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Soil carbon and nitrogen erosion in forested catchments: implications for erosion-induced terrestrial carbon sequestration

Author responses

Response to: Biogeosciences Discuss., 12, Report #1 (29 June 2015): “Accepted subject to minor revisions”

Comments on the manuscript are followed by a response and pertinent changes. Please note that Line numbers refer to the version of the manuscript with the track changes markup.

Comment: General comments “The authors provided a detailed response following the previous review, and made various important changes. Comparison between the two versions is complicated since no document was provided indicating where changes were made exactly. Some text in the revised manuscript was highlighted, but many more changes were made that were not highlighted.

Despite the positive changes, I consider the paper requires some further revisions and clarification of several inconsistencies before publication. Most importantly, the authors have added hypothesis to the introduction section, which could be a good idea, but in its present form seems artificial and poorly worked out. The hypotheses do not link to the research questions and at various points in the manuscript (especially discussion) reference is made to hypotheses that are not in the introduction. The paper could benefit from a much better explanation of its main objectives and a structured and systematic elaboration of these objectives and/or hypothesis in the discussion and conclusions.”

Author response: Thank you for the thorough feedback and consideration for the manuscript. We acknowledge that major changes were made to the manuscript in response to previous reviews, and changes should have been tracked more diligently. As it was, changes were not tracked through several iterations, and a best effort was made to indicate changes after the fact. In our responses to this round of comments, all revisions were explicitly tracked.

For the hypotheses, we have attempted to clarify the links between the research questions and the hypotheses. In research question A, we also aim to address the elevational as well as the interannual differences in precipitation (L112). We also added text to the first hypothesis to clarify expected links between sediment yield, elevation, and precipitation (L116-119); these changes also address another comment below concerning part of the discussion.

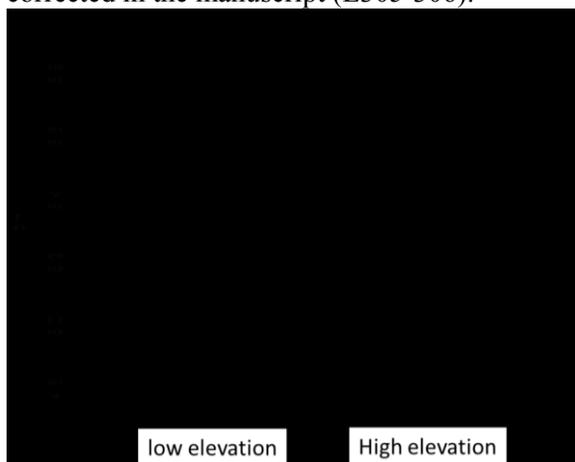
Comment: L 283: (Depositional hillslope positions...) is this not in contradiction with previous sentence that no significant differences were found?

Author response: The difference here was between the organic horizon (similar across sampling locations) and the mineral soils (some differences). We have modified the text to make the distinction more clear: “The organic horizon chemical composition had consistent C and N concentrations, and C:N ratio, among landform positions, transects, or catchments (data not shown). Depositional hillslope positions had significantly higher mineral soil C and N concentrations than both the crest and backslope positions, which were similar (Table 3).” (L281-285)

Comment: L302: previous sentence says that higher elevation soils are more acidic, not lower elevation soils. Please correct or clarify.

Author response: Thank you for your precise catch. The error was corrected: higher elevation sediments and soils were both more acidic than their lower elevation counterparts (Sediment data

shown below for clarification, however the graph is not in the manuscript). The text was corrected in the manuscript (L305-306).



Comment: L333: The number 15.6 kg ha refers to bioturbation?

Author response: Yes, the number is from the Tennessee Valley site in Northern California, studied by Yoo et al., 2006, and many subsequent papers. We believe that the sequential listing of examples with numbers and references was the clearest way to reference this information (now line 342, no changes have been made in the text).

Comment: L334-337: I don't understand the point you are trying to make here. First of all, sediment export rates are strongly dependent on the size of the catchment (see for example Walling 1983; Journal of Hydrology 65, the Sediment Delivery Problem), making comparison between catchments of different size meaningless. Second, why would the fact that you find agreement with other catchments mean that 'there are still erosive forces that mobilize sediment in non-flood years'?

Author response: You have made some good points here. These sentences were in answer to discussions about the magnitude and timing of sediment on longer geologic timescales (Riebe et al. 2001, L348), especially since hillslope fences captured no measurable sediment in some years (Stafford 2011, L415-417). Clarifications were made to the text to convey these ideas better (L337-341). We acknowledge that the catchment size is a controlling variable, as you mention, but rates are reported in many papers without a concurrent reporting of the catchment size, which inhibited comparisons. Our manuscript reports area-normalized sediment yield to minimize the confounding effect of the dependence sediment export rates and the size of the catchment.

Comment: L341: to which hypothesis of the introduction does this relate?

Author response: The 2 hypotheses listed in the introduction were not numbered, but this refers to part of the first one, which concerns sediment yield. We realize this was not fully worked out in the introduction, so changes have been made to expand this hypothesis in the introduction: "We hypothesized that variation in sediment yield is directly related to stream discharge, based on results from previous years, and that the precipitation form would impact sediment yield due to the higher energy of rain events compared to snow, and the greater potential for rain-on-snow events at lower elevations in the Sierra." (L116-119).

Comment: L355: you mean chemical composition of sediments?

Author response: We have changed "sediment composition" to "sediment chemical composition" in this paragraph (L364, 369, 370, and 380) to add to the clarity in this paragraph in response to your comment.

Comment: L354-355: What exactly does this mean and how does it support (or not) your hypothesis regarding the relation btw sediment composition and rainfall/discharge versus catchment characteristics?

Author response: Thank you for your input. We have modified this section of the discussion, and incorporated parts of the rest of that paragraph to address your points and more closely evaluate the hypothesis. The text now reads: “However, we found sediment chemical composition was not well correlated with the source catchment, or catchment elevation or size. The one catchment (B201) with an exceptionally low sediment C:N ratio, could be attributed to the meadow bordering the stream. Sediment composition was far more consistent than sediment yield across catchments as well as years. Hence, we reject our hypothesis that sediment composition is dependent on catchment differences more than water yield.” L364-371

Comment: L359: It seems likely that spatial variability in catchment characteristics is so limited that it is to be expected that this will not affect your sediment composition, as you also state later on? Besides, what about the significant correlation with source catchment mentioned in L265?

Author response: The catchments do have similar soils, as published in Johnson et al., 2011, and may have been too similar to contribute to different sediment components. One difference was observed in the B201 C:N ratio, and was attributed to the prevalence of meadow vegetation in this catchment. In this section (see L366), we compared the relative importance of sediment yield and source catchment for predicting sediment chemical composition to test whether it had statistically significant contribution. The source catchment did contribute to the model for C and N concentrations, but sediment yield was a more important variable for model correlation, hence we rejected our hypothesis: "Sediment chemical composition (in contrast to total yield) is better correlated with watershed characteristics than with precipitation amount or water yield timing". In the text, changes include the consistent identification of sediment chemical composition (in response to the comment above) and rewriting text on the contributing factors for sediment chemical composition (L363-365, L369-371).

Comment: L363: so what does this say about the importance of lateral C fluxes for the C budget?

Author response: In the years of this study, erosion at this scale is a very small flux in the overall C budget. Large, intermittent lateral C fluxes may be indicated by the geologic record; we have added additional clarification (see L375-378).

Comment: L368: they = there

Author response: We made the suggested change in the revised manuscript (L383).

Comment: L395: and low ER for wet years, possibly pointing at erosion of deeper soil layers, or loss from the sediment basins?

Author response: The differences in ER had several possible explanations; because of this, we rewrote the discussion concerning both the enrichment in dry years and the low ER in wet years (L411). Erosion of deeper soil layers is discussed in the following paragraph (L397-402) and trapping efficiency in the paragraph beginning L409.

Comment: L440: on which of your results is this statement based? On the fact that erosion rates are low and therefore not likely to form an important sink? Please clarify.

Author response: Yes, our intention here is that it is a small sink relative to the overall OM in the system due to the low erosion rates and the large C pool in the forest ecosystems. We streamlined this point (see L450-456).

Comment: L441: climate change is likely to affect temperature and annual rainfall volume, so most likely also discharge, but probably vegetation cover and so protection against soil erosion will also be affected by climate change.

Author response: We agree that vegetative cover could certainly change given the degree of warming, but currently vegetation cover is already very dense in these minimally disturbed forests. We do not foresee changes to soil cover that protects against soil erosion until the point of a shift to grassland and shrubland. This discussion was briefly expanded in L453-463.

Comment: L449: what about results in Figure 4 showing a significant negative correlation between discharge and C concentration? This conclusion seems to contradict your discussion section stating that discharge is important for sediment composition?

Author response: There were statistically significant negative correlations between discharge and C concentration, as well as between discharge and the sediment C:N ratio. However, these correlations were noisy and had a low predictive value, suggesting that other factors may be more important. This distinction was made in the discussion (L372-374).

Comment: L452: eroding sediments, eroded sediments, or simply sediments?

Author response: In L453: Because we evaluated sediment captured in the basins, but potentially not all sediment eroded (due to trapping inefficiencies), this line should perhaps appropriately refer to “captured sediments”. This change has been made in the manuscript in L473.

Comment: L452-453: sediment mobilization = erosion?

Author response: More precisely, we meant mobilized (eroded) sediment that was exported and captured, as not all of the eroded sediment reached the basins and we did not capture everything that did. For the sake of clarity and simplicity in the text (trapping efficiency discussed elsewhere), we have changed this to “eroded sediment” (L474).

Comment: L457: your study did not test differences in timing; only inter annual precipitation differences but not timing within the year, right? Your results do show that not form of precipitation but total volume is important.

Author response: Yes, here was a request or recommendation that event-based sampling could help elucidate these questions. We have changed the wording to: “Including precipitation event-based sampling and quantification of trap efficiency in each catchment would help improve quantification of sediment and associated OM export rates for such upland forest catchments.” (L475-478).

Comment: Figure 4: The legend in these figures shows negative R^2 values. These should probably be r values not R^2 ?

Author response: Yes, the negative R^2 values are not possible. The correct metric for these graphs is R^2 , and the legends have been updated to reflect this.

Comment: Figure 6: please add legend with hillslope positions (that was present in previous version of the graph).

Author response: A legend with hillslope positions was added to the figure to correct this omission.

Soil carbon and nitrogen erosion in forested catchments: implications for erosion-induced terrestrial carbon sequestration

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1 **ABSTRACT**

2 Lateral movement of organic matter (OM) due to erosion is now considered an important
3 flux term in terrestrial carbon (C) and nitrogen (N) budgets, yet most published studies on the
4 role of erosion focus on agricultural or grassland ecosystems. To date, little information is
5 available on the rate and nature of OM eroded from forest ecosystems. We present annual
6 sediment composition and yield, for water years 2005-2011, from eight catchments in the
7 southern part of the Sierra Nevada, California. Sediment was compared to soil at three different
8 landform positions from the source slopes to determine if there is selective transport of organic
9 matter or different mineral particle size classes. Sediment export varied from 0.4 to 177 kg ha⁻¹,
10 while export of C in sediment was between 0.025 and 4.2 kg C ha⁻¹ and export of N in sediment
11 was between 0.001 and 0.04 kg N ha⁻¹. Sediment yield and composition showed high interannual
12 variation. In our study catchments, erosion laterally mobilized OM-rich litter material and
13 topsoil, some of which enters streams owing to the catchment topography where steep slopes
14 border stream channels. Annual lateral sediment export was positively and strongly correlated
15 with stream discharge, while C and N concentrations were both negatively correlated with stream
16 discharge; hence, C:N ratios were not strongly correlated to sediment yield. Our results suggest
17 that stream discharge, more than sediment source, is a primary factor controlling the magnitude
18 of C and N export from upland forest catchments. The OM-rich nature of eroded sediment raises
19 important questions about the fate of the eroded OM. If a large fraction of the SOM eroded from
20 forest ecosystems is lost during transport or after deposition, the contribution of forest
21 ecosystems to the erosion induced C sink is likely to be small (compared to croplands and
22 grasslands).

23 1. INTRODUCTION

24 The processes of soil erosion and terrestrial sedimentation have been a focus of a growing
25 number of studies because of their potential to induce a net terrestrial sink for atmospheric
26 carbon dioxide (CO₂; Stallard, 1998; Berhe et al., 2007). Erosion can lead to terrestrial C
27 sequestration if erosional loss of soil C from slopes is more than offset by stabilization of eroded
28 C in depositional landform positions and (at least partial) replacement of eroded C by production
29 of new photosynthate within the eroding catchment (Stallard, 1998; Harden et al., 1999; Berhe et
30 al., 2007; Harden et al., 2008; Nadeu et al., 2012; Sanderman and Chappell, 2013).

31 Recent studies have identified major implications of erosion on soil organic matter (SOM
32 stabilization, changes in composition, and input to the soil system. Identified stabilization
33 mechanisms for this eroded organic matter (OM) deposited in low-lying landform positions
34 include burial, aggregation, and sorption of OM on the surfaces of reactive soil minerals (Berhe
35 et al., 2012a; Vandenbygaart et al., 2012), and changes in the biomolecular composition of OM
36 during transport (Rumpel and Kogel-Knabner, 2011; Vandenbygaart et al., 2015). Removal of
37 organic- and nutrient-rich topsoil material from eroding positions and its concomitant
38 accumulation in depositional landform positions also has impacts for net primary productivity
39 (NPP) in both locations (Yoo et al., 2005; Berhe et al., 2008; Parfitt et al., 2013). These factors –
40 the balance of organic matter production, stabilization and loss across the landscape – are
41 ecosystem-specific. Several studies have assessed the impact of erosion on C balances in
42 agricultural lands (Van Oost et al., 2007; Quinton et al., 2010; Chappell et al., 2012;
43 Vanderbygaart et al., 2012; Rumpel et al., 2014). Some ecosystems with less human influence
44 have also been studied in this context (Yoo et al., 2006; Berhe et al., 2008; Boix-Fayos et al.,

45 2009; Hancock et al., 2010; Nadeu et al., 2012), but there is currently little published data from
46 minimally disturbed temperate forests.

47 Erosion processes in forested ecosystems, especially upland or steep catchments, have
48 notable differences from agro-ecosystems. For instance, average sediment erosion rates are
49 orders of magnitude higher for agricultural lands compared to forested lands (Pimentel and
50 Kounang, 1998). Forest land erosion rates are lower in part due to greater live plant and litter
51 cover of the mineral soil than in agro-ecosystems; as the vegetation cover reduces the energy of
52 incoming precipitation. In landscapes that have experienced little anthropogenic disturbance,
53 overland erosion transports material from the uppermost soil horizons, which often have a high
54 proportion of undecomposed OM and high C concentrations. Such C enrichment in the
55 transported material relative to the residual soil has been observed in croplands and rangelands;
56 but increased incision into the landscape – through gullies, mass wasting or other processes –
57 also erodes material from deeper layers with lower C concentrations in these managed
58 ecosystems, resulting in relatively low C enrichments (Nadeu et al., 2011). The intensive cultural
59 practices used frequently in agricultural, but less often in forestry, such as tilling or vegetation
60 removal, disrupt soil stability and can increase erosion by orders of magnitude (e.g., Pimentel
61 and Kounang, 1998; Van Oost et al., 2006).

62 Sediment exported from small, minimally disturbed low-order catchments can experience C
63 oxidation during transport (Berhe, 2012) through the disruption of aggregates (Nadeu et al. 2011,
64 Boix-Fayos et al. 2015), exposure to oxygen and new microbial decomposers, or other means.
65 The oxidative C loss during erosion is typically assumed to be less than 20% in agro-ecosystems
66 partly owing to the relatively low OM concentrations in these soils (Berhe et al., 2007). This
67 same assumption may not be valid in forested ecosystems because upland forest soils typically

68 have much higher concentrations of OM in surficial soils (as organic horizons or OM-rich
69 mineral topsoil). Furthermore, C in forested soils or undisturbed grasslands is likely to have a
70 larger unprotected (free, light) fraction compared to agricultural soils, where most of the C is
71 typically associated with the soil mineral fraction (Berhe et al., 2012, Wang et al., 2014, Wiaux
72 et al., 2013 Stacy, 2012). Hence, forested sites are likely to have substantially higher proportion
73 of their eroded OM transported as unprotected, carbon-rich sediments that are free from any
74 physical (aggregation) or chemical (bonding, complexation) association with soil minerals when
75 compared to the better-studied agricultural soils.

76 Furthermore, determining the role of erosion on forested ecosystems is timely since even
77 forested systems that previously did not experience much anthropogenic modification are
78 expected to experience considerable changes in precipitation amount, timing, and nature with
79 anticipated changes in climate. Anticipated changes in climate are expected to have important
80 implications for sediment and OM erosion from forest ecosystems. In the Sierra Nevada
81 mountains, large tracts of relatively undisturbed forest still exist. Even though some land has
82 experienced intensive management for timber production (especially in historical periods), most
83 has received relatively minor influences from human activity, including fire management, roads,
84 and the water reservoir system. In these ecosystems, increasing temperatures associated with
85 climate change are expected to alter the erosional process due to the anticipated shift in the
86 nature of precipitation. A shift in the type of precipitation from snow to rain, and a higher
87 number of rain-on-snow events, compared to even the last few decades (Bales et al., 2006, IPCC,
88 2007, Klos et al., 2014), are expected to provide greater force to detach, scour, and transport
89 material from the soil overall (Boix-Fayos et al., 2009; Nadeu et al., 2011) with subsequent
90 implications for amount of C transported. Higher erosive forces would also provide more energy

91 to disrupt aggregates, exposing OM previously protected from decomposition to loss (Nadeu et
92 al. 2011). The dearth of data on the effect of climate change on soil C erosion is complicated by
93 the inherent variability of erosion events, such as episodic, large storm events or an extreme
94 weather season, that make it challenging to create conceptual or numerical models that can easily
95 scale up across time and space (Kirkby, 2010).

96 Here, we focus on determining the nature and magnitude of the sediment and associated OM
97 exported out of forested upland catchments at mid-range scales (spatially and temporally) to
98 further our understanding of how climate affects soil erosion processes in such ecosystems. We
99 quantified the mass and composition of sediments exported from eight low-order catchments to
100 determine the effect of soil erosion on C and N dynamics in these upland forest ecosystems. Our
101 study catchments are located in the southern Sierra Nevada, at two contrasting elevation zones
102 with differences in the proportion of precipitation falling as rain or snow. This work builds on
103 previous publications on the sediment transport and composition from the same site (Eagan et al.,
104 2007; Hunsaker and Neary, 2012), covering sediment transport for all water years (2005-2011)
105 after the construction of all sediment basins and prior to planned forest management treatments
106 (fire and thinning); implementation of those treatments began in 2012. In addition, we expand on
107 the characterization of sediment composition with additional measurements and a comparison to
108 soil samples from potential source locations. This work is part of a larger investigation at this site
109 on changes in OM stabilization mechanisms due to erosion. Specifically, we addressed two
110 critical questions:

111 (a) In forested catchments with minimal disturbance, how are rates of sediment yield related
112 | to interannual and elevational differences in precipitation?

113 (b) Is the chemical composition of eroded sediments better correlated to catchment
114 characteristics (e.g., soil properties and slope geometry) or climate (e.g., precipitation
115 form, water yield timing)?

116 We hypothesized that variation in sediment yield is directly related to stream discharge (as a
117 proxy for precipitation), -based on results from previous years, and that the precipitation form
118 would impact sediment yield due to- the higher energy of rain events compared to snow, and the
119 greater potential for rain-on-snow events at lower elevations in the Sierras. We also hypothesized
120 that sediment chemical composition (in contrast to total yield) is better correlated with watershed
121 characteristics than with precipitation amount or water yield timing.

122 2. SITE DESCRIPTION AND METHODS

123 2.1 Site Description

124 This study was conducted within the U.S. Forest Service Kings River Experimental
125 Watersheds (KREW), located in the Sierra National Forest (37.012°N, 119.117°W; Figure 1).
126 We used eight low-order catchments (48–227 ha in size), grouped within two elevation zones as
127 the Providence and Bull catchments (Figure 2). The Providence catchments (1485–2115 m
128 elevation) receive a mix of rain and snow (about 35-60% snow). Approximately 15 km to the
129 southeast, the higher-elevation Bull catchments (2050–2490 m) receive the majority (75-90%) of
130 precipitation as snow. Both elevation groups experience a Mediterranean-type climate with the
131 majority of precipitation (rain or snow) falling in the winter. The lower-elevation Providence
132 catchments are also being investigated as part of the Southern Sierra Critical Zone Observatory
133 (CZO, www.criticalzone.org/sierra) project. Mean (\pm standard deviation) annual air temperature
134 for water years 2004–2007 was 11.3 ± 0.8 °C and 7.8 ± 1.4 °C at the low and high elevation
135 sites, respectively (Johnson et al., 2011). Annual precipitation during the years of this study

136 (water years 2005–2011) was similar across elevations but varied more than two fold among
137 years (750–2200 mm, Figure 2, see Hunsaker and Neary (2012) and Climate and Hydrology
138 Database Projects [CLIMDB/HYDRODB], www.fsl.orst.edu/climhy).

139 Seven of the catchments have experienced common forest management practices such as
140 timber harvest, tree planting, grazing, and road construction and maintenance. However, no
141 activities other than occasional road grading and grazing have occurred in the past 15 years since
142 KREW was established. One catchment (T003) is undisturbed and has never had timber harvest
143 or road construction. No fire has been recorded in these catchments for 110 years.

144 Both the lower and higher elevation sites are characterized as Sierra mixed-conifer forests,
145 with a more open canopy at Bull than Providence (Figure 3). Dominant tree species at
146 Providence Creek site include sugar pine (*Pinus lambertiana*), ponderosa pine (*P. ponderosa*),
147 incense-cedar (*Calocedrus decurrens*), white fir (*Abies concolor*), and black oak (*Quercus*
148 *kelloggii*). At the higher elevation Bull Creek site, red fir (*A. magnifica*), sugar pine, and Jeffrey
149 pine (*P. jeffreyi*) are more dominant. For more information on land cover see Bales et al. (2011)
150 and Johnson et al. (2011).

151 Soil in the study area is derived from granite and granodiorite bedrock. Dominant soil series
152 include Shaver, Cagwin, and Gerle-Cagwin. The Shaver series is most prominent (48–66%
153 coverage) in the Providence catchments, while the higher elevation Bull catchments are
154 dominated by the Cagwin series (67–98% coverage; Johnson et al., 2011). The Shaver series is in
155 the U.S. Department of Agriculture Soil Taxonomic family of coarse-loamy, mixed mesic Pachic
156 Xerumbrepts. The Cagwin series is in the loamy coarse sand, mixed, frigid Dystric
157 Xeropsamments family. The Gerle series is in the coarse-loamy, mixed, frigid Typic
158 Xerumbrepts family. Johnson et al. (2011) give detailed information on chemical and physical

159 variation of soil in the study catchments. The dominant aspect of these catchments is southwest
160 (Bales et al., 2011).

161 **2.2 Methods**

162 Stream discharge was quantified using a pair of flumes on each stream (Hunsaker et al.
163 2007). Annual stream discharge presented here was integrated from average daily flow rates
164 based on continuous 15 minute interval sampling. We characterized newly collected sediment
165 samples from the catchments for water years 2009–2011 (Table 1) and sediment samples from
166 water years 2005, 2007, and 2008 (Eagan et al., 2007; Hunsaker and Neary, 2012) that were
167 collected and archived by the U.S. Forest Service Pacific Southwest Research Station in Fresno,
168 CA (stored air-dry, at room temperature in the dark). There were no archived sediments
169 preserved from water year 2006.

170 Sediment from each catchment was captured in basins that allow sediment particles to settle
171 as stream water slows passing through the basin (Eagan et al., 2007). Constructed to fit the
172 topography, basin dimensions vary in size but are about 2-3 m wide by 8-15 m long. Annual
173 sediment loads were quantified at the end of the water year (WY; October 1 of the previous year
174 through September 30) in August and September, when water flows were lowest. Streams were
175 diverted underneath the basin lining for collection. Material in the sediment basins was emptied
176 using buckets and shovels and weighed in the field using a hanging spring scale (capacity of $50 \pm$
177 0.5 kg). A representative sample (~20 kg) was returned to the U.S. Forest Service Pacific
178 Southwest Research Station Fresno office. Subsamples (~2 kg) for WY 2009-2011 were
179 transported in a cooler to UC Merced and stored at 4°C until further processing.

180 Sediment samples were compared to soil samples considered as potential sources, collected
181 from 18 sampling points along representative transects for each elevation group of catchments
182 (see Figure 1). Sites were selected to be comparable as possible; however, transect P2 had a non-
183 representative, highly saturated meadow as the depositional location. Transect P2 was not
184 evaluated in further analyses because other depositional locations were in the forest. Each
185 transect was laid out along a hillslope toposequence and sampled at crest, backslope, and
186 foot/toe-slope (hereafter characterized as “depositional”) landform positions. Crest samples were
187 taken at the top of a ridgeline, where the slope was < 5 degrees. Backslope samples were taken
188 where the slope change was constant (slopes between 5 and 25°). Depositional samples were
189 taken in areas where slopes were converging and curvature was minimal (i.e., below the
190 footslope and as close to flat as possible). These depositional areas cover a limited surface,
191 sometimes only a few meters wide where slopes converge; the catchments are steep and have
192 minimal flat surfaces near the creeks and drainages. To estimate slope at each sampling point,
193 Spatial Analyst tools from the ArcGIS software ArcMap 10.0 (ESRI, Redlands, CA, USA) were
194 used to calculate slope from a 10-m digital elevation model (DEM). Soil samples from each of
195 hillslope position were collected in August and September, 2011, using a hand auger with a 5 cm
196 diameter bucket. Depths were separated into four layers: organic horizon, 0-10 cm, 10-20 cm,
197 20-40 cm. Soil samples were kept in a cooler on ice packs until returned to the laboratory, where
198 they were transferred to a refrigerator and kept at 4°C until processing within three months. Soil
199 sampling locations were selected to minimize variation in aspect and slope (factors that might
200 influence overland transport and the energy of incoming precipitation). Soil across the
201 catchments was previously characterized (Johnson et al., 2011; Johnson et al., 2012), providing a
202 larger data set against which to compare the results of this study.

203 **2.3 Physical Characterization of soil and sediment**

204 Soil and sediment (air-dry, < 2 mm sieved samples) pH was measured in 1:2 (w:w) soil to
205 water suspension using a combination electrode (Fisher Scientific Accumet Basic AB15 meter,
206 Waltham, Massachusetts). Soils (0-20 cm) from two transects (selected for comparability based
207 on distance to stream, aspect, and vegetation) were selected for particle size distribution and
208 specific surface area at the Center for Environmental Physics and Mineralogy at the University
209 of Arizona. Before analyses, organic matter was removed from the soil and sediment samples by
210 mixing approximately 20 g of sample with 100 ml of sodium hypochlorite (6% NaOCl, adjusted
211 to pH 9.5 with 1 M HCl) for 30 minutes at 60 °C. Subsequently, solutions were centrifuged at
212 1500 g for 15 minutes; then supernatant and floating organic particles were aspirated. This
213 process was repeated twice. After OM removal, 100 ml of deionized water was added and the
214 centrifuged; the supernatant was aspirated and discarded, and samples were dried at 40 °C.
215 Particle size distribution was determined with laser diffraction and specific surface area with
216 Brunauer Emmett Teller adsorption isotherms (Brunauer et al., 1938).

217 **2.4 Characterization of C and N in sediment and soil**

218 Total C and N were measured on the < 2 mm fraction following grinding (8000M Spex Mill,
219 SPEX Sample Prep, Metuchen, NJ, USA) with a Costech ECS 4010 CHNSO Analyzer
220 (Valencia, CA, USA). All values have been moisture-corrected and reported here on oven-dry
221 (105 °C) weight basis, and as the mean of three analytical replicates ± standard error, except
222 where noted.

223 2.5 Data Analysis

224 Data are presented as mean \pm standard error ($n = 3$), except where noted. Explanatory factors
225 for C and N concentrations and the C:N ratio of sediment and soil were evaluated with a
226 multivariate model to account for sampling year, catchment, sampling depth, and hillslope
227 position. The strength of different model formats and interactions terms was evaluated using a
228 stepwise regression run simultaneously in both directions, with the best model chosen according
229 to the Akaike Information Criterion (Burnham and Anderson, 2002). The Tukey-Kramer HSD
230 test ANOVA was used to test for significant differences between means of sediment mass, and C
231 or N concentrations between sediment basins and collection years, and between hillslope
232 position and transects for soils. For all statistical tests, an a priori α level of 0.05 was used to
233 determine statistical significance. Statistical analyses were conducted using R 2.14.2
234 (<http://www.r-project.org>).

235 3. RESULTS

236 3.1 Sediment yield and Organic Matter Export

237 Area-normalized sediment yield (hereafter referred to as sediment yield) in the eight
238 catchments varied over several orders of magnitude. There were large differences among years
239 and catchments ([Figure 4](#)~~Figure 4~~~~Figure 4~~, [Table 1](#)~~Table 1~~~~Table 1~~). Mean annual sediment yield
240 across all catchments and years was $26.0 \pm 6.1 \text{ kg ha}^{-1}$, but ranged from 0.4–177 kg ha^{-1} . The
241 lowest mean sediment yield ($8.9 \pm 4.0 \text{ kg ha}^{-1}$) was recorded for the P303 catchment. The highest
242 interannual variability in sediment yield was observed in catchments D102, B204, and T003.
243 Sediment yield was positively correlated with total annual water yield ([Figure 4](#)~~Figure 4~~~~Figure~~

244 | 4). Across all catchments and years, there was a good correlation between water yield and
245 | sediment yield:

$$246 \quad \log_{10} [S] = 1.87 * \log_{10} [W] - 0.307 \quad (1)$$

$$247 \quad (R^2 = 0.62, p < 0.0001, n = 52)$$

248 | where: S = Annual sediment yield (kg ha⁻¹ y⁻¹) and W = Annual water yield (1000 m³ ha⁻¹ y⁻¹).

249 | The P304 catchment had very high export rates relative to the other catchments; excluding this
250 | catchment improved R² value to 0.72 ($p < 0.001, n = 45$).

251 | In contrast to the sediment yield, C (Figure 4) and N (not shown) concentrations in the
252 | sediment were both negatively correlated with annual water yield ($R^2 = 0.31, p < 0.001, n = 45$
253 | for C; and $R^2 = 0.36, p < 0.001, n = 45$ for N). As a result, the sediment C to N (C:N) mass ratio
254 | was only weakly correlated to water yield ($R^2 = 0.10, p = 0.019, n = 45$; Figure 4). Much of the
255 | organic matter collected in the sediment basins is recognizable (by the naked eye or under 25x
256 | magnification) as undecomposed organic matter. Further methods and results of the mass of
257 | transported sediment are available in Hunsaker and Neary (2012). The total export of particulate
258 | C in the < 2 mm fraction ranged from 0.17 to 46.9 kg C ha⁻¹ while particulate N export was
259 | 0.008-1.7 kg N ha⁻¹.

260 | 3.2 C and N concentrations in sediment and soil

261 | Sediment yield among both catchments and years was more variable (higher coefficients of
262 | variation) than the sediment C and N concentrations ([Table 4Table 4Table 4](#)). While sediment
263 | composition was less variable than sediment yield overall, C and N concentrations still showed
264 | statistically significant interannual and interbasin variation ([Figure 5Figure 5Figure 5](#)).
265 | Catchment size, catchment elevation group, and mean elevations were eliminated as significantly
266 | contributing variables in a stepwise regression model run simultaneously in both directions. In

267 the sediment samples, C concentrations ranged from 15.5 to 190 g kg⁻¹ and N from 0.50 to 7.10 g
268 kg⁻¹ (Table 2). In a multivariate general linear model, both year ($p < 0.001$) and source catchment
269 ($p < 0.01$) significantly influenced C and N concentrations ($n = 45$). This treats each sediment
270 sample as independent but interactions between catchment and year could not be evaluated
271 because there was insufficient replication. Sediment yield was inversely correlated with C and N
272 concentrations ($R^2 = 0.26$ and 0.19 , respectively; $p < 0.01$, $n = 46$). For seven catchments, the
273 C:N ratio ranged from 20.4 to 36.8, with a mean of 27.1 (Figure 5f). The only significant
274 difference among catchments was found in the upper elevation catchment, B201, which had
275 comparatively higher N concentrations; B201 sediment constitutes the outliers in Figure 5e.

276 Mineral soils had similar C and N concentrations and C:N ratios at both sampling sites
277 | (~~Table 3~~~~Table 3~~~~Table 3~~). The low elevation Providence catchment had a wider range in C
278 | concentrations (9.0 to 98 g kg⁻¹) in the surface soil (0-10 cm), than the Bull catchment soils
279 | (18.0–63.0 g kg⁻¹, except for one depositional point that had a C concentration of 167 g kg⁻¹).
280 | The N concentrations in surface soil ranged from 0.5 to 3.5 g kg⁻¹ in Providence, and 1.0 to 5.1 g
281 | kg⁻¹ in Bull. Differences between the elevation groups were not statistically significant
282 | (ANOVA; $p > 0.40$) for either C or N soil concentrations. The greatest differences were between
283 | the organic and the mineral soil horizons. The C:N ratio of the organic horizon was statistically
284 | higher than the mineral soils (means $51 \pm 3.9\%$ and $25 \pm 0.9\%$, respectively, $p < 0.0001$). The
285 | organic horizon chemical composition had consistent C and N concentrations, and C:N ratio,
286 | ~~There was no difference in either the C or N concentration, or the C:N ratio of the organic~~
287 | ~~horizon between~~ landform positions, transects, or catchments (data not shown). Depositional
288 | hillslope positions had significantly higher mineral soil C and N concentrations than both the
289 | crest and backslope positions, which were similar (~~Table 3~~~~Table 3~~~~Table 3~~). Mineral soils in

290 depositional locations had the most variation in composition among the soil samples analyzed.
291 Sediment C concentrations in water years 2005, 2010, and 2011 were statistically similar to the
292 soil range ($p > 0.95$), but in the other years, sediment C and N concentrations were much higher
293 than soils ($p < 0.05$).

294 3.3 Physical and chemical characteristics of sediment and soil

295 Sediments exported from all of the study catchments had higher sand concentration, and
296 lower clay concentrations, compared to surface mineral soils in the source hillslope ($p < 0.001$;
297 Table 2 and Table 3). Silt concentration of WY 2009 sediment was higher ($p = 0.02$) than WY
298 2011 sediment but still lower ($p = 0.03$) than soil values. Soil texture classification was sandy-
299 loam to loam and the particle size distribution was consistent across landform positions and
300 mineral soil depths (~~Table 3Table 3Table 2~~). Consistent with the coarser particles, sediment had
301 lower specific surface area than for the mineral soil. Of the three years evaluated, sediment from
302 2009 had the highest specific surface area ($3.3 \pm 1.0 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$; Table 2). Surface mineral soil in the
303 higher elevation B8 transect had a specific surface area of $8.5 \pm 1.7 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$, while the lower
304 elevation P4 transect had $10.3 \pm 1.6 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ (Table 3).

305 Soil pH declined with elevation, with higher pH values in the low-elevation Providence
306 catchments than the Bull catchments ($p = 0.002$; ~~Table 3Table 3Table 3~~), but there were no
307 differences among mineral soil depths. Sediment from the ~~lower-higher~~ catchments was also
308 more acidic than the sediment from the ~~upper-lower~~ catchments ($p = 0.03$), but the means were
309 more similar than the respective source mineral soils. Sediment (WY 2009-2011) had
310 significantly lower pH than the soils ($p = 0.01$).

311 3.4 C and N Enrichment ratios

312 Enrichment ratios of C and N (ER, the ratio of C or N concentration in the eroded sediment
313 divided by their concentration in source soil in hillslopes) were highest during years with low
314 precipitation and lowest during high precipitation years ([Figure 6](#)~~Figure 6~~~~Figure 6~~) for both the
315 upper and lower elevation watersheds. During years of low precipitation, we observed selective
316 transport of fine material that is high in OM concentration, characteristic of the organic and A
317 horizons. Furthermore, calculated ERs for the crest, backslope or the depositional positions
318 differed substantially in the high elevation Bull catchments, but not in lower elevation
319 Providence catchments. The depositional positions in these catchments were highly varied and
320 had points with very high C and N concentrations. For high water years 2010 and 211, Bull ER
321 values were more similar between slope positions than in low WY 2007 and 2008. In the low-
322 elevation Providence catchments, ERs were similar across hillslope positions for both C and N.

323 4. DISCUSSION

324 Our analyses of sediment transport rates and their composition from the KREW catchments
325 showed a positive relationship between water yield and erosion exports for these catchments that
326 have had experienced minimal disturbance for the past 15 years. In agreement with our
327 hypothesis that sediment yield is closely related to interannual differences in precipitation, we
328 found that total area-normalized annual sediment yield was strongly and positively correlated to
329 annual stream discharge (a proxy for precipitation amount) more than watershed size, slope or
330 soil characteristics. The range and magnitude of exported sediment was comparable to total
331 sediment transport rates in water years 2001-2009 from a subset of these catchments (installed
332 2002-2004, with the first full set of archived sediments from 2005; Eagan et al., 2007; Hunsaker
333 and Neary, 2012). The range of sediment yield was as much as an order of magnitude greater

334 than the difference in water yield for any given year, supporting a non-linear response for this
335 ecosystem (Figure 4). ~~Annual sediment export rates observed in these watersheds are more~~
336 ~~variable than but comparable to average reported rates for “stable forest” ecosystems (4-50 kg~~
337 ~~ha⁻¹ year⁻¹; Pimentel and Kounang, 1998), catchments with minimal human disturbance but~~
338 ~~significant bioturbation (15.6 kg ha⁻¹, Yoo et al., 2005) and catchments with mixed land use,~~
339 ~~including forest (60 kg ha⁻¹, Boix-Fayos et al., 2009).~~ Though small, the sediment yield in low-
340 flow years is not negligible. We observed sediment yield rates on par with a range of other
341 ecosystems. Agreement of our observed sediment yield with rates in a range of other ecosystems
342 (even exceeding some) indicates that there are still erosive forces that mobilize sediment in non-
343 flood years. Annual sediment export rates observed in these our catchments watersheds are more
344 variable than but comparable to average reported rates for “stable forest” ecosystems (4-50 kg
345 ha⁻¹ year⁻¹; Pimentel and Kounang, 1998), catchments with minimal human disturbance but
346 significant bioturbation (15.6 kg ha⁻¹, Yoo et al., 2005) and catchments with mixed land use,
347 including forest (60 kg ha⁻¹, Boix-Fayos et al., 2009). However these our study catchments, with
348 little anthropogenic disturbance during or in years prior to our study period, have contemporary
349 sediment export rates far below the average erosion rate on a geologic time scale (750-1110 kg
350 ha⁻¹ year⁻¹) for the Southern Sierra Nevada (Riebe et al. 2004) suggesting a- minimal climatic
351 influence on the long-term sediment erosion rates (Riebe et al. 2001).

352 We hypothesized that the higher elevation Bull watersheds would have lower erosion rates
353 than the low elevation Providence watersheds because of the greater proportion of the
354 precipitation falling as snow at higher elevations, and the greater potential for rain-on-snow
355 events at lower elevations in the Sierras (Bales et al., 2006; Hunsaker et al. 2012). However, we
356 found no significant difference between elevation groups, suggesting that these differences in

357 elevation are not significant drivers of sediment yield for the years we observed. These results
358 suggest that higher elevations, where the rain-snow transition zone is predicted to occur as the
359 climate warms (Klos et al. 2014) in the Sierra will likely not lead to increased short-term
360 sediment erosion rates from these catchments. However, any associated changes in the intensity
361 or amount of precipitation that would alter water yield will likely lead to changes in erosion rates
362 (cf. Fig. 4).

363 We hypothesized that sediment chemical composition is correlated more with catchment
364 characteristics such as soil composition and slope geometry, which could influence detachment
365 and transport mechanisms, than with precipitation or water yield. However, we found sediment
366 chemical composition was not well correlated with the source catchment, or catchment elevation
367 or size. was far more consistent than sediment yield across catchments as well as years. The one
368 catchment (B201) with an exceptionally low sediment C:N ratio, could be attributed to the
369 meadow bordering the stream. ~~Furthermore, we did not find consistent differences in~~
370 ~~composition of the eroded sediment between the lower and higher elevation catchments.~~
371 Sediment chemical composition was far more consistent than sediment yield across catchments
372 as well as years. Sediment chemical composition was most closely correlated with annual water
373 yield. Hence, we reject our hypothesis that sediment chemical composition is dependent on
374 catchment differences more than water yield. Sediment C and N concentrations, and the C:N
375 ratio were weakly correlated with water yield, but the correlations had low predictive values,
376 suggesting other factors may be more important. With relatively consistent C and N
377 concentrations, these results suggest that the total amount of OM exported from the Sierra
378 Nevada depends largely on total sediment yield. The average annual sediment yield resulted in
379 the export of 0.2-4.4 kg C ha⁻¹ year⁻¹, compared to the estimated C stock in these soils of

380 | between 80,000 and 111,000 kg C ha⁻¹ in the top meter of soil (Johnson et al., 2011). It is a very
381 | small flux compared to the overall carbon pool. As stated earlier, there is discordance between
382 | these years and the geologic-scale erosion rate, which may indicate isolated erosion events which
383 | should be considered for their impact on C movement and the net C balance.

384 | The soils in the two elevation watershed groups (i.e., Providence and Bull watersheds) were
385 | consistent, and perhaps too consistent to expect differences in sediment chemical composition
386 | between the elevation groups based on lithology or soil composition. Few soil characteristics
387 | show an elevational pattern (Johnson et al., 2011); however, they were differences between the
388 | hillslope locations, particularly the depositional locations compared to the other locations. Given
389 | the differences among hillslope locations, contributions from upland sediment sources may lead
390 | to more variation in sediment composition than elevational differences in these and similar
391 | regions of the western Sierra Nevada.

392 | Hillslope gradient, especially in areas adjacent to streams, plays a role in sediment yield
393 | (Litschert and MacDonald, 2009). The three catchments with the highest sediment yields (T003,
394 | P304 and D102) had steep (frequently greater than 25°) slopes near the stream, while other
395 | catchments have more moderate (< 15°) slopes in those areas (Figure 7). The steepest slopes
396 | adjacent to the stream in catchment D102 are made up of exposed bedrock, which may explain
397 | why the D102 catchment did not yield the highest sediment even though it has steep slopes
398 | adjacent to streams.

399 | Two catchments, T003 and P304, had exceptionally high sediment yield. High sediment
400 | yield from the T003 catchment was especially surprising because this catchment has never been
401 | impacted by logging or roads (Hunsaker and Neary, 2012). Compared to companion catchments,
402 | T003 and P304 have long, narrow geometries and eroded soil travels shorter distance to travel to

403 streams (Hunsaker and Neary, 2012). Several other factors, including low rock fraction in
404 topsoil, and low proportion of exposed granite, and ongoing down-cutting of channels in P304
405 have previously been suggested to explain the P304 sediment response (for more in depth
406 discussion on these factors see Hunsaker and Neary 2012, Eagan et al. 2007, Martin 2009).

407 Multiple reasons may explain the inverse relationship between C and N concentrations and
408 sediment yield, including preferential transport, differences in the source of the material, or
409 sampling basin capture efficiency. Water-based surface erosion processes (for example sheet
410 erosion) preferentially mobilize fine particles with their associated OM over mineral soils from
411 deeper in the soil profile, resulting in C and/or N enrichment in eroded sediments (Nadeu et al.,
412 2012). We found enrichment of OM in sediment compared to soils in years with low
413 precipitation for both elevation groups (cf. Figure 6), which could supporting preferential
414 transport of surficial organic material to streams during these periods.

415 Another possible reason for the inverse relationship between C and N concentrations and
416 sediment yield is that erosive processes detach and transport OM-poor material from different
417 sources or deeper in the soil profile than in low precipitation years. Erosion processes that impact
418 deeper layers (including gullies, mass wasting or bank erosion) mobilize material with lower OM
419 concentrations as well as water-stable aggregates (Nadeu et al., 2012). However, geomorphic
420 features which increase connectivity in the catchments (e.g., gullies or convex hillslopes) are
421 present but not common in our study catchments (Stafford, 2011). Stafford (2011) reported that
422 water-driven surface erosion from or near roads (OM-poor sources) in these catchments to be
423 orders of magnitude higher than erosion on vegetated hillslopes. In two of five years, hillslope
424 sediment fences captured no measureable sediment; however in other years (2005, 2006 and

425 2008), mean hillslope sediment erosion rates ranged from 6-32.9 kg ha⁻¹ year⁻¹ (Stafford, 2011),
426 which is comparable to sediment exported from these catchments.

427 Changes in the trapping efficiency of the sediment basins with changes in water yield is
428 another possibility for the inverse relationship between C and N concentrations and sediment
429 yield. For instance, lower efficiency of capture of low density, high C and N concentration
430 material (e.g., free organics) during high discharges would lead to low C and N concentrations in
431 captured sediment in these high water yield years. In a review of several studies, Verstraeten and
432 Poesen (2000) found trapping efficiency rates of sediment mass in individual events can be as
433 low as 50%, especially in high discharge events. The trapping efficiency of the sediment basins
434 was not measured in this project due to labor and budget constraints. However, considering the
435 nature of soils and SOM in our study catchments, and the discharge events recorded, we can
436 assume that most of the C laterally distributed from the hillslopes is likely trapped in the basins.
437 It is likely that some C existing as free organic particles and C associated with very small
438 mineral particles (that remain in suspension the longest) could be transported further and at least
439 partially contribute to the inverse relationship discussed above. However, the loss of C as OM in
440 dissolved and suspended sediment form is likely, at least partially compensated, by input of C
441 from vegetation growing above the sediment basins.

442 **Implications for predicting fate of eroded OM in upland forest ecosystems**

443 The process of soil OM erosion in upland forest ecosystems, and its contribution to the
444 erosion-induced C sink, is fundamentally different than those in cultivated and grassland
445 ecosystems. These montane Sierra Nevada catchments have higher surficial concentrations of C
446 and N (Dahlgren et al., 1997; Johnson et al., 1997) and steeper slopes (cf. Fig. 7) than
447 agroecosystems (Quine and Van Oost, 2007; Van Oost et al., 2007; Berhe et al., 2007), which

448 could contribute to export of OM-rich material without allowing for significant decomposition
449 during transport. If deposited within the source or adjacent catchments, the OM can be protected
450 through various mechanisms with burial (Berhe and Kleber, 2013) or through chemical
451 associations that OM forms with soil minerals during or after transport, leading to stabilization of
452 the eroded OM (VandenBygaart et al., 2012, 2015). In the KREW catchments, there is potential
453 for C loss during transport as well as stabilization through various mechanisms compared to
454 other non-montane ecosystems (Stacy, 2012). These forest ecosystems had low erosion rates,
455 with only a small fraction of the total C pool subject to erosion. Furthermore, the OM-rich nature
456 of eroded sediment raises important questions about the fate of the eroded OM during and after
457 erosional transport. If a large fraction of the SOM eroded from forest ecosystems is lost during
458 transport or after deposition, the ~~contribution of forest ecosystems to the erosion-induced C sink~~
459 ~~is likely to be small (compared to croplands and grasslands).~~eroded organic matter would not be
460 preserved. At least under contemporary rates of erosion, we did ~~not~~ find evidence that erosion
461 in these forest ecosystems can constitute a significant C sink. Changing climate could potentially
462 alter this balance through changes to water yield, through vegetative shifts to shrubland or
463 grassland, or through the increased risk of fire,~~nor do we expect this to change with climatic~~
464 ~~change unless water yield also increases.~~ The ultimate fate of this eroded C and N and its
465 contribution towards erosion-induced C sequestration will depend on how far the material is
466 transported and rates of OM decomposition after deposition (Berhe and Kleber, 2013; Berhe et
467 al., 2012b).

468 5. CONCLUSION

469 Overall, our findings show that there was no consistent, statistically significant difference in
470 erosion rates of sediment, C or N from rain- versus snow-dominated headwater catchments in the

471 southern Sierra Nevada. Water yield does not strongly moderate sediment C and N
472 concentrations, but it is a major driver of total C- and N-export from these catchments because of
473 the correlation with sediment yield. Enrichment in OM supports the contribution of surficial
474 sources and the dominance of sheet erosion over other erosional processes. Differences in
475 enrichment ratios of C and N in eroding-captured sediments may be driven by higher rates of
476 sediment mobilization eroded sediment during wetter years or preferential loss from the sediment
477 basins during high stream discharge. Including precipitation event-based sampling and
478 quantification of trap efficiency in each catchment would ~~Further sampling on the sub-annual to~~
479 ~~event scale, along with quantification of the trap efficiency will~~ help improve quantification of
480 sediment and associated OM export rates for such upland forest catchments. Based on our
481 results, we conclude that changes in the amount of precipitation but not the timing or
482 precipitation form will have important implications for both the nature and amount of OM that is
483 eroded from forested ecosystems, and to whether erosion in forested catchments can induce a
484 significant sink for atmospheric CO₂.

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7. FIGURES

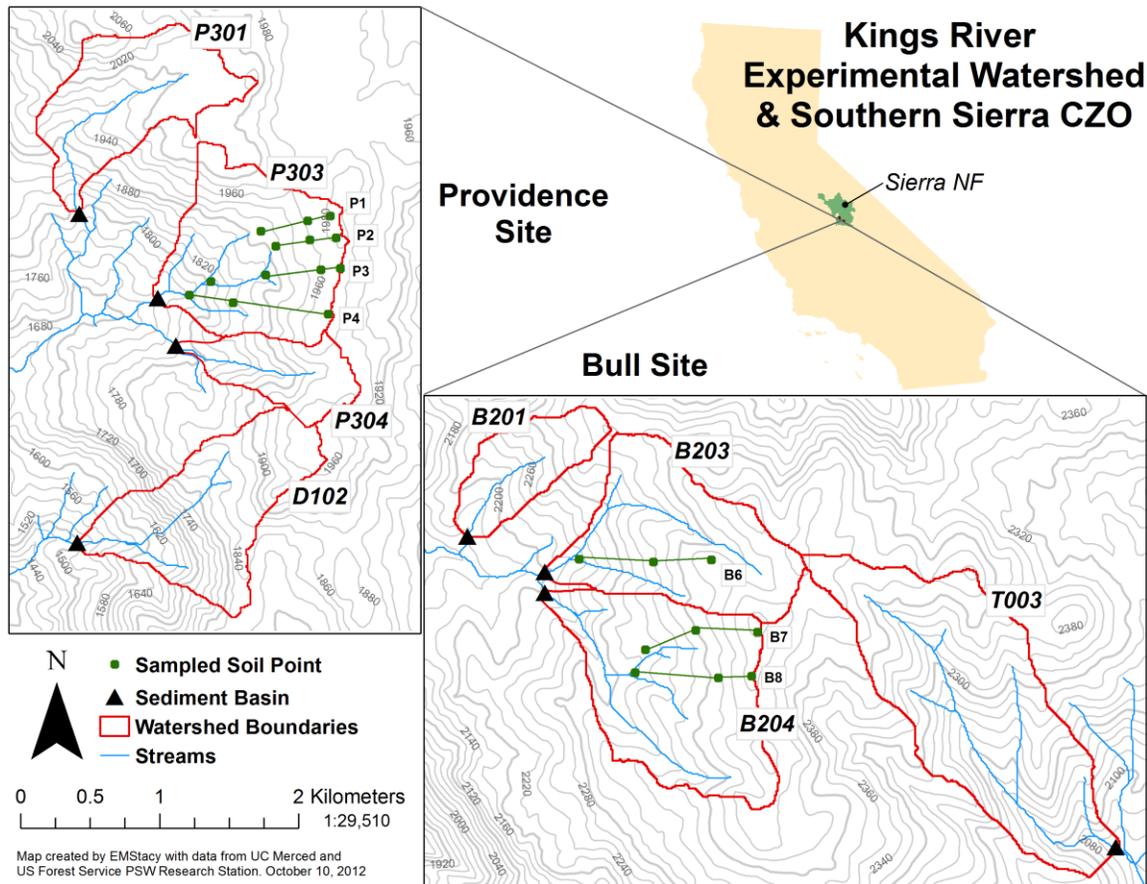


Figure 1. Map of the Kings River Experimental Watershed and Southern Sierra Critical Zone Observatory showing soil sampling points (green circles, at depositional, backslope, and crest hillslope positions from left to right along transects) and sediment sampling basins (black triangles).

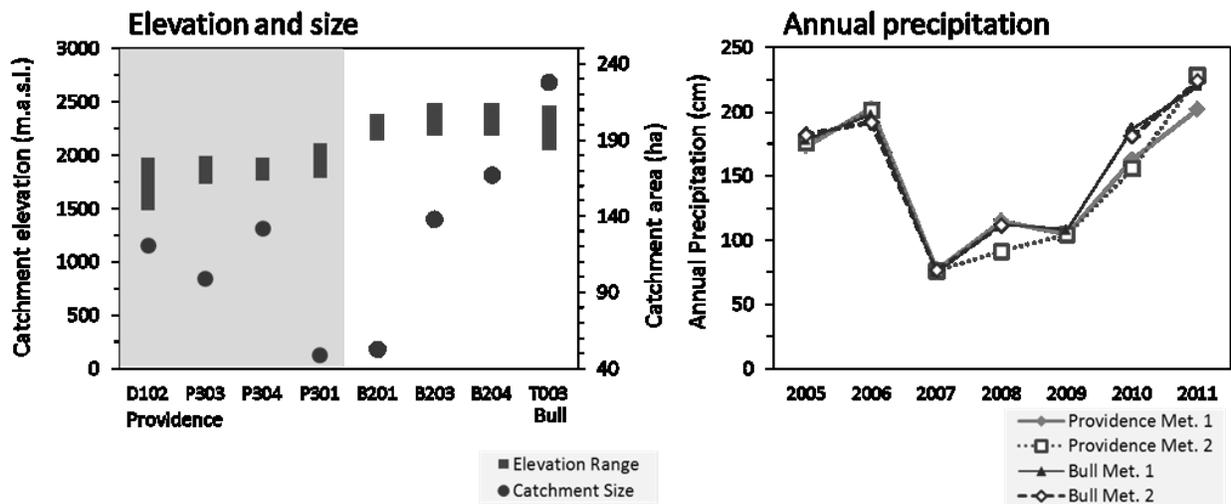


Figure 2. Elevation range and size of the catchments (left) and annual precipitation from four meteorological stations (right) during the years of study. Roughly half of the precipitation at the lower-elevation Providence catchments falls as rain, while the Bull catchments (high elevation) receive > 75% of precipitation as snow.



Figure 3. Forests at Providence (left) and Bull (right) catchments. At both sites, vegetation cover is variable, with occasional clearings, meadows, and exposed bedrock.

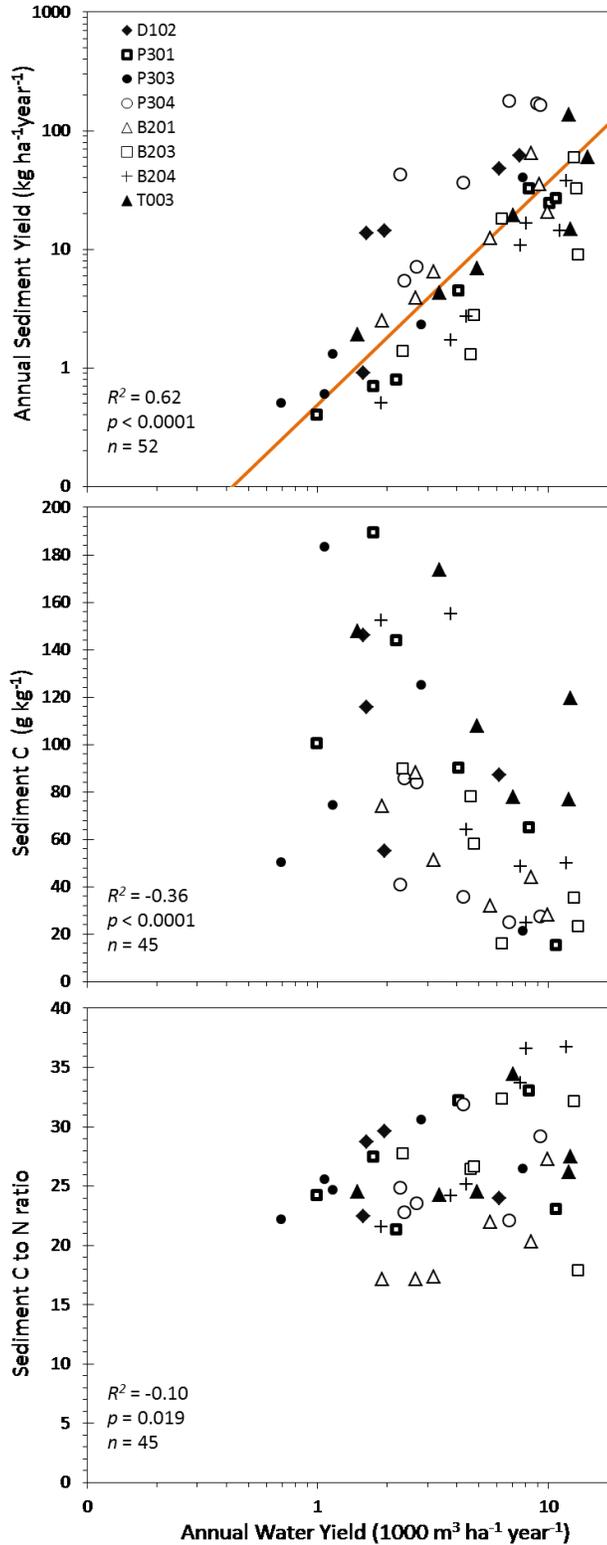


Figure 4. (Top) Annual sediment yield is directly correlated with annual water yield. (Middle) Sediment carbon (C) and nitrogen (N; not shown) concentrations in years have an inverse relationship to water yield. (Bottom) The C to N mass ratio is weakly correlated with water yield. Data presented for WY 2005, and 2007-2011 (Sediment basins constructed over the period 2002-2004, samples were not preserved for testing from WY 2006).

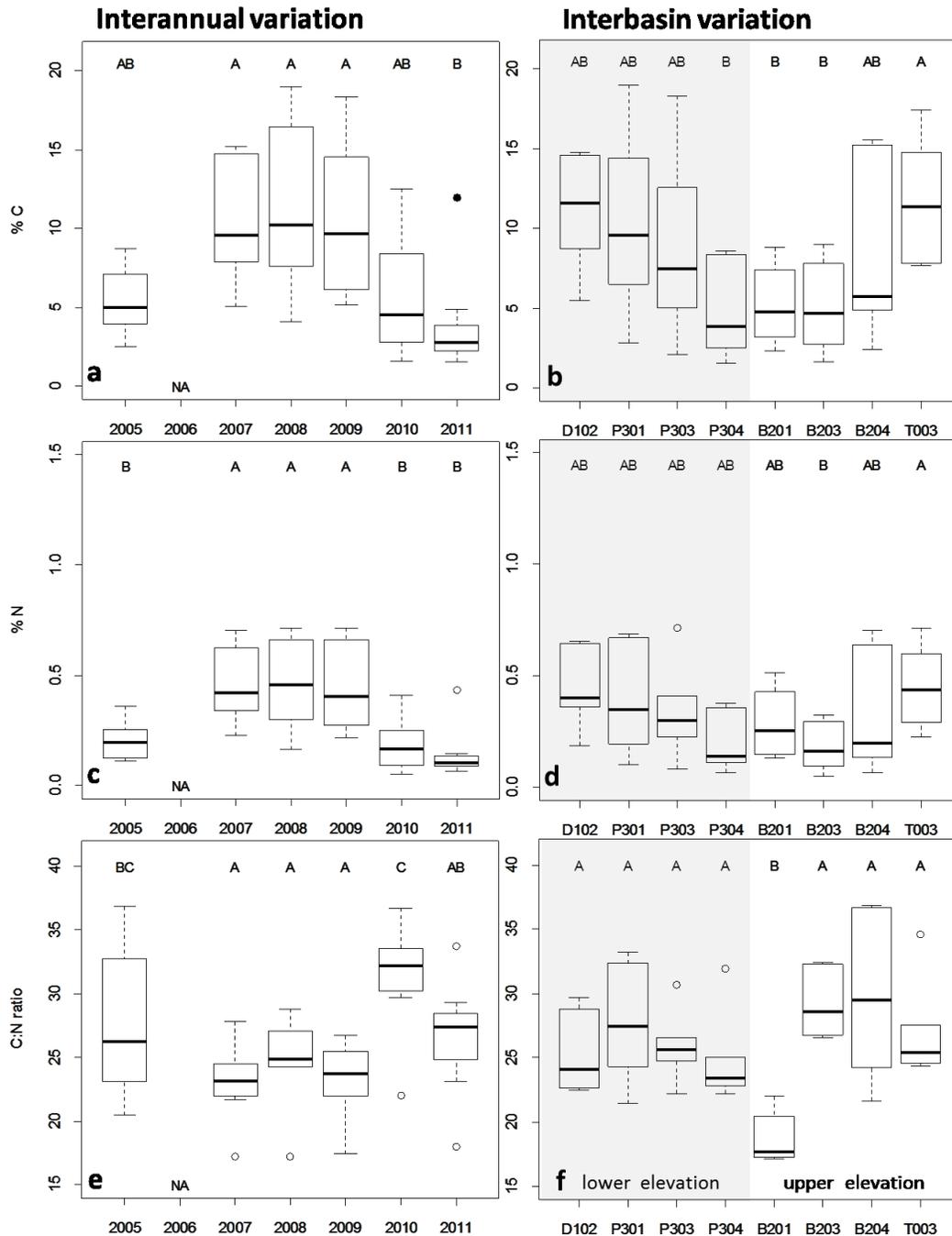
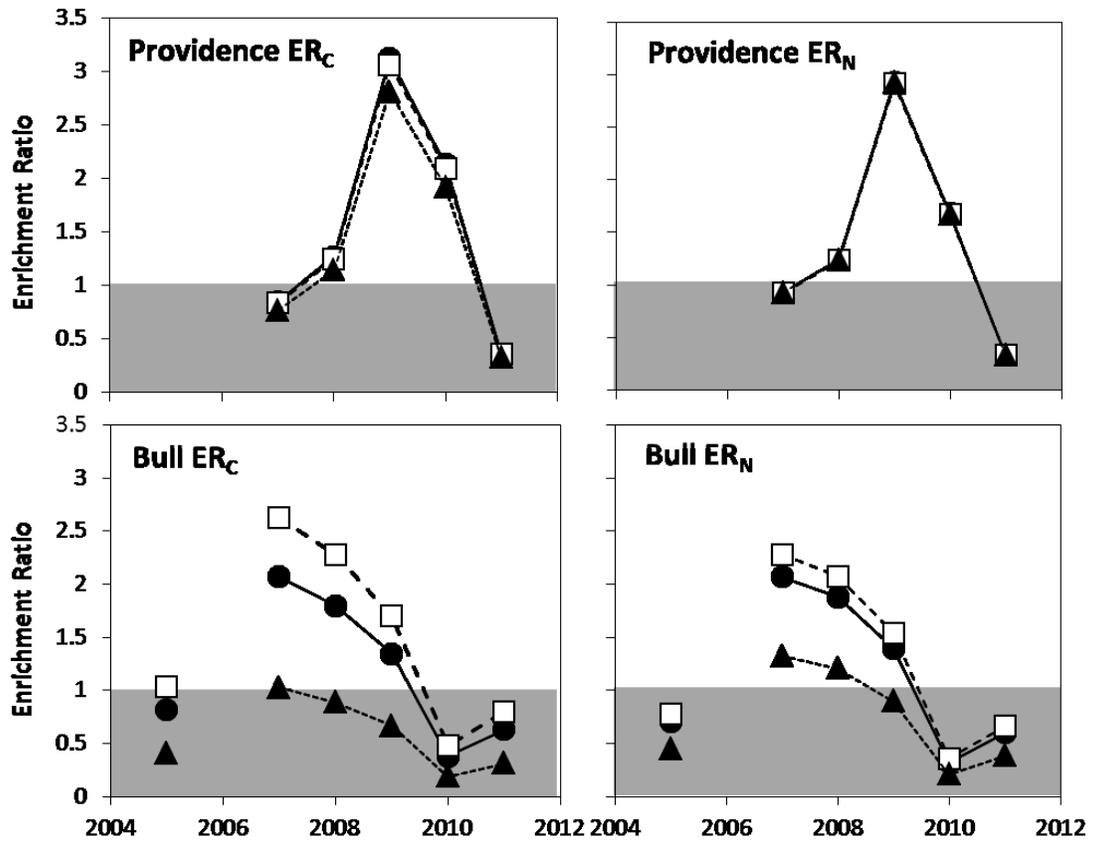


Figure 5. Carbon (C) and nitrogen (N) concentrations and carbon to nitrogen (C:N) mass ratios of < 2 mm material collected in sediment basins within the Providence (low-elevation) and Bull (high-elevation) catchments between water years 2005 to 2011. Left panels (a, c, and e) show interannual variation in these variables, while right panels (b, d, and f) show interbasin variation (Providence catchments highlighted by shading). The bold line in the boxplot marks the median, and boxes mark the interquartile range, with the full range indicated by the fences save for outliers more than 1.5 times the box width from the box edge, marked by a circle. Different means as determined by ANOVA using Tukey HSD test ($\alpha = 0.05$) are designated by letters. Archive samples for 2006 were not available for testing (NA = not available).



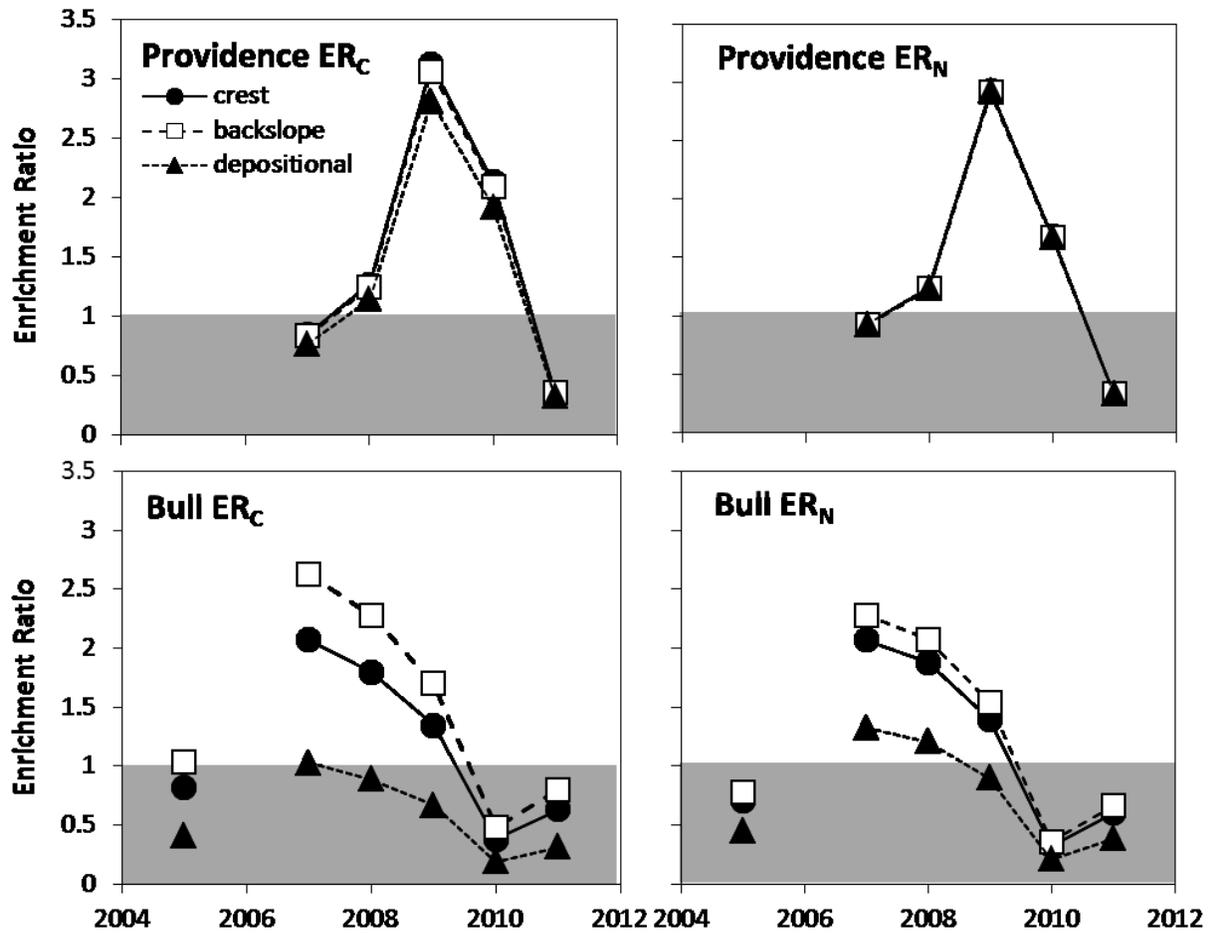


Figure 6. Enrichment ratios for carbon (ER_C) and nitrogen (ER_N) in material (< 2 mm) collected from sediment basins at the outlet of each catchment over the water years 2005-2011. Different symbols represent enrichment ratios calculated using average surface mineral soil (0 – 10 cm) values for the three hillslope positions studied in Providence (low elevation) and Bull (high-elevation) catchments. Sediment basins were installed over the years 2002-2004 and archived samples were not preserved for many sediment basins in 2006 or before 2005.

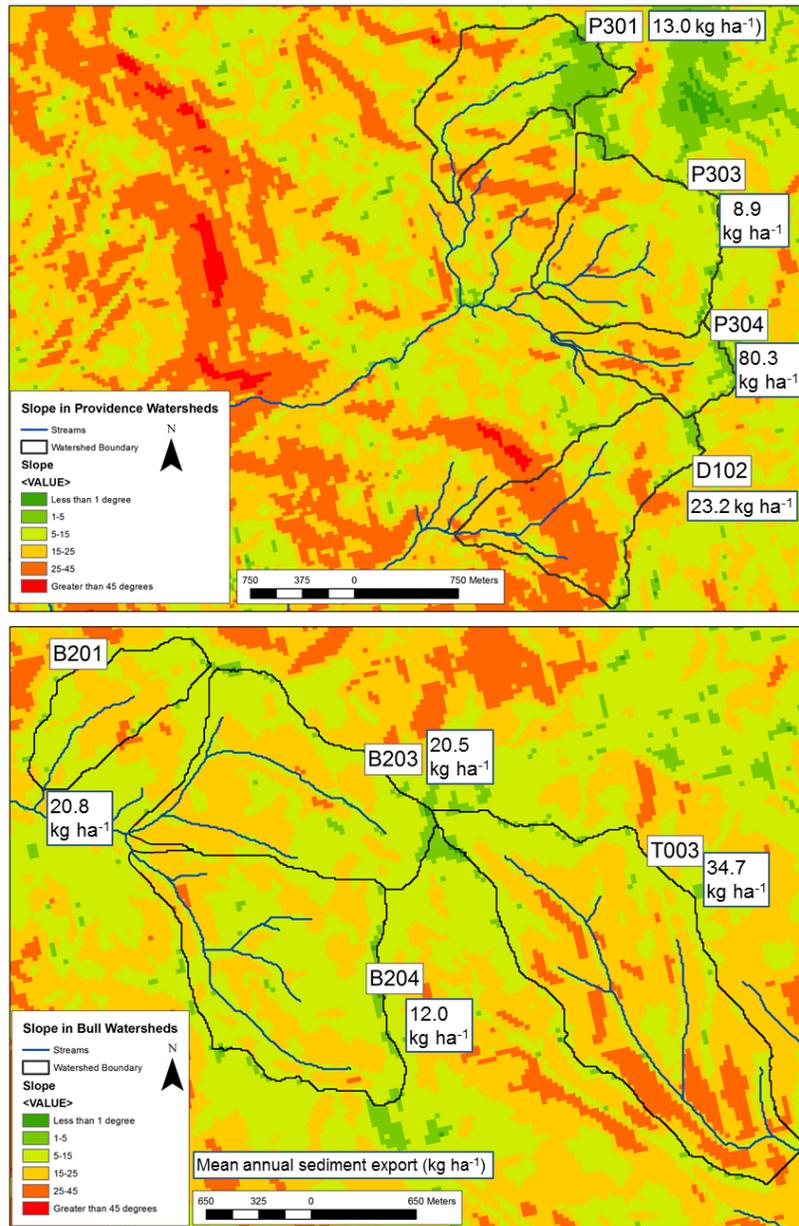


Figure 7. Slopes in the eight catchments are moderately steep as shown by a weighted scale (< 1° dark green; 1-5° medium green; 5-15° chartreuse; 15-25° light orange; 25-45° dark orange; > 45° red). Flat areas in crest and depositional locations are very small. Slope values calculated from a 10-m digital elevation model. Mean annual sediment export is given for water years 2005-2011.

8. TABLES

Table 1. Annual sediment yield per hectare for water years 2005-2011, including mineral material, and coarse and fine organic matter (coarse, > 2 mm, organics are comprised of material pinecones and conifer needles, and accounts for ~ 4-20% of fraction; remaining fine organics (< 2 mm) account for 4-30% of total). These values do not include large woody debris, longer than 30 cm and with a diameter greater than 2 cm.

Catchment	Size (ha)	Sediment yield per hectare						
		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
D102	120.8	47.9	61.3	1.0	13.7	0.9	14.3	NA
P301	99.2	32.8	24.5	0.4	0.7	0.8	4.5	27.1
P303	132.3	NA	NA	0.5	1.3	0.6	2.3	40.0
P304	48.7	177.3	169.9	7.1	42.7	5.4	36.8	165.0
B201	53.0	64.6	35.4	2.5	3.9	6.5	12.4	20.6
B203	138.4	59.9	32.9	1.4	1.3	2.8	18.3	9.0
B204	166.9	37.7	14.4	0.5	1.7	2.7	16.6	10.7
T003	222.7	136.2	59.6	1.9	4.3	6.9	19.3	14.8

Table 2. Physical and chemical characterization of the sediment material (< 2 mm), including pH_{water} (1:2 w/v), carbon (C) and nitrogen (N) concentrations, and particle size distribution (clay < 2 μm , silt 2 - 50 μm , and sand 50 - 2000 μm). Some samples were not measured due to lack of material (indicated by no data or *nd*).

Catchment and water year	pH_w^a	C (g kg^{-1}) ^b	N (g kg^{-1}) ^c	C:N ratio	Clay (g kg^{-1}) ^d	Silt (g kg^{-1}) ^d	Sand (g kg^{-1}) ^d	SSA ($\text{m}^2 \text{g}^{-1}$) ^d
D102								
WY 2009	5.8*	146.1	6.5	22.5	nd*	nd	nd	nd
WY 2010	5.9	55.1	1.9	29.7	69	247	685	1.53
WY 2011								
P301								
WY 2009	5.5	144.0	6.7	21.4	74	385	541	2.87
WY 2010	5.5	90.2	2.8	32.4	79	298	623	2.41
WY 2011	5.8	28.4	1.0	27.4	51	215	734	2.42
P303								
WY 2009	5.0	183.3	7.1	25.7	60	343	597	1.80
WY 2010	5.5	125.3	4.1	30.7	83	331	587	2.27
WY 2011	5.8	21.3	0.8	26.6	53	209	738	3.49
P304								
WY 2009	5.1	85.9	3.8	22.9	135	383	482	7.60
WY 2010	5.7	35.8	1.1	32.0	110	297	594	5.11
WY 2011	5.9	15.5	0.7	23.2	72	246	682	3.53
B201								
WY 2009	4.8	51.4	2.9	17.4	150	315	536	6.42
WY 2010	5.4	31.9	1.4	22.0	123	289	588	5.07
WY 2011	5.4	23.5	1.3	18.0	112	287	602	3.65
B203								
WY 2009	4.7	58.4	2.2	26.8	58	245	698	1.05
WY 2010	5.5	16.4	0.5	32.5	69	198	734	1.77
WY 2011	5.4	27.5	0.9	29.3	56	212	732	1.13

B204								
WY 2009	5.0	64.3	2.5	25.3	58	233	709	1.99
WY 2010	5.4	24.7	0.70	36.7	70	246	685	2.18
WY 2011	5.3	48.6	1.4	33.8	69	246	685	2.28
T003								
WY 2009	5.4	107.8	4.4	24.6	53	322	625	1.51
WY 2010	5.6	78.1	2.3	34.6	68	304	629	1.99
WY 2011	5.5	119.5	4.3	27.6	76	339	585	2.46

a – standard error ≤ 0.06 for replicates; b – standard error ≤ 0.03 for analytical ($n \geq 3$) replicates; c – standard error ≤ 0.8 for analytical ($n \geq 3$) replicates; d – $n=3$ analytical replicates. * Due to the limited mass of archived material, the pH value for D102 from WY2009 is given from an analysis as pH_{water} with 1:2.5 soil weight to water volume.

Table 3. Mineral soil physical and chemical characterizations (air-dry < 2 mm) for a subset of the soil transects (the two sent out for physical analysis), including pH_{water} (1:2 w/v), carbon (C) and nitrogen (N) concentrations, C to N (C:N) mass ratio, particle size distribution, and specific surface analysis (SSA).

Catchment hillslope positions	and Depth (cm)	pH _w ^a	C (g kg ⁻¹) ^b	N (g kg ⁻¹) ^c	C:N ratio	Clay (g kg ⁻¹)	Silt (g kg ⁻¹)	Sand (g kg ⁻¹)	SSA (m ² g ⁻¹)
P303 transect P4									
Crest	0-10	6.2	54.0	2.6	20.9	117	365	518	6.96
	10-20	5.4	35.6	1.6	21.6	106	371	523	9.27
	20-39		24.5	1.1	25.8	<i>nd</i>	<i>nd</i>	<i>nd</i>	<i>nd</i>
Backslope	0-10	6.3	85.4	3.4	25.1	122	375	503	11.99
	10-20	6.5	32.2	1.4	22.8	106	371	524	17.09
	20-40		16.8	0.6	26.2	<i>nd</i>	<i>nd</i>	<i>nd</i>	<i>nd</i>
Depositional	0-10	6.5	9.7	0.5	19.2	163	378	459	7.12
	10-20	6.1	33.3	1.2	26.8	162	374	464	9.17
	20-40		6.2	0.2	26.0	<i>nd</i>	<i>nd</i>	<i>nd</i>	<i>nd</i>
B204 transect B8									
Crest	0-10	5.4	46.4	1.7	27.2	183	357	460	11.52
	10-20	5.3	18.4	0.7	27.1	184	368	449	14.15
	20-40		10.0	0.4	27.3	<i>nd</i>	<i>nd</i>	<i>nd</i>	<i>nd</i>
Backslope	0-10	5.1	31.9	1.1	28.8	145	381	474	8.61
	10-20	5.1	27.5	0.8	35.7	159	368	473	9.74
	20-28		19.4	0.6	34.1	<i>nd</i>	<i>nd</i>	<i>nd</i>	<i>nd</i>
Depositional	0-10	nd*	167.8	5.2	32.4	113	378	509	3.68
	10-20		133.7	3.4	39.2	114	395	491	3.46
	20-40		162.3	4.0	40.7	<i>nd</i>	<i>nd</i>	<i>nd</i>	<i>nd</i>

a – standard error ≤ 0.06 for analytical replicates ; b – standard error ≤ 0.02 for analytical replicates; c – standard error ≤ 0.7 for analytical replicates; d – n=3 analytical replicates. *Some samples were not measured due to lack of material or prioritizing samples for analysis (indicated by *nd* for no data).

Table 4. Coefficients of variation (standard deviation relative to the mean, expressed in %) for sediment yield, carbon (C) and nitrogen (N) concentrations, and carbon to nitrogen (C:N) mass ratios averaged across years for each catchment, and averaged across catchments for each water year within the Kings River Experimental Watershed. Archive samples from 2006 were not available for sampling (indicated by no data or *nd*)

Averaged across all years for each catchment				
Catchment	Sediment Yield	%C	%N	C:N
D102	109.4	36.0	44.5	13.5
P301	111.5	61.7	67.7	16.3
P303	195.1	74.9	71.4	11.8
P304	93.0	62.6	67.4	14.6
B201	107.7	42.1	46.5	10.9
B203	121.3	67.1	72.7	9.0
B204	107.9	80.1	99.6	22.8
T003	140.8	37.1	45.2	14.5
Averaged across all catchments for each water year				
Year	Sediment Yield	%C	%N	C:N
2005	69.5	40.9	46.8	22.3
2006	92.8	<i>nd</i>	<i>nd</i>	<i>nd</i>
2007	115.8	36.6	36.8	13.1
2008	165.5	46.4	44.2	14.0
2009	78.1	46.0	44.3	12.7
2010	68.0	66.0	64.7	13.8
2011	135.9	89.4	84.9	18.6