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**Soil quality and landscape metrics as driving factors in a multi-criteria GIS procedure for peri-urban land use planning**

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4 **Soil quality and landscape metrics as driving factors in a multi-criteria GIS procedure for**  
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6 **peri-urban land use planning**  
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1 **ABSTRACT**

2 Highly populated peri-urban areas are critical for urban sprawl, soil consumption and degradation,  
3 and, in general, loss of ecosystem services. In these areas, urban planning is usually based on a  
4 compromise among social, economic, political needs and geographic factors. Technicians cannot  
5 obviously intervene in political discussions, nor intercept social requirements; nevertheless, once a  
6 need has been recognized and a target identified, they can sustain politicians in their decisions  
7 concerning the way the new urban policy can be managed. Various territorial descriptors have been  
8 used to support planner's choices while programming urban expansion. In this context ecosystem  
9 services potentially affected by urbanization represent an important unsolved issue, most probably for  
10 the general lack of reliable datasets for urban and peri-urban areas and for the scarce integration of the  
11 involved disciplines. In this paper a GIS-MCDA (Multi Criteria Decision Analysis) approach is  
12 presented, aimed at generating synthetic maps useful for urban planners and authorities to make their  
13 decisions inclusive of territorial resources and environmental factors with special care about soil  
14 quality. The method was applied to a case study concerning the identification of the optimal location  
15 for a new leisure activity area in the peri-urban belt of the city of Torino (Italy). Landscape metrics,  
16 demographic data and soil chemical/physical properties - including contamination - obtained from  
17 extremely diverse sources, were jointly analysed. Some specific indices aggregating information were  
18 proposed and mapped using some advanced raster tools available in GIS.

19

## 20 Introduction

1  
2 21 Highly populated peri-urban areas are critical for different aspects such as urban sprawl, soil sealing  
3  
4 22 and degradation, and, in general, loss of ecosystem services (Antrop, 2004). In these areas, land  
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6 23 planning is usually based on a compromise among social, economic, political needs and geographic  
7  
8 24 factors. In general, urban planning heavily relies on choices resulting from interaction among a large  
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10 25 number of often-conflicting alternatives and criteria. Ordinarily, urban administrators intercept a social  
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12 26 need and plan a new intervention to satisfy it. Technicians cannot intervene in political discussions,  
13  
14 27 nor intercept social requirements; nevertheless, once a need has been recognized and a target identified  
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16 28 they can sustain politicians in their decisions about the way urban development policy can be  
17  
18 29 managed. In particular, GIS (Geographic Information System) and landscape experts can support the  
19  
20 30 decisional process by synthesizing and mapping all available information in order to drive new  
21  
22 31 interventions towards the most suitable locations. The meaning of *suitable* depends on the criteria  
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24 32 urban planners decide to adopt during the decisional process. Whatever the criteria, decisions can be  
25  
26 33 managed through a spatial based multi-criteria approach where economic, social, political and  
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28 34 environmental interests can interact each other playing their different, and sometimes opposite, role in  
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30 35 the whole process.

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36 36 In recent years, potentialities offered by the continuously expanding GIS technology and by the  
37  
38 37 increasing availability of digital georeferenced data have been greatly improved, encouraging the  
39  
40 38 adoption of multi-criteria spatial analysis to support land planning (Malczewski, 2006).

41  
42 39 Ordinarily, geographic/topologic properties of the area (size, location, proximity to services,  
43  
44 40 aesthetics...) are taken into consideration. For example, a GIS-Multi-criteria Decision Analysis  
45  
46 41 approach was adopted by Borgogno-Mondino et al. (2014a; 2014b) to map over Piemonte region  
47  
48 42 (Northwestern Italy) some *best* locations for large ground-mounted photovoltaic plants taking care of  
49  
50 43 multiple topographic and legislative factors. In addition, landscape metrics have been widely used to  
51  
52 44 define and interpret either planned (Weng, 2007; Aguilera et al., 2011; Frondoni et al., 2011) and  
53  
54 45 unplanned urban areas expansion (Kuffer and Barros, 2011). In general, metrics consist of geometrical  
55  
56 46 measurements (indices) useful for quantifying spatial patterning of land cover patches, land cover  
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58 47 classes, or entire landscape mosaics of an area (McGarigal et al., 2009). In some cases landscape  
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48 metrics were used jointly with remote sensing data (Herold et al., 2005) and with socio-economic  
49 indicators (Irwin and Geoghegan, 2001; Schwarz, 2010) in order to better interpret urban land use  
50 changes and, in particular, urban expansion. Kasanko et al. (2006) focused on the sprawl of 15  
51 European cities basing their study on five indicator sets: built-up areas, residential land use, land taken  
52 by urban expansion, population density and urban density. Hu and Lo (2007) modeled the growth of  
53 Atlanta (USA) describing the relationship between urban growth and social, econometric and  
54 biophysical factors (major highways, economic activity centers, land use, institutional factors) with  
55 contrasting results. In Copenhagen (Denmark) a decision support system was proposed for the  
56 planning of green spaces based on indicators such as wilderness, feeling of forest, panoramic views,  
57 water and scenery, biodiversity and landform, cultural history, activity and challenge, service and  
58 gathering (Caspersen and Olafsson, 2010). Zellner et al. (2008) described a planning framework  
59 including spatial, economic, political, energetic, and pollution data. More recently, a study on the  
60 urban sprawl in Europe (Arribas-Bel et al., 2011) used urban morphology (scattering, connectivity,  
61 and availability of open space) and internal composition (density, decentralization and land-use mix)  
62 as descriptors. Some alternative approaches finally introduced soil or terrain properties in urban  
63 planning, mainly referring to geological layers (the deepest ones) or to geomorphological features of  
64 the area. For example, Bathrellos et al. (2012; 2013) proposed a method for evaluating the suitability  
65 of areas to support urban growth and industry development that considered natural hazards and  
66 geological–geomorphological–geographical characteristics. A study by Papadopoulou-Vrynioti et al.  
67 (2013) mapped the karst collapses susceptibility in the northern suburbs of Athens (Greece) taking into  
68 account physical processes (slope angle and aspect, hydrographic network, springs, lithology, tectonic  
69 features) along with anthropogenic parameters (road network and land use), introducing a new tool for  
70 sustainable urban development management by planners and engineers. The same authors  
71 (Papadopoulou-Vrynioti et al., 2014) finally focused on physical and chemical soil properties as soil  
72 texture, water extractable ions, exchangeable ions, aqua-regia extractable elements, calcium carbonate,  
73 organic matter, cation exchange capacity, soil moisture, pH and electrical conductivity. Their multi  
74 criterial GIS based approach study showed that agricultural land use and productivity depends on soil  
75 properties; in particular, they mapped soils in the Arta plain (western Greece) finding that saline

76 alluvial ones, with elevated amounts of water-soluble salts, make agricultural exploitation not  
1  
2 77 valuable.

3  
4 78 In these works, ecological parameters or, more appropriately, ecosystem services potentially affected  
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6 79 by urbanization, are rarely taken into consideration. Nevertheless, chemical and physical properties of  
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8 80 soils are crucial to recognize if a specific site is suitable, or not, to supply a specific ecosystem service  
9  
10 81 to the community. Urban soils have different properties with respect to agricultural or natural soils.  
11  
12 82 Contamination, fragmentation, and mixing of extraneous materials are some of the issues typical of  
13  
14 83 urban soils resulting from the alteration of soil forming factors (Pickett and Cadenasso, 2009; Biasioli  
15  
16 84 et al., 2007; Vrščaj et al., 2008; Scalenghe and Ajmone-Marsan, 2009). However, urban soils can  
17  
18 85 support a wide range of ecosystem services that are highly valuable due to their proximity to human  
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20 86 population. This suggests that planning approaches operating in an urban context have necessarily to  
21  
22 87 consider soil features to better plan or improve ecosystem services.  
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26 88 This gap in studies is probably due to a general lack of reliable datasets for urban and peri-urban areas  
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28 89 and to a scarce integration of potentially involved scientific disciplines. From this point of view,  
29  
30 90 Botequilha-Leitão and Ahern (2002) offered a rather complete overview of the possibility, and  
31  
32 91 necessity, of introducing ecological considerations into land use planning. Verburg et al. (2009)  
33  
34 92 suggested “*land functions*” for characterizing land use change in agricultural areas, where “*land*  
35  
36 93 *functions*” are considered to be directly related to soil functions, included provision of goods and  
37  
38 94 services for each specific land use, aesthetic beauty, cultural heritage and preservation of biodiversity.  
39  
40 95 Uy and Nakagoshi (2008) used a landscape ecology approach. These authors appear to have  
41  
42 96 overlooked the crucial contribution of intrinsic soil properties and their attempt have posed new  
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44 97 challenges for a better interpretation of land use changes aimed at improving planning.  
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49 98 This work aims at filling the gap by explicitly introducing soil chemical and physical properties in the  
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51 99 decisional process that is managed by a GIS-MCDA (Multi Criteria Decision Analysis) approach. A  
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53 100 case study including a peri-urban area of Torino (Northwestern Italy) is presented to exemplify the  
54  
55 101 way the methodology can be applied to generate a “map of vocation” of the area to host a new leisure  
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57 102 facility, e.g. a green area, a garden or a park, etc. Landscape metrics, demographic data and soil  
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59 103 chemical/physical properties, including contamination, were jointly analyzed trying to optimize some  
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104 spatial dependent cost functions in which land use planning, ecosystem assessment, landscape  
105 analysis, and preservation criteria were considered. Starting from existing tabular data and digital  
106 geographical datasets, available mainly from regional institutions, some spatial indices were derived  
107 and mapped to represent the spatial distribution of some crucial features of the area respect to the  
108 leisure facility planning. Index maps were finally combined to synthesize the whole load of  
109 information and a final representation, mapping the degree of vocation of each point of the area to host  
110 the new leisure facility, was generated.

111

## 112 **Materials and methods**

113 The proposed methodology was tested over a pilot area of about 90 km<sup>2</sup>, located in the peri-urban belt  
114 of Torino, Piemonte region, North-western Italy (Fig. 1).

115

116 [figure 1]

117

118 This area is heavily populated, urbanized and industrialised; but it also includes vast agricultural land  
119 and can be assumed as representative of urban-to-rural transition: buildings and roads cover about  
120 42% of the area; population density is around 6700 inhabitants/km<sup>2</sup>, 15 times higher than surrounding  
121 not-urban areas (ISTAT, 2011). The territorial context is characterized by a great variety of land use  
122 classes and soils; moreover, a high degree of urban sprawl, and, consequently, soil consumption, that  
123 accelerated in recent years, is present.

124 Primary data for this study were obtained from freely available national and regional institutional  
125 databases. They include raster and vector digital maps and tabular data. Geographical data were  
126 supplied in the WGS-84 UTM 32N reference frame. Table 1 reports the list of primary datasets; ID  
127 column contains acronyms used in the paper for these different datasets.

128

129 [Table 1]

130

131 Data were managed and processed by ArcView 9.3 GIS software (ESRI Inc., USA). Operations  
132 concerning raster layers were performed by Spatial Analyst extension of ArcView while landscape  
133 metrics were calculated using FRAGSTATS 1.0 (McGarigal et al., 2002). FRAGSTATS is a free  
134 extension software tool specifically designed to calculate a wide variety of parameters describing  
135 categorical map patterns, useful for landscape analysis.

136 The proposed methodology is based on the following steps: a) data acquisition and pre-processing; b)  
137 design and implementation of spatial dependent cost functions considering environmental, landscape  
138 and social factors; c) cost function maps generation; d) results interpretation.

139 Pre-processing included selection and extraction of some landscape metrics from PLCM using  
140 FRAGSTATS 1.0. Landscape metrics can transform categorical predictors providing qualitative  
141 information (e.g. attributes of vector polygon maps) of spatial patterns into a numerical representation  
142 of spatial dependent indices. GIS tools can generate a huge variety of landscape metrics; therefore, a  
143 selection is required, depending on the purpose of the analysis . For this work a bi-variate correlation  
144 analysis was performed to explore relationships between metrics generated by FRAGSTATS on class  
145 basis: two reference land use classes were defined for the area: *urban* and *not-urban*. Correlation  
146 analysis performed by SPSS-Statistics 17.0 software, showed that two not-correlated landscape  
147 metrics were able to synthetize the most of the landscape features of the area : Class Area (CA) and  
148 Total Edge (TE), whose definitions are given in table 2.

[Table 2]

152 Raster/grid format was considered the most suitable for representing spatial indices. All tabular and  
153 vector datasets were therefore preventively rasterized (25 m cell size). Rasterized primary data and the  
154 raster maps of CA and TE were jointly considered and some space dependent indices were specifically  
155 designed and mapped to qualify the area.

157 *Soil Quality Index*

158 Chemical and physical characteristics of soils were considered with the aim of characterizing  
 159 ecosystem services that the area can provide. Soil is usually described by a large variety of physical,  
 160 chemical, biological and morphological features; for this work, authors decided to focus on a limited  
 161 number of soil features, in favour of a straightforward methodological approach. The following  
 162 features were considered: a) soil *pH* and organic carbon content ( $C_{perc}$ ): they are strictly related to soil  
 163 capacity of sustaining vegetation and consequently biomass production; b) soil particle-size  
 164 distribution (PSD) that indirectly describes porosity, density and, consequently, capability of soil of  
 165 filtering water and buffering air temperature. Even if PSD is generally described by three size classes -  
 166 clay, silt and sand - for this work, only sand content was taken into account: in fact clay is almost  
 167 absent in the soils of the area.  $C_{perc}$  and *pH* maps were obtained from PTCOM while the map of sand  
 168 content from PSM.

169 It is becoming more and more evident that influence of a city onto its surroundings is reflected in the  
 170 contamination of soils at the rural-urban interface (Biasioli et al., 2006). This is the reason why Pb, Zn  
 171 and Cu concentrations were selected to measure degradation of environmental quality of soil  
 172 determined by contamination. These metals are in fact considered typical contaminants of urban  
 173 environment (Ajmone-Marsan and Biasioli, 2010). Soil diffuse contamination can be synthetized by  
 174 the enrichment factor (*fC*). The *fC* is defined as an a-dimensional index that integrates information  
 175 about soils pollutants. According to Hakanson (1980) and Sutherland (2000) contamination categories  
 176 can be recognized based on *fC* values:  $fC < 8$  (low degree of contamination),  $8 < fC < 16$  (moderate  
 177 degree of contamination),  $16 < fC < 32$  (considerable degree of contamination),  $fC > 32$  (very high  
 178 degree of contamination). The value of *fC* was calculated, for each contaminant, by the following  
 179 formula (Biasioli et al., 2012):

$$fC_i = X_{\text{sample}}^i / X_{\text{bck}}^i \quad (1)$$

181 where  $X_{\text{sample}}^i$  is the mean concentration and  $X_{\text{bck}}^i$  is the background level of the considered  
 182 contaminant (*i*) referred to the whole area. The overall sample factor ( $fC_{tot}$ ) is obtained according to  
 183 (2).

$$fC_{tot} = \sum_{i=1}^n fC_i \quad (2)$$

185 For this study  $n$  was assumed equal to 3 as the three contaminants Pb, Zn, and Cu were taken into  
 186 account.

187 Once calculated, all variables ( $C_{perc}$ ,  $pH$ ,  $Sc$ ,  $fC_{tot}$ ,  $CA$ ,  $TE$ ) were normalized to a common scale [1-10].

188 Raster maps of soil properties ( $C_{perc}$ ,  $pH$ ,  $Sc$ ,  $fC_{tot}$ ) were then combined through eq. 3 to obtain an  
 189 *Intrinsic Soil Quality Index* ( $Q_s$ ).

$$190 \quad Q_s(x, y) = \frac{C_{perc} \cdot (pH_f + S_f)}{fC_{tot}} \quad (3)$$

$$191 \quad \text{where } pH_f = 5^2 - (pH - 5)^2 ; \quad S_f = 5^2 - (Sc - 5)^2 \quad (4)$$

192 This formula assumes that  $C_{perc}$ ,  $pH$  and  $S_f$  improve local intrinsic soil quality (from an  
 193 ecological/agricultural point of view) while  $fC_{tot}$  limits it. In particular, intermediate values of  $pH$  and  
 194  $Sc$  (around 5 in the normalized scale) were considered optimal; a parabolic model (eq. 4) was adopted  
 195 to describe their contribution.  $C_{perc}$  participates as gain to the function. The range of variation of  $Q_s$  is  
 196 consequently between 0.2 ( $C_{perc}$ ,  $pH$  and  $Sc = 1$ ;  $fC_{tot} = 10$ ) and 100 ( $C_{perc}$ ,  $pH$  and  $Sc = 10$ ;  $fC_{tot} = 1$ ).

#### 198 *Land take/Fragmentation Index*

199 To take into account landscape features,  $CA$  and  $TE$  metrics were considered as indicators of soil use  
 200 and landscape fragmentation, respectively. They were combined mathematically in a new index,  
 201 hereafter called *Land take/Fragmentation Index* ( $Q_m$ ). The index (eq. 5) is designed to increase with  
 202  $CA_{du}$  and  $TE_{du}$  (class *urban*) and to decrease according to  $CA_{nu}$ ,  $TE_{nu}$  (class *not-urban*).

$$203 \quad Q_m(x, y) = \frac{(CA_{du} + TE_{du})}{(CA_{nu} + TE_{nu})} \quad (5)$$

204 The index represents the vocation of the area to be re-qualified by human interventions and planning  
 205 policies according to its ecological value (expressed by  $CA$ ) and potential resilience (expressed by  
 206  $TE$ ). High values of  $CA_{nu}$  and  $TE_{nu}$  mean “valuable ecological condition” where large valuable areas  
 207 are highly exposed to external threats potentially coming from an extended perimeter; in this case the  
 208 situation is critical and, therefore, protection is needed: urban expansion has therefore to be limited or  
 209 completely avoided. On the contrary, high values of  $CA_{du}$  and  $TE_{du}$  suggest a highly diffused

210 urbanization with a high level of sprawl. In these areas, ecological value is already compromised and  
 1  
 2 211 the possibility of filling spatial gaps by means of interventions serving urban context can be  
 3  
 4 212 convenient.

5  
 6 213 Computation of CA and TE for *urban* (du) and *not-urban* (nu) classes was performed using a regular  
 7  
 8 214 sample grid having a cell size of 250 m (i.e. including 10×10 original 25 m pixels). The window size  
 9  
 10 215 depends on the distance human eye can explore reasonably in a city, receiving emotions from the  
 11  
 12 216 surrounding landscape. Four raster maps ( $CA_{nu}$ ,  $TE_{nu}$ ,  $CA_{du}$ ,  $TE_{du}$ ) were generated by FRAGSTATS.  
 13  
 14 217 Original maps having a pixel size of 250 m were finally oversampled (nearest neighbour resampling  
 15  
 16 218 method) to 25 m in order to be spatially coherent with other raster maps.  
 17  
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 20 219

#### 22 220 *Suitability Index*

23  
 24 221  $Q_s(x,y)$  and  $Q_m(x,y)$  were further combined in order to give a simple representation of the *suitability* of  
 25  
 26 222 the site to host leisure facilities (e.g. a green area, a garden or a park, etc.). Intrinsic properties of  
 27  
 28 223 potentially involved soils were related with landscape features in the following way:

$$31 \quad I_s(x,y) = \frac{Q'_m(x,y)}{Q'_s(x,y)} \quad (6)$$

32  
 33  
 34  
 35 225 where  $Q'_s(x,y)$  and  $Q'_m(x,y)$  are the normalized values of  $Q_s(x,y)$  and  $Q_m(x,y)$  and  $I_s(x,y)$  is the  
 36  
 37 226 *suitability index map* representing the degree of vocation of each point to host leisure facilities. In this  
 38  
 39 227 sense the areas where landscape fragmentation is higher, i.e. small patches of not-agricultural and not-  
 40  
 41 228 urban soils are mixed, and soil quality is lower appear to be the most suitable to be considered.  
 42  
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 44 229

#### 46 230 *Usability Index*

47  
 48 231 While looking for the *best* location of a leisure facility it cannot be forgotten that the right choice  
 49  
 50 232 depends not only on the inner peculiarities of the site, but also on the possibility that people have to  
 51  
 52 233 reach it and to benefit of its services. Therefore, once local suitability is mapped, local accessibility  
 53  
 54 234 has to be evaluated, in order to verify if the ones that appear to be the most suitable areas are also  
 55  
 56 235 appealing and comfortable for use. For this purpose, using Spatial Analyst tools, distance-from-urban  
 57  
 58 236 settlements map,  $D_{ur}(x,y)$ , and population density map,  $D_{pop}(x,y)$  were generated (Fig. 4). The former  
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237 reports the horizontal distance that separates each pixel from the nearest urban border, the latter the  
 238 number of resident people per km<sup>2</sup> as stated by the available Census data. A *Usability Index* ( $I_u$ ) was  
 239 then introduced, integrating these information (eq. 7).

$$240 \quad I_u(x, y) = \frac{I_s(x, y) + D_{pop}(x, y)}{D_{ur}(x, y)} \quad (7)$$

241  $I_u(x, y)$  takes into account: a) the distance from the nearest urban area,  $D_{ur}(x, y)$ ; b) the surrounding  
 242 population density,  $D_{pop}(x, y)$ ; c) the suitability Index,  $I_s(x, y)$ . All factors of eq. 6 were normalized to  
 243 the common scale [1-10].  $I_u(x, y)$  is assumed to be directly proportional to both  $I_s(x, y)$  and  $D_{pop}(x, y)$ ,  
 244 considering that, for the same  $I_s$  value, the higher is the number of resident people close to the area, the  
 245 higher is the probability the area is visited and used. Congruently, it is assumed that the longer is the  
 246 distance from residential areas the less is usable the area. The combination of the  $I_s$  with  $D_{pop}$  and  $D_{ur}$   
 247 generates an a-dimensional value that can be interpreted as high-moderate-low usability of an area in  
 248 terms of leisure/recreation.

249

## 250 **Results and discussion**

251 The proposed methodology was tested in the study area to generate a map useful to locate a new  
 252 forecasted leisure area. Statistics concerning soil properties and landscape metrics of the area are  
 253 shown in Table 3. Diffuse Contamination Index Map,  $fC_{tot}(x, y)$ , was directly obtained by ARPA  
 254 Piemonte (Regional Environmental Protection Agency of Piemonte) with a cell size of 25 m; both  
 255  $pH(x, y)$  and  $Sc(x, y)$  raster maps (25 m cell size) were obtained from PSM, supplied in vector format,  
 256 by rasterizing it respect to the proper attribute of its associated table. Finally Topsoil Organic Carbon  
 257 Map,  $C(x, y)$ , was obtained by rasterization (25 m cell size) of the available PTOCM vector map.

258

259 [Table 3]

260

261 Raster map of  $Q_s(x, y)$  index was generated according to eq. 3 and 4 (Fig. 2, left). A positive gradient  
 262 of soil quality can be observed from urbanized areas (lowest values), where contamination is higher,

263 towards agricultural/natural areas (index highest values).  $Q_s(x,y)$  peaks are sited in the northwestern  
 1  
 2 264 sector where natural systems prevail.

3  
 4 265 [Figure 2]

5  
 6 266  
 7  
 8 267 Quite surprisingly, a low value of  $Q_s(x,y)$  is observed along the Dora Riparia River; this is probably

9  
 10 268 due to the low content of organic carbon and high  $pH$  value of these soils, which are in general not

11  
 12 269 favorable to plant growth. Successively, according to eq. 5,  $Q_m(x,y)$  was obtained (Fig. 2, right). It can

13  
 14 270 be noticed that high values of the index are sited in the inner urban part where fragmentation and soil

15  
 16 271 consumption are higher, while it decreases in the outskirts. Fig. 3 shows, in the upper part, the maps of

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 18 272  $I_s(x,y)$  and  $I_u(x,y)$ . Looking at  $I_s(x,y)$  it can be noticed that sites of high and moderate suitability

19  
 20 273 concentrate within the urban areas or at the interface with the rural zone; the resolution of this

21  
 22 274 indicator was anyway not sufficient to effectively drive urban policies. In fact, favorable areas (green

23  
 24 275 and pale green) are still too wide. To better focus selection “usability” of the area was evaluated. This

25  
 26 276 was obtained by introducing social and spatial discriminants: population density ( $D_{pop}$ ) and distance-

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 28 277 from-urban ( $D_{ur}$ ). Raster maps of these factors were obtained by using the GIS Proximity grid tools.

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 30 278 Their representation is given in the lower part of Fig. 3. By eq. 7 a map of area usability for leisure

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 32 279 purposes,  $I_u(x,y)$ , was obtained.  $I_u(x,y)$  finally shows well delimited sites presenting features that can

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 34 280 be retained the most favorable for location of a new leisure activity area. In general zones with low

35  
 36 281 usability are external to urban areas. The reason is that in those conditions distance from residential

37  
 38 282 buildings is too long, therefore surrounding population density is too low. Moreover soil properties are

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 40 283 not so compromised and their ecosystem role still valuable.

41  
 42 284 In order to better interpret results, urban and not-urban classes were considered separately.  $I_u$  mean

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 44 285 value was calculated for each class and an “anomaly” map ( $I_u/\text{mean}[I_u]$ ) was generated for both urban

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 46 286 and not-urban classes. Areas where anomaly value was higher than 1 were mapped against those

47  
 48 287 having an anomaly value lower than 1 generating two clusters for each investigated class. These were

49  
 50 288 finally vectorized and superimposed over a 1:10,000 scale aerial ortho-image of the area to favor

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 52 289 interpretation (Fig. 4). In this way areas favorable for hosting a new leisure site are made evident and

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 54 290 the surrounding context, potentially including it, explicit to the planner.

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2 292 [Figure 3]

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6 294 [Figure 4]

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11 296 **Conclusions**

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13 297 A methodology based on a GIS multi-criterial approach was devised and tested with the aim of  
14  
15 298 supporting/improving traditional land use planning workflow. GIS can support the decisional process  
16  
17 299 by synthesizing, weighting and mapping all available information in order to drive new interventions  
18  
19 300 towards the most suitable locations. The meaning of “*suitable*” depends on criteria urban planners  
20  
21 301 decide to adopt during the decisional process. Whatever criteria are, decisions can be managed through  
22  
23 302 a spatial based multi-criteria approach where economic, social, political and environmental interests  
24  
25 303 can interact each other playing their different, and sometimes contrasting, role in the whole process.  
26  
27 304 Scientific works dealing with this topic often neglect to include soil physical and chemical properties  
28  
29 305 as crucial factors in the decision process, where preservation of ecosystem services is basic. A  
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31 306 methodology was presented and tested based on a GIS-MCDA approach where more traditional  
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33 307 landscape metrics are integrated with soil chemical and physical features. Some new space dependent  
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35 308 indices were proposed to evaluate and map *suitability* and *usability* of the area with respect to the new  
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37 309 facility - a leisure site, in the case study - that is expected to be located in the urban/peri-urban zone.  
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39 310 These maps represent an effective tool to drive new planning policies, where soil properties play a  
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41 311 basic role. Chemical and physical features of soils were mapped and used to calibrate space  
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43 312 dependent cost functions and indices useful in the decisional process. The proposed methodology, in  
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45 313 fact, generates an easy accessible operational map useful for identifying those landscape patches,  
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47 314 within a study area, that can be considered as the best candidates to host new leisure facilities. In it is  
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49 315 worth to remind that soil properties are used in addition with more traditional features that other  
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51 316 studies already used (landscape metrics, demographic data, road network, etc.). Implicitly, in this  
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53 317 work, a *direct* and *indirect* economical value is recognized to soil properties: *direct* is the one  
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55 318 straightly related to terrain commercial dynamics; *indirect* is the one related to the environmental  
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319 potential the soils offer to community. The dataset employed in the presented case study showed to be  
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2 320 effective in the selection of an area. However, refinements and specific calibration are required for  
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4 321 each different situation. The model in fact can be easily customized by introducing further or different  
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6 322 parameters that, according to local planning realities, are considered more appropriate.

8  
9 323 The methodology presented here is an attempt to encourage the community of planners to closely  
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11 324 interact during their decisional process with local environmental protection agencies, that, usually, are  
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13 325 the ones in charge of monitoring and mapping soil properties (with particular regard to pollutants and  
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15 326 agricultural productivity).

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414 **Table 1**

1  
2 415 Primary datasets. ID column contains acronyms used in the paper for these different datasets. \*IPLA: Istituto per  
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4 416 le Piante da Legno e l'Ambiente – Regione Piemonte, Italy; CSI Piemonte: Consorzio per il Sistema  
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6 417 Informativo, Torino, Italy; ISTAT Italian National Institute of Statistics, Roma, Italy; ARPA: Agenzia Regionale  
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8 418 per la Protezione dell'Ambiente, Torino, Italy.

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<b>ID</b>	<b>Data type</b>	<b>Reference scale</b>	<b>Digital format</b>	<b>Reference Date</b>	<b>Producer*</b>
PSM	Regional Soil Map	1:50,000	Vector	2010	IPLA
PLCM	Regional Land Cover/Use Map	1:10,000	Vector	2008	CSI Piemonte
PTOCM	Topsoil Organic Carbon Map	1:250,000	Vector	2008	IPLA
PCSM	Census Data Map	1:25,000	Vector	2001	ISTAT
$fC_{tot}$	Diffuse Contamination Index Map	1:100,000	Raster	2012	ARPA

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422 **Table 2**

1  
2 423 Landscape metrics computed by FRAGSTATS tool and used for this study.  
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Metric	Description	Formula	Unit
Class Area (CA)	Area (ha) of each patch type (class) or the percentage of the landscape comprised of a particular patch type	$CA = \sum_{i=1}^N A_i$	ha or %
Total Edge (TE)	Sum of perimeters of the patches belonging to the same class	$TE = \sum_{i=1}^N P_i$	m

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426 **Table 3**

427 Main statistics of soil properties and landscape metrics for the study area.

	Mean	St. Dev.	Max	Min
<b>Soil chemical/physical properties</b>				
<i>fC<sub>tot</sub></i> [%]	11.90	2.40	17.50	7.60
<b>C</b> [%]	2.37	0.99	4.00	1.00
<b>s</b> [%]	8.00	12.00	35.00	0.00
<i>pH</i>	7.80	2.40	9.00	5.00
<b>Landscape metrics</b>				
<b>TE<sub>nu</sub></b> [m]	1778	766	4377	5
<b>CA<sub>nu</sub></b> [%]	60.90	35.00	100.00	0.00
<b>TE<sub>du</sub></b> [m]	1512	1106	4727	4
<b>CA<sub>du</sub></b> [%]	28.30	26.70	100.00	0.00

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430 **Fig. 1.** Location of the study area: peri-urban context of Torino (NW Italy).

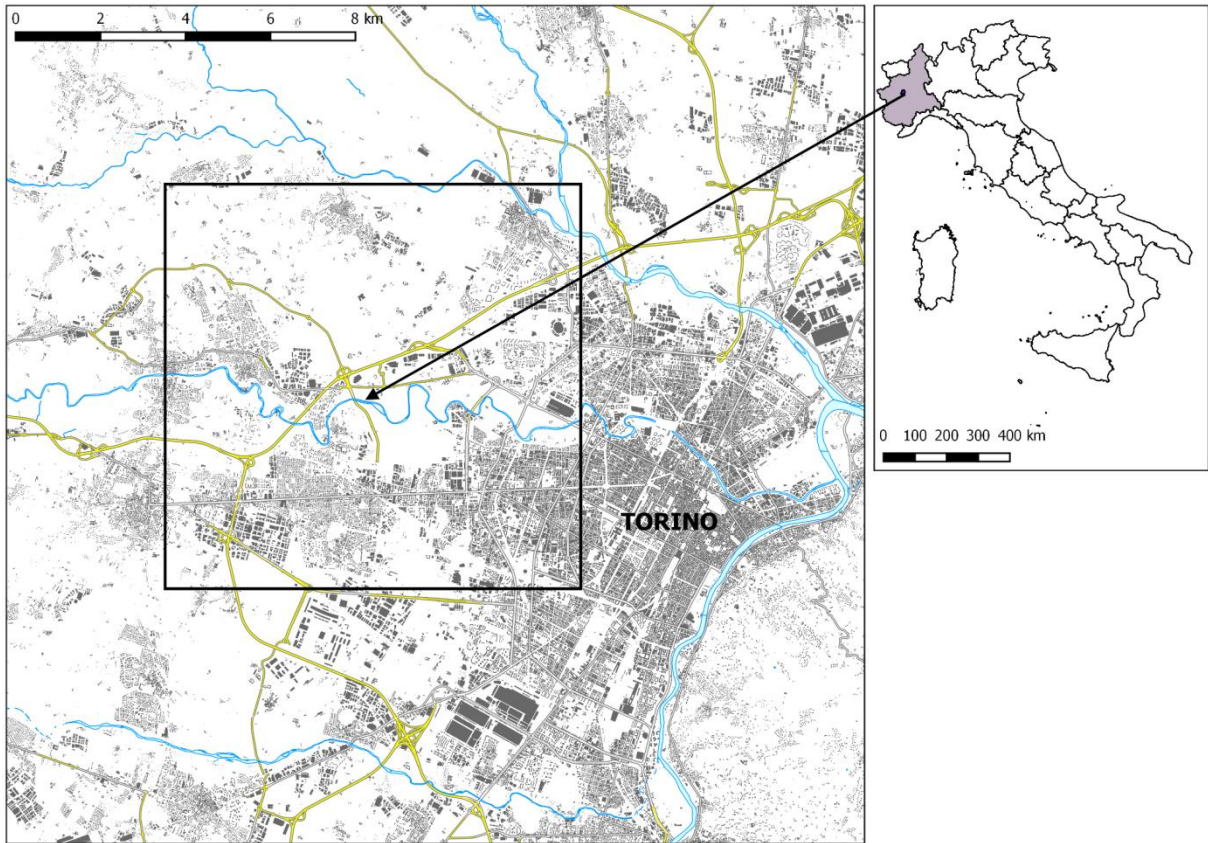
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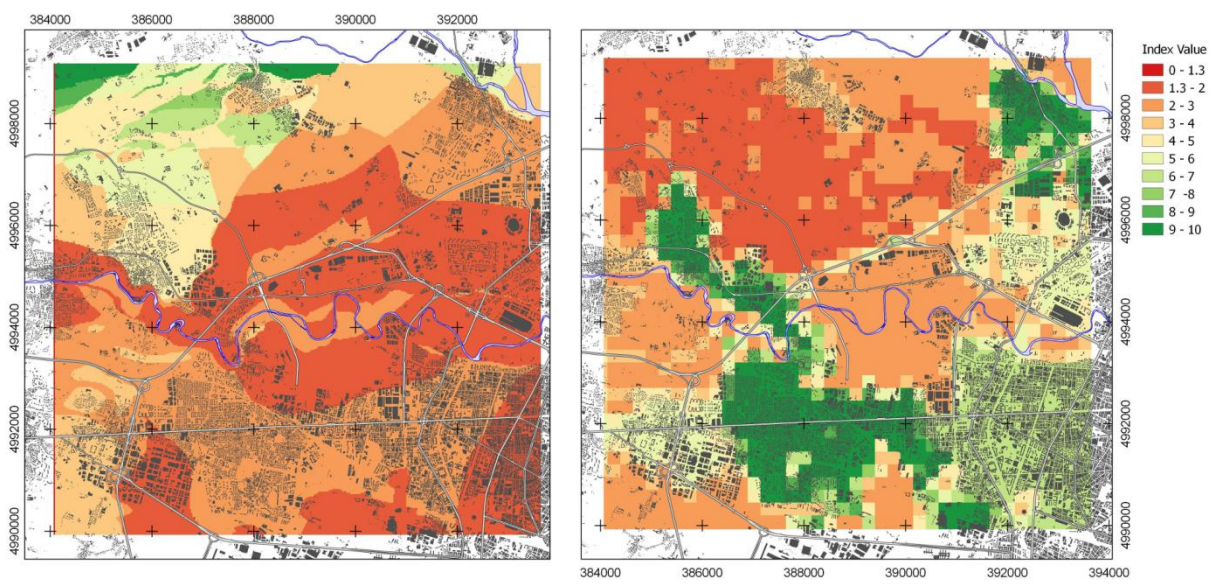
435 **Fig. 2.** Left: *Intrinsic Soil Quality Index* ( $Q_s$ ). Right: *Landscape Consumption/Fragmentation Index* ( $Q_m$ ). Both  
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2 436 indices were normalized in the range [0-1]. Map scale can be deduced by the associated coordinate system.

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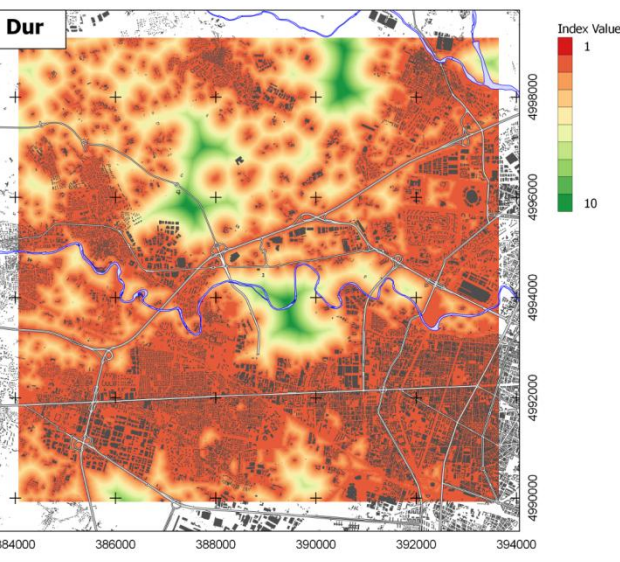
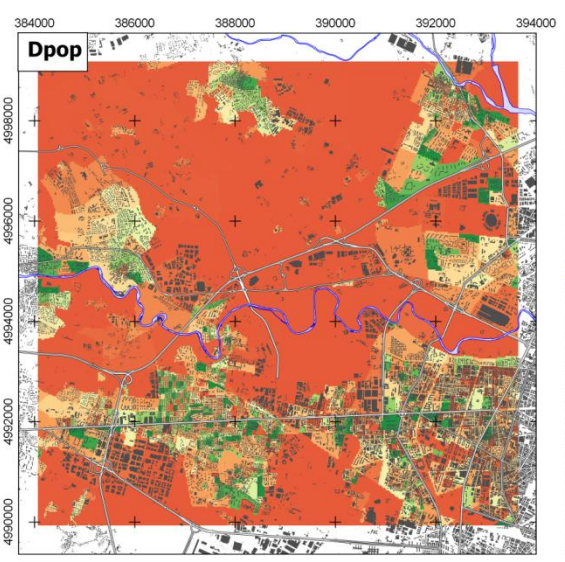
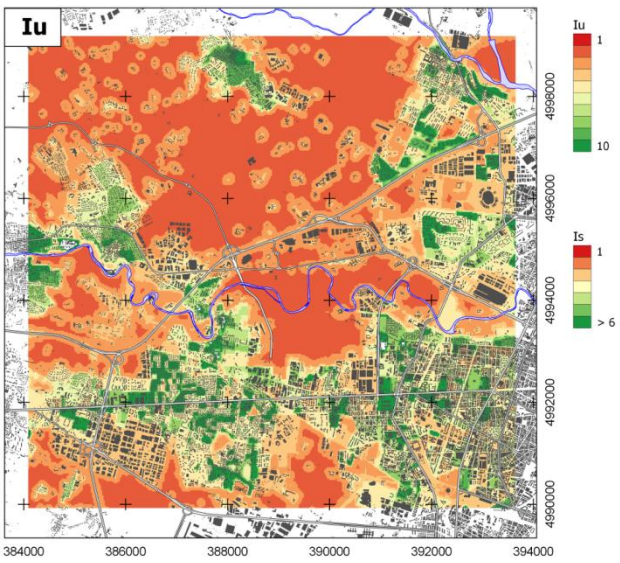
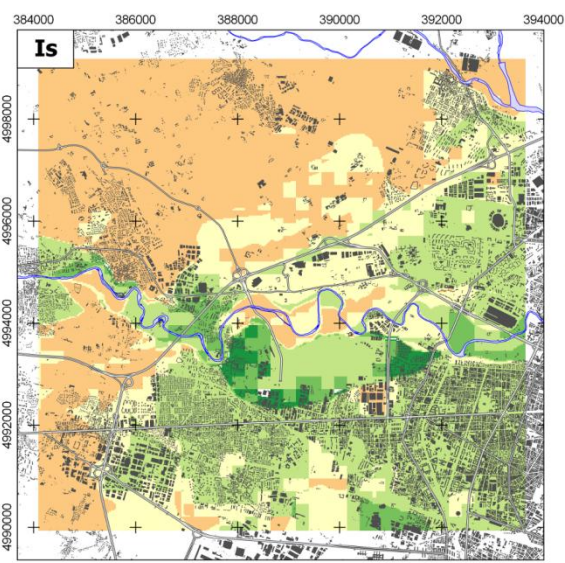
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440 **Fig.3.** Upper left: *Suitability Index* map ( $I_s$ ). Upper right: *Usability Index* map ( $I_u$ ). Lower left: *Surrounding*  
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2 441 *Population Density* map ( $D_{pop}$ ). Lower right: *To-urban Distance* map ( $D_{ur}$ ). All indices were normalized in the  
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4 442 range [0-10].Map scale can be deduced by the associated coordinate system.

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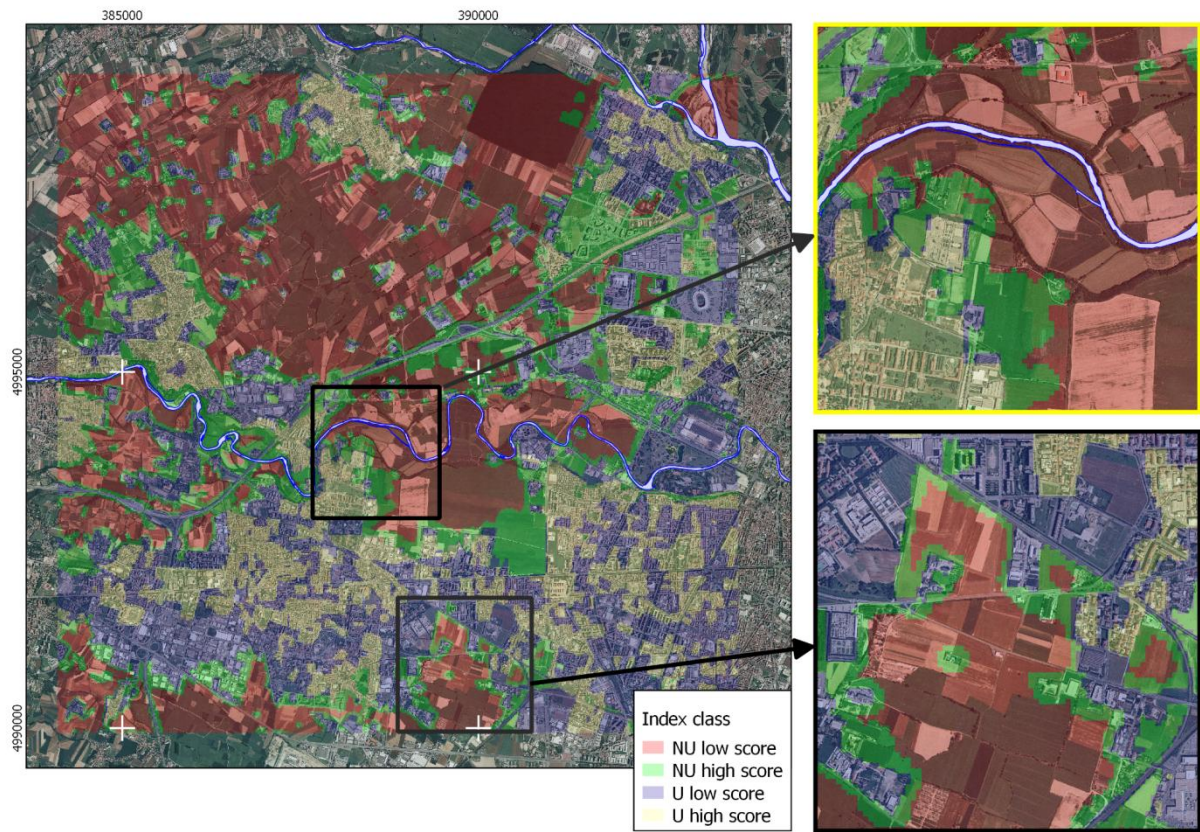
446 **Fig.4.** Map showing favourable (high score) and inappropriate (low score) areas for leisure activity site location.  
1  
2 447 Urban and not-urban classes are considered separately. Favourable areas are the ones showing a  $I_u/\text{mean}[I_u]$  ratio  
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4 448 fairly higher than 1; inappropriate areas are the ones showing a  $I_u/\text{mean}[I_u]$  ratio fairly lower than 1. Zones were  
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6 449 superimposed over a 1:10,000 nominal scale aerial orthoimage. In the main image scale factor can be deduced by  
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8 450 the associated coordinate system.

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Figure 1

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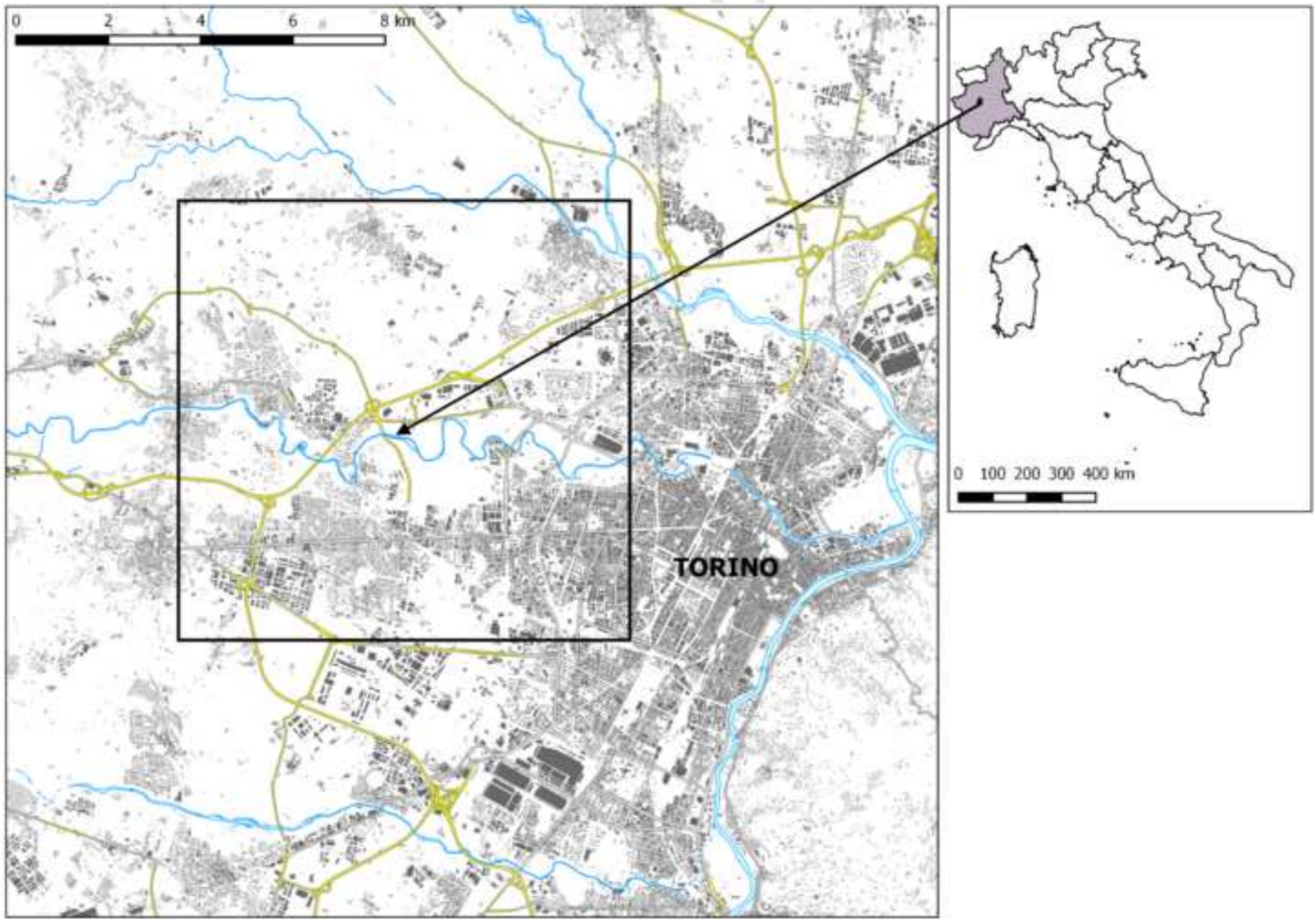


Figure 2

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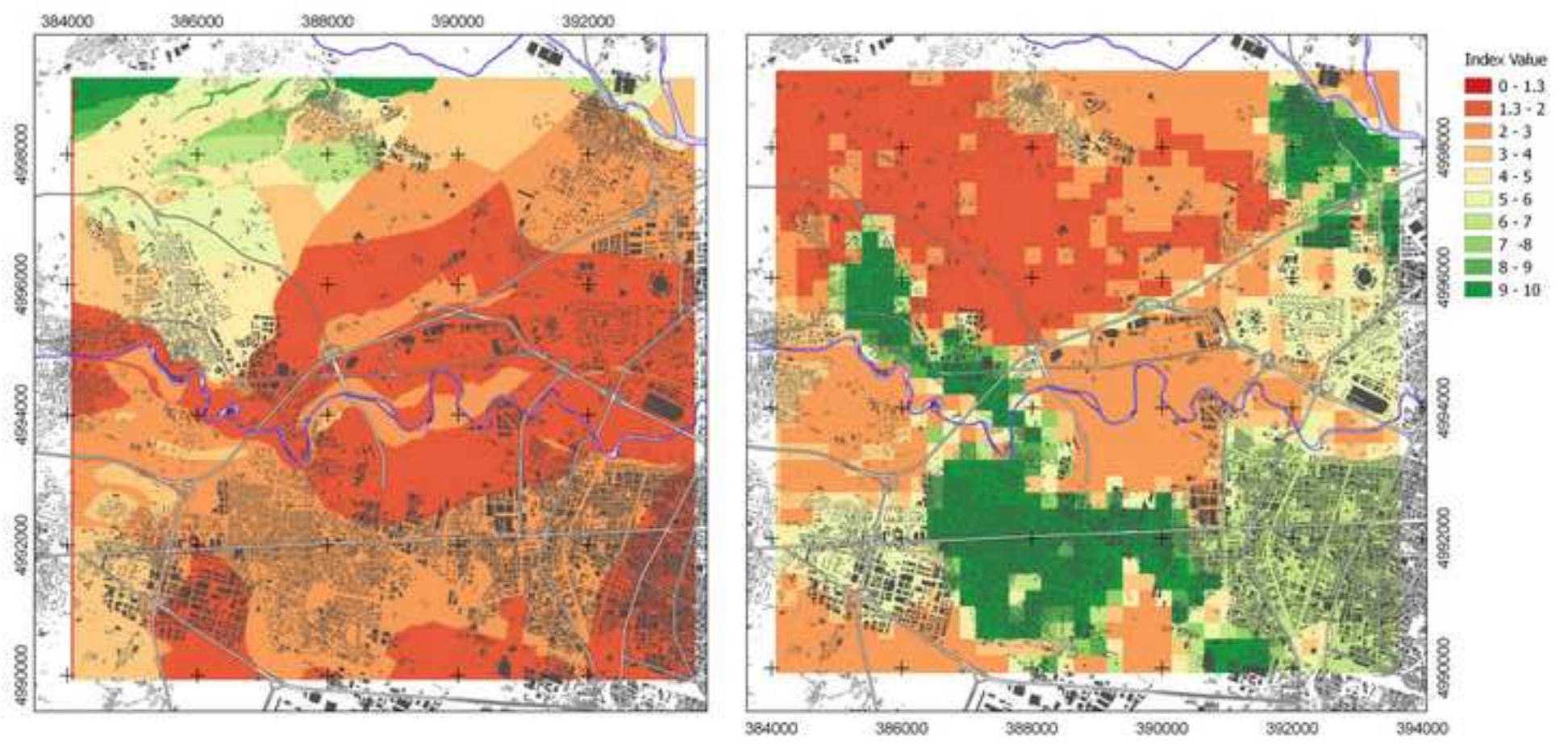


Figure 3

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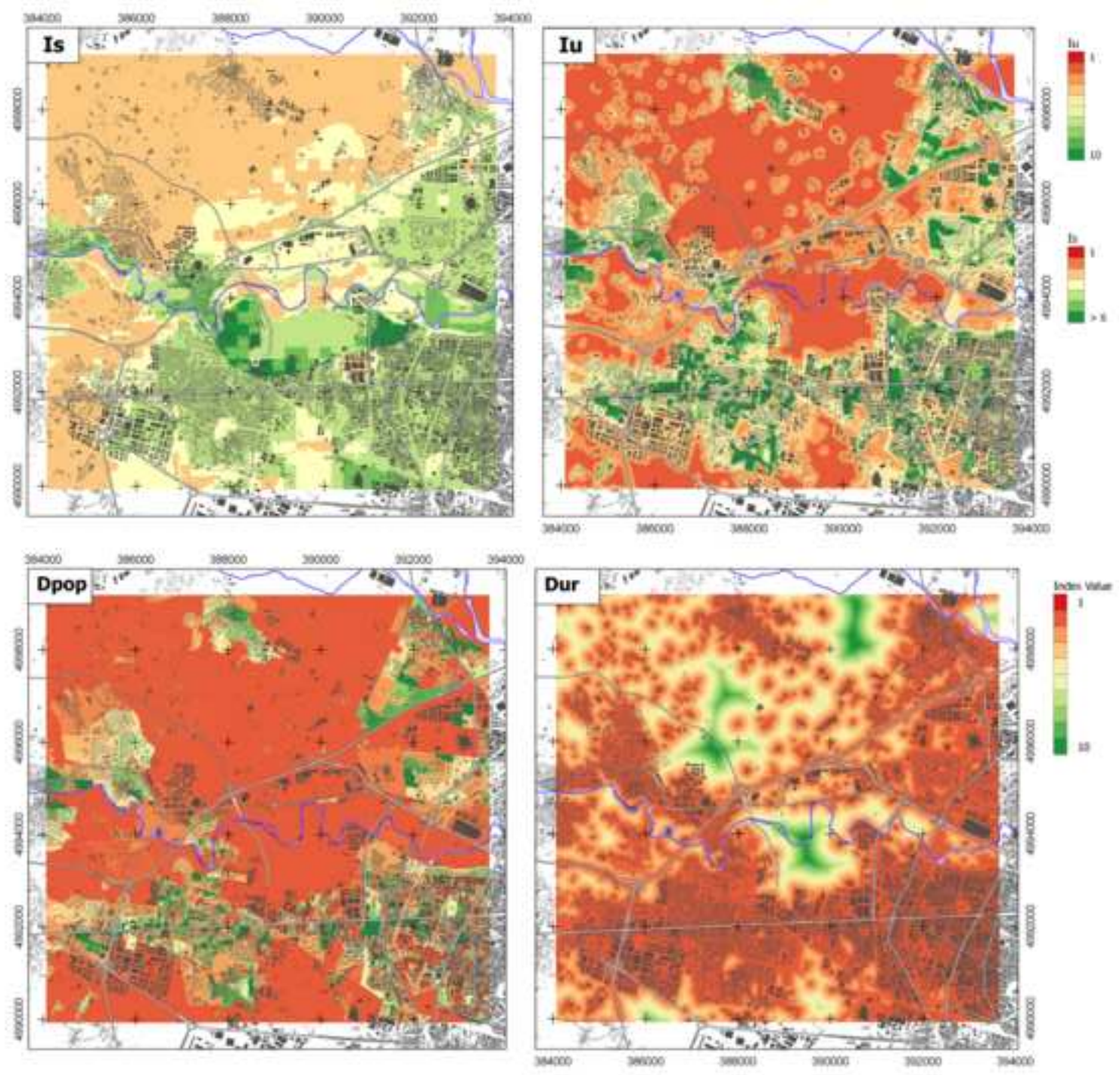
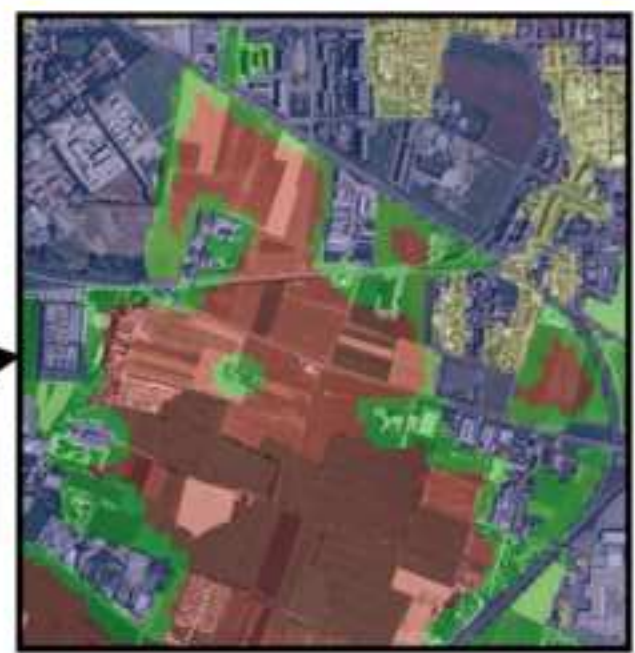
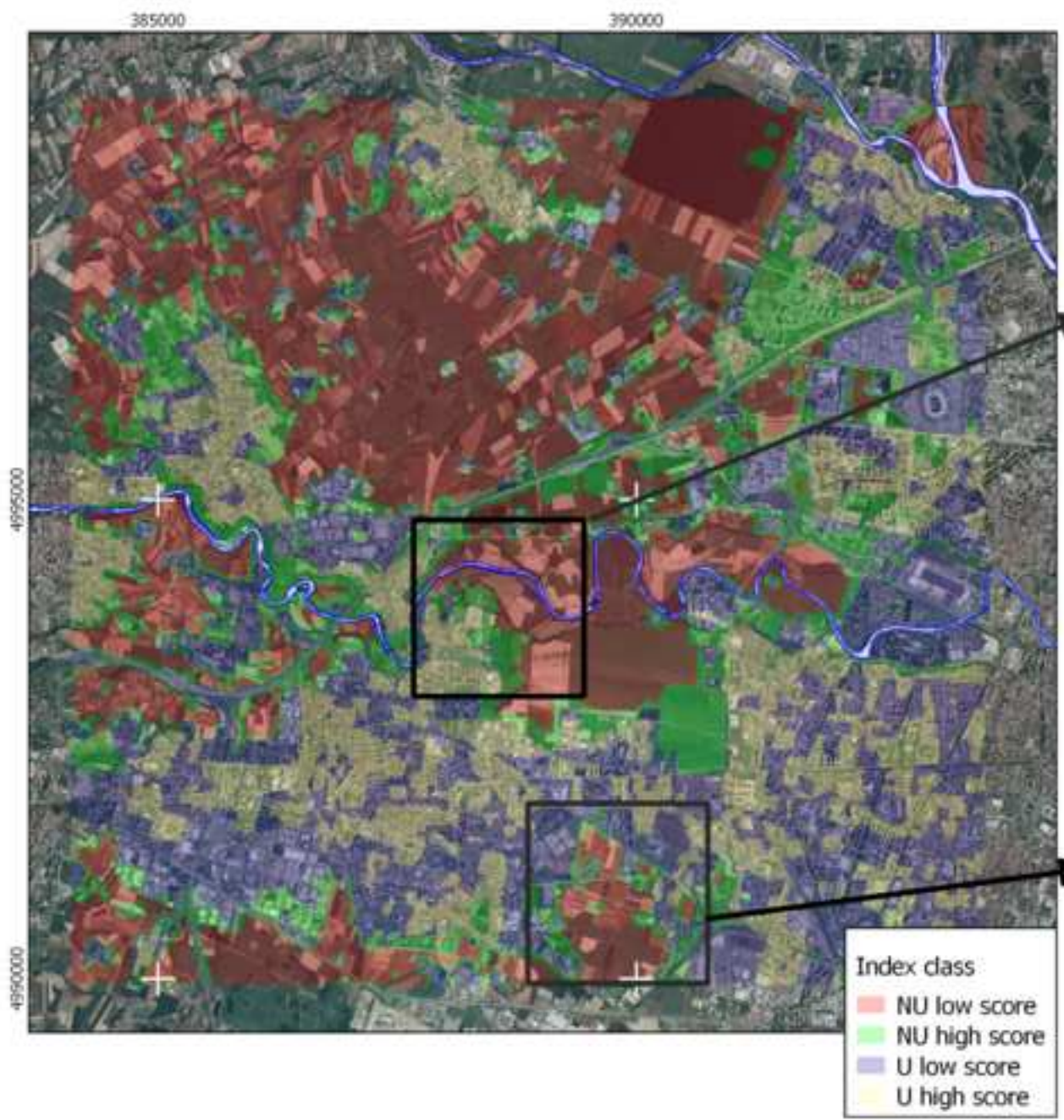


Figure 4

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1 **NOTE:**

2 **Table captions are BEFORE Tables.**

3

4 **Table 1.** Primary datasets. ID column contains acronyms used in the paper for these different datasets. \*IPLA:

5 Istituto per le Piante da Legno e l'Ambiente – Regione Piemonte, Italy; CSI Piemonte: Consorzio per il Sistema

6 Informativo, Torino, Italy; ISTAT Italian National Institute of Statistics, Roma, Italy; ARPA: Agenzia Regionale

7 per la Protezione dell'Ambiente, Torino, Italy.

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<b>ID</b>	<b>Data type</b>	<b>Reference scale</b>	<b>Digital format</b>	<b>Reference Date</b>	<b>Producer*</b>
PSM	Regional Soil Map	1:50,000	Vector	2010	IPLA
PLCM	Regional Land Cover/Use Map	1:10,000	Vector	2008	CSI Piemonte
PTOCM	Topsoil Organic Carbon Map	1:250,000	Vector	2008	IPLA
PCSM	Census Data Map	1:25,000	Vector	2001	ISTAT
$fC_{tot}$	Diffuse Contamination Index Map	1:100,000	Raster	2012	ARPA

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11 **Table 2.** Landscape metrics computed by FRAGSTATS tool and used for this study.

Metric	Description	Formula	Unit
Class Area (CA)	Area (ha) of each patch type (class)	$CA = \sum_{i=1}^N A_i$	ha or %
	or the percentage of the landscape comprised of a particular patch type		
Total Edge (TE)	Sum of perimeters of the patches belonging to the same class	$TE = \sum_{i=1}^N P_i$	m

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14 **Table 3.** Main statistics of soil properties and landscape metrics for the study area.

	Mean	St. Dev.	Max	Min
<b>Soil chemical/physical properties</b>				
$fC_{tot}$ [%]	11.90	2.40	17.50	7.60
<b>C</b> [%]	2.37	0.99	4.00	1.00
<b>s</b> [%]	8.00	12.00	35.00	0.00
<b>pH</b>	7.80	2.40	9.00	5.00
<b>Landscape metrics</b>				
<b>TE<sub>nu</sub></b> [m]	1778	766	4377	5
<b>CA<sub>nu</sub></b> [%]	60.90	35.00	100.00	0.00
<b>TE<sub>du</sub></b> [m]	1512	1106	4727	4
<b>CA<sub>du</sub></b> [%]	28.30	26.70	100.00	0.00

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**Highlights**

- A multi-criteria GIS-based approach for urban planning is presented.
- Physical/chemical features of soil are retained basic in urban planning policies
- Planning need to fill is the location of a new leisure area in an urban context
- Soil, landscape and demographic information were jointly considered.
- Area vocation to host leisure activity was mapped.