795	8.825535	3.90773805	6.675146	4.866432	3.645891	2.99792858	4.601478	5.88758967	6.13095413
BJ3	4.30374	3.89960177	5.66684102	5.345157	7.738734	4.32991051	6.07202	4.511948	3.425205	3.43685187	4.354524	5.54940143	6.18652464
BJ4	4.12529843	3.75501937	5.10722157	5.097878	7.860623	3.86384024	5.770172	4.104781	3.388936	3.28528342	3.930731	5.98613455	5.19259197
BJ5	4.25177325	3.9954093	5.24253979	4.598925	7.684059	3.76393534	5.820166	3.618162	3.30927	2.96945473	3.807121	5.33212463	5.5295864
BJ6	4.36527057	4.60806071	6.09707611	3.562927	8.69925	3.025941	6.905161	4.693609	3.36966	2.1023796	4.52022	5.02038081	5.25963108
BJ7	4.44643626	4.31309449	5.94995973	5.130453	8.339757	3.90783983	6.330779	3.537237	3.350492	2.59784657	3.384031	5.47976132	6.28819692
BJ8	4.46758739	4.36874645	6.80885854	3.997895	8.105281	4.02344926	6.137767	4.35525	3.068094	3.13318322	3.438637	5.88957616	5.69117139
BJ9	4.55924593	4.20078035	7.24632001	5.677588	8.6075	4.33425935	6.526181	4.730782	3.541523	3.11046011	4.555583	6.29210965	6.27098749
BJ10	4.35404028	4.54052043	5.47760592	3.62025	8.487251	3.95920485	6.540435	4.787349	3.083908	3.15248219	3.844841	6.22585468	5.37221563
Sand1	5.24616924	5.23795877	8.46472404	5.088586	9.575231	7.300601	6.044674	6.622886	2.85457501	4.913342	6.00543945	8.4276702	4.74305313
Sand2	5.36471532	5.41539787	7.99055195	4.295075	8.970245	3.90380666	7.524249	6.037016	3.471442	2.56936442	5.020479	5.44489809	6.11024613
Sand3	5.06851434	5.37690417	7.5638319	4.99929	9.269662	4.46031958	7.483876	5.651766	5.982461	4.00763003	4.847281	6.42085558	6.19638366
Sand4	5.14962152	5.74329614	8.15330112	3.721874	10.5801	3.32743702	4.820974	6.669787	6.635909	2.07727604	5.157152	5.19880108	6.66980561
BS 10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Average	11-Jun-20	12-Jun-20	13-Jun-20	14-Jun-20	15-Jun-20	16-Jun-20	17-Jun-20	18-Jun-20	19-Jun-20	20-Jun-20	21-Jun-20	22-Jun-20	23-Jun-20
BS1STDEV	4.91707769	4.51748734	6.8748333	5.753412	8.307946	4.92401147	6.460493	4.674308	3.830395	3.27142301	4.300296	6.3634705	6.42863342
TI1STDEV	4.65234939	4.24367966	5.92147217	4.837212	8.102178	4.130269	6.359023	4.456333	3.587228	3.05802891	4.054472	5.92228779	5.73624868
BJ1STDEV	4.4350995	4.21768627	5.82422622	4.68474	8.286103	3.93839439	6.333719	4.379582	3.375419	2.96476705	4.081062	5.87173734	5.86062883
Sand1STDEV	5.21475502	5.44338974	8.03810225	4.524557	9.585112	3.94428367	7.649425	6.100806	4.928179	2.87721138	4.984563	5.74499855	6.8510284
Standard Deviation	0.24897746	0.10189103	0.62147541	0.456839	0.378023	0.22643011	0.258798	0.606322	0.345841	0.63984179	0.320145	0.96572347	0.47631003
	0.17925479	0.31644003	0.78989838	0.551282	0.606771	0.30380795	0.239688	0.477019	0.16868	0.4600617	0.333839	0.98642094	0.60426466
	0.23069804	0.28874334	0.69935085	0.803478	0.417608	0.35938963	0.374465	0.477156	0.186075	0.38009875	0.459607	0.4684735	0.5156019
	0.1172309	0.21397103	0.37339093	0.462293	0.713432	0.47201464	0.500596	0.642137	0.1617999	0.81915099	0.135395	0.8529293	1.07949976
N	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9
	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Confidence Limits	0.24399643	0.09985137	0.60903471	0.447694	0.370456	0.22189743	0.253617	0.594185	0.338918	0.62703343	0.313737	0.94639161	0.46677525
	0.11711062	0.20267429	0.51611299	0.360164	0.396417	0.19848421	0.102605	0.311647	0.110302	0.30058612	0.218104	0.64444984	0.39477899
	0.1428955	0.1786699	0.43345418	0.497991	0.258832	0.22273507	0.232002	0.115329	0.23558332	0.284862	0.29035755	0.3195675	0.1959675
	0.11488417	0.20968776	0.36591639	0.629435	0.699151	0.46265655	0.490575	0.412902	1.58861	0.80275322	0.132685	0.57126021	1.05789032



	BS	TI	BJ	Sand	
4.64591707	4.51023	4.27707	5.24617		
5.22391246	4.40773	4.62327	5.36472		Mann-Whitney Pairwise
4.99319992	4.65161	4.30374	5.09851		
4.80527843	4.77972	4.1253	5.14962		
4.42152106	4.9733	4.25177	5.23796	BS	TI
4.61761696	4.59865	4.36527	5.41454		0.03634
4.43826551	4.7855	4.44644	5.3769		0.01545
4.59254584	4.70216	4.46759	5.7433		0.2566
4.97330373	4.42929	4.55925	5.46472	TI	0.218
4.6031322	3.98191	4.3554	7.99055		0.6448
6.3094806	3.94846	4.22409	7.56383	BJ	0.09273
7.66970254	4.20298	4.54226	8.1333		0.01184
5.7302824	4.18561	3.8996	5.08859	Sand	0.10403
6.39852315	4.857	3.75502	4.29508		
5.53178317	4.40984	3.99541	4.99629		
5.35305775	4.45211	4.60806	3.72187		
8.05729601	4.34033	4.31309	5.97523		
8.69790055	3.91489	4.09802	8.97025		
8.0884731	5.82008	4.20078	9.20696		
8.77774174	5.0753	5.45052	10.588		
4.74305313	5.17122	4.49213	6.75666		
6.18572097	5.85437	5.24254	7.3006		
6.76035401	6.3698	6.09708	7.52425		
6.33132544	4.89077	5.595	7.49398		
6.59877026	5.00929	6.80859	8.42097		
3.823596	5.07924	7.24632	6.04467		
5.17055877	5.9096	5.47761	6.03702		
5.03873295	5.51712	4.92313	6.5177		
4.66434331	4.13447	5.3008	6.66977		
4.02010101	4.11406	5.34516	6.32289		
4.33279863	5.51476	5.09758	3.47144		
3.86840348	4.82169	4.58963	5.98248		
3.50027867	4.25367	3.56293	6.63891		
2.60267563	7.63831	5.13045	2.85458		
3.83317111	7.68232	3.5979	2.56936		
3.80434112	7.99086	6.77759	4.00763		
2.84550416	8.20252	6.62025	2.07728		
3.92524608	8.08257	8.53304	4.91334		
4.5812137	4.44981	8.82554	5.02048		
4.55151698	6.68419	7.73373	4.84728		
4.14284707	8.17335	7.86062	5.15715		
5.18184111	7.05569	7.66406	6.00544		
7.27233758	4.74325	6.89925	5.4449		
7.00384229	4.07749	6.33676	6.42086		
5.95616723	4.0102	8.10528	5.1088		
6.75666478	4.51382	8.6075	8.42767		
6.74854923	3.73891	8.48725	6.11025		
6.46573134	4.00571	4.21115	6.19638		
5.74358832	4.53719	3.90774	6.66981		

Figure 21

Sensor	2022-04-24	2022-04-25	2022-04-26	2022-04-27	2022-04-28	2022-04-29	2022-04-30	2022-05-01	2022-05-02	2022-05-03	2022-05-04	2022-05-05	2022-05-06	2022-05-07
CF1	7.95203949	3.790679	0.928893	2.835816	2.489578	2.403851	5.784145	3.2358957	5.9129863	2.775537	3.465366	4.847881	7.5087441	3.49127047
CF2	6.8538013	3.5379	6.981055	2.936999	3.586073	2.351365	5.63709	3.528803	5.7301302	2.7279095	3.5804231	4.8653417	7.5496189	3.38695611
CF3	7.1525953	3.752105	7.891346	2.919298	2.765025	2.53323	6.083782	3.1597313	5.589267	2.7186993	2.6928377	4.8007513	5.7689114	3.71242067
CF4	6.98660257	3.781718	7.110267	2.866371	2.983644	2.618909	6.804437	2.9350163	5.3829941	2.6330053	2.5514914	4.8279451	9.9565858	3.6736934
CF5	6.15048429	3.544167	7.864491	2.686204	3.274921	2.132008	5.413728	3.1159255	5.4889092	2.5908377	3.8468366	4.3792699	6.4437431	3.49103251
CF6	7.82384118	3.409295	6.926222	2.530743	3.403353	2.008633	5.056612	3.1935755	5.939355	2.8565416	3.3521956	4.2907038	6.8746244	3.238554
CF7	6.51751148	3.611418	6.521322	2.686151	2.666151	1.196283	4.799489	3.0571781	5.7328337	2.7835102	3.301472	4.5120873	6.8869856	3.66422674
CF8	6.03248727	3.37135	9.264405	2.643368	3.967213	1.976729	8.730201	4.0054661	6.7186304	3.0478575	3.925539	5.5796429	8.7727308	3.38843524
CR1	6.51894507	4.197716	9.803722	3.86254	3.934089	2.746571	8.053529	4.4226939	6.9182727	3.1669061	4.3204816	5.9279314	9.3082679	3.67244719
CR2	8.00586778	3.85011	9.79963	3.854398	5.255397	2.757659	6.064058	2.7777149	6.7906761	3.2761882	3.840236	5.7063465	8.9597062	3.97609219
CR3	7.80552756	3.705960	9.372053	2.668734	4.023841	2.471365	6.36443	3.7256824	6.3323969	3.0674887	3.8577339	5.4733978	7.8599611	3.94477747
CR4	7.03127305	3.660191	9.527693	3.841192	4.347703	2.659809	5.577715	3.93381	6.75409	3.2367494	3.8641747	5.1295962	7.9476259	3.75990397
CR5	6.16587812	3.771038	9.210641	3.904829	3.979462	2.74733	7.130283	4.1053228	6.7086315	3.1407564	4.1457916	5.4371545	8.4181098	3.52417806
CR6	7.47837088	3.511688	9.542742	2.785584	3.38642	2.306065	4.492074	3.5817713	6.4076473	3.0785231	3.6430277	4.5914433	8.0432919	3.66733981
CR7	6.42723791	3.387158	7.851508	2.967349	2.593761	2.100957	6.235609	3.9882196	2.9797071	2.8414576	3.8394012	4.9181363	5.7814538	3.62269851
CR8	8.29506757	3.446889	8.888847	2.61131	3.758944	2.229977	7.309413	3.47229	6.2446564	2.9664599	3.4964286	5.1722181	7.823415	3.66646055
HD1	7.5375404	3.861285	8.326464	2.6721	3.615981	2.58334	6.754603	3.285503	5.0001032	2.6694781	4.0147609	4.8152751	6.9364702	3.66098179
HD2	7.70918666	3.697334	8.845368	2.862894	2.619803	2.577737	5.837294	3.1221386	5.6473927	2.7941054	3.2707289	4.752787	7.0383093	3.32521123
HD3	7.22404598	3.576968	8.212801	2.783903	3.480208	2.271343	6.205308	3.5081565	5.7890353	2.6894102	3.5476259	4.868201	5.641549	3.31029183
HD4	7.23080681	3.769305	7.717067	2.689251	2.990407	2.650155	6.490751	3.2626936	5.6683932	2.7575292	3.2488015	4.8773648	5.7796388	3.85364477
HD5	6.26190368	3.553257	7.674489	2.654914	3.481873	3.32323	5.918743	3.4451297	5.5448551	2.5996992	3.1610021	4.8441372	6.8866342	3.51358548
HD6	7.68112788	3.40243	8.331987	2.730096	3.682024	2.25821	6.422268	5.6512333	2.6213564	3.9021349	4.423876	6.9438307	3.58885	
HD7	7.28389791	3.678267	8.249622	2.670213	2.724037	2.070903	6.074252	3.1245469	5.8965586	2.8002717	3.3351346	4.463229	5.1272044	3.46021769
HD8	7.01862098	3.176702	7.731623	2.761358	2.455119	1.967755	6.079057	3.4970738	5.5078778	2.4918245	2.9522249	4.5507068	6.8109331	3.29954448
HD15	8.76375884	4.029375	10.40002	2.850351	3.702871	2.625228	6.501005	4.381314	6.9238289	3.2780815	4.4767516	5.721466	4.78489	4.01451224
HD2	8.48015331	3.810767	10.38425	3.952901	3.743807	2.490108	5.801914	4.0564306	6.9676265	3.3089529	4.0450261	5.0783723	8.5726072	3.84591282
HD3	8.26132433	3.655224	8.995055	3.940479	3.912888	2.507808	6.954706	4.2533342	6.8561466	3.1519151	4.2130244	5.5656029	8.4516395	3.89778458
HD4	8.15644276	3.713432	9.082375	3.010179	4.47291	2.47203	6.609097	3.999615	6.6891099	3.0883999	4.0277436	5.0424732	8.1733048	3.93351525
HD5	8.08844887	3.790714	9.391901	3.010519	3.821336	2.524324	6.589899	3.7956799	6.4956957	3.1074892	3.8967751	4.7905106	7.9845022	3.70328105
HD6	5.98986025	3.284785	7.503746	3.013798	3.787073	2.361691	5.558946	4.1116566	6.318291	2.877701	3.8855031	4.9725768	7.5183093	3.51884946
HD7	6.8950605	3.53685	8.260627	2.811006	2.823699	2.079643	6.298807	3.6472331	6.4319864	3.0566903	3.8896037	4.8516855	6.1132277	3.60017896
HD8	8.31809133	3.68409	9.543266	2.879998	2.730277	2.060492	6.932011	3.9278542	6.933562	3.2158436	4.1544977	5.1155786	8.4701291	4.06246238
LD1	8.12734267	3.829411	8.761787	2.578796	2.673753	2.631417	6.394165	3.4798505	5.9480355	2.867894	3.6348459	4.8781861	7.3579816	3.64493773
LD2	8.510515	3.865325	8.692325	2.799599	2.951141	4.408184	6.420245	3.1625343	6.0382151	2.8220038	3.3558804	5.0051726	7.5237158	3.55882748
LD3	8.11141143	3.936333	8.41835	2.701095	3.696814	2.552132	6.976716	3.4626526	5.8569197	2.7305197	3.385996	4.9912291	7.2771246	3.80862593
LD4	7.10769898	3.579969	7.307934	2.773032	3.011671	2.463283	6.542533	2.8403543	5.5285551	2.6883264	2.6380692	4.8528797	6.0748112	3.41935279
LD5	6.91270468	3.785557	7.319172	2.480415	3.38731	2.02234	5.954843	3.2959568	5.5070917	2.5504118	3.0884462	4.8139212	5.6618984	3.46478759
LD6	6.58195309	3.436931	8.240614	2.8721	3.537919	1.949817	1.813943	3.1807347	5.8862384	2.8473881	3.4686101	4.2214468	6.5909163	3.53258736
LD7	8.27674231	3.361799	9.114605	2.78923	2.860213	2.001871	7.235278	3.2326581	5.9823729	2.7116843	3.4304849	4.7110556	7.5719379	3.43437191
LD8	7.53736983	3.189833	8.322082	2.714914	2.768228	1.995022	7.330549	3.4913778	5.8149424	2.5724458	3.5833473	4.4634549	7.5589121	3.47939032
BSR	7.71602097	3.691337	9.225321	3.312079	3.911202	2.502467	6.403389	3.8394361	6.5444437	3.0968162	3.9438629	5.2944605	8.0177277	3.77624332
HDf	7.24316401	3.58941	8.16118	2.752569	3.120607	3.389772	6.215285	3.3014021	5.6628619	2.6738306	3.4290517	4.6994745	6.9830712	3.50154091
HDR	7.86914252	3.688156	8.233887	3.183654	3.811866	3.89953	6.294398	4.0216428	6.7020309	3.1368805	4.0711157	5.116146	8.0952364	3.82281197
LDf1	7.64570473	3.547395	8.56494	2.650017	3.110881	2.253008	6.379784	3.8285914	5.800235	2.7224692	3.32316	4.6944182	6.9521736	3.54248511
LDf1	7.8993249	3.544589	8.362467	3.214029	4.664187	2.55521	6.046062	3.964469	6.668468	3.1291683	3.9741968	5.1797341	8.3074392	3.72954376
Standard Deviation														
CF1	0.69553014	0.163999	0.834842	0.127537	0.504688	0.232806	1.250701	0.339682	0.4139375	0.141454	0.495043	0.4042125	0.9724701	0.16725634
CR1	0.7031252	0.260142	0.703863	0.601061	0.759614	0.26306	1.105305	0.3316049	0.2453658	0.1424252	0.3143561	0.4310466	1.0543962	0.14573667
HDf	0.46474426	0.219771	0.380994	0.087905	0.495527	0.249102	0.304606	0.1576278	0.1265365	0.1114196	0.3677176	0.1895269	0.5718212	0.1954281
HDR	0.93657495	0.216899	0.982802	0.477435	0.480382	0.21007	0.55066	0.2369043	0.2563522	0.1373001	0.2068978	0.3604669	0.9774019	0.19501003
LDf1	0.71365397	0.303021	0.883867	0.245899	0.37962	0.286786	1.001626	0.2218626	0.191575	0.1222399	0.3222529	0.2676324	0.7477695	0.13033556
LDf1	0.87851278	0.267543	0.837871	0.542838	0.78607	0.657585	0.82149	0.2603296	0.2720401	0.1213732	0.2652391	0.3263285	0.6166338	0.25534212
N														
CF1	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8
CR1	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8
HDf	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8
HDR	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8
LDf1	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8
LDf1	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8
Confidence Limits														
BSf	0.48196894	0.113643	0.578505	0.088377	0.349725	0.161323	0.866676	0.235833	0.2868398	0.0980208	0.343041	0.2800098	0.673875	0.1159006
BSR	0.48723195	0.180266	0.487743	0.416506	0.526376	0.182292	0.866938	0.1700267	0.0986938	0.2178336	0.286946	0.7306458	0.1009885	
HDf	0.32024543	0.151043	0.264011	0.060914	0.343377	0.172616	0.211077	0.1092285	0.0876837	0.0772084	0.2548106	0.131333	0.520976	0.1342228
HDR	0.6490014	0.1503	0.68304	0.33084	0.328882	0.145569	0.381581	0.1776398	0.0951424	0.1433702	0.2497863	0.6772925	0.13513257	
LDf1	0.49452788	0.209979	0.612477	0.170396	0.263058	0.196729	0.694078	0.1538077	0.1327522	0.0487064	0.2233058	0.1854564	0.5181621	0.0033013
LDf1	0.60676711	0.185394	0.586065	0.37616	0.545081	0.455675	0.586953							

Figure 22

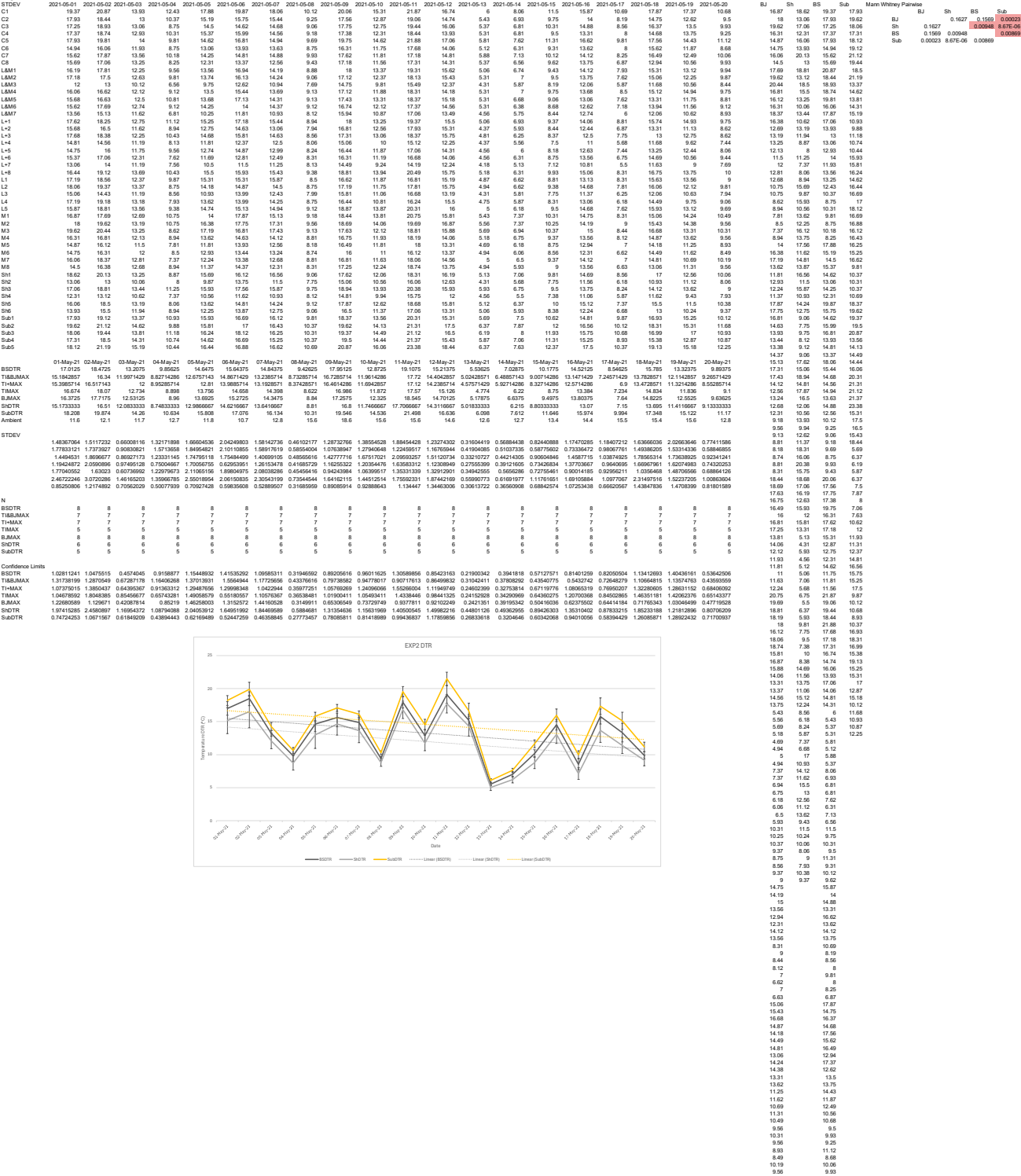


Figure 23

	24-Apr-22	25-Apr-22	26-Apr-22	27-Apr-22	28-Apr-22	29-Apr-22	30-Apr-22	01-May-22	02-May-22	03-May-22	04-May-22	05-May-22	06-May-22	07-May-22		LDF	LDR	Tests for equal medians				
CF1	23	13.12	24.87	8.37	8.5	7.99	20.25	8.75	16.87	7.37	10.5	16.12	20.24	11.25		LDF1	23.25	22.62				
CF2	20.75	12.75	24.37	8.12	12.25	7.75	19.13	9.62	16.37	7.25	10.74	15.75	20.63	10.63		LDF2	23.63	23.37				
CF3	21.13	12.62	22.37	8.62	8.87	8.24	18.62	8.62	15.87	7.12	8.25	15.37	16.62	11.75		LDF3	23.75	22.38				
CF4	20.62	13.12	20.99	8.49	9.62	8.62	21.25	8	15.74	6.99	8	15.75	16.62	11.62		LDF4	20.75	22.12				
CF5	18.62	12.37	21.62	8.12	11	7.25	17.87	8.62	15.62	6.74	9.62	14.37	18.25	10.99		LDF5	20.37	23.5				
CF6	23.12	12.49	23.99	7.74	12.24	7	19.5	8.5	16.87	7.5	10.37	14.5	19	10.5		LDF6	20.87	19.24				
CF7	20.62	12.37	22.62	8.12	9	7.62	16.24	8.25	16.37	7.25	9.87	14.24	18.37	11.24		LDF7	24	24.25				
CF8	24.13	12.24	25.12	7.87	12.49	7.74	23.63	9.37	18	7.74	10.74	16.62	21.5	11.62		LDF8	21.12	24				
CR1	23.75	14.37	27	11	13.12	8.87	26.12	11.87	19.37	8.24	12.74	19.38	25.62	12			13.5	13.5				
CR2	23.13	13.49	26.88	11.12	14.87	8.87	20.88	11.5	19.24	8.5	12.87	18.62	24.38	12.38			13.12	13.12				
CR3	24.12	13.62	27.25	8.12	13.5	8.25	21.25	10.25	18.5	8.12	11.62	18.37	22.37	12.5			13.5	12.75				
CR4	22.37	12.74	24.99	11.12	14.37	8.75	20.37	10.49	19.37	8.99	11.87	16.87	21.75	11.75			12.24	12.5				
CR5	23.5	13.24	25.62	11.12	13.12	9	23.12	11.12	19.25	8.62	12.12	18	23.37	12.37			10.87	11.5				
CR6	22.12	11.24	24.62	8.25	12.37	7.87	17.25	9.5	18.37	8	11.37	15.12	21.25	11.49			12.12	11.37				
CR7	20.5	12.25	22.12	8.87	8.74	7.49	21.37	10.87	18.12	7.24	11.37	16.5	18	11.62			11.62	12.5				
CR8	22.37	11.12	26.13	8	13.24	7.12	26.37	10.75	19.24	7.87	12.12	17.5	24.25	10.87			10.62	11.5				
HDF1	21.75	13.62	24	8	11.87	8.37	21.25	8.87	16.12	7.12	9.99	15.62	19.25	11.37			25.25	26.25				
HDF2	22.38	12.87	23.87	8.5	8.62	8.5	20.13	8.37	16.37	7.37	9.74	15.75	19.12	10.74			24.87	27				
HDF3	21.87	12.62	23.37	8.37	11.62	7.62	20.88	9.62	16.49	7.12	10.74	15.99	16.62	10.63			23.87	24.25				
HDF4	21.88	12.99	23.12	8.5	9.49	8.62	20.88	8.87	16.37	7.24	9	16.24	16.87	11.87			21.49	23.25				
HDF5	19.37	12.25	21.37	8.12	11.62	7.87	19.75	9.37	15.99	6.74	9	15.24	19.75	10.87			21.1	26.25				
HDF6	21.87	11.49	22.87	8.24	12.12	7.74	21	8.74	16.25	6.87	9.75	14.62	18.62	11.24			23.62	21.87				
HDF7	22.62	12.62	22.62	8.12	9.12	7.24	21.13	8.49	16.62	7.25	10	14.75	14.87	10.87			25.37	26.13				
HDF8	21.37	11.37	22.25	8.37	8.24	6.87	20.12	9.49	15.87	6.49	8.74	14.87	20.12	10.62			24.12	27.25				
HDR1	24.75	14.12	28.13	8.5	13.37	8.62	22.75	11.87	19.74	8.49	13.12	18.87	25.38	12.75			8.24	11.12				
HDR2	25.25	13.62	27.5	11.37	13.49	8.37	20.75	10.74	19.87	9.12	12.5	17	23	12.25			8.24	11.25				
HDR3	23.62	13	25.5	11.25	13.24	8.37	22.75	11.5	19.62	8.12	12.5	18.12	24	12.12			8.12	8.62				
HDR4	23	12.75	24.5	8.87	13.87	8.37	21.62	10.74	18.99	8	11.75	17.12	22.38	12.49			8.24	8.62				
HDR5	22	13.12	25.25	8.87	13.25	8.5	19.87	10.25	18.37	8.12	11.37	15.87	21.37	11.74			7.62	11				
HDR6	19	11.87	20.99	8.99	12.5	8.12	18.25	11.12	17.99	7.37	11.74	15.5	21.25	10.75			8.49	8.37				
HDR7	21.75	12.37	22.87	8.5	9.62	7.37	21.88	9.99	18.24	7.87	11.12	15.62	17.87	11.62			6.99	8.25				
HDR8	24.63	12.49	26.38	8.62	14.12	7.37	23.62	10.5	19.99	8.25	12.12	16.87	23.12	12.87			8.12	8.24				
LDF1	23.25	13.5	25.25	8.24	8.87	8.49	21.25	9.5	17.12	7.5	10.87	16.37	20.25	11.62			8.87	14.74				
LDF2	23.63	13.12	24.87	8.24	10.25	7.99	21.75	8.62	17.24	7.5	10.12	16.25	19.37	11.24			10.25	15				
LDF3	23.75	13.5	23.87	8.12	12.12	8.37	22.5	9.37	16.75	7.25	9.37	16.49	20.12	12			9.75	13.25				
LDF4	20.75	12.24	21.49	8.24	9.75	8.24	20.87	7.87	16	7	7.87	15.5	17.37	11			10.25	12.75				
LDF5	20.37	10.87	21	7.62	11.25	6.99	19.75	8.99	15.74	6.62	8.74	14.99	16.5	10.74			11.25	14.99				
LDF6	20.87	12.12	23.62	8.49	12.62	6.87	15	8.49	16.62	7.5	10.12	13.49	18.62	10.87			12.62	13				
LDF7	24	11.62	25.37	6.99	9.74	7.12	23.25	9	17	7.12	10.24	14.87	20.75	11			9.74	13.37				
LDF8	21.12	10.62	24.12	8.12	8.99	7.12	22.62	9.5	16.62	6.75	10.62	14.25	21.25	11.12			6.99	15.24				
LDR1	22.62	13.5	26.25	11.12	14.74	12.62	22.63	11.87	19.37	8.37	12.87	18.37	24.25	11.37			8.49	12.62				
LDR2	23.37	13.12	27	11.25	15	8.49	17.63	10.75	19.49	8.37	12.62	16.74	22.88	11.62			7.99	8.49				
LDR3	22.38	12.75	24.25	8.62	13.25	8.5	22.38	11.24	18.87	8.25	12.12	18	23	12.12			8.37	8.5				
LDR4	22.12	12.5	23.25	8.62	12.75	8.5	20.25	10.12	18.25	7.87	11	16.12	20.25	11.74			8.24	8.5				
LDR5	23.5	11.5	26.25	11	14.99	7.87	19.5	10.12	19.49	8.24	11.99	16.25	22.12	10.75			6.99	7.87				
LDR6	19.24	11.37	21.87	8.37	13	7.74	17.24	10.24	17.62	7.62	10.75	14.75	20.75	10.87			6.87	7.74				
LDR7	24.25	12.5	26.13	8.25	13.37	7.12	22.75	9.87	18.99	8.49	11.87	16.87	22.38	12.25			7.12	7.12				
LDR8	24	11.5	27.25	8.24	15.24	7.49	22.5	11	20.12	9	12.37	17.24	24.5	12.87			7.12	7.49				
																	21.25	22.63				
BSF	21.49875	12.635	23.24375	8.18125	10.49625	7.77625	19.68625	8.71625	16.46375	7.245	9.78125	15.34	18.90375	11.2			21.75	17.63				
BSR	22.7325	12.75875	25.57625	9.7	12.91625	8.2775	22.08125	10.79375	18.9325	8.1875	12.01	17.545	22.62375	11.8725			22.5	22.38				
HDF	21.63875	12.47875	22.93375	8.2775	10.3375	7.85375	20.6425	8.9775	16.26	7.025	9.62	15.385	18.1525	11.02625			20.87	20.25				
HDR	23	12.9175	25.14	9.37125	12.9325	8.13625	21.43625	10.83875	19.10125	8.1675	12.0275	16.87125	22.29625	12.07375			15	17.24				
LDF	22.2175	12.19875	23.69875	8.0075	10.44875	7.64875	20.87375	8.9175	16.63625	7.155	9.74375	15.27625	19.27875	11.19875			23.25	22.75				
LDR	22.685	12.3425	25.28125	9.43375	14.0425	8.54125	20.61	10.65125	19.025	8.27625	11.94875	16.7925	22.51625	11.69875			22.62	22.5				
																	9.5	11.87				
																	8.62	10.75				
CF1	1.786213	0.694981	1.991281	1.046859	1.69926	0.647235	3.17599	1.240345	1.29813	0.469222	1.509488	1.682904	2.984959	0.545894			9.5	11.24				
CR1	1.154466	1.030312	1.663606	1.51148	1.891553	0.676166	2.569173	0.860666	1.04619	0.65152	0.835788	1.276826	2.289421	0.577159			7.87	10.12				
CR2	0.993499	0.873663	2.034903	0.627444	1.887235	0.654261	0.923565	1.117762	1.248093	0.60095	1.414147	1.379953	3.15969	0.750589			8.99	10.12				
CR3	2.060818	0.590448	2.035724	1.240235	1.997413	0.477164	1.671402	0.63333	1.017068	0.533745	0.606817	0.890929	1.946623	0.649874			8.49	10.24				
HDF1	1.566349	1.12352	1.80964	1.202723	1.905449	1.896124	2.691749	1.916925	1.105761	1.543468	1.474972	1.513444	2.428359	0.390778			9	9.87				
HDF8	1.585488	0.706416	2.048615	1.330911	1.081414	0.55484	2.320226	0.517968	0.83809	0.442482	0.692598	1.018982	1.431973	0.75637			9.5	11				
N																	17.12	19.37				
CF1	24-Apr-22	25-Apr-22	26-Apr-22	27-Apr-22	28-Apr-22	29-Apr-22	30-Apr-22	01-May-22	02-May-22	03-May-22	04-May-22	05-May-22	06-May-22	07-May-22			17.24	19.49				
CR1	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8			16.75	18.87				
CR2	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8			16	18.25				
HDF	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8			15.74	19.49				
HDR	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8			16.6					

Figure 24

Coeff VARI	2021-05-01	2021-05-02	2021-05-03	2021-05-04	2021-05-05	2021-05-06	2021-05-07	2021-05-08	2021-05-09	2021-05-10	2021-05-11	2021-05-12	2021-05-13	2021-05-14	2021-05-15	2021-05-16	2021-05-17	2021-05-18	2021-05-19	2021-05-20
C1	48.738415	54.721661	37.179092	33.105669	44.103569	34.98818	42.274302	38.04598	33.517692	23.04598	38.283796	21.11024	15.05662	19.845101	23.36526	32.33067	22.301847	36.765863	32.573195	27.099101
C2	47.489482	51.07752	34.87834	25.22768	40.226484	36.92282	38.358463	24.79089	31.988482	22.507635	36.41251	25.861938	13.356408	17.345053	21.280331	31.140298	18.843125	33.023235	26.966697	24.851073
C3	46.444693	52.880176	35.765984	22.52182	41.695752	40.416337	38.893311	24.367397	31.509195	22.240589	37.703308	23.202338	14.057033	17.416006	22.387861	32.98023	29.344465	35.841163	29.841163	24.143494
C4	46.979387	51.999302	35.393416	24.257433	41.016453	34.484064	36.565262	24.705233	31.151469	20.777832	35.201252	26.566072	13.231119	17.22483	20.680775	29.395164	17.013475	30.212524	28.261822	24.143494
C5	48.523683	46.770176	38.033899	22.760182	41.056909	35.121263	41.36866	27.094971	31.805023	24.569465	39.070266	33.701338	14.045468	18.807135	24.99977	35.118775	18.838655	37.843449	30.407919	25.742172
C6	42.153446	46.75448	33.225886	21.255881	36.327453	34.656969	34.59195	23.977883	30.115255	21.160659	35.072633	28.051783	12.899424	16.209664	20.331472	30.599067	33.015325	26.981788	22.981648	22.981648
C7	45.799044	53.02204	37.242421	24.336878	41.343789	34.238031	39.930986	27.019819	31.678991	18.74832	36.028095	26.841532	15.003237	18.393044	23.027999	32.448811	18.518129	34.440498	28.021921	27.200811
C8	47.94343	50.845669	35.801233	21.059182	44.707775	40.626507	32.729625	25.977895	31.148180	21.423227	36.307322	30.81948	13.881169	18.858841	21.052017	31.486833	15.321444	29.132116	22.862383	26.154969
C9	44.244133	51.076929	34.247691	18.118858	39.947999	30.506028	25.249585	24.753215	26.466651	19.797895	35.627893	19.072123	10.748751	19.858181	20.814371	30.239493	17.222961	33.363868	28.440143	25.152148
C10	46.34473	50.771186	35.359006	22.885869	39.689525	35.365325	34.171677	24.891206	30.327195	19.294374	33.474847	21.652057	13.824287	17.547346	21.033874	31.556961	18.64129	33.640266	29.371292	25.626392
LMD1	24.06844	39.48687	30.200436	15.722342	30.202002	27.816529	21.974329	28.12804	17.848841	32.289936	20.454445	15.575722	18.221435	28.918844	13.421449	27.266929	22.67701	22.516491	22.516491	22.516491
LMD2	49.80989	45.98423	34.579432	22.794368	37.815132	33.3438	34.028013	25.377471	31.237152	20.125402	35.981865	26.832811	13.425094	18.881488	21.411005	30.173464	17.940108	32.82717	30.01899	25.705022
LMD3	45.168859	50.369864	35.366442	22.142255	38.794125	30.356603	24.118661	28.602638	19.746448	31.716036	33.456881	17.488929	10.489923	17.488929	17.148759	31.216762	14.645864	24.157147	28.515212	24.157147
LMD4	44.537733	48.369308	35.099886	17.688113	40.626509	23.582682	37.402627	24.582271	28.559274	17.448946	31.880573	18.513411	13.135789	16.091154	19.063028	29.954628	16.059501	30.901918	25.009339	23.700262
LMD5	44.02543	48.350565	35.705795	18.059037	39.725562	34.670566	35.461066	24.646248	26.463498	18.695164	33.753383	18.445423	11.644274	14.808579	15.143427	27.476352	13.163404	26.070449	22.309894	23.016475
LMD6	91.397899	90.048911	93.517839	93.357743	115.65699	103.26245	114.42748	113.19606	48.801946	63.940577	75.088299	80.527352	96.303068	44.125159	122.05148	12.447755	16.393867	32.245422	23.735851	130.439566
L1	45.16882	47.974262	34.412893	20.578326	38.806809	31.711079	32.014918	24.153536	29.772006	20.418413	35.785302	20.247522	12.86859	17.344248	20.387878	28.899497	18.362095	29.492446	24.746303	24.746303
L2	42.891455	45.00878	32.444741	19.056503	31.911864	27.470166	28.204238	25.917787	19.553313	32.700732	22.029918	11.010019	15.259464	21.426317	17.862504	14.380709	29.399442	24.725823	22.464877	22.464877
L3	46.048596	46.227056	32.983323	20.114571	38.068048	35.795341	34.014705	23.200604	30.014277	19.418792	34.805014	28.887707	11.734467	15.770825	18.152726	27.702717	16.745616	29.100916	25.847895	22.427085
L4	41.038455	42.40671	35.203629	19.074964	33.430201	31.470724	34.740493	23.084307	29.330328	19.039789	32.774682	21.050575	10.528354	14.784304	19.116959	24.425011	13.659543	27.891916	24.002256	29.362055
L5	40.99843	45.134466	32.562033	18.079852	34.313973	27.666217	28.192683	23.939513	18.103105	30.471133	20.247787	11.18731	15.749956	18.263214	28.154907	27.211637	29.694341	25.771738	21.9643	21.9643
L6	42.785653	48.658076	34.213781	15.272525	31.915105	30.407228	31.247227	24.307917	29.542513	18.097148	30.807108	16.535927	10.195446	14.40881	18.133886	20.195446	14.40881	24.131964	24.230816	24.230816
L7	38.05849	42.624162	32.126007	20.230162	31.655464	34.364961	30.448821	31.196969	28.125911	17.395841	31.196502	19.050291	10.451889	13.567763	18.759125	18.759125	13.708109	28.00202	20.667496	27.988147
L8	45.912763	53.127286	35.795762	20.066916	41.609055	35.10662	40.330115	25.796162	23.952964	24.064226	34.403971	18.62115	13.31122	16.274102	21.697462	32.984372	17.335654	37.313619	28.895285	26.264722
L9	44.02543	48.350565	35.235002	18.059037	39.761261	26.275644	37.333395	22.602996	26.463498	18.695163	33.753383	18.695163	11.641705	16.800267	18.987881	28.850749	17.864624	31.444724	27.333405	22.889501
L10	47.369203	54.115759	36.333308	22.143901	37.939986	42.030471	36.6147	24.377819	29.937816	21.792203	35.676353	21.579358	12.827187	18.679151	20.884978	31.544862	16.272496	35.304859	26.097464	24.807975
L11	42.56644	41.937508	31.814858	18.123465	38.102728	35.182032	30.879463	22.885181	28.498215	19.118636	33.447868	20.588715	10.734614	15.115875	20.1003	20.392802	15.88989	27.217712	23.515179	21.342573
L12	44.548589	51.917733	35.65022	20.06308	39.361475	36.66482	36.880083	24.221935	31.454564	21.629525	32.763782	23.828476	12.757356	15.38188	18.83717	29.962374	15.107433	28.248324	23.344807	23.344807
L13	42.72004	52.418218	36.362846	29.08874	40.083849	31.748379	28.24869	25.038205	30.467728	21.733468	34.077445	19.317704	12.959545	15.818441	20.7619	31.164565	15.842525	33.497217	27.40405	25.199642
M1	45.99593	49.037465	34.082222	22.844805	37.880147	35.816431	47.703705	24.711933	28.801189	20.711463	36.307133	21.3318047	11.475105	18.237389	22.162536	31.259773	17.170062	32.194891	25.705214	26.169508
M2	49.835579	54.770234	36.440292	19.100033	44.971294	33.440343	43.96733	25.785261	30.534249	19.439959	37.019814	20.875979	11.853739	18.764518	22.378784	31.058945	19.481846	34.193729	28.561192	25.865147
M3	46.88863	54.815345	33.24886	48.823039	40.651534	44.873863	35.97964	36.872953	22.444801	36.727238	32.981633	19.281673	17.986462	23.183107	32.794483	18.80263	36.222564	28.443099	27.911638	27.911638
M4	45.540103	47.381393	33.82059	22.090663	36.845145	34.739075	36.916519	24.33691	20.410098	20.378647	35.464222	26.96991	11.189774	17.011204	20.443003	29.319038	17.11324	30.919529	27.450367	24.408214
M5	44.24277	47.80271	33.574919	19.927518	34.94481	33.105489	30.921024	22.002952	29.874709	20.43915	35.32961	18.86258	12.138035	15.987899	18.911625	30.61249	15.207865	31.875555	25.109369	23.863854
M6	44.02543	48.350565	34.321225	22.393235	39.748812	36.47943	34.71863	24.688708	19.57804	31.143691	18.626444	14.77713	15.897421	15.329215	18.68358	18.79953	32.983322	22.833922	22.833922	22.833922
M7	45.935452	54.59187	36.68458	19.995659	35.746011	39.770633	34.571051	25.032275	29.780441	21.116903	34.004889	20.603092	11.768935	17.107863	21.228358	32.116566	14.6909	34.799295	24.18258	26.634764
M8	48.448451	54.845864	35.51179	22.2349	42.580438	42.573195	40.548275	24.67954	26.988896	26.16064	36.28776	17.878849	12.806959	12.757356	17.89889	18.25699	38.030387	27.774002	28.21204	28.21204
M9	25.204401	31.463232	29.329003	17.330666	27.051197	27.842363	25.533079	22.255105	26.917016	18.038184	31.686837	18.467055	10.641067	14.802994	17.10781	26.562292	14.802288	25.03812	22.515297	21.470051
S1	45.935452	54.59187	36.68458	19.995659	35.746011	39.770633	34.571051	25.032275	29.780441	21.116903	34.004889	20.603092	11.768935	17.107863	21.228358	32.116566	14.6909	34.799295	24.18258	26.634764
S2	39.576178	42.163025	30.94377	19.82777	35.896487	32.093696	28.999951	23.11858	27.82304	18.09005	32.483055	16.16643	11.353143	14.720915	16.980975	28.046328	12.98805	28.87218	21.898455	21.475339
S3	45.774455	46.645676	36.939202	20.74714	37.017027	31.388917	37.161867	27.774477	22.403955	22.583716	37.161867	11.229471	11.701438	16.037084	22.263636	32.405961	14.362741	36.519446	25.163599	25.724358
S6	42.47925	48.11006	34.709506	22.954749	38.319731	31.928849	31.72225	29.514312	28.635224	20.481523	34.91899	19.943564	11.889136	29.282118	14.74973	31.625734	23.1689			

Appendix B - Summary data and statistical analysis for 'Correlations between variability indices'

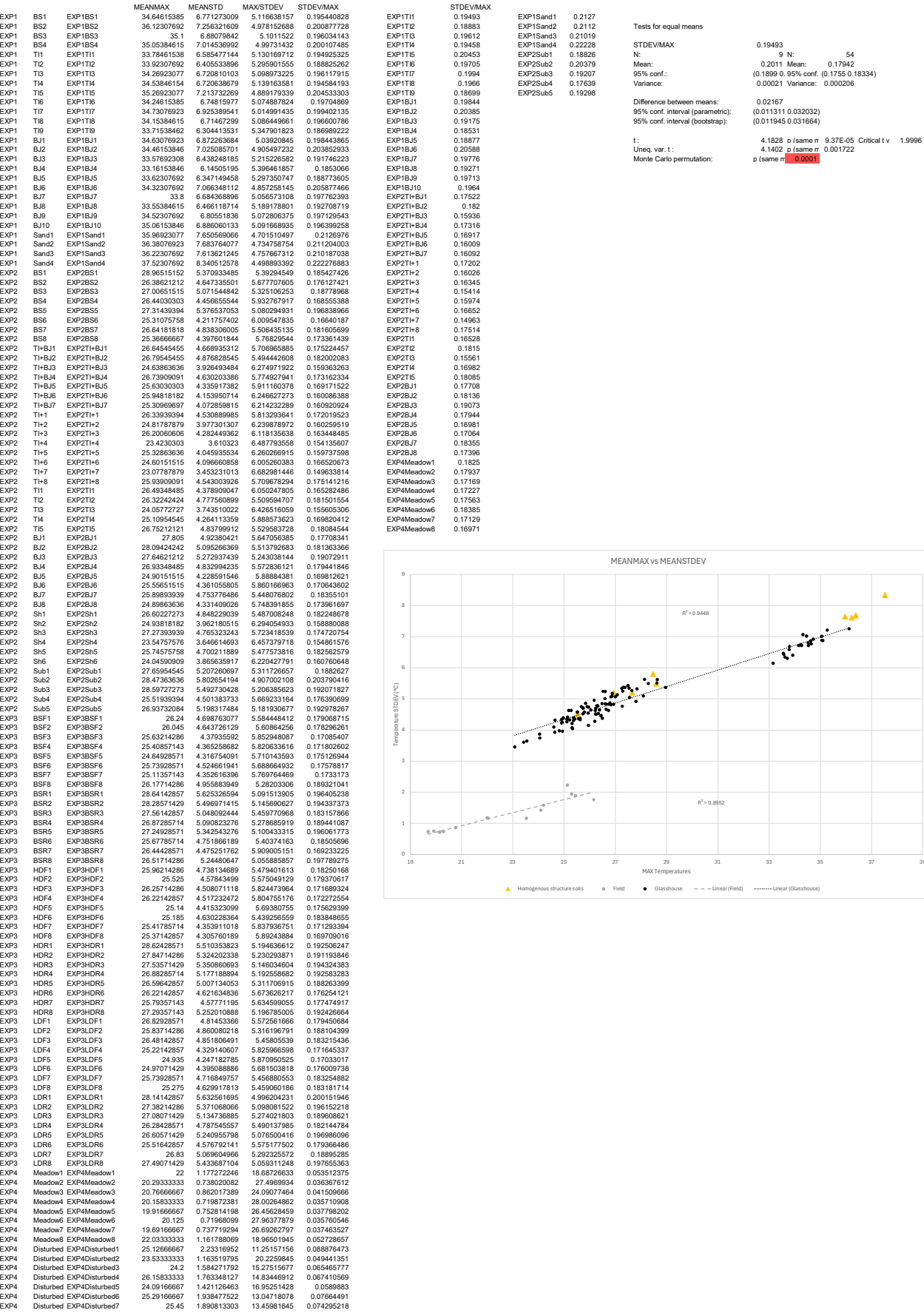
Table 5

EXP1	LoMIN	MEANMIN	HiMAX	MEANMA	MEANME	MEANSTI	MEANDTF	MEANCoeffVAR
LoMIN		3.36E-05	0.00745	0.026841	0.97436	0.007885	1.17E-03	0.006564
MEANMIN	0.70992		0.53672	0.48264	0.24206	0.12891	5.89E-02	0.041476
HiMAX	-0.50328	-0.12431		3.05E-10	8.43E-02	1.67E-06	3.50E-08	2.61E-05
MEANMA	-0.42569	-0.14111	0.89487		1.12E-02	1.26E-11	1.59E-13	8.41E-09
MEANME	0.00649	0.23305	0.33833	0.48046		0.005951	3.04E-02	1.33E-01
MEANSTI	-0.50019	-0.29963	0.77934	0.91941	0.51526		5.61E-14	1.38E-13
MEANDTF	-0.59111	-0.36801	0.84271	0.94382	0.4171	0.9484		4.20E-12
MEANCoeffVAR	-0.51009	-0.39493	0.71669	0.86081	0.2967	0.94444	0.92641	

EXP2	LoMIIN	MEANMIN	HiMAX	MEANMA	MEANME	MEANSTI	MEANDTF	MEANCoeffVAR
LoMIIN		1.48E-12	0.02553	0.02613	0.65621	0.000267	0.001281	2.45E-06
MEANMIN	0.8216		0.80045	0.4623	0.02557	0.011806	0.053547	0.000119
HiMAX	-0.32559	-0.03788		1.29E-14	5.14E-10	7.43E-11	1.15E-12	8.38E-08
MEANMA	-0.32435	-0.10985	0.85807		9.92E-13	2.00E-22	5.49E-32	1.38E-13
MEANME	0.06666	0.32551	0.7615	0.82505		6.22E-07	6.20E-09	0.000886
MEANSTI	-0.50803	-0.36436	0.78359	0.9386	0.65391		9.62E-32	1.40E-28
MEANDTF	-0.45586	-0.28342	0.82378	0.97734	0.72907	0.97676		6.98E-20
MEANCoeffVAR	-0.62662	-0.53203	0.68939	0.841	0.46889	0.96774	0.91963	

EXP3	LoMIIN	MEANMIN	HiMAX	MEANMA	MEANME	MEANSTI	MEANDTF	MEANCoeffVAR
LoMIIN		1.15E-09	0.02088	0.056236	0.66025	0.001509	0.001513	7.39E-05
MEANMIN	0.74615		0.23211	0.3625	0.18379	0.000879	0.006535	3.68E-07
HiMAX	-0.33265	-0.17576		4.66E-17	1.96E-07	4.63E-12	1.92E-16	2.03E-08
MEANMA	-0.27745	-0.13438	0.88716		1.24E-14	2.35E-18	2.99E-24	4.81E-10
MEANME	-0.06509	0.19514	0.66947	0.85377		4.88E-07	1.69E-08	0.004184
MEANSTI	-0.44548	-0.46459	0.80632	0.90159	0.65306		3.75E-33	1.58E-24
MEANDTF	-0.44538	-0.38731	0.87955	0.94661	0.70909	0.97842		4.49E-18
MEANCoeffVAR	-0.54024	-0.65827	0.70636	0.75699	0.4061	0.94811	0.89863	

Figure 28



Appendix C - Summary data for 'Temperature rate of change'

Average Temperature rate						Average Temperature rate						Average Temperature rate		
Temperature		Total	Average			Temperature		Total	Average			Temperature		Average
Bare Soil	Average		>17°C	>17<24	>24°C	Trifolium Incarnatum	Average		>17°C	>17<24	>24°C	Disturbed	Average	
N	1343	1343	237	613	613	N	1343	1343	237	613	613	N	1248	1248
Min	13.575	0	0	0.003333333	0.003333333	Min	13.7	0	0	0.005185	0.005185185	Min	17.65	0
Max	42.65	0.08166667	0.04666667	0.08166667	0.08166667	Max	41.34444	0.1325926	0.04667	0.128889	0.1288889	Max	35.63333	0.1777778
Sum	32858.6	33.68	2.42	19.30778	19.30778	Sum	32112.57	34.13481	2.42	18.99084	18.99084	Sum	27285.83	11.005
Mean	24.46657	0.02507818	0.01021097	0.03149719	0.03149719	Mean	23.91107	0.02541684	0.01021	0.03098	0.03098016	Mean	21.86364	0.008818109
Std. error	0.2042342	0.000470543	0.00050348	0.00060718	0.00060718	Std. error	0.1950138	0.000490919	0.0005	0.000477	0.00047703	Std. error	0.06862754	0.000293326
Variance	56.01867	0.000297355	6.01E-05	0.000225994	0.000225994	Variance	51.07481	0.000323665	6.01E-05	0.000139	0.000139493	Variance	5.877755	0.000107378
Stand. de	7.484562	0.01724398	0.007750981	0.01503308	0.01503308	Stand. dev	7.146664	0.0179907	0.00775	0.011811	0.0118107	Stand. dev	2.424408	0.01036235
Median	22.775	0.02166667	0.006666667	0.03166667	0.03166667	Median	22.38889	0.02148148	0.00667	0.02963	0.02962963	Median	21.425	0.006666667
25 prcntil	17.925	0.01166667	0.006666667	0.01833333	0.01833333	25 prcntil	17.57778	0.01111111	0.00667	0.023333	0.02333333	25 prcntil	19.975	0.003333333
75 prcntil	30.175	0.03666667	0.01333333	0.04166667	0.04166667	75 prcntil	29.45556	0.03777778	0.01333	0.03709	0.03708995	75 prcntil	23.75	0.01166667
Skewness	0.5240536	0.7125758	1.293152	0.3486383	0.3486383	Skewness	0.5182533	0.8751027	1.29315	1.941191	1.941191	Skewness	0.721638	9.12835
Kurtosis	-5.74309	-6.717797	3.019281	-0.2994104	-0.2994104	Kurtosis	-5.722242	-7.806571	3.01928	11.86894	11.86894	Kurtosis	1.223394	120.7295
Geom. mē	23.37355	0	0	0.02737985	0.02737985	Geom. mean	22.89103	0	0	0.028929	0.02892934	Geom. me	21.73408	0
Coeff. var	30.59098	68.76088	75.90837	47.72832	47.72832	Coeff. var	29.88852	70.78259	75.9084	38.12344	38.12344	Coeff. var	11.08877	117.5122

Average Temperature rate						Average Temperature rate						Average Temperature rate		
Temperature		Total	Average			Temperature		Total	Average			Temperature		Average
Brassica Juncea	Average		>17°C	>17<24	>24°C	Sand	Average		>17°C	>17<24	>24°C	Meadow	Average	
N	1343	1343	237	609	609	N	1343	1343	237	584	584	N	1248	1248
Min	13.65	0	0	0.008	0.008	Min	12.43125	0	0	0.003333	0.003333333	Min	16.12	0
Max	40.78	0.08133333	0.04666667	0.06066667	0.06066667	Max	43.79375	0.1595833	0.04667	0.126667	0.1266667	Max	35.54	0.1746667
Sum	31860.27	32.56267	2.42	18.78777	18.78777	Sum	31819.07	40.74833	2.42	25.6725	25.6725	Sum	23640.22	5.809333
Mean	23.72321	0.02424621	0.01021097	0.0308502	0.0308502	Mean	23.69253	0.03034128	0.01021	0.04396	0.04395976	Mean	18.94248	0.004654915
Std. error	0.1940249	0.0004671	0.00050348	0.000404926	0.000404926	Std. error	0.2209398	0.000668188	0.0005	0.000709	0.000709254	Std. error	0.04441969	0.000278419
Variance	50.55812	0.000293018	6.01E-05	9.99E-05	9.99E-05	Variance	65.55773	0.000599616	6.01E-05	0.000294	0.000293776	Variance	2.46244	9.67E-05
Stand. de	7.110423	0.01711778	0.007750981	0.009992737	0.009992737	Stand. dev	8.096773	0.02448706	0.00775	0.01714	0.01713989	Stand. dev	1.569216	0.00983571
Median	22.05	0.02	0.006666667	0.03066667	0.03066667	Median	21.30625	0.02333333	0.00667	0.042361	0.04236111	Median	18.86	0.004
25 prcntil	17.47	0.01066667	0.006666667	0.02333333	0.02333333	25 prcntil	16.5	0.01083333	0.00667	0.031667	0.03166667	25 prcntil	18.165	0.001333333
75 prcntil	29.28	0.036	0.01333333	0.03866667	0.03866667	75 prcntil	30.425	0.04666667	0.01333	0.055	0.055	75 prcntil	19.66	0.005333333
Skewness	0.5276929	0.7939777	1.293152	0.2928044	0.2928044	Skewness	0.5300299	1.035324	1.29315	0.627843	0.6278427	Skewness	4.239768	13.60202
Kurtosis	-5.714182	-6.816833	3.019281	-0.2248469	-0.2248469	Kurtosis	-5.645964	-7.968243	3.01928	0.877135	0.8771349	Kurtosis	39.25288	209.0766
Geom. mē	22.70801	0	0	0.02913117	0.02913117	Geom. mean	22.3769	0	0	0.040405	0.04040522	Geom. me	18.887	0
Coeff. var	29.97244	70.59979	75.90837	32.39116	32.39116	Coeff. var	34.17437	80.70545	75.9084	38.98995	38.98995	Coeff. var	8.28411	211.2973

Appendix D - Summary data for 'Difference between bare soil and treatment'

Figure 30

EXP1BS-Sand	EXP2BS-Sub	EXP2BS-BJ	EXP3BS-1	EXP2BS-1	EXP2BS-1	EXP1BS-1	EXP2BS-1	EXP1BS-1	EXP2BS-1	EXP5D-M
-0.297678054	-0.40044027	0.293625898	0.30303	0.54568	0.3868	0.26473	0.82051	0.48157	0.19828	1.20249
-0.925902397	0.016934664	0.2411593	0.31131	0.30913	1.04594	0.27381	1.01127	0.2998	0.98647	1.14435
-1.163268955	-0.2167376	0.212047968	0.09705	0.16055	0.39041	0.95336	0.35811	1.05061	0.30968	0.78817
1.227955063	-0.0820489	0.439190685	0.59586	0.51533	0.62484	0.9162	0.50576	1.06867	0.41595	0.71493
-1.187165189	0.134982779	0.333033814	0.6056	0.62901	0.62332	0.29577	1.06516	0.11184	0.87664	0.39797
0.979727792	0.342207237	0.740862659	0.35257	1.01158	1.13095	0.79374	1.01907	0.98562	0.9359	1.02861
-1.215882355	-0.33542663	0.256686234	0.18321	0.20929	0.5045	0.11002	0.52642	0.13532	0.5066	0.90432
-1.426498375	-0.26147414	0.204832414	0.18961	0.27283	0.20566	0.21797	0.16328	0.29473	0.32216	0.11507
-0.997783896	-0.39497062	0.3612897	0.18522	0.32623	0.6704	0.34317	0.48097	0.55498	0.63485	0.45236
-0.684357478	-0.44563064	0.340786478		0.2774	0.60093	0.21339	0.38344	0.30666	0.53653	0.81067
0.608548501	-0.4725443	0.237680005		0.44114	0.67823	0.24573	0.50596	0.21914	0.76995	0.7316
-0.422392979	-0.51042426	0.323014663		0.14682	1.04042	0.43126	0.69062	0.48181	0.82013	1.33599
	-0.04201202	0.26094274		0.2695	0.24045	0.69238	0.26757	0.568	0.36043	0.73208
	-0.13932333	0.139571253		0.27915	0.16515		0.27706		0.31659	0.35142
	-0.23579129	0.207647595		0.3392	0.35166		0.42026		0.32288	0.19712
	-0.30210979	0.242113462		0.40796	0.51267		0.56412		0.74494	0.77495
	-0.19726315	0.144607954		0.07165	0.1493		0.30278		0.09639	1.03813
	-0.62448278	0.083999156		0.20808	0.5435		0.37517		0.50588	1.07087
	-0.33593666	0.428043944		0.58614	0.63704		0.826		0.68729	1.17281
	-0.36538475	0.106859471		0.33173	0.24448		0.27705		0.4464	0.98636
	-0.24426023	0.068497844		0.2736	0.21879		0.2216		0.39809	0.88257
	-0.13818797	0.186608611		0.29368	0.25464		0.25379		0.35002	0.96138
	-0.60542951	-0.058416475		-0.00913	0.39252		-0.01884		0.51256	1.05969
	-0.63658561	0.187209486		0.28018	0.65237		0.40252		0.85768	1.0806
	-0.24359495	0.159912306		0.33963	0.25369		0.30091		0.40324	1.04256
	-0.40823496	0.206537561		0.28298	0.38325		0.3398		0.47051	0.95375
	-0.41786721	0.22308398		0.3102	0.59618		0.68973		0.92352	
	-0.74109781	0.117493681		0.12314	0.58828		0.41615		0.71877	
	-0.70942717	0.053016655		0.19232	0.23918		0.77439		0.51014	
	-0.67425692	0.011350739		-0.07558	0.33488		0.90492		0.79001	
	-0.8090806	-0.160514222		-0.15497	0.39024		0.76922		0.80901	
	-0.90798247	-0.500826228		-0.40546	0.14008		0.87664		0.74522	
	-0.80306615	-0.468731447		-0.11074	0.17356		0.66245		0.92308	
	-0.42533317	-0.002832981		0.42992	0.17194		0.54857		0.82336	
	-0.27712609	0.026947932		0.56047	0.24686		0.74488		1.02983	
	-0.4636213	-0.211106154		0.18256	0.22878		0.38645		0.5363	
	-0.70927661	-0.353007599		0.05131	0.5129		0.44532		0.98348	
	-0.46864614	-0.181302067		0.35206	0.56637		1.00035		0.9452	
	-0.22137924	-0.264732946		1.02614	0.54206		1.11662		1.05982	
	-0.43513899	-0.187007814		0.35131	0.09456		0.44084		0.54557	
	-0.41858745	-0.238092729		0.35186	0.05115		0.38694		0.56387	
	-0.29391186	-0.174144794		0.65802	0.02818		0.58291		0.69683	
	-0.33202357	-0.191260083		0.82254	0.22177		0.88856		0.88399	
	-0.741712	-0.610010599		0.12027	0.01592		0.40315		0.57526	
	-0.57833212	-0.410581606		0.38742	-0.03714		0.60414		0.70774	
	-0.66095119	-0.408100037		0.86154	0.3866		1.08797		1.78303	
	-0.27252422	-0.090667472		0.1671	-0.01773		0.13413		0.25605	
	-0.18601497	-0.053790832		0.12366	0.08952		0.08218		0.29166	
	-0.22174224	-0.02020981		0.13148	0.16042		0.06052		0.32008	
	-0.18780529	0.117924849		0.40915	0.24914		0.21173		0.54712	
	-0.02464683	0.038299537		0.49236	0.33443		0.41207		0.79421	
	-0.38653835	0.203250539		1.16254	0.81335		0.95478		1.61379	
	-0.57223138	0.089826993		0.6803	0.68575		0.64342		1.18689	
	-0.22450375	0.173670721		0.68764	0.40678		0.37709		0.84006	
	-0.74502027	0.080891275		0.75875	0.83999		0.60522		1.49693	
	-0.29773726	0.045195055		0.32498	0.18071		0.18749		0.54317	
	-0.20053956	0.131822122		0.36624	0.2638		0.15138		0.48053	
	-0.08728195	0.095812413		0.35464	0.25072		0.17825		0.43672	
	-0.01296963	-0.015270618		0.29714	0.14766		0.14313		0.29062	
	0.528793116	0.183025934		0.9272	0.74773		0.73284		1.34898	
	-0.24485093	0.001654322		0.53404	0.72982		0.33583		1.31252	
	0.318230576	0.362208129		0.67966	0.47897		0.33894		0.86197	
	0.528149498	0.297425159		0.85149	0.62484		0.42194		1.37656	
	0.246609682	-0.020627607		0.44882	0.60028		0.17927		1.05887	
	-0.19882783	0.128464989		0.58026	0.36653		0.29127		0.74899	
	-0.17146722	0.29506704		0.68518	0.44811		0.34156		0.93834	
	-0.42934241	0.130591439		0.75256	0.73074		0.37959		1.19583	
	-0.23749536	0.172935006		0.57461	0.46654		0.29613		0.84424	

Figure 31

	BS-TI	BS-BJ	BS-Sand
N	1388	1388	1388
Min	-1.125	-1.31	-10.53
Max	3.30278	2.485	12.865
Sum	813.033	1057.31	-601.385
Mean	0.58576	0.76175	-0.43327
Std. error	0.01796	0.01764	0.13613
Variance	0.44767	0.43198	25.7229
Stand. de	0.66908	0.65725	5.07177
Median	0.58056	0.765	-1.2475
25 prcntil	0.08889	0.195	-4.18
75 prcntil	1.04375	1.24	3.1925
Skewness	0.34229	0.24469	0.41411
Kurtosis	-8.50815	-6.85895	-6.99501
Geom. me	0	0	0
Coef. var	114.224	86.2814	-1170.57

Mann-Whitney Pairwise

	EXP1BS-Sand	EXP2BS-Sub	EXP2BS-BJ	EXP3BS-1	EXP2BS-1	EXP2BS-1	EXP1BS-1	EXP2BS-1	EXP1BS-1	EXP2BS-1	EXP5D-M
EXP1BS-Sand		0.06392	0.008433	0.05966	0.00297	0.00272	0.02079	0.00199	0.0155	0.00045	0.00052
EXP2BS-Sub	0.06392		4.87E-12	1.35E-05	2.03E-19	1.97E-20	1.95E-07	4.68E-21	1.37E-07	1.47E-22	2.40E-13
EXP2BS-BJ	0.008433	4.87E-12		0.00514	1.69E-10	2.34E-11	3.73E-05	4.80E-15	2.24E-05	1.31E-20	5.80E-12
EXP3BS-TI	0.05966	1.35E-05	0.005135		0.3875	0.299	0.3165	0.06473	0.3165	0.0005	0.00027
EXP2BS-TI	0.002968	2.03E-19	1.69E-10	0.3875		0.8635	0.9027	0.05689	0.4288	8.74E-08	2.06E-07
EXP2BS-TI&BJ	0.002717	1.97E-20	2.34E-11	0.299	0.8635		0.7526	0.1013	0.5159	1.19E-07	2.25E-07
EXP1BS-TI	0.02079	1.95E-07	3.73E-05	0.3165	0.9027	0.7526		0.3712	0.4418	0.00437	0.00111
EXP2BS-Sh	0.001986	4.68E-21	4.80E-15	0.06473	0.05689	0.1013	0.3712		0.9333	0.00011	1.37E-05
EXP1BS-BJ	0.0155	1.37E-07	2.24E-05	0.3165	0.4288	0.5159	0.4418	0.9333		0.04827	0.01086
EXP2BS-TI+	0.0004481	1.47E-22	1.31E-20	0.0005	8.74E-08	1.19E-07	0.00437	0.00011	0.04827		0.03957
EXP5D-M	0.0005202	2.40E-13	5.80E-12	0.00027	2.06E-07	2.25E-07	0.00111	1.37E-05	0.01086	0.03957	

Appendix E - Data and summary statistics for 'Changes in STDEV at temperature bands'

Figure 33 and 34

EXP1	BSstd25-; Tlstd25-3; BJstd25-; Sstd25-30	BSstd30-; Tlstd30-25	BJstd30-; Sstd30-35	BSstd35-; Tlstd35-40	BJstd35-; Sstd35-40
	4.14285 3.63396 3.64589 5.23796 4.61762 3.85808 3.30927 5.24617 4.43827 3.87213 4.35525 5.36472 5.22391 4.16839 3.38894 5.09851 4.59255 3.93717 4.52022 4.9932 4.32198 4.10478 4.42152 4.857 3.93073 4.80528 3.49168 3.43864 4.64592 4.45211 3.35049 4.9733 4.54052 4.40984 4.54226 4.34033 4.60806 4.18561 4.9354 4.77972 4.31309 4.20298 4.20078 4.7855 4.22409 4.70216 4.55925 4.59856 3.99541 4.65161 4.09802 3.94846 4.62327 4.44077 4.27707 4.42929 4.36527 4.51023 4.46759 3.98191 4.25177 3.81489 4.44644 3.8996 4.30374 3.75502 4.1253	3.80434 6.229607641 3.13318 2.85458 5.17056 3.411347485 3.90774 2.56936 4.58121 3.688929487 3.90784 4.00763 3.92525 4.077490408 4.33426 6.03702 4.3328 2.884119266 6.33078 6.04467 5.03873 2.949858754 2.99793 6.63591 4.55152 4.473253949 2.10238 3.62289 3.8236 2.977837964 2.98845 6.65177 3.8684 3.747067035 3.76395 4.84728 4.0201 3.799985048 6.13777 3.47144 3.50028 2.796612534 3.11046 5.02048 4.66434 5.877061212 4.32991 4.91334 2.414715775 6.07202 5.15715 5.993743582 5.82017 5.98248 3.856576437 3.43685 5.7433 4.970669655 3.86384 5.4154 4.836481472 4.02345 5.14962 3.661291687 5.77017 3.511501664 4.37345 4.457953821 3.28528 4.712622075 3.80712 4.835275211 4.55559 3.680749471 4.59027 4.496027287 4.78735 4.681875919 3.51652 3.528214202 3.84484 3.480824093 4.86643 3.591287859 4.73078 3.907146715 3.54152 3.73107345 3.084 4.450640488 3.39403 3.71907322 4.69361 4.198642457 3.53724 3.290067698 4.60148 4.35452 3.39696 3.61816 3.45251 4.51195 3.06809		8.08885 5.944522562 6.2882 8.08885 5.18184 4.411995099 8.82554 5.18184 6.45931 5.170133856 8.69925 6.45931 8.0573 8.449806121 5.19259 8.0573 5.35306 5.736284697 5.3008 5.35306 5.73028 5.51475981 8.48725 5.73028 5.53178 4.821691832 5.33212 5.53178 7.6697 8.202518322 8.6075 7.6697 6.30948 5.517118676 5.98613 6.30948 5.23655 8.173353787 5.67759 5.23655 6.76035 7.950855205 8.33976 6.76035 7.06084 5.090601486 8.53304 7.06084 3.83317 5.079243263 5.47976 3.83317 4.7724 4.253670429 3.62025 4.7724 4.94405 6.88887168 5.47761 4.94405 4.74305 7.682315633 3.56293 4.74305 6.59877 5.854365763 7.86062 6.59877 6.33133 4.114062635 5.09758 6.33133 2.8455 7.638305579 7.66406 2.8455 2.60268 5.949457258 8.10528 2.60268 6.18572 7.055692952 4.92513 6.18572 3.80434 7.15599055 5.34516 3.80434 5.340603473 5.13045 6.398801379 5.30484 6.861260375 7.24632 5.00928872 7.73873 3.73891037 3.5979 5.82008181 4.58963 4.809773431 5.69624 5.075304141 5.595 2.651771849 6.09708 4.537190594 6.90516 6.419476461 3.15248 6.522706552 5.66684 4.015865788 5.10722 6.431957382 4.21115 6.498371008 6.52618 4.513823465 3.9592 4.005706157 6.54044 4.01019534 3.08259 6.397025232 6.67515 5.24254 6.80859 6.55936 2.8628 2.59785	
EXP1	BSstd25-; Tlstd25-3; BJstd25-; Sstd25-30	BSstd30-; Tlstd30-2; BJstd30-35	Sstd30-3; BSstd35-; Tlstd35-4; BJstd35-; Sstd35-40		
N	9 25 29 4 12 34	40 18 22 41 46 22			
BJin	4.14285 3.49168 3.30927 5.09851 3.50028 2.41472	2.10238 2.56936 2.60268 2.65177 2.59785 2.60268			
BJax	5.22391 4.9733 4.9354 5.36472 5.17056 6.22961	6.330779 6.63591 8.08885 8.44981 8.82554 8.08885			
SuBJ	41.8811 107.348 120.576 20.9474 51.2811 136.921	163.6129 88.5012 124.1 235.714 269.302 124.1			
BJean	4.65346 4.29391 4.1578 5.23684 4.27343 4.02707	4.090322 4.91673 5.64093 5.74912 5.85439 5.64093			
Std. error	0.10735 0.07987 0.0785 0.05445 0.15296 0.15335	0.1525754 0.27286 0.32311 0.21698 0.2503 0.32311			
VarianBS	0.10372 0.1595 0.17689 0.01186 0.28078 0.79954	0.9311698 1.34013 2.29684 1.93024 2.88193 2.29684			
Stand. dev	0.32206 0.39937 0.42272 0.1089 0.52988 0.88417	0.9649714 1.15764 1.51553 1.38933 1.69763 1.51553			
BJedian	4.61762 4.34033 4.25177 5.24206 4.17645 3.77353	3.885789 5.15339 5.63103 5.73629 5.63092 5.63103			
25 prBSnltI	4.42989 3.94281 3.91517 5.13338 3.8348 3.50383	3.406933 3.91144 4.76506 4.67348 5.05447 4.76506			
75 prBSnltI	4.89924 4.62509 4.4939 5.33508 4.64356 4.54249	4.598676 5.80309 6.63917 6.69198 6.99045 6.63917			
Skewness	0.34887 -0.2157 -0.6241 -0.2864 0.36632 0.72774	0.6720307 -0.7378 -0.3053 0.12453 0.03715 -0.3053			
Kurtosis	0.2285 -0.7874 -0.2675 1.51752 -0.9921 0.48808	0.216292 -0.3274 -0.3055 -0.5581 -0.7064 -0.3055			
GeoBJ. BJean	4.64363 4.27573 4.136 5.23599 4.24379 3.93512	3.983542 4.7656 5.41869 5.57844 5.5947 5.41869			
BSoeff. var	6.92083 9.30089 10.1668 2.0794 12.3995 22.204	23.59158 23.5449 26.8667 24.166 28.9975 26.8667			
Mann-Whitney pairwise	BSstd25-; Tlstd25-3; BJstd25-; Sstd25-30	BSstd30-; Tlstd30-2; BJstd30-; Sstd30-35	BSstd35-; Tlstd35-4; BJstd35-; Sstd35-40		
BSstd25-30	0.03855 0.00252 0.0109	0.1302 0.2542 0.05408	0.8911 0.6797 0.9906		
Tlstd25-30	0.03855 0.3143 0.00174	0.1302 0.841 0.00578	0.8911 0.6676 0.8911		
BJstd25-30	0.00252 0.0143 0.00152	0.2542 0.841 0.00853	0.6797 0.6676 0.6797		
Sstd25-30	0.0109 0.00174 0.00152	0.05408 0.00578 0.00853	0.9906 0.8911 0.6797		

Figure 35

	Average				Standard Deviation		N	Confidence Limits		
	MeadowSTDEV	MeadowMAX	DisturbedSTDEV	DisturbedMAX	MeadowSTDEV	DisturbedSTDEV		Mconf	Dconf	
FT0718	1.173034295	21.5	2.375526465	26.53333333	0.41080462	1.036510772	3	3	1.32738887	2.68811186
FT0719	1.197508827	22.46666667	2.341861808	28.13333333	0.432093884	1.025361312	3	3	1.35508391	2.65001741
FT0720	0.806393901	21.76666667	1.594560679	25.96666667	0.315719086	0.697488707	3	3	0.91250383	1.80438212
FT0721	0.557013465	20.53333333	1.271945542	23.86666667	0.187011545	0.51443444	3	3	0.63030849	1.43931543
FT0722	0.382863039	20.1	0.780837088	22.3	0.123478523	0.21416419	3	3	0.43324235	0.88358411
FT0723	1.022811126	20.8	2.051421064	24.73333333	0.365977471	0.910865514	3	3	1.15739848	2.32135881
FT0724	0.964855438	21.33333333	1.869172013	25.33333333	0.342605201	0.827581155	3	3	1.09181665	2.11512838
FT0725	0.298856899	20.03333333	0.413923743	21.9	0.054219089	0.130408529	3	3	0.3381822	0.4683902
FT0729	0.982046793	20.23333333	2.318039749	24.73333333	0.347031797	1.053075263	3	3	1.11127014	2.62306071
FT0730	0.800981393	20.13333333	1.533057139	23.53333333	0.16526274	0.422207316	3	3	0.90637912	1.73478559
FT0731	0.495924114	20.1	0.847344805	22.6	0.084834333	0.16516963	3	3	0.56118065	0.95884329
FT0803	0.782983866	20.76	1.557936812	24.2	0.154695665	0.163845561	5	4	0.13559424	0.1605657
FT0804	0.684200315	20.8	1.722325967	25.6	0.196653601	0.263234271	5	4	0.17237131	0.25796485
FT0805	0.783797626	20.08	1.854669359	24.975	0.194388344	0.257226011	5	4	0.17038576	0.25207686
FT0810	0.966874194	20.54	2.026566512	26.025	0.269940835	0.288495206	5	4	0.23660923	0.28272011
FT0811	0.917832963	21.02	1.998435541	26.75	0.267687031	0.284169197	5	4	0.23463372	0.2784807
FT0812	0.909208489	21.28	1.951772215	27	0.251940762	0.274133149	5	4	0.22083176	0.26864555
FT0813	0.894909894	21.52	1.848662464	27.125	0.18562163	0.243576907	5	4	0.16270154	0.23870098

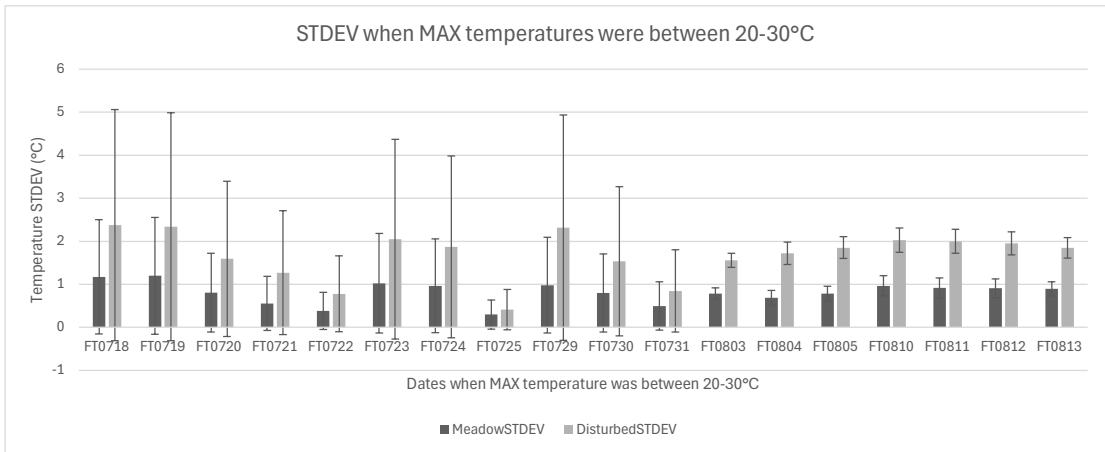
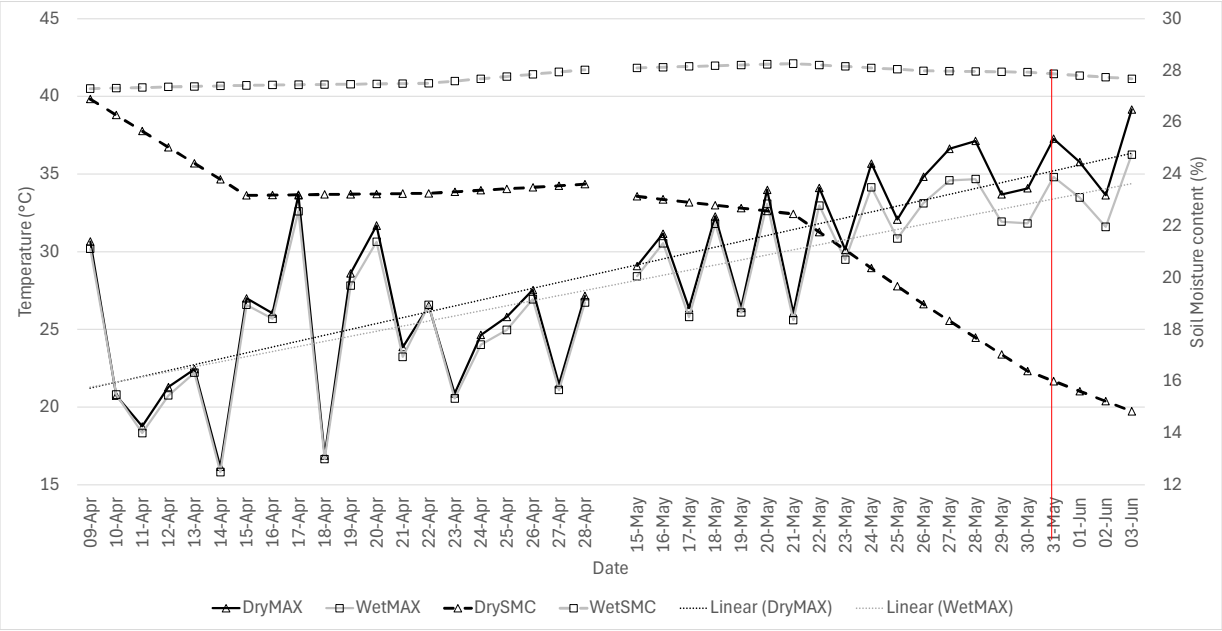


Figure 38

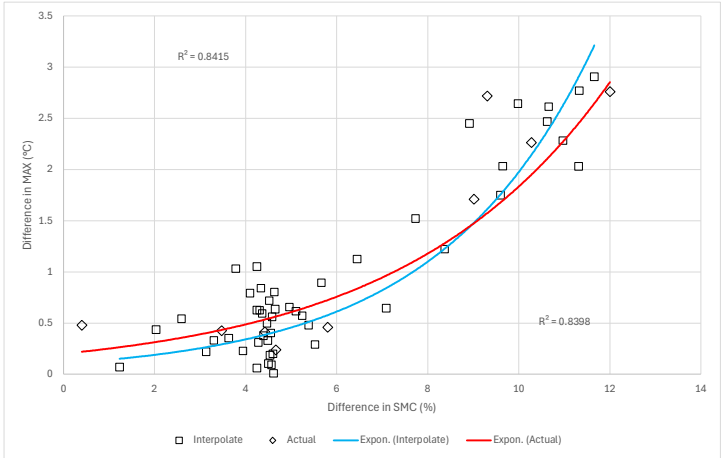


Date	WetMAX	DryMAX	WetSDEV	DrySDEV	WetSMC	DrySMC	Ambient HI
09-Apr	30.185	30.665	8.76094899	9.03542825	27.3002163	26.8965079	15
10-Apr	20.81	20.7991667	3.36036557	3.39109853	27.3211333	26.7767967	15
11-Apr	18.3316667	18.7683333	4.83463496	5.06111713	27.3420903	25.6570855	12
12-Apr	20.7475	21.29	5.7973734	6.24761046	27.3630274	25.0373743	10
13-Apr	22.215	22.4356333	5.41274566	6.14934033	27.3939644	24.4176651	12
14-Apr	15.825	16.1575	3.2772057	3.37966885	27.4049014	23.7979519	9
15-Apr	26.5931667	27.0075	6.8108042	7.08384451	27.4258385	23.1782407	15
16-Apr	25.685	26.0391667	5.55422186	5.86200399	27.437014	23.1894163	15
17-Apr	32.6083333	33.6375	7.90798612	8.55713054	27.4481896	23.2005918	16
18-Apr	16.6666667	16.895	1.58413929	2.12304754	27.4593651	23.2117674	10
19-Apr	27.82	28.6116667	5.96974742	6.54988169	27.4705407	23.2229429	
20-Apr	30.635	31.6875	9.11730021	9.57965756	27.4817162	23.2341185	
21-Apr	23.2383333	23.8633333	6.26354786	6.56581768	27.4928918	23.245294	
22-Apr	26.5908333	26.5191667	5.19452897	5.87799744	27.5040674	23.2564696	
23-Apr	20.56	20.8725	2.94926116	2.97801291	27.5916536	23.3149167	
24-Apr	24.0183333	24.6441667	6.00532762	6.23725105	27.6792388	23.3733638	
25-Apr	24.9675	25.8091667	7.57751832	7.97675812	27.766826	23.4318109	
26-Apr	26.9483333	27.54	7.10574572	7.33484572	27.854123	23.490258	
27-Apr	21.1008333	21.4766667	5.64424213	5.85962175	27.9419885	23.5487052	
28-Apr	26.7375	27.1525	4.45843497	4.54578292	28.0295847	23.6071523	
15-May	28.4241667	29.0808333	6.29807479	6.61638339	28.0979815	23.1360821	
16-May	30.5083333	31.1675	7.32239246	7.57284143	28.1261432	23.0237964	
17-May	25.7991667	26.3725	7.05526707	7.40646692	28.1543049	22.9115146	
18-May	31.8008333	32.2816667	6.5967986	7.07281894	28.1824666	22.7992309	
19-May	26.0916667	26.3825	3.92428556	4.48712463	28.2106283	22.6869472	
20-May	33.0841667	33.98	7.43875589	8.2633926	28.23879	22.5746635	
21-May	25.6008333	26.0591667	4.77524492	4.99949721	28.2669518	22.4623798	
22-May	32.98	34.1058333	7.55656508	8.28137136	28.2116106	21.7651225	
23-May	29.4875	30.135	4.98679498	5.46891326	28.1562684	21.0678652	
24-May	34.1433333	35.67	8.8219175	9.51130723	28.1009282	20.3706079	
25-May	30.8516667	32.0741667	5.4152713	6.01995921	28.0455871	19.6733506	
26-May	33.1166667	34.8258333	7.42472767	8.71757508	27.9902459	18.9760933	
27-May	34.5983333	36.6275	7.60200472	8.94210392	27.975589	18.3301034	
28-May	34.6783333	37.1283333	8.14570683	9.49767474	27.9609321	17.6841135	
29-May	31.9375	33.6875	6.03864253	7.12366281	27.9462752	17.0381237	
30-May	31.8225	34.085	7.45515921	8.30391896	27.9333012	16.3921338	
31-May	34.8041667	37.2725	6.72571968	8.01399648	27.8699473	16.0045002	
01-Jun	33.5008333	35.7833333	6.70597106	7.32977804	27.8065934	15.6168667	
02-Jun	31.605	33.6383333	6.61579638	7.43301851	27.7432396	15.2292332	
03-Jun	36.2516667	39.1575	8.26688647	9.48424139	27.6798856	14.9415997	

Figure 39

		SMC Diff+	MAX DIFF+	Aggregation
Interpolated data	10/04/2023	1.2311128	0.0708333	2023-04-10
	11/04/2023	2.034336	0.4366667	2023-04-11
	12/04/2023	2.5905176	0.5425	2023-04-12
	13/04/2023	3.1353791	0.2208333	2023-04-13
	14/04/2023	3.3039078	0.3325	2023-04-14
	16/04/2023	3.6285142	0.3541667	2023-04-16
	17/04/2023	3.7846027	1.0316667	2023-04-17
	18/04/2023	3.9398093	0.2283333	2023-04-18
	19/04/2023	4.0941392	0.7916667	2023-04-19
	20/04/2023	4.2475978	1.0525	2023-04-20
	21/04/2023	4.2475978	0.6275	2023-04-21
	22/04/2023	4.2475978	0.0616667	2023-04-22
	23/04/2023	4.2767369	0.3125	2023-04-23
	24/04/2023	4.305876	0.6258333	2023-04-24
	25/04/2023	4.3350151	0.8416667	2023-04-25
	26/04/2023	4.3641542	0.5941667	2023-04-26
	27/04/2023	4.3932933	0.3758333	2023-04-27
	30/04/2023	4.4679599	0.5	2023-04-30
	01/05/2023	4.4843483	0.3308333	2023-05-1
	02/05/2023	4.5007366	0.105	2023-05-2
	03/05/2023	4.517125	0.7183333	2023-05-3
	04/05/2023	4.5335134	0.1875	2023-05-4
	05/05/2023	4.5499017	0.405	2023-05-5
	06/05/2023	4.5662901	0.0925	2023-05-6
	07/05/2023	4.5826784	0.5616667	2023-05-7
	08/05/2023	4.5990668	0.2	2023-05-8
	09/05/2023	4.6154551	0.0108333	2023-05-9
	10/05/2023	4.6318435	0.8033333	2023-05-10
	11/05/2023	4.6482318	0.6358333	2023-05-11
	15/05/2023	4.9618994	0.6566667	2023-05-15
	16/05/2023	5.1023448	0.6166667	2023-05-16
	17/05/2023	5.2427902	0.5733333	2023-05-17
	18/05/2023	5.3832357	0.4808333	2023-05-18
	19/05/2023	5.5236811	0.2908333	2023-05-19
	20/05/2023	5.6641265	0.8958333	2023-05-20
	22/05/2023	6.4464881	1.1258333	2023-05-22
	23/05/2023	7.0884042	0.6475	2023-05-23
	24/05/2023	7.7303203	1.5216667	2023-05-24
	25/05/2023	8.3722365	1.2225	2023-05-25
	27/05/2023	9.6454856	2.0316667	2023-05-27
	28/05/2023	8.9165021	2.45	2023-05-28
	29/05/2023	9.5975266	1.75	2023-05-29
	31/05/2023	10.623224	2.4683333	2023-05-31
	01/06/2023	10.967898	2.2825	2023-06-01
	02/06/2023	11.312571	2.0308333	2023-06-02
	03/06/2023	11.657244	2.9058333	2023-06-03
	05/06/2023	11.327681	2.7691667	2023-06-05
	06/06/2023	10.653444	2.6141667	2023-06-06
	07/06/2023	9.9792072	2.6441667	2023-06-07
Actual Data	09/04/2023	0.4037084	0.48	2023-04-09
	15/04/2023	3.4715381	0.4258333	2023-04-15
	28/04/2023	4.4224325	0.415	2023-04-28
	12/05/2023	4.6646202	0.2383333	2023-05-12
	21/05/2023	5.8045719	0.4583333	2023-05-21
	26/05/2023	9.0141526	1.7091667	2023-05-26
	30/05/2023	10.278551	2.2625	2023-05-30
	04/06/2023	12.001918	2.7591667	2023-06-04
	08/06/2023	9.3049704	2.7183333	2023-06-08

	MAXDiff	SMCDiff	
	0.9740805	5.903795	
Standard deviation	0.8724643	2.8652282	
N	58	58	
	MAXConfinde	SMCCONf	
Confidence limmits	0.2245338	0.7373833	
	Spearman's Rank	SMC Diff+	MAX DIFF+
SMC Diff+			2.25E-09
MAX DIFF+	0.68893		



Appendix F - Summary data and statistics for Chapter 5

Figure 40

Sensor	2023-06-04	2023-06-05	2023-06-06	2023-06-07	2023-06-08	2023-06-09	2023-07-02	2023-07-03	2023-07-04	2023-07-05	2023-07-06	2023-07-07	2023-07-08	2023-07-09	2023-07-10	2023-07-11	2023-07-12	2023-07-13	2023-07-14
DryMAX	39.78333333	39.31416667	38.6375	40.52167	40.94	35.98166667	32.335	31.76083333	27.66333	31.10417	34.6575	41.40833333	30.54	27.65333	36.27417	32.19917	30.455	32.66667	24.1525
WetMAX	37.02416667	36.545	36.02333	37.8775	38.22167	33.79416667	32.11416667	31.385	27.52917	30.58083	34.46083	40.9925	30.6125	27.82917	35.63667	31.91667	30.27833	32.45917	24.13333
DryMAX STDEV	1.927284162	1.996034516	2.016356	2.065918	1.952346	1.213461115	1.024557184	0.694135608	1.088522	2.200967	2.237209	0.648312495	1.169253	1.523772	0.945193	0.861336	1.394244	0.388239	
Wet MAX STDEV	1.435450251	1.359508601	1.446622	1.430315	1.471584	1.545094633	0.873774466	0.82568383	0.870501	1.914193	1.704343	0.669642035	1.292506	1.107169	0.900094	0.960169	1.145897	0.503051	
DryMAX N	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	
Wet MAX N	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	
DryMAX Confidenc Li	1.090443632	1.129342091	1.14084	1.168881	1.104623	0.686567644	0.579687147	0.392736976	0.615878	1.245292	1.265797	0.366810585	0.661555	0.862139	0.534784	0.487338	0.788853	0.219663	
Wet MAX Confidenc L	0.812167513	0.769200269	0.818488	0.809262	0.832612	0.874203522	0.494375361	0.467166022	0.492523	1.083037	0.964305	0.378878687	0.731291	0.626429	0.509267	0.543257	0.648341	0.284623	

