

Working Paper

A Review of the Global Soil Status Research

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“Soils are fundamental to life on Earth but human pressures on soil resources are reaching critical limits. Careful soil management is one essential element of sustainable agriculture and also provides a valuable lever for climate regulation and a pathway for safeguarding ecosystem services and biodiversity.”
(FAO 2015b, p. 4)

Abstract

During the last decades, the total area of arable land decreased worldwide, mainly due to unsuitable land usage related to agricultural practices. The Third Agricultural Revolution and growing food demands have put critical stress on agricultural land resulting in serious soil degradation. As a result of modern agricultural practices, both chemical and physical degradation of soil can occur. An interrelated factor contributing to the loss of arable land is erosion, which is a naturally occurring process, but can be accelerated by human activities. This paper reviews research conducted on the soil situation in the six continents (Asia, Africa, North America, South America, Europe and Australia) and provides, therefore, a global overview. Geographically specific causes for soil loss are also given. Soil management and monitoring systems are recommended, however, it should be noted that each system needs to be adapted to its specific environment.

Keywords: soil, global soil status, soil degradation, erosion

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1 Introduction

2

3 During the last few decades, technological innovations, economic development and hyper-
4 globalisation, have made significant changes to the fundamental structure of the Earth. This
5 includes the soil, which is one of the most important substances for living creatures. Due to
6 over-production in agriculture, unsustainable intensification practices, and the unsuitable use of
7 the landscape, the agricultural land¹ has been decreasing. According to data from The World
8 Bank (2014), the agricultural land in 1991 took up 39.47 % of global area, while this slightly
9 number dropped to 37.49 % in 2014. This situation may result from various reasons, such as
10 urbanisation and land erosion. Although the change is slight, considering the growing
11 population, increasing food demand, and the changing climate dynamics, the current industrial
12 agriculture model will accelerate the process. The Intergovernmental Science-policy Platform
13 on Biodiversity and Ecosystem Services (IPBES 2018) stresses this point in the report on land
14 degradation and restoration, which was widely picked up by the media. The report assesses
15 the situation of land degradation worldwide in detail and also discusses different restoration
16 measures.

17 Soil is a combination of minerals, organic matter, water and air. Once soil is formed, plants
18 and microorganisms absorb nutrients from it and make them available for humans and
19 animals. According to Tarbuck, Lutgens & Tasa (2008), in good quality surface soil, about one
20 half of the total volume is a mixture of disintegrated and decomposed rock and humus. They
21 also pointed out, that the remaining half consists of pore spaces that enable the circulation of
22 water and air. The water inside soils refers to a complex solution, which contains soluble
23 organic matter and metal ions. The air space supplies the oxygen and carbon dioxide to most
24 of the microorganisms and plants (Tarbuck, Lutgens & Tasa 2008). Humus can enhance the
25 ability of soil to retain water.

26 The pressures on soil resources are rapidly increasing up to a critical point. This causes a rapid
27 increase in soil degradation and erosion processes, while the formation rate of soil is
28 extremely slow. Soil degradation is defined as the decline in soil health condition, as a result
29 of which the capacity of ecosystems to provide goods and services for its beneficiaries is
30 diminished (FAO 2018). Soil degradation can be classified as erosion, chemical and physical
31 degradation. Increasing human demands and activities have caused the so-called human-
32 induced soil degradation. Removal of natural vegetation for economic or urban development
33 purposes, overgrazing, agricultural activities, over-exploration and industrial activities are the
34 main influencing factors (Oldeman 1992).

35

36 Soil Erosion

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38 The erosion of soil is a naturally occurring process in all arable land. It involves the movement
39 of rocks and minerals that are transported and deposited in other locations by agents such as
40 wind, water, glaciers and gravity. Water and wind erosion are the dominant erosion forms.

41 Water erosion is a consequence from rain detaching and transporting vulnerable soil, which
42 causes directly by rain-splash, or indirectly by rill and gully erosion (Favis-Mortlock 2017).
43 Rain-splash requires a great amount of rainfall to move the particles to a short distance, but
44 the particles will merely be redistributed back over soil surface. The rainfall is also able to
45 transport the soil indirectly with water runoff in rills and gullies (Favis-Mortlock 2017). This is
46 the dominant form of water erosion. Such runoff flow is caused by the over-saturation of
47 moisture in the soil or fast and strong precipitation. The runoff creates a thin diffuse film of

¹ Agricultural land is the sum of lands under arable land, permanent crops, permanent meadows and pastures OECD (2007).

1 water with small power, which is incapable to transport particles. As the runoff gets stronger, it
2 is able to transport, or even detach soil particles (Favis-Mortlock 2017).

3 Wind is capable of moving loose debris to another location, most effectively in arid and semi-
4 arid regions. In contrast, wind erosion is negligible in humid regions. Unlike water erosion, wind
5 erosion is only capable of transporting fine particles and spreading them over large areas.

6 Deflation is one type of wind erosion, which occurs after the lifting and removal of loose
7 material. The wind transports the fine sediment away and leaves the coarser particles. As a
8 result, the entire surface will be lowered, which, over time, represents a significant problem.

9 According to the NAL Agricultural Thesaurus (NALT) by the National Agricultural Library of
10 United States Department of Agriculture (NAL 2018, p. 2991), “chemical degradation is
11 defined as the degradation of a substance by a chemical agent or energy source such as light,
12 heat, or electricity”. It refers to the accumulation of toxic chemicals and chemical processes
13 which changes the chemical properties in soil that affects life processes (Logan 1990).
14 However, it does not refer to cyclic fluctuations of the soil chemical conditions under relatively
15 stable agricultural systems, in which the soil still has its ability to maintain its productivity, nor
16 to gradual changes in the chemical composition causing by the processes of soil forming
17 (Oldeman 1992).

18 Organic matter is a key component of soil and it controls many vital functions (Jones et al.
19 2012). The change of soil organic carbon (SOC)² is one of the important indicators of chemical
20 degradation of soil. The changes of organic carbon occur mostly when the carbon supply
21 through vegetation decreases, or mineralisation increases (Sanchez 1981).

22 Nutrient imbalance is one of serious soil problems and an indicator of the soil status. Since the
23 application of artificial synthetic fertilisers and intensive agriculture, the balance of soil
24 nutrient has been destroyed.

25 Acidification is a widespread problem related to soil, especially in coastal regions. It is caused
26 by improper use of nitrogen fertiliser and heavy precipitation, which leads to the leaching of
27 cations and the emission of SO₂ from burning fossil fuels.

28 Soil contamination is one of the major threats around the world. Most human activities may
29 result in the pollution of soils and adjoining water bodies. The substances that cause soil
30 contamination may come from an over-use of fertilisers, improper use of pesticides and
31 herbicides, pollution from mining, oil spillage, waste disposal from households and industry.

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33 Soil Degradation

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35 Physical degradation of soil is considered to be a gradual process, which begins with
36 structural deterioration and ends in differential loss of finer particles through erosion (Omuto
37 2008). It also refers to several processes and morphometric forms, mainly the deformation of
38 the inner soil structure by compaction (eds Gliński, Horabik & Lipiec 2011). Through this type
39 of degradation, physical properties, such as pore area in soil, the capacity of drainage,
40 aeration, permeation, etc. are changed. Soil erosion can be considered physical degradation
41 (Oldeman 1992).

42 The compaction of soil has become a severe issue since the introduction of farm tractors and
43 heavy field equipment in agricultural areas. The porous system in the soil provides water and
44 necessary air to the living creatures. However, when soil is compacted, the soil particles are

² Soil organic carbon (SOC) refers to the carbon component of organic compounds in soil WAAA (2017); WAAA (2017).

1 pressed together, reducing soil porosity. As a result, the water and air content in soil decrease
2 and their movement in the pores becomes restricted.

3 Sealing/capping refers to the covering of the ground by impermeable materials and it has
4 caused a significant loss of top soil. Due to development pressures, sealing/capping on the soil
5 surface is necessary in urban areas in order to create more space for roads and buildings
6 (Oldeman 1992).

7 Waterlogging refers to over-saturation of water in soil, which is a common problem in
8 irrigation, especially in flat areas. The major types of waterlogging can be defined as
9 permanent waterlogging such as natural swamplands and occasional waterlogging in flood
10 prone areas. It is mainly caused by poor drainage management, urban/industrial
11 development and deforestation.

12 Human activities increase the pressure on the land, which leads to human-induced soil
13 degradation, such as contamination and physical degradation. According to Oldeman
14 (Oldeman 1992) and the Global Assessment of Human-induced Soil Degradation project
15 (GLASOD), human-induced soil degradation can have the following causes:

- 16 1. Deforestation or removal of natural vegetation: clearing land for agricultural purposes,
17 urbanisation, large-scale commercial forestry, etc.
- 18 2. Overgrazing: due to insufficient regeneration time, may cause compaction, water and
19 wind erosion.
- 20 3. Agricultural activities: nutrient imbalance caused by insufficient or excessive use of
21 fertilisers, land compaction caused by the application of heavy machines, loss of
22 biodiversity caused by monoculture which normally is industrial agriculture, etc.
- 23 4. Overexploitation of vegetation for domestic use: the remaining vegetation does not
24 provide sufficient protection against soil erosion.
- 25 5. Bio-industrial and industrial activities: directly related to soil chemical degradation, such as
26 acidification and contamination.

27 Normally, soil erosion occurs naturally, however, human intervention accelerates the process.
28 Human activities also cause severe soil degradation through contamination, acidification and
29 sealing, which can result in irreversible damage to soil.

30 **Global Soil Status**

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32 This chapter will give a brief summary of the global soil status. Subsequently, it will provide
33 more specific information on research on the soil status on the six main continents.

34 In 1991, the global agricultural area was estimated to be 39.47% of global land area (The
35 World Bank 2014). According to a widely cited report from Oldeman (1992, p. 26), water
36 erosion is the most serious soil erosion problem, which accounts for about 56 % of the total soil
37 erosion and affects an area of around 11 Mkm². Deforestation (43.1 %), overgrazing
38 (29.3 %) and agricultural activities (24.3 %) are the dominant causative factors (Oldeman
39 1992, pp. 26–9). The global extent of soils affected by wind erosion is around 5.5 Mkm²,
40 accounting for about 28 % of the world soil erosion and degradation areas, in which
41 overgrazing contributed to around 60.6 % of the erosion (Oldeman 1992, pp. 26–9).
42 Regarding chemical degradation, a total area of almost 2.4 M km² is affected worldwide,
43 which makes up around 12 % of the world soil erosion and degradation area (eds Behnke &
44 Mortimore 2015)(eds Behnke & Mortimore 2015)(Oldeman 1992, pp. 26–9). Regarding
45 physical degradation, it is identified on only 0.83M km² and around 4 % of the total area
46 affected by soil degradation worldwide. The major cause of physical degradation is

1 compaction, sealing and crusting, which makes up over 80 % of the total physical degradation
2 terrain. The ratio of degraded/eroded land area to the inhabited area for individual
3 continents ranges from 12 % in North America, 18 % in South America, 19 % in Oceania,
4 26 % in Europe, 27 % in Africa and Central America and 31 % in Asia (Oldeman 1992,
5 p. 25). According to report from Intergovernmental Science-policy Platform on Biodiversity
6 and Ecosystem Services (IPBES 2018), modern day attempts at quantifying the extent and
7 scale of land degradation have generally proven to be difficult. As a result different studies
8 published till now had different kinds of shortcomings. According to the report, the land
9 degradation assessment from Oldeman (1992) had a limited focus on soil. While as
10 other recent reviews (Prince 2015; Sonneveld & Dent 2009) also pointed out that the ‘world
11 map’ of desertification used by Oldeman (1992) was flawed. According to the research from
12 Gibbs & Salmon (2015), they used different data of assessments on soil degradation to map
13 the degraded land of the world (Bai et al. 2008; Cai, Zhang & Wang 2011; Campbell et al.
14 2008).

15 Figure 1 presents the distribution of global degraded land according to four previous
16 researches. The map of Global Assessment of Human-induced Soil Degradation (GLASOD) is
17 generally based on estimations by local experts where there is a lack of field data (Gibbs &
18 Salmon 2015). FAO’s Global Assessment of Land Degradation and Improvement (GLADA)
19 project applied the normalised difference vegetation index (NDVI) to quantify the
20 degradation event during 1981 – 2003 (Bai et al. 2008). However, Wessels, van den Bergh
21 & Scholes (2012) pointed out that the GLADA was fatally flawed to assess the degradation
22 results in humid tropics, due to the assessment which is only able to measure the changes in
23 productivity. The research of Campbell et al. (2008) measured the actual situation instead of
24 potential changes, but also excluded the land degradation outside of abandonment and
25 included lands not necessarily degraded (Gibbs & Salmon 2015). Cai, Zhang & Wang (2011)
26 used a biophysical model of agricultural productivity to identify degraded or low-quality
27 cropland, while the research only focused on current cropland and excluded the vegetation
28 degradation (Gibbs & Salmon 2015).

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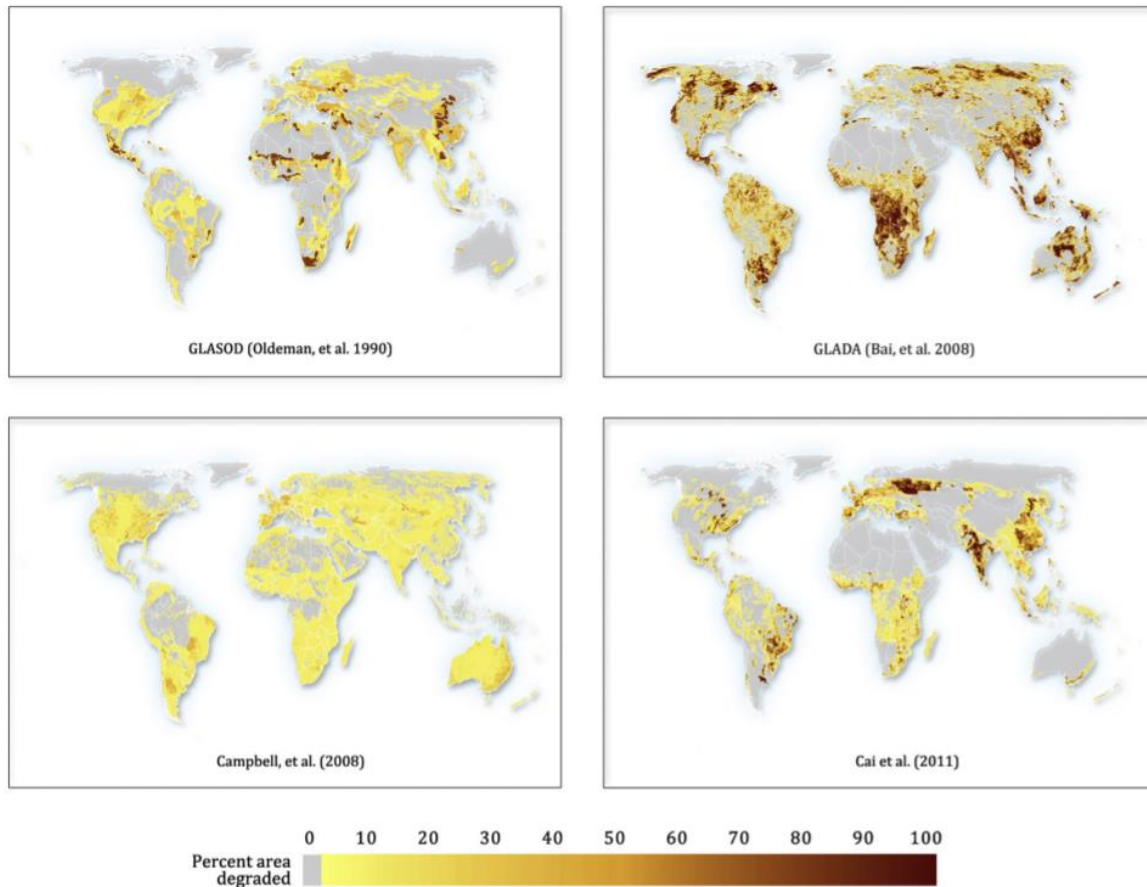


Figure 1. Maps of land areas affected by degradation according to different methods (Gibbs & Salmon 2015)

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4 In 2014, the global agricultural area was about 37.49 % of the land area, which is a
5 decrease of 5.3 % compared to the 1991 projections (The World Bank 2014). However, the
6 assessment of soil degradation is highly uncertain, as it is based on estimates due to a lack of
7 data. A very rough estimation of global water erosion provided by (FAO 2015a) is 20 - 30
8 giga-tons soil/year over recent decades. Wind erosion is difficult to estimate due to the
9 differences in regional conditions, but approximately 40 % of the Earth`s surface is susceptible
10 to wind erosion (Middleton & Thomas 1997). SOC stocks have reduced 4.2 % since 1850, and
11 (FAO 2015a) reported that the SOC stocks worldwide in topsoil (above 1 m depth) have been
12 estimated to be at around 1500 petagram. About 35 % of ice-free land of topsoil is affected
13 by acidification (FAO 2015a). Between 1995 and 2011, the global urban area had
14 increased by 41.98 %, which resulted in permanent land loss counting up to 1036830 km² (Liu
15 et al. 2014). The following table introduces a brief summary of the global soil conditions on
16 different continents.

17 This table illustrates that the factors affecting soil vary regionally, with the soil condition in
18 Near East and North Africa being the most degraded. The evidence and consensus of soil
19 condition are uncertain in different regions, due to different levels of technologies and
20 measuring techniques. World soil is generally threatened most by erosion and nutrient
21 imbalance. The organic carbon change is also a common problem. The following is a regional
22 analysis of the soil status.

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Table 1. Global soil conditions and confidence of the condition (based on: (FAO 2015a).

	Asia	North America	South America	Europe & Eurasia	Africa, South of the Sahara	Near East & North Africa	South-west Pacific
Soil Erosion	●●●	●●●	●●●	●●●	●●●	●●●	●●
Organic Carbon Change	●●	●●	●●	●●	●●	●●	●●
Nutrient Imbalance	●●●	●●	●●	●●	●●●	●	●●●
Contamination	●●	●●●	●	●●●	●	●●●	●●●
Compaction	●●	●	●●	●●	●	●●	●●
Waterlogging	●●	●●	●●●	●●●	●	●●●	●●
Sealing	●●	●	●●	●●●	●	●●●	●●
Acidification	●●●	●●●	●	●●	●●●	●●●	●●

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● : Very Poor ● : Poor ● : Fair ● : Good ● : Very Good
 ●●● High Evidence & Consensus ●● Limited Evidence & Consensus ● Low Evidence & Consensus

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Soil Situation in Asia

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Soil erosion is one of the main threats to soil in Asia. Serious water erosion occurs in South Asia to East Asia in both dry and wet seasons, particularly in the landscapes of hilly and mountainous areas without sufficient vegetation cover. Wind erosion mainly takes place in the most western and northern arid and semi-arid regions of Afghanistan, Pakistan, India, and China (FAO 2015a). In India, 45.9 % of the total agricultural area is suto soil degradation is of which 37 % is influenced by water erosion and 4 % by wind erosion (Velayutham & Bhattacharya 2000 as cited in FAO 2015a, p. 305). Organic carbon change is also a severe soil problem is Asia. Crop yield enhancement retains SOC in croplands of East and Southeast Asia, while it decreases in South Asia, due to the usage of crop residues for purposes of fuel and fodder. In Japan, during 1980s and 1990s, the average SOC change rate in the arable land was -0.95 teragram C/year and -1.06 teragram C/year between 1990 and 2000 (FAO 2015a, p. 310). China reported that, during 1980-2000, the total SOC changed in the range from -0.143 petagram C/year to +0.094 petagram C/year (Piao et al. 2012). According to (FAO 2015a), some evidence and consensus suggest that soil conditions in Asia will continue deteriorating.

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Soil Situation in Africa

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According to FAO (FAO 2015a), soil erosion contributes over 80 % of land degradation in SSA (Africa, South of the Sahara), affecting about 22 % of agricultural land and all countries in the region. Laker’s research (as cited by FAO 2018, p. 257) concluded that 25 % of arid and semi-arid areas in South Africa were affected by wind erosion, accounting for about 10.9 million ha. The loss of organic carbon in SSA is another serious problem. A study reported that losses of up

1 to 69 t C/km² year in the top soil were common (eds Gichuru et al. 2003). Evidence
2 indicates that both of the situations will continue and soil will further deteriorate.

3 In the Near East and North Africa, soil erosion is severe, compared to other regions
4 in the world. FAO (2015a, p. 411) reported that the soil loss caused by erosion in
5 Iran is about 1-2 billion t/year and 76 % of the total area was under erosion
6 threat. In Morocco, erosion was a serious issue which caused around 12-14
7 tons/year soil loss (Benmansour et al. 2013). Based on the available evidence, the
8 consensus is that this situation will keep deteriorating.

9 10 **Soil Situation in North America**

11 Soil erosion in North America accelerated after the arrival of European settlers, who
12 cleared large areas for agriculture and over-grazed the land (Montgomery 2007).
13 The report from (FAO 2015a) claimed that the reduction of tillage and
14 improvement of residue management have lowered erosion rates in regions such as
15 the Great Plains in Canada. However, water erosion rates stay at a rather high
16 level in the northern Mid-West of the U.S. and agricultural areas of central and
17 Atlantic Canada. The US National Resources Inventory (USDA 2013) reported that
18 the water erosion rate and wind erosion rate both decreased up to 41 % between
19 1982 and 2010. Many regions of North America have experienced and continue to
20 experience excess application of nutrients, which will lead to the surplus nitrogen
21 and phosphorus in the soil. In Canada, the residual soil nitrogen had increased from
22 940 kg N/km² in 1981 to a maximum of 2530 kg N/km² in 2001, while slightly
23 reducing to 2360 kg N/km² in 2011 (eds Clearwater, Martin & Hoppe 2016).
24 However, evidence shows that this situation will continue to deteriorate.

25 26 **Soil Situation in South America**

27 In South America, water erosion is the dominant erosion type, while wind erosion
28 prevails in specific areas with arid and semi-arid climates. Duvert (2010) pointed
29 out that 42 % of flood events contribute to 70 % of sediment export. Nearly 50%
30 of the agricultural lands were strongly affected by surface soil erosion in the range
31 between 15 - 25% (Oldeman 1992). In Argentina, more than 12,000 km² (32 % of
32 the agricultural lands) were affected by moderate to severe water erosion (SAGyP
33 & CFA 1995). Evidence and consensus indicate that the soil erosion situation in South
34 America will continue deteriorating.

35 36 37 **Soil Situation in Europe and Eurasia**

38 In highly populated area of Western Europe, soil sealing is one of the greatest
39 threats to the soil. Between 1990 and 2000, the sealing in the EU-15 increased by
40 6 % and over 2.75 km² of soil was lost per day, while from 2000 to 2006, the
41 average annual soil loss increased by 3 % (Prokop, Jobstmann & Schönbauer
42 2011). Due to fast development and urbanisation, there is strong evidence that land
43 sealing will become worse in future. The loss of organic carbon is very obvious in
44 most agricultural land, as about 45 % of the land in Western Europe has low or
45 extremely low organic matter content, which is between 0 - 2 % for organic carbons
46 (FAO 2015a). The trend of this phenomenon will vary in future, as sustainable land
47 management practices are being implemented.

1 **Soil Situation in Southwest Pacific**

2 Soil acidification is an insidious and widespread problem that may cause
3 irreversible damage to soils, particularly in southern Australia and tropical
4 landscapes. An assessment by Lockwood (Lockwood et al. 2003) estimated that the
5 annual value of agricultural production loss, caused by soil acidity, was 1585 million
6 Australian Dollar. Concrete evidence shows that the situation of soil acidification will
7 continue to deteriorate. The soil erosion rate in Australia and New Zealand has
8 been reduced by advanced land management practices, however, the problem is
9 still affecting some districts. In New Zealand, (Eyles 1983) reported that sheet
10 erosion³ affected 0.1 million km², while wind erosion affected 30,000 km² (the total
11 area of New Zealand is around 0.27 million km²). The general consensus is that the
12 status of soil erosion in Southwest Pacific will be improved.

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14 **Conclusion**

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16 This literature review provides an overview of global soil erosion and degradation status. The
17 degradation of natural resources in arable lands is considered one of the main threats to
18 agricultural production all over the world, as it diminishes agricultural productivity and
19 increases food insecurity. Moreover, the land we can use is limited and economic developments
20 lay heavy stress on it. The growing population also increases the burden on the land, owing to
21 unequal access to resources. Additionally, if the land is still lacking proper management, the
22 extent of irreversible deterioration will keep growing.

23 On the other hand, nutrient imbalance, such as the excessive usage of fertilisers and
24 contamination caused by herbicides and pesticides is also pushing fertile lands towards
25 becoming wastelands, which are no longer suitable for agriculture. Compaction, capping,
26 sealing and waterlogging are also serious problems, which can cause irreversible damage to
27 land.

28 Therefore, efforts have to be made to design and implement sustainable regional land
29 management, considering the complexity and spatial variability. For example, the depletion
30 of nutrients is one of the severe issues in most of the developing countries, while over-
31 saturation of nutrients is one of the main problems in some developed countries. Sufficient
32 nutrients should therefore be given to the arable area in arid regions, while over-fertilisation
33 has to be controlled in developed countries. Application of permaculture, agroecological
34 strategies, agroforestry systems, check-dams and key-line systems, can significantly improve
35 the soil conditions.

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³ A type of water erosion caused by rain-splash.

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