

# Ecological site R028AY050NV GRAVELLY CLAY 10-12 P.Z.

Accessed: 05/13/2025

#### **General information**

**Provisional**. A provisional ecological site description has undergone quality control and quality assurance review. It contains a working state and transition model and enough information to identify the ecological site.



Figure 1. Mapped extent

Areas shown in blue indicate the maximum mapped extent of this ecological site. Other ecological sites likely occur within the highlighted areas. It is also possible for this ecological site to occur outside of highlighted areas if detailed soil survey has not been completed or recently updated.

#### **MLRA** notes

Major Land Resource Area (MLRA): 028A-Ancient Lake Bonneville

MLRA 28A occurs in Utah (82%), Nevada (16%), and Idaho (2%). It makes up about 36,775 square miles. A large area west and southwest of Great Salt Lake is a salty playa. This area is the farthest eastern extent of the Great Basin Section of the Basin and Range Province of the Intermontane Plateaus. It is an area of nearly level basins between widely separated mountain ranges trending north to south. The basins are bordered by long, gently sloping alluvial fans. The mountains are uplifted fault blocks with steep side slopes. They are not well dissected because of low rainfall in the MLRA. Most of the valleys are closed basins containing sinks or playa lakes. Elevation ranges from 3,950 to 6,560 ft. in the basins and from 6,560 to 11,150 ft. in the mountains. Most of this area has alluvial valley fill and playa lakebed deposits at the surface. Great Salt Lake is all that remains of glacial Lake Bonneville. A level line on some mountain slopes indicates the former extent of this glacial lake. Most of the mountains in the interior of this area consist of tilted blocks of marine sediments from Cambrian to Mississippian age. Scattered outcrops of Tertiary continental sediments and volcanic rocks are throughout the area. The average annual precipitation is 5 to 12 ins. in the valleys and is as much as 49 ins. in the mountains. Most of the rainfall occurs as high-intensity, convective thunderstorms during the growing season. The driest period is from midsummer to early autumn. Precipitation in winter typically occurs as snow. The average annual temperature is 39 to 53 °F. The freeze-free period averages 165 days and ranges from 110 to 215 days, decreasing in length with elevation. The dominant soil orders in this MLRA are Aridisols, Entisols, and Mollisols. The soils in the area dominantly have a mesic or frigid soil temperature regime, an aridic or xeric soil moisture regime, and mixed mineralogy. They generally are well drained, loamy or loamy-skeletal, and very deep.

#### **Ecological site concept**

This site occurs on fan remnants on all aspects. Slopes range from 0 to 50 percent, but slope gradients of 4 to 15 percent are typical. Elevations are 5400 to 7200 feet.

Average annual precipitation is 10 to 12 inches. Mean annual air temperature is 45 to 50 degrees F. The average growing season is about 100 to 120 days.

The soils of this site are very shallow to moderately deep and well drained. Surface soils are medium to coarse textured and subsoils are medium to fine textured. The available water holding capacity is very low to low. Some soils are modified with high volumes of rock fragments throughout the soil profile.

The reference state is dominated by bluebunch wheatgrass and Wyoming or mountain big sagebrush. Production ranges from 400 to 900 pounds per acre.

#### **Associated sites**

R024XY015NV	DEEP SODIC FAN
R028AY013NV	SHALLOW CALCAREOUS LOAM 8-10 P.Z.
R028AY040NV	GRAVELLY LOAM 10-12 P.Z.
R028AY066NV	GRAVELLY LOAM 12-14 P.Z.

#### Similar sites

R028AY040NV	GRAVELLY LOAM 10-12 P.Z. ACTH7 absent; PUST codominant shrub
R028AY015NV	LOAMY 8-10 P.Z. ACTH7 absent; PUST codominant shrub
R028AY022NV	GRAVELLY CLAY 8-10 P.Z. PSSPS minor grass, if present; PUST rare to absent
R028AY067NV	CALCAREOUS LOAM 14+ P.Z. ARTRV dominant shrub; ACHY minor grass; PUST & ARTRW absent
R028AY088NV	GRAVELLY CLAY 12-14 P.Z. ARTRV dominant shrub; ARTRW absent; very similar plant community description - may be same site as 28AY050NV, or 028AY050NV should be ARTRW only; further investigation needed

#### Table 1. Dominant plant species

Tree	Not specified	
Shrub	(1) Artemisia tridentata	
Herbaceous	(1) Pseudoroegneria spicata ssp. spicata	

#### Physiographic features

This site occurs on fan remnants on all aspects. Slopes range from 0 to 50 percent, but slope gradients of 4 to 15 percent are typical. Elevations are 5400 to 7200 feet.

Table 2. Representative physiographic features

Landforms (1) Fan remnant	
Elevation	5,400–7,200 ft
Slope	0–50%
Aspect	Aspect is not a significant factor

#### Climatic features

Nevada's climate is predominantly arid, with large daily ranges of temperature, infrequent severe storms, heavy snowfall in the higher mountains, and great location variations with elevation. Three basic geographical factors largely influence Nevada's climate: continentality, latitude, and elevation. Continentality is the most important factor. The strong continental effect is expressed in the form of both dryness and large temperature variations. Nevada lies on the eastern, lee side of the Sierra Nevada Range, a massive mountain barrier that markedly influences the climate of the State. The prevailing winds are from the west, and as the warm moist air from the Pacific Ocean ascend the western slopes of the Sierra Range, the air cools, condensation occurs and most of the moisture falls as precipitation. As the air descends the eastern slope, it is warmed by compression, and very little precipitation occurs. The effects of this mountain barrier are felt not only in the West but throughout the state, with the result that the lowlands of Nevada are largely desert or steppes. The temperature regime is also affected by the blocking of the inland-moving maritime air. Nevada sheltered from maritime winds, has a continental climate with well-developed seasons and the terrain responds quickly to changes in solar heating.

Nevada lies within the mid-latitude belt of prevailing westerly winds which occur most of the year. These winds bring frequent changes in weather during the late fall, winter and spring months, when most of the precipitation occurs. To the south of the mid-latitude westerlies, lies a zone of high pressure in subtropical latitudes, with a center over the Pacific Ocean. In the summer, this high-pressure belt shifts northward over the latitudes of Nevada, blocking storms from the ocean. The resulting weather is mostly clear and dry during the summer and early fall, with scattered thundershowers. The eastern portion of the state receives significant summer thunderstorms generated from monsoonal moisture pushed up from the Gulf of California, known as the North American monsoon. The monsoon system peaks in August and by October the monsoon high over the Western U.S. begins to weaken and the precipitation retreats southward towards the tropics (NOAA 2004).

Average annual precipitation is 10 to 12 inches. Mean annual air temperature is 45 to 50 degrees F. The average growing season is about 100 to 120 days.

The Mean annual precipitation at the Great Basin Natinal Park Climate Station (263340) is 13.33 inches.

Monthly mean precipitation is:

January 1.05; February 1.18; March 1.37; April 1.21; May 1.24; June .87; July .97; August 1.18; September 1.08; October .96; December .96

Table 3. Representative climatic features

Frost-free period (average)	0 days
Freeze-free period (average)	110 days
Precipitation total (average)	11 in

#### Influencing water features

There are no influencing water features associated with this site.

#### Soil features

The soils of this site are very shallow to moderately deep and well drained. Surface soils are medium to coarse textured and subsoils are medium to fine textured. The available water holding capacity is very low to low. Some soils are modified with high volumes of rock fragments throughout the soil profile. Runoff is medium to very high and the potential for sheet and rill erosion varies with slope gradient. The soil series associated with this site include: Badena, Chuckridge, and Nevu.

The representative soil series is Nevu, a Ashy, glassy, mesic Vitritorrandic Durixerolls. Diagnostic horizons include a mollic epipedon from the soil surface to 11 inches, an argillic horizon from 5 to 27 inches, a duripan (indurated) from 13 to 36 inches and a vitritorrandic feature from 5 to 25 inches with 30 to 50 percent volcanic glass in the 0.02 to 2

mm fraction and averages 0.02 to 0.04 percent Al plus 1/2Fe, extracted by ammonium oxalate. Clay content in the particle control section averages 25 to 35 percent. Rock fragments range from 15 to 35 percent, mainly welded tuff gravel. Reaction is neutral through strongly alkaline. Effervescence is strong to violent. Lithology consists of welded tuff.

Table 4. Representative soil features

Parent material	(1) Alluvium–welded tuff
Surface texture	(1) Gravelly sandy loam (2) Ashy
Family particle size	(1) Loamy
Drainage class	Well drained
Permeability class	Moderate to moderately rapid
Soil depth	20–27 in
Surface fragment cover <=3"	0–15%
Surface fragment cover >3"	0%
Available water capacity (0-40in)	1.7–4.3 in
Calcium carbonate equivalent (0-40in)	1–10%
Electrical conductivity (0-40in)	0 mmhos/cm
Sodium adsorption ratio (0-40in)	0
Soil reaction (1:1 water) (0-40in)	7.3–8.8
Subsurface fragment volume <=3" (Depth not specified)	15–35%
Subsurface fragment volume >3" (Depth not specified)	0%

#### **Ecological dynamics**

An ecological site is the product of all the environmental factors responsible for its development and it has a set of key characteristics that influence a site's resilience to disturbance and resistance to invasion. Key characteristics include 1) climate (precipitation, temperature), 2) topography (aspect, slope, elevation, and landform), 3) hydrology (infiltration, runoff), 4) soils (depth, texture, structure, organic matter), 5) plant communities (functional groups, productivity), and 6) natural disturbance regime (fire, herbivory, etc.) (Caudle et al. 2013). Biotic factors that influence resilience include site productivity, species composition and structure, and population regulation and regeneration (Chambers et al. 2013).

The ecological site is dominated by deep-rooted cool season, perennial bunchgrasses and long-lived shrubs (50+ years) with high root to shoot ratios. The dominant shrubs usually root to the full depth of the winter-spring soil moisture recharge, which ranges from 1.0 and over 3.0 m (Comstock and Ehleringer 1992). Root length of mature sagebrush plants was measured to a depth of two meters in alluvial soils in Utah (Richards and Caldwell 1987). Mountain big sagebrush and Stansbury cliffrose are long-lived; therefore it is not necessary for new individuals to recruit every year for perpetuation of the stand. Infrequent large recruitment events and simultaneous low, continuous recruitment is the foundation of population maintenance (Noy-Meir 1973). Survival of the seedlings is dependent on adequate moisture conditions.

The perennial bunchgrasses that are co-dominant with the shrubs include bluebunch wheatgrass, Thurber's needlegrass, muttongrass, squirreltail and Indian ricegrass. These species generally have somewhat shallower root systems than the shrubs, but root densities are often as high as or higher than those of shrubs in the upper 0.5 m

but taper off more rapidly than shrubs. General differences in root depth distributions between grasses and shrubs result in resource partitioning in these shrub/grass systems.

The Great Basin sagebrush communities have high spatial and temporal variability in precipitation both among years and within growing seasons. Nutrient availability is typically low but increases with elevation and closely follows moisture availability. The moisture resource supporting the greatest amount of plant growth is usually the water stored in the soil profile during the winter. The invasibility of plant communities is often linked to resource availability. Disturbance can decrease resource uptake due to damage or mortality of the native species and depressed competition or can increase resource pools by the decomposition of dead plant material following disturbance. The invasion of sagebrush communities by cheatgrass has been linked to disturbances (fire, abusive grazing) that have resulted in fluctuations in resources (Chambers et al. 2007). Dobrowolski et al. (1990) cite multiple authors on the extent of the soil profile exploited by the competitive exotic annual cheatgrass. Specifically, the depth of rooting is dependent on the size the plant achieves and in competitive environments cheatgrass roots were found to penetrate only 15 cm whereas isolated plants and pure stands were found to root at least 1 m in depth with some plants rooting as deep as 1.5 to 1.7 m.

Utah juniper and singleleaf pinyon may be present on this site, and with an extended period of time without disturbance they may increase in density. Eventually, singleleaf pinyon and Utah juniper may dominate the site and out-compete mountain big sagebrush for water and sunlight, severely reducing both the shrub and herbaceous understory (Miller et al. 2000, Lett and Knapp 2005). Bluegrasses may remain underneath trees on north-facing slopes. The potential for soil erosion increases as the woodland matures and the understory plant community cover declines (Pierson et al. 2010).

The ecological site has low to moderate resilience to disturbance and resistance to invasion. Resilience increases with elevation, aspect, increased precipitation, and increased nutrient availability. Long-term disturbance response may be influenced by small differences in landscape topography. Concave areas receive run-in from adjacent landscapes and consequently retain more moisture to support the growth of deep-rooted perennial grasses (i.e. bluebunch wheatgrass, Thurber's needlegrass) whereas convex areas where runoff occurs are slightly less resilient and may have more shallow-rooted perennial grasses (i.e. squirreltail and muttongrass). North slopes are also more resilient than south slopes because lower soil surface temperatures operate to keep moisture content higher on northern exposures. Five possible alternative stable states have been identified for this site.

#### Fire Ecology:

Pre-settlement fire return intervals in mountain big sagebrush communities varied from 15 to 25 years (Burkhardt and Tisdale 1969, Houston 1973, Miller 2000). Mountain big sagebrush is killed by fire (Neuenschwander 1980, Blaisdell et al. 1982), and does not resprout (Blaisdell 1953). Post fire regeneration occurs from seed and will vary depending on site characteristics, seed source, and fire characteristics. Mountain big sagebrush seedlings can grow rapidly and may reach reproductive maturity within 3 to 5 years (Bunting et al. 1987). Mountain big sagebrush may return to pre-burn density and cover within 15-20 years following fire, but establishment after severe fires may proceed more slowly and can take up to 50 years (Bunting et al. 1987, Ziegenhagen 2003, Miller and Heyerdahl 2008, Ziegenhagen and Miller 2009).

The introduction of annual weedy species, like cheatgrass, may cause an increase in fire frequency and eventually lead to an annual dominated community. Infilling by singleleaf pinyon and Utah juniper may also occur with an extended fire return interval. Without fire or changes in management, pinyon and juniper will dominate the site and mountain big sagebrush will be severely reduced. The herbaceous understory will also be reduced; however Idaho fescue may remain underneath trees on north facing slopes. The potential for soil erosion increases as the pinyon/juniper woodland matures and the understory plant community cover declines. Catastrophic wildfire in pinyon/juniper controlled sites may lead to an annual weed dominated site.

Depending on fire severity, rabbitbrush, Stansbury cliffrose, wild crabapple and green ephedra will resprout after fire. Rubber rabbitbrush is top-killed by fire, but can resprout after fire and can also establish from seed (Young 1983). Yellow rabbitbrush is top-killed by fire, but sprouts vigorously after fire (Kuntz 1982, Akinsoji 1988). As cheatgrass increases, fire frequencies also increase to frequencies between 0.23 and 0.43 times a year; then even sprouting shrubs such as rabbitbrush will not survive (Whisenant 1990).

The effect of fire on bunchgrasses relates to culm density, culm-leaf morphology, and the size of the plant. The initial condition of bunchgrasses within the site along with seasonality and intensity of the fire all factor into the individual species response. For most forbs and grasses the growing points are located at or below the soil surface providing relative protection from disturbances which decrease above ground biomass, such as grazing or fire.

Thus, fire mortality is more correlated to duration and intensity of heat which is related to culm density, culm-leaf morphology, size of plant and abundance of old growth (Wright 1971, Young 1983).

Fire will remove aboveground biomass from bluebunch wheatgrass but plant mortality is generally low (Robberecht and Defossé 1995) because the buds are underground (Conrad and Poulton 1966) or protected by foliage. Uresk et al. (1976) reported burning increased vegetative and reproductive vigor of bluebunch wheatgrass. Thus, bluebunch wheatgrass is considered to experience slight damage to fire but is more susceptible in drought years (Young 1983). Plant response will vary depending on season, fire severity, fire intensity and post-fire soil moisture availability.

Indian ricegrass is a deep-rooted, cool season perennial bunchgrass that is adapted primarily to sandy soils. A prominent grass on this site, it is fairly fire tolerant (Wright 1985), which is likely due to its low culm density and below ground plant crowns. Vallentine (1989) cites several studies in the sagebrush zone that classified Indian ricegrass as being slightly damaged from late summer burning. Indian ricegrass has also been found to reestablish on burned sites through seed dispersed from adjacent unburned areas (Young 1983, West 1994). Thus the presence of surviving, seed producing plants facilitates the reestablishment of Indian ricegrass. Grazing management following fire to promote seed production and establishment of seedlings is important.

Sandberg bluegrass, a minor component of this ecological site, has been found to increase following fire likely due to its low stature and productivity (Daubenmire 1975). Sandberg bluegrass may retard reestablishment of deeper rooted bunchgrass. Reduced bunchgrass vigor or density provides an opportunity for Sandberg bluegrass expansion and/or cheatgrass and other invasive species to occupy interspaces, leading to increased fire frequency and potentially an annual plant community. Sandberg bluegrass increases under grazing pressure (Tisdale and Hironaka 1981) and is capable of co-existing with cheatgrass. Depending on the season of use, the grazer and site conditions, either Sandberg bluegrass or cheatgrass may become the dominant understory with inappropriate grazing management.

State and transition model

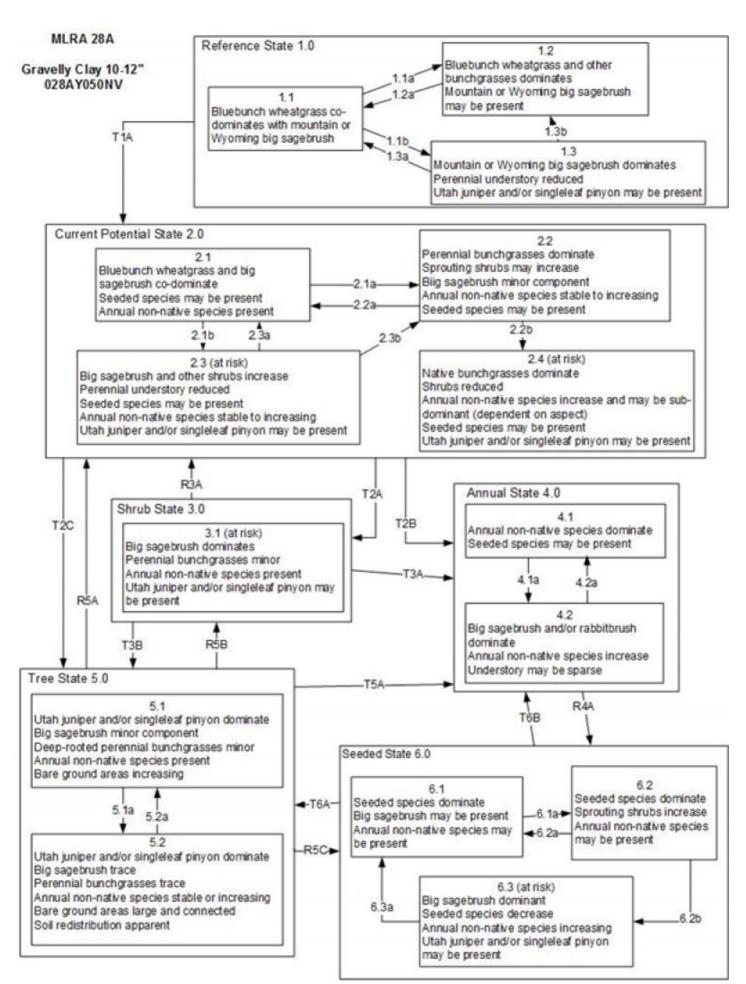


Figure 6. T. Stringham 12/7/2014

#### MLRA 28A Gravelly Clay 10-12" 028AY050NV

Reference State 1.0 Community Phase Pathways

- Low severity fire Aroga moth infestation creates sagebrush/grass mosaic, high severity fire significantly reduces sagebrush cover and leads to early/mid-seral community dominated by grasses and forbs.
- 1.1b: Time and lack of disturbance such as fire or long-term drought. Excessive herbivory may also decrease perennial understory.
- 1.2a: Time and lack of disturbance such as fire allows for regeneration of sagebrush.
- 1.3a: Low severity fire or Aroga moth infestation creates sagebrush/grass mosaic.
- 1.3b: High severity fire or severe Aroga moth infestation significantly reduces sagebrush cover leading to early/mid-seral community.

Transition T1A: Introduction of non-native annual species.

Current Potential State 2.0 Community Phase Pathways

- 2.1a: Low severity fire Aroga moth infestation creates sagebrush/grass mosaic; high severity fire significantly reduces sagebrush cover and leads to early/mid-seral community dominated by grasses and forbs; non-native annual species present.
- Time and lack of disturbance such as fire or long-term drought. Inappropriate grazing management may also decrease perennial understory.
- 2.2a: Time and lack of disturbance such as fire allows for regeneration of sagebrush.
- 2.2b: Tree/shrub removal treatment or prescribed burning in the presence of annual grass species coupled with heavy spring precipitation.
- 2.3a: Low severity fire or Aroga moth infestation creates sagebrush/grass mosaic.
- 2.3b: High severity fire or severe Aroga moth infestation significantly reduces sagebrush cover leading to early mid-seral community.

Transition T2A: Time and lack of disturbance and/or inappropriate grazing management (3.1).

Transition T2B: Catastrophic fire or multiple fires (4.1), inappropriate grazing management in the presence of annual non-native species (4.2). Transition T2C: Time and lack of disturbance allows for trees to dominate site resources; may be coupled with inappropriate grazing management (5.1).

Shrub State 3.0 Community Phase Pathways None

Transition T3A: Catastrophic fire and/or soil disturbing treatments (4.1). Inappropriate grazing management in the presence of annual non-native species (4.2)

Transition T3B: Time and a lack of disturbance allows for trees to dominate site resources; may be coupled with inappropriate grazing management that favors shrub and tree dominance (5.1)

Restoration R3A: Shrub removal/management with minimal soil disturbance coupled with seeding of desired species (2.4).

Annual State 4.0 Community Phase Pathways

4.1a: Time and lack of disturbance (unlikely to occur).

4.2a: Fire.

Restoration R4A: Seeding of deep-rooted bunchgrasses, coupled with herbicide. Probability of success is medium.

Tree State 5.0 Community Phase Pathways

5.1a: Time and lack of disturbance allows for tree maturation.

5.2a: Stand thinning treatment.

Restoration R5A: Tree removal with minimal soil disturbance and seeding of desired species (2.2).

Restoration R5B: Coming from Tree State 5.1 only: tree removal treatment or controlled burn. Controlled burn only recommended if nonnative annuals are not present.

Restoration R5C. Tree removal coupled with seeding of desired species (6.2)

Transition T5A: Catastrophic fire.

Seeded State 6.0 Community Phase Pathways

6.1a: Time and lack of disturbance may be coupled with inappropriate grazing management.

6.2a: Low severity fire or Aroga moth infestation.

6.2b: Inappropriate grazing management reduces bunchgrasses and increases density of sagebrush; usually a slow transition.

6.3a: Fire, Aroga moth infestation, or brush treatment with minimal soil disturbance.

Transition T6A: Time and lack of disturbance allows for trees to dominate site resources; may be coupled with inappropriate grazing management (5.1).

Transition T6B: Severe fire. This transition usually originates from 6.3.

Figure 7. Legend

#### State 1

#### **Reference State**

The Reference State 1.0 is representative of the natural range of variability under pristine conditions. The reference state has three general community phases: a shrub-grass dominant phase, a perennial grass dominant phase, and a shrub dominant phase. State dynamics are maintained by interactions between climatic patterns and disturbance

regimes. Negative feedbacks enhance ecosystem resilience and contribute to the stability of the state. These include the presence of all structural and functional groups, low fine fuel loads, and retention of organic matter and nutrients. Plant community phase changes are primarily driven by fire, periodic drought and/or insect or disease attack.

## Community 1.1 Community Phase

This community is dominated by big sagebrush and bluebunch wheatgrass. Forbs and other perennial grasses make up smaller components. Utah juniper and singleleaf pinyon are described in the site concept and may or may not be present. Potential vegetative composition is about 55% grasses, 10% forbs and 35% shrubs and trees. Approximate ground cover (basal and crown) is 25 to 40 percent.

Table 5. Annual production by plant type

Plant Type	Low (Lb/Acre)	Representative Value (Lb/Acre)	High (Lb/Acre)
Grass/Grasslike	220	385	495
Shrub/Vine	124	217	279
Forb	40	70	90
Tree	16	28	36
Total	400	700	900

## Community 1.2 Community Phase

This community phase is characteristic of a post-disturbance, early-seral community. Bluebunch wheatgrass and other perennial bunchgrasses dominate. Depending on fire severity or intensity, patches of intact sagebrush may remain.

## Community 1.3 Community Phase

Mountain big sagebrush increases in the absence of disturbance or with grazing management that favors shrubs. Decadent sagebrush dominates the overstory and the deep-rooted perennial bunchgrasses in the understory are reduced either from competition with shrubs or from grazing management. Utah juniper and/or singleleaf pinyon may be present.

## Pathway a Community 1.1 to 1.2

Fire will decrease or eliminate the overstory of sagebrush and allow for the perennial bunchgrasses to dominate the site. Fires will typically be low severity resulting in a mosaic pattern due to low fuel loads. A fire following an unusually wet spring may be more severe and reduce sagebrush cover to trace amounts. Coupled with drought conditions, a severe infestation of Aroga moth could also reduce in sagebrush within the community, giving a competitive advantage to the perennial grasses and forbs. This phenomenon is more likely at the lower end of the precipitation range.

### Pathway b Community 1.1 to 1.3

Chronic drought may reduce fire frequency and increase shrub cover, time and/or inappropriate grazing management may also favor an increase in Mountain big sagebrush over deep-rooted perennial bunchgrasses. Combinations of these would allow the sagebrush overstory to increase and dominate the site, causing a reduction in the perennial bunchgrasses. Sandberg bluegrass may increase in density depending on the grazing management.

#### Pathway a

#### Community 1.2 to 1.1

Time and lack of disturbance will allow sagebrush to increase.

#### Pathway a

#### Community 1.3 to 1.1

A low severity fire will reduce the sagebrush overstory and create a sagebrush/grass mosaic. Coupled with drought, Aroga moth infestation may reduce sagebrush dominance and allow recovery of the perennial bunchgrass understory.

### Pathway b

### Community 1.3 to 1.2

Fire will decrease or eliminate the overstory of sagebrush and allow for the perennial bunchgrasses to dominate the site. Fires will typically be low severity, resulting in a mosaic pattern due to low fine fuel loads. A fire following an unusually wet spring or a change in management favoring an increase in fine fuels may be more severe and reduce sagebrush cover to trace amounts.

#### State 2

#### **Current Potential State**

This state is similar to the Reference State 1.0. with similar community phases plus the addition of the 2.4 at-risk community phase. Ecological function has not changed, however the resiliency of the state has been reduced by the presence of invasive weeds. Non-natives may increase in abundance but will not become dominant within this state. These non-natives can be highly flammable and can promote fire where historically fire had been infrequent. Negative feedbacks enhance ecosystem resilience and contribute to the stability of the state. These feedbacks include the presence of all structural and functional groups, low fine fuel loads, and retention of organic matter and nutrients. Positive feedbacks decrease ecosystem resilience and stability of the state. These include the non-natives' high seed output, persistent seed bank, rapid growth rate, ability to cross pollinate, and adaptations for seed dispersal. Additionally, the presence of highly flammable, non-native species reduces State resilience because these species can promote fire where historically fire has been infrequent leading to positive feedbacks that further the degradation of the system.

## **Community 2.1 Community Phase**

This community phase is similar to the Reference State Community Phase 1.1, with the presence of non-native species in trace amounts. Big sagebrush, bluebunch wheatgrass, and Indian ricegrass dominate the site. Forbs and other shrubs and grasses make up smaller components of this site.

## Community 2.2 Community Phase

This community phase is characteristic of a post-disturbance, early seral community where annual non-native species are present. Sagebrush is present in trace amounts; perennial bunchgrasses dominate the site. Depending on fire severity patches of intact sagebrush may remain. Rabbitbrush may be sprouting. Perennial forbs may be a significant component for several years following fire. Annual non-native species are stable or increasing within the community.

### Community 2.3 Community Phase (At Risk)

This community is at risk of crossing a threshold to another state. Sagebrush dominates the overstory and perennial bunchgrasses in the understory are reduced from competition with shrubs, inappropriate grazing, or both. Rabbitbrush may be a significant component. Sandberg bluegrass may increase and become co-dominant with

deep rooted bunchgrasses. Utah juniper and singleleaf pinyon may be present and without management will likely increase. Annual non-natives species may be stable or increasing due to lack of competition with perennial bunchgrasses. This site is susceptible to further degradation from grazing, drought, and fire.

## Community 2.4 Community Phase (At Risk)

This community is at risk of crossing into an annual state. Native bunchgrasses dominate; however annual nonnative species such as cheatgrass may be sub-dominant in the understory. Annual production and abundance of these annuals may increase drastically in years with heavy spring precipitation. Seeded species may be present. Sagebrush and/or bitterbrush are a minor component. Singleleaf pinyon and/or Utah juniper may be present to increasing. This site is susceptible to further degradation from improper grazing, drought, and fire. Target grazing may be used to reduce the cheatgrass component.

## Pathway a Community 2.1 to 2.2

Fire reduces the shrub overstory and allows for perennial bunchgrasses to dominate the site. Fires are typically low severity resulting in a mosaic pattern due to low fuel loads. A fire following an unusually wet spring or a change in management favoring an increase in fine fuels may be more severe and reduce sagebrush cover to trace amounts. Annual non-native species are likely to increase after fire. Aroga moth infestations can also cause mortality of the mountain big sagebrush overstory.

## Pathway b Community 2.1 to 2.3

Time and lack of disturbance allows for sagebrush to increase and become decadent. Chronic drought reduces fine fuels and leads to a reduced fire frequency, allowing big sagebrush to dominate the site. Inappropriate grazing management reduces the perennial bunchgrass understory; conversely Sandberg bluegrass may increase in the understory depending on grazing management.

## Pathway a Community 2.2 to 2.1

Time and lack of disturbance and/or grazing management that favors the establishment and growth of sagebrush allows the shrub component to recover. The establishment of big sagebrush can take many years.

### Pathway b Community 2.2 to 2.4

Tree/shrub removal treatment or prescribed burning in the presence of annual grass species will reduce shrub canopy may cause a shift to Phase 2.4. A subsequent year with precipitation that is favorable to nonnative annual grasses may speed up this pathway.

## Pathway a Community 2.3 to 2.1

A change in grazing management that reduces shrubs will allow for the perennial bunchgrasses in the understory to increase. Heavy late-fall/winter grazing may cause mechanical damage and subsequent death to sagebrush, facilitating an increase in the herbaceous understory. Brush treatments with minimal soil disturbance will also decrease sagebrush and release the perennial understory. Annual non-native species are present and may increase in this community.

## Pathway b Community 2.3 to 2.2

Fire reduces or eliminates the overstory of sagebrush and allows for the understory perennial grasses to increase.

Fires will typically be low severity resulting in a mosaic pattern due to low fine fuel loads. Following an unusually wet spring or a change in management favoring an increase in fine fuels, a fire may be more severe and reduce the shrub component to trace amounts. Annual non-native species respond well to fire and may increase post-burn.

### State 3 Shrub State

This state has one community phase and is the product of many years of heavy grazing during time periods harmful to deep-rooted perennial bunchgrasses. With a reduction in deep-rooted perennial bunchgrass competition, bluegrasses and squirreltail will increase and become the dominant grass. Sagebrush dominates the overstory. Bitterbrush and/or rabbitbrush may be significant components. Sagebrush cover exceeds site concept and may be decadent, reflecting stand maturity and lack of seedling establishment due to competition with mature plants. Bare ground is also increasing. The shrub overstory and bluegrass understory dominate site resources such that soil water, nutrient capture, nutrient cycling and soil organic matter are temporally and spatially redistributed.

### Community 3.1 Community Phase (At Risk)

This site is at risk of transitioning to another state. Mountain big sagebrush, possibly decadent, dominates overstory and rabbitbrush may be a significant component. Deep-rooted perennial bunchgrasses may be present in trace amounts or absent from the community. Sandberg bluegrass, squirreltail, and annual non-native species increase. Understory may be sparse, with bare ground increasing. Utah juniper or singleleaf pinyon may be present as a result of encroachment from neighboring sites and lack of disturbance.

### State 4 Annual State

This state has two community phases. One phase is characterized by the dominance of annual non-native species such as cheatgrass and tansy mustard. The second phase has either mountain big sagebrush and/or rabbitbrush dominating the overstory with an understory of annual non-natives.

## Community 4.1 Community Phase

Annual non-native plants such as tansy mustard and cheatgrass dominate this phase.

## Community 4.2 Community Phase



Figure 9. Gravelly Clay 10-12" (R028AY050NV). T.Stringham, August 2014



Figure 10. Gravelly Clay 10-12" (R028AY050NV). T.Stringham, August 2014

Rabbitbrush is typically the dominant overstory shrub. Sagebrush may be a significant component. Annual non-native plants such as tansy mustard and cheatgrass dominate the understory.

### Pathway a Community 4.1 to 4.2

Time and lack of fire allows for sagebrush/rabbitbrush to establish. Probability of sagebrush establishment is dependent on a near-by seed source from unburned patches of sagebrush.

## Pathway a Community 4.2 to 4.1

Fire reduces or eliminates the overstory shrub component and allows for annual non-native species to dominate the phase.

### State 5 Tree State

This state has two community phases that are characterized by the dominance of Utah juniper and singleleaf pinyon in the overstory. Mountain big sagebrush and perennial bunchgrasses may still be present, but they are no longer controlling site resources. Soil moisture, soil nutrients and soil organic matter distribution and cycling have been spatially and temporally altered.

## Community 5.1 Community Phase



Figure 11. Gravelly Clay 10-12" (R028AY050NV). T.Stringham, August 2014

Utah juniper and singleleaf pinyon dominate the overstory and site resources. Trees are actively growing with

noticeable leader growth. The shrub and grass understory is reduced. Sagebrush is stressed and dying. Trace amounts of deep-rooted bunchgrass may be found under tree canopies with Sandberg bluegrass and forbs in the interspaces. Annual non-native species are present under tree canopies. Bare ground areas are large and connected.

## Community 5.2 Community Phase

Utah juniper and singleleaf pinyon dominate the site and tree leader growth is minimal; annual non-native species may be the dominant understory species and will typically be found under the tree canopies. Trace amounts of sagebrush may be present, however dead skeletons will be more numerous than living sagebrush. Deep-rooted bunchgrasses may or may not be present. Muttongrass, Sandberg bluegrass, or mat forming forbs may be present in trace amounts. Muttongrass may be more common in this phase as it is the most tolerant of shade. Bare ground areas are large and connected. Soil redistribution is excessive.

### Pathway a Community 5.1 to 5.2

Time and lack of disturbance or management action allows Utah juniper and singleleaf pinyon to further mature and dominate site resources.

## Pathway a Community 5.2 to 5.1

A manual thinning treatment would reduce canopy cover and allow for some of the understory to regenerate. The manual thinning of trees in this case may be for fuels treatments rather than an ecological restoration such as R5A.

#### State 6 Seeded State

This state has three community phases a grass-dominated phase; a grass-shrub phase and a shrub dominated phase. The state is characterized by the dominance of seeded species such as smooth brome and crested wheatgrass. Other seeded species include forage kochia, Wyoming big sagebrush, and native and non-native perennial forbs.

# Community 6.1 Community Phase

Introduced grass species and other non-native species such as forage kochia dominate the community. Native and non-native seeded forbs may be present. Trace amounts of big sagebrush may be present, especially if seeded. Annual non-native species present.

## Community 6.2 Community Phase

Sprouting shrubs such as rabbitbrush and seeded species co-dominate. Annual non-native species stable to increasing. Sagebrush may be a minor component.

### Community 6.3 Community Phase (At Risk)

This community phase is at risk of crossing a threshold and transitioning to another state. Wyoming sagebrush dominates. Rabbitbrush may be a significant component. Seeded grass vigor and density are reduced. Annual non-native species stable to increasing. Utah juniper and/or singleleaf pinyon may be present. This site is susceptible to further degradation from grazing, drought, and fire.

#### Pathway a

#### Community 6.1 to 6.2

Inappropriate grazing management, particularly during the growing season, reduces perennial bunchgrass vigor and density and facilitates shrub establishment.

#### Pathway a

### Community 6.2 to 6.1

Low severity fire, brush management, and/or Aroga moth infestation will reduce the sagebrush overstory and allow seeded species to become dominant.

#### Pathway b

#### Community 6.2 to 6.3

Absence of fire over time, coupled with inappropriate grazing management that promotes a reduction in perennial bunchgrasses and facilitates shrub dominance.

#### Pathway a

#### Community 6.3 to 6.1

Fire eliminates/reduces the overstory of sagebrush and allows for the understory perennial grasses to increase. Fires will typically be low severity resulting in a mosaic pattern due to low fine fuel loads. A fire following an unusually wet spring or change in management favoring an increase in fine fuels, may be more severe and reduce the shrub component to trace amounts. A severe infestation of Aroga moth will also cause a large decrease in sagebrush within the community, giving a competitive advantage to the perennial grasses and forbs. Brush treatments with minimal soil disturbance will also decrease sagebrush and release the perennial understory. Annual non-native species respond well to fire and may increase post-burn.

### Transition A State 1 to 2

Trigger: This transition is caused by the introduction of non-native annual plants, such as cheatgrass, mustards, and bur buttercup. Slow variables: Over time the annual non-native species will increase within the community. Threshold: Any amount of introduced non-native species causes an immediate decrease in the resilience of the site. Annual non-native species cannot be easily removed from the system and have the potential to significantly alter disturbance regimes from their historic range of variation.

### Transition A State 2 to 3

Trigger: To Community Phase 3.1: Repeated heavy growing season grazing will decrease or eliminate deep rooted perennial bunchgrasses, increase Sandberg bluegrass and favor shrub growth and establishment. Slow variables: Long term decrease in deep-rooted perennial grass density. Threshold: Loss of deep-rooted perennial bunchgrasses changes nutrient cycling, nutrient redistribution, and reduces soil organic matter.

### Transition B State 2 to 4

Trigger: Fire and/or multiple fires lead to plant community phase 4.1, inappropriate grazing management that favors shrubs in the presence of non-native annual species leads to community phase 4.2. Slow variables: Increased production and cover of non-native annual species. Threshold: Loss of deep-rooted perennial bunchgrasses and shrubs truncates, spatially and temporally, nutrient capture and cycling within the community. Increased, continuous fine fuels from annual non-native plants modify the fire regime by changing intensity, size and spatial variability of fires.

### Transition C State 2 to 5

Trigger: Time and lack of disturbance or management action allows for Utah Juniper and singleleaf pinyon to dominate. This may be coupled with grazing management that favors tree establishment by reducing understory herbaceous competition for site resources Slow variables: Over time the abundance and size of trees will increase. Threshold: Trees dominate ecological processes and number of shrub skeletons exceed number of live shrubs.

### Restoration pathway A State 3 to 2

Brush management such as mowing, coupled with seeding of deep-rooted native bunchgrasses will reduce the shrub overstory and release the perennial understory species. Presence of annual nonnative species increases the risk of transitioning to an annual state if this treatment fails.

### Transition A State 3 to 4

Trigger: To Community Phase 4.1: Severe fire. To Community Phase 4.2: Inappropriate grazing management in the presence of annual non-native species. Slow variables: Increased production and cover of non-native annual species. Threshold: Increased continuous fine fuels modify the fire regime by changing intensity, size, and spatial variability of fires. Changes in plant community composition and spatial variability of vegetation due to the loss of perennial bunchgrasses and sagebrush truncate energy capture spatially and temporally thus impacting nutrient cycling and distribution.

### Transition B State 3 to 5

Trigger: Time and a lack of disturbance or management action allows for Utah Juniper and singleleaf pinyon to dominate site. This may be coupled with grazing management that favors tree establishment by reducing understory herbaceous competition for site resources. Slow variables: Over time the abundance and size of trees will increase. Threshold: Trees overtop mountain sagebrush and out-compete shrubs for water and sunlight. Shrub skeletons exceed live shrubs with minimal recruitment of new cohorts.

### Restoration pathway A State 4 to 6

Seeding of deep-rooted bunchgrasses, coupled with brush management and/or herbicide. Probability of success is medium.

## Restoration pathway A State 5 to 2

Tree removal and seeding of desired species. Tree removal practices that minimize soil disturbance are recommended. Probability of success declines with increased presence of non-native annual species (Community Phase 5.2).

### Transition A State 5 to 4

Trigger: Catastrophic fire causing a stand replacement event will transition to Annual State 4.0. Inappropriate tree removal practices with soil disturbance will cause a transition to the Annual State 4.0. Slow variables: Increased production and cover of non-native annual species under tree canopies. Threshold: Closed tree canopy with non-native annual species dominant in the understory changes the intensity, size and spatial variability of fires. Changes in plant community composition and spatial variability of vegetation due to the loss of perennial bunchgrasses and sagebrush truncate energy capture and impact nutrient cycling and distribution

### Restoration pathway C State 5 to 6

Tree removal and seeding of desired species. Tree removal practices that minimize soil disturbance are recommended. Probability of success declines with increased presence of non-native annual species (Community Phase 5.2).

### Restoration pathway B State 5 to 6

This restoration is recommended for phase 5.1 only due to the lack of understory in 5.2. Removal of the pinyon and juniper overstory through tree removal practices or a controlled burn, without seeding of grass species, would move this phase into a shrub state. If nonnative annuals are present, a controlled burn is not recommended.

### Transition B State 6 to 4

Trigger: Catastrophic fire. Slow variables: Increased production and cover of non-native annual species. Threshold: Increased continuous fine fuels modify the fire regime by changing intensity, size, and spatial variability of fires. Changes in plant community composition and spatial variability of vegetation due to the loss of perennial bunchgrasses and sagebrush truncate energy capture spatially and temporally, thus impacting nutrient cycling and distribution.

### Transition A State 6 to 5

Trigger: Time and lack of disturbance or management action allows for Utah Juniper to dominate. This may be coupled with grazing management that favors tree establishment by reducing understory herbaceous competition for site resources Slow variables: Over time, the abundance and size of trees will increase. Threshold: Trees dominate ecological processes and number of shrub skeletons exceed number of live shrubs.

#### Additional community tables

Table 6. Community 1.1 plant community composition

Group	Common Name	Symbol	Scientific Name	Annual Production (Lb/Acre)	Foliar Cover (%)
Grass	/Grasslike			•	
1	Primary Perennial Gra	sses		287–490	
	bluebunch wheatgrass	PSSPS	Pseudoroegneria spicata ssp. spicata	210–280	_
	Thurber's needlegrass	ACTH7	Achnatherum thurberianum	35–105	_
	needle and thread	HECO26	Hesperostipa comata	14–35	_
	muttongrass	POFE	Poa fendleriana	14–35	-
	Indian ricegrass	ACHY	Achnatherum hymenoides	14–35	_
2	Secondary Perennial C	Grasses		16–84	
	blue grama	BOGR2	Bouteloua gracilis	4–21	_
	squirreltail	ELEL5	Elymus elymoides	4–21	_
	western wheatgrass	PASM	Pascopyrum smithii	4–21	_
	Sandberg bluegrass	POSE	Poa secunda	4–21	_
Forb					
3	Perennial			35–105	
	arrowleaf balsamroot	BASA3	Balsamorhiza sagittata	4–21	_
	tapertip hawksbeard	CRAC2	Crepis acuminata	4–21	_
	lupine	LUPIN	Lupinus	4–21	_
	phlox	PHLOX	Phlox	4–21	_
Shrub	/Vine				
4	Primary Shrubs			119–260	
	mountain big sagebrush	ARTRV	Artemisia tridentata ssp. vaseyana	52–87	-
	wild crab apple	PERA4	Peraphyllum ramosissimum	0–35	_
	Stansbury cliffrose	PUST	Purshia stansburiana	14–35	_
5	Secondary Shrubs	•		21–63	
	yellow rabbitbrush	CHVI8	Chrysothamnus viscidiflorus	7–21	_
	mormon tea	EPVI	Ephedra viridis	7–21	_
	antelope bitterbrush	PUTR2	Purshia tridentata	7–21	_
Tree	•			· ·	
6	Evergreen			8–28	
	Utah juniper	JUOS	Juniperus osteosperma	4–14	_
	singleleaf pinyon	PIMO	Pinus monophylla	4–14	_

### **Animal community**

Livestock Interpretations:

This site is suitable for livestock grazing. Considerations for grazing management including timing, intensity and duration of grazing. Targeted grazing could be used to decrease the density of non-natives.

Bluebunch wheatgrass is considered one of the most important forage grass species on western rangelands for livestock. Although bluebunch wheatgrass can be a crucial source of forage, it is not necessarily the most highly preferred species. Bluebunch wheatgrass is moderately grazing tolerant and is very sensitive to defoliation during the active growth period (Blaisdell and Pechanec 1949, Laycock 1967, Anderson and Scherzinger 1975). Herbage and flower stalk production was reduced with clipping at all times during the growing season; however, clipping was most harmful during the boot stage (Blaisdell and Pechanec 1949, Britton et al. 1990). Tiller production and growth of bluebunch was greatly reduced when clipping was coupled with drought (Busso and Richards 1995). Mueggler

(1975) estimated that low vigor bluebunch wheatgrass may need up to 8 years rest to recover. Although an important forage species, it is not always the preferred species by livestock and wildlife.

Thurber's needlegrass species begin growth early in the year and remain green throughout a relatively long growing season. This pattern of development enables animals to use Thurber's needlegrass when many other grasses are unavailable. Cattle prefer Thurber's needlegrass in early spring before fruits have developed as it becomes less palatable when mature. Thurber's needlegrasses are grazed in the fall only if the fruits are softened by rain. Thurber's needlegrass is an important forage source for livestock in the arid regions of the West (Ganskopp 1988). Heavy grazing during the growing season has been shown to reduce the basal area of Thurber's needlegrass (Eckert and Spencer 1987), suggesting that both seasonality and utilization are important factors in management of this plant. A single defoliation, particularly during the boot stage, was found to reduce herbage production and root mass thus potentially lowering the competitive ability of this needlegrass (Ganskopp 1988). Burning has been found to decrease the vegetative and reproductive vigor of Thurber's needlegrass (Uresk et al. 1976).

Muttongrass is excellent forage for domestic livestock especially in the early spring. Muttongrass begins growth in late winter and early spring, which makes it available before many other forage plants. Mountain big sagebrush is eaten by domestic livestock but has long been considered to be of low palatability, and a competitor to more desirable species.

Indian ricegrass is highly palatable to all classes of livestock in both green and cured condition. It supplies a source of green feed before most other native grasses have produced much new growth. Indian ricegrass is a preferred forage species for livestock and wildlife (Cook 1962, Booth et al. 2006). This species is often heavily utilized in winter because it cures well (Booth et al. 2006). It is also readily utilized in early spring, being a source of green feed before most other perennial grasses have produced new growth (Quinones 1981). Booth et al. (2006) note that the plant does well when utilized in winter and spring. Cook and Child (1971) however, found that repeated heavy grazing reduced crown cover, which may reduce seed production, density, and basal area of these plants. Additionally, heavy early spring grazing reduces plant vigor and stand density (Stubbendieck 1985). In eastern Idaho, productivity of Indian ricegrass was at least 10 times greater in undisturbed plots than in heavily grazed ones (Pearson 1965). Yet, Cook and Child (1971) found significant reduction in plant cover even after 7 years of rest from heavy (90%) and moderate (60%) spring use. The seed crop may be reduced where grazing is heavy (Bich et al. 1995). Tolerance to grazing increases after May, thus spring deferment may be necessary for stand enhancement (Pearson 1964, Cook and Child 1971); however, utilization of less than 60% is recommended. Reduced bunchgrass vigor or density provides an opportunity for Sandberg bluegrass expansion and/or cheatgrass and other invasive species to occupy interspaces, leading to increased fire frequency and potentially an annual plant community. Sandberg bluegrass increases under grazing pressure (Tisdale and Hironaka 1981) and is capable of co-existing with cheatgrass. Excessive sheep grazing favors Sandberg bluegrass; however, where cattle are the dominant grazers, cheatgrass often dominates (Daubenmire 1970). Thus, depending on the season of use, the grazer and site conditions, either Sandberg bluegrass or cheatgrass may become the dominant understory with inappropriate grazing management.

Stocking rates vary over time depending upon season of use, climate variations, site, and previous and current management goals. A safe starting stocking rate is an estimated stocking rate that is fine-tuned by the client by adaptive management through the year and from year to year.

Wildlife Interpretations:

Mountain big sagebrush is valuable for wildlife for both food and cover. Mountain big sagebrush is highly preferred and nutritious winter forage for mule deer, elk and pronghorn. Elk (Alces alces) and pronghorn antelope (Antilocapra americana) prefer mountain big sagebrush over basin and Wyoming sagebrush (Beale and Smith 1970, Wambolt 1996). A study by Brown (1977) determined that desert bighorn sheep (Ovis canadensis nelisoni) preferred big sagebrush over other shrub types; however, the variety was not noted. Welch and Wagstaff (1992) noted in a study near Provo, Utah, mountain big sagebrush was highly preferred winter forage of mule deer (Odocoileus hemionus) over other available forage. Other studies have determined, in the same study area, that mountain big sagebrush is preferred by both wintering domestic sheep as well as mule deer (Welch et al. 1986). Furthermore, wildlife use a variety of associated understory plants and soils that occur in big sagebrush habitat. For example: sage grouse (Centrocercus urophasianus), sagebrush vole (Lemmiscus curtatus), Merriam's shrew (Sorex merriami) and Preble's shrew (Sorex preblei) use the grasses that occur with mountain big sagebrush for nesting, cover and forage. Mountain big sagebrush sandy soil sites provide burrowing opportunities and protection from predators for burrowing owls (Athene cunicularia), dark and pale kangaroo mice (Microdipodops megacephalus and Microdipodops pallidus, respectively). Mountain big sagebrush that occur on woodland and rock ecotones provides nesting and foraging habitat for the ferruginous hawk (Buteo regalis) (Nevada Wildlife Action Plan 2012). Several reptiles and amphibians are distributed throughout the sagebrush steppe in the west in Nevada, where big sagebrush is known to grow (Bernard and Brown 1977). Reptile species including: eastern racers (Coluber constrictor), ringneck snakes (Diadophis punctatus), night snakes (Hypsiglena torquata), Sonoran mountain

kingsnakes (Lampropeltis pyromelana), striped whipsnakes (Masticophis taeniatus), gopher snakes (Pituophis catenifer), long-nosed snakes (Rhinoceheilus lecontei), wandering garter snakes (Thamnophis elegans vagrans), Great Basin rattlesnakes (Crotalus oreganus lutosus), Great Basin collared lizard (Crotaphytus bicinctores), long-nosed leopard lizard (Gambelia wislizenii), short-horned lizard (Phrynosoma douglassi), desert-horned lizard (Phrynosoma platyrhinos), sagebrush lizards (Sceloporus graciosus), western fence lizards (Sceloporus occidentalis), northern side-blotched lizards (Uta uta stansburiana), western skinks (Plestiodon skiltonianus), and Great Basin whiptails (Aspidoscelis tigris) occur in areas where sagebrush is dominant. Similarly, amphibians such as: western toads (Anaxyrus boreas), Woodhouse's toads (Anaxyrus woodhousii), northern leopard frogs (Lithobates pipiens), Columbia spotted frogs (Rana luteiventris), bullfrogs (Lithobates catesbeianus), and Great Basin spadefoots (Spea intermontana) also occur throughout the Great Basin in areas sagebrush species are dominant (Hamilton 2004). Studies have not determined if reptiles and amphibians prefer certain species of sagebrush; however, researchers agree that maintaining habitat where basin big sagebrush and reptiles and amphibians occur is important. In fact, wildlife biologists have noticed declines in reptiles where sagebrush steppe habitat has been seeded with introduced grasses (West 1999 and ref. therein).

Sagebrush communities are important for maintaining lagomorph and rodent populations. Pygmy rabbits, sagebrush obligates, use sites with big sagebrush at a higher intensity than low sagebrush sites (Heady and Laundre 2005). A study by Larrison and Johnson (1973) captured more deer mice in big sagebrush communities than in any other plant community. Although specific varieties of big sagebrush are not mentioned in these studies, thus, suggests that deer mice prefer big sagebrush plant communities where mountain big sagebrush are present, for cover over other plant communities.

It should be noted that sagebrush-grassland communities provide critical sage-grouse (Centrocercus urophaianus) breeding and nesting habitats. Meadows surrounded by sagebrush may be used as feeding and strutting grounds. Sagebrush is a crucial component of their diet year-round, and sage-grouse select sagebrush almost exclusively for cover. Sage-grouse prefer mountain big sagebrush and Wyoming big sagebrush communities to basin big sagebrush communities.

Thurber's needlegrass is palatable to wildlife and is grazed during the spring.

Bluebunch wheatgrass is considered one of the most important forage grass species on western rangelands for wildlife. Bluebunch wheatgrass does not generally provide sufficient cover for ungulates, however, mule deer are frequently found in bluebunch-dominated grasslands.

Indian ricegrass is eaten by pronghorn in "moderate" amounts whenever available. In Nevada it is consumed by desert bighorns, and is a highly valued fall elk food. Indian ricegrass is eaten by mule deer in spring. Deer and elk make heavy use of muttongrass, especially in early spring when other green forage is scarce.

Depending upon availability of other nutritious forage, deer may use mutton grass in all seasons. Muttongrass cures well and is an important fall and winter deer food in some areas.

#### **Hydrological functions**

Permeability is moderately slow to moderate. Runoff is medium to very high.

#### Recreational uses

Aesthetic value is derived from the diverse floral and faunal composition and the colorful flowering of wild flowers and shrubs during the spring and early summer. This site offers rewarding opportunities to photographers and for nature study. This site is used for camping and hiking and has potential for upland and big game hunting.

#### Other products

Native Americans made tea from big sagebrush leaves. They used the tea as a tonic, an antiseptic, for treating colds, diarrhea, and sore eyes and as a rinse to ward off ticks. Big sagebrush seeds were eaten raw or made into meal. Native Americans used big sagebrush leaves and branches for medicinal teas, and the leaves as a fumigant. Bark was woven into mats, bags and clothing. Triterpenoids extracted from Stansbury cliffrose have been shown to have inhibitory effects on HIV and Epstein-Barr virus. Native Americans used the inner bark for making clothing and ropes, and the branches for making arrows. Indian ricegrass was traditionally eaten by some Native Americans. The Paiutes used seed as a reserve food source.

#### Other information

Wyoming big sagebrush is used for stabilizing slopes and gullies and for restoring degraded wildlife habitat,

rangelands, mine spoils and other disturbed sites. It is particularly recommended on dry upland sites where other shrubs are difficult to establish. Stansbury cliffrose is recommended for wildlife, roadside, construction, and mine spoils plantings; and for restoring pinyon-juniper woodland, mountain brushland, basin big sagebrush grassland, black sagebrush, and black greasewood communities. It can be established on disturbed seedbeds by broadcast seeding, drill seeding, or transplanting. Fall or winter seeding is recommended. Needleandthread grass is useful for stabilizing eroded or degraded sites.

#### Type locality

Location 1: White Pine County, NV	
General legal description	White Pine County, Nevada.

#### Other references

Akinsoji, A. 1988. Postfire vegetation dynamics in a sagebrush steppe in southeastern Idaho, USA. Vegetatio 78:151-155.

Anderson, E. W. and R. J. Scherzinger. 1975. Improving quality of winter forage for elk by cattle grazing. Journal of Range Management:120-125.

Bich, B. S., J. L. Butler, and C. A. Schmidt. 1995. Effects of Differential Livestock Use on Key Plant Species and Rodent Populations within Selected Oryzopsis hymenoides/Hilaria jamesii Communities of Glen Canyon National Recreation Area. The Southwestern Naturalist 40:281-287.

Blaisdell, J. P. 1953. Ecological effects of planned burning of sagebrush-grass range on the upper Snake River Plains. US Dept. of Agriculture.

Blaisdell, J. P. and W. F. Mueggler. 1956. Sprouting of Bitterbrush (Purshia Tridentata) Following Burning or Top Removal. Ecology 37:365-370.

Blaisdell, J. P., R. B. Murray, and E. D. McArthur. 1982. Managing intermountain rangelands-sagebrush-grass ranges. Gen. Tech. Rep. INT-134. U.S. Department of Agriculture, Forest Service, Intermountain Forest and Range Experiment Station, Ogden, UT.

Blaisdell, J. P. and J. F. Pechanec. 1949. Effects of Herbage Removal at Various Dates on Vigor of Bluebunch Wheatgrass and Arrowleaf Balsamroot. Ecology 30:298-305.

Booth, D. T., C. G. Howard, and C. E. Mowry. 2006. 'Nezpar' Indian ricegrass: description, justification for release, and recommendations for use. Rangelands Archives 2:53-54.

Britton, C. M., G. R. McPherson, and F. A. Sneva. 1990. Effects of burning and clipping on five bunchgrasses in eastern Oregon. Great Basin Naturalist 50:115-120.

Bunting, S. C., B. M. Kilgore, and C. L. Bushey. 1987. Guidelines for prescribed burning sagebrush-grass rangelands in the northern Great Basin. US Department of Agriculture, Forest Service, Intermountain Research Station Ogden, UT, USA.

Burkhardt, J. W. and E. W. Tisdale. 1969. Nature and Successional Status of Western Juniper Vegetation in Idaho. Journal of Range Management 22:264-270.

Busse, D., A. Simon, and M. Riegel. 2000. Tree-growth and understory responses to low-severity prescribed burning in thinned Pinus ponderosa forests of central Oregon. Forest Science 46:258-268.

Busso, C. A. and J. H. Richards. 1995. Drought and clipping effects on tiller demography and growth of two tussock grasses in Utah. Journal of Arid Environments 29:239-251.

Caudle, D., J. DiBenedetto, M. Karl, H. Sanchez, and C. Talbot. 2013. Interagency ecological site handbook for

rangelands. Available at: http://jornada.nmsu.edu/sites/jornada.nmsu.edu/files/InteragencyEcolSiteHandbook.pdf. Accessed 4 October 2013.

Chambers, J., B. Bradley, C. Brown, C. D'Antonio, M. Germino, J. Grace, S. Hardegree, R. Miller, and D. Pyke. 2013. Resilience to Stress and Disturbance, and Resistance to Bromus tectorum L. Invasion in Cold Desert Shrublands of Western North America. Ecosystems:1-16.

Chambers, J. C., B. A. Roundy, R. R. Blank, S. E. Meyer, and A. Whittaker. 2007. What makes great basin sagebrush ecosystems invasible by Bromus tectorum? Ecological Monographs 77:117-145.

Clark, R. G., M. B. Carlton, and F. A. Sneva. 1982. Mortality of Bitterbrush after Burning and Clipping in Eastern Oregon. Journal of Range Management 35:711-714.

Comstock, J. P. and J. R. Ehleringer. 1992. Plant adaptation in the Great Basin and Colorado plateau. Western North American Naturalist 52:195-215.

Conrad, C. E. and C. E. Poulton. 1966. Effect of a wildfire on Idaho fescue and bluebunch wheatgrass. Journal of Range Management:138-141.

Cook, C. W. 1962. An Evaluation of Some Common Factors Affecting Utilization of Desert Range Species. Journal of Range Management 15:333-338.

Cook, C. W. and R. D. Child. 1971. Recovery of Desert Plants in Various States of Vigor. Journal of Range Management 24:339-343.

Cook, J. G., T. J. Hershey, and L. L. Irwin. 1994. Vegetative Response to Burning on Wyoming Mountain-Shrub Big Game Ranges. Journal of Range Management 47:296-302.

Daubenmire, R. 1970. Steppe vegetation of Washington.131 pp.

Daubenmire, R. 1975. Plant succession on abandoned fields, and fire influences in a steppe area in southeastern Washington. Northwest Science 49:36-48.

Dobrowolski, J.P., Caldwell, M.M. and Richards, J.H. 1990. Basin hydrology and plant root systems. In: Plant Biology of the Basin and Range. Springer-Verlag Pub., New York, NY.

Fire Effects Information System (Online; http://www.fs.fed.us/database/feis/plants/).

Houghton, J.G., C.M. Sakamoto, and R.O. Gifford. 1975. Nevada's Weather and Climate, Special Publication 2. Nevada Bureau of Mines and Geology, Mackay School of Mines, University of Nevada, Reno, NV.

Houston, D. B. 1973. Wildfires in northern Yellowstone National Park. Ecology 54:1111-1117.

Kerns, B. K., W. G. Thies, and C. G. Niwa. 2006. Season and severity of prescribed burn in ponderosa pine forests: implications for understory native and exotic plants. Ecoscience 13:44-55.

Kuntz, D. E. 1982. Plant response following spring burning in an Artemisia tridentata subsp. vaseyana/Festuca idahoensis habitat type. Dissertation, University of Idaho, Moscow, ID.

Laycock, W. A. 1967. How heavy grazing and protection affect sagebrush-grass ranges. Journal of Range Management:206-213.

Leege, T. A. and W. O. Hickey. 1971. Sprouting of northern Idaho shrubs after prescribed burning. The Journal of Wildlife Management:508-515.

Lett, M. S. and A. K. Knapp. 2005. Woody Plant Encroachment and Removal in Mesic Grassland: Production and Composition Responses of Herbaceous Vegetation. The American Midland Naturalist 153:217-231.

McConnell, B. R. 1961. Notes on some rooting characteristics of antelope bitterbrush. PNW Old Series Research Note No. 204:1-5.

McConnell, B. R. and J. G. Smith. 1977. Influence of grazing on age-yield interactions in bitterbrush. Journal of Range Management 30:91-93.

Merrill, E. H., H. Mayland, and J. Peek. 1982. Shrub responses after fire in an idaho ponderosa pine community. The Journal of Wildlife Management 46:496-502.

Miller, R. F. and E. K. Heyerdahl. 2008. Fine-scale variation of historical fire regimes in sagebrush-steppe and juniper woodland: an example from California, USA. International Journal of Wildland Fire 17:245-254.

Miller, R. F., T. J. Svejcar, and J. A. Rose. 2000. Impacts of western juniper on plant community composition and structure. Journal of Range Management:574-585.

Miller, R. F. R. J. T. 2000. The role of fire in juniper and pinyon woodlands: a descriptive analysis. Pages p. 15-30 in Proceedings of the invasive species workshop: the role of fire in the control and spread of invasive species., Tallahassee, Florida.

Mueggler, W. F. 1975. Rate and Pattern of Vigor Recovery in Idaho Fescue and Bluebunch Wheatgrass. Journal of Range Management 28:198-204.

Murray, R. 1983. Response of antelope bitterbrush to burning and spraying in southeastern Idaho. Tiedemann, Arthur R.; Johnson, Kendall L., compilers. Research and management of bitterbrush and cliffrose in western North America. General Technical Report INT-152. Ogden, UT: US Department of Agriculture, Forest Service, Intermountain Forest and Range Experiment Station:142-152.

National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration. 2004. The North American Monsoon. Reports to the Nation. National Weather Service, Climate Prediction Center. Available online: http://www.weather.gov/

Neuenschwander, L. 1980. Broadcast burning of sagebrush in the winter. Journal of Range Management:233-236.

Noste, N. V. and C. L. Bushey. 1987. Fire response of shrubs of dry forest habitat types in Montana and Idaho. General technical report INT.

Noy-Meir, I. 1973. Desert Ecosystems: Environment and Producers. Annual Review of Ecology and Systematics 4:25-51.

Pearson, L. 1964. Effect of harvest date on recovery of range grasses and shrubs. Agronomy Journal 56:80-82.

Pearson, L. C. 1965. Primary Production in Grazed and Ungrazed Desert Communities of Eastern Idaho. Ecology 46:278-285.

Pierson, F. B., C. J. Williams, P. R. Kormos, S. P. Hardegree, P. E. Clark, and B. M. Rau. 2010. Hydrologic Vulnerability of Sagebrush

Steppe Following Pinyon and Juniper Encroachment. Rangeland Ecology & Management 63:614-629.

Quinones, F. A. 1981. Indian ricegrass evaluation and breeding. Bulletin 681. Page 19. New Mexico State University, Agricultural Experiment Station, Las Cruces, NM.

Richards, J. H. and M. M. Caldwell. 1987. Hydraulic lift: Substantial nocturnal water transport between soil layers by Artemisia tridentata roots. Oecologia 73:486-489.

Robberecht, R. and G. Defossé. 1995. The relative sensitivity of two bunchgrass species to fire. International Journal of Wildland Fire 5:127-134.

Stringham, T.K., P. Novak-Echenique, P. Blackburn, C. Coombs, D. Snyder and A. Wartgow. 2015. Final Report for USDA Ecological Site Description State-and-Transition Models, Major Land Resource Area 28A and 28B Nevada.

University of Nevada Reno, Nevada Agricultural Experiment Station Research Report 2015-01. p. 1524.

Stubbendieck, J. L. 1985. Nebraska Range and Pasture Grasses: (including Grass-like Plants). University of Nebraska, Department of Agriculture, Cooperative Extension Service, Lincoln, NE.

Tisdale, E. W. and M. Hironaka. 1981. The sagebrush-grass region: A review of the ecological literature. University of Idaho, Forest, Wildlife and Range Experiment Station.

Uresk, D. W., J. F. Cline, and W. H. Rickard. 1976. Impact of wildfire on three perennial grasses in south-central Washington. Journal of Range Management 29:309-310.

USDA-NRCS Plants Database (Online; http://www.plants.usda.gov).

Uresk, D. W., J. F. Cline, and W. H. Rickard. 1976. Impact of wildfire on three perennial grasses in south-central Washington. Journal of Range Management 29:309-310.

Vallentine, J. F. 1989. Range development and improvements. Academic Press, Inc.

West, N. E. 1994. Effects of fire on salt-desert shrub rangelands.in Proceedings--Ecology and Management of Annual Rangelands, General Technical Report INT-313. USDA Forest Service, Intermountain Research Station, Boise, ID.

Whisenant, S. G. 1990. Changing fire frequencies on Idaho's Snake River Plains: ecological and management implications. Pages 4-10 in Symposium on cheatgrass invasion, shrub die-off, and other aspects of shrub biology and management. General Technical Report, Intermountain Research Station, USDA Forest Service.

Wright, H. A. 1971. Why Squirreltail Is More Tolerant to Burning than Needle-and-Thread. Journal of Range Management 24:277-284.

Wright, H. A. 1985. Effects of fire on grasses and forbs in sagebrush-grass communities. Pages 12-21 in Rangeland Fire Effects; A Symposium: Boise, ID, USDI-BLM.

Young, R. P. 1983. Fire as a vegetation management tool in rangelands of the intermountain region. Pages 18-31 in Managing intermountain rangelands - improvement of range and wildlife habitats. USDA, Forest Service.

Ziegenhagen, L. L. 2003. Shrub reestablishment following fire in the mountain big sagebrush (Artemisia tridentata Nutt. ssp. vaseyana (Rydb.) Beetle) alliance. M.s. Oregon State University.

Ziegenhagen, L. L. and R. F. Miller. 2009. Postfire Recovery of Two Shrubs in the Interiors of Large Burns in the Intermountain West, USA. Western North American Naturalist 69:195-205.

#### **Contributors**

**GKB** 

T. Stringham

#### Rangeland health reference sheet

Interpreting Indicators of Rangeland Health is a qualitative assessment protocol used to determine ecosystem condition based on benchmark characteristics described in the Reference Sheet. A suite of 17 (or more) indicators are typically considered in an assessment. The ecological site(s) representative of an assessment location must be known prior to applying the protocol and must be verified based on soils and climate. Current plant community cannot be used to identify the ecological site.

Author(s)/participant(s)	
--------------------------	--

Da	Date		
Αp	Approved by		
Αp	Approval date		
Co	Composition (Indicators 10 and 12) based on Ar	nual Production	
	ndicators  . Number and extent of rills:		
2.	2. Presence of water flow patterns:		
3.	3. Number and height of erosional pedestals	or terracettes:	
4.	Bare ground from Ecological Site Descripti bare ground):	ion or other stud	dies (rock, litter, lichen, moss, plant canopy are not
5.	5. Number of gullies and erosion associated v	with gullies:	
6.	6. Extent of wind scoured, blowouts and/or do	epositional area	ns:
7.	7. Amount of litter movement (describe size a	and distance exp	pected to travel):
8.	Soil surface (top few mm) resistance to ero values):	osion (stability v	ralues are averages - most sites will show a range of
9.	9. Soil surface structure and SOM content (in	clude type of str	ructure and A-horizon color and thickness):
10.	). Effect of community phase composition (re distribution on infiltration and runoff:	∍lative proportio	on of different functional groups) and spatial
11.	Presence and thickness of compaction layer mistaken for compaction on this site):	er (usually none	e; describe soil profile features which may be

12. Functional/Structural Groups (list in order of descending dominance by above-ground annual-production or live

foliar cover using symbols: >>, >, = to indicate much greater than, greater than, and equal to):

Contact for lead author

	Dominant:
	Sub-dominant:
	Other:
	Additional:
13.	Amount of plant mortality and decadence (include which functional groups are expected to show mortality or decadence):
14.	Average percent litter cover (%) and depth ( in):
5.	Expected annual annual-production (this is TOTAL above-ground annual-production, not just forage annual-production):
6.	Potential invasive (including noxious) species (native and non-native). List species which BOTH characterize degraded states and have the potential to become a dominant or co-dominant species on the ecological site if their future establishment and growth is not actively controlled by management interventions. Species that become dominant for only one to several years (e.g., short-term response to drought or wildfire) are not invasive plants. Note that unlike other indicators, we are describing what is NOT expected in the reference state for the ecological site:
17	Perennial plant reproductive capability: