

Ecological site R028BY086NV GRAVELLY CLAY 10-12 P.Z.

Accessed: 05/11/2025

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.

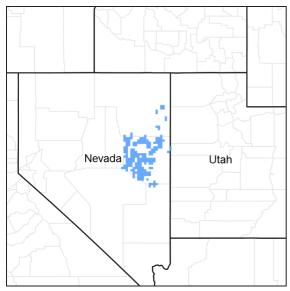


Figure 1. Mapped extent

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): 028B-Central Nevada Basin and Range

MLRA 28B occurs entirely in Nevada and comprises about 23,555 square miles (61,035 square kilometers). More than nine-tenths of this MLRA is federally owned. This area is in the Great Basin Section of the Basin and Range Province of the Intermontane Plateaus. It is an area of nearly level, aggraded desert basins and valleys between a series of mountain ranges trending north to south. The basins are bordered by long, gently sloping to strongly sloping alluvial fans. The mountains are uplifted fault blocks with steep sideslopes. Many of the valleys are closed basins containing sinks or playas. Elevation ranges from 4,900 to 6,550 feet (1,495 to 1,995 meters) in the valleys and basins and from 6,550 to 11,900 feet (1,995 to 3,630 meters) in the mountains.

The mountains in the southern half are dominated by andesite and basalt rocks that were formed in the Miocene and Oligocene. Paleozoic and older carbonate rocks are prominent in the mountains to the north. Scattered outcrops of older Tertiary intrusives and very young tuffaceous sediments are throughout this area. The valleys consist mostly of alluvial fill, but lake deposits are at the lowest elevations in the closed basins. The alluvial valley fill consists of cobbles, gravel, and coarse sand near the mountains in the apex of the alluvial fans. Sands, silts, and clays are on the distal ends of the fans.

The average annual precipitation ranges from 4 to 12 inches (100 to 305 millimeters) in most areas on the valley floors. Average annual precipitation in the mountains ranges from 8 to 36 inches (205 to 915 millimeters) depending on elevation. The driest period is from midsummer to midautumn. The average annual temperature is 34 to 52 degrees F (1 to 11 degrees C). The freeze-free period averages 125 days and ranges from 80 to 170 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 soil temperature regime, an aridic or xeric soil moisture regime, and mixed or carbonatic mineralogy. They generally are well drained, loamy or loamyskeletal, and shallow to very deep.

Nevada's climate is predominantly arid, with large daily ranges of temperature, infrequent severe storms and heavy snowfall in the higher mountains. Three basic geographical factors largely influence Nevada's climate: continentality, latitude, and elevation. 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, as a result 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 midlatitude 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 occasional thundershowers. The eastern portion of the state receives noteworthy 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).

Ecological site concept

This site occurs on fan remnants. Slopes range from 2 to 50 percent, but slope gradients of 4 to 15 percent are most typical. Elevations are 5800 to 6800 feet.

The soils associated with this site are moderately deep, well drained and formed in alluvium derived from mixed rocks. Soils are characterized by an ochric epipedon, an argillic horizon and 15-35% rock fragments distributed throughout the profile. Available water holding capacity is moderate and runoff is high. Soil temperature regime is mesic and the soil moisture regime is aridic bordering on xeric.

The reference state is dominated by Thurber's needlegrass and Wyoming big sagebrush. Average annual production ranges from 350 to 800 pounds per acre.

Associated sites

R028BY007NV	LOAMY 10-12 P.Z.
R028BY010NV	LOAMY 8-10 P.Z.
R028BY087NV	GRAVELLY CLAY 12-14 P.Z.

Similar sites

R028BY094NV	CALCAREOUS LOAM 10-14 P.Z. PSSP and ACHY codominant grasses; ACTH7 absent
R028BY080NV	SHALLOW LOAM 8-10 P.Z. ACHY and HECO26 codominant grasses
R028BY007NV	LOAMY 10-12 P.Z. ACTH7 and PSSP codominant grasses; more productive site
R028BY087NV	GRAVELLY CLAY 12-14 P.Z. PSSP and ACTH7 codominant grasses; ARTRV dominant shrub

R028BY010NV	LOAMY 8-10 P.Z.
	ACHY and HECO26 codominant grasses

Table 1. Dominant plant species

Tree	Not specified	
Shrub	(1) Artemisia tridentata subsp. wyomingensis	
Herbaceous	(1) Achnatherum thurberianum	

Physiographic features

This site occurs on fan remnants. Slopes range from 2 to 50 percent, but slope gradients of 4 to 15 percent are most typical. Elevations are 5800 to 6800 feet.

Table 2. Representative physiographic features

Landforms	(1) Fan remnant
Flooding frequency	None
Ponding frequency	None
Elevation	5,800–6,800 ft
Slope	4–15%
Aspect	Aspect is not a significant factor

Climatic features

The climate associated with this site is semiarid, characterized by cold, moist winters and warm, dry summers.

Average annual precipitation ranges from 8 to 12 inches. Mean annual air temperature is about 45 to 50 degrees F. The average growing season is about 100 to 120 days.

Mean annual precipitation across the range in which this ES occurs is 9.01". Monthly mean precipitation: January 0.69; February 0.65; March 0.87; April 0.88; May 1.14; June 0.73; July 0.65; August 0.77; September 0.66; October 0.79; November 0.62; December 0.60.

Table 3. Representative climatic features

Frost-free period (average)	90 days
Freeze-free period (average)	120 days
Precipitation total (average)	9 in

Climate stations used

- (1) DIAMOND VALLEY EUREKA 14NNW [USC00262296], Eureka, NV
- (2) MCGILL [USC00264950], Ely, NV

Influencing water features

Influencing water features are not associated with this site.

Soil features

The soils associated with this site are moderately deep, well drained and formed in alluvium derived from mixed rocks. These soils are characterized by an ochric epipedon, an argillic horizon, a calcic horizon, and have 15-35%

^{*}The above data is averaged from the Diamond Valley- Eureka and McGill WRCC climate stations.

rock fragments distributed throughout the profile. Runoff is high and available water holding capacity is moderate. The soil temperature regime is mesic and soil moisture regime is aridic bordering on xeric. The soil series associated with this site include Belmill, Fax, and Yody.

The representative soil series is Yody, a Fine-loamy, mixed, superactive, mesic Haploxeralfic Argidurids. Diagnostic horizons include an ochric epipedon from the soil surface to 8 cm,

argillic horizon from 8 to 41 cm, calcic horizon zone from 66 to 97 cm, and a strongly cemented duripan from 97 to 152 cm. Clay content in the particle size control section averages 20 to 35 percent and rock fragments range from 15 to 35 percent, mainly gravel. Reaction is moderately alkaline or strongly alkaline. Effervescence increases with depth. Soils are derived from volcanic and mixed rocks.

Occurrences of this ecological site correlated to soils with a mollic epipedon (Fax and Belmill) will be field checked for correlation Loamy 10-12"PZ (028BY007NV) or other ecological site as appropriate.

Table 4. Representative soil features

Parent material	(1) Alluvium–andesite
Surface texture	(1) Gravelly sandy loam
Family particle size	(1) Loamy
Drainage class	Well drained
Permeability class	Moderate to moderately rapid
Soil depth	20–84 in
Surface fragment cover <=3"	10–15%
Surface fragment cover >3"	0%
Available water capacity (0-40in)	2–5.3 in
Calcium carbonate equivalent (0-40in)	1–10%
Electrical conductivity (0-40in)	0–4 mmhos/cm
Sodium adsorption ratio (0-40in)	1–12
Soil reaction (1:1 water) (0-40in)	7.9–9
Subsurface fragment volume <=3" (Depth not specified)	15–60%
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 invasives. 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 to over 3.0 m. (Comstock and Ehleringer 1992). Root length of mature

sagebrush plants was measured to a depth of 2 meters in alluvial soils in Utah (Richards and Caldwell 1987). These shrubs have a flexible generalized root system with development of both deep taproots and laterals near the surface (Comstock and Ehleringer 1992).

In the Great Basin, the majority of annual precipitation is received during the winter and early spring. This continental semiarid climate regime favors growth and development of deep-rooted shrubs and herbaceous cool season plants using the C3 photosynthetic pathway (Comstock and Ehleringer 1992). Winter precipitation and slow melting of snow results in deeper percolation of moisture into the soil profile. Herbaceous plants, more shallow-rooted than shrubs, grow earlier in the growing season and thrive on spring rains, while the deeper rooted shrubs lag in phenological development because they draw from deeply infiltrating moisture from snowmelt the previous winter. Periodic drought regularly influences sagebrush ecosystems and drought duration and severity has increased throughout the 20th century in much of the Intermountain West. Major shifts away from historical precipitation patterns have the greatest potential to alter ecosystem function and productivity. Species composition and productivity can be altered by the timing of precipitation and water availability within the soil profile (Bates et al 2006).

Variability in plant community composition and production depends on soil surface texture and depth. Needleandthread grass is adapted to coarser textured soils whereas Indian ricegrass will increase with sandy soil surfaces, and bottlebrush squirreltail will increase with silty soil surfaces. Production generally increases with soil depth. The amount of sagebrush in the plant community is dependent upon disturbances like fire, Aroga moth infestations, and grazing.

Wyoming big sagebrush, the most drought tolerant of the big sagebrushes, is generally 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 depended on adequate moisture conditions.

Native insect outbreaks are also important drivers of ecosystem dynamics in sagebrush communities. Climate is generally believed to influence the timing of insect outbreaks especially a sagebrush defoliator, Aroga moth (Aroga websteri). Aroga moth infestations have occurred in the Great Basin in the 1960s, early 1970s, and is ongoing in Nevada since 2004 (Bentz, et al 2008). Thousands of acres of big sagebrush have been impacted, with partial to complete die-off observed. Aroga moth can partially or entirely kill individual plants or entire stands of big sagebrush (Furniss and Barr 1975).

The dominant perennial bunchgrasses include Thurber needlegrass, Indian ricegrass, needleandthread and bluegrasses. The perennial bunchgrasses 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 results 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).

The introduction of annual weedy species, like cheatgrass, may cause an increase in fire frequency and eventually lead to an annual state. Conversely, as fire frequency decreases, sagebrush will increase and with inappropriate grazing management the perennial bunchgrasses and forbs may be reduced.

Infilling by singleleaf pinyon and Utah juniper may also occur with an extended fire return interval. Eventually, singleleaf pinyon and Utah juniper will dominate the site and out-compete sagebrush for water and sunlight severely reducing both the shrub and herbaceous understory (Lett and Knapp 2005, Miller et al. 2000). Bluegrasses may remain underneath trees on north-facing slopes. The potential for soil erosion increases as the Utah juniper woodland matures and the understory plant community cover declines (Pierson et al. 2010).

The ecological site has low to moderate resilience to disturbance and low to moderate resistance to invasion. Resilience increases with elevation, aspect, increased precipitation and increased nutrient availability. Fix possible

alternative stable states have been identified for this site.

Fire Ecology:

Fire is the principal means of renewal of decadent stands of Wyoming big sagebrush. Wyoming big sagebrush communities historically had low fuel loads, and patchy fires that burned in a mosaic pattern were common at 10 to 70 year return intervals (Young et al. 1979, West and Hassan 1985, Bunting et al. 1987). Davies et al. (2007) suggest fire return intervals in Wyoming big sagebrush communities were around 50 to 100 years. More recently, Baker (2011) estimates fire rotation to be 200-350 years in Wyoming big sagebrush communities. Wyoming big sagebrush is killed by fire and only regenerates from seed. Recovery time for Wyoming big sagebrush may require 50 to 120 or more years (Baker 2006). Post-fire hydrologic recovery and resilience is primarily influenced by pre-fire site conditions, fire severity, and post-fire weather and land use that relate to vegetation recovery. Sites with low abundances of native perennial grasses and forbs typically have reduced resiliency following disturbance and are less resistant to invasion or increases in cheatgrass (Miller et al 2013). However, the introduction and expansion of cheatgrass has dramatically altered the fire regime (Balch et al. 2013) and restoration potential of Wyoming big sagebrush communities.

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

Burning has been found to decrease the vegetative and reproductive vigor of Thurber's needlegrass (Uresk et al. 1976). Fire can cause high mortality, in addition to reducing basal area and yield of Thurber's needlegrass (Britton et al. 1990). The fine leaves and densely tufted growth form make this grass susceptible to subsurface charring of the crowns (Wright and Klemmedson 1965). Although timing of fire highly influenced the response and mortality of

et al. 1990). The fine leaves and densely tufted growth form make this grass susceptible to subsurface charring of the crowns (Wright and Klemmedson 1965). Although timing of fire highly influenced the response and mortality of Thurber's needlegrass, smaller bunch sizes were less likely to be damaged by fire (Wright and Klemmedson 1965). Thurber's needlegrass often survives fire and will continue growth or regenerate from tillers when conditions are favorable (Koniak 1985, Britton et al. 1990). Reestablishment on burned sites has been found to be relatively slow due to low germination and competitive ability (Koniak 1985). Cheatgrass has been found to be a highly successful competitor with seedlings of this needlegrass and may preclude reestablishment (Evans and Young 1978).

Indian ricegrass 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 reestablishment of Indian ricegrass. Grazing management following fire to promote seed production and establishment of seedlings is important.

Needle-and-thread is top-killed by fire but is likely to resprout if fire does not consume above ground stems (Akinsoji 1988, Bradley, Noste and Fischer 1992). In a study by Wright and Klemmedson (1965), season of burn rather than fire intensity seemed to be the crucial factor in mortality for needle-and-thread grass. Early spring season burning was seen to kill the plants while August burning had no effect. Thus under wildfire scenarios needle-and-thread is often present in the post-burn community. However, due to its lack of grazing tolerance, grazing after fire should be managed carefully.

Squirreltail is considered more fire tolerant than Indian ricegrass due to its small size, coarse stems, broad leaves and generally sparse leafy material (Wright 1971, Britton et al. 1990). Postfire regeneration occurs from surviving root crowns and from on-and off-site seed sources. Bottlebrush squirreltail has the ability to produce large numbers of highly germinable seeds, with relatively rapid germination (Young and Evans 1977) when exposed to the correct environmental cues. Early spring growth and ability to grow at low temperatures contribute to the persistence of bottle brush squirreltail among cheatgrass dominated ranges (Hironaka and Tisdale 1972).

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). 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. Repeated frequent fire in this community will eliminate big sagebrush and severely decrease or eliminate the deep rooted perennial bunchgrasses from the site and facilitate the establishment of an annual weed community with varying amounts of Sandberg bluegrass and rabbitbrush.

Wildfire in sites with cheatgrass present could transition to cheatgrass dominated communities. Without management cheatgrass and annual forbs are likely to invade and dominate the site, especially after fire. Utah juniper and/or singleleaf pinyon may be present and with a lack in disturbances such as fire can eventually outcompete understory vegetation for site resources.

State and transition model

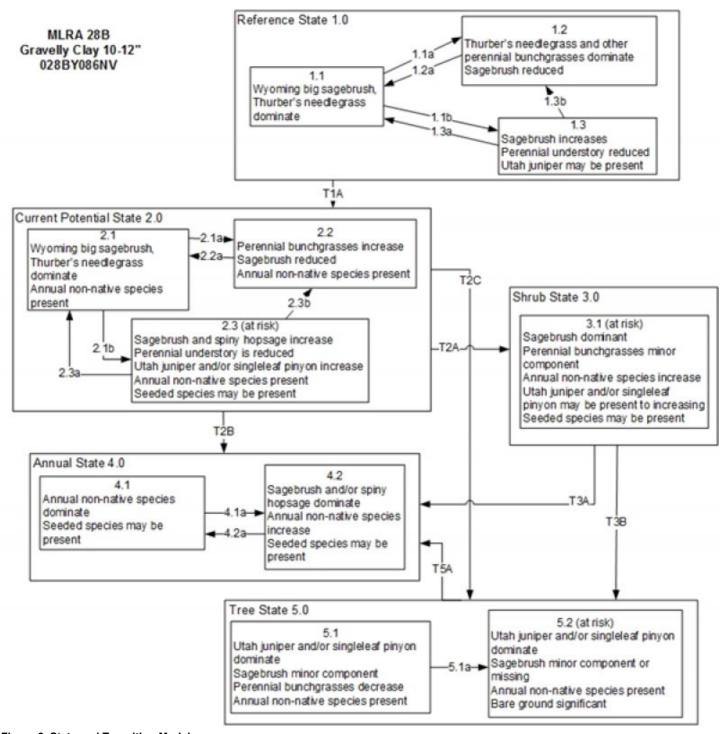


Figure 6. State and Transition Model

MLRA 28B Gravelly Clay 10-12" 028BY086NV

Reference State 1.0 Community Phase Pathways

- 1.1a: Low severity fire creates grass/sagebrush 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 drought. Excessive herbivory may also decrease perennial understory.
- 1.2a: Time and lack of disturbance allows for shrub regeneration.
- 1.3a: Low severity fire or Aroga moth infestation resulting in a mosaic pattern.
- 1.3b: High severity fire 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 creates grass/sagebrush 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 drought. Inappropriate grazing management may also reduce perennial understory.
- 2.2a: Time and lack of disturbance allows for regeneration of sagebrush.
- 2.3a: Low severity fire or Aroga moth infestation creates sagebrush/grass mosaic. Brush management with minimal soil disturbance; late-fall/winter grazing causing mechanical damage to sagebrush.
- 2.3b: High severity fire 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, multiple fires and/or soil disturbing treatments (4.1). Inappropriate grazing management in the presence of non-native annual species (4.2).

Transition T2C. Time and lack of disturbance allows for trees to dominate site resources; may be couple with inappropriate grazing management (5.1).

Shrub State 3.0 Community Phase Pathways

Transition T3A: Catastrophic fire, multiple fires and/or soil disturbing treatments such as drill seeding, roller chopper, Lawson aerator etc. (4.1). Inappropriate grazing management in the presence of non-native annual 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 (5.1).

Annual State 4.0 Community Phase Pathways

4.1a: Time and lack of disturbance such as fire, unlikely to occur.

4.2a: Fire.

Tree State 5.0 Community Phase Pathways

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

Transition T5A: Catastrophic fire and/or inappropriate tree removal practices (5.1).

Figure 7. Legend

State 1 Reference State

The Reference State 1.0 is a representative of the natural range of variability under pristine conditions. The reference state has 3 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

Wyoming big sagebrush, Thurber's needlegrass, Indian ricegrass dominate the site. Other common species include spiny hopsage, needleandthread, Canby's bluegrass and Sandberg's bluegrass. Basin wildrye, bottlebrush squirreltail, thickspike wheatgrass and bluebunch wheatgrass can also be found on this site. Forbs are present but not abundant. Potential vegetative composition is about 55% grasses, 10% forbs and 35% shrubs and trees. Approximate ground cover (basal and crown) is 20 to 40 percent.

Table 5. Annual production by plant type

Plant Type	Low (Lb/Acre)	Representative Value (Lb/Acre)	High (Lb/Acre)
Grass/Grasslike	193	330	440
Shrub/Vine	119	202	268
Forb	35	60	80
Tree	3	8	12
Total	350	600	800

Community 1.2 Community Phase

This community phase is characteristic of a post-disturbance, early seral community phase. Indian ricegrass and other perennial grasses dominate. Depending on fire severity or intensity of Aroga moth infestation, patches of intact sagebrush may remain.

Community 1.3 Community Phase

Wyoming big sagebrush increases in the absence of disturbance. Decadent sagebrush dominates the overstory and the deep-rooted perennial bunchgrasses in the understory are reduced either from competition with shrubs and/or from herbivory.

Pathway a Community 1.1 to 1.2

Fire would decrease or eliminate the overstory of sagebrush and allow perennial bunchgrasses to dominate the site. Fires would typically be small and patchy due to low fuel loads. A fire following an unusually wet spring or a change in management may be more severe and reduce sagebrush cover to trace amounts. A severe infestation of Aroga moth could also cause a large decrease in sagebrush within the community, giving a competitive advantage to the perennial grasses and forbs.

Pathway b Community 1.1 to 1.3

Time and lack of disturbance such as fire allows for sagebrush to increase and become decadent. Chronic drought, herbivory, or combinations of these would cause a decline in perennial bunchgrasses and fine fuels and lead to a reduced fire frequency allowing big sagebrush to dominate the site.

Pathway a

Community 1.2 to 1.1

Absence of disturbance over time would allow for sagebrush to increase.

Pathway a

Community 1.3 to 1.1

A low severity fire, Aroga moth or combination would reduce the sagebrush overstory and create a sagebrush/grass mosaic with sagebrush and perennial bunchgrasses co-dominant. Utah juniper may be present.

Pathway b Community 1.3 to 1.2

Fire would decrease or eliminate the overstory of sagebrush and allow for the perennial bunchgrasses to dominate the site. Fires would 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. A severe infestation of Aroga moth could also cause a large decrease in sagebrush within the community, giving a competitive advantage to the perennial grasses and forbs.

State 2

Current Potential State

This state is similar to the Reference State 1.0. This state has the same three general community phases. 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.

Community 2.1 Community Phase

This community phase is dominated by Wyoming big sagebrush, spiny hopsage, Thurber's needlegrass, and Indian ricegrass. Needleandthread, Canby's bluegrass and Sandberg's bluegrass, basin wildrye, bottlebrush squirreltail, thickspike wheatgrass and bluebunch wheatgrass may also be common, while forbs make up smaller percentages by weight of the understory. Non-native annual species are present.

Community 2.2 Community Phase

This community phase is characteristic of a post-disturbance, early seral community phase. Indian ricegrass and other perennial grasses dominate. Wyoming big sagebrush is presence in trace amounts. Depending on fire severity or intensity of Aroga moth infestations, patches of intact sagebrush may remain. Rabbitbrush may be sprouting. Forbs may increase post-fire but will likely return to pre-burn levels within a few years. Annual non-native species generally respond well after fire and may be 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, either from competition with shrubs or from inappropriate grazing management, or from both. Rabbitbrush may be a significant component. Sandberg bluegrass may increase and become co-dominate with deep rooted bunchgrasses. Utah juniper 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.

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. A severe infestation of Aroga moth could also cause a large decrease in sagebrush within the community, giving a competitive advantage to the perennial grasses and forbs. Annual non-native species are likely to increase after fire.

Pathway b Community 2.1 to 2.3

Time and lack of disturbance such as fire allows for sagebrush to increase and become decadent. Chronic drought reduces fine fuels and leads to a reduced fire frequency allowing Wyoming 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. Excessive sheep grazing favors Sandberg bluegrass; however, where cattle and/or horses are the dominant grazers, cheatgrass often increases.

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 Wyoming big sagebrush can take many years.

Pathway a Community 2.3 to 2.1

A change in grazing management that decreases shrubs would 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. An infestation of Aroga moth or a low severity fire would reduce some sagebrush overstory and allow perennial grasses to increase in the community. Brush treatments with minimal soil disturbance would also decrease sagebrush and release the perennial understory. Annual non-native species are present and may increase in the community.

Pathway b Community 2.3 to 2.2

Fire would decrease or eliminate the overstory of sagebrush and allow for the perennial bunchgrasses to dominate the site. Fires would typically be small and patchy due to low fuel loads. A fire following an unusually wet spring or a change in management may be more severe and reduce sagebrush cover to trace amounts. A severe infestation of Aroga moth could also cause a large decrease in sagebrush within the community, giving a competitive advantage to the perennial grasses and forbs.

State 3 Shrub State

This state is a product of many years of heavy grazing during time periods harmful to perennial bunchgrasses. Sandberg bluegrass may increase with a reduction in deep rooted perennial bunchgrass competition and may become the dominate grass or the herbaceous understory may be completely eliminated. Sagebrush dominates the overstory and rabbitbrush may be a significant component. Sagebrush cover exceeds site concept and may be decadent, reflecting stand maturity and lack of seedling establishment due to competition with mature plants. The shrub overstory dominates site resources such that soil water, nutrient capture, nutrient cycling and soil organic matter are temporally and spatially redistributed. Bare ground may be significant with soil redistribution occurring between interspace and canopy locations.

Community 3.1

Community Phase (at risk)

Decadent Wyoming big sagebrush dominates overstory and rabbitbrush may be a significant component. Deeprooted perennial bunchgrasses may be present in trace amounts or absent from the community. Sandberg bluegrass may increase along with annual non-native species. Bare ground is significant. Utah juniper may be present.

State 4

Annual State

This community is characterized by the dominance of annual non-native species such as cheatgrass and tansy mustard in the understory. Wyoming big sagebrush and/or rabbitbrush may dominate the overstory.

Community 4.1 Community Phase

Annual non-native plants such as cheatgrass or tansy mustard dominate the site. Rabbitbrush may or may not be present.

Community 4.2 Community Phase

Wyoming big sagebrush overstory with annual non-native species understory. Trace amounts of desirable bunchgrasses may be present.

Pathway a Community 4.1 to 4.2

Time and lack of fire allows for the sagebrush to establish. Probability of sagebrush establishment is extremely low.

Pathway a Community 4.2 to 4.1

Fire removes sagebrush and allows for annual non-native species to dominate the site.

State 5 Tree State

This state is characterized by a dominance of Utah juniper in the overstory. Wyoming 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

Utah juniper dominates the overstory and site resources. Trees are actively growing with noticeable leader growth. Trace amounts of bunchgrass may be found under tree canopies with or without trace amounts of Sandberg bluegrass and forbs in the interspaces. Sagebrush is stressed and dying. Annual non-native species are present under tree canopies. Bare ground interspaces are large and connected.

Community 5.2 Community Phase (at risk)

Utah juniper trees dominates 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. Bunchgrasses may or may not be present. Sandberg bluegrass or mat forming forbs may be present in trace amounts. Bare ground interspaces are

large and connected. Soil redistribution is evident.

Pathway a

Community 5.1 to 5.2

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

Transition A State 1 to 2

Trigger: This transition is caused by the introduction of non-native annual weeds, such as cheatgrass, mustards, bur buttercup and halogeton. Slow variables: Over time the annual non-native plants 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: Inappropriate, long-term grazing of perennial bunchgrasses during the growing season would favor sagebrush. Slow variables: Long term decrease in deep-rooted perennial grass density. Threshold: Loss of deep-rooted perennial bunchgrasses changes spatial and temporal nutrient cycling and nutrient redistribution, and reduces soil organic matter.

Transition B State 2 to 4

Trigger: To Community Phase 4.1: Severe fire. To Community Phase 4.2: Inappropriate grazing management that favors shrubs in the presence of non-native species. 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 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.

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 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 dominate ecological processes and number of shrub skeletons exceed number of live shrubs.

Transition A State 5 to 4

Trigger: Catastrophic fire causing a stand replacement event would transition Annual State 4.0. Inappropriate tree removal practices with soil disturbance would cause a transition to the Annual State 4. 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.

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 Grasses			192–390	
	Thurber's needlegrass	ACTH7	Achnatherum thurberianum	120–240	_
	needle and thread	HECO26	Hesperostipa comata	30–60	_
	Indian ricegrass	ACHY	Achnatherum hymenoides	30–60	_
	Sandberg bluegrass	POSE	Poa secunda	6–15	_
2	Secondary Perennial (Grasses		30–60	
	squirreltail	ELEL5	Elymus elymoides	3–12	_
	thickspike wheatgrass	ELLAL	Elymus lanceolatus ssp. lanceolatus	3–12	_
	basin wildrye	LECI4	Leymus cinereus	3–12	_
	bluebunch wheatgrass	PSSPS	Pseudoroegneria spicata ssp. spicata	3–12	_
Forb		•		•	
3	Perennial			36–108	
	tapertip hawksbeard	CRAC2	Crepis acuminata	12–30	_
	lupine	LUPIN	Lupinus	3–12	_
	phlox	PHLOX	Phlox	3–12	_
	arrowleaf balsamroot	BASA3	Balsamorhiza sagittata	3–12	_
	thickspike wheatgrass	ELLAL	Elymus lanceolatus ssp. lanceolatus	3–12	_
Shrub	/Vine	•		•	
4	4 Primary Shrubs			132–210	
	Wyoming big sagebrush	ARTRW8	Artemisia tridentata ssp. wyomingensis	120–180	-
	spiny hopsage	GRSP	Grayia spinosa	12–30	_
5	Secondary Shrubs			29–78	
	yellow rabbitbrush	CHVI8	Chrysothamnus viscidiflorus	3–30	_
	Nevada jointfir	EPNE	Ephedra nevadensis	3–30	_
	antelope bitterbrush	PUTR2	Purshia tridentata	3–30	_
Tree	•	•		1	
6	Evergreen			3–12	
	Utah juniper	JUOS	Juniperus osteosperma	3–12	_

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.

Overgrazing leads to an increase in big sagebrush and a decline in understory plants like Indian ricegrass and needle-and-thread grass. Squirreltail and Sandberg bluegrass will increase temporarily with further degradation. Invasion of annual weedy forbs and cheatgrass could occur with further grazing degradation, leading to a decline in squirreltail and an increase in bare ground. A combination of overgrazing and prolonged drought may lead to soil redistribution, increased bare ground and a loss in plant production.

Thurber's needlegrass is an important forage source for livestock and wildlife in the arid regions of the West (Ganskopp 1988). Although the seeds are apparently not injurious, grazing animals avoid them when they begin to mature. Sheep, however, have been observed to graze the leaves closely, leaving stems untouched (Eckert and Spencer 1987). 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). Indian ricegrass is a deep-rooted, cool season perennial bunchgrass that is adapted primarily to well-drained soils. 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) also notes 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. The seed crop may be reduced where grazing is heavy (Bich et al. 1995). Additionally, heavy early spring grazing was found to reduce plant vigor and stand density (Stubbendieck et al. 1985). In eastern Idaho, productivity of Indian ricegrass was at least 10 times greater in undisturbed plots than in heavily grazed ones (Pearson 1976). Yet, Cook and Child (1971) found significant reduction in plant cover after 7 years of rest from heavy (90%) and moderate (60%) spring use. 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.

Needleandthread is a deep-rooted bunchgrass which depends upon seed for reproduction therefore on drier sites where seed production is variable it is easily removed by overgrazing (USDA 1988). Therefore it is considered not grazing tolerant in the arid west and will be one of the first grasses to decrease under heavy grazing pressure (Smoliak et al. 1972, Tueller and Blackburn 1974). Heavy grazing is likely to reduce basal area of these plants ((Smoliak et al. 1972).

Bottlebrush squirreltail, a minor component of this ecological site is a short lived perennial bunchgrass that is generally an early seral species (Jones 1998). It is thought to be grazing tolerant but will decrease in basal area with heavy grazing (Eckert and Spencer 1987). Its grazing tolerance is likely due to its morphology and early dormancy during the summer months (Wright 1967). Squirreltail is considered to be fair forage for livestock and wildlife until the heads develop (Dayton 1937). Squirreltail also exhibits traits that allow it to be a good competitor with cheatgrass (Bromus tectorum) and make it a viable option when rehabilitating invaded rangelands (Rowe and Leger 2010). Bluegrass is a widespread forage grass. It is one of the earliest grasses in the spring and is sought by domestic livestock and several wildlife species. Bluegrass is a palatable species, but its production is closely tied to weather conditions. It produces little forage in drought years, making it a less dependable food source than other perennial bunchgrasses.

Livestock browse Wyoming big sagebrush, but may use it only lightly when palatable herbaceous species are available. Spiny hopsage provides a palatable and nutritious food source for livestock, particularly during late winter through spring. Domestic sheep browse the succulent new growth of spiny hopsage in late winter and early spring. The majority of research concerning rabbitbrush has been conducted on green rabbitbrush. Green rabbitbrush has a large taproot and is known to be shorter-lived and less competitive than sagebrush. Seedling density, flower production, and shoot growth decline as competition from other species increases (McKell and Chilcote 1957, Miller et al. 2013, Young and Evans 1974). Depending on fire severity, rabbitbrush may increase after fire. Rubber rabbitbrush is top-killed by fire, but can resprout after fire and can also establish from seed (Young 1983). Douglas' rabbitbrush is top-killed by fire, but sprouts vigorously after fire (Kuntz 1982, Akinsoji 1988). Shortened fire intervals within this ecological site favor an annual invasive herbaceous understory with varying amounts of Sandberg bluegrass and an overstory of rabbitbrush.

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:

Many wildlife species are dependent on the sagebrush ecosystem including the greater sage grouse, sage sparrow, pygmy rabbit and the sagebrush vole. Dobkin and Sauder (2004) identified 61 animal species, including 24 mammals and 37 birds, associated with the shrub-steppe habitats of the Intermountain West. Wyoming big sagebrush communities are important winter ranges for big game (Allen et al 1984, Tweit and Houston 1980). The literature is unclear as to the palatability of Wyoming big sagebrush. Generally, Wyoming sagebrush is the least palatable of the big sagebrush taxa (Bray et al 1991, Sheehy and Winward 1981) however it may receive light or moderate use depending upon the amount of understory herbaceous cover (Tweit and Houston 1980). Personius et al (1987) found Wyoming big sagebrush and basin big sagebrush to be intermediately palatable to mule deer when compared to mountain big sagebrush (most palatable) and black sagebrush (least palatable). Pronghorn usually browse Wyoming big sagebrush heavily.

Sagebrush-grassland communities provide critical sage-grouse breeding and nesting habitats. Open Wyoming sagebrush communities are preferred nesting habitat. 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.

Spiny hopsage provides a palatable and nutritious food source for big game animals. Spiny hopsage is used as forage to at least some extent by domestic goats, deer, pronghorn, and rabbits. Thurber needlegrass is valuable forage for wildlife. Indian ricegrass is eaten by pronghorn in "moderate" amounts whenever available. In Nevada it is consumed by desert bighorns. A number of heteromyid rodents inhabiting desert rangelands show preference for seed of Indian ricegrass. Indian ricegrass is an important component of jackrabbit diets in spring and summer. In Nevada, Indian ricegrass may even dominate jackrabbit diets during the spring through early summer months. Indian ricegrass seed provides food for many species of birds. Doves, for example, eat large amounts of shattered Indian ricegrass seed lying on the ground. Needleandthread is moderately important spring forage for mule deer, but use declines considerably as more preferred forages become available. Bluegrass is also an important forage species for several wildlife species.

Hydrological functions

Runoff is medium to very high. Permeability is slow to moderate. Rills are none to rare. Water flow patterns are rare. Pedestals are rare. Occurrence is usually limited to areas of water flow patterns. Frost heaving of shallow rooted plants should not be considered an indicator of soil erosion. Gullies are none. Perennial herbaceous plants (especially deep-rooted bunchgrasses [i.e., Thurber's needlegrass & Indian ricegrass]) slow runoff and increase infiltration. Shrub canopy and associated litter break raindrop impact and provide opportunity for snow catch and accumulation on site.

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. Some Native American peoples traditionally ground parched seeds of spiny hopsage to make pinole flour. 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. Spiny hopsage has moderate potential for erosion control and low to high potential for long-term revegetation projects. It can improve forage, control wind erosion, and increase soil stability on gentle

to moderate slopes. Spiny hopsage is suitable for highway plantings on dry sites in Nevada. Needleandthread grass is useful for stabilizing eroded or degraded sites.

Type locality

Location 1: White Pine County, NV		
Township/Range/Section T16N R57E S18		
Latitude	39° 15′ 5″	
Longitude	115° 35′ 55″	
General legal description	About 2 miles northwest of Monte Cristo on the west side of White Pine Range, extreme south end of Newark Valley, White Pine County, Nevada. This site also occurs in Elko and Eureka Counties, Nevada.	

Other references

Allen, Arthur W.; Cook, John G.; Armbruster, Michael J. 1984. Habitat suitability index models: Pronghorn. FWS/OBS-82/10.65. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of the Interior, Fish and Wildlife Service. 22 p.

Baker, W. L. 2006. Fire and restoration of sagebrush ecosystems. Wildlife Society Bulletin 34:177-185.

Bates, J. D., Svejcar, T., Miller, R. F., & Angell, R. A. 2006. The effects of precipitation timing on sagebrush steppe vegetation. Journal of Arid Environments, 64(4): 670-697.

Balch, J. K., B. A. Bradley, C. M. D'Antonio, and J. Gómez-Dans. 2013. Introduced annual grass increases regional fire activity across the arid western USA (1980–2009). Global Change Biology 19:173-183.

Bentz, B., D. Alston, and T. Evans. 2008. Great Basin Insect Outbreaks. Pages 45-48 in CollaborativeManagement and Research in the Great Basin -- Examining the issues and developing a framework for action Gen. Tech. Rep. RMRS-GTR-204. U.S. Department of Agriculture, Forest Service, Rocky Mountain Research Station, Fort Collins, CO.

Bich, B.S., J.L. Butler, and C.A. Schmidt. 1995. Effects of differential livestock use of key plant species and rodent populations within selected Oryzopsis hymenoides/Hilaria jamesii communities in Glen Canyon National Recreation Area. The Southwestern Naturalist 40(3):281-287.

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.

Bradley, A., Noste, N. and Fischer, W. 1992. Fire ecology of forests and woodlands in Utah. USDA Forest Service, Intermountain Research Station, General Technical Report INT-287, 92 pp.

Bray, Robert O.; Wambolt, Carl L.; Kelsey, Rick G. 1991. Influence of sagebrush terpenoids on mule deer preference. Journal of Chemical Ecology. 17(11): 2053-2062.

Britton, C.M., G.R. McPherson, and F.A. Sneva. 1990. Effects of burning and clipping on five bunchgrasses in eastern Oregon. The Great Basin Naturalist 50(2):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. Gen. Tech. Rep. INT-231. Ogden, UT: U.S. Department of Agriculture, Forest Service, Intermountain Research Station. 33 p.

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.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.

Comstock, J.P. and J.R. Ehleringer. 1992. Plant adaptation in the Great Basin and Colorado Plateau. The Great Basin Naturalist 52: 195-215.

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(5):339-343.

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.

Davies, K. W., J. D. Bates, and R. F. Miller. 2006. Vegetation Characteristics across Part of the Wyoming Big Sagebrush Alliance. Rangeland Ecology & Management 59:567-575.

Dayton, W.A. (Ld.) 1937. Range Plant Handbook. USDA Forest Serv. U.S. Gov. Printing Office.

Eckert, R. E., Jr. & Johns S. Spencer. 1987. Growth and reproduction of grasses heavily grazed under rest-rotation management. Journal of Range Management 40:156-159.

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

Furniss, M. M. and W. F. Barr. 1975. Insects affecting important native shrubs of the northwestern United States. US Intermountain Forest And Range Experiment Station. USDA Forest Service General Technical Report INT INT-19. Hironaka, M. and E.W. Tisdale. 1972. Growth and development of Sitanion hystrix and Poa sandbergii. Research Memorandum RM 72-124. U.S. International Biological Program, Desert Biome 15 p.

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. Lett, M. S., and A. K. Knapp. 2005. Woody plant encroachment and removal in mesic grassland: Production and composition responses of herbaceous vegetation. American Midland Naturalist 153:217-231.

McKell, C.M.; Chilcote, W.W. 1957. Response to rabbtibrush following removal of competing vegetation. Journal of Range Management 10:228-230

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 53(6):574-585.

Miller, Richard F.; Chambers, Jeanne C.; Pyke, David A.; Pierson, Fred B.; Williams, C. Jason. 2013. A review of fire effects on vegetation and soils in the Great Basin Region: response and ecological site characteristics. Gen. Tech. Rep. RMRS-GTR-308. Fort Collins, CO: U.S. Department of Agriculture, Forest Service, Rocky Mountain Research Station. 126 p.

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/.

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

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.R

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

Pearson, L.C. 1976. Primary production in grazed and ungrazed desert communities of eastern Idaho. Ecology 46(3):278-285.

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

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

Rowe, C. L. J. and E. A. Leger. 2011. Competitive seedlings and inherited traits: a test of rapid evolution of Elymus multisetus (big squirreltail) in response to cheatgrass invasion. Evolutionary Applications 4:485-498.

Sheehy, D. P. and A. Winward. 1981. Relative palatability of seven Artemisia taxa to mule deer and sheep. Journal of Range Management:397-399.

Smoliak, S., J. F. Dormaar, and A. Johnston. 1972. Long-Term Grazing Effects on Stipa-Bouteloua Prairie Soils. Journal of Range Management 25:246-250.

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., J.T. Nichols, and K.K. Roberts. 1985. Nebraska range and pasture grasses (including grass-like plants). E.C. 85-170. Lincoln, NE: University of Nebraska, Department of Agriculture, Cooperative Extension Service. 75 p.

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.

Tweit, Susan J.; Houston, Kent E. 1980. Grassland and shrubland habitat types of the Shoshone National Forest. Cody, WY: U.S. Department of Agriculture, Forest Service, Shoshone National Forest. 143 p. USDA, Forest Service. 1988. Range Plant Handbook. Dover Publications, Inc. N.Y. p. 816

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

Vallentine, John F. 1989. Range Development and Improvements. Third Ed. Academic Press, Inc. San Diego, CA. p. 524.

West, N.E. and M.A. Hassan. 1985. Recovery of sagebrush-grass vegetation following wildfire. Journal of Range Management 38(2):131-134.

West, N.E. 1994. Effects of fire on salt-desert shrub rangelands. In: Monsen, S.B. and S.G. Kitchen (compilers). Proceedings--ecology and management of annual rangelands; 1992 May 18-22; Boise, ID. Gen. Tech. Rep. INT-GTR-313. Ogden, UT: U.S. Department of Agriculture, Forest Service, Intermountain Research Station: Pgs 71-74.

Wright, H. A. and J. O. Klemmedson. 1965. Effect of fire on bunchgrasses of the sagebrush-grass region in southern Idaho. Ecology:680-688.

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, J.A.; Evans, R.A. 1974. Populations dynamics of green rabbitbrush in disturbed big sagebrush communities. Journal of Range Management 27:127-132

Young, J.A. and R.A. Evans. 1977. Squirreltail seed germination. J. of Range Management 30(1):33-36.

Young, J.A., R.E. Eckert, Jr., R.A. Evans. 1979. Historical perspectives regarding the sagebrush ecosystem. In: The sagebrush ecosystem: a symposium: Proceedings; 1978 April; Logan, UT. Logan, UT: Utah State University, College of Natural Resources: 1-13.

Young, R.P. 1983. Fire as a vegetation management tool in rangelands of the Intermountain Region. In: Monsen, S.B. and N. Shaw (compilers). Managing Intermountain Rangelands--improvement of range and wildlife habitats: Proceedings; 1981 September 15-17; Twin Falls, ID; 1982 June 22-24; Elko, NV. Gen. Tech. Rep. INT-157. Ogden, UT: U.S. Department of Agriculture, Forest Service, Intermountain Forest and Range Experiment Station: Pgs 18-31.

Zlatnik, Elena. 1999. Hesperostipa comata. In: Fire Effects Information System, [Online]. U.S. Department of Agriculture, Forest Service, Rocky Mountain Research Station, Fire Sciences Laboratory (Producer). Available: http://www.fs.fed.us/database/feis/ [2014, May 8].

Contributors

RK

T. Stringham/P.Novak-Echenique E.Hourihan

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)	P. Novak-Echenique
Contact for lead author	State Rangeland Management Specialist
Date	09/24/2009
Approved by	
Approval date	
Composition (Indicators 10 and 12) based on	Annual Production

Indicators

1.	Number and extent of rills: Rills are none to rare. A few may occur on steeper slopes after summer convection sto	rms
	or rapid snowmelt.	

- 2. **Presence of water flow patterns:** Water flow patterns are none to rare. A few may occur on steeper slopes and are typically short (<1 m) and disconnected. They are meandering and are interrupted by plants.
- 3. **Number and height of erosional pedestals or terracettes:** Pedestals are rare. Occurrence is usually limited to areas of water flow patterns. Frost heaving of shallow rooted plants should not be considered an indicator of soil erosion.

4.	Bare ground from Ecological Site Description or other studies (rock, litter, lichen, moss, plant canopy are not
	bare ground): Bare Ground ± 10-20%.
5.	Number of gullies and erosion associated with gullies: Gullies are none.
6.	Extent of wind scoured, blowouts and/or depositional areas: None
7.	Amount of litter movement (describe size and distance expected to travel): Fine litter (foliage from grasses and annual & perennial forbs) expected to move distance of slope length during intense summer convection storms or rapid snowmelt events. Persistent litter (large woody material) will remain in place except during large rainfall events.
8.	Soil surface (top few mm) resistance to erosion (stability values are averages - most sites will show a range of values): Soil stability values should be 4 to 6 on most soil textures found on this site.
9.	Soil surface structure and SOM content (include type of structure and A-horizon color and thickness): Surface structure is typically weak, thin platy or fine granular. Soil surface colors are pale browns and soils have an ocrhic epipedon. Surface textures are sandy loams. Organic carbon of the surface 2 to 4 inches is typically less than 1.5 percent dropping off quickly below. Organic matter content can be more or less depending on micro-topography.
0.	Effect of community phase composition (relative proportion of different functional groups) and spatial distribution on infiltration and runoff: Perennial herbaceous plants (especially deep-rooted bunchgrasses [i.e., Thurber needlegrass & Indian ricegrass]) slow runoff and increase infiltration. Shrub canopy and associated litter break raindrop impact and provide opportunity for snow catch and accumulation on site.
1.	Presence and thickness of compaction layer (usually none; describe soil profile features which may be mistaken for compaction on this site): Compacted layers are none. Subangular blocky or massive sub-surface horizons and subsoil argillic horizons are not to be interpreted as compacted.
2.	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):
	Dominant: Reference State: Deep-rooted, cool season, perennial bunchgrasses (Indian ricegrass & Thurber needlegrass) > tall shrubs (big sagebrush & antelope bitterbrush)
	Sub-dominant: deep-rooted, cool season, perennial forbs = associated shrubs = shallow-rooted, cool season, perennial bunchgrasses > fibrous, shallow-rooted, cool season, perennial forbs = annual forbs
	Other: evergreen trees

Additional: With an extended fire return interval, the shrub and tree component will increase at the expense of the

	component will be greatly decreased.
13.	Amount of plant mortality and decadence (include which functional groups are expected to show mortality or decadence): Dead branches within individual shrubs common and standing dead shrub canopy material may be as much as 20% of total woody canopy; some of the mature bunchgrasses (<10%) have dead centers.
14.	Average percent litter cover (%) and depth (in): Between plant interspaces (±20-30%) and litter depth is ±1/4 inch.
15.	Expected annual annual-production (this is TOTAL above-ground annual-production, not just forage annual-production): For normal or average growing season (through mid-June) ±700 lbs/ac. Favorable years ±900 lbs/ac and unfavorable years ±450 lbs/ac.
16.	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: Potential invaders include cheatgrass, annual mustards, knapweeds and Russian thistle. With an extended fire return interval, singleleaf pinyon and Utah juniper will increase and potentially dominate this site.
17.	Perennial plant reproductive capability: All functional groups should reproduce in average (or normal) and above average growing season years. Reduced growth and reproduction will occur during extreme or extended drought conditions.

herbaceous component. Singleleaf pinyon and Utah juniper will eventually dominate this site and the understory