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1 **The success of recent land management efforts to reduce soil erosion in northern France**

2

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13

14 **Abstract**

15 Soil erosion is an important problem in open-field agricultural landscapes. With almost no

16 permanent vegetation in small headwater catchments, and with few physical obstacles to reduce

17 runoff velocities, runoff concentration along linear landscape elements (plot boundaries) or

18 thalwegs frequently causes ephemeral gullies to form – the latter reflecting the poor

19 hydrogeomorphic condition of the land- and soilscape. To address this problem, and to remediate

20 negative on- and off-site effects, land management efforts have multiplied over the past decades

21 in many regions. This includes, amongst other measures, the implementation of vegetation barriers

22 called 'fascines'. In the loess-dominated Aa River basin of northern France, where cropland

23 accounts for 67% of the cover, we investigated the effect of fascines on ephemeral gully erosion

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24 dynamics, together with rainfall characteristics and cropland management. This was accomplished
25 through a spatially explicit study of 269 sites prone to ephemeral gully erosion using a diachronic
26 analysis of historical aerial photographs. Between 1947 and 2012, ephemeral gully densities at
27 the scale of the Aa River basin (643 km²) varied between 0.39-1.31 m ha⁻¹ (long-term average of
28 0.68 m ha⁻¹ (with local maxima up to 9.35 m ha⁻¹). Densities are, however, much higher when only
29 considering the most erosion-vulnerable municipalities (long-term average of 2.23-4.30 m ha⁻¹);
30 those values should be used when comparing results from this study to other reports of ephemeral
31 gully erosion. Fascines were introduced in 2001 and were present in ~30% of the gully erosion
32 sites by 2012. Although the presence of fascines has an effect on gully length reduction, spatial
33 and temporal variations in gully length were mainly driven by cumulative precipitation.
34 Measurement of sediment deposition at 29 fascines in 2016 showed that only 47% of the fascines
35 functioned as sediment sinks. They stored on average 1.7 Mg of sediment per winter half-year,
36 corresponding to 0.009 Mg ha⁻¹. The results suggest that fascines positively impact the landscape's
37 resilience and reduce ephemeral gully erosion rates. The use of vegetation barriers such as fascines
38 are increasingly implemented for erosion control in western Europe, but pose problems for the
39 management of open-field landscapes.

40 **Key words:** Aa River valley; aerial photograph; fascine; ephemeral gully

41

42 **1. Introduction**

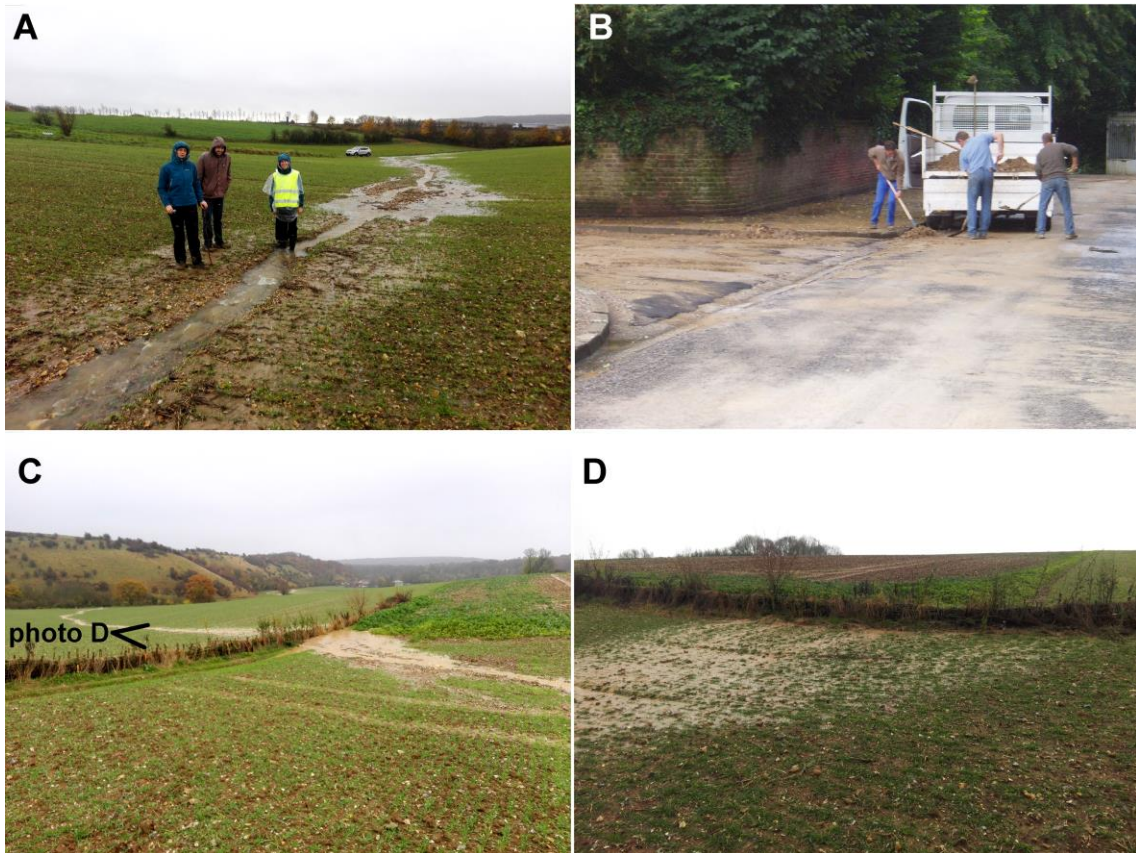
43 In the open-field agricultural landscapes of Europe, especially in the topographic-rolling
44 loess-covered regions (Haase et al., 2007), soil erosion is an important problem (Delmas et al.,
45 2012). Small headwater catchments in this region have virtually no permanent vegetation and few
46 physical obstacles to reduce runoff velocities, therefore, runoff concentration along linear
47 landscape elements (plot boundaries) or thalwegs frequently causes ephemeral gullies to occur –
48 the latter reflecting the poor hydrogeomorphic condition of the land- and soilscape (Vandaele and
49 Poesen, 1995; Boardman and Poesen, 2006) (Fig. 1A). As discussed by Poesen et al. (1996),
50 ephemeral gullies are temporary erosion features because their small dimensions allows them to
51 be eliminated during tillage. Given no change in management or land use, ephemeral gullies
52 frequently recur at the same locations following heavy precipitation events.

53 To address this problem, and to remediate negative on- and off-site effects such as topsoil
54 truncation (Pineux et al., 2017), mudflow hazards (Douvinet and Delahaye, 2010; Fig. 1B), floods,
55 and pollution (Boardman et al., 1994; Verstraeten and Poesen, 2002), land management efforts
56 have multiplied over the past decades in many regions (Boardman et al., 2003; Maetens et al.,
57 2012). This includes, amongst other measures, optimizing agronomic techniques and crop
58 rotations (such as no-tillage, mulching, winter cover crops, intercrops), land use conversions (from
59 cropland to pastures), runoff retention pools, check dams in ditches, grass buffer strips (both as
60 grassed waterways and filter strips), and vegetation barriers.

61 Fascines are any type of linear vegetation barrier consisting of live and/or dead vegetation
62 (Evette et al., 2009; Richet et al., 2016). They differ from hedges in the sense that they were
63 especially conceived to reduce runoff velocities and trigger sedimentation. Many types can be
64 found, including double-rowed willow posts with in-between staples of bundled willow branch

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65 cuttings, woven branches along poles, wood chips, straw, or any other organic residue inserted in-
66 between rows of mesh fences. Such barriers are typically implemented on plot boundaries across
67 thalwegs or along topographic contours (Figs. 1C and 1D).



68
69 **Figure 1:** Open-field agricultural landscapes that are highly vulnerable to hydrogeomorphic
70 hazards. (A) Ephemeral gully erosion, (B) Road cleaning subsequent to a mudflow hazard, (C)
71 Fascine as control measure viewed from the top while buffering runoff and sediment, and (D)
72 Viewed from downslope indicating the diffuse release of runoff and sediment. (photograph B by
73 www.smageaa.fr).

74
75 Field observations and limited experimental studies provide some insight into the
76 hydrogeomorphic effect of fascines. As biophysical buffers oriented perpendicular to the flow, the

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77 hydrological effect of fascines is to reduce flow velocities (by increasing the hydraulic roughness)
78 up to a factor of three (Ouvry, 2012; Richet et al., 2016). This causes water to pond behind them,
79 creating a backwater effect that encourages infiltration and sedimentation (Fig. 1C). Sediment
80 trapping efficiencies of 16-99% are reported in literature, and consist especially of coarse particles
81 (Ouvry, 2012; Degré et al., 2013; Biolders et al., 2016; Richet et al., 2016). Downslope of fascines,
82 runoff (with fine suspended sediment) is released in a diffuse way (Fig. 1D), and concentrates
83 again in the thalweg only a few metres below the vegetation barrier. No information, however,
84 exists on the effect of fascines over longer periods (15 yr in this study) and how the fascines affect
85 recurring ephemeral gullying along valley reaches. Various leaflets promoting land management,
86 and flood and erosion control, suggest that fascines limit the development of ephemeral gullies.

87 In the Aa River basin, most important natural hazards are related to extreme
88 hydrogeomorphic events such as mudflows and floods (www.prim.net). Mudflows cause
89 significant damage to infrastructure and settlements and induce large costs, as illustrated by the 24
90 July 2008 event in Hallines (Fig. 1B). Floods also occur frequently on the Aa River floodplain,
91 and its lower part has been recognized as a major regional risk zone. The perennial Aa River, with
92 an average discharge of $5.7 \text{ m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$ (at Wizernes), is vulnerable to winter floods when heavy rains
93 occur. As soils lack crop cover in winter, they are also prone to surface sealing. Under these
94 circumstances, a maximum peak discharge of $60 \text{ m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$ was recorded in March 2002
95 (www.SmageAa.fr). Few studies of gully erosion exist in the Aa River valley. Auzet et al. (1993)
96 were probably the first to study ephemeral gully erosion in the Aa River basin, indicating that the
97 spatial variability of gully volume can be largely explained by crop cover and surface sealing.
98 Hardy (2001) examined gullying in the Aa River basin between 1947 and 1995, and found that
99 with 76% of the catchment soils sensitive to soil crusting, land consolidation to produce larger

100 plots and the reduction of hedges caused the vulnerability to gully erosion to increase. The
101 objective of this study is to investigate the success of recent land management efforts on ephemeral
102 gully erosion dynamics. We focus on the effect of fascines and explore the connection between
103 gully formation and precipitation amounts and magnitudes.

104

105 **2. Materials and methods**

106 *2.1. Study area*

107 The study area consists of the upper Aa River basin (643 km²) in the Nord-Pas-de-Calais
108 region of northern France (Fig. 2). Altitudes range between sea level and 210 m (plateau of the
109 Artois) and average slope gradients for croplands range from 2.3% to 5.3% (Table 1). Vulnerability
110 to gully erosion is considered severe at slope gradients >3% (Hardy, 2001). Cropland covers 67% of
111 the basin, mainly managed in open-field, mixed crop-livestock farming schemes with plot sizes
112 that average 2.7 ha (Table 1, Hardy, 2001). Geologically, the upper Aa basin belongs to the Paris
113 Basin, a tectonic basin which was filled by marine transgressions in Mesozoic times, and uplifted
114 with the Alpine orogenesis. Pleistocene loess (reaching thicknesses of more than 10 m in places)
115 or the underlying chalk-with-flint of Seno-Turonian age (Sommé, 1980; Desoignies and Thibaut,
116 n.d.) is commonly exposed in the basin. Cenozoic sands and clays occur in limited extent and are
117 often forested or found in wetlands. A narrow strip of Holocene alluvium can be found along the
118 Aa River and its tributaries, which is mainly under pasture or urbanized and industrialized. Clay-
119 loam and loamy soils dominate 76% of the catchment (Hardy, 2001), often with a clay-with-flint
120 eluvial layer at the interface between the loess cover and the chalk (Nyssen et al., 2014). Because
121 of Pleistocene periglacial processes (Gallois, 2009), the loess is in many places mixed with clay-
122 with-flint, and this covers most of the catchment (Hardy, 2001). The most common soil types are

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123 Brunisols, Rendosols, Calsosols, Calsisols, and Neoluvisols (Masson et al., 2000).

124

Table 1: Vulnerability ratio to gully erosion per crop type

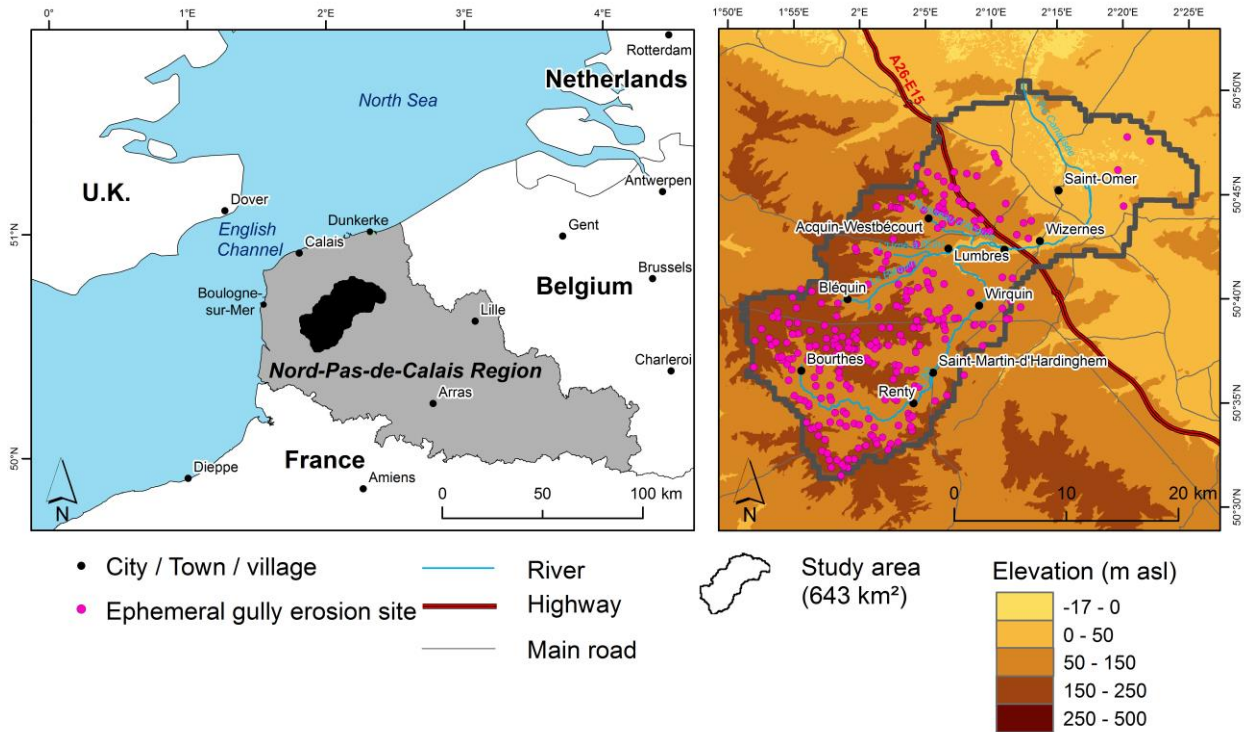
Crop type	Land cover fraction (%)	Gullies (%)	Ratio	Average slope gradient (%)
Wheat	37.1	46.6	1.26	4.3
Grazing land (permanent)	25.5	5.1	0.20	
Maize	11.8	32.6	2.75	4.4
Barley	7.6	3.9	0.52	4.7
Other industrial cultures (sugar beet, mustard)	4.6	2.8	0.61	3.2
Vegetables (potatoes, onions)	3.5	1.1	0.32	2.3
Rapeseed	3.4	2.8	0.84	4.8
Grazing land (temporary)	2.0	1.1	0.55	
Animal fodder	1.3	1.1	0.86	5.3
Other cereals (oat, spelt)	1.1	1.7	1.54	5.1
Fibre plants (flax, hemp)	1.1	0.6	0.52	3.9
Protein crops (beans, lupine, peas)	0.3	0.6	1.62	5.0
Other	0.6	0.0	0.00	n.a.

125

126 Intensive polycultures (cereals, sugar beets, potatoes) are common on the loess-covered
 127 hills. Land use changes are limited in the study area, with only a small reduction in cropland area
 128 (-5%) and an increase in urban area (+4%) over the period 1947-1995 (Hardy, 2001). More
 129 importantly, modernization in agriculture has caused land consolidation in land management
 130 schemes, which produced an increase in plot size and a reduction in hedge lengths (bocage
 131 landscape) (Hardy, 2001). These reforms caused soil erosion to increase in the Nord-Pas-de-Calais
 132 region, becoming one of the most erosion-vulnerable regions of France (Montier et al., 1998).
 133 Mudflows are frequent, and the region ranks in the top five in France in terms of the density of
 134 mudflows. Over the past two decades, numerous initiatives were undertaken to address these issues
 135 (Ouvry, 2012), including improving agrarian management to improve infiltration, reducing runoff
 136 and erosion, enhancing infiltration and runoff retention in urban areas, or flood control schemes in

137 alluvial plains.

138



139

140 **Figure 2:** Study area in northern France, with detail (left) of the oro-hydrography of the Aa basin
 141 and (right) recurrent ephemeral gully erosion sites identified from a diachronic analysis of aerial
 142 photographs. (Elevation data from SRTM-data, www.cgiar-csi.org, administrative outlines, rivers
 143 and roads from www.data.gouv.fr).

144

145 *2.2. Mapping gully length*

146 As a proxy of the hydrogeomorphic response of the landscape, and mirroring the success
 147 of land management efforts in headwaters, ephemeral gully length (G_l , km) and gully density (G_d ,
 148 $m\ ha^{-1}$) was studied over the period 1947-2012 using aerial photographs from 1947, 1995, 2000
 149 (partial catchment coverage), 2005, 2009, and 2012. The gullies for 1947 and 1995 were mapped

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150 by Hardy (2001). For the 2000-2012 period, colour orthophotographs created by Institut
151 Géographique National (I.G.N., France) were used. The planimetric accuracy of these colour
152 orthophotographs was equal to three pixels or 0.6 m. We investigated changes in gully occurrence
153 over the sub-periods 1947-1995, 1995-2000, 2000-2005, 2005-2009, and 2009-2012 using grid
154 cells of 500 x 500 m² (Hardy, 2001). All aerial photographs were taken in the late spring (June),
155 showing the initial growth phase of crops, and occasionally, recent ploughing activities. Winter
156 wheat or other cereals (roughly 75% of the cropland is covered by cereals during winter) are
157 dominant in the crop rotation cycle during winter. Sowing of winter crops occurs mainly between
158 late August and February, but regular field visits and key interviews confirm that most of the land
159 has already been prepared for winter by mid-September. Winter crops may alternate with spring
160 crops in crop rotation schemes, and after mid-winter ploughing, typical spring crops are sugar
161 beets, maize, and potatoes. The ‘resetting’ of the gully length to zero (gullies are eliminated by
162 ploughing) thus mainly occurs between mid-August and mid-September, after which gullies that
163 develop would remain as seasonal scars. The gully lengths reported in this paper thus reflect
164 gullying that occurred approximately from 15 August to 15 June. The aerial photographs (scale of
165 1:25,000 for 1947, and 1:30,000 for 1995) and I.G.N. orthophotographs with pixel sizes of 0.2 m
166 allowed ephemeral gullies to be easily mapped. Even though mapping the ephemeral gullies is to
167 some extent subjective, we used as minimal criterion the incision of plough ridges by the gully.

168

169 *2.3. Quantifying land and environmental controls*

170 In order to investigate the effect of land management and environmental controls on
171 ephemeral gully development, we analysed rainfall characteristics, crop cover, and the
172 implementation of fascines in the Aa River basin between 1947 and 2012. These factors can be

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173 considered as the key controls of the occurrence of ephemeral gullies, given the soil-topographical
174 conditions in the study area.

175 Cumulative precipitation (P_{cum} , mm) was obtained for the period 15 August to 15 June of
176 1946-1947, 1994-1995, 1999-2000, 2004-2005, 2008-2009 and 2011-2012. Since gullies mainly
177 incise during the most intensive rainfall events, the 24-h maximum precipitation ($P_{24h.max}$, mm)
178 was also determined. Rainfall data was acquired from the nearby Météo France weather stations
179 of Boulogne-sur-Mer (50°43'54"N, 1°35'54"E) (for 1946-1947 data from the nearby Saint-
180 Etienne-au-Mont was used), Dunkerque (51°03'18"N, 2°20'18"E), and Lille-Lesquin (50°34'12"N,
181 3°05'48"E). These stations are 30, 40, and 60 km, respectively, from the Aa River basin (Fig. 1).

182 Fascines and grass buffer strips were mapped from the orthophotographs, and could be
183 easily observed at the scale of the aerial photographs. We evaluated gully development by
184 identifying changes in the occurrence of these land management structures from 2005-2012
185 (because the first fascines were only applied since 2001) in the Aa River basin using 500 x 500 m²
186 grid cells.

187 Crop cover was assessed by considering the main crop type present. The registration of the
188 main crop type was based on the RPG data (French: *Registre Parcellaire Graphique*; Agence de
189 Services et de Paiement), which is a GIS-based database on the main crop type grown per cluster
190 of parcels of each farm (French: *ilot*). The lack of data limited our analysis of crop cover to the
191 year 2012, which we assume is representative of the entire study period. In total, the RPG data
192 covers 62% of the land surface. We analysed the relationship between the main crop type and gully
193 occurrence per farm. To verify possible bias caused by the interrelation between crop rotation and
194 slope gradient, we also investigated the effect of the average slope gradient on the main crop type.

195 In addition to the effect of dominant crop type, winter cover crops can also play a role in

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196 limiting erosion because these crops improve infiltration, reduce overland flow, and limit the
197 formation of soil crusts. Data on winter cover crops were, however, not readily available.
198 Desmyttere (2004) estimated that only 73-78 km² (~16-17%) of cropland in the Aa River basin
199 had the potential to support winter cover crops because these crops are not possible when crops
200 like winter wheat are being grown, or when sugar beets or maize are grown during spring-summer
201 (they are harvested late, in October-November).

202 Since 2014, winter cover cropping is mandatory according to national and regional
203 legislation, and before, several programs were in place that had a more limited impact (SmageAa,
204 FEADER). By late December, 78% of the winter cover crops are harvested (Desmyttere, 2004).
205 Because winter cover crops only became relevant over the past years, their effect was not
206 considered explicitly.

207

208 *2.4. Sediment storage behind fascines*

209 In order to improve our understanding of the effect of fascines on sediment dynamics and
210 gully development, the previous analysis was expanded by a fieldwork-based case study. Hence,
211 we focussed on a subarea (27.5 km²) of the Aa River basin with a high G_d . Between November
212 2015 and May 2016, the sediment storage by fascines was quantified. Sediment storage was
213 calculated by multiplying the volume of the sediment cones (surface area x average depth
214 determined by augering) with the bulk density (using one 100 cm² Kopecky ring sample per site;
215 weighted after oven-drying). Sediment storage behind fascines was compared to a quality
216 assessment of the fascines, based on a semi-quantitative assessment of the condition of the posts
217 or poles, the condition of vegetative filters (willow bunches mainly), the ground contact, presence
218 of gaps in the structure, and the positioning of the fascine relative to the thalweg.

219 We performed a detailed field survey on the effect of fascines on ephemeral gullying for
220 the multiple rainstorm event of 17-18 November 2016 with 53.2 mm of precipitation in two days.
221 The gullies and their headcut locations were mapped in detail in the field, and the topographic
222 threshold for gully head development was defined following the guidelines of Torri and Poesen
223 (2014) and Monsieurs et al. (2015). This involved using a fixed coefficient of $b = 0.38$ while fitting
224 the data to the power function $S = kA^{-b}$ (where S = slope and A = catchment area). The threshold
225 was defined by using the lower limit of the 95% prediction confidence interval around the mean
226 (Vandekerckhove et al., 1998). Investigating the precise impact of fascines on gully morphology
227 was completed for a well maintained fascine (that represents a best-case scenario) implemented
228 centrally along an ephemeral gully in Quelmes. Gully cross sections were measured at regular
229 intervals from the head to the end using Structure-from-Motion Multi-View Stereo (SfM-MVS)
230 methods. This involved recording the sections using multiple photographs and processing them in
231 PhotoScan (Agisoft) (Frankl et al., 2015). Event-based storage behind the fascine was also
232 quantified using SfM-MVS.

233

234 **3. Results**

235 *3.1. Controls on spatial and temporal variations of ephemeral gullying*

236 In total, we identified 269 sites vulnerable to ephemeral gully erosion, i.e., sites that were
237 impacted by erosion at some time in the past 70 yr (Fig. 2). The total length of ephemeral gullies,
238 G_l , varied between 24.9 (2012) and 84.4 km (1995) (Table 2). Gully density G_d varied between
239 0.39 m ha^{-1} (2012) and 1.31 m ha^{-1} (1995) (Table 3). These values are slightly higher when only
240 considering cropland (given that other land uses are not prone to ephemeral gullying in the Aa
241 River basin). Spatial variability of G_d is, however, considerable (reflected by the large standard

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242 deviations for the mean G_d , Table 3). At the scale of municipalities, a maximum G_d on cropland of
 243 15.67 m ha⁻¹ was registered in 1995 (Table 3).

244

Table 2: Relationships between gully length, precipitation and fascines in the Aa basin

	1947	1995	2005	2009	2012	Pearson r^2 between G_l and P_{cum} ($P_{24.max}$)
G_l (km)	47.8	84.4	37.6	31.7	24.9	$R^2=$
P_{cum} (mm) Boulogne-sur-Mer ($P_{24.max}$)	614 (26)	725 (32)	539 (44)	552 (27)	519 (26)	0.97* (0.01)
# fascines (on % of gully erosion sites)	0 (0)	0(0)	227 (22)	267 (28)	272 (29)	

* Significant with $p = 0.03$

245

246 Cumulative precipitation (P_{cum}) from the Boulogne-sur-Mer station displayed a strong significant
 247 relationship with G_l (R^2 of 0.97), making it the most relevant rainfall variable considered (Table
 248 2). Unexpectedly, $P_{24h.max}$ was not significant as an explanatory variable. Because the
 249 meteorological station is far away, it may not have captured the specific high-magnitude events
 250 that caused gully erosion in the study area, an observation also discussed by Boardman (2015). Fascine
 251 implementation has grown substantially since 2001, rapidly increasing to 227 in 2005 and 272 in
 252 2012, representing 22% and 29% of the gully erosion sites, respectively (Table 2).

253

Table 3: Gully density G_d (m ha⁻¹) variability at the scale of the entire Aa River basin and the municipalities. Descriptions for cropland are reported separately since ephemeral gully erosion does not apply to other land uses.

		1947		1995		2000*	
		all land uses	cropland	all land uses	cropland	all land uses	cropland
Aa River basin		0.74	1.11	1.31	1.96	0.58	0.87
Municipalities	Mean	0.83	1.08	1.48	1.87	0.64	0.91
	s.d.	1.40	1.62	2.07	2.62	1.31	1.90
	Max	7.96	8.07	9.35	15.67	6.42	10.75

	2005		2009		2012		Long-term average	
	all land uses	cropland	all land uses	cropland	all land uses	cropland	all land uses	cropland
Aa River basin	0.54	0.81	0.49	0.74	0.39	0.58	0.68	1.01
Municipalities	Mean	0.60	0.88	0.52	0.64	0.43	0.56	
	s.d.	0.89	1.37	0.70	0.73	0.63	0.78	
	Max	3.52	5.68	3.05	2.49	2.57	2.92	

254

255

256

257

Table 4: Net increase or decrease in mean gully length for erosion sites (N=269) as explained by fascines

Fascine	1995-2005			2005-2009			2009-2012		
	N	ΔG_l (m)		N	ΔG_l (m)		N	ΔG_l (m)	
With	60	-234	-85%	75	-28	-25%	77	-29	
Without	209	-157	-36%	194	-17	-8%	192	-19	
<i>Sign. (two-tailed t-test)</i>		<i>0.217</i>			<i>0.704</i>			<i>0.69</i>	
Newly established	60	-234	-85%	16	-70	-31%	6	-73	
Removed	0	n.a.	n.a.	1	0	0%	4	-42	
Present	0	n.a.	n.a.	59	-16	-3%	71	-26	
Not-Present	209	-157	-36%	193	-17	15%	188	-19	
One-Way ANOVA		<i>0.217</i>			<i>0.481</i>			<i>0.944</i>	

258

259 Spatio-temporal gully development shows a large degree of heterogeneity in the catchment for all

260 periods, and only a limited number of sites show recurrent gullying across all time periods or since

261 the first implementation of fascines (Fig. 3). The most vulnerable zones to erosion occur in the

262 southeastern part of the catchment and the area to the north of the ‘ruisseau d’Acquin’ stream. Over

263 all periods gully occurrence varied substantially. While an increase in ephemeral gullies occurred

264 between 1947 and 1995, the opposite trend was observed from 1995 to 2005, mainly attributed to

265 the 1995-2000 period (Fig. 4). Since 2005, the proportion of the study area exhibiting gully

266 occurrences is rather constant, although spatial variability remains high.

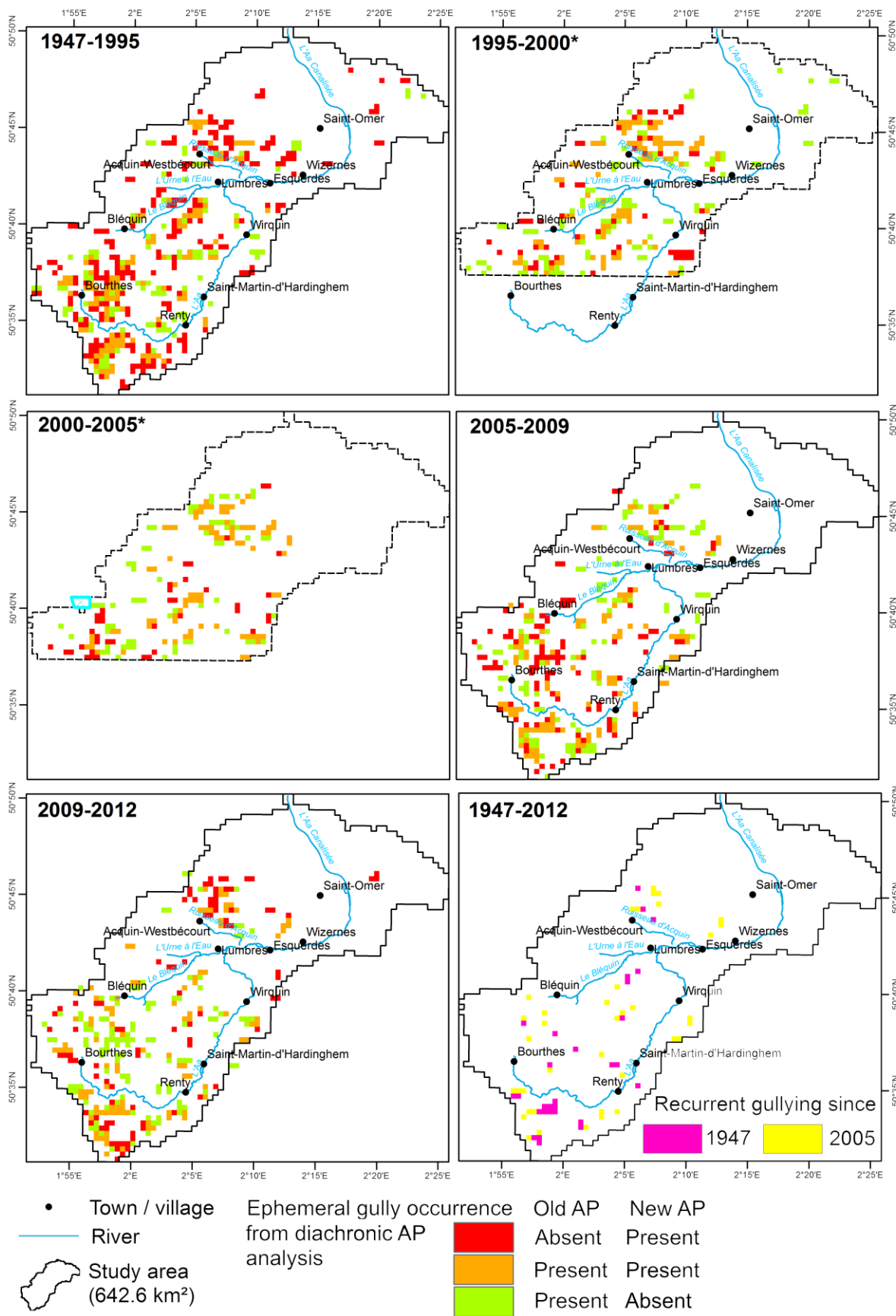
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268

269 **Figure 4:** Summary of gully occurrences (from Fig. 3). Since 2005, variability in ephemeral gully
270 absence - presence combinations remain rather constant. * based on partial area coverage (see Fig.
271 3).

272



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274 **Figure 3:** Spatio-temporal gully absence and presence analysed at the scale of 500 x 500 m grid
275 cells over 1947-2012. By comparing per period observations from the Old Aerial Photograph (AP)
276 to the New one, the combination of gully “Absence – Presence” points to gullies that only occurred
277 in the New period, while “Presence – Presence” points to reoccurring gullying. “Presence –
278 Absence” indicates that ephemeral gullying could only be attributed to the Old situation.

279

280 For the periods 1995-2005, 2005-2009 and 2009-2012 we investigated whether the presence of
281 fascines caused gully lengths to decrease per site (the observation year 2000 was not considered
282 here since it only covers the catchment partially). Net gully length decreased for all periods, but
283 the decrease in gully length was more marked for the sites with fascines (Table 4). This, however,
284 only considers the presence of fascines; not considering when they were implemented is a potential
285 bias in our interpretation. Therefore, we identified whether gully length change varied when
286 considering fascines that were newly established, removed, present, or not present for the periods
287 1995-2005, 2005-2009 and 2009-2012. The decrease in gully length was on average most marked
288 for the newly established fascines, with a 31-85% decrease in gully length (Table 4). Due to high
289 variability, however, these effects were not statistically significant.

290 To determine the effect of crop type on gullying, a ratio was computed to express relative degrees
291 of vulnerability (Table 1). A ratio of 1 indicates that the fraction of gullies attributed to a certain
292 crop type is proportional to the land area of that crop. A ratio greater than 1 coincides with an
293 increased vulnerability to gully erosion. Maize was found to have the highest ratio (2.75), followed
294 by protein crops and cereals (including wheat). The Aa basin is dominated by wheat crops, which
295 are at an early stage of growth stage in winter, rendering the soil prone to surface sealing. In
296 contrast, maize is sown in the early spring, thus leaving the land unprotected to early season

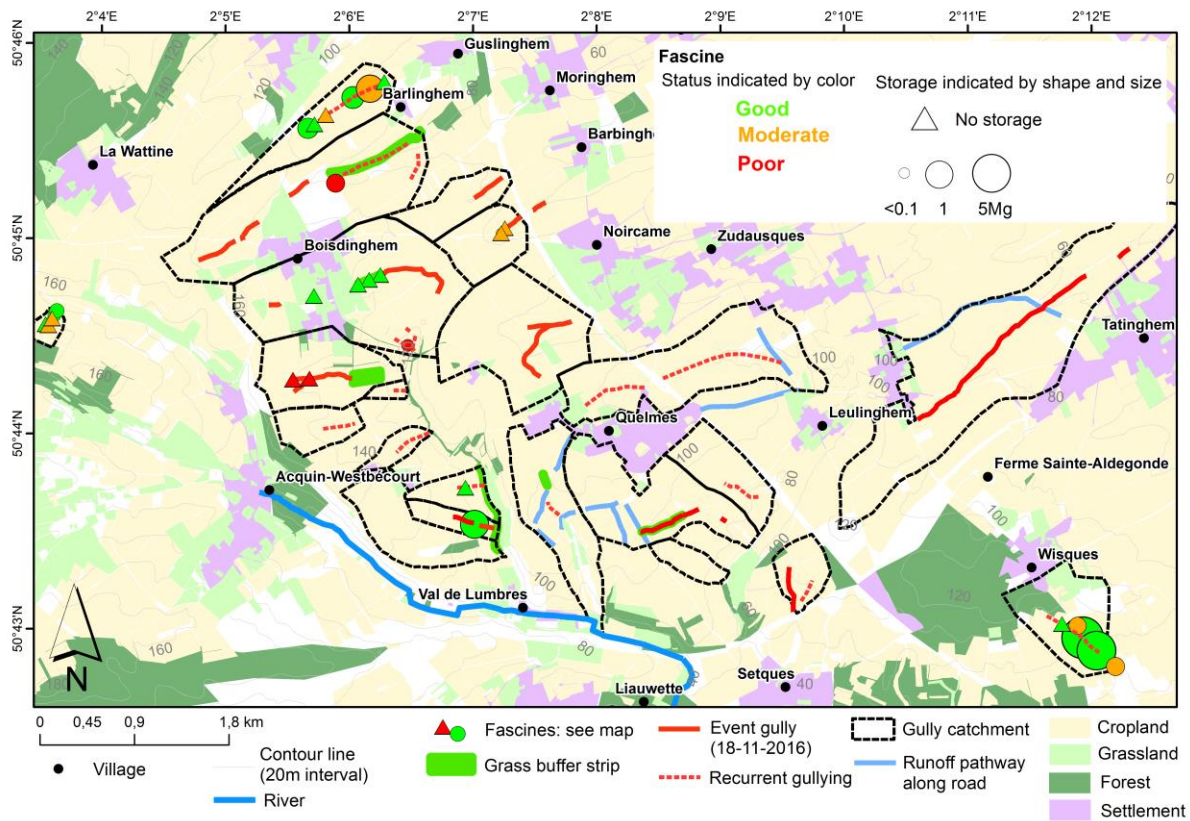
297 thunderstorms.

298

299 *3.2. Case study on recent hydrogeomorphic dynamics in headwaters*

300 Fifty-nine percent of the fascines visited during the winter of 2015-16 (29 total) functioned as a
301 sediment sinks. Given measurement precision (0.1 m^3), the fraction of buffering fascines can be
302 conservatively reduced to 47%. In terms of trapping efficiency, 55% of fascines were considered
303 to be good sediment buffers, while 31% were determined to be moderate and 14% poor. In total,
304 21.4 m^3 of sediment was stored during the monitoring period, which given an average bulk density
305 of 1.13 Mg m^{-3} , coincides with 24.2 Mg or 0.009 Mg ha^{-1} . On average, every fascine stored 1.7
306 Mg of sediment, with a maximum of 3.7 Mg during the winter period (Fig. 5).

307



308

309 **Figure 5:** Sediment storage by fascines in the case study following the winter of 2015-2016 and
 310 gully erosion dynamics following a recent thunderstorm of 18 November 2016. (Elevation data
 311 from SRTM-data, www.cgiar-csi.org, administrative outlines, rivers and roads from
 312 www.data.gouv.fr).

313

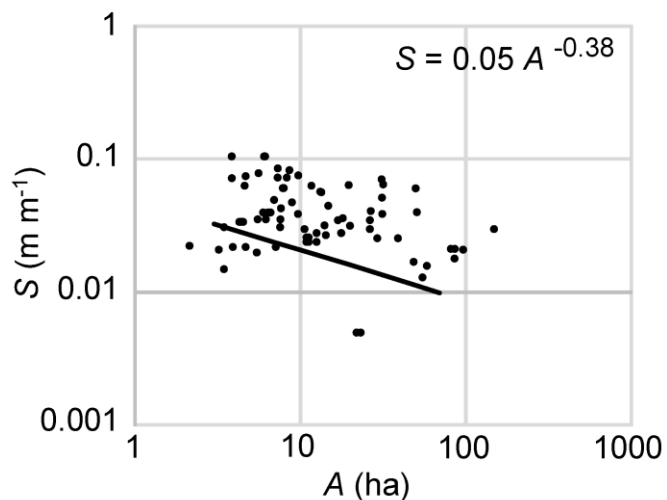
314 Detailed field visits following the rainstorms of 17-18 November 2016 indicated that the
 315 agricultural land remains very sensitive to hydrogeomorphic change. Approximately half of the
 316 catchments with recurrent gullying (10 of 19) were impacted during the rainstorm events, yielding
 317 a total G_1 of 3.7 km (Fig. 5). The corresponding topographic threshold line is shown in Fig. 6.
 318 Given that no recent change in the cropland vulnerability was found (see section 3.1), adding the

319 S - A data for all the recent recurrent headcuts increased the robustness of the threshold equation -
320 the average k -value was 0.11 ± 0.06 , with a fixed b exponent of 0.38.

321 Considering the influence of land cover, gully development was minimal in locations where winter
322 cover crops did mature and achieve dense ground cover by mid-November. Elsewhere, however,
323 partially successful germination left bare spots in the arable land vulnerable to runoff and erosion.

324 In particular, runoff was concentrated along wheel tracks in bare fields that had been recently
325 harvested. In a similar vein, road networks led to rapid runoff in thalwegs (Fig. 5). Locations with
326 compacted soils (e.g., sugar beet fields) and surface sealing (e.g., winter wheat fields) were major
327 contributors to runoff.

328



329

330 **Figure 6:** Topographic threshold for gully heads in the case study area (Fig. 5).

331

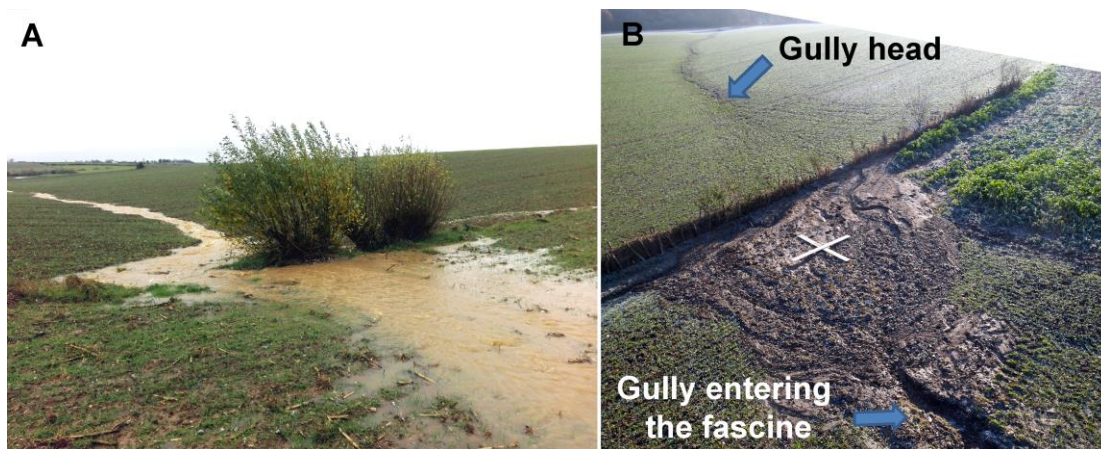
332 Overall, fascines were moderately effective at storing sediment released from upslope croplands.

333 Effectiveness seems to have been limited by poor maintenance (missing willow cuttings at the soil

334 surface, large gaps, rotten poles, etc.), as well as fascine design (that do not extend far enough from

335 the gullies). For example, some gullies simply migrated around the outside of the fascine (see Fig.
336 7A). However, in situations where fascines were well maintained and designed they proved quite
337 effective at both storing an impressive amount of sediment (Fig. 7B) and, in certain instances,
338 completely ending sediment transport via gully networks. Single-event storage at the fascine of
339 Fig. 7B was 12.5 Mg. However, even though their hydrological buffering effect was apparent,
340 runoff concentration below fascines often resulted in a new incision (Fig. 7B) that we interpret to
341 be a clear water effect (Boix-Fayos et al., 2007) given the drop in sediment concentration as
342 compared to the more limited reduction in peak discharge. Although the fascine may not be able
343 to eliminate gullies, the modified discharge characteristics affect cross-sectional properties. From
344 our case study in Quelmes, the average cross section below the fascine was significantly smaller
345 than above the fascine (t-test, $p=0.015$) as determined by quantifying gully cross sections in detail
346 (e.g., the example of Fig. 7B, Fig. 8)

347
348

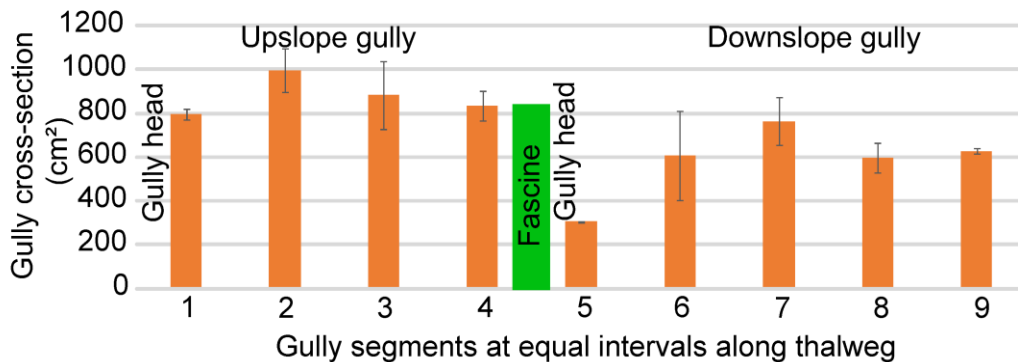


349
350 **Figure 7:** (A) Poorly maintained fascine unable to store sediment due to bypassing and, (B) well-
351 implemented recent fascine that stores a large volume of sediment following a single rainstorm.

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352 Note that below the fascine a new gully initiated due to a clear water effect, though of lesser
353 magnitude.

354



355

356 **Figure 8:** Gully cross-sectional change as impacted by a fascine.

357

358 4. Discussion

359 4.1 The magnitude of ephemeral gully erosion in Northern France

360 Ephemeral gully erosion densities reported in this study are very low as compared to values
361 reported by other studies (Table 5). This can largely be explained, however, by the scale of
362 investigation. Few other studies report ephemeral gully densities at the scale of an entire river
363 basin. The size of our study area is one order of magnitude larger than the second largest study
364 area for which data on ephemeral gully erosion densities were reported (Table 5). As G_d decreases
365 with an increase in study area (Fig. 9), care must be used in comparing our results to those of other
366 studies. Studies that consider areas smaller than 1 km² target areas that are especially vulnerable
367 to ephemeral gully erosion and do not necessarily represent their wider region. Furthermore,
368 because the temporal variability in G_d is high (Table 3), investigating gully erosion over a short
369 period may reflect extreme events (Øygarden, 2003). Our results should, therefore, mainly be

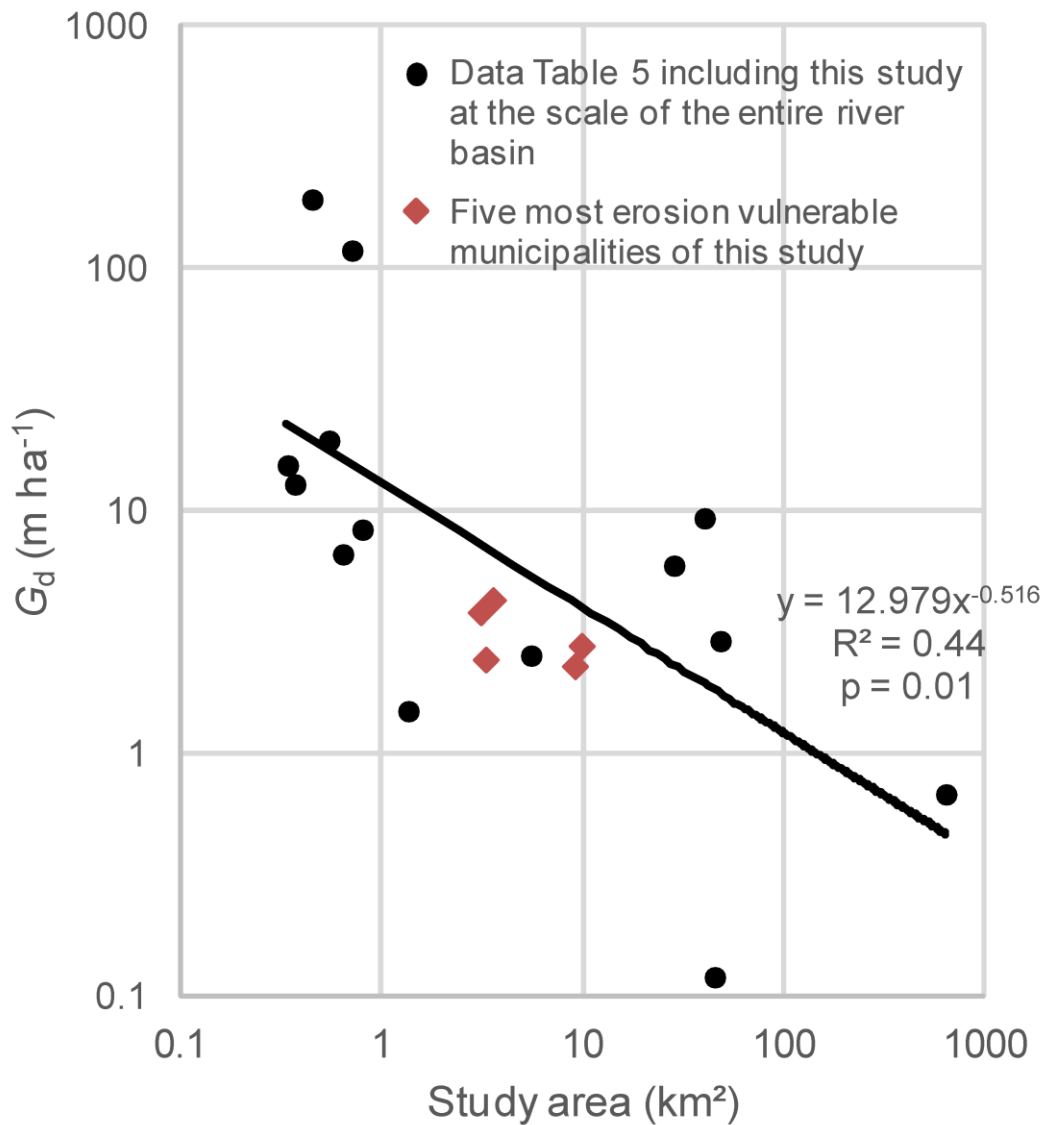
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370 considered at the spatial scale of municipalities (2-23 km²) and compared to other long-term
 371 studies. Plotting the five most erosion-vulnerable municipalities in Fig. 9 indeed indicates that G_d
 372 values reported in this study (2.23-4.30 m ha⁻¹) are comparable to other study areas of similar sizes.

Table 5: Variability in ephemeral gully erosion density (G_d , m ha⁻¹)

Location	Study area (km ²)	G_d (all land uses)	G_d (cropland)	Study period	Reference
Belgium, central	28.24 (cropland)	x	5.97	Multiple years (1947-1996)	Nachtergaele and Poesen (1999)
Belgium, central	5.5	2.54	x	Multiple years (1963-1986)	Vandaele et al. (1997)
China, Heilongjiang	0.64 (cropland)	x	6.64	≤ 1 year (2005)	Zhang et al. (2007)
China, Inner Mongolia	0.55 (29% cropland)	19.55	36.96	≤ 1 year (2002-2003)	Cheng et al. (2006)
China, Shaanxi, loess plateau	0.45	192.94	x	1 year 2002	Cheng et al. (2007)
Czech, central Bohemian region	0.34 (cropland)	x	15.45	Multiple years (1953-2013)	Báčová and Krása (2016)
France, north	634 (67% cropland)	0.68	1.04	Multiple years (1947-2012)	This study
Italy, Umbria	48 (60% cropland)	2.92	4.84	≤ 1 year (March-May 2010)	Fiorucci et al. (2015)
Italy, Sicily	1.35	1.5	x	Multiple years (1996-2013)	Capra and Spada (2015)
Italy, Sicily	45	0.12	x	≤ 1 year (2014)	Ollobarren et al. (2016)
Norway, south	0.71 (cropland)	x	118.77	≤ 1 year (1990)	Øygarden (2003)
Portugal, Alentejo	40	9.35	x	3 years (1970-1985)	Vandaele et al. (1997)
Spain, northwest	0.37 (cropland)	x	12.91	2 years (1997-1999)	Valcárcel et al. (2003)
Spain, Navarra	0.88	8.40	x	1 year (1995-1996)	Casalí et al. (1999)

373



374

375 **Figure 9:** Relationship between the size of study areas and gully densities G_d reported in the
376 literature.

377

378 4.2. The implementation of fascines as erosion control measure

379 The implementation of fascines as a measure to stabilize slopes and protect against erosion has a
380 long tradition (Lachat, 1991; Evette et al., 2009; Stokes et al., 2009) and has been utilized across

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381 many regions, especially as riverbank or mountain torrent stabilization measures (Rey, 2004; Patel,
382 2012). Because of increasing labor costs over time, however, bioengineering methods have mostly
383 been replaced by hard engineering approaches such as retention ponds (Boardman et al., 1994).
384 Their current implementation can be viewed as a rediscovery and improvement of past
385 bioengineering methods. Fascines are often implemented in a land management strategy that also
386 aims at improving the ecological connectivity of the landscape (Devkota et al., 2006; Li and Zhang,
387 2006) as well as improving aesthetics.

388 Given the promising results of pilot projects in the municipalities of Aquin-Westbécourt,
389 Moringhem, and Thiembronne, the moderate cost of ~20-35 euro per metre and experiments such
390 as those by AREAS (*Association de recherche sur le Ruissellement, l'Erosion et l'Aménagement*
391 *du Sol*; reviewed in Richet et al., 2016), fascines were widely implemented in the Aa River basin.
392 Planning and implementation of fascines was accomplished in a thoughtful manner according to
393 design guidelines. For example, fascines were centrally located in the thalweg and were
394 constructed wide enough to allow buffer flows (Fig. 1 C, D). In addition to practical considerations
395 (e.g., plot boundaries), topographic threshold lines as shown in Fig. 6 can be used to optimally
396 identify catchments along thalwegs where recurrent gullyng is expected to occur in croplands.
397 However, while farmers initially benefited from decreased soil erosion at no cost to them, they did
398 have to bear the cost of on-going maintenance as specified by the program. Farmers also often see
399 fascines as temporary measures (following severe hydrogeomorphic events) and, thus, do not
400 know how to maintain them in the long term (Heitz et al., 2012). Where willow stakes do not
401 survive (often due to the interaction with farming activities), they need replacement. In a similar
402 manner, bundled willow branch cuttings will also eventually decompose and need to be replaced.
403 Previous work has indicated that the effectiveness of fascines relates to their age and that without

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404 proper management fascines only have a life expectancy of four years (Degré et al., 2015; Bielders
405 et al., 2016). Others report survival rates as low as 54% for willow stakes after only 1.5 yr
406 following implementation (Flessner, 1997). Moreover, in order to sustain the runoff buffering
407 capacity, excess sedimentation needs to be removed at least once a year as well as following major
408 runoff events. Without regular maintenance fascines will typically lose their buffering capacity and
409 will need replacement after only a few years. Because farmers are usually not concerned with
410 mudflows resulting from ephemeral gullying in their fields, and given that water ponding behind
411 fascines disrupts their farming activities, they may not necessarily appreciate the positive effect of
412 fascines. Our work indicates, however, that their impact is not trivial. Sediment storage by fascines
413 reported here is similar to the amount of material that was recently quantified in Wallonia
414 (Belgium), where six fascines stored 0.5-1.7 Mg over a half year period in 2015 (compared to an
415 average of 1.7 Mg stored by the fascines in this study). Seventy percent of the fascines from that
416 study were in good condition and were well designed, whereas 55% of the fascines described here
417 (implemented since 2001) are functioning as good sedimentation buffers. For the entire Aa
418 catchment, these figures drop even further to 23% (according to the a recent SmageAa study). This
419 also indicates the impact of time on fascine quality and the need to invest in maintenance.

420

421 **5. Conclusions**

422 The Aa River basin of northern France, similar to many other loess-covered regions, displays open-
423 field agricultural landscapes where ephemeral gullies are common. Here we observed that despite
424 efforts taken to mitigate erosion, gullying remains a major challenge. Over the entire basin,
425 densities of 0.58-1.96 m ha⁻¹ can be expected in cropland during the winter half-year with year-to-
426 year variability largely explained by winter precipitation. The spatial variability at the scale of

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427 municipalities, however, is high as demonstrated by a maximum G_d of 15.67 m ha⁻¹ in 1995.
428 Considering the five most erosion vulnerable municipalities of this study, long-term average gully
429 densities (2.23-4.30 m ha⁻¹) are comparable to those of other studies of similar spatial extend.
430 Fascines have been implemented since 2001 in the study area and are present on ~30% of the 269
431 gully erosion sites. We demonstrated that fascines have a positive effect on increasing the
432 landscape's resilience to ephemeral gully erosion. Fascines tend to reduce gully lengths, especially
433 when newly implemented (reduction of 31-85%). The gully length reduction is, however, quite
434 variable and therefore not statistically significant. This is mainly due to the poor maintenance of
435 fascines, as they are often bypassed by runoff flows. Furthermore, re-incision occurs downslope
436 of fascines as a result of a clear water effect. Those re-incisions are smaller than the upslope gullies
437 owing to the buffering of peak flows. For a given gully length, the total eroded volume is thus
438 smaller. Fascines do store sediment because they function as buffers to runoff and sediment filters.
439 An assessment over the 2015-2016 winter period for 29 fascines indicated that they store on
440 average 1.7 Mg of sediment. A maximum storage of 12.5 Mg for only one fascine during a single
441 rainfall event in November 2016 was observed, indicating significant potential as control measures
442 when well implemented. This study demonstrates that vegetation control measures can reduce
443 ephemeral gully erosion, but that improving their management in the appropriate socio-economic
444 context is crucial.

445

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456

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