

1 **FROM PLOT TO REGIONAL SCALES: INTERACTIONS OF SLOPE AND**
2 **CATCHMENT HYDROLOGICAL AND GEOMORPHIC PROCESSES IN THE**
3 **SPANISH PYRENEES**

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18
19 **Abstract**

20 The hydrological and geomorphic effects of land use/land cover changes,
21 particularly those associated with vegetation regrowth after farmland abandonment were
22 investigated in the Central Spanish Pyrenees. The main focus was to assess the
23 interactions among slope, catchment, basin, and fluvial channel processes over a range
24 of spatial scales. In recent centuries most Mediterranean mountain areas have been
25 subjected to significant human pressure through deforestation, cultivation of steep
26 slopes, fires, and overgrazing. Depopulation commencing at the beginning of the 20th
27 century, and particularly since the 1960s, has resulted in farmland abandonment and a
28 reduction in livestock numbers, and this has led to an expansion of shrubs and forests.
29 Studies in the Central Spanish Pyrenees, based on experimental plots and catchments, in
30 large basins and fluvial channels, have confirmed that these land use changes have had
31 hydrological and geomorphic consequences regardless of the spatial scale considered,
32 and that processes occurring at any particular scale can be explained by such processes
33 acting on other scales. Studies using experimental plots have demonstrated that during
34 the period of greatest human pressure (mainly the 18th and 19th centuries), cultivation

35 of steep slopes caused high runoff rates and extreme soil loss. Large parts of the small
36 catchments behaved as runoff and sediment source areas, whereas the fluvial channels
37 of large basins showed signs of high torrentiality (braided morphology, bare
38 sedimentary bars, instability, prevalence of bedload transport). Depopulation has
39 concentrated most human pressure on the valley bottoms and specific locations such as
40 resorts, whereas the remainder of the area has been affected by an almost generalized
41 abandonment. Subsequent plant recolonization has resulted in a reduction of overland
42 flow and declining soil erosion. At a catchment scale this has caused a reduction in
43 sediment sources, and channel incision in the secondary streams. At the regional scale,
44 the most important consequences include a reduction in the frequency of floods,
45 reduced sediment yields, increasing stabilization of the fluvial channels (colonization of
46 sedimentary bars by riparian vegetation and a reduction in the braiding index), and
47 stabilization of the alluvial fans. These results demonstrate the complexity and
48 multiscalar nature of the interactions between land use and runoff generation, soil
49 erosion, sediment transport, and fluvial channel dynamics, and highlight the need to
50 adopt a multiscale approach in other mountain areas of the world.

51

52 **Keywords:** geomorphic scales, land cover changes, hillslope–channel interactions,
53 experimental catchments, experimental plots, Central Spanish Pyrenees.

54

55 **Introduction**

56 Mediterranean mountain areas are characterized by complex landscapes
57 resulting from natural gradients in climate, relief, plant cover, and soil properties
58 variability, and an intricate mosaic of human land uses (Thornes, 1999). There is
59 abundant evidence indicating that intensive human activity since the Neolithic,
60 particularly from the Bronze Age, has contributed substantially to plant cover and
61 landscape changes. These activities have resulted in deforestation, soil erosion,
62 sediment accumulation in alluvial plains and fans, and the development of deltas
63 (Goudie, 1986; García-Ruiz and Valero-Garcés, 1998; García-Ruiz and López-
64 Bermúdez, 2009; García-Ruiz, 2010), all of which have been exacerbated by the intense
65 rainstorms characteristic of the Mediterranean climate.

66 Very significant land use changes occurred in most Mediterranean mountain
67 areas during the last century (Taillefumier and Piégay, 2003). The changes in the
68 Spanish Pyrenees have been intensively studied by Lasanta (1988, 1989) and García-

69 Ruiz and Lasanta (1990, 1993). Following centuries of intense human pressure on the
70 environment, which included deforestation, cultivation of steep slopes and the frequent
71 use of fire to manage grasslands, the population began to decrease from the middle of
72 the 19th century, and, since the 1960s, there has been a marked decline in the impact on
73 the landscape. This resulted in (i) a reduction in the number of livestock, (ii) a
74 generalized abandonment of farmland on the hillslopes, (iii) reforestation of thousands
75 of hectares, and, (iv) substitution of cereal crops by cutting meadows in the valley
76 bottoms. Abandoned fields represent about 22% of the total study area (Upper Aragón
77 and Gállego valleys), which is now occupied by forests (65%), shrubs (28%), and
78 meadows (7%) (Lasanta, 2007). These changes have affected plant recovery and soil
79 characteristics, and have consequently influenced interception, infiltration, runoff, soil
80 erosion, sediment transport, and the dynamics and morphology of fluvial systems and
81 alluvial fans (Ruiz-Flaño *et al.*, 1992; Ruiz-Flaño, 1993). The changes have been
82 consistent with the concept of “hillslope-channel coupling” (Brunsden and Thornes,
83 1979; Caine and Swanson, 1989; Harvey, 1992, 2002, 2007; Michaelides and
84 Wainwright, 2002; Kirkby *et al.*, 2002). Coupling and connectivity among the various
85 components of a catchment (*i.e.*, hillslopes and fluvial channels) are critical factors for
86 understanding the hydromorphological functioning of the landscape at different spatial
87 and temporal scales (Liébault and Piégay, 2001, 2002; Piégay *et al.*, 2004; De Vente
88 and Poesen, 2005; De Vente *et al.*, 2007; Chiverrell *et al.*, 2009).

89 The Department of Geo-environmental Processes and Global Change
90 (<http://www.ipe.csic.es/Geoenvironmental.html>) at the Pyrenean Institute of Ecology
91 (Zaragoza, Spain) has studied the geomorphic and hydrological evolution of the Central
92 Spanish Pyrenees since 1987. Using a combination of field, experimental, and
93 laboratory approaches, the Department has accumulated a wealth of information on
94 sediment yield and transport, the temporal variability of sediment sources, historical
95 evidence of soil erosion and extreme geomorphic events, and the relationships among
96 land use/land cover changes, runoff generation, and soil erosion. This information has
97 facilitated interpretation of recent changes in the hydrological and geomorphic
98 functioning of the landscape at various temporal and spatial scales, and assessment of
99 the interactions among slope, catchment, channel processes and human influence.
100 However, investigations on the linkages between processes acting at various temporal
101 and spatial scales are needed to assess the relative importance of climate and land use

102 practices on soil erosion and runoff yield, and to foresee global change scenarios for
103 land planning purposes (Beguería *et al.*, 2008).

104 In this paper we review and discuss the main findings concerning changes in
105 hydrological, soil erosion, and sediment transport processes in relation to land use and
106 land cover variations at various spatial scales in the Central Spanish Pyrenees. Different
107 studies were made on experimental plots (Ruiz-Flaño *et al.*, 1992; García-Ruiz *et al.*,
108 1995; Lasanta *et al.*, 2006), hillslopes (Lorente *et al.*, 2002, 2003), experimental
109 catchments (Alvera and García-Ruiz, 2000; Lana-Renault and Regüés, 2007; Lana-
110 Renault *et al.*, 2007a, 2007b; Nadal-Romero *et al.*, 2008a, 2008b; Serrano-Muela *et al.*,
111 2008), regional scales (Beguería *et al.*, 2003; López-Moreno *et al.*, 2006, 2008) and
112 stream channel dynamics (Beguería *et al.*, 2006), each scale providing information on
113 different geomorphic and hydrological processes. Evidence from plot studies through to
114 those at regional scales enables interpretation of interactions at different scales, with the
115 aim of developing a holistic perspective of the effects of land use changes on water
116 resources and soil erosion.

117

118 **The study area**

119 The experimental areas are located in the upper Aragón and Gállego valleys, in
120 the Central Spanish Pyrenees (Fig. 1). They correspond to an intensively folded alpine
121 mountain range with a series of overthrusting mantles. The highest mountain (the
122 Collarada peak) is almost 3,000 m a.s.l., and altitudes exceeding 2,500 m occur
123 throughout the range. The rivers run from north to south across the following morpho-
124 structural units: (i) the Paleozoic rocks of the Axial Pyrenees (mostly limestone and
125 shale, and a large granite massif in the headwater of the Gállego Valley); (ii) the Inner
126 Sierras (limestone and sandstone), where the highest mountains occur; (iii) the Flysch
127 Sector (alternating thin beds of sandstone and marls); and, (iv) the Inner Depression
128 (marl, sandstone, claystone), extensively covered by Quaternary terraces and pediments,
129 and the Outer Sierras (limestone, sandstone and calystone). The most important
130 geomorphic processes are snow avalanches in the highest areas; rilling, gullyng, and
131 shallow landsliding in the subalpine belt; shallow landslides evolving into debris flows,
132 sheet wash erosion and gullyng in active headwaters of ravines in the Flysch Sector;
133 and the presence of active badland areas developed on marls in the Inner Depression
134 (García-Ruiz *et al.*, 1990).

135 Precipitation shows a general increase toward the north along the altitudinal
136 gradient, and toward the west because of the Atlantic influence. Average annual
137 precipitation exceeds 1,500 mm in the northernmost sector of the Central Spanish
138 Pyrenees, and is around 800 mm in the Inner Depression. The mean annual temperature
139 decreases from south to north (11°C in Jaca; 8°C in Canfranc). The entire area is
140 occasionally subject to very intense rainstorms that can cause flash floods and result in
141 serious damage (White *et al.*, 1997).

142 Plant cover has been strongly influenced by human activity. The upper forest
143 belt was burnt in the Middle and Modern Ages and transformed into subalpine
144 grasslands (Montserrat, 1992). Cultivated areas were traditionally located below 1,600
145 m in the valley bottoms, on perched flats, and on steep, south-facing hillslopes, which
146 were farmed even under shifting agriculture systems (Lasanta *et al.*, 2006). The
147 stoniness and low field capacity of the calcareous regosol and rendsolic leptosol soils
148 indicate that these slopes have been affected by water erosion. The forest has remained
149 relatively well-preserved on the north-facing slopes, and on slopes with any aspect
150 between 1,600 and 1,800 m where deep and well-developed haplic kastanozem and
151 haplic phaeozem soils predominate.

152 During the 20th century most of the cultivated fields in the study area were
153 abandoned, with the exception of the valley bottoms and the Inner Depression. This
154 explains the recent expansion of forests and shrubs (Lasanta, 1988).

155

156 **Data and methods**

157 Studies of hillslope erosion and runoff generation were carried out at the
158 Aísa Valley Experimental Station, which, in 1991, was equipped with a weather station
159 and nine erosion plots under various traditional and modern land uses (García-Ruiz *et al.*
160 *al.*, 1995) including (i) cereal (barley) with added chemical fertilizers; (ii) fallow land
161 (alternating every two years with a cereal plot); (iii) shifting agriculture based on barley
162 fertilized with ashes after clearing off the original shrubs; (iv) cereal plots abandoned
163 for 10 years (now covered by dense herbaceous communities); (v) shifting agriculture
164 abandoned for 9 years (with herbs now covering 70% of the soil surface); (vi) burnt plot
165 1 (previously dense shrub cover that re-established within 2 years of a fire occurred in
166 1991); (vii) burnt plot 2 (previously dense shrub cover affected by fires in 1993 and
167 2001); (viii) grazing meadow, representing the evolved stage of an abandoned field that
168 is frequently grazed; and, (ix) dense shrub cover (mainly *Genista scorpius* and *Rosa gr.*

169 *canina*), representing the evolution of most of the hillslopes 30 years after farmland
170 abandonment. The plots were 30 m² in size and located in an old south-facing slope
171 with a gradient of 25%. Runoff was measured using tipping buckets connected to data
172 loggers, and sediment transport was estimated from overland flow collected in plastic
173 containers after each rainstorm.

174 Catchment scale information on discharge and sediment transport was collected
175 from four different environments. (i) The Izas catchment (0.33 km²; 2,060-2,280 m
176 a.s.l.) is located in the upper Gállego Valley. The lithology consists mainly of schist,
177 and plant cover is composed of subalpine grasslands. Snow is present in the catchment
178 for at least 6 months each year. (ii) The Arnás catchment (2.84 km²; 900-1,340 m a.s.l.)
179 includes a complex mosaic of various shrub and forest patches following recent
180 farmland abandonment. The bedrock is Eocene flysch. (iii) The San Salvador catchment
181 (0.92 km²; 880-1,325 m a.s.l.) is covered by dense forest (*Pinus sylvestris*, *Fagus*
182 *sylvatica* and *Quercus gr. faginea*), and is representative of undisturbed environments in
183 Mediterranean middle-altitude mountains. The bedrock is Eocene flysch. (iv) The
184 Araguás catchment (0.45 km²; 780-1,105 m a.s.l.) is characterized in the lower part by a
185 dense network of badlands developed on marls, typical of highly degraded
186 environments. The bedrock in the upper part of the catchment is Eocene flysch
187 (artificially reforested in the 1960s), and Eocene marls in the lower part.

188 The Izas, Arnás, San Salvador, and Araguás catchments have been monitored
189 since 1986, 1996, 1998, and 2004, respectively. Each catchment is equipped with a
190 complete weather station, several tipping bucket rain gauges, and a gauging station at
191 which discharge and suspended sediment concentrations are recorded continuously.
192 Solutes were recorded during floods, when the water reached a threshold for the
193 operation of the water sampler (ISCO 3700). In the Arnás, San Salvador, and Izas
194 catchments, bedload transport was estimated using sediment traps. The bedload in the
195 Arnás catchment was also calculated by a volumetric approach using a large
196 profilometer to evaluate the coarse sediment at the gauging station, just upstream of the
197 sediment trap (Lana-Renault and Regüés, 2007).

198 Remote sensing and geographical information systems were used to assess
199 sediment sources at larger scales (basins of more than 1,000 km²). Information was also
200 available on reservoir silting rates and the sedimentological evolution of several
201 reservoirs. The effects of changes in land cover and climate on water resources

202 throughout the Central Spanish Pyrenees were also analyzed using historical climate
203 and river discharge data series (Beguería *et al.*, 2003).

204

205 **Results**

206 *The hillslope scale*

207 A variety of geomorphic and hydrological processes were studied in
208 environments ranging from sub-Mediterranean to high mountain. Results from the Aísa
209 Valley Experimental Station enabled medium-term (1992-2008) comparisons of the
210 effects of land use changes on runoff and soil erosion. Although the results from the
211 experimental plots have to be treated with caution, given the size and other
212 characteristics of the plots, they are useful for comparative purposes and to highlight the
213 main features of the areas affected by human activities. Data from the reference period
214 (1992-2009) indicate an average annual precipitation of 1182 mm, similar to the value
215 recorded at the Aísa weather station for a longer period (1135 mm for 1968-2002).

216 Figures 2 and 3 show the runoff coefficients and soil erosion rates (in Mg km^{-2}
217 year^{-1} , equivalent to $\text{tons km}^{-2} \text{ year}^{-1}$) for each plot. In the case of runoff coefficients
218 the lowest values corresponded to dense shrub cover (4.7%) and burnt plot 1 (6.1%),
219 followed by the meadow plot (7.2%), thus indicating the role of a dense shrub cover in
220 reducing overland flow. The highest values were related to traditional agriculture
221 involving soil removal by ploughing and strong variations in plant cover throughout the
222 year (cereal plot, 12.9%; fallow land, 13.1%; and shifting agriculture, 18.7%). The plots
223 affected by major changes in plant cover throughout the study period are shown in the
224 central part of the figure: this is the case for the two plots cultivated in the past and later
225 abandoned. These plots followed a process of plant colonization from bare soil to dense
226 herbaceous cover and incipient shrub colonization, although the runoff coefficients
227 remained similar to those associated with traditional agricultural uses (abandoned cereal
228 plot, 9.8%; abandoned shifting agriculture plot, 11.7%). Burnt plot 2 underwent two
229 plant recolonization processes after having been burnt in 1993 and again in 2001. This
230 resulted in fluctuating but decreasing runoff coefficients (average 13.7%) as the plant
231 cover became increasingly more dense and complex. Ruiz-Flaño *et al.* (1992) concluded
232 that the repeated human-induced fires in the oldest abandoned fields were the main
233 reason for their degradation.

234 Figure 3 shows the average soil loss rate in each plot. In general, soil loss
235 distribution pattern was similar to that of the runoff coefficient. Land uses with a

236 permanent dense plant cover showed moderate erosion rates (10, 11, and 15 Mg km⁻²
237 year⁻¹ for plots under dense shrub cover, in the burnt plot 1, and for cutting meadow,
238 respectively), whereas relatively high values were recorded for plots associated with
239 traditional agricultural uses (70, 90 and 150 Mg km⁻² year⁻¹ for the cereal, fallow land
240 and shifting agriculture plots, respectively). Although the figures obtained in the
241 experimental plots do not represent natural values of soil loss (Boix-Fayos *et al.*, 2006)
242 the relative differences among them are a valid indicator of the effects of different land
243 uses. Thus, shifting agriculture yielded 15 times more sediment than did dense shrub
244 cover, and 10 times more than cutting meadows. It is also notable that runoff
245 coefficients were about 3 times higher in plots associated with agricultural uses than in
246 those with dense plant cover, but for erosion rates the differences were 6-15 times
247 higher. The abandoned plots yielded intermediate values that were closer to those of
248 plots with a permanent and dense plant cover. This suggests that progressive plant
249 colonization after farmland abandonment produces a rapid decrease in soil loss, whereas
250 runoff decreases more slowly.

251 The results obtained from the Aisa Valley Experimental Station illustrate the
252 evolution of hillslopes in areas most affected by human activity. For instance, it is
253 evident that cultivation of steep slopes (a common practice in periods of major
254 population pressure, particularly during the 18th and 19th centuries) caused land
255 degradation mainly on south-facing slopes. Consequently, such slopes are now covered
256 by thin, stony soils that support a much slower rate of plant colonization (Pueyo and
257 Beguería, 2007). Recent ¹³⁷Cs measurements (Navas *et al.*, 2005) have demonstrated
258 soil redistribution processes in abandoned lands of the Central Pyrenees; ¹³⁷Cs values
259 were lower in the profiles of sites sampled on south-facing slopes that were steepest,
260 had the lowest shrub density, and high erosion rates. In contrast, almost no erosion was
261 recorded on north-facing slopes. The degree of stoniness was higher on the south-facing
262 slopes (> 400 g kg⁻¹), suggesting that a substantial amount of the fine fraction had been
263 eroded from the upper soil layers.

264 The plot scale results from the Aisa Valley Experimental Station suggest that
265 farmland abandonment on steep slopes in the middle mountain areas of the Central
266 Pyrenees and subsequent replacement of cereal crops by dense shrub communities have
267 led to a reduction in sediment yield and runoff generation (García-Ruiz *et al.*, 1995).
268 Nevertheless, some areas on the south-facing slopes were affected by sheet wash

269 erosion and unconfined debris flows after farmland abandonment (Lorente *et al.*, 2002;
270 Beguería, 2006) due to the low density of the shrub cover. Most of the unconfined
271 debris flows, which averaged less than 200 m³ in volume, had a relatively short runout
272 distance and did not connect with the fluvial network (Lorente *et al.*, 2003). The
273 SHETRAN model for simulating the sediment yield from unconfined debris flows
274 confirmed that these flows contributed a relatively minor proportion of the total
275 sediment yield (about 13%), at least in dry years (Bathurst *et al.*, 2007).

276 The connectivity between hillslopes and channels seems to be pronounced in the
277 alpine and subalpine belts because of the steep gradients involved. Snow avalanches and
278 debris falls result in rapid sediment transfer, particularly in the Inner Ranges and the
279 craggy areas of the Paleozoic Axial sector (García-Ruiz *et al.*, 1990). In the Flysch
280 Sector, deforestation of the upper forest level during the Middle and Modern Ages
281 explains the triggering of frequent shallow landslides with short tongues that did not
282 evolve into debris flows. Even in dry conditions shallow landsliding occurred
283 immediately after deforestation on slopes over 30°, whereas slopes of less than 15° were
284 stable even when water-saturated (García-Ruiz *et al.*, in press). Höllermann (1985)
285 concluded that deforestation of a large part of the subalpine belt has led to a decline of
286 the lower solifluction limit to about 400 m, increasing both runoff generation (2-fold
287 higher) and sediment yield (at least 10-fold higher) (Puigdefábregas and Alvera, 1986)
288 because of an increase in the drainage density (development of dense networks of
289 parallel rills) and the presence of eroded headwaters in ravines. An incipient
290 recolonization by trees has been observed in the subalpine belt as livestock pressure has
291 decreased, thus reducing the runoff coefficient to current levels (Tappeiner and
292 Cernusca, 1993). The development of ski resorts has increased the concentration of both
293 particulate and solute sediment, especially in summer when the soil is free of snow
294 (Alvera *et al.*, 1991).

295

296 *The catchment scale*

297 At the small catchment scale the hydrological and geomorphological responses
298 have also been dependent on the plant cover and land use. Figure 4 shows hydrographs
299 of the same rainfall event that affected the Arnás, San Salvador, and Araguás
300 catchments during the dry season. Whereas no reaction was observed in the forested
301 catchment (San Salvador), a small flood occurred in the Arnás catchment (characterized
302 by abandoned fields), and a large flood occurred in the badlands catchment (Araguás).

303 Over a longer time scale, the hydrological response also shows major differences
304 among the three catchments. García-Ruiz *et al.* (2008) noted that discharge shows
305 contrasting seasonal variability. (i) In the San Salvador catchment high discharges
306 occurred only in spring, whereas, for the remainder of the year, almost no water
307 circulated in the channel, even during some intense summer rainstorms. (ii) In the Arnás
308 catchment several floods occurred in winter and spring, with a markedly higher number
309 of floods in the latter season, but almost no reaction was observed in summer. However,
310 intense rainstorms at the beginning of autumn produced high streamflow. (iii) The
311 Araguás catchment reacted to every rainfall event, including summer rainstorms (Nadal-
312 Romero *et al.*, 2008a). During the 2005-06 hydrological year 4 floods were recorded in
313 the San Salvador catchment, and 12 and 44 were noted in the Arnás and Araguás
314 catchments, respectively, suggesting the importance of plant cover density and the
315 presence of badlands in the behavior of these catchments. The most important factors
316 explaining the hydrological response of the Araguás catchment were the rainfall depth
317 and the maximum rainfall intensity. In the Arnás catchment the hydrological response
318 was related to rainfall depth and the antecedent moisture condition, in particular to
319 water-table dynamics, whereas the rainfall intensity mostly influenced the peak flow
320 (Lana-Renault *et al.*, 2007a). In the San Salvador catchment the main factors were the
321 preceding rainfall and the base flow (García-Ruiz *et al.*, 2008). Rainfall depth and
322 intensity did not influence discharge in the San Salvador catchment, except where the
323 water table was close to the surface (Serrano-Muela *et al.*, 2008).

324 The frequency of floods in each catchment and the main factors controlling the
325 hydrological response provide indirect information on the contributing areas and
326 sediment sources. It is evident that in the Araguás catchment the badland area (25% of
327 the total surface) contributed water and sediment. The overall shape of the hydrographs
328 was always similar to that of the rainfall distribution and the suspended sediment
329 concentration was always very high, exceeding 300 g L^{-1} during several floods (Nadal-
330 Romero *et al.*, 2008b). Mapping the infiltration and saturation excess runoff areas in the
331 Arnás catchment (Lana-Renault, in press) has shown that the former occupies small
332 degraded areas close to the main channel. These correspond to intensively grazed and
333 trampled areas that remain stable throughout the year and together with the taluses
334 connected to the channels are the main sediment sources in the catchment. The
335 saturation excess runoff areas showed a high level of spatial dynamics throughout the

336 year, ranging from zero to about 10% of the catchment under wet conditions. During
337 rainstorms in the dry period only the infiltration excess runoff areas contributed, which
338 resulted in small floods of short duration and high suspended sediment concentration
339 (Lana-Renault *et al.*, 2007b), with the peak of suspended sediment occurring slightly
340 behind the peak flow (an anticlockwise hysteretic loop) (Seeger *et al.*, 2004; Lana-
341 Renault and Regüés, 2009). During the wet period, when the “water reserves” of the
342 catchment were filled, the runoff contributing areas enlarged but the sediment sources
343 remained stable. Consequently, the floods were very intense but the suspended sediment
344 was diluted. Only a small proportion of the sediment came from the hillslopes, because
345 of the shrub density and the poor connectivity between debris flows and the fluvial
346 network (Bathurst *et al.*, 2007).

347 The Izas catchment is controlled by snow accumulation and melting during
348 much of the year. Figure 5 shows that there was a period of increasing snow
349 accumulation from the end of October to April. Increases in snow accumulation were
350 directly related to major rainfall events. Periodic visits to the catchment enabled
351 changes in the surface of the catchment covered by snow to be estimated: 99% (14
352 May), 90% (25 May), 60% (3 June), 50% (10 June), 40% (17 June), 10% (23 June), and
353 1% (8 July). The evolution of discharge showed (i) large fluctuations in autumn,
354 corresponding to rainfall events accompanied by short snowmelt periods; (ii) a long
355 period in winter characterized by low flows, with almost constant discharge in February
356 and March; and, (iii) a very significant period of high flows between the end of April
357 and the end of June, coinciding with snow depletion in the catchment (Alvera, 2000;
358 Alvera and García-Ruiz, 2000). Figure 5 also shows that suspended sediment transport
359 occurred only during the late snowmelt period, when a large part of the catchment was
360 free of snow, and in autumn, coinciding with heavy rainfall. Díez *et al.* (1988) also
361 highlighted the occurrence of important sediment transport events caused by intense
362 summer rainstorms. Following their conclusions, the main sediment source was the
363 channel itself and a dense gully network in the headwater. Periglacial terracettes did not
364 contribute sediment to the channel, even if they were poorly protected by plant cover,
365 nor did shallow landslides that were not connected to the fluvial network.

366 The specific sediment yield also showed very large differences among
367 catchments, with a clear decrease in sediment output with increasing density of plant
368 cover. Thus, the average rate of sediment output was about 120 Mg km⁻² year⁻¹ in the
369 San Salvador catchment, 160 Mg km⁻² year⁻¹ in the Arnás catchment, and 15,300 Mg

370 $\text{km}^{-2} \text{ year}^{-1}$ in the Araguás catchment ($57,500 \text{ Mg km}^{-2} \text{ year}^{-1}$ if only the badland area
371 was considered) (García-Ruiz *et al.*, 2008). These values are about one order of
372 magnitude greater than those recorded in the experimental plots, confirming the great
373 importance at the catchment scale of both erosion caused by concentrated runoff in rills
374 and gullies and stream erosion, processes that are not present at the plot scale. In the
375 San Salvador catchment most of the material was exported in the form of solutes (74%),
376 with only 25% exported as suspended sediment. No true bedload was recorded, except
377 for small fragments ($< 5 \text{ mm}$) of calcite deposited in the channel bed (1% of the total),
378 which are commonly mobilized during spring floods (Serrano-Muela *et al.*, 2008). The
379 maximum suspended sediment concentration recorded was about 1.9 g L^{-1} , and the
380 average solute concentration was 325 mg L^{-1} . In the Arnás catchment the recorded
381 sediment load indicated the prevalence of solutes (61%), followed by suspended
382 sediment (34%) and bedload (5%). The percentage of bedload transport was sufficiently
383 high to modify the channel morphology through the development of small gravel bars.
384 The maximum suspended sediment concentration was about 15 g L^{-1} and the average
385 solute concentration was 250 mg L^{-1} . Suspended sediment dominated the sediment load
386 in the Araguás catchment (about 96% of the total), with only small proportions of
387 solutes and bedload material (Nadal-Romero *et al.*, 2008b).

388 The sediment output for the Izas catchment was estimated to be about 200–320
389 $\text{Mg km}^{-2} \text{ year}^{-1}$ (Alvera and García-Ruiz, 2000). The transport of each type of sediment
390 was variable among years, with solutes contributing 60–85% of the total, suspended
391 sediment 5–20%, and bedload 1–30%. The extreme variability of bedload transport
392 depended on the occurrence of heavy rainstorms, particularly in autumn, and on
393 sediment availability. For instance, an extreme event in October 1987 (return period: 25
394 years) transported 17 Mg of bedload, which was similar to the total bedload transported
395 during the following 9 years. A second rainstorm that occurred 1 week later carried only
396 0.48 Mg despite generating a similar peak discharge (Martínez-Castroviejo *et al.*, 1991).
397 The effect of bedload exhaustion was apparent for several years, as Figure 6 illustrates.
398 No evidence of bedload exhaustion was detected in the Arnás catchment, where the
399 taluses connected to the channels can supply almost unlimited gravel and boulders.

400

401 *The regional scale*

402 Information at the regional scale consists of historical data on climate variables
403 and river discharge, reservoir siltation, fluvial channel morphology, and the
404 identification of sediment sources and connectivity in large basins.

405 The temporal evolution of river discharge was studied for the main basins of the
406 Central Spanish Pyrenees between the Aragón Subordán and Noguera Ribagorzana
407 rivers. All gauging stations involved in the analyses are located in areas largely
408 unaffected by human activity (*i.e.*, upstream of major reservoirs and water abstraction
409 points). A hydrology and climate database was developed using the information from 18
410 weather stations and 28 gauging stations. The longest series commenced in 1920, but
411 most records began in 1945. Three regional indices of precipitation, temperature, and
412 discharge were used to summarize the variations in these parameters for the whole
413 region (Beguiría *et al.*, 2003). The precipitation index was lower than the discharge
414 index between 1945 and 1970, and higher after 1970. This suggests that there has been a
415 progressive decrease in runoff for a given level of precipitation. Runoff was predicted
416 by stepwise multiple regression, with precipitation and temperature as the independent
417 variables. Figure 7 shows that in the first half of the study period the observed discharge
418 was greater than that predicted, but was consistently lower than predicted in the second
419 half, indicating the interplay of other nonclimatic factors inducing changes in discharge.
420 The negative trend in discharge in the Pyrenean rivers coincided with major changes in
421 land management, including abandonment of all farmland below 1,600 m a.s.l. on
422 south-facing slopes, followed by a progressive increase in coverage by dense shrubs and
423 forests. As demonstrated in the experimental plots and catchments, this change
424 represented a significant reduction in discharge.

425 López-Moreno *et al.* (2006) analyzed the trends in high flows during the period
426 1959–1995. These authors reported a clear decrease in the contribution of high flows to
427 annual runoff, whereas the importance of low flows increased, particularly during
428 winter and spring. A decrease in the frequency and magnitude of flood events was also
429 found. A similar trend was not noted for precipitation. This may also be related to the
430 extensive regrowth of vegetation during the 20th century, particularly in the second half
431 thereof.

432 Reservoirs reflect streamflow evolution and, particularly, sediment transport by
433 rivers, as they behave as large sediment traps. López-Moreno *et al.* (2004) reported
434 changes in the management of the Yesa reservoir, one of the largest in the Pyrenees. In

435 the last decades of the 20th century, filling the reservoir was relatively difficult because
436 of a reduction in the average streamflow of the Aragón River. Sedimentation in the
437 Barasona and Yesa reservoirs clearly declined after 1970 (Valero *et al.*, 1998). The
438 declining streamflow observed throughout the Pyrenees and the reduction in the area of
439 sediment sources could explain the lowering in the quantity of sediment reaching the
440 reservoirs.

441 The shrinkage of sediment source areas was clearly evident using GIS and
442 statistical analyses at the small catchment scale, particularly in the Arnás experimental
443 catchment, but also at the regional scale. Beguería (2005) identified areas with evidence
444 of active erosion in the upper Aragón River basin, and concluded that the most
445 important sediment sources were located in the marl outcrops with very active badlands.
446 Areas of active erosion were distributed haphazardly elsewhere in the study area,
447 although in many cases they were disconnected from the fluvial network because of the
448 expansion of plant cover. In another investigation performed close to the study area (the
449 Ésera and Isábena river basins), Alatorre and Beguería (2009) tested a new method for
450 identifying areas of severe erosion and areas susceptible to be affected by erosion, using
451 remote sensing classification techniques across a badland landscape on Eocene marls.
452 Most of the erosion risk areas coincided with low vegetation cover surrounding the
453 badlands areas. The slope aspect was a determining factor in the dynamics, intensity,
454 and effectiveness of weathering processes in badland areas developed in mountain
455 subhumid regions (Nadal-Romero *et al.*, 2007; Alatorre and Beguería, 2009).

456 One of the most obvious consequences of declining streamflow and sediment
457 transport has been the adjustment of fluvial channels to the new hydrological conditions
458 (Beguería *et al.*, 2006). Most fluvial channels showed coarse sediment predominance,
459 braided morphology, the presence of unstable bars and channels, and almost complete
460 absence of vegetation, coinciding with the period of greatest human pressure on the
461 hillslopes. At present, many fluvial channels show clear signs of declining activity, with
462 plant cover (shrubs and trees) occupying not only the alluvial plain but also the bars,
463 and the channels become progressively narrower. Most of the coarse sediment in the
464 channels appears to be a legacy of past decades rather than a result of recent soil erosion
465 and sediment transport. In some cases coarse sediment from the secondary streams has
466 arrived in the main channels because of channel incision following the decline in
467 sediment supply from the hillslopes (García-Ruiz *et al.*, 2008). Alluvial fans also show
468 a reduction in sediment transport, which is causing a shrinkage of the active

469 depositional lobes of the fans and channel incision into previously deposited sediments
470 (Gómez-Villar and García-Ruiz, 2000). The basins that feed these alluvial fans have
471 been affected by generalized farmland abandonment, reforestation and complex
472 structural works, including the construction of a number of check dams to reduce the
473 sediment flux and the torrential character of the streams.

474

475 **Discussion and conclusions**

476 Studies carried out by the Department of Geo-environmental Processes at the
477 Pyrenean Institute of Ecology have confirmed the interconnections that exist between
478 the hydrological and geomorphic processes that occur at different scales. This has been
479 termed “coupling” by Brunnsden and Thornes (1979), and led Harvey (2001, 2002, 2007)
480 to study the relationships between hillslopes and channels in upland fluvial systems.
481 However, coupling has received little attention, probably because of the importance
482 given to small-scale processes and the complexity of hillslope and fluvial dynamics.
483 Michaelides and Wainwright (2002, p. 1442) offered the following working definition:
484 “hillslope–channel coupling can be defined as the connectivity of the hydrologic and/or
485 geomorphic processes between hillslopes and river channels”.

486 Results from the Pyrenees showed that experimental plots provide information
487 on the effects of various land uses and land cover on runoff generation and soil erosion,
488 revealing the consequences of cultivation on steep slopes and of farmland abandonment.
489 The results have allowed us to conclude that traditional agriculture contributed
490 substantially to soil degradation and erosion, resulting in major soil loss and surface
491 stoniness. Farmland abandonment has resulted in relatively rapid decreases in runoff
492 production and soil loss because of plant recolonization. The replacement of cereal
493 crops by meadows or dense shrub cover has caused hydrological changes at the plot
494 scale, reducing the runoff and sediment contributing areas. These changes are more
495 significant than those expected from climate change because of their speed and
496 intensity, particularly in mountain areas during recent decades. This is extremely
497 important because of the dependence of Mediterranean water resources on mountain
498 areas (López-Moreno *et al.*, 2008).

499 Studies on the hydrological functioning of experimental catchments has
500 confirmed the critical importance of plant cover, by analysis of decreases in the number
501 of floods per year and the prevalence of sediment transport by solutes in the forested
502 San Salvador catchment. The Arnás catchment, cultivated until 50 years ago and

503 subsequently abandoned, has clearly demonstrated the effects of plant recolonization;
504 sediment sources are restricted to small degraded areas close to the channel and most of
505 the hillslopes are clearly disconnected from the channels (these are the decoupled
506 landscape units of Brunnsden; 1993). The channel itself shows signs of incision,
507 supplying gravel-sized and fine-grained particles in an almost unlimited manner because
508 of the decline in sediment arriving from the slopes. Although there are other areas
509 affected by active erosion scattered throughout the catchment (scars of large mass
510 movements, unconfined debris flows), these are disconnected from the fluvial channel
511 and cannot be considered as significant contributing areas. The presence of eroded areas
512 close to the channel explains the occurrence of higher suspended sediment
513 concentrations in the Arnás catchment compared to the San Salvador catchment. These
514 areas show a rapid hydrological response, and together with the development of areas
515 that saturate under wet conditions, explain the higher number of floods per year in the
516 Arnás catchment than in the San Salvador catchment. The relative importance of
517 bedload in the total sediment load is a consequence of channel incision more than the
518 effect of hillslope erosion. Thus, the Arnás catchment is an excellent example of the
519 consequences of significant and rapid land use change: at present the Arnás catchment
520 is behaving as a complex mosaic with large spatial and temporal variability in terms of
521 the areas contributing sediment and runoff. Sediment outputs from the Araguás
522 catchment were two orders of magnitude higher than in the Arnás and San Salvador
523 catchments, confirming the important role of densely dissected marl outcrops as
524 sediment sources and runoff generation areas (Beguería, 2005; Nadal-Romero, 2008).

525 Most of the features observed at the plot and catchment scales were also detected
526 at the regional scale. Thus:

527 (i) an increasing imbalance has been observed between the evolution of regional
528 precipitation and river discharges since the beginning of the 1970s, with a reduction in
529 streamflow in the main Pyrenean rivers that is independent of the evolution of climate
530 (Beguería *et al.*, 2003; López-Moreno *et al.*, 2006, 2008);

531 (ii) a decline has occurred in sediment transport by the large rivers in recent
532 decades, resulting in a reduction of the sedimentation rate in reservoirs;

533 (iii) a trend toward stabilization of the fluvial channels, colonization of bars with
534 riparian vegetation, and reduction in the braiding indices (Beguería *et al.*, 2006) has
535 followed the same trend observed in other basins affected by plant colonization (Piégay

536 *et al.*, 2004; Harvey, 2007). Alluvial fans also show incised channels and shrinkage of
537 the active depositional lobes.

538 It is likely that dense shrub and forest cover is unable to significantly reduce
539 peak flows during extreme rainstorm events, as the interception capacity of vegetation is
540 quickly saturated (Andréassian, 2004). However, during more frequent but less intense
541 rainstorms a reduction in peak flows could be expected because of interception (Llorens
542 *et al.*, 1997; Llorens and Domingo, 2007) and an increase in infiltration capacity as a
543 consequence of preceding drier soil conditions (Caissie *et al.*, 2002). This may explain
544 the significant decrease observed in the magnitude of relatively frequent floods in the
545 Central Spanish Pyrenees (López-Moreno *et al.*, 2006). At present at least one-third of
546 the old cultivated and grazed areas remain without dense shrub or forest cover (Vicente-
547 Serrano *et al.*, 2004). This suggests that the observed trend in both average discharges
548 and high flows will continue in the immediate future.

549 This study also demonstrates the importance of considering various spatial and
550 temporal scales. It is well known that geomorphic and hydrological processes are scale-
551 dependent (Seyfried and Wilcox, 1995; Skien *et al.*, 2003; De Vente and Poesen, 2005;
552 Lesschen *et al.*, 2009), with each scale underpinning certain processes (Cammeraat,
553 2002; Cerdan *et al.*, 2004; Yair and Raz-Yassif, 2004). Studies focused only on
554 experimental plots or rainfall simulations emphasize processes such as infiltration,
555 splash or runoff generation, but do not consider connectivity with the fluvial channel
556 and the consequences on sediment outputs from catchments and on temporal sediment
557 stores. Similarly, studies at the regional scale can enable sediment balances to be
558 assessed and identify sediment sources for large basins, but cannot contribute to
559 understanding of what is happening “within the slopes”. A holistic perspective of the
560 hydromorphological functioning of the region requires a multiscale approach integrating
561 slopes, small catchments, large basins, and fluvial channels. Such an experimental
562 design will enable better understanding of the short- and long-term consequences of
563 changes in land use/land cover and climate.

564

565 **Acknowledgements**

566 Support for this research was provided by the projects PROBASE (CGL2006-
567 11619/HID, Consolider) financed by the Spanish Commission of Science and
568 Technology; ACQWA (FP7-ENV-2007-1), financed by the European Commission; and
569 PI032/08, financed by the Aragón Regional Government. The authors also acknowledge

570 support from the Program of Research Groups of the Aragón Regional Government, and
571 from RESEL (the Spanish Ministry of the Environment). N. Lana-Renault and E.
572 Nadal-Romero benefited from a research contract (I+D+I 2008-2011 National
573 Program), funded by the Spanish Ministry of Education and Science.

574

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811 FIGURE CAPTIONS

812 Figure 1. Location of the study area in the upper Aragón and Gállego valleys, central
813 Spanish Pyrenees. Morpho-structural units: (A) Paleozoic rocks of the Axial Pyrenees;
814 (B) the Inner Sierras; (C) the Flysch Sector; (D) the Inner Depression; (E) the pre-
815 Pyrenean molasses. (1) the Aísa Valley Experimental Station; (2) the Arnás catchment;
816 (3) the San Salvador catchment; (4) the Araguás catchment; (5) the Izas catchment.

817 Figure 2. Runoff coefficients under various land use conditions at the Aísa Valley
818 Experimental Station. Error bars show standard deviation.

819 Figure 3. Soil erosion rates under various land use conditions at the Aísa Valley
820 Experimental Station. Error bars show standard deviation.

821 Figure 4. The hydrological response of three catchments to the same rainstorm event
822 during the dry season.

823 Figure 5. Daily rainfall, runoff, average daily air temperature, snowpack depth and
824 suspended sediment concentration (SSC) for the period 1 October 2003 to 12 July 2004.
825 Snowpack depth was measured at the lowest point of the catchment.

826 Figure 6. Annual bedload outputs from the Izas catchment.

827 Figure 7. Predicted and observed runoff indices for rivers in the Central Spanish
828 Pyrenees.

Figure1
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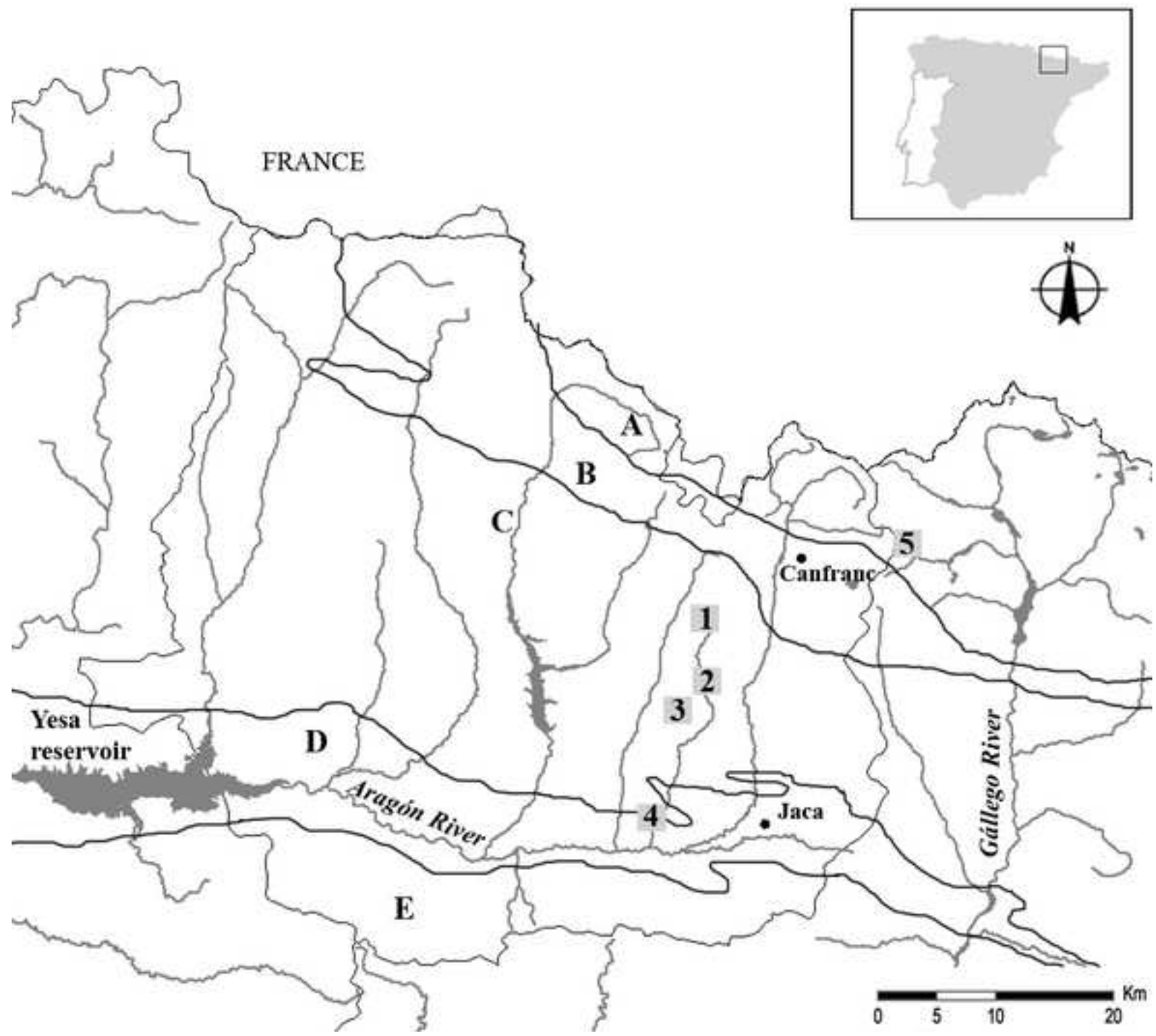


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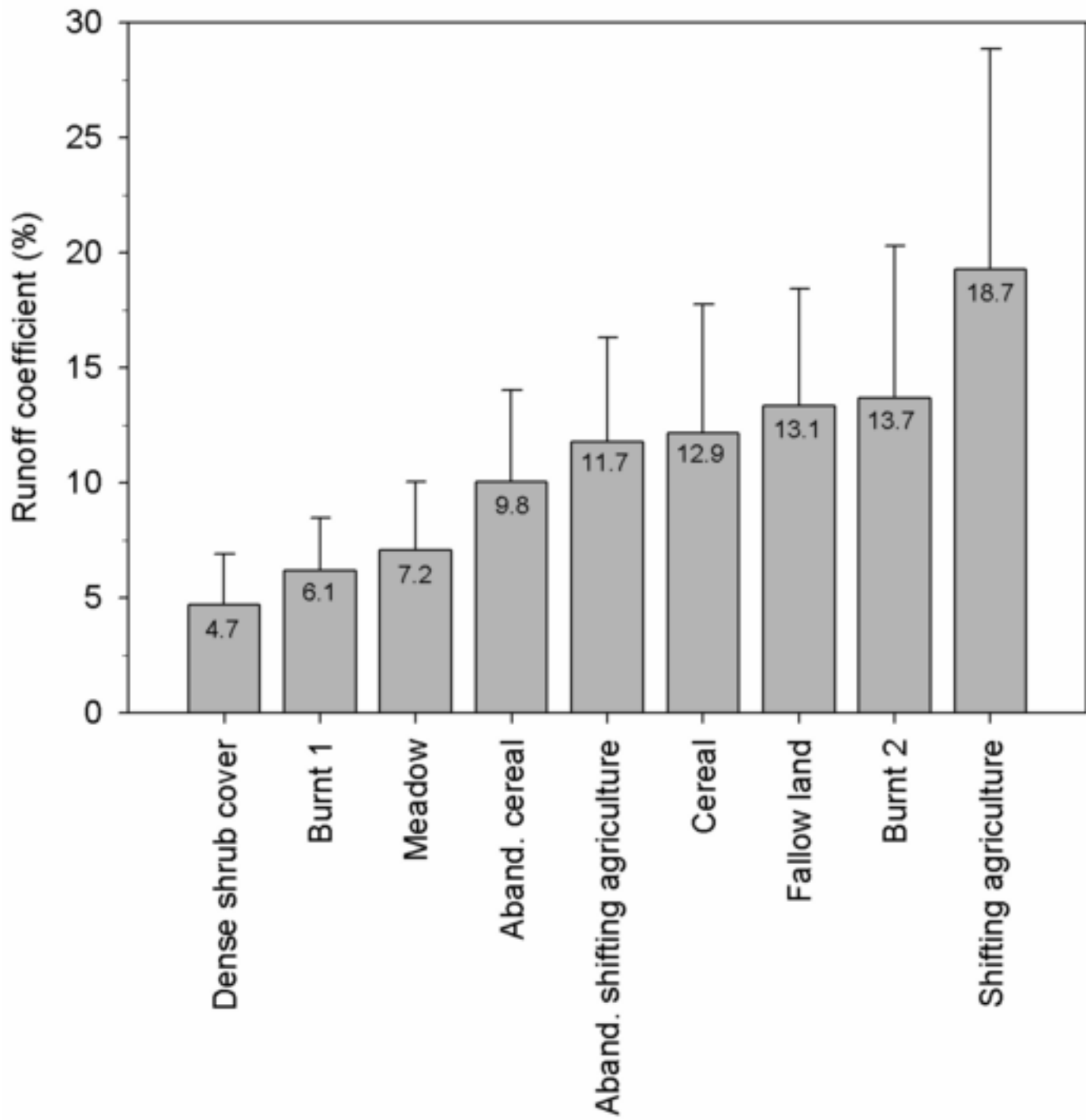


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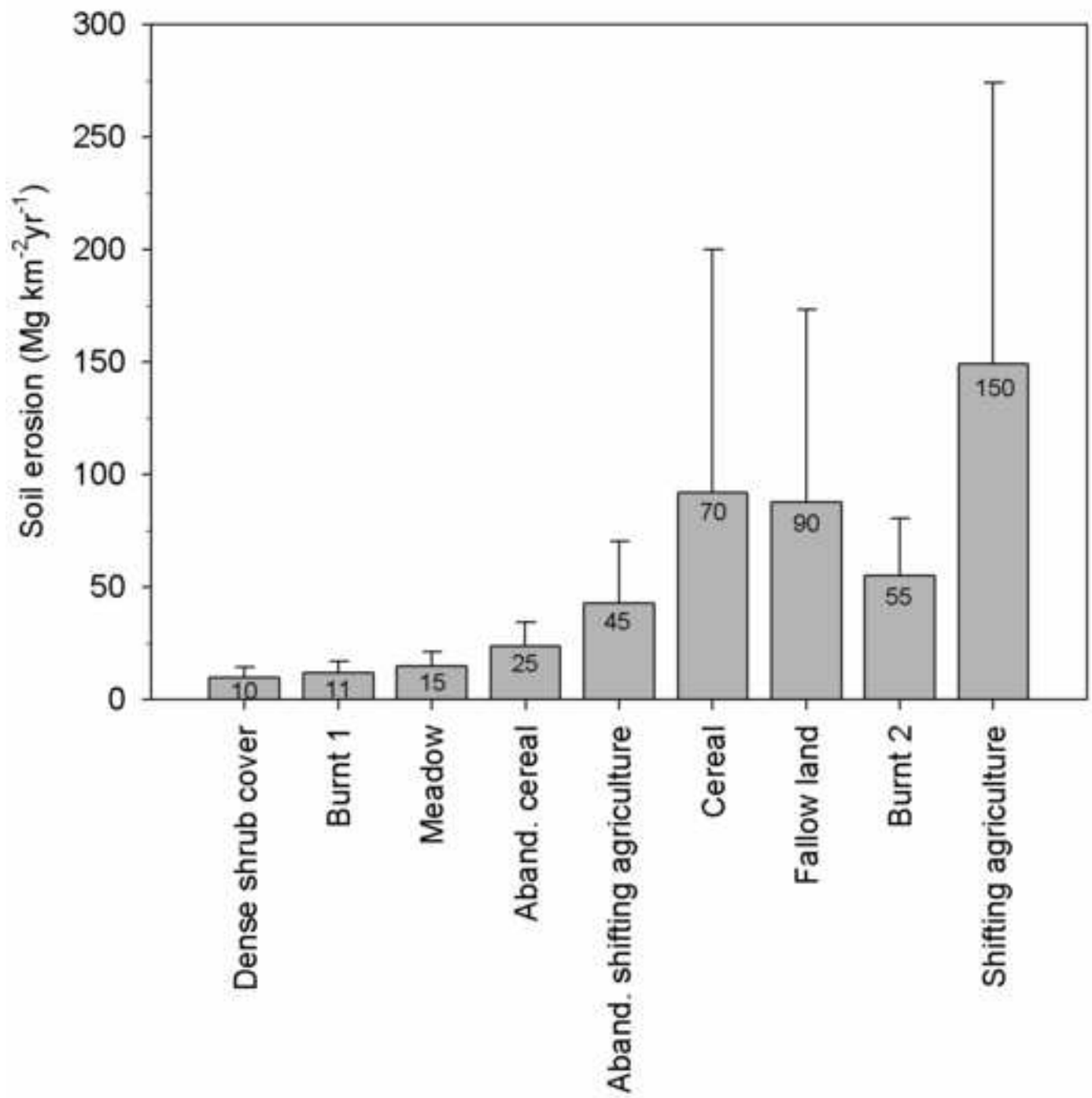


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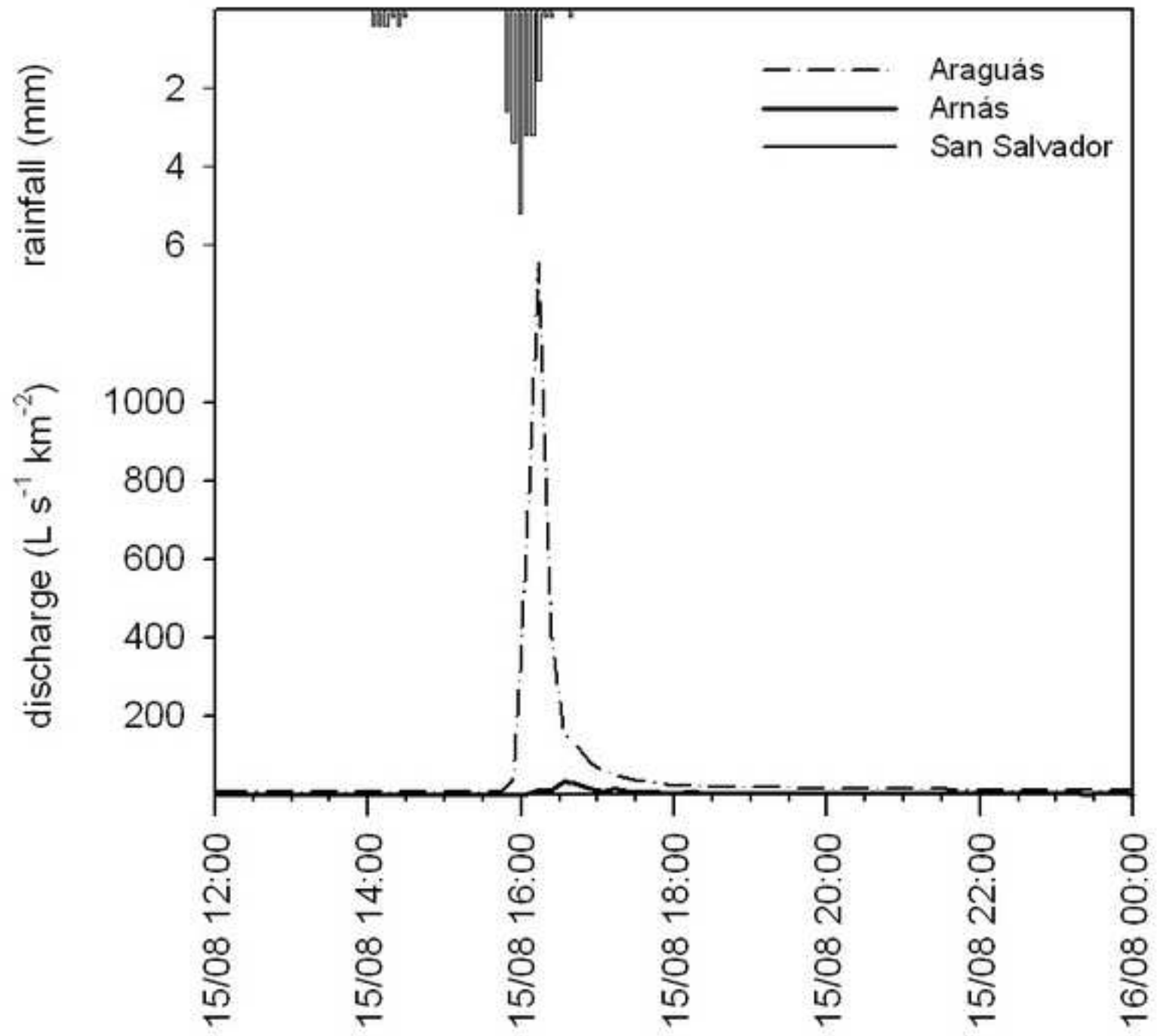


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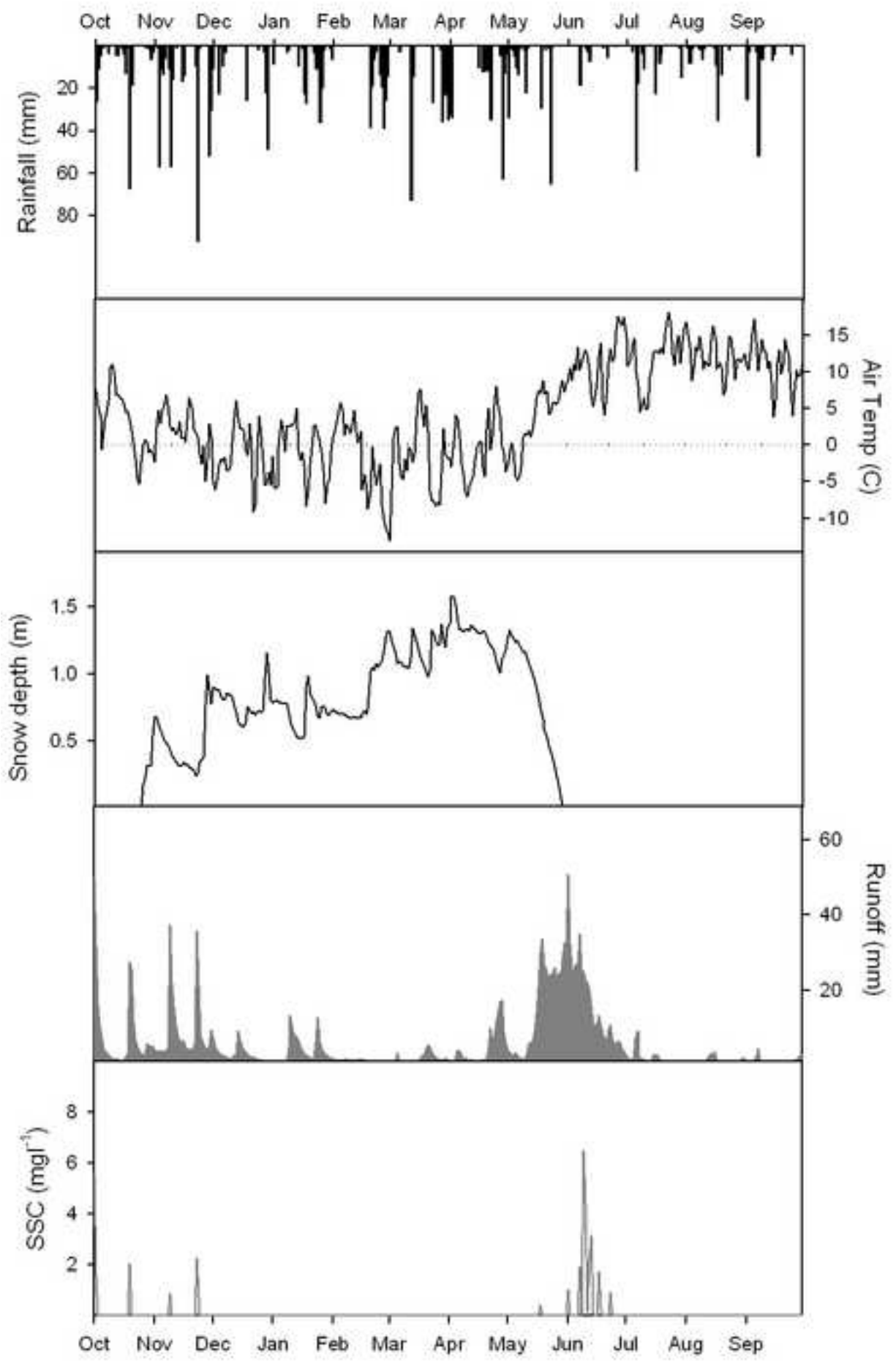


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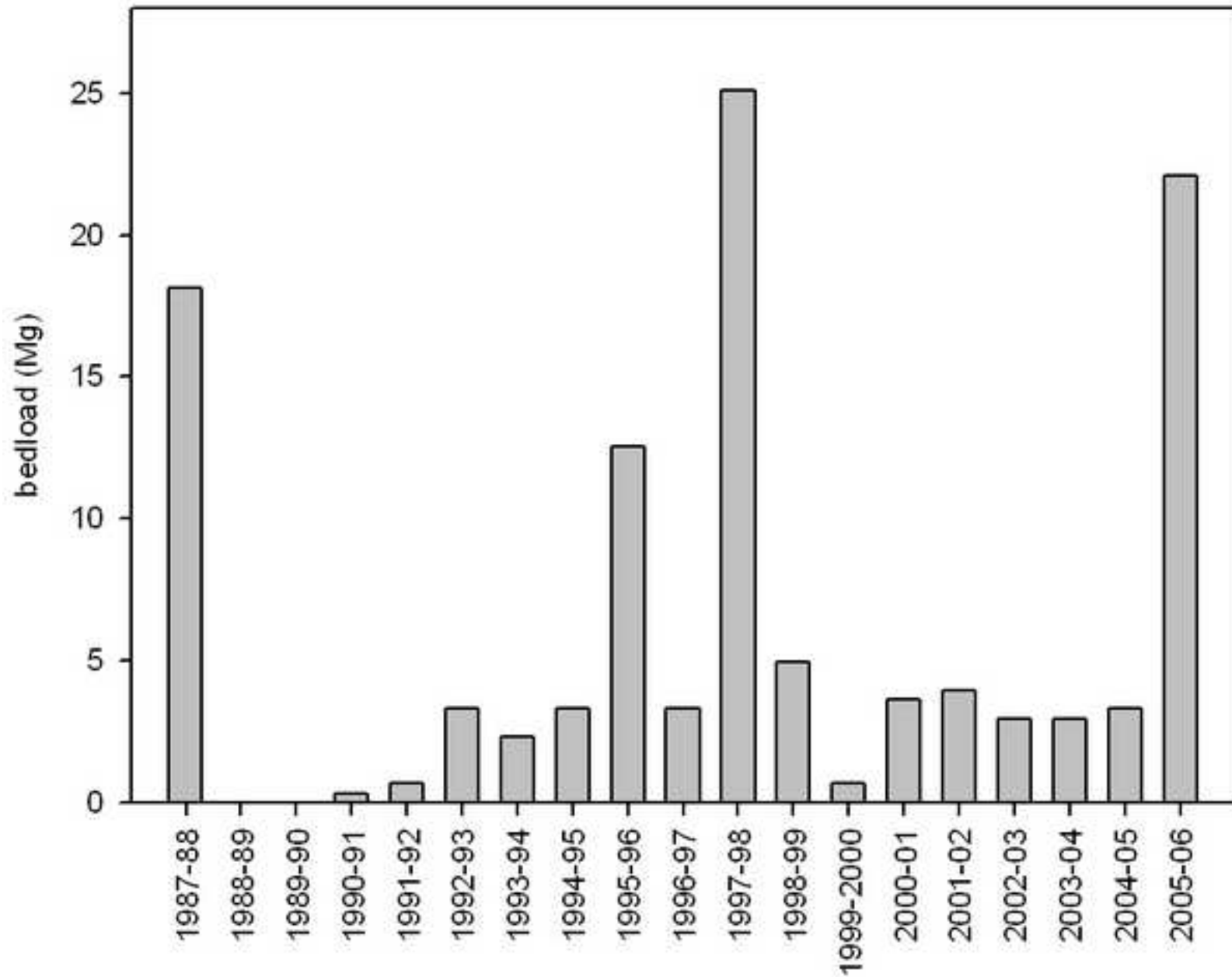


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