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Vegetation, Ground Cover, Soil, Rainfall Simulation, and Overland Flow Experiments Before and After Tree Removal in Woodland-Encroached Sagebrush Steppe: The Hydrology Component of the Sagebrush Steppe Treatment Evaluation Project (SageSTEP)

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Vegetation, ground cover, soil, rainfall simulation, and overland flow experiments before and after tree removal in woodlandencroached sagebrush steppe: the hydrology component of the Sagebrush Steppe Treatment Evaluation Project (SageSTEP)

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Abstract. Rainfall simulation and overland-flow experiments enhance understanding of surface
 hydrology and erosion processes, quantify runoff and erosion rates, and provide valuable data for
 developing and testing predictive models. We present a unique dataset (1021 experimental plots)
 of rainfall simulation (1300 plot runs) and overland flow (838 plot runs) experimental plot data
 paired with measures of vegetation, ground cover, and surface soil physical properties spanning
 point to hillslope scales. The experimental data were collected at three sloping sagebrush

- 25 (*Artemisia* spp.) sites in the Great Basin, USA, each subjected to woodland-encroachment and with conditions representative of intact wooded-shrublands and 1-9 yr following wildfire, prescribed fire, and/or tree cutting and shredding tree-removal treatments. The methodologies applied in data collection and the cross-scale experimental design uniquely provide scale-dependent, separate measures of interrill (rainsplash and sheetflow processes) and concentrated
- 30 overland-flow runoff and erosion rates along with collective rates for these same processes combined over the patch scale (tens of meters). The dataset provides a valuable source for developing, assessing, and calibrating/validating runoff and erosion models applicable to diverse plant community dynamics with varying vegetation, ground cover, and surface soil conditions. The experimental data advance understanding and quantification of surface hydrologic and
- 35 erosion processes for the research domain and potentially for other patchy-vegetated rangeland landscapes elsewhere. Lastly, the unique nature of repeated measures spanning numerous treatments and time scales delivers a valuable dataset for examining long-term landscape vegetation, soil, hydrology, and erosion responses to various management actions, land use, and natural disturbances. The dataset is available from the National Agricultural Library at
- 40 https://data.nal.usda.gov/search/type/dataset (DOI: https://doi.org/10.15482/USDA.ADC/1504518; Pierson et al., 2019).



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Keywords: ecohydrology; erosion; fire effects; infiltration; overland flow; prescribed fire; rainfall simulation; rangeland hydrology; runoff; sagebrush steppe; tree cutting; tree shredding; tree removal; woody plant encroachment

1 Introduction

Rangelands are one of the most common occurring sparsely-vegetated wildland landscapes
around the world. These lands cover about half of the world's land surface and about 31% (> 300 million ha) of the land surface in the US (Havstad et al., 2009). The patchy vegetation structure typical to these water-limited landscapes regulates connectivity of runoff and erosion sources and processes and thus controls hillslope scale runoff and sediment transport (Pierson et al., 1994; Wainwright et al., 2000; Wilcox et al., 2003; Ludwig et al., 2005). Runoff and erosion in isolated

55 bare patches on well-vegetated rangelands occur as splash-sheet (rainsplash and sheetflow) processes. Sediment entrained by raindrops and shallow sheetflow in bare patches typically moves a limited distance downslope before deposition immediately upslope of and within vegetated areas (Emmett, 1970; Reid et al., 1999; Puigdefábregas, 2005; Pierson and Williams, 2016). Disturbances such as intensive land use, plant community transitions, and wildfire can

- 60 alter this resource-conserving vegetation structure and thereby facilitate increases in runoff and soil loss through enhanced connectivity of overland flow and sediment sources during rainfall events (Davenport et al., 1998; Wilcox et al., 2003; Pierson et al., 2011; Williams et al., 2014a, 2014b, 2018a). The negative ramifications of woody plant encroachment and wildfire have been extensively studied on rangelands around the World and have advanced understanding of runoff
- 65 and erosion processes for these commonly occurring ecosystems (Schlesinger et al., 1990; Wainwright et al., 2000; Shakesby and Doerr, 2006; Shakesby, 2011; Pierson and Williams, 2016). Recent widespread plant community transitions and trends in wildfire activity and associated amplified runoff and erosion rates spanning rangelands to dry forests throughout the western US (Williams et al., 2014a) and elsewhere (Shakesby, 2011) underpin a need for

70 compiling data sources that further contribute to process understanding and improved parametrization of rangeland hydrology and erosion predictive technologies.

Sagebrush rangelands in the western US are an extensive (> 500 000 km²) and important vegetation type that have undergone substantial degradation associated with encroachment by pinyon (*Pinus* spp.) and juniper (*Juniperus* spp.) woodlands, invasions of fire-prone annual

- 75 cheatgrass (*Bromus tectorum* L.), and altered fire regimes (Davies et al., 2011; Miller et al., 2011, 2019). Pinyon and juniper woodland encroachment of sagebrush vegetation can have negative hydrologic impacts (Miller et al., 2005; Petersen and Stringham, 2008; Pierson et al., 2007; Petersen et al., 2009; Pierson et al., 2010; Williams et al., 2014a, 2018a). Encroaching trees outcompete understory sagebrush and herbaceous vegetation over time and thereby increase
- 80 bare ground and connectivity of runoff and sediment sources (Bates et al., 2000; Miller et al., 2000; Bates et al., 2005; Petersen et al., 2009; Pierson et al., 2010; Roundy et al., 2017). Extensive well-connected bare patches in the later stages of woodland encroachment propagate broad-scale runoff generation and soil loss during storms events. Runoff from splash-sheet processes during these events combine along hillslopes to form concentrated overland flow with





al., 2014a, 2016a). Amplified soil loss over time perpetuates a woodland ecological state and long-term site degradation (Petersen et al., 2009). Land managers commonly employ various mechanical treatments and prescribed and natural fires to reduce tree cover and re-establish sagebrush vegetation and associated resource-conserving hydrologic function (Bates et al., 2000,

- 90 2005; Pierson et al., 2007; Bates et al., 2014; Miller et al., 2014; Roundy et al., 2014; Bates et al., 2017; Williams et al., 2018a). However, managers are challenged with predicting potential vegetation and ecohydrologic effects of tree removal across diverse woodland landscapes and with determining the appropriate type and timing of available treatment options. Invasions of fire-prone cheatgrass following prescribed and natural fires are particularly problematic. This
- 95 annual grass commonly invades open patches on woodlands at lower elevations or on warmer sites, subsequently increases wildfire frequency, and potentially promotes long-term loss of surface soil and nutrients associated with recurrent burning and fire-induced runoff events (Pierson et al., 2011; Wilcox et al., 2012; Williams et al., 2014a).
- Land managers around the World need improved understanding of runoff and erosion processes for the various disturbances common to rangelands and need improved tools for predicting responses to and making decisions on a host of management alternatives. Managers rely on local understanding and conceptual and quantitative science-based models to aid management decisions. Local knowledge is often limited and data necessary to populate conceptual and science-based models are likewise limited given vast rangeland domain.
- 105 Vegetation and ground cover inventories and field-based experiments are primary resources for informing conceptual models (Petersen et al., 2009; Chambers et al., 2014; Williams et al., 2016a; Chambers et al., 2017). Rainfall simulation and overland flow experiments likewise provide data for developing, evaluating, and enhancing quantitative hydrology and erosion predictive technologies (Flanagan and Nearing, 1995; Robichaud et al., 2007; Wei et al., 2009;
- 110 Nearing et al., 2011; Al-Hamdan et al., 2012a, 2012b, 2013, 2015, 2017; Hernandez et al., 2017). To this need, we present an ecohydrologic dataset containing 1021 experimental plots. The dataset consists of rainfall simulation (1300 plot runs, 0.5 m² to 13 m² scales) and overland flow (838 plot runs, ~9 m² scale) experimental data with paired measures of vegetation and ground cover, and surface soil physical properties spanning point to hillslope scales (Pierson et al.,
- 115 2019). The experimental data were collected at multiple sagebrush rangelands in the Great Basin, USA, each with woodland encroachment and sampled in untreated conditions and following fire and mechanical tree-removal treatments over a 10 yr period. The dataset therefore represents diverse vegetation, ground surface, and surface soil conditions common to undisturbed and disturbed rangelands in the western US and elsewhere. The resulting dataset contributes to both
- 120 process-based knowledge and provision of data for populating, evaluating, and improving conceptual and quantitative hydrology and erosion models.

2 Study Sites and Experimental Design

125 A series of vegetation, soils, rainfall simulation (Figures 1 and 2a-2c), and overland flow experiments (Figure 2d-2e) were completed at three pinyon and juniper woodlands historically vegetated as sagebrush shrublands. The study sites were selected from a network of sites as part of a larger study on the ecological impacts of invasive species and woodland encroachment into





sagebrush ecosystems and the effects of sagebrush restoration practices, the Sagebrush Steppe
 Treatment Evaluation Project (SageSTEP, www.sagestep.org). Study site climate, physical, and vegetation attributes are provided in Table 1. The data were collected in years 2006-2015, with sampling years varying by site and by treatment area within each site (see Table 2). Vegetation and ground cover were patchy and sparse at the sites when the study began in 2006 (Table 1). Tree-removal treatments (prescribed fire, tree cutting, tree shredding [bullhog]) were applied at

- 135 the Marking Corral and Onaqui sites in 2006 (late summer and autumn) to evaluate effectiveness of pinyon and juniper removal in re-establishing sagebrush vegetation and ground cover, improving hydrologic function, and reducing erosion rates. The Castlehead site burned by wildfire in summer 2007 before tree-removal treatments could be applied, and, wildfire was assessed as a prescribed natural-fire tree-removal treatment for that site. At all three sites, a cut-
- 140 tree (downed tree) treatment was placed across a subset of large-rainfall and overland-flow plot bases (Figure 2d-2e) within the various treatments to measure effects of downed trees on surface hydrology and erosion processes. This additional treatment was applied in 2007 and 2015 to some plots in cut treatment areas at Marking Corral and Onaqui and in 2008 and 2009 in unburned areas at Castlehead. Treatment applications and descriptions and the study
- 145 experimental design are explained in earlier papers by Pierson et al. (2010, 2013, 2014, 2015) and by Williams et al. (2014a, 2018b, 2019a) and all treatments for each site each year are provided in Table 2.

A suite of biological and physical attributes at each site were measured at point, small-rainfall plot (0.5 m²), overland-flow plot (~9 m²), large-rainfall plot (13 m²), and hillslope plot

- (990 m²) scales. Soil bulk density of the near-surface (0-5 cm depth) was sampled as a point measure in interspace microsites between plants, shrub coppice microsites underneath shrub canopies, and tree coppice microsites underneath three canopies. The bulk density sampling was conducted by compliant cavity method within all treatment areas 1-2 yr after respective treatments. Surface soil texture was quantified as a point measure using grab samples (0-2 cm
- 155 depth) from interspace, shrub coppice, and tree coppice microsites within all treatment areas at Marking and Onaqui in 2006 prior to treatments and within unburned and burned treatment areas at Castlehead in 2008. Vegetation and ground cover were measured at small-rainfall, largerainfall, and overland-flow plot scales and at the hillslope scale pre- and post-treatment in all treatment areas at Marking Corral and Onaqui and in unburned and burned treatment areas at
- 160 Castlehead. Vegetation and ground cover measures at the hillslope scale (site characterization plots) were conducted to describe site-level cover conditions prior to and over time after treatment. Site characterization plots were installed and sampled prior to treatment (2006) in all treatment areas at Marking Corral and Onaqui and were re-sampled 1 yr (2007) and 9 yr (2015) after treatment. Castlehead site characterization plots were installed and sampled in unburned
- 165 and burned areas 1 yr after the fire (2008) and were re-sampled the 2nd year post-fire (2009). Vegetation and ground cover measures on rainfall simulation and overland flow plots were used to evaluate resisting and driving forces on surface hydrology and erosion processes and to quantify treatment effects on cover components at those plot scales. Sampling of vegetation and ground cover on rainfall simulation and overland flow plots in untreated areas (control and
- unburned) and treated areas varied by site and year as described in Table 2.





scales to quantify specific scale-dependent runoff and erosion processes (Pierson et al., 2010; Williams et al., 2014a). Small-plot rainfall simulations (Figure 1) were applied to quantify runoff and erosion by splash-sheet processes. Each small rainfall plot was installed, as described by 175 Pierson et al. (2010) and Williams et al. (2014a), to occur on either a tree coppice, shrub coppice, or interspace microsite (Figure 1b-1e). Small plots at Marking Corral and Onaqui were installed and sampled in control and all other treatment areas in 2006 before application of the treeremoval treatments and were left in place for subsequent sampling 1 yr (2007), 2 yr (2008), and 9 yr (2015) after treatment. Small plots at Castlehead were installed and sampled in unburned and burned areas 1 yr after the fire (2008) and left in place for subsequent sampling the 2nd year 180 after fire (2009). Large-plot rainfall simulations (Figure 2a-2b) were used to quantify runoff and erosion from combined splash-sheet and concentrated overland flow processes. Each plot was installed, as described by Pierson et al. (2010) and Williams et al. (2014a), on either a tree zone (tree coppice and area just outside tree canopy drip line) or a shrub-interspace zone (intercanopy 185 area between tree canopies) inclusive of shrub coppice and interspace microsites (Figure 2). Large plots at Marking Corral and Onaqui were installed and sampled in all treatment areas in 2006 immediately before treatment application (controls) and were extracted following sampling. New plots were installed and sampled in treatment areas at Marking Corral and Onaqui in 2007, 1 yr post-treatment, and were then extracted. Large rainfall plots at Castlehead 190 were installed and sampled in unburned and burned areas in 2008, 1 yr after the fire, and were then extracted. Overland flow simulations (Figure 2d-de) were conducted on large rainfall plots (Figure 2a-2c) at Marking Corral and Onaqui in 2006 and 2007 immediately following respective rainfall simulations. Overland flow simulations were conducted in control and treated areas at those sites in 2008, but those plots were not subjected to rainfall simulation. Castlehead 195 overland flow simulations in 2008, 1 yr post-fire, were run on large rainfall simulation plots following rainfall simulations and, in 2009, 2 yr post-fire, were run on newly installed plots without rainfall simulations. Overland flow experiments conducted on large-rainfall simulation

Rainfall simulations and overland flow experiments were employed at the different plot

plots had borders on all sides and contained a collection trough for runoff measurement at the plot base (Figure 2c; Pierson et al., 2010, 2013, 2015; Williams et al., 2014a). Overland flow
simulations run independent of rainfall-simulation experiments were conducted on borderless plots, but contained a runoff collection trough at the downslope plot base (Figure 2d-2e; Pierson et al., 2013, 2015; Williams et al., 2014a, 2018b, 2019a).

3 Field Methods

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3.1 Hillslope scale site characterization plots

Understory vegetation and ground cover and overstory tree cover at the hillslope scale at each site were sampled on 30 m × 33 m site characterization plots using a suite of line-point and belt
transect methods and various tree measures (see Pierson et al., 2010; Williams et al., 2014a).
Foliar and ground cover on each site characterization plot were recorded for 60 points (50 cm spacing) along each of five line-point transects (30 m in length; spaced 5-8 m apart) for a total of 300 sample points per plot. Percent cover by each sampled cover type was derived for each plot





as the number of respective cover type hits divided by the total number of points sampled.
Multiple canopy layers were possible and therefore the total foliar cover across all sampled cover types potentially exceeded 100%. The number of live tree seedlings 5-50 cm height and shrubs exceeding 5-cm height were quantified along three belt transects on each plot. Each of the three belt transects on each plot were centered along a foliar/ground cover line-point transect, sized 2 m wide × 30 m long, and spaced 6 m apart. Shrub and tree seedling densities were calculated for

- 220 each plot as the total number of respective individuals tallied along the three belt transects divided by total belt transect area (180 m^2). The number of live trees > 0.5 m in height was quantified for each plot, and tree height and minimum and maximum crown diameters were measured for each live tree. A crown radius for each live tree was derived as one-half the average of measured minimum and maximum crown diameters. Individual tree crown area (tree
- 225 cover) was calculated as equivalent to the area of a circle, derived with the respective crown radius. Total tree cover for each plot was quantified as the sum of measured tree cover values on the plot.

3.2 Small-rainfall simulation plots and experiments

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Foliar cover, ground cover, and ground surface roughness on all small-rainfall plots were quantified using point frame methods explained in Pierson et al. (2010). Foliar and ground cover on each plot were sampled at 15 points spaced 5 cm apart along each of seven transects spaced 10 cm apart and oriented parallel to hillslope contour (105 sample points per plot). Percent cover

- 235 for each cover type sampled on each plot was derived from the frequency of respective cover type hits divided by the total number of points sampled. Multiple canopy layers were allowed and therefore total foliar cover across all cover types potentially exceeded 100%. A relative ground surface height at each sample point on each plot was determined by metal ruler as the distance between the ground surface and a level-line (top of point frame). Ground surface
- 240 roughness for each plot was then derived as the mean of standard deviations of ground surface heights for each of the transects sampled on the respective plot. Litter depth on each plot was measured along the outside edge of the two plot borders located perpendicular to the hillslope contour. Measurements were made to the nearest 1 mm using a metal ruler at four evenly spaced points (15-cm apart) along the two plot borders. An average litter depth was derived for each plot as the averaged of the eight litter depth measures.

Soil water repellency of the mineral soil surface and at depths near the mineral soil surface (0-5 cm depths) was measured immediately adjacent (~ 50 cm away) to each small-rainfall plot immediately before rainfall simulation using the water drop penetration time (WDPT) method (see Pierson et al., 2010). Litter and ash cover were carefully removed from the

- 250 mineral soil surface prior to application of the WDPT. Eight water drops (~ 3-cm spacing) were then placed on the mineral soil surface and the time required for infiltration of each drop was recorded up to a 300-s maximum. The WDPT was then repeated at 1-cm soil depth increments until 5-cm soil depth was reached. For each sampled depth, 1 cm of soil was excavated immediately underneath the previously sampled area and the WDPT procedure was repeated
- 255 with eight drops. A mean WDPT for each sampled soil depth on each plot was recorded as the average of the eight WDPT (s) samples at the respective depth. Soils were classified as wettable





where mean WDPT < 5 s, slightly water repellent where mean WDPT ranged 5 s to 60 s, and strongly water repellent where mean WDPT > 60 s.

- Surface soil moisture and aggregate stability were also sampled for each small-rainfall plot prior to rainfall simulations. Soil samples were collected at 0-5 cm depth immediately adjacent to each small rainfall plot and were subsequently analyzed in the laboratory for gravimetric soil water content. Some samples were excluded from the dataset due to poor sealing of soil cans in the field. Aggregate stability of the surface soil on each plot was determined using a modified sieve test on six soil peds approximately 2-3 mm thick and 6-8 mm in diameter (see
- Pierson et al., 2010). Each soil ped sampled on each plot was assigned to one of the following classes, as defined by Herrick et al. (2005): (1) > 10% stable aggregates, 50% structural integrity lost within 5 s, (2) > 10% stable aggregates, 50% structural integrity lost within 5-30 s, (3) > 10% stable aggregates, 50% structural integrity lost within 30-300 s, (4) 10-25% stable aggregates, (5) 25-75% stable aggregates, or (6) 75-100% stable aggregates. An average
- aggregate stability was derived for each plot as the arithmetic average of the classes assigned to the six aggregate samples for the respective plot.

Rainfall was applied to small-rainfall plots at approximate intensities of 64 mm h^{-1} (dry run) and 102 mm h^{-1} (wet run) for 45 min as explained in Pierson et al. (2010). The dry run was applied to dry antecedent soil conditions, and the wet run was applied to wet soil conditions, ~

- 275 30 min after the dry run. Rainfall was applied to small-rainfall plots by a Meyer and Harmontype portable oscillating-arm rainfall simulator with 80-100 Veejet nozzles (Figure 1a; Meyer and Harmon, 1979; Pierson et al. 2010, 2013, 2014; Williams et al., 2014a, 2018b, 2019a). The applied rainfall kinetic energy (200 kJ ha⁻¹ mm⁻¹) and raindrop size (2 mm) were within approximately 70 kJ ha⁻¹ mm⁻¹ and 1 mm respectively of values reported for natural convective
- 280 rainfall (Meyer and Harmon, 1979). Rainfall amount applied to each plot during rainfall simulation was estimated by integrating a pan catch of a 5-min calibration run prior to each rainfall simulation plot run. Total rainfall amount was estimated on plots where debris and/or vegetation prevented placement of calibration pans. In such cases, the estimated rainfall amount was derived as the average of all calibration runs for the respective simulation date. Timed plot
- 285 runoff samples were collected at 1-3-min intervals throughout each 45-min rainfall simulation and were subsequently analyzed in the laboratory for runoff volume and sediment concentration. Cumulative runoff and sediment amounts were obtained for each runoff sample by weighing the sample before and after drying at 105°C. A mean runoff rate (mm h⁻¹ and L min⁻¹) was derived for each sample interval as the interval runoff divided by the interval time. Sediment discharge (g
- 290 s⁻¹) for each sample interval was calculated as the cumulative sediment for the sample interval divided by the interval time. Sediment concentration for each sample interval was obtained by dividing cumulative sediment by cumulative runoff (g L^{-1}). Some field samples were discarded from the final dataset because of laboratory errors or various issues noted on field datasheets (i.e., spillage, bottle overrun, etc.).

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3.3 Large-rainfall simulation plots and experiments

Vegetation and ground cover were measured on large-rainfall simulation plots using line-point methods as described by Pierson et al. (2010) and Williams et al. (2014a). Foliar cover and





- 300 ground cover on large-rainfall plots were recorded for 59 points with 10-cm spacing along each of five transects (6 m long, spaced 40 cm apart) oriented perpendicular to the hillslope contour, 295 sample points per plot. The percentage cover by each sampled cover type for each plot was derived as the number of point contacts or hits for each respective life form divided by the total number of points sampled on the respective plot. Multiple canopy layers were allowed and
- 305 therefore total foliar cover across all sampled cover types potentially exceeded 100%. Cut trees placed on a subset of rainfall simulation plots (see experimental design above) were excluded from foliar and ground cover measurements. However, various attributes of downed trees (i.e., length [height], crown width, etc.) were measured and are reported. Ground surface roughness for each plot was calculated as the average of the standard deviations of ground surface heights
- 310 measured across the line-point cover transects. The relative ground-surface height at each sample point was calculated as the distance between a survey transit level-line above the point and the ground surface. Distances in excess of 20 cm between plant canopies (canopy gaps) and plant bases (basal gaps) were measured along each of the line-point transects on each plot. Average canopy and basal gap sizes were calculated for each plot as the mean of all respective gaps
- 315 measured in excess of 20 cm. Additionally, maximum canopy and basal gap sizes were calculated for each plot as the maximum of all respective gaps measured in excess of 20 cm. Percentages of canopy gaps and basal gaps representing 50-cm incremental gap classes (e.g., 51-100 cm, 101-150 cm, etc.) were derived for each transect and averaged across the transects on each plot to determine gap-class plot means.
- 320 Rainfall was applied to pairs of large-rainfall plots (Figure 2a-2b) at the same dry-run and wet-run target rates and sequence and durations as described above for small-rainfall plots (Pierson et al., 2010; Williams et al., 2014a). Each paired-rainfall simulation was run with a Colorado State University (CSU) type rainfall simulator (Figure 2a-2b; Holland, 1969). The CSU-type design delivers rainfall energy at approximately 70% of that for a natural convective
- 325 rainfall event and produces rainfall drop diameters within approximately 1 mm of natural rainfall (Holland, 1969; Neff, 1979). The applied simulator design consists of seven stationary sprinklers evenly spaced along each of the outermost borders of the respective rainfall-plot pair, with each sprinkler elevated 3.05 m above the ground surface. Total rainfall applied to large-rainfall plots was quantified from the average of six plastic rainfall depth gages organized in a
- 330 uniform grid within each plot. Runoff from direct rainfall on the large-plot collection troughs (trough catch, Figure 2b) was quantified by sampling collection trough runoff before plotgenerated runoff occurred. Once plot runoff occurred, timed samples of runoff were collected at 1-3-min intervals throughout each 45-min simulation run and were subsequently analyzed in the laboratory for runoff volume and sediment concentration as with small-plot rainfall simulation
- 335 samples. Sample weights were adjusted to appropriately account for trough catch, as described by Pierson et al., 2010. Some field samples were discarded from the final dataset because of laboratory errors or various issues noted on field datasheets (i.e., spillage, bottle overrun, etc.). Runoff and erosion rates were determined consistent with methods for small-plot rainfall simulations.





3.4 Overland-flow simulation plots and experiments

- 345 Vegetation and ground cover on overland-flow plots were measured using methods consistent with those on large-rainfall simulation plots. For overland-flow plots that underwent rainfall simulation, foliar and ground cover measures were derived from the large-rainfall plot line-point transect data, but were restricted to the lower 4 m of the respective plots. Foliar and ground cover on overland-flow plots not subjected to rainfall simulations were recorded at 24 points with 20-
- 350 cm spacing, along each of nine line-point transects (4.6 m in length, spaced 20 cm apart) oriented perpendicular to the hillslope contour, for a total of 216 points per plot. Percentage cover for each cover type sampled on each plot was derived from the number of point contacts or hits for each respective cover type divided by the total number of points sampled within the plot. As on large-rainfall plots, total foliar cover across all cover types potentially exceeded 100% given
- 355 multiple canopy were allowed. Cut trees placed on a subset of overland-flow plots (see experimental design above) were excluded from foliar and ground cover measurements. However, various attributes of downed trees (i.e., length [height], crown width, etc.) were measured and are reported. The ground surface roughness for each overland-flow plot was calculated as the average of the standard deviations of the ground surface heights across the
- 360 foliar/ground cover line-point transects. The relative ground-surface height at each cover sample point was calculated as the distance between a survey transit level line above the respective sample point and the ground surface. Canopy and basal gaps exceeding 20 cm on overland-flow plots were recorded along each line-point transect. Average and maximum canopy and basal gaps were derived consistent with methods for large-rainfall simulation plots. Percentages of
- 365 canopy and basal gaps representing 50-cm incremental gap classes (e.g., 51-100 cm, 101-150 cm, etc.) were derived for each transect and averaged across the transects on each plot to determine gap-class plot means, similar as on large-rainfall plots.

Datalogger-controlled flow regulators (see Pierson et al., 2010, 2013, 2015; Williams et al., 2014a, 2018b, 2019a) were used to apply concentrated flow release rates of 15, 30, and 45 L min⁻¹ to each overland-flow plot. Flow was routed into and through a metal box filled with

- 370 min⁻¹ to each overland-flow plot. Flow was routed into and through a metal box filled with Styrofoam pellets and was released through a 10-cm wide mesh-screened opening at the box base (Figure 2d; see Pierson et al., 2010). Each flow release on each plot was applied for 12 min from a single release-point located 4 m upslope of the collection trough apex. Flow release rate progression on each plot was consecutive from 15 L min⁻¹ to 30 L min⁻¹ to 45 L min⁻¹. Flow
- 375 samples were collected at various time intervals (usually 1-min to 2-min) for each 12-min simulation at each release rate. As with rainfall simulation samples, runoff samples were taken to the laboratory, weighed, oven-dried at 105°C, and then re-weighed to determine the runoff rate and sediment concentration. Also as noted above for rainfall simulation samples, a small number of runoff samples were discarded because of laboratory errors or various issues noted on field
- 380 datasheets (i.e., spillage, bottle overrun, etc.). Runoff and sediment variables for each flow release rate were calculated for an 8-min time period starting at runoff initiation. The resulting 8-min runoff and sediment variables were derived as explained for the 45-min rainfall simulations. The velocity of overland flow was measured using a concentrated salt tracer applied into the flow and electrical conductivity probes to track the mean transit time of the tracer over a set flow
- path length (usually 3 m; Pierson et al., 2010, 2013, 2015; Williams et al., 2014a, 2018b, 2019a).





The width, depth, and a total rill area width (TRAW) of overland flow were measured along flow cross-sections 1 m, 2 m, and 3 m downslope from the flow release point. The TRAW variable represents the total width between the outermost edges of the outermost flow paths at the respective cross section (Pierson et al., 2010). Overland flow simulations conducted on large-rainfall simulation plots at Marking Corral and Onaqui in 2006 and 2007 and at Castlehead in 2008 were run approximately two hours after respective rainfall simulations. Overland flow simulations on plots not subjected to rainfall simulation at Marking Corral and Onaqui in 2008 and 2015 and at Castlehead in 2008 were conducted on soils pre-wet with a gently misting sprinkler (see Pierson et al., 2013, 2015; Williams et al., 2014, 2018, 2019a).

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4 Data Application

Subsets of the dataset have been used to improve understanding of rangeland hydrologic and erosion processes, assess the ecohydrologic impacts of wildland fire and management practices
on sagebrush rangelands, and improve and enhance rangeland hydrology and erosion models. Examples of data use for such applications are presented in Figures 3-5. Pierson et al. (2010) applied pre-treatment data across all plot-scales and experiment types from Marking Corral and Onaqui to evaluate the ecohydrologic impacts of woodland encroachment on sagebrush rangelands. Studies by Pierson et al. (2014, 2015) assessed the initial (1st and 2nd year) effects of

- 405 prescribed fire and mechanical tree removal treatments on vegetation, ground cover, and hydrology and erosion processes at Marking Corral and Onaqui. Williams et al. (2014a) applied vegetation, ground cover, rainfall simulation and overland flow experiments from unburned and burned areas at Castlehead to evaluate the utility of fire to reverse the negative ecohydrologic impacts of juniper encroachment on rangelands and to frame conceptual concepts on process
- 410 connectivity for burned and degraded rangelands (Figure 4). Pierson et al. (2013 and 2015) evaluated the immediate effects of cut-downed trees on runoff and erosion processes on woodlands. Williams et al. (2018b, 2019a, 2019b) applied data from all experimental plot scales and methods in untreated and treated areas at Marking Corral and Onaqui to evaluate the long-term ecohydrologic impacts of prescribed fire and mechanical tree-removal treatments on
- 415 woodland-encroached sagebrush steppe (Figure 5). Al-Hamdan et al. (2012a, 2012b, 2013, 2015, 2017) applied subsets of the data to develop, test, and enhance various parameter estimation equations for flow hydraulics and erodibility parameters in the Rangeland Hydrology and Erosion Model (RHEM). Collectively, these studies have improved understanding of rangeland hydrology and erosion processes and informed both conceptual and quantitative models
- 420 applicable to assessment and management of diverse rangelands (McIver et al., 2014; Pierson and Williams, 2016; Williams et al., 2016a, 2016b, 2016c; Hernandez et al., 2017; Williams et al., 2018a).

5 Data Availability

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The full dataset is available from the National Agricultural Library website at https://data.nal.usda.gov/search/type/dataset (DOI: https://doi.org/10.15482/USDA.ADC/1504518; Pierson et al., 2019). The suite of files therein





includes an abbreviated description and field methods; a data dictionary; geographic information
for study sites; photographs of the study sites, field experiments, and experimental plots; and
datafiles for vegetation, ground cover, soils, and hydrology and erosion time series measures
spanning the associated plots scales. Subset examples of the datafiles are shown in Tables 4 (site
level soil particle size and bulk density), 5 (site characterization plots), 6 (small-rainfall plot
attributes), 7 (large-rainfall plot attributes), 8 (overland-flow plot attributes), 9 (small-plot
rainfall simulation time series), 10 (large-plot rainfall simulation time series), and 11 (overland-

435 rainfall simulation time series), 10 (large-plot rainfall simulation time series), and 11 (overlandflow simulation time series).

6 Summary and Conclusions

- 440 Rangelands are uniquely managed using ecological principles. As such, our functional understanding of regulating ecohydrologic processes, such as soil conservation and runoff moderation, are limited by our ability to track these processes in the context of interdependent land management decisions. Pinyon-juniper encroachment into sagebrush shrublands and the resulting management actions provide a model system for observing hydrologic processes under
- disturbances and interventions typical of extensively managed rangelands. To provide detailed understanding of ecohydrologic processes under realistic management conditions, we collected long-term data at multiple sites, spatial scales, and treatments. The combined dataset includes 1021 experimental plots and contains vegetation, ground cover, soils, hydrology, and erosion data spanning multiple spatial scales and diverse vegetation, ground cover, and surface soil
- 450 conditions from three study sites and five different study years. The dataset includes 57 plots from the hillslope scale (site characterization plots), 528 small rainfall simulation plots, 146 large rainfall simulation plots, and 290 overland-flow simulation plots. The hydrology and erosion experiments provide time series data for small-rainfall plot, large-rainfall plot, and overland-flow plot simulations. After excluding some time series rainfall- and overland-flow simulation data
- 455 due to various lab and equipment failures, the final time series dataset contains 1020 smallrainfall, 280 large-rainfall, and 838 overland-flow plot-run hydrographs and sedigraphs if plots without runoff are retained. Retaining only plots that generated runoff results in a time series dataset of 749 small-rainfall, 251 large-rainfall, and 719 overland-flow plot simulation hydrographs and sedigraphs. Overall, the hydrology and erosion time series dataset totals to 2138
- 460 hydrographs/sedigraphs including plots with no runoff and 1719 hydrographs/sedigraphs for plots that generated runoff. The methodology employed and resulting experimental data improve understanding of and provide quantification of separate scale-dependent (e.g., rainsplash and sheetflow) and combined (e.g., interrill and concentrated flow/rill) surface hydrology and erosion processes for sagebrush rangelands and pinyon and juniper woodlands in the Great Basin before
- 465 and after tree removal and for sparsely vegetated sites elsewhere. This separate and combined experimental approach yields a valuable data source for testing and improving isolated process parameterizations in quantitative hydrology and erosion models. The long-term nature of the dataset is unique and provides a substantial database for populating conceptual ecological models of changes in vegetation, ground cover conditions, and soils resulting from management
- 470 practices and disturbances. Likewise, the combined data on short-term and long-term





ecohydrologic impacts of management practices and fire provide valuable insight on trends in ecohydrologic recovery of rangeland ecosystems.

- Author contributions. Frederick B. Pierson, C. Jason Williams, Patrick R. Kormos, and Osama
 Z. Al-Hamdan participated in the experimental design, data collection and reduction, and compilation of the dataset and manuscript. Justin C. Johnson contributed to data reduction and compilation of the dataset and manuscript. All authors contributed to revisions of the submitted manuscript.
- 480 **Competing interests.** The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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Figure 1. Photographs of small-plot rainfall simulator (**a**) and example small-rainfall plots on tree coppice (**b**), shrub coppice (c), and interspace (**d** and **e**) microsites as applied in this study.







Figure 2. Images showing paired large-rainfall plots during rainfall simulations (**a**), experimental set-up of paired large-rainfall plot simulation experiments (**b**), a fully-bordered large-rainfall simulation plot on a tree coppice microsite (**c**), a borderless overland-flow simulation plot and experiment on an intercanopy (shrub-interspace) microsite (**d**), and a borderless overland-flow simulation plot with a cut, downed tree on an intercanopy microsite, all as respective examples as applied in this study.





Figure 3. Example infiltration (a and b), calculated as applied rainfall minus measured runoff, and sediment discharge (c and d) time simulations in untreated (Cont) and burned (Burn) interspace (Int), shrub coppice (Shr), and tree coppice (Tree) microsites at the Marking Corral and Onaqui study sites 9 yr following prescribed fire. The data illustrate the long-term impacts of burning and associated changes in surface conditions on infiltration and sediment discharge. Figure modified from Williams et al. (2018b). series data generated from a subset of the small-plot rainfall simulation dataset. Example sub-dataset is from wet-run rainfall







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initial (1 yr) impact of burning on sediment availability and elevated sediment delivery (for tree coppices in this study) as commonly

increase in sediment yield where bare ground exceeds 50-60% as commonly reported for rangelands (Pierson et al., 2008, 2009) reported in fire studies (Pierson and Williams, 2016). The relationship in bare ground and sediment yield (b) shows the typical

Williams et al., 2014b). Figures modified from Pierson et al. (2013) and Williams et al. (2014a)







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Figure 5. Example relationships/correlations in runoff and bare ground (bare soil plus rock

4 cover; a), cumulative sediment and overland flow velocity (b), and overland flow velocity and

5 runoff (c) derived from a subset of the overland flow dataset for Marking Corral and Onaqui

6 sites, as presented in Williams et al. (2019a). Data from overland flow simulations on

7 untreated/control (Cont) plots, cut treatment (Cut) plots without and with a cut, downed tree

8 (Cut-Downed Tree), and bullhog plots (Bullhog, Onaqui site only) in tree (Tree) and intercanopy

9 (shrub-interspace, Shr-Int) microsites 9 yr after respective tree removal treatments. The data

10 demonstrate that, for the studied conditions, runoff is largely regulated by bare ground, sediment

delivery is controlled by flow velocity, and flow velocity is strongly correlated with the amount

12 or runoff.

Table 1 Topography, climate, soil, tree cover, and understory vegetation at the Castlehead, Marking Corral, and Onaqui sites prior to treatments. Data from Pierson et al. (2010, 2015) or Williams et al. (2014a) except where indicated by footnote.

	Castlehead, Idaho, USA	Marking Corral, Nevada, USA	Onaqui, Utah, USA
Woodland community	western juniper ¹	single-leaf pinyon ² /Utah juniper ³	Utah juniper ³
Elevation (m) - Aspect	1750 - SE facing	2250 - W to SW facing	1720 - N to NE facing
Mean annual precip. (mm)	364^4	2994	2984
Mean annual air temp. (°C)	7.44	6.94	9.24
Slope (%)	10-25	10-15	10-15
Parent rock	basalt and welded tuff ⁵	andesite and rhyolite ⁶	sandstone and limestone ⁷
Soil association	Mulshoe-Squawcreek-Gaib ⁵	Segura-Upatad-Cropper ⁶	$Borvant^7$
Depth to bedrock (m)	$0.5 - 1.0^{5}$	0.4-0.5	$1.0-1.5^{7}$
Soil surface texture	sandy loam,	sandy loam,	sandy loam,
	59% sand, 37% silt, 4% clay	66% sand, 30% silt, 4% clay	57% sand, 37% silt, 7% clay
Tree canopy cover $(\%)^8$	261	$15^2, 10^3$	263
Trees per hectare ⁸	158^{1}	$329^2, 150^3$	476^{3}
Mean tree height (m) ⁸	5.21	$2.3^2, 2.4^3$	2.4 ³
Juvenile trees per hectare ⁹	28^{1}	$296^2, 139^3$	154^{3}
Shrubs per hectare ¹⁰	2981	12065	4914
Intercanopy bare ground (%) ¹¹	88	64	79
Common understory plants	Artemisia tridentata Nutt. ssp. wyon vaseyana (Rydb.) Beetle; Purshia spp	uingensis Beetle & Young; Artemisia nova A. .: Poa secunda J. Presl; Pseudoroegneria spic.	Nelson; Artemisia tridentata Nutt. ssp. ata (Pursh) A. Löve; Festuca idahoensis
	•	Elmer; and various forbs	

¹ Juniperus occidentalis Hook. ² Pinus monophylla Torr. & Frém.

³ Juniperus osteosperma [Torr.] Little.

⁴ Estimated from 4 km grid for years 1989-2018 from Prism Climate Group (2019).

⁵Natural Resources Conservation Service (NRCS) (2003).

⁶ NRCS (2007).

⁷NRCS (2006).

 3 Trees ≥ 50 cm height, for Castlehead includes data from Williams et al. (2014a) and one additional year.

^o Trees 5 to 50 cm height, for Castlehead mean based on data from Williams et al. (2014a) and one additional year.

¹¹ Area between tree canopies consisting of shrubs, grasses, and interspaces between plants (shrub-interspace zone). ¹⁰ Shrubs ≥ 5 cm height, for Castlehead mean based on data from Williams et al. (2014a) and one additional year.

(i) (c)







Table 2. Number of plots sampled by plot type (site characterization and small plot rainfall, large plot rainfall, and overland flow simulations) at each study site (Castlehead, Marking Corral, and Onaqui) by treatment and microsite (small plots - tree coppice, shrub coppice, and interspace; large plots and overland flow – tree zone and shrub-interspace zone [intercanopy]) combination each year of the study. Control refers to untreated areas at Marking Corral and Onaqui sites. Unburned refers to areas immediately adjacent to, but outside the wildfire area (burned tree atment) at the Castlehead site. Downed tree sub-treatments (cut-downed tree and unburned-downed tree) refer to plots with a single downed tree across each respective plot within the specified associated treatment (cut or unburned). Tree and shrub coppice microsites are areas underneath or previously (prior to treatment) underneath tree and shrub conpoice microsites are areas underneath, or previously underneath, and immediately adjacent (just outside canopy drip line) to a tree canopy. Shrub-interspace zones are the areas between tree canopies, collectively inclusive of shrub coppice and interspace microsites [the intercanopy].

Year	Treatment	Castlehead	Marking Corral	Onaqui
2006	Control	-	6	9
	Bullhog	-	-	3
2007	Burned	-	3	3
	Cut	-	3	3
2000	Unburned	3	-	-
2008	Burned	3	-	-
2000	Unburned	3	-	-
2009	Burned	3	-	-
	Bullhog	-	-	3
2015	Burned	-	3	3
	Cut	-	3	3

			Castlehead	1	Ν	Marking Cor	ral		Onaqui	
		Tree	Shrub		Tree	Shrub		Tree	Shrub	
Year	Treatment	Coppice	Coppice	Interspace	Coppice	Coppice	Interspace	Coppice	Coppice	Interspace
2006	Control	-	-	-	24	13	23	23	21	36
	Control	-	-	-	7	5	8	4	3	3
2007	Bullhog	-	-	-	-	-	-	10	10	30
	Burn	-	-	-	8	4	8	5	5	10
	Control/	8	8	8	4	2	4	4	3	3
2008	Unburned	0	0	0	-	2	-	-	5	5
	Burned	5	5	10	8	4	8	5	5	10
2000	Unburned	3	3	4	-	-	-	-	-	-
2009	Burned	5	5	10	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Control	-	-	-	8	4	6	8	6	6
2015	Bullhog	-	-	-	-	-	-	5	5	10
2015	Burned	-	-	-	8	4	6	5	5	10
	0.1				0		-	-	-	10

		Ca	stlehead	Mar	king Corral		Onaqui
Year	Treatment	Tree Zone	Shrub- Interspace Zone	Tree Zone	Shrub- Interspace Zone	Tree Zone	Shrub- Interspace Zone
2006	Control	-	-	12	12	18	18
	Bullhog	-	-	-	-	4	4
2007	Burned	-	-	6	6	6	6
2007	Cut	-	-	-	6	-	6
	Cut-Downed Tree	-	-	-	6	-	6
	Unburned	6	6	-		-	-
2008	Unburned- Downed Tree	-	6	-	-	-	
	Burned	6	6	-	-	-	-

		С	astlehead	Mar	king Corral		Onaqui
		Tree	Shrub-	Tree	Shrub-	Tree	Shrub-
Year	Treatment	Zone	Interspace Zone	Zone	Interspace Zone	Zone	Interspace Zone
2006	Control	-	-	12	12	18	18
	Bullhog	-		-		4	4
2007	Burned	-		6	6	6	6
2007	Cut	-	-	-	6	-	6
	Cut-Downed Tree	-		-	6	-	6
	Control Unburned	6	6	3	3	2	2
2008	Unburned- Downed Tree	-	6	-		-	-
	Burned	6	6	6	6	6	6
	Unburned	6	6	-		-	-
2009	Unburned- Downed Tree	-	6	-	-	-	-
	Burned	6	6	-	-	-	-
	Control	-	-	5	5	5	5
	Bullhog	-		-	-	5	5
2015	Burned	-		5	5	5	5
	Cut	-		5	5	5	5
	Cut Downed Trees				6		5

- Indicates not applicable, no plots.



		Marking Corral			Onaqui	
Site characteristic	Untreated	Cut 2007 ²	Cut 20152	Untreated 2006 ¹	Cut 2007 ²	Cut 20152
Foliar Cover	0008					
Shrub (%)	14.6	14.3	28.7	3.4	5.0	16.9
Grass(%)	12.4	21.4	30.2	7.3	13.7	27.1
Forb $(\%)$	1.0	3.7	1.4	3.2	12.1	7.4
Ground Cover						
Litter (%)	46.1	46.0	47.6	26.2	41.6	35.8
$Rock (\%)^3$	22.0	11.3	1.3	29.8	22.3	17.0
Bare soil (%)	26.4	40.5	42.5	37.7	29.1	35.7
		Marking Corral			Onaqui	
	Untreated	Burn	Burn	Untreated	Burn	Burn
Site characteristic	2006^{1}	2007^{4}	2015^{4}	2006^{1}	2007^{4}	2015^{4}
Foliar Cover						
Shrub (%)	17.7	6.2	8.7	0.9	0.4	10.7
Grass (%)	4.8	10.0	63.1	6.2	3.4	39.7
Forb $(\%)$	0.1	10.6	0.9	3.3	6.0	14.3
Ground Cover						
Litter (%)	47.4	31.4	40.3	34.4	29.7	34.7
$Rock (\%)^3$	25.4	16.5	12.8	29.0	31.6	21.6
Bare soil (%)	26.8	52.0	39.7	31.1	35.9	29.5



³ Rock fragments > 5 mm in diameter.

⁴ Data from Williams et al. (2018b).







Site	Microsite	Percent Sand	Percent Silt	Percent Clay	Bulk Density (g cm ⁻³)
Castlehead	interspace	50.4	43.7	5.9	1.04
Castlehead	juniper_cop	65.3	31.5	3.2	0.72
Castlehead	shrub_cop	61.8	34.6	3.6	0.76
Marking Corral	interspace	63.5	32.3	4.3	1.35
Marking Corral	juniper_cop	74.4	23.2	2.3	1.05
Marking Corral	pinyon_cop	68.4	28.3	3.4	1.1
Marking Corral	shrub_cop	59.9	35.4	4.7	1.14
Onaqui	interspace	57.4	36.2	6.5	1.07
Onaqui	juniper_cop	58.9	35.6	5.4	0.83
Onaqui	shrub_cop	56.2	36.9	6.9	1.02

Table 4. Soil texture and bulk density variables and data structure for those measures for all study sites.



Table 5. Example (subset) of vegetation and ground cover variables and data structure for measures on hillslope-scale site characterization plots (990 m²) at the

Plot_ID	Site	Year	Treatment Area	Treated Yes or No	Fol. Cvr. Shrub (%)	Fol. Cvr. Grass (%)	Fol. Cvr. Forb (%)	:	Live Shrubs (> 5 cm) Per Ha	Dead Shrub (>5 cm) per Ha	JUOC Trees (> 0.5 m) Per Ha	JUOC Trees (5-50 cm) Per Ha
SC_CH_BURNI	Castlehead	2008	Bum	Yes	0	5.3	6.3	:	0	722	0	0
SC_CH_BURN2	Castlehead	2008	Bum	Yes	0	3.7	5.7	:	0	611	0	0
SC_CH_BURN3	Castlehead	2008	Bum	Yes	0	5	4	:	0	1389	0	0
SC_CH_UNB1	Castlehead	2008	Unburned	No	0	13.3	6.7	:	222	278	222	5.5
SC_CH_UNB2	Castlehead	2008	Unburned	No	4	26.3	6.7	:	1944	778	162	4.7
SC_CH_UNB3	Castlehead	2008	Unburned	No	14.7	12.3	6.3	:	4056	1944	121	4.2
SC_CH_BURN1	Castlehead	2009	Bum	Yes	0	22	17	:	56	278	0	0
SC_CH_BURN2	Castlehead	2009	Bum	Yes	0	12.7	25.3	:	111	2500	0	0
SC_CH_BURN3	Castlehead	2009	Bum	Yes	0	16.3	26.3	:	0	1833	0	0
SC_CH_UNB1	Castlehead	2009	Unburned	No	1	19.3	2	:	5278	2056	212	5.9
SC_CH_UNB2	Castlehead	2009	Unburned	No	14.7	46.3	7	:	722	56	111	6.2
SC_CH_UNB3	Castlehead	2009	Unburned	No	18.3	39	14.3	:	5667	2056	121	4.6
:	:	÷	:	:	:	:	:	÷	:	:	:	:
SC_ON_CUT1	Onaqui	2015	Cut	Yes	8.9	41.6	11.3	÷	6389	0	0	0
SC_ON_CUT2	Onaqui	2015	Cut	Yes	21	21	7.1	:	10667	0	0	0
SC ON CUT3	Onaditi	2015	ţ	Yes	20.8	197	2.0	:	10611	0	0	c





Table 6. Example (subset) of rainfall simulation, vegetation, ground cover, and soil variables and data structure for measures on small-rainfall simulation plots

























Table 10. Example (subset) of time series runoff and sediment data from large-plot rainfall simulations (13 m²) at the study sites.

Sediment Discharge (g s ⁻¹)	0	0	0.094	0.113	0.091	0.088	0.111	0.097	0.124	:	1.22	1.015	1.368	1.569	1.305
Runoff (mm h ^{.1})	0	0	1.357	2.142	2.894	2.196	2.883	2.556	2.812	:	72.216	63.781	65.529	76.919	65.915
Sediment Conc. (g L ⁻¹)	0	0	19.08	14.56	8.74	11.11	10.69	10.47	12.21	:	4.68	4.41	5.78	5.65	5.48
Runoff (L min ⁻¹)	0	0	0.294	0.464	0.627	0.476	0.625	0.554	0.609	÷	15.647	13.819	14.198	16.666	14.282
Sample Fill (s)	0	0	20	15	15	16	15	15	15	:	15	15	15	15	15
Simulation Time (mm:ss)	00:00	08:14	09:05	10:08	12:08	14:08	16:08	18:08	20:08	:	30:08	33:08	36:08	39:08	42:08
Runoff Start Time (mm:ss)	08:15	08:15	08:15	08:15	08:15	08:15	08:15	08:15	08:15	:	01:09	01:09	01:09	01:09	01:09
Rainfall Rate (mm h ⁻¹)	52	52	52	52	52	52	52	52	52	:	110	110	110	110	110
Run Type	Dry_Run	:	Wet_Run	Wet_Run	Wet_Run	Wet_Run	Wet_Run								
Downed Cut Tree Yes or No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	:	No	No	No	No	No
Microsite	juniper_cop	:	intercanopy	intercanopy	intercanopy	intercanopy	intercanopy								
Treated Yes or No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	:	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Treatment Area	Cut	÷	Burn	Burn	Burn	Burn	Burn								
Year	2006	2006	2006	2006	2006	2006	2006	2006	2006	:	2008	2008	2008	2008	2008
Site	Marking Corral	:	Castlehead	Castlehead	Castlehead	Castlehead	Castlehead								
Plot_ID	LP_MC_CUT37	:	LP_CH_BURN30	LP_CH_BURN30	LP_CH_BURN30	LP_CH_BURN30	LP_CH_BURN30								







