

23 respectively. The adoption of a cover crop as a soil management practice can be a feasible
24 way to reach sustainability in many olive-cropped soils of southern Spain, although this
25 method is not always easy to implement due to technical problems such as seed selection,
26 its maintenance, and the choice of the correct killing date to avoid water competition. These
27 difficulties could explain the slow rate of its adoption by many farmers. Further exploration
28 of these aspects is required, as well as a specific agricultural extension campaign.

29

30 Keywords: olive, erosion, runoff, organic carbon, nutrients.

31

32

INTRODUCTION

33 Olive is an essential crop for the Mediterranean basin, where it covers around 9.2 Mha
34 (FAO, 2008). The characteristics of the tree, able to support very adverse climate
35 conditions like long hot, dry periods, with some cold winter intervals, the good properties
36 of its fruit, which is a substantial part of the Mediterranean diet, and the relatively simple
37 agronomic practice required by olive orchards, explain the spread of this crop in the region.

38 Nevertheless, olive-tree cropping may have become a serious menace to natural resource
39 conservation. The introduction of mechanization in the 1950's gave many farmers the
40 opportunity of plowing steep virgin lands to start new plantations, as well as of intensifying
41 tillage in old plantations to remove the weeds competing with the olive trees for water and
42 other nutrients more effectively. Consequently, the soil loss rate increased with extensive
43 on-site and ex-site damage. The soil became progressively less fertile, and the dispersion of
44 the sediment with the associated agrochemicals deteriorated the environment.

45 The development of chemical herbicides in the 1970's initiated a new era for soil and
46 water conservation, allowing the farmer to control more precisely the weeds growing either
47 between the cropped trees or over the whole cultivated area until the new crop was sown
48 (Tripplet and Dick 2008). After an initial period of experiments with the use of no tillage
49 combined with herbicides to keep the soil bare all year round, which resulted in accelerated
50 soil erosion due to an increase in water yield, cover crop practices were introduced into
51 olive tree cropping, following the example of other crops (*e.g.* Pastor *et al.* 1999). Despite
52 a significant expansion of the use of cover crop in olive-growing areas in Southern Spain,
53 many olive farmers are still reluctant to fully adopt this practice. This raises several
54 unsolved problems, but possibly the most important one is the limited amount of reliable
55 experimental results on its efficiency in soil and water conservation, as happens in other
56 crops (Clark 2007).

57 Several works have studied cover crop as a conservation practice in olive orchards:
58 Gómez *et al.* (2004), Bruggeman *et al.* (2005); Francia *et al.* (2006); and Ordóñez-
59 Fernández *et al.* (2007) have reported runoff and sediment yield data recorded in
60 experimental erosion plots. The plot size and type in the above works differ. Ordóñez-
61 Fernández *et al.* (2007) used square erosion plots of 1 m², located between olive tree rows.
62 Gómez *et al.* (2004) had larger rectangular plots of 72 m² enclosing 2 olive trees each.
63 Francia *et al.* (2006) installed larger rectangular erosion plots of 192 m² containing three
64 olive trees. The study of Bruggeman *et al.* (2005) was made on the largest plots of all, as
65 indicated in their plate 1, with 75 olive trees in each, although their area was not specified
66 in their publication. Unfortunately, the plots of Bruggeman *et al.* (2005) were not closed

67 ones, and collected the runoff water with a Gerlach trough, which does not usually
68 represent the total runoff generated in the plot.

69 One of the main problems of soil erosion studies is the representativeness of the
70 processes in the measurement field plots, since, as indicated by Parsons *et al.* (2004), the
71 particle travel distances, which depend on the particle size, can be much larger than the
72 plot size. Consequently, it is not easy to detect rills formed by erosion in many of the
73 measurement plots, and this is a common erosive form on slopes with cropped trees like
74 the olive.

75 How effective is the cover crop practice as a soil and water conservation strategy for the
76 olive tree orchards of Southern Spain? How much does the cover reduce the nutrient
77 concentration in runoff water? The purpose of this work is to analyze the efficiency of the
78 cover crop practice in soil, water and nutrient conservation in the olive tree cropping of
79 Southern Spain using plots long enough to follow up the development of rills observed on
80 hill slopes during several rainfall-runoff events and cropping seasons.

81

82

METHODS

83 In 2002, a field experiment was established on the “Santa Marta” farm, about 26 km west of
84 Seville, Spain, 37° 20′ 33.6” N 6° 13′ 44” W and an average elevation of 98 m above sea
85 level. The olive plantation was established in 1985 with trees at 8 x 6 m spacing. The olive
86 variety, Gordal, used as a table food, is very common in the area (Rallo *et al.* 2005). The
87 climate is Mediterranean with an average annual precipitation of 534 mm, concentrated
88 mostly in late fall and winter, and an average annual air temperature of 18.6 °C. The slope is

89 uniform, oriented in the north-west direction with an average steepness of 11%. The soil
90 belongs to the Petrocalcic Palexeralf series (García del Barrio *et al.* 1975) and is well
91 drained, with an average organic matter content of 1.3%, 28% of calcium carbonates, and a
92 sandy loam texture class. Some relevant properties are shown in Table 1. Farm soil
93 management included the maintenance of a cover crop of weeds in the area outside the
94 vertical projection of the canopy controlled by two or three mowing passes during winter
95 and spring, and a bare soil strip under the tree line maintained with chemical herbicides.

96

97 Two bounded runoff plots were established in the summer of 2003. Each plot was 8 m wide
98 and 60 m long, laid out with the longest dimension parallel to the slope, as indicated in
99 Figure 1. During the fall of 2002, two soil management methods were established in them.
100 One plot was devoted to conventional tillage (hereafter CT) consisting of regular chisel
101 plow passes (2-3 times a year at 10-15 cm depth) depending on weed growth. The other
102 treatment was a cover crop (hereafter CC) of *Lolium* (*rigidum* or *multiflorum*, depending on
103 seed availability) manually sown during early fall at 100 kg of seed per ha in the area
104 outside the vertical olive canopy projection.

105

106 The intercrop strip was fertilized every year with Nitrogen (50 kg/ha of N) during the fall by
107 direct application on the soil in the CC plots. Weeds were chemically killed, using a
108 mixture of Paraquat 12% and Diquat 8% at a rate of 4 L ha⁻¹ using 400 L ha⁻¹ of solution,
109 in late winter or early spring to avoid competition for water with the olive trees. In both

110 treatments, soil surface in the tree line was kept bare through the periodical use of herbicide
111 (Fluroxipir and Flazasulfuron). Olive trees were fertilized with ammonium sulphate in
112 February (1.6 kg per tree) and from April to October, during the irrigation season. The
113 fertilizer was applied with the irrigation water, at the rates required for replenishment, as
114 indicated by periodic foliar analyses. The amount of water applied during the irrigation
115 season was, on average, 240 mm, although it varied slightly from year to year depending on
116 the rainfall conditions.

117

118 Runoff and sediment collection started in these two plots on September 1st 2003. During the
119 summer of 2005, two additional runoff plots were installed as replications of the original
120 CT and CC treatments. Differential soil management started in the area the season before
121 the delimitation of the runoff plots, as it had been done in the previous ones. Monitoring in
122 these additional plots started on September 1st 2005.

123

124 The runoff generated on each plot was directed to a system of three fiberglass collection
125 tanks with flow splitters (ratio 1:15) allowing measurement of up to 110 m³ equivalent to
126 230 mm of runoff. Once carefully leveled, the splitters were kept free of leaves, small
127 branches and other organic residues with a small protection net located upstream. The
128 experiment site was completed with an automatic weather station. On the first working day
129 after a single large rain event, or after a weather front consisting of several rain pulses or
130 events, the collection tanks were sampled. Runoff volume and wet sediment weight were
131 measured in the tanks. A well-mixed water and sediment sample was taken for laboratory

132 analysis. The NO₃-N, NO₂-N concentration was estimated by colorimetry, dissolved P by
133 spectrophotometry and dissolved K using atomic absorption spectroscopy, in all cases
134 following the standard methods of Sparks (1996). The concentration of soil organic carbon,
135 hereafter SOC, in the sediment samples was estimated with the Walkley-Black method, that
136 of available P by extraction with sodium bicarbonate i.e. the Olsen method, and subsequent
137 spectrophotometry. The concentration of available K in the sediment was estimated by
138 extracting the sample with ammonium acetate, and that of organic N with the Kjeldahl
139 method, again following Sparks (1996). When there was a sufficient mass of sediment
140 sample, the particle size distribution and the relative mass of clay, silt, and sand, were
141 determined using the standard Bouyoucos method (*e.g.* Dane and Topp, 2002). From
142 December 2004 to January 2005, the soil was sampled in the treatments at two soil depth
143 intervals, 0-10 and 10-20 cm, to measure the concentrations of SOC, organic N, available P
144 and K, with the same methods used in the sediment analysis, (Sparks 1996) and the
145 fractions of clay, silt and sand again (Dane and Topp 2002). There were 4 replications for
146 every case. The results are shown in Table 1.

147

148 The statistical analyses were made following standard methods (*e.g.* Press *et al.* 1992,
149 Chap. 14).

150

151

RESULTS

152

153 The different rainfall-runoff events recorded in the plots under the two soil treatments are
154 shown in Figure 2, and the sediment yield of the same events in Figure 3. In addition to the
155 influence of the intense rainfall during the first year 2003-2004 on the runoff yield in both
156 treatments, the cover crop treatment produced a smaller runoff volume than the
157 conventional tillage treatment in all the events, except in those occurring in the fall of 2004.
158 The hydrologic year 2004-2005 was one of the driest on record. During the following years,
159 2005-2006, and 2006-2007 the differences were very large, especially in the event on 9 May
160 2007, whose erosive effects were fairly obvious in the plots and in the collection tanks.
161 Figures 4 and 5 compare the different extent of soil erosion in both treatments. In these
162 Figures it can be seen how a rill developed in one of the CT plots, whereas no rill was
163 apparent in the neighboring CC plot. The analysis made in the years when treatments were
164 replicated indicates that these differences are statistically significant as can be observed in
165 the cumulative annual data of Table 2. These results stress the importance of a proper soil
166 management to reduce water loss and nutrient export. The cover crop produced a runoff
167 volume of 6 % of the total rainfall, whereas conventional tillage produced 16% of annual
168 rainfall as runoff.

169

170 The annual cumulative soil loss in both treatments, with a much greater one in CT than in
171 CC, is shown in Table 2 The differences in soil loss in both treatments were significant
172 during the years when the treatments were replicated (Table 2). The sediment yields
173 depended not only on the runoff generation but on the intensity of the erosive effects of the
174 rain, both of which were higher in the unprotected soil of the conventional tillage treatment.

175 The results reflect a large interannual variability of soil losses in the CT treatment that
176 ranged from 1.98 to 50.1 t ha⁻¹ year⁻¹. Annual soil loss in the CC treatment varied much
177 less, ranging from 0.12 to 0.77 t ha⁻¹ year⁻¹.

178

179 The annual dissolved nutrient losses in runoff water are shown in Table 3. There were
180 higher losses of NO₃-N, NO₂-N, dissolved P and K in the CT than in the CC treatment,
181 except in the very dry year of 2004/05, in which the trend was reversed, especially in the
182 cases of phosphorus. Table 4 presents the every two months average nutrient concentrations
183 in runoff water. The soluble nutrient concentration in the runoff originating in the CC
184 treatment was higher than the corresponding losses with the CT treatment, although the
185 great variability and the limited number of replications reduced the statistical significance
186 in the period. The higher concentration of nutrients in the runoff water under the cover crop
187 method was compensated for by the lower runoff generation of the treatment.

188

189 Table 5 summarizes nutrient and SOC losses in sediment during the whole period. The
190 losses from the CT treatment were much greater, around one order of magnitude higher,
191 than those recorded from the CC treatment. Year to year variations within each treatment
192 followed a similar pattern to that of the sediment yield, with a greater variation in the CT
193 treatment and a mitigation of the differences between both treatments in the driest year,
194 2004/05. Table 6 presents the average nutrient and SOC content in sediment during the
195 experiment period. The same as in the case of the soluble nutrients in the runoff, the
196 concentration of the adsorbed nutrients in the sediment tended to be higher in the cover

197 crop treatment than in conventional tillage, made up for by the reduced mass of sediment
198 produced in the former. Enrichment ratios of nutrient in sediment, calculated from the soil
199 nutrient contents in Table 1, seemed to be higher in the CC treatment for organic N and
200 SOC, and similar in both treatments for available P and K (data not shown) The scant mass
201 of sediment collected in the CC treatment prevented a general comparison of the sediment
202 particle size distribution between both treatments. In one case in which the analysis was
203 made for CT there were average sediment enrichment ratios of 0.70, 1.23, 1.57 for sand, silt
204 and clay, and for the CC treatment of 0.45, 1.95, and 1.45 for sand, silt and clay. These
205 results suggest a net enrichment in fine particles of the sediment in both treatments, which
206 was more evident in the CC treatment.

207

208

DISCUSSION

209

210 Soil management had an important impact on runoff yield in this experiment, with an
211 average reduction of 59 mm year⁻¹ in the CC compared to the CT treatment, roughly 10% of
212 the average annual rainfall during the study period (Table 1). The average runoff rates and
213 relative treatment differences were similar to those reported in previous studies. Gómez *et*
214 *al.* (2004) measured average annual runoff coefficients of 7.4 and 2.5% for CT and CC,
215 respectively, while Francia *et al.* (2006) measured average annual runoff coefficients of 15
216 and 2.5 % for CT and CC, respectively, in shorter plots. The results confirm that the cover
217 crop, once established, reduces runoff yield more efficiently than the conventional tillage
218 treatment, in spite of the potential retention of water due to increased roughness shortly

219 after the tillage operation, or to the sponginess of the surface layer, whose bulk density was
220 lower than the corresponding value for the cover crop treatment. The data of individual
221 events, especially in the last two years, reinforce this conclusion.

222

223 Likewise, cover crop is a good soil conservation practice compared to conventional tillage.
224 Average annual soil losses in the CC treatment were two orders of magnitude smaller than
225 those measured in the CT treatment. This was the result not only of a lower runoff yield, but
226 also of a lower sediment concentration in the CC treatment. The water infiltrated more
227 easily into the soil under the protective plants, and, at the same time, the increased flow
228 resistance dissipated the energy of the surface water, and the aerial part of the plant
229 intercepted part of the sediment particles carried by the water (*e.g.* Dunkerley *et al.* 2001).
230 Soil losses in the CT treatment were within the upper range of recorded values obtained in
231 erosion plots in olive orchards. In a two year period, Francia *et al.* (2006) measured, in
232 runoff plots of 192 m² on a loamy soil with a 30% slope, soil losses of 5.7 and 25.6 t ha⁻¹
233 year⁻¹ for CT and NT soil management. Bruggeman *et al.* (2005) found soil losses of 41.6 t
234 ha⁻¹ year⁻¹ in a large plot on CT on a 24% slope in Syria in a four-year period. There are
235 references in the literature of much lower rates of soil losses in CT; for instance, Gómez *et*
236 *al.* (2004) measured 4 t ha⁻¹ year⁻¹ in 72 m² runoff plots on a 13.2 % slope during a three-
237 year period. Measurements in small plots also yielded lower values, such as those of de la
238 Rosa *et al.* (2005), who reported an average of 0.25 t ha⁻¹ year⁻¹ in runoff plots of 8 m² on a
239 6% slope during a 2 month period, and Ordóñez-Fernández *et al.* (2007) who determined an
240 average of 1.4 t ha⁻¹ year⁻¹ losses using 1 m² plots with slopes ranging from 1.5 to 7% during

241 a two year period. The results obtained in this experiment indicate that, under CT, erosion
242 rates on a hillslope scale in olive groves can be much higher than the tolerable rates of 5-12
243 t ha⁻¹ year⁻¹ (Montgomery, 2007). These results recommend, as Parsons *et al.* (2004) pointed
244 out, that, to adequately monitor the key processes of water erosion on a hillslope, a common
245 setting for olive orchards in the Mediterranean region, erosion plots must be of a sufficient
246 length for large rills to develop, as shown in Figure 4. Experiments with smaller plots do
247 not seem appropriate for this purpose.

248

249 Intense isolated erosion events, like that of 9 May, 2007 (Figure 3), exert a great influence
250 on the long term average erosion rates. This reinforces the need for continued studies, made
251 not only on a representative scale, but also performed during a sufficiently long period.

252

253 A large reduction of soil loss with the cover crop treatment as compared to that with tillage
254 has also been reported in previous studies; Bruggeman *et al.* (2005) and Francia *et al.*
255 (2006) in their cover crop plots measured 5.08 and 2.1 t ha⁻¹ year⁻¹, compared to 41.6 and
256 5.7 t ha⁻¹ year⁻¹, respectively

257

258 Average annual nutrient losses both dissolved in runoff and adsorbed in the sediment were
259 greater in the CT treatment, compared to the cover crop treatment. The differences between
260 treatments were due to a higher runoff and sediment yield with the conventional tillage
261 treatment, since nutrient concentration in runoff seemed to be similar or slightly higher in
262 the CC treatment, see Table 4. The nitrogen data are within the range of those measured by

263 Franklin *et al.* (2007). The dissolved P concentrations of Table 4 are similar to those of
264 Srinivasan *et al.* (2007). Francia *et al.* (2006) also found greater nutrient losses in runoff in
265 the CT treatments compared to the CC management. The average annual nutrient losses in
266 runoff of NO₃-N measured in this experiment were smaller than those determined by
267 Francia *et al.* (2006), while losses in dissolved K were greater in our experiment than in
268 theirs, and those in dissolved P were similar. These differences can be attributed to the
269 chemical properties of the soils and to the fertilizer application rates on each farm. The
270 average annual concentration of NO₃-N in runoff, Table 4, measured in this experiment was
271 below the limit of the 10 mg L⁻¹ recommended for drinking water by the US EPA (2004),
272 although during many periods the average concentrations were above that limit, especially
273 in the CC treatment. Average two-month concentrations of NO₂-N in runoff were also under
274 the limit of 1 mg L⁻¹ of the drinking water standards of the US EPA (2004) see Table 4.
275 NO₃-N concentrations in runoff water were above the background levels indicated for
276 European rivers, 0.4 to 4 mg L⁻¹ (Nixon *et al.* 2003). Average dissolved P content in runoff
277 water, Table 4, were significantly above the background level in European rivers, around
278 0.01 mg L⁻¹ (Nixon *et al.*, 2003), for both treatments. They were also above the range, 0.025
279 to 0.1 mg L⁻¹, proposed by MacDonald *et al.* (1991) to limit the increase in productivity of
280 aquatic ecosystems. NO₃-N and dissolved P concentrations indicate a significant potential
281 for eutrophication of the runoff. Given the larger amount of runoff generated from the tilled
282 areas, the water pollution risk is much higher than in the orchards where the cover crop has
283 been adopted as a soil and water conservation practice. In our experiment, this risk is still
284 not negligible under CC management, when heavy rain occurs. Average dissolved K

285 concentrations were almost always below the upper limit of 12 mg L⁻¹ recommended for
286 drinking water, Table 4.

287

288 Organic N, SOC, available K and P losses in sediment were higher in the CT treatments,
289 especially in the years with large erosive events, due to the high sediment yield rates, Table
290 5. Higher total N, P and K losses in sediment from tilled olive orchards as compared to
291 orchards with a cover crop have also been reported by Francia *et al.* (2006) and Ordóñez-
292 Fernández *et al.* (2007) for the P data only. The magnitude of the losses measured in this
293 experiment was in the lower range of the values presented by Francia *et al.* (2006) and in
294 the upper range of those presented by Ordóñez-Fernández *et al.* (2006). Overall available P
295 and K losses in sediment were too low to induce nutrient deficiency in the orchards either in
296 the short or medium term, but can contribute significantly to the nutrient discharge to
297 surface water bodies, especially in the CT treatment. In the CT treatment the main source of
298 P in the water was in the sediment transported by runoff (Tables 3 and 6). This is in line
299 with the distribution of P losses in other agricultural systems suffering high erosion rates
300 (Hart *et al.* 2004) as was the case of the CT treatment. With the CC treatment, with low
301 sediment losses, most of the P losses were as dissolved P in runoff. In the CT treatment, P
302 losses were highly correlated with the years with a large runoff and sediment losses, Tables
303 3 and 6, indicated the importance of the effect of large single events on P losses, as
304 previously noted by several authors for high erosion risks under Mediterranean conditions
305 (*e.g.* Torrent *et al.* 2007). Differences in the average nutrient concentration in sediment in
306 our experiment might be associated with differences in the enrichment ratio of the sediment

307 in organic N, SOC and available K, related to a selective enrichment with soil fine fraction
308 compared to the CT treatment. The CC treatment presented a significantly higher content of
309 available P, Table 1, which could be an additional reason for the higher dissolved P
310 concentration of sediment in the CC treatment. These results show that water erosion was a
311 significant mechanism of carbon losses in the CT plots, with average annual losses in the
312 upper range of carbon losses due to erosion reported in other runoff plot studies in
313 temperate (Quinton *et al.* 2006) and Mediterranean climates (Roose and Barthès 2005). The
314 carbon losses in the CC treatment were in the lower range of values reported for
315 Mediterranean areas (Roose and Barthès 2005).

316

317 In spite of the cover crop environmental advantages, the farmers in the area are, in general,
318 reluctant to adopt it. This behavior is a general feature of farmers in different regions
319 (Helling and Haigh 2002), especially if the proposed practice does not represent an
320 immediate increase in the crop yield. One of the key reasons for this reluctance is the need
321 for a careful management of the cover crop to avoid competition for water with the olive
322 tree (Gómez *et al.*, 2005), especially under rainfed conditions in which there is no
323 possibility of compensating for excessive water consumption by the cover crop during
324 spring time through irrigation. Another reason is that, for many farmers, tillage (especially
325 surface tillage as performed in this experiment) is still less expensive than cover crop soil
326 management. The cost of management by the CT treatment used in this experiment has
327 been estimated at 75 € ha⁻¹ year⁻¹ while the average costs of a soil management based on
328 cover crops in this orchard has been estimated at 211 € ha⁻¹ year⁻¹ (Baena, 2008).

329 Nevertheless, farmers do use practices of what is called better land husbandry (Shaxson *et*
330 *al.* 1997), which are not aggressive to the environment and, at the same time, are relatively
331 easy to maintain and which will produce at least medium and long term benefits. The
332 environmental benefits of cover crop soil management in olive orchards suggest that is
333 worth pursuing the adoption of this technique by olive farmers and for this it is necessary to
334 address the reasons indicated above.

335

336

CONCLUSIONS

337

338 These results indicate that for the experiment conditions, which are representative of large
339 areas of olive cultivation in the Mediterranean, tillage-based soil management in olive
340 orchards results in erosion rates (average of $19 \text{ t ha}^{-1} \text{ year}^{-1}$) that are well above the tolerable
341 ones (Montgomery, 2007), and also produce heavy losses of soil carbon due to water
342 erosion. Most of the sediment losses in the CT treatment occurred in a few intense events.
343 Sediment losses in CT were associated with large runoff losses that not only reduced the
344 infiltration of rainfall to be used later by the crop, but that were also a significant source of
345 nutrients loss, thus increasing the risk of eutrophication. The results were obtained in a
346 situation in which CT used a reduced number of shallow passes as compared to the
347 common practice of many passes in many olive growing areas. The alternative system based
348 on a cover crop managed with herbicides in spring reduced soil losses down to tolerable
349 rates of $0.4 \text{ t ha}^{-1} \text{ year}^{-1}$. Reduction in runoff and sediment losses also triggered a significant
350 reduction in organic matter and nutrient losses. This indicates that, although there is a clear

351 and significant decrease in the risk of eutrophication of surface waters when CC is used as
352 compared to CT, runoff waters from an orchard under CC management could also have
353 episodes of a significant nutrient contribution to surface waters.

354

355

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

356

357 The support of the ProTerra project, funded by Syngenta Ltd, is gratefully acknowledged.

358 The contribution of the Junta de Andalucía research project AGR2349 is also

359 acknowledged. We appreciated the collaboration of the Soil laboratories in the Department

360 of Natural Resources at IFAPA, Alameda del Obispo, and of the Dept. of Agrarian Sciences

361 and Resources at the University of Córdoba, who analyzed many of the sediment and runoff

362 samples. We are also grateful for the comments and suggestions from two anonymous

363 reviewers who have helped to improve the manuscript.

364

365

REFERENCES

366

367 Baena, J.A. 2008. Evaluación de la protección del suelo en olivar por diferentes cubiertas

368 vegetales en el año de su establecimiento. Agric. Engr. Diploma Diss. Dept. of Agronomy.

369 University of Cordoba.

370

371 Bruggeman, A., Masri, Z., Turkelboom, F. 2005. Strategies to sustain productivity of olive

372 groves on steep slopes in the northwest of the Syrian Arab Republic. In: Benites, J., Pisante,

373 M., Stagnari, F. (Eds.), *Integrated Soil and Water Management for Orchard Development;*
374 *Role and Importance*. FAO Land and Water Bulletin, vol. 10. FAO, Rome.

375

376 Clark, A. (Coord.). 2007. *Managing cover crops profitably*, 3rd ed. Handbook Series Book
377 9. Sustainable Agriculture Network, Beltsville, MD.

378

379 Dane, J.H., Topp, G.C. coeds. 2002. *Methods of soil analysis. Part. 4. Physical methods..*
380 SSSA Book Ser. 5. American Society of Agronomy, Madison, WI.

381

382 De la Rosa, D., Díaz-Pereira, E., Mayol, F., Czyz, E.A., Dexter, A.R., Dumitru, E., Enache,
383 R., Fleige, H., Horn, R., Rajkay, K., Simota, C., 2005. SIDASS Project: Part 2. Soil erosion
384 as a function of soil type and agricultural management in a Sevilla olive area, southern
385 Spain. *Soil and Tillage Research*, 82, 19-28.

386

387 Dunkerley, D., Domelow, P., Tooth, D. 2001. Frictional retardation of laminar flow by
388 plant litter and surface stones on dryland surfaces- A laboratory study. *Water Resources*
389 *Research*. 37: 1417-1423.

390

391 FAO, 2008. Agricultural statistics available at <http://faostat.fao.org>. Accessed 01/22/2008.
392

393 Francia, J.R., Durán Zuazo, V.H., A. Martínez. 2006. Environmental impact from
394 mountainous olive orchards under different soil management systems (SE Spain). *Science*
395 *of the Total Environment* 358: 46-60.

396

397 Franklin, D. Truman, C., Potter, T., Bosch, D., Strickland, T., Bednarz, C. 2007. Nitrogen
398 and phosphorus runoff losses from variable and constant intensity rainfall. Simulations on
399 loamy sand under conventional and strip tillage systems. *Journal of Environmental Quality*,
400 36:846–854.

401

402 García del Barrio, I.; Malvárez, L.; González, J. J. 1975. *Mapas provinciales de suelos:*
403 *Sevilla*. Mapa Agronómico Nacional. Instituto Nacional de Investigaciones Agronómicas,
404 Ministerio de Agricultura. Madrid. (in Spanish).

405

406 Gómez, J.A., P. Romero, J.V. Giráldez, and E. Fereres. 2004. Experimental assessment of
407 runoff and soil erosion in an olive grove on a Vertic soil in southern Spain as affected by
408 soil management. *Soil Use and Management* 20: 426-431.

409

410 Gómez, J.A., J.V. Giráldez, and E. Fereres. 2005. Water erosion in olive orchards in
411 Andalusia (Southern Spain): a review. Proceedings of the general assembly of the European
412 Geophysical Union. Viena, April 24-29th 2005.

413

414 Hart, M.R., Quin, B.F., Nguyen, M.N. 2004. Phosphorus runoff from agricultural land and
415 direct fertilizer effects: a review. *Journal of Environmental Quality* 33: 1954-1972.

416

417 Helling, J, Haigh, M.J. 2002. Better land husbandry in Honduras: towards the new
418 paradigm in conserving soil, water and productivity. *Land Degradation & Development*, 13:
419 233–250.

420

421 MacDonald, L.H., Smart, A.W., Wissmar, R.C. *Monitoring guidelines to evaluate effects of*
422 *forestry activities on streams in the Pacific Northwest and Alaska*. U.S. Environmental
423 Protection Agency Report; 1991. LPA 910/9-91-001.

424

425 Montgomery, D.R., 2007. Soil erosion and agricultural sustainability. *Proceedings of the*
426 *National Academy of Sciences* 104, 13268-13272.

427

428 Nixon, S., Trent, Z., Marcuello, C., Lallana, C., 2003. *Europe's water: An indicator-based*
429 *assessment*. European Environmental Agency. Copenhagen.

430

431 Ordóñez-Fernández, R., Rodríguez-Lizana, A., Espejo-Pérez, A.J., González-Fernández, P.,
432 Saavedra, M.M. 2007. Soil and available phosphorus losses in ecological olive groves.
433 *European Journal of Agronomy* 27: 144-153.

434

435 Parsons, A.J., Wainwright, J.W., Powell, D.M. Kaduk, J, Brazier, R. 2004. A conceptual
436 model for determining soil erosion by water, *Earth Surface Processes and Landforms*, **29**,
437 1293-1302.

438

439 Pastor, M., Castro, J., Vega, V., Humanes, M.D., 1999. Sistemas de manejo del suelo. In:
440 Barranco, D., Fernández-Escobar, R., Rallo, L. (Eds.). *El cultivo del olivo*. Mundi Prensa.
441 Madrid. (in Spanish)

442

443 Press, W.H., Teukolsky, S.A., Vetterling, W.T., Flannery, B.P. 1992. *Numerical Recipes in*
444 *C: The Art of Scientific Computing*. Cambridge University Press. Cambridge.

445

446 Quinton, J., N., Catt, J.A., Wood, G.A., Steer, J. 2006. Soil carbon losses by water erosion:
447 experimentation and modeling at field and national scales in the U.K. *Agriculture,*
448 *Ecosystems and Environment* 112: 87-102.

449

450 Rallo, L., Barranco, D., Caballero, J.M., del Río, C., Martín, A., Tous, J., Trujillo, I. 2005.
451 *Variedades de olivo en España*. Mundi Prensa, Madrid. (in Spanish)

452

453 Roose, E., Barthès, B. 2005. Soil carbon erosion and its selectivity at the plot scale in
454 tropical and Mediterranean regions. In: Roose, E.J., Lal, R., Feller, C., Barthès, B., Stewart,
455 B.A. (Eds.), *Soil Erosion and Carbon Dynamics*. CRC. Boca Raton, FL.

456

457 Shaxson, F., Tiffen, M., Wood, A., Turton, C. 1997. Better land husbandry: re-thinking
458 approaches to land improvement and the conservation of water and soil. ODI Natural
459 Resource Perspectives No. 19. Overseas Development Institute: London.

460

461 Sparks, D.L. 1996. (Ed.) *Methods of soil analysis. Part. 3. Chemical methods.* SSSA Book
462 Ser. 5. Am. Soc. Agron., Madison, WI.

463

464 Srinivasan, M.S., Kleinmann, P.J.A., Sharpley, A.N., Buob, T., Gburek, W.J., 2007,
465 Hydrology of small field plots used to study phosphorus runoff under simulated rainfall,
466 *Journal of Environmental Quality* 36:1833–1842.

467

468 Torrent, J., Barberis, B., Gil-Sotres, F. 2007. Agriculture as a source of phosphorus for
469 eutrophication in southern Europe. *Soil Use and Management* 23: 23-35.

470

471 Triplett, Jr., G.B., Dick, W.A. 2008. No-tillage crop production: A revolution in agriculture!
472 *Agronomy Journal*. 100:S-153–S-165.

473

474 U.S. Environmental Protection Agency. 2004. 2004 Edition of the Drinking Water
475 Standards and Health Advisories. EPA 822-R-04-005. Office of Water. U.S. Environmental
476 Protection Agency, Washington, DC

477

<i>Depth</i>	<i>N_{organic}</i> %		<i>SOC</i> %		<i>P_{available}</i> $\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$		<i>K_{available}</i> $\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$	
	CT	CC	CT	CC	CT	CC	CT	CC
0-10 cm	0.07	0.09	0.75	0.93	9.8a	20.3b	150.4	230.8
10-20 cm	0.04	0.04	0.46	0.58	9.1	7.3	126.0	106.7
	<i>Clay</i> %		<i>Silt</i> %		<i>Sand</i> %		<i>Bulk density</i> kg m^{-3}	
	CT	CC	CT	CC	CT	CC	CT	CC
0-10 cm	15.1	15.4	31.8	34.0	53.1	50.6	1440	1680
10-20 cm	16.1	20.1	37.4	43.6	46.5	36.3	1560	1460

479

480

481

482

483

484

485

486

487

488

489

490

491

492

493

494

495

496

497

498

499

500

501

502

503

504

505

506

507

508

509

510

Table 1: Average values of chemical and physical soil properties measured in January-February 2005 in the experiment plots. Except for available P values, in the top soil layer, indicated by different letters, the data were not significantly different at $P > 0.90$ level.

511
512
513

<i>Year</i>	<i>Rainfall mm</i>	<i>Runoff mm</i>		<i>Soil loss kg m⁻² year⁻¹</i>		<i>Sediment concentration kg m⁻³</i>	
		CT	CC	CT	CC	CT	CC
2003/04	858	210.8	85.4	5.01	.049	23.8	0.6
2004/05	268	12.4	21.1	.198	.076	16.0	3.6
2005/06	603	39.0a	9.4a	.303a	.012b	8.0a	1.6b
2006/07	573	105.1a	14.8b	2.24a	.023b	21.3a	1.6b
Average	576	91.9	32.7	1.94	.040	17.3	1.9

514
515
516
517
518
519
520
521
522
523
524
525

Table 2: Average annual soil loss and runoff yield. For years with replicated plots (2005/06 and 2006/07) average values followed by different letters are significantly different at P > 0.99, in **Bold**, or P>0.90, in *Italics*.

<i>Year</i>	NO₃-N		<i>NO₂-N</i>		<i>dissolved P</i>		<i>dissolved K</i>	
	kg ha⁻¹year⁻¹							
	CT	CC	CT	CC	CT	CC	CT	CC
2003/04	2.05	1.23	-	-	0.34	0.09	4.57	3.27
2004/05	0.46	3.67	-	-	0.16	1.08	0.60	2.34
2005/06	1.11a	0.65a	0.04a	0.01b	0.02a	0.02a	1.80a	0.62a
2006/07	9.51a	1.43b	0.07a	0.01b	0.25a	0.13b	4.80a	0.77b
Average	3.28	1.75	0.06	0.01	0.19	0.33	2.94	1.75

527

528

529

530

531

Table 3: Average annual nutrient losses in the runoff. For years with replicated plots (2005/06 and 2006/07) average values followed by different letters are significantly different at $P > 0.99$, in **bold**, or $P > 0.90$, in *italics*.

Year	Period	NO_3-N		NO_2-N		<i>dissolved P</i>		<i>dissolved K</i>	
		CT	CC	CT	CC	CT	CC	CT	CC
$mg L^{-1}$									
2003/04	Sep-Oct	3.27	0.33	-	-	0.00	0.01	7.38	0.92
	Nov-Dec	0.70	0.93	-	-	0.17	0.04	2.02	3.28
	Jan-Feb	5.82	6.21	-	-	0.16	0.27	3.94	5.89
	Mar-Apr	3.84	3.43	-	-	0.10	0.63	4.60	6.96
	May-Jun	1.50	0.81	-	-	0.14	0.25	2.15	9.35
	Jul-Aug	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Annual Average	0.97	1.44	-	-	0.16	0.11	2.17	3.83
2004/05	Sep-Oct	4.02	18.0	-	-	1.25	5.27	4.92	11.1
	Nov-Dec	1.74	5.50	-	-	1.85	5.71	4.24	9.00
	Jan-Feb	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Mar-Apr	1.67	1.12	-	-	1.25	0.11	6.62	12.0
	May-Jun	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Jul-Aug	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Annual Average	3.71	17.4	-	-	1.29	5.11	4.84	11.1
2005/06	Sep-Oct	2.64a	14.1a	0.02a	0.06a	0.05a	0.58a	2.73a	5.84a
	Nov-Dec	7.48a	12.4a	0.03a	0.03a	0.06a	0.05a	5.29a	4.65a
	Jan-Feb	2.37a	5.61a	0.10a	0.05b	0.04a	0.07a	5.52a	5.55a
	Mar-Apr	3.98a	4.29a	0.12a	0.06b	0.06a	0.18a	6.11a	7.62a
	May-Jun	4.81a	4.72a	0.16a	0.04a	0.08a	0.19a	7.03a	4.30a
	Jul-Aug	5.80a	5.65a	0.08a	0.05a	0.09a	0.33a	8.80a	5.00a
	Annual Average	2.85a	6.91a	0.10a	0.11a	0.05a	0.21a	4.62a	6.59a
2006/07	Sep-Oct	2.94a	5.46b	0.08a	0.05a	0.51a	2.20a	4.62a	5.94a
	Nov-Dec	1.10a	3.16b	0.04a	0.03b	0.06a	0.14a	1.86a	2.33b
	Jan-Feb	7.54a	14.9a	0.03a	0.03a	0.11a	0.54a	3.56a	4.28a
	Mar-Apr	14.1a	33.2a	0.03a	0.05a	0.11a	0.42a	3.82a	4.66a
	May-Jun	24.0a	14.1a	0.05a	0.05a	0.09a	0.18a	6.95a	6.00a
	Jul-Aug	14.2a	21.6a	0.04a	0.05b	0.08a	0.27b	5.73a	5.70a
	Annual Average	9.05a	9.66a	0.07a	0.07a	0.24a	0.88b	4.57a	5.20a
Average 2003/07		3.57	5.35	0.08	0.08	0.21	1.01	3.20	5.35

533

534

535

536

537

Table 4: Average bimonthly nutrient concentration in the runoff. For years with replicated plots (2005/06 and 2006/07) average values followed by different letters are significantly different at $P > 0.95$, in **bold**, or $P > 0.90$, in *italics*.

<i>Year</i>	<i>N_{organic}</i>		<i>SOC</i>		<i>P_{available}</i>		<i>K_{available}</i>	
	kg ha⁻¹year⁻¹							
	CT	CC	CT	CC	CT	CC	CT	CC
2003/04	49.4	0.72	404.	7.42	0.86	0.01	6.62	0.08
2004/05	1.61	1.08	21.7	10.5	0.05	0.06	0.32	0.24
2005/06	4.65a	0.22a	40.9a	1.84a	0.04a	0.004a	0.60a	0.03a
2006/07	25.4a	0.56b	470.a	5.44b	0.31a	0.014b	<i>1.95a</i>	<i>0.04b</i>
Average								
2003/07	20.3	0.65	234.	6.31	0.32	0.02	2.37	0.10

539

540

541

542

543

Table 5: Average annual nutrient losses adsorbed in the sediment. For years with replicated plots (2005/06 and 2006/07) average values followed by different letters are significantly different at $P > 0.95$, in **bold**, or $P > 0.90$, in *italics*.

Year	Period	$N_{organic}$ %		SOC %		$P_{available}$ $\mu g\ g^{-1}$		$K_{available}$ $\mu g\ g^{-1}$	
		CT	CC	CT	CC	CT	CC	CT	CC
2003/04	Sep-Oct	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Nov-Dec	0.10	0.09	0.80	0.94	17.2	26.8	132.	140.
	Jan-Feb	0.13	-	1.11	-	16.7	-	99.5	-
	Mar-Apr	0.10	0.02	0.89	0.56	16.5	18.9	158.	111.
	May-Jun	-	0.33	-	3.22	-	26.7	-	237.
	Jul-Aug	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Annual	Average	0.10	0.15	0.81	1.51	17.2	20.4	132.	163.
2004/05	Sep-Oct	0.07	0.14	1.01	1.37	24.2	73.5	144.	313.
	Nov-Dec	0.20	0.04	2.13	0.39	54.5	96.1	376.	454.
	Jan-Feb	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Mar-Apr	0.15	0.31	3.46	2.46	48.9	69.1	557.	845.
	May-Jun	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Jul-Aug	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Annual	Average	0.08	0.14	1.09	1.36	25.3	78.9	162.	316.
2005/06	Sep-Oct	0.10a	0.10a	0.78a	0.53a	1.06a	21.1a	14.9a	168.a
	Nov-Dec	0.10a	0.12a	0.68a	0.80a	13.5a	32.6a	375.a	195.a
	Jan-Feb	0.19a	0.27a	1.75a	2.10a	13.6a	41.1a	299.a	362.a
	Mar-Apr	0.14a	0.24a	1.18a	1.91a	10.5a	44.0a	171.a	229.a
	May-Jun	0.08a	0.18a	1.40a	1.39a	14.9a	36.1a	40.5a	116.a
	Jul-Aug	0.18a	0.00b	2.78a	0.00b	36.7a	0.00b	138.a	0.00a
Annual	Average	0.19a	0.18a	1.35a	1.53a	13.2a	33.3a	198.a	250.a
2006/07	Sep-Oct	0.15a	0.24a	2.17a	2.47b	28.6a	64.0a	263a	198.a
	Nov-Dec	0.12a	0.24a	1.89a	2.17a	21.0a	56.9a	32.8a	68.0a
	Jan-Feb	0.17a	0.22a	2.04a	1.94a	15.0a	82.5a	22.0a	159.a
	Mar-Apr	0.32a	0.28a	1.79a	2.37a	7.10a	107.b	17.9a	199.a
	May-Jun	0.09a	0.23a	2.06a	2.42a	9.28a	54.3b	33.2a	103.a
	Jul-Aug	0.18a	0.23a	2.88a	2.40a	18.5a	76.3a	60.8a	151.b
Annual	Average	0.11a	0.24a	2.10a	2.37a	13.8a	60.9b	87.1a	174.a
Average 2003/07		0.11	0.16	1.21	1.56	16.5	50.0	122.	250.
Enrichment ratio		1.57	1.78	1.30	2.08	1.68	2.46	0.81	1.08

545

546

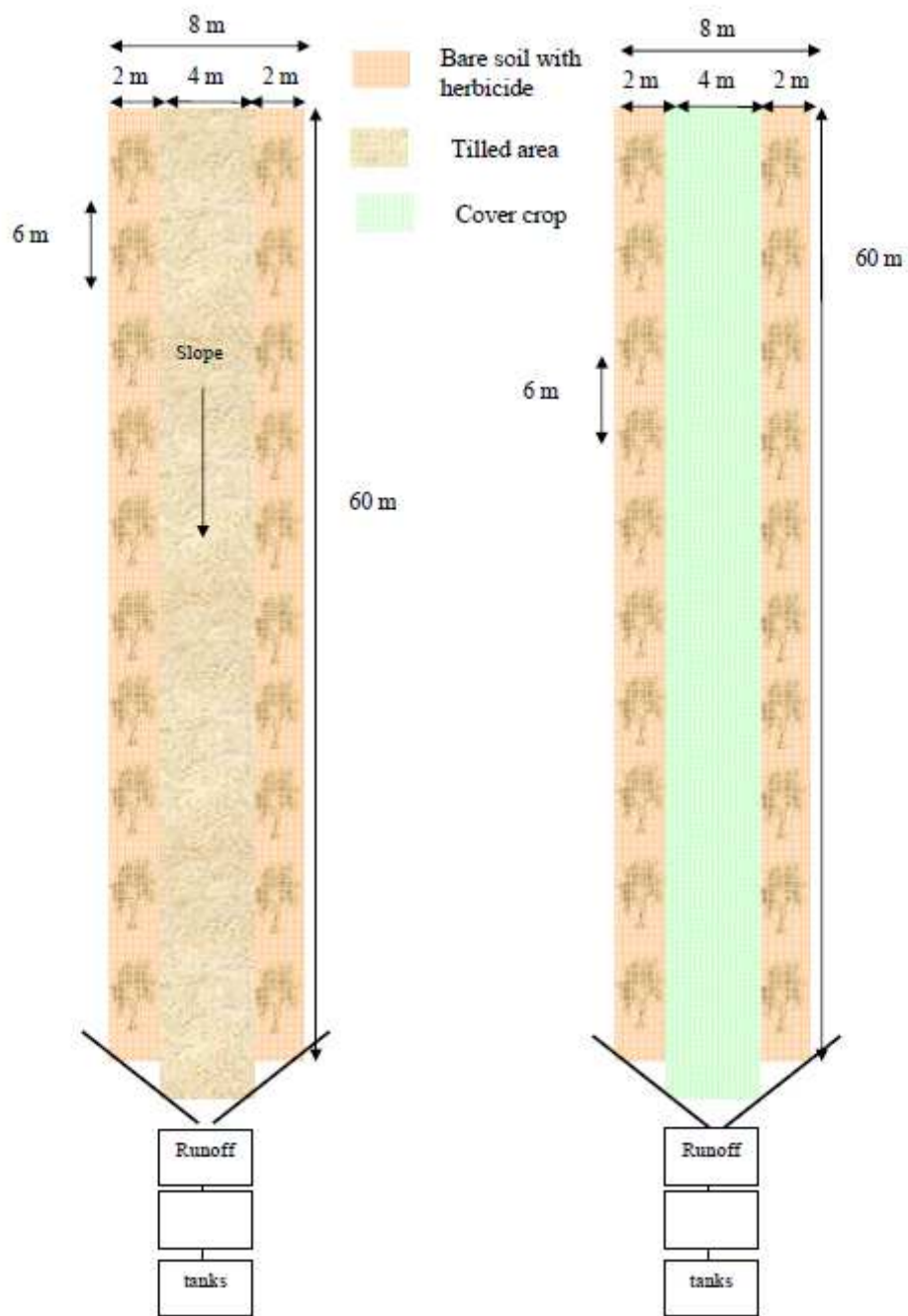
547

548

549

550

Table 6: Average bimonthly nutrient losses adsorbed in the sediment. For years with replicated plots (2005/06 and 2006/07) average values followed by different letters are significantly different at $P > 0.95$, in **bold**, or $P > 0.90$, in *italics*.



551

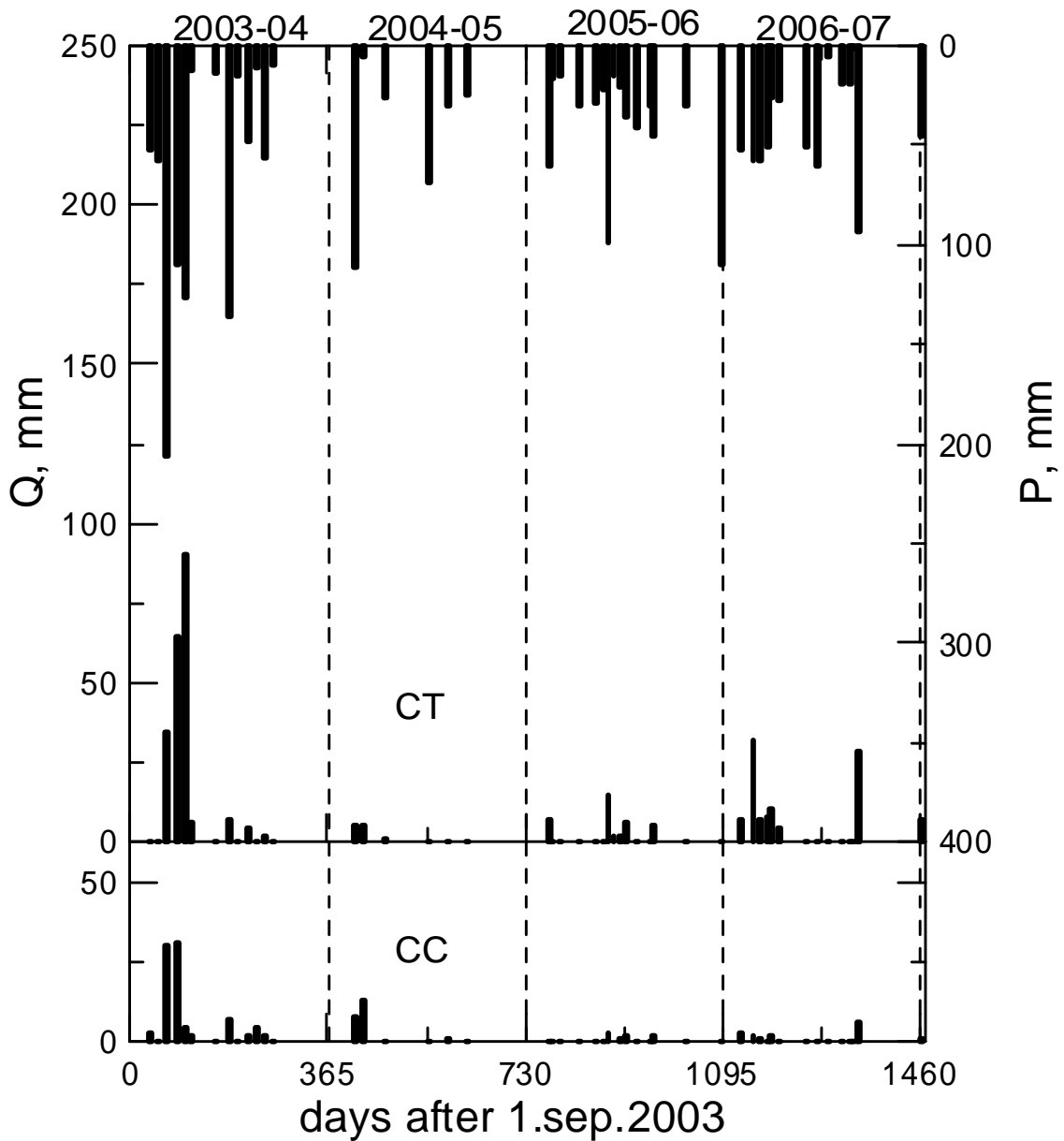
552 **Figure 1.** Description of the runoff plots under conventional tillage (left) and cover crop

553 (right) management

554

555

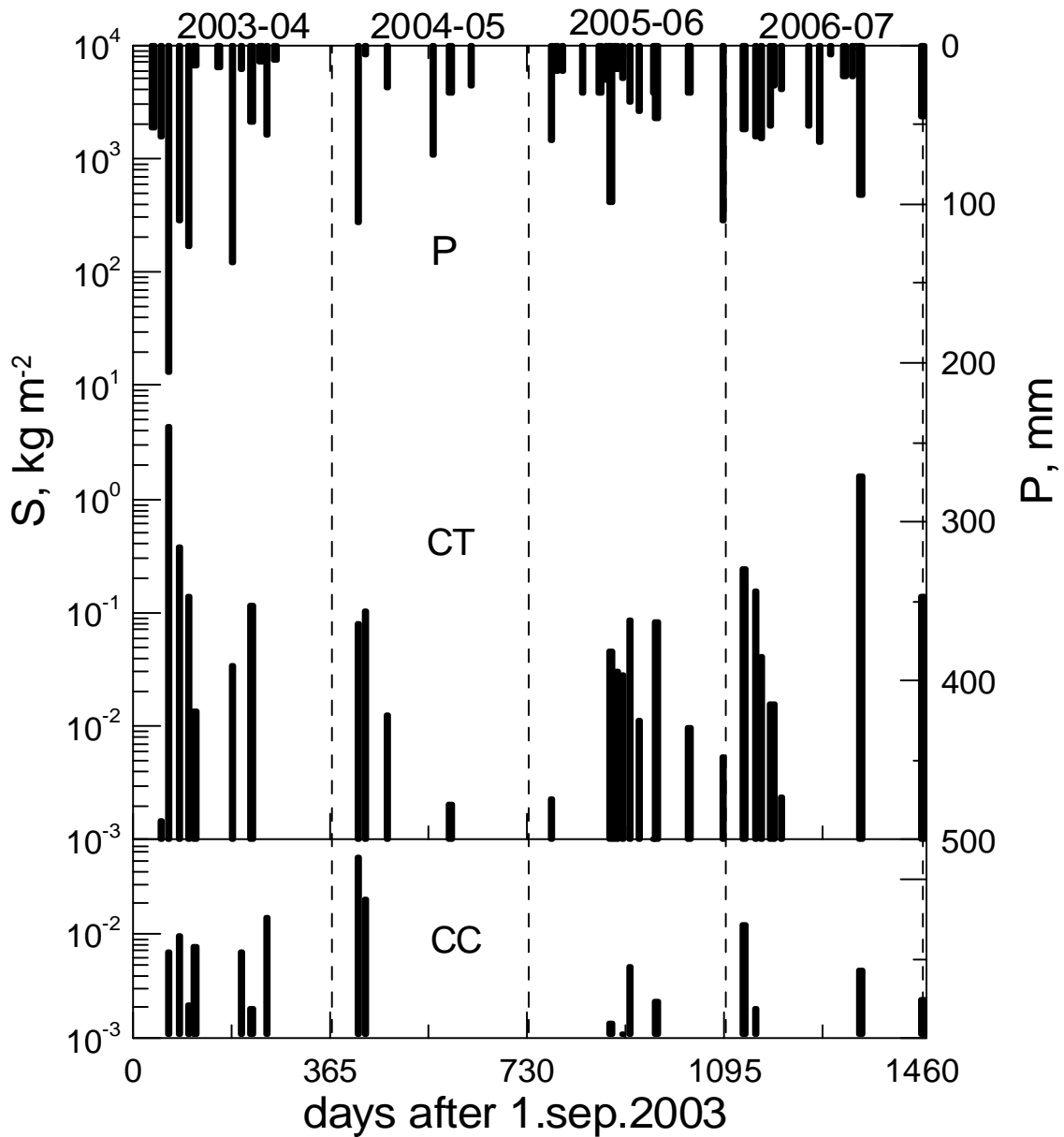
556
557
558
559



560
561
562
563
564
565
566
567
568

Figure 2. Rainfall and runoff produced in the different events in the hydrologic years of the period 2003-2007, under the conventional tillage, CT, and cover crop treatments. The runoff data of the last two years are the average values of the data recorded in the two replications.

569
570
571
572



573
574
575
576
577
578
579
580
581

Figure 3. Rainfall and sediment yield produced in the different events in the hydrologic years of the period 2003-2007, under the conventional tillage, CT, and cover crop treatments. The runoff data of the last two years are the average values of the data recorded in the two replications.

582
583
584
585
586
587
588
589
590
591
592
593
594
595
596
597
598
599
600
601
602
603
604
605
606
607
608
609
610
611
612
613
614
615
616
617
618
619
620
621
622
623
624
625
626
627



Figure 4. Downstream view of one of the CT plots after the intense rainfall event of 9 May 2007, with a long rill developed in the left, northern side.

628
629
630
631
632
633
634
635
636
637
638



639 **Figure 5.** Downstream view of one of the CC plots after the intense rainfall event of 9
640 May 2007, where there are no rills developed.
641
642
643
644
645