



26 **Abstract**

27

28 An experimental study based on the effects of fire on soil hydrology was developed at  
29 the Experimental Station of “La Concordia” (Valencia, Spain). It is located on a calcareous  
30 hillside facing SSE and composed of nine erosion plots (4 x 20 m). In summer 2003, after  
31 eight years of soil and vegetation recovery from previous fires in 1995 (with three fire  
32 treatments: T1 high intensity fire, T2 moderate intensity, and T3 not burned), experimental  
33 fires of low intensity were again conducted on the plots already burned, to study the effects of  
34 repeated fires on the soil water infiltration, soil water content and runoff.

35 Infiltration rates and capacities were measured by the mini-disk infiltrometer method  
36 (MDI), assessing the effects of vegetation cover by comparing the under canopy micro-  
37 environment (UC) and its absence on bare soil (BS), immediately before and after the fire  
38 experiments. Soil properties like water retention capacity (SWRC), and water content (SWC),  
39 were also determined for the different fire treatments (T1, T2 and T3) and micro-sites (UC  
40 and BS). Hydrological parameters, such as runoff and infiltration rate, were monitored at plot  
41 scale from July 2002 to July 2004. In the post-fire period, data displayed a 20% runoff  
42 increase and a decrease in infiltration (18%).

43 Differences in the steady-state infiltration rate (SSI) and infiltration capacity (IC) were  
44 tested with the MDI on the different treatments (T1, T2 and T3), and between the UC and BS  
45 microsites of each treatment. After fire, the SSI of the UC soil declined from 16 mm h<sup>-1</sup> to 12  
46 mm h<sup>-1</sup> on T1, and from 24 mm h<sup>-1</sup> to 19 mm h<sup>-1</sup> on T2. The IC was reduced by 2/3 in the T1  
47 UC soil, and by half on T2 UC soil. On the bare soil of T1 and T2, the fire effect was minimal  
48 and higher infiltration rates and capacities were reached. Therefore, the presence/absence of  
49 vegetation when burnt influenced the post-burnt infiltration patterns at soil microscale. On the  
50 T3, different rates and capacities were obtained depending on the microsites (UC and BS),

51 with higher SSI (25 mm h<sup>-1</sup>) and IC (226 mm h<sup>-1</sup>) on BS than on UC (SSI of 18 mm h<sup>-1</sup> and IC  
52 of 136 mm h<sup>-1</sup>).

53 The SWRC and SWC were recovered from 1995 to 2003 (prior to the fires). The 2003  
54 fire promoted high variability on the SWC at pF 0.1, 2 and 2.5, and the SWRC on burned  
55 soils were reduced. To summarise, the IC and SSI post-fire decreases, were related to the  
56 lower infiltration rate at plot scale, the significant differences in the SWRC between burnt and  
57 control treatments, and the increase in the runoff yield (20%).

58 According to the results, the MDI was a useful tool to characterize the soil infiltration on  
59 the vegetation patches of the Mediterranean *maquia*, and contrary to other studies, on the UC  
60 soil, the infiltration rate and IC, when soil was dry, was lower than that obtained on BS. Once  
61 the soil gets wet, similar values were found on both microenvironments.

62

63 **Key words:** Infiltration, hydrology, mini-disk infiltrometer (MDI), experimental fires,  
64 vegetation cover, Mediterranean

65

## 66 **Introduction**

67

68 Wildfires degrade the vegetation cover that protects the soil from the rain's  
69 aggressiveness and erosion processes (Martin and Moody, 2001). Fire consumes litter layer  
70 and small bushes, leading to a complete change in vegetation and topsoil structures. Peak  
71 rainfall after fire, generates runoff and less water is retained as a ponded one, resulting in  
72 reduced resistance times and reduced total infiltration (Ferreira *et al.*, 2008).

73 Mediterranean soils under shrubland vegetation are often shallow and are located on  
74 slopes prone to erosion. In these conditions, the post-fire environment of the surface horizons  
75 is a determining factor in establishing the amount of mineral soil exposed to raindrop splash,

76 overland flow, and the development of water repellent soil conditions (DeBano *et al.*, 1998).  
77 Physical and chemical changes in the upper soil horizons, induced by fires, greatly affect  
78 other properties such as aggregate stability (Andreu *et al.*, 2001), water retention capacity  
79 (González-Pelayo *et al.*, 2006), soil bulk density, porosity, permeability (Hubbert *et al.*,  
80 2006), water repellence (Arcenegui *et al.*, 2007), wetting patterns (Robichaud, 2000) and thus  
81 soil water infiltration (Letey, 2001). The combustion process also turns the litter and duff  
82 layers into ash and charcoal, which can seal soil pores (Neary *et al.*, 1999) and therefore  
83 decrease hydraulic conductivity (Robichaud, 2000) and soil infiltration capacity (Rulli *et al.*,  
84 2006).

85         Additionally, the Mediterranean environments are subjected to strong seasonal climatic  
86 fluctuations which modify the soil conditions, and as consequence, hydrological processes  
87 (Cerdà, 1996). On Mediterranean hillslopes, either the static or the dynamic soil properties are  
88 not uniformly distributed (Bergkam and Cammeraat, 1996) and many of them vary in patches  
89 related to micro-topography and vegetation (Bochet *et al.*, 2006; Gimeno-García *et al.*, 2001).  
90 In doing so, soil water infiltration in semi-arid areas is highly dependent on the dynamic soil  
91 characteristics such as organic matter, root systems, macropores, vegetation cover, soil crust  
92 formation, soil aggregation (Bergkam and Cammeraat, 1996), soil water content (Rulli *et al.*,  
93 2006), rock fragment size, percentage and geometry (Poesen *et al.*, 1990). The spatial and  
94 temporal variability of these soil properties are subjected to the discontinuous distribution of  
95 vegetation and the complex interactions between plant and soil surface (Kutiel *et al.*, 1995;  
96 Gimeno-García *et al.*, 2001; Bochet *et al.*, 2006). As a result, the plant environment  
97 influences soil surface properties and hence, soil water infiltration and redistribution (Pierson  
98 *et al.*, 2001). Thus, the upper soil layer characteristics are determinant to establish the soil  
99 water infiltration and therefore the post-fire changes in the upper horizon are relevant to  
100 understand hydrological processes on burned slopes.

101 For that reason, the aim of this research is to quantify variations in soil hydrological  
102 parameters (infiltration rate and capacity, soil water content, and soil water retention capacity)  
103 under natural field conditions and after a repeated fire, and to consider the effect of the  
104 previous presence or absence of vegetation cover on the soil surface hydrological properties.

105

## 106 **2. Materials and Methods**

107

### 108 **2.1. Study area and experimental set-up**

109

110 The study has been carried out in the Permanent Experimental Field Station of “La  
111 Concordia”, located on a forested area ceded by the Valencian Government (Generalitat  
112 Valenciana). It is placed at 50 km NW of the city of Valencia (39°45’ N and 0°43’ W) at an  
113 altitude of 575 meters a.s.l. (Figure 1). The Station represents a forested hillside facing SSE,  
114 with an average slope of 30% and consists of a set of nine erosion plots. Each plot is 4 m wide  
115 and 20 m long (80 m<sup>2</sup>), with similar soil type, slope gradient, rock outcrops and vegetation  
116 cover characteristics. The selection of each plot was made after intensive monitoring of its  
117 soil, vegetation (number of individuals of each species, height and diameter) and morphology  
118 patterns and based on 58 transects slope dispersed every two metres (Andreu *et al.*, 2002).

119 Plots were closed, bounded by bricks and positioned parallel to the slope. At the foot of  
120 each plot, a 2 m wide collector ran into a 1500 litre tank to record all runoff and sediment  
121 produced during each rainfall event. Inside each main tank, there was a 30 litre tank to  
122 concentrate the runoff and sediments yielded in the collection. Runoff generation and the  
123 infiltration rate (mm h<sup>-1</sup>), were monitored in each plot and for each erosive rain event  
124 occurred during the two year study period (July 2002 to July 2004) (Figure 2).

125 The meteorological characteristics were registered by an automatic meteorological  
126 station placed half way up the slope in the central part of the Experimental Station. A CS700  
127 tipping bucket rainfall gauge recorded the rainfall volume (mm), the rain intensity (calculated  
128 for the maximum volume of precipitation occurring in 30 minutes) as  $I_{30}$  (mm h<sup>-1</sup>), and  
129 duration (minutes) for each rainfall event occurred between July 2002 to July 2004. All the  
130 rain events were registered and the erosive rain events were only considered if they produced  
131 measurable runoff in the tanks. The mean annual precipitation in the area was around 400  
132 mm, with maximum rain in autumn and spring and minimal rain in summer. The average  
133 temperatures ranged between 13.3°C in the coldest month (January) and 25.8°C in the hottest  
134 one (August).

135 Soil belongs to a Rendzic Leptosol type (FAO-UNESCO, 1988), developed on Jurassic  
136 limestone. Some of these soil characteristics are described in Gimeno-García *et al.* (2007).  
137 The soil has a variable depth of no more than 40 cm, good drainage and an important  
138 microbiological activity, confirmed by frequent and discontinuous soil pores (Rubio *et al.*,  
139 2003). Soil surface is characterised by the existence of cracked stones and a high superficial  
140 stoniness ( $\cong$  65 %).

141 The shrubland vegetation is a scattered matorral (maquia) of medium height with  
142 *Globularia alypum*, *Rosmarinus officinalis*, *Ulex parviflorus*, *Cistus clusii*, *Thymus vulgaris*,  
143 *Rhamnus lycioides*, *Stipa tenacissima*, and *Quercus coccifera*, as the dominant species. This  
144 vegetation resulted from the degradation of the original *Rhamnus lycioides-quercetum*  
145 *cocciferae* association.

146

## 147 **2.2. Fire treatments**

148

149 In 1995, a random design of three plots for each fire intensity treatment was used. The  
150 different fire intensities were achieved by adding different amounts of biomass from the  
151 surrounding shrub vegetation: 4 kg m<sup>-2</sup> for the high intensity fire (T1) and 2 kg m<sup>-2</sup> for the  
152 moderate intensity fire (T2). The fuel load was spread uniformly on the plots creating fuel  
153 continuity. The remaining three plots maintained unburnt to be used as control (T3). A  
154 complete description of the fire performance and soil temperature results is given in Gimeno-  
155 García *et al.* (2004).

156 The repeated fires were performed on the 17<sup>th</sup> and 18<sup>th</sup> of July 2003. After eight years of  
157 recovery, the six plots previously burnt in 1995 were burned again without any biomass  
158 addition, to simulate the natural characteristics of a repeated fire. Only a small quantity of  
159 straw (0.25 kg m<sup>-2</sup>) was sparsely added to achieve fire continuity on the slope.

160 The soil surface temperatures and fire duration were measured by means of thermo-  
161 sensitive paints and thermocouples. In 1995, statistically significant differences between the  
162 average temperatures and the medium values of residence time (soil temperatures greater than  
163 100°C) were observed between T1 (439 °C and 36 minutes) and T2 (232 °C and 17 minutes)  
164 (Gimeno-García *et al.*, 2004).

165 The average soil surface temperature in the 2003 fire reached 170°C, and the mean  
166 values of residence time of temperatures greater than 100°C for all the plots were around four  
167 minutes. With this fire behaviour, and according to the classifications established by DeBano  
168 *et al.* (1998) and Robichaud *et al.* (2000), these repeated fires were classified as a low  
169 severity. However, we have conserved the plots denomination from the 1995 fires (T1, T2  
170 and T3) to check if the 1995 treatments influenced the results of 2003, and also to  
171 differentiate between the treatments.

172

173 **2.3. Infiltration measurements (Minidisk infiltrometer, MDI)**

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175 The determination of the infiltration rate in Mediterranean field conditions requires a  
176 greater number of measurements due to its high spatial variability (Kutiel *et al.*, 1995). For  
177 that reason we chose to use the minidisk infiltrometer (MDI) (Decagon Devices, Pullman,  
178 WA; radius 1.59 cm) as it was used by several authors (Angulo-Jaramillo *et al.*, 2000; Lewis  
179 *et al.*, 2006), and because it is easily transportable, it is easily fitted to make slope  
180 measurements (because its relatively small diameter), and because it is a non-destructive  
181 methodology that allow us to repeat the measurements in the same spot, being comparable if  
182 they are done with the same soil moisture conditions.

183 Infiltration measurements were performed under a pressure of -2.0 cm of water using the  
184 method proposed by Zhang (1997). It is quite simple and works well for measurements of  
185 infiltration into dry soil. The method requires measuring accumulative infiltration vs. time and  
186 finding the results using the method

187

$$188 \quad I = C_1 + C_2 \sqrt{t} \quad (1)$$

189

190 where  $C_1$  ( $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ) is related to hydraulic conductivity,  $C_2$  ( $\text{m s}^{-1/2}$ ) is related to soil sorptivity and  
191  $t$  (s) is the time. The hydraulic conductivity of the soil ( $k$ ) is then computed from

192

$$193 \quad k = \frac{C_1}{A} \quad (2)$$

194

195 where  $C_1$  is the slope of the curve of the accumulative infiltration vs. the square root of time,  
196 and  $A$  is a value relating the van Genuchten parameters for a given soil type to the suction rate  
197 and radius of the infiltrometer disk.  $A$  is computed from:

198

$$A = \frac{11.65(n^{0.1} - 1) \exp[2.92(n - 1.9)\alpha h_0]}{(\alpha r_0)^{0.91}} \quad n \geq 1.9$$



199

200

201

(3)

202

$$A = \frac{11.65(n^{0.1} - 1) \exp[2.92(n - 1.9)\alpha h_0]}{(\alpha r_0)^{0.91}} n < 1.9$$

203

204

where  $n$  and  $\alpha$  are the van Genuchten parameters for the soil,  $r_0$  is the disk radius, and  $h_0$  is the

205

suction at the disk surface. The van Genuchten parameters for the 12 texture classes were

206

obtained from Carsel and Parrish (1988). The sandy-loam soil texture computed an  $A$  value of

207

5.2.

208

Before measuring the infiltration, each minidisk infiltrometer was subjected to an

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ultrasonic bath to avoid soil particles plugging the semi-permeable plastic disk pores. By

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doing this, the reproducibility of the measurements was checked before using the apparatus on

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soil located in the area of the experimental station but outside of the plots. Soil water content

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was also measured before each infiltration test by a ThetaProbe type ML2x (Delta-T Devices

213

Ltd, Cambridge, UK).

214

Even though the minidisk infiltrometer is a useful tool in water infiltration studies, the

215

great spatial variability on soil properties, the discontinuity at the hillslope hydrology, and its

216

operation in the preferential flow of micropores (Decagon Devices, Inc. 2006), implies the

217

need of a large number of measurements for the complete slope hydrological characterisation.

218

However, the measurements carried out through time always in the same soil spots, allow us

219

to know the micro-scale soil infiltration and sorptivity evolution and thus, to quantify the

220

impact on soil surface of an external agent as fire.

221

The steady-state infiltration (SSI) is defined as a part of the infiltration curve with little

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slope variation with time during the experiment (Martin and Moody, 2001). In this way, the

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infiltration measurements were performed during 20 minutes and they were also theoretically

224 extrapolated to 60 minutes to check differences between both time spaces. Results showed no  
225 statistically significant differences, and therefore, the 20 minutes were considered enough  
226 time to reach the steady-state conditions.

227 The patchy distribution of the vegetation allowed us to compare the measurements under  
228 canopy (UC) and on bare soil (BS) microsites. By doing this, four infiltration measurements  
229 at each plot were made: two under canopy (UC) and two on bare soil (BS), with a total of 36  
230 tests for each period (before fire and after fire). The field work was carried out on 14<sup>th</sup> and  
231 15<sup>th</sup> of July 2003, 3 days before the experimental fires performance. After the fires, the tests  
232 were performed on the 27<sup>th</sup> and 28<sup>th</sup> July. In nearly all cases, the infiltration measurements  
233 were made under antecedent soil moisture <5%, and always in the same place for each plot.  
234 Prior to each infiltration test, the ashy residue and superficial stones lying on the soil surface  
235 were carefully removed to facilitate the intimate hydraulic contact between the mineral soil  
236 surface and the water source.

237 The SSI and the infiltration capacity (IC, maximum rate of water transmission into soil)  
238 for each microsite, plot and treatment were calculated. The ratio of infiltration rates on burnt  
239 vs. pre-burnt soils (Martin and Moody, 2001) was obtained. It could be a useful tool for  
240 comparing the effects of fire on soil and on the hydrological conditions of the tested  
241 microsites.

242 Analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Tukey's test at  $p < 0.05$ , were performed to detect  
243 differences in the soil infiltration rate between vegetation cover (UC) and on bare soil (BS) on  
244 the different treatments, before (BB) and after fire experience (AB).

245

#### 246 **2.4. Soil sampling and analysis**

247

248 A total of seventy two soil samples were taken before and immediately after the fire. The  
249 sample depth was 5 cm from the surface of under canopy (UC) and on bare soil (BS)  
250 microsites. Samples were taken close to the infiltration measurement points. After this  
251 procedure, the samples were air-dried, screened with a fraction diameter < 2 mm and stored in  
252 plastic boxes for analysis.

253 Soil water retention capacity (SWRC) was inferred from the soil water content (SWC)  
254 analysis. The SWC was calculated at a pressure head of -0.5 kPa, -10 kPa, -33 kPa, -330 kPa,  
255 and -1500 kPa (pF 0.1, 2, 2.5, 3.5 and 4.2, respectively), using the pressure plate membrane  
256 method (Hillel, 1980). Results were expressed in percentage of volume (%) and the pF curves  
257 were drawn (Figure 5). Soil core volume was 1.16 cm<sup>3</sup> and three replications per samples  
258 were made (n=216). The bulk density ( $\rho_b$ ) was obtained by the dry weight/soil core volume.

259 SWRC was calculated for each soil sample using the equation:

$$260 \quad \text{SWRC} = (\theta_{10} - \theta_{1500}) * \rho_b \quad (4)$$

261 where  $\theta_{10}$ ,  $\theta_{1500}$  are gravimetric water volumes at -10 kPa (pF 2) and -1500 kPa (pF  
262 4.2), respectively, and  $\rho_b$  is the bulk density of soil samples (Hillel, 1980).

263

### 264 **3. Results**

265

#### 266 **3.1. Rainfall pattern**

267

268 In the decade between 1994-2004, high rainfall variability was recorded at the La  
269 Concordia Experimental Station. The precipitation volume ranges between 204 mm in 1998  
270 and 556 mm in 2002 (Campo *et al.*, 2006), making 380 mm, the average precipitation for that  
271 decade.

272 This study, as previously mentioned, was focused between July 2002 and July 2004. We  
273 have taken into account the pre-fire year and the erosive rain events registered between July  
274 2002 and July 2003. In this elapsed time, twelve erosive rain storms were recorded compared  
275 to the eighteen in the post-fire year (July 2003-July 2004) (Figure 3). The rain intensity ( $I_{30}$ )  
276 and the duration of rainfall in the pre-fire year were in general, more homogeneous than in the  
277 post-fire events. Rain volume reached 390.4 mm and the average  $I_{30}$  was  $6.2 \text{ mm h}^{-1}$ , with a  
278 maximum of  $21.2 \text{ mm h}^{-1}$  and a minimum of  $1.6 \text{ mm h}^{-1}$ . Whereas, in the post-fire year, the  
279 rain volume measured was 285 mm and the average  $I_{30}$  was  $13.4 \text{ mm h}^{-1}$ , with a maximum of  
280  $65.4 \text{ mm h}^{-1}$  and a minimum of  $2.2 \text{ mm h}^{-1}$ . Twelve days after the repeated fire, in the rain  
281 event occurred on 30<sup>th</sup> July, there was a peak of rain intensity. In addition, the next three  
282 rainstorms had  $I_{30}$  between 20 to  $40 \text{ mm h}^{-1}$ , and denoted major rain aggressiveness after the  
283 experimental fires (Figure 3). The average time duration of rain events in post-fire year was  
284 534 minutes per event compared to 1515 minutes per event in pre-fire year.

285

### 286 **3.2. Runoff trends**

287

288 Runoff rates on burnt plots increased after the 2003 fire and showed statistically  
289 significant differences in relation to the pre-fire levels. On the control plots (T3), no  
290 differences in runoff rates appeared between pre- and post-fire periods (Figure 4a). In the pre-  
291 fire year, the total runoff for T1 and T2 yields  $4.9 \text{ L m}^{-2}$  and  $5.4 \text{ L m}^{-2}$ , respectively. Whilst,  
292 on the control plots the runoff was  $1.3 \text{ L m}^{-2}$ . Before the 2003 fire, between the burnt (T1 and  
293 T2) and control (T3) treatments, a difference of 75% still remained, even though these runoff  
294 values were on the same order of magnitude.

295 One year after the 2003 fire, the T3 maintained the same pre-fire runoff values, however,  
296 on the burnt ones, these values sharply increased, on average from  $5.1 \text{ L m}^{-2}$  to  $27.8 \text{ L m}^{-2}$ .

297 The differences between the fire treatments were of 10% (T1, 26.2 L m<sup>-2</sup> and T2, 29.4 L m<sup>-2</sup>),  
298 but the difference between burnt and control plots increased until 95% (27.8 L m<sup>-2</sup> on burnt  
299 plots and 1.5 L m<sup>-2</sup> on control ones). We also highlight the peaks of  $I_{30}$  in the early rain events  
300 occurred after the low intensity fire (Figure 3). In the first four rain events, the average  $I_{30}$   
301 increases up to 20 mm h<sup>-1</sup> (even values up to 60 mm h<sup>-1</sup> were recorded on the 30<sup>th</sup> of July of  
302 2003) and the runoff produced in burnt plots represented the 65% of the whole runoff yielded  
303 in the post-fire year. Whereas, in the control plots, the runoff generated in the first four rain  
304 events represented the 55%. According to the results, differences of one order of magnitude  
305 were reached between the burnt and control treatments (Figure 4a), denoting the changes in  
306 the soil hydrological behaviour and also the importance of the  $I_{30}$  peaks after fire.

307

### 308 **3.3. Pre and post-fire hydrological conditions**

309

310 The values of infiltration rate at the plot scale supports these findings on the runoff  
311 trends. In the pre-fire year, insignificant statistical differences were observed between  
312 treatments, 2.78 mm h<sup>-1</sup> in burned plots and 2.82 mm h<sup>-1</sup> in the control ones. At the end of the  
313 post-fire year, the infiltration decreased in the burnt plots, showing statistically significant  
314 differences relative to the control ones: 5.6 mm h<sup>-1</sup> and 5.2 mm h<sup>-1</sup> in T1 and T2, respectively,  
315 and 6.6 mm h<sup>-1</sup> in T3 (Figure 4b).

316 On the other hand, after a fire disturbance in a shrubland area, one soil quality indicator  
317 could be the soil water retention capacity (Boix-Fayos, 1997). According to this indicator, we  
318 notice that before the fire experience, no statistically significant differences between burnt and  
319 control treatments appeared (Table 1). Hence, before the 2003 fire, some hydrological  
320 properties as infiltration rate at the plot scale and SWRC, were substantially recovered in the  
321 burnt plots, showing similar conditions to those of the control ones (Figure 4b and Table 1 ).

322 The degrading effect of fire affected the SWC and SWRC (Figure 5 and Table 1).  
323 Instead of the slight rise on the after burnt SWRC, there is statistical evidence of less water  
324 content in T1 and T2 relative to those on T3. Also the data revealed high water content  
325 variability at low pF and thus, the gravitational water content increased in contrast to the  
326 capillary and hygroscopic one (Figure 5).

327

### 328 **3.4. Effects of fire and presence/absence of vegetation on the steady state infiltration** 329 **(MDI)**

330

#### 331 **3.4.1. Fire effects**

332

333 The fire impact on soil surface generated a decrease in the infiltration rates; T1, from  
334 19.6 to 17.2 mm h<sup>-1</sup>, and T2, from 22.3 to 21.5 mm h<sup>-1</sup>, even though there is no significant  
335 statistical evidence (Table 2).

336 According to Martin and Moody (2001), the burnt/not burnt ratio on the SSI, provides a  
337 relative measurement of the fire effects on soil infiltration and it is useful for comparing  
338 disparate sites. Ratios of 0.88 in T1 and 0.96 in T2, reflected a slight decreasing trend of the  
339 SSI, which confirmed its relatively small change.

340 In relation to the infiltration capacity (IC) and previous to the fire, similar values were  
341 reached in T1, T2 and T3. The decline occurred after the fire disturbance was clear and in the  
342 T1 and T2, the IC decreased by 50% and 33%, respectively (Table 2). Meanwhile, on T3 the  
343 IC did not change and, despite the fact that the IC was almost the double, the SSI (21.7 mm h<sup>-1</sup>)  
344 was almost the same as the one obtained in T1 and T2.

345

#### 346 **3.4.2. Vegetation effects**

347

348 **3.4.2.1. Natural undisturbed treatment**

349

350 The patchiness of vegetation on the plots of “La Concordia” describes the variability of  
351 topsoil properties. The interspaces between plants (BS) in T3, displayed greater SSI and IC  
352 than the UC soil (Table 3). The statistical analysis did not detect differences in SSI, but the  
353 greatest values in the bare soil could be related to the clear difference in the infiltration  
354 capacity between both microsites (Table 3), with 60% more IC in BS than in the UC soils.

355 To check the natural water repellence gradient on the UC soil, the Figure 6 draws the  
356 infiltration rate over time for the vegetated and non-vegetated soil. The curve can be divided  
357 into two sections. Primarily, the initial exponential decrease in the first five minutes  
358 (maximum soil sorptivity), and secondly, a linear infiltration behaviour (from minute 5<sup>th</sup> to  
359 minute 20<sup>th</sup>) as the soil moisture increases. Hence, in the first step (infiltration rates at minute  
360 5<sup>th</sup>), statistically significant differences ( $p < 0.05$ ) between microsites (UC/BS) were obtained:  
361 24.5 mm h<sup>-1</sup> in UC and 44.1 mm h<sup>-1</sup> in BS. As the infiltration test runs, the soil wetness  
362 increases and when the steady-state (minute 20<sup>th</sup>) was reached, no statistically significant  
363 differences between microsites were obtained: 17.9 mm h<sup>-1</sup> in UC and 25.4 mm h<sup>-1</sup> in BS  
364 (Figure 6). Therefore, on the compared microsites (UC and BS), the main differences on the  
365 infiltration trials occurred in the first five minutes of the test, which could be considered as  
366 the influence of water repellence on the UC microsites.

367

368 **3.4.2.2. Post-fire changes**

369

370 Robichaud and Waldrop (1994), define fire impact as a magnitude in the alteration of  
371 soil properties, which highly depends on the amount of vegetation residue and litter

372 consumption. The study of the variations in the SSI and IC could reflect this effect. Relative  
373 to the SSI, differences between microsites (UC and BS) were obtained in the pre-fire  
374 infiltration trials on T1 and T2. In T1, 30% less water infiltration was obtained under  
375 shrubland compared to the ones on the bare soil. In T2, the IC and the SSI were always larger  
376 in the BS microsites than in the UC ones, which only exceeded those of BS (24 mm h<sup>-1</sup> in UC  
377 and 20 mm h<sup>-1</sup> in BS) (Figure 7) in the last minutes of the test.

378 The fire impact produced a decrease in infiltration, mainly in the UC microsites. In the  
379 UC soil of T1 and T2, the ratios after burned/before burned (AB/BB) were of 0.76 and 0.79  
380 respectively. Comparing microsites (UC and BS), the post-fire differences also increased in  
381 T1 (14%) and T2 (6%) (Table 3). On the UC microsites, a marked decrease in the initial  
382 stages (at minute 5<sup>th</sup>) was found. Although at the SSI (minute 20<sup>th</sup>), the difference regarding  
383 the pre-fire values were substantially reduced (Figure 7). The results on the IC seem to be  
384 clear, where a decrease of almost 67% in T1 and 42% in T2 (Table 3) occurred and directly  
385 affected the water infiltration in the initial stages.

386 The results obtained on the bare soil, indicate a small fire influence in these areas. The  
387 statistical analysis did not detect significant changes between pre- and post-fire conditions on  
388 the SSI and on the IC (Table 3). In addition, on BS of T2, a slight increase occurred in the  
389 SSI. A different response took place on T1, where no increase in the SSI occurred, and the  
390 change relating to post-fire conditions was minimal (Table 3). The burned/unburned SSI ratio  
391 on T1 bare soil was of 0.96, while on the infiltration capacity, the mean ratio was of 0.6. On  
392 T2, the SSI ratio showed an increase, but the infiltration capacity showed practically no  
393 change after the fire disturbance.

394

#### 395 **4. Discussion**

396



#### 397 **4.1. Rainy periods and runoff behaviour**

398

399 The precipitations in the Mediterranean basin denote a wide inter-annual variability,  
400 especially in rainfall volume and intensity (Gimeno-García *et al.*, 2007). The rain intensity  
401 variability on La Concordia Experimental Field Station during 2002-2004 ranged from 1.6 to  
402 91.8 mm h<sup>-1</sup>. During a year before the 2003 fire, the storm characteristics displayed soft rain  
403 intensities ( $I_{30}$  ranges between 1.8 mm h<sup>-1</sup> to 21.2 mm h<sup>-1</sup>) and long durations. This fact,  
404 together with the 30-40% vegetation recovery since 1995, and the negative and exponential  
405 relationship between plant cover and runoff (Gimeno-García *et al.*, 2007), facilitated a  
406 decrease in the runoff rates during the year 2002. However, the high superficial stoniness (up  
407 to 60%) and the income of new litter that could create barriers (Cerdà, 2001; Pierson *et al.*,  
408 2001), were the other factors that promoted a high ponding infiltration and less runoff. Prior  
409 to the 2003 fires, the runoff rates in burnt plots were recovered and the values were in the  
410 same order of magnitude as on the control plots.

411 Meanwhile, the post-fire average  $I_{30}$  (13.6 mm h<sup>-1</sup>) and the short elapsed time between  
412 fire impact and first rain storms, have directly influenced the runoff trends on the burnt plots,  
413 during the first post-fire year (Campo *et al.*, 2006; González-Pelayo *et al.*, 2006; Gimeno-  
414 García *et al.*, 2007). Thus, the runoff rates in burnt treatments increased in one order of  
415 magnitude compared to the pre-fire values and to the control ones, reporting differences of  
416 95% relative to the T3. Equally, Campo *et al.* (2006) described a runoff divergence of one  
417 order of magnitude between this burnt and a non-affected Mediterranean ecosystem. Scott  
418 (1993) calculated differences in the runoff up to two orders of magnitude after a wildfire in  
419 South African mountains and, Ferreira *et al.* (2008) listed runoff increases of 1 and 2 orders of  
420 magnitude depending on the study scale, catchment and plots.

421 Focussing on the rain events, data reflected that 65% of the runoff was recorded during  
422 the early storms which occurred after the fire. Sala *et al.* (1994), Andreu *et al.* (2001) and  
423 Gimeno-García *et al.* (2001 and 2007) obtained similar trends and, Rubio *et al.* (1995)  
424 indicates the four first months after fires as the most critical period for runoff production in  
425 Mediterranean areas. After the 2003 experimental burning, the short elapsed time (twelve  
426 days) between the fire impact and the first rainstorm, the post-fire soil surface conditions,  
427 together with average  $I_{30}$  values of rains up to  $20 \text{ mm h}^{-1}$ , were the key factors in the one order  
428 of magnitude runoff increase.

429

#### 430 **4.2. Fire influence on some hydrological properties**

431

432 The decrease of the infiltration at plot scale, the high variability of SWC at low pF  
433 values and the significant differences between burnt and control SWRC, are in agreement  
434 with the findings of Cerdà (1998), whom, after fire disturbances in a carbonated bedrock soil,  
435 found a negative relationship between soil water content (SWC) and infiltration rate. Lower  
436 levels of SWRC were also found by Boix-Fayos *et al.* (1997), in similar soil and vegetation  
437 burned areas.

438 In addition to these tendencies, Badía *et al.* (2003) and Rulli *et al.* (2006), found a  
439 decrease in the saturated hydraulic conductivity of burnt soils, which is closely linked to the  
440 infiltration process (Robichaud, 2000). In other terms, Andreu *et al.* (2001) also reported a  
441 post-fire degradation effect, but only with a soil aggregate fraction higher than 2 mm. In  
442 studies in the laboratory muffle furnace, García-Corona *et al.* (2004) connected the effects of  
443 low temperatures ( $<220^\circ\text{C}$ ) to changes in the aggregation pattern and presence of water  
444 repellency. Therefore, fire impact on soil surface imply alterations on the topsoil structural

445 characteristics (soil cohesiveness, bulk density and compaction), which are directly related to  
446 the soil infiltration capacity (Cammeraat and Imeson, 1998).

447 Consequently, post-fire changes on the SWRC and SWC (Table 1 and Figure 5), are  
448 partially associated with the soil structure and aggregation of the soil particles (Boix-Fayos,  
449 1997; Badía *et al.*, 2003; González-Pelayo *et al.*, 2006). Therefore, post-fire reduction in soil  
450 infiltration must be linked with changes in hydrological parameters, which are partially due to  
451 the degradation of soil structure as a result of burning (Imeson *et al.*, 1992). A concomitant  
452 factor associated with the infiltration decrease in burned areas, could be the incorporation of  
453 hydrophobic compounds on soil surface after the fire impact (Pierson *et al.*, 2001; Shakesby  
454 and Doerr, 2006; Ferreira *et al.*, 2008), together with the crusting processes in soil pores by  
455 the addition of ashes and detached particles (Neary *et al.*, 1999).

456 This data reflects that the major variations on the SWC occurred in the soil fraction  
457 involved at low retention forces, pF 0.1, pF 2, and pF 2.5 (Figure 5). At these pF values, the  
458 amount of water depends primarily on the coarse pore sizes used in capillary and gravity  
459 movement of water, and hence, it is strongly affected by soil structure (Hillel, 1980). The  
460 greater SWC variability on samples taken after fire disturbance could indicate the soil surface  
461 structural changes reported after fire, and are in accordance with the lower infiltration rate, the  
462 significant differences in the SWRC between burnt and control treatments, and the increase in  
463 the runoff yield.

464

### 465 **4.3. Fire and vegetation effects on the infiltration (MDI)**

466

#### 467 **4.3.1. Changes on SSI induced by fire**

468

469 The burnt/non-burnt ratios of SSI, reflect the soil behaviour on burned calcareous  
470 Mediterranean soils. In this study, ratios of 0.88 in T1 and 0.96 in T2 were measured, which  
471 agree with the observation of Kutiel *et al.* (1995), whom obtained ratios ranging in 0.85 to 1,  
472 in Mount Carmel forest, Israel. On the other hand, Imeson *et al.* (1992), in studies in a post-  
473 fire Mediterranean forested plain (Catalonia, Spain), obtained infiltration rates between 15  
474 and 20 mm h<sup>-1</sup> in a post-fire environment, showing the characteristic water infiltration curve  
475 into the soil (Figure 6 and 7), that seems to be related with humus type and fire impact.

476 Instead of the decrease in the infiltration rate, the post-fire IC reduction was clear.  
477 Robichaud (2000) and Rulli *et al.* (2006), also found a decline of hydraulic conductivity from  
478 pre- to post-fire soil conditions of about 40% and 60%, respectively. The first suggested that  
479 it was caused by the development of fire induced water repellent conditions. Whilst, Imeson  
480 *et al.* (1992) also noticed a drop in the IC after fire and argued that it was due to the ground  
481 cover reduction, the formation of a water repellent layer and the soil pores being clogged by  
482 the ash particles and/or fine sediment. Therefore, it appears to be clear that fire contributes to  
483 diminish the soil water infiltration, which it is directly linked with the IC, and the processes  
484 involved in its decline.

485 It was observed that values lower than 1 in the SSI and IC ratios, and the post-fire soil  
486 surface conditions, are related to the runoff yield at the plot scale, which increased in one  
487 order of magnitude relative to pre-fire values. On the other hand, the reduction in half of the  
488 IC in the T1 and T2, relative to the T3 and the pre-fire values, could also be an indicator of  
489 the fire impact degree on the hydrological soil surface properties of the affected soil. The  
490 importance of the IC is associated with the first steps of the infiltration process, because when  
491 the soil is dry and a rainstorm occurs, the IC is one of the relevant parameters for the runoff  
492 production.

493

#### 494 **4.3.2. Natural and burned vegetation effects on soil**

495

##### 496 **4.3.2.1. Infiltration processes on non-burnt soils**

497

498         The different infiltration behaviour between vegetated and bare soil appears to be related  
499 to the first steps of water entry into the soil (Figure 6), when soil sorptivity is at its maximum.  
500 Consequently at the 5<sup>th</sup> minute of the infiltration test, double values of infiltration were found  
501 in BS relative to the UC ones. However, at the 20<sup>th</sup> minute (steady-state) no differences were  
502 found. By this, the diverse soil surface properties of vegetated and non vegetated sites (Kutiel  
503 *et al.*, 1995; Bochet *et al.*, 2006), might to be implicated during the first stages of the  
504 infiltration test. Similar soil behaviours were described by Letey (2001), which related the soil  
505 sorptivity with the water entry into soil, and partially linked the low water infiltration with  
506 water repellent soil conditions facilitated by litter and magnified by fire impact. Also taking  
507 into account comparable soils, Arcenegui *et al.* (2007) and Mataix-Solera *et al.* (2007),  
508 reported natural soil water repellence in the upper soil layers in alkaline soil conditions under  
509 Mediterranean shrubs. They noted that the type and quantity of litter controls the persistence  
510 of hydrophobicity and thus, directly influence the infiltration processes. Verheijen and  
511 Cammeraat (2007), also determined a repellence gradient from shrub species tussocks to the  
512 plant interspaces (BS). Consequently, this natural hydrophobic soil gradients, could affect the  
513 hydrological response of Mediterranean slopes characterized by patchy shrubland vegetation.  
514 Thus, the more hydrophobic soil surface conditions under the bushes canopy (Arcenegui *et*  
515 *al.*, 2007; Mataix-Solera, *et al.*, 2007; Verheijen and Cammeraat, 2007), retards soil water  
516 infiltration by the micropores fluxes (involved in the minidisk measurements), mainly in the  
517 first stages of the infiltration test, where the highest infiltration capacity (IC) has been reached  
518 in this study.

519 At the end of the infiltration tests, at the steady-state, similar values on the vegetated  
520 (UC) and non vegetated (BS) microsites were reached (Figure 6). It could be related to the  
521 decrease of hydrophobic soil behaviour with its wettability (DeBano *et al.*, 1998). Cammeraat  
522 and Imeson (1999) and Robichaud (2000), also noticed linear water infiltration behaviour as  
523 the soil moisture increases. In vegetated soil with dry conditions (before minute 5<sup>th</sup>),  
524 hydrophobicity could play a role in the decrease of the infiltration capacity (Table 3) and, as a  
525 result, in the SSI. Also, when the steady-state was reached and the soil water content  
526 increased, the stable water infiltration rate depended on other soil properties.

527

#### 528 **4.3.2.2. Influence of burnt vegetation on water infiltration**

529

530 Multiple factors bring about the reduction in SSI in burnt soils in relation to unburnt  
531 ones (Martin and Moody, 2001). Letey (2001) and Shakesby and Doerr (2006), describe  
532 reductions in soil infiltration by water repellence induced by fire. Neary *et al.* (1999) and  
533 Martin and Moody (2001) describes sealing processes on pores by fine soil and ash particles,  
534 altering soil superficial porosity. On the other hand, Mataix-Solera and Doerr (2004),  
535 observed that finer aggregate fractions exhibited a higher degree of hydrophobicity than the  
536 coarsest fraction on a calcareous Mediterranean burnt soil. Finally, Campo *et al.* (2008)  
537 describes on UC microsites after the early 1995 fires, a decreasing trend on the macro-  
538 aggregate quantity and an increase of the micro-aggregate one. As a consequence, in burnt  
539 soils under shrubland canopies, the probable increase of the hydrophobic micro-aggregate  
540 fraction combined with the ashy residue, that could plug soil pores, implied a decrease in the  
541 infiltration capacity and hence, on the steady-state infiltration (Table 3).

542 In contrast, on the bare soil, the fire impact was minimal and the changes in the  
543 infiltration were negligible. Pierson *et al.* (2001), after a rangeland firestorm in a bush forest

544 range in northwest Nevada (USA), concluded that fire had little influence on the infiltration of  
545 the plant interspaces. Furthermore, Robichaud and Waldrop (1994), describe that the fire  
546 progression on the slope creates a mosaic pattern of duff consumption and some unburnt  
547 areas, due to the spatial variability of the duff thickness and vegetation cover on the slope, and  
548 thus some non-vegetated areas are not affected by thermal impact. On bare soil microsites, the  
549 major infiltration capacity and SSI could be explained by the lack of stand vegetation acting  
550 as a hydrophobic source by the partial decomposition of organic matter after a light fire  
551 (Letey, 2001).

552

## 553 **5. Conclusions**

554

555 In the case study, eight years after the early fires in 1995 is enough time for the soil to  
556 recover some hydrological properties as soil water content and soil water retention capacity.  
557 Differences on runoff yield still remain close to 75%.

558 The higher runoff yields after 2003 fire disturbance were directly influenced by the low  
559 infiltration capacity measured after burning. Runoff increased in one order of magnitude (up  
560 to 20 times) during the post-fire year. A relevant factor on runoff generation was the  
561 distribution of the rainfall events during the early weeks after fire ( $I_{30}$  greater than 20 mm h<sup>-1</sup>  
562 in the first four rainstorms). The runoff produced in these four early rain events, represented  
563 65% of the whole post-fire year runoff, denoting the importance of the  $I_{30}$  and the elapsed  
564 time between fire and the first aggressive rainstorm.

565 The natural variability in the steady-state infiltration rate and infiltration capacity at the  
566 patchy micro-scale, can be strongly affected by the presence or absence of vegetation.  
567 Contrary to other studies, on soil under canopy, the infiltration rate and infiltration capacity,

568 when soil is dry, is lower than that obtained on bare soil. Once the soil gets wet, the steady-  
569 state infiltrations are similar on both microenvironments.

570 On the burnt soils and depending on the microsite, different responses on the infiltration  
571 rate and capacity were obtained. The soil under canopy showed a significant decrease of the  
572 steady-state infiltration related to the important decline of the infiltration capacity. This drop  
573 is involved in the early stages of the infiltration process. On the other hand, the bare soil is  
574 less affected and showed a slight change in both parameters. Therefore, the infiltration pattern  
575 in burnt areas changes in relation to the non affected ones, and as global consequence, the soil  
576 water storage decreases at the plot scale.

577

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579

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585 espaciales en ambientes mediterráneos: Efectos de la variabilidad climática y los cambios de  
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587

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716 Figure 1. Geographical location of the Experimental Station of La Concordia (Llíria-Valencia,  
717 Spain).

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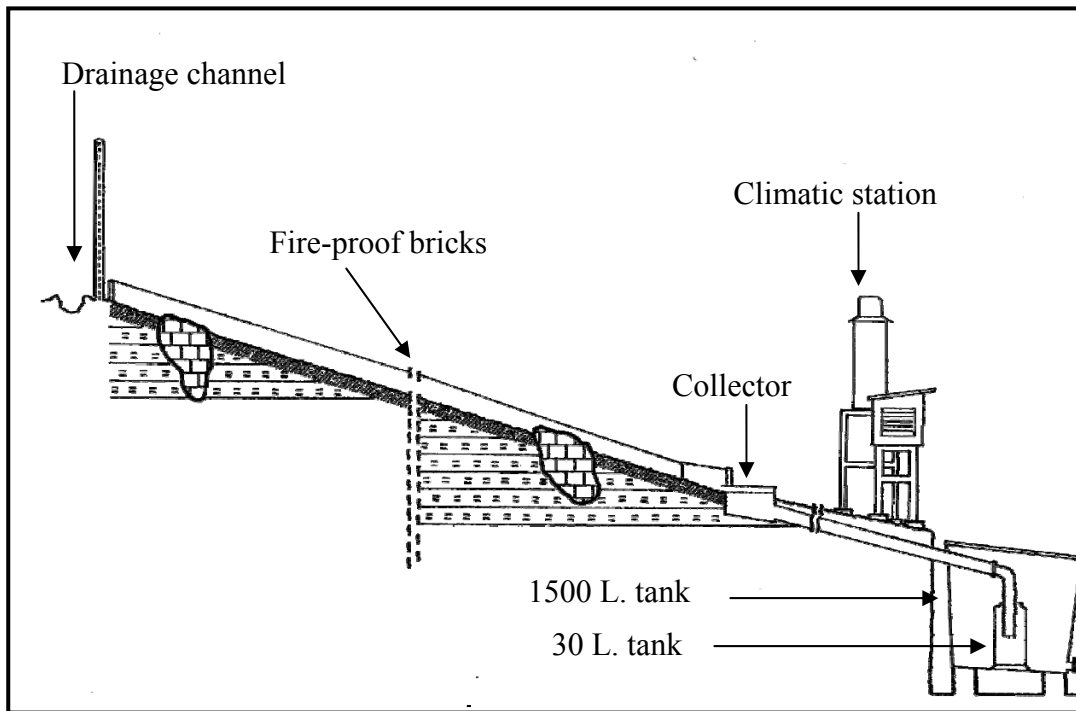
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Figure 2. Erosion plot design installed in the La Concordia Experimental Station

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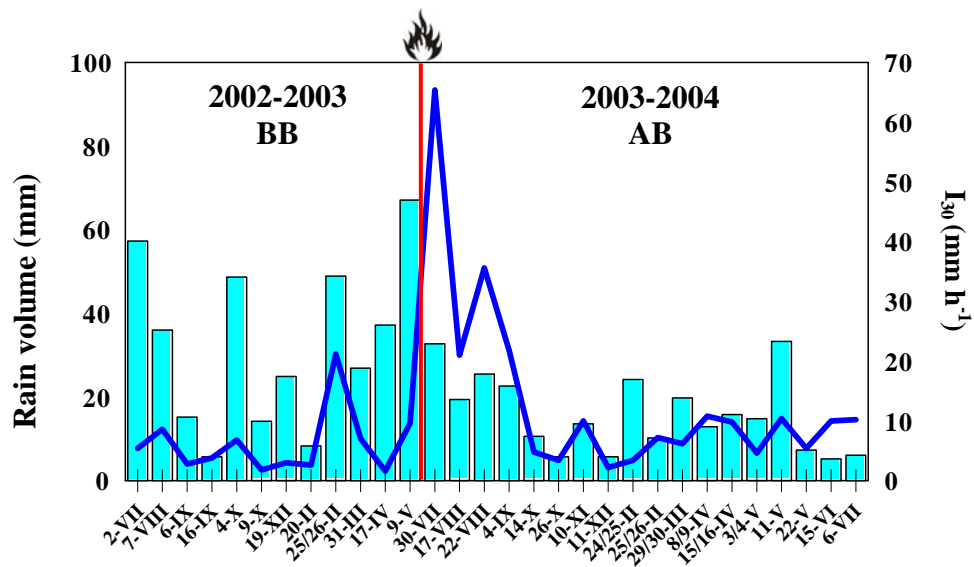
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749 Figure 3. Erosive rain events occurred during the studied period. Rain volume (mm) in bars  
 750 and  $I_{30}$  (mm h<sup>-1</sup>) in line. BB, before burnt. AB, after burnt.

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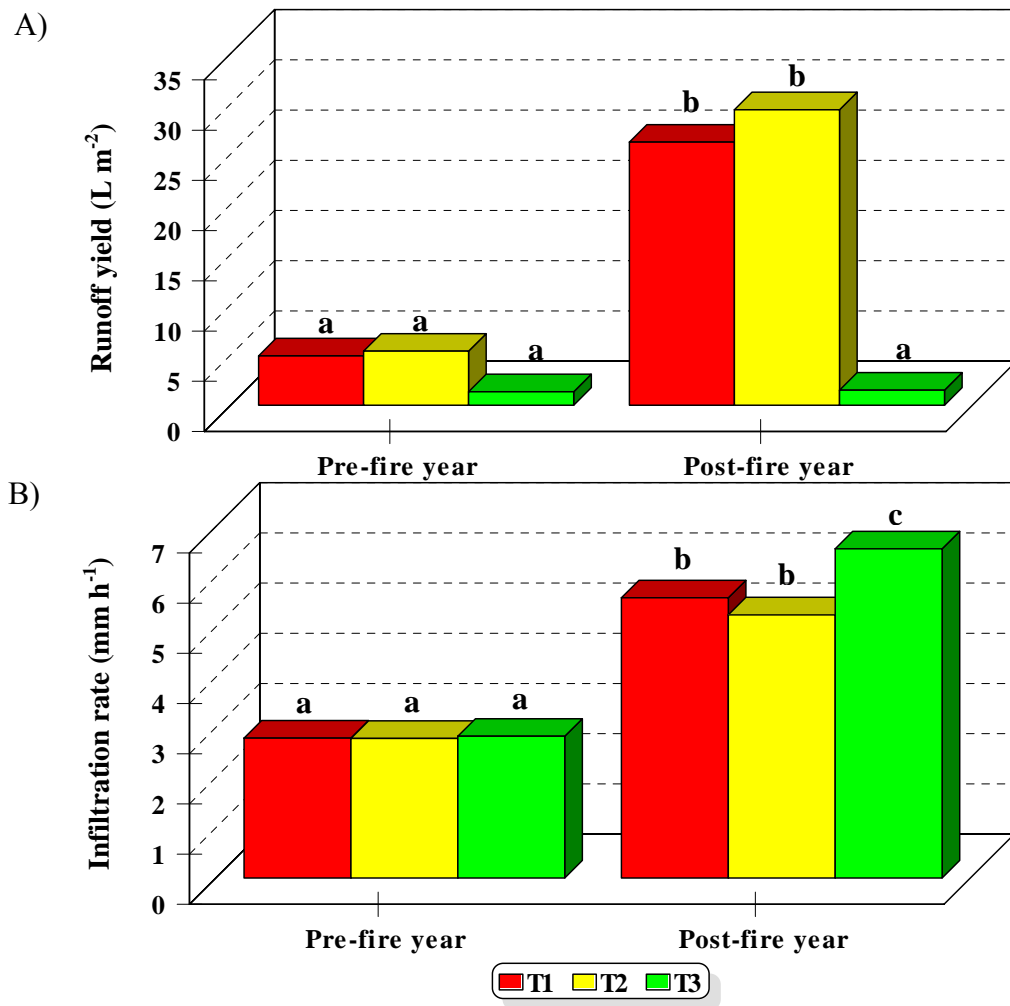
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766 Figure 4. Runoff yielded (L m<sup>-2</sup>) (A), and infiltration rate (mm h<sup>-1</sup>) (B) at the plot scale,  
 767 recorded in the pre- (2002-2003) and post-fire (2003-2004) years. T1, high intensity  
 768 treatment; T2, moderate intensity treatment; and T3, control. Values not sharing the same  
 769 letter indicate statistically significant differences according to Tukey's test (p<0.05)

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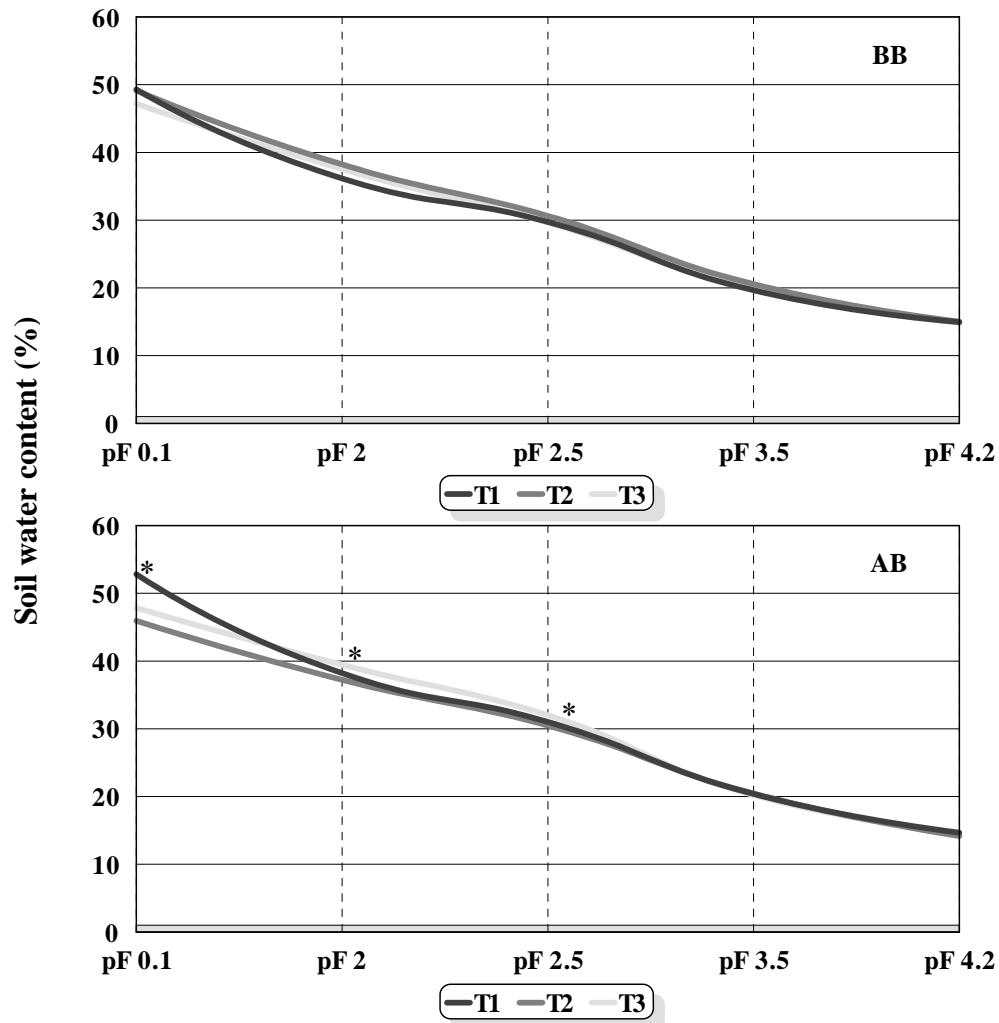
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777 Figure 5. Soil water content (%) extracted by pF curves. BB means before burnt, AB means  
 778 after burnt. T1, high intensity treatment; T2, moderate intensity treatment; and T3, control. \*,  
 779 Means statistical significant differences between fire and control treatments detected by  
 780 Tukey's test ( $p < 0.05$ ).

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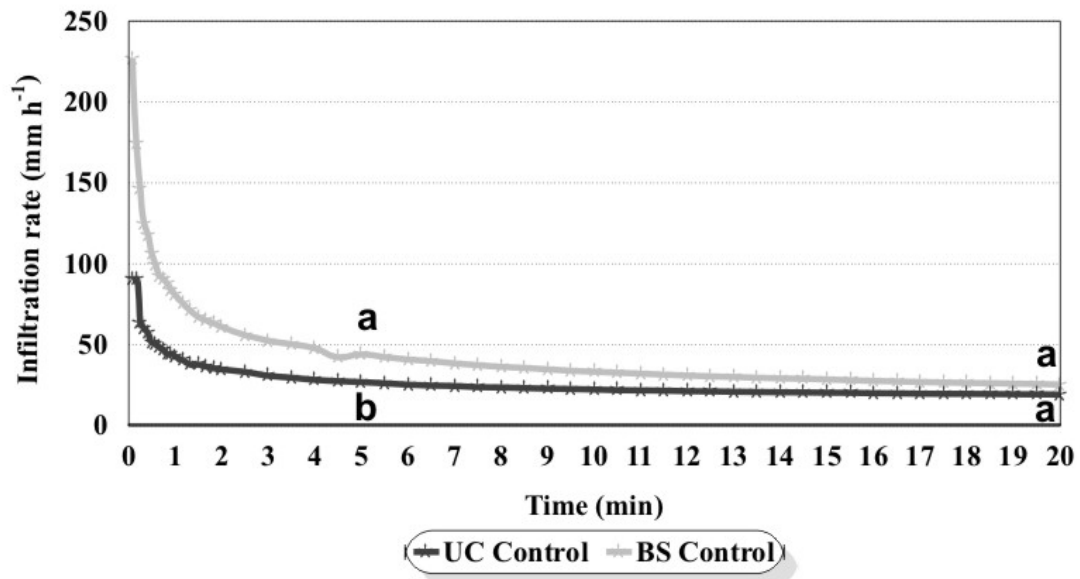
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788 Figure 6. Infiltration rate ( $\text{mm h}^{-1}$ ) over time in T3 (control treatment). UC, under canopy. BS,  
 789 bare soil. Different letters among UC and BS curves, at 5<sup>th</sup> minute and at 20<sup>th</sup> minute, display  
 790 statistical significant differences detected by Tukey's test ( $p < 0.05$ ).

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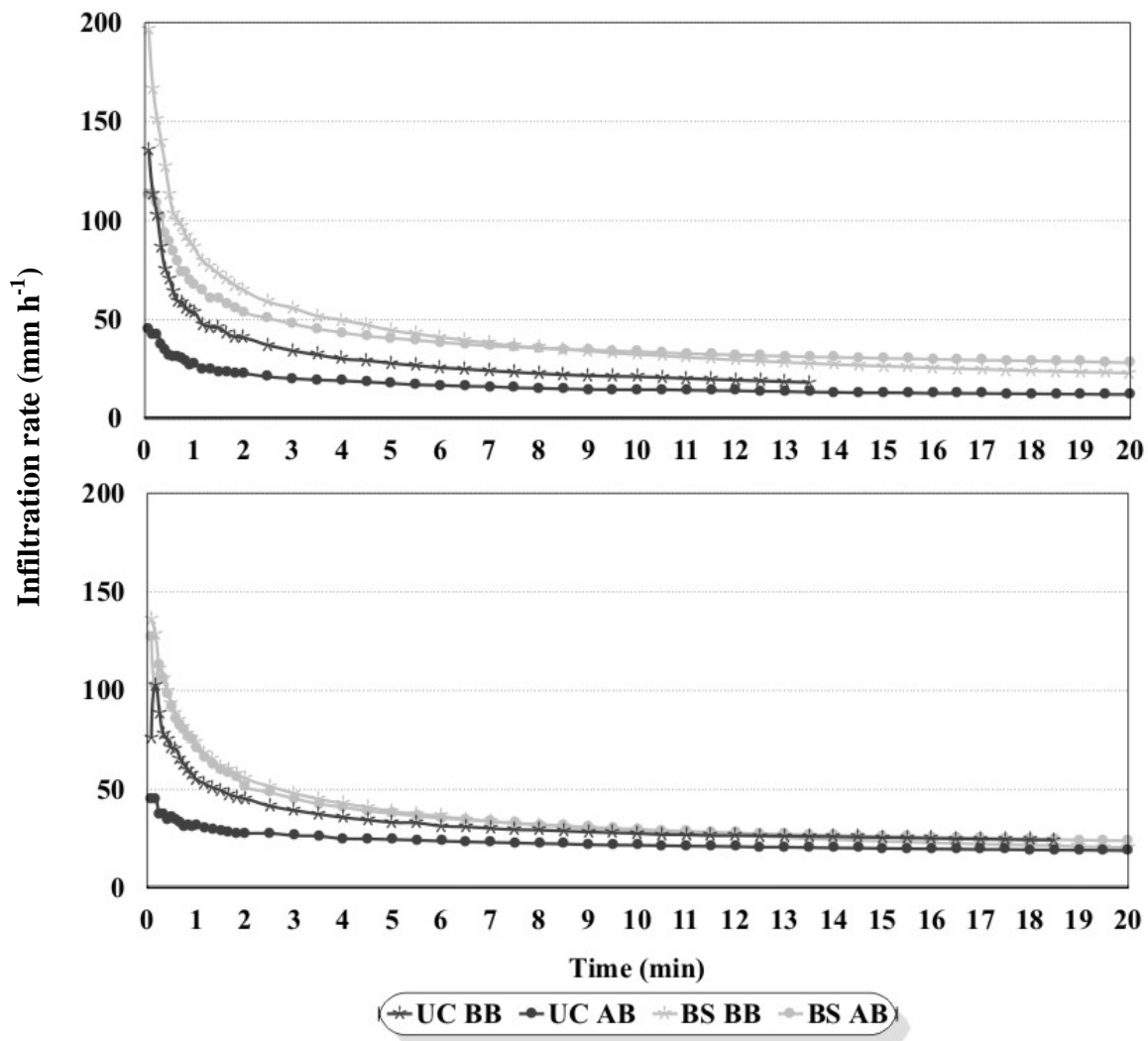
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805 Figure 7. Infiltration rate (mm h<sup>-1</sup>) over time. T1 and T2 are high and moderate fire intensity  
 806 treatments, respectively. UC, under canopy. BS, bare soil. BB, before burnt. AB, after burnt.

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814 Table 1. Soil water retention capacity (%) obtained from samples taken before (BB) and after  
815 (AB) the 2003 burnt, depending on the fire treatments: T1, high intensity; T2, moderate  
816 intensity; and T3, unburned. N=72.

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|           | <b>T1</b> | <b>T2</b> | <b>T3</b> |
|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| <b>BB</b> | 21.3 a    | 23.2 a    | 22.6 a    |
| <b>AB</b> | 23.6 a    | 22.7 a    | 25.6 b    |

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821 <sup>a</sup> Values with the same letter, in the same rows, indicate no statistically significant differences  
822 detected by Tukey's test ( $p < 0.05$ ).

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839 Table 2. Steady-state infiltration (SSI, mm h<sup>-1</sup>) and infiltration capacity (IC, mm h<sup>-1</sup>), obtained  
 840 by the minidisk infiltrometer method (MDI), depending on the different fire treatments (T1,  
 841 high fire intensity; T2, moderate fire intensity; and T3, unburned). BB and AB mean before  
 842 and after the 2003 experimental fire, respectively. N=72.

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|                                |                    | <b>T1</b> | <b>T2</b> | <b>T3</b> |
|--------------------------------|--------------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| <b>SSI (mm h<sup>-1</sup>)</b> | <b>BB</b>          | 19.6      | 22.3      | 21.7      |
|                                | <b>AB</b>          | 17.2      | 21.5      | 21.7      |
|                                | <b>Ratio AB/BB</b> | 0.88      | 0.96      | 1.00      |
| <b>IC (mm h<sup>-1</sup>)</b>  | <b>BB</b>          | 166.2     | 119.4     | 158.7     |
|                                | <b>AB</b>          | 79.3      | 86.1      | 158.7     |
|                                | <b>Ratio AB/BB</b> | 0.48      | 0.72      | 1.00      |

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864 Table 3. Average steady-state infiltration rate (SSI, mm h<sup>-1</sup>) and average infiltration capacity  
 865 (IC, mm h<sup>-1</sup>) measured by means of minidisk infiltrometer method (MDI). T1, high fire  
 866 intensity; T2, moderate fire intensity; and T3, unburned. BB and AB mean before and after  
 867 the 2003 experimental fire, respectively. UC, under canopy and BS, bare soil. N=72.

|                                |                    | <b>T1</b> |           | <b>T2</b> |           | <b>T3</b> |           |
|--------------------------------|--------------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
|                                |                    | <b>UC</b> | <b>BS</b> | <b>UC</b> | <b>BS</b> | <b>UC</b> | <b>BS</b> |
| <b>SSI (mm h<sup>-1</sup>)</b> | <b>BB</b>          | 16.3      | 23.0      | 24.1      | 20.5      | 17.9      | 25.4      |
|                                | <b>AB</b>          | 12.3      | 22.1      | 19.0      | 24.0      | 17.9      | 25.4      |
|                                | <b>Ratio AB/BB</b> | 0.76      | 0.96      | 0.79      | 1.17      | 1.00      | 1.00      |
| <b>IC (mm h<sup>-1</sup>)</b>  | <b>BB</b>          | 136.0     | 196.5     | 102.8     | 136.0     | 90.7      | 226.7     |
|                                | <b>AB</b>          | 45.3      | 113.4     | 45.3      | 127.0     | 90.7      | 226.7     |
|                                | <b>Ratio AB/BB</b> | 0.33      | 0.58      | 0.44      | 0.93      | 1.00      | 1.00      |

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