

1 **Environmental challenges of the intensive woody crops: the case of super high-**
2 **density olive groves**

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14
15 **Abstract**

16 Super high-density olive groves (> 800 trees ha^{-1}) are rapidly expanding in olive oil
17 producer countries, which entails a strong modification of the olive growing system with
18 important agronomic, economic, sociocultural, and environmental consequences. Among
19 them, the latter is particularly unknown. The aim of this paper is to bring the attention on
20 the environmental impacts of super high-density olive groves, by systematically
21 reviewing the current evidence and identifying knowledge gaps yet to be filled. As a
22 result, we can argue that new super high-density olive plantations reduce habitat
23 heterogeneity and complexity, and the younger trees of these plantations impoverish

24 habitat quality for farmland biodiversity. In addition, the high input use (e.g.
25 phytosanitary treatments, fertilisers and water supply) may entail ecological impacts as
26 well (e.g. freshwater contamination). Therefore, we conclude that i) new highly intensive
27 olive groves should be limited to areas with lower ecological value; ii) consumers should
28 have more information concerning how is produced the olive oil they buy, including the
29 environmental impacts produced; iii) agricultural policies should be reformulated
30 following the provider-gets principle; iv) input use (fertilizers, pesticides, water, etc.)
31 should continue optimising to reduce the environmental impact; and finally, v) more
32 research is necessary to foster decisions based on science.

33 **Keywords:** agricultural intensification; environmental sustainability; farmland
34 biodiversity; *Olea europea*; woody crops.

35 **1. Introduction**

36 The olive tree (*Olea europea*) is an emblematic woody crop in the Mediterranean basin
37 from ancient times, being currently one of the most important features of the
38 Mediterranean agricultural landscape lined with the culture and economy of the region
39 (Lomuou and Giourga, 2003). However, these landscapes have undergone substantial
40 land-use changes in the last centuries, from a crop integrated in the environment to an
41 intensive monoculture (Infante-Amate et al., 2016). More recently, the traditional olive
42 groves characterized by larger old trees (easily over 100 years-old) with low tree density
43 (< 100 trees ha^{-1}), rainfed and manual harvest is being replaced by younger smaller trees
44 at higher densities (>300 trees ha^{-1}), drip-irrigated, with high phytosanitary and fertilisers
45 inputs and highly-mechanised harvesting (Martínez-Sastre et al., 2017). The most
46 prominent case is the super high-density olive groves, also known as super-intensive or
47 hedgerow olive groves, which are typically irrigated and have densities higher than 800
48 trees ha^{-1} (Díez et al., 2016). This system shows high levels of profitability due to both

49 decreasing production costs (especially labour-related) due to an almost full
50 mechanization (including harvesting, pruning, and phytosanitary treatments) and a
51 significant increase of per-hectare yield due to a higher radiation interception by olive
52 canopies formed by many smaller trees (Barranco et al., 2017; AEMO, 2020)¹. Moreover,
53 in the smaller trees the rate of leaves and vegetative structures most directly involved in
54 fruiting is higher than in larger olive trees, in which a higher energy is destined to woody
55 tissues, thus making many smaller trees more efficient than few larger ones in the same
56 area (Lo Bianco et al., 2021). This system is the most productive and it can produce oil at
57 competitive prices to cope with the increasing global demand (Rallo et al., 2013).
58 However, the super high-density olive groves have some limitations, such as the difficulty
59 of its implementation in areas with steep slope and scarcity of water resources, and only
60 few cultivars (e.g. Arbequina and its hybrids) can be used with the subsequent loss of
61 local genotypes (Lo Bianco et al., 2021). In addition, unlike for olive groves with lower
62 densities, super high-density olive groves require the renewal of the plantation (i.e. the
63 uprooting and planting of the new trees) every 20 years approximately.

64 While super high-density olive groves still account for 4.3% of the olive groves area
65 worldwide (i.e. 0.5 million hectares) (Vilar et al., 2017), a rapid expansion of this system
66 is taking place around the Mediterranean basin, including Spain, Portugal, Greek, Italy,
67 Israel, Tunisia, and Morocco (e.g. Russo et al., 2015; Kazes et al., 2020; Morgado et al.,
68 2020). For instance, in Andalusia (Southern Spain), the primary olive oil-producing
69 region in the World, the area devoted to this olive groves system is increasing at rates
70 over 25% per year (Junta de Andalucía, 2019). This phenomenon is motivated by a well-
71 developed cropping technology (e.g. with ready-to-use specialized machinery already

¹ For example, AEMO (2020) estimates per-kg of olive oil production costs of €1.49 and €2.54 for super high-density and traditional mechanised rainfed olive groves respectively.

72 developed), diminishing direct payments and a general declining trend in olive oil prices
73 (thus fostering competitive farms at these lower prices) (Gómez-Limón and Parras, 2017).
74 In effect, entrepreneurial choices of planting super high-density olive groves are basically
75 guided by profit maximising objectives, basically overcoming typical cultural barriers to
76 replacing less productive olive groves (i.e. traditional, aged olive groves). The other
77 important barrier relates to financial constraints; the fact that high financial resources are
78 required at the beginning of the investment period often implies that only large farms with
79 availability of these resources can actually plant these new olive groves.

80 In spite of the remarkable expansion of super high-density olive groves, the ecological
81 and socio-economic consequences of this transformation have been poorly studied to
82 date. In this context, the aim of this paper is to discuss the plausible environmental
83 consequences of the expansion of super high-density olive groves.

84 **2. Environmental consequences**

85 The expansion of super high-density olive groves represents an important landscape
86 change with consequences on the ecosystem services never evidenced before. In some
87 cases, older traditional olive groves have been replaced by young super high-density
88 olives, entailing a loss of habitat heterogeneity and complexity, which has been identified
89 as one of the main causes of biodiversity loss in agroecosystems (Fahrig et al., 2011). The
90 semi-forestry structure of traditional olives groves provides to this agroecosystem a
91 strong potential for biodiversity conservation (Martínez-Núñez et al., 2020). For instance,
92 olive groves can harbour 165 bird species and 549 herb species (Rey et al., 2019) and
93 support a complex arthropods structure when natural grass occurs (Castro et al., 2021).
94 Moreover, the old and large trees (up to hundreds of years old) that characterise the
95 traditional olive groves have a more complex morphology (two-three trunks with many
96 hollows and cavities), which serves as a high-quality habitat for nesting, winter, and

97 shelter for arthropods, reptiles, small mammals, and birds (Lomuou and Giourga, 2003;
98 Carpio et al., 2017; Kazes et al., 2020). Recently, Morgado et al. (2020) showed that
99 cavity-nester insectivores' birds were the most affected group of the shift towards super
100 high-density systems. Interestingly, European rabbits (*Oryctolagus cuniculus*) usually
101 built their warrens under aged olives trees, and eventually favouring the recent
102 colonization of traditional olive groves by the Iberian lynx (*Lynx pardinus*) (Garrote et
103 al., 2020).

104 On the other hand, since new olives groves are often planted in arable land (Büttner and
105 Kosztra, 2011), the proliferation of super high-density olive groves could reduce the
106 habitat availability of steppe birds and other farmland birds associated to more open
107 agricultural landscapes (Contreras et al., 2018). Besides, night mechanised harvesting of
108 the hedgerow olive groves can kill an important number of songbirds from central and
109 northern Europe which winter in the Mediterranean basin coinciding with the harvest
110 season (da Silva and Mata, 2019). As a consequence, the night harvesting of olives is now
111 forbidden in some Mediterranean regions (e.g. Andalusia) trying to minimise the impacts
112 as they are discovered.

113 The establishment of super high-density olive groves also implies a more intensive
114 agrochemicals use (namely fertilisers and biocides) per area. For instance, up to 129 kg
115 N ha⁻¹ are applied in super-high density olive groves, whereas only 45-52 kg N ha⁻¹ are
116 applied in traditional conventional ones (Romero-Gómez et al., 2017), and 16 times more
117 Dimethoate are used annually in super-high density olive groves (0.8 kg ha⁻¹) than in
118 traditional systems (0.05 kg ha⁻¹) (Abdallah et al., 2021). It is arguable, however, that its
119 -habitually- more highly-professionalised management may result in a lower risk of
120 pollutant emissions in this sense. Notwithstanding, this may refer to fertiliser use, for
121 which doses may be more suitably applied (in time and quantity, using fertigation)

122 compared to traditional olive groves systems. Yet, for the case of biocides, the total
123 amount dramatically increases (Abdallah et al., 2021), negatively impacting biodiversity.
124 This may be behind Carpio et al. (2016)'s results, who prove a negative relationship
125 between irrigated intensive olive groves and amphibian species richness at a regional
126 scale in Southern Spain.

127 Paradoxically, most of the super high-density olive groves have been planting in the drier
128 and warmer areas (Mairech et al., 2020) in which a higher irrigation amount is required.
129 In this sense, year doses usually fall within the 2,500-3,600 m³ ha⁻¹ interval (Romero-
130 Gámez et al., 2017; Abdallah et al., 2021), whereas rarely they exceed moderate to low
131 doses of 1,500 m³ ha⁻¹ in irrigated olive groves with lower tree densities (Gómez-Limón
132 et al., 2013). In many Mediterranean regions, two intensification trends are occurring
133 simultaneously, which are conversion of rainfed to irrigated olive groves and increasing
134 tree density, which may be rising pressures on water resources. This is particularly
135 worsening due to climate change, as the Mediterranean basin is already suffering serious
136 consequences of the global warming (Cramer et al., 2018). These phenomena will
137 substantially reduce freshwater availability (by 2–15% for 2 °C of warming) and water
138 reservoirs will be critically low (Cramer et al., 2018), which means that it can endanger
139 the crop irrigation in further dry seasons. Indeed, this demand for water may be putting
140 at risk aquifers and surface water bodies are being over-exploited (Gómez-Limón et al.,
141 2012). In addition, energy used to irrigate has an important weight in the environmental
142 impacts of olive groves (Romero-Gámez et al., 2017), and an inadequate irrigation may
143 have also negative consequences such as greater soil compaction and erosion (Rodríguez
144 Sousa et al., 2019).

145 Finally, traditional olive plantations have also aesthetic, cultural, geographical, historical,
146 and ethnological associated values (Ojeda-Rivera et al., 2018). Indeed, the “Olive Grove

147 Landscapes of Andalusia” has been included in the list of candidates to become part of
148 the UNESCO World Heritage List ([Ref: 6169](#)) under the typology of Cultural Landscape.
149 For these reasons, the sustainability of olive groves should be evaluated under the
150 multifunctional agriculture approach, considering not only the profitability, but also their
151 environmental, social, and cultural services (Rodríguez Sousa et al., 2020). Nevertheless,
152 most of these biodiversity-related, social, and cultural services are in jeopardy with the
153 significant expansion of super high-density olive growing where a complete replacement
154 of aged trees occurs and the trees will be replaced by new ones every 20 years. This
155 intensification promotes the conversion of multi-functional landscapes into simple, more
156 productive and mono-functional ones (Martínez-Sastre et al., 2017), thus deteriorating
157 the human-agroecosystem interplay such as loss of traditional ecological knowledge,
158 local cultivars, traditional landscapes and lower labour requirements.

159

160 **3. Final considerations for a “greener” future of the intensive olive groves**

161 Some authors (e.g. Russo et al., 2015; Mairech et al., 2020; Abdallah et al., 2021) together
162 with sectoral stakeholders (e.g. olive oil companies and olive growers associations) claim
163 the environmental sustainability of super high-density olive groves in comparison with
164 traditional ones, arguing that they show a more efficient water use; a higher soil organic
165 carbon sequestration particularly when pruning residues are incorporated and irrigation
166 is applied in dry areas (Mairech et al., 2020); a lower evaporation due to a higher ground
167 cover; and a reduction of drainage owing to an increase in root biomass and density. What
168 is more, due to their higher yield per area, super high-density olive groves can have lower
169 environmental impacts per olives tonne (Pellegrini et al., 2016; Abdallah et al., 2021),
170 thus making them more suitable if a land-sparing strategy (i.e. that consisted of separating
171 land for conservation from land for crops) is promoted (Phalan et al., 2011). Nevertheless,

172 super high-density irrigated olive system has the largest environmental impacts per area
173 caused by the high level of mechanization, and the larger use of water, fertilizers, and
174 pesticides (Romero-Gómez et al., 2017). Therefore, the traditional olive groves with
175 lower densities and lower agrochemical inputs may offer a better trade-off between
176 economic and environmental concerns, that is, a greater eco-efficiency (Gómez-Limón et
177 al., 2012). Moreover, the traditional olive groves with not fully-mechanised harvesting
178 could be more suitable to sustain the economic activity of the rural population (e.g. due
179 to higher labour requirements) (Rallo et al., 2013; Colombo et al., 2020), which could
180 also offer a better socio-cultural sustainability (Villanueva and Gómez-Limón, 2017).
181 According to the exposed trade-off between socio-environmental cost and economical
182 benefits when comparing traditional low density and super high-density olive orchards,
183 intensive olive groves with intermediate tree density (e.g. lower than 400 trees/ha) may
184 represent an adequate balance between economic, socio-cultural, and environmental
185 functions.

186 In the light of these considerations, the fast current expansion of the area devoted to super
187 high-density olive groves should be revised not only from the perspective of the short-
188 term productivity but also including ecosystem services and socio-cultural sustainability
189 into the trade-off equation. Here we propose five main lines of action: i) the
190 implementation of new super high-density olive groves should be carefully analysed
191 before implanted in areas of special ecological interest, such as Important Bird and
192 Biodiversity Areas (IBAs) and High Nature Value (HNV) farmlands (land-sparing
193 strategy); ii) since there is a wide variety of olive growing systems with different
194 environmental impacts, the development of an scale measuring the sustainability of oil
195 production could improve the competitiveness of the oil produced in traditional olive
196 groves (a subsequent certification may be implemented afterwards to raise consumers'

197 awareness, as suggested by Salazar-Ordóñez et al., 2021), which would let consumers
198 make decisions on the bases of a scale of eco-friendly systems; iii) the implementation of
199 some compensatory measures in super high-density olive groves (land-sharing strategy)
200 such as herbaceous cover crops (e.g. Carpio et al., 2017), keeping some isolated old olive
201 trees, natural vegetation patches, and hedges (e.g. Castro-Caro et al., 2014), incorporate
202 pruning residuals (Mairech et al., 2020), or reducing excessive tillage (Vicente-Vicente
203 et al., 2016) should be promoted to boost biological diversity and carbon sequestration
204 while often negligibly affecting farm productivity (these compensatory practices are
205 suggested -e.g. by Rescia et al., (2017) to be used as criteria for funding farmers subsidies,
206 and basically stems from the provider-gets principle (Pe'er et al., 2019); iv) the
207 optimisation of input use, including the use of regulated deficit irrigation (Fernández et
208 al., 2020; Vita Serman et al., 2021) and recycled wastewater and saline water (Regni et
209 al., 2019), the use of renewable energy (Todde et al., 2019), and an efficient pesticides
210 use, hence eventually reducing the environmental impact of this type of olive groves; and
211 v) the lack of knowledge concerning the environmental, economic, and socio-cultural
212 impacts of the expansion of super high-density olive groves makes the development of
213 evidence-based policy difficult, and therefore, research efforts -particularly fieldworks-
214 are necessary to boost the knowledge concerning impacts and solutions to ensure the
215 effectiveness of conservation actions.

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