



1 Rainfall simulation experiments in the Southwestern USA using the Walnut Gulch Rainfall Simulator.

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4 Viktor Polyakov¹, Jeffrey Stone¹, Chandra Holifield Collins¹, Mark A. Nearing¹,
5 Ginger Paige², Jared Buono³, Rae-Landa Gomez-Pond⁴

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¹Southwest Watershed Research Center, USDA-ARS, Tucson, AZ, USA

²Ecosystem Science and Management, University of Wyoming, Laramie, WY, USA

³Ecohydrologist, Chennai, India

10 ⁴School of Natural Resources, University of Nebraska, Lincoln, NE, USA

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14 Abstract

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The dataset contains hydrological, erosion, vegetation, ground cover, and other supplementary information from 272 rainfall simulation experiments conducted on 23 semi-arid rangeland locations in Arizona and Nevada between 2002 and 2013. On 30% of the plots simulations were conducted up to five times during the decade of study. The rainfall was generated using the Walnut Gulch Rainfall Simulator on 2 m by 6 m plots. Simulation sites included brush and grassland areas with various degree of disturbance by grazing, wildfire, or brush removal. This dataset advances our understanding of basic hydrological and biological processes that drive soil erosion on arid rangelands. It can be used to quantify runoff, infiltration, and erosion rates on a variety of ecological sites in the Southwestern USA. Inclusion of wildfire and brush treatment locations combined with long term observations makes it important for studying vegetation recovery, ecological transitions, and effect of management. It is also a valuable resource for erosion model parameterization and validation.

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The data set available from the National Agricultural Library at
<https://data.nal.usda.gov/search/type/dataset> (DOI: 10.15482/USDA.ADC/1358583).

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30 Key words: soil erosion, rainfall simulator, runoff, infiltration, ground cover, rangeland

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32 1. Introduction

33
34 Soil erosion negatively impacts rangelands by impairing their ability to produce biomass. The extent of
35 this influence in comparison with other environmental and anthropogenic factors is poorly understood.
36 Preservation and sustainable management of semi-arid ecosystems requires good knowledge of the physical
37 processes involved in soil erosion and their interaction with plant communities. The experimental data needed
38 to generate this knowledge is limited in time and space and often lacks ecological context in which it was
39 gathered. Further, such data are difficult or often impossible to acquire by instrumenting natural hydrological
40 systems.

41 Artificial rainfall experiments on small plots provide a relatively quick and economical way to obtain
42 necessary erosion information in a controlled and replicable setting. Field experiments under simulated rainfall
43 have been conducted in the US since 1930s using stationary sprinkler systems (Meyer and McCune, 1958).
44 Later simulators utilized a rotating boom design and V-jet nozzles (Swanson, 1965), which enhanced uniformity
45 and allowed easier control of rainfall intensity. Further advancement came with the development of a portable
46 Walnut Gulch Rainfall Simulator (WGRS) that featured improved spatial distribution of rainfall over a wider
47 plot area, with rainfall energy and drop sizes similar to those of natural events (Paige et al., 2004).

48 The presented rainfall simulation data were collected by the Southwest Watershed Research Center over
49 the period of 12 years (2002–2013) using WGRS. The set encompasses 23 rangeland sites located in four Major
50 Land Resource Areas (MLRA), namely 28B, 38-3, 41-1, and 41-3. A total of 272 simulation experiments were
51 conducted on 154 runoff plots. Among these plots 53 were permanent, established to monitor long term
52 ecological site transitions triggered by wildfire, grazing, or brush and tree removal. Plots at any given site were
53 replicated four times in most cases. The dataset contains hydrological (runoff rate and flow velocity) and
54 erosion (sediment concentration and rate) measurements obtained over a wide range (60 mm h^{-1} to 180 mm h^{-1})
55 of rainfall intensities. Ground cover (vegetation, basal, litter, rock, soil) and other supporting information are
56 also provided for every plot. The dataset is supplemented with orthogonal ground cover photographs taken prior
57 to every simulation.

58 Our objectives are to provide information on: a) basic erosion processes and interactions between
59 rainfall, runoff, infiltration, surface cover, and their spatial variability; b) erosion rates on different ecological
60 sites; c) the impacts of grazing, brush treatment, wildfires, and ecological transitions on erosion; d) parameters
61 for hydrological and erosion models and their validation.

62

63 2. Experimental area

64
65 Twenty three rainfall simulation sites were established throughout Arizona and Nevada rangelands
66 (Table 1). In Arizona the climate is defined by the North American Monsoon. Most of precipitation is delivered
67 by short-duration, high intensity convective storms that occur July through September. May and June are the
68 driest months of the year.

69 Six sites were located at Walnut Gulch Experimental Watershed (WGEW) in the upper San Pedro River
70 basin in southeastern Arizona in CRA 41.AZ3 (Chihuahuan-Sonoran Semidesert Grasslands). Mean annual
71 temperature in the area is 17.7°C . The LH and CR sites are located on Limy Upland (R041XC309AZ) that
72 dominate the western portion of the WGEW. The representative soil series there are Luckyhill (Coarse-loamy,
73 mixed, superactive, thermic Ustic Haplocalcids) and McNeal (Fine-loamy, mixed, superactive, thermic Ustic
74 Calciargids) very gravely sandy loam (NRCS, 2003). The soil consists of approximately 39% gravel, 32% sand,
75 16% silt, and 13% clay. Limy Uplands have enough precipitation (290 mm y^{-1}) to support grass communities,
76 however the soils (coarse textured and high in carbonates) favor drought tolerant shrubs, such as creosote
77 (*Larrea tridentata* (DC.) Coville) and whitethorn (*Acacia constricta* Benth.). Grasses in this environment
78 account for no more than 30% of biomass production, even less if the area is grazed. Brush control measures on
79 Limy Uplands have low chance of long-term success. Kendall sites (K2, K3) are located on Loamy Upland
80 (R041XC313AZ). The area receives an average of 345 mm of precipitation a year. The soils there are a



81 complex of Stronghold (Coarse-loamy, mixed, thermic Ustollic Calciorthids), Elgin (Fine, mixed, thermic,
82 Ustollic Paleargids), and McAllister (Fine-loamy, mixed, thermic, Ustollic Haplargids) (NRCS, 2003).
83 Stronghold, a dominant soil, contains 67% sand, 16% silt, and 17% clay, with 79% coarse fragments (>2 mm).
84 The organic carbon content of the soil surface (0–2.5 cm) is 1.1%. Desert bunchgrasses, such as black grama
85 (*Bouteloua eriopoda* Torr.), sideoats grama (*B. curtipendula* Torr.), three-awn (*Aristida* sp.), and cane
86 beardgrass (*Bothriochloa barbinodis* (Lag.) Herter) and forbs dominate the area. Some shrubs and succulents
87 are also present. The site has been affected by a recent Lehmann lovegrass (*Eragrostis lehmanniana* Nees)
88 invasion (Moran et al., 2009; Polyakov et al., 2010).

89 Six rainfall sites located on the historic Empire Ranch northeast of Sonoita, Arizona are also in
90 CRA41.AZ3 and all are Loamy Uplands. Empire Ranch has been heavily grazed in the past, although the timing
91 and extent of grazing is poorly documented. The annual precipitation at these locations ranges between 300 and
92 400 mm y⁻¹. The soils are gravelly loams and belong to the White House (fine, mixed, thermic, Ustollic
93 Haplargids) soil series (NRCS, 2003). They were formed on alluvial fans and are characterized by a shallow A
94 horizon underlain by deep argillic and calcic horizons. Sites ER1, ER2, and ER5 have historic climax plant
95 community (HCPC) dominated by beardgrass (*Bothriochloa* spp.), grama (*Bouteloua* spp.), lovegrass
96 (*Eragrostis* spp.), three-awn (*Aristida* spp.), and native forbs. ER3, ER4S, and ER4G have Mesquite-native
97 plant community. All Empire Ranch sites were being grazed at the time of the experiments, except ER5 which
98 has been an enclosure since the mid 1980s. The ER2 site had a wildfire in 2000 and had heavy grazing until the
99 mid 2000s. ER3 site burned in 2006 prior to rainfall simulation that year. The ER4S has established mesquites
100 on the plots and the mesquites on ER4G had been mechanically removed in 2006 a month after rainfall
101 simulation. By 2010, the mesquite had re-sprouted and was approximately 2 m tall. ER4S and ER4G are located
102 in close proximity to each other and share the same hydro-ecological characteristics.

103 San Rafael Valley and Audubon Ranch south of Sonoita, Arizona contained six simulation locations. SA
104 and Ab in San Rafael Valley are located in CRA 41.AZ1 (Mexican Oak-Pine Forest and Oak Savannah) at
105 1550-1600 m elevation in 400-500 mm precipitation zone. Vegetation there includes Emory oak (*Quercus*
106 *emoryi* Torr.), Mexican blue oak (*Q. oblongifolia* Torr.), Arizona white oak (*Q. arizonica* Sarg.), and grama
107 species (*Bouteloua* spp.). The ecological sites in this area are Loamy Uplands (PC, Wi, Ab, and SA), Loamy
108 Slope (EM) and Clay Loam Uplands (Ta). San Rafael Valley is dominated by the White House soil series. The
109 soil on EM is Terrarossa (Fine, mixed, superactive, thermic Aridic Paleustalfs), and on PC is Blacktail (Fine,
110 mixed, superactive, thermic Calcic Argiustolls). PC, EM, Wi and Ta sites are grasslands dominated by black
111 grama (*Bouteloua eriopoda* Torr.), plains lovegrass (*Eragrostis intermedia* Hitchc.), and cane bluestem
112 (*Bothriochloa barbinodis* (Lag.) Herter) with inclusion of native forbs. All of the sites experienced recent
113 wildfires: EM, and PC in 2002, Ab in 2003, Ta in 2004, SA in 2005, and Wi in 2006. On all San Rafael Valley
114 sites a set of natural (non-burned) plots were established next to the burn sites as a control. Grasslands have
115 been under USFS grazing management plan during time of the experiments.

116 Three experimental sites (Yg1, Yg2, and Yg3) were located 9 km north of Young, Arizona in MLRA 38
117 (Mogollon Transition Area) on Clay Loam Upland (R038XC303AZ). The average annual precipitation in the
118 area is 580 mm and the mean annual temperature is 11° C. Snow falls occasionally in winter. The soil is
119 Terrarosa clayloam (Fine, mixed, superactive, thermic Aridic Paleustalfs). It is deep and well drained with > 1%
120 organic matter, has a well developed argillic horizon and can be easily compacted by livestock when moist.
121 The depth of soil freezing in the winter is 10-15 cm. Yg1 and Yg2 sites are in HCPS (Historic Climax Plant
122 Community) state dominated by grama species (*Bouteloua* sp.) (canopy cover of 40 to 60%) and cool season
123 grasses. Mean annual production of above ground biomass estimated at 1600 kg/ha and effective rooting depth
124 of perennial grasses is 70 cm. Possible STM transition (with disturbance, invasion or alteration of fire regimes)
125 is to juniper woodland. Wildfires in the area occur every 10 to 15 years. Yg3 was in alligator juniper woodland
126 state. Juniper was mechanically removed on the site a year prior to 2012 rainfall simulation.

127 Two sites (PCE, PCW) were located in Nevada, 100 km east of Fallon in MLRA 28B (Central Nevada
128 Basin and Range) on Loamy Slopes (028BY113NV). The climate associated with this site is semi-arid,
129 characterized by cold, moist winters and warm, dry summers with large temperature variations. The driest
130 period is from mid-summer to mid-autumn. Average annual precipitation is 400 mm. Mean annual air



131 temperature is 6° C and freeze-free period averages 125 days. The soil on the site is Tierney series (Loamy-
132 skeletal, mixed, superactive, frigid Cumulic Haploxerolls). It is formed in alluvium derived from mixed parent
133 material, very deep, well drained and has very low available water capacity. Clay content averages 12% and
134 rock fragments are 35% by volume. The dominant vegetation on the site is bluegrass (*Poa annua* L.), mountain
135 big sagebrush (*Artemisia tridentata* Nutt.), needle and thread (*Hesperostipa comata* (Trin. & Rupr.) Barkworth),
136 rubber rabbitbrush (*Ericameria nauseosa* (Pall. ex Pursh) G.L. Nesom & Baird), sedge (*Cyperaceae* spp.), and
137 western wheatgrass (*Pascopyrum smithii* (Rydb.) Á. Löve). Fire return interval varies from 15 to 25 years.
138 Plants are readily killed in all seasons, even by light severity fires. Overgrazing and decline of ecological
139 conditions leads to an increase in big sagebrush and decline in understory plants.

140 3. Instrumentation

141 3.1. Water application

142
143 Rainfall was generated by WGRS, a portable, computer-controlled, variable intensity simulator (Paige et
144 al., 2004). The WGRS can deliver rainfall rates ranging between 13 and 178 mm h⁻¹ with variability coefficient
145 of 11% across 2 by 6.1 m area. Estimated kinetic energy of simulated rainfall was 204 kJ ha⁻¹ mm⁻¹ and drop
146 size ranged from 0.288 to 7.2 mm. The simulator is equipped with a single oscillating boom with four V-jet
147 nozzles with overlapping spray pattern and 50° sweep. The operating height of the nozzles is 2.4 m above
148 ground at 55 kPa water pressure. The oscillations are controlled by high torque stepper motor that varies the
149 speed of the nozzles, slower at the ends of the oscillation and faster in the middle when the nozzles are pointed
150 directly down. This approach improves uniformity of the water application across the plot. The spray time and
151 sequence are controlled by three-way solenoids. A PC and a controller are used to setup various rainfall
152 programs. Detailed description and design of the simulator is available in Paige et al. (2004). Prior to each field
153 season the simulator was calibrated over a range of intensities using a set of 56 rain gages arranged on the plot
154 in rectangular grid. During the experiments windbreaks were placed around the simulator to minimize the effect
155 of wind on rain distribution (Fig. 1).

156 During 93 simulations run-on flow was applied at the top edge of the plot using a perforated pipe placed
157 horizontally over a narrow strip of cloth directly on the soil surface. This arrangement ensured uniform initial
158 sheet flow and prevented localized scour. The purpose of run-on water application was to simulate hydrological
159 processes that occur on longer slopes (>6 m) where the upper portion of the slope contributes runoff onto the
160 lower portion. In a limited number of experiments run-on flow rate was unknown. In these cases it was labeled
161 as “rate1”, “rate2” etc. in the data file.
162

163 3.2. Runoff

164 Runoff rate from the plot was measured using a V-shaped supercritical flume positioned at 4% slope and
165 equipped with electronic depth gage. Flow depth was recorded manually and converted to flow rate using the
166 following depth to discharge relationship:

$$167 \quad Q = ah^b \quad (1)$$

168 where Q is discharge (L s⁻¹), h is flow depth in the flume (mm), a and b are calibration coefficients. The flume
169 was calibrated before every field season.
170

171 3.3. Flow velocity

172 Overland flow velocities on the plots were measured using electrolyte and fluorescent dye solution
173 starting in 2006. Two liters of the solution were uniformly applied on the surface using a perforated PVC pipe
174 placed across the plot 3.3 m from the outlet. Dye moving from the application point to the outlet was timed with
175 stopwatch. Electrolyte transport in the flow was measured by resistivity sensors imbedded in edge of the outlet
176 flume at the end of the plot. The data was collected at 0.37 s intervals with real time graphical output using
177 LoggerNet software and CR10X data logger by Campbell Scientific. Maximum flow velocity (V_m, m s⁻¹) was



178 defined as velocity of the leading edge of the solution and was determined from beginning of the breakthrough
179 curve (Fig. 2) and verified by visual observation of dye. Mean flow velocity (V_a , m s^{-1}) was calculated using
180 mean travel time obtained from the salt concentration breakthrough curve (Fig. 2) and the following equation:

$$181 \quad T_a = \sum_{i=t_s}^{t_e} c_i t_i / \sum_{i=t_s}^{t_e} c_i \quad (2)$$

182 where t_s is curve start time (s), t_e is curve end time or return to baseline (s), t_i is instantaneous time (s), and c_i is
183 normalized conductivity.

184

185 3.4. Erosion.

186 Sediment concentrations from the plots were determined from 1 liter runoff samples collected during each
187 run. Sampling interval time was variable and aimed to represent rising and falling limbs of the hydrograph, any
188 changes in runoff rate, and steady state conditions (a minimum of 3 samples). This resulted in approximately 30
189 to 50 samples per simulation. A coagulant solution was added to the samples to flocculate and settle the
190 sediments. After the settling, the excess water was decanted and the sediments were dried at 105°C . Wet and
191 dry samples were weighed and sediment concentration in the runoff samples calculated gravimetrically. Soil
192 losses were determined from the combination of sediment concentration and discharge rates.

193 3.5. Vegetation and surface cover.

194 Shortly before simulations plot surface and vegetative cover was measured at 400 points on a 15×20 cm
195 grid using a laser and line-point intercept procedure (Herrick et al., 2005). Vegetative cover was classified as
196 forbs, grass, and shrub. Surface cover was characterized as rock, litter, plant basal area, and bare soil. These 4
197 metrics were further classified as protected (located under plant canopy) and unprotected (not covered by the
198 canopy).

199 In addition, plant canopy and basal gaps were measured on the plots over three lengthwise and six
200 crosswise transects. These were reported as the sum and the average of all inter canopy and inter basal spaces
201 greater than 10 cm along the transects.

202

203 4. Experimental procedure

204

205 Four to eight 6.1 by 2 m replicated rainfall simulation plots were established on each site. The plots were
206 bound by sheet metal borders hammered into the ground on three sides. On the down slope side a collection
207 trough was installed to channel runoff into the measuring flume. If a site was revisited, repeat simulations were
208 always conducted on the same long term plots. In these cases the lateral borders remained installed in the field,
209 while top the border and runoff flume were removed to avoid obstructing natural runoff during interim period.

210 The plots were classified as “burn” or “natural”. The burn plots were established on six sites affected by
211 wildfires that occurred between 2000 and 2006 (Table X). These plots were in various stages of recovery during
212 the experiments. The natural plots had no recent documented wildfires. With the exception of Audubon
213 Research Ranch burn plots were paired with natural control plots located on the same site in close proximity.
214 On 53 plots (13 sites) rainfall simulations were repeated up to 5 times in the following years (2002 through
215 2013) in order to monitor post brush treatment, burn recovery, or ecological site transition.

216 The experimental procedure was as follows. First, the plot was subjected to 45 min long, 65 mm h^{-1}
217 intensity simulated rainfall (dry run) intended to create initial saturated condition that could be replicated across
218 all sites. This was followed by a 45 minute pause and a second simulation with varying intensity (wet run) (Fig.
219 3). During wet runs two modes of water application were used as previously described: rainfall and run-on.
220 Rainfall only wet runs accounted for 79% of simulations, while the rest were run-on flow only, or a
221 combination of rainfall and run-on flow.

222 Rainfall wet runs typically consisted of series of application rates (65 , 100 , 125 , 150 , and 180 mm h^{-1}) that
223 were increased after runoff had reached steady state for at least five minutes. Runoff samples were collected on



224 the rising and falling limb of the hydrograph and during each steady state (a minimum of 3 samples). Overland
225 flow velocities were measured during each steady state as previously described. Run-on wet runs followed the
226 same procedure as rainfall runs, except water application rates varied between 100 and 300 mm h⁻¹.

227 In approximately 20% of simulation experiments wet run was followed by another simulation (wet2 run)
228 after a 45 min pause. Wet2 runs were similar to wet runs and also consisted of series of varying intensity
229 rainfalls and/or run-on input.

230

231 **5. Data availability**

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233 The data set available from the National Agricultural Library at website
234 <https://data.nal.usda.gov/search/type/dataset> (DOI: 10.15482/USDA.ADC/1358583). It includes short
235 description and methods, data dictionary, geographic information, hydrological, erosion, and vegetation data
236 files, and a set of sites and plot images.

237

238 **6. Conclusion**

239

240 This paper presents the results of 272 rainfall simulation experiments on small plots in semi-arid
241 rangelands of southwestern USA. The experiments spanning 12 years were conducted in Arizona and Nevada in
242 four MLRAs (28B, 38-1, 41-1, 41-3) and represented four ecological sites (Clay loam upland, Limy upland,
243 Loamy slope, Loamy upland). These sites are characterized by coarse gravely soils and annual precipitation of
244 250 to 500 mm.

245 The simulations were conducted under a wide range of rainfall intensities (60 mm h⁻¹ to 180 mm h⁻¹) on
246 plots with a variety of slopes (4% to 40%), ground cover (22% to 99%), and foliar cover (0-85%). Many of the
247 locations have been affected by grazing, wildfire, or brush treatment and were in various stages of recovery or
248 ecological transition during the experiments. Repeat multi-year simulations and detailed vegetation and land
249 management records place the results in a broader ecological context, rare for this type of studies.

250 Runoff and erosion rates on plots were affected by high heterogeneity and complex spatial structure of
251 rangeland sites. Gravelly soils often develop a surface rock layer with increased roughness resulting in complex
252 hydrological interactions. Hence, variability between replicated plots was greater than typically observed on
253 cultivated fields. The variation in sediment yield during runs was also significant, suggesting that 3 runoff
254 samples may not be enough to accurately characterize a steady state sediment yield at a given rainfall rate. In a
255 small number of simulations run-on flow rates were unknown as previously described. Care must be taken when
256 scaling the results to a hill slope or watershed size. Although the simulator was shielded from wind while in
257 operation some wind interference should not be discounted.

258 The scope of this data set combined with state of the art rainfall simulation equipment makes it
259 particularly valuable to advance our understanding of basic erosion and transport processes specific to arid
260 rangelands. Orthogonal photographs of the plots provide basis for cover structure and connectivity analysis. The
261 data can be used to evaluate and compare management practices, and study ecological states, transitions and
262 thresholds. It can also support erosion model development and validation.

263

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269



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286

287 **Figure captions**

288

289 Figure 1. Walnut Gulch Rainfall Simulator.

290 Figure 2. Breakthrough curve of electrolyte solution in runoff at 150 mm h⁻¹ rainfall intensity.

291 Figure 3. Typical hydrograph of a rainfall simulation run.

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295 **Tables**

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297 Table 1. Summary of rainfall simulation sites.

298

| Location | Site ID | Coordinates | | MLRA | Vegetation type | Soil texture | Plot N | Average slope, % | Simulation years |
|-------------------|-----------|-------------|------------|------------|-----------------|-------------------------|-----------|------------------|------------------------------|
| | | Latitude | Longitude | | | | | | |
| Audubon Ranch | EM | 31.589794 | -110.48768 | 41-3 | perennial grass | sandy loam | 4 | 13.0 | 2002, 2003, 2004 |
| | PC | 31.585556 | -110.52750 | 41-3 | perennial grass | gravely loam | 8 | 8.0 | 2002, 2003, 2004, 2006 |
| Empire Ranch | ER1 | 31.708600 | -110.58840 | 41-3 | perennial grass | gravely loam | 4 | 12.9 | 2003 |
| | ER2 | 31.708600 | -110.58840 | 41-3 | perennial grass | gravely loam | 8 | 12.9 | 2003, 2007, 2010, 2013 |
| | ER3 | 31.764270 | -110.55947 | 41-3 | perennial grass | gravely loam | 12 | 13.3 | 2005, 2006, 2009, 2013 |
| | ER4G | 31.795705 | -110.61760 | 41-3 | perennial grass | gravely loam | 8 | 4.7 | 2006, 2010, 2013 |
| | ER4S | 31.795644 | -110.61870 | 41-3 | shrub | gravely loam | 4 | 4.3 | 2006, 2007, 2010, 2013 |
| Porter Canyon | ER5 | 31.756388 | -110.67916 | 41-3 | perennial grass | gravely loam | 4 | 6.3 | 2010 |
| | PCE | 39.463703 | -117.62154 | 28B | juniper | very gravely loam | 6 | 35.8 | 2009 |
| San Rafael Valley | PCW | 39.463841 | -117.62253 | 28B | juniper | cobbly sandy loam | 4 | 23.5 | 2009 |
| | Ab | 31.441152 | -110.52191 | 41-1 | oak savanna | gravely loam | 8 | 10.3 | 2003, 2004, 2005, 2007 |
| | SA | 31.390278 | -110.64945 | 41-1 | oak savanna | gravely loam | 8 | 16.1 | 2005, 2006, 2009 |
| | Ta | 31.413741 | -110.63900 | 41-3 | perennial grass | very gravely loam | 8 | 25.4 | 2004, 2005, 2007 |
| WGEW | Wi | 31.452168 | -110.63390 | 41-3 | perennial grass | gravely loam | 8 | 8.4 | 2006, 2007, 2010 |
| | K2 | 31.736116 | -109.94335 | 41-3 | perennial grass | gravely fine sandy loam | 8 | 10.8 | 2005, 2007, 2008, 2010, 2013 |
| | K3 | 31.736116 | -109.94335 | 41-3 | perennial grass | gravely fine sandy loam | 8 | 9.7 | 2008 |
| | CR | 31.684345 | -109.99314 | 41-3 | shrub | gravely sandy loam | 6 | 14.7 | 2009 |
| | LH1 | 31.740670 | -110.05330 | 41-3 | shrub | gravely sandy loam | 6 | 15.8 | 2003, 2007 |
| | LH2 | 31.740670 | -110.05330 | 41-3 | shrub | gravely sandy loam | 8 | 7.8 | 2008 |
| | LH3 | 31.741970 | -110.05440 | 41-3 | shrub | gravely sandy loam | 4 | 8.4 | 2004 |
| | Young, AZ | Yg1 | 34.178203 | -110.98083 | 38-1 | perennial grass | clay loam | 8 | 12.7 |
| Yg2 | | 34.178891 | -110.98081 | 38-1 | perennial grass | clay loam | 8 | 8.8 | 2011, 2012 |
| Yg3 | | 34.185290 | 110.92450 | 38-1 | treated juniper | clay loam | 8 | 5.2 | 2012 |

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300



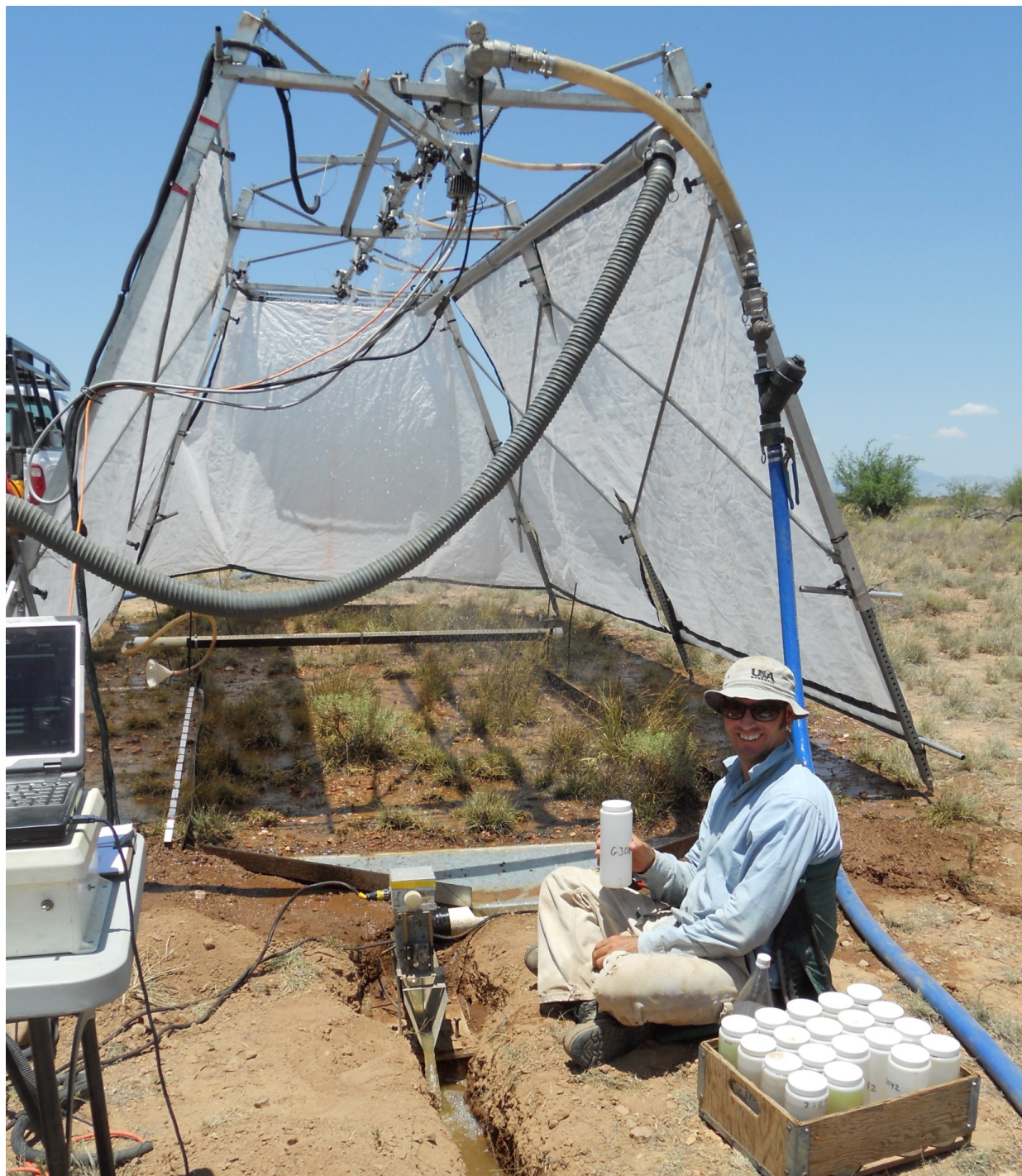
301 Table 2. An example of rainfall simulation data organization.

302

| Site ID | Plot condition | Plot # | Year | Month | Day | Run Type | Run Time | Precipitation | Run-on flow | Runoff Discharge | Sediment Concentration | Sediment Discharge | Flow surface | velocity mean |
|---------|----------------|--------|------|-------|-----|----------|----------|---------------|-------------|------------------|------------------------|--------------------|--------------|---------------|
| | | | | | | | min | mm/h | mm/h | mm/h | % | g/s | m/s | m/s |
| ER2 | N | 1 | 2013 | 7 | 30 | DRY | 0 | 73.66 | 0.00 | 0.00 | N/A | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| ER2 | N | 1 | 2013 | 7 | 30 | DRY | 6.33 | 73.66 | 0.00 | 0.00 | N/A | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... |
| ER2 | N | 1 | 2013 | 7 | 30 | DRY | 40 | 73.66 | 0.00 | 9.44 | 0.28 | 0.09 | N/A | N/A |
| ER2 | N | 1 | 2013 | 7 | 30 | DRY | 45 | 0 | 0.00 | 9.44 | 0.16 | 0.05 | N/A | N/A |
| ER2 | N | 1 | 2013 | 7 | 30 | DRY | 45.67 | 0 | 0.00 | 3.90 | 0.08 | 0.01 | N/A | N/A |
| ER2 | N | 1 | 2013 | 7 | 30 | DRY | 46.33 | 0 | 0.00 | 0.00 | N/A | 0.00 | N/A | N/A |
| ER2 | N | 1 | 2013 | 7 | 30 | WET | 0 | 73.66 | 0.00 | 0.00 | N/A | N/A | N/A | N/A |
| ER2 | N | 1 | 2013 | 7 | 30 | WET | 4.58 | 73.66 | 0.00 | 0.00 | N/A | N/A | N/A | N/A |
| ER2 | N | 1 | 2013 | 7 | 30 | WET | 46 | 153.42 | 0.00 | 108.90 | 0.13 | 0.50 | N/A | N/A |
| ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... |
| ER2 | N | 1 | 2013 | 7 | 30 | WET | 48 | 153.42 | 0.00 | 108.90 | 0.12 | 0.45 | 0.084 | 0.031 |
| ER2 | N | 1 | 2013 | 7 | 30 | WET | 50 | 153.42 | 0.00 | 108.90 | 0.14 | 0.51 | N/A | N/A |
| ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... |

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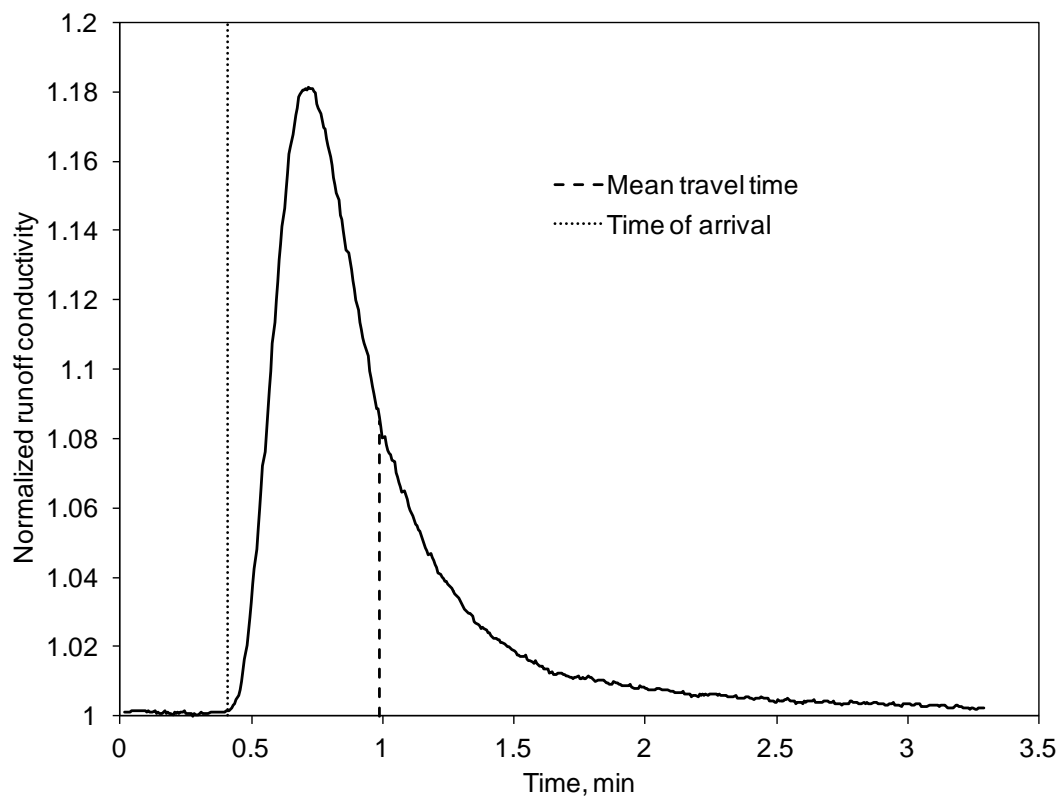


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Figure 1. Walnut Gulch Rainfall Simulator.



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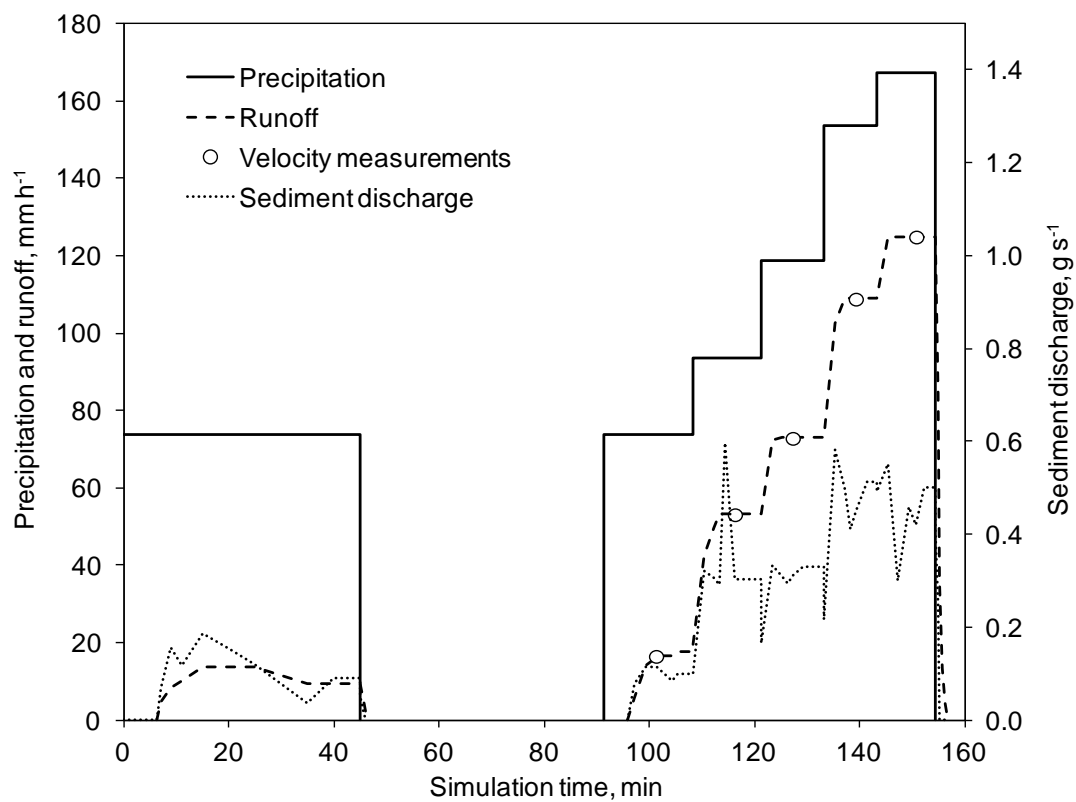
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Figure 2. Electrolyte solution breakthrough curve in plot runoff at 150 mm h^{-1} intensity.



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Figure 3. Typical hydrograph of a rainfall simulation run.

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