

1 Assessing the performance of a plastic optical fiber turbidity sensor for measuring post-
2 fire erosion from plot to catchment scale

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14 Abstract

15 This study is the first comprehensive testing of a novel plastic optical fiber turbidity sensor
16 with runoff samples collected in the field and, more specifically, with a total of 158
17 streamflow samples and 925 overland flow samples from a recently burnt forest area in
18 north-central Portugal, collected mainly during the first year after the wildfire, as well as
19 with 56 overland flow samples from a nearby long-unburnt study site. Sediment
20 concentrations differed less between overland flow and streamflow samples than between
21 study sites and, at one study site, between plots with and without effective erosion
22 mitigation treatments. Maximum concentrations ranged from 0.91 to 8.19 gL⁻¹ for the

23 micro-plot overland flow samples from the six burnt sites, from 1.74 to 8.99 gL⁻¹ for the
24 slope-scale overland flow samples from these same sites, and amounted to 4.55 gL⁻¹ for
25 the streamflow samples. Power functions provided (reasonably) good fits to the - expected
26 - relationships of increasing normalized light loss with increasing sediment concentrations
27 for the different sample types from individual study sites. The corresponding adjusted R²'s
28 that ranged from 0.64 to 0.81 in the case of the micro-plot samples from the six burnt sites,
29 from 0.72 to 0.89 in the case of the slope-scale samples from these same sites, and was
30 0.85 in the case of the streamflow samples. While the overall performance of the sensor
31 was thus rather satisfactory, the results pointed to the need for scale- of site-specific
32 calibrations to maximize reliability of the predictions of sediment concentration by the POF
33 sensor. This especially applied to the cases in which sediment concentration were
34 comparatively low, for example following mulching with forest residues.

35

36 1. Introduction

37 Wildfires are now widely recognized as a potential driver of conspicuous changes in geo-
38 morphological and hydrological processes, through their direct effects on vegetation, litter
39 layer and topsoil (Shakesby, 2011; Moody et al., 2013). Studies across the globe have shown
40 strong and sometimes extreme responses in runoff and erosion in recently burnt areas,
41 especially during the earlier stages of the so-called window-of-disturbance (e.g. Cerdà,
42 1998; Lane et al., 2006; Robichaud et al., 2007). Nonetheless, important research gaps
43 remain with respect to wildfire impacts on runoff and especially soil erosion, in part due to
44 the relatively limited number of post-fire erosion studies as compared to erosion studies in

45 agricultural areas (Shakesby, 2011). The latter is well-illustrated by the four studies that
46 appear to have been carried out in the Mediterranean Basin on sediment yields from
47 recently burnt catchments (Lavabre and Martin, 1997; Inbar et al., 1998; Mayor et al., 2007;
48 Keizer et al., 2015). Clearly more studies have been published on post-fire erosion at the
49 plot-to-slope scale in the Mediterranean Basin (e.g. Thomas et al., 1999; Fernández et al.,
50 2007; Prats et al., 2014). However, they have typically addressed soil losses with a relatively
51 coarse temporal resolution, i.e. multiple runoff events, which is hampering further insight
52 in underlying sediment transport processes.

53 The advantages of employing turbidity sensors in erosion studies has been increasingly
54 recognized since their introduction more than two decades ago (Downing, 2006).
55 Nonetheless, commercially-available turbidity sensors such as the “OBS-3+ Suspended
56 Solids and Turbidity Monitor” (©Campbell) typically require complex installations,
57 extensive calibration to local conditions, and, perhaps most importantly, considerable
58 financial resources for their purchase. Fiber optical turbidity sensors and, in particular,
59 those using plastic optical fibers (POF) are now widely viewed to offer various important
60 advantages over traditional methods of sensing (Zienmann, 2008). POF sensors are not only
61 comparatively inexpensive but also easy to handle, immune to electromagnetic
62 interferences, and can easily be used in multi-sensor schemes (Yeo, 2008). This would,
63 amongst others, allow to obtain continuous in-situ recording of sediment concentrations in
64 plot-scale studies and to reduce substantially laboratory efforts by substituting standard
65 methods for at least a large part of the runoff samples.

66 Various authors (Ruhl et al., 2001; Campbell et al., 2005; Postolache et al., 2007) have
67 obtained promising results with POF sensors to measure turbidity of aqueous solutions over
68 the past decade. Nonetheless, in their review study, Omar and MatJafri (2009) identified
69 the need for more extensive testing, in particular also with respect to dependence on
70 particle size. Therefore, this study aimed to further test the performance of the POF sensor
71 developed by Bilro et al. (2010), which had provided promising results for contrasting
72 suspended materials, including ashes from recently burnt areas (Bilro et al., 2011). More
73 specifically, this study wanted to: (i) assess the performance of this sensor for measuring
74 sediment concentration of post-fire runoff generated during the initial stages of the
75 “window-of-disturbance”, when erosion rates are expectedly highest; (ii) evaluate if sensor
76 performance differed for stream flow and for overland flow from erosion plots with
77 contrasting runoff areas (micro-plots vs. slope-scale plots) and, thus, potentially different
78 erosion processes (inter-rill erosion vs. rill/gully erosion); (iii) determine if sensor
79 performance depended on land cover, parent material and site-specific conditions. This
80 study was envisaged as an important step towards the development of a commercial
81 version of the sensor designed by Bilro et al. (2010).

82

83 2. Study area and sites

84 This study was carried out near the hamlet of Ermida in the Sever do Vouga municipality of
85 north-central Portugal (Figure 1). The area was burnt by a wildfire that took place between
86 the 26th and 28th of July 2010 and that affected some 300 ha (DUDF, 2011). By the time of
87 the fire, the area was mainly covered by plantations of eucalypt (*Eucalyptus globulus* Labill.)

88 but did include some plantations of maritime pine (*Pinus pinaster* Ait.). The severity of the
89 wildfire (sensu Keely, 2009) was assessed in the field using as indicators ash colour as well
90 as degree of tree crown scorching and of litter layer consumption, following Shakesby and
91 Doerr (2006) and prior studies in the region such as Malvar et al. (2011, 2013). At all six
92 study sites selected within the burnt area (Figure 1), fire severity was classified as moderate.
93 During the winter of 2010/11, the central part of the study area was bench terraced using
94 a bull dozer, affecting three of the study sites (the terraces are clearly visible in Figure 1).
95 The climate of the study area can be classified as humid meso-thermal (Csb, according to
96 the Köppen classification), with moderately dry but extended summers (DRA-Centro, 1998).
97 The parent material in the study area mainly consisted of pre-Ordovician schists but
98 included Hercynian granites at some locations, as is typical for the Hesperic Massif (Ferreira,
99 1978). The soils were mapped, at a scale of 1: 1.000.000, as predominantly Humic Cambisols
100 (Cardoso et al., 1971, 1973). However, field descriptions of soil profiles at the various study
101 sites suggested a prevalence of Leptosols (WRB, 2006) (see Machado et al., 2015; Martins
102 et al., 2013). Soil texture of the A-horizon was also determined in the field, and was slightly
103 coarser for the soils on granite (sandy loam) than for the soils on schist (sandy clay loam).
104 The topsoil was very rich in organic matter, amounting to 20-30 % at 0-2 cm depth
105 (Machado et al., 2015) and 8-11 % at 0-5 cm depth (Prats et al., 2014).
106 Within the burnt area, a total of six study sites were selected to study post-fire runoff and
107 erosion (Figure 1; Table 1). They consisted of four eucalypt plantations on schist (sites B, D,
108 E, S), one eucalypt plantation on granite (site A) and one pine plantation on schist (site C),
109 basically following the incidence of these land cover-parent material combinations in the

110 burnt area. In addition, a long-unburnt eucalypt plantation was selected in the immediate
111 vicinity of the burnt area (site F). Furthermore, one of the catchments within the burnt area
112 was selected to study the hydrological and erosion response at the catchment scale.

113

114 3. Materials and Methods

115 3.1. Experimental set-up and collection of runoff samples

116 Five of the six study sites within the burnt area - i.e. except site S - were divided in three
117 adjacent strips running from the base to the top of the slope (section) (Machado et al., 2015;
118 Martins et al., 2013). In one of these strips, either three bounded micro-plots (0.25-0.30 m²)
119 were installed at the slope's base (sites A, B and C, for being located within the catchments
120 and therefore to minimize disturbance) or two pairs of such micro-plots were installed at
121 the base and halfway the slope (site D and E). In another strip, one (un-)bounded slope-
122 scale plot with a width of approximately 2 m and contributing areas exceeding 50 m²,
123 depending on slope length, was installed. Each slope-scale plot, however, comprised four
124 outlet that were connected to different runoff-collecting tanks. Site S involved a more
125 elaborate experimental design, as it had been selected to assess the effectiveness of two
126 treatments to reduce soil erosion, i.e. mulching with forest residues and application of a dry
127 granular anionic polyacrylamide (PAM; Prats et al., 2014, 2015). Polyacrylamides have been
128 found to markedly reduce soil losses from agricultural fields and road embankments (Ben-
129 Hur, 2006). Four triplets of the above-mentioned micro-plots were installed from the base
130 to the top of slope S to assess the effectiveness of both treatments. Furthermore, two
131 bounded slope-scale runoff plots of 4 m wide by 20-25 m long were installed to assess the

132 effectiveness of mulching with forest residues. The unburnt site, on the other hand,
133 involved a simpler experimental design as it was relatively narrow and could only divided in
134 two strips. Therefore, it was only instrumented with a unbounded slope-scale plot as
135 described above.

136 The runoff from the micro-plot and the individual outlets of the slope-scale plots was
137 collected in tanks of 30 and 80500 L, respectively. Runoff volume in the tanks was measured
138 and runoff samples were collected in 1.5 L bottles, following intensive stirring of the water
139 in the tanks. This was done at 1- to 2-weekly intervals, depending on rainfall, starting at the
140 end of August 2010 when the site instrumentation had been completed.

141 The outlet of the experimental catchment was instrumented with a hydrological station
142 comprising two flumes, two water level recorders and an automatic sampler that was
143 triggered by a data logger based on the readings of the two water level recorders.

144

145 3.2. Laboratory analysis of runoff samples

146 For this study, a total of 1139 runoff samples were analyzed, of which 158 concerned
147 streamflow, and 565 and 416 overland flow at the slope and micro-plot scale, respectively.

148 The distribution of the latter samples over the different sites is given in Table 1. The samples
149 were collected during the first year after the wildfire, as further detailed in Table 1, except
150 for 36 micro-plot samples that were collected at the S site between the end of October 2011
151 and early January 2011.

152 The sediment concentration of these samples was determined in the laboratory using the
153 classic filtration method (APHA, 1998), employing filter paper with a pore diameter of 12-

154 14 μm and drying the filters in an oven at 105 °C for 24 hours. Furthermore, the organic
155 matter content of the filtered sediments was determined using the loss-on-ignition method,
156 placing the filters in a muffle for 4 h at 550 °C.

157 For each of the runoff samples, the normalized loss of the transmitted light - i.e. the ratio
158 of the loss of light transmitted through a runoff sample and transmitted through a reference
159 sample of bi-distilled water - was determined using the plastic optical fiber (POF) turbidity
160 sensor presented by Bilro et al. (2010) but with a slightly modified design of the sensor head.
161 To this end, the sensor head was first placed within a plastic recipient with bi-distilled water
162 to measure the reference signal and then within a second recipient with the runoff sample
163 to measure the light loss due to the sediments that were being kept in suspension by means
164 of a magnetic agitator. The measurements were carried out during a period of 1 minute,
165 during which the POF sensor performed 120 readings. Following visual inspection for and
166 possible elimination of anomalous readings, the average values of both sets of readings
167 were then used to compute the normalized transmitted light loss.

168

169 3.3. Data analysis

170 The sediment concentrations of the runoff samples from the micro-plots and the slope-
171 scale plots were tested for significant differences, at $\alpha = 0.05$, between the treatments at
172 site S as well as between the sites using non-parametric tests. The Kruskal-Wallis test was
173 employed in case of multiple groups and, in case of significant results, followed by multiple
174 pairwise comparisons using post-hoc probabilities corrected for the number of

175 comparisons. The Mann-Whitney U-test was employed in the case of two groups. All
176 statistical tests were carried out using STATISTICA 9.0 for Windows (© Stat Soft. Inc.).
177 The relationships of sediment concentrations with normalized light loss were determined
178 using the Origin software (©OriginLab). In a first phase, a range of possible functions (first
179 to fourth order polynomials, exponential, Napierian logarithmic and power) were fitted to
180 the entire sets of micro-plot samples, slope-scale samples and catchment-scale samples.
181 Overall, the third and fourth order polynomials and the exponential functions provided the
182 best fits, with identical adjusted R^2 's (0.73, 0.87 and 0.85, respectively). Nonetheless, the
183 power function was preferred for the ensuing results, since the differences in R^2 's were
184 considered too small (≤ 0.02) to justify the additional one or two unknowns of the other
185 functions.

186

187 4. Results and discussion

188 4.1. Micro-plot scale

189 4.1.1. Within-site differences related to erosion mitigation treatments

190 In line with the findings of Prats et al. (2014) regarding specific soil losses, the sample sets
191 of the three treatments differed significantly in sediment concentrations (Table 2). The
192 median sediment concentration of the untreated samples was 35 % lower than that of the
193 PAM samples but almost three times higher than that of the mulching samples. The median
194 organic matter contents of all three sample sets were high (52-67 %), suggesting that
195 charred material was a major component of the sediments exported under all three
196 treatments. These median values closely matched the average values in Prats et al. (2014),

197 attesting to the representativeness of the sample sets included in this study. Furthermore,
198 they agreed well with the figures in Malvar et al. (2011, 2013) for sediments eroded during
199 the first two years following fire.

200 All three sample sets revealed a relationship of increasing normalized light loss with
201 increasing sediment concentration (Figure 2), as was expected based on the findings with
202 an earlier proto-type of the turbidity sensor (Bilro et al., 2010, 2011). The power function
203 provided reasonably good fits of these relationships in all three instances, with adjusted R^2 's
204 ranging from 0.64 in the case of the untreated samples to 0.72 in the case of the PAM
205 samples (Table 2). Bilro et al. (2011) found clearly better fits ($R^2 > 0.95$) for clay as well as
206 ash particles but the authors used dilution series of artificial samples rather than runoff
207 samples collected in the field.

208 The curves fitted to the untreated and the PAM samples were very similar, at least within
209 the range of measured sediment concentrations (i.e. $< 8.5 \text{ gL}^{-1}$). Possibly, the somewhat
210 divergent curve of the mulching samples was due to smaller range of measured sediment
211 concentrations ($< 2.5 \text{ gL}^{-1}$), also because the relationships between sediment concentration
212 and normalized light loss seemed to reveal more spread at higher concentrations.

213

214 4.1.2. Between-site differences related to land cover and parent material

215 Conspicuous and, in various instances, significant differences existed between the study
216 sites in the sediment concentration of the micro-plot runoff samples (Table 2). Median
217 sediment concentrations appeared to be influenced by both parent material and forest
218 type, as median values were significantly lower for the pine plantation on schist (0.08 gL^{-1})

219 and for the eucalypt plantation on granite (0.13 gL⁻¹) than for the eucalypt plantations on
220 schist (≥ 0.21 gL⁻¹). Significant differences, however, also existed among the eucalypt
221 plantations on schist, with the median sediment concentration of the D site (0.21 gL⁻¹)
222 being 3.5 times lower than that of the E site (0.73 gL⁻¹). Between-site differences did not
223 seem to be related to fire severity, at least as suggested by the field indicators used in this
224 study (see section 2). The difference in median sediment concentration between the pine
225 plantation on schist and the eucalypt plantation on granite agreed well with the difference
226 in the sites' median specific sediment losses reported by Martins et al. (2013: 0.08 vs. 0.16
227 g m⁻² mm⁻¹ of runoff), once again testifying to the representativeness of the sample sets
228 included in this study.

229 The untreated sample sets from all six study sites showed the expected increases in
230 normalized light loss with increasing sediment concentrations. Furthermore, these
231 increases agreed well with power functions, with the adjusted R²'s of the fitted curves
232 ranging from 0.64 to 0.81 (Figure 3; Table 2). The fits were somewhat worse for sites D and
233 S than for the remaining four sites (adjusted R²'s: 0.64-0.67 vs. 0.76-0.81) but this difference
234 was apparently unrelated to parent material, forest type, sediment concentrations or their
235 organic matter contents. However, the shape of the fitted curves did seem related to
236 sediment concentrations. The curves were steeper for sites A, C and D than for sites B, E
237 and S, and the former three sites had clearly lower median, third quartile and maximum
238 sediment concentrations than the latter three sites (e.g., in the case of maximum
239 concentrations, 0.91-1.48 vs. 3.89-7.48 gL⁻¹). This contrast could be due to differences in
240 the size of the exported sediment particles, since the sensor's light attenuation was shown

241 to decrease with increasing particle size (Bilro et al., 2011) and since the lower sediment
242 concentrations at sites A, C and D could be explained by overland flow with a lower
243 transport capacity, preferentially exporting smaller particles. Nonetheless, the contrast
244 could also be an artifact from the lower ranges of sediment concentrations measured at
245 sites A, C and D, as these ranges only covered the initial, steeper parts of the fitted curves.

246

247 4.2. Slope scale

248 4.2.1. Within-site differences related to erosion mitigation treatment

249 Like the micro-plot samples, the slope-scale samples revealed clear and significant
250 differences in sediment concentration between the untreated and mulching samples (Table
251 3). The median sediment concentration of the untreated samples was more than three
252 times higher than that of the mulching samples (0.63 vs. 0.19 gL⁻¹). These differences
253 agreed well with the stronger runoff response of the untreated than mulched plot during
254 the first year after fire (Prats et al., 2015: 58 vs. 30 mm).

255 The slope-scale samples tended to have higher median, third quartile and maximum
256 sediment concentrations than the micro-plot samples of the same treatment (Table 3). The
257 only exception was the maximum sediment concentration of the mulched samples, being
258 20 % lower in the case of the slope-scale samples than of the micro-plot samples (1.74 vs.
259 2.19 gL⁻¹). This tendency in sediment concentrations was opposed to that in overland flow,
260 as Prats et al. (2015) reported roughly 15 times less overland flow at the slope than micro-
261 plot scale (409-956 vs. 30-58).

262 The fit of the power function was substantially better for the slope-scale samples than for
263 the micro-plot samples in the case of the untreated plot but basically the same in the case
264 of the mulched plot (Table 3; adjusted R^2 's: 0.85 vs 0.64 and 0.71 vs. 0.69, respectively). In
265 both cases, light loss with increasing sediment concentration was larger for the slope-scale
266 samples than for the micro-plot samples (Figure 4). Only in the case of the mulching
267 samples, however, this was due to a clearly higher attenuation coefficient (0.75 vs. 0.66)
268 and, as referred earlier, could be explained by a greater prevalence of smaller particles in
269 the slope-scale than micro-plot samples (see Bilro et al., 2011), reflecting a reduced
270 transport capacity of the overland flow. This explanation could also account for the lower
271 median organic matter concentration of the slope-scale samples, with the larger charred
272 particles being beyond the runoff's detachment/transport capacity.

273

274 4.2.2. Between-site differences related to fire, land cover and parent material

275 The slope-scale samples tended to have higher median, third quartile and maximum
276 sediment concentrations than the micro-plot samples, as was also noted in the previous
277 section. At the same time, however, they revealed similar contrasts between the six burnt
278 study sites, except in the case of the eucalypt plantation on granite (Table 3). The median
279 sediment concentration was significantly lower for the pine plantation (0.11 gL^{-1}) than for
280 the burnt eucalypt plantations (on schist and granite; $\geq 0.29 \text{ gL}^{-1}$). The median sediment
281 concentration for the eucalypt plantation on granite lied within the range of values for the
282 other eucalypt plantations, unlike was the case for the micro-plot samples. This reflected a
283 comparatively large increase in median sediment concentration from the micro-plot to

284 slope scale. This was in line with the findings of Machado et al. (2015), who reported a
285 marked increase in sediment losses with spatial scale for the eucalypt plantation on granite
286 (from 50 to 140 g m⁻²) as opposed to clear decreases for the pine plantation as well as for
287 the eucalypt plantation on schist at the B site (from 85 and 200 to 3.5 and 6.1 g m⁻²,
288 respectively).

289 The sediment concentrations for the unburnt eucalypt plantation were significantly lower
290 than those for the burnt eucalypt plantations. This agreed with the slope-scale sediment
291 losses reported by Machado et al. (2015), being clearly lower for the unburnt than burnt
292 eucalypt site on schist (1.2 vs. 3.5 g m⁻²).

293 Better fits of the power function were obtained for the slope-scale samples than for the
294 micro-plot samples in the case of five of the six burnt study sites, the pine site being the
295 exception (Table 3). The pine plantation also stood out for its low adjusted R² (0.72) as
296 compared to the other burnt plantations (0.83-0.89). The R² was similarly low for the
297 mulching samples (0.71) and even considerably lower for the samples from the unburnt
298 eucalypt stand (0.52), suggesting an association between poor fits and reduced sediment
299 concentrations, unlike was the case for the micro-plot samples.

300 The best-fitting curves for the slope-scale samples revealed a greater similarity between the
301 six burnt plantations than those for the micro-plot samples (Figure 4). Among the burnt
302 plantations, only the D site stood out but mainly because of a comparatively low base
303 constant rather than a different attenuation coefficient. For the same reason, the curve for
304 the long-unburnt plantation stood out even more from those of the burnt plantations. The
305 discrepancy of these two curves could well be an artifact from the comparatively low

306 sediment concentrations measured at the D and F sites, also because possible differences
307 in particle size due to reduced transport capacity would point to steeper curves as was the
308 case of the curves fitted to the micro-plot samples of sites A, C and D (see section 4.1.2).
309 Unlike in the case of these latter three sites, the curves fitted to the slope-scale samples of
310 sites B and E agreed particularly well with those fitted to the sites' micro-plot samples. This
311 suggested that wider ranges of measured sediment concentrations provided a more reliable
312 basis for a consistent relation between turbidity and sediment concentrations over spatial
313 scales as well as across study sites.

314

315 4.3. Catchment scale

316 The sediment concentrations of the streamflow samples were more similar to those of
317 slope-scale samples from the B site than from the A and C sites (Table 4)., This fitted in well
318 with the fact that the B site represented the dominant land cover-parent material
319 combination within the catchment (Table 4). Nonetheless, the maximum value of the
320 streamflow samples was well below the maximum values for all three slopes (4.55 vs. ≥ 6.59
321 gL⁻¹). Also the median organic matter concentration of the streamflow samples was
322 comparatively low (22 vs ≥ 38 %). Even so, it was substantially higher than the organic
323 matter content of the sediments deposited as bed load within the flume at the catchment
324 outlet (Keizer et al., 2015: 5 %).

325 The power function provided a good fit to the relationship of increasing normalized light
326 loss with increasing sediment concentration as revealed by the streamflow samples, with
327 an adjusted R² of 0.85 (Table 4). The fitted curve, however, differed considerably from the

328 curves fitted to slope-scale samples of the three slopes located within the catchment. The
329 stronger attenuation coefficient for the streamflow samples (0.71 vs. 0.57-0.60) could be
330 due to a prevalence of smaller particles in suspension, especially because of the deposition
331 of sediments in the flume at the catchment outlet as well as in two upstream retention
332 ponds (see Keizer et al., 2015).

333

334 5. Conclusions

335 The principal conclusions of this study into the performance of a novel plastic optical fiber
336 (POF) turbidity sensor for measuring soil erosion following wildfire were the following:

337 (i) the observed sediment concentrations were within the measurement range of the POF
338 sensor, attesting to the suitability of the sensor to be employed during the initial phases of
339 the so-called window-of-disturbance when erosion losses tend to be highest and when
340 exported sediments tend to contain highest contents of - charred - organic matter;

341 (ii) the relationships of sediment concentration with normalized light loss varied markedly
342 with spatial scale and, in particular, between micro-plot and slope-scale samples, on the
343 one hand, and, on the other, catchment-scale samples, suggesting that scale-specific
344 calibration curves are required to guarantee optimal sensor performance;

345 (iii) the slope-scale relationships of sediment concentration with normalized light loss varied
346 clearly less between study sites than the micro-plot scale relationships, indicating that the
347 need for site-specific calibration curves is greater when sediment concentrations and, thus,
348 erosion rates are comparatively low;

349 (iv) the previous conclusion was also suggested by the comparison of the sediment
350 concentrations with and without an effective erosion mitigation treatment;

351 (v) the POF sensor would allow to speed up considerably the processing of the runoff
352 samples in the laboratory (and, perhaps, even in the field) and, at the same time, would
353 permit an efficient, stratified-sampling approach towards the construction of a scale-
354 and/or site-specific calibration curves.

355 Given the very satisfactory performance of the sensor in this study, further work will include
356 redesigning the sensor and, in particular, its head to make it more robust and more easy to
357 handle, testing the new sensor for continuous monitoring of stream flow turbidity under
358 field conditions, and optimizing data processing algorithms,

359

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471 Table 1. General information about the seven study sites as well as the numbers of runoff
 472 samples from micro-plots and slope-scale plots analyzed from each site and the start and
 473 end dates of collecting these samples (in ddmmyy)

Site code	Location		Wild-fire	Forest type	Parent material	Treatment	Micro-plots			Slope-scale plots		
	Lat	Lon					N	start	end	N	start	end
S	40°44'05"N	8°21'18"E	burnt	euc.	schist	none	112	260810	040112	89	260810	240811
						PAM	78	260810	070911	-	260810	-
						mulching	57	260810	070911	85	260810	070911
B	40°43'59"N	8°20'58"E	burnt	euc.	schist	none	33	260810	230211	45	260810	230211
D	40°43'29"N	8°20'57"E	burnt	euc.	schist	none	47	260810	290411	90	260810	240811
E	40°44'04"N	8°21'16"E	burnt	euc.	schist	none	42	260810	180511	70	260810	240811
A	40°43'56"N	8°21'31"E	burnt	euc.	granite	none	19	260810	230211	73	260810	230210
C	40°43'54"N	8°20'47"E	burnt	pine	schist	none	28	260810	230211	57	260810	180511
F	40°44'16"N	8°20'45"E	unburnt	euc.	schist	none	-	-	-	56	260810	010611

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489 Table 2. Sediment concentrations and corresponding organic matter (OM) contents of the
 490 micro-plot scale overland flow samples at the six study sites, and best-fitting power
 491 functions between sediment concentration (x; in gL-1) with normalized light loss (y). Euc.
 492 = eucalypt; med = median; iqr = inter-quartile range; 3rd q = third quartile; max =
 493 maximum; sign = statistically significant differences, at $\alpha = 0.05$, are indicated by different
 494 roman numbers in the case of the treatments tested at the S site and by different letters
 495 in the case of the other sites.

Site code	Forest type	Parent material	Treatment	N	Sediment concentration gL-1					OM content %	Best-fitting power function	Ad-justed R2	
					med	iqr	3rd q	max	sign				
S	euc.	schist	none	112	0.41	0.53	0.72	7.48	ii	61	24	$y = 0.1735x^{0.5983}$	0.64
			PAM	78	0.64	1.07	1.37	8.19	iii	52	22	$y = 0.1962x^{0.5247}$	0.72
			mulching	57	0.14	0.20	0.27	2.19	i	67	21	$y = 0.1268x^{0.6577}$	0.69
B	euc.	schist	none	33	0.38	0.66	0.85	3.89	cd	54	12	$y = 0.2965x^{0.4938}$	0.77
D	euc.	schist	none	47	0.21	0.16	0.27	1.06	bc	55	14	$y = 0.2054x^{0.8090}$	0.67
E	euc.	schist	none	42	0.73	1.76	2.00	6.06	d	64	29	$y = 0.2510x^{0.5372}$	0.76
A	euc.	granite	none	19	0.13	0.16	0.22	0.91	ab	58	18	$y = 0.2971x^{0.7912}$	0.81
C	pine	schist	none	28	0.08	0.12	0.15	1.48	a	54	12	$y = 0.2808x^{0.6794}$	0.76

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506 Table 3. Sediment concentrations and corresponding organic matter (OM) contents of the
 507 slope- scale overland flow samples at the seven study sites, and best-fitting power
 508 functions between sediment concentration (x; in gL-1) with normalized light loss (y). Euc.
 509 = eucalypt; med = median; iqr = inter-quartile range; 3rd q = third quartile; max =
 510 maximum; sign = statistically significant differences, at $\alpha = 0.05$, are indicated by different
 511 roman numbers in the case of the treatments tested at the S site and by different letters
 512 in the case of the other sites.

Site code	Wild-fire	Forest type	Parent material	Treatment	N	Sediment concentration					OM content		Best-fitting power function	Adjusted R ²
						med	iqr	3rd q	max	sign	med	iqr		
S	burnt	euc.	schist	none	89	0.63	1.07	1.35	8.99	ii	64	16	$y = 0.2272x^{0.6095}$	0.85
				mulching	85	0.19	0.41	0.51	1.74	i	47	23	$y = 0.2163x^{0.7510}$	0.71
B	burnt	euc.	schist	none	45	0.63	0.75	1.09	8.14	bcd	58	15	$y = 0.2576x^{0.5670}$	0.89
D	burnt	euc.	schist	none	90	0.29	0.84	1.00	5.86	bc	55	14	$y = 0.1704x^{0.6707}$	0.87
E	burnt	euc.	schist	none	70	1.21	2.26	2.86	8.62	cd	53	12	$y = 0.2768x^{0.5262}$	0.83
A	burnt	euc.	granite	none	73	0.69	1.12	1.39	6.59	bcd	38	12	$y = 0.2356x^{0.5944}$	0.86
C	burnt	pine	schist	none	57	0.11	0.32	0.35	6.60	a	53	19	$y = 0.2281x^{0.6020}$	0.72
F	unburnt	euc.	schist	none	56	0.05	0.14	0.15	0.74	a	78	22	$y = 0.1314x^{0.5832}$	0.52

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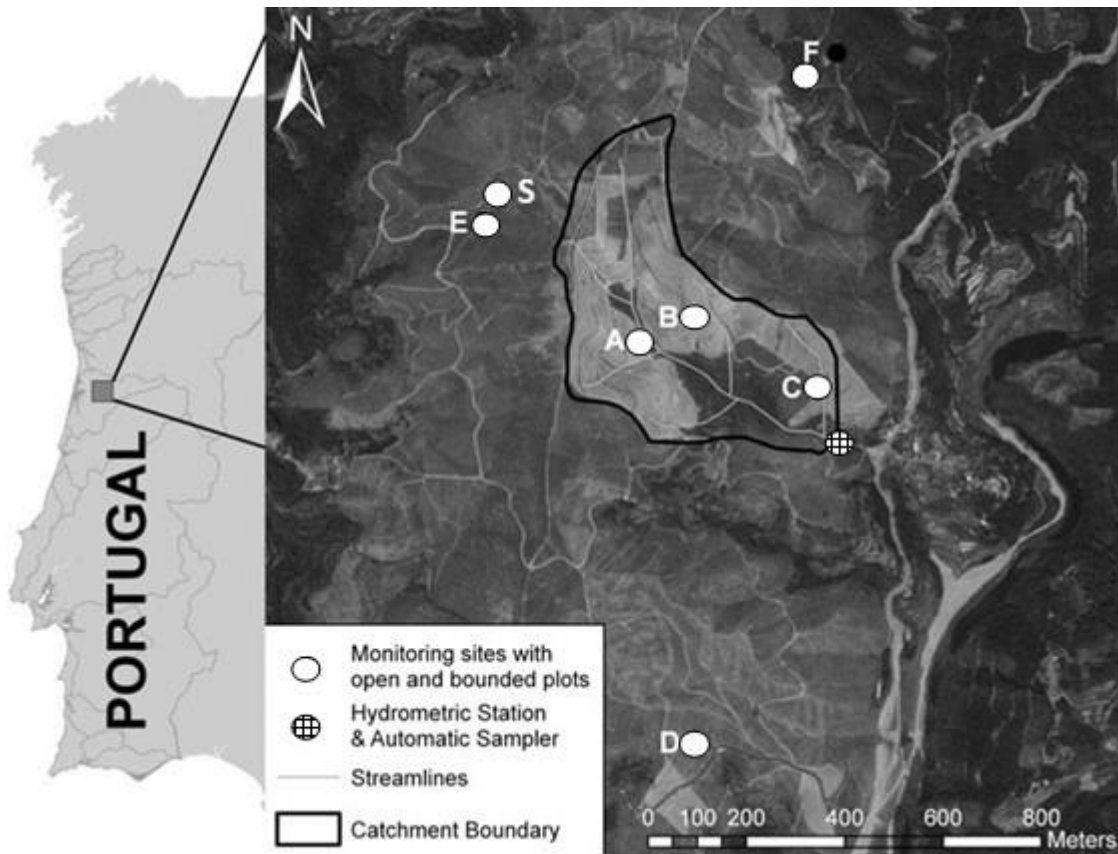
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523 Table 4. Sediment concentrations and corresponding organic matter (OM) contents of the
 524 streamflow samples at the catchment outlet, and best-fitting power function between
 525 sediment concentration (x; in gL-1) with normalized light loss (y). Med = median; iqr =
 526 inter-quartile range; 3rd q = third quartile; max = maximum.

N	Sediment concentration gL-1				OM content %		Best-fitting power function	Ad- justed R2
	med	iqr	3rd q	max	med	iqr		
158	0.50	0.83	1.05	4.55	22	8	$y = 0.2809x^{0.7071}$	0.85



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529 Figure 1. Location of the study area, the experimental catchment and the seven study sites

530 (A = burnt eucalypt plantation on granite; B, D, E and S = burnt eucalypt plantations on

531 schist; C = burnt pine plantation on schist; F = long-unburnt eucalypt plantation on schist).

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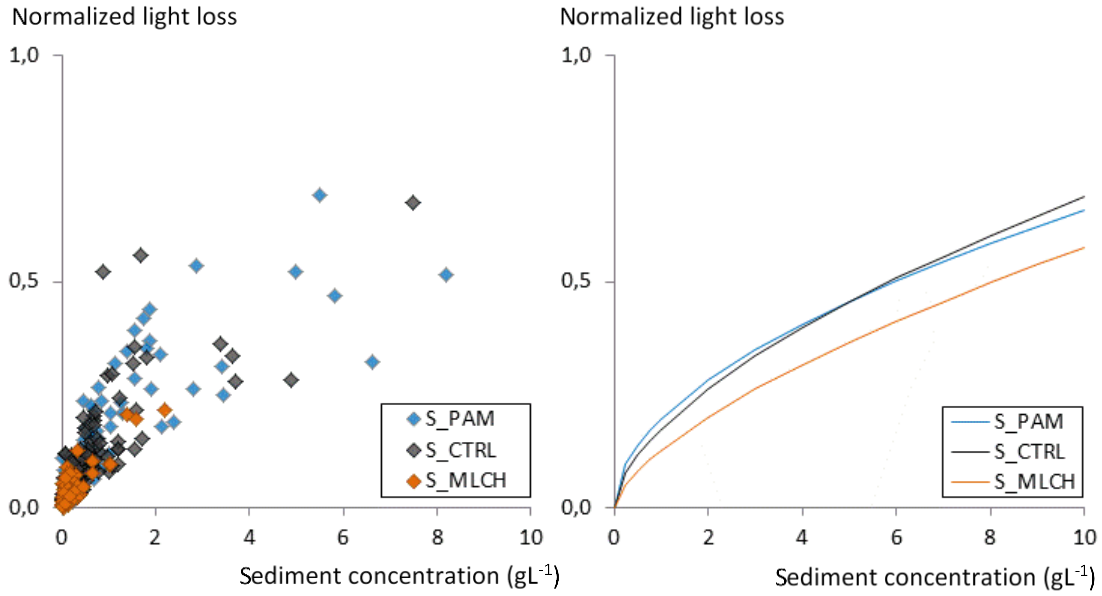
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541 Figure 2. Relationships of sediment concentration with normalized light loss at the micro-
 542 plot scale for three treatments at study site S (left plot), and corresponding best-fitting
 543 power functions (right plot; see Table 2). S_PAM = polyacrylamide; S_CTRL = untreated;
 544 S_MLCH = mulching with forest residues.

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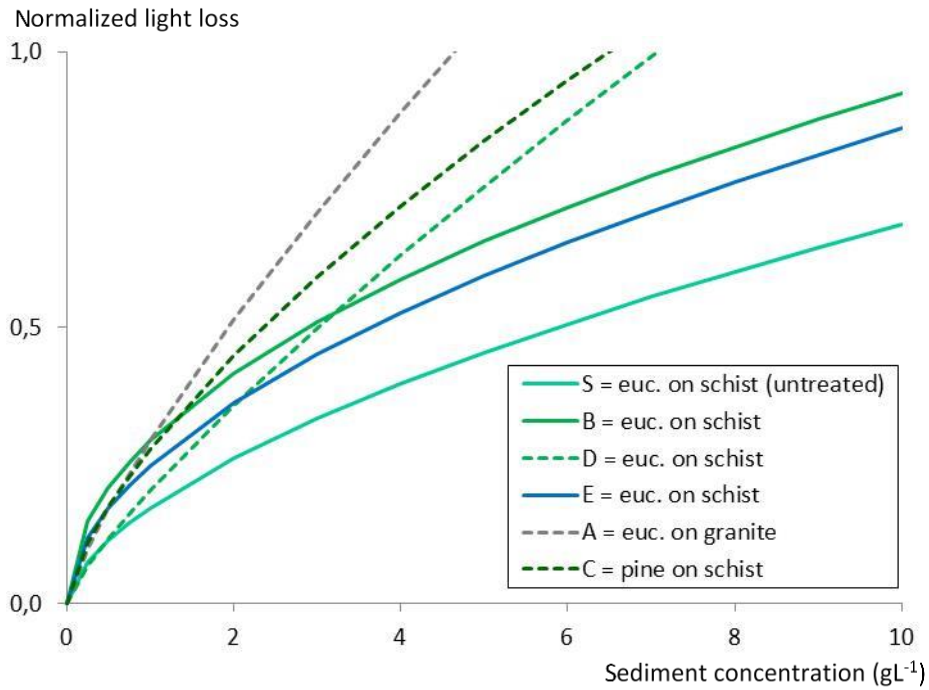
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556 Figure 3. Best-fitting power functions of the relationships of post-fire sediment
 557 concentration with normalized light loss at the micro-plot scale for one pine plantation on
 558 schist and five eucalypt (euc.) plantations on schist or granite (see Table 2).

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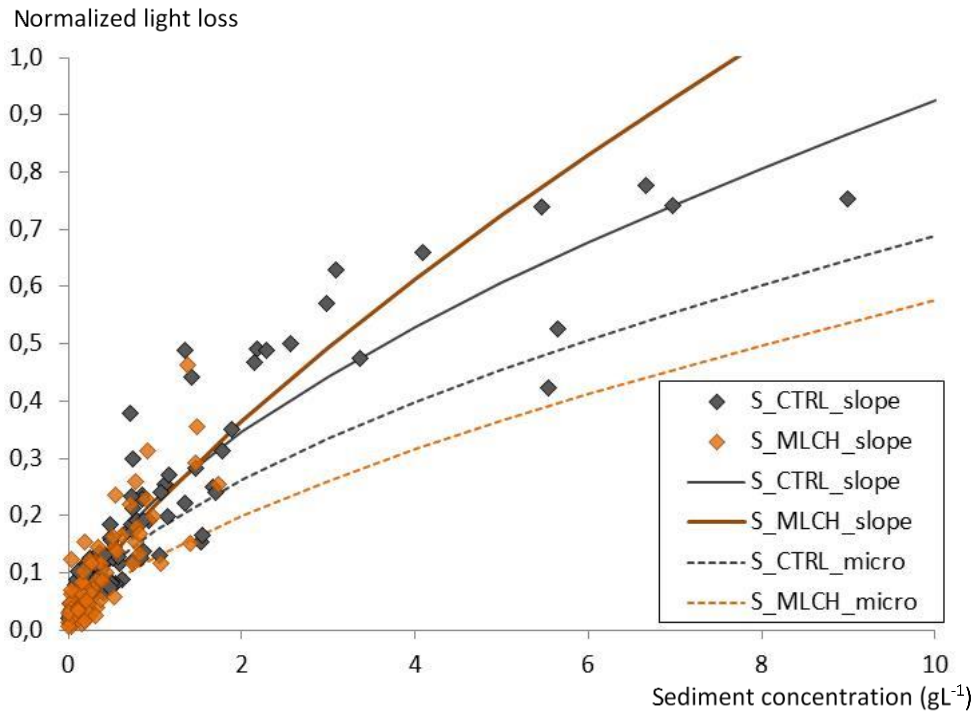
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570 Figure 4. Relationships of post-fire sediment concentration with normalized light loss at the
 571 slope scale for two treatments at study site S (symbols), and best-fitting power functions at
 572 the slope as well as micro-plot scale (lines)(see Table 2 and 3). S_CTRL_slope/micro =
 573 untreated; S_MLCH_slope/micro = mulching with forest residues.

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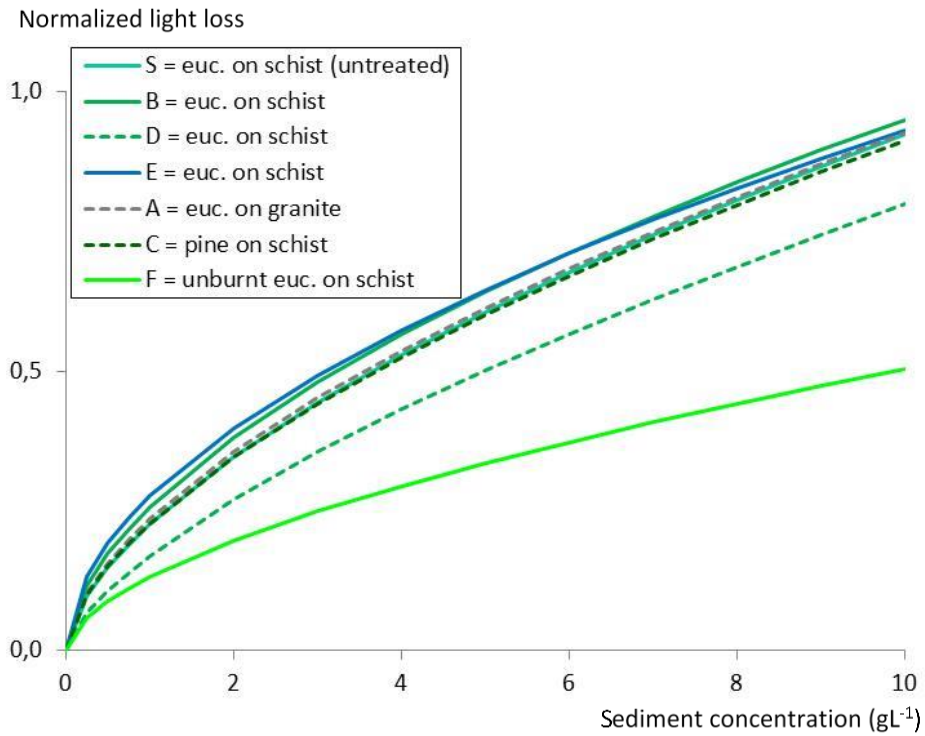
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583 Figure 5. Best-fitting power functions of the relationships of sediment concentration with
 584 normalized light loss at the slope scale for one long-unburnt eucalypt (euc.) plantation on
 585 schist (F), five recently burnt eucalypt (euc.) plantations on schist or granite (A, B, D, E, S)
 586 and one recently burnt pine plantation on schist (C) (see Table 3).

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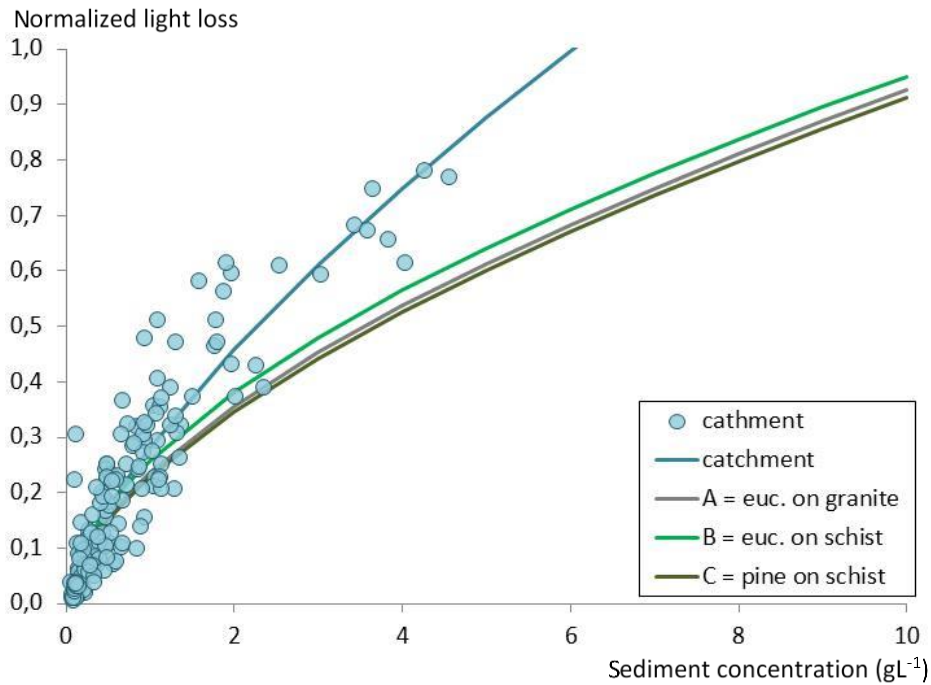
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596 Figure 6. Relationships of sediment concentration with normalized light loss at the
 597 catchment scale(symbols) , and best-fitting power functions at the catchment as well as
 598 slope scale for the eucalypt (euc.) and pine plantations located within the catchment (see
 599 Table 3 and 4).