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**The impacts of prescribed moorland burning on water colour and dissolved organic carbon: a critical synthesis**

Holden, J., Chapman, P.J., Palmer, S.M., Kay, P. and Grayson, R.

water@leeds, School of Geography, University of Leeds, Leeds, LS2 9JT, UK

[j.holden@leeds.ac.uk](mailto:j.holden@leeds.ac.uk); +44 113 343 3317

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33 **Abstract**

34 Discolouration of natural surface waters due to the humic component of dissolved organic carbon  
35 (DOC) is a costly problem for water supply companies. This paper reviews what is known about  
36 the impacts of prescribed moorland vegetation burning on water colour. Relevant research has taken  
37 place at three scales: laboratory experiments on peat cores, plot scale sampling of soil waters and  
38 catchment scale sampling of stream waters. While laboratory studies suggest burning increases  
39 colour production, the evidence from catchment and plot studies is contradictory. Plot studies  
40 suggest colour production may decrease or remain unchanged following burning although there is  
41 evidence for some transient changes. Catchment studies suggest prescribed moorland burning  
42 causes stream water colour to increase, although in most cases the evidence is not clear cut since  
43 most studies could not clearly disentangle the effects of burning from those of vegetation cover. The  
44 differences in findings between plot and catchment studies may be explained by: i) the short-term  
45 nature of some studies which do not measure long-term response and recovery times to burning; ii)  
46 the lack of colour measurements from shallow soil depths which contribute more to streamflow than  
47 soil water from deeper in the peat; and iii) the possibility of hydrological interactions occurring  
48 between different experimental plots at some sites. Additionally, the increase in recent patch  
49 burning in some catchments that has been statistically attributed by some authors to increases in  
50 stream water colour cannot be reconciled with theoretical calculations. When dilution with waters  
51 derived from other parts of the catchment are taken into account, large values of colour have to be  
52 theoretically derived from those recently burnt areas that occupy a small proportion of the  
53 catchment area in order to balance the change in stream water colour observed in recent years.  
54 Therefore, much further process-based work is required to properly investigate whether prescribed  
55 vegetation burning is a direct driver of enhanced colour and DOC in upland streams, rivers and  
56 lakes.

57

58 **Keywords:** moorland, peatland, fire, dissolved organic carbon, land management, water colour,  
59 burning

60

61 **Highlights**

62

63 • We critically review evidence for moorland burning impacts on water colour

64

65 • Laboratory leachate studies suggest burning increases water colour release

66

67 • Plot studies suggest a transient and varied response to burning

68

69 • Catchment correlations suggest burning increases stream water colour

70

71 • Shallow soil water data would help link catchment and plot scale studies

72 **1. Introduction**

73 Most fire impact work in peatlands has focussed on wildfire (e.g. Robinson and Moore, 2000;  
74 Turetsky et al., 2004; Maltby et al., 1990). However, prescribed burning in peatlands has been used  
75 as a management tool in many areas (e.g. Buytaert et al., 2006; Holden et al., 2007). These managed  
76 burns tend to operate at cooler temperatures than wildfires and are less intense (Tucker, 2003). In  
77 the UK, many upland moorland environments, dominated by blanket peat cover, have historically  
78 been burned to regenerate young heather shoots for winter fodder, and regenerate palatable sedges  
79 and grasses for sheep and deer. Burn management in small rotationally (5 to 20 years) burned  
80 patches has also been common over the past 150 years (Simmons, 2003) to produce heather age  
81 mosaics to support red grouse habitats as desired by the rural gun-sports industry. Burning may  
82 occur over a range of typically acid organic soils across the uplands, but, despite guidelines that  
83 recommend no burning on blanket peat (Defra, 2007), many burnt areas are in fact on blanket  
84 peatlands.

85  
86 Where peat occurs within a catchment it typically dominates as a source of stream water  
87 discolouration and dissolved organic carbon (DOC) (Mitchell and McDonald, 1995; Aitkenhead et  
88 al., 1999). Water colour is a major problem for water companies because deterioration in water  
89 colour leads to breaches of European Union drinking water standards and an increase in water  
90 treatment costs. It also has health implications as the chlorination of highly coloured water can lead  
91 to the production of carcinogenic disinfection by-products (Pereira et al. 1992; Chow et al., 2003)  
92 which are tightly regulated. Additionally there are regulatory drivers associated with the EU Water  
93 Framework Directive, 2000/60/EC, which means that land management activities that could result  
94 in changes to the ecological status of water bodies must be examined and dealt with. Processes  
95 which enhance the potential for DOC release from peat, such as water table drawdown via drainage  
96 (Wallage et al., 2006), warmer temperatures (Tranvik and Jansson, 2002) or a reduction in sulphate  
97 deposition (Evans et al. 2006) may exacerbate the colour problem at water treatment works. There

98 is some evidence to suggest there has been an increase in the area of land being burned in some  
99 parts of northern England in recent years. In the 10 years from 1995 air photo evidence for some  
100 parts of the Pennine hills suggested that burning significantly encroached on to blanket bog as the  
101 economic incentive grew for grouse production (Yallop et al., 2006). There is therefore an interest  
102 to understand whether burn management on peatland areas has an impact on stream water quality  
103 by increasing water colour. The carbon policy and climate change agenda also means that there is a  
104 strong interest in understanding management impacts on related DOC losses from soils, in  
105 particular peat (Holden et al. 2007).

106

107 There have been a number of reviews of the impacts of moor burning on environmental processes  
108 (Glaves and Haycock, 2005; Hobbs and Gimingham, 1987; Mowforth and Sydes, 1989; Shaw et al.,  
109 1996; Tucker, 2003; Stewart et al., 2004; Worrall et al., 2010). The Glaves and Haycock (2005)  
110 review of the Heather and Grass Burning Code for the UK government agency Defra, noted that  
111 because of a lack of scientific data it was difficult to provide evidence to support any major changes  
112 in the Code. They noted that virtually nothing was known about whether burning influences  
113 moorland hydrology, sediment release and water quality and that most research focussed on  
114 terrestrial ecology. However, there has been a surge in published reports since then. These have led  
115 to confusion among stakeholders since they appear to show conflicting results with some papers  
116 suggesting burning increases water colour (e.g. Yallop et al., 2010) while others suggest there is no  
117 impact or even a decline in water colour as a result of prescribed burning on peatlands (e.g. Clay et  
118 al., 2009b). There are also some older technical (unpublished) reports which may not have been  
119 available to the authors of previous reviews and which may contain useful information (e.g.  
120 McDonald et al., 1991; O'Brien et al., 2007).

121

122 The aim of this paper is to examine the available data on the impacts of prescribed moorland  
123 burning on water colour and DOC to establish whether there are consistent or conflicting results. In

124 addition, we will comment on whether differences in experimental design, sampling methods and/or  
125 analytical measurements between studies may explain differences in findings. Where relevant to  
126 water colour or DOC we include studies that have examined prescribed moorland burning impacts  
127 on other water quality variables. We do not study the impacts of peatland wildfires in this paper  
128 which may have very different impacts since they usually burn at hotter temperatures, for longer  
129 and over much bigger areas than prescribed patch burning.

130

## 131 **2. Terminology**

132 Before embarking on our critical synthesis it is worth clarifying some of the terminology used.  
133 *Water colour* is measured in a number of different ways and yet some authors may still refer to  
134 colour as if it is a ‘standard’ variable. Water companies have traditionally measured water colour in  
135 degrees Hazen which is where the water colour is measured against a standard solution of platinum-  
136 cobalt in the presence of cobalt (II) chloride hexahydrate. One problem is that sometimes these  
137 colour measurements have been performed on unfiltered water (and the colour is therefore the  
138 ‘apparent’ colour) and other measurements have been performed on filtered samples to remove  
139 particulates (true colour) and so correction is needed to align datasets where they are to be used  
140 together to construct long-term records or form relationships with other variables. Many scientists  
141 measure water colour by determining absorbance per metre using a spectrophotometer on water  
142 samples at a particular wavelength. Commonly used wavelengths are 400, 450, 600 and 650 nm but  
143 many others have also been used (Grayson and Holden, in press). These values can be related to  
144 Hazen units via regression, although the slope of the regression line may vary from site to site and  
145 through time.

146

147 *Dissolved organic carbon* (DOC) concentration is typically determined on analytical instruments  
148 (e.g. total carbon analysers, or by oxidation on a combustion infra-red analyser) after filtering  
149 through a 0.45µm Whatman filter paper and is measured in units of mg L<sup>-1</sup>. Some authors have used

150 available colour data (e.g. Hazen) for river systems or water treatment works to estimate DOC  
151 concentrations and fluxes in these systems by linear regression (e.g. Tao, 1998, Worrall et al.,  
152 2003). However, the relationship between colour (in Hazen or absorbance at a particular  
153 wavelength) and DOC concentration is not stable and Wallage and Holden (2010) have shown that  
154 errors of > 50 % can be made in estimated DOC concentrations based on regressions from  
155 absorbance measurements. This is because DOC is made up of many compounds and contains  
156 uncoloured components. So this should be borne in mind when looking at results presented in the  
157 literature and may be one reason why Clutterbuck and Yallop (2010) chose to use the term ‘humic  
158 coloured DOC’ or hDOC (i.e. the parts of the DOC more closely related to discolouration) for their  
159 linear regressions using long-term water colour records with some DOC determinations. Indeed  
160 some common measures in the literature reflect the fact that the relationship between colour and  
161 DOC concentration is variable. One such example is *SUVA* (*specific ultra violet absorbance*) which  
162 is the ratio of absorbance at 254 nm to DOC concentration. Other similar ratio measures have also  
163 been derived which examine the ratio of colour (absorbance measured at a particular wavelength  
164 such as 400 nm) and DOC concentration (Wallage et al., 2006; Wallage and Holden, 2010).

165

### 166 **3. Critical synthesis of research**

167 The key research outputs focussing on the impacts of prescribed moorland burning on water colour,  
168 and/or DOC or related water quality variables are listed in Table 1. There are a number of other  
169 unpublished reports that examine the impact of burning on water colour and DOC that have been  
170 written for organisations such as water companies. However, where versions of these reports have  
171 been published then the published versions are cited only, so we do not duplicate our analysis.  
172 Where possible we have checked the original reports and if relevant additional information is  
173 available then we have made reference to it. Furthermore, where initial scoping data have been  
174 published but are provided in more detail and developed upon in other papers by the same authors  
175 (e.g. Yallop et al., 2008), we have only reported on the full paper.



176

177 The papers in Table 1 can be grouped into three ‘types’ of research; a) laboratory experiments  
178 using peat cores; b) plot scale studies sampling soil waters (almost entirely at the Moor House site  
179 in northern England) and c) catchment studies using stream water samples (almost entirely within  
180 the Yorkshire Pennine region of northern England). The findings of the research undertaken at  
181 these different scales are described below.

182

183 *a) Laboratory experiments*

184 The three early papers that focus on laboratory experimentation (Allen, 1964; Allen et al., 1969;  
185 Forgeard and Frenot, 1996) generally concurred that burning does not result in a significant change  
186 in nutrients leached from the soil. However, all three papers agreed that pH increased in the upper  
187 soil layer as a result of burning. Although neither colour nor DOC was measured in these  
188 experiments, the change in pH has implications for DOC production since pH controls the solubility  
189 of DOC (Thurman, 1985); the higher the pH the greater the solubility of DOC.

190

191 Two projects used laboratory experiments on peat cores specifically to examine the impacts of  
192 burning on colour release (McDonald et al. 1991 and Miller, 2008). These studies extracted cores  
193 from areas that had been burnt and areas that had not been burnt and measured leachates from the  
194 cores. Miller (2008) ran experiments using cores from a burnt area with bare peat, a burnt area  
195 where vegetation was regrowing, an unburnt bare peat and an unburnt vegetated peat. Some of the  
196 cores from each treatment were inoculated with microbes and some were subject to different drying  
197 and wetting cycles. Overall, increased water colour release in leachate was detected from burnt peat  
198 compared with unburnt peat. Drying and re-wetting of burnt peat had little effect on colour or DOC  
199 release. There was a significant drying and inoculation interaction, with enhanced colour release for  
200 cores which had been dried and inoculated, immediately after the burn. One year after the burn, this  
201 drying/inoculation interaction had been lost in the bare peat but not in the burnt revegetated peat.

202 This difference between the years for the bare peat was suggested to be due to soil moisture content  
203 differences affecting the soil microbial community but Miller (2008) noted that further research was  
204 needed to clarify this. Miller (2008) also noted that it was very clear from the experiment that the  
205 effects of burning on water colour release lasted more than one year. However, this study  
206 investigated an accidental burn which occurred during the summer time, and the results, therefore,  
207 are unlikely to be applicable to burning conducted over winter as part of grouse moor management.

208

209 McDonald et al. (1991) provided leachate data from peat cores. They showed that one month after  
210 burning there was no difference in colour leaching from burnt and unburnt peat cores. However,  
211 over longer periods prescribed burning increased colour in leachate compared to unburnt peat cores  
212 vegetated with *Calluna* and *Eriophorum*. Some of the peat cores were burnt in the field by normal  
213 planned controlled fires and then extracted and returned to the laboratory whereas other peat cores  
214 has their vegetation burnt at controlled hot and cooler temperatures in the laboratory and were then  
215 leached with water. Hotter burns were associated with more colour release than cooler burns. This  
216 was the case for both the controlled laboratory burns and for field samples. However, in the field  
217 ‘hot burns’ were assumed from the state of the peat surface and vegetation rather than by  
218 temperature measurement or control. The lag between burning and colour increase was used as  
219 evidence by McDonald et al.(1991) to suggest that burning did not directly cause colour increases  
220 but lead to other changes which then in turn lead to colour increases. McDonald et al.(1991)  
221 suggested that these processes might include accelerated microbial decomposition in warmer  
222 temperatures below an unvegetated peat surface compared to under a cooler vegetated surface.

223

#### 224 *b) Plot scale*

225 A field study on a dry *Calluna* heath in Wales has shown enhanced dissolved organic nitrogen  
226 (DON) leaching after burning (Pilkington et al., 2007) in plots (1m x 1m) that had been treated  
227 (monthly) with nitrogen (N) additions of between 0 and 120 kg ha<sup>-1</sup>yr<sup>-1</sup> ammonium nitrate to

228 simulate increases in atmospheric N deposition. The increased DON flux was observed in the six  
229 month period following the burn in both the organic horizon and in the underlying mineral soil  
230 horizon. However, by two years after the fire, DON fluxes from both horizons were lower than pre-  
231 burn rates, suggesting a transient source of DON such as the decomposing litter layer and *Calluna*  
232 roots (Pilkington et al., 2007). Pilkington et al. (2007) did not measure DOC directly. However,  
233 they suggested that because ratios of DOC:DON are approximately constant in upland surface  
234 waters (Harriman et al. 1998; Pellerin et al. 2006), significant increases in DON leaching after  
235 burning are likely to signal approximately proportional transient increases in DOC leaching.

236

237 In contrast, Helliwell et al. (2010) detected no effect of burning on N concentrations in soil  
238 solutions at approximately 10 cm depth in their plot-scale experiment on a *Calluna* alpine heath in  
239 Scotland. Helliwell et al. (2010) did detect a decrease in DOC nine months after burning, with no  
240 statistically significant trend during the six years following burning suggesting that decreased DOC  
241 concentrations persisted for at least six years. They did not measure soil solution chemistry during  
242 the period immediately post burn until nine months following burning. It should be noted that the  
243 soils at this site and at the Pilkington et al. (2007) site were coarse-grained podzols with a very thin  
244 (8-10cm) surface organic horizon, and therefore quite different to peat soils at other sites where  
245 burning experiments have taken place.

246

247 There are a set of papers investigating the impact of burning on soil water colour and DOC from the  
248 Hard Hill experimental plots at Moor House National Nature Reserve in the North Pennines,  
249 England. These include Ward et al. (2007), Worrall et al. (2007), Worrall and Adamson (2008),  
250 Clay et al. (2009a and 2009b), and Clay et al.(2010). The experimental set-up for the Hard Hill  
251 plots was designed in the 1950s and the experiment commenced in 1954 with the design as shown  
252 in Figure 1. In brief, there are four experimental blocks each consisting of six 10 m x 30 m plots.  
253 The long-term experimental management since 1954 (approximately 10 and 20 year cycles of

254 burning and grazing exclusion) is unique and provides scientists with an insight under controlled  
255 conditions of ecological responses to different management practices. There have been several  
256 ecological publications based on the Hard Hill plots (Rawes and Williams, 1973; Rawes and Hobbs,  
257 1979; Hobbs and Gimmingham, 1980; Hobbs, 1981; and Hobbs, 1984). These papers tend to note  
258 the difference in re-establishment of vegetation after burning at these plots, which are on blanket  
259 bog of 1 to 2 m depth, compared to vegetation cover on heaths elsewhere which are subject to  
260 burning. The Hard Hill plots (at 590 to 630 m above sea level) are close to the altitudinal/climate  
261 limit for *Calluna* and hence growth cycles can be slower here compared to lower altitudes. The  
262 *Calluna* at Moor House is thought to take 11 to 17 years after burning to reach its maximum  
263 abundance, during which time the sedge *Eriophorum* dominates. Without fire the *Calluna* reaches a  
264 steady-state in which it is constantly rejuvenated by smothering with *Sphagnum* which encourages  
265 new shoots. Hence, Adamson and Kahl (2003) suggested that burning is not necessary to regenerate  
266 heather at this altitude.

267

268 The Hard Hill plots on a 10 and 20 year cycle were burnt in winter 1995/6. Those on a 10 year cycle  
269 were last burnt in February 2007. After studying the Hard Hill plots, Clay et al. (2009b) concluded  
270 that there was no lasting effect of burning on DOC in soil water collected as a bulk sample from a  
271 depth of 0 to 90 cm. However, they did observe a peak in DOC and colour one month after the  
272 February 2007 burning which may suggest that the relationship between burning and DOC is  
273 transient, as also noted by Pilkington et al. (2007). Further research is required to ascertain whether  
274 this is the case or not. In contrast, Worrall et al. (2007), who studied the plots some 10 years after  
275 the last burn but using the same sampling points as Clay et al. (2009b) observed lower DOC  
276 concentrations in the burnt relative to unburned plots. This was explained by Clay et al. (2009b) as  
277 being because Worrall et al. (2007) only reported sampling over 7 summer months rather than the  
278 whole year and now they report findings for 52 samples collected over 34 months. In addition, Clay  
279 et al. (2009b) sampled both before and after a burn on the site. Nevertheless, the findings of Clay et

280 al. (2009b) for the time period before the new burn took place (i.e. 11 years or 21 years after the  
281 previous burn) are in line with those reported by Ward et al. (2007) who collected soil solutions at  
282 10 and 50 cm depth at the same site over the 12 months from June 2003 (i.e. seven to eight years  
283 after a burn for the '10 year' burn cycle plots). Overall, the Hard Hill results to date suggest that soil  
284 water DOC is not significantly affected by burning except in the immediate few weeks after a burn  
285 thereby highlighting that time since burn may be an important factor to take into account when  
286 interpreting results from field or laboratory experiments. This is similar to the findings of Pilkington  
287 et al., (2007) but at odds with the laboratory studies of McDonald et al. (1991) described above,  
288 who found no difference between burnt and unburnt leachate in the first month after the burn.

289

290 It should be noted, however, that the plots within a block on Hard Hill are all next to each other and  
291 on a slope (see Figure 1). Hydrologically this means that they may interact with one another. In  
292 other words the flow (and DOC or water colour) from the upper plots may flow into the lower ones  
293 and there could be mixing. This may distort the results and may be one explanation for why few  
294 significant differences are seen as a result of burn management compared to no burn. Lindsay  
295 (2010) has also criticised Worrall et al. (2007) and the Clay et al. papers for their measurement  
296 process stating that no protective boardwalk was used and regular trampling could have  
297 significantly impacted the results. The work of Robroek et al. (2010) at Moor House also shows that  
298 tracks made by researchers to small plots can impact the local hydrology and fluvial carbon release.  
299 Furthermore, the burns at Hard Hill are likely to have been very quick, cool burns under very  
300 controlled experimental conditions in order to prevent fire spreading to an adjacent plot. This may  
301 be somewhat unlike the burning that would be typically seen on moorlands elsewhere. Gray and  
302 Levy (2009, p20) have suggested that extrapolation of results from the Hard Hill plots more widely  
303 should be done with extreme caution.

304

305 There is a disconnection between the findings at the plot scale from Hard Hill (no effect of burning  
306 on DOC production) and the findings at the catchment scale as discussed below. This may reflect  
307 the fact that most of the studies carried out at the Hard Hill plots are sampling soil water from too  
308 deep in the soil profile where there may be no rapid response to burning at the soil surface (since  
309 water movement in deep peat layers is extremely slow; Holden and Burt, 2003b). Ward et al. (2007)  
310 used soil suction samplers at 10 and 50 cm depth, while Clay et al. (2009a and b, 2010) and Worrall  
311 et al. (2007) sampled water from each plot using three dipwells inserted to at least 90 cm depth with  
312 openings at all depths, hence the sample potentially integrated water from the whole 90 cm soil  
313 profile. Soil water from peat layers below 5 or 10 cm may not contribute significantly to stream  
314 flow in many blanket peatlands. High-resolution soil water monitoring carried out by Clark et al..  
315 (2008) in the nearby Cottage Hill Sike catchment at Moor House showed that DOC dynamics  
316 varied with depth throughout the top 50 cm of the peat profile. Concentrations at 10 cm depth  
317 displayed a clear seasonal cycle and a wide range of concentrations (8 to 53 mg L<sup>-1</sup>), whereas  
318 concentrations from 20 to 50 cm depth showed little seasonality and displayed a smaller range of  
319 concentrations (15 to 31 mg L<sup>-1</sup>). In addition Clark et al. (2008) observed a strong positive  
320 correlation between stream water and soil water DOC concentrations at 1 and 5 cm depth ( $R^2 =$   
321 0.834 and 0.791, respectively), with weaker correlations between stream and soil water  
322 concentrations at 20 to 50 cm depth ( $R^2 = 0.269$  to 0.656). The relationship between DOC in soil  
323 water at 1 cm depth and stream water was particularly strong during storm events. The importance  
324 of water from the top 5 cm of the peat profile in controlling stream water colour, is consistent with  
325 hydrological studies carried out at Moor House which have shown that most runoff that would  
326 transport DOC from soil to stream, originates from the top 5 cm and in particular the top 1 cm and  
327 above (Holden and Burt, 2003a). Clark et al. (2008) also pointed out that their observations were  
328 consistent with <sup>14</sup>C studies at other peatland sites that have found the age of carbon in stream water  
329 draining peatlands to be less than 40–50 years old, highlighting the importance of near surface flow  
330 paths (Schiff et al., 1997; Palmer et al., 2001) and the apparent disconnection between the older

331 carbon in the lower peat layers and stream water (Billett et al., 2006). Hence in order to integrate  
332 plot and catchment studies and understand the impact of recently burned plots on stream water  
333 DOC and colour it is imperative that we have a greater understanding of how these burned patches  
334 are hydrologically connected to the stream and ensure that we are sampling soil water that  
335 contributes to stream water.

336  
337 *c) Catchment scale*

338 Most of the catchment scale research on water colour and burning has involved collecting stream  
339 water samples and then statistically relating the colour or DOC data to the spatial coverage of  
340 burning. Two studies (Mitchell and McDonald, 1995; Chapman et al., 2010) did not set out to  
341 examine burning as a factor in water quality but they touch upon the issue as part of their research.  
342 Based on their field observations in northern England, particularly in the Nidd and Washburn  
343 catchments, McDonald et al. (1991) suggested that key factors contributing to increased colour risk  
344 in upland peatlands were: drought conditions, area of open-cut drainage, area of pre-afforestation  
345 ditching, areas of severely burnt moorland, south facing slopes, and areas of bare eroded peat. In  
346 their original report, McDonald et al. (1991) state that the links between burning and colour were  
347 not clear cut, mainly because the data on burnt area, types of burn and other confounding factors  
348 (e.g. drainage and burning occurring together etc) were rather limited. Later, Mitchell and  
349 McDonald (1995) suggested there was a link between colour and burning but they do acknowledge  
350 that there was insufficient data for a statistical validation of this link. Grayson et al. (2008) used  
351 GIS and air photo data for a regional analysis of land cover and water treatment works colour data  
352 around Yorkshire, northern England. They found that the areal extent of heather burning and  
353 vegetation type were the two most important variables for accurately predicting water colour,  
354 although other variables also had a significant impact including the extent of peat coverage,  
355 drainage and amount of precipitation (Grayson et al., 2008). Beharry-Borg et al. (2009) repeatedly  
356 surveyed 27 stream sites across the Upper Nidderdale region in northern England over a 12 month  
357 period. There was a significant positive relationship between the proportion of *Calluna* cover and

358 DOC. The proportion of catchment area burnt was associated with a change in the composition of  
359 DOC (reported as SUVA and also as a colour to DOC ratio). This suggests that burning is  
360 associated with an effect on DOC. Chapman et al. (2010) compared the spatial and temporal  
361 variability of water colour for fifteen streams in the How Stean catchment in Upper Nidderdale in  
362 1986 and 2006/7. They observed that water colour increased in all sub-catchments between 1986  
363 and 2006/7, but that there was considerable variability in the increase, which ranged from 22 to  
364 155%. Six of the sub-catchments were intensively managed by burning in both 1986 and 2006, five  
365 were not burnt over the twenty year period and four were not managed for grouse in 1986 but had  
366 very small (<4%) areas of burning occurring post-2000. Despite this variation in burn management,  
367 no relationship between burning management and increase in water colour was apparent. For the  
368 catchments that were not managed by burning over the 20 year period water colour increased  
369 between 22 and 117%, whereas for the catchments that were consistently managed by burning  
370 water colour increased by 37 to 123%. Hence both types of catchments displayed a wide variation  
371 in the increase in water colour over the 20 years suggesting that factors other than burning, such as  
372 interactions of decreases in sulphate deposition with different soil types were more important in  
373 controlling the variability in water colour increase in these catchments (Chapman et al., 2010).

374

375 Yallop et al. (2008), Yallop and Clutterbuck (2009), Yallop et al. (2010) and Clutterbuck and  
376 Yallop (2010) use a regression technique to report a significant correlation between the proportional  
377 area of recently burnt land (based on interpretation of aerial photos and some ground truthing) and  
378 DOC, or the coloured component of DOC (termed hDOC derived by linear regression of DOC on  
379 colour in Hazen units) in stream waters. They demonstrate not only a spatial pattern in stream DOC,  
380 controlled by the proportion of the catchment with recent burns (Yallop and Clutterbuck, 2009), but  
381 also a temporal trend whereby hDOC concentrations in some catchments in recent years has  
382 coincided with an increase in the proportion of land with class 1 burn cover (Yallop et al., 2010).  
383 Class 1 burn cover was defined as being where recent burning has taken place and there is yet to be



384 any visible regrowth of dwarf shrub cover. The time period since the burn will therefore be variable  
385 under class 1 cover but typically will have occurred within the previous four years. The laboratory  
386 findings of McDonald et al. (1991) described above correspond well to those of Yallop et al. (2008)  
387 in that they suggest that most colour is produced in the initial (but not immediate) period following  
388 a burn and then as vegetation recovers colour production may decrease.

389

390 In a variation on the above statistical procedures O'Brien et al. (2007) compared one catchment  
391 which was under moorland burning management with another catchment where burning ceased  
392 (with 14 months of data collection before burning stopped and 33 months after). Here there were no  
393 significant differences in stream water colour compared to the control. It could be argued that  
394 response times to recovery from burning cessation may be longer than 33 months and also that  
395 differences may be less than when comparing burnt versus non-burnt sites, recent burns versus old  
396 burns or sites which have not been burnt for a several decades.

397

398 The weight of the existing evidence at the catchment scale, (albeit still quite limited and requiring  
399 further work) suggests that moorland burning has an effect on stream water colour. Out of the five  
400 sets of catchment studies that aimed to directly find whether burn management impacted water  
401 colour (McDonald et al. 1991; O'Brien et al., 2007; Grayson et al., 2008; Beharry-Borg et al., 2009;  
402 and the papers by Yallop, Clutterbuck and colleagues), four of them found some effect. Only  
403 O'Brien et al. (2007) found no effect; however, their work tested cessation of burning versus  
404 continued burning and only measured cessation of burning for less than three years which may not  
405 have been enough to see a signal. The set of papers by Yallop and colleagues appear to provide a  
406 comprehensive argument to show that stream water colour is largely controlled by the proportion of  
407 recently burnt land on blanket peat. They do not claim that this is the only control, but where  
408 burning is part of moorland management they suggest that it is the dominant factor controlling  
409 spatial variations in water colour (>60%) and increases (>80%) in colour over time in the English

410 Pennines. However, if class 1 burns do indeed have a large influence on stream water hDOC then  
411 soil water and overland flow from these recently burnt patches distributed throughout the catchment  
412 must be considerably larger than from other parts of the catchment. Indeed, Yallop et al. (2010)  
413 note that 'It can be estimated from the results presented here that a given area of blanket peat  
414 exposed by new management burns produces 5 to 15 times the hDOC flux than fully canopied  
415 areas.' hDOC flux is the product of hDOC concentration and water flux, and an increase in either or  
416 both could contribute to an overall increase in hDOC export. Yallop et al. (2010) do not report an  
417 increase in water flux at the water treatment works which were the source of their colour data. If  
418 we assume no change in runoff and use the average DOC concentration of soil water from 10 cm  
419 depth beneath fully canopied heather on a blanket peat at Moor House, which is  $23 \pm 7 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$  for  
420 the period 1993 to 2002 (Chapman et al., 2008), then the DOC concentration from bare peat at 10  
421 cm depth, as a result of recent class 1 heather burning, is expected to range between 115 and 345  
422  $\text{mg L}^{-1}$  if we assume a 5 to 15 times increase in hDOC concentration as suggested by Yallop et al.  
423 (2010). However, the plot experiments discussed above do not report such large soil water DOC  
424 concentrations beneath recently burnt areas. High DOC concentrations have been reported for burnt  
425 and mature heather patches in northern England (White et al. 2007), although these were at depths  
426 of 25, 50, 75 and 100cm. White et al. (2007) observed that DOC concentrations in all soil waters  
427 beneath the burnt patches were fairly constant throughout the year, at or below a value of  $75 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ ,  
428 whereas much larger DOC values (up to  $250 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ ) were observed in soil water under mature (i.e.  
429 not recently burnt) heather patches at these sites. Thus in order to integrate plot and catchment  
430 studies and understand the impact of recent burnt plots on stream water DOC and colour it is  
431 imperative that we have a greater understanding of: i) how DOC and colour in near-surface soil  
432 solutions respond to burnings; and ii) how these small burnt patches (<2 ha) are hydrologically  
433 connected to the stream.

434

435 If, as suggested by Clutterbuck and Yallop (2010), burning of heather moorland accounts for around  
436 80% of the recent (1990-2005) increase in observed hDOC in stream water draining catchments  
437 where such management occurs it is possible to estimate the concentration of hDOC from the fully  
438 canopied areas of the catchment and the recently burnt (class 1) areas of the catchment using the  
439 data presented by Clutterbuck and Yallop (2010) in Table 2. For example, in the Lower Laithe  
440 catchment:

441

442 in 1990,  $0x + 100y = 5 \text{ mg hDOC L}^{-1}$  eq. 1

443 in 2005,  $0.1x + 99.9y = 5.8 \text{ mg hDOC L}^{-1}$  eq. 2

444

445 where  $x$  denotes the concentration of hDOC originating from each 1% of class 1 burn area in a  
446 catchment and  $y$  denotes the concentration of hDOC originating from each 1% of all other land  
447 cover types. Several assumptions are inherent in the application of this approach:

448

449 (i) It assumes that each 1 % of the catchment contributes runoff to the stream equally.

450

451 (ii) It assumes that the concentration of hDOC leaving each 1% of the catchment does not  
452 change along its pathway to the stream (i.e. no adsorption or precipitation of DOC  
453 occurs, or transformation of hDOC).

454

455 (iii) It assumes that hDOC from all other heather classes and other vegetation types (e.g. acid  
456 grassland) is the same.

457

458 (iv) It assumes that hDOC contribution from other vegetation cover has not changed between  
459 1990 and 2005.

460

461 Accepting these assumptions, by solving equations 1 and 2 for each catchment presented in Table 2  
462 (by using the % area of class 1 burn values specific to each catchment) it is possible to obtain the  
463 concentration of hDOC associated with each % of burnt (class 1) and non-burnt area of the  
464 catchment and give some indication of the increase in hDOC that is required under class 1 burn  
465 areas to account for the observed increase in hDOC in stream water at then catchment scale over  
466 time (Table 3). The results presented in Table 3 suggest that hDOC from class 1 burnt patches at  
467 Keighley Moor, Agden and Broomhead catchments have to be between 5 and 19 times greater than  
468 that coming from the rest of the catchment, which is similar to that reported by Yallop et al. (2010).  
469 However, at Lower Laithe where such a small area of the catchment (<0.1%) has been recently  
470 burnt the hDOC concentration from this area has to be over 160 times greater than the rest of the  
471 catchment. In addition, the small burnt patches would need to be well connected to the stream  
472 network for them to be the major factor contributing to the increase in hDOC at this catchment,  
473 suggesting that other factors are likely to be having a large control on hDOC in this catchment. The  
474 data for the Langsett catchment also suggest that the hDOC concentration from the class 1 burnt  
475 areas must be over 200 times greater than the rest of the catchment, which seems very unlikely.  
476 Thus again factors other than burning must be an important control on the increase in hDOC at this  
477 catchment.

478

479 Much of the catchment-scale work has involved correlating a percent area of burning or  
480 presence/absence of burning with water colour and/or DOC concentration. However, there is a  
481 difference between correlation and causation and hence independent evidence of mechanistic links  
482 between areas of burning and/or vegetation type and stream water colour is needed to support the  
483 interpretations of the catchment scale monitoring data. While there is currently some experimental  
484 evidence to support a link between burning and an increase in soil water colour or DOC from  
485 laboratory experiments (McDonald et al., 1991; Miller, 2008), the data from plot scale studies does  
486 not support a link between burning and an increase in soil water colour or DOC (Worrall et a.,

487 2007; Ward et al. 2007, Clay et al., 2009b). Hence, there is an absence of empirical mechanistic  
488 evidence to verify the results obtained from statistical analysis of data at the catchment scale. Hence  
489 new research is urgently needed to investigate the effect of burning on: (i) the production of colour  
490 and DOC within the burnt areas compared to non-burnt areas, and (ii) transport of soil water to the  
491 stream network

492

493 A new set of evidence is now building which suggests that the moorland vegetation itself may have  
494 a strong impact on DOC or colour production (e.g. Miller, 2008). Vestgarden and Austnes (2009)  
495 investigated the impact of freeze-thaw cycles on carbon release from soils below plant species that  
496 are typical of moorland vegetation. They found that compared to *Calluna* and *Molina*, *Sphagnum*  
497 was associated with the lowest DOC concentrations. Luxton (2008) and Armstrong et al. (in review)  
498 also showed from a variety of scales; cores, patches, channels and small catchments that vegetation  
499 has a significant effect on DOC concentration. In UK blanket peat, *Calluna* was associated with the  
500 highest DOC concentrations, *Molinia* and *Sphagnum* with lower concentrations, and sedges with  
501 intermediate concentrations. Beharry-Borg et al. (2009) observed that the best predictor of stream  
502 water DOC in headwaters of the River Nidd was the proportion of acid and neutral grassland, with  
503 concentrations decreasing as the proportion of acid and neutral grassland increased. However,  
504 Beharry-Borg et al. (2009) also found that for some sites the percentage cover of dwarf shrub  
505 vegetation showed a strong positive relationship with DOC concentration. In addition, stepwise  
506 regression analysis indicated that variation in dwarf shrub vegetation accounted for the majority of  
507 the variation in DOC composition (indicated by SUVA and the ratio of absorbance at 400 nm to  
508 DOC concentration). Beharry-Borg et al. (2009) were unable to disentangle any possible effects of  
509 burning on DOC from that of dwarf shrub vegetation, as the percentage of dwarf shrub vegetation  
510 and burning were highly correlated. Grayson et al. (2008) also observed that dwarf vegetation and  
511 area of burn were important controls on water colour but they did not report the relationship  
512 between the two parameters. The strong positive correlation between dwarf shrub vegetation and

513 burning is not really surprising, as it is heather that supports the grouse population and it is heather  
514 that has been managed by burning.

515

516 It is thought from catchment studies that higher colour originates from areas of bare, eroding peat  
517 (e.g. McDonald and Naden, 1988; Boon et al., 1988) but McDonald et al. (1991) studied Holme  
518 Moss, in the south Pennines area of northern England and found no difference in colour between  
519 eroding or vegetated peat, although this work was only conducted during a summer sampling period  
520 and colour flushing may be greatest during autumn (e.g. Chapman et al., 2010). More recently,  
521 laboratory experiments have suggested bare peat is associated with greater colour production  
522 (Miller, 2008). Indeed it may be the lack of vegetation cover in class 1 burn patches that is  
523 responsible for the correlations described above in the Yallop et al. papers. However, the processes  
524 by which bare peat or different types of vegetation cover control colour production require further  
525 investigation. The reasons for a vegetation cover influence are varied, but may include changes to:  
526 interception losses, infiltration rates, soil fauna activity, soil pH, geochemistry of soil water (Clymo,  
527 1987; Kuhry et al., 1993), the physical properties of the peat, including temperature and the impacts  
528 on hydrology (McNamara et al., 2008), and the biological agents which live within the peat (Artz et  
529 al., 2007; Artz et al., 2008). DOC concentrations have been shown to vary between litter type and  
530 soils (Moore and Dalva, 2001; Wickland et al., 2007).

531

#### 532 **4. Conclusions**

533 There are important regional drivers of stream water colour and DOC concentrations such as  
534 changes in atmospheric deposition chemistry, rainfall and temperature which may be over-riding  
535 factors controlling long-term DOC and water colour trends. However, on a local level, management  
536 of catchments (e.g. through drainage or drain blocking) influences water colour and DOC release  
537 (Wallage et al., 2006; Armstrong et al., 2010; Wilson et al., 2011). This paper has investigated  
538 literature on prescribed burning in moorland environments which are dominated by peat soils and

539 the impact of this burning on water colour and DOC. Some authors consider that where prescribed  
540 burning occurs on peat-dominated catchments, it can be the dominant factor controlling stream  
541 water colour and increasing trends, having a much stronger influence than more regional factors  
542 such as changes in atmospheric deposition chemistry (e.g. Clutterbuck and Yallop, 2010). However,  
543 the research findings from different scales are somewhat inconsistent.

544

545 Research has taken place at three scales: laboratory experiments, plot scale sampling of soil waters  
546 and catchment scale sampling of stream waters. Laboratory studies suggest burning will increase  
547 colour production. Plot studies suggest colour production may either decrease or remain unchanged  
548 with burning although there is evidence for a transient increase in colour release in the short-term.  
549 A transient response was also suggested by the laboratory leachate measurements conducted by  
550 McDonald et al. (1991) and also by the catchment-scale work of Yallop and Clutterbuck (2009)  
551 who suggest that it is recent burn patches that are associated with increased colour production rather  
552 than patches that have fully revegetated some years after burning. Such evidence for transience  
553 suggests that a reduction in burning or an extended length of the burning cycle (i.e. longer durations  
554 between burns) would help reduced the impact of burning on water colour.

555

556 One problem with plot studies is that most have not involved measurement of colour or DOC at  
557 shallow soil depths that are important to streamflow water delivery in the peaty moorland systems.  
558 Most moorland burning and water colour plot studies have also focussed on the Hard Hill plots at  
559 the Moor House research site in Northern England which were designed for ecological experiments  
560 in the 1950s and not for hydrological or hydrochemical studies. As such the water from upslope  
561 plots flows downslope and probably mixes with water in plots under different treatments thereby  
562 causing difficulties in data interpretation. These plots are also close to the climate/altitudinal limit  
563 for *Calluna* and thus *Calluna* growth rates are rather different than at lower and warmer sites.

564 Catchment studies suggest prescribed burning in peatland systems results in water colour increases.  
565 While the balance of evidence suggests burning is related to increased colour/DOC in stream  
566 waters, most catchment studies are not absolutely clear cut since: i) vegetation cover may have been  
567 an important factor which the studies could not clearly disentangle from burning effects; or ii) the  
568 stream water data could not be immediately reconciled with data available from peatland soils.  
569 While several catchment studies do suggest a strong relationship between area of recent burn and  
570 water colour, the increase in colour or DOC that is required to account for this has not been  
571 observed in soil solutions sampled from burnt patches. Thus there is an urgent need to properly  
572 couple the catchment scale work with plot scale data, particularly as the burned areas typically are  
573 distributed throughout the catchment resulting in some burned areas being more hydrologically  
574 connected to the stream network than others. It will also be important to ensure that process  
575 understanding is embedded into future research and management programmes in order to  
576 demonstrate whether modifications to burning practice might be adopted to reduce negative impacts  
577 on water colour and DOC release. Further work on the role of vegetation and DOC production may  
578 also be fruitful within this context in order to place the role of burn management into that wider  
579 context.

580

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**Table 1. Summary of scale of work, sites used and methods adopted in moorland burning water quality studies.**

Authors	Burning impact colour in runoff?	Burning impact colour in soil water?	Burning impact other water quality?	Scale	Study site(s)	Methods used	Key findings/issues
Allen (1964)			No (soil water)	Lab experiments	Kirkby Moor, Ulverston (peat, clay) & Moor House (blanket peat)	Measured K, Ca, Mg, P & N. Burned heather; top of the soil not subject to heating; ash added to soil & water sprinkled on top, collected leachate. Compared different temperatures & fresh/partially decomposed (unburnt heather).	Leaching from heather ash of K, Mg, Ca, P > than from decomposing or fresh heather (most N lost in the fire to the atmosphere). No impact of burning on nutrient release through soil (except for Ca). Higher pH in upper soil after application & leaching of heather ash. No colour or DOC measured. No measurement over long time scales after burning.
Allen et al (1969)			No (soil water)	Lab & field block experiments	7 sites across UK, shallow peat (<15cm) heaths	Heather ash applied to soil blocks. Exposed soil burnt too. Soil samples taken for up to a year afterwards.	Blanket peat not studied. Most nutrients leached from burnt material were held within upper peat layer. Only downward movement of nutrients in sandy soils. No surface runoff/erosion measured.
McDonald et al (1991) including the related PhD thesis by Martin (1992)	Yes	Yes	Yes	Lab experiments & catchments	N. England with a focus on Upper Nidd, Burn & Washburn	Cores compared between burnt/unburnt peat using lab leaching. Burn temperature expts, field cores taken from hot & cool burn sites. Impacts of drying & wetting periods on burn / unburnt cores tested. Stream data used.	Higher colour leached from burnt peat cores. Apparently hotter burns = more colour. Implied that as burn patches revegetate the colour production is likely to decline. Catchment sampling statistical analysis suggested burning was very likely a factor for colour.
Mitchell & McDonald (1995)	Yes (not directly shown)			45 streams in one catchment	River Burn, North Yorks	14 grab samples over one year from each of 45 points. Absorbance at 400nm.	Highest colour in catchments with drainage & burning but no direct statistical evidence presented of colour & burning link
Forgeard & Frenot (1996)			No (soil water)	Lab experiments	Britanny heathlands. Not peat.	Successive exposure to hot temperatures. Ash & water applied to soil blocks – soil & leachate measured.	Heating = less SOM in uppermost layer at hottest temperature (300°C). No ‘organic matter movement’ during water percolation. Increased pH of upper soil with burn. No change in leached Na, K with fire, significant decrease in Ca & Mg concentrations in soils.
Pilkington et al (2007)			Yes (N in soil water leached out)	Small plots	Ruabon Moor, N. Wales Iron-pan stagnopodzol, 8cm peaty layer	N additions at 4 different levels to plots before a burn & measure N leaching before & after the burn. Lysimeters to measure leachate	Burning encouraged leaching of N. More leaching where more N added in rainwater in the year before burning. N leaching continued at enhanced rate for at least two years after a burn.
O’Brien et al (2007)	No			Catchment	River Ashop (Derbyshire) – blanket peat	Samples from treatment & control sites. 14 months pre treatment data. 4 yrs data. Discharge, pH & conductivity logged. Water tables sampled. Burn areas	No statistical difference between control & treatment (stopping burning). Stopping burning appeared to cause a statistical rise in water table when compared to control. Suggestion of colour flush during the ‘recovery’ phase, not

						relatively new.	enough data to confirm
Worrall et al (2007)		Yes (decrease)		Plot	Hard Hill (Moor House)	Soil water sampled down entire length (0-90cm) of dipwells. Samples biweekly during summer 2005 from each dipwell (3 per plot, 12 plots).	Water table depth shallower where burning occurred. Burning decreased pH & conductivity of soil water. DOC concentration & colour of soil water was less where burning occurred. Work carried out 9 years since the last burn.
Ward et al. (2007)		No		Plot	Hard Hill (Moor House)	Pore water sampling from 10 cm & 50 cm depth monthly for 1 yr; suction samplers.	No impact of burning on soil water DOC. Site was 8 years into a 10 year burn cycle.
Grayson et al (2008)	Yes (burnt area & colour strongly related)			Catchment	YW catchments	Land cover, air photos & water treatment works colour data with other variables. Regression & modelling approach	Heather burning & vegetation type were two most important variables; other variables had significant impact including extent of peat, drainage & rainfall. Study catchments had limited drainage which may be more important at other sites.
Worrall & Adamson (2008)			Yes (soil water)	Plot	Hard Hill (Moor House)	Integrated soil water samples from 0-90 cm. Collected 18 times over 1 yr from each dipwell (3 per plot, 12 plots).	Ca, Na, Mg & P concentrations lower, Al higher in burnt soil water.
Miller (2008)		Yes		Lab experiments	Peat samples used	Lab leaching experiments & different temperature/drying cycles applied	Burning associated with increase in colour compared with vegetated soil, but little effect on DOC composition. Investigated accidental summer burn; may not be applicable to prescribed burning.
Beharry-Borg et al (2009)	Yes (composition)			Catchment	Nidderdale AONB	Bi-weekly stream sampling over 1 yr from 27 points. Colour & DOC measured.	Heather cover strongly associated with higher DOC/colour, % heather cover positively correlated with DOC concentration in main river channels. Burning affected DOC composition.
Clay et al (2009a)				Plot	Hard Hill (Moor House)	Overland flow traps, water table. Monitored before/after 10 yr burn.	Shallower water table & more overland flow on burnt plots. In the year after a burn, water tables shallower than before.
Clay et al (2009b)	Yes (decrease, but in overland flow at plot scale)	Yes (decrease in colour but not DOC)		Plot	Hard Hill (Moor House)	Integrated soil water samples from 0-90 cm, monthly. DOC, colour & water table depth. Monitored before burn, plot burnt 10 yrs earlier) & one year after. Compared to non burn controls.	Immediately after burn there were short-lived peaks in colour & DOC in soil water compared to unburnt. Overall concentration & composition of DOC not affected.
Yallop & Clutterbuck (2009)	Yes (increase with recent burn)			Regional	South Pennines & North York Moors –from peat to heath,.	50 catchments – sampled four times in a year (but all in the winter half year Nov-March) for DOC. 8 long term colour treatment works records. Burn age/class split into four groups. Class 1 is exposed peat.	Proportion of ‘class 1’ burn area (mean duration is 3.8 years) significantly positively correlated with colour. Significant in Pennines, not in North York Moors (but little blanket peat in tested NYM catchments). New burn area explains >60% of spatial difference in DOC concentrations in Pennines.
Chapman et al (2010)	No			Catchment	Nidd	15 subcatchments sampled over a year in 1986 & 2006/7 for colour	No relationship between % of area burnt & colour or increase in colour. Focus of work not on burning.



Clay et al (2010)			Yes (soil water)	Plot	Hard Hill (Moor House)	Before & after burn & burn vs no burn. Integrated soil water samples from 0-90 cm, monthly. Measured Al, Fe, Ca, Mg, K, Na, Si, F, Cl, Br, NO <sub>3</sub> , PO <sub>4</sub> , SO <sub>4</sub> , pH, conductivity, overland flow.	Burning lowers concentration of Ca, Mg, PO <sub>4</sub> & Na in soil water & increases Al & Fe in overland flow. Immediately after burn Al, Fe & Na increase in soil water & Ca, Cl & Br decrease.
Yallop et al (2010)	Yes (increase with recent burn)			Catchment	Agden, Broomhead & Langsett	Long term colour records to determine hDOC. Estimated discharge in 3 study catchments. Burn class from photos.	Rising colour concentrations = rising export. Increase in recent burn area correlated with estimated increase in hDOC export. New burn area increased since 1970s. Recent burn estimated to produce 5-15 times hDOC export than revegetated areas.
Ramchunder (2010)	Yes (pattern of DOC production during storms)		Yes (river sediment and invertebrates)	Catchment	3 burnt & 3 unburnt catchments, Pennines, all blanket peat	Water quality (cations, anions, sediment, DOC, temperature) & invertebrate sampling every quarter, five times, 6 catchments with more intensive sampling in two catchments.	Prescribed burning impacts peatland stream ecology. Sediment from burning linked to changes in species composition.
Helliwell et al (2010)		Yes (decrease)	Yes (decrease in soil water)	Plots	Coarse podzols with thin (10cm) organic horizon	Nitrate additions & burning. Soil solution chemistry collected in zero-tension lysimeters installed below shallow surface horizon.	Lower DOC in mineral soil solutions 9 months after burning (not measured immediately post-burn). Decreases in Na, K, Al & Cl in burned plots. No effect of added N on DOC & no interaction between burning & N addition. No significant trend in DOC during 6 years post burning.
Clutterbuck & Yallop (2010)	Yes (increase with recent burn)			Catchment	Trout Beck, Agden, Broomhead, Langsett, Lower Laith, Keighley	Weekly DOC record for Trout Beck, colour record for other sites from treatment works. Burn class from air photos.	hDOC rose with increased area of new burn for four catchments over time. Where burns were not significant catchment features (Trout Beck & Sladen Valley) no significant colour increase. ~80% of recent rise in stream water hDOC related to burn management.

**Table 2. The change in percentage of catchment covered in class 1 burn between 1990 and 2005 and associated change in hDOC concentration in five reservoir catchments (data from Clutterbuck and Yallop, 2010).**

Reservoir catchment	1990 Class 1 burn (% of catchment)	2005 Class 1 burn (% of catchment)	hDOC (mg L <sup>-1</sup> in 1990)	hDOC * (mg L <sup>-1</sup> in 2005)
Lower Laithe	0	0.1	5.0	6.0 (5.8)
Keighley Moor	2	8	4.0	9.0 (8.0)
Agden	3.5	7.5	5.5	8.5 (7.9)
Broomhead	2	13	6.5	11 (10.1)
Langsett	4	7	6	11 (10)

\*Value in brackets represents hDOC value assuming 80% of increase in hDOC is accounted for by increase in area of class 1 burn.

**Table 3. The hDOC concentration originating from each 1% class 1 burn area (x) in a catchment and each 1% class 2-4 heather and other vegetation types (y).**

Reservoir catchment	hDOC from 1% of class 1 burn (mg L <sup>-1</sup> )	hDOC from 1% of non class 1 burn (mg L <sup>-1</sup> )	% hDOC from class 1 burn relative to DOC generated by remainder of catchment
Lower Laithe	8.05	0.05	161
Keighley Moor	0.605	0.034	17.6
Agden	0.636	0.034	18.8
Broomhead	0.362	0.062	5.8
Langsett	1.34	0.0067	201

**Figure captions**

**Figure 1.** Hard Hill plot design installed in 1954 on which a number of the papers on burning and water colour have been based. Each square plot is 30 m x 30 m within a rectangular block of six plots. It should be noted that all of the water quality papers mentioned in the text or Table 1 that have worked on the site only use block 1 and 2 in the design except for Ward et al (2007).

