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Title: Silvicultural and logging impact on soil characteristics in Chestnut Mediterranean coppice

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Abstract: Commonly, in Italy coppice utilization consists in a felling of about 80-85% in mass of the total woody biomass, with release of standard (about 70-120 standard/ha). This is a crucial operation in forest management, which also has important effects on understory, fauna, and soil. The aim of this study is to investigate the impact generated by the silvicultural treatment observed and by the logging methodology on the soil characteristics, within the chestnut coppice located in central Italy on the Cimini Mountain area. In particular, this study has paid close attention to the silvicultural treatment of the coppice with standards for chestnut forest, its utilizations and problems. The applicative use of equipment and methods were also included in this study to evaluate the entity of impact on forest soil characteristics. For the study of the silvicultural treatment and logging impacts on the forest soils in addition to the usual physical and chemical analysis (pH, organic matter, bulk density, penetrometric and shear resistance), soil quality was estimated with the QBS-ar index. Our findings demonstrate that physical, chemical and biological soil features can be strongly impacted by harvesting operations and, consequently, certain soil processes may be influenced at the imposed compaction levels. On other hand, physical, chemical and biological soil features are not impacted by silvicultural treatment applied. The results confirm that chestnut coppice soils are characterized by the highest biodiversity level among edaphic fauna and from a well-structured and mature microarthropod community, which is typical of stable ecosystems (QBS-ar value >200).

Viterbo, 26 September 2015

Dear Ecological Engineering Journal,

on behalf of my co-authors, I am submitting the enclosed material for possible publication in the Ecological Engineering Journal. It has not been submitted for publication nor has it been published in whole or in part elsewhere. I attest to the fact that all authors listed on the title page have read the manuscript, attest to the validity and legitimacy of the data and its interpretation, and agree to its submission to the Ecological Engineering Journal.

We are submitting the work titled: “Silvicultural and logging impact on soil characteristics in Chestnut Mediterranean coppice”.

This scientific paper focus on topics treated in recent years in this and other important Journal and currently of great scientific interest in the global social and environmental sustainability context. Silvicultural and logging activity influences the forests conservation and their management, for these reasons must be supported by an adequate impact analysis, and must be compatible with a sustainable forest management. For a specific silvicultural management systems “coppice with standards” were investigated the impacts generated by the silvicultural treatment observed and by the logging methodology on the main soil characteristics, chemical, physical and biological.

Touching both environmental aspects and engineering aspects, the research is well within the scope of ecological engineering. So I hope that the editor considers this paper appropriate to be published.

We are a research group formed by Rachele Venanzi, Gianluca Piovesan and Rodolfo Picchio like corresponding author. These Authors are two professors and one researcher from Tuscia University (Viterbo, Italy), with expertise in forestry mechanization, forestry, silviculture, reduced impact logging practices, logging impacts and pedology and ecology.

Best regards

Rodolfo Picchio

Research highlights

- Silvicultural and logging impacts of semi-mechanized logging method in coppice.
- Impacts of silvicultural treatment and logging method on soil chemical characteristics.
- Impacts of silvicultural treatment and logging method on soil physical characteristics.
- Impacts of silvicultural treatment and logging method on soil biological characteristics.
- The impacts caused by silvicultural treatment and logging method were determined and discussed.

1 **Silvicultural and logging impact on soil characteristics in Chestnut Mediterranean**
2 **coppice**

3

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13

14 **Keywords**

15 Chestnut coppice, logging operation, soil impact, soil biological quality, QBS-ar

16

17 **Abstract**

18 Commonly, in Italy coppice utilization consists in a felling of about 80-85% in mass of the
19 total woody biomass, with release of standard (about 70-120 standard/ha). This is a crucial
20 operation in forest management, which also has important effects on understory, fauna, and
21 soil. The aim of this study is to investigate the impact generated by the silvicultural
22 treatment observed and by the logging methodology on the soil characteristics, within the
23 chestnut coppice located in central Italy on the Cimino Mountain area. In particular, this
24 study has paid close attention to the silvicultural treatment of the coppice with standards for
25 chestnut forest, its utilizations and problems. The applicative use of equipment and methods
26 were also included in this study to evaluate the entity of impact on forest soil characteristics.
27 For the study of the silvicultural treatment and logging impacts on the forest soils in addition
28 to the usual physical and chemical analysis (pH, organic matter, bulk density, penetrometric
29 and shear resistance), soil quality was estimated with the QBS-ar index. Our findings
30 demonstrate that physical, chemical and biological soil features can be strongly impacted by
31 harvesting operations and, consequently, certain soil processes may be influenced at the
32 imposed compaction levels. On other hand, physical, chemical and biological soil features

33 are not impacted by silvicultural treatment applied. The results confirm that chestnut coppice
34 soils are characterized by the highest biodiversity level among edaphic fauna and from a
35 well-structured and mature microarthropod community, which is typical of stable
36 ecosystems (QBS-ar value >200).

37

38 **Introduction**

39 Coppice is a traditional method of regeneration to produce woody biomass rapidly. Coppice
40 historically represents an important source of firewood, litter collection and pasture (Glatzel,
41 1999; Gimmi et al., 2008). In fact, low-input coppice may be an efficient and sustainable
42 biomass production system. After 1950 the management of coppice was affected by a
43 progressive abandonment as a consequence of environmental policies and socio-economic
44 changes (Bürgi, 1999; Bičik et al., 2001; Lo Monaco et al., 2011, 2014). The cessation of
45 cuts produced the so-called stored coppice or “aged coppices” and started to alternative
46 systems of coppice management such as the conversion of coppice into high forest (Picchio
47 et al., 2009). This phenomenon for phytosanitary and productivistic purposes has only
48 marginally affected chestnut coppices, which, especially in Italy, have remained with the
49 traditional form of management of the coppice with standards. Generally, coppice has
50 supplied timber for consumption both as firewood and charcoal production for centuries
51 (Picchio et al., 2011b), in particular chestnut coppices have provided structural timber of
52 great value.

53 Chestnut coppices are the fruit and result of a silviculture of this species that has lasted for
54 centuries, and although it is not the only type of forestry among the most naturally stable, it
55 does guarantee continuity and stability to the forest cover. They also have significant
56 economical and traditional factors, so much so that the expansion of cultivation regarding
57 composition and formation are presently government issues (Maetzke et al, 1991). The
58 chestnut tree has taken on a preeminent role in Italian forest formation, not only for the range
59 in quality and variety of wood, but mostly due to the consistent presence on Italian territory.
60 It is infact found from the Alps to Sicily, usually in extended territories as a result of intense
61 diffusion and cultivation done up to the recent past. Today the chestnut grows in hilly and
62 mountainous territories where there is a high level of naturalistic value or within protected
63 areas, where the economy also depends on tourism activities connected to the quality of the
64 product and the agro-forest landscape. Moreover, chestnut forests are habitats of
65 Community interest (9260 *Castanea sativa* Forests). Data from ISTAT 1950 report 447,000

66 hectares of surface for fruit producing chestnuts and 275,186 hectares for coppices.
67 Following radical economical, social, ecological and phytopathological changes when
68 cultivation methods of this species were remarkably modified, a majority of the chestnut
69 producing forests were coppiced. Presently, the total surface amount of chestnut forests is
70 788,408 hectares of which 147, 586 hectares are fruit producing and 605,888 hectares are for
71 wood (IFNC 2007). The chestnut tree is a species that has numerous positive aspects such as
72 the rapidity of growth, good quality of wood, a vast variety, and high pollination capacity.
73 Even where the environmental needs of the chestnut are not fully present, production is still
74 well sustained. Growing rates are kept high allowing for a good flexibility in the choice of
75 rotation. On the other hand, this species has some negative aspects, such as susceptibility to
76 pathogens and the tendency to ring shake. Generally, these limiting factors are linked to the
77 type of management applied. The INFC states that the overall health of Italian chestnut
78 forests is not among the best; only 29% is free of any type of damage. This species is mainly
79 affected by two serious fungal diseases: bark cancer caused by *Cryphonectria parasitica* and
80 'ink disease' caused by *Phytophthora cambivora*. There is damage caused by insects which is
81 not less important, such as the *Dryocosmus kuriphilus* Yasumatsu, commonly known as the
82 'chestnut gall wasp'.

83 The coppice harvesting is a crucial operation in forest management, which has important
84 effects on the understory, the fauna and, last but not least, the soil (Frey et al., 2011; Picchio
85 et al., 2012a,b). Also the carbon dioxide efflux from the soil may change significantly after
86 harvesting (Olajuyigbe et al., 2012) due to modified inputs of light, heat and water to the
87 ground and root density, but also due to machinery-induced compaction of soil, which
88 reduces porosity and connectivity of pores, and increases soil density and shear strength
89 (Picchio et al., 2012b). These impacts could produce a tree growth reduction (Grigal, 2000),
90 soil horizon mixing and topsoil removal (Korb et al., 2007).

91 For these reasons, one of the most important problem of the forest sector is to minimize the
92 ground damage caused by forest operations (Edlund et al. 2013). Generally, harvesting
93 effects include changes in vegetation, nutrient availability, soil microclimate and structure
94 and litter quantity and quality. In particular, forest operations, such as forwarding and
95 skidding, have a high potential for soil compaction (Jamshidi et al. 2008, Cambi et al.,
96 2015a,b). However adequately managed forest ecosystems are suggested to be highly
97 resilient in the long-term perspective (Sánchez-Moreno et al. 2006).

98 At any rate, all extraction systems have a potential for logging damage. Research on logging
99 damage started at the beginning of the twentieth century and its importance has been rising
100 with the spread of mechanized wood harvesting (Vasiliauskas, 2001). Mechanical injury to
101 residual standing trees, soil and forest regeneration are caused by machine vehicle traffic and
102 log dragging (Klvac et al., 2010; Picchio et al., 2011a, 2012a,b). The impact on residual trees
103 and soil depends on several factors, such as: harvesting system (Spinelli et al., 2010); site
104 characteristics removal intensity design of the skid trails skill of operators (Bragg et al.,
105 1994; Picchio et al., 2011a, 2012a,b) and degree of mechanization. Machinery-induced soil
106 compaction strongly reduces porosity and pore connectivity and increase soil density and
107 shear strength (Klvac et al., 2010; Williamson and Neilsen, 2000).

108 Logging systems may be different depending on the silvicultural management and the final
109 products. Technical and economic utilization of coppices is dependent on various factors
110 concerning terrain conditions, transportation networks and harvesting technologies, as well
111 as systems, silvicultural and forest operation management (Cavalli and Grigolato, 2010;
112 Vusic et al., 2013). Although in recent times significant innovations have become available
113 in forestry utilization (Picchio et al., 2011a,b), both in terms of technology and methodology,
114 the majority of private and public coppice forests in Italy are still harvested by applying
115 traditional methods, i.e., motor-manual felling (chainsaw) and low mechanized extraction
116 methods (mules and/or agricultural tractors) (Picchio et al., 2011). These machines are often
117 not adequately prepared for forestry works.

118 In order to improve silvicultural management and logging methods, a better knowledge
119 about the long-term impact of forest operations is needed (Maesano et al., 2013; Picchio et
120 al., 2011b). The reduction of the negative effects of felling and extraction is one of the main
121 goals when achieving sustainable forest management (Sist and Nguyen-Thé, 2002; Sist et al.,
122 2003).

123 Before starting logging operations, attention is paid to soil consistency and adhesiveness in
124 order to infer if machinery can work easily, but little care is sometimes devoted to the effects
125 of such operations on soil quality. Forests growing on slopes, in particular, require detailed
126 preventive and posterior analyses aimed at assessing the real impact of operations (Picchio et
127 al., 2011a).

128 A better knowledge about the impact of forest operations in coppice harvesting is needed for
129 improving logging systems (Cambi et al., 2015a). The reduction of the negative effects of
130 felling and extraction is one of the main goals when achieving sustainable forest

131 management. Forests growing on slopes, in particular, being the most liable ones to the
132 negative impact on soil of vehicles in harvesting (Jourgholami et al., 2014), require detailed
133 preventive and posterior analyses aimed at assessing the real impact of management
134 operations (Picchio et al., 2011a).

135 Unfortunately, the studies focused on the effects of the utilizations on the forest soil physical
136 properties are uncommon, and companies are rarely required to take into account the impact
137 of their operation on the territory and the sustainability of the forest, or better, the real
138 application of a sustainable forest management.

139 For the study of the silvicultural treatment and logging impacts on the forest soils in addition
140 to the usual physical and chemical analysis (pH, organic matter, bulk density, penetrometric
141 and shear resistance), soil quality was estimated with the QBS-ar index (Blasi et al., 2013).
142 This index can be also a valuable tool in ecosystem restoration programs to monitor the
143 development of soil functions and biodiversity and to prevent the negative effects of soil
144 compaction due to logging activities. More in general, QBS-ar is a candidate index for
145 continuous biomonitoring of soil fauna communities to describe patterns and processes in
146 the microarthropod biodiversity across the landscape. A deeper knowledge of soil
147 biodiversity in response to landscape use will provide guidance in effective management
148 planning for sustainable renewable resource use and nature conservation (Blasi et al. 2013).

149 Biodiversity monitoring is essential to support management decisions in maintaining
150 multiple forest ecosystem functions at long term (CBD 2001). A better understanding of the
151 roles of the components of biological diversity for supporting the provision of multiple forest
152 ecosystem services it is necessary (Corona et al. 2011; Mattioli et al. 2015). Touching both
153 environmental aspects and engineering aspects, the research is well within the scope of
154 ecological engineering (Mitsch and Jørgensen, 2003).

155 The aim of this study is to investigate the impact generated by the silvicultural treatment
156 observed and by the logging methodology on the soil characteristics, within the chestnut
157 coppice located in central Italy on the Cimini Mountain area. In particular, this study has
158 paid close attention to the silvicultural treatment of the coppice with standards for chestnut
159 forest, its utilizations and problems. The applicative use of equipment and methods were
160 also included in this study to evaluate the entity of impact on forest soil characteristics.

161

162 **Material and methods**

163 *Study sites*

164 The study was conducted in a chestnut (*Castanea sativa* Mill.) coppice on the Cimini
165 Mountain (42°36'92.16''N, 12°20'28.00''E) near Viterbo, Lazio region, Central Italy. The
166 forest stand was a 10 ha of coppice with standards. It was located at an elevation of 590 m
167 a.s.l., on a slope with an average gradient of 45% (ranging between 15% and 55%). Ground
168 surface was uneven, with about 10% of the surface showing obstacles to machine traffic,
169 such as rock outcrops and hollows. The climate was Mediterranean, characterized by hot,
170 summers, and mild, rainy autumns and early springs. Mean annual precipitation was about
171 900 mm and mean annual temperature was 14.8 °C. Highest daily temperatures were
172 recorded in July or August (31 °C) and the lowest ones in January (1 °C). The coppice was
173 felled at the growth age of 16 years, releasing 60 standards per hectare.

174 The area has two forest-rural roads, artificially surfaced, that divide the forest into two
175 parcels. The road slope is medium-low at 5% and the average width of the roadway is 3.20
176 meters. The forest has no tracks. The landing area was made along a wider part of the main
177 road.

178 The soil formation of the territories described is mostly connected to the type of materials
179 resulting from volcanic eruptions, which are exposed to weather conditions. The smooth or
180 stony types of materials have conditioned their alterability and therefore the thickness and
181 type of land. Moreover, the entire soil of the area is characterized by a remarkable
182 permeability, that favours percolation and the internal circulation of waters, and a rapid
183 decomposition of litter that creates a mull type humus (Maetzke et al, 1991). The soil area is
184 non-hydromorph brown soil, acidic reaction or sub-acidic. This soil belongs to the brown
185 andro-soil type, class 2 potential, and therefore has good agronomical potential. It is adapt
186 for every type of cultivation, but particularly tree cultures (Maetzke et al, 1991).

187 In this study area, post operations analyses were conducted, using research methods based on
188 internationally shared protocols, elaborated and adapted to this context of study as proposed
189 in Picchio et al. (2009).

190

191 *Treatment and logging methods*

192 The chestnut forest under study is characterized by a silvicultural treatment defined as
193 coppice with standard. The coppice with standard is the most used silvicultural treatment
194 method in coppice forests of Italy, typically within the Italian situational context, aimed
195 mainly towards guaranteeing a profit for the forest owner and towards maintaining
196 coetaneous forest. The yield of chestnut coppice in the mountains of the Cimini and Vicani

197 (central Italy) is very high, thanks to growth on volcanic terrains and to thinning that have
198 brought to variety with a good average volume.

199 The treatment consisted in the almost complete removal of the trees, releasing 60 standards
200 per hectare. The harvesting operation was done mainly during the winter season which was
201 completed in about 100 days. Tree Length System was adopted, trees were taken uphill to a
202 landing site, crossed by a single permanent road. Before this final cutting, the stand was
203 thinned once. Pre-harvest stand data were obtained with standard mensuration techniques on
204 eight circular sample plots of 20 m diameter, hence covering an area of 314 m² each one.
205 Stand data are shown in Table 1.

206 Three soil samples were taken randomly from the top 30 cm of mineral soil to determine the
207 particle size distribution, which are considered crucial indicators of vulnerability to soil
208 compaction (Marchi et al., 2014; Cambi et al., 2015b). For particle size distribution, rock
209 fragments (particles with >2 mm diameter) were removed from the air-dried samples by
210 sieving. Afterwards, three sand fractions – 2.00-0.50 mm (coarse), 0.50-0.25 mm (medium),
211 and 0.25-0.05 mm (fine) – were separated by wet sieving. Finally, silt and clay were
212 determined by a hydrometer (Picchio et al., 2012b; Cambi et al., 2015a).

213 Logging was performed by six operators according to the “tree length system” (TLS), with
214 the intent of producing mainly structural timber. All trees were cut motor-manually with a
215 Stihl MS 260 chainsaw. Bunching and extraction was performed winching uphill with a farm
216 tractor using a skidding arch. The wheeled tractor was a 79 kW Lamborghini, weighing 4300
217 kg and carrying a bolt-on hydraulic winch with a maximum pull of 40 kN. This tractor
218 travelled on the forest soil and rarely a winching operation was conducted for viability, this is
219 due mainly to the complete absence of tracks.

220

221 *Analytical methods*

222 For each area under examination, 3 transects were assigned to indicate represented areas so
223 as to estimate the surface area impacted. Each transect was rectangular in shape (2 m x 50
224 m), individualized parallel to the level curve, using a tape measure, recording clearly and in
225 detail the surface portions which were and were not affected. The results from this procedure
226 made it possible to record the percentage of the affected area.

227 The impact on soil was assessed on 20 randomly selected sampling plots (SP). In each plot,
228 we measured for the soil: bulk density, pH, organic matter content, penetration resistance,
229 and shear strength. Each SP consisted of a circular area 12 m in diameter, where two different

230 points (PO) were selected based on visual assessment (e.g. presence or absence of bent
231 understory, crushed litter, ruts or soil mixing) to represent disturbed and undisturbed soil
232 conditions, respectively. As a control, for the effect due to the silvicultural treatment, a
233 neighboring forest area was considered, managed, but not impacted for more than 10 years;
234 in this area 20 randomly selected SP were identified. One measurement for each PO for bulk
235 density, pH, organic matter, and three measurements for penetration resistance and shear
236 strength were performed.

237 For bulk density determination, we inserted a steel cylinder of known volume, 8.5 cm high
238 and with a 5.0 cm inner diameter, into the top of the mineral soil. The soil was removed from
239 the cylinder and, once in the lab, weighed after oven drying at 105 °C to constant weight (dry
240 weight). The dry weight divided by the volume of the cylinder is the bulk density (Db)
241 expressed as Mg m^{-3} .

242 Penetration resistance of soil was measured by a penetrometer Pen-P100 and shear strength
243 by a scissometer Sciss-S100. These parameters were measured in the top 5 cm of soil. The
244 measured values were standardized to water-holding capacity of soil, which was determined
245 to be 21% inferred from the particle-size distribution as in Saxton et al. (1986).

246 The pH value was measured by potentiometric analysis, using soil/saline solution
247 suspensions (soil-KCl 1 mol) in a 1:2.5 proportion. Organic matter measurement was done by
248 incineration in a mitten at 400°C for 4 hours, after the thorough elimination of water and
249 pretreatment at 160°C for 6 hours.

250 For the microarthropods extraction and QBS-ar index application, three soil cores 100 cm²
251 and 10 cm deep were sampled in each soil typology. Microarthropods were extracted using a
252 Berlese-Tüllgren funnel; the specimens were collected in a preserving solution (75% ethyl
253 alcohol and 25 % glycerol by volume) and identified to different taxonomic levels (class for
254 Myriapoda and order for Insecta, Chelicerata and Crustacea) using a stereo microscope. Soil
255 quality was estimated with the QBS-ar index (Parisi et al., 2005; Gardi et al. 2008; Tabaglio
256 et al. 2009; Menta et al. 2010). The QBS-ar index is based on the following concept: the
257 higher the soil quality, the higher the number of microarthropod groups will be which are well
258 adapted to soil habitats. Soil organisms are separated into biological forms according to their
259 morphological adaptation to soil environments; each of these forms is associated with a score
260 named EMI (eco-morphological index), which ranges from 1 to 20 in proportion to the degree
261 of adaptation. The QBS-ar index value is obtained from the sum of the EMI of all collected
262 groups. The organisms belonging to each biological taxon were counted in order to estimate

263 their density at the sampled depth (0–10 cm) and relating the number of individuals and the
264 sample area to 1 m² of the surface (ind/m²).

265

266 *Statistics*

267 Statistical analyses were carried out with the Statistica 7.1 (2007) Software. As a first step,
268 data distribution was plotted and checked for normality (Lilliefors) and homogeneity of
269 variance (Levene test). All the data points then underwent to t-test, ANOVA or MANOVA
270 test, to test the effect of different treatments. In order to determine the relation among QBS-ar,
271 bulk density, penetration and shear resistance, a nonparametric correlation analysis (Spearman
272 correlation matrix) was applied. Data were not normally distributed and with insufficient
273 homogeneity of variance, as suggested in Picchio et al. (2009), were statistically processed
274 using the non parametric ANOVA the Kruskal-Wallis test. Principal Components Analysis
275 (PCA) was applied for the descriptive analysis of the soil biodiversity.

276

277 **Results and discussion**

278 *Analysis of the impacted surface*

279 The silvicultural treatment studied and applied results to be simplified and without any
280 particular applicative problem. However, the limited level of planning and applied
281 technology in the forest utilizations did not allow for a proper low impact operation. The
282 logging operations were done by a type of simplified mechanization but not light, the lack of
283 tracks made it frequently necessary for tractors to enter through forest ground, the impact was
284 not only characterized by the passage of logs but also vehicles. The forest surface impacted
285 by the activity was 26.9%, a result notably lower to that obtained in other studies,
286 characterized however by a much higher density of the trees. (Picchio et al., 2012; Marchi et
287 al., 2014; Tavakar et al., 2013).

288

289 *Soil Physical Chemical Analyses*

290 The granulometry is characterized by a high content of sand 60.9%. The presence of silt is at
291 36% while the clay contents is quite low at 3.1%, but does however come into the FS soil
292 material class (franco-sandy). Along with the granulometric values and through the Soil
293 Water method (K.Saxton), the soil field capacity was calculated (CC) at 21%.

294 As far as regards the forest soil, the analyses conducted by a corer for soil sample gathering
295 and the successive laboratory tests, gave the results shown below.

296 Regarding soil moisture during the sampling period, no significant statistical differences were
297 observed in the samples as well as the comparative treatments (moisture range 51-59%).
298 There were significant differences in bulk density in comparative treatment. This parameter is
299 heavily influenced by both the silvicultural treatment and the soil impact by vehicles. When
300 comparing the soil control area (with no silvicultural treatment whatsoever in the last decade),
301 and the non disturbed soil portions but subject to silvicultural treatments, the bulk density
302 difference measured is increased on the average of 0.210 g/cm^3 which is equal to 39%. This is
303 considered to be mainly caused by the action of atmospheric events, in particular precipitation
304 followed by the undercovering due to silvicultural operations.
305 When comparing the non disturbed soil (but subjected to silvicultural treatment) and the
306 portions of soil disturbed by vehicles, the difference measured in terms of bulk density is an
307 average increase of 0.073 g/cm^3 equal to about 10%. This is considered to be mainly caused
308 by the compacting action of load transportation and vehicles. Similar values have been
309 observed in another study where not only loads but vehicles moved on the forest soil (Picchio
310 et al., 2012b). Where no vehicle entered on the forest soil, but winching operations allowed
311 vehicles to impact the soil, bulk density value increase vary from 1 to 3% (Marchi et al.,
312 2014; Picchio et al., 2012b). In Cambi et al. (2015a), an increase over 30% was measured
313 where vehicles moved repeatedly. This data gives more evidence that the need to limit the
314 passage of vehicles over the same tracks.
315 Once field tests were conducted, the penetrometric and scissometric data gathered were
316 subjected to relative statistical investigation in order to find any significant statistical
317 difference between the non disturbed forest soil and the one where utilization operations had
318 been conducted.
319 The MANOVA test gave positive results showing a remarkable difference between the
320 groups. Contrary to what was observed for bulk density, the scissometric and penetrometric
321 analyses do not show significant differences between the control particle (without any
322 silvicultural treatment in the last decade) and the non disturbed soil portions but subjected to
323 silvicultural treatment.
324 In particular, the difference obtained from the penetrometric data is about 0.210 MPa which is
325 equal to 320.6%. This is considered to be a result of the utilization activities carried out in the
326 area.
327 The results obtained show a significant concordance with the same for bulk density; the
328 percentage of variation is outstandingly superior to the variation recorded for bulk density.

329 The same can be said for the scissometric analyses. The difference observed is 2.563 t/m²
330 which shows an increase of 165%. This is considered to be a result of the utilization activities
331 carried out in the area.

332 The results obtained show a significant concordance with the same for bulk density and the
333 penetrometric investigation; the variation percentage-wise is remarkably superior to the
334 variation recorded for bulk density and in line with the variations observed for the
335 penetrometric data.

336 In the utilization soil impact analysis, the percentage of organic matter content was also
337 analyzed initially in a control site that had no utilization, and then within the areas of interest.
338 Similar impact values were obtained as from Cambi et al. (2015a) on soils with
339 characteristics similar to those in of this study.

340 As seen from the data obtained, the organic matter content is inferior in all the areas affected
341 by the impact of vehicle movement and from loads, whereas there is no significant statistical
342 difference between the area undergoing silvicultural treatment (but not impacted by vehicles)
343 in comparison to the control site. Particularly, the areas disturbed by mechanical vehicle
344 movement notably influence the organic matter content. This decrease in OM in the portions
345 of disturbed soil can be linked to the decrease in mineralization and moisturing activity by the
346 micro-organisms present in the disturbed area.

347 Following the utilization activities performed within the area of study, the organic matter
348 content is inferior in all the areas impacted by vehicles, while the silvicultural treatment does
349 not seem to have caused any significant modification of this parameter, at least during the first
350 two years after the intervention.

351 The pH value is another value that was obtained during the study of the soil impact of forest
352 utilization. In this case, no influence on pH was observed as a result of the silvicultural
353 treatment or the terrain compaction. As stated before, pH is a very important parameter for the
354 correct functioning of the soil system, due to the fact that pH variations influence various
355 parameters and processes. However, within the context of this study, this parameters does not
356 seem to have been influenced by the vehicle movement or silvicultural operations. Perhaps,
357 this is due to the fair level of acidity that generally is found on soils that are studied.

358

359 *Soil biodiversity analysis*

360 The QBS-ar is an index for soil impact. It is very useful as it is extremely sensitive to
361 environmental variations caused by anthropic disturbance. This index is exclusively

362 qualitative, and evaluates the presence and the complexity of the soil conditions of the sites
363 under study. Specifically, a high value index corresponds to a situation where there are ample
364 and well structured soil conditions with a high level of biodiversity in terms of biological
365 forms. The soil conditions are closely connected to the presence of empty spaces on the soil
366 that give vital space to the same community, and therefore on soil where anthropic activity
367 generates a high level of compaction is missing from this particular habitat and the
368 community is thus disturbed. Through analysis of samples gathered within the area under
369 study, it was possible to evaluate the utilization impact on the soil micro-arthropod
370 community.

371 The data gathered (tab. 6 and fig. 1), shows the QBS-ar index to be inferior in all the areas
372 involved in load and vehicle movement impact, while there is a significant statistical
373 difference between the area subject to silvicultural treatment (but not impacted by vehicles)
374 compared to the control site. However, in this case it seems that the silvicultural operation
375 had a positive influence, even if a minimum one. This increase of the index in the area
376 subjected to treatment as compared to the control site is considered to be due to an increase of
377 possible micro-habitats after the onset of tree and grass renovation phenomena.

378 The results show that the movement of vehicles have a major impact on the soil condition
379 community, while the silvicultural intervention does not seem to have any distinct impact. In
380 some cases, it seems to favour improvement of the biological quality of the soil.

381 The movement of mechanical vehicles and loads, however, have a negative influence on the
382 index as observed for many other parameters.

383 The QBS-ar index showed a very large variation range (92-248), consistently with what was
384 observed by Blasi et al. (2013) and Rüdissler et al (2015). As the QBS values showed an
385 excellent (Spearman's test, QBS-ar vs bulk density: $R_s = -0.59$; $p < 0.05$; QBS-ar vs
386 penetration resistance: $R_s = -0.68$; $p < 0.01$; QBS-ar vs shear resistance: $R_s = -0.72$; $p < 0.01$;)
387 correlation with soil compaction (and since there was a significant difference between
388 disturbed and undisturbed soil), most of the observed variation in our sample is explained by
389 the different degree of soil compaction rather than by physical habitat heterogeneity. Namely,
390 microarthropod communities are probably affected by bunching and extraction operations
391 because of the negative effect of soil compaction, in turn due to vehicle traffic: as already
392 shown by Blasi et al. (2013) for forest ecosystems, soil compaction leads to the
393 disappearance of specialized groups such as Symphyla, Diplopoda and Chilopoda.

394 In addition to the QBS-ar index, the population density was evaluated during sampling in
395 terms of individuals per dm², intending that this soil unit is specifically sampled at a pre-
396 established depth of 10 cm.

397 As can be observed from the data gathered, the micro-arthropod density is inferior in all the
398 areas involved in the impact caused by the movement of vehicles and loads, while there is a
399 significant statistical difference between the area subject to silvicultural treatment (but not
400 impacted by vehicles) compared to the control site. In this case, however, it seems that the
401 silvicultural intervention had a negative effect, even if a minimum one. The movement of
402 mechanical vehicles and loads has a negative influence on the index as observed for many
403 other parameters.

404 The PCA of the EMI-by-sites matrix (Fig. 2) showed a negative relationship between the
405 degree of faunistic complexity and soil compaction: the most impacted (and thus most
406 compacted) sites featured an over-simplification of the faunistic assemblages, that lost the
407 taxonomic and functional groups specifically adapted to soil habitats.

408 The forest soil is extremely fragile in physical terms as well as chemical and biological terms,
409 with a low density bulk, low resistance to compression and cut with high values of
410 permeability. These parameters make forests extremely vulnerable to anthropic disturbances
411 of various nature, the first among all is forest utilization (Vossbrink and Horn,2004).

412 As observed from soil conditions (fig. 3), it appears evident that the tracks used for vehicle
413 movement above all determine an increase of compaction that is recorded at a depth of 10 cm.
414 All this can transform into the risky phenomenon of water run off and wash outs that over
415 time can cause a loss of fertile soil. It must not be neglected that these soil conditions could
416 impede seed germination, therefore hinder regeneration and continuity of the forest, and lead
417 to the possible loss of green areas.

418 Moreover, increased compaction determines the loss of micro-macroporosity, diminishing the
419 presence of oxygen and moisture in the soil, causing the lack of the vital conditions for
420 microbiological activity. From a phytopathological viewpoint, the increase in water run off
421 facilitates the expansion and the transmission of pathogens in the form of spores and rhizoids.
422 The overall consequences of compaction, of the decrease of soil conduction and the increase
423 of growth and supply of root systems are clear and definitely not positive as also shown by
424 various authors (Heinonen et al., 2002; Alakukku, 2000; Gaerting, 2001).

425

426

427 **Conclusions**

428 This study allowed for an assessment of the impact on soil generated by the silvicultural
429 treatment and the harvesting operations. Physical, chemical and biological soil properties are
430 often significantly impacted by the active forest management, in particular by silvicultural
431 treatments and by harvesting operations, and it may imply compaction and consequent
432 restrictions to tree growth and natural regeneration.

433 Our findings demonstrate that physical, chemical and biological soil features can be strongly
434 impacted by harvesting operations (fig. 3) and, consequently, certain soil processes may be
435 influenced at the imposed compaction levels. On other hand, physical, chemical and
436 biological soil features are not impacted by silvicultural treatment applied. Designated skid
437 trails should be used to confine such an impact, hence preserving the rest of the area. A
438 careful technical surveillance during each phase of the work by trained and remunerated
439 people is required to keep low the impact on soil and the whole ecosystem. For similar
440 conditions, the motor-manual felling and extraction with whole tree system or tree length
441 system by yarder could be more environment-friendly than using winching and skidding
442 methodologies, because it did not modify soil penetrability and shear strength. In those cases
443 where winching is unavoidable or convenient, careful supervision and appropriate training
444 are required to minimize logging impacts where also directional felling is required.

445 In general, the conspicuous impact caused by the vehicle movement on forest soils is made
446 evident by elaborating the data of the physical-mechanical soil components. This reveals the
447 absolute necessity that it should be limited to a minimum required. It would be interesting to
448 evaluate the capacity of recovery from these types of stress of the soil that were object of this
449 study.

450

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454

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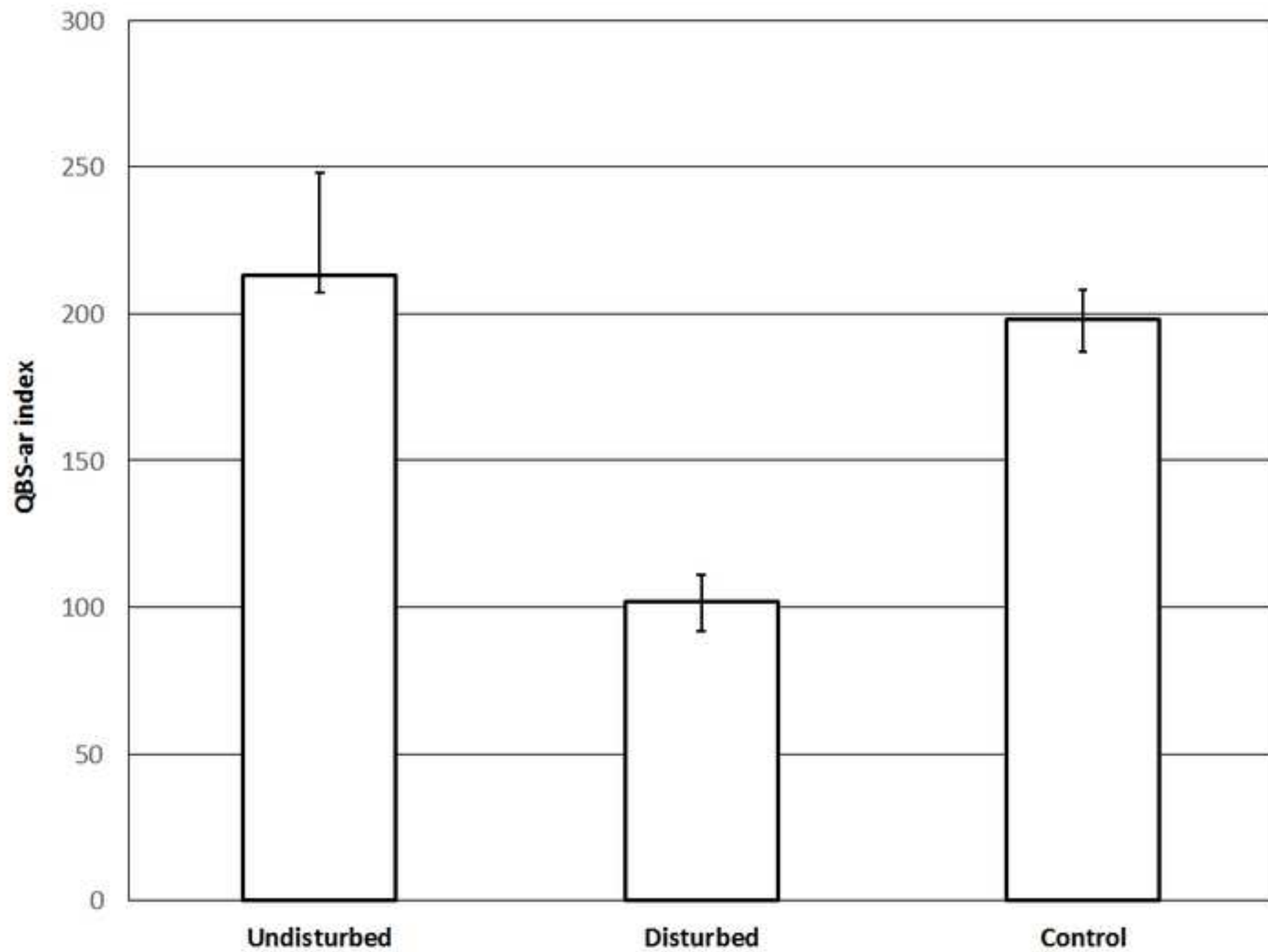
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Figure 1: QBS-ar index variation for the three soil typologies.

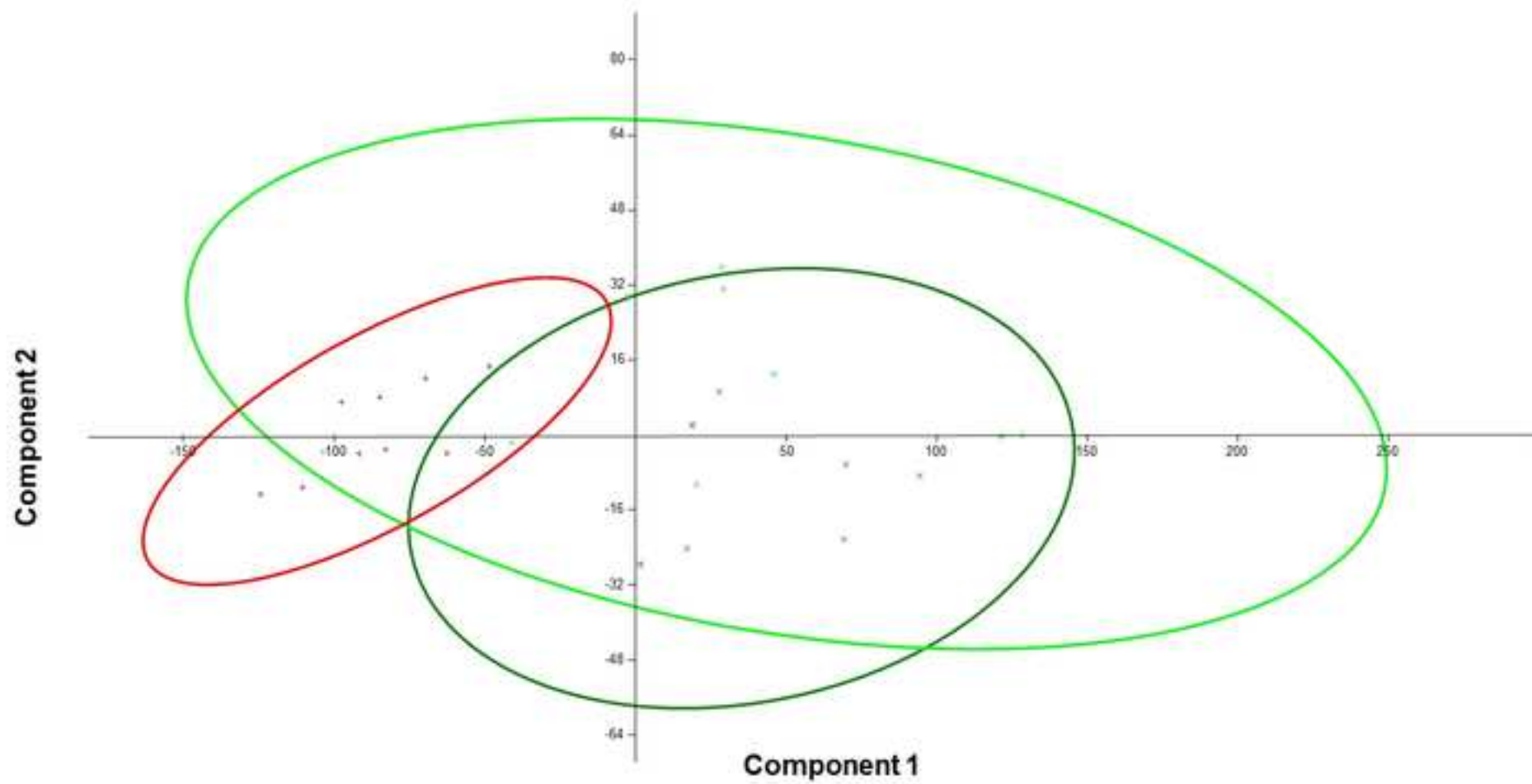
Figure 2: PCA analysis of the EMI-by-sites matrix, difference tested among soil disturbed, undisturbed and control (red ellipse: disturbed; dark green: control; light green: undisturbed).

Figure 3: Silvicultural and logging-induced average % impact. The data shown are statistically confirmed (Pr: soil penetration resistance; Sr: soil shear resistance; Density: microarthropods density; QBS-ar: Soil biological quality; saplings elimination; Db: soil bulk density; OM: organic matter content).

Figure_1
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Figure_3
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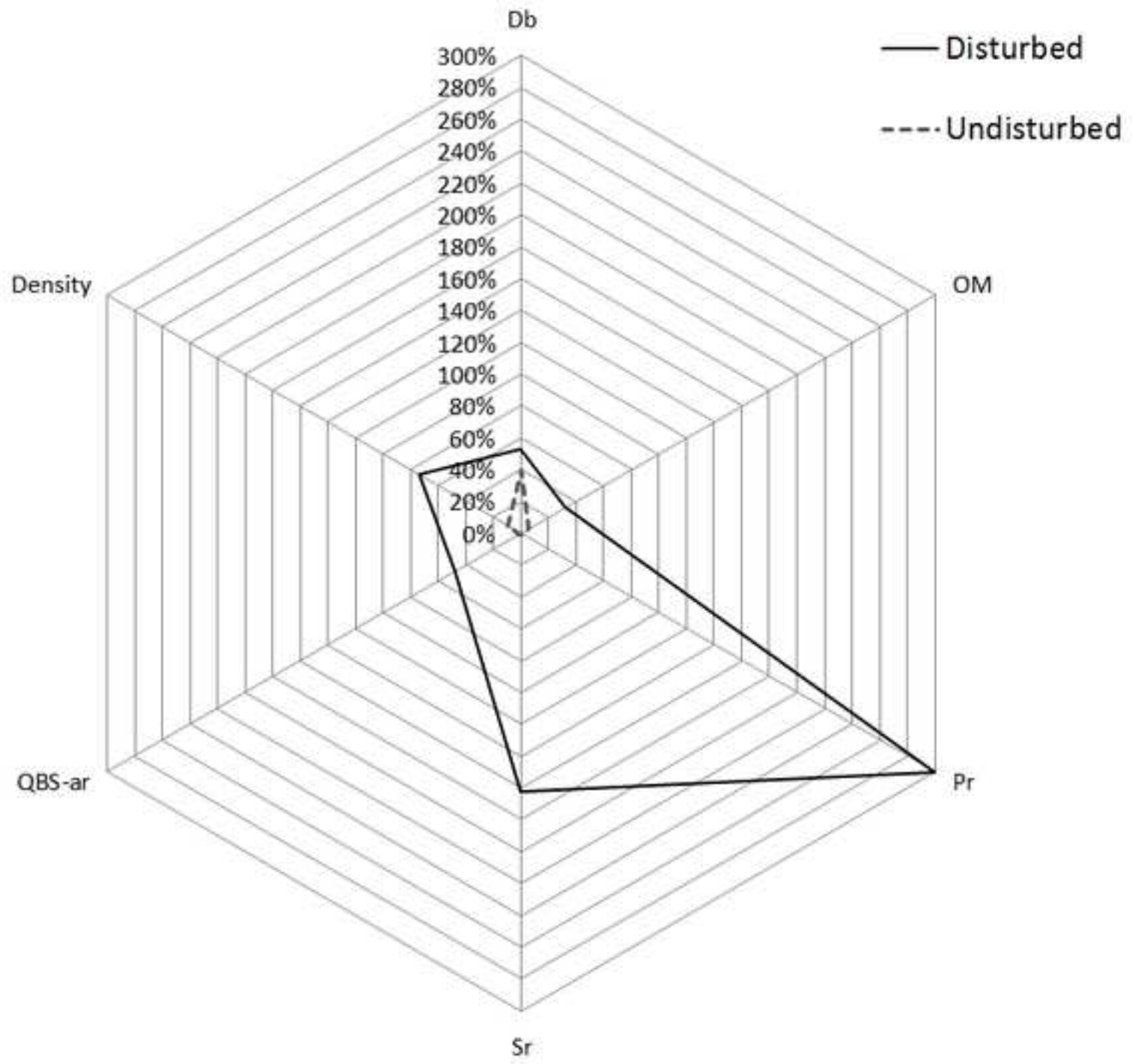


Table 1: main dendrometrical and technological characteristics of the coppice (average \pm SD).

DBH [m]	Height [m]	Density [trees/ ha]	Fresh wood density [kg/m ³]	Biomass stock		Biomass harvested	
				[m ³ /ha]	[t/ha]	[m ³ /ha]	[t/ha]
0.16 \pm 0.03	12.40 \pm 1.41	1250 \pm 57	921 \pm 10.5	187,3	172,5	175,3	161,5

Table 2: soil area impacted by bunching and extraction activities (t-test analysis).

Plot	P-value	Disturbed soil	Undisturbed soil
1	>0.05	27%	73%
2		25%	75%
3		29%	71%
4		24%	76%
5		30%	70%
6		27%	73%
7		26%	74%
8		27%	73%

Table 3: results of the ANOVA and Tukey test for the soil moisture and bulk density (average \pm SD), difference tested among soil disturbed, undisturbed and control.

Soil typology	Moisture %	p-value	Bulk density [g/cm ³]	p-value	Tukey test	n
Undisturbed	52.1 \pm 2.3	>0.05	0.747 \pm 0.15	<0.01	a	20
Disturbed	50.8 \pm 3.5		0.820 \pm 0.21		b	20
Control	58.9 \pm 1.1		0.537 \pm 0.11		c	20

Table 4: results of the MANOVA (Wilks Lambda 0.323; Rao R 28.963; p-level <0.01) and Tukey test for penetrometric and shear resistance data (average \pm SD), difference tested among soil disturbed, undisturbed and control.

Soil typology	Penetration resistance [MPa]	p-value	Tukey test	Shear resistance [t/m ²]	p-value	Tukey test	n
Undisturbed	0.066 \pm 0.01	<0.01	a	1.550 \pm 0.27	<0.01	a	60

Disturbed	0.276±0.09		b	4.113±0.59		b	60
Control	0.069±0.01		a	1.569±0.31		a	60

Table 5: results of the ANOVA and Tukey test for organic matter content and soil pH data (average ± SD), difference tested among soil disturbed, undisturbed and control.

Soil typology	Organic matter [%]	p-value	Tukey test	pH	p-value	n
Undisturbed	18.1±1.31	<0.01	a	5.3±0.97	>0.05	20
Disturbed	13.1±1.59		b	5.2±0.89		20
Control	19.2±1.27		a	5.2±0.95		20

Table 6: results of the Kruskal Wallis and Tukey test for QBS-ar index and soil microarthropods density data (median), difference tested among soil disturbed, undisturbed and control.

Soil typology	QBS-ar index	p-value	Tukey test	microarthropods density [ind/dm ²]	p-value	Tukey test	n
Undisturbed	213	<0.01	a	178	<0.05	a	9
Disturbed	102		b	50		b	9
Control	198		c	196		c	9