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Delayed application of straw mulching increases soil erosion in Mediterranean pine forests burned by wildfires

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14 **Delayed application of straw mulching increases soil erosion in Mediterranean pine forests**  
15 **burned by wildfires**

16

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18

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26

27 **Abstract**

28

29 Several studies have explored the effectiveness of straw mulching against soil erosion in wildfire-  
30 affected forests as post-fire management technique. In contrast, scarce literature exists about the  
31 application time of the mulch cover, although this factor - beside climate patterns of the application  
32 site - is essential to increase mulching effectiveness. To fill this gap, this study has evaluated the  
33 soil loss in two forest sites of Castilla La Mancha (Spain), in which straw mulching was applied in  
34 two burned forests immediately after the wildfire or four months after the fire event. These sites  
35 show similar characteristics (soil burn severity, soil type, and vegetation), and thus the difference in  
36 soil erosion can be attributed to the treatments. The mulching effectiveness has been measured as  
37 the difference between the soil loss per unit of erodibility comparing unburned and untreated, and  
38 burned and mulched plots. At a comparable rainfall erosivity (difference in EI<sub>30</sub> between the two  
39 sites lower than 40%), soil loss decreased by 67% (in the case of timely distribution) and 33%  
40 (when the action is delayed) in mulched sites compared to the untreated areas. After a rainstorm  
41 with very high erosivity (+ 600% of EI<sub>30</sub>), soil loss reduction was equal to 85% in the case of early  
42 mulching application. This higher effectiveness of early mulching compared to the delayed  
43 application was due to the quicker post-fire regrowth of vegetation, and the increased level of  
44 incorporation of vegetal residues into the soil. This result suggests to land managers that straw  
45 mulching should be applied immediately after a wildfire in burned forests, in order to achieve the  
46 highest anti-erosive effects. Further research is suggested to validate these results in other  
47 environments and after application of other mulches.

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**Keywords:** post-fire management; soil loss; rainfall erosivity; soil erodibility; soil conservation.

## 1. Introduction

Soil mulching is the most common post-fire management strategy, in order to control the hydrological response of soil after wildfires (Lucas-Borja, 2021; Zema, 2021). Vegetal materials, such as straw and forest residues, are spread on the ground of the burned sites, in order to protect the soil from rainsplash erosion and increase the soil roughness (Prosdocimi et al., 2016). Several studies have shown the effectiveness of post-fire straw mulching at limiting the runoff and erosion rates in burned forests in several environments (e.g., Fernández and Vega, 2014; Girona-García et al., 2021; Robichaud et al., 2013). These authors have reported that straw mulching was generally successful in reducing erosion after a wildfire. In a period that may be variable from few months to several years depending on the fire severity (Shakesby, 2011), the soil is bare, due to vegetation burning, and many soil properties undergo severe changes, due to soil heating (Alcañiz et al., 2018; Certini, 2005). The mulch material acts as an artificial cover of soil, contrasting the particle detachment due to rainfall and overland flow. The effectiveness of mulching depends on several factors, and especially on climate and rainfall distribution of the area to be treated as well as on the application times (e.g., (Prosdocimi et al., 2016)). However, a rapid action to timely spread the mulch cover on ground after the wildfire is essential, in order to avoid the highest runoff and erosion rates in the so-called “window of disturbance” after fire (Prosser and Williams, 1998). However, if it is obvious that a delayed distribution of the mulch material may be ineffective against the first rainstorms after the fire, which result in the highest erosion rates, a late mulching operation may be more effective against the rainfalls occurring some months after the wildfire compared a timely distribution. While the literature has widely investigated why and to what extent soil erosion decreases in burned and mulched forest soils compared to untreated areas, less knowledge exists about the comparison of the effects of post-fire straw mulching in different times on soil erosion. Such information is essential for land managers, since the mulching treatments after a wildfire are often carried out too late (for difficulties in supplying mulch materials or unexpected and too vast wildfires) with consequent increase in the hydrogeological hazard due to off-site fire effects.

To fill this gap, this study has evaluated the soil loss in two forest sites of Castilla La Mancha (Spain) with similar characteristics (soil burn severity, soil type, and vegetation), in which straw mulching was carried out immediately after the wildfire or after four months. Previously, we

82 checked that the soils in the two forest sites can undergo to high erosion rates under simulated  
83 rainfalls. The main objective of this investigation is to demonstrate that an application of the mulch  
84 material immediately after the fire may be more beneficial against soil erosion determined by  
85 rainfall events with normal or extreme erosivity compared to a delayed soil mulching.

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## 87 **2. Materials and methods**

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### 89 **2.1. Study area**

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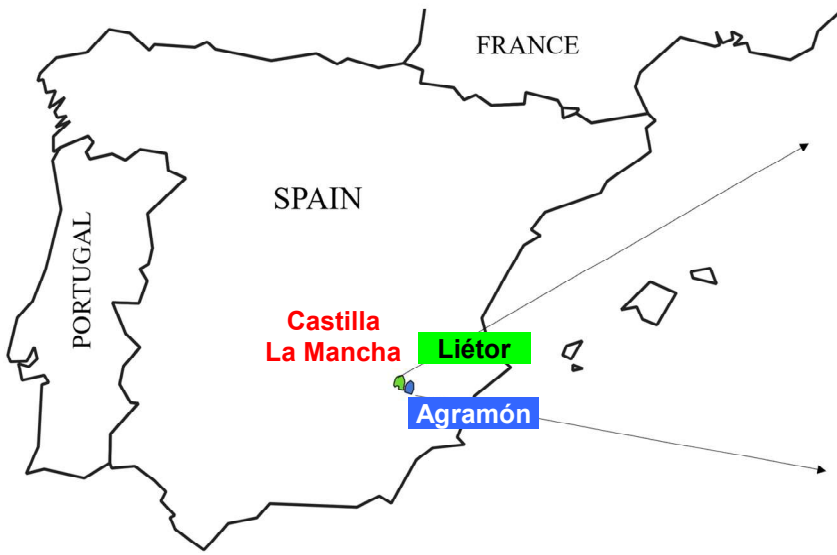
91 The study area is the forest landscape of Castilla La Mancha, Central Eastern Spain. The climate  
92 type is “BSk” according to the Köppen classification (Kottek et al., 2006). The mean annual  
93 temperature and precipitation are 16.6 °C and 321 mm, respectively (weather station of Hellín). In  
94 this area, two forest sites were identified (Agramón and Liétor, Figure 1, about 11 and 19 km far  
95 from Hellín, respectively), of which the main characteristics are reported in Table 1. The sites are at  
96 the same altitude (520 to 770 m a.s.l.), but differ for aspect (south-west in Agramón and north-west  
97 in Liétor) and soil texture (silty loamy in Agramón and sandy loamy in Liétor, according to the  
98 USDA classification). The soil type is the same (*Calcic Aridisols*, Nachtergaele, 2001).

99 In both forests, the dominant overstory vegetation consists of Aleppo pine (*Pinus halepensis* Mill.)  
100 (Peinado et al., 2008). Before the wildfire, the stand density and tree height were in the range 500 -  
101 650 trees/ha and 7 - 14 m, respectively. The understory vegetation includes *Rosmarinus officinalis*  
102 L., *Brachypodium retusum* (Pers.) Beauv., *Thymus vulgaris* L., and *Helichrysum stoechas* L.

103 In July 2020 (Agramón) and July 2021 (Liétor), two wildfires burned large areas in the two forests.  
104 The soil burn severity, estimated using the methodology proposed by Vega et al. (2013), was high  
105 in both sites with a crown tree mortality of 100%. In order to limit the expected increases in surface  
106 runoff and erosion after wildfires, the Forest Service of the Castilla La Mancha Region, applied  
107 mulching as post-fire management strategy in both the burned forests. Wheat straw was manually  
108 spread on the ground at a dose of 0.3 kg/m<sup>2</sup> of dry matter and a thickness of 3 cm (Lucas-Borja et  
109 al., 2018; Lucas-Borja et al., 2020). These values are widely used in literature, to achieve a soil  
110 cover of 80% for burned plots (e.g., Girona-García et al., 2021; Kim et al., 2008; Lucas-Borja et al.,  
111 2019). The mulching operations were carried out immediately after the fire (July 2020) in Agramón,  
112 and four months later (November 2021) in Liétor. The latter application was delayed for economic  
113 reasons (no availability of sufficient man workers and money immediately after the wildfire).

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Liétor site

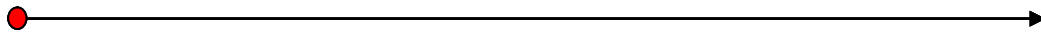


Agramón site



(a)

**Agramón site**

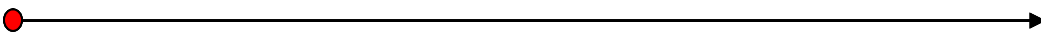


July  
2020

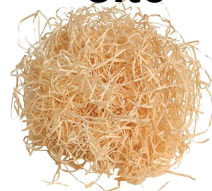


17 May 4 June  
2021 2021

**Liétor site**



July  
2021



November  
2021



16 June  
2022

(b)

117 Figure 1 – Geographical location of the study sites (Agramón and Liétor, Castilla La Mancha,  
 118 Spain) (a), and experimental design (b).

119

120 Table 1 – Mean characteristics of the study sites immediately after the wildfire (Agramón and  
 121 Liétor, Castilla La Mancha, Spain).

122

		Site			
		<i>Agramón</i>		<i>Liétor</i>	
<b>Geographical coordinates</b>		38°25'19"N	-1°38'15"E	38°30'41"N	-1°56'35"E
<b>Altitude (m a.s.l.)</b>		520-770			
<b>Aspect</b>		south-west		north-west	
<b>Soil characteristics</b>	<b>slope (%)</b>	29-36		29-31	
	<b>type</b>	Calcic Aridisols			
	<b>texture</b>	silty loamy		sandy loamy	
	<b>condition</b>	burned	mulched	burned	mulched
	<b>sand content (%)</b>	31.7	30.2	53.6	52.3
	<b>silt content (%)</b>	55.5	51.2	29.9	29.2
	<b>clay content (%)</b>	12.8	18.5	16.6	18.5
	<b>organic matter (%)</b>	2.13	2.35	4.31	3.60
	<b>vegetation cover (%)</b>	28.6	24.3	31.4	21.1
	<b>rock cover (%)</b>	50	51	47	41

123

124

## 125 **2.2. Experimental design**

126

127 Two experimental sites were selected in each forest under two different soil conditions (burned and  
 128 untreated soil, and burned and mulched soil). Immediately after the fire, in these sites, rainfall  
 129 simulations were carried out (see section 2.3.2), and sixteen experimental plots (eight for each site,  
 130 and four for each soil condition) were installed to measure soil loss under natural rainfall events  
 131 (see section 2.3.3). The experimental design consisted of two soil conditions (burned and not treated  
 132 as well as burned and mulched soils) × four replicated rainfall simulations or plots.

133

## 134 **2.3. Erosion measurements**

135

### 136 2.3.1. Estimation of soil erodibility

137

138 Although the soil type was similar between the two experimental sites, the different texture may  
139 result in different soil erodibility. To estimate this soil parameter, the K-factor of the well-known  
140 Universal Soil Loss Equation (USLE, Wischmeier and Smith, 1978) was considered, based on the  
141 main physico-chemical properties of the soils (Table 1). According to these authors,  $K$  is given by  
142 the following equation:

143

$$144 K = [(2.1 \times 10^{-4} M^{1.14} (12 - OM) + 3.25 (s - 2) + 2.5 (p - 3)] \times 10^{-2} \times 0.1317 \quad (1)$$

145

146 where the textural factor  $M$  is equal to  $(c_{\text{silt}} + c_{\text{vfs}}) \times (100 - c_{\text{clay}})$ , being  $c_{\text{silt}}$ ,  $c_{\text{vfs}}$  and  $c_{\text{clay}}$  the textural  
147 percent fraction contents (very fine sand, silt and clay),  $OM$  is the percent organic matter content,  $s$   
148 is the soil structure class (3, medium or coarse granular), and  $p$  is the permeability class (1, very  
149 rapid, in Agramón, and 2, rapid, in Liétor).

150

### 151 2.3.2. Simulated rainfall

152

153 The erodibility of the burned and untreated soils was checked in field conditions using rainfall  
154 simulations. For each soil condition, rainfall was simulated in small areas randomly chosen. An  
155 Eijelkamp<sup>®</sup> rainfall simulator was used (Hlavčová et al., 2019; Iserloh et al., 2013), following the  
156 methods by Bombino et al. (2019) and Carrà et al. (2021). In detail, the simulator was placed over  
157 the ground on a surface area of 0.3 m x 0.3 m, caring that the mulch material applied to the soil was  
158 not disturbed by this operation. The height and intensity of the simulated rainfall was setup at 26.7  
159 mm and 320 mm/h, while its duration was 300 s. The drop diameter and the falling height of the  
160 precipitation were 5.9 mm and 40 cm, respectively. The precipitation volume in the simulator tank  
161 (about 2200 ml) was dosed by varying the pressure head, as suggested in the operating manual.  
162 Before the field experiment, the simulator was calibrated in laboratory by generating the same  
163 rainfall. Four rainfall simulations were carried out in each site and soil condition. The rainfall rate  
164 applied in this study represents an extreme value reported in past literature (e.g., (Quinn and Laflen,  
165 1983; Ma *et al.*, 2016). However, throughout Mediterranean Spain, extreme rainfall rates are being  
166 more frequently recorded (Camarasa-Belmonte et al., 2020). For instance, in Júcar (Cuenca, Castilla

167 La Mancha), rainfall rates have been observed to reach 1000 mm in 24 h (Llasat et al., 2021). Of  
168 course, this extreme rainfall rate is not consistent for 24 h, but it varies throughout the storm.  
169 According to a recent analysis of high temporal resolution (5-min) rainfall observations in the  
170 eastern Iberian Peninsula, rainfall rates may reach sustained intensities that exceed 35 mm in a 5-  
171 min period. Thus, we selected an extreme rainfall rate near this maximum that was achievable using  
172 an off-the-shelf rainfall simulator. This equates to an intensity with a historical return period of  
173 >100 years in the studied area, simulating an extremely heavy event, as representative of a worst-  
174 case scenario for the study area (Lucas-Borja et al., 2022).

175 Throughout the rainfall simulation, the runoff water and sediments were collected in a small bucket.  
176 The mixtures of water and sediments were finally transported to the laboratory in small bottles, and  
177 then oven dried at 104 °C for 24 h. The weight of the sediments was then referred to the area unit,  
178 to calculate the soil loss. The estimated soil loss gives information about the actual erodibility of  
179 each forest site under burned conditions.

180

### 181 2.3.3. Natural rainfall

182

183 After the wildfire, four plots per site and soil condition, each one being 8-m long and 3-m wide, for  
184 an area of 24 m<sup>2</sup>, were equipped with as many sediment fences at their outlet (collecting runoff  
185 volumes up to 50 litres), to collect the soil loss after rainfall events. The distance between plots was  
186 always greater than 300 meters, in order to avoid pseudo-replication. The plots were selected on  
187 hillslopes with similar profile slope (between 20 and 25%) and aspect (north), to ensure  
188 comparability among the plots.

189 Soil loss was measured after all the erosive events occurred throughout one year after the wildfires  
190 in each site. The accumulated sediment at each sediment trap was removed after each rainfall event  
191 and weighted in the field.

192

## 193 **2.4. Rainfall characterisation**

194

195 The precipitation was measured in two rain gauge stations installed in the two sites. From the  
196 rainfall depths, recorded each 5 minutes, the rainfall depth, maximum intensity in 30 minutes ( $I_{30}$ ),  
197 and erosivity ( $EI_{30}$ ) were calculated. The latter parameter was estimated according to Wischmeier  
198 and Smith (1978) as the product of the kinetic energy,  $E$ , and  $I_{30}$ .

199

## 200 **2.5. Comparison of erosion in the two forest sites under different rainfall erosivity**

201

202 The soil loss for each soil condition (burned and untreated, and burned and mulched soils) was  
203 measured in the experimental plots after the rainfall event of 16 June 2022 in Liétor. This soil loss  
204 was compared to the corresponding values measured in Agramón after two events: (i) the rainfall  
205 recorded on 17 May 2021, having an erosivity over seven-fold the  $EI_{30}$  of the event measured in  
206 Liétor; and (ii) the rainfall of 4 June 2021, whose erosivity was only 37% higher compared to the  
207  $EI_{30}$  of the Liétor event. These comparisons aim at quantifying the difference in soil loss between  
208 mulched and untreated soils under rainfalls of extremely different or comparable erosivity, which is  
209 assumed as effectiveness of the mulching treatment.

210 Before erosion comparisons, the different soil erodibility between the two sites and soil conditions  
211 were taken into account, calculating the soil loss per unit K-factor or, in other words, dividing the  
212 measured soil loss per the K-factor of each soil condition in the two sites. Thanks to this  
213 standardisation, the difference in soil texture and therefore in soil erodibility plays a minor role on  
214 the erosion estimations between the two sites.

215

## 216 **2.6. Statistical analysis**

217

218 A one-way ANOVA was applied to the soil loss measured after the rainfall simulations, in order to  
219 evaluate the statistical significance of the differences between the two sites. Then, the soil loss  
220 measured after the natural precipitations were statistically processed using again a one-way  
221 ANOVA with repeated measures, in order to identify possible differences between the two soil  
222 conditions in the two sites. Soil loss was the dependent variable, while the site (for the rainfall  
223 simulations) and the soil condition (for the natural rainfalls) were the independent factors. The  
224 differences in the soil loss were evaluated using the pairwise comparison by Tukey's test (at  $p <$   
225  $0.05$ ). The equality of variance and normal distribution are assumptions of the statistical tests; these  
226 assumptions were evaluated by normality tests or were square root-transformed, when necessary.  
227 Since Mauchly's test revealed that the hypothesis of data sphericity was violated, we applied the  
228 Greenhouse-Geisser's correction to the degrees of freedom.

229 The statistical analysis was carried out using the XLSTAT software (release 2019, Addinsoft, Paris,  
230 France).

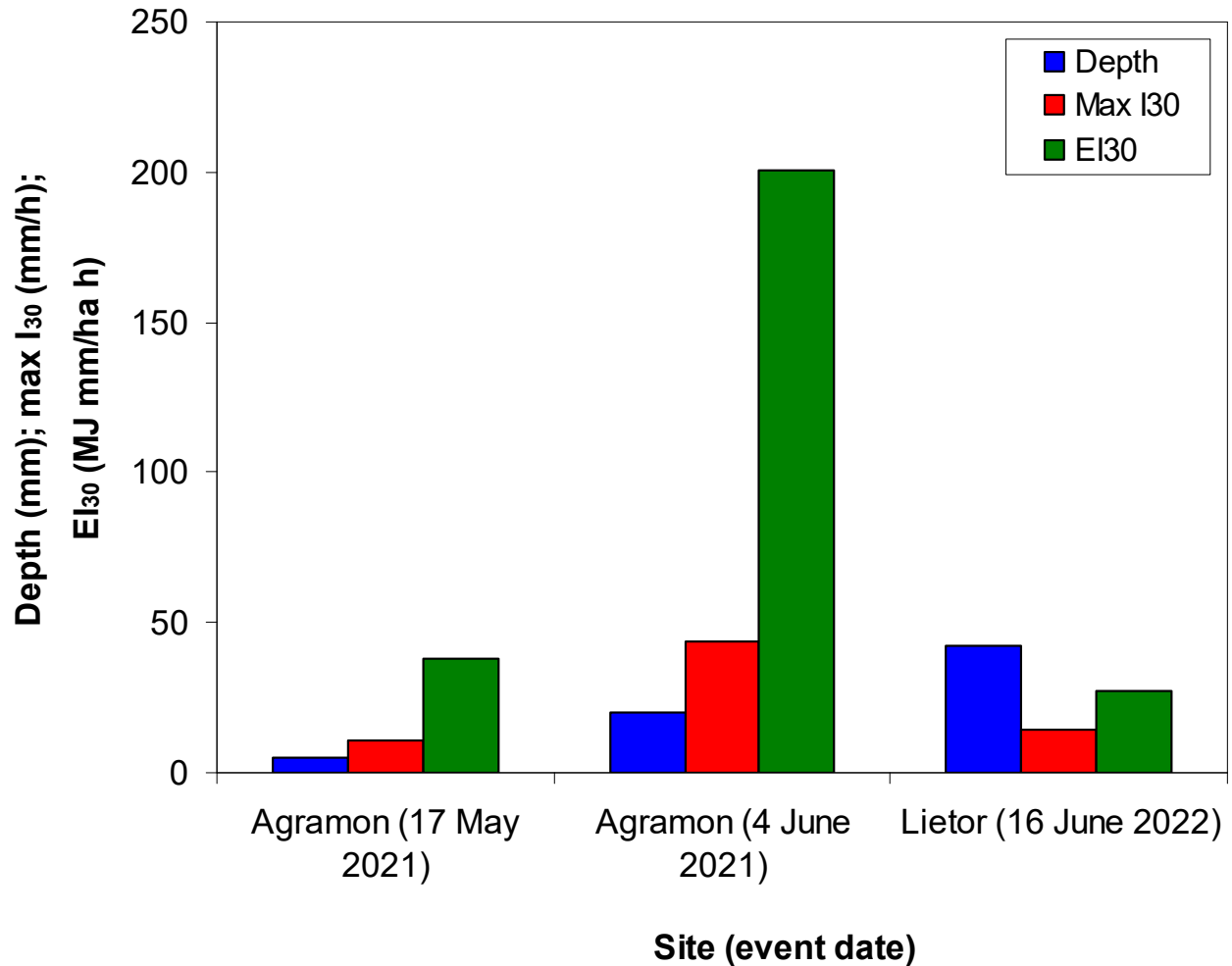
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### 3. Results

The erodibility of the burned and untreated soils, expressed by the USLE K-factor, was equal to 0.041 tons ha h/(ha MJ mm) in Agramón, and to 0.017 tons ha h/(ha MJ mm) in Liétor. The burned and mulched soils showed the same K factor in Liétor and a value of 0.034 tons ha h/(ha MJ mm) in Agramón. Therefore, the soil erodibility in Liétor was about 2.5-fold (in burned and untreated conditions) and 2-fold (in burned and mulched conditions) the value estimated in Agramón, and this difference was statistically significant.

Under rainfall simulations, the measured soil losses were equal to  $0.29 \pm 0.01$  tons/ha in Agramón and to  $0.90 \pm 0.34$  tons/ha in Liétor, and this difference was statistically significant ( $p < 0.05$ ) with a ratio of 3.1, which is close to the K-factor estimation by equation (1). This difference derives from the slight changes in soil texture (silty loamy in Agramón, and sandy loamy in Liétor) as well as in the characteristics of soil surface (vegetation and rock cover, Table 1). Although not directly measured in the field, we suppose that the soils of Agramón had a higher infiltration capacity, due to the difference soil texture. This difference was checked using the Rawls' pedotransfer function (Saxton et al., 1986), which showed a soil hydraulic conductivity of 10.3 mm/h in Liétor and 16.2 mm/h in Agramón. This should indicate a lower generation capacity of surface runoff with reduced particle detachment due to the overland flow in Agramón. The sand particles are looser compared to the silt fraction, and therefore their displacement due to the raindrop kinetic energy is higher in Liétor compared to the finer soil in Agramón. This is directly confirmed by the higher soil loss measured by the rainfall simulator, which indicates significantly higher splash erosion in Liétor compared to Agramón.

During the monitoring campaign (June 2020-July 2021 in Agramón, and June 2021-July 2022 in Liétor), one rainfall event with the resulting soils loss was considered in Liétor, and two in Agramón. These events occurred in late spring in both sites (between May and June). The event of Liétor (16 June 2022) was characterised by a rainfall depth of 42.4 mm, a maximum  $I_{30}$  of 14.6 mm/h and an  $EI_{30}$  of 27.6 MJ mm/ha h. The first rainfall event recorded in Agramón (17 May 2021) had a depth of 5.30 mm (-87.5% compared to Liétor), a maximum  $I_{30}$  of 10.4 mm/h (-28.8%) and an  $EI_{30}$  of 37.8 MJ mm/ha h (+37.1%), therefore having hydrological characteristics that were similar as the event recorded in Liétor. In contrast, the second rainfall in Agramón (4 June 2021) showed a depth of 19.7 mm (-54% compared to Liétor), but a 7-fold erosivity (201 MJ mm/ha h), due to a maximum  $I_{30}$  that was higher by over 200% (Figure 2).



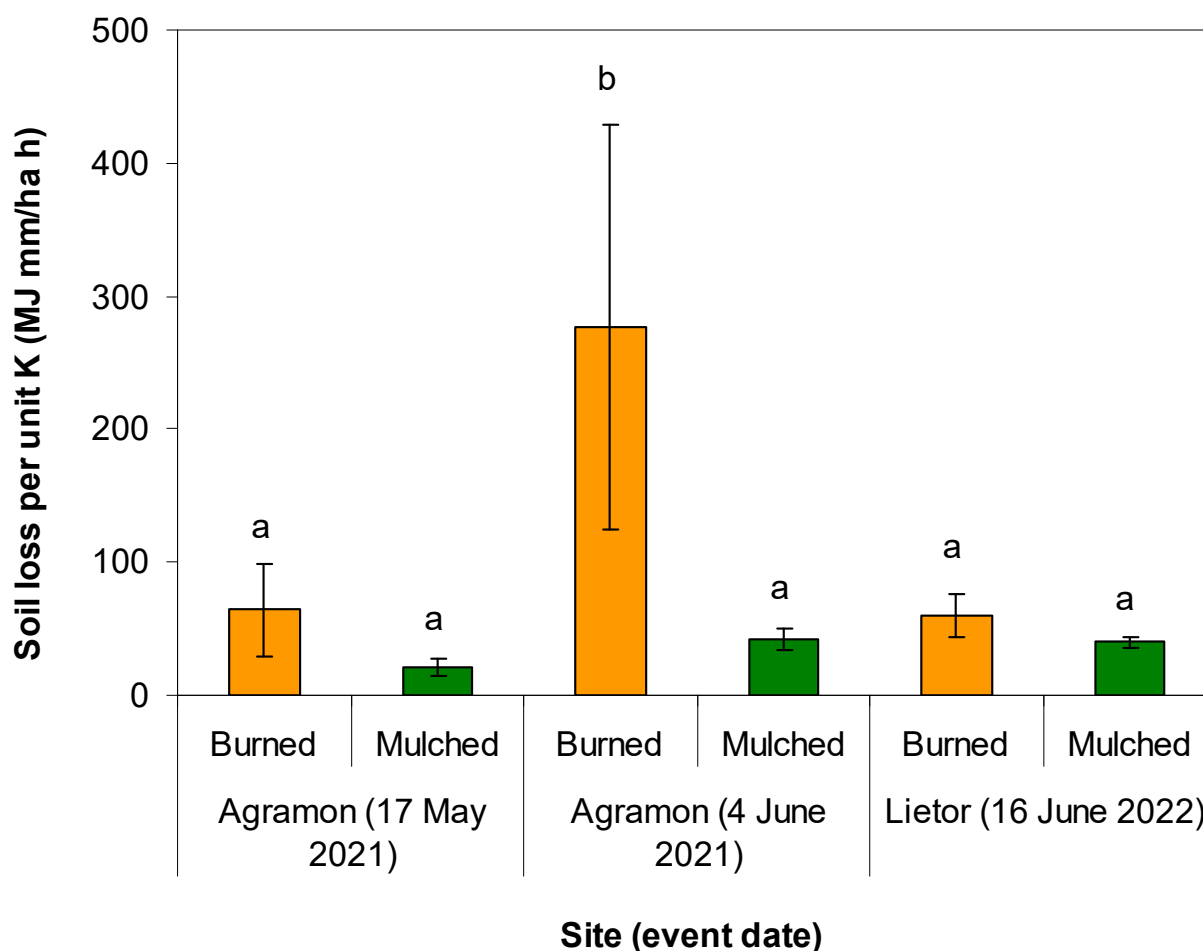
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266 Figure 2 – Comparison of variables of natural rainfalls measured in the study sites (Agramón and  
 267 Liétor, Castilla La Mancha, Spain).

268

269 The comparison of the soil loss measured in burned and untreated soils after the events with  
 270 comparable erosivity (17 May 2021 in Agramón, and 16 June 2022 in Liétor) showed values of  $64.4$   
 271  $\pm 34.5$  tons/ha per unit K in Agramón, and to  $59.3 \pm 16.3$  tons/ha per unit K in Liétor with no  
 272 statistical significance. In burned and mulched soils, the soil losses are equal to  $21.2 \pm 7.11$  tons/ha  
 273 per unit K in Agramón, and to  $40 \pm 3.96$  tons/ha per unit K in Liétor, and also in this case the  
 274 difference was not significant (Figure 3). This means that the mulching effectiveness is equal to  
 275  $84.9\%$  in the case of earlier straw application (as done in Agramón) and to  $32.6\%$  in the case of  
 276 delayed mulching operations (as in Liétor). After a rainstorm with very high rainfall erosivity, as  
 277 the event recorded in Agramón on 4 June 2021, the soil loss increased to  $276 \pm 153$  tons/ha per unit  
 278 K (a value that was significantly different compared to the other site and soil conditions, which  
 279 gave a mulching effectiveness of  $84.9\%$ ).

280



281

282 Figure 3 – Comparison of soil loss measured under natural rainfalls in the study sites (Agramón and  
 283 Liétor, Castilla La Mancha, Spain). Different letters indicate significant differences after Tukey's  
 284 test ( $p < 0.05$ ).

285

#### 286 4. Discussion

287

288 In several environments and under different land uses, mulching has generally played many  
 289 beneficial effects on hydrological properties of soil, such as the protection against rainsplash  
 290 erosion, increased water storage, reduced velocity of overland flow, improved aggregate stability,  
 291 decreased evaporation (Lucas-Borja et al., 2018; Prosdocimi et al., 2016). This investigation has  
 292 clearly shown that a delayed application of straw over burned plots may reduce the effectiveness of  
 293 soil mulching by over 50% in the case of moderate rainfalls, and by over 60% after rainstorms with  
 294 very high erosivity. This result is even more surprising, considering that, after long time from its  
 295 application (as in Agramón), part of the mulch cover may have been displaced by wind, leaving part  
 296 of the previously covered areas bare.

297 The rainfall simulations have shown that burned soil can be easily eroded at high rainfall intensity,  
298 and there are differences between mulched and untreated sites in burned areas. Since the soil has  
299 already been eroded, as happened in the site of Liétor, the mulching application has low  
300 effectiveness, except after very intense precipitations. This means that the rainfall erosivity is a  
301 discriminating factor, which suggests the need for mulching in burned forest soils prone to erosion.  
302 In contrast, if rainfall intensity is low, there is no effect of the treatments. High-intensity rainfall,  
303 however, are common in the Mediterranean forest areas (e.g., in Southern Italy, Fortugno et al.,  
304 2017; Northern Iran, Jourgholami et al., 2020; Eastern USA, Wilson et al., 2018).

305 The low effectiveness of the delayed mulching treatment may be explained by two main reasons: (i)  
306 the lower regrowth of vegetation (shown by the low plant cover at the time of erosion survey, which  
307 is only 21%) compared to early mulching (on average about 80% of the total plot area), and (ii) the  
308 reduced level of incorporation of vegetal residues into the soil.

309 In more detail, eleven (in Agramón) and seven (in Liétor) months after the soil treatment, the  
310 vegetation cover, measured by the photographic method, was much higher in the first site compared  
311 to the site subjected to the delayed mulching. The higher post-fire regeneration of vegetation in the  
312 site with earlier mulching was due to the straw supply in the dry season, where the low water  
313 content of soil is the factor that limits the growth of vegetation (Prats et al., 2016, 2012). In contrast,  
314 straw was distributed in Liétor at the start of the wet season, when the soil is wet and the beneficial  
315 effect of the mulch cover is much more limited. Moreover, the straw layer is presumably denser and  
316 thicker in spring, in occasion of the restart of the annual vegetation regrowth. This may have  
317 hampered the supply of heat and light from sun, thus resulting in a lower regeneration of the  
318 herbaceous and herbaceous vegetation (Mulumba and Lal, 2008; Prosdocimi et al., 2016).

319 Furthermore, the earlier mulching operations in Agramón may have favoured the incorporation of  
320 the vegetal material supplied with the straw into the soil. This should have resulted in the increase  
321 of the organic matter content of soil, and therefore in its aggregate stability, with consequent higher  
322 soil microporosity and water infiltration capacity (Hillel, 1998; Shakesby, 2011). This effect, which,  
323 however, requires direct measurements of soil hydraulic conductivity and organic matter content in  
324 the experimental conditions, was also detected by other authors (e.g., (Carrà et al., 2021b)), who  
325 found increased water infiltration and organic matter in mulched soil one year after prescribed  
326 burning in Mediterranean forests. Other literature experiences have shown a low effectiveness of  
327 straw mulching to reduce soil erosion, which the authors attributed to the moderate precipitations  
328 (Fernández-Fernández et al., 2016), non-significant increase in vegetation cover (Fernández et al.,  
329 2012) and low mulching rates, high soil burn severity and high precipitation rates (Fernández and  
330 Vega, 2016).

331 Several authors stated that soil texture play an important role on soil erosion (e.g., (Jourgholami and  
332 Labelle, 2020)). Undoubtedly, the slightly different soil texture made more erodible the site with  
333 delayed mulching, but the standardisation of the observed soil loss per unit K may have reduced this  
334 difference in soil erodibility between the two sites.

335 Since soil erosion may be underestimated in small plots (as those of this study), which mainly  
336 measure rainsplash and sheetwash erosion (Fernández and Vega, 2016), we suggest upscaling the  
337 related investigations on larger spatial scales, which take into account other important erosion  
338 forms, such as rill and gully erosion. Moreover, further validations of these results in sites treated  
339 with other mulches (e.g., mulching with wood chips or fresh residues) (Carrà et al., 2022; Díaz et  
340 al., 2022) or under other environmental and management conditions (e.g., in sites subjected to  
341 machinery or forest management (Jourgholami and Labelle, 2020) are welcome.

342

## 343 **5. Conclusion**

344

345 This study has demonstrated how early application of straw mulch in pine forests burned by severe  
346 wildfires is more effective at reducing soil erosion compared to delayed mulching both under  
347 average or extreme precipitations, at least in the experimental conditions. The investigation has  
348 shown that an early mulching favours the vegetation regrowth in the dry season and may enhance  
349 the fast incorporation of the vegetal residues into the soils over time. These beneficial effects are  
350 essential to provide a protective cover of the burned soils against the erosivity of the rainstorms in  
351 Mediterranean forests, especially when the rainfall intensity is very high.

352 The differences in soil loss between soils mulched at different times proposed in this study can be  
353 considered as useful indicators of the erosion rates between burned and untreated, and burned and  
354 mulched soils. As such, forest managers should carry out soil mulching actions immediately after  
355 the wildfire, in order to achieve the highest anti-erosive effectiveness using this post-fire  
356 management strategy.

357

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359

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