

1 Mixed-cultivated grasslands enhance runoff generation and reduce soil loss in the restoration of  
2 degraded alpine hillsides

3 Yulei Ma<sup>1</sup>, Yifan Liu<sup>1,2</sup>, Jesús Rodrigo-Comino<sup>3</sup>, Manuel López-Vicente<sup>4</sup>, Gao-Lin Wu<sup>1,2,5,\*</sup>

4 <sup>1</sup> *State Key Laboratory of Soil Erosion and Dryland Farming on the Loess Plateau, Institute of Soil  
5 and Water Conservation, Northwest A & F University, Yangling, Shaanxi 712100, China*

6 <sup>2</sup> *Institute of Soil and Water Conservation, Chinese Academy of Sciences and Ministry of Water  
7 Resource, Yangling, Shaanxi 712100, China*

8 <sup>3</sup> *Departamento de Análisis Geográfico Regional y Geografía Física, Facultad de Filosofía y Letras,  
9 Campus Universitario de Cartuja, University of Granada, Granada, Spain*

10 <sup>4</sup> *Group Aquaterra, Interdisciplinary Centre of Chemistry and Biology, CICA-UDC, Universidade da  
11 Coruña, 15071 A Coruña, Spain*

12 <sup>5</sup> *CAS Center for Excellence in Quaternary Science and Global Change, Xi'an, 710061, China*

13 **\*Correspondence author:** Gao-Lin Wu, e-mail: wugaolin@nwsuaf.edu.cn (G.L. Wu).

14 **Correspondence address:** State Key Laboratory of Soil Erosion and Dryland Farming on the Loess  
15 Plateau, Northwest A & F University, No 26, Xinong Road, Yangling, Shaanxi 712100, P.R. China

16 Phone: +86- (29) 87012884 Fax: +86- (29) 87016082

17 **ABSTRACT**

18 Vegetation restoration is among the most effective measures for controlling runoff and soil erosion  
19 resulting from human activity. Nevertheless, few studies have been undertaken to analyze the effects  
20 of grassland restoration on maintaining local runoff, especially, in alpine degraded hillsides where  
21 mixed-cultivated grasslands predominate. In this research, runoff plots were established to investigate  
22 the impact of three mixed-cultivated grasslands, each sowing two grass species per plot: *Deschampsia*  
23 *cespitosa* and *Elymus nutans* (*DE*), *Poa pratensis* L.cv. Qinghai and *Elymus nutans* (*PE*), and *Poa*  
24 *pratensis* L.cv. Qinghai and *Deschampsia cespitosa* (*PD*); on a 20-degree slope, assessing the  
25 activation and volume of surface runoff and the magnitude of soil loss in alpine degraded hillsides  
26 over three years: 2019, 2020 and 2022. A severely degraded meadow (*SDM*) plot was used as control.  
27 The findings indicated that mixed-cultivated grasslands can effectively maintain runoff and reduce  
28 soil loss as planting age increases. Between 2019 and 2022, the values of the average runoff depth  
29 for *DE*, *PE*, *PD* and *SDM* were 0.47, 0.55, 0.45 and 0.27 mm, respectively. Despite the increase in  
30 runoff, grassland restoration favored soil conservation: the net soil loss per unit area of *SDM* was 1.4,  
31 1.3 and 1.9 times greater than that in *DE*, *PE* and *PD*, respectively. The key factors affecting soil loss  
32 and runoff were rainfall amount, duration and intensity (60-min intensity). We conclude that the  
33 results of this study can serve as scientific guides to design efficient policy decisions for planning the  
34 most effective vegetation restoration in the severely degraded hillside alpine meadows. To improve  
35 the effectiveness of grassland restoration, we suggest that protective measures should be prioritized  
36 during the initial planting stage of cultivated grasslands.

37 **Keywords:** Alpine meadow; Degraded hillside; Mixed-cultivated grassland; land management; runoff;  
38 soil erosion.

## 39 **1 Introduction**

40 Grasslands are an essential component of terrestrial ecosystems and habitats for the development of  
41 animal livestock (O'Mara, 2012). They make significant contributions to biodiversity conservation,  
42 climate mitigation, carbon sequestration, and water supply and regulation (Bardgett et al., 2021).  
43 Despite the importance of grasslands, about half of them are degraded globally –5% of them  
44 undergoing severe degradation (based on net primary productivity)–, and this issue has become a  
45 major concern for landscape conservation (Gang et al., 2014; Török et al., 2021). Global grassland  
46 net primary productivity (NPP) has declined by 58.84 Tg C per year. Grassland degradation causes  
47 the loss of up to 90% of the soil structure that facilitates water movement (infiltration) and retention  
48 (water-holding capacity) in soils (Wick et al., 2016), reduces carbon storage potential (Liebig et al.,  
49 2013), and impedes soil functioning. Moreover, degraded grasslands are prone to severe soil erosion,  
50 especially in mountainous areas. For example, in the Swiss alpine uplands, water erosion ranges from  
51 0.14 to 1.25 t ha<sup>-1</sup> month<sup>-1</sup> according to the phenological stage of the grasses (Schmidt et al., 2019);  
52 and in the gully slope of the Loess Plateau, the average amount of soil erosion was 306.7 t ha<sup>-1</sup> month<sup>-1</sup>  
53 during the 2018–2020 grass growing season (Zhu et al., 2021).

54 Precipitation is the main water source of soil moisture supply in semi-arid areas and the  
55 conversion of precipitation to runoff is one of the major contributors to river streamflow (Leung et al.  
56 2015; Li et al., 2024). In some previous experiences, it was observed that vegetation restoration  
57 reduced surface runoff and decreased sediment production, which led to lower river levels,  
58 threatening the health of river ecosystems (Dijk et al., 2007). A recent study conducted by Wu et al.  
59 (2020) proposed sustainable management strategies for semi-arid areas with a positive trade-off  
60 between surface runoff maintenance and erosion control. However, very few studies have addressed  
61 to date the effects of restored grasslands in maintaining surface runoff and preventing soil erosion

62 (Minea et al., 2022). This topic is particularly important for alpine grasslands, which play a vital role  
63 in the supply of fresh water and the development of livestock husbandry (Cui et al., 2022). Therefore,  
64 it is necessary to assess the impacts of grassland restoration on runoff generation and soil protection.

65 Vegetation restoration is widely considered as one of the most effective methods for controlling  
66 runoff and soil erosion worldwide (Anache et al., 2018; Vanacker et al., 2022). The effects of  
67 vegetation cover properties on runoff and soil loss reduction are strongly connected to plant species,  
68 leaf and branch coverage, above-ground biomass, litter biomass, and root systems (Liu et al., 2022;  
69 Freschet and Roumet, 2017; Gyssels et al., 2005; Zhu et al., 2021). Furthermore, the processes of  
70 runoff and soil loss are significantly influenced by the improvement of soil characteristics with  
71 vegetation restoration (Schwarz et al., 2015; Gyssels et al., 2005). The interaction between vegetation  
72 and soil could stabilize the topsoil and alter soil properties (Saxton and Rawls, 2006; Ma et al., 2023).  
73 Vegetation restoration promotes the formation of soil aggregates, decreases soil bulk density,  
74 enhances organic matter and nutrients and improves soil porosity, resulting in high soil hydraulic  
75 conductivity and field capacity (Qiu et al., 2022; Saxton and Rawls, 2006). The above-interlinked soil  
76 properties alter soil hydrological properties and ultimately influence hillslope and watershed  
77 hydrology, such as runoff and soil erosion (Lu et al., 2020; Qiu et al., 2022). While vegetation  
78 restoration holds the potential to be a key method of environmental restoration under human  
79 management, the inappropriate selection of species can negatively impact the sustainability of local  
80 economic and environmental development (Huang et al., 2017; 2019). For example, cultivated  
81 grasslands were already advocated as a sensible solution for the conservation of soil and water, as  
82 well as the regrowth of vegetation in semi-arid mountain areas (Liu et al., 2022; Wu et al., 2010).  
83 Grass communities with multiple stratified structures are better at maintaining surface runoff and  
84 decreasing soil loss than those with a single composition and structure (Mohammad and Adam, 2010).

85 Surface runoff –also known as stormwater runoff or overland flow– reaches the stream in the form  
86 of sheet, rill and gully flow (Rumynin, 2015). The conversion of rainfall to overland flow depends on  
87 the rainfall intensity, the soil hydrological properties, such as (non-)saturated hydraulic conductivity,  
88 matrix flux potential and field capacity, and initial soil water content (López-Vicente and Navas, 2012;  
89 Gyssels et al., 2005; De Baets et al., 2007). Because runoff is the primary driver of water erosion on  
90 hillslopes and serves as the main agent for sediment transport, reducing the conversion of rainfall to  
91 runoff is regarded as an effective way to control water erosion, through vegetation restoration (Zhou  
92 et al., 2016; Zhu et al., 2021). On the other hand, in arid and semi-arid regions, surface runoff is the  
93 major water supply source to the river streamflow, thereby it is vital for ensuring the sustainability of  
94 ecosystems and human activities (Liu et al., 2020; Robinson et al., 2003). Therefore, restoration  
95 efforts in areas with low rainfall should be oriented to maintain runoff while reducing its level of  
96 sediment concentration.

97 Soil erosion can be reduced by various factors, including the above- and below-ground biomass  
98 of grasses, litter cover, and root systems (De Baets et al., 2007; Durán Zuazo and Rodríguez  
99 Pleguezuelo, 2008; Gyssels and Poesen, 2003; Wen et al., 2024). Grasslands can control water erosion  
100 relying on the role of the aboveground biomass in dissipating flow energy (Bochet and García-Fayos,  
101 2004), living roots in decreasing soil detachment capacity (Zhang et al., 2013), grass plant cover in  
102 intercepting rainfall (Liu et al., 2019), and litter cover in enhancing rainwater infiltration (Liu et al.,  
103 2022). Moreover, the interweaving of plant roots can remarkably alter the physical properties of the  
104 topsoil, enhancing its resistance to erosion (Schwarz et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2018). The impact of  
105 grassroots on the soil characteristics can be summarized as follows: i) increasing the stability of soil  
106 aggregates through aggregating fine soil particles into macroaggregates; ii) enhancing soil cohesion  
107 through interweaving with the soil; and iii) decreasing soil bulk density through increasing soil

108 porosity (Wu et al., 2019; Gyssels et al., 2005). For example, numerous recent studies have confirmed  
109 that a grass with shallow yet dense fibrous root system appears to be more effective at controlling  
110 water erosion than grass with good ground cover but low root density (De Baets et al., 2007; Bochet  
111 et al., 2006).

112 Alpine meadows, especially in the Qinghai-Tibetan Plateau, constitute the predominant  
113 ecosystem in China and the world, accounting for 44% and 6% of total grassland areas, respectively  
114 (Wang et al., 2016). Over 50% of the alpine meadows have been subject to an increasing degree of  
115 degradation (Bardgett et al., 2021), with the extent of degradation depending on the meadow patch  
116 coverage resulting from the fragmentation of alpine meadows (Fig. 1b). Severely degraded meadows  
117 (also known as “black beach” and “black soil-type degraded meadow”) formed after the mattic  
118 epipedon, typically 10 to 15 cm deep, was fully removed by overgrazing and rodent activity exposing  
119 the sub-soil (Fig. 1c; Ma et al., 2023; Shang et al., 2008). Severely degraded meadows amounted to  
120 about 30% of the total area of alpine meadows on the Qinghai-Tibetan Plateau (Shang et al., 2008).  
121 Recent studies by Niu et al. (2021) and Ma et al. (2024) have observed that fragmentation of alpine  
122 meadows and severely degraded meadows could reduce surface runoff and enhance soil erosion.

123 The Qinghai-Tibetan Plateau serves as the headwaters for many of Asia's major rivers (Xu, 2018).  
124 The eastern and southern parts of the Qinghai-Tibet Plateau are influenced by the monsoon, and  
125 rainfall is the primary source of streamflow (Cuo et al., 2014). The long-term and widespread  
126 degradation of hillside alpine meadows has disrupted the soil water balance, reducing surface runoff  
127 (Niu et al., 2019; Ma et al., 2024). This, in turn, diminishes river streamflow, ultimately constraining  
128 the sustainable development of both local and downstream regions. The importance of artificial  
129 grassland in restoring alpine degraded meadow is widely accepted (Li et al., 2018; Wu et al., 2010).  
130 Artificial grassland –also known as tamed grassland, sowed grassland and cultivated grassland– refers

131 to fields that have been broken up and replanted with exotic grasses and forbs and utilized for hay  
132 crop production or cattle grazing (Fisher et al., 2018). The establishment of artificial grassland on  
133 severely degraded areas provides a dual benefit by boosting productivity and improving the ecological  
134 environment of alpine grasslands (Shang et al., 2008; Liu et al., 2022).

135 While previous studies have often focused on carbon sequestration capacity, vegetation  
136 characteristics, soil quality and productivity of cultivated grassland (Wang et al., 2013; Bai and  
137 Cotrufo et al., 2022), there has been a limited examination of the impacts of mixed-cultivated  
138 grasslands on the provision of runoff and prevention of soil erosion on the alpine hillsides. Recently,  
139 Liu et al. (2022) evaluated the effects of plant morphological characteristics on runoff and soil erosion  
140 in different mixed-cultivated grassland under natural rainfall events. Here, we present novel research  
141 to examine the ability of cultivated grasslands to regulate runoff and soil loss and evaluate the effect  
142 of three different mixed-cultivated grasslands: *Deschampsia cespitosa* and *Elymus nutans* (*DE*), *Poa*  
143 *pratensis* L.cv. Qinghai and *Elymus nutans* (*PE*), and *Poa pratensis* L.cv. Qinghai and *Deschampsia*  
144 *cespitosa* (*PD*), compared to a severely degraded meadow (*SDM*) by a three-year field experiment.  
145 In particular, this study aimed to (1) assess the temporal variations in soil and water loss of *DE*, *PE*  
146 and *PD* grasslands during the growing season and under natural rainfall; and (2) determine the key  
147 factors influencing the mixed-cultivated grasslands in controlling runoff and soil erosion. This study  
148 has realistic implications for understanding the contribution of mixed-cultivated grasslands  
149 restoration on soil erosion control in degraded alpine hillsides.

150

## 151 **2 Materials and methods**

### 152 **2.1 Study area**

153 This study was carried out in the representative area of Zhique Village (33°40'01" N and 99°43'06" E,  
154 elevation over 4200 m a.s.l), Dari County, Qinghai province, which served as a field experimental  
155 site and model area for the restoration of severely degraded alpine meadow on the Qinghai-Tibetan  
156 Plateau (Fig. 1a). The climate conditions correspond to a typical highland one with low temperatures  
157 throughout the year, i.e., not showing the typical four-season pattern (spring, summer, autumn, winter),  
158 but rather just two main seasons: cold and warm. In the study region, the average annual temperature  
159 is -3.1 °C, with monthly variations from -14.7 °C in January to 7.5 °C in July (values corresponded  
160 to the period 1981-2018; data source: European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts). The  
161 average annual precipitation is 416 mm, with the majority of it falling from July to September, based  
162 on Climate Hazards Group InfraRed Precipitation with Station data (CHIRPS). The majority of the  
163 precipitation and the warm season falls during the vegetation growth period (from May to September),  
164 favoring optimal conditions for the development of plants. The soil type in the study area is classified  
165 as Mat Cryi-gelic Cambisols (IUSS-WRB, 2015). Currently, the remnant vegetation in this site is  
166 composed of an alpine shrub (*Salix cupularis* and *Potentilla fruticose*), alpine meadow (*Kobresia*  
167 *pygmaea*, *Kobresia humilis* and *Kobresia capillifoli*) and swamp meadow (*Carex atrofusca*, *Poa*  
168 *annua* and *Carex parva*).

169 Soil erosion in the degraded alpine meadows is severe, becoming the primary source of sediment  
170 delivered to streams in the study area (Liu et al., 2022). The mattic epipedon of alpine meadow has  
171 experienced fragmentation and even disappearance (Fig. 1b), eventually forming a severely degraded  
172 meadow (Fig. 1c). Before implementing the grassland restoration project, i.e., Subsidy and Incentive  
173 System for Grassland Conservation, the average soil erosion rate and the total erosion in the study  
174 area were 13.63 t ha<sup>-1</sup> y<sup>-1</sup> and 323.58 × 10<sup>6</sup> t y<sup>-1</sup>, respectively (Zhao et al., 2021). Severely degraded  
175 meadows were restored via mixed-cultivated grasslands –fields were ploughed and replanted with



176 two grass species— and moderately degraded meadows were restored by broadcast sowing on the  
177 hillslopes during the implementation of the grassland restoration project. The grass species used for  
178 the projects have excellent characteristics like strong trampling tolerance, good palatability, abundant  
179 leaf quantity and developed rhizome, such as *Poa pratensis* L. cv. Qinghai, *Deschampsia cespitosa*  
180 and *Elymus nutans* (Shang et al., 2008).

181

## 182 **2.2 Experimental design and measurement**

183 The degraded hillslopes are the main component of runoff generation and confluence areas on the  
184 Qinghai-Tibetan Plateau. Hence, the grass species chosen for mixed-cultivated grasslands not only  
185 must it be grazing-tolerant and good forage, but also prevent soil loss and maintain surface runoff.  
186 Potential grass species should also be fully acclimated to harsh alpine climate and have  
187 complementary morphological characteristics and living habits (Liu et al., 2022). The community  
188 established by matching of grasses morphological characteristics and habits has a hierarchical vertical  
189 cover structure and little inter- or intraspecific competition. Following the above-mentioned  
190 guidelines for choosing grass species, we ultimately decided on three species (*Deschampsia cespitosa*,  
191 *Poa pratensis* L. cv. Qinghai and *Elymus nutans*) from the most widely utilized grass species.  
192 *Deschampsia cespitosa* is a cool-season bunching grass native to alpine environments. It typically  
193 forms a low, dense tussock (to 30–50 cm tall) of very thin (0.5 cm wide), arching, flat to inrolled,  
194 dark green grass blades (to 5 cm long). *Deschampsia cespitosa*, a common bottom grass, has 70% of  
195 its grass stems growing between 0 and 30 cm tall. *Elymus nutans* is a common and important plant  
196 species in the alpine meadows of the Qinghai-Tibetan Plateau (Chen et al., 2009). It is a valuable  
197 fodder grass in alpine locations that has been extensively employed for animal production, disturbed  
198 grassland restoration, and artificial grassland construction due to its resilience to cold, drought and

199 pests (Ren et al., 2010). *Elymus nutans* is a herbaceous perennial species with sparsely tufted culms  
200 that can grow to heights of 70 to 100 cm (Liu et al., 2022). *Poa pratensis* L. cv. *Qinghai* is the common  
201 and dominant species native to the Qinghai-Tibetan Plateau. It is an excellent species that has been  
202 selected and cultivated to restore degraded alpine meadows. Also, *Poa pratensis* L. cv. *Qinghai* is an  
203 herbaceous perennial species with erect or geniculate base culms that grow 20–60 cm tall.

204 To reveal the effects of mixed-cultivated grasslands in controlling runoff and soil loss on hillsides,  
205 field observation of mixed grass plots designed by us was conducted from the 2019 to 2022 growing  
206 seasons. Therefore, one plot with severely degraded meadow (*SDM*) as a control and three plots with  
207 two mixed grass seeds per plot of *Deschampsia cespitosa* and *Elymus nutans* (*DE*), *Poa pratensis*  
208 L.cv. *Qinghai* and *Elymus nutans* (*PE*), and *Poa pratensis* L.cv. *Qinghai* and *Deschampsia cespitosa*  
209 (*PD*) were selected as the testing site (Fig. 1d). All four runoff plots were spaced 1m apart and were  
210 located on the same hillside with the same elevation and soil texture. All plots were bounded by steel  
211 plates (30 cm high and 2 mm thick sheet) and built during May 2019, with an area of 10 m<sup>2</sup> (2 m wide  
212 and 5 m long parallel to the maximum slope gradient). To collect only runoff and soil loss from the  
213 runoff plot, the steel plate was put vertically into the soil to a depth of about 10 cm, with the remainder  
214 sticking out from the soil surface. At the outlet of each plot, a steel runoff collection and calibrated  
215 tank (75 L) were set up to gather sediment and runoff. To prevent the collected runoff from being lost  
216 to evaporation, the calibrated tank was set inside a sealed vat (Fig. 1d).

217 In addition, the grass seeding for each runoff plot was completed in May 2019. For the runoff  
218 plots, grass seeds were distributed to a depth of less than 1 cm in strips at 20 cm intervals following  
219 plowing. The seeding rate was set at 6.0 g m<sup>-2</sup> for *Poa pratensis* L.cv. *Qinghai* and *Deschampsia*  
220 *cespitosa* and 4.5 g m<sup>-2</sup> for *Elymus nutans* to ensure a constant number of plants based on germination  
221 and seedling emergence rates. None of the runoff plots experienced any human disturbance during

222 the observation period (2019–2022), including grazing, harvesting, and excavation.

223

### 224 **2.3 Rainfall, runoff and soil loss measurement**

225 A Vantage pro 2<sup>TM</sup> weather station (Davis Instruments Corp., USA) with a measurement accuracy of  
226 4% was positioned next to the experimental plots to monitor precipitation intensity and duration (Fig.  
227 1). A precipitation event was defined by the occurrence of a no-rain interval lasting more than 3 h  
228 between them. A total of 42 precipitation events were recorded from 2019 to 2022 throughout the  
229 growing season. Snow was not collected, and only rainfall was recorded during the growing season  
230 (from June 15 to August 25). Precipitation characteristics of each event, including amount (*P*),  
231 duration (*RD*), and maximum intensities of 60 minutes (*RI*<sub>60</sub>) were recorded. Average rainfall intensity  
232 (*ARI*) was calculated by dividing the total rainfall amount by the duration of the rainfall event. After  
233 each rainfall-runoff event, both runoff and sediment were collected right away. The water level in the  
234 calibrated tank was first measured to calculate the runoff volume. Then, runoff was fully mixed inside  
235 the calibrated tank using a stirring bar to thoroughly whirl, and two 500 ml bottles were used to obtain  
236 mixture samples of sediment and runoff. When the calibrated tank had less than 1000 ml of runoff  
237 sample, all runoff was collected. Lastly, the calibrated tank was cleaned in order to collect sediment  
238 and runoff for the subsequent rainfall-runoff event. The mixture samples in the bottle were transported  
239 back to the lab to be filtered on filter paper with a pore size of 30–50 µm. The filter paper with  
240 sediment was oven-dried to a consistent weight at 105 °C. The ratio of soil loss amount to runoff  
241 volume in the mixed samples was applied to calculate the sediment concentration. Finally, runoff  
242 volume and sediment concentration were multiplied to calculate soil loss in each plot.

243 We collected runoff and soil erosion data during the growing season for the years 2019 to 2022.

244 Data for 2021 could not be collected due to the prevention and control strategies for coronavirus

245 (COVID-19). Soil erosion and runoff were portrayed in this work by soil erosion per unit area ( $\text{g m}^{-2}$ ) and runoff depth (mm). The runoff depth ( $R$ ) and soil erosion per unit area ( $S$ ) could be calculated  
246 using the following formulas:  
247

$$R = \frac{V_R}{A} \times 10^3 \quad (1)$$

$$S = \frac{S_T}{A} \quad (2)$$

248 where  $V_R$  is the volume of runoff from runoff plots ( $\text{m}^3$ ),  $S_T$  is the total amount of soil erosion from  
249 runoff plots (g), and  $A$  is the area of runoff plot ( $\text{m}^2$ ).  
250

## 251 **2.4 Vegetation and soil properties measurement**

252 Vegetation cover ( $VC$ ), including dead (standing litter) and living vegetation, was measured monthly  
253 from 2019 to 2022 growing seasons using a steel wire frame ( $50 \text{ cm} \times 50 \text{ cm}$ ) subdivided into 25  
254 plots of  $10 \text{ cm} \times 10 \text{ cm}$ . Fig. 2 exhibited the change in vegetation coverage for all runoff plots from  
255 2019 to 2022. After collecting runoff samples each year, the quadrats ( $50 \text{ cm} \times 50 \text{ cm}$ ) were positioned  
256 in the up-, mid-, and down-slope areas. Litter in each quadrant was collected and oven-dried to  
257 determine litter biomass ( $LB$ ) (Zhu et al., 2021). The litter collection for 2019 was not completed due  
258 to the seeding of mixed-cultivated grasslands in May 2019, and the litter collection for 2020 and 2021  
259 was collected at the end of the runoff collection for the current year. Undisturbed soil samples were  
260 taken in the 0–10 cm soil layers using steel rings in 2022. All soil samples were saturated and then  
261 weighed ( $W_{sat}$ ). Then the saturated soil samples were placed on the dry sand layer to drain water for  
262 about 2 h and 8 h, and weighed ( $W_{2h}$  and  $W_{8h}$ ). Finally, soil samples were dried in an oven at  $105 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$   
263 for 24 h and then weighed ( $W_{dr}$ ). Based on the above measurement, soil bulk density ( $BD$ ,  $\text{g cm}^{-3}$ ),  
264 total porosity ( $TP$ , %), capillary porosity ( $CP$ , %), non-capillary porosity ( $NCP$ , %), and soil water  
265 content at field capacity ( $FC$ , %) were determined as follows:

$$FC = \frac{(W_{8h} - W_{dr})}{(W_{dr} - W_{sr})} \quad (3)$$

$$BD = \frac{(W_{dr} - W_{sr})}{V} \quad (4)$$

$$TP = \left(1 - \frac{BD}{ds}\right) \times 100 \quad (5)$$

$$CP = \frac{(W_{2h} - W_{dr})}{V} \quad (6)$$

$$NCP = TP - CP \quad (7)$$

266 where  $W_{sr}$  is the weight of the steel ring (g),  $ds$  is the soil particle density (generally being 2.65 g  
267  $\text{cm}^{-3}$ ), and  $V$  is the volume of the ring ( $100 \text{ cm}^3$ ).

268 In addition, root mass density (*RMD*) was obtained using a root drill, followed by washing with  
269 water and drying in the oven. Four undisturbed samples were collected in each quadrat using a steel  
270 ring (6.18 cm diameter and 2.0 cm height), and they were applied to a direct shear (ZJ type). The soil  
271 cohesion was obtained by the Mohr–Coulomb theory (Labuz and Zang, 2012).

272

## 273 **2.5 Calculating the reduction effect of runoff and soil loss**

274 Four metrics were employed to assess the efficiencies of the mixed-cultivated grasslands in regulating  
275 runoff and soil loss, which were: The runoff reduction benefit (*RRB*, %), sediment concentration  
276 reduction benefit (*CRB*, %), soil erosion reduction benefit (*SRB*, %), and the percentage of runoff  
277 reduction ratio to soil loss reduction ratio (*RRSR*) (Zhao et al., 2014). High values of *RRB*, *SRB* or  
278 *CRB* indicated that vegetation was able to reduce runoff, soil erosion or sediment concentration  
279 compared to the rates observed in the control plot (severely degraded meadow). In addition, a low  
280 *RRSR* implied that vegetation was more beneficial in minimizing soil erosion than in minimizing  
281 runoff (Liu et al., 2020). These indices were calculated as follows:

$$RRB = \frac{R_c - R_v}{R_c} \times 100 \quad (8)$$

$$SRB = \frac{S_c - S_v}{S_c} \times 100 \quad (9)$$

$$CRB = \frac{C_c - C_v}{C_c} \times 100 \quad (10)$$

$$RRSR = \frac{RRB}{SRB} \times 100 \quad (11)$$

282 where  $R_c$  and  $R_v$  are the runoff depths of the degraded meadow plot and plots covered by mixed-  
 283 cultivated grasslands;  $S_c$  and  $S_v$  are the soil loss per unit area of the degraded meadow plot and  
 284 plots covered by mixed-cultivated grasslands;  $C_c$  and  $C_v$  are the sediment concentrations of the  
 285 degraded meadow plot and plots covered by mixed-cultivated grasslands, respectively.

286

## 287 **2.6 Statistical analyses**

288 All data were analyzed using SPSS statistics software (IBM, USA, version 26.0). The Kolmogorov–  
 289 Smirnov test was used to test the normality of data. Duncan’s multiple range tests of one-way analysis  
 290 of variance (ANOVA) were applied to test for significant differences between soil and vegetation  
 291 characteristics, runoff depth, soil erosion amount, and runoff and soil loss reduction ratio under  
 292 various mixed-cultivated grasslands at 0.05 significance levels. Also, path analysis is a form of  
 293 multiple regression statistical analysis that is used to evaluate causal models by examining the  
 294 relationships between runoff, soil loss and soil and vegetation properties. By using this method, one  
 295 can identify the major factors influencing runoff and soil loss and determine the direct and indirect  
 296 effects of soil and vegetation properties on runoff and soil loss.

297

## 298 **3 Results**

### 299 **3.1 Mixed-cultivated grasslands modified runoff amount and soil loss**

300 Mixed-cultivated grasslands increased runoff and reduced soil erosion. One-way analysis of variance

301 (ANOVA) revealed that runoff significantly ( $p < 0.05$ ) increased after the severely alpine degraded  
302 hillside was restored by the mixed-cultivated grassland (Fig. 3). During the three evaluated growing  
303 seasons (2019, 2020 and 2022), the average runoff depth for *DE*, *PE*, *PD* and *SDM* was 0.47, 0.55,  
304 0.45 and 0.27 mm, respectively. The average runoff depths of *SDM* in 2019, 2020, and 2022 were  
305 0.23, 0.34 and 0.25 mm, respectively, all significantly ( $p < 0.05$ ) lower than (except for 2020) the  
306 average runoff of mixed-cultivated grassland *DE* *PE* and *PD*, which measured 0.44, 0.59 and 0.50  
307 mm in 2019, 0.55, 0.51 and 0.38 mm in 2020, 0.43, 0.54 and 0.40 mm in 2022 (Fig. 3a). Regarding  
308 soil conservation, the amount of soil loss in grasslands was significantly influenced by planting age.  
309 As depicted in Fig. 3b, soil loss in *DE*, *PE* and *PD* (except for *DE* in 2019) were significantly ( $p <$   
310  $0.05$ ) higher in 2019 and 2020 (the first and second years of planting) than those in the fourth year of  
311 planting (2022). In 2020, soil loss produced by *DE*, *PE*, and *PD* was significantly higher ( $p < 0.05$ )  
312 than that of *SDM*. Satisfactorily, the three mixed-cultivated grasslands did exhibit a clear reduction  
313 in soil loss compared to *SDM* in 2022 (albeit not significantly), with soil loss per unit area for *SDM*  
314 being 1.4, 1.3 and 1.9 times higher than those for *DE*, *PE* and *PD*, respectively. No significant  
315 difference ( $p > 0.05$ ) was observed in runoff depth and soil loss between *DE* *PE* and *PD* in 2019,  
316 2020 and 2022. The results showed that any of the three mixed-cultivated grasslands (*DE*, *PE* and  
317 *PD*) could be effective in controlling soil loss and maintaining runoff.

318

### 319 **3.2 Specific runoff and soil loss reduction ratios of the cultivated grasslands**

320 Fig. 4 illustrates the runoff, soil loss and sediment concentration reduction ratio after planting various  
321 mixed-cultivated grasslands. Lower *RRB* values indicated a better ability to maintain runoff for  
322 mixed-cultivated grasslands, while higher *SRB* and *CRB* values indicated better effectiveness of  
323 grasslands in soil loss reduction. The mean *RRB* values of the grass community *DE*, *PE* and *PD* were

324 -79.3%, -130.4% and -48.5% in 2019, -36.9%, -53.5% and -21.5% in 2020, and -115.4%, -156.1%  
325 and -87.6% in 2022, respectively (Fig. 4a). Regardless of the combination of the above-mentioned  
326 grass species, the average increase ratio of runoff in 2022 (the fourth years of planting) was  
327 significantly ( $p < 0.05$ ) higher than that in 2019 and 2020 (the first and second years of planting). The  
328 *SRB* of the three mixed-cultivated grasslands (*DE*, *PE* and *PD*) increased with increasing planting  
329 age. It is worth noting that the average *SRB* values in the grassland communities of *DE*, *PE* and *PD*  
330 were 18.0%, 24.3% and 31.9% in 2022, respectively (Fig. 4b). The *SRE* values of *DE*, *PE* and *PD* in  
331 2022 were significantly ( $p < 0.05$ ) higher than those of 2019, whereas *SRE* values between 2020 and  
332 2022 was significant ( $p < 0.05$ ) for *DE* but not ( $p > 0.05$ ) for *PE* and *PD*. Additionally, *CRB* for all  
333 mixed-cultivated grasslands in 2022 was significantly ( $p < 0.05$ ) higher than that in 2019 and 2020.  
334 The mean *CRB* values of the cultivated-grassland communities *DE*, *PE* and *PD* increased from -120.9%  
335 to 55.8%, from -112.4% to 59.7%, and from -94.3% to 62.1% from 2019 to 2022, respectively (Fig.  
336 4c). Regardless of the age of the grasslands, the value of *RRSR* was less than 1, suggesting that the  
337 soil erosion reduction effect of the grasslands was higher than its runoff reduction effect (Fig. 4d). No  
338 significant differences ( $p > 0.05$ ) appeared in *RRB*, *SRB*, *CRB* and *RRSR* between *DE* *PE* and *PD* in  
339 2019, 2020 and 2022.

340

### 341 **3.3 Key factors affecting runoff and soil loss**

342 Precipitation characteristics and vegetation features played a significant role in influencing the  
343 hydrological response of the soil. In this study, path analysis was applied to identify the key factors  
344 affecting soil loss. The results of this analysis indicated that the sum of path coefficients of *RI*<sub>60</sub>, *RD*,  
345 *P* and *VC* were 0.31, 0.36, 0.40 and 0.32, respectively (Table 1). This suggests that *P*, *RD*, *VC* and  
346 *RI*<sub>60</sub> had positive effects on runoff amount, with *P* being the most influential factor. Direct influences



347 on runoff were primarily attributed to *ARI* and *RD*, with direct path coefficients of 0.37 and 0.67,  
348 respectively. Meanwhile, the influences of *P* and *LB* on runoff were mainly indirect, with indirect  
349 path coefficients of 0.57 and 0.25, respectively. For instance, *P*, in combination with other factors,  
350 particularly *RI<sub>60</sub>* and *RD*, contributed significantly to runoff.

351 Soil loss was significantly influenced by *R*, *RI<sub>60</sub>*, *ARI* and *LB*. The sum of path coefficients of *R*,  
352 *RI<sub>60</sub>*, *ARI* and *LB* were 0.52, 0.20, 0.28 and -0.25, respectively (Table 2). These results show that *R*,  
353 *RI<sub>60</sub>* and *ARI* had a promotional effect, whereas *LB* had an inhibitory effect on soil loss. Meanwhile,  
354 *R* and *P* had a direct positive influence on soil erosion, with direct path coefficients of 0.60 and 0.28,  
355 whereas *RI<sub>60</sub>* and *RD* had a direct negative influence on soil erosion, with direct path coefficients of  
356 -0.29 and -0.41 (Table 2). In addition, the direct and indirect path coefficients both indicated that *LB*  
357 had an inhibitory influence on the soil loss per unit area, with values of -0.10 and -0.25, respectively.

358

## 359 **4 Discussion**

### 360 **4.1 Benefits of mixed-cultivated grasslands on soil conservation and runoff maintenance**

361 The mixed-cultivated grasslands (*DE*, *PE* and *PD*) effectively maintained runoff and minimized soil  
362 loss (Fig. 4). This finding is similar to those of some previous studies (Liu et al., 2019; Liu et al.,  
363 2022). In this study, the mixed-cultivated grasslands significantly increased surface runoff compared  
364 to the *SDM*. The difference in runoff between mixed-cultivated grasslands and *SDM* may be attributed  
365 to the soil infiltration rate. Mixed-cultivated grasslands had more abundance of fibrous roots in the  
366 topsoil compared with *SDM* (Fig. 5), and those fine roots reduced infiltration by occupying the soil  
367 pore (Leung et al., 2015). In comparison to *SDM*, soil non-capillary porosity (*NCP*) and field capacity  
368 (*FC*) of *DE*, *PE* and *PD* significantly decreased by 46%, 32% and 48%, and increased by 55%, 59%

369 and 48%, respectively (Fig. 5). This implied that *SDM* was restored to mixed-cultivated grasslands  
370 with lower permeability and better water retention.

371 Soil loss in all three mixed-cultivated grassland communities (*DE*, *PE* and *PD*) was higher than  
372 that in the *SDM* during the first- and second years following planting. However, by the fourth year,  
373 the *SDM* exhibited higher soil loss than the three mixed-cultivated grasslands (Fig. 3). These changes  
374 in soil erosion were dominantly attributed to the developing of the root system and improvement of  
375 soil structure (Zhu et al., 2021). The seeding method of plowing led to a disruption of soil structure,  
376 resulting in increased soil loss in the three mixed-cultivated grasslands during the initial stages of  
377 planting. We confirmed that the age of plantation was a key factor in understanding the inter-annual  
378 changes of soil erosion. This idea was also demonstrated in other types of primary land uses such as  
379 woody crops or young forests (Rodrigo-Comino et al., 2018). Nevertheless, we hypothesize that  
380 grassland topsoil demonstrated a stronger resilience to erosion as its root system grew, which had a  
381 reinforcement impact on the soil and led to lower soil loss in the fourth year of planting than that of  
382 the *SDM*. The topsoil (0–10 cm) of the grasslands had significantly different soil properties from the  
383 *SDM* in the fourth year after planting, as detailed in Table 3. In comparison to *SDM*, the root mass  
384 density and soil cohesion of grasslands *DE*, *PE* and *PD* increased by 672%, 890% and 589%, and by  
385 379%, 282% and 315%, respectively.

386

#### 387 **4.2 Effect of rainfall and vegetation characteristics on runoff and soil loss**

388 Surface runoff and erosion process is influenced and constrained by rainfall depth, intensity and  
389 duration, and by vegetation cover (*VC*) as well (Mohamadi and Kavian, 2015; Bochet et al., 2006).  
390 In this study, the *VC* had a directly promoted effect on surface runoff. Moreover, this result was in  
391 line with the finding of Niu et al. (2021), who reported that the surface runoff increased with the

392 grassland coverage. Our results also indicated that rainfall amount ( $P$ ) could have an indirect effect  
393 on surface runoff through rainfall duration ( $RD$ ) and maximum intensities of 60 minutes ( $RI_{60}$ ). This  
394 implies that heavier and longer-lasting rainfall events were more likely to lead to surface runoff  
395 generation (Dos Santos et al., 2017). The findings demonstrated that runoff depth ( $R$ ) and the average  
396 rainfall intensity ( $ARI$ ) were the most and second most influential factors in promoting soil erosion  
397 (Table 2). The primary cause for this is that runoff velocity increases with higher precipitation  
398 intensity (Wang et al., 2013), which likely enhances the capacity of soil detachment and transport by  
399 surface runoff (Zhu et al., 2021). Furthermore, litter biomass ( $LB$ ) had a direct and negative impact  
400 on soil loss (Table 2), indicating that the effectiveness of grasslands in reducing soil loss increased as  
401 litter biomass increased. Liu et al. (2022) found that the soil loss rate decreased with increasing litter  
402 biomass in grassland. Plant litter can intercept precipitation, reducing rainfall kinetic energy and  
403 splash erosion, while also increasing surface roughness (Liu et al., 2017; Xia et al., 2019) All these  
404 processes favor a reduction in runoff yield and soil loss rates.

405 Grass combinations with different morphological characteristics can effectively reduce soil loss  
406 (Liu et al., 2022). In this study, the reduction in soil loss in the early stages of mixed-cultivated  
407 grassland planting (2019 and 2020) was attributed to grassland cover and plant morphological  
408 characteristics. *Deschampsia cespitosa*, *Poa pratensis* L.cv. Qinghai and *Elymus nutans* are dense  
409 clump type, rhizomatic-sparse clump type, and sparse clump perennial grasses, respectively. In  
410 addition, *Deschampsia cespitosa* and *Poa pratensis* L.cv. Qinghai are bottom grasses, while *Elymus*  
411 *nutans* belongs to the top grass. The mix of dense and sparse grasses ( $DE$  and  $PD$ ), and mix of top  
412 and bottom grasses ( $DE$  and  $PE$ ) can complement each other morphologically and structurally,  
413 thereby more effectively reducing the kinetic energy of raindrops (Liu et al., 2022). *Poa pratensis*  
414 *L.cv. Qinghai*, a rhizomatic grass, also has abundant root systems intertwined with the soil, increasing

415 soil cohesion and consequently reducing soil detachment capacity (Wang et al., 2018). Overall, in  
416 this study, the morphological and root characteristics of mixed-cultivated grasslands reduced runoff  
417 velocity, influenced water infiltration process and decreased soil erodibility.

418

### 419 **4.3 Implications for grasslands restoration on degraded alpine hillsides**

420 Our findings demonstrated that mixed-cultivated grasslands with complementing morphological  
421 features and habits can be effective at maintaining runoff and reducing soil erosion. Three mixed-  
422 cultivated grasslands (*DE*, *PE* and *PD*) exhibited an effective role in controlling soil loss on the  
423 degraded alpine hillside. However, at the start of planting, the mixed planted grassland had a greater  
424 soil erosion than the severely degraded meadow, whereas soil loss was reduced in the 4<sup>th</sup> year of  
425 planting (Figs. 2 and 3). This suggested that protection measures, such as mesh covering and anti-  
426 trampling, may be taken into account to reduce soil loss in the initial planting stage of cultivated  
427 grassland in alpine hillsides (Liu et al., 2022). Moreover, grass may also be planted with a no-till  
428 system to avoid the initial increase of soil erosion at the initial phases of cultivated grassland by  
429 destroying soil structure (Karayel and Sarauskis, 2019). In addition, spring meltwater is the main  
430 driver of soil erosion in degraded alpine meadows in alpine regions, which greatly increases turbidity  
431 of rivers (Shi et al., 2020). The restoration of severely degraded hillslope meadows increased  
432 vegetation cover and soil ability, both of which could have an inhibitory impact against meltwater  
433 erosion (Liu et al., 2022). To better understand the effects of cultivated grassland on meltwater erosion,  
434 future experiments under natural freezing and thawing conditions need to be conducted and monitored.

435 Cultivated grasslands, considered a crucial component of vegetation restoration, have been  
436 extensively utilized in the rehabilitation of degraded alpine hillsides (Shang et al., 2008). Nevertheless,  
437 plant restoration is not necessarily beneficial to the long-term viability of on- and off-site ecosystems'

438 functions, including natural succession and river ecosystems. Therefore, the selected vegetation types  
439 ought to be advantageous for the ecosystem's sustainability, both on- and off-site, such as maintaining  
440 river streamflow and unrestricted natural succession. The seed prices of cultivated grass communities  
441 of *Deschampsia cespitosa* and *Elymus nutans*, *Poa pratensis* L.cv. Qinghai and *Elymus nutans*, and  
442 *Poa pratensis* L.cv. Qinghai and *Deschampsia cespitosa* were about \$690, \$750 and \$480 per ha,  
443 respectively, in Xining, Qinghai Province, in 2019. Planting properly mixed-cultivated grassland on  
444 the alpine degraded hillsides can achieve both environmental and economic benefits. This study  
445 proved that mixed-cultivated grasslands could maintain runoff and decrease soil loss.

## 446 **5 Conclusions**

447 Based on the measured data during the 2019, 2020 and 2022 growing seasons, the planting of mixed-  
448 cultivated grassland on severely degraded hillside alpine meadow effectively maintained surface  
449 runoff and decreased soil loss, especially after the mixed-cultivated grassland played a positive role  
450 in consolidating the soil surface. The benefits were statistically significant compared with the control  
451 plot, but differences between the three types of cultivated grasslands were not significant. Planting  
452 the mixed-cultivated grasslands after ploughing loosened the soil structure and thus increased  
453 sediment concentration in runoff during the first stage after planting. Subsequently, sediment  
454 concentration decreased with the growth of the root system of the mixed-cultivated grasslands,  
455 improving root-soil cohesion due to the root architecture. To guarantee that mixed-cultivated  
456 grasslands can perform the aforementioned functions, protective measures should be implemented  
457 during the initial planting stage to support their healthy growth. Our results also suggested that mixed-  
458 cultivated grasslands with different but complementary morphology and structure and abundant fine  
459 root systems were effective in maintaining surface runoff and reducing soil erosion. Precipitation

460 amount, duration, maximum 60-minute intensity, vegetation coverage and composition were the  
461 predominant factors affecting surface runoff and soil loss. The erosion resistance contribution of the  
462 above-ground community characteristics and below-ground roots along the cultivated time could  
463 maintain a relatively high surface runoff and decrease sediment concentration. These findings have  
464 potential implications for understanding the contribution of mixed-cultivated grasslands restoration  
465 on soil erosion control in the degraded hillsides of alpine areas.

466

467 *Data availability.* The data that support the findings of this study are available on request from the  
468 corresponding author.

469

470 *Author contributions.* Yulei Ma: Investigation, Formal analysis, Methodology, Software, Writing -  
471 original draft. Yifan Liu: Investigation, Formal analysis, Writing - review & editing. Jesús Rodrigo-  
472 Comino: Interpretation of data, Writing - review & editing. Manuel López-Vicente: Interpretation of  
473 data, Writing - review & editing. Gao-Lin Wu: Conceptualization, Funding acquisition, Supervision,  
474 Writing - original draft, review & editing.

475

476 *Competing interests.* The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or  
477 personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

478

479 *Disclaimer.* Publisher's note: Copernicus Publications remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional  
480 claims in published maps and institutional affiliations

481 *Acknowledgments.* We thank Nunzio Romano, Gall Corinna, Vanacker Veerle and Qianjin Liu for

482 their constructive comments and suggestions on this manuscript.

483 *Financial support.* This research was funded by the National Natural Science Foundation of China  
484 (NSFC41930755, NSFC32230068), the Strategic Priority Research Program of the Chinese Academy  
485 of Sciences (XDB40000000), and the Second Stage's Research and Technique Extending Project of  
486 Sanjiangyuan Ecological Protection and Building in Qinghai (2019-S-1).

487

## 488 **References**

489 Anache, J.A.A., Flanagan, D.C., Srivastava, A., and Wendland, E.C.: Land use and climate change  
490 impacts on runoff and soil erosion at the hillslope scale in the Brazilian Cerrado, *Sci. Total*  
491 *Environ.*, 622–623, 140–151, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2017.11.257>, 2018.

492 Bai, Y., Cotrufo, M.F.: Grassland soil carbon sequestration: Current understanding, challenges, and  
493 solutions, *Science*, 377(6606), 603–608. <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.abo2380>, 2022.

494 Bardgett, R.D., Bullock, J.M., Lavorel, S., Manning, P., Schaffner, U., Ostle, N., Chomel, M.,  
495 Durigan, G., Fry, E.L., Johnson, D., Lavallee, J.M., Le Provost, G., Luo, S., Png, K., Sankaran,  
496 M., Hou, X.Y., Zhou, H.K., Ma, L., Ren, W.B., Li, X.L., Ding, Y., Li, Y.H., and Shi, H.X.:  
497 Combatting global grassland degradation, *Nat. Rev. Earth Env.*, 2(10), 720–735,  
498 <https://doi.org/10.1038/s43017-021-00207-2>, 2021.

499 Bochet, E., and García-Fayos, P.: Factors controlling vegetation establishment and water erosion on  
500 motorway slopes in Valencia, Spain, *Restor. Ecol.*, 12(2), 166–174, <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1061-2971.2004.0325.x>, 2004.

502 Bochet, E., Poesen, J., and Rubio, J.L.: Runoff and soil loss under individual plants of a semi-arid

503 Mediterranean shrubland: influence of plant morphology and rainfall intensity, *Earth Surf. Proc.*  
504 *Land.*, 31(5), 536–549, <https://doi.org/10.1002/esp.1351>, 2006.

505 Chen, S., Ma, X., Zhang, X., and Chen, Z.: Genetic variation and geographical divergence in *Elymus*  
506 *nutans* Griseb. (Poaceae: Triticeae) from West China, *Biochem. Syst. Ecol.*, 37(6), 716–722,  
507 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bse.2009.12.005>, 2009.

508 Cui, Z., Liu, Y.F., Liu, Y., Leite, P.A.M., Shi, J.J., Shi, Z.H., and Wu, G.L.: Fragmentation alters the  
509 soil water conservation capacity of hillside alpine meadows on the Qinghai-Tibetan Plateau,  
510 *Geoderma*, 428, 116133, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.geoderma.2022.116133>, 2022.

511 Cuo, L., Zhang, Y.X., Zhu, F.X., and Liang, L.Q.: Characteristics and changes of streamflow on the  
512 Tibetan Plateau: A review, *J. Hydrol-Reg. Stud.*, 2, 2014, 49–68,  
513 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ejrh.2014.08.004>, 2014

514 De Baets, S., Poesen, J., Knapen, A., Barberá, G.G., and Navarro, J.A.: Root characteristics of  
515 representative Mediterranean plant species and their erosion-reducing potential during  
516 concentrated runoff, *Plant Soil*, 294(1–2), 169–183, [https://doi.org/10.1007/s11104-007-9244-](https://doi.org/10.1007/s11104-007-9244-2)  
517 2, 2007.

518 Dijk, A. I. J. M., and Keenan, R. J: Planted forests and water in perspective, *Forest Ecol. Manag.*,  
519 251, 1–9, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foreco.2007.06.010>, 2007.

520 Dos Santos, J.C.N., de Andrade, E.M., Medeiros, P.H.A., Guerreiro, M.J.S., and de Queiroz Palácio,  
521 H.A.: Effect of Rainfall Characteristics on Runoff and Water Erosion for Different Land Uses  
522 in a Tropical Semiarid Region, *Water Resour. Manag.*, 31(1), 173–185, [https://doi.org/](https://doi.org/10.1007/s11269-016-1517-1)  
523 10.1007/s11269-016-1517-1, 2017.

524 Durán Zuazo, V.H., and Rodríguez Pleguezuelo, C.R.: Soil-erosion and runoff prevention by plant  
525 covers. A review. *Agron. Sustain. Dev.*, 28(1), 65–86, <https://doi.org/10.1051/agro:2007062>,



526 2008.

527 Fisher, R.J., Sawa, B., and Prieto, B.: A novel technique using LiDAR to identify native-dominated  
528 and tame-dominated grasslands in Canada, *Remote Sens. Environ.*, 218, 201–206,  
529 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rse.2018.10.003>, 2018.

530 Freschet, G.T., and Roumet, C.: Sampling roots to capture plant and soil functions, *Funct. Ecol.*, 31(8),  
531 1506–1518, <https://doi.org/10.1111/1365-2435.12883>, 2017.

532 Gang, C.C., Zhou, W., Chen, Y.Z., Wang, Z.Q., Sun, Z.G., Li, J.L., Qi, J.G., and Odeh, I.:  
533 Quantitative assessment of the contributions of climate change and human activities on global  
534 grassland degradation, *Environ. Earth Sci.*, 72(11), 4273–4282, [https://doi.org/10.1007/s12665-](https://doi.org/10.1007/s12665-014-3322-6)  
535 [014-3322-6](https://doi.org/10.1007/s12665-014-3322-6), 2014.

536 Gyssels, G. and Poesen, J.: The importance of plant root characteristics in controlling concentrated  
537 flow erosion rates, *Earth Surf. Proc. Land.*, 28, 371–384. <https://doi.org/10.1002/esp.447>, 2003.

538 Gyssels, G., Poesen, J., Bochet, E., and Li, Y., Impact of plant roots on the resistance of soils to  
539 erosion by water: a review, *Progr. Phys. Geogr.*, 29(2), 189–217, [https://doi.org/10.1191/](https://doi.org/10.1191/0309133305pp443ra)  
540 [0309133305pp443ra](https://doi.org/10.1191/0309133305pp443ra), 2005.

541 Huang, Z., Tian, F.P., Wu, G.L., Liu, Y., and Dang, Z.Q.: Legume grasslands promote precipitation  
542 infiltration better than gramineous grasslands in arid regions, *Land Degrad. Dev.*, 28(1), 309–  
543 316, <https://doi.org/10.1002/ldr.2635>, 2017.

544 Huang, Z., Liu, Y.F., Cui, Z., Liu, Y., Wang, D., Tian, F.P., and Wu, G.L.: Natural grasslands  
545 maintain soil water sustainability better than planted grasslands in arid areas, *Agr. Ecosyst.*  
546 *Environ.*, 286(1), 106683, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agee.2019.106683>, 2019.

547 Karayel, D., and Šarauskis, E.: Environmental impact of no-tillage farming, *Environ. Res. Eng.*  
548 *Manag.*, 75(1), 7–12, <http://dx.doi.org/10.5755/j01.erem.75.1.20861>, 2019.

- 549 Labuz, J.F., and Zang, A. Mohr–Coulomb Failure Criterion, *Rock Mech. Rock Eng.*, 45, 975–979,  
550 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00603-012-0281-7>, 2012.
- 551 Leung, A.K., Garg, A., Coe, J.L., Ng, C.W.W., and Hau, B.C.H.: Effects of the roots of *Cynodon*  
552 *dactylon* and *Schefflera heptaphylla* on water infiltration rate and soil hydraulic conductivity,  
553 *Hydrol. Process.*, 29(15), 3342–3354. <https://doi.org/10.1002/hyp.1045>, 2015.
- 554 Liebig, M.A., Kronberg, S.L., Hendrickson, J.R., Dong, X., and Gross, J.R.: Carbon dioxide efflux  
555 from long-term grazing management systems in a semiarid region, *Agr. Ecosyst. Environ.*, 164,  
556 137–144, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agee.2012.09.015>, 2013.
- 557 Li, J., Wu, J., Yu, J., Wang, K., Li, J., Cui, Y., Shanguan Z.P., and Deng, L.: Soil enzyme activity  
558 and stoichiometry in response to precipitation changes in terrestrial ecosystems. *Soil Biol.*  
559 *Biochem.*, 191, 109321, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.soilbio.2024.109321>, 2024.
- 560 Liu, W.J., Luo, Q.P., Lu, H.J., Wu, J.E., and Duan, W.P.: The effect of litter layer on controlling  
561 surface runoff and erosion in rubber plantations on tropical mountain slopes, SW China, *Catena*,  
562 149, 167–175, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.catena.2016.09.013>, 2017.
- 563 Liu, Y., Li, S.Y., Niu, Y.L., Cui, Z., Zhang, Z.C., Wang, Y.L., Ma, Y.S., López-Vicente, M., and  
564 Wu, G.L.: Effectiveness of mixed cultivated grasslands to reduce sediment concentration in  
565 runoff on hillslopes in the Qinghai-Tibetan Plateau, *Geoderma*, 422, 115933, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.geoderma.2022.115933>, 2022.
- 567 Liu, Y.F., Dunkerley, D., López-Vicente, M., Shi, Z.H., and Wu, G.L.: Trade-off between surface  
568 runoff and soil erosion during the implementation of ecological restoration programs in semiarid  
569 regions: A meta-analysis, *Sci. Total Environ.*, 712, 136477, [https://doi.org/10.1016/j.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2019.136477)  
570 [scitotenv.2019.136477](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2019.136477), 2020.
- 571 Liu, Y.F., Liu, Y., Wu, G.L., and Shi, Z.H.: Runoff maintenance and sediment reduction of different

572 grasslands based on simulated rainfall experiments., *J. Hydrol.*, 572, 329–335, [https://doi.org/10.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhydrol.2019.03.008)  
573 [1016/j.jhydrol.2019.03.008](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhydrol.2019.03.008), 2019.

574 Liu, Y., Zhao, L.R., Liu, Y.F., Huang, Z., Shi, J.J., Wang, Y.L., Ma, Y.S., Lucas-Borja, M.E., L'opez-  
575 Vicente, M., and Wu, G.L.: Restoration of a hillslope grassland with an ecological grass species  
576 (*Elymus tangutorum*) favors rainfall interception and water infiltration and reduces soil loss on  
577 the Qinghai-Tibetan Plateau, *Catena*, 219, 106632, [https://doi.org/10.1016/j.catena.2022.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.catena.2022.106632)  
578 [106632](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.catena.2022.106632), 2022.

579 Li, W., Wang, J.L., Zhang, X.J., Shi, S.L., Cao, W. X.: Effect of degradation and rebuilding of artificial  
580 grasslands on soil respiration and carbon and nitrogen pools on an alpine meadow of the  
581 Qinghai-Tibetan Plateau, *Ecol. Eng.*, 111, 134–142,  
582 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecoleng.2017.10.013>, 2018.

583 López-Vicente, M., and Navas, A.: A new distributed rainfall-runoff (DR2) model based on soil  
584 saturation and runoff cumulative processes, *Agricultural Water Management*, 104, 128–141.  
585 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agwat.2011.12.007>, 2012.

586 Lu, J.R., Zhang, Q., Werner, A.D., Li, Y.L., Jiang, S.Y., and Ta, Z.Q.: Root-induced changes of soil  
587 hydraulic properties – a review, *J. Hydrol.*, 589, 125203 [https://doi.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhydrol.2020.125203)  
588 [org/10.1016/j.jhydrol.2020.125203](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhydrol.2020.125203), 2020.

589 Ma, Y.L., Liu, Y.F., López-Vicente, M., and Wu G.L.: Divergent shift of normal alpine meadow  
590 towards shrub and degraded meadows reduces soil water retention and storage capacity, *J.*  
591 *Hydrol.*, 625, 130109, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhydrol.2023.130109>, 2023.

592 Ma, Y.L., Liu, Y.F., López-Vicente, M., and Wu, G.L.: Divergent shift of normal alpine meadow  
593 exacerbated soil loss of hillslope alpine meadows based on field experiments, *Int. Soil Water*  
594 *Conserv. Res.*, 12, 565-577, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.iswcr.2023.11.007>, 2024.

595 Minea, G., Mititelu-Ionuș, O., Gyasi-Agyei, Y., Ciobotaru, N., and Rodrigo-Comino, J.: Impacts of  
596 grazing by small ruminants on hillslope hydrological processes: A review of European current  
597 understanding, *Water Resour. Res.*, 58, e2021WR030716, <https://doi.org/10.1029/2021WR>,  
598 2022.

599 Mohamadi, M.A., and Kavian, A.: Effects of rainfall patterns on runoff and soil erosion in field plots,  
600 *Int. Soil Water Conse.*, 3(4), 273–281, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.iswcr.2015.10.001>, 2015.

601 Mohammad, A.G., and Adam, M.A.: The impact of vegetative cover type on runoff and soil erosion  
602 under different land uses, *Catena*, 81(2), 97–103, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.catena.2010.01.008>,  
603 2010.

604 Niu, Y.L., Li, S.Y., Liu, Y., Shi, J.J., Wang, Y.L., Ma, Y.S., and Wu, G.L.: Regulation of alpine  
605 meadow patch coverage on runoff and sediment under natural rainfall on the eastern Qinghai-  
606 Tibetan Plateau, *J. Hydrol.*, 603, 127101, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhydrol.2021.127101>, 2021.

607 O'Mara, F.P.: The role of grasslands in food security and climate change, *Ann. Bot-London* 110(6),  
608 1263–1270, <https://doi.org/10.1093/aob/mcs209>, 2012.

609 Qiu, D.X., Xu, R.R., Wu, C.X., Mu, X.M., Zhao, G.J., and Gao P.: Vegetation restoration improves  
610 soil hydrological properties by regulating soil physicochemical properties in the Loess Plateau,  
611 China, *J. Hydrol.*, 609, 127730, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhydrol.2022.127730>, 2022.

612 Ren, F., Zhou, H.K., Zhao, X.Q., Han, F., Shi, L.N., Duan, J.C., and Zhao, J.Z.: Influence of simulated  
613 warming using OTC on physiological–biochemical characteristics of *Elymus nutans* in alpine  
614 meadow on Qinghai-Tibetan plateau, *Acta Ecol. Sinica*, 30(3), 166–171, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chnaes.2010.04.007>, 2010.

616 Robinson, M., Cognard-Plancq, A.L., Cosandey, C., David, J., Durand, P., Führer, H.W., Hall, R.,  
617 Hendriques, M.O., Marc, V., McCarthy, R., McDonnell, M., Martin, C., Nisbet, T., O’Dea, P.,

618 Rodgers, M., and Zollner, A.: Studies of the impact of forests on peak flows and baseflows: a  
619 European perspective, *For. Ecol. Manag.*, 186, 85–97. [https://doi.org/10.1016/s0378-](https://doi.org/10.1016/s0378-1127(03)00238-x)  
620 1127(03)00238-x, 2003.

621 Rodrigo-Comino, J., Brevik, E.C., and Cerdà, A.: The age of vines as a controlling factor of soil  
622 erosion processes in mediterranean vineyards, *Sci. Total Environ.*, 616–617, 1163–1173,  
623 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2017.10.204>, 2018.

624 Rumynin, V.G.: *Surface Runoff Generation, Vertical Infiltration and Subsurface Lateral Flow*. In:  
625 Overland flow dynamics and solute transport. Theory and Applications of Transport in Porous  
626 Media, vol 26. Springer, Cham, [https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-21801-4\\_1](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-21801-4_1), 2015.

627 Saxton, K.E., and Rawls, W.J.: Soil water characteristic estimates by texture and organic matter for  
628 hydrologic solutions, *Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J.*, 70(5), 1569–1578,  
629 <https://doi.org/10.2136/sssaj2005.0117>, 2006.

630 Schwarz, M., Rist, A., Cohen, D., Giadrossich, F., Egorov, P., Büttner, D., Stolz, M., and Thormann,  
631 J.J.: Root reinforcement of soils under compression, *J. Geophys. Res-Earth*, 120(10), 2103–2120,  
632 <https://doi.org/10.1002/2015JF003632>, 2015.

633 Shang, Z.H., Ma, Y.S., Long, R.J., and Ding, L.M.: Effect of fencing, artificial seeding and  
634 abandonment on vegetation composition and dynamics of ‘black soil land’ in the headwaters of  
635 the Yangtze and the Yellow Rivers of the Qinghai-Tibetan Plateau, *Land Degrad. Dev.*, 19(5),  
636 554–563, <https://doi.org/10.1002/ldr.861>, 2008.

637 Schmidt, S., Alewell, C., and Meusburger, K.: Monthly RUSLE soil erosion risk of Swiss grasslands,  
638 *J. Maps*, 15, 247–256, <https://doi.org/10.1080/17445647.2019.1585980>, 2019

639 Török, P., Brudvig, L.A., Kollmann, J., Price, J., and Tóthmérész, B.: The present and future of  
640 grassland restoration, *Restor. Ecol.*, 29(S1), e13378, <https://doi.org/10.1111/rec.13378>, 2021.

641 Wick, A.F., Geaumont, B.A., Sedivec, K.K., and Hendrickson, J.: *Grassland degradation*. In:  
642 Shroder, J.F., Sivanpillai, R. (Eds.), *Biological and environmental hazards, risks, and disasters*.  
643 Elsevier, pp. 257–276, 10.1016/B978-0-12-394847-2.00016-4, 2016.

644 Wang, B., Zhang, G., Yang, Y., Li, P., and Liu, J.: Response of soil detachment capacity to plant root  
645 and soil properties in typical grasslands on the Loess Plateau, *Agr. Ecosyst. Environ.*, 266, 68–  
646 75, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agee.2018.07.016>, 2018.

647 Wang, C.T., Wang, G.X., Liu, W., Wang, Y., Hu, L., and Ma, L.: Effects of establishing an artificial  
648 grassland on vegetation characteristics and soil quality in a degraded meadow, *Isr. Ecol. Evol.*,  
649 59(3), 141–153, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/15659801.2013.863669>, 2013.

650 Wang, L., Liang, T., and Zhang, Q.: Laboratory experiments of phosphorus loss with surface runoff  
651 during simulated rainfall, *Environ. Earth Sci.*, 70(6), 2839–2846, [http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/  
652 s12665-013-2344-9](http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s12665-013-2344-9), 2013.

653 Wang, Z.Q., Zhang, Y.Z., Yang, Y., Zhou, W., Gang, C.C., Zhang, Y., Li, J.L., An, R., Wang, K.,  
654 Odeh, I., and Qi, J.G.: Quantitative assess the driving forces on the grassland degradation in the  
655 Qinghai–Tibet Plateau, in China, *Ecol. Inform.*, 33, 32–44, [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ecoinf.  
656 2016.03.006](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ecoinf.2016.03.006), 2016.

657 Wen, Y.R., Liu, B., Lin, L.T., Hu, M.M., Wen, X., Li, T.Y., Rong, J.D., and Yao, S.H.: Shelterbelt  
658 effects on soil redistribution on an arable slope by wind and water, *Catena*, 241, 108044.  
659 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.catena.2024.108044>, 2024.

660 Wu, G. L., Huang, Z., Liu, Y.F., Cui, Z., Chang, X.F., Tian, F.P., López-Vicented, M., and Shi, Z.H.:  
661 Soil water response of plant functional groups along an artificial legume grassland succession  
662 under semi-arid conditions, *Agr. Forest Meteorol.*, 278, 107670.  
663 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agrformet.2019.107670>, 2019.

664 Wu, G.L., Liu, Y.F., Cui, Z., Liu, Y., Shi, Z.H., Yin, R., and Kardol, P.: Trade-off between vegetation  
665 type, soil erosion control and surface water in global semi-arid regions: A meta-analysis, *J. Appl.*  
666 *Ecol.*, 57, 875–885. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1365-2664.13597>, 2020.

667 Wu, G.L., Liu, Z.H., Zhang, L., Hu, T., and Chen, J.: Effects of artificial grassland establishment on  
668 soil nutrients and carbon properties in a black-soil-type degraded grassland, *Plant Soil*, 333(1–  
669 2), 469–479, <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11104-010-0363-9>, 2010.

670 Vanacker, V., Molina, A., Rosas, M. A., Bonnesoeur, V., Román-Dañobeytia, F., Ochoa-Tocachi, B.  
671 F., and Buytaert, W.: The effect of natural infrastructure on water erosion mitigation in the Andes,  
672 *Soil*, 8(1), 133–147, <https://doi.org/10.5194/soil-8-133-2022>, 2022.

673 Xia, L., Song, X.Y., Fu, N., Cui, S.Y., Li, L.J., Li, H.Y., and Li, Y.L.: Effects of forest litter cover on  
674 hydrological response of hillslopes in the Loess Plateau of China, *Catena*, 181, 104076,  
675 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.catena.2019.104076>, 2019.

676 Xu, J.: A cave  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  based 1800-year reconstruction of sediment load and streamflow: The Yellow  
677 River source area, *Catena*, 161, 137–147, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.catena.2017.09.028>, 2018.

678 Zhang, G.H., Tang, K.M., Ren, Z.P., and Zhang, X.C.: Impact of grass root mass density on soil  
679 detachment capacity by concentrated flow on steep slopes, *T. ASABE*, (56), 927–934, 2013.

680 Zhao, X., Huang, J., Wu, P., Gao, X.: The dynamic effects of pastures and crop on runoff and  
681 sediments reduction at loess slopes under simulated rainfall conditions, *Catena*, 119, 1–7,  
682 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.catena.2014.03.001>, 2014.

683 Zhao, Y.T., Pu, Y.F., Lin, H.L., and Tang, R.: Examining soil erosion responses to grassland  
684 conversation policy in Three-River Headwaters, China, *Sustainability*, 13(5), 2702,  
685 <https://doi.org/10.3390/su13052702>, 2021.

686 Zhou, J., Fu, B.J., Gao, G.Y., Lü, Y.H., Liu, Y., Lü, N., and Wang, S.: Effects of precipitation and

687 restoration vegetation on soil erosion in a semi-arid environment in the Loess Plateau, China,  
688 *Catena*, 137, 1–11, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.catena.2015.08.015>, 2016.

689 Zhu, P.Z., Zhang, G.H., Wang, H.X., Yang, H.Y., Zhang, B.J., and Wang, L.L.: Effectiveness of  
690 typical plant communities in controlling runoff and soil erosion on steep gully slopes on the  
691 Loess Plateau of China, *J. Hydrol.*, 602, 126714. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhydrol.2021.126714>,  
692 2021.



693 **Table 1.** Results of path analysis of the factors affecting runoff depth.

Influence factor	Direct path coefficient	Indirect path coefficient						Sum of path coefficient	
		<i>RI</i> <sub>60</sub>	<i>ARI</i>	<i>RD</i>	<i>P</i>	<i>VC</i>	<i>LB</i>		Total
<i>RI</i> <sub>60</sub>	0.24*		0.25	-0.09	-0.11	0.02	0.00	0.07	0.31
<i>ARI</i>	0.37**	0.16		-0.34	-0.05	0.02	0.02	-0.19	0.18
<i>RD</i>	0.67**	-0.03	-0.18		-0.08	0.03	-0.03	-0.31	0.36
<i>P</i>	-0.18**	0.14	0.10	0.31		0.02	0.00	0.57	0.40
<i>VC</i>	0.29**	0.01	0.03	0.06	-0.01		-0.06	0.03	0.32
<i>LB</i>	-0.12	0.01	-0.09	0.18	0.00	0.15		0.25	0.13

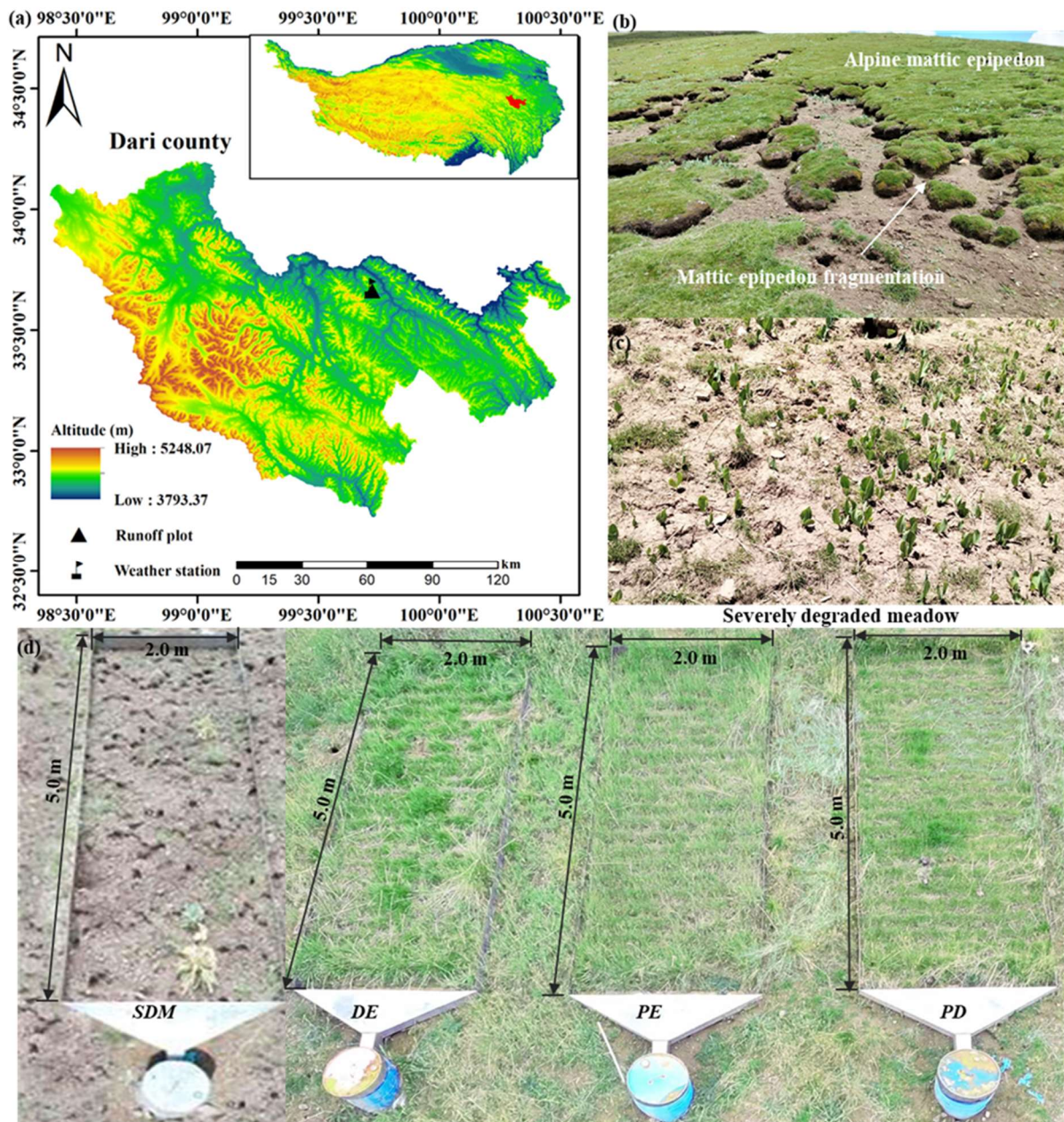
694 Note: *RI*<sub>60</sub> is maximum 60-minute intensity (mm h<sup>-1</sup>), *ARI* is average rainfall intensity (mm h<sup>-1</sup>), *RD*  
695 is rainfall duration (h), *P* is rainfall amount (mm), *VC* is vegetation coverage (%), *LB* is litter biomass  
696 (g m<sup>-2</sup>). \* means the correlation is significant at 0.05 significance level, and \*\* means the correlation  
697 is significant at 0.01 significance level.

698

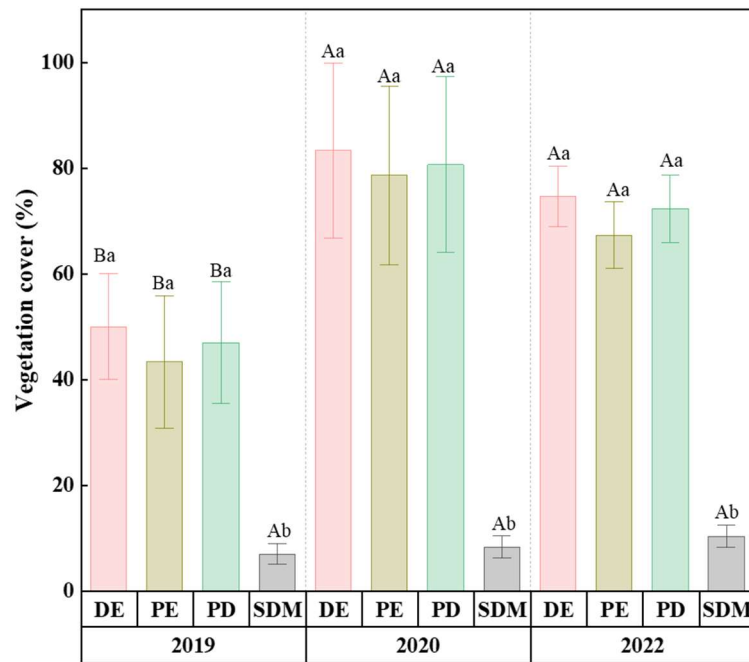
699 **Table 2.** Results of path analysis of the factors affecting soil loss per unit area.

Influence factor	Direct path coefficient	Indirect path coefficient								Sum of path coefficient
		<i>R</i>	<i>RI</i> <sub>60</sub>	<i>ARI</i>	<i>RD</i>	<i>P</i>	<i>VC</i>	<i>LB</i>	Total	
<i>R</i>	0.60**		-0.12	0.01	-0.10	0.11	0.01	0.01	-0.08	0.52
<i>RI</i> <sub>60</sub>	-0.29**	0.24		0.02	0.07	0.16	0.00	0.00	0.49	0.20
<i>ARI</i>	0.04	0.13	-0.19		0.21	0.07	0.01	0.02	0.25	0.28
<i>RD</i>	-0.41**	0.15	0.05	-0.02		0.13	0.00	-0.04	0.27	-0.13
<i>P</i>	0.28**	0.24	-0.17	0.01	-0.19		0.00	-0.01	-0.11	0.17
<i>VC</i>	0.03	-0.04	-0.04	0.01	-0.03	0.03		-0.06	-0.12	-0.10
<i>LB</i>	-0.10	-0.01	-0.01	-0.01	-0.16	0.03	0.02		-0.15	-0.25

700 Note: *R* is surface runoff (mm), *RI*<sub>60</sub> is maximum 60-minute intensity (mm h<sup>-1</sup>), *ARI* is average rainfall  
701 intensity (mm h<sup>-1</sup>), *RD* is rainfall duration (h), *P* is rainfall amount (mm), *VC* is vegetation coverage  
702 (%), *LB* is litter biomass (g m<sup>-2</sup>). \*\* means the correlation is significant at 0.01 significance level.



703 **Figure 1.** The location of the study area on the Qinghai-Tibetan Plateau, and the location of runoff  
 704 plots in the study area. (a) The location of the study area, (b) the fragmenting mattic epipedon on the  
 705 alpine hillslope and (c) severely degraded meadows formed by the disappearance of mattic epipedon  
 706 and (d) four runoff plots of severely degraded meadows (*SDM*) and mixed-cultivated grasslands. A  
 707 typical severely degraded meadow with a slope of 20° was selected to plant mixed grasses. Runoff  
 708 plots were photographed with a drone in the early stages of the 2022 growing season. *DE*,  
 709 *Deschampsia cespitosa* and *Elymus nutans*; *PE*, *Poa pratensis* L.cv. Qinghai and *Elymus nutans*; and  
 710 *PD*, *Poa pratensis* L.cv. Qinghai and *Deschampsia cespitosa*.



711

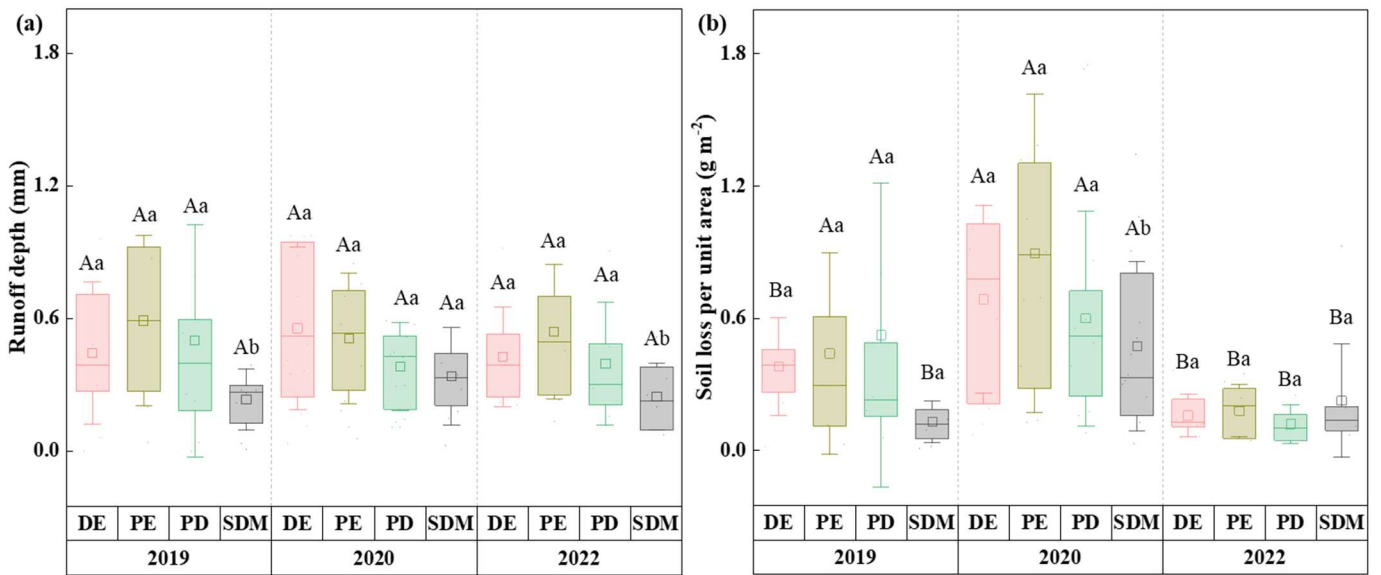
712 **Figure 2.** Changes in vegetation cover under various mixed-cultivated grasslands from 2019 to 2022.

713 Different capital letters mean that differences were significant in different years for the same

714 grassland community, and different lowercase letters mean that differences were significant between

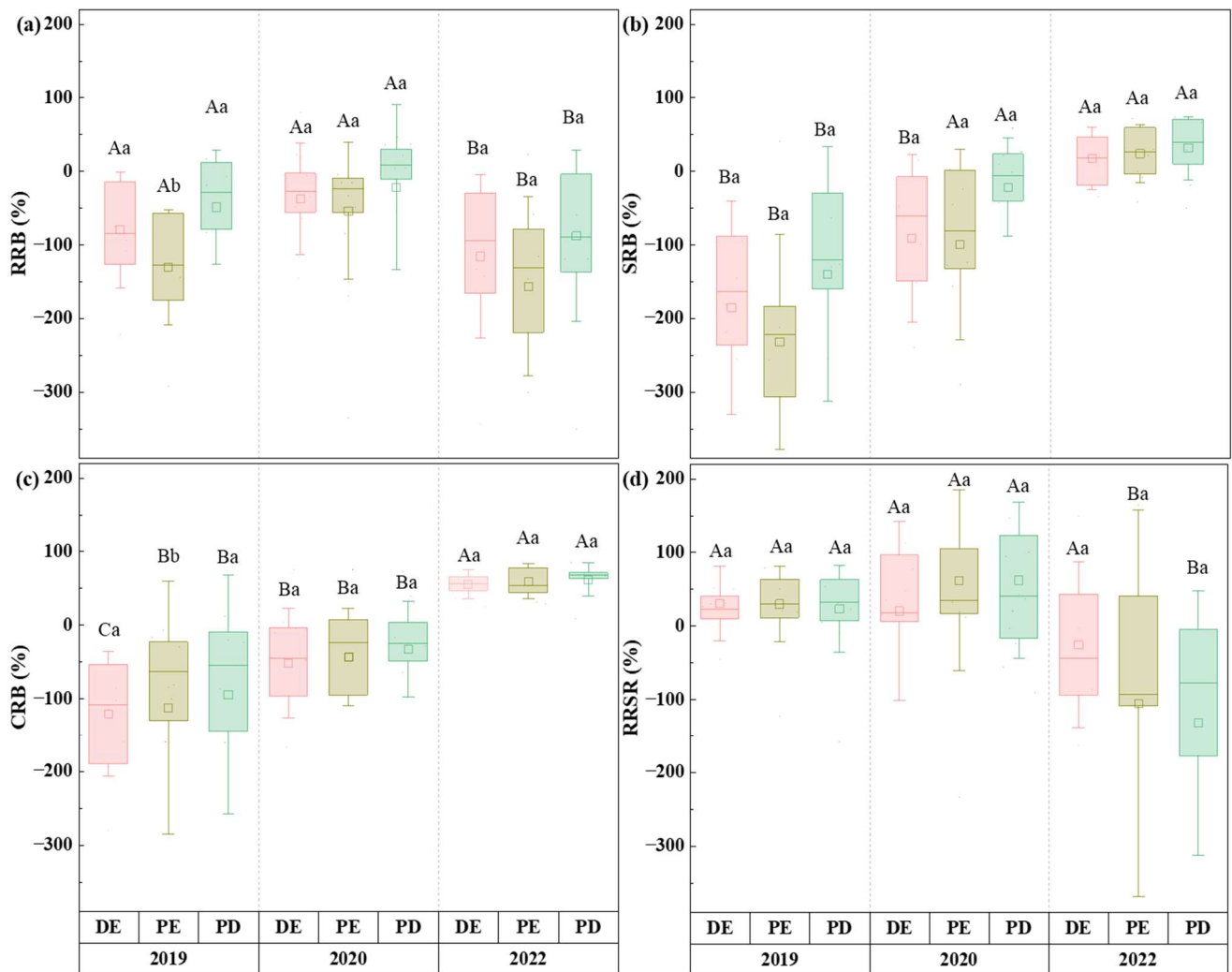
715 different communities in the same year.

716

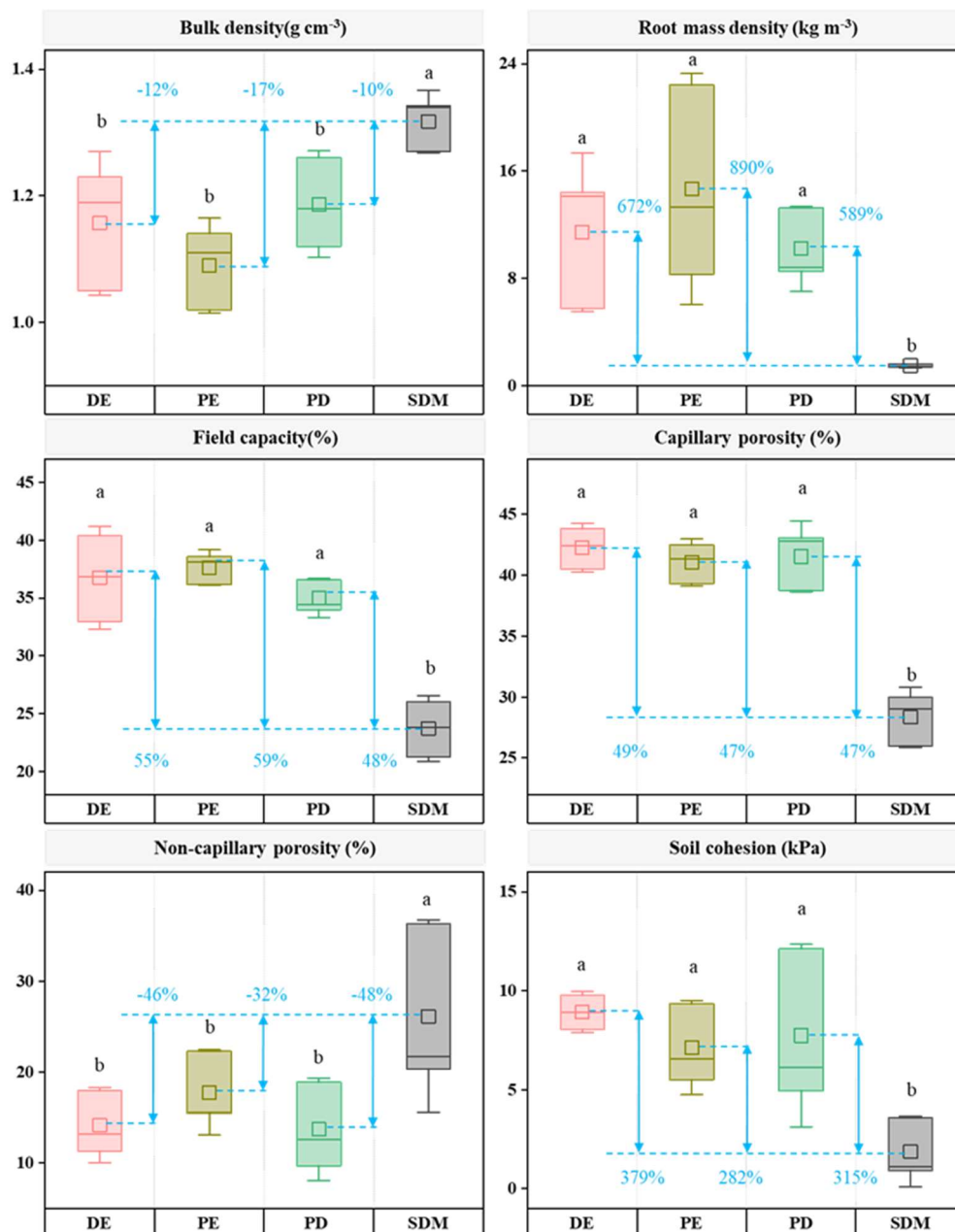


717 **Figure 3.** Changes in soil erosion and runoff under various mixed-cultivated grasslands from 2019 to  
 718 2022. (a) Runoff depth and (b) soil loss per unit area. Note: For the four treatment runoff plots, runoff  
 719 and sediment were measured 14, 18, and 10 times, respectively, during the growing season of 2019,  
 720 2020, and 2022. Different capital letters mean that differences were significant in different years for  
 721 the same grassland community, and different lowercase letters mean that differences were significant  
 722 between different communities in the same year. *SDM*, severely degraded meadows, *DE*,  
 723 *Deschampsia cespitosa* and *Elymus nutans*; *PE*, *Poa pratensis* L.cv. Qinghai and *Elymus nutans*; and  
 724 *PD*, *Poa pratensis* L.cv. Qinghai and *Deschampsia cespitosa*. The lines in the middle of the box  
 725 represent the median values. The squares in the box represent the average value.

726



727 **Figure 4.** Runoff, soil loss and sediment concentration reduction ratio under different mixed-  
728 cultivated grasslands from 2019 to 2022. (a) Runoff reduction ratio (*RRB*), (b) soil loss reduction  
729 ratio (*SRB*), (c) sediment concentration reduction ratio (*CRB*) and (d) the percent of runoff reduction  
730 ratio to soil loss reduction ratio (*RRSR*). Note: Different capital letters mean that differences were  
731 significant in different years for the same grassland community, and different lowercase letters mean  
732 that differences were significant between different communities in the same year. The lines in the  
733 middle of the box represent the median values. The squares in the box represent the average value.  
734



735 **Figure 5.** Changes in bulk density, root mass density, field capacity, capillary capacity, non-capillary  
736 porosity and soil cohesion in 0-10 cm soil layer when severely degraded meadow (*SDM*) were  
737 restored to mixed-cultivated grassland for 4 years. *DE*, *Deschampsia cespitosa* and *Elymus nutans*;  
738 *PE*, *Poa pratensis L.cv. Qinghai* and *Elymus nutans*; and *PD*, *Poa pratensis L.cv. Qinghai* and  
739 *Deschampsia cespitosa*. Percentages represent the increased rate of soil properties (increased rate =  
740  $(V_{DE}$  or  $V_{PE}$  or  $V_{PD} - V_{SDM})/V_{SDM}$ ), where  $V_{SDM}$ ,  $V_{DE}$ ,  $V_{PE}$  and  $V_{PD}$  are the mean values of soil  
741 characteristics of *SDM*, *DE*, *PE* and *PD*. Different lowercase letters mean that differences were  
742 significant between different communities. The lines in the middle of the box represent the median  
743 values. The squares in the box represent the average value.