

1 LIVESTOCK REDISTRIBUTE RUNOFF AND SEDIMENTS IN SEMI-ARID
2 RANGELAND AREAS

3 Sarah Pariente* and Zonana Moy

4 Laboratory of Geomorphology and Soil, Department of Geography and environment, Bar
5 Ilan University, Israel

6 * Corresponding author. E-mail: Sarah.Pariente@biu.ac.il

7 **ABSTRACT**

8 Semi-arid areas where grazing is the main land use exhibit a "three-phase-mosaic" pattern
9 of dominant surface patches: shrubs, trampling routes, and intershrub areas. This pattern
10 differs from the "two-phase mosaic" seen in grazing-free semi-arid areas. The patches
11 might create a positive feedback process in which enhanced infiltration beneath shrubs
12 minimizes overland flow from under their canopies, thereby strengthening the
13 sink/source mechanism by which overland flow generated between shrubs rapidly
14 infiltrates into the soil beneath them, where it deposits soil particles, litter, nutrients and
15 organic matter, thereby enhancing infiltration by changing the local microtopography,
16 and improving soil properties. To analyze sink/source relationships among the patches in
17 grazed areas in rangelands of the semi-arid northern Negev region of Israel we
18 constructed small runoff plots, 0.25–1.0 m² in area, of five types: shrub (*Sarcopoterium*
19 *spinosum*)-(~~SH~~); intershrub-(~~IS~~); and route-(~~RU~~); route/shrub combination-(~~RS~~); and
20 intershrub/shrub combination-(~~SI~~). The shrubs always occupied the downslope part of the
21 plot. Overland flow and sediment deposits were measured in all plots during 2007/8 and
22 2008/9. The combined plots ~~SI and SR~~—yielded much less overland flow and

23 sediments than intershrubs, RU-routes and SHshrub ones, indicating that the shrubs
24 absorbed almost all the yields of the upper part of their plots. The shrubs generated less
25 runoff and sediments than routes and intershrubs; runoff flows from the routes and
26 intershrubs were similar; sediment yield was highest in the intershrubs. Thus, runoff yield
27 exhibited a two-phase mosaic pattern, and sediment yield, i.e., soil erosion, a three-phase
28 mosaic pattern.

29

30 **1. INTRODUCTION**

31 Grazing has been seen as one of the key causative factors of desertification in semi-arid
32 ecosystems (Cerdà et al., 2010), because of the increases in soil erosion and runoff
33 discharge, caused, in turn, by exhaustion of the vegetation and the encroachment of bushy
34 plants (Angassa, 2012). This has led to use of enclosure to control grazing intensity
35 (Mekuria and Aynekulu, 2013), and to control of stocking rates (Vetter and Bond, 2012).

36 However, land management is now being seen as the main cause of land degradation and
37 desertification (Bennet et al., 2012), and grazing more as a solution than a problem, if the
38 management is appropriate (Álvarez-Martínez et al., ~~2013~~, ~~2014~~) ~~to avoid wildfires,~~
39 ~~which are the cause of intense soil erosion (Lasanta and Cerdà, 2005)~~. Some authors
40 found that grazing is a sustainable and necessary land use (Shang et al., 2014) to maintain
41 a healthy environment (Jones et al., 2014; Mulale et al., 2014, Carreiras et al., 2014).

42 Grazing can involve positive impacts on ecosystems such as increasing the total bud bank
43 density and stimulating plant growth (Qian et al., 2014), managing the biomass, restoring
44 pastures invaded by shrubs (Álvarez-Martínez et al., 2013), to avoid wildfires, which are
45 the cause of intense soil erosion (Lasanta and Cerdà, 2005). Arid and semi-arid

46 environments are characterized by a non-uniform ground surface cover, comprising
47 various components such as vegetation, bare soil, exposed bedrock, rock fragments, and
48 crusts (Cerdà, 1997; Lavee et al., 1998; Calvo-Cases et al., 2003; Arnau-Rosalén et al.,
49 2008; Dickie and Parsons, 2012; Kakemboey al., 2012; Kröpfl et al., 2013). Each
50 component constitutes a separate microenvironment, with its own pedological,
51 hydrological, ecological and geomorphological behavior (Yair and Lavee, 1985; Li and
52 Sarah, 2003), driven by complex interactions and feedbacks (Sarah, 2003). The spatial
53 distribution of the microenvironments is a main key, on the one hand, to understanding
54 the various eco-geomorphic processes that shape the landscape, on the other hand, and to
55 explaining the complex hydrology of semi-arid environments. The effect of the patchy
56 distribution of vegetation on hillslope hydrology and soil erosion found to be more
57 pronounced than that of the hillslope position (Cerdà, 1998a). The strongly coupled
58 ecological-hydrological system of vegetation and open areas is of great importance in
59 analyzing these processes, because of the patchy distribution within the landscape of
60 essential resources such as water, soil particles, organic matter, and nutrients (Bergkamp,
61 1998). This patchiness creates a complex matrix of source-sink microenvironments
62 (Bergkamp, 1998; Puigdefabregas et al., 1999), in which the shrub patches act as sinks
63 for water and water-borne resources, and patches of bare soil act as sources (Yair and
64 Lavee, 1985; Cerdà, 1998a; Lavee et al., 1998; Li and Sarah, 2003; Calvo-Cases et al.,
65 2003). This matrix supports a positive-feedback process: the enhanced infiltration
66 beneath shrub patches minimizes overland flow under their canopies and thereby
67 strengthens the sink/source mechanism by which overland flow generated in the bare-soil
68 patches rapidly infiltrates into the soil beneath the shrubs (Bergkamp, 1998; Lavee et al.,

69 1998; Sarah, 2002; Calvo-Cases et al., 2003; Ben-Shmuel, 2005), where it deposits soil
70 particles, litter, nutrients and organic matter which, in turn, enhance the infiltration rate in
71 the shrub patches by changing their micro-topography (Stavi et al., 2008a) and improving
72 the texture, structure and aggregate stability, porosity, fertility and chemical composition
73 of their soil (Puigdefabregas and Sanchez, 1996; Cerdà, 1998d; Rietkerk et al., 2002;
74 Calvo- Cases et al., 2003). Patchiness of plants, which affects the soil aggregate stability,
75 found to be one of the key factors of reinforcement of the eco-geomorphic system (Cerdà,
76 1998d). Thus, patchiness represents a self-organized hillslope system, which maximizes
77 harvesting of runoff, minimizes losses of sediment and nutrients, and thereby retains
78 water and soil resources within the system (Shachak et al., 1998; Tongway and Ludwig,
79 2003).The spatial distribution of these two patch types was designated as a two-phase
80 mosaic by many authors (e.g., Bergkamp, 1998; Eddy et al., 1999; Galle et al., 1999;
81 Ludwig et al., 1999). This pattern has been shown to have significant consequences for
82 the water-infiltration characteristics of semi-arid hillslopes (Abrahams and Parsons,
83 1991) because the vegetation in these environments is sustained by overland flow from
84 bare soil in the open spaces between shrubs (Puigdefabregas and Sanchez, 1996). On
85 hillslopes subject to grazing, as in the northern Negev region of Israel, the mosaic pattern
86 is more complicated: the open spaces between shrubs comprise two components, i.e.,
87 areas with herbaceous vegetation, separated by trampling routes that support no
88 vegetation. Therefore, the clearly visible routes were considered to differ from the
89 remainder of the intershrub area with regard to pedohydrological characteristics, and
90 were designated as a third type of surface cover, in addition to the shrubs and herbaceous

91 areas; grazing induces a modification of semi-arid rangelands from two-phase to three-
92 phase mosaic geo-ecosystems (Sarah, 2009; Stavi et al., 2012).

93 Conclusions regarding the redistribution of runoff and sediments in rangelands were
94 based on theoretical deductions derived from pedohydrological properties such as
95 hydraulic conductivity (Bromley et al., 1997), infiltration capacity (Eldridge et al., 2000),
96 soil moisture (Sarah, 2002; Katra et al., 2007) and organic matter contents (Sarah, 2006),
97 penetration resistance (Manzano and Navar, 2000; Stavi et al., 2008b), vegetation
98 properties (Puigdefabregas et al., 1998; Shachak et al., 1998; Golodets and Boeken,
99 2006), or simulation models (Ludwig et al., 1999; Puigdefabregas et al., 1999).

100 Many studies have dealt with the causes and processes of runoff generation and
101 sediment movement in semi-arid environments (e.g., Yair and Lavee, 1981, 1985; Cerda,
102 1998a,b, c; Lavee et al., 1998; Calvo-Cases et al., 2003; Arnau-Rosalén et al., 2008).
103 These processes include leakage of water and resources from the ecosystem (Shachak et
104 al., 1998), and preservation of water and resources by retention in shrub or vegetation
105 patches on hillslopes (Bromley et al., 1997; Bergkamp, 1998; Puigdefabregas et al., 1998,
106 1999; Ludwig et al., 1999). Most of these studies have been based on rainfall simulation
107 experiments in the field (Yair and Lavee, 1981, 1985; Lavee et al., 1991; Parsons et al.,
108 1992; Bergkamp, 1998; Cerda, 1998c; Calvo-Cases et al., 2003; Arnau-Rosalén et al.,
109 2008) or in the laboratory (Bryan, 2000); others have been based on visual estimations
110 (Bromley et al., 1997; Bergkamp, 1998). Furthermore, studies on runoff and
111 sedimentation processes under natural rainfall conditions were conducted on medium and
112 relatively large scales, i.e., part or all of the hillslope or catchment (e.g., Puigdefabregas
113 et al., 1998, 1999; Bergkamp, 1998; Parsons et al., 1992); virtually all the studies based

114 on small-scale runoff plots in the field used simulated rainfall and resembled one another
115 in the means of application: they involved rainfall intensity of 50-55 mm h⁻¹ during 45–
116 60 min (Imeson et al., 1996; Cerdà, 1998b; Calvo-Cases et al., 2003; Arnau-Rosalén et
117 al., 2008).

118 In spite of the numerous studies cited above, in a survey of hydrological and erosion
119 data obtained under natural or simulated rainfall on limestone landscapes in various
120 Mediterranean environments in the last 15 years, Calvo-Cases et al. (2003) found that,
121 although several different environmental factors- climate, topography, lithology, soil
122 surface cover, land use- were addressed, only a few studies took grazing into account.

123 The objectives of the present paper were: to confirm the role of shrub (*Sarcopoterium*
124 *spinosum*) patches as sinks for water (rainfall and overland flows) and sediments, and the
125 role of the open areas between shrubs (routes and the remaining intershrub patches) as
126 sources under natural rainfall, in rangelands of the northern Negev in Israel; and to
127 determine to what extent the patches differ in their overland flow generation and
128 sediment production in this area. It was hypothesized that: the three types of surface
129 cover/patches would differ in their responses to rainfall; the routes and the shrubs,
130 respectively, would yield the highest and lowest outputs of overland flow and sediments,
131 with those from the intershrubs falling between them.

132

133 **2. MATERIALS AND METHODS**

134 *2.1. Study Area*

135 The research was conducted in the Goral Hills in the northern Negev region of Israel
136 (Fig. 1). This is a hilly, semi-arid area, lying 350–500 m, with mean annual precipitation

137 of 300 mm, most of which falls during the cold season – October–May (Perevolotsky
138 and Landau, 1988; Osem et al., 2002). The winter is cold and rainy, with average daily
139 temperature in January, the coldest month, of 10° C; the summer is hot and dry, with
140 average daily temperature in August, the hottest month, of 25° C. Relative humidity
141 ranges between 51% in May and 68% in January (Bitan and Rubín, 1991; Bar'am, 1996).
142 The lithology is chalk and limestone of the Eocene (Ravikovich, 1981, cited in Osem et
143 al., 2002). The soil, Leptosols, is shallow, generally not deeper than 20 and 40 cm in open
144 spaces between shrubs and under shrubs, respectively, except in rock fissures. The color
145 of dry soil is pale brown (7.5 YR 6/3) and that of wet soil is brown (7.5 YR 4/3); the
146 texture, on average, is clay-loamy in which the primary particle-size distribution is 20–
147 30% clay, 40–50% silt and 30% sand (Zwikel et al., 2007). The cation-exchange capacity
148 (CEC) is 16 meq per 100 g in the uppermost (0–5 cm) layer, and the cation distribution in
149 this layer (in meq per 100 g) is Ca²⁺, 12.9; Mg²⁺, 0.5; K⁺, 1.3; and Na⁺, 0.7. The
150 dominant clay type is smectite, and the stone content is about 15–30% (Dan and
151 Koyumdjisky, 1979; Zwikel et al., 2007). The mean gradient of the hillslopes is 15°. The
152 study area, like many other semi-arid areas of the Old World, has been grazed by flocks
153 of sheep and goats since prehistoric times, i.e., for 5000–8000 years, therefore the
154 vegetation mainly comprises grazing-tolerant species (Noy-Meir and Seligman, 1987).
155 The vegetation physiognomy comprises sparse shrubland containing a patchy distribution
156 of vegetation, biological crusts, exposed bedrock, and bare soil. The vegetation includes:
157 (a) dwarf shrubs, mainly *Sarcopoterium spinosum*, *Coridothymus capitatus*, and
158 *Thymelaea hirsute*; (b) perennial grasses and forbs, mainly *Asphodelus ramosus* and *Poa*
159 *bulbosa*; and (c) annual herbaceous vegetation (Osem et al., 2002). The research area is

160 occupied by flock trampling routes, shrubs, and intershrub spaces, which cover 22, 17,
161 and 61%, respectively, of the landscape (Stavi et al., 2008b).

162

163 Fig. 1.

164

165 2.2. Field work

166 Observations in the research area have revealed three main types of surface cover: shrubs,
167 flock trampling routes, and intershrub areas (Fig. 2).

168

169 Fig. 2.

170

171 In order to confirm the sink/source relations among the dominant types of surface cover,
172 several different small runoff plots, of area ranging from 0.25 to 1.0 m², were constructed
173 on the central parts (backslopes) of south-facing hillslopes: three of them contained
174 shrub, *Sarcopoterium spinosum* (SH), intershrub (IS), and route (RU), respectively; two
175 contained combinations of route and shrub (~~RSSR~~), and of intershrub patches and shrubs
176 (SI), with the shrub(s) always located in the lower part of the plot (Fig. 3). For each type
177 of plot three replicates were constructed.

178

179 Fig. 3.

180

181 The plots were bounded by concrete walls, 3–5 cm high, pegged to the ground and
182 embedded 2 cm into the soil. A pipe, through which water was collected into a bucket
183 embedded in the ground, was fitted at the topographically lower end of each plot.

184 Each bucket had a capacity of 10.5 L, to ensure collection of the whole runoff yield
185 from 'bare ground' plots in heavy storms. In order to avoid loss of water in small rain
186 events, small, 1-L receivers were mounted inside the buckets just beneath the entry pipes,
187 and whenever the volume of collected runoff water did not exceed the capacity of the
188 small receivers, they alone were taken to the laboratory. After each rain event, the
189 buckets containing runoff water and sediment were replaced in the field, and were taken
190 to the laboratory for determination of the gross weight of the runoff and sediment yields.

191 The amount of rainfall was measured by four small rain-gauges mounted
192 perpendicularly to the slope, near the runoff plots, in order to measure the actual rainfall
193 in the area.

194 *2.3. Laboratory work and statistical analysis*

195 The total yields of runoff and sediment were determined by weighing, on the assumption
196 that 1 mL of water weighs 1 g. The sediment yield was calculated by oven-drying the
197 runoff water for 24 h at 105° C, and weighing the sediments left in the vessel. The
198 sediment yield (g) was then subtracted from the total weight of (runoff water plus
199 sediment), in order to determine the runoff volume (mL). Statistical analyses were
200 applied with EXCEL and SAS software. The runoff and sediment data were subjected to
201 Duncan's non-parametric Multiple-Range test (Duncan, 1955) at the $p < 0.05$ level of
202 significance, to determine significant differences between microenvironments.

203

204 **3. RESULTS**

205 *3.1. Rainfall*

206 In the 2007/8 and 2008/9 rainy seasons the rainfall amounts reached 178.8 and 143.2
207 mm, respectively, which are below the annual average in the research area, i.e., 300 mm.
208 In each season, most of the rain fell in January and February, i.e., more than 50% of the
209 season's total rainfall fell during these two months (Fig. 4).

210

211 Fig. 4.

212

213 *3.2. Runoff yield*

214 ~~During-In~~ the two consecutive winters, 2007/8 and 2008/9, ~~it was found that~~ the minimal
215 amount of rainfall, ~~that which could~~ generate runoff in the ~~research study~~ area was ~~about~~
216 ca 4 mm (Table 1). Among the 17 rain events in the season of 2007/8, overland flow was
217 generated in only 10 events, and in the winter of 2008/9, runoff was generated in seven
218 out of nine rain events. ~~In both years, the minimal rainfall amount for the generation of~~
219 ~~runoff in the research area was ca. 4 mm (Table 1)~~.

220

221 Tab. 1

222

223 Figure 5 shows the mean annual specific runoff yield (the volume of runoff per
224 square meter) at the various plots for each year. For each plot the annual mean was based
225 on the results of three replicates. It can be seen that the runoff generated in the various
226 plots showed similar trends in all years: the combined plots – SI, SR and SH – yielded
227 significantly less runoff than IS and RU, which yielded similar amounts to one another.

228
229 Fig. 5.
230

231 3.3. Sediment Yield

232 Figure 6 shows the mean annual specific sediment yields (the weight of sediments per
233 square meter) at the various plots for each year. Those of IS and RU were significantly
234 higher than those of the combined plots, SI, SR and SH.

235 Among the various patch types: the highest specific sediment yield was obtained in
236 IS, that in RU was lower, although not significantly so, and that in SH was significantly
237 the lowest. This trend was observed in each year.

238
239 Fig. 6.
240

241 4. DISCUSSION

242 4.1. Patch functions

243 A clear difference was apparent between the RU-route and the IS-intershrib plots, on the
244 one hand, and the combined plots – SI-shrub+intershrub, and RS-shrub+route – on the
245 other hand (Figs 5, 6). The IS-intershrib plot yielded about 7 and 48 times more specific
246 runoff and sediment deposits, respectively, than the combined SI-shrub+intershrub plot;

247 and the RU-route plot yielded 6 and 28 times more specific runoff and sediment deposits,
248 respectively, than the combined RS-shrub+route plot. These relations were attributed
249 primarily to the presence of shrubs in the combined plots: runoff and sediments that
250 developed in the "bare" soil reached the shrubs, where a great part of them were trapped
251 by the shrub and settled in situ, while the remaining – minor – part continued to flow.
252 This ability of the shrubs to collect runoff resulted from the combined effects of several
253 processes that enhance infiltration: the shrub canopy and the litter beneath it soften direct
254 raindrop impact on the soil and dissipate their kinetic energy, thereby preventing
255 formation of mechanical crusts and, in turn, enhancing infiltration (Rostango and del
256 Valle, 1988; Dunkerley and Brown, 1995; Bromley et al., 1997). Moreover, shrubs act as
257 a physical barrier that moderates overland flow velocity and continuity (Sanchez and
258 Puigdefabregas, 1994); consequently they trap soil and litter (Bergkamp, 1998; Shachak
259 et al., 1998), forming soil mounds (Rostango and del Valle., 1988; Parsons et al., 1992)
260 and thereby changing the surface microtopography, and soil texture and bulk density
261 (Van Haveren, 1983; Trimble and Mendel 1995; Stavi et al., 2008b, 2009). The combined
262 physical, chemical and biological effects of shrub roots (Archer et al., 2002) and soil
263 biological activity (Garner and Steinberger, 1989) improve soil organic matter content
264 and structure (Oades, 1984; Sarah and Rodeh, 2004; Sarah, 2006), which reduces bulk
265 density even more (Dunkerley and Brown, 1995), and creates macropores, in which water
266 flows vertically at relative high rates (Bromley et al., 1997). Furthermore, in the study
267 area the deepest soil was found beneath the shrubs. In addition, in a study conducted in a
268 rangeland in the same region, Stavi et al. (2008a) suggested that loose sediments reached
269 the upward-facing part of the downhill-located shrub, reduce the surface gradient and

270 increase soil porosity, with the result that runoff velocity is reduced and continuity is
271 interrupted, both of which enhance infiltration capacity (Bergkamp, 1998; Shachak et al.,
272 1998).

273 The actual yields of runoff and sediments that were obtained in the present study
274 confirm the role of shrubs as a sink for water and sediments, and that of the open areas
275 between shrubs, i.e., intershrubs and routes, as sources.

276 *4.2. Importance of the function of trampling routes and intershrubs as sources*

277 The yields of runoff and sediments from the various patches in semi-arid study site
278 spring from the combined effects of herbivory and trampling, on the one hand (Golodets
279 and Boeken, 2006), and nutrient addition in the forms of urine and dung, on the other
280 hand (McNaughton, 1979).

281 *4.2.1 Runoff yield*

282 The relative differences in runoff between the IS-intershrub and SH-shrub, and between
283 RU-route and SH-shrub were similar in each of the years: RU-route and IS-intershrub
284 yielded six times more runoff than the SH-shrub. These findings indicate the balance
285 between favorable and unfavorable environmental conditions in the patches.

286 The loess soil of the study area, including that of the various patches, contains 20–
287 30% clay (Ben-Hur et al., 1985; Zwickel et al., 2007) in which smectite is the dominant
288 component (Shainberg et al., 1990). This soil is sensitive to physical and chemical
289 disruption of aggregates and is subject to dispersion of clay particles, which clog the
290 pores of the upper soil layer (Agassi et al., 1981; Shainberg et al., 1990). The IS
291 intershrub patches are characterized by a dense cover of annual and perennial herbaceous
292 vegetation (geophytes, grasses and forbs) and bare soil. The loess soil is partially
293 compacted by sporadic trampling by livestock, with consequent mechanical formation of

294 crust, which is commonly developed in this area. The trampling routes have the highest
295 soil compaction and a sparse covering of herbaceous plants, which can be attributed
296 directly to the impact of intense animal traffic: hoof action damages and detaches tissue
297 from growing plants (Pande and Yamamoto, 2006), thereby reducing canopy and
298 herbaceous cover, and increasing the exposure of bare soil. The animal trampling
299 compacts the soil, thereby increasing soil bulk density (Schlesinger et al., 1990; Stavi et
300 al., 2008a) and destroying the topsoil structure (Manzano and Navar, 2000), especially
301 along flock trampling routes (Warren et al., 1996; Stavi et al., 2008b). These processes
302 enhance subsequent rain splash and thereby increase mechanical crusting and surface
303 sealing of the soil (Wilcox et al., 1988; Bari et al., 1993), which eventually reduces
304 infiltration into the soil and promotes surface runoff (Manzano and Navar, 2000; Sarah,
305 2002) from the "no shrub" patches, i.e., RU-route and ISintershrub. Also, these patches
306 vary in their inclination, which is lower in the RU-route than in the ISintershrub, at 4–6°
307 and 13–15°, respectively (Stavi et al., 2008a), because of the animal trampling that
308 smoothes the surface of the former (Nash et al., 2003, 2004).

309 On the one hand, the higher soil compaction and lower vegetation cover in the RU
310 route tend to promote runoff but, on the other hand, their lower gradients tend to reduce
311 it. In contrast, in the IS-intershrub the runoff is influenced by the same factors acting in
312 the opposite senses, i.e., lower soil compaction and higher vegetation cover tend to
313 reduce runoff, whereas higher gradients tend to promote it. Thus, the balance between
314 factors that promote runoff generation and those that reduce it is similar, therefore runoff
315 yields in the RU-route and IS-intershrub were similar.

316 The similarity between the runoff yields, which indicates that there was no difference
317 between the water contributions of the RU-route and of the ISintershrub, contradicts part
318 of the hypothesis that: "the three types of surface cover/patches differ in their responses
319 to rainfall". We found that only the SH-shrub patch differed from the other two patches.

320 Observations during the two years of the present study showed that no runoff was
321 contributed to the channel from the hillslopes. Kosovsky (1994) studied
322 rainfall/runoff/infiltration processes in two low-order drainage basins, which are located
323 in the present study area; he recorded no more than two stream flows in the basins during
324 the winters of 1990/91 and 1991/92, when the annual rainfall was 266 and 376 mm,
325 respectively. The differences between Kosovsky's (1994) study and the present one can
326 be explained by the difference in the annual rainfall amount which affects runoff
327 connectivity. The winters of the present study were dry (2007/08 and 2008/09 – annual
328 rainfall of 179 and 143 mm, respectively. The runoff generated in the sources was
329 dispersed and infiltrated beneath the shrub, thus, no connectivity of runoff sources
330 occurred. In the wetter winters of Kosovsky's study large areas of the hillslope were
331 saturated, caused an increase in runoff connectivity, thus and stream flows occurred. This
332 means that in this semiarid area the existing spatial pattern of the main surface
333 components expresses optimal efficiency in maintaining the hillslope ecosystem through
334 dry years and wet years as well.

335 *4.2.2 Sediment yield*

336 In contrast to runoff, the relative differences in sediment yield between each of the two
337 source patches and the sink patch were different. In both years the differences between
338 the IS-intershrub and SH-shrub were higher than those between the routeRU and

339 SHshrub: by average factors of 16.9 and 9.8, respectively, in both years. As described
340 above, the lower local gradients and greater soil compaction in the routeRU than in the
341 intershrubIS result in dense organization of soil particles, which reduces their
342 vulnerability to shear stress and erosion. Such compaction prevents biological activity
343 and thereby reduces the proneness of available sediments to erosion. This means that the
344 intershrubIS patches are the ones most susceptible to soil erosion and, therefore, they are
345 the main providers of nutrients to shrubs, because they have a higher organic matter
346 content than the routes (Stavi et al., 2008b)

347 The finding that the RU-route yielded less sediments than the intershrubIS contradicts
348 the hypothesis presented in the Introduction, that: "the routes and the shrubs have highest
349 and lowest outputs of overland flow and sediments, respectively, with those from the
350 intershrubs falling between them".

351 *4.3. Runoff – erosion relations*

352 A comparison among the runoff/erosion ratios of the patches revealed that each
353 millimeter of runoff eroded sediments at 3.4, 2.2, and 0.9 g/m² from the intershrubIS,
354 routeRU, and SH patches, respectively. Shrubs reduce soil runoff-driven erosion because
355 of the combined effects of consolidation of soil aggregates – by roots, and high contents
356 of organic matter and soil moisture – and the low energy of the runoff on the flattened
357 microtopography. The erosive effect of runoff is weaker in the routeRU than in the
358 intershrubIS for the reasons described under "*The importance of the function of trampling*
359 *routes and intershrubs as sources*". Therefore, the SH and routeRU patches exhibited
360 pronounced self-regulation of erosion processes whereas the intershrubIS did not.

361 On the one hand, the soil texture of the research site, especially the relatively low
362 percentage of clay particles, leads to mechanical crust formation but, on the other hand,
363 the clay percentage is not high enough for its cohesive forces to maintain aggregate
364 stability. This effect is exacerbated by the high content of the highly dispersive smectite,
365 which is the dominant clay particle type in loess soils in the study area. Thus, it cannot
366 necessarily be concluded that similar findings, i.e., runoff and sediment yields, could be
367 expected to occur in soils having other clay contents and/or types.

368 *4.4. Runoff coefficient*

369 Runoff coefficients (ratio between runoff and rainfall), at the scale of measurement,
370 obtained in the present study were higher than those found in previous field studies:
371 Cerdà (1988a) found a runoff coefficient of 0.12 in simulated rainfall experiments on a
372 south-facing slope with underlying limestone in south-east Spain. Calvo-Cases et al.
373 (2003) found a runoff coefficient of 0.16 in a calcareous site in a semi-arid environment
374 with mean annual rainfall and temperature of 387 mm and 17.9 °C, respectively, and
375 Puigdefabregas et al. (1999) found a runoff coefficient of 0.1 in a single 66-mm rain
376 event in a mica-schist bedrock site in semi-arid environment with mean annual rainfall
377 and temperature of 300 mm and 16 °C, respectively. In contrast, the ~~mean~~ annual runoff
378 coefficients found in the present study reached 0.54 and 0.45 in 2007/8 and 2008/9,
379 respectively, in the RU-route and intershrubIS patches. The differences among the above
380 findings could be attributed to ecological and physical differences among the sites –
381 differences mostly in soil properties, especially texture, i.e., clay content and mineralogy,
382 and in vegetation, surface gradient, rainfall intensity, ~~and~~ land use, and plot size.

383 *4.5. Land use practice*

384 Over-exploitation of natural or seminatural rangeland areas by overgrazing and/or by
385 using the shrubs as a fuel source will cause gradual homogenization of the ground
386 surface, leading to increasing continuity of overland flow generation and soil erosion at
387 the hillside scale. This means decreased functionality of the ecosystem.

388 Human activity causes changes of the soil cover and calls for new solutions to cope
389 with these changes. New surfaces have appeared in most landscapes in many parts of the
390 world because of the dramatic increases in road construction over the last few decades.
391 Also, abandoned mines and abandoned agricultural areas present environmental problems
392 because of increased soil erosion, the loss of large areas that have become unexploited,
393 and for aesthetic reasons. Practical suggestions for reclamation of such areas included
394 planting vegetation: Haigh et al. (2013) concluded that providing a loosened, lower-
395 density, rooting substrate significantly improved both the growth and the survival rates of
396 trees planted in compacted Welsh surface coal-mine spoils, and that trench planting was
397 more effective than park- and garden-style pit planting, which, in turn, is more effective
398 than forestry-style notch planting. Lee et al. (2013) showed that using a digger to drill
399 holes for planting vegetation was a cost-effective revegetation technology for stabilizing
400 road cuttings in southwest Korea; they indicated that erosion-control species, *Poa*
401 *pratensis* L. and *Eragrostis curvula* (Schrud.) Nees survived and grew better than native
402 woody species. Jimenez et al. (2013), in their research on embankments of a highway in
403 Central Spain identified establishment of vegetation and promotion of soil formation as
404 key restoration practices related to ecological processes. Jiménez et al. (2014) found that
405 mulching treatments that were applied to seedlings had great influence on soil properties

406 and on the field performance of afforested holm-oak seedlings (*Quercus ilex* L. subsp.
407 *ballota* (Desf.) Samp.) in an abandoned agricultural field in SE Spain.

408 All the above practices include revegetation as a useful tool for reclamation of the
409 above human-affected areas. The present findings support use of the plant/soil pattern as
410 a possible practice for preventing runoff and soil erosion in road cuttings and abandoned
411 mines in semi-arid areas, i.e., planning of revegetation according to the three-phase
412 mosaic pattern. The patches of this pattern differ in their hydrological and erosion-related
413 functions: the shrubs collect runoff and sediments from the intershrub and route areas of
414 the upper hillslopes. In addition, the routes moderate the gradient of the road margins,
415 and thereby reduce the intensity of runoff and erosion processes. More studies are needed
416 to evaluate the effectiveness of this management pattern on the above-discussed areas.
417 Such studies need to relate to such questions as: Is seeding of herbaceous plants in the
418 intershrub areas necessary in all climatic regions and in all soils? What shape of shrub
419 canopy or root density distribution will achieve the optimal effect in preventing runoff
420 generation and in stabilizing the slope? For how long need active modification/control of
421 soil structure continue? For example: can the soil beneath the shrubs be left to develop a
422 natural soil structure, while the soil in the open areas is compacted in order to promote
423 overland flow which supports the shrubs? Does the soil in the open areas need to be
424 stabilized with amendments (such as PAM – polyacrylamide) and for how long, in order
425 to moderate the potential for erosion processes and to enable successful germination and
426 growth? What are the optimal distances between shrubs (sinks) and between routes
427 (sources)? In addition, the financial costs of the above treatments need to be considered.

428

429 **5. CONCLUSIONS**

430 Under the environmental conditions that prevailed in the studied rangelands, i.e.,
431 moderately intense grazing by 800 livestock units on 800 ha, the shrubs absorbed almost
432 all of the resources produced in the routes and intershrubs.

433 Similarly to a two-phase mosaic, a pattern was confirmed for the runoff yield only,
434 i.e., the only difference found was that between the shrubs, on the one hand, and the open
435 spaces, routes, and intershrubs, on the other hand, with no differences between the latter
436 two patches. However, erosion processes showed a "three-phase-mosaic" pattern in
437 which a considerable part of sediments were eroded from the intershrubs, a smaller part
438 from the routes, and, conspicuously, the least from the shrubs.

439 It is not necessarily concluded that similar findings, i.e., patterns of runoff and
440 sediment yields, could be expected to occur in soils having other different clay content
441 and/or types, and in rainier years.

442 The intershrub patches are the ones most susceptible to soil erosion and, therefore,
443 they are the main providers of nutrients to shrubs.

444 The routes play an important role in ecosystem functioning by influencing the spatial
445 redistribution of resources at the patch scale. Such non-trophic effects can be regarded as
446 the actions of an ecosystem engineer, i.e., an organism that regulates the productivity of
447 other organisms by controlling their resource supply or by modifying their habitat.

448

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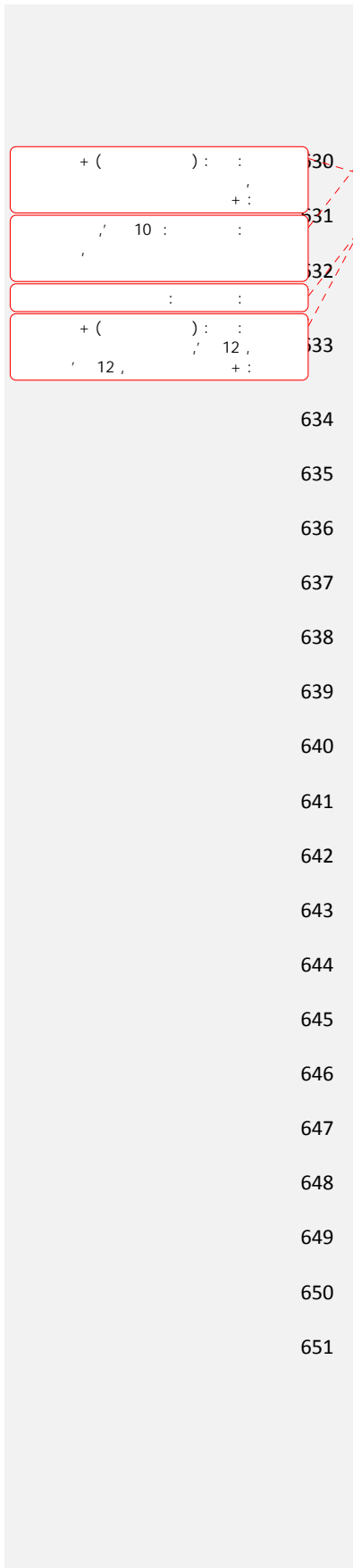
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Table 1: Rainfall, runoff and sediment events in the various plots, winters of 2007/8 and 2008/9. SH=Shrub; IS=Intershrub; RU=Route; SI=Intershrub+Shrub; SR=Route+Shrub.

Date	Rainfall (mm)	Specific runoff (mm)					Specific sediment (g/m ²)				
		SH	IS	RU	SI	SR	SH	IS	RU	SI	SR
08/10/2007	0.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
12/11/2007	4.2	0.0	0.1	0.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.9	3.0	0.0	0.0
22/11/2007	5.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
23/11/2007	2.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
02/12/2007	8.2	0.4	3.2	3.7	0.4	0.3	0.1	21.5	29.4	0.4	0.9
20/12/2007	1.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
21/12/2007	12.0	1.6	6.9	5.9	0.9	1.5	2.5	41.8	24.3	0.6	2.5
06/01/2008	6.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
09/01/2008	5.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
12/01/2008	10.6	0.0	0.5	0.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.6	0.8	0.0	0.0
24/01/2008	6.8	0.0	0.5	0.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.4	0.2	0.0	0.0
27/01/2008	12.6	1.2	4.8	4.8	0.4	0.4	1.7	6.0	5.8	0.2	0.3
28/01/2008	1.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
31/01/2008	46.3	7.8	31.4	31.0	3.9	8.1	5.2	73.1	32.6	2.6	1.5
15/02/2008	28.2	0.9	14.7	14.3	1.2	1.3	1.0	56.1	26.4	0.5	0.7
20/02/2008	15.2	0.0	3.3	4.8	0.2	0.1	0.0	2.0	3.1	0.1	0.1
28/02/2008	12.7	0.2	8.7	7.9	0.7	0.3	0.3	54.3	34.1	0.5	0.4
30/10/2008	15.0	0.0	0.2	0.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.7	2.6	0.0	0.0
10/12/2008	5.0	0.0	1.5	2.1	0.0	0.1	0.0	8.4	19.6	0.0	0.3
28/12/2008	10.7	0.1	0.6	1.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.7	0.7	0.0	0.5
04/01/2009	5.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
12/02/2009	36.8	8.0	19.3	19.8	6.7	5.6	27.9	211.3	91.7	7.2	5.2
18/02/2009	3.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
22/02/2009	16.7	0.9	8.9	9.9	1.1	1.0	0.9	27.6	20.3	0.8	0.6
02/03/2009	36.5	0.3	24.4	25.9	2.2	3.7	0.0	181.1	111.1	1.0	1.8
25/03/2009	13.5	0.2	4.0	4.1	0.8	0.2	0.3	7.7	5.7	0.5	0.1

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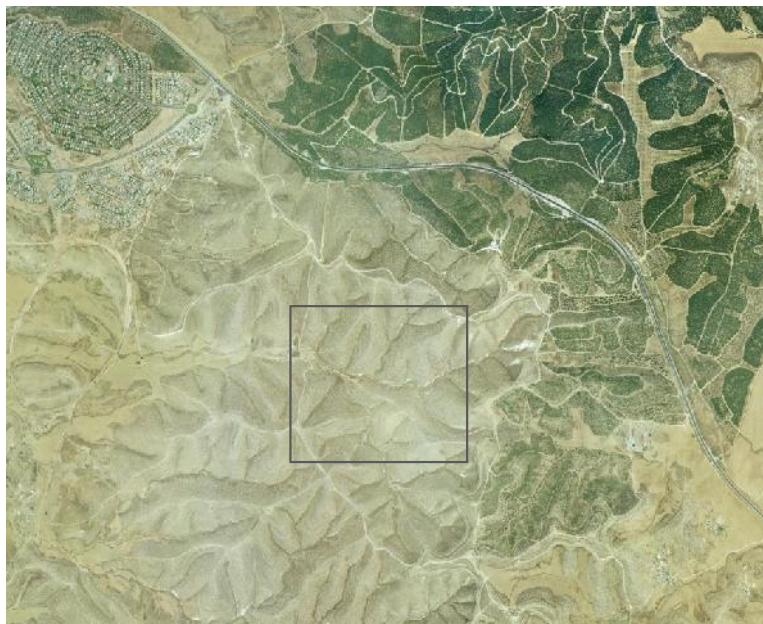
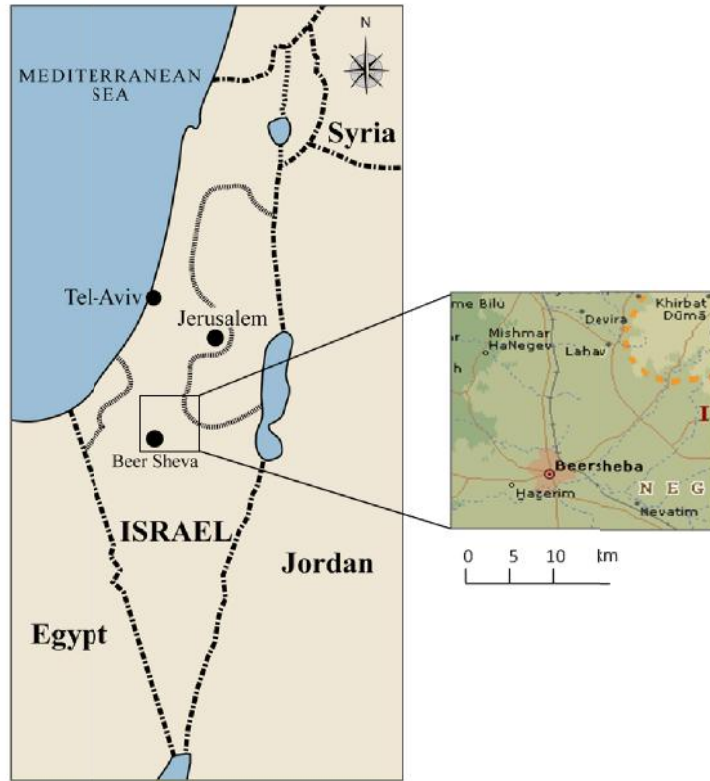


Fig-1. Aerial view of the research area.

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749 Fig. 1. Map of Israel, showing the study region.

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761 Fig. 2. Three main types of surface cover in the research site.

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773 Fig. 3. Small runoff plots. A- Shrub (SH); B- Intershrub area (IS); C-Trampling route
 774 (RU); D- Intershrub area + shrub (ISSI); E- Route + shrub (RSSR). (February 2008).

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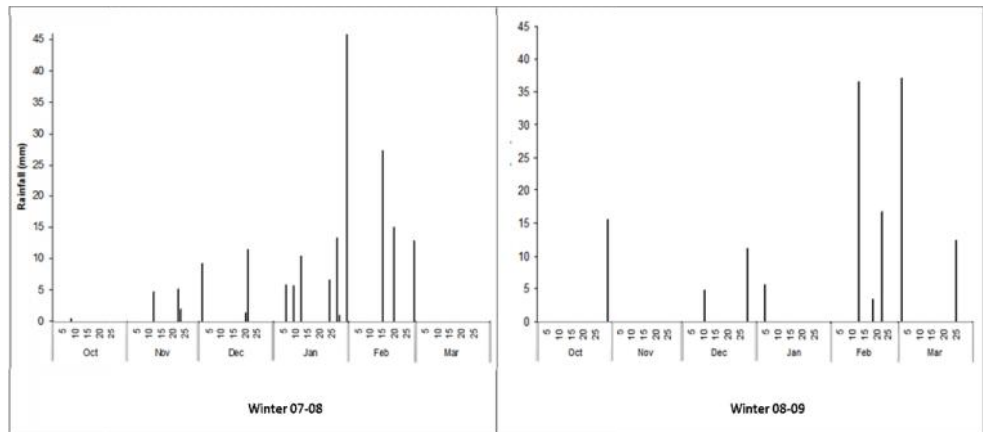
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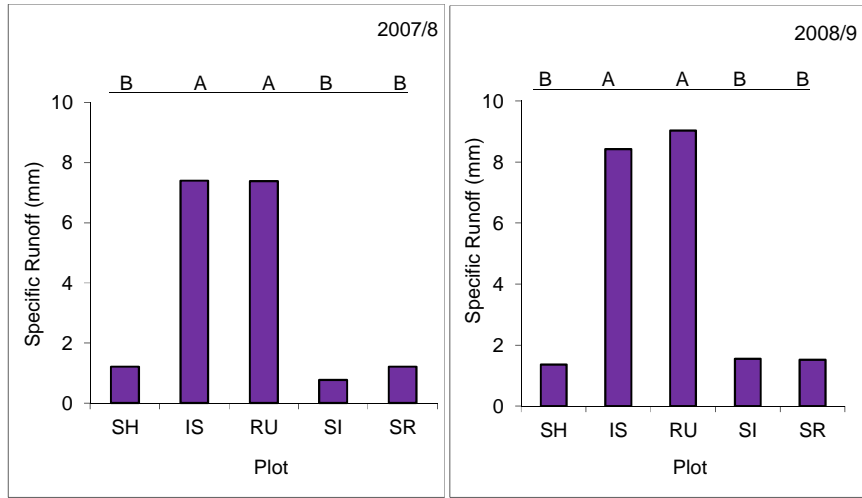
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786 Fig. 4. Rainfall (mm) distribution in 2007/8 and 2008/9.



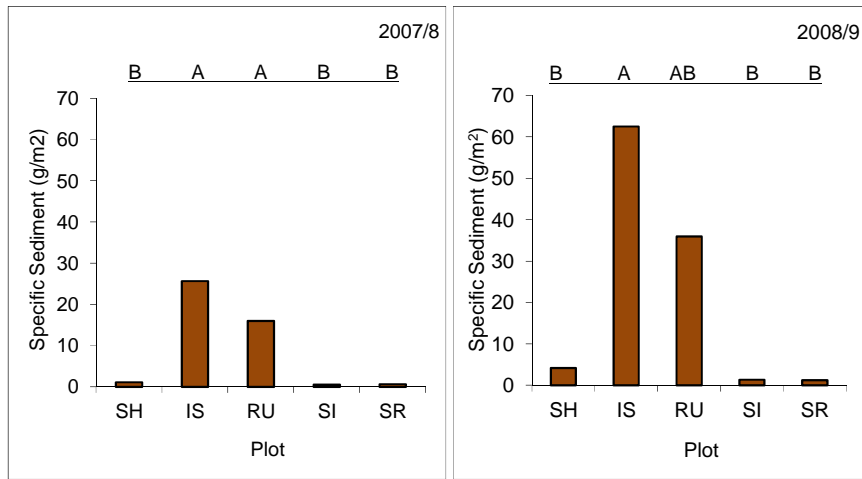
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788 Fig. 5. Runoff yield in the various plots; winter seasons 2007/8 and 2008/9.

89 → SH=Shrub; IS=Intershrub; RU=Route; SI=Intershrub+Shrub; SR=Route+Shrub,

90 Each value represents the mean of three replicates. For each year, means marked with different letters differ
91 at $P < 0.05$.

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795 Fig. 6. Sediment yield in the various plots; winter seasons 2007/8 and 2008/9.

96 → SH=Shrub; IS=Intershrub; RU=Route; SI=Intershrub+Shrub; SR=Route+Shrub,

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Each value represents the mean of three replicates. For each year, means followed by different letters differ at $P < 0.05$.

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