We would like to thank the editor and all referees for their valuable comments. Moreover, we appreciate that the editor and all referees think the paper addresses an interesting topic and fit into the scope of HESS. We revised the manuscript thoroughly considering all the comments from the editor and referees. Here is a detailed author response to all comments from the editor and referees. The page and line information in the response please refer to the CLEAN VERSION in the supplement.

AUTHOR RESPONSE TO THE EDITOR

General comments:

1. I agree with the authors and the reviewers, that the manuscript addresses an important topic: estimation of soil erosion rates in a large scale. As acknowledged by all, this task will lead to a number of methodological challenges. The authors try to address those challenges by applying a spline-based interpolation technique, using different levels of additional external information, such as land use, rainfall, soil characteristics. I feel that this can be a valuable approach in addressing the challenge of large scale erosion (maps). However, I think the authors do not show (enough) how superior their method is, compared to other techniques. Therefore, I suggest that the authors try to work along the remarks of the reviewers. I also agree with rev. #2 that one should compare with other independent soil erosion values, see also below.
   Response: All the remarks of the reviewers were considered in the revision, see the detailed response to comments from the reviewers. Besides the comparison with the plot data in Guo et al., 2015, in the revised version, the result of this study based on the survey data from the fourth national soil erosion investigation was compared with the result of the third national investigation (Page 15 Line 19-25), and the observations on the soil erosion rate in the forest and sediment discharge from two hydrological stations for two watersheds (Page 16 Line 20-22).

2. I addition, I think that information about the values and the spatial distribution (maps) of the additional information (land use, rainfall, soil characteristics, topography) should be displayed. This needs to be given in the same spatial detail as the interpolation method uses this information.
   Response: Land use, rainfall erosivity, soil erodibility and topography maps have been added (Fig. 5).

3. I also wonder if the authors can give a measured/observed value of a lumped total erosion rate in a meso-scale region over some years (e.g. soil deposits in a reservoir) and compare such value(s) with their estimates. This would be particular helpful to get more confidence into the very high erosion rates in the

forest.

Response: Good suggestion! The sediment discharge observation from two hydrological stations and soil erosion rate for the forest land for two watersheds have been added and the result showed the estimated erosion rate for the forest in this study was consistent with the observation (Page 16 Line 20-22).

Other comment:

Please do not display internationally disputed borders, as you do in your Fig. 1a, page 12, in your “AC1: Final response to the comments from two referees”. This is not acceptable for publication in a final version.

Response: Revised (Fig. 1).

AUTHOR RESPONSE TO RC #1

General comments:

In general, the paper addresses an interesting topic, which would fit into the scope of HESS. Regional soil erosion assessment is still challenging due to the often-missing input data needed for such assessment. Therefore, an alternative approach to the more widespread – mostly USLE based approaches - would be welcome. However, I suggest rejecting the paper for the following reasons: I have general doubts if the produced regional assessment is valuable or if one could learn something regarding the methods presented. The authors use the erosion estimates form 3116 ‘points’ in the Shaanxi province and interpolate these data for a large region using different interpolation schemes. Mathematically the interpolation might be correct. However, from an erosion research perspective it just does not make any sense to interpolate erosion data from single locations (with specific land use, slope, slope length, soils, rainfall and soil management) into a large area without taking these important variables into account. The authors present the Chinese variant of the USLE, which identified all important parameters of erosion (Eq. 1, P. 6, line 23), why not using these parameters as co-variables in an interpolation or apply the model itself. From the different interpolation models presented it is obvious that those taking some of the important erosion drivers into account (models II-V) outperform model I, which solely use the erosion data for interpolation. So, concluding my comments I appreciate any efforts to regionalize soil erosion information but I do not think that the presented approach is a promising pathway to follow.

We understood the referee had three main concerns:

(1) *It just does not make any sense to interpolate erosion data from single locations (with specific land use, slope, slope length, soils, rainfall and soil management) into a large area without taking these important variables into*

account.

Response: We actually did take these important variables into account to estimate regional soil loss whenever possible. One major point we want to make in the paper is that the simple interpolation without using any of the available factor information (Model I) is not good. Our recommended approach uses all the factor information that are available in the entire region (land use, rainfall, soils), and uses spatial interpolation to impute other factor information which are only available at the sampled PSU (slope degree, slope length, practice and management, aggregated as Q) to the entire region. The rationale behind this approach is to exploit the spatial dependence among these factors to come up with better regional estimates. Since the reality in many countries is that we cannot have all factors measured in all areas in the foreseeable future, or the resolution of data for deriving the factors is limited, we believe our approach provide a viable alternative which is of practical importance.

(2) *The authors present the Chinese variant of the USLE, which identified all important parameters of erosion (Eq. 1, P. 6, line 23), why not using these parameters as co-variables in an interpolation or apply the model itself.*

Response: It seems that there is some misunderstanding here. We can only obtain the information for all seven erosion factors in the CSLE in the Primary Sample Unit (PSU), not for the entire region. Therefore, it is impossible to using all erosion parameters as co-variables in an interpolation or conduct a raster multiplication of all seven parameters in the CSLE. We made this more clear in the revision (Page 6; Line 3-8; Page 9 Line 7-9).

For the entire region, the information we can get at this stage is land use, rainfall erosivity (R) and soil erodibility (K). As explained in (1), we did apply the model itself by using parameters that are available in all area (land use, R and K) as covariates in our semi-parametric model (equation 5, 7 and 9), and interpolate the rest of the parameters aggregated as factor Q.

The other factors including the slope length, slope degree, biological, engineering and tillage practice factors are either impossible or very difficult to obtain for the entire region at this stage. We sampled small watersheds (PSUs) to collect detailed topography information and conducted field survey to collect soil and water conservation practice information. Previous research showed that topography factors should be derived from high resolution topography information (such as 1:10000 or larger scale topography contour map). Topography factors based on smaller scale of topography map (such as 1:50000 or 1:100000) in the mountainous and hilly area have large uncertainties. We can obtain 1:10000 topography contour map for the PSUs, but not for the entire region. For the forest land, the vegetation coverage derived from the remote sensing data was used as the canopy cover density, which was combined with the vegetation fraction and residue under the trees collected **during the field survey** to estimate the half-month biological practice factor. The vegetation fraction and residue under the trees is of great importance in protecting soil and it cannot be derived from satellite images.

Engineering and tillage practice factors were **based on the sample field survey**. It is difficult to collect these factors from images with common resolution.

(3) *From the different interpolation models presented it is obvious that those taking some of the important erosion drivers into account (models II-V) outperform model I, which solely use the erosion data for interpolation. …I do not think that the presented approach is a promising pathway to follow.*

Response: Our contribution in this paper is twofold. First, our study quantified how important the knowledge of land use, rainfall erosivity and soil erodibility in all area are for estimating regional soil loss (*Land use is the key auxiliary information for the spatial model, which contributed much more information than R and K factors did. See* Page 14 Line 3-7). Second, we introduced a new regional soil erosion assessment method combining sample survey and geostatistics, which is valuable for regions with limited input data or limited data resolution. In the introduction part, we reviewed four methodologies for assessing regional soil erosion including a) fractional scoring, b) plot measurements, c) field-based approach, and d) model-based approach. Three kinds of (R)USLE-based approach include 1) area sample survey approach used by NRI in the USA, 2) raster multiplication used by Europe, Australia, and many other regions and 3) sample survey and geostatistics approach used in the fourth census on soil erosion in China, which was introduced in this study. All these methodologies have their suitability and limitations as discussed in the introduction part (Page 3 Line 21-28; Page 4, all lines; Page 5, Line 1-15). Raster multiplication is a popular model-based approach due to its lower cost, simpler procedures and easier explanation of result map. If the resolution of input data for the entire region is enough to derive all the erosion factors, raster multiplication approach is the best choice. However, there are several concerns about raster multiplication approach: (1) The information for the support practices factor (P) in the USLE is not easy to be collected given the common image resolution and was not included in some assessments (Lu et al., 2001; Rao et al., 2015), in which the resulting maps don't reflect the condition of soil loss but the risk of soil loss. Also, without the information of P factor, it is impossible to assess the benefit from the soil and water conservation practices. (2) The accuracy of soil erosion estimation for each cell is of concern if the resolution of database used to derive the erosion factors is limited. Thomas et al. (2015) showed that the range of LS factor values derived from four sources of DEM (20 m DEM generated from 1:50,000 topographic maps, 30 m DEM from ASTER, 90 m DEM from shuttle radar topography mapping mission (SRTM) and 250 m DEM from global multi-resolution terrain elevation data (GMTED)) were considerably different. As we mentioned in the supplement of SC2: 'Response to main comments by Referee #2' (Shuiqing Yin, 17 Oct 2016), a recent research by our group showed that the slope steepness based on the 30 m ASTER GDEM V1 is about 64% lower and the slope length on the other hand was 265% larger, compared with the reference value based on the topography map with a scale of 1:2000 for a mountainous watershed in Northern China. For many regions in the world, data used to derive erosion factor such as conservation practice factor is often not available for all area, or the resolution is not adequate for the assessment, as the referee has mentioned. Therefore, the assessment method combining sample survey and geostatistics proposed in this study is valuable. We added the information above in the revision to make it more clear (Page 4 Line 11-21).

AUTHOR RESPONSE TO RC #2

Main comments:

1. The authors present in the introduction a number of methodologies for assessing soil erosion: a) factorial scoring b) plot measurements c) field-based approach d) Modelling (RUSLE). Then they analyse more in detail the application of RUSLE as 3 different options: 1) sample survey 2) raster multiplication 3) sample survey and geostatistics. The authors have followed the third option. Find below the most important remarks and issues that authors should address in their revision: First remark: I would appreciate if the authors have compared their results with the second option. This would give much more advanced knowledge in the manuscript. You mentioned that you have available K-factor, R-factor maps at 250m resolution plus a land use map at 100000 scale. So, it would have been excellent to compare your results with an estimated Soil loss by water erosion (simply multiplying the above mentioned high resolution grids).

   Response: It is not difficult to conduct raster layer multiplication technically, however, we think the multiplication of R and K factors (assuming L=1, S=1, B=1, E=1, T=1) reflects the potential of soil erosion, which is different from the soil erosion estimated in this study. Therefore, no revision was made here.

2. As the 1st reviewer said (and I agree), the authors have presented an interpolation method which takes into account 5 different group of parameters. It is logical (and obvious that the IV and V would perform much better than the I. In a recent research (to be online soon), we identified cover management factor as the most sensitive for estimating soil loss by water erosion. The manuscript could be even more worthy if the authors have compared their findings with alternative methods (plot measurements, expert knowledge, field-based approach).

   Response: In the original manuscript, we did some comparison with the plot measurements (Guo et al., 2015). We added more comparison with the result of the first three nationwide soil erosion investigations over China (Page 15 Line 19-25) and the observation on the soil erosion rate for the forest and sediment discharge for two watersheds (Page 16 Line 20-22).

3. The findings regarding the forests are much too high. Erosion of > 3 t ha-1 in forest is not at all acceptable. Even there can be very steep slopes, the forestland

experience erosion of much less than 1 t ha-1 annually. Their comparison with the findings of Guo (2015) and the findings in Europe (2015) show that erosion in forests is much less. The same applies for grasslands. Please consider also a comparison of your findings with the paper of Wang et al (2016) "Assessment of soil erosion change and its relationships with land use/cover change in China from the end of the 1980s to 2010".

Response: Wang et al. (2016) used a factorial scoring method to assess soil erosion risk and change in China from the end of the 1980s to 2010. As it was discussed in the introduction of this study, the resulting map by the factorial scoring method depicts classes ranging from very low to very high erosion or erosion risk. However, it can't generate soil erosion rates. We are also concerned about the relatively high erosion rates of forest and grassland in the Shaanxi province compared with some previous research. Our analyse showed that they came from the Primary Sampling Units, and was not introduced by the spatial interpolation process. Possible reasons include: the different definitions of forest and grassland, concentrated storms with intense rainfall, the unique topography in Loess plateau and the sparse vegetation cover due to intensive human activities (Zheng and Wang, 2014). The minimum canopy density (crown cover) threshold for the forest across the world vary from 10-30% (Lambrechts et al., 2009) and a threshold of 10% was used in this study, which suggests on average a lower cover coverage and higher B factor. Annual average precipitation varies between 328-1280 mm in Shaanxi, with 64% concentrating in June through September. Most rainfall comes from heavy storms of short duration, which suggests the erosivity density (rainfall erosivity per unit rainfall amount) is high. The slope degree and slope length for the forest and grassland in Shaanxi province have been discussed in the original manuscript (Page 16 Line 18-20; 24-26). The grassland includes the native and artificial grassland, with more intensive livestock and human activities. The result from the observation for two watersheds showed that the erosion rate in the forest estimated in this study was consistent with the observation. More discussion has been added in the revision (Page 16 Line 8-26).

4. Authors should explain and justify the selection of their statistical model BPST and not the selection of Cubist or GPR or regression krigining? Moreover, In your geo-statistical model, the topography is ignored. Why?

Response: In spatial data analysis, there are mainly two approaches to make the prediction of a target variable. One approach (e.g., kriging) treats the value of a target variable at each location as a random variable and uses the covariance function between these random variables or a variogram to represent the correlation; another approach (e.g., spline or wavelet smoothing) uses a deterministic smooth surface function to describe the variations and connections among values at different locations. Our work (Bivariate Penalized Spline over Triangulation, BPST) takes the second approach. The relationship between the traditional spatial statistics, and splines have been discussed in the literature, e.g.

Matheron (1981) and Wahba (1990). A brief comment is presented in the following. Specifically, as discussed in Mitas and Mitasova (1999), “Kriging assumes that the spatial distribution of a geographical phenomenon can be modeled by a realization of a random function and uses statistical techniques to analyze the data and statistical criteria for predictions. However, subjective decisions are necessary such as judgement about stationarity, choice of function for theoretical variogram, etc. In addition, often the data simply lack information about important features of the modelled phenomenon, such as surface analytical properties or physically acceptable local geometries.” In contrast, “Splines rely on a physical model with flexibility provided by change of elastic properties of the interpolation function. Often, physical phenomena result from processes which minimize energy, with a typical example of terrain with its balance between gravitation force, soil cohesion, and impact of climate. For these cases, splines have proven to be rather successful.” For our problem, we also pay special attention to the following two practical issues: (1) the data are not necessarily evenly distributed; observations can be dense at some locations while sparse at others; (2) the domain for the data can take non-rectangular shapes.

In this work we introduce bivariate splines on triangulations to handle irregular domains and propose to extend the idea of univariate penalized splines (Eilers and Marx, 1996) to the two-dimensional case. The BPST method we consider have several advantages. First, it provides good approximations of smooth functions over complicated domains. Second, the computational cost for spline evaluation and parameter estimation are manageable. Third, the BPST doesn’t require the data to be evenly distributed or on regular-spaced grid.

Topography factors based on smaller scale of topography map in the mountainous and hilly area have large uncertainties. A recent research by our group showed that the slope steepness based on the 30 m ASTER GDEM V1 is about 64% lower and the slope length on the other hand was increased by 265%, compared with the reference value based on the topography map with a scale of 1:2000 for a mountainous watershed in Northern China. We haven’t obtained topography map with such high resolution yet. If larger scale topography map could be collected, it is not difficult to incorporate topography factors into our model by adding L and S factors in the equations (8) and (9). We added the information above in the revision to make it more clear (Page 9 Line 3-9).

5. The field survey (section 2.1) indicates that the sampling of erosion points was not so dense. Please give some levels of uncertainty taking into account that you sampled on PSU every 25 km2 even less. Moreover, you mentioned that “PSU points were surveyed”, you don’t describe how you estimate the R, K, LS, B, E, T factors in each point? Did you sample and analyze the soil for estimating K-factor? Did you install a high temporal resolution rainfall station for measuring R-factor? Etc. Maybe this is somehow written in section 2.3 but it is not clear as you don’t provide detailed information on how the R-factor, K-factor was calculated. In the same way that you criticize the non-availability of all input layers when

multiplying the grids (factors), somebody can criticize your methodology that non all information (K-factor, R-factor, ect) is available at point level. How you respond to this?

Response: The density of sample units in our survey depends on the level of uncertainty and the budget of the survey. We tested sample density of 4% in four experimental counties in different regions over China and found a density of 1% was acceptable given the current financial condition (Page 7 Line 4-7). Lai and Wang (2013) provided the asymptotic properties of the BPST method, For example, they investigated how the bias and variance of the BPST estimator change with respect to the sample size and the number of the triangulations. Since our data are a little sparse in some area, we employed the roughness penalties to regularize the spline fit; see the energy functional defined in equation (12). When the sampling is sparse in certain area, the direct BPST method may not be effective since the results may have high variability due to the small sample size. The penalized BPST is more suitable for this type of data because it can help to regularize the fit (Page 12 Line 7-9).

We added more information about how we estimated the R, K, LS, B, E, and T factors in each point (PSU) (See Page 9 Line 17-25). We didn't install a rainfall station or collect soil samples for measuring R or K factor for each PSU. Instead, we collected 2678 weather and hydrologic stations with erosive daily rainfall from 1981 through 2010 and generated the R factor raster map over the entire China (Xie et al., 2016). And for the K factor, the physicochemical data of 16,493 soil samples (which belong to 7764 soil series, 3366 soil families, 1597 soil subgroups and 670 soil groups according to Chinese Soil Taxonomy) from the Second National Soil Survey in 1980s and the latest soil physicochemical data of 1065 samples through the ways of field sampling, data sharing and consulting literatures were collected to generate the K factor for the entire country (Liang et al., 2013; Liu et al., 2013). **The R and K factors for each PSU were clipped from the map of the entire country.** A topography contour map with a scale of 1:10000 for each PSU was collected to derive the slope length and slope degree and to calculate the slope length factor and slope steepness factor (Fu et al., 2013). The calculation of B, E and T was based on the field survey of each PSU. As we know that R factor in USLE requires the breakpoint rainfall data more than 20 years, which is not feasible if a rainfall station was set up in each PSU. We assumed that the variation of R factor could be captured by more than 2000 stations over China, which were the most stations we could collect at present. Soil maps with scales of 1:500,000 to 1:200,000 (for different provinces) generated more than 0.18 million polygons of soil attributes over mainland China, which was the best available spatial resolution of soil information we could collect at present. We assumed the result of the soil survey could be used to estimate the K factor in our soil erosion survey. R factor and K factor in the sample point of NRI USA was also from the interpolation result of weather stations and soil survey map, respectively. We added the information above in the revision (See Page 9 Line 17-25).

More specific comments related to text:

- P2L25-26: Rephrase the sentence.

Response: Followed the suggestion and revised it (Page 2 Line 26-27).

- P2L3: The reference should be Panagos et al, 2016a. The paper of Panagos et al, 2015a in your reference list does not feature in the literature. Please check carefully your literature. The same in P2L6 (it should be Panagos et al 2015; Panagos et al., 2016a).

Response: We supposed the referee refers P3L3 and P3L6. They were corrected and one reference missing in the old version was added. (Evans, R., and Boardman, J.: The new assessment of soil loss by water erosion in Europe. Panagos P. et al., 2015 Environ. Sci. Policy 54, 438–447—A response. Environ. Sci. Policy, 58, 11-15, 2016.) They were revised (Page 3 Line 4-7).

- P3L16-17: You cannot put in the same importance the papers of Bosco (2015) and Panagos (2015) regarding the European soil erosion assessments. The second one is much more advanced with new knowledge. For more info about the model evolution in Europe, please consider the paper of Borrelli et al (2016), Land Use policy.

Response: Thanks for your information. We reviewed the paper of Borrelli et al. (2016), Effect of good agricultural and environmental conditions on erosion and soil organic carbon balance: A national case study, land use policy, 2016(50): 408-421) and the information provided in the paper has been added in the revision (Page 3 Line 16-20).

- P3L23-25: some references to NRI methodology and the outcome results are missing here. I would also appreciate some applications and datasets derived (With references) from this methodology.

Response: The 2012 NRI is the current NRI data, which provides nationally consistent data on the status, condition, and trends of land, soil, water, and related resources on the Nation's non-Federal lands for the 30-year period 1982-2012. USDA-NRCS (2015) summarized the results from the 2012 NRI, which also include a description of the NRI methodology and use. A summary of NRI results on rangeland is presented in Herrick et al. (2010). See for example Brejda et al. (2001), Hernandez, M., et al. (2013) for some applications using NRI data. See the revision in Page 3 Line 23-30; Page 4 Line 1-4.

- P4L6-9: The European assessments was commented by 2 papers (you have put the 3 comments here) but you ignore the response of Panagos et al (2016a, 2016b) to those 3 critiques.

Response: Panagos et al. (2006a, 2016b) argued that field survey proposed by Evans et al. (2015) is not suitable for the application at the European scale mainly due to work force and time requirements. They emphasized that the focus of their work is on the differences and similarities between regions and countries across the Europe and RUSLE model with the simple transparent structure can achieve their goal if harmonized datasets were inputted. We added this in the revision. The revision is in Page 4 Line 27-30.

- Section 2.2 and elsewhere: R-factor, K-factor and land use map. Please give some citations and source of this dada.

Response: Thanks for your suggestion. We introduced the source of the data and gave the Citations. The data for the R-factor was based on 2678 weather and hydrologic stations with erosive daily rainfall from 1981 through 2010. The daily model used to generate at-site R factor was Model I in **Xie et al. (2016)**. The data of K-factor was based on the physicochemical data of 16,493 soil samples from the Second National Soil Survey in 1980s and latest soil physicochemical data of 1,065 samples through the ways of field sampling, data sharing and consulting literatures (**Liang et al., 2013; Liu et al., 2013**). Land use map with a scale of 1:100000 was from China's Land Use/cover Datasets (CLUD), which were updated regularly at a five-year interval from the late 1980s through the year of 2010 with standard procedures based on Landsat TM/ETM images (**Liu et al., 2014**). Land use map used in this study was the version of 2010. The revision is in Page 8 Line 17-28.

- You may be familiar with CSLE but for some non-Chinese, it would be better to write 2 lines about the biological and engineering factor.

Response: Good suggestion! We revise it (Page 8 Line 7-16). Biological (B), Engineering (E) and Tillage (T) factor was defined as the ratio of soil loss from the actual plot with biological, engineering or tillage practices to the unit plot. Biological practices are the measures to increase the vegetation coverage for reducing runoff and soil loss such as trees, shrubs and grass plantation and natural rehabilitation of vegetation. Engineering practices refer to the changes of topography by engineering construction on both arable and non-arable land using non-normal farming equipment (such as earth mover) for reducing runoff and soil loss such as terrace, check dam and so on. Tillage practices are the measures taken on the arable land during ploughing, harrowing and cultivation processes using normal farming operations for reducing runoff and soil loss such as crop rotation, strip cropping and so on (Liu et al., 2002).

- P7L11-13: Your method has many similarities with the estimation of C-factor in Europe based on vegetation density and land use (Panagos et al., 2015 Land use policy).

Response: Yes. Both C-factor in Panagos et al. (2015) and B-factor in this study for forest, shrub land and grassland were estimated based on the vegetation density derived from satellite images. The difference is that C factor in Panagos et al. (2015) for arable land and non-arable land was estimated separately based on different methodologies, whereas in this study, the biological factor (B factor) was used to reflect biological practices on the forest, shrub land or grassland for reducing runoff and soil loss and the tillage factor (T factor) was used to reflect tillage practices on the farmland for reducing runoff and soil loss. For the farmland, biological factor equals 1 and for the other land uses, tillage factor equals 1. Revision is in Page 9 Line 19-27.

- P7 Equations 2 and 3: they seem to be very similar. Which is the difference, please explain.

Response: Yes, they were similar because both of them used weight-averaged method by the area of plots. The difference is Equation 2 is for the estimation of soil loss for each land use in the PSU and Equation 3 is for the estimation of soil loss for the entire PSU. Revision is in Page 10 Line 1-7.

- Model I has no sense as it is obvious to be so poor!!!

Response: Model I was a naive method which was used as a comparison (Page 10 Line 10-11).

- Section 2.4.2: you start without any introduction about BPST model. Please add an introductory paragraph

Response: Good suggestion. We will add an introduction paragraph about Bivariate Penalized Spline over Triangulation (BPST) method as follows in the revision: "*In spatial data analysis, there are mainly two approaches to make the prediction of a target variable. One approach (e.g., kriging) treats the value of a target variable at each location as a random variable and uses the covariance function between these random variables or a variogram to represent the correlation; another approach (e.g., spline or wavelet smoothing) uses a deterministic smooth surface function to describe the variations and connections among values at different locations. In this study, Bivariate Penalized Spline over Triangulation (BPST), which belongs to the second approach, was used to explore the relationship between location information in a two-dimensional (2-D) domain and the response variable. Given the complexity of the boundary in our data, traditional methods of smoothing which rely on the Euclidean metric or which measures smoothness over the entire real plane may then be inappropriate; see excellent discussions in Ramsay (2002) and Wood et al (2008). Here we present a method using bivariate splines over triangulations to smooth scattered bivariate data over domains with complex boundaries. The smoothing function is the minimum of a penalized sum-of-squares error functional. To be more specific, Let* $(x_i, y_i) \in \Omega$ *be the latitude and longitude of unit i for* $i = 1, 2, \ldots, n$*....*" Revision is in Page 11 Line 20-24; Page 12 Line 1-9.

- P11L13-15: it is obvious that model I and II will have no extreme erosion levels (as the land use is ignored). The smoothening effect is obvious!

Response: It is true that when the land use is ignored, the extreme erosion levels, mostly in farmland and bare land, were smoothed by the surrounding low erosion levels, mostly in forest, shrub land, grassland and construction land (Page 14 Line 16-18).

- Conclusions: P14L5-6: it is better somewhere in the introduction. In general the conclusions should highlight the important findings of this study.

Response: Good suggestion. We revised it (Page 6, Line 9-18; Page 17, Line 18-25). Many studies indicated that land use is one of the most important factors in soil erosion estimation. Our study quantified how important the knowledge of land use, rainfall erosivity and soil erodibility are for estimating regional soil loss by comparing five different spatial models. Besides, we introduced a new model-based regional soil erosion assessment method, which is valuable when input data used to derive soil erosion factors is not available for the entire region, or the resolution is not adequate.

- The way forward: The authors should conclude about the usefulness of their methodology. How this can be used? How it can be complementary to the traditional multiplication of grids.

Response: Good suggestion! We have add more information in the revision (Page 18 Line 4-16. When the input data used to derive soil erosion factors is not available or the resolution is not adequate, and the budget is limited, our suggestion is sampling a certain amount of small watersheds as primary sampling units and put the limited money into these sampling units to ensure the accuracy of soil erosion estimation in these sampling units. Limited money could be used to collect high resolution of data such as satellite images and topography maps and conduct field survey to collect information such as conservation practices for these small watersheds. Then use the best available raster layers for the entire region and construct the spatial model by aggregating them as a factor Q.

Fig1: The Dark green image Towner-ship cannot be 10 x 40km?

Response: It was a typo and it has been revised (Fig. 2). Thank you!

Fig2: The land uses are 5 and not 3.

Response: The categories of land use are three including the farmland, forest and residential area. There are five plots, two of which are farmland, two are forest and one is residential area. More explanation was added in the revision (Fig 3).

Fig 5: It is difficult to see the distinction between 40-80 and 80 categories in the first bar.

Response: The percentage of over 80 t $ha^{-1}y^{-1}$ is small. A different color has been used in the revision (Fig. 7).

Fig. 7: Scale bar and overview map is missing. As a non-Chinese, I don’t know where this province is located.

Response: A figure with an overview map has been added in the revision (Fig.1 has been added). Thank you!

Minor comments:

- P5L7: please replace with “erodibility”

Response: There is a typo on P5L7 (erobility should be erodibility). Revised. Thanks!

- “soil species” is not a mature term

Response: We changed “soil species” into “soil series” according to Chinese Soil Taxonomy, in which the classification system is Order-Suborder-Group-Subgroup-Families-Series (Gong and Zhang, 2007). Page 8 Line 26.

- 3.1: Four or Five models?

Response: It was a typo and it was five models. It has been corrected in the revision.

References:

[1] Borrelli P., Paustian K., Panagos P., Jones A., Schütt, B., Lugato, E.: Effect of good agricultural and environmental conditions on erosion and soil organic carbon balance: A national case study. Land use policy, 50: 408-421, 2016.

[2] Brejda, John J., et al. "Estimating surface soil organic carbon content at a regional scale using the National Resource Inventory." Soil Science Society of America Journal 65.3 (2001): 842-849.

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Regional soil erosion assessment based on sample survey and geostatistics

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Abstract. Soil erosion is one of the major environmental problems in China. From 2010-2012 in China, the fourth national census for soil erosion sampled 32,~~-~~364 Primary Sampling Units (PSUs, small~~micro~~ watersheds) with the areas of 0.2-3 km^2. Land use and soil erosion controlling factors including rainfall erosivity, soil erodibility, slope length, slope steepness, biological practice, engineering practice, and tillage practice for the PSUs were surveyed, and soil loss rate for each land use in the PSUs were estimated using an empirical model Chinese Soil Loss Equation (CSLE). Though the information collected from the sample units can be aggregated to estimate soil erosion conditions on a large scale, the problem of estimating soil erosion condition on a regional scale has not been well addressed. The aim of this study is to introduce a new model-based regional soil erosion assessment method combining sample survey and geostatistics.~~a new spatial interpolation method based on Bivariate Penalized Spline over Triangulation (BPST) for the estimation of regional soil erosion.~~ We compared five spatial interpolation models based on Bivariate Penalized Spline over Triangulation (BPST) method to generate a regional soil erosion assessment from the PSUs. Land use, rainfall erosivity, and soil erodibility at the resolution of 250×250 m pixels for the entire domain were used as the auxiliary information. Shaanxi province (3,116 PSUs) in China was used to conduct the comparison and assessment as it is one of the areas with the most serious erosion problem~~areas~~. The results showed ~~that the~~ three models with land use as the auxiliary information generated much lower mean squared errors (MSE) than the other two models without land use. The model assisted by the land use, rainfall erosivity factor (R), and soil erodibility factor (K) is the best one, which has MSE less than half that of the model smoothing soil loss in the PSUs directly. 56.5% of total land in Shaanxi province has annual soil loss greater than 5 t ha^{-1} y^{-1}. High (20-40 t ha^{-1} y^{-1}), severe (40-80 t ha^{-1} y^{-1}) and extreme (>80 t ha^{-1} y^{-1}) erosion occupied 14.3% of the total land. The farmland, forest, shrub land and grassland in Shaanxi province had mean soil loss rates of 19.00, 3.50, 10.00, and 7.20 t ha^{-1} y^{-1}, respectively. Annual soil loss was about 198.7 Mt in Shaanxi province, with 67.8% of soil loss originated~~ing~~ from the farmlands and grasslands in Yan'an and Yulin districts in the northern Loess Plateau region and Ankang and Hanzhong districts in the southern Qingba mountainous region. This methodology provides a more accurate regional soil erosion assessment and can help policy-makers to take effective measures to mediate soil erosion risks.

1 Introduction

With a growing population and a more vulnerable climate system, land degradation is becoming one of the biggest threats to food security and sustainable agriculture in the world. Water and wind erosion are the two primary causes of land degradation (Blanco and Lal, 2010). To improve the management of soil erosion and aid policy-makers to take suitable remediation measures and mitigation strategies, the first step is to monitor and assess the related system to obtain timely and reliable information about soil erosion conditions under present climate and land use. The risks of soil erosion under different scenarios of climate change and land use are also very important (Kirkby et al., 2008).

Scale is a critical issue in soil erosion modeling and management (Renschler and Harbor, 2002). When the spatial scale is small, experimental runoff plots, soil erosion markers (e.g. Caesium 137) or river sediment concentration measurement devices (e.g. optical turbidity sensors) are useful tools. However, when the regional scale is considered, it is impractical to measure soil loss across the entire region. A number of approaches were used to assess the regional soil erosion in different countries and regions over the world, such as expert-based factorial scoring, plot-based, field-based and model-based assessments, etc.

Factorial scoring was used to assess soil erosion risk when erosion rates are not required, and one only need a spatial distribution of erosion (CORINE, 1992; Guo and Li, 2009; Le Bissonnais et al., 2001). The classification or scoring of erosion factors (e.g. land use, rainfall erosivity, soil erodibility and slope) into discrete classes and the criteria used to combine the classes are based on expert experience. The resulting map depicts classes ranging from very low to very high erosion or erosion risk. However, f~~F~~actorial scoring approach has limitations on ~~, however, due to its~~ subjectivity and qualitative characteristics (Morgan, 1995; Grimm et al., 2002). Plot-based approach extrapolated the measurements from runoff plots to the region (Gerdan et al., 2010; Guo et al., 2015). However, Gerdan et al. (2010) discussed that the direct extrapolation may lead to poor estimation of regional erosion rates if the scale issue is not carefully taken into consideration. Evan et al., (2015) recommended a field-based approach combining visual interpretations of aerial and terrestrial photos and direct field survey of farmers' fields in Britain. However, its efficiency, transparency and accuracy were questioned (Panagos et al., ~~2015a~~2016a).

The model-based approach can not only assess soil loss up to the present time, but also has the advantage of assessing future soil erosion risk under different scenarios of climate change, land use and conservation practices (Kirkby et al., 2008; Panagos et al., 2015~~a~~). USLE (Wischmeier and Smith, 1965; Wischmeier and Smith, 1978) is an empirical model based on the regression analyses of more than 10,000 plot-years of soil loss data in the USA and is designed to estimate long-term annual erosion rates on agricultural fields. (R)USLE (Wischmeier and Smith, 1978; Renard et al., 1997; Foster, 2004) and other adapted versions (for example, Chinese Soil Loss Equation, CSLE, Liu et al., 2002), are the most widely used models in the regional scale soil erosion assessment due to relative simplicity and robustness (Singh et al., 1992; Van der Knijff et al., 2000; Lu et al., 2001; Grimm et al., 2003; Liu, 2013; Bosco et al., 2015; Panagos et al., 2015~~b~~). A physically based and spatially distributed model, the Pan-European Soil Erosion Risk (PESERA) model (Kirkby et al., 2000), is recommended for use in a policy framework (DPSIR, driving-force-pressure-state-impact-response) in Europe (Gobin et al., 2004). However, ~~Bosco et al. (2015) and Panagos et al. (2015b) argued that~~ the input data required by the PESERA model was not always available with sufficient accuracy, which limited its use at regional and continental scale (Borrelli et al., 2016).~~.~~ Bosco et al. (2015) used an Extended RUSLE (e-RUSLE) model in the recent water erosion assessment in Europe due to its low-data demand. ~~Extended RUSLE (e-RUSLE) model and RUSLE2015~~ Panagos et al. (2015) presented the application of RUSLE2015 to estimate soil loss in Europe by introducing updated and high-resolution datasets for deriving soil erosion factors. ~~were used instead in the recent water erosion assessment in Europe.~~

The applications of USLE and its related models in the assessment of regional soil erosion can be generally grouped into three categories. The first category is the area sample survey approach. One representative is the National Resource Inventory (NRI) survey on U.S. non-Federal lands (Nusser and Goebel, 1997; Goebel, 1998; Breidt and Fuller, 1999). The NRI survey has been conducted at 5-year interval since 1977, and changed to the current annual supplemented panel survey design in 2000. The point level soil erosion estimate is produced based on the USLE before 2007, and RUSLE estimate is produced after 2007. The 2012 NRI is the current NRI data, which provides nationally consistent data on the status, condition, and trends of land, soil, water, and related resources on the Nation's non-Federal lands for the 30-year period 1982-2012. USDA-NRCS (2015) summarized the results from the 2012 NRI, which also include a description of the NRI methodology and use. A summary of NRI results on rangeland is presented in Herrick et al. (2010). See for example Brejda et al. (2001), Hernandez, ~~M.,~~ et al. (2013) for some applications using NRI data. Since a rigorous probability based area sampling approach is used to select the sampling sites, the design based approach is robust and reliable when it is used to estimate the soil erosion at the national and state level. However, due to sample size limitations, estimates at the sub-state level are more uncertain.

The second category is based on the multiplication of seamless grids. Each factor in the (R)USLE model is a raster layer and soil loss was obtained by the multiplication of numerous factors, which was usually conducted under GIS environment (Lu et al. 2001; Bosco et al., 2015; Panagos et al., 2015~~b~~; Ganasri and Ramesh, 2015; Rao et al., 2015; Bahrawi et al., 2016). Raster multiplication is a popular model-based approach due to its lower cost, simpler procedures and easier explanation of resulting map. If~~Given~~ ~~If~~ the resolution of input data for the entire region is enough to derive all the erosion factors, raster multiplication approach is the best choice. However, there are several concerns about raster multiplication approach: (1) The information for the support practices factor (P) in the USLE ~~is~~was not easy to~~ be~~ collect~~ed~~ given the common image resolution and was not included in some assessments (Lu et al., 2001; Rao et al., 2015), in which the resulting maps don't reflect the condition of soil loss but the risk of soil loss. W~~Also, w~~ithout the information of P factor, it is also impossible to assess the benefit from the soil and water conservation practices. (2) The accuracy of soil erosion estimation for each cell is of concern if the resolution of database used to derive the erosion factors is limited. For example, Thomas et al. (2015) showed that the range of LS factor values derived from four sources of DEM (20 m DEM generated from 1:50,000 topographic maps, 30 m DEM from ASTER, 90 m DEM from shuttle radar topography mapping mission (SRTM) and 250 m DEM from global multi-resolution terrain elevation data (GMTED)) were considerably different, which suggested ~~T~~the grid resolutions of factor layers are critical and are determined by the data resolution used to derive the factor. A European water erosion assessment which introduced high-resolution (100 m) input layers reported the result that the mean soil loss rate in the European Union's erosion-prone lands was 2.46 t ha^{-1} y^{-1} (Panagos et al., 2015~~b~~). This work is scientifically controversial mainly due to questions on these three aspects: (1) Should the assessment be based on the model simulation or the field survey? (2) Are the basic principles of the (R)USLE disregarded? and (3) Are the estimated soil loss rates realistic (Evans and Boardman, 2016; Fiener and Auerswald, 2016; Panagos et al., 2016a, b)? Panagos et al. (2006a, 2016b) argued that field survey method proposed by Evans et al. (2015) is not suitable for the application at the European scale mainly due to work force and time requirements. They emphasized ~~that the focus of~~ their work focused~~is~~ on the differences and similarities between regions and countries across the Europe and RUSLE model with the simple transparent structure can achieve their goal if harmonized datasets were inputted.

The third category is based on the sample survey and geostatistics. One example is the fourth census on soil erosion in China, which was conducted during 2010-2012 (Liu, 2013). Ministry of Water Resources of the People's Republic of China (MWR) has organized four nationwide soil erosion investigations. The first three (in mid-1980s, 1999 and 2000) were mainly based on field survey, visual interpretation by experts and factorial scoring method (Wang et al., 2016). The third investigation used 30 m resolution of Landsat TM images and 1:50000 topography map. Six soil erosion intensities were classified mainly based on the slope for the arable land and a combination of slope and vegetation coverage for the non-arable land. The limitations for the first three investigations include the limited resolution of satellite images and topography maps, limited soil erosion factors considered (rainfall erosivity factor, soil erodibility factor, and practice factor were not considered), incapability of generating the soil erosion rate, and incapability of assessing the benefit from the soil and water conservation practices. The fourth census was based on a stratified unequal probability systematic sampling method (Liu et al., 2013). In total, 32,~~-~~364 Primary Sampling Units (PSUs) were identified nationwide to collect factors for water erosion prediction (Liu, 2013). ~~The Chinese Soil Loss Equation (~~CSLE~~)~~ was used to estimate the soil loss for the PSUs. A spatial interpolation model was used to estimate the soil loss for the non-sampled sites.

Remote sensing technique has unparalleled advantage and potential in the work of regional scale soil erosion assessment (Veirling, 2006; Le Roux et al., 2007; Guo and Li, 2009; Mutekanga et al., 2010; El Haj El Tahir et al., 2010). The aforementioned assessment method based on the multiplication of erosion factors under GIS interface was largely dependent on the remote sensing dataset (Panagos et al., 2015b; Ganasri and Ramesh, 2015; Bahrawi et al., 2016), which also provide important information for the field survey work. For example, NRI relied exclusively on the high resolution remote sensing images taken from fixed wing airplanes to collect land cover information. However, many characteristics of soil erosion cannot be derived from remote sensing images. Other limitations include the accuracy of remote sensing data, the resolution of remote sensing images, financial constraints and so on, which result in some important factors influencing soil erosion being not available for the entire domain. It is important to note is that the validation is necessary and required to evaluate the performance of a specific regional soil erosion assessment method, although the validation process is difficult to implement in the regional scale assessment and is not well addressed in the existing literature (Gobin et al., 2004; Vrieling, 2006; Le Roux et al., 2007; Kirkby, et al., 2008).

There is an important issue arising in the regional soil erosion assessment based on survey sample, which is how to infer the soil erosion conditions including the extent, spatial distribution and intensity for the entire domain from the information of PSUs. NRI used primarily a design based approach to estimate domain level statistics. While robust and reliable for large domains which contain enough sample sites, such method cannot be used to compute the estimate for the small domain. In the fourth census of soil erosion in China, a simple spatial model was used to smooth the proportion of soil erosion directly. Land use is one of the critical pieces of information in the soil erosion assessment (Ganasri and Ramesh, 2015) which is available for the entire domain. ~~and~~ T~~some of t~~he erosion factors~~ such as~~ rainfall erosivity and soil erodibility are also available~~may be provided~~ for the entire domain. The other factors including the slope length, slope degree, biological, engineering and tillage practice factors are either impossible or very difficult to obtain for the entire region at this stage. We sampled small watersheds (PSUs) to collect detailed topography information and conducted field survey to collect soil and water conservation practice information. The purpose of this study is to introduce a new regional soil erosion assessment method combining sample survey and geostatistics and compare five semi-parametric spatial interpolation models based on bivariate penalized spline over triangulation (BPST) method to generate regional soil loss (A) assessment from the PSUs. The five models are: smoothing A directly (Model I), estimating A assisted by R and K factors (Model II), estimating A assisted by land use (Model III), estimating A assisted by R and land use (Model IV) and estimating A assisted by R, K and land use (V). There are~~were~~ 3116 PSUs in the Shaanxi province and its surrounding areas which were used as an example to conduct the comparison and demonstrate assessment procedures (Fig. 1). For many regions in the world, data used to derive erosion factor such as conservation practice factor is often not available for all area, or the resolution is not adequate for the assessment. Therefore, the assessment method combining sample survey and geostatistics proposed in this study is valuable.

2 Data and Methods

2.1 Sample and field survey

The design of the fourth census on soil erosion in China is based on a map with Gauss–Krüger projection, where the whole China was divided into 22 zones with each zone occupying three longitude degrees width (From central meridian towards west and east 1.5 degrees each). Within each zone, beginning from the central meridian and the equator, we generated grids with a size of 40 km × 40 km (Fig. ~~1~~2), which are the units at the first level (County level). The second level is Township level with a size of 10 km × 10 km. The third level is the control area, with a size of 5 km × 5 km. The fourth level is the 1 km × 1 km grid located in the middle of the control area. The 1 km × 1 km grid is the PSU in the plain area, whereas in the mountainous area, a small watershed with area between 0.2-3 km^2 which also intersects with the fourth level 1 km × 1 km grid is randomly picked as the PSU. The area for the mountainous PSU is restricted to be between 0.2-3 km^2, which is large enough for the enumerator and not too large to be feasible to conduct field work. There is a PSU within every 25 km^2, which suggests the designed sample density is about 4%. In practice, due to the limitation of financial resources, the surveyed sample density is 1% for most mountainous areas. ~~The density of sample units in our survey depends on the level of uncertainty and the budget of the survey. We sampled a density of 4% in four experimental counties in different regions over China and found a density of 1% was acceptable given the current financial condition.~~The density of sample units in our survey depends on the level of uncertainty and the budget of the survey. We sampled a density of 4% in four experimental counties in different regions over China and found a density of 1% was acceptable given the current financial condition. The density for the plain area is reduced to 0.25% due to the lower soil erosion risk (Li et al., 2012).

The field survey work for each PSU mainly included: (1) recording the latitude and longitude information for the PSU using a GPS; (2) drawing boundaries of plots in a base map of the PSU; (3) collecting the information of land use and soil conservation measures for each plot; and (4) taking photos of the overview of PSUs, plots and soil and water conservation measures for future validation. A plot was defined as the continuous area with the same land use, the same soil and water conservation measures, and the same canopy density and vegetation fraction in the PSU (difference <=10%, Fig. 3~~2~~). For each plot, land use type, land use area, biological measures, engineering measures and tillage measures were surveyed. In addition, vegetation fraction was surveyed if the land use is a forest, shrub land or grassland. Canopy density is also surveyed if the land use is a forest.

2.2 Database of PSUs in Shaanxi and its surrounding areas

A convex hull of the boundary of Shaanxi province was generated, with a buffer area of 30 km outside of the convex hull (Fig. ~~3~~4). The raster of R factor, K factor and 1:100000 land use map with a resolution of 250×250 m pixels for the entire area were collected. PSUs located inside the entire area were used, which included 1775 PSUs in the Shaanxi province and 1341 PSUs from the provinces surrounding the Shaanxi province, including Gansu (430), Henan (112), Shanxi (345), Inner Mongolia (41), Hubei (151), Chongqing (55), Sichuan (156) and Ningxia (51). There were 3116 PSUs in total. We had the information of longitude and latitude, land use type, land use area and factor values of R, K, L, S, B, E and T for each plot of the PSU. The classification system of the land use for the entire area and that for the survey units were not synonymous with each other. They were grouped into eight land use types include (1) farmland, (2) forest, (3) shrub land, (4) grassland, (5) water body, (6) construction land, (7) bare land and (8) unused land such as sandy land, Gebi and uncovered rock to make them corresponding to each other.

2.3 Soil loss estimation for the plot, land use and PSU

Soil loss for a plot can be estimated using CSLE equation as follows:

$$A_{uk} = R_{uk} \cdot K_{uk} \cdot L_{uk} \cdot S_{uk} \cdot B_{uk} \cdot E_{uk} \cdot T_{uk}, \qquad (1)$$

where A_{uk} is the soil loss for the kth plot with the land use u (t ha^{-1} y^{-1}), R_{uk} is the rainfall erosivity (MJ mm ha^{-1} h^{-1} y^{-1}), K_{uk} is the soil erodibilty (t ha h MJ^{-1} ha^{-1} mm^{-1}), L_{uk} is the slope length factor, S_{uk} is the slope steepness factor, B_{uk} is the biological practice factor, E_{uk} is the engineering practice factor, T_{uk} is the tillage practice factor. The definitions of A, R and K are~~were~~ similar to~~with~~ that of USLE. Biological (B), Engineering (E) and Tillage (T) factor i~~wa~~s defined as the ratio of soil loss from the actual plot with biological, engineering or tillage practices to the unit plot. Biological practices are the measures to increase the vegetation coverage for reducing runoff and soil loss such as trees, shrubs and grass plantation and natural rehabilitation of vegetation. Engineering practices refer to the changes of topography by engineering construction on both arable and non-arable land using non-normal farming equipment (such as earth mover) for reducing runoff and soil loss such as terrace, check dam and so on. Tillage practices are the measures taken on the arable land during ploughing, harrowing and cultivation processes using normal farming operations for reducing runoff and soil loss such as crop rotation, strip cropping and so on (Liu et al., 2002).

Liu et al. (2013) introduced the data and methods for calculating each factor. Here we present a brief ~~i~~introduction. Land use map with a scale of 1:100000 i~~wa~~s from China's Land Use/cover Datasets (CLUD), which were updated regularly at a five-year interval from the late 1980s through the year of 2010 with standard procedures based on Landsat TM/ETM images (Liu et al., 2014). Land use map used in this study was the version of 2010 (Fig. 5a). 2678 weather and hydrologic stations with erosive daily rainfall from 1981 through 2010 were collected and used to generate the R factor raster map over the entire China (Xie et al., 2016). And for the K factor, soil maps with scales of 1:500,000 to 1:200,000 (for different provinces) from the Second National Soil Survey in 1980s generated more than 0.18 million polygons of soil attributes over mainland China, which was the best available spatial resolution of soil information we could collect at present. The physicochemical data of 16,~~-~~493 soil samples (belong to 7764 soil series, 3366 soil families, 1597 soil subgroups and 670 soil groups according to Chinese Soil Taxonomy) from the maps and the latest soil physicochemical data of 1065 samples through the ways of field sampling, data sharing and consulting literatures were collected to generate the K factor for the entire country (Liang et al., 2013; Liu et al., 2013). We assumed the result of the soil survey could be used to estimate the K factor in our soil erosion survey. ~~Soil surface attributes for 7764 soil species~~~~soil series~~ ~~from the Second National Soil Survey and more than 950 soil samples newly collected were used to generate the K factor for the country (Liu et al., 2013).~~ R factor raster map for the study area was clipped from the map of the country as well as the K factor raster map (Fig. 5b, c). Previous research showed topography factors should be derived from high resolution topography information (such as 1:10000 or larger scale topography contour map). Topography factors based on smaller scale of topography map (such as 1:50000 or 1:100000) in the mountainous and hilly area have large uncertainties. Topography contour maps with a scale of 1:10000 for the entire region were not available at present. Fig. 5d was based on SRTM 90m DEM dataset and it was used to demonstrate the variation in the topography, which was not used in the interpolation process due to its limited resolution. ~~-A t~~Topography contour map with a scale of 1:10000 for ~~each~~ PSUs were~~as~~ collected to derive the slope lengths and slope degrees and to calculate the slope length factors and slope steepness factors (Fu et al., 2013). The ~~A l~~land use map ~~with a scale of 1:100000~~ was used to determine the boundary of forest, shrub, and grass land. ~~-~~For these three land use types, MODIS NDVI and HJ-1 NDVI were combined to derive vegetation coverage. For the shrub and grass land, an assignment table was used to assign a value of the half-month B factor based on their vegetation coverage; For the forest land, the vegetation coverage derived from the aforementioned remote sensing data was used as the canopy density, which was combined with the vegetation fraction under the trees collected during the field survey to estimate the half-month B factor. The B factor for the whole year was weight-averaged by a weight of rainfall erosivity ratio for this half-month. Both C-factor in Panagos et al. (2015) and B-factor in this study for forest, shrub land and grassland were estimated based on the vegetation density derived from satellite images. The difference is that C factor in Panagos et al. (2015) for arable land and non-arable land was estimated separately based on different methodologies, whereas in this study, ~~the biological factor (~~B factor~~)~~ was used to reflect biological practices on the forest, shrub land or grassland for reducing runoff and soil loss and ~~the tillage factor (~~T factor~~)~~ was used to reflect tillage practices on the farmland for reducing runoff and soil loss. For the farmland, biological factor equals 1 and for the other land uses, tillage factor equals 1. The engineering practice factor and tillage practice factor were assigned values based on the field survey and assignment tables for different engineering and tillage measures, which were obtained from published references (Guo et al., 2015).

In a PSU, there may be several plots within the same land use. Soil loss for the same land use was weight-averaged by the area of the plots with the same land use:

$$A_{ui} = \frac{\sum_{k=1}^{q} (\mathrm{A}_{\mathrm{uik}} \mathrm{S}_{\mathrm{uik}})}{\sum_{k=1}^{q} \mathrm{S}_{\mathrm{uik}}}, \qquad (2)$$

where A_{ui} is the averaged soil loss for the land use u in the sample unit i; A_{uik} is the soil loss for the plot k with the land use u; S_{uik} is the area for the plot k with the land use u.

Soil loss for the entire PSU was ~~estimated by~~weight-averaged by the area of the plots.

$$A_i = \frac{\sum_{p=1}^{N} (\mathrm{A}_{\mathrm{ip}} \mathrm{S}_{\mathrm{ip}})}{\sum_{p=1}^{N} \mathrm{S}_{\mathrm{ip}}}, \qquad (3)$$

where A_i is the averaged soil loss for the sample unit i with N plots; A_{ip} is the soil loss for the plot p and S_{ip} is the area for the plot p.

2.4 Five spatial models based on BPST method

2.4.1 Five spatial models

Model I: Estimating A directly by spatial interpolation.~~.~~ Model I i~~wa~~s a naive method which i~~wa~~s used as a baseline for comparison. We t~~T~~reat unit i as a point, and use~~ing~~ longitude and latitude information and A_i value of unit i to interpolate.

Model II: Estimating A with R and K as the auxiliary information. For any sampling unit i, let

$$Q_i = \frac{A_i}{R_i \cdot K_i}, \tag{4}$$

where R_i is the rainfall erosivity value for unit i , and K_i is the soil erodibility value for unit i. By smoothing Q_i 's over the domain using longitude and latitude information, we obtain the interpolation of Q_i 's over the entire domain. Then for the j^th pixel on the domain, we estimate the soil loss A_j via

$$\hat{A}_j = \hat{Q}_j \cdot R_j \cdot K_j, \tag{5}$$

where $\hat{Q}_j$ is the estimator of Q_j .

Model III: Estimating A with the land use as the auxiliary information. For water body and unused area, the estimation of soil loss for the u^th land use and j^th pixel $\hat{A}_{uj}$ was set to be zero. For the rest land use types, A_{ui} for each land use was interpolated separately first and soil loss values for the entire domain $\hat{A}_{uj}$ are the combination of estimation for all land uses.

Model IV: Estimating A with R and land use as the auxiliary information. For any sampling unit i in land use u, define

$$T_{ui} = \frac{A_{ui}}{R_{ui}}, \tag{6}$$

where R_{ui} is the rainfall erosivity value. For land use u, we smooth T_{ui} 's using the longitude and latitude information, and obtain the interpolation over the domain. For any j^th pixel in land use u, we estimate the soil loss A_{uj} by

$$\hat{A}_{uj} = \hat{T}_{uj} \cdot R_{uj}, \tag{7}$$

where $\hat{T}_{uj}$ is the estimation of T_{uj} for the land use u and the pixel j.

Model V: Estimating A with R, K and land use as the auxiliary information. For land use u and sampling unit i, define

$$Q_{ui} = \frac{A_{ui}}{R_{ui} \cdot K_{ui}}, \qquad (8)$$

where K_{ui} is the soil erodibility value. For land use u, smoothing Q_{ui}'s over the domain, we obtain the estimator $\hat{Q}_{uj}$ of Q_{uj} for every pixel j. Then, for any j^th pixel in land use u, we can estimate the soil loss A_{uj} by

$$\hat{A}_{uj} = \hat{Q}_{uj} \cdot R_{uj} \cdot K_{uj}, \qquad (9)$$

2.4.2 Bivariate penalized spline over triangulation method

In spatial data analysis, there are mainly two approaches to make the prediction of a target variable. One approach (e.g., kriging) treats the value of a target variable at each location as a random variable and uses the covariance function between these random variables or a variogram to represent the correlation; another approach (e.g., spline or wavelet smoothing) uses a deterministic smooth surface function to describe the variations and connections among values at different locations. In this study, Bivariate Penalized Spline over Triangulation (BPST)~~,~~, which belongs to the second approach, was used to explore the relationship between location information in a two-dimensional (2-D) domain and the response variable. The BPST method we consider have several advantages. First, it provides good approximations of smooth functions over complicated domains. Second, the computational cost for spline evaluation and parameter estimation are manageable. Third, the BPST doesn't require the data to be evenly distributed or on regular-spaced grid. Since our data are a little sparse in some area, we employed the roughness penalties to regularize the spline fit; see the energy functional defined in equation (12). When the sampling is sparse in certain area, the direct BPST method may not be effective since the results may have high variability due to the small sample size. The penalized BPST is more suitable for this type of data because it can help to regularize the fit.

To be more specific, l~~L~~et $(x_i, y_i) \in \Omega$ be the latitude and longitude of unit i for $i = 1, 2, \ldots, n$. Suppose we observe z_i at locations (x_i, y_i) and $\{(x_i, y_i, z_i)\}_{i=1}^{n}$ satisfy

$$z_i = f(x_i, y_i) + \varepsilon_i, i = 1,2, \ldots, n, \qquad (10)$$

where ε_i's are random variables with mean zero, and $f(.)$ is some smooth but unknown function. To estimate f, we adopt the bivariate penalized splines on triangulations to handle irregular domains. In the following we discuss how to construct basis functions using bivariate splines on a triangulation of the domain Ω. Details of various facts about bivariate splines stated in this section can be found in Lai and Schumaker (2007). See also Guillas and Lai (2010) and Lai and Wang (2013) for statistical applications of bivariate splines on triangulations.

A triangulation of Ω is a collection of triangles $\Delta = \{\tau_1, \tau_2, \ldots, \tau_N\}$ whose union covers Ω. In addition, if a pair of triangles in Δ intersects, then their intersection is either a common vertex or a common edge. For a given triangulation Δ, we can construct Bernstein basis polynomials of degree p separately on each triangle, and the collection of all such polynomials form a basis. In the following, let $S_r^p(\Delta)$ be a spline space of degree p and smoothness r over triangulation Δ. Bivariate B-splines on the triangulation are piecewise polynomials of degree p (polynomials on each triangle) that are smoothly connected across common edges, in which the connection of polynomials on two adjacent triangles is considered smooth if directional derivatives up to the r^{th} degree are continuous across the common edge.

To estimate f, we minimize the following penalized least square problem:

$$\min_{f \in S_r^p(\Delta)} \left(z_i - f(x_i, y_i)\right)^2 + \lambda \mathrm{PEN}(f), \qquad (11)$$

Where λ is the roughness penalty parameter, and PEN(f) is the penalty given below:

$$\mathrm{PEN}(f) = \int_{\tau \in \Delta} \left(\frac{\partial^2 f(x,y)}{\partial x^2}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial^2 f(x,y)}{\partial x\, \partial y}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial^2 f(x,y)}{\partial y^2}\right)^2 dxdy, \qquad (12)$$

For Models I-V defined in Section 2.4.1, we consider the above minimization to fit the model, and obtain the smoothed surface using the measurements of A (Models I and III) or Q (Models II and V) or T (Model IV) and their corresponding location information.

2.5 Assessment methods

To compare different models, we estimate the out-of-sample prediction errors of each method using the 10-fold cross validation. We randomly split all the observations over the entire domain (with the buffer zone) into ten roughly equal-sized parts. For each k = 1, 2, …., 10, we leave out part k, fit the model to the other nine parts (combined) inside the boundary with the buffer zone, and then obtain predictions for the left-out k^{th} part inside the boundary of Shaanxi Province. In the Model I and Model II, $MSE_{overall}$ is calculated as follows:

$$\mathrm{MSE}_{\mathrm{overall}} = \frac{\sum_{k=1}^{10} \mathrm{SSE}_k}{n}, \qquad (13)$$

In Models III, IV and V, we consider land use as one covariate. Therefore, the overall mean squared prediction error ($MSE_{overall}$) is calculated by the average of the sum of the product of individual MSE and the corresponding sample size. The overall $MSE_{overall}$ was calculated as follows: we first calculated the MSE of land each use u, u = 1, 2, ⋯, 8, similar as for Model I and Model II,

$$\mathrm{MSE_u} = \frac{\sum_{k=1}^{10} \mathrm{SSE_k}}{n}, \qquad (14)$$

Then, the overall MSE can be calculated using

$$\mathrm{MSE_{overall}} = \frac{\sum_{u=1}^{8} \mathrm{MSE_u} * C_u}{\sum_{u=1}^{8} C_u}. \qquad (15)$$

where C_u is the sample size for the land use u.

Six soil erosion intensity levels were divided according to the soil loss rate, which were mild (less than 5 t $ha^{-1}y^{-1}$), slight (5-10 t $ha^{-1}y^{-1}$), moderate (10-20 t $ha^{-1}y^{-1}$), high (20-40 t $ha^{-1}y^{-1}$), severe (40-80 t $ha^{-1}y^{-1}$), and extreme (greater than 80 t $ha^{-1}y^{-1}$), respectively. Each pixel in the entire domain was classified as an intensity level according to A_j or A_{uj}. The proportion of intensity levels, soil loss rates for different land uses and the spatial distribution of soil erosion intensity levels were based on the soil erosion conditions of pixels located inside of the Shaanxi boundary.

3 Results

3.1 Estimation for five~~our~~ models

Table 1 summarized the MSEs of the soil loss estimation based on different methods. Model V assisted by the rainfall erosivity factor (R), soil erodibility factor (K) and land use generated the least overall MSE values and the best result. ~~Model II performed better than Model I, and Models IV and V performed better than Model III, which suggested R and K factors contributed some information.~~MSE for Model V was 43.4% of that for Model I, and MSE for Model III assisted by the land use was 50.3% of Model I, ~~Models III, IV and V were much better than Model I and Model II,~~ which suggested that the land use is the key auxiliary information for the spatial model, which contributed much more information than R and K factors did.

3.2 Soil erosion intensity levels

These five models can be divided into two groups in the proportion pattern of soil erosion intensity levels (Fig. 64). The first group is two models without the land use as the auxiliary information (Model I and II) and the second group is three models assisted with the land use (Model III, IV and V). The first group generated no severe and extreme erosion levels and had a higher proportion of slight and moderate erosion levels than the second group. The second group generated a higher proportion of mild, severe and extreme erosion levels than the first group. Most severe and extreme erosion mainly occurred in the farmland and bare land (Fig. ~~5~~7). The first group mainly underestimated the erosion degrees for the farmland and bare land and overestimated those for the forest, grassland and construction land. The main reason is when the land use is ignored, the extreme erosion levels, mostly in farmland and bare land, were smoothed by the surrounding low erosion levels, mostly in forest, shrub land, grassland and construction land.

The result of Model V with BPST method showed that the highest percentage is the mild erosion (43.5%), followed by the slight (21.3%), moderate (20.9%) and high erosion (10.1%). The severe and extreme erosion were~~occupied~~ 3.9% and 0.3%, respectively (Fig. 6~~4~~). When it came to land use (Fig. 7~~5~~), the largest percentage for the farmland was the high erosion, which occupied 26.6% of the total farmland. The severe and extreme erosion for the farmland were 11.3% and 0.9% of the total farmland, respectively. Most forest land and grassland had mild erosion (75.4% and 42.5%, respectively). Each of mild, slight and moderate erosion degrees occupied about 30% of the total shrub land.

3.3 Soil loss rates for different land uses

Fig. 8~~6~~ showed soil loss rates for different land use generated from five models. Similar to the estimation of soil erosion intensity levels, the first group mainly underestimated the soil loss rates for the farmland and bare land and overestimated those for the forest, grassland and construction land. The standard deviations of the farmland and bare land for the second group were much higher than those for the first group, which suggested the variation of soil loss rates for farmland and bare land pixels for the second group were greater than for the first group.

The soil loss rate for four main land uses (farmland, forest, shrub land and grassland) by Model V was reported in Table 2.

3.4 Spatial distribution of soil erosion intensity

All f~~F~~ive models simulated generally similar spatial patterns of soil erosion intensity (Fig. 9~~7~~ (a)-(e)). Three models assisted with the land use (Model III, IV and V) showed more reasonable details (Fig. 9~~7~~). Fig. 9~~7~~(e) showed that severe and extreme soil erosion mainly occurred in the farmlands in the southern Qingba mountainous area. –Fig 9~~7~~(f) demonstrated the difference between Model V and Model I, which suggested Model I overestimated the erosion intensity levels for most forests and grasslands, whereas it underestimated the intensity of farmlands. The estimation from Model V showed that annual soil loss from Shaanxi province was about 198.7 Mt, 49.8% of which came from farmlands and 35.0% from grasslands (Table 3). The soil loss rate in Yan'an and Yulin in the northern part was 15.3 and 11.9 t ha^{-1} y^{-1} and ranked the highest among ten prefecture cities. About half of the soil loss for the entire province was from these two districts (Table 3). Ankang and Hanzhong in the southern part also had a severe soil loss rate and contributed about one quarter of soil loss for the entire province.

4 Discussion

–The spatial pattern of soil erosion in Shaanxi province in this study is similar to~~with~~ the result of the third national investigation. Since the expert factorial scoring method didn't generate the erosion rate for each land use, we compared the percentage of soil erosion area for ten prefecture cities in Shaanxi province between the third and the fourth investigations. Both investigations indicated ~~showed that~~ Yan'an, Yulin and Tongchuan in the northern part and Ankang in the southern part had the most serious soil erosion. The difference is that Hanzhong was underestimated and Shangluo was overestimated in the third investigation, compared~~ing~~ with the fourth investigation.

Guo et al. (2015) analyzed 2823 plot-year runoff and soil loss data from runoff plots across five water erosion regions in China and compared the results with previous research across the world. The results showed that there were no significant differences for the soil loss rates of forest, shrub land and grassland worldwide, whereas the soil loss rates of farmland with conventional tillage in northwest and southwest China were much higher than those in most other countries. Shaanxi province is located in the Northwest region. Soil loss rates for the farmland, forest, shrub land and grassland based on the plot data for the NW region in Guo et al. (2015) were extracted and presented in Table 2 for comparison. Soil loss rate for the farmland based on the plot data varied greatly with the management and conservation practices and the result in this study was within the range (Table ~~2~~2). The soil loss rate for the shrub land is similar with that reported in Guo et al. (2015). The soil loss rate for the forest in this study was 3.50 t ha^{-1} y^{-1} with a standard deviation of 2.78 t ha^{-1} y^{-1} , which is much higher than 0.10 t ha^{-1} y^{-1} reported in Guo et al. (2015, Table 2). Our analysies showed that ~~they~~ it came from the estimation of PSUs~~rimary Sampling Units,~~ and was not introduced by the spatial interpolation process. Possible reasons include: the different definitions of forest and grassland, concentrated storms with intense rainfall, the unique topography in Loess plateau and the sparse vegetation cover due to intensive human activities (Zheng and Wang, 2014). The minimum canopy density (crown cover) threshold for the forest across the world vary from 10-30% (Lambrechts et al., 2009) and a threshold of 10% was used in this study, which suggests on average a lower cover coverage and higher B factor. Annual average precipitation varies between 328-1280 mm in Shaanxi, with 64% concentrating in June through September. Most rainfall comes from heavy storms of short duration, which suggests the erosivity density (rainfall erosivity per unit rainfall amount) is high. Field survey result on the PSUs in this study showed that ~~The reason may be due to the steeper~~ the slope degree is steeper and ~~longer~~ slope length is longer for the forest ~~in Shaanxi province~~ than the forest plots in Guo et al. (2015). The forest plots in Guo et al. (2015) were with an averaged slope degree of 25.9° and slope length of 21.1 m, whereas 74.0% of forest lands were with a slope degree greater than 25° and 97.2% of them with a slope length longer than 20 m ~~based on the survey result of PSUs in this study.~~. The runoff and sediment discharge information for two watersheds (Fig. 1, Table 4) showed that the soil loss rate for the forest in study area has large variability ranging from 1.3 to 19.0 t ha^{-1} y^{-1} (Wang and Fan, 2002). Our estimation is within the range. The soil loss rate for the grassland in this study was 7.20 t ha^{-1} y^{-1}, which was smaller than 11.57 t ha^{-1} y^{-1} reported in Guo et al. (2015). The reason may be due to the lower slope degree for the grassland in Shaanxi province. The mean value of the slope degree for grassland plots was 30.7° in Guo et al. (2015), whereas 68.6% of the grass lands were with a slope degree smaller than 30° from the survey in this study.

Remarkable spatial heterogeneity of soil erosion intensity was observed in the Shaanxi province. The Loess Plateau region is one of the most severe soil erosion regions in the world due to seasonally concentrated and high intensity rainfall, high erodibility of loess soil, highly dissected landscape, and long-term intensive human activities (Zheng and Wang, 2014). Most of the sediment load in the Yellow River is originated and transported from the Loess Plateau. Recently, the sediment load of the Yellow River declined to about 0.3 billion tons per year from 1.6 billion tons per year in the 1970s, which benefited from the soil and water conservation practices taken in the Loess Plateau region (He, 2016). However, more efforts on controlling human accelerated soil erosion in the farmlands and grasslands are still needed. Soil erosion in southern Qingba mountainous region is also very serious, which may be due to the intensive rainfall, farming in the steep slopes and deforestation (Xi et al., 1997). According to the survey in Shaanxi province, 11.1% of the farmlands with a slope degree ranging 15-25° and 6.3% of them greater than 25° were without any conservation practices. Mountainous areas with a slope steeper than 25° need to be sealed off for afforestation (grass) without the disturbance of the human and livestock. For those farmlands with a slope degree lower than 25 °, terracing and tillage practices are suggested which can greatly reduce the soil loss rate (Guo et al., 2015, Table 2).

The survey result showed that there were 26.5% of grasslands with a slope degree of 15-25 °and 57.6% of them steeper than 25 °without any conservation practices. Enclosure and grazing prohibition are suggested on the grasslands with steep slope and low vegetation coverage.

Note that CSLE, as well as USLE-based models, simulate sheet and rill erosion, so erosion from gullies is not taken into consideration in this study. Erosion from gullies is also very serious in the Loess Plateau area and there were more than 140,000 gullies with length longer than 500 m in Shaanxi province (Liu, 2013).

5 Conclusions

The regional soil erosion assessment focused on the extent, intensity, and distribution of soil erosion on a regional scale and it provides valuable information to take proper conservation measures in erosion areas. Shaanxi province is one of the most severe soil erosion regions in China. A field survey in 3116 PSUs in the Shaanxi province and its surrounding areas were conducted, and the soil loss rates for each land use in the PSU were estimated from an empirical model (CSLE). Five spatial interpolation models based on BPST method were compared in generating regional soil erosion assessment from the PSUs. Following are our conclusions ~~could be presented~~:

~~The model assisted by the rainfall erosivity factor (R), soil erodibility factor (K) and land use (Model V) generated the best result, with the minimum mean squared error (MSE).~~~~R and K factors provided some useful information,~~Land use i~~wa~~s the key auxiliary information and R and K factors provide ~~d~~ some useful information for the spatial geostatistical models in regional soil erosion assessment. ~~and land use was the key auxiliary information for the spatial geostatistical models in the regional soil erosion assessment.~~ ~~R and K factors provided some useful information, and land use was the key auxiliary information for the spatial geostatistical models in the regional soil erosion assessment.~~~~Three models that included land use generated more reasonable assessment results in terms of the proportion of soil erosion intensity levels, soil loss rates for different land use and spatial distribution of soil erosion intensity.~~

Our r~~R~~esults show~~ed~~ that 56.5% of total land had annual soil loss rate greater than 5 t ha^{-1} y^{-1}~~.~~, and total annual soil loss amount is ~~was~~ about 198.7 Mt in Shaanxi province. Most soil loss originated from the farmlands and grass lands in Yan'an and Yulin districts in the northern Loess Plateau region, and Ankang and Hanzhong districts in the southern Qingba mountainous region. Special attention should be given to the 0.11 million km^2 of lands with soil loss rate greater than 5 t ha^{-1} y^{-1}, especially 0.03 million km^2 of farmlands with severe erosion (greater than 20 t ha^{-1} y^{-1}).

~~The sample survey and geostatistics based regional assessment methodology was valuable to identify the soil erosion area and location. The information collected in the survey and the generated soil erosion degree map (such as Fig. 7e) can help policy-makers to take suitable erosion control measures in the severely affected areas. Moreover, climate and management scenarios could be developed based on the database collected in the survey process to help policy-makers in decision making for managing soil erosion risks.~~A new model-based regional soil erosion assessment method was proposed, which is valuable when input data used to derive soil erosion factors is not available for the entire region, or the resolution is not adequate. When the resolution of input datasets was not adequate to derive reliable erosion factor layers and the budget is limited, our suggestion is sampling a certain amount of small watersheds as primary sampling units and put the limited money into these sampling units to ensure the accuracy of soil erosion estimation in these units. Limited money could be used to collect high resolution ~~of~~ data such as satellite images and topography maps and conduct field survey to collect information such as conservation practices for these small watersheds. Then we can use the best available raster layers for ~~L~~land use, R, and K factor for the entire region, ~~and~~ construct ~~the~~ spatial model to exploit the spatial dependence among the other~~se~~ factors, and combine them to come up with better regional estimates. The information collected in the survey and the generated soil erosion degree map (such as Fig. 9e) can help policy-makers to take suitable erosion control measures in the severely affected areas. Moreover, climate and management scenarios could be developed based on the database collected in the survey process to help policy-makers in decision making for managing soil erosion risks.

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Tables

Table 1. Mean squared errors of soil loss (A) using bivariate penalized spline over triangulation (BPST)

Model	Land use and sample size						Overall
	Farmland	Forest	Shrub land	Grassland	Construction land	Bare land	
	1134	1288	573	683	401	32	4111
I	—	—	—	—	—	—	352.5
II	—	—	—	—	—	—	345.5
III	399.7	25.3	45.5	20.0	165.7	4264.6	177.2
IV	404.3	25.3	45.4	19.5	164.5	3691.2	173.8
V	365.4	24.3	38.0	16.3	162.5	3555.1	152.9

Table 2. Soil loss rates (t ha^{-1}y^{-1}) for the farmland, forest, shrub land and grassland by Model V in this study and in Northwest region of China from Guo et al. (2015).

	Land use	Mean	Standard deviation
This study	Farmland	19.00	17.94
	Forest	3.50	2.78
	Shrub land	10.00	7.51
	Grassland	7.20	5.23
Guo et al. (2015)	Farmland (Conventional)	49.38	57.61
	Farmland (Ridge tillage)	19.27	13.35
	Farmland (Terracing)	0.12	0.28
	Forest	0.10	0.12
	Shrub land	8.06	7.47
	Grassland	11.57	12.72

Table 3. Annual soil loss amount, rate and main sources by Model V for ten prefecture cities in Shaanxi province.

Prefecture city	Area (10^4 ha)	Amount (10^6 t y^{-1})	Rate (t ha^{-1} y^{-1})	Source (%)			
				Farmland	Forest	Shrub land	Grass land
Xi'an	100.4	6.3	6.3	52.9	11.6	7.9	20.6
Ankang	230.0	26.6	11.6	42.8	10.7	2.8	42.7
Baoji	178.5	13.2	7.4	39.3	15.1	7.5	37.9
Hanzhong	266.7	21.8	8.2	42.5	12.3	3.6	40.2
Shangluo	193.0	8.5	4.4	68.0	13.1	5.9	12.9
Tongchuan	38.6	3.7	9.6	37.9	7.8	23.6	28.5
Weinan	129.5	6.4	5.0	54.4	3.9	9.5	26.7
Xianyang	101.0	5.2	5.2	44.4	8.2	8.9	35.3
Yan'an	364.9	55.9	15.3	54.5	3.1	12.1	30.0
Yulin	427.7	50.9	11.9	51.4	2.6	3.7	40.4
Overall	2030.4	198.7	9.8	49.8	6.8	7.1	35.0

Table 4 Soil erosion rate for the forest and sediment discharge for two watersheds

	Area (10^4 ha)	Runoff (10^9 m^3 y^{-1})	Sediment discharge (10^6 t y^{-1})	Soil loss rate (t ha^{-1} y^{-1})	Percent of forest (%)	Soil loss rate for forest (t ha^{-1} y^{-1})
Jinghe[a]	454.2	1.837	246.7	54.3	6.5	19.0
Luohe[b]	284.3	0.906	82.6	29.1	38.4	1.3~2.1

a. Based on the observation at Zhangjiashan hydrological station from 1950 through 1989.

b. Based on the observation of at Zhuanghe hydrological station from 1959 through 1989.

Figures

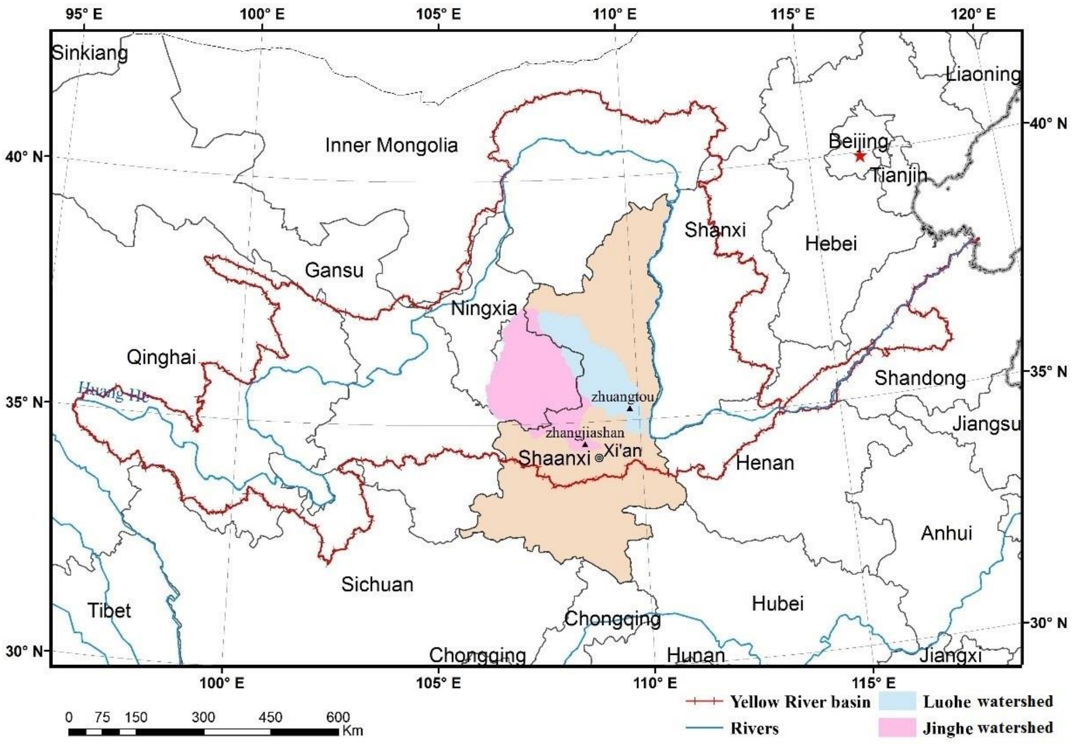
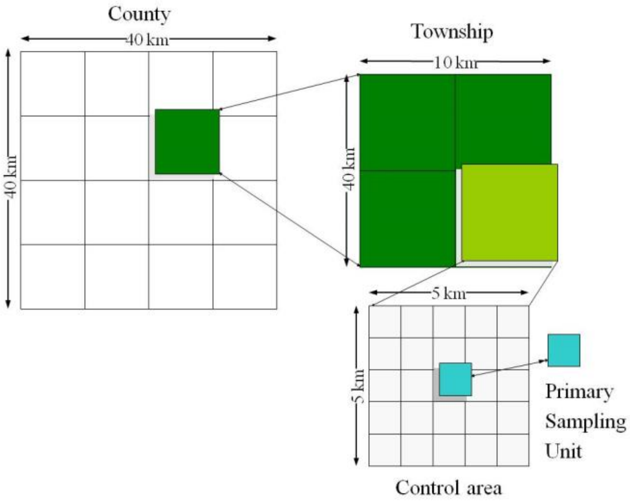


Figure 1: Location of Shaanxi province. Luohe and Jinghe watersheds were referred in the Table 4 and discussion part.



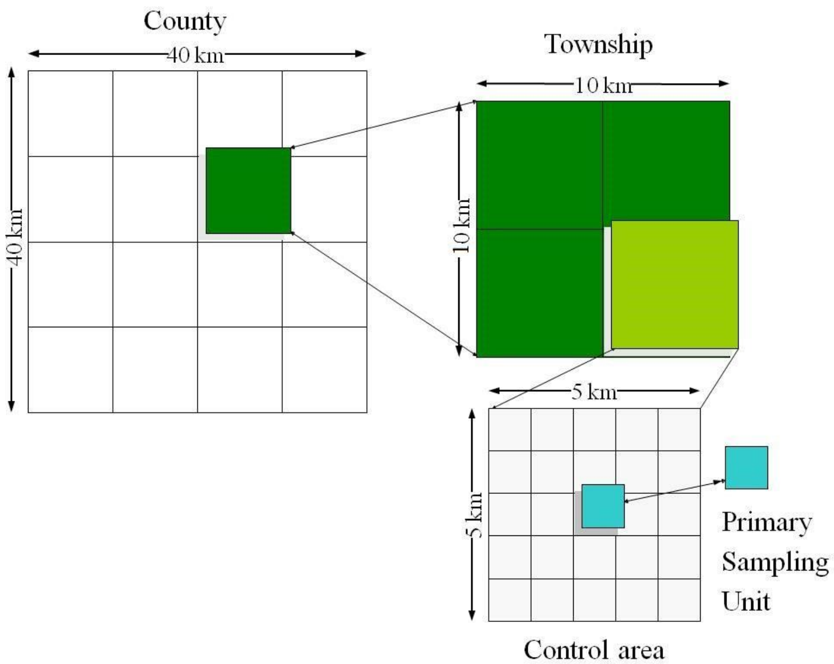


Figure ~~1~~2: Schematic of sampling strategy for the fourth census on soil erosion in China

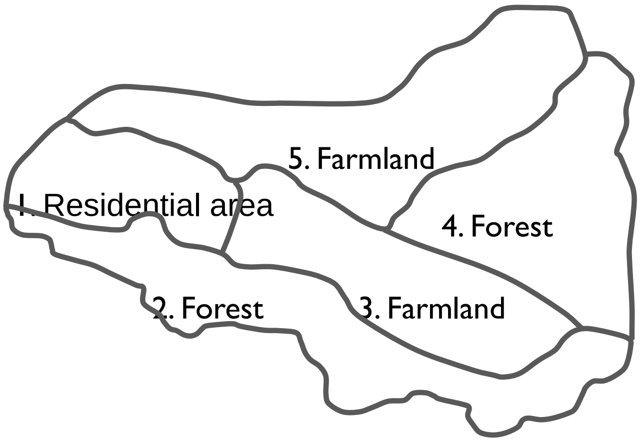


Figure ~~2~~3: An example of a PSU with five plots and three categories of land uses (Farmland, Forest and Residential area).

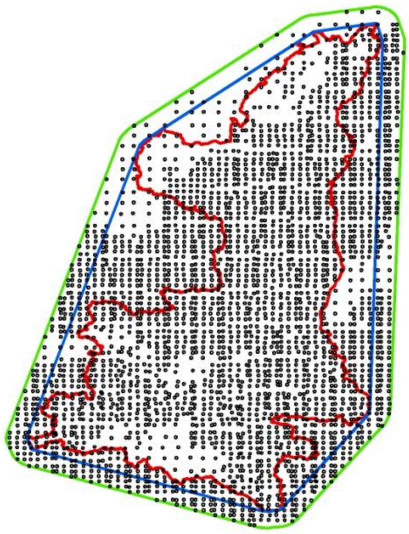


Figure ~~3~~4: Distribution of PSUs (solid dots) used in this study. The red line is the boundary of the Shaanxi province, blue line is the convex hull of the boundary and green line is the 30 km buffer of the convex hull.

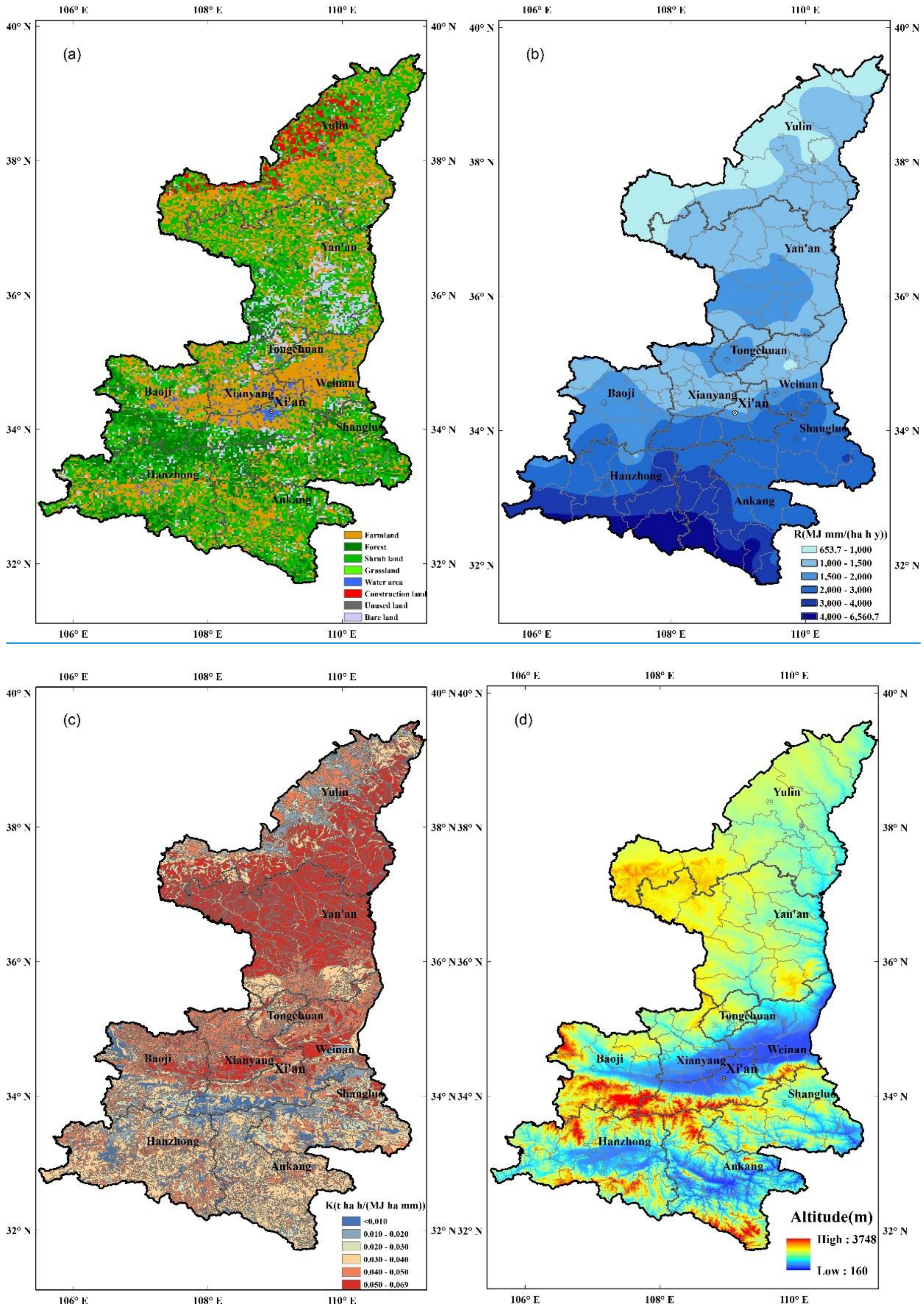


Figure 5 Spatial distributions of land use (a), rainfall erosivity (b), soil erodibility (c) and topography (d) for Shaanxi province.

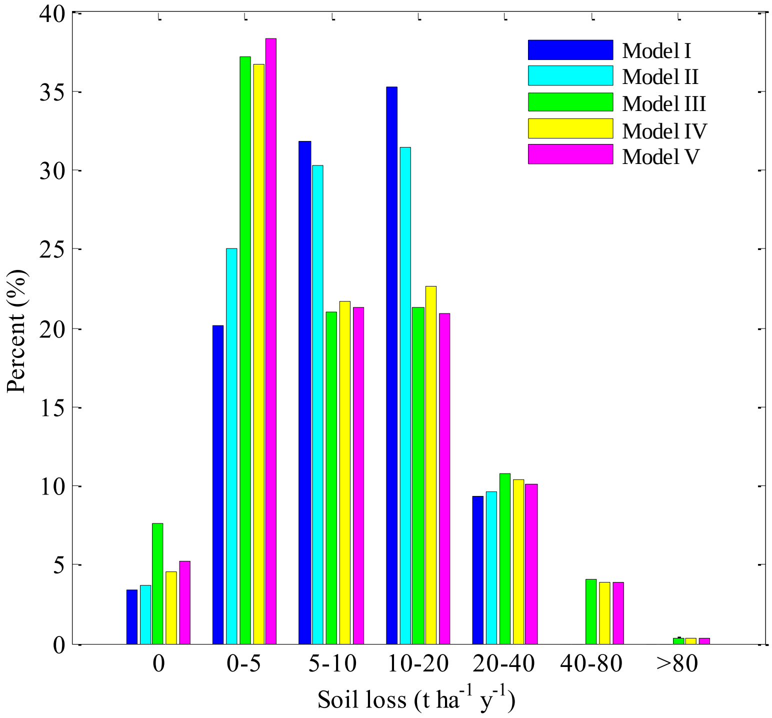


Figure 46: Proportion of soil erosion intensity levels for five models.

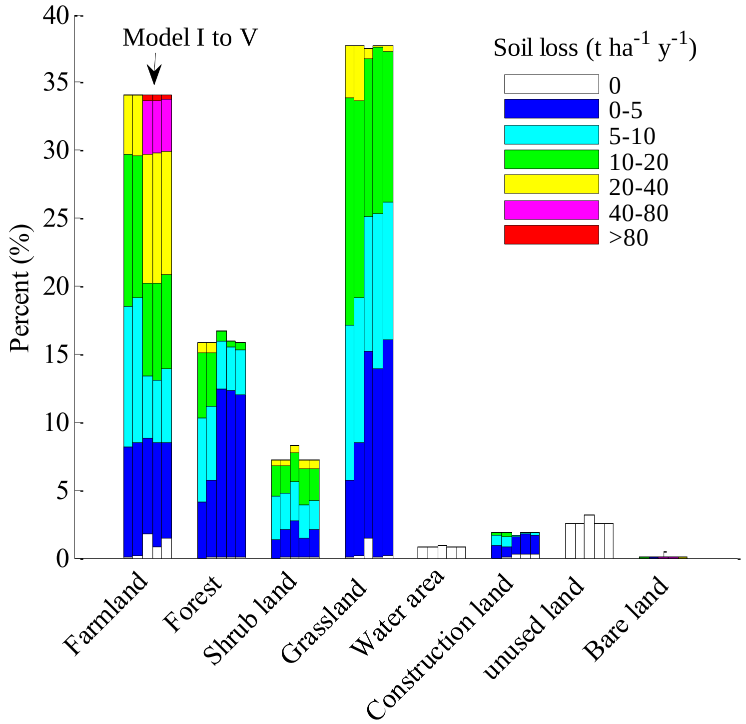


Figure ~~5~~7: Proportion of soil erosion intensity levels for different land use for five models.

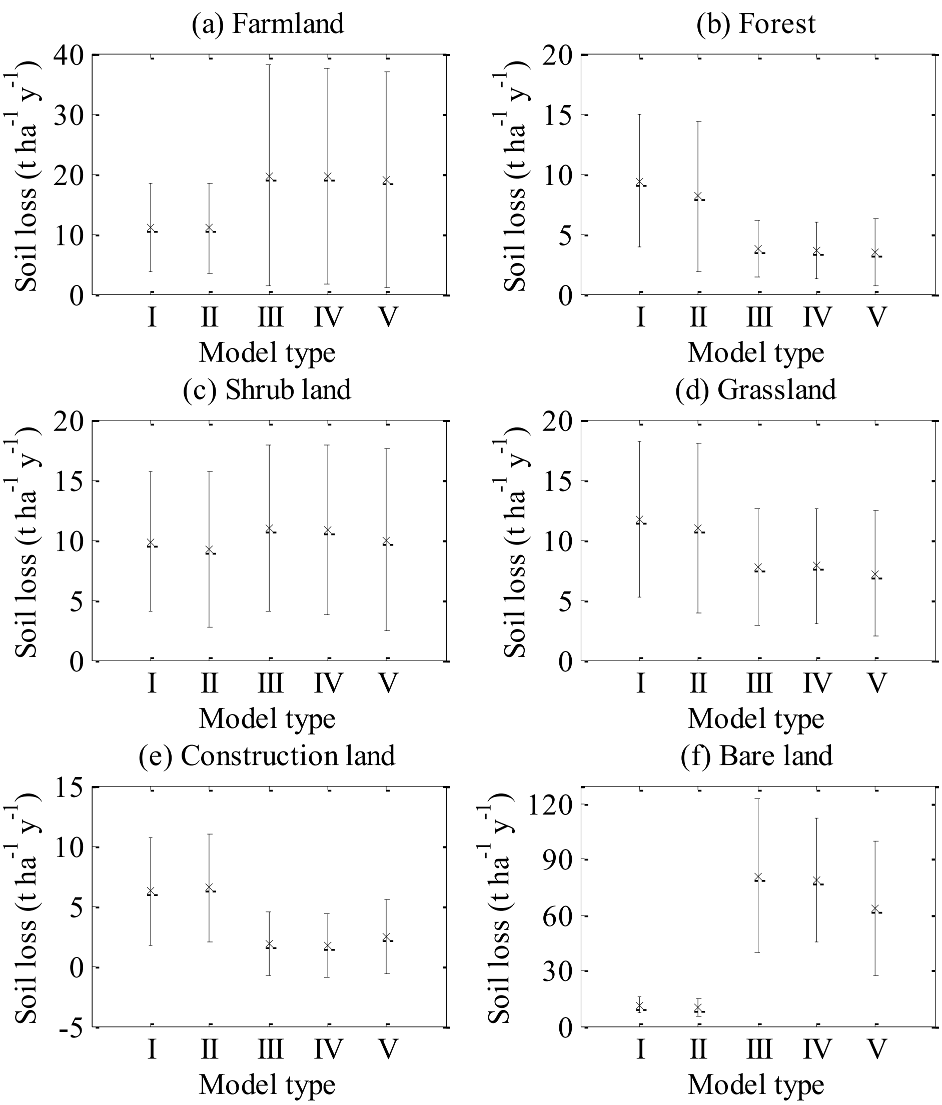
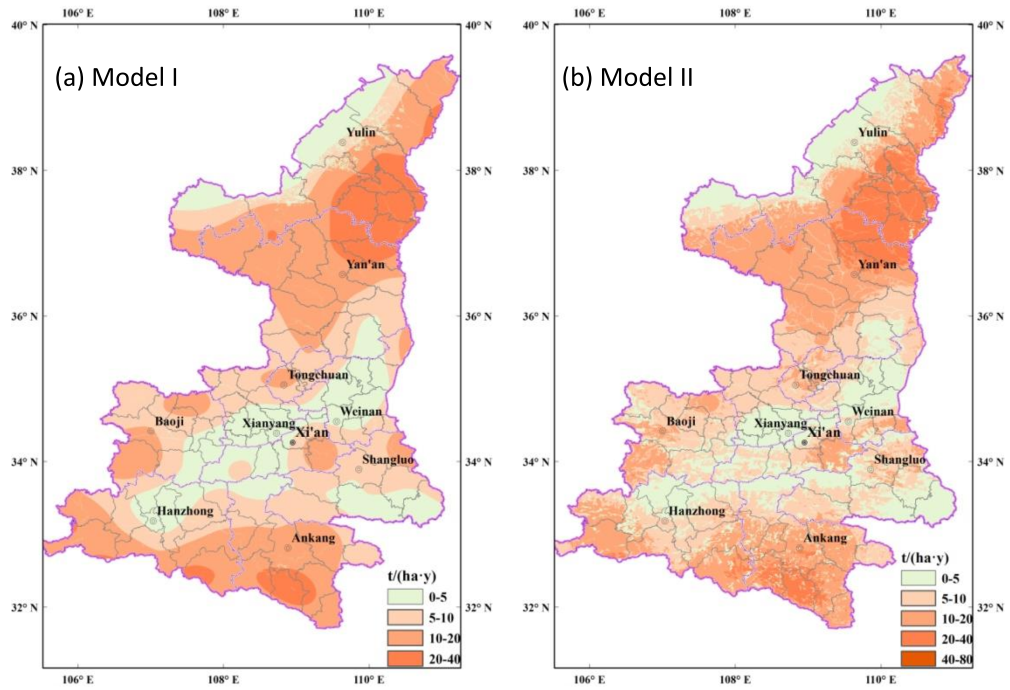
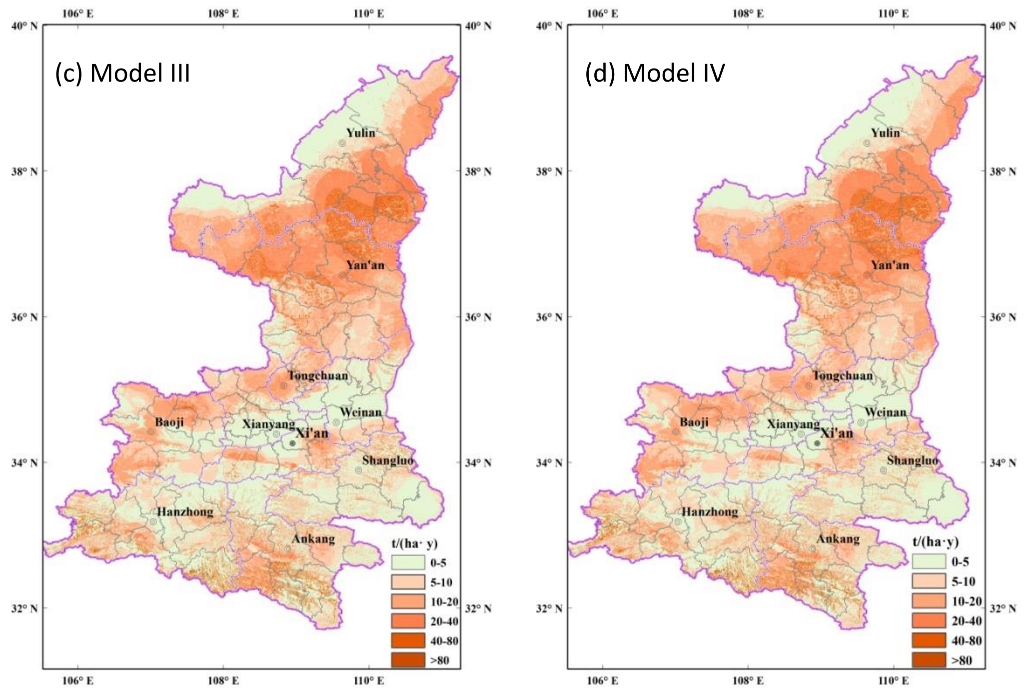


Figure ~~6~~8: Error bar plot of soil loss rates for five models for different land uses: (a) Farmland; (b) Forest; (c) Shrub land; (d) Grassland; (e) Construction land; (f) Bare land. The star symbols stand for the mean values and the error bars stand for standard deviations.


(a) Model I
(b) Model II
106° E
108° E
110° E
40° N
38° N
36° N
34° N
32° N
Yulin
Yan'an
Tongchuan
Baoji
Xianyang
Xi'an
Weinan
Shangluo
Hanzhong
Ankang
t/(ha·y)
0-5
5-10
10-20
20-40
40-80


(c) Model III
(d) Model IV
106° E
108° E
110° E
40° N
38° N
36° N
34° N
32° N
Yulin
Yan'an
Tongchuan
Baoji
Xianyang
Xi'an
Weinan
Shangluo
Hanzhong
Ankang
t/(ha·y)
0-5
5-10
10-20
20-40
40-80
>80

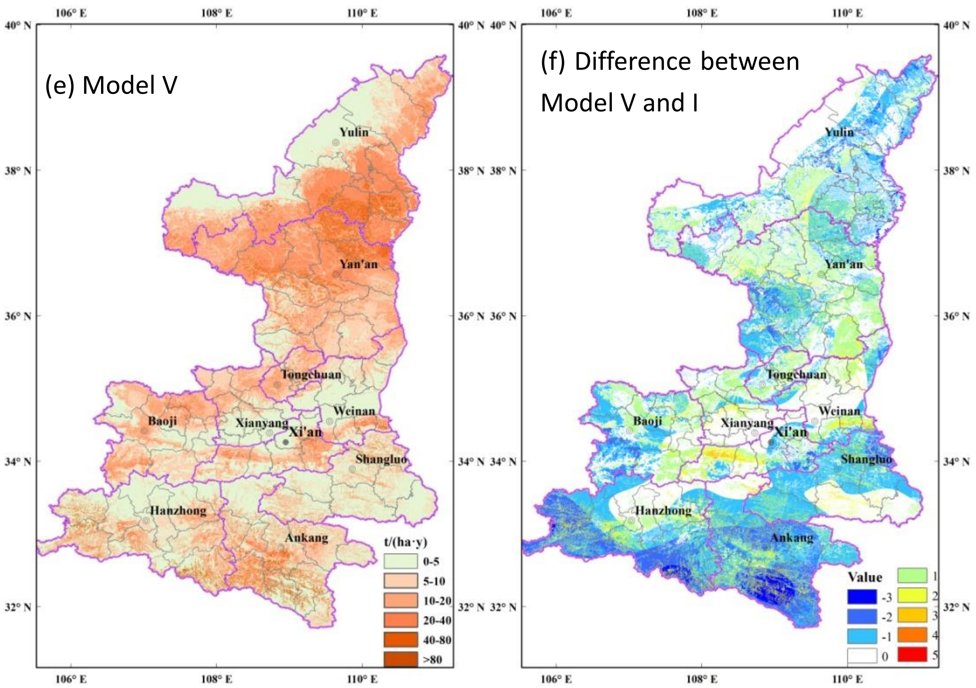


Figure ~~7~~9: Distribution of soil erosion intensity levels for five models: (a) Model I; (b) Model II; (c) Model III; (d) Model IV; (e) Model V; (f) Difference between Model V and I. The levels of less than 5, 5-10, 10-20, 20-40, 40-80, greater than 80 t ha^{-1} y^{-1} were defined as the levels 1-6, respectively and the difference was the deviation of levels for Model V from Model I.