

1 **Effects of prescribed burning on soil organic C, aggregate stability and water**
2 **repellency in a subalpine shrubland: variations among sieve fractions and depths**

3 Antonio Girona-García^{1*}; Oriol Ortiz-Perpiñá¹; David Badía-Villas¹; Clara Martí-Dalmau¹

4 ¹Departamento de Ciencias Agrarias y del Medio Natural, Escuela Politécnica Superior
5 de Huesca, Instituto de Investigación en Ciencias Ambientales (IUCA), Universidad de
6 Zaragoza. Ctra. Cuarte s/n, 22071, Huesca, Spain

7 *corresponding author: agirona@unizar.es

8 **HIGHLIGHTS**

- 9 • Prescribed fire is used to reduce shrub encroachment and recover subalpine
10 pastures
- 11 • Its effects on SOC, AS and SWR were analysed in the whole soil and sieve
12 fractions
- 13 • Fire reduced SOC and SWR in the whole soil and finer fractions, mainly at 0-1
14 cm
- 15 • One year after fire, SWR increased and AS decreased compared to the unburned
16 soil
- 17 • The whole soil behaviour was mainly influenced by changes in its finer fractions

18 **ABSTRACT**

19 Soil organic matter, aggregation and water repellency are relevant interrelated soil
20 properties that can be affected by fire. The aim of this work was to analyse the effects of
21 shrub prescribed burning for pasture reclamation on the soil aggregate stability, organic
22 carbon and water repellency of different soil depths and aggregate sizes in a subalpine
23 environment. Soil samples were collected from an area treated by an autumnal low-
24 intensity prescribed fire in the Central Pyrenees (NE-Spain) at 0-1, 1-2, 2-3 and 3-5 cm
25 depths just before and ~1 hour, 6 months and 12 months after burning. Samples were

26 separated as whole soil (<10 mm) and 6 sieve fractions, <0.25, 0.25-0.5, 0.5-1, 1-2, 2-4
27 and 4-10 mm. We analysed soil organic C (SOC), aggregate stability (AS) and soil water
28 repellency (SWR). In the unburned samples, SOC and SWR were higher in the <0.25 to
29 2 mm sieve fractions than the 2 to 10 mm sieve fractions. Fire severely and significantly
30 decreased the SOC content in the whole soil and the <0.25 mm fraction at 0-1 cm depth
31 and in the 0.25-0.5 mm fraction at 0-2 cm depth. SWR was reduced by burning mainly
32 at 0-1 cm depth for the whole soil and the <0.25 to 2 mm sieve fractions. Nevertheless,
33 the AS of the 0.25-0.5 mm aggregates increased after fire, while the rest of the sieve
34 fractions remained virtually unaffected. One year after the prescribed burning, SOC
35 slightly increased and SWR recovered in the fire-affected fractions, while the AS for all
36 aggregate sizes and depths showed a considerable decrease. The results suggest that
37 the direct effects of burning are still present one year after burning, and the post-fire
38 situation may pose an increased risk of soil loss. Furthermore, our results indicate that
39 fine soil fractions are more likely to be affected by fire than coarser soil fractions and
40 highly influence the whole soil behaviour.

41

42 Keywords: pasture management, topsoil, shrub encroachment, mountain soils,
43 prescribed fire

44 **1. INTRODUCTION**

45 Livestock grazing has played a primary role in the traditional management of
46 pasturelands in the Central Pyrenees (NE-Spain) (Nadal-Romero et al., 2016).
47 Nevertheless, as a consequence of socio-economic changes (i.e., rural exodus and
48 reduction of stocking densities), this activity has considerably decreased in the past few
49 decades (Komac et al., 2013). Currently, pasturelands cover a surface of approximately
50 600,000 ha in the Central Pyrenees (Caballero et al., 2010). The mesophytic Pyrenean
51 pastures are composed of subclimax species that require the grazing of shrubs to survive

52 (Halada et al., 2011). As a consequence of grazing reduction, the Pyrenees have
53 suffered shrub encroachment processes, dominated by the thorny cushion dwarf
54 (*Echinopartum horridum* (Vahl) Rothm), among others (Komac et al., 2013; Nuche et
55 al., 2018). This species forms large and dense monospecific covers (Komac et al., 2011)
56 that pose a threat to biodiversity and increase flammability risks (Caballero et al., 2010).
57 Prescribed burning, defined as the planned use of fire to achieve precise and clearly
58 defined objectives (Fernandes et al., 2013), serves as a practical and economical
59 procedure for maintaining grazing lands and stopping shrub succession (Goldammer &
60 Montiel, 2010). However, fire, depending on its severity, can affect most of the soil
61 physical, chemical and biological properties (Certini, 2005). The intensity and duration of
62 fires are highly influenced by the environmental conditions; for this reason, prescribed
63 burnings are carried out under favourable conditions of soil and fuel moisture,
64 temperature and topography (Molina, 2009) to limit their impact on the soil (Vega et al.,
65 2005). Nevertheless, contrasting effects of prescribed burning on soil properties have
66 been reported in the literature (Alcañiz et al., 2018).

67 Soil organic matter (SOM), aggregation and water repellency (SWR) are relevant
68 interrelated soil properties (Zheng et al., 2016) that can be affected by fire (Mataix-Solera
69 et al., 2011). SOM plays a primary role in soil quality, influencing relevant properties such
70 as soil aggregation and its stability since it can act as a binding agent during aggregate
71 formation (Tisdall & Oades, 1982). SOM is also known to be linked to the occurrence of
72 SWR, which is a natural property of soils that reduces infiltration and enhances surface
73 runoff and erosion (Doerr et al., 2000; Zavala et al., 2014). SWR can be determined by
74 SOM, among many other factors (Jordán et al., 2013 and references therein), as it
75 contains organic hydrophobic substances that coat mineral particles or are present in
76 the interstitial spaces of soil. However, the SOM amount is not always the most
77 determinant factor in the development of SWR; its composition and distribution among
78 the different soil aggregate sizes are also important (Jiménez-Morillo et al., 2016a).

79 Additionally, hydrophobic substances can coat soil aggregates, increasing their stability
80 (Mataix-Solera et al., 2011).

81 Fire can induce changes in SOM, since its combustion is initiated when temperatures of
82 200-250 °C are reached (Badía & Martí, 2003; Certini, 2005; Santín & Doerr, 2016).
83 Several studies have reported that prescribed burning has no effects on SOM (Alexis et
84 al., 2007; Goberna et al., 2012; Fultz et al., 2016), while others have observed increases
85 in SOM content (Úbeda et al., 2005; Alcañiz et al., 2016) due to the incorporation of
86 partly charred plant material or litter (González-Pérez et al., 2004). However, previous
87 works investigating *Echinopartum horridum* prescribed fires in the Central Pyrenees
88 have indicated a severe decrease in SOM immediately after burning (Armas-Herrera et
89 al., 2016; Girona-García et al., 2018).

90 Although fire effects on soil aggregation have been widely studied, contrasting results
91 have been reported, as reviewed by Mataix-Solera et al. (2011), and there are still
92 uncertainties about how this property is affected by heat (Jiménez-Pinilla et al., 2016a).
93 Low-intensity fires may have a neutral effect on soil aggregation or even increase it due
94 to the stability of SOM and inorganic binding agents in temperature ranges below 200
95 °C. However, sudden heating can produce disaggregation even at low temperatures due
96 to the forces exerted by escaping water steam (Albalasmeh et al., 2013 and references
97 therein). On the other hand, high-intensity fires may produce remarkable changes in soil
98 aggregation, as it can be degraded due to SOM combustion or increased as a
99 consequence of particle fusion and the recrystallisation of clay minerals (Mataix-Solera
100 et al., 2011 and references therein). These effects may vary depending on the fire
101 severity and main aggregate stabilising agent, so the analysis of related parameters, i.e.,
102 SOM, soil aggregate size distribution, and water repellency, are required in order to
103 understand how this property is affected by fire. Furthermore, there is a gap in knowledge
104 on how prescribed burnings applied for vegetation management purposes affect
105 aggregate stability (Alcañiz et al., 2018).

106 SWR is a soil property that can be affected by fire in different ways, induced or enhanced
107 as a consequence of the partial combustion of SOM (Mataix-Solera et al., 2011) as well
108 as removed by the oxidation or translocation of hydrophobic organic substances (Jordán
109 et al., 2010).

110 Numerous studies have been carried out in Mediterranean environments involving the
111 aforementioned soil properties after wildfires and prescribed and experimental burnings.
112 However, to the author's knowledge, no studies of this type have been conducted for
113 prescribed burnings in subalpine environments.

114 The objective of this work was to study the effects of the prescribed burning of shrubs
115 for pasture management in a subalpine environment on interrelated soil properties, such
116 as SOC content, aggregate stability and SWR, among different aggregate sizes and
117 topsoil depths during a one-year period. In this way, we also aimed to detect which soil
118 aggregate sizes are more prone to be affected by fire and how those changes influenced
119 the whole soil behaviour.

120

121 **2. Material and Methods**

122 *2.1. Study area and prescribed burning description*

123 The study site is located in Buisán, Central Pyrenees (NE-Spain; 42°36'04.4" N
124 0°00'43.3" E), at 1760 m a.s.l. The average slope ranges from 12 to 30 % and faces
125 south. The mean annual temperature is 5.7 °C, and the mean annual precipitation 1270
126 mm. Due to fire exclusion after 1980 and the decay of grazing activity, the *Echinopartum*
127 *horridum* population in this region has widely increased, considerably decreasing the
128 grassland cover (Komac et al., 2011, 2013).

129 Soils are characterised by neutral pH values, high soil organic matter content, fine
130 textures and variable carbonate content and are classified as an association of Eutric

131 Cambisols and Calcaric Cambisols (IUSS Working Group WRB, 2014). The
 132 characteristics of a representative soil profile are shown in **Table 1**.

133 **Table 1** Physical and chemical properties of the Eutric Cambisol at the study site

Horizon	Ah ₁ (0-5 cm)	Ah ₂ (5-15 cm)	Bw ₁ (15-25 cm)	Bw ₂ (25-40 cm)	C (40-65 cm)
pH (H ₂ O, 1:2.5)	6.7	6.4	6.7	6.6	6.5
pH (KCl, 1:2.5)	5.9	5.6	5.6	5.4	5.2
EC _{1:5} (μS/cm)	115	80.5	50.5	36.4	32.3
CEC (cmol(+)/kg)	33.1	24.2	19.9	17.9	14.3
OM (g/kg)	173	89.3	53.2	39.1	27.7
C/N	12.9	10.1	9.1	8.1	7.6
Clay (g/kg)	228	318	310	370	370
Silt (g/kg)	661	602	612	550	554
Sand (g/kg)	111	80	80	80	76
Textural class (USDA)	Silty loam	Silty clay loam	Silty clay loam	Silty clay loam	Silty clay loam
FC (g/kg)	546	409	337	325	302
PWP (g/kg)	394	252	202	189	174
AWC (g/kg)	152	157	135	136	128

134 EC: electrical conductivity; CEC: cation Exchange capacity; OM: organic matter; FC: water content at field
 135 capacity; PWP: water content at permanent wilting point; AWC: available water holding capacity

136

137

138 The prescribed burning was performed in November, 2015 by qualified firefighters of the
 139 EPRIF (Wildfire Prevention Team) of Huesca and BRIF (Reinforcement Brigades against
 140 Wildfires) of Daroca units when the environmental conditions met the established
 141 prescription parameters. It had not rained for 10 days prior to the burning, and the air
 142 relative humidity was 35-70 %, with a maximum temperature of 15 °C and a wind speed
 143 <8 km/h. The delimited burning area (3.8 ha) presented a rectangular shape, and
 144 approximately 75 % of its total surface was covered by *E. horridum* shrubs. The
 145 estimated aerial biomass was ~9.2 kg/m², and the amount of litter was ~1.6 kg/m². Fire
 146 was applied on *E. horridum* shrubs following the point source ignition technique from N
 147 to S, forming a fire line that spread from E to W at a rate of 0.64 ha/h. The average flame
 148 length and height were 1.5 and 1 m, respectively. Burning eliminated all the *E. horridum*
 149 shrubs in the area, leaving only burned trunks, ashes and partially charred litter.

150 An approximation of the temperatures reached during the prescribed burning (**Table 2**)
 151 was obtained via Type-K thermocouples placed at the mineral soil surface and at 1, 2
 152 and 3 cm depths in one of the sampling sites. The recorded data show a maximum
 153 temperature of 438 °C at the soil surface, whereas the temperature remained almost
 154 unchanged below 1 cm depth. Data analysis also indicates that the uppermost soil layer
 155 was exposed to a temperature range of 100-400 °C for 12 minutes.

156 **Table 2** Temperature recorded via type-K thermocouples placed at soil surface and at 1, 2 and 3 cm depth.
 157 Data analysis comprises the elapsed time since temperature increase was detected until it stabilised during
 158 cooling stage

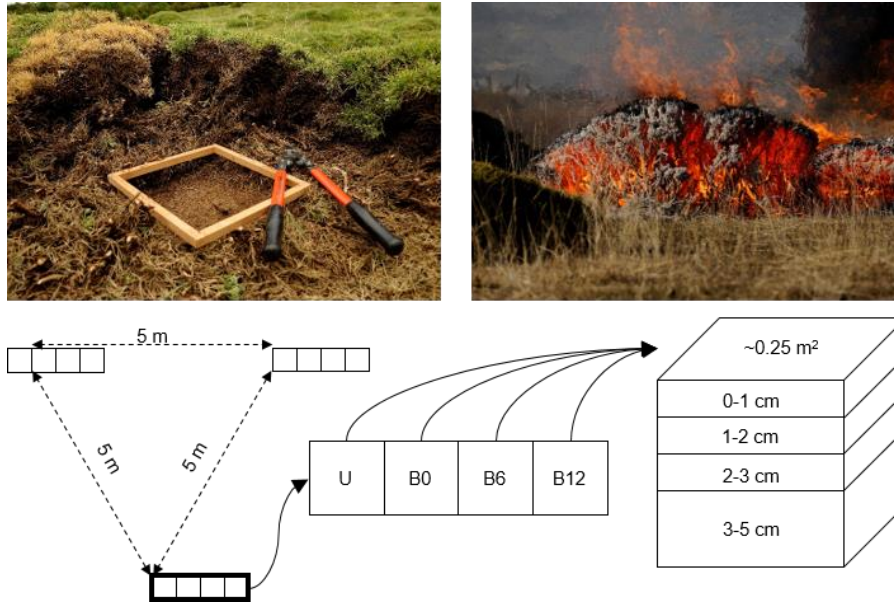
Variables	Surface	1 cm	2 cm	3 cm
Maximum temperature (°C)	438	31.1	18.5	18.5
Initial temperature (°C)	13.1	9.77	9.60	8.93
Final temperature (°C)	27.5	22.2	17.6	18.2
Duration (min)				
<60 °C	2.50	30.0	30.0	30.0
60 - 100 °C	15.0	0.00	0.00	0.00
100 - 200 °C	6.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
200 - 300 °C	4.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
300 - 400 °C	2.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
> 400 °C	0.50	0.00	0.00	0.00

159

160 2.2. Soil sampling

161 We chose three representative sampling points covered by *E. horridum* shrubs
 162 separated by 5 metres. At each point, soil was carefully scrapped from the topsoil Ah
 163 horizon at 0-1, 1-2, 2-3 and 3-5 cm depths in an approximate surface area of 0.25 m²
 164 (**Fig. 1**) in the early morning to obtain unburned (U) control samples. Prior to sampling,
 165 the shrubs and organic layers were removed. Hours later, prescribed burning was
 166 conducted, and as soon as possible, points adjacent to the U points were sampled after
 167 ashes and charred plant remains were removed to study the immediate effects of fire
 168 (B0). Additionally, in order to assess short-term changes in the studied soil properties,
 169 the burned soils were sampled 6 months (B6) and one year (B12) after the prescribed
 170 burning. All samples were preserved in sealed containers in order to maintain the original

171 soil structure. It should be noted that, for most of the period between the collection of B0
172 and B6 samples, the study site was covered by snow, and livestock (cows and goats)
173 grazed the study site between 8 and 12 months after burning.



174

175 **Fig. 1** Design of sampling plots and burning of *Echinopartum horridum*. Unburned (U), immediately after
176 (B0), 6 months (B6) and one year (B12) after burning sampling

177

178 2.3. Samples preparation and analysis

179 Soil samples were air-dried at room temperature until constant weight. A small portion
180 was taken from all samples ($n = 48$) in order to analyse the whole soil (<10 mm). The
181 remaining samples were separated in 6 different aggregate sizes (<0.25 , $0.25-0.5$, $0.5-$
182 1 , $1-2$, $2-4$ and $4-10$ mm) by manually shaking a nested column of sieves, avoiding
183 aggregate destruction, to obtain 288 fractional samples (4 sampling times x 3 sampling
184 points x 4 soil depths x 6 aggregate sizes). Afterwards, stones were removed when they
185 were present in the sieve fractions. Then, each aggregate size was weighed separately
186 to obtain the mean weight diameter (MWD, Van Bavel, 1949) and preserved to analyse
187 the following properties.

188 The soil organic carbon (SOC) content was obtained for ground samples through the
189 chromic acid wet oxidation method (Walkley-Black, 1934) for the whole soil (<10 mm)
190 and each sieve fraction (0.25-0.5, 0.5-1, 1-2, 2-4 and 4-10 mm).

191 Soil aggregate stability (AS) was determined by the wet sieving method detailed by
192 Kemper & Koch (1966) and revised by Schinner et al. (1996). This treatment emulates
193 the forces exerted on soil by runoff or immersion conditions. Approximately 4 g of each
194 sieve fraction (0.25-0.5, 0.5-1, 1-2, 2-4 and 4-10 mm) were placed in duplicate on 38 mm
195 diameter sieves with 0.25 mm mesh size and then submerged and subjected to sieving
196 action for 5 minutes. Afterwards, the remaining aggregates were carefully removed from
197 the sieves, oven-dried at 105 °C and weighted in order to obtain the weight of the stable
198 aggregates and large-sized sand (>0.25 mm). Then, each sample was submerged in 50
199 mL of 0.1 M sodium pyrophosphate decahydrate ($\text{Na}_4\text{P}_2\text{O}_7 \cdot 10\text{H}_2\text{O}$) for 2 hours to
200 disperse the stable aggregates. Eventually, the samples were washed using distilled
201 water, oven-dried at 105 °C and weighted, obtaining the weight of sand. The percentage
202 of soil AS was determined using expression [1]

$$203 \quad AS (\%) = \frac{100 (\text{weight of stable aggregates and sand}) - (\text{weight of sand})}{(\text{weight of sample}) - (\text{weight of sand})} \quad [1]$$

204 AS could not be measured in the <0.25 mm sieve fraction, as we used a sieve with 0.25
205 mm apertures. The AS values obtained for the 1-2 mm aggregate size were considered
206 representative of the whole soil, as suggested by the method.

207 The persistence of soil water repellency (SWR) was assessed through the water drop
208 penetration time test (WDPT) consisting of applying droplets of distilled water on the soil
209 surface and measuring the time until its complete infiltration (Wessel, 1988). The analysis
210 was conducted under laboratory conditions with controlled temperature (20-25 °C) and
211 relative humidity (50 %) in order to reduce sources of variability. Drops of distilled water
212 (~0.05 mL/drop) were applied to the whole soil samples and each sieve fraction, and the
213 complete penetration time into the soil was measured (8 drops per sample; n = 2688).

214 Given the wide array of values obtained via the WDPT, SWR was categorised into the 5
215 classes defined by Bisdorn et al. (1993): wettable (<5 s), slightly water repellent (5-60 s),
216 strongly water repellent (60-600 s), severely water repellent (600-3600 s) and extremely
217 water repellent (>3600 s).

218

219 *2.4. Statistical analysis*

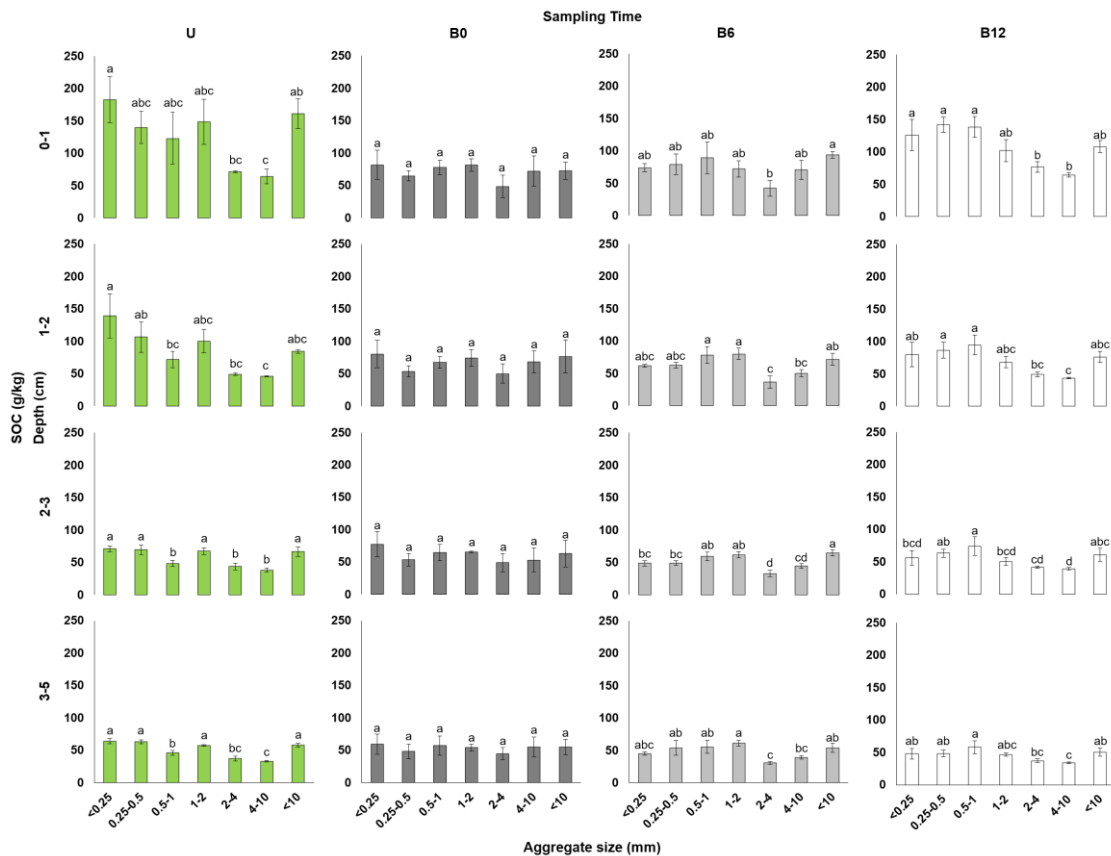
220 To identify the differences in the studied soil properties related to burning and post-fire
221 elapsed time, as well as soil depth and aggregate size, one-way ANOVA tests were
222 used, since the interaction between time and depth was significant in most cases. The
223 sampling time (U, B0, B6, B12) was considered a fixed factor to analyse the effect of fire
224 and time, and the data were split by soil depth (0-1, 1-2, 2-3 and 3-5 cm) for each soil
225 fraction (<0.25, 0.25-0.5, 0.5-1, 1-2, 2-4, 4-10 and <10 mm). Additionally, changes in soil
226 properties with depth were checked using soil depth (0-1, 1-2, 2-3, 3-5 cm) as a fixed
227 factor, for which the data were split by sampling time (U, B0, B6, B12) for each soil
228 fraction (<0.25, 0.25-0.5, 0.5-1, 1-2, 2-4, 4-10 and <10 mm). The correlations among
229 variables for all sampling time and soil depth categories were also studied. These
230 analyses were performed using StatView for Windows version 5.0.1 (SAS Institute Inc.
231 Cary, North Carolina, USA). The homogeneous groups for the studied variables among
232 the soil fractions within every soil depth and sampling time category were obtained using
233 Statistica 8.0 (Stat Soft Inc. Tulsa, Oklahoma, USA). Data presented in the text are
234 reported as the mean \pm standard deviation of the mean unless otherwise stated.

235 **3. Results and discussion**

236 *3.1. Soil Organic Carbon*

237 The highest soil organic carbon (SOC) content, 182 ± 62 g/kg, was detected in the <0.25
238 mm aggregates of the unburned (U) samples at 0-1 cm depth (**Fig. 2**). At 0-1 and 1-2 cm
239 depths, the U SOC values showed a decreasing trend with increasing aggregate size,

240 whereas in deeper soil layers, this trend was not so marked. In this way, SOC of all
 241 aggregate sizes consistently decreased with depth. A similar behaviour was observed
 242 for SOC content of the U whole soil (<10 mm), which also decreased with depth from
 243 161 ± 40 g/kg at 0-1 cm depth to 55.4 ± 5.1 g/kg at 3-5 cm depth. Compared to U, burning
 244 (B0) markedly decreased SOC content in the <0.25 mm fraction at 0-1 cm depth ($81.8 \pm$
 245 39.3 g/kg) and in the 0.25-0.5 mm fraction at 0-1 and 1-2 cm depth (64.7 ± 13.2 and 53.7
 246 ± 15.3 g/kg, respectively). However, the rest of the studied soil sieve fractions and depths
 247 were not significantly affected by fire. The whole soil (<10 mm) had a similar response
 248 to fire as the <0.25 and 0.25-0.5 fractions, showing a significant decrease in SOC from
 249 161 ± 40 (U) to 72.5 ± 23.2 g/kg (B0) at 0-1 cm depth. These results suggest that the
 250 SOC contents in the U and B0 whole soil are linked to those of the finer fractions, which
 251 appear to be more sensitive to fire than the coarser fractions. This result is supported by
 252 the variance analysis, which indicates that the SOC values in the finer sieve fractions are
 253 highly influenced by fire (**Table 3**).



255 **Fig. 2** Soil Organic Carbon (SOC) content of unburned samples (U), immediate post-fire samples (B0), 6
 256 months (B6) and one year (B12) post-fire samples for each sieve fraction (<0.25, 0.25-0.5, 0.5-1, 1-2, 2-4
 257 and 4-10 mm) and whole soil (<10 mm) per sampling depth (0-1, 1-2, 2-3, 3-5 cm). Letters indicate
 258 homogeneous groups at $p < 0.05$ among sieve fractions and whole soil for each soil depth and sampling
 259 time. Mean \pm SE

260 **Table 3** Variance analysis of Soil Organic Carbon (SOC), Aggregate Stability (AS) and Soil Water
 261 Repellency (SWR) for all studied depths (D) and treatments (T; burning and elapsed time since burning) in
 262 each sieve fraction (<0.25, 0.25-0.5, 0.5-1, 1-2, 2-4, 4-10 mm) and whole soil (<10 mm)

Fraction (mm)	<0.25		0.25-0.5		0.5-1		1-2		2-4		4-10		<10	
	F	p	F	p	F	p	F	p	F	p	F	p	F	p
SO	6.99	0.00	9.75	0.000	2.14	0.113	4.11	0.014	2.66	0.065	2.06	0.124	3.20	0.036
C														
T	8	09	3	1	9	5	8	4	3	3	5	5	8	1
D	9.59	0.00	15.4	<0.00	8.84	0.000	10.5	<0.00	3.44	0.028	4.90	0.006	15.1	<0.00
Tx	0	01	0	01	3	2	1	01	3	6	7	4	6	01
D	1.61	0.15	1.98	0.074	0.81	0.603	1.59	0.161	0.35	0.948	0.11	0.999	2.07	0.062
D	4	33	3	9	8	6	0	8	2	9	4	1	3	8
AS														
T	-	-	30.4	<0.00	87.1	<0.00	71.9	<0.00	68.1	<0.00	70.6	<0.00	71.9	<0.00
D	-	-	7	01	5	01	7	01	3	01	1	01	7	01
Tx	-	-	2.36	0.095	3.55	0.025	0.98	0.411	1.43	0.251	1.46	0.242	0.98	0.411
D	-	-	2	4	2	1	7	3	3	3	8	3	7	3
Tx	-	-	1.47	0.209	0.63	0.759	0.90	0.532	0.18	0.994	0.99	0.463	0.90	0.532
D	-	-	9	8	4	5	5	3	6	2	7	1	5	3
SW														
R	9.37	0.00	14.3	<0.00	2.57	0.070	5.09	0.005	0.27	0.846	0.06	0.978	13.7	<0.00
T	1	02	1	01	8	9	7	4	0	7	4	6	63	01
D	7.42	0.00	24.1	<0.00	5.05	0.005	6.56	0.001	6.22	0.001	3.74	0.020	30.4	<0.00
Tx	4	08	7	01	1	6	2	4	8	9	8	5	93	01
D	3.84	0.00	7.28	<0.00	0.89	0.539	2.80	0.015	0.27	0.977	0.30	0.969	5.22	0.000
D	4	29	6	01	7	2	0	2	2	8	0	4	1	2

263

264 Six months after fire (B6), the detected fire effects on SOC were still present and it
 265 decreased in the <0.25 mm fraction at 1-2 cm depth compared to U. One year after fire
 266 (B12), the SOC values of the <0.25 mm fraction showed a slight increase at 0-2 cm depth
 267 compared to those of B0 and B6. The statistical analysis showed that the SOC state of
 268 B12 was between that of B0-B6 and U, which suggests signs of recovery of the fire-
 269 affected fractions. For the 0.25-0.5 mm fraction at 0-1 cm depth, the B12 SOC values
 270 were similar to those of U, indicating a recovery for this aggregate size and depth; in
 271 addition, at 1-2 cm depth, SOC also showed a slight increase for the <0.25 mm fraction.
 272 No further changes related to fire or elapsed time were observed for the rest of the
 273 studied aggregate sizes and depths. The SOC increase detected in B12 for the smaller
 274 sieve fractions could be explained by the late incorporation of ashes and partially charred
 275 plant remains that become fine organic particles that are mixed with the soil after fire

276 (González-Pérez et al., 2004). Nevertheless, these slight variations were not observed
277 in the whole soil, which remained virtually unchanged compared to B0 during the studied
278 period.

279 The SOC distribution among the U sieve fractions agrees with the results of Jiménez-
280 Morillo et al. (2016a), which indicated that the SOC content was higher in the finer
281 fractions than the coarser fractions of unburned soils under four different vegetation
282 species (*Quercus suber*, *Pteridium aquilinum*, *Pinus pinea* and *Halimium halimifolium*) in
283 the Doñana National Park (SE-Spain). However, Jiménez-Morillo et al. (2016b), in a
284 different study carried out on soils under *Quercus suber*, detected higher C contents in
285 the 0.5 to 2 mm sieve fractions than in the finer <0.5 mm sieve fractions. Nevertheless,
286 the SOC values obtained in the sieve fractions after burning contrasted with those
287 previously reported in the literature. Jiménez-Morillo et al. (2016b) observed that, after a
288 wildfire, sieve fractions (<0.05 to 2 mm) generally showed higher C contents than
289 unburned sieve fractions, which could be related to the incorporation of different sizes of
290 charred materials (Skjemstad et al., 1996; Nocentini et al., 2010). Our results also
291 contrast with those of Jordán et al. (2011), who suggested that the destruction of organic
292 matter during fires affects mainly the coarse aggregates, as combustion can be more
293 intense in this size range due to the oxygen present in macropores.

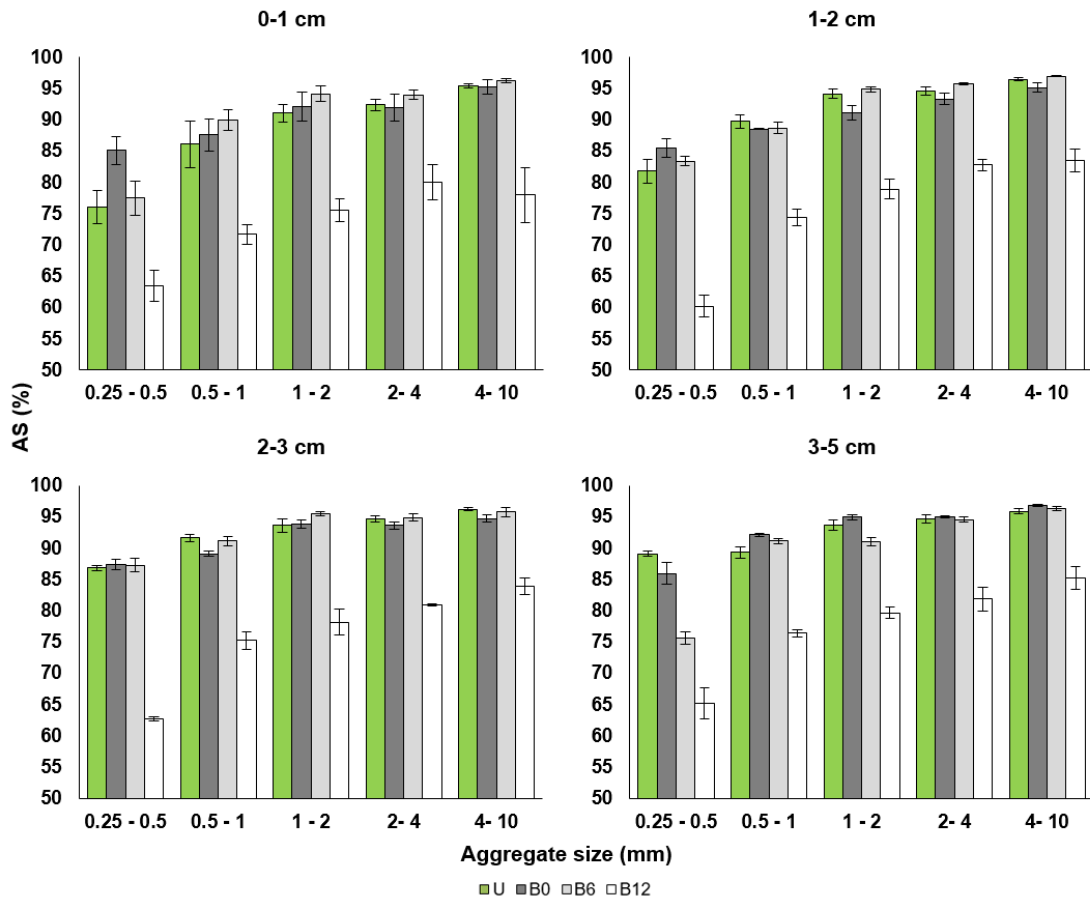
294 Our whole soil results contrast with the traditionally reported neutral or positive effects of
295 prescribed burning on SOC, as reviewed by Alcañiz et al. (2018). However, these
296 reductions in the SOC content after the prescribed burning of *E. horridum* were also
297 detected by Armas-Herrera et al. (2016) and Girona-García et al. (2018). Immediately
298 after fire, Armas-Herrera et al. (2016) reported an average SOC decrease of 43 % at 0-
299 3 cm depth, while Girona-García et al. (2018) reported a SOC reduction of 54 % at 0-1
300 cm depth. A reduction in the SOC content is a common effect of fire, since SOM
301 combustion is initiated when temperatures reach a range of 200-250 °C (Badía & Martí,
302 2003; Certini, 2005; Santín & Doerr, 2016). Temperature analysis showed that, in at least

303 one of the studied points, the uppermost soil layer was exposed to temperatures between
304 200-400 °C for 6 minutes. In addition to this approximation, the slow spread of fire (0.64
305 ha/h) suggests high fire residence times. Additionally, *E. horridum* shrubs (**Fig. 1**) form
306 low and dense patches (Komac et al., 2011) with a homogeneous spatial distribution of
307 fuel loads, which supports higher temperatures and longer fire residence times (Santana
308 et al., 2011). In this way, the fuel loads and fire residence times observed in our study
309 are higher than those of previous studies on burned shrublands and forest understories
310 (Vadilonga et al., 2008; Santana et al., 2011; Fernández et al., 2013; Vega et al., 2005,
311 2014). The differences in our results compared to those of the literature reporting neutral
312 or positive effects of prescribed burning on SOC may also be related to soil sampling. A
313 dilution effect could be produced when too much soil thickness is sampled, since the
314 effects of fire may be confined to the uppermost layer. Furthermore, when sampling is
315 not carried out soon enough, ash and charred material could mix into the soil, increasing
316 its SOC content (Badía-Villas et al., 2014, 2017).

317 *3.2. Soil Aggregate Stability and Mean Weight Diameter*

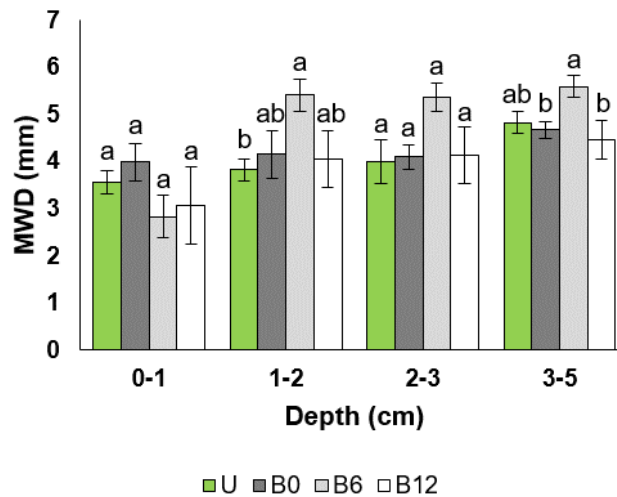
318 Soil aggregate stability (AS) was very high in all the studied U samples (> 76 %), and it
319 increased concomitantly with aggregate size (**Fig. 3**). No variations in AS were observed
320 among aggregate sizes for the different soil depths, except for the 0.25-0.5 mm fraction,
321 which showed an increase from 76.0 ± 4.6 % at 0-1 cm depth to 89.1 ± 1.4 % at 3-5 cm
322 depth. Immediately after the prescribed burning (B0), AS only showed changes in the
323 0.25-0.5 mm aggregate size at 0-1 cm depth, increasing from 76.0 ± 4.6 (U) to $85.1 \pm$
324 3.8 % and diluting the previously mentioned depth gradient. Six months after burning
325 (B6), the AS values in all aggregate sizes and depths remained virtually unchanged from
326 those of B0. Nevertheless, one year after fire (B12), the AS of all aggregate sizes and
327 depths showed an average reduction of 16.92 %. The mean weight diameter (MWD) in
328 the U samples was 3.57 ± 0.43 mm at 0-1 cm depth and increased to 4.82 ± 0.41 mm at
329 3-5 cm depth, as represented in **Fig. 4**. In B0, no significant changes in MWD were

330 observed in any of the studied depths compared to U, although the aforementioned
 331 gradient disappeared. In B6, the MWD values increased at 1-2 and 3-5 cm depth
 332 compared to U and B0. However, those differences are not detectable in the
 333 corresponding B12 samples.



334

335 **Fig. 3** Aggregate Stability (AS) of unburned samples (U), immediate post-fire samples (B0), 6 months (B6)
 336 and one year (B12) post-fire samples for each aggregate size (<0.25, 0.25-0.5, 0.5-1, 1-2, 2-4 and 4-10 mm)
 337 and sampling depth (0-1, 1-2, 2-3, 3-5 cm). Mean ± SE



338

339 **Fig. 4** Mean Weight Diameter (MWD) of unburned samples (U), immediate post-fire samples (B0), 6 months
 340 (B6) and one year (B12) post-fire samples at different sampling depths. Mean \pm SE. Letters indicate
 341 significant differences ($p < 0.05$) among sampling times for each soil depth.

342

343 These results agree with previous studies indicating that soil aggregation can remain
 344 practically unaffected (Arcenegui et al., 2008; Jordan et al., 2011) or increase (Giovannini
 345 & Lucchesi, 1997) after fires when the temperatures in the soil remain below 220 °C. The
 346 AS of the 0.25-0.5 mm aggregate size increased after burning, despite its reduction in
 347 the SOC content, which could be explained by mineralogical modifications, as observed
 348 by Jiménez-Pinilla et al. (2016a), who detected an increase in AS by heating at 300 °C
 349 that was related to the compaction of structural units. On the other hand, Giovannini &
 350 Lucchesi (1997) reported that AS could remain unaltered after SOM combustion at
 351 temperatures of 150 °C due to transformations of the cementing iron oxides. Giovannini
 352 et al. (1990) explained the increase in soil aggregation after heating by the dehydration
 353 of soil gels at temperatures over 170 °C. Additionally, this slight increase does not seem
 354 to be related to aggregate coating by hydrophobic organic substances that increase its
 355 resistance to water slaking (Terefe et al., 2008) since SWR also decreased in B0 for this
 356 sieve fraction, as explained in section 3.3, and both properties are negatively correlated
 357 (**Table 4**). The high AS observed in both the unburned and burned samples during the

358 study period indicate that SOM may not be the main cementing agent, since AS does
 359 not change when the SOC content is reduced by fire. This contrasts with the results of
 360 Boix-Fayos et al. (2001), who reported that the macroaggregate stability of SE-Spain
 361 soils depends on organic matter when its content is higher than 5 or 6 %. The high clay
 362 content and the presence of carbonates suggest that the aggregation in our soil might
 363 be mainly driven by inorganic binding agents that act as a permanent cement (Tisdall &
 364 Oades, 1982). Additionally, calcium carbonate is not usually affected by low-intensity
 365 fires, as it might resist temperatures up to 1000 °C (Rabenhorst, 1988). The AS reduction
 366 in B12 samples could be linked to trampling by cattle, which is known to alter soil
 367 structure (Drewry et al., 2008) and cause its compaction at ranges of 5 to 20 cm depth
 368 (Nawaz et al., 2013). This is supported by the fact that cattle grazed the plots from 2
 369 months after B6 until B12. Despite the decrease in the B12 AS values compared to those
 370 of previous samples, the change was possibly not great enough to significantly affect the
 371 MWD, although it tended to decrease at 1-5 cm depth compared to B6.

372 **Table 4** Regression analysis of Soil Organic Carbon (SOC), Soil Water Repellency (SWR) and Aggregate
 373 Stability (AS) among the soil sieve fractions (<0.25, 0.25-0.5, 0.5-1, 1-2, 2-4 and 4-10 mm) for each sampling
 374 time: unburned (U), immediate post-fire (B0), 6 months (B6) and one year (B12) post-fire

Time	U		B0		B6		B12	
	r	p	r	p	r	p	r	p
SOC x SWR	+0.649	<0.0001	+0.228	0.0566	+0.613	<0.0001	+0.798	<0.0001
SWR x AS	-0.605	<0.0001	-0.894	0.0004	-0.253	0.0607	-0.440	0.0008
AS x SOC	-0.568	<0.0001	-0.243	0.0617	-0.335	0.0123	-0.598	<0.0001

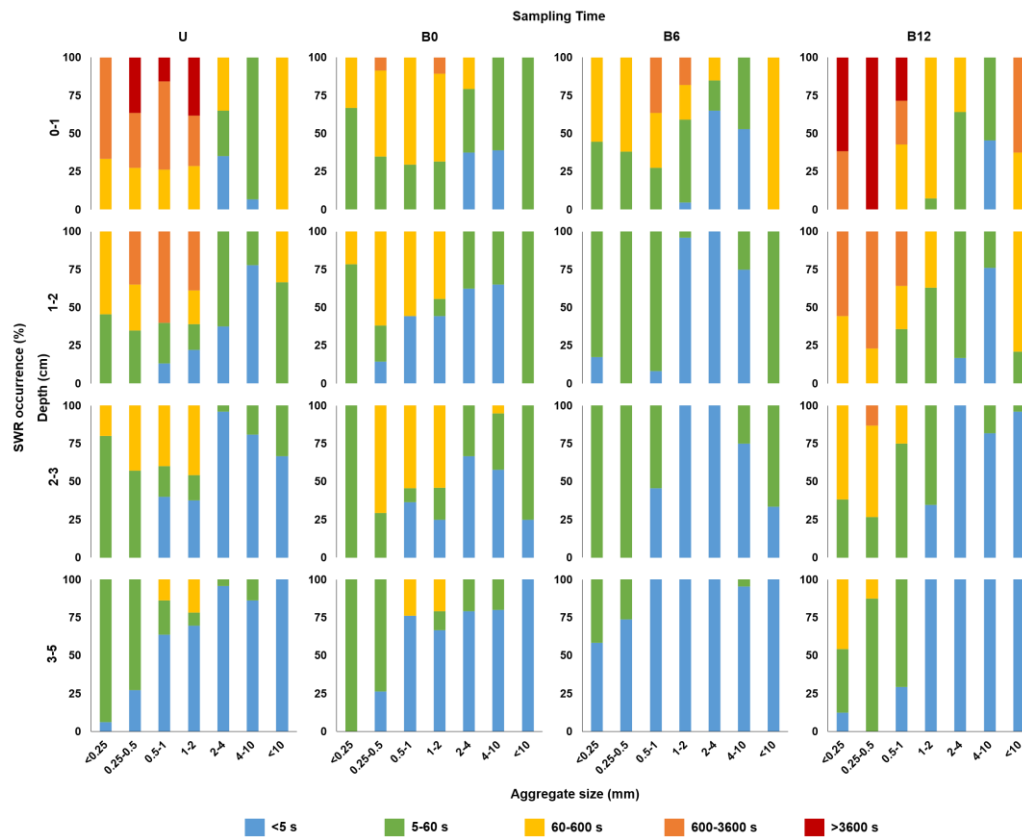
375

376

377 3.3. Soil Water Repellency

378 The occurrence of each class of SWR for each soil depth, aggregate size and sampling
 379 time is shown in **Fig. 5**. The finer fractions (<0.25 to 2 mm) of the U samples at 0-1 cm
 380 depth showed high natural SWR ranging from strongly to extremely water repellent, while
 381 the coarser fractions (2 to 10 mm) were mainly wettable or only slightly water repellent.

382 In the unburned soil, SWR showed a decreasing trend with both increasing depth and
383 aggregate size, and at 3-5 cm depth, only a low occurrence of strong water repellency
384 was observed in the 0.5 to 2 mm fractions, whereas slightly water repellent or wettable
385 were the most representative classes for <0.25-0.5 mm and 0.5 to 10 mm, respectively.
386 The SWR of the whole soil (<10 mm) showed strong water repellency that gradually
387 decreased with depth and was wettable at 3-5 cm. Fire decreased the SWR at 0-1 and
388 1-2 cm depths in the finer fractions (<0.25 to 2 mm), while the coarser fractions remained
389 virtually unchanged, as observed in the B0 samples. At 0-1 cm depth in B0, unlike in U,
390 no extreme SWR was observed, and the occurrence of severe SWR was reduced to less
391 than 10 % in the 0.25-0.5 and 1-2 mm aggregate sizes. In this way, the predominant
392 classes of SWR in B0 for the finer fractions were strongly and slightly water repellent. At
393 0-2 cm depth, the wettability of the finer fractions also increased with burning, as the
394 severe SWR observed in U was not observed in B0, and a higher occurrence of the
395 wettable class samples was detected in B0 than U. The same pattern was observed for
396 the whole soil (<10 mm), in which fire reduced SWR to slightly water repellent at 0-1 cm
397 depth. At B6, an opposite trend was observed between 0-1 cm and 1 to 5 cm depths.
398 While SWR at 0-1 cm depth increased in B6 compared to B0 for the finer fractions, in
399 the deeper soil layers, it continuously decreased to only slightly water repellent and
400 wettable classes. One year after the prescribed burning (B12), SWR increased for all the
401 studied soil depths in the finer fractions (<0.25 to 2 mm) compared to B6. B12 SWR
402 increased mainly in the <1 mm fractions at 0-1 and 1-2 cm depths, showing an even
403 higher occurrence of severe and extreme water repellency classes in these samples than
404 the corresponding U samples. These results are reflected in the SWR occurrence of the
405 whole soil (<10 mm), which recovered from the fire and even exceeded the pre-fire SWR
406 occurrence, showing strong and severe water repellency classes at 0-1 cm depth.
407 According to these results, the occurrence of SWR in the whole soil seems to be highly
408 related to changes in the SWR of the fine fractions (<0.25 to 2 mm).



409

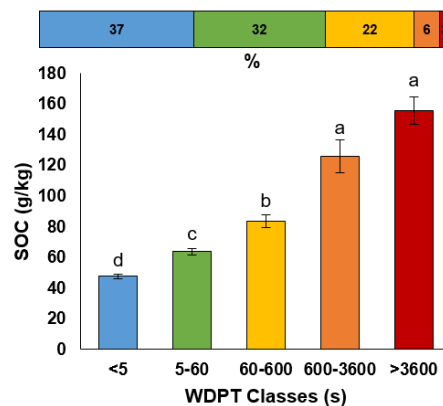
410 **Fig. 5** Occurrence (%) of Soil Water Repellency (SWR) according to the Water Drop Penetration Time
 411 (WDPT) test in the unburned (U), immediate post-fire (B0), 6 months (B6) and one year (B12) post-fire
 412 samples for each aggregate size (<0.25, 0.25-0.5, 0.5-1, 1-2, 2-4 and 4-10 mm) and whole soil (<10 mm)
 413 per sampling depth (0-1, 1-2, 2-3, 3-5 cm). SWR classes defined by Bisdorn et al. 1993

414

415 The detected SWR distribution among aggregate sizes was also found by Arcenegui et
 416 al. (2008) in Mediterranean pinewood soils, indicating that the <0.25 and 0.25-0.5 sieve
 417 fractions were the most water repellent; however, unlike the present study, SWR
 418 increased after fire. The higher occurrence of SWR in the finer sieve fractions was also
 419 observed by Jordán et al. (2011) in Mexican volcanic soils that had been unburned for a
 420 long time. Nevertheless, they detected no differences between the burned and unburned
 421 soils affected by low-severity wildfires, whereas sites affected by higher severity fires
 422 showed lower degrees of SWR. González-Pelayo et al. (2015) identified a trend to
 423 increasing SWR in the <0.25 mm sieve fraction beneath unburned shrubs (*Arbutus*
 424 *unedo* > *Pistacia lentiscus* ≈ *Quercus coccifera* > bare soil) in Central Portugal, although

425 its persistence was lower than that of our findings for soil under *E. horridum*; furthermore,
426 they observed a slight increase in SWR after prescribed burning.

427 We found significant differences in the SOC content among samples from different
428 WDPT classes, showing increases in the SOC content with increasing SWR persistence
429 (**Fig. 6**). However, the SOC content does not fully explain the variability in SWR in all the
430 sieve fractions of U, B0 and B6 according to the regression analysis (**Table 4**). This
431 suggests that SOM quality and its fire-induced changes could be a possible contributing
432 factor in SWR variations (Jiménez-Morillo et al., 2016a). Zheng et al. (2016) also
433 indicated that, in some cases, the distribution of SOM among the different aggregate
434 sizes might be the driving factor of SWR occurrence rather than its content. In this way,
435 the greater SOM concentrations in the smaller aggregates may explain their strong
436 contribution to SWR (Jiménez-Morillo 2016a) and could be a result of the presence of
437 fine, hydrophobic interstitial SOM that accumulates in the finer sieve fractions (Mataix-
438 Solera & Doerr, 2004). The drastic reduction in SWR observed for B0 might be related
439 to the destruction of these hydrophobic SOM, since the SOC content decreased
440 concomitantly. The recovery of SWR in B12 could be related to the incorporation of
441 ashes into the soil, since they play an important role in SWR evolution following fire
442 (Jiménez-Pinilla et al., 2016b) and a significant positive correlation between SOC and
443 SWR was detected ($r = 0.798$; $p = <0.0001$). This SWR increase in B12 could also be
444 attributed to the sampling being carried out after a low-rainfall season, as SWR can be
445 more pronounced following dry periods, as reported by Doerr et al. (2000).



446

447 **Fig. 6** Soil Organic Carbon (SOC) content of all the sieve samples (n= 288) distributed in each Water Drop
 448 Penetration Time (WDPT) class. Mean ± SE. Numbers in the upper bar indicate the percentage of the total
 449 samples included in each class. Letters indicate significant differences in SOC content among WDPT
 450 classes at p <0.05

451

452 Traditionally, high SWR occurrence has been related to coarse soil textures (Giovannini
 453 & Lucchesi, 1983). González-Peñaloza et al. (2013) suggested that a limited amount of
 454 SOM may cause higher SWR in coarse-textured than fine-textured soils due to the low
 455 specific surface of larger particles. However, our studied soil showed a 22 % clay content
 456 and high natural SWR and SOC contents. This may occur if the hydrophobic organic
 457 materials causing SWR are small enough, increasing the hydrophobicity in the finer
 458 rather than the coarser fractions (de Jonge et al., 1999).

459

460 3.4. Post-fire implications of prescribed burning

461 Results indicate that one year after burning, the direct effects induced on SOC were still
 462 present, while SWR recovered to higher values than those of U samples. On the other
 463 hand, AS, which remained almost unaltered during the study period, was dramatically
 464 reduced in B12.

465 The detected SOC reduction and the biomass carbon losses have negative effects on C
466 sequestration that could extend over the long term. Knowledge about the effects that
467 land management practices, such as prescribed burning, can exert on mountain soils is
468 of vital importance, since these soils store large amounts of C (Saenger et al., 2015).
469 Therefore, further research is needed on this topic in order to assess the sustainability
470 of burning practices in mountain environments from the point of view of C sequestration.

471 Prior to burning, soils showed high SWR but were covered by dense patches of *E.*
472 *horridum*, which is a species that physically protects soil and improves water and nutrient
473 retention (Montserrat et al., 1984). Burning reduced SWR, but one year after burning, it
474 recovered to even higher levels than the pre-burning SWR in an environment where
475 vegetation had been removed, exposing the soil to raindrop splash and increasing
476 overland flow (DeBano, 1981). Indeed, Girona-García et al. (2018) indicated for the same
477 study site that the recovered vegetation observed 8-12 months after fire only represented
478 a small surface of the burned plots. However, it is difficult to isolate the effect of SWR on
479 erosion processes since it is highly dependent on the continuity of the hydrophobic layer
480 (Shakesby et al., 2000). Moreover, only the *E. horridum* shrubs were burned, while the
481 pre-existing grasses remained unaltered; this, together with the occurrence of different
482 fire severities, created a mosaic of patches (Cawson et al., 2012). Thus, further research
483 is needed in order to detect the influence of SWR on the general overland flow, since it
484 may vary due to the high spatial variations in infiltration (Doerr et al., 2000).

485 The maintenance of soil structure is of vital importance for plant growth because it
486 determines the air and water flows. AS remained virtually unaffected by fire, although it
487 suffered a non-fire-related significant decrease one year after the prescribed burning.
488 The reduction in aggregate stability and therefore its destruction in extreme cases
489 enhances soil sealing, which, combined with the development of SWR, reduces water
490 infiltration and increases soil erodibility (Mataix-Solera et al., 2011; Cawson et al., 2016).

491 Fine soil fractions are of great importance in nutrient exchange processes. The
492 occurrence of SWR in small aggregates could lead to a reduction in nutrient exchange
493 between the soil and plants, given the reduced wettability of the soil (Mataix-Solera &
494 Doerr, 2004). This could negatively affect the recovery of the pastures, which is the
495 objective of the studied prescribed burning.

496 **4. Conclusions**

497 Fire severely decreased the SOC content in the <0.25 mm fraction at 0-1 cm depth and
498 in the 0.25-0.5 mm at 0-2 cm depth. This translated to a 45 % SOC reduction at 0-1 cm
499 depth in the whole soil that did not recover during the studied period. SWR was reduced
500 by burning mainly at 0-1 cm depth for the <0.25 to 2 mm sieve fractions and the whole
501 soil. One year after the prescribed burning, SWR recovered in these fractions, reaching
502 even higher values than those of the unburned soil. The AS of the 0.25-0.5 mm
503 aggregates increased after fire, but one year later, it suffered a striking decrease in all
504 aggregate sizes and depths, probably related to cattle trampling. These findings suggest
505 that the direct effects of prescribed burning were still present one year after burning, and
506 further research is needed in order to assess the increased soil loss risks of the post-fire
507 situation. Based on our results, we can also conclude that fine fractions (<2 mm) are
508 more prone to be affected by fire, and they determine the behaviour of the whole soil to
509 a greater extent than coarser fractions.

510

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519

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