# Netherlands Scientific Council for Government Policy

W 67

Crop production potential of rural areas within the European Communities III : Soils, Climate and Administrative Regions

G.J. Reinds G.H.J. de Koning J.D. Bulens

The Hague, March 1992

.

Exemplaren van deze uitgave zijn te bestellen bij het Distributiecentrum Overheidspublikaties, Postbus 20014, 2500 EA 's-Gravenhage, door overmaking van f 10,-- op giro 751 dan wel schriftelijk of telefonisch (071-352500) onder vermelding van titel en ISBN-nummer en het aantal gewenste exemplaren.

This Working Document can be ordered at "Distributiecentrum Overheidspublikaties", P.O. Box 20014, 2500 EA The Hague, by paying f 10,-- on giro 751 or by letter or telephone (071-352500) in mentioning title and ISBN-number and the number of copies you want to have.

ISBN 90 346 2798 5

Publikatie van de Wetenschappelijke Raad voor het Regeringsbeleid (WRR), Postbus 20004, 2500 EA 's-Gravenhage (tel. 070-3564600)

(Publication of the Scientific Council for Government Policy).

. . . .

# CONTENTS

PREFACE

# ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

1	INTRC	DUCTI	ON	. 1
2	SOILS 2.1 2.2 2.3 2.4	Classil Soil as Selecte	IE EUROPEAN COMMUNITIES	3 5 8
		2.4.2	symbol	11 13
	-	2.4.2	Data for associated soils	15
3	AGRC 3.1 3.2 3.3 3.4	The ag Histori 3.2.1 3.2.2 Long-t	ATIC ZONES	16 16 17 17 18 19 20
4	ADMI	NISTRA	TIVE REGIONS	21
5	DISCL	JSSION	۱	23
	REFE	RENCE	S	25
ANNE	EX I. We	eather s	stations with a historical record of data.	29
ANNE	EX II. W	eather :	stations with long term average data.	31
ANNE	EX III. S	ubdivisi	ion of soil parameters	32

## PREFACE

The Netherlands Scientific Council for Government Policy has asked the Winand Staring Centre in Wageningen to investigate the crop production potential of the rural areas within the European Communities. The Council needed this information for a project on the possible future developments in the rural areas of the EC as a result of an ongoing growth in agricultural productivity. To get a clear view the Council explored the possible changes in the rural areas.

When exploring possible developments or options it is crucial to define the objectives at stake. Within agriculture not only production is of importance, but also (regional) employment, emissions of pesticides and nutrients to the environment, impact on the landscape, etc. Land use is taken as the key factor in the explorations by the Council. Through different types of land use different goals can be attained. The explorations show the differences in possible future land use when a certain priority is given to the various objectives.

Information on the physical possibilities for land use was absolutely necessary to carry out the explorations. A team from the Winand Staring Centre consisting of Ir. J.D. Bulens, Ir. A.K. Bregt, Ir. C.A. van Diepen, Ir. C.M.A. Hendriks, Ir. G.H. de Koning and Ir. G.J. Reinds led by Dr.ir. H.A.J. van Lanen compiled this information. A report of their research is given in a series of five separate documents under the common title 'Crop production potential of rural areas within the European Community'. The series consists of:

- I : GIS and datamodel (W65)
- II : A physical land evaluation procedure for annual crops and grass (W66)
- III : Soils, climate and administrative regions (W67)
- IV : Potential, water-limited and actual crop production (W68)
- V : Qualitative suitability assessment for forestry and perennial crops (W69)

The full report shows that a combination of Geographical Information Systems and simulation models can provide useful quantitative information on crop production potentials for different crops at different locations. With this approach the Winand Staring Centre opened up a new and promising line of research.

Prof.dr.ir. R.Rabbinge

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

At the request of the Dutch Scientific Council for Government Policy (WRR) the Winand Staring Centre (SC) in Wageningen conducted a study on the crop production potential of the rural areas within the European Communities (EC). We gratefully acknowledge the grant provided by the Council. The SC study was supervised by a WRR team comprising Prof.dr.ir. R. Rabbinge (chairman), Drs. H.C. van Latesteijn (secretary), Drs. D. Scheele, Ir. H. Hengsdijk and Drs. E. Bolsius.

The digitized maps and some attribute data used in our study were supplied in a compatible form by the CORINE project team (DG XI, Commission of the European Communities, Brussels). The support of Mr. M.H. Cornaert and Ir. J. Maes is greatly appreciated.

Meteoconsult B.V. in Wageningen provided records of historical weather data for many meteorological stations within the EC.

Furthermore valuable data on crops were provided by colleagues at the Centre of Agrobiological Research (CABO) in Wageningen.

Ir. G.J. Reinds Ir. G.H.J de Koning Ir. J.D. Bulens

## 1 INTRODUCTION

The Common Agricultural Policy (CAP) of the European Communities (EC) has stimulated agricultural production to such a level that surpluses of some major commodities, such as wheat, sugar, milk, and wine has become structural. In areas favourable for agriculture, farm size has increased, narrow crop rotations have been introduced, and large amounts of relatively inexpensive agro-chemicals and feedstuffs are being used. The intensification of agriculture in these regions has detrimentally affected the environment, nature and landscape (Briggs and Wilson, 1987). In areas less favoured for agriculture, the abandonment of land and associated social hardship occurs.

EC funds are increasingly called upon to mitigate the undesirable socio-economic and environmental effects of the CAP. However, little or nothing is known about the costeffectiveness of investments for agricultural development in the various EC regions in relation to the long term perspectives.

Therefore, the Netherlands Scientific Council for Government Policy (WRR) has started a project on the possible developments of the rural areas in the EC. Different land use scenarios will be evaluated in terms of their impact on rural development, taking into account agricultural, socio-economic, environmental, and physical planning aspects. The WRR will develop and apply a model for the General Optimal Allocation of Land use (GOAL). This model uses a method known as Interactive Multiple Goal Linear Programming. For the purpose this model the WRR requires, among other input data, information about the regional production potentials of major crops at different input levels.

At the request of the WRR, the Winand Staring Centre has investigated the physical crop production potential of rural areas in the EC. The yield potential of some indicator crops, when grown on major land units suitable for agricultural use, was determined by a combined use of physical land evaluation methods and a Geographical Information System (GIS).

In this report the maps and data sets used in the land evaluation procedures will be discussed in detail. Consequently, when reading other working documents it can serve as background information.

The land evaluation map, showing the land evaluation units, was compiled by a digital overlay of three base-maps:

- the soil map of the EC on a scale 1 : 1.000.000
- an agro-climatic map of the EC, comprising 109 agro-climatic zones

- a map with 61 administrative regions, according to the 'Nomenclature des Unites Territoriales Statistiques', level 1 (NUTS-1 regions)

The land evaluation map comprises 4269 land evaluation units, each being an unique combination of soil type, climatic region and NUTS-1 region. Each land evaluation unit is characterized by specific soil and meteorological data which

formed the basis for the combined application of qualitative and quantitative land evaluation procedures. The principal components of these procedures are expert knowledge systems and crop growth simulation models respectively.

Chapter 2 describes the soil map of the European Communities on a scale 1:1.000.000. The classification system used to compose the map is outlined and the major soil units that occur are listed and briefly described. Furthermore, the general composition of the soil associations is discussed. Additionally, attention is paid to selected and representative soil profiles and the soil data derived from the map.

In chapter 3 the agro-climatical map and the corresponding meteorological data set used in the physical land evaluations, are characterized.

Chapter 4 discusses the map with administrative regions within the European communities. This map was used to aggregate the results of the physical land evaluations and to allow a comparison between simulated results and statistical data available for these so called Nuts-1 regions.

All maps and associated data where stored in a Geographical Information System. A detailed description of this GIS is provided by Bulens & Bregt (1991).

. .

# 2 SOILS OF THE EUROPEAN COMMUNITIES

The most comprehensive and consistent soil map of the EC is the soil map of the European Communities on a scale 1:1.000.000.

This map was published by the Commission of the European Communities (CEC, 1985) and comprises six map sheets and an accompanying textbook. The map was compiled from twelve national soil maps of the same scale, supplied by each of the EC membership countries. A fragment of the EC soil map, illustrating the amount of detail on the 1:1.000.000 scale, is given on Map I.

# 2.1 Classification system.

The soils on the EC soil map are classified according to the FAO soil classification system (CEC, 1985). This classification system had been previously used to compile the soil map of the world on a scale 1:5.000.000 (FAO, 1974). It distinguishes 26 major soil groups or orders, 18 of which were included in the soil map of the EC. On this level of classification, soils are grouped according to general principles of soil formation.

The following is a broad description of the 18 soil orders that occur on the EC soil map. Most of these descriptions are based on those provided by Van Dam and Van Diepen (1982) in combination with the definitions of the soil orders listed in the legend of the soil map of the world (FAO, 1974).

## Fluvisols

Soils developed in recent alluvial deposits, still showing fine stratification and often receiving fresh material at regular intervals from a river, a sea or by overland flow.

## Gleysols

Soils that are strongly influenced by groundwater, showing groundwater influence within 50 cm of the surface and do not have any indication of strong soil development such as illuvial horizons.

## Regosols

Soils consisting of loose materials that do not show soil development.

# Lithosols

Soils whith coherent hard rock within 10 cm of the surface.

Arenosols Strongly weathered sandy soils

### Rendzinas

Soils with a topsoil with a high organic matter content and containing or directly overlying calcareous materials of a high calcium carbonate content.

Rankers Shallow soils with a thin, acidic humic topsoil.

Andosols Soils developed in volcanic materials.

### Vertisols

Heavy clay soils, with deep cracks when dry that close in wet periods because of the presence of swelling clay minerals.

Solonchaks Soils with a high content of soluble salts.

#### Xerosols

Soils developed under very dry and warm conditions; xerosols on the EC soil map always contain a calcic or a gypsic horizon indicating a high precipitation deficit.

#### Phaeozems

Soils with a very humic, brown topsoil. Similar to the well known chernozems.

#### Cambisols

Soils of medium to fine texture that are weakly weathered and have only minor alterations in parent material with respect to colour, consistency or structure.

#### Luvisols

Soils containing a subsoil horizon with a high base saturation showing illuvial accumulation of clay.

## Podzols

Sandy soils developed under acid conditions, in which organic matter and aluminium with or without iron has accumulated at some depth.

## Podzoluvisols

Soils showing both Luvisol and Podzol features.

# Planosols

Soils with a leached horizon on top of a slowly permeable horizon causing water stagnation in at least some parts of the year.

## Histosols

Soils formed under very wet conditions by prolonged accumulation of organic materials. Generally, the mean organic matter content should exceed 20 % over a depth of at least 40 cm.

The orders can be subdivided into great groups according to differentiating characteristics such as base saturation, gleyic features, humus content in the top soil and so on. On the EC soil map, for example, the order of Fluvisols is subdivided into three great groups according to differences in base saturation:

- Calcaric Fluvisols, Fluvisols containing free CaCO<sub>3</sub> and consequently have a base saturation of 100%.
- Eutric Fluvisols, Fluvisols with a base saturation of 50 to 100 %.
- Dystric Fluvisols, Fluvisols with a base saturation of less than 50 %.

Some great groups are further subdivided into subgroups according to other differentiating characteristics (CEC, 1985). On the EC soil map, for example, Calcaric Fluvisols are subdivided into two subgroups:

- Fluvi-Calcaric Fluvisols, Calcaric Fluvisols that are formed in river deposits.
- Gleyic-Calcaric Fluvisols, Calcaric Fluvisols that show groundwater influence within 100 cm of the surface.
- 2.2 Soil associations and their characteristics.

The EC soil map consists of 312 different soil associations. Each of these soil associations contains a dominant soil unit, one or more associated soils which cover less than 50 % but more than 10 % of the area of the association, and one or more inclusions. Inclusions always cover less than 10 % of the area of the soil association.

On the map 78 different dominant soil units have been distinguished; two are specified at order level, 49 at great group level and 27 at subgroup level.

The soil texture of the uppermost 30 cm of the soil profile of dominant soil unit and the most common slope of each association are known and listed in the map legend. The soil texture of the associated soils and inclusions is not specified.

The topsoil texture of the dominant soil unit is divided into five classes (CEC, 1985):

- 1 coarse: more than 65 % sand and less than 18 % clay.
- 2 medium: more than 15 % sand and less than 35 % clay; more than 18 % clay if the sand content exceeds 65 %.
- 3 medium fine: less than 15 % sand and less than 35 % clay.
- 4 fine: more than 35 % clay but less than 60% clay.
- 5 very fine: more than 60 % clay.

If it was not possible to allocate the texture of the top soil to a single texture class, a compound texture class was indicated comprising two or more texture classes. Peat soils (Histosols) also occur on the map. Two types of peat soils have been distinguished, namely Dystric and Eutric Histosols, for which, of course, no texture class was specified.

The slope dominating the terrain where the soil association is situated, is divided into four classes (CEC, 1985):

- a level: major slopes between 0 and 8 %.
- b sloping: major slopes between 8 and 15 %.
- c moderately steep: major slopes between 15 and 25 %.
- d steep: major slopes exceed 25 %.

The map often shows compound slope classes, comprising two or more of these slope classes.

The polygons on the soil map each have a number referring to a symbol. These symbols are listed on the map legend and solely refer to the dominant soil within the soil associations.

An example of such a symbol is Je-1/2ab. This code contains:

- the characterization of the dominant soil unit: Je, in which J is the character for Fluvisol and e for Eutric. The number of characters indicating the name of the dominant soil unit is one for soils specified at order level, two for soils specified at group level and three for soils specified at sub-group level.
- the texture of the dominant soil, indicated by the next two characters: 1/2 which means that the texture of the topsoil is in class 1 or 2. Single value texture classes are indicated by one character.

- the slope of the site on which the soil association is situated, given in the last two characters: ab. These characters refer to the slope classes a and b so the slope of the unit is between 0 and 15 %. Single value slope classes are indicated by one character.

On the soil map some soil associations are marked with rasters indicating so-called soil phases. These soil phases are used to indicate adverse soil conditions that can negatively affect the characteristics of the soil in connection with soil management for instance. Seven different phases were distinguished (CEC, 1985):

- stony phase: areas in which the number of stones (>7.5 cm), boulders or rock outcrops in the topsoil prohibit the use of mechanized agricultural equipment.
- gravelly phase: areas in which the topsoil contains more than 35 % gravel (<7.5 cm) often only allowing the use of simple agricultural tools.
- concretionary phase: areas in which the topsoil contains more than 35 % pedogenetic concretions, limiting the use of mechanized agricultural equipment.
- petrocalcic phase: areas having a cemented or indurated calcic horizon within 100 cm of the soil surface.
- lithic phase: areas with coherent and hard rock within 50 cm of the soil surface.
- saline phase: areas with a saline horizon within 100 cm of the surface.
- sodic phase: areas with a sodic horizon within 100 cm of the surface.

In addition to these seven single soil phases, there are seven combinations of two phases each. Since soil phases may significantly influence some important soil characteristics, the soil phase was taken as a diagnostic characteristic. This means that, in this study, a dominant soil unit with a particular soil phase is considered to be different from the same soil unit with either no soil phase or another soil phase. In this way the number of different soil associations increased from 312 to 546.

## 2.3 Selected and representative profiles

To characterize the soils on the EC soil map, a selected profile was described for each dominant soil unit; some profile descriptions are listed in the legend of the EC soil map (EC, 1985) others in the legend of the FAO soil map of the world (FAO, 1974). Soil units however, can differ in various soil characteristics even when classified in the same great group or sub-group, due to several factors such as climate, parent material and land use. For example, the chemical and physical soil characteristics of an Orthic Luvisol formed in a subtropical Mediterranean climate used as arable land will probably be different than those of an Orthic Luvisol in Ireland, developed in a temperate climate and used as permanent pasture. The selected profile described in the legend of the EC soil map, "representing" Orthic Luvisols, is located in Denmark and has a beech vegetation. To use the data given in this profile description to characterize all Orthic Luvisols in the EC would be incorrect as this Danish soil is developed under environmental conditions and in a parent material other than that of many Orthic Luvisols in other European regions. In other words, the data presented for the selected profiles are site-specific and cannot be used for all of Europe. This problem has been recognized by authors who used the EC soil map for broad physical land evaluations (Van Lanen et al., 1988, Proctor et al., 1988, Madsen et al. 1987). For these evaluations, the soil data used often needed to be retrieved from national data bases.

Madsen (1988), proposed a soil analytical data base for the entire European Communities that should be established within the frame of the CORINE project. CORINE is an acronym for gathering and coordinating information on the state of the environment and natural resources in the European Communities (Wiggins et al., 1987). In the first development stage this data base should contain profile descriptions and analytical data for all dominant soil units within each EC country. Soil analysis and profile descriptions in each country should be made according to generally accepted standard methods.

In the second stage, associated soils and inclusions should be described and analyzed as well. In the third stage, the profile descriptions and analytical data should be gathered for different regions within each country. Finally, descriptions should be made dependent on land use.

One of the first attempts to establish a soil data base for the EC soil map was made in 1987 by Gardiner (1987). Gardiner collected 252 representative soil profile descriptions and accompanying analytical data from seven EC-countries. Unfortunately 220 of these soil profiles were located in England, Scotland and Ireland, so the number of profiles in other countries was very limited. No profiles were obtained from Germany, The Netherlands, Belgium, Greece and Portugal. Furthermore, no standardization was made in the data base: profile descriptions were given in the national language and the number and type of analytical data was dependent on the soil survey organization that supplied the

data. This collection of profile descriptions and accompanying soil analytical data, therefore cannot serve as a data set for a physical land evaluation for the entire EC, as the information is too fragmentary, partly difficult to access and only covers a small part of the EC map area.

From the foregoing it follows that at present representative soil data for the soil units on the EC soil map are lacking. For the dominant soil units only topsoil texture and slope are explicitly described, for associated soils and inclusions even texture data are lacking. The texture of the associated soils is in particular of major importance as these soils cover a relatively large area on the EC soil map. Figure 2.2 shows the frequency distribution of the

percentage of the area of a soil association covered by the dominant soil unit. For instance, figure 2.2 shows that about 25 % percent of the soil associations contain a dominant soil unit which covers 75 % of the area of the soil association. Estimations of these relative areas were obtained from the information in the map legend of the EC soil map. It cannot be computed exactly, as the percentage of the soil association covered by the dominant soil unit is sometimes given as a range (eg. 40-60%) sometimes as more

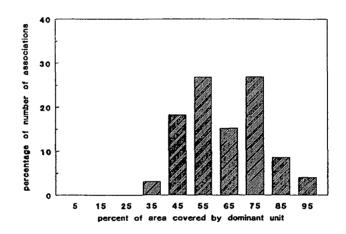


Figure 2.2 Frequency distribution of the percentage of the area of the soil associations covered by the dominant soil unit.

than a certain percentage (e.g. > 70%) and sometimes as less than a certain percentage (e.g. < 60%). If a range is specified, the mean percentage of the range was used. If only a minimum or maximum relative area was indicated in the legend, the area covered by the dominant soil unit was approximated taking into account the number of associated soils and inclusions within that specific association.

Figure 2.2 shows that most dominant soils cover only 40 to 80 % of the area of the soil association. The percentage of the total area on the EC map occupied by dominant soils computed as 60 % was obtained by multiplying the area of each soil association and the percentage of the association occupied by the dominant soil. This means that for about 40

% of the map area soil texture data are lacking.

For broad land evaluation studies at EC level, such as conducted in this study, the first two soil data base stages described by Madsen are important if evaluation results need to be improved. Besides, additional information on for instance rooting depth, soil water retention and drainage status for all mapping units on the EC soil map would be very useful.

Soil maps, however, contain valuable information, as soil units with regard to some general soil characteristics are unique.

Common soil characteristics such as drainage status and soil depth are used as diagnostic characteristics in the classification of soils. Lithosols, for example, are defined as soils with as soil depth of less than 10 cm, Gleysols are defined as soils with groundwater influence within 50 cm of the surface. Using these classification criteria, some important, general soil characteristics can be estimated from the symbol of the soil unit solely (CEC, 1985, Ameryckx & Verheye, 1986). This process of data retrieval from the EC soil map is discussed in the next section.

2.4 Estimation of some general soil characteristics from the EC soil map.

## 2.4.1 Assessment of some general characteristics from the soil unit symbol.

To assess some important soil characteristics needed for the physical land evaluations, all symbols of dominant soil units were interpreted. Soil and land characteristics were derived for each dominant soil unit by a straightforward interpretation of the symbol of the soil unit. This interpretation was based on a pilot study by Ameryckx and Verheye (1986) who derived soil characteristics for the dominant soils of the soil associations in France, indicated on the EC soil map.

Each of the 546 symbols representing a soil unit in combination with a soil phase, was analyzed automatically. Decision rules were developed to split up each symbol into three parts, one with one to three characters representing the pedogenetic name of the soil unit according to the FAO classification system, a second part indicating the texture of the topsoil and a third part indicating the slope of the site at which the soil unit was situated (see also section 2.1). This information yielded 11 soil and land characteristics as follows:

- texture, subdivided into five single-value classes and eight compound classes.
- cation exchange capacity, subdivided into five single-value classes and eight compound classes.
- maximum rooting depth, subdivided into five single-value classes.
- drainage condition, subdivided into seven single value classes.
- slope, subdivided into four single-value classes and six compound classes.
- presence of alkalinity, subdivided into two classes.
- presence of salinity, subdivided into two classes.
- presence of free CaCo<sub>3</sub>, subdivided into two classes.
- presence of free CaSo<sub>4</sub>, subdivided into two classes.
- base saturation, subdivided into three classes.
- organic matter content of the topsoil, subdivided into three classes.
- presence and type of soil phase.

A description of these characteristics and their subdivision into classes, is given in ANNEX III.

An example of how a particular soil characteristic was estimated from the symbol of the soil unit, is provided in Figure 2.3. This figure illustrates the assessment of a base saturation class for each soil unit. Firstly the soil order to which the soil unit belongs was determined by identifying the first character of the pedogenetic name. All Andosols, Rankers, Podzols and Podzoluvisols were assumed to have a base saturation lower than

50 %. All Solonchaks, Rendzinas and Xerosols were assumed to have a base saturation of 100 %. For all other soils, the great group to which this soil unit belongs was determined by identifying the second character of the pedogenetic name. All dystric, humic, and ferric soils, not included in the previously mentioned soils, were assumed to have a base saturation of less than 50 %. All calcic soils were assigned to the group of soils which have a base saturation of 100 %. All other soils are assumed to have a base saturation between 50 and 100 %.

Other properties were derived in a similar way. It is beyond the scope of this report to fully list all decision rules. Only a brief indication of how the other characteristics were derived, is given below.

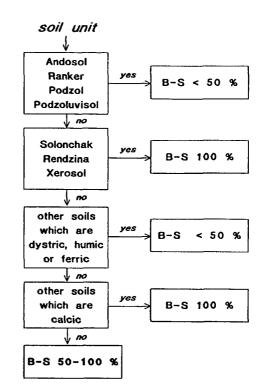


Figure 2.3 Assessment of a base saturation class.

Texture and slope were defined in the soil unit symbol, so they could be instantly derived. Cation Exchange Capacity was directly and solely related to the texture of the topsoil as organic matter content data are too broad to improve the assessment. The drainage condition was derived from the name of the soil unit and its texture.

The maximum rooting depth was derived from the pedogenetic name of the soil unit, combined with its texture, phase and drainage conditions. The presence of alkalinity, free  $CaCO_3$ , free  $CaSO_4$  in the topsoil and the organic matter content of the topsoil were derived from the name of the soil unit. The presence of salinity was expressed by the name of the soil unit as well as by its phase.

As stated earlier, many soil units have compound texture and/or slope classes. Unfortunately, the relative area of each of the single texture- and slope classes within a compound unit is not given for the soil units on the EC soil map. Since no composition data were available, each single value class was assumed to cover an equal area within the compound unit. For instance, a soil unit with moderate to steep slopes (slope class ab) and a coarse to medium texture (texture class 1/2) was subdivided into four sub-units. One sub-unit with slope class a and texture class 1, one with slope class a and texture class 2, one with slope class b and texture class 1 and one with slope class b and texture class 2. Each of these sub-units was assumed to cover an equal area, namely 25 % of the area of the soil unit. Each sub unit was separately evaluated by the physical qualitative and quantitative land evaluation methods.

#### 2.4.2 Water retention data

The crop growth simulation model WOFOST (Van Diepen et al. 1988) was used in the quantitative land evaluations.

This model calculates the yield reduction caused by water stress on basis of a simple soil water balance. To simulate the water balance of the soil, some soil hydraulic properties must be specified for each land evaluation unit. For free draining soils, a specification of the water holding properties by three points on the water retention curve is sufficient to run the water balance routine. However, for groundwater influenced soils, that cover only a minor part of the EC, a full water retention curve and a hydraulic conductivity curve must be specified. Drought stress occurs if the amount of available water within the root zone is insufficient to allow optimal transpiration of the crop. In the root zone, the water content below which drought stress occurs is dependent on crop characteristics and the evaporative demand. The water content of the soil is determined by rainfall, simulated evapotranspiration, runoff and percolation, and on the amount of available water. In the WOFOST model, available water content is therefore the most important soil physical property influencing water-limited crop growth. It is defined as the water content at pF 2.0 or pF 2.3, depending on the drainage status of the soil, minus the water content at pF 4.2. These two points on the water retention curve are often referred to as field capacity and permanent wilting point respectively.

Unfortunately, only a small number of such soil physical data are readily available. Moreover, they represent only a limited number of EC countries. Data on available water as determined in some EC countries are listed in table 2.4.

This table shows that the available water contents given by the various authors are within close ranges. An exception are the coarse textured soils where data cover a broad range. This is probably due to differences in organic matter content of the analyzed samples as organic matter content can substantially influence the water holding capacity of coarse textured soils. As there was insufficient water retention data to allow a regional differentiation of the water holding properties of the five texture classes, it was decided to

Coarse	Medium	Medium-Fine	Fine	Very fine	Source	Country
8	15	19	18	17	1	France
11	21	24	20	19	1 •	United Kingdom
15	21	24	19		2	Belgium
16	22	17	17	14	3 **	Germany
17	23	22	23	21	4	Netherlands
16	20				5	Denmark

Table 2.4 Water content between pF2.0 and pF 4.2 in cm/m as determined in various EC countries.

sources:

1 King & Daroussin, 1988.

2 Vereecken, 1988

3 Mc Keague et al., 1984

4 Wosten et al., 1987

5 Madsen & Platou, 1983

water content between pF1.8 and pF4.2

\*\* water content between pF1.7 and pF4.2

use only one set of water retention data for each texture class in the EC. This simple allocation of water retention data to texture classes irrespective of the region where the soil is situated, is of course a drastic simplification.

The soil water retention curves from Vereecken (1988) were used in our study to represent the texture classes on the EC soil map. Firstly, these data are close to the mean available water contents for the countries as listed in table 2.4. Secondly, the division of texture into texture classes as practiced by Vereecken is very similar to the texture division on the EC soil map, enabeling texture classes to be compared very well. Vereecken (1988) described the water retention curves by means of a parameter equation developed by Van Genuchten (1980). The parameter values needed to compute the relationship between water content and pressure head, however, were only given for the texture classes comparable to the EC texture classes coarse, medium, medium fine and fine. There is no data for texture class very fine. These parameter values were assessed by a relation also given by Vereecken (1988) where an estimation of the parameters was achieved using easily measurable soil characteristics. For texture class very fine, bulk density, clay content, sand content and organic matter content were estimated and these values were used to calculate the parameter values required to describe the water retention curve. Note that this rather speculative pF curve for texture class five only applies to about 0.5% of the total soil map area. Moreover, in the land evaluation procedures, land evaluation units with texture class very fine were assumed to be unsuitable for far most types of land use (Reinds & Van Lanen 1991).

## 2.4.2 Data for associated soils

Estimates of soil characteristics derived from the pedogenetic name of the soil unit could also have been made for the associated soils of each soil association.

However, soil texture is only known for the dominant unit within each association. As the texture of the uppermost 30 cm of the soil is a prerequisite for the evaluation of its crop growth potential, the estimation other soil characteristics for associated soils or inclusions was of no use. This implies that the physical land evaluation referred to the dominant soil unit of each soil association. Consequently, the crop growth potentials of a soil association were only represented by those of the dominant soil unit. This is of minor importance if the dominant soil unit covers a large part of the area of the association. In the previous section, however, it was shown that dominant soils cover only about 60% of the total map area.

A relatively high proportion of EC land occupied by associated soils and inclusions does not necessarily mean that the results obtained for the dominant soil unit do not apply to the soil association. If a soil association is composed of a dominant soil, associated soils and inclusions with very different soil physical properties such as texture and rooting depth, the estimated production potential for this association will not be completely accurate as the dominant soil cannot represent the entire association. If, on the other hand, the association consists of soils with almost identical physical properties, the production potential of the soil association can be reasonably assessed.

#### 3 AGRO-CLIMATIC ZONES

For each land evaluation unit, a representative set of meteorological data was needed to allow evaluation of the crop growth potential with the physical land evaluation models. To this end a map was constructed on which 109 agro-climatic zones were distinguished. For each of these zones a representative meteorological station was selected. A historical record of monthly average weather data was available for 81 stations. For the other 28 stations long-term average monthly weather data were used.

The crop growth simulation model WOFOST, which is a vital part of the quantitative land evaluation procedure, can only be utilized with a complete set of weather data; i.e. a set without any missing data. Data on either a daily or a monthly basis can be used. Weather input data needed for WOFOST are global radiation, minimum temperature, maximum temperature, vapour pressure, wind speed, precipitation and, in case of monthly data, number of days with precipitation. Within the model, monthly data are translated to daily data by means of stochastic distribution procedures for precipitation and by linear interpolation for other weather variables (van Diepen et al., 1988). For the qualitative land evaluation procedure less detailed weather data were required.

A number of data was missing in both the historical and the long-term records of weather so substitutes had to be found. Some of the weather variables had to be converted to meet the input requirements of WOFOST, e.g all sunshine duration data had to be converted to global radiation. The replacement of missing values and conversion of weather data in both the historical and long-term average data records will be discussed separately in this chapter.

### 3.1 The agro-climatic map

A digitized agro-climatic map for the EC was constructed based on the Agro-climatic Atlas by Thran and Broekhuizen (1965). The Agro-climatic Atlas was developed to characterize the ecological conditions for cereal growing in Europe. This original map was adapted somewhat. The most important modification concerned a more accurate localization of mountainous areas. Furthermore a geographical map projection had to be found by trial and error, due to the lack of specifications on the source map. This projection was needed to perform a map overlay with the soil map and the map with administrative regions. On the agro-climatic map, 109 zones were distinguished.

Weather data from meteorological stations were available as long-term mean data or as historical records. For most stations a historical record of monthly data was available, for others only the monthly long term average weather data were known. One representative

meteorological station was allocated to each of the agro-climatic zones. Priority was given to a station with a historical record of data. A valley station was selected in mountainous zones, because it was assumed that most agricultural activities take place under lowland conditions.

The agro-climatic zones and their corresponding meteorological stations are shown on Map II.

# 3.2 Historical records of weather data

A historical record of monthly average weather data for 81 stations was obtained from "Meteoconsult", a specialised meteorological company in Wageningen, the Netherlands. This historical record covered 26 years: 1961 to 1986 inclusive. For 8 of the stations the historical record only covered a number of years between 15 and 26. A list of the 81 stations is given in ANNEX I, together with some specifications. The data set with monthly data contained the following weather variables:

- average temperature (degrees Celsius)
- sunshine duration (hours/month)
- average vapour pressure (mbar)
- precipitation (mm/month)
- number of days with more than 1 mm rainfall (days/month)

## 3.2.1 Missing data

A number of data in the historical records was lacking. Wind speed figures were not available at all and for the years 1961 to 1968 inclusive the records contained no sunshine duration figures. Furthermore a small number of values concerning all weather variables was missing throughout the data set in a non-systematic way.

To substitute these missing data, another source of weather data was also consulted. In Muller (1987) long term average monthly data of 1178 meteorological stations throughout the world are provided. In this book figures of 16 weather variables are given with a varying completeness depending on the station.

In the process of updating the historical records, 2 types of stations were distinguished:

- a: Stations that are not listed by Muller (1987).
  - This applied to 15 of the 81 stations with a historical record. The long-term average monthly value of each weather variable for each station was calculated from the available data in the historical record of that station as obtained from Meteoconsult. These averages were used to replace missing values. When there were less than 10 figures available to calculate a long-term average, a long term average was used from the most adjacent station listed by Muller (1987). Values from adjacent stations had to be used for the sunshine duration of 8 stations and the number of rainy days of 3 stations. Because no wind speed data were available in the historical records, long term wind speed data of 9 stations were derived from 4 nearby stations provided by Müller (1987), from 2 stations by Wallén (1970 and 1977) and from 3 stations by Bendelow and Hartnup (1980). The wind speed figures of the remaining 6 stations were estimated from data available on other locations and general wind gradients (e.g. coastal effects).
- b: Stations for which data are provided by Muller (1987). This applied to 66 of the 81 stations. When figures were missing for the variables temperature, sunshine duration, precipitation or number of rainy days, the long-term average figures for the same station according to Müller (1987) were used to substitute the missing values.

Müller (1987) does not provide vapour pressure values. Missing vapour pressure values were therefore replaced by long-term averages from the historical records as described for the stations listed under "a". The historical record of the station Braganca contained only 9 complete years of vapour pressure data. For all other stations at least 10 years of monthly vapour pressure figures were available. Wind speed figures are given by Müller for only 26 of the 66 stations. Wind speed figures for 6 of the other stations were retrieved from Wallen (1970; 1977). For 3 stations in the United Kingdom wind speed was taken from Bendelow and Hartnup (1980). For the remaining 31 stations wind speed was estimated from available data on other locations and general wind gradients (e.g. coastal effects).

## 3.2.2 Conversion of data

Much meteorological data in the historical records had to be converted to appropriate input data for the crop growth model WOFOST. In the dataset from Meteoconsult, temperature was given only as the average day temperature in a specific month. WOFOST, however, requires minimum and maximum temperature. For each station, the long-term monthly range between maximum and minimum temperature was retrieved from Müller (1987).

When the specific station was not listed, an adjacent station was used. This long-term temperature range was used to convert the monthly average temperatures in the historical records to maximum and minimum temperatures.

The sunshine duration was converted to global radiation (J  $m^{-2} d^{-1}$ ) according to a standard procedure as described by Berkhout (1986). In this procedure an algorithm is used for the calculation of the Angot value developed by De Bruin (1977). The Angot value is the amount of solar radiation that theoretically reaches the edge of the atmosphere. The conversion of hours sunshine to global radiation is based on the general relation

 $Ri = Ra (A + B \cdot n/N)$  where,

Ri = the radiation actually received (J m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>)

Ra = Angot value  $(J m^2 d^1)$ 

- n/N = ratio of actual duration of bright sunshine and the maximum possible sunshine duration on a cloudless day
- A,B = empirical constants, that were set at 0.18 and 0.55 respectively, as proposed by the FAO (Frere and Popov, 1979)

#### 3.3 Long-term average weather data

There was no historical record of weather data available for 28 agro-climatic zones. For all of these zones, a meteorological station was selected from the ones listed by Müller (1987) with long-term monthly average weather data. A list of these 28 stations is given in ANNEX II, together with some specifications.

The wind speed was available for 3 of these stations. For the other stations wind speed had to be estimated from available data on other locations and from broad wind gradients. Sunshine duration was converted to global radiation as described in section 3.2. The relative humidity figures listed by Muller (1987) were converted to vapour pressure using a standard equation (Feddes et al., 1978):

VP = RH/100 \* 1.333\*exp((1.089\*T-276.488)/(0.0583\*T-2.194))

#### where,

VP = vapour pressure (mbar) RH = relative humidity (%) T = temperature (Kelvin)

In this equation, T is the temperature at which the relative humidity is measured. As this

temperature was unknown, the average temperature was used.

## 3.4 Derived meteorological data

Meteorological data derived from the updated records were used as input for the qualitative land evaluation procedure. Moreover data were derived for a further characterization of the agro-climatic zones which proved to be very useful for the interpretation of the simulated crop growth potentials.

The annual global radiation was obtained by adding the monthly global radiation for each station. Results are shown on Map III. The highest radiation levels were found in the south of the Iberian Peninsula and Greece. The annual global radiation in the west of Ireland and the north of the United Kingdom is about 50% of the highest levels in the EC.

Mohrmann and Kessler (1959) calculated the annual precipitation deficit for 287 stations in Europe. The results were summarized on maps showing iso-lines of annual precipitation deficits in Europe. For each month the potential evapotranspiration, calculated according to Turc's formula, was substracted from the precipitation. The annual precipitation deficit was obtained by adding all the values of the months in which the potential evapotranspiration was higher than the precipitation.

This methodology was applied for the 109 EC-stations used in this study but in a slightly modified way. Instead of Turc's formula for the potential evapotranspiration, the Penman formula was applied. For this purpose the WOFOST crop growth model was used, which contains a module to perform the Penman calculation (Van Diepen et al., 1988). The potential evapotranspiration was calculated assuming a closed canopy all year round. The resulting annual precipitation deficits are shown on map IV. Deficits higher than 600 mm are mainly found in Portugal, Spain and Greece, together with a few zones along the Mediterranean coast of France and Italy. France makes up the transition zone from the dry climates in the south to the humid climates in the north of the EC. Noteworthy are the very humid zones along the Bascian coast.

Within the EC, administrative regions are distinguished at four NUTS levels. NUTS stands for Nomenclature des Unites Territoriales Statistiques. At the highest level (NUTS-0), the EC is divided into the twelve member states. At the second level each country is subdivided into a number of NUTS-1 regions. A further subdivision of these NUTS-1 regions results in the NUTS-2 and NUTS-3 units (Table 4.1).

NUTS 0	NUTS	51	NUTS II		NUTS III
Belgium	3 Regio	ons 9	Provinces	-	Arrondissements
Denmark	1	3	Grupper af Amter *	15	Amter
France	8 Zeat	22	Regions	96	Departements
Germany	11 Land		Regierungs bezirke	-	Kreise
Greece	3 Grou	ps of			•
	Deve	lopment Regions 9	Development regions	51	Nomoi
Ireland	1	1	. 2	9	Planning regions
Italy	11 Grup	pi di regioni * 20	Regioni	95	Provincie
Luxembourg	1	1	-	1	
Netherlands	4 Lanse	delen 12	Provincies	-	C.O.R.O.P. gebieden
Portugal	1 Grup	os de CCR • 5	CCR & regiones autonomos	27	Concelhos •
Spain		pacio de co- 18 dades autonomas *	Comunidades autonomas & Mellila y Ceuta	52	Provincias
Un. Kingdom			Groups of counties *	65	Counties

Table 4.1 Subdivision of the EC at different NUTS-levels.

notes \* groups of smaller regions

- regions not included in the CORINE data base

For these territorial units statistical data are gathered by the statistical office of the EC, Eurostat. Most statistical data are available at country level. The availability of statistical data decreases towards NUTS-3 level.

To evaluate the possible developments of rural areas in the EC, the Dutch Scientific Council for Government Policy has developed a model for global optimal allocation of land use requiring input on NUTS-1 level. To provide appropriate crop production data for this model, all results of the physical land evaluations had to be aggregated to NUTS-1 level. These aggregations were performed by the GIS, using the digitized delineations on the NUTS-1 map. Furthermore this aggregation allows for comparisons to be made with statistical crop production data and land use statistics. Therefore, statistical data on crop yield and land use at NUTS-1 level were also stored in the GIS (Bulens & Bregt, 1991). The digitized administrative map needed for the aggregation procedure was provided by the EC-CORINE project team. The regional boundaries are shown on Map V. Originally the NUTS-1 map contained 64 regions. For this study however only 61 regions were evaluated because the three other regions were either of minor importance for agricultural production or important data were lacking. These regions excluded were West-Berlin, the Canarian Islands and the Portuguese islands. In table 4.2 the 61 NUTS-1 regions are listed together with their areas, the NUTS-1 regions are also shown on map V. Table 4.2 and map V show that the size of the NUTS-1 regions varies considerably.

Table 4.2 Acreages of the NUTS-1 regions.

NC		·	NC		
υO TD	NUTS1 DESCRIPTION	TOTAL AREA		NUTS1	TOTAL AREA
S E 1		SQUARE KM			SQUARE KM
11	Schleswlg-Holsteln	15740	51	Vlaams gewest Region Wallonne	13493
12	Hamburg	648	52		
13	Hamburg Niedersachsen	47672	53	Brussel	163
14	Bremen	371			
15 16	Nordrhein-Westfalen	21352		Belgium	30562
17	Hessen Rhoipland-Rfalz	21352	60	Luxembourg (G.D.)	2650
18	Rheinland-Pfalz Baden-Wurttemberg Bayern Saarland FR Germany	36148	60	Edgembourg (G.D.)	2000
19	Bavern	70602	71	North	16204
ÍÁ	Saarland	2285	72	Yorkshire & Humbers East Midlands East-Anglia South East South-West West Midlands North-West Wales Coatland	15328
	Saarrand		73	East Midlands	15706
	FR Germany	248612	74	East-Anglia	12521
	in octainly	210012	75	South East	27993
21	Ile de France Bassin Parisien	12000	76	South-West	23992
22	Bassin Parisien	146096	77	West Midlands	12984
23	Nord-Pas-de-Calais	12084	78	North-West	7267
24		12000 146096 12084 48386	79	Wales	20545
25	Est Ouest				
26	Sud-Ouest	105928	7B	Northern Ireland	14020
27	Centre-Est	72034		······································	
28	Mediterranee	105928 72034 70672		United Kingdom	245523
	France	553801	80	Ireland	69653
31	Nord-Ovest	34045	90	Danmark	43323
32	Lombardia	24624			
33	Nord-Est	39967	A1	Ellas (North) Ellas (Central)	59740
34	Emilia-Romagna	22474	A2	Ellas (Central) Ellas (East and S.	62783
35	Centro	41987	A3	Ellas (East and S.	16096
36	Nord-Ovest Lombardia Nord-Est Emilia-Romagna Centro Lazio Campania Abruzzi-Molise	17619			
37	Campania	14214		Greece	138619
38	Abruzzi-Molise		- 1		170.00
39	Sud Sicilia Sardegna	46859	B1	Noroeste	47065
3A	Sicilia	27441 24781	B2	Noreste Madrid Centro Este Sur	73580
3B	saroegna	24781	83	Maur 10	8353
		309929	84	Centro Foto	224106
	Italy	303929	50		63633
41	Noord-Nederland	8582	80	Sut	101858
41 42	Oost-Nederland	10063		Spain	518595
42 45	Zuid-Nederland	10003		sharu	210222
45 47	West-Nederland	7032 8992	Cl	Norto do continante	46706
47	west-Nederland	8992	C1		40/00
		34669	CZ.	Sud do Continente	40373
	Mechellanus	J4009		Portugal	93302

#### 5 DISCUSSION

The soil map of the EC on a scale 1:1.000.000 proved to be a proper basis for the land evaluations preformed in this study. As final results were aggregated for Nuts-1 regions, the detailing of a 1:1.000.000 map can be considered to be sufficient.

The major shortcoming of the EC soil map is the very limited amount of soil data representative for the soil associations on the map. At present only the texture of the topsoil of the dominant soil unit and the most common slope of the association are provided for each soil association. Dominant soils, however, cover only about 60 % of the map area.

Furthermore, for a dominant unit with a compound texture and/or slope class, the fraction of the unit area occupied by each specific texture and slope class should be made available. As the texture of the topsoil and the slope of the site where the soil unit is situated strongly determine the suitability of the soil for various crop types, such data would contribute to a more accurate assessment of land suitability.

The selected soil profiles that accompany the map are not always representative for the soils on the map. Often, profiles selected demonstrate very site specific features which cannot be regarded as common characteristics for these soils.

A database for the soils on the EC soil map as proposed by e.g. Madsen (1989) would greatly improve the usefulness of the map for global qualitative and quantitative land evaluations. Data on the rooting depth of the soil, subsoil texture, groundwater depth's and fluctuations for groundwater affected soils and on soil physical properties such as water-retention and hydraulic conductivity would especially improve the accurateness of the crop growth simulations. For the assessment of environmental features, other soil characteristics such as cation exchange capacity and mineralogical composition might be needed.

The adapted agro-climatic atlas (Thran en Broekhuizen, 1965) provided a useful agroclimatic zoning for this study. The agro-climatic zones are far more realistic than zones created by mathematical methods, such as Thiessen polygons (Bulens and Bregt, 1991). For most agro-climatic zones it was possible to use a representative meteorological station. Sometimes, however, a meteorological station is located near the shore where the conditions are different than inland. Such coastal stations are for example Plymouth, Brest and La Coruna. In other cases meteorological observations were obtained from an airport, where weather characteristics can differ from those in agricultural fields. Some examples of airport stations are Dublin, Paris and Milano.

Unfortunately, a historical record of weather data was not available for all meteo stations. This is mainly caused by the very high costs of historical records of meteo data. Some inaccuracy in the data records was introduced because of the conversion from sunshine duration to global radiation. The values of the parameters A and B in the conversion equation which were assumed to be constant in our study, for example, depend on location (Doorenbos and Pruitt, 1977).

It would be more accurate to use measured radiation figures instead of converted sunshine duration data, but such data are hardly available.

In mountainous areas additional problems arise because of the the high variability in weather conditions. These areas usually have pronounced horizontal and vertical gradients. When performing this study, no detailed, digitized altitude map was available. Such a map would have been very helpful to delineate agro-climatic zones more precisely and to adjust weather data such as temperature in dependence of altitude.

. .

## REFERENCES

Ameryckx, J. and W. Verheye, 1986. Interpretation of the EC-soil map in view of the definition and delineation of agro-ecological zones in Europe. A pilot study applied to France.

Commission of the European Communities, Directorate General for Agriculture Brussels. 103 pp.

Bendelow, V.C., R. Hartnup, 1980. Climatic classification of England and Wales (soil survey technical monograph). Harpenden: Rothamstead agricultural station, United Kingdom. 27p.

Berkhout, J.A.A., 1986. Agro-ecological geographic information system, part 1: The meteorological component. Working paper of the Centre for World Food Studies, Wageningen, the Netherlands. 59 p.

Briggs, D.J., & D. Wilson, 1987. The state of the environment in the European Community. Commision of the European Community, Luxemburg. 370 pp.

Bulens, J.D. & A.K. Bregt, 1991. Crop production potential of rural areas within the European Communities. I: GIS and datamodel. Working Document 65, Netherlands Scientific Council for Government Policy, The Hague. 74 pp.

Commission of the European Communities (CEC), 1985. Soil Map of the European Communities 1:1.000.000. Luxemburg. 124 pp.

De Bruin, H.A.R., 1977. Een computerprogramma voor het berekenen van de inkomende straling aan de rand van de atmosfeer per dag door een horizontaal oppervlak. Verslagen V-294, Koninklijk Nederlands meteorologisch instituut, de Bilt, the Netherlands. (in Dutch).

Doorenbos, J., W.O. Pruitt, 1977. Crop water requirements. F.A.O. irrigation and drainage paper 24, F.A.O., Roma, Italy. 144 p.

FAO-UNESCO, 1974. Soil map of the world, volume I Legend. Unesco-Paris. 59 pp.

Feddes, R.A., P.J. Kowalik, H. Zaradny, 1978. Simulation of field water use and crop yield. Simulation monograph, PUDOC, Wageningen, the Netherlands. 189 p.

Frère, M., G.F. Popov, 1979. Agrometeorological crop monitoring and forecasting. F.A.O. plant protection paper 17, F.A.O., Rome, Italy. 64 p.

Gardiner, M.J., 1987. Compilation of soil analytical data for the EC. In Jones, R.J.A. and B. Biagi (Eds.) Computerization of land data. Proceedings of a workshop in the community programme for coordination of agricultural research 20-22 May 1987 Pisa, Italy. p 61-65.

Genuchten, M. Th. van, 1980. A closed form equation for predicting the hydraulic conductivity of unsaturated soils. Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J. 44, 892-898.

King, D. and J. Daroussin, 1989. Test for estimating the available soil moisture reserve using the european community soil map at scale 1: 1000000. In: Lanen, H.A.J. van and A.K. Bregt (Eds.) Application of computerized EC Soil Map and climate data. Proceedings of a workshop in the community programme for coordination of agricultural research, 15 and 16 November 1988, Wageningen, The Netherlands. p 87-107.

Madsen, H.B. and S.W. Platou, 1983. Land use planning in Denmark: The use of soil physical data in irrigation planning. Nordic Hydrology. p 267-276.

Madsen, H.B., K. Aagaard Holst and S. Aggergaard Mikkelsen, 1987. The use of the EC Soil Map in modelling and mapping the root zone capacity and irrigation need: A case study from Denmark. In Jones, R.J.A. and B. Biagi (Eds.) Computerization of land data. Proceedings of a workshop in the community programme for coordination of agricultural research 20-22 May 1987 Pisa, Italy. p 74-84.

Madsen, H.B. 1989, Elaboration of a soil profile and analytical data base connected to the EC Soil Map. In: Lanen, H.A.J. van and A.K. Bregt (Eds.) Application of computerized EC Soil Map and climate data. Proceedings of a workshop in the community programme for coordination of agricultural research, 15 and 16 November 1988, Wageningen, The Netherlands. p 119-133.

Mc Keague, J.A., R.G. Eilers, A.J. Thomasson, M.J. Reeve, J.Bouma, R.B. Grossman, J.C. Favrot, M.Renger and O. Strebel, 1984. Tentative assessment of soil survey approaches to the characterizations and interpretation of air-water properties of soils. Geoderma 34 (1984) p 69-100.

Mohrmann, J.C.J. and J. Kessler, 1959. Water deficiencies in European agriculture, a climatological survey. International Institute for Land Reclamation and Improvement, publication 5. Wageningen, the Netherlands. 60 p.

Müller, M.J., 1987. Handbuch ausgewählter Klimastationen der Erde. Trier, F.R. Germany. 346 p.

Proctor, M.E., Jones, R.J.A. and A.J. Thomasson, 1989. Interpretation of the digital EC Soil Map for agricultural and environmental applications in the UK. In: Lanen, H.A.J. van and A.K. Bregt (Eds.) Application of computerized EC Soil Map and climate data. Proceedings of a workshop in the community programme for coordination of agricultural research, 15 and 16 November 1988. Wageningen, The Netherlands. p 75-87.

Reinds,G.J. & H.A.J. van Lanen,1991. Crop production potential of rural areas within the European Communities. II: A physical land evaluation procedure for annual crops and grass. Working Document 66, Netherlands Scientific Council for Government Policy, The Hague. 28 pp.

Thran, P., & S. Broekhuizen, 1965. Agro-climatic atlas of Europe, Vol. I: Agro-ecological atlas of cereal growing in Europe, Elsevier, Amsterdam, the Netherlands.

Van Dam, J.A., & C.A. van Diepen, 1982. The soils of the flat wetlands of the world, their distribution and their agricultural potential. International Soil Museum, Wageningen. 47 pp.

Van Diepen, C.A., C. Rappoldt, J. Wolf, H. van Keulen, 1988. Crop growth simulation model WOFOST version 4.1, documentation. Working paper of the Centre for world food studies, Wageningen, the Netherlands. 299 p.

Van Lanen, H.A.J., A.K. Bregt, Y. van Randen, and M.R. Hoosbeek, 1989. Use of GIS, EC Soil Map and land evaluation procedures to explore crop growth potential. In: Lanen, H.A.J. van and A.K. Bregt (Eds.) Application of computerized EC Soil Map and climate data. Proceedings of a workshop in the community programme for coordination of agricultural research, 15 and 16 November 1988. Wageningen, The Netherlands. p 75-87.

Vereecken, H., 1988. Pedotransfer functions for the generation of hydraulic properties for Belgian soils. Thesis, Leuven, 1988.

Wallén, C.C, 1970. World survey of climatology, Vol. 5: Climates of Northern and Western Europe. Elsevier, Amsterdam, the Netherlands. 253 p.

Wallén, C.C, 1977. World survey of climatology, Vol. 6: Climates of Central and Southern Europe Elsevier, Amsterdam, the Netherlands. 248 p.

Wiggins, J.C., R.P.Hartley, M.J. Higgins & R.J. Wittaker, 1987. Computing aspects of a large geographic information sytem for the European Community. Int. J. Geographic

large geographic information sytem for the European Community. Int. J. Geographic Information Systems 1: 77-87.

Wosten, J.M.H., M.H. Bannink and J. Beuving, 1987. Waterretentie-en doorlatendheids karakteristieken van boven en ondergronden in Nederland: de Staringreeks. Stiboka rapport nr 1932. In Dutch.

.

	Lat. = Latitude (dec Long. = Longitude (d Alt. = Altitude (m)				
No.	Station	Lat.	Long.	Alt.	
1	LERWICK	60.1	1.2	82	
2	STORNOWAY	58.2	6.3	3	
3	ABERDEEN/DYCE	57.2	2.1	59	
4	TIREE	56.5	6.9	9	
5	EDINBURGH/ROYAL OBS.	56.0	3.4	35	
6	ESKDALEMUIR UK	55.3	3.2	239	
7	VALLEY	53.3	4.5	10	
8	MANCHESTER AIRPORT	53.4	2.3	77	
9	WADDINGTON	53.2	0.5	68	
10	BIRMINGHAM AP	52.5	1.7	96	
11	GLAMORGAN/RHOUSE AP	51.4	3.4	67	
	LONDON/GATWICK AIRPORT				
13	PLYMOUTH/MOUNT BATTEN	50.4	4.1	27	
14	DURNEMOUTH/HURN AP	50.8	1.8	10	
15	BELFAST/ALDERGROVE AP	54.7	6.2	73	
16	VALENTIA OBSERVATORY	51.9	10.3	14	
17	CORK AIRPORT	51.9	8.2	162	
18	SHANNON AIRPORT	52.7	8.9	7	
19	DUBLIN AIRPORT	53.4	6.3	81	
20	ALBORG	57.1	-9.9	3	
21	KOBENHAVN/LANDBOHOJSKOLEN	55.4	-12.6	22	
22	DE BILT	52.1	-5.2	0	
23	UCCLE	50.8	-4.4	104	
24	BREST/GUIPAVAS	48.5	4.4	103	
25	TRAPPES	48.8	-2.0	168	
26	PARIS/LE BOURGET	48.8	-2.5	50	
27	NANCY/ESSEY	48.7	-6.2	217 <sup>′</sup>	
28	STRASBOURG/ENTZHEIM	48.6	-7.6	154	
29	NANTES	47.3	1.6	27	
30	BOURGES	47.1	-2.4	162	
31	DIJON	47.3	-5.1	227	
32	LIMOGES/BELLEGARDE	45.9	-1.2	403	
33	LYON/BRON	45.7	-4.8	201	
34	BORDEAUX/MERIGNAC	44.8	0.7	51	
35	TOULOUSE/BLAGNAC	43.6		152	
36	NIMES/COURBESSAC	43.9		60	
37	MARSEILLE/MARIGNANE		-5.4	8	
38	NICE/COTE DAZUR	43.7		10	

ANNEX I. Weather stations with a historical record of data.

· .

39	PERPIGNAN	42.7	-2.9	48
	AJACCIO/CAMPO DEL ORO		-8.8	
41	LA CORUNA	43.4	8.4	67
42	VALLADOLID		4.7	
43	BARCELONA	41.4	-2.2	95
44	MADRID/RETIRO	40.4	3.7	657
45	PALMA DE MALLORCA	39.6	-2.7	45
46	MAHON, MENORCA/SAN LUIS	39.9	-4.3	59
	BADAJOZ	38.9	6.8	192
48	LISBOA/PORTELA	38.7	9.1	95
49	PORTO/PEDRAS RUBAS	41.2	8.7	70
50	FARO	37.0	8.0	8
51	BEJA	38.0	7.9	246
52	PENHAS DOURADAS	40.4	7.6	1380
53	BRAGANCA	41.8	6.8	691
54	SCHLESWIG	54.5	-9.6	48
55	HAMBURG/FUHLSBUTTEL	53.6	-10.0	16
56	EMDEN-NESSERLAND	53.3	-7.2	1
57	HANNOVER	52.5	-9.7	55
58	ESSEN	51.4	-7.0	161
59	KASSEL	51.3	-9.5	163
60	GEISENHEIM	50.0	-8.0	108
61	STUTTGART/CANNSTADT	48.8	-9.2	315
		49.5	-11.1	319
	MUNCHEN/RIEM	48.1	-11.7	529
	-	45.5	-9.2	103
		45.4	-10.9	67
			-12.4	
			-10.4	2
	PESCARA	42.4	-14.2	9
69	ROMA/FIUMICINO	41.9	-12.5	131
70	NAPOLI/CAPODICHINO	40.9	-14.3	88
71	BRINDISI		-18.0	-
72	MESSINA		-15.6	51
73	TRAPANI/BIRGI	37.9	-12.5	79
	CATANIA/FONTANAROSSA		-15.1	65
	ALGHERO	40.6	-8.3	23
	CAGLIARI/ELMAS	39.3	-9.1	18
77	THESSALONIKI/MIKRA		-23.0	61
78	KERKYRA	39.6	-19.9	2
	ATHINAI /NAT. OBS./		-23.7	
	KALAMATH		-22.1	5
81	HIRAKLION/CRETE	35.3	-25.2	48

. •

.

	Long. = Longit	-			
	Alt. = Altitud	e (m)			
No.	Station	Lat.	Long.	Alt.	
82	DALWHINNIE	56.6	4.1	359	
83	CLERVEAUX	50.0		454	
84	TOURS	47.3	-0.5	98	
85	LE PUY EN VELAY	45.0	-3.5	714	
86	BIARITZ	43.3	1.3	69	
87	LES ESCALDES *	42.3	-1.3	1080	
88	SANTANDER	43.5	3.5	7	
89	LEON	42.4	5.4	913	
90	SORIA	41.5	2.6	1080	
91	ZARAGOZA	41.4	0.5	237	
92	CIUDAD REAL	38.6	3.6	628	
93	MURCIA **	37.6	1.1	44	
94	CORDOBA	37.5	4.5	91	
95	GRANADA	37.1	3.4	689	
96	MALAGA	36.4	4.3	34	
97	L'AGUILA ***	42.2	-13.2	735	
98	FOGGIA	41.3	-15.3	74	
99	POTENZA	40.4	-15.5	826	
100	KAWALA #	40.6	-24.3	27	
101	TRICALA	39.3	-21.5	149	
102	LARISA	39.4	-22.2	76	
103	TYNEMOUTH	55.0	1.3	33	
104	HOF	50.2	-11.5	567	
105	FREUDENSTADT	48.5		797	
106	GRENOBLE	45.1	-5.4	223	
107	GENEVA	46.1	-6.1	405	
108	DOMODOSSOLA ##	46.1	-8.2	300	
109	NURBURG ###	50.2		626	

ANNEX II. Weather stations with long term average data. Lat. = Latitude (degrees North),

Sunshine duration and relative humidity of Pic du Midi \* Relative humidity of Almeria \*\* \*\*\* Sunshine duration of Perugia Sunshine duration of Tarent # ## Temperature range and relative humidity of Lugano ### Sunshine duration of Kahler Asten

ANNEX III. Subdivision of soil parameters

texture:

- 1 = coarse
- 2 = medium
- 3 = medium fine
- 4 = fine
- 5 = very fine

drainage condition

- 1 = very poor
- 2 = poor
- 3 = temporary poor
- 4 = moderately well
- 5 = well
- 6 = excessive

#### salinity

1 = absent

2 = saline	(ec >	4 mm	ho/cm)
------------	-------	------	--------

## phase

- 11() = no phase
- 12(1) = gravelly
- 13 (2) = stony
- 14(3) =lithic
- 15(4) = concretionary
- 16 (5) = petrocalcic
- 17(6) = saline
- 18(7) = alkaline
- 22 (8) = lithic/stony
- 23 (9) = petrocalcic/gravelly
- 24 (10) = concretionary/stony
- 25 (11) = lithic/gravelly
- 26 (12) = petrocalcic/stony

27 (13) = petrocalcic/

## concretionary

28 (14) = stony/gravelly

## maximum rooting depth

1 = 10 cm 2 = 40 cm 3 = 60 cm 4 = 80 cm5 = 120 cm

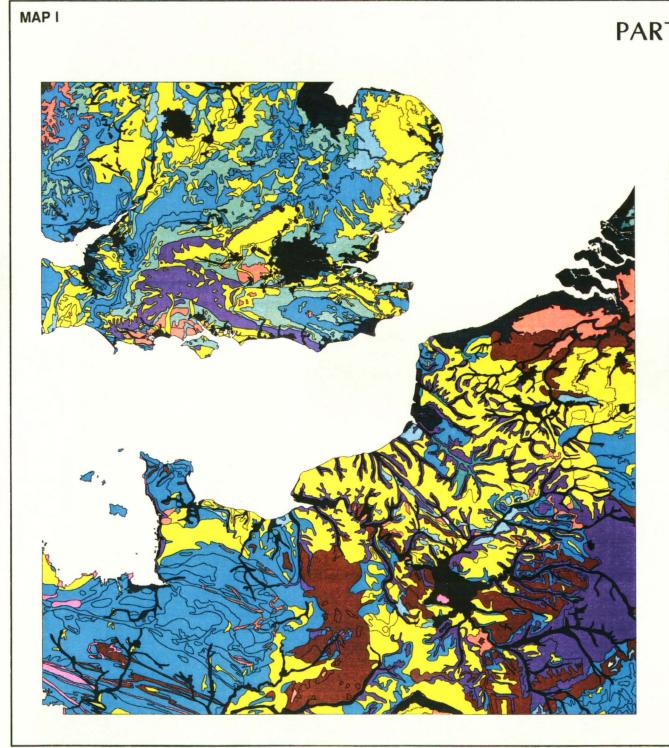
#### slope

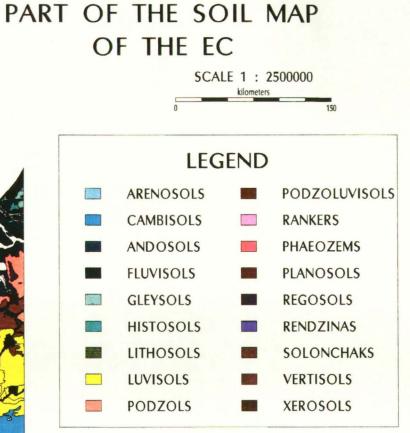
1 = 0-8 % 2 = 8-15 % 3 = 15-25 % 4 = >25 %

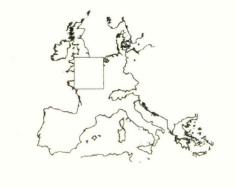
alkalinity

1 = absent

2 = present (sar > 15) •









CROP PRODUCTION POTENTIAL OF RURAL AREAS WITHIN THE EUROPEAN COMMUNITY

projectno : 8021 map composition : J.D.Bulens based on data provided amongst others by CORINE all rights reserved dats : february 1990

