

1 Fingerprinting changes in source contribution for evaluating soil response
2 during an exceptional rainfall in Spanish Pre-Pyrenees

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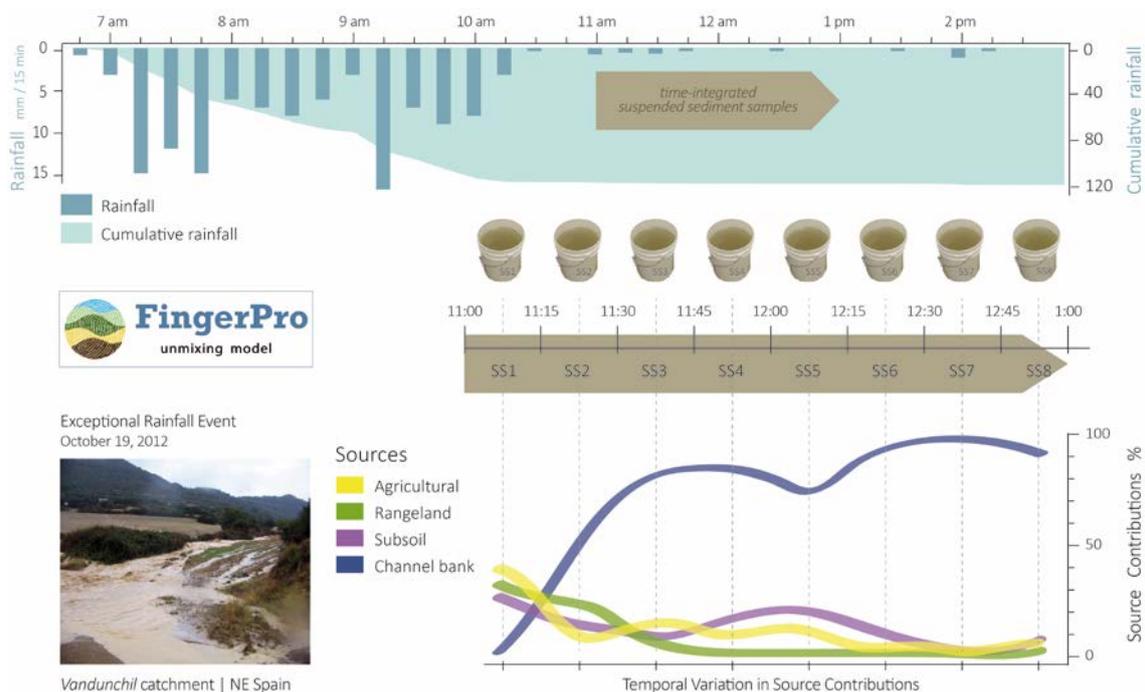
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12 **Graphical Abstract**



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14

15 **Highlights**

16 • Unique opportunity to capture soil response during an exceptional event of 235 mm

17 • Suspended sediment properties changed during the flood event

- 18 • Source contributions varied in response to the rainstorm in a short period
- 19 • Switch from soil sources to channel bank provenance was captured during the flood
- 20 • Land use and connectivity determined the suspended sediment provenance

21

22 **Abstract**

23 In the Mediterranean region, floods are expected to increase as a result of climate
24 change and knowledge of soil erosion hot spots during exceptional rainfalls is required
25 to support mitigation measures. This study quantifies the main sediment sources during
26 an exceptional rainfall event in 2012 (235 mm) at the outlet of two catchments located
27 in NE Spain. To this purpose, suspended sediments were collected during the flood
28 event, complemented with entrapped sediments in mat taken one year after the event.
29 We used fingerprinting methodology and applied the FingerPro unmixing model to
30 estimate the contribution from main sources. The selected tracers clearly distinguished
31 agricultural, rangeland, subsoil and channel banks as the four potential sources in both
32 catchments. In the *Vandunchil* catchment, the 8 time-integrated suspended sediment
33 samples revealed changes in source contribution during the 2-hour sampling sequence.
34 There were relatively high contributions from rangeland, agriculture and subsoil at the
35 beginning of the sampling, representing 30, 40 and 35% of the total source
36 contributions, respectively. Our records captured the delivery of pulses of eroded
37 surface soil transported by runoff with direct connectivity to the stream. The sequence
38 was followed by a sharp increase in channel bank contribution (up to 90%) in
39 comparison to the other sources, reflecting streambank erosion and landslide
40 occurrence, which manifested during the flood. In contrast, in the *La Reina* catchment,
41 agricultural soils contributed the most (65%) and, together with subsoils (32%), were
42 the main sources. These results reflect the effect of the higher connectivity and slope

43 gradient of these cultivated fields of the *La Reina* catchment in comparison with those
44 of the *Vandunchil* catchment.

45 We discuss the possibility of using different properties, such as radionuclides,
46 geochemistry and magnetic measurements, as tracers to distinguish between potential
47 sources during an exceptional event in upland Mediterranean catchments. Our results
48 support the use of fingerprinting techniques to determine variations in source
49 contribution and sediment provenance during flood events, as extreme rainfalls are main
50 drivers of sediment mobilization and key factors in changing landscapes. This is
51 essential in identifying vulnerable hot spots, in which early-stage interventions are
52 needed, and for helping policy makers with management of soil and water resources.

53

54 **Keywords:** Flood event; source provenance; suspended sediments; FingerPro model

55

56 **1. Introduction**

57 Exceptional rainfall events trigger large floods that result in severe soil and nutrient
58 losses, important geomorphological changes. In general, during exceptional and extreme
59 rainfall events with recurrence intervals of approximately 100 and more than 500 years,
60 respectively, entire catchments are activated and extreme soil erosion and shallow
61 landslides occur (Gonzalez-Hidalgo et al., 2013). The transport of enormous amounts of
62 sediment produces severe soil and nutrient losses in some areas and sediment
63 accumulation in others. The hydrological response of a catchment is related to the
64 individual rainfall event and the characteristics of the catchment, such as water storage
65 in the soil, antecedent soil moisture, land use, vegetation cover, topography and
66 manmade infrastructures (Latron et al., 2008).

67 Erosion largely depends on a variety of factors, such as land use type, terrain,
68 vegetation cover and type, inherent soil erodibility and intensity of erosive forces (e.g.
69 Navas et al., 2008). Therefore, to control soil erosion, it is important to identify the most
70 vulnerable areas that correspond with potential sources of mobilised sediments. Fine
71 material in suspension is the major transport mechanism of particulate material in
72 streams worldwide, typically comprising more than 90% of the annual load in alluvial
73 streams (Meade et al., 1990). Lana-Renault et al. (2007) highlighted the importance of
74 considering the changing locations of contributing areas of sediment during long-lasting
75 rainstorms for understanding the complex hydrological and geomorphological
76 behaviour of catchments. In Mediterranean environments, several studies have
77 demonstrated that soils and vegetation cover are major factors explaining hydrological
78 and sedimentological response caused by rainfall for different temporal and spatial
79 scales (García-Ruiz, 2010).

80 Knowledge of sediment provenance is a key factor in understanding sediment
81 transport and delivery processes (Walling, 2005). The fingerprinting technique has been
82 successfully used to identify sediment sources in different physiographical regions
83 around the world (Blake et al., 2012; Walling, 2013; Owens et al., 2016). The method
84 assumes that the relative importance of potential sources can be determined by
85 comparing several fingerprints in suspended sediment with those in potential sources.
86 To document the suspended sediment provenance, tracer property values for the various
87 potential sources are used in a mass balance equation to determine their relative
88 contribution to the mixed signature in a suspended sediment sample (Collins and
89 Walling, 2004). Different types of tracers have been used in published research
90 including geochemistry (Lacey et al., 2015; Gaspar et al., 2019), radionuclides
91 (Wallbrink et al., 1998; Collins and Walling, 2002; Gellis et al., 2017), colour

92 (Martínez-Carreras et al., 2010a; Pulley and Rowntree 2016; Barthod et al., 2015),
93 mineral magnetism (Oldfield and Wu, 2000; Rowntree et al., 2017), stable isotopes
94 (Revel-Rolland et al., 2005) and biomarkers (Hancock and Revill, 2013).

95 Research on sediment characteristics, including their sources and yields, can clarify
96 the physical and chemical properties of eroded soil, the potential nutrients and
97 pollutants associated, the transport and redistribution mechanisms and relationships
98 among sediment sources, sinks and outputs in rivers (Walling, 2005; Gellis and
99 Mukundan, 2013). The use of the fingerprinting technique for tracing soil and sediment
100 source response during rainstorms has received less attention compared with previous
101 studies documenting deposited flood sediments (Walling, 2013), partly due to the large
102 volumes of sample required to obtain sufficient sediment for tracing in a single, high-
103 rosivity flood event. Several studies have examined the potential for sediment
104 fingerprinting for recording single-erosion events using time-integrated samplers
105 (Martínez-Mena et al., 2010b; Cooper et al., 2014; Gellis et al., 2017; Rose et al., 2018).
106 However, although a number of studies have successfully applied various tracers to
107 discriminate potential source materials and investigated the temporal variations of
108 suspended sediment properties during rainfall events (Walling and Webb, 1982;
109 Horowitz et al., 2008), not many studies have captured temporal variation in sediment
110 sources in an effective way.

111 In this study, we aim to identify the temporal dynamics of sediment sources by
112 unmixing suspended sediments collected during an exceptional rainfall event that
113 occurred in 2012 in two adjacent mountain catchments in Northern Spain. Our main
114 purposes are: i) to describe the temporal variations of suspended sediment properties
115 during the time-integrated sampling, ii) to determine the contributions of the potential
116 sources for the suspended sediments and capture any temporal variations, and iii) to

117 compare the response of sediment sources to the exceptional rainfall event with records
118 occurring during more typical events by using sediment entrapped in mats samples.

119

120 **2. Study area**

121 The study was undertaken in two adjacent catchments located in the northern part
122 of the Ebro River Basin, Spain (Fig 1): *Vandunchil* catchment (15.3 km²) and *La Reina*
123 catchment (1.8 km²). The difference between the catchments lies largely in land use
124 distribution, slope gradients and hydrological connectivity.

125 The mean annual precipitation for the study area is around 500 mm (Quijano et al.,
126 2016). The hydrological regime is characterised by ephemeral streams and no
127 permanent rivers. Regular stream floods result from storms in late summer and autumn,
128 together with spring rains. The study catchments are ungauged and discharge data are
129 not available. Geomorphological features are conditioned by sub-horizontal
130 stratification of the lithostratigraphic units of the Uncastillo Formation.

131 The land use is primarily rangeland and agriculture land. Winter barley (e.g.
132 *Hordeum vulgare*) is the main crop in the cultivated areas. Rangeland is mostly
133 represented by scrubland, including patches of natural Mediterranean forest (e.g.
134 *Quercus coccifera* L.) and pine afforestation areas (e.g. *Pinus halepensis* Mill.) that are
135 restricted to the upper parts of the catchments.

136 The agricultural intensification increased connectivity due to enhanced overland
137 flow favouring gullying, stream incision, formation of channel banks and severe soil
138 erosion processes (Lizaga et al., 2019). On the other hand, the subsequent land
139 abandonment of some areas, in addition to the natural revegetation and pine
140 afforestation over the steep slopes during the past century, have significantly affected

141 the runoff response, reducing the connectivity and water erosion of these areas (Ligaza
142 et al., 2018).

143 The *Vandunchil* catchment has 82% of its surface area (12.6 km²) occupied by
144 rangeland and 15% (2.3 km²) by agriculture fields located in alluvial valley floors with
145 gentle slopes. Rangeland occupies steep-slope areas at the headwaters, with an
146 abundance of pine afforestation on terraces at the highest altitudes. The *La Reina*
147 catchment is occupied by nearly 40% (0.8 km²) agriculture lands developed on
148 Quaternary steep glacia, while rangeland (1 km²) occupies intermediate altitudes with
149 less terracing. Geomorphic features related to enhanced runoff (e.g. incised stream
150 banks) are less common in the *La Reina* catchment.

151

152 **3. Material and methods**

153 *3.1 The exceptional rainfall event*

154 In 2012, an exceptional rainfall, and subsequent flood, event occurred in the
155 central-western Pyrenees with rainfall totalling approximately 235 mm in a two-day
156 period, from October 19-21, 2012. The event was recorded using a tipping bucket rain
157 gauge. The precipitation at the study site coincides with that measured at the Yesa
158 weather station (WS) (217.2 mm, with measurements taken every 15 minutes) located
159 20-km north of the study site.

160 The event began at 6:45 am. A total of 121 mm of rain accumulated in less than 5
161 hours, with a peak intensity of 17 mm/15 min at 9:15 am, two hours before the sampling
162 started. Stream response time, based on local observations of flooding, was estimated at
163 1-2 hours after storms (resident personal communication). Figure 2 shows the
164 hydrograph for Yesa WS during the event. No human lives were lost, although the

165 floods destroyed roads, enlarged some parts of the alluvial plain and caused landslides
166 in the channel banks (Fig. 3).

167

168 3.2 Sampling collection

169 Potential source materials were sampled across the two catchments. After several
170 field inspections, four primary sediment sources were identified: (1) agricultural topsoil,
171 (2) rangeland topsoil, (3) bare subsoil surfaces exposed to erosion, and (4) channel
172 banks. The number of samples obtained was approximately proportional to the area
173 occupied by each source type (Fig. 1). Surface soils were sampled using cylindrical
174 cores 5 cm long and 6 cm in diameter. Three samples were obtained at each site to
175 create composite samples that were combined in the field. For the *Vandunchil*
176 catchment, a total of 106 source samples were collected as follows: agricultural (11),
177 rangeland (78), subsoil (7) and channel banks (10), respectively. For the *La Reina*
178 catchment, a total of 43 source samples were obtained: agricultural (20), rangeland (14),
179 subsoil (6) and channel banks (3).

180 The set of downstream sediment mixtures comprised 10 suspended sediment (SS)
181 samples collected during the flood event, and another four sediment samples entrapped
182 in mats (SM) collected in 2013, one year after the event. The suspended sediment
183 samples were collected *in situ* at the outlet of both ungauged catchments (see Fig 2). A
184 total of 10 grab samples of stream water were collected periodically during the flood.
185 Eight 5-L bucket samples were taken every 15 minutes during a 2-hour period at the
186 outlet of the *Vandunchil* catchment, and two buckets were taken at the outlet of the *La*
187 *Reina* catchment. In November 2012, after the storm event, 4 sediment trap sites were
188 installed for the two catchments: three in the *Vandunchil* catchment and one at the outlet
189 of the *La Reina* catchment (Fig. 1). Each individual trap site consisted of three pieces of

190 artificial turf (25 x 40 cm²) secured to the surface with 10-cm long steel pins. A total of
191 12 sediment mat traps were in place for nearly one year, during which no additional
192 exceptional events occurred.

193

194 3.3 Lab analyses

195 The sediment source, SS and SSC samples were air-dried, gently disaggregated,
196 and sieved to <63 µm. The suspended sediments (SS) were obtained by decanting the
197 water contained in the 5-L buckets, and the suspended sediment concentration (SSC)
198 was measured after filtering the water samples and drying the residue. Sediments
199 entrapped in mats (SM) were extracted from the artificial turf.

200 Gamma emissions of ¹³⁷Cs, ²²⁶Ra, ²³⁸U, ²³²Th, and ⁴⁰K were measured using a
201 Canberra Xtra high-resolution, low-background, hyperpure germanium coaxial gamma
202 detector (50% efficiency, 1.9-keV resolution) (Navas et al., 2013). Count times over a
203 24-hr period provided an analytical precision of about ±3-10% at a 95% level of
204 confidence. The radionuclide activities are expressed as Bq kg⁻¹ dry soil.

205 Elemental geochemistry was analysed by X-ray fluorescence (XRF) using a
206 Thermo Fisher Scientific Niton XL3T 950 He GOLDD XRF analyser. Samples were
207 packed into XRF sample cups with a 38.2-mm exposure diameter which permits the X-
208 Ray pulse (3-mm diameter) to strike the surface of the sample. Helium was used to
209 allow measurement of light elements, resulting in 18 elements with measurements
210 above the detection limit (Ba, Nb, Zr, Sr, Rb, Pb, Zn, Fe, Cr, V, Ti, Ca, K, Al, P, Si, S,
211 and Mg). Analytical quality controls recorded a very low drift of less than 1%. The
212 mass concentration is expressed as ppm.

213 Low-frequency magnetic susceptibility (LF) was determined using a Bartington
214 susceptibility meter. The content of soil organic carbon (SOC) was measured by using a

215 dry-combustion method LECO RC-612 multiphase carbon analyser (LECO
 216 Corporation, St. Joseph, MI, USA). Particle size analyses were performed using a
 217 Coulter LS 13 320 laser diffraction particle size analyser (Beckman Coulter, Inc., 2011),
 218 after eliminating the organic matter.

219

220 *3.4 Fingerprinting procedure*

221 Standard statistical tests were used for selecting the optimal tracers (Palazón et
 222 al., 2015, Gaspar et al., 2019). The FingerPro unmixing model (Lizaga et al., 2018a)
 223 was used for estimating the contributions of sediment sources in the SS and SM
 224 samples. A total of 42 simulations were performed, evaluating three different sets of
 225 tracers: i) including P, ii) excluding P, and iii) including SOC and P.

226 FingerPro is a standard linear multivariate unmixing model with Monte Carlo
 227 uncertainty analysis implemented in an open-source R package within the CRAN
 228 platform (Lizaga et al., 2018a). The relative contribution of each sediment source is
 229 determined following equation 1, which satisfies the constraints of equation 2:

$$230 \sum_{j=1}^m a_{i,j} \cdot \omega_j = b_i$$

$$231 \sum_{j=1}^m \omega_j = 1 \quad 0 \leq \omega_j \leq 1,$$

232 where b_i is the tracer property i ($i = 1$ to n) of the sediment mixture, $a_{i,j}$ represents the
 233 tracer property i in the source type j ($j = 1$ to m), ω_j is the unknown relative contribution
 234 of the source type j , m represents the number of potential sediment sources and n is the
 235 number of tracer properties selected. The procedure aims to find the source proportions
 236 that conserve the mass balance, where apportionments must lie between 0 and 1 and
 237 sum 1, expressed in % (i.e. between 0 and 100, sum of 100). The source contributions
 238 estimated by the FingerPro model were expressed as the mean source contribution (pie-

239 chart) and the frequency distribution (violin plot) of the best 100 solutions predicted by
240 the model.

241

242 **4. Results**

243 *4.1 Characteristics of the sediment sources and mixtures*

244 The most abundant element in the sediment sources was Si, with a maximum
245 content of 251,272 ppm. Other major elements were Ca, Al, Fe, and K (9,037-251,272
246 ppm), followed by Mg, P, Ti, Sr and Mn (109-7,528 ppm). Contents of Ba, Zr, Rb, Zn,
247 Cr, and V ranged from 30 to 559 ppm and the trace elements Pb and Nb were below 33
248 ppm. The LF value ranged from 5 to 146 10^{-8} m³ kg⁻¹, and SOC content varied from
249 undetectable to 7%. The mass activity of ¹³⁷Cs ranged from 0 to 33 Bq kg⁻¹, the mean
250 activity of ⁴⁰K reached 500 Bq kg⁻¹, while the mean activities of ²²⁶Ra, ²³²Th and ²³⁸U
251 were lower than 50 Bq kg⁻¹, falling within ranges of similar soils (Navas et al., 2005).

252 Most sediment source properties had similar ranges in both catchments, although
253 the mean values of ¹³⁷Cs, LF and SOC were nearly twice in *Vandunchil* catchment than
254 in *La Reina* catchment. For the sediment mixtures, most suspended sediment properties
255 fell within the 5th-95th percentile range of values found in the source groups. However,
256 sediments entrapped in mats had a larger number of properties with values outside the
257 sediment source ranges (e.g. Al, Fe, Rb, Zn, Mn, or ⁴⁰K) (Table 1).

258 During the time-integrated sampling sequence (SS1 to SS8) at the outlet of
259 *Vandunchil* catchment, activities of ¹³⁷Cs, ⁴⁰K, ²³⁸U, ²²⁶Ra, ²³²Th and LF values
260 decreased, with the exception of a sharp increase in SS3 related to an increase in
261 contents of Ca, Se, Zr, P and sand fraction (Fig. 4). There was also a clear decreasing
262 trend in SOC, Al, Fe K, Mg, Rb, Zn, V, and clay content. In contrast, Si, Ca, Sr, P, Zr,
263 and sand content increased, while Ti, Nb, and Pb varied little. The suspended sediment

264 concentration was lower at the beginning of the sampling sequence (7.3 gL⁻¹ in SS1)
265 and progressively increased to concentrations up to 26.5 gL⁻¹ in SS8 (Fig. 4).

266 In *La Reina* catchment, there were no differences in most properties apart from a
267 slight increase in Mg, Se, and Ca, and a slight decrease in Ba, Mn, and Nb contents. The
268 SSC was 19.3 and 17.9 gL⁻¹ in SS1' and SS2', respectively.

269

270 4.2 Source discrimination and tracer selection

271 Almost 75% and 50% of the sediment source properties were significantly different
272 between the four source groups at the *Vandunchil* and *La Reina* catchment, respectively
273 (Table 1). In the *Vandunchil* catchment, agricultural soils had significantly higher mean
274 contents of P and clay fraction than the other sources. Rangeland soils were
275 characterised by the highest means of ¹³⁷Cs, SOC, Si, Fe, Cr and Pb, but had
276 significantly lower contents of Ca, Sr, and Ba than in subsoils. Subsoils recorded the
277 highest contents of Ca, K, Mg, Sr, Ba, Rb, and V, and the lowest of P, SOC, Mn, and Zr
278 contents. Channel banks had significantly lower mean of Fe, Ti, Cr, Zn, and clay
279 contents than the other sources. Like subsoil and agricultural soils, channel banks had
280 also low SOC and high Zr contents. Similarly to subsoils, channel banks had low LF
281 and ¹³⁷Cs activity (Table 1).

282 In *La Reina* catchment, agricultural soils had significantly higher mean P and ²²⁶Ra
283 contents than the other sources, while the highest ¹³⁷Cs and SOC were in rangeland
284 soils. Subsoils registered significantly higher means of Mg, Sr, and sand content but
285 lower mean of SOC, P, LF, and Ti than the other sources. Channel banks were enriched
286 in Ti and Zr, similar to rangeland soils, and in Ba similar to subsoils. However, mean Cr
287 content was significantly lower than in the other sources (Table 1).

288 Different properties, in number and type, were selected as optimum composite
289 fingerprint tracers (Table 2). For the *Vandunchil* catchment, the first seven suspended
290 sediment samples (SS1 to SS7) had the same 9 optimum fingerprints. In most cases,
291 ^{137}Cs and LF were the selected tracers, followed by Fe (except for SS8 and SM), Ba and
292 Cr (except for SM1), P (except for SM2), and Ca (except for SM3). Tracers like Ti and
293 V were also selected for most sediment mixtures except for SM1 and SM3. For the *La*
294 *Reina* catchment, fewer properties met the selection criteria, but similar to the
295 *Vandunchil* catchment, ^{137}Cs , Ba, Ti, and P were the selected tracers, along with Mg. In
296 addition, tracers like Zr and Sr were used for SS1' and SS2'.

297 Both catchments showed a clear discrimination between the four sources (Fig. 5).
298 Discriminant function analysis (DFA) plots show a clear distinction between subsoils
299 and channel banks. Differences were less clear between agricultural and rangeland soils
300 because overlapping occurred for some samples, especially in the *Vandunchil*
301 catchment. Despite that, for both catchments, DFA step-wise produced a set of tracers
302 that allowed correct classification of 100% of the channel bank samples, 98% of
303 subsoils and around 90% of agricultural and rangeland soils.

304

305 *4.3 Source contributions for the suspended sediments*

306 In the *Vandunchil* catchment, the source provenance for the time-integrated
307 sampling varied greatly from SS1 to SS3, with little variations observed from SS4 to
308 SS8. The contribution from agricultural and rangeland soils decreased exponentially
309 during the sampling sequence. A similar decreasing pattern, but less evident, occurred
310 for the subsoil contributions (Fig. 6). However, apportions from channel bank had a
311 clear exponential increase from SS1 to SS8.

312 The dispersion of the source contributions varied from low SD values (0.7 %) up to
313 19% (Table 3). Agricultural and rangeland soils yielded the highest SDs in SS1 to SS3,
314 but the lowest in SS4 to SS8. The SDs for subsoil were consistently around 7%, while
315 channel bank saw a low SD in SS1 and high SDs in SS2 to SS8. These results changed
316 when P was excluded as an optimum tracer, resulting in increased uncertainty for all
317 sources. Inclusion of SOC did not affect uncertainty estimates (Table 3).

318 The frequency distributions of the estimated subsoil contributions showed narrow,
319 symmetrical and unimodal distributions. Agricultural and rangeland contributions for
320 SS1 showed symmetrical frequency distributions, while for SS6 to SS8 the symmetrical
321 distributions were less clear. A multimodal pattern was observed in SS3 for the
322 agricultural soils (Fig 6).

323 In the *La Reina* catchment, similar source contributions were estimated for SS1'
324 and SS2'. The agricultural soils contributed the most, more than doubling the subsoils
325 apportionments. The rangeland soils and channel bank together, contributed less than 2% and
326 7% for SS1' and SS2', respectively. The range of solutions varied little (SD from 1.7 to
327 9%), especially for SS1' with SD values lower than 6.5%. The frequency distribution
328 for agricultural soils and subsoil was symmetrical and unimodal, whereas for rangeland
329 soils and channel bank was less symmetric but narrow enough (Fig. 7).

330

331 *4.4 Source contributions for the sediment entrapped in mats*

332 Different source contributions, depending on the location of the mats, were
333 observed in the *Vandunchil* catchment. Sediment mat SM1, located upstream of SM2,
334 recorded channel bank as the main apportionment. In contrast, SM2 showed that subsoil was
335 the main contributing source, with around 20% sourced from channel bank. The
336 dispersion of the results was higher in SM2 than in SM1, but with SD lower than 7% for

337 most estimated source contributions, apart from channel bank and subsoil in SM2 (Fig.
338 6). After several trials, it was not possible to unmix SM3.

339 At the outlet of the *La Reina* catchment, SM1' showed similar source contributions
340 to the suspended sediment samples SS1' and SS2' (Fig. 7). Agricultural soil was the
341 predominant source and contributed almost three times more than subsoil. However, the
342 contribution of rangeland soils and channel bank in SM1' was at least twice as much as
343 the contribution recorded for SS1' and SS2' (Table 4). Despite similarities between the
344 results obtained for suspended sediments and the sediment entrapped in mats, SM1' had
345 wider and less symmetric frequency distributions than those of the suspended sediments
346 samples (Fig. 7).

347

348 **5. Discussion**

349 *5.1 Optimum composite fingerprints*

350 The capability of ^{137}Cs in discriminating between sediment sources is a result of
351 large differences between ^{137}Cs activities in the soil sources. The high ^{137}Cs mass
352 activity in rangeland reflects the effect of vegetation cover's protection of the soil
353 surface while the low content in agricultural soils is due to dilution by mixing during
354 tillage (Gaspar et al., 2013). For the other sources, the absence of the radionuclide is
355 consistent with erosion of topsoil layers in subsoil, while verticality of channel banks
356 prevents ^{137}Cs tagging with the bank materials. Large contents of Sr, Ca, Ba, Mg, V,
357 and K in subsoil are related to the carbonatic characteristics of parent materials, which
358 concentrate these elements (Navas and Machín, 2002), but also to the high capacity of
359 clay minerals to absorb these elements (Kabata-Pendias and Pendias, 2001; Navas and
360 Lindhorfer, 2003). The low Ti content in subsoil might reflect the effects of weathering.
361 As Ti minerals are very stable, the loss of some clay-size layered silicates might

362 increase the amount of Ti in the upper soil horizons (Kabata-Pendias and Pendias,
363 2001). Therefore, the better-developed and undisturbed soils, such as in rangeland
364 sources, could be more enriched in Ti than eroded areas, represented by subsoil.

365 Differences in Fe between sources are likely related to oxides and hydroxides that
366 are more abundant in better-developed soils, which predominate in rangeland. The
367 highest SOC contents and LF values in rangeland are in agreement with significant
368 positive correlations between SOC and magnetic properties, also reported by Quijano et
369 al. (2014) and confirm the potential for using magnetic properties in tracking soil
370 degradation in this environment. Mineral magnetism was also successfully applied as a
371 single tracer for suspended sediments samples collected through consecutive storm
372 events in South Africa (Rowntree et al., 2017).

373 Though controversies about the use of nutrients as tracers persist, largely due to
374 their potentially non-conservative behaviour during transport (Withers and Jarvie, 2008;
375 Koiter et al., 2013), P is used to investigate the contribution of sediment related to
376 agricultural activities (Walling et al., 2008) and can track cropland or pasture erosion
377 (Ben Slimane et al., 2013; Lamba et al., 2015). We used P and SOC because of the short
378 transport length, the brief duration of the sampling sequence, and the rapid flood that
379 prevented soil storage (Blake et al., 2006).

380 Both P and SOC are of value for distinguishing between sources. The benefits of
381 including them as tracers relate to providing less variability to the source contributions
382 (Tables 3 and 4, see GOF values). The significantly higher content of P in agricultural
383 soils than in the other sources supports its likely origin from fertilisers. In addition,
384 alkaline soils in the study area, with low SOC and secondary accumulation of
385 carbonates, may play an important role in the equilibria between the particulate and

386 dissolved P fractions through the possible presence in our soils of the carbonate-
387 fluorapatite mineral ($\text{Ca}_5(\text{PO}_4, \text{CO}_3)(\text{OH}, \text{F})$) (Vidal, 1988).

388 The high values of Ca, P, and sand content that peak in SS3, in coincidence with
389 low clay content, denote a common mineral origin. The increase of P and Ca from SS4
390 to SS8, in which we estimated a clear predominance of channel bank soil contribution
391 also supports a mineral origin for P. Further, the enriched Ca content in subsoil and
392 channel banks, in line with the presence of Ca in different forms, increases the soil
393 retention capacity of P, which binds readily to Ca. Other soil characteristics, like SOC,
394 pH, and texture, also influence the availability of P in soil (i.e. finer textures have a
395 greater capacity to replace P than coarser textures). Furthermore, sediment deposition in
396 channel beds, and subsequent remobilization, exert an important influence on the
397 transport and fate of particulate P in catchments (Owens and Walling, 2002). Jarvie et
398 al. (2005) observed that P stored in sediments can be re-released as dissolved P after
399 reduction, though such releases would make small changes to the overall P signature at
400 our scale. Further, soil erosion processes have also been shown to affect the partitioning
401 of P between dissolved vs. particulate forms during runoff events (Huisman et al., 2013)

402 Our results are in agreement with the developing idea that tracer selection should be
403 also supported by knowledge of hydrological, geomorphological, and geochemical
404 processes controlling tracer behaviour. Other studies also support the selection of
405 appropriate soil properties as fingerprinting tracers not solely on the basis of statistical
406 procedures (e.g., Smith et al., 2018).

407

408 *5.2 Source contribution variations during the flood event*

409 A varied response to the rainfall event and runoff was clearly detected between the
410 two adjacent study catchments, reflecting, among others, differences in land use,

411 physiography and connectivity in the catchments. To this respect, in the *La Reina*
412 catchment, agricultural soils are the major source of suspended sediments because of its
413 higher connectivity and steeper slopes of cultivated fields in contrast with the
414 *Vandunchil* catchment.

415 In the *Vandunchil* catchment at the beginning of the extreme flood, agricultural and
416 rangeland topsoils were primary sources, along with subsoil. However, as the event
417 progressed, channel bank become the main source. The agricultural contribution in
418 the early stages of the flood is indicated by higher SOC content at the beginning of the
419 sampling sequence, rather than later. Although runoff transported rangeland soil
420 particles at the initiation of the event, its signal declined later. A reason could be the
421 topography of the catchment with clear sub-horizontal stratification, along with the
422 abundance of linear elements due to terracing for pine afforestation that retain the
423 mobilised sediments. In addition, vegetation cover seems efficient in protecting soil and
424 preventing further sediment mobilization, even under this exceptional disturbance.

425 In contrast, evidence of streambank erosion from SS4 to SS8 is supported by the
426 predominant contribution of channel bank and the highest SSC values. The importance
427 of streambank erosion is further evidenced by changes in the channel section observed
428 after the exceptional rainfall, which produced streambanks failure that resulted in a
429 widening of the channel section. Palmer et al. (2014) also recorded high streambank
430 erosion when precipitation was 26% above normal. Factors affecting bank erosion
431 under high flooding conditions are related to the hydraulic forces exerted on the stream,
432 which create unstable conditions that result in bank failure and mass wasting (Wynn,
433 2006).

434 The suspended sediment dynamic and the temporal variability of the relative source
435 contributions are linked to several factors, including the distribution of land uses,

436 connectivity, and changes in the stream channel (i.e. failure of loose streambanks) (Fig.
437 2). Other authors also point to sediment connectivity, in addition to modifications in
438 contributing areas (Evrard et al., 2010), hydraulic boundary and antecedent soil
439 moisture conditions.

440 This study has captured the signal of rangeland soils that, under regular rainfall, is
441 difficult to obtain because these soils are protected by vegetation cover and terracing.
442 The field observations during and after the storm event allowed us to identify intense
443 rilling and new gully formation in agricultural and rangeland soils that support the
444 estimated source apportions. Our results suggest that the new connectivity created
445 during the event worked efficiently to transport sediment to the stream. This indicates
446 that connectivity between the headwaters and our sampling locations was unobstructed
447 and was able to effectively transport sediments throughout the stream channel. In earlier
448 work, Koiter et al. (2013) similarly highlight the importance of the sampling location
449 and the need to incorporate the catchment connectivity to understand how efficiently the
450 sediment is transported from the headwaters to the outlet. In the *La Reina* catchment,
451 comparable results obtained for the suspended sediments (SS1', SS2') and for the
452 sediment mat (SM1') confirm that source contributions were similar during the
453 exceptional rainfall and during periods of regular precipitation. The high connectivity of
454 the catchment and the predominance of agricultural soils on Quaternary steep glacia is
455 the reason why these soils are the major source of sediments.

456 Under regular functioning of ephemeral streams, the main difference of an
457 exceptional event is that rangeland soils and, to lesser extent, agricultural soils and
458 subsoils are less well connected with the drainage system because of terracing,
459 vegetation strips, furrows, and other linear elements of the landscape that protect soil
460 from erosion (Lizaga et al., in press). Fryirs (2013) identified three types of blockages

461 (buffers, barriers, and blankets), indicating that their spatial arrangement will exert an
462 influence on the connectivity and, subsequently, on the pattern of sediment transport
463 and storage (Hooke and Mant, 2000; Kuo and Brierley, 2013). However, for intense
464 rainfalls, the connectivity of agricultural and rangelands increases, leading to high
465 sediment loads in the streams. Only unusual high-magnitude events like this event are
466 able to produce enough surface runoff to connect the hydrological system with the
467 sources of sediment. After soil particles are disaggregated by runoff, due to fluctuations
468 in runoff transport capacity, the particles can be temporarily stored inside the fields,
469 preventing them from reaching the streams. On the other hand, the large discharges that
470 reach the streams increase channel erosivity and cause landslides thus increasing the
471 signal of channel bank.

472 Our results during this exceptional event, along with previous research on
473 connectivity in the study area (Lizaga et al., 2019), allow us to better understand the
474 variation of source apportions. Due to human impact on Mediterranean landscapes,
475 these uplands agroecosystems streams produce infilling of valley floors that are later
476 incised. The landscape evolution has led to the presence of a mosaic of land uses and
477 different surface covers that influence the connectivity of sediment sources to the river
478 network. We can conclude that the change in dominant source during the sampling
479 sequence in the *Vandunchil* catchment is due to changes in sediment storage and
480 connectivity, reflecting a transition in the dominant erosion processes from topsoil to
481 streambank erosion.

482

483 **6. Conclusions**

484 This study provided a detailed record of temporal variations in relative source
485 contributions to the total sediment flux through time during an exceptional rainfall

486 event. Our results demonstrated the potential for using ^{137}Cs , along with stable elements
487 and magnetic properties as effective tracers. In addition, our study has proven the
488 efficiency of the FingerPro model in determining quantitative source contributions to
489 capture a change in dominant source. The different characteristics of the study
490 catchments, in terms of distribution of land uses and structural connectivity of the
491 landscape, played a key role in controlling sediment availability and the prominence of
492 the contributing source. The rainfall event activated the entire *Vandunchil* catchment,
493 transporting sediment from sources that, during regular flood events, remain
494 disconnected, and allowed for the sediment to surpass the linear elements that typically
495 interrupt the connectivity of the landscape. The predominant contributions of
496 agricultural, rangeland and subsoil sources, in addition to the lowest concentration of
497 suspended sediments and the highest SOC contents support topsoil erosion occurring at
498 the beginning of the exceptional event, while later peaks of SSC and high contributions
499 of channel bank suggest a shift to predominance of streambank erosion.

500 One of the main findings from our study is the temporal variability in source
501 provenance recorded during the 2-hour sampling sequence at the outlet of the
502 *Vandunchil* catchment, which demonstrates the need to generate high spatial and
503 temporal resolution source apportionments, especially during storm-events.

504 Sediment fingerprinting approaches offer important insights into the nature of
505 erosion and transport processes that operate in Mediterranean upland catchments
506 supporting that exceptional events are main drivers of the process dynamic leading to
507 landscape changes.

508

509

510

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514 exceptional rainfall event.

515

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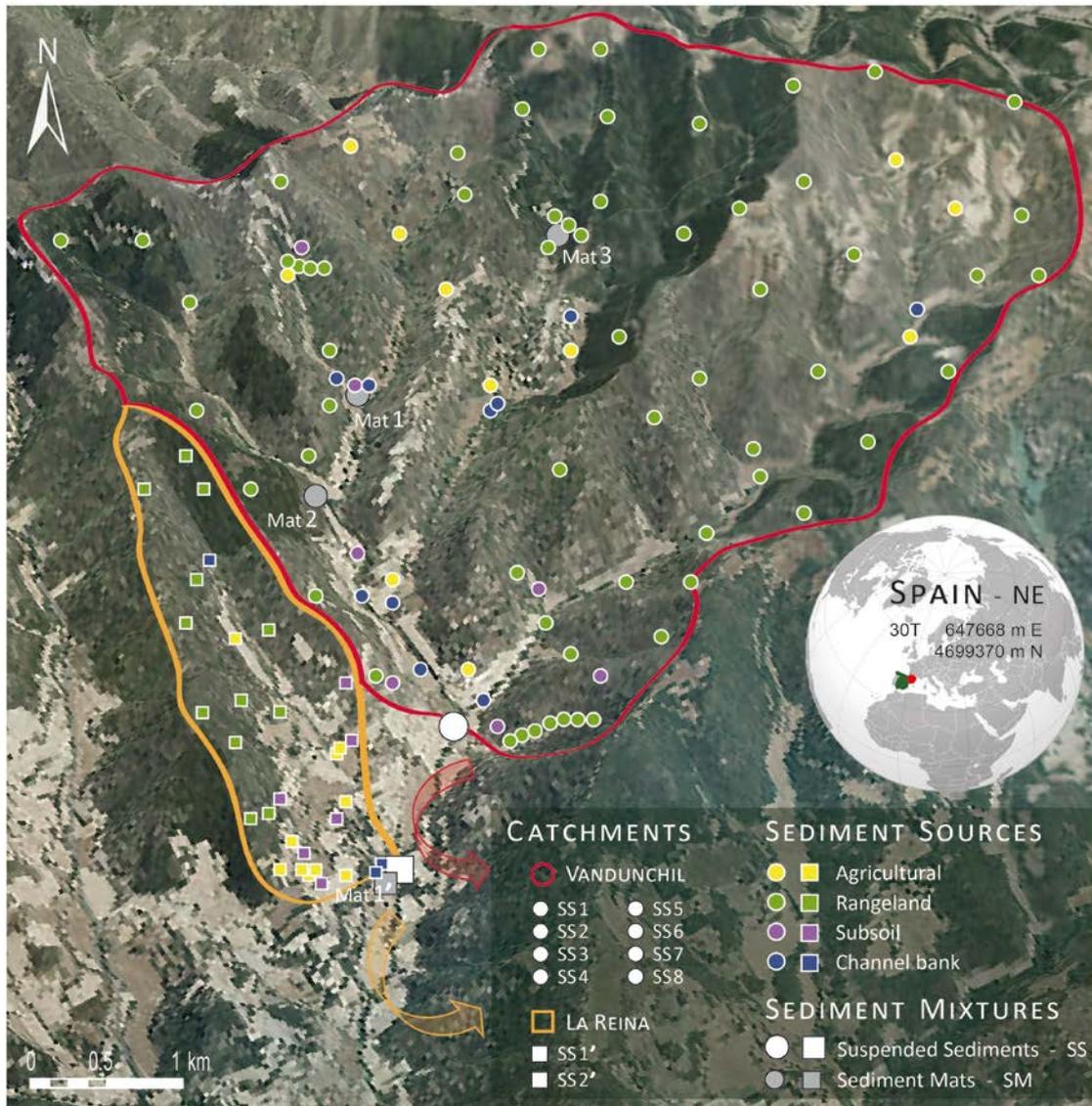
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686 **Figures**

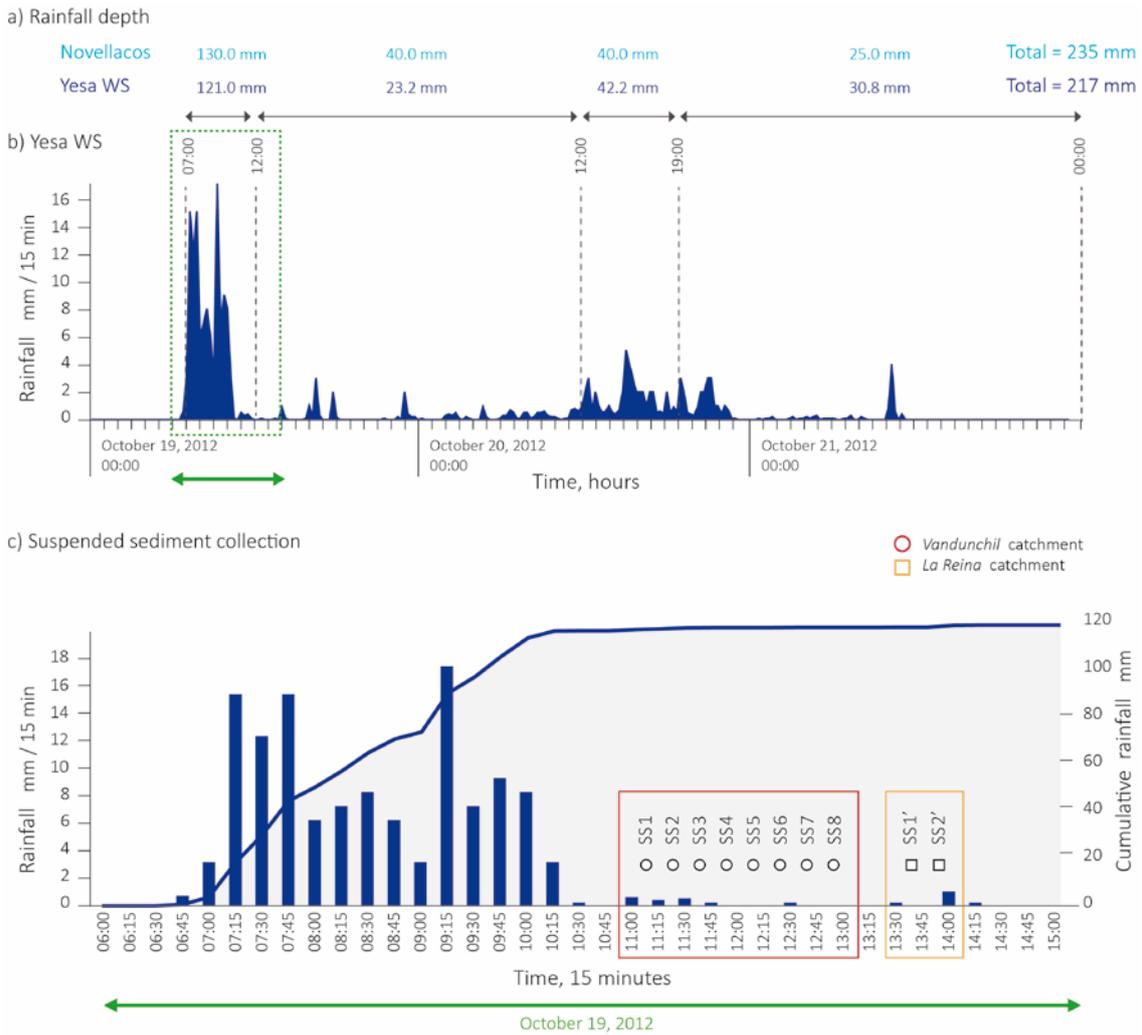
687

688 **Figure 1** Vandunchil and La Reina catchments: the orto-picture of the study area, the
 689 location of sediment sources and sediment mixtures samples, and the different sampling
 690 devices.



691

692 **Figure 2** Historical intraday data for the exceptional rainfall event: a) rainfall depth for
 693 Yesa WS and Novellacos site, b) 15 minutes hydrograph for Yesa WS, and c) detailed
 694 information for the temporal dynamic of the precipitation: peak intensity and the
 695 cumulative rainfall during the collection of suspended sediments on October 19, 2012.
 696



697

698 **Figure 3** Photos showing the impacts on the study area during and after the exceptional
699 rainfall event.

700

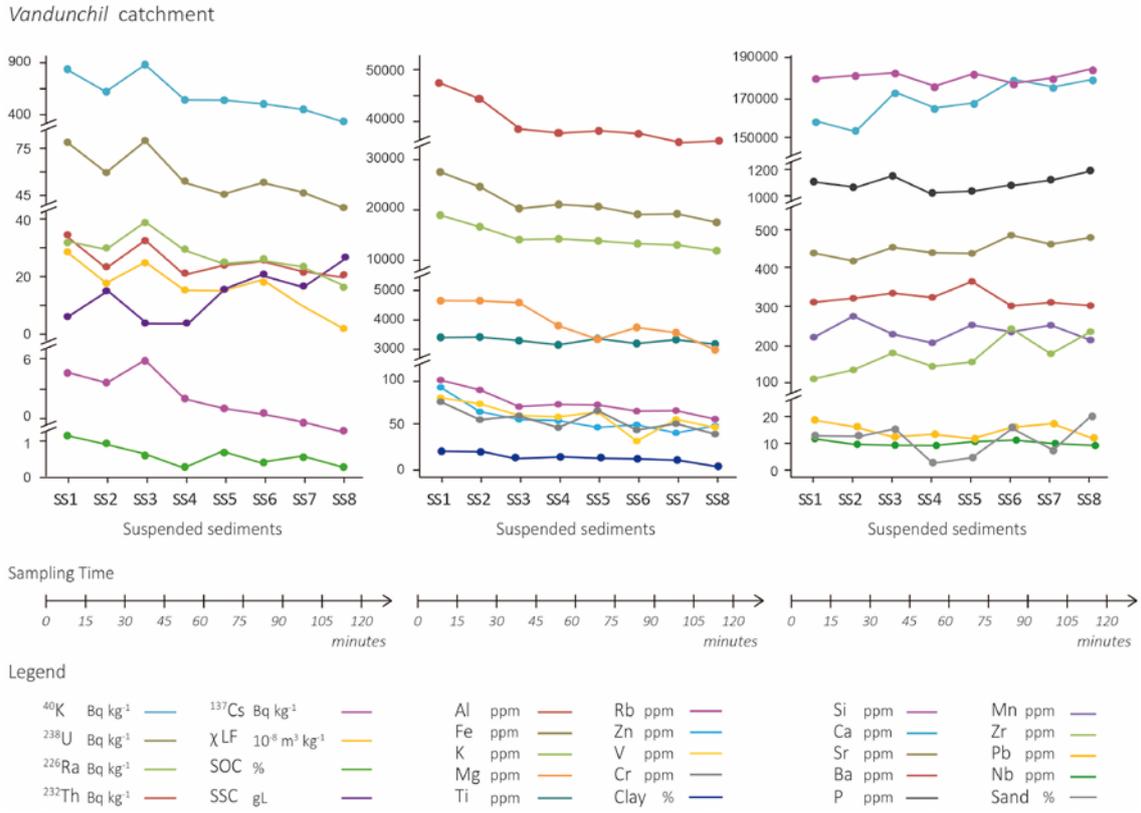


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703 **Figure 4** The variation of the content on 27 properties in the time-integrated sequence
 704 of eight suspended sediments samples collected at *Vandunchil* catchment.

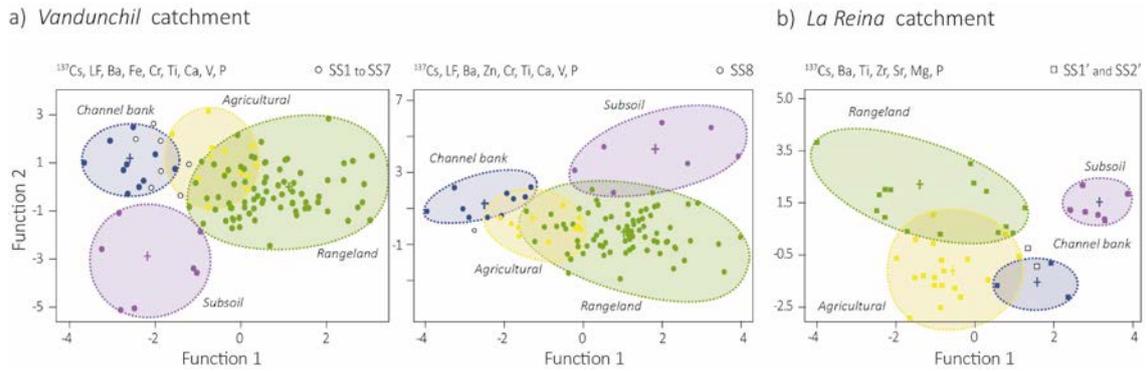
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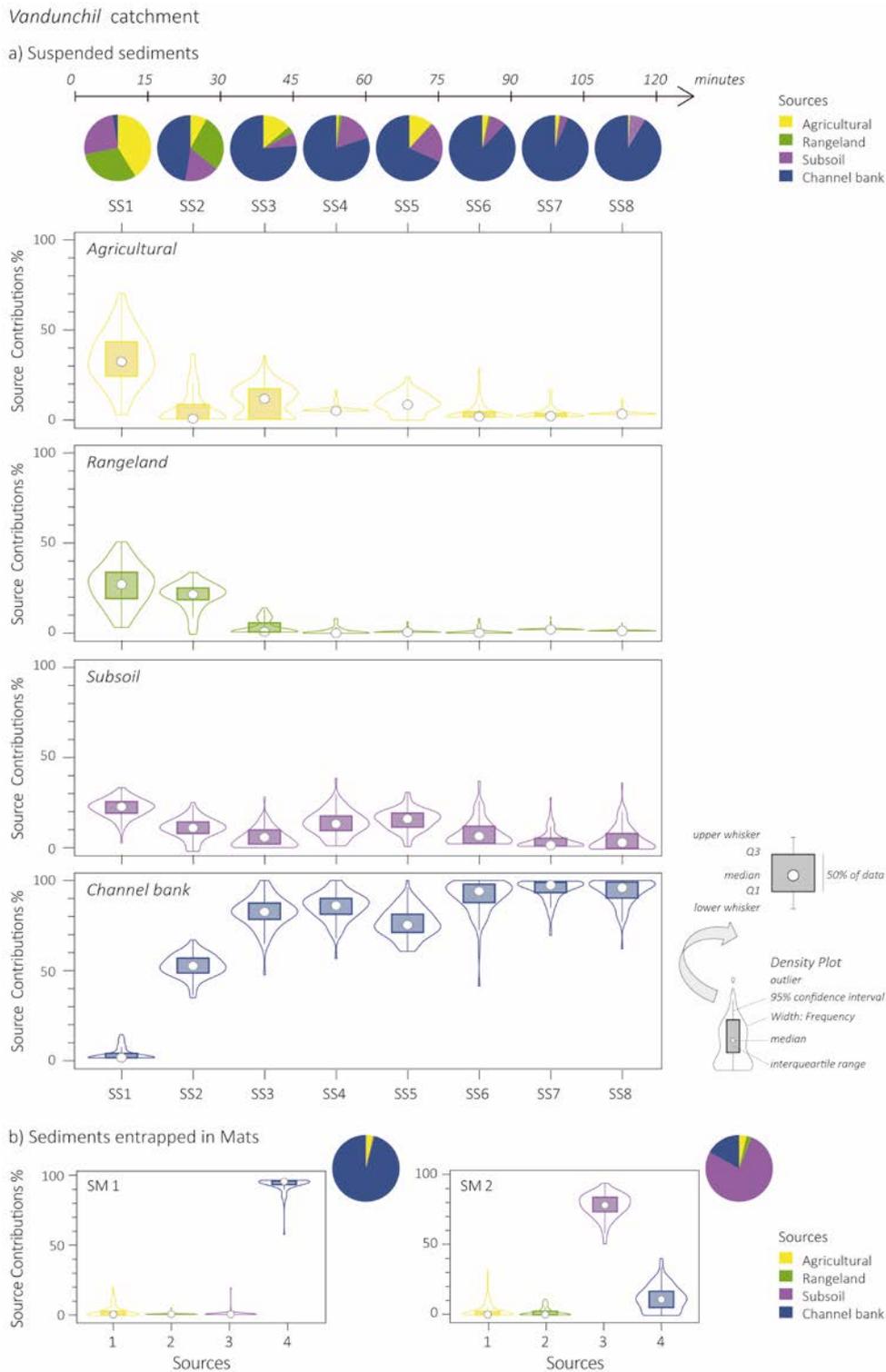
708 **Figure 5** Two-dimensional scatterplots of the first and second discriminant functions
 709 from stepwise discriminant function analysis (DFA) using the optimum tracer selected
 710 for a) *Vandunchil* catchment and b) *La Reina* catchment. Ellipsoid encompasses 95% of
 711 group range
 712



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715 **Figure 6** Estimated source contribution and frequency distribution for the sediments
 716 mixtures collected at *Vandunchil* catchment: a) for the time-integrated sequence of eight
 717 suspended sediments (SS1 to SS8) and b) for sediment entrapped in mats (SM1, SM2).
 718



725 Table 1a. Mean content and standard deviation (SD) of all study properties for each source type
 726 at the Vandunchil and La Reina catchment, respectively. Properties with significance levels for
 727 discriminating between source types are shown with asterisks as potential tracers ($p < 0.05$
 728 level, 95% confidence level).

729

730

<i>Vandunchil</i> catchment									
		Agricultural		Rangeland		Subsoil		Channel bank	
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Si ppm	*	184672.1	13889.7	187297.2	24163.9	164464.2	5758.8	184900.7	13686.9
Ca ppm	*	148814.0	27746.6	128808.9	42756.0	171526.3	12313.3	150588.0	18706.6
Al ppm		41972.8	4064.5	40512.3	4775.4	43826.8	6261.8	39392.1	2330.4
Fe ppm	*	23997.6	2944.7	24956.8	3971.0	23611.5	3157.1	21411.6	1264.2
K ppm	*	15206.3	1484.0	15061.2	1704.2	16915.2	3469.0	14243.0	1141.6
Ti ppm	*	3451.8	324.1	3400.1	387.9	3014.4	155.9	3385.2	192.1
Mg ppm	*	4043.5	387.6	3722.9	803.6	5053.4	1524.4	3723.1	574.4
P ppm	*	1148.4	81.6	1038.4	182.7	752.4	73.2	1112.2	98.3
Ba ppm	*	313.7	38.0	279.3	38.8	370.9	64.0	340.6	29.7
Mn ppm	*	332.3	65.3	351.7	102.0	228.3	21.5	294.3	73.7
Sr ppm	*	351.8	73.6	317.9	130.2	545.5	187.3	422.7	81.1
Zr ppm	*	209.6	30.9	222.9	58.6	142.1	47.6	227.8	52.9
Rb ppm	*	79.5	10.5	79.3	11.4	88.8	19.8	72.5	6.3
Cr ppm	*	79.9	11.4	80.3	12.7	70.4	11.8	59.4	11.7
Zn ppm	*	61.7	9.8	61.2	8.9	59.4	12.1	52.3	4.1
V ppm	*	68.4	14.4	72.8	15.3	83.2	16.7	61.7	9.5
Nb ppm		11.6	1.3	11.3	1.6	10.7	0.6	11.1	0.7
Pb ppm	*	16.3	2.9	18.0	5.0	12.9	1.4	14.3	2.2
¹³⁷ Cs Bq kg ⁻¹	*	4.9	2.1	13.5	7.5	0.2	0.5	0.6	1.1
⁴⁰ K Bq kg ⁻¹		521.2	51.2	520.1	59.3	569.1	121.6	494.6	59.1
²²⁶ Ra Bq kg ⁻¹		29.6	3.1	29.0	4.5	28.7	3.1	28.1	3.4
²³² Th Bq kg ⁻¹		34.0	3.6	34.9	4.9	34.1	4.1	33.6	2.7
²³⁸ U Bq kg ⁻¹		44.3	6.4	44.0	10.3	45.0	9.6	40.9	10.0
LF 10 ⁻⁸ m ³ kg ⁻¹	*	59.8	21.7	62.4	32.8	10.7	5.4	19.7	8.7
SOC %	*	1.6	0.6	2.6	1.2	0.4	0.3	1.2	0.3
Clay %		17.0	2.4	14.9	3.6	13.9	4.2	13.9	1.7
Sand %	*	5.5	3.1	12.0	6.7	10.6	6.0	13.2	4.9

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732

733 Table 1b. Mean content and standard deviation (SD) of all study properties for each source type
 734 at the Vandunchil and La Reina catchment, respectively. Properties with significance levels for
 735 discriminating between source types are shown with asterisks as potential tracers ($p < 0.05$
 736 level, 95% confidence level).

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	<i>La Reina catchment</i>								
	Agricultural		Rangeland		Subsoil		Channel bank		
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Si ppm	166985.4	7858.2	164725.7	17978.3	162078.6	5995.5	172081.8	2057.6	
Ca ppm	170741.5	13007.6	166180.4	29243.5	177940.8	19717.6	169860.6	8957.0	
Al ppm	37963.7	2965.6	35247.4	5766.2	41150.1	7312.3	37396.6	3137.7	
Fe ppm	21097.1	1594.1	20699.1	3231.8	21750.8	3795.9	19566.5	2151.8	
K ppm	14320.6	1186.1	13375.2	2054.7	15249.9	3458.0	13288.8	1482.5	
Ti ppm	*	3142.0	171.6	3059.9	234.4	2851.3	191.4	3168.7	97.4
Mg ppm	*	3407.2	728.7	3153.5	1049.1	5219.2	1447.2	4382.4	920.4
P ppm	*	1105.7	110.3	965.5	217.9	748.2	53.5	990.6	38.8
Ba ppm	*	283.9	43.2	285.8	31.5	353.0	25.6	333.9	33.1
Mn ppm		286.8	57.7	279.9	69.6	297.2	51.2	270.2	83.0
Sr ppm	*	455.9	49.2	434.1	180.2	622.6	151.6	583.7	60.1
Zr ppm	*	186.8	26.9	215.3	48.6	161.8	51.0	236.7	11.4
Rb ppm		72.1	7.5	67.7	12.7	78.2	20.1	66.3	8.7
Cr ppm	*	69.7	7.9	69.7	12.6	65.4	12.8	51.5	9.7
Zn ppm		54.8	5.0	52.9	8.6	55.0	13.0	51.4	2.8
V ppm		58.1	9.9	60.6	12.8	72.7	19.4	57.0	15.7
Nb ppm		10.6	0.7	10.2	1.5	10.0	0.7	10.2	1.2
Pb ppm		14.9	2.1	15.4	3.8	13.7	3.4	13.7	2.4
¹³⁷ Cs Bq kg ⁻¹	*	2.6	1.3	9.2	7.2	0.2	0.5	0.4	0.7
⁴⁰ K Bq kg ⁻¹		461.2	46.0	464.4	68.6	522.3	128.1	466.7	56.8
²²⁶ Ra Bq kg ⁻¹	*	30.5	2.3	27.8	3.1	27.5	0.7	27.8	0.6
²³² Th Bq kg ⁻¹		30.8	2.5	31.4	3.3	31.8	5.3	31.7	3.2
²³⁸ U Bq kg ⁻¹		36.5	10.0	37.8	4.6	38.5	4.5	35.3	3.1
LF 10 ⁻⁸ m ³ kg ⁻¹	*	36.3	17.0	37.5	26.2	10.9	2.5	17.8	15.4
SOC %	*	1.0	0.2	2.1	1.0	0.3	0.2	1.1	0.2
Clay %		12.6	2.5	13.3	2.7	11.7	3.7	10.7	2.9
Sand %	*	8.2	1.9	11.2	5.3	16.5	9.7	17.1	2.0

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741 Table 2. Optimum fingerprint tracers obtained with the assessed statistical
 742 test (range test, Kruskal Wallis test and DFA test) for each of suspended
 743 sediments (SS) and sediment mats (SM) collected at the two study
 744 catchments.

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Sediment mixtures	n	Tracers
<i>Vandunchil</i> catchment		
SS 1, SS 2, SS 3, SS 4, SS 5, SS 6, SS 7	9	¹³⁷ Cs, LF, Ba, Fe, Cr, Ti, Ca, V, P
SS 8	9	¹³⁷ Cs, LF, Ba, Zn, Cr, Ti, Ca, V, P
SM 1	7	¹³⁷ Cs, LF, Ba, Cr, Ti, Ca, V
SM 2	6	¹³⁷ Cs, LF, Ca, V, Sr, P
SM 3	6	¹³⁷ Cs, LF, Ba, Cr, Zr, P
<i>La Reina</i> catchment		
SS 1', SS 2'	7	¹³⁷ Cs, Ba, Ti, Zr, Sr, Mg, P
SM 1'	5	¹³⁷ Cs, Ba, Ti, Mg, P

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755 Table 4. Source contributions (%) estimated with FingerPro unmixing model
 756 for the two suspended sediments (SS) and the sediment mat (SM) collected
 757 at the *La Reina* catchment. Three different simulations for each sediment
 758 mixture are listed: i) using the optimum tracers, ii) excluding P as a tracer,
 759 or iii) adding SOM as an additional tracer.

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<i>La Reina</i>		GOF	Agricultural		Rangeland		Subsoil		Chanel bank	
Sediment		%	mean	SD	mean	SD	mean	SD	mean	SD
mixtures										
SS 1'	i	83.6	65.4	6.5	0.6	1.7	32.9	6.4	1.1	3.9
	ii	81.3	66.8	10.0	0.7	2.9	31.0	7.2	1.5	5.3
	iii	83.2	65.5	6.7	0.2	0.7	32.8	6.5	1.5	4.0
SS 2'	i	78.1	60.9	9.6	2.7	6.8	32.4	8.2	4.0	6.5
	ii	78.4	64.3	14.8	1.8	7.6	29.8	9.4	4.1	9.1
	iii	78.1	60.9	9.6	2.7	6.8	32.4	8.2	4.0	6.5
SM 1'	i	76.6	63.7	17.4	6.2	12.2	21.4	10.3	8.7	15.8
	ii	72.5	59.2	21.4	10.7	17.1	24.3	12.3	5.7	14.4
	iii	69.2	50.1	19.5	1.2	3.6	30.1	11.6	18.5	25.3

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