



Universitat de Lleida

Document downloaded from:

<http://hdl.handle.net/10459.1/59393>

The final publication is available at:

<https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1475-2743.2009.00215.x>

Copyright

(c) British Society of Soil Science, 2009



Soil alteration due to erosion, ploughing and levelling of vineyards in north east Spain

Journal:	<i>Soil Use and Management</i>
Manuscript ID:	SUM-2009-017.R2
Manuscript Type:	Research Paper
Date Submitted by the Author:	
Complete List of Authors:	Martínez-Casasnovas, José; University of Lleida, Spain, Department of Environment and Soil Science Ramos, M. Concepción; University of Lleida, Department of Environment and Soil Science
Keywords:	Soil Erosion < Soil Degradation < Soil Use and Management, Ploughing < Agriculture < Soil Use and Management, Land levelling, Crop mechanization, Mediterranean region, Spain

1
2
3 **Soil alteration due to erosion, ploughing and levelling of vineyards in north east Spain**
4
5
6
7

8 Short title: **Soil alteration in vineyards in north east Spain**
9

10
11
12 José A. Martínez-Casasnovas*, M. Concepción Ramos

13
14
15 University of Lleida, Department of Environment and Soil Science
16

17
18 Rovira Roure 191, 25198 Lleida (Spain), tel: +34 973702615; fax +34 973702613
19

20
21 e-mail: j.martinez@macs.udl.es
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

For Peer Review

Abstract

Since the 1970s and 1980s, the vineyard areas in the Mediterranean region of north east Spain have undergone profound transformation to allow greater mechanization. This has involved land levelling, deep ploughing and the elimination of traditional soil conservation measures. At present the EU Common Agricultural Policy encourages this through the vineyard restructuring and conversion plans (Commission Regulation EC No 1227/2000 of 31 May 2000) by subsidizing up to 50% of the cost of soil preparation such as soil movement and land levelling. A clear example of the problems that this causes is in the Penedès vineyard region (Catalonia, north east Spain), and the present research analyzes the changes in soil properties caused by erosion, deep ploughing and land levelling. The study was carried out in an area of 30 000 ha for which a soil information system at a scale of 1:50 000 was developed based on 394 field observations (89 soil profiles and 251 auger hole samples down to 120 cm). The results show that 74% of the described soil profiles are disturbed with evidence of soil mixing and/or profile truncation due to erosion, deep ploughing and/or land levelling. The evidence from the topsoils consists mainly of fragments of calcic or petrocalcic horizons, marls and sandstones. Other important properties for crops such as organic matter content and soil depth show statistically significant differences between disturbed soils and undisturbed soils (22.3–33.3% organic matter content depletion and 35.1% soil depth reduction). These results confirm that the soils of the region are significantly altered by mechanical operations which also influence soil erosion and contribute to the global warming effect through depletion of soil organic matter.

Key-words: soil erosion, ploughing, land levelling, crop mechanization, Mediterranean region, Spain

Introduction

Soil degradation is the loss of soil's capacity to perform its functions (Blum, 1993) and results in a decline in soil quality. It is a biophysical process affecting physical, chemical and biological properties and is caused by erosion, improper agricultural practices, machinery, inappropriate or excessive tillage, overgrazing or industrial activities; it can be exacerbated by socio-economic and political factors (Lal, 2001; Poch and Martínez-Casasnovas, 2002).

Among the intrinsic processes causing land degradation, erosion is the most widespread and is widely studied. Many researchers have quantified soil loss in different environments (e.g. Martínez-Casasnovas *et al.*, 2002; Martínez-Casasnovas, 2003), analyzed biophysical influencing factors and predicted or modelled soil losses (Wischmeier and Smith, 1978; Renard *et al.*, 1996; Laflen *et al.*, 1997; Morgan, 2001), and determined the effects on crop productivity (Lal, 2001), nutrient losses and infrastructures (Martínez-Casasnovas *et al.*, 2005, Martínez-Casasnovas and Ramos, 2006) and, most recently, the greenhouse effect (Lal, 2003, 2005). Other studies have measured the changes in soil properties resulting from these processes, mainly focusing on quantifying the depletion of organic matter content, the reduction of soil depth, changes in bulk density, infiltration capacity and moisture retention (Ebeid *et al.*, 1995; Fullen and Brandsma, 1995; Fenton *et al.*, 2005).

An assessment of soil profile truncation has been one of the traditional approaches for quantifying change in soil properties caused by erosion (Lowrance *et al.*, 1988; Phillips *et al.*, 1999). Several researchers have criticized this method in absolute terms since (a) it is difficult to find uneroded reference soil profiles in agricultural areas, (b) deep ploughing can mix soil

1
2
3 layers and mask the effects of erosion and (c) there may be natural local-scale variability in
4
5 soil thickness (Phillips *et al.*, 1999). In addition, profile truncation can result from past erosion
6
7 and it is not possible to determine whether the erosion processes are still active. Nevertheless,
8
9 in comparison with other methods such as determination of reservoir sedimentation and
10
11 estimation using the Revised Universal Soil Loss Equation (RUSLE), the estimates of soil
12
13 alteration due to erosion based on measuring the degree of profile truncation have produced
14
15 convergent results (Kreznor *et al.*, 1992; Phillips *et al.*, 1999). Soil profile truncation has also
16
17 been used as a reference for validating other soil loss prediction methods (e.g. ¹³⁷Cs derived
18
19 soil erosion rates, Van Oost *et al.*, 2005), for reconstructing sediment budgets in catchments
20
21 (Rommens *et al.*, 2005), and for developing new models of soil catenary evolution in
22
23 agricultural landscapes (De Alba *et al.*, 2004). The latter arise from the growing recognition
24
25 that tillage erosion plays an important role in the redistribution of soil on agricultural land and
26
27 causes soil profile truncation and/or accretion (Schumacher *et al.*, 1999; Nyssen *et al.*, 2000;
28
29 Van Oost *et al.*, 2005; Peeters *et al.*, 2006).

30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39 Although water erosion is the most widespread cause of soil profile change, there are other
40
41 intrinsic processes (e.g. levelling and deep ploughing) as well as extrinsic causes (e.g.
42
43 inadequate agricultural policies) that can significantly contribute to the degradation or
44
45 alteration of soil properties (Lundekvam *et al.*, 2003; Borselli *et al.*, 2006; Cots-Folch *et al.*,
46
47 2006). Land levelling and terracing are important in European agriculture, but associated
48
49 problems and impacts have not been widely studied (Cots-Folch *et al.*, 2006). Nevertheless,
50
51 some authors have reported the effects of these operations on soil properties. For example, in
52
53 vineyards in north east Spain (Penedès, Catalonia), extensive land levelling to reduce slope
54
55 gradient and increase field size to permit mechanisation has occurred in the last few decades
56
57 leading to a 26.5% increase in average annual soil loss (Jiménez-Delgado *et al.*, 2004).
58
59
60

1
2
3 Results from other research in this region has shown that land levelling before vineyard
4
5 establishment led to major differences in soil depth ranging from 50 to 110 cm and in soil
6
7 characteristics (Ramos and Martínez-Casasnovas, 2006a). The result is variability in soil
8
9 moisture at the same depth in different localities which has impacts on yield (16-50% less in
10
11 levelled areas). Since 2000 the EU Common Agricultural Policy, through the vineyard
12
13 restructuring and conversion plans (Commission Regulation EC No 1227/2000 of 31 May
14
15 2000), subsidizes by up to 50% of the cost of soil preparation such as soil movement and land
16
17 levelling. The Penedès vineyard region in Catalonia, north east Spain, provides a clear
18
19 example of the soil consequences from such processes. It is a traditional area for vineyards
20
21 producing high quality wine. The region has frequent high-intensity rainfall events (>80 mm
22
23 h⁻¹) and soil parent materials of unconsolidated Tertiary calcilutites and sandstones that are
24
25 highly susceptible to erosion (Martínez-Casasnovas et al., 2005). In this study we examine the
26
27 change in soil properties due to the combined effects of erosion, land levelling and deep
28
29 ploughing. This is done by investigating profile truncation or alteration in 89 soil profiles in
30
31 an area of 30 000 ha. We do not attempt to provide an absolute estimate of soil loss due to
32
33 profile truncation or alteration but rather an evaluation of the changes from the combined
34
35 effects of erosion, extensive land levelling and deep ploughing.
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46

47 **Material and methods**

48 *Study area*

49
50
51
52 The study area of 30 000 ha in the Penedès region, Catalonia, north east Spain is about 30 km
53
54 south west of Barcelona, between the Sierra Prelitoral mountains and the Anoia and Llobregat
55
56 rivers (Figure 1). Vineyards occupy 35% of the area and winter cereals which alternate with
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 vineyards cover 6%. Other important land uses are grassland and shrubland (25%) and
4
5 forested shrubland (17%), mainly in gullies and steeply sloping areas that were abandoned
6
7 from agriculture. Other minority crops include almond, olive and peach plantations. The area
8
9 is part of the Penedès Tertiary Depression where calcilutites (marls) and occasional
10
11 sandstones and conglomerates outcrop. The landscape is dissected by a dense and deep
12
13 network of gullies. Inter-gully areas are usually undulating to rolling, with an average slope of
14
15
16
17
18 10-15%.

19
20
21
22 The climate is Mediterranean with a mean annual temperature of 15 °C and a mean annual
23
24 rainfall of 550 mm (Ramos and Porta, 1994). Rainfall mainly occurs in two periods:
25
26 September to November, with frequent high-intensity rainstorms (e.g. >100 mm h⁻¹ in 5-min
27
28 periods), and in April to June. The rainfall erosivity factor (R) ranges from 1049 to 1200 MJ
29
30 mm ha⁻¹ h⁻¹ yr⁻¹ (Ramos, 2002). Deep ploughing <0.6-0.7 m before the established of vines is
31
32 common to encourage root penetration and plant establishment (Figure 2a). Recently, land
33
34 levelling has been widely used to create larger and more easily-managed fields, a practice that
35
36 involves the abandoning of traditional soil conservation measures and the alteration of soil
37
38 profiles (Figure 2b). Soil change results from 2-5 m of excavation (Ramos and Martínez-
39
40 Casasnovas, 2006a), leading to the exposure of underlying marls, sandstones and
41
42 conglomerates (Figure 4). Jiménez-Delgado *et al.* (2004) report a 26.5% increase in average
43
44 annual soil loss associated with these land transformations with the removal of the traditional
45
46 broad terraces. These terraces, locally named *rases*, have eight to ten rows of vines which
47
48 intercept runoff and direct it out of the field via lateral dirt tracks which act as drainage
49
50 channels. In addition, the terraces act as sediment traps, capturing about 54% of the sediments
51
52 generated during high-intensity rainfalls (Martínez-Casasnovas *et al.*, 2005). It is therefore
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 important to retain these conservation practices in new plantations and to maintain those in
4
5 existing plantations rather than to eliminate them in favour of vineyard mechanization.
6
7
8
9

10
11
12 [INSERT FIGURE 1 ABOUT HERE]
13
14

15
16
17 [INSERT FIGURE 2 ABOUT HERE]
18
19

20 21 22 *Soil information system* 23

24
25
26
27 The analysis of soil alteration by erosion, levelling and deep ploughing in the study area used
28 a Soil Information System (SIS) based on a Geographical Information System (GIS) and
29 associated soil database. The SIS contains at 1:50 000 spatial and descriptive data from a soil
30 survey for the study area. To achieve this, 394 field observations (89 soil profiles and 251
31 auger holes down to 120 cm), were described according to the SINEDARES (CBDSA, 1983)
32 and CatSIS (Boixadera *et al.*, 1989) description systems. The sample density was 1.31
33 observations per 100 ha. Soils were classified according to Soil Taxonomy to the family level
34 (Soil Survey Staff, 1999, 2006).
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48

49 50 *Analysis of the degree of soil property alteration* 51

52
53
54 The degree of soil alteration due to the combined effects of erosion, levelling and deep
55 ploughing was determined from analysis of the field descriptions and laboratory analysis from
56
57 89 soil profiles stored in the SIS. Two main aspects were considered: (1) quantification of and
58
59
60

1
2
3 type of mixing in the topsoil layers and (2) comparison with reference to soils with and
4
5 without mixing.
6
7
8
9

10 The cause of mixing in the studied soils is difficult to determine because the possible causes
11 of erosion, levelling and deep ploughing often have similar effects. Erosion processes result in
12 the progressive loss of the upper, most fertile soil layer, reduction in soil depth and mixing of
13 materials from different horizons after ploughing. This can result in topsoils with different
14 properties (e.g. less organic matter, more calcium carbonate, more coarse material and
15 different texture). With erosion, underlying horizons can be completely incorporated or the
16 parent material can be exposed. The presence of rills or gullies in the area near to the profile
17 that is being evaluated can help to determine the cause of layer mixing or profile truncation.
18 Nevertheless, in the study area this can lead to errors because of elimination of weeds which
19 masks evidence of erosion (Martínez-Casasnovas *et al.*, 2002).
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36

37 Because vineyards have been cultivated in this region since the Middle Ages, and deep
38 ploughing and land levelling have recently been done, it was difficult to find undisturbed plots
39 that could provide information on original soil conditions. Thus we determined the degree of
40 alteration of soils by looking at the evidence for disturbance in the topsoil layers, such as
41 fragments of calcic or petrocalcic horizons or the presence of coarse particles of Tertiary
42 materials (calclutites, sandstones or unconsolidated conglomerates).
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53

54 The analysis was carried out by querying the soil database in the SIS. Queries were formed by
55 means of Structured Query Language (SQL) using the Microsoft Access 2002 database
56 management system. The results from the queries allowed comparison of selected soil
57 properties with and without evidence of disturbance and were analyzed by statistical tests of
58
59
60

1
2
3 independence (Student's *t*-test and Pearson's chi-square test) (Everitt, 1977; Hays, 1988). In
4
5 the case of Pearson's chi-square tests, expected frequencies <5 in contingency tables of more
6
7 than one degree of freedom were accepted if they corresponded to <10% of the events. Where
8
9 there was only one degree of freedom (2x2 contingency tables) and with expected frequencies
10
11 below 10, the Yates' correction for continuity was applied (Everitt, 1977).
12
13
14
15

16 17 18 **Results and discussion**

19 20 21 22 *Soils of the study area*

23
24
25
26
27 Through using Soil Taxonomy (Soil Survey Staff, 1999, 2006), the 89 soil profiles described
28
29 in the study area belong to 22 different soil families (Table 1 which also includes the tentative
30
31 classification of the other 251 field observations [auger hole samples down to 120 cm] in the
32
33 Soil Information System).
34
35
36
37
38

39
40 [INSERT TABLE 1 ABOUT HERE]
41
42
43

44
45 From Table 1, the two most extensive soil subgroups described in the Penedès study area are
46
47 Typic Calcixerepts (39.1% of the observations) and Typic Xerorthents (22.6%). Petrocalcic
48
49 Calcixerepts (17.3%) and Fluventic Haploxerepts (9.1%), with calcic endopedons are also
50
51 common. The high proportion of carbonate enriched soils (22% of soil profiles and 19% of
52
53 other field observations) indicates the intensity of calcification. Less frequently occurring
54
55 families are the Aquic Haploxerepts (0.6%) and the Typic Haploxerepts (1.5%), the former
56
57 being specifically associated with areas of deficient drainage and the latter with non-
58
59 calcareous parent materials of schists.
60

1
2
3
4
5
6 Many of the soils display evidence of topsoil truncation. For example, in numerous cases the
7
8 ochric epipedon has been replaced by the underlying calcilutites which now forms the arable
9
10 horizon. In other cases, the top layer has evidence of mixing with the underlying calcic
11
12 horizon with calcium carbonate contents ca. 50% (Figure 3). Vines planted on these soils
13
14 show poor development because of ferric chlorosis problems. This indicates an inflection
15
16 point in soil development in accordance with current denudation dynamics (Martínez-
17
18 Casanovas, 1998) or human-induced processes such as deep ploughing and land levelling.
19
20 Nevertheless, field observations of the incision rills and gullies after very intense rainstorms
21
22 confirm current erosion activity (Martínez-Casanovas *et al.*, 2002, 2005).
23
24
25
26
27
28
29

30 [INSERT FIGURE 3 ABOUT HERE]
31
32
33
34
35
36

37 *Degree of soil property alteration due to erosion, levelling and deep ploughing*

38
39
40
41

42 *Evidence of layer mixing.* Evidence for mixing of the upper soil horizons was found in 66
43
44 (74%) out of the 89 analyzed profiles (Table 2). The evidence for mixing was the presence of
45
46 calcic or petrocalcic horizons in 56% of the profiles with associated evidence of disturbance,
47
48 and shallow soils with calcilutites, sandstones or conglomerates as underlying material in 29%
49
50 of these profiles. In 9% the disturbance was clearly caused by soil translocation as a result of
51
52 levelling. In these cases coarse fragments of calcilutites or sandstones were found in the
53
54 topsoil layer from the levelling (Figure 4). The remaining 6% of the evidence was expressed
55
56 in the presence of fragments of Bw, Bt or C horizons. It was not possible to distinguish
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 mixing of horizons by ploughing from other processes. Nevertheless, there was clear evidence
4
5 of mixing in soils which had been ploughed to a depth > 0.50 m.
6
7
8
9

10 [INSERT TABLE 2 ABOUT HERE]
11

12
13 [INSERT FIGURE 4 ABOUT HERE]
14
15
16
17

18
19
20
21
22
23 *Effects on organic matter content.* The combined effects of mixing the top layers with
24 underlying material by erosion and levelling has important effects on soil properties. Although
25 the average organic matter (OM) content of the topsoil in undisturbed soils was low
26 (1.17±0.57%, n=17), significantly lower OM contents were found in soils showing evidence
27 of disturbance (0.91±0.56%, n=31, $P<0.05$). The organic matter content of shallow soils with
28 a maximum depth of 0.30 m was found to be even lower (0.78±0.24%, n=12, $P<0.05$). In
29 these shallow soils, the evidence of disturbance in the topsoil layer could only be due to
30 erosion and not to deep ploughing because it is not possible to plough more than 0.30 m.
31 These results agree with other research that shows that erosion significantly reduces soil
32 organic content in cultivated soils (Nizeyimana and Olson, 1988; Ebeid *et al.*, 1995). The
33 degree of erosion of the soils in the Penedès area can be considered as moderate on the basis
34 of a 22-33% reduction in the OM content which compares with a 20-35% reduction in OM
35 content in till-derived soils devoted to corn in Iowa (Fenton *et al.*, 2005), and in loamy sand
36 soils of Shropshire, UK (Fullen, 1995). This reduction in OM is not compensated by the
37 application of cattle manure before vineyard establishment at a rate of 30-40 Mg ha⁻¹ though
38 some viticulturists have encouraged the application of cattle manure or organic wastes every
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 3-4 years at rates of 30-50 Mg ha⁻¹ to improve soil structure and water infiltration (Martínez-
4
5 Casasnovas and Ramos, 2006; Ramos and Martínez-Casasnovas, 2006).
6
7
8
9

10 *Effects on calcium carbonate content.* An increasing trend was observed in the calcium
11 carbonate content for disturbed topsoils of soils compared to undisturbed ones although there
12 are no statistically significant differences. The mean content of the top horizons without
13 evidence of mixing is 30.8±8.2% (n=14) compared with 34.0±12% (P=0.199, n=33). This is
14 probably due to the natural high calcium carbonate content of the parent materials since
15 67.8% of the 28 parent material samples had calcium carbonate contents >20%, with a
16 maximum of 53.9%. The differences in calcium carbonate content between disturbed and
17 undisturbed soils increases if shallow soils with evidence of disturbance (maximum tilling
18 depth of 0.30 m) are separately considered. In this case the mean calcium carbonate content is
19 36.7±9.4% (P=0.051, n=12), which seems to indicate a greater influence of erosion than deep
20 ploughing as the process responsible for the carbonate enrichment in these soils.
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39

40 Calcium carbonate enrichment of topsoil has consequences on vine development and yield
41 (Figure 5) because it causes iron deficiency (Mengel *et al.*, 1984). This is commonly observed
42 in vines on calcareous soils as observed by Reyes *et al.* (2006) in a study relating the
43 incidence of Fe chlorosis in vines of southern Spain to inherent soil properties. Lindstrom *et*
44 *al.* (1986) stress the need for higher application rates of fertilizers to compensate for the
45 increase in calcium carbonate content in agricultural soils due to land levelling.
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56

57 [INSERT FIGURE 5 ABOUT HERE]
58
59
60

1
2
3 *Effects on soil structure.* From the analysis comparing the structure of the horizons with and
4 without evidence of mixing (Table 3), there are no significant differences in the type of
5 structure, the degree of structure development, the size of the aggregates, or the presence of
6 secondary structure ($P>0.05$). This can be explained by intensive farming of these vineyard
7 soils for eliminating weeds which must have modified the original soil structure (Martínez-
8 Casanovas and Ramos, 2006). Ramos *et al.* (2003) through investigating 11 reference soils in
9 the same area analyzed the effects of raindrop impact on aggregate stability. Their results
10 confirm that in general the soils are unstable to slaking and to mechanical disturbance. The
11 less stable soils have a high silt content which also encourages crust formation.
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27

28 Land levelling can have a negative influence on soil structure as shown by Lundekvam *et al.*
29 (2003) who confirm very adverse effects of land levelling on soil structure and erodibility. In
30 the same study area as the present one, Ramos and Martínez-Casanovas (2006b) also report
31 that cultivated soils after land levelling are very low in organic matter and are highly
32 susceptible to erosion with most precipitation lost as runoff. A possible solution to improve
33 soil structure that has been recently tested by Ramos and Martínez-Casanovas (2006b) by the
34 application of compost from cattle manure and they showed that this is an important source of
35 N and P besides other nutrients and can also increase infiltration rates by up to 26%. However,
36 due to the high susceptibility of these soils to crusting, erosion rates are relatively high, so a
37 higher nutrient concentration on the soil surface increases non-point pollution.
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50

51 [INSERT TABLE 3 ABOUT HERE]
52
53
54
55

56 *Effects on soil depth.* There are significant differences ($P<0.01$) in effective soil depth as a
57 result of disturbance. These soils have an average depth of 0.83 ± 0.4 m ($n=59$) compared with
58 1.28 ± 0.5 m ($n=24$) for soils without evidence of mixing. This indicates a progressive
59
60

1
2
3 reduction in effective depth by the combined effects of erosion and/or soil translocation due to
4
5 levelling. These results accord with those of Ramos and Martínez-Casasnovas (2006a) who
6
7 found cuttings <2.5 m from levelling resulting in soils <0.6 m deep. In contrast to deeper
8
9 soils, these soils have lower moisture contents of up to 5% in the surface layer and a reduction
10
11 in yield of 16-50% depending on vine variety. The land levelling and deep ploughing effects
12
13 as described in this paper add to those reported in other studies in the Penedès region. Table 4
14
15 summarizes reported on-site land levelling effects, indicating the local magnitude and possible
16
17 consequences which highlight the impact of these land transformations on soil properties and
18
19 crop production.
20
21
22
23
24

25 [INSERT TABLE 4 ABOUT HERE]
26
27
28
29

30 **Conclusions**

31
32
33

34 The Soil Information System at a 1:50 000 scale for the Penedès vineyard region of 30 000 ha
35
36 provides information on the degree of soil alteration based on organic matter and calcium
37
38 carbonate content, soil structure and soil depth. These were assessed by comparing these
39
40 properties between disturbed and undisturbed soils. The most abundant soils in the area are
41
42 Typic Calcixerepts and Typic Xerorthents. Fluventic Haploxerepts with a calcic endopedon;
43
44 Petrocalcic Calcixerepts are also frequent. The abundance of soils with evidence of secondary
45
46 accumulation of calcium carbonate reflects the calcium richness of the parent materials
47
48 (mainly calcilitites with calcium carbonate contents of 30-50% and limestone gravels).
49
50
51
52

53
54
55
56 Analysis of the soil information confirms that soils of the study area suffer intense erosion
57
58 and/or anthropogenic transformation (land levelling and deep ploughing) which lead to the
59
60 progressive loss of soil material, a reduction in organic matter content and effective soil depth,

1
2
3 calcium carbonate enrichment of arable layers and degradation of soil structure. This study
4
5 was not able to identify the particular processes responsible for the degradation, except for the
6
7 evidence for levelling close to the described profiles.
8
9

10
11
12 At present soil preparation, stone clearance and land levelling are subsidized by the EU
13
14 through vineyard restructuring and conversion regulations (Commission Regulation EC No.
15
16 1227/2000 of 31 May 2000). The main objective of these is to modify production to market
17
18 demand. However, the present research suggests that land levelling and the resultant increase
19
20 in erosion alter soil properties and could contribute to global warming by depleting soil
21
22 organic matter.
23
24
25
26
27
28
29

30 **Acknowledgements**

31
32
33
34 This work was carried out in the framework of research projects REN2002-00432 and
35
36 AGL2005-00091/AGR financed by the Spanish Ministry of Education and Science.
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

References

Blum, W.E.H., 1993. Soil protection concept of the Council of Europe and integrated soil research. In: Soil and Environment Vol 1 (eds.) Eijsackers, H.J.P. & Hamers, T., Kluwer Academic Publisher, Dordrecht, pp 37-47

Boixadera, J., Danés, R. & Porta, J. 1989. *CatSIS: Sistema de información de suelos de Cataluña. Ponencias y Comunicaciones de la XVI Reunión de la Sociedad Española de la Ciencia del Suelo*. Universidad Politécnica de Cataluña y Sociedad Española de Ciencia del Suelo. Lleida, Spain. [In Spanish]

Borselli, L., Torri, D., Øygarden, L., De Alba, S., Martínez-Casasnovas, J.A., Bazzoffi, P. & Jakab, G. 2006. Soil erosion by land levelling. In: *Soil Erosion in Europe* (eds.) Boardman, J. & Poesen, J., John Wiley and Sons, Inc., Chichester, UK, pp 643-658.

C.B.D.S.A., 1983. *SINEDARES. Manual para la descripción codificada de suelos en campo*. Ministerio de Agricultura, Pesca y Alimentación de España, Madrid, Spain. [In Spanish]

Cots-Folch, R., Martínez-Casasnovas, J.A. & Ramos, M.C. 2006. Land terracing for new vineyard plantations in the north-eastern Spanish Mediterranean region: Landscape effects of the EU Council Regulation policy for vineyards' restructuring. *Agriculture, Ecosystems and Environment*, **115**, 88-96.

De Alba, S., Lindstrom, M., Schumacher, T.E. & Malo, D.D. 2004. Soil landscape evolution due to soil redistribution by tillage: a new conceptual model of soil catena evolution in agricultural landscapes. *Catena*, **58**, 77-100.

1
2
3
4
5
6 Ebeid, M.M, Lal, R., Hall, G.F. & Miller, E. 1995. Erosion effects on soil properties and
7
8 soybean yield of a Miamian soil in Western Ohio in a season with below normal rainfall. *Soil*
9
10 *Technology*, **8**, 97-108.

11
12
13
14 Everitt, B., 1977. *The analysis of contingency tables*. Chapman and Hall, London.

15
16
17
18
19 Fullen, M.A. & Brandsma, R.T. 1995. Property changes by erosion of loamy sand soils in east
20
21 Shropshire, UK. *Soil Technology*, **8**, 1-15.

22
23
24
25
26 Hays, W.L., 1988. *Statistics* (4th ed.). Holt, Rinehart and Winston Inc., New York.

27
28
29
30
31 Jiménez-Delgado, M., Martínez-Casasnovas, J.A. & Ramos, M.C. 2004. Land transformation,
32
33 land use changes and soil erosion in vineyard areas of NE Spain. In: *Proceedings Volume of*
34
35 *the 4th International Congress of the ESSC* (eds.) Kertész, A., Kovács, A., Csuták, M., Jakab,
36
37 G. & Madarász, B., Hungarian Academy of Sciences, Geographical Research Institute,
38
39 Budapest, Hungary, pp. 192–195.

40
41
42
43
44
45
46 Fenton, T.E., Kazemi, M. & Lauterbach-Barrett, M.A. 2005. Erosional impact on organic
47
48 matter content and productivity of selected Iowa soils. *Soil & Tillage Research*, **81**, 163–171.

49
50
51
52
53 Kreznor, W.R., Olson, K.R. & Johnson, D.L. 1992. Field evaluation of methods to estimate
54
55 soil erosion. *Soil Science*, **153**, 69–81.

1
2
3 Laflen, J.M., Elliot, W.J., Flanagan, D.C., Mayer, C.R. & Nearing, M.A. 1997. WEPP-
4 predicting water erosion using a process-based model. *Journal of Soil and Water*
5
6 *Conservation*, **52**, 96–102.
7
8
9

10
11
12
13 Lal, R. 2001. Soil degradation by erosion. *Land Degradation and Development*, **12**, 519-539.
14
15

16
17
18 Lal, R. 2003. Soil erosion and the global carbon budget. *Environment International*, **29**, 437–
19
20 450.
21
22

23
24
25 Lal, R. 2005. Soil erosion and carbon dynamics. *Soil & Tillage Research*, **81**, 137-142.
26
27

28
29
30 Lindstrom, M.J., Schumacher, T.E., Lemme, G.D. & Gollany, H.M. 1986. Soil characteristics
31
32 of a mollisol and corn (*Zea mays* L.) growth 20 years after topsoil removal. *Soil & Tillage*
33
34 *Research*, **7**, 51-62.
35
36

37
38
39 Lowrance, R., Mcintire, S. & Lance, C. 1988. Erosion and deposition in a field estimated
40
41 using cesium-137 activity. *Journal of Soil and Water Conservation*, **43**, 195–199.
42
43
44

45
46
47 Lundekvam, H.E., Romstad, E. & Oygarden, L. 2003. Agricultural policies in Norway and
48
49 effects on soil erosion. *Environmental Science and Policy*, **6**, 57-67.
50
51

52
53
54 Martínez-Casasnovas, J.A., 1998. *Soil – landscape – erosion. Gully erosion in the Alt Penedès*
55
56 *– Anoia (Catalonia, Spain). A spatial information technology approach: spatial databases,*
57
58 *GIS and remote sensing.* PhD thesis, University of Lleida, Lleida, Spain. [In Spanish and
59
60 English]

1
2
3
4
5
6 Martínez-Casasnovas, J.A., Ramos, M.C. & Ribes-Dasi, M. 2002. Soil erosion caused by
7
8 extreme rainfall events: mapping and quantification in agricultural plots from very detailed
9
10 digital elevation models. *Geoderma*, **105**, 125-140.

11
12
13
14
15 Martínez-Casasnovas, J.A. 2003. A spatial information technology approach for the mapping
16
17 and quantification of gully erosion. *Catena*, **50**, 293-308.

18
19
20
21
22
23 Martínez-Casasnovas, J.A., Ramos, M.C. & Ribes-Dasi, M. 2005. On-site effects of
24
25 concentrated flow erosion in vineyard fields: some economic implications. *Catena*, **60**, 129-
26
27 146.

28
29
30
31
32
33 Martínez-Casasnovas, J.A. & Ramos, M.C. 2006. The cost of soil erosion in vineyard fields in
34
35 the Penedes-Anoia Region (NE Spain). *Catena*, **68**, 194-199.

36
37
38
39
40 Mengel, K., Breininger, M.T. & Bubl, W. 1984. Bicarbonate, the most important factor
41
42 inducing iron chlorosis in vine grapes on calcareous soil. *Plant & Soil*, **81**, 333-344.

43
44
45
46
47 Morgan, R.P.C. 2001. A simple approach to soil loss prediction: a revised Morgan-Morgan-
48
49 Finney model. *Catena*, **44**, 305-322.

50
51
52
53
54
55 Nyssen, J., Poesen, J., Haile, M., Moeyersons, J. & Deckers, J. 2000. Tillage erosion on slopes
56
57 with soil conservation structures in the Ethiopian highlands. *Soil & Tillage Research*, **57**, 115-
58
59 127.
60

1
2
3
4
5
6 Nizeyimana, E. & Olson, K.R. 1988. Chemical, mineralogical, and physical property
7 differences between moderately and severely eroded Illinois soils. *Soil Science Society of*
8 *America Journal*, **52**, 1740-1748.
9
10
11

12
13
14
15 Peeters, I., Rommens, T., Verstraeten, G., Govers, G., Van Rompaey, A., Poesen, J. & Van
16 Oost, K. 2006. Reconstructing ancient topography through erosion modelling.
17 *Geomorphology*, **78**, 250-264.
18
19
20
21

22
23
24
25 Phillips, J.D., Slattery, M.C. & Gares, P.A. 1999. Truncation and accretion of soil profiles on
26 coastal plain croplands: implications for sediment redistribution. *Geomorphology*, **28**, 119–
27 140.
28
29
30
31

32
33
34
35 Poch, R.M. & Martínez-Casasnovas, J.A. 2002. *Basic Concepts and processes of soil*
36 *degradation*. Dekker Encyclopedia of Soil Science, Marcel Dekker, Inc, New York, pp. 260-
37 263.
38
39
40
41

42
43
44 Ramos, M.C. & Porta, J. 1994. Rainfall intensity and erosive potentiality in the NE Spain
45 Mediterranean area: results on sustainability of vineyards. *Il Nuovo Cimento*, **17**, 291– 299.
46
47
48
49

50
51
52 Ramos, M.C. & Nacci, S. 1997. Estabilidad de agregados superficiales en suelos del Anoia-
53 Penedés (Barcelona) frente al humedecimiento y al impacto de las gotas de lluvia. *Edafología*,
54 **3**, 1-10. [In Spanish]
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 Ramos, M.C. 2002. Differences on the characteristics of the storms recorded along the year in
4 a Mediterranean climate. Intensity and kinetic energy. In: *Mediterranean Storms, 2nd Plinius*
5 *Conference Pub GNDCI N 2547* (eds.) Mugnai, A., Guzzetti, F. & Roth, G., European
6 Geophysical Society, Italy, pp. 431– 440.
7

8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15 Ramos, M.C., Nacci, S. & Pla, I. 2003. Effect of raindrop impact and its relationship with
16 aggregate stability to different disaggregation forces. *Catena*, **53**, 365-376.
17

18
19
20
21
22
23 Ramos, M.C. & Martínez-Casasnovas, J.A. 2006a. Impact of land levelling on soil moisture
24 and runoff variability in vineyards under different rainfall distributions in a Mediterranean
25 climate and its influence on crop productivity. *Journal of Hydrology*, **321**, 131-146.
26
27

28
29
30
31
32 Ramos, M.C. & Martínez-Casasnovas, J.A. 2006b. Erosion rates and nutrient losses affected
33 by composted cattle manure application in vineyard soils of NE Spain. *Catena*, **68**, 177– 185.
34
35

36
37
38
39
40 Ramos, M.C. & Martínez-Casasnovas, J.A., 2007. Soil loss and soil water content affected by
41 land levelling in Penedès vineyards, NE Spain. *Catena* , **71**, 210–217.
42
43

44
45
46 Renard, K.G., Foster, G.R., Weesies, G.A., Mccool, D.K. & Yoder, D.C. 1996. *Predicting soil*
47 *erosion by water: A guide to conservation planning with the Revised Universal Soil Loss*
48 *Equation (RUSLE)*. Agricultural Handbook No. 703, USDA, Washington, DC.
49
50

51
52
53
54
55
56 Reyes, J.M., Del Campillo, M.C. & Torrent, J. 2006. Soil Properties Influencing Iron
57 Chlorosis in Grapevines Grown in the Montilla-Moriles Area, Southern Spain.
58 *Communications in Soil Science and Plant Analysis*, **37**, 1723 – 1729.
59
60

1
2
3
4
5
6 Rommens, T., Verstraeten, G., Poesen, J., Govers, G., Van Rompaey, A., Peeters, I. & Lang,
7
8 A., 2005. Soil erosion and sediment deposition in the Belgian loess belt during the Holocene:
9
10 establishing a sediment budget for a small agricultural catchment. *The Holocene*, **15**, 1032–
11
12 1043.

13
14
15
16
17
18 Schumacher, T.E., Lindstrom, M.J., Schumacher, J.A. & Lemme, G.D. 1999. Modeling
19
20 spatial variation in productivity due to tillage and water erosion. *Soil & Tillage Research*, **51**,
21
22 pp. 331-339.

23
24
25
26
27
28 Soil Survey Staff. 1999. *Soil Taxonomy. Basic System of Soil Classification for Making and*
29
30 *Interpreting Soil Surveys*. United States Department of Agriculture, Natural Resources
31
32 Conservation Service, Agriculture Handbook N 436, Washington, DC.

33
34
35
36
37 Soil Survey Staff. 2006. *Keys to Soil Taxonomy. Tenth edition*. United States Department of
38
39 Agriculture, Natural Resources Conservation Service, Washington, DC.

40
41
42
43
44 Van Oost, K., Van Muysen, W., Govers, G., Deckers, J. & Quine, T.A. 2005. From water to
45
46 tillage erosion dominated landform evolution. *Geomorphology*, **72**, 193-203.

47
48
49
50
51 Wischmeier, W.H. & Smith, D.D. 1978. *Predicting rainfall erosion losses. A guide to*
52
53 *conservation planning*. USDA Agricultural Handbook No. 537, Washington, D.C.

Figure captions

Figure 1. Location of the study area and the spatial distribution of the 89 investigated reference soil profiles. The symbols in the soil profiles refer to different sampled landscape areas as identified by Martínez-Casasnovas (1998): A) Mountain, B) Piedmont, C) High dissected valley-glacis, D) Low dissected valley-glacis, E) River valleys.

Figure 2. a) Deep ploughing to 0.6-0.7 m prior to vine planting. The white colour of the soil indicates the mixing of the original A horizon with the underlying calcic horizon. b) Land levelling in the Penedès region to for mechanization in the vineyard.

Figure 3. Example of soil with evidence of layer mixing (Typic Calcixerept, coarse-loamy, carbonatic, thermic). Detail of rhizoconcretions of calcium carbonate on surface. (The scale bar indicates 1 cm per division).

Figure 4. Example of topsoil as a result of levelling. On the surface there are fragments of the underlying materials (calcilutites and sandstones). In the background, the mound on the hill shows the land morphology prior to levelling. A 2.5 m layer of soil material was cut here to level the field.

Figure 5. Differences in plant development due to calcium carbonate enrichment of the topsoil in a vineyard in the Penedès region.

Table 1. Families of described soils in the Penedès vineyard region according to Soil Taxonomy (Soil Survey Staff, 1999, 2006).

Family	Number of soil profiles	Number of other field observations
Petrocalcic Palexeralf, fine, mixed, thermic	2	0
Calcic Haploxeralf, fine-loamy, carbonatic, thermic	1	4
Typic Haploxeralf, loamy-skeletal, mixed (calcareous), thermic	1	3
Petrocalcic Calcixerept, coarse-loamy, mixed, thermic	2	13
Petrocalcic Calcixerept, loamy, mixed, thermic, shallow	5	39
Typic Calcixerept, fine-loamy, mixed, thermic	9	25
Typic Calcixerept, sandy-skeletal, carbonatic, thermic	4	16
Typic Calcixerept, loamy-skeletal, mixed, thermic	1	2
Typic Calcixerept, coarse-silty, carbonatic, thermic	4	2
Typic Calcixerept, sandy, mixed, thermic	2	6
Typic Calcixerept, coarse-loamy, mixed, thermic	7	20
Typic Calcixerept, fine-silty, carbonatic, thermic	4	18
Typic Calcixerept, coarse-loamy, carbonatic, thermic	6	7
Fluventic Haploxerept, fine-loamy, mixed (calcareous), thermic	7	24
Typic Haploxerept, coarse-loamy, mixed (calcareous), thermic	2	3
Aquic Haploxerept, coarse-loamy, mixed (calcareous), thermic	1	1
Typic Xerofluvent, fine-silty, mixed (calcareous), thermic	6	9
Typic Xerofluvent, coarse-loamy, mixed (calcareous), thermic	5	10
Typic Xerorthent, silty, mixed (calcareous), thermic, shallow	7	5
Typic Xerorthent, loamy, mixed (calcareous), thermic, shallow	11	39
Lithic Xerorthent, loamy, mixed (non acid), thermic, shallow	1	4
Lithic Xerorthent, loamy, mixed (calcareous), thermic, shallow	1	1

Table 2. Evidence of disturbance in topsoil horizons in the reference profiles described in the Penedès vineyard region.

Type of evidence	Number of reference soil profiles
Fragments of calcilutites or sandstones	15
Fragments of petrocalcic horizon	5
High frequency of coarse material (gravels from unconsolidated Tertiary conglomerates)	4
CaCO ₃ nodules	17
Rhizoconcretions of calcium carbonate	15
Fragments of Bw or C horizons	3
Fragments of Bt horizons	1
Levelling	6
Total number of profiles with evidence of disturbance	66

Table 3. Results from chi-square tests on frequency data for soil structure type and evidence of mixing.

Structure type	Soil profiles with evidence of mixing		Soil profiles with no evidence of mixing	
	Observed	Expected	Observed	Expected
Subangular blocks (weak or very weak)	30	29	10	11
Subangular blocks (moderate or strong)	24	24.6	10	9.3
Compound granular	4	2.9	2	1.7

p-value= 0.718 (Pearsons' chi-square test)

Aggregate size	Soil profiles with evidence of mixing		Soil profiles with no evidence of mixing	
	Observed	Expected	Observed	Expected
Fine	6	5.8	2	2.2
Medium	26	25.4	9	9.6
Coarse	26	26.8	11	10.2

P= 0.921 (Pearsons' chi-square test)

Secondary structure	Soil profiles with evidence of mixing		Soil profiles with no evidence of mixing	
	Observed	Expected	Observed	Expected
Without secondary structure	38	39.9	17	15.1
With secondary structure	20	18.1	5	6.9

P= 0.449 (Yates' Chi-Square test)

Table 4. Levelling effects in the Penedès vineyard region.

<i>Land levelling effect</i>	<i>Local magnitude</i>	<i>References</i>
Land cutting and filling	<5 m	Jiménez-Delgado <i>et al.</i> (2004)
	<2.5 m	Ramos and Martínez-Casasnovas (2006a)
Elimination of existing conservation measures (broad-based terraces)	26.5% increase in average annual soil loss	Jiménez-Delgado <i>et al.</i> (2004)
Soil mixing	74% of the analyzed soil profiles show evidence of layer mixing	this study
Organic matter depletion	22-33%	this study
Enrichment of calcium carbonate content of topsoil	up to 10.4% increase	this study
Reduction in soil depth	up to 54% reduction	this work
Reduction in soil water content	<20% in highly disturbed soils	Ramos and Martínez-Casasnovas (2007)
Susceptibility to soil sealing	minimum hydraulic conductivity of the seal 3-6 mm h ⁻¹ in highly disturbed soils compared with 40 mm h ⁻¹ in less disturbed soils	Ramos and Martínez-Casasnovas (2007)
Reduction in water retention capacity	8.0-11.2% at -1500 kPa, 18.3-21.3% at -33 kPa in highly disturbed soils compared with 13% at -1500 kPa and 31-36% at -33 kPa in less disturbed soils	Ramos and Martínez-Casasnovas (2006a) Ramos and Martínez-Casasnovas (2007)
Increase in sediment yield from levelled vineyard fields	higher sediment concentration in disturbed soils (9 compared with 5 g L ⁻¹)	Ramos and Martínez-Casasnovas (2006a) Ramos and Martínez-Casasnovas (2007)

Reduction in crop yield	Crop yield decreased depending on the degree of land levelling	Ramos and Martínez-Casasnovas (2006a)
-------------------------	--	---------------------------------------

For Peer Review

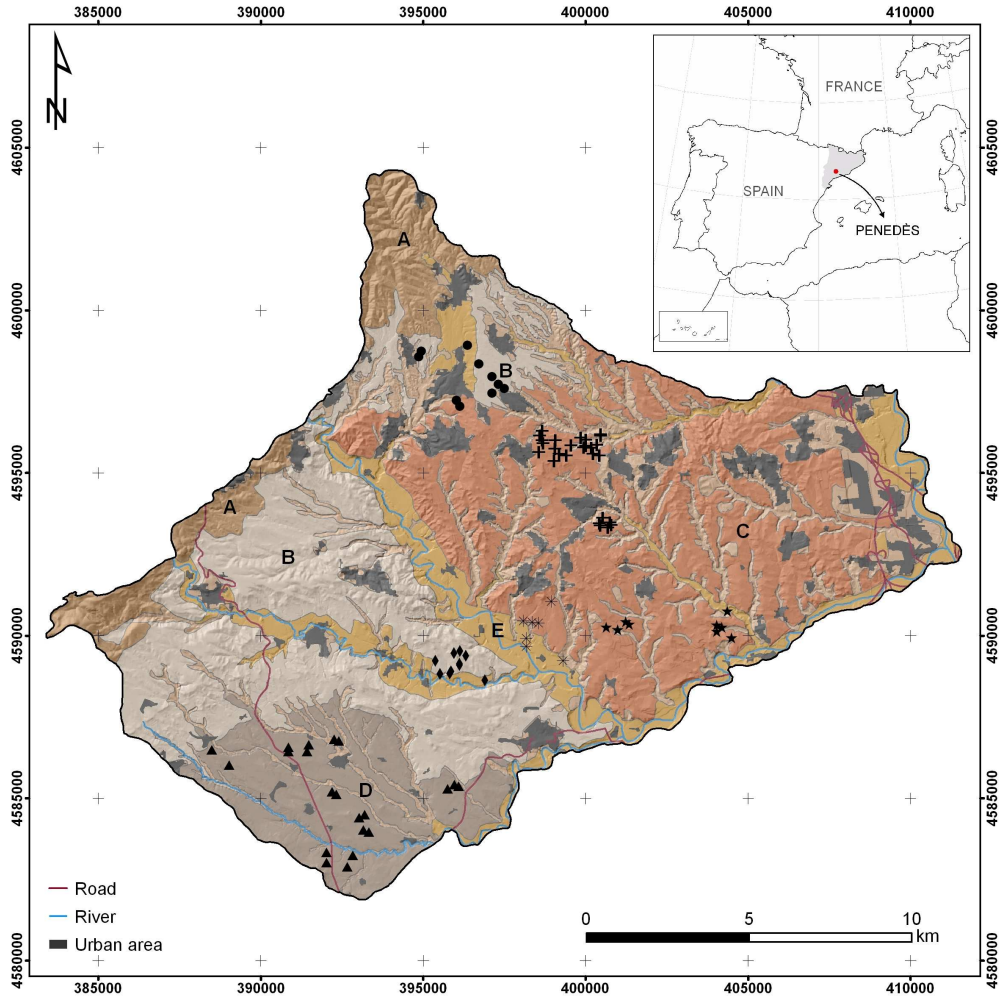


Figure 1. Location of the study area and the spatial distribution of 89 reference soil profiles described and analyzed in this paper. The symbols of the soil profiles refer to different sample landscape areas identified by Martínez-Casasnovas (1998): A) Mountain, B) Piedmont, C) High dissected valley-glacis, D) Low dissected valley-glacis, E) River valleys.
199x199mm (300 x 300 DPI)



Figure 2. a) Deep ploughing, up to 0.6-0.7 m, prior to vine planting. The white colour of the soil indicates the mixing of the original A horizon with the underlying calcic horizon.
22x14mm (600 x 600 DPI)

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60



Figure 2. b) Land levelling in the Penedès region to adapt vineyard to mechanization.
22x14mm (600 x 600 DPI)

Review



Figure 3. Example of soil with evidence of layer mixing (Typic Calcixerept, coarse-loamy, carbonatic, thermic). Detail of rhizoconcretions of calcium carbonate on surface. (The scale bar indicates 1 cm per division).
150x99mm (360 x 360 DPI)

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60



Figure 4. Example of topsoil as a result of levelling. On the surface, fragments of the underlying materials (calcilutites and sandstones). In the background, the mound on the hill shows the land morphology prior to levelling. A 2.5 m layer of soil material was cut here to level the field.
100x65mm (599 x 599 DPI)

Review

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60



Figure 5. Differences in plant development due to calcium carbonate enrichment of the topsoil in a vineyard field of the Penedès region.
22x14mm (600 x 600 DPI)

Review