

Anthropocene in the Geomorphology
of the Sonoran Desert

by

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ABSTRACT

Human endeavors move 7x more volume of earth than the world's rivers accelerating the removal of Earth's soil surface. Measuring anthropogenic acceleration of soil erosion requires knowledge of natural rates through the study of ^{10}Be , but same-watershed comparisons between anthropogenically-accelerated and natural erosion rates do not exist for urbanizing watersheds. Here I show that urban sprawl from 1989 to 2013 accelerated soil erosion between 1.3x and 15x above natural rates for different urbanizing watersheds in the metropolitan Phoenix region, Sonoran Desert, USA, and that statistical modeling a century of urban sprawl indicates an acceleration of only 2.7x for the Phoenix region. Based on studies of urbanization's erosive effects, and studies comparing other land-use changes to natural erosion rates, we expected a greater degree of urban acceleration. Given that continued urban expansion will add a new city of a million every five days until 2050, given the potential importance of urban soils for absorbing anthropogenically-released carbon, and given the role of urban-sourced pollution, quantifying urbanization's acceleration of natural erosion in other urban settings could reveal important regional patterns. For example, a comparison of urban watersheds to nearby non-urban watersheds suggests that the Phoenix case study is on the low-end of the urban acceleration factor. This new insight into the urban acceleration of soil erosion in metropolitan Phoenix can help reduce the acute risk of flooding for many rapidly urbanizing desert cities around the globe. To reduce this risk, properly engineered Flood Control Structures must account for sediment accumulation as well as flood waters. While the Phoenix area used regional data from non-urban, non-desert watersheds to generate sediment yield rates, this research presents a new analysis of empirical data for

the Phoenix metropolitan region, where two regression models provide estimates of a more realistic sediment accumulation for arid regions and also urbanization of a desert cities. The new model can be used to predict the realistic sediment accumulation for helping provide data where few data exists in parts of arid Africa, southwest Asia, and India.

DEDICATION

For my family

For my friends

For Ron

and for Hyerin

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Since Greek and Roman times, western scholarship rarely focused on the negative aspects of human modification of Earth's surface; instead, much of western thought lauded the virtues of humans taming wilderness (Glacken, 1967). Then, George Perkins Marsh (Marsh, 1864), among others, initiated the sustainability movement, highlighting the role of humans on Earth's physical geography.

Humans have been an important driver of reconfiguring the terrestrial surface of the Earth by altering its morphology and processes. Human alterations in land use/cover influences the dynamics of hillslope hydrology, sediment production, sediment transport, and delivery of sediment to the upper reaches of streams. These changes can in turn effect river channel morphology, as water and sediment transport in hillslope-river systems are closely linked (Vanacker et al., 2005). Humans, thus, enhance 'the skinning of our planet' (Montgomery, 2007). As an agent of denudation, on a global basis, human move Earth materials up to seven times more than the world's river carry sediment into the ocean (Hooke 1994; Douglas and Lawson, 2001; Goudie and Viles, 2016). Furthermore, as technology continues to improve, so does the ability of humans to alter Earth's surface (Haff, 2010).

The effect of human activities on the physical landscape, however, show substantially uneven geographical patterns (Hooke, 1999). Activities in the USA, for example, has moved some 7.5 times the materials transported in the United Kingdom

(Hooke 1994; Douglas and Lawson, 2001; Goudie and Viles, 2016). This spatial variability in the impact of the Anthropocene effect largely depends on how long humans have been modifying a landscape, the intensity and frequency of human disturbances, and landscape sensitivity (i.e. the ability that landscape processes can mitigate impacts of human disturbances). Thus, approaching research at different scales, from local to regional, is essential for assessing anthropogenic impacts on landforms and the operation of geomorphological processes.

Most anthropomorphic studies regarding human-induced denudation have focused on areas with a long history of human modifications, and it naturally follows that researchers will encounter substantial human impact on landscapes. However, soil erosion is a critical issue in locations with fairly recent human activity, such as rapidly growing cities in arid regions. Soil erosion can be particularly detrimental in deserts, because the loss of surface materials reduces available plant water and soil productivity by removing nutrient-rich surface horizons (Overby and Baker Jr., 1995). Reduced plant cover increases overland flow, that in turn strips these surface horizons, possibly leading to gully incision or mass wasting and eventually further destabilization of landscapes. Removed soil from hillslopes is conveyed into upper reaches of streams and these sediments can be a major water pollutant in the United States (National Research Council, 1998).

Prior to human settlements in Phoenix metropolitan region, extensive areas once hosted desert pavements, biological soil crusts (Allen, 2005, 2010), and interlocking colluvium on steeper slopes that provided a net-armoring effect (Bowker et al., 2008; Granger et al., 2001; Seong et al., 2016a). Only patches of the

armored surfaces currently remain, providing glimpses into the original land surfaces due to the enhanced disturbance by anthropogenic impacts including periods of cattle grazing, periods of road building and home construction, and other influences, such as off-road vehicles (Jeong et al., 2018a).

Measuring human amplification of soil erosion requires an understanding of natural background erosion rates (Gellis et al., 2004), but it is challenging because traditional methods to measure sediment yield using sediment loads in the stream or reservoir do not always reflect background rates of erosion (Trimble, 1977). Furthermore, even contemporary data are unfortunately rare that can inform on long-term sediment yield reflecting land use/cover changes on arid and semiarid watersheds that can provide an integrated measure of soil erosion, sediment transport, and deposition (Nichols, 2006). Sediment yield data from the last two decades collected from stock ponds in north-central Sonoran Desert presents an opportunity to understand influences of anthropogenic variables on erosion rates in the last two decades, north-central Sonoran Desert. Concentrations of *in situ*-produced ^{10}Be measured in fluvial sediments from the same watersheds, there exists an opportunity to compare anthropogenic soil erosion to catchment wide denudation rates (CWDR) over timescales of 10^3 to 10^5 years (von Blanckenburg, 2006).

This dissertation focuses on developing an understanding soil erosion in piedmont settings (e.g. pediment, alluvial fan) of what is now the Phoenix metropolitan region. I analyze three very different time periods for the same watersheds. First, catchment-wide denudation rates derived from cosmogenic ^{10}Be provides insight into

natural erosion rates for 18 watersheds. Then, historic soil erosion measurements include a time of cattle grazing. The third time slice focuses on the period of urban sprawl exposing bare ground (Gober and Trapido-Lurie, 2005; Sheridan, 2007). Ultimately, this dissertation seeks to better understand anthropogenic impacts on landforms and the operation of geomorphological processes on the alluvial fan and pediment piedmonts of the Sonoran Desert.

This dissertation is structured into six chapters. This chapter 1 provides a basic overview of the larger research question, while the bookend chapter 6 is a conclusion presenting brief synopsis of the overall research findings. The four middle chapters are focused for publication in appropriate venues to distribute the research.

Chapter 2 is a book chapter published in a book *Urban geomorphology: Landforms and Processes in Cities*. Chapter 2 with collaborators Suet Yi Cheung, Dr. Ian Walker, and Dr. Ronald Dorn. This chapter provides the geomorphic setting of the dissertation study area and overviews the impact of the Anthropocene in the Phoenix metropolitan region. The proposed new geological Epoch called the Anthropocene has been minimally studied in warm desert settings. In the Phoenix area, much of the anthropogenic impacts derive from cattle crazing, wildfire that results from introduced grass species, and urbanization processes, such as road building and home construction.

Chapter 3 is a paper published in the peer-reviewed journal *Land degradation & development*. This paper was co-authored with Dr. Ronald Dorn and presents a two-decade long record of erosion dataset at the sprawling edge of the Phoenix metropolitan

region. These data reveal that anthropogenic activities led to an overall increase in erosion process intensity in the Phoenix metropolitan region.

Chapter 4 is a manuscript currently in review in *Environmental Research Letters*. This manuscript presents a model to forecast reliable sediment yield under the condition of urban sprawl. The idea is that rapidly urbanizing desert cities need to construct appropriately sized flood control structures (e.g. dams) to reduce the impact of flooding hazards. This chapter does not focus on the water aspect of these structures, but rather on the sediment accumulated, because the sediment volume is an important design parameter for flood control structure design. Unlike water volume, that can be drained off by spillways, sediment volume behind the flood control structure is continuously stored, and this storage reduces the life expectancy of the flood control structure. Flood risk reductions are a crucial goal for rapidly urbanizing desert cities to become economically, socially, and environmentally more resilient, and the proposed model in this chapter is cost-efficient and simple, so it will improve sustainable flood control structure construction in rapidly urbanizing desert cities in lesser developed settings in Africa, Middle East, India, and Asia where limited data on soil erosion exists.

Chapter 5 is a working draft for submission to the peer-reviewed journal *Nature Geoscience*. This draft presents the first comparison of soil erosion from urbanization to natural background rates of erosion measured through cosmogenic ^{10}Be catchment-wide denudation rates. This chapter also includes statistical modeling of the urban acceleration of erosion for the entire Phoenix metropolitan region, and then this urban acceleration is

compared to cities in non-arid settings. This chapter is written in collaboration with Dr. Dylan Connor, Dr. Ronald Dorn, and Dr. Yeong Bae Seong.

CHAPTER 2

URBAN GEOMORPHOLOGY OF AN ARID CITY:

CASE STUDY OF PHOENIX, ARIZONA

(PUBLISHED IN *URBAN GEOMORPHOLOGY: LANDFORMS AND PROCESSES IN CITIES*)

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ABSTRACT

The urban metropolis of Phoenix, Arizona, USA rests on classic desert landforms, including extensive areas of pediments, alluvial fans, sand sheets, and former areas of desert pavement. The Phoenix area landforms exemplify classic desert geomorphic processes, such as rock varnish accretion, dirt cracking, desert pavement formation, rock fall, debris flows, high magnitude- low frequency flooding events, and pedimentation. Recent urban expansion has pushed housing up against the base of steep desert slopes that are capable of generating debris flows, rock falls, and rockslides. Other geomorphic hazards experienced by urbanism in the desert include dust storms and flash flooding. The Phoenix metropolitan region offers an opportunity to explore the impact of the Anthropocene, as the proposed new geological Epoch defined by the human imprint, in warm desert setting impacted by cattle crazing, wildfire that results from introduced grass species, and urbanization processes, such as road building and home construction.

SONORAN DESERT SETTING OF THE PHOENIX METROPOLITAN AREA

The present day climate and vegetation of the Phoenix metropolitan region (Figure 2.1) resembles much of the rest of the Sonoran Desert in central Arizona, USA. Annual precipitation displays a bimodal distribution with summer and winter maxima. Summer convective thunderstorms occur during the July-September Mexican Monsoon. Winter frontal rainfall derives from Pacific cyclones. Mean annual precipitation tends to be evenly split between winter and summer, averaging about 200 mm. The arid climate is typified by a distinct biogeography typical of the Sonoran Desert. Trees include palo verde (*Parkinsonia microphylla*), ironwood (*Olneya tesota*), and elephant tree (*Bursera microphylla*). Common desert scrub vegetation includes creosote bush (*Larrea tridentata*), brittlebush (*Encelia farinosa*), triangle-leaf bursage (*Ambrosia deltoidea*), catclaw acacia (*Acacia greggii*), desert globe mallow (*Sphaeralcia ambigua*), ocotillo (*Fouquieria splendens*). Succulents occur in great variety notably the iconic saguaro (*Carnegiea gigantea*), barrel (*Ferocactus cylindraceus*) and hedgehog (*Echinosocereus engelmannii*) cacti that are abundant throughout the natural landscape.

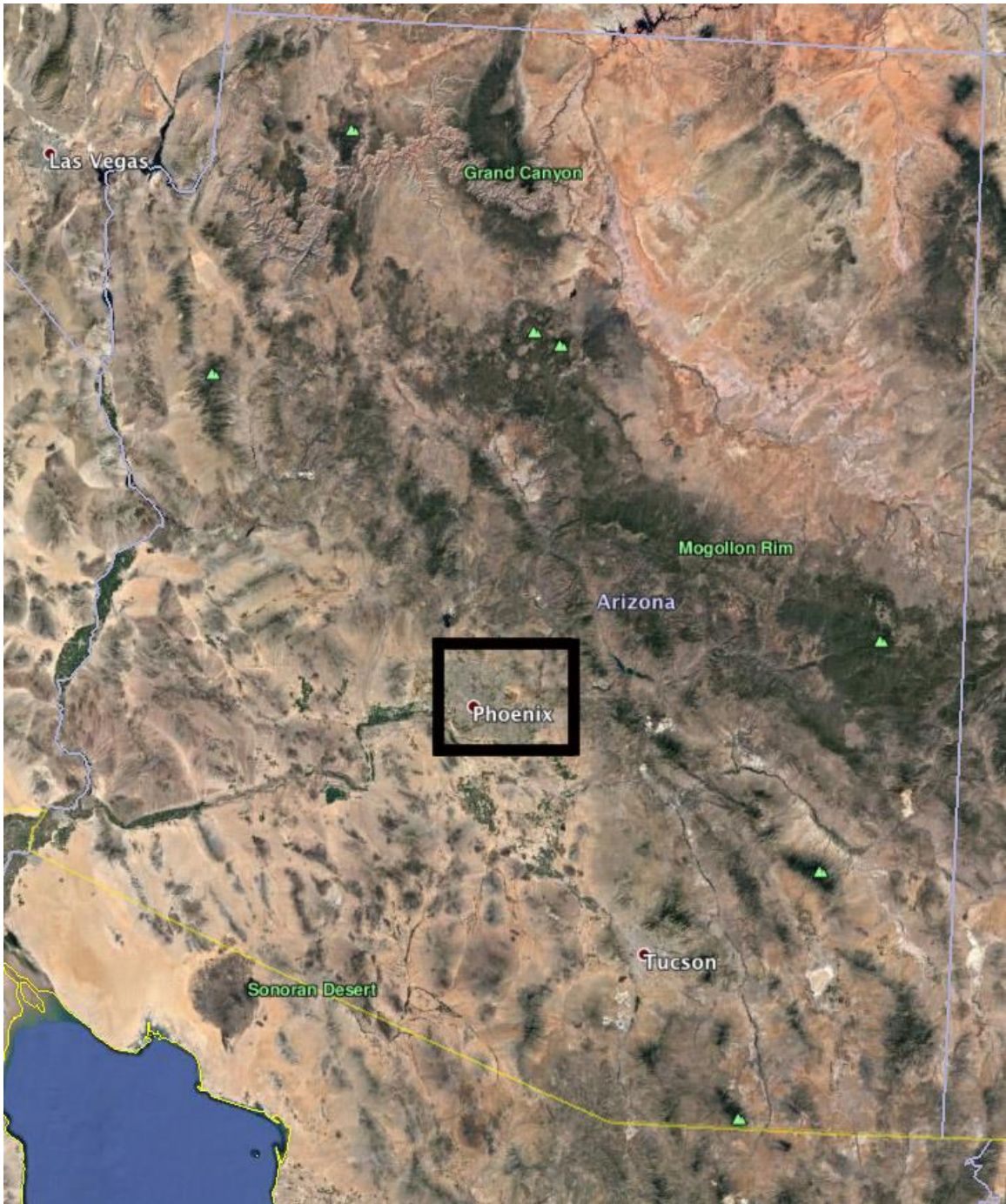


Figure 2.1. The state of Arizona as seen in Google Earth. The black box identifies the metropolitan Phoenix region as framed in Figure 2.2. Phoenix is situated in the northeastern corner of the Sonoran Desert. The forested highlands of the Mogollon Rim to the northeast provide much of the water for metropolitan Phoenix, funneled by the Verde and Salt River drainages.

Pollen and packrat midden studies in the Sonoran Desert and adjacent areas suggests the region did not become a desert until the Holocene, and it was not a desert in the latest Pleistocene. Pollen records in northern Baja California from 44 to 13 ka reveal the presence of pines, junipers, and sagebrush in that area indicating more humid and cooler conditions (Lozano-García et al., 2002). Packrat midden sequences in the Sonoran Desert indicate the presence of the dwarf conifers *Juniper osteosperma* and *Pinus monophylla* in the lower Sonoran Desert in this same late Pleistocene time range (Allen et al., 1998; McAuliffe and van Devender, 1998; van Devender, 1990). Thus, abundant evidence of a wetter and cooler time generated more extensive vegetation in the last glacial period and perhaps previous glacial cycles.

The geology of the Phoenix area underwent major crustal extension during the mid-Tertiary. This crustal extension resulted from the release of compressional stress after the Laramide mountain building period (Coney and Harms, 1984; Holt et al., 1986; Nations and Stump, 1981). This extension generated basin and range topography that developed between about 25 and 8 Ma. As a part of this extension, major rhyolite caldera eruptions started about 20 Ma, and metamorphic core complexes also domed up before most volcanic activity and extension finally ceased around 8 Ma (Reynolds, 1985; Spencer, 1984). The net result is a bedrock geology that mixes intrusive igneous granitic rocks, foliated metamorphic blocks, as well as extensive outcrops of rhyolitic welded tuff from major eruption episodes during extension (Figure 2.2).



Figure 2.2. Geological map of bedrock ranges in the metropolitan Phoenix draped on a Google Earth oblique image. The mapping units derive from the Arizona Geological Survey (Richards et al., 2000), but are generalized here to help visualize isolated bedrock mountainous areas: intrusive igneous (pink), extrusive igneous (red), metamorphic (green), and mid-Tertiary sedimentary rocks (gray). Most urban space, thus, rests on Quaternary sediment ranging from Pliocene to Holocene in age.

The geomorphic landscapes of the Phoenix area contain a mixture of classic desert landforms. Bedrock landforms depend greatly upon the rock type. Granitic forms include classic domed inselbergs or bornhardts where jointing is far apart, but more complex landscapes where the jointing density increases and influences biotic communities (Seong et al., 2016b). Metamorphic slopes tend to host debris-flow chutes

and levees (Dorn, 2012). Rhyolitic welded tuff deposits of the Superstition volcanic field (Stuckless and Sheridan, 1971) develop more massive cliff faces.

The nature of piedmont slopes in front of the ranges depends on drainage area. Larger ranges have sufficient drainages to develop alluvial fans or alluvial slopes (Applegarth, 2004), whereas bedrock pediments form in front of smaller mountain masses (Kesel, 1977). The low relief areas now occupied by the urban scape of the Phoenix metropolitan area (Figure 2.2) consist of the distal ends of pediments, the distal end of alluvial fans, aeolian sand sheets, and alluvial deposits.

An individual walking on these landforms, before massive land-use change associated with cattle grazing and urban expansion, would have experienced very different surface conditions than found by the average hiker today. Extensive areas once hosted desert pavements, biological soil crusts (Nagy et al., 2005), and interlocking colluvium on steeper slopes, providing a net armoring effect (Bowker et al., 2008; Granger et al., 2001; Seong et al., 2016a). Today, only patches of such armored surfaces remain, providing glimpses into the original land surfaces. Thus, this chapter attempts to give the reader a sense of the geomorphology that once was (and still exists in a few places) and a desert geomorphology influenced by the Anthropocene (Waters et al., 2016) and its urban footprint.

COMMON DESERT GEOMORPHIC PROCESSES IN THE PHOENIX METROPOLITAN AREA

This section presents some of the more important desert geomorphic processes that occur in the Phoenix area. The section starts with processes related to rock decay (weathering) rock coatings and soils. The second section explores how aeolian, fluvial, and human activities interact in the fringe of the Phoenix urban area. The third section overviews mass-wasting processes on the steep slopes of desert mountain ranges in the middle of Phoenix. Much of the Phoenix metropolitan region is built on pediments, and the fourth section explains that the Phoenix area is truly unique in terms of the occurrence of pediments in several different rock types.

ROCK DECAY, ROCK COATINGS, AND SOILS

Dirt cracking is the dominant process of physical weathering in the Phoenix area. Any random rock fracture, when pried open, reveals evidence of the dirt-cracking process (Dorn, 2011; Ollier, 1965). A combination of laminar calcrete precipitation and the wetting and drying of dust accumulated in fractures gradually opens fissures to the point where spalling occurs. Unlike other forms of physical weathering, dirt cracking leaves behind visual evidence of the process. Laminar calcrete coats the walls along the narrowest parts of a fissure, which is a space wide enough for capillary water to penetrate that leads to calcium carbonate precipitation, but not dust infiltration. Eventually, the fracture widens enough to allow dust to infiltrate. Iron films coat the walls, where dust penetrated and remains in contact with rock surfaces. Iron from the dust and clays from

the dust result in iron films that are typically less than 10 μm thick. Black rock varnish forms a rim around the margins of the fracture, where rainwater has washed away the dust and the removal of this alkaline dust allows manganese-enhancing bacteria to develop and form a coating of rock varnish over the iron film.

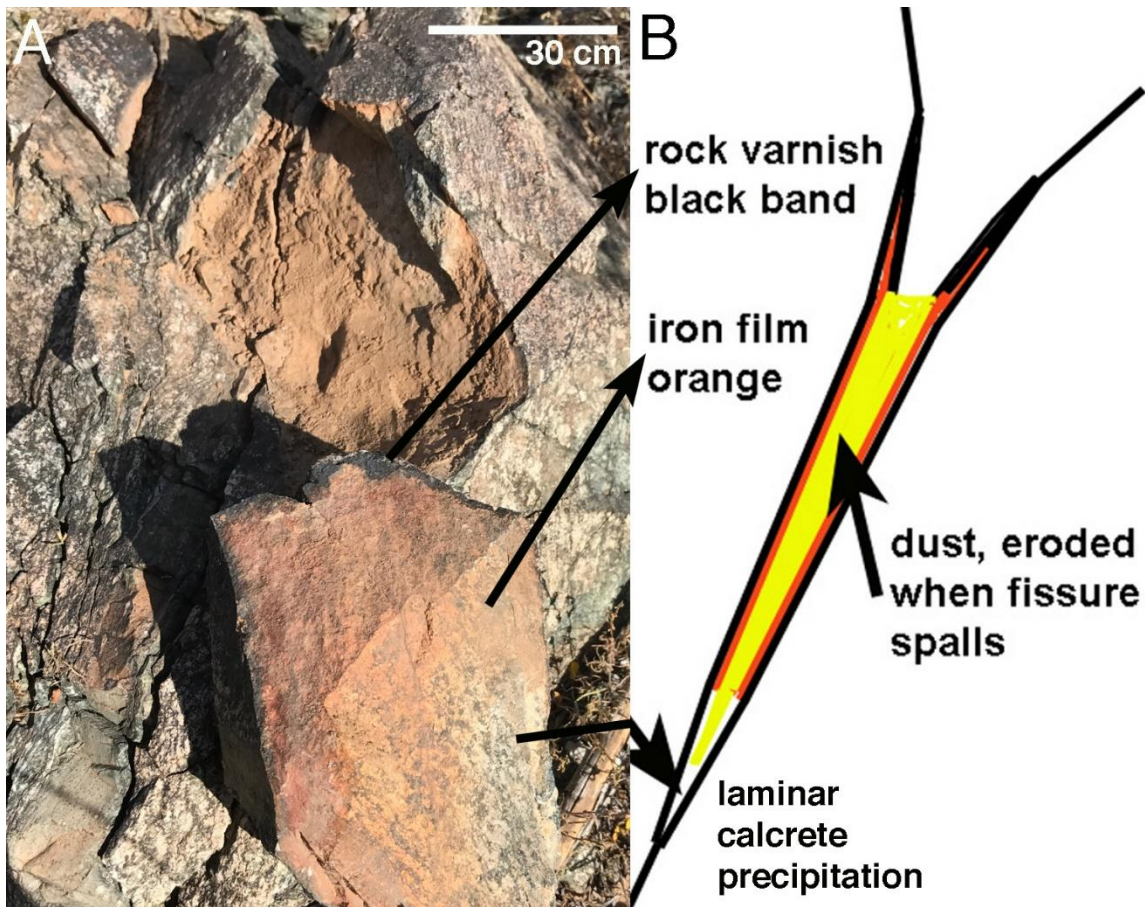


Figure 2.3. Dirt cracking proceeds through both laminar calcrete precipitation and the wetting and drying of dust wedges open rock joints. (A) A 0.5 mm fracture was manually pried open at South Mountain, Phoenix. Dust filled the fracture. The two sides of the fracture display rock coatings diagnostic of fractures experiencing dirt cracking. (B) Idealized diagram of rock coating formation associated with fractures opened by dirt cracking.

Granitic rocks underlay extensive areas of metropolitan Phoenix (Figure 2.2). Thus, classic weathering forms of cores stones, tors, domed inselbergs (bornhardts), and kopje occur throughout the Phoenix area (Figure 2.3). Jointing is particularly important in the morphogenesis of granitic terrains (Molnar et al., 2007). Molnar et al. (2007, p. 12) postulated that jointing rests at the core of geomorphic weakness: “Here we speculate that a corollary to the arguments given above about the role of tectonics as a crusher of rock is that in those places where rock has dodged the rock crusher, it may be stronger and less easily removed by erosive agents” (Molnar et al., 2007, p. 12). Jointing is particularly important in arid weathering-limited landscapes (Abrahams et al., 1985; Howard and Selby, 2009; Viles, 2013).

Core stones and tors are common in the wealthier areas of metropolitan Phoenix, such as north Scottsdale, Fountain Hills, and east Mesa. Core stones are the spheroidal less decayed boulders that emerge at the surface as grus erodes (Figure 2.4B) (Twidale, 1982). Domed inselbergs, also known as bornhardts, are bald, and steep-sided domes with a range of shapes and size (Twidale, 1981) (e.g. Figure 2.4A). Bornhardts like those seen in metropolitan Phoenix (e.g. Figure 2.4A) maintain a lower joint density than the surrounding granite. Meanwhile, the surrounding granitic rocks with high joint density experienced active mineral decay to grus. However, the existing joints in bornhardts eventually do separate, leading to rock slides and eventually collapse into a landform known as a kopje (e.g. Figure 2.4C) similar to those studied in Africa and Australia (Michael et al., 2008).

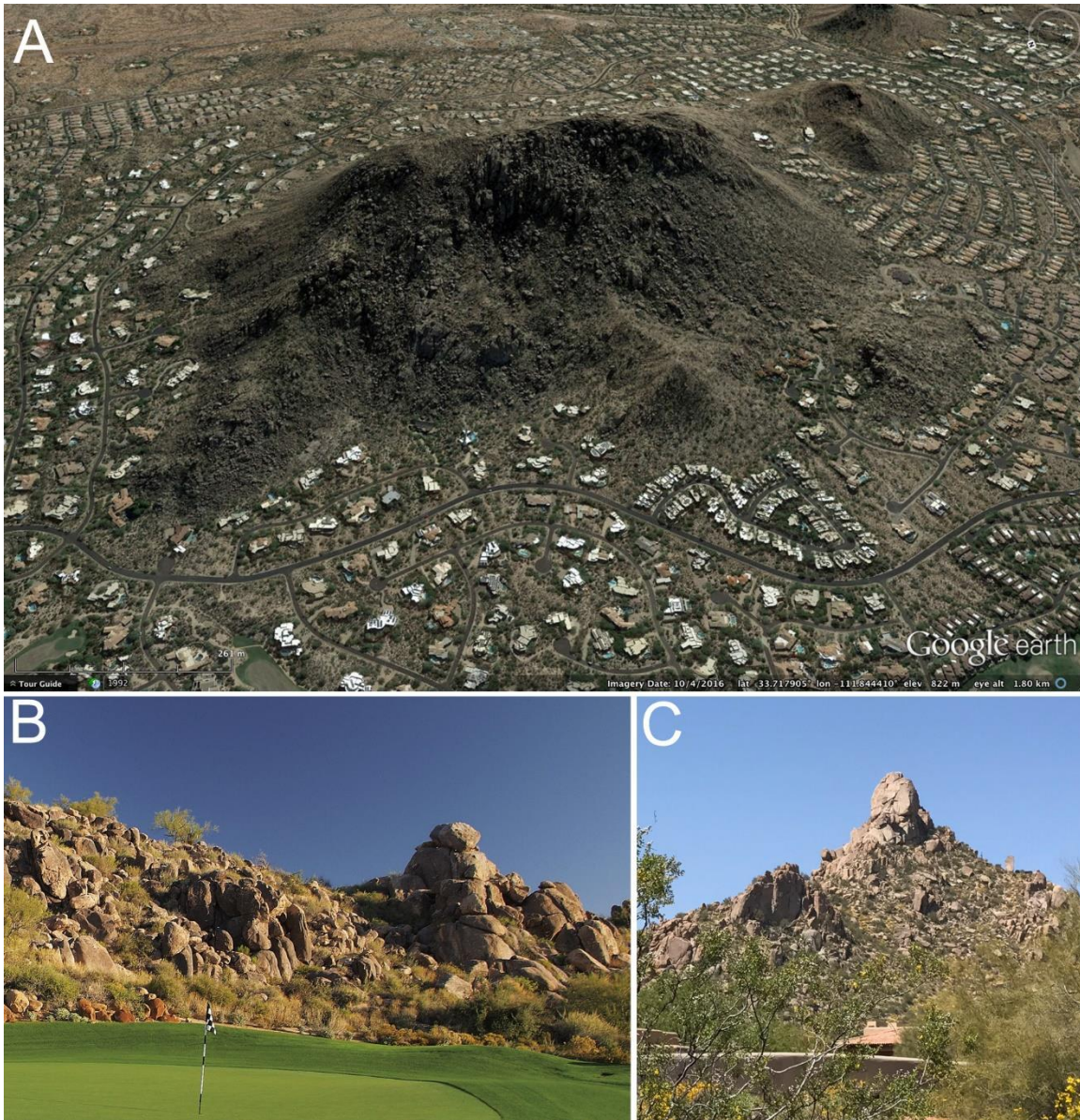


Figure 2.4. Landforms resulting from decay of granite in a desert setting in Scottsdale create an aesthetic setting for the wealthy in metropolitan, Phoenix. (A) Troon Mountain, a bornhardt, is surrounded by large home and mansions. (B) Golf courses place greens adjacent to spheroidal core stones and tors. (C) Large homes and mansions surround the collapsed bornhardt known as Pinnacle Peak, a kopje.

Desert pavements consist of a smooth surface with closely packed, interlocking pebbles, cobbles, and sometimes with scattered boulders (Figure 2.5A). Pavements

provide insight into the antiquity of the underlying landform (Seong et al., 2016a), aid in the preservation of ancient artifacts (Adelsberger et al., 2013), and provide information about environmental history (Dietze et al., 2016) and desert soils (Peterson et al., 1995). Although introductory textbooks often attribute desert pavements to deflation winnowing of fines, the desert pavements in the Phoenix area are not a result of wind erosion. In the case of the entire Sonoran Desert, very little evidence of aeolian abrasion exists (Seong et al., 2016a). For example, desert pavements at South Mountain Preserve, Phoenix, have: coatings of rock varnish that deflation would have abraded away (Figure 2.5A); vesicular Av soil horizons from the accumulation of dust underneath surface clasts (Figures 2.5B and 2.5C); closely spaced clasts separated by silt and clay surfaces; and no evidence of ventifacts.

The desert pavement in the Phoenix area was initiated when floods or debris flows deposited loose and unconsolidated clasts on the surface (Figure 2.5D). Aeolian fines slowly move into the matrix between the large clasts deposits (Figure 2.5C), and the size of clasts become smaller mostly from dirt-cracking processes (Figure 2.3). As dust accumulates and clast sizes decrease, the relief of the original bar-and-swale topography gradually reduces (Figure 2.5E). The key to stable pavements (e.g. Figure 2.5A) in the Phoenix area is: a combination of a relatively flat surface; the accumulation of allochthonous dust; a lack of headward retreating swales or gullies (Seong et al., 2016a); and most critically a minimal amount of human activity as even just one vehicle driving over a pavement surface can do damage (Figure 2.5F).

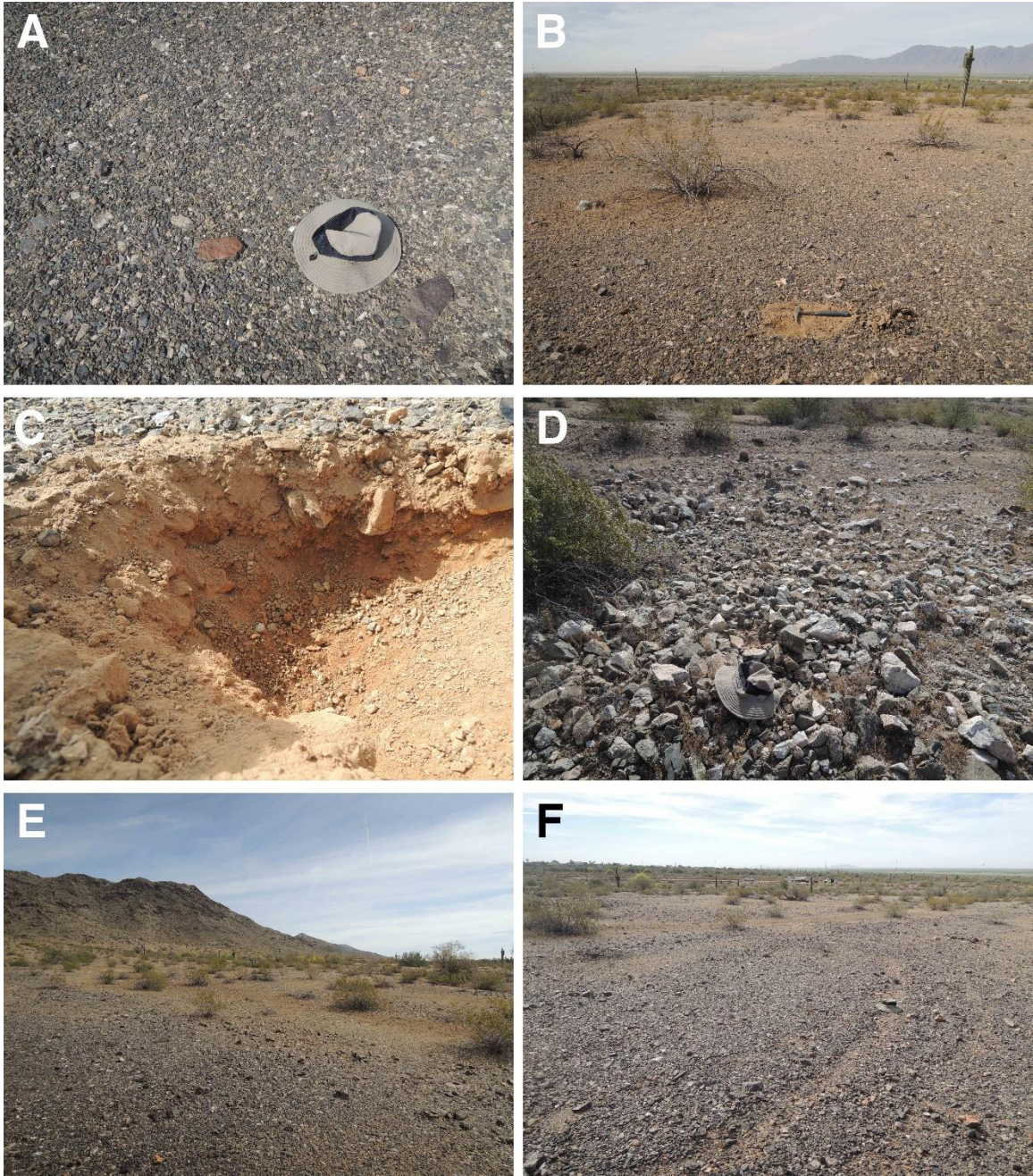


Figure 2.5. Desert pavement surfaces at South Mountain, Phoenix. (A) Pleistocene desert pavement showing weathered clasts that are closely packed and interlocked. (B) Dust accumulation underneath surface clasts seen after removal of the pavement clasts with rock hammer for scale. (C) Vesicular soil horizon termed the Av horizon and the underlying Bk horizon with carbonate-covered clasts. (D) Floods deposit typically maintain a rough bar and swale form. (E) Over time, the relief of the bar-and-swale topography decreases as swales fill in and bars erode. (F) Desert pavement by off-road driving by just one vehicle (arrow).

Biological soil crusts (BSCs) consist of assemblages of living organisms on soil or rock surfaces in arid and semiarid areas. Typically composed of cyanobacteria, fungi, lichens, and algae, they cover a wide variety of undisturbed Sonoran Desert soils (Figure 2.6) and protect desert surfaces from erosional shear stresses imposed by overland flow and strong winds (Allen, 2005, 2010).

When soil is wet, the mucilage of cyanobacteria swell and filaments of cyanobacteria move up toward the soil surface (Belnap et al., 2001). This repeated swelling and frequent movement leaves copious sheath material in the uppermost soil layers that, in turn, maintains soil structure after the BSCs are dehydrated and soil particles become loose (Belnap, 2003). Thus, BSCs and especially filamentous cyanobacteria, adhere to and aggregate with soil particles, and their cohesion increases surface stability and prevents erosion in arid and semiarid lands (Belnap, 2003; Bowker et al., 2008).

Although BSCs are extremely well adapted to the harsh growing conditions in deserts, they can be significantly altered by disturbances, such as grazing, recreational activities (hiking, biking, and off-road driving), and military activities (Belnap and Gillette, 1998) (Figure 2.6). Faist et al. (2017) examined BSC hydrologic responses to disturbance at different crustal development stages on sandy soils on the Colorado Plateau through a simulated rainfall experiment. They found that trampling well-developed dark cyano-lichen-dominated crusts increased total sediment loss by nearly four times in comparison to intact controls during a 30 min simulated precipitation event, suggesting that well-developed, intact dark BSCs generally decrease runoff and sediment

loss and considerably increase aggregate stability (Faist et al., 2017). While BSCs are extremely vulnerable to disturbance, their recovery time can be relatively slow. No growth of BSCs occurred in the central Namib, for example, over an eight year period of observation (Viles, 2008).

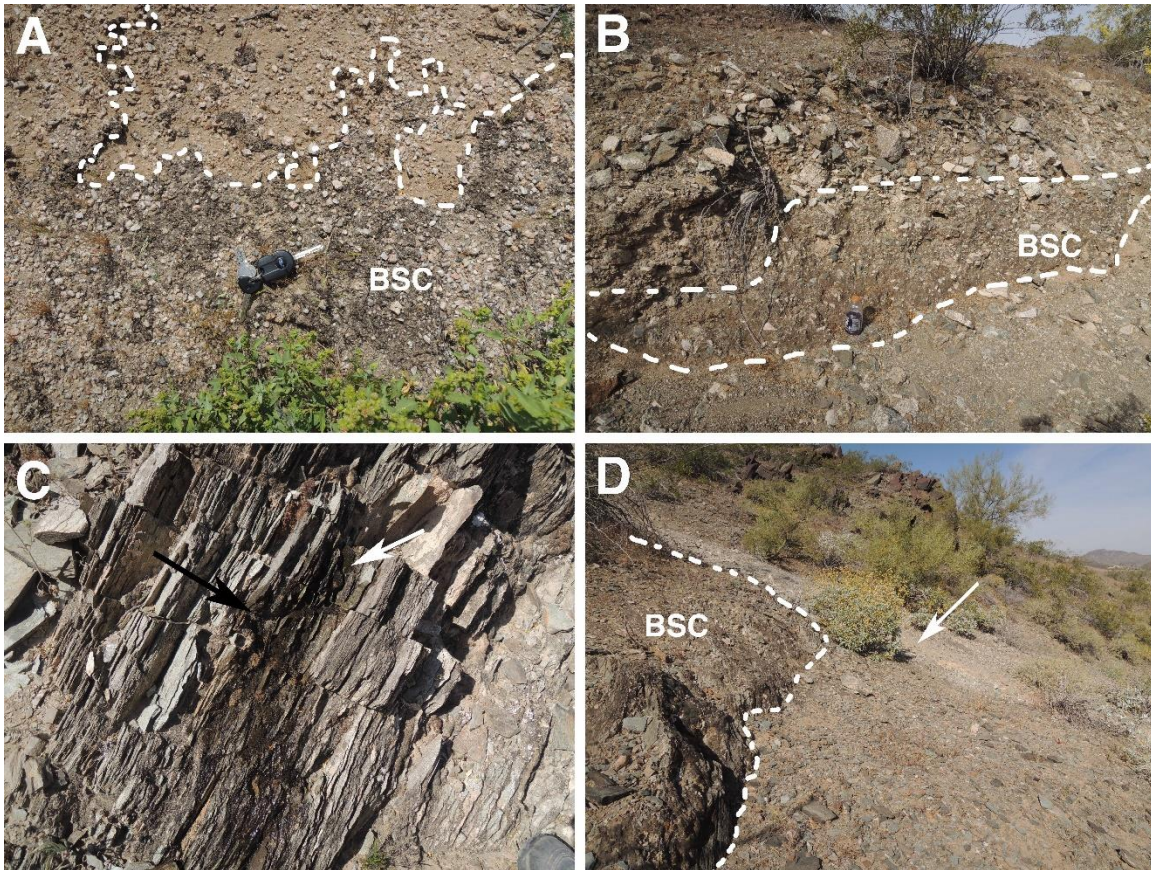


Figure 2.6. Biological crusts on soil and rock surfaces in metropolitan Phoenix. (A) Biological crusts on a soil surface with car keys for scale. The upper portion of the image was disturbed by the compressive force of cattle grazing, although some recovery has occurred as seen in the lower half of the image (underneath dashed line) over the past 12 years since cattle grazing ceased. (B) BSCs growing on the side of the east-facing side of a desert wash, an aspect that reduces exposure to directly sunlight in the warmest part of the day. (C) BSCs on a rock surface, where the surface was wetted resulting in a greening up by the algae (whit arrow), where fungi did not green up (black arrow). (D) BSCs disturbed along a hiking trail, but still evident away from the trail.

A variety of different rock coatings occur throughout the metropolitan Phoenix area, but manganese-rich rock varnish darkens the vast majority of exposed rock faces. Figure 2.7A illustrates the typical appearance of rock varnish. Figure 2.7B presents an ultrathin section of varnish, revealing the presence of fine micrometer-scale laminations or “microlaminations.” These layers form as a result of Holocene and Pleistocene climatic changes (Liu and Broecker, 2007; Liu and Broecker, 2008). Where these layers have been calibrated by independent ages (Liu, 2017), it is possible to assign millennial-scale ages to landforms (Liu and Broecker, 2013). In the case of Figure 2.7C, a varnish started to form about 8.1 ka, indicated by wet Holocene (WH) layer WH9 at the base of the varnish.

Human activity has left a distinct chemical imprint on rock varnishes. The iron and manganese hydroxides that provide the varnish color also scavenged the lead used in gasoline in the early part of the 20th century. This lead accumulates in the surface-most micron of the varnish (Figure 2.7C), as evidenced by electron microprobe measurements (e.g., 0.44% PbO in Figure 2.7C). This is far greater than background levels seen in natural varnish of <0.03% PbO. Although this Anthropocene signal may seem a bad thing at first, representing widespread contamination, the lead actually provides a useful chronometric marker able to identify purely 20th century flooding surfaces as well as authentication of rock engravings (Dorn et al., 2012).

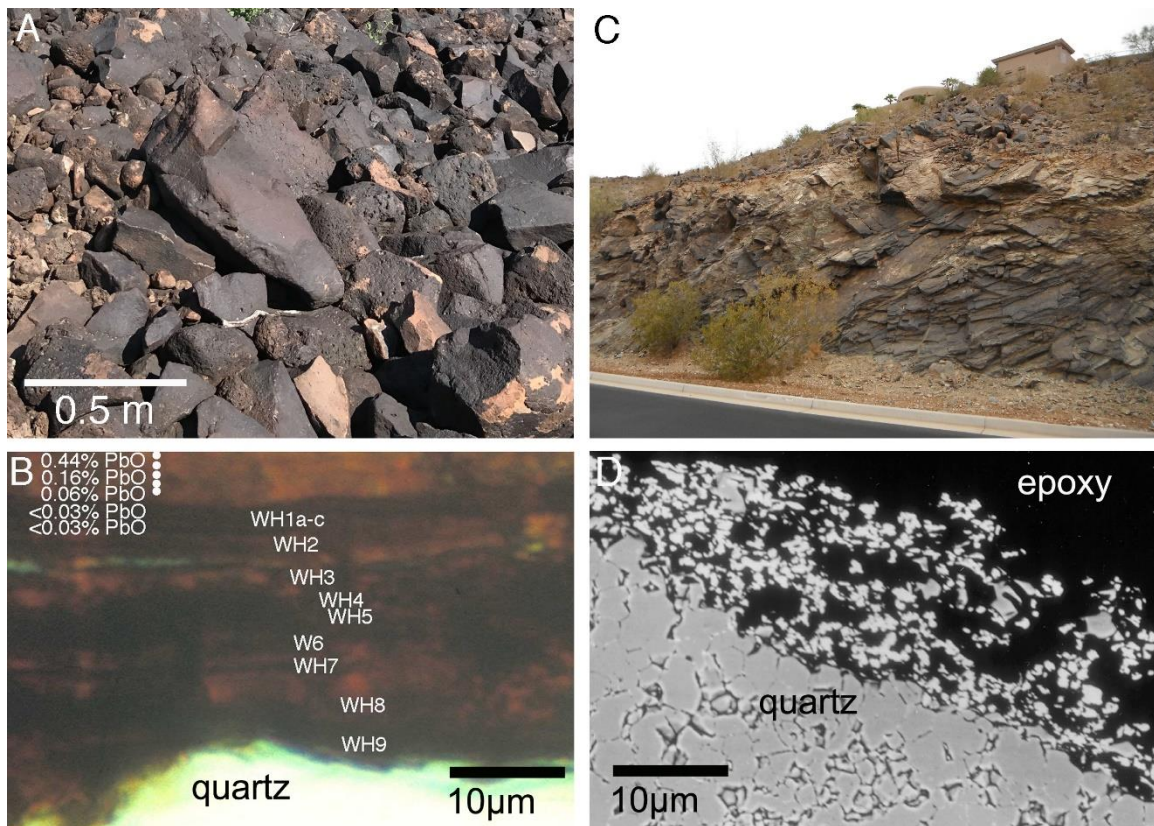


Figure 2.7. Rock varnish as the dominant natural rock coating in metropolitan Phoenix. (A) Colluvial boulder field at Shaw Butte darkened by rock varnish. The occasional orange iron film represents rocks spalled by the dirt cracking process (Figure 2.3). (B) Microlaminations form discrete black, orange, and yellow layers in rock varnish thin sections. (C) Urbanization tends to create scars across rock faces, but developers in affluent communities applied “artificial varnish” to minimize the aesthetic impact of a road cut. (D) Back-scattered electron microscope image of artificial varnish from image C that is experiencing ongoing dissolution, generating the granule-like appearance.

The dominance of rock varnish makes it easy to spot anthropogenic disturbances associated with construction because the underlying rock is always much lighter in color, including basalts. Some developers in affluent communities decided to try an experimental treatment of artificial varnish (Elvidge and Moore, 1980) to reduce the aesthetic impact of road construction, as seen in the road cut shown in Figure 2.7B. This

artificial varnish is slowly dissolving into granules (Figure 2.7D). In contrast to natural varnish, artificial varnish has not been binded with clay minerals that in turn help cement natural varnish to the underlying rock (Dorn and Oberlander, 1982).

INTERPLAY OF AEOLIAN, FULVIAL, AND ANTHROPOGENIC PROCESSES

The interaction between aeolian and fluvial processes can be an important factor in the shaping of dryland environments (Bullard and Livingstone, 2002). Source bordering dunes represent a common landform in many dryland environments, such as dunes closely bordering a river (Page et al., 2001). When these fluvial sediments are exposed to the air during a prolonged dry period, winds are more likely to affect sediment transport, and wind velocity and particle size are critical factors to entrain sediments.

Two large exoreic river systems cross the Phoenix metropolitan area. The Salt River runs through the center, while the Gila River flows along the southern boundary. A small area of source bordering dunes and a sand sheet occurs north of the Gila River (Figure 2.8). Sediments collected from the Gila River show considerably less rounding than sediments collected from the source bordering dunes (Figure 2.9).



Figure 2.8. Source bordering dunes near the Gila River in the southern part of the Phoenix Metropolitan area. Areas denoted by the dashed lines locate areas with distinct dune forms. However, the land between these areas is covered by a sand sheet.

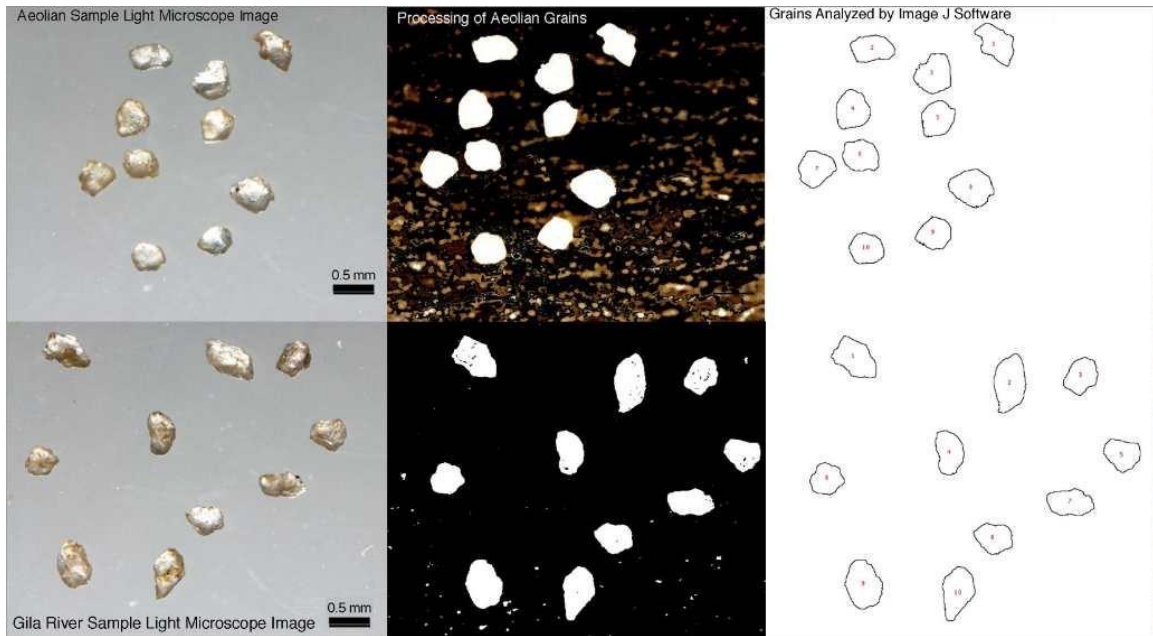


Figure 2.9. Grain size analysis of aeolian and fluvial sediments using the ImageJ software. The aeolian sample (upper row) from source-bordering dunes display more rounding than the fluvial sediments from the Gila River (lower row). The grains are first imaged with light microscopy (left column), then subject to digital image processing (middle column), and the resultant grain perimeter is used by the ImageJ software to generate shape parameters. The result of grain shape analysis shows that the aeolian sediments have a higher value in roundness (0.78–0.79) and a lower ratio in aspect ratio (1.29–1.30) than fluvial sediment that has 0.70–0.72 in roundness and 1.45–1.50 in aspect ratio.

This area experienced a variety of land uses, including cattle grazing, irrigated agriculture, road construction, and the building of subdivisions. Concomitantly, human activities along the Gila River altered the natural river system, hydrological processes, and, thus, sediment supply to these source-bordering dunes. For instance, the construction of the Coolidge Dam in the upper course of Gila River in 1928 greatly reduced the flood frequency and magnitude, so that sediment supply has decreased. At the same time, an invasive species, Tamarisk, invaded the riparian zone of the Gila River and spread

rapidly in the 1900s (Graf, 1988). The presence of Tamarisk affects both aeolian and fluvial processes in terms of reducing the sediments in transport and the shear stress on the soil surface. These anthropogenic effects likely decreased the sediment transport to the Gila source-bordering dunes. However, extreme weather events, such as the 1993 flood in Phoenix, triggered by El Niño, reactivated the formation of sandbars and changed the channel form to a braided stream pattern along the Gila River due to increased sediment supply. Figure 2.10 summarizes some of the major controls influencing the potential supply of sediment along the Gila located next to the dunes.

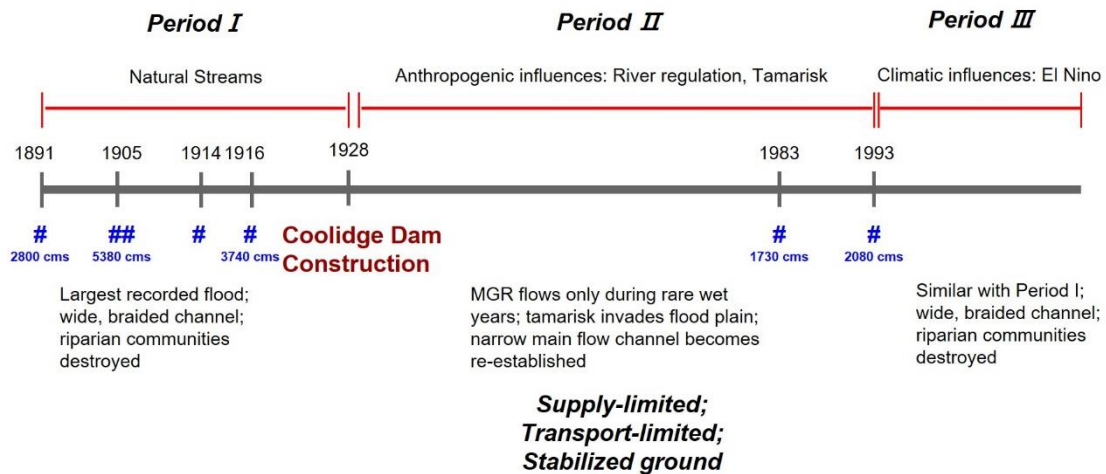


Figure 2.10. Timeline of anthropogenic alteration and large flood events along the Gila River. Period I: Gila River was a natural channel with frequent seasonal flooding. Period II: Anthropogenic activities altered the natural channel system of Gila River, largely reducing sediment supply for both aeolian and fluvial transport as well as flood frequency. Period III: Extreme climatic events caused large floods along the Gila River, reactivated aeolian and fluvial-transport processes due to the increased sediment availability.

Extensive areas of the cities of Chandler, Gilbert, Mesa, and Tempe in the metropolitan area are covered by several meters of fine sandy material. This material

could have been derived in part by aeolian transport from the Gila River. In addition, there are lenses of river-transported gravels and cobbles derived from bordering mountains. Thus, it is likely that aeolian and fluvial processes resulted in a mixture of a sand sheet intercalating with low-energy rivers. Figure 2.11 illustrates an anthropogenic excavation into this mixed interfingering aeolian and fluvial deposit.



Figure 2.11. An excavation exposed a depositional unit between the Salt and the Verde Rivers in metropolitan Phoenix. Some sediments are clearly fluvial with small cobbles, while sandy units show evidence of both fluvial and aeolian transport. 4-m tall Paloverde trees provide scale. The uppermost 1.5 m consists of rock and sand from construction activities.

MASS WASTING

Talus from rock falls and rock slides covers steep slopes of desert mountain ranges throughout the southwestern USA (Melton, 1965; Parsons et al., 2009). Urban expansion in arid regions globally (Cooke et al., 1982) continues to thrust infrastructure at the base of steep desert slopes. This is certainly the case in the Phoenix area (Dorn, 2014; Harris and Pearthree, 2002), where the wealthy build homes right on the margins of

mountain preserves (Ewan et al., 2004) and often beneath steep bare rock faces (Figure 2.12). Chronometric studies of rock fall in the Phoenix area reveal that rock falls occurred throughout the Holocene (Dorn, 2014) and historically in the Anthropocene.



Figure 2.12. Historic rock falls place wealthy homes in potential danger in such areas as Camelback Mountain (A) and the Phoenix Mountains (B).

Debris flows are one of the most hazardous landslide types in any region with steep terrain and precipitation, including the Phoenix area (Dorn, 2012, 2016). Debris flows occur when slopes fail to maintain the equilibrium between gravitational drivings and frictional resisting forces (Iverson, 2005). Thus, debris flows typically occur on steep-slope areas between 20 and 45° after prolonged or particularly intense wetting events (Jakob and Hungr, 2005); in the case of the Phoenix area, from thunderstorms, soaking hurricane moisture, or a series of winter frontal storms (Dorn, 2016).

Debris flows have three zones, including initiation, transportation, and deposition (Figure 2.13) (Jakob and Hungr, 2005), and distinctive geomorphic features can be identified in each zone. Distinct head scarps indicate the initiation zone, where slope failures start. Once initiated, chutes develop along the debris-flow channel, and debris-flow materials are transported down the slope. Finally, debris flows produce levees and alluvial fans at the mouths of drainages (Figures 2.13A and 2.13B) (Webb et al., 2008; Youberg et al., 2008). In the case of most debris-flow contexts in Phoenix, the chutes are only a few hundreds of meters long, and the alluvial fans that result exist only at the base of the slopes, as illustrated in Figure 2.13.

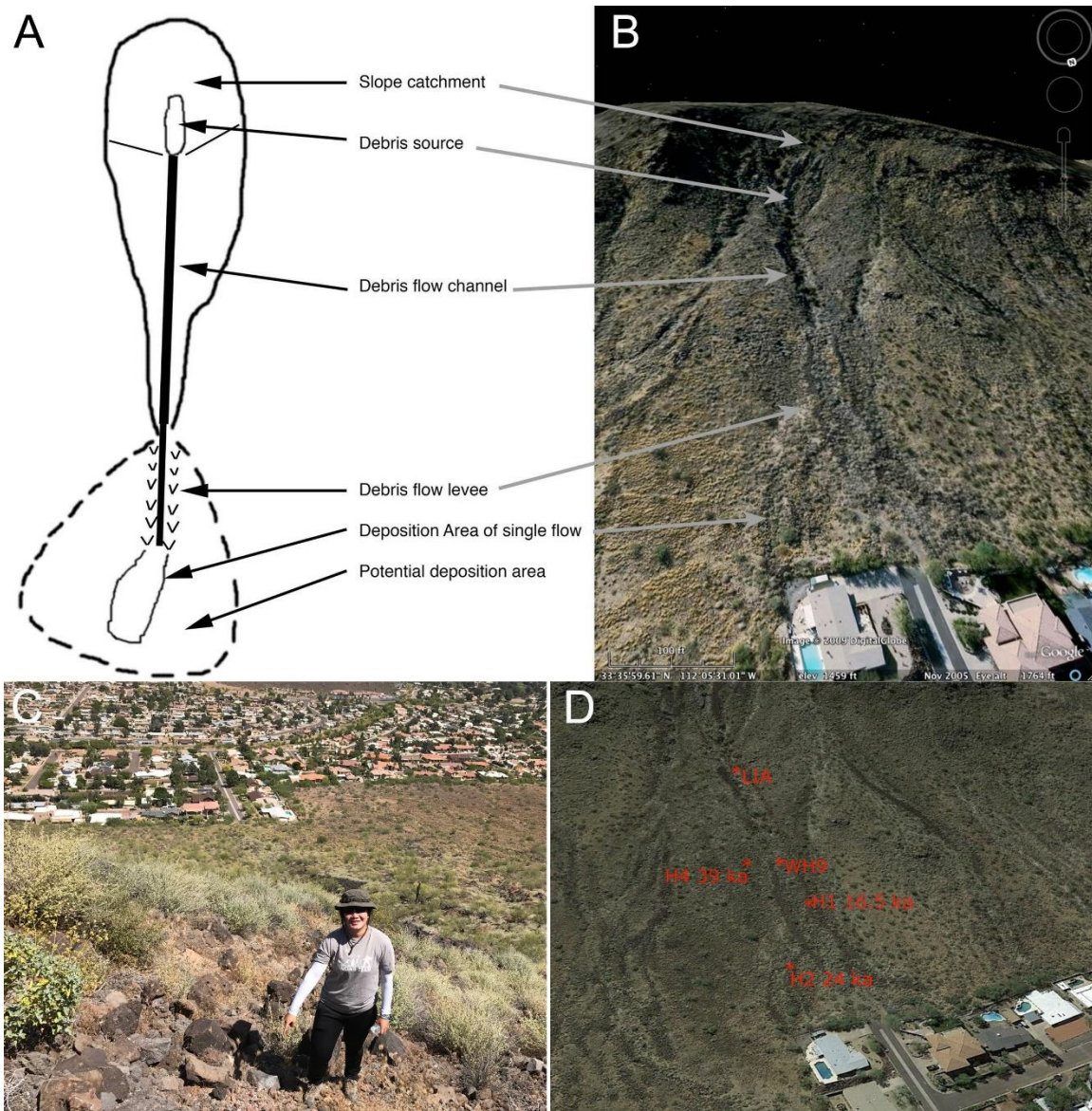


Figure 2.13. Shaw Butte in the Phoenix Mountains illustrates how debris flows interface with urbanization. (A) and (B) illustrate the debris-flow system, where small catchments generate debris flows that move down chutes a few hundred meters long, resulting in debris flow deposition near the mountain front. Image C illustrates the source region of the most recent Little Ice Age (LIA) flow that occurred about 0.65 ka. Image D identifies debris-flow deposits that are preserved and occurred about 8.1, 16.5, 24, and 39 ka. However, an unknown number of other debris flows occurred, with evidence destroyed by subsequent events.

Rock slides are another type of mass wasting that involves the displacement of rock materials along a sliding plane, such as a bedding plane and the interface between two different rock types. Granitic rocks experience sheeting, and produce pressure-release shells once the overlying materials have been removed (Bahat et al., 1999). The Phoenix neighborhood of Awhatukee illustrates three different types of mass-wasting events associated with pressure release shells: debris flow (Figure 2.14B), rockfall (Figure 2.14C), and rockslide (Figure 2.14D). What may be surprising is that the homes at the base of these steeply-dipping joint faces have little to no understanding of the potential hazard just meters from their homes.

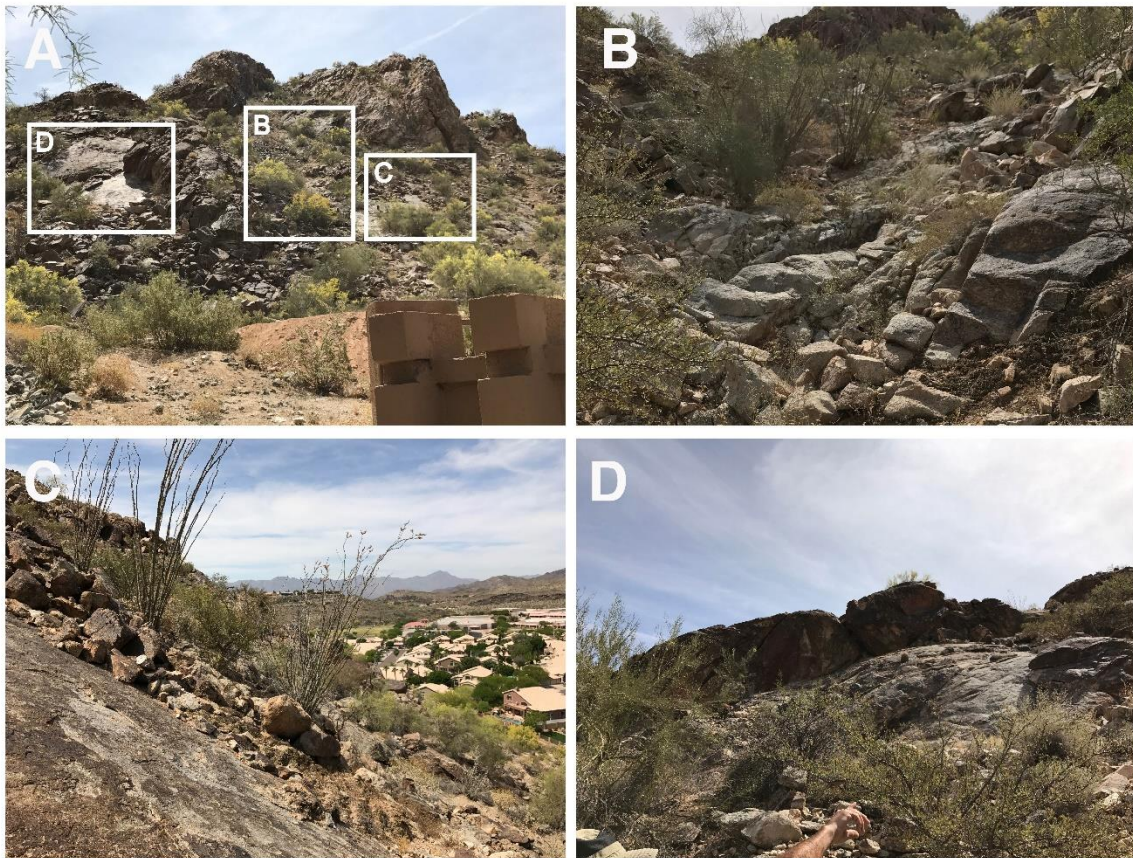


Figure 2.14. Image (A) is from the perspective of looking at the mountain slope from the resident's back fence, where (B) debris flow levees, (C) talus from rock falls, and (D) a

rock slide all represent hazards above a suburban neighborhood. Note the massive rock in D that is situated on the pressure-release joint of granitic surface with little to no support to inhibit the next mass-wasting event.

PEDIMENTATION

The Phoenix metropolitan area hosts iconic pediments with a variety of rock types that makes this area the rival of any other classic pediment sites on Earth (Figure 2.15). Pediments with the classic sharp piedmont angle exist on forest service and city preserve lands, allowing for study of the entire inselberg-pediment landscape (Figures 2.15A, 2.15B, 2.15D, 2.15H). The largest expanse of pediments, however, rests under urban sprawl (Figures 2.15C, 2.15F, 2.15G).

The pediment literature maintains an extensive bias toward granitic study sites (Dohrenwend and Parsons, 2009), including central Arizona (Kesel, 1977; Pelletier, 2010). However, the Phoenix area contains pediments in broad four rock types (Larson et al., 2017): granitic (Figures 2.15A, 2.15B, 2.15D); foliated metamorphic (Figures 2.15C, 2.15G, 2.15H), sedimentary breccia with extensive sandy lenses (Figures 2.15E, 2.15F), and ignimbrite. Given this mixed lithology, explanations of the pediment form requiring differential decay of granitic rocks and fossilized landscapes (Oberlander, 1989) do not work, since similar forms exist side-by-side in rock types other than granite. Furthermore, given the central Arizona evidence that pediment forms are able to adjust to base-level change in the timeframe of the last glacial cycle (Larson et al., 2017), also removes the need for complicated explanations of form requiring two-stage etching (Twidale, 2002).

Our view of pedimentation as a process in the Phoenix area returns to early German geomorphological thinking (Penck, 1924), G.K. Gilbert's classic observations (Gilbert, 1877), and more modern process-geomorphic interpretations (Applegarth, 2004, Larson et al., 2017, Parsons and Abrahams, 1984). Pediments function as transport surfaces (conveyor belts) of materials that are detached and eroded from small mountain masses. Pediments form where drainage areas are too small to develop alluvial fans. The classic piedmont angle, which is seen as a fairly dramatic slope break, results from the greater resistance to detachment and transport of larger slope colluvial particles and bedrock that leads to the generation of steeper slopes. The slopes of pediments once graded to gradually aggrading closed basins throughout the late Miocene and Pliocene, but pediments have been experiencing ongoing adjustment to changing base level throughout the Quaternary (Larson et al., 2014)

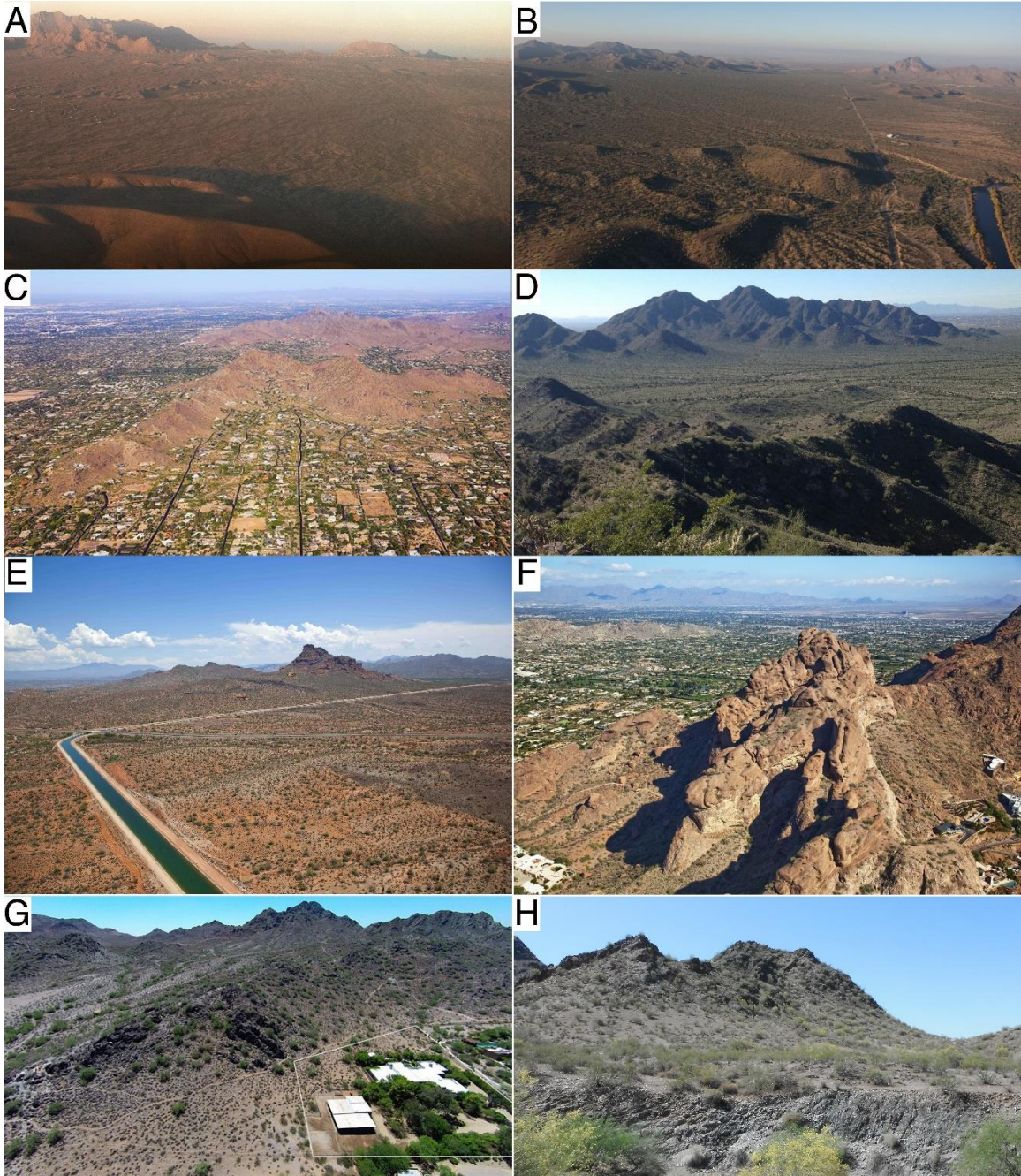


Figure 2.15. Pediment-inselberg landscapes of metropolitan Phoenix, illustrating planar pediments in front of small inselberg ranges. (A) granitic eastern McDowell Mountains; (B) granitic northern Utery Mountains; (C) foliated metamorphic Mummy Mountain; (D) granitic San Tan Mountains; (E) breccia Red Mountain; (F) breccia Camelback Mountains; (G) massive metamorphic North Mountain; and (H) foliated metamorphic Phoenix Mountains.

ALLUVIAL FAN FLOODING

The basic ephemeral channel morphologies of the Sonoran Desert (Sutfin et al., 2014) include bedrock channels in the upper interior of the drainage that transitions to bedrock mixed with alluvium, and ultimately to incised alluvium at an embayment that merges into an alluvial-fan piedmont. For much of the Sonoran Desert, including Phoenix, the alluvial-fan piedmont is incised. The risk for flooding only comes where the channel emerges from the incised area and is then able to experience an avulsion (Fuller, 2012). Such alluvial-fan avulsions only occur below the hydrological apex and not on older abandoned alluvial-fan surfaces.

The Federal Emergency Management Agency (FEMA) uses a procedure for delineating flood-hazard zones on alluvial fans, with fiscal implications for those building on surfaces so delineated on flood insurance-rate maps based on the FEMA approach. Put simplistically, FEMA treats as potentially hazardous all surfaces beneath the topographic apex of a fan. However, vast tracks of land in the 100-yr flood-hazard zone are not truly flood prone if they exist above the hydrological apex. Such a condition occurs when there is a “fan-head trench” that delivers water and sediment in a naturally incised water conduit towards the toe of the fan form. Prior research indicates that the FEMA approach simply does not work in places like Laughlin, Nevada (House, 2005), Tucson, Arizona (Pearthree et al., 1992), and certainly not in the Phoenix area (Fuller, 1990). Figure 2.16 illustrates the offset between the FEMA procedure and reality in the community of Scottsdale, Arizona.



Figure 2.16. Development burgeoned on alluvial-fan surfaces during the 1990s, as shown in a comparison of 1991 (A) and 1995 (B) aerial photographs of the southern McDowell Mountains, Scottsdale. In the 1991 image, dots delineate the presence of entrenched channels transporting water and sediment almost 8 km downstream from this fan. Thus, with the hydrological apex located at distance from the topographic apex of the alluvial fan, all of the development is safe from flooding.

STREET FLOODING IN PLANNED AND UNPLANNED HOUSING DEVELOPMENTS

Street flooding is a flash-flooding issue throughout the Phoenix metropolitan area. It typically occurs during the summer monsoon season, when short, but intense, downbursts result in localized overland flow. The local Maricopa County Flood Control District receives property tax funding to route water efficiently through the metropolitan area, working with local municipalities (Figure 2.17). The county and cities can take different cost-benefit strategies to dealing with street flash flooding. Over engineering has often been done by the county. However, local communities have made other choices at times.



Figure 2.17. Monsoon downburst taking place over the western portion of metropolitan Phoenix (A), and corresponding localized flooding being routed through flood-control structures (B).

The homes, infrastructure, and retail space of the Phoenix suburb of Fountain Hills rests on an eroding alluvial fan referred to as a “ballena” (Figure 2.18). However, the roads cross a series of incised ephemeral washes that experience frequent flooding (Rhoads, 1986). The management challenge rests in the cost-benefit tradeoff of

engineering for decadal events, and then let century-scale or millennial-scale flash flooding require infrastructure replacement. This leads to ongoing construction at problem locations, where initial engineering structures have repeatedly failed.



Figure 2.18. Fountain Hills is a community built on a ballena, or eroding alluvial fan. Although structures are safe because homes and businesses are placed on ballena tops and side slopes, roads must be engineered to survive occasional flooding in the washes between the ridges.

Much of Phoenix has been built on pediments with low slopes (Figure 2.19). The engineering associated with this development ranges considerably in terms of the investment to deal with ephemeral flooding. In Figure 2.19A, a gun club has built simple berms to deflect flooding around the complex. In contrast, Figure 2.19B displays a wildcat community known as “Rio Verde.” This development is almost entirely unplanned with respect to dealing with runoff. An individual purchasing a plot of land

will build, quite often, without any concern for the flooding issues caused by upstream neighbors, or that they may cause for downstream property owners. More wealthy communities, such as the exclusive Las Sendas neighborhood of Mesa (Figure 2.19C), include structures to deal with the routing of water.

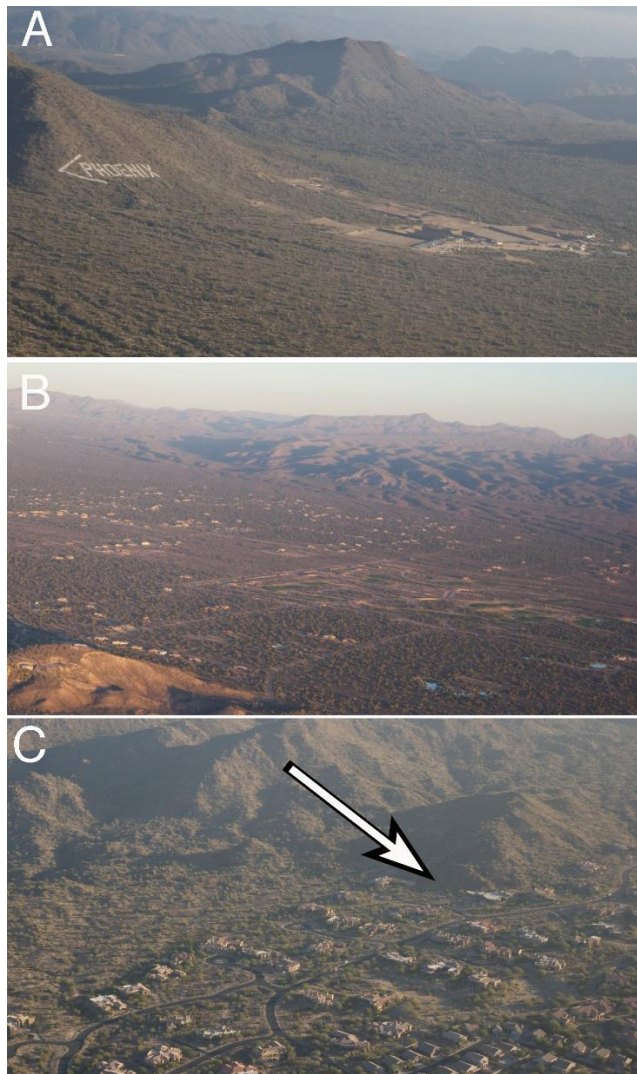


Figure 2.19. Development on pediments takes different strategies in dealing with ephemeral flooding. (A) A gun club simply built large levees to divert flow into the surrounding desert. (B) A “wildcat” development called Rio Verde continues to experience localized flooding, since little or no effort focuses on water routing during home or road construction. (C) Affluent subdivisions do consider flash flooding issues, and route water into natural or human-enhanced washes.

The largest river running through metropolitan Phoenix has ceased to pose a flooding hazard. Throughout the 20th century, the Salt River flooded repeatedly, causing considerable losses to property and sometimes lives (Gober, 2005). However, the last time that the Salt River experienced destruction associated with flooding took place in 1993 during a major ENSO event (Figure 2.20C) that corresponded with construction at Roosevelt Dam (Figure 2.20A), requiring the release of water from the reservoir behind. The combination of a very wet winter and a lowered dam level destroyed bridges and a lot of other infrastructure (Figure 2.20B). However, since the Roosevelt Dam's 1993 construction resulted in increased reservoir capacity, flooding has not been an issue since along this major drainage.



Figure 2.20. During the winter of 1993, a major ENSO event led to (A) the release of water from the reservoir behind the Roosevelt Dam. The released water destroyed the bridge at Mill Avenue in Tempe (B), as well as other infrastructure along the course of the river through metropolitan Phoenix (C).

DEBRIS FLOWS

The Phoenix urban area has expanded out into the surrounded mountain fronts, where debris flows take place. In an initial study of the hazard to homes posed by debris flows, Dorn (2012) found that at least 89 houses are located along the pathway of former debris flows or above the debris flow chutes of the Gila Range and the Ma Ha Tuak Range of South Mountain, Camelback Mountain, Mummy Mountain and Shaw Butte areas alone (Figure 2.13).

Debris flows were not generally viewed as a hazard in the Sonoran Desert, until a major debris flow event occurred outside of Tucson (Youberg et al., 2008). Despite evidence to the contrary, those geoscientists living in and around Phoenix generally considered debris flows “acts of god,” or extraordinarily rare geological events not worthy of study. This changed after an intense summer thunderstorm on August 12, 2014 and a hurricane that occurred on September 8, 2014 led to short and intensive precipitation events in metropolitan Phoenix, which triggered the occurrence of dozens of debris flows in one mountain range of Phoenix alone (Figure 2.21) (Dorn, 2016).

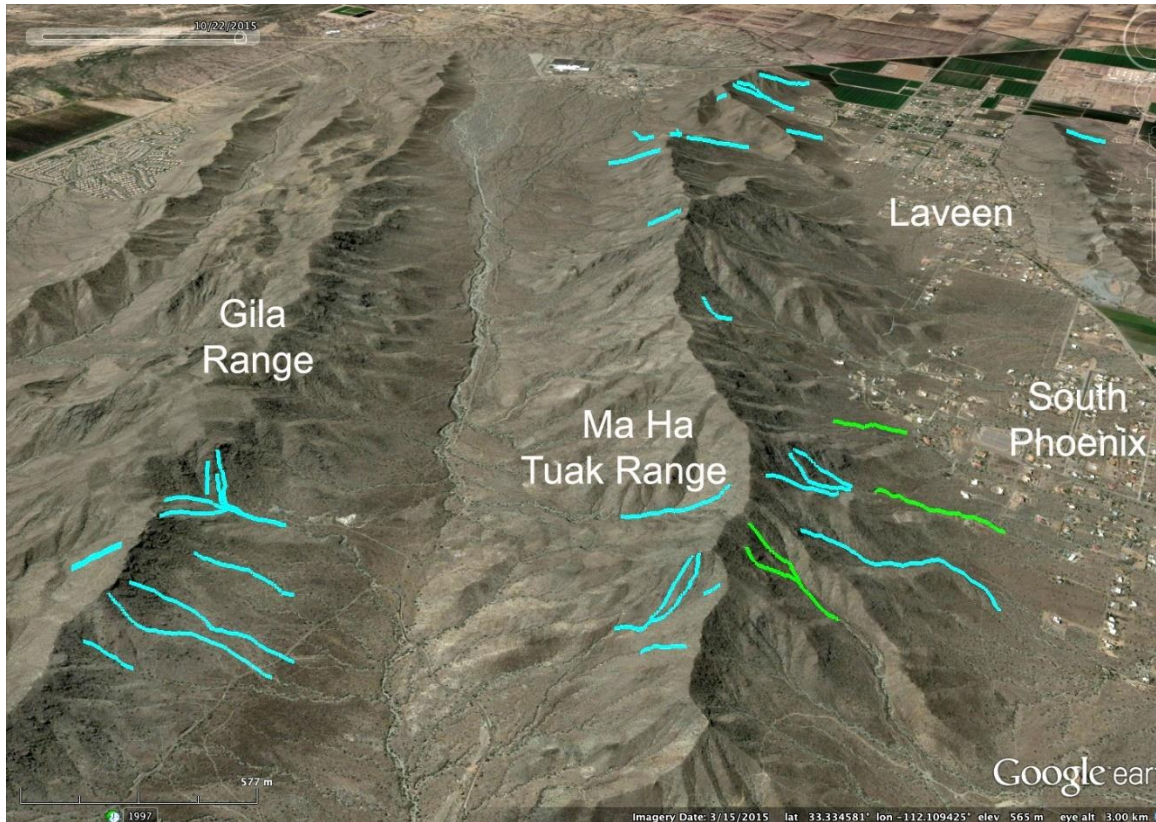


Figure 2.21. West-looking view of the debris-flow pathways triggered by the 12th August hurricane thunderstorm (blue) and 8th September summer monsoon event (green) at South Mountain, Phoenix in 2014 (Dorn, 2016).

HABOOBS AND DUST STORMS

Dust and summer dust storms are part of the urban geomorphic and climate system (Brazel, 1989; Marcus and Brazel, 1992; Péwé et al., 1981). During the spring, strong dry cold fronts deflate dust from agricultural fields and abandon urban lots, producing a substantial dust hazard. During the months of July, August, and September, the Mexican Monsoon's northern boundary impacts the Phoenix area, and produces haboobs (Idso et al., 1972) like the one seen in Figure 2.22, which are associated with the leading edge of cold outflow from convective clouds. Although this is a natural

phenomenon, anthropogenic activities that led to the exposure of bare ground (e.g. exposed house pads, agricultural fields, desertification) all contribute to the available surface area for dust deflation (Eagar et al., 2017).

Dust poses a regular urban hazard in terms of driving, where visibility decreases to the point where a driver is unable to see more than a few meters ahead (Baddock et al., 2013; Hyeres and Marcus, 1981). Desert dust is also associated with a number of human health issues (Goudie, 2014). Valley fever, for example, is produced by the fungus *Coccidioides* that lives in soil and dust in the southwestern USA.



Figure 2.22. A km-high, nearly 100-km wide haboob approaches Phoenix from the south at sunset.

SUMMARY PERSPECTIVE ON HUMAN INFLUENCES ON THE ARID GEOMORPHIC SYSTEMS IN THE URBANIZING SONORAN DESERT

From a geomorphic perspective, the Anthropocene, or the proposed new geological epoch when humans have had an overwhelming effect on the Earth system (Waters et al., 2016), requires both empirical evidence and an understanding of exactly how humans alter geomorphic processes. Accordingly, the British Society for Geomorphology maintains a Fixed Term Working Group to advise how geomorphologists to engage in scholarly analysis concerning the Anthropocene as a concept. Practical aspects include a relative magnitude problem, a boundary problem, and a spatial problem associated with “anthropogenic geomorphology” (Brown et al., 2017).

In the context of urban geomorphology (Thornbush, 2015), where human impacts result in enhanced disturbance and increased vulnerability to erosion, an arid city poses very different considerations than urban centers in wetter regions. Urban geomorphic processes in a setting like the Sonoran Desert are potentially altered by a myriad of anthropogenic influences, including: invasive species turning an ecoregion that did not experience massive wildfires naturally into an annual hazard due to invasive annual grass species; altering the armoring effects of soil crusting by widespread destruction of biological soil crusts by periods of cattle grazing; periods of road building and home construction; and other influences, such as off-road vehicles.

An individual walking on desert landforms, before massive land-use change associated with cattle grazing and urban expansion, very likely would have experienced very different surface conditions than found by the average hiker today. Extensive areas

once hosted desert pavements, biological soil crusts (Allen, 2005, 2010), and interlocking colluvium on steeper slopes that provided a net armoring effect (Bowker et al., 2008; Granger et al., 2001; Seong et al., 2016a). Today, only patches of such armored surfaces remain, providing glimpses into the original land surfaces.

According to Brown et al. (2017), “it is clear that the relevance of the Anthropocene concept varies substantially between different branches of geomorphology.” While Brown et al. (2017) did not consider rocky desert landscapes, such as the Phoenix metropolitan area, the basic conclusion that “the less obvious effects of humans on the geomorphic systems warrant increased research” certainly applies to the Phoenix metropolitan area and the surrounding Sonoran Desert. Developing a better understanding of the role of human-influenced processes at different scales will be needed to better diagnose the role of human impacts in an arid geomorphic system.

CHAPTER 3

SOIL EROSION FROM URBANIZATION PROCESSES

IN THE SONORAN DESERT, ARIZONA, USA

(PUBLISHED IN *LAND DEGRADATION & DEVELOPMENT*)

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ABSTRACT

Cattle stock ponds on the fringe of metropolitan Phoenix, USA, experienced a wide range of land use changes over the period from 1989-2009. Monitoring sediment accumulation behind 18 earthen berms at each major land-use transition enabled calculations of soil erosion rates and sediment yields from watersheds of different rock types and variable relief. Compared to the period of cattle grazing, the process of urbanization in the Sonoran Desert increased soil erosion from urban-proximate wildfires by up to 4.2x, from exposure of bare ground due to home and commercial real estate development by up to 3.4x, from bare ground exposure due to road and pipeline construction by up to 3.1x over grazing alone. Stock pond watersheds underlain by granitic rock experienced statistically significant higher erosion rates compared to watersheds underlain by metamorphic, basalt, and other rock types. A global compilation of published and unpublished sediment yield data for warm desert (BWh Köppen-Geiger) sites reveals that our data plot consistently with other grazing study areas with an overall slight tendency for higher area-specific sediment yields in smaller drainage areas.

However, our sediment yield data, as well as data from other warm desert sites, do not support previously published generalizations of anomalously high or low sediment yields from warm desert settings. Although the geomorphic setting surrounding different warm desert cities undergoing expansion differs, these results highlight the importance of exposure of bare ground in increasing soil erosion even in an environment with naturally abundant bare ground.

INTRODUCTION

Soil erosion contributes to land degradation at large (Balaguer-Puig et al., 2018; Nyssen et al., 2008) and small scales (Shi et al., 2014) in all habitable ecoregions (Lal, 1994). Soil erosion in arid lands is the focus of this study and is often attributed to overgrazing (Al-Awadhi et al., 2005), wind erosion (Zhibao et al., 2000), and overland flow of water that generates substantial loss even with low-intensity events (Marques et al., 2008). Critical transitions that greatly increase erosion often involve exposing bare soil through unpaved roads (Marchamalo et al., 2016; Nyssen et al., 2002; Villarreal et al., 2016) and human-caused wildfire (Martínez-Murillo & López-Vicente, 2018).

Compared to other arid regions, the Sonoran Desert in Arizona, USA, has been the location of minimal research on land degradation in general and soil erosion in particular. After Columbian contact, grazing and mining were major agents of land degradation (Radding, 2005) and grazing is still common (Fleischner, 2010). Prior to European invasive grasses, Sonoran Desert wildfires were very infrequent and of low intensity (McLaughlin & Bowers, 1982). Invasive grasses such as *Bromus madritensis* L.

ssp. rubens and Pennisetum ciliare, however, now generate an abundance of fuel following winter rains that greatly increases the frequency and intensity of Sonoran Desert wildfires (Balch et al., 2013). Arid urban populations in the metropolitan Phoenix and Tucson areas, Arizona, USA, also degrade the surrounding Sonoran Desert through off-road vehicle activity (Villarreal et al., 2016).

This study focuses on soil erosion in a Köppen-Geiger BWh climate at the interface of the Sonoran Desert and the sprawling metropolitan area of Phoenix, Arizona, USA. Relatively sparse published data exist on sediment yield in a BWh setting. In the Negev desert, for example, extremely high sediment yields can occur in small catchments (Schwartz and Greenbaum, 2008), where evidence exists that sediment yield exceeds sediment production by 53%–86% (Clapp et al., 2000). More generally, Einsele and Hinderer (1997) predicted very high specific sediment yields (SSY) of 4000-5000 t/km²/yr at small arid catchments. Scholarship in BWh climates reveals several factors thought to influence erosion rates, including rock type in the Indian arid zone (Sharma and Chatterji, 1982) and slope in southern Arizona (Abrahams et al., 1988). Poesen et al. (1994) highlighted the effects of rock fragments on soil erosion. At microplot (4 × 10⁻⁶-100 m²) and macroplot scale (101-104 m²), sediment yield decreases with percent rock fragment cover due to the protection of the underlying soil and the interception of soil particles by rock fragments. Nearing et al. (2005) investigated a humid and a semiarid watershed to better understand how changes in precipitation and vegetation parameters such as rainfall amount, rainfall intensity, rainfall duration, vegetation cover, and canopy cover influence erosion. Zhang et al. (2012) and Dorn (2015) emphasized that extreme precipitation events result in a jump in soil erosion in the southwestern USA.

A reason for the selection of Phoenix as a BWh study site is that prior to an expansion of urbanization, lands managed by the USA Bureau of Land Management, Arizona State Trust Lands, and the USA Forest Service gave permits for cattle grazing. Thousands of berms built across ephemeral desert washes created stock ponds to collect water for cattle (Langbein et al., 1951). Starting in 1989, the second author initiated the monitoring sediment accumulation in 25 stock ponds that had not yet experienced urbanization, but were in locations where political entities planned urban expansion. Periodic observations of sedimentation in these stock ponds before and after land-use transitions took place over the next two decades, recording changes in sedimentation.

This chapter analyzes four hypotheses related to over two decades of monitoring soil erosion on the urban fringe of metropolitan Phoenix, USA:

H1: During the period of cattle grazing prior to urbanization, the sediment yield would be influenced primarily by natural variables such as drainage area, slope, vegetation cover, precipitation amount and intensity, and rock type.

H2: Sediment yield would increase substantially during the period of land-use changes associated with urbanization including human-set wildfires, exposure of bare ground due to home and commercial real estate development, and exposure of bare ground due to other infrastructural development such as road and pipeline construction.

H3: The sediment yields of small basins in a warm desert, Köppen-Geiger BWh climate setting would not meet the expectations of some scholarship in the literature. Einsele and Hinderer (1997, p. 295) plotted specific sediment yield

vs. drainage area for different climate types. In this idealized plot, arid and semiarid drainage areas had some of the highest sediment yields. In contrast, in an analysis of just three BWh catchments, Jansson (1988) found some of the lowest sediment yields. Rózsa and Novák (2011) mapped sensitivity to human factors globally from the perspective of different Köppen-Geiger climate types and predicted that arid regions with minimal relief (plains and hills) would be amount the least sensitive.

H4: In a compilation of all available sediment yield data from BWh catchments, we hypothesize that the general trend of increasing specific sediment yield in smaller basins observed in Europe (Vanmaercke et al., 2011b), Africa (Vanmaercke et al., 2014), and global comparisons (Einsele & Hinderer, 1997) would hold true for warm desert BWh Köppen-Geiger settings.

STUDY SITE

The Sonoran Desert in central Arizona experiences precipitation averaging 208 mm split evenly between summer and winter maxima (Climate Office of Arizona, <https://azclimate.asu.edu/climate/climate-of-phoenix-summary/>). Winter rainfall occurs when the westerlies generate Pacific cold fronts and low-pressure systems. Moist air masses from the Gulfs of Mexico and California, combined with surface heating and upper level tropospheric disturbances, produce summer thunderstorms during the July–September Monsoon season. This climate supports Sonoran Desert trees grow along ephemeral washes and on hillslopes where overland flow concentrates, including palo

verde (*Parkinsonia microphylla*), ironwood (*Olneya tesota*), and elephant trees (*Bursera microphylla*). Desert scrub vegetation found on slopes includes creosote bush (*Larrea tridentata*), brittlebush (*Encelia farinosa*), triangle-leaf bursage (*Ambrosia deltoidea*), catclaw acacia (*Acacia greggii*), desert globe mallow (*Sphaeralcia ambigua*), and ocotillo (*Fouquieria splendens*). Piedmonts and hillslopes also host succulents such as saguaro (*Carnegiea gigantea*), barrel (*Ferocactus cylindraceus*) and hedgehog (*Echniocereus engelmannii*) cactus.

Thousands of stock ponds throughout Arizona collect water for grazing cattle (Langbein et al., 1951). Most consist of an earthen dam blocking small ephemeral channels. Researchers use these stock tanks to study erosion and sedimentation rates in non-desert ecoregions in Arizona such as a semi-arid mesquite grassland (Nichols, 2006).

25 stock ponds were selected for a study of erosion and sedimentation associated with urban expansion with their locations determined by areas targeted for urban growth. The goal of the study initiated in 1989 rested in developing a better understanding the role of land degradation associated with urban sprawl in a warm desert region. Seven of the stock ponds experienced overflow events leading to breaching and loss of the sediment record, and these sites are not included in this paper. However, eighteen stock ponds recorded changes in sedimentation associated with major land-use changes on the urban fringe.

Phoenix, Arizona, is the fifth largest USA city. The population of the metropolitan area grew dramatically after World War II with the advent of air conditioning, and the aerial footprint sprawled commensurately with migrants seeking

employment and a low cost homes. Because Phoenix is located entirely in the Sonoran Desert, the stock ponds on the urban fringe had the potential to yield unique insight in a warm desert ecoregion. The USA National Science Foundation selected metropolitan Phoenix as a type urban site to analyze land use-land cover change (LULCC) in an arid climate. Thus, extensive documentation exists on LULCC for the study period from 1989 to 2009 (Fan et al., 2017) that can be accessed at <https://sustainability.asu.edu/caplter/>.

Figure 3.1 superimposes the location of the 18 studied stock pond drainage areas on a map showing the expansion of urbanization from 1985 through 2010. Appendix A provides overview of a Google Earth KMZ file of the stock tanks and their associated watersheds. Figure 3.2 illustrates typical shifts in land use as the urbanization expanded out into areas formerly occupied by cattle grazing.

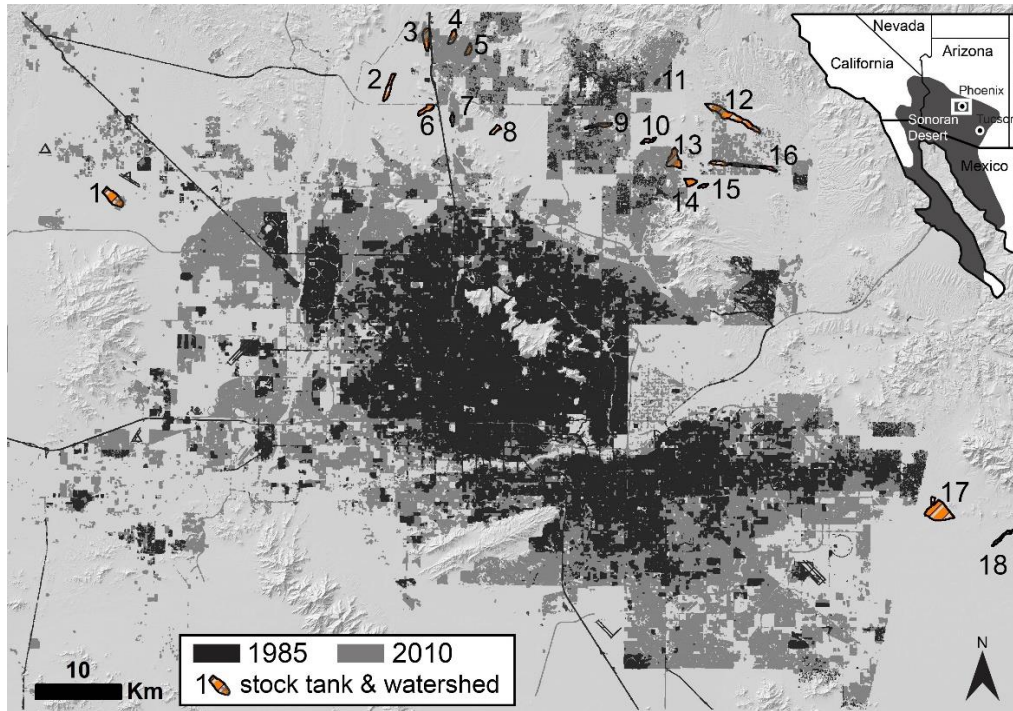


Figure 3.1. Map contextualizing the scattered locations of the stock tanks around metropolitan Phoenix. The studied stock ponds are situated in the Sonoran Desert. Urban boundaries in 1985 and 2010 are extracted from land cover classification by Central Arizona–Phoenix Long-Term Ecological Research. Data available at <https://sustainability.asu.edu/caplter/data/view/knblter-cap.650.1/>. The numbers refer to stock ponds identified in this paper's data tables.

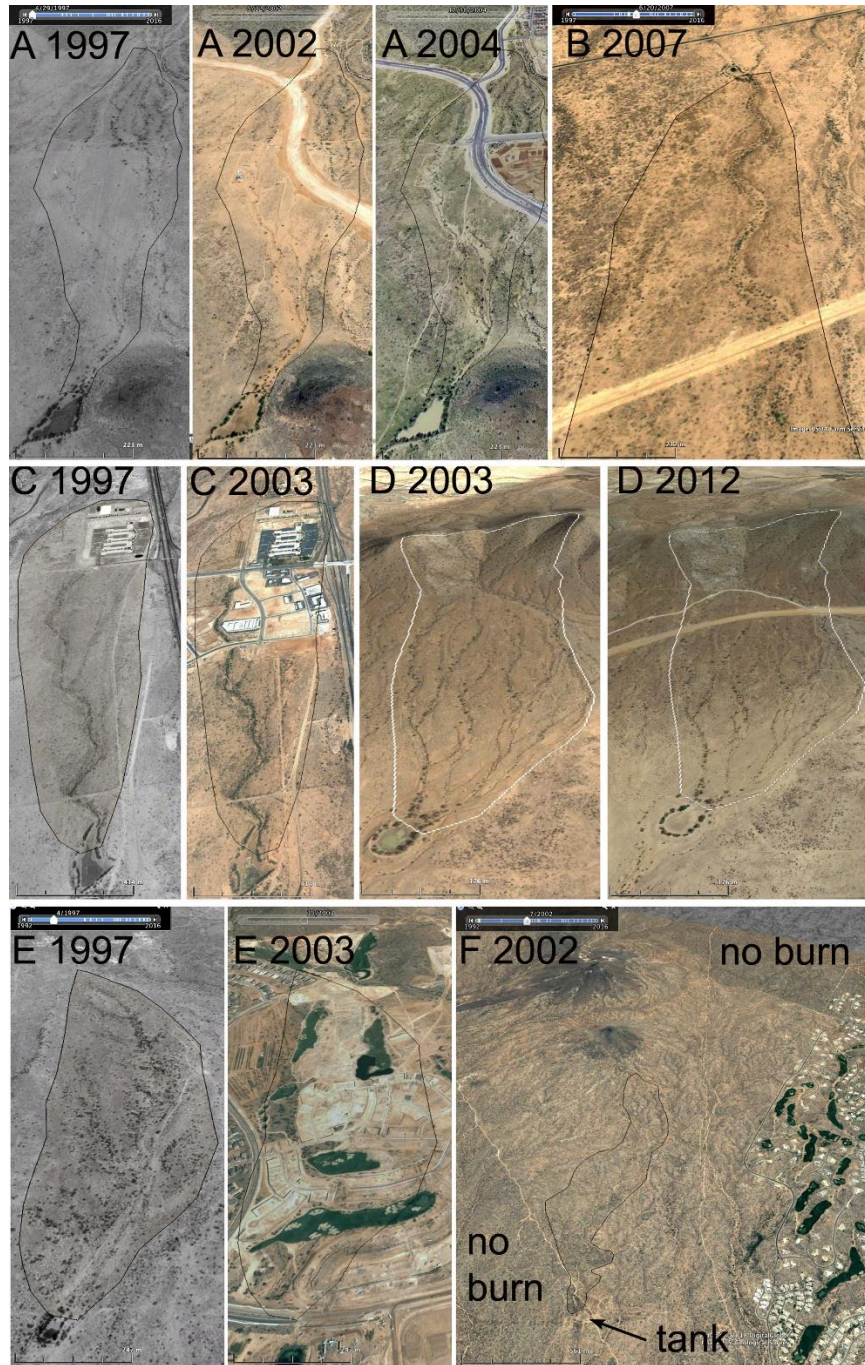


Figure 3.2. Examples of land-use changes in stock pond watersheds of the sort that can be explored in greater detail and higher resolution by the reader using Google Earth kmz data (Appendix A). Roads provide a sense of scale. Dates of the Google Earth screenshot imagery are annotated in the upper left corner. (A) Transition from cattle grazing to road construction and housing subdivision development, (B) pipeline construction and proximity to the tank, (C) transition from grazing to commercial development, (D) road construction, (E) wildfire and subdivision development, and (F) stock pond drainage area.

METHODS

FIELD SAMPLING

Nine 0.3 m segments of steel rebar were inserted into the sediment accumulation area of the studied stock ponds in a 3x3 grid (Figure 3.3) to understand variability in sedimentation. The rebar was flush to the surface, covered by dirty cardboard. Upon experiencing a major land-use change, each stock pond was revisited to measure sediment accumulation depths on top of the rebar. The rebar was relocated with the assistance of a metal detector. Since sediment bulk density varies with sediment texture, multiple sampling assists in analyzing variability over space and time (Verstraeten & Poesen, 2001). Like others (Bellin et al., 2011), we anticipated that there would be no significant increases in bulk density with depth, but this assumption was tested by collecting bulk density samples at the same time when the sedimentation was measured.

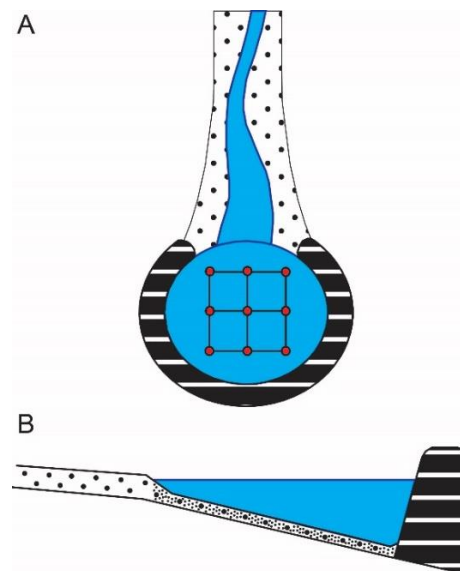


Figure 3.3. Generalized diagram presenting 3×3 grid of sediment sampling and rebar placement locations in an idealized stock pond. (A) Plan view and (B) cross section illustrating the course nature of sediment in channels just prior to entering the stock pond. However, where water ponds, the clays and silt in the suspended sediment load mix with bedload.

LABORATORY MEASUREMENTS

We sampled three points for each stock pond as others have also done for bulk density and particle-size analysis (Bellin et al., 2011). The cylinders method determined the bulk density of all samples (Blake, 1965). The hydrometer method measured the percent silt and clay of all samples (Bouyoucos, 1962). The reported error term derives from the standard deviation.

CALCULATION OF SOIL EROSION RATE

Calculating annual soil erosion rate in meters requires the area of the stock pond watershed in m² (A_D), the surface area where the sediment accumulated behind the berm in m² (A_b), the depth of sediment accumulation in m (D), and the number of years of sediment accumulation (Y_s).

$$= (A_b * D) / A_D / Y_s$$

We converted soil erosion rate to millimeters per thousand years by multiplying the annual soil erosion rate in meters by 10⁶.

A major error concern involves how to analyze the aeolian contribution. Dust storms transport desert dust in the Sonoran Desert (Péwé, 1981). Because an analysis of soils in southern Arizona suggests that up to 20% of the mineral material could derive from dust (Lybrand & Rasmussen, 2018), the silt and clay accumulating in the stock ponds could potentially all derive from aeolian dust deposition or it could derive weathered bedrock. Thus, two sediment yields (and erosion rates) are presented. One is the maximum with the assumption that there was no aeolian dust deposition. One is the

minimum with the assumption that all of the silt and clay derived from aeolian deposition.

For both the maximum and minimum sediment yields (erosion rates), there is a \pm assigned from the standard deviation of nine depth measurements for each time slice. This standard deviation of the average depth then translates as a \pm percentage the reported sediment yield.

DETERMINATION OF SPECIFIC SEDIMENT YIELD

The area-specific sediment yield (SSY) in the studied eighteen stock ponds is calculated as follows (Verstraeten & Poesen, 2001):

$$SSY = SM / (A_D * TE * Y) * 10^6$$

where SSY is specific sediment yield ($t \text{ km}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$), SM is sediment mass (t), $dBBD$ is average dry bulk density of the sediment ($t \text{ m}^{-3}$), A_D is drainage area of the watershed of each stock pond (m^2), TE is sediment trap efficiency (%) and Y is time period of measurement (y). In the case of the 18 stock ponds, the sediment trap efficiency (TE) is 100% because we rejected all 7 stock ponds that breached. We found no evidence that the studied stock ponds were excavated during the period of study.

The maximum sediment (SM_{max}) can be calculated as follows:

$$SM_{max} = SV_{max} * dBBD = A_P * D_{avg} * dBBD$$

where A_P is sedimentation area and D_{avg} is the averaged depth of the sediments measured from nine grid points (Figure 3.3). SV is the measured sediment volume in the

stock pond during the given time period Y (m^3). The minimum sediment yield is then calculated as follows:

$$SM_{min} = SM_{max} * (1 - \text{percent silt and clay})$$

DATA ACQUISITION AND CORRELATION BETWEEN CATCHMENT PROPERTIES AND EROSION RATE

We collected quantitative data for each of the selected catchments (Appendix B) with the goal of determining statistically significant correlations between a catchment property and erosion rate. Appendix C presents all data used in the correlation analyses. Pearson's pair-wise correlation was calculated for all pairs of quantitative variables to measure linearity between and among catchment properties (cf. Shi et al., 2013, p 173).

The digital elevation model (DEM) with a resolution of 10 m delineated morphological characteristics of each catchment. ArcGIS software generated data on drainage area, average slope, maximum relief. ImageJ software converted historical aerial photograph images in different time periods to 8-bit images to determine percent perennial vegetation cover (Appendix D). The Maricopa County Flood Control District gathers precipitation data at a variety of rain gauges (http://alert.fcd.maricopa.gov/showrpts_mc.html), typically within a few hundred meters of each catchment. Using this rainfall data, we calculated mean annual precipitation (MAP), summer convective (monsoon) seasonal precipitation from 6/15-9/30 (Appendix E). Study of a well-monitored semiarid watershed in southern Arizona (Polyakov et al., 2010) revealed that sediment transport occurred when rainfall exceeded 10 mm for 30

min (I_{30}). Thus, for each sediment accumulation interval, we compiled the total amount of rainfall with I_{30} . Additionally, we split the study period into approximately two decadal periods (period 1: 1989-1999; period 2: 2000-2009) and calculated MAP and I_{30} from three nearest rain gauges to all stock tanks to reduce the influence of dry and wet years (Appendix B).

The largest potential error in carrying out a correlation between catchment property and erosion rate involves land use uncertainty. All of the catchments experienced cattle grazing, and almost all of them also experienced potential land degradation events such as wildfire, dirt road creation, and construction. In order to tease out the significance of catchment properties, we rejected all time intervals that involved land use other than cattle grazing.

COLLECTING QUALITATIVE CATCHMENT PROPERTIES

Two important influences on soil erosion rates cannot be analyzed using a linear correlation, because rock type and land uses do not translate into interval data. To better understand the importance of rock type and land use on erosion, we used a difference of means t-test. For rock types, we obtained lithological information by ground truthing geological maps. While granitic rocks break down into grus, or sand-sized particles, the other rock types (basalt, ignimbrite, metasedimentary, metavolcanic) decay into a mixture of fines (clay and silt), some sand, but also cobbles and boulders. Thus, an unpaired t-test evaluated whether the specific sediment yield or erosion rate was significantly different between stock pond watersheds that were only granitic and those that were non-granitic.

We identified different land use and land-used changes using prior research (e.g. Fan et al., 2017), field observations, and historic aerial photographs. We classified different land uses into grazing, low-density residential, high-density residential, commercial, construction, and mixed use. We also classified non-urbanized areas as either impacted by cattle grazing or a wildfire event. Because the same stock pond watershed experienced different land-use changes, each time slice was treated as a separate data point. An unpaired t-tests compared the specific sediment yield from basins experiencing grazing; building construction of houses, subdivision and commercial properties; infrastructure of road and pipeline building that exposes bare ground; and wildfire.

RESULTS

OVERVIEW

During the first 10-year period, both MAP and I_{30} were higher (Appendix B). The average MAP of all stock pond sites in the first decade (258 mm) when grazing was more dominant lowered substantially (212 mm) in second 10-year period (2000-2009) dominated by urbanization. Appendix B also breaks down erosion rates and area-specific sediment yields for all study areas and all time slices studied. Despite decreases in MAP and I_{30} (with 2 site exceptions) in the second decade of study (Appendix B), erosion associated with urbanization processes increased significantly. The following data present a ratio of soil erosion under the new land use compared to soil erosion during the period of just grazing. Exposure of bare ground from construction — whether road, housing or

commercial developments — accelerated erosion over the grazing period by 1.3x, 1.7x, 1.8x, 2.9x, 3.1x, and 3.1x for the Asher Hills, Peralta, Circle Tank, Anthem, Cline, and Bronco tanks respectively. The first period after a wildfire erosion accelerated by 2.1x, 2.4x, 2.7x, 2.8x, 3.1x, and 3.7x for the Cave Creek, Anthem, 128th street, 128 street 2nd, Anthem, and Rock tanks respectively. The second time slice after a wildfire saw a reduced effect of accelerated erosion over the pre-fire grazing condition of 1.4x, 1.4x, and 2.3x for the 128th street, 128 street 2nd, and Rock tanks. The next sections explore the statistical significance of different factors that could potentially impact soil erosion.

CONTROLS ON EROSION RELATED TO URBANIZATION RELATED LAND-USE CHANGES

All but one of the study areas experienced cattle grazing at the start of this study. Thus, this results section explores how different factors (drainage area, average slope, relief, vegetation cover, precipitation) impact sediment yield during the period of cattle grazing. A correlation matrix (Table 3.1) presents Pearson's correlation coefficients between sediment yield data (i.e. maximum erosion rate, SY or sediment yield, SSY or area-specific sediment yield) and climatic and morphometric properties of each catchment.

The metrics of soil erosion during cattle grazing did not show any statistically significant relationship with precipitation or vegetation cover. All of the correlations between maximum erosion rate or Emax, SSY, SY and the precipitation metrics of annual, summer and most intense rainfall were not statistically significant. Vegetation

density revealed the same story of no statistically significant correlations with soil erosion.

Only basin morphometry revealed statistically significant correlations with soil erosion metrics. Sediment yield was significantly and positively correlated with drainage area (A_d) ($r = 0.97$, $p < 0.05$) and relief ($r = 0.68$, $p < 0.1$), but average slope (S_{avg}) did not show a clear correlation.

The bulk density (BD) of the accumulated sediment did show a slight positive correlation with the maximum erosion rate ($r = 0.70$, $p < 0.1$), a statistically significant correlation with vegetation cover ($r = 0.81$, $p < 0.05$), and an even stronger relationship with SSY ($r = 0.82$, $p < 0.05$). These positive relationships suggest that there was a tendency for more sand and gravel deposition, as opposed to silt and clay, at sites with a higher sediment yield, more vegetation cover, and a higher erosion rate.

Table 3.1. Correlation matrix between the sediment yield and some stock tank catchment variables, Phoenix metropolitan area, Sonoran Desert, Arizona, USA. Appendix C provides supporting documentation for this Table.

	<i>E_{max}</i>	<i>A_d</i>	<i>S_{avg}</i>	<i>Relief</i>	<i>BD</i>	<i>VC</i>	<i>MAP</i>	<i>MSP</i>	<i>I₃₀</i>	<i>SY</i>	<i>SSY</i>
<i>E_{max}</i>	1										
<i>A_d</i>	0.42	1									
<i>S_{avg}</i>	-0.16	-0.28	1								
<i>Relief</i>	0.45	0.59	0.40	1							
<i>BD</i>	0.70*	0.21	-0.47	-0.01	1						
<i>VC</i>	0.37	0.30	-0.28	0.14	0.81**	1					
<i>MAP</i>	0.13	0.25	-0.01	0.19	-0.17	-0.13	1				
<i>MSP</i>	-0.07	0.14	0.20	0.18	-0.35	-0.14	0.89**	1			
<i>I₃₀</i>	0	0.26	0.02	0.15	-0.02	0.33	0.23	0.50	1		
<i>SY</i>	0.61	0.97**	-0.26	0.68*	0.32	0.34	0.27	0.12	0.25	1	
<i>SSY</i>	0.98**	0.37	-0.24	0.36	0.82**	0.51	0.05	-0.16	0	0.56	1

Note: *E_{max}*, maximum erosion rate (mm ka⁻¹); *A_d*, drainage area; *S_{avg}*, average slope; *Relief*, maximum height difference in catchment; *BD*, bulk density; *VC*, percent vegetation cover; *MAP*, mean annual precipitation; *MSP*, mean summer seasonal precipitation, *I₃₀*, the total amount of peak 30-minute rainfall exceeded 10 mm for 30 min; *SY*, sediment yield (t yr⁻¹); *SSY*, area-specific sediment yield (t km⁻²)

*Significant at p<0.1,

**Significant at p<0.05,

***Significant at p<0.01.

Since rock type can be an important factor influencing sediment yield, the stock tank periods experienced only grazing were grouped into granitic and other lithologies. Half of the stock tank watersheds are underlain by only granitic lithologies, ranging from granite to granodiorite with some diorite. Then, half of the stock tank watersheds are underlain by a mix of rock types, typically including rhyolitic tuff (ignimbrite), basalt, metavolcanic and metasedimentary rocks. A t-test comparing sediment yields of granitic vs. other rock types influenced by only grazing reveals a difference, but no statistically significant difference for granite (Mean, M= 103.7, Standard Deviation, SD= 791.1)

versus other rock types ($M= 68.9$, $SD= 1001.0$) conditions; $t(12)= 2.14$, $p > 0.05$.

However, there was a statistically significant difference for maximum erosion rates between granitic ($M= 71.83$, $SD= 256.97$) and other rock types ($M= 50.88$, $SD= 319.55$), $t(12) = 2.27$, $p \leq 0.05$. This difference is shown graphically in Figure 3.4A.

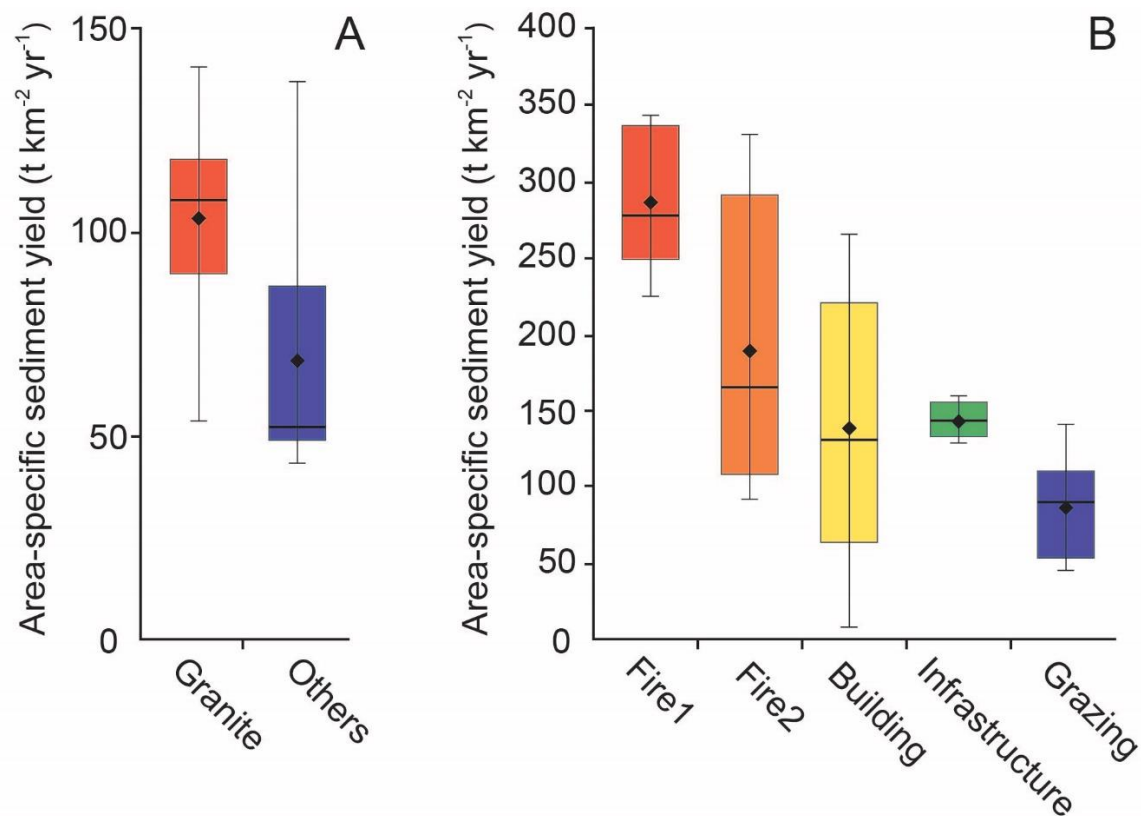


Figure 3.4. Box and whisker plots of specific sediment yield associated with variables are inappropriate for linear regression but appropriate for T-test comparisons. (A) A comparison of specific sediment yields for granitic and nongranitic stock tank watersheds influenced only by grazing land use. (B) A comparison of specific sediment yields for stock tank periods of time dominantly influenced by different land uses. Fire1 refers to the period of time immediately after a wildfire (typically 3–5 years). Fire2 refers to the period of time after Fire1 where some revegetation has occurred. Building refers to stock tanks experiencing the exposure of bare ground due to building homes and commercial real estate. Infrastructure refers to stock tanks experiencing the exposure of bare ground due to major infrastructural developments such as road and pipeline construction.

SEDIMENT YIELD INCREASES FROM URBANIZATION IN A WARM DESERT

Urban expansion in the Phoenix BWh Sonoran Desert setting resulted in a variety of substantive changes to the dominant land use. From the perspective of established sediment-yield forcings reviewed in the introduction, three major land use changes resulted in the exposure of bare ground in different studied periods.

Wildfires set by human abuses on the urban fringe, unfortunately, occurred in several stock tank watersheds. In two watersheds, it was possible to subdivide time slices after wildfires into 3-5 year intervals. The initial time slice after the fire is designated Fire1 in Figure 3.4B. The time slices that experienced vegetation recovery after Fire1 is grouped into Fire2 in Figure 3.4B.

Bare ground exposure also occurred in association with two sorts of construction related activities. The Building category in Figure 3.4B is from home and commercial real estate construction. The Infrastructure category in Figure 3.4B is from road and pipeline construction.

Statistically significant differences specific sediment yield in T-tests occurred between grazing and all other dominant land uses associated with different periods of time, as revealed visually by box and whisker plots (Figure 3.4B). There was a significant difference in specific sediment yield for Grazing (Mean, $M= 85.0$, Standard Deviation $SD= 1103.3$) and Infrastructure construction ($M= 143.6$, $SD= 140.6$) conditions; $t(18)= 1.73$, $p= 0.001$. There was a significant difference in specific sediment yield for Grazing and Building ($M= 150.9$, $SD= 6245.7$) conditions; $t(24)= 2.91$, $p= 0.004$. The largest

difference occurred between Grazing and all wildfire (M= 246.8, SD= 7097.38) conditions, both Fire1 and Fire2 grouped together; $t(23) = 6.75$, $p = 0.000$.

DISCUSSION

NATURAL CONTROLS ON SONORAN DESERT SEDIMENT YIELDS

This study of sediment yields on the sprawling fringe of metropolitan Phoenix, USA, revealed very little clarity with regard to natural controls (Table 3.1). The list of no correlation with metrics of soil erosion (maximum erosion rate, sediment yield, or area-specific sediment yield) in the period of just cattle grazing is quite long: annual precipitation, summer convective precipitation, most intense rainfall, vegetation density, and average slope.

We offer no clear explanation for why our study did not conform to the first hypothesis of the paper and the expectation of research carried out elsewhere that variables like precipitation and vegetation cover are important: in a well-studied semi-arid catchment in southern Arizona (Nichols, 2006); in micro-catchments in Iran (Vaezi et al., 2017); and for regional studies of sediment yield in Europe (Vanmaercke et al., 2011b) and Africa (Vanmaercke et al., 2014).

Four speculative possibilities emerged to explain the lack of statistical clarity. First, pathways of sediment connectivity in the stock tank watersheds can be often highly irregular — similar to the findings of Marchamalo et al. (2016)— where pockets of sediment can rest behind vegetative dams that are suddenly released. Second, data are not available on rain drop size, and prior research (Marques et al., 2008; Nyssen et al., 2005)

reveals its importance. Third, off-road vehicle use influences sediment yield (Villarreal et al., 2016), and it is possible that undetected vehicle use could have influenced observed correlations.

A fourth potential reason for the lack of correlation is that our analysis assumed that cattle grazing was a constant between the different stock ponds, despite being unable to find data on the number and frequency of cattle grazed. However, cattle grazing was on the decline on the periphery of Phoenix for decades prior to this study. The reason is that the cattle grazing in the late 19th and early 20th centuries ate palatable perennial forage grasses leaving mostly unpalatable forage. Thus, discussions with ranchers and land-use managers indicate that by the 1989-1995 period, cattle grazing was minimal in the study areas. However, because grazing intensity can be an important factor (Al-Awadhi et al., 2005; Vaezi et al., 2017; Vanmaercke et al., 2010), the lack of quantitative data on grazing intensity could have influenced our correlation analysis.

T-tests, in contrast, did reveal a statistically significant finding. Rock type was an important control on erosion rate with granitic watersheds yielding more sediment than mixtures of metamorphic, basaltic and rhyolite rock types. The importance of rock type is consistent with the findings in other research (Sadeghi et al., 2017; Vanmaercke et al., 2011a), including in an urbanizing catchment (Ferreira et al., 2017).

URBANIZATION INFLUENCES ON SONORAN DESERT SEDIMENT YIELDS

Rózsa and Novák (2011) mapped sensitivity to human factors globally from the perspective of different Köppen-Geiger climate types and predicted that arid regions with

minimal relief (plains and hills) would be the least sensitive to anthropogenic influences. The various LULCC changes between 1989 and 2009 associated with the urban sprawling of Phoenix, USA (Fan et al., 2017), took place on alluvial and pediment surfaces with minimal relief (Jeong et al., 2018a). In contrast to prior expectation, our data for the Sonoran Desert reveals a great sensitivity of low-relief desert landforms to soil erosion. Figure 3.4B graphically portrays the findings for the urban fringe of Phoenix, USA. When each study site's data (Appendix B) are treated as a separate data point, human-set wildfires can increase sediment yields typically 1.7 to 4.2 fold over grazing; exposure of bare ground due to building homes and commercial real estate development can increase sediment yields typically by 0.2 to 3.4 fold over grazing; and exposure of bare ground due to infrastructural development from road and pipeline construction can increase sediment yields typically by 1.4 to 3.1 over grazing. What is not known is the acceleration of soil erosion from grazing over natural background catchment wide denudation rates. Thus, there is little doubt that urbanization processes significantly increased soil erosion well beyond even the impact of grazing, the prior land use, at the sprawling edge of a desert metropolis.

The acceleration of erosion from urbanization in this Bwh climate was likely dampened due to the climatic conditions that occurred during the study period from 1989 to 2009. The first decade, dominated by grazing in the study sites, was wetter than the second decade more dominated by urbanization LULCC. Yet, despite less annual rainfall and less cumulative time of intense rainfall, sudden and aerially extensive (e.g. Figure 3.2) exposure of bare ground from urbanization processes significantly increased soil erosion and SSY.

Our findings are in contrast with the results of Nearing et al. (2005) who examined the response of seven soil erosion models to basic precipitation and vegetation-related parameters, because higher SSY occurred in the second decade of the study period due to urbanization processes, despite less annual rainfall and less cumulative intense rainfall. Still, these findings are consistent with prior research emphasizing the importance of human activity in general (Vanmaercke et al., 2015), on human-caused wildfire (Martínez-Murillo & López-Vicente, 2018), on building new roads (Marchamalo et al., 2016; Nyssen et al., 2002), on vehicle disturbance (Villarreal et al., 2016), and the importance of rock type in an urbanizing catchment (Ferreira et al., 2017).

The findings of this study have implications for conservation practices in the Sonoran Desert and similar urbanizing settings in other BWh climates. At the present time, there are no requirements to mitigate soil erosion on slopes associated with urbanizing processes. Conservation practices focus on impacts to channels. Discussions with land managers reveals an awareness of a paucity of research on the soil erosion impacts of urbanization in the Sonoran Desert. In constructing Figure 3.5, we compiled prior knowledge on the soil erosion rates in the Sonoran Desert; most of these data were associated with unpublished research associated with development projects. No prior effort had been made to compile or analyze available data. Thus, a broader implication of this research rests in tasking such local and national governmental agencies as the Maricopa County Flood Control District and the Army Corp of Engineers to develop appropriate conservation practices to mitigate the soil erosion impacts of urbanization in BWh climates. This is because sediment yield produced from arid urbanization impacts

flood control structures that exist at all scales from streets to regional impoundment dams.

Figure 3.5 contextualizes the magnitude of the anthropogenic effect seen on the urban fringe of metropolitan Phoenix, USA, in the Sonoran Desert. The same data presented in Figure 3.4B are contrasted with all available data from BWh drainage areas globally in Figure 3.5. Appendix F presents all data used to construct Figure 3.5. Figure 3.5 reveals that the magnitude of area-specific sediment yields associated with different land uses in the Phoenix area rest within observations of BWh drainages experiencing agricultural and grazing land uses. This finding implies that other BWh drainages that undergo a LULCC conversion from grazing to urban could experience an even greater acceleration of soil erosion observed here, if precipitation amounts and intensity do not decrease — as occurred in the Phoenix area.

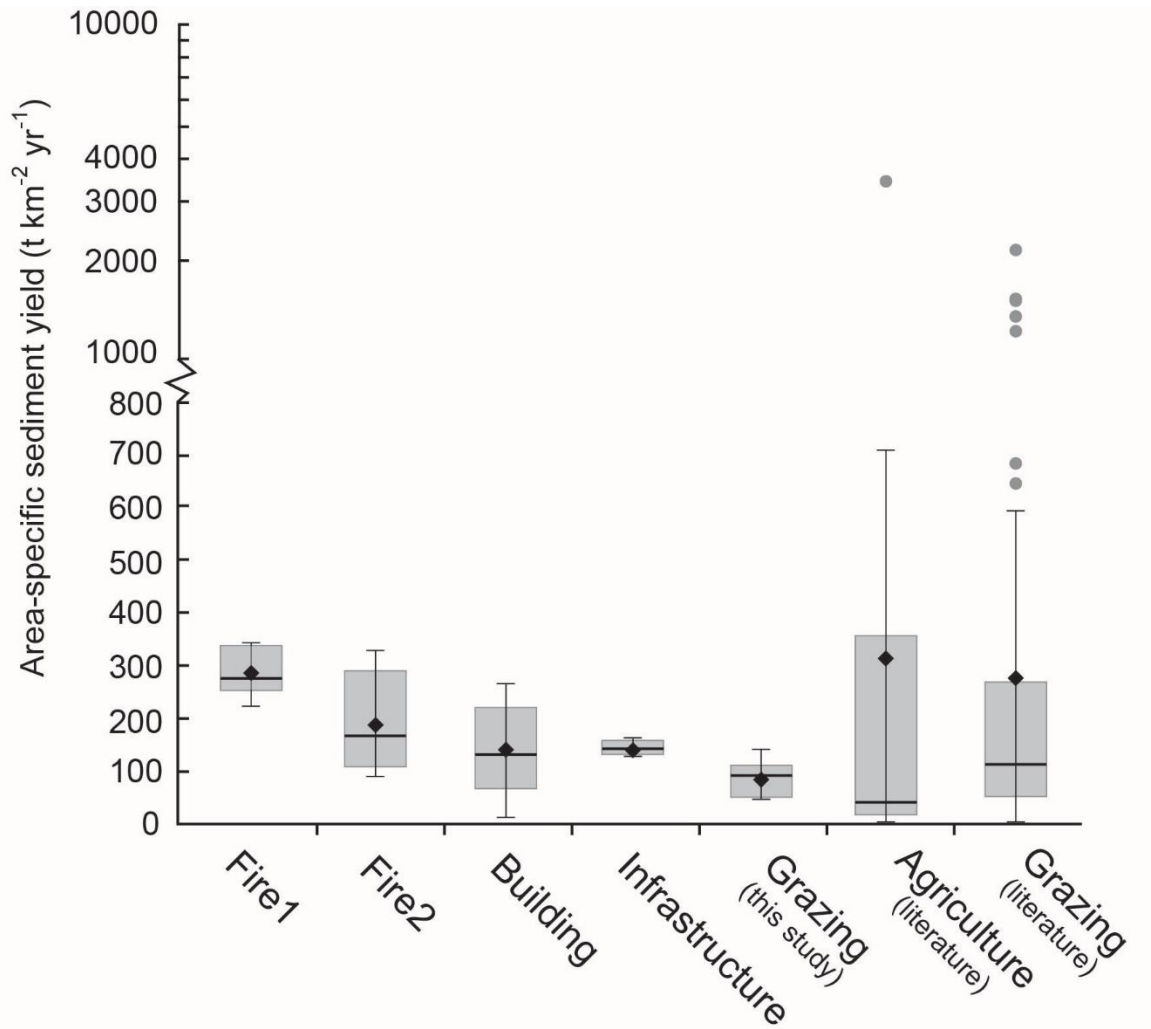


Figure 3.5. Box plot of the importance of different land uses surrounding metropolitan Phoenix (where Fire1, Fire2, building, and infrastructure are explained in the caption of Figure 3.4) is placed in comparison with a more global data set of agricultural and grazing land uses in the BWh warm desert setting. Note the break and shift in scale from linear to log in order to portray outliers in the global data set.

SEDIMENT YIELDS IN KÖPPEN-GIEGER WARM DESERT (BWh) SETTINGS

Jansson (1988)'s global survey of sediment yield compiled variations by Köppen-Geiger climate groups. At the time, the BWh climate type had an *n* of 3 drainage basins uniquely in warm deserts with very low sediment yields with a median of 25 and a mean of 34 t/km² per year of sediment yield. Ultimately, in the global analysis, the BW "group has been excluded because of few data" (Jansson, 1988, p. 94). Einsele and Hinderer (1997) also conducted a global analysis of sediment yield focused on estimating the lifetimes of reservoirs and other depressions. In their analysis, they created a plot (Einsele & Hinderer, 1997, p. 295) placing arid to semiarid sediment yields among the highest for various climates. These global generalizations appear contradictory.

Thus, to place our Sonoran Desert BWh findings in a global context, we compiled all available BWh sediment yield data (Appendix F). Most of the African BWh data were compiled by (Vanmaercke et al., 2014). The other data derive from published and also unpublished sources (e.g. theses, consulting reports). Figure 3.6 presents all available area-specific sediment yield data from BWh warm desert climate settings. Data from this study are identified by the circle with different land uses portrayed by different shadings. Data from the Americas, the Middle East, Australia, and Africa are differentiated by land use where such data were available. Taken altogether, this compilation of BWh warm desert sediment yield is consistent with the observation of Einsele and Hinderer (1997) basin size and sediment yield as a slight negative relationship. However, the magnitude of the sediment yield approximation by Einsele and Hinderer (1997), portrayed by the gray shading (Arid to semiarid in Figure 3.6) is far greater than our compiled observations.

Compared to the analysis of African (Vanmaercke et al., 2014) and Europe (Vanmaercke et al., 2011b), the log-log scatterplot of sediment yield data points for BWh in Figure 3.6 rests in the middle of both the African and Europe log-log scatter plots. Although individual study sites may yield particularly high or low sediment yields, taken as a whole, the BWh warm desert climate does not seem to be particularly anomalous or unique, as is sometimes suggested.

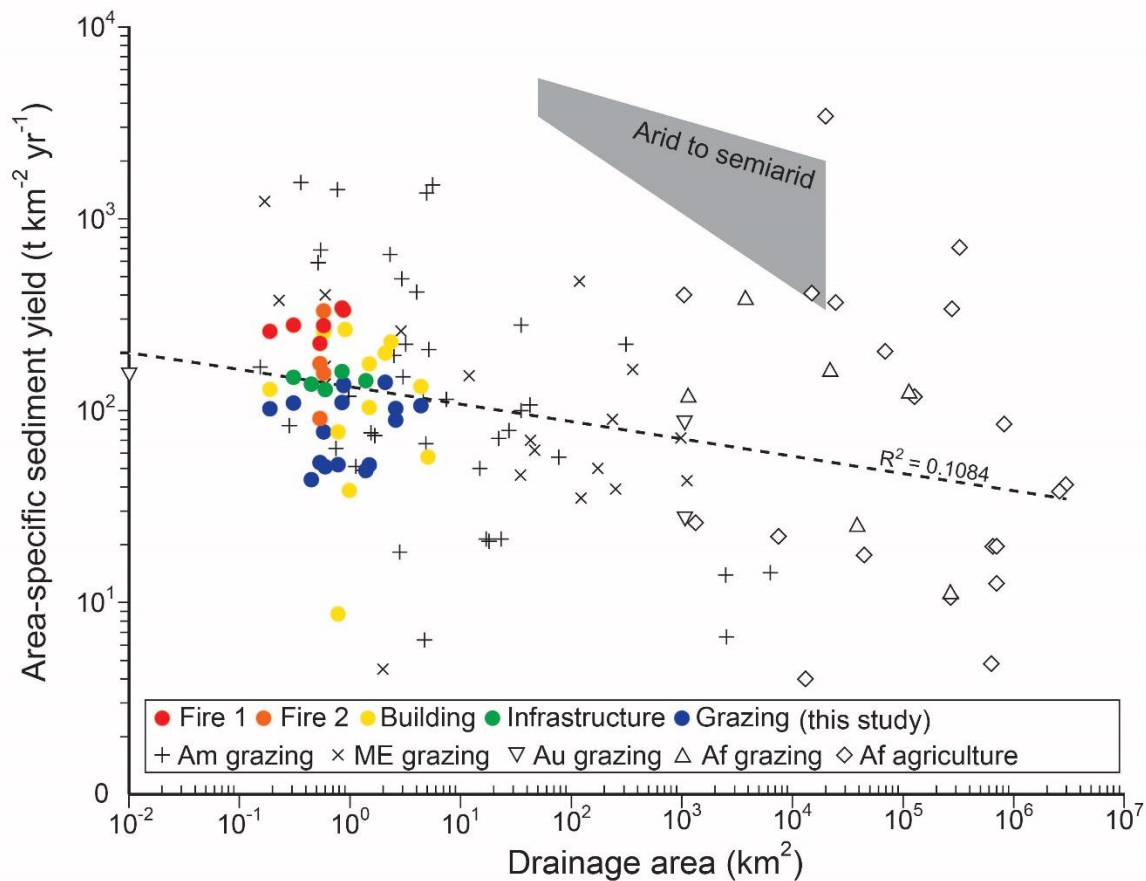


Figure 3.6. Log–log scatterplot and linear regression of all available specific sediment yield from the Köppen-Geiger BWh warm desert climate type. The gray shading indicates the sediment yield portrayal by Einsele and Hinderer (1997). Data from the literature are portrayed by symbols on the lower row of the legend, where Am refers to sites in the Americas, ME from the Middle East, Au from Australia, and Af from Africa. Circles in the top row of the legend were derived from Table 3.2 in this study; Fire1, Fire2, building, and infrastructure are explained in the caption of Figure 3.4. Appendix F provides data used to construct this figure.

Thus, Figure 3.6 is consistent with the third hypothesis, the early generalizations about the sediment yield in deserts being particularly anomalous cannot be confirmed by our Sonoran Desert research or by a compilation of available data from BWh catchments. Similarly, Figure 3.6 is consistent with the fourth hypothesis, that the general trend of increasing specific sediment yield in smaller basins observed in Europe (Vanmaercke et al., 2011b), Africa (Vanmaercke et al., 2014), and global comparisons (Einsele & Hinderer, 1997) holds true for warm desert BWh settings.

CONCLUSION

“Human activities (i.e. deforestation, ploughing, livestock grazing, removal of remnant vegetation, road building) led to an overall increase in erosion process intensity” in the Northern Ethiopian Highlands (Nyssen et al., 2008: 706). Although the setting and land use this Sonoran Desert study is very different, our fundamental conclusion is quite similar. Monitoring sediment accumulation behind 18 earthen berms at each major land-use transition enabled calculations of soil erosion rates. Using a correlation matrix, we examined statistically significant correlations between catchment properties and erosion rates. Unpaired t-tests revealed statistically significant differences between stock pond watersheds that were only granitic and those that were non-granitic.

Unpaired t-tests also compare the specific sediment yield from basins experiencing: grazing; construction of isolated houses, subdivisions and commercial properties; infrastructure of road and pipeline building that exposes bare ground; and wildfires. Wildfires set by urbanites increased sediment yields by up to 4.2x, exposure of

bare ground due to road and pipeline building increased sediment yields by up to 3.4x, and housing and commercial real-estate developments all led to an overall increase in sediment yield of up to 3.4x above grazing on the urban fringe of metropolitan Phoenix, Sonoran Desert, western USA.

The broader significance of this research rests with the need for USA county and federal regulatory agencies to consider policies that mitigate soil erosion from exposed bare ground during urban expansion in BWh climates. Concomitantly, mitigation strategies might also be warranted for other warm desert settings experiencing urbanization (Garba, 2004; Liu et al., 2010; Xian et al., 2008; Yagoub, 2004). While each desert region is unique with respect to the geomorphology surrounding the city (Cooke et al., 1982), the magnitude of sediment yield observed in this study could be of use in urban planning in other warm desert settings. Barbero-Sierra et al. (2013, p. 95) made the case that urban sprawl “has become the most active desertification agent in Spain” by soil sealing. The soil erosion and sediment yield associated with two decades of sprawling urbanization of metropolitan Phoenix, USA could be interpreted in the same way, but in a two-stage process. First came the exposure of bare ground with enhanced soil erosion. Then, came the sealing of soil when the pavement and construction was completed.

CHAPTER 4

SEDIMENT ACCUMULATION EXPECTATIONS FOR GROWING DESERT CITIES: A REALISTIC DESIRED OUTCOME TO BE USED IN CONSTRUCTING APPROPRIATELY SIZED FLOOD CONTROL STRUCTURES (SUBMITTED TO *ENVIRONMENTAL RESEARCH LETTERS*)

ABSTRACT

Many rapidly urbanizing desert cities (RUDC) around the globe experience an acute risk of flooding. To reduce this risk, properly engineered Flood Control Structures (FCS) must account for sediment accumulation as well as flood waters. While the Phoenix area used regional data from non-urban, non-desert watersheds to generate sediment yield rates (SYR), the proposed desired outcome for RUDCs is to base FCS on SYR that recognize and use the Wolman model of how urbanization impacts SYR. Wolman (1967) recognized that prior to urbanization, land-use land cover changes increase sediment yields slightly prior to urbanization. Then, sediment yields spike during a relatively short period of bare-ground exposure, followed by sealing of the urban surface resulting in a great reduction in sediment yield. This research presents a new analysis of empirical data for the Phoenix metropolitan region, where two regression models provide estimates of a more realistic sediment accumulation for arid regions and also urbanization of desert cities: i) linear regression between drainage area and sediment yield based on a compilation of more than 150 global sediment yield data for warm deserts (BWh Köppen-Geiger) climate; and ii) linear regression relating percent urban

growth with sediment yield using available data on urbanization-generated sediment associated with growth of a desert city. The new model can be used to predict the realistic sediment accumulation for helping provide data where few data exists in parts of arid Africa, southwest Asia, and India.

INTRODUCTION

Floods are common in many rapidly urbanizing desert cities (RUDC) and often cause extensive loss of life and property, where more deaths can occur from flash floods than dehydration (Warner 2004). The sorts of urban sprawling that take place on alluvial surfaces with minimal relief (Jeong et al 2018a) put inhabitants at high risk of flooding (Middlestone and Sternberg 2013). UNISDR (2012) reported more than half of Jordan's disaster related mortalities during 1981-2010 could be explained by flash flooding, where the 2008 floods alone in Yemen led to increased national poverty (UNSIDR 2010). Flash floods are often associated landslides on steep slopes where poorer inhabitants living in self-built informal housing in Bolivian Altiplano and the combination of natural disasters led a number of fatalities (O'Hare and Rivas 2005). Flash floods in the Indian state of Rajasthan caused by once-in-a-200-year event in the Thar Desert killed more than 150 people and the cost of damage was estimated at more than US \$290 million (Telegraph 2006). In another example, flash flooding in September of 2015, at least 15 people perished in flash flooding near Utah-Arizona border (The Guardian 2015).

Resilient urban planning efforts certainly recognize the need for flood control, and hence flood control structures (FCS) (Muller 2007, Djordjević et al 2011, Liao 2012).

The sediment volume is an important design parameter for FCS design. Unlike water volume, that can be drained off by spillways, sediment volume behind the FCS is continuously stored, that reduces the life expectancy of FCS. Thus, accurate estimation of sediment volume is an essential design factor for FCS. Over-estimation of sediment volume will lead unnecessary costs to build and maintain the FCS, but under-estimation can result a reduction of life expectancy of FCS due to rapid fill-up behind FCS, or worse yet failure. Sweasy Dam on the Mad River of northern California exemplifies a circumstance where too much sedimentation threatened reservoir sustainability. Approximately 25 years after dam construction, the Sweasy Dam was completely filled and no longer functional; it was removed in 1970 (Mount 1995).

A large volume of data on sediment yields support decision making by enabling establishment of empirical equations for better estimation of sediment yield in developed settings such as the southwestern USA. However, it is a challenge for RUDCs in lesser developed settings in Africa, Middle East, India, and Asia because of limited data are available. Based on a global data compilation of sediment yield in warm deserts (the Köppen-Geiger BWh climate setting) by Jeong and Dorn (2019) and Vanmaercke et al (2014), only eleven published data points have been collected from urban settings outside of the U.S.A. (Appendix G); all other measurements are from agricultural fields or grazing lands. Thus, the focus of this paper rests in establishing a new desired outcome for engineering FCS for growing desert cities that largely lack empirical data on sediment yields.

The Phoenix Metropolitan Region (PMR) is often used as a case study for the analysis of urban climate changes (Georgescu et al 2009, Chow et al 2014, Shaffer et al, 2015), the impact of ecosystem services and disservices (Hall et al 2009, Walker et al 2009, Zhuo et al 2012), urban biodiversity (Banville and Bateman 2012, Bateman et al 2015) and issues of urban sprawl and water quality (Hale et al 2015). The PMR, however, is an atypical desert city from the perspective of urban flood planning. Where as many growing desert cities lack data on sediment yield (Dedkov and Mozzherin 1984, Gallaire 1986, Laronne 1990, Terfous et al 2003, Nyssen et al 2004, Liénou 2007, FAO 2008, Amogu 2009, Billi and el Badri Ali 2010), decisions on the size of FCS and sediment delivery infrastructure in PMR were made based on an abundance of data.

The new desired outcome is to estimate sediment yields for growing desert cities informed by the "Wolman model" and using published and unpublished data from warm desert watersheds both in Phoenix and globally. Wolman (1967) recognized that prior to urbanization, land-use land cover (LULC) changes increase sediment yields that then spike during a relatively short period of bare-ground exposure, followed by sealing of the urban surface that then dramatically reduces sediment yield. This paper presents a new analysis of empirical data for the Phoenix metropolitan region, showing just how FCS are experiencing sedimentation (FCDMC 2015a), and proposes a strategy whereby RUDC can estimate sedimentation rates.

STUDY AREA

Phoenix, Arizona, is the fifth largest USA city. The population of the metropolitan area has increased an order-of-magnitude since 1950s with the advent of air conditioning (Grimm et al 2013), and PMR sprawled (Figure 4.1) commensurately with migrants seeking employment and low-cost homes. Phoenix is located entirely in the Sonoran Desert classified as a warm desert, Köppen-Geiger BWh climate setting and has precipitation averaging 208 mm split evenly between summer and winter maxima (Climate Office of Arizona, <https://azclimate.asu.edu/climate/climate-of-phoenix-summary/>).

The FCS are sustainable only if they have sufficient water storage space; thus, properly engineered structures must account for sediment accumulation as well as flood waters because sedimentation reduces the storage capacity of the structures. The flood control district of Maricopa County (FCDMC) operates and maintains 22 flood control dams (Appendix G and table 4.1). Among the 22 dams, 15 dams were built from 1954 to 1991 by United States Department of Agriculture-Soil Conservation Service (USDA-SCS) for 100-year flood protection in agricultural areas. Five dams were built from 1974 to 1985 by U.S. Army Corps of Engineers (USACE) for standard project flood ranged in the vicinity of a 200 to 500-year event (FEMA ____). One dam was designed by the FCDMC (FCDMC 2015b), where the total storage capacity was calculated from a gage height-volume relation curve by FCDMC (<https://www.maricopa.gov/3768/Water-level-Data>). Except Powerline, Vineyard Rd, and Rittenhouse FRS (EMNRCD and FCDMC 2013), most of FCS in PMR have not been recently surveyed to measure present sedimentation, and many of them even have never been surveyed since they were built.

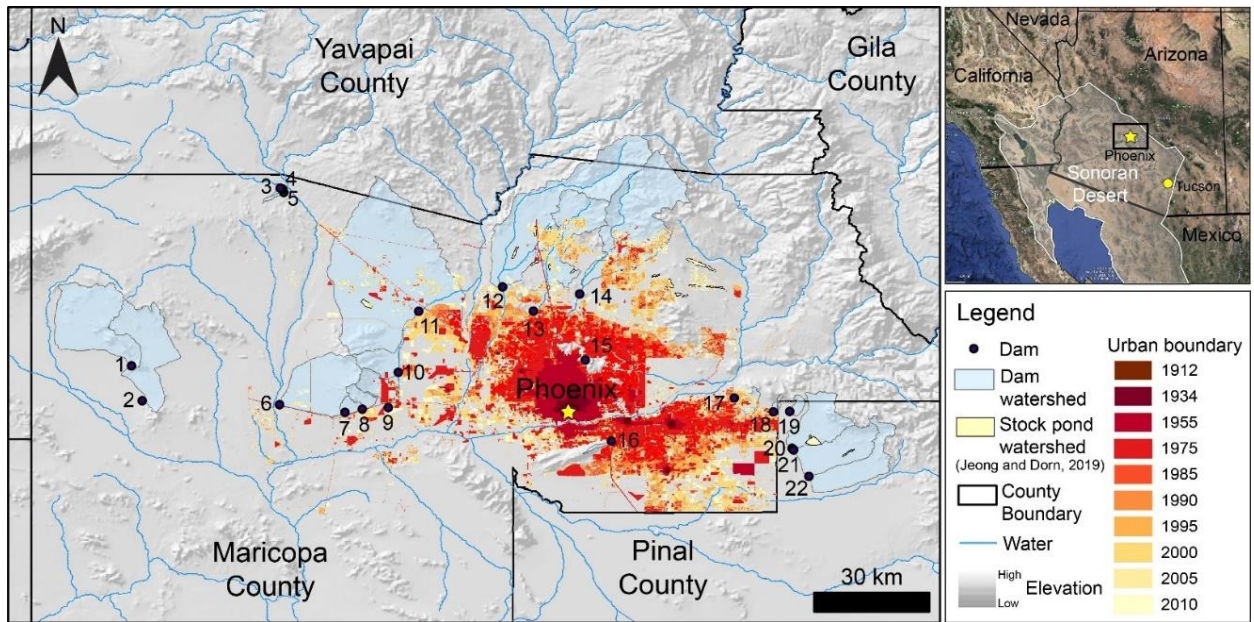


Figure 4.1. Map of the Phoenix Metropolitan Region (PMR) showing the locations of main dams and their watersheds. Urban sprawl of PMR over the period from 1912 to 2010 shows the dam watersheds have experienced a wide range of land-use changes. Sediment yield data associated with the urban sprawl was reported by Jeong and Dorn (2019). The data used to estimate sediment accumulation behind 22 main dams in PMR using extrapolation. See method section for details. The numbers refer to dams identified in this paper's data tables. Urban boundaries from 1912 to 2010 are extracted from land cover classification by Central Arizona–Phoenix Long-Term Ecological Research. Data available at <https://sustainability.asu.edu/caplter/data/view/knb-lter-cap.1.11> and <https://sustainability.asu.edu/caplter/data/view/knb-lter-cap.650.1/>. Because of the limited extent of the land use/land cover maps, some dam catchments on the margin of central Phoenix did not included in the extent of urban sprawl.

The latest hydraulics design manual for building FCS in the PMR focuses on empirically derived equations to estimate sediment yields from non-urbanizing basins (FCDMC 2015a). For the estimation of sediment accumulation in PMR, FCDMC used 21 sediment yield data monitored from 1942 to 1974 (Figure 4.2 and Appendix G).

Unfortunately, 10 of the 24 watersheds are located in non-desert regions of California and New Mexico (FCDMC 2015a). Also, the measurement period does not the period of urban acceleration of erosion (Figure 4.2) or any decadal climate changes in the PMR. In

contrast, sediment yield data from 1989 to 2013 (Figure 4.2) reported by Jeong and Dorn (2019) present an opportunity to test Woman’s model for PMR because their data recorded changes in sedimentation associated with major land-use changes on the urban fringe during the measurement period (Figure 4.1). Land use–land cover change (LULCC) for the period had a 30 m resolution (Fan et al 2017).

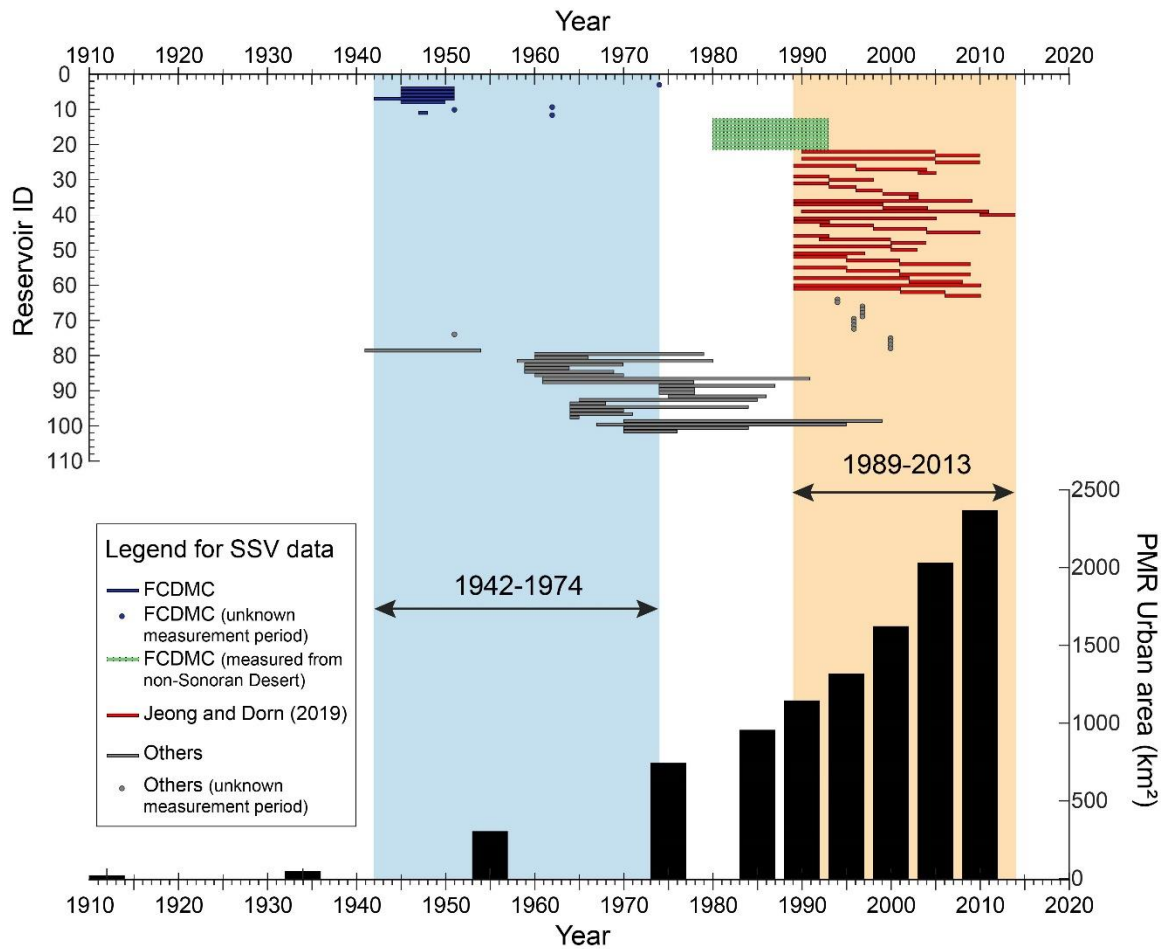


Figure 4.2. Period of reservoir sedimentation surveys in the Sonoran Desert where PMR situated in. Note the sparseness of data for the latter part of the 20th century that used as representative area-specific sedimentation volume (SSV) when major dams of PMR built (FCDMC 2015a), which is inconsistent with rapid urban growth of PMR. The reservoir identification numbers held on Appendix G. PMR urban area was calculated by LULCC map provided by Central Arizona–Phoenix Long-Term Ecological Research. Circles marked the published year because measurement period is not reported, indicating the SSV measurement probably earlier than the published year.

METHODS

Properly functioning FCS require an accurate estimate of sediment yield. This is especially true for RUDCs where floods and flash floods are major risks (The World Bank 2014). Due to the lack of data for present FCS sedimentation in PMR, compiled watershed sediment yield data is used to construct models to estimate sediment yield for the FCS. This paper compares the commonly used model to estimate sediment yield using the relation between sediment yield and drainage area under ‘without urban sprawl condition’ with a proposed model using the relation between sediment yield and annual urban growth under ‘with urban sprawl condition’ to recognize urbanization’s impact on sediment yield and to assess how the changed sediment yield could affect the scale of FCS. The estimation of annual sediment yield also enables calculation of an annual rate of storage loss and expected life of FCS when the storage capacity of FCS is known (Table 4.1). The predicted sediment yield for FCS in PMR will be compared to the designed sediment yield (Table 4.2) for FCS built by USACE that were designed for 100 years of sediment accumulation (USACE 1982, 1984b), except for the Saddleback FRS and Powerline FRS that was designed for 50 years of sediment accumulation (USDA-SCS 1977, EMNRCD and FCDMC 2013).

Published sediment yield data from soil erosion are presented in different ways, sometimes to different audiences whether they are scientists or policy makers (Leopold 1968, Zhang and Huang 2015, Li *et al* 2015, UNCCD 2008). Since different approaches to the presentation of sediment yield data can generate confusion, this paper defines SSY as an annual area-specific sediment yield measured in units of weights ($\text{Mg km}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ or

tons acre⁻¹ yr⁻¹) and area-specific sedimentation volume (SSV) as the annual area-specific sediment yield measured in units of volume (m³ km⁻² yr⁻¹ or acre-feet mile⁻² yr⁻¹).

Table 4.1. The 22 flood control dams operated and maintained by FCDMC in PMR

ID	Dam Name	Latitude (°)	Longitude (°)	Watershed	Built by	Year completed	Stream gage installation date	A _D (km ²)	A _D (mile ²)	Total storage capacity (m ³)	Total storage capacity (acre- feet)
1	Harquahala FRS	33.5487	-113.0977	Lower Centennial	SCS ^a	1991	3/1/1994	264.55	102.30	36039572	29218
2	Saddleback FRS	33.4666	-113.0726	Lower Centennial	SCS ^a	1982	12/16/1988	76.55	29.60	8317356	6743
3	Casandro Dam	33.9674	-112.7488	Lower Hassayampa	FCDMC ^b	1996	8/15/1996	3.10	1.20	283454	230
4	Sunset FRS	33.9649	-112.7426	Lower Hassayampa	SCS ^a	1976	2/12/1989	1.63	0.63	251753	204
5	Sunnycove FRS	33.9571	-112.7402	Lower Hassayampa	SCS ^a	1976	7/1/1986	3.59	1.39	451330	366
6	Buckeye FRS #1	33.4578	-112.7500	Lower Hassayampa	SCS ^a	1975	7/26/1983	198.09	76.60	26567186	21538
7	Buckeye FRS #2	33.4396	-112.5965	Lower Hassayampa	SCS ^a	1975	11/11/1992	14.74	5.70	2383823	1933
8	Buckeye FRS #3	33.4471	-112.5559	Lower Hassayampa	SCS ^a	1975	11/23/1992	22.50	8.70	3952317	3204
9	White Tanks FRS #4	33.4506	-112.4944	White Tanks B	SCS ^a	1954	1/9/1986	48.10	18.60	3131929	2539
10	White Tanks FRS #3	33.5340	-112.4710	White Tanks B	SCS ^a	1954	3/12/1986	53.01	20.50	7405814	6004
11	McMicken Dam	33.6773	-112.4233	Trilby	USACE ^c	1956	3/20/1983	626.33	242.20	46160399	37423
12	New River Dam	33.7348	-112.2264	Upper New River	USACE ^c	1985	4/15/1986	442.21	171.00	146322305	118626
13	Adobe Dam	33.6777	-112.1539	Skunk Creek	USACE ^c	1982	10/28/1982	225.76	87.30	90457256	73335
14	Cave Buttes Dam	33.7179	-112.0453	Cave Creek	USACE ^c	1980	1/25/1984	506.08	195.70	120020934	97303
15	Dreamy Draw Dam	33.5626	-112.0316	Upper ACDC	USACE ^c	1974	1/24/1984	3.49	1.35	909075	737
16	Guadalupe FRS	33.3719	-111.9705	South Mountain	SCS ^a	1975	6/29/1989	4.50	1.74	597251	484
17	Spook Hill FRS	33.4731	-111.6817	Lower Verde	SCS ^a	1980	3/13/1984	35.17	13.60	7310836	5927
18	Signal Butte FRS	33.4403	-111.5904	Lower Verde	SCS ^a	1987	11/10/1987	42.41	16.40	4193832	3400
19	Apache Junction FRS	33.4415	-111.5517	Lower Verde	SCS ^a	1988	9/15/1988	14.48	5.60	2767929	2244
20	Powerline FRS	33.3548	-111.5461	Upper East Maricopa Floodway	SCS ^a	1967	12/2/1992	119.47	46.20	9038941	7328
21	Vineyard Rd FRS	33.3508	-111.5425	Upper East Maricopa Floodway	SCS ^a	1968	11/2/1983	138.87	53.70	11769373	9542
22	Rittenhouse FRS	33.2889	-111.5066	Upper East Maricopa Floodway	SCS ^a	1969	9/27/1988	121.80	47.10	9549849	7742

^a SCS; United States Department of Agriculture-Soil Conservation Service (USDA-SCS).

^b USACE; U.S. Army Corps of Engineers.

^c FCDMC; flood control district of Maricopa County.

Table 4.2. 100 year-capacity loss and expected life of FCS based on the total capacity of FCS and sediment yields predicted by two models. The reported error term derives from the 95 percent confidential interval. Abbreviation: n.a., not available.

ID	Dam Name	A ₀ (km ²)	A ₀ (mile ²)	Designed SSV (ac-ft mi ⁻² yr ⁻¹)	100-yr capacity loss (%)	Expected life (yrs)	Model 1: without urban sprawl condition				Model 2: with urban sprawl condition			
							Predicted SSV (m ³ km ⁻² yr ⁻¹)	Predicted SSV (ac-ft mi ⁻² yr ⁻¹)	100-yr capacity loss (%)	Expected life (yrs)	Predicted SSV (m ³ km ⁻² yr ⁻¹)	Predicted SSV (ac-ft mi ⁻² yr ⁻¹)	100-yr capacity loss (%)	Expected life (yrs)
1	Harcquahala FRS	264.55	102.30				56.78 ± 11.39	0.119 ± 0.024	4.2 ± 0.1	2399 ± 48	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
2	Saddleback FRS	76.55	29.60	0.409 ^a	18	558	64.59 ± 11.86	0.136 ± 0.025	5.9 ± 0.1	1682 ± 31	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
3	Casandro Dam	3.10	1.20				90.15 ± 17.51	0.189 ± 0.037	9.9 ± 0.2	1013 ± 20	78.1 ± 14.31	0.164 ± 0.030	8.6 ± 1.6	1170 ± 214
4	Sunset FRS	1.63	0.63				96.40 ± 19.78	0.202 ± 0.042	6.2 ± 0.1	1603 ± 33	102.79 ± 21.65	0.216 ± 0.045	6.7 ± 1.4	1503 ± 317
5	Sumycove FRS	3.59	1.39				88.78 ± 17.05	0.186 ± 0.036	7.1 ± 0.1	1414 ± 27	110.1 ± 31.74	0.231 ± 0.067	8.8 ± 2.5	1140 ± 329
6	Buckeye FRS #1	198.09	76.60				58.51 ± 11.46	0.123 ± 0.024	4.4 ± 0.1	2292 ± 45	174.08 ± 99.40	0.366 ± 0.209	13 ± 7.4	770 ± 440
7	Buckeye FRS #2	14.74	5.70				76.67 ± 13.71	0.161 ± 0.029	4.7 ± 0.1	2109 ± 38	75.7 ± 15.46	0.159 ± 0.032	4.7 ± 1.0	2156 ± 436
8	Buckeye FRS #3	22.50	8.70				73.37 ± 13.05	0.154 ± 0.027	4.2 ± 0.1	2394 ± 43	59.38 ± 15.61	0.125 ± 0.033	3.4 ± 0.9	2958 ± 778
9	White Tanks FRS #4	48.10	18.60				67.79 ± 12.21	0.142 ± 0.026	10.4 ± 0.2	960 ± 17	158.26 ± 75.12	0.332 ± 0.158	24.3 ± 11.5	411 ± 195
10	White Tanks FRS #3	53.01	20.50				67.11 ± 12.12	0.141 ± 0.025	4.8 ± 0.1	2082 ± 38	75.56 ± 14.31	0.159 ± 0.030	5.4 ± 1.0	1849 ± 350
11	McMicken Dam	626.33	242.20				51.91 ± 11.29	0.109 ± 0.024	7.0 ± 0.2	1420 ± 31	456.39 ± 322.30	0.958 ± 0.677	61.9 ± 43.7	161 ± 114
12	New River Dam	442.21	171.00	0.288 ^b	4	2412	53.82 ± 11.32	0.113 ± 0.024	1.6 ± 0.0	6148 ± 129	219.76 ± 133.77	0.461 ± 0.281	6.6 ± 4.0	1506 ± 916
13	Adobe Dam	225.76	87.30	0.309 ^c	4	2723	57.72 ± 11.43	0.121 ± 0.024	1.4 ± 0.0	6942 ± 137	280.58 ± 183.33	0.589 ± 0.385	7 ± 4.6	1428 ± 933
14	Cave Buttes Dam	506.08	195.70	0.300 ^d	6	1660	53.07 ± 11.30	0.111 ± 0.024	2.2 ± 0.0	4468 ± 95	596.18 ± 433.04	1.252 ± 0.909	25.1 ± 18.3	398 ± 289
15	Dreamy Draw Dam	3.49	1.35	0.267 ^e	5	2048	89.05 ± 17.14	0.187 ± 0.036	3.4 ± 0.1	2924 ± 56	86.47 ± 15.93	0.182 ± 0.033	3.3 ± 0.6	3012 ± 555
16	Guadalupe FRS	4.50	1.74				86.73 ± 16.39	0.182 ± 0.034	6.5 ± 0.1	1530 ± 29	74.82 ± 16.05	0.157 ± 0.034	5.6 ± 1.2	1774 ± 381
17	Spook Hill FRS	35.17	13.60				70.04 ± 12.51	0.147 ± 0.026	3.4 ± 0.1	2968 ± 53	173.87 ± 85.80	0.365 ± 0.180	8.4 ± 4.1	1196 ± 590
18	Signal Butte FRS	42.41	16.40				68.69 ± 12.32	0.144 ± 0.026	6.9 ± 0.1	1440 ± 26	65.97 ± 11.11	0.139 ± 0.023	6.7 ± 1.1	1499 ± 252
19	Apache Junction FRS	14.48	5.60				76.81 ± 13.74	0.161 ± 0.029	4.0 ± 0.1	2489 ± 45	78.62 ± 15.53	0.165 ± 0.033	4.1 ± 0.8	2431 ± 480
20	Powerline FRS	119.47	46.20	0.103 ^f	6	1542	61.67 ± 11.63	0.129 ± 0.024	8.2 ± 0.2	1227 ± 23	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
21	Vineyard Rd FRS	138.87	53.70				60.71 ± 11.57	0.127 ± 0.024	7.2 ± 0.1	1396 ± 27	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
22	Rittenhouse FRS	121.80	47.10				61.55 ± 11.62	0.129 ± 0.024	7.8 ± 0.1	1274 ± 24	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.

*MODEL 1: SEDIMENT YIELD PREDICTION UNDER WITHOUT URBAN SPRAWL
CONDITION*

An inverse relation exists between SSY and drainage area (Dendy and Bolton 1976, Lahlou 1988, Milliman and Syvitski 1992, Einsele and Hinderer 1997), and Milliman and Syvitski (1992) confirmed a clear negative relation between SSY and drainage basin area based on 280 global data points. Thus, using this relationship has the benefit that the measurement of basin area is relatively simple, and hence it is frequently used for prediction of SSY in ungauged basins (De Vente *et al* 2007). The negative relation is generally explained by widely-used concept of the sediment delivery ratio (Walling 1983); as basin area increases, the relative portion of flat and gentle slopes increases and act work as sediment sinks rather than sources (Verstraeten *et al* 2003). The negative relation also exists between SSV and drainage area because sediment delivery ratios decline in the downstream direction (Graf *et al* 2010). In model 1, the SSV of FCS is best approximated by a power function.

The problem with this model is that other local environmental conditions could also influence the SSY. For example, scholarship reveals several factors thought to influence erosion rates, that could restrict use of this model: rock type in the Indian arid zone (Sharma and Chatterji 1982, Ferreira *et al* 2017); sediment remobilization in valleys (Church and Slaymaker 1989); and prominent channel erosion over hillslope erosion in highly vegetated areas (Dedkov and Mozzherin 1992, Church *et al* 1999, Prosser *et al* 2001, Dedkov 2004). Therefore, similar environmental settings should be compared when predicting SSV with Model 1. The following subsections describe the SSV

compilation data of Koeppen’s BWh warm desert setting, as well as methods used to predict SSV of FCS for desert cities that lack high-resolution datasets.

DESCRIPTION OF THE SEDIMENT YIELD DATABASE IN KÖPPEN-GEIGER WARM DESERT (BWh) SETTINGS

All available BWh SSV data were compiled for calculating storage capacity loss and life expectancies of FCS (Appendix G). Most of the African BWh data were compiled by Vanmaercke et al (2014). The other data derive from published and also unpublished sources (e.g. theses, consulting reports). Figure 3 presents all available annual SSV data from BWh warm desert climate settings.

PREDICTION OF SEDIMENT YIELD USING REGRESSION MODEL BASED ON SEDIMENTATION VOLUME-DRAINAGE AREA RELATION

Taken altogether, this compilation of BWh warm desert sediment yield is consistent with the observation of prior research that basin size and sediment yield maintains a slight negative relationship. Drainage area, however, only explains 12% of the observed variability in SSV (Figure 4.3). The relation between SSV ($\text{m}^3 \text{ km}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$) and drainage area (A_D) (km^2) for the 153 catchments in the BWh warm desert setting is:

$$\text{SSV} = 101.42 * A_D^{-0.104} \quad (1)$$

with an R^2 value of 0.12. Then, the regression used to estimate SSV for the 22 main FCS in PMR (Table 4.2). The annual rate of storage loss (ASL) was calculated using this equation:

$$ASL = (A_D * SSV / TSC) * 100 \quad (2)$$

where ASL is measured as a percent of storage volume lost per year through sedimentation (Graf *et al* 2010), TSC indicates the total storage capacity of FCS (m^3). FCS in PMR was designed to provide a total cumulative sediment storage capacity for 50-years or 100-years of sediment storage (USDA-SCS 1977, USACE 1981, 1982, 1984a, 1984b, EMNRCD and FCDMC 2013), thus 100-yr storage loss (100-yr SL) was calculated by 100 times the ASL. The expected life of a flood control structure (ELF) is inversely related to its annual rate of its storage loss:

$$ELF = 100 / ASL \quad (3)$$

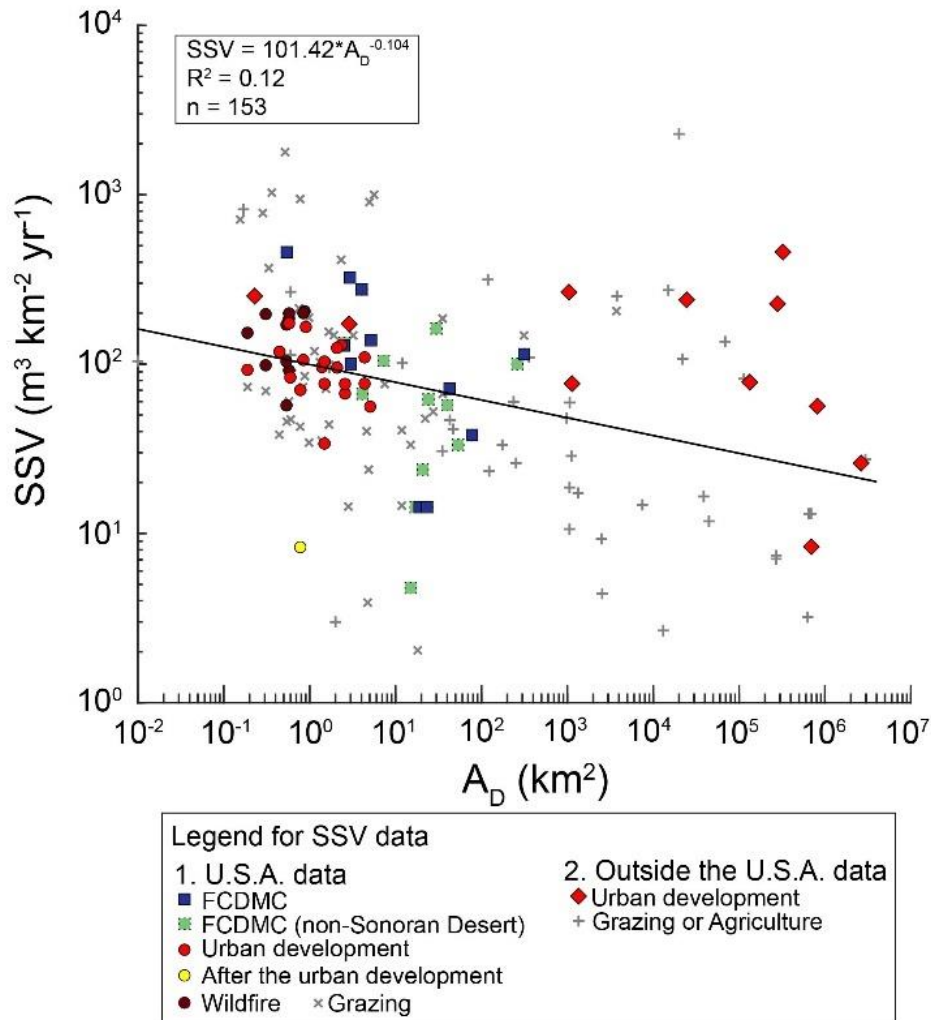


Figure 4.3. Log–log scatterplot and linear regression of all available area-specific sedimentation volumes (SSV) and drainage area (A_D) from the Bwh warm desert setting. Data used to derive the empirical equation to predict SSV of FCS by FCDMC are identified by squares, and data from Jeong and Dorn (2019) are identified by circles with different land uses portrayed by different colors. Data from the Americas, the Middle East, Australia, and Africa are differentiated by land use where such data were available (Appendix G).

MODEL 2: SEDIMENT YIELD PREDICTION UNDER WITH URBAN SPRAWL

CONDITION

Housing and commercial real-estate development in the PMR led to a lot of bare ground exposure that led to as much as a 3.4-fold increase in sediment yield above and

beyond the effects of grazing (Jeong and Dorn 2019). An individual case exemplifies the Wolman (1967) model for the RUDC of Phoenix, USA. The SSV of the watershed supplying sediment to a cattle stock tank called “Peralta tank” was $42 \text{ m}^3 \text{ km}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ during the period of grazing. Sediment yield then rapidly increased to $70 \text{ m}^3 \text{ km}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ during the time of active subdivision construction, and decreased to $8 \text{ m}^3 \text{ km}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ when sediment sources were sealed by a lot of concrete and pavement (Appendix G and Figure 4.3). Based on the Wolman model, the key land use parameters impacting SSV were annual urban growth and annual imperviousness. The following subsections describe methods used to calculate the land use parameters and the relation with SSV from small desert watersheds. The goal of Model 2 is to estimate SSV for FCS in PMR.

MEASURING URBANIZATION IMPACT ON THE SSV FROM DESERT WATERSHEDS

Figure 4.4 illustrates the conceptual model used here to quantify LULCC-related parameters using GIS procedures. Urbanization processes entail exposure of bare ground due to home and commercial real estate development, or other infrastructural development such as road and pipeline construction. Bare ground exposure then accelerates soil erosion by enhancing rain splash (Jeong and Dorn 2019) and overland flow. To estimate the magnitude of bare ground exposure or urban growth during the time period from T1 to T2 (BG1 in Figure 4.4), the area of intersection of natural land cover (natural vegetation and soil/desert) in T1 and urban land cover (asphalt/road, concrete/buildings, urban mixture and residential) in T2 was calculated using GIS. The imperviousness for the time period from T1 to T2, followed by sealing of the urban

surface, then resulted in a great reduction in sediment yield in T2 (U2). Then, the length of the time period (L1) allowed calculation of annual urban growth (AUG) and imperviousness (AI).

The PMR is a NSF site for long-term ecological research in an arid urban setting; two LULCC datasets with a 30 m resolution from CAP LTER quantified urban growth and imperviousness: i) LULC in 1912, 1934, 1955, 1975 and 1995 (<https://sustainability.asu.edu/caplter/data/view/knb-lter-cap.1.11>); and ii) LULC in 1985, 1990, 1995, 2000, 2005 and 2010 (<https://sustainability.asu.edu/caplter/data/view/knblter-cap.650.1/>). These data were supplemented by analysis of historic aerial photography from the Maricopa County Tax Assessor website (<https://gis.maricopa.gov/GIO/HistoricalAerial/index.html>) and Google Earth. Table 4.3 shows data from 18 stock pond catchments (Jeong and Dorn 2019) used to make the regression equation.

For the FCS drainage basins, no urban growth occurred within their drainage basins during 1912-1955. Therefore, based on the two datasets, 8 time periods were established: T1 (1955-1975), T2 (1975-1985), T3 (1975-1995), T4 (1985-1990), T5 (1990-1995), T6 (1995-2000), T7 (2000-2005) and T8 (2005-2010). However, the coverage of the two LULC datasets are different; LULCC for some time periods was not fully spatially covered. FCS ID 1, 2, 20, 21, and 22 in table 4.3 was excluded for quantification of urban growth and imperviousness, because the LULC does not fully cover the whole basin area. For FCS ID 3, 4, and 5, the former LULC dataset spatially covers whole drainage basin, but the latter dataset does not cover it; thus, only T1 and T3

could be used. The FCS ID 18 and 19 drainage basins were only covered by the latter dataset; thus, T4, T5, T6, T7 and T8 were used. For the remaining FCS where the two datasets fully cover the whole drainage area, T1, T2, T4, T5, T6, T7 and T8 were used unless there was no urban growth for each time periods (Table 4.4).

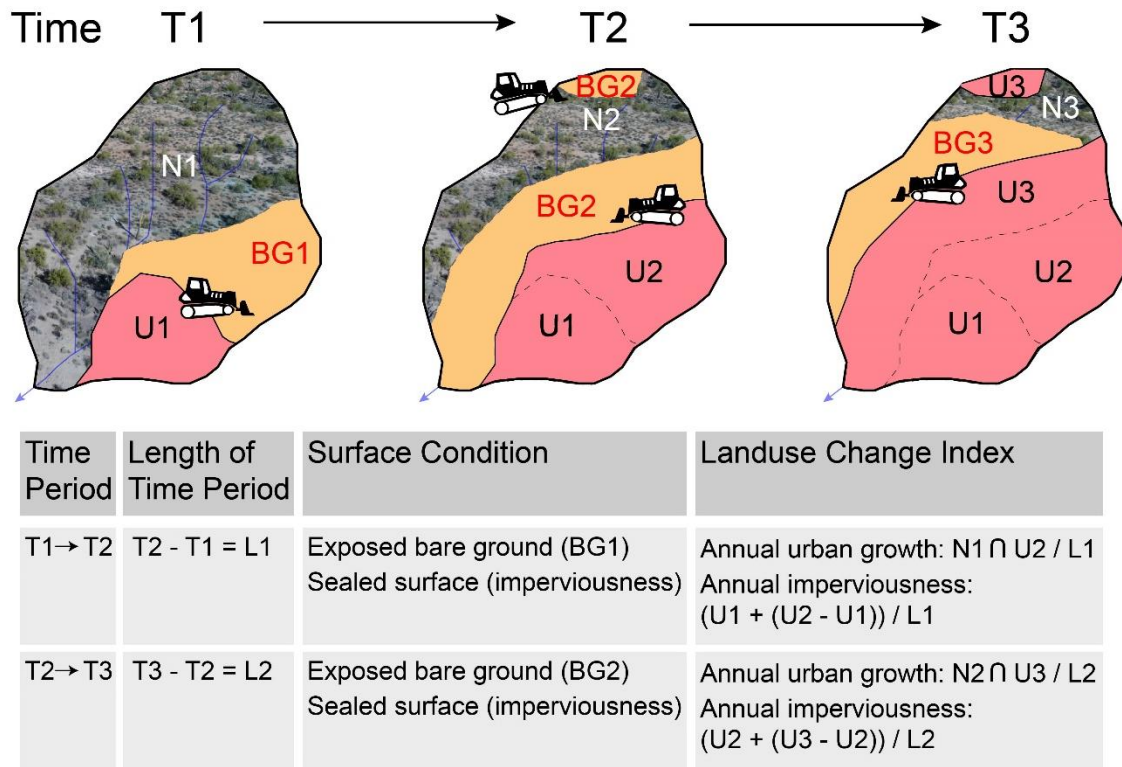


Figure 4.4. Conceptual model to quantify land use-related parameters using GIS. The dashed line is the imaginary line that does not exist on the land use/land cover classification map, which is to show the exposed bare ground. The exposed bare ground during the time period from T1 to T2 (BG1) can be calculated by the intersection of natural land cover in T1 and urban land cover in T2. The imperviousness for the time period from T1 to T2 can be quantified by urban land cover in T2 (U2). The annual urban growth and imperviousness was calculated from dividing by the length of time period. See method section for details.

Table 4.3. Data from 18 stock pond catchments (Jeong and Dorn, 2019) used to make the regression equation

ID	River/Catchment Name	MP	MP length (y)	Lat (°)	Lon (°)	A (mi ²)	A (km ²)	SDR (%)	Annual urban growth (km ²)	Annual Imperviousness (km ²)	SSV acre-feet/mi ² /yr	SSV (m ³ /km ² /yr)	ISD error of SSV	Eroded volume (m ³ /km ² /yr)	ISD error of Eroded volume	Data for EV-AUG regression?	Data for EV-AI regression?
1	Cigar	1990-2004	15	33.685117	-112.534267	1.00	2.60	60.83	0.015	0.015	0.14	66.54	5.81	109.39	9.56	Yes	Yes
2	Cigar	2005-2009	5	33.685117	-112.534267	1.00	2.60	60.83	0.061	0.283	0.16	73.82	6.35	124.65	10.44	Yes	Yes
3	Saguaro	2005-2009	5	33.800925	-112.204050	0.54	1.40	64.79	0.005	0.005	0.20	95.29	6.64	147.06	10.25	Yes	Yes
4	Cline	1989-1995	7	33.853465	-112.149325	0.58	1.50	64.33	0.007	0.023	0.07	33.68	3.72	52.35	5.79	Yes	Yes
5	Cline	1996-2003	8	33.853465	-112.149325	0.58	1.50	64.33	0.039	0.115	0.16	75.91	4.64	118.00	7.21	Yes	Yes
6	Cline	2003-2004	2	33.853465	-112.149325	0.58	1.50	64.33	0.061	0.383	0.22	102.74	11.10	159.70	17.25	Yes	Yes
7	Anthem 2	2002	1	33.850572	-112.101617	0.22	0.58	71.15	0.074	0.222	0.36	172.76	16.53	242.79	23.23	Yes	Yes
8	Bronco	1999-2003	5	33.774765	-112.117174	0.17	0.45	73.16	0.003	0.003	0.25	117.43	22.23	160.52	30.38	Yes	Yes
9	Circle	2010-2013	4	33.767891	-112.069517	0.23	0.60	70.89	0.005	0.005	0.17	82.72	18.73	116.68	26.41	Yes	Yes
10	Charlie	1989-2004	16	33.773722	-111.949346	0.35	0.91	67.79	0.032	0.042	0.35	164.52	25.80	242.68	38.06	Yes	Yes
11	Cave Creek	2000-2003	4	33.821477	-111.860042	0.07	0.19	80.62	0.003	0.003	0.19	91.75	8.37	113.81	10.38	Yes	Yes
12	Buckhorn	1989-1999	11	33.771593	-111.726559	1.70	4.40	57.73	0.027	0.000	0.16	76.06	2.31	131.75	4.00	Yes	Yes
13	Buckhorn	2000-2002	3	33.771593	-111.726559	1.70	4.40	57.73	0.073	0.052	0.23	108.78	4.91	188.42	8.50	Yes	Yes
14	The Rocks	1989-1996	8	33.735184	-111.843395	0.91	2.36	61.42	0.039	0.042	0.27	128.61	13.22	209.38	21.53	Yes	Yes
15	128th St	2001-2008	8	33.719610	-111.805910	0.33	0.85	68.28	0.000	0.000	0.22	104.99	13.63	153.77	19.96	Yes	Yes
16	AsherHills	1989-2001	13	33.731003	-111.703998	0.81	2.10	62.15	0.004	0.004	0.20	94.53	18.09	152.09	29.10	Yes	Yes
17	AsherHills	2002-2007	6	33.731003	-111.703998	0.81	2.10	62.15	0.047	0.119	0.26	123.67	4.60	198.97	7.40	Yes	Yes
18	Gold Cyn	1989-2009	21	33.367485	-111.515636	1.97	5.10	56.91	0.013	0.013	0.12	55.65	11.63	97.80	20.43	Yes	Yes
19	Peralta	2001-2005	5	33.334978	-111.429506	0.30	0.78	68.88	0.016	0.016	0.15	69.76	5.13	101.28	7.44	Yes	Yes
20	Peralta	2006-2009	4	33.334978	-111.429506	0.30	0.78	68.88	0.000	0.079	0.02	8.23	2.59	11.95	3.77	No	Yes

Table 4.4. Prediction of sediment yield by model 2 for each time period. Note: T1 (1955-1975), T2 (1975-1985), T3 (1975-1995), T4 (1985-1990), T5 (1990-1995), T6 (1995-2000), T7 (2000-2005), T8 (2005-2010), n.a.: not available. n.g.: no growth. The unit of annual urban growth (AGU) is $\text{mi}^2 \text{yr}^{-1}$ and SSV is $\text{ac-ft mi}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1}$.

ID	Dam Name	Ad (mi^2)	SDR (%)	Designed SSV	Dam completed (yr)	AUG in T1	SSV in T1	AUG in T2	SSV in T2	AUG in T3	SSV in T3	AUG in T4	SSV in T4	AUG in T5	SSV in T5	AUG in T6	SSV in T6	AUG in T7	SSV in T7	AUG in T8	SSV in T8	Σ ix	Projected SSV
1	Harquahala FRS	102.30	38.8		1991	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
2	Saddleback FRS	29.60	44.0	0.409	1982	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	0.006	0.170	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
3	Casandro Dam	1.20	59.8		1996	0.002	0.158	n.a.	n.a.	0.027	0.259	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	0.164
4	Sunset FRS	0.63	63.8		1976	0.003	0.172	n.a.	n.a.	0.046	0.305	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	0.216
5	Sunmycove FRS	1.39	58.9		1976	0.003	0.157	n.a.	n.a.	0.046	0.305	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	0.231
6	Buckeye FRS #1	76.60	40.0		1975	0.207	0.583	0.000	0.100	n.a.	n.a.	0.055	0.228	0.005	0.111	0.002	0.104	0.112	0.362	0.251	0.685	55	0.366
7	Buckeye FRS #2	5.70	51.4		1975	n.g.	n.a.	n.g.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.g.	n.a.	n.g.	n.a.	n.g.	n.a.	0.0	0.132	0.019	0.186	10	0.159
8	Buckeye FRS #3	8.70	49.4		1975	n.g.	n.a.	n.g.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.g.	n.a.	n.g.	n.a.	n.g.	n.a.	0.0	0.126	0.000	0.124	10	0.125
9	White Tanks FRS #4	18.60	46.0		1954	n.g.	n.a.	0.058	0.271	n.a.	n.a.	0.028	0.189	0.008	0.136	0.013	0.150	0.196	0.642	0.205	0.665	35	0.332
10	White Tanks FRS #3	20.50	45.6		1954	0.023	0.176	n.g.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.g.	n.a.	n.g.	n.a.	0.0	0.120	0.002	0.120	0.020	0.166	35	0.159
11	McMicken Dam	242.20	35.1		1956	0.113	0.319	0.243	0.584	n.a.	n.a.	0.286	0.673	0.381	0.867	0.351	0.805	1.224	2.593	1.499	3.158	55	0.958
12	New River Dam	171.00	36.6	0.288	1985	0.031	0.158	0.029	0.153	n.a.	n.a.	0.014	0.122	0.039	0.176	0.300	0.732	0.897	2.007	0.473	1.102	55	0.461
13	Adobe Dam	87.30	39.4	0.309	1982	0.004	0.109	0.030	0.167	n.a.	n.a.	0.041	0.192	0.086	0.297	0.247	0.667	1.151	2.748	0.742	1.807	55	0.589
14	Cave Buttes Dam	195.70	36.0	0.300	1980	0.137	0.378	0.221	0.554	n.a.	n.a.	0.374	0.875	0.627	1.407	1.154	2.516	1.308	2.840	1.627	3.510	55	1.252
15	Dreamy Draw Dam	1.35	59.1	0.267	1974	0.005	0.164	0.022	0.225	n.a.	n.a.	0.006	0.169	0.002	0.155	0.005	0.164	0.021	0.220	0.011	0.185	55	0.182
16	Guadalupe FRS	1.74	57.6		1975	0.001	0.146	0.009	0.173	n.a.	n.a.	0.005	0.160	0.013	0.188	0.001	0.148	0.002	0.150	0.002	0.152	55	0.157
17	Spook Hill FRS	13.60	47.4		1980	0.024	0.184	0.010	0.147	n.a.	n.a.	0.024	0.186	0.056	0.274	0.186	0.634	0.363	1.121	0.235	0.769	55	0.365
18	Signal Butte FRS	16.40	46.5		1987	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	0.004	0.127	0.007	0.135	0.017	0.162	0.009	0.142	0.004	0.126	25	0.159
19	Apache Junction FRS	5.60	51.5		1988	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	0.004	0.140	0.006	0.145	0.031	0.222	0.016	0.177	0.004	0.141	25	0.165
20	Powerline FRS	46.20	42.1	0.103	1967	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
21	Vineyard Rd FRS	53.70	41.5		1968	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
22	Rittenhouse FRS	47.10	42.0		1969	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.

SEDIMENT DELIVERY RATIO

As described in the development of Model 1, a negative relation exists between SSV and A_D . The regression model based on sedimentation volume-drainage area, however, does not consider the negative relation between SSV and A_D . Thus, unreasonably high SSV could be estimated when the regression equation is used for extrapolation, because drainage areas of FCS are much bigger than stock ponds drainage areas (Table 4.1 and Table 4.3). Therefore, the concept of sediment delivery ratio (SDR) related to A_D is adopted for Model 2. The latest FCDMC Hydraulics manual (FCDMC 2015a) provides an equation to calculate SDR based on the SDR curve as a function of drainage area (USDA 1972) with modification using data from southwest semiarid regions. FCDMC shifted the original USDA curve using data from Walnut Gulch watersheds near Tucson, AZ that the sediment delivery ratio is 0.41 for a drainage area of 57.53 square miles (Lane *et al* 2000). The SDR equation provided by FCDMC is (FCDMC 2015a):

$$\text{SDR} = -14.08(\log_{10}A_D) + 2.44(\log_{10}A_D)^2 - 0.45(\log_{10}A_D)^3 + 60.85 \quad (4)$$

where the unit of SDR is percent and A_D is mile^2 . The regression equation is applicable only for A_D larger than 0.04 and smaller than 500 mile^2 . Stock pond SSV were then converted to eroded volume (EV) from the watersheds, using this equation:

$$\text{EV} = \text{SSV} / (\text{SDR} * 0.01) \quad (5)$$

Then, for the larger drainage basins of FCS, the SSV was calculated based on the predicted EV based on regression equation from stock ponds data, using this equation:

$$\text{SSV} = \text{EV} * \text{SDR} * 0.01 \quad (6)$$

The following subsections describe the regression model between EV ($\text{m}^3 \text{ km}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$) and annual urban growth, as well as between EV and annual imperviousness (Figure 4.4).

PREDICTION OF URBAN ACCELERATION OF SEDIMENT YIELD

Based on Wolman's (1967) model, I hypothesized that the two LULCC parameters annual urban growth and imperviousness may be related to EV (Figure 4.5). The p-value for annual urban growth (0.017) is lower than the alpha level of 0.05 and shows statistical significance (Figure 4.5a), but the p-value for annual imperviousness (0.293) is greater than 0.05, indicating that it is not statistically significant (Figure 4.5b). Unlike Wolman's (1967) model prediction, there is no observed inverse relation between EV and annual imperviousness, which may likely because of the increased runoff in urbanized watersheds and high sediment transport efficiency of urban drainage network (Russell *et al* 2017). Therefore, only the regression between EV and annual urban growth was used to model prediction of SSV for FCS (figure 4.5a). The relation between EV ($\text{m}^3 \text{ km}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$) and annual urban growth (AUG) (km^2) for the 18 catchments experiencing urbanization in the Sonoran Desert and PMR is (figure 4.5a and Table 4.3):

$$\text{EV} = 1074.1 * \text{AUG} + 118.94 \quad (7)$$

with an R^2 value of 0.29. Then, the SSV was calculated by eq. 6 for each available time periods. The SSV predicted by regression model based on EV-AUG relation (eq. 7) (Table 4.3) were normalized by the length of time periods:

$$\text{Predicted SSV} = \frac{[\text{SSV}(\text{T1}) * \text{L1} + \text{SSV}(\text{T2}) * \text{L2} + \dots + \text{SSV}(\text{Tx}) * \text{Lx}]}{(\text{L1} + \text{L2} + \dots + \text{Lx})} \quad (8)$$

The storage capacity loss and life expectancies of FCS were estimated using eq. (2) and (3) (Table 4.3). The predicted SSV for each time periods (SSV(Tx)) are presented in Table 4.4.

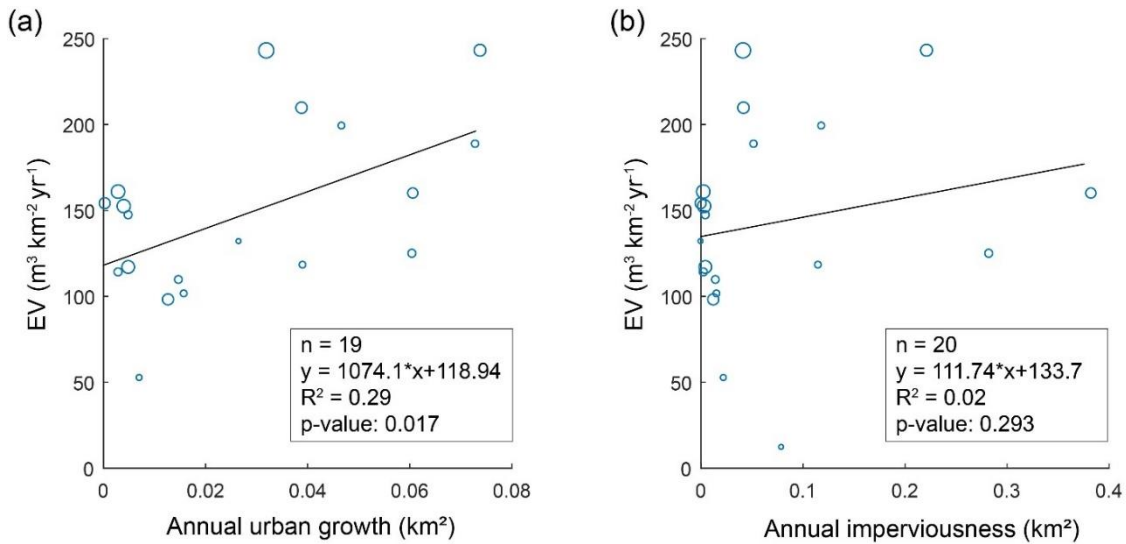


Figure 4.5. The scatterplot with 1 σ standard error ellipse and linear regression between a) eroded sedimentation volume (EV) and annual urban growth (AUG); b) EV and annual imperviousness (AI). Table 4.3 provides data used to construct this figure.

RESULTS

SEDIMENT YIELD PREDICTION FROM THE TWO MODELS

Overall, the result from model 2 shows a significant increase in SSV where sites experienced urbanization (Figure 4.1 and Table 4.2). The urbanization impact on sediment yields is clearly shown where FCS ID 6, 9, 11, 12, 13, 14 and 17 that experienced urbanization had much higher SSV (Figure 4.1). In contrast, FCS ID 3, 4, 5,

7, 8, 15, 16, 18 and 19 did not experience urbanization (Figure 4.1), and there were only minor differences in predictions by model 1 and model 2 (Figure 4.6).

Based on model 2 predictions, Cave Buttes Dam (FCS ID14) has the highest SSV, followed by McMicken Dam (FCS ID11) that experienced considerable urban growth (Figure 4.1 and Table 4.4). In contrast, the model 1 prediction shows the highest SSV from Sunset FRS (FCS ID4) followed by Casandro Dam (FCIS ID3) that both have small drainage areas (Table 4.2).

Eleven FCS (FCS ID 4-6, 9-14, 17, 19) had larger predicted SSV from model 2 than model 1 by up to 11.3x (mean: 3.8x), but six FCS (FCS ID 3, 7-8, 15-16, 18) had larger predicted SSV from model 1 than model 2 by up to 1.2x (mean: 1.1x) (Table 4.2). These findings reveals that urbanization's impact on sediment yield is far more dominant than drainage area.

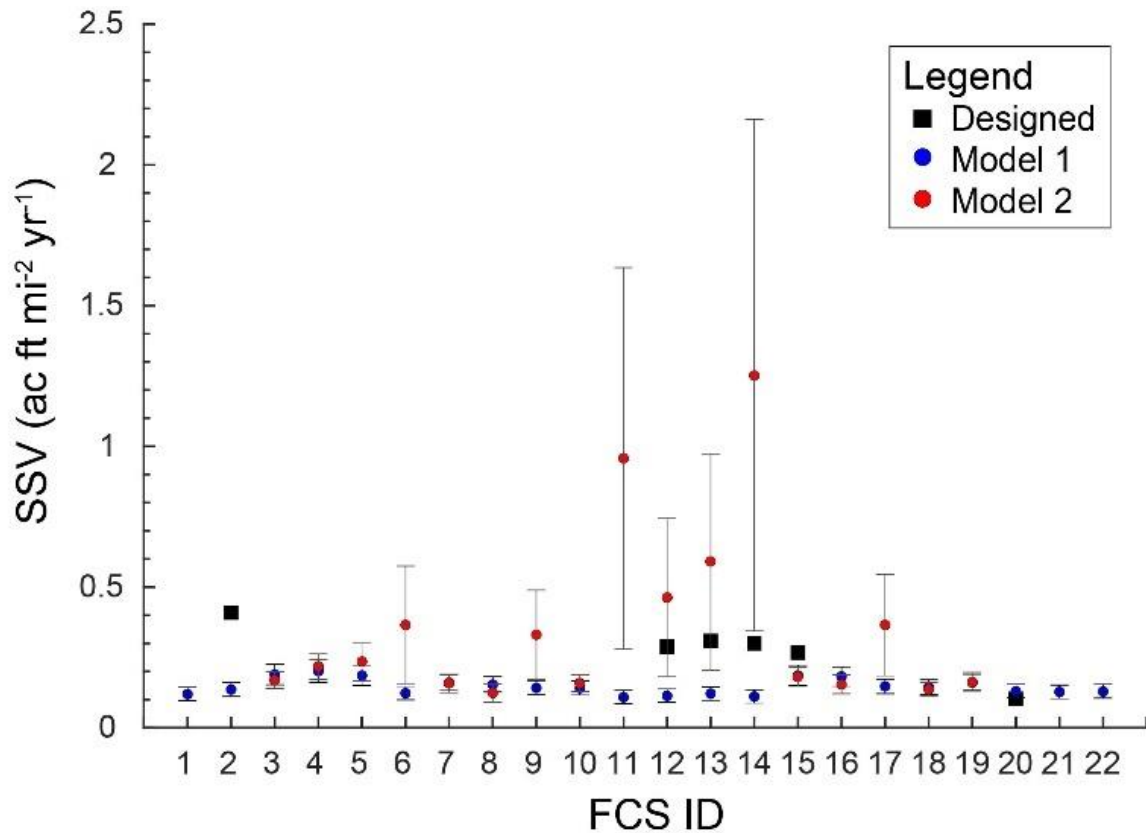


Figure 4.6. Comparison between the designed SSV when FCS built and predicted SSV based on the two regression models with the 95 percent confidential interval. Table 4.2 provides data used to construct this figure.

The sustainability of FCS depend on storage loss (SL) over a 100 year period (100yr-SL) and ELF using eq. (2) and eq. (3). Figure 4.2 and table 4.2 present these data. The highest 100yr-storage loss is predicted by model 2 for McMicken Dam (FCS ID11), followed by Cave Buttes Dam (FCS ID14) (Figure 4.7). The ELF of the two dams are 161 ± 114 and 398 ± 289 years, respectively. Model 1 predicted the highest 100yr-SL from White Tanks FRS #4 (FCS ID9), followed by Casandro Dam (FCS ID3) and the ELF of the two dams are 960 ± 17 and 1013 ± 20 years, respectively (Figure 4.7). Projects for sustainable sediment managements were planned and accomplished where sedimentation issues had been identified based on accumulated data. For example, for the

Rittenhouse Basin, the first phase of excavation was planned to increase the capacity of the East Maricopa Floodway along with a regular maintenance plan to mitigate the effects of erosion and sedimentation. This resulted in the McMicken Dam Fissure Risk Zone Remediation Project (FCDMC 2006).

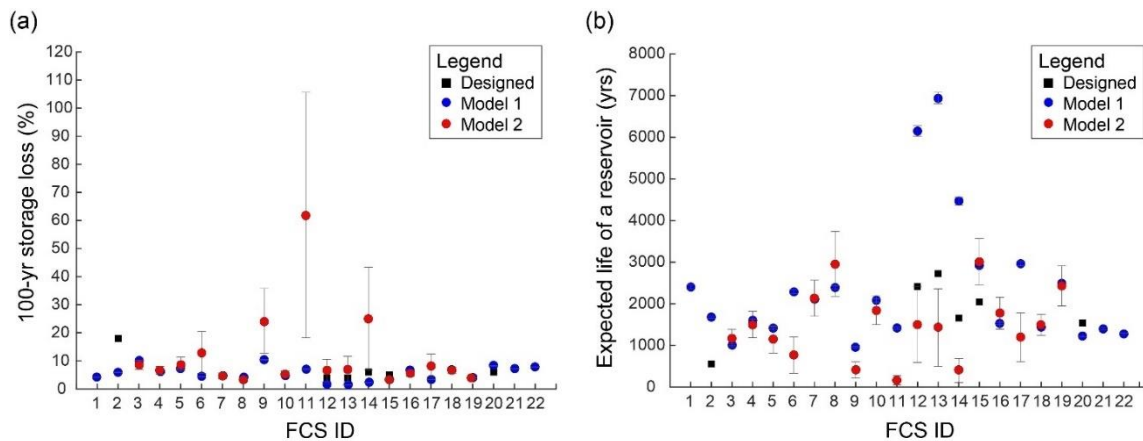


Figure 4.7. (a) Comparison between the designed 100-yr storage loss when FCS built and predicted 100-yr storage loss based on the two regression models with the 95 percent confidential interval. (b) Comparison between the designed expected life when FCS built and predicted expected life based on the two regression models with the 95 percent confidential interval. Table 4.2 provides data used to construct this figure.

The predicted SSV from the two models identified considerable spatial variation in the sustainability of FCS in the PMR (Figure 4.8). The most vulnerable FCS were once far from the urban boundary (Figure 4.8a, c), but urban growth has resulted greater vulnerability of FCS in drainage areas experiencing this growth (Figure 4.8b, d). In contrast, Dreamy Draw Dam (FCS ID 15) and the Guadalupe FCS (FCS ID 16) are slightly overbuilt (Figure 4.6). This is because of a combination of two factors: they are in locations where urban growth was decades ago; and they are in locations where much of the watersheds are now natural preserves that are free from the urban acceleration of erosion.

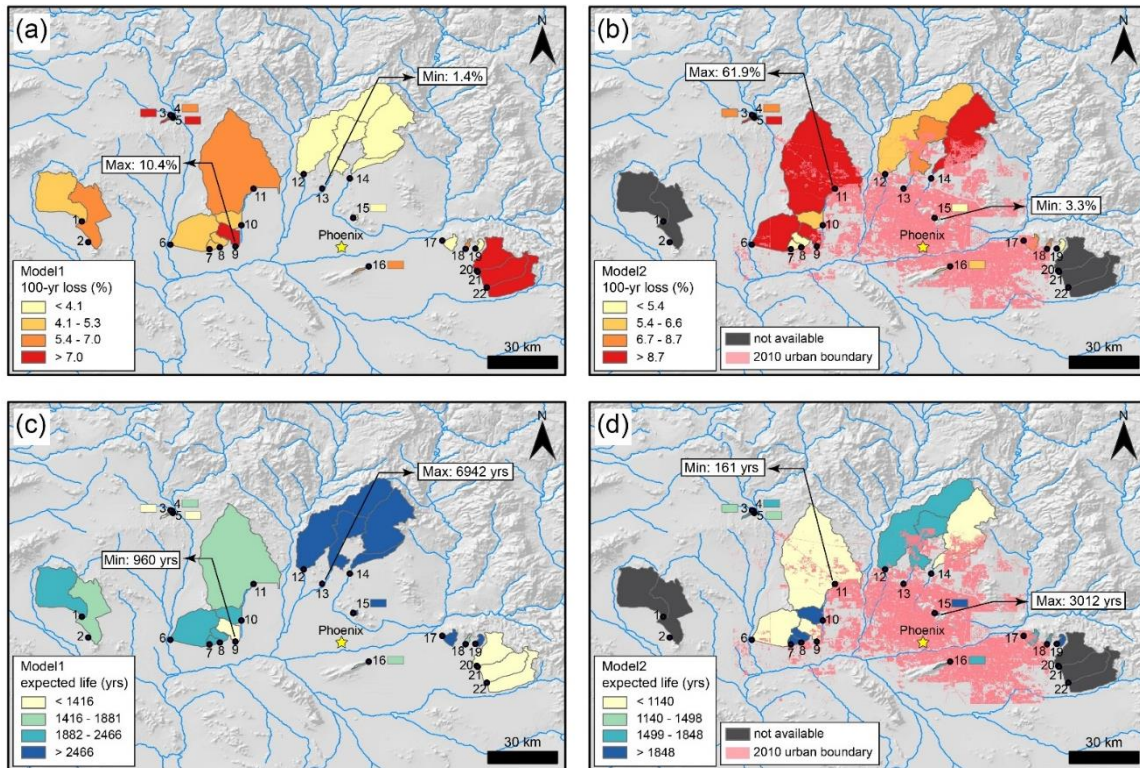


Figure 4.8. (a) Distribution of 100-year loss of FCS storage predicted by model 1 in the PMR. (b) Distribution of 100-year loss of FCS storage predicted by model 2 in the PMR. (c) Distribution of expected life of FCS predicted by model 1 in the PMR. (d) Distribution of expected life of FCS predicted by model 2 in the PMR. Table 4.2 provides data used to construct this figure.

COMPARISON WITH DESIGNED SEDIMENT YIELD

The area-specific sedimentation volume (SSV) used when the FCS were originally designed ('designed SSV') is higher than predicted by model 1 for Saddleback FRS (FCS ID 2), but lower for powerline FRS (FCS ID 20). The predicted SSV of Dreamy Dram Dam (FCS ID 15) from both model 1 and model 2 is lower than designed SSV. The designed SSV for FCS ID 12, 13, 14 was higher than predicted SSV from model 1, but lower than predicted SSV from model 2 (Figure 4.6).

The designed SSV underestimated area-specific sedimentation volume up to 4.2x for three FCS (FCS ID 12-14) when using model 2 and overestimated SSV up to 3.0x for five FCS (FCS ID 2, 12-15) when using model 1. The general tendency of underestimated designed SSV compared to model 2 prediction and overestimated designed SSV compared to model 1 prediction may indicate that storage capacity might have been appropriate for the time of FCS completion. However, urban sprawl condition has been an ongoing process for the planned life of the structures (50 years for FCS built by SCS and 100 years for FCS built by USACE; Table 4.5).

The designed storage capacity for sedimentation under conditions of a ‘future with urban sprawl’ maybe too small; this requires efforts to reduce sediment inflow to the reservoir or remove sedimentation from behind FCS such as by dredging. Consider the designed SSV ($0.300 \text{ ac-ft mi}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$) of Cave Buttes Dam (FCS ID14) estimated from USACE (1982) when the dam was built in 1980 (Table 4.1). The original design SSV is only a bit lower than the model 2 SSV ($0.378 \text{ ac-ft mi}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$) during the T1 (1955-1975) period of an ‘existing condition’ (Table 4.4). Based on model 1 SSV ($0.111 \text{ ac-ft mi}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$) its storage capacity for sedimentation was over-built in a ‘future without urban sprawl condition’, but its SSV increased significantly after the same was constructed (SSV in T2, T4-T8 in ‘future with urban sprawl condition’ Table 4.4, Figure 4.1 and 4.2). The urban acceleration of erosion led to a 4.2x higher SSV than designed SSV (Table 4.2), and this reduces the expected design life for sediment storage from 100 years to 23 years.

Other examples come from an analysis of the storage capacity for sedimentation behind New River Dam (FCS ID12), Adobe Dam (FCS ID13) and Dreamy Draw Dam

(FCS ID15). These structures were over-built at the time of FCS completion based on the model 2 (Table 4.4), but the SSV of New River Dam and Adobe Dam increased significantly due to urbanization starting in 1995 (Table 4.4), leading to the insufficient storage for sedimentation (Table 4.2). In contrast, Dreamy Draw Dam had sufficient storage for sedimentation, even after urbanization (Table 4.2 and Table 4.4).

Very little published research exists on the importance of rapid urbanization for sediment projection in a desert city. However, the identification of earth fissures and land subsidence around three Phoenix-area flood control structures led to the need to re-estimate sedimentation rates during the period of rapid urbanization. Powerline, Vineyard and Rittenhouse FRS (FCS ID 20, 21, 22) were classified as high hazard potential structures by Arizona Department of Water Resources (ADWR) due to the proximity of earth fissures and land subsidence (EMNRCD and FCDMC 2013). Thus, SSV was re-estimated by consulting engineers in 2008 and FCDMC in 2010, 2014 and 2016 (Maricopa County 2010). The new SSV was estimated as $0.600 \text{ ac-ft mi}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ (FCS ID 20), $0.611 \text{ ac-ft mi}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ (FCS ID21), and $0.597 \text{ ac-ft mi}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ (FCS ID22) for the Powerline, Vineyard and Rittenhouse structures, respectively (JE Fuller 2008). Then, a 2010 study (FCDMC, 2010a, 2010b, 2010c) estimated SSV for these three respective structures at $0.238 \text{ ac-ft mi}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ (FCS ID20), $0.272 \text{ ac-ft mi}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ (FCS ID21), and $0.151 \text{ ac-ft mi}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ (FCS ID22). Both JE Fuller (2008) and the FCDMC (2010) estimate higher SSV than designed. These independent studies provide broad confirmation of the importance of urbanization on increasing sediment yields in a rapidly urbanizing desert city.

Table 4.5. Designed life of FCS in PMR and FCS capacity loss for designed life

ID	Dam Name	A ₀ (km ²)	A ₀ (mile ²)	Built by	Designed SSV (ac-ft mi ⁻² yr ⁻¹)	Designed sedimentation life (yrs)	Total storage capacity (acre-feet) ^a	Designed storage capacity for sedimentation (acre-feet)	Capacity loss for designed life (%)	Model1: without urban sprawl condition			Model2: with urban sprawl condition		
										Predicted SSV (ac-ft mi ⁻² yr ⁻¹)	Capacity loss for designed life (%)	Predicted SSV (ac-ft mi ⁻² yr ⁻¹)	Capacity loss for designed life (%)	Predicted SSV (ac-ft mi ⁻² yr ⁻¹)	Capacity loss for designed life (%)
2	Saddleback FRS	76.55	29.60	SCS	0.409	50	4247	120	3	0.136	3	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
12	New River Dam	442.21	171.00	USACE	0.288	100	118626	4925	4	0.113	2	0.461	7	0.461	7
13	Adobe Dam	225.76	87.30	USACE	0.309	100	18350	2700	15	0.121	1	0.589	7	0.589	7
14	Cave Buttes Dam	506.08	195.70	USACE	0.300	100	46600	5700	12	0.111	2	1.252	25	1.252	25
15	Dreamy Draw Dam	3.49	1.35	USACE	0.267	100	317	36	11	0.187	3	0.182	3	0.182	3
20	Powerline FRS	119.47	46.20	SCS	0.103	50	7328	350	5	0.129	4	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.

^a It is based on the total storage capacity when the FCS was designed.

DISCUSSION

THE DESIRED OUTCOME OF RELIABLE SEDIMENT YIELD FORECASTING IN RAPIDLY URBANIZING DESERT CITIES

Forecasting the reliable future sediment yield is an essential part of designing storage capacity for sedimentation of FCS (Verstraeten *et al* 2003, Minear and Kondolf 2009, Vanmaercke *et al* 2011, Haregeweyn *et al* 2012, Wisser *et al* 2013, Vanmaercke *et al* 2015). Rather than measuring sedimentation volume of reservoirs by bathymetry surveying (e.g. Rakhmatullaev *et al* 2011), or back-estimated sediment curve from reservoir sedimentation survey data taken at several points in time and water inflow data (Tebbi *et al* 2012), many researchers use models to predict the reliable sediment yield in rapidly urbanizing desert cities due to the lack of existing sediment yield data and benefits of minimizing time and costs and applicability for designing a new flood control structure (Wasson 1994, Meamarian *et al* 2003, Griffiths *et al* 2006, Vanmaercke *et al* 2011, Fathizad *et al* 2014, Abdullah *et al* 2017).

There are a variety of models used to estimate soil erosion that fills in flood control structures. The basic conclusion of this study is that none of the existing models truly or appropriately consider the effects of urbanization. The drainage area – sediment yield relationship is commonly employed (e.g. Wasson 1994, Griffiths *et al* 2006; Vanmaercke *et al* 2011) and does not factor land use changes. The Revised Universal Soil Loss Equation (RUSLE) (Renard *et al* 1997) is also often used to predict soil erosion (e.g. Abdullah *et al* 2017) and sediment yield (e.g. Fathizad *et al* 2014) using the sediment delivery ratio. However, the C factor in the RUSLE accounts for land use-land cover and management impacts on soil erosion, and the C-factor was based on empirical

data from North America and might be impractical in other regions where land cover conditions and cropping practices differ (Zhao *et al* 2017). Models are also designed for the plot scale or, at most, small catchments (Boardman 2006, Syvitski and Milliman 2007) that do not have the capability for sediment delivery through channels to FCS (Nearing *et al* 2005). A semi-quantitative model developed by the Pacific Southwest Inter-Agency Committee (PSIAC) (PSIAC 1968) uses a rating technique through field visits, complemented with data on surface geology, soils, climate, runoff, topography, ground cover, upland erosion, channel erosion and sediment transport and land use (e.g. Fathizad *et al* 2014; Abdullah *et al* 2017); however, acceleration of soil erosion and sediment yield was not included in the land use factor. A global empirical model, BQART developed by Syvitski and Milliman (2007), was also used to calculate long-term suspended sediment loads where the anthropogenic factor (Eh) is part of factor B in the BQART model. However, the BQART model was trained by 294 global river basins with 10^2 - 10^7 km² drainage area. Importantly, the BQART model estimates human and urbanization impacts on sediment yield using an indirect method (population density and GNP per capita) rather than direct method such as urban growth rate proposed in this paper (Figure 4.4).

In summary, the previous methods to predict sediment yield have limitations that include: 1) considerable costs and time to measure local sediment yield data (e.g. bathymetric survey in reservoir, installation of gauging station); 2) drainage area scale issue (e.g. RUSLE, BQART); 3) urban acceleration of erosion is not considered (e.g. sediment yield-drainage area relation, PSIAC), or the relevant factor may not fit for different local setting (e.g. RUSLE), or it is predicted based on indirect variable such as

population density and GNP per capita (BQART). The prior models used to predict sediment yield in rapidly urbanizing desert cities, significantly, do not include a direct method to quantify urban growth and its impact on sediment yield, this despite evidence that urban growth is important factor leading to one to two orders of magnitude increases in sediment yield depending on prior land use (Russell *et al* 2017).

This research reveals that a sediment prediction without considering the urban sprawl condition led to a significant underestimation of sediment yield (Figure 4.6), resulting in reducing available storage for flood control (Figure 4.7 and 4.8). Sedimentation more rapid than planned handicaps flood control structures from fulfilling their most important purpose of flood risk reduction in rapidly urbanizing desert cities.

The results presented in this paper emphasizes that assessing urban growth and its impact on sediment yield is necessary for forecasting the reliable future sediment yield. Most urbanizing desert cities around the globe do not have local financial and technical resources to carry out the detailed empirical research presented in this study (The World Bank 2014). A cost-efficient and simple method to predict reliable future sediment yield is an important priority. The urban solution for forecasting reliable sediment yield in rapidly urbanizing desert cities would be using model 2 suggested in this paper because the model included a direct method to quantify urban growth and its impact on sediment yield. However, prior to employing model 2, the prior step is to predict future urban growth of desert cities using a variety of existing approaches (e.g. Al-Ahmadi *et al* 2009, Tayyebi *et al* 2014, Yagoub and Bizreh 2014, Alqurashi *et al* 2016). Then, with an informed understanding of predicted urban growth, model 2 will be able to suggest upper

bounds of sediment yield accelerated by geomorphic processes associated with desert urbanization. Model 2 would then provide appropriate output for designing sustainable flood control structures in rapidly urbanizing desert cities.

CONCLUSION

Flood risk reductions are a crucial goal for rapidly urbanizing desert cities (RUDC) to become economically, socially, and environmentally more resilient. The hazard of flooding often causes extensive loss of life and property and even increases national poverty (UNSIDR 2010). An environmental justice issue in RUDC can occur where there is an inequitable distribution of risk associated with flooding. Within the cities, poorer inhabitants living in self-built informal housing on urban edge particularly are at risk (O'Hare and Rivas 2005), and the inhabitants can seldom afford to move to low-risk area with better housing conditions.

A growing need for flood control in RUDC has led to resilient urban planning efforts to build flood control structures (FCS) (Muller 2007, Djordjević *et al* 2011, Liao 2012), but there has been increased concern over FCS sustainability in RUDC mainly derived from sediment accumulation problem behind FCS that can reduce usable capacity even before reservoirs completely filled with sediment (Morris and Fan 1998). The sedimentation problem is closely linked to the land use–land cover change in urban systems because bare ground exposure associated with urban growth (Wolman 1967) has increased one to two order of soil erosion depending on prior land use on global basis (Russell *et al* 2017) and the eroded soils will be transported by water and eventually will

be stored in FCS. Therefore, forecasting reliable sediment yield under urban sprawl conditions is a desired outcome for RUDC's sustainability.

The new approach proposed in this paper uses sediment yield data from urban fringe of the Phoenix metropolitan region, southwest USA, that has been experiencing a wide range of land-use changes over a study period of two decades. During this period of empirical data gathering, urban growth rates were quantified using remote sensing and GIS. In the proposed approach, the relation between sediment yield and urban growth rate is easily applicable for predicting sediment yield under urban sprawl, but only for desert cities. The proposed model is cost-efficient and simple, so it will improve sustainable flood control structure construction. When combined with an analysis of urban growth futures, the proposed desired outcome would reduce RUDC vulnerability to flood risks, particularly where the cities do not have local financial and technical resources that result in backlogs in infrastructure construction (The World Bank 2014).

After implementation of the desired outcome, an eventual goal for RUDCs would be sustainable sediment management. Sustainable sediment management is broadly classified into three categories (Kondolf *et al* 2014): 1) sediment yield reduction; 2) sediment routing; and 3) sediment removal. The city of Taiz in Yemen exemplifies one approach to sustainable sediment management when it built 21 sedimentation traps upstream (The World Bank 2014), which was an initial step towards resilience. In Japan, for example, the oldest sediment bypass tunnel was installed in 1908 and has been successfully diverting coarse sediment. However, this technique involves a high fiscal cost in construction (Sumi *et al* 2004). Sediments may also be removed by dredging

which is a commonly used technique and the pollution-free sediments can be re-used for agriculture (Haregeweyn *et al* 2012); but digging up and transporting costs can be high (Randle *et al* 2017). Based on the fiscal reality of many rapidly urbanizing desert cities, perhaps the most feasible management approach would be a sediment yield reduction approach as implemented in the Phoenix metropolitan area and enforced by regulating construction permits to comply with the Arizona Pollutant Discharge Elimination System (AZPDES) stormwater permitting process for construction activities (FCDMC 2015c).

CHAPTER 5

SOIL EROSION ASSOCIATED WITH URBAN SPRAWL COMPARED TO NATURAL BACKGROUND RATES (FOR SUBMISSION TO *NATURE GEOSCIENCE*)

ABSTRACT

Urbanization processes are increasingly recognized as potential drivers of environmental change with the pace of influence tied to an increasingly urban world. We present here the first comparison of soil erosion from urbanization to natural background rates of erosion measured through cosmogenic ^{10}Be catchment-wide denudation rates. Through exposure of bare ground from 1989 to 2013, urban sprawl accelerated erosion 1.3x to 15x above natural background rates of $\sim 76 \text{ Mg km}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ for the Phoenix metropolitan region, Sonoran Desert, USA. This acceleration likely represents a minimum potential impact because drought conditions occurred during the historic monitoring period. After statistical modeling natural soil erosion and urbanization effects, a spatial model reveals patterns of urban acceleration of soil erosion at the sprawling perimeter of the Phoenix region. We then contextualize our analysis of the erosive effects of a rapidly expanding desert city by presenting the first comparison of the urban acceleration of erosion above natural background rates for urban centers in different climatic regions.

INTRODUCTION

Wolman (1967) presented a conceptual model of a sudden spike of soil erosion associated with exposure of bare ground from construction followed by impervious surface sealing (Wolman, 1967). Prior to urbanization's soil erosion spike, Wolman's model used as background land uses such as agriculture and deforestation, since the setting of the original paper was in the eastern USA. Since Wolman's proposed model, a great abundance of research confirmed the existence of the bare-ground spike (e.g. Hooke 1994; Douglas and Lawson, 2001; Russell et al., 2017). No prior research, however, has yet compared urbanization's impact on soil erosion to pre-human conditions. This research is the first attempt to compare the natural background rates of erosion, measured by catchment wide denudation rate technique (von Blanckenburg, 2006), to pre-urban land uses such as cattle grazing, and then to the impact of urban sprawl. The importance of the topic of soil erosion in urban settings rests in soil erosion's associated with a variety of environmental and infrastructure management issues (see Table 5.1).

Table 5.1. Environmental and infrastructural management issues in urban area associated with soil erosion and sedimentation

1. Environmental issues: soil as a major sink for toxic chemicals		
Toxic chemicals	Environmental issues	References
Lead	Human health	Weitzman et al. (1993); Mielke and Reagan (1998); Markus and McBratney (2001); McGrath et al. (2004); Zhuo et al. (2012)
	Environmental Justice	Kraft and Scheberle (1995); Lanphear et al. (1996); Clark et al. (2006); McClintock (2012); Zhuo et al. (2012)
Cadmium	Human health	Lagerwerff and Specht (1970); John (1973); Chaney et al. (1999); Li et al. (2006); Six and Smolders (2014)
Other heavy metals	Human health	Lagerwerff and Specht (1970)
2. Infrastructure management issues: infrastructure sustainability		
Infrastructures	Management issues	References
Reservoir	Reservoir storage capacity loss, dam failure and flood control	Mount (1995); Annandale (2006); Graf et al. (2010); Kondolf et al. (2014); Podolak and Doyle (2015)
Road	Roadside gully formation	Croke and Mockler (2001); Jungerius et al. (2002); Nyssen et al. (2002)
Culvert	Plugged culvert by sedimentation	Cafferata and Cafferata (2004); Gillespie et al. (2014)

A fundamental difficulty in this prior research has been the reliance on human-disturbed land uses such as disturbed forests, accelerated burning of scrublands, grazing, and even isolated agriculture as a background condition preceding urbanization (Wolman, 1967). In contrast, catchment-wide denudation rates (CWDR) using cosmogenic isotopes provide watershed erosion rates over a long enough period that could truly represent natural conditions (von Blanckenburg, 2006). CWDR is not sensitive to anthropogenic impacts as long as soil is being removed only from a mixed

soil layer where cosmogenic nuclides concentration is uniform with depth (Brown et al., 1995; Granger et al., 1996). Hence, CWDR is increasingly used to provide ‘pre-human’ background rates over 10^3 to 10^5 years to compare with a variety of land uses (Gellis et al., 2004; Reusser et al., 2015). No prior research, however, has compared CWDR to understand urbanization’s impact of soil erosion. Here, we use CWDR to first develop a model of natural background rates of erosion for the Phoenix metropolitan region (PMR), USA, and then use a two-decade long record of erosion at the sprawling edge of the PMR to construct a statistical model of the impact of urbanization on soil erosion.

Cities initiate and expand in all environmental settings (Seto et al., 2011), and urban sprawl in drylands is no exception (Masoumi et al., 2018; Iqurashi and Kumar, 2014; Wang et al., 2018), and the PMR is an icon of urban sprawl (Gober, 2005) (Figure 5.1), set geomorphologically on alluvial fan and pediment low-slope piedmont landforms (Jeong et al., 2018a), in the Sonoran Desert where only scarce data exist on CWDR (Seong et al., 2016b). At first glance, a desert city might be viewed as a potential outlier urban setting to quantify the urban acceleration of erosion above natural (UAEN) conditions, because its low angle piedmont arid setting is generally thought to generate minimal rates of erosion (Einsele and Hinderer, 1997). We look at the PMR differently, as a setting to provide information on the low end of a future range of UAE using CWDR, since understanding the lower end of UAE provides critical information in erosion mitigation efforts (Brown et al., 2017).

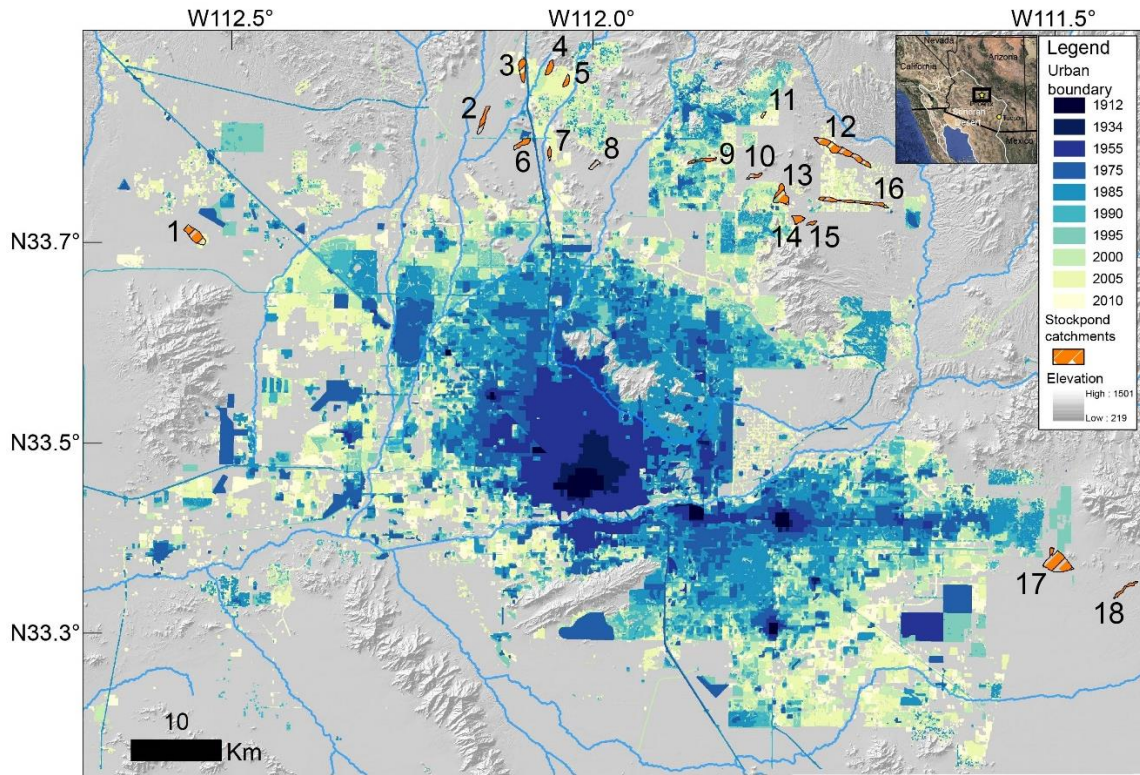


Figure 5.1. Urban sprawl of Phoenix metropolitan region (PMR). Map contextualizing the scattered locations of the stock pond catchments with urban sprawl of PMR from 1912 to 2010. The studied stock ponds are situated in the Sonoran Desert. Urban boundaries are extracted from land cover classification by Central Arizona–Phoenix Long-Term Ecological Research. The numbers refer to stock ponds identified in the Table 5.2.

CWDR scholarship reveals that climatic setting does not play a major factor on natural erosion rates (von Blanckenburg, 2006; Portenga and Bierman, 2011). Based on the global compilation of CWDR from cosmogenic nuclides, mean annual precipitation has no significant correlation (von Blanckenburg, 2006; Portenga and Bierman, 2011), and mean annual temperature has either is a very weak negative correlation (Portenga and Bierman, 2011) or no significant correlation (von Blanckenburg, 2006). Rather, slope and basin relief, mean elevation, and seismicity appear to be more important determinants

of background erosion rates (Portenga and Bierman, 2011). Among those, basin slope is the most significant predictor for CWDR and the remaining parameters are highly variable considering their regression power (Portenga and Bierman, 2011). Our rates of CWDR for the lower piedmont slopes (mean slope 0.4-6.5°) of the Sonoran Desert, for example, are similar to CWDR rates for similar geomorphic settings in other climatic settings (Reusser et al., 2015 – Appalachian Piedmont catchment mean slope 3-20°; Croke et al., 2015 – Great Barrier Reef catchment mean slope 1-7°; Schaller et al., 2016 - European fluvial catchments 2-13°). Thus, it is possible to estimate UAEN for other expanding urban regions using a model of CWDR and slope. Literature values for urban erosion rates and this model allows a rough approximation of UAEN to compare with our measurements and modeling in the PMR.

METHODS

Presentation of sediment yield data.

Sediment yield data from soil erosion are presented in different ways, sometimes to different audiences whether they are scientists or policy makers (Leopold, 1968; Zhang and Huang, 2015; Li et al., 2015; UNCCD, 2008). Since different approaches to the presentation of sediment yield data can generate confusion, the purpose of this section rests in clarifying our decision to present all sediment yield data in terms of area-specific sediment yield ($\text{Mg km}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$).

In general, sediment yield represents the amount of sediment that has been transported from one location to another measured as mass per time or volume per time

or mass per unit area per time. The exact definition, however, can vary from country to country, among governmental agencies, and among different researchers (see Appendix H).

Appendix H illustrates how soil erosion or sediment yield models vary in their data presentation. Universal Soil Loss Equation (USLE)-types models (USLE, RUSLE, and MUSLE) were designed to predict soil erosion on either plot-scale or catchment scale, so they use the term average annual soil loss as represented by mass per unit area per time, which is often incorporated into other sediment yield models. Sediment yield models (SWAT, AGNPS, and WEPP) differentiate soil erosion and sediment yield by adding sediment delivery ratio term into their model. These models report sediment yield result as either mass per time or mass per unit area per time (Appendix H). Although the output of USLE-types model is different from other sediment models, cross-comparisons exist between USLE-type models and other sediment models (e.g. Nearing et al., 2005; Li et al., 2017).

A key aspect of this study rests in comparing background erosion with modern rates of erosion, where natural background rates use the catchment wide denudation rate (CWDR) approach detailed in the next methods section. CWDR scholarship takes two approaches. One strategy converts modern area-specific sediment yield ($\text{Mg km}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$) to CWDR (m Myr^{-1}) by dividing bedrock density ($2.6\text{-}2.7 \text{ g cm}^{-3}$) (Schaller et al., 2001; Bierman et al., 2005). Another CWDR approach calculates background area-specific sediment yield by multiplying bedrock density and then compared to modern sediment yield correcting for sediment bulk density ($1. \times \text{ g cm}^{-3}$) (Hewawasam et al., 2003; Clapp et al., 2001; Gellis et al., 2004) (Appendix H). Thus, to minimize confusion, we use

exclusively ‘area-specific sediment yield (SSY, Mg km⁻² yr⁻¹) in this paper for modern measurements, and we then convert CWDR to this same unit (SSY, Mg km⁻² yr⁻¹) using bedrock density and sediment bulk density corrections detailed in the next methods section.

Background area-specific sediment yield derived from cosmogenic nuclide ¹⁰Be.

The drainage network of each of the selected 18 Phoenix-region catchments combines into a single channel that transfers sediment to a stock tank. Background erosion rate (CWDR) samples were all collected from the single channel just above each stock tank (Figure. 5.1). After sieving, just the 250-750 μm size fraction was chemically treated (Kohl and Nishiizumi, 1992) at the Geochronology Laboratory at Korea University, Seoul, Korea. The treatment repeatedly etches minerals in a dilute HF/HNO₃ mixture developed by Kohl and Nishiizumi (1992). We added a ⁹Be carrier with a ¹⁰Be/⁹Be ratio < 3.0 × 10⁻¹⁵, then separated and purified the Be by ion exchange chromatography and selective precipitation of BeOH at pH > 7. BeOH was oxidized by ignition in a quartz crucibles at 800°C for 10 min (Jeong et al., 2018b). BeO was then mixed with Nb metal and loaded onto targets for the measurement of the ¹⁰Be/⁹Be ratio by the 6MV accelerator mass spectrometry (AMS) at the facility of Korea Institute of Science and Technology (KIST), Seoul, Korea (Jeong et al., 2018b). Isotope ratios were normalized to the ¹⁰Be standards prepared by Nishiizumi et al. (2007) and the measured isotope ratios were converted to cosmogenic ¹⁰Be concentrations in quartz using the total ¹⁰Be in the samples and sample weights.

We calculated the catchment-wide production rate by integrating shielding conditions, latitude–altitude production rate functions (Lal, 1991; Stone, 2000; Heisinger et al., 2002a, 2002b), applying $4.49 \pm 0.39 \text{ g}^{-1} \text{ y}^{-1}$ at SLHL (sea-level, high-latitude) for the ^{10}Be reference spallation production rate in this study (Stone, 2000; Balco et al., 2008). For quantification of CWDR, we used the following equation (Lal, 1991):

$$\text{CWDR} = (P_0/C - \lambda) \cdot z^* \quad (1)$$

where P_0 ($\text{atoms g}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$) is the ^{10}Be production rate at the surface, averaged for the sediment source basin, C (atoms g^{-1}) represents measured ^{10}Be concentration, λ (yr^{-1}) is the decay constant of ^{10}Be , and z^* (cm) is a depth scale of absorption mean free path which is equal to Λ / ρ , where Λ (160 g cm^{-2}) is absorption mean free path and ρ (2.65 g cm^{-3}) is the density of bedrock.

We converted CWDR into the background area-specific sediment yield (SSY) using the following equation:

$$\text{Background SSY} = \varepsilon \times \rho \quad (2)$$

CWDR represents the catchment-averaged bedrock erosion rate, thus we used bedrock density ($\rho = 2.65 \text{ g cm}^{-3}$) to calculate cosmogenic nuclide-derived SSY (given as $\text{Mg km}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$) following scholarship comparing CWDR-converted background SSY with modern SSY did (Appendix H: Clapp et al., 2001; Schaller et al., 2001; Hewawasam et al., 2003; Gellis et al., 2004; Bierman et al., 2005). Table 5.2 presents details of each site needed to calculate production rates, the AMS measurement of ^{10}Be concentration, the calculation of CWDR in meters per million years, the residence timescale of the sediment

in each catchment in thousands of years, and the calculation of natural background sediment yields. Since different approaches to the presentation of background erosion can generate confusion, we defined background erosion as an annual area-specific sediment yield measured in units of weights ($\text{Mg km}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$).

Table 5.2. Catchment-wide denudation rate (CWDR) based on cosmogenic ^{10}Be analyses.

Sample ID	Latitude ($^{\circ}$)	Latitude ($^{\circ}$)	Mean elevation (m.a.s.l.)	Mean slope ($^{\circ}$)	Production rate** (atoms $\text{g}^{-1} \text{yr}^{-1}$)	^{10}Be concentration*** (10^5 atoms g^{-1})	Denudation rate (m Myr^{-1})	Timescale**** (kyr)	Background ***** ($\text{Mg km}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1}$)
1. Cigar	33.685000	-112.534361	462.0	0.36	5.008	5.85 ± 0.06	4.48 ± 0.05	122.0 ± 10.8	11.86 ± 0.13
2. Saguaro	33.801417	-112.204194	490.0	0.72	5.118	3.74 ± 0.05	7.32 ± 0.09	82.9 ± 7.3	19.39 ± 0.24
3. Cline	33.855750	-112.149222	573.5	1.20	5.461	6.46 ± 0.08	4.42 ± 0.05	19.3 ± 1.7	11.71 ± 0.14
4. Anthem	33.850572	-112.101617	574.0	6.22*	5.451	2.62 ± 0.04	11.29 ± 0.17	21.3 ± 1.9	29.91 ± 0.44
5. Anthem 2	33.851722	-112.099861	761.5	1.76	6.276	1.89 ± 0.03	18.14 ± 0.32	43.4 ± 3.8	48.08 ± 0.85
6. Pepe	33.786100	-112.159939	495.5	0.55	5.139	5.19 ± 0.06	5.22 ± 0.06	32.0 ± 2.8	13.84 ± 0.16
7. Bronco	33.775389	-112.116889	496.5	0.61	5.139	4.17 ± 0.05	6.56 ± 0.08	90.9 ± 8.0	17.38 ± 0.21
8. Circle	33.771167	-112.061167	573.5	6.50*	5.451	2.61 ± 0.06	11.34 ± 0.27	24.5 ± 2.2	30.05 ± 0.72
9. Charlie	33.774250	-111.949444	649.0	1.19	5.763	1.83 ± 0.03	17.24 ± 0.32	19.3 ± 2.0	45.68 ± 0.84
10. Rock	33.759806	-111.876472	857.0	2.57	6.719	1.29 ± 0.07	28.59 ± 1.57	21.3 ± 1.9	75.76 ± 4.15
11. Cave Creek	33.821477	-111.860042	860.0	1.93	6.739	5.99 ± 0.07	5.97 ± 0.07	45.6 ± 4.0	15.83 ± 0.18
12. Buckhorn	33.771556	-111.726667	661.5	1.53	5.813	2.62 ± 0.04	12.05 ± 0.17	120.5 ± 10.7	31.93 ± 0.46
13. The Rocks	33.735972	-111.840750	812.5	2.20	6.498	1.38 ± 0.03	25.95 ± 0.57	30.4 ± 2.7	68.76 ± 1.52
14. 128th St	33.719722	-111.806333	813.5	1.70	6.498	1.25 ± 0.03	28.56 ± 0.66	103.6 ± 9.2	75.7 ± 1.74
15. 128th St 2	33.716417	-111.791167	786.0	1.66	6.367	1.35 ± 0.03	26.00 ± 0.67	65.7 ± 5.8	68.89 ± 1.76
16. AsherHills	33.730250	-111.705028	733.5	1.28	6.125	2.63 ± 0.04	12.65 ± 0.20	74.6 ± 6.6	33.53 ± 0.53
17. Gold Cyn	33.367667	-111.514972	510.0	0.63	5.149	3.33 ± 0.05	8.31 ± 0.12	48.6 ± 4.3	22.02 ± 0.32
18. Peralta	33.334978	-111.429506	594.0	1.98	5.481	1.34 ± 0.03	22.52 ± 0.49	48.4 ± 4.3	59.67 ± 1.30

*Anthem and Circle were excluded from regression analysis for PMR background erosion model, due to the steep catchment mean slope. According to Saiz (2010), residential development is severely constrained by the presence of steep-slope terrain with the threshold of 8.5° . 24% of drainage area has slope above 8.5 degree in Anthem and 28% of drainage area has slope above 8.5 degree in Circle.

**Total catchment-wide production rate from spallogenic and muonic production. Reference production rate for SLHL is 4.49 g/yr . (Stone, 2000).

***Normalized with standard 07KNSTD and corrected for process blank. Error propagation was based on Balco et al. (2008). The large value between internal error and external error were selected.

Measuring modern sediment yields from urban sprawl

Sediment collection from 18 stock ponds monitored soil erosion as the Phoenix urban fringe expanded between 1989 and 2013 (Figure. 5.1 and Table 5.3). An Appendix A Google Earth File 1 presents the 18 studied stock pond watersheds. The selection of the stock tanks to monitor was based on obtaining local information that a land-use change was planned from the prior use of cattle grazing. Sometimes, that land-use change did not occur or did not take place on the anticipated timescale. The result is a mixture of land-use changes impacting sediment yields as the Phoenix metropolitan area expanded.

In each stock tank, nine 0.3 m segments of steel rebar were pounded flush to the surface of the sediment accumulation area in a 3x3 grid to account for spatial variability in sedimentation. Stock ponds were revisited at each major land use change to measure sediment accumulation depths on top of the rebar, located using a metal detector. Bulk density samples were collected from three points at each monitoring event and determined using the hydrometer method with the reported error term in Table 5.3 from the standard deviation.

The area-specific sediment yield (SSY) in the studied eighteen stock ponds is calculated (Verstraeten & Poesen, 2001) as follows:

$$SSY = SM / (A_D * TE * Y) * 10^6 \quad (3)$$

where SSY ($\text{Mg km}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$) is area-specific sediment yield, SM (Mg) is sediment mass, A_D (km^2) is drainage area of the watershed of each stock pond, TE (%) is sediment trap efficiency (100% for each stock pond) and Y (yr) is time period of measurement.

Since dust storms are common in the Phoenix region, silt and clay accumulating in the stock ponds could potentially derive from aeolian dust deposition, weathered bedrock, or more likely some unknown combination. Thus, two sediment yields (and erosion rates) are presented in Table 5.3. The maximum sediment yield calculation assumes that there was no aeolian dust deposition, while the minimum sediment yield calculation assumes that all of the silt and clay derived from aeolian deposition with the error term assigned from the standard deviation of nine depth measurements for each time slice. This standard deviation of the average depth then translates as a \pm percentage the reported sediment yield.

The maximum sediment (SM_{max}) was be calculated as follows:

$$SM_{max} = SV * dBD = A_P * D_{avg} * dBD \quad (4)$$

where SV (m^3) is the measured sediment volume in the stock pond during the given time period Y (yr), dBD ($g\ cm^{-3}$ or $t\ m^{-3}$) is average dry bulk density of the sediment, A_P (m^2) is sedimentation area and D_{avg} (m) is the averaged depth of the sediments measured from nine grid points. The minimum sediment yield was calculated as follows:

$$SM_{min} = SM_{max} * (1 - \text{percent silt and clay}) \quad (5)$$

We defined modern area-specific sediment yields from urban sprawl as ‘Urban acceleration of erosion (UAE)’. The key comparison involves stock-pond monitored two decades of UAE with background erosion derived from CWDR. Thus, the stock-pond monitored samples required a correction to rock density ($\rho = 2.65\ g\ cm^{-3}$) following scholarship making comparisons between UAE and background erosion (Appendix H: Schaller et al., 2001; Bierman et al., 2005). Table 5.3 presents this comparison.

Table 5.3. Stock pond catchment characteristics, land use/land cover variables of SSSY model for PMR, and data on sediment yields

Sample ID	Time period	Field description of dominant land use	Initial urban cover (%)	Urban growth growth. (%)	Urban growth. (km ²)	AUGR (% yr ⁻¹)	AUGR (km ² yr ⁻¹)	Different rock type	MAP (mm)	Coordinates (E30) (mm)	Ad (km ²)	At (km ²)	Min UAE* (Δlg km ⁻² yr ⁻¹)	Max UAE** (Δlg km ⁻² yr ⁻¹)	Background *** (Δlg km ⁻² yr ⁻¹)	Min UAEEN **** (Δlg km ⁻² yr ⁻¹)	Max UAEEN ***** (Δlg km ⁻² yr ⁻¹)
1. Cigar	1990-2004	grazing	10.68	8.54	0.22	0.57	0.01	metamorphic	207(20.9)	33.685117	2.6	6000	77.3 ± 3.8	89.2 ± 9.7	11.9 ± 0.1	6.5	7.5
	2005-2009	grazing and off-road vehicle use	0.00	11.65	0.30	2.33	0.06	basalt, granite	170(15.4)	-112.334267			89.6 ± 3.2	102.4 ± 9.8		7.5	8.6
2. Sagvato	2005-2009	grazing & pipeline construction	0.00	1.77	0.02	0.35	0.00	metamorphic, basalt, granite	222(25.1)	33.800925	1.4	5800	126.7 ± 4.6	143.2 ± 26.0	19.4 ± 0.2	6.5	7.4
	1989-1995	Some construction	1.13	3.32	0.05	0.47	0.01	metamorphic, basalt, granite	181(14.1)	-112.204025	1.5	9500	44.4 ± 5.4	52.0 ± 6.9	11.7 ± 0.1	3.8	4.4
3. Cline	1986-2003	commercial construction	5.41	20.87	0.31	2.61	0.04	metamorphic, basalt, granite	222(25.1)	33.853465			92.7 ± 3.1	103.7 ± 6.4		7.9	8.9
	2003-2004	subdivision construction	23.60	8.10	0.12	4.05	0.06	basalt, granite	181(14.1)	-112.149525			160.0 ± 10.9	174.7 ± 25.4		13.7	14.9
5. Anthem 2	2002	housing	0.00	12.74	0.07	12.74	0.07	metavolcanic	222(25.1)	33.850572	0.38	2700	230.1 ± 12.8	255.7 ± 41.4	48.1 ± 0.9	4.8	5.3
7. Bronco	1999-2003	road construction	0.00	3.32	0.01	0.66	0.00	metamorphic, basalt, granite	222(22.8)	33.774765	0.45	4100	112.5 ± 11.2	137.4 ± 32.4	17.4 ± 0.2	6.5	7.9
	2010-2013	road construction	0.00	3.32	0.02	0.83	0.00	metamorphic	181(11.5)	-112.117174			112.3 ± 4.9	128.5 ± 31.1	30.1 ± 0.7	3.7	4.3
9. Charlie	1989-2004	house construction	1.29	56.31	0.51	3.52	0.03	granitic	276(40.4)	33.737322	0.91	10500	235.6 ± 11.1	264.3 ± 49.1	45.7 ± 0.8	5.2	5.8
	2000-2003	house construction	0.00	6.29	0.01	1.57	0.00	granitic	276(15.4)	-11.1949346	0.19	1200	114.3 ± 8.7	128.8 ± 23.6	15.8 ± 0.2	7.2	8.2
12. Buckhorn	1989-1999	grazing	0.00	6.65	0.29	0.60	0.03	granitic	305(40.4)	33.771593	4.4	4100	91.6 ± 5.4	106.2 ± 17.1	31.9 ± 0.5	2.9	3.3
	2000-2002	house construction	0.09	4.97	0.22	1.66	0.07	granitic	260(28.0)	-111.726539			115.7 ± 15.2	133.4 ± 17.4		3.6	4.2
13. The Rocks	1989-1996	house construction	0.21	13.20	0.31	1.65	0.04	granitic	310(40.4)	33.735184	2.36	6500	212.9 ± 28.0	227.6 ± 25.7	68.8 ± 1.5	3.1	3.3
	2001-2008	road construction	0.00	0.34	0.00	0.04	0.00	granitic	248(28.0)	-111.843395	0.85	7000	141.3 ± 7.4	159.9 ± 29.4	75.7 ± 1.7	1.9	2.1
16. Ashcroft Hills	1989-2001	grazing	0.00	2.53	0.05	0.19	0.00	granitic	310(17.5)	33.731003	2.1	9800	125.9 ± 11.6	140.5 ± 27.6	33.5 ± 0.5	3.8	4.2
	2002-2007	house construction	3.78	13.36	0.28	2.23	0.05	granitic	248(18.4)	-111.703998			182.6 ± 7.9	199.1 ± 15.0		5.5	5.9
17. Gold Cyn.	1989-2009	cattle grazing & house construction	0.00	5.26	0.27	0.25	0.01	igneous, granitic	254(23.2)	33.367485	5.1	18000	45.3 ± 2.5	57.3 ± 13.1	22.0 ± 0.3	2.1	2.6
	2001-2005	subdivision construction	0.00	10.11	0.08	2.02	0.02	igneous, granitic, breccia	209(17.9)	-111.515636	0.78	2800	61.5 ± 3.9	77.4 ± 6.8	59.7 ± 1.3	1.0	1.3

Note. AUGR: annual urban growth rate; MAP: mean annual precipitation during the 10-year period of study periods; P1: Period 1 (1989–1999); P2: Period 2 (2000–2009); I30 is the total amount of peak 30-min rainfall exceeded 10 mm for 30 min; Ad: drainage area; At: tank area; Min UAE: minimum urban acceleration of erosion; Max UAE: maximum urban acceleration of erosion; Min UAEEN: minimum urban acceleration of erosion above natural background erosion; Max UAEEN: maximum urban acceleration of erosion above natural background erosion.

*Min UAE is calculated using Eq. (3) and (5) and the data is published in Jeong and Dorn (2019).

** Max UAE is calculated using Eq. (3) and (4) and the data is published in Jeong and Dorn (2019).

Measuring urbanization's impact on the Phoenix metropolitan region (PMR)

Urbanization impacts on cities result in enhanced disturbance and increased vulnerability to erosion, but PMR is a sprawling desert city. The PMR was once sealed by desert pavements, biological soil crusts (BSCs) (Allen, 2005, 2010), and interlocking colluvium on steeper slopes that provided a net-armoring effect (Bowker et al., 2008; Granger et al., 2001; Seong et al., 2016a). Only patches of the armored surfaces currently remain, providing glimpses into the original land surfaces due to the enhanced disturbance by anthropogenic impacts including periods of cattle grazing, periods of road building and home construction, and other influences, such as off-road vehicles (Jeong et al., 2018a). For these reasons, SSY associated with the time period of grazing (Table 5.3) is not an appropriate proxy for natural background erosion.

The urban expansion that followed grazing exposed bare soils that are far more vulnerable to erosion due to the enhanced rain splash and overland flow. For example, BSCs increases surface stability by minimizing detachment of soil particles. McCalla (1946) first showed soil aggregates and BSCs association were more resistant to disintegration by raindrop than aggregates without BSCs, which is supported by much studies reporting BSCs considerably reduced detachment and splash erosion by raindrops and overland flow (Osborn, 1952; Tchoupopnou, 1989; Booth, 1941; Fletcher and Martin, 1948), but the destruction of BSCs by road building and home construction generally decreases infiltration capacity (Harper and St. Clair, 1985; Harper and Marble, 1988; Eldridge, 1993; Warren, 2001; Kidron et al., 2012), increases runoff (Fletcher, 1960) and results in widespread erosion (Neff et al., 2005). With the context of a natural

condition of far greater armoring than the period of cattle grazing, we linked stock pond SSY measurements to urban growth in each of the stock ponds.

Figure 5.2 illustrates the conceptual model used here to quantify LULCC-related parameters using GIS procedures. To quantify the initial urban condition (IU of the year when SSY of stock pond watersheds monitoring started (Table 5.3 and Figure. 5.2), we first calculated either percentage or area of urban LULCC (asphalt/road, concrete/buildings, urban mixture and residential) in LULCC from 1985 to 2010 at five year intervals. When measurements fell between the five-year intervals, and the available historic imagery could not discern the exact time of the urban growth, we distributed urban growth evenly. Thus, urban growth (UG) (percentage and square kilometers) is quantified by calculating the transition from natural LULCC (natural vegetation and soil/desert) to urban LULCC. We also quantified time normalized urban growth rate (AUGR) by dividing the UG into the number of years of each monitoring period (Table 5.3 and Figure. 5.2).

In order to model background erosion and UAE for the entire Phoenix metropolitan region (PMR), we quantified the LULCC-related parameters for entire PMR using GIS procedures (Figure 5.3). The PMR is a NSF site for long-term ecological research in an arid urban setting; two LULCC datasets with a 30 m resolution from CAP LTER quantified initial urban cover and urban growth and: i) LULC in 1912, 1934, 1955, 1975 and 1995 (<https://sustainability.asu.edu/caplter/data/view/knb-lter-cap.1.11>); and ii) LULC in 1985, 1990, 1995, 2000, 2005 and 2010 (<https://sustainability.asu.edu/caplter/data/view/knblter-cap.650.1/>). These data were

supplemented by analysis of historic aerial photography from the Maricopa County Tax Assessor website (<https://gis.maricopa.gov/GIO/HistoricalAerial/index.html>) and Google Earth. Based on the two datasets, 9 time periods were established: T1 (1912-1934), T2 (1955-1975), T3 (1975-1985), T4 (1975-1995), T5 (1985-1990), T6 (1990-1995), T7 (1995-2000), T8 (2000-2005) and T9 (2005-2010).

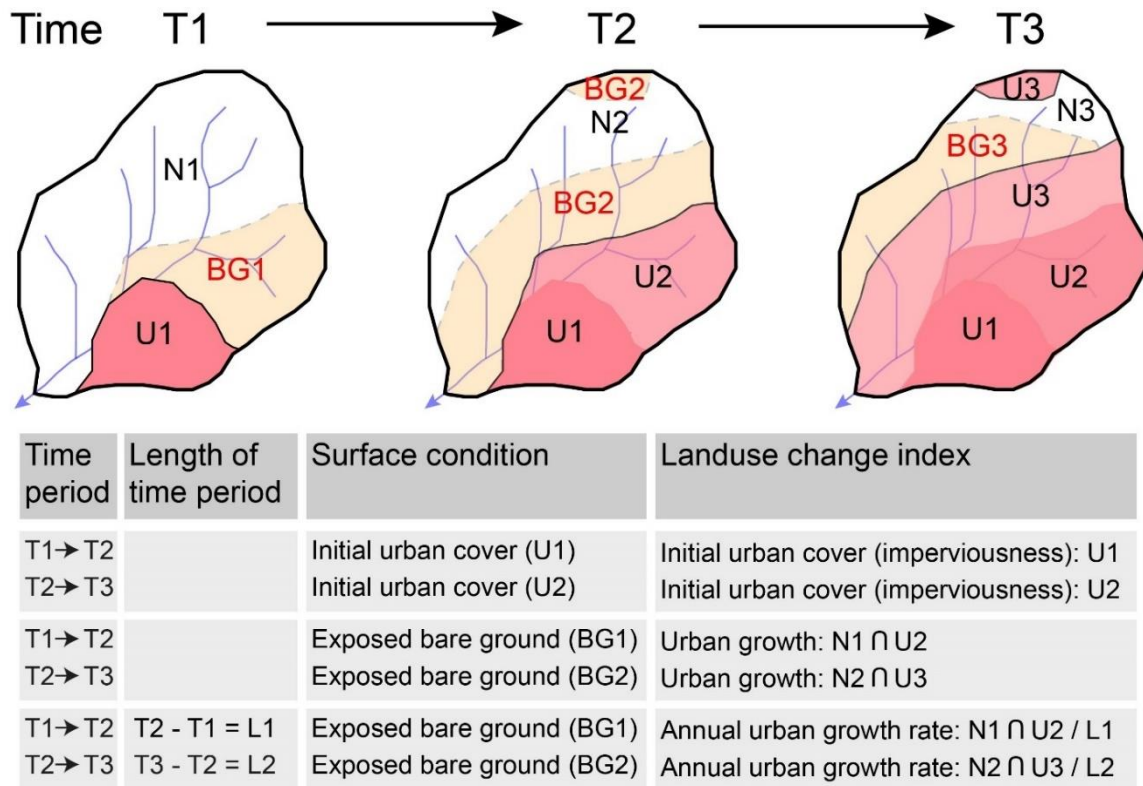


Figure 5.2. Conceptual model to quantify land use-related parameters using GIS. The dashed line is the imaginary line that does not exist on the land use/land cover classification map, which is to show the exposed bare ground. The initial urban cover during the time period from T1 to T2 can be quantified as U1. The urban growth during the time period from T1 to T2 (BG1) can be calculated by the intersection of natural land cover in T1 and urban land cover in T2. The annual urban growth was calculated from dividing by the length of time period. See method section for details.

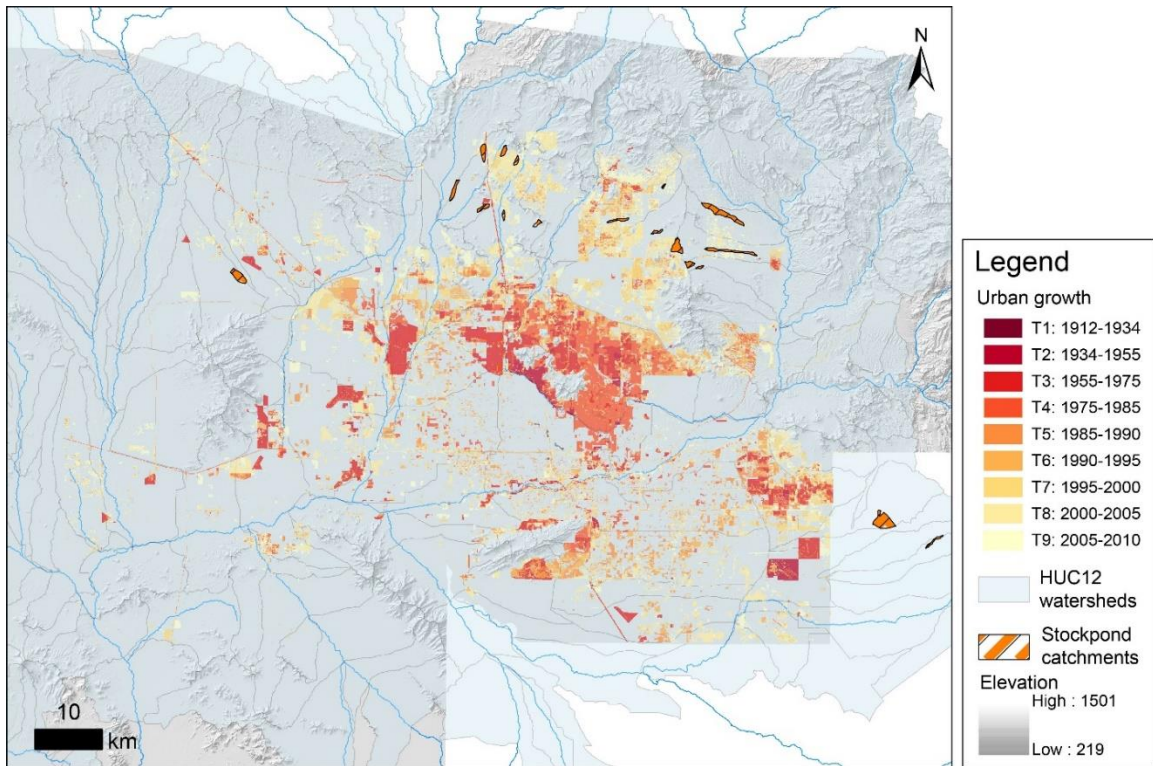


Figure 5.3. Urban growth from 1912 to 2010 and 12-digit hydrologic unit code (HUC) subwatersheds of PMR (USGS and USDA-NRCS, 2013) used for quantifying relevant LULCC and natural variables for erosion modelling

Modeling background erosion for the entire metropolitan Phoenix

In order to model background erosion for the entire PMR, we analyzed variables potentially related to background erosion rates. Metrics such as slope, basin relief, and mean elevation might be important determinants of CWDR and rock type is less dominant (Portenga and Bierman, 2011). We explored how different factors (mean slope, mean elevation, relief, drainage area, drainage density) impact CWDR. A correlation matrix presents Pearson's correlation coefficients between CWDR and morphometric properties of each catchment (Table 5.4). Of note, we excluded two CWDRs for a bivariate correlation test, because these two watersheds had comparatively steep

catchment mean slopes (6.6° and 6.2°) because the residential development backed up against mountain desert slopes. Generally, in Phoenix, residential development is severely constrained by the presence of steep-slope terrain with the threshold of 8.5° (Saiz, 2010). Thus, the presence of backing desert mountains made these catchments inappropriate for inclusion in any statistical tests.

CWDR was significantly and positively correlated with mean slope ($r = 0.77$, $p < 0.05$) and mean elevation ($r = 0.70$, $p < 0.05$), but drainage area, relief and drainage density did not show a clear correlation. Mean slope and mean elevation was significantly and positively correlated ($r = 0.88$, $p < 0.01$). Because the two predictors, mean slope and mean elevation is significantly correlated, we rejected mean elevation as a predictor for CWDR to avoid multicollinearity (Table 5.4).

Table 5.4. Correlation matrix between the CWDR and some stock tank catchment variables, Phoenix metropolitan area, Sonoran Desert, Arizona, USA

	<i>CWD R</i>	<i>Mean slope</i>	<i>Mean elevation</i>	<i>Relie f</i>	<i>Drainage area</i>	<i>Drainage density</i>
CWDR	1					
Mean slope	0.77*	1				
Mean elevation	0.70*	0.88***	1			
Relief	0.08	0.20	0.22	1		
Drainage area	-0.27	-0.31	-0.33	0.44	1	
Drainage density	0.34	0.25	0.39	-0.20	-0.49*	1

Note: n = 16, *Significant at $p < 0.1$. **Significant at $p < 0.05$. ***Significant at $p < 0.01$.

Since rock type is nominal data, we completed analyses of Student’s t-Tests to understand the importance of rock type on CWDR. Half of the stock pond watersheds are

underlain by only granitic lithologies, ranging from granite to granodiorite with some diorite and the other half of the stock pond watersheds are underlain by a mix of rock types, typically including rhyolitic tuff (ignimbrite), basalt, metavolcanic, and metasedimentary rocks (Jeong and Dorn, 2019). A t test comparing CWDRs of granitic versus other rock types reveals statistically significant difference for granite (M = 52.01, SD = 23.25) versus other rock types (M = 25.49, SD = 18.15) conditions, $t(13) = 2.54$, $p < 0.05$ (Table 5.5a). This difference is shown graphically in Figure 5.4a. However, we also rejected rock type as a predictor for CWDR because rock type and mean slope were highly correlated. We also did t test comparing mean slopes of granitic versus other rock types reveals statistically significant difference for granite (M = 1.76, SD = 0.46) versus other rock types (M = 0.98, SD = 0.6) conditions, $t(13) = 2.91$, $p < 0.05$ (Table 5.5b). This difference is shown graphically in Figure 5.4b. Different weathering characteristics of granitic and non-granitic rock types may result in multicollinearity. Whereas granitic rocks break down into grus, or sand-sized particles and maintain steep slope, the other rock types (basalt, ignimbrite, metasedimentary, and metavolcanic) decay into a mixture of fines (clay and silt), some sand, but also cobbles and boulders. Thus, we adopted only mean slope as a predictor for background erosion ($R^2 = 0.59$, $p < 0.001$) out of these variables (Figure 5.5).

$$\text{Background erosion} = 28.537 * (\text{mean slope}) - 0.254 \quad (6)$$

Modelling background erosion for the entire PMR was conducted with the following procedures:

1) Quantify exposed bare ground (BG) layers during the time period (T1-T9) using GIS

(Figure 5.3)

2) Based on the HUC12 subwatersheds, calculate mean slopes for all BG layers

(Figure.5.3)

3) Using equation 6, calculate background erosion for entire PMR

Table 5.5. Student's t-Tests results for rock types

	<i>a CWDR</i>		<i>b Mean slope</i>	
	<i>Granite</i>	<i>Others</i>	<i>Granite</i>	<i>Others</i>
Mean	52.01	25.49	1.76	0.98
Variance	540.65	329.28	0.21	0.36
Observations	8	8	8	8
Hypothesized Mean Difference	0		0	
df	13		13	
t Stat	2.54		2.91	
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.012		0.006	
t Critical one-tail	1.77		1.77	
P(T<=t) two-tail	0.025		0.012	
t Critical two-tail	2.16		2.16	

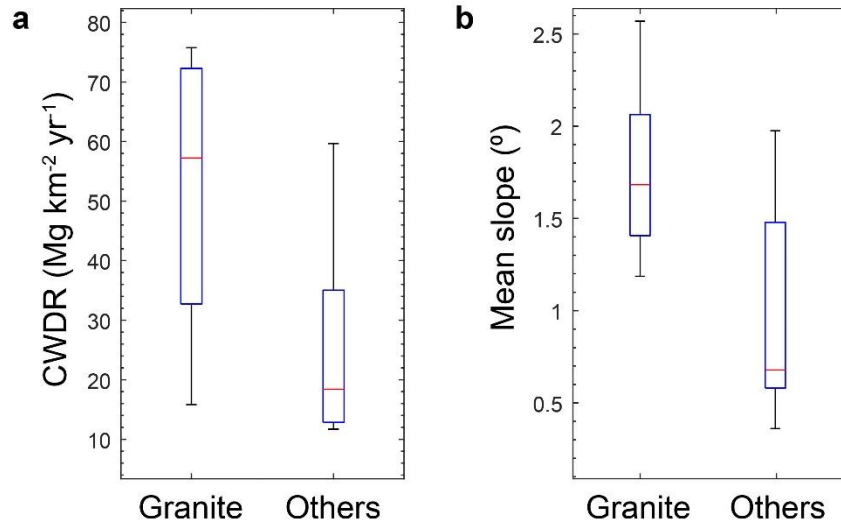


Figure 5.4. Box and whisker plots. (a) Box and whisker plots to compare CWDR of granite and other rock type. (b) Box and whisker plots to compare mean slope of granite and other rock type. Box ranges from 25th to 75th percentiles. Whiskers represent data range. Red lines are medians.

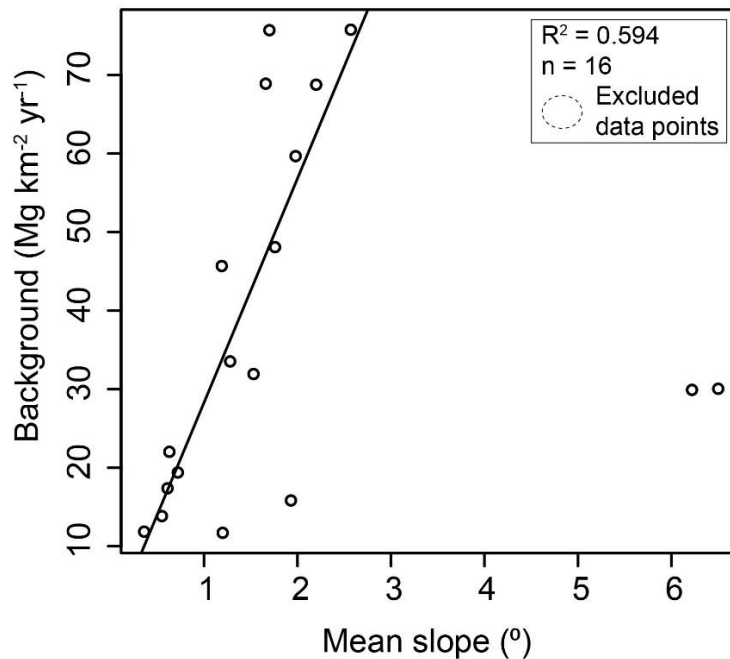


Figure 5.5. Linear regression model to examine the relationship between mean slope and background erosion rate.

Modeling urban acceleration of erosion for the entire metropolitan Phoenix

In order to model UAE for the entire PMR, we analyzed variables potentially related to UAE. We explored how different LULCC and catchment geomorphological factors (initial urban cover, annual urban growth rate, drainage area, mean slope, relief and drainage density) impact UAE. A correlation matrix presents Pearson's correlation coefficients between UAE and the variables (Table 5.6). UAE was significantly and positively correlated with annual urban growth rate in unit of % yr⁻¹ (AUGR1) ($r = 0.59$, $p < 0.05$). Annual urban growth rate in unit of % yr⁻¹ (AUGR1) and annual urban growth rate in unit of km² yr⁻¹ (AUGR2) was significantly and positively correlated ($r = 0.66$, $p < 0.05$). For modelling, we adopted AUGR2 instead AUGR1 because measurement of urban growth using percentage is not likely independent from the size of watersheds. We also adopted mean slope as a predictor for UAE because it represents natural influences of erosion, although it does not have significant correlation with UAE. Figure 5.6 shows the bivariate regression between AUGR1, AUGR2, mean slope and UAE. The final model to predict UAE is developed using multiple regression analysis, examining the relationship between AUGR2, slope and UAE (Table 5.7).

$$UAE = 1075.421*(AUGR2) + 7.925*(mean\ slope) + 99.388 \quad (7)$$

The multiple regression model with all two predictors produced $R^2 = 0.21$ (Adjusted $R^2 = 0.11$), $F(2,16) = 2.06$, $p < 0.5$.

Table 5.6. Correlation matrix between the UAE and some stock tank catchment variables, Phoenix metropolitan area, Sonoran Desert, Arizona, USA

Name	UAE	IUC	AUGR1	AUGR2	DA	Mslp	RF	DD
UAE	1							
IUC	0.05	1						
AUGR1	0.59**	0.12	1					
AUGR2	0.42	0.29	0.66**	1				
DA	-0.34	-0.03	-0.28	0.26	1			
Mslp	0.10	-0.17	0.01	-0.15	-0.30	1		
RF	0.11	-0.17	-0.15	0.17	0.40	0.34	1	
DD	0.06	-0.41	-0.14	-0.40	-0.36	0.38	0.03	1

Note: n = 19, *Significant at $p < 0.1$. **Significant at $p < 0.05$. ***Significant at $p < 0.01$. UAE: urban acceleration of erosion ($\text{Mg km}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1}$); IUC: initial urban cover (%); AUGR1: annual urban growth rate ($\% \text{yr}^{-1}$); AUGR2: annual urban growth rate ($\text{km}^2 \text{yr}^{-1}$); DA: drainage area (km^2); Mslp: Mean slope ($^\circ$); RF: relief (m); DD: drainage density (km^{-1}).

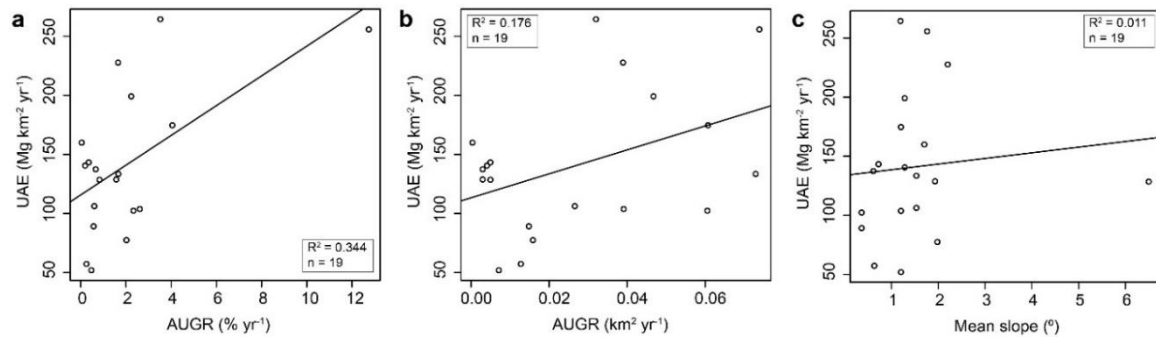


Figure 5.6. Scatterplot and linear regression to examine the relationship between (a) AUGR1 and UAE, (b) AUGR2 and UAE, (c) mean slope and UAE.

Table 5.7. Linear regression analysis for estimation of urban acceleration of erosion (UAE)

Model	<i>Dependent variable:</i>			
	UAE			
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
AUGR (% yr ⁻¹)	12.581** (4.216)			
AUGR (km ² yr ⁻¹)		1012.34. (530.52)		1075.421. (543.648)
Mean slope			4.769 (11.166)	7.925 (10.439)
Constant	115.741*** (14.429)	113.29*** (19.58)	133.810*** (22.326)	99.388** (26.988)
Observations	19	19	19	19
R ²	0.344	0.176	0.011	0.205
Adjusted R ²	0.305	0.128	-0.048	0.106

Note: . 0.05<P<0.1 *0.01<P<0.05 ** 0.001<P<0.01 *** P<0.001. We adopted model 4 for estimation of urban acceleration of erosion.

Modelling UAE for the entire PMR was conducted with the following procedures:

- 1) Quantify exposed bare ground (BG) layers during the time period (T1-T9) using GIS (Figure 5.3)
- 2) Calculate AUGR2 during the time period (T1-T9) for all BG layers (Figure.5.3)
- 3) Based on the HUC12 subwatersheds, calculate mean slopes for all BG layers (Figure.5.3)
- 4) Using equation 7, calculate UAE for entire PMR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Urban acceleration of soil erosion in sprawling desert watersheds

Cosmogenic nuclide ^{10}Be -derived CWDRs from 18 small desert watersheds on low-angle piedmont settings in PMR (Figure 5.1) presented an opportunity to quantify pre-human natural background erosion for PMR (“background erosion”, hereafter). Background erosion rates estimated from cosmogenic nuclides range from 12 to 76 $\text{Mg km}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1}$ with a mean of 38 $\text{Mg km}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1}$ and are integrated over a mean soil residence time of 19–122 kyr (Table 5.2). These slow rates of soil erosion are because these natural piedmont surfaces once hosted biological soil crusts, and interlocking colluvium on steeper slopes, providing a net armoring effect (Jeong et al., 2018).

Urban sprawl, however, disturbed the surfaces and exposed bare ground during the home and commercial real estate development, or other infrastructural development such as road and pipeline construction, that in turn accelerates soil erosion by enhancing rain splash and overland flow (Jeong and Dorn 2019). Bare ground associated with urban sprawling processes of residential and real estate development (Figure 5.2) increases sediment yields typically ~15-fold over background rates (Table 5.3). Figure 5.7 exemplifies historic changes in just one of the watersheds. Appendix K presents this information for all of the watersheds impacted by urban sprawl. Normally, Wolman’s (1967)’s erosion spike is compared with historical land use such as grazing or logging, but in Figure. 5.7 and Appendix K, the CWDR background erosion exists as a point of comparison.

c ID03: Cline (1989-2004)



1991: Cattle grazing

1997: Construction (commercial)

2004: Construction (subdivision)

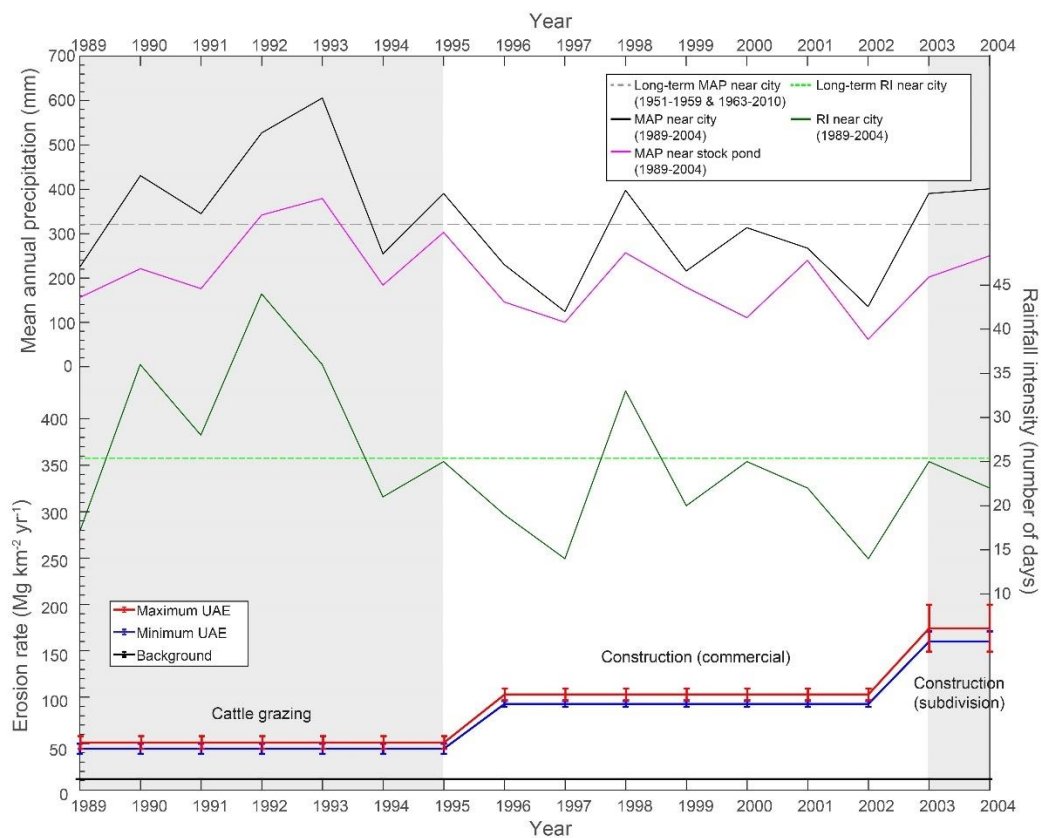


Figure 5.7. The change of land-use, precipitation variables, and erosion rates during the monitoring period. This is one example from ID 3 Cline catchment. The UAE jumped twice associated with the land-use changes. Compared to background erosion rate, UAEN is 4x during cattle grazing, 9x during commercial construction, and 15x during subdivision construction, respectively. However, the UAE was likely diminished due to the climatic conditions that occurred during the study period from 1989 to 2013. During the first time period, dominated by grazing in the Cline tank watershed had higher mean annual precipitation and rainfall intensity than the second and third time period, dominated by construction.

Our sediment yield data (Table 5.3) supports that assumption that the magnitude of urban growth within a watershed is a key factor by exposing more bare ground to increase erosion rates. For example, when the Cline tank experienced slow construction for 11 years (AUGR: 0.47% yr⁻¹), the area-specific sediment yield (SSY) was 52 Mg km⁻² yr⁻¹ (Figure. 5.7). Then, SSY suddenly jumped two-fold during the desert was skinned with an AUGR of 2.61% yr⁻¹ in the next 8 years. SSY then jumped by a factor of 3.4 during subdivision construction (AUGR: 4.05% yr⁻¹) only for a 2-year period (Figure. 5.7). Compared to natural background SSY, UAEN is 4x, 9x, and 15x, respectively. However, the UAE was likely diminished due to relatively dry historic climatic conditions that occurred during the study period from 1989 to 2013 (Figure. 5.7 and Appendix I). Because this urban acceleration occurred in periods of drought and less cumulative time of intense rainfall (Figure. 5.7), our findings underscore the interpretation that we measured the minimum end of the range of potential soil erosion for rapidly expanding desert cities.

These findings provide the first confirmation of Wolman's conceptual model, originally developed for a forested region-turned urban (Wolman, 1967), for a rapidly expanding desert city. The Wolman model ends with sealing the surface, and the area-specific sediment yields (SSY) of Peralta stock tank (ID18 in Appendix I) of 52 Mg km⁻² yr⁻¹ during the pre-urban grazing period, rapidly increased to 77 Mg km⁻² yr⁻¹ during active construction, and decreased to 9 Mg km⁻² yr⁻¹ after 5 years subdivision development because sediment sources in disturbed catchment are replaced by sealed surface.

Model urban acceleration of soil erosion for the Phoenix metropolitan region

We modeled both background erosion and UAE for bare ground layers associated with urban growth from 1912 to 2010 (Figure 5.3). Overall the background erosion rates for PMR range from 3 to 436 $\text{Mg km}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1}$ with a mean of 115 $\text{Mg km}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1}$ and median of 90 $\text{Mg km}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1}$ (Figure 5.8). The spatial distribution of background erosion rates in PMR (Figure 5.9a) shows that area located near mountain fronts at the urban fringe or preserved area have steeper slopes and hence higher background erosion rates.

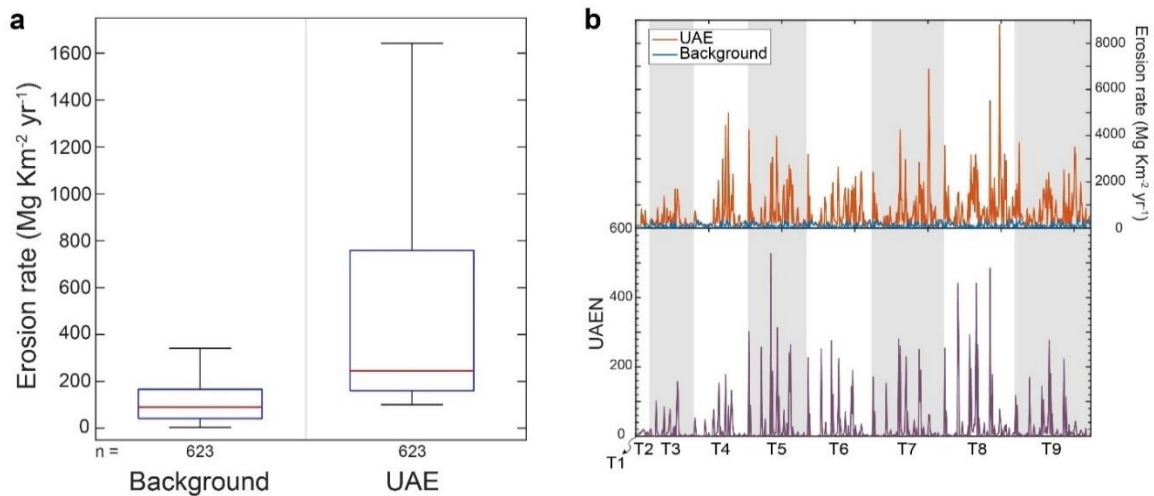


Figure 5.8. Erosion modelling results for the entire PMR. (a) Box and whisker plots of background erosion and UAE. Box ranges from 25th to 75th percentiles. Whiskers represent data range, excluding statistical outliers. Red lines are medians. n indicates the number of bare ground layers (Figure 5.3). (b) Histogram of background erosion, UAE and UAEN for time periods: T1 (1912-1934), T2 (1955-1975), T3 (1975-1985), T4 (1975-1995), T5 (1985-1990), T6 (1990-1995), T7 (1995-2000), T8 (2000-2005) and T9 (2005-2010).

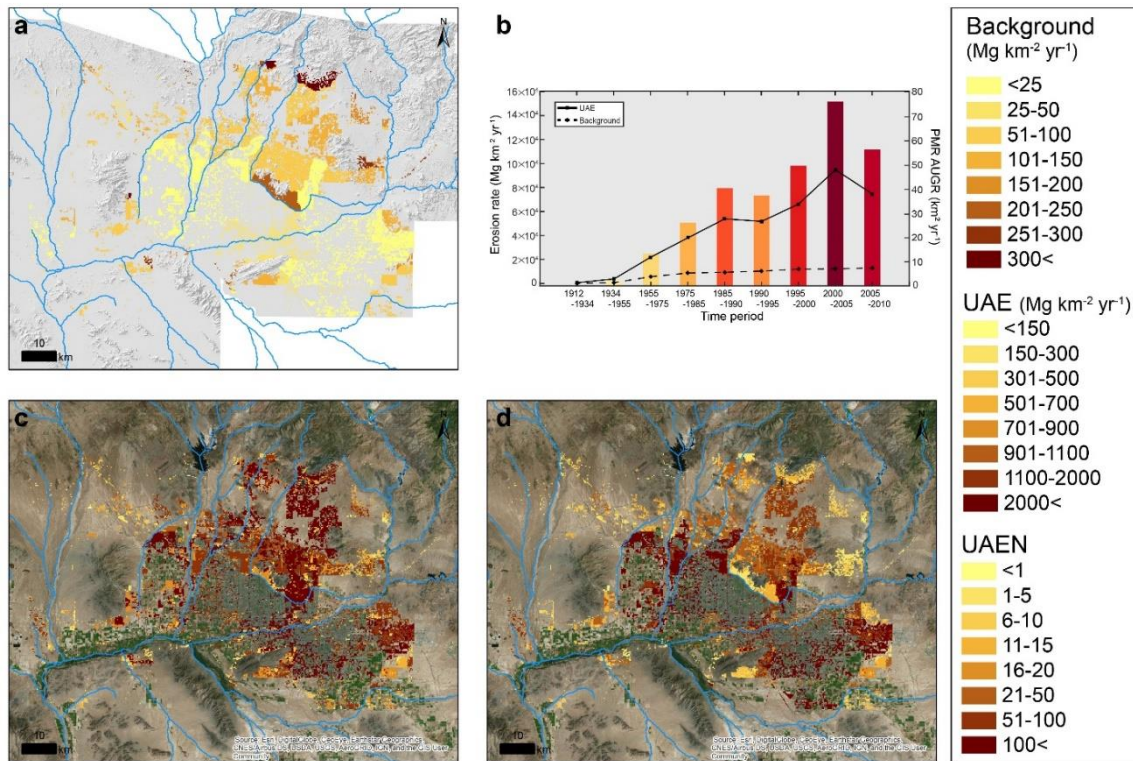


Figure 5.9. Spatial distribution of background erosion rate and UAEN and temporal change of UAE and background erosion rate in PMR. (a) Spatial distribution of background erosion rate. (b) Temporal change of background erosion and UAE in PMR from 1912 to 2010 associated with PMR annual urban growth rate. (c) Spatial distribution of UAE (d) Spatial distribution of UAEN. Less than 1 means background erosion is greater than UAE. Base map was imported from ESRI, producer of ArcGIS software and public datasets. Accessed through the Arizona State University license. Appendix J provides larger maps.

The urban sprawl of PMR from 1912 to 2010 accelerated erosion rates almost three-order-of magnitude depending on the annual urban growth rate (Figure 5.9b). The fastest urban growth occurred during 2000-2005 period (AUGR: 76 km² yr⁻¹) and the UAE yields 94,815 Mg km⁻² yr⁻¹ (Table 5.8). The rate of urban growth slowed down during 2005-2010 period (AUGR: 56 km² yr⁻¹), so that UAE decreased to 74,621 Mg km⁻² yr⁻¹ (Table 5.8), but is substantial UAE compared to background erosion. In contrast, during the early urbanization period from 1912 to 1934, the urban expansion was

significantly slower (AUGR: $0.02 \text{ km}^2 \text{ yr}^{-1}$) leading to $548 \text{ Mg km}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ of UAE (Table 5.8 and Figure 5.9c and Appendix J). During the modeling period, the total UAE for PMR ranged from 101 to $8803 \text{ Mg km}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ with a mean of $651 \text{ Mg km}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ and median of $245 \text{ Mg km}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ (Figure 5.8). In contrast to the spatial distribution of background erosion, higher UAE areas usually correspond with the low-angle piedmont areas where urban expansion accelerated in the 1960s due to the advent of air conditioning (Grimm et al., 2013) (Fig. 5.1 and 5.9 and Appendix J) and the discordance of spatial distribution of background and UAE (Figure 5.9a and 5.9c and Appendix J) suggests geomorphic settings on as low-angle piedmont slopes can still be vulnerable to soil erosion during urban sprawling.

Table 5.8. Transition of UAE, Background erosion and UAEN in PMR from 1912 to 2010 derived from regression analysis

Time period	Background ($\text{Mg km}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$)	UAE ($\text{Mg km}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$)	UAEN
T1: 1912-1934	100 ± 115	548 ± 411	5.5
T2: 1934-1955	541 ± 336	3738 ± 2066	6.9
T3: 1955-1975	5667 ± 1972	21987 ± 12484	3.9
T4: 1975-1985	8666 ± 2765	37985 ± 22879	4.4
T5: 1985-1990	9234 ± 2953	53830 ± 32779	5.8
T6: 1990-1995	10276 ± 3279	51723 ± 31090	5.0
T7: 1995-2000	11896 ± 3732	66205 ± 40166	5.6
T8: 2000-2005	12082 ± 3764	94815 ± 58324	7.8
T9: 2005-2010	12924 ± 4069	74621 ± 44526	5.8

Another way to think of these findings is that UAEN can be an indicator to assess the vulnerability of urban acceleration to soil erosion (Figure 5.9d) Less than 1 means background erosion is greater than UAE and more than 1 shows that the magnitude of urban acceleration of erosion above natural background erosion. During the modelling period, the total UAEN for PMR range from 0.5 to 527x with a mean of 26x and median of 3x (Figure 5.10).

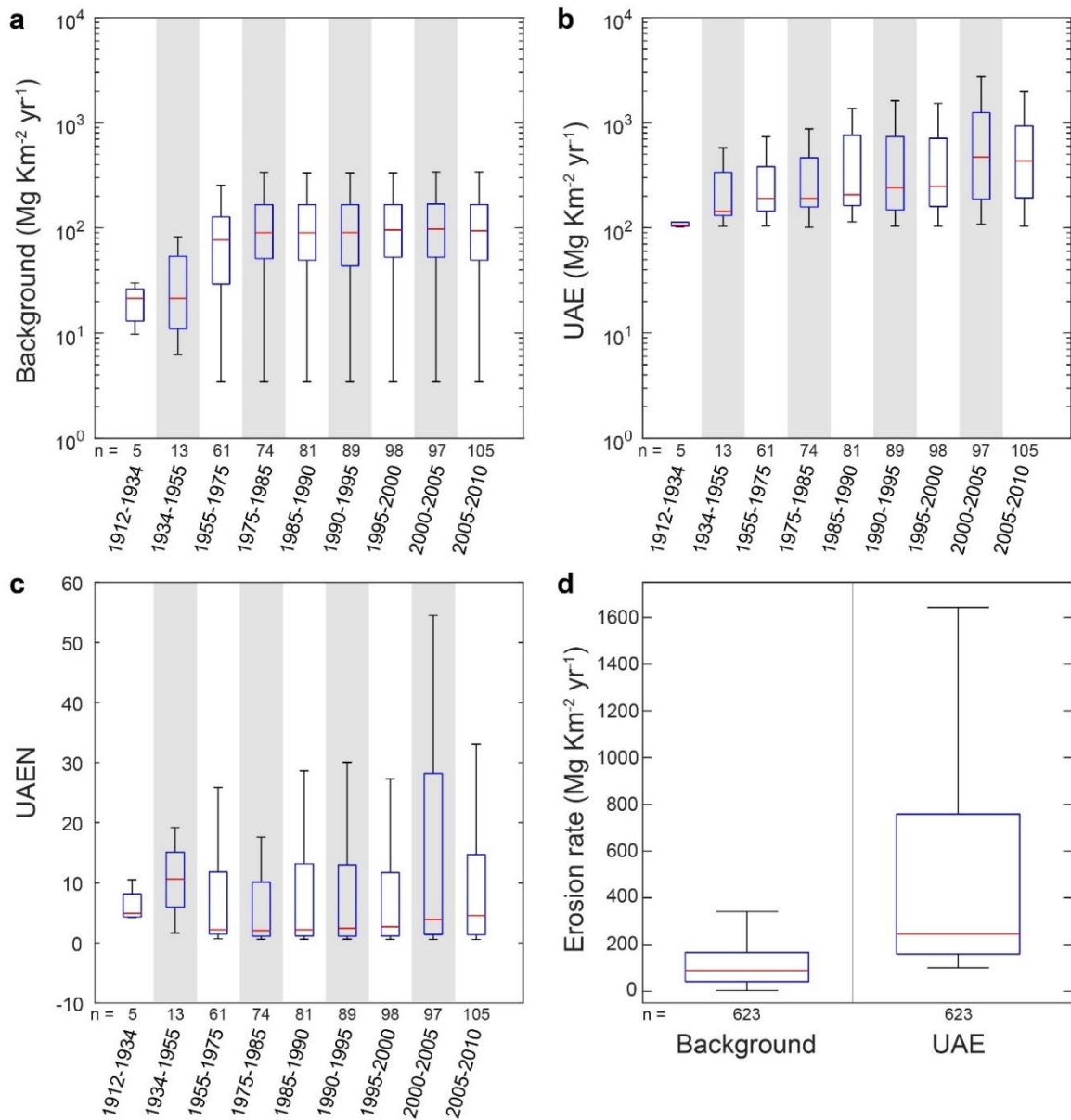


Fig. 5.10. Box and whisker plot for background, UAE and UAEN change over time periods. Box ranges from 25th to 75th percentiles. Whiskers represent data range, excluding statistical outliers. Red lines are medians. *n* indicates the number of bare ground layers. (a) background erosion rate change over the time periods. (b) UAE change over the time periods. (c) UAE index change over the time periods. (d) Background and UAE from all individual bare ground layers that experienced urbanization. The median background erosion rate is $90 \text{ Mg km}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ that is only a bit lower than reported median background erosion rate in arid climate zone ($93 \text{ Mg km}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$) based on compilation of cosmogenic nuclide derived catchment-wide denudation rates by Portenga and Bierman (2011).

Global soil erosion implications of ongoing urban sprawling

Soil erosion from urban sprawl in Sonoran Desert can be contextualized by cities in other climatic regions if we relax a key assumption. The Phoenix case study rigorously compared natural CWDR soil erosion rates to the same watersheds experiencing urban sprawl at different times and at different rates. While many soil erosion rates accelerated by urbanization process are reported globally (Appendix K), little CWDR research occurred in the same urbanizing watersheds, which impedes global comparison of UAEN. However, our CWDR from Phoenix case study provides an opportunity for the global comparison of UAEN with these assumptions:

Assumption 1: Cities are located on the low-slope landforms based on Saiz (2010)'s founding that residential development is severely constrained by the presence of steep-slope terrain with the threshold of 8.5° .

Assumption 2: Slope is the most important predictor for background erosion (Portenga and Bierman, 2011). Therefore, our CWDR for the lower piedmont slopes (mean slope $0.4-6.5^\circ$) of the Sonoran Desert can be used to estimate CWDR for other cities in other climatic settings where urban development also occurred on lower piedmont slopes.

If the CWDR data are truly comparable, then the Phoenix case study places it on the lower end of urban acceleration above background rates of erosion (Fig. 5.11). Such a finding, if supported by comparisons of the same watersheds, should not be surprising for a few reasons. First, the UAE effects in Phoenix were measured during drought

conditions. Second, the urban sprawl occurred on low slopes of desert piedmont settings appropriate for subdivision growth.

Global UAEN

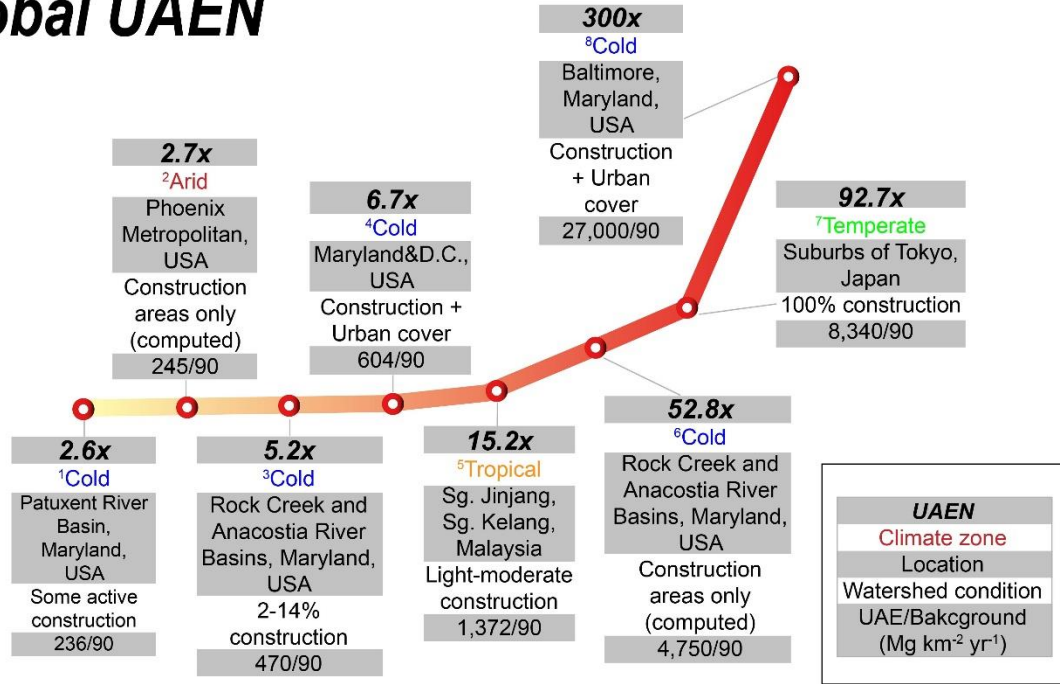


Figure 5.11. Comparison of UAEN on a global basis. For the background erosion, CWDR from PMR case study was used. For the UAE, Russell et al. (2017) compiled global erosion rates impacted by construction, and only data points that reported median erosion rates were adopted in this study. Extended data table provide details. We hypothesized that our case study will provide the lower bound of UAEN. While Phoenix model calculated UAE only for computed construction areas, other UAE in other regions were measured from construction and other land-use mixed watershed except for ID6 Maryland case and 7 Japan case. Therefore, the UAE measured from the mixed land-use watershed may be underestimated and thus, UAEN.

CONCLUSION

Measuring human amplification of soil erosion requires an understanding of natural background erosion rates (Gellis et al., 2004). Erosion rates accelerated by various human actions in the United States have been reported in abundant literature such as erosion rates induced by mining, grazing, logging, deforestation, and urbanization, but traditional methods to measure sediment yield using sediment loads in the stream or reservoir do not always reflect background rates of erosion (Trimble, 1977), while concentrations of *in situ*-produced ^{10}Be measured in fluvial sediments provide an opportunity to estimate catchment wide denudation rates (CWDR) over timescales of 10^3 to 10^5 years (von Blanckenburg, 2006). There was no comparisons of natural background using CWDR to urban acceleration of erosion unlike non-urban settings such as agricultural fields, deforested area, although urbanization processes accelerates erosion by one to two orders of magnitude compared to the other land uses (Russell et al., 2017). Furthermore, considering that urbanization's unceasing expansion will add one new city of a million every five days until 2050 more than tripling urban land from 2000 to 2050 (d'Amour et al., 2017; Seto et al., 2011), quantification of background erosion rates is a critical task for cities worldwide. Based on measurements of contemporary sediment yield and CWDRs on small desert watersheds in Phoenix metropolitan region, our erosion modelling for Phoenix metropolitan region showed that 2.7x increase of erosion rate by urbanization compared to natural background, and this Phoenix case study places it on the lower end of urban acceleration above background rates of erosion. Brown et al. (2017) argued that "the less obvious effects of humans on geomorphic systems warrant

increased research”, certainly applies to the north-central Sonoran Desert, that could provide the ‘knowledge for mitigation’ to our society.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSION

The goal of this dissertation rests in developing a better understanding of soil erosion in the geomorphic setting of desert piedmonts, both erosional pediments and depositional alluvial fans. The study area of piedmonts in what is now the Phoenix metropolitan region broadly experienced four very different periods of land use history: the natural landscape prior to human alteration; hunter-gatherer indigenous use followed by Hohokam urbanization near the Salt River; cattle grazing associated with Euro-American settlement since the 19th century; and urban growth that accelerated greatly since the advent of air conditioning in second half of the 20th (Gober and Trapido-Lurie, 2005; Sheridan, 2007). The hunter-gatherers and Hohokam indigenous land use did not focus on the pediments and alluvial fans, but rather on the urban core adjacent to the Salt River. Thus, this dissertation explores soil erosion in the ‘natural background’ period, in the cattle grazing period, and in the urban sprawl period.

The major findings of research are as follows:

- 1) (CHAPTER 2) Before massive land-use change associated with cattle grazing and urban expansion, desert piedmonts of alluvial fans and pediments experienced very different surface conditions than found by the average hiker today. Extensive areas once hosted desert pavements, biological soil crusts, and interlocking colluvium on steeper slopes, providing a net armoring effect. Today, only patches of such armored surfaces remain due to the anthropogenic impacts.

- 2) (CHAPTER 3) Human activities (i.e. devegetation, livestock grazing, invasive plant species, road building) led to an overall increase in erosion process intensity in the Sonoran Desert and the Phoenix metropolitan region. Compared to the period of cattle grazing, the process of urbanization in the Sonoran Desert increased soil erosion from urban-proximate wildfires by up to 4.2x, from exposure of bare ground due to home and commercial real estate development by up to 3.4x, from bare ground exposure due to road and pipeline construction by up to 3.1x over grazing alone.
- 3) (CHAPTER 3) Stock pond watersheds underlain by granitic rock experienced statistically significant higher erosion rates compared to watersheds underlain by metamorphic, basalt, and other rock types. This statistically significant result, however, is autocorrelated with slope as granitic pediments are underwent a base-level lowering when the Salt and Verde rivers integrated.
- 4) (CHAPTER 3) A new global compilation of published and unpublished sediment yield data for warm desert (BWh Köppen-Geiger) sites reveals that data from the Phoenix piedmont watersheds plot consistently with other grazing study areas with an overall slight tendency for higher area-specific sediment yields in smaller drainage areas. However, our sediment yield data, as well as data from other warm desert sites, do not support previously published generalizations of anomalously high or low sediment yields from warm desert settings.
- 5) (CHAPTER 3) Although the geomorphic setting surrounding different warm desert cities undergoing expansion differs, these results highlight the importance

- of exposure of bare ground in increasing soil erosion even in an environment with naturally abundant bare ground.
- 6) (CHAPTER 4) There are environmental and infrastructural management issues associated with erosion and sediment yield in rapidly urbanizing desert cities. A growing need for flood control in rapidly urbanizing desert cities has led to resilient urban planning efforts to build and manage flood control structures, but there has been increased concern over flood control structures sustainability in rapidly urbanizing desert cities mainly derived from sediment accumulation problem behind flood control structures that can reduce usable capacity even before reservoirs completely filled with sediment. The sedimentation problem is closely linked to the land use–land cover change in urban systems because bare ground exposure associated with urban growth has increased one to two order of soil erosion depending on prior land use on global basis and the eroded soils will be transported by water and eventually will be stored in flood control structures.
 - 7) (CHAPTER 4) Forecasting reliable sediment yield under urban sprawl conditions is a desired outcome for rapidly urbanizing desert cities. The proposed model to predict reliable sediment yield behind flood control structures using the relationship between annual urban growth rate and sediment yield, has the potential to help rapidly urbanizing desert cities reduce the costs of building flood control structures by relying on basic relationships instead of establishing a network of empirical research sites.
 - 8) (CHAPTER 5) The Phoenix metropolitan region offers the context for the first comparison of soil erosion from urbanization to natural background rates of

erosion measured through cosmogenic ^{10}Be catchment-wide denudation rates. No other direct comparisons exist for the same watersheds impacted by urbanization and measured by CWDR. Through exposure of bare ground from 1989 to 2013, urban sprawl accelerated erosion 1.3x to 15x above natural background rates of $\sim 76 \text{ Mg km}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ for the Phoenix metropolitan region, Sonoran Desert, USA. This acceleration likely represents a minimum potential impact because drought conditions occurred during the historic monitoring period.

- 9) (CHAPTER 5) A spatial model reveals patterns of urban acceleration of soil erosion at the sprawling perimeter of the Phoenix region from 1912 to 2010. The background erosion rates for Phoenix metropolitan region range from 3 to 436 $\text{Mg km}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ with a mean of 115 $\text{Mg km}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ and median of 90 $\text{Mg km}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$. In contrast, the urban acceleration of erosion ranged from 101 to 8803 $\text{Mg km}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ with a mean of 651 $\text{Mg km}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ and median of 245 $\text{Mg km}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$, and the total urban acceleration of erosion above natural background for Phoenix metropolitan region range from 0.5 to 527x with a mean of 26x and median of 3x.
- 10) (CHAPTER 5) If we relax the need to compare the exact same watersheds analyzed for urban effects and CWDR, then it becomes possible to compare CWDR-analyzed watersheds near other urban centers. In a comparison of literature-based CWDR and urban erosive effects, this Phoenix case study rests on the lower end of urban acceleration above background rates of erosion associated with urban centers in different climatic regions.
- 11) In analyzing and reviewing geomorphology literature associated with the Anthropocene, Brown et al. (2017) wrote that “the less obvious effects of humans

on geomorphic systems warrant increased research”. This statement certainly applies to the north-central Sonoran Desert. Brown et al. (2017)’s analysis connections between the Anthropocene and geomorphology largely eschewed the sorts of low-slope desert piedmonts found in the Sonoran Desert. Yet when researchers explore the envelope of anthropogenic effects, it can become extraordinarily useful to look at the non-spectacular cases that rarely make news reports in *Science* or *Nature*. Based on the findings of this dissertation, the lower end of urbanization’s impact on soil erosion does appear to indeed be low-slope piedmonts of the Sonoran Desert. Yet even in this relatively tranquil setting, urbanization’s acceleration impact can be tremendous, sometimes reaching over an order of magnitude.

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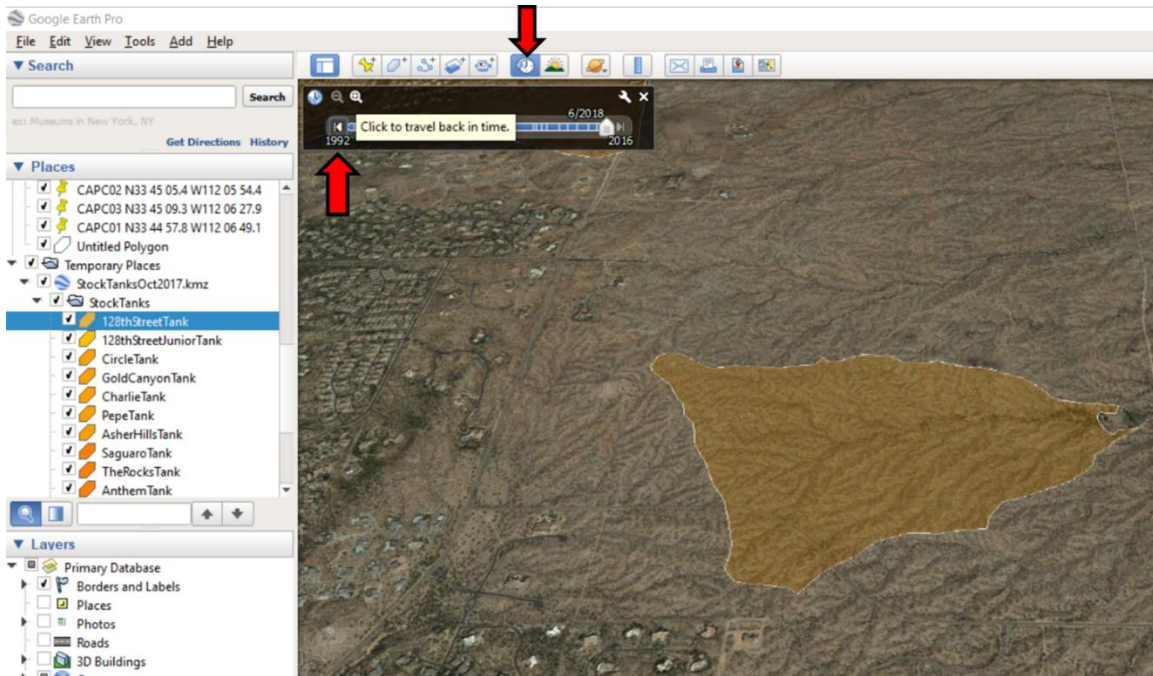
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APPENDIX A
GOOGLE EARTH KMZ FILE OF THE STOCK TANKS
AND THEIR ASSOCIATED WATERSHEDS

The selected 18 stock ponds and their associated watersheds are indicated as the name of stock ponds in the Google Earth kmz file, which is referred in the appendix B. The kmz file offers several benefits for readers to better understand the purpose of this study: i) it shows the regional setting where stock ponds are located; ii) it provides the opportunity to identify the location of studied stock tanks and their associated watersheds in the regional setting such as and to compare the size of each stock tank and its watershed indicated in the appendix B; iii) it provides some information regarding the catchment properties such as relief and slope gradient; iv) most importantly, it helps users explore the land use changes occurred during the period of sediment accumulation. The Google Earth provides the tool of time slider which enables to see historical satellite imagery. Therefore, users can examine the typical shifts in land use as the urbanization expanded out into areas formerly occupied by cattle grazing referred in the appendix B using the time slider in the Google Earth and visually look at the bare ground exposure due to the urban development or human-influenced wildfires with the higher resolution such as the examples provided in the figure 3.2. A downloadable version is available online at: <https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/ldr.3207>.



Note: Google Earth provide the time slider to observe the historic satellite imagery.

APPENDIX B

STOCK POND CATCHMENT CHARACTERISTICS AND DATA ON SOIL EROSION

RATES AND SEDIMENT YIELDS

Stock Tank	Time Period	Dominant Land Use	Different Rock Types	MAP (mm) (130) (mm)		Coordinates	Ad (km ²)	AI (m ²)	Max. ER (mm ka ⁻¹)	Min. ER (mm ka ⁻¹)	Max. SSY (t km ⁻² yr ⁻¹)
				P1	P2						
1. Cigar Tank	1990-2004	grazing	metamorphic, basalt, granite	207(20.9)	170(15.4)	33.685117, -112.534267	2.60	6000	66 ± 5.8	57.7 ± 2.8	89.2 ± 9.7
	2005-2009	grazing and off-road vehicle use							75.8 ± 6.4	66.4 ± 2.4	102.4 ± 9.8
2. Seguardo	1990-2004	grazing	metamorphic, basalt, granite	222(25.1)	181(14.1)	33.800925, -112.20405	1.40	5800	35.0 ± 4.8	29.7 ± 2.3	48.7 ± 7.6
	2005-2009	grazing & pipeline construction							95.3 ± 6.6	84.3 ± 3.0	143.2 ± 26.0
3. Cline	1989-1995	Some construction	metamorphic, basalt, granite	222(25.1)	181(14.1)	33.853465, -112.149325	1.50	9500	33.7 ± 3.7	28.8 ± 3.5	52.0 ± 6.9
	1996-2003	commercial construction							75.9 ± 4.6	67.8 ± 2.2	103.7 ± 6.4
2003-2004	subdivision construction								102.7 ± 11.1	94.1 ± 6.4	174.7 ± 25.4
4. Anthem	1989-1992	grazing	metavolcanic	222(25.1)	181(14.1)	33.862595, -112.123726	0.88	3000	84.2 ± 5.6	74.8 ± 9.8	136.7 ± 14.6
	1993-1997	after wildfire							203.6 ± 5.1	188.6 ± 16.7	334.0 ± 25.4
5. Anthem 2	1989-1992	grazing	metavolcanic	222(25.1)	181(14.1)	33.850572, -112.101617	0.58	2700	59.6 ± 4.0	51.6 ± 2.3	77.5 ± 7.1
	1993-1995	after wildfire period 1							184.5 ± 24.9	169.4 ± 16.4	276.7 ± 45.8
	1996-1998	after wildfire period 2							197.8 ± 17.2	184.4 ± 34.9	330.9 ± 32.8
	1999-2002	after wildfire period 3							91.2 ± 3.9	85.2 ± 11.7	156.2 ± 14.9
2002	housing							172.8 ± 16.5	155.5 ± 8.7	255.7 ± 41.4	
6. Pepe	1989-2008	grazing & ongoing house construction	metamorphic, basalt, granite	222(22.8)	181(11.5)	33.786100, -112.159939	0.99	3300	34.0 ± 5.6	27.7 ± 3.3	38.4 ± 10.0
7. Bronco	1989-1998	grazing	metamorphic, basalt, granite	222(22.8)	181(11.5)	33.774765, -112.117174	0.45	4100	37.9 ± 5.8	32.4 ± 4.7	43.7 ± 8.0
	1999-2003	road construction							117.4 ± 22.2	96.1 ± 9.5	137.4 ± 32.4
8. Circle	1990-2010	grazing	metamorphic	222(22.8)	181(11.5)	33.767891, -112.069517	0.60	5000	46.8 ± 11.6	39.0 ± 3.8	51.0 ± 13.7
	2010-2013	road construction							82.7 ± 18.7	72.3 ± 3.2	128.5 ± 31.1
9. Charlie	1989-2004	house construction	granitic	276(40.4)	237(28.0)	33.773722, -111.949346	0.91	10500	164.5 ± 25.8	146.6 ± 6.9	264.3 ± 49.1
10. Rock	1989-1992	grazing	granitic	276(40.4)	237(28.0)	33.758838, -111.877228	0.54	2800	45.3 ± 4.5	38.6 ± 3.0	53.6 ± 8.8
	1992-1997	after wildfire period 1							169.7 ± 14.7	150.7 ± 10.8	224.0 ± 25.3
	1998-2003	after wildfire period 2							102.9 ± 5.9	93.3 ± 14.6	175.7 ± 11.7
	2004-2009	after wildfire period 3							56.6 ± 3.3	52.9 ± 10.7	90.9 ± 9.3

(Continues)

Stock Tank	Time Period	Dominant Land Use	Different Rock Types	MAP (mm) (I30) (mm)	Coordinates	Ad (km ²)	At (m ²)	Max. ER (mm ka ⁻¹)	Min. ER (mm ka ⁻¹)	Max. SSY (t km ⁻² yr ⁻¹)	Min. SSY (t km ⁻² yr ⁻¹)
				P1 P2							
11. Cave Creek	1989-1992	grazing	granitic	276(15.4) 237(22.9)	33.821477,	0.19	1200	73.0 ± 8.3	63.7 ± 7.7	102.2 ± 15.4	89.1 ± 10.8
	1992-1999	after wildfire			-111.860042			151.8 ± 10.5	142.4 ± 23.4	258.5 ± 18.0	242.6 ± 39.8
	2000-2003	house construction						91.8 ± 8.4	81.4 ± 6.2	128.8 ± 23.6	114.3 ± 8.7
12. Buckthorn	1989-1999	grazing	granitic	305(40.4) 260(28.0)	33.771593,	4.40	4100	76.1 ± 2.3	65.6 ± 3.9	106.2 ± 17.1	91.6 ± 5.4
	2000-2002	house construction			-111.726559			108.8 ± 4.9	94.3 ± 12.4	133.4 ± 17.4	115.7 ± 15.2
13. The Rocks	1989-1996	house construction	granitic	310(40.4) 248(28.0)	33.735184,	2.36	6500	128.6 ± 13.2	120.3 ± 15.8	227.6 ± 25.7	212.9 ± 28.0
					-111.843395						
14. 128th St	1989-1994	grazing	granitic	310(40.4) 248(28.0)	33.719610,	0.85	7000	72.6 ± 17.5	62.3 ± 8.9	110.3 ± 27.1	94.7 ± 13.6
	1995-2000	after wildfire			-111.80591			198.5 ± 12.0	175.4 ± 6.3	342.0 ± 40.4	302.3 ± 10.8
	2001-2008	road construction						105.0 ± 13.6	92.7 ± 4.9	159.9 ± 29.4	141.3 ± 7.4
15. 128th St 2	1989-1994	grazing	granitic	310(40.4) 248(28.0)	33.716550,	0.31	2200	69.0 ± 28.6	59.6 ± 7.8	109.5 ± 45.9	94.5 ± 12.4
	1995-2000	after wildfire			-111.79117			195.8 ± 56.2	175.6 ± 11.2	278.7 ± 94.4	250.0 ± 15.9
	2001-2008	road construction						97.7 ± 29.9	88.9 ± 8.0	149.1 ± 48.4	135.7 ± 12.2
16. AsherHills	1989-2001	grazing	granitic	310(17.5) 248(18.4)	33.731003,	2.10	9800	94.5 ± 18.1	84.7 ± 7.8	140.5 ± 27.6	125.9 ± 11.6
	2002-2007	house construction			-111.703998			123.7 ± 4.6	113.4 ± 4.9	199.1 ± 15.0	182.6 ± 7.9
17. Gold Cyn	1989-2009	cattle grazing & house construction	ignimbrite, granitic	254(23.2) 209(17.9)	33.367485,	5.10	18000	55.7 ± 11.6	44.0 ± 2.4	57.3 ± 13.1	45.3 ± 2.5
					-111.515636						
18. Peralta	1989-2000	grazing	ignimbrite, granitic, breccia	254(23.2) 209(17.9)	33.334978,	0.78	2800	42.2 ± 2.0	36.1 ± 2.4	52.2 ± 3.8	44.7 ± 3.0
	2001-2005	subdivision construction			-111.429506			69.8 ± 5.1	55.4 ± 3.6	77.4 ± 6.8	61.5 ± 3.9
	2006-2009	subdivision finished						8.2 ± 2.6	5.9 ± 0.4	8.7 ± 2.8	6.2 ± 0.4

Note. MAP: mean annual precipitation during the 10 year period of study periods, P1: period 1 (1989-1999), P2: period 2 (2000-2009), I30 is the total amount of peak 30-minute rainfall exceeded 10 mm for 30 min, Ad: drainage area, At: tank area, Max. ER: maximum erosion rate, Min. ER: minimum erosion rate, Max. SSY: maximum area-specific sediment yield, Min. SSY: minimum area-specific sediment yield.

APPENDIX C
DATA USED IN THE CORRELATION ANALYSIS
OF TABLE 3.1 IN THE CHAPTER 3

The purpose of the appendix C is to describe the detailed statistical methods used in the paper to find the correlation between and among catchment properties and to evaluate whether there is statistically significant difference in erosion rates or sediment yield between different rock types or land use types. It is reported that variables like precipitation and vegetation cover are important influences on the erosion and sediment yield in a semi-arid catchment in southern Arizona (Nichols, 2006), in micro-catchments in Iran (Vaezi, Abbasi, Bussi, & Keesstra, 2017), in Europe (Vanmaercke, Poesen, Verstraeten, de Vente, & Ocakoglu, 2011) and Africa (Vanmaercke, Poesen, Broeckx, & Nyssen, 2014). Based on these findings in the literature, statistical tests were performed to examine which variables statistically influence to the sediment yield and erosion rates in the last two decades, north-central Sonoran Desert, USA. Pearson's pair-wise correlation analyses were performed using Microsoft Excel Data Analysis tool to determine if there is a statistically significant correlation between a catchment property and erosion rate in section 5.2 in the paper. And an unpaired t-test was used to evaluate whether the specific sediment yield was significantly different between stock pond watersheds that were only granitic and those that were non-granitic in section 5.2 in the paper. The unpaired t-tests was also conducted to statistically compare the specific sediment yield from basins experiencing grazing; building construction of houses, subdivision and commercial properties; infrastructure of road and pipeline building that exposes bare ground; and wildfire.

1. Pearson Correlation

- Raw Data

<i>Tank Name</i>	<i>E_{max}</i>	<i>Ad</i>	<i>S_{avg}</i>	<i>Relief</i>	<i>BD</i>	<i>VC</i>	<i>MAP</i>	<i>MSP</i>	<i>I₃₀</i>	<i>SY</i>	<i>SSY</i>
128st.											
Junior	69.00	310	3.4	37.32	1.59	36.54	3.37	20.44	1.21	33.94	109.47
128st.	72.57	851	3.3	31.58	1.52	32.02	399.39	107.80	1.21	93.87	110.30
Saguaro	34.98	1400	1.4	33.26	1.39	30.89	200.08	63.33	0.53	68.24	48.74
Buckhorn	76.06	4400	3.1	203.32	1.40	30.45	361.56	105.51	1.45	467.42	106.23
Asher											
Hill	94.53	2100	2.6	196.04	1.49	22.23	263.63	63.82	0.65	295.12	140.53
Rock											
Tank	45.27	540	5.1	67.75	1.18	14.88	387.69	149.35	1.70	28.93	53.57
Cigar	66.54	2600	0.7	17.93	1.34	10.52	217.68	69.27	0.95	231.82	89.16
Peralta	41.17	784	3.7	49.36	1.24	10.07	252.24	70.17	0.84	40.89	52.15
Cave											
Creek	72.98	190	3.7	25.06	1.40	8.84	319.72	81.18	0.22	19.41	102.18
Circle	46.76	600	12.9	153.41	1.09	5.68	202.90	80.09	0.75	30.58	50.97
Bronco	37.86	450	1.1	15.21	1.15	3.95	230.89	64.77	0.87	19.65	43.67
Cline	33.68	1500	2.3	42.27	1.54		326.28	80.16	1.09	77.96	51.98
Anthem2	59.61	580	3.3	40.19	1.30		304.99	86.74	1.14	44.95	77.50
Anthem	84.19	880	12.2	208.61	1.62		304.99	86.74	1.14	120.26	136.66

Abbreviations: E_{max}, maximum erosion rate (mm ka⁻¹); Ad, drainage area; S_{avg}, average slope; Relief, maximum height difference in catchment; BD, bulk density; VC, percent vegetation cover; MAP, mean annual precipitation; MSP, mean summer seasonal precipitation, I₃₀, the total amount of peak 30-minute rainfall exceeded 10 mm for 30 min; SY, sediment yield (t yr⁻¹); SSY, area-specific sediment yield (t km⁻²)

Among the eighteen studied catchments, fourteen catchments were selected first to control land use-influences on specific sediment yield. Thus, all the E_{max}, SY and SSY used in the Pearson's pairwise correlation analyses were collected data during the only grazing period. Cline, Anthem2 and Anthem stock tanks were additionally excluded to perform Pearson's pair-wise correlation analyses because Google Earth imagery to calculate the percent vegetation cover (VC) during the grazing period was not available for the stock tanks. We finally performed Pearson's pair-wise correlation analyses with the eleven catchments after the process of careful selection of data.

The Pearson's correlation table with the significance levels (Table 3.1 in the chapter 3) are calculated using Microsoft Excel with the following steps.

- **Step 1. Determine Pearson's correlation coefficient (r)**

	<i>E_{max}</i>	<i>Ad</i>	<i>S_{avg}</i>	<i>Relief</i>	<i>BD</i>	<i>VC</i>	<i>MAP</i>	<i>MSP</i>	<i>I30</i>	<i>SY</i>	<i>SSY</i>
<i>E_{max}</i>	1.000										
<i>Ad</i>	0.416	1.000									
<i>S_{avg}</i>	-0.159	-0.276	1.000								
<i>Relief</i>	0.446	0.586	0.398	1.000							
<i>BD</i>	0.700	0.206	-0.467	-0.009	1.000						
<i>VC</i>	0.374	0.301	-0.282	0.144	0.808	1.000					
<i>MAP</i>	0.132	0.247	-0.013	0.192	-0.175	-0.130	1.000				
<i>MSP</i>	-0.075	0.145	0.200	0.180	-0.354	-0.136	0.888	1.000			
<i>I30</i>	-0.003	0.257	0.017	0.154	-0.017	0.331	0.234	0.500	1.000		
<i>SY</i>	0.611	0.965	-0.261	0.681	0.320	0.336	0.265	0.123	0.245	1.000	
<i>SSY</i>	0.982	0.365	-0.242	0.360	0.817	0.505	0.052	-0.161	-0.003	0.558	1.000

We calculated the Pearson correlation coefficient (r) using correlation analysis tool in Microsoft Excel for all the pairs of variables (n = 11).

- **Step 2. Determine t-value (t)**

	<i>E_{max}</i>	<i>Ad</i>	<i>S_{avg}</i>	<i>Relief</i>	<i>BD</i>	<i>VC</i>	<i>MAP</i>	<i>MSP</i>	<i>I30</i>	<i>SY</i>	<i>SSY</i>
<i>E_{max}</i>	1.236										
<i>Ad</i>	-0.477	1.236									
<i>S_{avg}</i>	-0.823	-0.477	1.236								
<i>Relief</i>	1.322	1.724	1.183	1.236							
<i>BD</i>	2.043	0.616	-1.383	-0.026	1.236						
<i>VC</i>	1.114	0.897	-0.844	0.430	2.335	1.236					
<i>MAP</i>	0.395	0.738	-0.040	0.576	-0.524	-0.388	1.236				
<i>MSP</i>	-0.224	0.434	0.600	0.539	-1.055	-0.407	2.545	1.236			
<i>I30</i>	-0.009	0.768	0.050	0.461	-0.050	0.988	0.699	1.480	1.236		
<i>SY</i>	1.795	2.742	-0.779	1.989	0.953	1.002	0.793	0.369	0.733	1.236	
<i>SSY</i>	2.785	1.087	-0.725	1.071	2.358	1.494	0.157	-0.482	-0.009	1.646	1.236

Then, we determined the t-value for all the pairs of variables using the equation:

$$t = r \times \sqrt{\frac{n - 2}{1 - r^2}}$$

- **Step 3. Determine p-value**

	<i>Emax</i>	<i>Ad</i>	<i>Savg</i>	<i>Relief</i>	<i>BD</i>	<i>VC</i>	<i>MAP</i>	<i>MSP</i>	<i>I30</i>	<i>SY</i>	<i>SSY</i>
<i>Emax</i>											
Ad	0.248										
<i>Savg</i>	0.645	0.432									
Relief	0.219	0.119	0.267								
BD	0.071	0.553	0.200	0.980							
VC	0.294	0.393	0.421	0.677	0.044						
MAP	0.702	0.480	0.969	0.579	0.613	0.707					
MSP	0.828	0.674	0.564	0.603	0.319	0.694	0.031				
I30	0.993	0.462	0.961	0.656	0.961	0.349	0.502	0.173			
SY	0.106	0.023	0.456	0.078	0.365	0.342	0.448	0.720	0.482		
SSY	0.021	0.305	0.487	0.312	0.043	0.169	0.879	0.641	0.993	0.134	

The significance (p-value) was determined using built-in data analysis tool of Microsoft Excel based on the two tailed Student's t-distribution:

$$\frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{S/\sqrt{n}}$$

Where \bar{X} is the sample mean, μ is the population mean, S is the population standard deviation and n is the sample size.

We adopted the significance level for this study as 0.1, 0.05, and 0.01.

2. Unpaired t-tests

- **Raw Data**

Granite	Others	Granite	Others	Fire1	Fire2	Building	Infrastructure	Fire total	Grazing
(t km ² yr ⁻¹)	(t km ² yr ⁻¹)	(mm kyr ⁻¹)	(mm kyr ⁻¹)	(t km ² yr ⁻¹)	(t km ² yr ⁻¹)	(t km ² yr ⁻¹)	(t km ² yr ⁻¹)	(t km ² yr ⁻¹)	(t km ² yr ⁻¹)
140.53	50.97	95.00	47.00	334.00	330.90	103.70	143.20	334.00	89.20
106.23	77.50	76.00	60.00	276.70	156.20	174.70	137.40	276.70	48.70
110.30	136.66	73.00	84.00	224.00	175.70	255.70	128.50	224.00	136.70
109.47	89.16	69.00	67.00	258.50	90.90	38.40	159.90	258.50	77.50
102.18	43.67	73.00	38.00	342.00		264.30	149.10	342.00	43.70
53.57	51.98	45.00	34.00	278.70		128.80		278.70	51.00
	48.74		35.00			133.40		330.90	53.60
	52.15		42.00			227.60		156.20	102.20
						199.10		175.70	106.20
						57.30		90.90	110.30
						77.40			109.50
									140.50
									52.20
									102.40
									52.00

Note: Fire1 refers to the period of time immediately after a wildfire (typically 3-5 years). Fire2 refers to the period of time after Fire1 where some revegetation has occurred. Fire total refers to all the period of time after a wild fire.

We rejected all time intervals that involved land use other than cattle grazing to understand the significance of rock types to SSY. Therefore, the fourteen catchments among eighteen studied catchments were selected. We also classified our SSY data into the different types of land use including grazing; building construction of houses, subdivision and commercial properties; infrastructure of road and pipeline building that exposes bare ground; and wildfire.

The unpaired t-tests were performed using Microsoft Excel data analysis tool ('t-test: two-sample assuming unequal variance') to understand statistical difference between variables based on the equation:

$$t = \frac{(\bar{x}_1 - \bar{x}_2)}{\sqrt{\frac{(s_1)^2}{n_1} + \frac{(s_2)^2}{n_2}}}$$

Where \bar{x}_1 is the mean of sample 1, s_1 is the standard deviation of sample 1, n_1 is the sample size of sample 1, \bar{x}_2 is the mean of sample 2, s_2 is the standard deviation of sample 2, n_2 is the sample size of sample 2. The significant difference between two variables is achieved when the statistical t value ('t Stat') is greater than critical t value for the two-tailed t test ('t Critical two-tail') or P value ('P two-tail') is less than 0.05.

- **T-test results**
 - 1) **Rock types**

	<i>Granite</i>	<i>Others</i>		<i>Granite</i>	<i>Others</i>
Mean	103.714	68.854	Mean	71.833	50.875
Variance	791.072	1001.046	Variance	256.967	319.554
Observations	6	8	Observations	6	8
Pooled Variance	913.557		Pooled Variance	293.476	
Hypothesized Mean Difference	0.000		Hypothesized Mean Difference	0	
df	12		df	12	
t Stat	2.136		t Stat	2.265	
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.027		P(T<=t) one-tail	0.021	
t Critical one-tail	1.782		t Critical one-tail	1.782	
P(T<=t) two-tail	0.054		P(T<=t) two-tail	0.043	
t Critical two-tail	2.179		t Critical two-tail	2.179	

Note: Left: t-test result based on the SSY values / Right: t-test result based on the maximum erosion rates (Emax).

Among the different rock types in studied catchments (N = 14), there was no statistically significant difference in SSY between granite (M = 103.71, SD = 791.07) and other rock types (M = 68.85, SD = 1001.05), $t(12) = 2.14$, $p \geq 0.05$. Therefore, we failed to reject the null hypothesis that there is no difference in SSY between granite and other rock types. However, the p value was 0.054 which is close to the critical value of 0.05, so that we performed the unpaired t-tests with the maximum erosion rates to examine the statistical difference between rock types and found a statistically significant difference in Emax between the granite (M = 71.83, SD = 256.97) and other rock types (M = 50.88,

SD = 319.55), $t(12) = 2.27$, $p \leq 0.05$. Thus, we rejected the null hypothesis and verified that stock pond watersheds underlain by granitic rock experienced statistically significant higher erosion rates compared to watersheds underlain by metamorphic, basalt, and other rock types.

2) Land use types

	<i>Fire total</i>	<i>Grazing</i>		<i>Building</i>	<i>Grazing</i>		<i>Infrastructure</i>	<i>Grazing</i>
Mean	246.760	85.047	Mean	150.945	85.047	Mean	143.620	85.047
Variance	7097.378	1103.254	Variance	6245.711	1103.254	Variance	140.637	1103.254
Observations	10	15	Observations	11	15	Observations	5	15
Pooled Variance	3448.781		Pooled Variance	3245.944		Pooled Variance	889.339	
Hypothesized Mean Difference	0.000		Hypothesized Mean Difference	0.000		Hypothesized Mean Difference	0.000	
df	23		df	24		df	18	
t Stat	6.745		t Stat	2.914		t Stat	3.803	
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.000		P(T<=t) one-tail	0.004		P(T<=t) one-tail	0.001	
t Critical one-tail	1.714		t Critical one-tail	1.711		t Critical one-tail	1.734	
P(T<=t) two-tail	0.000		P(T<=t) two-tail	0.008		P(T<=t) two-tail	0.001	
t Critical two-tail	2.069		t Critical two-tail	2.064		t Critical two-tail	2.101	

Regarding different land use types in studied catchments, there was a statistically significant difference in specific sediment yield between grazing (M = 85.05, SD = 1103.25) and all wildfire (M = 246.76, SD = 7097.38); $t(23) = 6.75$, $p \leq 0.05$. There was a significant difference in specific sediment yield for grazing and building (M = 150.95, SD= 6245.71) conditions; $t(24)= 2.91$, $p = 0.004$. There was a 6 significant difference in specific sediment yield for grazing and infrastructure construction (M = 143.62, SD= 140.64) conditions; $t(18)= 1.73$, $p = 0.001$. Therefore, we rejected the null hypothesis that there is no difference in SSY between different land use types.

APPENDIX D

VEGETATION COVER ANALYSIS

Stock pond	Time period	Dominant land use	Vegetation cover during cattle grazing period	Date of satellite image on Google Earth					
				Vegetation cover					
1. Cigar	1990-2004	grazing	10.52%	1997 Apr.					
	2005-2009	grazing and off-road vehicle use		10.52%	2003 Oct. 2004 Dec. 2007 Jun.				
2. Saguaro	1990-2004	grazing	30.89%	18.87% 12.60% 12.65%					
	2005-2009	grazing & pipeline construction		30.89%	1997 Apr. 2003 Nov. 2004 Dec.				
3. Cline	1989-1995	Some construction		21.36% 26.48% 44.83%					
	1996-2003	commercial construction		30.89%	2006 Apr. 2007 Jun. 2009 Nov.				
	2003-2004	subdivision construction		30.89%	42.20% 23.34% 35.86%				
4. Anthem	1989-1992	grazing		1997 Apr. 2003 Oct. 2003 Nov.					
	1993-1997	after wildfire			3.07% 3.96% 7.25%				
5. Anthem 2	1989-1992	grazing		2004 Dec.					
	1993-1995	after wildfire period 1			5.75%				
	1996-1998	after wildfire period 2			1997 Apr.				
	1999-2002	after wildfire period 3			4.65%				
7. Bronco	1989-1998	grazing	3.95%	2003 Oct. 2004 Dec. 2007 Jun.					
	1999-2003	road construction		3.95%	1.73% 2.05% 2.20%				
8. Circle	1990-2010	grazing	5.68%	1997 Apr. 2002 May 2003 Oct. 2007 Jun.					
				5.68%	4.03% 10.03% 4.62% 4.02%				

	2010-2013	road construction		2011 Mar.	2012 May	2012 Jun.	2013 Mar.	
				7.36%	7.85%	7.08%	5.62%	
10. Rock	1989-1992	grazing	14.88%	1992 Sep.				
	1992-1997	after wildfire period 1						
	1998-2003	after wildfire period 2		2002 Jul.				
				8.17%				
	2004-2009	after wildfire period 3		2004 Apr.	2007 Jun.	2009 Nov.		
				9.43%	6.46%	8.90%		
11. Cave Creek	1989-1992	grazing	8.84%	1992 Sep.				
	1992-1999	after wildfire						
	2000-2003	house construction		2003 Oct.	2004 Dec.			
				4.55%	12.59%			
12. Buckhorn	1989-1999	grazing	30.45%	1992 Sep.				
	2000-2002	house construction		2003 Oct.				
				20.18%				
14. 128th St	1989-1994	grazing	32.02%	1992 Sep.				
	1995-2000	after wildfire						
	2001-2008	road construction		2003 Apr.	2004 Apr.	2005 Apr.	2006 Oct.	2007 Jun.
				55.68%	62.95%	59.66%	19.48%	22.06%
15. 128th St 2	1989-1994	grazing	36.54%	1992 Sep.				
	1995-2000	after wildfire						
	2001-2008	road construction		2003 Apr.	2004 Apr.	2005 Apr.	2006 Oct.	2007 Jun.
				75.99%	67.32%	71.52%	40.55%	34.28%
16. AsherHills	1989-2001	grazing	22.23%	1992 Sep.				
	2002-2007	house construction		2003 Apr.	2004 Dec.	2005 Apr.	2007 Jun.	
				76.57%	63.12%	71.55%	65.93%	
18. Peralta	1989-2000	grazing	10.07%	1992 May				

2001- 2005	subdivision construction		
2006- 2009	subdivision finished	2007 Jun.	2010 Feb.
		5.76%	10.78%

APPENDIX E

PRECIPITATION VARIABLES ANALYSIS

#	Stock Tank	Rain gauge IDs	MAP (89-99)	MAP (00-09)	MSP (89-99)	MSP (00-09)
1	Cigar	72000	213	172	67	55
		72500	221	167	72	45
		73000	186	172	73	55
		Avg of 3 gauges	207	170	71	51
2	Saguaro	62000	233	175	77	55
		62300	278	208	81	54
		19500	155	160	35	40
		Avg of 3 gauges	222	181	64	50
3	Cline	62000	233	175	77	55
		62300	278	208	81	54
		19500	155	160	35	40
		Avg of 3 gauges	222	181	64	50
4	Anthem	62000	233	175	77	55
		62300	278	208	81	54
		19500	155	160	35	40
		Avg of 3 gauges	222	181	64	50
5	Anthem2	62000	233	175	77	55
		62300	278	208	81	54
		19500	155	160	35	40
		Avg of 3 gauges	222	181	64	50
6	Pepe	62000	233	175	77	55
		62300	278	208	81	54
		19500	155	160	35	40
		Avg of 3 gauges	222	181	64	50
7	Bronco	62000	233	175	77	55
		62300	278	208	81	54
		19500	155	160	35	40
		Avg of 3 gauges	222	181	64	50
8	Circle	62000	233	175	77	55
		62300	278	208	81	54
		19500	155	160	35	40
		Avg of 3 gauges	222	181	64	50
9	Charlie	21000	313	283	80	73
		76200	362	268	105	76
		19500	155	160	35	40
		Avg of 3 gauges	276	237	74	63
10	Rock	21000	313	283	80	73
		76200	362	268	105	76
		19500	155	160	35	40
		Avg of 3 gauges	276	237	74	63
11	Cave Creek	21000	313	283	80	73
		76200	362	268	105	76

		19500	155	160	35	40
		Avg of 3 gauges	276	237	74	63
		21000	313	283	80	73
12	Buckhorn	76200	325	268	105	76
		75500	276	228	71	65
		Avg of 3 gauges	305	260	85	71
		75500	276	228	71	65
13	The Rocks	75800	329	246	66	67
		76200	325	268	105	76
		Avg of 3 gauges	310	248	81	69
		75500	276	228	71	65
14	128th St	75800	329	246	66	67
		76200	325	268	105	76
		Avg of 3 gauges	310	248	81	69
		75500	276	228	71	65
15	128th St2	75800	329	246	66	67
		76200	325	268	105	76
		Avg of 3 gauges	310	248	81	69
		75500	276	228	71	65
16	Asherhills	75800	329	246	66	67
		76200	325	268	105	76
		Avg of 3 gauges	310	248	81	69
		37000	230	184	71	57
17	GoldCyn	38500	264	226	79	76
		39000	267	218	74	66
		Avg of 3 gauges	254	209	75	66
		37000	230	184	71	57
18	Peralta	38500	264	226	79	76
		39000	267	218	74	66
		Avg of 3 gauges	254	209	75	66

Note: MAP, mean annual precipitation; MSP, mean seasonal (summer) precipitation.

Mean annual precipitation (mm)		1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	
Gauge ID																											
725000		325	158	140	329	362	121	129	311	184	107	202	107	288	122	316	133	126	198	126							
725000		344	140	329	329	362	121	129	311	184	107	202	107	288	122	316	133	126	198	126							
730000			122	336	190	150	280	268	163	173	263	124	280	149	358	71	107	173	120								
620000	181	244	160	341	341	341	168	175	268	208	113	261	76	181	205	380	142	176	203	116			238	90	126	122	
623000	248	296	228	448	516	281	192	236	268	208	155	288	63	171	312	363	145	107	226	169			319	170	195	212	
195000	39	123	146	237	281	113	222	125	90	217	110	64	66	174	233	344	152	105	201	113			202				
210000	314	257	268	440	412	251	170	413	269	168	376	84	84	287	263	495	234	240	401	285							
762000		323	273	365	445	191	465	200	179	413	168	361	111	287	288	407	272	240	357	227							
725000		203	487	453	193	314	132	171	278	243	243	361	111	287	288	407	272	240	357	227							
758000	137	217	310	485	552	292	353	161	185	346	276	133	338	101	273	222	431	188	176	195	360	203					
326000		341	200	279	213	91	250	175	333	289	101	221	304	171	221	304	171	221	304	171	221	304	171				
385000	149	231	242	492	415	267	336	230	96	278	164	128	326	101	181	258	378	253	178	305	172						
390000	124	290	279	429	523	260	293	146	117	334	119	93	328	97	121	260	362	190	162	360	205						

Mean seasonal (summer) precipitation (mm)		1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	
Gauge ID																											
725000		37	41	46	75	57	57	113	86	117	102	102	29	38	74	116	25	27	129	47	51	10					
725000		60	38	80	46	78	46	78	86	117	113	102	29	38	74	116	25	27	129	47	51	10					
730000			32	46	116	67	67	82	82	94	82	94	24	59	103	107	28	71	47	37	50	19					
620000	78	165	38	92	18	18	62	66	108	30	62	116	58	48	53	58	52	88	86	28	63	17					
623000	85	126	50	86	90	47	77	77	96	51	61	124	93	51	38	56	93	41	92	33	29	18					
195000	24	61	23	46	14	7	36	36	72	32	34	36	4	14	32	31	31	31	38	81	50	65	14				
210000	75	75	20	122	24	4	162	169	46	46	54	130	65	50	48	55	49	56	135	132	96	43					
762000		158	63	227	56	35	139	119	119	60	74	124	10	46	81	53	47	97	122	122	147	34					
755000			71	124	48	24	92	74	77	20	105	50	50	17	35	38	29	93	123	99	116	45					
758000			30	35	63	63	63	63	65	65	27	129	50	53	67	35	37	84	117	84	111	36					
370000	23	110	9	153	39	31	64	147	21	21	61	123	40	57	37	20	86	45	98	54	88	41					
385000	16	100	32	163	72	62	72	161	161	30	61	97	66	56	53	26	94	64	183	74	110	37					
390000	39	139	59	122	81	59	36	83	83	36	121	57	30	59	48	16	102	73	113	80	98	39					

#	Stock Tank	Rain gauge IDs	Annual total amount of I30 (mm) ^a	
			Period 1 (1989-1999)	Period 2 (2000-2009)
1	Cigar	72000	20.9	15.4
2	Saguaro	62300	25.1	14.1
3	Cline	62300	25.1	14.1
4	Anthem	62300	25.1	14.1
5	Anthem2	62300	25.1	14.1
6	Pepe	65800	22.8	11.5
7	Bronco	65800	22.8	11.5
8	Circle	65800	22.8	11.5
9	Charlie	76200	40.4	28.0
10	Rock	76200	40.4	28.0
11	Cave Creek	21000	15.4	22.9
12	Buckhorn	76200	40.4	28.0
13	The Rocks	76200	40.4	28.0
14	128th St	76200	40.4	28.0
15	128th St2	76200	40.4	28.0
16	Asherhills	75500	17.5	18.4
17	GoldCyn	39000	23.2	17.9
18	Peralta	39000	23.2	17.9

a Total amount of rainfall exceeded 10 mm (0.4 inches) for 30 min normalized by measurement period (years).

Cigar			Saguaro			Charlie		
Date	Gauge ID: 72000 Time	I30 (inches/30min)	Date	Gauge ID: 62500 Time	I30 (inches/30min)	Date	Gauge ID: 20200 Time	I30 (inches/30min)
7/24/1992	500	1.06	10/6/1993	1230	0.91	10/6/1993	1300	0.79
8/22/1992	1200	0.59	8/31/1993	1600	0.47	10/6/1993	1330	0.35
9/19/1992	2300	0.47	8/29/1993	1430	0.31	8/30/1993	630	0.31
12/8/1992	330	0.28	8/31/1993	1530	0.28	11/12/1993	2100	0.24
9/19/1992	2330	0.28	8/29/1993	1630	0.28	10/6/1993	1230	0.20
5/21/1992	900	0.24	9/2/1994	2030	0.39	12/6/1994	200	0.31
12/4/1992	430	0.20	8/19/1994	2030	0.31	10/15/1994	930	0.28
8/30/1992	1730	0.20	7/19/1994	730	0.28	7/28/1994	2000	0.24
6/3/1992	2130	0.20	10/15/1994	830	0.24	3/7/1994	1430	0.24
1/18/1993	1500	0.55	8/19/1994	1430	0.24	12/6/1994	130	0.20
8/29/1993	100	0.39	12/29/1994	2000	0.2	9/28/1995	300	0.75
10/6/1993	1130	0.35	10/15/1994	800	0.2	9/27/1995	2400	0.71
10/6/1993	1200	0.28	9/27/1995	2400	0.55	11/1/1995	2030	0.51
2/8/1993	1930	0.24	8/11/1995	2330	0.55	9/28/1995	330	0.35
2/28/1993	300	0.20	9/28/1995	330	0.31	11/1/1995	2000	0.28
7/17/1994	1830	0.43	8/12/1995	30	0.24	1/26/1995	100	0.28
5/24/1994	1930	0.31	6/28/1995	1730	0.24	10/31/1995	2330	0.24
5/24/1994	1200	0.31	9/28/1995	30	0.2	3/11/1995	1830	0.20
12/25/1994	1830	0.28	8/15/1995	1930	0.2	3/11/1995	1800	0.20
10/15/1994	630	0.28	8/11/1995	2400	0.2	2/15/1995	330	0.20
10/15/1994	700	0.20	8/11/1995	2300	0.2	9/2/1996	100	0.39
3/7/1994	1130	0.20	1/5/1995	330	0.2	7/14/1996	2130	0.39
8/14/1995	2330	0.51	1/4/1995	2100	0.2	7/14/1996	2200	0.35
1/25/1995	2100	0.31	7/25/1996	2100	0.35	9/11/1996	500	0.31
9/6/1995	2130	0.28	7/14/1996	2200	0.31	9/2/1996	300	0.28
3/11/1995	1700	0.28	8/18/1996	2330	0.28	9/2/1996	130	0.28
1/5/1995	230	0.24	6/30/1996	2030	0.24	8/14/1996	1230	0.28
11/1/1995	1930	0.20	8/14/1996	1830	0.2	9/6/1996	2000	0.24
8/26/1996	2230	0.55	9/11/1997	1130	0.71	9/9/1996	2230	0.20
7/14/1996	2330	0.43	1/13/1997	2300	0.31	8/14/1996	1330	0.20
7/25/1996	2300	0.24	1/13/1997	400	0.24	7/25/1996	2200	0.20
7/25/1996	2200	0.20	12/7/1997	230	0.2	9/11/1997	1130	0.31
1/13/1997	1300	0.24	7/7/1998	2400	0.35	9/11/1997	1330	0.20
12/7/1997	200	0.20	9/11/1998	730	0.28	1/13/1997	830	0.20
9/11/1997	1700	0.20	7/6/1998	2100	0.28	1/13/1997	400	0.20
9/11/1997	1030	0.20	8/24/1998	2100	0.24	10/26/1998	730	0.39
9/1/1997	1200	0.20	3/26/1998	430	0.24	3/26/1998	1100	0.35
1/13/1997	2130	0.20	2/15/1998	200	0.24	10/25/1998	1600	0.28
8/7/1998	2330	0.98	8/17/1998	930	0.2	2/15/1998	230	0.24
7/8/1998	1930	0.55	3/26/1998	400	0.2	2/24/1998	1930	0.20
7/7/1998	1800	0.55	9/23/1999	1430	0.47	7/14/1999	1600	0.67
7/8/1998	1900	0.39	7/15/1999	530	0.35	7/15/1999	600	0.43
2/4/1998	600	0.31	9/11/1999	2030	0.31	7/7/1999	2030	0.43
8/7/1998	2400	0.24	7/14/1999	1530	0.31	8/27/1999	1730	0.39
8/6/1998	200	0.20	7/10/1999	1900	0.31	7/23/1999	1830	0.35
7/8/1998	2000	0.20	9/23/1999	1400	0.28	7/15/1999	530	0.31
2/4/1998	630	0.20	9/23/1999	1300	0.28	7/7/1999	2100	0.28
7/14/1999	1500	1.22	7/14/1999	1600	0.2	9/19/1999	1930	0.24
8/15/1999	2130	0.39	7/10/1999	2100	0.2	6/2/1999	930	0.20
8/19/1999	1930	0.24	10/22/2000	500	0.39	10/22/2000	500	0.39
9/11/1999	2330	0.20	6/20/2000	1700	0.39	10/22/2000	700	0.35
8/30/1999	1900	0.20	10/21/2000	2230	0.31	10/22/2000	300	0.31
10/30/2000	1700	0.28	8/17/2000	1930	0.28	10/21/2000	1930	0.20
6/28/2000	1930	0.24	10/27/2000	1500	0.24	8/14/2001	1600	0.55
10/7/2001	700	0.55	10/22/2000	30	0.2	8/9/2001	100	0.31
8/17/2001	100	0.31	10/21/2000	2200	0.2	1/27/2001	1430	0.20
8/17/2001	130	0.20	7/29/2001	2300	0.59	7/9/2002	2030	0.20

Cigar			Saguaro			Charlie		
Gauge ID: 72000			Gauge ID: 62500			Gauge ID: 20200		
Date	Time	I30 (inches/30min)	Date	Time	I30 (inches/30min)	Date	Time	I30 (inches/30min)
7/30/2001	30	0.20	8/9/2001	100	0.24	8/14/2003	2000	0.39
3/7/2001	700	0.20	12/4/2001	530	0.2	10/10/2003	830	0.31
9/7/2002	1830	0.35	7/29/2001	2330	0.2	2/13/2003	2300	0.31
9/7/2002	1900	0.28	9/6/2002	2030	0.55	3/16/2003	2000	0.28
10/26/2002	1730	0.24	9/7/2002	1800	0.39	11/12/2003	2330	0.20
9/6/2002	1900	0.24	8/26/2003	2230	0.2	2/13/2003	2400	0.20
8/4/2002	30	0.24	2/25/2003	1830	0.2	2/13/2003	1500	0.20
7/11/2002	1830	0.24	9/19/2004	1300	0.67	3/4/2004	1730	0.35
9/6/2002	2100	0.20	9/19/2004	1400	0.47	9/19/2004	330	0.31
8/14/2003	2100	1.69	8/16/2004	1830	0.43	3/5/2004	230	0.31
8/27/2003	30	0.35	3/5/2004	230	0.31	4/2/2004	600	0.28
2/13/2003	2100	0.35	11/8/2004	400	0.28	3/5/2004	430	0.28
9/6/2003	1530	0.31	8/16/2004	1700	0.28	3/5/2004	330	0.24
9/6/2003	1600	0.28	4/9/2004	1700	0.24	3/5/2004	300	0.24
8/14/2003	2030	0.24	3/5/2004	330	0.24	3/5/2004	130	0.24
11/12/2003	1530	0.20	3/5/2004	200	0.24	9/19/2004	1430	0.20
2/25/2003	2400	0.20	3/4/2004	1700	0.2	4/2/2004	730	0.20
8/15/2004	1900	0.47	10/18/2005	1130	0.35	3/5/2004	30	0.20
12/29/2004	830	0.35	8/9/2005	1500	0.35	2/23/2004	530	0.20
4/2/2004	300	0.31	2/20/2005	100	0.2			
12/29/2004	730	0.28	8/13/2006	1930	0.55			
4/2/2004	330	0.24	9/9/2006	900	0.51			
11/8/2004	200	0.24	8/24/2006	930	0.35			
11/22/2004	600	0.20	9/9/2006	830	0.24			
2/19/2005	2400	0.47	7/25/2007	1500	0.59			
1/3/2005	2030	0.28	11/30/2007	1600	0.31			
9/2/2006	1830	0.98	12/1/2007	230	0.28			
8/9/2006	1730	0.71	11/30/2007	2400	0.28			
9/7/2006	2230	0.59	3/22/2007	1500	0.28			
9/6/2006	2330	0.28	12/7/2007	1730	0.24			
8/11/2006	2330	0.24	8/1/2007	1730	0.24			
8/31/2006	2000	0.24	3/22/2007	2200	0.24			
9/12/2006	1930	0.24	12/1/2007	1230	0.2			
8/31/2006	1830	0.24	7/28/2007	1700	0.2			
9/2/2006	1800	0.24	7/10/2008	2400	0.47			
8/9/2006	1700	0.20	7/13/2008	1730	0.43			
7/23/2007	1730	0.59	7/10/2008	2300	0.43			
3/22/2007	1530	0.35	8/28/2008	2030	0.31			
11/30/2007	2330	0.24	8/7/2008	2030	0.31			
11/30/2007	1930	0.24	11/27/2008	2000	0.28			
7/23/2007	1630	0.24	8/28/2008	2200	0.28			
12/7/2007	1630	0.20	8/28/2008	2130	0.24			
1/31/2007	400	0.20	7/10/2008	2230	0.2			
7/13/2008	1700	0.39	7/19/2009	2030	0.47			
11/27/2008	130	0.35	8/13/2009	130	0.31			
9/10/2008	1900	0.28						
11/27/2008	200	0.20						

Circle, Pepe, Bronco			128 st., 128 St.2, The rocks, Rock, Buckhorn, Charlie			Gold canyon, Peralta		
Date	Gauge ID: 65800 Time	I30 (inches/30min)	Date	Gauge ID: 76200 Time	I30 (inches/30min)	Date	Gauge ID: 39000 Time	I30 (inches/30min)
9/3/1990	1900	0.87	10/21/1989	1500	0.28	8/19/1989	330	0.55
8/14/1990	1030	0.75	10/21/1989	1330	0.24	8/14/1989	2400	0.35
9/3/1990	1930	0.51	8/17/1989	2300	0.2	4/4/1989	1500	0.24
8/15/1990	530	0.47	8/5/1990	1830	0.55	8/7/1989	1830	0.20
9/3/1990	1800	0.43	8/30/1990	2100	0.55	1/4/1989	730	0.20
7/21/1990	1900	0.31	7/21/1990	1930	0.47	9/3/1990	1630	0.55
8/11/1990	2200	0.24	7/2/1990	2200	0.39	9/3/1990	1600	0.55
1/17/1990	1900	0.20	11/2/1990	1400	0.31	7/10/1990	1900	0.31
9/14/1990	2400	0.20	9/2/1990	400	0.28	9/14/1990	2100	0.28
12/19/1991	1200	0.43	7/10/1990	2030	0.28	8/15/1990	200	0.24
8/11/1991	500	0.39	9/15/1990	1000	0.24	8/14/1990	930	0.24
8/11/1991	430	0.39	9/14/1990	2200	0.24	8/14/1990	300	0.24
12/18/1991	1600	0.35	9/3/1990	2000	0.24	8/15/1990	130	0.20
12/18/1991	1400	0.35	9/2/1990	430	0.2	4/24/1990	830	0.20
11/30/1991	1100	0.35	3/29/1990	1430	0.2	9/5/1991	1500	0.47
10/27/1991	1400	0.35	1/17/1990	1830	0.2	10/27/1991	1200	0.35
12/10/1991	2300	0.31	9/20/1990	700	0.2	1/4/1991	1700	0.35
11/30/1991	1200	0.28	8/24/1991	1630	0.67	1/4/1991	1900	0.31
8/27/1991	100	0.28	10/27/1991	1230	0.51	10/27/1991	800	0.28
10/27/1991	1500	0.24	8/24/1991	1600	0.39	10/27/1991	1000	0.24
8/11/1991	530	0.24	9/5/1991	1700	0.31	1/4/1991	2300	0.24
8/11/1991	400	0.24	8/11/1991	400	0.28	11/10/1991	1730	0.20
8/11/1991	330	0.24	1/4/1991	1800	0.28	1/4/1991	2100	0.20
1/4/1991	1600	0.24	9/5/1991	1430	0.24	8/22/1992	630	0.55
8/11/1991	200	0.20	1/4/1991	2200	0.24	8/22/1992	600	0.51
1/4/1991	1800	0.20	1/4/1991	2000	0.2	7/24/1992	330	0.51
12/10/1991	1900	0.20	3/26/1991	1000	0.2	10/23/1992	2100	0.43
11/30/1991	300	0.20	3/20/1991	1930	0.2	8/6/1992	2100	0.39
3/28/1992	2230	0.51	8/6/1992	2000	0.91	8/23/1992	300	0.31
8/22/1992	2230	0.47	8/6/1992	2130	0.63	3/8/1992	2100	0.31
8/22/1992	2130	0.47	8/23/1992	300	0.63	5/8/1992	1530	0.28
3/28/1992	2200	0.43	8/22/1992	730	0.55	8/6/1992	2130	0.24
2/10/1992	2030	0.35	7/24/1992	330	0.47	8/3/1992	30	0.20
1/12/1992	2000	0.35	3/29/1992	800	0.43	1/18/1993	1330	0.71
1/6/1992	1530	0.31	8/22/1992	700	0.43	8/24/1993	2100	0.55
9/19/1992	2200	0.28	8/22/1992	830	0.39	1/8/1993	530	0.43
1/14/1993	1930	0.83	8/22/1992	800	0.39	3/27/1993	200	0.31
1/10/1993	2100	0.55	8/22/1992	900	0.31	8/27/1993	2100	0.28
10/7/1993	200	0.24	8/6/1992	1930	0.31	10/6/1993	1700	0.24
8/29/1993	2130	0.24	7/24/1992	300	0.28	8/27/1993	2400	0.24
8/29/1993	2200	0.20	5/23/1992	1630	0.28	11/11/1993	1200	0.20
3/26/1993	1630	0.20	8/7/1992	230	0.24	8/27/1993	2030	0.20
3/26/1993	1330	0.20	8/6/1992	2030	0.24	2/10/1993	200	0.20
1/10/1993	2030	0.20	1/11/1992	2400	0.2	1/18/1993	1730	0.20
1/7/1993	2000	0.20	1/11/1992	2330	0.2	1/11/1993	130	0.20
11/13/1993	1400	0.20	12/4/1992	1630	0.2	1/7/1993	2400	0.20
10/6/1993	1330	0.20	8/12/1992	1300	0.2	7/17/1994	1530	0.59
10/6/1993	1300	0.20	10/6/1993	1330	0.43	9/2/1994	2300	0.51
2/8/1994	1400	0.39	10/6/1993	1230	0.35	5/25/1994	30	0.35
12/25/1994	2100	0.24	3/26/1993	1730	0.35	8/26/1994	2200	0.28
11/1/1995	2000	0.59	1/17/1993	1230	0.31	11/12/1994	530	0.24
9/28/1995	330	0.35	10/7/1993	230	0.31	7/28/1994	1900	0.24
8/19/1995	2000	0.35	10/6/1993	230	0.31	5/24/1994	1830	0.24
9/28/1995	300	0.31	10/6/1993	1400	0.28	10/15/1994	1300	0.20
1/26/1995	30	0.28	8/30/1993	600	0.28	10/15/1994	1230	0.20
3/11/1995	2330	0.24	1/18/1993	1330	0.28	8/20/1995	2130	0.35
3/6/1995	730	0.20	1/10/1993	2230	0.28	1/5/1995	430	0.24

Circle, Pepe, Bronco			128 st., 128 St.2, The rocks, Rock, Buckhorn, Charlie			Gold canyon, Peralta		
Gauge ID: 65800			Gauge ID: 76200			Gauge ID: 39000		
Date	Time	I30 (inches/30min)	Date	Time	I30 (inches/30min)	Date	Time	I30 (inches/30min)
9/18/2004	2030	0.43	8/27/1999	1730	0.75	2/12/2005	200	0.20
4/2/2004	700	0.39	7/15/1999	630	0.59	1/4/2005	930	0.20
4/2/2004	600	0.39	7/14/1999	1630	0.43	1/3/2005	1730	0.20
4/2/2004	500	0.31	4/2/1999	1130	0.39	9/7/2006	2300	0.55
3/5/2004	130	0.28	7/29/1999	1300	0.24	9/7/2006	2330	0.39
9/19/2004	1230	0.24	7/10/1999	1830	0.2	7/30/2006	300	0.35
4/2/2004	800	0.24	4/2/1999	1100	0.2	9/9/2006	1200	0.24
11/22/2004	830	0.20	10/10/2000	600	0.59	7/27/2006	800	0.24
8/11/2004	1800	0.20	10/27/2000	1600	0.47	3/11/2006	1030	0.20
3/4/2004	2230	0.20	3/6/2000	2000	0.39	9/1/2007	1730	0.51
2/23/2004	600	0.20	3/6/2000	100	0.39	7/21/2007	2130	0.43
2/23/2004	500	0.20	3/5/2000	2400	0.28	11/30/2007	1930	0.31
11/11/2005	900	0.28	6/19/2000	330	0.28	8/16/2007	1730	0.31
1/27/2005	130	0.28	10/10/2000	630	0.24	11/30/2007	1700	0.28
1/27/2005	200	0.24	2/14/2001	1430	0.39	8/6/2007	1800	0.28
2/12/2005	1700	0.24	7/29/2001	2200	0.35	7/28/2007	1630	0.28
2/12/2005	600	0.24	1/9/2001	1430	0.28	11/30/2007	2330	0.24
1/11/2005	1800	0.20	8/9/2001	30	0.2	11/30/2007	2400	0.20
7/31/2005	1900	0.20	3/7/2001	1000	0.2	7/30/2007	1830	0.20
9/7/2006	30	0.91	1/12/2001	2200	0.2	7/30/2007	1800	0.20
7/25/2006	2330	0.47	7/14/2002	2030	0.94	7/21/2007	2100	0.20
9/7/2006	2130	0.39	7/23/2002	2000	0.35	7/10/2008	2130	0.94
9/2/2006	1830	0.39	9/10/2002	1930	0.31	8/28/2008	2130	0.31
8/24/2006	930	0.39	7/14/2002	2100	0.28	11/27/2008	2100	0.28
9/7/2006	100	0.31	7/14/2002	2000	0.2	11/27/2008	500	0.24
9/3/2006	2200	0.28	8/5/2002	2100	0.2	7/11/2008	30	0.24
8/24/2006	1000	0.28	8/19/2003	1000	0.43	7/10/2008	2200	0.24
8/24/2006	900	0.24	2/25/2003	2230	0.35	1/27/2008	2000	0.24
11/30/2007	1700	0.43	10/10/2003	930	0.31	7/10/2008	2230	0.20
11/30/2007	2400	0.39	2/25/2003	2330	0.28	5/22/2008	1300	0.20
1/31/2007	1300	0.24	2/25/2003	1900	0.28	2/4/2008	500	0.20
11/30/2007	1800	0.20	8/14/2003	2000	0.28	7/23/2009	2330	0.55
7/23/2007	1730	0.20	3/16/2003	2030	0.24	12/8/2009	30	0.20
7/23/2007	1700	0.20	3/1/2003	1600	0.2	4/11/2009	700	0.20
3/23/2007	300	0.20	3/1/2003	1400	0.2			
8/25/2008	2030	0.47	2/25/2003	1930	0.2			
7/10/2008	2030	0.43	2/13/2003	2330	0.2			
8/25/2008	2100	0.39	10/10/2003	830	0.2			
8/25/2008	2000	0.31	8/26/2003	2200	0.2			
7/20/2008	300	0.28	7/26/2004	2000	0.28			
9/10/2008	2000	0.24	4/2/2004	1200	0.28			
9/5/2009	930	0.31	4/2/2004	400	0.28			
8/13/2009	430	0.24	3/5/2004	430	0.28			
10/5/2010	1330	0.47	3/4/2004	1800	0.28			
7/31/2010	300	0.47	12/29/2004	1230	0.24			
10/5/2010	1730	0.43	12/29/2004	1030	0.24			
12/22/2010	2330	0.39	3/5/2004	130	0.24			
7/31/2010	330	0.39	3/5/2004	100	0.2			
1/19/2010	2200	0.35	12/29/2004	1600	0.2			
1/21/2010	2030	0.31	12/29/2004	1100	0.2			
7/22/2010	1900	0.24	12/6/2004	1730	0.2			
1/19/2010	1930	0.24	11/21/2004	330	0.2			
8/22/2010	30	0.20	8/15/2004	1730	0.2			
3/7/2010	1630	0.20	4/2/2004	800	0.2			
1/21/2010	330	0.20	3/5/2004	500	0.2			
1/21/2010	300	0.20	8/2/2005	2130	0.67			
11/5/2011	30	0.20	7/26/2005	1700	0.63			
8/23/2012	200	0.55	1/5/2005	30	0.31			

Circle, Pepe, Bronco			128 st., 128 St.2, The rocks, Rock, Buckhorn, Charlie			Gold canyon, Peralta		
Gauge ID: 65800			Gauge ID: 76200			Gauge ID: 39000		
Date	Time	I30 (inches/30min)	Date	Time	I30 (inches/30min)	Date	Time	I30 (inches/30min)
7/21/2012	2000	0.39	10/17/2005	2300	0.28			
9/7/2012	730	0.31	8/2/2005	2400	0.28			
9/7/2012	700	0.24	7/30/2005	1400	0.28			
8/21/2012	2200	0.24	7/26/2005	1800	0.28			
7/21/2012	1930	0.20	2/11/2005	1830	0.28			
9/9/2013	1130	1.06	7/31/2005	1800	0.24			
8/24/2013	330	0.28	2/19/2005	200	0.2			
7/19/2013	2300	0.28	1/26/2005	1630	0.2			
7/19/2013	2230	0.28	9/3/2006	2130	1.18			
9/9/2013	1230	0.24	9/9/2006	1000	0.43			
9/9/2013	1200	0.24	7/30/2006	30	0.35			
3/9/2013	130	0.20	9/9/2006	930	0.24			
			9/2/2006	1800	0.24			
			3/19/2006	1200	0.2			
			10/6/2006	800	0.2			
			7/31/2007	1900	1.26			
			7/31/2007	1830	0.59			
			7/21/2007	1930	0.51			
			11/30/2007	1900	0.47			
			8/3/2007	2200	0.31			
			12/1/2007	400	0.31			
			11/30/2007	2300	0.31			
			7/23/2007	1530	0.28			
			12/1/2007	600	0.24			
			12/1/2007	530	0.24			
			7/23/2007	1630	0.24			
			12/1/2007	730	0.2			
			11/30/2007	2330	0.2			
			7/4/2008	1930	0.83			
			7/13/2008	1500	0.75			
			8/25/2008	2200	0.67			
			7/10/2008	2000	0.59			
			7/13/2008	1430	0.31			
			7/15/2008	430	0.28			
			7/4/2008	2000	0.2			
			8/29/2008	2300	0.2			
			9/8/2009	2300	0.31			
			4/11/2009	230	0.28			
			8/13/2009	330	0.24			
			4/11/2009	830	0.2			
			2/9/2009	2130	0.2			

Cave Creek			Asher Hills			Cline, Anthem, Anthem2, Saguaro		
Gauge ID: 21000			Gauge ID: 75500			Gauge ID: 62300		
Date	Time	130 (inches/30min)	Date	Time	130 (inches/30min)	Date	Time	130 (inches/30min)
7/27/1989	1800	0.43	8/14/1990	930	0.63	10/5/1989	1530	0.63
8/17/1989	2230	0.39	9/20/1990	2230	0.43	8/15/1989	2300	0.51
7/27/1989	1930	0.39	9/3/1990	2100	0.24	8/17/1989	2200	0.31
12/29/1989	30	0.31	8/14/1990	1000	0.24	10/4/1989	630	0.24
3/26/1989	730	0.28	9/3/1990	1600	0.2	8/17/1989	100	0.24
7/30/1989	2030	0.24	8/12/1990	1930	0.2	9/3/1989	1000	0.2
7/30/1989	2000	0.24	2/28/1991	1200	0.59	3/26/1989	230	0.2
7/21/1989	2100	0.24	11/10/1991	1130	0.51	1/4/1989	800	0.2
12/29/1989	1600	0.20	9/6/1991	1400	0.35	9/3/1990	1800	0.67
9/15/1990	1800	0.39	9/6/1991	1300	0.35	3/29/1990	800	0.63
9/20/1990	1800	0.31	3/26/1991	1030	0.28	7/12/1990	1630	0.55
3/29/1990	700	0.24	10/27/1991	1400	0.24	7/24/1990	400	0.35
9/20/1990	1600	0.20	10/27/1991	1330	0.24	7/7/1990	1700	0.35
3/29/1990	900	0.20	10/27/1991	1300	0.24	8/14/1990	1100	0.31
10/27/1991	1200	0.31	9/6/1991	1600	0.24	7/2/1990	2130	0.28
1/7/1991	1900	0.31	9/6/1991	1500	0.24	11/26/1990	1000	0.2
1/7/1991	1700	0.31	10/27/1991	1230	0.2	9/15/1990	1900	0.2
10/27/1991	1100	0.28	9/1/1991	630	0.2	8/6/1990	1500	0.2
12/11/1991	1130	0.24	8/24/1991	1630	0.2	3/29/1990	830	0.2
9/5/1991	1800	0.20	8/24/1991	1600	0.2	10/27/1991	1230	0.71
3/20/1991	1930	0.20	8/11/1991	430	0.2	12/10/1991	1900	0.43
3/20/1991	1800	0.20	8/22/1992	700	0.59	8/11/1991	430	0.43
1/7/1991	1500	0.20	5/23/1992	1600	0.47	12/10/1991	2130	0.35
1/7/1991	1100	0.20	7/23/1992	2330	0.39	1/4/1991	2000	0.28
8/17/1992	1630	0.43	7/24/1992	200	0.28	12/19/1991	1530	0.24
8/11/1992	1930	0.31	10/28/1992	830	0.24	1/4/1991	1800	0.2
8/6/1992	2000	0.31	8/6/1992	1330	0.24	1/4/1991	1600	0.2
8/22/1992	2300	0.28	8/6/1992	1300	0.24	8/22/1992	2200	0.31
8/19/1992	2300	0.28	3/28/1992	2130	0.24	8/22/1992	1100	0.31
7/23/1992	2330	0.24	12/4/1992	900	0.2	7/24/1992	200	0.31
5/30/1992	330	0.24	12/3/1992	2300	0.2	12/4/1992	1300	0.24
5/23/1992	1630	0.24	9/19/1992	2330	0.2	12/4/1992	1130	0.24
1/11/1992	2330	0.24	8/6/1992	1230	0.2	8/22/1992	2230	0.24
12/4/1992	1600	0.20	3/8/1992	2100	0.2	8/11/1992	1830	0.24
8/11/1992	1900	0.20	8/30/1993	330	0.39	7/24/1992	130	0.24
5/20/1992	1800	0.20	8/29/1993	1230	0.35	8/31/1993	1530	1.18
5/20/1992	30	0.20	10/6/1993	1330	0.31	8/31/1993	1600	0.87
1/6/1992	600	0.20	1/14/1993	2000	0.28	10/6/1993	1300	0.35
1/8/1993	2130	0.35	1/18/1993	1700	0.24	1/8/1993	300	0.35
10/6/1993	1430	0.28	1/10/1993	2300	0.24	8/6/1993	2200	0.31
1/8/1993	500	0.24	5/15/1993	2000	0.2	3/26/1993	1630	0.31
10/7/1993	330	0.20	1/10/1993	2400	0.2	11/14/1993	2030	0.28
10/6/1993	2230	0.20	10/15/1994	1000	0.24	10/5/1993	1200	0.28
10/6/1993	1300	0.20	8/20/1995	2200	0.71	8/29/1993	500	0.24
8/28/1993	1730	0.20	9/28/1995	500	0.63	8/29/1993	300	0.24
1/7/1993	2300	0.20	9/28/1995	430	0.43	1/7/1993	1330	0.24
10/15/1994	930	0.20	8/14/1995	2030	0.31	10/5/1993	1230	0.2
8/20/1995	2000	1.34	9/28/1995	300	0.28	3/26/1993	2230	0.2
8/11/1995	2230	0.79	8/29/1995	1600	0.2	3/26/1993	2100	0.2
9/28/1995	300	0.59	2/15/1995	1200	0.2	1/18/1993	1500	0.2
8/20/1995	2300	0.47	8/29/1996	2130	0.35	1/10/1993	2230	0.2
11/1/1995	2030	0.39	8/18/1996	2200	0.35	8/19/1994	1430	0.51
9/28/1995	900	0.35	8/26/1997	1100	0.59	10/15/1994	800	0.31
2/15/1995	1830	0.31	8/26/1997	1030	0.31	12/6/1994	30	0.28
8/11/1995	2330	0.24	11/11/1997	1300	0.28	9/2/1994	2030	0.28
8/11/1995	2300	0.24	9/15/1997	1830	0.2	12/23/1994	1330	0.24
8/23/1995	230	0.20	9/11/1997	1300	0.2	10/15/1994	830	0.24

Cave Creek			Asher Hills			Cline, Anthem, Anthem2, Saguaro		
Gauge ID: 21000			Gauge ID: 75500			Gauge ID: 62300		
Date	Time	130 (inches/30min)	Date	Time	130 (inches/30min)	Date	Time	130 (inches/30min)
8/20/1995	2230	0.20	9/8/1997	1930	0.2	12/23/1994	1330	0.24
9/1/1996	2400	0.91	9/2/1997	1900	0.2	10/15/1994	830	0.24
9/2/1996	30	0.59	8/26/1997	1130	0.2	12/25/1994	1800	0.2
7/14/1996	2130	0.35	1/13/1997	2330	0.2	11/12/1994	200	0.2
7/25/1996	2030	0.28	10/26/1998	600	0.43	5/11/1994	1530	0.2
9/11/1996	600	0.24	3/26/1998	2030	0.28	8/11/1995	2330	0.51
9/11/1996	230	0.20	11/9/1998	100	0.24	9/28/1995	30	0.39
9/1/1996	2330	0.20	10/26/1998	700	0.24	9/27/1995	2400	0.31
8/14/1996	1830	0.20	10/26/1998	630	0.2	1/26/1995	630	0.31
7/14/1996	2100	0.20	10/26/1998	330	0.2	8/11/1995	2400	0.28
9/2/1997	1930	0.28	2/15/1998	300	0.2	1/5/1995	800	0.28
7/31/1997	30	0.20	2/15/1998	230	0.2	1/4/1995	1930	0.28
2/27/1997	2200	0.20	8/27/1999	1700	0.79	11/6/1995	800	0.2
1/13/1997	430	0.20	7/23/1999	1730	0.47	9/28/1995	330	0.2
8/15/1998	1900	0.51	7/15/1999	630	0.39	8/20/1995	2400	0.2
8/15/1998	1930	0.35	9/19/1999	2100	0.24	3/6/1995	230	0.2
3/26/1998	2000	0.35	9/19/1999	2130	0.2	1/25/1995	2300	0.2
10/26/1998	800	0.24	8/27/1999	1730	0.2	1/25/1995	1930	0.2
4/1/1998	1300	0.24	10/27/2000	1600	0.55	9/6/1995	2200	0.24
3/26/1998	530	0.20	8/30/2000	1530	0.43	8/14/1996	1830	0.67
2/24/1998	1100	0.20	10/22/2000	730	0.28	9/2/1996	230	0.31
2/24/1998	300	0.20	2/21/2000	1830	0.24	9/9/1996	2300	0.24
7/14/1999	1630	0.31	10/11/2000	230	0.2	7/25/1996	2100	0.24
7/5/1999	1630	0.31	10/10/2000	600	0.2	7/25/1996	2030	0.2
4/2/1999	1230	0.31	6/23/2000	2400	0.2	7/16/1996	1530	0.2
8/28/1999	2230	0.28	4/6/2001	200	0.2	9/11/1997	1130	0.55
7/15/1999	600	0.28	3/7/2001	1030	0.2	8/8/1997	1930	0.35
9/19/1999	2230	0.24	7/23/2002	2000	0.28	1/13/1997	2300	0.28
7/14/1999	1600	0.24	8/14/2003	2000	0.51	9/11/1997	1330	0.2
9/22/1999	2200	0.20	2/13/2003	1530	0.39	8/8/1997	2000	0.2
7/15/1999	630	0.20	3/16/2003	1430	0.35	7/7/1998	1530	0.59
7/13/1999	1600	0.20	11/12/2003	1400	0.28	7/7/1998	1500	0.59
7/10/1999	1800	0.20	3/16/2003	2100	0.2	3/26/1998	930	0.28
7/5/1999	1600	0.20	2/13/2003	2400	0.2	9/4/1998	1300	0.2
8/28/2000	1230	0.51	3/5/2004	500	0.28	8/27/1999	1700	0.43
6/24/2000	100	0.43	3/5/2004	130	0.24	7/15/1999	300	0.43
10/27/2000	1600	0.31	12/29/2004	500	0.2	9/23/1999	1430	0.39
10/22/2000	330	0.31	3/5/2004	200	0.2	9/23/1999	1300	0.24
6/24/2000	130	0.31	8/23/2005	100	0.67	7/6/1999	1700	0.24
10/22/2000	930	0.20	8/9/2005	1630	0.51	8/27/1999	1630	0.2
10/22/2000	600	0.20	8/8/2005	930	0.35	7/15/1999	530	0.2
2/21/2000	1800	0.20	4/23/2005	2200	0.35	8/17/2000	1930	0.67
8/9/2001	30	0.28	1/4/2005	330	0.35	8/17/2000	1900	0.67
7/29/2001	2230	0.24	2/11/2005	730	0.28	6/29/2000	1930	0.39
7/25/2001	1500	0.24	8/9/2005	1700	0.24	10/22/2000	500	0.35
7/29/2001	2200	0.20	8/5/2005	1800	0.24	10/22/2000	100	0.31
1/9/2001	230	0.20	2/11/2005	2300	0.24	10/21/2000	2230	0.31
7/24/2002	700	0.20	2/11/2005	2330	0.2	8/17/2000	1830	0.31
7/14/2002	2030	0.20	9/4/2006	1830	0.67	10/22/2000	700	0.28
8/14/2003	2000	0.63	8/10/2006	1600	0.51	10/30/2000	1400	0.24
8/19/2003	1030	0.28	9/9/2006	1030	0.43	6/24/2000	30	0.24
2/13/2003	2400	0.24	6/30/2006	2030	0.35	8/29/2000	730	0.2
10/10/2003	1000	0.20	7/30/2006	100	0.31	7/29/2001	2300	0.35
3/16/2003	2030	0.20	7/21/2006	1600	0.31	7/29/2001	2330	0.31
2/25/2003	1900	0.20	5/16/2006	1600	0.28	8/11/2001	330	0.28
2/13/2003	1800	0.20	10/8/2006	1530	0.2	9/7/2002	1800	0.43
2/13/2003	1530	0.20	7/30/2006	30	0.2	12/23/2002	1200	0.31

Cave Creek			Asher Hills			Cline, Anthem, Anthem2, Saguaro		
Gauge ID: 21000			Gauge ID: 75500			Gauge ID: 62300		
Date	Time	I30 (inches/30min)	Date	Time	I30 (inches/30min)	Date	Time	I30 (inches/30min)
2/13/2003	1130	0.20	7/27/2006	630	0.2	12/23/2002	1400	0.24
7/30/2006	30	0.59	7/31/2007	1830	1.22	12/21/2002	1430	0.24
6/30/2006	2000	0.63	7/31/2007	1900	0.47	10/10/2003	430	0.51
9/9/2006	930	0.63	12/8/2007	300	0.24	8/14/2003	2030	0.47
8/8/2006	1600	0.98	8/29/2007	1830	0.24	10/10/2003	500	0.39
11/30/2007	1800	0.47	7/30/2007	1600	0.24	8/14/2003	2000	0.28
9/16/2007	1800	0.43	11/30/2007	2400	0.2	2/13/2003	2130	0.28
7/31/2007	1930	0.43	11/30/2007	1530	0.2	2/13/2003	2200	0.24
7/31/2007	1830	0.71	3/22/2007	1600	0.2	11/12/2003	2200	0.2
7/31/2007	1900	1.22	7/25/2009	1830	0.55	9/19/2004	1300	0.83
1/7/2008	1130	0.43				9/19/2004	1400	0.28
7/4/2008	1930	0.91				9/4/2004	800	0.28
						3/5/2004	400	0.28
						7/26/2004	30	0.24
						8/11/2004	1800	0.2
						7/26/2004	130	0.2
						3/5/2004	300	0.2
						8/24/2006	1030	0.47
						9/9/2006	900	0.98
						4/11/2009	700	0.51

APPENDIX F
COMPARISON OF SSY DATA FOR WARM DESERT
(BWH KÖPPEN-GIGER) SITES

ID	Continent	Country	River/Catchment Name	Measuring location	Lat (°)	Lon (°)	A (km ²)	SSY (t/km ² /y)	SSY mark	Rainfall (mm)	MP	MP length (y)	Land Use	Type	References
1	Am	United States	Cigar		33.685117	-112.534267	2.60	89.20		218	1990-2004	15	GT	R	This study
2	Am	United States	Cigar		33.685117	-112.534267	2.60	102.40		178	2005-2009	5	GT	R	This study
3	Am	United States	Sagnaro		33.800925	-112.204050	1.40	48.70		200	1990-2004	15	GT	R	This study
4	Am	United States	Sagnaro		33.800925	-112.204050	1.40	143.20		198	2005-2009	5	I	R	This study
5	Am	United States	Cline		33.853465	-112.149325	1.50	52.00		326	1989-1995	7	GT	R	This study
6	Am	United States	Cline		33.853465	-112.149325	1.50	103.70		192	1996-2003	8	B	R	This study
7	Am	United States	Cline		33.853465	-112.149325	1.50	174.70		282	2003-2004	2	B	R	This study
8	Am	United States	Anthem		33.862595	-112.123726	0.88	136.70		305	1989-1992	4	GT	R	This study
9	Am	United States	Anthem		33.862595	-112.123726	0.88	334.00		269	1993-1997	5	F1	R	This study
10	Am	United States	Anthem 2		33.850572	-112.101617	0.58	77.50		305	1989-1992	4	GT	R	This study
11	Am	United States	Anthem 2		33.850572	-112.101617	0.58	276.70		355	1993-1995	3	F1	R	This study
12	Am	United States	Anthem 2		33.850572	-112.101617	0.58	330.90		190	1996-1998	3	F2	R	This study
13	Am	United States	Anthem 2		33.850572	-112.101617	0.58	156.20		178	1999-2002	4	F2	R	This study
14	Am	United States	Anthem 2		33.850572	-112.101617	0.58	255.70		63	2002	1	B	R	This study
15	Am	United States	Pepe		33.786100	-112.159939	0.99	38.40		206	1989-2008	20	B	R	This study
16	Am	United States	Bronco		33.774765	-112.117174	0.45	43.70		231	1989-1998	10	GT	R	This study

(Continues)

ID	Continent	Country	River/Catchment Name	Measuring location	Lat (°)	Lon (°)	A (km ²)	SSY (t/km ² /y)	SSY mark	Rainfall (mm)	MP	MP length (y)	Land Use	Type	References
17	Am	United States	Bronco		33.774765	-	0.45	137.40		158	1999-2003	5	I	R	This study
18	Am	United States	Circle		33.767891	112.117174	0.60	51.00		203	1990-2010	21	GT	R	This study
19	Am	United States	Circle		33.767891	112.069517	0.60	128.50		168	2010-2013	4	I	R	This study
20	Am	United States	Charlie		33.773722	112.069517	0.91	264.30		213	1989-2004	16	B	R	This study
21	Am	United States	Rock		33.758838	111.949346	0.54	53.60		388	1989-1992	4	GT	R	This study
22	Am	United States	Rock		33.758838	111.877228	0.54	224.00		374	1992-1997	6	F1	R	This study
23	Am	United States	Rock		33.758838	111.877228	0.54	175.70		254	1998-2003	6	F2	R	This study
24	Am	United States	Rock		33.758838	111.877228	0.54	90.90		304	2004-2009	6	F2	R	This study
25	Am	United States	Cave Creek		33.821477	111.877228	0.19	102.20		320	1989-1992	4	GT	R	This study
26	Am	United States	Cave Creek		33.821477	111.860042	0.19	258.50		325	1992-1999	8	F1	R	This study
27	Am	United States	Cave Creek		33.821477	111.860042	0.19	128.80		228	2000-2003	4	B	R	This study
28	Am	United States	Buckhorn		33.771593	111.726559	4.40	106.20		362	1989-1999	11	GT	R	This study
29	Am	United States	Buckhorn		33.771593	111.726559	4.40	133.40		190	2000-2002	3	B	R	This study
30	Am	United States	The Rocks		33.735184	111.843395	2.36	227.60		380	1989-1996	8	B	R	This study
31	Am	United States	128th St		33.719610	111.805910	0.85	110.30		399	1989-1994	6	GT	R	This study
32	Am	United States	128th St		33.719610	111.805910	0.85	342.00		271	1995-2000	6	F1	R	This study

(Continues)

ID	Continent	Country	River/Catchment Name	Measuring location	Lat (°)	Lon (°)	A (km ²)	SSY (t/km ² /y)	SSY mark	Rainfall (mm)	MP	MP length (y)	Land Use	Type	References
33	Am	United States	128th St		33.719610	-	0.85	159.90		295	2001-2008	8	I	R	This study
34	Am	United States	128th St 2		33.716550	-	0.31	109.50		399	1989-1994	6	GT	R	This study
35	Am	United States	128th St 2		33.716550	-	0.31	278.70		271	1995-2000	6	F1	R	This study
36	Am	United States	128th St 2		33.716550	-	0.31	149.10		295	2001-2008	8	I	R	This study
37	Am	United States	AsherHills		33.731003	-	2.10	140.50		264	1989-2001	13	GT	R	This study
38	Am	United States	AsherHills		33.731003	-	2.10	199.10		217	2002-2007	6	B	R	This study
39	Am	United States	Gold Cyn		33.367485	-	5.10	57.30		243	1989-2009	21	B	R	This study
40	Am	United States	Peralta		33.334978	-	0.78	52.20		252	1989-2000	12	GT	R	This study
41	Am	United States	Peralta		33.334978	-	0.78	77.40		234	2001-2005	5	B	R	This study
42	Am	United States	Peralta		33.334978	-	0.78	8.70		229	2006-2009	4	B	R	This study
43	Am	United States	Casandro Wash		Nearest town	AZ	3.21	221.48		N.A.			G	R	CH2M-Hill. 1994a
44	Am	United States	Rawhide Wash		Nearest town	AZ	35.33	278.64		N.A.			G	R	CH2M-Hill. 1994b
45	Am	United States	Phoenix Mount Preserve (Tatum Wash)		Nearest town	AZ	4.97	1357.46		N.A.			G		JE Fuller Hydrology & Geomorphology, INC. (JEF). 1997
46	Am	United States	Shea Boulevard (Tatum Wash)		Nearest town	AZ	5.62	1500.35		N.A.			G		JE Fuller Hydrology & Geomorphology, INC. (JEF). 1997
47	Am	United States	Rillito Creek Recharge Dam		Nearest town	AZ	N.A.	71.45		N.A.			G		JE Fuller Hydrology & Geomorphology, INC. (JEF). 1997
48	Am	United States	Bunkerville Detention Basin		Nearest town	AZ	N.A.	643.01		N.A.			G		JE Fuller Hydrology & Geomorphology, INC. (JEF). 1997

(Continues)

ID	Continent	Country	River/Catchment Name	Measuring location	Lat (°)	Lon (°)	A (km ²)	SSY (t/km ² /y)	SSY mark	Rainfall (mm)	MP	MP length (y)	Land Use	Type	References
49	Am	United States	Town Wash detention Basin		Nearest town	AZ	N.A.	643.01		N.A.			G		JE Fuller Hydrology & Geomorphology, INC. (JEF), 1997
50	Am	United States	Western Tributary (Cherokee Wash)		Nearest town	AZ	0.36	1543.21		N.A.			G		WEST Consulting, 1997
51	Am	United States	Desert Park Tributary (Cherokee Wash)		Nearest town	AZ	0.78	1414.61		N.A.			G		WEST Consulting, 1997
52	Am	United States	Desert Greenbelt Project		Nearest town	AZ	22.22	71.45		N.A.			G		Hjalmarson, 1996
53	Am	United States	Cave Creek		Nearest town	AZ	313.39	221.48		N.A.			G		Hjalmarson, 1996
54	Am	United States	Spookhill Dam		Nearest town	AZ	42.48	107.17		N.A.			G		Hjalmarson, 1996
55	Am	United States	Shaddle back Dam		Nearest town	AZ	77.70	57.16		N.A.			G		Hjalmarson, 1996
56	Am	United States	Davis Tank		Nearest town	AZ	0.54	685.87		N.A.			G	R	Peterson, 1962
57	Am	United States	Kennedy Tank		Nearest town	AZ	2.51	192.90		N.A.			G	R	Peterson, 1962
58	Am	United States	Juniper Wash		Nearest town	AZ	5.18	207.19		N.A.			G	R	Peterson, 1962
59	Am	United States	Alhambra Tank		Nearest town	AZ	17.12	21.43		N.A.			G	R	Peterson, 1962
60	Am	United States	Black Hills Tank		Nearest town	AZ	2.95	485.83		N.A.			G	R	Peterson, 1962
61	Am	United States	Black Hills tank		Nearest town	AZ	4.04	414.38		N.A.			G	R	Langbein et al. 1951
62	Am	United States	Mesquite Tank		Nearest town	AZ	23.31	21.43		N.A.			G	R	Peterson, 1962
63	Am	United States	Tank 76		Nearest town	AZ	3.03	150.03		N.A.			G	R	Peterson, 1962
64	Am	United States	Spook Hill Apache Junction FRS		Nearest town	AZ	15.02	50.01		217	N.A.	14	G		Henze, 2000

(Continues)

ID	Continent	Country	River/Catchment Name	Measuring location	Lat (°)	Lon (°)	A (km ²)	SSY (t/km ² /y)	SSY mark	Rainfall (mm)	MP	MP length (y)	Land Use	Type	References
65	Am	United States	Spook Hill Signal Butte FRS		Nearest town	AZ	27.56	78.59		217	N.A.	14	G		Henze, 2000
66	Am	United States	Spook Hill Spook Hill FRS		Nearest town	AZ	35.43	100.02		217	N.A.	14	G		Henze, 2000
67	Am	United States	Spook Hill Spook Hill Floodway		Nearest town	AZ	7.49	114.31		217	N.A.	14	G		Henze, 2000
68	Am	United States	Tributary of Gila River	Half moon reservoir	Nearest town	Florence, AZ	0.52	590.74		N.A.	1941-1960	19	G	R	Dendy et al. 1978
69	Am	United States	Tributary of Gila River	Homestead	Nearest town	Florence, AZ	2.33	651.18		N.A.	1954-1960	6	G	R	Dendy et al. 1978
70	Am	United States	Magma Wash	Magma No.1	Nearest town	Florence, AZ	4.61	111.08			1948-1959	11	G	R	Dendy et al. 1978
71	Am	United States	Magma Wash	Magma No.2	Nearest town	Florence, AZ	0.98	118.32			1954-1959	5.4	G	R	Dendy et al. 1978
72	Am	United States	Magma Wash	Magma No.3	Nearest town	Florence, AZ	18.13	20.85			1949-1959	10	G	R	Dendy et al. 1978
73	Am	United States	Tributary of Gila River	Whitlow Old Tank	Nearest town	Florence, AZ	1.92	181.31			1950-1960	10	G	R	Dendy et al. 1978
74	Am	United States	Tributary of Queen Creek	Williams-Chandler Pd. #1	Nearest town	Florence Junction, AZ	2.82	18.30			1931-1961	30	G	R	Dendy et al. 1978
75	Am	United States	Tributary of Queen Creek	Williams-Chandler Pd. #2	Nearest town	Florence Junction, AZ	1.68	74.06			1944-1961	17	G	R	Dendy et al. 1978
76	Am	United States	Tributary of Centennial Wash	Big Horn Mt. Tank #1	Nearest town	Tonopah, AZ	1.32	48.52			1960-1964	4.3	G	R	Dendy et al. 1978

(Continues)

ID	Continent	Country	River/Catchment Name	Measuring location	Lat (°)	Lon (°)	A (km ²)	SSY (t/km ² /y)	SSY mark	Rainfall (mm)	MP	MP length (y)	Land Use	Type	References
77	Am	United States	Tributary of Centennial Wash	Big Horn Mt. Tank #2	Nearest town	Tonopah, AZ	1.14	51.07			1960-1964	4.3	G	R	Dendy et al. 1978
78	Am	United States	Tributary of Centennial Wash	Centennial Wash Tank	Nearest town	Tonopah, AZ	1.55	76.61			1954-1965	11	G	R	Dendy et al. 1978
79	Am	United States	Tributary of Centennial Wash	New Tank	Nearest town	Tonopah, AZ	4.87	67.25			1945-1965	20	G	R	Dendy et al. 1978
80	Am	United States	Tributary of Centennial Wash	West Tank	Nearest town	Salome, AZ	0.75	63.42			1960-1964	4.3	G	R	Dendy et al. 1978
81	Am	United States	Tiger Wash	Upper Twin Tank	Nearest town	Aguila, AZ	4.74	6.38			1944-1964	20	G	R	Dendy et al. 1978
82	Am	United States	Tributary of Brown's Canyon	Harquahala Mt. Tank #1	Nearest town	Aguila, AZ	0.28	83.42			1958-1964	6.3	G	R	Dendy et al. 1978
83	Am	United States	Tributary of Verde River	Keller Tank		Scottsdale, AZ	0.16	168.61	*		1941-1970	29.2	G	R	Dendy et al. 1978
84	Am	United States	Walker River	Weber		Shurz, NV	6319.57	14.29	*		1935-1939	4	G	R	Dendy et al. 1978
85	Am	Chile	Rio Lluta		-13.600000	-69.900000	2550	6.61		20	1988-2002	15	G	GS	Kober et al. 2007
86	Am	Chile	Rio Lluta		-13.600000	-69.900000	2500	13.93		250	1994/2001 El Niño	2	G	GS	Kober et al. 2007
87	Au	Australia	Murray-Darling Basin		-20.911554	116.309280	0.01	156.00		N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	G	E	Wasson 1994
88	Au	Australia	Murray-Darling Basin		-20.911554	116.309280	1068	89.00		N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	G	R	Wasson 1994
89	Au	Australia	Murray-Darling Basin		N.A.	N.A.	1060	15.90		N.A.	Pre-European settlement	N.A.	U	N.A.	Wasson et al. 1996

(Continues)

ID	Continent	Country	River/Catchment Name	Measuring location	Lat (°)	Lon (°)	A (km ²)	SSY (t/km ² /y)	SSY mark	Rainfall (mm)	MP	MP length (y)	Land Use	Type	References
90	Au	Australia	Murray-Darling Basin		N.A.	N.A.	1060	28.00		N.A.	Post-Europocean settlement	N.A.	G	N.A.	Wasson et al. 1996
91	ME	West Bank	Qumeran	Dead Sea highway	31° 42' N	35° 25' E	47	62.00		N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	G	M	Moshe et al. 2008
92	ME	West Bank	Qidron	Dead Sea highway	31° 41' N	35° 20' E	123	35.00		N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	G	M	Moshe et al. 2008
93	ME	West Bank	Darga	Dead Sea highway	31° 37' N	35° 18' E	237	90.00		N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	G	M	Moshe et al. 2008
94	ME	West Bank	Qedem	Dead Sea highway	31° 31' N	35° 24' E	12	152.00		N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	G	M	Moshe et al. 2008
95	ME	West Bank	Ishai	Dead Sea highway	31° 29' N	35° 24' E	2	4.50		N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	G	M	Moshe et al. 2008
96	ME	West Bank	Hever	Dead Sea highway	31° 26' N	35° 15' E	175	50.00		N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	G	M	Moshe et al. 2008
97	ME	West Bank	Zeelim	Dead Sea highway	31° 20' N	35° 15' E	253	39.00		N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	G	M	Moshe et al. 2008
98	ME	West Bank	Neqarot		N.A.	N.A.	984	72.00		70	N.A.	N.A.	G	R	Laromme and Wilhelm, 2001
99	ME	West Bank	Hityyon		N.A.	N.A.	1118	43.00		40	N.A.	N.A.	G	R	Laromme and Wilhelm, 2001
100	ME	Israel	Nahal Eshtemoa		31.300000	34.966667	119	472.00		185	1992-1995	4	G	GS	Powell et al., 1996
101	ME	Israel	Nahal Yael		29.587910	34.942364	0.60	400.00		31	1967-1976	10	G	R	Schick and Lekach, 1993
102	ME	Israel	Nahal Yael		29.587910	34.942364	0.60	170.00		31	1981-1990	10	G	R	Schick and Lekach, 1993
103	ME	Israel	Nahal Yael		29.587910	34.942364	0.60	138.00		39	1967-2000	>33	G	R	Clapp et al., 2000
104	ME	Israel	Giv'at Hayil	Backhoe trench	30.994170	34.680835	0.17	1230.00		100	1986-1988	3	G	T	Schwartz and Greenbaum, 2008
105	ME	Israel	Be'er Sheva Leeman South		31.240000	34.840000	0.23	377.00		210	N.A.	N.A.	G	R	Laromme 1990
106	ME	Israel	Be'er Sheva Leeman North		31.240000	34.840000	2.90	259.00		220	N.A.	N.A.	G	R	Laromme 1990
107	ME	Israel	Boker		30.920000	34.780000	35	46.00		95	N.A.	N.A.	G	R	Shanan 2000

(Continues)

ID	Continent	Country	River/Catchment Name	Measuring location	Lat (°)	Lon (°)	A (km ²)	SSY (t/km ² /y)	SSY mark	Rainfall (mm)	MP	MP length (y)	Land Use	Type	References	
108	ME	Israel	Haroeh		30.900000	34.830000	43	70.00		95	N.A.	N.A.	G	R	Shanan 2000	
109	ME	Israel	Heimar		31.150000	35.240000	360	164.00		80	N.A.	N.A.	G	GS	Powell et al., 1996	
110	AF	Egypt	Nile	High Aswan	23.894400	32.866700	2960000	41.10			N.A.	N.A.	A	R	Shahin 1993	
111	AF	Sudan	Nile	Wadi Halla	21.792000	31.370900	2600000	38.00			N.A.	N.A.	A	GS	Dedkov and Mozzherin, 1984	
112	AF	Sudan	Blue Nile	Khartoum	15.571353	32.593300	324859	708.00			1964 - 1990	27	A	GS	Billi and el Badri Ali, 2010	
113	AF	Sudan	Atbara	Khashim el Girba	14.872100	35.896800	20000	3422.00			1964 - 1976	13	A	R	FAO, 2008	
114	AF	Sudan	Gash	Kassala	15.439782	36.391811	24642	365.20			N.A.	2	A	GS	Nyssen et al., 2004	
115	AF	Sudan	Atbara	outlet	17.667577	34.024200	68800	203.50			N.A.	N.A.	A	GS	Nyssen et al., 2004	
116	AF	Sudan	Blue Nile	Sennar	13.541714	33.638293	277286	339.00			1993 - 1996	4	A	GS	Billi and el Badri Ali, 2010	
117	AF	Niger	Sirba	Garbe Kourou	13.731594	1.604889	38704	24.80			2006/2007 - HY	2	G	GS	Amogu, 2009	
118	AF	Niger	Gorouol	Alcogui	14.748588	0.597706	44540	17.70			2007/2008 - HY	2	A	GS	Amogu, 2009	
119	AF	Niger	Niger	Farié-Haossa	13.783635	1.649525	650380	19.60			2007/2008 - HY	1	A	GS	Amogu, 2009	
120	AF	Niger	Niger	Latakabiey	13.758310	1.679255	689130	19.60			2007/2008 - HY	1	A	GS	Amogu, 2009	
121	AF	Niger	Gorouol	Dolbel	14.616700	0.283300	7500	22.10			1976/1977 - HY	7	A	GS	Amogu, 2009; Gallaire, 1986	
122	AF	Niger	Niger	Niamey	13.503032	2.107030	700000	12.60			1984/1985 - HY	4	A	GS	Amogu, 2009; Gallaire, 1986	
																1985/1986; HY
																2006/2007 - HY
																2007/2008

(Continues)

ID	Continent	Country	River/Catchment Name	Measuring location	Lat (°)	Lon (°)	A (km ²)	SSY (t/km ² /y)	SSY mark	Rainfall (mm)	MP	MP length (y)	Land Use	Type	References
123	AF	Niger	Niger	Kandaaji	14.614552	0.965856	628830	4.80			HY 1976/1977 - HY 1982/1983; HY 2007/2008	8	A	GS	Arnoagu, 2009; Gallaire, 1986
124	AF	Senegal	Senegal	Dagana	16.522000	-	270000	10.60			1981 - 1983	3	A	GS	Liénu et al., 2005
125	AF	Senegal	Senegal	near outlet	16.126200	-	270000	11.10			N.A.	N.A.	G	GS	Milliman and Fansworth, 2011
126	AF	Morocco	Draa	near outlet	28.698880	-	114000	122.80			N.A.	N.A.	G	GS	Milliman and Fansworth, 2011
127	AF	Morocco	Draa	Mansour Eddahbi	30.923100	-6.789500	15000	410			1972 - 1986	15	A	R	FAO, 2008
128	AF	Morocco	Massa	Youssef b Tachfine	29.802800	-9.466400	3784	378.00			1973 - 1986	14	G	R	FAO, 2008
129	AF	Ethiopia	Wabi Shebelle	Grode	5.925545	43.547301	127300	118.00			N.A.	N.A.	A	GS	Nyssen et al., 2004
130	AF	Algeria	Algeria	Djorf Torba	31.529500	-2.760900	22000	160.40			1969 - 1985	17	G	R	Lahlou, 1996; Bengueddach and Chaboumi, 1997
131	AF	Algeria	Algeria	Mehouneche	34.942900	5.997400	1050	401.00			1972 - 1979	8	A	GS	FAO, 2008
132	AF	Algeria	Algeria	El Izidhar	34.851900	5.738400	1140	117.00			1989 - 1998	10	G	GS	Terfous et al., 2003
133	AF	South Africa	South Africa	Oranje	-	22.756600	820000	85.00			N.A.	18	A	GS	Dedkov and Mozherin, 1984
134	AF	South Africa	South Africa	Van Wyksvlei	30.380749	21.810750	1339	26.00			1884 - 1979	95	A	R	Rooseboom et al., 1992
135	AF	South Africa	South Africa	Ongers	30.625800	23.295400	13114	4.00			1912 - 1980	68	A	R	Rooseboom et al., 1992
136	In-Ar	India	India	Nagaur District	24° 31' N -26' 00"	73° 05' N -75° 22' E	N.A.	2145.00	*	384	1977-1980	4	G	R	Sharma and Chatterji, 1982

Table legend

Column	Explanation
ID	Entry identifier
Continent	Continent in which the SSY observation was made. 'Am' indicates America. 'Au' indicates Australia. 'ME' indicates Middle East. 'Af' indicates Africa. 'In-Ar' indicates Indo-Arabia.
Country	Country in which the SSY observation was made
River/Catchment Name	Name of the river/catchment (if available)
Measuring location	Description of the measuring location
Lat (°)	Estimated latitude of the measuring location
Lon (°)	Estimated longitude of the measuring location
A (km ²)	Catchment area (km ²)
SSY (t/km ² /y)	Area-specific catchment sediment yield. For the majority of the observations, this value corresponds with the SSY-value reported in the indicated data source.
SSY Mark	In some cases, the sediment volume-value was reported instead SSY-value. We calculated SSY-value based on the assumption of bulk density as 1.5 t/km ³ in that cases.
Rainfall (mm)	Mean annual precipitation (mm)
MP	Description of the measuring period. 'HY' stands for 'Hydrological Year' (the start and end date of such a year depends on the study considered). 'N.A.' means not available.
MP length (y)	Duration of the measuring period in year. 'N.A.' means not available.
Land Use	Dominant land use during the period of SSY measurement. 'GT' indicates grazing from this study 'G' indicates grazing from literature. 'U' indicates undisturbed land. 'O' indicates off-road vehicle use. 'I' indicates infrastructure (pipeline/road) construction. 'B' indicates building. 'F1' indicates immediately after wildfire. 'F2' indicates more than 3 years after fire. 'A' indicates agricultural use.
Type	Method used to obtain the SSY value. 'R' indicates that the SSY value was obtained from bathymetric surveys in reservoirs. 'GS' indicates that the value was obtained from measurements at a gauging station. 'E' indicates that the value was obtained from erosion plot. 'M' indicates that the value was obtained from model-derived sediment flux. 'T' indicates that the value was obtained from sediment trap.
Reference	Original references for the indicated entry. Full references are available online at: https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/ldr.3207

APPENDIX G
COMPARISON OF SSV DATA FOR WARM DESERT
(BWH KÖPPEN-GIGER) SITES

ID	Continent	Country	River/Catchment Name	Measuring location	Lat (°)	Lon (°)	A (mi ²)	A (km ²)	SSV (ac-ft/mi ² /yr)	SSV (m ³ /km ² /yr)	Rainfall (mm)	MP	MP length (yr)	Land Use	Type	References	
I. Representative of conditions to be expected in Maricopa county																	
1	Am	U.S.A.	Cave Creek Dam	AZ			121.00	313.39	0.24	114.30		N.A.	N.A.	G	R	USACE, 1974	
2	Am	U.S.A.	Spookhill FRS	AZ			16.40	42.48	0.15	71.44		N.A.	N.A.	?	R	USDA, Natural Resources Conservation Service file data	
3	Am	U.S.A.	Saddleback FRS	AZ			30.00	77.70	0.08	38.10		N.A.	N.A.	?	R	USDA, Natural Resources Conservation Service file data	
4	Am	U.S.A.	Davis Tank	AZ	5S	30E	0.21	0.54	0.96	457.20		1945-1950	6	G	R	Peterson, 1962	
5	Am	U.S.A.	Kennedy Tank	AZ	8S	30E	0.97	2.51	0.27	128.59		1945-1950	6	G	R	Peterson, 1962	
6	Am	U.S.A.	Juniper Tank	AZ	1S	22E	2.00	5.18	0.29	138.11		1945-1950	6	G	R	Peterson, 1962	
7	Am	U.S.A.	Alhambra Tank	AZ	17S	8E	6.61	17.12	0.03	14.29		1942-1950	9	G	R	Peterson, 1962	
8	Am	U.S.A.	Black Hills Tank	AZ	5N	5E	1.14	2.95	0.68	323.85		1945-1949	5	G	R	Peterson, 1962	
9	Am	U.S.A.	Black Hills Tank	AZ	5N	5E	1.56	4.04	0.58	276.22		N.A.	N.A.	G	R	Peterson, 1962	
10	Am	U.S.A.	Mesquite Tank	AZ	3N	10W	9.00	23.31	0.03	14.29		N.A.	N.A.	G	R	Langbein et al., 1951	
11	Am	U.S.A.	Tank 76	AZ	16S	6E	1.17	3.03	0.21	100.01		1947-1948	1	G	R	Peterson, 1962	
12	Am	U.S.A.	Camp Marston	CA			1.59	4.12	0.14	66.67		N.A.	N.A.	G	R	Peterson, 1962	
13	Am	U.S.A.	Embudo Arroyo	NM			20.68	53.56	0.07	33.34		1980-1992	13	?	R	USDA, Natural Resources Conservation Service file data	
14	Am	U.S.A.	La Cueva	NM			8.00	20.72	0.05	23.81		1980-1992	13	?	R	Mussetter et al., 1994	
15	Am	U.S.A.	Baca Arroyo	NM			11.55	29.91	0.34	161.92		1980-1992	13	?	R	Mussetter et al., 1994	
16	Am	U.S.A.	North Pino Arroyo	NM			2.82	7.30	0.22	104.77		1980-1992	13	?	R	Mussetter et al., 1994	
17	Am	U.S.A.	South Pino Arroyo	NM			9.33	24.16	0.13	61.91		1980-1992	13	?	R	Mussetter et al., 1994	
18	Am	U.S.A.	Bear Arroyo	NM			15.50	40.14	0.12	57.15		1980-1992	13	?	R	Mussetter et al., 1994	
19	Am	U.S.A.	Vinyard Arroyo	NM			0.98	2.54	0.28	133.55		1980-1992	13	?	R	Mussetter et al., 1994	
20	Am	U.S.A.	Hahn Arroyo	NM			5.80	15.02	0.01	4.76		1980-1992	13	?	R	Mussetter et al., 1994	
21	Am	U.S.A.	N. Diversion Channel	NM			101.01	261.61	0.21	100.01		1980-1992	13	?	R	Mussetter et al., 1994	

(Continues)

ID	Continent	Country	River/Catchment Name	Measuring location	Lat (°)	Lon (°)	A (mi ²)	A (km ²)	SSV (ac-ft/mi ² /yr)	SSV (m ³ /km ² /yr)	Rainfall (mm)	MP	MP length (yr)	Land Use	Type	References	
2. Jeong and Dorn (2019)																	
22	Am	U.S.A.	Cigar		33.685117	-	1.00	2.60	0.14	66.54	218	1990-2004	15	U	R	Jeong and Dorn, 2019	
23	Am	U.S.A.	Cigar		33.685117	-	1.00	2.60	0.16	75.82	178	2005-2009	5	U	R	Jeong and Dorn, 2019	
24	Am	U.S.A.	Saguaro		33.800925	112.534267	0.54	1.40	0.07	34.98	200	1990-2004	15	G	R	Jeong and Dorn, 2019	
25	Am	U.S.A.	Saguaro		33.800925	112.204050	0.54	1.40	0.20	95.29	198	2005-2009	5	U	R	Jeong and Dorn, 2019	
26	Am	U.S.A.	Cline		33.853465	112.204050	0.58	1.50	0.07	33.68	326	1989-1995	7	U	R	Jeong and Dorn, 2019	
27	Am	U.S.A.	Cline		33.853465	112.149325	0.58	1.50	0.16	75.91	192	1996-2003	8	U	R	Jeong and Dorn, 2019	
28	Am	U.S.A.	Cline		33.853465	112.149325	0.58	1.50	0.22	102.74	282	2003-2004	2	U	R	Jeong and Dorn, 2019	
29	Am	U.S.A.	Anthem		33.862595	112.149325	0.34	0.88	0.18	84.19	305	1989-1992	4	G	R	Jeong and Dorn, 2019	
30	Am	U.S.A.	Anthem		33.862595	112.123726	0.34	0.88	0.43	203.64	269	1993-1997	5	F1	R	Jeong and Dorn, 2019	
31	Am	U.S.A.	Anthem 2		33.850572	112.123726	0.22	0.58	0.13	59.61	305	1989-1992	4	G	R	Jeong and Dorn, 2019	
32	Am	U.S.A.	Anthem 2		33.850572	112.101617	0.22	0.58	0.39	184.48	355	1993-1995	3	F1	R	Jeong and Dorn, 2019	
33	Am	U.S.A.	Anthem 2		33.850572	112.101617	0.22	0.58	0.42	197.76	190	1996-1998	3	F2	R	Jeong and Dorn, 2019	
34	Am	U.S.A.	Anthem 2		33.850572	112.101617	0.22	0.58	0.19	91.16	178	1999-2002	4	F2	R	Jeong and Dorn, 2019	
35	Am	U.S.A.	Anthem 2		33.850572	112.101617	0.22	0.58	0.36	172.76	63	2002	1	U	R	Jeong and Dorn, 2019	
36	Am	U.S.A.	Pepe		33.786100	-	0.38	0.99	0.07	34.00	206	1989-2008	20	G	R	Jeong and Dorn, 2019	
37	Am	U.S.A.	Bronco		33.774765	112.159939	0.17	0.45	0.08	37.86	231	1989-1998	10	G	R	Jeong and Dorn, 2019	
38	Am	U.S.A.	Bronco		33.774765	112.117174	0.17	0.45	0.25	117.43	158	1999-2003	5	U	R	Jeong and Dorn, 2019	
39	Am	U.S.A.	Circle		33.767891	112.117174	0.23	0.60	0.10	46.76	203	1990-2010	21	G	R	Jeong and Dorn, 2019	
40	Am	U.S.A.	Circle		33.767891	112.069517	0.23	0.60	0.17	82.72	168	2010-2013	4	U	R	Jeong and Dorn, 2019	
41	Am	U.S.A.	Charlie		33.773722	112.069517	0.35	0.91	0.35	164.52	213	1989-2004	16	U	R	Jeong and Dorn, 2019	
42	Am	U.S.A.	Rock		33.758838	111.949346	0.21	0.54	0.10	45.27	388	1989-1992	4	G	R	Jeong and Dorn, 2019	
43	Am	U.S.A.	Rock		33.758838	111.877228	0.21	0.54	0.36	169.70	374	1992-1997	6	F1	R	Jeong and Dorn, 2019	
44	Am	U.S.A.	Rock		33.758838	111.877228	0.21	0.54	0.22	102.94	254	1998-2003	6	F2	R	Jeong and Dorn, 2019	
45	Am	U.S.A.	Rock		33.758838	111.877228	0.21	0.54	0.12	56.56	304	2004-2009	6	F2	R	Jeong and Dorn, 2019	
46	Am	U.S.A.	Cave Creek		33.821477	111.877228	0.07	0.19	0.15	72.98	320	1989-1992	4	G	R	Jeong and Dorn, 2019	
47	Am	U.S.A.	Cave Creek		33.821477	111.860042	0.07	0.19	0.32	151.75	325	1992-1999	8	F1	R	Jeong and Dorn, 2019	
48	Am	U.S.A.	Cave Creek		33.821477	111.860042	0.07	0.19	0.19	91.75	228	2000-2003	4	U	R	Jeong and Dorn, 2019	
49	Am	U.S.A.	Buckhorn		33.771593	111.860042	1.70	4.40	0.16	76.06	362	1989-1999	11	U	R	Jeong and Dorn, 2019	

(Continues)

ID	Continent	Country	River/Catchment Name	Measuring location	Lat (°)	Lon (°)	A (mi ²)	A (km ²)	SSV (ac-ft/mi ² /yr)	SSV (m ³ /km ² /yr)	Rainfall (mm)	MP	MP length (yr)	Land Use	Type	References
3. Henze's MS work																
64	Am	U.S.A.	Casandro Wash		Nearest town	AZ	1.24	3.21	0.31	147.64	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	G	R	CH2M-Hill, 1994a
65	Am	U.S.A.	Rawhide Wash		Nearest town	AZ	13.64	35.33	0.39	185.74	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	G	R	CH2M-Hill, 1994b
66	Am	U.S.A.	Phoenix Mount Preserve (Tatum Wash)		Nearest town	AZ	1.92	4.97	1.90	904.87	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	G		JE Fuller Hydrology & Geomorphology, INC. (JEF), 1997
67	Am	U.S.A.	Shea Boulevard (Tatum Wash)		Nearest town	AZ	2.17	5.62	2.10	1000.12	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	G		JE Fuller Hydrology & Geomorphology, INC. (JEF), 1997
68	Am	U.S.A.	Western Tributary (Cherokee Wash)		Nearest town	AZ	0.14	0.36	2.16	1028.70	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	G		WEST Consulting, 1997
69	Am	U.S.A.	Desert Park Tributary (Cherokee Wash)		Nearest town	AZ	0.3	0.78	1.98	942.97	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	G		WEST Consulting, 1997
70	Am	U.S.A.	Desert Greenbelt Project		Nearest town	AZ	8.58	22.22	0.10	47.62	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	G		Hjalmarson, 1996
71	Am	U.S.A.	Cave Creek		Nearest town	AZ	121	313.39	0.31	147.64	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	G		Hjalmarson, 1996
72	Am	U.S.A.	Spookhill Dam		Nearest town	AZ	16.4	42.48	0.15	71.44	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	G		Hjalmarson, 1996
73	Am	U.S.A.	Shaddle back Dam		Nearest town	AZ	30	77.70	0.08	38.10	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	G		Hjalmarson, 1996
74	Am	U.S.A.	Black Hills tank		Nearest town	AZ	1.56	4.04	0.58	276.22	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	G	R	Langebein et al. 1951
75	Am	U.S.A.	Spook Hill Apache Junction FRS		Nearest town	AZ	5.8	15.02	0.07	33.34	217	N.A.	N.A.	G	R	Henze, 2000
76	Am	U.S.A.	Spook Hill Signal Butte FRS		Nearest town	AZ	10.64	27.56	0.11	52.39	217	N.A.	N.A.	G	R	Henze, 2000
77	Am	U.S.A.	Spook Hill Spook Hill FRS		Nearest town	AZ	13.68	35.43	0.14	66.67	217	N.A.	N.A.	G	R	Henze, 2000
78	Am	U.S.A.	Spook Hill Spook Hill Floodway		Nearest town	AZ	2.89	7.49	0.16	76.20	217	N.A.	N.A.	G	R	Henze, 2000

(Continues)

ID	Continent	Country	River/Catchment Name	Measuring location	Lat (°)	Lon (°)	A (mi ²)	A (km ²)	SSV (ac-ft/mi ² /yr)	SSV (m ³ /km ² /yr)	Rainfall (mm)	MP	MP length (yr)	Land Use	Type	References	
4. Gila River Basin (Below Hoover Dam)																	
79	Am	U.S.A.	Agua Fria River	Lake Pleasant	Nearest town	Phoenix, AZ	1444.00	3739.94	0.43	205.74		1941-1954	13	G	R	Dendy et al. 1978	
80	Am	U.S.A.	Tributary of Gila River	Halfmoon	Nearest town	Florence, AZ	0.20	0.52	3.75	1785.93		1960-1979	19	G	R	Dendy et al. 1978	
81	Am	U.S.A.	Tributary of Gila River	Homestead	Nearest town	Florence, AZ	0.90	2.33	0.87	412.75		1960-1966	6	G	R	Dendy et al. 1978	
82	Am	U.S.A.	Footcreek Wash	Lower Footcreek Wash	Nearest town	Safford, AZ	0.63	1.63	0.21	98.27		1958-1980	22	G	R	Dendy et al. 1978	
83	Am	U.S.A.	Magma Wash	Magma Wash No.1	Nearest town	Florence, AZ	1.78	4.61	0.08	40.13		1959-1970	11	G	R	Dendy et al. 1978	
84	Am	U.S.A.	Magma Wash	Magma Wash No.2	Nearest town	Florence, AZ	0.38	0.98	0.39	187.99		1959-1965	5	G	R	Dendy et al. 1978	
85	Am	U.S.A.	Magma Wash	Magma Wash No.3	Nearest town	Florence, AZ	7.00	18.13	0.00	2.04		1959-1969	10	G	R	Dendy et al. 1978	
86	Am	U.S.A.	Tributary of Gila River	Whitlow Old Tank	Nearest town	Florence, AZ	0.74	1.92	0.31	148.02		1960-1970	10	G	R	Dendy et al. 1978	
87	Am	U.S.A.	Tributary of Queen Creek	Williams-Chandler Pt. #1	Nearest town	Florence, AZ	1.09	2.82	0.03	14.42		1961-1991	30	G	R	Dendy et al. 1978	
88	Am	U.S.A.	Tributary of Queen Creek	Williams-Chandler Pt. #2	Nearest town	Florence, AZ	0.65	1.68	0.20	95.25		1961-1978	17	G	R	Dendy et al. 1978	
89	Am	U.S.A.	Tributary of Queen Creek	Williams-Chandler Pt. #2	Nearest town	Florence, AZ	0.65	1.68	0.09	43.96		1974-1987	13	G	R	Dendy et al. 1978	
90	Am	U.S.A.	Tributary of Centennial Wash	Big Horn Mt. Tank #1	Nearest town	Tonopah, AZ	0.51	1.32	0.22	102.72		1964-1969	4	G	R	Dendy et al. 1978	
91	Am	U.S.A.	Tributary of Centennial Wash	Big Horn Mt. Tank #2	Nearest town	Tonopah, AZ	0.44	1.14	0.25	119.06		1964-1969	4	G	R	Dendy et al. 1978	
92	Am	U.S.A.	Tributary of Centennial Wash	Centennial Wash Tank	Nearest town	Tonopah, AZ	0.60	1.55	0.15	71.44		1965-1976	11	G	R	Dendy et al. 1978	
93	Am	U.S.A.	Tributary of Centennial Wash	New Tank	Nearest town	Tonopah, AZ	1.88	4.87	0.05	23.81		1965-1985	20	G	R	Dendy et al. 1978	
94	Am	U.S.A.	Tributary of Centennial Wash	West Tank	Nearest town	Salome, AZ	0.29	0.75	0.45	213.49		1964-1969	4	G	R	Dendy et al. 1978	
95	Am	U.S.A.	Tiger Wash	Upper Twin Tank	Nearest town	Agua, AZ	1.83	4.74	0.01	3.90		1964-1984	20	G	R	Dendy et al. 1978	
96	Am	U.S.A.	Tributary of Browns Canyon wash	Harquahala Mt. Tank #1	Nearest town	Agua, AZ	0.11	0.28	1.64	779.32		1964-1971	6	G	R	Dendy et al. 1978	
97	Am	U.S.A.	Judith Wash	Judith Wash Retarding Dam	Nearest town	Solomone, AZ	4.57	11.84	0.03	14.59		1964-1971	7	G	R	Dendy et al. 1978	

(Continues)

ID	Continent	Country	River/Catchment Name	Measuring location	Lat (°)	Lon (°)	A (m ²)	A (km ²)	SSV (ac-ft/mi ² /yr)	SSV (m ³ /km ² /yr)	Rainfall (mm)	MP	MP length (yr)	Land Use	Type	References	
6. Other BWh catchments																	
103	Am	Chile	Rio Lluta		-	-69.900000	984.56	2550	0.01	4.41	20	1988-2002	15	G	GS	Kober et al. 2007	
104	Am	Chile	Rio Lluta		13.600000	-69.900000	965.26	2500	0.02	9.29	250	1994/2001 El Nino	2	G	GS	Kober et al. 2007	
105	Au	Australia	Murray-Darling Basin		20.911554	116.309280	0.00	0.01	0.22	104.00	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	G	E	Wasson 1994	
106	Au	Australia	Murray-Darling Basin		20.911554	116.309280	412.36	1068	0.12	59.33	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	G	R	Wasson 1994	
107	Au	Australia	Murray-Darling Basin		N.A.	N.A.	409.27	1060	0.02	10.60	N.A.	Pre-European settlement	N.A.	P	N.A.	Wasson et al. 1996	
108	Au	Australia	Murray-Darling Basin		N.A.	N.A.	409.27	1060	0.04	18.67	N.A.	Post-European settlement	N.A.	G	N.A.	Wasson et al. 1996	
109	ME	West Bank	Qumeran	Dead Sea highway	31° 42' N	35° 25' E	18.15	47	0.09	41.33	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	G	M	Moshe et al. 2008	
110	ME	West Bank	Qidron	Dead Sea highway	31° 41' N	35° 20' E	47.49	123	0.05	23.33	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	G	M	Moshe et al. 2008	
111	ME	West Bank	Darga	Dead Sea highway	31° 37' N	35° 18' E	91.51	237	0.13	60.00	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	G	M	Moshe et al. 2008	
112	ME	West Bank	Qetlem	Dead Sea highway	31° 31' N	35° 24' E	4.63	12	0.21	101.33	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	G	M	Moshe et al. 2008	
113	ME	West Bank	Ishai	Dead Sea highway	31° 29' N	35° 24' E	0.77	2	0.01	3.00	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	G	M	Moshe et al. 2008	
114	ME	West Bank	Hever	Dead Sea highway	31° 26' N	35° 15' E	67.57	175	0.07	33.33	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	G	M	Moshe et al. 2008	
115	ME	West Bank	Zaelim	Dead Sea highway	31° 20' N	35° 15' E	97.68	253	0.05	26.00	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	G	M	Moshe et al. 2008	
116	ME	West Bank	Neqarot		N.A.	N.A.	379.92	984	0.10	48.00	70	N.A.	N.A.	G	R	Laronne and Wilhelm, 2001	
117	ME	West Bank	Hivyon		N.A.	N.A.	431.66	1118	0.06	28.67	40	N.A.	N.A.	G	R	Laronne and Wilhelm, 2001	
118	ME	Israel	Nahal Eshtemoa		31.300000	34.966667	45.95	119	0.66	314.67	185	1992-1995	4	G	GS	Powell et al., 1996	
119	ME	Israel	Nahal Yael		29.587910	34.942364	0.23	0.60	0.56	266.67	31	1967-1976	10	G	R	Schick and Lekach, 1993	
120	ME	Israel	Nahal Yael		29.587910	34.942364	0.23	0.60	0.24	113.33	31	1981-1990	10	G	R	Schick and Lekach, 1993	
121	ME	Israel	Nahal Yael		29.587910	34.942364	0.23	0.60	0.19	92.00	39	1967-2000	>33	G	R	Clapp et al., 2000	
122	ME	Israel	Giv'at Hayil	Backhoe trench	30.994170	34.680835	0.07	0.17	1.72	820.00	100	1986-1988	3	G	T	Schwartz and Greenbaum, 2008	
123	ME	Israel	Be'er Sheva Leeman South		31.240000	34.840000	0.09	0.23	0.53	251.33	210	N.A.	N.A.	U	R	Laronne 1990	
124	ME	Israel	Be'er Sheva Leeman North		31.240000	34.840000	1.12	2.90	0.36	172.67	220	N.A.	N.A.	U	R	Laronne 1990	
125	ME	Israel	Boker		30.920000	34.780000	13.51	35	0.06	30.67	95	N.A.	N.A.	G	R	Shanan 2000	
126	ME	Israel	Hareeh		30.900000	34.830000	16.60	43	0.10	46.67	95	N.A.	N.A.	G	R	Shanan 2000	
127	ME	Israel	Heimar		31.150000	35.240000	139.00	360	0.23	109.33	80	N.A.	N.A.	G	GS	Powell et al., 1996	

(Continues)

ID	Continent	Country	River/Catchment Name	Measuring location	Lat (°)	Lon (°)	A (m ²)	A (km ²)	SSV (ac-ft/m ² /yr)	SSV (m ³ /km ² /yr)	Rainfall (mm)	MP	MP length (yr)	Land Use	Type	References	
6. Other BWh catchments																	
134	Af	Sudan	Blue Nile	Sennar	13.541714	33.638293	107060.73	277286	0.47	226.00		1993-1996 HY	4	U	GS	Billi and el Badri Ali, 2010	
135	Af	Niger	Sirba	Garbe Kourou	13.731594	1.604889	14943.69	38704	0.03	16.53		2006/2007 -HY	2	G	GS	Amogu, 2009	
136	Af	Niger	Gorouol	Alcongou	14.748588	0.597706	17196.98	44540	0.02	11.80		2007/2008 HY	2	A	GS	Amogu, 2009	
137	Af	Niger	Niger	Farié-Haoussa	13.783635	1.649525	251113.02	650380	0.03	13.07		2007/2008 HY	1	A	GS	Amogu, 2009	
138	Af	Niger	Niger	Latakabrey	13.758310	1.679255	266074.47	689130	0.03	13.07		2007/2008 HY	1	A	GS	Amogu, 2009	
139	Af	Niger	Gorouol	Dolbel	14.616700	0.283300	2895.77	7500	0.03	14.73		1976/1977 -HY 1982-1983	7	A	GS	Amogu, 2009; Gallaire, 1986	
140	Af	Niger	Niger	Niamey	13.503032	2.107030	270271.40	700000	0.02	8.40		1984/1985 -HY	4	U	GS	Amogu, 2009; Gallaire, 1986	
141	Af	Niger	Niger	Kandadji	14.614552	0.965856	242792.52	628830	0.01	3.20		1985/1986; HY	8	A	GS	Amogu, 2009; Gallaire, 1986	
142	Af	Senegal	Sénégal	Dagana	16.522000	-	104247.54	270000	0.01	7.07		1981-1983	3	A	GS	Lienou et al., 2005	
143	Af	Senegal	Sénégal	near outlet	16.126200	15.512900	104247.54	270000	0.02	7.40		N.A.	N.A.	G	GS	Milliman and Fansworth, 2011	
144	Af	Morocco	Draa	near outlet	28.698880	-	44015.63	114000	0.17	81.87		2006/2007 -HY	N.A.	G	GS	Milliman and Fansworth, 2011	
145	Af	Morocco	Draa	Mansour Eddabbi	30.923100	-6.789500	5791.53	15000	0.57	273.33		1972-1986	15	A	R	FAO, 2008	
146	Af	Morocco	Massa	Youssef'b Tachfine	29.802800	-9.466400	1461.01	3784	0.53	252.00		1973-1986	14	G	R	FAO, 2008	
147	Af	Ethiopia	Wabi Shebelle	Gode	5.925545	43.547301	49150.78	127300	0.17	78.67		N.A.	N.A.	U	GS	Nyssen et al., 2004	
148	Af	Algeria		Djort/Torba	31.529500	-2.760900	8494.24	22000	0.22	106.93		1969-1985	17	G	R	Lahlou, 1996; Bengueddach and Chabouni, 1997	
149	Af	Algeria	El Abiod	Mehouneche	34.942900	5.997400	405.41	1050	0.56	267.33		1972-1979	8	U	GS	FAO, 2008	
150	Af	Algeria	Isser	El Izdibar	34.851900	5.738400	440.16	1140	0.16	78.00		1989-1998	10	U	GS	Terfous et al., 2003	

Table legend

Column	Explanation
ID	Entry identifier
Continent	Continent in which the SSY observation was made. 'Am' indicates America. 'Au' indicates Australia. 'ME' indicates Middle East. 'Af' indicates Africa. 'In-Ar' indicates Indo-Arabia.
Country	Country in which the SSY observation was made
River/Catchment Name	Name of the river/catchment (if available)
Measuring location	Description of the measuring location
Lat (°)	Estimated latitude of the measuring location
Lon (°)	Estimated longitude of the measuring location
A (mile ²)	Catchment area (mile ²)
A (km ²)	Catchment area (km ²)
SSV (acre-foot/mile ² /yr)	Area-specific catchment sedimentation volume. For the majority of the observations, this value corresponds with the SSV-value reported in the indicated data source.
SSV (m ³ /km ² /yr)	Area-specific catchment sedimentation volume. For the majority of the observations, this value corresponds with the SSV-value reported in the indicated data source.
Rainfall (mm)	Mean annual precipitation (mm)
MP	Description of the measuring period. 'HY' stands for 'Hydrological Year' (the start and end date of such a year depends on the study). 'N.A.' means not available.
MP length (yr)	Duration of the measuring period in year. 'N.A.' means not available.
Land Use	Dominant land use during the period of SSY measurement. 'G' indicates grazing. 'P' indicates undisturbed land. 'O' indicates off-road vehicle use. 'U' indicates urban land use. 'F1' indicates immediately after wildfire. 'F2' indicates more than 3 years after fire. 'A' indicates agricultural use.
Type	Method used to obtain the SSY value. 'R' indicates that the SSY value was obtained from bathymetric surveys in reservoirs. 'GS' indicates that the value was obtained from measurements at a gauging station. 'E' indicates that the value was obtained from erosion plot. 'M' indicates that the value was obtained from model-derived sediment flux. 'T' indicates that the value was obtained from sediment trap.
References	Original references for the indicated entry. Full references are available online at: https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/ldr.3207

APPENDIX H

DIFFERENT APPROACHES TO REPORTING SEDIMENT YIELD

1. Different approaches to represent the amount of sediment that has been moved from its original sites

Agency	Reported term	Unit	Reference
Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations	annual sediment yield	$[M L^{-2} T^{-1}]$ ($t km^{-2} yr^{-1}$)	FAO (2008)
U.S. Department of the Interior, Bureau of Reclamation	Sediment yield	$[M T^{-1}]$, $[L^3 T^{-1}]$ ($tons^{-1} yr^{-1}$), ($m^3 yr^{-1}$)	U.S. Department of the Interior Bureau of Reclamation (2009)
U.S. Department of the Interior, Bureau of Reclamation	Sediment yield rate	$[M L^{-2} T^{-1}]$, $[L^3 L^{-2} T^{-1}]$ ($m^3 km^{-2} yr^{-1}$) (ac ft $mi^{-2} yr^{-1}$)	U. S. Department of the Interior Bureau of Reclamation (2009), Strand and Pemberton (1982)
U.S. Department of Agriculture Natural Resources Conservation Service (USDA-NRCS)	Sediment yield	$[M T^{-1}]$ ($tons yr^{-1}$)	USDA-NRCS (1983)
EUROPEAN SOIL DATA CENTRE (ESDAC)	Sediment yield	$[M T^{-1}]$ ($Pg yr^{-1}$)	Borrelli et al. (2018)
EUROPEAN SOIL DATA	Area-specific sediment yield	$[M L^{-2} T^{-1}]$,	Borrelli et al. (2018)

CENTRE (ESDAC)		(Mg ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹)	
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2. Soil erosion and sediment yield models

Model Name	Reported term	Unit	Reference
Universal Soil Loss Equation (USLE), Revised Universal Soil Loss Equation (RUSLE)	Average annual soil loss	[M L ⁻² T ⁻¹], (tons acre ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹)	Wischmeier and Smith (1965, 1978)
Soil and Water Assessment Tool (SWAT)	Sediment yield	[M L ⁻²], (t ha ⁻¹),	Arnold et al. (1998)
AGricultural Non-Point Source Pollution Model (AGNPS)	Eroded sediments Sediment yield for catchment	[M L ⁻²], (tons acre ⁻¹) [M], (tons)	Young et al. (1989)
Water Erosion Prediction Project (WEPP)	Average annual soil loss Average annual sediment yield	[M L ⁻² T ⁻¹], (ton acre ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹)	Laflen et al. (1991) USDA-ARS

3. CWDR scholarship compared CWDR-derived background rate (time scale: 10³-10⁵) to modern rate (time scale: 10⁰-10²)

Approach	Background rate	Modern rate	Unit	References
1. Convert modern-area specific sediment yield (SSY) to erosion rate using bedrock	Catchment-wide denudation rate (CWDR)	Erosion rate (Area-specific sediment yield / Bedrock density (2.6-2.7 g cm ⁻³))	[L T ⁻¹], (m Myr ⁻¹)	Schaller et al. (2001) Bierman et al. (2005)

density (2.6-2.7 g cm ⁻³)				
2. Convert CWDR to SSY using bedrock density (2.6-2.7 g cm ⁻³)	Area-specific sediment yield (CWDR * bedrock density (2.6-2.7 g cm ⁻³))	Area-specific sediment yield calculated using sediment density (1.x g cm ⁻³)	[M L ⁻² T ⁻¹], (Mg km ⁻² yr ⁻¹) (kg m ⁻² yr ⁻¹)	Hewawasam et al. (2003)* Clapp et al. (2001)** Gellis et al. (2004)*** This study

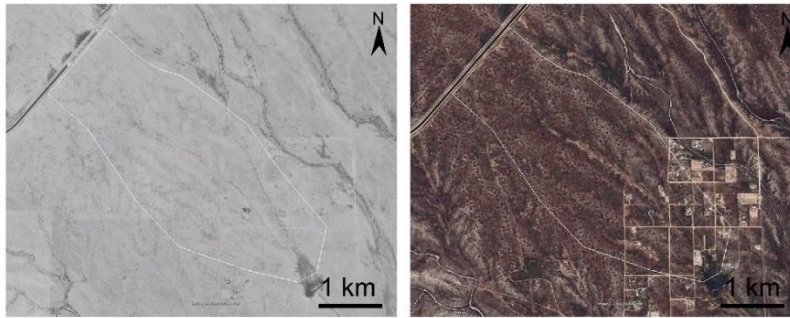
APPENDIX I
THE CHANGE OF LAND-USE, PRECIPITATION VARIABLES,
AND EROSION RATES OF 18 STOCK POND CATCHMENTS

The purpose of the appendix I is to show the change of land-use, precipitation variables, and erosion rates of 18 stock pond catchments during the monitoring period: **a**, ID01 Cigar. **b**, ID02 Saguaro. **c**, ID03 Cline. **d**, ID04 Anthem. **e**, ID05 Anthem 2. **f**, ID06 Pepe. **g**, ID07 Bronco. **h**, ID08 Circle. **i**, ID09 Charlie. **j**, ID10 Rock. **k**, ID11 Cave Creek. **l**, ID12 Buckhorn. **m**, ID13 The Rocks. **n**, ID14 128th St. **o**, ID15 128th St 2. **p**, ID16 AsherHills. **q**, ID17 Gold Cyn. **r**, ID18 Peralta.

Each figure shows individual examples of stock pond watersheds experiencing urban sprawl in metropolitan Phoenix. Each stock pond is named and is provided a number that corresponds with Table 5.3 and 5.4.

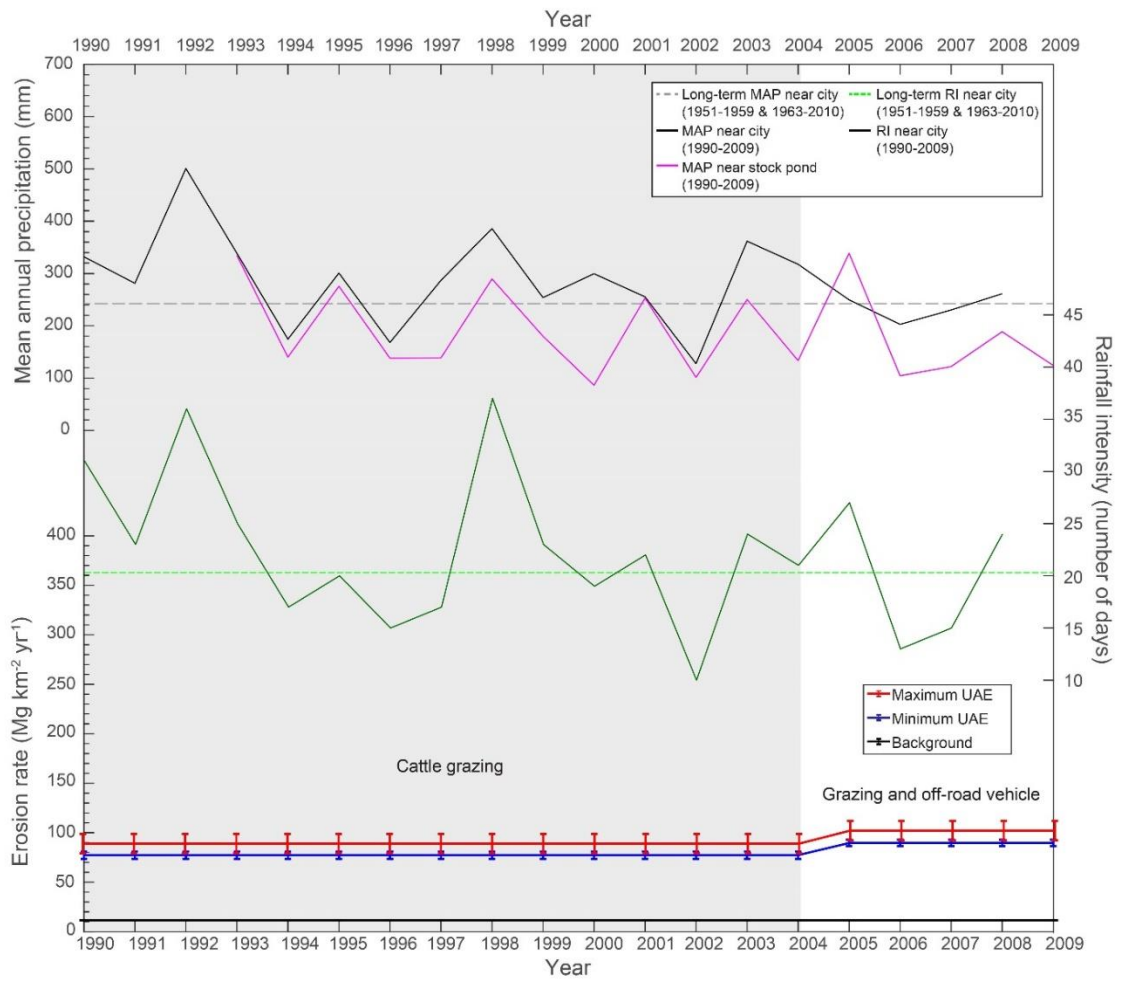
Each stock pond figure plots precipitation variables (mean annual precipitation and rainfall intensity) from the nearest rain gauge (Maricopa County Flood Control District, n.d) (http://alert.fcd.maricopa.gov/showrpts_mc.html) and land use/land cover variables on the graph to illustrate how the variables influence stock pond catchment erosion rate. The acceleration of erosion from urbanization in this Bwh climate was likely dampened due to the climatic conditions that occurred during the study period from 1989 to 2013. The first decade, dominated by grazing in the study sites, was wetter than the second decade more dominated by urbanization land-use land-cover change. Yet, despite less annual rainfall and less cumulative time of intense rainfall, sudden and aerially extensive exposure of bare ground from urbanization processes significantly increased soil erosion and sediment yield.

a ID01: Cigar (1990-2009)

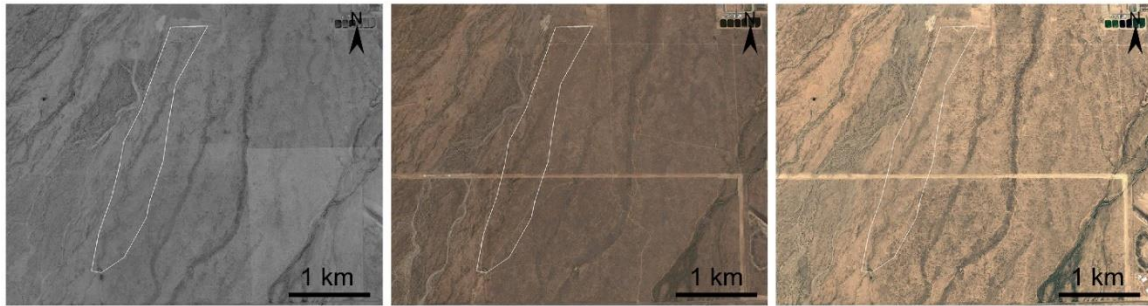


1997: Cattle grazing

2005: Grazing and off-road vehicle



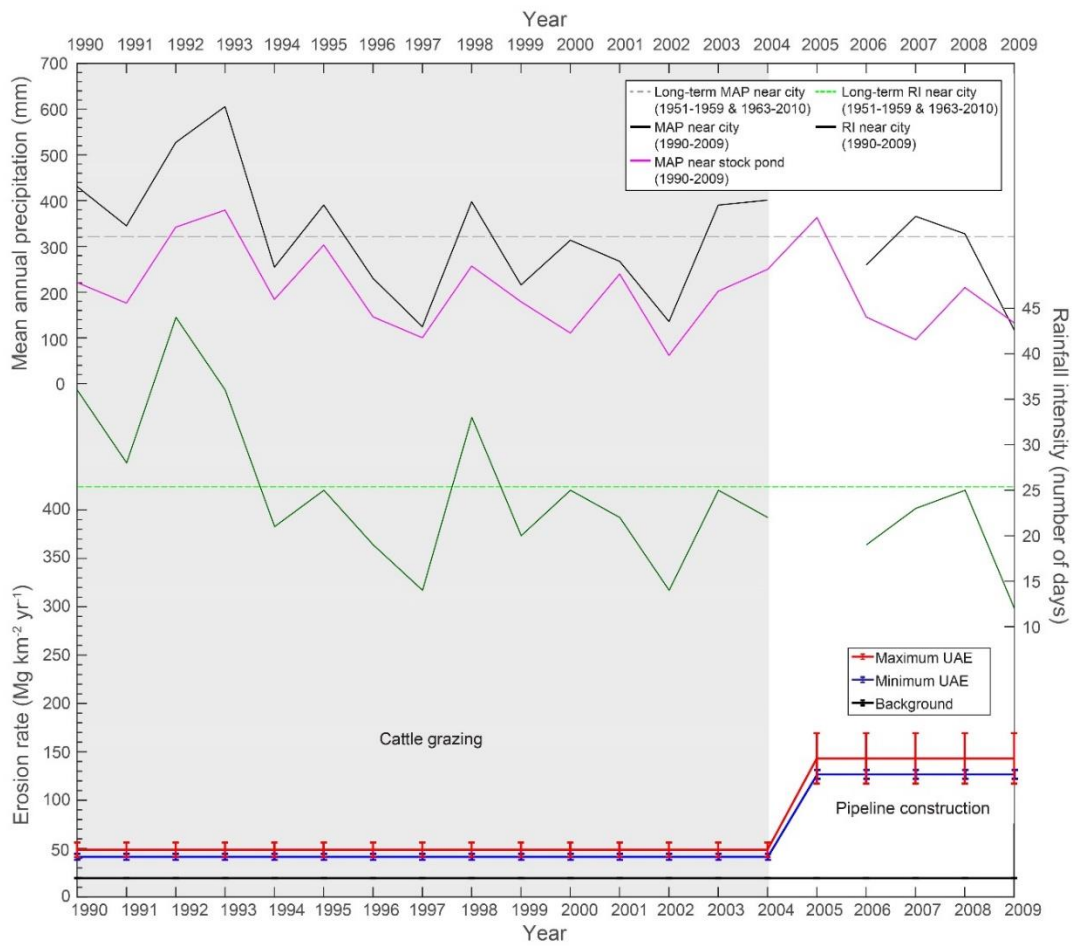
b ID02: Saguaro (1990-2009)



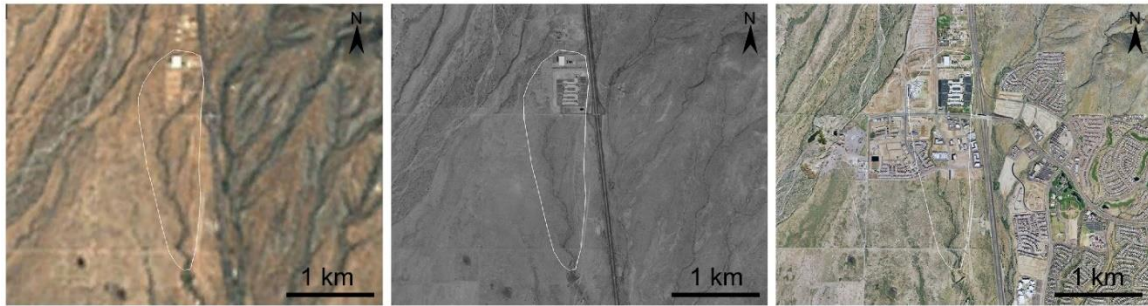
1997: Cattle grazing

2006: Pipeline construction

2007: Pipeline construction



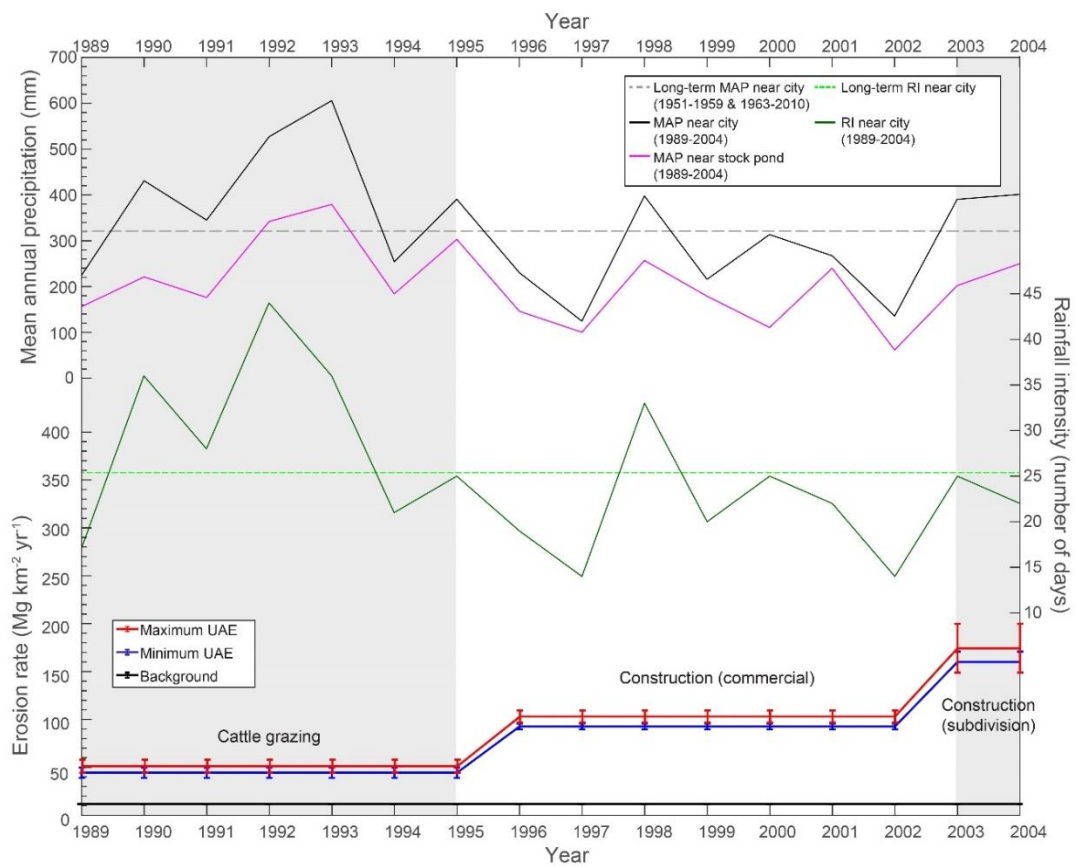
c ID03: Cline (1989-2004)



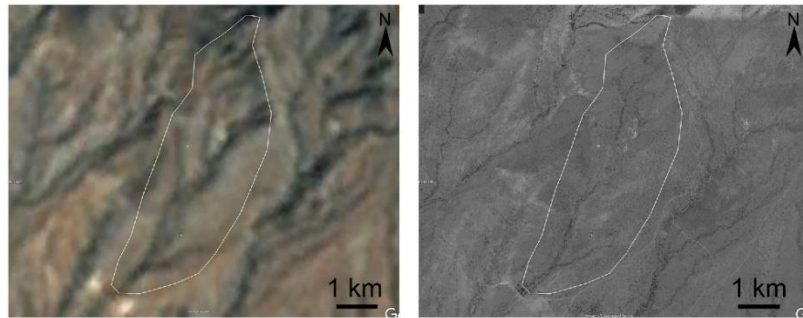
1991: Cattle grazing

1997: Construction (commercial)

2004: Construction (subdivision)

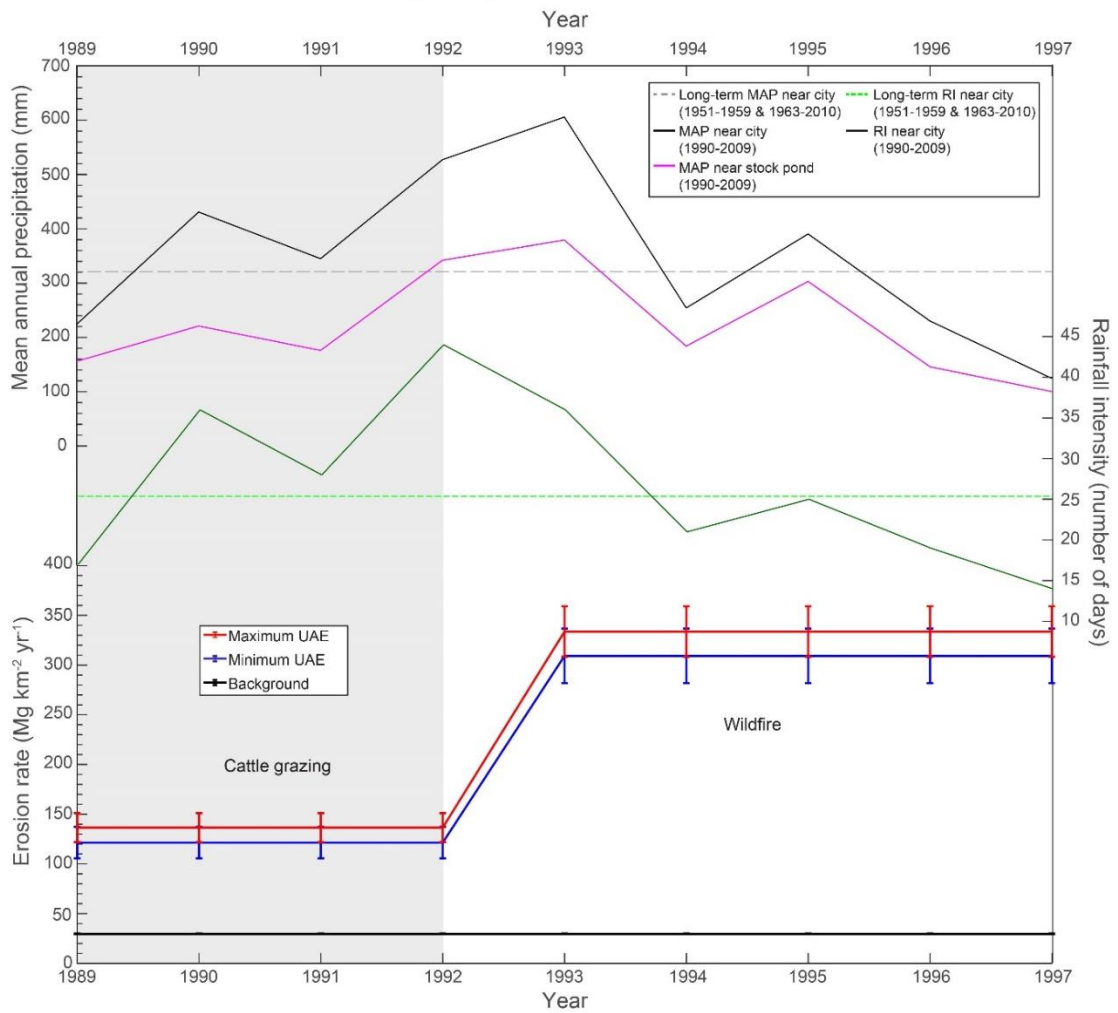


d ID04: Anthem (1989-1997)

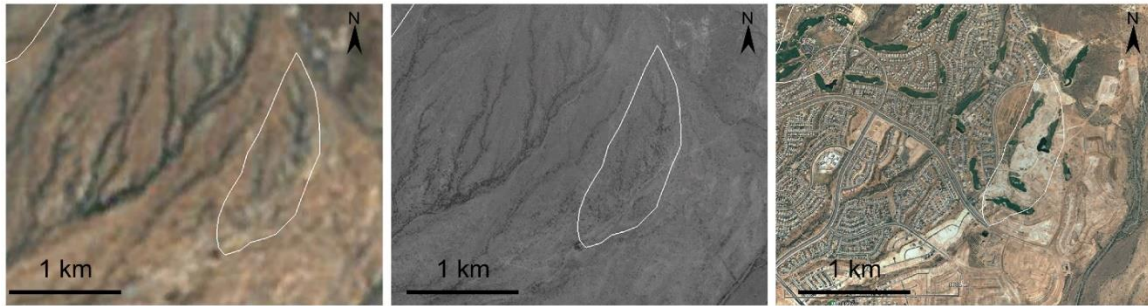


1992: Cattle grazing

1997: wildfire



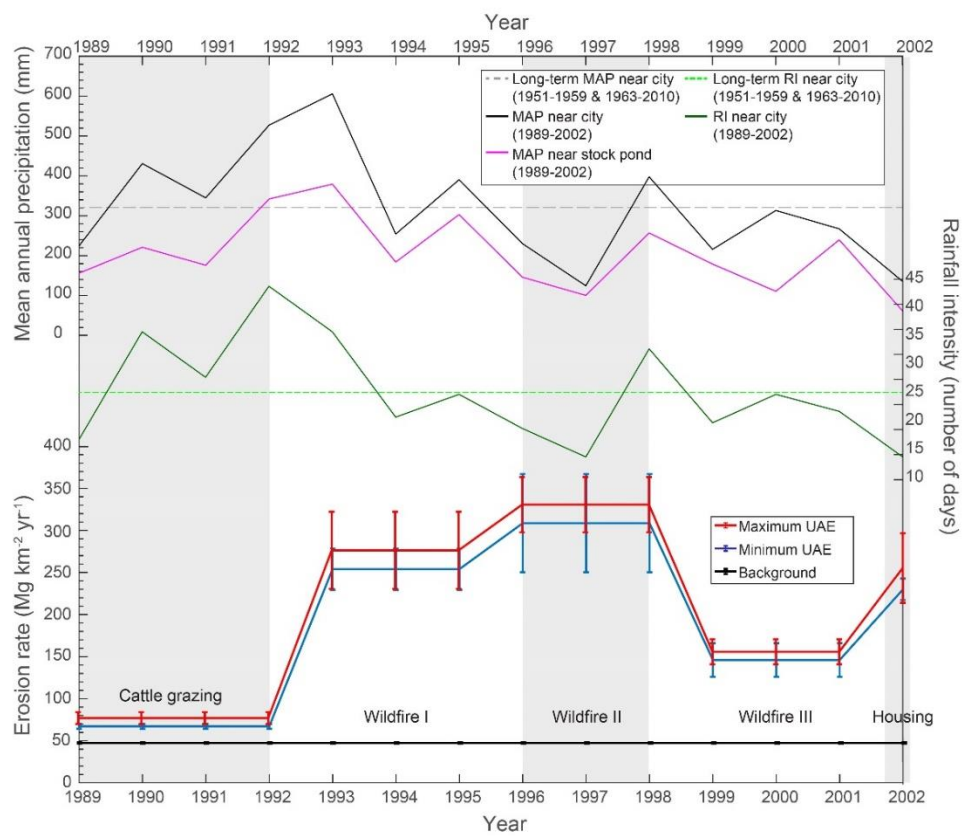
e ID05: Anthem 2 (1989-2002)



1991: Cattle grazing

1997: Wildfire II

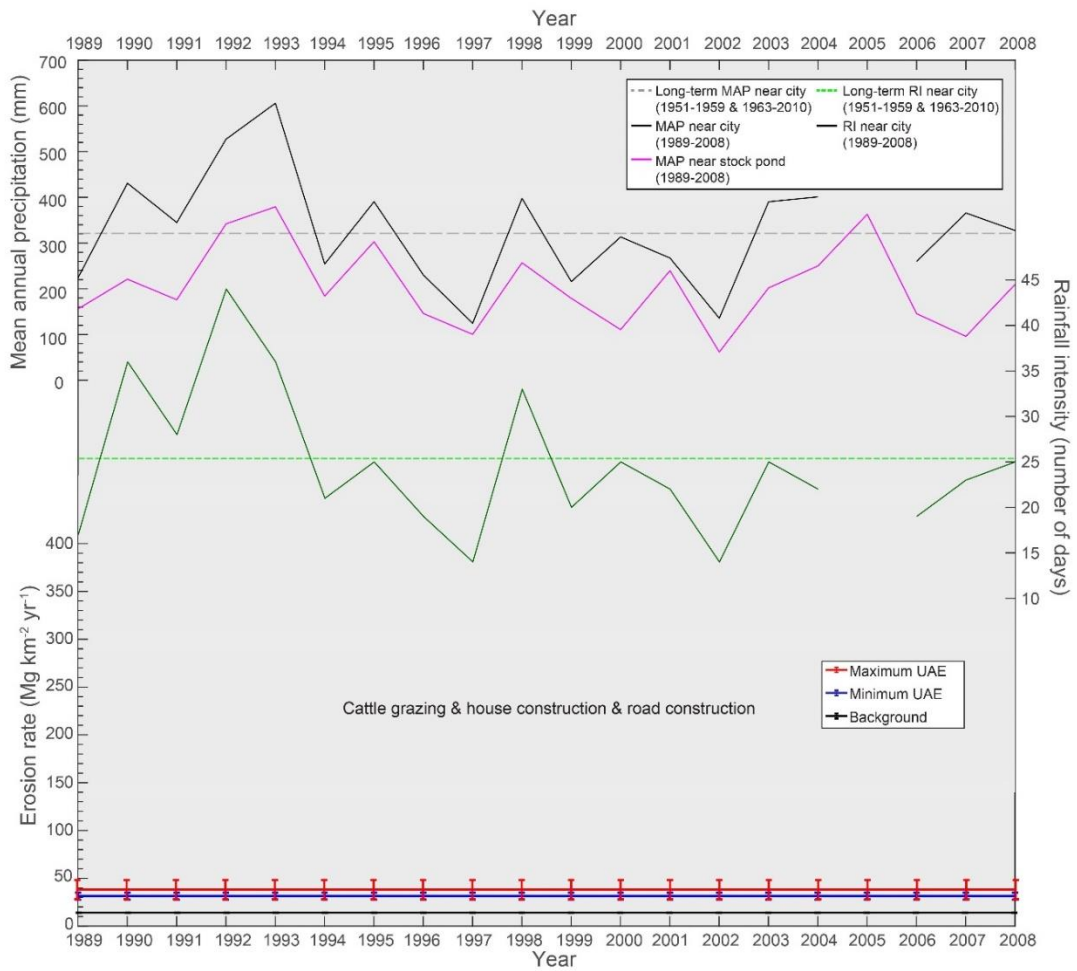
2003: Housing



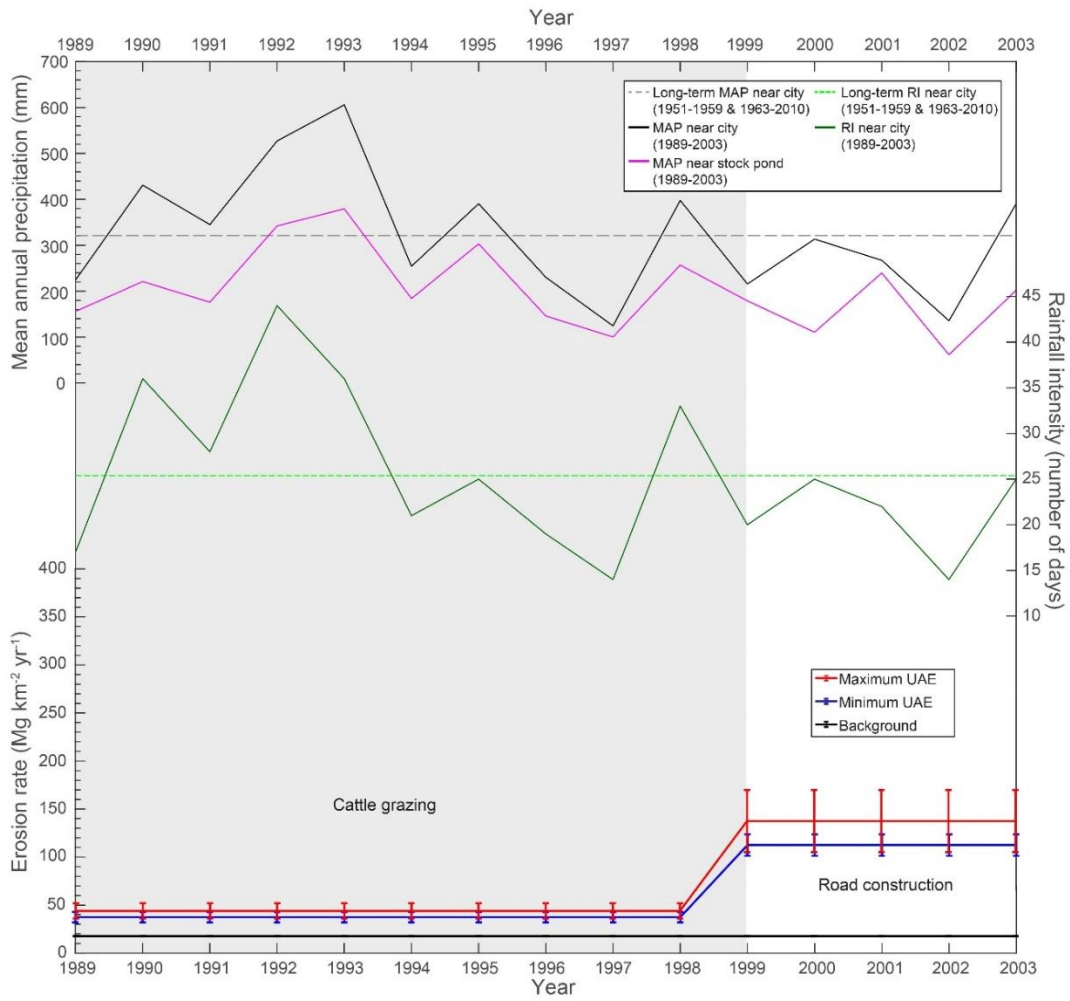
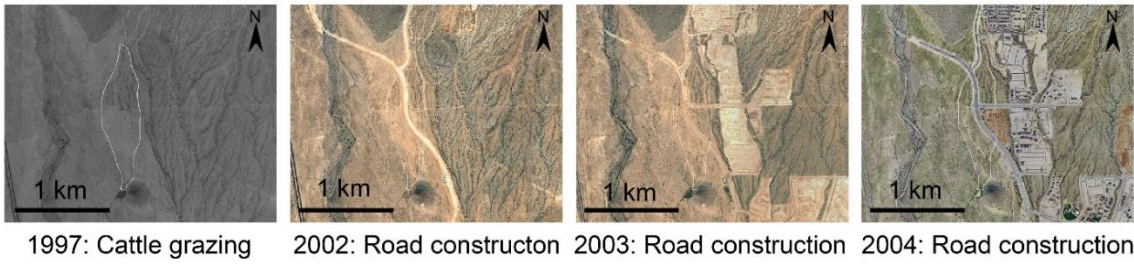
f ID06: Pepe (1989-2008)



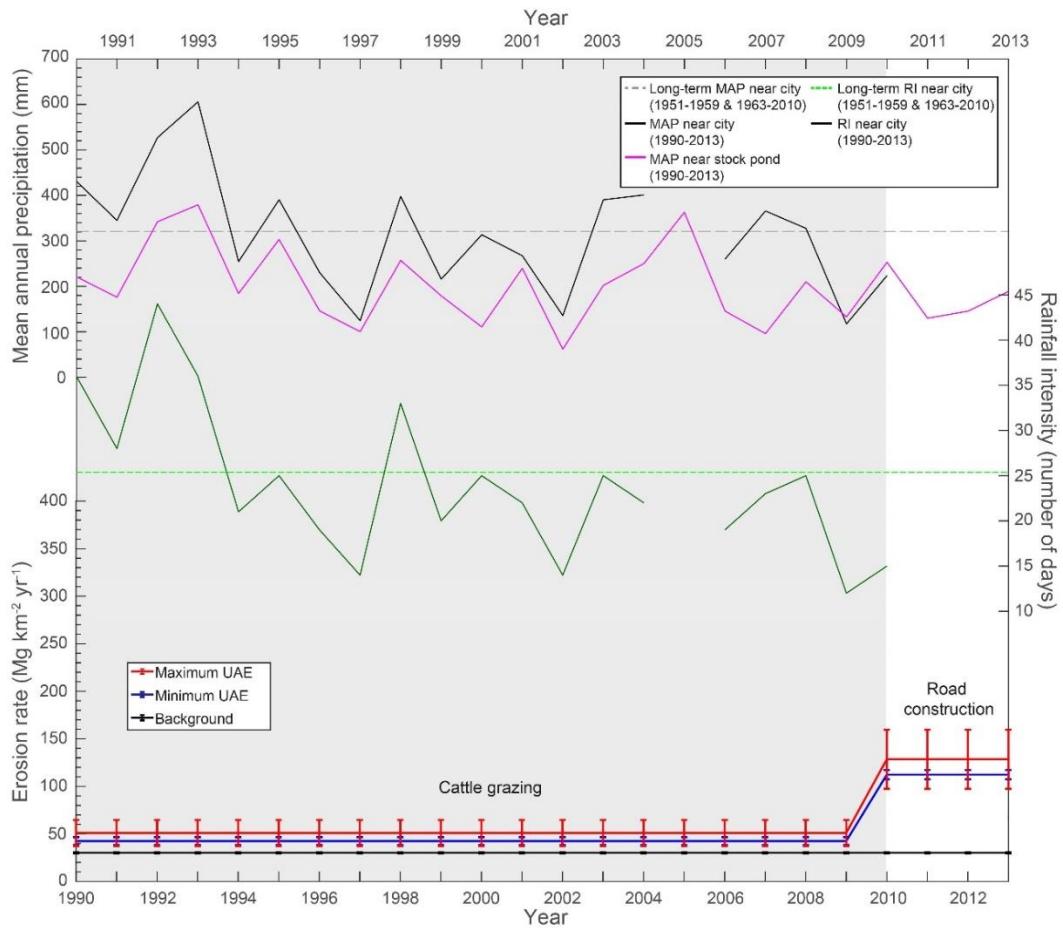
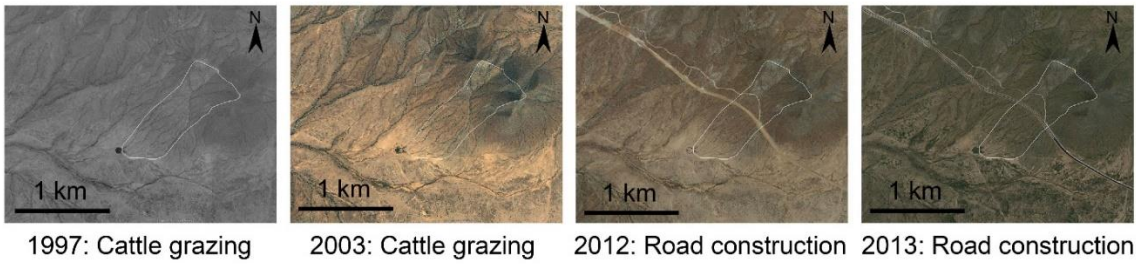
1989: Cattle grazing & house construction & road construction 2003: Cattle grazing & house construction & road construction 2007: Cattle grazing & house construction & road construction



g ID07: Bronco (1990-2003)



h ID08: Circle (1990-2013)



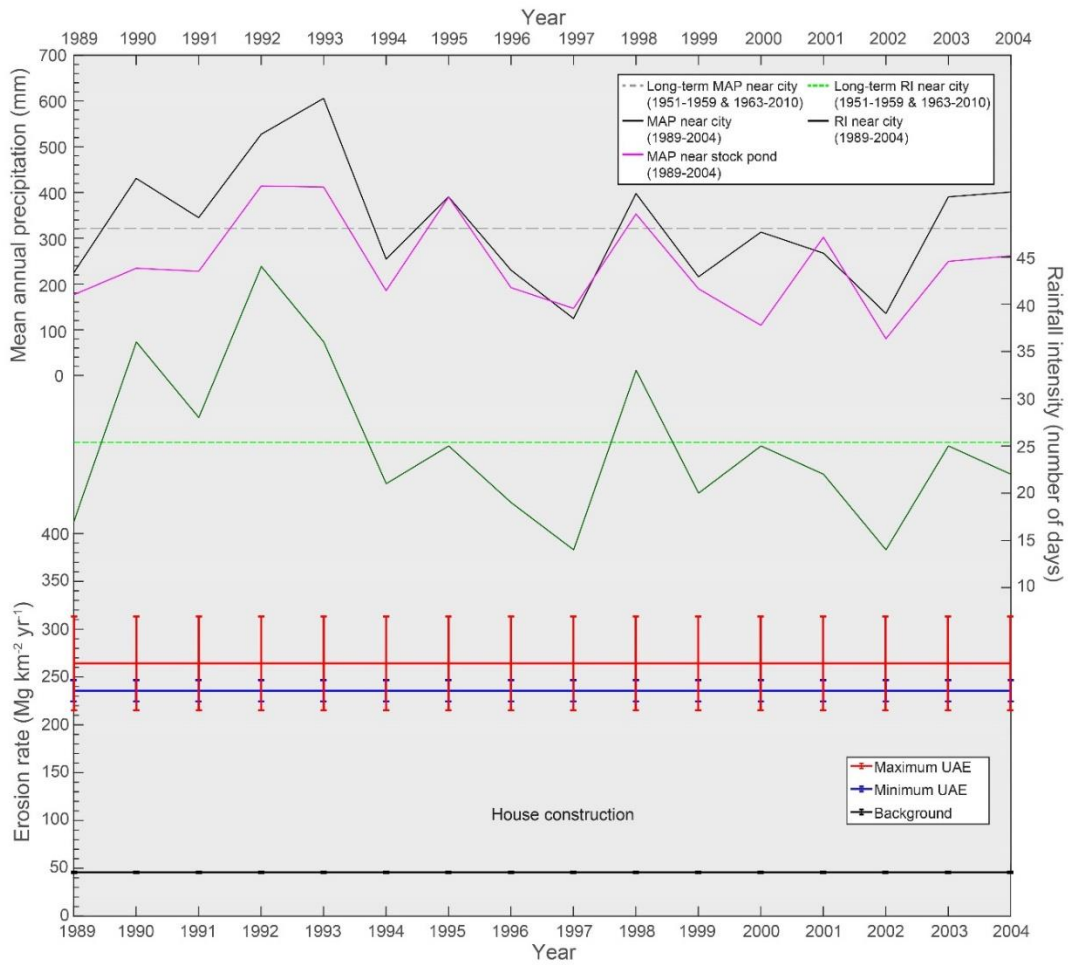
i ID09: Charlie (1989-2004)



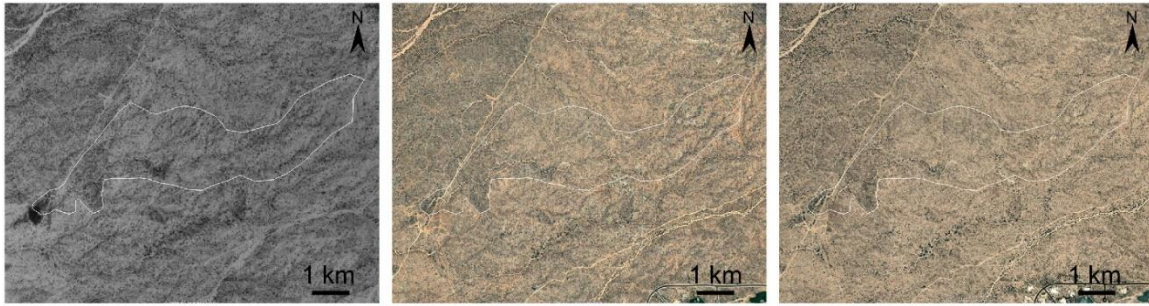
1992: House construction

2002: House construction

2004: House construction



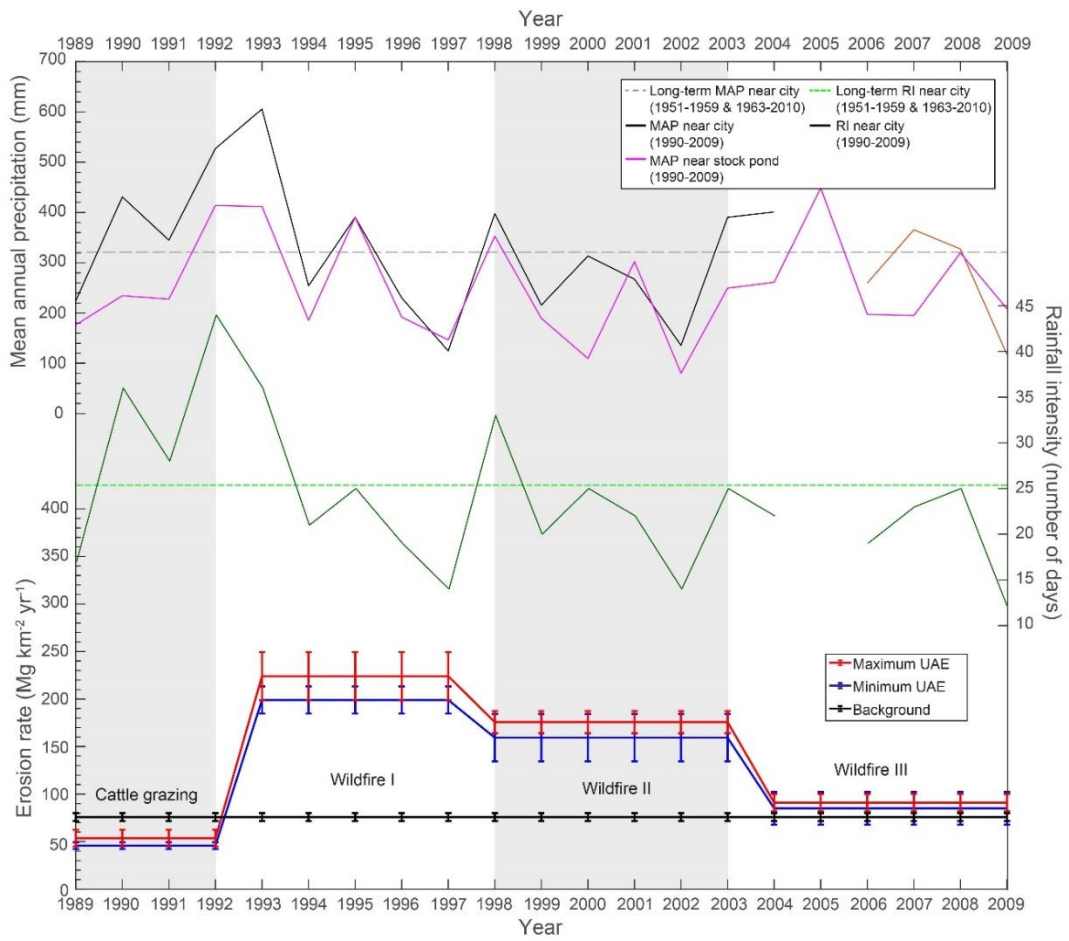
j ID10: Rock (1989-2009)



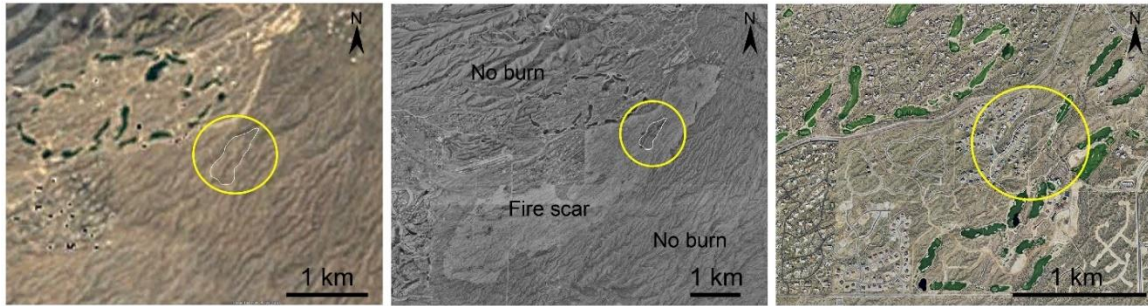
1992: Cattle grazing

2002: Wildfire II

2007: Wildfire III



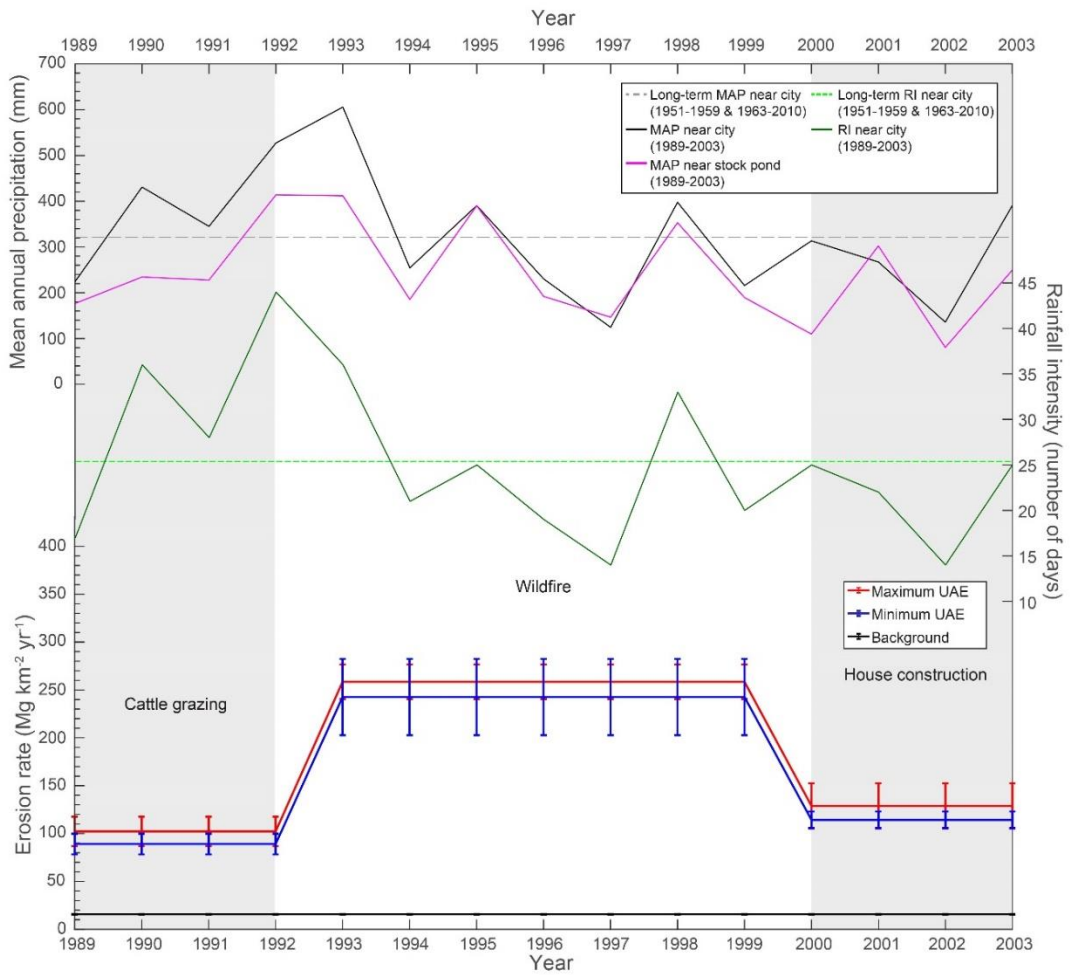
k ID11: Cave Creek (1989-2003)



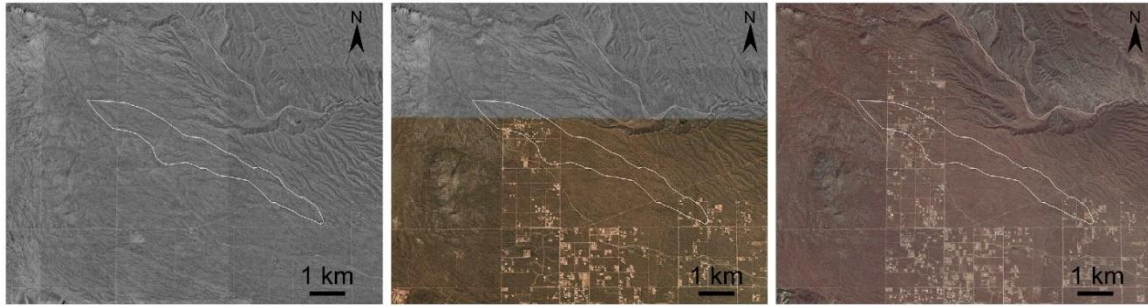
1990: Cattle grazing

1992: Wildfire

2004: House construction



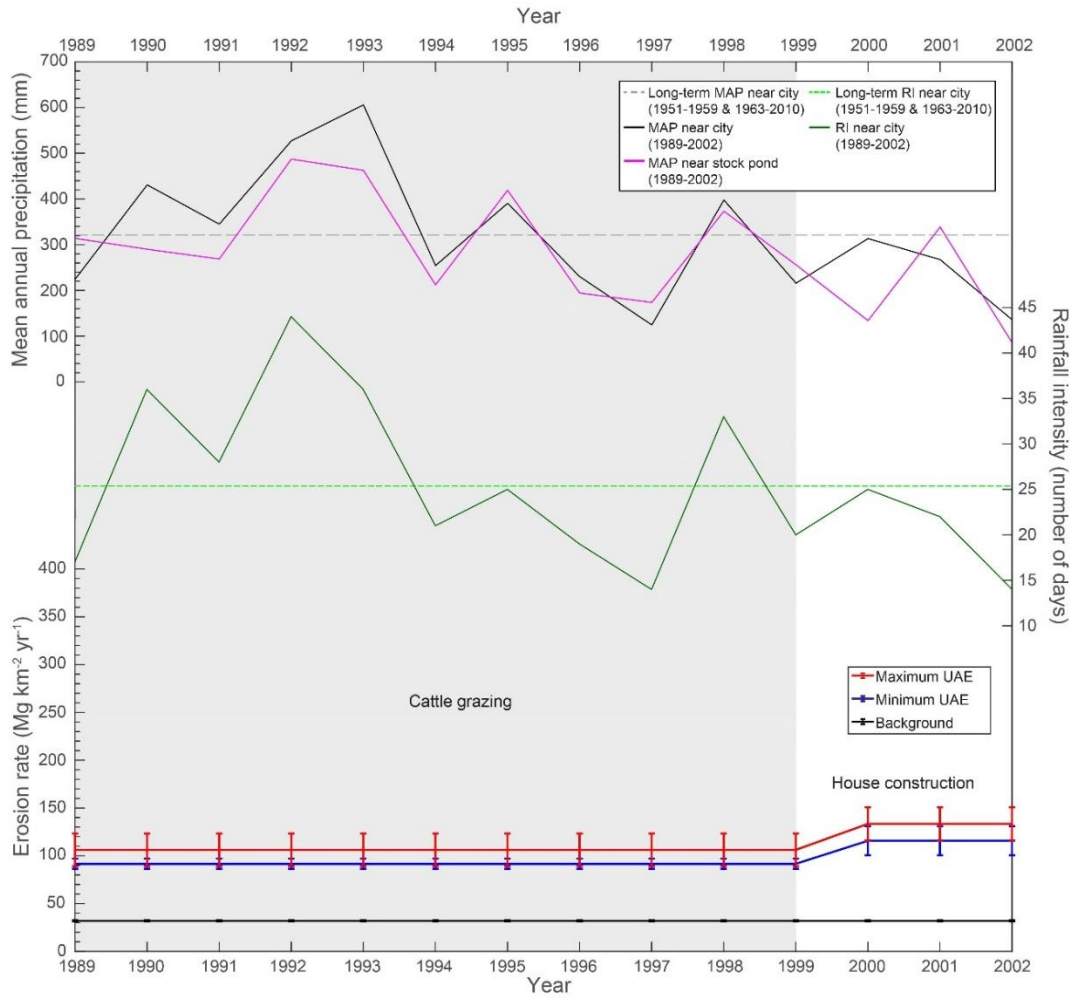
I ID12: Buckhorn (1989-2002)



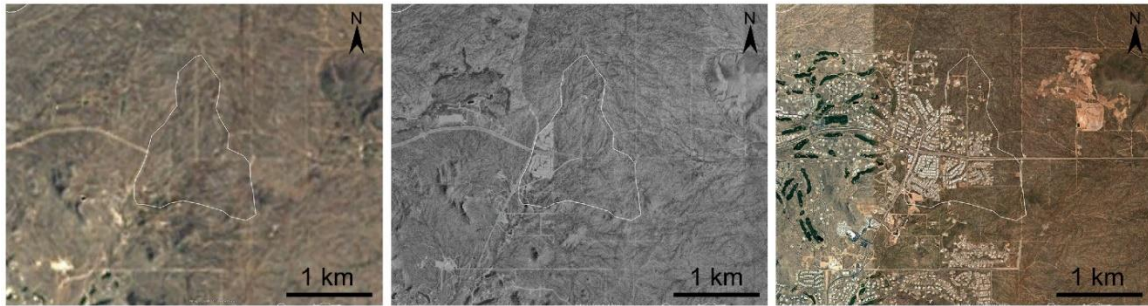
1992: Cattle grazing

2003: House construction

2005: House construction



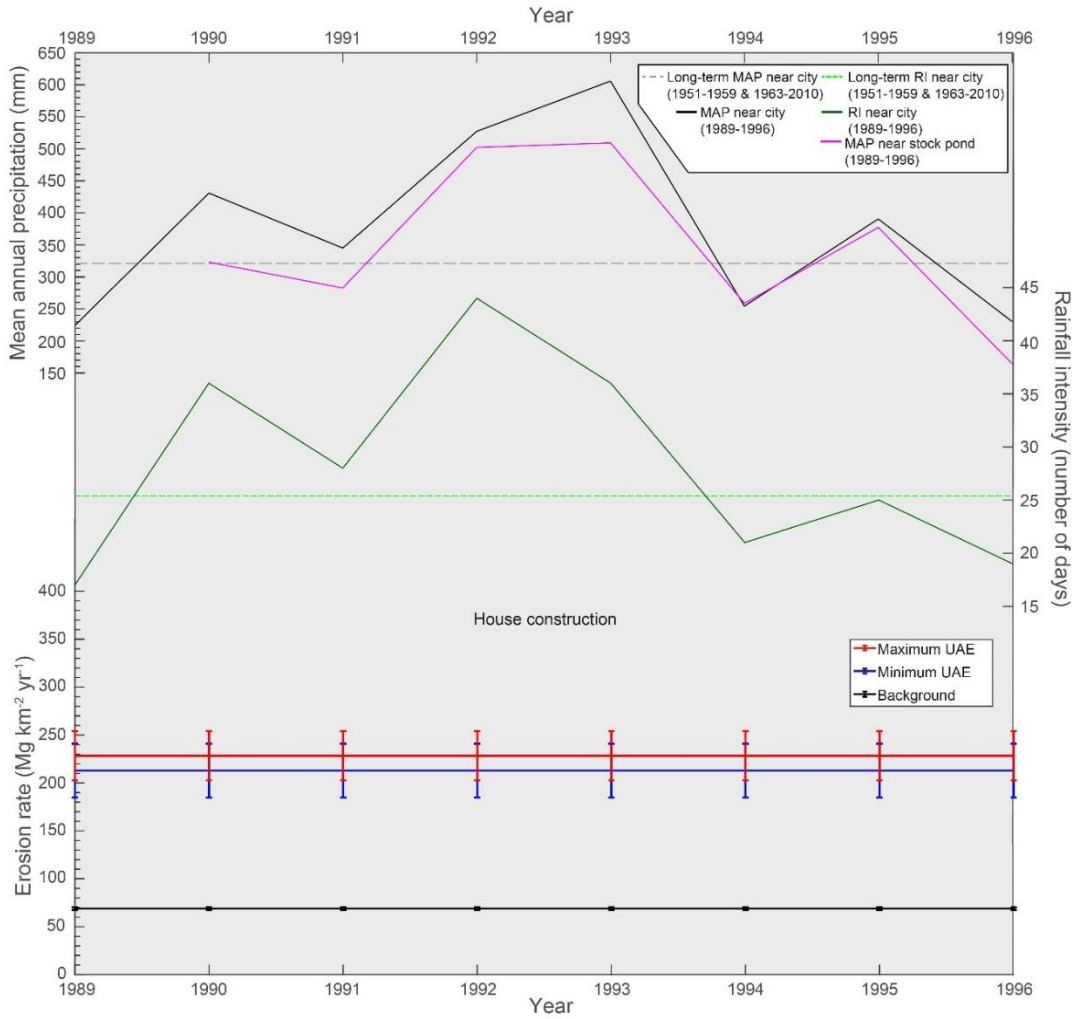
m ID13: The Rocks



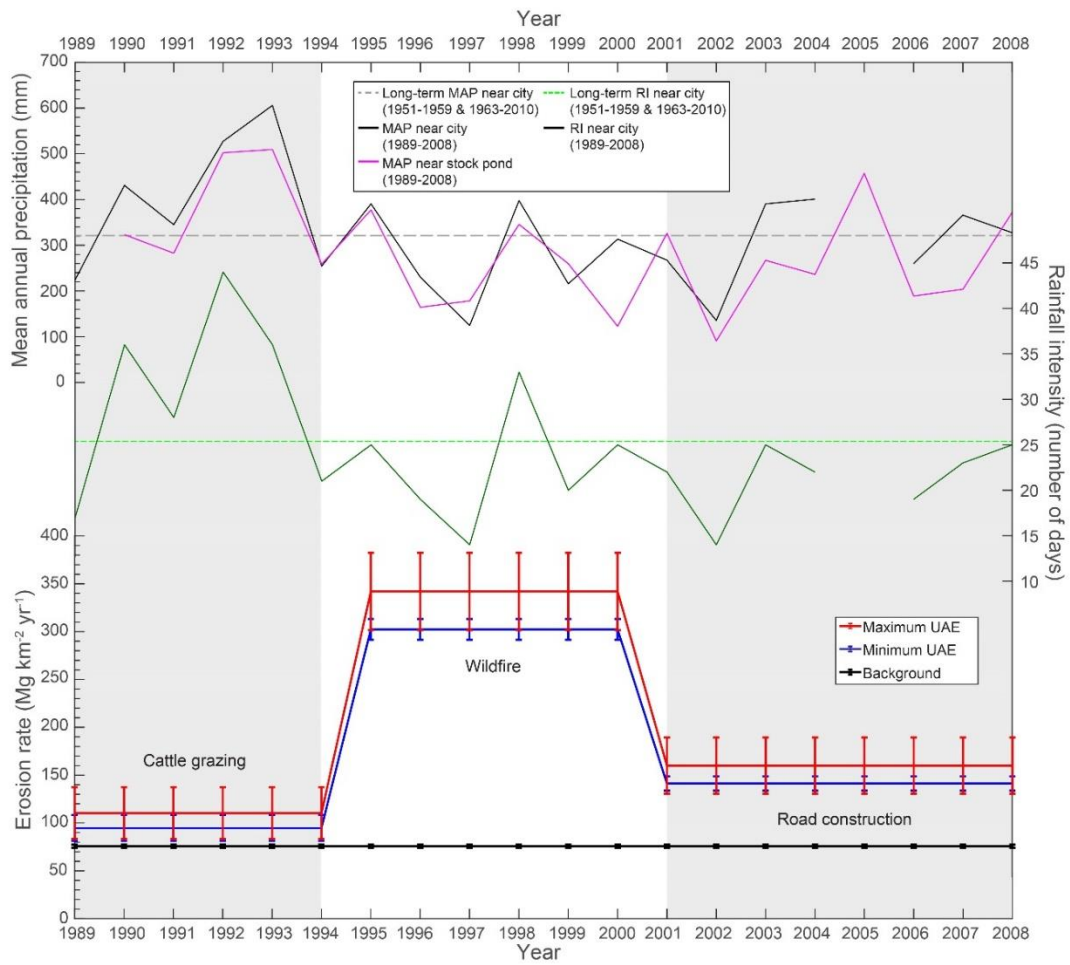
1989: House construction

1992: House construction

2003: House construction



n ID14: 128th St. (1989-2008)



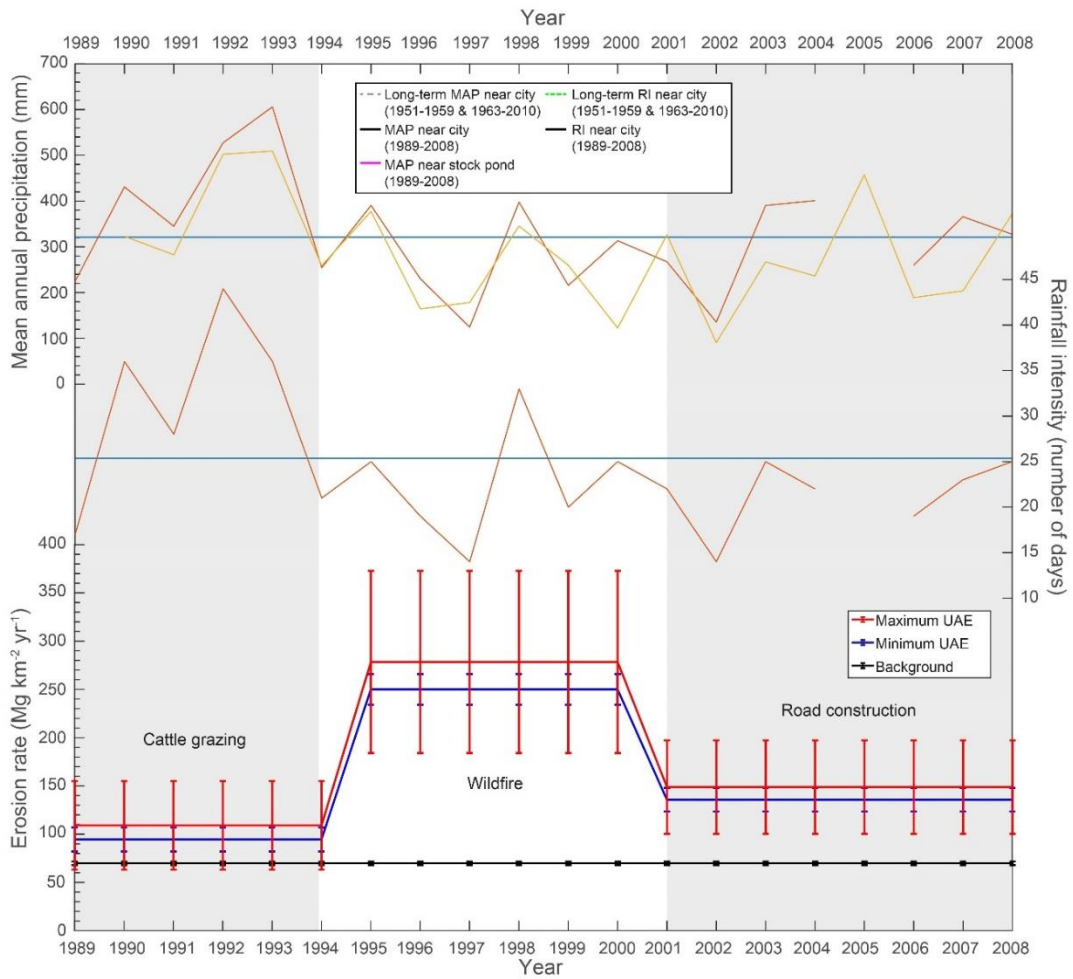
o ID15: 128th St. 2



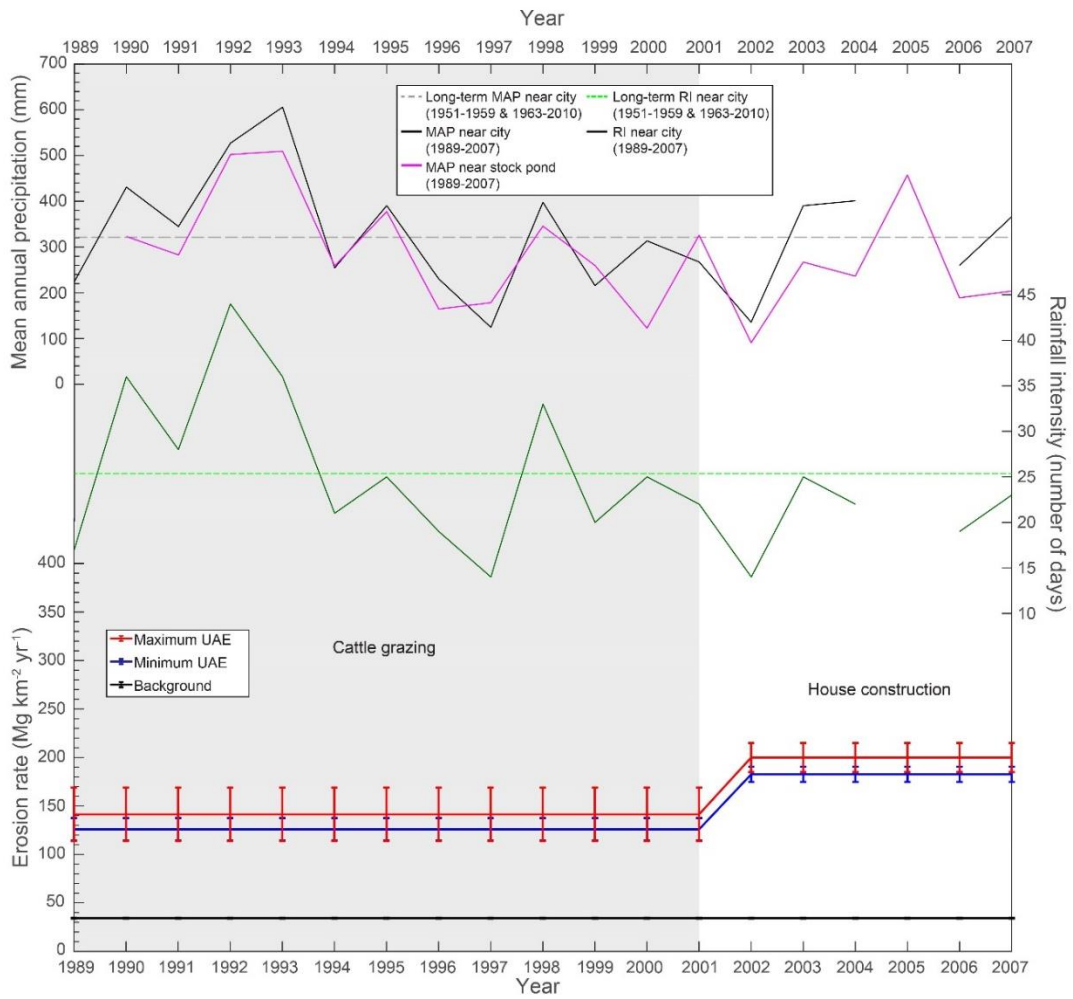
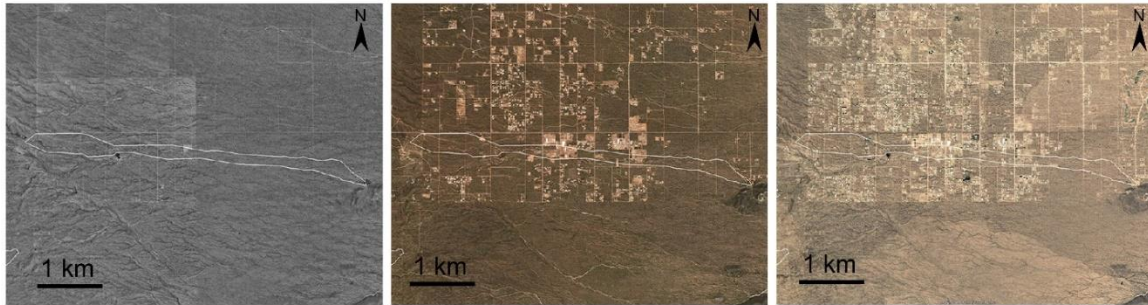
1992: Cattle grazing

1996: Wildfire

2003: Road construction



p ID16: Asher Hills (1989-2007)



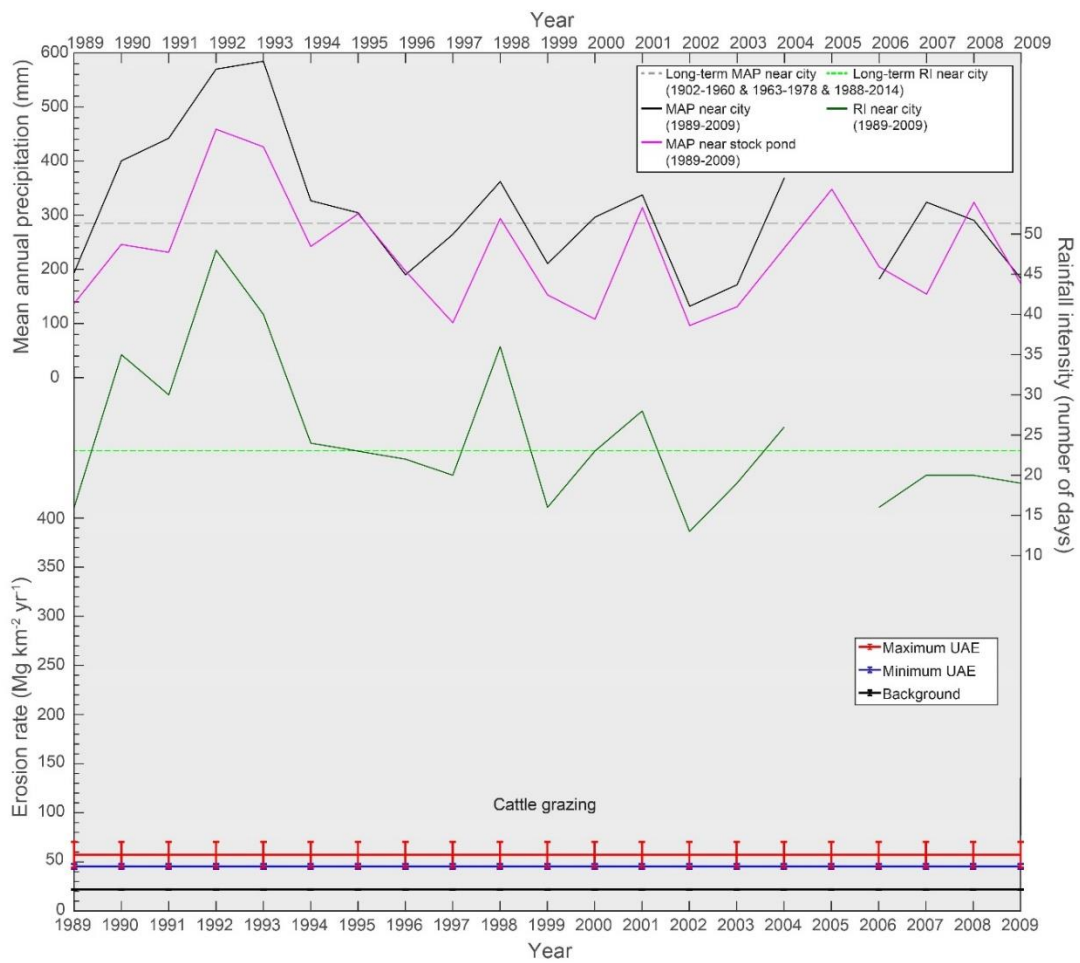
q ID17: Gold Canyon (1989-2009)



1989: House construction

1992: House construction

2003: House construction

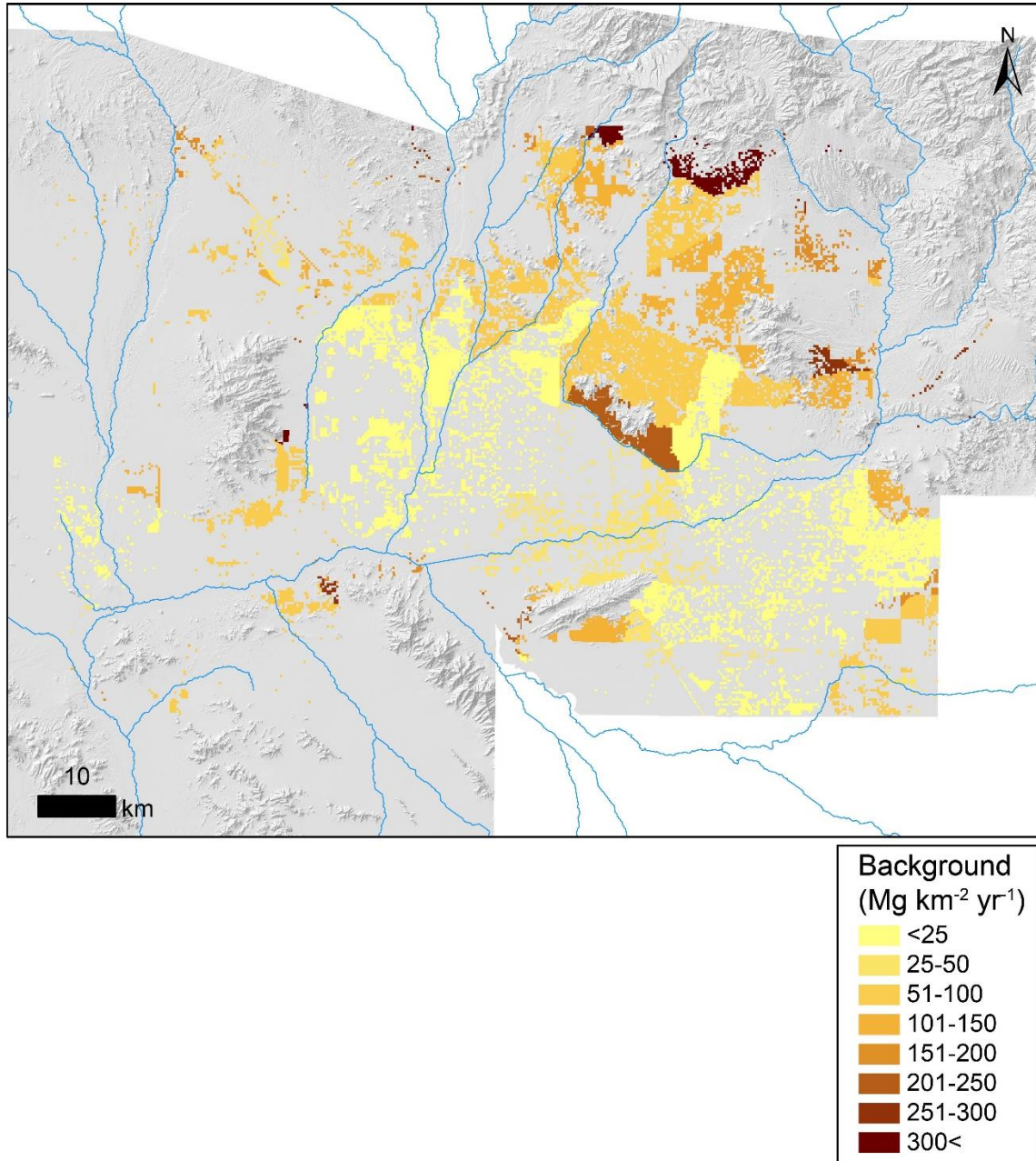


APPENDIX J

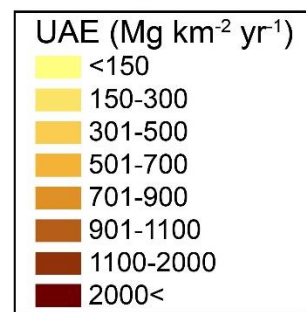
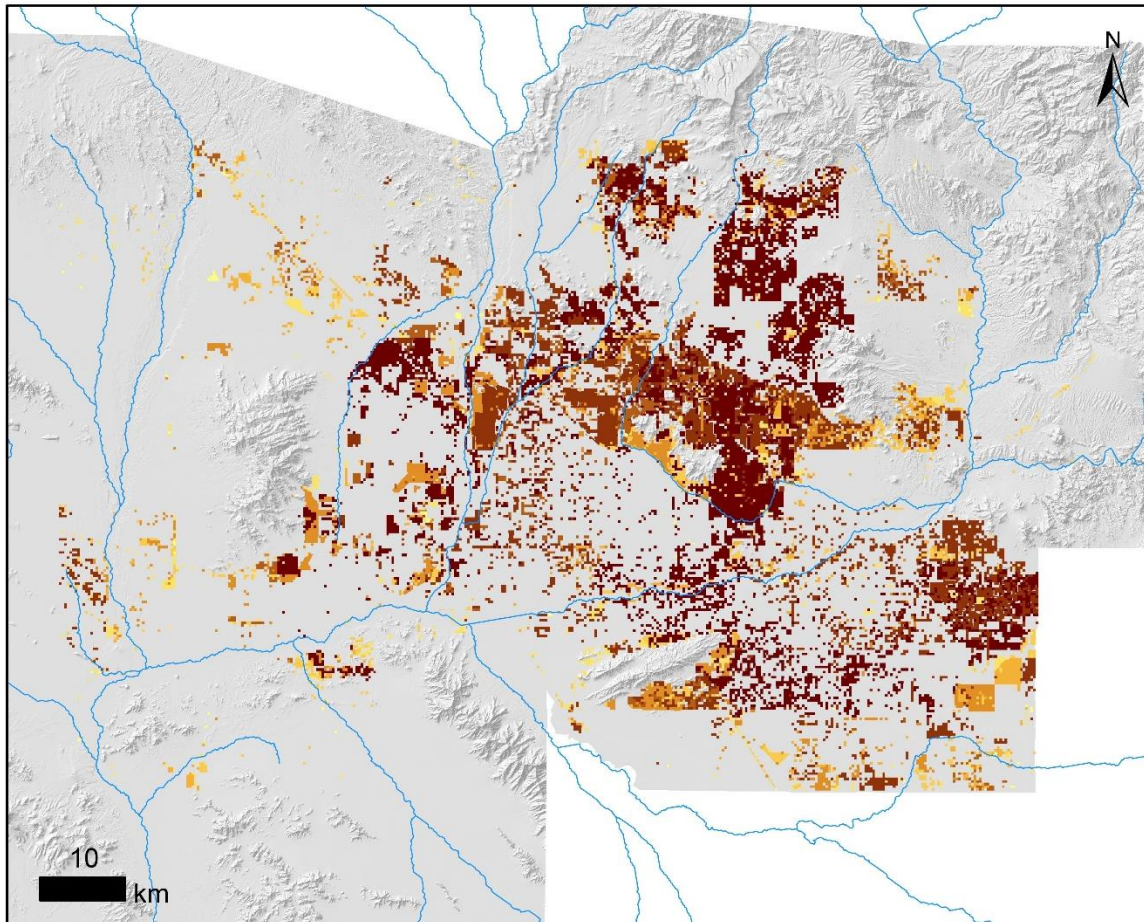
PHOENIX METROPOLITAN REGION EROSION MODELLING MAPS

The purpose of the appendix J is to show the phoenix metropolitan region erosion modelling maps: **a**, Background erosion on hillshade map. **b**, UAE on hillshade map. **c**, UAE on satellite map. **d**, UAEN on hillshade map. **e**, UAEN on satellite map.

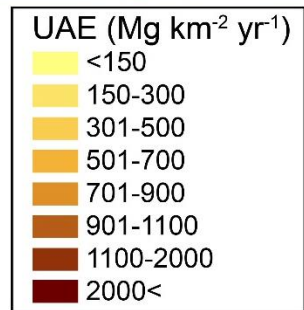
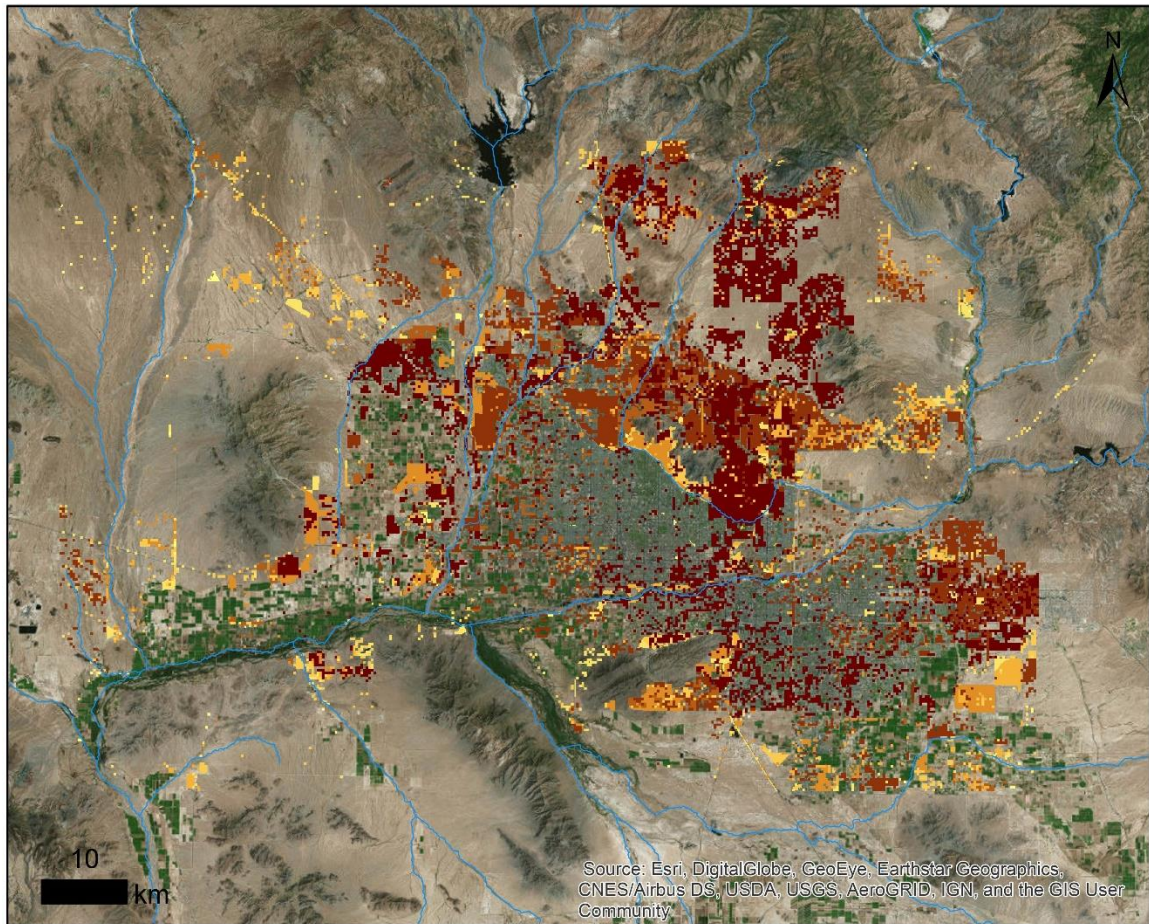
a, Background erosion on hillshade map



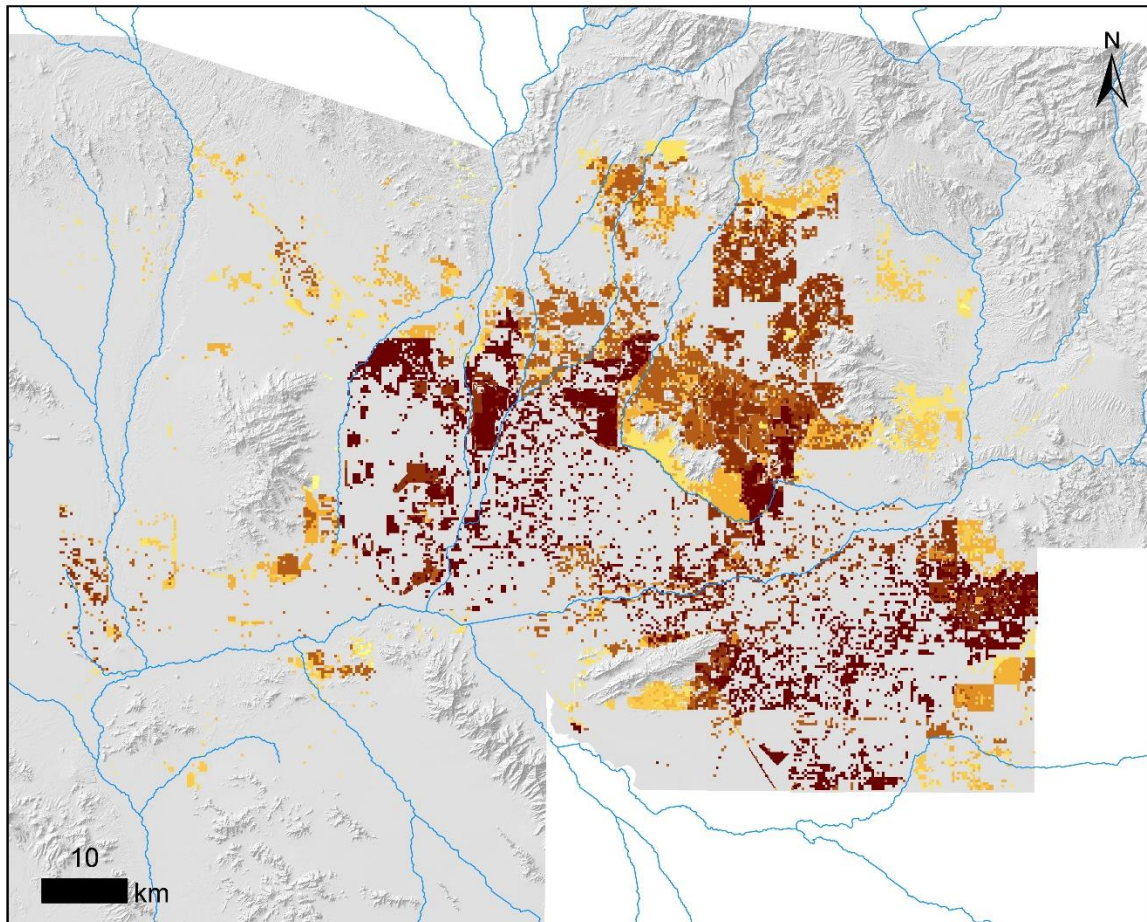
b, UAE on hillshade map



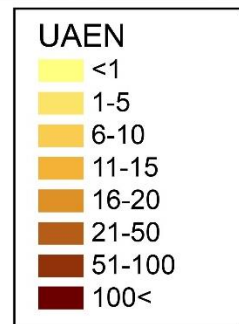
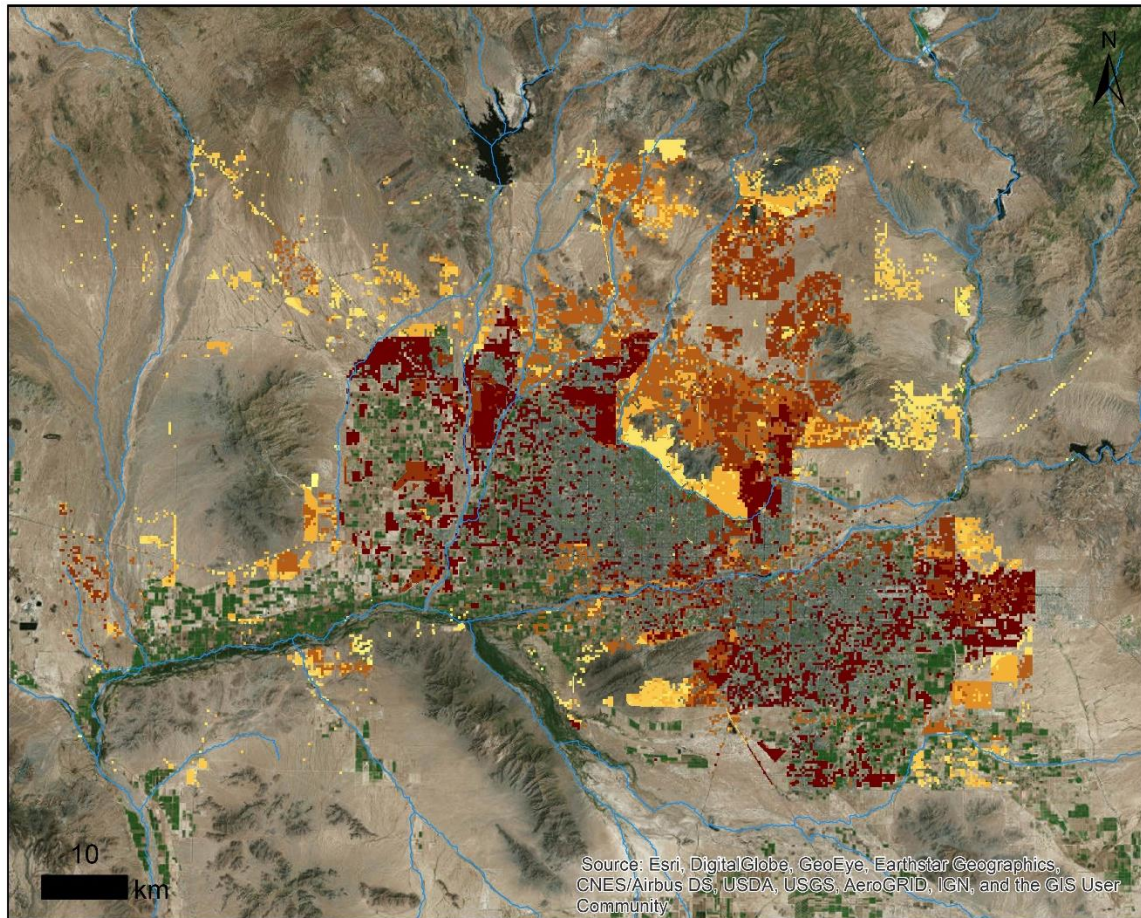
c, UAE on satellite map



d, UAEN on hillshade map



e, UAEN on satellite map



APPENDIX K
MEASURED SEDIMENT YIELDS FROM URBANIZING WATERSHEDS AND
ESTIMATED BACKGROUND

Sediment yield data was compiled by Russell et al. (2017). Background erosion was estimated by CWDR from Phoenix case study.

ID	Country	Location	Climate zone	Watershed condition	Drainage area (km²)	Slope	Median UAE (Mg km⁻² yr⁻¹)	References	Median Background (Mg km⁻² yr⁻¹)	References
1	USA	Patuxent River Basin, Maryland	Cold	Range - basins with active construction	Unknown	Unknown	236	(Fox, 1976) in (Russell et al., 2017)	90	(This study)
2	USA	Phoenix	Arid	Construction areas only (computed)	Entire Phoenix	mean slope: 4 ^o	244	(This study)	90	(This study)
3	USA	Rock Creek and Anacostia River Basins, Maryland	Cold	Construction (2-14% construction)	1.2-25.2	Unknown	470	(Yorke and Herb, 1978)	90	(This study)
4	USA	Maryland & D.C.	Cold	Urbanizing (includes urban area as well as area undergoing development)	11-189	Unknown	604	(Wark and Keller, 1963) in (Wolman and Schick, 1967)	90	(This study)
5	Malaysia	Sg. Jinjang, Sg. Kelang	Tropical	Light-moderate construction	10.3-29	Unknown	1372	(Balamuran, 1991)	90	(This study)
6	USA	Rock Creek and Anacostia River Basins, Maryland	Cold	Construction areas only (computed)	0.05-0.61	4-7%	4750	(Yorke and Herb, 1978)	90	(This study)
7	Japan	Suburbs of Tokyo	Temperate	Construction: 100% disturbed	0.31-1.42	80-100m relief	8340	(Kinosita and Yamazaki, 1974)	90	(This study)

8	USA	Baltimore, Maryland	Cold	Construction sites and subdivisions with active construction	0.0065 -0.60	1-10%	2700 0	(Wolman and Schick, 1967)	90	(This study)
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