### **original paper**

# **The application of near infrared (NIR) spectroscopy for the quantitative assessment of soil organic matter fraction in forests**

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### **ABSTRACT**

In this study we investigated if near infrared (NIR) spectroscopy can be effectively used to predict content of various fraction (LF – light fraction and MAF – mineral associated fractions) of soil organic matter, also in the context of their spatial distribution. Additionally, we used NIR spec− troscopy to evaluate basic properties of forest soils. We analyzed 256 soil samples from the topsoil of plots in central Poland. Using laboratory techniques, we divided the soil samples into two soil carbon fractions: the light fraction (LF) and mineral−associated fraction (MAF). A calibration model was developed using the spectra from 171 soil samples and their corresponding measured values. The regression model was validated using 85 independent soil samples. Using this model, we estimated the following forest soil properties: carbon concentration in light fraction  $(C_{F,F})$ , carbon concentration in mineral-associated fraction ( $C_{\text{MAF}}$ ), ratio of the  $C_{\text{LF}}$  to the total carbon content of the soil sample ( $C_{LF}/C$ ), ratio of the  $C_{MAF}$  to the total carbon content of the soil sample (C<sub>MAF</sub>/C), the total concentration of carbon (C<sub>t</sub>) and nitrogen (N<sub>t</sub>), C:N ratio (CN), pH, the concentration of exchangeable base cations (BC) and cation exchange capacity (CEC). The best calibration results were obtained for  $C_{LF}$ ,  $C_{LF}/C$  and  $C_{MAP}/C$ . The largest adjusted coefficients of determination for validation were obtained for  $\rm N_t$ , CN, BC and CEC. Model developed for the  $C_{LF}$  was characterized by inaccurate value prediction. The paper shows also the relationship between the optimum number of soil sample spectra and the absolute and relative measure− ment error. Comparison of the measured and predicted values show that NIR spectroscopy has potential for determining soil parameters. The statistical assessment and spatial distribution analysis of the modelled  $C_{\text{MAF}}$  demonstrated relatively good agreement with measured values. However, the model's assessment of the  $C_{LE}$  was less accurate. We conclude that NIR spectroscopy is most applicable for use in soil science to determine the parameters:  $\mathrm{C_{t}, N_{t}, C/N_{t}}$  pH, CEC,  $C_{\text{MAF}}$  and  $C_{\text{MAF}}/C$ .

### **KEY WORDS**

forest soils, near infrared spectroscopy, soil analysis, soil fraction, soil organic matter

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## **Introduction**

Near infrared (NIR) spectroscopy is a dynamic and innovative research technique based on the interpretation of the oscillation−rotation spectra of a given substance (Atkins, 2001; Viscarra Rossel *et al.,* 2006). NIR spectroscopy can act as an alternative to expensive and time-consuming labo– ratory measurements that require more complex sample preparation and analysis. The NIR technique is relatively simple to perform and can be carried out by persons after initial training. It is a non−invasive method that allows for the assessment of several soil properties through the analysis of a single spectrum that can be obtained within seconds (Ben−Dor and Banin, 1995; Islam *et al.*, 2003; Seema *et al.*, 2020). The use of this technique in forest soil science is in its infancy. However, studies show there is potential for NIR spectroscopy as a tool to facilitate the determination of soil properties (Kania and Gruba, 2016; Kania *et al.*, 2017).

The use of NIR spectroscopy to determine soil properties is subject to certain limitations. The results obtained are only a model estimate of the real values and are prone to error. Therefore, it is necessary to scan a large enough number of samples to obtain an average value close to the laboratory−measured value. Additionally, it is not known whether the model parameters are sen− sitive to the species composition of the forest stand, which will be important to understand when developing models for forest soils (Chodak *et al.*, 2007; Stenberg *et al.*, 2010; Ng *et al.*, 2020).

Soil organic matter (SOM) is an important source of plant nutrients in both agricultural and natural forest ecosystems. In addition, understanding the properties of SOM is useful when assessing the soil type, climate, vegetation and soil productivity (Loveland and Webb, 2003). SOM is a factor that influences the overall soil quality, and is an indicator of sustainable agricultural practices (Freixo *et al.*, 2002; Loveland and Webb, 2003).

The fractionation of SOM into its different organic components is considered an important step in understanding a soil's properties, as different organic fractions vary in their function in the soil ecosystem, chemical composition and circulation time (degree of stability). This process can also separate the primary and secondary organic complexes (Christensen, 2001). However, this is an expensive process requiring intensive labor from trained personnel and a properly equipped laboratory. Therefore, there is a need to develop alternative methods to classify SOM.

Forest soil research is largely based on assessing the properties of samples taken from a single soil cover, that are then considered representative of the wider soil surface. However, the chemical properties of forest soils can change over small distances. This is particularly evident in topsoil layer (Conyers and Davey, 1990; Gil, 1995). It is therefore necessary to determine the optimum number of samples needed to produce an average value that is accurate to a reasonable degree (typically 95% confidence) and that can be considered representative.

The aim of this study was to investigate if NIR spectroscopy can be effectively used to predict the content of various fraction (light fraction and mineral associated fractions) of soil organic matter, also in the context of their spatial distribution. Additionally, we used the NIR technique to assess basic properties of forest soils. The properties determined from the NIR spectra were compared with the analogous results obtained via chemometric methods, utilizing soil samples with known physicochemical properties.

## **Material and methods**

STUDY SITE. The study site for sample collection was located in the Suchedniów Forest District area in central Poland (Fig. 1).





Sampling plots were established on soils under silver fir *Abies alba* Mill. and European beech *Fagus sylvatica* L. stands, as well as a mixture of Scots pine *Pinus sylvestris* L., European oak *Quercus robur* L*.* and common birch *Betula pendula* Roth stands. The site terrain is gently inclined to the NW. An elevation is ranging between 290 and 412 m above sea level. According to the WRB classification, local soils were represented by Dystric Cambisols, Haplic Luvisoils and Albic Podzols (FAO, 2014). Soils are derived from Triassic sandstones and claystones, Quaternary sands and fluvio−glacial Quaternary sands. The Triassic sandstones, developed during the lower Triassic, were reddish in color, resulting from inclusions of iron−rich hematite. The major clay mineral component in the sandstones and claystones from the research site was kaolinite. The Quaternary sands were derived mostly from material derived from sandstone weathering, and are underlain by sandstones and claystones (Krajewski, 1955).

SOIL SAMPLING AND LABORATORY ANALYSIS. We analyzed 256 soil samples. Each sample was col− lected from the mineral topsoil (A or E) at the soil profile located at each plot. A detailed sampling scheme has been previously outlined by Gruba *et al.* (2015). The soil pH was measured by a poten− tiometric method using a combined electrode in a soil suspension in distilled water (1:5 mass−to− −volume ratio), according to Buurman *et al*. (1996). Concentrations of exchangeable base cations  $(BC=Ca^{2+}+K^++Mg^{2+}+Na^+)$  and cation exchange capacity (CEC, the sum of base cations and total acidity) was measured by ICP (ICP−OES Thermo iCAP 6500 DUO, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Cambridge, U.K.). Fifteen g sub−samples were used to perform physical separation of SOM fractions. Fractionation procedure was described in details in Gruba *et al.* (2015). Briefly, the soil samples were divided into two carbon fractions: a light fraction (LF) and mineral−associated fraction (MAF). Separation of the SOM was carried out using a method designed for isolating the C content (Sohi *et al.*, 2001). Then, were measured soil property values, including the carbon concentration in light fraction ( $C$ <sub>LF</sub>), carbon concentration in mineral-associated fraction  $(C_{\text{MAP}})$ , ratio of the  $C_{\text{LF}}$  to the total carbon content of the soil sample  $(C_{\text{LF}}/C)$ , ratio of the  $C_{\text{MAF}}$ to the total carbon content of the soil sample (C<sub>MAF</sub>/C), total concentration of carbon (C<sub>t</sub>) and nitrogen (N<sub>t</sub>), C:N ratio (CN) (using LECO CNS TruMac analyzer, Leco, St. Joseph, MI, USA).

NIR SPECTROSCOPY ANALYSIS. NIR spectroscopy was performed using a Fourier transform (FT) near infrared spectrometer (Antaris II FT−NIR; Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA).

Soil samples were placed in a glass tube (5 cm height, 1.9 cm diameter) in the spectrometer for analysis. Spectra were collected in the wavelength range of 1000 to 2500 nm. The spectrometer did not require any additional adjustment. Spectral analyses were performed using TQ Analyst 8 software (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA). To calibrate the regression models for the soil properties of interest, we used the spectra from 171 soil samples. To assess the accu racy and reliability of these models, we performed a validation test using a subset (every third file) of the remaining 85 sample spectra that had not been used to calibrate the regression model. After multiple test calibrations, we selected the settings that yielded the highest adjusted coef− ficients of determination ( $\mathsf{R}^2_{\mathsf{adj}}$ ) for the soil properties. The level of statistical significance was defined at  $p<0.05$ . The quality of the calibration and validation steps is expressed by the coef− ficient of determination of calibration  $(R^2C)$  and coefficient of determination of validation (R2V). Statistical analyses were conducted using Statistica 13 software (Dell Inc., 2016).

The best results for most soil properties were obtained using the PLS (partial least square regression model and calculating the first derivative (1st) spectrum. Only for pH and BC was the second derivative (2<sup>nd</sup>) spectrum used. The spectral range was cut for  $C_t$ ,  $N_t$ , CN and CEC to obtain the best fit and to optimize the coefficients of calibration  $(R^2C)$ . For the models for the remaining properties, the full spectrum ranges gave the best results (Table 1).

## **Results and discussion**

GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS OF THE INVESTIGATED SOILS. The soil samples had varied charac− teristics, as evidenced by the range of values for the analyzed soil properties (Table 2). The pH of the soil samples ranged from acidic to slightly alkaline. The concentration of carbon in the light fraction was lower than the mineral−associated fraction. However, the percentage of carbon concentration in the light and mineral−associated fraction was relatively wide. The variability in the C:N ratios was also large, with a difference between the lowest and highest values of 39 units.

CALIBRATION RESULTS. The best calibration results, expressed by larger values of  $R^2C$ , were obtained for  $C_{LF}$ ,  $C_{LF}/C$  and  $C_{MAF}/C$  (0.90≤R<sup>2</sup>C). Reasonable calibration results were calculated

### **Table 1.**

Optimum program settings (spectral range, derivative) and calibration coefficients (R2C) for selected soil properties



<sup>a</sup>C<sub>t</sub> – concentration of total carbon, N<sub>t</sub> – concentration of total nitrogen; CN – carbon to nitrogen ratio; BC – concentration of exchangeable base cations (BC=Ca<sup>2+</sup>+K<sup>+</sup>+Mg<sup>2+</sup>+Na<sup>+</sup>); CEC – cation exchange capacity; C<sub>LF</sub> – carbon concentration in light fraction; C<sub>LF</sub>/C – carbon concentration in light fraction to total carbon concentration; C<sub>MAF</sub> – carbon concentration in mineral−associated fraction; CMAF/C – carbon concentration in mineral−associated fraction to total carbon concentration;  $b1^{st}$  – first derivative;  $2^{nd}$  – second derivative;  $R^2C$  – coefficient of determination for calibration

for  $C_r$ , N<sub>t</sub>, CN and CEC and  $C_{\text{MAF}}$  (0.80 \le R<sup>2</sup>C < 0.90). The lowest quality results (R<sup>2</sup>C < 0.80) were achieved for the BC and pH calibrations (Fig. 2, Table 1). In summary, the optimum corre− lation coefficients were achieved for the parameters assessing the percentage of the organic fraction of the total carbon, regardless of the fraction type. The regression models created during calibra− tion were characterized by high accuracy. Low flexibility is a feature of over−fitted models. (Table 1). It should be noted that limited flexibility in the models may negatively impact the validation results.

VALIDATION RESULTS. The strength of the validation results is demonstrated by the  $R^2V$  coeffi– cients (Table 3). The largest coefficients were obtained for  $N_t$ , CN, BC, CEC (0.60≤R<sup>2</sup>V). Medium strength coefficients were calculated for  $\rm C_p, C_{\rm MAF}$  and  $\rm C_{\rm MAF}/C$  (0.4≤R<sup>2</sup>V<0.6), and the weakest coefficients were derived for pH,  $C_{LF}$  and  $C_{LF}/C$  (R<sup>2</sup>V<0.4). Weaker validation results are likely the result of a high accuracy obtained during the calibration stage. The differences between the measured and calculated values were not statistically significant, except for BC (Table 3).

The model developed for the carbon concentration in the light fraction is characterized by inaccurate value prediction, especially from the upper end of range, *i.e*., 10 g·kg–1. This inaccu− rate prediction is visible compered to  $C_{\text{MAP}}$ , C and N scatter plots. This is also confirmed by the lower R<sup>2</sup>V coefficients obtained for  $C_{LF}$  and  $C_{LF}/C$  (Table 3).

The instances where our models performed relatively poorly, *i.e.*, for  $C_{LF}$ ,  $C_{LF}/C$  and BC, provides weight to the opinions of some researchers that the NIR technique is not yet sufficiently developed to replace laboratory methods (Ludwig *et al.*, 2002; Cozzolino and Morón, 2006). Conversely, Pietrzykowski and Chodak (2014) showed that NIR spectroscopy can be success− fully used to analyze properties of soil organic matter such as the C content or C:N ratio. Similar conclusions can be drawn from the work by Cozzolino and Morón (2006). In agreement with this, in our study we developed reasonable models for predicting these parameters. For our samples, the estimated carbon concentrations were comparable to the measured values. Therefore, our study demonstrated that the NIR technique has the potential to estimate select properties of organic matter and to replace traditional laboratory methods in the future. However, further research is still needed to optimize the technique for all organic matter properties of interest (Cozzolino and Morón, 2006; Pietrzykowski and Chodak, 2014; Kania and Gruba, 2016).



**Table 2.**



 ${}^aC_t$  – concentration of total carbon, N<sub>t</sub> – concentration of total nitrogen; CN – carbon to nitrogen ratio; BC= concentration of exchangeable base cations  $(BC=Ca^{2+}+K^+ + Mg^{2+}+Na^+);$  CEC – cation exchange capacity;  $C_{L,F}$  – carbon concentration in light fraction; C<sub>LF</sub>/C – carbon concentration in light fraction to total carbon concentration; C<sub>MAF</sub> – carbon concentration in mineral-associated fraction; C<sub>MAF</sub>/C – carbon concentration in mineral-associated fraction to total carbon concentration;  $b_n$  – number of samples





Calibration scatter plots for the measured vs calculated values for (a) concentration of total carbon (C<sub>t</sub>), (b) concentration of total nitrogen  $(N_c)$ , (c) carbon to nitrogen ratio (CN), (d) pH, (e) concentration of exchangeable base cations (BC), (f) cation exchange capacity (CEC), (g) carbon concentration in light fraction (C<sub>LF</sub>), (h) carbon concentration in light fraction to total carbon concentration ( $C_{LF}$ /C), (i) carbon concentration in mineral-associated fraction (C<sub>MAF</sub>) and (j) carbon concentration in mineral-associated fraction to total carbon concen− tration ( $\rm{C_{MAF}/C}$ )





**Table 3.**

<sup>a</sup>C<sub>t</sub> – concentration of total carbon, N<sub>t</sub> – concentration of total nitrogen; CN – carbon to nitrogen ratio; BC – the concentration of exchangeable base cations  $(BC=Ca^{2+}+K^++Mg^{2+}+Na^+);$  CEC – cation exchange capacity; C<sub>LF</sub> – carbon concentration in light fraction;  $C_{LF}/C$  – carbon concentration in light fraction to total carbon concentration;  $C_{MAF}$  – carbon concentration in mineral−associated fraction; CMAF/C – carbon concentration in mineral−associated fraction to total carbon concentration;  ${}^{\text{b}}\text{R}^2\text{V}$  – adjusted coefficient of determination for validation;  ${}^{\text{c}}\text{max}$  – maximum values; min=minimum values;  $d\sigma$  – standard deviation;  $e_p$  – significance level; NS – no significant differences  $p > 0.05$ 

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN NUMBER OF SOIL SPECTRA AND MEASUREMENT ERROR. Collection of a single sample spectrum will not provide sufficiently comparable results to measured values. It is there− fore necessary to scan multiple samples to obtain a value close to those derived from laboratory measurements (Ben−Dor and Banin, 1995; Chodak *et al.*, 2007). It is therefore important to estimate the number of scans required. If we consider the values for  $C_{LF}$  and  $C_{MAF}$  and the expected standard error (with 95% confidence), the optimum number of sample scans (*p*) can be calculated according to the formula by Krysicki *et al.* (1995):

where:

$$
p = \left(\frac{2\sigma}{\Delta x}\right)^2
$$

 $\sigma$ – is the standard deviation

 $\Delta x$  – is the assumed absolute (g·kg<sup>-1</sup>) or relative (%) measurement error.

The relationship between the optimum number of soil sample spectra and the absolute error for  $C_{LF}$  and  $C_{MAF}$  is shown in Figure 4. To estimate  $C_{MAF}$  at the absolute error level of 2 g·kg<sup>-1</sup>, 45 spectra are required, whereas only 15 spectra are required for  $C_{LF}$ . As the error increases, the difference between the optimum number of spectra for  $C_{LE}$  and  $C_{MAF}$  decreases. To obtain an accuracy of 3 g·kg<sup>-1</sup>, we need 20 C<sub>MAF</sub> spectra and 6 C<sub>LF</sub> spectra (a difference of 14). At the error level of 5 g·kg<sup>-1</sup>, the difference in optimum number of spectra is only 5. The differences between the optimum number of spectra required for the estimation of  $C_{LF}$  and  $C_{MAF}$  and the relative error rate (5-50%) are shown in Figure 5. The smaller the relative error, the more  $C_{LF}$  spectra needed in relation to  $C_{\text{MAF}}$ . To estimate values within 5% error, 5 and 23 spectra are needed for  $C_{\text{MAF}}$  and  $C_{\text{LF}}$  respectively. The smaller optimum number of  $C_{\text{LF}}$  spectra required compared with  $C_{\text{MAP}}$  is caused by a difference in their standard deviations. The carbon content in the light fraction was lower than in the mineral−associated fraction, resulting in a standard deviation almost twice as small (Table 3).

MAPPING. Spatial analysis followed by mapping of the laboratory-determined  $C_{LF}$  values highlighted two hotspots of higher concentrations of this fraction (Fig. 6a). The hotspots are in the



Scatter plots of the measured vs calculated values for the validation dataset derived for (a) carbon con− centration in light fraction (C<sub>LF</sub>), (b) carbon concentration in mineral-associated fraction (C<sub>MAF</sub>), (c) total concentration of carbon (C<sub>t</sub>) and (d) total concentration of nitrogen (N<sub>t</sub>)



elevated areas (360−400 m above sea level) composed of soils derived from Triassic sandstones. The kriged values for observed  $C_{LF}$  range between 3.5 and 16 g·kg<sup>-1</sup>. Interestingly, the spatial distribution for NIR-predicted C<sub>LF</sub> values does not show the C<sub>LF</sub> hotspots. The kriged C<sub>LF</sub> values lie in the narrow range of 6 to  $8 \text{ g} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$  (Fig. 6b). As was shown in Figure 3a, the NIR analysis failed to predict values above 10  $g$ ·kg<sup>-1</sup>. It is therefore not surprising that the kriging analysis failed to reproduce the  $C_{LF}$  concentration hotspots visible in Figure 6a.

In the case of the spatial distributions for the observed and NIR-predicted  $C_{\text{MAF}}$  values, the trends are similar. The distributions show a gradual increase in  $C_{\text{MAP}}$  in a westerly direction (Fig. 6c, d). Additionally, the values overlap, i.e., 12−16 g·kg–1 and 10−18 g·kg–1 for the observed and predicted  $C_{\text{MAF}}$  values, respectively.



#### **Fig. 6.**

Kriged maps for (a) observed carbon concentration in light fraction  $(C_{LF})$ , (b) predicted carbon concentration in light fraction (C<sub>LF</sub>), (c) observed carbon concentration in mineral-associated fraction (C<sub>MAF</sub>) and (d) predicted carbon concentration in mineral-associated fraction (C<sub>MAF</sub>) in soils [g·kg<sup>–1</sup>]

## **Conclusions**

In this study we aimed to produce models that could predict properties of SOM with a high accuracy relative to laboratory−measured values. The calibrated models allowed us to predict values with a high accuracy. Satisfactory results were also produced during model validation. The statistical comparison of the measured and predicted values highlighted the applicability of the NIR technique for assessing soil parameters. However, the model developed for the car− bon concentration in the light fraction  $(C_{LR})$  lacked sensitivity for predicting values at the upper end of the range, *i.e.*, >10 g·kg<sup>-1</sup> of soil. This translated into an underestimation in the peak  $C_{LF}$ values when mapping the spatial distribution of this fraction in soils. This underestimation is also responsible for errors in the NIR prediction of the total soil carbon content (C<sub>t</sub>). However, the application of the NIR technique for quantitative assessment of the stabile  $C_{\text{MAF}}$  content produced relatively good results relative to measured values, in term of its statistical assessment and spatial distribution.

Additionally, our study demonstrated that to optimize the use of the NIR method for the prediction of soil properties, the number of optimum spectra required to achieve a desired level of accuracy in the estimated value should be taken into account during the sampling stage.

Overall, our study shows that with further work to optimize the technique, NIR spec− troscopy has potential for use in soil science as a less labor−intensive alternative to laboratory techniques for determining parameters of SOM such as the  $\rm C_{t'}$  N<sub>t</sub>, CN, pH, CEC,  $\rm C_{\rm MAF}$  and  $C_{\text{MAP}}/C$ . Based on average commercial prices, the cost and time of using the NIR technique is a few percent compared to laboratory analysis (not including the cost of the NIR spectrometer).

### **Authors' contribution**

M.K. – conceptual planning, performed the literature review, calibration, validation, model research, analysis and interpretation, manuscript planning and writing, data collection; D.K. – text writing and editing, analysis interpretation, figures preparation; P.G. – conceptual planning, analysis and interpretation, text writing−reviewing and editing, literature review.

## **Conflicts of interest**

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

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#### **Streszczenie**

### **Zastosowanie spektroskopii w bliskiej podczerwieni (NIR) do ilościowej oceny materii organicznej w glebach leśnych**

W ostatnim czasie obserwuje się znaczny wzrost zainteresowania techniką bliskiej podczerwieni (NIR – near infrared), stanowiącej alternatywę dla kosztownych i pracochłonnych analiz laborato− ryjnych. Niskie koszty badań wynikają m.in. z tego, że próbka gleby wymaga minimalnego stopnia przygotowania. Jest to metoda nieinwazyjna, pozwalająca na oszacowanie kilku właściwości badanej gleby na podstawie pojedynczego widma. Uzyskanie obrazu widma badanej gleby trwa kilkanaście sekund (Ben−Dor, Banin 1995; Islam i in. 2003; Viscarra Rossel i in. 2006). W badaniach glebo− znawczych technika ta jest jeszcze stosunkowo rzadko wykorzystywana. Celem pracy było zbada− nie, czy rodzaj frakcji glebowych wpływa na zastosowanie techniki NIR do ilościowej oceny materii organicznej, także w kontekście ich przestrzennego rozmieszczenia. Dodatkowo wykorzystano spektroskopię bliskiej podczerwieni do oznaczenia podstawowych właściwości gleb leśnych. Analizie poddano 256 próbek z wierzchniej warstwy gleb, z powierzchni zlokalizowanych w cen−

tralnej części Polski (ryc. 1). W wyniku prac laboratoryjnych oznaczono pH, zawartość kationów zasadowych (BC) oraz pojemność wymiany kationów (CEC). Każda z próbek gleby została po− dzielona na 2 odrębne frakcje glebowe: frakcję lekką (LF – light fraction) oraz powiązaną z frakcją mineralną (MAF – mineral associated fraction), zgodnie z Sohi i in. (2001). Następnie oznaczono właściwości gleb, tj.: zawartość węgla organicznego we frakcji lekkiej ( $C_{LF}$ ), zawartość węgla organicznego we frakcji powiązanej z frakcją mineralną (C<sub>MAF</sub>), stosunek C<sub>LF</sub> do ogólnej zawartości węgla w próbce gleby ( $C_{LR}/C$ ), stosunek  $C_{MAF}$  do ogólnej zawartości węgla w próbce gleby (C<sub>MAF</sub>/C), całkowitą zawartość węgla (C<sub>t</sub>) i azotu (N<sub>t</sub>) oraz stosunek węgla do azotu (CN). Próbki gleb były zróżnicowane, a wartości poszczególnych właściwości gleb charakteryzowały się rela− tywnie dużą zmiennością (tab. 1). Do kalibracji modelu regresji wykorzystano widma 171 próbek gleb. W wyniku próbnych i wielokrotnych kalibracji wybrano ustawienia programu, które po− zwoliły na opracowanie najdokładniejszych modeli. W celu sprawdzenia dokładności i wiarygod− ności opracowanych modeli przeprowadzono test walidacyjny na 85 wybranych schematycznie widmach, które nie zostały użyte wcześniej do kalibracji modelu. Przy użyciu opracowanych modeli kalibracyjnych oszacowano poszczególne właściwości gleb leśnych. Najlepsze wyniki kalibracji uzyskano dla C<sub>LF</sub>, C<sub>LF</sub>/C i C<sub>MAF</sub>/C (tab. 2; ryc. 2). Na etapie walidacji najlepsze rezul− taty osiągnięto dla N<sub>t</sub>, CN, BC i CEC, natomiast przeciętne dla C<sub>t</sub>, C<sub>MAF</sub> oraz C<sub>MAF</sub>/C (tab. 3). Opracowany model  $C_{LF}$  charakteryzował się niedokładną prognozą, głównie dla górnej granicy zakresu wartości (ryc. 3). W pracy przedstawiono zależność pomiędzy optymalną liczbą widm  $C_{LF}$  i  $C_{MAF}$  a błędem bezwzględnym (2−20 g·kg<sup>-1</sup>). Do uzyskania dokładności 3 g·kg<sup>-1</sup> potrzeba 20 widm  $C_{\text{MAP}}$  i 6 widm  $C_{\text{LF}}$  (różnica wyniosła 14 widm). Przy poziomie błędu 5 g·kg<sup>-1</sup> różnica optymalnej liczby widm wynosi już tylko 5 (ryc. 4). Na ryc. 5 pokazano różnice pomiędzy opty− malną liczbą widm gleby potrzebnych do oszacowania  $C_{LF}$  i  $C_{MAF}$  a względnym poziomem błędu (5−50%). Im mniejszy zakres błędu, tym więcej jest potrzebnych widm C<sub>LF</sub> w stosunku do C<sub>MAF</sub>. Aby oszacować wartości w granicach błędu 5%, potrzebnych jest 5 widm  $C_{MAF}$  i 23  $C_{LF}$ . W pracy dokonano analizy rozkładu przestrzennego pomiędzy wartościami C<sub>LF</sub> i C<sub>MAF</sub> oznaczonymi i oszacowanymi. Mapowanie oznaczonych wartości C<sub>LF</sub> wykazało 2 zagęszczone miejsca (360-400 m n.p.m.), natomiast analiza przestrzenna  $C_{LF}$  oznaczonych NIR nie wykazała takich miejsc (ryc. 6a, b). Rozkłady przestrzenne C<sub>MAF</sub> wykazały podobną tendencję: stopniowy wzrost wartości w kie− runku zachodnim (ryc. 6c, d). Porównanie zmierzonych i oszacowanych wartości pokazuje, że spek− troskopia NIR ma potencjał określania parametrów gleby. Ocena statystyczna oraz analiza rozkładu przestrzennego modelowanego C<sub>MAF</sub> wykazały stosunkowo dobrą zgodność z oznaczonymi laboratoryjnie wartościami. Ocena modelu  $C_{LF}$  była mniej dokładna. Wyniki badań pozwalają wysnuć wniosek, że spektroskopia NIR może być stosowana w gleboznawstwie do określania para− metrów gleb, tj.: C<sub>t</sub>, N<sub>t</sub>, CN, pH, CEC, C<sub>MAF</sub> i C<sub>MAF</sub>/C.