



Hillslope degradation in representative Italian areas: just soil erosion risk or opportunity of development?

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TITLE PAGE

Title:

HILLSLOPE DEGRADATION IN REPRESENTATIVE ITALIAN AREAS: JUST SOIL EROSION RISK OR OPPORTUNITY OF DEVELOPMENT?

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ABSTRACT

In the recent years, many researches dealt with the impact of human and climate change on the morpho-evolution of Mediterranean catchments characterized by high ecological and cultural value. In this paper, we speculated how humans can influence hillslope degradation by reviewing the relationships between denudation processes and land use changes in some representative areas located in different Italian regions (i.e., Liguria, Tuscany, Basilicata and Sicily). The selected study cases are characterized by different climatic and geological features, land use and land management and can be considered indicative of the hillslope degradation issues that affected the Apennines during the last century. We compared and discussed the main outcomes from previous studies, with the aim of identifying the main drivers leading to hillslope degradation and to shed light on the role of human action. We revealed that hillslope degradation can be mainly related to deforestation for land reclamation, cropland abandonment and the increase of hazardous rainfall. Moreover, we focused on how human impact can have both positive and negative feedbacks. In some cases (e.g., badlands), the land levelling has produced an initial inhibition of land degradation, while after intensive agricultural practices accelerated soil depletion has occurred, favouring erosion processes. Analogously, terracing contrasted erosion until the entire terrace system was maintained but abandoned terraced slopes can increase the magnitude of geo-hydrological phenomena in response to high-intensity rainfall. On the other hand, both rural landscape and related erosional landforms can be appreciated as elements of landscape diversity and contribute to tourism development.

KEYWORDS: badlands; hillslope degradation; human impact; geomorphological risk; terraced landscape.

1 INTRODUCTION

In the recent decades, there has been an increasing global perception of the environmental issues deriving from slope degradation and of their impacts on natural landscape, biodiversity, ecosystems and society (Müller & Weigelt, 2013; Blaikie & Brookfield, 2015; Keesstra *et al.*, 2016). Over the centuries humans have modified large areas of Mediterranean natural landscape to develop agricultural and livestock activities (Grove & Rackham, 2003; Butzer, 2005; Blondel, 2006; Lasanta *et al.*, 2017). Large areas on natural slopes were shaped because of deforestation, reworking of soil covers and farming practices. Generally, gently slopes were cultivated as sloping fields whereas steep ones were terraced (Grove & Rackham, 2003; Sluiter & de Jong, 2007). Agricultural terraces are traditional farming systems and represent one of the most evident human signatures on hilly and mountainous landscapes (Tarolli *et al.*, 2014; Arnáez *et al.*, 2015). Traditional agro-silvo-pastoral systems are of considerable importance since they contribute to the meticulous management of land, preserving both the natural environments and the ecosystems (Morgan, 1995; Lasanta *et al.*, 2005). Numerous studies testified that, if properly practiced and maintained, traditional farming systems are essential for soil conservation and play a crucial role in reducing the effects of hydrological and geomorphological processes (Wakindiki & Ben-Hur, 2002; Louwagie *et al.*, 2011).

Starting from the mid-20th century, many hilly and mountainous landscapes of Europe faced significant demographic, social and economic changes (McDonald *et al.*, 2000; Mottet *et al.*, 2006). One of the major consequences of this trend was the abandonment of farming areas (García-Ruiz & Lana-Renault, 2011). Agricultural landscapes have been gradually replaced by scrublands, natural woods and reforested areas, causing a homogenization of the landscape (McDonald *et al.*, 2000; Poyatos *et al.*, 2003; Vicente-Serrano *et al.*, 2005; Lasanta *et al.*, 2015). On the contrary, many hilly territories passed from traditional to intensive agriculture in response to the growing market demand and to the increase in population density (García-Ruiz & Lasanta, 1990; Antrop, 2004; Lasanta *et al.*, 2017). The need for new cultivable and well-exposed areas led to extensive deforestation practices and remodelling of badlands areas (Piccarreta *et al.*, 2006a). Due to land abandonment and land reclamation, hilly and mountainous landscapes have been subject to widespread degradation (García-Ruiz & Lana-Renault, 2011). Slope degradation, together with new scenarios of climate change, has an essential role in increasing erosion and landslide susceptibility (Glade, 2003; Piccarreta *et al.*, 2006a; Capolongo *et al.*, 2008; Lesschen *et al.*, 2008; Vergari *et al.*, 2011; Cevasco *et al.*, 2015; Galve *et al.*, 2015; Brunetti *et al.*, 2018). Where peculiar geologic (e.g., environments characterized by erodible terrains) and climatic settings exist, slope degradation can favour the development of badlands (Capelli *et al.*, 1997; Phillips, 1998; Clarke & Rendell, 2000; Faulkner *et al.*, 2003; Farifteh & Soeters, 2006; Nadal-Romero *et al.*, 2008; Vergari *et al.*, 2013a; Vergari, 2015). In these landscapes, the intense effect of surface runoff is accompanied by the increase of connectivity between hillslopes and channels that can favour the occurrence of flooding phenomena at the valley floors (Poesen & Hooke, 1997; Faulkner, 2008; García-Ruiz *et al.*, 2008). Hillslope degradation in response to land abandonment, management changes and climatic factors has been also documented in many areas of the Mediterranean Basin (Ispikoudis *et al.*, 1993; Cerdà 1997;

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4 Lasanta *et al.*, 2001; Grove & Rackham, 2003; van Eetvelde & Antrop, 2003; Lasanta *et al.*, 2005;
5 Giupponi *et al.*, 2006; Sluiter & de Jong, 2007; Agnoletti, 2007; Koulouri & Giourga, 2007; García-Ruiz,
6 2010; García-Ruiz & Lana-Renault, 2011; Arnáez *et al.*, 2011; Stringer & Harris, 2014; Lasanta *et al.*,
7 2015). Moreover, in recent years many researches dealt with the impact of human and climate changes
8 within Mediterranean catchments characterized by high ecological and cultural values and revealed that
9 these basins can be considered as representative of the land degradation issues occurring at wider scales
10 (García-Ruiz *et al.*, 2008; Cevasco *et al.*, 2014; Brandolini *et al.*, 2018).

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13 In the last two decades, the availability of powerful remote sensing techniques has greatly improved the
14 assessment of the hydro-geomorphic effects connected to hillslope degradation (Roering *et al.*, 2013;
15 Tarolli, 2014; Passalacqua *et al.*, 2015 and references therein). High-resolution topographic data from
16 airborne and terrestrial LiDAR (Light Detection and Ranging), for example, offered great opportunities of
17 measuring and monitoring soil erosion and mass movements in hilly environments (Ardizzone *et al.*,
18 2007; Jaboyedoff *et al.*, 2012; Pirotti *et al.*, 2012; Trevisani *et al.*, 2012; Cavalli *et al.*, 2013). Moreover,
19 Structure from Motion (SfM) techniques are recently increasingly being used in detecting topographic
20 changes, also through Unmanned Aerial Vehicles (UAVs) (Passalacqua *et al.*, 2014; Smith & Vericat,
21 2015). In Italy, different methods were applied for the quantification of the morpho-evolution rates in
22 highly erodible areas under different spatial scales, covering different time intervals and with different
23 resolutions (Del Monte *et al.*, 2015): monitoring with erosion pins (Della Seta *et al.*, 2009), repeated
24 topographic surveys with differential GPS (Vergari *et al.*, 2013b) and LiDAR or UAV derived high-
25 resolution DEMs comparison (Cavalli *et al.*, 2017; Neugirg *et al.*, 2016; Brandolini *et al.*, 2018).
26 Moreover, the obtained results contributed to produce geomorphological susceptibility and hazard
27 estimation by means of statistical methods (Vergari *et al.*, 2011; Conoscenti *et al.*, 2014; Galve *et al.*,
28 2015).

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31 This paper aims to shed light on how humans can influence hillslope degradation and provide some
32 insights useful to define virtuous management strategies that are able to conciliate the land reclamation
33 with the soil conservation. We review and discuss the geomorphological and hydrological aspects
34 concerning the morpho-evolution and the degradation processes of some representative hilly and
35 mountainous Mediterranean areas based on previous studies conducted in the recent years. The key
36 outcomes of hillslope degradation were analyzed in four representative catchments selected in different
37 Italian regions: Liguria (Cinque Terre), Tuscany (Val d'Orcia), Basilicata (Fossa Bradanica) and Sicily
38 (Scillato). In detail, we gathered from literature some relevant findings on the quantification of the
39 relationships between denudation processes and land use changes in the selected study areas. We
40 examined the effects of erosion processes acting both over small (e.g., slopes) and large (e.g., catchment)
41 scales and referred to short (i.e., single extreme rainfall events) or long (i.e., some decades) time spans.
42 We compared and discussed these outcomes to identify the main driving factors leading to hillslope
43 degradation issues. Degradation processes are widespread in the selected areas causing loss and depletion
44 of soil, economic damage, risk conditions and environmental changes. Considering also the increasingly
45 growing tourist activities in the selected areas, the results of this study are expected to contribute in
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4 defining a proper land management and support the decision-making in planning and scheduling effective
5 strategies for landscape conservation and enhancement.
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8 **2 STUDY AREAS**

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10 The study areas are located along the Apennine chain (Figure 1) and are representative of hilly and
11 mountainous Mediterranean landscapes particularly sensitive to climatic and anthropic changes. The
12 selected study cases can be considered indicative of the land degradation issues that overall affected wide
13 portions of the Italian territory during the last century. Information on the main climatic, morphological
14 and lithological conditions in the areas studied, together with the dominant denudation processes, were
15 collected from previous studies and summarized in Table 1. Additional data were gathered on land use
16 changes, erosion rates, land management and main land degradation factors. The considered basins show
17 wide ranges of climatic, geological and geomorphological settings, different land use evolutions and land
18 management practices.
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20 Although the climatic features are typical of the mild Mediterranean climate, among the study areas there
21 are some differences in terms of rainfall regimes. On average, rainfall amounts decrease moving from the
22 northern (i.e., Cinque Terre and Val d'Orcia) to the southern (i.e., Fossa Bradanica and Scillato) sectors
23 of the Apennines. As can be noted by Table 1, all the considered areas underwent very severe landscape
24 changes because of both unsustainable anthropogenic actions and management policies that concur to
25 increase proneness to hydrological and geomorphological phenomena. Different erosion processes
26 occurred, and with different magnitude, depending on both the lithological and the morphological
27 features. In case of steep slopes (i.e., Cinque Terre) shallow landslides prevail while in presence of more
28 gently slopes gully and rill erosions are more frequent. However, it is interesting to note that in spite of
29 the land degradation issues and hazard implications, attracting tourist activities were developed.
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32 *2.1 Cinque Terre - Vernazza catchment*

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40 Cinque Terre area is located in the eastern Tyrrhenian side of Liguria (north-western Italy) and represents
41 a unique and dramatic example of terraced coastal landscape within the Mediterranean region
42 (Brandolini, 2017). In this sector of northern Apennines, ophiolite (serpentinites and gabbros) and
43 sedimentary (limestones, sandstones and clay-shales) rocks mainly outcrop. From a geomorphological
44 point of view, this part of Liguria is characterized by a sequence of small coastal basins with the main
45 water divide located very close to the coastline that mainly consists of rocky cliffs. The inner territory
46 shows very steep slopes covered by thin eluvial-colluvial deposits and carved by short linear streams
47 often controlled by tectonics (Brandolini, 2017). The geographical and morphological features of the
48 region determine a mild Mediterranean climate. The southerly aspect together with the presence of a
49 chain effect, due to the ridge of mountains very close to the sea, produce mild mean annual temperature
50 (14.5-15.5 °C). Generally, winter is mild (lowest mean temperatures of 7-8 °C) while summer is hot and
51 dry (mean peaks of 22.0-24.5 °C). On average, because of the combined effect of the humidifying action
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4 of the sea and the chain effect, the coastal sectors receive somewhat abundant rainfall annually (mean
5 annual value of about 1040 mm referred to the Levanto rain gauge station and considering a period of 62
6 years between 1954 and 2016), mainly concentrated in autumn and winter (Figure 2A) (Cevasco *et al.*,
7 2015). It is worth to note that heavy and very concentrated rainfall can affect this area during the autumn
8 season, as dramatically evidenced by the October 25th, 2011 rainstorm event (Cevasco *et al.*, 2015;
9 Galanti *et al.*, 2017; Brunetti *et al.*, 2018).

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12 In the Cinque Terre area, since the 12th century natural slopes were deeply modified by human
13 intervention. Through deforestation practices and reworking of soil covers, natural slopes were shaped by
14 terraces retained by thousands of kilometres of dry stone walls, mainly for vineyards and olive groves. In
15 the 19th century terraces reached the maximum extension occupying up to 60% of the entire territory of
16 Cinque Terre (33 km²) (Terranova *et al.*, 2002; Terranova *et al.*, 2006). Due to the severe morphological
17 features of the area, characterized by very steep slopes, agricultural terraces emphasize harmony among
18 human and natural landscape. In 1997 UNESCO classified the Cinque Terre area as a World Heritage Site
19 because of its scenic, environmental, historical and cultural values, while since 1999 the entire area was
20 declared National Park. In this area, as for the entire Liguria region, agricultural terraces have played an
21 important social and economic role, enabling the development of a thriving agriculture that provided a
22 variety of resources that supported many inhabitants. Beginning in the 1950s, but following a trend
23 started at the end of the 19th century, Ligurian hilly and mountainous areas experienced important
24 management changes because of the progressive exodus of farmers towards cities of northern Italy, where
25 dynamic economic activities were growing fast after the Second World War. These changes led to an
26 extensive abandonment of farming activity and of a significant percentage of traditional agricultural
27 terraced slopes. At the beginning of the 21st century, approximately 80% of terraces resulted abandoned
28 in the Cinque Terre area (Terranova *et al.*, 2002). The lack of maintenance of terraces due to farmer
29 abandonment increased the effects of hydrological and geomorphological processes, leading to
30 widespread slope degradation issues (Faccini *et al.*, 2005; Cevasco *et al.*, 2013a; 2014; Brandolini *et al.*,
31 2018). The instability of the dry-stone masonry and the poor functioning of runoff artificial water
32 drainage systems represented mainly causes in increasing both the erosion and the landslide
33 susceptibility. The effects of land degradation occur forcefully in concomitance of intense rainstorms that
34 can affect the coastal sectors of the Liguria region (Cevasco *et al.*, 2009; Cevasco *et al.*, 2012). The case
35 of the Vernazza small coastal catchment (5.8 km²) was selected as the most representative example of
36 links between land use, land management practices and single extreme rainfall event. This basin shows
37 very steep slopes (more than 50% of the slope gradient varies between 30° and 40°) covered by thin soil
38 layers (thickness from few centimetres to 2.5 m) overlying sandstone-claystone flysch and pelitic
39 complex bedrocks (Cevasco *et al.*, 2013b; Cevasco *et al.*, 2014). Streams are short and present an
40 ephemeral hydrological regime; moreover, due to their steep profiles are characterized by a high erosive
41 and transport power. Land use mapping, performed through field surveys and aerial photographs
42 interpretation (Cevasco *et al.*, 2013a), revealed that agricultural terraces occupy approximately 49% of
43 the entire basin extension whereas 51% is characterized by wood/scrub land, mainly concentrated in the
44 upper portion (Figure 3). Terraced slopes were grouped into still cultivated (CT) and abandoned with
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4 poor (ATP) and dense (ATD) vegetation cover, respectively. ATP have been abandoned from less than
5 25–30 years and characterized by herbaceous cover or shrubs; ATD have been abandoned for more than
6 25–30 years and are mainly covered by forest tree species or scrub (Carl & Richter, 1989). ATD resulted
7 the most widespread (67.9% of the total terraced slopes) followed by CT (16.1%) and ATP (16.0%).
8 Many studies were focused on the relationships between land use and geo-hydrological phenomena
9 caused by the 25th October 2011 extreme rainstorm within the Vernazza catchment. During the
10 rainstorm, rain gauges located along the coast a few kilometers west of the Vernazza village registered
11 hourly intensity rainfall peaks slightly higher than 110 mmh^{-1} (Figure 2B). Rainfall amounts were even
12 more severe within the inland Vara/Magra valleys, where a cumulative daily rainfall value of 539 mm
13 was recorded, with an hourly rainfall intensity up to 153 mmh^{-1} (Figure 2C) (Cevasco *et al.*, 2015). The
14 mobilized materials from the slopes were charged by streams giving rise to mud/debris floods that
15 affected the Vernazza village, causing considerable damage and three casualties. Immediately after the
16 event, coupling detailed analysis of high-resolution aerial photograph with field surveys, an inventory of
17 the geo-hydrological processes was performed (Cevasco *et al.*, 2013a). Within the Vernazza catchment,
18 more than 500 rainfall induced shallow landslides were mapped along with many intense accelerated
19 erosion processes, corresponding to about 1.50 and 1.65% of the entire basin area, respectively. The
20 analyses of the landslide distribution in relation to land use revealed that landslides particularly affected
21 agricultural terraced slopes pointing out their extreme vulnerability. In fact, approximately 88% of the
22 landslides were triggered on terraced environment (Cevasco *et al.*, 2014). In this regard, pre-event and
23 post-event LiDAR DTMs comparison (Figure 2D) revealed that shallow landslide mobilized soil volumes
24 were higher for abandoned terraced slopes than still cultivated ones (Brandolini *et al.*, 2018).
25 Furthermore, important findings came from the relationships between landslide magnitude and degree of
26 abandonment. Brandolini *et al.* (2018) evaluated the mobilized debris volumes per unit area, by means of
27 the definition of the Landslide Volumetric Index (LVI), revealing that ATP represented the most
28 hazardous land use class since characterized by erosion rates resulting approximately 2 and 3 times higher
29 than ATD and CT, respectively (Figure 2E, F). These results confirm that land abandonment and
30 agricultural mismanagement can play a key role in intensifying the magnitude of shallow landslides in
31 case of a single extreme rainfall. Because of the high environmental and cultural values of the area, the
32 restoration of abandoned terraces along with the recovery and maintenance of drainage systems must
33 have a primary role in the future scheduling of mitigation and prevention strategies of geomorphological
34 risk (Brandolini & Cevasco, 2015).
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46 47 2.2 Upper Orcia Valley – Tuscany

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49 The Upper Orcia Valley is located in Southern Tuscany, within the Ombrone River Basin. The geology of
50 the area mainly consists of Plio-Pleistocene highly erodible marine and continental successions (chiefly
51 clays, silty clays and sandy clays) deposited within a NW–SE trending graben. The climate is temperate
52 warm, presenting the typical Mediterranean variability. Data from the National Hydrological Year Books,
53 related to certain local stations and referred to the time period comprises between 1951 and 1996, indicate
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4 that the average annual precipitation is about 700 mm, with peaks ranging from about 500 to 1100 mm
5 during exceptional years, while the mean annual temperature is around 14°C (Aucelli *et al.*, 2016).

6 During the Holocene, severe erosion processes occurred on Plio-Pleistocene marine deposits, mainly
7 clayey, highly uplifted during the Quaternary. Here, fluvial incision and hillslope denudation entail high
8 suspended sediment load and, in particular, water erosion is responsible for the development of the typical
9 badlands with *calanchi* and *biancane* landforms (Del Monte, 2017).

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11 “Biancane” are small clay domes up to approximately 15 m high that are mostly bare of vegetation on the
12 typically steeper southern slopes, where rill erosion is particularly strong. *Biancane* landforms are
13 frequent on the smooth hilly landscape, although they have been widely levelled due to local crop-
14 growing activities during the last centuries. “Calanchi” mark the rougher landscape, where the steepest
15 hillslopes prevent relevant human activities; *calanchi* show a resistant caprock, driving a parallel-
16 retreating evolution of rugged steep slopes (Del Monte, 2017). Shallow mass movements are highly
17 representative, contributing to slope denudation along with water erosion. The most frequent mass
18 movement types are rotational slides and complex landslides. On gentler slopes, mudflows, soil creep and
19 solifluction are greatly widespread.

20 Land reclamation has significantly affected the landscape of the study areas during the last decades: as a
21 result, the vegetation cover is sparse because of the widespread deforestation of the hills reserved for
22 crops and grazing. Moreover, Figure 4 shows the vast levelled badland zones of the Upper Orcia Valley,
23 which reach almost the 70% of the original *calanchi* and *biancane* landforms (Guasparri, 1993). Many
24 *calanchi* have been modified or deleted, but the very steep slopes of the most picturesque *calanchi* have
25 deterred the anthropic remodelling (Figure 5A). Conversely, *biancane* areas, developed on low-dip
26 slopes, have been almost completely deleted, and they survive today in a few areas protected by law
27 (Figure 5B). Thus, nowadays, most of the area is characterized by sowable or uncultivated ground. Rills
28 and gullies, ephemeral or permanent, often develop in croplands because of concentrated rainfall. In many
29 sites, piping is also favored by land-use changes, such as cropland abandonment. The disappearance of
30 the *biancana* landscape is also due to the encroaching vegetation, and the following loss of ground for
31 pioneer vegetation, resulting in a global decrease in biodiversity, as the encroachment was widely
32 attributable to ruderal species.

33 A long-lasting field monitoring program have contributed to quantify erosion rates at the catchment scale,
34 thus assessing the on-site effects of water erosion. Data obtained showed that the mean annual values of
35 ground level variations due to water erosion range between 1 and 2.5 cm a⁻¹ on badlands (Figure 5C).
36 Nonetheless, at the hillslope scale considerable space variability of ground level changes can be
37 explained, for example, by temporary deposition landforms due to frequent landsliding. Comparison of
38 pluviometric data and measured erosion rates attested that clay removal by water erosion is generally due
39 to intense rainfall event preceded by quite long dry periods, while small landslides or gully banks
40 collapses are favoured by intense rainfall falling on the already saturated terrain, condition that is frequent
41 in spring (Vergari *et al.*, 2013a). The strongest surface lowering rates were observed in *biancane* sites, in
42 particular where they are in a more juvenile development phase. Here, results of parent material analyses
43 (Vergari *et al.*, 2013b) showed that clayey mineralogy appears quite uniform, while the more dispersive
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4 behavior of *biancane* bedrock indicates a stronger tendency of *biancane* clays to spontaneous colloidal
5 dispersion. Multitemporal volumetric estimation performed for a small catchment of Upper Orcia Valley
6 by means of the photogrammetric analysis showed for the 1976-2003 time span a mean erosion rate of 1.5
7 cm a⁻¹, with a maximum value of 6 cm a⁻¹ in the badlands areas (Aucelli *et al.*, 2016). Similar erosion
8 rates resulted after monitoring with multitemporal high-resolution terrestrial LiDAR and UAV surveys
9 (Neugirg *et al.*, 2016).

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12 Due to this rapid morphogenesis, this catchment is a key site for studying the denudation processes
13 typically acting in Mediterranean badlands areas, thanks to the availability of long-lasting erosion
14 monitoring datasets and the rapidity of erosion processes development (Del Monte, 2017). Since 1988,
15 many attempts have been made to control erosion like building check-dams along the gullies draining
16 *calanchi*, using mattresses or gabions and practicing reforestation since the 1960s to contain soil erosion.
17 Most of these works appear to be severely damaged and reforestation failed to limit hillslope denudation,
18 as often the re-planted trees caused an overload that favored deeper landslides (Vergari *et al.*, 2011).

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20 Today, a lot of protected areas have been established on *calanchi* and/or *biancane* badlands. In the Orcia
21 Valley, the Lucciolabella Natural Reserve, part of the Natura 2000 network of special areas of
22 conservation, was established in 1996 to protect the typical *biancane* landscape (and its priority habitats).
23 The badland areas, in fact, attract tourists for their spectacular scenery, especially where they are
24 widespread and are connected with the history of the territory, art, culture, nature, and, last but not least,
25 food and wine products (many top-quality gourmet products are available). Since 2004, Val d'Orcia was
26 included in the UNESCO World Heritage List as "cultural landscape". Val d'Orcia hosts many historical
27 towns. Castles, villages, towers and isolated monasteries complete the picture of a fascinating landscape;
28 even the art is linked to geomorphology and agriculture. The valley is crossed by many natural paths used
29 for trekking or riding; one of this is a very important "paths of faith" in Europe, the "via francigena" ("the
30 road from France", that was covered by Pilgrims coming from the countries of north-west of Europe).
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38 2.3 Fossa Bradanica – Basilicata

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40 The study area is the central-southern part of Fossa Bradanica, a sedimentary basin of the Pliocene–
41 Pleistocene with a NW-SE trend which is placed between the Apulian foreland and the southern
42 Apennines (Pieri *et al.*, 1996; Ciccacci *et al.*, 1999). The successions that outcrop in this area are mainly
43 characterized by shallow-marine silty clays of the Argille sub-Appennine Unit and by coarse-grained
44 units that close the Fossa Bradanica sedimentary cycle (Ricchetti, 1981). In the Middle Pleistocene the
45 rivers incised deep valleys that extend perpendicular to the coast due to the continuous regional uplift,
46 while the lateral erosion acted on the hillslopes exposing the highly erodible clayey bedrock because of
47 the increased dissection (Piccarreta *et al.*, 2011). Gray-blue marly clay formation outcrops widespread in
48 the study area where badlands formed, and the hillslopes are cut by deep gullies.

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50 This region enjoys the Mediterranean weather, characterized by warm dry summers and temperate wet
51 winters with a mean annual temperature of about 17°C. In detail, the mean maximum summer
52 temperature is between 24°C and 25.5°C and the winter mean minimum ranges between 8°C and 9.5°C.
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4 The annual rainfall is between 738 mm and 581 mm (considering the time interval between 1955 and
5 2000), with the heavy rain period from November to January (Piccarreta *et al.*, 2006a). The last decades
6 of previous century were witness of a reduction in the total annual precipitation against the growth of
7 rainfall intensity. Piccarreta *et al.* (2013) show an increase of both the total precipitation and the daily
8 rainfall amount since the begin of the millennium. Instead of an increase of single day's intense rain,
9 these authors highlighted an increase of small periods of three to five consecutive days of moderate to
10 heavy rainfall events. The rise in the intensity/frequency of multi-days extreme rainfall triggered a
11 considerable number of flooding and landsliding events with consequent land degradation. In the same
12 period, the maximum erosion value was about 10 cm recorded in the gullies in valley fill, while the mean
13 value on the degraded hillslopes was about 3 cm. The vegetation cover consists of scrub oak and/or pine
14 woodland with a mixed understory shrub modified by human intervention (Boenzi *et al.*, 2008).
15 Woodland areas increased after the 1950s due to reforestation policy to the detriment of both the
16 Mediterranean "macchia" of the bushy grassland areas and of the *Pistacia lentiscus* and *Lygeum Spartum*
17 steppe that are dominant on badlands. The gentle dip slopes, if not land-levelled, keep a fairly good
18 vegetation cover and are used for agriculture (Piccarreta *et al.*, 2006b). The cultivations of the olive
19 groves are on hilly areas and thus act on rainfall interception and runoff reduction. The durum wheat is
20 the prevalent cultivation of the arable land and it is mainly farmed in valley bottoms and terraced surfaces
21 (Figure 6).
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28 In this area, there are three types of land degraded zones especially in term of accelerated soil erosion:
29 *Calanchi* areas, *Biancane* areas and gullies in valley fills. The *Calanchi* areas develop on high energy
30 relief and large degraded landscapes (Alexander, 1982). These areas present parallel close-packed gullies
31 with vertically elongated grooves, narrow and sharp ridges with steep, naked walls that are quickly
32 incised and eroded headwards (Figure 7A, C). *Biancane* areas are low energy relief degraded land,
33 generally shaped on slopes highly incised by rills, gullies and collapsed pipes. They are dome-shaped
34 forms (Figure 7C) enclosed by a micropediment (Torri & Bryan, 1997) and they develop when the
35 erosion of a network of slightly inclined pipes is achieved: many domes remain isolated from the slope as
36 the pipe roof collapse (Piccarreta *et al.*, 2006b). Gullies form in valley fills; they have vertical sidewalls
37 and they are about 10–30 m deep and 25–450 m wide (Figure 7D), due to the heavy lateral erosion
38 (Piccarreta *et al.*, 2006b; Piccarreta *et al.*, 2012b). The head-ward gully erosion starts often from the
39 collapse of tunnels and pipes (Figure 7B).
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44 Land degradation and soil erosion have been shown to be linked with specific land use changes,
45 encouraged by agricultural policy, and with changes in precipitation. The clayey nature of the soils suffers
46 from the erosion, especially if disrupted by the land remodeling process. The total annual precipitation
47 and the daily rainfall drive the rainfall erosivity: the reducing in annual rainfall amount is somewhat
48 compensated by the augment of single storm rainfall intensity to preserve the long-term values of annual
49 rainfall erosivity in the region (Capolongo *et al.*, 2008). Thus, long-lasting dry periods with low
50 frequency heavy rains cause rill razing; this soil smoothing allows mass movements such as slope creep
51 due to more homogeneous percolation. The lengthened drought periods before the extreme rainfall events
52 increased the water flows erosivity and caused changes in gully sediment budget. The net erosion
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4 becomes really high since most of the deposit of the gully bottom was detached and transported
5 downstream to and accumulated in the pediment channels (Piccarreta *et al.*, 2012b).

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7 In the last decades, a conspicuous reduction in degraded areas occurred mainly as a result of badlands
8 (*calanchi* and *biancane*) use for the increase in sown areas promoted by the European Union's Common
9 Agricultural Policy (CAP) practices. In fact, many badlands were leveled for cultivation of durum wheat
10 mainly in valley bottoms and river terraces: therefore, the slopes are now characterized by fewer erosive
11 features (Piccarreta *et al.*, 2006a). On other hand, the cereal cultivation of remodeled areas supports the
12 surface crusts formation since the soil aggregates became vulnerable to rainfall impact, reducing
13 infiltration and increasing runoff. Moreover, cultivation does not stabilize hillslopes and due to a rainfall
14 event can produce erosion leading back hills to their original non-productive badlands (Piccarreta *et al.*,
15 2006a). In many cases the adjacent remodeled and vegetated areas behave differently on the same
16 hillslope: in fact, the remodeled areas suffer intense erosion due to rills and gullies formation while the
17 areas with vegetation (native or not) generally show less erosion (Figure 7E). The multi-temporal analysis
18 also shows that razing of gully heads by earthworks machinery promotes the sediment production,
19 triggering slope instability processes, muddy floods and infilling of valley floor.

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21 This badland landscape has always fascinated tourists and travelers and, after many years of state of
22 abandonment and/or mistreatment, the inhabitants understood the importance of its preservation. Then,
23 both natural and literary parks were established to enhance this badlands geoheritage.

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2.4 Scillato - Sicily

Scillato Basin is a N-S-oriented structural depression that appears deformed as an asymmetric synform. This area is located in the central-northern sector of the Sicilian Chain and may be considered representative of the general environmental conditions of this sector of Sicily. Rocks cropping out in the area show a great variability as they form part of a multi-cyclic sequence of alluvial clastic and marine sediments which consist of conglomerates, sandstones, silts and clays (Gugliotta *et al.*, 2012). Due to the lithological and structural setting (characterized by the presence of a cuesta relief), the slopes show a high variability of landforms which are mainly related to water erosion processes. In the low-angle and north-facing slopes, dominant processes are creep, solifluction, gullying, landsliding and sheet wash. On the other hand, the steep south-facing scarp slopes are affected by different type of pipes, rills, gullies and mass movements (shallow slides/flows and falls); here the processes associated to these landforms contribute to defining a typical *calanchi* landscape characterized by a sub-parallel pattern (Pulice *et al.*, 2012; Cappadonia *et al.*, 2016). The area is characterized by a typical Mediterranean climate with hot and dry summers and mild and wet winters. Weather data recorded in the period 1970-2000 by the Regional Hydrographic Service at the stations of Caltavuturo (635 m a.s.l.), Scillato (376 m a.s.l.) and Cerda (274 m a.s.l.) indicate that average annual rainfall is 620 mm, with minimum and maximum average monthly rainfall occurring in July (5 mm) and January (90 mm), respectively. Temperature distribution, with summer and winter average values accounting for 24°C and 9°C, respectively, is very well-suited to

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4 intensive cultivation (mainly cereals crops) but at the same time affects some characteristics of the soil,
5 such as fertility and erodibility (Figure 8).

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7 In the last decade, a multidisciplinary study was carried out on the *calanchi* fronts in the Scillato Basin. A
8 continuous monitoring of the *calanchi* surface performed in the period 2005–2009 allowed us to quantify
9 relative height variations due to erosion (negative variations) and deposition (positive variations)
10 processes (Figure 9 and Table 1). A rain gauge installed in the area was employed to record precipitation
11 and thus to calculate the USLE Rainfall-Runoff Erosivity Factor (Cappadonia *et al.*, 2011). The Scillato
12 Basin has been used as a dynamic natural laboratory for our research scopes. In addition to the above-
13 mentioned analyses, geomorphological, chemical, physical and mineralogical properties have been
14 analyzed to assess their control in the evolution of the *calanchi* fronts (Pulice *et al.*, 2012). Furthermore,
15 field surveys were carried out to measure the density of pipes and their correlation with the drainage
16 network, the presence of vegetation cover and the variation of lithological layers. Also, morphometric and
17 statistical analyses were performed to identify and study the effects of the slope morphometry on the
18 spatial distribution of morphogenetic processes and their associated landforms in a *calanchi* area
19 (Buccolini *et al.*, 2012; Cappadonia *et al.*, 2016). The slopes affected by *calanchi* landforms are generally
20 south facing and show average slope angle of around 32°–33° together with deep furrows separated by
21 sharp ridges when the concentrated runoff prevails. Conversely, when mass movements and piping are
22 predominant, the slopes are characterized by less sharp ridges and rounded channels filled by the removed
23 material. The laboratory analysis showed that the involved terrains mainly consist on silty-clay deposits.
24 From the chemical and mineralogical point of view, the collected data show that the clayey fractions are
25 mainly inactive and composed by phyllosilicates. However, all samples are characterized by sodium
26 adsorption ratio (SAR) values greater than 10, which are typical of the dispersive materials. The values of
27 the plasticity and liquidity indices are coherent with the landslides spatial distribution. Finally, the high
28 pH values indicate limited leached conditions during low precipitation periods (Pulice *et al.*, 2012).
29 During the monitoring period a general erosive re-treatment trend was recorded, even if different phases
30 of both erosion and deposition have been identified (Cappadonia *et al.*, 2011). The main controlling
31 factors of the morphodynamic evolution of the Scillato area are the temporal distribution and intensity of
32 the rainfall, the terrain properties and the topographic characteristics, as well as the concurrence of
33 processes such as piping. Specifically, there is an important variability as regard to frequency, intensity
34 and different types of pipes (Cappadonia *et al.*, 2016) and also a strong correlation among pipes and
35 drainage network, presence of vegetation cover and variation of different lithological layers.

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37 These badlands areas have landforms with important scientific value, landscape aspect and educational
38 interest, and are very close to the natural reserves, the archaeological areas and the touristic sites. Human
39 impact is principally related to the various agricultural practices at the foot of the slopes while the
40 badlands slopes are used only as agricultural areas like arable land or pastures; in the latter two cases,
41 there seems to have been a tendency towards the *biancane* landforms development. If we look at the
42 fronts in which the agricultural practice was most intense (either crops or grass, mainly) or where the
43 activities to removal of material at the foot of the slopes were carried out, the variability of the
44 distribution and intensity of the slope processes appears to increase; especially, in these areas the
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4 landslide phenomena that contribute to the evolution of the *calanchi* fronts (Cappadonia *et al.*, 2011). The
5 Scillato basin shows a low human pressure (predominantly agricultural areas and road infrastructures) and
6 forms part of a cultural-naturalistic heritage itinerary if we look at both to the environmental
7 characteristics of the area and its proximity to the archaeological ruins of Himeria and the Madonie
8 Unesco Global Geopark. Furthermore, in a few years numerous little agricultural enterprises engaged in
9 agri-food activities are growing up. In addition, this area is only a few kilometers from Cefalù, one of the
10 most important Sicilian seaside resort.
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13 14 15 **3 RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS**

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17 The comprehensive examination of the case studies allowed to gather information on the main factors
18 responsible for land degradation in representative Mediterranean areas located along the Apennine chain,
19 under different morphoclimatic and land use contexts. Hillslope degradation issues have been addressed
20 at different spatial and temporal scales and with various data sources. The review of the studies conducted
21 in the selected areas allows to highlight the crucial role of both human actions and of climate conditions.
22 Although the study areas are in different contexts, they show common features related to human
23 intervention. The flow chart diagram in Figure 10, summarizes the key aspects of our analysis. The main
24 drivers leading to hillslope degradation in the study areas can be summarized as: i) deforestation for land
25 reclamation, ii) cropland abandonment, iii) increase of hazardous rainfall. The major indicators of land
26 degradation for each study area are also included in Table 1, together with the main current local
27 strategies for landscape management and conservation. It is interesting to note how the human practices
28 can have both positive and negative consequences (Figure 10). As evidenced in the Cinque Terre area, on
29 terraced slopes the combined effect of land use changes and of single extreme rainfall can accelerate
30 considerably hillslope degradation. In this area, the strong abandonment of agricultural practices occurred
31 since 1950s resulted in the most important predisposing factor for erosion and shallow landslide
32 phenomena (Cevasco *et al.*, 2014; Brandolini *et al.*, 2018; Schilirò *et al.*, 2018). This has been also
33 recently confirmed by landslide susceptibility modelling (Bordoni *et al.*, 2015; Galve *et al.*, 2015;
34 Persichillo *et al.*, 2016; Persichillo *et al.*, 2017). These simulations of different land use evolutions
35 highlighted that the transition from still cultivated terraced areas to those abandoned lead to a remarkable
36 increase of landslide susceptibility. On the contrary, slope stability greatly improves if an already
37 abandoned terraced slope is turn into woodlands by gradually increasing the vegetation cover (Galve *et al.*,
38 2015; Persichillo *et al.*, 2016). Accordingly, multi-temporal analysis of both land use and high-
39 resolution topographic data revealed that land degradation could be particularly severe during the first
40 stages of abandonment (Brandolini *et al.*, 2018). We emphasize two relevant aspects about terraced slopes
41 degradation. Firstly, when no longer adequately maintained, terraced slopes can become very hazardous
42 environments. In literature, this negative trend was extensively documented in various Mediterranean
43 terraced areas, where many researchers observed that hydrological and geomorphic processes are
44 favoured by land abandonment and that these phenomena contribute to soil depletion issues (Lasanta *et al.*,
45 2001; Koulouri & Giourga, 2007; Freppaz *et al.*, 2008; Lesschen *et al.*, 2008; García-Ruiz & Lana
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4 Ranault, 2011; Stanchi *et al.*, 2012; Arnáez *et al.*, 2015; Arnáez *et al.*, 2017). On the other hand, as
5 observed in other environments (Cammeraat *et al.*, 2005; Latocha, 2014), increasing time since
6 abandonment the beneficial effect of vegetation cover becomes increasingly effective in preventing
7 erosion and landsliding. In this regard, according to detailed analysis of cost-effectiveness, reforestation
8 practises would represent the most appropriate mitigation measure to stabilize abandoned terraces (Galve
9 *et al.*, 2016). However, this solution is not fully consistent with the cultural value of traditional
10 agricultural systems, which is recognized worldwide by organizations like UNESCO and FAO.
11 Moreover, terraced slopes and their resulting landscapes represent relevant tourism attractions. Therefore,
12 major efforts need to be done to propose suitable preservation approaches. Considering the great
13 economic resources needed to cope with degradation issues, the planning and political strategies of
14 institutions should be raising awareness of local inhabitants and tourism operators. In this way, humans
15 could have a primary role in enhancing terraced heritage. However, it is worth to note that the effect of
16 the human actions did not have only negative implications (Figure 10). Indeed, this is also confirmed by
17 the Val d'Orcia study case, where man has a dual role in land degradation: whilst human impact involves
18 soil loss and degradation due to intense agriculture and land mismanagement, it is also true that it has
19 significant importance in the genesis of spectacular erosion landforms and landscape diversity (Bollati
20 *et al.*, 2016; Del Monte, 2017). Those characteristics attract many tourists, being an important resource for
21 the economic development of the area. Dealing with the first issue (human as factor of land degradation),
22 the effects of land levelling for land reclamation have been investigated by different authors, especially
23 for the Crete Senesi landscape of Southern Tuscany badlands sites (Amici *et al.*, 2017), where this
24 process is very widespread and it is also a consequence of the land reforms of the 1950s and, during the
25 last decade, of the European Common Agricultural Policy (CAP). Deforestation, grazing and farming
26 significantly affect the frequency and extension of denudational processes, being among the most
27 important triggers for accelerated water erosion, tillage erosion and gravitational movements on slopes.
28 The reworking of the clay material reduces the bedrock bulk density and changes its infiltration
29 properties, causing an intensification of rill and gully erosion but also of piping (Marignani *et al.*, 2008).
30 In fact, despite the considerations made by Phillips (1998), who pointed out a reduction in clay
31 dispersivity of the upper soil layers following reclamation as a critical factor in increasing soil stability,
32 many studies on badlands dynamics in the Mediterranean area (e.g., Lopez-Bermudez & Romero-Diaz,
33 1989; Calvo-Cases & Harvey, 1996; Calzolari *et al.*, 1997; Torri *et al.*, 1999, 2002, 2006; Borselli *et al.*,
34 2006; Desir & Marín, 2007; Faulkner *et al.*, 2008; Nadal-Romero & Regüés, 2010; Cappadonia *et al.*,
35 2011; Pulice *et al.*, 2012; Vergari *et al.*, 2013a; Vergari, 2015) confirmed that accelerated erosion in those
36 areas is even enhanced by agricultural manipulation. Land abandonment without any land management
37 strategy causes a further piping increase (Vergari *et al.*, 2013a), due to increased erodibility of the soil,
38 and the great loss of material from the surface might cause the collapse of tunnel roofs, giving rise to
39 deeply incised gully networks, as observed in a cropland in central Italy. In fact, revegetation by
40 indigenous species rarely occurs when cropland is abandoned. Considering the human history of the
41 Upper Orcia Valley, Torri *et al.* (2013) state that badlands developed during periods of intense and
42 prolonged mismanagement and they persist because vegetation encroaching is limited by continuous
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1 anthropic disturbance. These authors show that during the last centuries there have been many occasions
2 for badlands initiation to be generated by human actions. This also support the thesis that *biancana*
3 landforms are mainly an effect of human activity as well. This point of view emphasizes how human
4 impact has a significant importance in the maintenance of a very particular landscape, in which badlands
5 existence represents an opportunity of landscape geodiversity increase and of geoheritage enhancement
6 for tourism development (Zgłobicki *et al.*, 2017). Thus, the coexistence of a typical rural landscape and of
7 a spectacular semi-natural badlands represents the key aspect of the area that makes it worthy of
8 UNESCO recognition as cultural landscape.

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14 As depicted in the flow chart of Figure 10, hillslope degradation also derives from the combined actions
15 of human role and of climate change condition. As occurred in Basilicata, land degradation and soil
16 erosion features have been shown to be linked with specific land use changes, encouraged by agricultural
17 policy, and with changes in precipitation regime. In Basilicata, the risk of land degradation is due to
18 several factors, such as the seasonality of rainfall events according to the different agricultural practice
19 (e.g., planting) (Piccarreta *et al.*, 2006a). The recent changes in rainfall regime, which shows an increase
20 of the dry periods and a tendency of great magnitude rain to concentrate into macro-events of 3–4
21 consecutive wet days, seem to lead to an increase of the erosion processes (Capolongo *et al.*, 2008;
22 Piccarreta *et al.*, 2013). The clayey nature of the soils promotes the erosion, particularly because of land
23 remodeling processes. These degradation processes are also due to the wrong application of specific
24 policies that allowed the cultivation of bushy lands and badlands with durum wheat. Nevertheless, most
25 of this land is progressively abandoned and is subject to erosion processes (Bentivenga *et al.*, 2015).
26 However, studies on land use change data showed that the land degradation decreased since 1995. This
27 trend is mainly due to the augment in sown areas, even if the reforestation policy, started after the 1950s,
28 contributed to improve the quality of the land. This reduction is also due to the widespread badlands
29 remodeling for the durum wheat cultivation mainly along valley bottoms and river terraces: the resulting
30 landscape has fewer erosive forms (Piccarreta *et al.*, 2012b). More recently, especially in badland
31 dominated areas, large regional parks have been created. Those areas are exploited both from the
32 environmental and cultural point of view where natural and historical initiative coexist (Ciaranfi *et al.*,
33 2012). In fact, the Regional Park of Calanchi of Montalbano Jonico (set up with a Regional Law of 2011)
34 and the Literary Park of Carlo Levi at Aliano (declared since 1998) were established to enhance the
35 badlands landscape. This results in benefits to local communities in term of income and jobs in the
36 tourism sector, thus expanding the local economic opportunities. Agricultural practices represented
37 important influencing factors of land degradation also in the Scillato basin, the southernmost study area,
38 which is representative of the Sicily island peculiarities from an environmental viewpoint but historical
39 and economic too. During the last years the Scillato Basin showed a general erosive trend where the
40 different processes (i.e., rill and gully erosion, mass movements and piping) are predominant. The
41 landscape is deeply influenced by lithological characteristics and structural settings. However, some
42 hydrographic units have been modified by the human practices, particularly pastures or arable lands; here,
43 it is possible to observe the rise in intensity of the landslides but the *biancana* landforms increased as
44 well, showing the trend observed by Torri *et al.* (2002, 2013) in other areas. In general, an overall trend
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4 towards high erosion rates was observed for the whole area (Cappadonia *et al.*, 2011). Moreover, despite
5 the relatively lower SAR values observed in the badlands crust (Pulice *et al.*, 2012), the easier
6 mobilization of the outer layer of the slopes could be related to other factors such as higher
7 macroporosity. The representativeness of the study area could allow the comparison and the projection of
8 the results to the other badlands areas with similar conditions in the Apennine chain. Considering the
9 above-mentioned observations, the location of the study areas can be considered as a very good
10 observatory to exploit the *calanchi* landscape. The fact that these landforms are close to important
11 archeological, naturalistic and touristic places, has permitted the preservation over time of the spectacular
12 landscape that could be appreciated into a tourist itinerary inclusive of the other peculiarities, especially if
13 considering that in the tourist market the geotourism activities are constantly increasing. Particular
14 attention needs to be paid also to the agri-food sector in this context because of its strong environmental
15 and social component. The inclusion of these areas into tourist itineraries could really become a great
16 opportunity for the farms and the local food producers.

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18 The comparison of the four study cases has aided in delineating the main anthropic and climatic
19 influences in land degradation dynamics (Figure 10). If land degradation in all the considered areas has
20 been historically initiated and favoured by deforestation for land reclamation, the hillslope denudation
21 trend of the last decades can be credited to both the land use changes and mismanagement and to the
22 increase of intense rainfall. The latter has proved to be the main triggering driver causing increased soil
23 erosion in the Basilicata badlands, while it can poorly explain the erosion trends highlighted for the Upper
24 Orcia Valley, where the trend on the erosion rates of the last decades, deduced by volumetric estimation
25 after photogrammetric analysis (Aucelli *et al.*, 2016), cannot be easily correlated to the variations on
26 rainfall regime (Giaccone *et al.*, 2015). The increase in high-intensity rainfall events is also relevant in the
27 Cinque Terre area, where the last extreme events have determined hillslope instability issues (Cevasco *et*
28 *al.*, 2015; Brunetti *et al.*, 2018), concentrating landsliding where land mismanagement predominates
29 (Cevasco *et al.*, 2014; Brandolini *et al.*, 2007; Cevasco *et al.*, 2017; Brandolini *et al.*, 2018). As well in
30 Sicily, agricultural practices come up to be a contributing factor for enhanced soil erosion. Therefore, as a
31 matter of fact, in all cases man-induced land degradation is pervasive. On the other hand, both the
32 spectacular erosion landforms (e.g., *calanchi* and *biancane*) and the rural landscapes (e.g., terraced slopes
33 and cultivated hilly territories) that characterize all these areas are undeniably sources of tourism
34 attractiveness. In such a context, in order to protect both erosion landforms and the considered man-
35 induced semi-natural landscapes, land management strategies should focus on adequate monitoring
36 activities and on the adoption of effective geomorphological risk mitigation measures.

48 49 **4 CONCLUSIONS**

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51 Several studies performed in some representative Italian areas show that human impact on land
52 management has a double role that may induce positive or negative feedbacks. Land reclamation during
53 the last decades has involved many land changes: the main by levelling and/or terracing, with different
54 consequences. Concerning to badlands development, land levelling induces an initial inhibition of land
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4 degradation (soil loss decreasing); later, if agricultural exploitation of soils becomes intensive, the soil
5 and fertility loss produce again acceleration of erosion processes. Conversely, slope terracing allows to
6 contrast the soil loss, provided that the whole terrace system is well maintained, while it can be
7 considered an important proneness cause of soil erosion when terrace system becomes abandoned.
8 Considering the increasing of high-intensity rainfall events, these land use changes contribute to grow
9 geo-hydrological hazard. Land reclamation is essential for agriculture development; moreover, as the
10 study on typical rural areas of the Apennines demonstrates, land reclamation can also increase the
11 landscape diversity and then the tourism attractions. Therefore, the performed review highlights that
12 cropland abandonment after land reclamation is a serious mismanagement practice, causing hillslope
13 degradation, sometimes more severe than in natural conditions, as soil reworking makes it very
14 vulnerable to erosion. In this perspective, extreme rainfall events are nowadays more hazardous for arable
15 or abandoned lands. Nevertheless, human-induced or natural fast erosion landforms can be appreciated by
16 tourists: they are surely elements of landscape diversity, frequently spectacular, and they can contribute to
17 geoheritage enhancement. In naturally evolving landscapes, the geo- and bio-diversity increasing
18 represents, of course, an opportunity for the tourism and for the economic development of a territory.
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Table 1. Summary of the main hillslope degradation factors for each study case.

Study area	Cinque Terre	Val d'Orcia	Fossa Bradanica	Scillato
Mean annual rainfall (mm and reference period)	1040 (1954-2016)	700 (1951-1996)	660 (1955-2000)	620 (1970-2000)
Mean annual temperature (°C)	15.0	14.0	16.7	16.0
Main lithology	Sandstone and claystone	Clay and sandy clay	Clay and silty clay	Clay and silty clay
Dominant slope (°)	30-40	5-15	10-40	32-33
Main land degradation processes	Shallow landsliding	Rill and gully erosion, shallow landslides	Gully and rill erosion, landsliding	Rill and gully erosion, mass movements, piping
Maximum recorded erosion (cm)	3.3 (single event value)	6 (mean annual value)	3 (mean annual value)	3.7 (mean annual value)
% human impact	49	46	71	24
Main land degradation factors	Land abandonment	Deforestation for land reclamation	Land abandonment/Improper agricultural practices	Land abandonment
Existence of protected areas	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Geo-hydrological risk mitigation measures	Yes/planned	Yes but not significant	Planned	Yes/planned
Strategy for geoheritage conservation and enhancement	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes

Figure captions

Figure 1. Location of the study areas: 1 -Cinque Terre, Liguria; 2 - Val D'Orcia, Tuscany; 3 - Fossa Bradanica, Basilicata; 4 – Scillato, Sicily.

Figure 2. Main climatic features of the Cinque Terre area (Liguria): mean monthly precipitation (1954-2016 period) (A); representative hyetographs and cumulative rainfall plots (B, C) of the 25 October 2011 extreme rainfall event. Shallow landslide volumes evaluation: pre-event (D) and post-event (E) LiDAR-derived DSMs; DEM of differences (DoD) (F) (after Brandolini *et al.*, 2018, modified). Shallow landslides volumes results: histograms reporting eroded volumes (G) and indices LVI_{er} and LIA (H) in relation to terraced slope conditions (CT - cultivated terraces; ATP abandoned terraces with poor cover, ATD – abandoned terraces with dense cover) (modified after Brandolini *et al.*, 2018).

Figure 3. Land use map of the Vernazza catchment (Cinque Terre, Liguria) (modified after Cevasco *et al.*, 2013a).

Figure 4. Land use map of the Upper Orcia Valley (Tuscany).

Figure 5. A) *Calanchi* badlands levelled for land reclamation. B) *Biancane* badlands (on the right) survive next to an area (on the left) remodeled to enlarge cropland surfaces. C) Summary of the mean erosion rates recorded at all *calanchi* and *biancane* sites during long-lasting geomorphological studies in Tyrrhenian side of central Italy (after Vergari, 2015); both vertical (Δy) and horizontal (Δx) variations of ground level were recorded at different sites and positions on slopes.

Figure 6. Land use in the Basilicata study area derived by the Corine Land Cover 2012.

Figure 7. Some features of the Basilicata land degradation areas: A) *calanchi* beneath the town of Pisticci; B) landsliding of the gully walls due to piping (see the big pipe in the middle of the wall); C) *biancane* landscape near the Aliano town, in foreground a remodeled area and new forming rills; D) deep gully in the Basento floodplain; E) remodeled slope where superimposed rills are highlighted by difference in humidity and vegetation.

Figure 8. Land use map of the Scillato area (Sicily).

Figure 9. An example of survey cell to measure the density of pipes; B) a small pipe; C) examples of relative height variations of erosion pins; D) erosion pins and drainage line on an old pipe after the fall of the top; E) Some geochemical and physical parameters: pH, sodium adsorption ratio (SAR), Plasticity index (IP) and liquidity index (WL); F) Sampling and arenitic level.

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5 Figure 10. Flow chart diagram summarizing the key aspects of hillslope degradation in the study areas.
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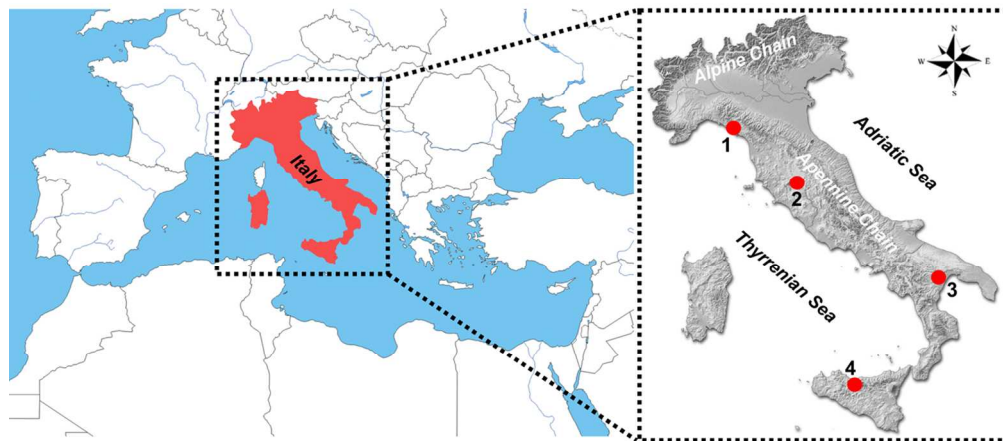


Figure 1. Location of the study areas: 1 -Cinque Terre, Liguria; 2 - Val D'Orcia, Tuscany; 3 - Fossa Bradanica, Basilicata; 4 – Scillato, Sicily.

149x65mm (250 x 250 DPI)

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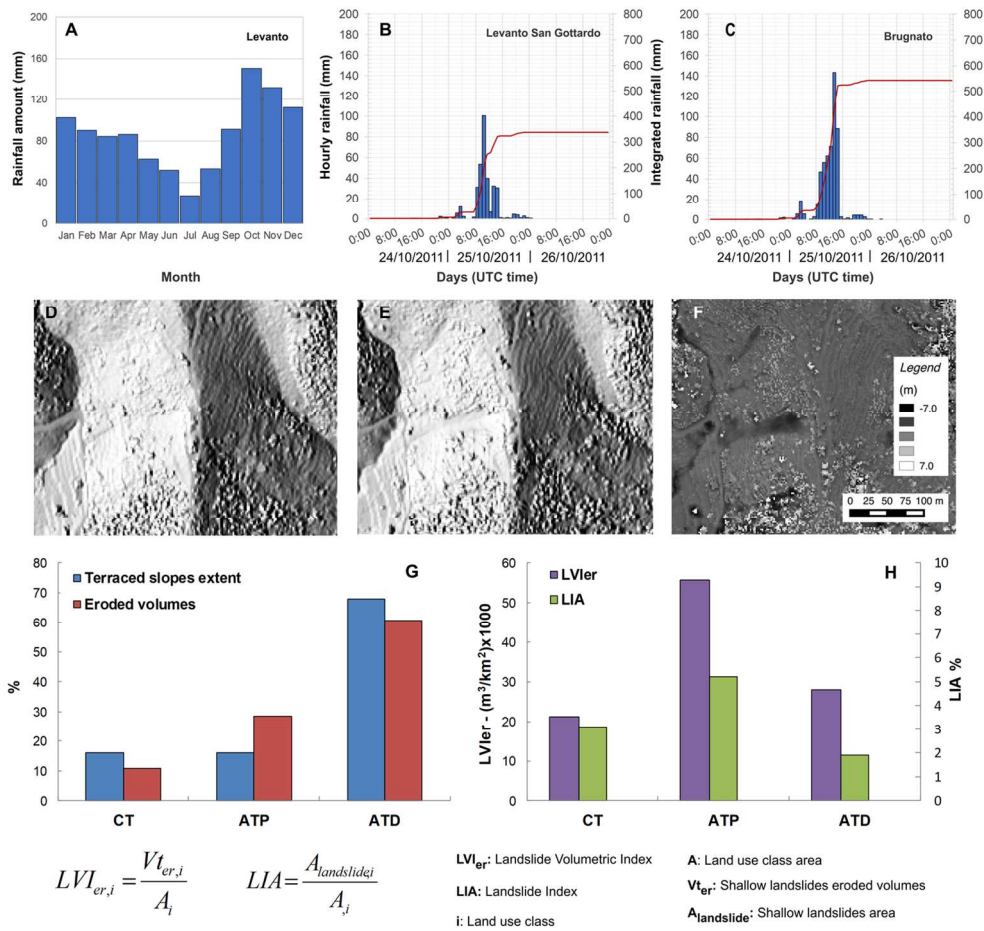


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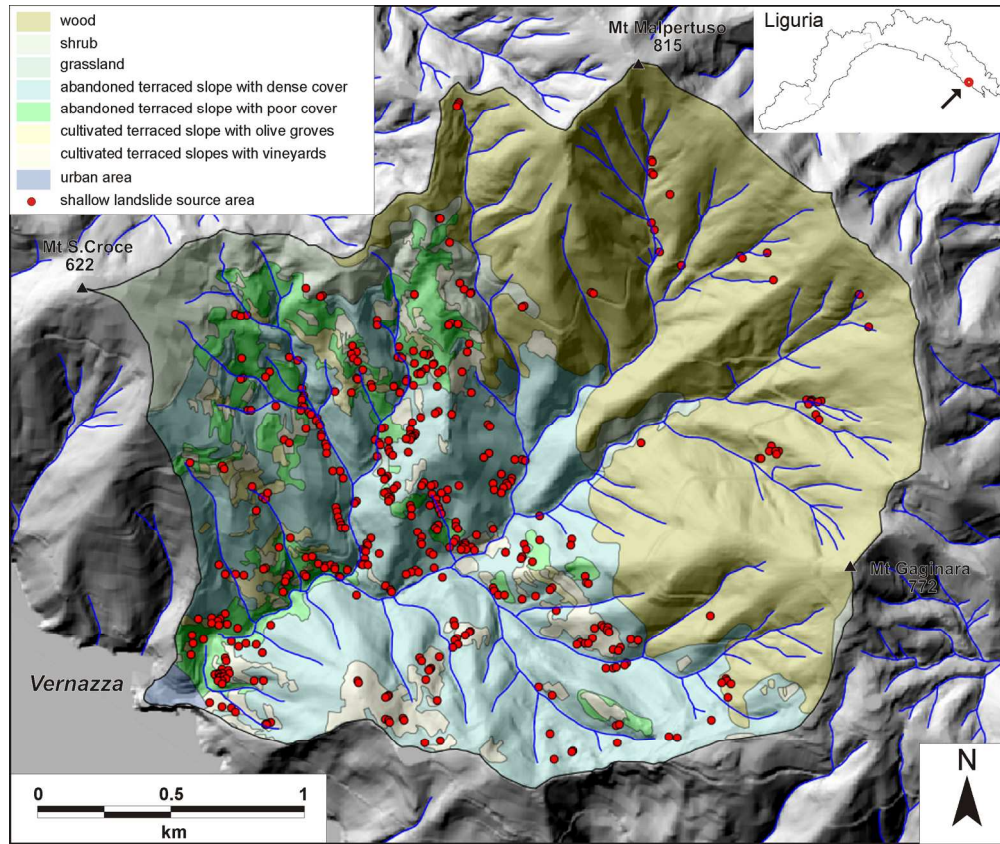


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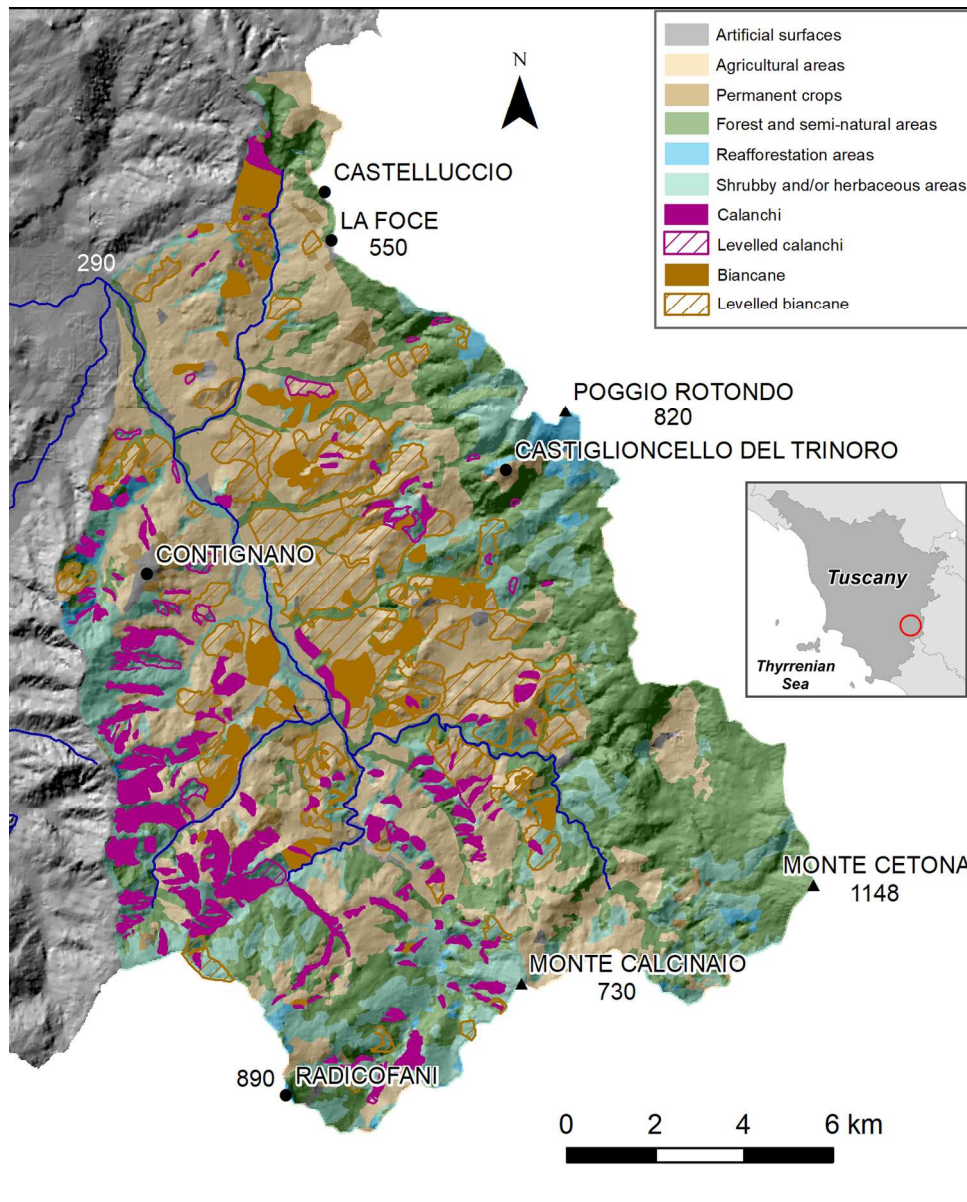


Figure 4. Land use map of the Upper Orcia Valley (Tuscany).

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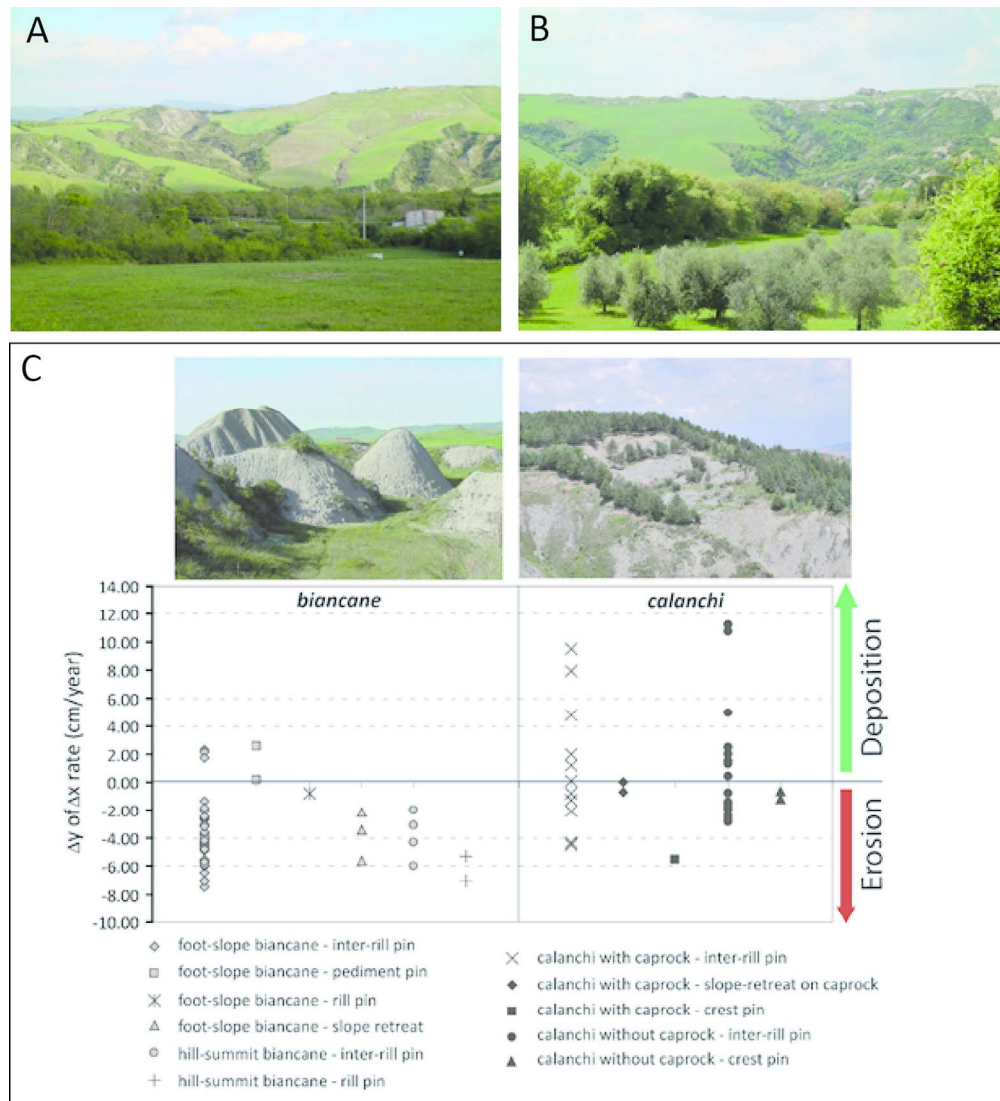


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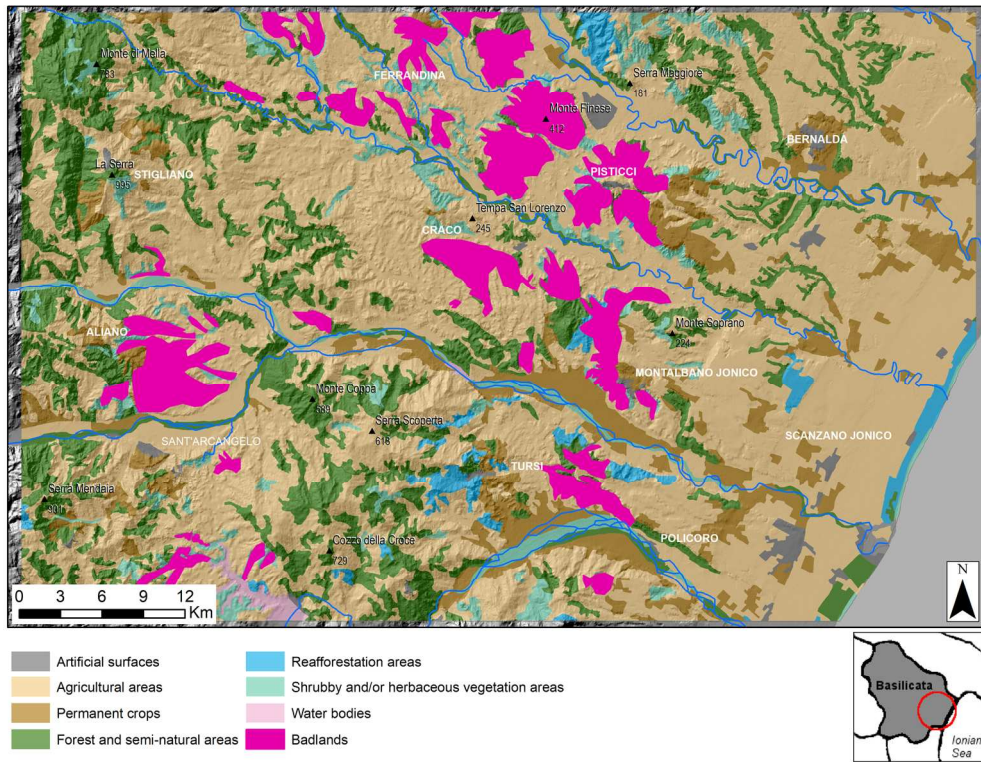


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Figure 7. Some features of the Basilicata land degradation areas: A) calanchi beneath the town of Pisticci; B) landsliding of the gully walls due to piping (see the big pipe in the middle of the wall); C) biancane landscape near the Aliano town, in foreground a remodeled area and new forming rills; D) deep gully in the Basento floodplain; E) remodeled slope where superimposed rills are highlighted by difference in humidity and vegetation.

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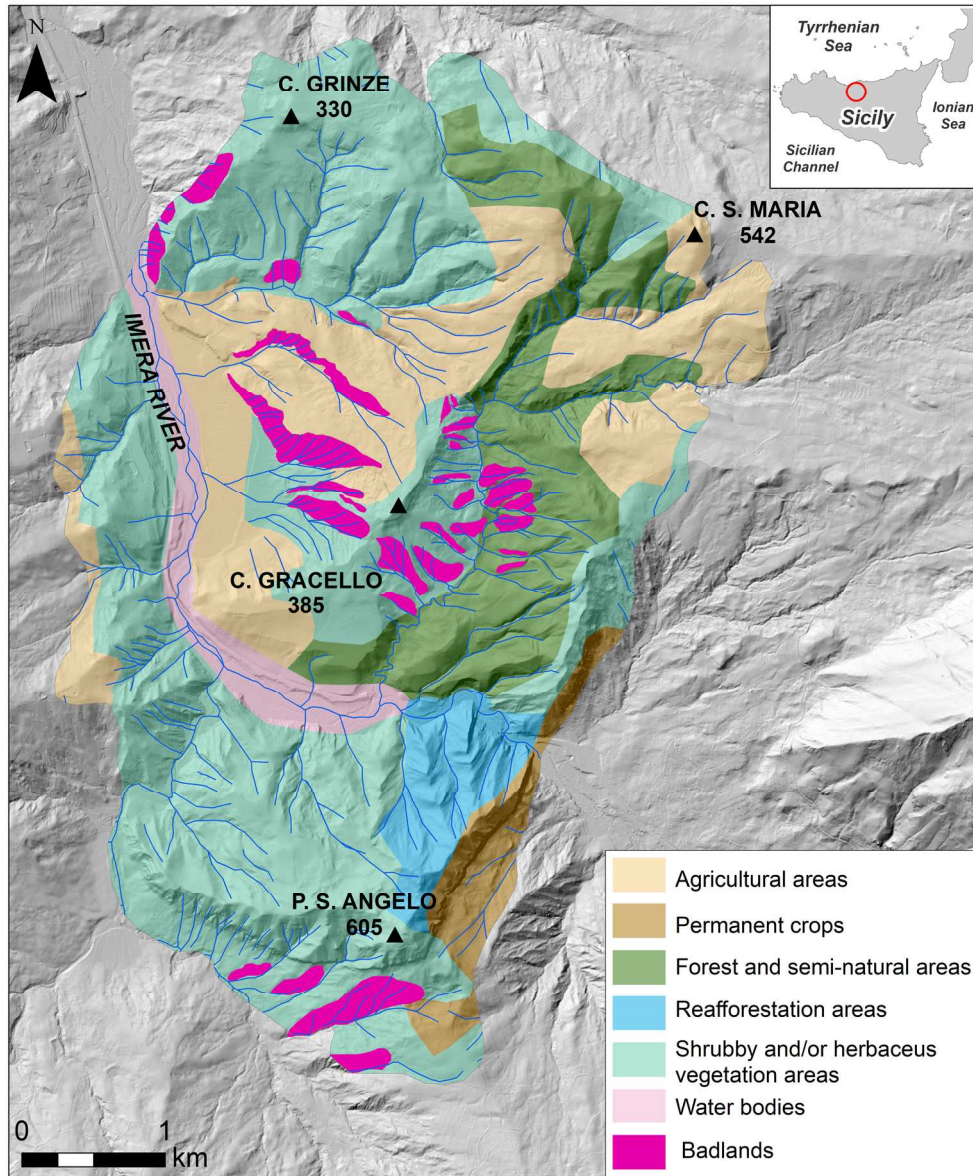


Figure 8. Land use map of the Scillato area (Sicily).

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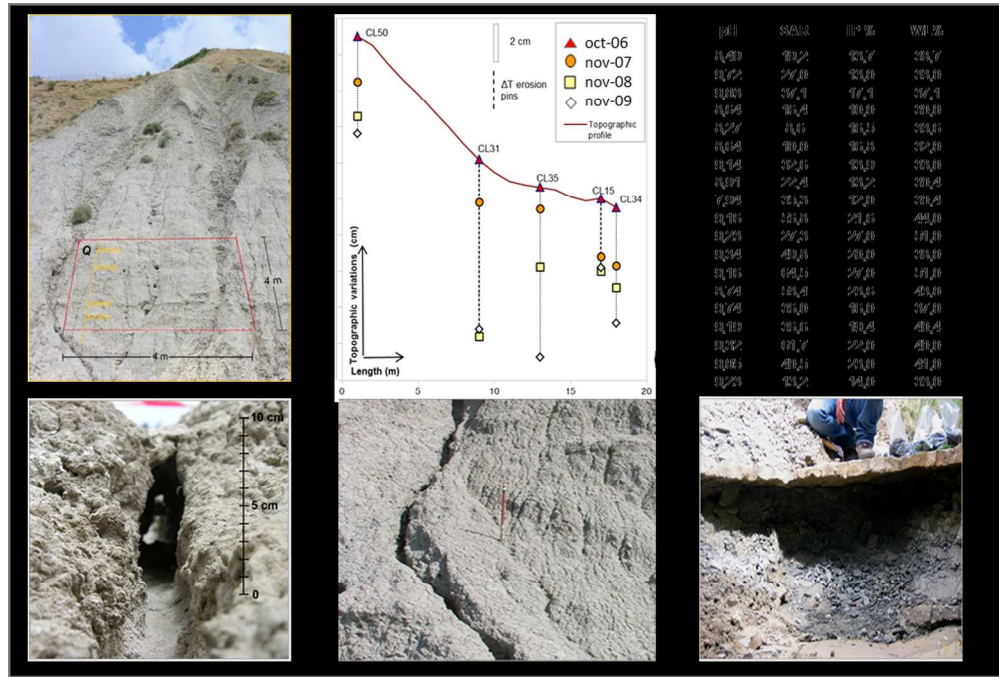


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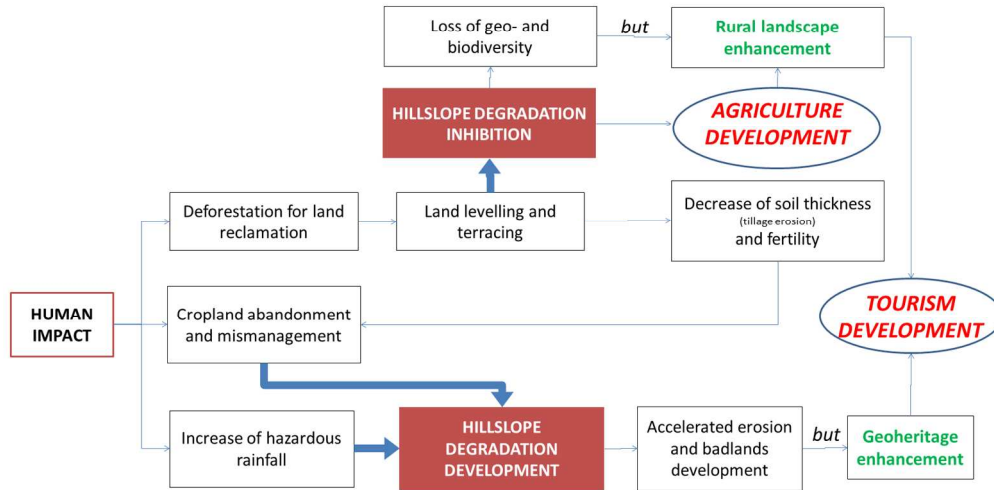


Figure 10. Flow chart diagram summarizing the key aspects of hillslope degradation in the study areas.

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