

1 **Potential of wild annual legumes for mountain pasture restoration at two silvopastoral**
2 **sites in southern Spain: promising species and soil-improvement techniques**

3 M.E. Ramos-Font^{1*}, M.J. Tognetti-Barbieri¹, J.L. González-Rebollar¹, A.B. Robles-Cruz¹

4 ¹ Grupo de Pastos y Sistemas Silvopastorales Mediterráneos, Estación Experimental del Zaidín
5 (CSIC), C/ Profesor Albareda, 1, 18008, Granada, Spain.

6 * eugenia.ramos@eez.csic.es

7 Phone number: +34 958181600

8 ORCID number: 0000-0002-4888-0401

9 **Abstract**

10 This study evaluates the potential for pasture improvement and restoration at two silvopastoral
11 sites. We used a total of 16 wild legume species under different management systems
12 (rhizobial inoculation, mycorrhizal inoculation, sheep penning, and sheep penning with
13 mycorrhizal inoculation), at two mountain sites in Sierra Nevada Natural Park (Granada,
14 southern Spain). The first site, Soportújar, had higher soil fertility and rainfall than the second,
15 Lanjarón. Forage yields in Soportújar ranged from 265 to 8970 kg DM ha⁻¹, *Vicia amphicarpa*,
16 *Vicia monantha*, *Vicia disperma* and *Lathyrus clymenum* being the most productive species.
17 Mycorrhizal inoculation resulted in higher forage yields for *Lens nigricans*, *V. disperma* and
18 *Vicia lutea*. Seed yields were low, ranging from 5.9 to 1234 kg ha⁻¹. Forage yields in Lanjarón
19 were lower, ranging from 46 to 1415 kg DM ha⁻¹; and the most productive species were *V.*
20 *monantha*, *V. disperma*, *Lathyrus cicera* and *Medicago rigidula*. Sheep penning alone and
21 together with mycorrhizal treatment resulted in greater forage yields for most of the species
22 studied, although differences were only significant for *V. disperma*, *V. monantha* and *L.*
23 *sphaericus*. Seed yields ranged from 0.4 to 60 kg ha⁻¹. In conclusion, we recommend *V.*

24 *monantha*, *V. disperma* and *L. cicera* followed by *V. ampicarpa* and *L. clymenum* (in wetter
25 more fertile sites) and *M. rigidula* (in drier sites), as they seem to be the best adapted to the
26 pedoclimatic conditions of Sierra Nevada Natural Park. Increasing nutrients in the soil (by
27 sheep penning) and promoting nutrient assimilation (by mycorrhizal inoculation) may be
28 effective strategies for increasing pasture biomass in silvopastoral sites.

29 **Keywords:** Wild legumes; rhizobium; mycorrhizae; sheep penning; semiarid Mediterranean
30 silvopastoral systems

31

32 **Introduction**

33 In the Mediterranean basin, pine woodlands are the most fire-sensitive ecosystems (Pausas et
34 al. 2008). The creation of grazed fuel-breaks, which involves reducing tree density by thinning
35 to facilitate livestock grazing (Ruiz Mirazo and Robles 2012), could be an efficient way to
36 diminish these environmental risks as these practices help to efficiently control vegetation fuel
37 load (Ruiz Mirazo and Robles 2012). In addition, combining grazing with other techniques
38 such as pasture seeding may increase the efficiency of the livestock activity, as they allow
39 extension of the grazing period in such silvopastoral systems (Thavaud 2009).

40 Rangelands store about half of the global terrestrial carbon, making them key for global
41 climate change mitigation, and moreover, they contain over a third of the global biodiversity
42 hotspots; they are, however, one of the biomes most susceptible to land degradation and global
43 climate change (Board 2005). Legumes are key components of Mediterranean rangelands; even
44 at very dry sites and overgrazed areas, they are able to maintain their populations, especially
45 those with low or prostrate shoots with renewal buds close to or below ground (Porqueddu and
46 González 2006). Additionally, annual legumes are adapted to low rainfall conditions, as well as
47 low winter temperatures and a wide range of soil conditions (Ewing 1999). Annual self-
48 reseeded legumes have great potential for pasture improvement and restoration in semiarid
49 areas for several reasons: i) they are able to fix nitrogen and, consequently, to help meet the
50 nutritional needs of other plants (Graham and Vance 2003); ii) they have a long permanence in
51 the soil seed bank due to great hardseededness (Arianoutsou and Thanos 1996); and iii) they
52 provide good quality fodder, mainly linked to high protein content (Porqueddu and González
53 2006). Nevertheless, there has been little research into wild species and forage and seed yield
54 performance or their suitability for pasture improvement and restoration, especially in
55 silvopastoral sites (Porqueddu et al. 2013) and fuel-break areas (Thavaud 2009).

56 Despite the ready availability of cultivars of some annual legumes, many of them are not
57 suitable for silvopastoral sites, in most cases because they are of non-local provenance. In
58 particular, their utilization in improvement and pasture restoration plans, especially in Natural
59 Areas, should be restricted to autochthonous species and ecotypes (Conrad and Tischew 2011)
60 and thus, there is a need to select and test local ecotypes on the target sites (Ewing 1999). In
61 relation to this, a number of programmes have been developed to identify and improve such
62 material in Mediterranean climate areas (Abdelguerfi, et al. 1988; Porqueddu and González,
63 2006; Porqueddu et al. 2013).

64 Soil fertility is usually very low in mountain areas, especially in acidic soils, where nutrients
65 are scarce and often are not available due to a low pH (Graham and Vance 2003). In Spain, one
66 traditional low-cost practice to increase soil nutrient content and improve pasture quality in
67 many grasslands and silvopastoral systems (dehesas) consists of the confinement of livestock
68 in night pens (in Spanish, “*redileo*”). This practice consists of fencing livestock, mainly sheep,
69 for three consecutive nights. Usually, there is about 1.5-2 m² per sheep and assuming that two-
70 thirds of daily dejections occur at night, a total of 20-30 Tn of dung per hectare plus urine (rich
71 in potassium) are added to the soil over three nights (San Miguel 2001). These fences are
72 moved every three days to enclose an adjacent area.

73 Other strategies to increase nutrient availability are linked to cooperative microbial activities
74 occurring in the rhizosphere that can be exploited as a low-input biotechnology to help the
75 productivity of both agricultural and natural ecosystems (Barea et al. 2005), and these include
76 the activities of nitrogen-fixing bacteria and *mycorrhizae*. Firstly, symbiotic nodulating
77 bacteria, collectively termed rhizobia, in legume roots ensure nitrogen availability for the plant
78 due to their capability to reduce atmospheric nitrogen to ammonia in symbiotic root nodules
79 (Leigh 2002). Furthermore, when using local ecotypes, local endosymbionts are usually

80 present in the soil, but if necessary, seeds should be inoculated before sowing to ensure their
81 persistence (Villadas et al. 2016). Secondly, vesicular-arbuscular mycorrhizae (VAM) are
82 known to be very efficient in improving growth and nitrogen content in legumes, due to their
83 ability to improve phosphorus intake by plants, and increase the supply of other immobilized
84 nutrients or those present in low concentrations, such as ammonium, zinc and copper (Barea et
85 al. 1987; Barea et al. 2005).

86 In September 2005, an accidental fire burned 3,417 ha in Lanjarón, Sierra Nevada Natural and
87 National Park (southern Spain), destroying natural vegetation, mainly scrub, woody scrub and
88 repopulated pine woodland. A restoration plan was designed, and this included a specific
89 rehabilitation programme for pastures in a fuel-break area, which consisted of identification
90 and field harvesting of wild forage legumes, experimental sowings of target species, and
91 assessment of fertilization techniques for the most successful species. In this context, this study
92 sought to test the possibilities of pasture improvement at two silvopastoral sites (a fuel-break
93 area and an open pine plantation) in Sierra Nevada Natural Park (Granada, southern Spain),
94 through the evaluation of forage and seed yield of a total of 16 wild legumes species under
95 different soil conditions and using various techniques for improving nutrient availability
96 (rhizobial inoculation, mycorrhizal inoculation, sheep penning, and sheep penning with
97 mycorrhizal inoculation). The following questions were posed: 1) which species perform best
98 in terms of forage and seed yield? and 2) which fertilization techniques result in the highest
99 forage and seed yields?

100 **Materials and methods**

101 The trials were carried out at two silvopastoral sites in Sierra Nevada Natural Park: 1)
102 Soportújar (Vivero de la Sombra), an abandoned forestry nursery within a pine plantation

103 which had been used as a sheepfold in recent years, and 2) Lanjarón (Cortijo Quemado), a fuel-
 104 break area in a pine plantation (*Pinus pinaster*) (Fig. 1). Table 1 summarizes the main
 105 characteristics of each site at the beginning of the experiment, and Table 2 presents the
 106 monthly rainfall for each site during the experiments together with mean historical values.
 107 These two sites were selected at the request of the Natural Park managers, since this park
 108 covers a large area (86,432 ha) and soil fertility and humidity conditions are diverse. Notably,
 109 Lanjarón is a good representative of dry sites (facing S/SE) with low soil fertility, while
 110 Soportújar is a good representative of wetter sites with fertile soils (facing W/SW). It was
 111 hoped that conducting the experiments at these sites would provide specific information about
 112 the suitability of species at each type of site and this might be useful for managers, shepherds,
 113 farmers, and other stakeholders willing to collaborate with pasture management and restoration
 114 in the Natural Park.

115



116

117

Fig 1. Study sites: Soportújar (left) and Lanjarón (right).

118

Table 1. Characteristics of the study sites.

	Soportújar	Lanjarón
UTM coordinates	30 S 463814 4088725	30 S 455850 4088670
Altitude (m.a.s.l.)	1352	1320

Soil parameters

- Texture	Sandy loam	Sandy loam
- Cation exchange capacity (meq 100 g⁻¹)	14.78	11.13
- pH (1/2.5, v/v)	5.9	6.5
- Organic matter (%)	3.7	2.7
- Total N (%)	0.202	0.162
- P₂O₅ (p.p.m.)	34	N.D.
- K₂O (p.p.m.)	550	154

119

N.D.: non detectable.

120

121 **Table 2.** Monthly rainfall (mm) over two growing seasons (2013/14 and 2014/15) and mean
 122 historical values (MHV) at the study sites.

	Lanjarón			Soportújar		
	2013/14	2014/15	MHV	2013/14	2014/15	MHV
October	17.7	19.2	57.8	14.6	35.6	83.5
November	13.5	47.9	76.7	25.8	144.9	105.6
December	26.7	2.5	78.0	10.7	0.9	111.0
January	17.9	80.5	62.1	69.6	208.5	99.8
February	53.3	12.8	54.1	37.6	56.7	81.7
March	72.5	11.8	49.5	156.0	0.7	71.0
April	37.7	40.7	49.9	46.6	4.0	72.8
May	24.7	15.1	34.1	6.8	22.7	36.2
Total	264	231	412	368	474	662

123
 124 Seeds were collected in the field at different sites in Sierra Nevada Natural Park during late
 125 spring and early summer 2013. The experiments were carried out over two growing seasons:
 126 2013/14 and 2014/2015. In 2013/14, the aim was to determine which species performed best
 127 under rainfed conditions at both experimental sites. Most seeds were sown on both sites, the
 128 exceptions being when there were not enough seeds, in which case they only were sown on the
 129 site where they were expected to perform the best. In 2014/2015, various techniques were
 130 tested in order to increase the availability of nutrients for the plants. For this year, we generally
 131 used only the species within each genus that were best adapted, based on the previous results.
 132 Nevertheless, due to constraints on seed availability, some species that performed better than
 133 others were not sown in the second year. Table 3 lists the species sown at each site in October
 134 2013 and October 2014 and the corresponding seed density.

135 **Table 3.** List of species sown at each site in 2013 and in 2014, and seed density.

<i>Species</i>	Soportújar		Lanjarón		Seed density
	2013	2014	2013	2014	

					(g m ⁻²)
<i>Lathyrus cicera</i> L.	-	X	X	X	15
<i>Lathyrus clymenum</i> L.	X	X	X	-	12
<i>Lathyrus sphaericus</i> Retz.	X	-	X	X	10
<i>Lathyrus tingitanus</i> L.	X	-	X	-	15
<i>Lens nigricans</i> (M. Bieb.) Godr.	X	X	-	-	6
<i>Medicago</i> spp.*	X	-	X	-	3
<i>Medicago orbicularis</i> (L.) Bartal.	X	-	-	-	4
<i>Medicago polymorpha</i> L.	-	-	X	-	3
<i>Medicago rigidula</i> (L.) All.	-	-	X	X	4
<i>Medicago truncatula</i> Gaertn.	-	X	-	-	4
<i>Trifolium cherleri</i> L.	X	-	X	X	3
<i>Trifolium glomeratum</i> L.	X	-	-	-	1.5
<i>Vicia amphicarpa</i> L.	-	X	X	X	9
<i>Vicia disperma</i> DC	X	X	X	X	10
<i>Vicia lutea</i> L	X	X	X	-	12
<i>Vicia monantha</i> Retz.	X	X	X	X	9
<i>Vicia sativa</i> L.	-	-	X	-	12

136 **Medicago* spp. was composed mainly of *Medicago truncatula*, but also included *Medicago polymorpha*,
137 and *Medicago rigidula*.

138 **X indicates that the species was sown.

139

140 In 2013/14, for both sites, the experimental layout was a randomized block design with four
141 replicates per species. Each replicate consisted of a 2 x 1.5 m plot. Prior to the establishment of
142 the plots, the entire experimental area (at both sites) was ploughed to create a suitable seedbed.
143 After that, each plot was fertilized with a pelletized organic amendment composed of a mixture
144 of turf and sheep manure (81.7% organic matter, 2.6% total organic nitrogen, 2% of P₂O₅,
145 3.9% K₂O). Seeds were sown by hand in furrows at 25-cm spacing, and lightly covered with
146 soil.

147

148

149 In 2014/15, in Soportújar, a one-factor random block design was used with two treatments:
150 *mycorrhizae* inoculation (M) and control (C) (without inoculation). Mycorrhizae inoculation
151 consisted of applying mycorrhizae to soil, by watering with a solution containing a commercial
152 product called Glomigel® (Mycovitro S.L.), once seedlings were established in the plots.

153 In Lanjarón, the experimental layout was a randomized block design with four blocks and with
154 four treatments per block and species: rhizobium, sheep-penning (SP), and sheep-penning +
155 mycorrhizae (SPM), and control. The rhizobium treatment consisted of pelletization of the
156 seeds with native rhizobial species and symbiovars that were identified and isolated by
157 Villadas et al. (2016) in the same area for these legume species. Sheep penning was carried out
158 as follows: in summer 2014, 300 sheep were fenced into a 300 m² pen for 16 hours a day over
159 3 days. We estimated that around 15 Tn of fresh manure was deposited per ha. This
160 management resulted in an increase in soil fertility to: 19.89 meq 100 g⁻¹ cation exchange
161 capacity, 4.55% organic matter, 0.24% total N, 16.25 p.p.m. P₂O₅, and 880 p.p.m. K₂O (all
162 being higher than pre-penning values given in Table 1). Sheep-penning + mycorrhizae
163 consisted of applying mycorrhizae to soil, using the same procedure as in Soportújar, once
164 seedlings were established in plots that had previously been treated by sheep-penning. The
165 control consisted of uninoculated seeds or seedlings and untreated soil.

166 The experimental layout was different at each site due to the aforementioned differences in site
167 conditions. In particular, two of the treatments aiming to increase soil fertility (especially
168 nitrogen, phosphorus and potassium), namely, sheep penning and rhizobium, were not relevant
169 at Soportújar given the high soil fertility at this site.

170 Forage yield was estimated in mid-May by hand-clipping plant forage within four randomly
171 selected 25 x 25 cm quadrats in each plot. Samples were dried in a forced-air oven at 60°C to
172 constant weight (48 h) to determine dry weight. Averaged data were extrapolated to obtain
173 yields for 1 hectare. Seed yield was estimated by the same procedure as for forage yield, except
174 that samples were not oven dried. Seeds were manually extracted from each sample and
175 weighed. In Lanjarón, which has poor soil quality, there was very poor fructification (almost
176 none) following a spring (March and April) drought in 2014, and thus the corresponding data
177 are not shown. In contrast, in Soportújar, with better soil conditions and higher precipitation,
178 fruits developed and matured and, hence, it was possible to estimate seed yield.

179 Forage yield data from 2013/14 were analysed using the GLM procedure in IBM SPSS,
180 Statistics for Windows, version 23. Levene and Shapiro-Wilk tests were applied to check
181 homoscedasticity and normality, respectively, to ensure that assumptions of the model were
182 met. No data transformation was needed. One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) and least
183 significant difference (LSD) *post hoc* tests were performed, for each site, to assess differences
184 between species. Seed yield data from 2013/2014 (only for Soportújar) were analysed using the
185 non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis test, as the data did not meet the assumptions of
186 homoscedasticity and normality, and pairwise comparison *post hoc* tests.

187 For forage and seed yield data from 2014/15, the non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis test was used
188 both for Soportújar and Lanjarón to test for differences among species. In Soportújar, within-
189 species differences between treatments were assessed with Student's t-test (or the Mann-
190 Whitney U test when homoscedasticity and normality assumptions were not met), while in
191 Lanjarón differences between treatments were assessed by one-way ANOVA or with the
192 Kruskal-Wallis test.

193 **Results**

194 In spring 2014, a seed germination experiment was carried out for all the species tested on the
195 field trials to identify methods to reduce hardseededness, and thereby, promote germination
196 (see Ramos et al. 2016 for further details). Based on the results of that experiment, various
197 scarification treatments were applied to the seeds, for the 2014/15 sowings only, as indicated in
198 Table 4.

199 **Table 4.** Scarification treatments applied to the species and germination percentage before and
200 after treatment. None: no scarification treatment was used; Lixiviation: seeds soaked in running
201 tap water for 24 h; 80°C: seeds soaked in water at 80°C for 5 minutes; and 70°C: seeds soaked
202 in water at 70°C for 15 minutes.

Species	Scarification treatment	Germination (%)	
		Before	After
<i>Lathyrus cicera</i>	None	44.0	44.0
<i>Lathyrus clymenum</i>	80 °C	10.2	11.4
<i>Lathyrus sphaericus</i>	80 °C	4.7	8.0
<i>Lens nigricans</i>	80°C	4.7	21.0
<i>Medicago rigidula</i>	Lixiviation	31.0	37.0
<i>Medicago truncatula</i>	None	97.0	97.0
<i>Trifolium cherleri</i>	80 °C	12.0	21.0
<i>Vicia amphicarpa</i>	Lixiviation	14.0	18.0
<i>Vicia disperma</i>	80 °C	4.7	47.0
<i>Vicia lutea</i>	70 °C	11.0	35.0
<i>Vicia monantha</i>	80 °C	33.3	56.0

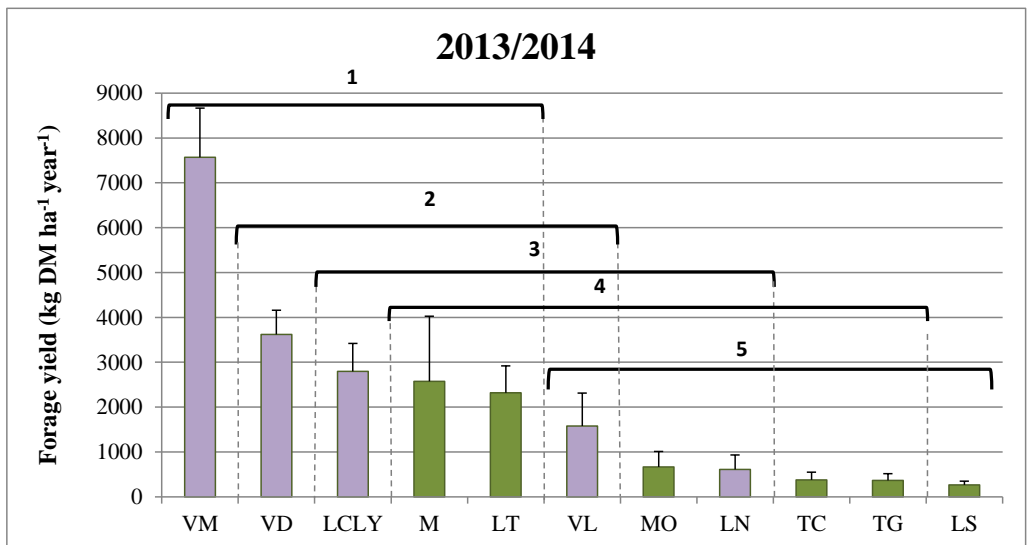
203

204 1. Soportújar

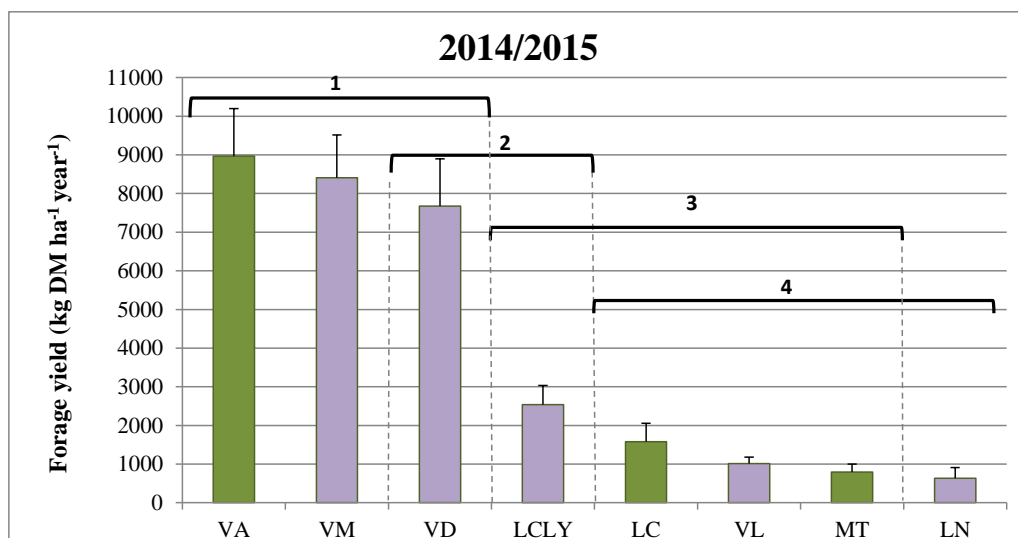
205 *1.1. Forage yield*

206 In Soportújar, for the first growing season, forage yields ranged between 265 and 7570 kg DM
 207 ha⁻¹), with significant differences among between species (H= 28.833; d.f.=10; p=0.001; (Fig.
 208 2). The highest forage yields were obtained for *V. monantha* (7570 kg DM ha⁻¹) and the lowest
 209 for *L. sphaericus*, *T. glomeratum* and *T. cherleri* (range: 265 to 375 kg DM ha⁻¹) (Fig. 2). For
 210 the second growing season, significant differences were again found among species (pooled
 211 across treatments) (H= 48.338, d.f.= 7, p< 0.0001), with *V. amphicarpa*, *V. monantha* and *V.*
 212 *disperma* producing the highest yields (range: 7674 to 8969 kg DM ha⁻¹), while *L. nigricans*,
 213 *M. truncatula* and *V. lutea* had the lowest yields (range: 633 to 1010 kg DM ha⁻¹) (Fig. 2).

214



215
 216



217
218

219 **Fig. 2** Forage yields (kg DM ha⁻¹ year⁻¹) in Soportújar for the growing seasons 2013/2014 and
 220 2014/2015 (pooled across treatments). VM: *Vicia monantha*, VD: *Vicia disperma*, LCLY:
 221 *Lathyrus clymenum*, M: *Medicago* spp., LT: *Lathyrus tingitanus*, VL: *Vicia lutea*, MO:
 222 *Medicago orbicularis*, LN: *Lens nigricans*, TC: *Trifolium cherleri*, TG: *Trifolium glomeratum*,
 223 LS: *Lathyrus sphaericus*, VA: *Vicia amphicarpa*, LC: *Lathyrus cicera*, MT: *Medicago*
 224 *truncatula*. Different numbers over the horizontal brackets indicate significant differences
 225 between species. Purple bars indicate species that were sown in both growing seasons

226 When comparing the different treatments (control and mycorrhizal) within each species, we
 227 found significant positive responses to mycorrhizae application for *L. nigricans*, *V. disperma*
 228 and *V. lutea*, while this treatment had a detrimental effect on *L. cicera* (Table 5).

229 **Table 5.** Forage yield (kg DM ha⁻¹ year⁻¹) in Soportújar for the growing season 2014/15 for
 230 eight species under two different treatments: control and mycorrhizae.

Species	Treatments		Student's t test	
	Control	Mycorrhizae	t	p-value
<i>Lathyrus cicera</i>	2345±803	814±121	0.000 ¹	0.021

<i>L. clymenum</i>	1818±237	3261±851	-1.633	0.154
<i>Lens nigricans</i>	57.7±25.06	1209±376	-3.054	0.022
<i>Medicago truncatula</i>	1000±261	588±326	0.989	0.361
<i>V. amphicarpa</i>	9022±810	8917±2533	0.040	0.970
<i>V. disperma</i>	5360±1346	9987±1276	-2.494	0.047
<i>V. lutea</i>	615±55.6	1406±179	-4.223	0.006
<i>V. monantha</i>	7209±2026	96010±819	-1.099	0.314

231 ¹ Superscript indicates Mann-Whitney U analysis. Significant differences are highlighted in

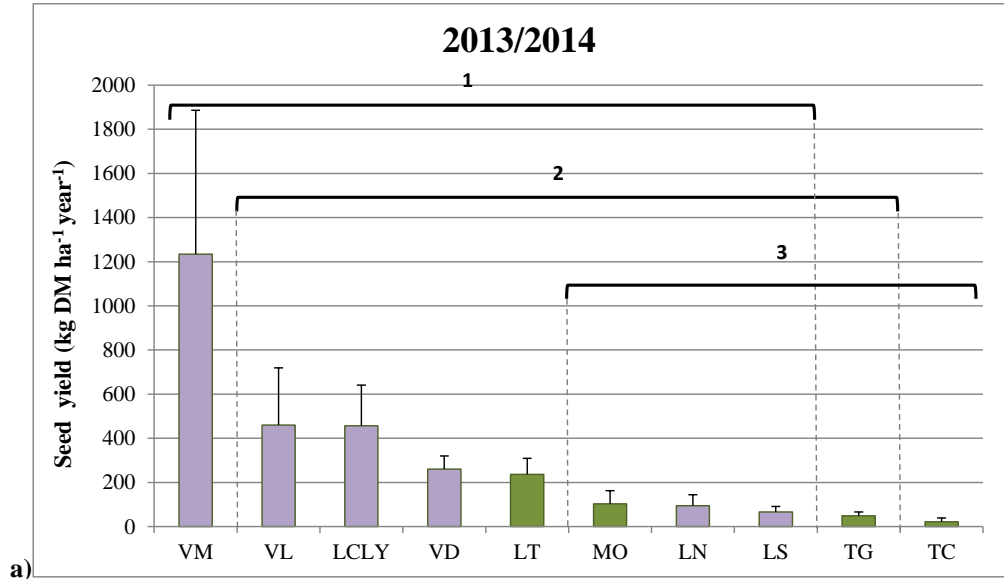
232 bold.

233 1.2. Seed yield

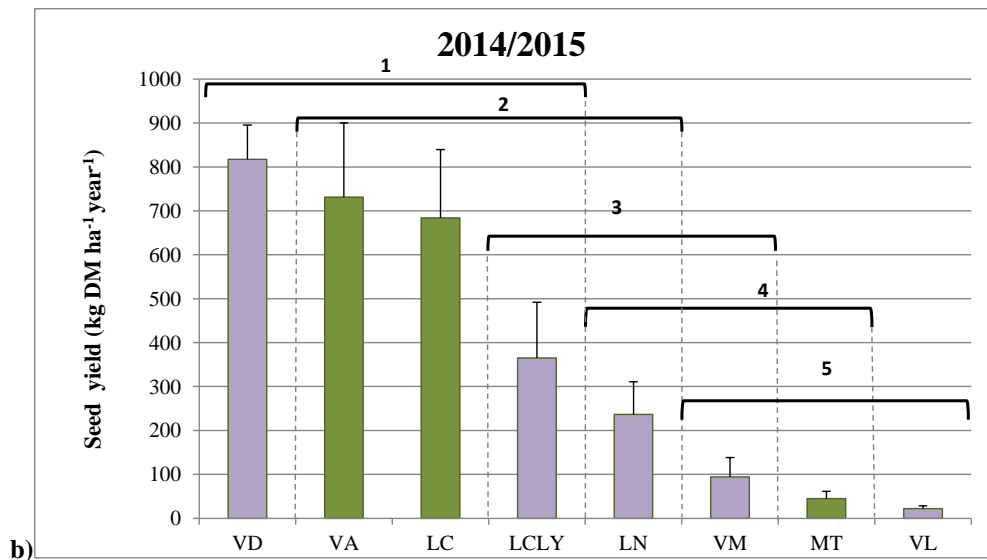
234 Seed yields were low for both growing seasons (Fig. 3). For 2013/14, seed yield was generally
 235 consistent with forage yield in Soportújar, the most productive species in terms of forage
 236 yielding the most seeds (*V. monantha*, 1234 kg ha⁻¹), while the least productive (*T. cherleri*, *T.*
 237 *glomeratum* and *L. sphaericus*) gave the poorest seed yields (range: 21.6 to 66.7 kg ha⁻¹)
 238 (H=17.008; d.f.= 9; p= 0.049; Fig. 3).

239 For 2014/15, significant differences were also found among species (H= 40.044, d.f.= 7, p<
 240 0.0001; Fig. 3). The highest seed yields were obtained for *V. disperma*, *V. amphicarpa*, and *L.*
 241 *cicera* (range: 684 to 817 kg ha⁻¹) and the lowest for *V. monantha*, *M. truncatula* and *V. lutea*
 242 (range: 5.9 to 94.5 kg ha⁻¹).

243



244



245

Fig. 3. Seed yield (kg ha⁻¹ year⁻¹) in Soportújar for the growing seasons 2013/2014 (a) and

246

2014/2015 (b) (pooled across treatments). VM: *Vicia monantha*, VL: *Vicia lutea*, LCLY:

247

Lathyrus clymenum, VD: *Vicia disperma*, LT: *Lathyrus tingitanus*, MO: *Medicago orbicularis*,

248

LN: *Lens nigricans*, LS: *Lathyrus sphaericus*, TG: *Trifolium glomeratum*, TC: *Trifolium*

249

cherleri, VA: *Vicia amphicarpa*, LC: *Lathyrus cicera*, MT: *Medicago truncatula*. Different

250 numbers over the horizontal brackets indicate significant differences between species. Purple
 251 bars indicate species that were sown in both growing seasons
 252 Comparisons between treatments in 2014/2015 showed that differences were only significant
 253 for *V. disperma*, yields being higher with mycorrhizae than the control treatment (Table 6).

254

255 **Table 6.** Seed yield (kg ha⁻¹ year⁻¹) in Soportújar for the growing season 2014/15 for eight
 256 species under two different treatments: control and mycorrhizae.

Species	Treatments		t	p-value
	Control	Mycorrhizae		
<i>Lathyrus cicera</i>	717±237	651±236	0.196	0.851
<i>L. clymenum</i>	420±237	309±130	0.411	0.695
<i>Lens nigricans</i>	255±116	218±110	0.228	0.827
<i>Medicago truncatula</i>	62.9±29	26.9±15.3	1.097	0.327
<i>Vicia amphicarpa</i>	873±204	589±279	0.822	0.443
<i>Vicia disperma</i>	657±93.4	978±48.2	-3.059	0.022
<i>Vicia lutea</i>	14.6±5.61	29.9±9.73	-1.358	0.223
<i>Vicia monantha</i>	40.4±19.5	149±80.8	-1.302	0.241

257

258 2. Lanjarón

259 *2.1 Forage yield*

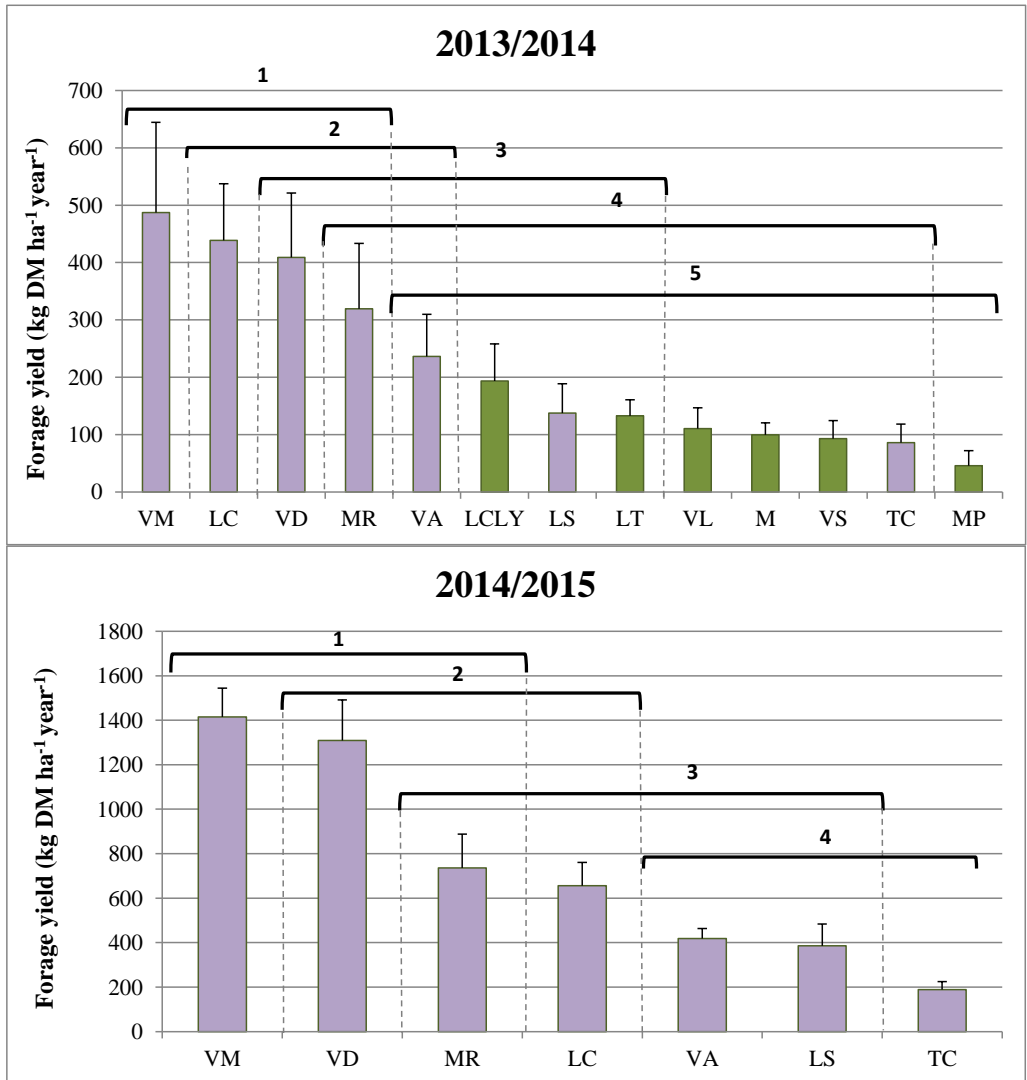
260 For 2013/14, forage yields in Lanjarón were very low (range: 45.9 to 487 kg DM ha⁻¹), with
 261 significant differences among species (F= 3.158, d.f.= 12, p= 0.004; LSD test, p<0.05). The
 262 most productive species were *V. monantha*, *L. cicera*, and *V. disperma* (more than 400 kg DM
 263 ha⁻¹), while the least productive was *M. polymorpha* (45.9 kg DM ha⁻¹) (Fig. 4).

264 For 2014/15, forage yields were notably higher (around three-fold higher for most of the
 265 species) than in the first growing season (range: 189 to 1415 kg DM ha⁻¹). The most productive

266 species were *V. monantha* and *V. disperma* (1415 and 1309 kg DM ha⁻¹), while the least
 267 productive was *T. cherleri* (189 kg DM ha⁻¹) (Fig. 4) (H= 61.621, d.f.= 6, p< 0.0001; p<0.05).

268

269



270

271

272 **Fig. 4.** Forage yield (kg DM ha⁻¹ year⁻¹) in Lanjarón for the growing season 2013/2014 and
 273 2014/2015 (pooled across treatments). VM: *Vicia monantha*, LC: *Lathyrus cicera*, VD: *Vicia*

274 *disperma*, MR: *Medicago rigidula*, VA: *Vicia amphicarpa*, LCLY: *Lathyrus clymenum*, LS:
 275 *Lathyrus sphaericus*, LT: *Lathyrus tingitanus*, VL: *Vicia lutea*, M: *Medicago* spp., VS: *Vicia*
 276 *sativa*, TC: *Trifolium cherleri*, MP: *Medicago polymorpha*. Different numbers over the
 277 horizontal brackets indicate significant differences between species. Purple bars indicate
 278 species that were sown in both growing seasons

279 Comparing treatments (growing season 2014/15), most of the species had higher yields with
 280 SP or SPM than under the control conditions, although differences were only significant for *V.*
 281 *disperma*, *V. monantha* and *L. sphaericus* (Table 7). For *V. disperma* and *V. monantha*, both
 282 SP and SPM were associated with the highest values for forage yield, while for *L. sphaericus*
 283 SPM seemed to boost forage yield. Although the yields for the other species did not differ
 284 significantly between treatments, high values under SP and SPM were found for *M. rigidula*
 285 and *L. cicera*, the latter also showing better performance under rhizobium (Table 7).

286 **Table 7.** Forage yield (kg DM ha⁻¹ year⁻¹) in Lanjarón for the growing season 2014/15 for
 287 seven species under four different treatments. SP: Sheep penning SPM: sheep
 288 penning+mycorrhizae.

	Treatments				ANOVA		
	Control	Rhizobium	SP	SPM	F	d.f	p
<i>Lathyrus cicera</i>	471±59	619±161.03	929±360	604±155	1.346 ¹	3	0.718
<i>Lathyrus sphaericus</i>	19.3±10.7 ^B	297±103 ^B	373±152 ^B	855±193 ^A	6.792	3	0.006
<i>Medicago rigidula</i>	478±166	437±125	928±305	1101±468	1.222	3	0.344
<i>Trifolium cherleri</i>	266±100	155±70.1	233±50.5	103±46.2	3.728 ¹	3	0.292
<i>Vicia amphicarpa</i>	339±99.7	392±122	509±77.6	436±66.31	0.589	3	0.634
<i>Vicia disperma</i>	679±105 ^B	1062±237 ^{AB}	2047±500 ^A	1448±85.5 ^A	8.272 ¹	3	0.041
<i>Vicia monantha</i>	1039±223 ^B	1135±79.6 ^B	1914±289 ^A	1574±174 ^{AB}	3.872	3	0.038

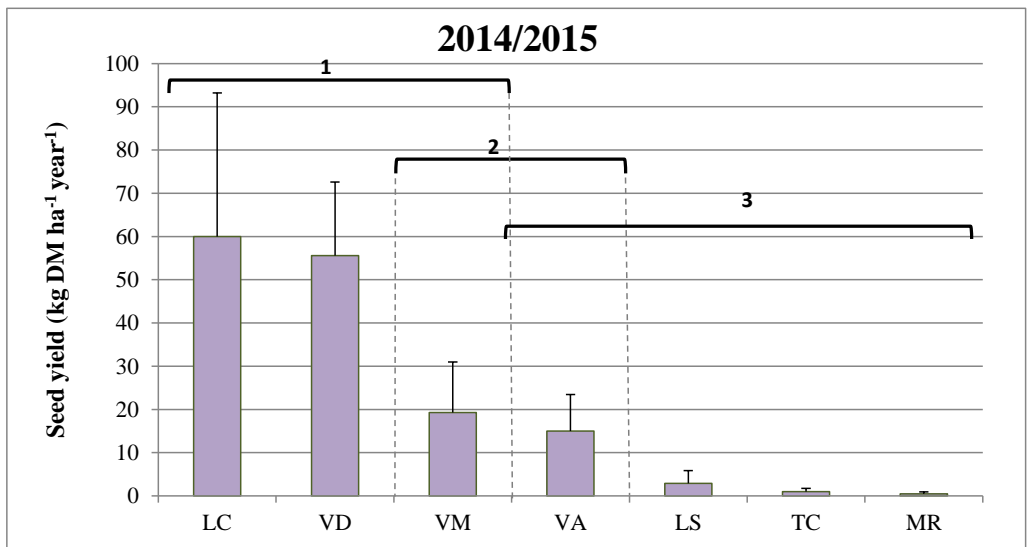
289 Note: ¹Superscript indicates Kruskal-Wallis analysis.

290

291 3.2.1 Seed yield

292 In Lanjarón, plants rarely fructified in 2013/14, and therefore, seed yield could not be
 293 quantified (see Materials and Methods). For 2014/15, seed yields were quantifiable but still
 294 very low, and there were significant differences between species ($H= 19.077$, $d.f.= 6$, $p= 0.004$;
 295 Fig. 5). The highest yields were obtained for *L. cicera* (60 kg ha^{-1}) and *V. disperma* (56 kg ha^{-1})
 296 and the lowest (less than 3 kg ha^{-1}) for *L. sphaericus*, *T. cherleri* and *M. rigidula*. Overall, seed
 297 yield results were consistent with forage yield.

298



299

300 **Fig. 5.** Seed yields ($\text{kg ha}^{-1} \text{ year}^{-1}$) in Lanjarón for the growing season 2014/15 for seven
 301 species (pooled across treatments). LC: *Lathyrus cicera*, VD: *Vicia disperma*, VM: *Vicia*
 302 *monantha*, VA: *Vicia amphicarpa*, LS: *Lathyrus sphaericus*, TC: *Trifolium cherleri*, MR:
 303 *Medicago rigidula*. Different numbers over the horizontal brackets indicate significant
 304 differences between species.

305 No differences between the treatments reached significance for any of the species (Table 8).

306 For some species (*L. sphaericus*, *M. rigidula* and *T. cherleri*), however, seed yield was null for

307 all (or almost all) the plots under control and rhizobium treatments, while SP or SPM were
 308 associated with a documentable seed yield.

309 **Table 8.** Seed yields (kg ha⁻¹ year⁻¹) in Lanjarón for the growing season 2014/15 for seven
 310 species and four different treatments. SP: Sheep penning SPM: sheep penning+mycorrhizae.

	Treatments				Kruskal Wallis		
	Control	SP	SPM	Rhizobium	H	d.f	p
<i>Lathyrus cicera</i>	19.6±11.35	33.5±20	166±127	21.0±21.0	1.125	3	0.771
<i>Lathyrus sphaericus</i>	0	0	11.7±11.7	0	3.000	3	0.392
<i>Medicago rigidula</i>	0	1.84±1.84	0	0	3.000	3	0.392
<i>Trifolium cherleri</i>	0	1.04±1.04	2.89±2.89	0	2.150	3	0.542
<i>Vicia amphicarpa</i>	3.16±3.16	32.7±32.7	10.8±10.8	13.4±7.75	0.685	3	0.877
<i>Vicia disperma</i>	19.2±13.6	73.8±42.8	73.8±45	55.5±32.9	0.780	3	0.854
<i>Vicia monantha</i>	8.55±8.55	17.4±17.4	44.9±44.9	6.25±6.25	0.095	3	0.992

311

312 Discussion

313 Our results have shown that forage and seed yield are low overall at these silvopastoral sites,
 314 especially in Lanjarón, probably attributable to low rainfall (especially in the spring) and/or to
 315 high hardseededness for most of the species (Table 4). Additionally, the proliferation of
 316 unsown species could have negatively affected the production due to competition with the
 317 sown species (Bàrberi 2002).

318 Among the 16 species tested, the most promising for pasture improvement and restoration
 319 within the two silvopastoral sites, in that they provided the highest forage and seed yields, were
 320 *V. monantha*, *V. disperma* and *L. cicera* at both sites, together with *V. amphicarpa* and *L.*
 321 *clymenum* at Soportújar, and *M. rigidula* at Lanjarón. Previous research of Robles et al. (2015)
 322 in Sierra Nevada Natural Park showed the high nutritional value of *V. amphicarpa*, *V.*
 323 *disperma*, and *L. clymenum* with high protein content and high organic matter digestibility,

324 although they obtained low yields (412 to 200 kg DM ha⁻¹). *L. cicera* has also been
325 traditionally cropped in Mediterranean areas, and it has a high nutritional value, although it
326 also contains toxic compounds, especially in the seed (White et al. 2002), and hence, grazing
327 management is important to avoid poisoning.

328 The different pedoclimatic characteristics (Tables 1 and 2) of the study sites seemed to affect
329 the production of the wild legumes. The higher forage and seed yields in Soportújar probably
330 being attributable to higher rainfall and higher soil fertility (the experimental area having been
331 used as a sheepfold for years, Table 1). Indeed, rainfall and certain soil parameters have been
332 shown to be the most important factors in determining forage and seed yields in legumes
333 (Leport et al. 1998; Siddique et al. 1999). Regarding the growing seasons, we must consider
334 two different factors affecting forage and seed yield: i) rainfall, not only the amount but also
335 the distribution (Vázquez de Aldana & García-Criado 2008), and ii) scarification, seeds used in
336 the second growing season having previously been scarified (Table 4). In Soportújar, the
337 second growing season had an extremely dry spring (March and April) which resulted in lower
338 yields for almost all the species (comparing results under the control treatment in the first and
339 second growing seasons; see Fig. 2 and Table 4). In Lanjarón, the second growing season also
340 had a drier spring than the previous year, although it was wetter than in Soportújar, but in this
341 case, scarification was probably responsible for better crop performance, and in turn somewhat
342 higher yields.

343 Compared to grain legumes in other Mediterranean areas (Leport et al. 1998; Siddique et al.
344 1999), seed yields were very low (most of the species producing less than 500 kg ha⁻¹). A heat
345 wave in mid-May (more severe during the first growing season) could have dramatically
346 reduced fruit-setting in most of the species. Siddique et al. (1999) indicates that seed yield is
347 positively correlated with dry matter production. In our study, this is true for most of the

348 species but not all. For example, *L. cicera* had high seed yields at both sites in spite of having
349 moderate or low forage yields. This could be related to the small size of the plant together with
350 high seed weight (6.2 g 100 seeds⁻¹). On the contrary, *V. monantha* (Soportújar) and *M.*
351 *rigidula* (Lanjarón) had lower seed yields than expected; the former was severely attacked by
352 aphids, while the latter seemed to be more sensitive to the heat wave and had a low rate of fruit
353 setting. Indeed, water stress has been identified, together with defoliation, as a key factor
354 underlying low seed production (Ewing 1999).

355 In our experiments, we found that forage yield for most of the species showed a positive
356 response to organic fertilization, i.e., SP and SPM; but seed yield was not responsive to these
357 treatments. Fertilization has been successfully applied in Mediterranean silvopastoral systems
358 and positive responses have been found when fertilizing soils with less than 10 mg kg⁻¹ of
359 extractable phosphorus (as determined by Olsen's method) (Osman et al. 1991), and
360 extractable phosphorus levels are in this low range at Lanjarón. Research in Syria (Ewing
361 1999) showed that after applying phosphate fertilizer to degraded grasslands, biomass, legume
362 seed pool and soil organic matter content were dramatically higher even 5 years after
363 treatment. Similarly, positive effects of organic fertilizer (mature sheep manure) were observed
364 by Robles et al. (2015) at the same Lanjarón site with wild legume species.

365 Mycorrhizal inoculation increased growth in some of the species (Soportújar: *L. nigricans*, *V.*
366 *disperma*, *V. lutea*, and Lanjarón: *L. sphaericus*), probably by increasing the availability of
367 phosphorus, but also by increasing the efficiency of the legume-*Rhizobium* symbiosis (Saia et
368 al. 2014). In fact, many forage legumes have been shown to increase their growth as a response
369 to mycorrhizal infection (see examples in Graham and Vance 2003 and Saia et al. 2014);
370 however, different legume species have different degrees of dependence on mycorrhizae to
371 grow. Regarding seed yield, only *V. disperma* in Soportújar responded to mycorrhizal

372 inoculation. On the other hand, there was no significant effect associated with rhizobium
373 inoculation for any of the species studied, probably because this type of bacteria are already
374 present in the soil, and hence inoculation had no additional benefit (Villadas et al. 2016).
375 Nevertheless, this technique could be of great interest for restoration after a fire event, as
376 bacterial communities are negatively affected by fire as demonstrated by Cobo-Díaz et al.
377 (2015), and consequently, rhizobium inoculation might be beneficial.

378 **Conclusions**

379 We found that pastures within fuel-break areas and open pine plantations in these semiarid
380 Mediterranean conditions can be improved. Although low yields may be obtained in dry years,
381 especially when soil fertility is low.

382 On the basis of our data, for these silvopastoral systems, we recommend *V. monantha*, *V.*
383 *disperma* and *L. cicera* followed by *V. amphicarpa* and *L. clymenum* (at wetter more fertile
384 sites) and *M. rigidula* (at drier sites), as they seem to be the best adapted to the pedoclimatic
385 conditions of Sierra Nevada Natural Park. Increasing nutrients in the soil (through sheep
386 penning) and, possibly, for some species, promoting nutrient assimilation (by mycorrhizal
387 inoculation) may be effective strategies for increasing pasture biomass. Seed yield also seemed
388 to be strongly affected by spring drought, and hence, when aiming to obtain seeds of these wild
389 legumes for restoration programmes, deficit irrigation might be considered.

390 Further research is required to increase seed germination and, consequently, seedling
391 establishment. Additionally, the improvement and development of specific cultivars and of
392 appropriate mixtures of species for combined use in order to increase chances of plant
393 establishment and restoration success is of great interest for these Mediterranean silvopastoral
394 systems.

395 **Acknowledgements**

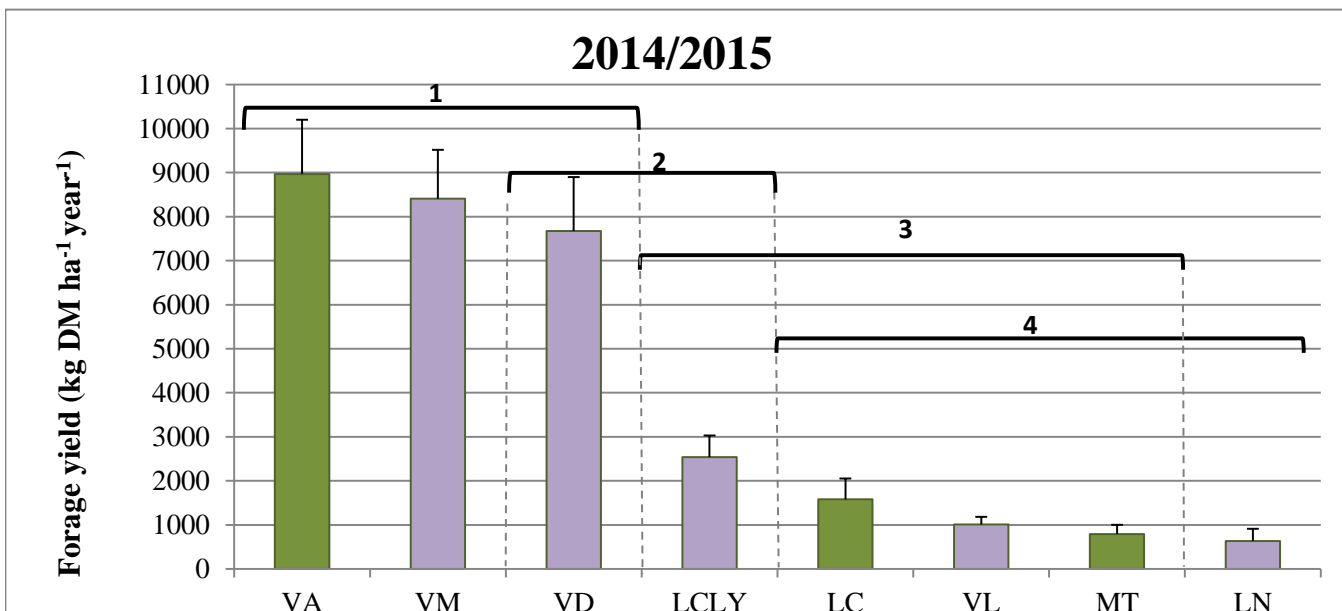
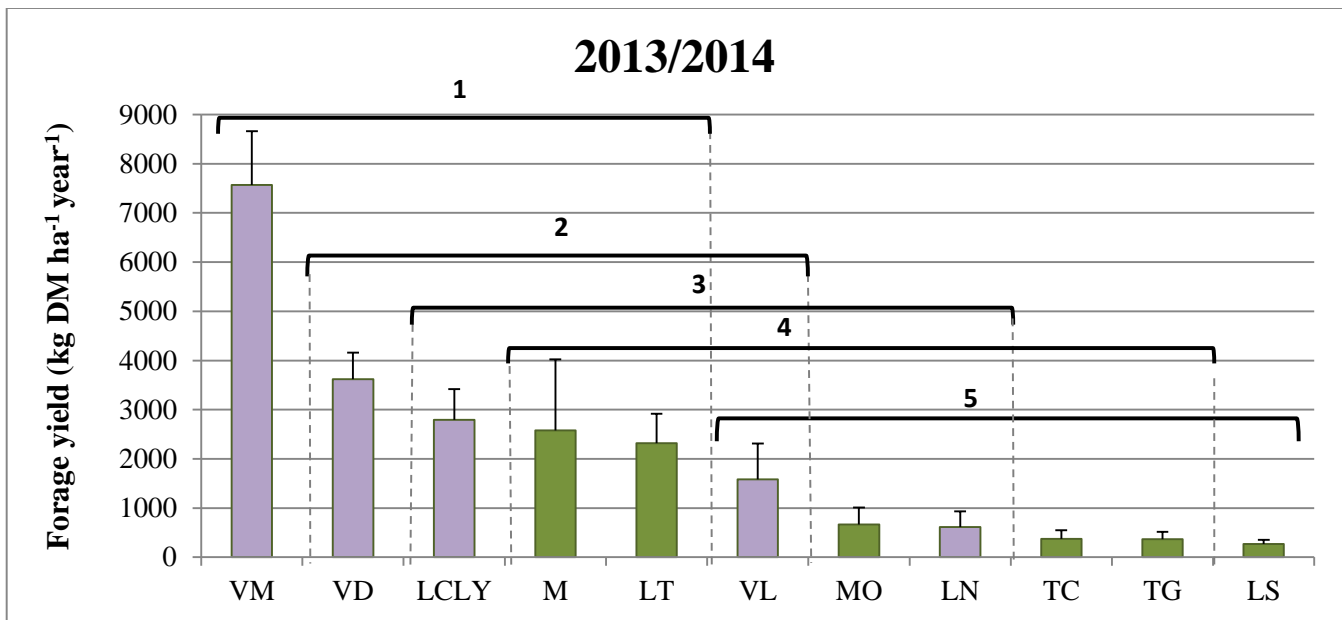
396 This work has been funded by the National Parks Autonomous Agency (OAPN, Spanish
397 Ministry of Agriculture, Food and Environment) through the project “*Investigaciones sobre la*
398 *flora forrajera natural en mejoras de pastos, restauración forestal y silvicultura preventiva*
399 *con ganado: una experiencia piloto en Sierra Nevada*” (Ref. 748). We would like to thank
400 Baltasar del Pozo for managing the sheep penning, Mycovitro who donated the Glomigel, and
401 Manuel Fernández-López and Pablo Villadas who provided the rhizobium inocula for this
402 study.

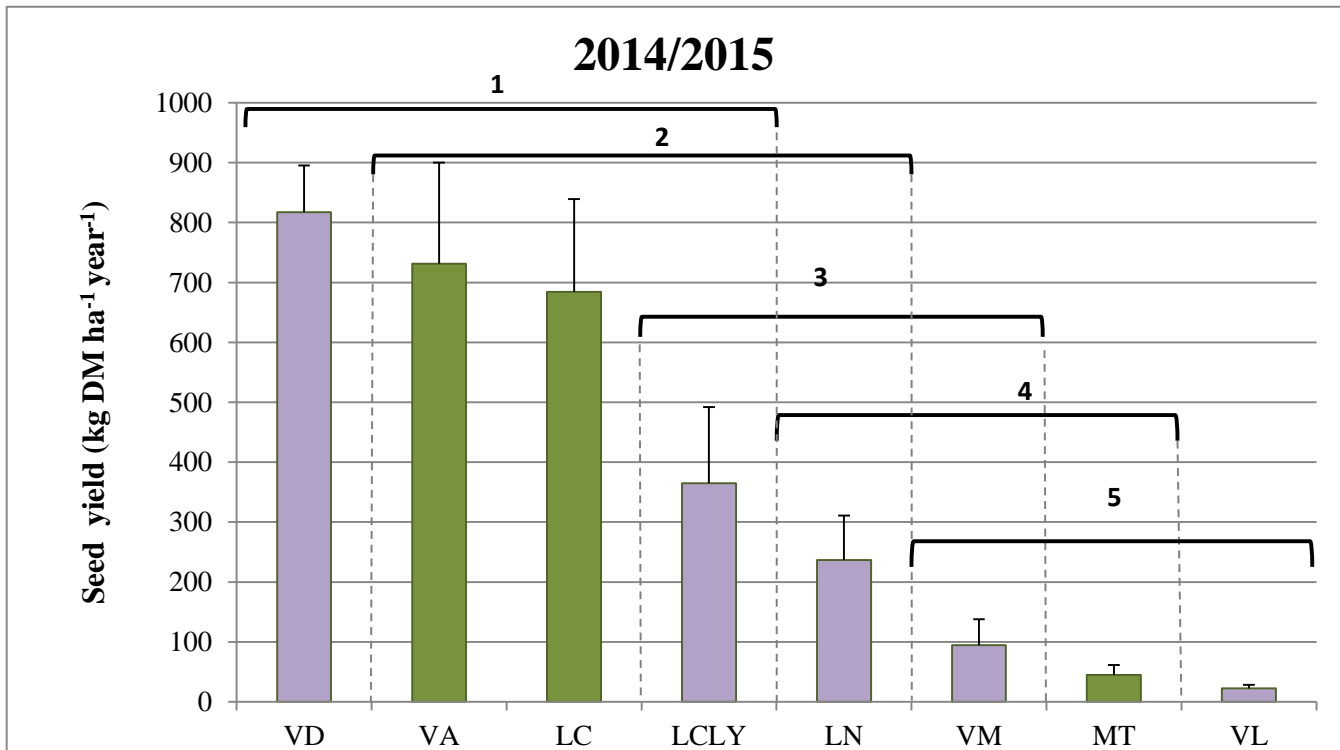
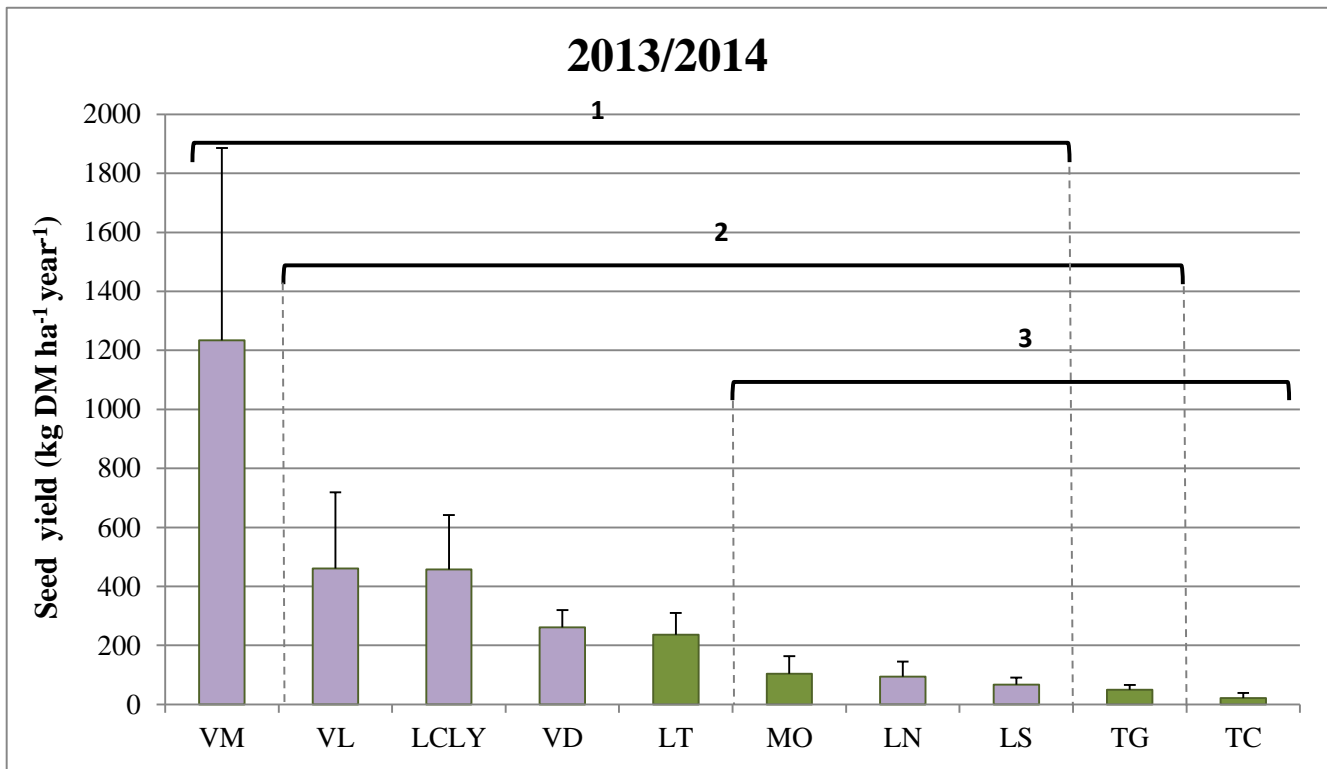
403 **References**

- 404 Abdelguer AJ, Chapot Y, Conesa AP (1988) Contribution a l'étude de la répartition des
405 espèces spontanées de luzerne annuelles en Algérie, en relation avec certains facteurs du
406 milieu. *Fourrages* 113: 89-106
- 407 Arianoutsou M, Thanos CA (1996) Legumes in the fire-prone Mediterranean regions: an
408 example from Greece. *Int J Wildland Fire* 6(2): 77-82
- 409 Bàrberi P (2002). Weed management in organic agriculture: are we addressing the right issues?
410 *Weed Res* 42 (3), 177- 193
- 411 Barea JM, Azcón-Aguilar C, Azcón R (1987) Vesicular-arbuscular mycorrhiza improve both
412 symbiotic N₂ fixation and N uptake from soil as assessed with a 15N technique under field
413 conditions. *New Phytol* 106: 717–725
- 414 Barea JM, Pozo MJ, Azcon R, Azcon-Aguilar C (2005) Microbial co-operation in the
415 rhizosphere. *J Exp Bot* 56: 1761–1778
- 416 Board, M. A. (2005). *Millennium ecosystem assessment*. Washington, DC: New Island
- 417 Cobo-Díaz JF, Fernández-González AJ, Villadas PJ, Robles AB, Toro N, Fernández-López M
418 (2015) Metagenomic assessment of the potential microbial nitrogen pathways in the
419 rhizosphere of a Mediterranean forest after a wildfire. *Microb Ecol* 69 (4): 895–904
- 420 Conrad MK, Tischew S (2011) Grassland restoration in practice: Do we achieve the targets? A
421 case study from Saxony-Anhalt/Germany. *Ecol Eng* 37: 1149–1157.
422 doi:10.1016/j.ecoleng.2011.02.010
- 423 Ewing MA (1999) Annual pasture legumes: A vital component stabilizing and rehabilitating
424 low-rainfall Mediterranean ecosystems. *Arid Soil Res Rehabil* 13: 327–342
- 425 Graham PH, Vance CP (2003) Legumes: importance and constraints to greater use. *Plant*
426 *Physiol* 131(3): 872-877
- 427 Leigh GJ (2002) *Nitrogen fixation at the millennium*. Elsevier Science, London

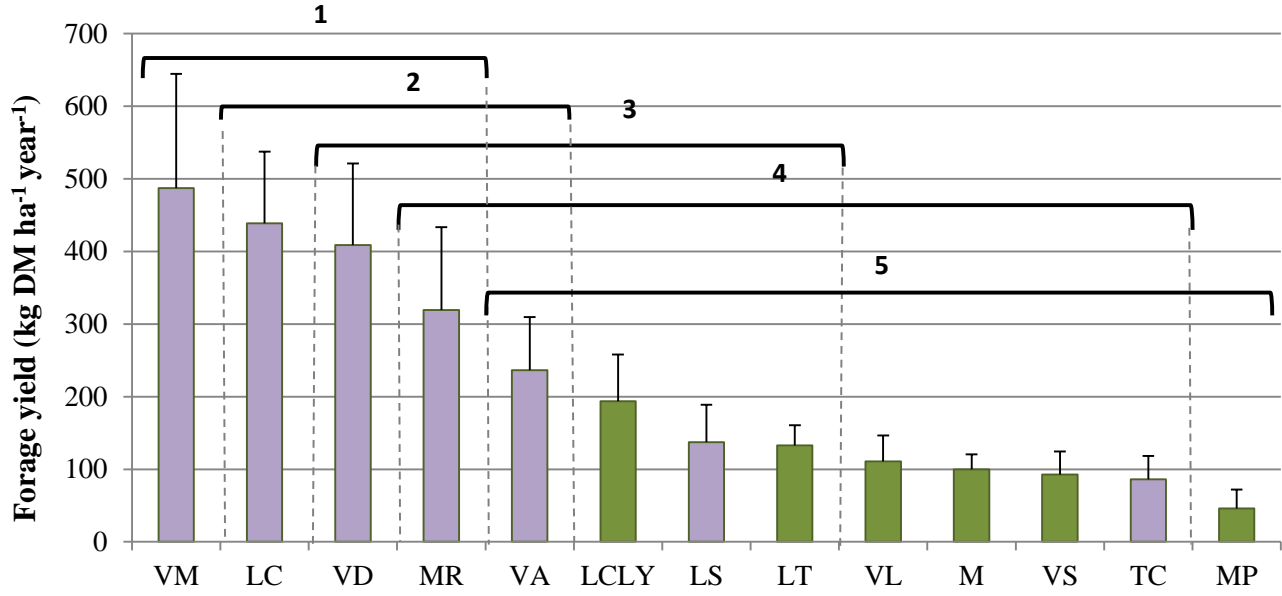
- 428 Leport L, Turner NC, French RJ, Tennant D, Thomson BD, Siddique KHM (1998) Water
429 relations, gas exchange and growth of cool-season grain legumes in a Mediterranean-type
430 environment. *Eur J Agron* 9(4): 295-303
- 431 Osman AE, Cocks PS, Russi L, Pagnotta MA (1991) Response of Mediterranean grassland to
432 phosphate and stocking rates: biomass production and botanical composition. *J Agric Sci*
433 116: 37–46
- 434 Pausas JG, Llovet J, Rodrigo A, Vallejo R (2008) Are wildfires a disaster in the Mediterranean
435 basin?—A review. *Int J Wildland Fire*, 17(6): 713-723
- 436 Porqueddu C, González F (2006) Role and potential of annual pasture legumes in
437 Mediterranean farming systems. *Pastos* 36 (2): 125-142
- 438 Porqueddu C., Re GA, Sanna F, Piluzza G, Sulas L, Franca A, Bullitta S (2013) Exploitation of
439 annual and perennial herbaceous species for the rehabilitation of a sand quarry in a
440 Mediterranean environment. *Land Degrad. Dev.* doi: 10.1002/ldr.2235
- 441 Ramos ME, Robles AB, Tognetti, MJ, González-Rebollar JL (2016) Métodos para la
442 reducción de la dureza seminal en leguminosas silvestres del espacio natural Sierra Nevada.
443 In: Báez MD et al. (eds) *Innovación Sostenible: Hacia una agricultura de respuesta al*
444 *cambio climático*. SEEP, Lugo (Spain), pp 22-26
- 445 Robles AB, Ramos ME, Cabeza FM, Delgado F and González Rebollar JL (2015)
446 Leguminosas herbáceas en la restauración forestal de zonas incendiadas del macizo Sierra
447 Nevada: producción y calidad. In: Cifre Lompart J. et al. (eds) *Pastos y forrajes en el siglo*
448 *XXI*. SEEP, Mallorca (Spain), pp 129-136
- 449 Ruiz-Mirazo J., Robles A.B.(2012) Impact of targeted sheep grazing on herbage and holm oak
450 saplings in a silvopastoral wildfire prevention system in south-eastern Spain. *Agroforest*
451 *Syst* 86:477-491
- 452 Saia S, Amato G, Frenda AS, Giambalvo D, Ruisi P (2014) Influence of arbuscular
453 mycorrhizae on biomass production and nitrogen fixation of berseem. *PlosOne* 9(3), e9073
- 454 San Miguel A (2001) *Pastos naturales españoles. Caracterización, aprovechamiento y*
455 *posibilidades de mejora*. Coedición Fundación Conde del Valle de Salazar- Mundi-Prensa,
456 Madrid
- 457 Siddique KHM, Loss SP, Regan KL, Jettner RL (1999) Adaptation and seed yield of cool
458 season grain legumes in Mediterranean environments of south-western Australia. *Aust J*
459 *Agric Res* 50(3): 375-388
- 460 Thavaud P. 2009. *Guide pratique pour l'entretien des coupures de combustible par le*
461 *pastoralisme*. Lauden, France: La Cardère-l'Éphémère,
- 462 Vázquez-de-Aldana BR, García-Criado B (2008) Interannual variations of above-ground
463 biomass and nutritional quality of Mediterranean grasslands in Western Spain over a 20-
464 year period. *Aus J Agr Res* 59(8): 769-779
- 465 Villadas PJ, Lasa AV, Martínez Hidalgo P, Flores-Félix JD, Martínez-Molina E, Toro N,
466 Velázquez E, Fernández-López M(2016). Analysis of rhizobial endosymbionts of *Vicia*,
467 *Lathyrus* and *Trifolium* species used to maintain mountain firewalls in Sierra Nevada
468 National Park (South Spain). *Syst Appl Microbiol* 40: 92-101

469 White CL, Handbury CD, Young P, Philips N, Wiese SC, Milton JB, Davidson RH, Siddique
470 KHM, Harris D (2002) The nutritional value of *Lathyrus cicera* and *Lupinus angustifolius*
471 grain for sheep. Anim Feed Sci Technol 99: 45–64
472

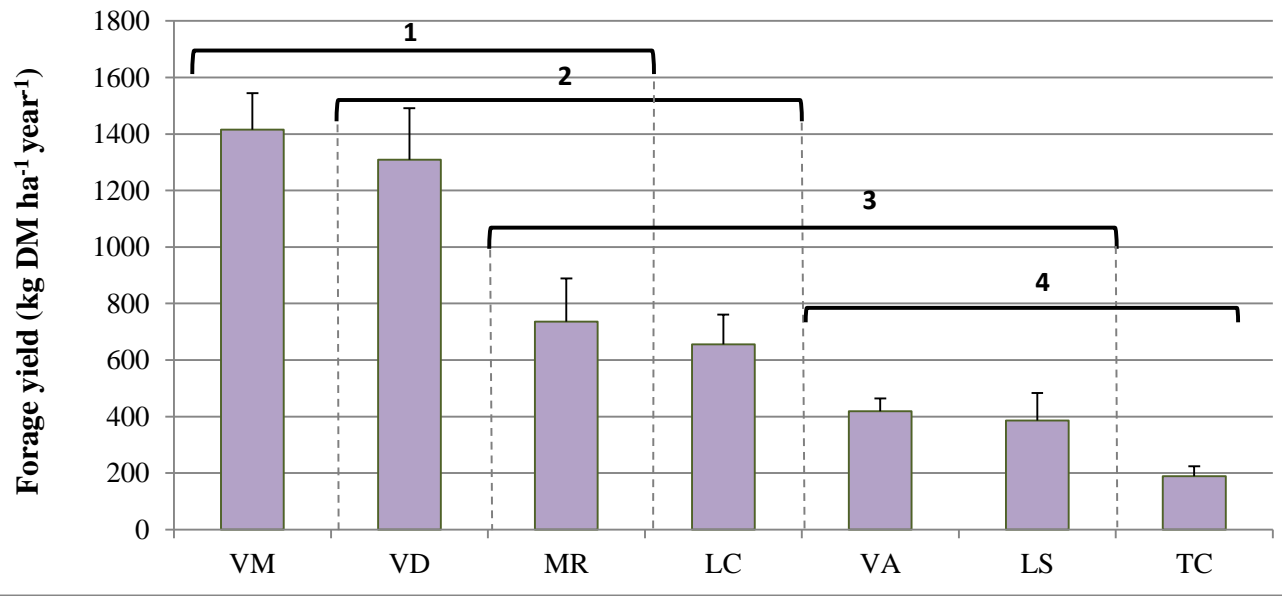




2013/2014



2014/2015



2014/2015

