



1 **Assessment of land use impact on hydraulic threshold conditions for gully head cut**

2 **initiation**

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8 **Abstract:** Gully erosion is a geomorphic threshold phenomenon controlled by different
9 environmental factors as well as human activities. In this research, we examined the effect of
10 land use on hydraulic flow and the consequent head cut initiation for similar soil conditions
11 using an experimental plot of 15m*0.4m. Results indicated that boundary shear stresses τ_{cr}
12 for gully initiation in rangeland, dry farming and abandoned land are 192, 43 and 174
13 dyne/cm², respectively, due to the differences in surface vegetation cover. Moreover, the
14 turbulence of flow and soil response to an increase in water depth showed complicated
15 behavior, which could be attributed to the effect of surface micro relief features and land use
16 impacts. Compared to dry farming, the short vegetation cover in the rangeland decreased the
17 effect of ground cover on flow regime. Even after seven years of abandonment, the response
18 of agricultural land to increasing shear stress was similar to that of dry farming, which
19 indicated the low resilience and high erosional susceptibility of soil in dry land
20 environments. The main explanation for dramatic (3-4 fold) variations of τ_{cr} was the
21 vegetation cover and soil surface conditions. In fact, the remarkable decrease of τ_{cr} in dry
22 farming was related to the effect of tillage practice on soil susceptibility and aggregate
23 strength. The findings indicated that a critical shear stress of 35 dyne/cm² used in some
24 physically based models for erosion prediction is not appropriate for estimating gully
25 erosion. In addition, the duration of land abandonment has a crucial influence on soil
26 erodibility that has been less considered in erosion models.

27 **Keywords:** erosion; gully head cut; shear stress; threshold; land use



28 **1 Introduction**

29 Concentrated water erosion phenomena are usually classified according to three categories,
30 namely rill, stream and gully. Researchers use different criteria to separate and characterize
31 rills, streams and gullies (which are also separated into ephemeral and permanent gully
32 forms). Hauge (1977) first used a critical cross-sectional area of 929 cm² and Brice (1966)
33 introduced a minimum width and depth of 0.3 m and 0.5 m respectively as a criterion to
34 distinguish rill from gully (Imenson and Kwaad 1980). Although the transition from rill to
35 gully erosion is a continuum process, Torri et al. (1987) and Bryon and Slattery (1992) went a
36 step further and suggested a hydraulic concept for rill and gully formation.

37 Although gullies are responsible for most sediment yield in many catchments in a wide range
38 of environmental conditions, such as described by Nazari Samani et al. (2011) in Iran,
39 Wasson et al. (1996) and Poesen et al. (2003) in Europe, and Li et al. (2003) in China, many
40 soil erosion models have focused mainly on sheet and rill erosions, neglecting soil loss by
41 gullies at the catchment scale (Poesen et al. 2003).

42 Gully erosion is clearly a geomorphic threshold phenomenon. Gullies can develop only if
43 concentrated (overland) flow intensity during a rainfall event exceeds a threshold value and
44 flow surpasses the soil resistance. This force of flow is often expressed in terms of the
45 boundary flow shear stress ($\tau_s = \gamma ds$ with γ =density of runoff water, kg/m³; d =depth of flow,
46 m; and s =slope of the soil surface gradient, m/m). The threshold force required to cause
47 channel incision into the soil surface in the concentrated flow zone is termed the ‘critical flow
48 shear stress’ (τ_{cr}). In addition, detailed investigation into the relationship between the
49 geomorphic threshold and shear stress revealed that upslope drainage area and slope gradient
50 are linked to critical shear stress (Begin and Schumm, 1979). The combination of hydraulic
51 and geomorphic thresholds produced the $\Gamma_{cr}=(c\gamma)A^{rf}S$ relationship, where Γ_{cr} is the critical
52 shear stress indicator, A is the drainage area (ha), S is the slope gradient (m/m), rf and c are



53 experimental coefficients (Vandaele et al., 1996). Some researchers have shown the effect of
54 land use on the geomorphic threshold (e.g Vandekckeknov et al., 2000; Poesen et al., 2003;
55 Nazari Samani et al., 2009), but less attention has been paid to the hydraulic conditions of
56 head cut initiation. In fact a key question is: how large should τ_{cr} be in order to initiate a gully
57 head cut? More recently, the threshold has been defined quantitatively using two criteria,
58 namely shear stress and stream power. Govers (1985) was the first to conceptualize a shear
59 threshold velocity for rill erosion initiation by conducting a flume experiment in loamy soils.
60 To date, several experiments have been conducted to investigate the hydraulic threshold
61 condition for head cut initiation: Prosser et al. (1995, 2000) in the grassland near San
62 Francisco, Nachtergaele and Poesen (2002) in the Belgian loess belt, and Adelpour (2004) in
63 loamy-sands in Iran. The different results obtained by these researchers indicate that more
64 field-based tests are needed to better determine the effect of land use on the threshold
65 condition for head cut initiation. In addition, in some physically based erosion models (such
66 as WEPP, CREAMS, PRORILL and EGEM), shear stress is a key parameter and the value
67 used in WEPP is 3.5 Pa. Therefore, it is very important to study the critical shear stress for
68 different ground surface conditions so as to understand the effective factors and develop a
69 comprehensive erosion model. The main objective of this study is therefore to determine how
70 land use factors affect flow conditions (status, type and threshold shear stress), and
71 consequently the initiation of head cut erosion.

72 **2 Materials and methods**

73 **2.1 Experiment design**

74 The experiments were conducted in the Samal area located in the Dareh-Kore watershed of
75 Boushehr province in south of Iran. The region has a typical arid to semi-arid climate with an
76 average annual temperature of 14 °C and an average annual rainfall of 200 mm. The main
77 lithological formations include the Miocene Fars Group (Aghajari, Mishigan; consisting of



78 marl, shale, marly and shaly limestone) in the uplands and Quaternary alluvium (consisting of
79 gravels, sands, silt and clay) in the piedmont plain. Gully erosion and badland formation are
80 two highly destructive processes impacting on the hilly and lowland areas, and are common
81 on the Quaternary formations with slope gradients of less than 20%.

82 The flume experiments were conducted using an erosion plot that was 15 m long and 0.4 m
83 wide and 0.5 m high, designed to create non-uniform flow resistance. The ground surface
84 cover of the soil was not disturbed. For each experiment, the parameters of hydraulic flow
85 were measured over the 9 m reach in the middle of the flume (Fig. 1 and 2). Three land uses,
86 dry farming, rangeland and abandoned areas, were chosen. In addition, in order to prevent the
87 effects of spatial variation of soil properties, all tests were conducted at a site consisting of
88 three land uses. The distance between test locations was about 200 m. The soil attributes
89 according to the land use are presented in Table 1, which show that no significant difference
90 was found in the soil attributes, although a small variation in the samples could be seen in the
91 Ca, organic matter and Na. However, slope could not be held constant. The maximum soil
92 surface slope was in the rangeland (5.9%), while the dry farming land had the least surface
93 slope (0.13%). Therefore, in order to determine the effect of land slope, the shear stress index
94 ($\tau = \gamma.R.S$) was used. This index considers both discharge and energy characteristics, which
95 are explained further in the following section. The characteristics of the land cover in the
96 experimental sites were as follows:

- 97 a. Rangelands: No surface gravel and uniform cover of lichens and mosses (Fig. 1), with
98 grasses (5%) of *St.cap*, *St.ar*, and low litter (1%).
- 99 b. Dry farming: Ground cover of annual grasses (*Ho. Sp.*; *Br. tec.*), forbs (40%) (*Ch. Ab.*,
100 *As. Sp.*) and residuals of stalks from previous years and no surface gravel. In contrast
101 to rangelands, the canopy cover of the dry farming land is much greater because of
102 agriculture operations and low slope as well as establishment of weeds.



103 c. Abandoned areas: This land had been relinquished for 7 years. Vegetation cover of 50%
104 includes annual grasses (*Agi. sp.*, *Ma. Sp.*, *Fu. sp.*, *Br. tec.*) and forbs, low gravel cover
105 (1%) and litter (3%).

106 [Fig. 1 is here]

107 [Fig. 2 is here]

108 [Table 1 is here]

109 2.2 Experimental operation, measurement and parameter calculation

110 The flume's sidewalls were beaten into the soil and sealed with plaster, cement and soil to
111 prevent leakage and incursions by animals. To determine the slope of the longitudinal profile
112 with high precision, ground surveying was performed using a theodolite camera, leveling rod
113 and measuring tape. After setting up the water supply equipment including a water tank,
114 stilling basin and Parshal flume at both ends of the plot, the experiment was started with low
115 discharge (0.75 liter per second) then increased to high discharge so that the head cut could
116 be observed. For every experiment, the flow parameters including discharge, depth of flow
117 (by a steel ruler) and sediment samples (at the end of the flume) were measured directly,
118 while the water surface velocity was determined by liquid dye tracers (injected once). The
119 following relations were used to calculate the hydraulic characteristics of flow.

120 Mean flow velocity: $U = \frac{Q}{A}$ (1)

121 Reynolds number: $Re = \frac{U.d}{\nu}$ (2)

122 Froude number: $F = \frac{U}{\sqrt{gy}}$ (3)

123 Shear stress of flow: $\tau = \gamma.R.S$ (4)

124 The soil detachment rate: $D_r = \frac{C_v.Q.t}{6}$ (5)

125 where Q is Discharge (m³/s), A is cross section area of flow (m²); U is mean flow velocity



126 (m/s); d is flow depth (m); ν : kinematic viscosity ($\nu = 0.01 \text{ cm}^2/\text{s}$); F is Froude number; g is
 127 gravitational acceleration (m/s^2); y is mean flow depth (m); γ is specific gravity (ρ/ρ_w); S is
 128 water surface slope; R is hydraulic radius (m); C_v is sediment weight concentration (kg/m^3); t
 129 is run time (s).

130 To assess the soil detachment rate based on threshold shear stress, the following relation was
 131 established (Foster 1982; Nachtergaele et al., 2002):

$$132 \quad D_r = Kc(\tau - \tau_{cr})^B \quad (6)$$

133 where D_r is the detachment capacity of flow ($\text{kg m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$); Kc represents the soil erodibility to
 134 concentrated flow (S/m); τ is mean shear stress; τ_{cr} is critical shear stress; B is an empirical
 135 coefficient usually equal to 1. Thus, equation 6 can be written in linear mode (Eq. 7).

$$136 \quad D_r = K_c \tau + b \quad (7)$$

137 Comparison of equations 6 and 7 indicates that the intercept b can be related to critical shear
 138 stress via $\tau_{cr} = \frac{-b}{K_c}$. Consequently, by plotting D_r versus shear stress and fitting with a linear
 139 line, the slope of the fitted line is equal to Kc .

140 The initiation of a gully was obtained by visual and photo monitoring of the flume surface for
 141 each run. A small ditch or hole is sufficient to permit head cut initiation. Therefore an
 142 incision of 3*3 cm-size was adopted as an index of head cut initiation. A rural well dug near
 143 the site was selected as the water resource for supplying the water through a petrol driven
 144 pump. A retention pond with an overflow pipe was established in the upward end of flume. A
 145 total of four, seven and five runs were conducted on the rangeland, dry farming and
 146 abandoned land respectively to reach the mentioned threshold of head cut initiation.

147 **3 Results**

148 **3.1 Effect of land use on type of flow**

149 As mentioned previously, the regime and type of flow were quantified by using Reynolds (Re)



150 and Froude numbers (Fr) respectively (Table 2). Generally, in all the experiments, flow status
151 was turbulent ($Re > 2000$). In contrast to other land use, in rangelands, because of the short
152 grass cover and smooth lichen surface, its effect on the Reynolds number was very low (low
153 surface roughness). However, in dry farming land, due to the high vegetation cover, the
154 Reynolds number was greatly affected during low discharge. In fact, the land covers in dry
155 farming and abandoned lands increased the surface roughness and indirectly caused the
156 decrease of Re by decreasing the flow velocity. But as discharge and consequently flow depth
157 increased and flow overtopped and submerged the canopy, mean velocity increased while Re
158 increased to a remarkable value of 25,000. It is noticeable that during mean discharge (4 lit/s
159 in Table 2), Re in rangelands was lower than in both dry farming and abandoned lands,
160 leading to an increase in flow energy. The main reasons for this increased turbulence could be
161 the micro topography on the soil surface in abandoned areas and dry farming lands in
162 comparison to rangeland.

163 [Table 2 is here]

164 The Froude number (Table 2) varied from 0.05 to 5.1. Head cut initiation was observed with
165 $Fr=1.61$ ($Q = 9.2$ lit/s); $Fr= 0.1$ ($Q = 8.2$ lit/s) and $Fr= 0.6$ ($Q = 4.3$ lit/s) for rangeland, dry
166 farming and abandoned land respectively. In other words, as the soil surface was disturbed,
167 such as by tillage operation, a flow with less energy was sufficient to initiate a head cut. A
168 head cut could be initiated both under and above critical flow conditions. However, the
169 discharge needed to create enough energy for incision in rangeland was more than was
170 required for dry farming and abandoned lands.

171 Figure 3 depicts an example of surface profiles for various discharge experiments in
172 abandoned land. It can be seen that with low discharge, due to the impact of the roughness of
173 vegetation cover and micro topography, the profile of the water surface (run 1 in Fig 3) is
174 similar to that of the ground profile. But as the flow depth increases, the water surface



175 becomes smoother. In fact, vegetation cover can influence both the flow characteristics (e.g.
176 flow resistance, roughness and flow depth) and the hydraulic attributes such as the rating
177 equation of flow depth with discharge and boundary layer depth. Therefore it is postulated
178 that an alteration of the vertical velocity profile causes turbulent flow as stems and branches
179 are overtopped.

180 [Fig. 3 is here]

181 **3.2 Impact of land use on the threshold shear stress for surface erosion**

182 The results of the relationship between the detachment rate (D_r) and the shear stress are
183 shown in Figures 4, 5 and 6. We preferred to use dyne/cm² as the shear stress unit because of
184 the small values obtained in units of Pa (1Pa=10 dyne/cm²). As can be observed, in all cases,
185 significant relationships ($P=0.05$) between D_r and shear stress were observed. The threshold
186 shear stress for each land use was calculated based on the slopes and intercepts shown in
187 Figures 4, 5 and 6. These values are 83, 11 and 74 dyne/cm² for rangelands, dry farming lands
188 and abandoned areas respectively. Moreover, soil erodibility for concentrated overland flow
189 (K_c) was obtained for rangeland (0.0038) and dry farming (0.1912). It is notable that the
190 resistance of soil to concentrated flow in rangelands is more than 50 times that in dry farming
191 land.

192 [Fig. 4 is here]

193 [Fig. 5 is here]

194 [Fig. 6 is here]

195 **3.3 Effect of land use type on gully initiation threshold**

196 The numbers of head cuts corresponding to mean shear stress for each experiment were listed
197 in Table 3. The critical shear stress for head cut initiation was 174 dyne/cm² in rangeland, 35
198 dyne/cm² in dry farming, and 153 dyne/cm² in abandoned land. The 3-4 fold difference
199 between the calculated critical shear stresses in the three studied land uses could be linked to



200 the soil surface condition. Although the vegetation cover of rangeland was less than that of
201 dry farming, the biological crust of lichens and mosses made the soil very resistant to
202 detachment. In fact, the presence of biological crusts on the surface of the soil in the
203 rangeland increased the surface soil resistance several-fold (Table 2, Fig. 4 and 5). Table 3
204 demonstrates that the number of head cuts increased with shear stress. For example, from run
205 3 to run 5 in abandoned land, the number of head cuts increased more than two-fold while the
206 average shear stress increased just 1.3 times.

207 [Table 3 is here]

208 From Table 3 and Fig. 6, it can be found that the relationship between head cuts and shear
209 stress of abandoned land was similar to the dry farming lands, although the critical shear
210 stress for head cut initiation of abandoned land (153 dyne/cm^2) was close to that of rangeland
211 (174 dyne/cm^2).

212 **4 Discussion**

213 From the study, it was found that for the rangeland, which had a natural cover, soil
214 detachment and head cut initiation occurred under a sub-critical flow regime. The calculated
215 Froude number was between 0.65 and 1.10, which was consistent with other findings that a
216 Froude number between 0.5 and 2.8 was the threshold value for incision (Knapen et al., 2006;
217 Adelpour, 2004; Prosser et al., 1995). The main reason for the low Froude number in dry
218 farming areas was the high vegetation cover and roughness. However, soil disturbances
219 caused by previous tillage operations decreased the strength of aggregates dramatically;
220 consequently, flow detached and entrained soil particles more easily, which led to the
221 creation of head cuts.

222 In dry farming and abandoned areas, due to the high vegetation cover and low depth flow, a
223 sub-critical regime was observed. But as the flow depth increased, the overtopping of
224 branches and stalks diminished the impact of vegetation cover. Despite sub-critical flow in



225 dry farming and abandoned lands, the detachment rate was more than twice that of rangeland.
226 This could be mainly attributed to the decrease in aggregate resistance produced by tillage
227 operations (Knapen *et al.*, 2007). Furthermore, it seemed that the impacts of vegetation cover
228 changes depended on the roughness effect. In arid and semi-arid climates where vegetation
229 cover was very low, any change in land cover could dramatically affect the roughness, and
230 therefore the soil detachment and erosion (Léonard and Richard, 2004). The relationship
231 between average shear stress, contributory catchment area and slope proposed by Begin and
232 Schumm (1979) showed the role of a geomorphic threshold on shear stress. Based on the
233 relationship, it is seen that as τ_{cr} increases, upslope area and slope gradient must increase in
234 order to initiate a gully. Nazari *et al.* (2009) reported that in this study area, when land use
235 changed from rangeland to dry farming land, the areas susceptible to gullying increased by a
236 factor of two, from 6% to 12% of the total area. Therefore, land use changes not only affected
237 soil stability but also decreased the geomorphic threshold, causing more areas prone to
238 gullying.

239 In addition, the impacts of tillage operations on the aggregate attributes such as degree of
240 consolidation, soil weathering, dry and wetness, can affect the K_r parameter (Franti *et al.*,
241 1985; King *et al.*, 1995). This study showed that land use change could increase soil
242 erodibility (K_r) more than 50 times and decrease boundary shear stress about 6 fold. This
243 meant that the effect of land use change on K_r was more significant than on τ_{cr} . Similar results
244 have been reported by other researchers (Nagchtargle and Poeson, 2002; Knapen *et al.*, 2007),
245 who found that using the conventional K in the USLE cannot reflect the spatial variations of
246 erodibility in a landscape scale. With the same soil attributes, both the vegetation cover and
247 the micro relief of the ground surface are the main factors determining the spatial variation of
248 detachment and sedimentation along the flume (Bergsma and Farshand, 2004), preventing the
249 establishment of a stable and uniform erosion pattern. To assess and model erosion over a



250 landscape, a simple sediment transport equation does not give a precise result regarding
251 detachment and sedimentation (Morgan, 2005; Adelpour, 2004). Therefore, the adoption of a
252 large range of K_r values is essential to improve physically based erosion models.

253 It was noticeable that K_r of the abandoned land and rangeland were similar in low run-off
254 depth (run 1 and 2 in Table 2). However, K_r of the abandoned land in high run-off depth (run
255 3 in Table 2) was different from that of the rangeland, while it was similar to that of the dry
256 farming land. Such behavior indicated that for a given soil, a change of land use affected the
257 run-off erosion process for several years. The value of τ_{cr} for head cut initiation on the
258 rangeland is five times higher than that in dry farming land, implying that high surface and
259 subsurface (10 cm) aggregate resistance in the rangeland was probably a result of the
260 biological crust.

261 The mean τ_{cr} for the whole dataset of this research was 134 dyne/cm², which was lower than
262 the global average value of 150 dyne/cm² (Knapen et al., 2007). The main reason for this
263 difference could be the discrepancy of ground features and the use of a sandy loam soil. The
264 relationships between the numbers of observed head cuts and shear stress in the abandoned
265 area and rangeland were the same when $\tau_{cr} < 140$ dyne/cm². However, in abandoned land, as
266 the τ_{cr} increased, the observed number of head cuts increased by a factor of three (Table 2).
267 This was because land use not only affected the resistance of the surface soil but also affected
268 the resistance of the sub-soil. After seven years of abandonment, the erodibility of sub-soil
269 had not changed significantly. Even though no tillage operations had been conducted on the
270 abandoned land for seven years, the sub-soil had not or even could not return to its original
271 condition and level of resistance.

272 **5 Conclusions**

273 Experimental results of detachment and head cut initiation indicated that critical shear stress
274 (τ_c), soil resistance to concentrated flow (K_c) and head cut initiation were dependent on land



275 use and soil surface conditions. Critical shear stress has been the most widely used parameter
276 for physically-based models such as WEPP, EPP, EUROSEM and CREAMS. It was
277 concluded from this study that most physically based models should use a wider range of
278 both K_r and τ_{cr} values. In other words, the use of a single value of $\tau_{cr}=35$ dyne/ cm^2 as the
279 boundary shear stress cannot accurately represent the threshold condition for gully initiation.
280 In addition, the duration of farming land abandonment should be taken into consideration in
281 order to obtain a realistic value for K_r . Further experiments are needed to quantify the effects
282 of land use and soil attributes on gully initiation so as to obtain a generally applicable model
283 for gully erosion.

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363

Tables

364 Table 1: Soil attributes of three land uses selected for experiments

Land use	Texture	Silt (%)	Ec (ds/m)	OC (%)	Lime (%)	Na (meq/lit)	Ca (meq/lit)	SAR	pH	Cl (meq/lit)	Ground slope (%)
Rangeland	Sandy loam	8	3.74	0.44	23.30	33	18.4	7.8	7.3	15.6	5.9
Dry farming	Sandy loam	5.5	3.44	0.85	23.75	34	15	8.1	7.3	16.4	0.13
Abandoned	Sandy loam	5	3.34	0.50	21.25	29.5	14	7	7.3	14.7	4.4



365 Table 2: Results related to the status and type of the flow in different experiments

	Discharge (l/s)	Mean flow depth (mm)	Fr number	Re number
	2	13	1.11	5037
Rangeland	3.9	17	1.46	9860
	6.37	23	1.46	16190
	9.2	28	1.61	24178
	0.75	50	0.05	1834
Dry farming	1.21	62	0.06	3065
	3.5	95	0.1	8817
	4.1	101	0.1	10361
	5.7	129	0.1	14391
	8.2	165	0.1	20757
	10	170	0.11	24969
Abandoned	1.5	15	0.69	3913
	2.9	22	0.72	7299
	4.3	31	0.64	10937
	5	34	0.65	12756
	7.2	41	0.67	18289



366 Table 3 Shear stress for different runs with observed head cuts for each land use
 367 (1Pa=10 dyne/cm²).

368

Land use	Run	Mean shear stress along the flume (dyne/cm ²)	Number of head cuts	Critical shear stress for head cut initiation (dyne/cm ²)
Rangelands	1	70		
	2	106		
	3	146	1	174
	4	178	2	
Dry farming land	1	5		
	2	9		
	3	15		35
	4	19		
	5	34	2	
	6	42	5	
Abandoned areas	1	78		
	2	115		
	3	161	3	153
	4	178	5	
	5	217	8	



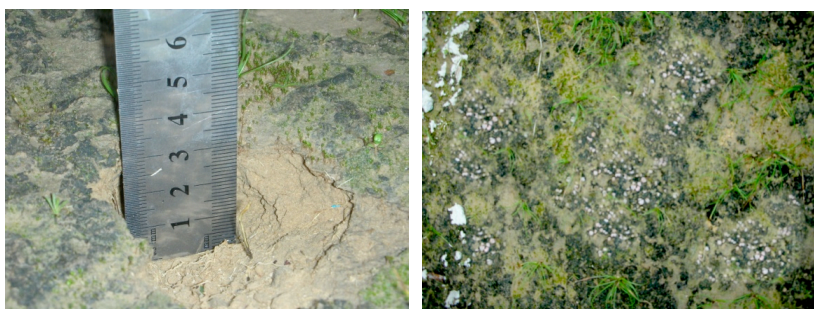
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Figures

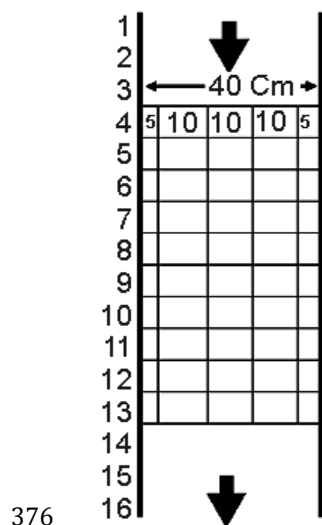
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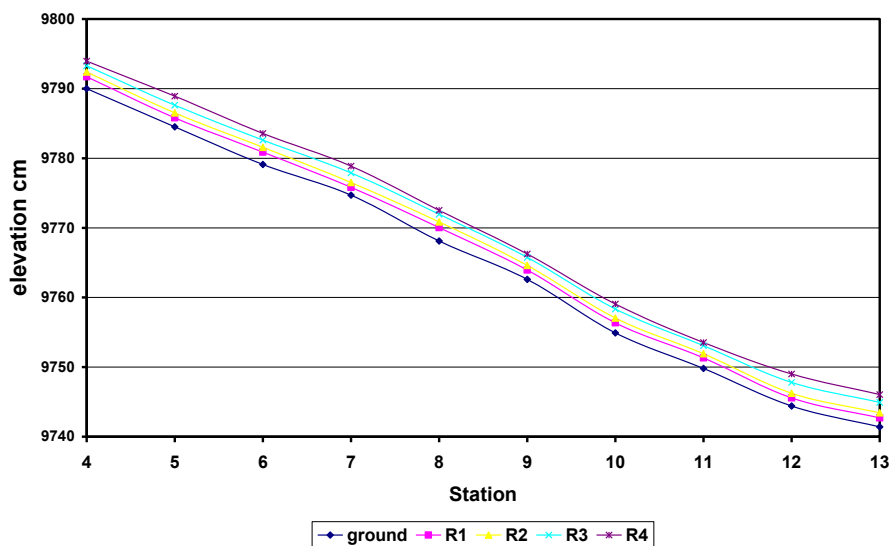
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372 Fig. 1 Flume and ground vegetation (grass and lichen) in the rangeland plot with
373 ground slope of 6% (top left). Ground surface measurement (top right) and head cut
374 features with step height of 3 cm (bottom left). Lichens and mosses on the ground
375 surface of rangeland soil (bottom right).

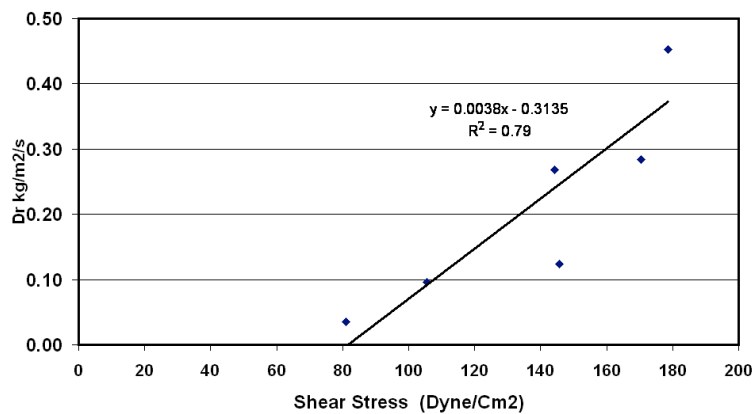


376
377 Fig. 2 Schematic of experimental flume showing the mid-section used to measure
378 flow depth and ground elevation.



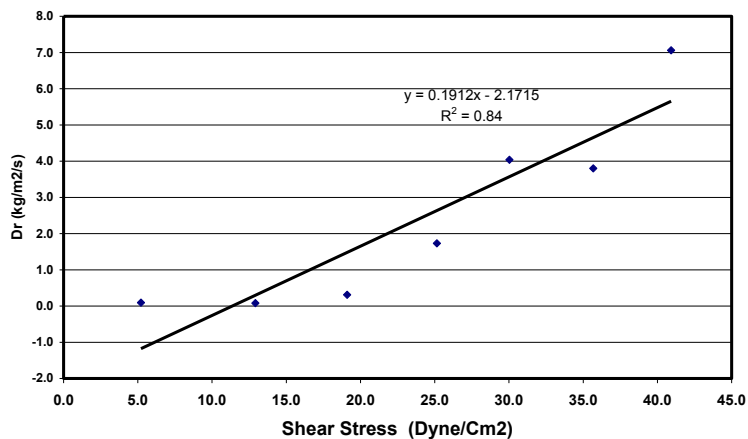
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380 Fig. 3 Profile of water surface and bed of plot 1 in the undisturbed condition. Presence
381 of non-uniform vegetation cover had led to decreased roughness coefficient and
382 increased flow velocity. Consequently, flow depth decreased between points 7 and 10.
383 The points were based on the Fig. 1 scheme. The space between two points was 1m
384 and the slope gradient was about 4.5%.



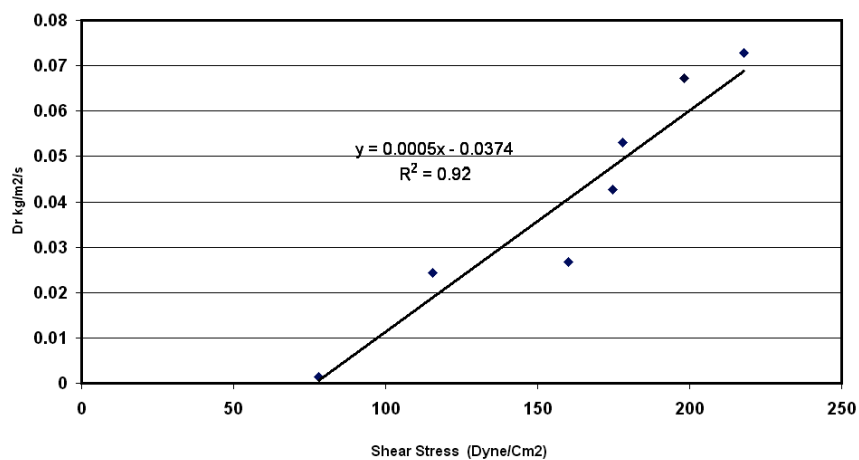
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386 Fig. 4 The relationship between shear stress (τ) and detachment rate in the rangeland



387

388 Fig. 5 Relationship between shear stress (τ) and detachment rate in dry farming land



389

390 Fig. 6. Relationship between shear stress (τ) and detachment rate in abandoned land