

# Advanced modelling of runoff and soil redistribution for agricultural systems: the SERT model

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## Abstract

Hydrological and soil erosion models allow mapping and quantifying rates of runoff depths and soil redistribution for different land uses and climatic scenarios. Mediterranean soils are threatened by marked seasonal changes in the climatic, thus soil and vegetation parameters and modelling predictions at monthly scale are required. The semi-physically-based Soil Erosion and Redistribution Tool (*SERT*) model is presented together with the results of its application in a Mediterranean agro-ecosystem (NE Spain) with a detailed database. The hydrological module is based on the recently published *DR2* (Distributed Rainfall-Runoff) water balance model and the effects of man-made infrastructures on the natural dynamics of runoff connectivity are added. The erosion module is built using, as the basis, the Revised Morgan, Morgan and Finney model, and the new Remaining runoff Transport Capacity (*TC<sub>r</sub>*) factor used to estimate the rates of soil loss and deposition. Predicted runoff depth varied in time and space, presenting areas without runoff production mainly in Rendzic Leptosols and Haplic Calcisols between November and April. Average soil erosion was high in cultivated and bare soils, ca. 20 and 10 Mg ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>, whereas rangeland soils were affected by moderate and, in some areas, by limited erosion processes. Soil erosion was minimal in February (0.08 Mg ha<sup>-1</sup> month<sup>-1</sup> on average) and 23 times higher in October. The *SERT* model allowed mapping the significant changes in the monthly values of soil redistribution quantifying the variability in the magnitude of the processes involved. Predicted values of average soil loss and deposition were validated against quantified values with <sup>137</sup>Cs obtaining an average

39 Nash–Sutcliffe efficiency of 0.48 (Pearson's  $r = 0.709$ ) and a sediment balance of  $-1.15 \text{ Mg}$   
40  $\text{yr}^{-1}$  for the whole catchment that is consistent with the karst processes of the study area. The  
41 new model is an easy-to-run, reliable, low-input-demanding management tool with valuable  
42 outputs for hydrological and soil erosion studies in small agricultural catchments.

43

44 **Keywords:** DR2 model; Cumulative runoff; SERT model; Soil redistribution; Agricultural  
45 system;  $^{137}\text{Cs}$

46

## 47 **1. Introduction**

48 Soil erosion by water is a widespread problem throughout the world that causes the loss of  
49 fertile soil and crop yield in agricultural areas and a reduction in the overall quality and  
50 functions of the soils (Pimentel, 2000; Stavi and Lal, 2011). The current average erosion rates  
51 are a factor of 12 higher than soil sustainability, on the basis of the average rate of soil  
52 formation (Pimentel et al., 1999), and also the social and economic costs of erosion remain  
53 high due to the on-site and off-site consequences (e.g. Diao and Sarpong, 2011; Rivera et al.,  
54 2011). Accurate studies and measurements and sustainable land management are the keys to  
55 reduce agricultural soil loss. However, surface runoff, soil detachment and sediment delivery  
56 are non-linear processes that depend on many soil, climatic, topographic, vegetation and land  
57 use parameters and, furthermore, their effects change when considering different temporal and  
58 spatial scales (Cerdà et al., 2013). Hydrologic and soil erosion processes also vary as a  
59 function of the conditions prior to a rainfall event (De Baets et al., 2011) and of the magnitude  
60 of the erosion process itself (Gonzalez-Hidalgo et al., 2010). Moreover, human activities have  
61 been transforming the landscape since the first settlements, the creation of agricultural lands  
62 and the overexploitation of forests (García-Ruiz, 2010) accelerating and triggering in some  
63 places the processes of soil loss and degradation. As a consequence of these activities,  
64 numerous linear landscape elements (unpaved and paved trails, roads, land levelling,  
65 irrigation ditches, stone walls, dams, etc.) appear in landscapes, modifying the patterns of the  
66 overland flow and sediment connectivity.

67 Modelling hydrology and soil erosion is a difficult task to perform accurately in terms of  
68 time, space and rates due to its great complexity and the many factors involved. Initial  
69 attempts were carried out as empirical equations for small or limited areas (e.g. plots, fields  
70 and hillslopes). The studies of Mockus (1949) and Andrews (1954) constituted the building  
71 blocks of the Soil Conservation Service – runoff Curve Number (SCS-CN) (SCS-USDA,  
72 1985) that has been successfully used in many environments and even incorporated in one of

73 the most ambitious and currently used models, the Soil and Water Assessment Tool (*SWAT*;  
74 [Arnold et al., 1998](#)). The studies on plots undertaken by [Wischmeier and Smith \(1958 and](#)  
75 [1978\)](#) regarding the relationship between rainfall energy, soil erodibility and soil loss as well  
76 as the development of the Universal Soil Loss Equation (*USLE*), yield the basis for the well-  
77 known *RUSLE* model ([Renard et al., 1991](#)), that has been one of the most studied and most  
78 used predictive models for rill and interrill soil erosion by water. An adapted version of the  
79 *RUSLE* equation is the *WATEM/SEDEM* ([Van Rompaey et al., 2001](#)) model that predicts  
80 spatially distributed rates of annual soil loss and deposition at catchment scale and also  
81 estimates tillage erosion. Other models have been developed to simulate not only surface  
82 runoff and soil erosion processes but also nutrient, pollutant and sediment delivery and  
83 deposition processes, such as the *CREAMS* ([Kinsel, 1980](#)) and *AGNPS* ([Young et al., 1987](#))  
84 models.

85 Other available models are the expert-based *STREAM* ([Cerdan et al., 2002](#)) and the  
86 distributed split-parameter *TETIS* ([Francés et al., 2007](#)) hydrological models, and the dynamic  
87 *LISEM* ([De Roo et al., 1995](#)) model of soil erosion. All these models are integrated and run  
88 with GIS techniques and in some cases offer the possibility of being downloaded as  
89 executable files, as is the case of the empirical *RUSLE2* ([Foster et al., 2000](#)), the process-  
90 based *WEPP* ([Adams et al., 2012](#)), the complex river basin *SWAT* ([Arnold et al., 1998](#)) and  
91 the reduced-complexity *SedNet* ([Prosser et al., 2001](#)) models at continuous temporal scale,  
92 and also the event-based *TOPMODEL* ([Beven et al., 1995](#)) and *EUROSEM* ([Morgan et al.,](#)  
93 [1998](#)) models.

94 Previous studies demonstrate that large parts of the world are affected by intense processes  
95 of soil degradation and about 10 million ha of cropland are lost each year due to soil erosion,  
96 thus reducing the soil available for food production ([Pimentel, 2006](#)). In Mediterranean  
97 cultivated and set-aside soils the magnitude of erosion rates significantly varies throughout  
98 the year and seasons due to changes in the soil, climate and plant phenology (e.g. [De](#)  
99 [Santisteban et al., 2006](#); [López-Vicente et al., 2008](#) and [Fiener et al., 2011](#)). Thus, there is a  
100 necessity to develop an accurate, adaptable and easy-to-run model to predict spatially  
101 distributed values of runoff, soil erosion and redistribution at a monthly scale instead of the  
102 commonly used empirical annual-based models or the complex event scale models. In this  
103 study we present the Soil Erosion and Redistribution Tool (*SERT*) model and the results of its  
104 application in a small Mediterranean agricultural catchment with a detailed database. Run in a  
105 GIS environment, the *SERT* model predicts average monthly values of runoff production, soil  
106 erosion and sediment redistribution. This model has been developed with the aim of coupling

107 the physically-based equations of the *DR2* (López-Vicente and Navas, 2012) water balance  
108 model, with the structure of the *RMMF* (Morgan, 2001) and *Modified MMF* (Morgan and  
109 Duzant, 2008) models of soil erosion and sediment delivery, and the conceptual basis of the  
110 Index of Connectivity (*IC*) of Borselli et al. (2008) that includes the role of the man-made  
111 infrastructures. The *SERT* model has been designed to account for the temporal variations in  
112 climatic and vegetation parameters and tillage practices that occur throughout the year.  
113 Validation procedure is carried out with rates that are quantified with the radionuclide <sup>137</sup>Cs in  
114 133 control points. The topography of the study area is controlled by the presence of a  
115 sinkhole and thus is a closed-hydrological system where the balance between the amount of  
116 soil loss and deposition can be calculated accurately. The *SERT* model aims to be an accurate,  
117 easy-to-run, low-input-demanding management tool of spatially distributed runoff and soil  
118 erosion and redistribution for small and medium size agricultural catchments.

119

## 120 **2. Material and methods**

### 121 *2.1. The SERT model*

122 The Soil Erosion and Redistribution Tool (*SERT*) model is a semi-physically-based approach  
123 to predict monthly rates of runoff depth, soil erosion in rill and interrill areas and sediment  
124 redistribution in small and medium size catchments. Processes that take place in permanent  
125 water courses (e.g., creeks, rivers, ponds, dams) are not considered and thus the *SERT* model  
126 is not suitable for large catchments or river basins. The *SERT* model divides the simulation  
127 procedure into four modules: i) hydrology (*SERT-Hy*), ii) soil erosion (*SERT-Er*), iii) soil  
128 redistribution (*SERT-Rd*) and iv) modelling validation (*SERT-V*) (Fig. 1). As the *SERT* model  
129 is run at monthly scale most of its inputs are measured and calculated at monthly scale (Table  
130 1). The *SERT* model has the conceptual basis and part of the equations of the *DR2*, *RMMF*  
131 and *IC* models, to which are added water and sediment balance factors to achieve an accurate  
132 prediction ability. The other novel aspect of this model, in comparison with other similar  
133 models, is the high number of processes that can be simulated with a moderate number of  
134 inputs.

135

#### 136 *2.1.1. The hydrologic module (SERT-Hy)*

137 The GIS-based water balance Distributed Rainfall-Runoff (*DR2*) model (López-Vicente and  
138 Navas, 2012) yields the basis of the hydrological module. The *DR2* model computes the depth  
139 of water stored and infiltrated in the soil profile and the runoff depth considering spatial and  
140 temporal variations in rainfall intensity, soil saturation and upslope contribution factors. This

141 model was run in the medium size Estaña Lakes catchment, where the small study area of this  
 142 research is located, and it allowed humidity variations and trends in time and space to be  
 143 monitored. The *DR2* model calculates the monthly effective cumulative runoff ( $CQ_{eff-m}$ , mm)  
 144 following a three-step procedure. In the first step, the unsaturated cells and cells saturated by  
 145 direct rainfall (no runoff contribution) are differentiated. Time to ponding,  $Tp$  (s), is the time  
 146 it takes for the soil surface to become saturated in conditions of rainfall intensity greater than  
 147 the saturated hydraulic conductivity of the topsoil ( $K_{fs}$ ,  $\text{cm s}^{-1}$ ) and is calculated as the mean  
 148 value between the minimum and maximum time to ponding, following the approach of  
 149 **Hogarth et al. (1991)**:

$$150 \quad \frac{1}{2} \frac{Sp_{im}^2}{K_{fs}} \ln \left( \frac{I_m}{I_m - K_{fs}} \right) \leq Tp_{im} \leq \frac{1}{2} \frac{Sp_{im}^2}{I_m - K_{fs}} \quad (1)$$

$$151 \quad Sp_{im} = \sqrt{2 \cdot \phi \cdot \Delta\theta_{im}} \quad (2)$$

$$152 \quad \Delta\theta_{im} = \theta_{Seff-i} - \theta_{0-im} \quad (3)$$

153 where  $Sp$  is the soil sorptivity ( $\text{cm s}^{-0.5}$ ),  $I$  ( $\text{cm s}^{-1}$ ) is the average rainfall intensity,  $\phi$  is the  
 154 matrix flux potential ( $\text{cm}^2 \text{s}^{-1}$ ) of each soil type, and  $\theta_{Seff}$  (% vol.) and  $\theta_0$  (% vol.) are the  
 155 effective saturated and initial volumetric water content of the soil, respectively. The subscripts  
 156  $i$  and  $m$  correspond to each cell of the digitalized study area, and each month of the year,  
 157 respectively. The initial water content is the volume directly measured in the field (antecedent  
 158 topsoil moisture), the  $\theta_{Seff}$  parameter accounts for the maximum amount of water that can be  
 159 stored within the soil taking into account the volume of rocks and  $\Delta\theta$  is the difference  
 160 between both values. Coarse fragments play a critical role in the processes of topsoil  
 161 saturation and initiation of runoff (**Smets et al., 2011**) and are very frequent in the  
 162 Mediterranean soils and thus have to be considered in studies of soil redistribution (**Soto and**  
 163 **Navas, 2008**). Once topsoil is saturated overland flow appears and the initial runoff per raster  
 164 cell,  $Q_0$  (mm), is estimated as a function of the depths of effective rainfall,  $ER$  (mm), rainfall  
 165 to ponding,  $Rp$  (mm), and the average number of rainfall events,  $e$  (n):

$$166 \quad Q_{0im} = ER_{im} - \left( Rp_{im} e_m \right) \geq ER_{im} - \left( Rp_{im} I_m e_m \right) \geq 0 \quad (4)$$

$$167 \quad ER_{im} = R_m \left( 1 - A_{im} \right) \cos S_i \quad (5)$$

168 Values of  $ER$  are estimated after considering the depth of precipitation intercepted by the  
 169 canopy of the crops and natural vegetation,  $A$  (0–1), from the total rainfall depth,  $R$  (mm), and  
 170 using the improvement presented by **Morgan and Duzant (2008)** to consider the effect of  
 171 slope angle,  $S$  (radians), on the quantity of rain received per unit area. Once time to ponding

172 and initial runoff are calculated at each sampling point, the corresponding maps for the whole  
 173 catchment are created with the Kriging interpolation method (ordinary type with constant  
 174 trend removal) that gets the minimum standard error. In the second step of the DR2 model,  
 175 initial runoff is routed into the digital elevation model (*DEM*) of the catchment using the  
 176 multiple flow accumulation algorithm (*Acc.Algorithm<sub>MD</sub>*), with a coefficient of concentration  
 177 of 0.9 and the potential cumulative runoff,  $CQ_{0m}$  (mm), is obtained. The subscript *resol*  
 178 corresponds to the spatial resolution of the *DEM* because the depth of calculated cumulative  
 179 runoff also depends on this parameter. In the *SERT-Hy* module the effect of the man-made  
 180 linear landscape elements (*LLEs*) is added as effective players modifying the natural runoff  
 181 connectivity along the hillslopes and fields. This concept is based on the index of connectivity  
 182 (*IC*) presented by Borselli et al. (2008) and successfully used by these authors and by others  
 183 (e.g. Cavalli et al., 2012; López-Vicente et al., 2013) in medium-size agricultural and  
 184 mountainous catchments in Italy and Spain to identify areas with net soil loss and deposition.

$$185 \quad CQ_{0m} = f(Q_{0im}, \text{Acc.Algorithm}_{MD}^{c=0.9}, LLEs, DEM_{resol}) \quad (6)$$

186 As there are many types of cumulative algorithms, and each type generates a different map  
 187 with different values, a water balance correction factor ( $\alpha$ ) is added to achieve that the volume  
 188 of balanced potential cumulative runoff ( $CQ_{0B}$ ) equals the initial volume of available water to  
 189 be accumulated along the catchment. The “ $\alpha$ ” factor allows other users of the *SERT* model to  
 190 choose whatever type of cumulative algorithm they wish to use. A map including all *LLEs*  
 191 was created and a mask with two values, 0 for the *LLEs* and 1 for the remaining area, was  
 192 created to modify the map of flow direction used in the flow accumulation algorithm. The  
 193 effective cumulative runoff,  $CQ_{eff}$  (mm), is calculated after considering the saturated hydraulic  
 194 conductivity,  $K_{fs}$  ( $\text{mm s}^{-1}$ ), and the average duration of a storm after the soil becomes  
 195 saturated until the end of the rainfall event for each month  $m$ ,  $Tq_m$  (s):

$$196 \quad CQ_{0Bm} = \alpha \cdot CQ_{0m} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{i=k} ER_{im} - \sum_{i=1}^{i=k} Rp_{im} e_m}{\sum_{i=1}^{i=k} CQ_{0m}} \cdot CQ_{0m} \quad (7)$$

$$197 \quad CQ_{eff-m} = CQ_{0Bm} - K_{fs} Tq_m e e_m - SS_{\max-m} e e_m \sin S \quad (8)$$

$$198 \quad Tq_m = (TER_m - Tp_m) + Tq_{AfER} = (TER_m - Tp_m) + (FIL/FIV) \quad (9)$$

199 and the maximum amount of water retained on the soil surface,  $SS_{\max}$  (mm), according to  
 200 Driessen (1986):

$$SS_{\max-m} = 0.5 RG_m \frac{\sin^2 \phi \cot \phi + \cot \phi}{\sin \phi} \frac{\cot \phi + \cot \phi}{2 \cos \phi} \quad (10)$$

where  $ee_m$  (n) is the average number of monthly rainfall erosive events,  $TER_m$  (s) is the total duration of an average monthly storm event,  $FIL$  (m) is the flow length,  $FIV$  (m/s) is the flow velocity,  $RG$  (mm) is the surface roughness, i.e. the maximum depth of the soil microrelief,  $SIG$  (radians) is the surface soil and surface furrow angle, and  $S$  (radians) is the slope angle of the land. An erosive event has a rainfall amount  $>12.7$  mm or a peak rainfall intensity  $>6.35$  mm in 15 min (Renard et al., 1991). A  $SIG$  value of  $30^\circ$  is used in the study area according to the value used in the previous application of the  $DR2$  model. Surface roughness is the configuration of the soil caused by the randomly orientated arrangement of soil clods. In this work the roughness value for forest areas (random roughness,  $RG = 20.3$  mm) was taken from Renard et al. (1991). Tillage tools produce random and orientated roughness. For the tillage direction perpendicular to the contours,  $RG$  is the roughness immediately after tillage and before rainfall, and it is 32 mm for the plough, 23 mm for the heavy cultivator and 18 mm for the disk-harrow (Gilley and Finkner, 1991). For the tillage direction parallel to the contours,  $RG$  is the orientated surface roughness, which can be considered to be equal to the initial tillage depth immediately after tillage and before rainfall (250 mm for the plough, 150 mm for the heavy cultivator and 80 mm for the disk-harrow).

218

### 2.1.2. The soil erosion module (*SERT-Er*)

The *SERT-Er* module calculates the monthly splash ( $F_m$ , Mg ha<sup>-1</sup> month<sup>-1</sup>) and runoff ( $H_m$ , Mg ha<sup>-1</sup> month<sup>-1</sup>) detachment rates according to the revised Morgan, Morgan and Finney (*RMMF*) model (Morgan, 2001) and it compares the sum of these rates with the runoff transport capacity ( $TC_m$ , Mg ha<sup>-1</sup> month<sup>-1</sup>) to predict the monthly rates of soil erosion ( $E_m$ , Mg ha<sup>-1</sup> month<sup>-1</sup>):

$$E_m = \min \{ F_m + H_m, TC_m \} \quad (11)$$

$$F_m = K \cdot EE_m \cdot 10^{-2} \quad (12)$$

$$H_m = Z_i \cdot CQ_{\text{eff}-m}^{1.5} \cdot (-GC_m) \cdot 10^{-2} \quad (13)$$

$$Z_i = \frac{1}{0.5 \cdot COH_i} \quad (14)$$

$$TC_m = C_m \cdot P \cdot CQ_{\text{eff}-m}^\beta \cdot 10^{-2} \quad (15)$$

where  $K$  (g J<sup>-1</sup>) is the soil erodibility,  $EE$  (J m<sup>-2</sup>) is the total rainfall energy,  $Z$  (kPa<sup>-1</sup>) is the resistance of the soil to being detached and delivered,  $GC$  (%) is the ground cover (e.g. rocks,

232 litter and stubble),  $COH$  (kPa) is the cohesion of the soil estimated from the soil texture, and  
 233  $C$  and  $P$  are the factor of cover management and support practices of the *RUSLE* model  
 234 (Renard et al., 1991). The  $\beta$  factor range [1.3–2.9] in order to model the loss of transport  
 235 capacity due to runoff from the divides to the bottom of the hillslope as runoff increase the  
 236 load of sediment delivered. The map of the  $\beta$  factor was obtained from the map of effective  
 237 cumulative runoff. In the original *RMMF* model, the runoff depth is not accumulated along  
 238 the hillslope and it is calculated according to the critical value of soil moisture storage and the  
 239 mean rain per rainday and total rainfall volume. In the *SERT* model, runoff depth is spatially  
 240 distributed and computed using the approach described in the hydrological module. Rainfall  
 241 energy is estimated as the sum of the kinetic energy of the leaf drainage raindrops  $E(LD)$  (J  
 242  $m^{-2}$ ) and the energy of the direct throughfall rainfall  $E(DT)$  (J  $m^{-2}$ ):

$$243 \quad EE_m = E(DT)_m + E(LD)_m \quad (16)$$

$$244 \quad E(DT)_m = DT_m \cdot KE_m \quad (17)$$

$$245 \quad E(LD)_m = (5.8 PH_m^{0.5}) - 5.87 \quad (18)$$

246 where  $DT_m$  (mm) is the direct throughfall volume of monthly rainfall estimated from the total  
 247 depth of effective rainfall ( $ER_m$ , mm) and the depth of leaf drainage ( $LD_m$ , mm), and  $KE_m$  (J  
 248  $m^{-2} mm^{-1}$ ) is the kinetic energy of the rain at each month:

$$249 \quad DT_m = ER_m - LD_m \quad (19)$$

$$250 \quad LD_m = ER_m \cdot CC_m \quad (20)$$

251 where  $CC_m$  (0–1) is the percentage of the soil surface protected by the canopy. Monthly  
 252 variations in the values of the  $A_m$ , see Eq. (5), and  $CC_m$  factors are associated with the  
 253 phenology of the crops and the presence of deciduous trees. The kinetic energy of the rain is a  
 254 function of the rainfall intensity,  $I$  ( $mm h^{-1}$ ), and is estimated in this study using the equation  
 255 developed by Coutinho and Tomás (1995) and considered suitable for the western  
 256 Mediterranean areas:

$$257 \quad KE_m = 35.9 \left[ -0.559 \exp(-0.034 I_m) \right] \quad (21)$$

258

### 259 2.1.3 The soil redistribution module (*SERT-Rd*)

260 As described in the *Modified MMF* (Morgan and Duzant, 2008) model, soil redistribution is  
 261 the result of a balance between the amounts of soil detached by raindrop impact ( $F_m$ ,  $Mg ha^{-1}$   
 262  $month^{-1}$ ) and by runoff ( $H_m$ ,  $Mg ha^{-1} month^{-1}$ ) and the amount of delivered soil which is  
 263 deposited downslope. Using this conceptual basis, the *SERT-Rd* module estimates the



264 Remaining runoff Transport Capacity ( $TC_{r-m}$ ,  $\text{Mg ha}^{-1} \text{ month}^{-1}$ ) factor that allows a different  
 265 relocation of the sediments from one month to another month as a consequence of the  
 266 significant temporal changes that happen in the number, duration and intensity of the rainfall  
 267 events, runoff depth, and tillage practices. Thus, the potential ( $DEP_{pot-m}$ ,  $\text{Mg ha}^{-1} \text{ month}^{-1}$ )  
 268 and net ( $DEP'_m$ ,  $\text{Mg ha}^{-1} \text{ month}^{-1}$ ) rates of monthly soil deposition in each cell of the modeled  
 269 study area are calculated. When the runoff transport capacity ( $TC_m$ ,  $\text{Mg ha}^{-1} \text{ month}^{-1}$ ) is the  
 270 limiting factor of soil erosion in a cell, there is not enough energy for the downwards delivery  
 271 of the sediment coming from the upslope cells ( $E_{up-m}$ ,  $\text{Mg ha}^{-1} \text{ month}^{-1}$ ). Conversely, when  
 272 the total rate of detached particles is lower than the rate of  $TC_m$ , there is a remaining runoff  
 273 Transport Capacity per cell,  $TC_{r-m}$ , and accumulated one along the hillslope ( $TC_{r-up}$ ,  $\text{Mg ha}^{-1}$   
 274  $\text{month}^{-1}$ ) that can deliver part or the whole amount of sediment coming from the upslope  
 275 cells:

$$276 \quad TC_{r-m} = \begin{cases} C_m - E_m > 0 \end{cases} \quad (22)$$

$$277 \quad E_{up-m} = f \begin{cases} C_m, \text{Acc. Algorithm}_{MD}^{c=1.1} \end{cases} \forall \text{ surface } TC_{r-m} > 0 \quad (23)$$

$$278 \quad TC_{r-up-m} = f \begin{cases} C_{r-m}, \text{Acc. Algorithm}_{MD}^{c=1.1} \end{cases} \forall \text{ surface } TC_{r-m} > 0 \quad (24)$$

$$279 \quad DEP'_m = DEP_{pot-m} - E_m = \begin{cases} E_{up-m} - TC_{r-up-m} > E_m \end{cases} \forall \text{ surface } DEP'_m > 0 \quad (25)$$

280 We use a multiple flow accumulation algorithm ( $Acc. Algorithm_{MD}$ ) with a concentration  
 281 coefficient equal to 1.1 to redistribute the detached particles. Although overland flow  
 282 accumulation, Eq. (6), and sediment redistribution, Eq. (23), happen simultaneously in nature,  
 283 we divide these processes into two different equations to facilitate the computational process,  
 284 and also assign two different values for the  $c$  coefficient of concentration in order to  
 285 distinguish the spatial redistribution of runoff and detached particles. Finally, the balance  
 286 between the total rates of soil loss, sediment deposited and sediment yield at the outlet of the  
 287 catchment should be zero. The presence of karstic processes and the development of a  
 288 sinkhole at the bottom of the study area prevent the occurrence of the typical outlets  
 289 associated with rivers and gullies, and thus the balance is performed between rates of soil loss  
 290 and deposition:

$$291 \quad DEP_m = DEP'_m \cdot x \quad (26)$$

$$292 \quad x = \frac{LOSS_{T-m}}{DEP'_{T-m}} \quad (27)$$

293 where  $DEP_m$  ( $\text{Mg ha}^{-1} \text{ month}^{-1}$ ) is the weighted rate of soil deposition, and  $x$  is the weighting  
 294 factor between the values of total soil loss ( $LOSS_{T-m}$ ,  $\text{Mg month}^{-1}$ ) and total deposited

295 sediment before weighting ( $DEP'_{T-m}$ , Mg month<sup>-1</sup>). On a yearly basis, values of soil  
 296 redistribution are computed as the sum of the processes of soil redistribution that happen in  
 297 each month of the year:

$$298 \quad RED_{yr} = \sum_{m=1}^{m=12} DEP_m - \sum_{m=1}^{m=12} LOSS_m \quad (28)$$

299

#### 300 2.1.4 Model analysis and validation with <sup>137</sup>Cs derived rates

301 A sensitivity analysis was carried out to test that the model behaved rationally and to  
 302 determine which input parameters had most effect on the predictions of runoff and soil  
 303 erosion. Sensitivity was analysed using the average linear sensitivity (ALS) approach  
 304 (McCuen and Snyder, 1986), which expresses a relative normalized change in output to a  
 305 normalized change in input:

$$306 \quad ALS = \frac{\left[ \frac{O_2 - O_1}{\bar{O}_{1,2}} \right]}{\left[ \frac{I_2 - I_1}{\bar{I}_{1,2}} \right]} \quad (29)$$

307 where  $O_1$  and  $O_2$  are the values of the model output obtained with the values of  $I_1$  and  $I_2$  for  
 308 input parameter  $I$ , and  $\bar{I}_{1,2}$  and  $\bar{O}_{1,2}$  are the means of the two input and two output values  
 309 respectively. This approach is appropriate for comparing the sensitivities of input parameters  
 310 with values of different orders of magnitude and has been used to perform sensitivity analysis  
 311 in other erosion predicting models such as *WEPP* (Nearing et al., 1990) and *Modified MMF*  
 312 (Morgan and Duzant, 2008). Although it does not deal well with sensitivity when the output  
 313 of the model is related non-linearly to an input, this issue can be addressed by examining how  
 314 the value of *ALS* changes as the input is varied over small ranges.

315 The validation process of the predicted soil redistribution rates constitutes the *SERT-V*  
 316 module and is adaptable to any method that can provide accurate values of net soil loss and  
 317 deposition along the catchment or sediment yield at the outlet. In this study we use spatially  
 318 distributed rates of soil loss and deposition quantified with <sup>137</sup>Cs. Caesium-137 derived from  
 319 nuclear testing in the past century has been widely used as a sediment tracer of soil  
 320 redistribution, providing information on medium term (40–50 years) erosion rates. As the  
 321 *SERT* model has been run with average weather data for a period of fifteen years, not at event  
 322 or specific year scale, output maps and rates were also average predictions and thus the choice  
 323 of the aforementioned radionuclide technique seems to be very adequate for our study.  
 324 Additionally, the study area did not have a river or a creek where a gauging station could be

325 installed to measure sediment delivery. In this study we use the models of Soto and Navas  
326 (2004, 2008) to quantify the net rates of soil redistribution. In order to ensure the reliability of  
327 the Cs-137 technique to provide accurate values of soil redistribution any soil sample with a  
328 high content of organic matter and/or coarse fragments was removed. The  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  activities  
329 were measured using a high resolution, low background, coaxial gamma-ray detector of  
330 hyperpure germanium coupled to an amplifier and multichannel analyser. The efficiency of  
331 the detector is 30%, with 1.92 keV resolution (shielded to reduce background) and was  
332 calibrated using certified standard samples of the same geometry as the measured samples.  
333 Gamma emissions of  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  (662 keV line in  $\text{mBq g}^{-1}$  air-dry soil) were measured for the soil  
334 samples with a counting time of 30,000 s (more details about the method in Navas et al.,  
335 2012).

336

## 337 2.2. Study area and field survey

338 The study area is a small sub-catchment, the so-called *Pilot catchment*, of the Estaña Lakes  
339 catchment which is located in the Spanish Pyrenean Marginal Ranges and within the Ebro  
340 River Basin (Fig. 2a). The land uses and the physiographic characteristics of this agro-  
341 ecosystem are those typically found in the Mediterranean rain-fed agricultural systems. The  
342 study area has a reduced area of 0.73 ha, elevation ranges between 686 and 698 m a.s.l. and  
343 the mean slope steepness is 17%. Steep slopes ( $S$  higher than 22.5%) occupy 28% of the study  
344 area and are associated with the walls of the sinkhole that appears in the *Pilot catchment*  
345 whereas gentle slopes are cultivated with winter cereals (wheat and barley) ( $S$  lower than 8%)  
346 and cover 18%. This area has a relatively long history (dating back to the 10<sup>th</sup> century) of  
347 human occupation, agricultural practices and water management (Morellón et al., 2011).  
348 Natural and anthropogenic areas are heterogeneously distributed in small patches and  
349 numerous stone-walls appear in the study area modifying the natural dynamics of runoff and  
350 sediment connectivity (López-Vicente et al., 2013). The *Pilot catchment* has two fields of  
351 winter cereal that cover 30% of the study area, and a dense Mediterranean forest of dry-  
352 resistant deciduous oaks (*Q. faginea*) and holm oaks (*Quercus rotundifolia* and *Q. coccifera*)  
353 that occupy another 53%. Patches of Mediterranean shrubs (mainly *Buxus sempervirens*,  
354 *Juniperus oxycedrus* and *Rosmarinus officinalis*) and meadows cover 13% of the study area  
355 (Fig. 2b, c). The other 4% is associated with a small settlement, a man-made accumulation of  
356 rocks and the unpaved trail that connect the cultivated areas with the rest of the Estaña Lakes  
357 catchment.

358 Climate is continental Mediterranean with two humid periods, one in spring (April and  
359 May) and a second in autumn (September and October). Low summer precipitation causes  
360 summer droughts and long periods of low rainfall depth trigger severe damage in natural  
361 vegetation and crops. At Canelles weather station, located 8 km to the southeast of the study  
362 area, the mean annual precipitation for the reference period 1961-1990 considered by the  
363 World Meteorological Organization, was 520 mm whilst over the last fifteen years (1997-  
364 2011) it was 13% lower (454 mm) (data source: Ebro Basin Water Authorities). Annual  
365 precipitation has a strong inter-annual oscillation that for the period 1941–2011 was 378%.  
366 From an average number of 83 annual rainfall events only 11 had a precipitation above 12.7  
367 mm and could be considered as erosive events following the definition proposed by [Renard et](#)  
368 [al. \(1991\)](#). The average maximum rainfall intensity in 30 min,  $I_{30}$ , is higher than  $16 \text{ mm h}^{-1}$   
369 between May and October with highest values in August and September (ca.  $25 \text{ mm h}^{-1}$ ) and  
370 below  $7 \text{ mm h}^{-1}$  in winter months ([Fig. 2d, e](#)). All weather inputs were obtained from the  
371 values recorded every 15 minutes at Canelles weather station over a period of fifteen years  
372 (1997-2011).

373 The Estaña Lakes catchment has a complex geological and geomorphological history (see  
374 [López-Vicente et al., 2009](#) and [Pérez-Bielsa et al., 2012](#)) that explains the variety of the parent  
375 material of the soils: Mesozoic gypsiferous marls, dolomites, limestones and Holocene doline  
376 deposits. Six types of soils are distinguished using the FAO classification ([Machín et al.,](#)  
377 [2008](#)) that can be grouped into three main types: Calcisols (covering 60% of the total surface  
378 area, which is mainly cultivated), Leptosols (39% and covered with forest) and Regosols (1%)  
379 ([Fig. 2f](#)). Texture is mainly silty loam and in some parts sandy loam, loam and silty clay. A  
380 total number of 266 soil samples were collected using a regular 5x5 metre grid ([Fig. 2g](#)) in  
381 spring 2007. Samples were air-dried, ground, homogenized and quartered to pass through a 2  
382 mm sieve. The different inputs related to the soil properties were measured and calculated  
383 using the soil samples and direct measurements in the field (more details in [López-Vicente,](#)  
384 [2008](#)).

385 Large areas of this study site are affected by active soil erosion by water, as described in  
386 the literature (e.g. [Soto and Navas, 2008](#); [López-Vicente and Navas, 2009](#); [Gaspar et al.,](#)  
387 [2013](#)) with high rates of soil loss mainly having an impact on crops (ranging from almost zero  
388 to  $108 \text{ Mg / ha yr}$ ) and areas with low vegetation cover (unpaved trails, disperse scrublands)  
389 and those located on steep slopes. However, the magnitude of the erosion process varies  
390 significantly throughout the year and thus monthly values of soil erodibility and net soil loss  
391 also vary ([López-Vicente et al., 2008](#)). Active processes of sediment delivery and soil

392 redistribution along the hillslopes and the influence of man-made linear landscape elements  
393 (LLEs) on the processes of runoff accumulation and sediment trapping effectiveness have  
394 been also described in detail in this study area (López-Vicente et al., 2013; Navas et al.,  
395 2012). To assess the accuracy of the soil loss and deposition predictions with *SERT* and to  
396 perform the validation procedure, 133 control points (*CPs*) were established along the whole  
397 *Pilot catchment*. The *CPs* were located every two soil sampling sites using a regular 10x10  
398 metre grid to obtain 45 *CPs* for the cultivated area, 60 for the oak forest, 10 for the holm oak  
399 forest, 5 for the scrublands, 9 for the pastures and 4 for the unpaved trails and areas of bare  
400 soil. The extensive database available and the background of prior studies performed in the  
401 *Pilot catchment* provide an excellent frame to run and test the new *SERT* model in this  
402 location.

403

### 404 3. Results and discussion

#### 405 3.1. Runoff and Soil erosion

406 The initial runoff depth generated per raster cell,  $Q_0$ , reveals significant variations in time and  
407 space. As can be seen in Figure 3a, mirroring the spatial distribution of the different soil  
408 types, those areas with higher values of saturated hydraulic conductivity present the lowest  
409 values of annual runoff depth. This spatial trend remains constant throughout the twelve  
410 months of the year although the differences in the monthly values become more significant in  
411 the six month period from November to April, when the intensity of rainfall events decreases  
412 significantly. Runoff coefficients related to the values of  $Q_0$  are plotted in Figure 3b and show  
413 that no runoff is expected in Haplic Calcisols (*CLha*) for six months and in Rendzic Leptosols  
414 (*LPrz*) for five months. The average annual runoff coefficient decreases from 99.6% in Leptic  
415 Calcisols (*CLle*) to 97.8% in Haplic Calcisol with Haplic Leptosol (*CLha + LPha*) 57.8% in  
416 *LPrz* and 44.1% in *CLha*. These results highlight the key role played by the factors associated  
417 with the different soil types, especially the saturated hydraulic conductivity of the topsoil,  $K_{fs}$ ,  
418 see Eq. (1), to explain the temporal and spatial variability of time to ponding, initiation of  
419 runoff and total runoff depth. As for the average volume of water stored on the soil surface,  
420  $SS_{max-m}$  in Eq.(8), this varies between 4 and 7 mm due to the different tillage practices  
421 throughout the year. The *ALS* of the *SERT-Hy* module, see Eq. (29), was performed on the  
422 values of effective cumulative runoff ( $CQ_{eff}$ ) in October when the maximum values of  
423 overland flow occur, showing that sensitivity is greatest for the factors of upslope  
424 contributing area ( $ALS = 1.38$ ), slope steepness ( $ALS = 0.86$ ), soil roughness ( $ALS = 0.42$ ) and  
425 saturated hydraulic conductivity ( $ALS = 0.37$ ), and to a lesser extent, for the matrix flux

426 potential ( $ALS = 0.11$ ). The  $ALS$  of  $CQ_{eff}$  for the other inputs is low ( $ALS < 0$ ). In addition, in  
427 relation to the two most important factors, values of  $CQ_{eff}$  present high sensitivity in the  
428 ranges of low upslope contributing areas and high slope steepness.

429 The *SERT-Er* module predicted an average annual erosion rate of  $11.04 \text{ Mg ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  for  
430 the whole *Pilot catchment* (Fig. 4a). This value clearly exceeds the maximum tolerable rate of  
431  $1.4 \text{ Mg ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  proposed by Verheijen et al. (2009) for the prevalent conditions in European  
432 cultivated lands and hence poses a threat to the sustainability of this agro-ecosystem. The  
433 above-described spatial pattern of soil erosion remains almost constant throughout the year  
434 although average values vary significantly between low average erosion rates in January,  
435 February and July (below  $0.15 \text{ Mg ha}^{-1} \text{ month}^{-1}$ ) and the higher values in April, May,  
436 September, October and November (between  $0.8$  and  $1.9 \text{ Mg ha}^{-1} \text{ month}^{-1}$ ) (Fig. 4b). Monthly  
437 rainfall depths correlate well with monthly average and standard deviation ( $sd$ ) values of soil  
438 erosion in the whole catchment (Pearson's  $r = 0.96$  and  $0.85$ , respectively), whereas rainfall  
439 intensity correlates poorly with the average ( $r = 0.25$ ) and the  $sd$  values ( $r = 0.27$ ) of soil  
440 erosion. The same temporal pattern is observed in the percentages of eroded and non-eroded  
441 areas (Table 2). Soil erosion is mainly triggered in five months (April, May, September,  
442 October and November) totalling 86, 86, 84 and 80% of the total annual erosion in *CLha*,  
443 *CLha + LPha*, *CLle* and *LPrz*, respectively. The highest rates always occur in October but the  
444 temporal pattern of the values of soil erosion change in the case of different soil types (see  
445 bold numbers in Table 2). Additionally, no linear relationship has been found between the  
446 percentage of eroded area and the mean values of soil erosion, indicating the complexity of  
447 the processes of soil detachment and delivery. The percentage of soil surface affected by  
448 water erosion is very high and almost constant between April and October in the four soil  
449 types, whereas the largest areas without soil erosion are predicted in winter, with the largest  
450 surface without soil erosion occurring in March. The temporal patterns of runoff depth and  
451 soil erosion described with *SERT* mainly agree with those highlighted by López-Vicente et al.  
452 (2008) in cultivated lands of the Estaña Lakes catchment and by other authors in similar  
453 landscapes and climatic conditions (e.g. Renschler et al., 1999) although the *SERT* model  
454 emphasizes the monthly differences in the magnitude and extension of the soil affected by  
455 water erosion. This characteristic of the *SERT* model makes it more valuable to obtain a  
456 detailed assessment of the risk of soil erosion in each month and erosion period of the year.

457 Cultivated (*CLha* and *CLha + LPha*) and bare (*CLha + LPha*) soils are affected by intense  
458 processes of soil erosion and present average rates of  $20$  and  $10 \text{ Mg ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ , respectively.  
459 High values of soil erosion also affect the soils of the Mediterranean forest and oak forest ( $9.1$

460 and 8.2 Mg ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> on average, respectively) due to their location on steep slopes while  
461 pastures and scrublands display the lowest soil erosion values, with average rates of 1.7 and  
462 2.3 Mg ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. Predicted rates of soil erosion in the cropland of the *Pilot*  
463 *catchment* are in the same range of magnitude as those estimated with <sup>137</sup>Cs by Gaspar et al.  
464 (2013) and Navas et al. (2012) and with the *RMMF* model by López-Vicente and Navas  
465 (2010) in other cultivated soils in the Estaña Lakes catchment. The highest values appear in  
466 those areas where cumulative runoff and slope steepness reach high values and soil surface is  
467 bare during some months or throughout the whole year. We consider that further research  
468 should be done to improve the runoff connectivity estimation along the walls of the sinkhole  
469 where many blocks of limestone appear as well as cloggy soils (López-Vicente et al., 2009).  
470 In addition, it seems necessary to account for the processes of percolation as the study area  
471 presents karst processes that have not been considered in the estimation of the cumulative  
472 runoff depth. On a monthly basis and selecting the month of October which is when the  
473 highest values of soil erosion occur, the average linear sensitivity (*ALS*) of the predicted rates  
474 of soil erosion is greatest for the inputs of slope steepness (*ALS* = 4.62), effective cumulative  
475 runoff (*ALS* = 3.23) and the *C-RUSLE* factor (*ALS* = 1.19) and, in a minor way, for the soil  
476 cohesion (*ALS* = 0.56) and soil detachability (*ALS* = 0.25) factors. On the other hand, the *ALS*  
477 of the rates of soil erosion is below zero for plant height, canopy cover, rainfall interception  
478 and surface cover factors.

479

### 480 3.2. Soil Redistribution and modelling validation

481 Soil redistribution was estimated for each month of the year, revealing significant variations  
482 in the values and areas affected by soil loss and deposition (Fig. 5). The temporal variations in  
483 the magnitude of the values mirror the variability described in the monthly rates of soil  
484 erosion, although the spatial changes reflect the temporal and spatial variability in the rates of  
485 splash ( $F_m$ ) and runoff ( $H_m$ ) detachment, transport capacity ( $TC_m$ ), and remaining transport  
486 capacity ( $TC_{r-m}$ ). Stable areas, without processes of soil loss or deposition, are relatively  
487 frequent in January (2.6% of the total surface), February (1.3%), March (2.6%), July (1.3%),  
488 November (2.1%) and December (2.2%), whereas for the other six months the percentage  
489 remains ca. or below 1%. Predominantly, soil loss processes take place in February, June,  
490 July and August when the percentage of the soil surface affected by net soil loss is above  
491 85%, whereas soil deposition affects larger areas in March, April, May, September, October  
492 and December (between 28 and 51% of the soil surface). There is a positive correlation  
493 between the intensity of soil erosion processes and the surface of the bottom of the catchment

494 affected by sediment deposition (Pearson's  $r = 0.825$ ). These results show the complexity of  
495 the processes of soil loss and sediment delivery and deposition and contribute valuable  
496 information to previous studies relating to seasonal dynamics of runoff-contributing areas  
497 (Latron and Gallart, 2007) and sediment delivery (Navas et al., 2009) in the Spanish Pyrenees  
498 and other agricultural landscapes (e.g. Francia Martínez et al., 2006 in olive orchards).

499 On an average annual scale, the total surface of the *Pilot catchment* affected by soil loss is  
500 62% and has an average value of soil loss of  $10 \text{ Mg ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ , whereas the remaining surface  
501 presents a mean value of soil deposition of  $9 \text{ Mg ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  (Figure 6a). The abrupt changes  
502 between values of soil loss and deposition that occur in some parts of the study area can be  
503 explained by the effect of the landscape linear elements that interrupt sediment connectivity  
504 and by the changes in land uses. The performance of the model is satisfactory and provides  
505 statistically significant correlations for total soil redistribution (Pearson's  $r = 0.709$ ) and soil  
506 loss (Pearson's  $r = 0.652$ ). Predicted values of soil deposition have a lower however  
507 satisfactory correlation with quantified values with  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  (Pearson's  $r = 0.564$ ) (see Figure  
508 6b). Considering each sampling point as a test point, the Nash-Sutcliffe coefficient was 0.48,  
509 showing the good prediction ability of the *SERT* model and also highlighting the high quality  
510 of the modelling parameterization carried out in this study. The performance values have to  
511 be evaluated taking into account that the analytical precision of the measurements done with  
512  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  is approximately  $\pm 5\%$  and the processes of soil loss and deposition are modelled  
513 separately with the  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  measurements.

514 The analysis of soil redistribution for the different land uses was performed with both  
515 observed ( $^{137}\text{Cs}$ ) and predicted (*SERT-Rd*) values (see Table 3). Cultivated areas present high  
516 rates of both soil loss and deposition which, on average, range between  $-11$  and  $13 \text{ Mg ha}^{-1}$   
517  $\text{yr}^{-1}$ . The standard deviation values are also high. Conversely, mean rates of soil loss and  
518 deposition in rangeland are much lower and high rates only appear on small patches. These  
519 values reveal the heterogeneity of the processes of soil redistribution in the *Pilot catchment*.  
520 Finally, the sediment balance predicted with the *SERT-Rd* model was  $-1.15 \text{ Mg yr}^{-1}$  and the  
521 observed balance of soil redistribution with  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  was  $-0.59 \text{ Mg yr}^{-1}$ . Both values are similar,  
522 negative and close to zero and can be considered to be a good estimation since the *Pilot*  
523 *catchment* is an endorheic area affected by moderate karst processes. As the topographic  
524 characteristics of the study area enable the accurate estimation of the sediment balance, the  
525 predictions of the *SERT* model should be improved in further research, considering the  
526 processes of percolation of fine particles on the lowlands where the sinkhole is slightly active,  
527 the deposition of soil particles in the cloggy soils, and the occurrence of tillage erosion. In



528 order to broaden the use of the *SERT* model in other study areas, further research will also  
529 focus on developing a calibration module using the  $\beta$  factor, Eq. (15), for monitored  
530 catchments where data of sediment delivered in gullies and river systems are available.

531

#### 532 **4. Conclusions**

533 The *SERT* model has proved to be an accurate model for small and medium-size catchments  
534 to estimate monthly and annual rates of runoff depth, soil erosion and sediment redistribution,  
535 taking advantage of current GIS-based techniques. The ability of the new model to  
536 discriminate stable areas and the high sensitivity of the model to predict different spatial and  
537 temporal patterns of initial runoff, total runoff depth, and soil loss and deposition makes the  
538 *SERT* model a useful tool for soil and hydrologic simulations. With a total number of 24 input  
539 parameters, the *SERT* model requires a significantly lower number of inputs than other  
540 spatially distributed and temporal continuous models, and thus the new approach can be easily  
541 run for studies of soil erosion risk, especially in areas with limited information. In addition,  
542 the four-module structure of the *SERT* model makes it adaptable to any method that can  
543 provide accurate rates of cumulative runoff and net soil loss and deposition throughout the  
544 catchment or at the outlet. After validation with  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  derived rates the performance and good  
545 parameterization of the *SERT* model has been successfully proved. Finally, the application of  
546 the new model in the *Pilot catchment* has provided valuable information on the processes of  
547 soil saturation, runoff and soil redistribution that can be used in other agro-ecosystems. In  
548 order to extend the use of the *SERT* model we are currently developing a module for open-  
549 source and free *SAGA GIS* software that will be called *SERT-2013 SAGA v1.0*. This module is  
550 built using C++ code and contains all scientific methods and equations, and is presented in a  
551 user-friendly interface that will be of interest to the scientific and academic community. The  
552 module will be available at our research centre website in autumn 2013.

553

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561

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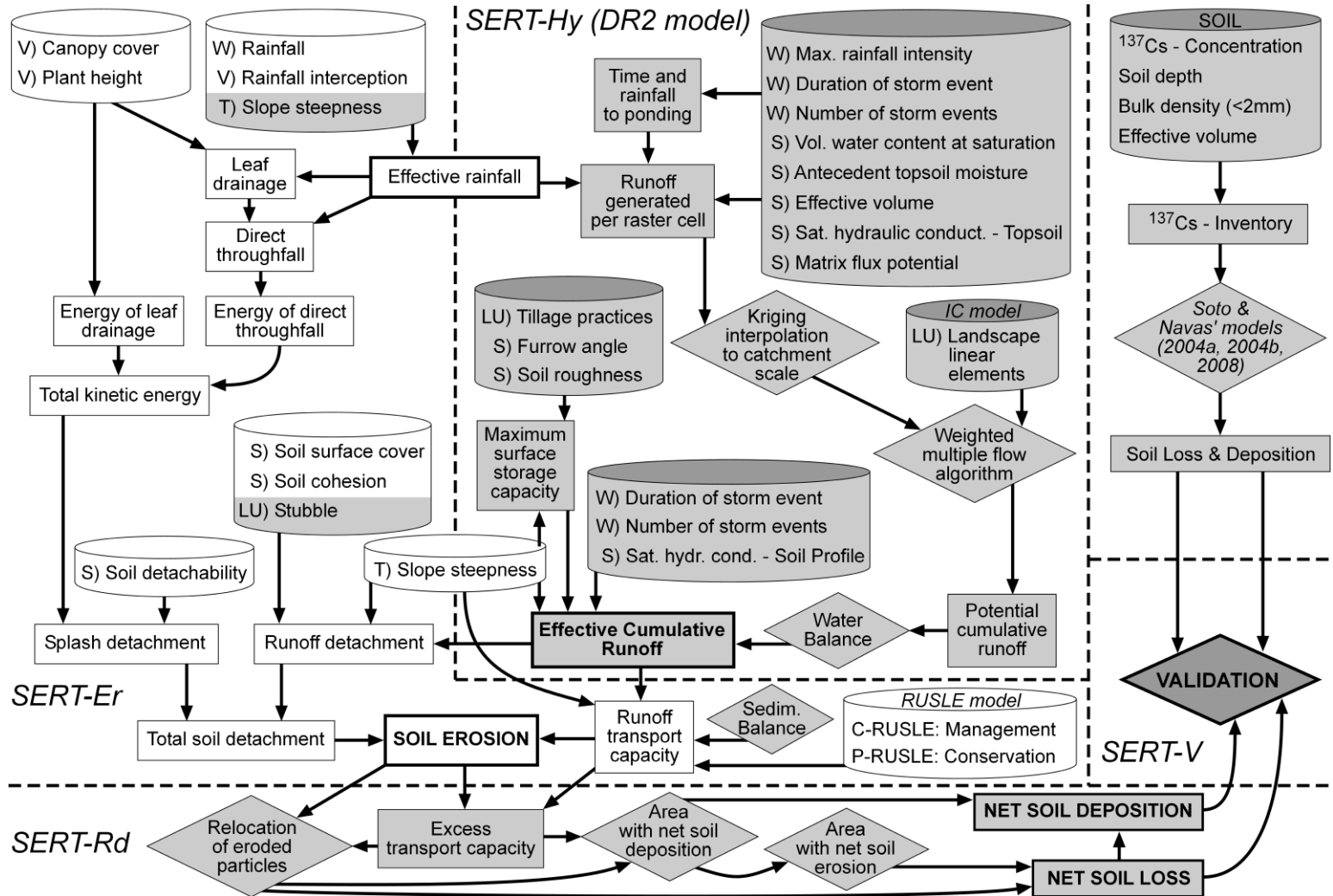
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690 **Figure 1** Flowchart of the *SERT* model. White shapes are based on the *RMMF* model (Morgan, 2001) and grey shapes are specific of the *SERT* model. *SERT-Hy*: Hydrologic  
 691 module; *SERT-Er*: Soil erosion module; *SERT-Rd*: Soil redistribution module. *V*: Vegetation; *W*: Weather; *T*: Topography; *S*: Soil; *LU*: Land use.



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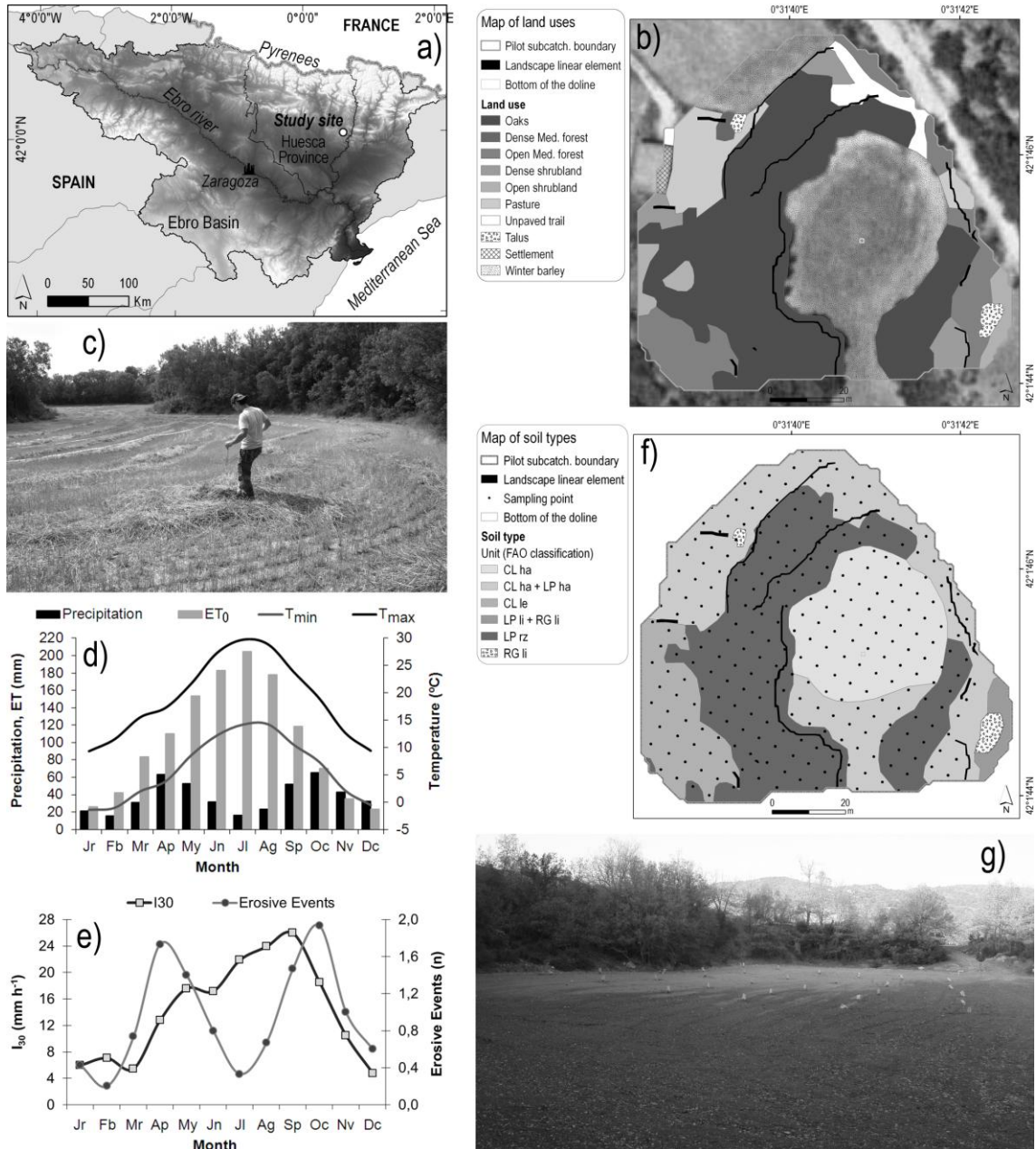
695 **Table 1** Input parameters of the *SERT* model and their temporal variability.

Type of data	Input	Description	Monthly variation
Climatic	$R_m$	Rainfall depth (mm)	Yes
	$I_m$	Maximum rainfall intensity ( $\text{cm s}^{-1}$ )	Yes
	$TR_m$	Average duration of a storm event (s)	Yes
	$e_m$	Number of erosive rainfall events (n)	Yes
Soil	$\theta_{\text{seff}}$	Effective volumetric water content at saturation (% vol.)	No
	$\theta_{0m}$	Volumetric water content at field conditions (% vol.)	Yes
	$Vol_{\text{eff}}$	Effective volume of the soil (%)	No
	$K_{fs}$	Saturated hydraulic conductivity ( $\text{cm s}^{-1}$ )	No
	$\Phi$	Matrix flux potential ( $\text{cm}^2 \text{s}^{-1}$ )	No
	SIG	Surface soil and surface furrow angle (radian)	No
	$RG_m$	Soil surface roughness (mm)	Yes
	K	Soil detachability index ( $\text{g J}^{-1}$ )	No
	$GC_m$	Ground cover, e.g. rocks, litter, stubble (%)	Yes
	COH	Soil cohesion (kPa)	No
	$BD_f$	Bulk density of fine fraction (<2 mm) ( $\text{Mg m}^{-3}$ ) – only used in the $^{137}\text{Cs}$ model	No
Topography	S	Slope steepness (radian)	No
	MD	Multiple flow accumulation algorithm	No
Land use	LLE	Landscape linear elements (mask)	No
	Tll-Prc	Tillage practices (mask)	Yes
	C	Crop management factor of the RUSLE model (0 – 1)	Yes
	P	Support practices factor of the RUSLE model (0 – 1)	No
Vegetation	$A_m$	Rainfall interception by canopy (%)	Yes
	$CC_m$	Canopy cover (%)	Yes
	$PH_m$	Plant height (m)	Yes

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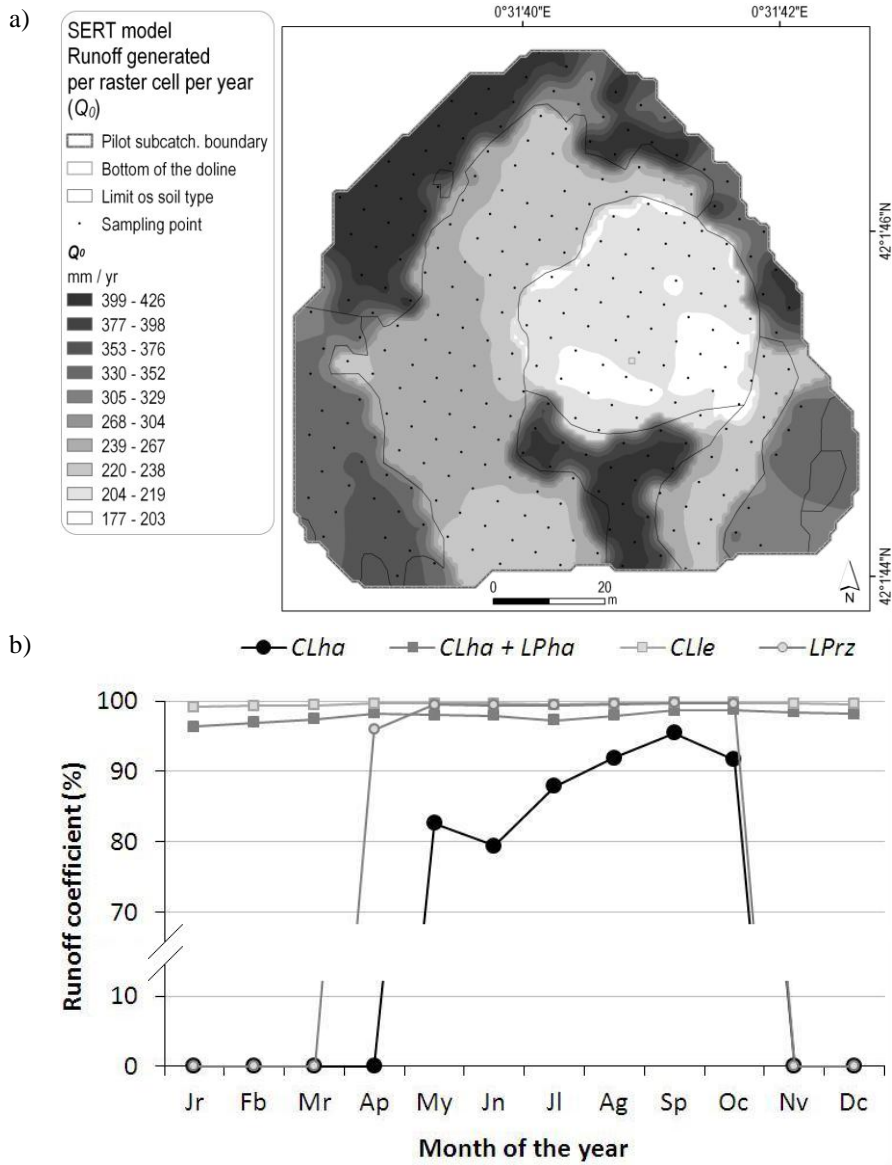
698 **Figure 2** Location of the study area in NE Spain within the Ebro River Basin (a), map of land uses (b), photo of  
 699 the cereal crop and oak forest (c) monthly values of rainfall and evapotranspiration depth and temperature (d),  
 700 monthly values of rainfall intensity and number of erosive events (e), map of the different soil types with the  
 701 location of the soil sampling points (f) and photo of the soil sampling survey (g). *CLha*: Haplic Calcisol; *CLha* +  
 702 *LPha*: Haplic Calcisol + Haplic Leptosol; *CLle*: Leptic Calcisol; *LPli* + *RGli*: Lithic Leptosol + Lithic Regosol;  
 703 *LPrz*: Rendzic Leptosol; *RGli*: Lithic Regosol.



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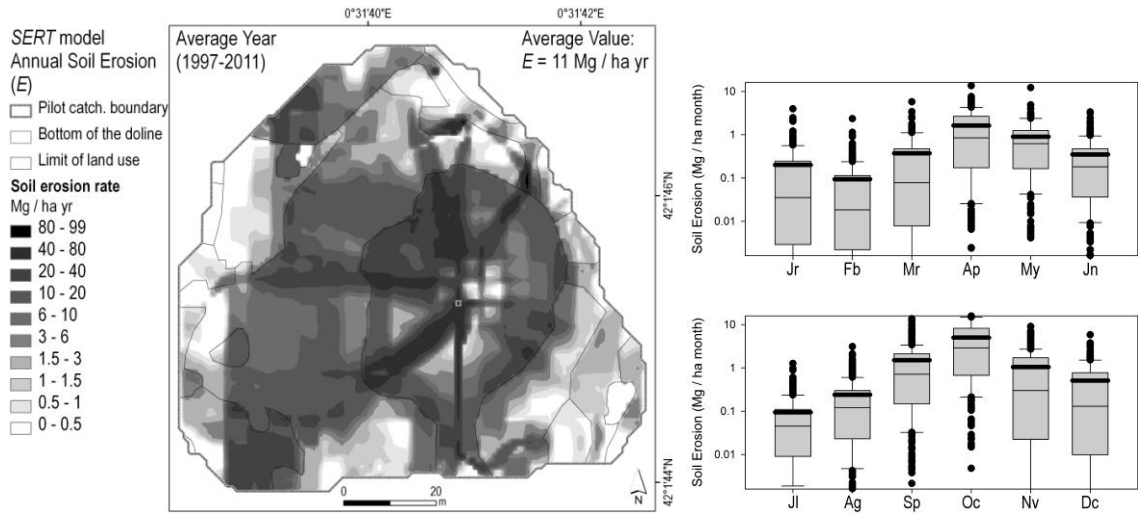
706 **Figure 3** Map of the total annual runoff generated per raster cell (a) and monthly average runoff coefficients for  
 707 the different soil types (b): *CLha*: Haplic Calcisol; *CLha+LPha*: Haplic Calcisol + Haplic Leptosol; *CLle*: Leptic  
 708 Calcisol; *LPrz*: Rendzic Leptosol.



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711 **Figure 4** Map of average annual soil erosion (*SERT-Er*) at the *Pilot catchment* (a) and boxplots of the monthly  
 712 rates of soil erosion at the soil sampling points (b). The Y axis of the boxplots are in logarithmic scale and  
 713 horizontal lines represent the 10%, 25%, 50%, 75%, 90% and average values. All outliers are included.



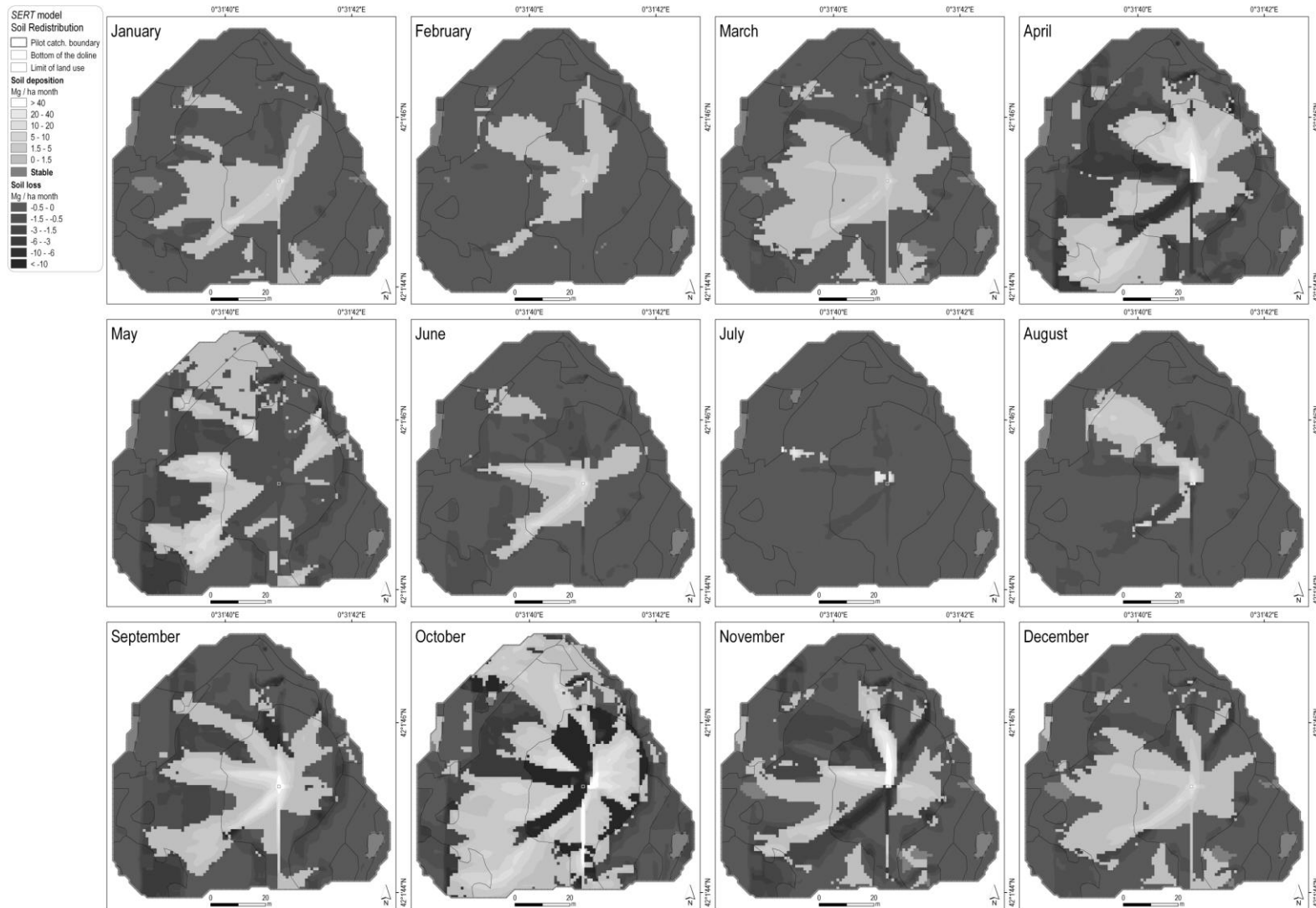
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717 **Table 2** Percentage of eroded area within each type of soil for each month of the year and mean and standard  
718 deviation values of predicted soil erosion with the *SERT* model. *CLha*: Haplic Calcisol; *CLha+LPha*: Haplic  
719 Calcisol + Haplic Leptosol; *CLle*: Leptic Calcisol; *LPrz*: Rendzic Leptosol.

Month	Soil type and number of soil samples											
	<i>CL ha</i> (n=58)			<i>CL ha + LP ha</i> (n=80)			<i>CL le</i> (n=26)			<i>LP rz</i> (n=102)		
	%Ea*	m**	sd***	%Ea	m	sd	%Ea	m	sd	%Ea	m	sd
Jan	97.4	0.28	0.45	97.4	0.13	0.40	99.3	0.16	0.25	94.5	0.18	0.29
Feb	100.0	0.13	0.20	98.1	0.06	0.20	100.0	0.08	0.11	99.8	0.09	0.15
Mar	96.8	0.45	0.68	97.1	0.22	0.66	99.3	0.40	0.57	92.8	0.39	0.54
Apr	98.8	<b>2.25</b>	2.47	98.1	<b>0.89</b>	1.75	100.0	<b>2.04</b>	2.51	100.0	<b>1.62</b>	1.20
May	100.0	0.58	0.37	98.1	0.42	0.91	100.0	<b>1.36</b>	1.67	100.0	<b>1.25</b>	0.96
Jun	100.0	0.55	0.73	98.1	0.20	0.47	100.0	0.33	0.41	100.0	0.39	0.42
Jul	100.0	0.21	0.28	98.1	0.06	0.16	100.0	0.06	0.07	100.0	0.08	0.11
Aug	100.0	0.52	0.68	98.1	0.15	0.39	100.0	0.15	0.19	100.0	0.21	0.26
Sep	100.0	<b>3.02</b>	3.93	98.1	<b>0.88</b>	2.19	100.0	<b>1.31</b>	1.60	100.0	<b>1.31</b>	1.07
Oct	100.0	<b>11.15</b>	4.94	98.1	<b>4.22</b>	5.59	100.0	<b>2.78</b>	3.07	100.0	<b>2.20</b>	1.73
Nov	97.0	<b>1.91</b>	2.28	97.2	<b>0.70</b>	1.48	99.3	0.86	1.13	93.4	0.75	0.89
Dec	97.7	0.87	1.14	97.4	0.34	0.82	99.3	0.43	0.60	93.4	0.43	0.57
Year	100.0	21.92	16.01	98.1	8.27	12.88	100.0	9.96	11.60	100.0	8.88	7.12

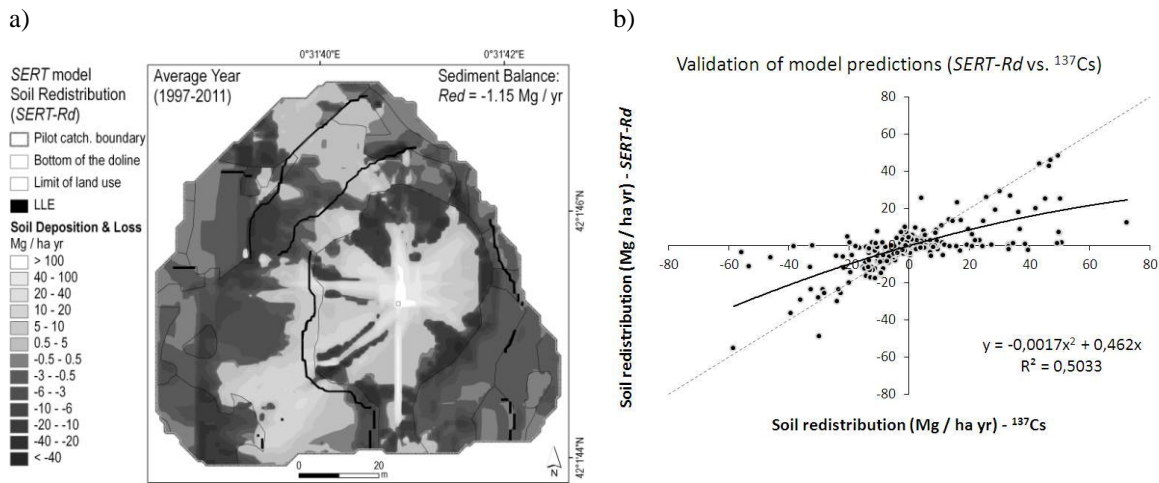
720 %Ea\* : Percentage of eroded area; m\*\* : mean value of soil erosion; and sd\*\*\* : standard deviation value of soil  
721 erosion

722 **Figure 5** Maps of soil redistribution at the Pilot catchment for each month of the year estimated with the *SERT* model.



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724 **Figure 6** Map of average annual soil redistribution estimated with the *SERT* model (a) and correlation between  
 725 predicted (*SERT-Rd*) and measured ( $^{137}\text{Cs}$ ) values of soil loss and deposition (b). *LLE*: Landscape Linear  
 726 Element.



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729 **Table 3** Soil redistribution rates (in  $\text{Mg ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ ) quantified with  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  and predicted with the *SERT* model  
 730 (*SERT-Rd* module) for the different land uses and in the control points.

Land use		$^{137}\text{Cs}$			<i>SERT-Rd</i>				
		n*	min	mean	max	n*	min	mean	max
Cultivated	Loss	19	1.9	29.4	63.9	48	0.1	10.9	36.3
	Dep.	26	0.4	24.8	136.5	43	0.2	13.4	48.3
Rangeland	Loss	41	0.1	9.4	107.4	111	0.1	4.7	55.3
	Dep.	46	0.2	7.8	178.9	57	0.1	3.3	13.5
	Stable	1	0.0	0.0	0.0	7	0.0	0.0	0.0
Total in	Loss	60	0.1	15.8	107.4	159	0.1	6.6	55.3
Pilot	Dep.	72	0.2	14.1	178.9	100	0.1	7.7	48.3
sub-catchment	Stable	1	0.0	0.0	0.0	7	0.0	0.0	0.0

731 n\* : Number of control points in each land use

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