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“Hydrologic and erosion response in burned watersheds (Piedmont, Western Italian Alps)”

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1 Introduction

In 2017, an unusually severe wildfire season occurred in Italy and especially in Piedmont (Western Alps). The fact had a considerable media coverage, as the smoke from the fires that hit some mountain and hilly areas reached Torino, the regional capital, making it to the headlines for a long time. In particular, a huge wildfire, extending for more than 4000 hectares, hit the Susa Valley. In this area, in the following spring, a series of flow events took place; the most important of them hit the town of Bussoleno, located in the main valley, downstream of the Comba delle Foglie watershed, causing considerable damage to buildings and infrastructures.

Since future scenarios linked to the effect of climate change predict that forest fire frequency and severity will likely increase, as will the extreme rainfall events, wildfires may constitute a looming issue in the Alpine region too.

What is observed in the USA is that where the fires increase, the statistics report an increasing number of deaths, damages, and force society to face exceptional repair costs. In fact, the impacts of forest fires can lead to new avalanche-prone slopes, a higher risk of rockfall, debris-flow, mudslides, soil erosion and water quality problems. The development of multi-hazard processes can lead to situations in which secondary events have a greater impact than primary ones on the exposed elements, both from the point of view of their potential intensity and of their spatial extension. In such cases, costs of firefighting, restoration of forests and necessary protective measures can seriously rise.

In Italy, the general situation of scarce maintenance of forested areas, especially in the wildland-urban interface contexts, increases the risk that fires may affect areas closer to human settlements, increasing both the primary risk associated with the fire and the secondary risks due to landslides and flows which can reach off-site target. In fact, most of the fires occur in hilly or mountainous areas, where both human settlements and lifelines are at risk.

For these reasons it was decided to approach the problem by analyzing nine burned areas in Piedmont in 2017, integrating field surveys, remote sensing data analysis, use of spatialized models and small-scale tests.

An attempt was made to identify the main processes and to model the erosive phenomena and flow rates of the fire-affected watersheds in the post-disturbance scenario. The applied models were developed in environments and climatic conditions which differ from those found in the Alpine environment. Nonetheless, these models have also found evidence in other regions, and in the present work they are not used to derive data in an absolute sense, but to compare the pre and post-fire scenarios, thus providing relativized results. In addition, the case study of Comba delle Foglie was analyzed in detail, describing its characteristics and the occurred phenomena.

The work is structured as follows: in Chapter 2 the aims and objectives of the work are defined and in Chapter 3 a general overview of post-fire geological hazards is presented. Chapter 4 is dedicated to the analysis of the literature on the topic, while Chapter 5 contains a description of the climate of the years 2017 and 2018. Chapters 6, 7 and 8 contain - respectively - the methods used, the results obtained and a discussion of the results. Chapter 9 is reserved for the conclusions, while Chapter 10 contains the list of references.

2 Aims and objectives

The aims of this PhD thesis are multiple and originate from the approach to an unusual topic for the study area under examination: this requires facing the problem using a multiscale method to overcome the limitations on the quantity and quality of the available data.

The first step is to analyze the available historical series of fires and landslides to establish whether there are spatially and genetically correlated past events. Thereafter, the first objective is to evaluate the severity of the fires that occurred in 2017: to do this, the analysis of satellite data is crucial, and allows to obtain a large-scale data necessary to correctly compare the impact of the fire in the different areas. The comparison of the severity maps that quantify the effect of the fire on the sub-aerial components immediately after the fire and after months, allows to evaluate the changes occurring in what is called the "recovery phase". In fact, basically, the greatest impact occurs immediately, while with the passage of time the vegetative recovery tends to mitigate the conditions of imbalance, favoring the progressive return toward pre-fire conditions. However, in some cases, the delayed mortality of some tree species can lead to situations in which the severity of fire is greater after a few months compared to the conditions immediately following the fire. For this reason, it is necessary to assess the fire severity evaluating its temporal evolution over the first year following the fire: the task is accomplished by applying the initial and the extended fire severity assessment.

The second task is then to describe the main processes acting in burned areas. The available literature agrees in defining the increase in erosion rates, surface runoff and the development of shallow landslides as the main ones. However, the studies and analyses of these dynamics are generally carried out in environments and climates that are very different from those that characterize the Alpine and subalpine context, since most of them have been conducted in the USA. For this reason, it is necessary to validate these outcomes for the study area.

Following the first two, the third objective is to quantify the influence of fires on the propensity for geo-hydrological hazardous processes. It has been decided to model, through the use of available spatialized data, the erosion and peak discharge rates at the basin scale. Two well-known and widely validated models have been used, the RUSLE and the SCS-CN, modifying their input coefficients to replicate the contribution of the passage of fire. The approach used is deliberately simple, replicable, improvable and easy to implement in a GIS environment. It is also possible to automate it in order to make it available for the rapid production of thematic maps to support authorities and for civil protection purposes.

Moving forward, the fourth task is to conduct a detailed analysis of the Comba delle Foglie watershed, affected by multiple flows in 2018, one of which of considerable magnitude occurred on 7 June. It is

essential to characterize the effects of the fire on the watershed, to reconstruct the sequence of processes and events that occurred and to estimate the deposit volumes. Furthermore, following the application in more detail of the erosion and runoff models, to compare the results obtained with the dimensional parameters of the events occurred and to propose an explanation.

Finally, the fifth objective is to perform some simple fire simulation tests, to begin to experimentally understand the links between the characteristics of the soil, the quantities of fuels and the propagation of heat in depth.

3 Post-fire geological hazards

Forest fires are a natural phenomenon that burns vegetation wildland as forests, savannas, grasslands and other environments, occurring in different continents and climatic conditions; the commonly used term wildfire includes all uncontrolled vegetation fires igniting away from built-up areas. Fires are widely recognized as one of the components of the Earth system, with strong influences of carbon cycle, energy balances, climate and ecosystems dynamics (Bowman et al. 2009; Flannigan et al. 2009) and are thought to have naturally occurred in the Mediterranean since the late Devonian (Schmidt and Noack 2000). Since the beginning of land cultivation, the use of fire has contributed to the evolution of humanity and the formation and productivity of cultural landscapes. Some authors claims that fire is a natural and necessary ecological process, a way for perpetuating the spatial and temporal variability of the physical, chemical and biological attributes of the land surface (Shakesby and Doerr 2006; DellaSala and Hanson 2015).

They can affect the vegetation both above and below the ground: for example, ground fires typically ignite in soil thick with organic matter that can feed the flames, like plant roots; on the other hand, surface fires burn in dead or dry vegetation that is lying or growing just above the ground. Crown fires burn in the leaves and canopies of trees and shrubs. Wildfires can start with a natural occurrence or, more often a human-made spark. After the ignition, however, it is often the weather conditions that determine the wildfire growth and behavior. Wind, high temperatures, and little rainfall can all leave trees, shrubs, fallen leaves, and limbs dried out and primed to fuel a fire. Topography plays a big part too, in fact flames burn uphill faster than they burn downhill.

Beside the primary danger caused to people by the fire itself, when wildfire burn near communities, the fires bring with them secondary risks, sometimes even more serious, largely due to changes in the hydrological characteristics of the areas where they occur. Expansion of human development into forested areas, and human settlements localized at the bottom of forested slopes, have created a situation where wildfires can adversely affect lives and property, as can the flooding and landslides that occur in the aftermath of the fires. The reduced infiltration rates deriving from the vegetation loss and the soil exposure, associated with a general reduction of the surface roughness, leads to an increased risk of developing of flashfloods, sediment laden flows (i.e. debris and mud flows), landslides and mudslides. In fact, after a fire, slopes are stripped of vegetation and the root systems within the soil, which favors the transport of material downhill. Channels can quickly be filled with sediment, and culverts can plug; moreover, the increased runoff and the consequent increase in peak discharge in the drainage network means that the channeled waters can easily take over the accumulated sediments and give rise to sudden flows. They can exert great impulsive loads on objects in their path, and may strip vegetation, block drainage ways, and damage infrastructure.



Figure 3.1 – Aerial view of the juxtaposition between burnt and unaffected areas in the Mompantero pine forest (Courtesy of Gipix Drone).

The issue is particularly studied in the western United States, and in California, where many cases of disastrous events have been recorded over time. As an example, the Montecito debris flow, occurred in the Santa Barbara County in January 2018 (following the 2017 California wildfire season) caused the death of 23 people, the damaging of 400 houses and an estimated loss of \$ 177 million in property damage.

Studies on the risks arising from post-fires geomorphic effects have seen growth since the last twenty years of the 1900s, and have focused on the role of ash deposition, the alteration of the physical properties of soil and rocks, the generation or enhancement of water repellent soils and in the increase in erosion rates after the fire (Parise and Cannon 2011). The effort of the scientific community on these issues has led to the identification of two predominant processes in the generation of post-fire hazards: the erosion and entrainment of material by surface runoff (fig. 3.2) and the infiltration-triggered failure and mobilization of a discrete, shallow landslide mass. These two processes act with different timing: the first originates and reach his maximum likelihood after the very first relevant rainfall events, and may continue for several years although it is unusual for post-fire debris flows to occur beyond the second rainy season. The second process, which is much less common, can occur after several years from the fire, as a consequence of the delayed mortality of the bigger trees; according to the most recent studies, however,

the probability of occurrence of the landslides returns to pre-fire conditions within five years (Rengers et al. 2020).

The decrease in probability of debris flows over time is related to the restoration of the hydrological function, because the vegetation and the soil infiltration parameters return to pre-fire conditions; depending on the characteristics of the soil, the parent rock, the topography and the vegetation, the time required to return to a condition of equilibrium varies from case to case. As an important note, it is worth mentioning another secondary hazard related to post-fire erosive processes, which is the risk of water contamination: in fact, the runoff in recently burned slopes can carry a large quantity of suspended and dissolved elements (such as nitrate, iron, nickel, lead and zinc) into the reservoirs, rivers and wetlands, which causes, amongst others, serious problems for water purification plants (Teclé and Neary 2015).

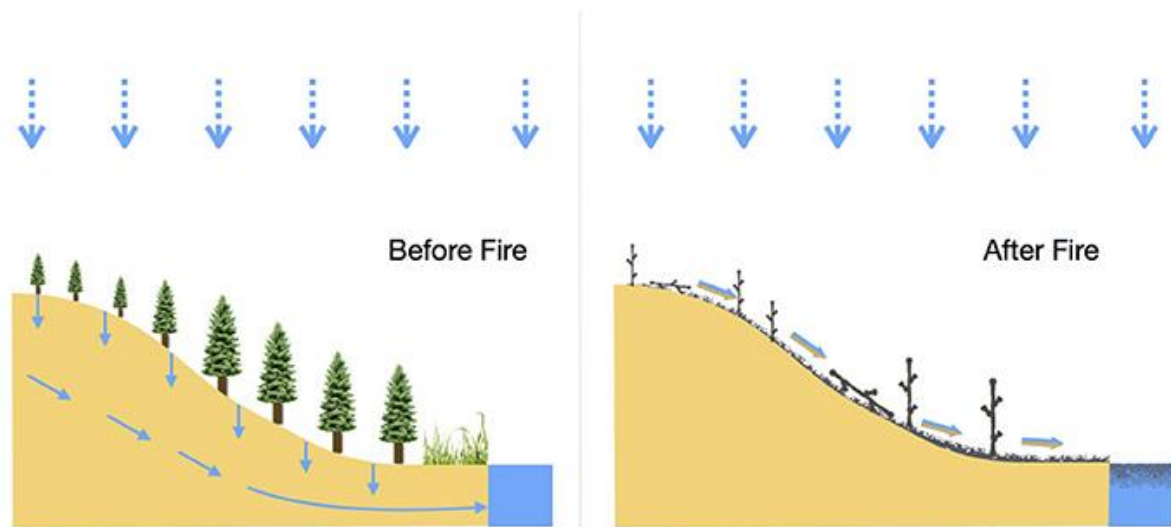


Figure 3.2 – schematization of the process leading to post-fire increase of peak flow and erosion (Abney and Berbe 2018)

4 Literature review

4.1 Wildfires impact

Some impacts associated with fire can be measured directly: for example, if we refer to socio economic effects, we can quantify cost of suppression, cost of rehabilitation, property loss, or human causality.

Concerning the effects of the fire on a landscape, which sum up the effects on different environment components, it is crucial to understand causes, agent, processes and results on every community composing the environment. Some factors determine the ignition of forest fires, some others the spread and the intensity of the fires, and others the fire effect on the soil.

The probability of fire occurrence is mainly determined by the soil and litter moisture and the presence of an ignition source. In turn, fuels humidity values depend on precipitation, temperature, wind and relative humidity. Once the fire has started, the intensity and spreading potential of a forest fire is influenced by other variables, such as vegetation type and structure, fuel amount, topography, wind, slope aspect, humidity (Pezzatti et al. 2009; Boboulos and Purvis 2009; Conedera and Tinner 2010; Girardin and Terrier 2015; Fréjaville et al. 2016). As a consequence, fire effects on soil constitute a very broad spectrum. They can be subdivided into physical, chemical and biological modifications (Neary et al., 1999; Úbeda and Outeiro, 2009; Mataix-Solera et al 2011), varying in magnitude and duration depending on several factors, among which the most important is fire severity that in turn depends on fire intensity. As a result of this great number of factors, and their variability, the effect of a fire can span from little or negligible damage to the most extreme scenario where all aboveground organisms are erased.

A major reason for assessing and quantifying the type and magnitude of those soil properties shift is because they are claimed to be an important indicator of the potential for excess of water runoff, enhanced erosion, landslide susceptibility and a general change in the hydrologic setting of the landscape interested (Robichaud et al. 2000; Wilson et al. 2001; Ruiz-Gallardo et al. 2004; Lewis et al. 2006; Parsons 2003; Ice et al. 2004). As some authors remarked (Robichaud et al. 2000; González-Pelayo et al. 2006) fire and burn severity measure alone are not a reliable predictor of hazardous post-fire processes, as other variables such as topography, soil type, and precipitation are important elements to be accounted for. From a side this fact suggests the need to conduct separate evaluation regarding the fire/burn effect on the soil and the post fire processes, and from the other side push the research in the direction of deepening some aspect which could help to find a reliable and robust link between the two.

4.2 Wildfire statistics and trends

Wildfire occurrence is governed by a complex interaction of many variables, such as climate dynamics, environmental characteristics, land use, human actions and others. Globally, the vegetated area annually affected by fire ranges between 300 million and 600 million hectares (Mouillot et al. 2005; Goldammer J. et al. 2017). The global trends in area burned during the twentieth century shows a decrease of the global average area burned by about 7% compared to previous years. Causes are thought to be the increased fire prevention, the detection and fire-fighting efficiency, the abandonment of slash-and-burn cultivation and the increase of permanent agricultural practice in some areas.

During the second half of the past century, a 10% increase in the burned area was registered, and this was attributed to the increased deforestation fires in the tropics and could be the result of a return to a more normal fire regime in areas where fire had been suppressed (Flannigan et al 2009, Doerr and Santin 2016). In the first decades of this century a slight decrease in the global area burned, evaluated in 1% – 2% yr⁻¹, was recorded (Giglio et al 2013, Van Lierop et al 2015).

Regional trend for the period 1996–2012 shows for Europe and Australia/New Zealand a strong decline in area burned of 5% yr⁻¹. Conversely, for Southeast Asia, the Middle East and boreal North America, the estimated area burned increased by 3–4%. In the whole USA area burned by wildfires experienced an increase by over 5% yr⁻¹ (period 1991–2015), with 2015 exceeding 40.000 km² burned.

Statistics for Europe, up to 2012, reports about 65.000 fires registered every year, with a mean vegetated land surface annually burnt of more than 0,5 million ha. Most of them (more than 85%) affects the European Mediterranean region (San-Miguel-Ayanz et al. 2012).

The 90-95% of the recorded fires are estimated to be caused by humans, either accidentally or intentionally (San-Miguel-Ayanz and Camia 2009; Georg et al. 2013). Main causes are cigarettes, fires getting out of control, flying sparks from trains or during work, arson, hot ashes and power lines. Around 10% of forest fires in the Alps are estimated to be caused by lightning strikes. Amongst the others, a major concern is given by fires affecting wild-land urban interface, usually densely inhabited by tourist in summer. Here there is an increased presence of secondary houses in a context of generalized land abandonment and higher average temperatures, thus the risk of casualties and direct damages to properties is considerably high.

Among European countries Portugal, Spain, Italy, Greece and southern France, are largely the regions more prone to wildfires: statistics covering almost three decades - from 1980 to 2009 - shows an average burned area of about 480.000 ha and 50.000 fires. Looking at general trends for Southern Europe, data shows a substantial increase of fires in the 90's and a decrease since 2000, with marked fluctuation and some outliers (i.e. 2003 and 2005, characterized by an exceptional number of fires due to weather

conditions). The annually burned area generally decreases since 1985, again with strong annual variations. For these countries more than 70% of the occurrences are registered from June to October, while in other countries most of the fires happens in springtime (San-Miguel-Ayanz et al. 2012).

Statistics for the Italian country starting from the eighties of the last century agree with the data on the European and Mediterranean scale; in fact, both the surface covered by fires and their number show a decreasing trend, albeit with some exceptions (for example 2007 and 2017, figg 4.1 and 4.2).

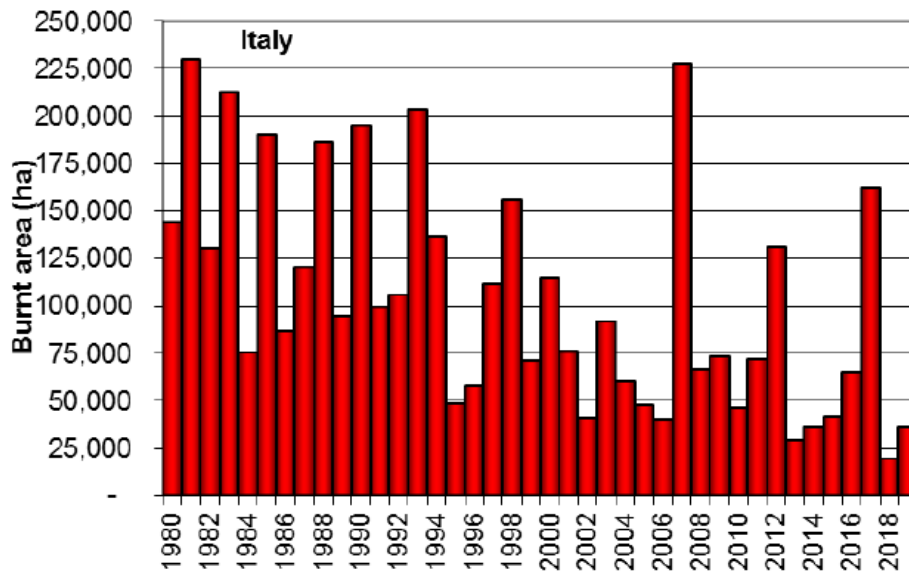


Figure 4.1 – Burnt area in Italy (1980-2019) (San-Miguel-Ayanz et al., 2020).

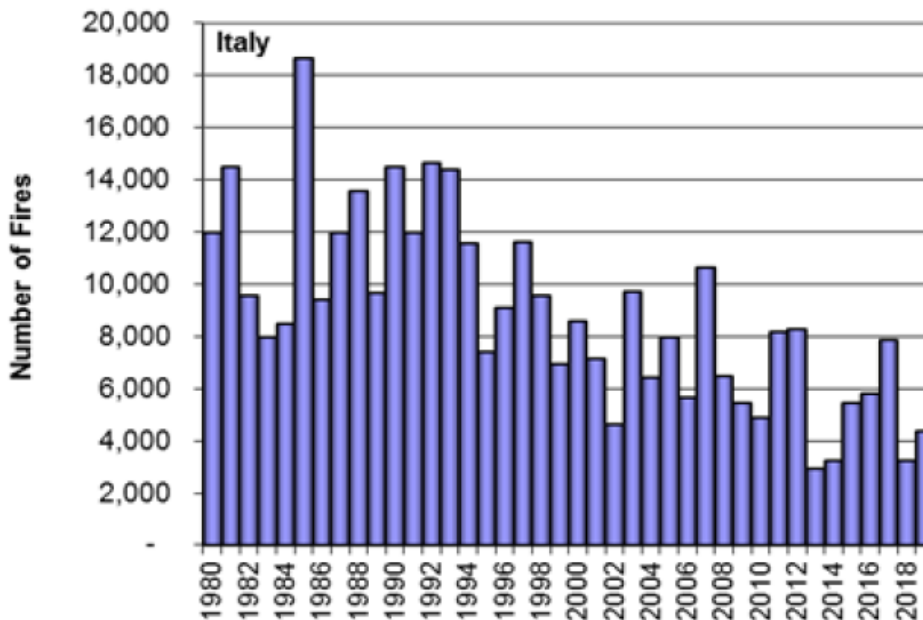


Figure 4.2 – Number of fires registered in Italy (1980-2019) (San-Miguel-Ayanz et al., 2020).

Statistics for the Piedmont Region covering the period 1997-2019 (figg 4.3 and 4.4) confirms the overall decreasing trend registered for the National and European data: a slight decrease in fact can be observed both for the burnt surface and number of fires. It is worth to note the exceptional value of the burned area in 2017.

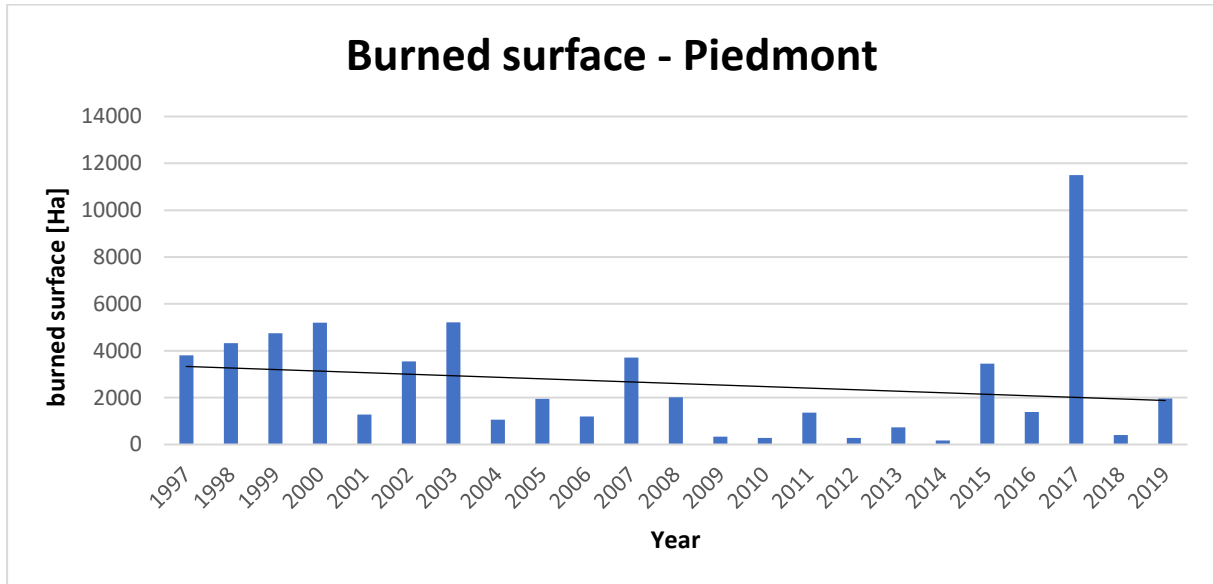


Figure 4.3 – Burnt area for the Piedmont Region. Source: Corpo Forestale dello stato (1997-2017) and Joint Research Centre (2018-2019).

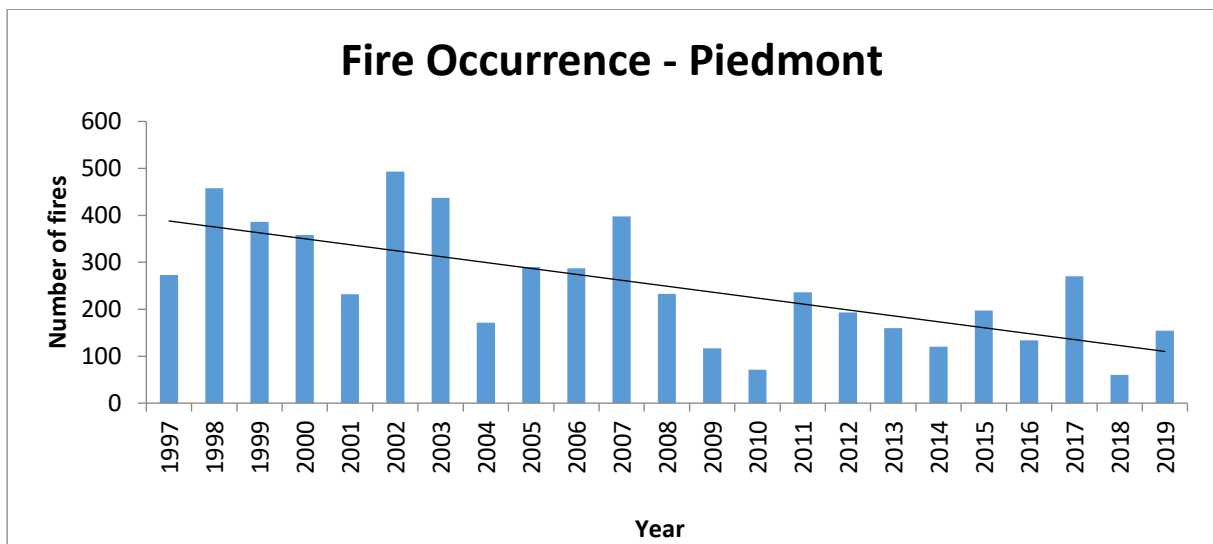


Figure 4.4 – Number of fires for the Piedmont Region. Source: Corpo Forestale dello Stato (1997-2017) and Joint Research Centre (2018-2019).

For the near and far future an increasing occurrence of fire is expected, and this tendency is forecasted for many regions worldwide: North and South America, central Asia, southern Europe, southern Africa and Australia (Liu et al. 2010). Also for the Alpine region forest fire frequency and severity is expected to increase in the future (Zumbrunnen et al. 2009; Moreira et al. 2011; Wastl et al. 2012; Arndt et al. 2013, Dupire et al 2019). The occurrence of higher average temperatures associated with longer drought periods, the change in forest management, rural abandonment and increased exploitation of forests for recreational purposes are generally known causes that increase the probability and the intensity of wildfires (e.g. Dupire et al. 2019; Vacchiano et al. 2018; Pezzatti et al. 2013). The risk of wildfire is enhanced in forests dominated by coniferous tree species due to the resin, which is highly flammable, thus leading to a major concern for Alpine region where large portions are populated by Norway spruce (*Picea abies*) or Scots pine (*Pinus sylvestris*). Spruce dominated forests at lower altitudes are already suffering from climate change and the temperature and drought expected trend will lead to a worsening of the fires predisposing factors (Muller). Moreover, the fire susceptibility could increase in area historically less endangered; an example from the last decades is the case for the Central-European beech mountain forests in some drought periods (Ascoli et al. 2013a; Maringer et al. 2016). At higher altitude, grasslands and shrub stands of mountain pine (*Pinus mugo*), when in continuity with forest, could act as a triggering point as they provide a great amount of easily burnable materials. In addition to climate change, many other causes could contribute to the increasing in fire occurrence and spreading: for example storms and bark beetle impact can lead to an increase of available fuel, as well as rural abandonment. Also, as an increase of dry periods is expected, the fire ignition due to lightning could become a problem of major concern. (Conedera et al, 2006)

4.3 Wildfire impacts metrics

4.3.1 Heat transmission

The energy generated and released during the onset of a fire and the following burning phase is the driving force behind the physical, chemical and biological effects in the soil (De Bano et al. 2010, Neary et al. 2005, Neary and Leonard 2020). The soil thermal transmission phenomena occur by means of radiation, conduction, convection, mass transport, vaporization and condensation.

- Radiation is defined as the transfer of heat from one body to another, not in contact with it, by electromagnetic wave motion. Radiated energy flows outward in all directions from the emitting source until it encounters a material capable of absorbing it (Neary et al. 2005). The net flow of thermal radiative energy for a single frequency, across a surface of an arbitrary orientation, is represented by the spectral radiative energy flux:

$$q_v = \int_0^{4\pi} I_v \cos \theta \, d\Omega$$

Where Ω is the solid angle ($d\Omega = \sin\theta d\theta d\phi$) and I_v is the intensity of radiation expressed as energy per unit area per unit solid angle (Fig 4.5) within a unit frequency interval (DiNenno et al. 2002).

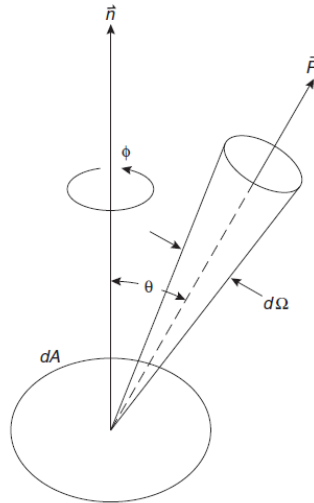


Figure 4.5 – Coordinate system for radiation intensity (DiNenno et al. 2002).

- Conduction is the transfer of heat by molecular activity from one part of a substance to another part, or between substances in contact, without appreciable movement or displacement of the substance as a whole (Neary et al 2005). When a temperature gradient exists, heat will be transferred from the higher to the lower temperature region. The rate of the heat flow (\mathbf{q}_k) is proportional to the temperature gradient ($d\mathbf{T}/d\mathbf{x}$) times the area in which the heat is transferred (\mathbf{A}) through the thermal conductivity (\mathbf{k}) of the medium. The rate equation is expressed by the Fourier's Law:

$$qk = -kA \frac{dT}{dx}$$

- Convection is the process whereby heat is transferred from one point to another by the mixing of one portion of a fluid with another fluid. In case of porous media, heat transfer occurs also between fluid and solid phase of the medium. The rate of convection heat transfer (qc) between fluid and solid can be written in the form:

$$qc = \bar{h}_c A (T_s - T_{f,\infty})$$

Where \bar{h}_c = unit thermal convective conductance at fluid solid interface, W/m^2K ;

\mathbf{A} = surface area in contact with fluid, m^2 ;

T_s = surface temperature, K ;

$T_{f,\infty}$ = temperature of undisturbed fluid far away from heat-transfer surface, K.

Vaporization and condensation are important and very efficient coupled heat transfer mechanisms which can be treated as a part of the convective heat transfer. By comparison, free convection coefficient of water range from 20 to 100 W/m²K while free convection coefficient for condensing water vapor range from 5000 to 100000 W/m²K (Kreith and Black 1980).

Based on current knowledge, heat conduction and convection are the most relevant processes responsible for the soil heating during wildfires, while radiation contribution is marginal. The way these processes affect the soil depends mostly on the quantity of released energy and the duration of the heating. This, in turn, is related to the amount of available fuel and type of fire: crown fires are usually large scale, fast-moving, wind-driven and usually uncontrollable. They often have a deep flame front. Despite this, the fire front usually pass rapidly through the tree canopy causing little soil heating, unless sufficient fuel is accumulated from forest floor to the crowns. Slowly spreading surface fires, on the other hand, are usually small-scale and characterized by a thick flame front. They are capable of combusting a large part of the forest biomass and can substantially transfer heat to the soil. Wind-driven grass fires spread quickly and sometimes over large areas. In these types of fire, the available biomass is limited, so the fire effect on soil is often irrelevant. Smouldering fires are flame-free, slow moving and long lasting unimpressive, but frequently have long burnout times. These affects considerably the soil and subsoil, releasing a remarkable amount of heat within the soil.

The wildfire effect on the vegetation can be measured based on the evaluation of several factors. The definition and description of the principal ones is reported in the following paragraph.

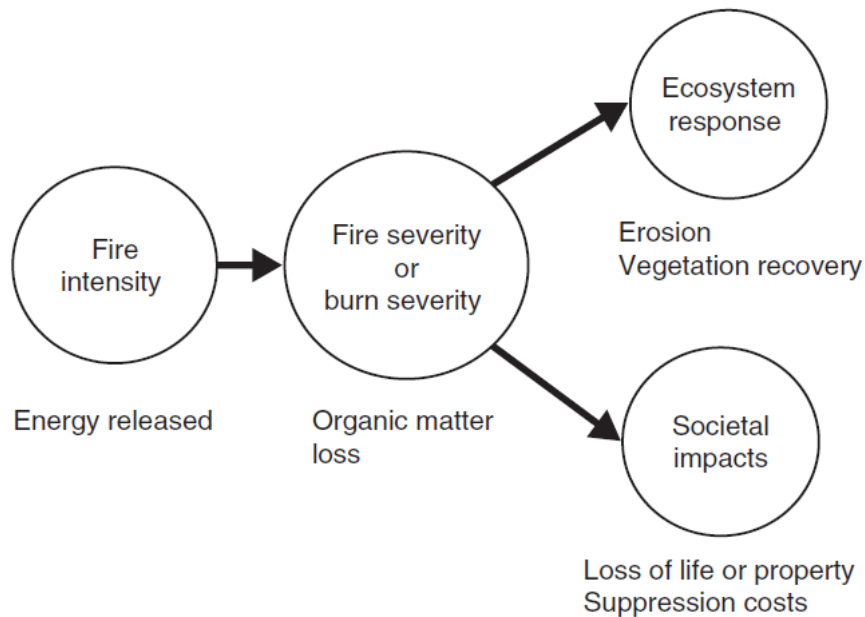


Figure 4.6 – Relationships between the energy output from a fire, the impact as measured by the loss in organic matter and the ecosystem response and societal impacts (Keeley, 2009).

4.3.2 Fire descriptors

4.3.2.1 Fire intensity

Fire intensity describes the physical process which cause the energy release due to combustion of organic matter (Keeley 2009). It can be defined as a measure of the energy flux in a given time, or equally as the volumetric energy multiplied by the velocity at which this energy is propagating. It is expressed in Wm^{-2} . This formulation of the radiative energy is appropriate when studying fire impact through remote sensing (Wooster et al. 2003; Dennison et al. 2006).

Byram (1959) proposed a different formulation, used especially when facing the fire propagation, defined as fireline intensity, which is represented by the rate of heat transfer per unit length of the fireline (kWm^{-1}). Conceptually this value describes the amount of energy released by convection or radiation in correspondence of the fire front.

Fireline intensity is more suitable for forested landscape, when the relationship between flame length and burning effects on trees or other biological modifications caused by the fires.

When facing impact of fires on soils, such as soil duff consumption or the development of hydrophobic layers into the soil, different metrics parameters can be used: in such cases the temperature at the soil interface and the duration of the heating, or the maximum temperature reached at a certain depth may be closely tied to the physical-chemical effects (DeBano 2000). In fact, a very limited amount of the energy

released after the combustion of aboveground fuels can reach the soil by convection or radiation (Bradstock and Auld 1995).

In summary, fire intensity is defined as the energy released during various fire stages; depending on the different purposes, different expressions can be used from time to time, including reaction intensity, fireline intensity, temperature, residence time, radiant energy and others (Keeley 2009).

4.3.2.2 Fire severity

Fire severity refers to the degree of environmental change caused by the fire (White and Pickett 1985, Simard 1991, Jain et al. 2004, NWCG 2006) or, more operationally, on the loss of vegetation both aboveground (Keeley 2009, Agee 2007, van Wagner 1973, Moreno and Oechel 1989, Tolhurst 1995, Dickinson and Johnson 2001) and below the ground (Wells et al. 1979, Stronach and McNaughton 1989, Neary et al. 1999, Ice et al. 2004).

Ryan and Noste (1985) published one of the first attempt for quantifying this entity, developing an index encompassing a matrix of impacts of the fire on soil and vegetation (Fig. 4.7).

Fire severity	Description
Unburned	Plant parts green and unaltered, no direct effect from heat
Scorched	Unburned but plants exhibit leaf loss from radiated heat
Light	Canopy trees with green needles although stems scorched Surface litter, mosses, and herbs charred or consumed Soil organic layer largely intact and charring limited to a few mm depth
Moderate or severe surface burn	Trees with some canopy cover killed, but needles not consumed All understorey plants charred or consumed Fine dead twigs on soil surface consumed and logs charred Pre-fire soil organic layer largely consumed
Deep burning or crown fire	Canopy trees killed and needles consumed Surface litter of all sizes and soil organic layer largely consumed White ash deposition and charred organic matter to several cm depth

Figure 4.7 – Changes in aboveground vegetation and soil organic matter related to fire severity (Keeley, 2009).

This index appears to capture the fire intensity signals and to be related to fireline intensity, fire residence time and humidity of soil and vegetation. Chatto and Tolhurst (2004), as well as Cram et al. (2006), have found that this index captures the fire intensity signal and appears to be primarily a function of fireline intensity, residence time (heating duration) and soil and plant dryness. Other contributions should be expected by other term such as pre-fire species composition, stand age, topography, substrate, and climate in moving from fire severity to intensity (Keeley 2009). In a similar way, other authors proposed analogous indexes for the fire severity assessment (Buckley 1993, Williams et al. 1998, Catchpole 2000), tailoring them based on the focus of the study. For instance, focusing on soil effects the U.S. BAER (Burned Area Emergency Response) developed a framework, named soil burn severity assessment, for evaluating the link between fire effects and hazardous post-fire processes (erosion, floods and landslides).

Some authors demonstrated a good correlation between satellite remote sensing indexes (especially the Normalized Difference Vegetation Index, NDVI) and fire severity estimated in the field (Turner et al. 1994, Conard et al. 2002, Miller and Yool 2002, Chafer et al. 2004). This correlation appears mostly appropriate for forested areas, so the usage of such index in other context (different vegetation type) must be carefully evaluated (Hammill and Bradstock 2006).

Plant mortality, a measure for the biomass consumption, is also used for estimating fire severity, and is well correlated with fire intensity (Wade 1993, Chappell and Agee 1996, McCaw et al. 1997, Larson and Franklin 2005); numerous studies have shown it is correlated with fire intensity. Since mortality is sometimes evident in the first year after the fire, and because of the influence of resprouting capacity of some plant species, it should be carefully evaluated and used only for non-resprouting species.

4.3.2.3 Burn severity

The term burn severity, which is common in remote sensing application, had an increasing diffusion in the scientific literature in the last years, and its meaning is close to that of fire severity, with whom it shares some metric used for its measurement. In the U.S., BAER context it is used in place of fire severity, while the Glossary of Wildland Fire (NWCG 2006) defines it as the “loss of organic matter in or on the soil surface and aboveground organic matter conversion to ash” (being equal to the BAER definition of soil burn severity (Parsons 2003).

Within the BAER assessment, the differenced Normalized Burn Ratio (dNBR), is used in the so-called Burned Area Reflectance Classification (BARC), resulting in a good correlation with fire severity field validation (Robichaud et al. 2007b). Although several remote sensing studies applies the concepts of the fire severity for field validation (White et al. 1996, Rogan and Franklin 2001, Miller and Yool 2002, Chafer et al. 2004, Hammill and Bradstock 2006, Roldán-Zamarrón et al. 2006), in others the field validation includes parameters belonging to both fire severity and ecosystem response (vanWagtendonk et al. 2004, Cocks et al. 2005, Epting et al. 2005, Chuvieco et al. 2006). An example of this latter case is the protocol called Composite Burn Index (CBI) (Key and Benson 2006), in which fire effects are coupled with information on resprouting of herbs, shrubs and hardwood trees, and seedling colonization. Some authors suggest critical aspects on this approach, stating that although dNBR correlates significantly with fire severity, this signal is not necessarily a good predictor of ecosystem responses (Keeley 2009).

A major reason for post-fire assessments of fire or burn severity is because it is suggested to be an important indicator of the potential for water runoff and erosion increase (Robichaud et al. 2000, Wilson et al. 2001, Ruiz-Gallardo et al. 2004, Lewis et al. 2006) and of changes in soil hydrologic function (Parsons 2003, Ice et al. 2004). Conceptually, this inference is logical based on various types of indirect evidence. For example, loss of biomass exposes more soil surface, which increases the kinetic force of precipitation on the soil surface and the proportion of the overland flow (Moody and Martin 2001).

Further, loss of soil organic matter alters the binding capacity of soil and results in other structural changes that can affect erosional processes (Hubbert et al. 2006). Post-fire modification could also include the formation of hydrophobic layers, even if this aspect seems to be very uneven and not so strongly linked to fire severity (Robichaud 2000, Lewis et al. 2006, Cannon et al. 2001, Doerr et al. 2006).

In general, there is still little direct evidence that fire severity measurements are a reliable indicator of specific changes in hydrologic or other ecosystem functions (Robichaud et al. 2000, González-Pelayo et al. 2006), and some scholars even suggest that fire severity classifications are unsuitable for predicting fire impacts on soil hydrological responses (Doerr et al. 2006). The primary reason is that ecological responses such as erosion, overland water flow and debris flows are affected not only by the fire characteristics, but also by topography, soil type, rates of weathering, fire-free interval, and precipitation (Cannon et al. 2001, Moody and Martin 2001, Nearing et al. 2005). In short, the cause responsible for hydrologic responses to fire is multi-factorial and so each aspect should be clarified separately for a better comprehension of the process.

4.3.2.4 Depth of burn

The relationship of fire intensity to fire severity is hard to define because of difficulties in relating environmental responses to the fire processes (Ryan 2002). It is not always possible to estimate the effects of fire on soil, vegetation, and air measuring or inferring only fire intensity because other factors are involved. The impact of fire on soil can be expected to vary directly with the depth of burn as reflected in the amount of surface litter, organic soil horizons, and woody fuel consumed (Ryan 2002, Neary and DeBano 2005). For example, the depth of lethal heat (approximately 60°C) penetration into the soil can be expected to increase with the increasing depth of surface organic material that is burned, and with the duration of burning. Burn depth can be classified, if no other information is available, on the basis of visual observation of the degree of fuel consumption and charring on residual plant and soil surfaces (Ryan and Noste 1985). Neary and Leonard (2020) gives a summary of the relationships between depth of burn and charring of plant materials in grassland, which can be used as a guide for classification (fig 4.8).

Burn class	Category	Description
Unburned	Surface	Fire did not burn on the surface.
	Fuels	Some vegetation injury may occur from radiated or convected heat resulting in an increase in dead fuel mass.
	Occurrence	A wide range exists in the percent unburned in natural fuels. Under marginal surface fire conditions the area may be >50%. Under severe burning conditions <5% is unburned. 10 to 20% of the area in slash burns is unburned.
Light	Surface	Leaf litter is charred or consumed but some plant parts are discernable. Herbaceous stubble extends above the soil surface. Some plant parts may still be standing, bases not deeply burned, and still recognizable. Surface is black after fire. Charring is limited to <0.2 cm into the soil.
	Fuels	Typically, 50 to 90% of herbaceous fuels are consumed and much of the remaining fuel is charred.
	Occurrence	Burns are spotty to uniform, depending on grass continuity. Light depth of burn occurs in grasslands when soil moisture is high, fuels are sparse, or fires burn under high wind. This is the dominant type of grassland burning.
Moderate	Surface	In upland grasslands litter is consumed. Charring extends to <0.5 cm into mineral soil, otherwise soil not altered. Gray or white ash quickly disappears. In grasslands, sedge meadows and prairies growing on organic soils, moderate fires partially burn the root-mat.
	Fuels	Herbaceous plants are consumed to the ground-line.
	Occurrence	Moderate depth of burn tends to occur when soil moisture is low and fuels are continuous. Then burns tend to be uniform. In discontinuous fuels, high winds are required for high coverage in moderate depth of burn.
Deep	Surface	In grasslands growing on mineral soil the litter is completely consumed leaving a fluffy white ash surface that soon disappears. Charring to depth of 1 cm in mineral soil. Soil structure slightly altered. In grasslands growing on deep organic soils, fires burn the root-mat and the underlying peat or muck to varying depths.
	Fuels	All above ground fuel is consumed to charcoal and ash.
	Occurrence	In uplands, deep depth of burn is limited to areas beneath the occasional log or anthropogenic features (e.g., fences, corrals). In wetland grasslands, deep burns can occur over large areas when the water table is drawn down.

Figure 4.8 - Depth of burn classes in grassland (Neary and Leonard 2020).

4.4 Wildfire effects on soil

Wildfires effects concern both the biotic and the abiotic components of the environment. Omitting the post-fire dynamics regarding the vegetation regrowth and recovery, and others ecological implications of wildfires, from a geological hazard perspective the focus has to be set on various slope processes that may arise in the post-fire window. The predisposing causes of this processes, linked to the fire disturbance, are claimed to be litter and vegetation removal, ash deposition, soil physical and chemical alteration and the generation or destruction of water-repellent soils (Parise and Cannon 2012). These, together with rainfall

and geomorphological setting are the key components of the post-fire hazard framework. By modifying soil characteristics and the way it is able to cope with the rainfall, a shift in the ratio between infiltration and overland flow in favor of the latter is induced (at least in the short time); in addition, thanks to the enhanced soil erodibility and erosivity, the overland flow solid transport is increased. The single effects are described in the following paragraphs.

Tree canopies intercept up to 42% of rainfall and reduce rainfall intensity (Hanshaw et al. 2009), they prevent the soil particle detachment during rainfall events, and the roots network improves the mechanical strength of the soil, increases the flow roughness so reducing the overland flow velocity. The rarefaction of the bigger trees crown, the shrubs density and the grass coverage, increase the force of impact exerted by the rain drops on the soil and on the wildfire ash deposits. Moreover, it temporarily reduces the soil-moisture transpiration (Loaiciga et al. 2001). Combustion of litter and duff can also reduce rainfall interception and storage rates, changing the soil-moisture dynamics (Shakesby and Doerr 2006, Parise and Cannon 2012). In addition, the vegetation residuals of combustion, like char, may represent an easily erodible material themselves. The roots of the vegetation increase the geomechanical stability, in particular the shearing resistance of the soil in which they are growing. This of course depends on the root's distribution within the soil and their mechanical performances such as tensile, compressive and bending strength (Schwarz et al 2015, Sanchez-Castillo et al 2017). Moreover, they also act on the soil moisture and matric suction. Several studies focus on the role of roots in the stream banks stability and other channel processes (Thorne 1990, Abernethy 1999, Simon and Collison 2002) and their contribution has been modeled in different ways (Wu et al 1979, Pollen and Simon 2005). The negative effects exerted by the fire on root reinforcement capacity vary depending on fire severity and type of vegetation; in the Alps, for example, the ability of the bigger tree roots to prevent shallow landslides is claimed to be compromised for at least 40 years in case of high severity fires in forest and poor resprouting capacity species (i.e. European beech)(Gehring et al 2019). In grassland the vegetation recovery is usually more rapid, as in most of the cases the fire occurrence is quite unnoticeable after a year (Neary 2020). Despite the fast recovery of these environment, they are subject to erosion, nutrient mobilization, and hydrologic conditions alteration (Ravi et al 2009, Wright et al 1976).

Ash is one of the products that results from the combustion of the fuels (biomass, necromass, soil organic matter) and consists of mineral materials and charred organic components. Its quantity and characteristics depend on fuel load, fuel type and combustion completeness (Bodi et al 2014). It can be either found in discontinuous patches or blanketing the soil with a continuous layer. It is believed to being capable to affect infiltration and runoff generation: ash hydraulic conductivity, in facts, spans three order of magnitude and is capable to decrease dramatically after the ash initial hydration. Low and high combustion ash are responsible for a decrease in the hydraulic conductivity due to either a low porosity or the generation of a chemical ash crust (Balfour 2013). The crusting and hardening behavior of ash when wetted (due to the

mineralogical transformation of calcium oxide CaO), found especially in case of high combustion completeness, could have the effect of a lowering in the hydraulic conductivity (Cerdà 1998, Balfour and Woods 2013, Bodi et al 2014). Mid-combustion ash, on the contrary, acts as a capillary barrier increasing the water-storage capacity, thus favoring a hydrologic buffering effect (Woods and Balfour 2008, Balfour 2013). Given the high erodibility, moreover, ash can be easily removed by wind, dissolution or water erosion, and it might be removed and redistributed within days or weeks after the fire (Cerdà and Doerr, 2008, Larsen et al 2009, Pereira et al. 2013). Some studies (Mallik et al., 1984; Etiégni and Campbell, 1991) suggested that the downward migration of the ash particles could determine a severe pore clogging, resulting in a sealing effect responsible for the increase in the water runoff at the soil-ash interface, thus leading to an increase in the sediment entrainment. However, recent researches (Cerdà, 1998a, Woods and Balfour, 2008; Larsen et al 2009) proved the ability of ash to reduce soil sealing, and conversely demonstrate that the development of a structural soil seal enhancing runoff is due to the raindrop impacts on the exposed mineral soil after the ash is removed. Other studies agree, having shown that a wide variety of surface cover types (straw mulch, crop residues, leaves, grasses, etc.) can protect against soil sealing (Morin and Benyamini 1977, Poesen 1986, Kinnell et al. 1990, Moss and Watson 1991; Ruan et al. 2001).

Summarizing, the soil-ash sequence act as a two-layer system which can result in an increase, decrease or have no effect on the runoff; this depends on ash depth and type, soil type and rainfall characteristics (Bodi et al 2014). In any case, only on few occasions ash has been claimed as a direct cause of post-fire mass movement such as debris flow (Cannon et al 2001, Smith et al 2012).

Soil physical and chemical alteration due to the fire effect are usually related to a transition to a more friable, less cohesive and more erodible soil. This can be related to the combustion of organic matter in the soil that results in a decrease in the aggregate stability. Moreover, in literature are reported modification of other parameters such as particle-size distribution, bulk density, plasticity and elasticity. (DeBano et al. 1998, Neary et al. 1999, Hubbert et al. 2002, Parise and Cannon 2012). As an example, bulk density is reported to increase as the organo-mineral aggregates collapse because of the pore sealing by the finer particles (Giovannini et al 1988). The reduction or destruction of fungal and microbial activity, which produce cohesive compound as hyphae, is reported as a destabilizing effect (Shakesby and Doerr 2006). The amount of the modifications reported is correlated with the type of soil and the temperature reached within the burned soil horizon (Guerrero et al. 2001) (fig. 4.9).

Aggregate stability, in particular, is a commonly used parameter for assessing the resistance of the soil to external factors. In the literature the effect of fire on this feature is apparently contradictory: in most cases, fire leads to fragmentation of aggregates and loss of stability, while in some other studies no significant changes have been reported; in a few cases an increase in the aggregate stability has been observed (see Matax-Solera et al. 2011 for an extensive review and list of references). For example, high temperature can

fuse the soil particle, generating a coarser texture with less cohesive aggregates; in addition, if the temperature reaches a value above 460 °C clays lose the hydroxyl group which promotes a soil structure weakening (DeBano et al. 1998, Neary et al. 1999, Parise and Cannon 2012). In some soils, the heat exchanged lead to a new aggregation of particles by recrystallization of Fe and Al oxides and thus the wettability of aggregate surfaces may be reduced, causing an increase in aggregate stability (Giovannini and Lucchesi 1983; Giovannini 1994; Mataix-Solera and Doerr 2004).

Another direct effect of the fire is the change in soil wettability: fire, depending on the amount/type of fuels and the temperature reached, can produce water repellent layers in non-repellent soil, or modify either positively and negatively the pre-existing water repellent attitude (De Bano et al 1970, Certini 2005, Shakesby and Doerr 2006). Water repellency has been recorded in many unburned soils, such as eucalypt and coniferous forest (Doerr et al. 2000, Shakesby et al. 2007) and in the chaparral environment of southern California (DeBano 2000b, Cawson et al. 2016). The physico-chemical process responsible for the creation of new repellent layers is the volatilization, and subsequent condensation, of hydrophobic organic substances available in the litter and topsoil. The process is dependent from temperature, oxygen availability and duration of heating (Cawson et al. 2016). Laboratory tests shows little effects for temperatures lower than 175 °C, maximum effect for temperature from 175 to 200 °C and destruction of water repellency from 280 to 400 °C (DeBano 2000). In eucalypt forest, maximum water repellency was found after heating the soil at temperature from 250 to 280 °C, while an additional five-minute heating from 310 to 340 °C was able to destroy the hydrophobic effect. Doubling the heating time, a range of temperature from 290 to 330 °C was enough for erase water repellency (Doerr et al. 2004). Laboratory test results proved very difficult to replicate in the field: some authors reported an increase in water repellency for temperature above 400 °C, other a decrease of the same parameter for temperature below 200 °C. Factor such as soil moisture, oxygen availability, pre-fire conditions and fuel characteristics may represent uncontrolled variables (Vadilonga et al. 2008 Stoof et al. 2011, Cawson et al. 2016).

Other parameters are affected by fire occurrence: soil pH shows a tendential increase due to the organic acid's denaturation. Significant changes are reported at high temperatures (>450 °C). In contrast, fire-induced increase in pH is negligible in carbonated-buffered soils (Certini 2005). Exchangeable capacity is generally decreased, while electrical conductivity is slightly increased (Badia and Marti 2003, Certini 2005).

Soil color is clearly altered after fire: usually fire leads to a color darkening and also ash produced in low and moderate severity fire is black or grey. On the contrary, high severity fire tends to produce brighter ash; shift in colour toward yellow or red is also reported for iron-rich soils. Shift in soil brightness influence the albedo and thus the temperature regime in the soil until the vegetation recovery (Ketterings and Bigham 2000, Certini 2005, Parsons et al 2010).

The biological properties of the soil are affected, too: for example, the microbial mass is usually reduced, and the composition of the microbial community is modified as well, due to the selective effect of fire on some group of microorganism. Soil dwelling invertebrates decrease (less than microorganism because of their mobility) and also the invertebrate community composition is affected (Certini 2005).

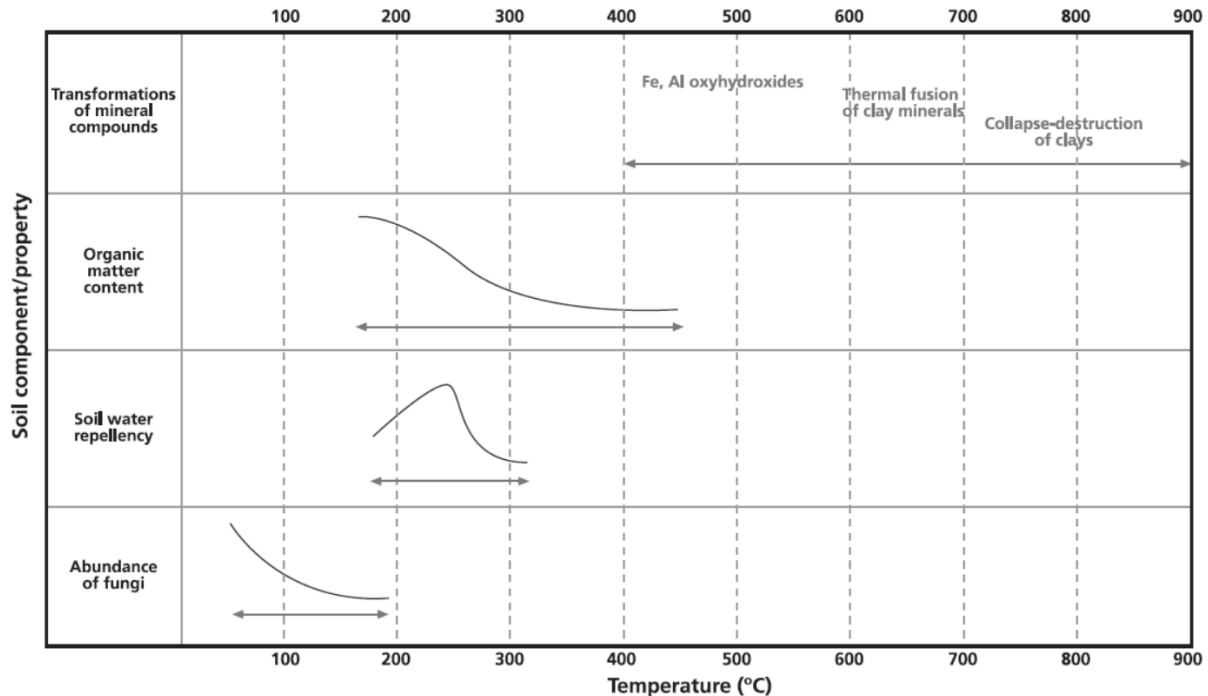


Figure 4.9 – main soil properties changes at different temperature (Mataix-Solera et al 2011).

4.5 Post-fire geomorphic processes

Wildfire major consequence over a landscape from a geological perspective is the drastic alteration of the pre-fire equilibrium between meteorological external force, slope morphological and hydrological setting, and slope materials characteristics. The result of this system imbalance is a modification in the hydrologic response of watersheds which can be observed even in case of non-exceptional rainfall events. Two major contributors to the slope processes generation are the increased amount of available material, and the increased quantity (and energy) of water reaching the soil surface compared to the pre-fire conditions. As a consequence, a wide range of phenomena can be recorded after fire: they vary in type, magnitude and timing after the fire (fig. 4.10).

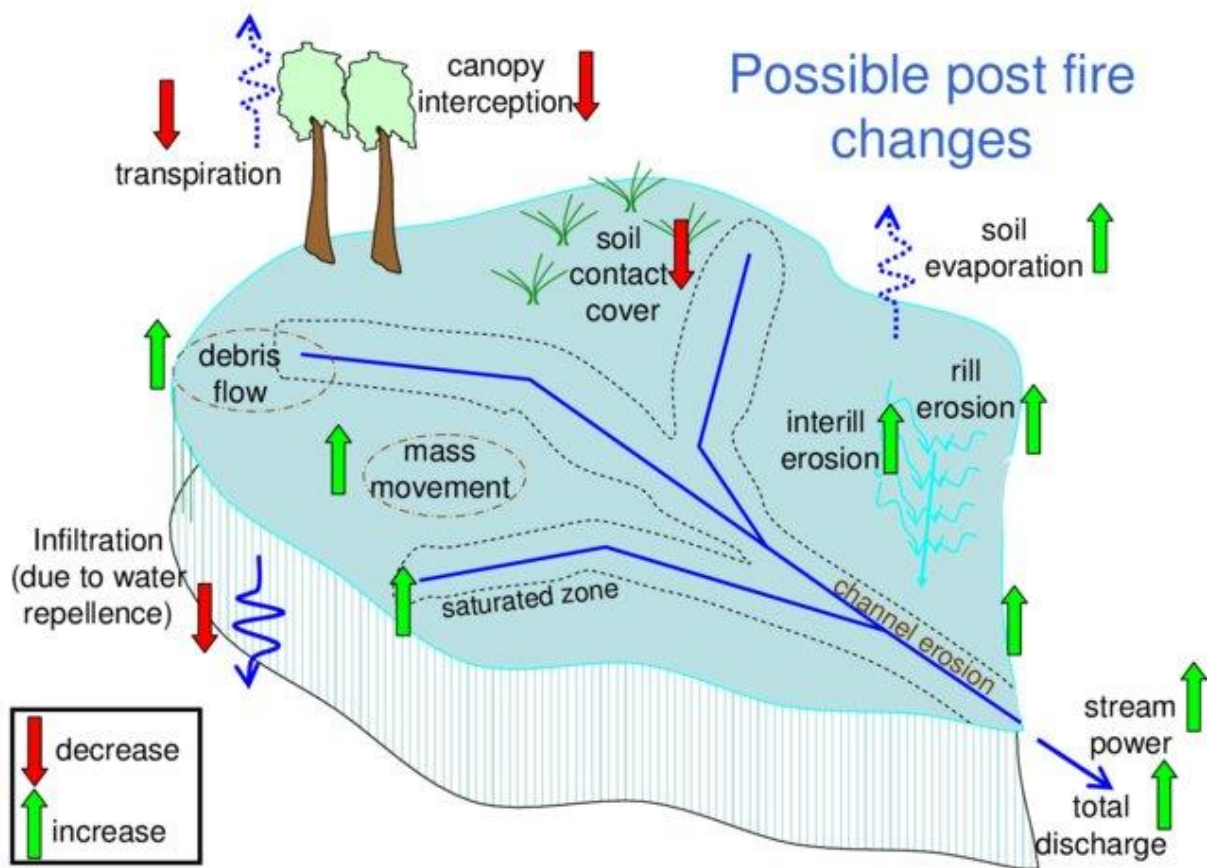


Figure 4.10 – possible post-fire changes in hydrologic and erosion processes (Smith et al., 2011)

Post-wildfire processes can be distinguished in two broad categories from a typological perspective: discrete mass movements and surface runoff-dominated processes.

4.5.1 Discrete mass movements

The first category includes gravitational phenomena which originates as a consequence of the developing of a failure surface located at a certain depth. Referring to the classification proposed by Varnes (1978), Cruden and Varnes (1996) and lately by Hungr et al., (2014) they can be represented by the “Slides” category and are superimposable to the “landslides” category proposed by Hutchinson (1988) (fig. 4.11).

Type of movement	Rock	Soil
Fall	1. Rock/ice fall ^a	2. Boulder/debris/silt fall ^a
Topple	3. Rock block topple ^a	5. Gravel/sand/silt topple ^a
	4. Rock flexural topple	
Slide	6. Rock rotational slide	11. Clay/silt rotational slide
	7. Rock planar slide ^a	12. Clay/silt planar slide
	8. Rock wedge slide ^a	13. Gravel/sand/debris slide ^a
	9. Rock compound slide	14. Clay/silt compound slide
	10. Rock irregular slide ^a	
Spread	15. Rock slope spread	16. Sand/silt liquefaction spread ^a
		17. Sensitive clay spread ^a
Flow	18. Rock/ice avalanche ^a	19. Sand/silt/debris dry flow
		20. Sand/silt/debris flowslide ^a
		21. Sensitive clay flowslide ^a
		22. Debris flow ^a
		23. Mud flow ^a
		24. Debris flood
		25. Debris avalanche ^a
		26. Earthflow
27. Peat flow		
Slope deformation	28. Mountain slope deformation	30. Soil slope deformation
	29. Rock slope deformation	31. Soil creep
		32. Solifluction

Figure 4.11 - Updated Varnes landslide classification system (Hungri et al., 2014).

These phenomena, after the initiation, may evolve during motion towards other type of processes such as flows or complex ones. These kinds of failure have been reported in literature (Meyer et al., 2001; Cannon and Gartner 2005) although it is very difficult to assess a clear cause-effect relation with fire. This kind of processes are usually shallow and may be favored by a) an increase in soil moisture due to the decreased vegetative cover and a reduced transpiration, b) by a decrease in the soil cohesion related to tree mortality and decay of root stabilizing effect, and c) by an enhanced bank erosion in stream peak flow conditions. The post-fire window in which these processes has been registered is really wide, spanning from the first post-fire rainfall to 1 or 2 years after the fire, and up to 30 years (Megahan 1983, Morton 1989, Swanson 1981, Meyer et al. 2001, May and Gresswell 2003, Wondzell and King 2003, Parise and Cannon 2008).

4.5.2 Surface runoff-dominated processes

The second category encompasses a variegated set of processes in which the principal role is exerted by runoff.

In the long term the dominant process is soil erosion: increased rates are reported in many locations worldwide, with authors documenting a median increase of 160 times, reaching values up to 10000 g/m/a (Parise and Cannon 2012, Shakesby and Doerr 2006, Moody and Martin 2009). This process may have

severe effects on the ecosystem, causing aquatic habitat disturbance and soil nutrient losses (Blake et al 2010, Bathurst et al 2007). Above all, the availability of sediment exceeding the normal streamflow carrying capacity increases both the bedload and the suspended materials (Santi et al 2008, Parise and Cannon 2012).

In the short term the combined effect of enhanced erosion and increased runoff is responsible for the generation of 1) flash floods, 2) hyperconcentrated flows and 3) mud/debris flows. Processes 1) and 2) are proper of the bottom of slopes and watersheds and occurs when the overland flow is not retarded by the vegetation and when the infiltration rates are reduced, so that the time of concentration is faster than in the pre-fire conditions. 1) and 2) type of flows behaves as Newtonian fluids, as the viscosity of the fluid is not sufficient for generating a proper debris flow. Effect 3) is the result of a chain of erosional processes and sediment mobilization that encompasses rainsplash, sheetflow and rill erosion until the runoff concentrates in hollows and low order channels (Guilinger et al. 2002). When enough material is eroded, the debris flow may originate (Meyer and Wells 1997, Shakesby and Doerr 2006, Cannon et al 2003, Parise and Cannon 2012). Another particular process can be found either in burned and in unburned areas and is called “firehose effect”: it consists of an enhanced erosion of material due to cascading water over steep slopes or morphological steps. When the runoff is increased and the erodibility of the soil is favored by the fire, this phenomenon can be the trigger for debris flows in down valley areas (Calcaterra et al. 2000, Larsen et al. 2006).

5 The sin- and post- 2017 Piedmont wildfire season climate

In October and November 2017 nine major wildfire fires broke out in the Piedmont region. Some of them lasted for several days before being extinguished, and the strong wind conditions brought the smoke to the city of Turin, gaining a strong media coverage. The surfaces covered by the fire were 9731 ha, of which 74% covered by forests and 34% of the burnt areas being in protected areas.



Figure 5.1 - Satellite image acquired in the visible band by the MODIS sensor on NASA's EOS Aqua polar satellite, 11:55 UTC on 25/10/2017.

The main causes of this anomalous fire season are to be found in the equally anomalous climatic conditions, in particular the absence of rainfall for a long period and the strong wind conditions. The year 2017 in fact was the 3rd warmest in the previous 60 years, with a positive thermal anomaly of about +1.5° C compared to the 1971-2000 climatic average (fig. 5.2). About 700 mm of annual precipitation (regional average) were recorded, with a rainfall deficit of 33% compared to the 1971-2000 average values, making it the 4th driest year in the previous 60 years (fig. 5.3) (Arpa Piemonte 2018).

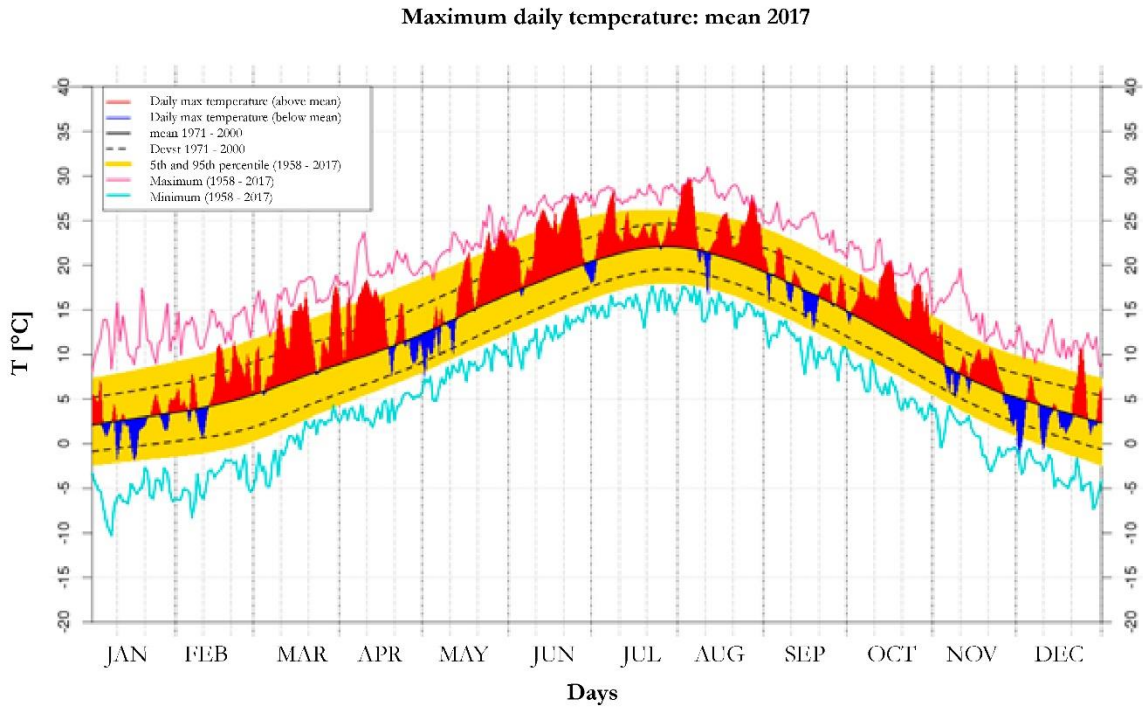


Figure 5.2 - Trend of the average maximum daily temperature in Piedmont for the year 2017 (values referring to an average point located at 900 m a.s.l.) (redrawn from Arpa Piemonte).

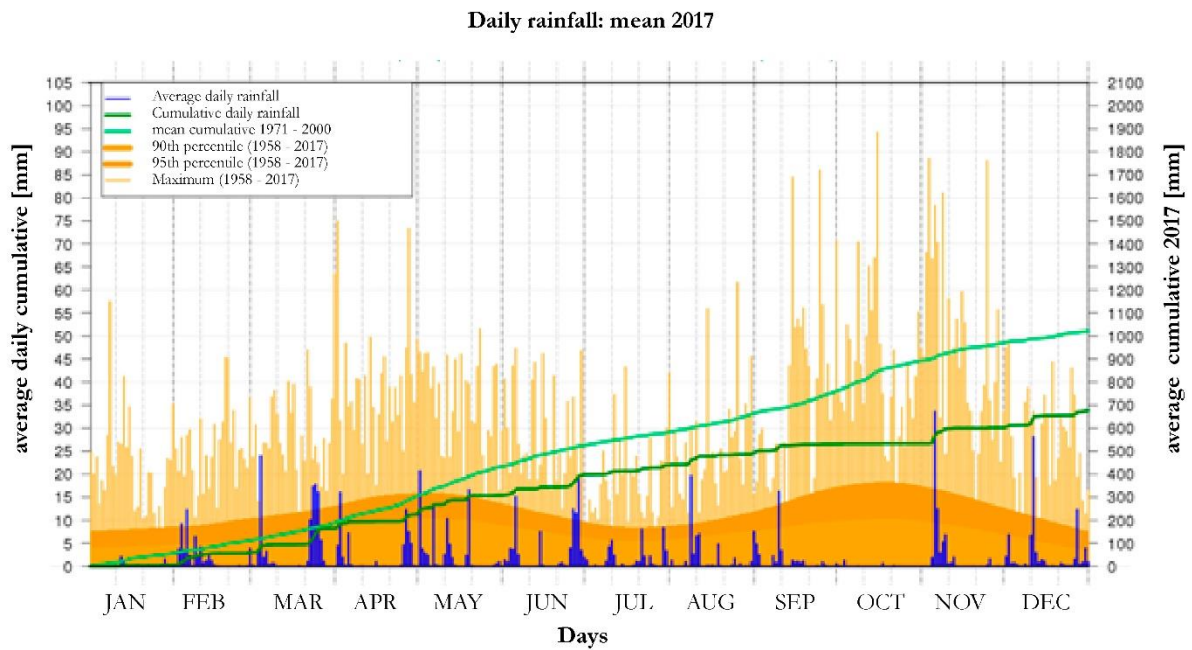


Figure 5.3 - Trend of the average daily cumulative precipitation in Piedmont for the year 2017 (values referring to an average point located at 900 m a.s.l.) (redrawn from Arpa Piemonte).

The 2017 autumn season was the second driest in the last 60 years, and in detail the month of October 2017 (fig. 5.4) was the driest of the last 60 years, with an average monthly precipitation of only 3 mm, mainly limited to the mountain reliefs, and a deficit of 98% compared to the 1971-2000 climate. The drought in October aggravated the rainfall deficit already present with over 50 consecutive days without significant rainfall. It was also the hottest month since 1958, with a thermal anomaly of about + 2.9 °C (vs 1971-2000) and +4.5 °C in maximum temperatures.

In addition, eight days with Foehn (hot and dry fall wind) were recorded in October compared to an average of 5 days. The effect of this wind is to cause an exceptional increase in maximum temperatures (it can raise the temperature by 10-20 ° C in a few hours), to reduce the humidity of the fuels, to favor the spread of fires and the transport of smoke at great distances (Arpa Piemonte, 2018).

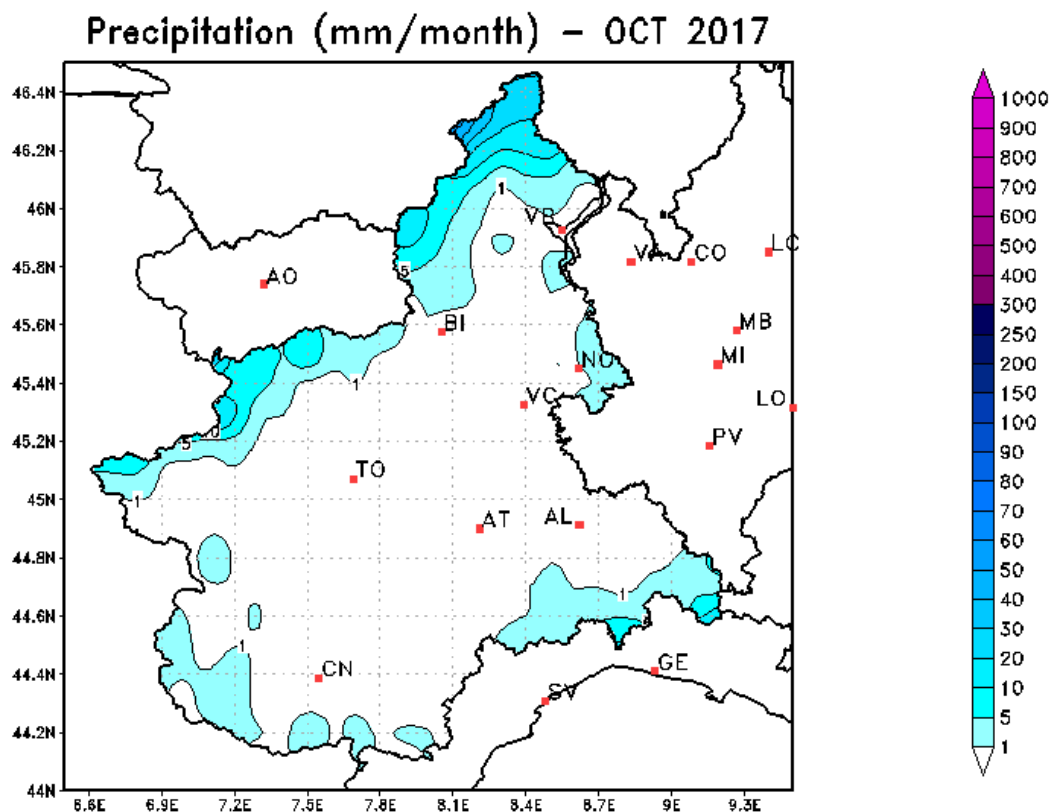


Figure 5.4 - Monthly precipitation in Piedmont in October 2017 (Arpa Piemonte).

Year 2018 was the second warmest observed in Piedmont in the entire historical series 1958-2018, with an estimated average positive thermal anomaly of 1.6 ° C compared to the three-year reference period 1971-2000 (fig. 5.5). Analysis of the daily annual trend shows how the positive thermal anomaly has constantly characterized almost the entire year. However, the period between the end of February and the beginning of March was characterized by a marked negative thermal anomaly; in fact the third decade of February was the second coldest of the previous 61 years with an average temperature lower by almost 5° C

compared to the average of this period. The month of April with +3.4 °C had the greatest positive deviation, while January 2018, with a positive anomaly of 2.7° C, was the second warmest January of the last 61 years (Arpa Piemonte, 2019).

Contrary to 2017, the average cumulative rainfall in Piedmont in 2018 was approximately 1380 mm and was higher than the 1971-2000 norm, with a surplus of about 332 mm, which corresponds to 33%; in the 2017/2018 winter season about 274 mm of average precipitation fell, with a pluviometric surplus of about 105 mm (equal to 61%) compared to the climatology of the 1971-2000 period; therefore, the winter 2017/2018 ranks 7th among the winters richest in precipitation of the last 61 years. In particular, January was the month with the highest percentage pluviometric surplus and the second wettest in the 1971-2000 historical series (fig 5.6).

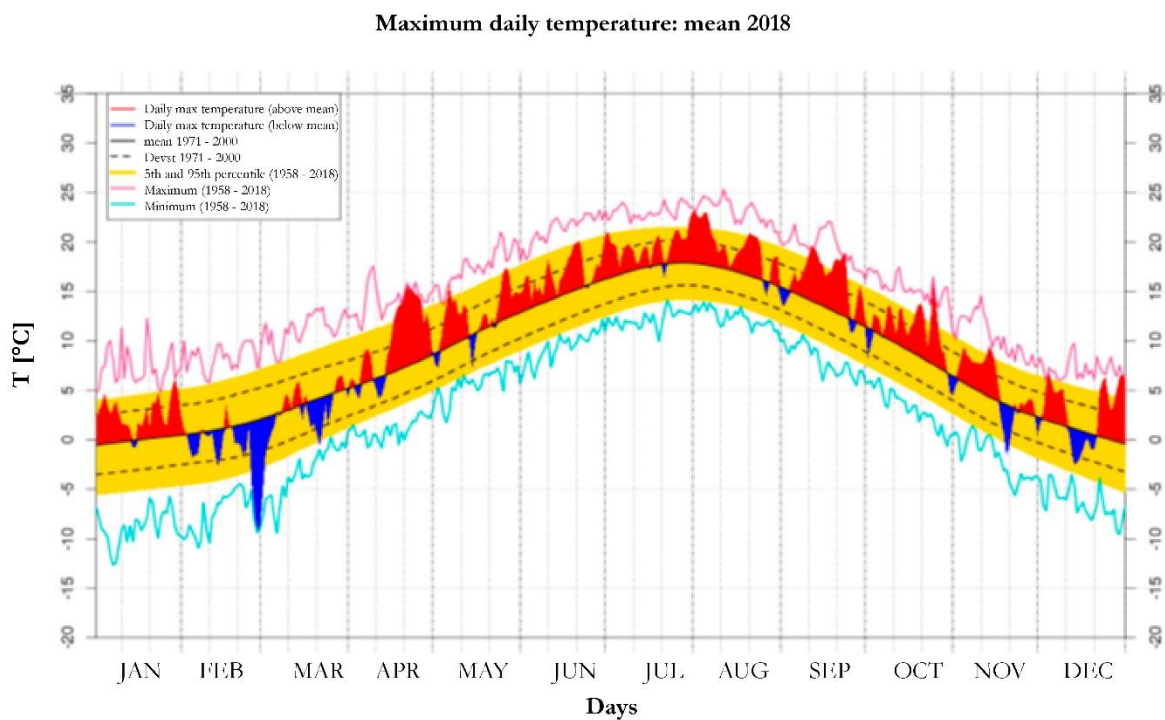


Figure 5.5 - Trend of the average maximum daily temperature in Piedmont for the year 2018 (values referring to an average point located at 900 m a.s.l.) (redrawn from Arpa Piemonte).

Later on, in the spring of 2018, Piedmont was affected by a prolonged wet period that led to rainfall well above the climatic norm. In fact, the spring season 2018 was the fifth wettest from 1958, with an average rainfall of about 463 mm and a pluviometric surplus of around 134 mm (equal to 41%) compared to the climatology of the 1971-2000 period. In particular, May 2018 was the seventh wettest May in the previous 60 years with a rainfall surplus of over 60% compared to the reference period 1971-2000 (fig. 5.7).

In the mid Susa Valley, since the beginning of the year there has been an accumulation of precipitation 68% higher than the 1971-2000 climatic norm and, in the period between April 29 and June 7 (40 days) 30 rainy days has been registered (Arpa Piemonte, 2018).

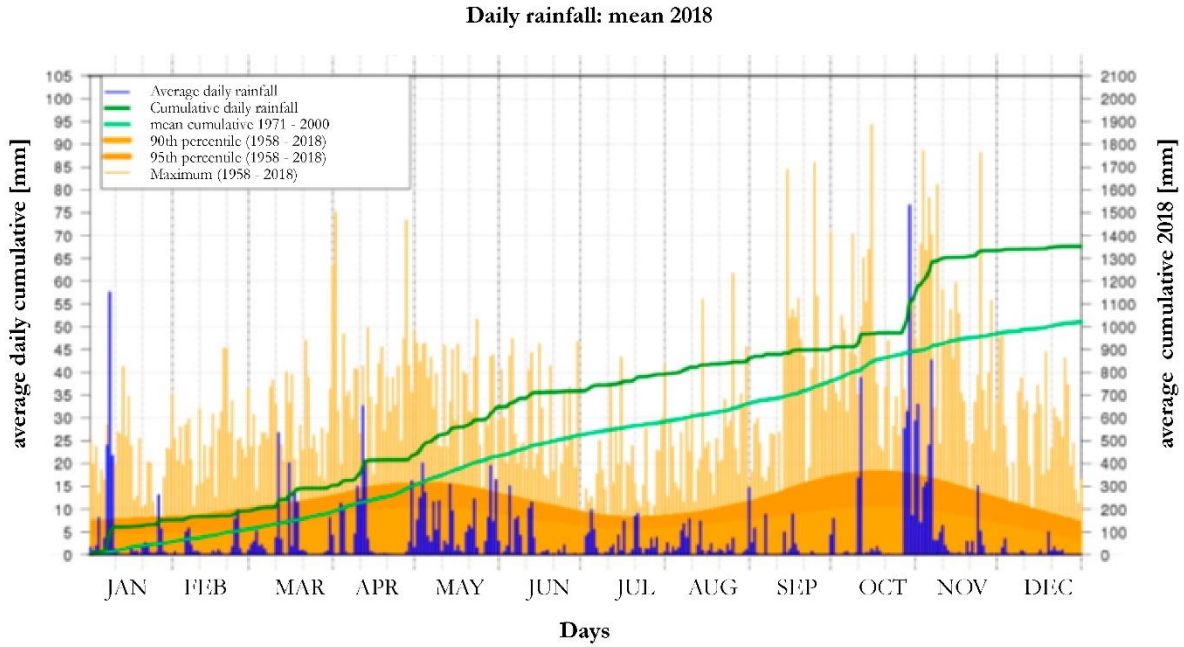


Figure 5.6 - Trend of the average daily cumulative precipitation in Piedmont for the year 2018 (values referring to an average point located at 900 m a.s.l.) (redrawn from Arpa Piemonte).

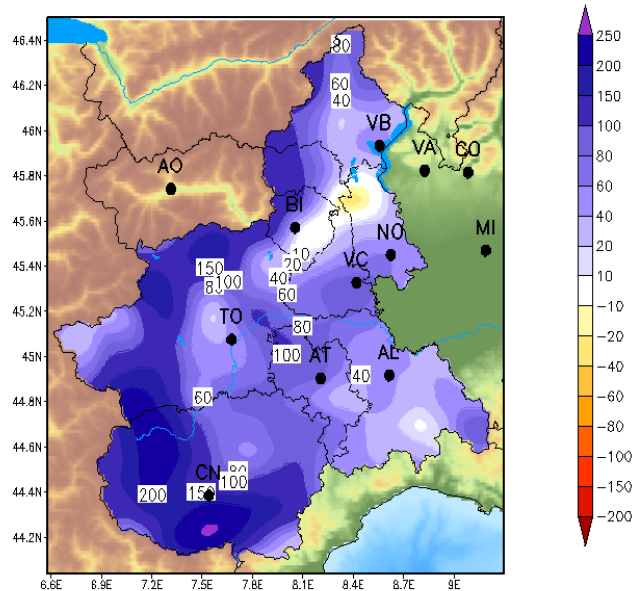


Figure 5.7 - Anomaly of precipitation in May 2018 in Piedmont (mm) compared to the average of the period 1971-2000 (Arpa Piemonte).

6 Methods

A complete description of a post-wildfire response needs to include the analysis of multiple aspects: local geology and geomorphology, soil characteristics, fire intensity and recurrence, fire severity and fire regimes, precipitation regime, modification of the soil hydraulic and geotechnical properties, soil erosional processes, event magnitude and effects. The effort necessary for describing all these parameters over a large area is not sustainable, especially if the post-fire response is constituted by the onset of infiltration-triggered discrete landslide. Given the absence in the target area of reported or surveyed landslide s.s., the soil hydraulic and geotechnical parameters have been dropped from the evaluation. The focus has been consequently shifted on detailing the post-fire surface runoff - dominated processes. The limited number of surveyed post-fire events does not allow the use of a fully statistical approach, so the problem had to be faced by using deterministic methods. A relevant methodological problem in studying this type of events is the fact that field surveys usually are conducted after the fire, making harder to properly assess and evaluate the pre-fire conditions. Even if controlled burns are executed for having a better control on pre-fire variables, they are affected by a scale effect, thus leading to an increased uncertainty and a bias in the sin- and post-fire measurement. For this reason, the multiscale approach and the data integration is crucial to have a comprehensive and redundant characterization of the processes.

6.1 Regional Scale Landslide-wildfires correlation

Landslide locations and features were derived from two regional datasets and integrating recent events information: the SIFraP (Sistema Informativo Frane in Piemonte¹, last updated in 2015) and the Banca Dati Eventi (BDE², last updated in 2019). SIFraP database contains the position and attributes of morphological elements, shallow and deep-seated landslides, flows, falls and complex landslides. Data are reported either as punctual, linear or polygonal feature. The entire dataset covers 60 years and contains a total of more than 80.000 entities. BDE database contains geo-referenced reports relating to processes attributable to geo-hydrological phenomena (landslides, river scour and deposition processes, etc.) to which information on the effects and damages are associated. Data are provided as punctual features, and the database contains more than 29.000 events over 1000 years.

Official wildfire perimeters were provided by Carabinieri Forestali, who assess the burned area by on-site inspection. Since wildfire are usually man-made, police force is charged of detect burned areas and, if possible, to identify the ignition point. These data remain in the records for investigation and, if necessary,

¹ Sistema Informativo Frane in Piemonte – Piedmont Landslide Information System

² Banca Dati Eventi – Event Database

for a trial. For Piedmont region, the database encompasses wildfire perimeter and ignition point from 1997 to 2017³ (fig 6.1), and data are represented as polygon and point shapefile in the WGS84 – UTM32N reference system.

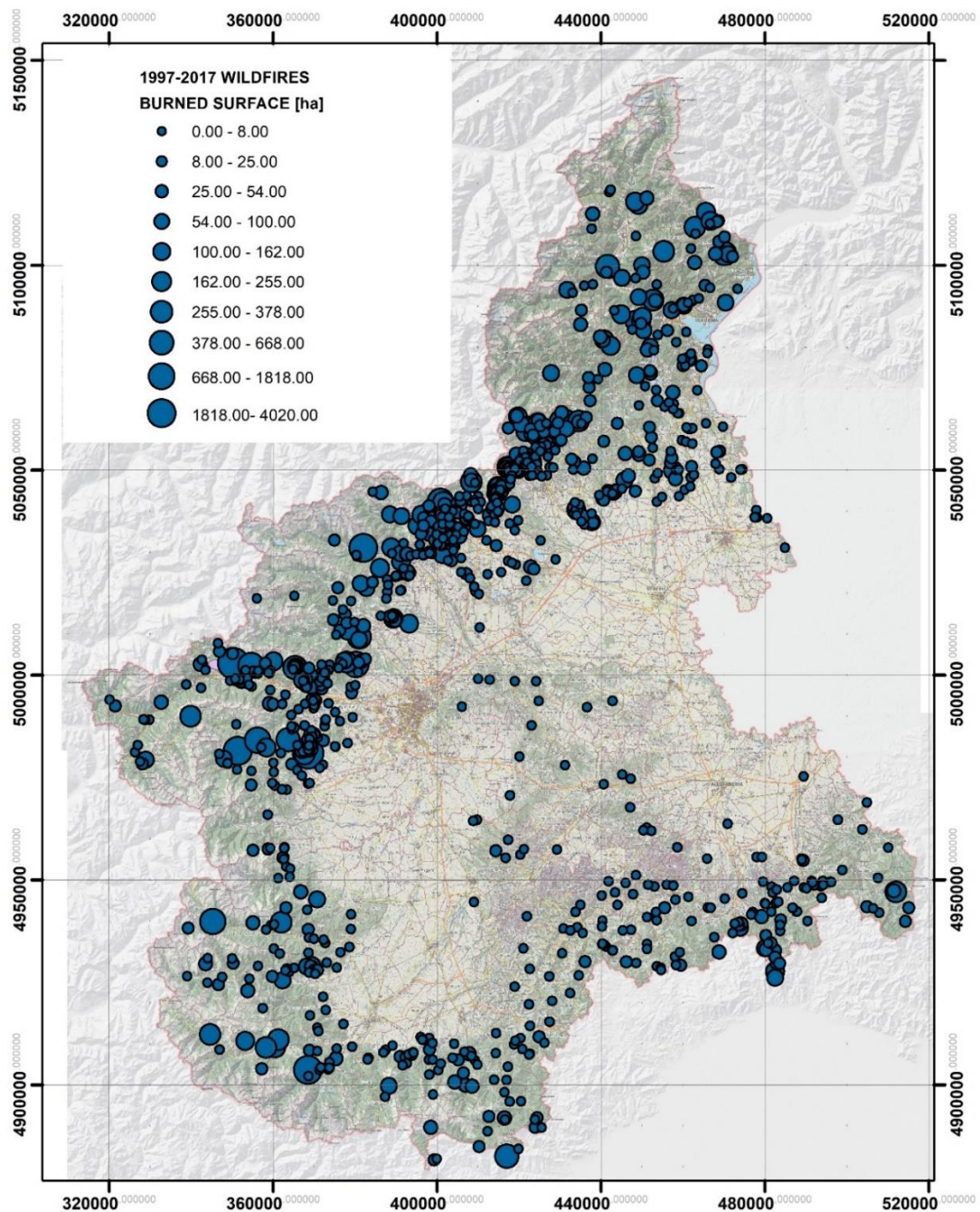


Figure 6.1 – Burned surfaces from 1997 to 2017 (Regione Piemonte - Incendi boschivi: Aree e punti di innesco).

³ Regione Piemonte - Incendi boschivi: Aree e punti di innesco. Piedmont Region – Wildfires: surfaces and ignition points (<http://www.datigeo-piem-download.it>).

In the database table the following data are reported (Piedmont Region):

Table 6-1 – wildfires shapefile attribute table

ATTRIBUTE	FORMAT	DESCRIPTION
ID_COMU	Numerical	Municipality Id
COD_FASCIC	Numerical	Dossier number
DATA_INCE	Date	Ignition date
LOCALITA	Text	Location name
SUP_TOT	Numerical	Burned surface (ha)
SUP_BOSC	Numerical	Burned surface – wooded (ha)
SUP_NOBOSC	Numerical	Burned surface – not wooded (ha)
WGS84EST	Numerical	Ignition point Easting (m)
WGS84NORD	Numerical	Ignition point Northing (m)
ID_INCENDI	Numerical	Wildfire Id

Since landslides data derives from heterogeneous sources, data are associated with different attributes, and are given in different formats. For example, the landslide occurrence date, if present, was found to be expressed either in a numerical, text and date format, using moreover different date convention. The first step has been the homogenization of attributes format for ensuring further date treatment and query. After that, data prior to 1997 (year of the older wildfire registered in the dedicated database) were removed, resulting in a dataset containing 17.635 different events. After that, a database query was implemented for selecting landslides belonging to flow or slide type. This output has been then compared to the fire perimeter dataset, selecting landslides occurred within a distance of 1 km from the wildfire boundary. The resulting outcome has been finally filtered for removing errors resulting from landslide occurring upslope with respect to the wildfire boundary or on the other side of the watershed divide (fig. 6.2). The final database has been then arranged for including related wildfire attributes for every landslide, and subdivided in three subsets, reporting polygon, line and point type features, respectively. Recent events (post-2017 wildfire season) were collected through direct field surveys, gathering information on web and newspaper reports and by interviewing local authorities.

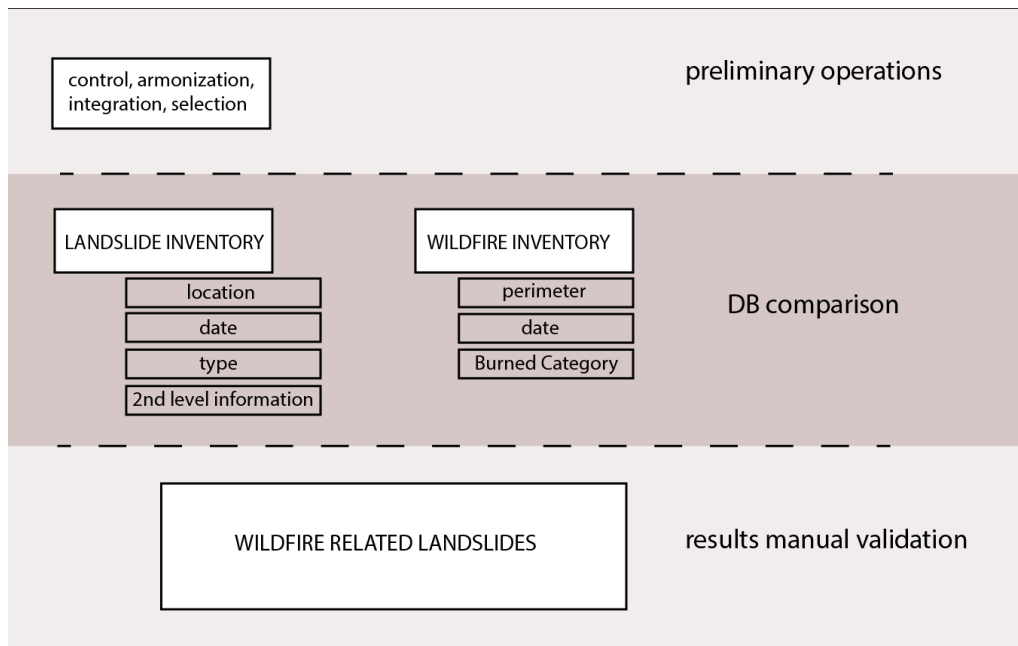


Figure 6.2– Regional scale landslides-wildfires correlation workflow.

6.2 Watershed scale

The watershed scale analysis is based on the integration of geospatial data treatment and the field surveys outcomes (fig 6.3). The description of the field surveys, the collected data and the processing methodology are explained in the paragraph 6.21, 6.2.2 and 6.2.3.

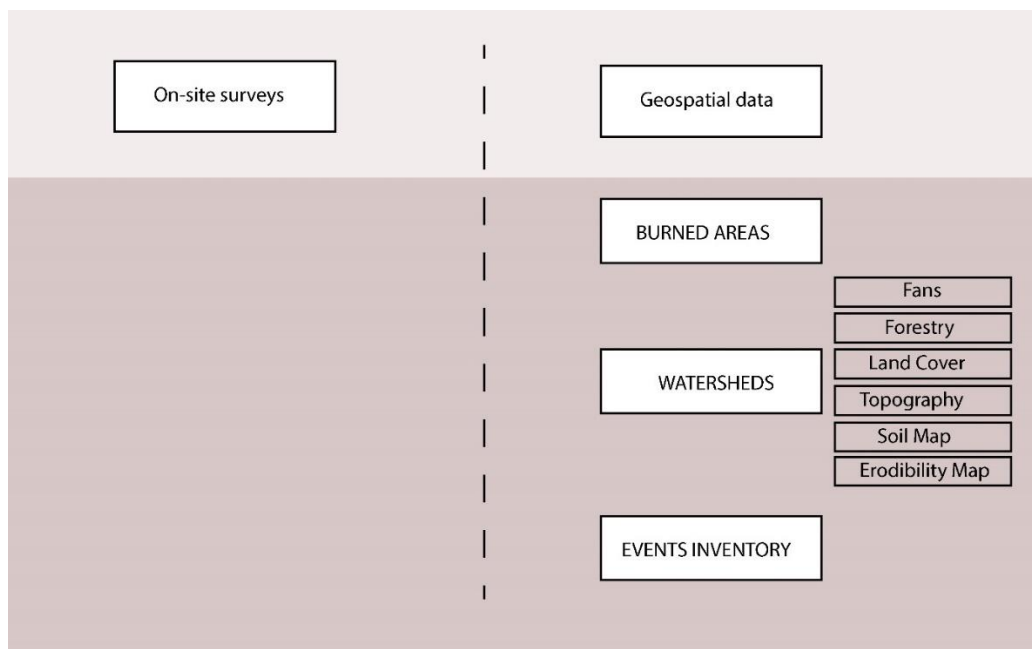


Figure 6.3 - Watershed scale data treatment workflow.

6.2.1 On site surveys

After the October 2017 forest fires, a campaign of site surveys in the burned areas has been designed and implemented. Surveys has been performed in the framework of the Institutional Technical Table of the Piedmont Region, a task force created for preparing an Emergency Plan for recovery intervention. The team involved Piedmont Region technicians and University of Turin, IPLA⁴, Alta Valle di Susa Forestry Consortium, AIB⁵ and Carabinieri Forestali as scientific or technical consultant (in the fields of forestry, forest ecology, pedology, geology, hydrogeology, etc.). The plan is devoted to individuating and ranking areas in which the fire has increased the hydrogeological risk, or which are particularly interesting from an environmental and ecological perspective; in these areas high priority of intervention is granted, and post-fire management practice can be authorized and funded with public resources. In less endangered areas the plan provides guidelines for medium and long-term intervention, sustainable with private funding⁶.

The first round of surveys has been conducted over the nine wildfire locations, starting at the end of May 2018 and ending by mid-June 2018. The survey plan has been executed six months after the last wildfire because of the climatic conditions; in fact, most of burned areas were covered by snow since December 2017 to March 2018. Following surveys have been repeated in the areas in which more investigation was required after the first observation.

During the on-site inspections, the macroscopic and visual effects of the fire over the vegetation and the landscape has been assessed, with particular focus on the areas surrounding villages, roads and streams. Particular attention was due to the areas in which the preliminary Burn Severity maps indicates higher values. Observations were aimed at investigating the effect of the fires both on the vegetation and the soil. On the vegetation the effects have been evaluated on different vegetation strata, examining soil surface, herbs, shrubs and trees, especially looking at the amount of fuel consumed on the soil surface and its color change, ash coverage, amount of damage on grass and shrubs, height of char on tree trunks and canopy mortality. Geological and geomorphological survey were aimed at individuating relevant signs of an increased slope dynamics and activity, such as enhanced erosion in the upper portions of the watersheds, rills and gully development, evidence of landslide, modification in the drainage network (especially the enhancement in the activity of hollows and low order channels), sediment-laden flow and/or dry ravel deposits.

⁴ Istituto per le Piante da Legno e l'Ambiente - Institute for Wood Plants and the Environment

⁵ Corpo volontari AntiIncendi Boschivi – Forest Fire Volunteer Corps

⁶ The national law on forest fires (Law 353/2000, article 10) prohibits, for five years, on forest and grazing land affected by fire, any activity of afforestation and hydrogeological defense supported by public financial resources, except for specific authorization granted for proved situations of hydrogeological risk and when an intervention is urgently required to protect exceptional environments and landscapes.

6.2.2 Data collection

For the collection of data, different sources were used, favoring the use of regional open source data. A brief description of each of them is provided in the following paragraphs.

6.2.2.1 Burned area

The 2017 wildfires have been selected from the regional database. Their location, extent and main characteristics are reported in fig. 6.4 and table 6-2.

Table 6-2 – 2017 wildfires overview

WILDFIRE ID	WILDFIRE NAME	IGNITION DATE	TOTAL BURNED SURFACE	FOREST SURFACE	NONFOREST SURFACE
#			[ha]	[ha]	[ha]
1	LOCANA/RIBORDONE	October 22, 2017	1569.7673	1440.5633	129.204
2	BUSSOLENO/MOMPANTERO	October 22, 2017	4018.5703	3102.9065	915.6637
3	CAPRIE-RUBIANA	October 13, 2017	310.7469	310.7469	0
4	CUMIANA/CANTALUPA	October 17, 2017	1818.2538	1818.2538	0
5	BELLINO/CASTELDELFINO	October 23, 2017	378.0204	378.0204	0
6	SAMBUCO/PIETRAPORZIO	October 19, 2017	162.1212	111.5919	50.5293
7	ROURE/PERRERO	October 5, 2017	668.6261	499.5988	169.0272
8	TRAVERSELLA	October 25, 2017	623.9245	250.9528	372.9718
9	DEMONTE	October 27, 2017	219.8098	153.8019	66.0079

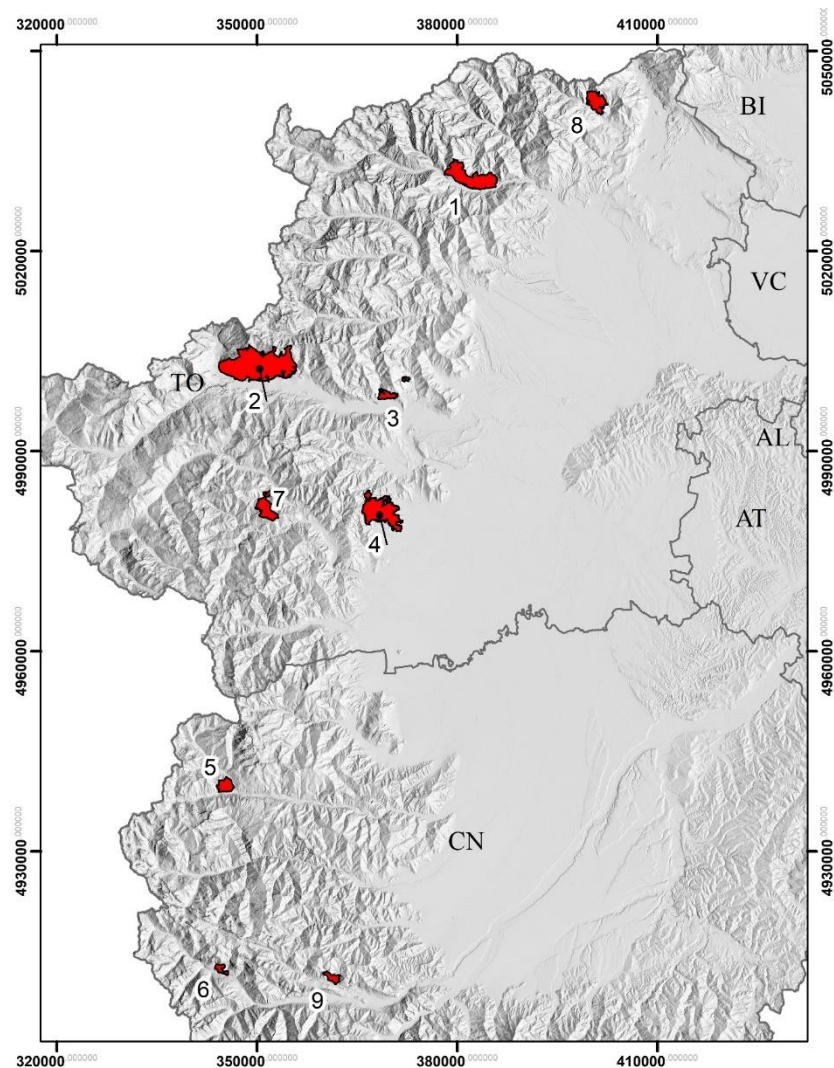


Figure 6.4 – 2017 wildfires location

6.2.2.2 Catchments

The Piedmont catchments perimeter has been derived from Arpa Piemonte and Regione Piemonte database (Giampani et al., 2013). Morphometrical attributes included in the database are catchment area, fan area and the Melton Index. Based on bedrock lithology, the catchments are classified with a different Clay Weathering Index according to the following scheme (following Tiranti et al. 2008, De Angeli et al. 2011, Marco et al. 2012):

- a) *Excellent Clay Maker* – ECM – phyllosilicates rich foliated metamorphic (Calcschists, black shale, argilloschists) and/or clay minerals rich sedimentary rocks;
- b) *Good Clay Maker* – GCM – massive calcareous rocks (limestones, dolomites,...);
- c) *Bad Clay Maker* – BCM – igneous or massive metamorphic rocks (granitoids, gneiss, greenschists, ultramafic rocks, massive micaschists,...).

These rock classes are distinguished based on the ability to produce, following mechanical and physical disintegration, significant quantities of clays or clay-like minerals in the fine fraction, thus conditioning the prevailing rheology and depositional style, seasonality and the amount of rainfall required for triggering the flows processes (Giampani et al. 2013). On the basis of the morphometrical parameters, lithological classes and triggering rainfall thresholds magnitude and return period of expected phenomena are given (Tiranti 2008, Tiranti et al. 2008, Cremonini et al. 2010, De Angeli et al. 2011).

6.2.2.3 Fans

The Piedmont fan map (1:10000 scale) contains the shape of 2459 fans over the regional territory, spanning from 1 to 340 ha. They have been individuated by Arpa Piemonte based on photointerpretation and orthoimages analysis. The dataset has been downloaded from Arpa Piemonte database in the shapefile format. Shapefile attribute table include parameters such as type, genesis and catchment name. In particular, the attribute “genesis” is helpful to identify the main depositional processes occurring in the catchment. In addition, for some of the catchment (893, bigger than 4 ha), information on the most common processes has been retrieved following the scheme proposed by Marchi et al. (1993), classifying them as Fluvial Fan, Mixed Fan and Debris-Flow Fan.

6.2.2.4 Forest species and forest setting

Forest species and settings were derived from the Forest Map of the Piedmont Region (Camerano et al, 2016) at 1:10,000 scale. According to the current law specifications, forest is defined as land cover by arboreal vegetation, in association or not with shrubby vegetation, natural or artificial, characterized by a surface above 2000 square meter, mean width above 20 meter and coverage above 20%. The dataset has been downloaded from SIFOR (Sistema Informativo Forestale Regionale) database in the shapefile format. A separate dataset mapping arboreal coverage below 20% is provided separately. Shapefile attribute table include parameters such as Forest category, type and subtype, management type, main forest role and purpose and Corine Land Cover (level 3) code.

6.2.2.5 Land Cover

Land Cover data has been derived from Land Cover Map of Piedmont (Regione Piemonte 2010). The dataset is the result of the integration of available spatial data and follows the Corine Land Cover classification scheme.

6.2.2.6 Topography and DTM

Topographic data were derived by Regional Digital Terrain Model (DTM 2009-2011 Piemonte ICE). The digital terrain model has been acquired by using Lidar and has a resolution of 5 meter and a vertical

accuracy of ± 0.30 m (± 0.60 m in densely forested and urbanized areas). Elevation, Slope and Aspect maps were produced at the same resolution by using Esri® ArcMap 10.2.2.

6.2.2.7 Geology

Geological data were derived from the geological map of Piedmont Region at 1:250000 scale (Piana et al 2017). Geological data derive from revised official and unofficial geological maps and unpublished original data.

6.2.2.8 Soil map and soil erodibility map

Soil maps were derived from Piedmont Soil Map at 1:250000 scale (IPLA 2020, not published). It is an inventory of the principal soil types which incorporates soil order and soil subgroup distribution within each cartographic unit based on USDA soil taxonomy (USDA 1999).

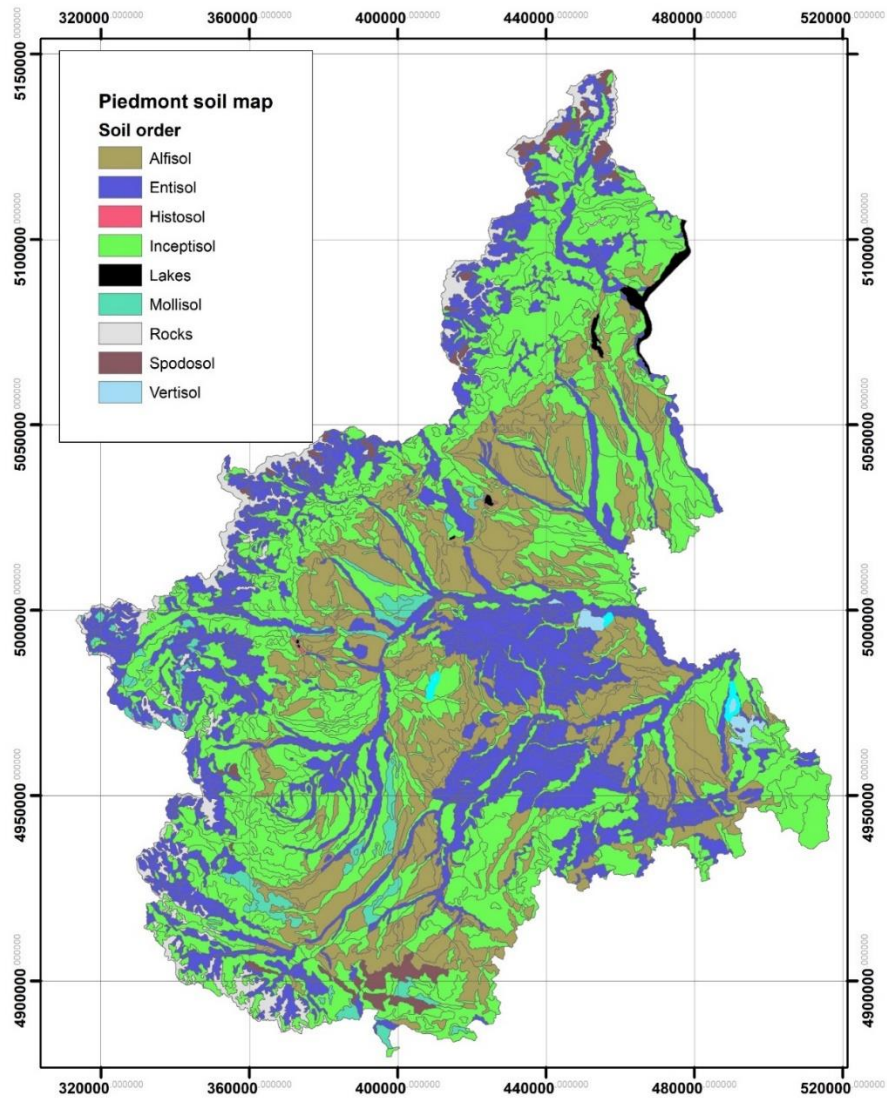


Figure 6.5 - Piedmont Soil Map (data provided by IPLA, not published).

Unpublished soil erodibility data, based on 1:250,000 soil map, were also provided by Ipla. RUSLE K factor is provided as a raster map with 100 m resolution cells.

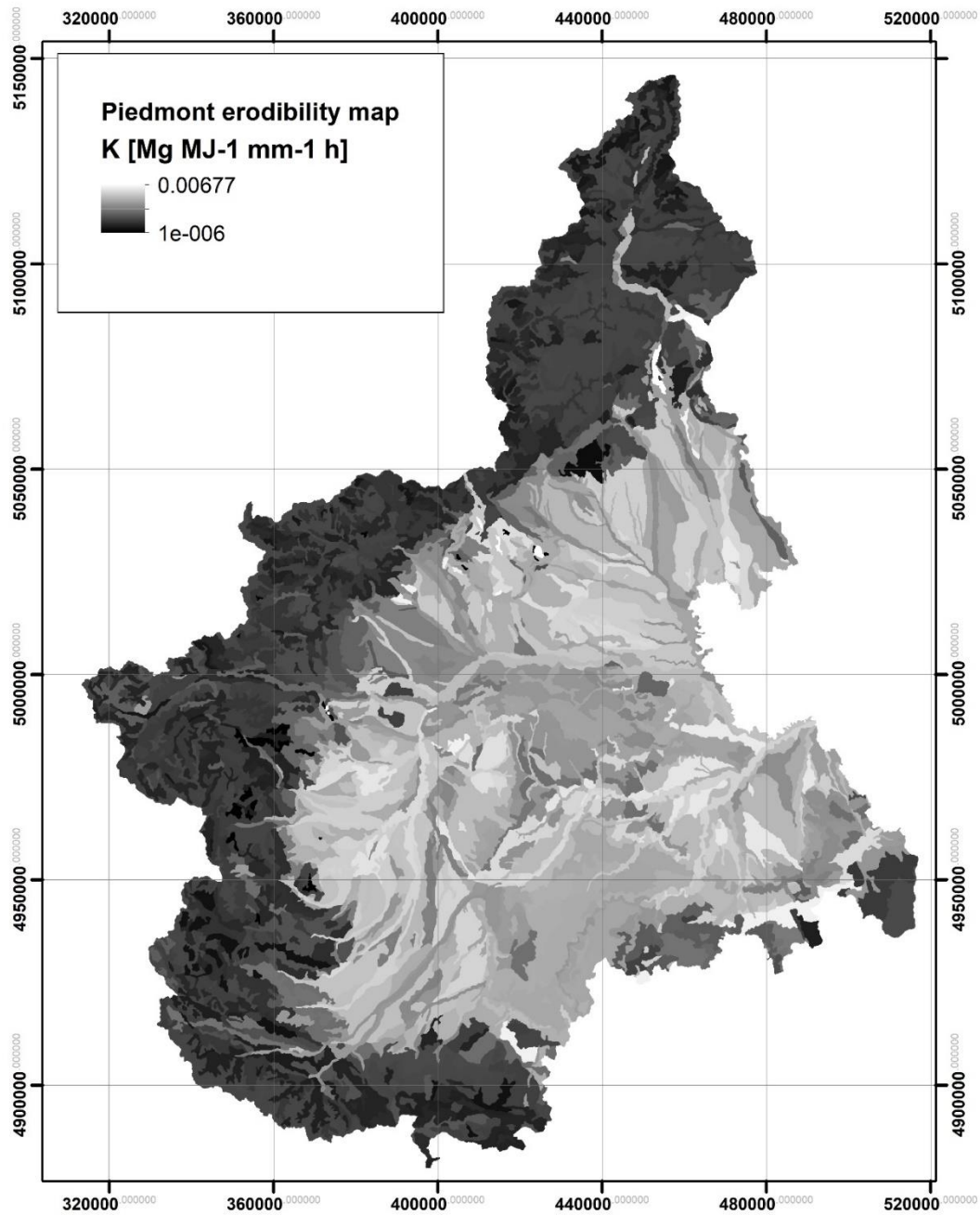


Figure 6.6 - Piedmont erodibility map, representing RUSLE K factor (data provided by IPLA, not published).

6.2.2.9 Landslide inventory

Recent events (post-2017 wildfire season) were collected through direct field surveys, gathering information on web and newspaper reports and by interviewing local authorities. A total of 13 events, all of them occurred in 2018, make up the dataset. In the table 6-3 the single events are reported.

Table 6-3 – Post-2017 wildfire landslides occurrence DF: debris-flow; MF: mud-flow.

Watershed	Location	Date	Type	Fire start date	Fire end date
Comba delle Foglie	Bussoleno	07/06/2018	DF/MF	22/10/2017	30/10/2017
Comba delle Foglie	Bussoleno	29/04/2018	DF/MF	22/10/2017	30/10/2017
Comba delle Foglie	Bussoleno	02/05/2018	DF/MF	22/10/2017	30/10/2017
Comba delle Foglie	Bussoleno	09/05/2018	DF/MF	22/10/2017	30/10/2017
Comba delle Foglie	Bussoleno	13/05/2018	DF/MF	22/10/2017	30/10/2017
Rio della Ravoire	Mompantero	09/08/2018	MF	22/10/2017	30/10/2017
Rio della Ravoire	Mompantero	11/06/2019	MF	22/10/2017	30/10/2017
Apparè	Sparone	12/06/2018	MF	22/10/2017	05/11/2017
Apparè	Sparone	12/06/2018	MF	22/10/2017	05/11/2017
Carlevaria	Locana	11/06/2018	DF	22/10/2017	05/11/2017
Locana est	Locana	11/06/2018	DF	22/10/2017	05/11/2017
Rio Fura	Locana	11/06/2018	DF	22/10/2017	05/11/2017
Rio Fura	Locana	11/06/2018	DF	22/10/2017	05/11/2017

6.2.3 Data check and processing

Data processing consist of the treatment of satellite data, forest/land cover maps, wildfire perimeters and watersheds database. The first step is the production of the fire severity maps and the identification of the watersheds affected by the wildfires (fig 6.7). After that, the fire-related erodibility and runoff models have been applied. In the following the detailed procedure is explained.

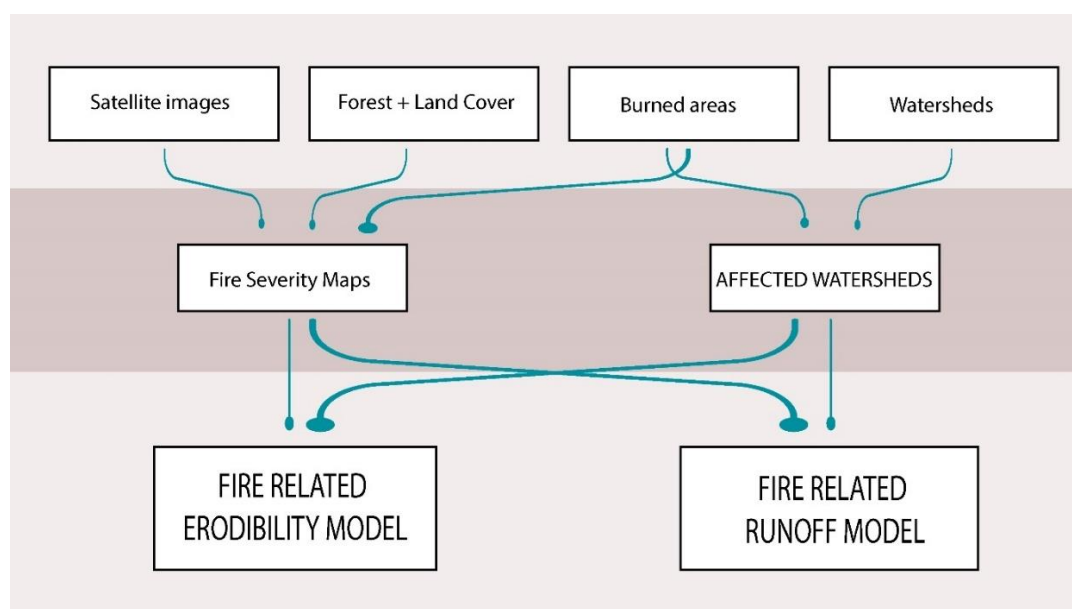


Figure 6.7 – data processing scheme.

6.2.3.1 Fire severity maps analysis

Remote sensing images were used to analyse the wildfire process, to check the extent of the burned areas and the burn severity. The fire severity reflects the degree of change induced in the various components of the ecosystem, see paragraph 4.3.1. It is traditionally expressed by classifying the impact of the fire through ordinal quality classes, defined very broadly (eg. low, medium or high severity). In this study, the methodology used for fire severity assessment is based on US FIREMON (Fire Effects Monitoring and Inventory System) framework (Key and Benson 2005).

For the 2017 fires, the fire severity initial assessment has been performed to identify the short-term effects of the fire on burned areas while the results of the "extended assessment", realized by Morresi et al (2021), has been used to evaluate the response of the ecosystem one year after the fire (figg. 6.9 – 6.11). The initial assessment allows to quantify the wildfire impact immediately after the fire, especially regarding the effect on grassland which tend to be obliterated very soon due to the rapid regrowth of the herbaceous species. The extended assessment, in which the burn severity is measured during the first growing season after the fire, allows to assess the direct effects of the fire and the initial response of the forest ecosystem, thus including the delayed mortality of trees, the beginning of the process of renewal, and the colonization of the areas covered by invasive species (Key 2006)(fig. 6.8) . This is crucial for evaluate how the recovery of the vegetation, or conversely its delayed mortality, affects the post-fire hazard evolution; in facts an increased or decreased impact of the erosive processes, and thus the availability of material to be entrained in case of rainfall events, are key mechanism for post-fire triggering of flows.

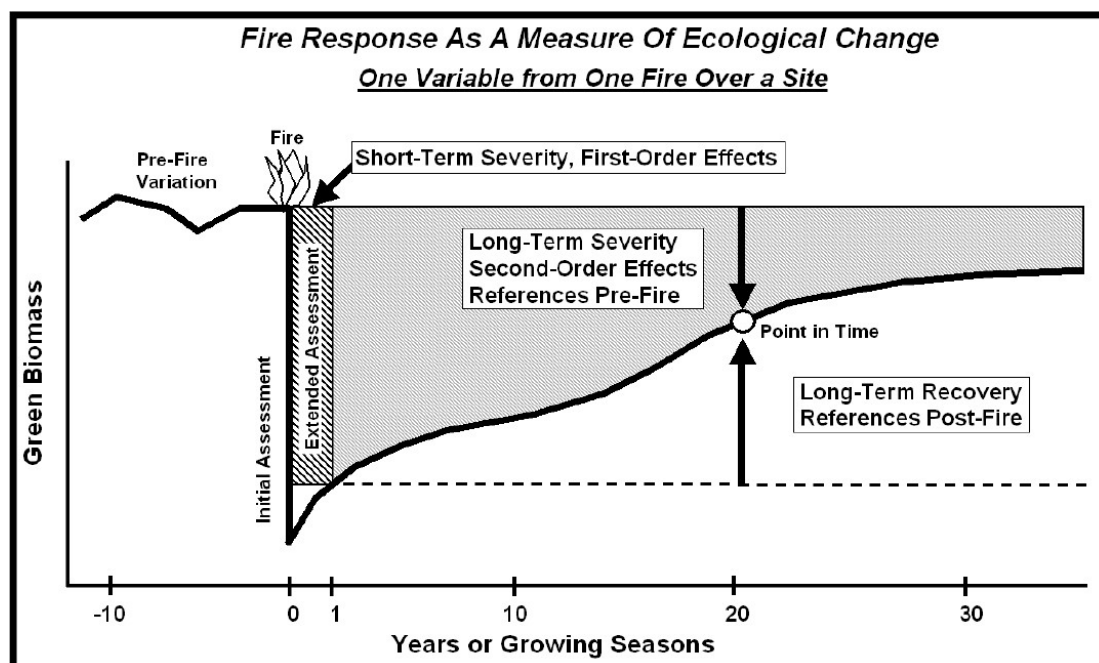


Figure 6.8 - Conceptual model of burn severity and recovery of the ecosystem over time (Key 2006).

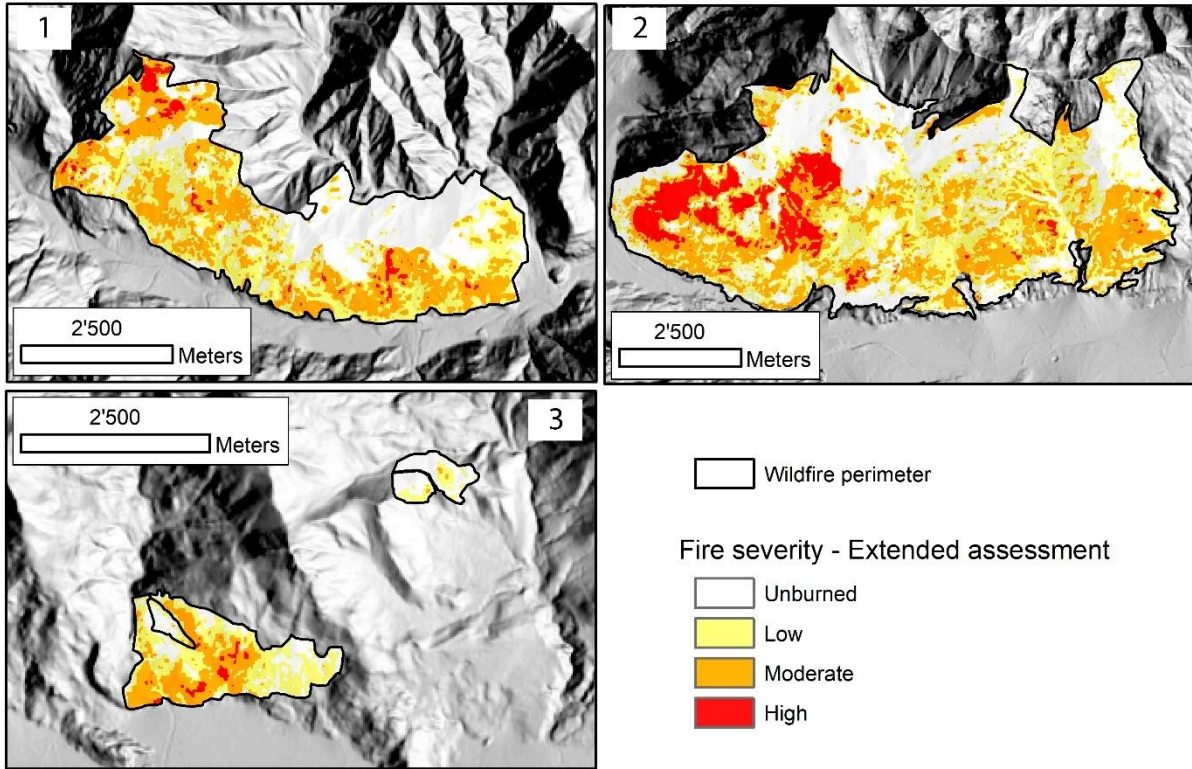


Figure 6.9 – Fire severity maps, extended assessment, for the Locana/Ribordone (1), Bussoleno/Mompantero (2) and Caprie/Rubiana (3) wildfires (after Morresi et al., 2021)

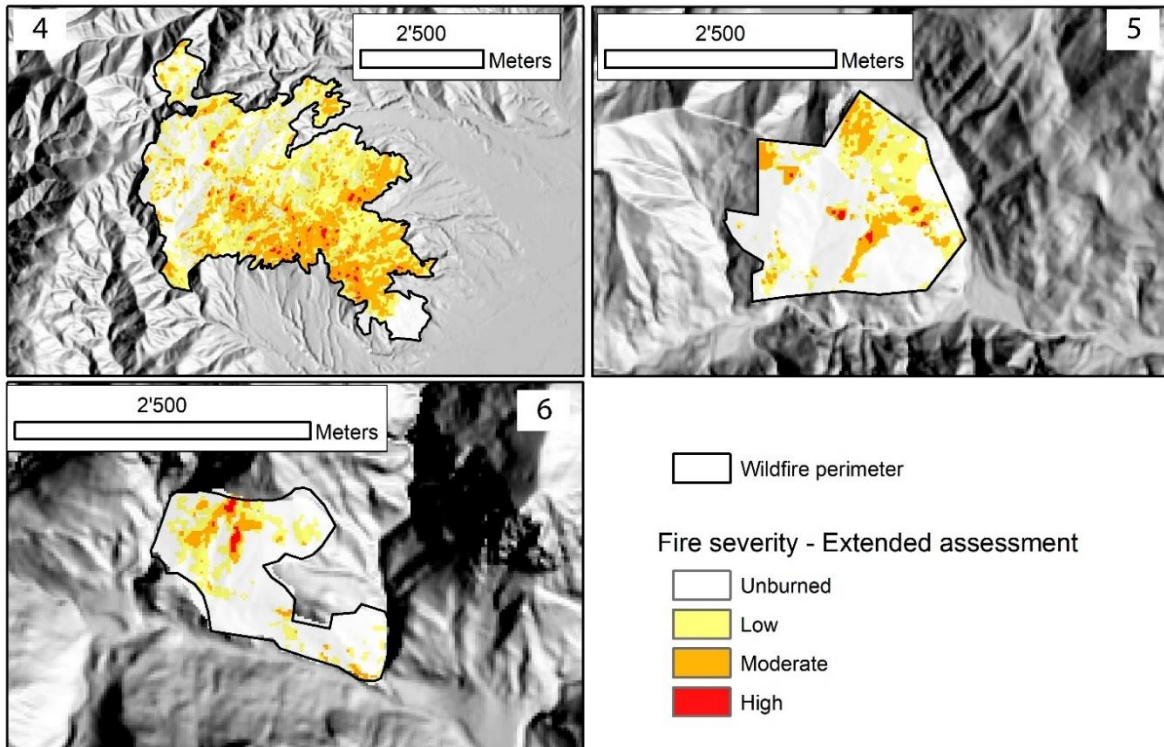


Figure 6.10 – Fire severity maps, extended assessment, for the Cumiana/Cantalupa (4), Bellino/Casteldelfino (5) and Sambuco/Pietraporzio (6) wildfires (after Morresi et al., 2021)

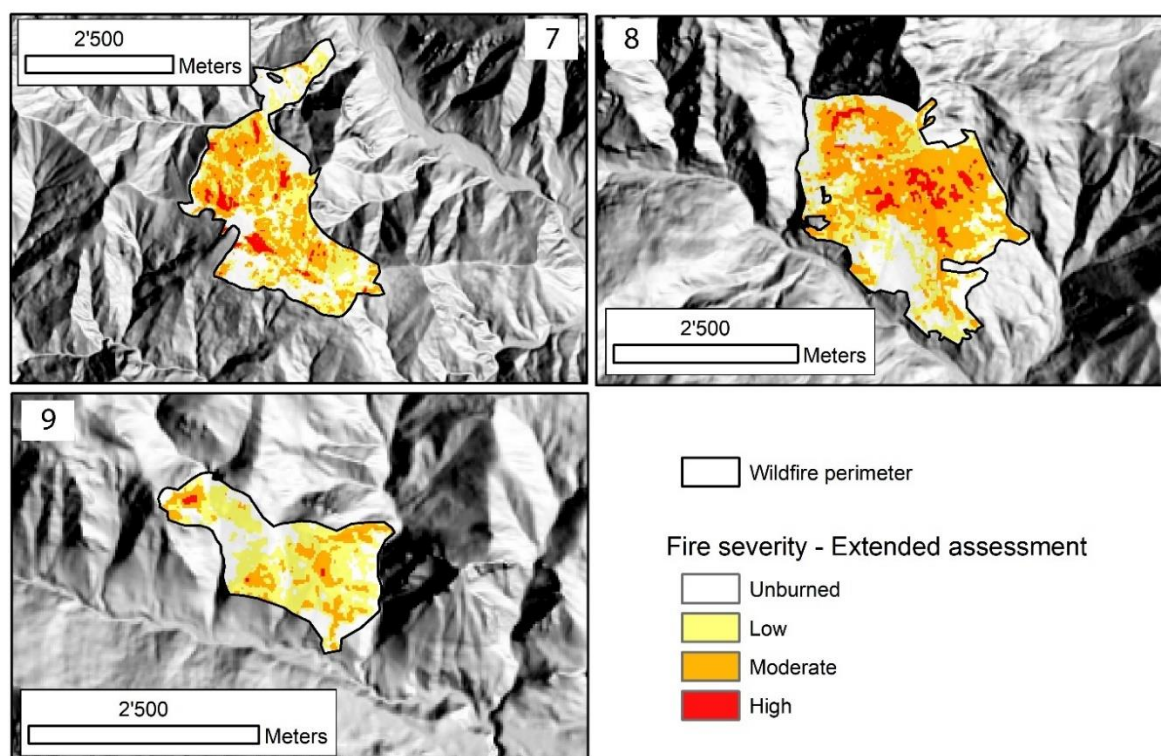


Figure 6.11– Fire severity maps, extended assessment, for the Roure/Perrero (7), Traversella (8) and Demonte (9) wildfires (after Morresi et al., 2021)

The analysis of spectral changes was carried out by using images acquired by the European Space Agency (ESA) Sentinel-2A and 2B satellites (S-2A e S-2B). Satellite images, both using bands in the visible wavelength (RGB) and near /shortwave infrared (NIR/SWIR) were downloaded from the Copernicus Open Access Hub⁷. Level 2A products were used if available, otherwise images were first processed for performing the atmospheric, terrain and cirrus correction of Top Of Atmosphere Level 1C input data using Sen2Cor_v2.8 processor⁸. For the fire severity initial assessment images were acquired in October (pre-fire) and November (post-fire) of 2017. By comparison, the extended assessment carried out by Morresi et al (2021) used images acquired in the month of August of 2017 and 2018 respectively for the pre-fire and post-fire.

Normalized Burn Ratio (NBR) index has been calculated at 20 m spatial resolution using surface reflectance in the near infrared (NIR) and in the shortwave infrared (SWIR2), as expressed in the following equation:

$$NBR = (NIR - SWIR)/(NIR + SWIR)$$

For S-2A and S-2B products Bands 8A and Band 12 has been used for NIR and SWIR respectively.

⁷ <https://scihub.copernicus.eu/>

⁸ <https://step.esa.int/main/snap-supported-plugins/sen2cor/>

The Relative delta Normalized Burn Ratio (RdNBR) index (Miller and Thode 2007) has been selected to infer burn severity as it provides relative changes using pre-fire NBR.

$$RdNBR = \frac{(prefireNBR - postfireNBR)}{\sqrt{|prefireNBR/1000|}}$$

The CBI (Composite Burn Index) is commonly used to define RdNBR thresholds of unburned, low, moderate and high severity classes and to validate burn severity maps (Key and Benson 2006, Miller and Thode, 2007, Miller et al. 2009). The CBI protocol gives a value which is the result of the average value of the severity detected in the field for different layers of vegetation, from undergrowth to arboreal layer (fig. 6.12).

BI – Long Form		% Burned 100 feet (30 m) diameter from center of plot =						Fuel Photo Series =			
STRATA RATING FACTORS		BURN SEVERITY SCALE							FACTOR SCORES		
		No Effect 0.0	Low 0.5 1.0		Moderate 1.5 2.0		High 2.5 3.0				
A. SUBSTRATES											
% Pre-Fire Cover: Litter =		Duff =		Soil/Rock =		Pre-Fire Depth (inches): Litter =		Duff =		Fuel Bed =	
Litter/Light Fuel Consumed	Unchanged	--	50% litter	--	100% litter	--	>80% light fuel	--	98% Light Fuel		Σ =
Duff	Unchanged	--	Light char	--	50% loss deep char	--	Consumed	--			N =
Medium Fuel, 3-8 in.	Unchanged	--	20% consumed	--	40% consumed	--	>60% loss, deep ch	--			Σ =
Heavy Fuel, > 8 in.	Unchanged	--	10% loss	--	25% loss, deep char	--	>40% loss, deep ch	--			N =
Soil & Rock Cover/Color	Unchanged	--	10% change	--	40% change	--	>80% change	--			Σ =
B. HERBS, LOW SHRUBS AND TREES LESS THAN 3 FEET (1 METER):											
Pre-Fire Cover =		% Enhanced Growth =									
% Foliage Altered (blk-brn)	Unchanged	--	30%	--	80%	--	95%	--	100% + branch loss		Σ =
Frequency % Living	100%	--	90%	--	50%	--	< 20%	--	None		N =
Colonizers	Unchanged	--	Low	--	Moderate	--	High-Low	--	Low to None		Σ =
Spp. Comp. - Rel. Abund.	Unchanged	--	Little change	--	Moderate change	--	High change	--			N =
C. TALL SHRUBS AND TREES 3 TO 16 FEET (1 TO 5 METERS):											
Pre-Fire Cover =		% Enhanced Growth =									
% Foliage Altered (blk-brn)	0%	--	20%	--	60-90%	--	> 95%	--	Signifcant branch loss		Σ =
Frequency % Living	100%	--	90%	--	30%	--	< 15%	--	< 1%		N =
% Change in Cover	Unchanged	--	15%	--	70%	--	90%	--	100%		Σ =
Spp. Comp. - Rel. Abund.	Unchanged	--	Little change	--	Moderate change	--	High Change	--			N =
D. INTERMEDIATE TREES (SUBCANOPY, POLE-SIZED TREES)											
Pre-Fire % Cover =		Pre-Fire Number Living =			Pre-Fire Number Dead =						
% Green (Unaltered)	100%	--	80%	--	40%	--	< 10%	--	None		Σ =
% Black (Torch)	None	--	5-20%	--	60%	--	> 85%	--	100% + branch loss		N =
% Brown (Scorch/Girdle)	None	--	5-20%	--	40-80%	--	< 40 or > 80%	--	None due to torch		Σ =
% Canopy Mortality	None	--	15%	--	60%	--	80%	--	%100		N =
Char Height	None	--	1.5 m	--	2.8 m	--	> 5 m	--			Σ =
Post Fire: %Girdled =		%Felled =			%Tree Mortality =						
E. BIG TREES (UPPER CANOPY, DOMINANT, CODOMNANT TREES)											
Pre-Fire % Cover =		Pre-Fire Number Living =			Pre-Fire Number Dead =						
% Green (Unaltered)	100%	--	95%	--	50%	--	< 10%	--	None		Σ =
% Black (Torch)	None	--	5-10%	--	50%	--	> 80%	--	100% + branch loss		N =
% Brown (Scorch/Girdle)	None	--	5-10%	--	30-70%	--	< 30 or > 70%	--	None due to torch		Σ =
% Canopy Mortality	None	--	10%	--	50%	--	70%	--	%100		N =
Char Height	None	--	1.8 m	--	4 m	--	> 7 m	--			Σ =
Post Fire: %Girdled =		%Felled =			%Tree Mortality =						
Community Notes/Comments:				CBI = Sum of Scores / N Rated:		Sum of Scores		N Rated		CBI	
				Understory (A+B+C)							
				Overstory (D+E)							
				Total Plot (A+B+C+D+E)							

Figure 6.12 – CBI form (Key and Benson, 2006).

In this study, CBI survey results provided by Morresi et al. (2021) have been used in the fire severity initial assessment: a linear regression of 251 CBI scores over the 9 wildfire locations has been applied to predict RdNBR thresholds. The coefficient of determination (R²) associated with the regression model is equal to 0.45. The same dataset of CBI scores has been used to predict RdNBR thresholds in the extended assessment (Morresi et al., 2021) giving an R² equal to 0.89. In table 6-4 RdNBR thresholds determined for the initial and extended assessment are provided.

Table 6-4 – predicted RdNBR thresholds for the burn severity initial assessment (this work) and the extended assessment (Morresi et al., 2021)

Severity Category	CBI score	RdNBR (initial)	RdNBR (extended)
Unburned	0 – 0.1	<220	<100
Low	0.1 – 1.24	221 - 637	101 - 144
Moderate	1.25 – 2.24	638 - 999	145 - 582
High	2.25 – 3.0	>=1000	>=582

6.2.3.2 Catchments characterization

Catchments affected by 2017 wildfires, i.e. falling in the official wildfire perimeters, were extracted from Piedmont catchments database (see par 6.2.2.2); for every catchment different parameters were retrieved based on the available spatial data: derived descriptors and statistics belong to different categories, namely morphometry and hydrology, geology and forestry/land-cover (see Appendix 2).

Morphometry and hydrology

Main morphological descriptors, related to basin geometry and drainage network, have been derived from 5 m DTM with the help of the Esri ArcGis Hydrology toolbox. Stream network has been calculated based on official watersheds shape, Piedmont Fan map and DTM analysis. First, errors such as sinks were eliminated with the “fill” command. After that “flow direction” was calculated for each pixel using the corrected DTM (see Jensen and Domingue 1988 for reference). “Flow accumulation” was calculated from the flow direction raster, resulting in a grid in which every cell value is equal to the cumulated number of cells that flows into it. The stream network was extracted by considering flow accumulation threshold of 1500 cells. Finally, streams were ordered according to Strahler (1957).

For every watershed, based on DTM the following geometric parameters have been collected: area A_w [Km²], perimeter P [Km], Basin length L_b [km], minimum elevation E_{min} [m s.l.m.], maximum elevation

E_{max} [m s.l.m.], mean elevation E_{mea} [m s.l.m.], elevation range E_{ran} [m s.l.m.], minimum slope S_{min} [°], maximum slope S_{max} [°], mean slope S_{mea} [°], slope range S_{ran} [°]. Based on produced stream network the following parameters has been retrieved: main channel length L_p [km], average main channel slope L_pS [°], total streams length L [km].

Other derived indexes were calculated as follows:

- **Fan to watershed area ratio A_f_{Aw}** [-]: $A_f_{Aw} = \frac{A_f}{A}$,

Where A_f is the fan area, derived from the Piedmont fan map (Giampani et al 2013). The size of alluvial fans depends basically on rates of sediment supply, so it expresses the attitude of the basin to mobilize and transport debris material towards the fan (Regione Piemonte, 2012).

- **Form factor Ff** [-] (Horton 1932): $Ff = \frac{A}{Lb^2}$

Form factor is the ratio of the basin area to the square of basin length. Smaller the value of form factor, more elongated is the basin. For circular watershed, the form factor is 1 and for elongated watershed the Ff value is 0. High Ff watersheds usually have high peak flows of shorter duration, while low Ff watersheds have lower peak flow of longer duration.

- **Circularity ratio Rc** [-] (Miller 1953, Strahler 1964): $Rc = \frac{4\pi A}{P^2}$

where $Rc \rightarrow 1$ indicates a round shape;

$0.4 < Rc < 0.5$ describes extremely elongated shapes.

Circularity ratio is the ratio of the basin area (A) to the area of a circle having the same perimeter as the basin. Its value is mainly controlled by geology and structure, relief, slope, climate, stream frequency and length. A value of 0 reflects a highly elongated shape and the value of 1 a circular shape.

- **Elongation ratio Re** [-] (Schumm 1956): $Re = \frac{2\sqrt{A}}{Lb\sqrt{\pi}}$

The elongation ratio is the ratio of diameter of a circle of the same area as the basin to the maximum basin length. Re can be discretized as follow: circular (0.9–0.10), oval (0.8–0.9), less elongated (0.7–0.8), elongated (0.5–0.7), and more elongated (< 0.5).

- **Melton Index Me** [-] (Melton 1965): $Me = (E_{max} - E_{min}) * A^{-0.5}$

Melton index is frequently used to identify watersheds prone to debris-flow. High Me values indicates a debris-flow attitude of the watershed, while low values indicate a predominancy of flash flood and debris flood phenomena (Marchi et al., 2000).

- **Drainage density Dd** [km/km²] (Strahler 1964): $Dd = \frac{L}{A}$

Drainage density is a measure to analyze the length of different streams per unit area, and is obtained by dividing the total stream length by the total watershed area. It is a measure of the texture of the network and indicates the balance between the erosive power of overland flow and the resistance of surface soils and rocks.

- **Time of concentration T_c [h]** (Kirpich, 1940): $T_c = 0.000325Lp^{0.77} * LpS^{-0.385}$

Time of concentration is defined as the time that a drop of rainwater spends to arrive to the basin outlet section starting from the most hydraulically distant point of the basin, or alternatively as the time from the start of the total runoff to the time of the peak discharge of the total runoff (McCuen 2009). It gives a measure of the time needed for the basin response after a rainfall event.

Geology

Watersheds geological characteristics have been derived from the geological map of Piedmont Region (Piana et al 2017), by grouping similar lithological units. Simplified lithological classes are given in table 6-5.

Table 6-5 – simplified lithological classes description.

Legend Class	Description
1	Carbonate Rich Mudstone, Arenite, Limestone, Conglomerate, Siltstone, Claystone, Mudstone
2	Chlorite actinolite epidote metamorphic rock, Amphibolite, Schist
3	fault rocks, breccia
4	gabbro, metagabbro, diorite
5	Hornfels
6	Limestone, Arenite, Carbonate rich mudstone, Impure limestone
7	Marble, dolomite, pure carbonate mudstone
8	Migmatite
9	Rhyolite, Metariolite, Dacite, Orthogneiss
10	Schist, Mica schist, Gneiss, Quartzite
11	Serpentinite, Peridotite, Schist

Forestry/land-cover

Land cover data were produced after integrating Land Cover Piemonte dataset (2010) and Forest Map of the Piedmont Region (2016). Forest Map units were grouped based on CLC code, maintaining a separation between forested areas s.s. and vegetated areas with arboreal coverage below 20%. Areas outside the Forest Map has been classified according to Land Cover Piemonte. Bare soil class has been added (table 6-6, 6-7 and 6-8).

Table 6-6 - forestry and land cover classification and description (part 1)

Group	CLC class	Class name	Description
Urban fabric	112	Discontinuous urban fabric	Areas, substantial part of which are formed mainly by houses, gardens and lawns.
Mine, dump and constructions sites	131	Mineral extraction sites	Areas of quarries
arable land	211	Non-irrigated arable land	Plots of arable land with rare/sporadic occurrence of scattered greenery. This class includes also fallow lands (3-4 years abandoned).
Permanent crop	221	Vineyards	Areas planted with vines
	222	Fruit trees and berry plantations	Areas of fruit orchards (apples, plums, pears, cherries, peaches, apricots, etc.) and ligneous crops (walnut, chestnut, hazel, almond, etc.).
Pastures	231	Pastures	Dense, predominantly graminoid grass cover, of floral composition, not under a rotation system. Mainly used for grazing.
Heterogeneous agricultural areas	242	Complex cultivation patterns	Juxtaposition of small parcels of diverse annual crops, pasture and/or permanent crops (arable land, pasture and orchards each occupy less than 75% of the total surface area of the land unit)
	243	Land principally used for agriculture, with significant areas of natural vegetation	Areas principally used for agriculture, interspersed with significant natural areas (agricultural land occupies between 25 and 75% of the total surface of the land unit)

Table 6-7 - forestry and land cover classification and description (part 2)

Group	CLC class	Class name	Description
Forests	311	Broad-leaved forest	Vegetation formation composed principally of trees, including shrub and bush understories, where broadleaved species predominate.
	311b	Broad-leaved forest <20%	Vegetation formation composed principally of trees, including shrub and bush understories, where broadleaved species predominate (less than 20% cover).
	312	Coniferous forest	Vegetation formation composed principally of trees, including shrub and bush understories, where coniferous species predominate
	312b	Coniferous forest <20%	Vegetation formation composed principally of trees, including shrub and bush understories, where coniferous species predominate (less than 20% cover)
	313	Mixed forest	Vegetation formation composed principally of trees, including shrub and bush understories, where broadleaved and coniferous species co-dominate.
	313b	Mixed forest <20%	Vegetation formation composed principally of trees, including shrub and bush understories, where broadleaved and coniferous species co-dominate (less than 20% cover).

Table 6-8 - forestry and land cover classification and description (part 3).

Group	CLC class	Class name	Description
Scrub and/or herbaceous vegetation associations	3211	Natural grassland prevailing without trees and shrubs	Areas of natural grasslands without trees and shrubs (less than 15%). They are formed by grasslands of protected areas, alpine grasslands, military training area and abandoned low productivity grassland (e.g. karstic poljes meadows, etc.).
	3212	Natural grassland with trees and shrubs	Areas of natural grassland with trees and shrubs (between 15-40%). They are formed by grasslands of protected areas, military training areas, alpine grasslands and abandoned low productivity grassland with trees and shrubs.
	322	Moors and heathland	Vegetation with low and closed cover, dominated by bushes, shrubs and herbaceous plants (heath, briars, broom, gorse, laburnum)
	322b	Moors and heathland <20%	Vegetation with low and closed cover, dominated by bushes, shrubs and herbaceous plants (heath, briars, broom, gorse, laburnum)(Cover less than 20%).
	324	Transitional woodland-shrub	Bushy or herbaceous vegetation with scattered trees. Can represent either woodland degradation or forest Regeneration/colonisation.
Open spaces with little or no vegetation	332	Bare rocks	Scree, cliffs, rocks and outcrops
	333	Sparsely vegetated areas	Includes steppes, tundra and badlands. Scattered high-altitude vegetation
	0	Bare Soil	Bare soil, debris and sediments

6.2.4 Fire-related erodibility model

Fire-related effects on sediment erosion has been assessed implementing, for each watershed, the RUSLE model (Revised Universal Soil Loss Equation – Wischmeier & Smith 1978). The RUSLE empirical model estimates the average annual soil loss caused by surface water erosion through the following equation:

$$A = R * K * L * S * C * P$$

Where A = mean soil loss per year [$\text{Mg ha}^{-1} \text{y}^{-1}$], R = rainfall erosivity factor [$\text{MJ mm h}^{-1} \text{ha}^{-1} \text{y}^{-1}$], K = soil erodibility factor [$\text{Mg MJ}^{-1} \text{mm}^{-1} \text{h}$], LS = topographic factor or slope length factor [dimensionless], C = soil coverage [dimensionless], and P = erosion control practices factor [dimensionless].

The R factor quantifies the mechanical impact energy exerted by a given precipitation, and depends on duration and intensity of the rainfall. Remaining parameters in the equation give a measure of the environmental resistance to erosive phenomena. The K, LS and C factors are assumed to change in areas affected by wildfires as a result of fire effect on soil erodibility, vegetative cover and shift in rill to interrill soil erodibility ratio (Terranova et al. 2009).

It is worth to stress that RUSLE model is intended to quantify soil losses in the long term, so that processes such as gully and channel erosion and sediment transport cannot be modelled. Prediction accuracy for individual storm is very low, as controversial is the application on large spatial scale. Despite this, the model can be used as a solid framework to quantify high-risk erodible areas (Efthimiou et al 2020).

With this regard, the product of K, LS and C factor is used in this work to compare post-fire to pre-fire condition; thus the Erodibility Index EI [$\text{Mg MJ}^{-1} \text{mm}^{-1} \text{h}$] is introduced to describe the erosion susceptibility:

$$EI = C * K * Ls$$

The application of the methodology has been implemented by using both available data (DTM, rainfall erosivity factor, land cover map and soil erodibility factor) and GIS data processing (fig. 6.13).

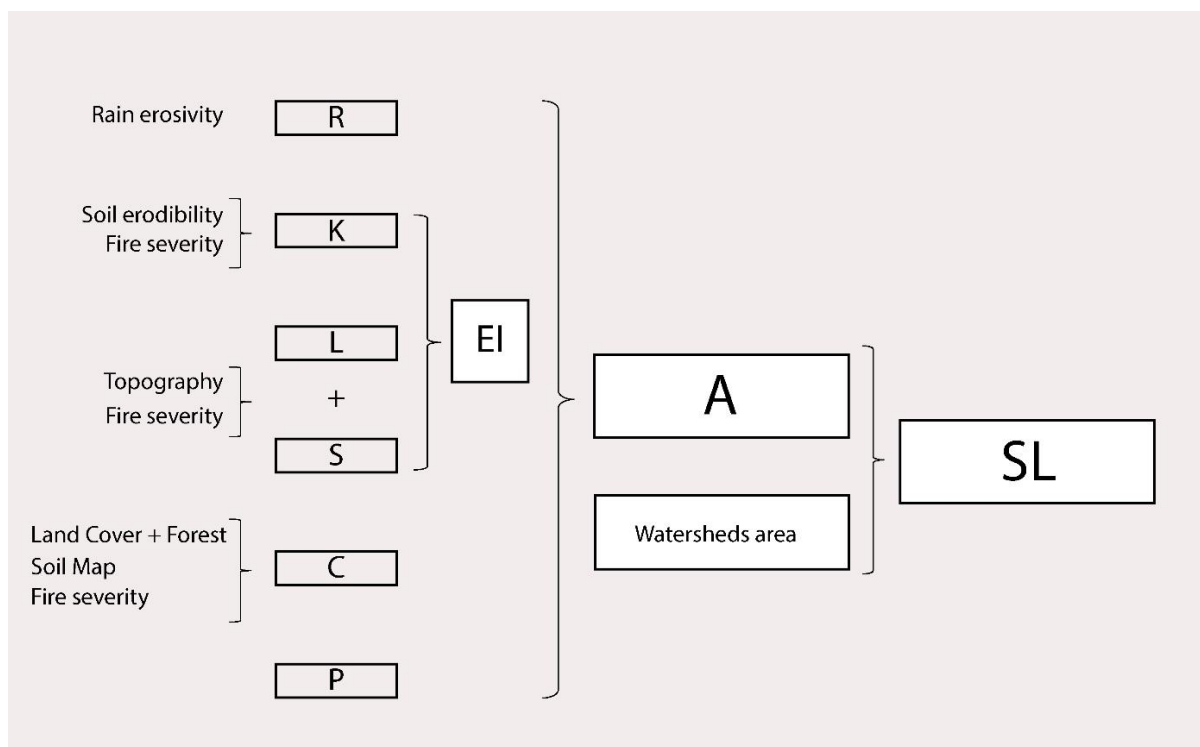


Figure 6.13 - Fire-related erodibility model scheme

The R factor has been taken from Panagos et al. (2015a) and downloaded as 500m resolution raster from ESDAC (European Soil Data Centre) repository⁹.

The K factor has been taken from piedmont erodibility map (IPLA).

The C factor has been assessed based on Forestry/Land Cover Map and by assigning C values according to Panagos et al. (2015b); values used in this work are the mean values of the range proposed by the authors. Tabulated values for each land cover class are given in table 5-9.

Table 6-9 – RUSLE cover factor proposed for each land cover class (after Panagos et al., 2015b)

CLC class	Class name	C-factor values
112	Discontinuous urban fabric	0
131	Mineral extraction sites	0
211	Non-irrigated arable land	0.23
221	Vineyards	0.34
222	Fruit trees and berry plantations	0.1
231	Pastures	0.09
242	Complex cultivation patterns	0.147
243	Land principally used for agriculture, with significant areas of natural vegetation	0.124
311	Broad-leaved forest	0.0013
311b	Broad-leaved forest <20%	0.003
312	Coniferous forest	0.0013
312b	Coniferous forest <20%	0.003
313	Mixed forest	0.0013
313b	Mixed forest <20%	0.003
3211	Natural grassland prevailingly without trees and shrubs	0.04
3212	Natural grassland with trees and shrubs	0.03
322	Moors and heathland	0.055
322b	Moors and heathland	0.055
324	Transitional woodland-shrub	0.024
332	Bare rocks	0
333	Sparsely vegetated areas	0.25
0	Bare Soil	1

⁹ esdac.jrc.ec.europa.eu, European Commission, Joint Research Centre

The LS factor in the original RUSLE model describes the interaction between standard parcel length (L) and slope (S). In this study it is substituted by the unit contributing area Ls, which takes into account the flow convergence (Mitasova et al. 1996, Terranova et al. 2009). Ls is computed for each 5 meters wide DTM cell as follows:

$$Ls = (\mu + 1)(a/a_0)^\mu (\sin b/b_0)^\eta$$

Where a [m]= the upslope contributing area for each cell (result of the ArcGIS “flowacc” and “resolution” functions), b [%]= slope, a₀ [m] = 21.1 m (the standard USLE plot length), b₀ [%] = 9 % (the standard USLE plot slope).

The parameter μ is calculated as a function of β , which is the ratio of rill to interrill erosion (Miller et al. 2003, Foster et al. 2003):

$$\mu = \beta / (1 + \beta)$$

Based on literature, β can be set equal to 0.5 for unburned areas and equal to 1 for high severity burned areas. The parameter η is considered equal to 1.2 following Terranova et al. (2009) and Coschignano et al. (2020). P factor has been considered equal to 1.

6.2.4.1 Pre-fire

Pre-fire mean soil loss per year A_{pre} and Erodibility Index EI_{pre} have been calculated based on the previous equations on a 5 meters resolution raster grid based on DTM cells. Available dataset has been used for R_{pre} and K_{pre} factor, C_{pre} factor has been assigned to each cell and Ls factor has been computed according by setting $\beta=0.5$.

A spatially weighted average of calculated EI_{w_pre} and A_{w_pre} value has been then computed for every watershed affected by 2017 wildfires. Finally, the value of sediment loss SL_{pre} [Mg y⁻¹] for each watershed has been calculated with the following equation:

$$SL_{pre} = A_{pre_w} * A_w$$

Where A_w = watershed area.

6.2.4.2 Post-fire

Post-fire condition has been modeled for both the initial and the extended assessment by calculating mean soil loss per year A_{ini} and A_{ext} and erodibility Index EI_{ini} and EI_{ext} following the before mentioned procedure.

Parameters C_{ini} , C_{ext} , K_{ini} , K_{ext} , LS_{ini} and LS_{ext} has been adjusted as a function of fire severity (unburned, low, moderate or high) following Terranova et al. (2009) and Lanorte et al. (2019) as expressed in table 6-10.

Table 6-10 Adjusted cover factors, erodibility factors and β value (LS factor) for different fire severity classes.

Burn Severity class	C factor	K factor	β value (LS)
Unburned	C_{pre}	K_{pre}	0.5
Low	0.01	$1.6 * K_{pre}$	1
Moderate	0.05	$1.8 * K_{pre}$	1
High	0.2 (1 in grassland)	$2 * K_{pre}$	1

For both the scenarios A and EI values has been subsequently averaged for each watershed following the same pre-fire condition procedure, giving A_{w_ini} , A_{w_ext} , EI_{w_ini} and EI_{w_ext} values.

Finally, SL_{ini} and SL_{ext} [$Mg\ y^{-1}$] has been then calculated repeating the pre-fire procedure.

6.2.4.3 Pre-fire vs post-fire

EI values calculated for the pre-fire situation EI_{w_pre} , for the post-fire initial assessment EI_{w_ini} and for the post-fire extended assessment EI_{w_ext} have been finally compared by calculating their relative ratios:

$$R_{EI\ ini_pre} = \frac{EI_{w_ini}}{EI_{w_pre}}$$

$$R_{EI\ ext_pre} = \frac{EI_{w_ext}}{EI_{w_pre}}$$

$$R_{EI\ ext_ini} = \frac{EI_{w_ext}}{EI_{w_ini}}$$

In an analogous way, A values calculated for the pre-fire situation A_{w_pre} , for the post-fire initial assessment A_{w_ini} and for the post-fire extended assessment A_{w_ext} have been compared by calculating their relative ratios:

$$R_A\ ini_pre = \frac{A_{w_ini}}{A_{w_pre}}$$

$$R_A\ ext_pre = \frac{A_{w_ext}}{A_{w_pre}}$$

6.2.5 Fire-related runoff model

The SCS-CN (SCS-USDA 1986) model (fig. 6.15) is a widely used method for estimating the volume of surface runoff from watersheds with a few applications to burned areas (Leopardi et al. 2015;

Coschignano et al. 2019). The infiltration losses are computed as a function of cumulative precipitation, soil cover, land use and antecedent moisture.

The variable relation is expressed by the following equations:

$$Q = \begin{cases} \frac{(P - I_a)^2}{P - I_a + S} & P > I_a \\ 0 & P \leq I_a \end{cases}$$

where Q [mm]= the accumulated runoff or rainfall excess at given time, P [mm] = rainfall depth, I_a [mm]= initial abstraction or initial loss and S [mm] = potential maximum retention after runoff begins. I_a is highly variable but generally is correlated with soil and land cover parameters. A commonly assumed empirical relationship links I_a and S :

$$I_a = 0.2S$$

The potential maximum retention S is given by:

$$S = \frac{25400}{CN} - 254$$

Where CN is a dimensionless catchment parameter ranging from 30 to 100 and is derived from data reflecting land cover, hydrologic soil group HSG (A, B, C and D) and antecedent soil moisture condition (SCS - USDA 1986). Lower CN values characterize high infiltration rate and reduced runoff depth, while higher CN values are proper of situation in which the infiltration is reduced, and the runoff is increased.

The HSGs are derived from standard SCS soil classifications ranging from A, which belongs to sand and aggregated silts with high infiltration rates, to D, which refers to soils that swell significantly when wet and have low infiltration rates. HSGs characteristics are reported in table 6-11:

Table 6-11 – SCS-CN model hydrologic soil groups description.

HSG	Surface runoff potential	Description
A	Low	Sand, loamy sand or sandy loam types of soils. Low runoff potential and high infiltration rates even when thoroughly wetted
B	Moderately low	Silt loam or loam. Moderate infiltration rate when thoroughly wetted.
C	Moderately high	Sandy clay loam. Low infiltration rates, downward movement impeded
D	High	Clay loam, silty clay loam, sandy clay, silty clay or clay. Very low infiltration rates

Curve Numbers suggested values are tabulated as a function of Cover type, Hydrologic condition and HSGs.

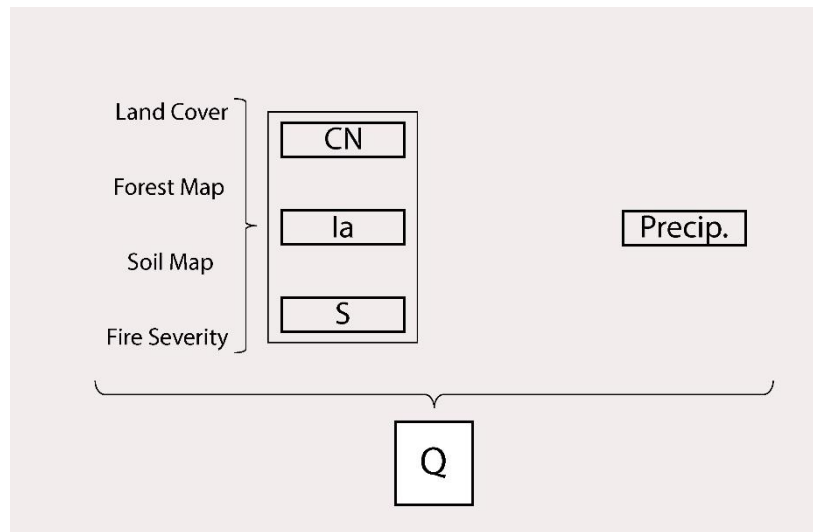


Figure 6.14 - Fire-related runoff model scheme.

In the following figure (fig. 6.15), an example of suggested values for natural environment is reported, while the complete CN table is reported in Appendix 1.

Cover description	Hydrologic condition	Curve numbers for hydrologic soil group			
		A	B	C	D
Pasture, grassland, or range—continuous forage for grazing. ^{2/}	Poor	68	79	86	89
	Fair	49	69	79	84
	Good	39	61	74	80
Meadow—continuous grass, protected from grazing and generally mowed for hay.	—	30	58	71	78
Brush—brush-weed-grass mixture with brush the major element. ^{3/}	Poor	48	67	77	83
	Fair	35	56	70	77
	Good	30 ^{4/}	48	65	73
Woods—grass combination (orchard or tree farm). ^{5/}	Poor	57	73	82	86
	Fair	43	65	76	82
	Good	32	58	72	79
Woods. ^{6/}	Poor	45	66	77	83
	Fair	36	60	73	79
	Good	30 ^{4/}	55	70	77
Farmsteads—buildings, lanes, driveways, and surrounding lots.	—	59	74	82	86

Figure 6.15 – SCS-CN model runoff curve numbers for non-cultivated surfaces (SCS-USDA 1986, see appendix 2 for the complete table).

Values for AMCII condition (moderate soil moisture) is given as the base CN and can be adjusted for taking into account near saturated soil moisture condition (AMCIII) or dry antecedent soil moisture condition (AMCI) (Chow et al. 1988):

$$CN_I = \frac{CN_{II}}{2.334 - 0.01334CN_{II}}$$

$$CN_{III} = \frac{CN_{II}}{0.4036 + 0.059CN_{II}}$$

For catchment characterized by heterogeneous soil types and covers, the resulting Curve Number CN_w can be determined by weighting the sub-areas CN values proportionally to their relative spatial extension by applying the following equation:

$$CN_w = \frac{CN_1A_1 + CN_2A_2 + \dots + CN_iA_i + CN_nA_n}{\sum_{i=1}^n A_i}$$

where CN_i is the CN value of the sub-area i , A is the area of the sub-area i , and n is the total number of sub-areas.

A weighted average of all CN values in a watershed is commonly used to reduce the number of calculations, and brings the assumption that CN values and runoff are linearly related, although this is not true (Grove et al 1998). This can lead to an underestimation of runoff absolute values when a wide range of CN values is found. In this study watersheds are generally small though hydrological condition and fire effects are generally not homogeneous. Despite this, the aim of this study is to evaluate the relative difference in the excess runoff from post-fire conditions with respect to pre-fire situation, so the uncertainty arising from application of the weighted average method seems acceptable beyond the possible drawbacks.

6.2.5.1 Pre-fire

CN values for the watersheds affected by the 2017 wildfires have been computed by combining information from the land cover map and the hydrologic soil group map, which was produced by assigning a particular hydrologic soil group (A, B, C or D) depending on the predominant soil type.

In detail, CN values have been calculated for homogeneous sub-areas, derived from the intersection between land cover polygons and HSG polygons. Appropriate CN values have been assigned to each feature by following SCS-USDA (1986) under the hypothesis of AMCIII condition, simulating the moisture condition reasonably existing after a prolonged rainfall period.

Subsequently, area-weighted CN_{w_pre} values for the 49 watersheds have been computed according to the aforementioned equations.

After that, S_{w_pre} and $I_{a_w_pre}$ values have been calculated leading to the excess runoff values Q for a chosen design 24h precipitation; a 5 year return period 24h rainfall depth for every watershed has been retrieved from Atlante Piogge Intense webGis service (Arpa Piemonte). Precipitation values given for the Gumbel distribution have been selected at the watersheds centroid and assumed to be uniform at the watershed scale. The 24h – 5 year return period rainfall has been chosen to replicate the rainfall event which caused the Bussoleno debris-flow the June 7, 2018. Selected rainfall values are given in the tables 6-12 -- 6-20.

Table 6-12 - Design 24h precipitation for the watersheds affected by the Locana/Ribordone wildfire.

Fire n. 1		LOCANA/RIBORDONE	
WATERSHED ID	WATERSHED NAME	P24h_5A [mm]	
1	Rio Fura	168.6	
2	Rio Di Chioso Bosco	177.6	
3	R. Montepiano	164.9	
4	Carlevaria	175.2	
5	Rio Di Bardonetto Inferiore	175.9	
6	Ribordone	166.7	
7	Eugio	154.1	
8	Rio Bocchetta	172.8	
9	Rio Di Calsazio	173.5	
48	Locana Est	168.2	
49	Apparè	173.2	

Table 6-13 - Design 24h precipitation for the watersheds affected by the Bussoleno/Mompantero wildfire.

Fire n. 2		BUSSOLENO/MOMPANTERO
WATERSHED ID	WATERSHED NAME	P24h_5A [mm]
10	Crosiglione	99.5
11	Rio Della Ravoire	99.1
12	Fogasso	100.3
13	Rio Della Codrea	99.2
14	Trinità	98.1
15	Rio Prebech	111.6
16	Moletta	107.7
17	Rio Di Periere	101.3
18	Ravera	100.3
19	Comba Delle Foglie	102.8
20	Rocciamelone	107.6
21	Giandula	102.4
22	I Piani	98.4
23	San Giuseppe	95.8

Table 6-14 - Design 24h precipitation for the watersheds affected by the Caprie/Rubiana wildfire.

Fire n. 3		CAPRIE/RUBIANA
WATERSHED ID	WATERSHED NAME	P24h_5A [mm]
24	Messa	145.6
25	Sessi	138.7
26	Novaretto	133.2
27	Fra Barbe	136.9

Table 6-15 - Design 24h precipitation for the watersheds affected by the Cumiana/Cantalupa wildfire.

Fire n. 4		CUMIANA/CANTALUPA
WATERSHED ID	WATERSHED NAME	P24h_5A [mm]
28	1*Int. Dx. Sangone	139.8
29	Chisola Torrente	110.9
30	Noce Torrente	120.8
31	Chisola Pianura	104.5

Table 6-16 - Design 24h precipitation for the watersheds affected by the Bellino/Casteldelfino wildfire.

Fire n. 5		BELLINO/CASTELDEFINO
WATERSHED ID	WATERSHED NAME	P24h_5A [mm]
32	Cumbal Della Comu	86.4
33	T. Mas Del Bernard	89.4

Table 6-17 - Design 24h precipitation for the watersheds affected by the Sambuco/Pietraporzio wildfire.

Fire n. 6		SAMBUCO/PIETRAPORZIO
WATERSHED ID	WATERSHED NAME	P24h_5A [mm]
34	R. Bianco	98.3
35	Sn	94.1
36	Rio Di Castello Pietraporzio	96.2

Table 6-18 - Design 24h precipitation for the watersheds affected by the Roure/Perrero wildfire.

Fire n. 7		ROURE/PERRERO
WATERSHED ID	WATERSHED NAME	P24h_5A [mm]
37	V.Ne Di Borsetto	127.4
38	S. Martino Sud	127.7
39	Colet	122.9
40	Molotta	132
41	Gernier	128.1

Table 6-19 - Design 24h precipitation for the watersheds affected by the Traversella wildfire.

Fire n. 8		TRAVERSELLA
WATERSHED ID	WATERSHED NAME	P24h_5A [mm]
42	T.Bersella	158.8
43	Valle Chiara Primo	176.9

Table 6-20 - Design 24h precipitation for the watersheds affected by the Demonte wildfire.

Fire n. 9	DEMONTE	
WATERSHED ID	WATERSHED NAME	P24h_5A [mm]
44	V. Del Saut	110.8
45	Valle Di Monfreis	108.9
46	Sn 2	106
47	Rio Di Prafioret C.	108.7

6.2.5.2 Post-fire

Post-fire condition has been modeled by computing post-fire CN values as a function of fire severity (unburned, low, moderate or high). Empirical relationships reported by Foltz et al. (2009) have been used to adjust pre-fire CN values:

- High burn severity without water repellent soils: $CN_{post} = 91$
- Moderate burn severity without water repellent soils: $CN_{post} = 85$
- Low burn severity: $CN_{post} = CN_{pre} + 5$

Two separate post-fire CN maps have been calculated based on fire severity maps produced for the Initial burn severity assessment and the extended severity assessment respectively. For both the scenarios CN values (CN_{ini} and CN_{ext}) have been subsequently averaged for each watershed following the same pre-fire condition procedure giving the value (CN_{w_ini} and CN_{w_ext}) characteristic of each catchment. S_{w_ini} , S_{w_ext} , $I_{a_w_ini}$, $I_{a_e_ext}$, Q_{w_ini} and Q_{w_ext} have been then calculated repeating the pre-fire procedure.

6.2.5.3 Pre-fire vs post-fire

Excess runoff depth calculated for the pre-fire situation Q_{pre_w} , for the post-fire initial assessment Q_{ini_w} and for the post-fire extended assessment Q_{ext_w} has been finally compared by calculating their relative ratios:

$$R_{Q_{ini_pre}} = \frac{Q_{w_ini}}{Q_{w_pre}}$$

$$R_{Q_{ext_pre}} = \frac{Q_{w_ext}}{Q_{w_pre}}$$

$$R_{Q_{ext_ini}} = \frac{Q_{w_ext}}{Q_{w_ini}}$$

6.3 The Comba delle Foglie Case Study

The Comba delle Foglie watershed is one of the 14 watersheds affected by the 2017 Bussoleno/Mompantero wildfire. The fire burned 4000 ha on the left of the Dora Riparia river, going up the valley from east to west and affecting the slope almost to the divide. It started on October 22, 2017 and lasted until November 1, 2017. The East–West mountain ridge is mainly formed by rock belonging to two tectonic elements: a) the Upper Unit of the Dora Maira Massif (DM) and b) the Lower Piedmont Zone, represented here by the bassa Val di Susa - Valli di Lanzo - Monte Orsiera unit (SU). DM is one of the nappes of the inner Penninic Domain, characterized a pre-Triassic basement (DMb) and its Mesozoic cover (DMc). The SU consists of oceanic units of the Tethys ocean, which overthrust the DM units with different structural elements (Gasco et al. 2011). Micaschists and gneiss of the DMb, calcschists, marbles and dolomitic marbles belonging to DMc characterize the lower part of the Comba delle Foglie while calcschists, serpentinites, serpentinoschists and chloritoschist belonging to SU outcrop in upper part of the catchment (Carraro et al, 2002) (Fig. 6.16)

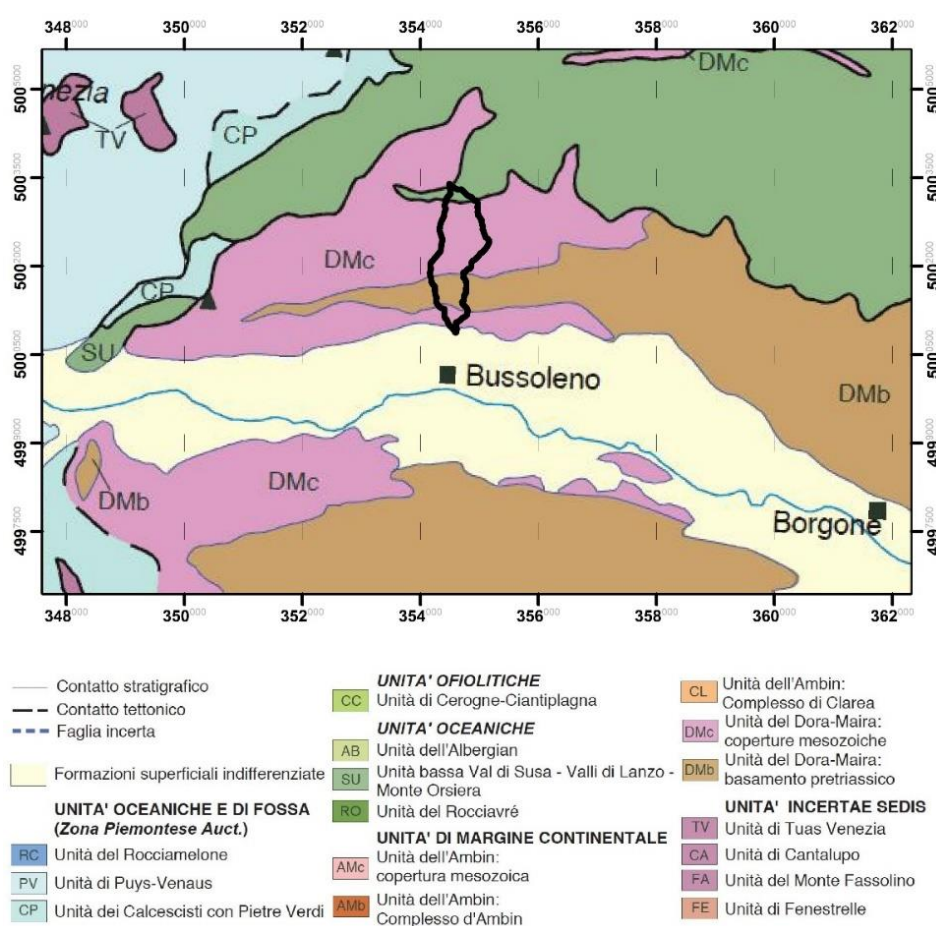


Figure 6.16 – Tectonic scheme of the Susa valley. Solid line represents the Comba delle Foglie perimeter (Modified after Carraro et al, 2002).

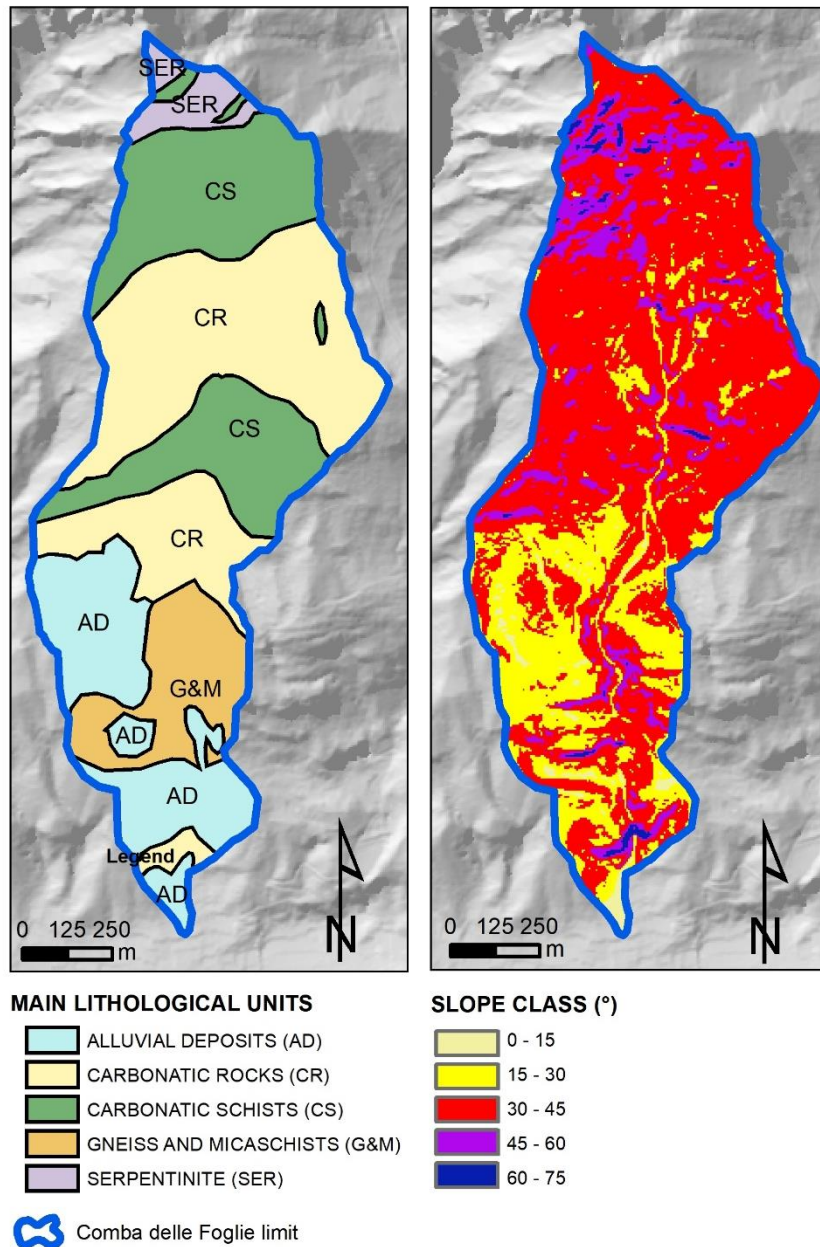


Figure 6.17 – Main lithological units and slope classes characterizing the Comba delle Foglie watershed.

Burn severity map for the 2017 wildfire has been produced according to the explained procedure (par. 6.2.3). The same watershed was burned in 2003: the methodology for assessing burn severity has been applied to Landsat 5 pre (Aug 2003) and post-fire (Sept 2003) 30 m resolution images. Reflectance values has been obtained for L5 by converting the digital numbers (DNs) to top-of-atmosphere (TOA) reflectance ($L\lambda$) and then to surface reflectance by applying the Dark Object Subtraction method applied to Band 4 and 7 respectively. No extended assessment was carried out.

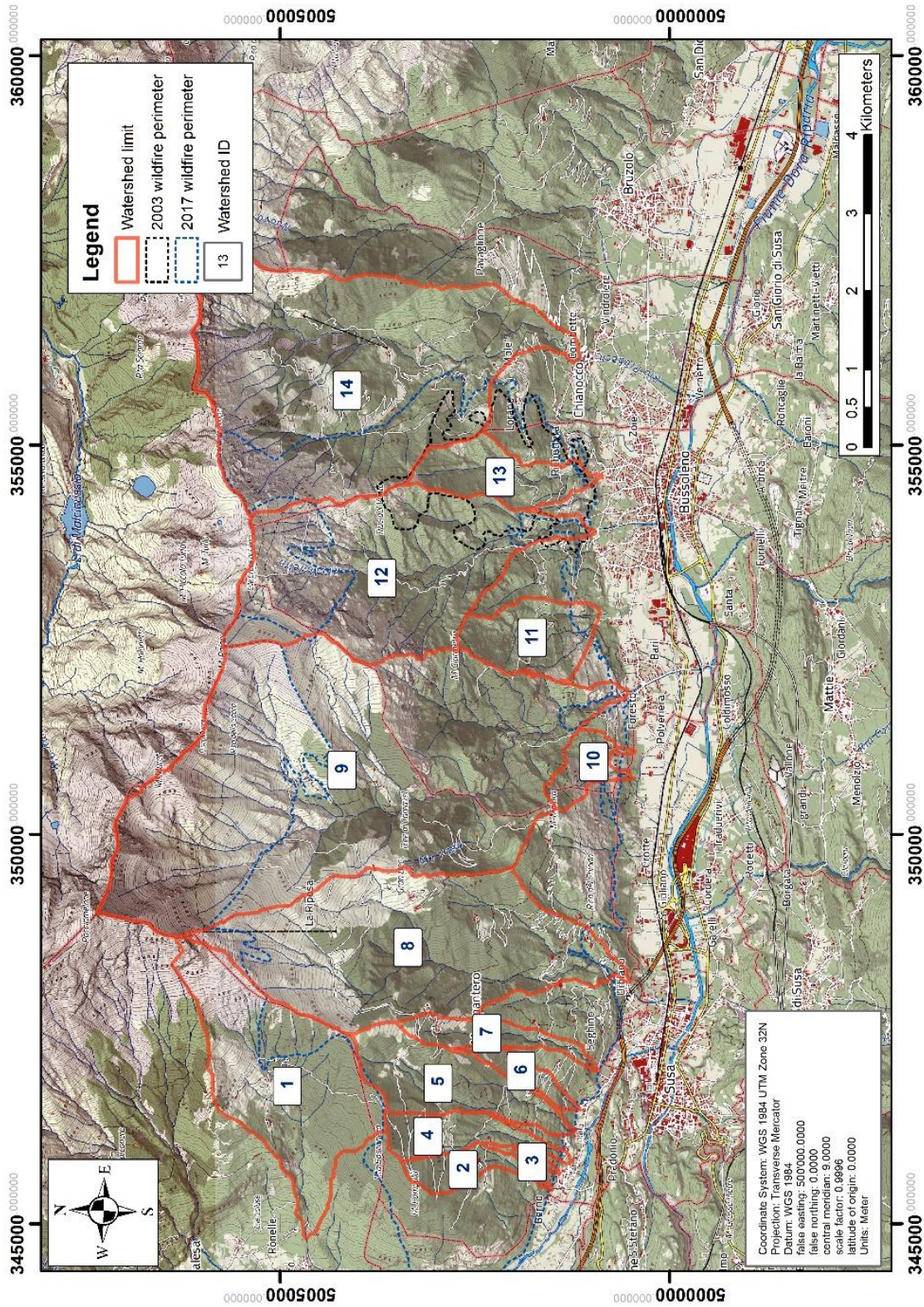


Figure 6.18 – 2003 and 2017 wildfire perimeters over the Bussoleno/Mompantero area. Watersheds perimeter and code is reported.

Starting from the spring of 2018, precipitation in the Piedmont area far exceeded the annual averages (see chapter 5), and many sediment-laden floods and debris-flows were registered.

On April 29, 2018 a debris flow hit the northern portion of Bussoleno municipality, coming from Comba delle Foglie watershed, affecting the fan in several positions and causing damages to roads. Traces of enhanced erosion in the stream path were found, while debris, finer material and floated burn residuals were deposited at the upper portion of the fan.

On May 2, 9 and 13, 2018 minor debris-flow and floods events were recorded, without causing relevant damages. On June 7, 2018 a major debris flow, which caused severe damage to roads, buildings and infrastructures was registered. Up to two meters of mud and debris were deposited at the fan outlet. The event caused the complete destruction of two houses, two others were compromised and structural damage to 12 buildings had to be recorded. Gas, water and electrical energy supply were interrupted, and 150 people were evacuated.



Figure 6.19 – Flow deposits and damages of the June 7 major debris flow at the Comba delle Foglie outlet (Bussoleno).

Rainfall series from four rain gauges (Arpa Piemonte Network) and radar rainfall intensities estimates were collected. The rain gauges of Prarotto, Pietrastretta, Borgone and Usseglio Malciaussia, between 11:30 and 12:30 UTC recorded 0.4mm, 3.2mm, 0.0mm and 0.2 mm respectively. More consistent rainfall values were registered between 15:00 and 18:30 UTC. However, given the distance and the difference in altitude of the

rain gauges with respect to the basin, as well as in light of the thunderstorm nature of the rainfall, the rainfall data from these measurements cannot be considered completely reliable in this occasion.

The rainfall intensity estimated by radar for the June 7 event showed peaks between 60 and 100 mm/h at 12:00 UTC. Then between 12:00 and 12:10 about 10 mm fell with an intensity of 60 mm/h. The cumulated rainfall on the ground relative to the interval 11:55–12:25 was about 15 mm. These quantities correspond to a return period of 5 years (ARPA Piemonte 2018b).

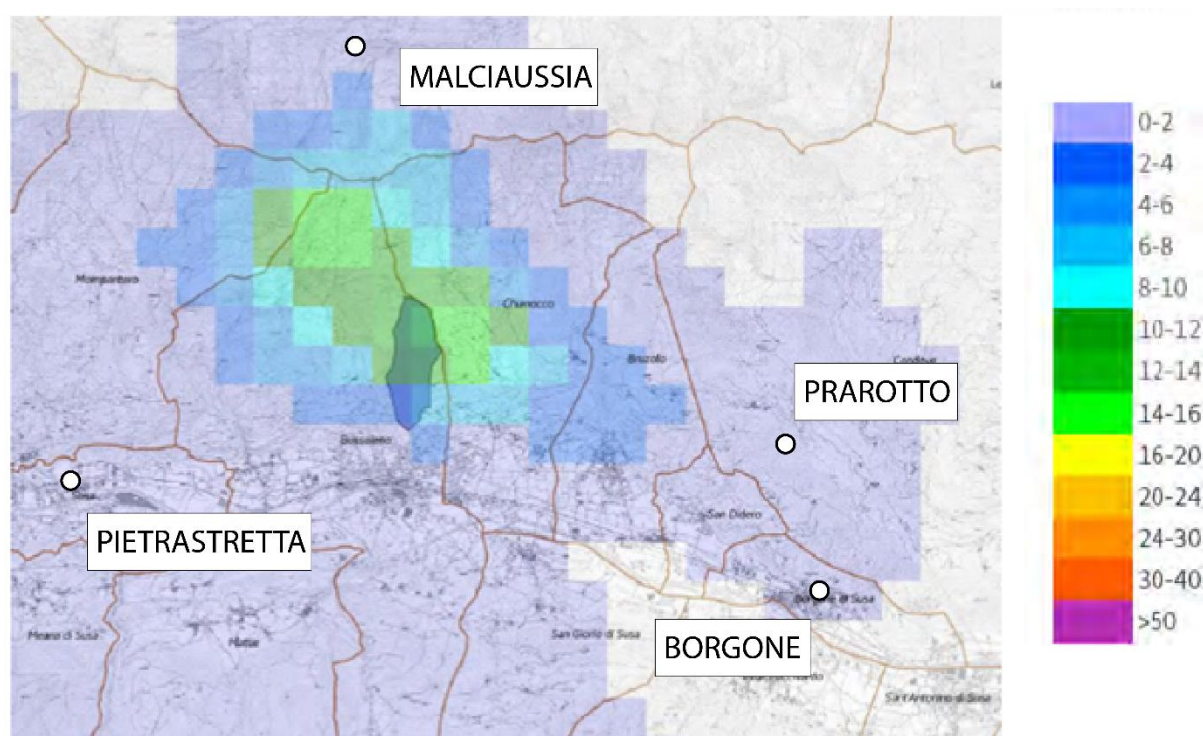


Figure 6.20 – Cumulated rainfall in the 11:55 – 12:25 UTC of the June 7, 2018. The Comba delle Foglie watershed is highlighted (ARPA Piemonte 2018b). Positions Arpa rain gauges are marked with the white dots.

6.3.1 Field surveys and post-fire watershed response

Field surveys have been carried out on May and June 2018, just after the first minor debris and mud-flow events, to quantify and to map the erosional and depositional features, both on open-slope sectors and over the drainage network. An inventory of the evidence of landslides was also done. Surveys have been repeated immediately after the June 7 debris flow, allowing to have a direct comparison and evidence of the pre- and post-event situation. The June 7 debris flow deposits have been sampled for performing grain size distribution analysis in order to compare deposit and soil textural characteristics. Photogrammetric modelling and Gis elaboration have been carried out to reconstruct pre- and post-event digital terrain models of the bottom of the watershed and of the main deposition area. A dataset of UAV images provided by the Provincial Fire Department was used to produce a 25 cm DTM + Ortophoto of the post-

event scenario; the 5m DTM from Piedmont Region has been then used as a comparison for estimating area and volume of the June 7 debris-flow.

6.3.2 Monthly erosion calculation

Sediment erosion has been assessed implementing the RUSLE model at a monthly scale (Revised Universal Soil Loss Equation – Wischmeier & Smith 1978).

The R factor quantify the mechanical impact energy exerted by a given precipitation and depends on duration and intensity of the rainfall. It can be estimated at a monthly scale by calculating the summation of the parameter EI_{30} of every single erosive event k for each considered month.

$$R_{month} = \sum_{k=1}^n EI_{30 k}$$

Following Brown and Foster (1987), EI_{30} for a single rainstorm event is defined as the product of the kinetic energy of rainfall events (E) and its maximum 30-minute intensity (I_{30}):

$$EI_{30} = \left(\sum_{r=1}^m e_r v_r \right) I_{30}$$

where e_r = unit rainfall energy [M ha^{-1} mm^{-1}], v_r = rainfall volume [mm] during the r -th period of a storm which divided into m parts and I_{30} is the maximum 30-minute rainfall intensity [mm h^{-1}]. The unit rainfall energy e_r is calculated for each time interval as eq xx (Brown and Foster, 1987):

$$e_r = 0.29[1 - 0.72e^{(-0.05i_r)}]$$

where i_r is the rainfall intensity during the time interval [mm h^{-1}].

High resolution rainfall data (10 min time resolution) have been downloaded from Arpa Piemonte database (ANTARES) for three rain gauges located in the surrounding of the watershed, namely Prarotto, Borgone and Malciaussia (table 6-21 and fig 6.21). Rainfall series covers a period of time ranging from September 1, 2017 to August 3, 2018 (i.e. a whole year covering the wildfire occurrence and the reference month in which the fire-severity extended assessment has been performed).

Table 6-21 – Location of the three rain gauges of Prarotto, Borgone and Malciaussia.

Name	City	Elevation (m s.l.m.)	WGS84-UTM32N X (m)	WGS84-UTM32N Y (m)	Basin
Prarotto	Condove	1440	361493	5000737	Dora riparia
Borgone	Borgone susa	400	361958	4997582	Dora riparia
Malciaussia	Usseglio	1800	354590	5007700	Stura di lanzo

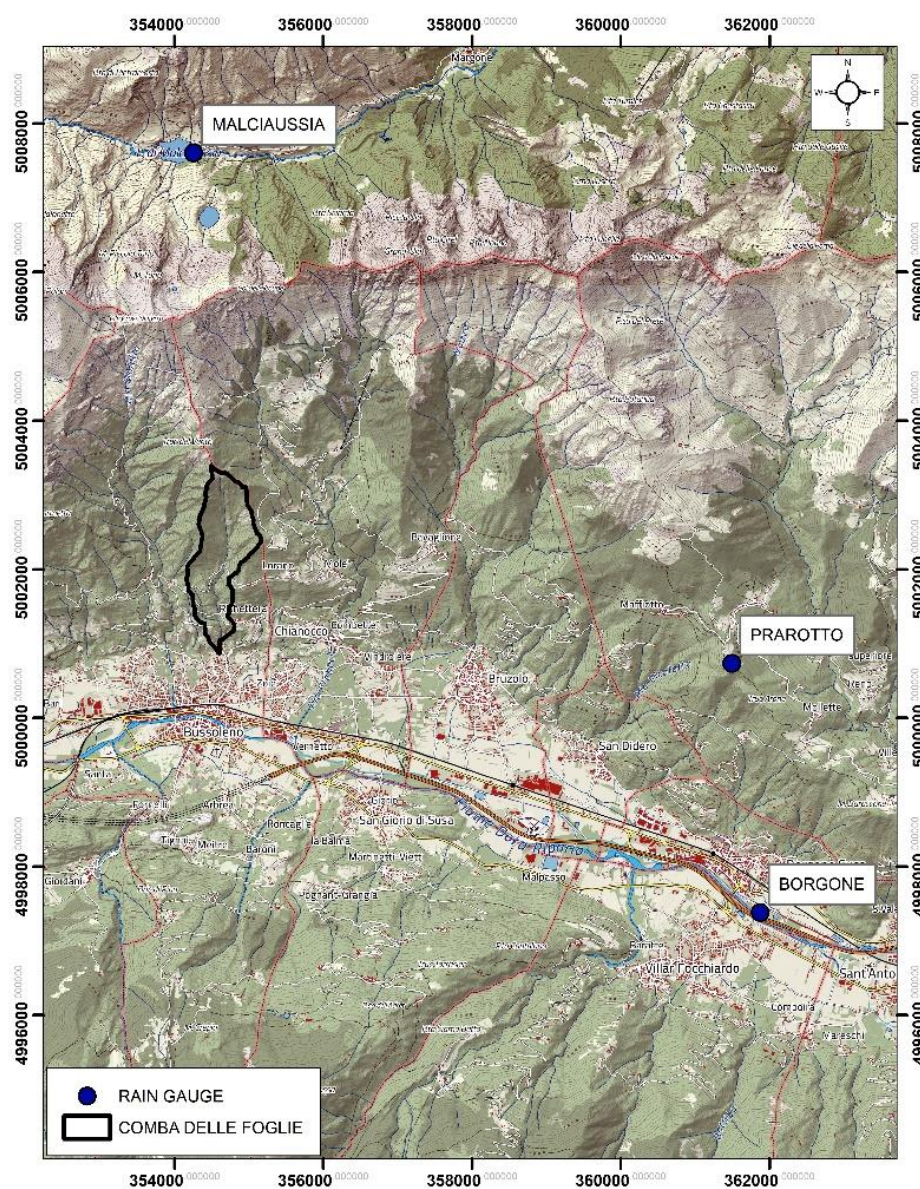


Figure 6.21 - Location of the three rain gauges of Prarotto, Borgone and Malciaussia with respect to the Comba delle Foglie watershed position.

The identification of the erosive rainfall (n) events for each station record followed three criteria given by Renard et al. (1997): the cumulative rainfall of an event is greater than 12.7 mm, or the event has at least one peak that is greater than 6.35 mm during a period of 15 min. Individual storms are separated if a rainfall accumulation is less than 1.27 mm during a period of 6 hours. Those criteria have been developed for the USA countries, but are widely accepted also in other areas (Panagos et al., 2015a)

The Rainfall Intensity Summarisation Tool (RIST) software (USDA, 2014) has been used to calculate the R-factor based on the single station annual series. After that, the single monthly R factors has been averaged for applying the RUSLE method at the watershed scale. Results have been compared with average monthly rainfall erosivity calculated at European scale analyzing >17 years of rainfall data by Ballabio et al (2017) and downloaded from ESDAC repository¹⁰.

The remaining parameters in the equation give a measure of the environmental resistance to erosive phenomena.

The erodibility K factor has been determined based on soil textural data. Homogeneous lithological units have been individuated by grouping the geological units derived from 1:50000 geological map (Carraro et al., 2002). Soil samples have been then collected (fig 6.22) and processed in laboratory for determining grain size distribution following standard ASTM procedures. Afterwards, the K factor for each unit has been then calculated based on the following formulae (Renard et al. 1997):

$$K = 0.0034 + 0.0405 * \exp \left[-0.5 \left(\frac{\log D_g + 1.659}{0.7101} \right)^2 \right]$$

$$D_g = \exp \left[\sum f_i \ln \left(\frac{d_i + d_{i-1}}{2} \right) \right]$$

where D_g = geometric mean particle size for each particle size class (clay, silt, sand), d_i = maximum diameter (mm), d_{i-1} = minimum diameter and f_i is the corresponding mass fraction.

LS and C factors have been calculated as described in Par 6.2.4; P value was set to 1.

¹⁰ European Soil Data Centre (ESDAC), esdac.jrc.ec.europa.eu, European Commission, Joint Research Centre

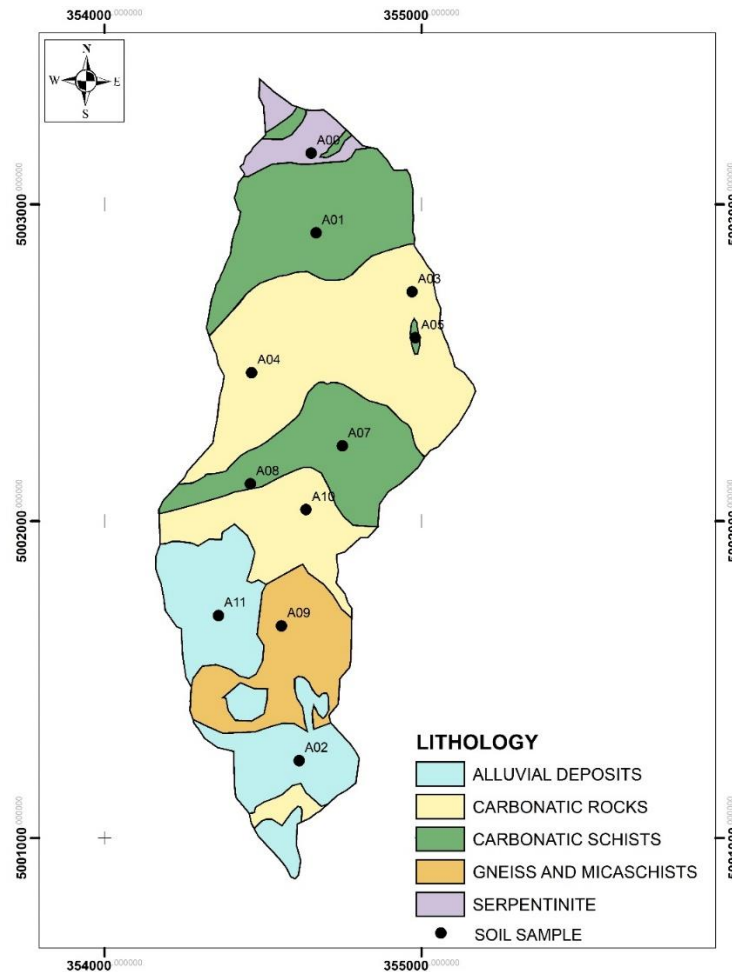


Figure 6.22 – Location of the soil sampling points in the Comba delle Foglie watersheds.

6.3.3 Peak discharge calculation

The SCS-CN (SCS-USDA 1986) Graphical Peak Discharge method has been applied for computing peak discharge for pre-fire and post-fire conditions (initial and extended assessment). The peak discharge is calculated as:

$$q_p = q_u A Q F_p$$

where q_p = peak discharge [cfs], q_u = unit peak discharge [csm/in], A = drainage area [mi^2], Q = excess runoff [in] and F_p = pond and swamp adjustment factor [-]

The input required for the Graphical method are the time of concentration T_c [hr], the drainage area A [mi^2], the rainfall distribution, the 24-hour rainfall [in], and the watershed CN [-].

CN and excess runoff (Q) for the watershed have been computed according to the methods outlined in par 6.2.5. The watershed CN has been used to determine the initial abstraction (I_a), and then the I_a/P ratio. The obtained value is used for calculating the unit peak discharge as given in following equation:

$$\log(q_u) = c_0 + c_1 \log(T_c) + c_2 [\log(T_c)]^2$$

In which C₀, C₁ and C₂ are coefficient which depends on rainfall distribution and I_a/P ratio (fig. 6.23).

Rainfall type	I _a /P	C ₀	C ₁	C ₂
I	0.10	2.30550	-0.51429	-0.11750
	0.20	2.23537	-0.50387	-0.08929
	0.25	2.18219	-0.48488	-0.06589
	0.30	2.10624	-0.45695	-0.02835
	0.35	2.00303	-0.40769	0.01983
	0.40	1.87733	-0.32274	0.05754
	0.45	1.76312	-0.15644	0.00453
	0.50	1.67889	-0.06930	0.0

Figure 6.23 – Tabulated C₀, C₁ and C₂ coefficient for a given I_a/P value in case of type I rainfall (SCS-USDA 1986).

For the Comba delle Foglie watershed the peak discharge q_p has been calculated as in equation for the pre-fire (q_{p_pre}) and post-fire conditions (q_{p_ini} and q_{p_ext}) as follows:

$$q_{p_pre} = q_{u_pre} * A * Q_{pre_w} * F_p$$

$$q_{p_ini} = q_{u_ini} * A * Q_{ini_w} * F_p$$

$$q_{p_ext} = q_{u_ext} * A * Q_{ext_w} * F_p$$

6.4 Field tests

Experimental tests of controlled burning, simulating a small-scale fire, have been conducted by igniting a known amount of fuel on top of a selected soil. The purpose of the small-scale tests is to evaluate the relationships between the combustion of biomass on the ground and the transfer of heat in the subsoil. In fact, most of the physico-chemical modifications occurring in the soil depend on the temperature gradient and on its temporal duration.

The quantity of energy released by combustion depends on the type of fire (crown vs surface vs ground fires), the type and amount of fuel and the quantity of organic matter in the soil. The heat transfer in the

subsoil depends on the maximum combustion temperature, its duration and the thermophysical characteristics of the geological materials within which the heat pulse propagates (thermal conductivity, volumetric heat capacity, temperature, moisture ...). Of these, the most important physical quantity is thermal conductivity: it defines the ability of a material to transfer heat, corresponding to the amount of heat transferred from a body per unit area. Mathematically, it is expressed by the Fourier's Law of thermal conduction defined using the formula below.

$$q = -\lambda \frac{\delta T}{\delta X}$$

where q is the heat flow in the direction of X , and T is the temperature. The coefficient of proportionality δ is the thermal conductivity (Pasquale et al 2015).

The effective thermal conductivity of soil depends on degree of saturation, grain size, porosity, mineral content, and organic content. In fact, in a heterogeneous and multiphase granular medium it is linked to the thermal conductivity of the single phases that make up the material, that is the conductivity of the grains and intergranular fluids (water and air). As a result, the effective thermal conductivity of the soil components varies across two orders of magnitude: typical ranges for mineral quartz, water, and dry air are respectively 6.15–11.3, 0.58 (at 20° C), and 0.024 W m⁻¹ K⁻¹ (at 20° C) (Clauser and Huenges 1995, Bristow 1998). The effective thermal conductivity decreases with decreasing grain size, the reduction being more significant for fine grained materials (Midttømme and Roaldset 1998). On contrary, it increases with a decrease in porosity due to a greater fraction of soil material. Also, thermal conductivity decreases with an increase in organic matter content. In addition, effective thermal conductivity shows a nonlinear dependence with temperature: according to Campbell et al. (1994) thermal conductivity of moist soil can be 3 to 5 times greater at 90° C than ambient value, while temperature has a more limited effect on dry soils.

What is commonly seen is that - although heat in moist soil is transported faster and penetrates deeper than in dry soils - the latent heat of vaporization prevents soil temperature from exceeding 95° C until water completely vaporizes; once this threshold is passed, the temperature then typically rises to 200-300° C, or more if heavy fuels are present (Tecele and Neary 2015).

All the fires studied occurred in alpine and pre-alpine areas, on slopes where there are little evolved soils, poor in organic matter, and generally on steep slopes which favor erosive dynamics and scarce accumulation of nutrients. The average grain-size of these soils is generally coarse and the porosity is high; moreover, fires generally started after prolonged dry and windy periods, so it can be assumed with reasonable confidence that the humidity level of the soils in the first horizons was also very low. In fact, the thermal conductivity measures in the summer season, reported in par 7.2.1, shows extremely low

values, with an average of 0.488 W/mK and 0.734 W/mK for the Bussoleno and Mompantero areas, respectively.

The fires have been conducted in the field on a 0.4 x 0.4 m natural soil test area (fig. 6.24) varying the amount of fuel disposed on top of it; the soil is constituted by a sand with gravel and silt (Gravel = 18.28%; Sand = 63.22%; Silt = 17.88%; Clay = 0.62%), with a porosity of 0.58, average saturation of 0.61 and an average apparent density of 1.46 kg/m³.

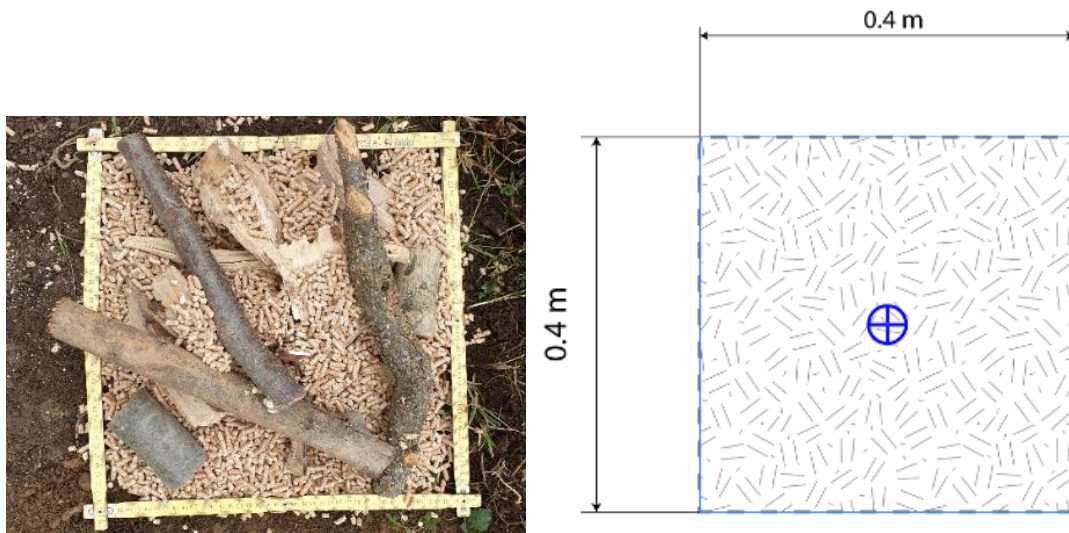


Figure 6.24 – Picture and planimetric view of the simulated fire setup. The blue cross indicates the vertical projection of the thermocouples position.

Thermal conductivity of the soil before each experiment has been measured by using the K2DPro instrument, which is a thermal property analyzer developed by Decagon Devices, compliant to standards ASTM D5334 and IEEE 442. It relies on Transient Line Heat Source methods (Carslaw and Jaeger, 1959 and Kluitenberg et al. 1993) to analyze measurements made during a heating and a cooling interval.

The dual needle SH-1 sensor (1.3 mm diameter x 3 cm long, 6 mm spacing) has been used as it is suitable for solid and granular soils and allows to measure volumetric specific heat, diffusivity, thermal conductivity, and thermal resistivity (accuracy $\pm 10\%$). Measurement ranges are reported in the following table:

Table 6-22 – KD2PRO measurement parameters and ranges.

Parameter	Range	Unit
Thermal conductivity	0.02 to 2.00	W m ⁻¹ K ⁻¹
Thermal resistivity	50 to 5,000	°C cm W ⁻¹
Diffusivity	0.1 to 1.0	mm ² s ⁻¹
Volumetric heat capacity	0.5 to 4.0	J m ⁻³ k ⁻¹

For the measure, heat is applied to the heated needle for a set time and temperature is measured in the monitoring needle, both during the heating the cooling period. Temperature readings are corrected for ambient temperature and sensor geometrical setup through the equation:

$$T^* = \frac{4\pi(T - T_0)}{q}$$

Then, the resulting data are fitted to the following equations using a non-linear least square procedure (Marquardt, 1963):

$$T^* = b_0 t + b_1 Ei\left(\frac{b_2}{t}\right)$$

$$T^* = b_0 t + b_1 \left\{ Ei\left(\frac{b_2}{t}\right) - Ei\left[\frac{b_2}{t - t_h}\right] \right\}$$

In which Ei is the exponential integral (Abramowitz and Stegun, 1972), b_0 , b_1 and b_2 are the constants to be fit, T_0 is the temperature at the start of the measurement and q is the heat input. Thermal conductivity and diffusivity are then computed through the following equations:

$$\lambda = \frac{1}{b_1}; \quad D = \frac{r^2}{4b_2}; \quad r = \frac{1}{\lambda}; \quad Cv = \frac{\lambda}{D}$$

The fuel used in the experiment is composed by dry beech wood pellets with a calorific power of 4.5 KWh/kg and dry beech wooden sticks with a calorific power of 4.0 KWh/kg. Before each experiment, a precise quantity of fuel (either pellets or a pellets-wood mixture) has been weighted, then distributed over the soil surface after grass removal. The fires have been ignited in different position of the fuel layer with the aim of firefighters tablet.

Three experiments have been conducted with a fuel load of 9.37 kg/m², 21.87 kg/m² (approximately equivalent to mean dry mass of litter sampled in the Mompantero area, \approx 18 kg/m²) and 28.12 kg/m², respectively.

Six type K thermocouple (flexible type, 2 mm diameter, Special class, MgO coating, range: 0 – 1100 °C; Resolution = 0.1 °C) have been placed to record the temperature data: a thermocouples recorded the air temperature just above the fuel layer, one has been placed on the ground-fuel interface and four thermocouples has been inserted horizontally into the soil to provide measurements of temperature changes with time along a vertical axis at varying soil depth (-2, -4, -6 and -8 cm) (fig. 6.25). All the thermocouples have been connected to a data logger (Omega OM-HL-EH-TC) and measurement has been made with a 5 second time step starting from the ignition time and lasting for about 5 hours.

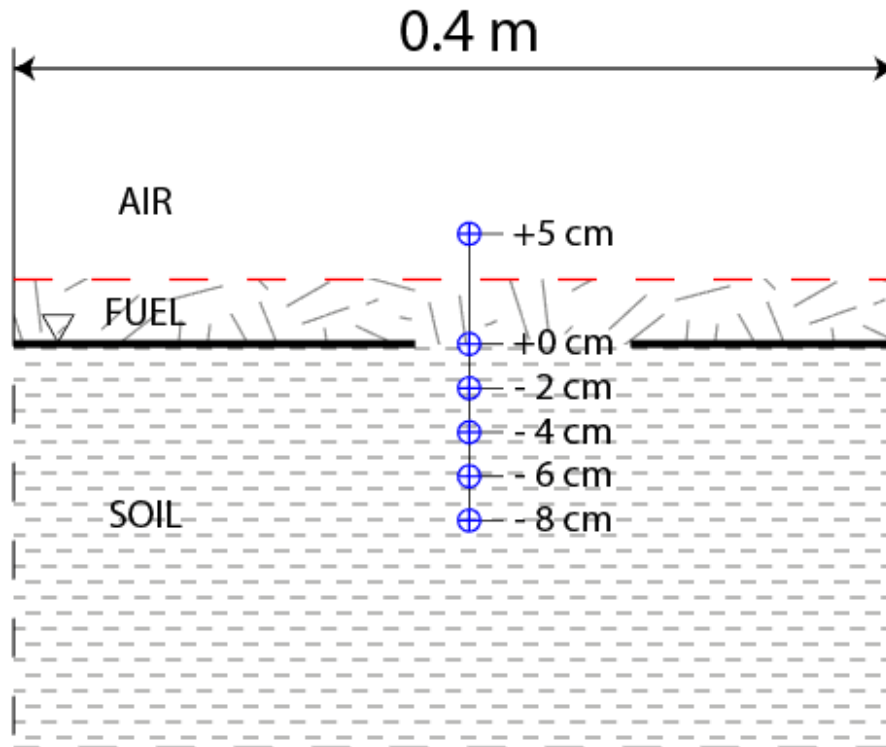


Figure 6.25 – Vertical cross section of the simulated fire setup. The blue crosses represent the horizontal projection of the six thermocouples.

Experiments have been conducted in October and November 2020, the air temperature varying between 10° C and 25° C. Initial temperatures of the fuel and soil before the fires therefore differed from one experiment to another. The complete combustion of the fuel has been reached after each experiment.

The experiment no. 2 (fuel load = 21.87 kg/m²) has been modelled in back analysis for deepening the comprehension of the heat propagation in the subsoil. A full 3D meshed model has been implemented in the software FeFlow (DHI), consisting in a finite simulation domain (0.5 m x 0.5 m x 0.213 m) subdivided in slices at progressive depths as reported in fig. 6.26. The simulating domain is considered homogeneous (monophase, porosity = 0) and characterized by a volumetric heat capacity equal to 2.5 MJ m⁻³ k⁻¹.

The uppermost layer simulates the heat source, and its temperature follows the heating curve of the thermocouple placed at the soil surface in the physical experiment. The layer 2 and 3 are characterized by a time dependent thermal conductivity value, which has been retrieved through a trial and error procedure to fit the experimental data. All the others layers are characterized by a constant thermal conductivity value, set to 1.6 W m⁻¹ k⁻¹. The bottom boundary conditions express a constant temperature value equal to 14° C.

The temperature profile at progressive time steps is evaluated by logging data in correspondence of six control point positioned at the same experimental thermocouples depth (0, -2, -4, -6, -8, -10 cm respectively).

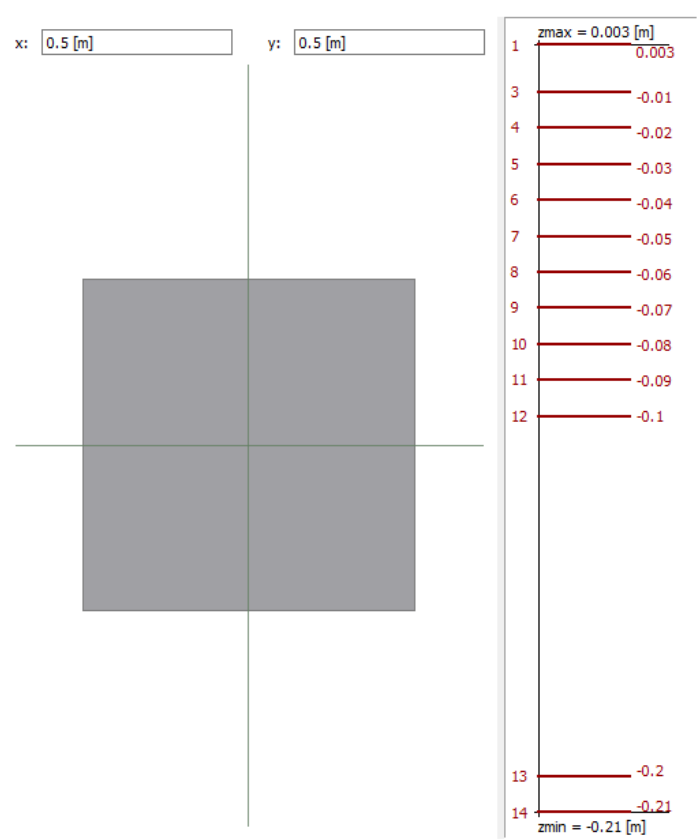


Figure 6.26 – geometrical parameters of the FEFLOW 3D model.

7 Results

In the following sections the research results are presented: in section 7.1 the evidences of the regional study on the historical series of fires and landslides analysis are presented, while the paragraph 7.2 is focused on the study of the nine wildfires occurred in 2017. In particular the results of the field surveys (7.2.1), the fire severity assessment (7.2.2), the watershed characterization (7.2.3) and the erosion and runoff models outcomes (7.2.4 and 7.2.5) are given. In section 7.3 the results of the Comba delle Foglie case study are presented, and finally section 7.4 is dedicated to the report of the field test outcomes.

7.1 Regional Scale landslide-wildfires correlation

Comparing the fire perimeter dataset and the landslide database 7 occurrences have been found having a spatial relationship matching the required criteria (figg 7.1 and 7.2). Unfortunately, no further detail has been found for the majority of the gravity-related events. Only for the Pallanzeno debris-flow some key information have been derived from an event report (Arpa Piemonte, 2005); the report describes the characteristics of a multiple flow event having an estimated volume of 4000 m³, originating from the Rio Casella watershed (1.2 Km²). Two primary pulses have been recognized in the field (the first classified as a non-cohesive sediment gravity flow, the second as a cohesive sediment gravity flow) in response to a minor rainfall event (15.8 mm in 30 minutes, two years return period). The event triggering has been attributed to the enhanced runoff coming from the surrounding slopes, interested in the month of March 2005 by a large wildfire. In the report, some minor events, due to enhanced erosion of burned biomass and topsoil, are reported to have taken place since March during different rainfall events.

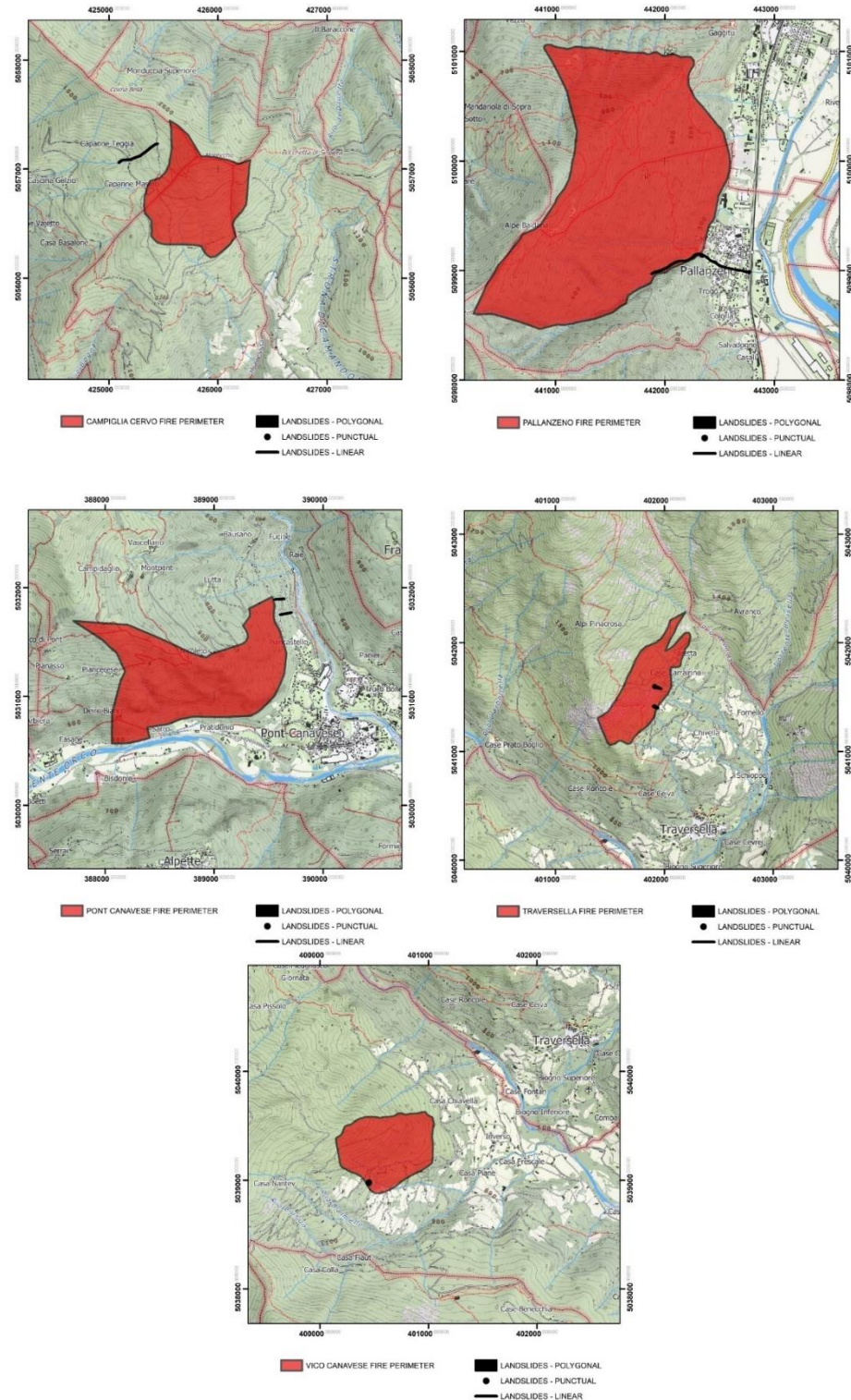


Figure 7.1 – post-fire landslides positions compared to fire perimeter for the Campiglia Cervo, Pallanzeno, Pont Canavese, Traversella and Vico Canavese wildfires.

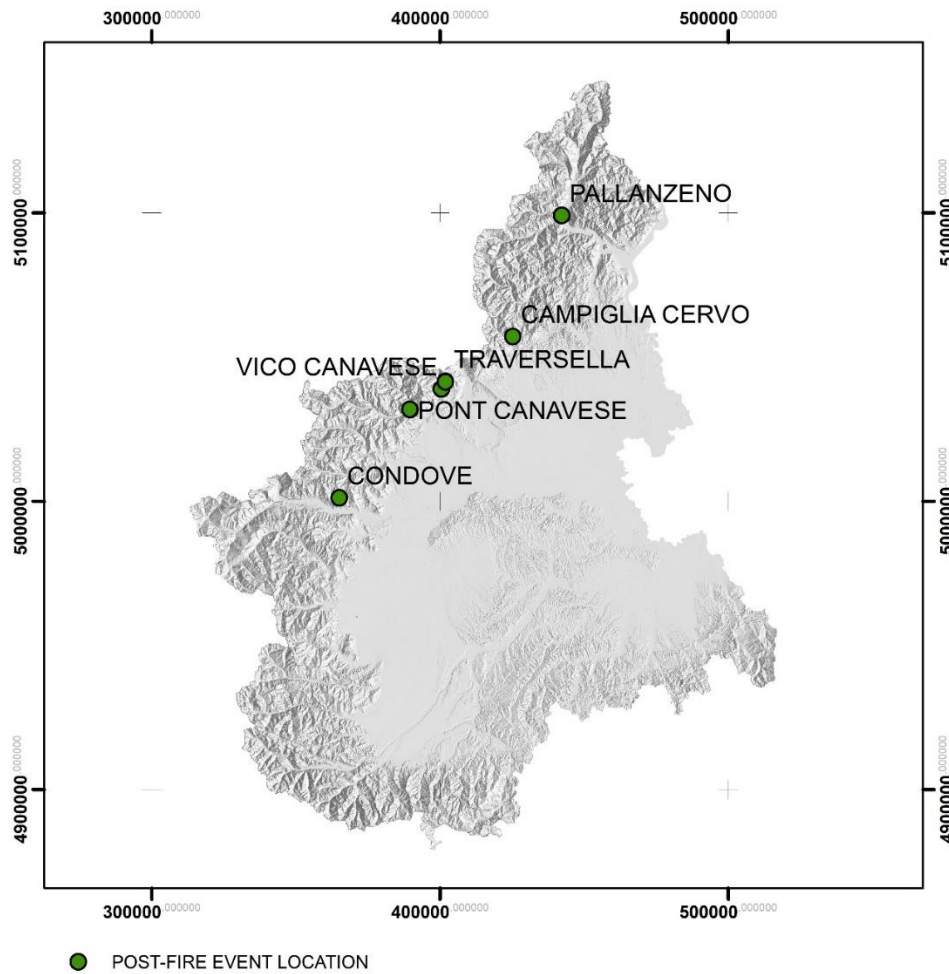


Figure 7.2 – post-fire landslides location.

7.2 Watershed scale

The following tables recall the names and numbers of the analyzed watersheds, divided for the nine wildfires areas. The results reported in the following sub-paragraphs refer to this classification system.

Table 7-1 - watersheds affected by the Locana/Ribordone wildfire.

Fire no. 1	LOCANA/RIBORDONE
WATERSHED ID	WATERSHED NAME
1	Rio Fura
2	Rio Di Chioso Bosco
3	R. Montepiano
4	Carlevaria
5	Rio Di Bardonetto Inferiore
6	Ribordone
7	Eugio
8	Rio Bocchetta
9	Rio Di Calsazio
48	Locana Est
49	Apparè

Table 7-2 - watersheds affected by the Bussoleno/Mompalero wildfire.

Fire no. 2	BUSSOLENO/MOMPALERO
WATERSHED ID	WATERSHED NAME
10	Crosiglione
11	Rio Della Ravoire
12	Fogasso
13	Rio Della Codrea
14	Trinità
15	Rio Prebech
16	Moletta
17	Rio Di Periere
18	Ravera
19	Comba Delle Foglie
20	Rocciamelone
21	Giandula
22	I Piani
23	San Giuseppe

Table 7-3 - watersheds affected by the Caprie/Rubiana wildfire.

Fire no. 3	CAPRIE/RUBIANA
WATERSHED ID	WATERSHED NAME
24	Messa
25	Sessi
26	Novaretto
27	Fra Barbe

Table 7-4 - watersheds affected by the Cumiana/Cantalupa wildfire.

Fire no. 4	CUMIANA/CANTALUPA
WATERSHED ID	WATERSHED NAME
28	1*Int. Dx. Sangone
29	Chisola Torrente
30	Noce Torrente
31	Chisola Pianura

Table 7-5 - watersheds affected by the Bellino/Casteldelfino wildfire.

Fire no. 5	BELLINO/CASTELDELFINO
WATERSHED ID	WATERSHED NAME
32	Cumbal Della Comu
33	T. Mas Del Bernard

Table 7-6 - watersheds affected by the Sambuco/Pietraporzio wildfire.

Fire no. 6	SAMBUCO/PIETRAPORZIO
WATERSHED ID	WATERSHED NAME
34	R. Bianco
35	Sn
36	Rio Di Castello Pietraporzio

Table 7-7 - watersheds affected by the Roure/Perrero wildfire.

Fire no. 7	ROURE/PERRERO
WATERSHED ID	WATERSHED NAME
37	V.Ne Di Borsetto
38	S. Martino Sud
39	Colet
40	Molotta
41	Gernier

Table 7-8 - watersheds affected by the Traversella wildfire.

Fire no. 8	TRAVERSELLA
WATERSHED ID	WATERSHED NAME
42	T.Bersella
43	Valle Chiara Primo

Table 7-9 - watersheds affected by the Demonte wildfire.

Fire no. 9	DEMONTE
WATERSHED ID	WATERSHED NAME
44	V. Del Saut
45	Valle Di Monfreis
46	Sn 2
47	Rio Di Prafioret C.

7.2.1 On site surveys

The burned areas characteristics surveyed on the field showed a high spatial variability between the nine different fire locations, and within the same fire as well; this can be related to different fire behaviour and intensity, due to different vegetation coverage, soil moisture, topography and wind conditions. In addition, in some areas such as the Comba delle Foglie watershed the 2017 fire affected an area already severely burned in the past. This resulted in a patched distribution of the fire impacts and, as a consequence, in the modifications on the ability to withstand weather forcing and cope with enhanced erosional and depositional dynamics.

The major effects from a hydrogeological perspective have been found in the area of the Bussoleno/Mompantero fire, affected extensively by medium or high burn severity especially on Scots Pine forests. Two sectors showed the most evident signs of post-fire geomorphic dynamics, the Comba delle Foglie watershed and the slope overhanging the Mompantero village. In the first, from which the most severe debris-mud flows originated, extensive phenomena of areal and channelled erosion has been observed, especially in the upper part of the catchment. Traces of the flows transit, such as scour, levee and typical debris flow deposits have been found along the main channel down to the valley outlet. Paragraph 7.3 is dedicated to the detailed discussion of these phenomena.

The Mompantero area showed the most striking effects on the arboreal cover. Large areas of coniferous forest revealed an almost total plant mortality and complete biomass consumption from the ground level to the crown of the trees. On open slopes, evident signs of an extensive erosive dynamic (exerted by rills and gullies) associated with an emphasized stream network re-organization has been found in the upper portion of the slope. Proceeding downvalley significant evidence of transport and deposition processes of material along the drainage axes has been surveyed, even if not comparable to the Comba delle Foglie events in term of volumes. Sediment and combusted material deposits have been found obstructing road crossing and mantling road routes, and some minor events reached the valley bottom in a few occasions.



Figure 7.3 – Enhanced erosion evidences in the Mompantero coniferous forest (left); sediment, ash and combustion residues in the Mompantero stream network (right).

The Locana/Ribordone fire, the second largest among those studied, is characterized for about 30% by high or medium burn severity. In the burned area no evident signs of areal erosion have been detected; however, with the spring rainfall season, a series of debris/mud-flows originating from high fire severity sectors were observed. It should be emphasized that the area is historically susceptible to landslide and instability, and the post-fire erosive dynamics may have worsened an already critical situation.

In all the remaining fire locations (Roure/Perrero, Traversella, Cumiana/Cantalupa, Caprie/Rubiana, Bellino/Casteldelfino, Demonte and Sambuco/Pietraporzio) an overall minor fire severity has been detected, and the areas of high and medium severity revealed a minor spatial continuity. No significant erosion or instability phenomena has been found, although in some cases there have been individual falls of rocks mobilized after the fall of the trees to which they were leaning before the fire.



Figure 7.4 – a large boulder leaning against a tree trunk in the Cantalupa area.

Some expeditious investigations have been carried out on the site of the Bussoleno/Mompantero fire. Water Drop Penetration Time tests have been conducted in the areas with the greatest fire severity, revealing an extreme spatial heterogeneity of results, although sometimes a weak hydrophobicity was found in the first soil horizon. Furthermore, distributed measurements of thermal conductivity of the superficial soil horizon were carried out, in order to estimate the rate of heat transmission at depth (fig. 7.5, table 7-10 and 7-11). Measurements were taken with KD2Pro Thermal Property Analyzer (Decagon Devices) which uses a proprietary algorithm to fit time and temperature data with exponential integral functions using a non-linear least-squares method.

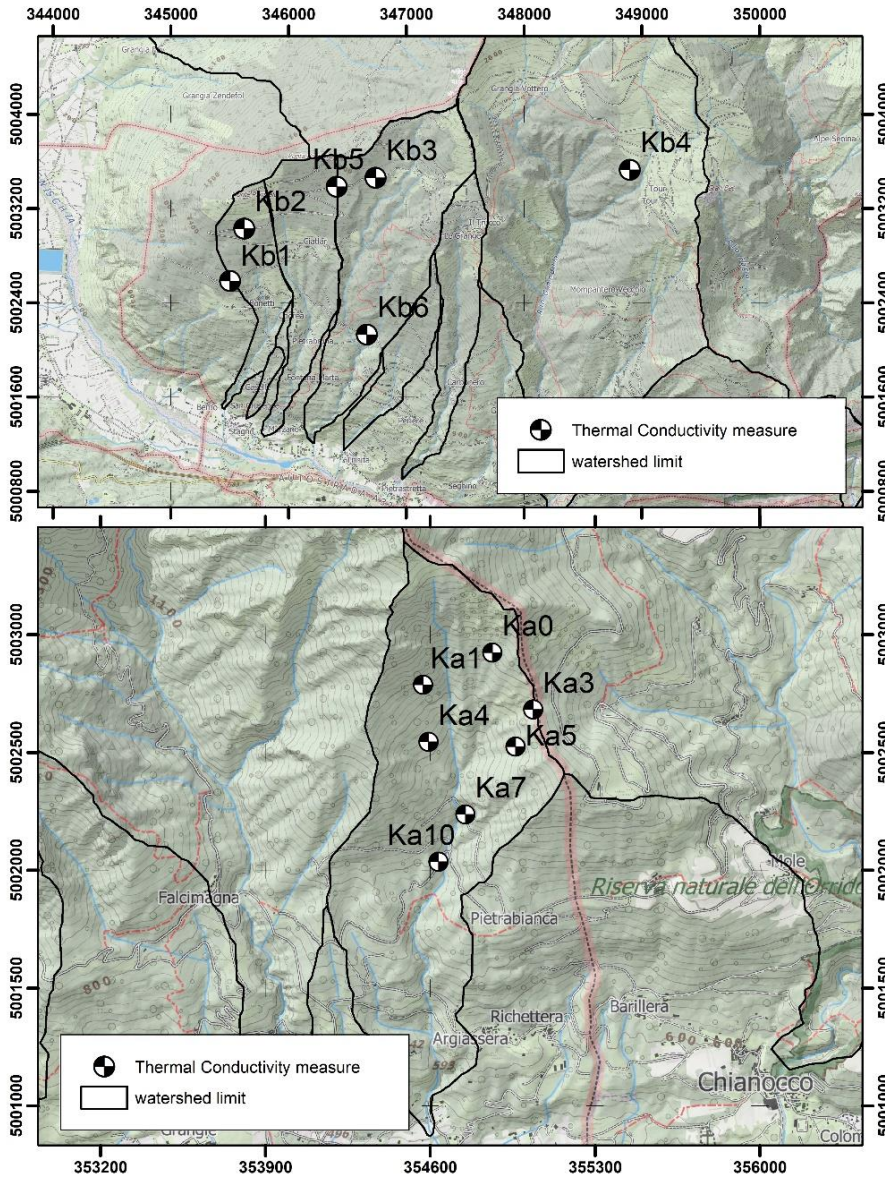


Figure 7.5 – Thermal conductivity measurements location in the Mompantero (top) and Bussoleno (bottom) areas.

Table 7-10 - results of thermal conductivity measurements in the areas of Bussoleno

Measure #	λ (W/mK)	T (°C)
Ka0	0.498	20
Ka1	0.251	18.98
Ka3	0.813	20.31
Ka4	0.62	19.59
Ka5	0.395	21.13
Ka7	0.179	19.25
Ka10	0.658	19.58
Mean	0.488	

Table 7-11 - results of thermal conductivity measurements in the areas of Mompantero

Measure #	λ (W/mK)	T (°C)
Kb1	0.743	16.26
Kb2	0.335	16.75
Kb3	0.628	14.17
Kb4	0.809	12.03
Kb5	0.583	9.99
Kb6	1.306	27.9
Mean	0.734	

Some empirical in situ shear tests (fig 7.6) were performed in order to have a relative comparison between burned and unburned portions of soil in the Mompantero area (soil textural and geotechnical characteristics are neglected). The method consists in the insertion of a cylindrical soil sampler ($\varnothing=100$ mm and $h=100$ mm) in the ground and in the measure of the force necessary for its shearing along the base area (after the removal of the soil located in frontal sector of the cylinder). The movement is guided thanks to the positioning of a wooden plate above the sampler without applying a normal load. The shearing force is measured by a dynamometer.

Although not completely accurate, the differences in the measure on burned and unburned soil (as close as possible to each other) were so evident that the test could be considered sufficient for a qualitative analysis of the state of the soil. In fact, on average in vegetated unburned soil a force of more than 500 N is required for the sampler to be pulled apart, while an average value of 150 N is found in burned soil.



Figure 7.6 - empirical shear tests device (left) and Water Drop Penetration Time test for hydrophobicity assessment (right).

The residual portions of unburned litter in the Mompantero area in tree positions has been sampled in order to estimate the amount of fine fuel present before the fire (fig 7.7 and 7.8, table 7-12).



Figure 7.7 . Unburned litter profile in the Mompantero forest.

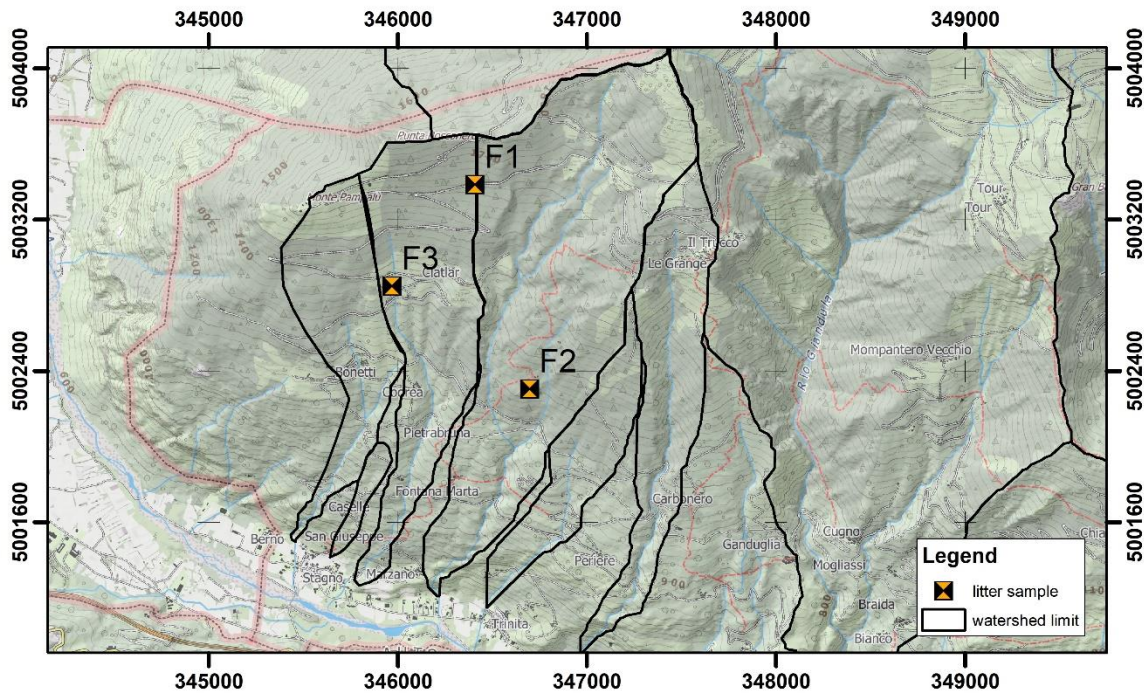


Figure 7.8 – Unburned litter sampling locations.

Table 7-12 – Fuel load measured in the Mompantero area

Sample #	Wet fuel load	Dry fuel load
	[kg/m ²]	[kg/m ²]
F1	15.5	5.4
F2	18.9	6.15
F3	19.4	6.7
Mean	17.93	6.08

The field surveys have been useful to understand the main processes affecting the considered watersheds as a response to fire and to address the correct modelling approach: in fact, no discrete landslide mass failure has been observed during survey, nor has been reported to the author. This is crucial in excluding these types of phenomena for acting as a source of material for the observed debris and mud-flows generation. Soil modification observed in the field are generally shallow (less than 10 cm) and all of them correlated with overland flow dynamics. Rills, gullies and zero order streams incision are found to be more evident in high burn severity sectors, especially where the three canopy is severely reduced. This allowed to focus the attention on erosive dynamics to the detriment of more purely geotechnical slope processes.

The survey campaign timing anyway brings some drawbacks: since it started some month after the fires occurrence, it did not allow to measure the volume of eroded sediments to validate the proposed model properly, but some indications on the quantity of mobilized sediments derive from the characterization of the phenomenon of Comba delle Foglie. Moreover, the observations made between the various basins can be classified in a relative way, giving a rough susceptibility ranking for supporting the modeling.



Figure 7.9 – zero-order hollow showing re-incision marks at the expense of burnt soil.

7.2.2 Initial assessment fire severity maps production

The results of the fire severity evaluation in the short term after the fire (initial assessment) show an overall predominance of unburned areas (48.18%). Low, moderate and high severity classes cover a surface percentage of 16.56%, 25.82% and 9.45% respectively (figg. 7.10, 7.11 and 7.12).

If we look at the sum of the areas burned at medium and high severity, the fire nos. 1, 2, 5 and 8 are characterized by the higher values, the area percentage falling in this category being the 63.56%, 51.52%, 35.38% and 53.92% respectively. The other wildfires (nos. 3, 4, 6, 7 and 9) report value of 10.84, 1.70, 2.84, 2.33 and 14.56, respectively.

Comparing these results with the maps produced by Morresi et al. (2021), it is evident a decrease in the overall fire severity in the extended assessment (figg. 7.13, 7.14 and 7.15), despite the fact that in the same wildfire area patches showing an increase, a decrease or an unchanged situation are juxtaposed. Overall, unburned, low, moderate and high severity classes evaluated for the extended assessment cover the 57.41%, 18,04%, 20.25% and 4.30%, respectively.

The areal percentage of the two most severe classes decreases to values of 32.90%, 46.72%, 3.18% and 33.07% for the fires nos. 1, 2, 5 and 8, while for the fires nos. 3, 4, 6, 7 and 9 the values shift to 0.95%, 5.70%, 8.09%, 6.43% and 7.89%, respectively.

Values of areal percentage of the four severity classes characterizing the single watersheds are given in the tables 7-13 – 7-21.

Some watersheds, especially those affected by the Locana/Ribordone and Bussoleno/Mompantero fires, shows a very significant fire severity: for example, the watersheds of Carlevaria, Rio della Ravoire and Comba delle Foglie see more than 80% of their surface affected by medium-high severity in the initial assessment.

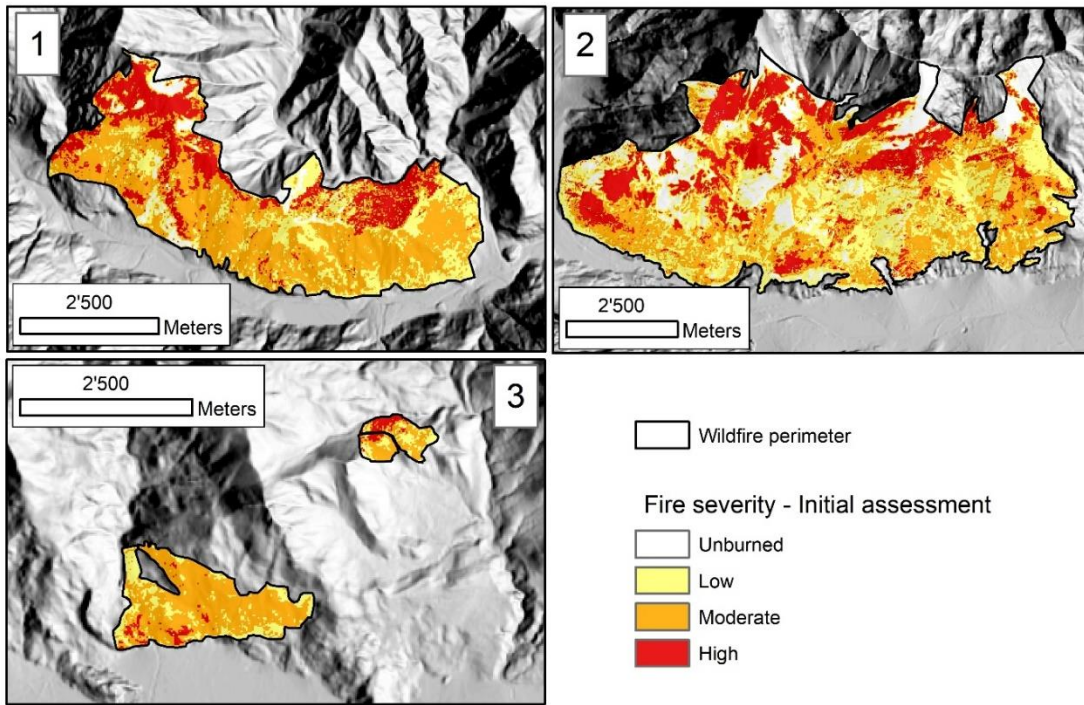


Figure 7.10 -- Fire severity maps, initial assessment, for the Locana/Ribordone (1), Bussoleno/Mompantero (2) and Caprie/Rubiana (3) wildfires.

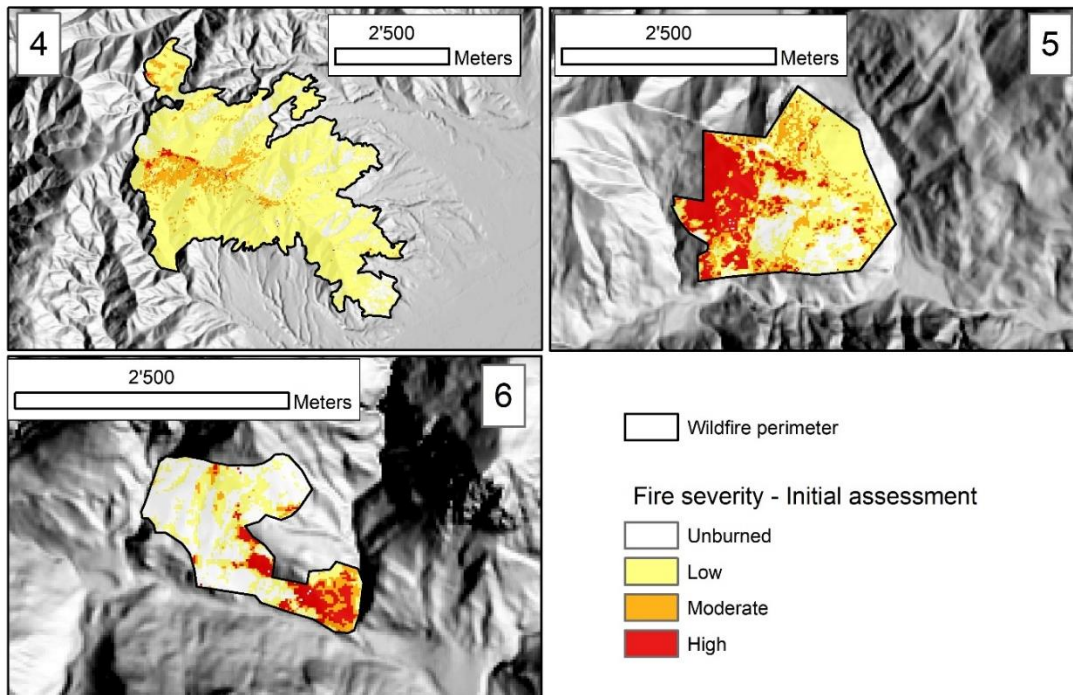


Figure 7.11 – Fire severity maps, initial assessment, for the Cumiana/Cantalupa (4), Bellino/Casteldelfino (5) and Sambuco/Pietraporzio (6) wildfires.

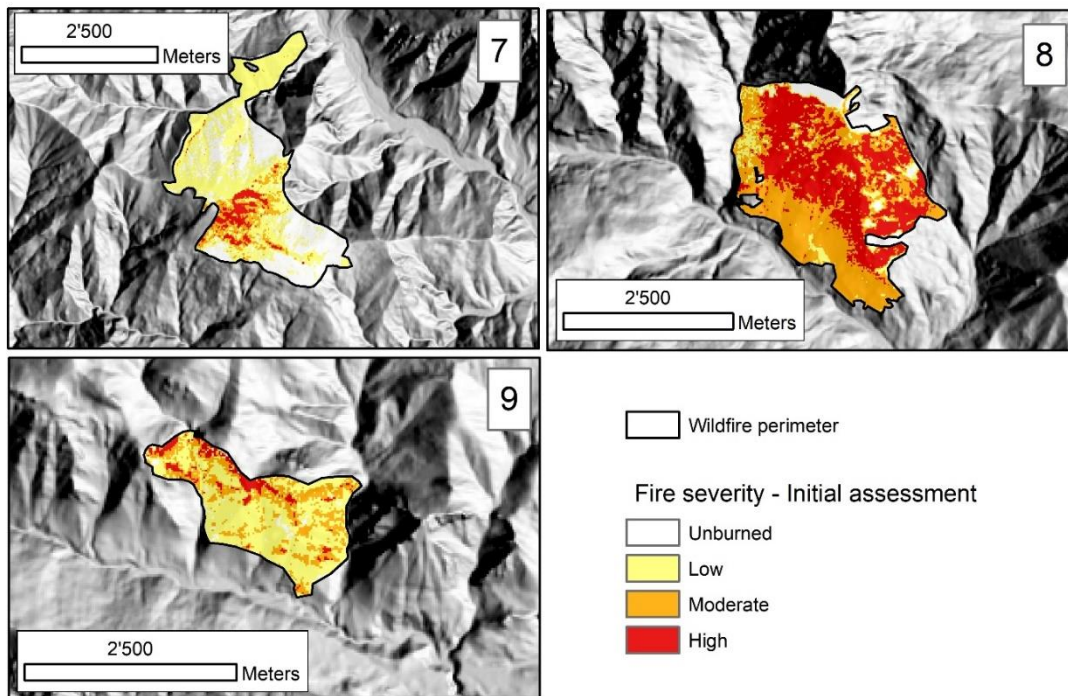


Figure 7.12 – Fire severity maps, initial assessment, for the Roure/Perrero (7), Traversella (8) and Demonte (9) wildfires.

Table 7-13 - relative extension of areas with different fire severity in the Locana/Ribordone wildfire.

Fire no. 1	LOCANA/RIBORDONE			
	Watershed	Fire severity		
	Unburned	Low	Moderate	High
	%	%	%	%
Rio Fura	8.18	13.80	48.60	29.42
Rio Di Chioso Bosco	0.63	30.11	67.93	1.32
R. Montepiano	10.49	21.15	60.82	7.54
Carlevaria	0.37	16.66	75.19	7.78
Rio Di Bardonetto Inferiore	1.34	22.66	68.26	7.74
Ribordone	90.55	2.81	2.93	3.71
Eugio	94.07	0.53	1.53	3.88
Rio Bocchetta	0.41	8.95	65.40	25.23
Rio Di Calsazio	0.00	14.63	84.41	0.95
Locana Est	7.35	20.47	46.72	25.46
Apparè	2.47	33.22	64.31	0.00
Mean	19.62	16.82	53.28	10.28

Table 7-14 - relative extension of areas with different fire severity in the Bussoleno/Mompantero wildfire.

Fire no. 2	BUSSOLENO/MOMPANTERO			
Watershed	Fire severity			
	Unburned	Low	Moderate	High
	%	%	%	%
Crosiglione	90.04	4.38	4.73	0.85
Rio Della Ravoire	0.97	4.84	41.48	52.72
Fogasso	33.70	28.51	22.87	14.92
Rio Della Codrea	12.97	22.25	39.48	25.30
Trinitá	7.19	37.82	45.04	9.95
Rio Prebech	81.61	9.43	6.21	2.75
Moletta	34.99	22.86	27.06	15.09
Rio Di Periere	9.46	41.63	32.30	16.62
Ravera	9.21	31.68	55.14	3.98
Comba Delle Foglie	3.13	13.64	64.28	18.94
Rocciamelone	47.71	20.52	18.61	13.17
Giandula	19.73	22.26	24.57	33.44
I Piani	10.47	46.17	42.89	0.48
San Giuseppe	5.54	6.03	73.02	15.41
Mean	26.19	22.29	35.55	15.97

Table 7-15 - relative extension of areas with different fire severity in the Caprie/Rubiana wildfire.

Fire no. 3	CAPRIE/RUBIANA			
Watershed	Fire severity			
	Unburned	Low	Moderate	High
	%	%	%	%
Messa	98.18	0.55	0.92	0.34
Sessi	96.52	1.09	2.25	0.15
Novaretto	62.40	12.98	24.62	0.00
Fra Barbe	81.61	3.30	15.09	0.00
Mean	84.67	4.48	10.72	0.12

Table 7-16 - relative extension of areas with different fire severity in the Cumiana/Cantalupa wildfire.

Fire no. 4		CUMIANA/CANTALUPA			
Watershed	Fire severity				
	Unburned	Low	Moderate	High	
	%	%	%	%	
1*Int. Dx. Sangone	97.59	2.09	0.31	0.02	
T. Chisola	86.92	12.13	0.86	0.10	
T. Noce	68.68	25.99	5.05	0.29	
Chisola Pianura	82.82	16.99	0.18	0.01	
Mean	84.00	14.30	1.60	0.11	

Table 7-17 - relative extension of areas with different fire severity in the Bellino/Casteldelfino wildfire.

Fire no. 5		BELLINO/CASTELDEFINO			
Watershed	Fire severity				
	Unburned	Low	Moderate	High	
	%	%	%	%	
Cumbal Della Comu	19.27	24.48	21.66	34.59	
T. Mas Del Bernard	83.44	1.64	1.93	12.99	
Mean	51.36	13.06	11.80	23.79	

Table 7-18 - relative extension of areas with different fire severity in the Sambuco/Pietraporzio wildfire..

Fire no. 6		SAMBUCO/PIETRAPORZIO			
Watershed	Fire severity				
	Unburned	Low	Moderate	High	
	%	%	%	%	
R. Bianco	98.39	0.75	0.47	0.39	
Sn	56.52	35.87	6.00	1.61	
Rio Di Castello Pietraporzio	97.78	2.18	0.04	0.00	
Mean	84.23	12.93	2.17	0.67	

Table 7-19 - relative extension of areas with different fire severity in the Roure/Perrero wildfire.

Fire no. 7	ROURE/PERRERO			
Watershed	Fire severity			
	Unburned %	Low %	Moderate %	High %
V.Ne Di Borsetto	82.43	17.29	0.23	0.04
S. Martino Sud	97.61	2.22	0.07	0.10
Colet	99.78	0.22	0.00	0.00
Molotta	95.18	4.35	0.47	0.00
Gernier	75.08	14.18	6.81	3.94
Mean	90.02	7.65	1.52	0.82

Table 7-20 - relative extension of areas with different fire severity in the Traversella wildfire.

Fire no. 8	TRAVERSELLA			
Watershed	Fire severity			
	Unburned %	Low %	Moderate %	High %
T. Bersella	85.21	1.84	5.19	7.77
Valle Chiara Primo	5.12	0.00	45.80	49.08
Mean	45.17	0.92	25.50	28.43

Table 7-21 - relative extension of areas with different fire severity in the Demonte wildfire.

Fire no. 9	DEMONTE			
Watershed	Fire severity			
	Unburned %	Low %	Moderate %	High %
V. Del Saut	83.92	8.50	4.98	2.59
Valle Di Monfreis	91.66	4.94	3.10	0.30
Sn 2	21.96	61.53	14.26	2.25
Rio Di Prafioret C.	10.05	59.21	21.05	9.69
Mean	51.90	33.55	10.85	3.71

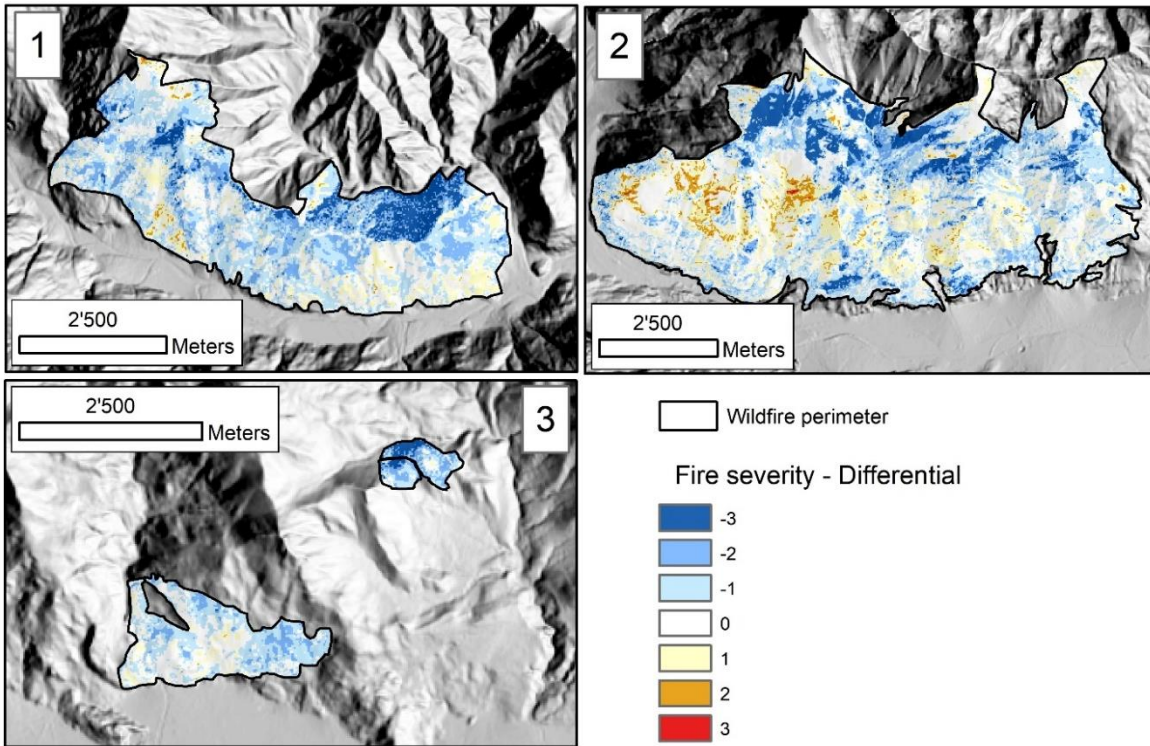


Figure 7.13 - Fire severity maps differentials between extended and initial assessment, for the Locana/Ribordone (1), Bussoleno/Mompantero (2) and Caprie/Rubiana (3) wildfires. Legend values express the quantity of class incremented (positive, increased fire severity) or decremented (negative, decreased fire severity) in the extended assessment.

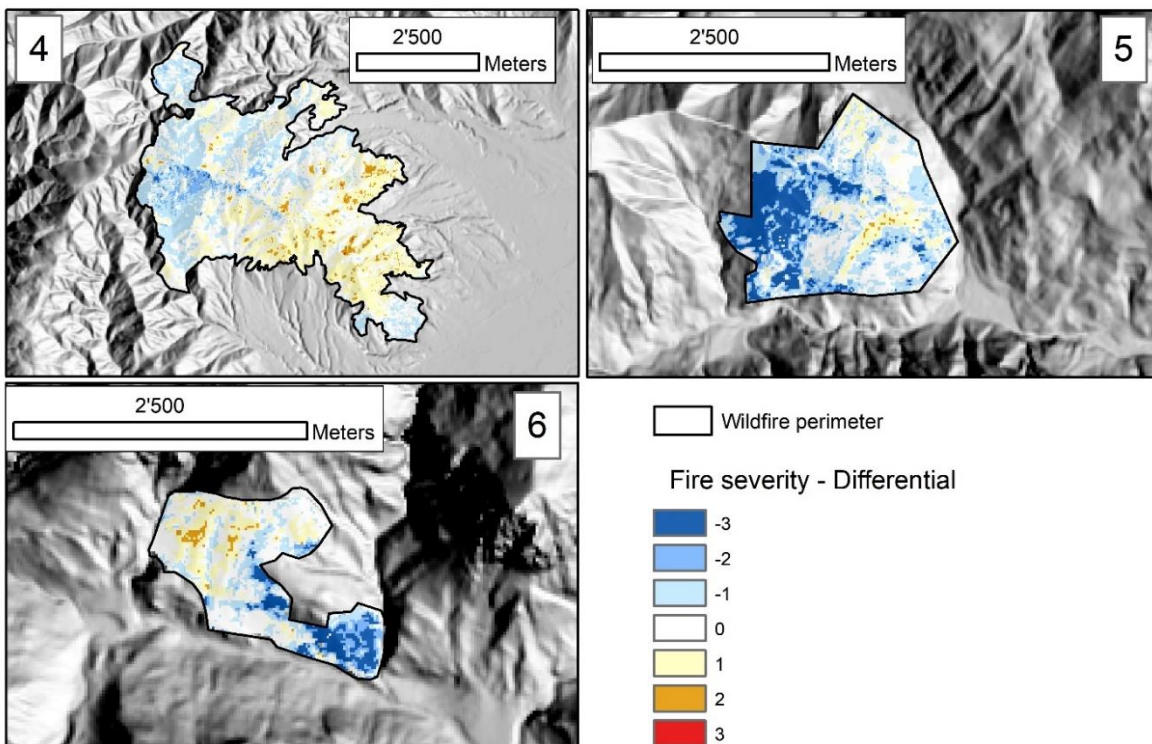


Figure 7.14 - Fire severity maps differentials between extended and initial assessment, for the Cumiana/Cantalupa (4), Bellino/Casteldelfino (5) and Sambuco/Pietraporzi (6) wildfires. Legend values express the quantity of class incremented (positive, increased fire severity) or decremented (negative, decreased fire severity) in the extended assessment.

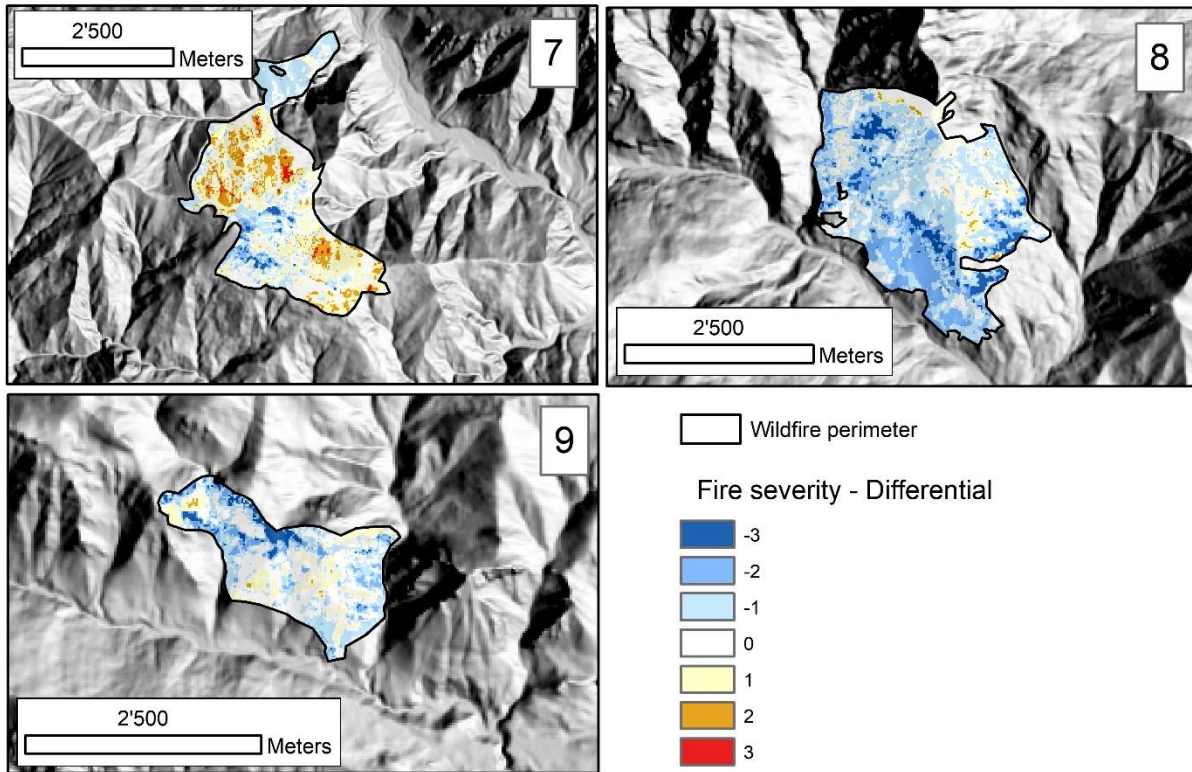


Figure 7.15 - Fire severity maps differentials between extended and initial assessment, for the Roure/Perrero (7), Traversella (8) and Demonte (9) wildfires. Legend values express the quantity of class incremented (positive, increased fire severity) or decremented (negative, decreased fire severity) in the extended assessment.

7.2.3 Watersheds characterization

Morphometry and hydrology

The main morphological descriptors for each watershed have been calculated following methods given in par. 6.2.3. Looking at all 49 watersheds some relevant numbers can be given: watersheds area (A_w) range from 0.06 to 50.74 Km² with an average value of 7.35 Km². The length (L_b) varies between 0.66 and 16.95 Km, averaging 4.02 km. As can be expected from Alpine and pre-Alpine basins, the minimum elevation (E_{min}) varies between 268 and 1467 m a.s.l. and the maximum (E_{max}) between 990 and 3535 m a.s.l. The average elevation difference (E_{ran}) is about 1344 m, while the maximum height difference recorded is 3039 m. The slope values are also typical of a mountain environment, with maximum values (S_{max}) of 85 ° and average values (S_{mea}) of 32 °.

Statistics for all the watersheds give a mean main channel length (L_p) of 3.85 Km, with minimum and maximum values reaching 0.51 and 16.80 Km, respectively. The main channel average slope (L_pS) is 29.68°, while mean total streams length (L) is equal to 26.96 Km.

Morphometric parameters global statistics indicate a mean fan to watershed area ratio (A_f/A_w) of 5.84, maximum values reaching 42.46. Form factor (F_f) Circularity Ratio (R_c) Elongation Ratio (R_e) mean

values are 0.39, 0.56 and 0.67 respectively, indicating generally noticeably elongated watersheds. Drainage density values (Dd) span from a minimum of 1.06 and a maximum of 5.15 km/km², averaging 1.06 km/km². Time of concentration range from 0.05 to 1.24 h, and its mean value is 0.29 h.

Following the classification criteria proposed by Marchi et al. (1993) the catchments have been classified based on the fan slope [°] and Melton Index into three main classes: F (Fluvial, where the main depositional process is the fluvial deposition), DF (Debris-Flow, where the main processes are the gravity-related flows) and M (Mixed, where the fluvial deposition and gravity-related flows coexist). The majority of the analyzed catchments shows a tendency to develop gravity-related flows; just the catchment no. 24 is subject to a characteristic fluvial deposition, while catchment nos. 6 and 25 belongs to the Mixed category (fig. 7.16).

Detailed tables for geometric, hydrological and morphometric parameters are reported in Appendix 2.

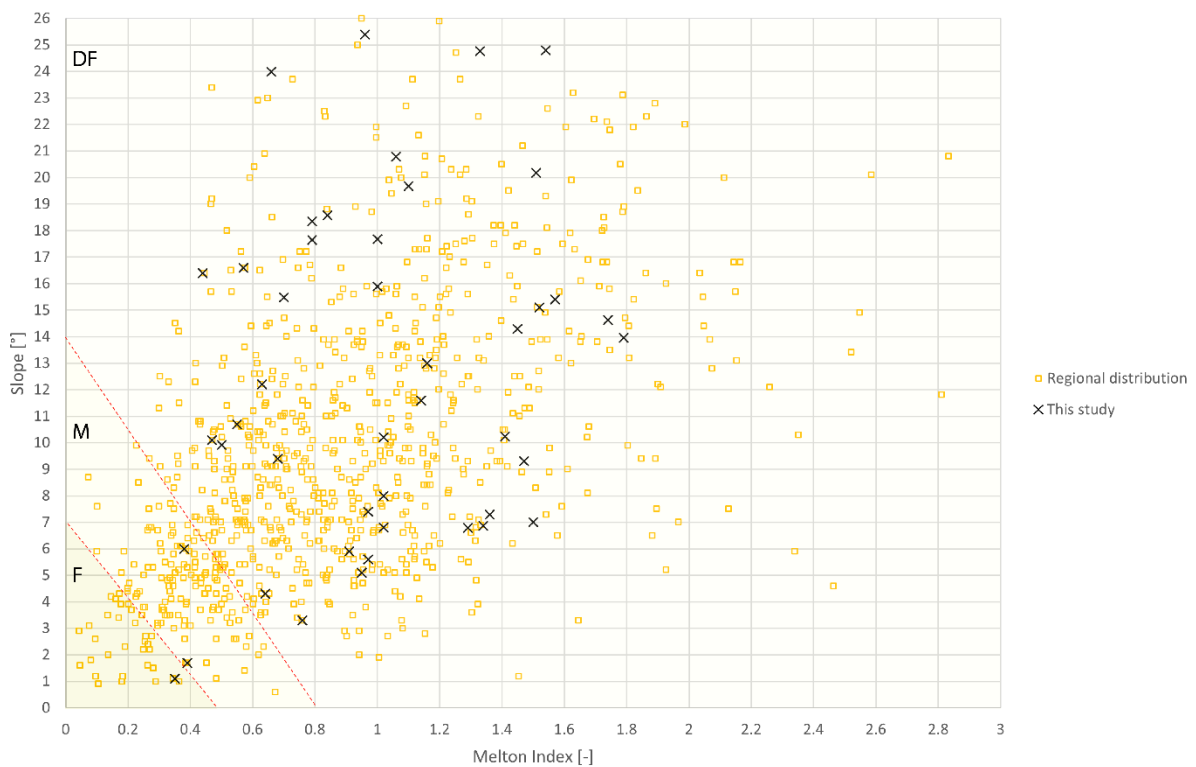


Figure 7.16 – Melton Index vs fan slope diagram; Dashed lines represent Marchi et al. (1993) thresholds. F: fluvial Fan; M: mixed fan; DF: debris-Flow Fan.

Geology

The bedrock of the areas affected by the fires is quite variable and is composed of different formations, spanning from the granite and gneiss of the Gran Paradiso and Dora Maira typical of the fires of Locana, Cumiana, Roure, to the mainly carbonatic (limestone, dolomite) formations of the fires of the Stura Valley, and in part of the Bussoleno area. Calcschists and micaschists characterize the area of the Val Varaita and some sectors in Bussoleno and Mompantero; finally, ophiolites and other various metamorphites characterize burned areas in Caprie and Rubiana and Traversella (fig. 7.17, 7.18 and 7.19).

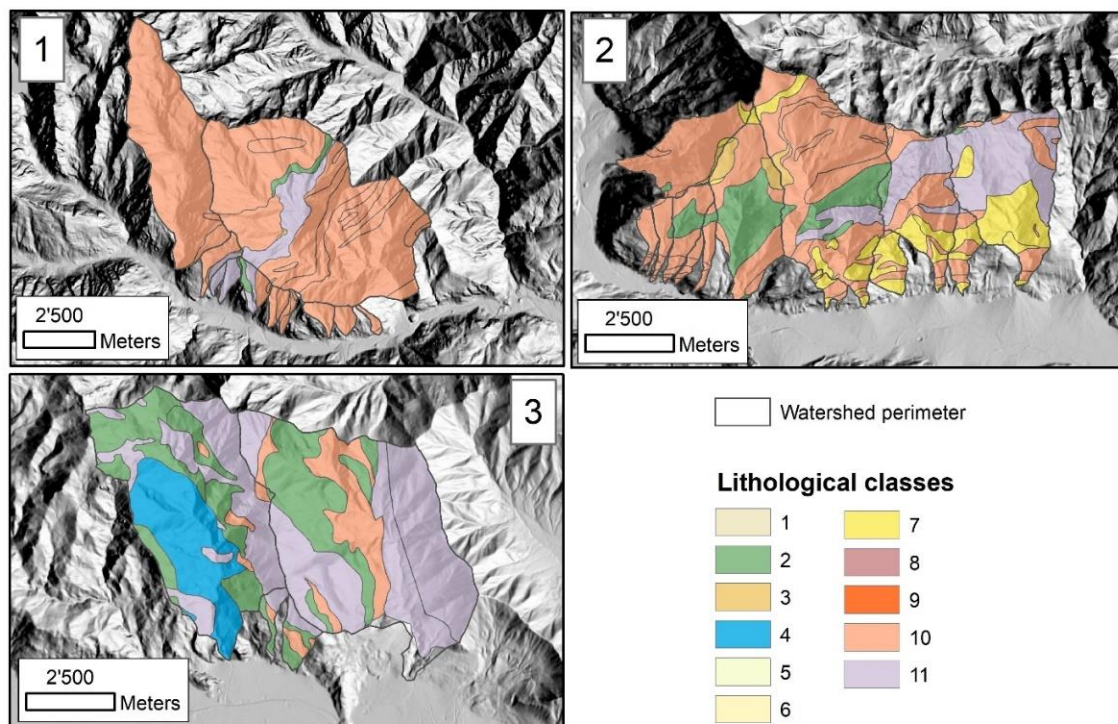


Figure 7.17 – Lithological maps for the Locana/Ribordone (1), Bussoleno/Mompantero (2) and Caprie/Rubiana (3) wildfires. Legend: **1** - Carbonate Rich Mudstone, Arenite, Limestone, Conglomerate, Siltstone, Claystone, Mudstone; **2** - Chlorite actinolite epidote metamorphic rock, Amphibolite, Schist; **3** - fault rocks, breccia; **4** - gabbro, metagabbro, diorite; **5** - Hornfels; **6** - Limestone, Arenite, Carbonate rich mudstone, Impure limestone; **7** - Marble, dolomite, pure carbonate mudstone; **8** - Migmatite; **9** - Rhyolite, Metariolite, Dacite, Orthogneiss; **10** - Schist, Mica schist, Gneiss, Quartzite; **11** - Serpentinite, Peridotite, Schist.

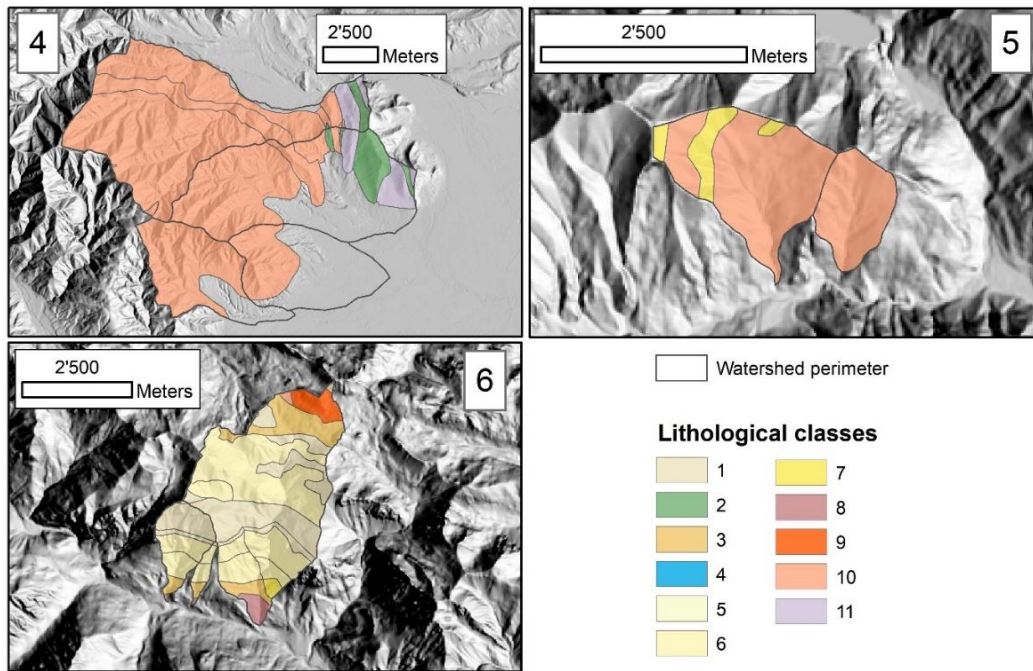


Figure 7.18 - Lithological maps for the Cumiana/Cantalupa (4), Bellino/Casteldelfino (5) and Sambuco/Pietraporzio (6) wildfires. Legend: 1- Carbonate Rich Mudstone, Arenite, Limestone, Conglomerate, Siltstone, Claystone, Mudstone; 2 - Chlorite actinolite epidote metamorphic rock, Amphibolite, Schist; 3 - fault rocks, breccia; 4 - gabbro, metagabbro, diorite; 5 - Hornfels; 6 - Limestone, Arenite, Carbonate rich mudstone, Impure limestone; 7 - Marble, dolomite, pure carbonate mudstone; 8 - Migmatite; 9 - Rhyolite, Metariolite, Dacite, Orthogneiss; 10 - Schist, Mica schist, Gneiss, Quartzite; 11 - Serpentine, Peridotite, Schist.

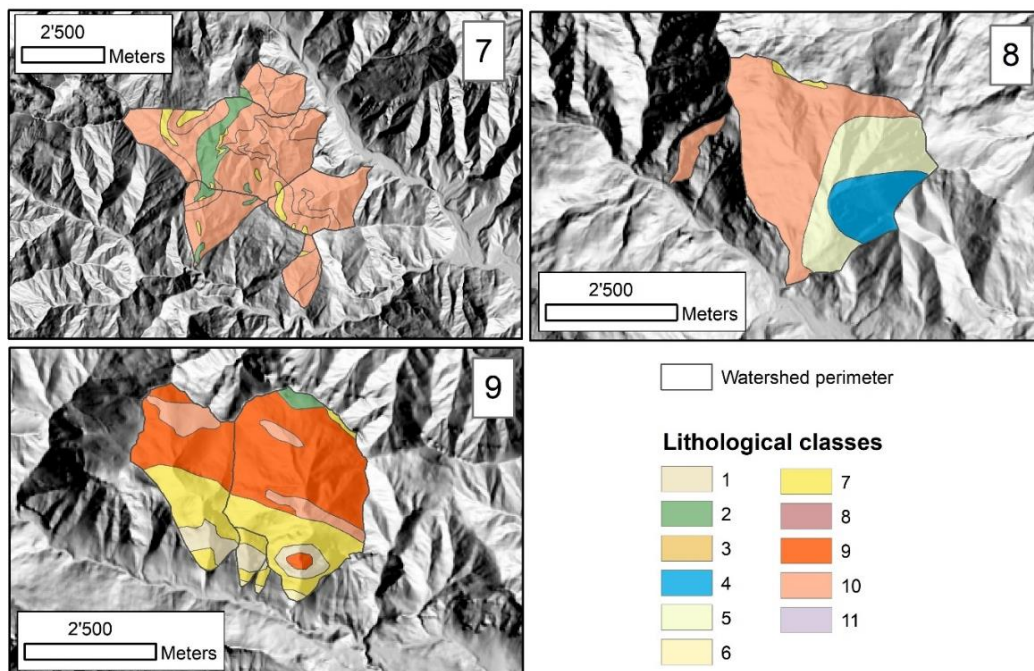


Figure 7.19 - Lithological maps for the Roure/Perrero (7), Traversella (8) and Demonte (9) wildfires. Legend: 1- Carbonate Rich Mudstone, Arenite, Limestone, Conglomerate, Siltstone, Claystone, Mudstone; 2 - Chlorite actinolite epidote metamorphic rock, Amphibolite, Schist; 3 - fault rocks, breccia; 4 - gabbro, metagabbro, diorite; 5 - Hornfels; 6 - Limestone, Arenite, Carbonate rich mudstone, Impure limestone; 7 - Marble, dolomite, pure carbonate mudstone; 8 - Migmatite; 9 - Rhyolite, Metariolite, Dacite, Orthogneiss; 10 - Schist, Mica schist, Gneiss, Quartzite; 11 - Serpentine, Peridotite, Schist.

Forestry/land-cover

Land cover data were produced after integrating Land Cover Piemonte dataset (2010) and Forest Map of the Piedmont Region (2016). Forest Map units were grouped based on CLC code, maintaining a separation between forested areas s.s. and vegetated areas with arboreal coverage below 20%. Areas outside the Forest Map has been classified according to Land Cover Piemonte. Bare soil class has been added (fig. 7.20, 7.21 and 7.22).

Complete cover type table are reported in appendix 3.

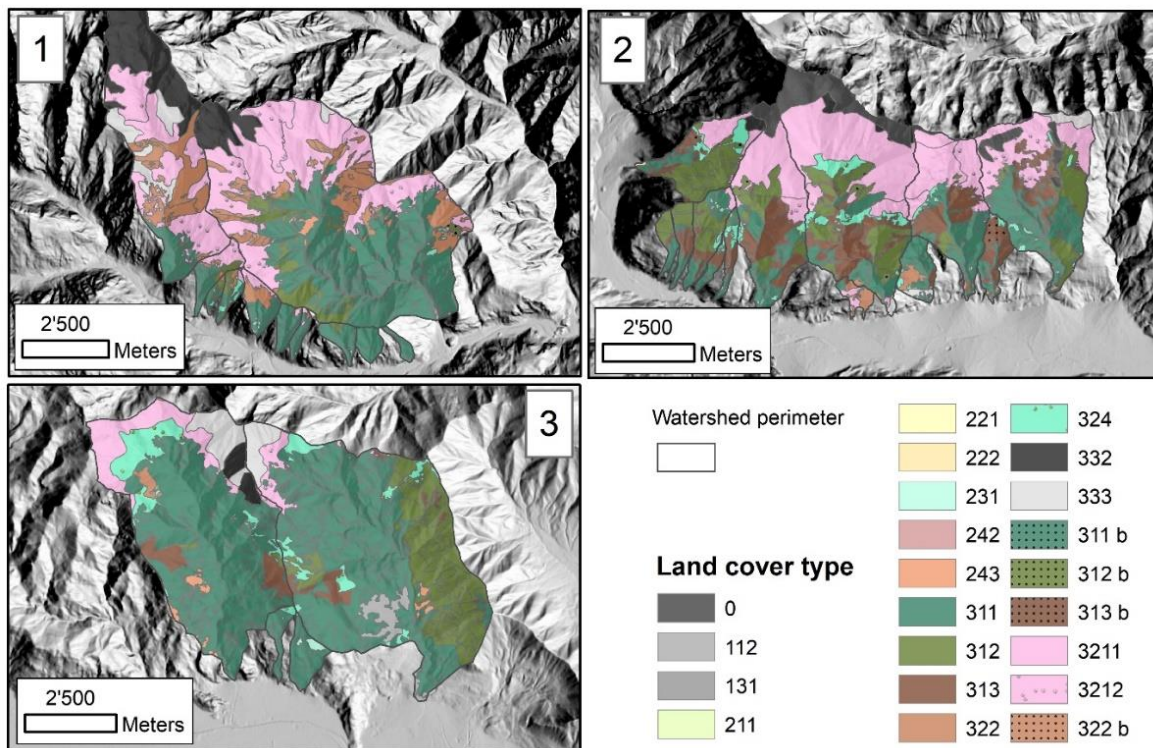


Figure 7.20 – Land Cover maps for the Locana/Ribordone (1), Bussoleno/Mompantero (2) and Caprie/Rubiana (3) wildfires. Legend: **0** - Bare soil; **112** - Discontinuous urban fabric; **131** - Mineral extraction sites; **211** - Non-irrigated arable land; **221** - Vineyards; **222** - Fruit trees and berry plantations; **231** - Pastures; **242** - Complex cultivation patterns ; **243** - Land principally used for agriculture, with significant areas of natural vegetation; **311** - Broad-leaved forest; **312** - Coniferous forest ; **313** - Mixed forest; **322** - Moors and heathland; **324** - Transitional woodland-shrub ; **332** - Bare rocks; **333** - Sparsely vegetated areas; **311b** - Broad-leaved forest <20%; **312b** - Coniferous forest <20%; **313b** - Mixed forest <20%; **3211** - Natural grassland prevailingly without trees and shrubs; **3212** - Natural grassland with trees and shrubs ; **322b** - Moors and heathland <20%.

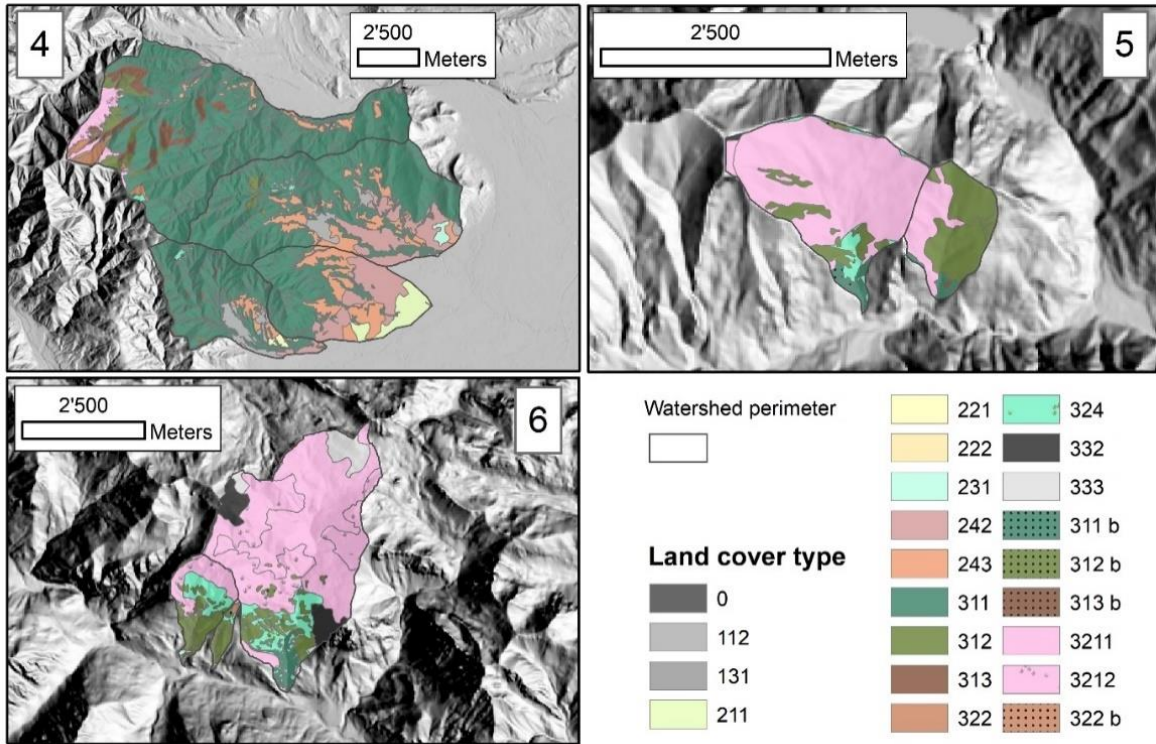


Figure 7.21 - Land Cover maps for the Cumiana/Cantalupa (4), Bellino/Casteldelfino (5) and Sambuco/Pietraporzio (6) wildfires. Legend: See Fig. 7.20.

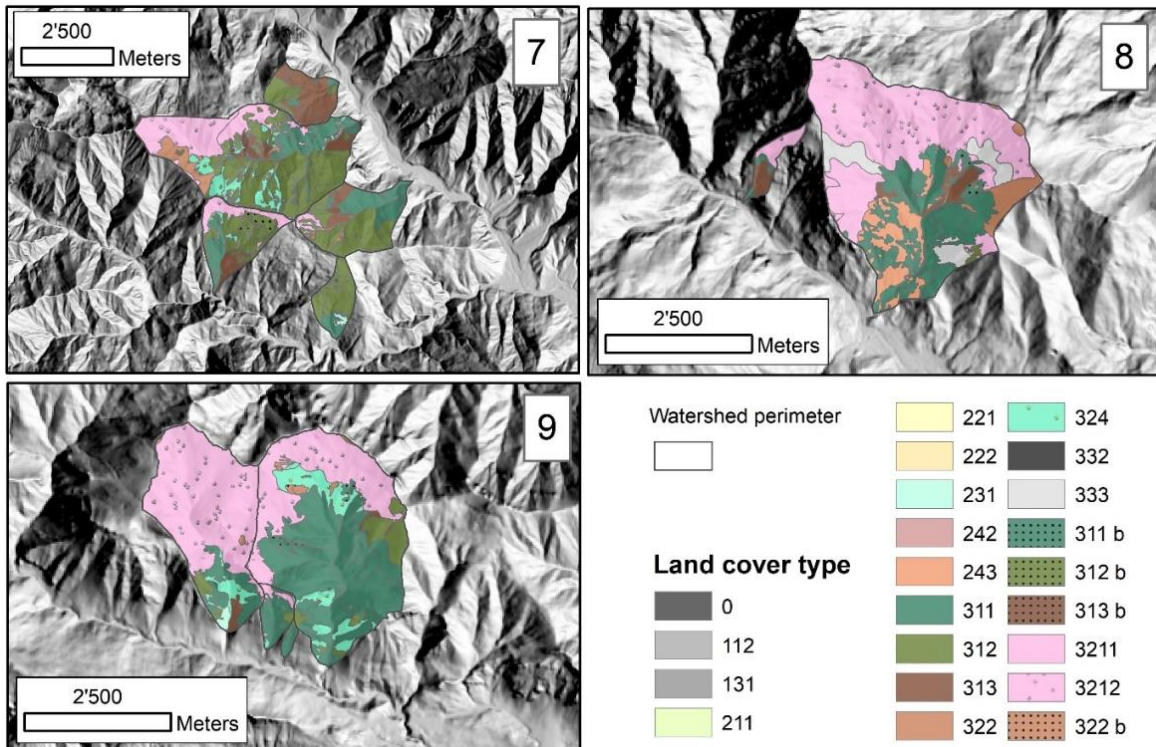


Figure 7.22 - Land Cover maps for the Roure/Perrero (7), Traversella (8) and Demonte (9) wildfires. Legend: See Fig. 7.20.

7.2.4 Fire-related erodibility model

7.2.4.1 Pre-fire

The Erodibility Index EI [$Mg MJ^{-1} mm^{-1} h$] is used to compare post-fire to pre-fire erosion susceptibility. Erodibility Index distribution for the pre-fire condition EI_{pre} has been calculated on a 5 meters resolution raster grid and is reported in appendix 4 (fig A4.10, A4.11 and A4.12). Detailed maps of K , LS and C factors are also reported in appendix 4.

In figg. 7.23, 7.24 and 7.25 the spatially averaged value EI_{w_pre} of the Erosivity Index EI_{pre} calculated for every watershed is presented.

In the pre-fire condition the averaged value of the Erodibility Index at the watershed scale ranges from a minimum value of $1.62E-05$ to a maximum of $1.25E-02$, the mean value being $7.69E-04 Mg MJ^{-1} mm^{-1} h$. The majority of the watersheds (87%) has a value below $1.00E-03 Mg MJ^{-1} mm^{-1} h$, and the only exceptions regards watersheds 6 watersheds in the area of the Bussoleno/Mompantero fire. Particularly relevant values characterize the Rocciamelone, rio Prebech and Crosiglione watersheds.

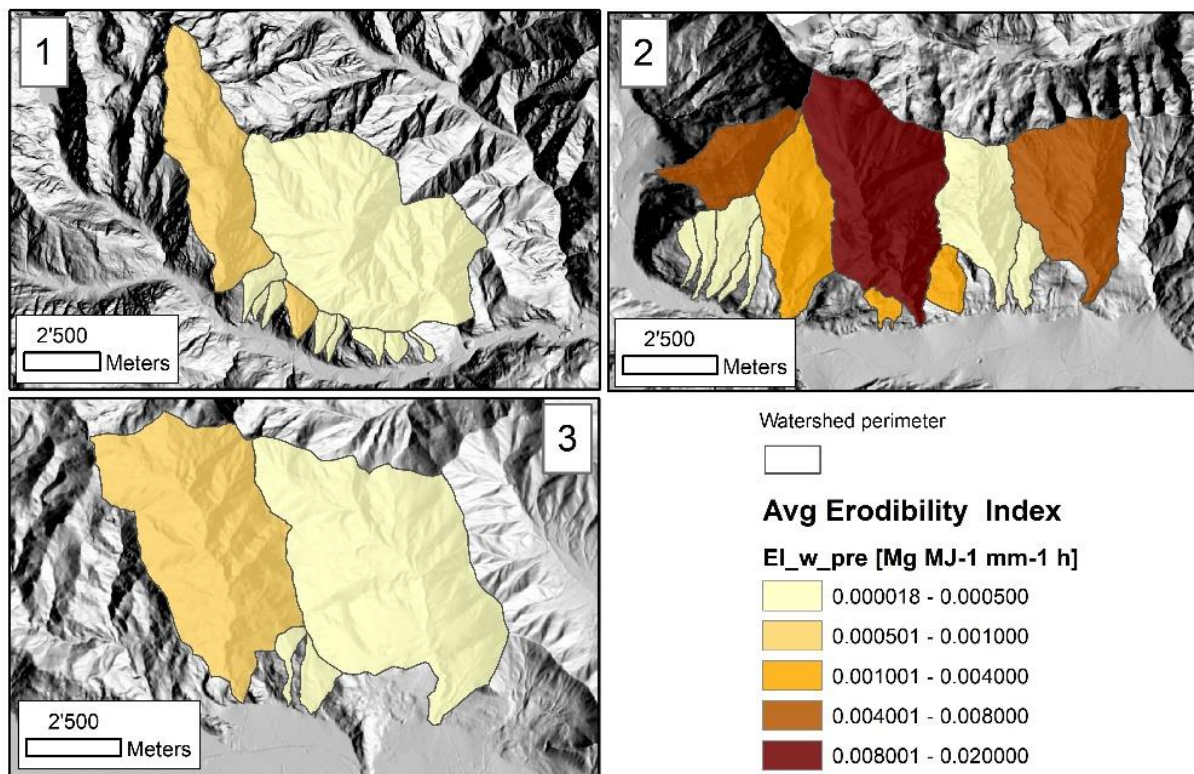


Figure 7.23 – Pre-fire spatially averaged value of the Erodibility Index, EI_{w_pre} , for the watersheds affected by the Locana/Ribordone (1), Bussoleno/Mompantero (2) and Caprie/Rubiana (3) wildfires.

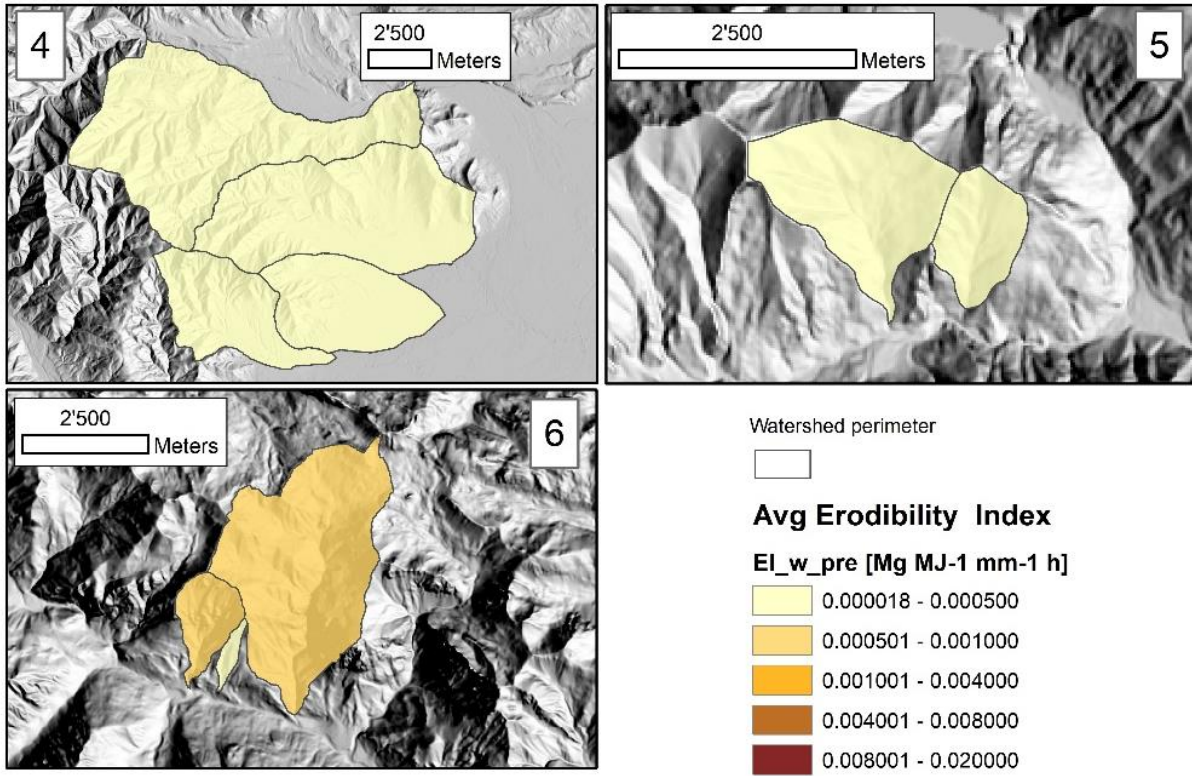


Figure 7.24 - Pre-fire spatially averaged value of the Erodibility Index, EI_{w_pre} , for the watersheds affected by the Cumiana/Cantalupa (4), Bellino/Casteldelfino (5) and Sambuco/Pietraporzio (6) wildfires.

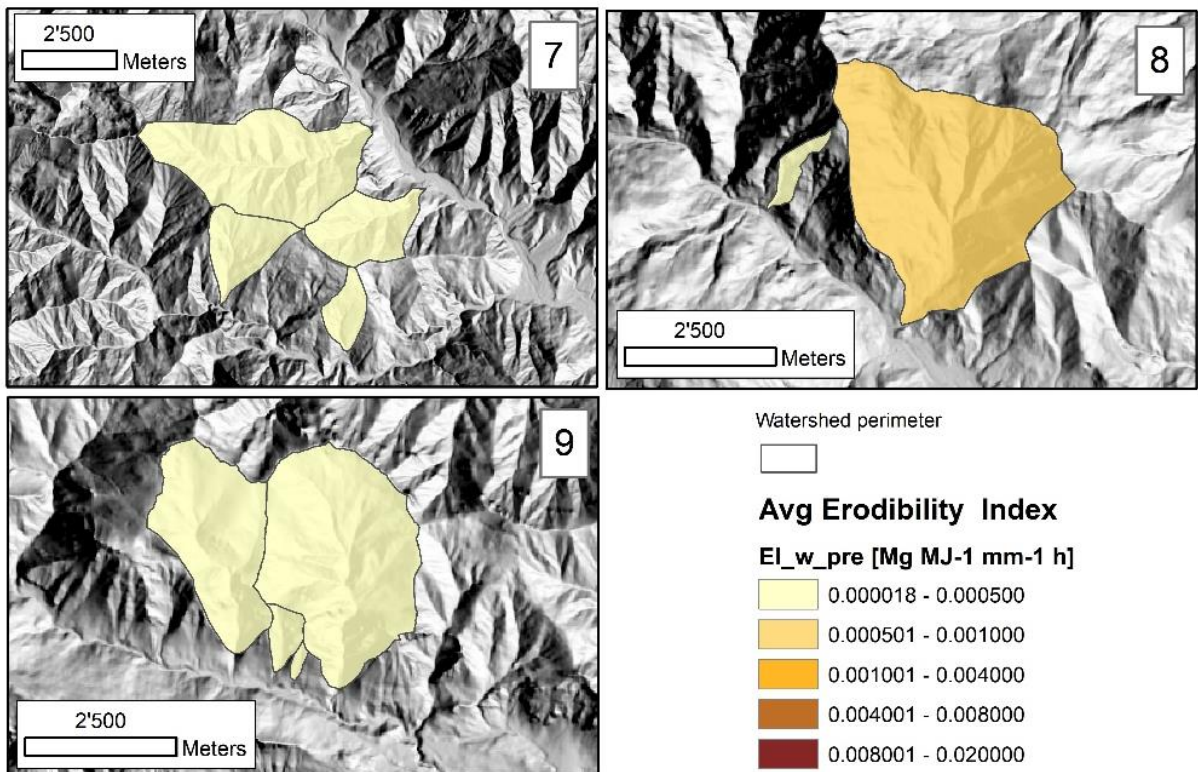


Figure 7.25 - Pre-fire spatially averaged value of the Erodibility Index, EI_{w_pre} , for the watersheds affected by the Roure/Perrero (7), Traversella (8) and Demonte (9) wildfires.

The average annual soil loss caused by surface water erosion A_{pre} , in pre-fire condition has been calculated by using a 500m resolution raster grid for R value (fig A4.16, A4.17 and A4.18, Appendix 4) and a P value set to 1.

In fig. 7.26, 7.27 and 7.28 the spatially averaged value A_{w_pre} [$Mg\ ha^{-1}\ y^{-1}$] of the average annual soil loss A_{pre} calculated for every watershed is given.

The results describing averaged soil loss A_{w_pre} is consistent with the Erodibility Index distribution over the 49 watersheds, and the overall mean value is $1.05\ Mg\ ha^{-1}\ y^{-1}$. The 83 % of the watersheds has an average annual soil loss value below $1.00\ Mg\ ha^{-1}\ y^{-1}$, the 93% being less than $5.00\ Mg\ ha^{-1}\ y^{-1}$. Again, higher values are registered for the Rocciamelone, rio Prebech and Crosiglione watersheds.

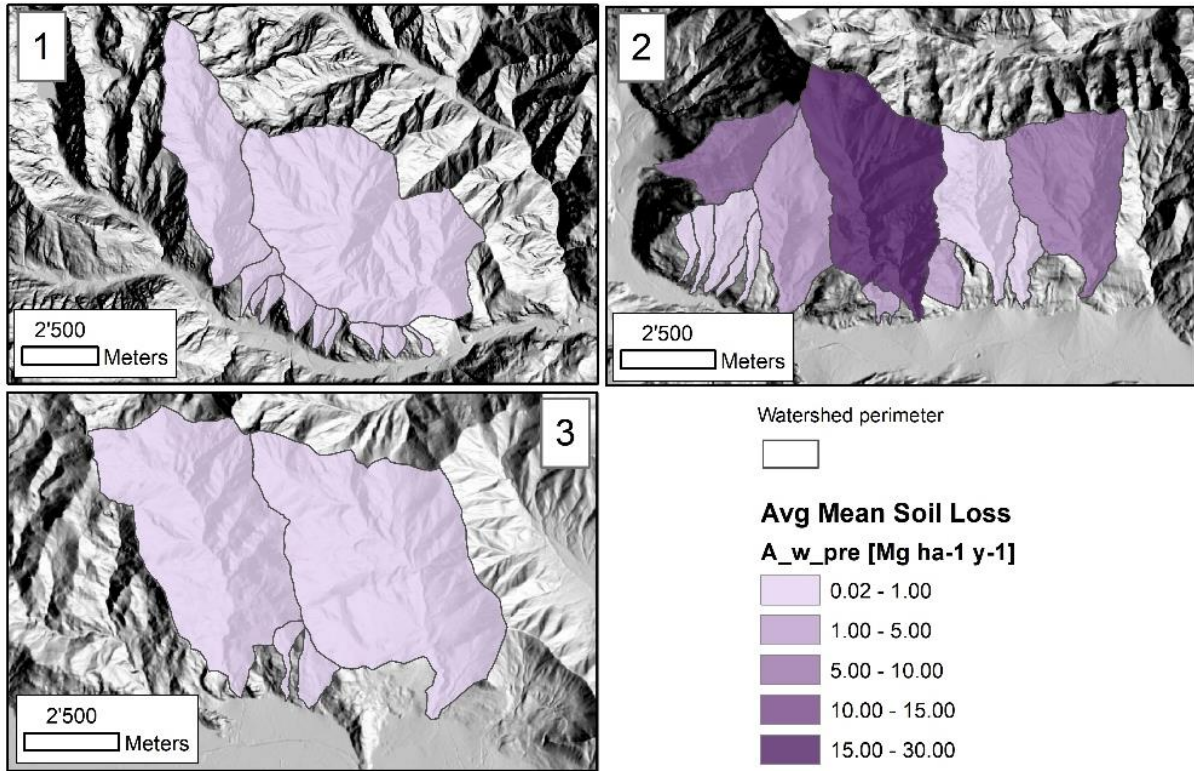


Figure 7.26 - Pre-fire spatially averaged value of the annual soil loss, A_{w_pre} , for the watersheds affected by the Locana/Ribordone (1), Bussoleno/Mompantero (2) and Caprie/Rubiana (3) wildfires.

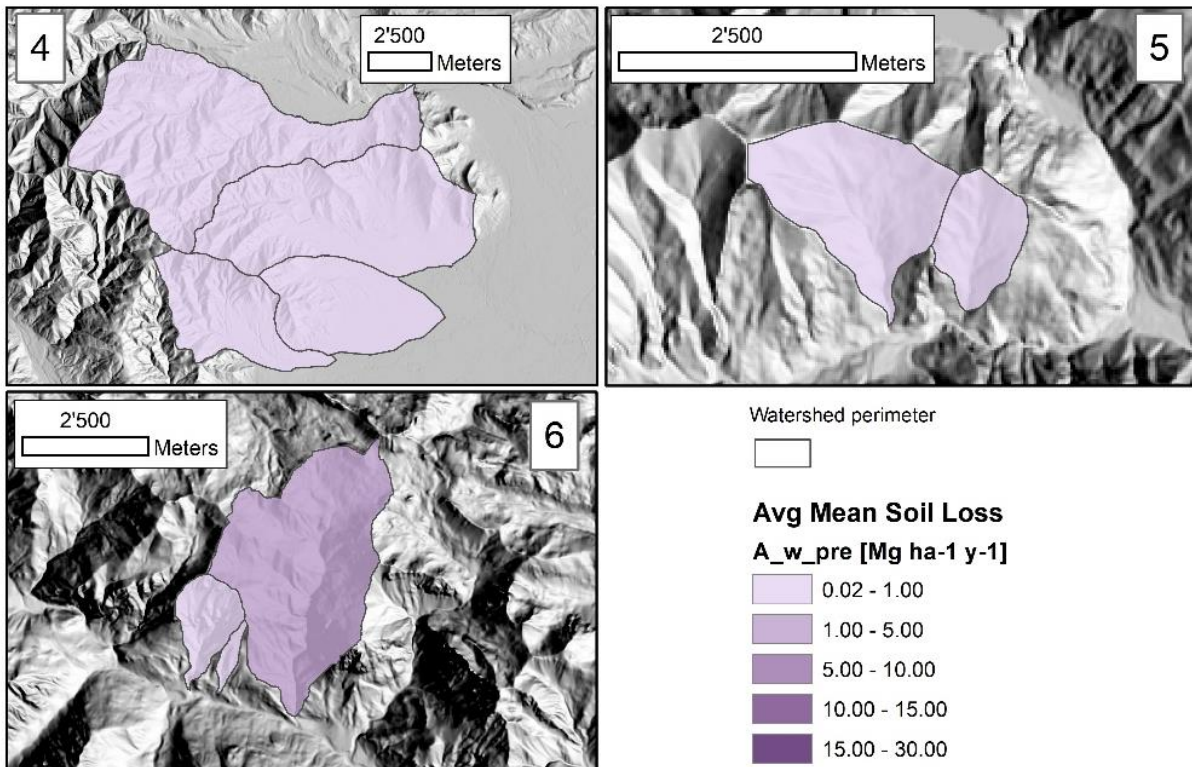


Figure 7.27 - Pre-fire spatially averaged value of the annual soil loss, A_{w_pre} , for the watersheds affected by the Cumiana/Cantalupa (4), Bellino/Casteldelfino (5) and Sambuco/Pietraporzio (6) wildfires.

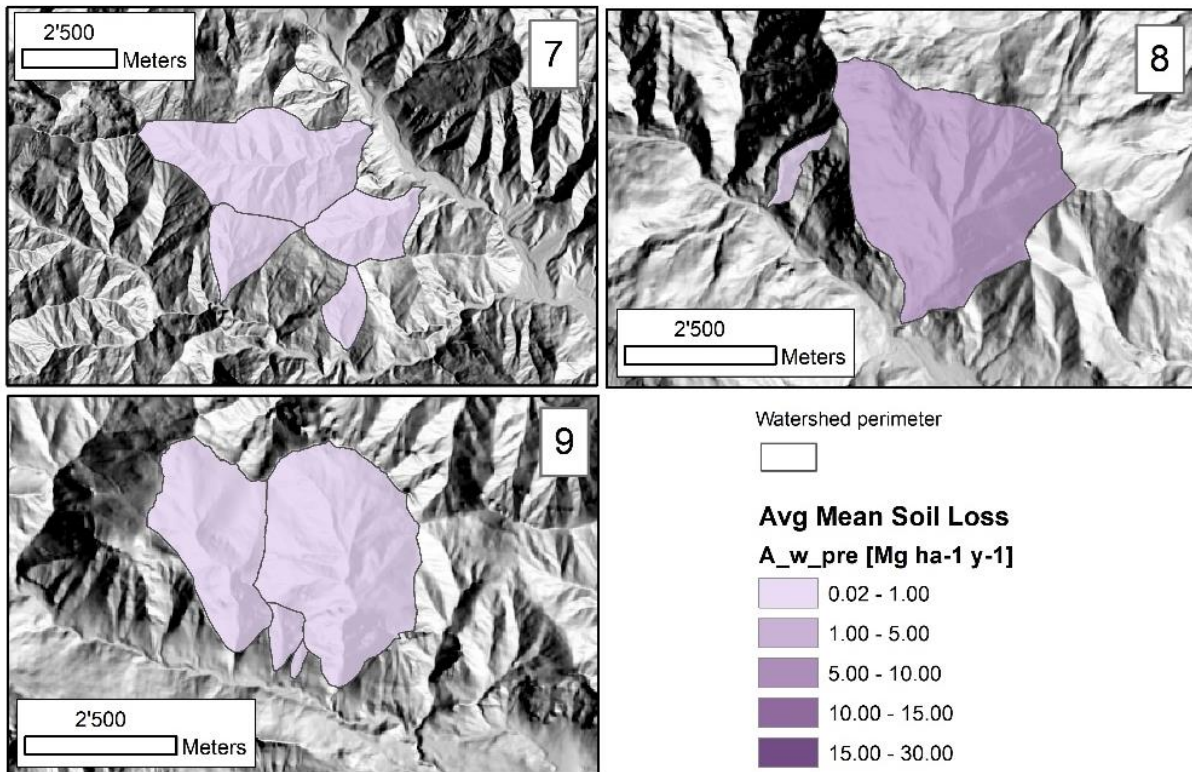


Figure 7.28 - Pre-fire spatially averaged value of the annual soil loss, A_{w_pre} , for the watersheds affected by the Roure/Perrero (7), Traversella (8) and Demonte (9) wildfires.

The value of sediment loss SL_{pre} [Mg y^{-1}] for each watershed is presented in figg. A4.19, A4.20 and A4.21 (appendix 4). Mean Sediment loss over the 49 watersheds is 1130 Mg y^{-1} . Again, higher values are found for the rio Prebech, Crosiglione and especially Rocciamelone watersheds, the latter reaching values a value above 27000 Mg y^{-1} .

7.2.4.2 Post-fire

Post-fire condition has been modeled for both the initial and the extended assessment by calculating mean soil loss per year A_{ini} and A_{ext} and Erodibility Index EI_{ini} and EI_{ext} following the procedure of par 6.2.4. Parameters C_{ini} , C_{ext} , K_{ini} , K_{ext} , LS_{ini} and LS_{ext} has been adjusted as a function of fire severity (unburned, low, moderate or high). R factor has been maintained equal to pre-fire condition. Spatial distribution of C, K, LS, EI and A can be found in Appendix 4 for both the initial and extended assessment.

Spatially averaged values of EI [$\text{Mg MJ}^{-1} \text{mm}^{-1} \text{h}$] and A [$\text{Mg ha}^{-1} \text{y}^{-1}$] for the initial assessment (EI_{w_ini} and A_{w_ini}) are given in fig. 7.29, 7.30, 7.31, 7.32, 7.33 and 7.34, whereas EI and A values for the extended assessment are given in fig A4.49, A4.50, A4.51, A4.55, A4.56, and A4.57 (appendix 4).

For the initial assessment the averaged value of the Erodibility Index at the watershed scale ranges from a minimum value of $1.82E^{-05}$ to a maximum of $1.69E^{-02}$, the mean value raising to $4.27E^{-03}$ $Mg MJ^{-1} mm^{-1} h$. The percentage of the watersheds having a value below $1.00E^{-03}$ $Mg MJ^{-1} mm^{-1} h$ decrease to 24%, the 46% showing values above $4.00 E^{-03}$ $Mg MJ^{-1} mm^{-1} h$. As expected, the watershed affected by the Locana/Ribordone and the Bussoleno/Mompantero wildfires, as a consequence of their generally higher fire severity, shows the higher values of Erodibility Index. For the other wildfires-affected areas, the raise in the Erodibility Index values is less marked, except some singularities (i.e. Cumbal della Comu and Valle Chiara Primo) (fig. 7.35).

For the extended assessment, the averaged value of the Erodibility Index at the watershed scale ranges from a minimum value of $1.77E^{-05}$ to a maximum of $1.40E^{-02}$, the mean value being equal to $3.00E^{-03}$ $Mg MJ^{-1} mm^{-1} h$. The percentage of the watersheds having a value below $1.00E^{-03}$ $Mg MJ^{-1} mm^{-1} h$ is equal to 27%, the 27% showing values above $4.00 E^{-03}$ $Mg MJ^{-1} mm^{-1} h$. on average, the watershed affected by the Locana/Ribordone and the Bussoleno/Mompantero wildfires, again, shows the higher values of Erodibility Index (fig. 7.34).

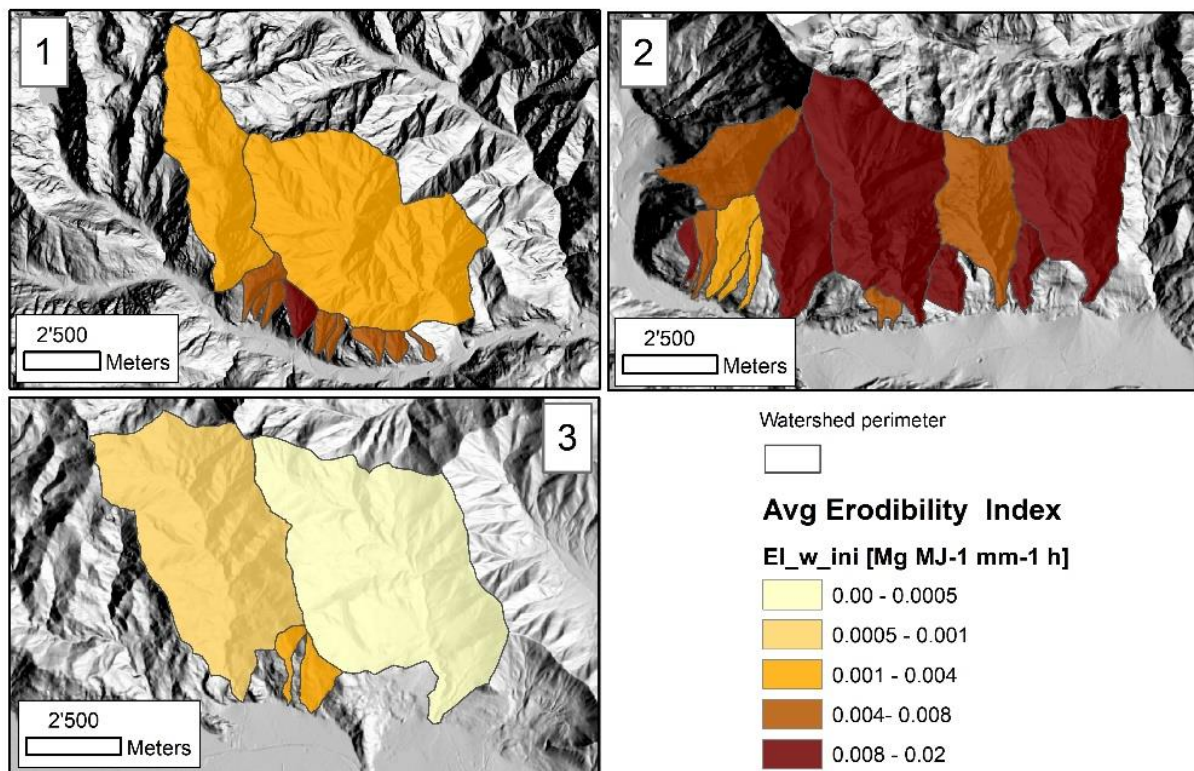


Figure 7.29 - Spatially averaged value of the Erodibility Index, EI_{w_ini} for the watersheds affected by the Locana/Ribordone (1), Bussoleno/Mompantero (2) and Caprie/Rubiana (3) wildfires; post-fire condition, initial assessment.

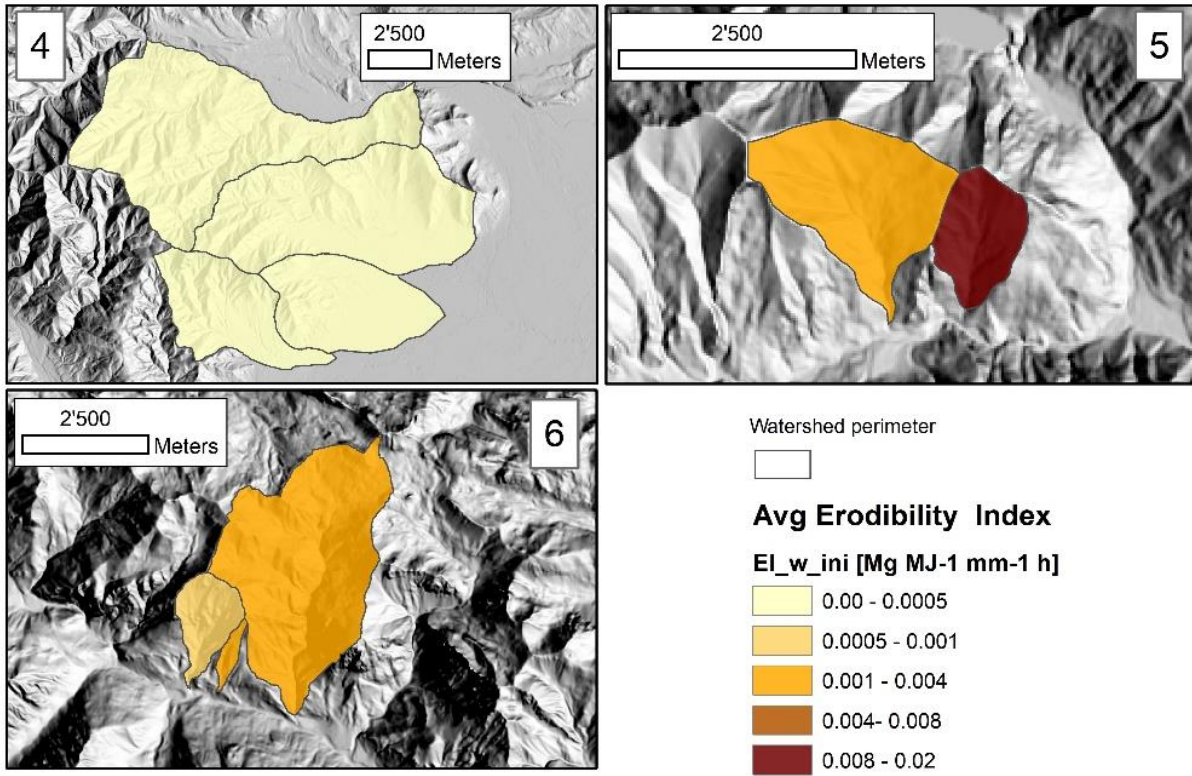


Figure 7.30 - Spatially averaged value of the Erodibility Index, EI_{w_ini} for the watersheds affected by the Cumiana/Cantalupa (4), Bellino/Casteldelfino (5) and Sambuco/Pietraporzio (6) wildfires; post-fire condition, initial assessment.

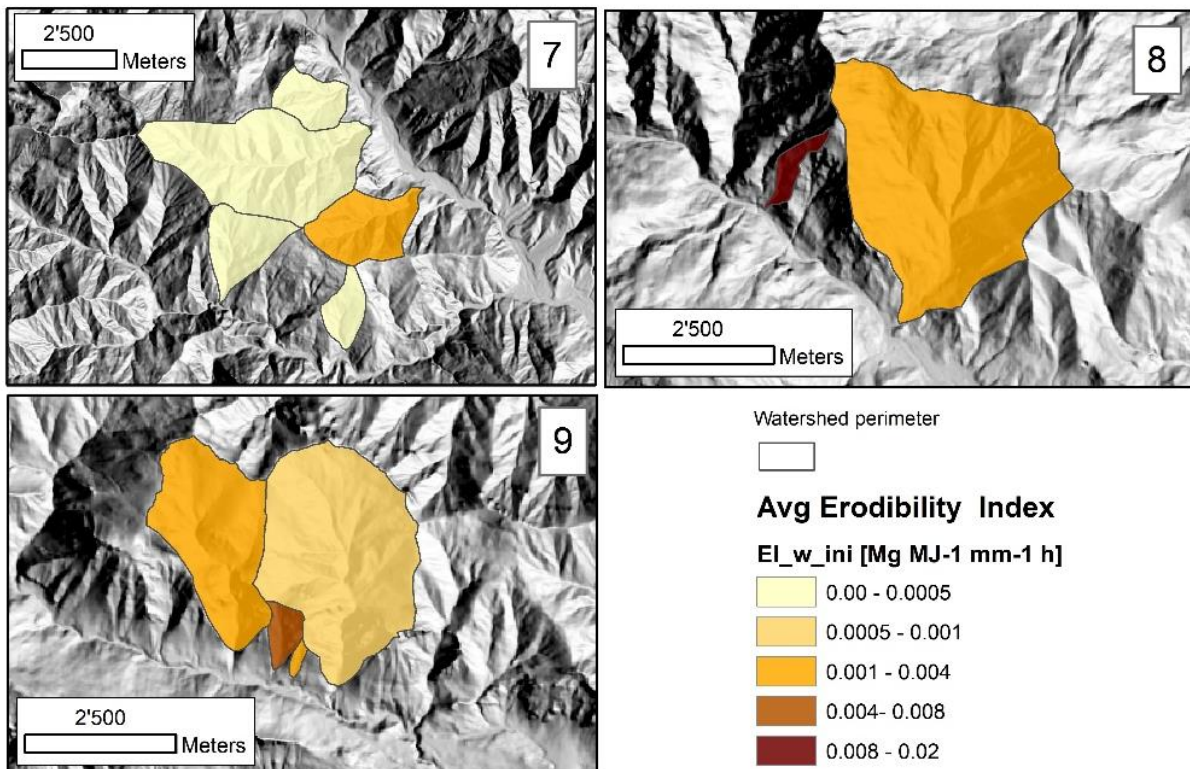


Figure 7.31 - Spatially averaged value of the Erodibility Index, EI_{w_ini} for the watersheds affected by the Roure/Perrero (7), Traversella (8) and Demonte (9) wildfires; post-fire condition, initial assessment.

The results describing averaged soil loss A_{w_ini} are consistent with the Erodibility Index distribution over the 49 watersheds, and the mean value is $5.65 \text{ Mg ha}^{-1} \text{ y}^{-1}$. The 20 % of the watersheds has an average annual soil loss value below $1.00 \text{ Mg ha}^{-1} \text{ y}^{-1}$, the 44% being more than $5.00 \text{ Mg ha}^{-1} \text{ y}^{-1}$. Higher values are registered for the Valle Chiara Primo, Rocciamelone, and Rio Bocchetta watersheds (fig. 7.36).

Considering the extended assessment, the 24% of the watersheds has an average annual soil loss value below $1.00 \text{ Mg ha}^{-1} \text{ y}^{-1}$, the 27% being more than $5.00 \text{ Mg ha}^{-1} \text{ y}^{-1}$. The overall mean value is $3.84 \text{ Mg ha}^{-1} \text{ y}^{-1}$ (fig. 7.35).

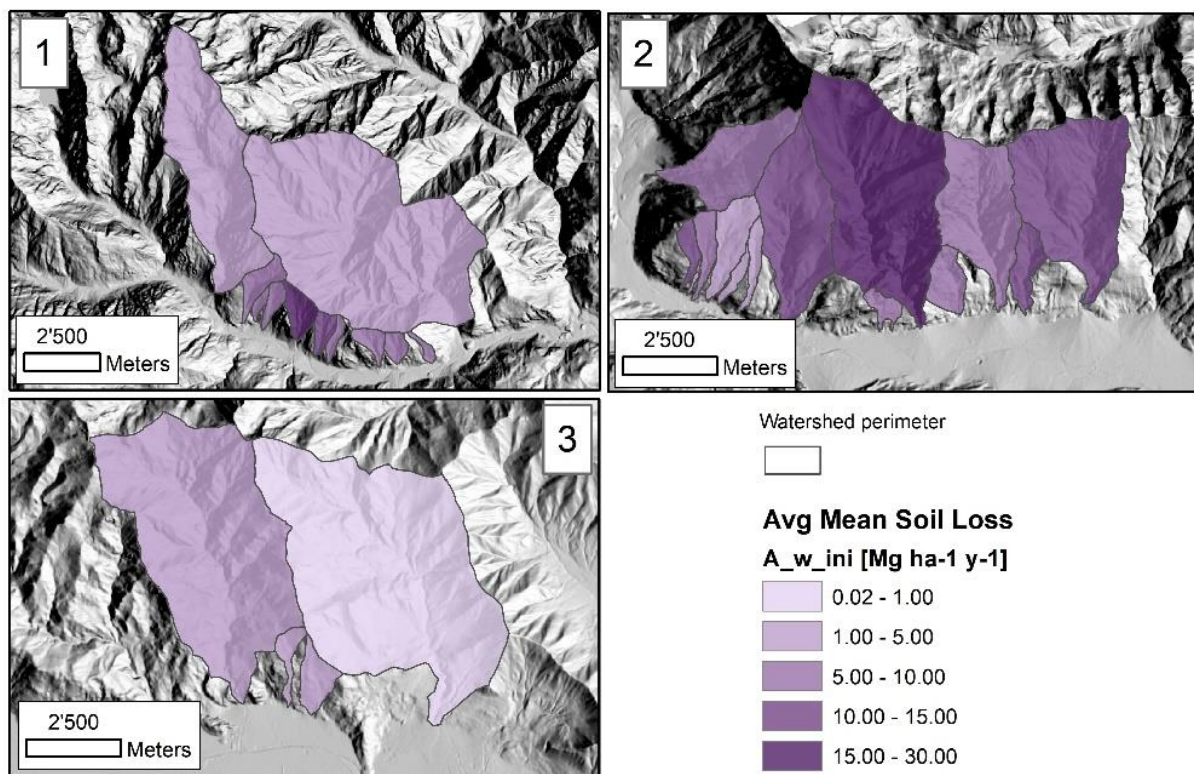


Figure 7.32 - Spatially averaged value of the annual soil loss, A_{w_ini} , for the watersheds affected by the Locana/Ribordone (1), Bussoleno/Mompintero (2) and Caprie/Rubiana (3) wildfires; post-fire condition, initial assessment.

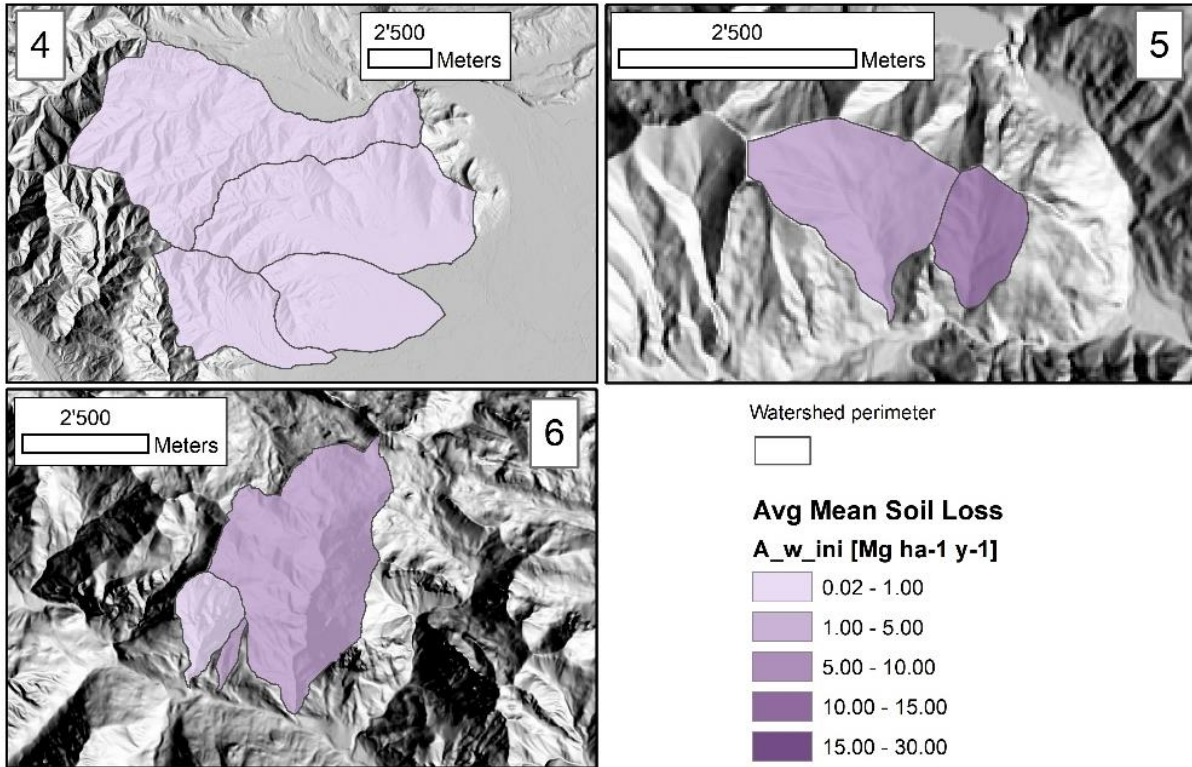


Figure 7.33 - Spatially averaged value of the annual soil loss, A_{w_ini} , for the watersheds affected by the Cumiana/Cantalupa (4), Bellino/Casteldelfino (5) and Sambuco/Pietraporzio (6) wildfires; post-fire condition, initial assessment.

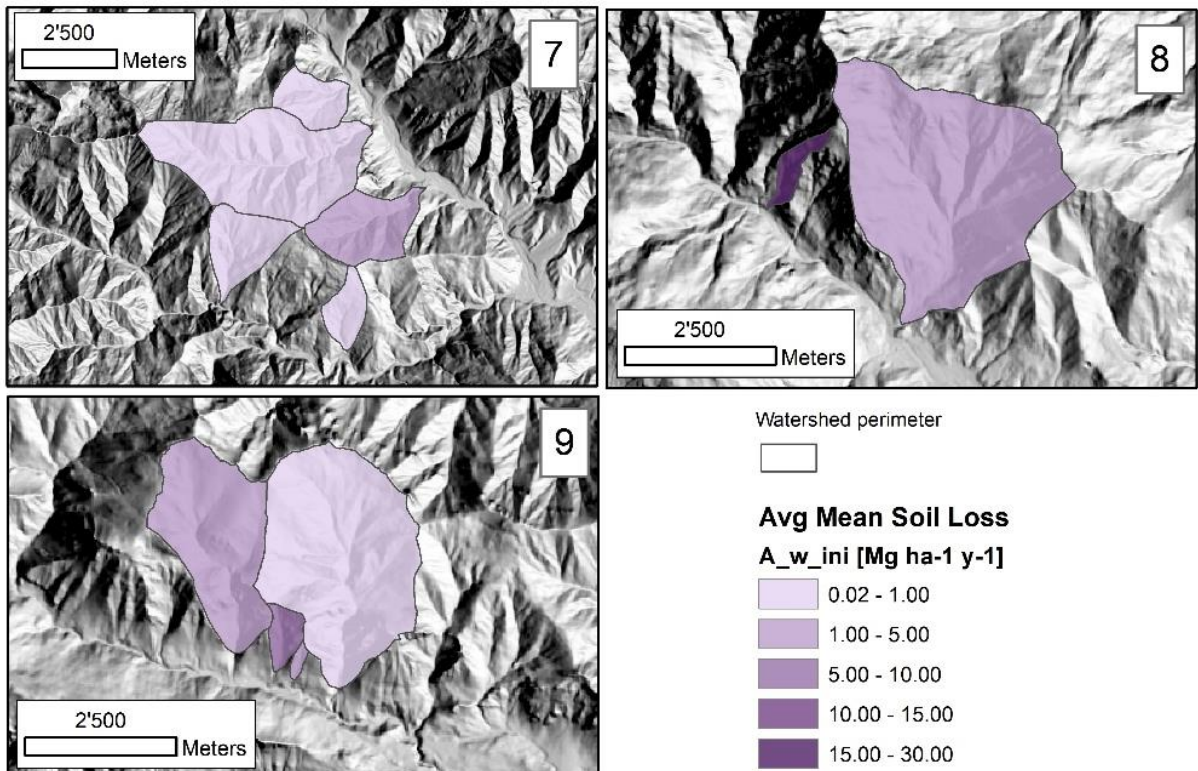


Figure 7.34 - Spatially averaged value of the annual soil loss, A_{w_ini} , for the watersheds affected by the Roure/Perrero (7), Traversella (8) and Demonte (9) wildfires; post-fire condition, initial assessment.

Finally, SL_{ini} and SL_{ext} [$Mg\ y^{-1}$] have been then calculated repeating the pre-fire procedure. For the initial assessment, mean value of sediment loss is $2244\ Mg\ y^{-1}$, while for the extended assessment the mean value is $1764\ Mg\ y^{-1}$. Higher values for both the initial and the extended assessment are found for the Rio Prebech, Giandula and Rocciamelone watersheds (fig. 7.37). Maps for this parameter are given in Appendix 4 (figg. A4.37, A4.38, A4.39, A4.58, A4.59 and A4.60).

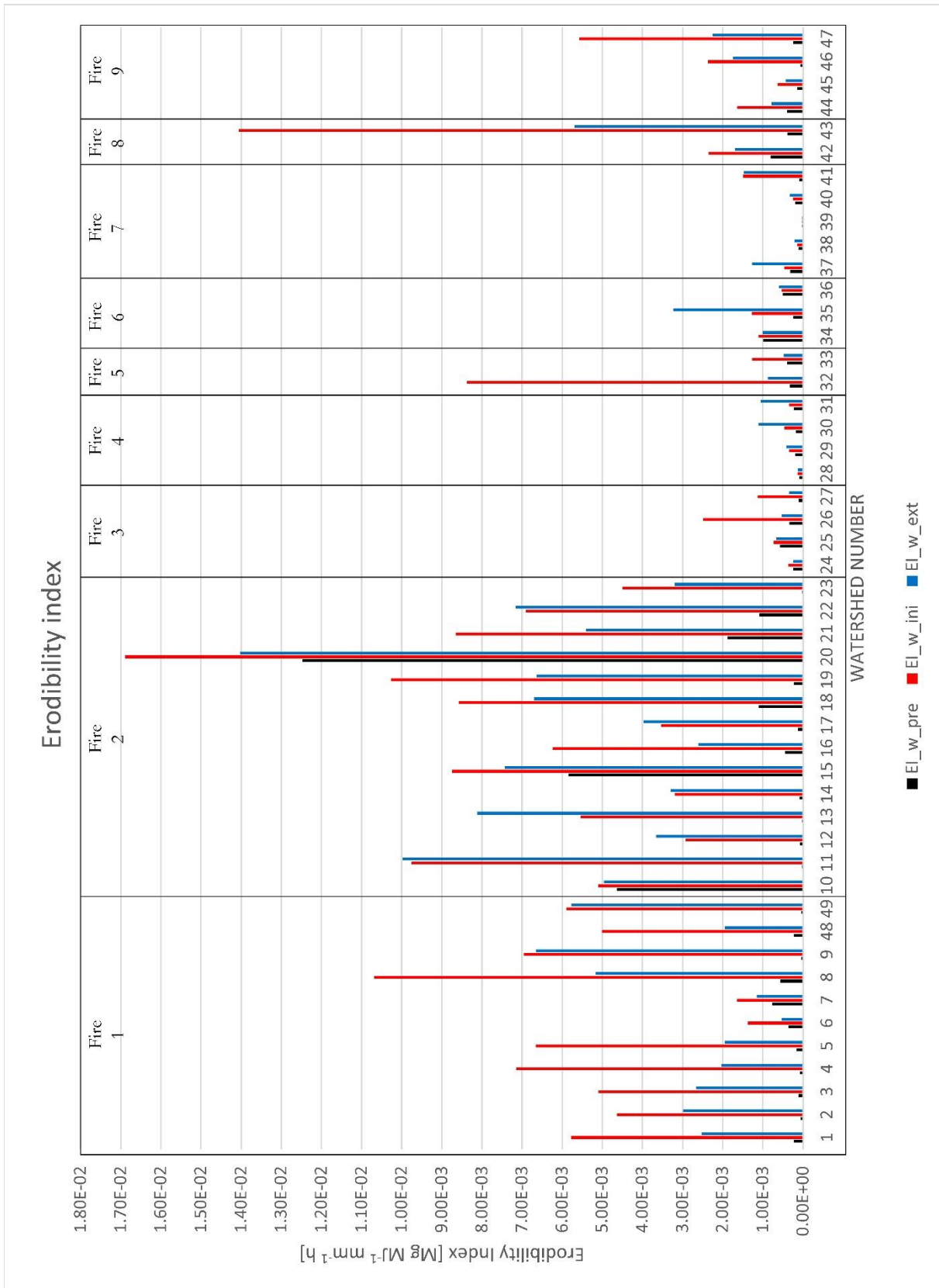


Figure 7.35 – Values of Erodibility Index, EI, for the 49 watershed in the pre-fire condition and for the post-fire initial and extended assessment.

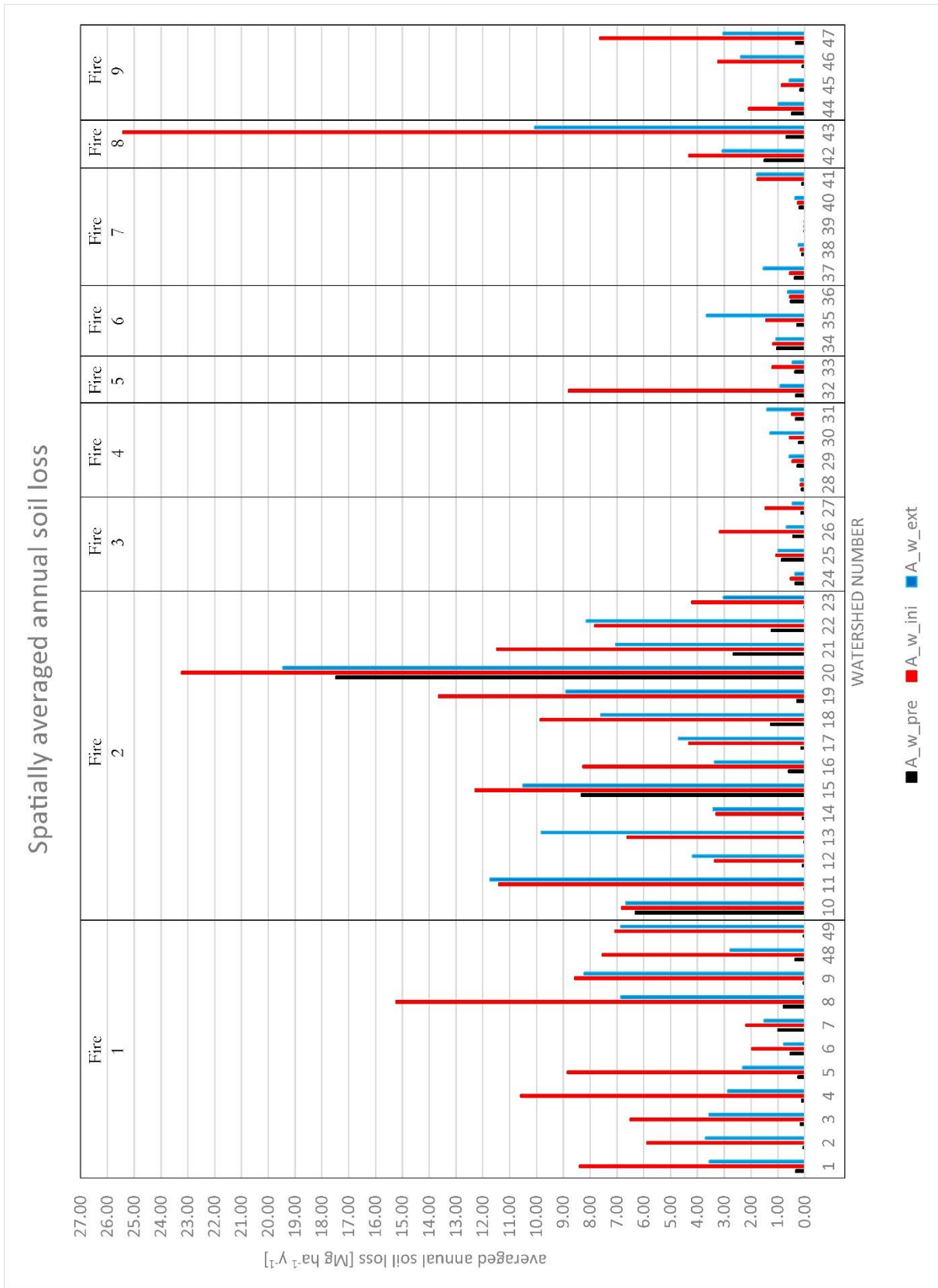


Figure 7.36 – Values of Average Annual Soil Loss, *A*, for the 49 watershed in the pre-fire condition and for the post-fire initial and extended assessment.

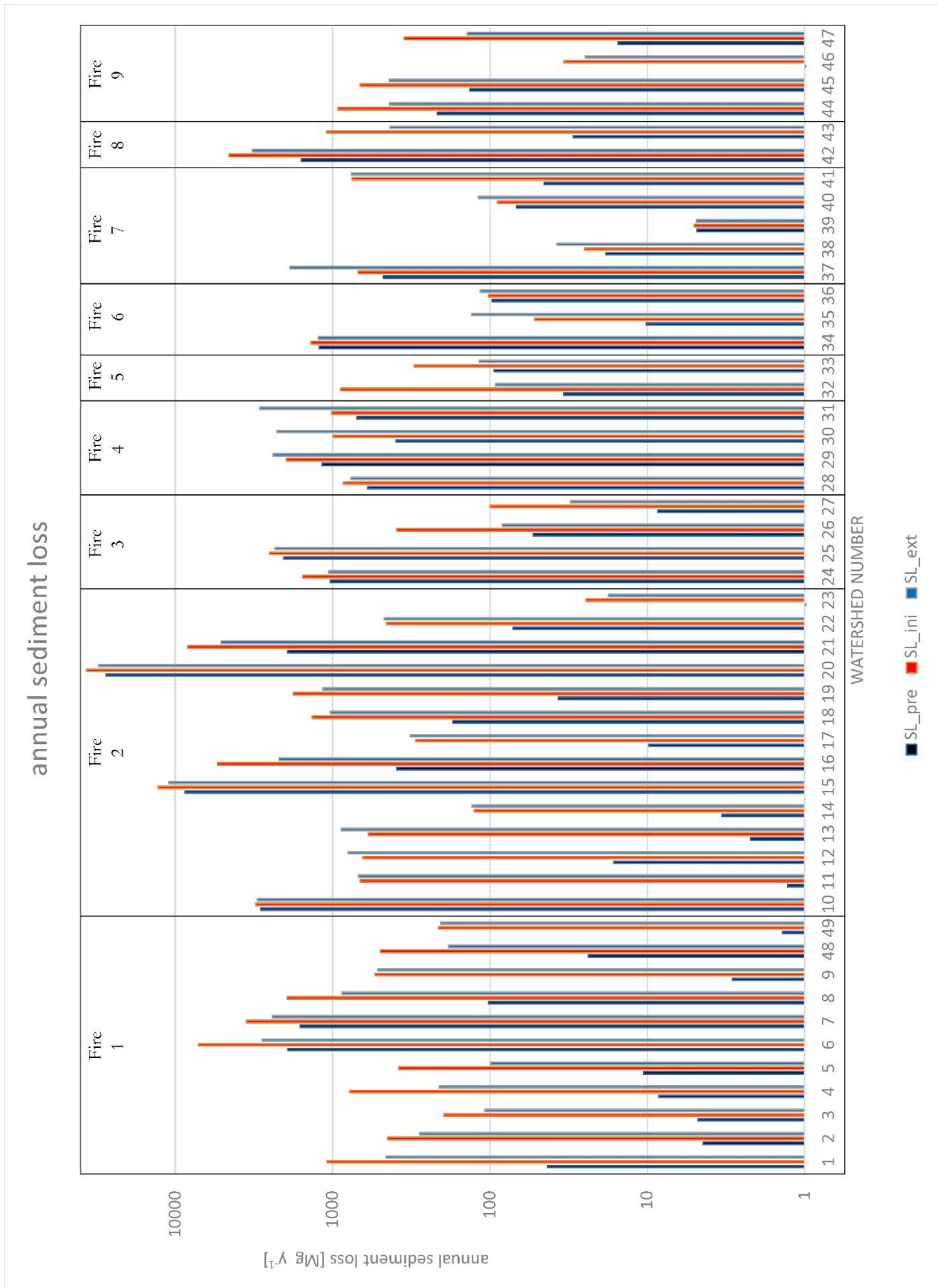


Figure 7.37 – Values of Annual Sediment Loss, SL , for the 49 watershed in the pre-fire condition and for the post-fire initial and extended assessment.

7.2.4.3 Pre-fire vs post-fire

EI values calculated for the pre-fire situation EI_{w_pre} , for the post-fire initial assessment EI_{w_ini} and for the post-fire extended assessment EI_{w_ext} have been compared by calculating their relative ratios ($R_{EI_ini_pre}$ and $R_{EI_ext_pre}$ and $R_{EI_ext_ini}$) for assessing the effect of wildfires with respect to pre-fire condition. Results of the initial vs pre-fire comparison are given fig 7.38, while related maps and detailed tables are reported in appendix 4.

Overall results show a general increase in the EI values for the post fire condition, the ratio between initial and pre-fire assessment having a mean value of 43.56 and the ratio between extended and pre-fire assessment averaging 38.66. It is moreover evident a dichotomy between fire number 1 and 2 (Locana/Ribordone and Bussoleno/Mompantero) and the other seven wildfires: the mean value of the EI ratios (initial assessment vs pre-fire) of the first two fires is equal to 77.49 (63,54 and 88.45 respectively), while the mean value of the remaining is 8.22. Maximum EI ratios are observed for the Bussoleno/Mompantero fire, in which watersheds no. 11, 13 and 23 are characterized by values of 513.79, 388.96 and 197.12 respectively (for the extended assessment with respect to pre-fire condition).

The comparison between the post-fire extended and initial assessment shows a general reduction of the EI ratios, the first being on average the 91% of the second. The decrease in the extended assessment is consistent between watershed for the fire no. 1 (mean value 0.55), while in the Bussoleno/Mompantero fire some watersheds (nos. 11, 12 and 13) are subjected to an increase of the EI values for the extended assessment, the ratio being equal to 1.24. For fires nos. 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8 and 9 the Erodibility Index ratio between extended and initial assessment is on average equal to 1.07, showing a slight increase.

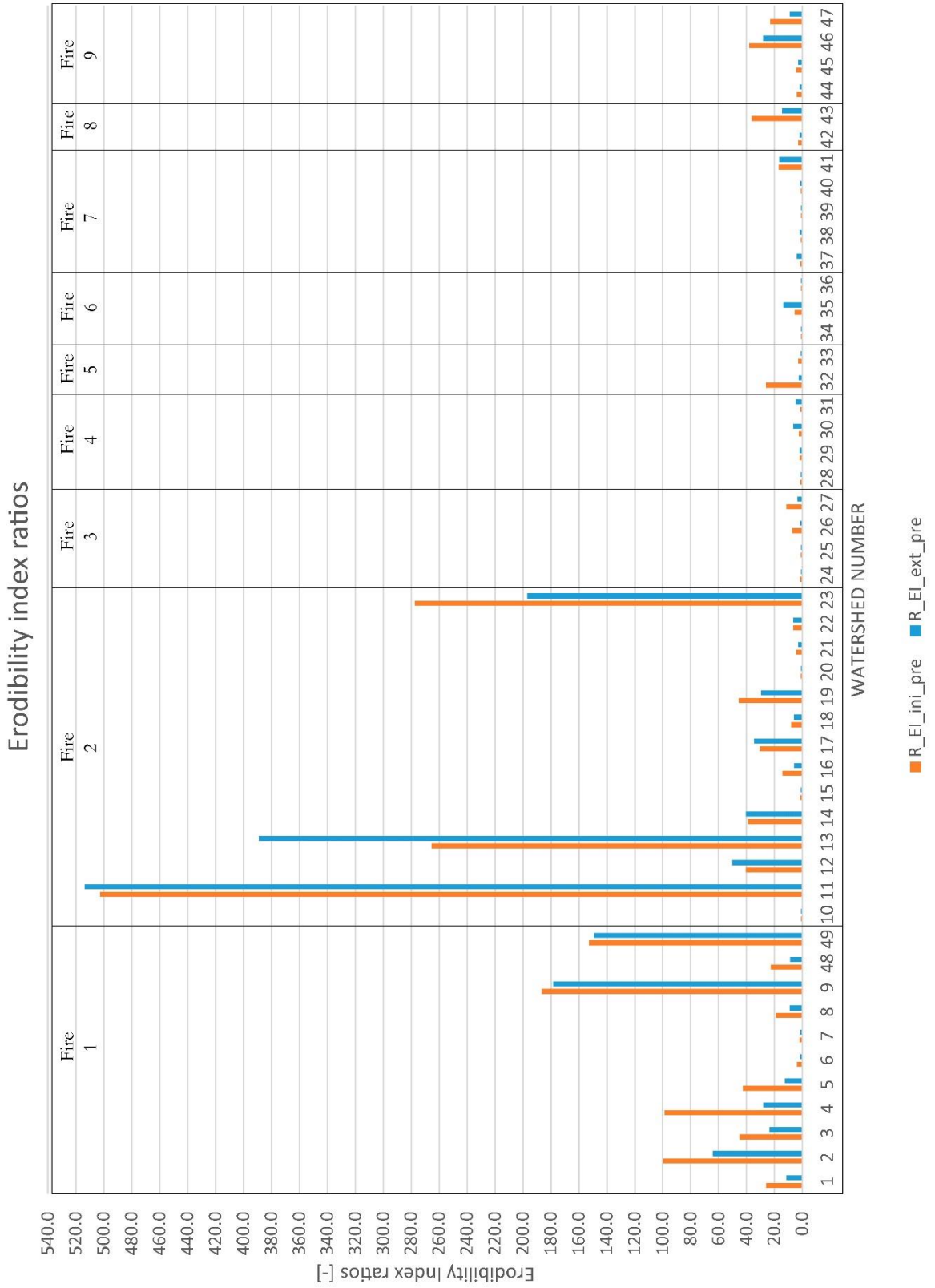


Figure 7.38 – Erodibility Index relative ratios R_EI_ini_pre and R_EI_ext_pre.

Spatially averaged annual soil loss (A) values calculated for the pre-fire situation A_{w_pre} , for the post-fire initial assessment A_{w_ini} and for the post-fire extended assessment A_{w_ext} have been compared by calculating their relative ratios ($R_{A_ini_pre}$ and $R_{A_ext_pre}$). Results of the initial vs pre-fire comparison are given fig 7.39, while related maps are reported in appendix 4.

Overall results show a tendency very similar to the overall EI ratios over the 49 watershed, suggesting a homogeneously distributed contribution of the rainfall erosivity factor R . A general increase in the A ratios for the post fire condition is registered, the ratio between initial and pre-fire assessment having a mean value of 43.42 and the ratio between extended and pre-fire assessment averaging 38.87. Again, strong differences affect fire number 1 and 2 (Locana/Ribordone and Bussoleno/Mompantero) and the other seven wildfires: the mean value of the A ratios (initial assessment vs pre-fire) of the first two fires is equal to 77.28 (61,87 and 89.39 respectively), while the mean value of the remaining is 8.16. Maximum A ratios are observed for the Bussoleno/Mompantero fire, in which watersheds n. 11, 13 and 23 are characterized by values of 532.09, 400.03 and 195.92, respectively (for the extended assessment with respect to pre-fire condition).

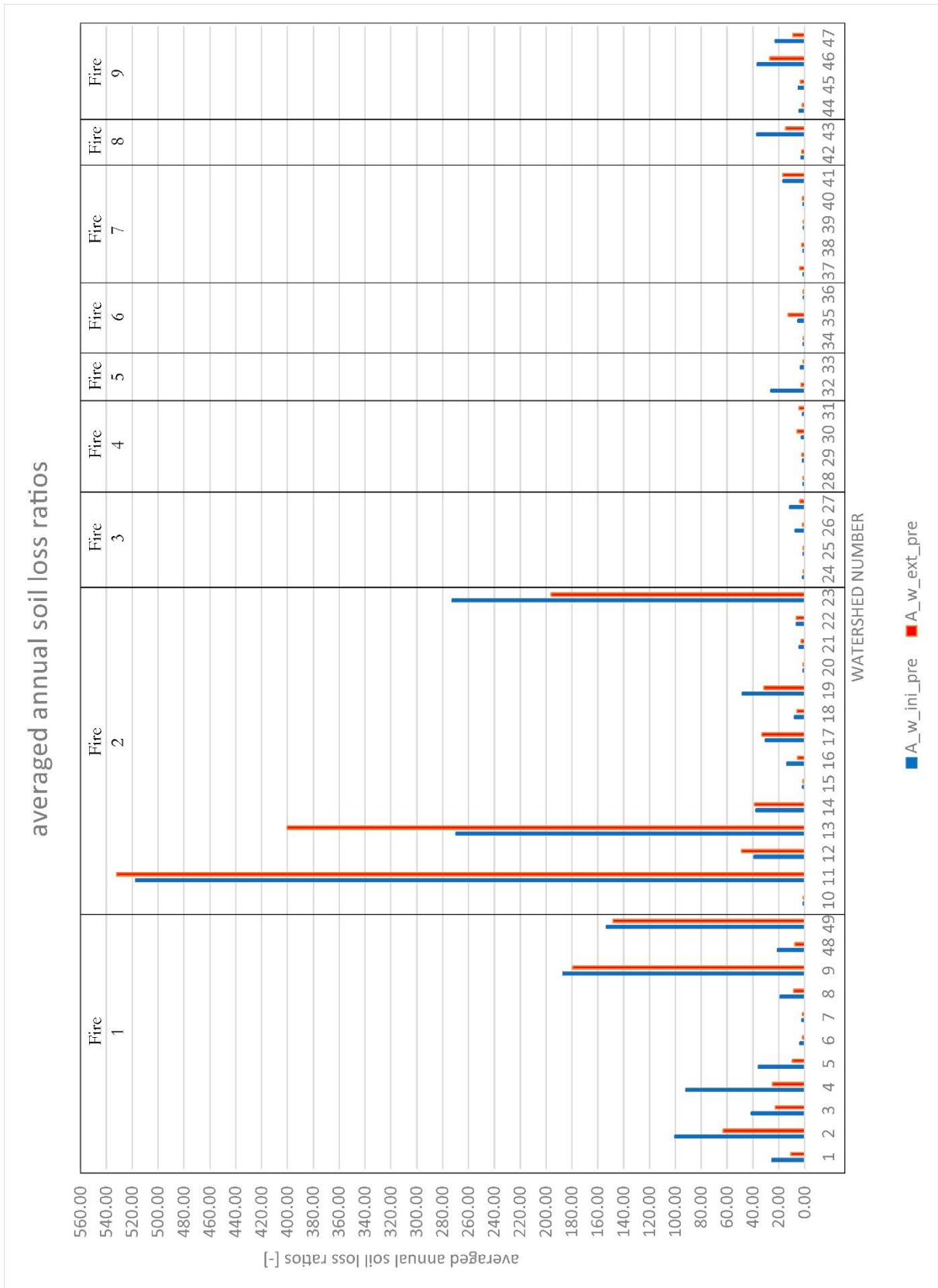


Figure 7.39 – Spatially averaged annual soil loss relative ratios $A_{w_ini_pre}$ and $A_{w_ext_pre}$.

7.2.5 Fire-related runoff model

7.2.5.1 Pre-fire

CN values for the watersheds affected by 2017 wildfires have been computed as described in the paragraph 6.2.5. The area weighted CN_{w_pre} values for the 49 watersheds and the detailed map of the CN values calculated for homogeneous sub-areas are reported in figg. A5.1 – A5.6 (appendix 5). Results for the pre-fire conditions show, for all the 49 watersheds, averaged CN ranging from 50.89 to 84.77, with mean value of 62.43. Maximum values (over 80 or slightly below) are reached in four watersheds interested by the Locana/Ribordone fire, namely the nos. 1, 3, 7 and 48.

Excess runoff values Q_{pre} for the chosen design 24h precipitation are given in figg. 7.40, 7.41 and 7.42. The results describing averaged soil loss (Q_{w_pre}) for the pre-fire situation over the 49 watersheds show a mean runoff excess equal to 40.22 mm, with a range from 5.71 to 123.60 mm. The higher values are registered for the Locana/Ribordone area (mean = 78.43 mm), while lower ones characterize the Bussoleno/Mompantero and Bellino/Casteldelfino areas (mean equal to 18.49 and 6.03 mm respectively).

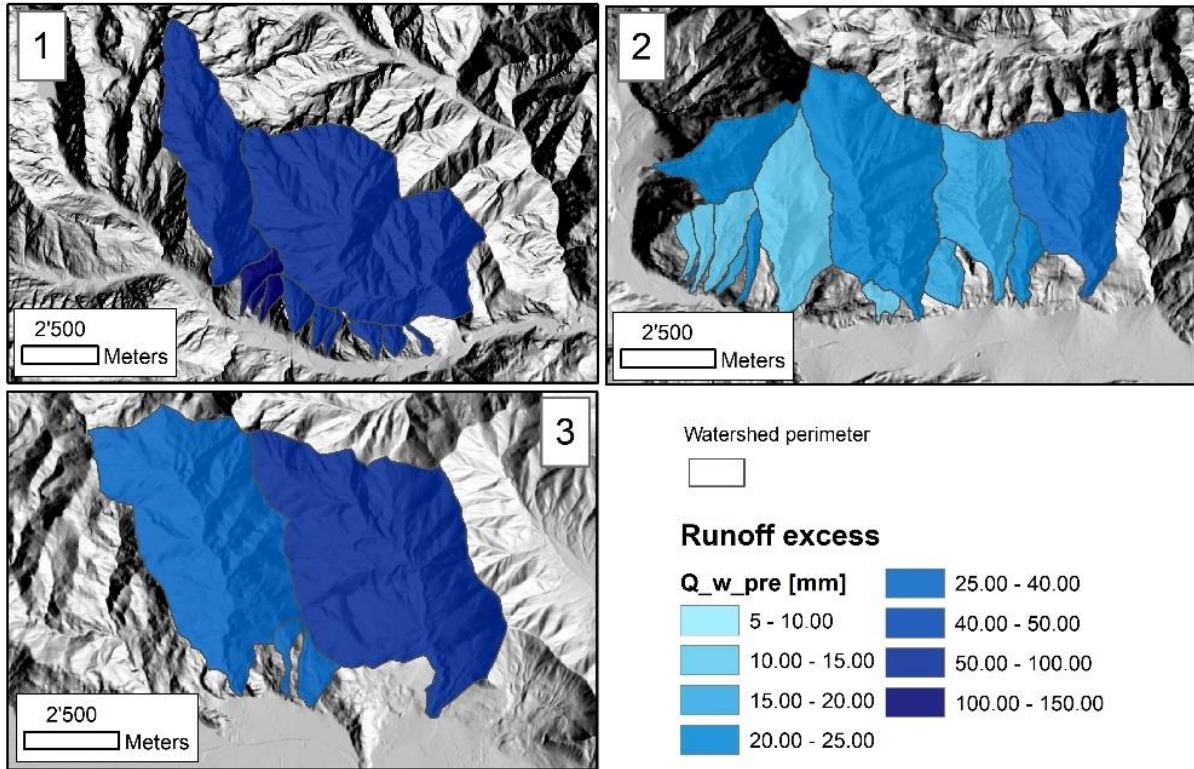


Figure 7.40 - Pre-fire runoff excess, Q_{w_pre} , for the watersheds affected by the Locana/Ribordone (1), Bussoleno/Mompantero (2) and Caprie/Rubiana (3) wildfires.

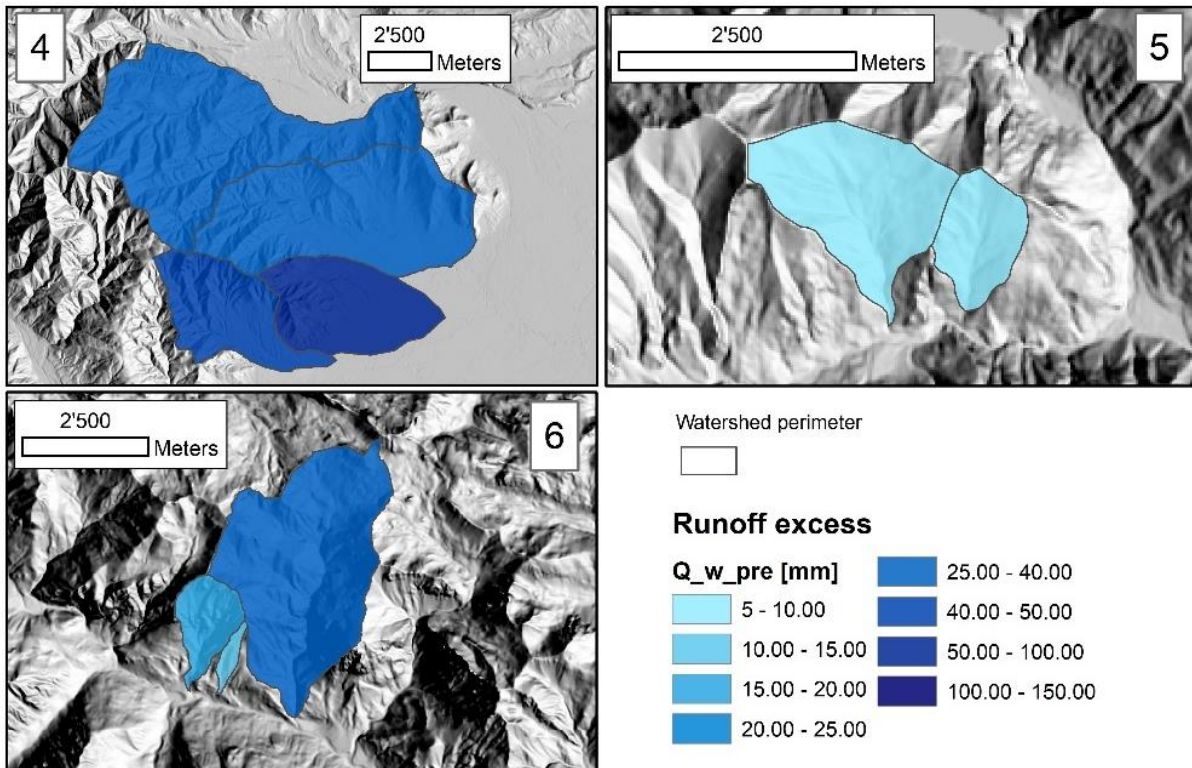


Figure 7.41 - Pre-fire runoff excess, Q_{w_pre} , for the watersheds affected by the Cumiana/Cantalupa (4), Bellino/Casteldelfino (5) and Sambuco/Pietraporzio (6) wildfires.

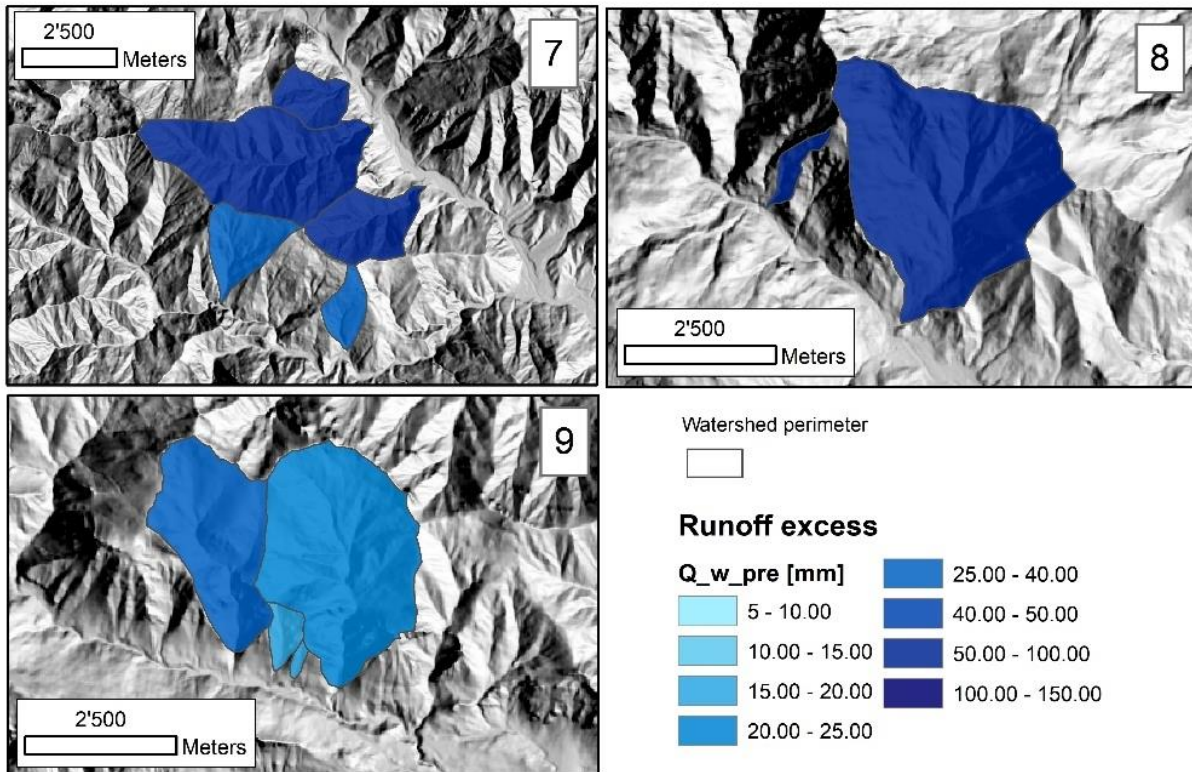


Figure 7.42 - Pre-fire runoff excess, Q_{w_pre} , for the watersheds affected by the Roure/Perrero (7), Traversella (8) and Demonte (9) wildfires.

7.2.5.2 Post-fire

Post-fire condition has been modeled by computing post-fire CN values as a function of fire severity (unburned, low, moderate or high) following the empirical adjustment factors described in par. 6.2.5. All maps describing the CN values (CN_{ini} and CN_{ext}) calculated for homogeneous sub-areas and the spatially averaged CN values (CN_{w_ini} and CN_{w_ext}) are reported in figg. A5.7 – A5.18 (appendix 5). The graph summarizing the CN values for the 49 watersheds in the pre- and post-fire situation is reported in fig. 7.43. Excess runoff values Q_{w_ini} for the chosen design 24h precipitation are reported in figg. 7.44, 7.45 and 7.46, while the extended assessment results Q_{w_ext} are reported in figg. A5.19, A5.20 and A5.21 (Appendix 5).

Results for the post-fire conditions, initial assessment, show averaged CN ranging from 55.85 to 87.37, having a mean value of 72.53. A marked increase is registered in the watersheds affected by the Locana/Ribordone and the Bussoleno/Mompantero wildfires. For the extended assessment values span from 51.89 to 87.30, averaging 69.59, showing thereof a very slight decrease.

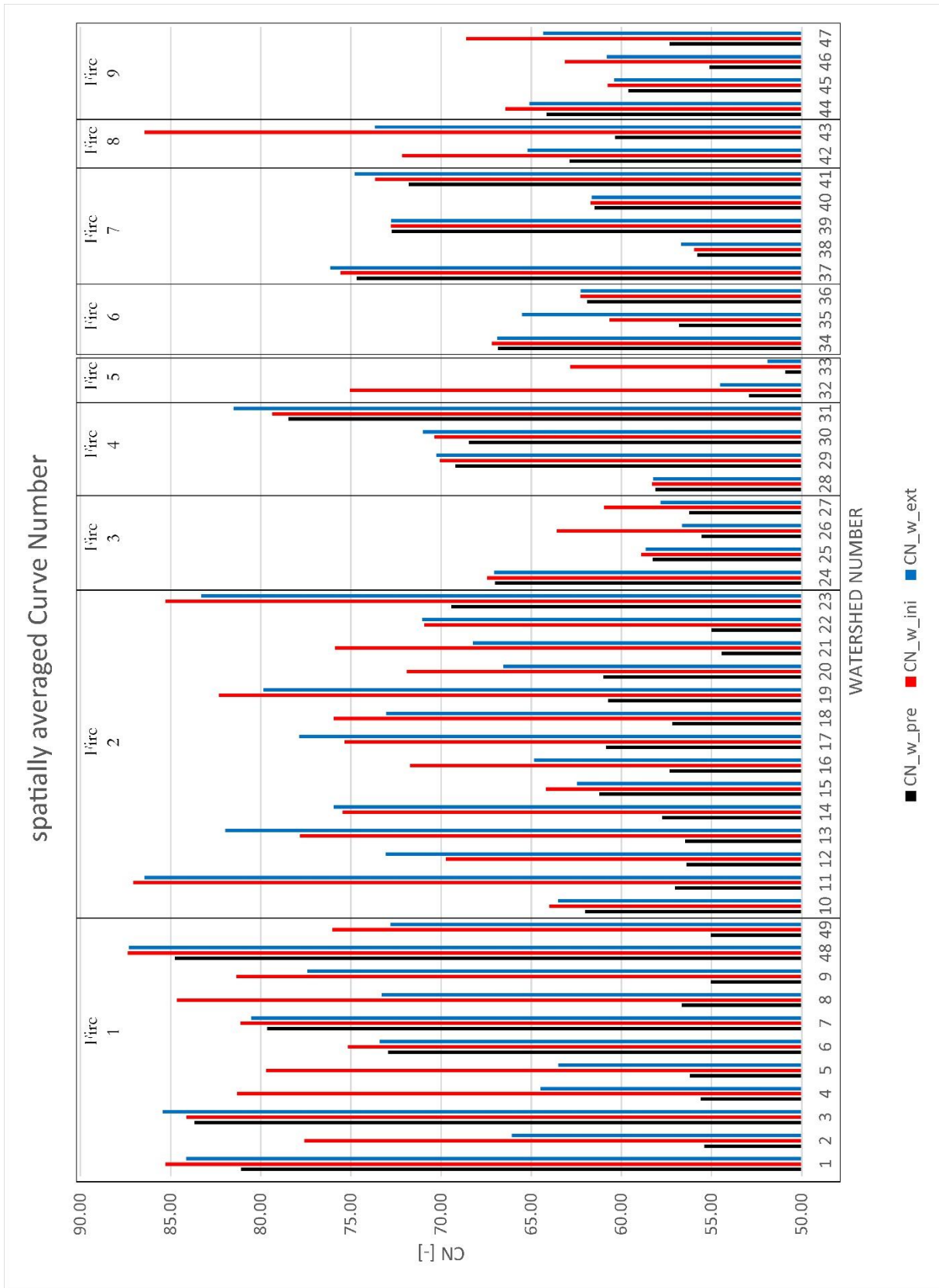


Figure 7.43 – Values of the Curve Number, CN, for the 49 watershed in the pre-fire condition and for the post-fire initial and extended assessment.

The results regarding the averaged soil loss (Q_{w_ini}) for the initial assessment over the 49 watersheds show a mean runoff excess equal to 59.71 mm, with a range from 16.55 to 136.67 m. The higher values are registered for the Locana/Ribordone and Traversella areas (mean equal to 115.62 mm and 109.17), while lower ones characterize the Bellino/Casteldelfino and Sambuco/Pietraporzio areas (mean equal to 24.10 mm and 21.13 mm, respectively)(fig. 7.47).

For the extended assessment, the averaged soil loss (Q_{w_ext}) show a mean runoff excess equal to 53.43 mm, with a range from 6.44 to 130.67 m over the 49 watersheds. The higher values are registered for the Locana/Ribordone and Traversella areas (mean equal to 99.66 mm and 82.94), while lower ones characterize the Bellino/Casteldelfino and Sambuco/Pietraporzio areas (mean equal to 7.01 mm and 22.96 mm, respectively) (fig. 7.47).

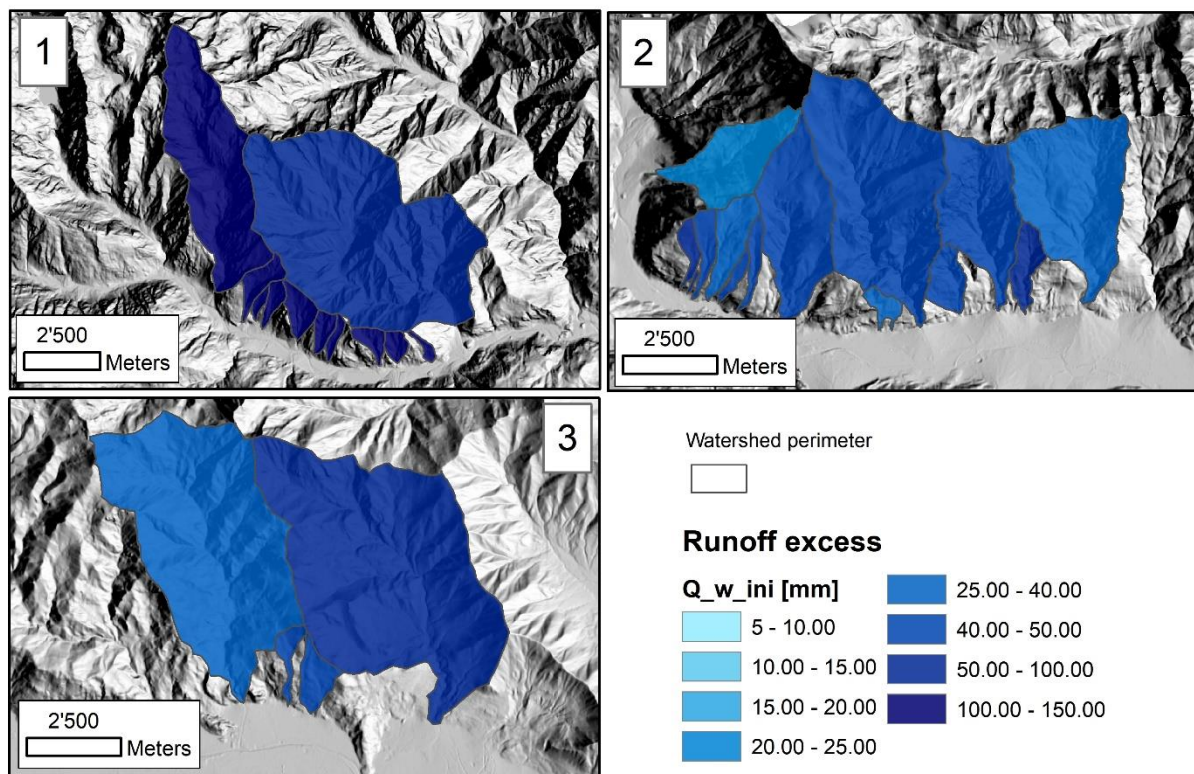


Figure 7.44 – Runof excess, Q_{w_ini} for the watersbeds affected by the Locana/Ribordone (1), Bussoleno/Mompantero (2) and Caprie/Rubiana (3) wildfires; post-fire, initial assessment.

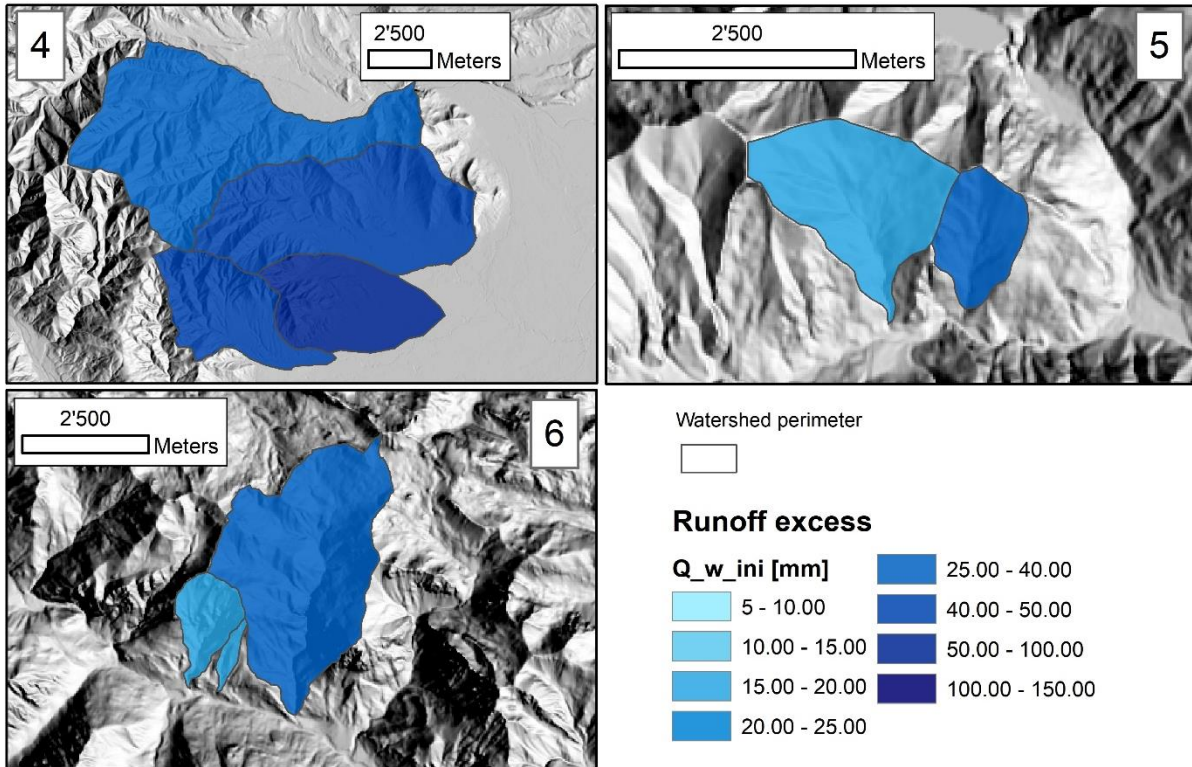


Figure 7.45 - Runoff excess, Q_w_{ini} , for the watersheds affected by the Cumiana/Cantalupa (4), Bellino/Casteldelfino (5) and Sambuco/Pietraporzio (6) wildfires; post-fire, initial assessment.

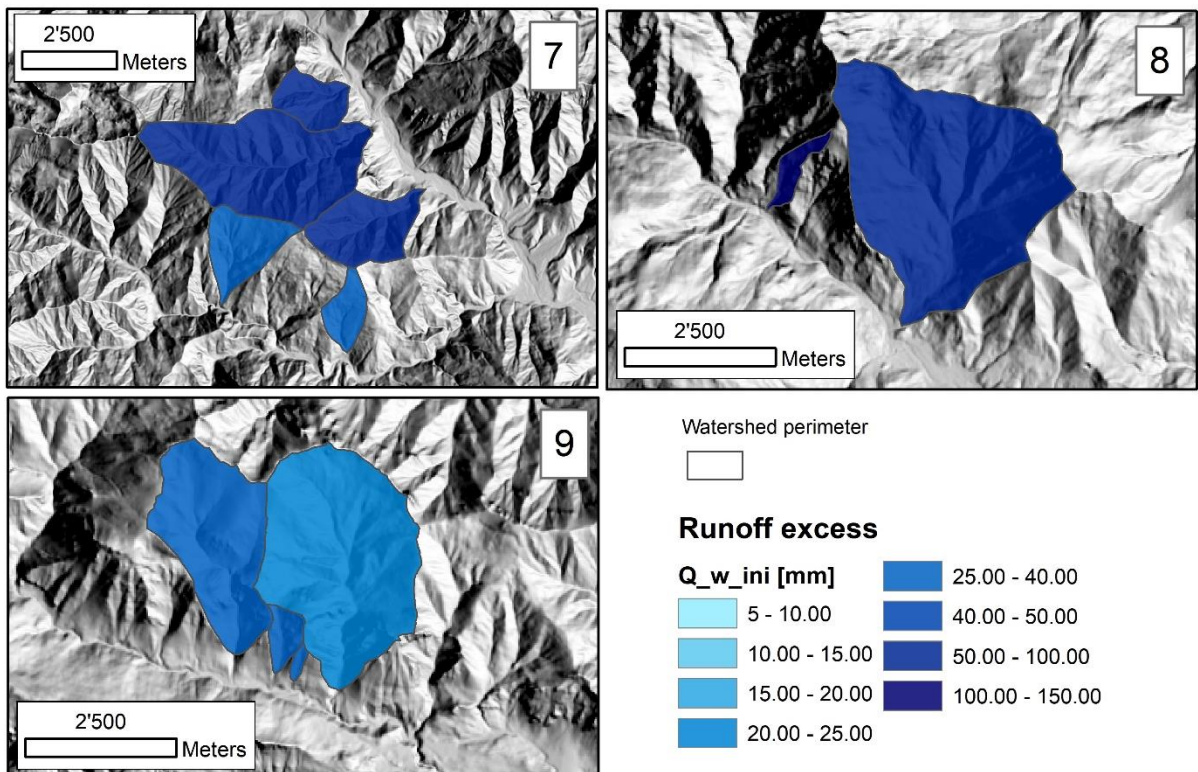


Figure 7.46 - Runoff excess, Q_w_{ini} , for the watersheds affected by the Roure/Perrero (7), Traversella (8) and Demonte (9) wildfires; post-fire, initial assessment.

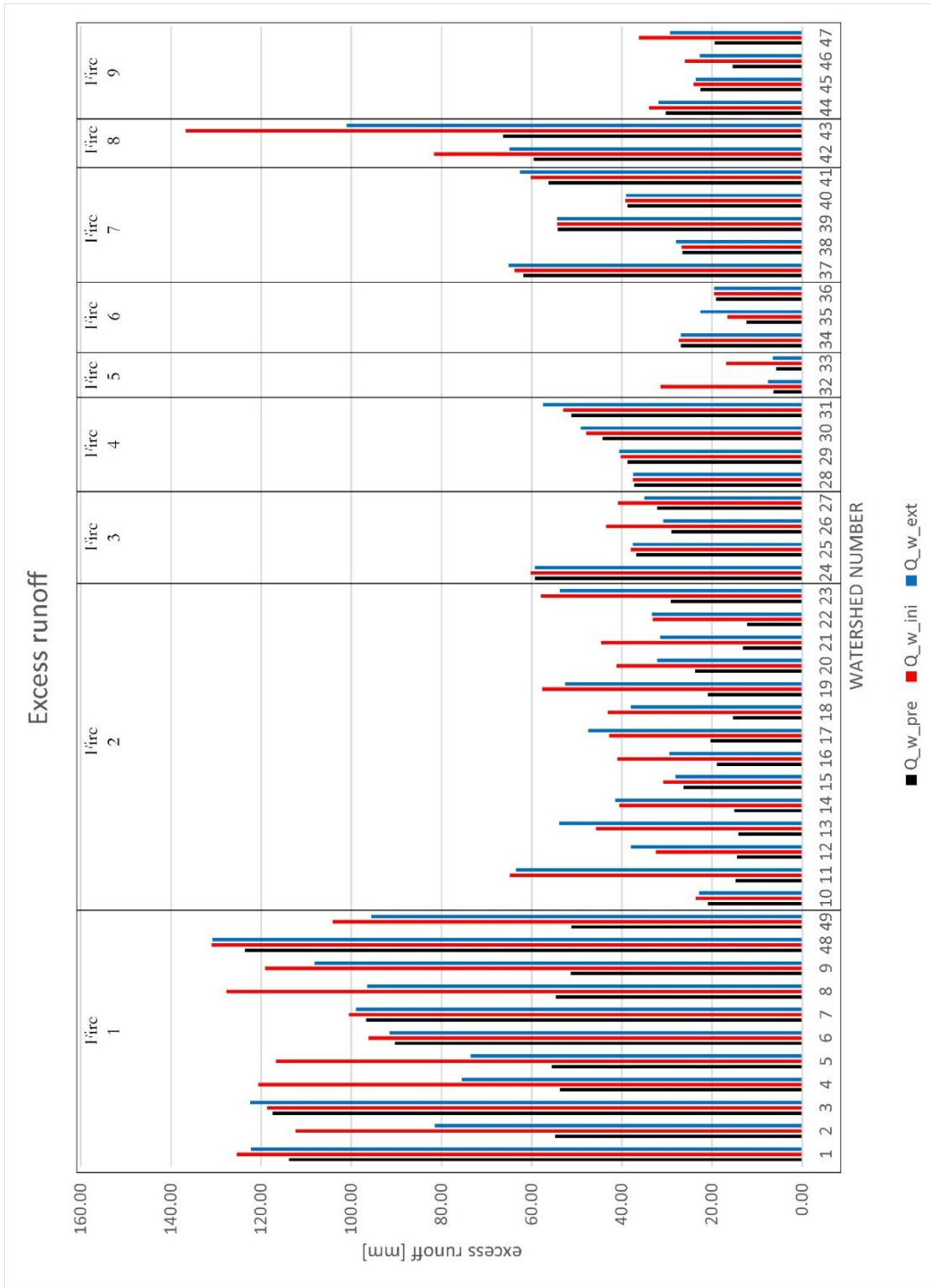


Figure 7.47 – Values of the excess runoff depth, Q , for the 49 watershed in the pre-fire condition and for the post-fire initial and extended assessment.

7.2.5.3 Pre-fire vs post-fire

Excess runoff depth ratio comparing pre-fire and post-fire conditions are given in fig 7.48 in which $R_{Q_{ini_pre}}$ and $R_{Q_{ext_pre}}$ are reported. Figures 7.49, 7.50 and 7.51 report the map for $R_{Q_{ini_pre}}$, and shows in a graphical way the increase in runoff for the analyzed watersheds. Detailed tables are reported in appendix 5, in which also the maps of $R_{Q_{ext_pre}}$ and $R_{Q_{ext_ini}}$ are given.

Overall statistics for the 49 watersheds report an average initial assessment vs pre-fire ratio of 1.79, values ranging from 1.00 to 4.94. The ratio between the extended assessment and the pre-fire condition has an average value of 1.54, with a range between 1.00 and 4.33. The mean extended assessment to initial assessment ratio has a value equal to 0.91, varying from 0.24 to 1.36.

Maximum values of the $R_{Q_{ini_pre}}$ are recorded for the Bellino/Casteldelfino and Bussoleno/Mompantero fires, for which the mean values are 3.94 and 2.47, respectively; for the $R_{Q_{ext_ini}}$ the maximum values are found for the Bussoleno/Mompantero areas, mean value being 2.35. Looking at the $R_{Q_{ext_pre}}$ values, three wildfire affected areas show an increase over 9, namely Cumiana/Cantalupa, Sambuco/Pietraporzio and Roure/Perrero, mean values being 1.03, 1.11 and 1.02, respectively.

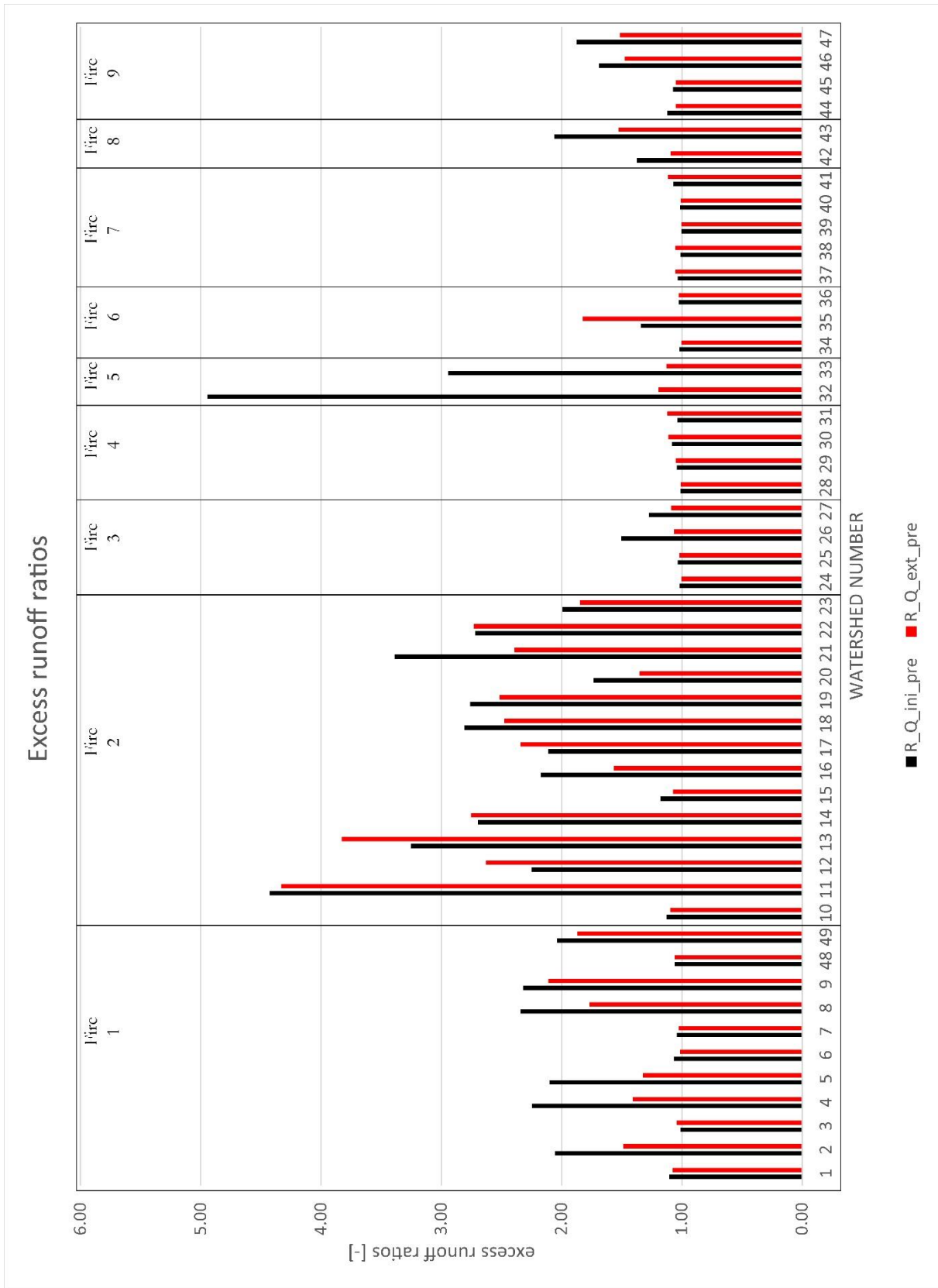


Figure 7.48 - Excess runoff depth ratio comparing pre-fire and post-fire conditions $R_{Q_{ini_pre}}$ and $R_{Q_{ext_pre}}$.

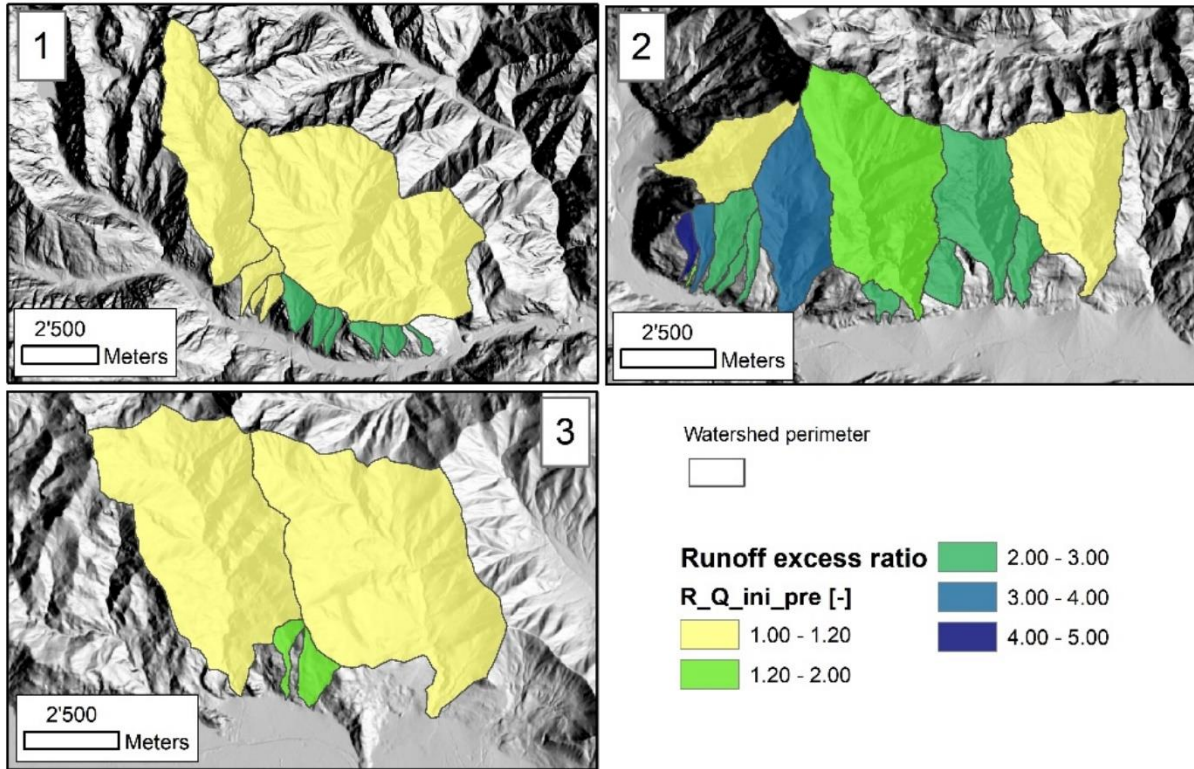


Figure 7.49 – Runoff excess ratio, $R_{Q_ini_pre}$, between post-fire (initial assessment) and pre-fire situation for the watersheds affected by the Locana/Ribordone (1), Bussoleno/Mompantero (2) and Caprie/Rubiana (3) wildfires.

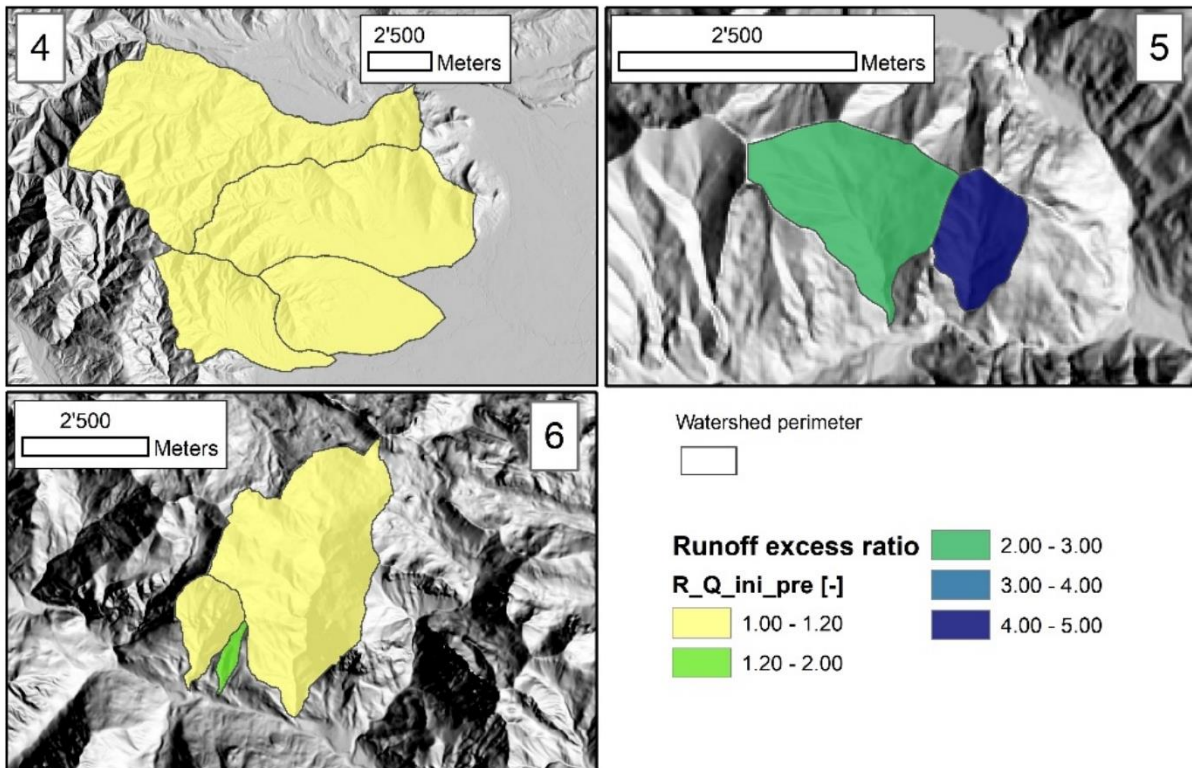


Figure 7.50 - Runoff excess ratio, $R_{Q_ini_pre}$, between post-fire (initial assessment) and pre-fire situation for the watersheds affected by the Cumiana/Cantalupa (4), Bellino/Casteldelfino (5) and Sambuco/Pietraporzio (6) wildfires.

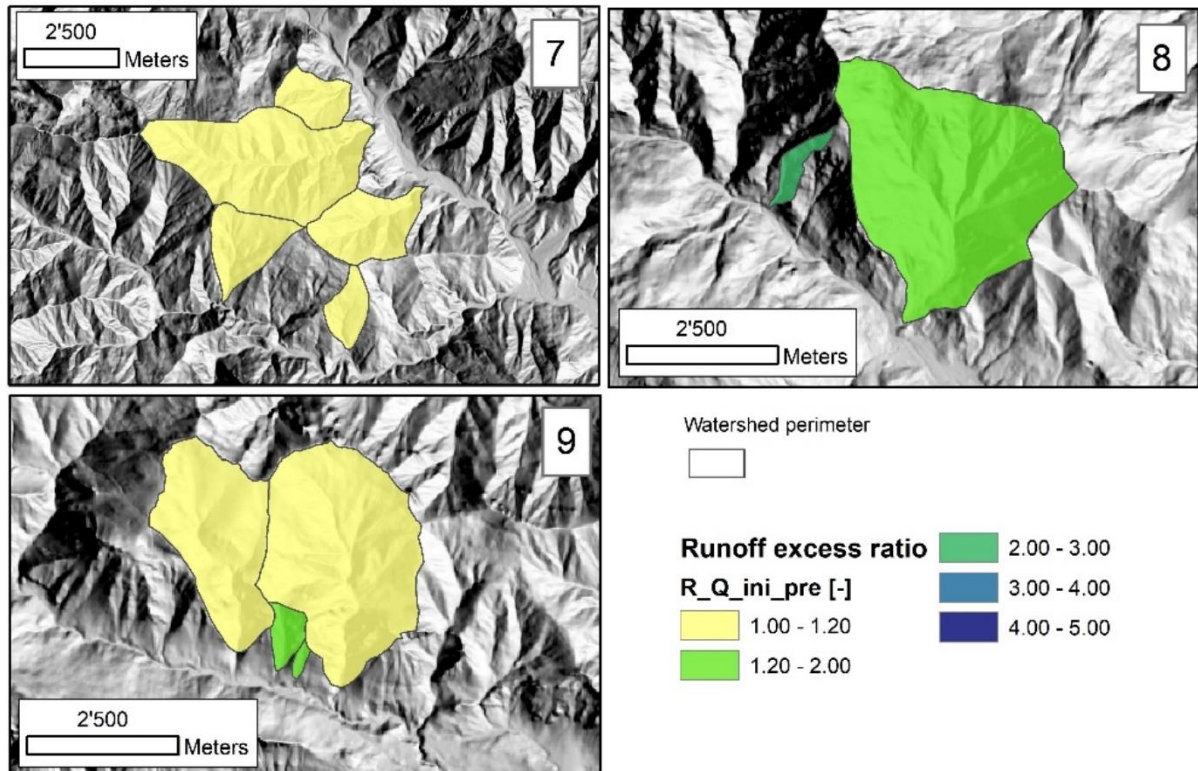


Figure 7.51 - Runoff excess ratio, $R_{Q_ini_pre}$, between post-fire (initial assessment) and pre-fire situation for the watersheds affected by the Roure/Perrero (7), Traversella (8) and Demonte (9) wildfires.

7.3 The Comba delle Foglie Case Study

The Comba delle Foglie watershed experienced in May and June 2018 consecutive (either mud-flows and debris-flows) flow events, reaching the outlet and striking the uppermost part of the village, especially at the San Lorenzo locality. The date and type of the flows are reported in table 7.22.

Table 7-22 – date of occurrence, type and damages related to the events registered at the Comba delle Foglie outlet.

Date (dd/mm/yy)	Type	Damages
29/04/18	debris/mud-flow	Few roads, water pipeline
02/05/18	Flood	-
09/05/18	Flood	-
13/05/18	Flood	-
07/06/18	Debris/mud-flow	Roads, houses, lifelines

7.3.1 Field surveys and post-fire watershed response

The watershed suffered a fire in 2003, in addition to that of 2017. Fire severity maps for both the wildfires are reported in fig. 7.52.

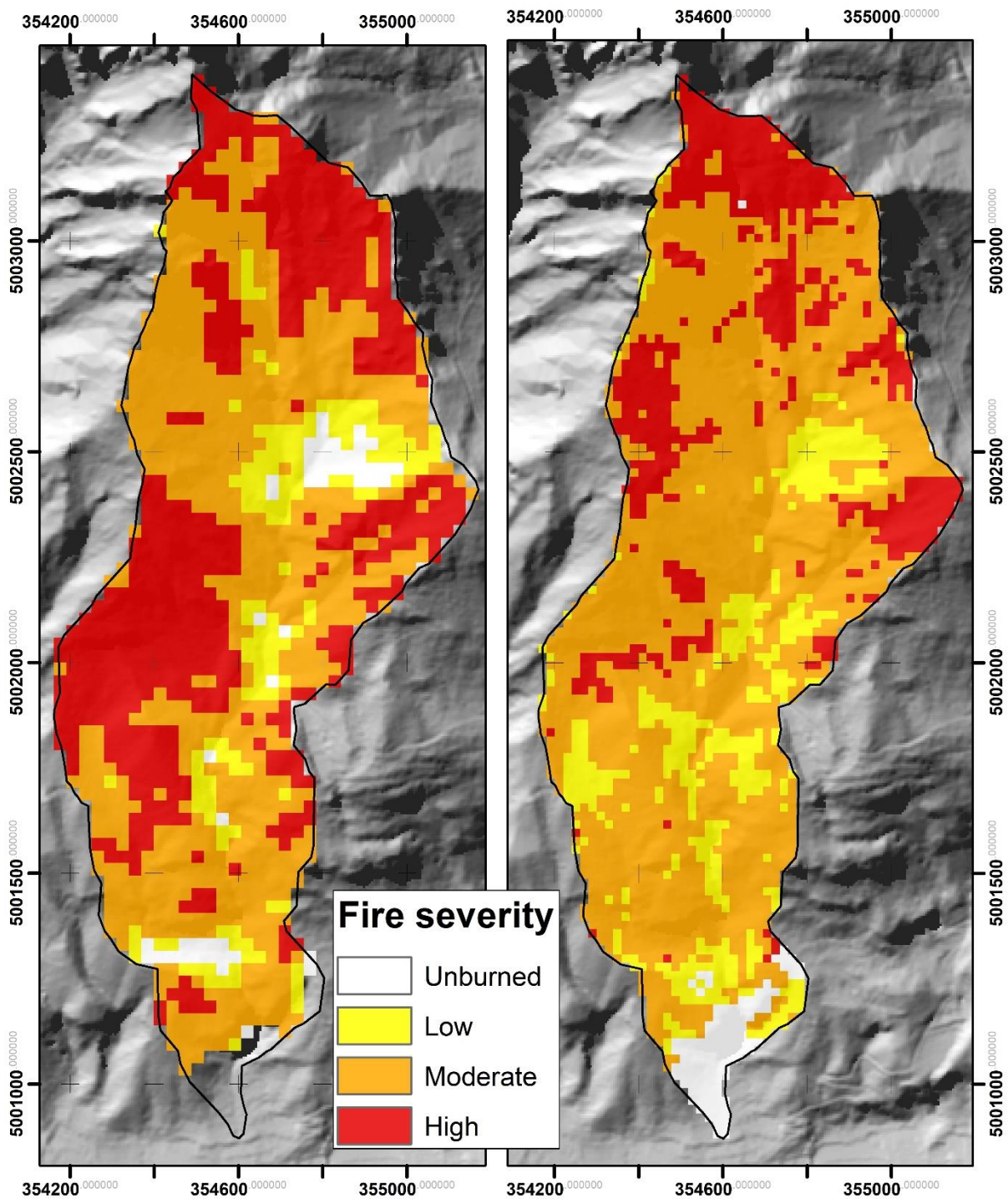


Figure 7.52 – Fire severity maps related to the 2003 (left) and 2017 (right) wildfires.

Survey conducted in the watershed, starting from the uppermost portion revealed evident traces of overland flow coalescing into rills, and then into the main drainage line at the watershed bottom (fig. 7.53). Zero and first order streams showed evidence of increased erosion and sediment transport, since the very beginning close to the divide of the catchment (Fig 7.54 a). On open slopes the dominant

erosional process was found to be the sheetflow erosion, occasionally associated with rill dominated sectors where the tree vegetation was denser (fig 7.54 b). In the lower part of the basin, characterized by a generally higher percentage of residual vegetation cover, rill and little gullies were detected. Also, some pathway showed signs of erosional processes due to overland flow.

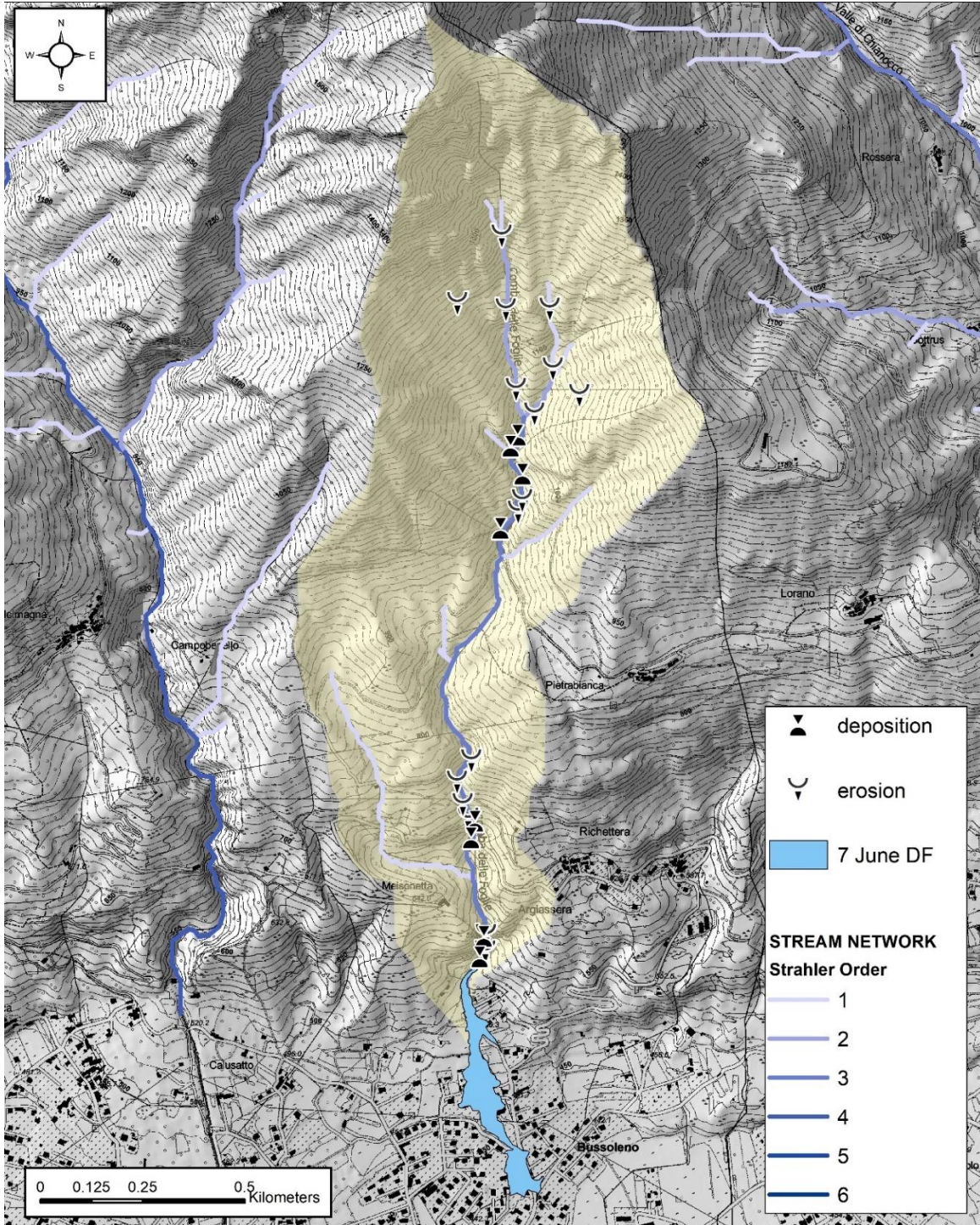


Figure 7.53 – erosional and depositional feature surveyed in the watershed.

In the main channel the erosion, increasing proceeding downstream, was marked by channel incision with steep banks and frequently exposed bedrock (fig 7.54 c). At 1000 m a.s.l., where two second-order drainages converge, localized debris-flow levees were found in flat areas and behind obstacles: these well sorted deposits were constituted by cobbles and boulders up to 500 mm in a poor silt and sandy matrix. Other deposits were found between 1000 m a.s.l. and 900 m a.s.l., alternated with erosion dominated sectors.

Down the channel, sorting of the deposit decreased while the amount of matrix increased. At 900 m a.s.l., where the slope is flattened due to a road crossing, a bigger deposition area was found, with cobble and small boulders, in chaotic disposition, supported by a gravelly-sandy matrix.

Below the road cut, the erosion level increased again. At 650 m a.s.l. two small lobes, made of cobbles mixed with abundant sandy-silty matrix and floated materials (wood, char...) were found in a flat area above a road cut (fig 7.54 d). After this point, the channel is again very incised and reaches a steep jump just above the fan (570 m a.s.l.).

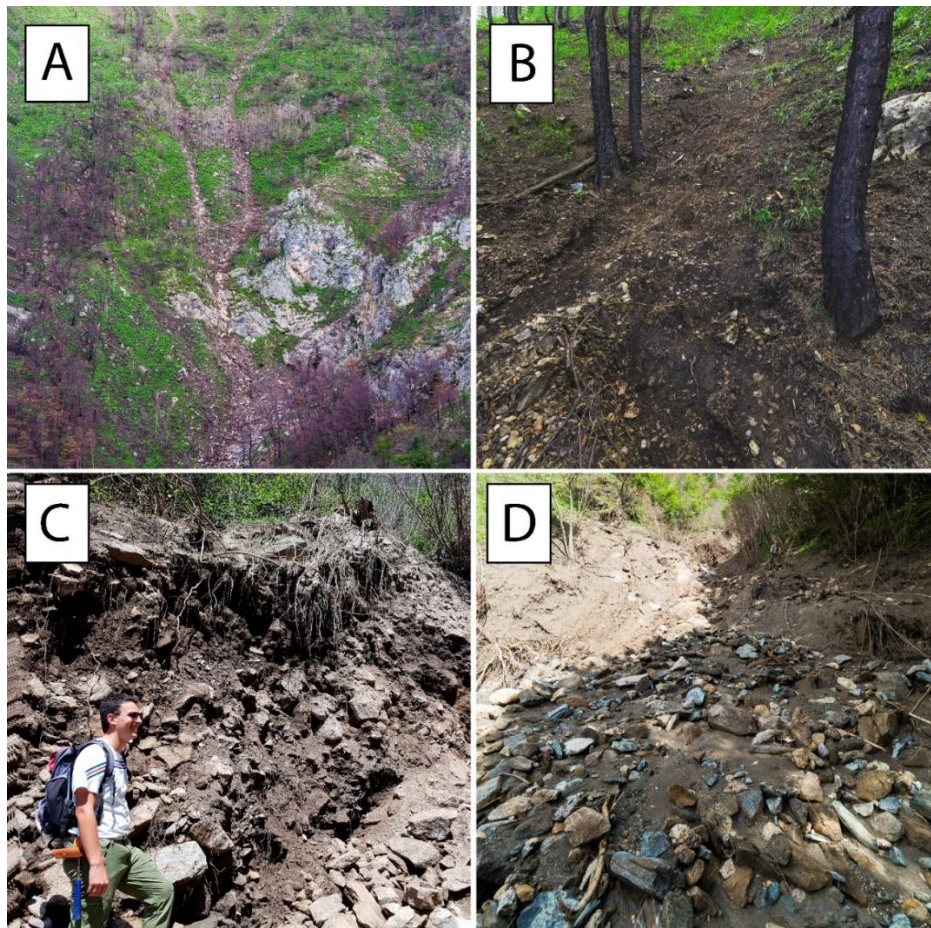


Figure 7.54 – increased erosion in the zero and first-order streams (a), sheetflow erosion (b), deep main channel incision (c) and flow deposits in the intermediate sector of the main channel.

With respect to a survey conducted on June 5 (two days before the main debris-flow occurrence) a massive amount of debris and material previously accumulated in the channel, especially at the bottom of the last cliff overhanging the fan apex, was lacking. The erosion undergone in this sector can be easily inferred by comparing the pre-and post-event images (fig 7.55 a and b).

Below this point the signs of the flow path were clearly visible: the bedrock was exposed and polished, and the flow splash signs could be found some meters above the valley bottom on the trees (fig 7.55 c). At 500 m a.s.l., the gorge ends and reaches the fan apex. In main deposition zone, deposits made of gravels and cobbles were mixed in an abundant sandy silty matrix was found. The original channel incision, covered by a road pavement, was exhumated (Fig 7.55 d).

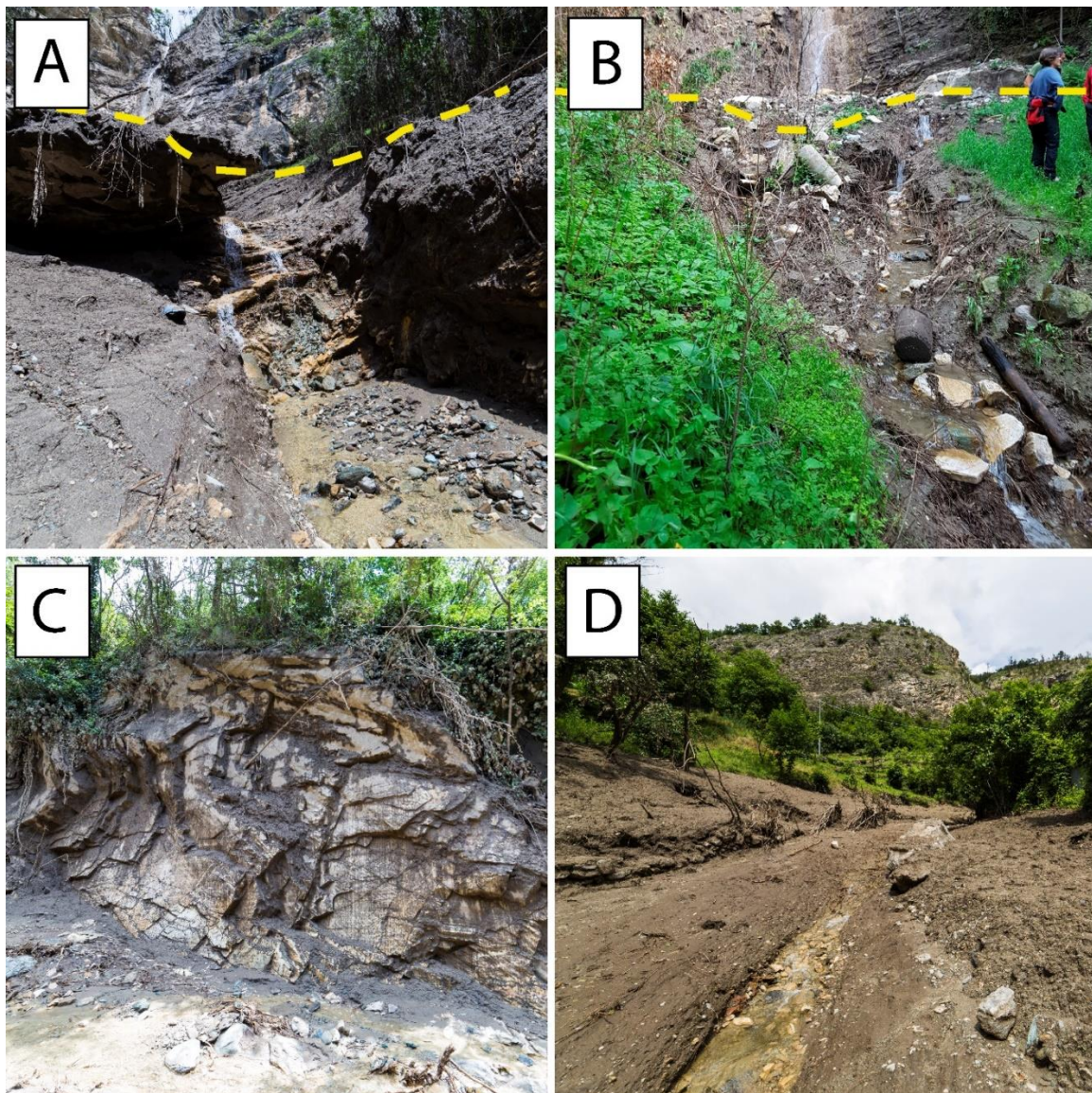


Figure 7.55 – post-fire (a) and pre-fire (b) channel depth in the lower part of the watershed, polished rock outcrop at the watershed outlet (c) and exhumation of the old channel path in the fan (d).

The maximum deposit thickness reconstructed via photogrammetric modelling was approximately 2 m, over a surface of about 26000 m². The coarser fraction was concentrated in the central part of the deposit and was approx. 600 m in length, while the fluid fraction had propagated for a longer distance (900 m from the apex). The volume of the coarser fraction of the deposit, estimated from photogrammetry is about 5000 m³, while Arpa estimates of the total event volume is about 20000 m³ (ARPA Piemonte 2018b).

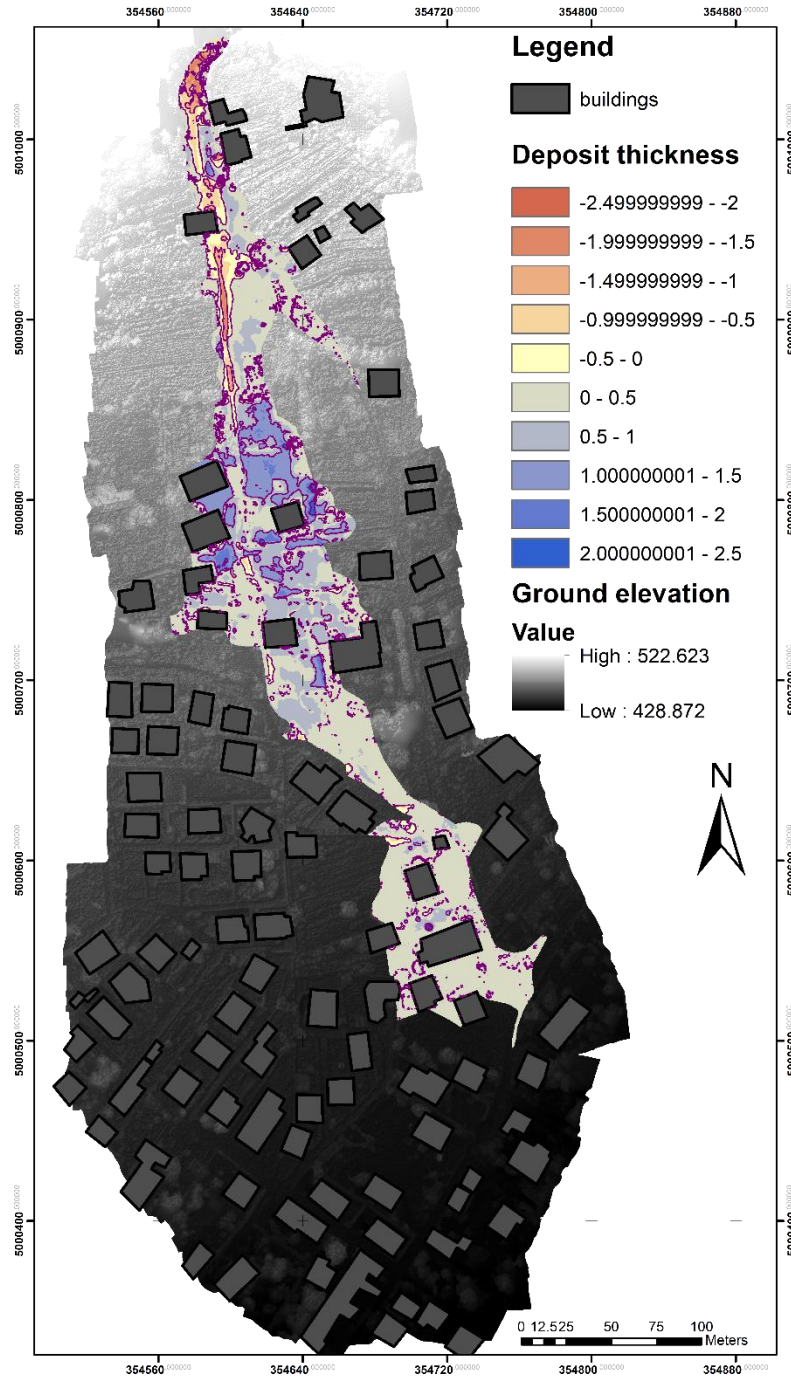


Figure 7.56 – deposit thickness reconstruction at the watershed outlet

7.3.2 Monthly erosion calculation

Sediment erosion has been assessed implementing the RUSLE model at a monthly scale. Monthly R factors from September 2017 to August 2018 have been quantified by calculating the summation of the parameter EI_{30} of every single erosive event for each considered month at each of the three selected rain gauges located in the surrounding of the Comba delle Foglie watershed. Single R factor has been then averaged for assessing the representative rainfall erosive power at the watershed scale. Single erosive rainfall events for each station are given in table 7.23, 7.24 and 7.25, while calculated monthly R factors are given in table 7.26.

For the Prarotto, Borgone and Malciaussia rain gauges have been identified 22, 24 and 22 erosive rainfall events. For the Prarotto rain gauge the selected storms are characterized by a mean precipitation value of 30.94 mm, duration of 23.23 h and EI_{30} of 95.99 MJ mm ha⁻¹ h⁻¹. For the Borgone rain gauge mean precipitation, duration and EI_{30} values are 27.67mm, 20.19 h and 73.06 MJ mm ha⁻¹ h⁻¹. At the Malciaussia station mean value recorded are 29.20 mm, 16.02 h and 55.40 MJ mm ha⁻¹ h⁻¹, for precipitation, duration and EI_{30} .

Monthly R factor maximum values are reached in May, April and March 2018, and are, on contrary, equal to zero for September and October 2017 (table 7-26 and fig. 7.57). R factor distribution over time is consistent with Piedmont meteorological data described in chapter 5, reporting an extremely dry end of 2017 and very wet month of January, April and May 2018. In fact, erosive events registered in these months represents approximatively the 75% of the entire annual R factor, and in particular the month of May reaching almost the 40%.

Table 7-23 – Single erosive storms registered at the Prarotto rain gauge (Sep 2017 – Aug 2018).

Date	Precip	Duration	Max 5	Max10	Max15	Max30	Max60	EI30
MO/DA/YR	mm	h	mm/h	mm/h	mm/h	mm/h	mm/h	MJ*mm/ha*h
11/04/2017	14.37	19.17	3.6	3.6	3.6	3.6	3	5.895
12/30/2017	28.02	26.5	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.436	4.4	14.413
01/04/2018	15.39	10	3.6	3.6	3.6	3.2	2.8	5.654
01/06/2018	125.27	66.67	12.003	12.003	10.494	9.603	9.213	172.666
01/21/2018	14.8	7.83	6	6	5.72	5.26	5.03	10.633
03/10/2018	19.36	53.67	4.761	4.761	4.374	3.987	3.594	8.91
04/03/2018	21.81	41.83	3.6	3.6	3.6	3.2	2.594	7.432
04/10/2018	23.2	51.33	3.6	3.6	3.32	2.86	2.43	7.048
04/28/2018	61.52	24.67	43.549	43.549	40.7	32.674	21.045	436.959
05/01/2018	44.35	5	9.002	9.002	8.367	7.256	6.628	40.685
05/07/2018	4.23	20.83	14.406	14.406	11.812	7.517	6.04	15.318
05/12/2018	45.23	3.67	49.194	49.194	46.265	45.082	33.27	505.926
05/13/2018	32.32	16.5	29.207	29.207	27.818	22.849	16.148	146.24
05/19/2018	31	42.33	14.4	14.4	9.6	8.813	7.599	40.629
05/26/2018	12.93	3	35.136	35.136	33.878	22.584	12.33	72.276
05/27/2018	17.79	6.67	15.583	15.583	11.189	9.172	6.401	25.281
05/28/2018	14	14.17	9.641	9.641	8.707	6.38	5.197	11.69
05/30/2018	46.94	12.5	43.404	43.404	36.76	22.91	17.771	232.186
06/03/2018	24.51	17.33	19.333	19.333	18.99	17.533	9.306	77.639
06/06/2018	30.59	38.17	23.096	23.096	20.85	16.54	11.281	88.431
06/11/2018	18.18	22.17	27.6	27.6	19.68	10.827	5.571	37.224
08/16/2018	24.96	7	40.778	40.778	35.428	26.718	20.075	148.656
mean	30.49	23.23	18.92	18.92	16.80	13.32	9.62	95.99
max	125.27	66.67	49.19	49.19	46.27	45.08	33.27	505.93
min	4.23	3.00	3.60	3.60	3.32	2.86	2.43	5.65

Table 7-24 - Single erosive storms registered at the Borgone rain gauge (Sep 2017 – Aug 2018).

Date	Precip	Duration	Max 5	Max10	Max15	Max30	Max60	EI30
MO/DA/YR	mm	h	mm/h	mm/h	mm/h	mm/h	mm/h	MJ*mm/ha*h
11/04/2017	14.21	17	4.821	4.821	4.552	4.007	3.406	6.706
12/29/2017	13	14.83	3.6	3.6	3.6	3.236	3	4.826
01/03/2018	13.4	17.5	3.636	3.636	3.352	2.8	2.406	4.192
01/06/2018	188.63	63.83	25.29	25.29	23.494	19.309	13.454	604.73
02/23/2018	13.19	19.33	3.716	3.716	3.312	2.403	2.2	3.464
03/11/2018	17.23	13.67	3.621	3.621	3.32	2.86	2.441	5.479
03/15/2018	14.39	12	3.6	3.6	3.272	3.2	3	5.198
04/03/2018	13	25.67	2.421	2.421	2.4	2	1.6	2.719
04/08/2018	14.18	24.5	3.6	3.6	3.6	3.2	2.396	5.023
04/10/2018	36.41	35.67	7.23	7.23	6.62	5.319	4.488	23.906
04/12/2018	19.02	18	9.6	9.6	9.6	9.265	7.645	25.106
04/29/2018	53.02	17.67	45.561	45.561	36.037	23.271	17.363	281.605
05/01/2018	35.22	74.67	6	6	6	5.6	4.64	23.533
05/07/2018	23.2	10.33	23.303	23.303	20.889	16.478	12.186	73.577
05/12/2018	32.56	3.83	36.231	36.231	31.977	26.013	24.078	197.493
05/13/2018	24.7	14.5	25.38	25.38	21.413	13.856	9.148	62.326
05/27/2018	13.99	7.17	9.02	9.02	8.417	6.805	4.774	13.332
05/28/2018	13	13.17	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.4	4.014	6.855
05/30/2018	40.81	23.5	36.322	36.322	32.181	21.046	18.649	178.349
06/03/2018	18.24	22	12	12	8.76	7.57	5.243	20.229
06/06/2018	11.44	19.33	35.035	35.035	29.075	16.498	8.249	41.981
06/07/2018	14.82	5.67	16.868	16.868	14.237	10.882	7.606	25.928
07/16/2018	18.34	7.5	29.139	29.139	26.68	25.511	13.356	105.051
08/07/2018	7.99	3.33	41.974	41.974	28.383	15.191	7.786	31.768
mean	27.67	20.19	16.37	16.37	14.00	10.45	7.63	73.06
max	188.63	74.67	45.56	45.56	36.04	26.01	24.08	604.73
min	7.99	3.33	2.42	2.42	2.40	2.00	1.60	2.72

Table 7-25 - Single erosive storms registered at the Malciaussia rain gauge (Sep 2017 – Aug 2018).

Date	Precip.	Duration	Max 5	Max10	Max15	Max30	Max60	EI30
MO/DA/YR	mm	h	mm/h	mm/h	mm/h	mm/h	mm/h	MJ*mm/ha*h
11/04/2017	22.2	25.17	3.6	3.6	3.28	2.84	2.62	6.914
11/07/2017	16.8	6.17	6	6	6	5.668	5.43	13.239
12/30/2017	22.8	6	9.6	9.6	9.6	8.82	7.654	31.968
01/04/2018	25	9.33	7.23	7.23	6.774	6.387	5.992	23.816
03/03/2018	13.21	5.17	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.425	4	7.544
03/12/2018	14.6	4	6	6	5.6	5.2	5	10.677
03/16/2018	15.98	4.17	10.937	10.937	9.291	7.646	6.623	18.954
03/17/2018	15.6	5.5	10.8	10.8	9.912	8.405	7.009	19.449
04/09/2018	37.8	33.33	6	6	6	5.6	5.008	27.082
04/13/2018	30.76	8.17	9.624	9.624	9.232	9.187	8.621	47.771
04/29/2018	65.41	16.67	19.695	19.695	18.192	14.135	11.227	173.685
05/02/2018	86.3	55.67	17.227	17.227	15.441	9.533	7.205	117.228
05/13/2018	63.65	38.17	8.43	8.43	7.772	6.8	5.798	59.677
05/27/2018	40.51	35.83	31.165	31.165	21.881	12.404	11.369	78.842
05/30/2018	33.85	13.17	23.763	23.763	17.842	13.894	10.044	85.434
06/04/2018	21.36	20	12.06	12.06	10.603	8.555	5.792	25.88
06/07/2018	23.81	12.33	20.393	20.393	18.694	15.246	10.839	65.122
06/11/2018	19.33	3.5	37.588	37.588	32.097	24.545	13.042	117.592
06/12/2018	19.62	6.67	29.17	29.17	27.282	18.669	14.542	82.918
07/20/2018	15.36	11	38.707	38.707	33.908	21.905	13.408	74.938
07/22/2018	14.66	10.67	41.992	41.992	31.675	20.037	12.08	61.289
08/07/2018	23.82	21.83	34.643	34.643	24.695	16.367	9.583	68.808
mean	29.20	16.02	17.70	17.70	15.03	11.19	8.31	55.40
max	86.30	55.67	41.99	41.99	33.91	24.55	14.54	173.69
min	13.21	3.50	3.60	3.60	3.28	2.84	2.62	6.91

Table 7-26 - Monthly R factors calculated for the Borgone, Prarotto and Malciaussia rain gauges.

Month	BORGONE	PRAROTTO	MALCIAUSSIA	Average	Annual ratio
	[MJ mmh ⁻¹ ha ⁻¹ m ⁻¹]	[MJ mmh ⁻¹ ha ⁻¹ m ⁻¹]	[MJ mmh ⁻¹ ha ⁻¹ m ⁻¹]	[MJ mmh ⁻¹ ha ⁻¹ m ⁻¹]	[%]
SEP '17	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
OCT '17	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
NOV '17	6.71	5.90	20.15	10.92	0.64
DEC '17	4.83	14.41	31.97	17.07	1.01
JAN '18	608.92	188.95	23.82	273.90	16.16
FEB '18	3.46	0.00	0.00	1.15	0.07
MAR '18	10.68	8.91	56.62	25.40	1.50
APR '18	338.36	451.44	248.54	346.11	20.42
MAY '18	555.47	1090.23	341.18	662.29	39.08
JUN '18	88.14	203.29	291.51	194.31	11.47
JUL '18	105.05	0.00	136.23	80.43	4.75
AUG '18	31.77	148.66	68.81	83.08	4.90
TOTAL	1753.37	2111.79	1218.83	1694.66	100.00

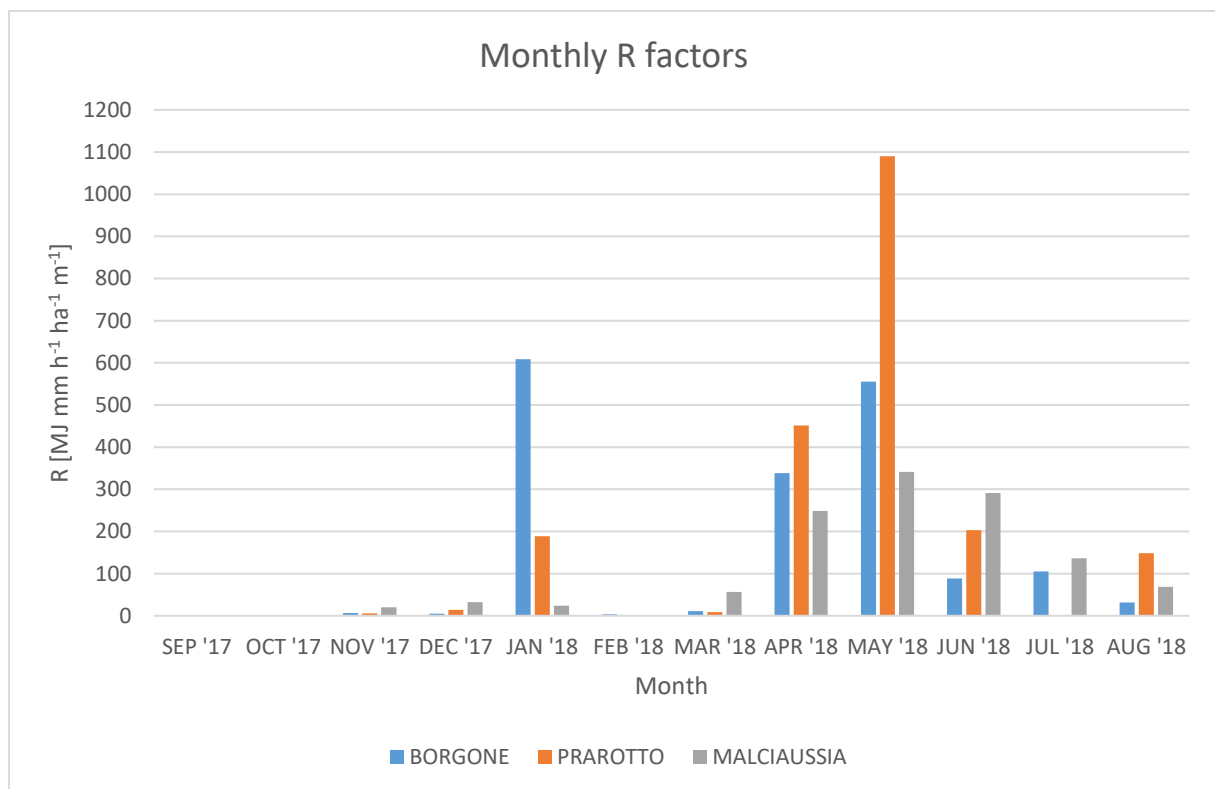


Figure 7.57 - Monthly R factors calculated for the Borgone, Prarotto and Malciaussia rain gauges.

Retrieved R factors have been compared to average monthly rainfall erosivity calculated at European scale analyzing >17 years of rainfall data by Ballabio et al (2017) reported in fig 7.58 and table 7-27.

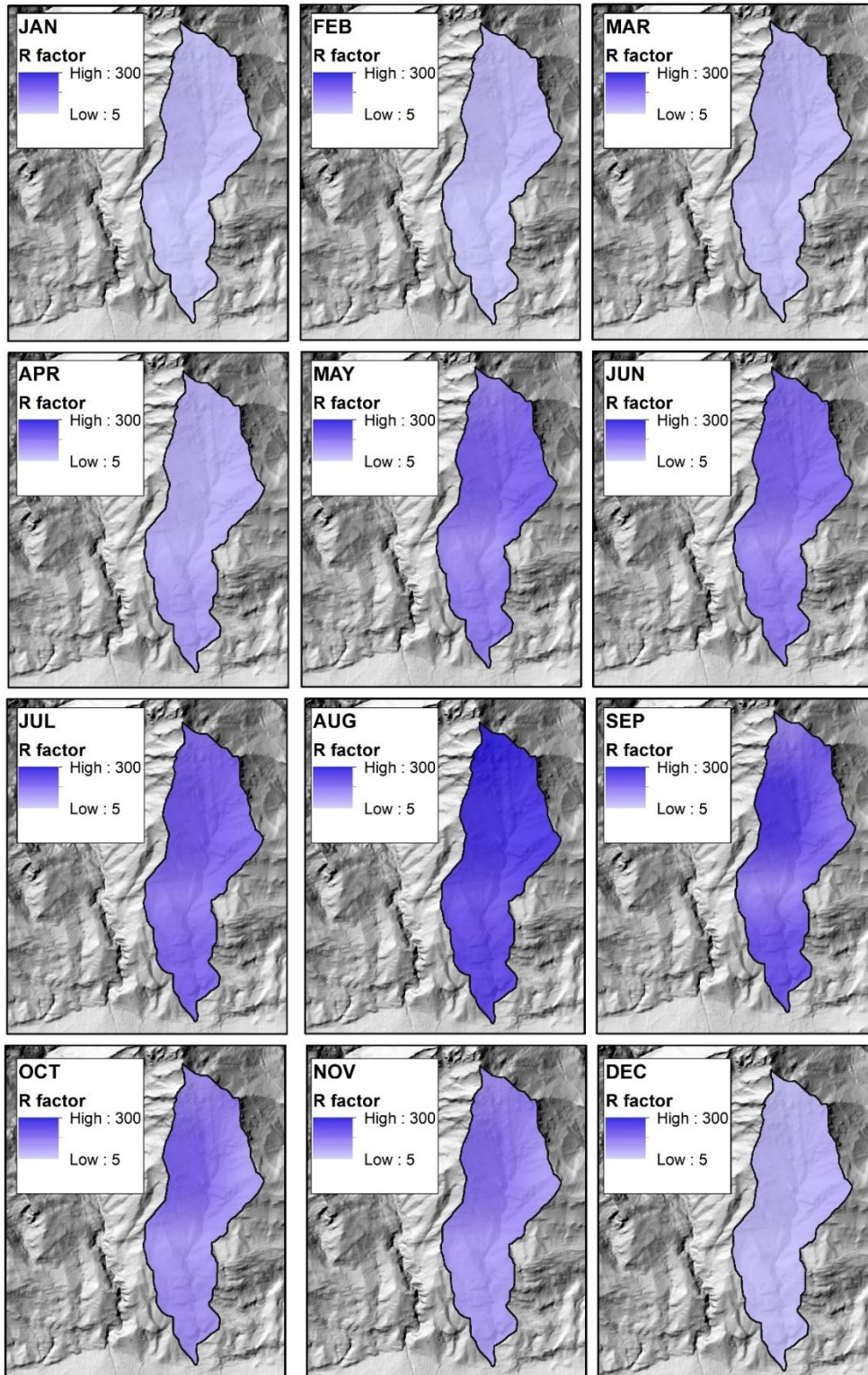


Figure 7.58 – Long term monthly R factors (redrawn after Ballabio et al. 2017).

The Month of January, April and May show values eleven times, eight times and four times greater than the long time series data, respectively. On opposite, from September to December 2017, the cumulated R factor barely reaches the 6% of the normal value (fig. 7.59).

Table 7-27 - Long term monthly R factors and inter annual distribution (Ballabio et al., 2017)

Month	Ballabio et al 2017	Annual ratio
	[M] mm h ⁻¹ ha ⁻¹ m ⁻¹	[%]
SEP	181.97	14.36
OCT	115.16	9.09
NOV	110.50	8.72
DEC	36.89	2.91
JAN	24.09	1.90
FEB	28.72	2.27
MAR	28.63	2.26
APR	40.67	3.21
MAY	155.31	12.25
JUN	144.89	11.43
JUL	161.83	12.77
AUG	238.72	18.84
TOTAL	1267.39	100.00

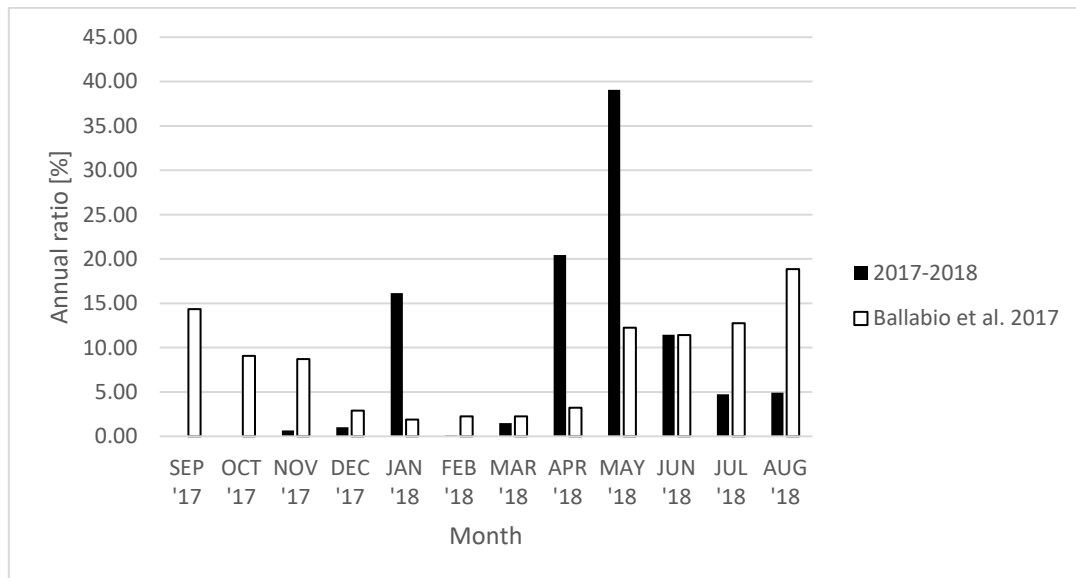


Figure 7.59 – comparison between calculated and long term inter annual R-factor.

Erodibility K factor representative of the pre-fire condition has been determined based on soil textural data. The post-fire adjusted K values have been then calculated by applying the correction procedure

described in par. 6.2.4. Laboratory analysis reports for each sample are given in appendix 6, while spatialized pre-fire and post-fire K values are reported in fig 7.60.

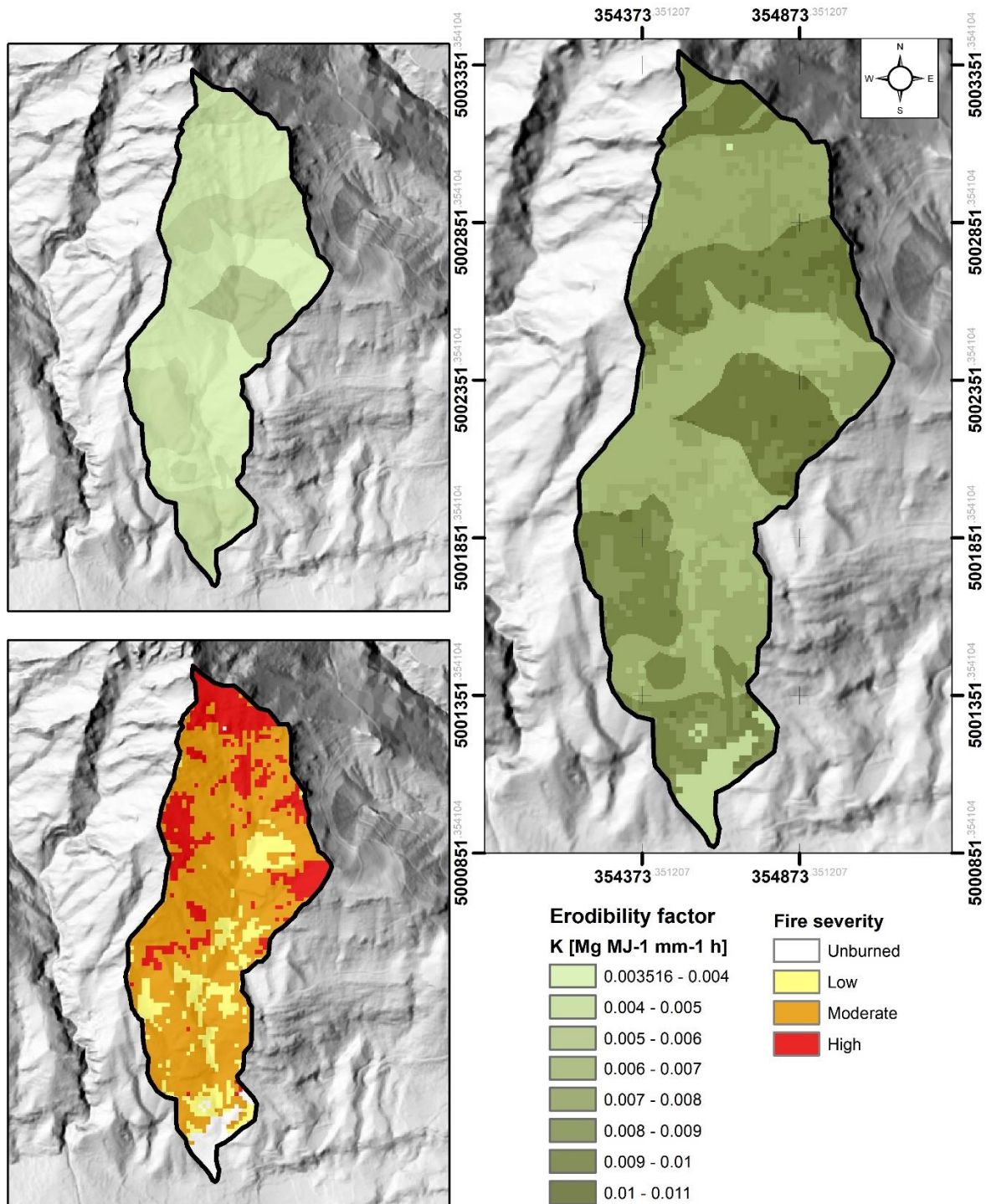


Figure 7.60 – Pre-fire (top left) and post-fire (top right) erodibility factor distribution over the watershed; Post-fire erodibility has been calculated based on fire severity maps (bottom left).

LS and C factor (fig 7.61 a and b) has been calculated as described in Par 6.2.4, whereas P value has been set to 1.

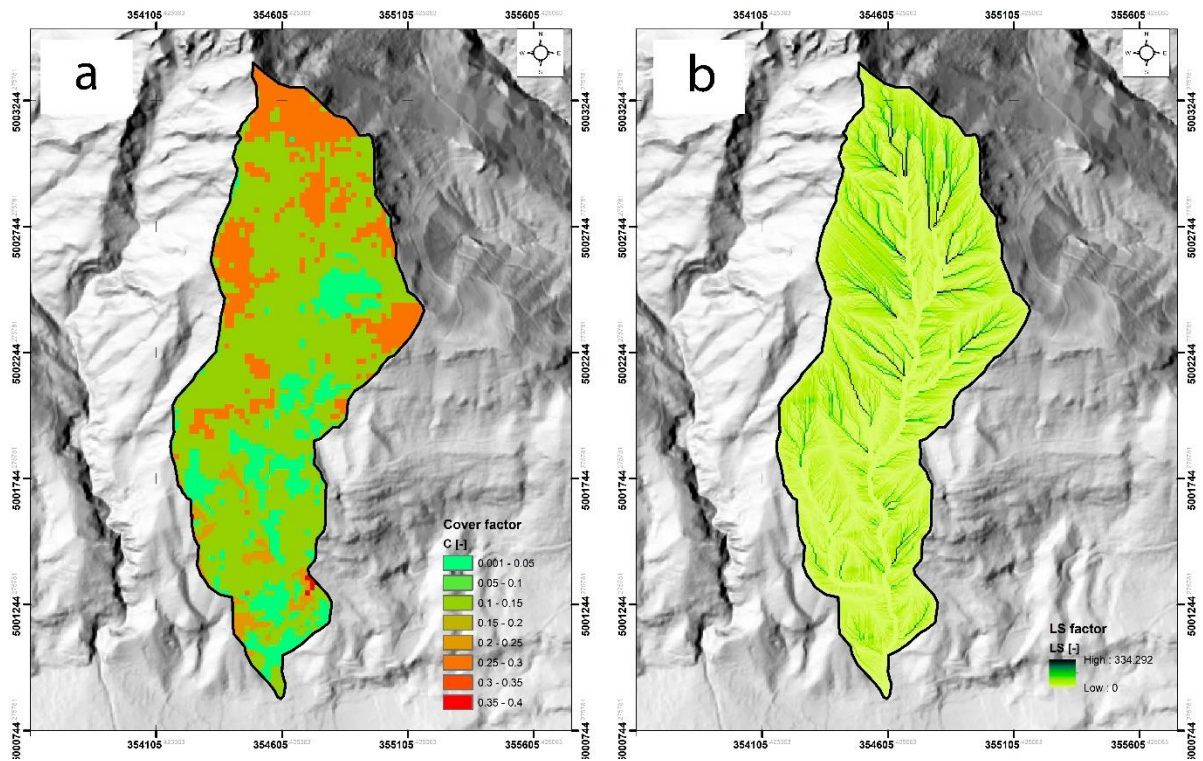


Figure 7.61 – LS and C factors calculated for the post-fire condition.

Erodibility Index values for the pre-fire and post-fire situation (table 7-28) has been calculated following equation given in par 6.2.4, and finally monthly mean soil loss A [$\text{Mg ha}^{-1} \text{m}^{-1}$] and averaged monthly sediment loss SL [Mg m^{-1}] for the entire watershed have been computed for both the burned and unburned condition (fig. 7.62 and table 7-29).

The post-fire mean Erodibility Index is more than one order of magnitude higher than the pre-fire one, having a pre-fire value of $4.58\text{E-}04 \text{ Mg MJ}^{-1} \text{ mm}^{-1} \text{ h}$ and a post fire value of $1.97\text{E-}02 \text{ Mg MJ}^{-1} \text{ mm}^{-1} \text{ h}$; the comparison with Erodibility Index calculated in the par xx show similar values ($2.24\text{E-}04$ for the pre-fire and $1.03\text{E-}02$ for the initial assessment).

Table 7-28 –post-fire vs pre-fire Erodibility Index values over the Comba delle Foglie watershed.

EI [$\text{Mg MJ}^{-1} \text{mm}^{-1} \text{h}$]	MIN	MAX	RANGE	MEAN	STD
Pre-fire	0.00E+00	2.78E-02	2.78E-02	4.58E-04	1.61E-03
Post-fire	0.00E+00	5.93E-01	5.93E-01	1.97E-02	3.26E-02

Monthly mean soil loss A [$\text{Mg ha}^{-1} \text{ m}^{-1}$] and averaged monthly sediment loss SL [Mg m^{-1}] comparison for the pre and post-fire conditions results in a post-fire increase of both the indicators of more than 40 times with respect to pre-fire. Maximum pre-fire values occur in May, being $0.30 \text{ Mg ha}^{-1} \text{ m}^{-1}$ and 39.40 Mg m^{-1} for monthly mean soil loss and monthly sediment loss respectively; for the post-fire, these parameters reach values of $13.07 \text{ Mg ha}^{-1} \text{ m}^{-1}$ and $1698.92 \text{ Mg m}^{-1}$.

Table 7-29 – Spatially averaged mean soil loss A and averaged monthly sediment loss SL comparison for the burned and unburned situation.

Month	Burned (initial ass.t)		Unburned	
	A [$\text{Mg ha}^{-1} \text{ m}^{-1}$]	SL [Mg m^{-1}]	A [$\text{Mg ha}^{-1} \text{ m}^{-1}$]	SL [Mg m^{-1}]
sep '17	0.00	0.00	0.000	0.00
ott-17	0.00	0.00	0.000	0.00
nov-17	0.22	28.01	0.005	0.65
dic-17	0.34	43.79	0.008	1.02
gen-18	5.41	702.59	0.125	16.30
feb-18	0.02	2.95	0.001	0.07
mar-18	0.50	65.16	0.012	1.51
apr-18	6.83	887.85	0.158	20.59
mag-18	13.07	1698.92	0.303	39.40
giu-18	3.83	498.45	0.089	11.56
lug-18	1.59	206.30	0.037	4.79
ago-18	1.64	213.12	0.038	4.94
TOTAL	33.45	4347.19	0.776	100.83

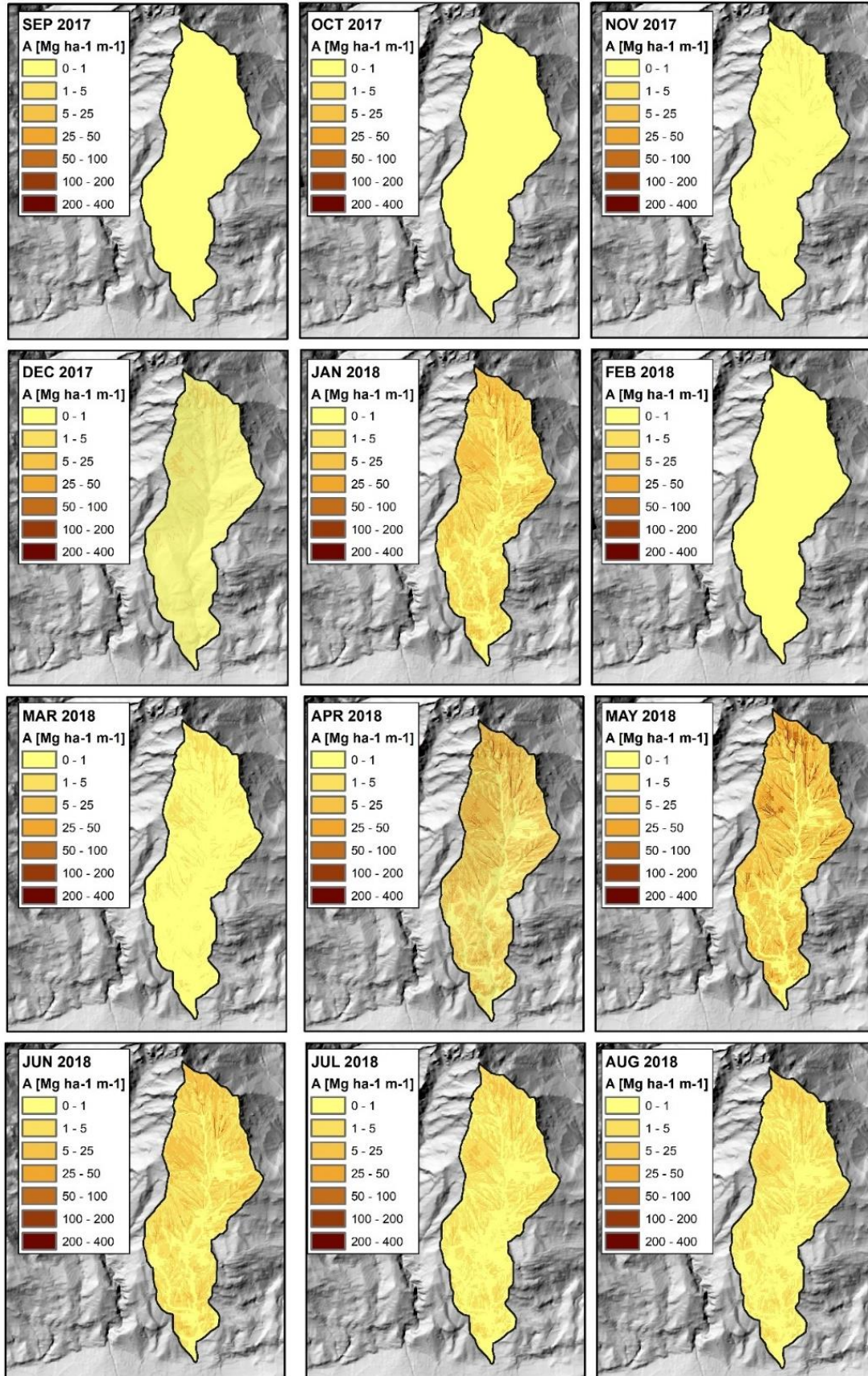


Figure 7.62 - monthly mean soil loss.

7.3.3 Peak discharge calculation

The SCS-CN Graphical Peak Discharge method has been applied for computing peak discharge for pre-fire and post-fire conditions (initial and extended assessment) by assuming a Type I rainfall distribution (see SCS-USDA 1986). Watershed area A_w is given in table A2.1, A2.2 and A2.3 (Appendix 2), 5-year return period 24h rainfall depth (P) for the Comba delle Foglie watershed is given in table 6-12 (see par 6.2.5) and the watershed Curve Number (CN_w) and excess runoff (Q_w) have been calculated for the pre-fire and post-fire initial and extended assessment in par. 7.2.5. The watershed CN_w (par 7.2.5) has been used to determine the initial abstraction (I_a), and then the I_a/P ratio.

Time of concentration T_c has been calculated by using the Kirpich equation while coefficient C_0 , C_1 and C_2 has been retrieved by interpolation of the ones provided, for each I_a/P ratio, in table 6-23. These values have been used for determining the unit peak discharge q_u and finally the peak discharge q_p .

Results are summarized in table 7-30: peak discharge raise from 2.8 m^3/s to 13.58 m^3/s and 12.06 m^3/s for the initial and extended assessment respectively, thus showing approximatively a fourfold value.

Table 7-30 – Peak discharge calculation for the pre-fire and post-fire (initial and extended assessment).

Parameters				
P [mm]				102.8
A_w [km²]				1.29
T_c [h]				0.17
	pre-fire	initial assessment	extended assessment	
CN_w [-]	60.71	82.3	79.84	
Q_w [mm]	20.89	57.62	52.54	
Fp [-]	1	1	1	
I_a/P [-]	0.32	0.106	0.129	
C_0	2.44695	2.55047	2.54234	
C_1	-0.61994	-0.61535	-0.61604	
C_2	-0.10533	-0.16254	-0.15815	
q_u [m³/s/km²/mm]	0.107	0.183	0.178	
q_p [m³/s]	2.8	13.58	12.063	

7.4 Field tests

In the following table the mean thermal conductivity values and the relative temperature for each experiment are reported.

Table 7-31 – mean thermal conductivity values for the conducted test.

	Test 1	Test 2	Test 3
λ [$\text{W m}^{-1} \text{K}^{-1}$]	1.32	0.855	0.764
T [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]	21.4	16.9	9.8

The temperature profiles in the subsoil plotted vs time for each thermocouple for the three experiments are reported in fig 7.63, 7.64 and 7.65, while in tables 7-32, 7-33 and 7-34 main experimental results are summarized.

Test 1, conducted with a fuel load of 9.37 kg/m^2 , results in a maximum temperature registered at the soil surface of $135.9 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, corresponding to a maximum value registered at -2 cm depth of $61 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$; the temperature delta between maximum value and pre-fire condition (reached at 60 min from start) is equal to $38.3 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$. Maximum temperatures registered at 4, 6 and 8 cm from the surface are $40.4 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, $37.0 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ and $33.5 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ respectively.

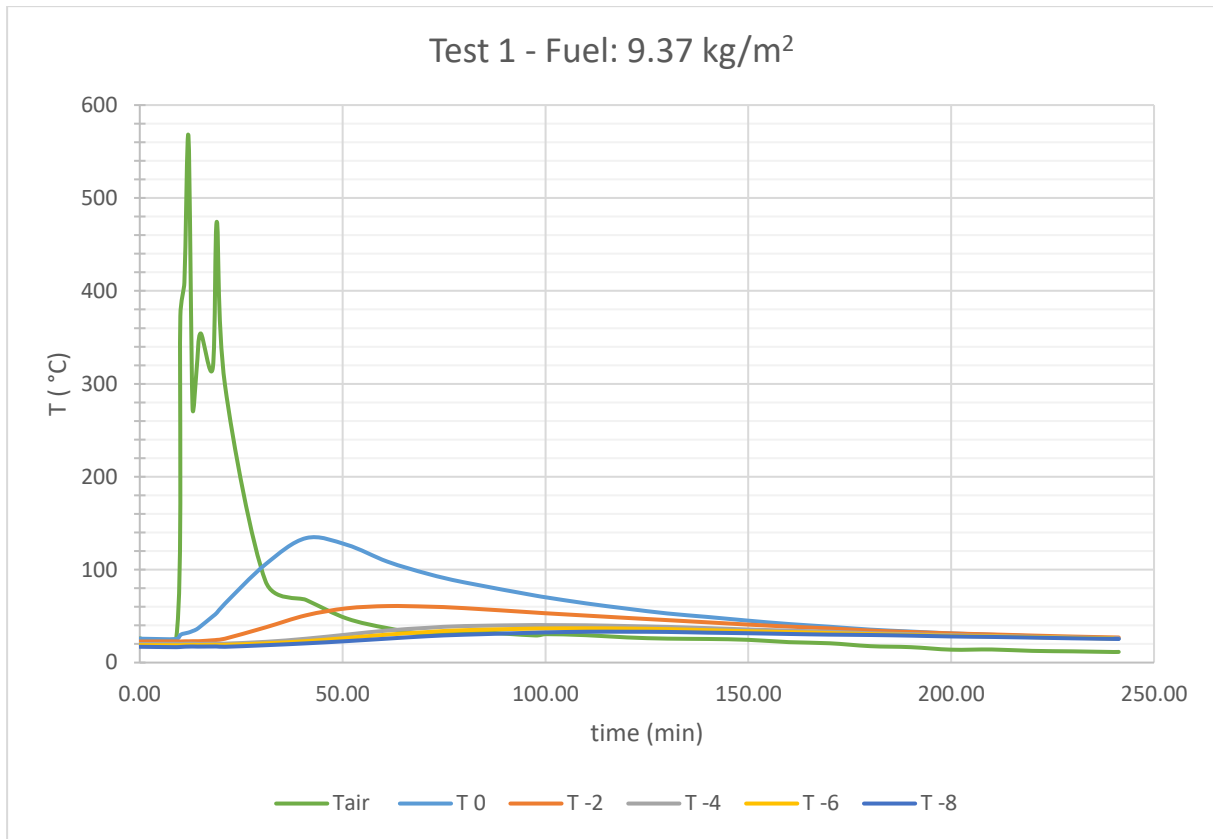


Figure 7.63 – temperature over time for the six thermocouples (test 1)

Table 7-32 – Main experimental results (test 1).

	Tair	T 0	T -2	T -4	T -6	T -8
start	26.0	25.7	22.7	20.0	18.8	17.0
end	11.5	25.7	27.0	26.2	25.8	25.4
min	11.1	25.3	22.6	19.9	18.6	16.4
max	702.3	135.9	61.0	40.4	37.0	33.5
ΔT max	676.3	110.2	38.3	20.4	18.2	16.5

Test 2, conducted with a fuel load of 21.87 kg/m², results in a maximum temperature registered at the soil surface of 165.5 °C, corresponding to a maximum value registered at -2 cm depth of 69.7° C; the temperature delta between maximum value and pre-fire condition (reached at 140 min from start) is equal to 53.3° C. Maximum temperatures registered at 4, 6 and 8 cm from the surface are 66.3° C, 65.4° C and 51.0° C respectively.

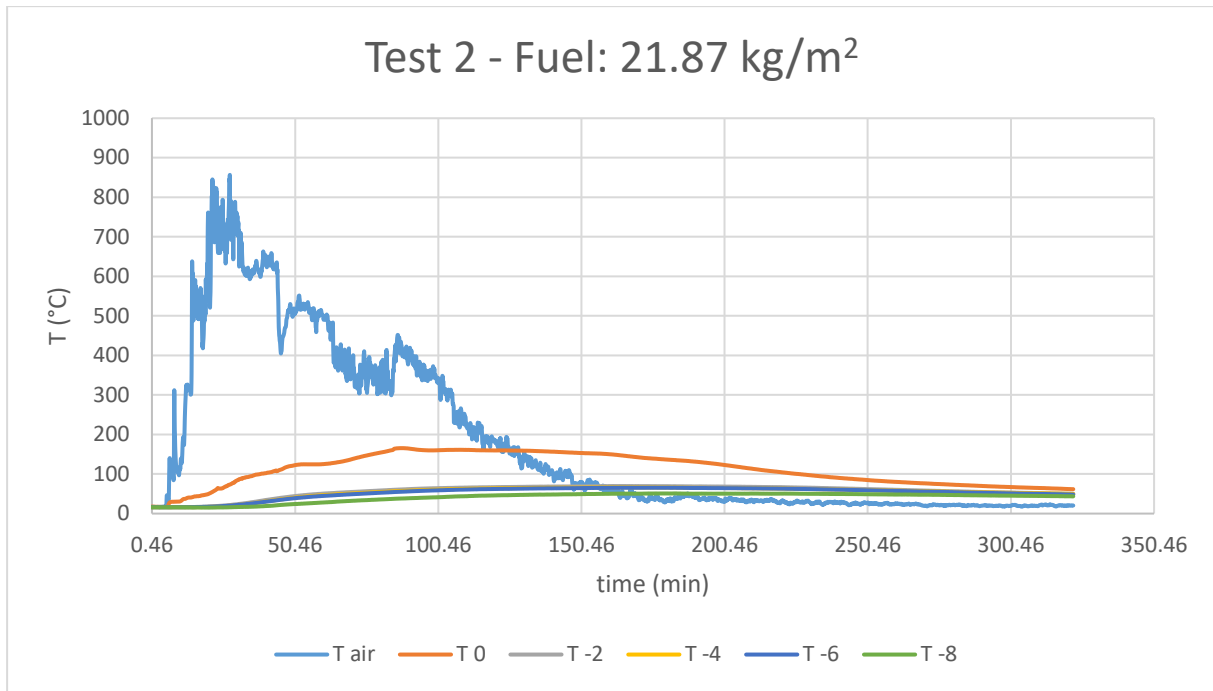


Figure 7.64 - temperature over time for the six thermocouples (test 2).

Table 7-33 - Main experimental results (test 2).

	Tair	T 0	T -2	T -4	T -6	T -8
start	16.7	17.7	16.4	16.3	16.2	16.0
end	20.4	61.7	50.1	49.8	48.2	43.7
min	16.6	16.8	16.2	16.0	16.0	15.1
max	856.5	165.5	69.7	66.3	65.4	51.0
ΔT max	839.8	147.8	53.3	50	49.2	35.0

Test 3, conducted with a fuel load of 28.12 kg/m², results in a maximum temperature registered at the soil surface of 528.5° C, corresponding to a maximum value registered at -2 cm depth of 68.8° C; the temperature delta between maximum value and pre-fire condition (reached at 160 min from start) is equal to 59.5 °C. Maximum temperatures registered at 4, 6 and 8 cm from the surface are 58.6 °C, 47.3 °C and 39.4 °C respectively.

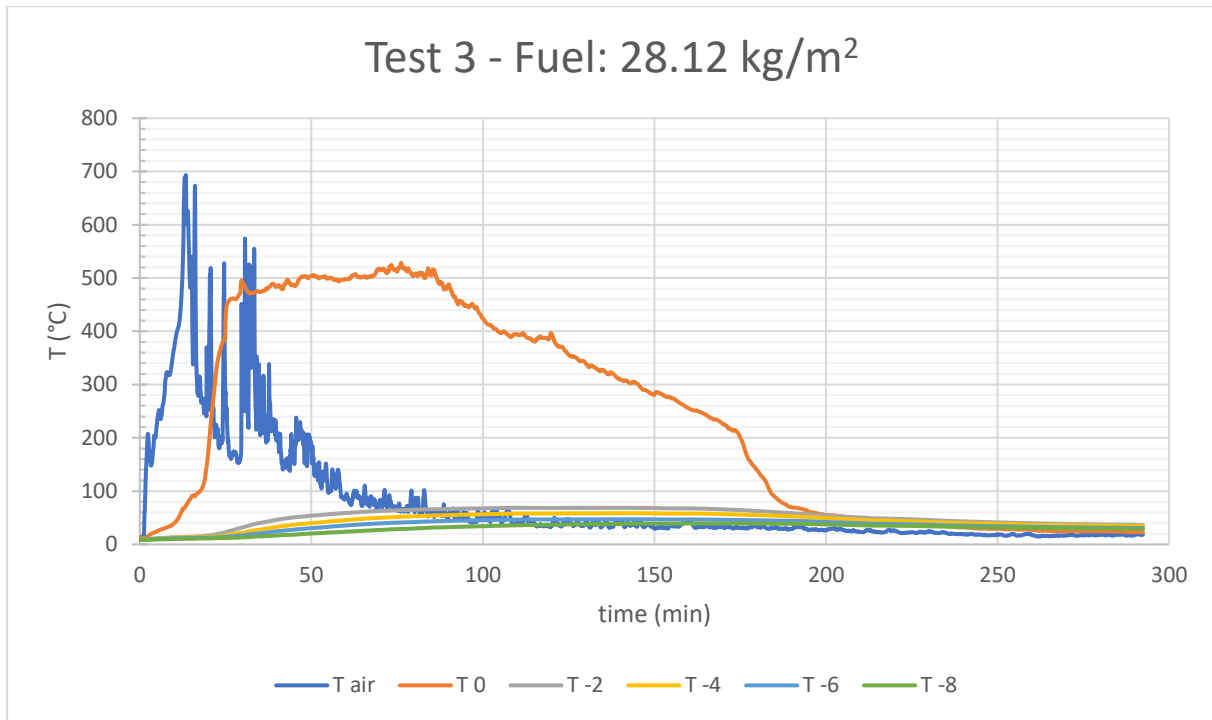


Figure 7.65 - temperature over time for the six thermocouples (test 3).

Table 7-34 - Main experimental results (test 3).

	T_{air}	T₀	T₋₂	T₋₄	T₋₆	T₋₈
start	12.7	11.9	9.3	9.5	9.3	8.9
end	18.2	22.6	36.2	34.3	30.6	29.3
min	12.6	11.8	9.2	9.4	9.2	8.6
max	693.1	528.5	68.8	58.6	47.3	39.4
ΔT max	680.4	516.6	59.5	49.1	38.0	30.5

The simulation results (figg. 7.66 and 7.67) show a satisfactory agreement with the experimental data, reproducing correctly the shape of the measured curves, especially for the first 200 min of simulation. Despite this, the experimental temperatures registered at -2, -4 and -6 cm appear closer one to each other with respect to the simulated temperatures; a possible explanation could lie in the not precise positioning of the thermocouples at the various depths, especially for the second and third sensors which would seem to be placed a little more superficially than expected. Despite these problems and the lack of refinement in the treatment of data and simulation results, it can be said that it is possible to model the analyzed phenomena with sufficient accuracy, adapting a software that uses algorithms dedicated to the modeling of heat flows in conditions of significantly lower gradients.

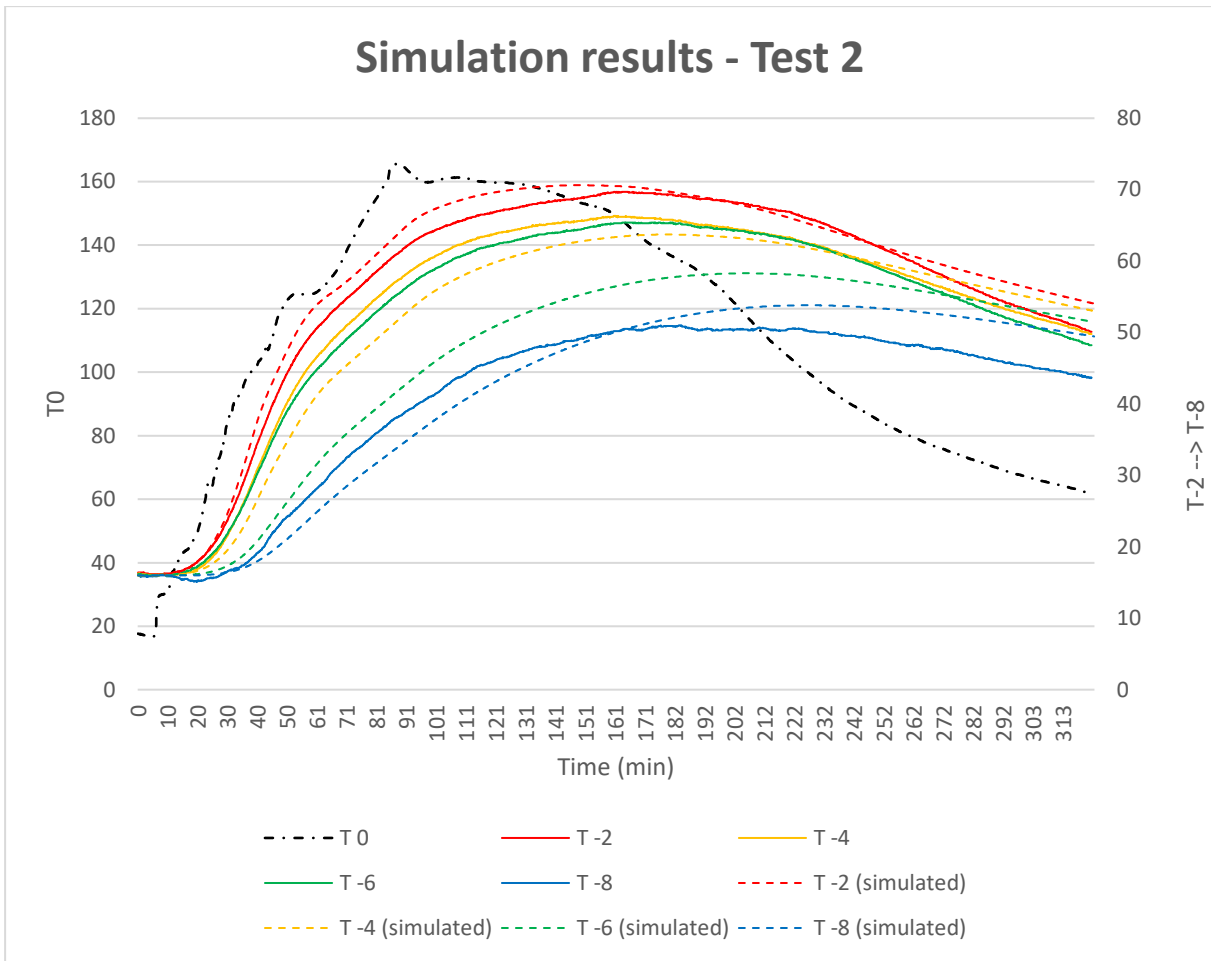


Figure 7.66 – simulated vs measured temperature values for the six thermocouples.

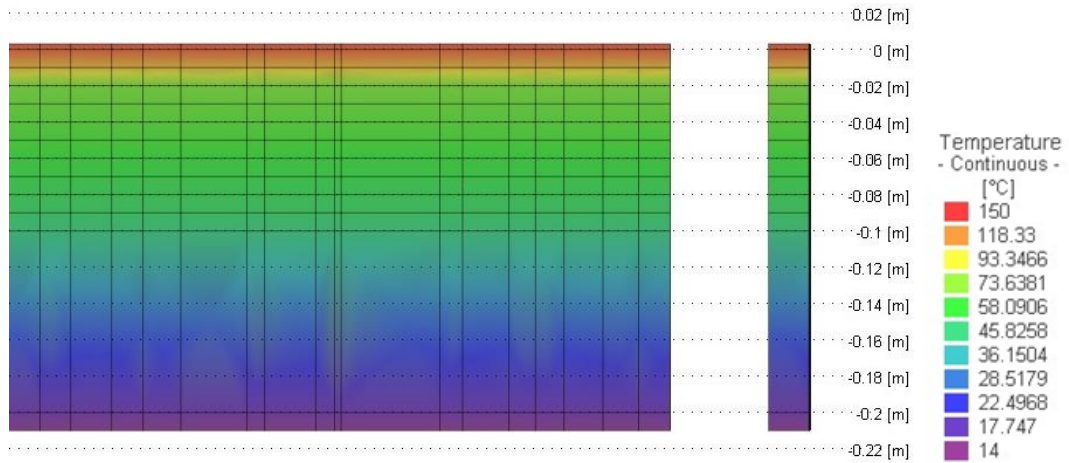


Figure 7.67 – simulated soil temperature profile at depth, time = 150 min from start.

8 Discussion

The wildfires and landslides databases cross-comparison at regional scale has resulted in 7 possibly correlated events (either landslides or debris/mud flows). Of this, only for one event (Pallanzeno) was it possible to find detailed information to justify a causal link between the occurrence of the fire and the triggering of the landslide event. Unfortunately, the temporal coverage of the data on fires only reaches up to 1997, which greatly reduces the accuracy of this survey. Furthermore, given the lack of awareness of the role of fires in favoring phenomena such as flows or landslides, it may have caused a general neglect in reporting events which, although minor, could have an important statistical significance. In spite of this, even if it was not possible to perform statistical analyses, it is still useful to be aware of possible correlations on which to base future investigations and in-depth analyses.

The study of the 2017 fires, conducted both using an integrated approach consisting of field surveys, the use of remote sensing data and the application of models for the estimation of erosion and runoff, produced some useful results in terms of hierarchization and classification of the impact of fires at the various sites, and the role of this impact on the debris and mud-flows generation.

After the field surveys, the most critical areas from a hydrogeological perspective have been found to be that of the Bussoleno/Mompantero Fire and that of the Locana/Ribordone fire. In the other seven wildfire sites, no particular clues that would suggest a condition of increased hazard were found.

The analysis of the satellite multispectral images proved the aforementioned critical area to be those more severely affected by the fires, with some watersheds experiencing moderate or high fire severity for almost all of their areal extension: for example, in the initial assessment, watershed nos. 4, 8, 9, 11, 19 and 23 experienced more than the 80% of their surface burned with higher severity; overall, in the Locana/Ribordone fire and Bussoleno Mompantero fire the 63.56% and 51.52% of the watershed area belongs to these 2 class of fire severity. For the extended assessment, probably as a consequence of the vegetation re-growth (exceeding delayed mortality), also medium and high severity area percentages decrease: some watersheds, all of them encompassed in the Bussoleno/Mompantero fire, shows nevertheless values above the 70% (nos. 11, 13, 19, 23) (fig. 8.1).

Regarding the fire severity data of the watersheds that have been affected by the mud and debris flow phenomena, which are no. 1 (Rio Fura), 4 (Carlevaria), 48 (Locana Est), 49 (Apparè), 11 (Rio della Ravoire) and 19 (Comba delle Foglie), values of areal incidence of moderate and high severity class (initial assessment) are 78.02%, 82.97%, 72.18%, 64.31%, 94.20% and 83.22%, respectively. Values related to the extended assessment are 35.67%, 21.20%, 39.52%, 53.25%, 90.33% and 73.54%, respectively.

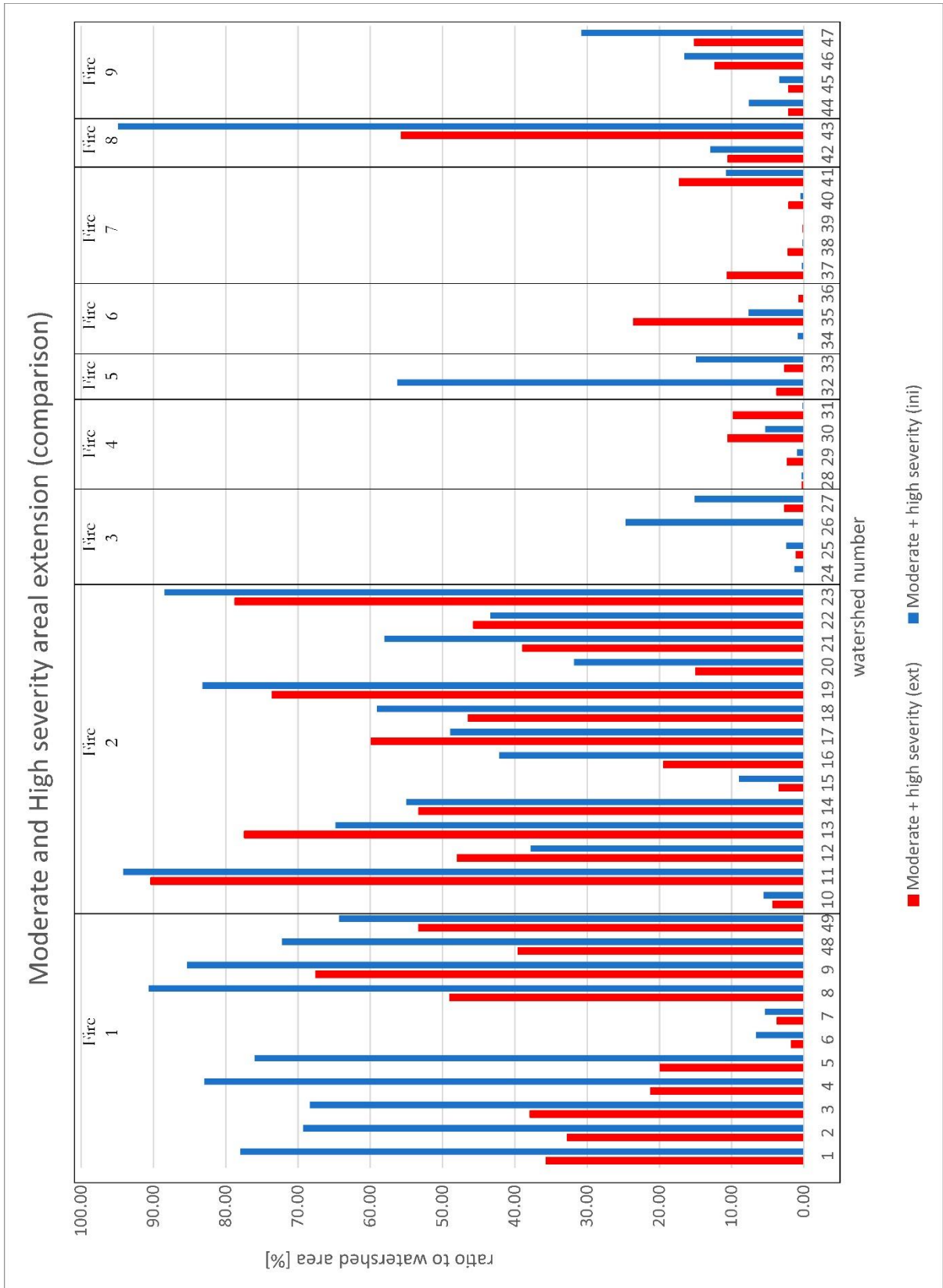


Figure 8.1 – moderate + high severity areal percentages over the 49 watersheds for the initial and extended assessment.

The fields surveys, in addition to allowing a validation of the remote sensing data, confirmed the evidence highlighted in the most recent bibliography: the erosive processes following fires, favored by an increase in surface runoff, contribute substantially to the availability of mobilizable material that can be conveyed to the drainage network and give rise to mass transport phenomena, impacting from the point of view of the off-site hazard and risk. Following these considerations, a modeling approach was chosen aimed at quantifying, at the watershed scale, the impact of fires on erodibility and runoff rates.

The results of the application of the RUSLE model, whose coefficients have been corrected to simulate post-fire conditions, show how the average increase in the erodibility index, compared with unburned situation, is consistent both immediately following the fire and one year after it (initial and extended evaluation); the values reached immediately after fires in Locana/Ribordone and Bussoleno/Mompantero are on average 60 and 80 times higher than those of the unburned situation (fig. 8.2). The slight decrease of the erodibility index in the long term (extended assessment) with respect to the initial assessment is generalized, with the only exception represented by the Bussoleno/Mompantero fire area where an increase is registered, which mimics the rising trend in fire severity, probably due to a significant contribution from vegetation delayed mortality.

If we focus on the watersheds from where the flows originated (nos. 1, 4, 48, 49, 11 and 19 for reminder) the ratio between the erodibility index for the initial assessment and the pre-fire is 25.90, 98.61, 22.75, 152.64, 502.59 and 45.80 respectively. Similarly, the ratio for the extended assessment assumes values of 11.30, 27.96, 8.86, 149.38, 513.79 and 29.62. Comparable values were recorded in watershed that did not experienced debris or mud- flows, such as the nos. 2, 9, 13 and 23, which show $R_{EI_ini_pre}$ values of 99.51, 186.63, 265.55 and 277.20.

Overall results for the average annual soil loss ratios show a tendency very similar to the overall EI ratios over the 49 watersheds (fig. 8.3): this is due to the spatial distribution of the 24h rainfall values over the watersheds location; in fact, given that there are no significant differences in rainfall with 5 years return period, the range of variability of the R index values of the RUSLE model does not bring substantial changes in the mutual relationships between the various watersheds. As a consequence, a general increase in the A ratios for the post fire condition is registered, the extended assessment condition showing lower values; again, fire number 1 and 2 are characterized by much higher values than the others.

Finally, SL values, which depend on average sediment loss and watershed area, are subject to the same rate of increase as the value of A (fig. 8.4); highest values, registered for watersheds nos. 6, 15, 20 and 21 are due to the larger surface of these watersheds compared to the others. SL results for watershed affected by the debris and mud flows are for the initial assessment 1087 Mg y⁻¹, 777 Mg y⁻¹, 498 Mg y⁻¹, 208 Mg y⁻¹, 665 Mg y⁻¹ and 1774 Mg y⁻¹ (for watershed nos. 1, 4, 48, 49, 11 and 19, respectively). Similarly, values for the extended assessment are 460 Mg y⁻¹, 210 Mg y⁻¹, 183 Mg y⁻¹, 205 Mg y⁻¹, 683 Mg y⁻¹ and 1156 Mg y⁻¹.

The hypothesis made about the post-fire increase in erosion and runoff, confirmed albeit empirically through the application of the RUSLE model, are also reflected in the results deriving from the implementation of the SCS-CN runoff model on the analyzed watersheds. The post-fire watershed averaged Curve Number (which in turn mimics the decrease in soil roughness and infiltration) increases by about 30% for the initial assessment, and by 23% for the extended assessment for the watersheds affected by the post-fire events (fig. 8.6). A similar rise in post-fire CN is also recorded in watersheds that have not been affected by sediment-laden flows. Also looking at the excess runoff ratios, Q , it can be seen that in almost all the basins affected by debris and mud flow events the model estimates significant increases in runoff (Q value for the initial assessment is on average more than doubled), and that this increase is also observed in other basins (especially in those affected by Bussoleno/Mompantero fire) (fig. 8.7).

By comparing the outcomes from the RUSLE and the SCS-CN it can be noted that, despite the not negligible uncertainties of both models, the Locana/Ribordone and, even more, the Bussoleno/Mompantero fire have suffered by the most significant impact. The two used models are able to classify the increase in erosion and runoff rates with reasonable accuracy, taking into account that for the application of the two procedures open source or easily available input data were used. Moreover, an acceptable estimate of the quantity of material that can be mobilized is given, and the increased debris and mud-flow susceptibility under the 5-years return period rainfall scenario is assessed. Of course, these models are subject to considerable limitations, being designed to be implemented through the use of large-scale spatialized data, which might result in under- or over-estimation for some specific site conditions. In addition, it was not possible to accurately validate the erosion or runoff estimates in the field, although as a first approximation it is possible to use the occurrence of sediment-laden phenomena as a rough estimator of the goodness of the results.

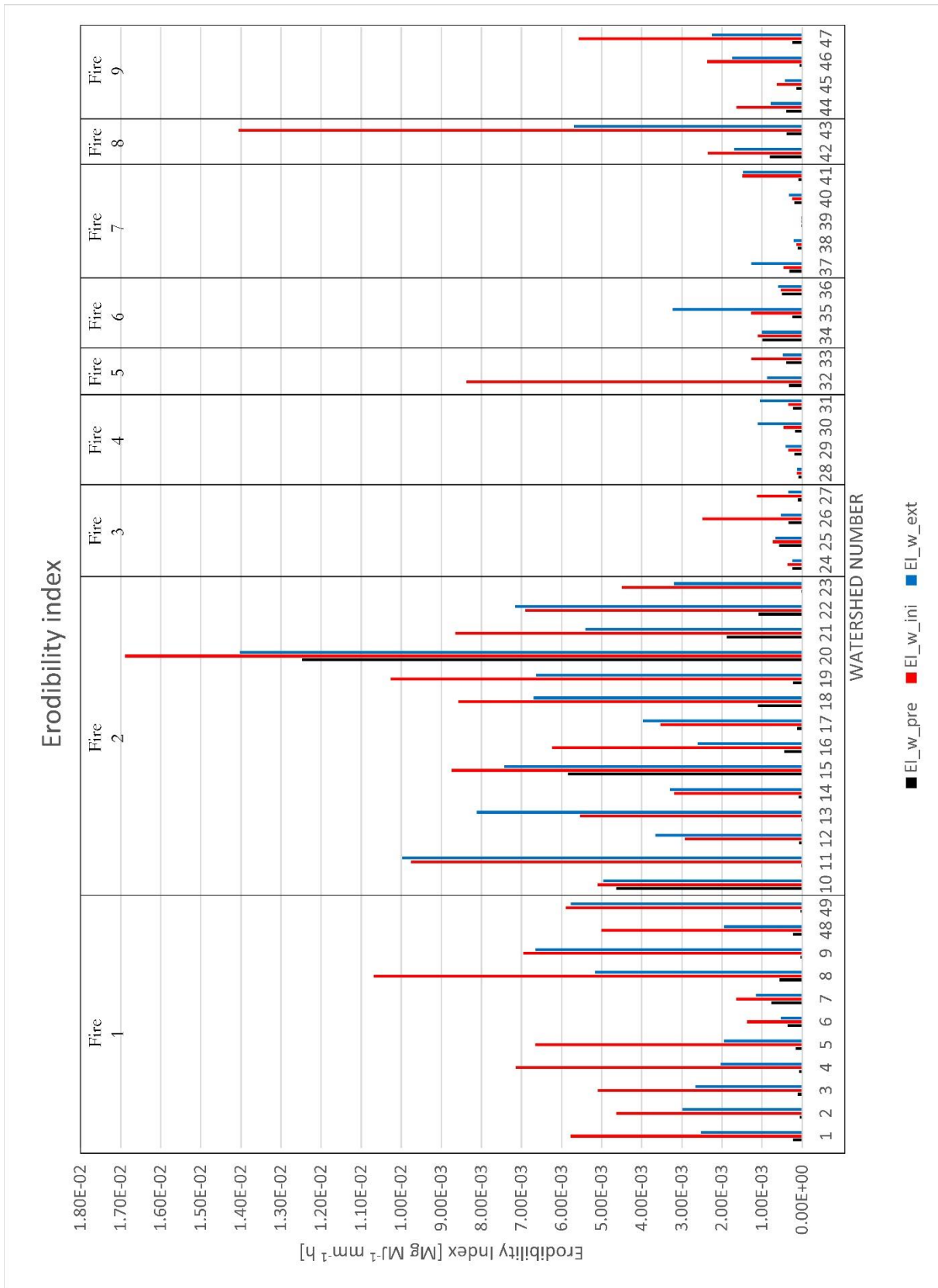


Figure 8.2 – Erodibility Index comparison for the pre-fire situation and the post-fire initial and extended assessment.

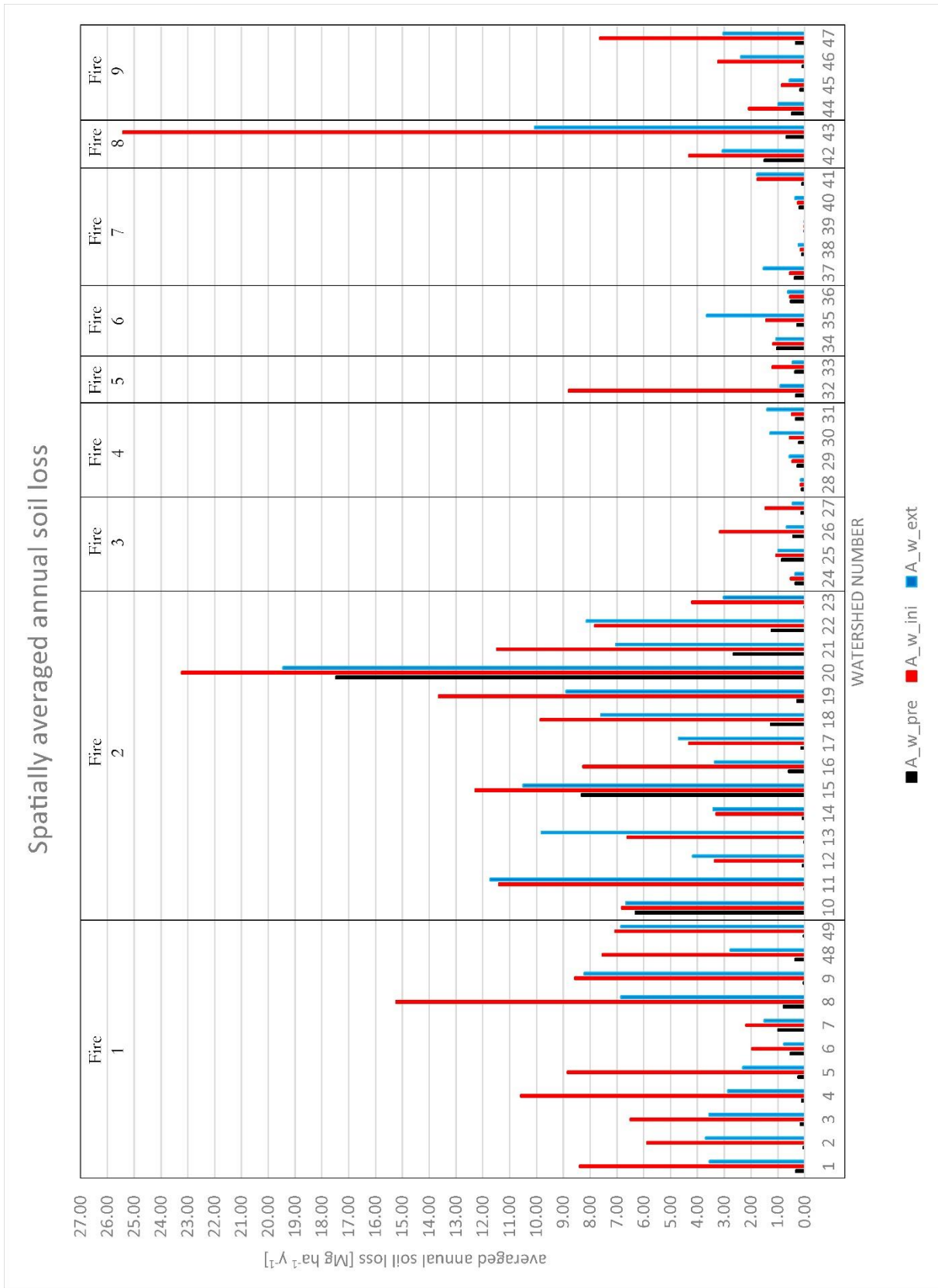


Figure 8.3 – Average Annual Soil Loss comparison for the pre-fire situation and the post-fire initial and extended assessment.

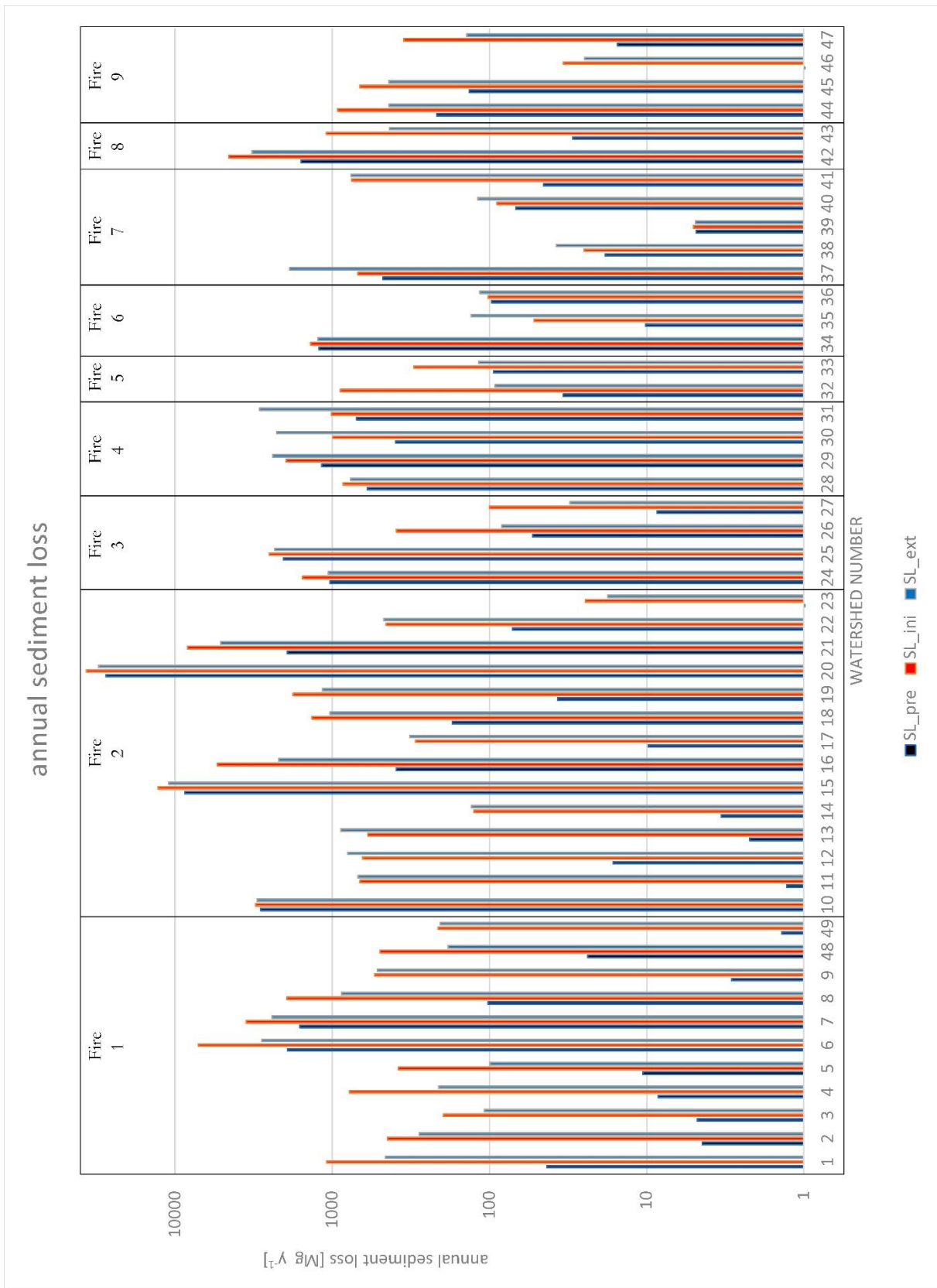


Figure 8.4 – Annual sediment loss comparison for the pre-fire situation and the post-fire initial and extended assessment.

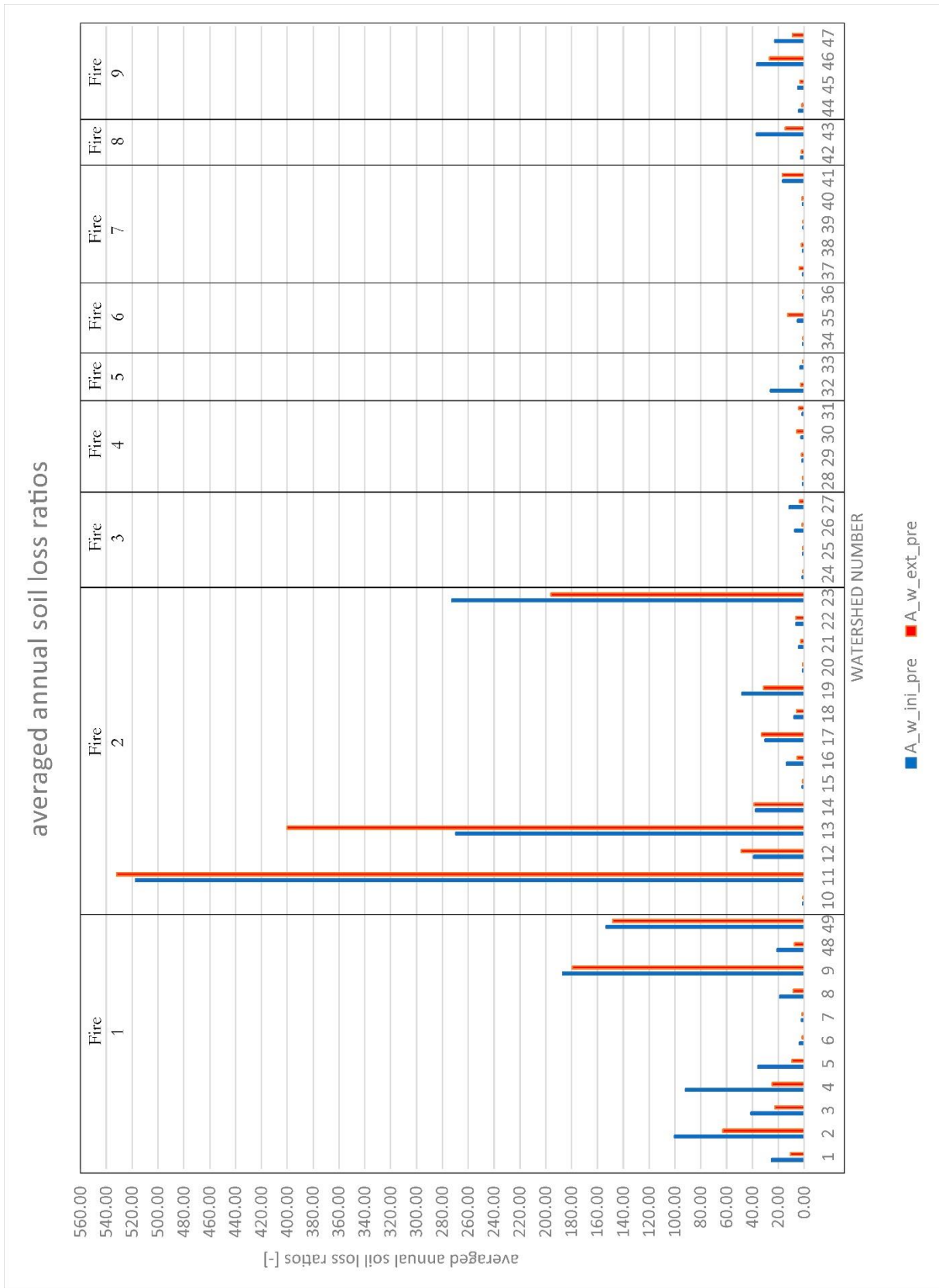


Figure 8.5 – Average Annual Soil Loss ratios between pre and post fire situation.

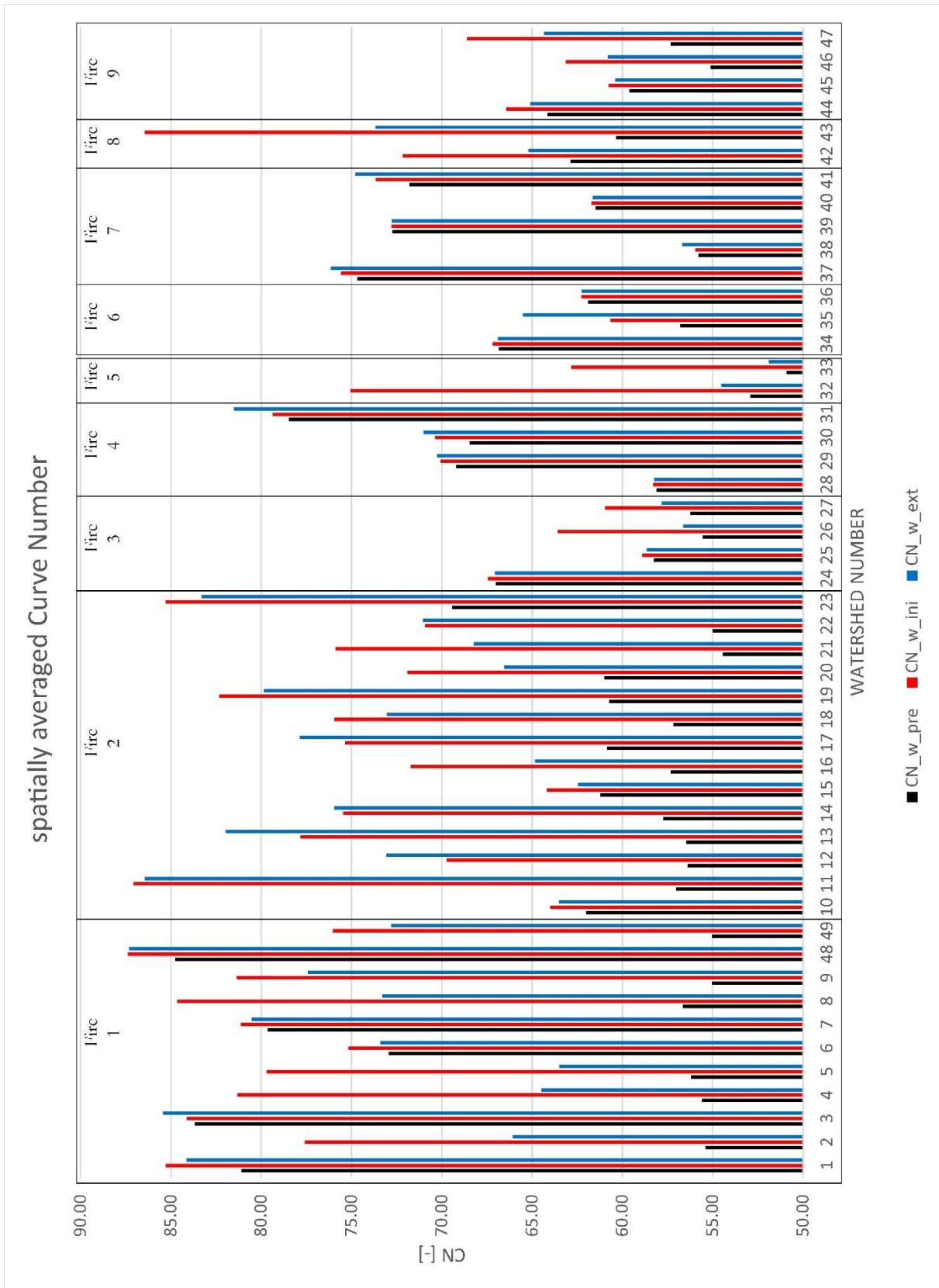


Figure 8.6 – Curve Number comparison for the pre-fire situation and the post-fire initial and extended assessment.

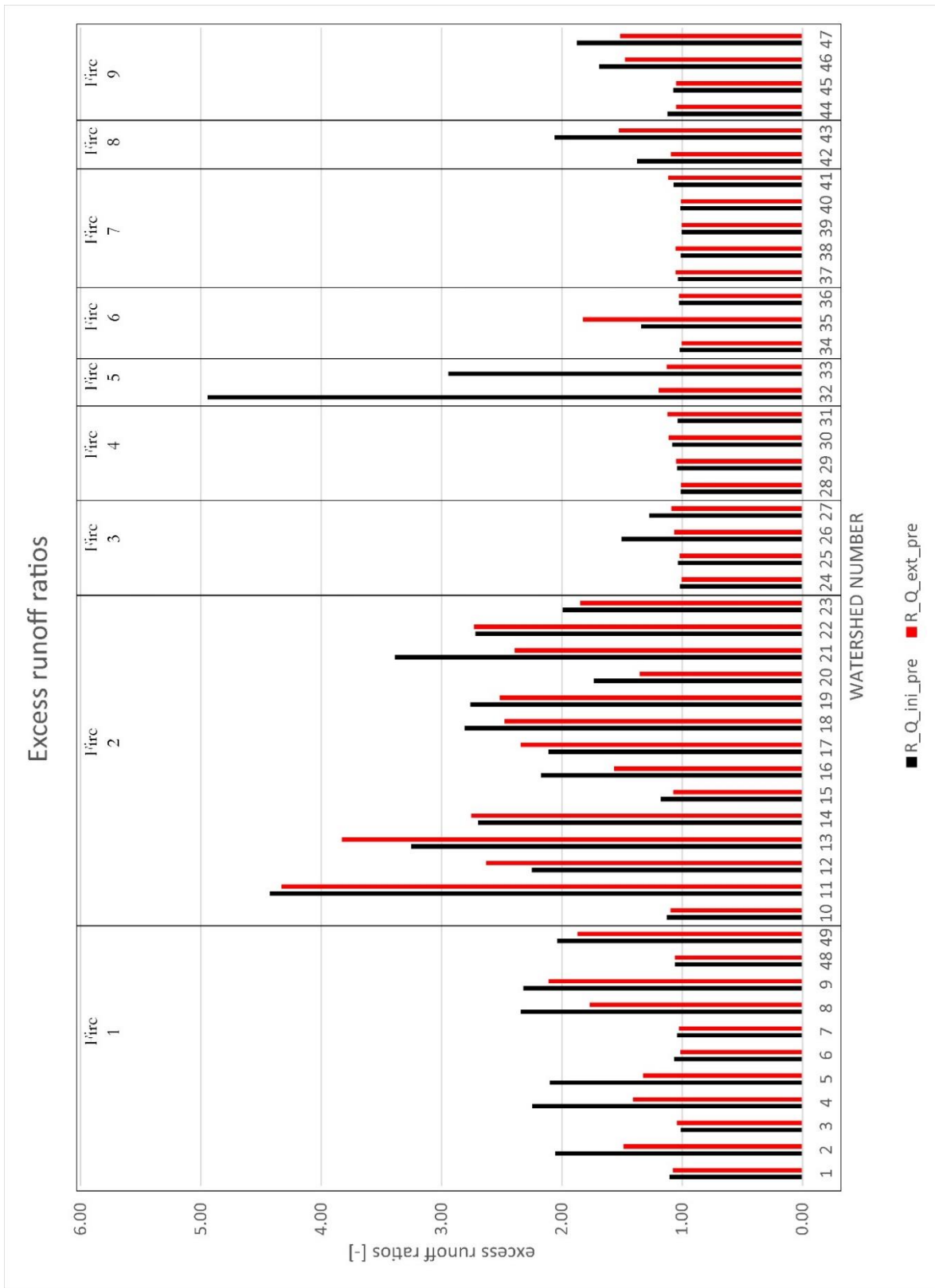


Figure 8.7- Excess runoff ratios comparing post-fire initial and extended assessment with respect to pre-fire situation.

Regarding the evaluation of the accuracy of the modeling carried out, some insights can be taken from the analysis of the case study of Comba delle Foglie, for which the analysis was conducted with greater spatial and temporal resolution. Sediment erosion has been assessed implementing the RUSLE model at a monthly scale, by considering a more detailed erodibility map and calculating the erosive power of every significant rainfall event. Monthly mean soil loss A [$\text{Mg ha}^{-1} \text{ m}^{-1}$] and averaged monthly sediment loss SL [Mg m^{-1}] reflect the remarkably exceptional R values recorded in the months of January, April and May; these three months in fact contribute for about 75% to the annual erosion recorded in the watershed. The RUSLE model estimates a SL of approximately 4000 Mg from the extinction of the fire to June, when the most significant event occurred. The maximum deposit thickness of the 7 June debris-flow reconstructed via photogrammetric modelling was approximately 2 m, over a surface of about 26000 m^2 . The coarser fraction volume estimate is about 5000 m^3 . By applying a simple rule of thumb, considering a bulk density of 1500 Kg/m^3 , the deposit mass can be estimated in 7500 Mg. Taking into account the remarkable erosion exerted by the flow along its path, which may have increased its volume greatly, the results of the model can be considered a reasonable estimator of the amount of material ready to be taken over by the flow.

Following these arguments, it seems reasonable to hypothesize how the considerable amount of sediment mobilized from the date of the fire may have been delivered to the bottom of the slopes and inside the stream network on the occasion of the repeated downpours of rain that occurred on the basin. In occasion of some of them, smaller mud-flows and hyper-concentrated flows have originated. The progressive increase of sediments then reached a critical threshold in conjunction with which a rainy event of a certain intensity caused the triggering of the most destructive debris-flow on 7 June. This hypothesis is supported by the field evidence: during the inspections prior to 7 June a considerable amount of sediments and combustion residues had been observed inside the channels, especially in the terminal part of the watershed and at the apex of the fan. The investigations carried out following the event revealed evident traces of areal and channeled erosion, starting from the upper part of the slopes and into the lower-order channels. It is clear how all this mass of sediments has gone to constitute the load of the debris-flow during its transit.

A detailed analysis of the post-fire conditions for the Comba delle Foglie allows to evaluate not only the increased erosion, but also the increase in excess runoff and peak discharge at the watershed outlet; given the reduced time of concentration, the peak discharge is almost five times higher in post-fire conditions than in pre-fire conditions. This data confirms that in the case analyzed, the fire favored a significant increase in surface runoff on the occasion of a rainy events that was little more than ordinary, which in turn caused exceptional flood waves which undermined the inefficient drainage system at the valley outlet.

Alongside the analyzes concerning the erosion rates and the changes to the hydrological conditions of the watersheds, the tests conducted through simulation of small-scale fires made it possible to confirm, albeit

empirically, the results of the surveys in the field. In fact, a fire simulated using a fuel load similar to that measured in the Mompantero area results in a temperature increase at 2 cm depth of just 53 °C. Even a fuel load greater than 30% gives a temperature rise of a few more degrees. At the maximum depth investigated during the simulations, given the experimental conditions, the maximum temperature increase is around 35° C. These results confirm how the low thermal conductivity of the soil limits the propagation of the heat wave in depth, with thermal increases not so significant as to distort the geotechnical characteristics of the soil (except for a very pellicular portion close to the soil-air interface). Clearly, these results derive from the simulation performed on a soil different from that of the burned areas, in which the component of organic litter and duff can be present in a much greater amount in the first horizons. In this case, the temperatures recorded in the subsoil following the combustion of these substances could be much higher. The literature data, however, agree that it is unlikely that below the first 10 cm of depth the effects of the temperature rise can have significant effects on the physical-mechanical characteristics of the soil.

9 Conclusion

The study was devoted to analyzing the geological hazards occurring after wildfires in Piedmont, a region in the Western Italian Alps; following the 2017 exceptional wildfire season which led to the 2018 sediment-laden flow and floods hitting the Susa Valley, the focus was centered in studying the spatial, temporal and causal correlations between the wildfire impact on the landscape and the generation of multi-hazard processes.

Through the review of the historical series of landslides and fires, the analysis and modeling of the areas burned in 2017 and the execution of tests in the field, it was possible to deepen the understanding of the phenomena involved, at the same time verifying how the evidence emerged in the scientific literature, from other parts of the world, are also reflected in the area examined. The examination of the historical series proved to be useful in bringing to light 7 landslide events, possibly correlated with the fires that occurred previously in the same areas. While on the one hand the scarcity of information to strengthen the genetic constraints of these events represents a limiting factor, on the other hand it allows to highlight the need to improve the methodologies and to increase the efforts to catalog and classify landslides and phenomena that they grow in burned areas. In fact, it is necessary to increase the consideration given to the role of fires as a predisposing factor for the triggering of these sudden and destructive geological phenomena.

The study of the areas burned in 2017 and the processes that occurred in the affected areas made it possible to highlight the close link between the effects of the fires and the increased susceptibility to failure. In particular, it emerged that the removal of the vegetation cover, both herbaceous and arboreal, as a function of the fire severity, is one of the most important factors in determining an increase in erosive phenomena and runoff rates. This fact, widely recognized in areas other than the one analysed, is also confirmed for a region characterized by temperate sub-continental climatic conditions. In fact, in a context of significant climatic fluctuation, a hot and dry year (2017) was followed by a particularly rainy season (2018); all this led to the occurrence of conditions in which the rainy events favoured the washout of the slopes no longer protected by the vegetation cover and the accumulation of large quantities of sediments at their bottom and in the drainage network. Through the application of erosion and runoff models it was possible to numerically quantify the effect of the fires on the affected watersheds and made it possible to classify situations with increasing susceptibility. The results of these models are in agreement with the conditions found in the field and depict the actual scenario with good approximation: in fact, the watersheds affected by the Locana/Ribordone and, above all, the Bussoleno/Mompantero wildfires, are those that have revealed the greatest criticalities both after the field surveys and in the results of the models. In particular, some of them showed a marked increase in both the Erodibility Index and the

annual sediment loss, reflecting on average high fire severity conditions. For these watersheds, moreover, the increased Curve Number in the post-fire situation results also in a rise in the excess runoff depth, which is in some cases more than doubled. It is worth underlining that these values derive from the use of predetermined erosivity and precipitation quantities (average rainfall erosivity and 5-year return time precipitation respectively); in the case of thunderstorm type localized events, the combined effects of marked erodibility and increased surface runoff can lead to situations where the propensity to originate flow or flood phenomena is further increased.

An example of this is the case of Comba delle Foglie, a watershed for which it was possible to carry out a more detailed analysis as regards the parameters of erodibility and the erosive factors linked to precipitation. In fact, in the face of an insubstantial increase in the Erodibility Index (refined after a granulometric characterization of the soil surface horizons), the results of annual sediment loss and peak discharge are considerably greater than an evaluation carried out with the average precipitation values. Indeed, the different interannual distribution of precipitation events compared to the norm has meant that the erosion of the slopes, and therefore the progressive sediment bulking, was concentrated in the two months preceding the flow and flood events of May and June 2018.

Therefore, it seems quite evident that the most impacting process on a slope scale, in the time frame analysed (from 2017/2020) was the increase in runoff-related erosion rates; in fact, in the same period of time, no discrete landslide failures was observed. The latter are usually infiltration-triggered phenomena which respond to long duration rainstorms. However, it is not certain that these events cannot develop later, in response to a decreased evapotranspiration of the soil or decay of regolith-anchoring roots. For this reason, it will be necessary to monitor the situation also in the coming years.

Some considerations also need to be made on field tests: the small-scale fire simulations have allowed to verify how the depth affected by significant increases in temperatures, during combustion, is truly pellicular. This is certainly true under experimental conditions; however it is possible that in situations where the quantity of organic matter present within the first soil horizons is greater, the temperatures developed are considerably higher. Regarding this, future investigations need to be conducted.

Evaluating the proposed approach, it can be stated that the workflow used, although it can be improved and calibrated with greater accuracy, can be used on a regional scale as a tool for assessing in a relative way situations with different susceptibility to instability. In fact, the use of opensource data and the possibility of tailoring the input data according to needs make it easily implementable for civil protection purposes and in decision-making.

In spite of this, it is also necessary to evaluate the weaknesses of the proposed work scheme: the use of spatialized data on a large scale involves considerable simplifications and an inevitable loss of resolution. Furthermore, the models used are empirical models calibrated on data obtained in different contexts

(USA). Therefore, although the results can be considered reasonably correct, a modification of the constitutive equations on the basis of a larger database of experimental data could allow for further improvement. Finally, since it was not possible to verify the quantities of mobilized material and the runoff rates in the field, the relative uncertainties must be taken into consideration.

Future research developments in this area derive from the need to overcome the limitations characterizing the study just described, and the necessity to deepen the research topic is justified by the fact that future climate scenarios predict an increase in both the forest fires and extreme rainfall events occurrence. If we consider this, it seems right to continue working on these lines of research, with a view to reaching a more complete understanding of the phenomena, a quantitative characterization of the parameters involved and of the risk, and the definition of rainfall thresholds to be used for early warning purpose.

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Appendix 1

Cover description	Average percent impervious area ^{2/}	Curve numbers for hydrologic soil group			
		A	B	C	D
<i>Fully developed urban areas (vegetation established)</i>					
Open space (lawns, parks, golf courses, cemeteries, etc.) ^{3/} :					
Poor condition (grass cover < 50%)		68	79	86	89
Fair condition (grass cover 50% to 75%)		49	69	79	84
Good condition (grass cover > 75%)		39	61	74	80
Impervious areas:					
Paved parking lots, roofs, driveways, etc. (excluding right-of-way)		98	98	98	98
Streets and roads:					
Paved; curbs and storm sewers (excluding right-of-way)		98	98	98	98
Paved; open ditches (including right-of-way)		83	89	92	93
Gravel (including right-of-way)		76	85	89	91
Dirt (including right-of-way)		72	82	87	89
Western desert urban areas:					
Natural desert landscaping (pervious areas only) ^{4/}		63	77	85	88
Artificial desert landscaping (impervious weed barrier, desert shrub with 1- to 2-inch sand or gravel mulch and basin borders)		96	96	96	96
Urban districts:					
Commercial and business	85	89	92	94	95
Industrial	72	81	88	91	93
Residential districts by average lot size:					
1/8 acre or less (town houses)	65	77	85	90	92
1/4 acre	38	61	75	83	87
1/3 acre	30	57	72	81	86
1/2 acre	25	54	70	80	85
1 acre	20	51	68	79	84
2 acres	12	46	65	77	82
<i>Developing urban areas</i>					
Newly graded areas (pervious areas only, no vegetation) ^{5/}					
		77	86	91	94
Idle lands (CN's are determined using cover types similar to those in table 2-2c).					

¹ Average runoff condition, and $I_a = 0.2S$.

² The average percent impervious area shown was used to develop the composite CN's. Other assumptions are as follows: impervious areas are directly connected to the drainage system, impervious areas have a CN of 98, and pervious areas are considered equivalent to open space in good hydrologic condition. CN's for other combinations of conditions may be computed using figure 2-3 or 2-4.

³ CN's shown are equivalent to those of pasture. Composite CN's may be computed for other combinations of open space cover type.

⁴ Composite CN's for natural desert landscaping should be computed using figures 2-3 or 2-4 based on the impervious area percentage (CN = 98) and the pervious area CN. The pervious area CN's are assumed equivalent to desert shrub in poor hydrologic condition.

⁵ Composite CN's to use for the design of temporary measures during grading and construction should be computed using figure 2-3 or 2-4 based on the degree of development (impervious area percentage) and the CN's for the newly graded pervious areas.

Figure A1.1 - Runoff Curve Number for urban areas (SCS-USDA, 1986)

Cover description			Curve numbers for hydrologic soil group			
Cover type	Treatment ^{2/}	Hydrologic condition ^{3/}	A	B	C	D
Fallow	Bare soil	—	77	86	91	94
	Crop residue cover (CR)	Poor	76	85	90	93
		Good	74	83	88	90
Row crops	Straight row (SR)	Poor	72	81	88	91
		Good	67	78	85	89
	SR + CR	Poor	71	80	87	90
		Good	64	75	82	85
	Contoured (C)	Poor	70	79	84	88
		Good	65	75	82	86
	C + CR	Poor	69	78	83	87
		Good	64	74	81	85
	Contoured & terraced (C&T)	Poor	66	74	80	82
		Good	62	71	78	81
C&T+ CR	Poor	65	73	79	81	
	Good	61	70	77	80	
Small grain	SR	Poor	65	76	84	88
		Good	63	75	83	87
	SR + CR	Poor	64	75	83	86
		Good	60	72	80	84
	C	Poor	63	74	82	85
		Good	61	73	81	84
	C + CR	Poor	62	73	81	84
		Good	60	72	80	83
	C&T	Poor	61	72	79	82
		Good	59	70	78	81
C&T+ CR	Poor	60	71	78	81	
	Good	58	69	77	80	
Close-seeded or broadcast legumes or rotation meadow	SR	Poor	66	77	85	89
		Good	58	72	81	85
	C	Poor	64	75	83	85
		Good	55	69	78	83
	C&T	Poor	63	73	80	83
Good	51	67	76	80		

¹ Average runoff condition, and $I_a=0.2S$

² Crop residue cover applies only if residue is on at least 5% of the surface throughout the year.

³ Hydraulic condition is based on combination factors that affect infiltration and runoff, including (a) density and canopy of vegetative areas, (b) amount of year-round cover, (c) amount of grass or close-seeded legumes, (d) percent of residue cover on the land surface (good $\geq 20\%$), and (e) degree of surface roughness.

Poor: Factors impair infiltration and tend to increase runoff.

Good: Factors encourage average and better than average infiltration and tend to decrease runoff.

Figure A1.2 - Runoff Curve Number for cultivated agricultural lands (SCS-USDA, 1986)

Cover description	Hydrologic condition	Curve numbers for hydrologic soil group			
		A	B	C	D
Pasture, grassland, or range—continuous forage for grazing. ^{2/}	Poor	68	79	86	89
	Fair	49	69	79	84
	Good	39	61	74	80
Meadow—continuous grass, protected from grazing and generally mowed for hay.	—	30	58	71	78
Brush—brush-weed-grass mixture with brush the major element. ^{3/}	Poor	48	67	77	83
	Fair	35	56	70	77
	Good	30 ^{4/}	48	65	73
Woods—grass combination (orchard or tree farm). ^{5/}	Poor	57	73	82	86
	Fair	43	65	76	82
	Good	32	58	72	79
Woods. ^{6/}	Poor	45	66	77	83
	Fair	36	60	73	79
	Good	30 ^{4/}	55	70	77
Farmsteads—buildings, lanes, driveways, and surrounding lots.	—	59	74	82	86

¹ Average runoff condition, and $I_a = 0.2S$.

² *Poor*: <50% ground cover or heavily grazed with no mulch.

Fair: 50 to 75% ground cover and not heavily grazed.

Good: > 75% ground cover and lightly or only occasionally grazed.

³ *Poor*: <50% ground cover.

Fair: 50 to 75% ground cover.

Good: >75% ground cover.

⁴ Actual curve number is less than 30; use CN = 30 for runoff computations.

⁵ CN's shown were computed for areas with 50% woods and 50% grass (pasture) cover. Other combinations of conditions may be computed from the CN's for woods and pasture.

⁶ *Poor*: Forest litter, small trees, and brush are destroyed by heavy grazing or regular burning.

Fair: Woods are grazed but not burned, and some forest litter covers the soil.

Good: Woods are protected from grazing, and litter and brush adequately cover the soil.

Figure A1.3 - Runoff Curve Number for other agricultural lands (SCS-USDA, 1986)

Cover description		Curve numbers for hydrologic soil group			
Cover type	Hydrologic condition ^{2/}	A ^{3/}	B	C	D
Herbaceous—mixture of grass, weeds, and low-growing brush, with brush the minor element.	Poor		80	87	93
	Fair		71	81	89
	Good		62	74	85
Oak-aspen—mountain brush mixture of oak brush, aspen, mountain mahogany, bitter brush, maple, and other brush.	Poor		66	74	79
	Fair		48	57	63
	Good		30	41	48
Pinyon-juniper—pinyon, juniper, or both; grass understory.	Poor		75	85	89
	Fair		58	73	80
	Good		41	61	71
Sagebrush with grass understory.	Poor		67	80	85
	Fair		51	63	70
	Good		35	47	55
Desert shrub—major plants include saltbush, greasewood, creosotebush, blackbrush, bursage, palo verde, mesquite, and cactus.	Poor	63	77	85	88
	Fair	55	72	81	86
	Good	49	68	79	84

¹ Average runoff condition, and $I_a = 0.2S$. For range in humid regions, use table 2-2c.

² Poor: <30% ground cover (litter, grass, and brush overstory).

Fair: 30 to 70% ground cover.

Good: > 70% ground cover.

³ Curve numbers for group A have been developed only for desert shrub.

Figure A1.4 - Runoff Curve Number for arid and semiarid rangelands (SCS-USDA, 1986)

Appendix 2

Table A2.1– Geometric parameters of watersheds interested by the Locana/Ribordone wildfire

Fire n. 1 Watershed	LOCANA/RIBORDONE										
	Aw	P	Lb	Emin	Emax	Eran	Emean	Smin	Smax	Sran	Smea
	[km ²]	[km]	[km]	[m a.s.l.]	[m a.s.l.]	[m]	[m a.s.l.]	[°]	[°]	[°]	[°]
Rio Fura	1.29	6.17	2.66	669	1978	1309	1414	0.74	73.10	72.36	35.54
Rio Di Chioso Bosco	0.75	3.99	1.58	602	1510	908	1210	1.85	75.50	73.65	34.65
R. Montepiano	0.30	2.87	1.11	703	1506	802	1100	2.08	58.86	56.78	35.47
Carlevaria	0.73	3.85	1.62	613	1615	1002	1199	1.74	73.65	71.91	41.07
Rio Di Bardonetto Inferiore	0.43	3.70	1.78	580	1593	1012	1153	2.65	72.36	69.71	36.64
Ribordone	36.00	26.44	11.94	587	2839	2251	1580	0.00	82.25	82.25	33.63
Eugio	16.07	21.46	10.04	741	3261	2520	2205	0.00	83.35	83.35	32.45
Rio Bocchetta	1.28	5.07	1.83	677	1815	1139	1340	0.66	78.29	77.63	37.77
Rio Di Calsazio	0.63	3.14	1.12	608	1457	849	1058	1.37	70.60	69.23	40.68
Locana Est	0.66	4.16	1.92	638	1817	1178	1280	3.59	83.16	79.57	39.38
Apparè	0.30	3.05	1.34	530	1391	861	894	0.25	66.11	65.86	37.01
Mean	5.31	7.63	3.36	631.64	1889.27	1257.36	1312.09	1.36	74.29	72.94	36.75

Table A2.2 - Geometric parameters of watersheds interested by the Bussoleno/Mompantero wildfire

Fire n. 2 Watershed	BUSSOLENO/MOMPANTERO										
	Aw [km ²]	P [km]	Lb [km]	Emin [m a.s.l.]	Emax [m a.s.l.]	Eran [m]	Emean [m a.s.l.]	Smin [°]	Smax [°]	Sran [°]	Smea [°]
Crosiglione	4.51	10.85	3.42	823	3051	2228	1790	0.06	79.16	79.10	32.93
Rio Della Ravoire	0.58	4.59	1.40	556	1670	1114	1272	3.61	62.88	59.27	28.26
Fogasso	1.90	7.36	3.22	526	1977	1451	1448	1.96	68.55	66.58	27.47
Rio Della Codrea	0.90	5.68	2.16	549	1778	1229	1313	1.81	64.48	62.67	28.89
Trinità	0.38	4.00	1.23	526	1600	1074	1076	8.57	68.22	59.65	29.25
Rio Prebech	10.41	15.10	5.99	556	2661	2106	1560	0.37	80.63	80.26	34.69
Moletta	6.54	12.94	5.10	524	2965	2441	1693	0.45	85.81	85.36	40.65
Rio Di Periere	0.68	5.84	2.56	528	1833	1305	1338	2.12	77.96	75.84	30.66
Ravera	1.36	5.07	1.73	489	1642	1153	972	0.98	79.73	78.75	36.51
Comba Delle Foglie	1.30	6.10	2.59	480	1747	1267	1035	1.50	74.82	73.32	35.01
Rocciamelone	15.71	19.27	7.98	496	3536	3040	1983	0.15	85.72	85.57	36.09
Giandula	7.27	13.70	5.74	561	3048	2487	1677	0.10	75.61	75.51	29.87
I Piani	0.58	4.31	1.46	478	1326	849	879	3.76	73.52	69.76	34.15
San Giuseppe	0.06	1.43	0.71	563	991	428	814	8.59	56.62	48.03	32.33
Mean	3.73	8.30	3.24	546.79	2130.36	1583.71	1346.43	2.43	73.84	71.41	32.63

Table A2.3 - Geometric parameters of watersheds interested by the Caprie/Rubiana wildfire

Fire n. 3		CAPRIE/RUBIANA									
Watershed	Aw	P	Lb	Emin	Emax	Eran	Emean	Smin	Smax	Sran	Smea
	[km ²]	[km]	[km]	[m a.s.l.]	[m a.s.l.]	[m]	[m a.s.l.]	[°]	[°]	[°]	[°]
Messa	29.16	25.42	10.14	366	2233	1867	1042	0.00	76.34	76.34	24.93
Sessi	23.48	22.92	9.47	388	2270	1883	1353	0.08	80.85	80.77	28.66
Novaretto	1.23	5.34	1.31	368	1442	1074	800	0.52	59.67	59.15	28.04
Fra Barbe	0.68	5.27	1.59	372	1493	1122	1044	0.51	67.21	66.70	26.78
Mean	13.64	14.74	5.63	373.50	1859.50	1486.50	1059.75	0.28	71.02	70.74	27.10

Table A2.4 - Geometric parameters of watersheds interested by the Cumiana/Cantalupa wildfire

Fire n. 4		CUMIANA/CANTALUPA									
Watershed	Aw	P	Lb	Emin	Emax	Eran	Emean	Smin	Smax	Sran	Smea
	[km ²]	[km]	[km]	[m a.s.l.]	[m a.s.l.]	[m]	[m a.s.l.]	[°]	[°]	[°]	[°]
1*Int. Dx. Sangone	50.74	40.35	16.95	368	2057	1689	888	0.00	81.93	81.93	24.76
T. Chisola	41.65	29.52	11.73	269	1440	1171	542	0.00	74.91	74.91	17.94
T. Noce	17.56	21.39	9.27	306	1455	1149	731	0.00	84.08	84.08	23.61
Chisola Pianura	20.54	18.76	8.09	270	1224	954	396	0.00	64.41	64.41	11.05
Mean	32.62	27.51	11.51	303.25	1544.00	1240.75	639.25	0.00	76.33	76.33	19.34

Table A2.5 - Geometric parameters of watersheds interested by the Bellino/Casteldelfino wildfire

Fire n. 5											
BELLINO/CASTELDELFINO											
Watershed	Aw	P	Lb	Emin	Emax	Eran	Emean	Smin	Smax	Sran	Smea
	[km ²]	[km]	[km]	[m a.s.l.]	[m a.s.l.]	[m]	[m a.s.l.]	[°]	[°]	[°]	[°]
Cumbal Della Comu	1.01	3.94	0.94	1417	2271	854	1860	1.35	74.12	72.77	34.58
T. Mas Del Bernard	2.51	6.99	2.31	1468	2728	1260	2095	0.63	75.34	74.71	31.43
Mean	1.76	5.47	1.63	1442.50	2499.50	1057.00	1977.50	0.99	74.73	73.74	33.01

Table A2.6 - Geometric parameters of watersheds interested by the Sambuco/Pietraporzio wildfire

Fire n. 6											
SAMBUCO/PIETRAPORZIO											
Watershed	Aw	P	Lb	Emin	Emax	Eran	Emean	Smin	Smax	Sran	Smea
	[km ²]	[km]	[km]	[m a.s.l.]	[m a.s.l.]	[m]	[m a.s.l.]	[°]	[°]	[°]	[°]
R. Bianco	11.60	16.07	5.78	1185	2759	1574	2113	0.00	82.54	82.54	30.49
Sn	0.36	3.34	1.33	1263	2206	943	1674	4.14	67.53	63.39	34.81
Rio Di Castello Pietraporzio	1.82	6.04	2.50	1259	2554	1295	1939	0.13	81.01	80.88	40.20
Mean	4.59	8.48	3.20	1235.67	2506.33	1270.67	1908.67	1.42	77.03	75.60	35.17

Table A2.7 - Geometric parameters of watersheds interested by the Roure/Perrero wildfire

Fire n. 7		ROURE/PERRERO									
Watershed	Aw	P	Lb	Emin	Emax	Eran	Emean	Smin	Smax	Sran	Smea
	[km ²]	[km]	[km]	[m a.s.l.]	[m a.s.l.]	[m]	[m a.s.l.]	[°]	[°]	[°]	[°]
V.Ne Di Borsetto	12.12	15.86	6.90	861	2809	1948	1756	0.26	85.23	84.97	34.69
S. Martino Sud	1.61	5.43	1.65	813	1825	1011	1331	0.22	62.05	61.83	27.87
Colet	2.29	6.09	2.17	896	1975	1078	1423	0.19	68.11	67.92	35.43
Molotta	3.30	8.24	2.53	1007	2208	1201	1736	0.18	74.33	74.15	30.88
Gernier	4.24	9.05	3.76	779	2193	1414	1468	0.52	76.82	76.30	34.65
Mean	4.71	8.93	3.40	871.20	2202.00	1330.40	1542.80	0.27	73.31	73.03	32.70

Table A2.8 - Geometric parameters of watersheds interested by the Traversella wildfire

Fire n. 8		TRAVERSELLA									
Watershed	Aw	P	Lb	Emin	Emax	Eran	Emean	Smin	Smax	Sran	Smea
	[km ²]	[km]	[km]	[m a.s.l.]	[m a.s.l.]	[m]	[m a.s.l.]	[°]	[°]	[°]	[°]
T. Bersella	10.52	13.95	4.94	727	2352	1625	1459	0.06	76.52	76.46	30.37
Valle Chiara Primo	0.43	3.86	1.47	866	2049	1183	1396	0.64	71.67	71.03	38.30
Mean	5.48	8.91	3.21	796.50	2200.50	1404.00	1427.50	0.35	74.10	73.75	34.34

Table A2.9 - Geometric parameters of watersheds interested by the Demonte wildfire

Fire n. 9	DEMONTE										
Watershed	Aw	P	Lb	Emin	Emax	Eran	Emean	Smin	Smax	Sran	Smea
	[km ²]	[km]	[km]	[m a.s.l.]	[m a.s.l.]	[m]	[m a.s.l.]	[°]	[°]	[°]	[°]
V. Del Saut	4.41	9.51	3.72	1110	2308	1198	1883	0.20	76.95	76.76	27.25
Valle Di Monfreis	7.64	11.42	4.11	962	2200	1238	1612	0.29	80.52	80.23	30.17
Sn 2	0.10	1.54	1.33	1052	1476	424	1254	10.70	45.95	35.25	33.83
Rio Di Prafioret C.	0.46	3.01	0.66	1066	1767	701	1447	0.85	72.79	71.94	36.51
Mean	3.15	6.37	2.46	1047.50	1937.75	890.25	1549.00	3.01	69.05	66.05	31.94

Table A2.10 - Hydrological parameters of watersheds interested by the Locana/Ribordone wildfire

Fire n. 1 Watershed	LOCANA/RIBORDONE		
	Lp [km]	LpS [°]	L [km]
Rio Fura	2.51	35.63	5.02
Rio Di Chioso Bosco	1.43	34.52	2.65
R. Montepiano	0.96	36.18	1.16
Carlevaria	1.47	40.54	2.49
Rio Di Bardonetto Inferiore	1.63	34.65	1.50
Ribordone	11.79	19.48	125.03
Eugio	9.89	21.82	66.03
Rio Bocchetta	1.68	40.31	4.40
Rio Di Calsazio	0.97	37.72	2.20
Locana Est	1.77	32.61	2.86
Apparè	0.54	39.21	0.90
Mean	3.15	33.88	19.48

Table A2.11 - Hydrological parameters of watersheds interested by the Bussoleno/Mompantero wildfire

Fire n. 2 Watershed	BUSSOLENO/MOMPANTERO		
	Lp [km]	LpS [°]	L [km]
Crosiglione	3.27	32.19	21.65
Rio Della Ravoire	1.25	29.98	3.00
Fogasso	3.07	28.86	8.08
Rio Della Codrea	2.01	27.85	4.01
Trinità	1.08	29.40	1.85
Rio Prebech	5.84	27.57	40.95
Moletta	4.95	34.92	24.63
Rio Di Periere	2.41	32.69	2.49
Ravera	1.58	31.74	4.52
Comba Delle Foglie	2.44	32.22	4.14
Rocciamelone	7.83	38.47	54.48
Giandula	5.59	28.22	25.11
I Piani	1.31	32.61	2.11
San Giuseppe	0.56	33.08	0.06
Mean	3.09	31.41	14.08

Table A2.12 - Hydrological parameters of watersheds interested by the Caprie/Rubiana wildfire

Fire n. 3		CAPRIE/RUBIANA		
Watershed	Lp	LpS	L	
	[km]	[°]	[km]	
Messa	9.99	22.97	108.08	
Sessi	9.32	17.28	77.55	
Novaretto	1.16	23.88	5.06	
Fra Barbe	1.44	28.86	2.60	
Mean	5.48	23.25	48.32	

Table A2.13 - Hydrological parameters of watersheds interested by the Cumiana/Cantalupa wildfire

Fire n. 4		CUMIANA/CANTALUPA		
Watershed	Lp	LpS	L	
	[km]	[°]	[km]	
1*Int. Dx. Sangone	16.80	14.90	168.67	
T. Chisola	11.58	14.41	167.56	
T. Noce	9.12	18.31	68.54	
Chisola Pianura	7.94	8.26	98.89	
Mean	11.36	13.97	125.92	

Table A2.14 - Hydrological parameters of watersheds interested by the Bellino/Casteldelfino wildfire

Fire n. 5		BELLINO/CASTELDEFINO		
Watershed	Lp [km]	LpS [°]	L [km]	
Cumbal Della Comu	0.79	28.91	3.34	
T. Mas Del Bernard	2.16	28.84	8.87	
Mean	1.48	28.88	6.11	

Table A2.15 - Hydrological parameters of watersheds interested by the Sambuco/Pietraporzio wildfire

Fire n. 6		SAMBUCO/PIETRAPORZIO		
Watershed	Lp [km]	LpS [°]	L [km]	
R. Bianco	5.63	27.38	40.81	
Sn	1.18	30.66	1.79	
Rio Di Castello Pietraporzio	2.35	35.39	6.82	
Mean	3.05	31.14	16.47	

Table A2.16 - Hydrological parameters of watersheds interested by the Roure/Perrero wildfire

Fire n. 7		ROURE/PERRERO		
Watershed	Lp [km]	LpS [°]	L [km]	
V.Ne Di Borsetto	6.75	29.91	35.55	
S. Martino Sud	1.50	33.05	5.76	
Colet	2.02	36.47	6.80	
Molotta	2.38	33.53	11.41	
Gernier	3.61	32.50	11.91	
Mean	3.25	33.09	14.29	

Table A2.17 - Hydrological parameters of watersheds interested by the Traversella wildfire

Fire n. 8		TRAVERSELLA		
Watershed	Lp [km]	LpS [°]	L [km]	
T. Bersella	4.79	22.26	41.33	
Valle Chiara Primo	1.32	37.85	1.36	
Mean	3.06	30.06	21.35	

Table A2.18 - Hydrological parameters of watersheds interested by the Demonte wildfire

Fire n. 9	DEMONTE		
Watershed	Lp [km]	LpS [°]	L [km]
V. Del Saut	3.57	26.64	10.94
Valle Di Monfreis	3.96	26.80	24.39
Sn 2	1.18	33.31	0.29
Rio Di Prafioret C.	0.51	29.67	1.56
Mean	2.31	29.11	9.30

Table A2.19 - morphometric parameters of watersheds interested by the Locana/Ribordone wildfire

Fire n. 1 Watershed	LOCANA/RIBORDONE						
	Af_Aw [-]	Ff [-]	Rc [-]	Re [-]	Me [-]	Dd [km/km ²]	Tc [h]
Rio Fura	5.36	0.20	0.43	0.51	1.14	3.87	0.18
Rio Di Chioso Bosco	5.39	0.37	0.60	0.69	1.02	3.51	0.11
R. Montepiano	42.46	0.33	0.46	0.65	1.47	3.84	0.08
Carlevaria	3.24	0.34	0.62	0.66	1.16	3.39	0.11
Rio Di Bardonetto Inferiore	0.83	0.16	0.39	0.45	1.51	3.50	0.12
Ribordone	1.24	0.26	0.65	0.57	0.38	3.47	0.81
Eugio	1.53	0.16	0.44	0.46	0.63	4.11	0.64
Rio Bocchetta	6.26	0.45	0.62	0.76	1.00	3.45	0.12
Rio Di Calsazio	3.82	0.67	0.80	0.92	1.06	3.51	0.08
Locana Est	0.02	0.21	0.48	0.52	1.45	4.33	0.13
Apparè	0.06	0.21	0.40	0.52	1.57	2.99	0.09
Mean	6.38	0.31	0.54	0.61	1.13	3.63	0.22

Table A2.20 - morphometric parameters of watersheds interested by the Bussoleno/Mompantero wildfire

Fire n. 2 Watershed	BUSSOLENO/MOMPANTERO						
	Af_Aw [-]	Ff [-]	Rc [-]	Re [-]	Me [-]	Dd [km/km ²]	Tc [h]
Crosiglione	20.43	0.42	0.48	0.73	1.02	4.80	0.22
Rio Della Ravoire	2.31	0.37	0.35	0.69	1.41	5.15	0.10
Fogasso	0.34	0.20	0.44	0.51	1.10	4.26	0.22
Rio Della Codrea	1.46	0.22	0.35	0.53	1.29	4.45	0.15
Trinità	1.51	0.33	0.30	0.65	1.34	4.88	0.09
Rio Prebech	19.50	0.31	0.57	0.62	0.64	3.93	0.38
Moletta	17.45	0.27	0.49	0.58	0.95	3.77	0.30
Rio Di Periere	9.82	0.12	0.25	0.39	1.52	3.64	0.17
Ravera	7.77	0.55	0.67	0.84	0.97	3.31	0.13
Comba Delle Foglie	8.14	0.22	0.44	0.53	1.02	3.19	0.18
Rocciamelone	6.69	0.26	0.53	0.57	0.76	3.47	0.44
Giandula	2.75	0.23	0.49	0.55	0.91	3.46	0.37
I Piani	9.39	0.34	0.39	0.66	1.18	3.66	0.10
San Giuseppe	23.54	0.19	0.36	0.49	1.74	1.06	0.05
Mean	9.36	0.29	0.44	0.60	1.13	3.79	0.21

Table A2.21 - morphometric parameters of watersheds interested by the Caprie/Rubiana wildfire

Fire n. 3		CAPRIE/RUBIANA						
Watershed	Af_Aw	Ff	Rc	Re	Me	Dd	Tc	
	[-]	[-]	[-]	[-]	[-]	[km/km²]	[h]	
Messa	5.75	0.29	0.57	0.61	0.35	3.71	0.67	
Sessi	7.24	0.27	0.56	0.59	0.39	3.30	0.69	
Novaretto	3.16	0.92	0.54	1.08	0.97	4.12	0.11	
Fra Barbe	6.01	0.33	0.31	0.65	1.36	3.83	0.12	
Mean	5.54	0.45	0.50	0.73	0.77	3.74	0.40	

Table A2.22 - morphometric parameters of watersheds interested by the Cumiana/Cantalupa wildfire

Fire n. 4		CUMIANA/CANTALUPA						
Watershed	Af_Aw	Ff	Rc	Re	Me	Dd	Tc	
	[-]	[-]	[-]	[-]	[-]	[km/km²]	[h]	
1*Int. Dx. Sangone	-	0.18	0.39	0.48	0.24	3.32	1.24	
T. Chisola	-	0.31	0.60	0.63	0.18	4.02	0.99	
T. Noce	-	0.21	0.48	0.52	0.27	3.90	0.75	
Chisola Pianura	-	0.33	0.73	0.65	0.21	4.81	0.77	
Mean	-	0.26	0.55	0.57	0.23	4.01	0.94	

Table A2.23 - morphometric parameters of watersheds interested by the Bellino/Casteldelfino wildfire

Fire n. 5		BELLINO/CASTELDELFINO					
Watershed	Af_Aw	Ff	Rc	Re	Me	Dd	Tc
	[-]	[-]	[-]	[-]	[-]	[km/km²]	[h]
Cumbal Della Comu	1.59	1.62	0.81	1.44	0.84	3.32	0.08
T. Mas Del Bernard	0.77	0.54	0.64	0.83	0.79	3.54	0.17
Mean	1.18	1.08	0.73	1.14	0.82	3.43	0.13

Table A2.24 - morphometric parameters of watersheds interested by the Sambuco/Pietraporzio wildfire

Fire n. 6		SAMBUCO/PIETRAPORZIO					
Watershed	Af_Aw	Ff	Rc	Re	Me	Dd	Tc
	[-]	[-]	[-]	[-]	[-]	[km/km²]	[h]
R. Bianco	0.56	0.37	0.56	0.68	0.47	3.52	0.41
Sn	5.67	0.26	0.40	0.58	1.54	4.98	0.10
Rio Di Castello Pietraporzio	0.96	0.33	0.63	0.65	0.96	3.74	0.17
Mean	2.40	0.32	0.53	0.64	0.99	4.08	0.23

Table A2.25 - morphometric parameters of watersheds interested by the Roure/Perrero wildfire

Fire n. 7		ROURE/PERRERO						
Watershed	Af_Aw	Ff	Rc	Re	Me	Dd	Tc	
	[-]	[-]	[-]	[-]	[-]	[km/km²]	[h]	
V.Ne Di Borsetto	0.34	0.27	0.61	0.58	0.55	2.93	0.45	
S. Martino Sud	0.99	0.72	0.69	0.96	0.79	3.57	0.12	
Colet	1.28	0.56	0.78	0.85	0.70	2.97	0.15	
Molotta	0.09	0.58	0.61	0.86	0.66	3.46	0.18	
Gernier	1.03	0.33	0.65	0.65	0.68	2.81	0.26	
Mean	0.75	0.49	0.67	0.78	0.68	3.15	0.23	

Table A2.26 - morphometric parameters of watersheds interested by the Traversella wildfire

Fire n. 8		TRAVERSELLA						
Watershed	Af_Aw	Ff	Rc	Re	Me	Dd	Tc	
	[-]	[-]	[-]	[-]	[-]	[km/km²]	[h]	
T. Bersella	0.33	0.46	0.68	0.76	0.50	3.93	0.36	
Valle Chiara Primo	1.30	0.25	0.36	0.56	1.79	3.17	0.10	
Mean	0.82	0.36	0.52	0.66	1.15	3.55	0.23	

Table A2.27 - morphometric parameters of watersheds interested by the Demonte wildfire

Fire n. 9	DEMONTE							
Watershed	Af_Aw	Ff	Rc	Re	Me	Dd	Tc	
	[-]	[-]	[-]	[-]	[-]	[km/km²]	[h]	
V. Del Saut	3.31	0.35	0.61	0.66	0.57	2.48	0.28	
Valle Di Monfreis	0.54	0.49	0.74	0.79	0.44	3.19	0.31	
Sn 2	13.01	0.08	0.55	0.31	1.33	2.76	0.09	
Rio Di Prafioret C.	7.66	1.79	0.64	1.51	1.00	3.42	0.05	
Mean	6.13	0.68	0.64	0.82	0.84	2.96	0.18	

Appendix 3

Table A3.3 - Land cover percentages for the watersheds affected by the Caprie/Rubiana wildfire

Fire n. 3	CAPRIE/RUBIANA																					
Watershed	Land Cover type																					
	112	131	211	221	222	231	242	243	311	312	313	322	324	332	333	311b	312b	313b	3211	3212	322b	0
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Messa	3.5	-	-	-	-	0.0	-	0.6	55.7	26.2	3.2	-	4.4	0.0	3.2	0.0	-	-	-	3.1	-	-
Sessi	0.0	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.5	61.1	0.6	5.2	1.2	8.7	3.1	6.1	-	-	-	12.1	0.4	-	-
Novaretto	0.4	-	-	-	-	10.1	-	-	88.7	-	0.2	-	0.6	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Fra Barbe	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.1	87.7	-	1.3	-	10.8	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Table A3.4 - Land cover percentages for the watersheds affected by the Cumiana/Cantalupa wildfire

Fire n. 4	CUMIANA/CANTALUPA																					
Watershed	Land Cover type																					
	112	131	211	221	222	231	242	243	311	312	313	322	324	332	333	311b	312b	313b	3211	3212	322b	0
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
1*Int. Dx. Sangone	0.2	0.2	-	-	-	-	0.1	3.0	77.7	4.4	6.7	2.7	0.2	-	-	-	-	0.3	-	4.5	-	-
T. Chisola	3.3	-	-	-	-	1.0	11.6	10.6	71.5	1.5	-	-	0.6	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
T. Noce	9.5	-	-	1.7	-	0.0	2.7	5.6	76.9	1.4	1.3	-	1.0	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Chisola Pianura	0.0	-	12.2	0.1	-	-	23.1	21.0	43.6	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Table A3.5 - Land cover percentages for the watersheds affected by the Bellino/Casteldelfino wildfire

Fire n. 5	BELLINO/CASTELDEFINO																					
Watershed	Land Cover type																					
	112	131	211	221	222	231	242	243	311	312	313	322	324	332	333	311b	312b	313b	3211	3212	322b	0
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Cumbal Della Comu	-	-	-	-	-	0.0	-	-	5.0	61.7	0.5	-	0.2	-	-	-	-	-	32.6	-	-	-
T. Mas Del Bernard	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2.3	9.7	-	0.1	4.9	0.3	-	1.2	0.5	-	79.5	1.5	-	-

Table A3.6 - Land cover percentages for the watersheds affected by the Sambuco/Pietraporzio wildfire

Fire n. 6		SAMBUCO/PIETRAPORZIO																				
Watershed		Land Cover type																				
	112	131	211	221	222	231	242	243	311	312	313	322	324	332	333	311b	312b	313b	3211	3212	322b	0
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
R. Bianco	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2.9	5.6	-	0.1	7.0	6.2	5.2	-	0.8	-	40.6	31.6	-	-
Sn	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	75.5	-	6.2	10.2	-	-	-	4.5	-	-	3.5	-	-
Rio Di Castello Pietraporzio	-	-	-	-	-	1.2	-	-	0.4	35.0	-	-	23.0	-	-	-	0.9	-	0.7	38.9	-	-

Table A3.7 - Land cover percentages for the watersheds affected by the Roure/Perrero wildfire

Fire n. 7		ROURE/PERRERO																				
Watershed		Land Cover type																				
	112	131	211	221	222	231	242	243	311	312	313	322	324	332	333	311b	312b	313b	3211	3212	322b	0
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
V.Ne Di Borsetto	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	11.9	38.6	6.5	6.0	10.8	0.0	-	-	0.6	-	7.0	18.6	0.1	-
S. Martino Sud	-	-	-	-	-	5.1	-	-	16.5	74.2	0.0	-	0.3	-	-	0.7	3.1	-	-	-	-	-
Colet	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4.9	27.9	66.8	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.3	-	0.1	-
Molotta	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	18.3	33.3	12.2	-	3.7	-	-	-	10.8	-	-	21.7	-	-
Gernier	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	30.4	51.3	10.8	2.7	-	-	-	-	0.2	-	-	4.7	-	-

Table A3.8 - Land cover percentages for the watersheds affected by the Traversella wildfire

Fire n. 8		TRAVERSELLA																				
Watershed		Land Cover type																				
	112	131	211	221	222	231	242	243	311	312	313	322	324	332	333	311b	312b	313b	3211	3212	322b	0
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
T. Bersella	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	8.9	24.6	0.4	3.0	4.7	-	-	7.8	1.1	-	-	7.6	42.1	-	-
Valle Chiara Primo	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	15.1	-	36.2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.1	48.7	-	-

Table A3.9 - Land cover percentages for the watersheds affected by the Demonte wildfire

Fire n. 9	DEMONTE																					
Watershed	Land Cover type																					
	112	131	211	221	222	231	242	243	311	312	313	322	324	332	333	311b	312b	313b	3211	3212	322b	0
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
V. Del Saut	-	-	-	-	-	1.4	-	-	10.2	2.4	2.0	0.5	4.6	-	-	-	-	-	0.0	78.9	-	-
Valle Di Monfreis	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	49.6	6.9	0.5	1.0	10.4	-	-	1.8	-	-	-	29.5	0.3	-
Sn 2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	93.8	5.7	-	-	0.7	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Rio Di Prafioret C.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	72.8	6.1	-	-	4.0	-	-	-	-	-	-	17.1	-	-

Appendix 4

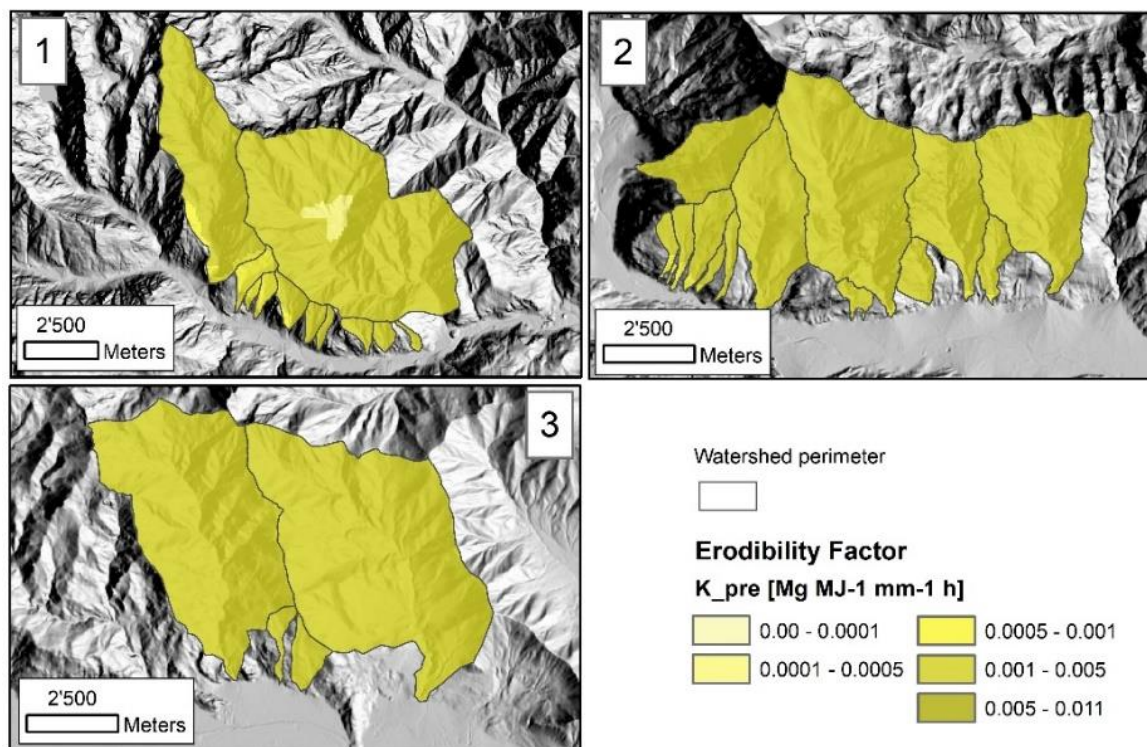


Figure A4.1 - Erodibility Factor in the pre-fire situation for the watersheds affected by the Locana/Ribordone (1), Bussoleno/Mompalero (2) and Caprie/Rubiana (3) wildfires.

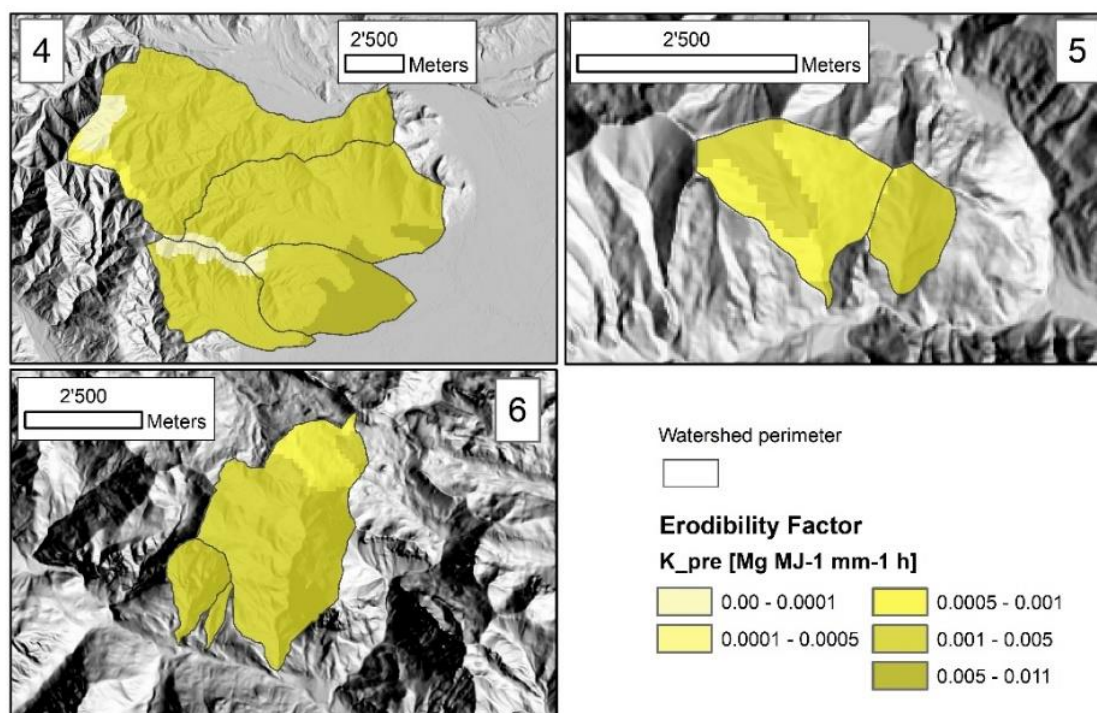


Figure A4.2 - Erodibility Factor in the pre-fire situation for the watersheds affected by the Cumiana/Cantalupa (4), Bellino/Casteldelfino (5) and Sambuco/Pietraporzio (6) wildfires.

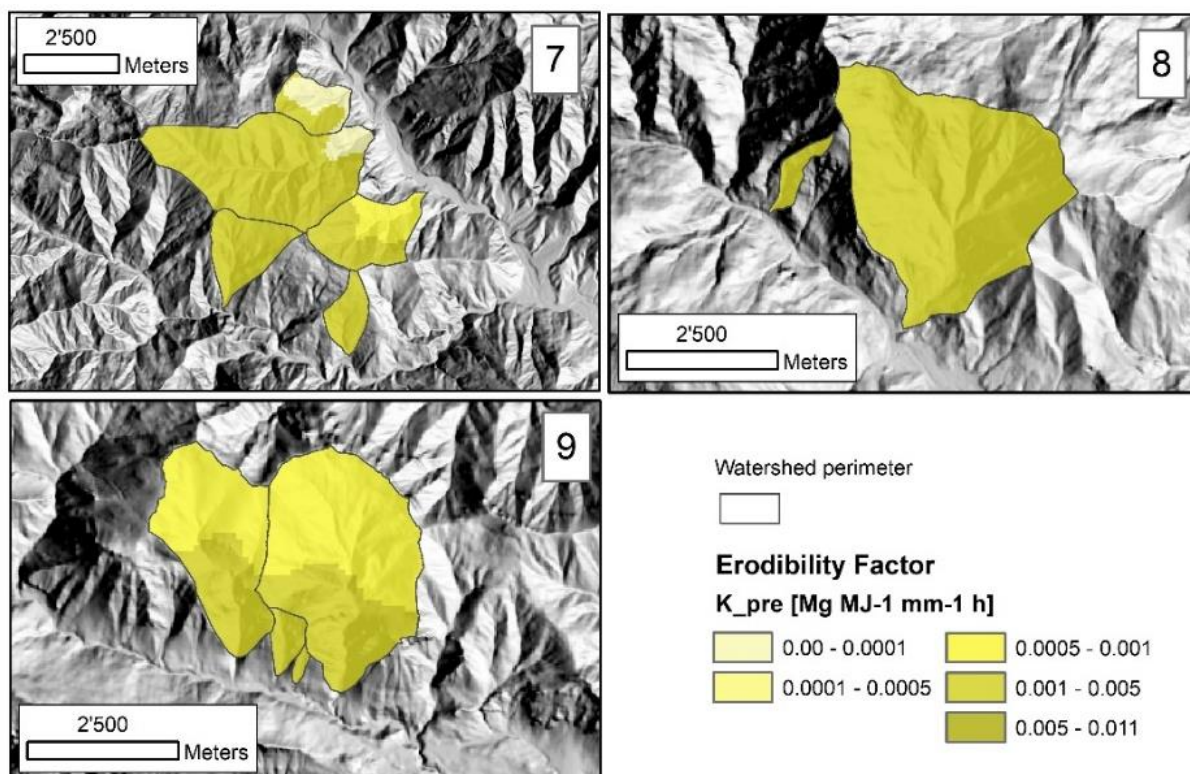


Figure A4.3 - Erodibility Factor in the pre-fire situation for the watersheds affected by the Roure/Perrero (7), Traversella (8) and Demonie (9) wildfires.

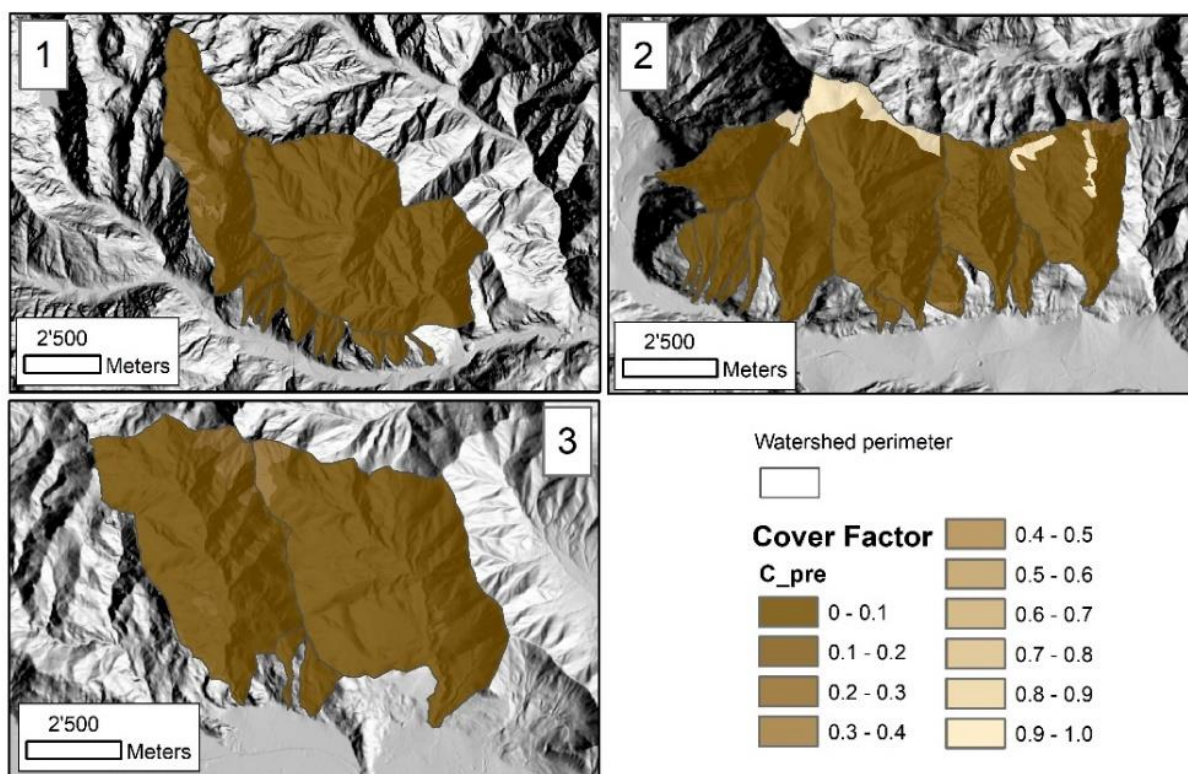


Figure A4.4 - Cover Factor in the pre-fire situation for the watersheds affected by the Locana/Ribordone (1), Bussoleno/Mompantero (2) and Caprie/Rubiana (3) wildfires.

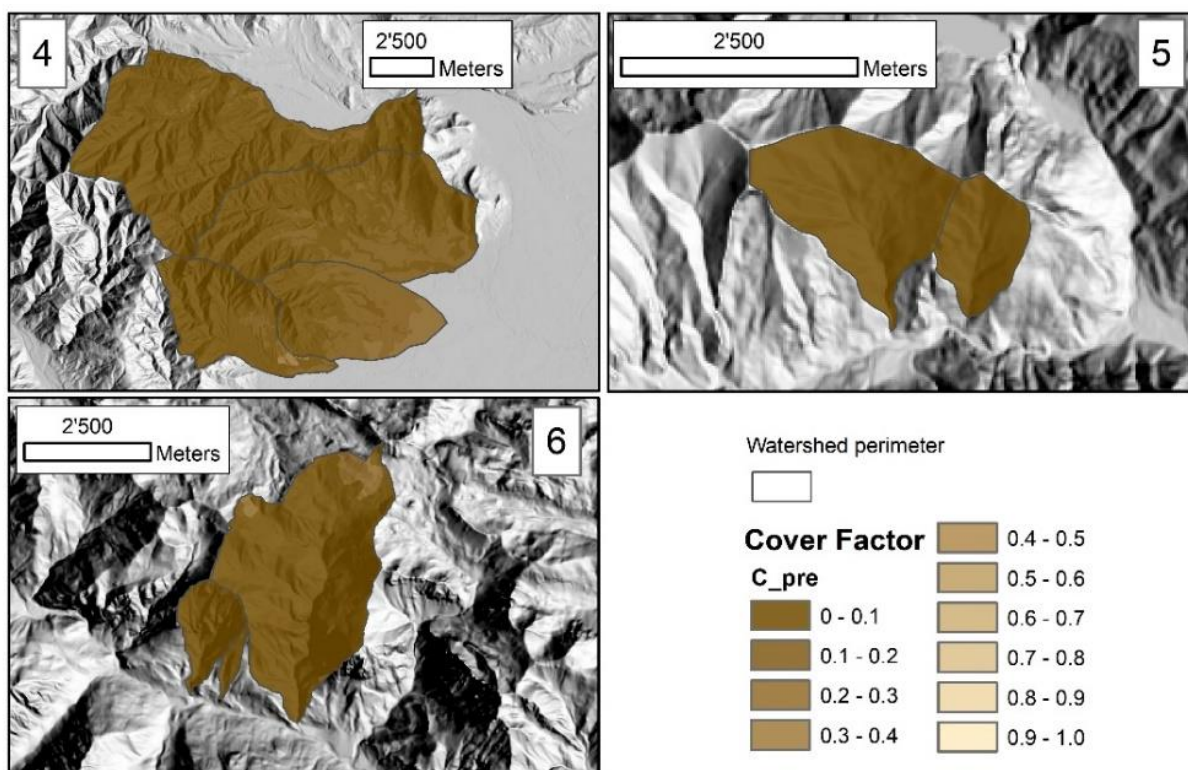


Figure A4.5 - Cover Factor in the pre-fire situation for the watersheds affected by the Cumiana/Cantalupa (4), Bellino/Casteldelfino (5) and Sambuco/Pietraporziò (6) wildfires.

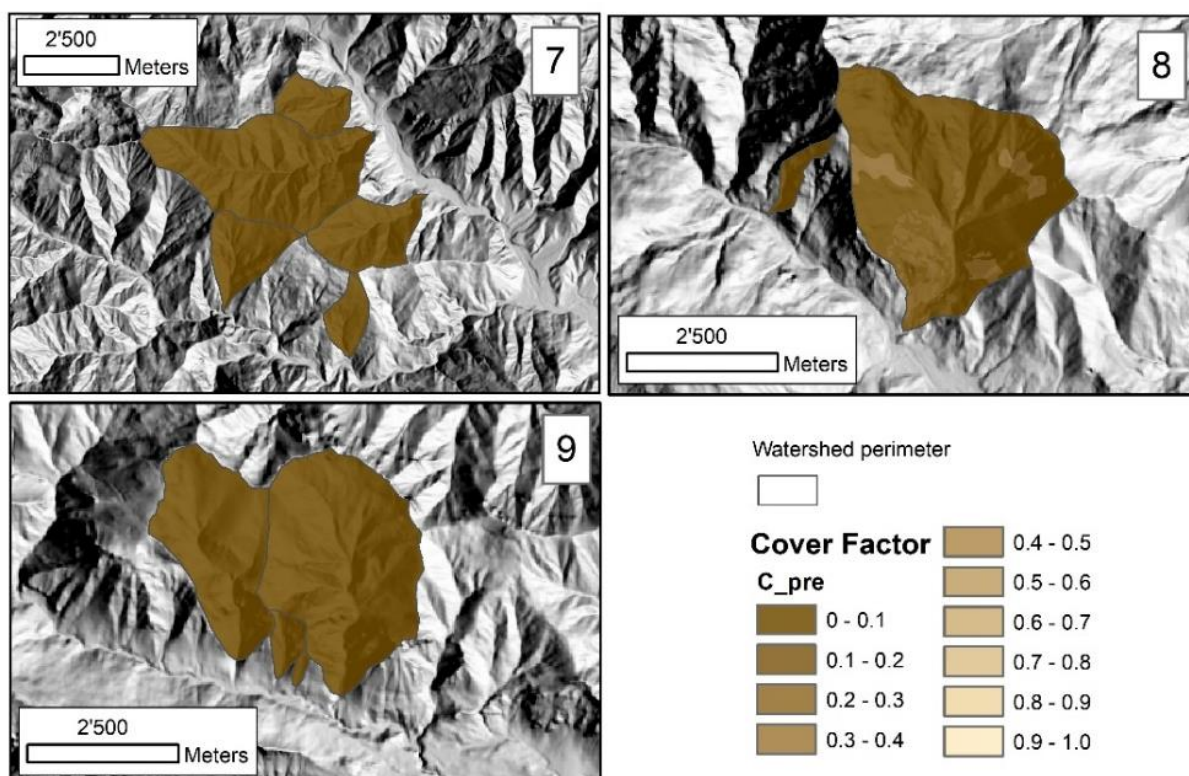


Figure A4.6 - Cover Factor in the pre-fire situation for the watersheds affected by the Roure/Perrero (7), Traversella (8) and Demonte (9) wildfires.

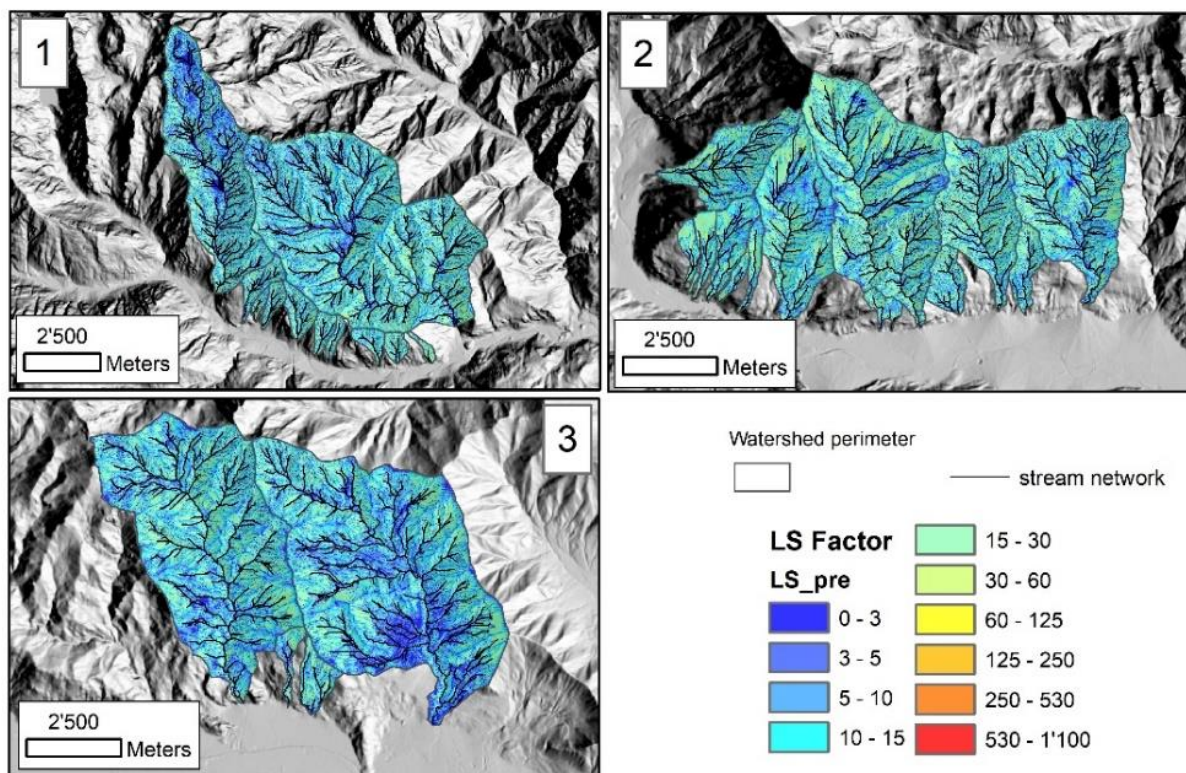


Figure A4.7 - LS Factor in the pre-fire situation for the watersheds affected by the Locana/Ribordone (1), Bussoleno/Mompalano (2) and Caprie/Rubiana (3) wildfires.

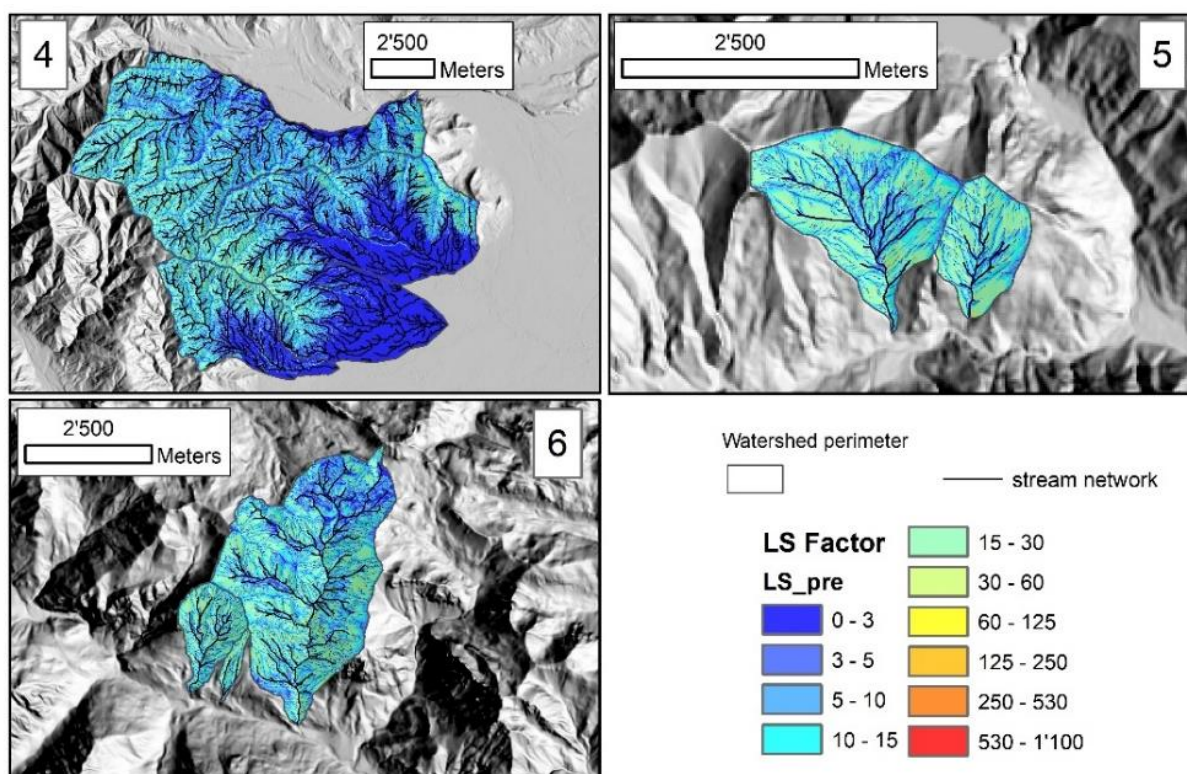


Figure A4.8 - LS Factor in the pre-fire situation for the watersheds affected by Cumiana/Cantalupa (4), Bellino/Casteldelfino (5) and Sambuco/Pietraporzio (6) wildfires.

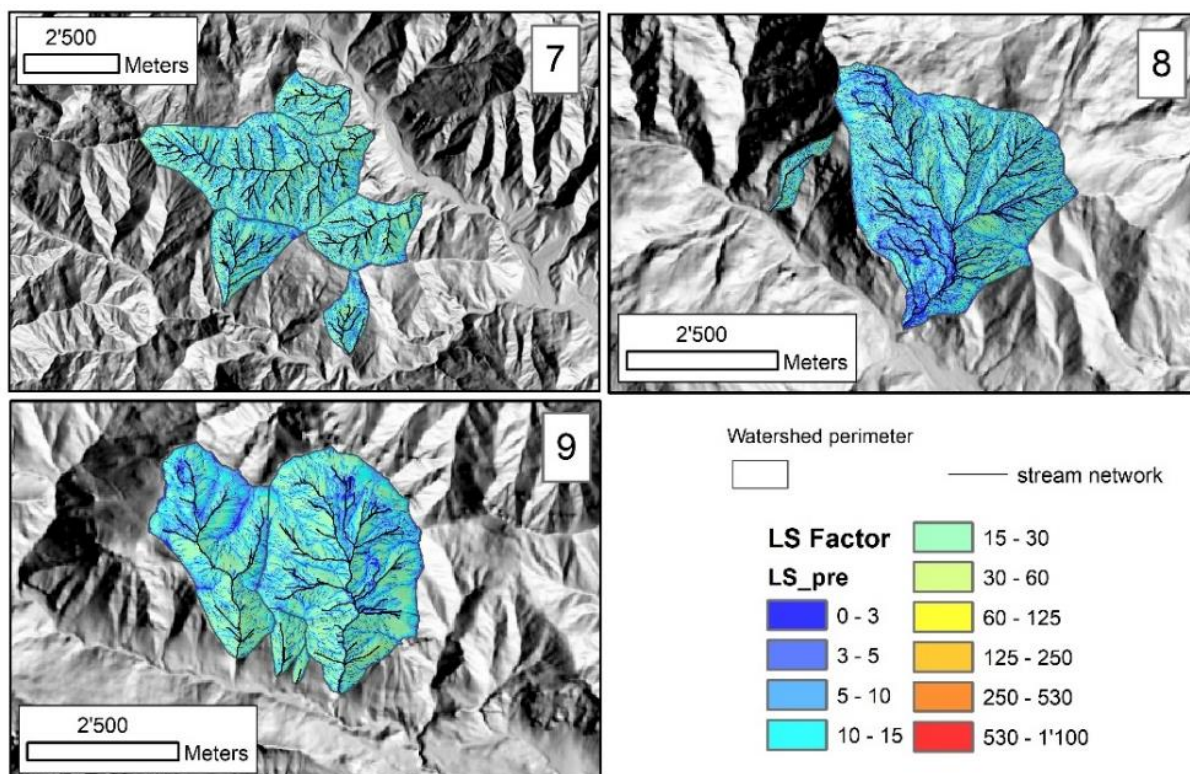


Figure A4.9 - LS Factor in the pre-fire situation for the watersheds affected by the Roure/Perrero (7), Traversella (8) and Demonte (9) wildfires.

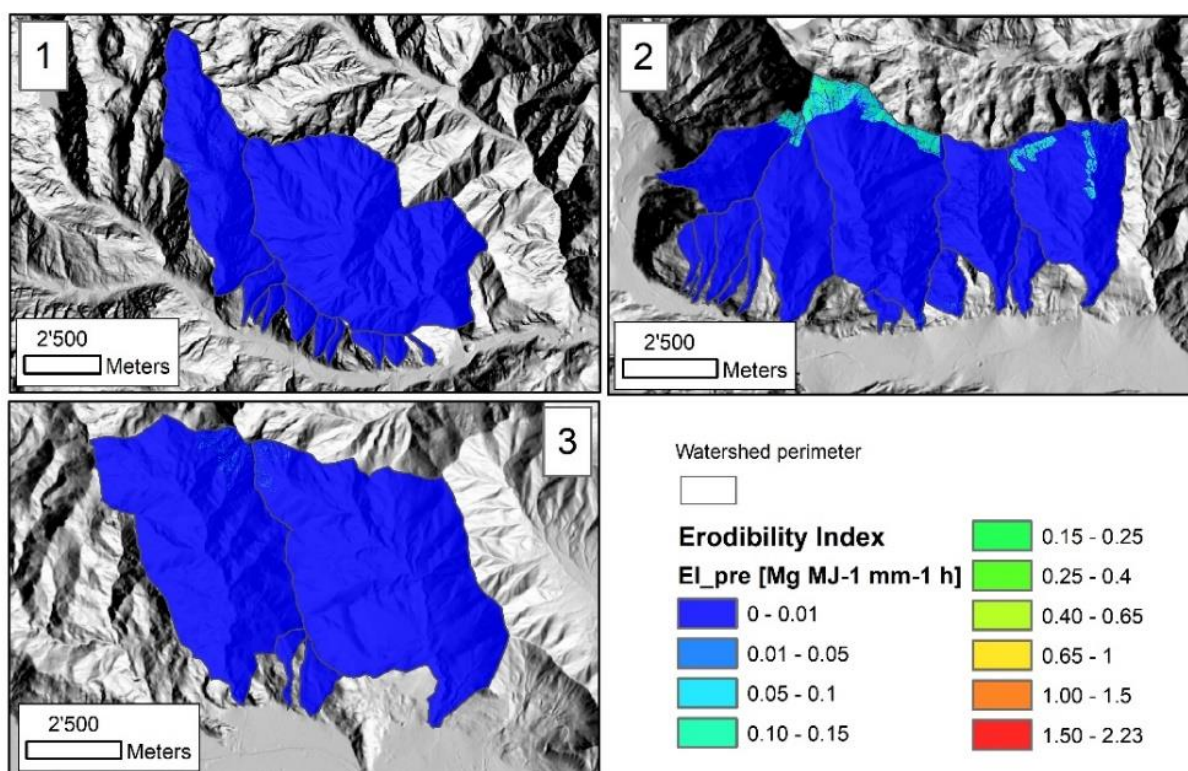


Figure A4.10 – Erodibility Index in the pre-fire situation for the watersheds affected by the Locana/Ribordone (1), Bussoleno/Mompantero (2) and Caprie/Rubiana (3) wildfires.

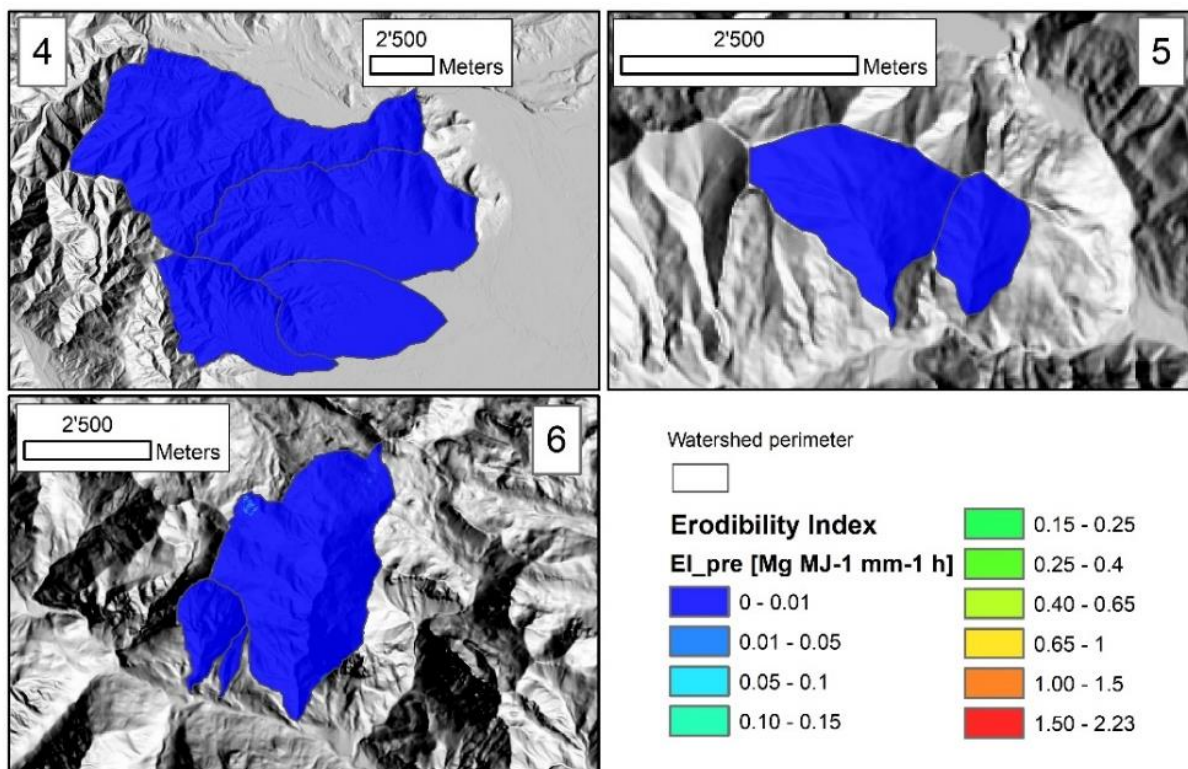


Figure A4.11 – Erodibility Index in the pre-fire situation for the watersheds affected by the Cumiana/Cantalupa (4), Bellino/Casteldelfino (5) and Sambuco/Pietraporzio (6) wildfires.

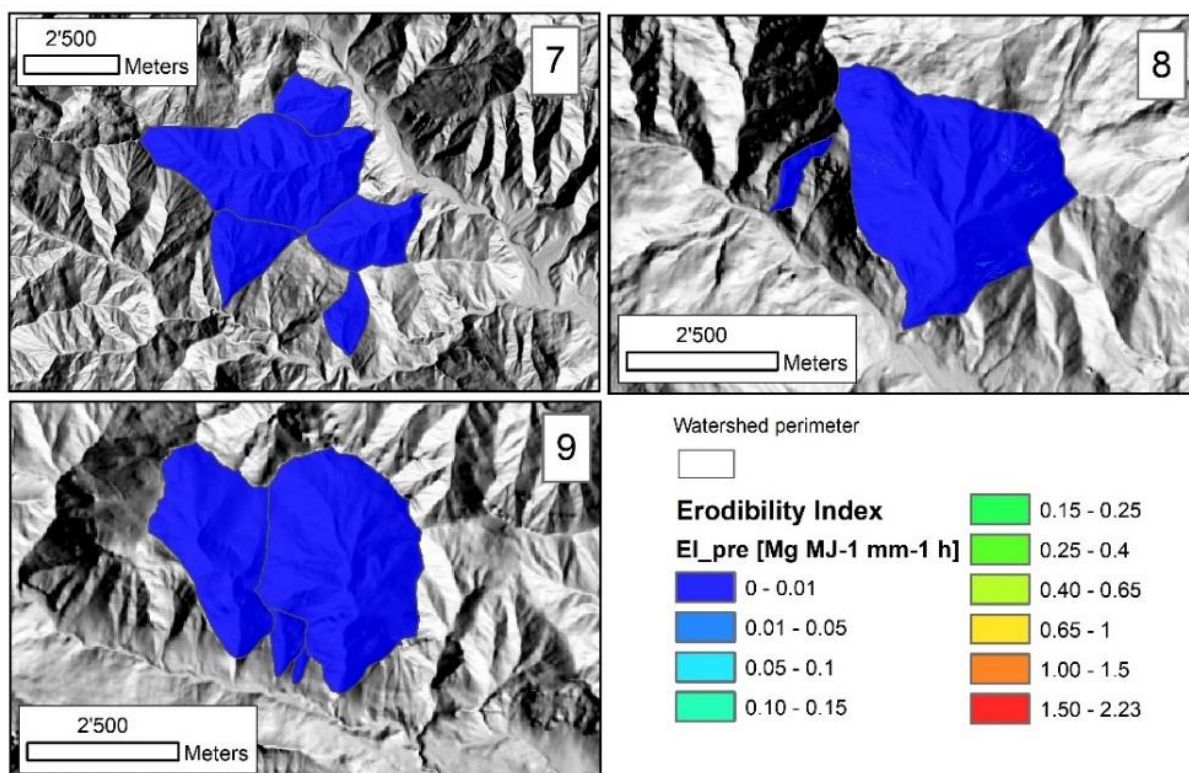


Figure A4.12 – Erodibility Index in the pre-fire situation for the watersheds affected by the Roure/Perrero (7), Traversella (8) and Demonte (9) wildfires.

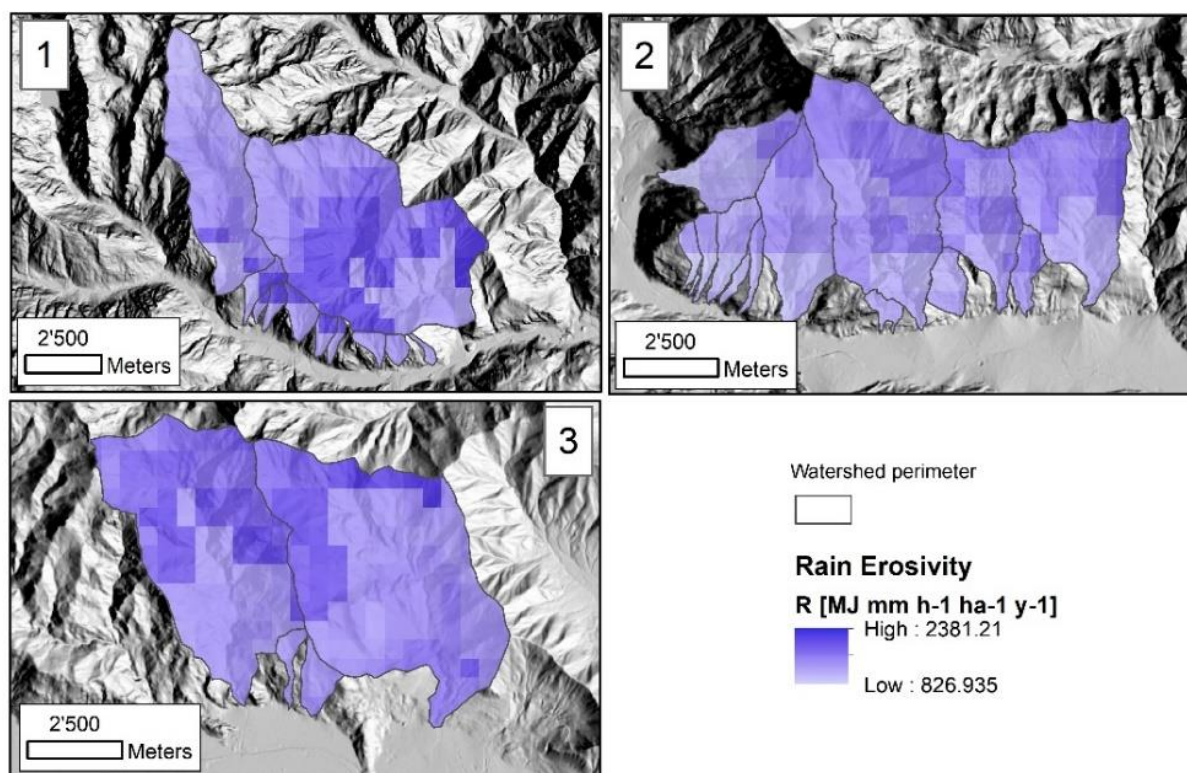


Figure A4.13 – Rainfall Erosivity for the watersheds affected by the Locana/Ribordone (1), Bussoleno/Mompantero (2) and Caprie/Rubiana (3) wildfires.

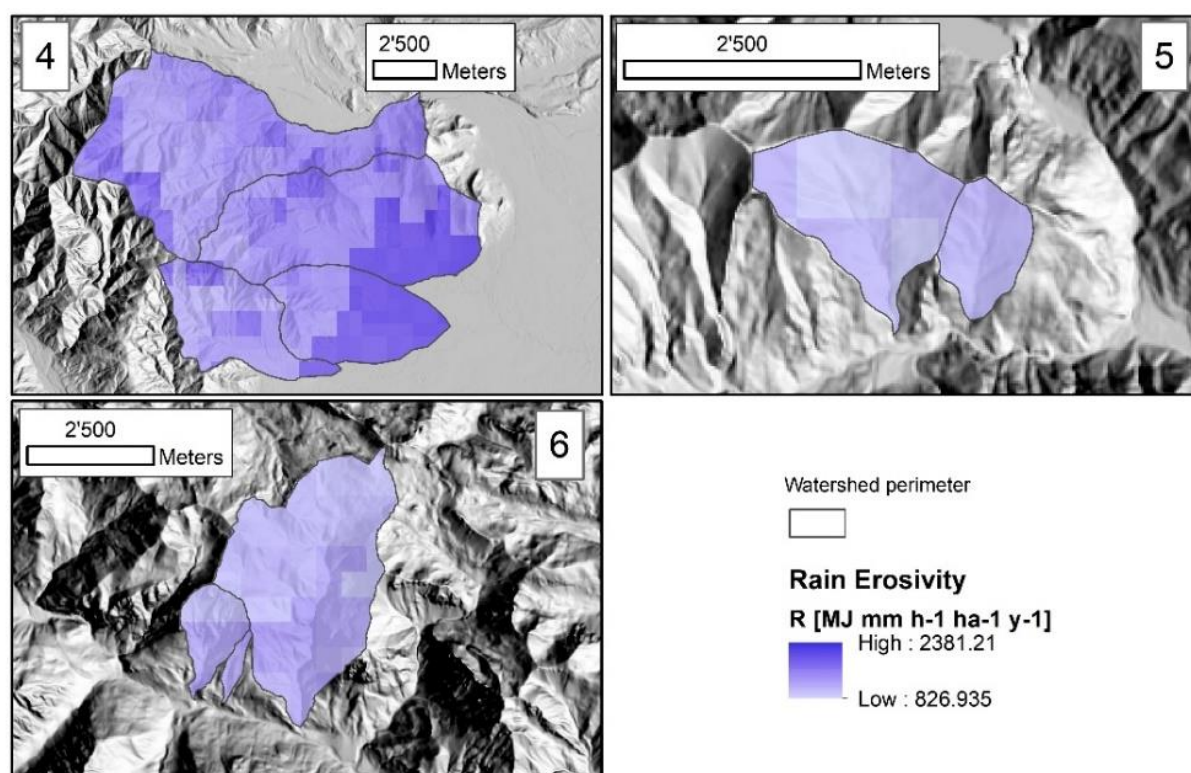


Figure A4.14 – Rainfall Erosivity for the watersheds affected by the Cumiana/Cantalupa (4), Bellino/Casteldelfino (5) and Sambuco/Pietraporzio (6) wildfires.

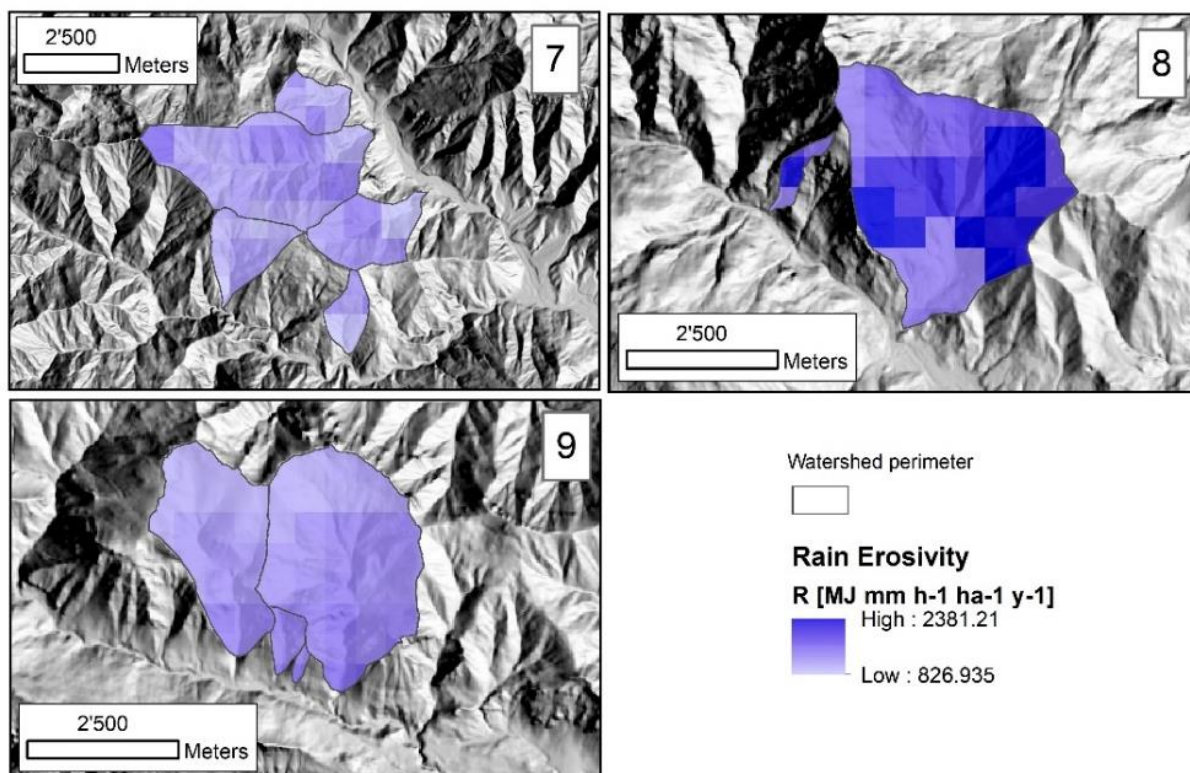


Figure A4.15 – Rainfall Erosivity for the watersheds affected by the Roure/Perrero (7), Traversella (8) and Demonte (9) wildfires.

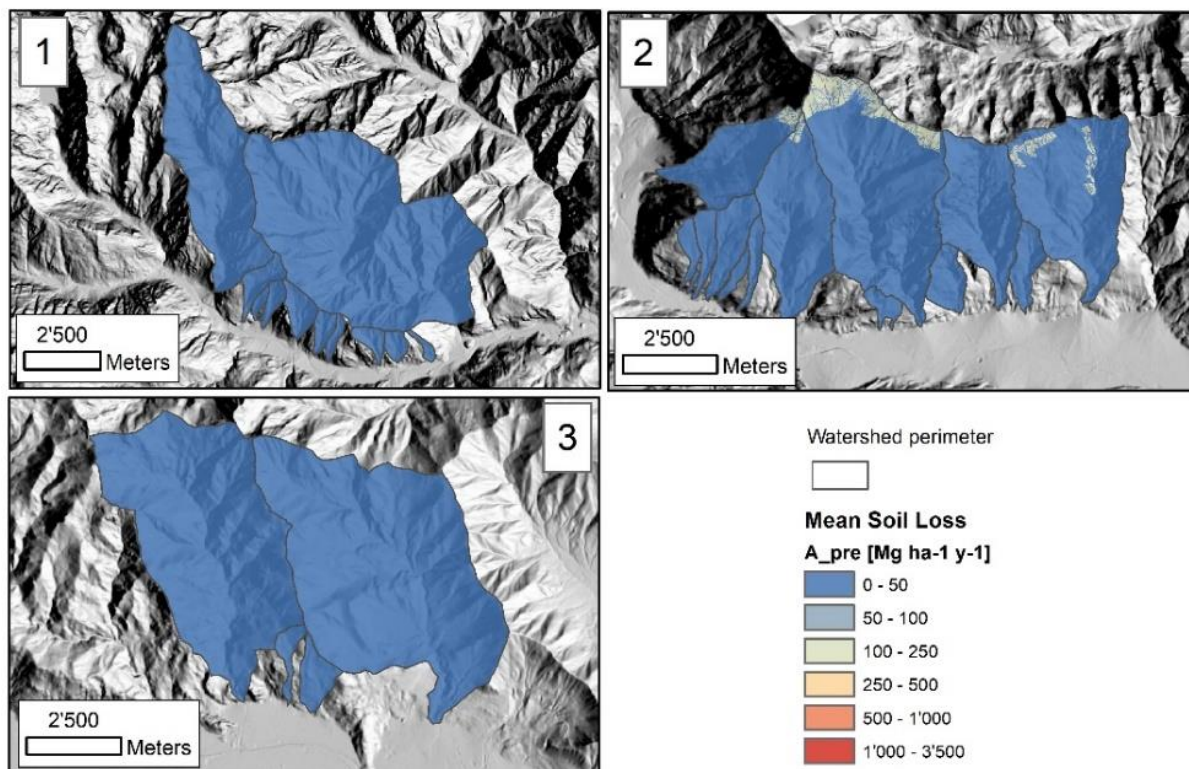


Figure A4.16 – Mean Soil Loss in the pre-fire situation for the watersheds affected by the Locana/Ribordone (1), Bussoleno/Mompalero (2) and Caprie/Rubiana (3) wildfires.

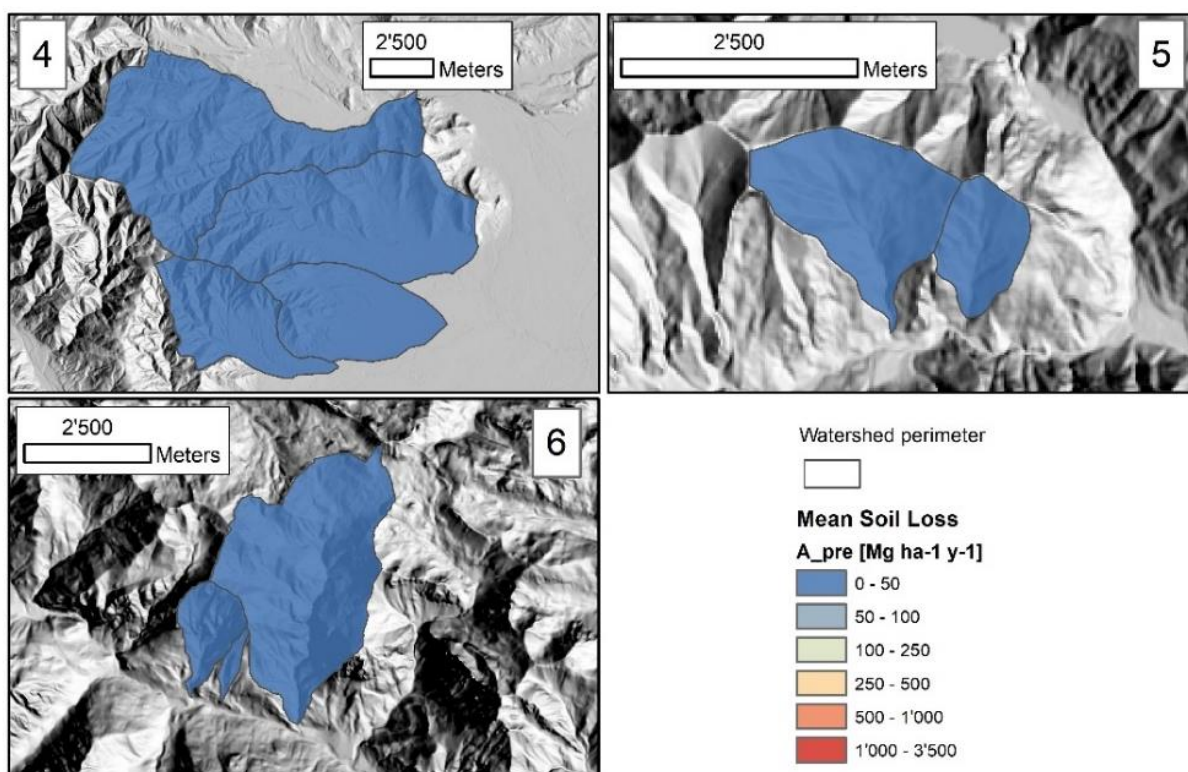


Figure A4.17 – Mean Soil Loss in the pre-fire situation for the watersheds affected by the Cumiana/Cantalupa (4), Bellino/Casteldelfino (5) and Sambuco/Pietraporzio (6) wildfires.

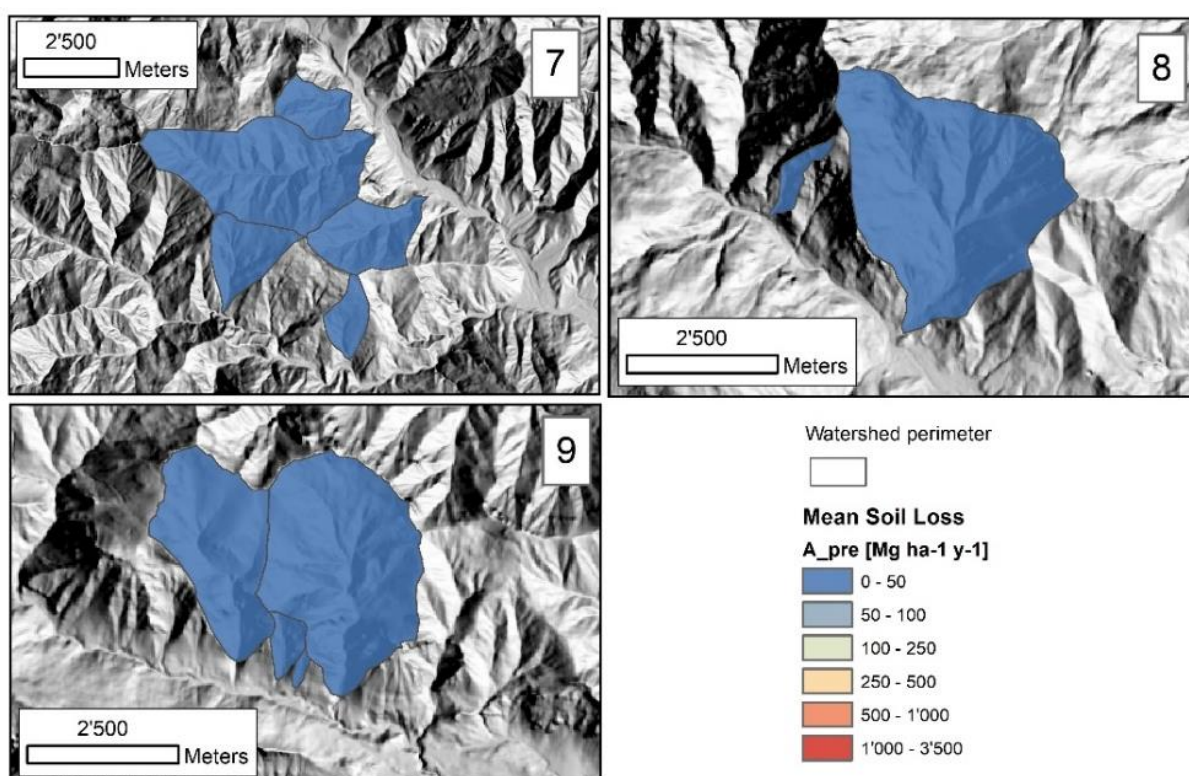


Figure A4.18 – Mean Soil Loss in the pre-fire situation for the watersheds affected by the Roure/Perrero (7), Traversella (8) and Demonte (9) wildfires.

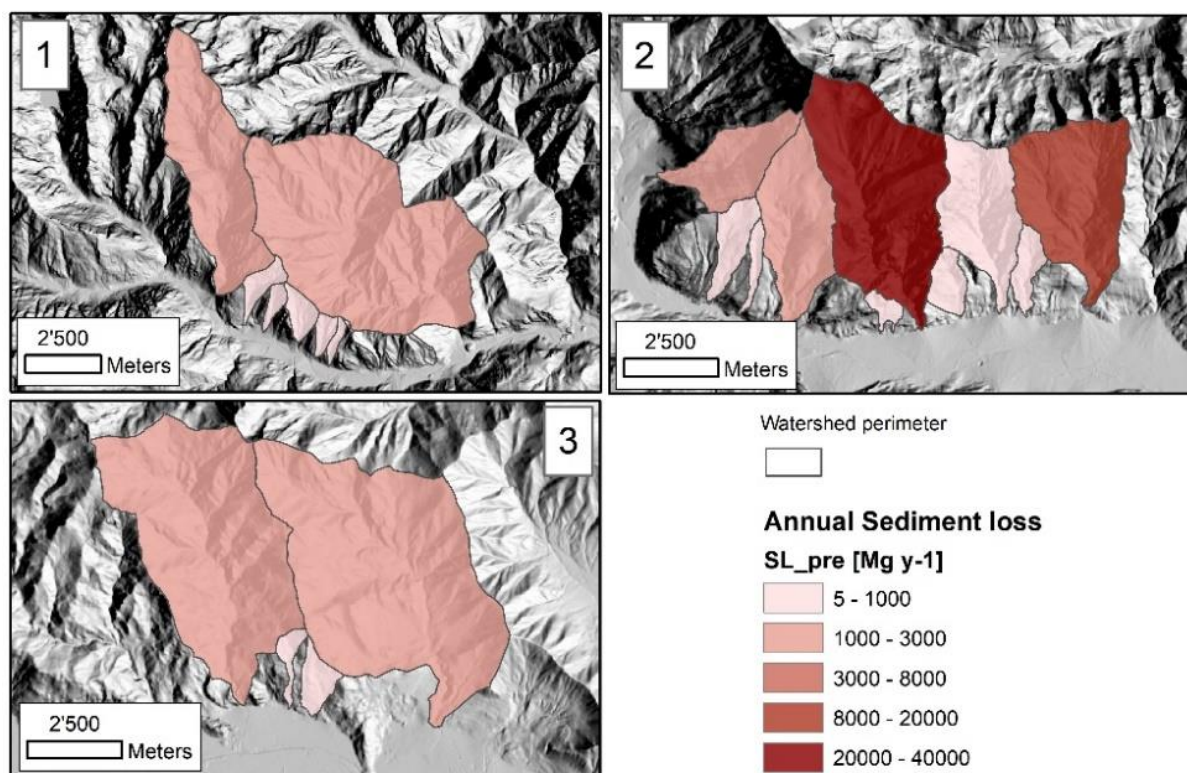


Figure A4.19- Annual Sediment Loss in the pre-fire situation for the watersheds affected by the Locana/Ribordone (1), Bussoleno/Mompantero (2) and Caprie/Rubiana (3) wildfires.

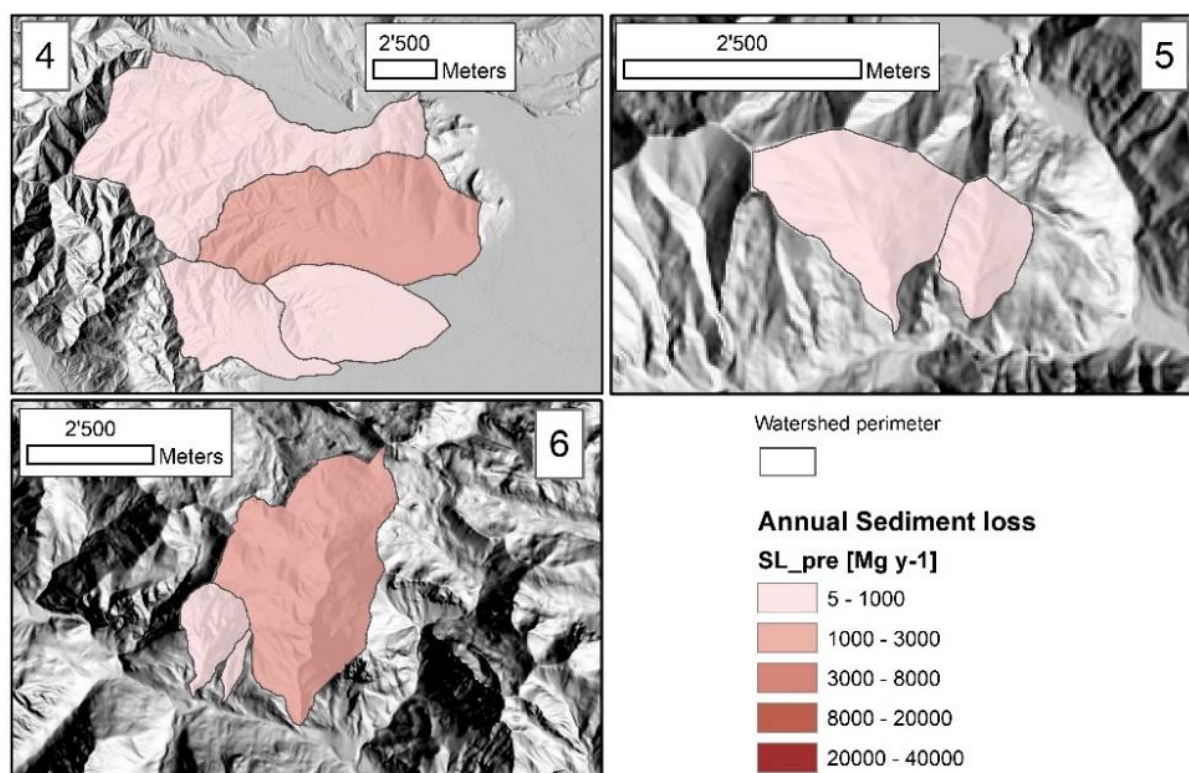


Figure A4.20- Annual Sediment Loss in the pre-fire situation for the watersheds affected by the Cumiana/Cantalupa (4), Bellino/Casteldelfino (5) and Sambuco/Pietraporzio (6) wildfires.

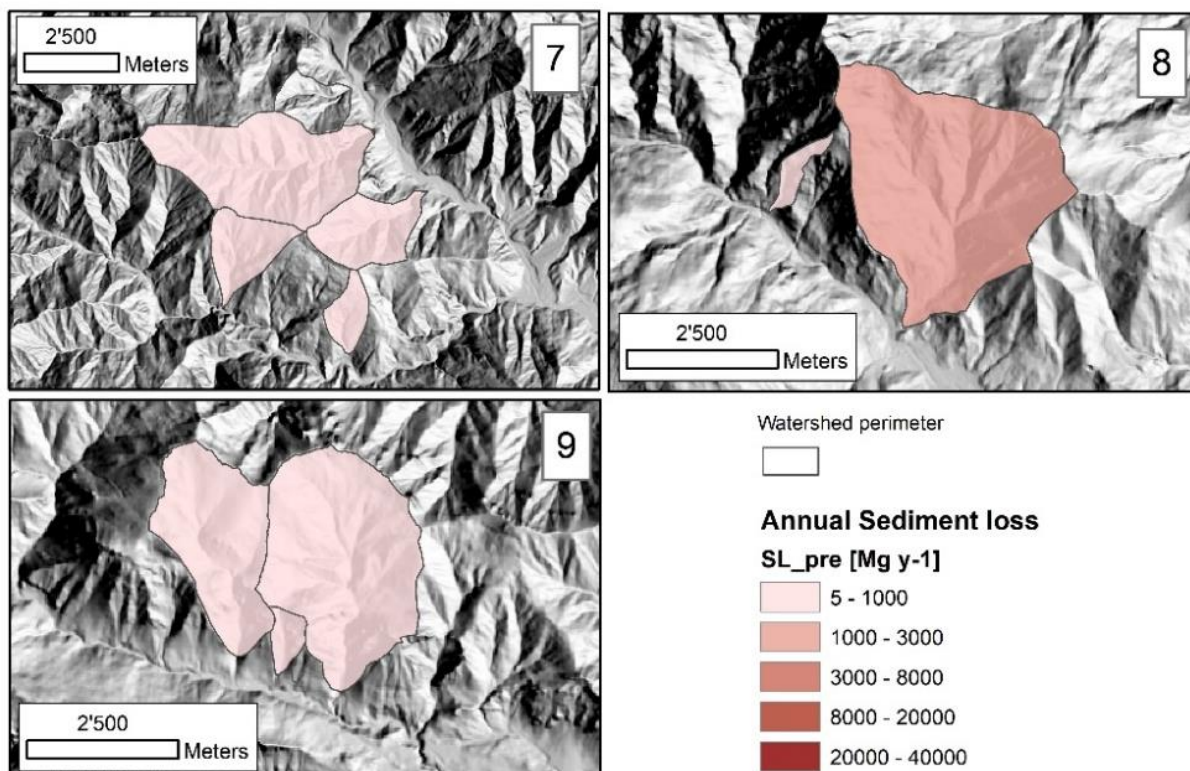


Figure A4.21- Annual Sediment Loss in the pre-fire situation for the watersheds affected by the Roure/Perrero (7), Traversella (8) and Demonte (9) wildfires.

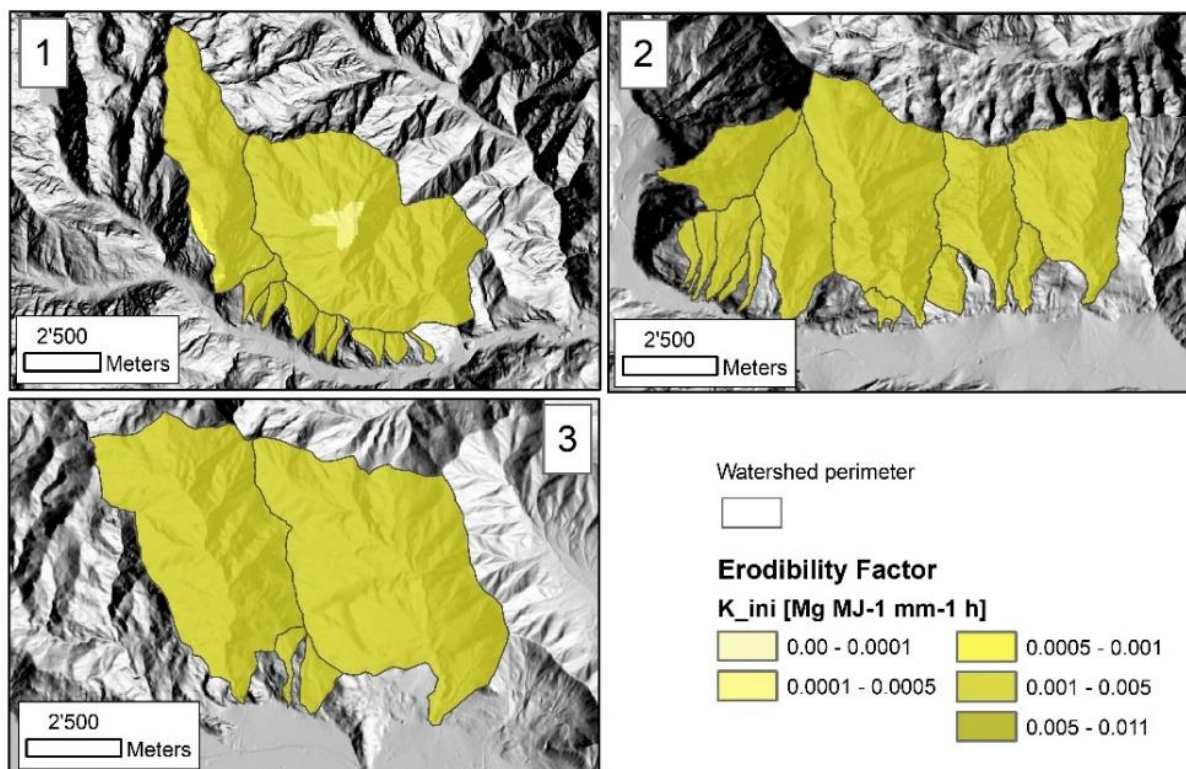


Figure A4.22 - Erodibility Factor in the post-fire situation – initial assessment, for the watersheds affected by the Locana/Ribordone (1), Bussoleno/Mompantero (2) and Caprie/Rubiana (3) wildfires.

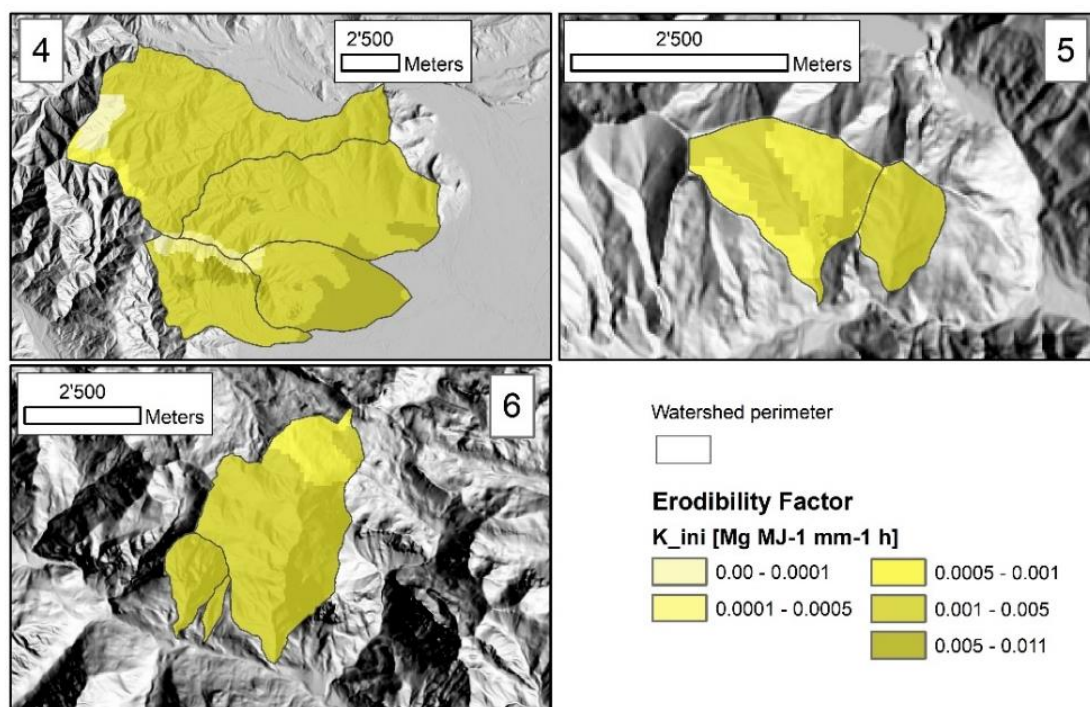


Figure A4.23 - Erodibility Factor in the post-fire situation – initial assessment, for the watersheds affected by the Cumiana/Cantalupa (4), Bellino/Casteldelfino (5) and Sambuco/Pietraporzio (6) wildfires.

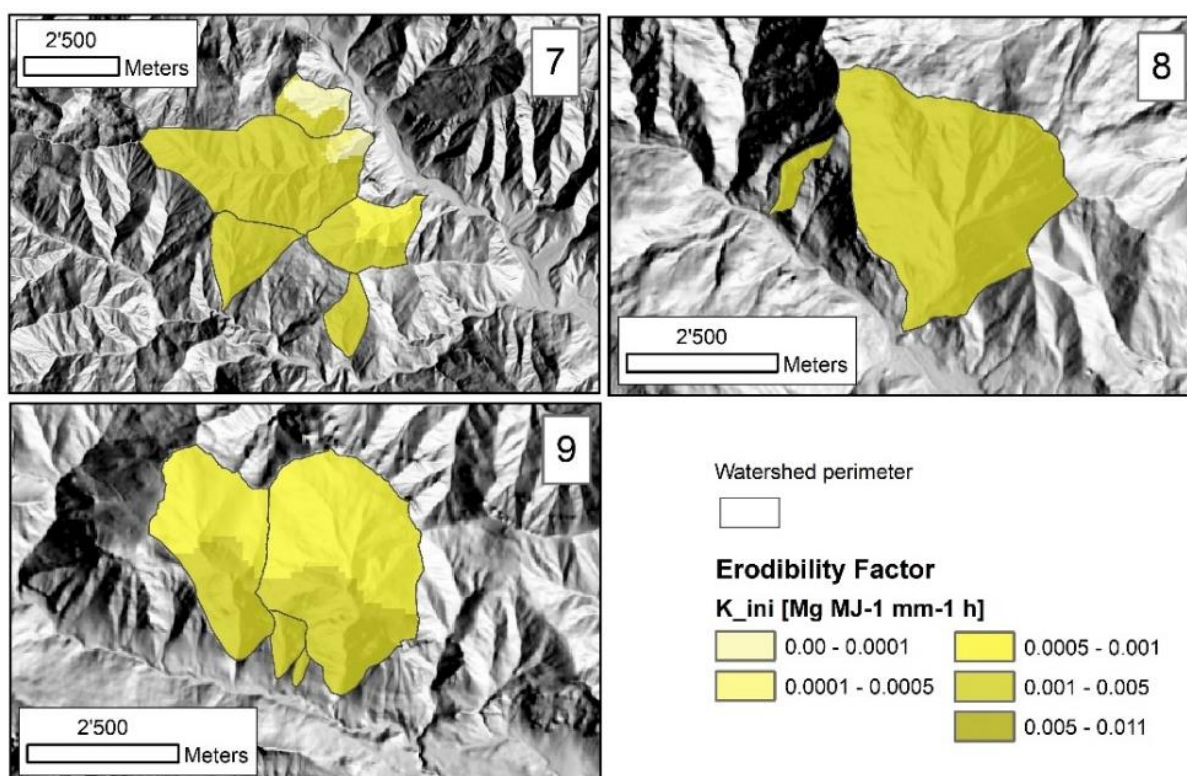


Figure A4.24 - Erodibility Factor in the post-fire situation – initial assessment, for the watersheds affected by the Roure/Perrero (7), Traversella (8) and Demonte (9) wildfires.

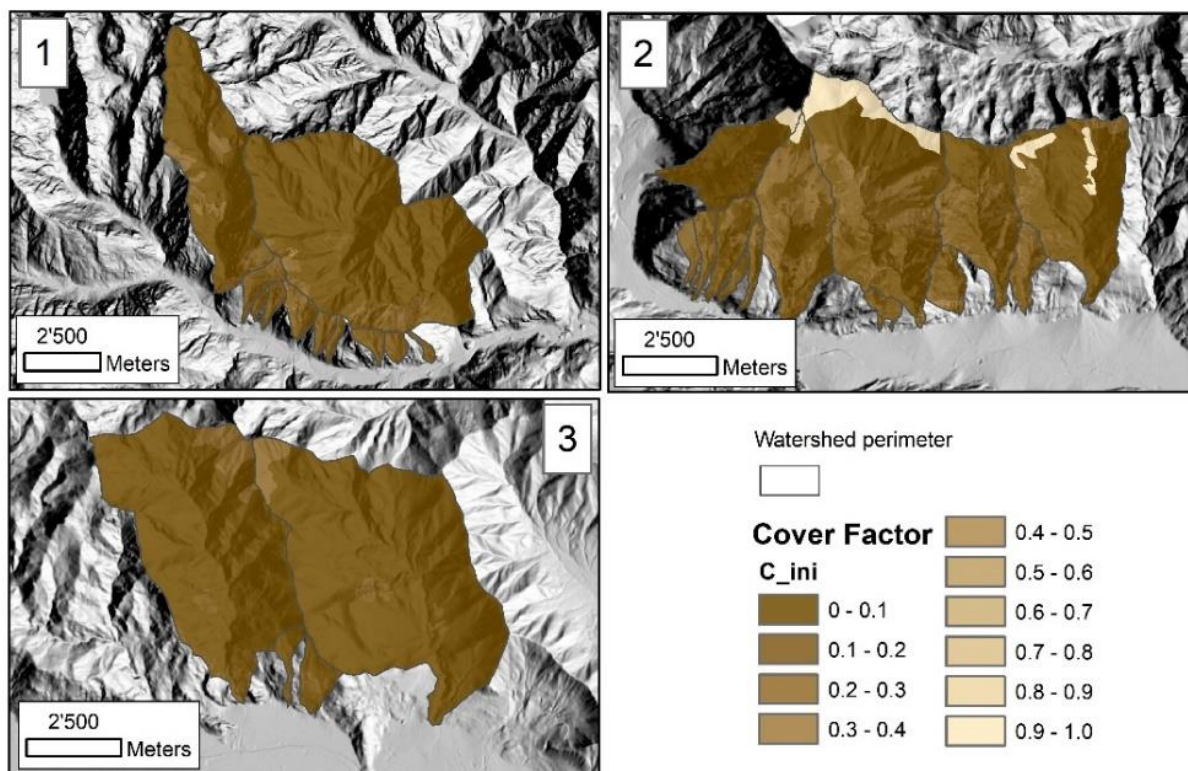


Figure A4.25 - Cover Factor in the post-fire situation – initial assessment, for the watersheds affected by the Locana/Ribordone (1), Bussoleno/Mompantero (2) and Caprie/Rubiana (3) wildfires.

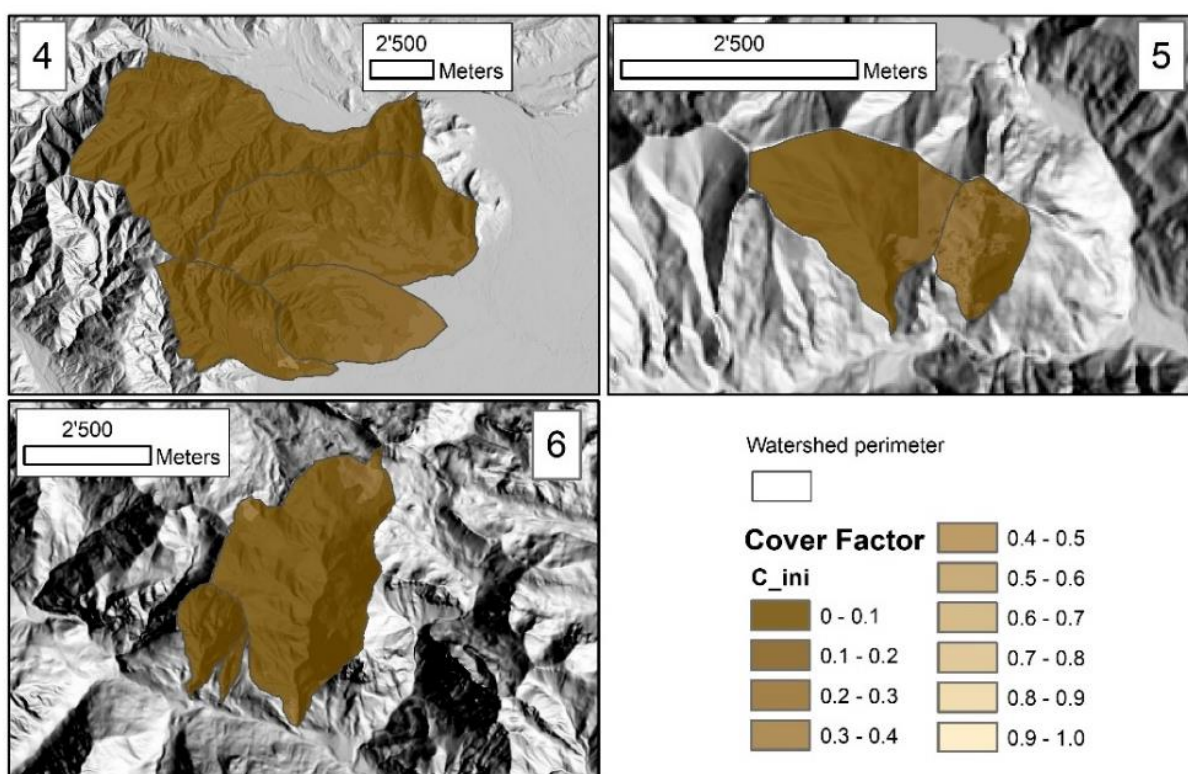


Figure A4.26 - Cover Factor in the post-fire situation – initial assessment, for the watersheds affected by the Cumiana/Cantalupa (4), Bellino/Casteldelfino (5) and Sambuco/Pietraporzio (6) wildfires.

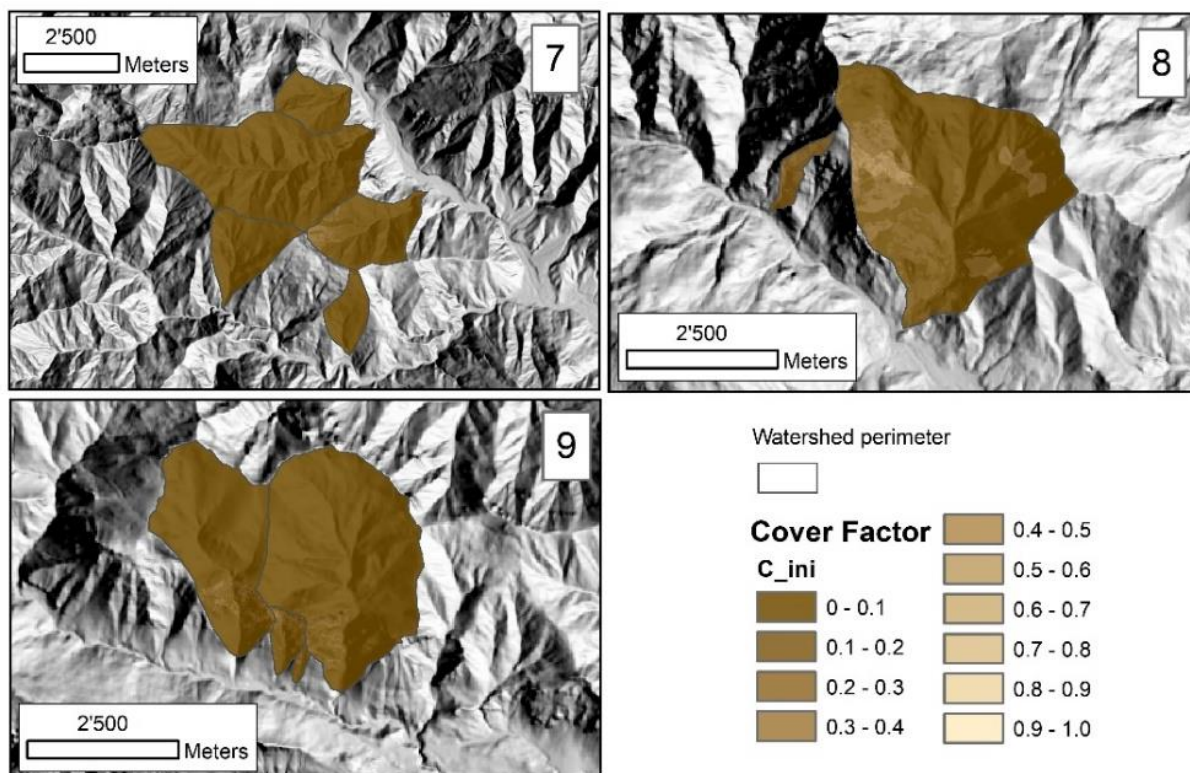


Figure A4.27 - Cover Factor in the post-fire situation – initial assessment, for the watersheds affected by the Roure/Perrero (7), Traversella (8) and Demonte (9) wildfires.

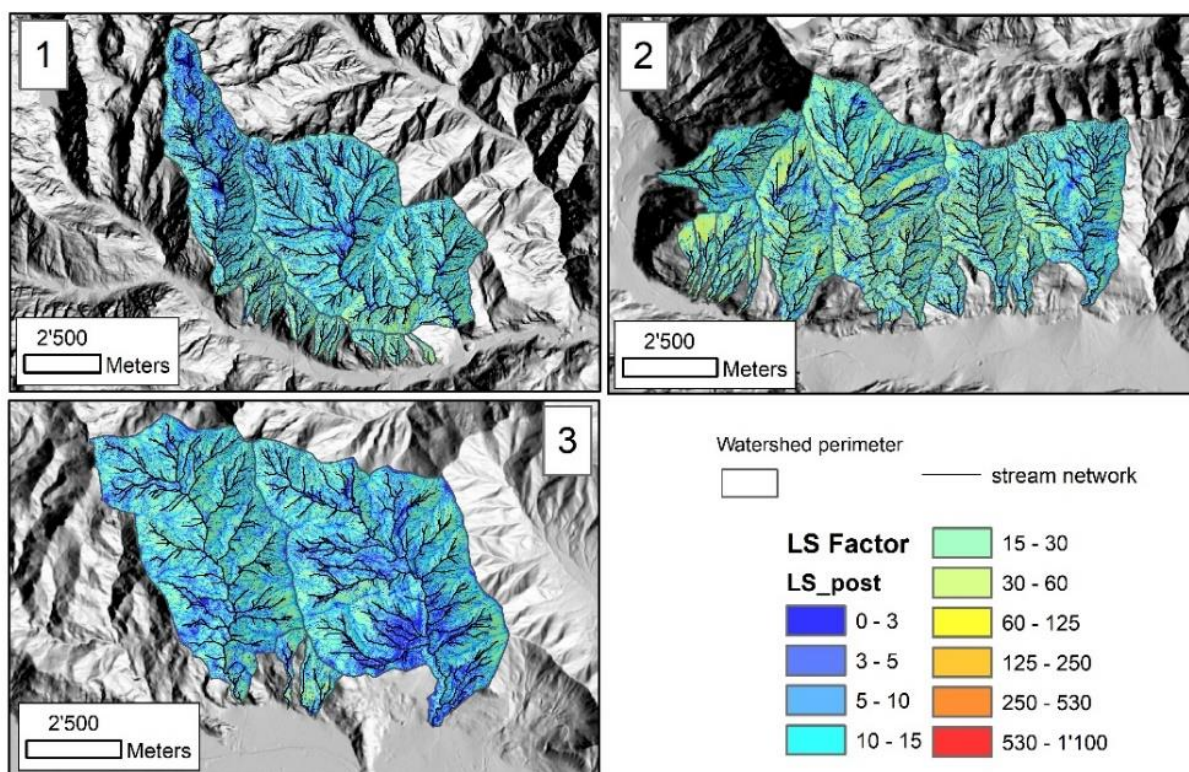


Figure A4.28 - LS Factor in the post-fire situation – initial assessment, for the watersheds affected by the Locana/Ribordone (1), Bussoleno/Mompalero (2) and Caprie/Rubiana (3) wildfires.

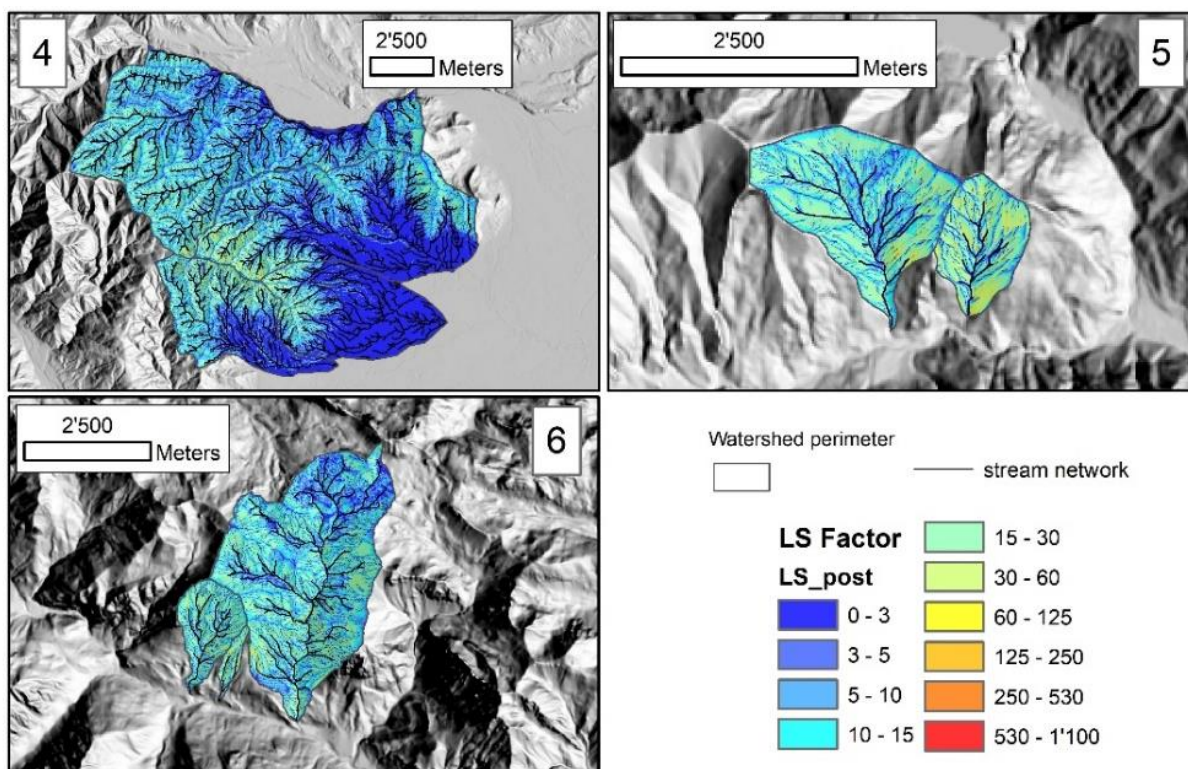


Figure A4.29 - LS Factor in the post-fire situation – initial assessment, for the watersheds affected by Cumiana/Cantalupa (4), Bellino/Casteldelfino (5) and Sambuco/Pietraporzio (6) wildfires.

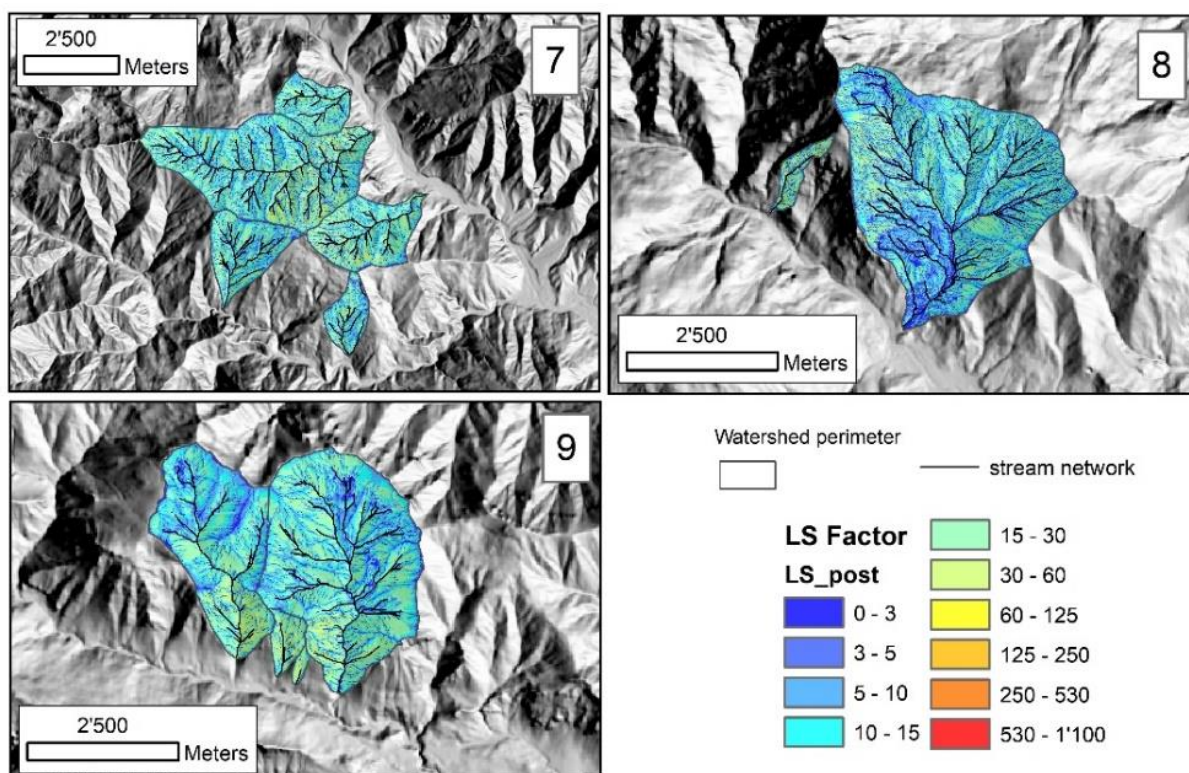


Figure A4.30 - LS Factor in the post-fire situation – initial assessment, for the watersheds affected by the Roure/Perrero (7), Traversella (8) and Demonte (9) wildfires.

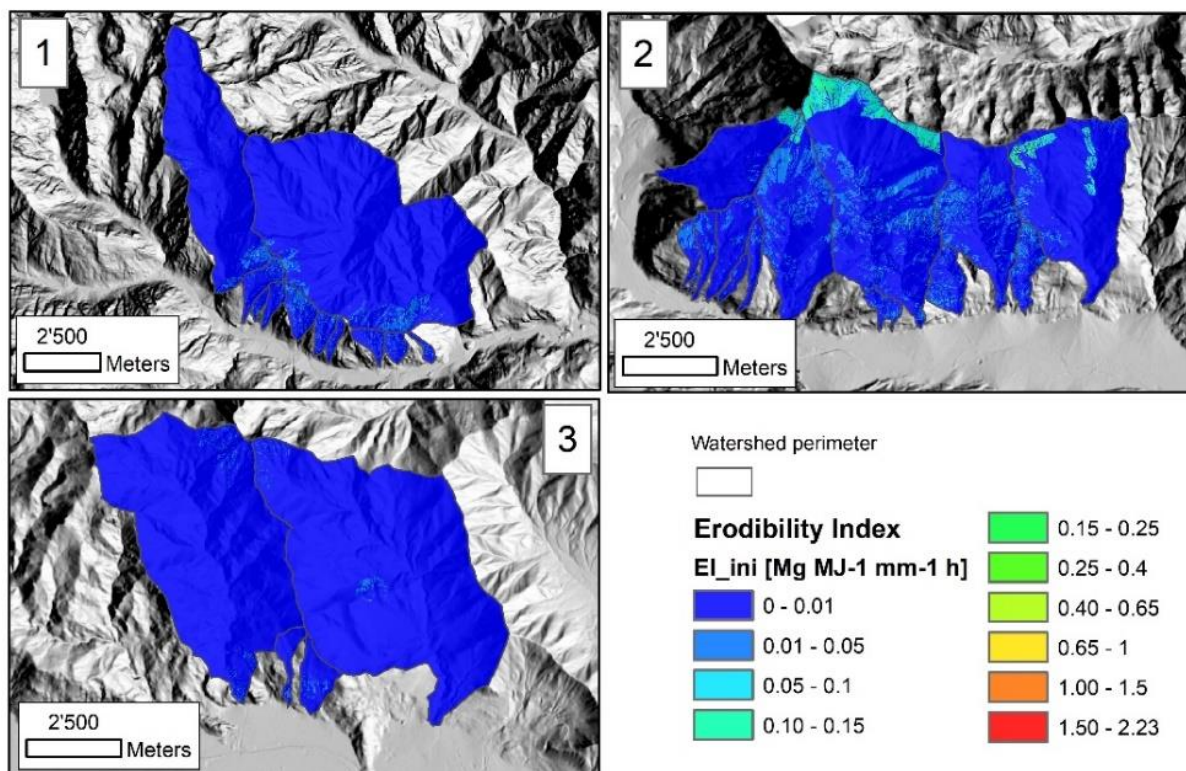


Figure A4.31 - Erodibility Index in the post-fire situation – initial assessment, for the watersheds affected by the Locana/Ribordone (1), Bussoleno/Mompantero (2) and Caprie/Rubiana (3) wildfires.

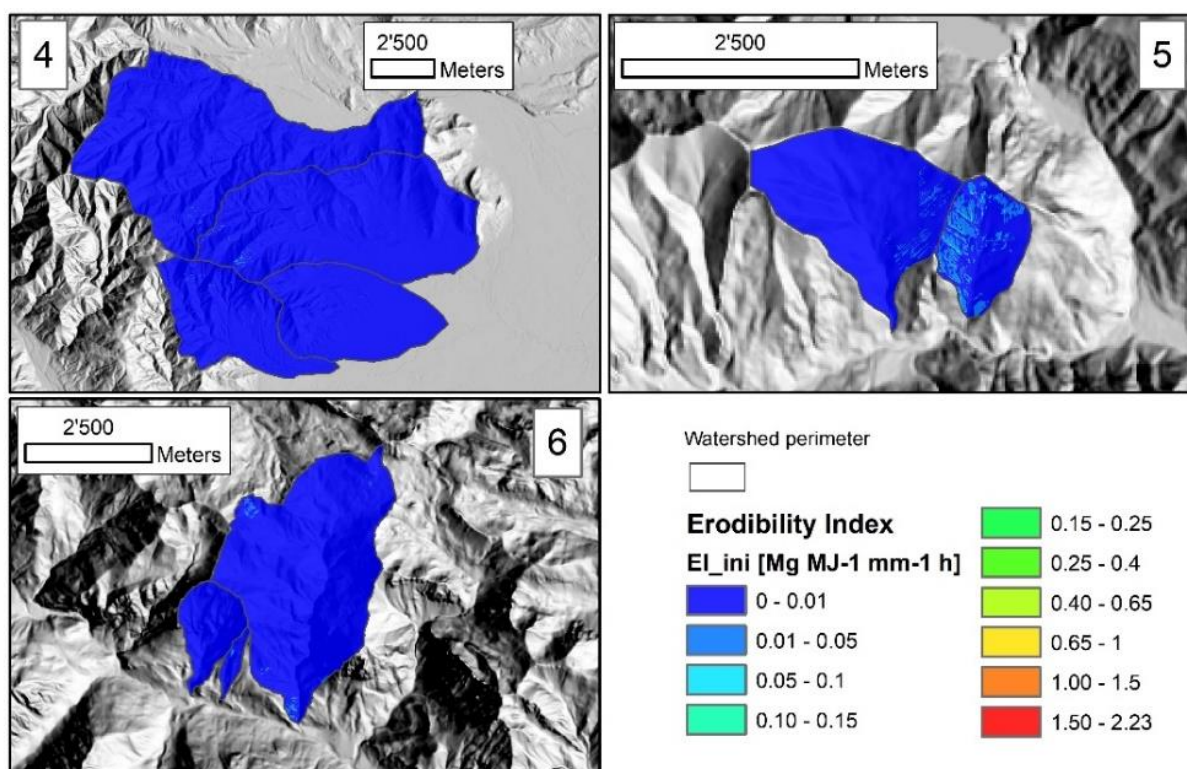


Figure A4.32 - Erodibility Index in the post-fire situation – initial assessment, for the watersheds affected by the Cumiana/Cantalupa (4), Bellino/Casteldelfino (5) and Sambuco/Pietraporzio (6) wildfires.

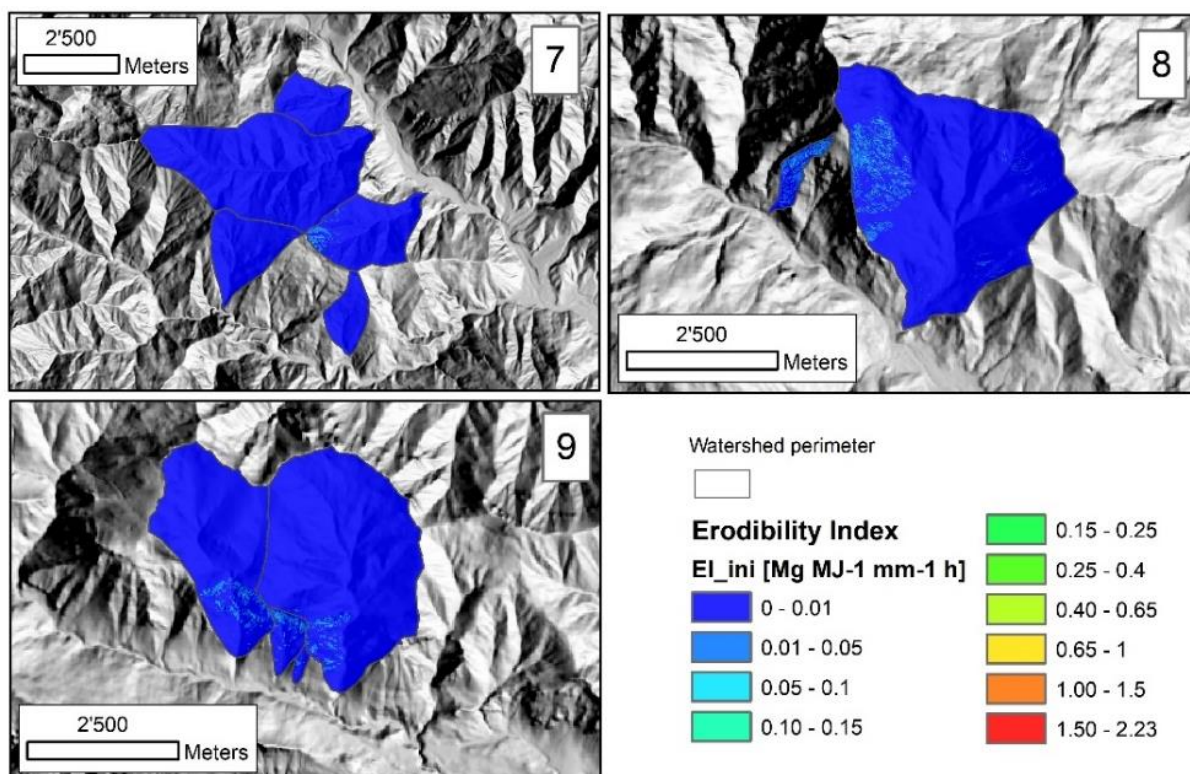


Figure A4.33 - Erodibility Index in the post-fire situation – initial assessment, for the watersheds affected by the Roure/Perrero (7), Traversella (8) and Demonte (9) wildfires.

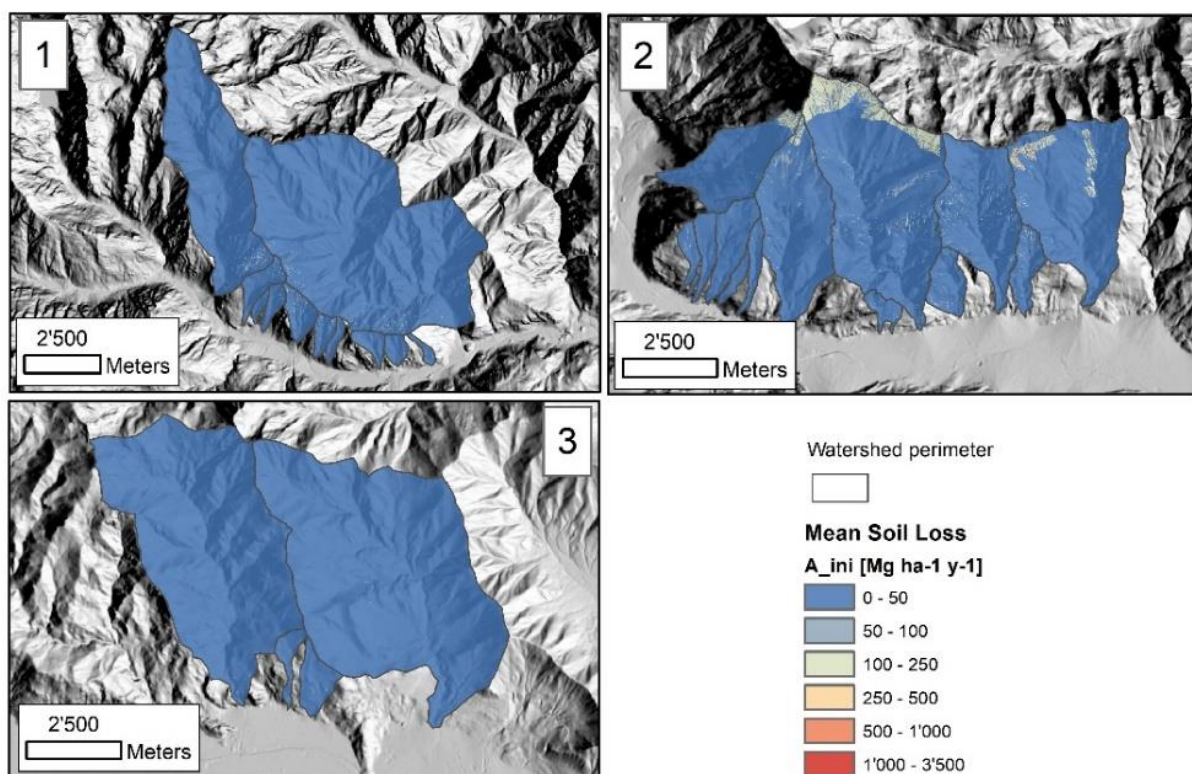


Figure A4.34 – Mean Soil Loss in the post-fire situation – initial assessment, for the watersheds affected by the Locana/Ribordone (1), Bussoleno/Mompantero (2) and Caprie/Rubiana (3) wildfires.

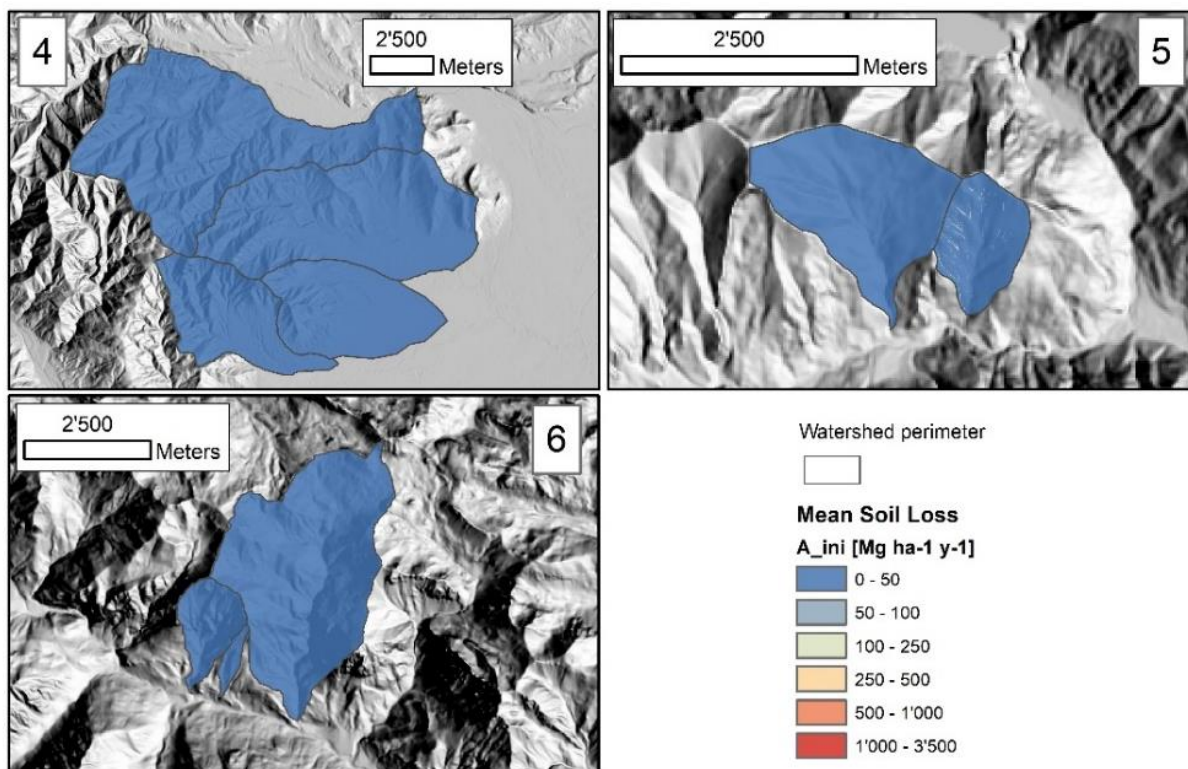


Figure A4.35 – Mean Soil Loss in the post-fire situation – initial assessment, for the watersheds affected by the Cumiana/Cantalupa (4), Bellino/Casteldelfino (5) and Sambuco/Pietraporzio (6) wildfires.

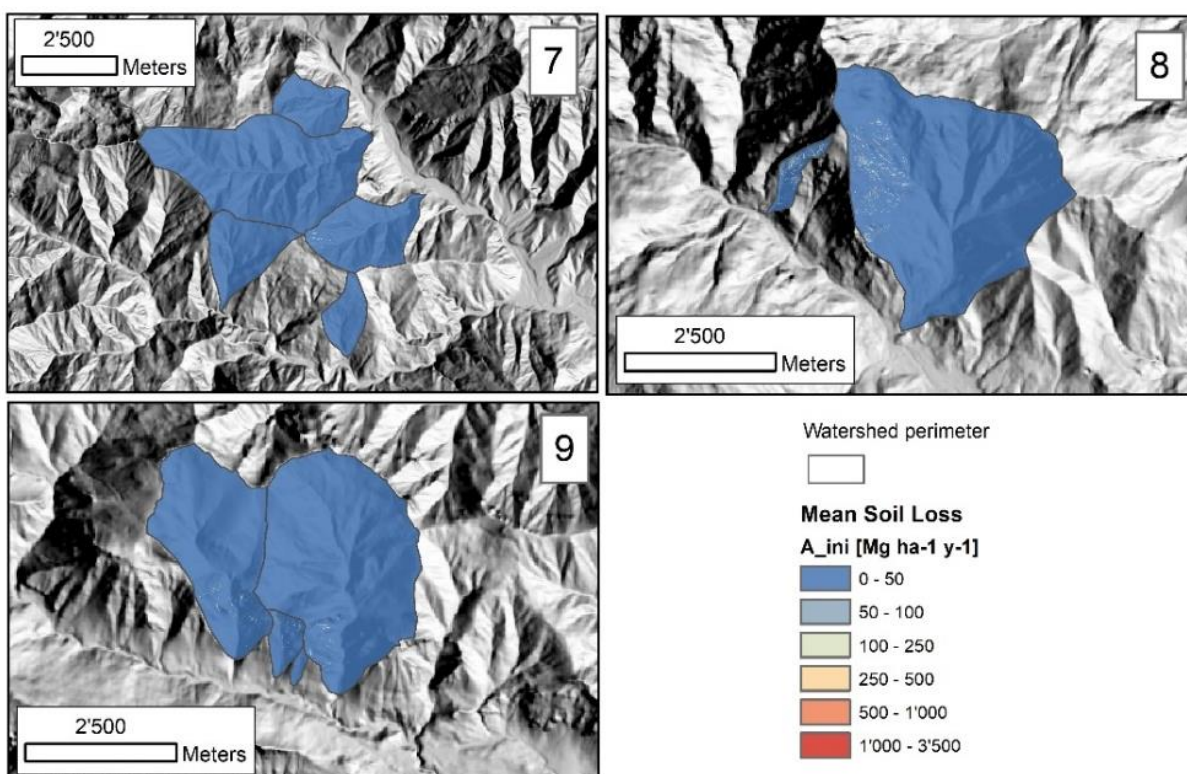


Figure A4.36 – Mean Soil Loss in the post-fire situation – initial assessment, for the watersheds affected by the Roure/Perrero (7), Traversella (8) and Demonte (9) wildfires.

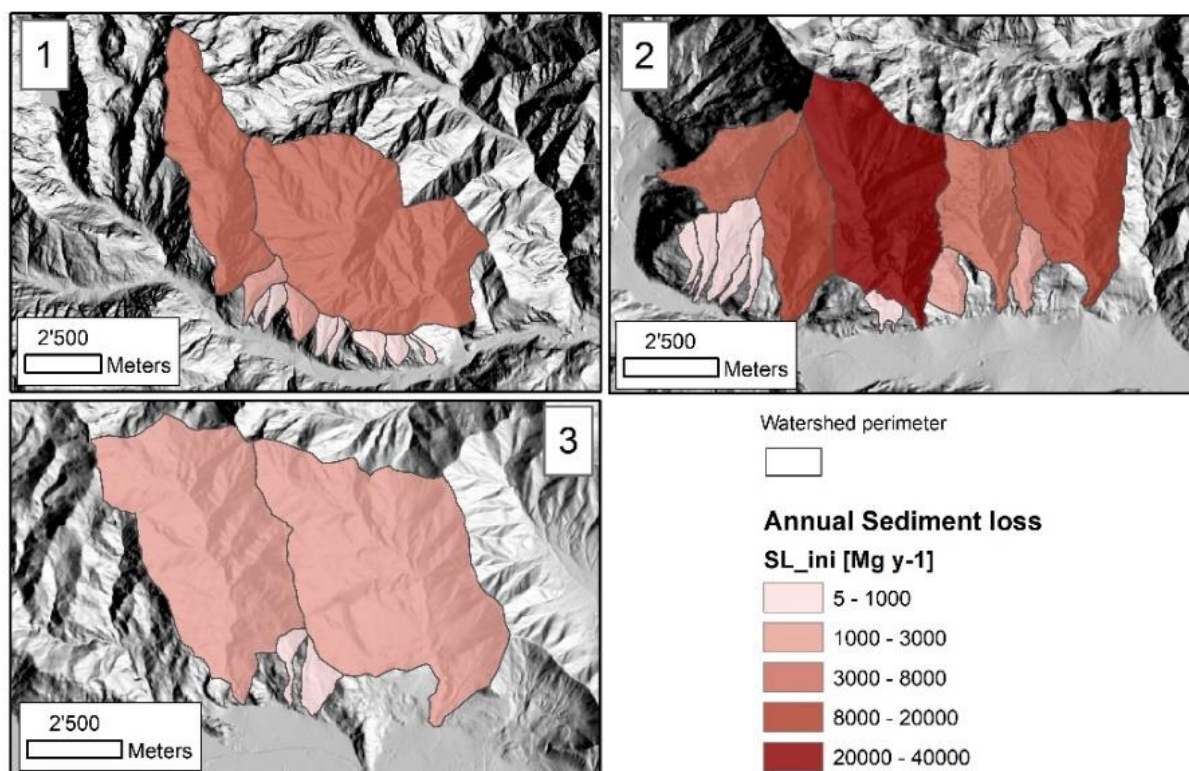


Figure A4.37 – Annual Sediment Loss in the post-fire situation – initial assessment, for the watersheds affected by the Locana/Ribordone (1), Bussoleno/Mompantero (2) and Caprie/Rubiana (3) wildfires.

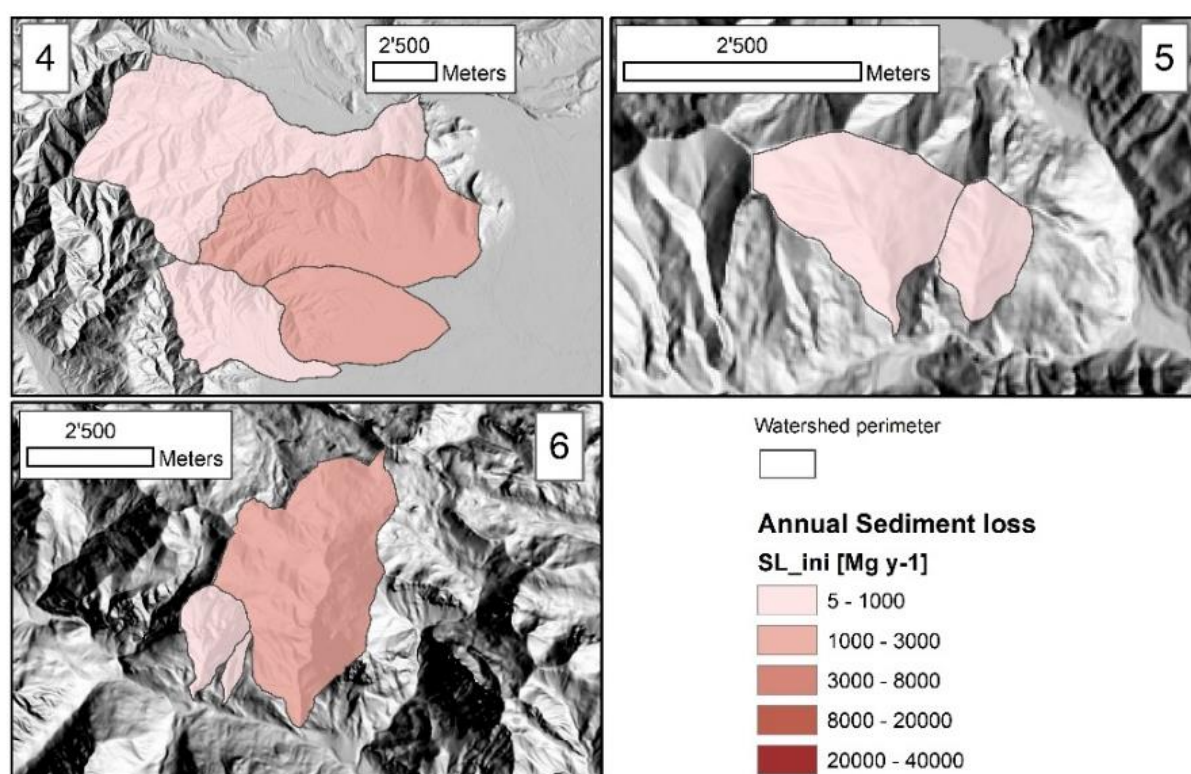


Figure A4.38 – Annual Sediment Loss in the post-fire situation – initial assessment, for the watersheds affected by the Cumiana/Cantalupa (4), Bellino/Casteldelfino (5) and Sambuco/Pietraporzio (6) wildfires.

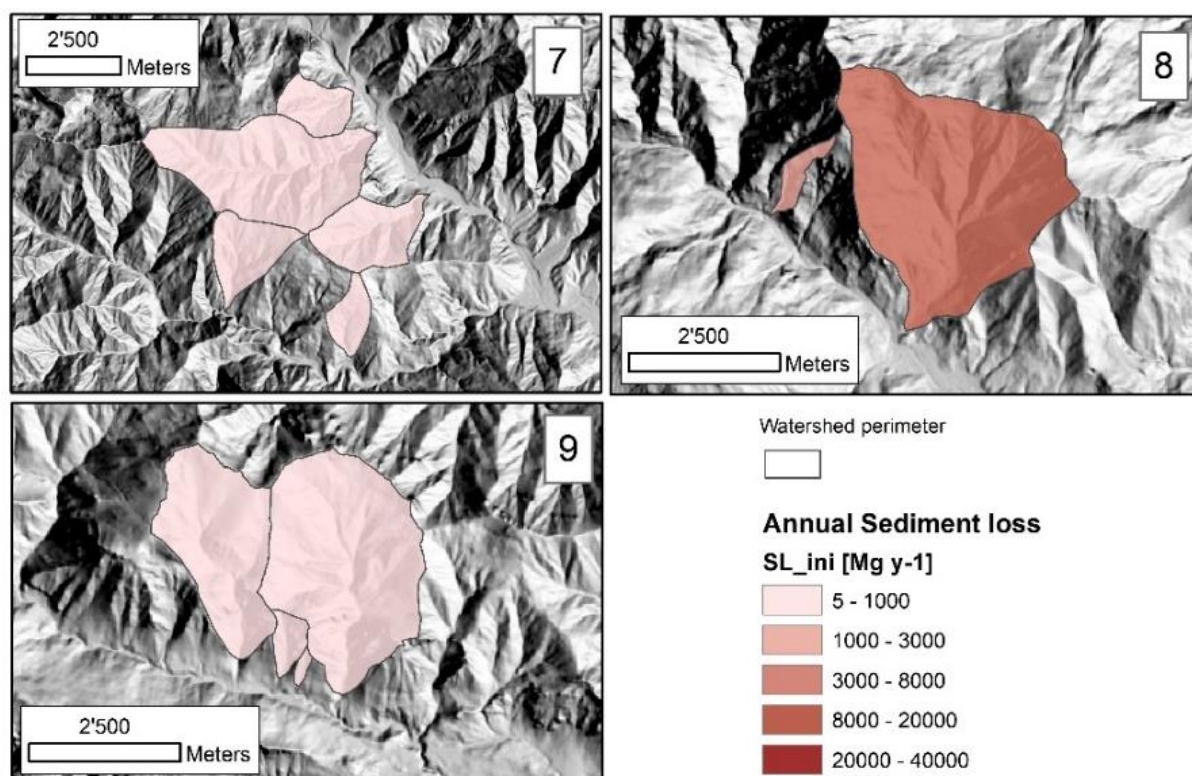


Figure A4.39 – Annual Sediment Loss in the post-fire situation – initial assessment, for the watersheds affected by the Roure/Perrero (7), Traversella (8) and Demonte (9) wildfires.

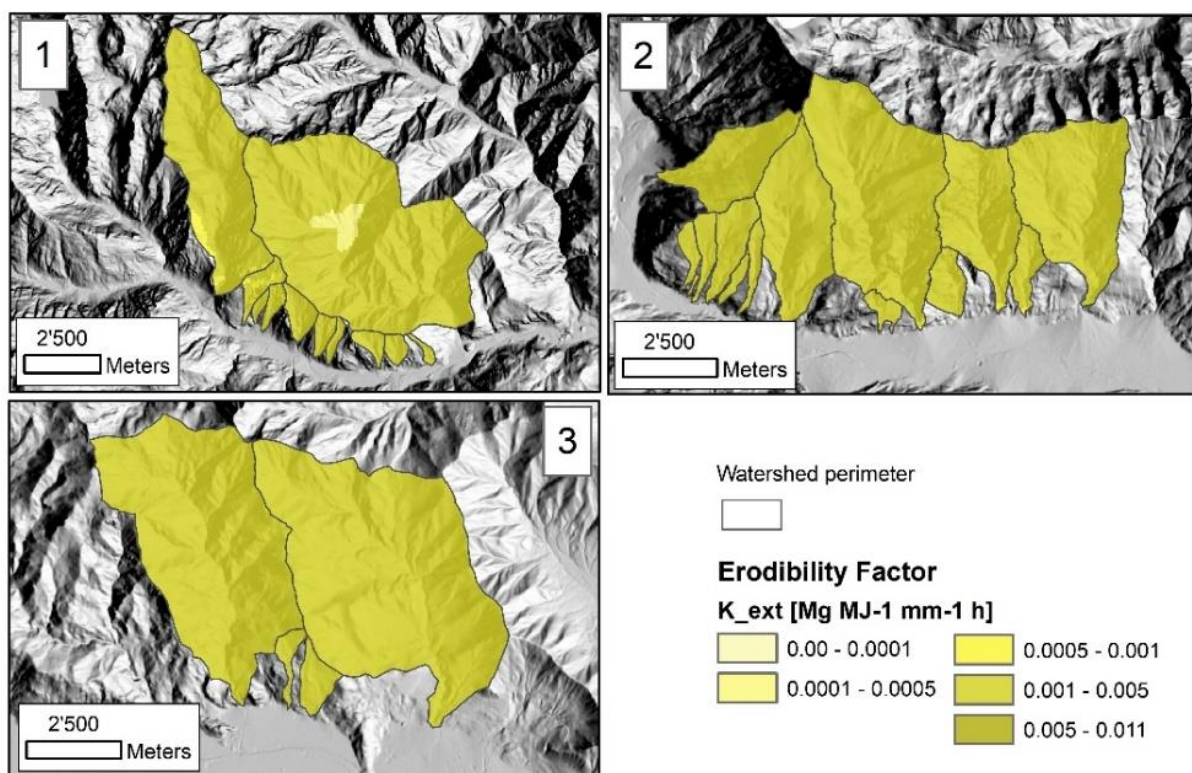


Figure A4.40 - Erodibility Factor in the post-fire situation – extended assessment, for the watersheds affected by the Locana/Ribordone (1), Bussoleno/Mompantero (2) and Caprie/Rubiana (3) wildfires.

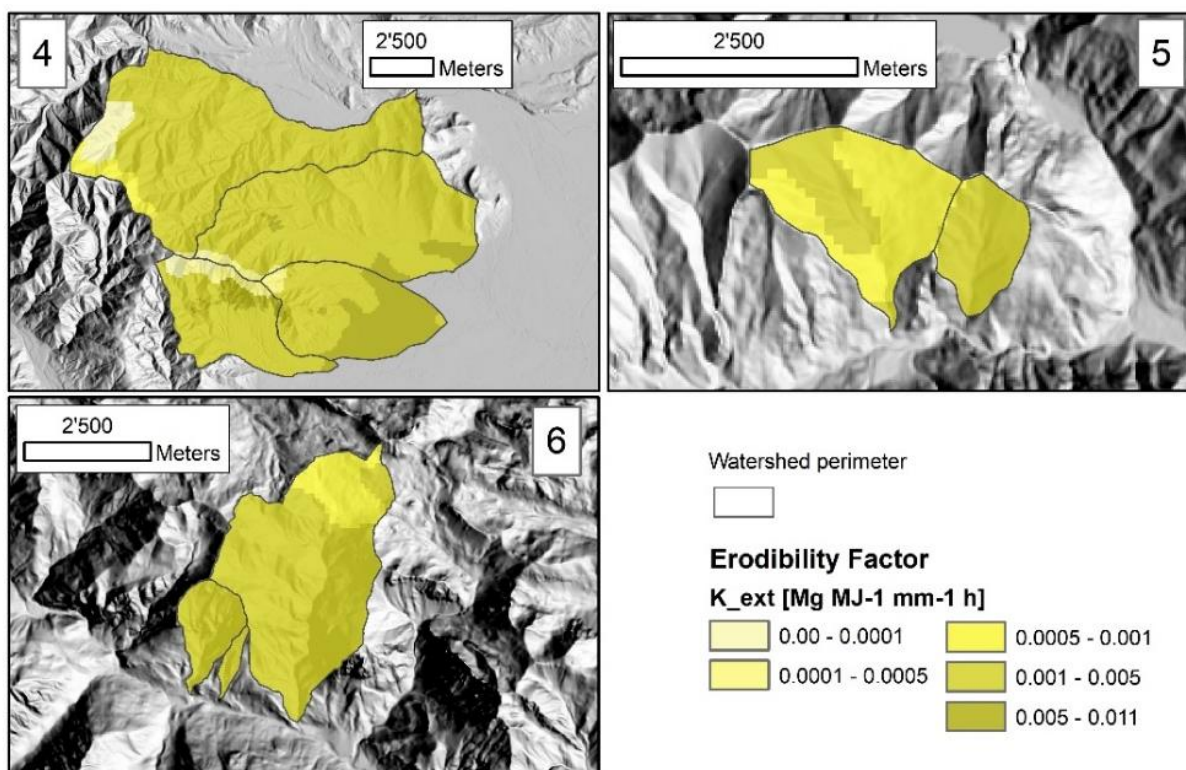


Figure A4.41 - Erodibility Factor in the post-fire situation – extended assessment, for the watersheds affected by the Cumiana/Cantalupa (4), Bellino/Casteldelfino (5) and Sambuco/Pietraporzio (6) wildfires.

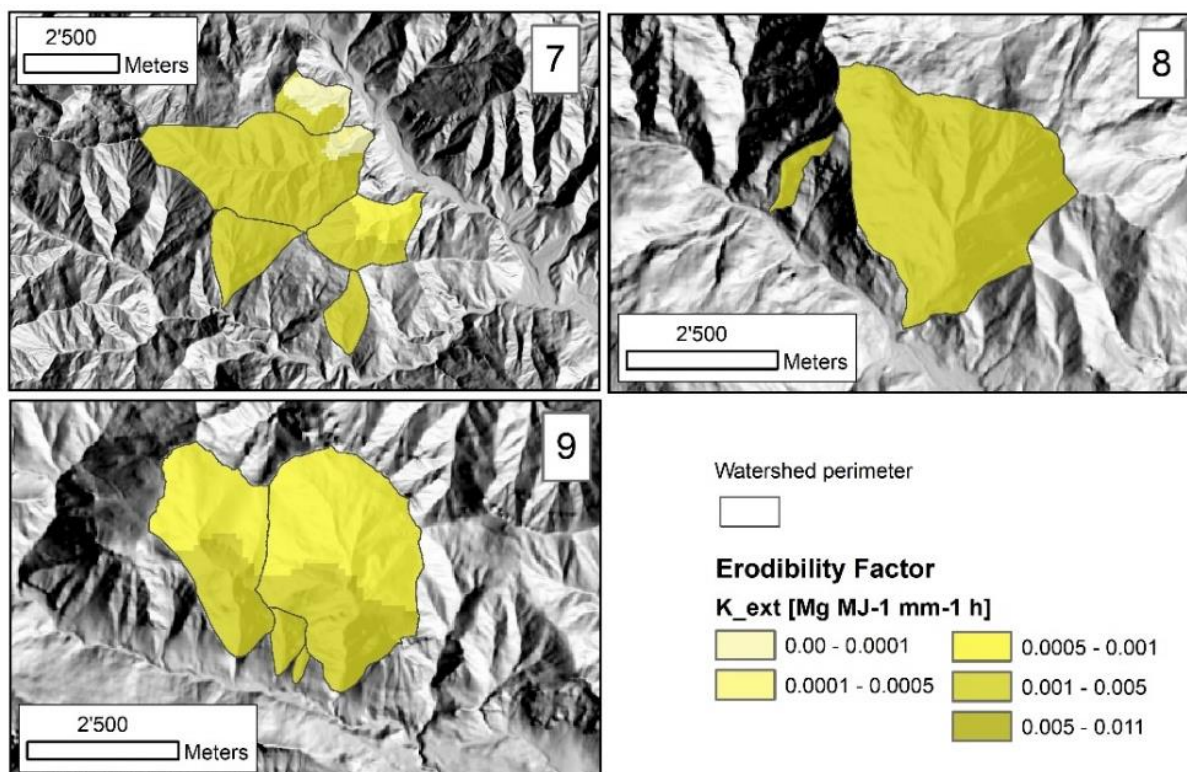


Figure A4.42 - Erodibility Factor in the post-fire situation – extended assessment, for the watersheds affected by the Roure/Perrero (7), Traversella (8) and Demonte (9) wildfires.

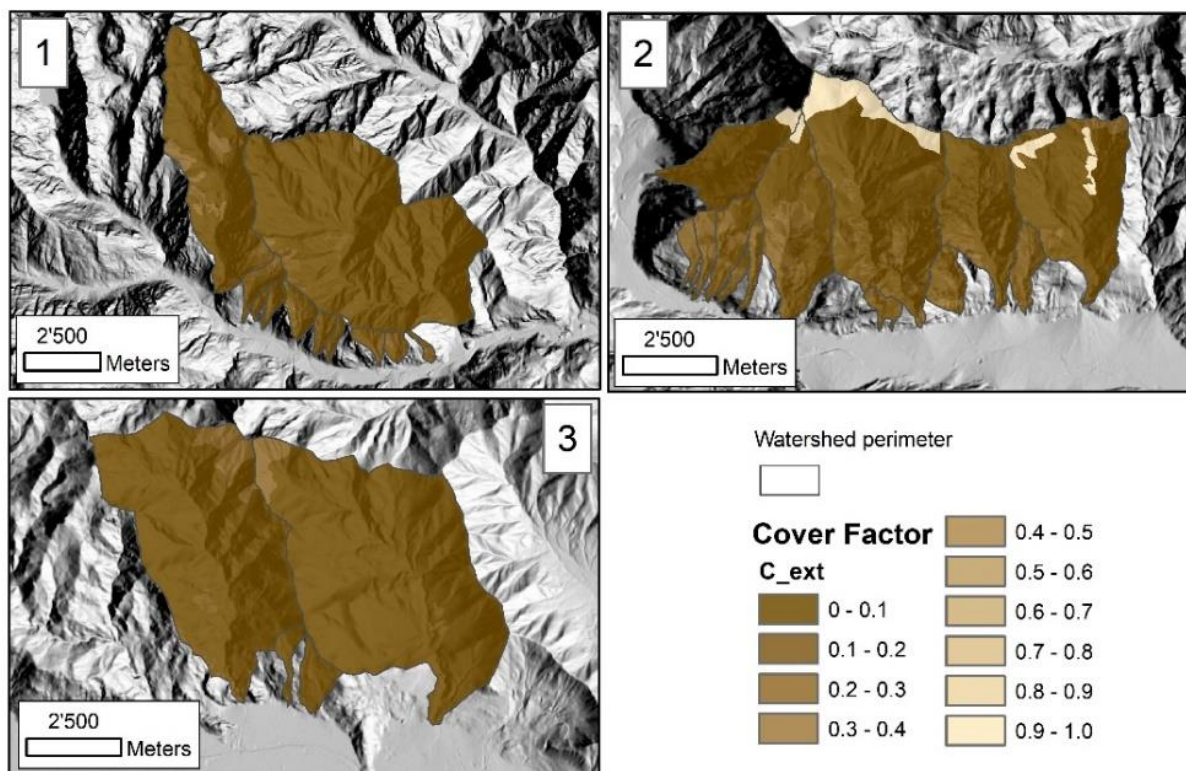


Figure A4.43 - Cover Factor in the post-fire situation – extended assessment, for the watersheds affected by the Locana/Ribordone (1), Bussoleno/Mompalano (2) and Caprie/Rubiana (3) wildfires.

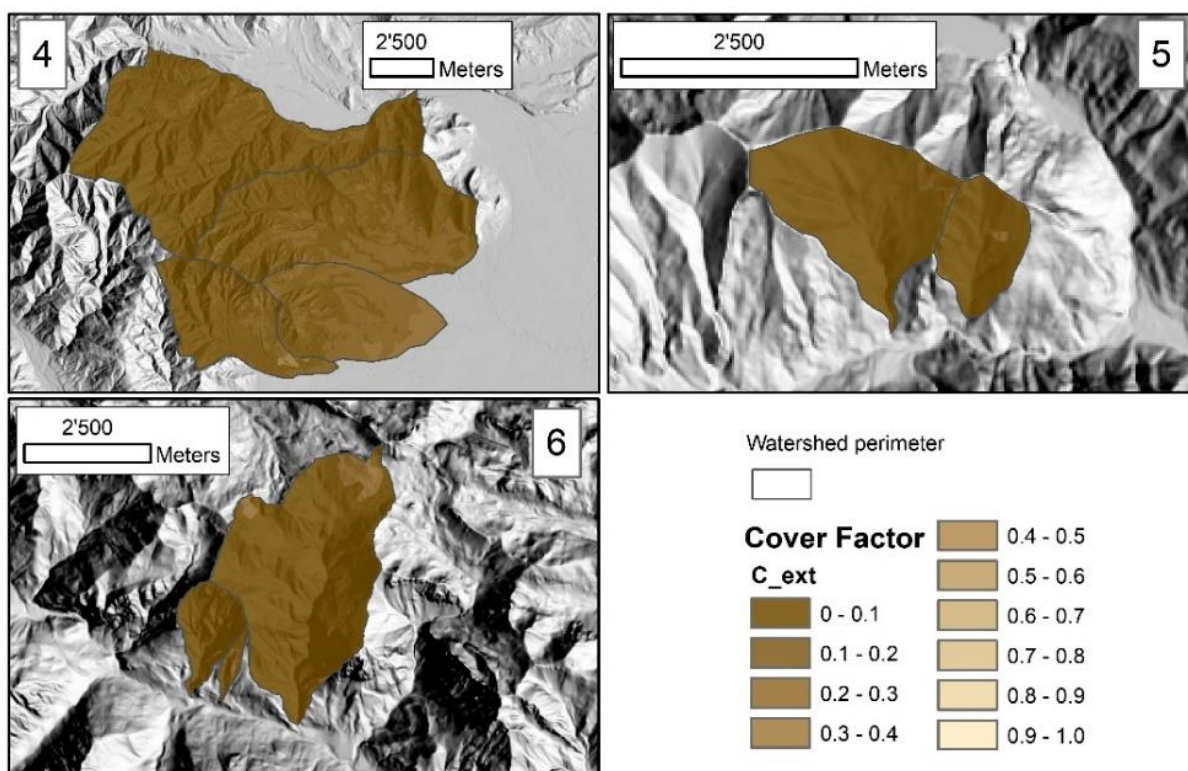


Figure A4.44 - Cover Factor in the post-fire situation – extended assessment, for the watersheds affected by the Cumiana/Cantalupa (4), Bellino/Casteldelfino (5) and Sambuco/Pietraporzi (6) wildfires.

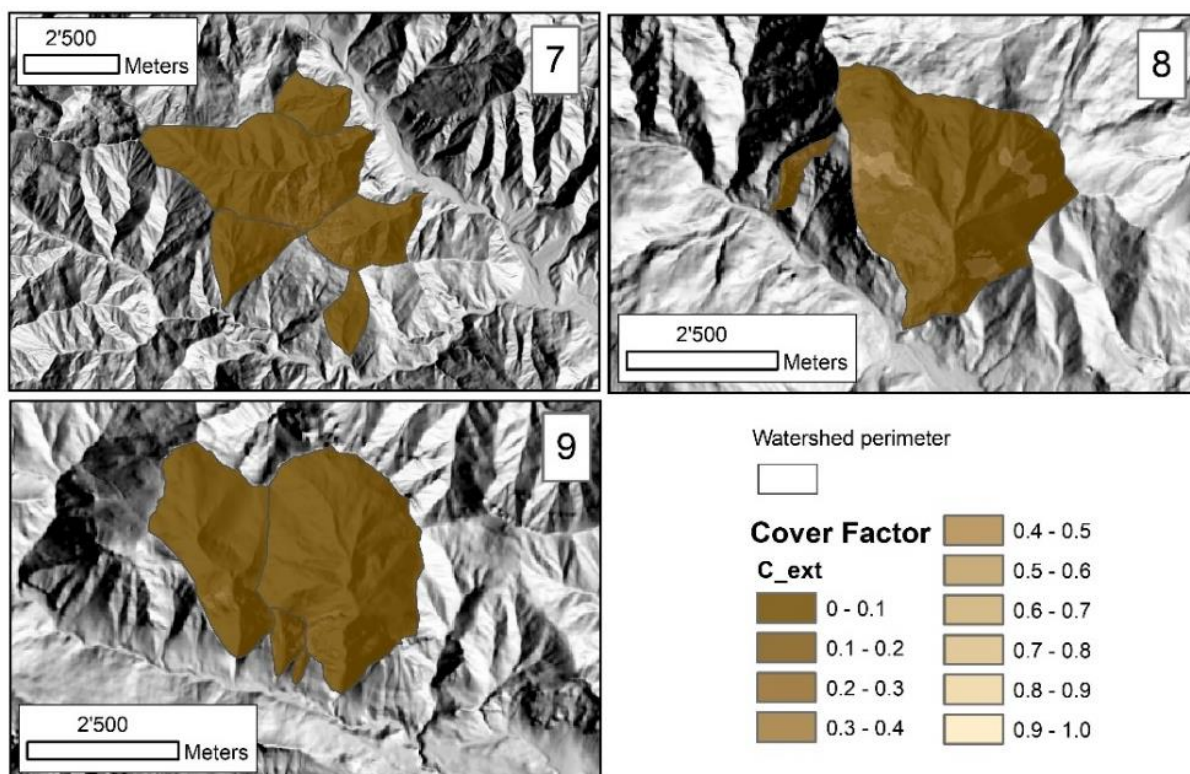


Figure A4.45 - Cover Factor in the post-fire situation – extended assessment, for the watersheds affected by the Roure/Perrero (7), Traversella (8) and Demonte (9) wildfires.

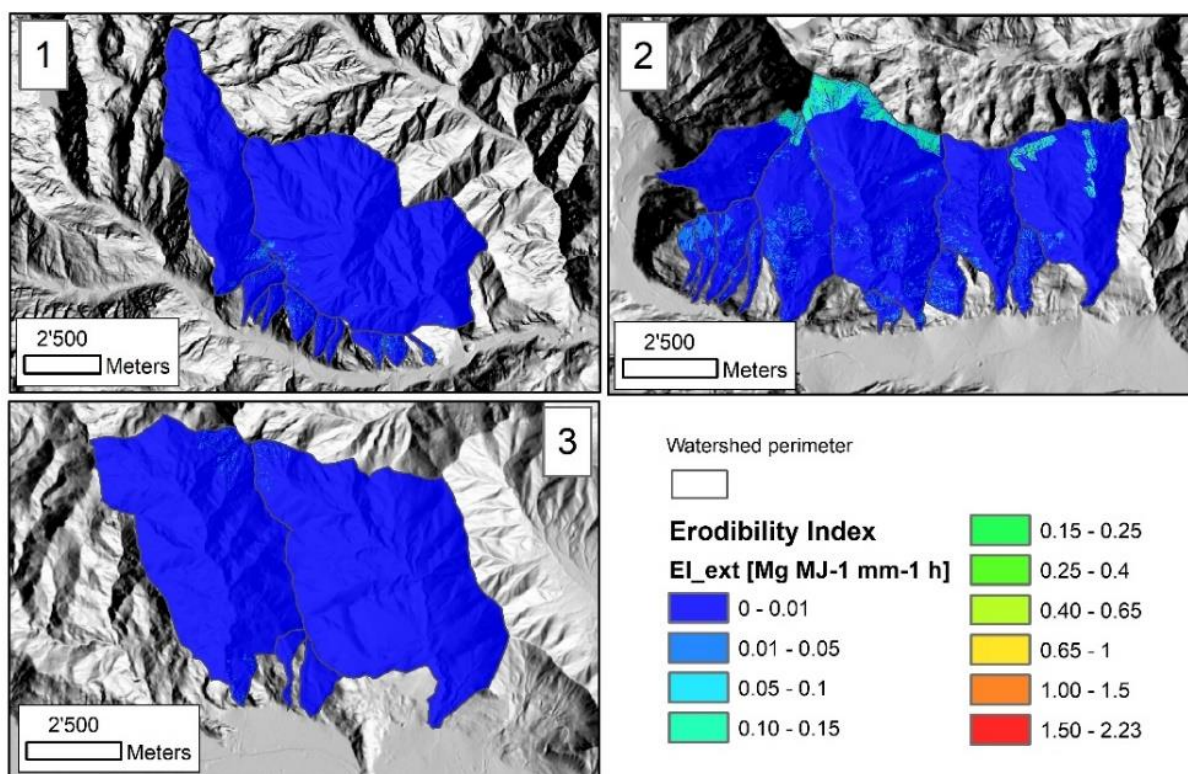


Figure A4.46 - Erodibility Index in the post-fire situation – extended assessment, for the watersheds affected by the Locana/Ribordone (1), Bussoleno/Mompantero (2) and Caprie/Rubiana (3) wildfires.

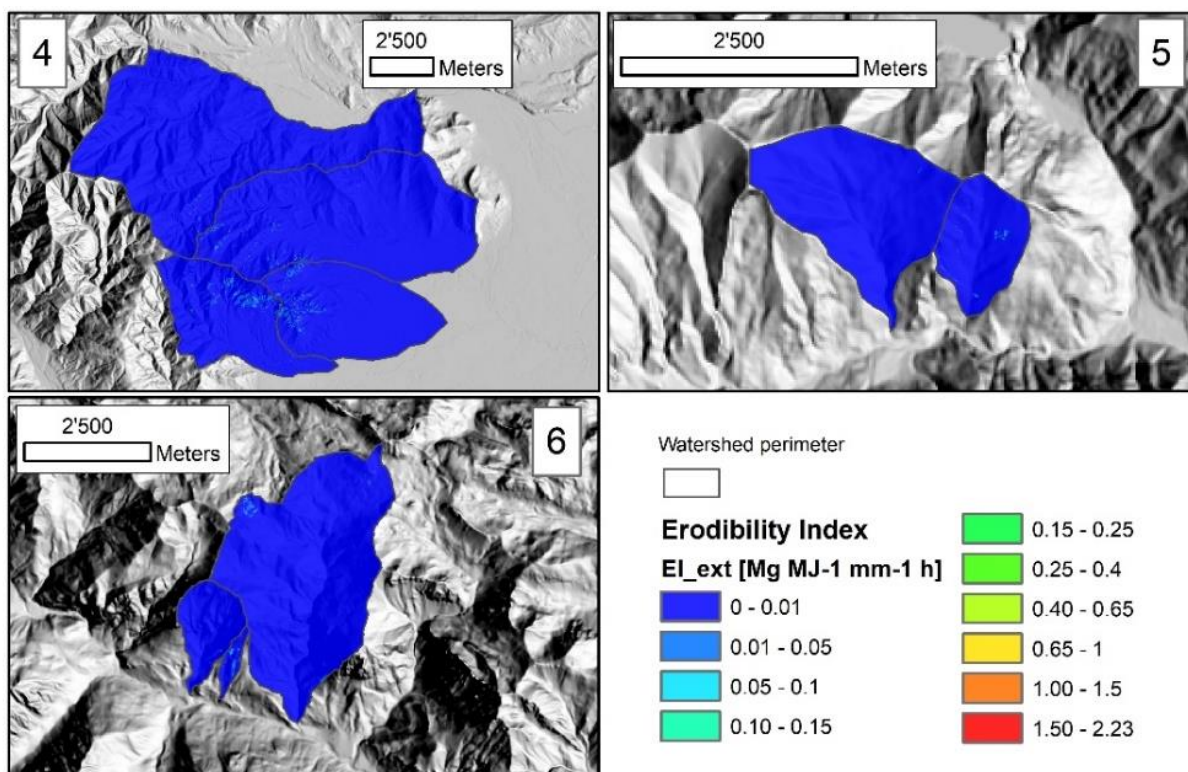


Figure A4.47 - Erodibility Index in the post-fire situation – extended assessment, for the watersheds affected by the Cumiana/Cantalupa (4), Bellino/Casteldelfino (5) and Sambuco/Pietraporzio (6) wildfires.

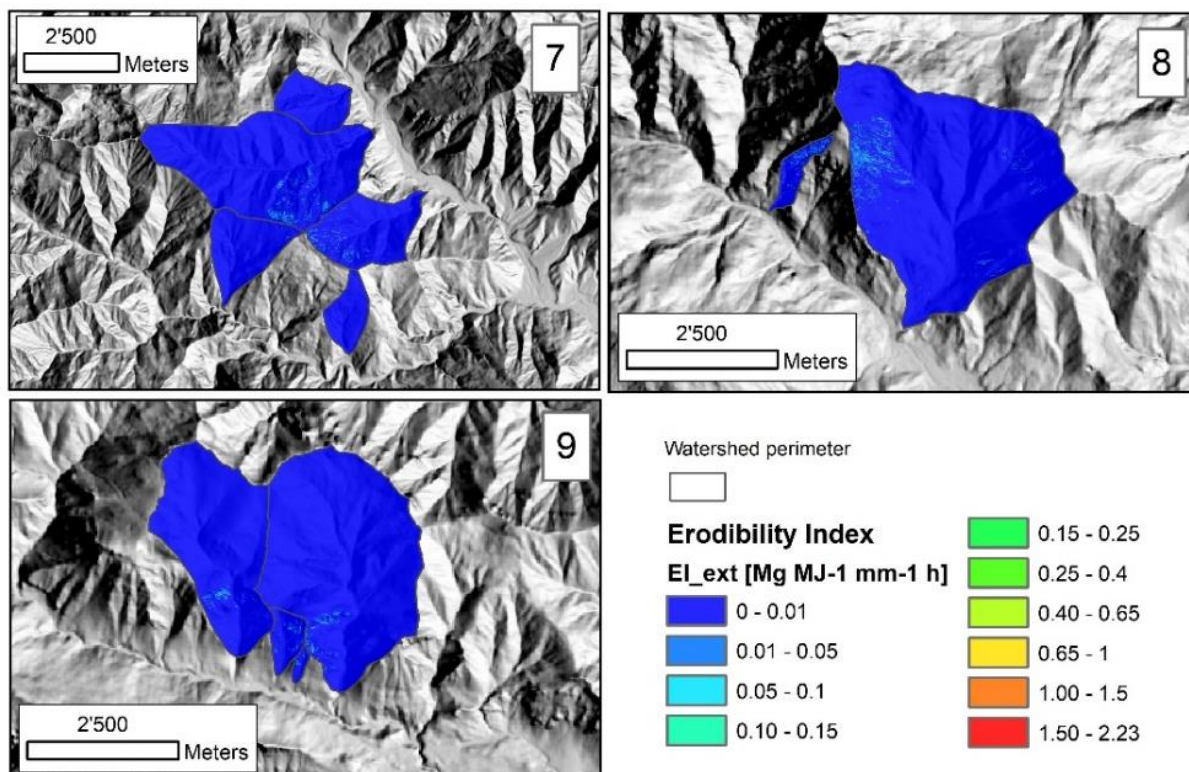


Figure A4.48 - Erodibility Index in the post-fire situation – extended assessment, for the watersheds affected by the Roure/Perrero (7), Traversella (8) and Demonte (9) wildfires.

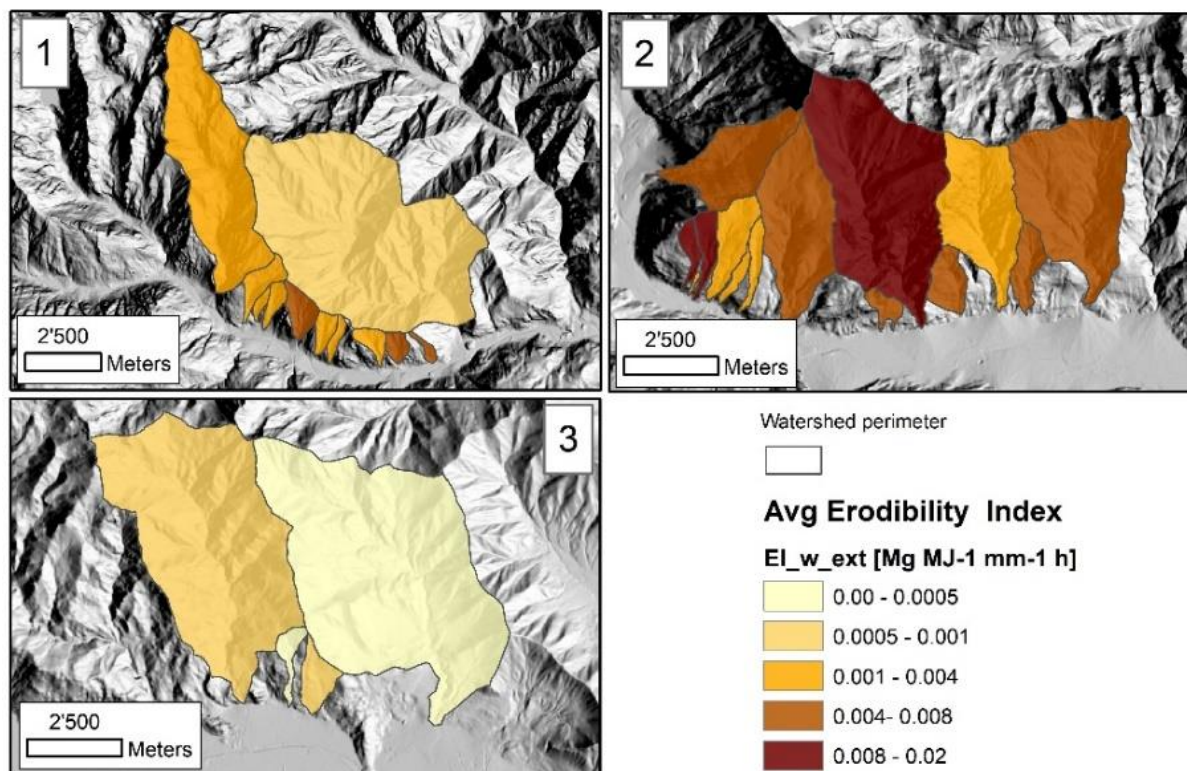


Figure A4.49 – Spatially averaged Erodibility Index in the post-fire situation – extended assessment, for the watersheds affected by the Locana/Ribordone (1), Bussoleno/Mompantero (2) and Caprie/Rubiana (3) wildfires.

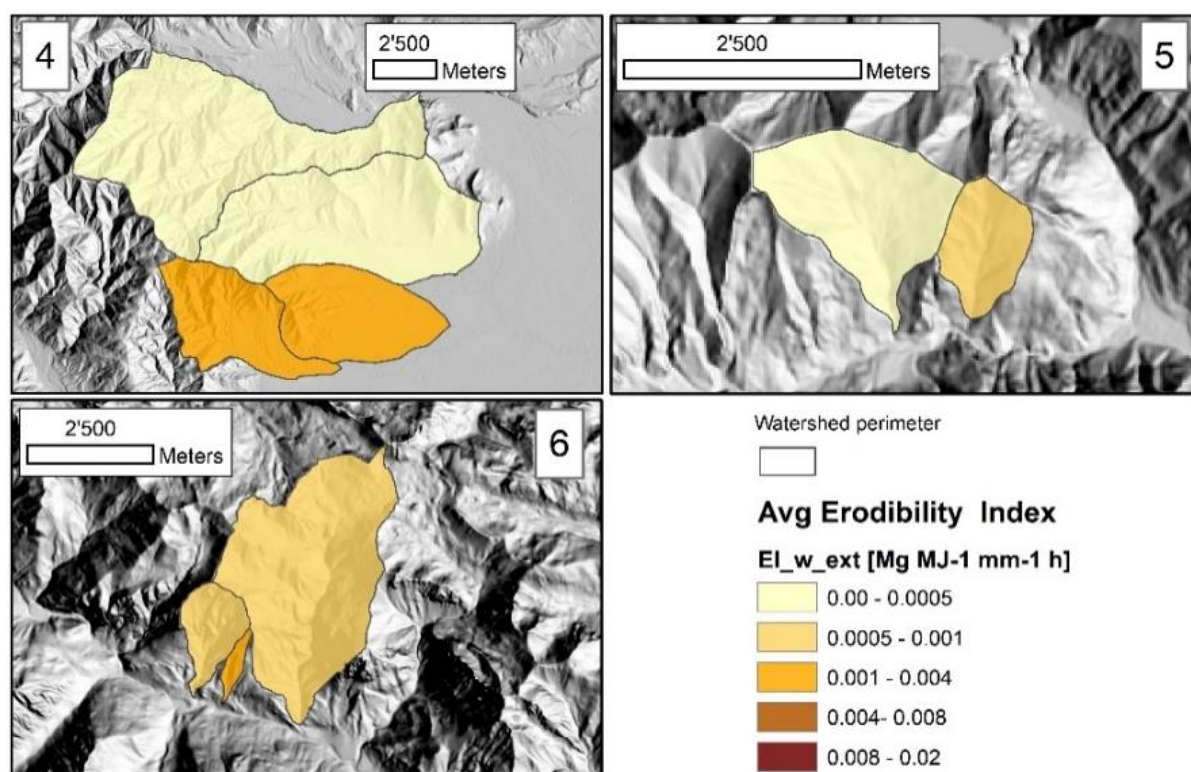


Figure A4.50 – Spatially averaged Erodibility Index in the post-fire situation – extended assessment, for the watersheds affected by the Cumiana/Cantalupa (4), Bellino/Casteldelfino (5) and Sambuco/Pietraporzio (6) wildfires.

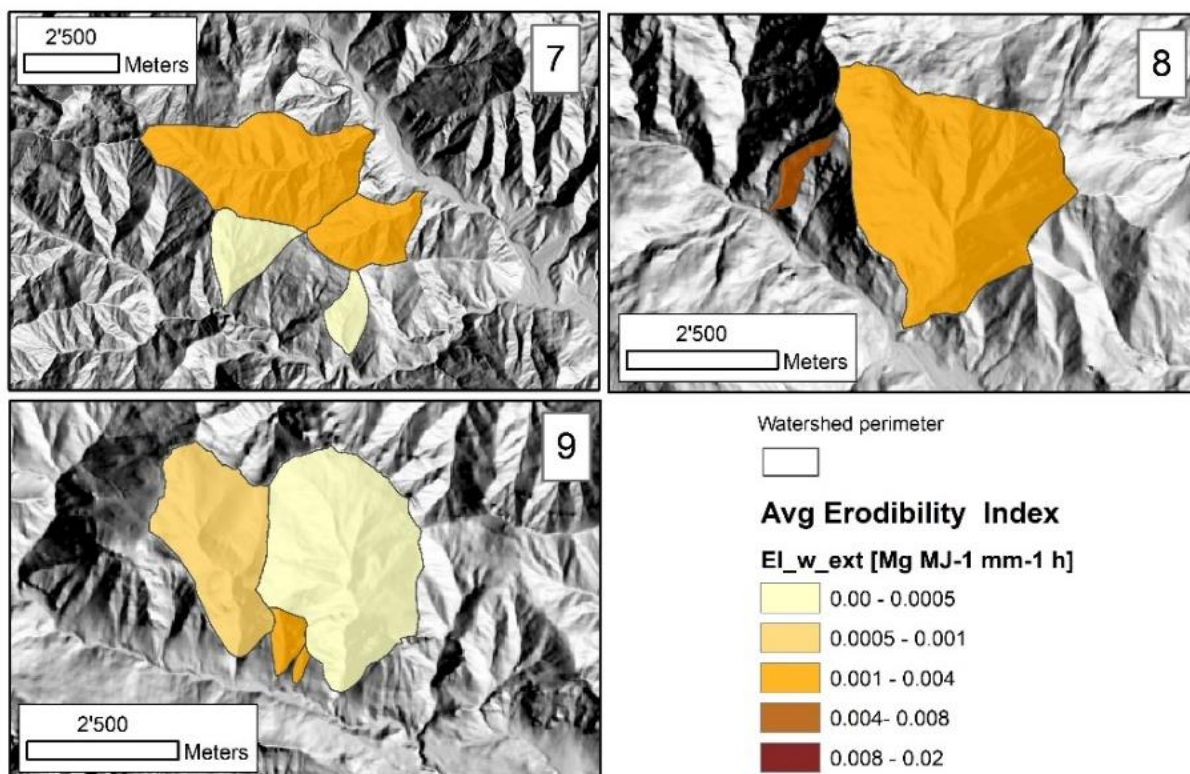


Figure A4.51 – Spatially averaged Erodibility Index in the post-fire situation – extended assessment, for the watersheds affected by the Roure/Perrero (7), Traversella (8) and Demente (9) wildfires.

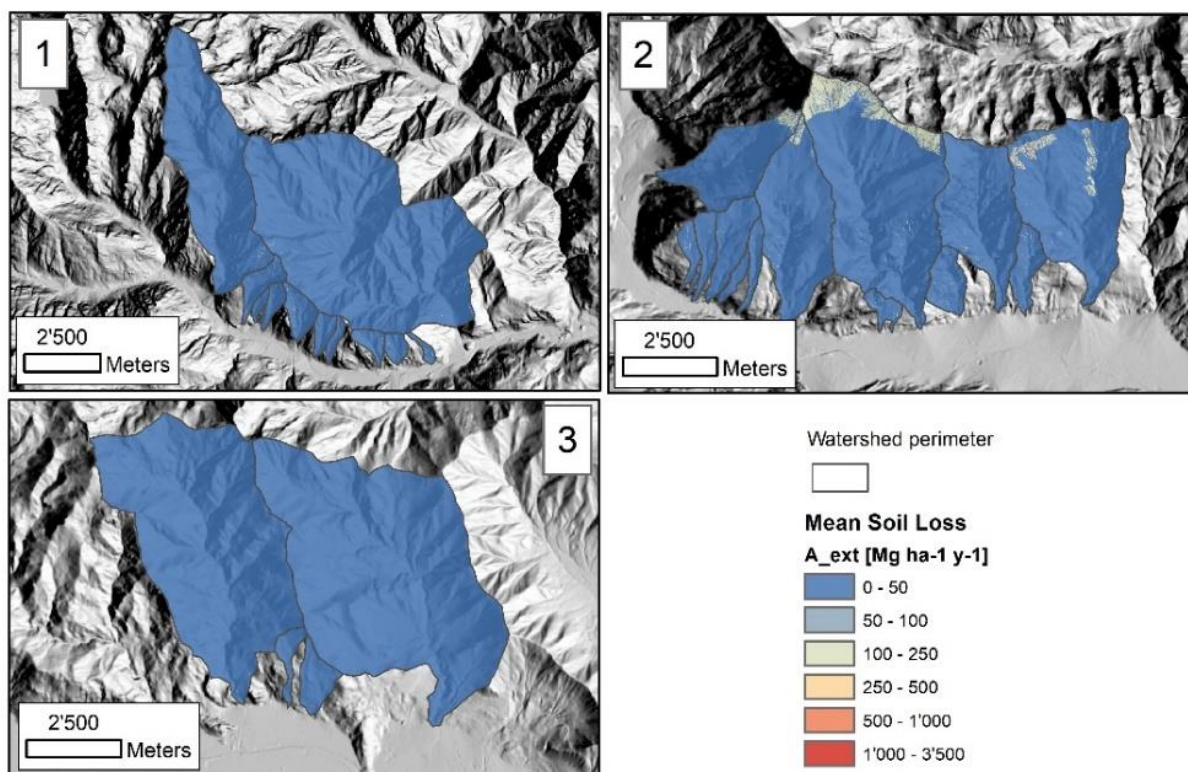


Figure A4.52 – Mean Soil Loss in the post-fire situation – extended assessment, for the watersheds affected by the Locana/Ribordone (1), Bussoleno/Mompantero (2) and Caprie/Rubiana (3) wildfires.

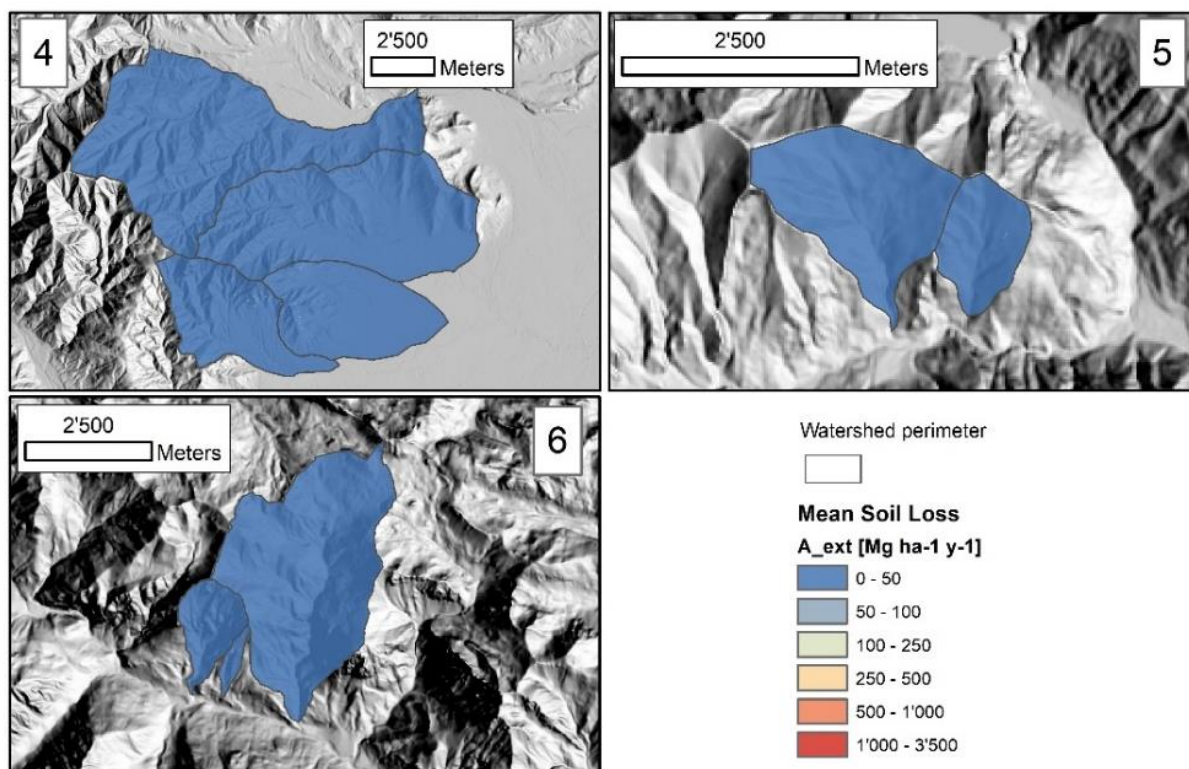


Figure A4.53 – Mean Soil Loss in the post-fire situation – extended assessment, for the watersheds affected by the Cumiana/Cantalupa (4), Bellino/Casteldelfino (5) and Sambuco/Pietraporzio (6) wildfires.

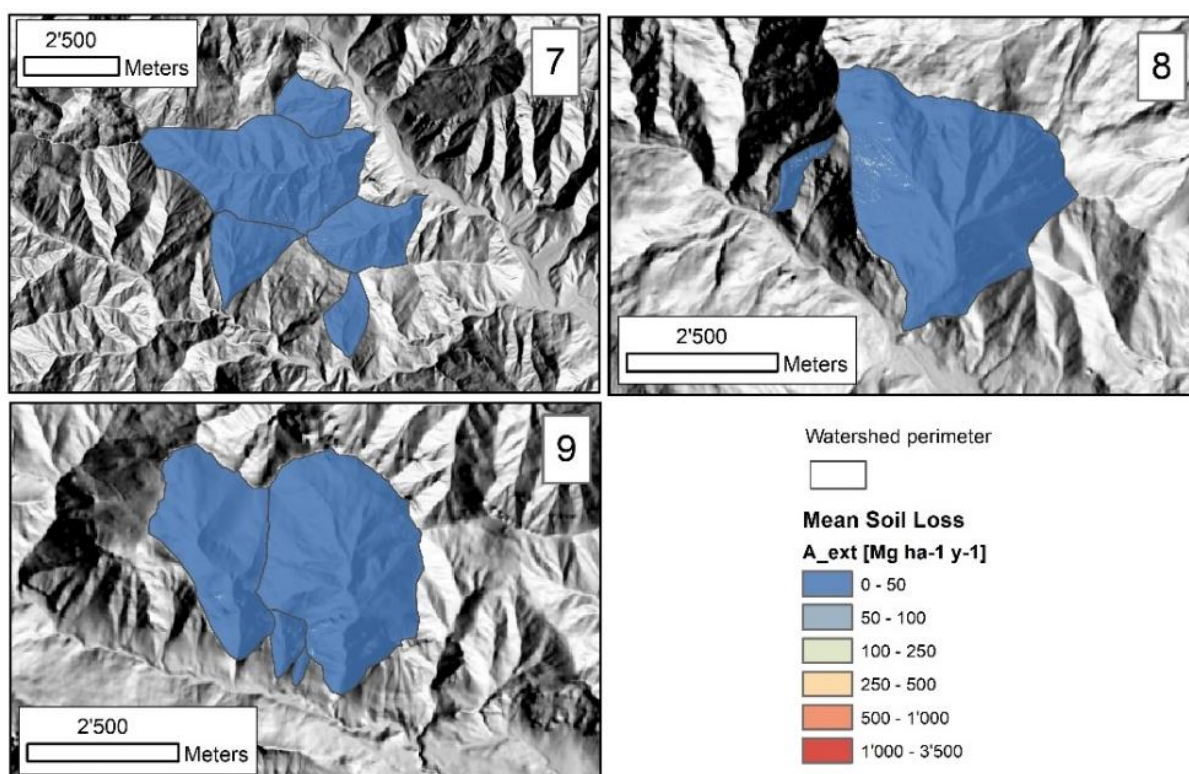


Figure A4.54 – Mean Soil Loss in the post-fire situation – extended assessment, for the watersheds affected by the Roure/Perrero (7), Traversella (8) and Demonte (9) wildfires.

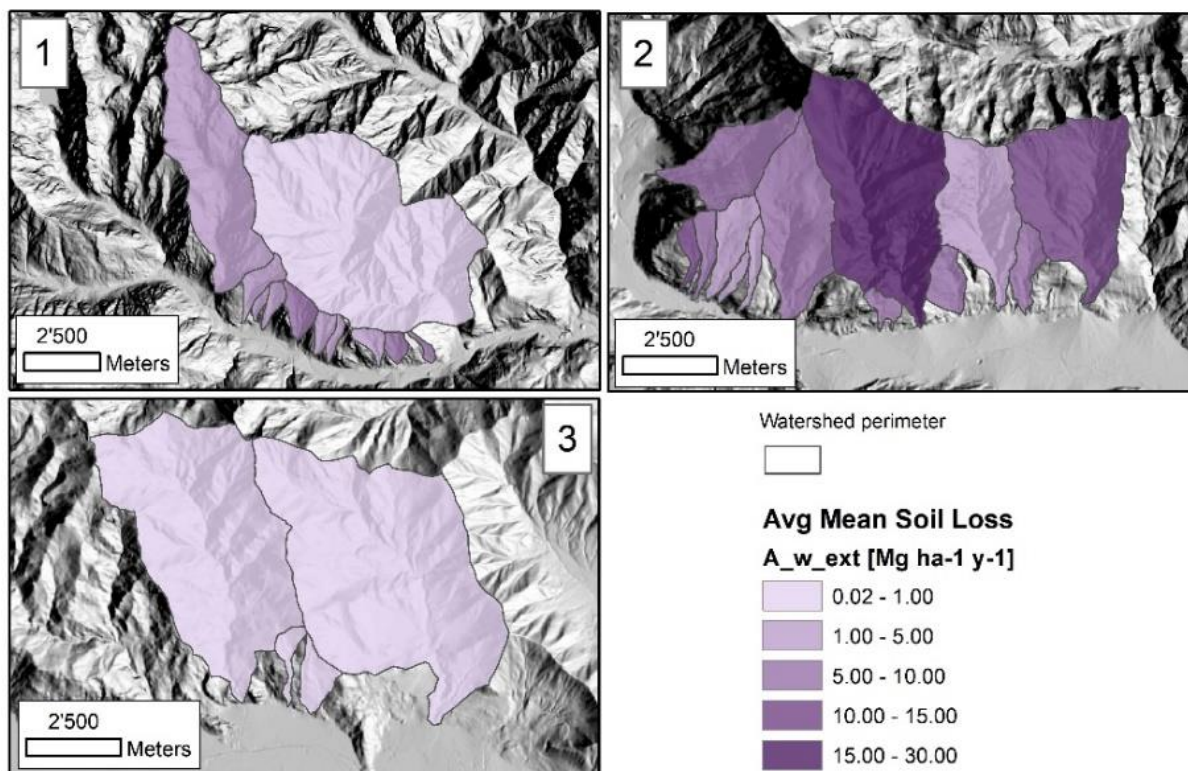


Figure A4.55 – Spatially averaged Mean Soil Loss in the post-fire situation – extended assessment, for the watersheds affected by the Locana/Ribordone (1), Bussoleno/Mompantero (2) and Caprie/Rubiana (3) wildfires.

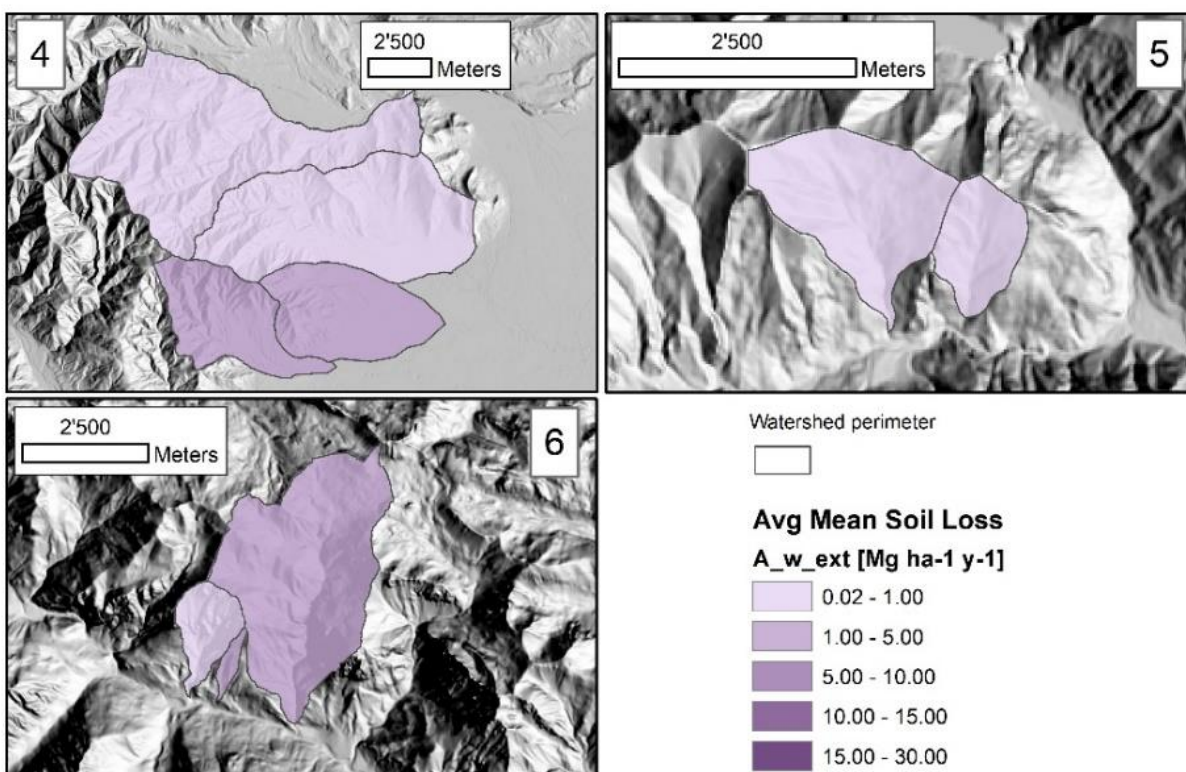


Figure A4.56 – Spatially averaged Mean Soil Loss in the post-fire situation – extended assessment, for the watersheds affected by the Cumiana/Cantalupa (4), Bellino/Casteldelfino (5) and Sambuco/Pietraporzio (6) wildfires.

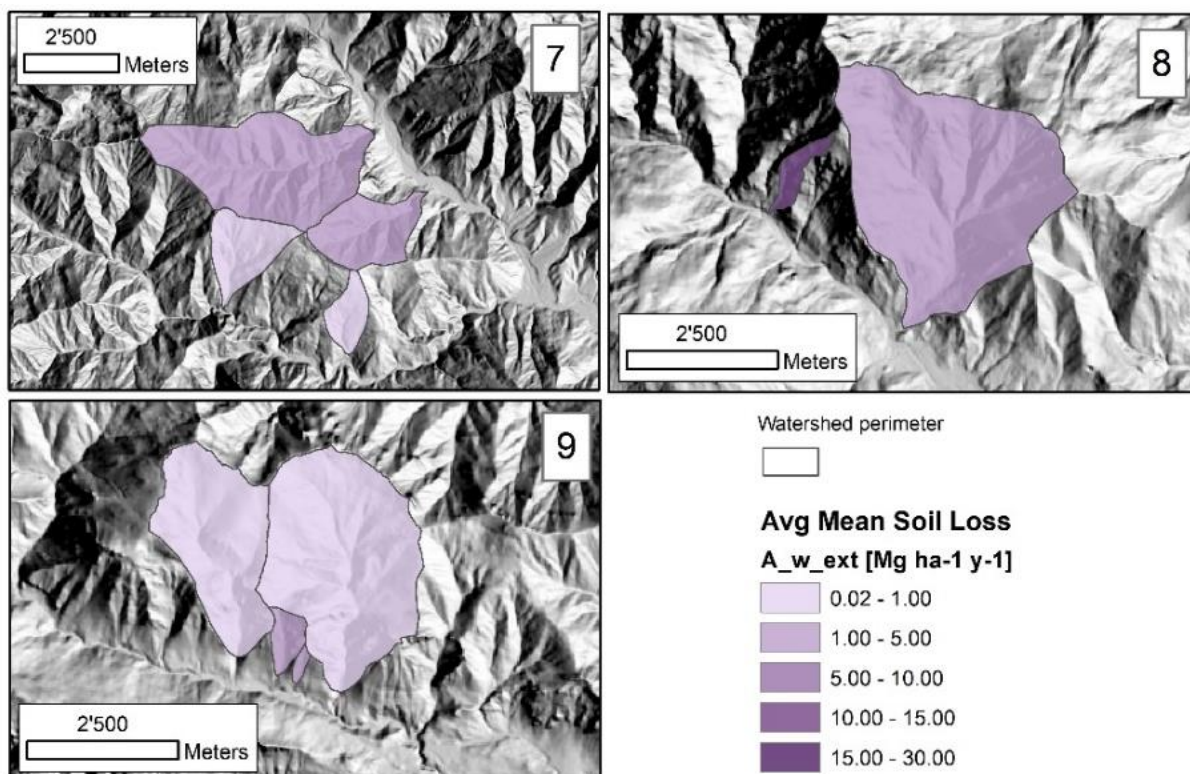


Figure A4.57 – Spatially averaged Mean Soil Loss in the post-fire situation – extended assessment, for the watersheds affected by the Roure/Perrero (7), Traversella (8) and Demonte (9) wildfires.

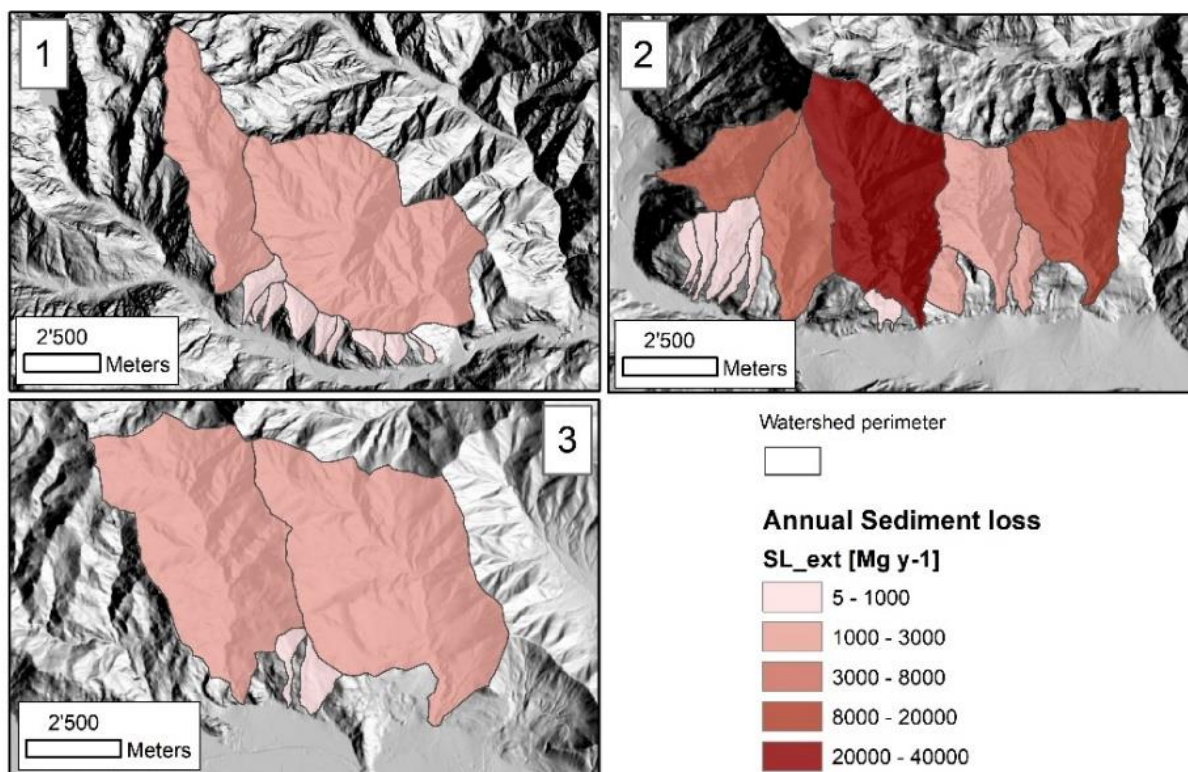


Figure A4.58 – Annual Sediment Loss in the post-fire situation – extended assessment, for the watersheds affected by the Locana/Ribordone (1), Bussoleno/Mompantero (2) and Caprie/Rubiana (3) wildfires.

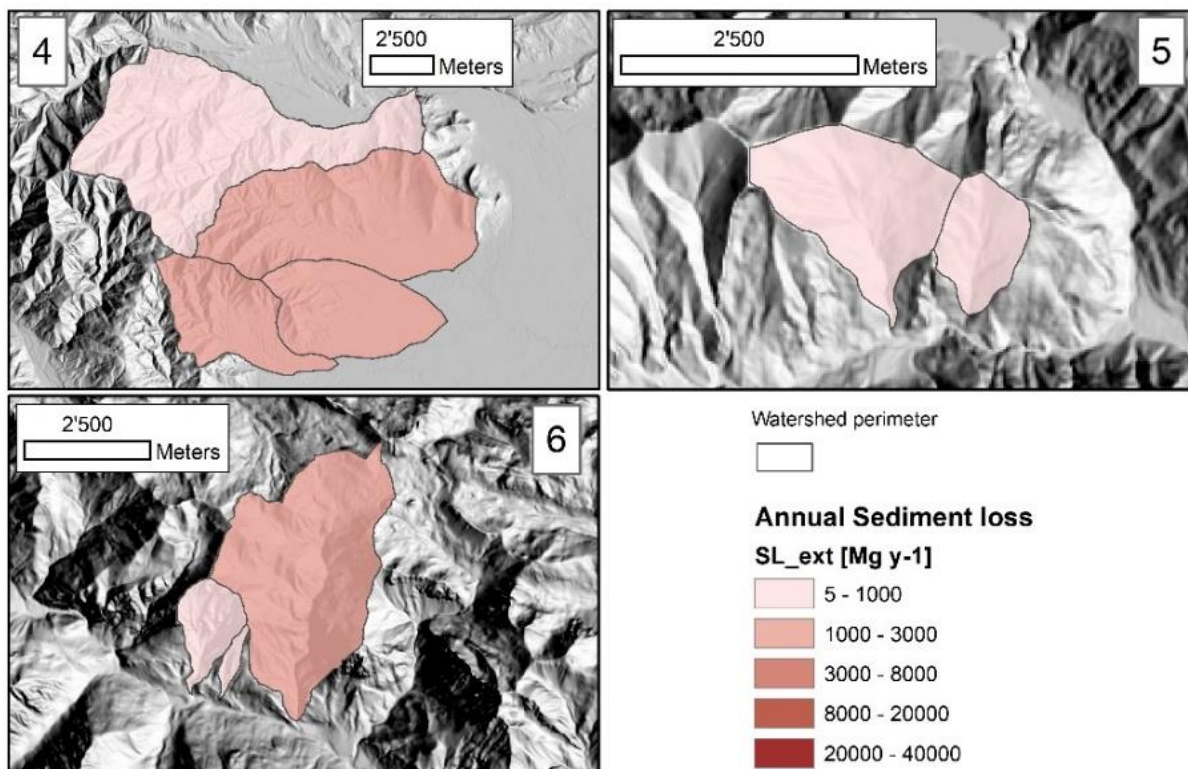


Figure A4.59 – Annual Sediment Loss in the post-fire situation – extended assessment, for the watersheds affected by the Cumiana/Cantalupa (4), Bellino/Casteldelfino (5) and Sambuco/Pietraporzio (6) wildfires.

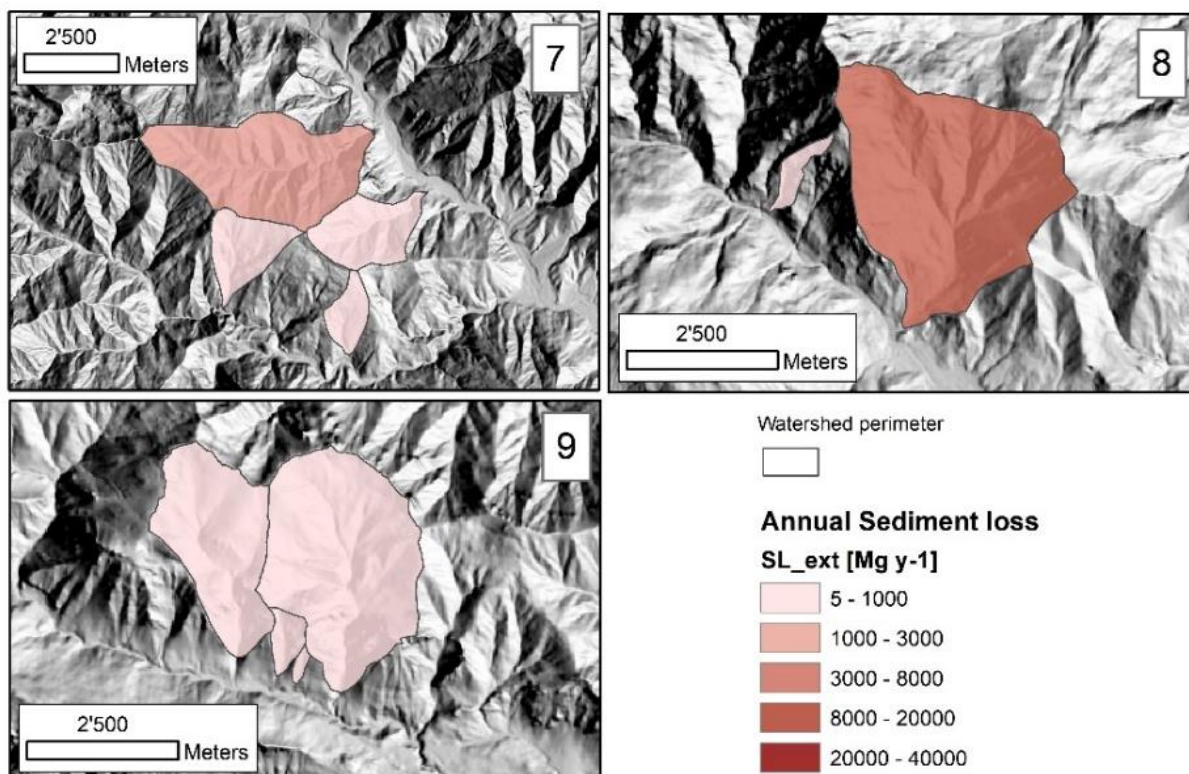


Figure A4.60 – Annual Sediment Loss in the post-fire situation – extended assessment, for the watersheds affected by the Roure/Perrero (7), Traversella (8) and Demonte (9) wildfires.

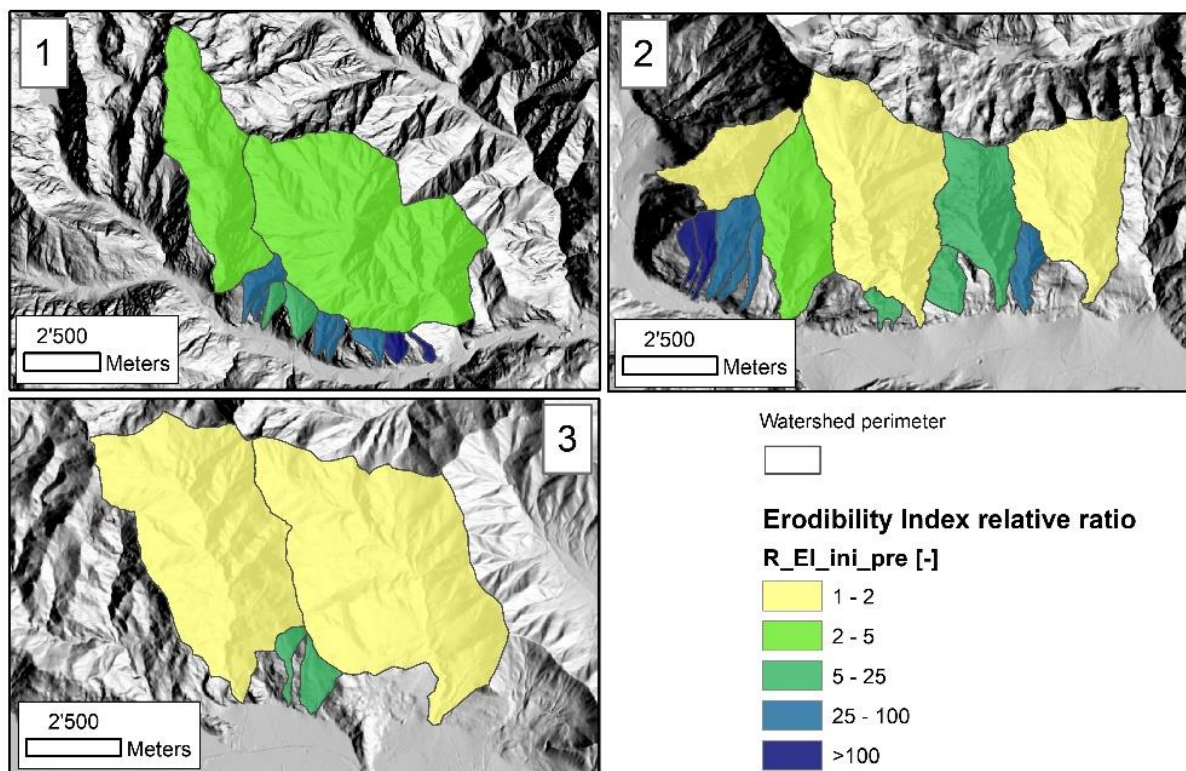


Figure A4.61 – Erodibility Index relative ratio, $R_{EI_ini_pre}$, between post-fire (initial assessment) and pre-fire situation for the watersheds affected by the Locana/Ribordone (1), Bussoleno/Mompantero (2) and Caprie/Rubiana (3) wildfires.

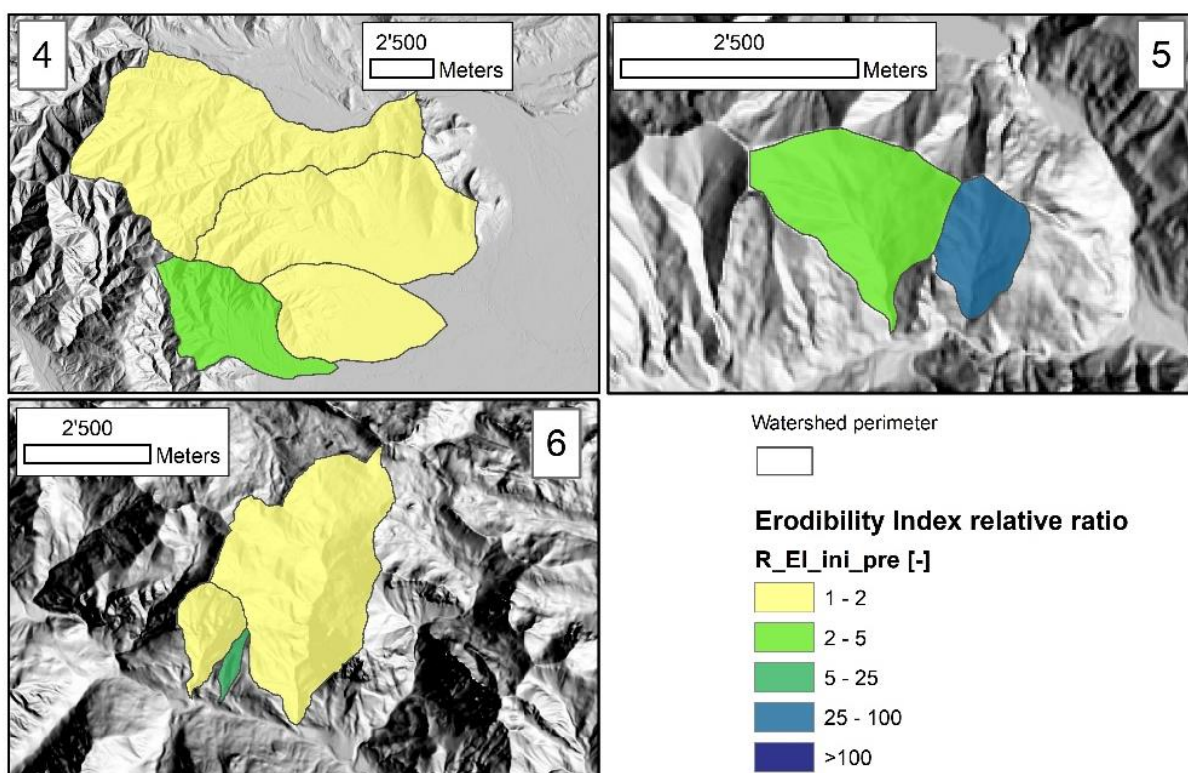


Figure A4.62 – Erodibility Index relative ratio, $R_{EI_ini_pre}$, between post-fire (initial assessment) and pre-fire situation for the watersheds affected by the Cumiana/Cantalupa (4), Bellino/Casteldelfino (5) and Sambuco/Pietraporzio (6) wildfires.

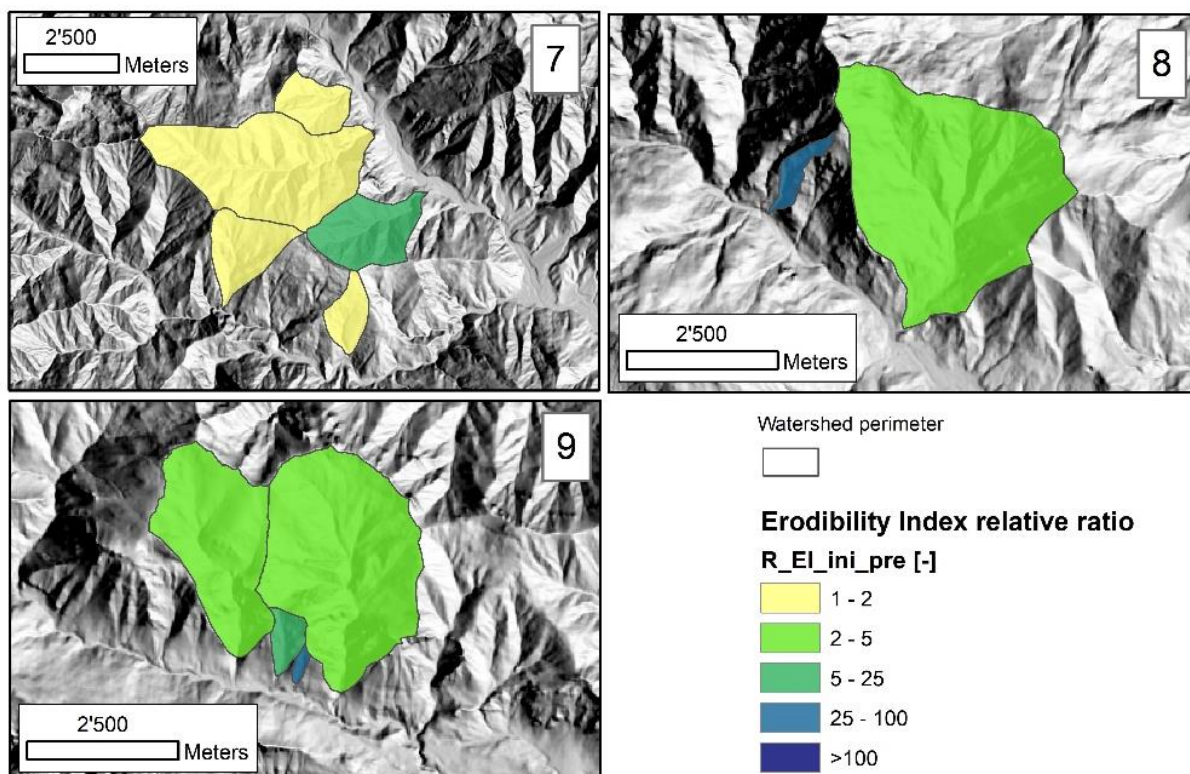


Figure A4.63 – Erodibility Index relative ratio, $R_{EI_ini_pre}$, between post-fire (initial assessment) and pre-fire situation for the watersheds affected by the Roure/Perrero (7), Traversella (8) and Demonte (9) wildfires.

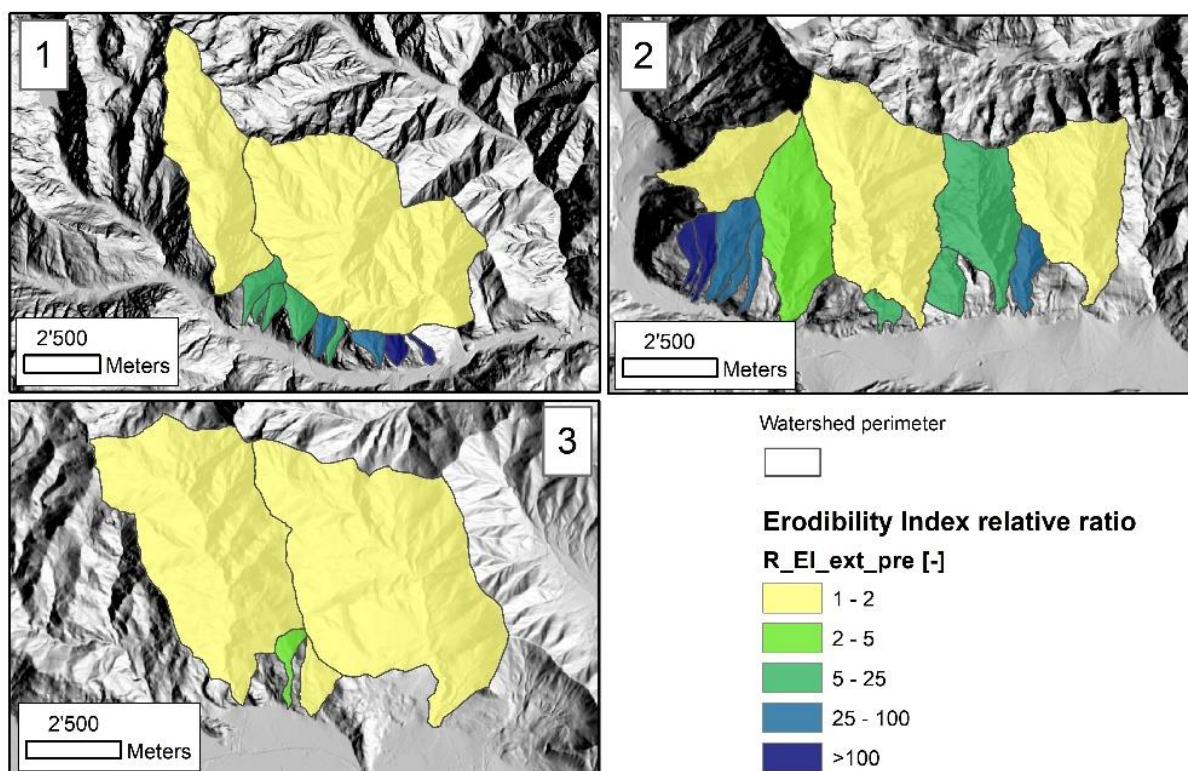


Figure A4.64 – Erodibility Index relative ratio, $R_{EI_ext_pre}$, between post-fire (extended assessment) and pre-fire situation for the watersheds affected by the Locana/Ribordone (1), Bussoleno/Mompalero (2) and Caprie/Rubiana (3) wildfires.

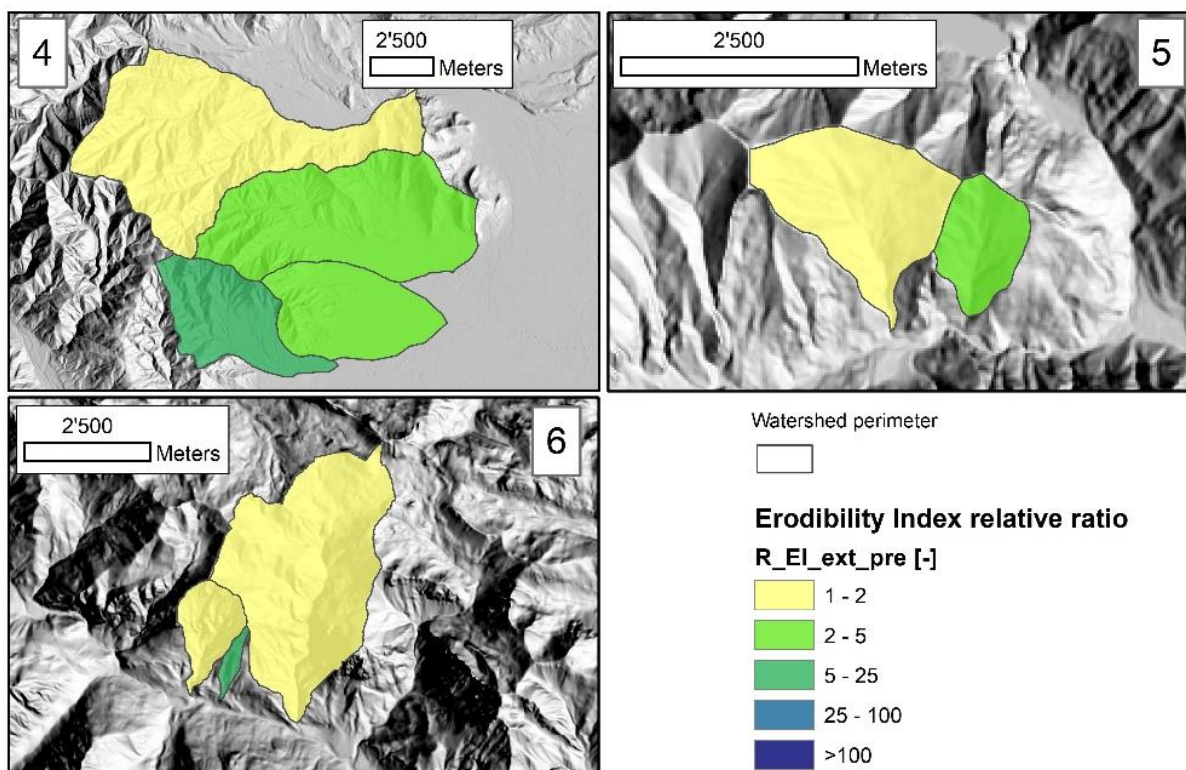


Figure A4.65 – Erodibility Index relative ratio, $R_{EI_ext_pre}$, between post-fire (extended assessment) and pre-fire situation for the watersheds affected by the Cumiana/Cantalupa (4), Bellino/Casteldelfino (5) and Sambuco/Pietraporzio (6) wildfires.

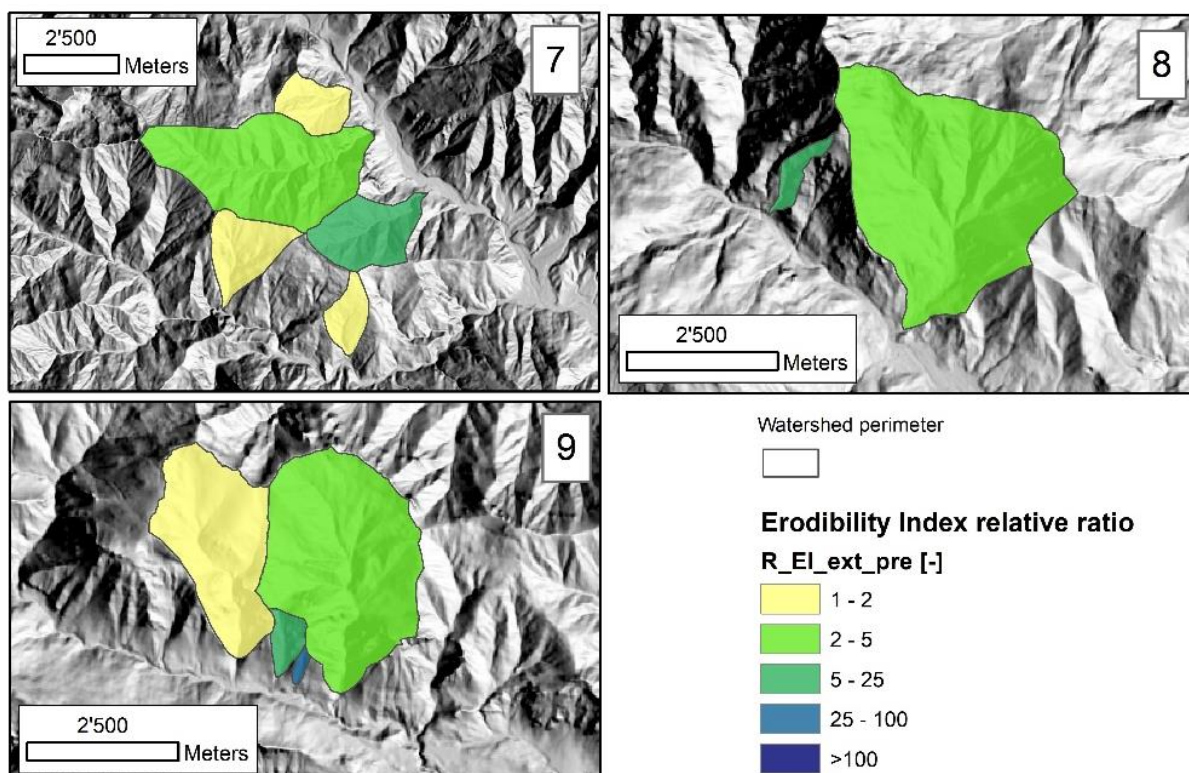


Figure A4.66 – Erodibility Index relative ratio, $R_{EI_ext_pre}$, between post-fire (extended assessment) and pre-fire situation for the watersheds affected by the Roure/Perrero (7), Traversella (8) and Demonte (9) wildfires.

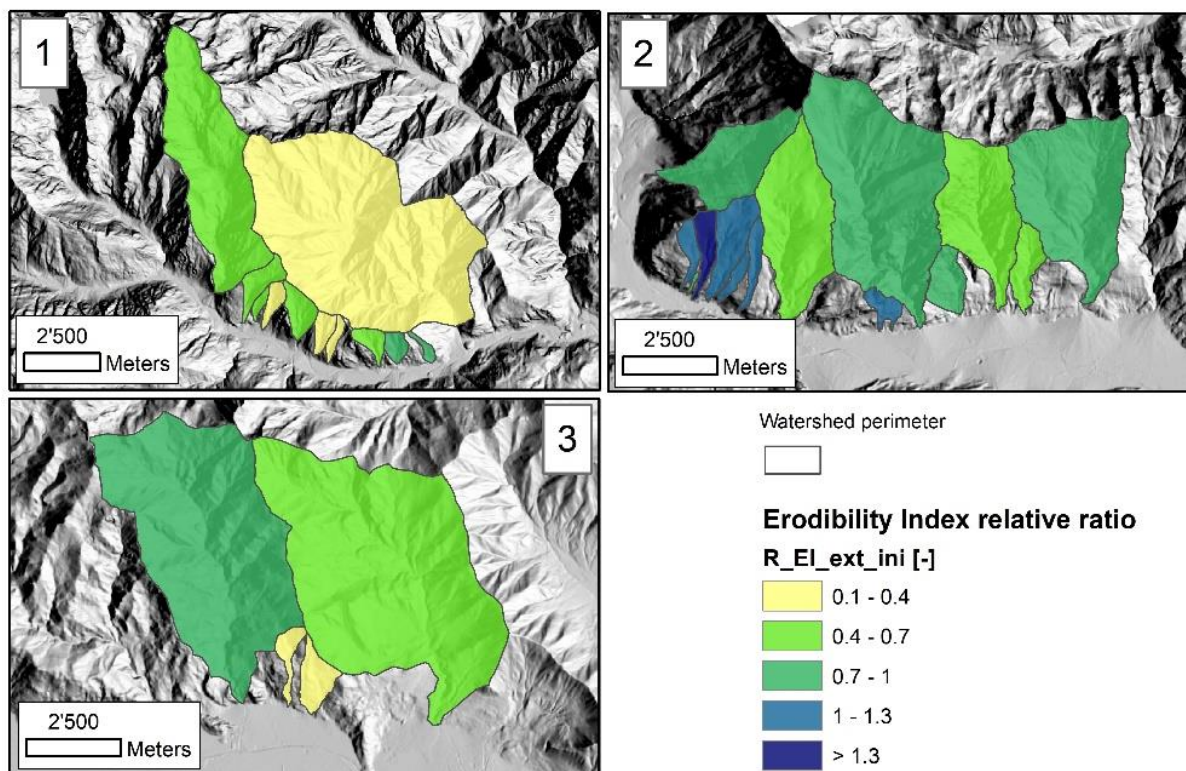


Figure A4.67 – Erodibility Index relative ratio, $R_{EI_ext_ini}$, between extended assessment and initial assessment for the watersheds affected by the Locana/Ribordone (1), Bussoleno/Mompantero (2) and Caprie/Rubiana (3) wildfires.

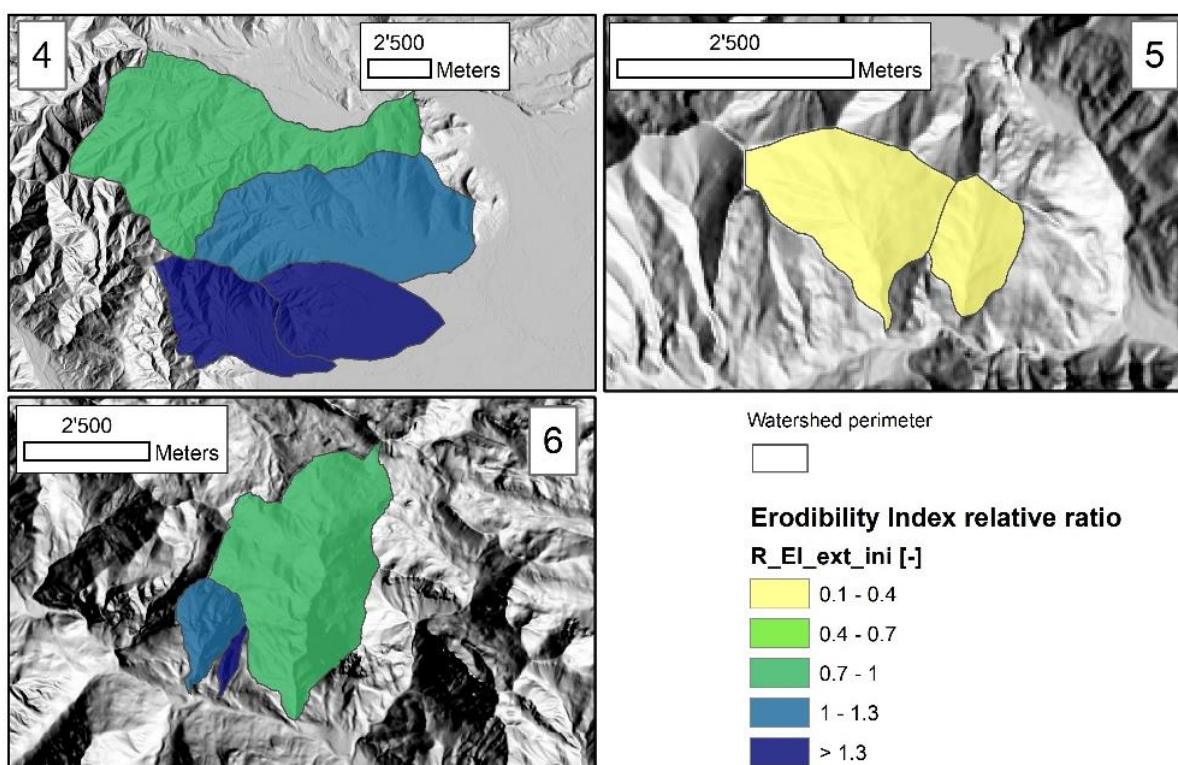


Figure A4.68 – Erodibility Index relative ratio, $R_{EI_ext_ini}$, between extended assessment and initial assessment situation for the watersheds affected by the Cumiana/Cantalupa (4), Bellino/Casteldelfino (5) and Sambuco/Pietraporzio (6) wildfires.

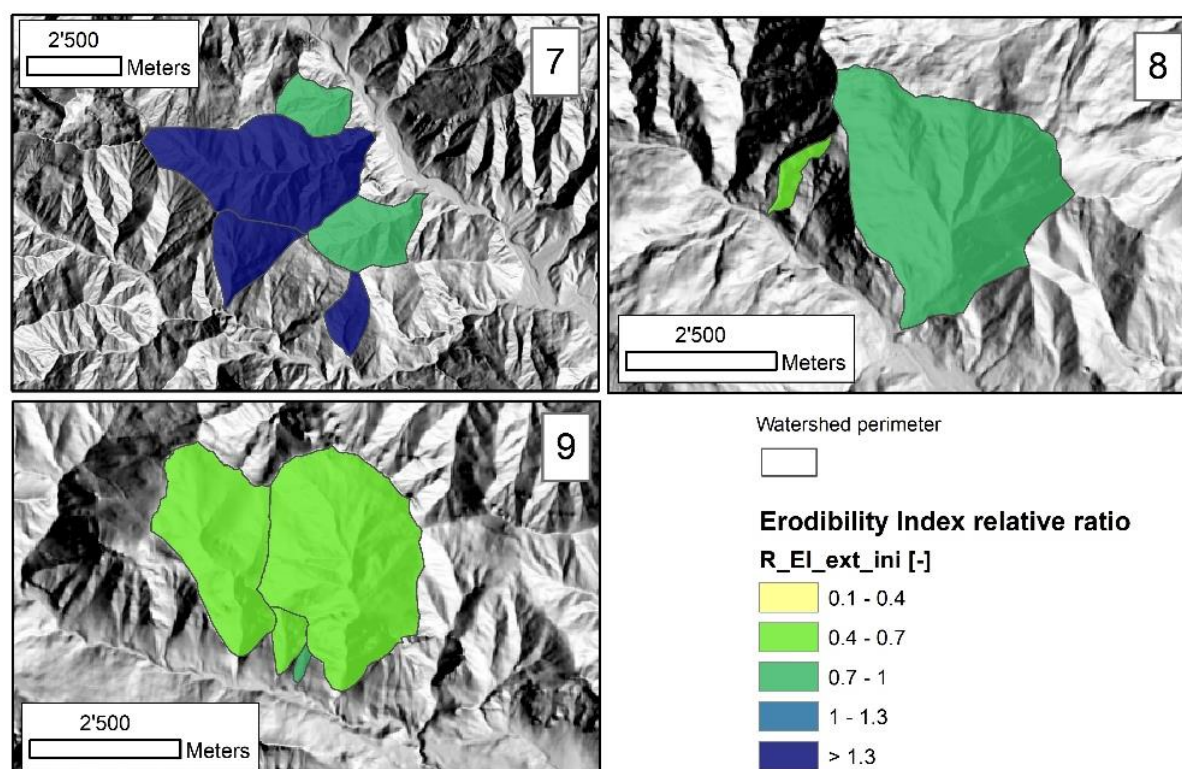


Figure A4.69 – Erodibility Index relative ratio, $R_{EI_ext_ini}$, between extended assessment and initial assessment for the watersheds affected by the Roure/Perrero (7), Traversella (8) and Demonte (9) wildfires.

Table A4.1– Spatially averaged Erodibility Index and pre/post-fire relative ratios for the watersheds affected by the Locana/Ribordone wildfire.

Fire n. 1 Watershed	LOCANA/RIBORDONE					
	EI_w_pre [Mg MJ ⁻¹ mm ⁻¹ h]	EI_w_ini [Mg MJ ⁻¹ mm ⁻¹ h]	EI_w_ext [Mg MJ ⁻¹ mm ⁻¹ h]	R_EI_ini_pr e [-]	R_EI_ext_pr e [-]	R_EI_ext_i ni [-]
Rio Fura	2.23E-04	5.78E-03	2.52E-03	25.9	11.3	0.4
Rio Di Chioso Bosco	4.65E-05	4.63E-03	2.98E-03	99.5	64.0	0.6
R. Montepiano	1.13E-04	5.09E-03	2.66E-03	45.1	23.6	0.5
Carlevaria	7.25E-05	7.15E-03	2.03E-03	98.6	28.0	0.3
Rio Di Bardonetto Inferiore	1.56E-04	6.66E-03	1.95E-03	42.7	12.5	0.3
Ribordone	3.57E-04	1.37E-03	5.27E-04	3.8	1.5	0.4
Eugio	7.68E-04	1.64E-03	1.15E-03	2.1	1.5	0.7
Rio Bocchetta	5.58E-04	1.07E-02	5.16E-03	19.1	9.2	0.5
Rio Di Calsazio	3.72E-05	6.95E-03	6.65E-03	186.6	178.5	1.0
Locana Est	2.20E-04	5.00E-03	1.95E-03	22.8	8.9	0.4
Apparè	3.86E-05	5.89E-03	5.76E-03	152.6	149.4	1.0
Mean	2.35E-04	5.53E-03	3.03E-03	63.54	44.39	0.55

Table A4.2- Spatially averaged Erodibility Index and pre/post-fire relative ratios for the watersheds affected by the Bussoleno/Mompantero wildfire.

Fire n. 2 Watershed	BUSSOLENO/MOMPANTERO					
	EI_w_pre [Mg MJ ⁻¹ mm ⁻¹ h]	EI_w_ini [Mg MJ ⁻¹ mm ⁻¹ h]	EI_w_ext [Mg MJ ⁻¹ mm ⁻¹ h]	R_EI_ini_pre [-]	R_EI_ext_pre [-]	R_EI_ext_ini [-]
Crosiglione	4.64E-03	5.10E-03	4.95E-03	1.1	1.1	1.0
Rio Della Ravoire	1.94E-05	9.75E-03	9.97E-03	502.6	513.8	1.0
Fogasso	7.25E-05	2.93E-03	3.65E-03	40.4	50.4	1.2
Rio Della Codrea	2.09E-05	5.54E-03	8.11E-03	265.5	389.0	1.5
Trinità	8.14E-05	3.19E-03	3.29E-03	39.1	40.4	1.0
Rio Prebech	5.84E-03	8.74E-03	7.43E-03	1.5	1.3	0.8
Moletta	4.37E-04	6.24E-03	2.60E-03	14.3	5.9	0.4
Rio Di Periere	1.15E-04	3.53E-03	3.97E-03	30.6	34.5	1.1
Ravera	1.10E-03	8.56E-03	6.69E-03	7.8	6.1	0.8
Comba Delle Foglie	2.24E-04	1.03E-02	6.63E-03	45.8	29.6	0.6
Rocciamelone	1.25E-02	1.69E-02	1.40E-02	1.4	1.1	0.8
Giandula	1.88E-03	8.65E-03	5.40E-03	4.6	2.9	0.6
I Piani	1.08E-03	6.89E-03	7.15E-03	6.4	6.6	1.0
San Giuseppe	1.62E-05	4.50E-03	3.20E-03	277.2	197.1	0.7
Mean	2.00E-03	7.20E-03	6.22E-03	88.45	91.41	0.91

Table A4 3- Spatially averaged Erodibility Index and pre/post-fire relative ratios for the watersheds affected by the Caprie/Rubiana wildfire.

Fire n. 3 Watershed	CAPRIE/RUBIANA					
	EI_w_pre [Mg MJ ⁻¹ mm ⁻¹ h]	EI_w_ini [Mg MJ ⁻¹ mm ⁻¹ h]	EI_w_ext [Mg MJ ⁻¹ mm ⁻¹ h]	R_EI_ini_pre [-]	R_EI_ext_pre [-]	R_EI_ext_ini [-]
Messa	2.33E-04	3.64E-04	2.39E-04	1.6	1.0	0.7
Sessi	5.71E-04	7.26E-04	6.61E-04	1.3	1.2	0.9
Novaretto	3.35E-04	2.49E-03	5.28E-04	7.4	1.6	0.2
Fra Barbe	9.90E-05	1.13E-03	3.46E-04	11.4	3.5	0.3
Mean	3.09E-04	1.18E-03	4.44E-04	5.41	1.82	0.52

Table A4.4- Spatially averaged Erodibility Index and pre/post-fire relative ratios for the watersheds affected by the Cumiana/Cantalupa wildfire.

Fire n. 4 Watershed	CUMIANA/CANTALUPA					
	EI_w_pre [Mg MJ ⁻¹ mm ⁻¹ h]	EI_w_ini [Mg MJ ⁻¹ mm ⁻¹ h]	EI_w_ext [Mg MJ ⁻¹ mm ⁻¹ h]	R_EI_ini_pre [-]	R_EI_ext_pre [-]	R_EI_ext_ini [-]
1*Int. Dx. Sangone	8.78E-05	1.29E-04	1.15E-04	1.5	1.3	0.9
T. Chisola	1.86E-04	3.43E-04	4.16E-04	1.8	2.2	1.2
T. Noce	1.73E-04	4.59E-04	1.11E-03	2.7	6.4	2.4
Chisola Pianura	2.20E-04	3.38E-04	1.05E-03	1.5	4.8	3.1
Mean	1.67E-04	3.17E-04	6.71E-04	1.88	3.68	1.90

Table A4.5- Spatially averaged Erodibility Index and pre/post-fire relative ratios for the watersheds affected by the Bellino/Casteldelfino wildfire.

Fire n. 5						
BELLINO/CASTELDELFINO						
Watershed	EI_w_pre	EI_w_ini	EI_w_ext	R_EI_ini_pre	R_EI_ext_pre	R_EI_ext_ini
	[Mg MJ ⁻¹ mm ⁻¹ h]	[Mg MJ ⁻¹ mm ⁻¹ h]	[Mg MJ ⁻¹ mm ⁻¹ h]	[-]	[-]	[-]
Cumbal Della Comu	3.21E-04	8.38E-03	8.69E-04	26.1	2.7	0.1
T. Mas Del Bernard	3.95E-04	1.26E-03	4.85E-04	3.2	1.2	0.4
Mean	3.58E-04	4.82E-03	6.77E-04	14.62	1.97	0.24

Table A4.6 - Spatially averaged Erodibility Index and pre/post-fire relative ratios for the watersheds affected by the Sambuco/Pietraporzio wildfire.

Fire n. 6						
SAMBUCO/PIETRAPORZIO						
Watershed	EI_w_pre	EI_w_ini	EI_w_ext	R_EI_ini_pre	R_EI_ext_pre	R_EI_ext_ini
	[Mg MJ ⁻¹ mm ⁻¹ h]	[Mg MJ ⁻¹ mm ⁻¹ h]	[Mg MJ ⁻¹ mm ⁻¹ h]	[-]	[-]	[-]
R. Bianco	9.89E-04	1.11E-03	1.00E-03	1.1	1.0	0.9
Sn	2.35E-04	1.27E-03	3.23E-03	5.4	13.8	2.5
Rio Di Castello Pietraporzio	5.02E-04	5.27E-04	5.92E-04	1.0	1.2	1.1
Mean	5.75E-04	9.70E-04	1.61E-03	2.53	5.32	1.52

Table A4.7 - Spatially averaged Erodibility Index and pre/post-fire relative ratios for the watersheds affected by the Roure/Perrero wildfire.

Fire n. 7						
ROURE/PERRERO						
Watershed	EI_w_pre	EI_w_ini	EI_w_ext	R_EI_ini_pre	R_EI_ext_pre	R_EI_ext_ini
	[Mg MJ ⁻¹ mm ⁻¹ h]	[Mg MJ ⁻¹ mm ⁻¹ h]	[Mg MJ ⁻¹ mm ⁻¹ h]	[-]	[-]	[-]
V.Ne Di Borsetto	3.18E-04	4.60E-04	1.26E-03	1.4	4.0	2.7
S. Martino Sud	1.11E-04	1.43E-04	2.06E-04	1.3	1.9	1.4
Colet	1.75E-05	1.82E-05	1.77E-05	1.0	1.0	1.0
Molotta	1.88E-04	2.48E-04	3.27E-04	1.3	1.7	1.3
Gernier	8.83E-05	1.49E-03	1.47E-03	16.9	16.7	1.0
Mean	1.44E-04	4.73E-04	6.57E-04	4.40	5.05	1.49

Table A4.8 - Spatially averaged Erodibility Index and pre/post-fire relative ratios for the watersheds affected by the Traversella wildfire.

Fire n. 8	TRAVERSELLA					
Watershed	EI_w_pre	EI_w_ini	EI_w_ext	R_EI_ini_pre	R_EI_ext_pre	R_EI_ext_ini
	[Mg MJ ⁻¹ mm ⁻¹ h]	[Mg MJ ⁻¹ mm ⁻¹ h]	[Mg MJ ⁻¹ mm ⁻¹ h]	[-]	[-]	[-]
T. Bersella	8.02E-04	2.35E-03	1.70E-03	2.9	2.1	0.7
Valle Chiara Primo	3.86E-04	1.41E-02	5.69E-03	36.4	14.7	0.4
Mean	5.94E-04	8.20E-03	3.69E-03	19.69	8.43	0.56

Table A4.9 - Spatially averaged Erodibility Index and pre/post-fire relative ratios for the watersheds affected by the Demonte wildfire.

Fire n. 9	DEMONTE					
Watershed	EI_w_pre	EI_w_ini	EI_w_ext	R_EI_ini_pre	R_EI_ext_pre	R_EI_ext_ini
	[Mg MJ ⁻¹ mm ⁻¹ h]	[Mg MJ ⁻¹ mm ⁻¹ h]	[Mg MJ ⁻¹ mm ⁻¹ h]	[-]	[-]	[-]
V. Del Saut	3.96E-04	1.63E-03	7.84E-04	4.1	2.0	0.5
Valle Di Monfreis	1.39E-04	6.32E-04	4.20E-04	4.6	3.0	0.7
Sn 2	6.17E-05	2.36E-03	1.74E-03	38.3	28.3	0.7
Rio Di Prafioret C.	2.42E-04	5.56E-03	2.24E-03	23.0	9.3	0.4
Mean	2.10E-04	2.55E-03	1.30E-03	17.49	10.63	0.57

Appendix 5

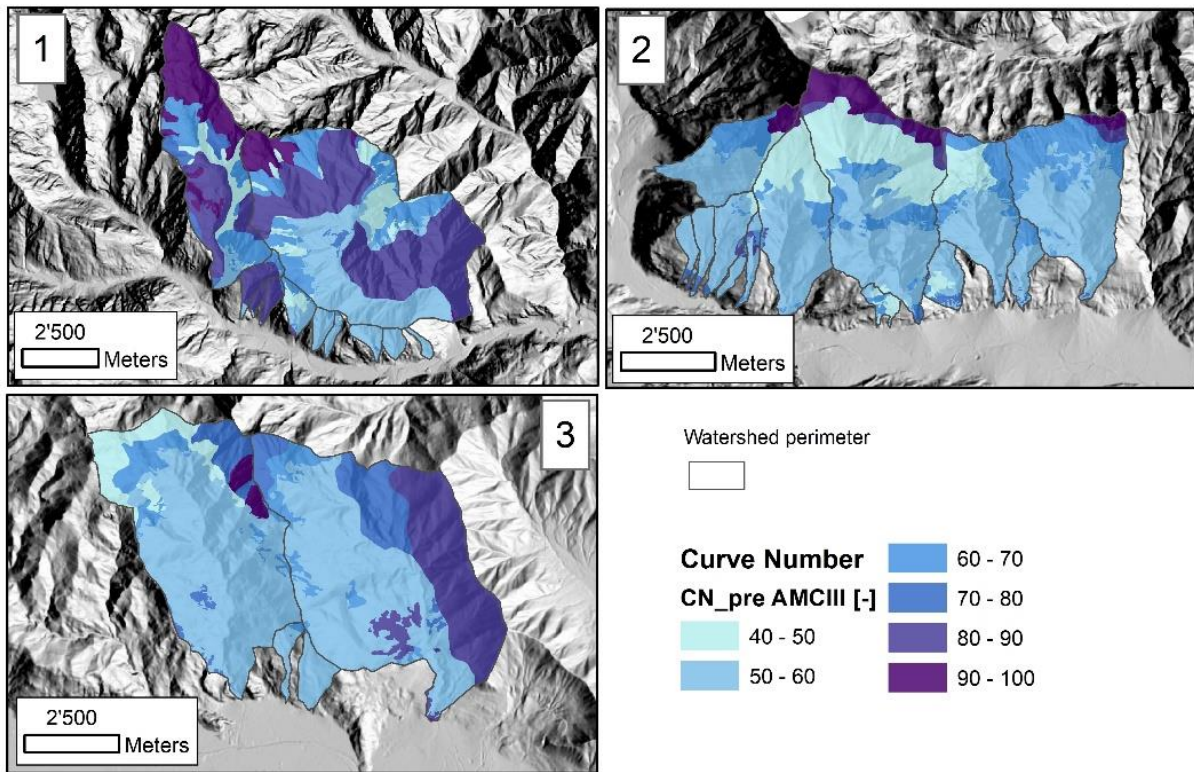


Figure A5.1- Pre-fire value of the Curve Number, CN_{pre} , for the watersheds affected by the Locana/Ribordone (1), Bussoleno/Mompantero (2) and Caprie/Rubiana (3) wildfires.

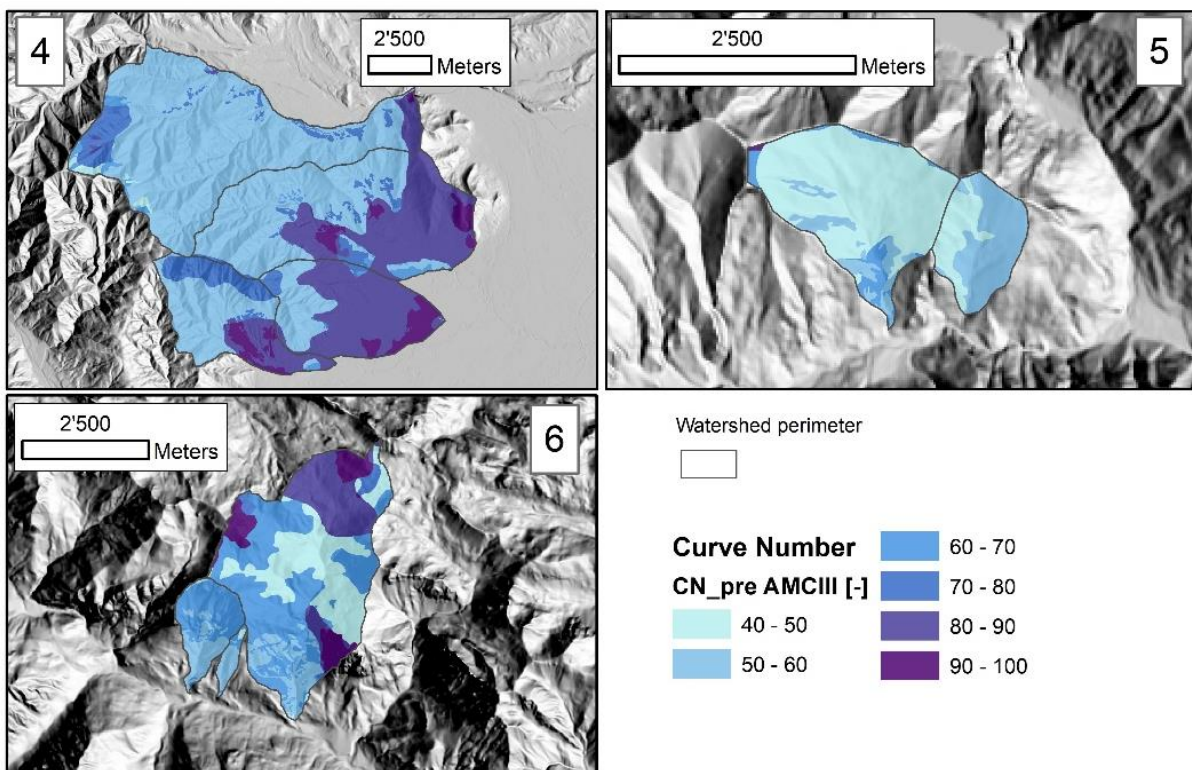


Figure A5.2 - Pre-fire value of the Curve Number, CN_{pre} , for the watersheds affected by the Cumiana/Cantalupa (4), Bellino/Casteldelfino (5) and Sambuco/Pietraporzio (6) wildfires.

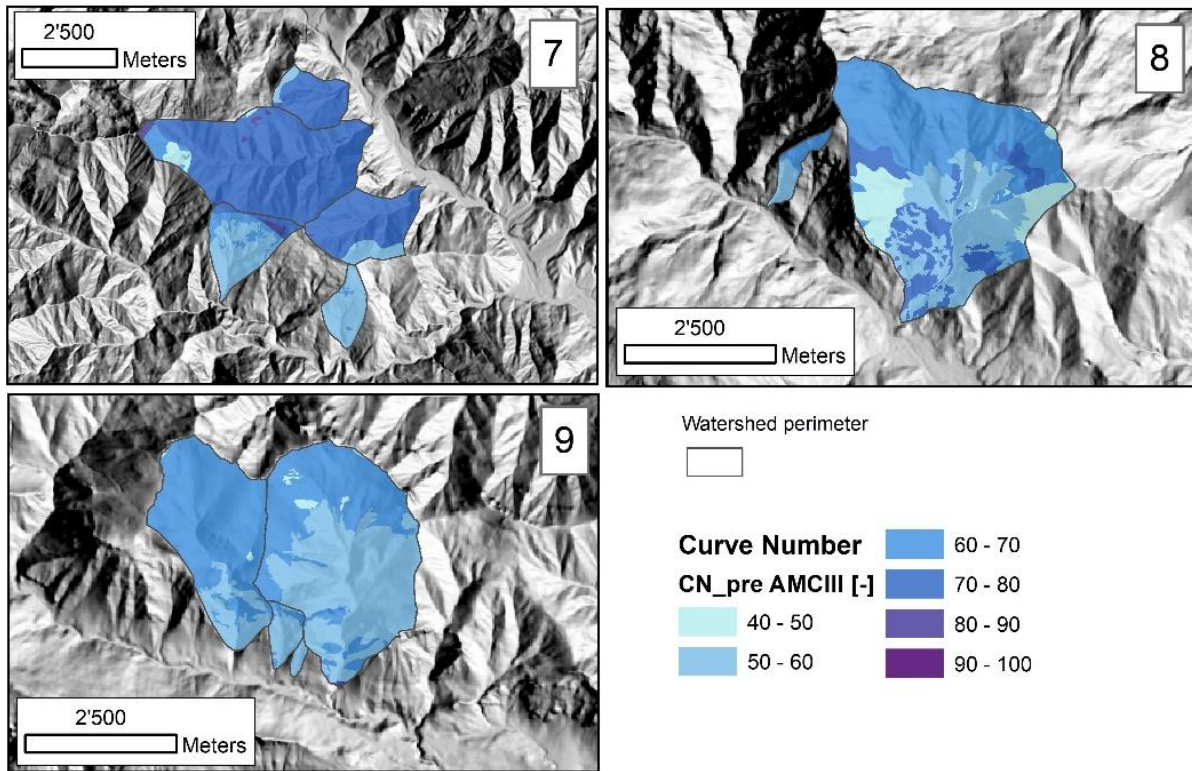


Figure A5.3 - Pre-fire value of the Curve Number, CN_{pre} , for the watersheds affected by the Roure/Perrero (7), Traversella (8) and Demonte (9) wildfires.

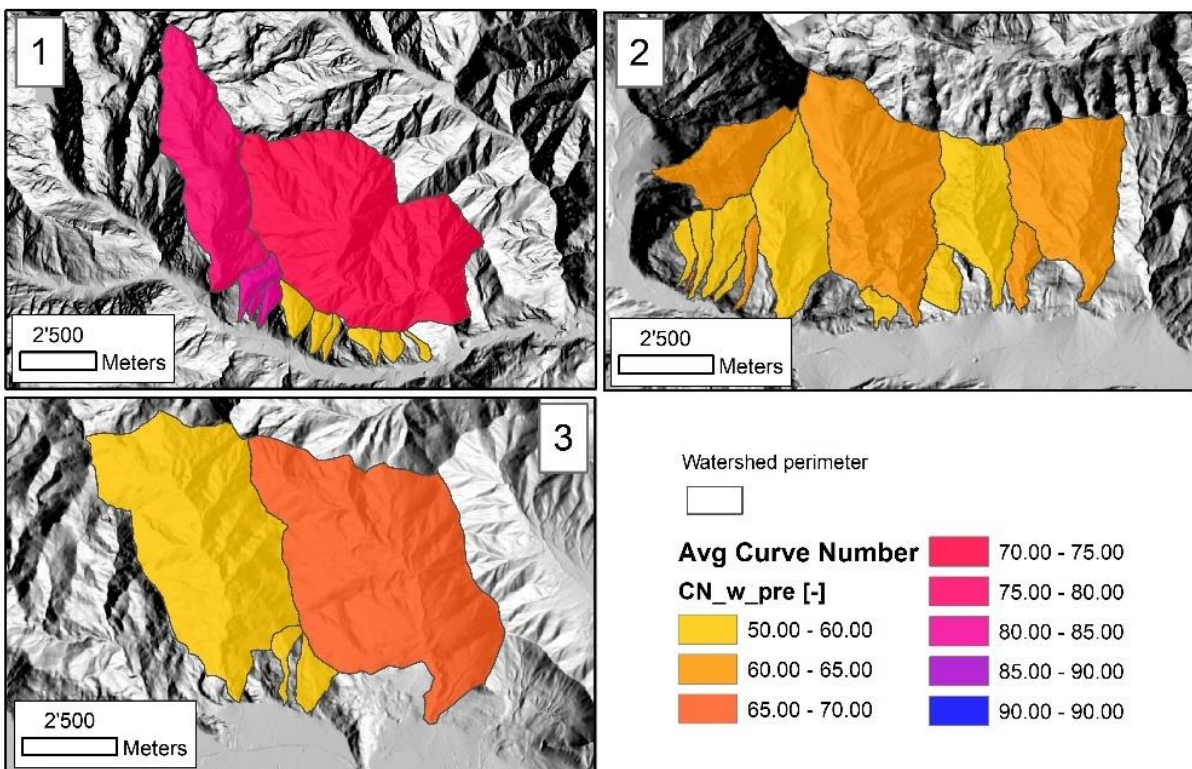


Figure A5.4 - Pre-fire spatially averaged value of the Curve Number, CN_{w_pre} , for the watersheds affected by the Locana/Ribordone (1), Bussoleno/Mompantero (2) and Caprie/Rubiana (3) wildfires.

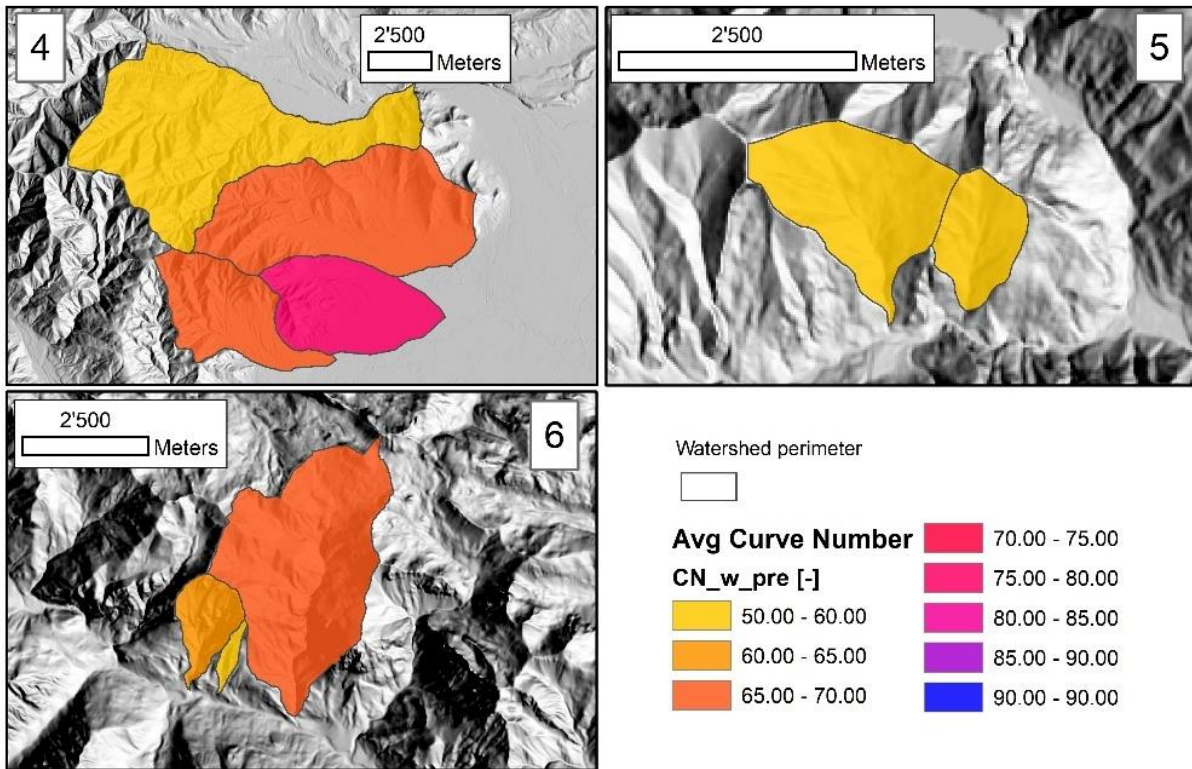


Figure A5.5 - Pre-fire spatially averaged value of the Curve Number, CN_{w_pre} , for the watersheds affected by the Cumiana/Cantalupa (4), Bellino/Casteldelfino (5) and Sambuco/Pietraporzi (6) wildfires.

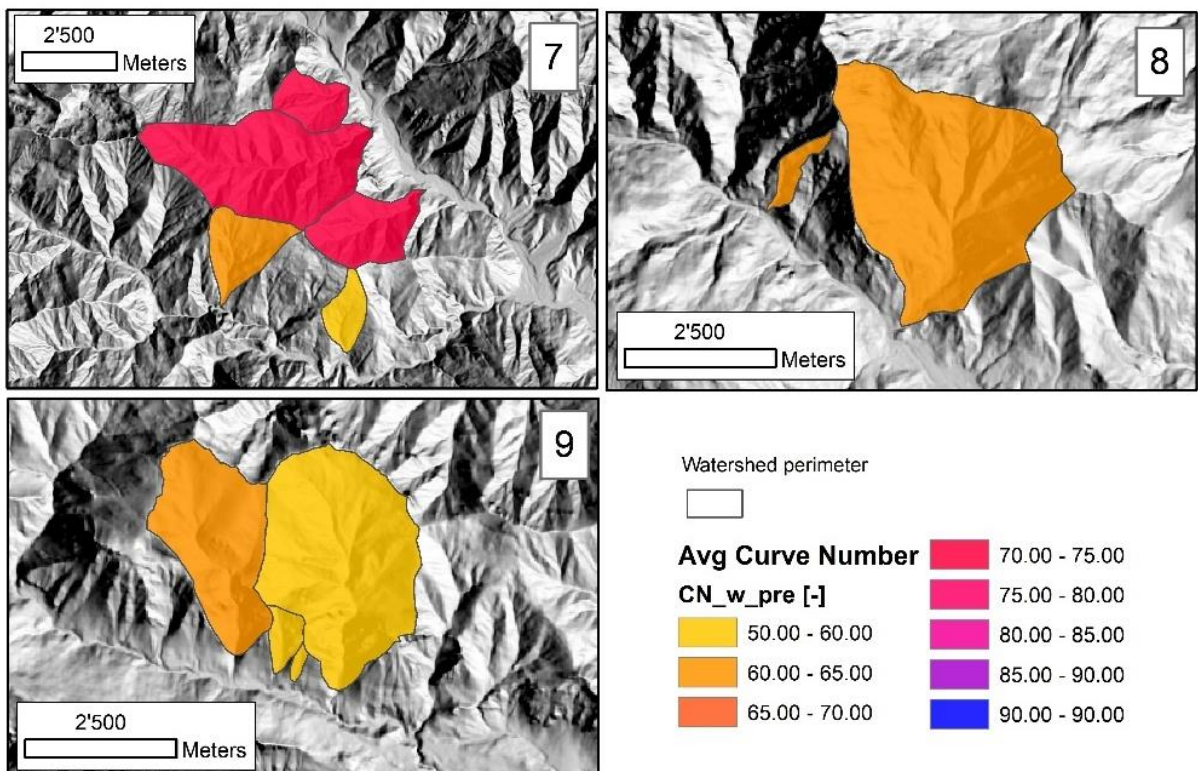


Figure A5.6 - Pre-fire spatially averaged value of the Curve Number, CN_{w_pre} , for the watersheds affected by the Roure/Perrero (7), Traversella (8) and Demonte (9) wildfires.

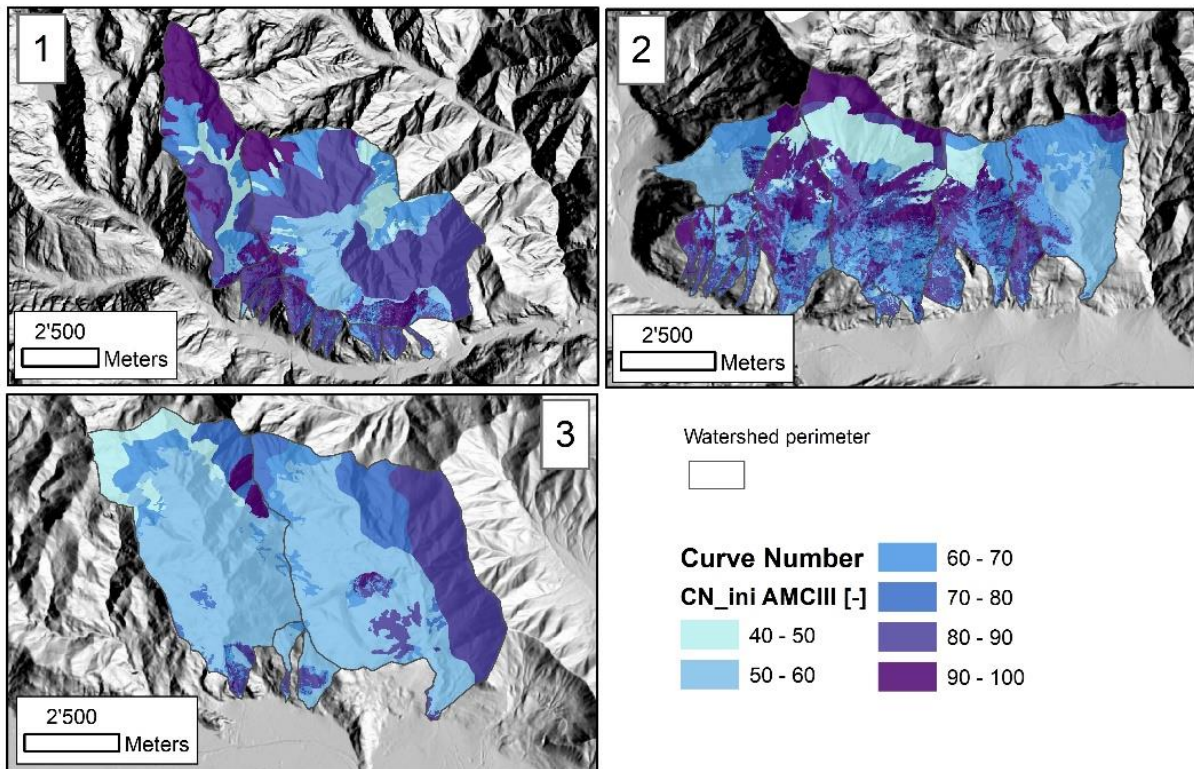


Figure A5.7 - Value of the Curve Number, CN_{ini} , for the watersheds affected by the Locana/Ribordone (1), Bussoleno/Mompantero (2) and Caprie/Rubiana (3) wildfires; post-fire, initial assessment.

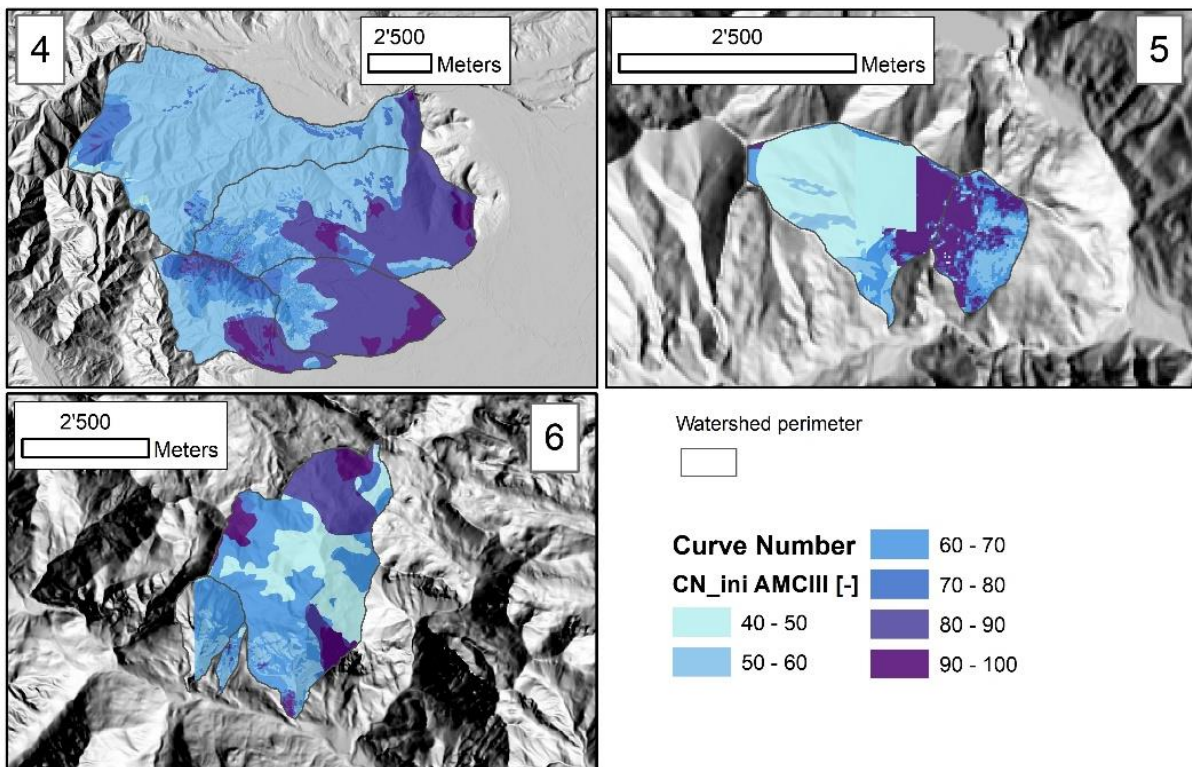


Figure A5.8 - Value of the Curve Number, CN_{ini} , for the watersheds affected by the Cumiana/Cantalupa (4), Bellino/Casteldelfino (5) and Sambuco/Pietraporzio (6) wildfires; post-fire, initial assessment.

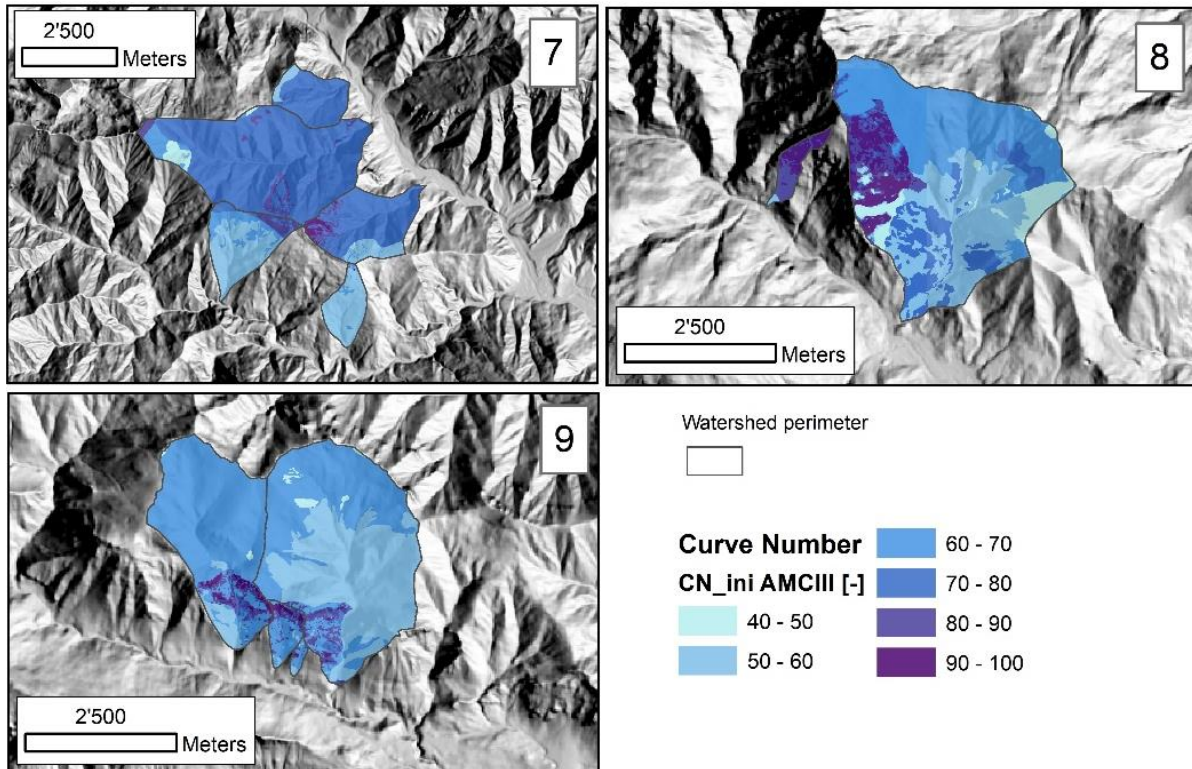


Figure A5.9 - Value of the Curve Number, CN_{ini} , for the watersheds affected by the Roure/Perrero (7), Traversella (8) and Demonte (9) wildfires; post-fire, initial assessment.

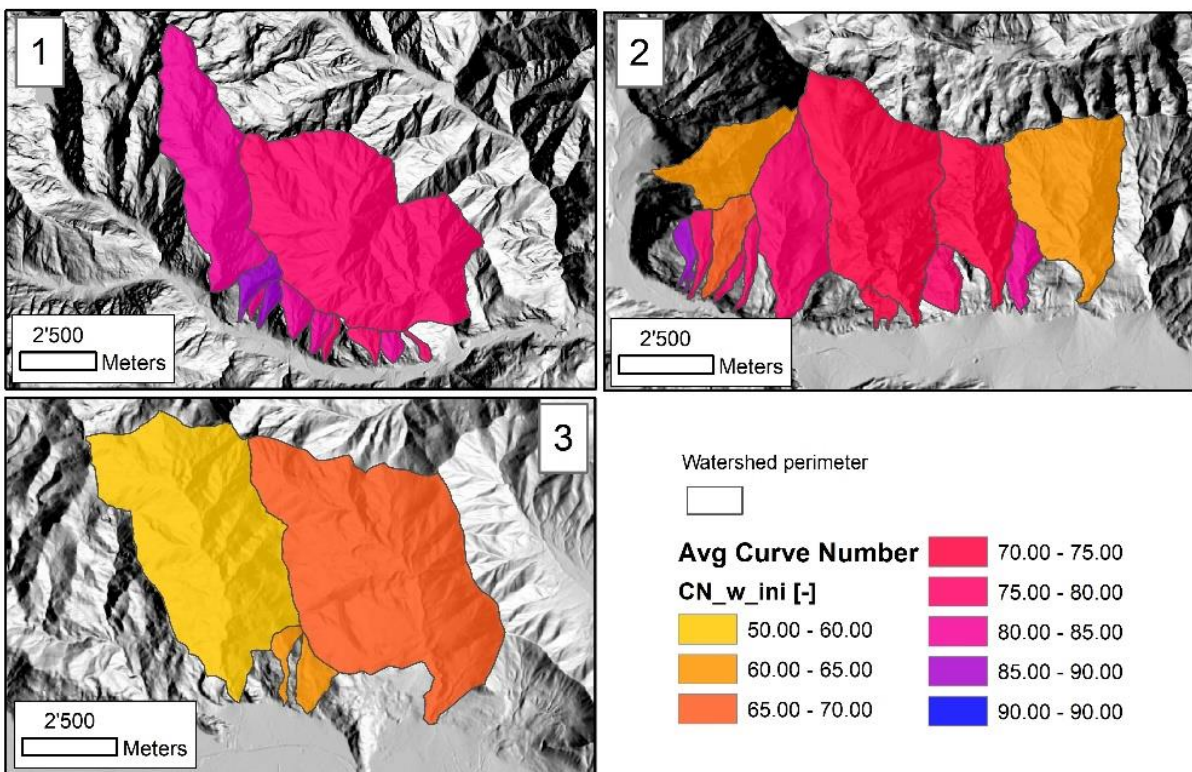


Figure A5.10 - Spatially averaged value of the Curve Number, CN_{w_ini} , for the watersheds affected by the Locana/Ribordone (1), Bussoleno/Mompantero (2) and Caprie/Rubiana (3) wildfires; post-fire, initial assessment.

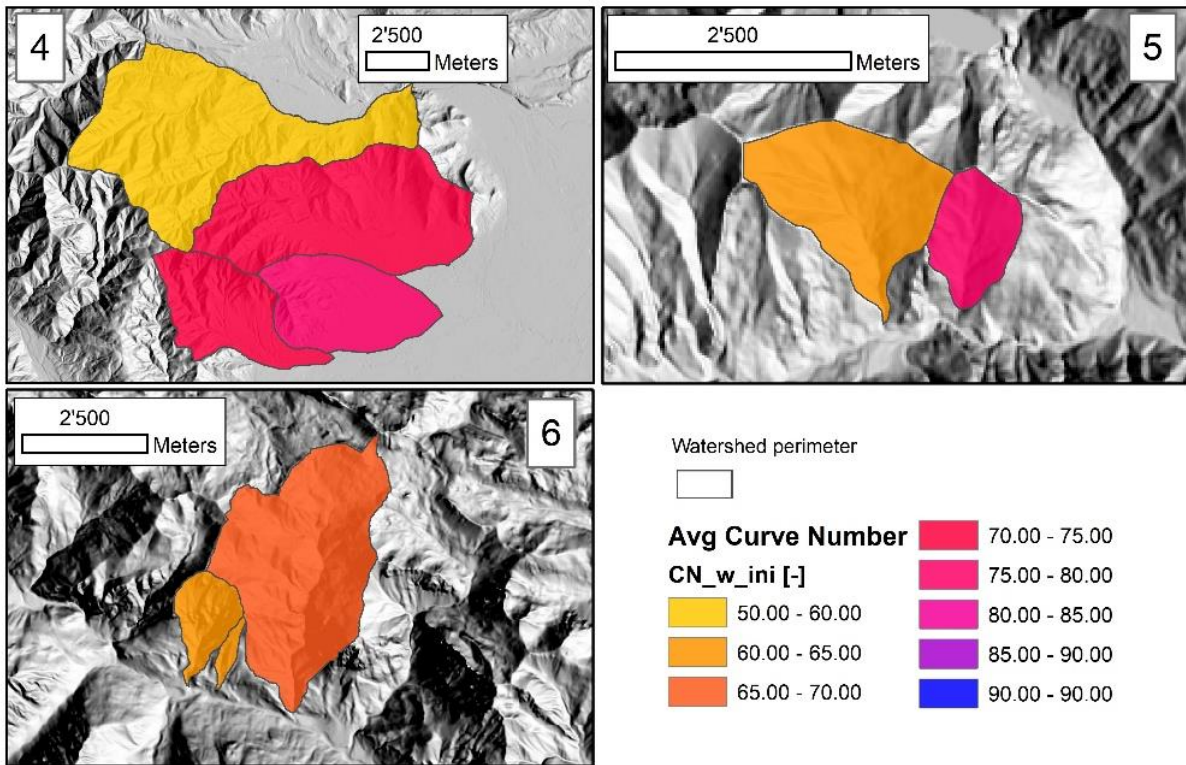


Figure A5.11 - Spatially averaged value of the Curve Number, CN_{w_ini} , for the watersheds affected by the Cumiana/Cantalupa (4), Bellino/Casteldelfino (5) and Sambuco/Pietraporziò (6) wildfires; post-fire, initial assessment.

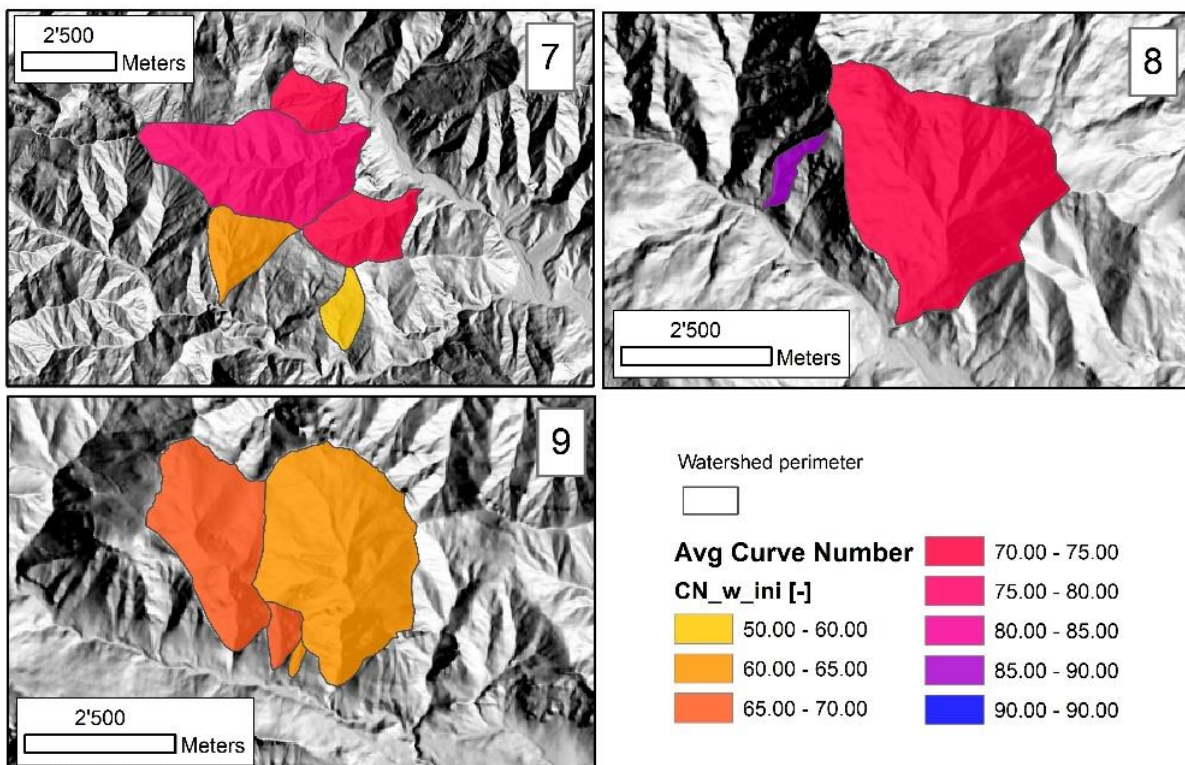


Figure A5.12 - Spatially averaged value of the Curve Number, CN_{w_ini} , for the watersheds affected by the Roure/Perrero (7), Traversella (8) and Demonte (9) wildfires; post-fire, initial assessment.

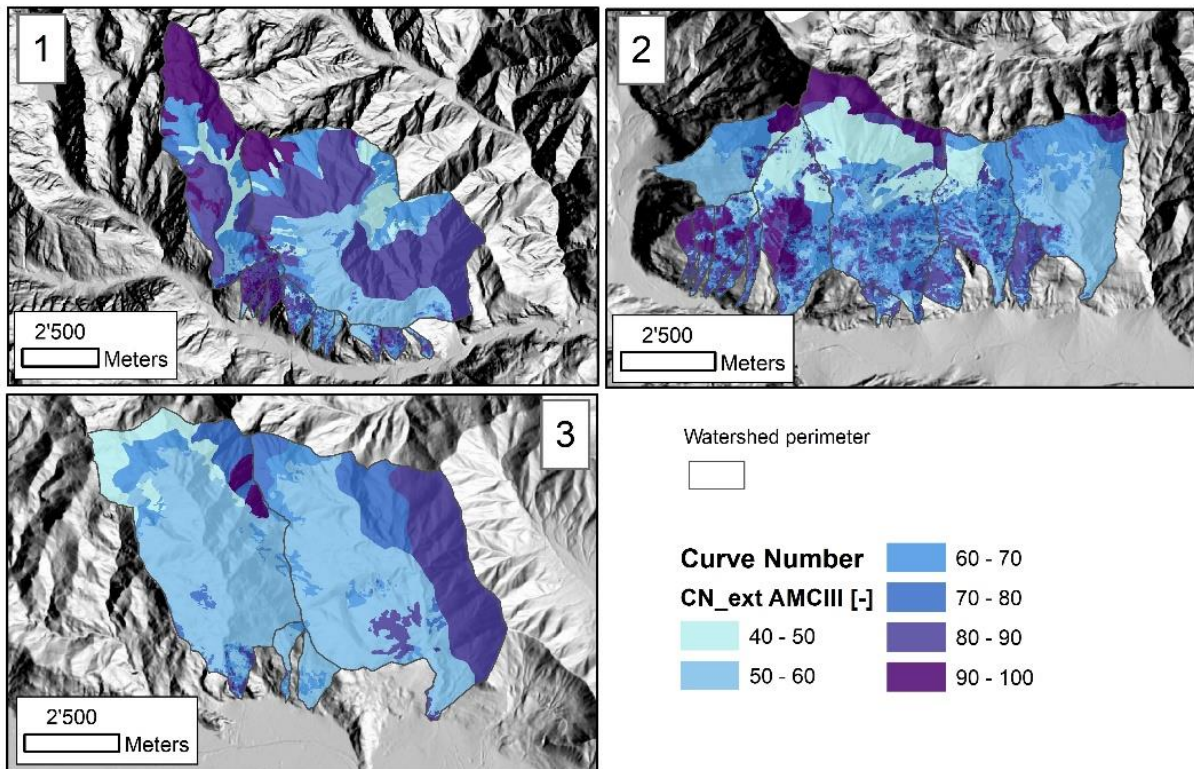


Figure A5.13 - Value of the Curve Number, CN_{ext} for the watersheds affected by the Locana/Ribordone (1), Bussoleno/Mompantero (2) and Caprie/Rubiana (3) wildfires; post-fire, extended assessment.

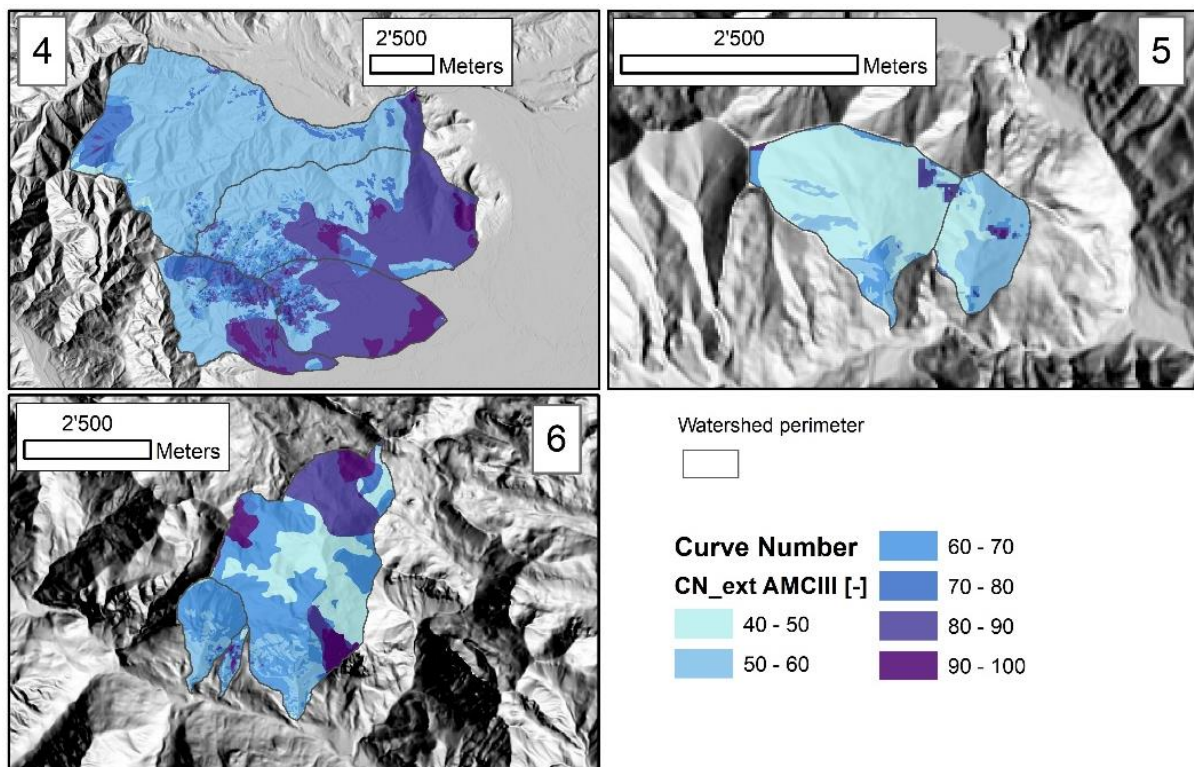


Figure A5.14 - Value of the Curve Number, CN_{ext} for the watersheds affected by the Cumiana/Cantalupa (4), Bellino/Casteldelfino (5) and Sambuco/Pietraporzio (6) wildfires; post-fire, extended assessment.

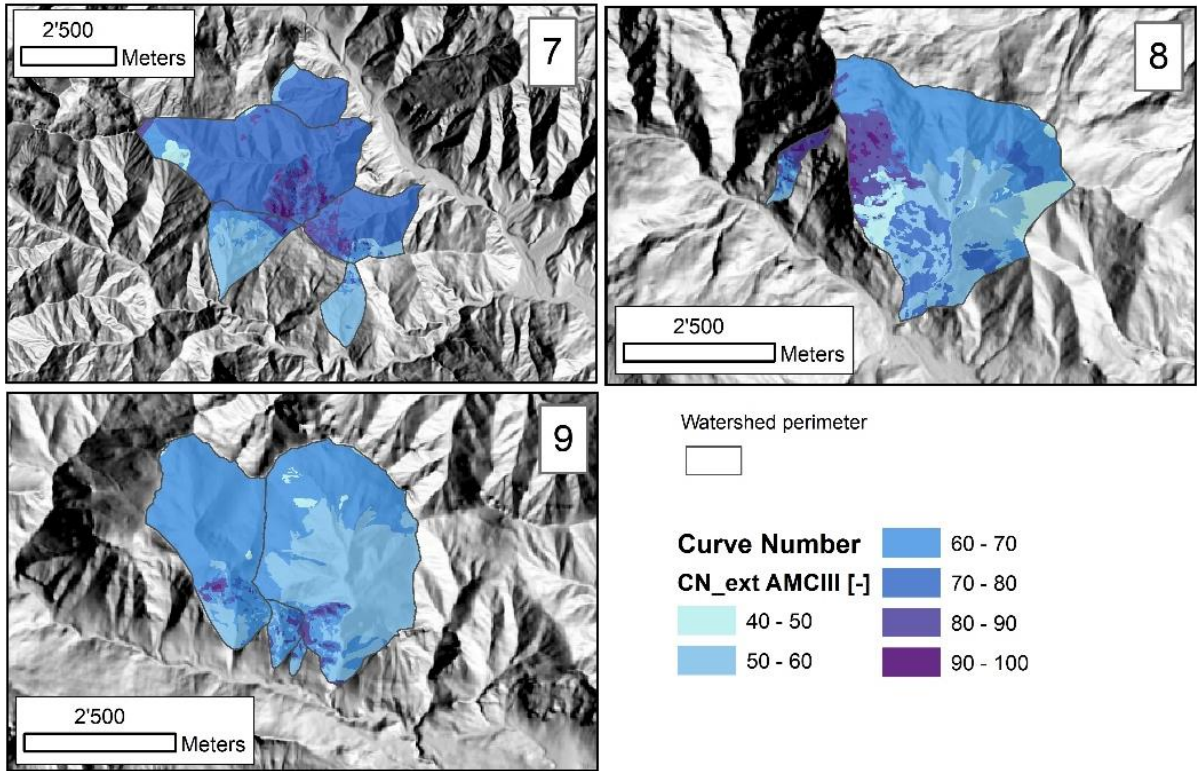


Figure A5.15 - Value of the Curve Number, CN_{ext} , for the watersheds affected by the Roure/Perrero (7), Traversella (8) and Demonte (9) wildfires; post-fire, extended assessment.

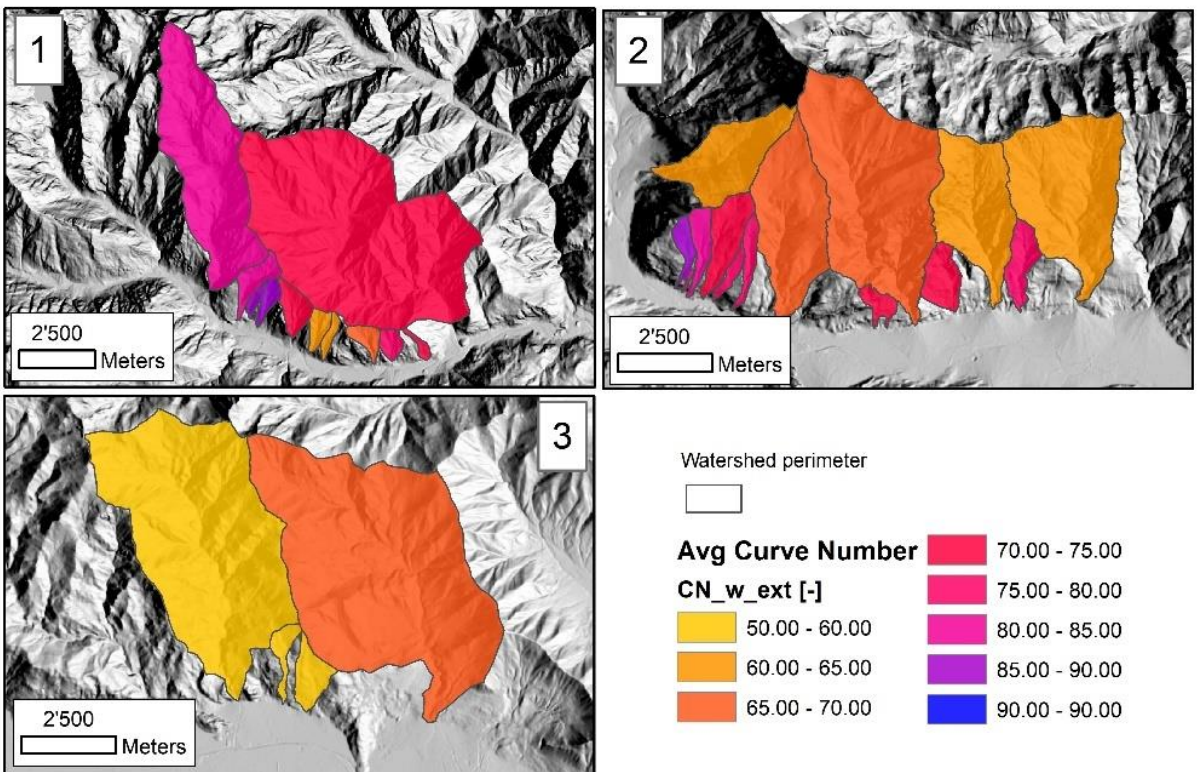


Figure A5.16 – Spatially averaged value of the Curve Number, CN_{w_ext} , for the watersheds affected by the Locana/Ribordone (1), Bussoleno/Mompantero (2) and Caprie/Rubiana (3) wildfires; post-fire, extended assessment.

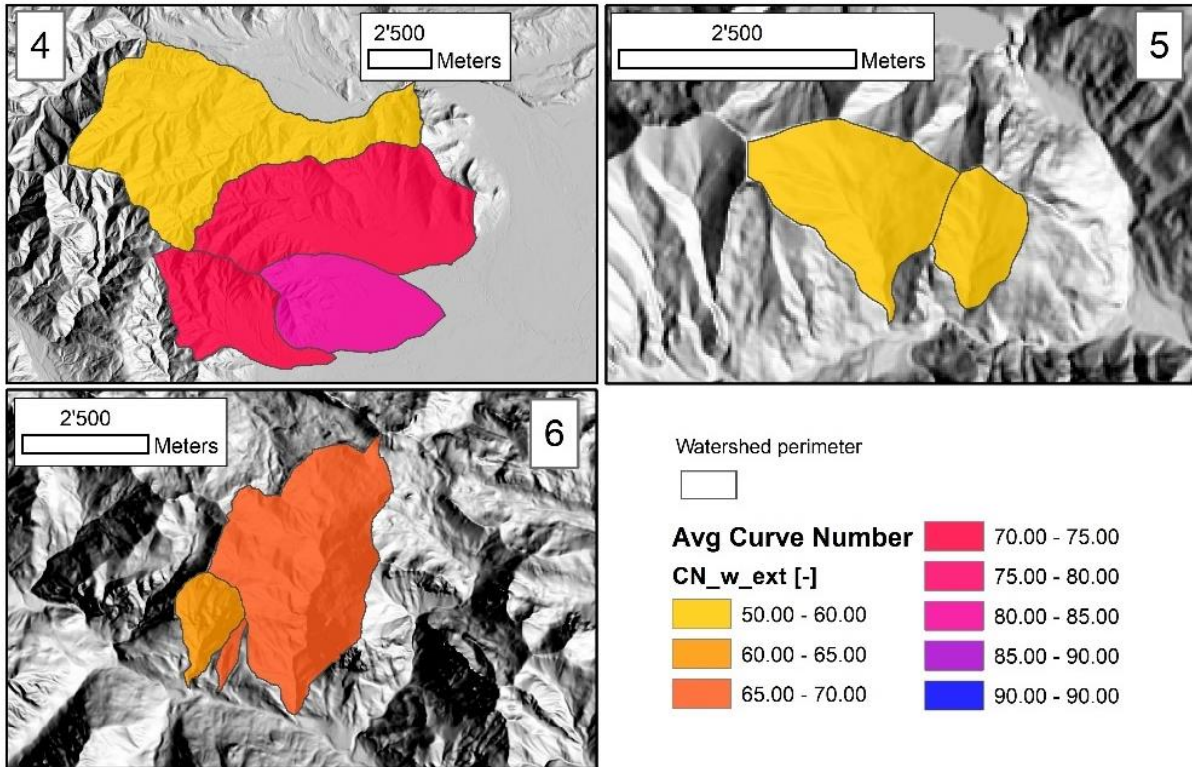


Figure A5.17 – Spatially averaged value of the Curve Number, CN_{w_ext} for the watersheds affected by the Cumiana/Cantalupa (4), Bellino/Casteldelfino (5) and Sambuco/Pietraporzio (6) wildfires; post-fire, extended assessment.

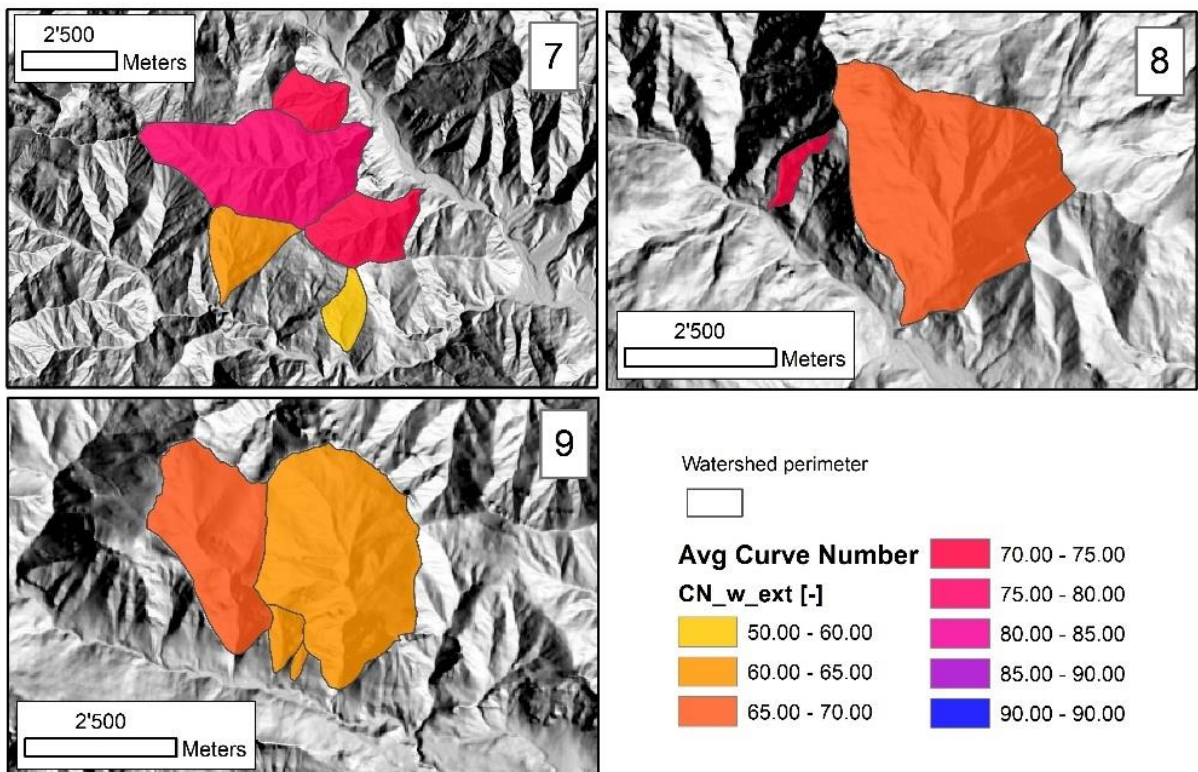


Figure A5.18 – Spatially averaged value of the Curve Number, CN_{w_ext} for the watersheds affected by the Roure/Perrero (7), Traversella (8) and Demonte (9) wildfires; post-fire, extended assessment.

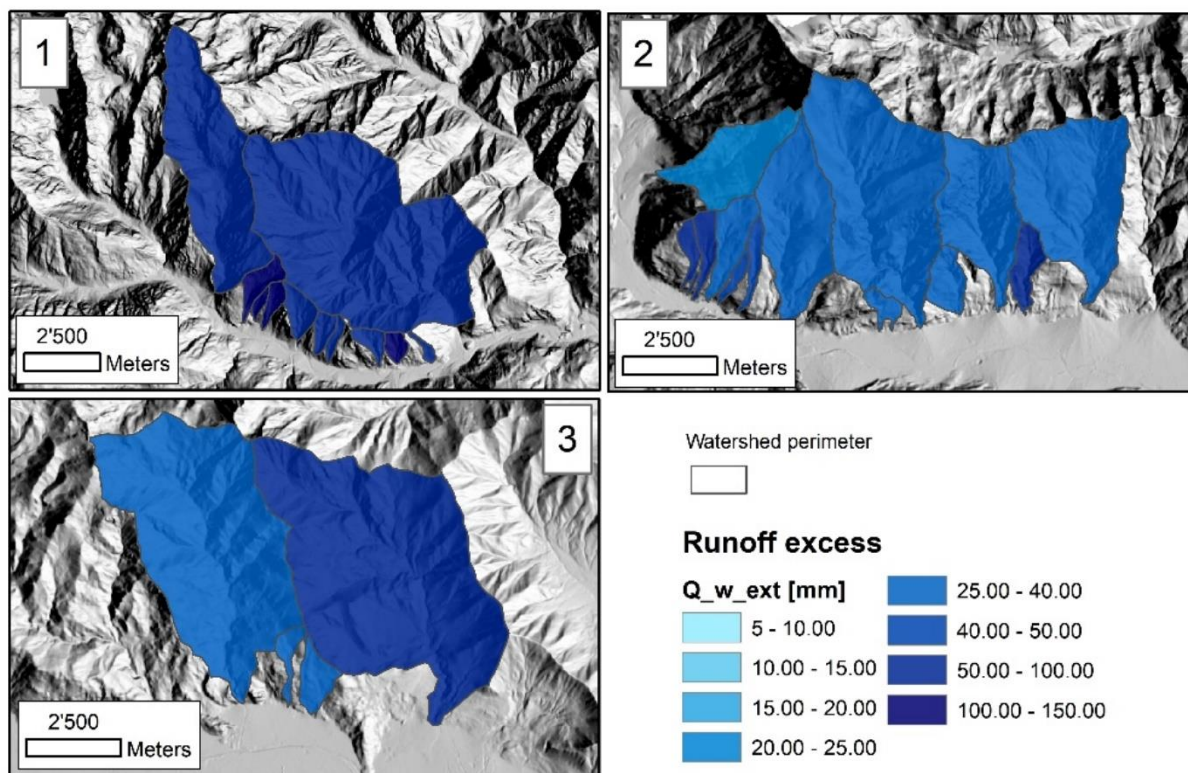


Figure A5.19 – Excess runoff depth Q_{w_ext} for the watersheds affected by the Locana/Ribordone (1), Bussoleno/Mompantero (2) and Caprie/Rubiana (3) wildfires; post-fire, extended assessment.

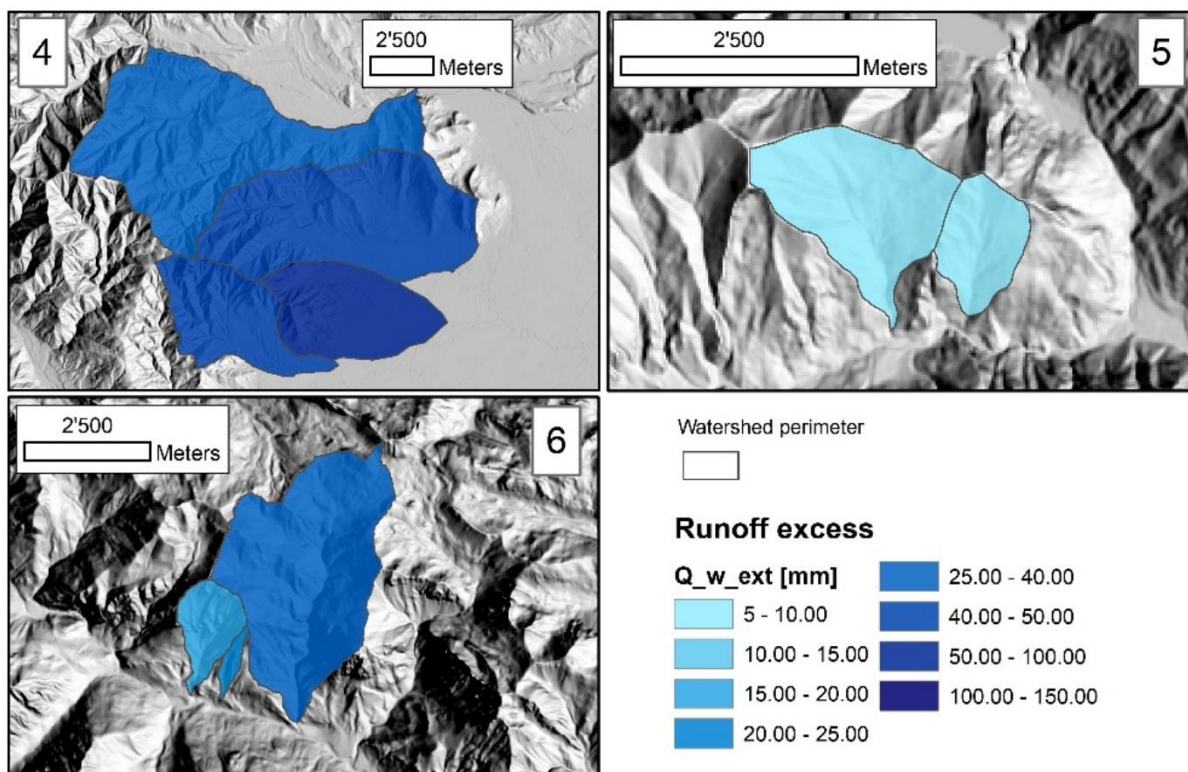


Figure A5.20 – Excess runoff depth Q_{w_ext} for the watersheds affected by the Cumiana/Cantalupa (4), Bellino/Casteldelfino (5) and Sambuco/Pietraporzio (6) wildfires; post-fire, extended assessment.

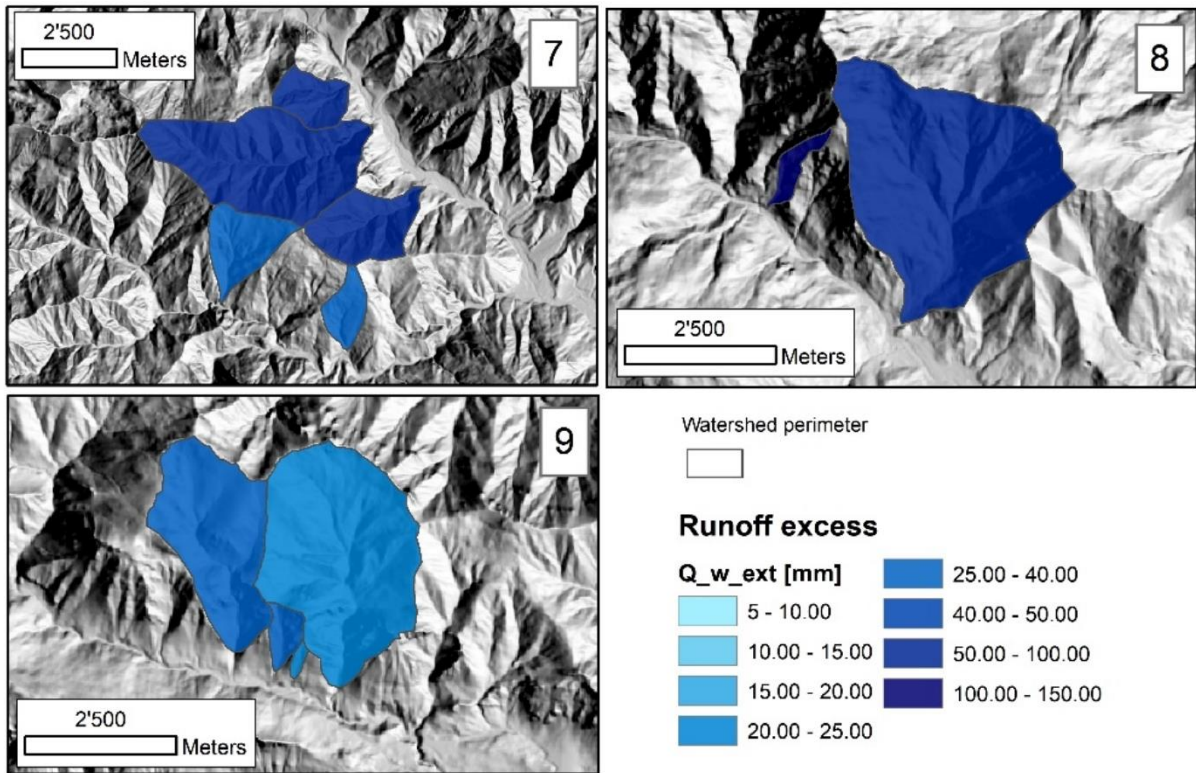


Figure A5.21 – Excess runoff depth Q_{w_ext} for the watersheds affected by the Roure/Perrero (7), Traversella (8) and Demonte (9) wildfires; post-fire, extended assessment.

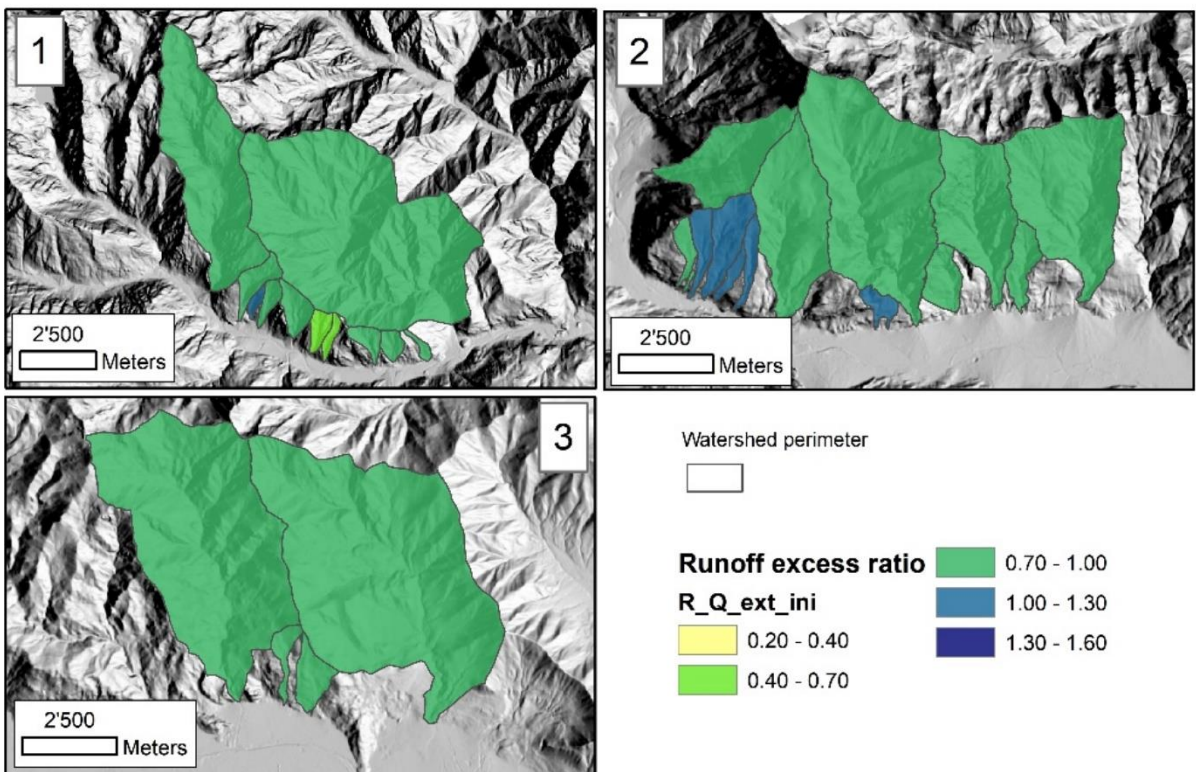


Figure A5.22 – Runoff excess relative ratio, $R_{Q_ext_ini}$, between extended assessment and initial assessment for the watersheds affected by the Locana/Ribordone (1), Bussoleno/Mompantero (2) and Caprie/Rubiana (3) wildfires.

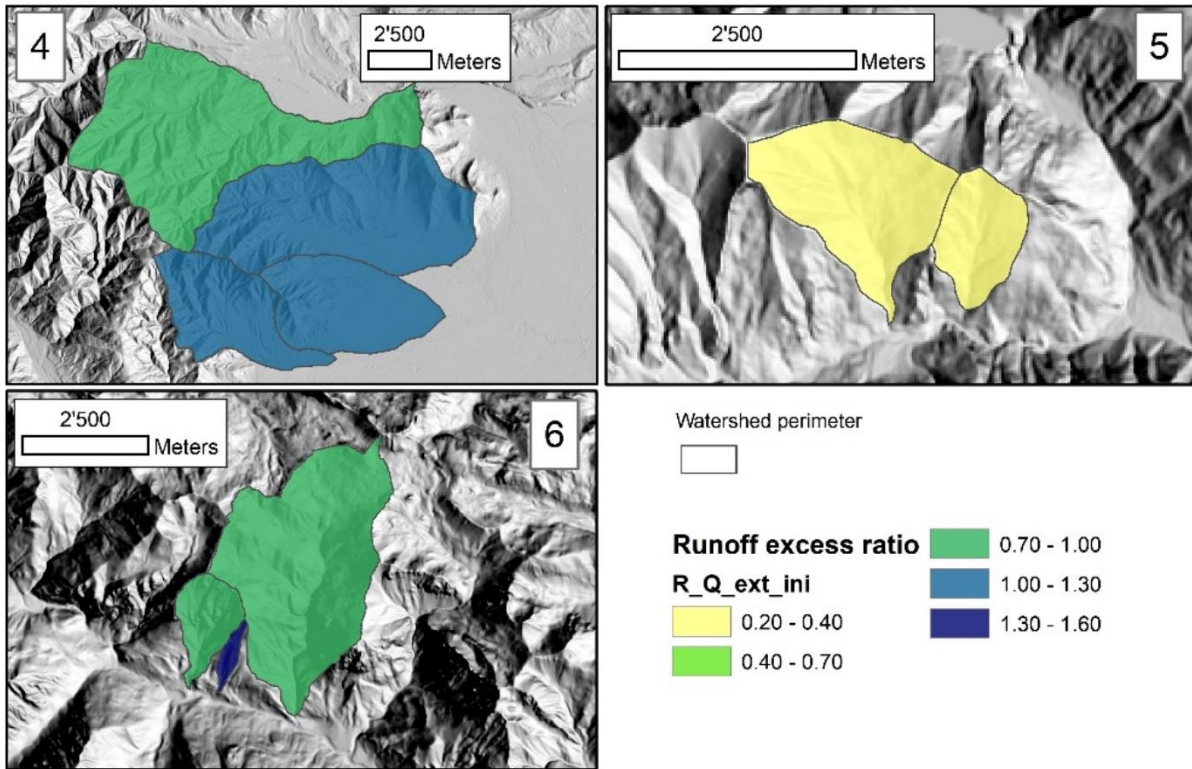


Figure A5.23 – Runoff excess relative ratio, $R_{Q_ext_ini}$, between extended assessment and initial assessment situation for the watersheds affected by the Cumiana/Cantalupa (4), Bellino/Casteldelfino (5) and Sambuco/Pietraporzio (6) wildfires.

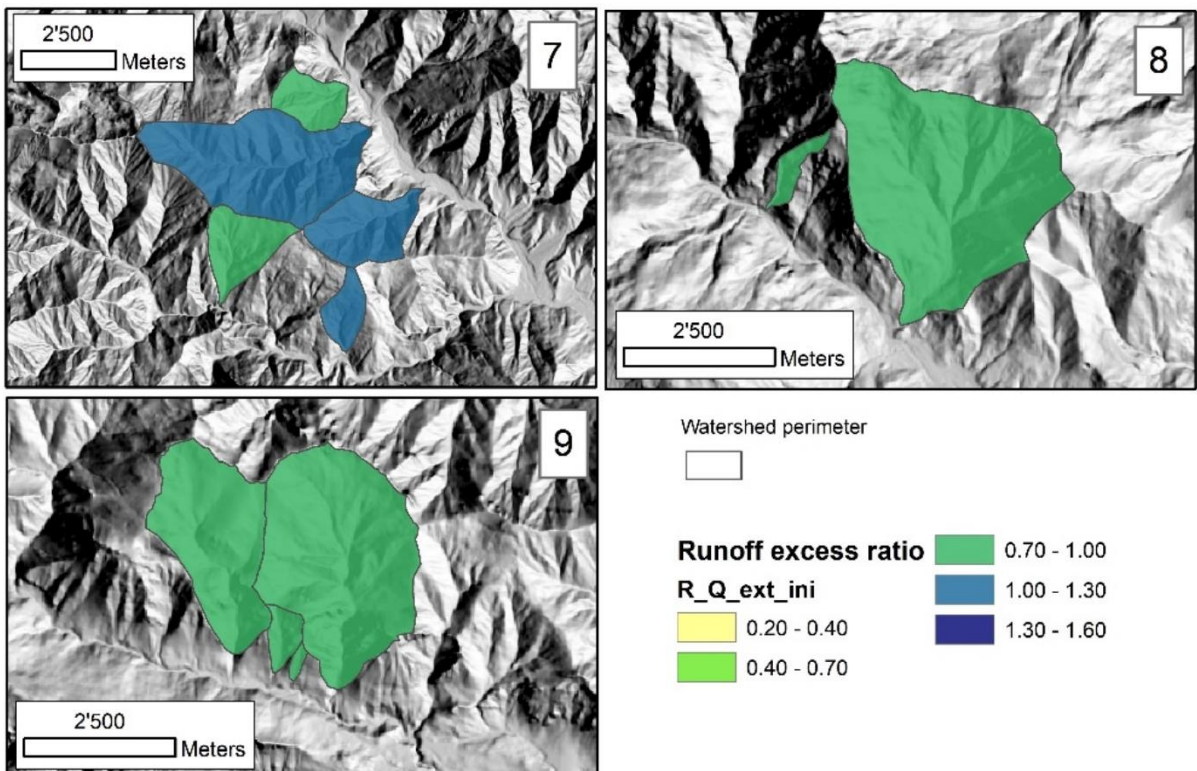


Figure A5.24 – Runoff excess relative ratio, $R_{Q_ext_ini}$, between extended assessment and initial assessment for the watersheds affected by the Roure/Perrero (7), Traversella (8) and Demonte (9) wildfires.

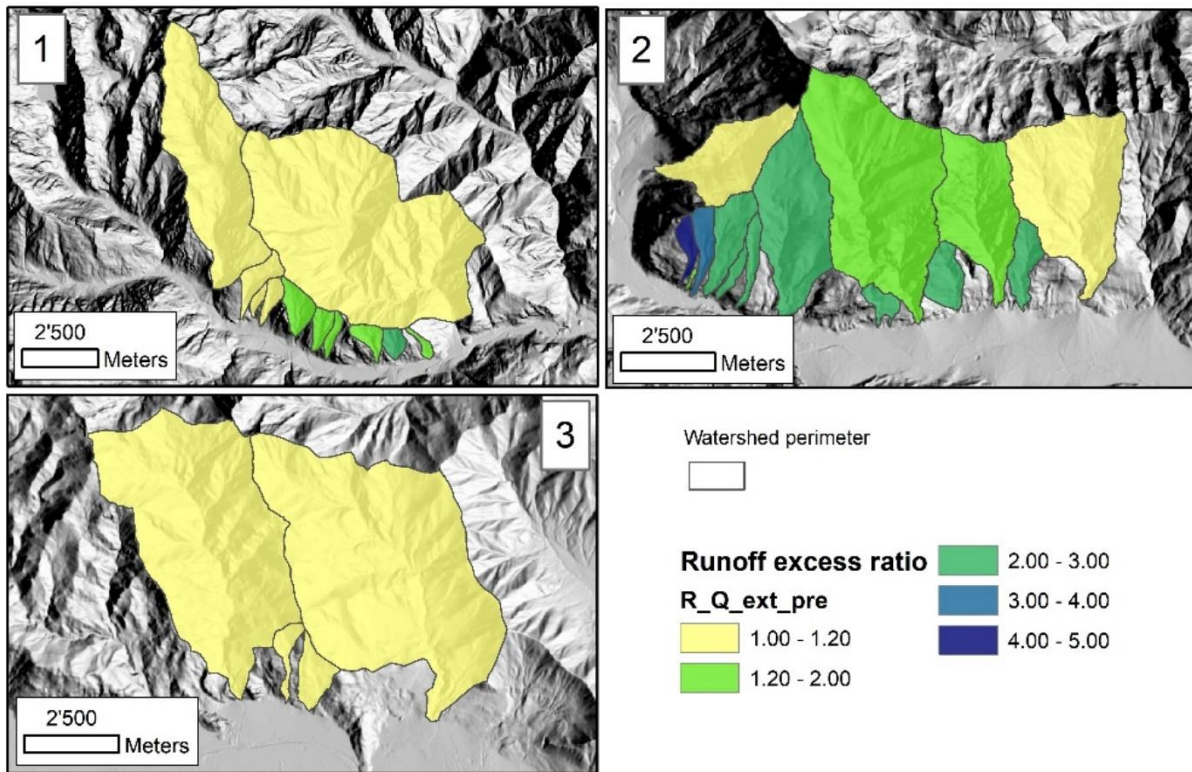


Figure A5.25 – Runoff excess relative ratio, $R_{Q_ext_pre}$, between post-fire (extended assessment) and pre-fire situation for the watersheds affected by the Locana/Ribordone (1), Bussoleno/Mompantero (2) and Caprie/Rubiana (3) wildfires.

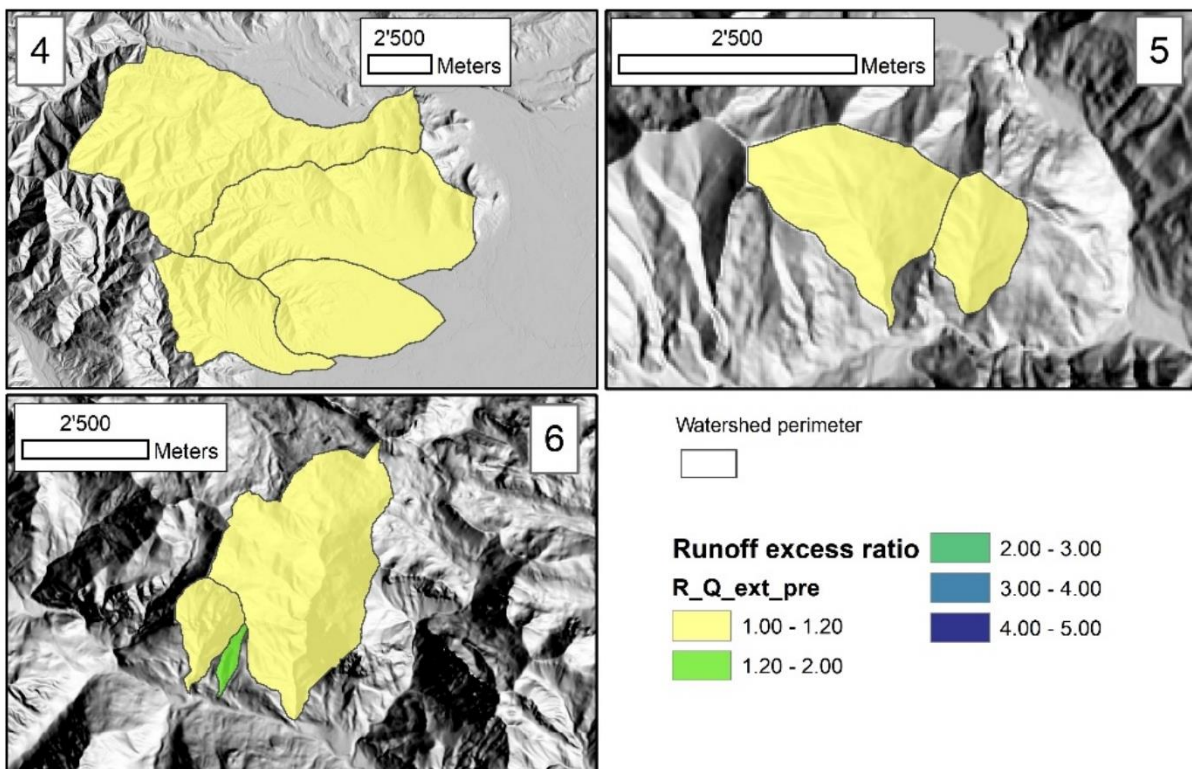


Figure A5.26 – Runoff excess relative ratio, $R_{Q_ext_pre}$, between post-fire (extended assessment) and pre-fire situation for the watersheds affected by the Cumiana/Cantalupa (4), Bellino/Casteldelfino (5) and Sambuco/Pietraporzio (6) wildfires.

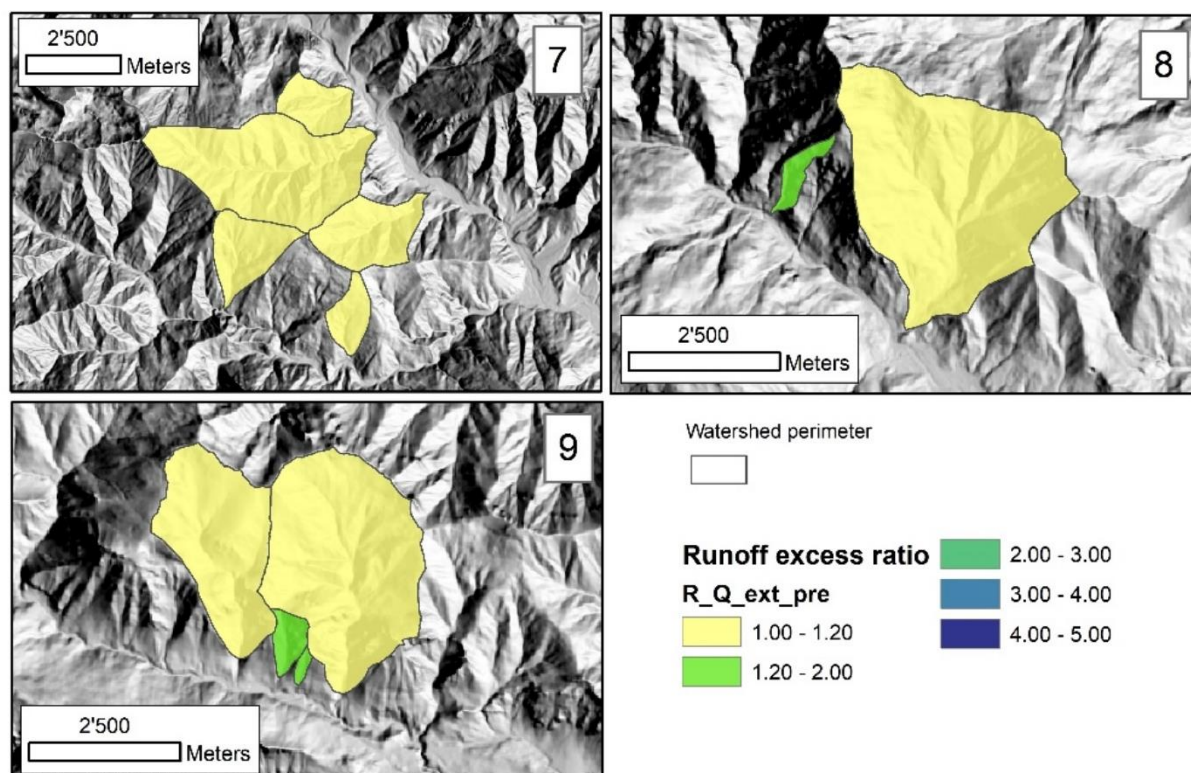


Figure A5.27 – Runoff excess relative ratio, $R_{Q_ext_pre}$, between post-fire (extended assessment) and pre-fire situation for the watersheds affected by the Roure/Perrero (7), Traversella (8) and Demonte (9) wildfires.

Table A5.1 – Excess runoff depth and pre/post-fire relative ratios for the watersheds affected by the Locana/Ribordone wildfire.

Fire n. 1		LOCANA/RIBORDONE				
Watershed	Q_{w_pre}	Q_{w_ini}	Q_{w_ext}	$R_{Q_ini_pre}$	$R_{Q_ext_pre}$	$R_{Q_ext_ini}$
	[mm]	[mm]	[mm]	[-]	[-]	[-]
Rio Fura	113.78	125.39	122.22	1.10	1.07	0.97
Rio Di Chioso Bosco	54.75	112.29	81.41	2.05	1.49	0.73
R. Montepiano	117.42	118.65	122.33	1.01	1.04	1.03
Carlevaria	53.66	120.51	75.50	2.25	1.41	0.63
Rio Di Bardonetto Inferiore	55.55	116.62	73.48	2.10	1.32	0.63
Ribordone	90.27	96.13	91.48	1.06	1.01	0.95
Eugio	96.64	100.50	98.94	1.04	1.02	0.98
Rio Bocchetta	54.59	127.67	96.43	2.34	1.77	0.76
Rio Di Calsazio	51.31	119.03	108.16	2.32	2.11	0.91
Locana Est	123.60	130.95	130.76	1.06	1.06	1.00
Apparè	51.12	104.09	95.49	2.04	1.87	0.92
Mean	78.43	115.62	99.65	1.67	1.38	0.86

Table A5.2 - Excess runoff depth and pre/post-fire relative ratios for the watersheds affected by the Bussoleno/Mompantero wildfire.

Fire n. 2		BUSSOLENO/MOMPANTERO				
Watershed	Q_w_pre	Q_w_ini	Q_w_ext	R_Q_ini_pre	R_Q_ext_pre	R_Q_ext_ini
	[mm]	[mm]	[mm]	[-]	[-]	[-]
Crosiglione	20.88	23.51	22.87	1.13	1.09	0.97
Rio Della Ravoire	14.65	64.82	63.41	4.42	4.33	0.98
Fogasso	14.45	32.46	37.98	2.25	2.63	1.17
Rio Della Codrea	14.06	45.70	53.83	3.25	3.83	1.18
Trinità	15.04	40.52	41.39	2.69	2.75	1.02
Rio Prebech	26.22	30.81	28.11	1.17	1.07	0.91
Moletta	18.84	40.90	29.46	2.17	1.56	0.72
Rio Di Periere	20.27	42.75	47.42	2.11	2.34	1.11
Ravera	15.33	43.06	37.93	2.81	2.47	0.88
Comba Delle Foglie	20.90	57.63	52.54	2.76	2.51	0.91
Rocciamelone	23.73	41.14	32.08	1.73	1.35	0.78
Giandula	13.16	44.56	31.45	3.39	2.39	0.71
I Piani	12.20	33.12	33.29	2.72	2.73	1.01
San Giuseppe	29.09	57.90	53.64	1.99	1.84	0.93
Mean	18.49	42.78	40.39	2.47	2.35	0.95

Table A5.3 - Excess runoff depth and pre/post-fire relative ratios for the watersheds affected by the Caprie/Rubiana wildfire.

Fire n. 3		CAPRIE/RUBIANA				
Watershed	Q_w_pre	Q_w_ini	Q_w_ext	R_Q_ini_pre	R_Q_ext_pre	R_Q_ext_ini
	[mm]	[mm]	[mm]	[-]	[-]	[-]
Messa	59.19	60.14	59.27	1.02	1.00	0.99
Sessi	36.80	38.00	37.53	1.03	1.02	0.99
Novaretto	28.93	43.41	30.78	1.50	1.06	0.71
Fra Barbe	32.11	40.77	34.97	1.27	1.09	0.86
Mean	39.26	45.58	40.64	1.21	1.04	0.89

Table A5.4 - Excess runoff depth and pre/post-fire relative ratios for the watersheds affected by the Cumiana/Cantalupa wildfire.

Fire n. 4		CUMIANA/CANTALUPA				
Watershed	Q_w_pre	Q_w_ini	Q_w_ext	R_Q_ini_pre	R_Q_ext_pre	R_Q_ext_ini
	[mm]	[mm]	[mm]	[-]	[-]	[-]
1*Int. Dx. Sangone	37.17	37.55	37.41	1.01	1.01	1.00
T. Chisola	38.69	40.22	40.58	1.04	1.05	1.01
T. Noce	44.22	47.86	49.12	1.08	1.11	1.03
Chisola Pianura	51.15	52.95	57.40	1.04	1.12	1.08
Mean	42.81	44.65	46.13	1.04	1.07	1.03

Table A5.5 - Excess runoff depth and pre/post-fire relative ratios for the watersheds affected by the Bellino/Casteldelfino wildfire.

Fire n. 5		BELLINO/CASTELDELFINO				
Watershed	Q_w_pre	Q_w_ini	Q_w_ext	R_Q_ini_pre	R_Q_ext_pre	R_Q_ext_ini
	[mm]	[mm]	[mm]	[-]	[-]	[-]
Cumbal Della Comu	6.35	31.40	7.57	4.94	1.19	0.24
T. Mas Del Bernard	5.71	16.80	6.44	2.94	1.13	0.38
Mean	6.03	24.10	7.01	3.94	1.16	0.31

Table A5.6 - Excess runoff depth and pre/post-fire relative ratios for the watersheds affected by the Sambuco/Pietraporzio wildfire.

Fire n. 6		SAMBUCO/PIETRAPORZIO				
Watershed	Q_w_pre	Q_w_ini	Q_w_ext	R_Q_ini_pre	R_Q_ext_pre	R_Q_ext_ini
	[mm]	[mm]	[mm]	[-]	[-]	[-]
R. Bianco	26.81	27.33	26.87	1.02	1.00	0.98
Sn	12.36	16.55	22.55	1.34	1.82	1.36
Rio Di Castello Pietraporzio	19.04	19.51	19.48	1.02	1.02	1.00
Mean	19.40	21.13	22.97	1.13	1.28	1.11

Table A5.7 - Excess runoff depth and pre/post-fire relative ratios for the watersheds affected by the Roure/Perrero wildfire.

Fire n. 7		ROURE/PERRERO				
Watershed	Q_w_pre	Q_w_ini	Q_w_ext	R_Q_ini_pre	R_Q_ext_pre	R_Q_ext_ini
	[mm]	[mm]	[mm]	[-]	[-]	[-]
V.Ne Di Borsetto	61.81	63.78	65.05	1.03	1.05	1.02
S. Martino Sud	26.48	26.74	27.92	1.01	1.05	1.04
Colet	54.20	54.26	54.25	1.00	1.00	1.00
Molotta	38.69	39.13	39.00	1.01	1.01	1.00
Gernier	56.20	60.16	62.59	1.07	1.11	1.04
Mean	47.48	48.81	49.76	1.02	1.04	1.02

Table A5.8 - Excess runoff depth and pre/post-fire relative ratios for the watersheds affected by the Traversella wildfire.

Fire n. 8		TRAVERSELLA				
Watershed	Q_w_pre	Q_w_ini	Q_w_ext	R_Q_ini_pre	R_Q_ext_pre	R_Q_ext_ini
	[mm]	[mm]	[mm]	[-]	[-]	[-]
T. Bersella	59.48	81.67	64.90	1.37	1.09	0.79
Valle Chiara Primo	66.33	136.67	100.99	2.06	1.52	0.74
Mean	62.91	109.17	82.95	1.72	1.31	0.77

Table A5.9 - Excess runoff depth and pre/post-fire relative ratios for the watersheds affected by the Demonte wildfire.

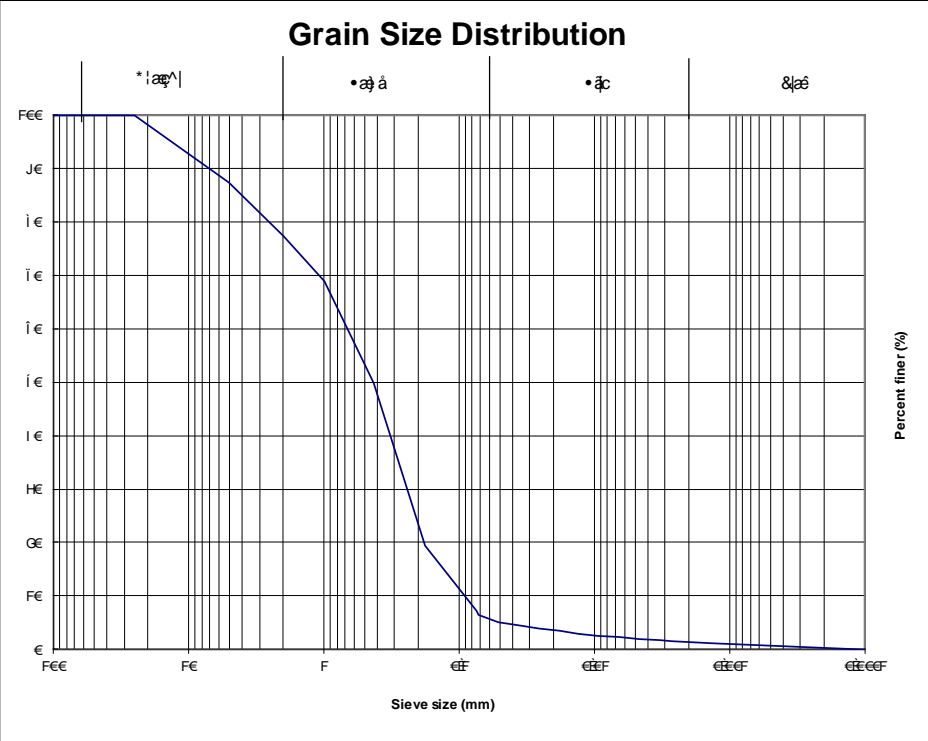
Fire n. 9	DEMONTE					
Watershed	Q_w_pre	Q_w_ini	Q_w_ext	R_Q_ini_pre	R_Q_ext_pre	R_Q_ext_ini
	[mm]	[mm]	[mm]	[-]	[-]	[-]
V. Del Saut	30.26	33.95	31.77	1.12	1.05	0.94
Valle Di Monfreis	22.48	24.10	23.58	1.07	1.05	0.98
Sn 2	15.37	25.94	22.62	1.69	1.47	0.87
Rio Di Prafioret C.	19.33	36.18	29.29	1.87	1.52	0.81
Mean	21.86	30.04	26.82	1.44	1.27	0.90

Appendix 6

Place: BUSSOLENO
 Sample: A00

Sieve analysis						Hydrometer analysis			
Sieve	Diameter	Mass	Fraction	Fraction %	Perc. Finer				
ASTM	D(mm)	P (g)	P/S	P/S*100	%	Dispersing Agent Corr. Cd =		-2.5534	
						Meniscus Corr. Cm =		0.5	
3-in.	(75-mm)		0	0	100	Temperature Corr. Ct = 0,2207 T - 3,1141			
2-in.	(50-mm)		0	0	100				
1 1/2-in.	(37.5-mm)		0	0	100				
1-in.	(25.0-mm)	0.0	0	0	100	Dry Sample fraction Csp		40 g	
	(5.00-mm)	160.0	0.12568735	12.5687353	87.4312647	Sp. Weight < 0,074 Gs		2.7 g/cm3	
No. 10	(2.00-mm)	128.0	0.10054988	10.0549882	77.3762765	SP. Weight water Gw		1 g/cm3	
No. 18	(1.00-mm)	108.0	0.08483896	8.48389631	68.8923802	Cost.: Gs/(Gs-1) * 100 / Csp = K			
No. 40	(425-µm)	242.0	0.19010212	19.0102121	49.8821681	3.9705882			
No. 80	(180-µm)	387.0	0.30400628	30.4006284	19.4815397				
No. 200	(75-µm)	157.0	0.12333071	12.3330715	7.14846819				
	<75 µm	91.0	0.07148468	7.14846819	0				
Total mass S (g)		1273							

Day	Hour	Time	Temperature	Hydrometer	Corrected	Temperature	Grain	Reduced	% fraction	% sum
		dt	T°C	read	R=R+Cm	correction	diameter	read	KR"	KR"X
		0.5	18.7	24.00	24.5	1.0	0.0604	23.0	91.16308	6.516764
		1	18.7	19.00	19.5	1.0	0.0452	18.0	71.31014	5.097582
		2	18.7	16.50	17.0	1.0	0.0329	15.5	61.38367	4.387992
		4	18.7	15.00	15.5	1.0	0.0236	14.0	55.42778	3.962237
		8	18.7	13.00	13.5	1.0	0.0170	12.0	47.48661	3.394565
		15	18.7	11.00	11.5	1.0	0.0127	10.0	39.54543	2.826893
		30	18.7	10.00	10.5	1.0	0.0090	9.0	35.57484	2.543056
		62	18.7	9.00	9.5	1.0	0.0063	8.0	31.60425	2.25922
		120	18.7	8.00	8.5	1.0	0.0046	7.0	27.63367	1.975384
		240	19.8	6.80	7.3	1.3	0.0032	6.0	23.8329	1.703687
		478	19.6	5.90	6.4	1.2	0.0023	5.1	20.08411	1.435706
		1440	17.8	5.00	5.5	0.8	0.0014	3.8	14.93322	1.067497



Gravel	%	Sand	%	Silt	%	Clay	%
	22.62372		70.85951		5.081057		1.435706

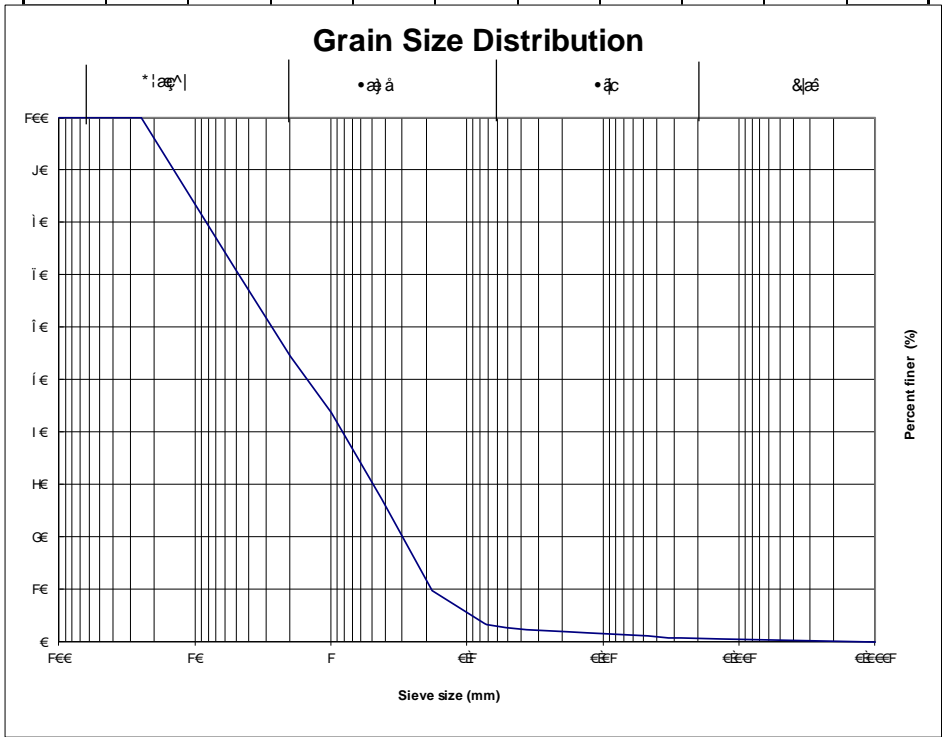
D_g = 1.686849

K factor = 0.00459

Place: BUSSOLENO
 Sample: A01

Sieve analysis					Hydrometer analysis			
Sieve	Diameter	Mass	Fraction	Fraction %	Perc. Finer			Cilindro N. ...
ASTM	D(mm)	P (g)	P/S	P/S*100	%	Dispersing Agent Corr.	Cd =	nn
						Meriscus Corr.	Cm =	0.5
3-in.	(75-mm)		0	0	100	Temperature Corr.	Ct = 0,2207 T - 3,1141	
2-in.	(50-mm)		0	0	100			
1 1/2-in.	(37.5-mm)		0	0	100			
1-in.	(25.0-mm)	0.0	0	0	100	Dry Sample fraction	Csp	40 g
	(5.00-mm)	681.0	0.29028133	29.028133	70.971867	Sp. Weight < 0,074	Gs	2.7 g/cm ³
No. 10	(2.00-mm)	386.0	0.16453538	16.4535379	54.5183291	SP. Weight water	Gw	1 g/cm ³
No. 18	(1.00-mm)	253.0	0.10784314	10.7843137	43.7340153	Cost.: Gs/(Gs-1) * 100 / Csp = K		
No. 40	(425-µm)	388.0	0.16538789	16.5387894	27.1952259			3.97058824
No. 80	(180-µm)	409.0	0.1743393	17.4339301	9.76129582			
No. 200	(75-µm)	148	0.0630861	6.3086104	3.45268542			
	<75 µm	81.0	0.03452685	3.45268542	0			
Total mass S (g)		2346						

Day	Hour	Time	Temperature	Hydrometer	Corrected	Temperature	Grain	Reduced	% fraction	% sum
				read	read	correction	diameter	read		
		dt	T°C	R	R'=R+Cm	Ct	D (mm)	R''=R'+Cd+Ct	KR''	KR''X
		0,5	18,7	25,00	25,5	1,0	0,0596	24,0	95,13367	3,284666
		1	18,7	21,00	21,5	1,0	0,0442	20,0	79,25131	2,736299
		2	18,7	18,00	18,5	1,0	0,0323	17,0	67,33955	2,325023
		4	18,7	16,00	16,5	1,0	0,0234	15,0	59,39837	2,050839
		8	18,7	14,00	14,5	1,0	0,0169	13,0	51,4572	1,776655
		15	18,7	13,00	13,5	1,0	0,0124	12,0	47,48661	1,639563
		30	18,7	12,00	12,5	1,0	0,0089	11,0	43,51602	1,502471
		55	18,7	10,80	11,3	1,0	0,0066	9,8	38,75131	1,337961
		120	18,7	9,00	9,5	1,0	0,0046	8,0	31,60425	1,091195
		240	19,4	6,60	7,1	1,2	0,0033	5,7	22,68826	0,783354
		469	19,1	5,50	6	1,1	0,0024	4,5	18,05772	0,623476
		1440	17,8	4,30	4,8	0,8	0,0014	3,1	12,15381	0,419633



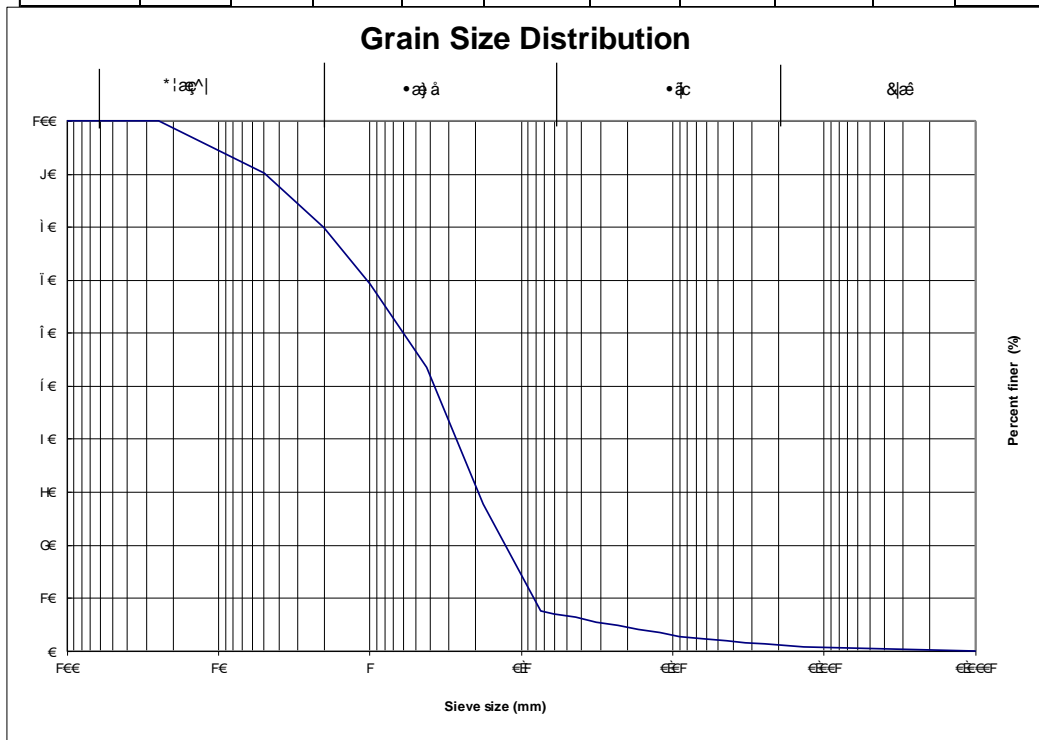
Gravel %	Sand %	Silt %	Clay %
45.48167	51.23366	2.66119	0.623476

Dg = 4.228178 K factor = 0.003628

Dataset A6. 2 – Grain size distribution and Erodibility Factor – Sample n. A01

Place: BUSSOLENO
 Sample: A02

Sieve analysis						Hydrometer analysis				
Sieve	Diameter	Mass	Fraction	Fraction %	Perc. Finer				Cilindro N. ...	nn
ASTM	D(mm)	P (g)	P/S	P/S*100	%	Dispersing Agent Corr. Cd =				-2.5534
						Meniscus Corr. Cm =				0.5
						Temperature Corr. Ct = 0,2207 T - 3,1141				
3-in.	(75-mm)		0	0	100	Dry Sample fraction Csp			40	g
2-in.	(50-mm)		0	0	100	Sp. Weight < 0,074 Gs			2.7	g/cm3
1 1/2-in.	(37.5-mm)		0	0	100	Sp. Weight water Gw			1	g/cm3
1-in.	(25.0-mm)	0.0	0	0	100	Cost.: Gs/(Gs-1) * 100 / Csp = K				3.970588235
	(5.00-mm)	180.0	0.097244733	9.72447326	90.27552674					
No. 10	(2.00-mm)	190.0	0.102647218	10.2647218	80.01080497					
No. 18	(1.00-mm)	198.0	0.106969206	10.6969206	69.31388439					
No. 40	(425-µm)	292.0	0.157752566	15.7752566	53.53862777					
No. 80	(180-µm)	478.0	0.25823879	25.823879	27.71474878					
No. 200	(75-µm)	370	0.19989195	19.989195	7.72555375					
	<75 µm	143.0	0.077255538	7.72555375	0					
Total mass S (g)		1851								
Day	Hour	Time	Temperature	Hydrometer	Corrected	Temperature	Grain	Reduced	% fraction	% sum
				read	read	correction	diameter	read	KR"	KR"X
		dt	T°C	R	R'=R+Cm	Ct	D (mm)	R"=R'+Cd+Ct		
		0.5	18.4	24.00	24.50	0.9	0.0606	22.9	90.90019	7.022543
		1	18.4	22.00	22.50	0.9	0.0439	20.9	82.95901	6.409043
		2	18.4	19.00	19.50	0.9	0.0321	17.9	71.04724	5.488793
		4	18.5	17.00	17.50	1.0	0.0232	15.9	63.1937	4.882063
		8	18.5	14.40	14.90	1.0	0.0168	13.3	52.87017	4.084513
		16	18.5	12.50	13.00	1.0	0.0121	11.4	45.32605	3.501688
		30	18.8	10.30	10.80	1.0	0.0090	9.3	36.85365	2.847149
		61	19.0	8.80	9.30	1.1	0.0064	7.8	31.07303	2.400564
		131	19.1	7.50	8.00	1.1	0.0044	6.5	25.9989	2.008559
		240	18.7	6.40	6.90	1.0	0.0033	5.4	21.28073	1.644054
		440	18.6	5.50	6.00	1.0	0.0025	4.4	17.61956	1.361209
		1440	19.0	4.00	4.50	1.1	0.0014	3.0	12.01421	0.928164

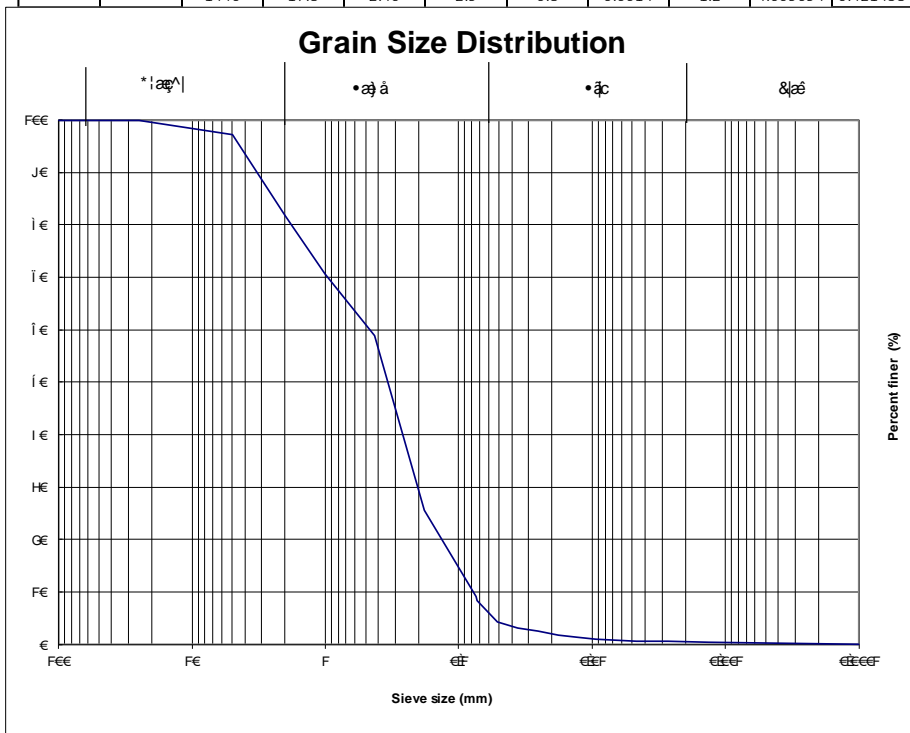


Gravel %	19.989195	Sand %	72.98826	Silt %	5.6613337	Clay %	1.361209
Dg =	1.518882	K factor =	0.0048081				

Dataset A6. 3 – Grain size distribution and Erodibility Factor – Sample n. A02

Place: BUSSOLENO
 Sample: A03

Sieve analysis						Hydrometer analysis					
Sieve	Diameter	Mass	Fraction	Fraction %	Perc. Finer			Cilindro N.			
ASTM	D(mm)	P (g)	P/S	P/S*100	%	Dispersing Agent Corr. Cd =			-2.5534		
						Meniscus Corr. Cm =			0.5		
3-in.	(75-mm)		0	0	100	Temperature Corr. Ct = 0,2207 T - 3,1141					
2-in.	(50-mm)		0	0	100						
1 1/2-in.	(37.5-mm)		0	0	100						
1-in.	(25.0-mm)	0.0	0	0	100	Dry Sample fraction Csp		40	g		
	(5.00-mm)	35.0	0.02857143	2.85714286	97.1428571	Sp. Weight < 0,074 Gs		2.7	g/cm ³		
No. 10	(2.00-mm)	189.0	0.15428571	15.4285714	81.7142857	Sp. Weight water Gw		1	g/cm ³		
No. 18	(1.00-mm)	136.0	0.11102041	11.1020408	70.6122449	Cost.: Gs/(Gs-1) * 100 / Csp = K					
No. 40	(425-µm)	144.0	0.11755102	11.755102	58.8571429						
No. 80	(180-µm)	408.0	0.33306122	33.3061224	25.5510204						
No. 200	(75-µm)	201.0	0.16408163	16.4081633	9.14285714						
	<75 µm	112.0	0.09142857	9.14285714	0						
Total mass S (g)		1225									
Day	Hour	Time	Temperature	Hydrometer read	Corrected read	Temperature correction	Grain diameter	Reduced read	% fraction	% sum	
		dt	T°C	R	R'=R+Cm	Ct	D (mm)	R''=R'+Cd+Ct	KR''	KR'X	
		0.5	18.3	24.00	24.5	0.9	0.0607	22.9	90.81255	8.302862	
		1	18.3	13.00	13.5	0.9	0.0484	11.9	47.13608	4.309585	
		2	18.3	10.00	10.5	0.9	0.0352	8.9	35.22432	3.220509	
		4	18.3	8.00	8.5	0.9	0.0253	6.9	27.28314	2.494459	
		8	18.3	6.00	6.5	0.9	0.0182	4.9	19.34197	1.768408	
		15	18.3	5.00	5.5	0.9	0.0134	3.9	15.37138	1.405383	
		30	18.3	4.00	4.5	0.9	0.0096	2.9	11.40079	1.042358	
		60	18.3	3.30	3.8	0.9	0.0068	2.2	8.621378	0.78824	
		120	18.3	3.00	3.5	0.9	0.0048	1.9	7.430201	0.679333	
		240	19.6	2.60	3.1	1.2	0.0034	1.8	6.981168	0.638278	
		464	19.0	2.50	3	1.1	0.0024	1.5	6.058324	0.553904	
		1440	17.8	2.40	2.9	0.8	0.0014	1.2	4.609694	0.421458	



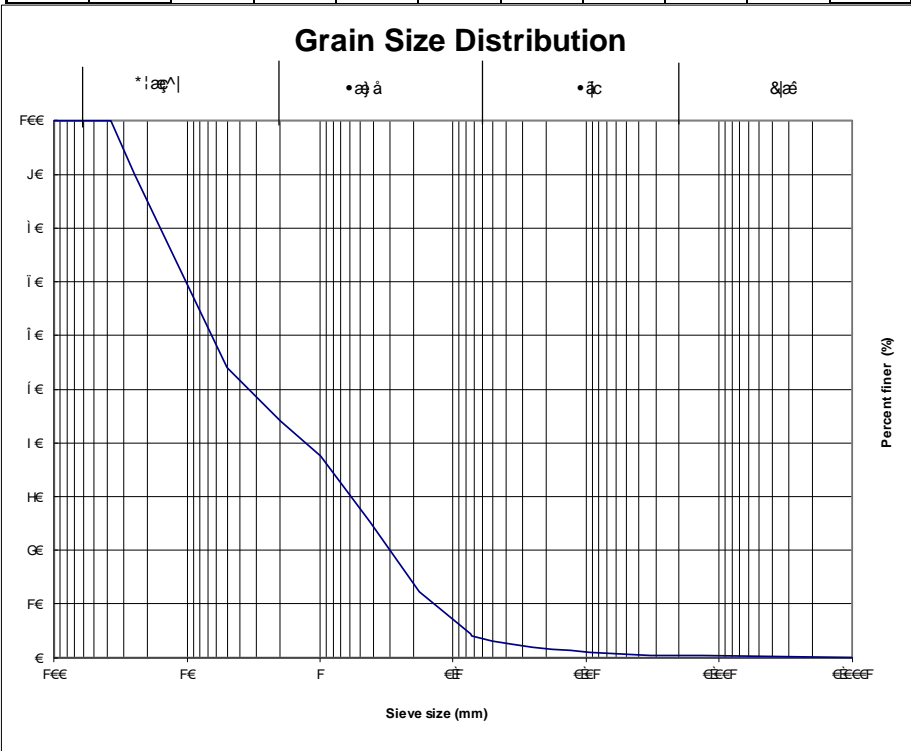
Gravel %	Sand %	Silt %	Clay %
18.28571	73.41142	7.748958	0.553904

D_g = 1.408402 K factor = 0.004986

Place: BUSSOLENO
 Sample: A04

Sieve analysis						Hydrometer analysis			
Sieve	Diameter	Mass	Fraction	Fraction %	Perc. Finer			Cilindro N. ...	nn
ASTM	D(mm)	P (g)	P/S	P/S*100	%	Dispersing Agent Corr. Cd =		-2.5534	
3-in.	(75-mm)		0	0	100	Meriscus Corr. Cm =		0.5	
2-in.	(50-mm)		0	0	100	Temperature Corr. Ct = 0,2207 T - 3,1141			
1 1/2-in.	(37.5-mm)		0	0	100				
1-in.	(25.0-mm)	226.0	0.09920983	9.92098332	90.0790167	Dry Sample fraction Csp		40 g	
	(5.00-mm)	820.0	0.35996488	35.9964881	54.0825285	Sp. Weight < 0,074 Gs		2.7 g/cm ³	
No. 10	(2.00-mm)	227.0	0.09964881	9.96488147	44.1176471	SP. Weight water Gw		1 g/cm ³	
No. 18	(1.00-mm)	149.0	0.06540825	6.54082529	37.5768218	Cost.: Gs/(Gs-1) * 100 / Csp = K			
No. 40	(425-µm)	278.0	0.12203687	12.2036874	25.3731343				
No. 80	(180-µm)	298.0	0.13081651	13.0816506	12.2914838				
No. 200	(75-µm)	178.0	0.07813872	7.81387182	4.47761194				
	<75 µm	102.0	0.04477612	4.47761194	0				
Total mass S (g)		2278							

Day	Hour	Time	Temperature	Hydrometer	Corrected	Temperature	Grain	Reduced	% fraction	% sum
		dt	T°C	read	R'	correction	diameter	read	KR''	KR''X
		0,5	17.8	24.00	24.5	0.8	0.0610	22.8	90.3744	4.046615
		1	17.8	19.00	19.5	0.8	0.0458	17.8	70.52146	3.157677
		2	17.8	15.00	15.5	0.8	0.0337	13.8	54.63911	2.446527
		4	17.8	12.00	12.5	0.8	0.0246	10.8	42.72734	1.913165
		8	17.8	9.90	10.4	0.8	0.0177	8.7	34.38911	1.539811
		15	17.8	8.60	9.1	0.8	0.0131	7.4	29.22734	1.308687
		30	17.8	7.00	7.5	0.8	0.0094	5.8	22.8744	1.024227
		60	18.0	5.50	6	0.9	0.0067	4.3	17.09378	0.765393
		120	19.0	4.50	5	1.1	0.0047	3.5	13.9995	0.626843
		240	19.9	3.60	4.1	1.3	0.0033	2.8	11.21465	0.502148
		471	20.0	3.30	3.8	1.3	0.0024	2.5	10.1111	0.452736
		1440	21.2	2.80	3.3	1.6	0.0013	2.3	9.177379	0.410927



Gravel %	Sand %	Silt %	Clay %
55.88235	40.07103	3.593879	0.452736

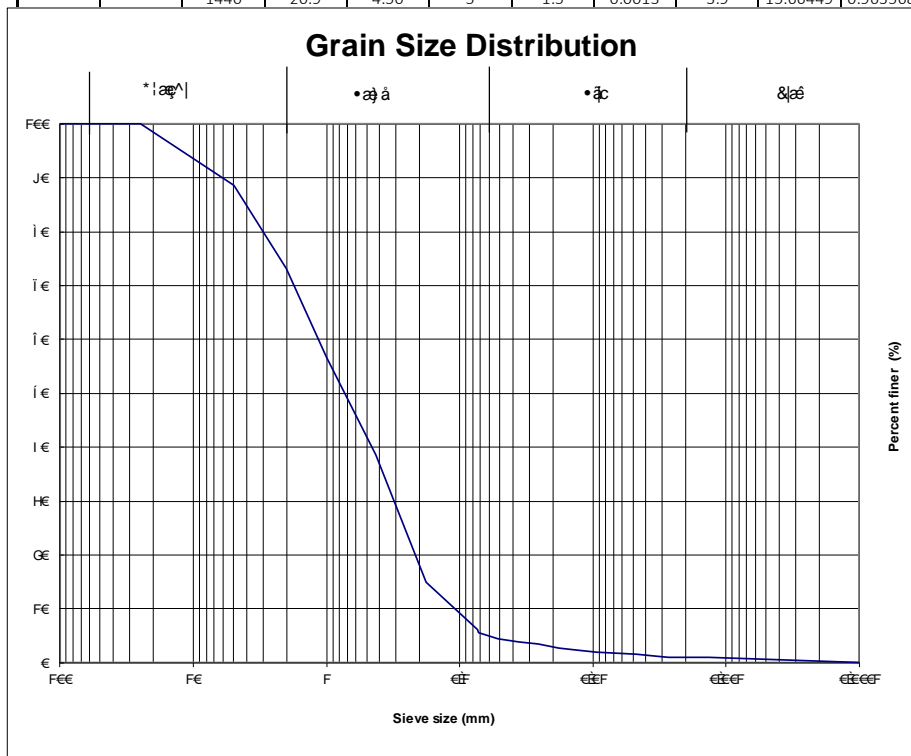
D_g = 5.899935

K factor = 0.003516

Dataset A6. 5 – Grain size distribution and Erodibility Factor – Sample n. A04

Place: BUSSOLENO
 Sample: A05

Sieve analysis						Hydrometer analysis				
Sieve	Diameter	Mass	Fraction	Fraction %	Perc. Finer			Cilindro N. ...	nn	
ASTM	D(mm)	P (g)	P/S	P/S*100	%	Dispersing Agent Corr.	Cd =		-2.5534	
						Meniscus Corr.	Cm =		0.5	
3-in.	(75-mm)		0	0	100	Temperature Corr.	Ct = 0,2207 T - 3,1141			
2-in.	(50-mm)		0	0	100					
1 1/2-in.	(37.5-mm)		0	0	100					
1-in.	(25.0-mm)	0.0	0	0	100	Dry Sample fraction	Csp	40	g	
	(5.00-mm)	136.0	0.11305071	11.3050707	88.6949293	Sp. Weight < 0,074	Gs	2.7	g/cm ³	
No. 10	(2.00-mm)	187.0	0.15544472	15.5444722	73.1504572	SP. Weight water	Gw	1	g/cm ³	
No. 18	(1.00-mm)	198.0	0.16458853	16.4588529	56.6916043	Cost.: Gs/(Gs-1) * 100 / Csp = K			3.97058824	
No. 40	(425-µm)	218.0	0.18121363	18.1213633	38.5702411					
No. 80	(180-µm)	284.0	0.23607648	23.6076475	14.9625935					
No. 200	(75-µm)	106.0	0.08811305	8.81130507	6.15128845					
	<75 µm	74.0	0.06151288	6.15128845	0					
Total mass S (g)		1203								
Day	Hour	Time	Temperature	Hydrometer	Corrected	Temperature	Grain	Reduced	% fraction	% sum
				read	read	correction	diameter	read		
		dt	T°C	R	R'=R+Cm	Ct	D (mm)	R''=R'+Cd+Ct	KR''	KR''X
		0,5	18,2	24,00	24,5	0,9	0,0607	22,8	90,72492	5,580752
		1	18,2	19,00	19,5	0,9	0,0455	17,8	70,87198	4,35954
		2	18,2	17,30	17,8	0,9	0,0328	16,1	64,12198	3,944328
		4	18,2	15,00	15,5	0,9	0,0237	13,8	54,98963	3,382571
		8	18,2	12,20	12,7	0,9	0,0173	11,0	43,87198	2,698692
		15	18,2	10,80	11,3	0,9	0,0128	9,6	38,31316	2,356753
		30	18,2	9,20	9,7	0,9	0,0092	8,0	31,96022	1,965965
		60	19,0	8,30	8,8	1,1	0,0065	7,3	29,08774	1,789271
		120	19,5	7,40	7,9	1,2	0,0046	6,5	25,95236	1,596405
		300	20,1	5,80	6,3	1,3	0,0029	5,1	20,1252	1,237959
		463	20,8	5,00	5,5	1,5	0,0023	4,4	17,56215	1,080299
		1440	20,9	4,50	5	1,5	0,0013	3,9	15,66449	0,963568



Gravel %	26.84954	Sand %	67.56971	Silt %	4.500453	Clay %	1.080299
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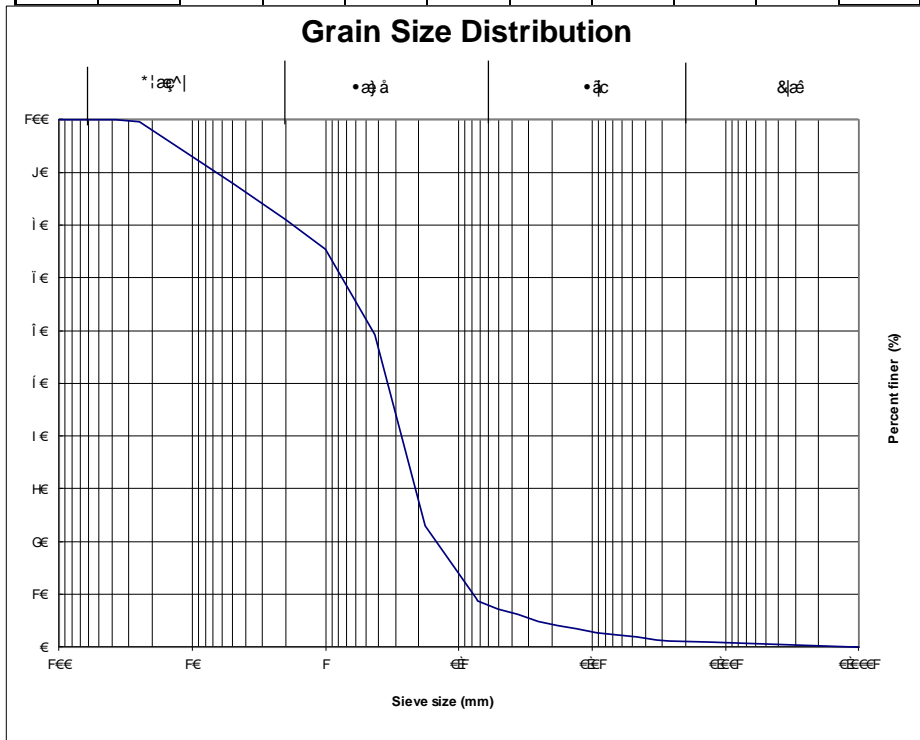
Dg = 2.037147

K factor = 0.00427

Place: BUSSOLENO
 Sample: A07

Sieve analysis					Hydrometer analysis				
Sieve	Diameter	Mass	Fraction	Fraction %	Perc. Finer			Cilindro N. ...	nn
ASTM	D(mm)	P (g)	P/S	P/S*100	%	Dispersing Agent Corr.	Cd =		
						Meniscus Corr.	Cm =	0.5	
3-in.	(75-mm)		0	0	100	Temperature Corr.	Ct = 0,2207 T - 3,1141		
2-in.	(50-mm)		0	0	100				
1 1/2-in.	(37.5-mm)		0	0	100				
1-in.	(25.0-mm)	5.0	0.00413907	0.41390728	99.5860927	Dry Sample fraction	Csp	40	g
	(5.00-mm)	142.0	0.11754967	11.7549669	87.8311258	Sp. Weight < 0,074	Gs	2.7	g/cm ³
No. 10	(2.00-mm)	83.0	0.06870861	6.87086093	80.9602649	SP. Weight water	Gw	1	g/cm ³
No. 18	(1.00-mm)	68.0	0.05629139	5.62913907	75.3311258	Cost.: Gs/(Gs-1) * 100 / Csp = K			3.97058824
No. 40	(425-µm)	195.0	0.16142384	16.1423841	59.1887417				
No. 80	(180-µm)	438.0	0.36258278	36.2582781	22.9304636				
No. 200	(75-µm)	167.0	0.13824503	13.8245033	9.10596026				
	<75 µm	110.0	0.0910596	9.10596026	0				
Total mass S (g)		1208							

Day	Hour	Time	Temperature	Hydrometer	Corrected	Temperature	Grain	Reduced	% fraction	% sum
				read	read	correction	diameter	read		
		dt	T°C	R	R'=R+Cm	Ct	D (mm)	R''=R'+Cd+Ct	KR''	KR''X
		0,5	18.6	25.00	25.5	1.0	0.0597	23.9	95.04604	8.654854
		1	18.6	21.00	21.5	1.0	0.0443	19.9	79.16368	7.208613
		2	18.6	18.50	19	1.0	0.0322	17.4	69.23721	6.304713
		4	18.6	14.60	15.1	1.0	0.0237	13.5	53.75192	4.894628
		8	18.6	12.50	13	1.0	0.0171	11.4	45.41368	4.135352
		15	18.6	10.50	11	1.0	0.0127	9.4	37.47251	3.412231
		30	18.6	8.50	9	1.0	0.0092	7.4	29.53133	2.689111
		60	18.6	7.30	7.8	1.0	0.0066	6.2	24.76662	2.255239
		120	18.9	6.20	6.7	1.1	0.0047	5.2	20.66187	1.881462
		240	18.7	5.00	5.5	1.0	0.0033	4.0	15.7219	1.43163
		453	19.7	4.00	4.5	1.2	0.0024	3.2	12.62762	1.149866
		1440	20.4	3.50	4	1.4	0.0014	2.8	11.25574	1.024944



Gravel %	19.03974	Sand %	72.30541	Silt %	7.504988	Clay %	1.149866
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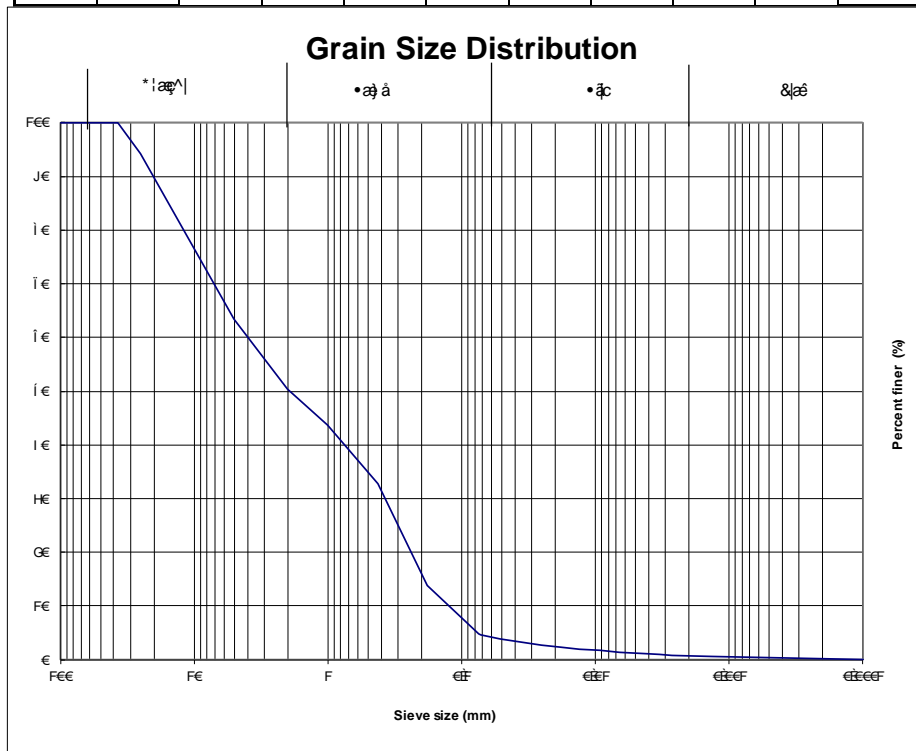
Dg = 1.398807

K factor = 0.005002

Dataset A6. 7 – Grain size distribution and Erodibility Factor – Sample n. A07

Place: BUSSOLENO
 Sample: A08

Sieve analysis						Hydrometer analysis					
Sieve	Diameter	Mass	Fraction	Fraction %	Perc. Finer					Cilindro N. ...	mm
ASTM	D(mm)	P (g)	P/S	P/S*100	%	Dispersing Agent Corr. Cd =				-2.5534	
						Meniscus Corr. Cm =				0.5	
						Temperature Corr. Ct = 0,2207 T - 3,1141					
3-in.	(75-mm)		0	0	100						
2-in.	(50-mm)		0	0	100						
1 1/2-in.	(37.5-mm)		0	0	100						
1-in.	(25.0-mm)	115.0	0.05695889	5.69588905	94.3041109	Dry Sample fraction Csp				40 g	
	(5.00-mm)	623.0	0.3085686	30.8568598	63.4472511	Sp. Weight < 0,074 Gs				2.7 g/cm ³	
No. 10	(2.00-mm)	265.0	0.1312531	13.1253096	50.3219416	SP. Weight water Gw				1 g/cm ³	
No. 18	(1.00-mm)	135.0	0.06686478	6.68647845	43.6354631	Cost.: Gs/(Gs-1) * 100 / Csp = K				3.97058824	
No. 40	(425-µm)	220.0	0.10896483	10.8964834	32.7389797						
No. 80	(180-µm)	381.0	0.18870728	18.8707281	13.8682516						
No. 200	(75-µm)	181.0	0.08964834	8.96483408	4.90341753						
	<75 µm	99.0	0.04903418	4.90341753	0						
Total mass S (g)		2019									
Day	Hour	Time	Temperature	Hydrometer	Corrected	Temperature	Grain	Reduced	% fraction	% sum	
				read	read	correction	diameter	read			
		dt	T°C	R	R'=R+Cm	Ct	D (mm)	R''=R'+Cd+Ct	KR''	KR''X	
		0,5	18,5	25,00	25,5	1,0	0,0598	23,9	94,9584	4,656207	
		1	18,5	20,50	21	1,0	0,0446	19,4	77,09076	3,780082	
		2	18,5	17,50	18	1,0	0,0326	16,4	65,17899	3,195998	
		4	18,5	15,50	16	1,0	0,0235	14,4	57,23782	2,806609	
		8	18,5	13,00	13,5	1,0	0,0171	11,9	47,31135	2,319873	
		15	18,5	11,50	12	1,0	0,0126	10,4	41,35546	2,027831	
		30	18,5	9,80	10,3	1,0	0,0091	8,7	34,60546	1,69685	
		60	18,5	8,00	8,5	1,0	0,0065	6,9	27,4584	1,3464	
		120	19,0	7,00	7,5	1,1	0,0046	6,0	23,92597	1,17319	
		240	19,3	6,00	6,5	1,1	0,0033	5,1	20,21828	0,991386	
		444	19,6	5,00	5,5	1,2	0,0024	4,2	16,51058	0,809583	
		1440	20,5	4,00	4,5	1,4	0,0013	3,4	13,32867	0,65356	



Gravel %	Sand %	Silt %	Clay %
49.67806	45.66573	3.846624	0.809583

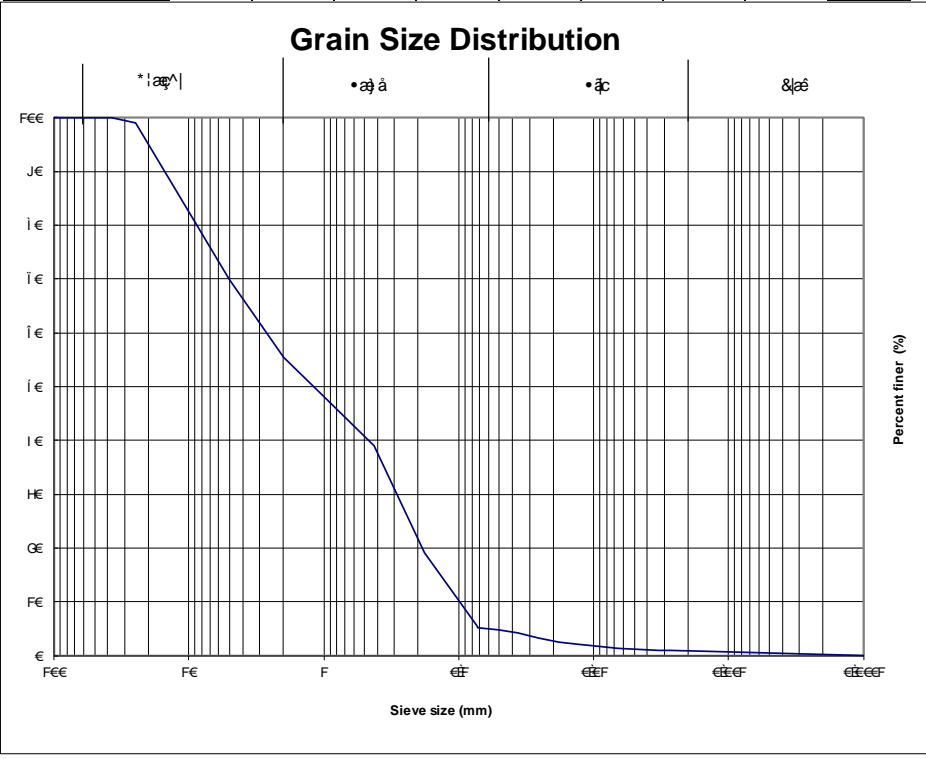
D_g = 4.619491

K factor = 0.003592

Place: BUSSOLENO
 Sample: A09

Sieve analysis						Hydrometer analysis			
Sieve	Diameter	Mass	Fraction	Fraction %	Perc. Finer			Cilindro N. ...	nn
ASTM	D(mm)	P (g)	P/S	P/S*100	%	Dispersing Agent Corr.	Cd =		-2.5534
						Meniscus Corr.	Cm =		0.5
3-in.	(75-mm)		0	0	100	Temperature Corr.	Ct = 0,2207 T - 3,1141		
2-in.	(50-mm)		0	0	100				
1 1/2-in.	(37.5-mm)		0	0	100				
1-in.	(25.0-mm)	19.0	0.00900901	0.9009009	99.0990991	Dry Sample fraction	Csp	40	g
	(5.00-mm)	615.0	0.2916074	29.1607397	69.9383594	Sp. Weight < 0,074	Gs	2.7	g/cm ³
No. 10	(2.00-mm)	307.0	0.14556662	14.5566619	55.3816975	SP. Weight water	Gw	1	g/cm ³
No. 18	(1.00-mm)	150.0	0.07112376	7.11237553	48.269322	Cost.: Gs/(Gs-1) * 100 / Csp = K			
No. 40	(425-µm)	195.0	0.09246088	9.24608819	39.0232338				3.97058824
No. 80	(180-µm)	421.0	0.19962067	19.9620673	19.0611664				
No. 200	(75-µm)	284.0	0.13466098	13.4660977	5.59506875				
	<75 µm	118.0	0.05595069	5.59506875	0				
Total mass S (g)		2109							

Day	Hour	Time	Temperature	Hydrometer	Corrected	Temperature	Grain	Reduced	% fraction	% sum
				read	read	correction	diameter	read		
		dt	T°C	R	R'=R+Cm	Ct	D (mm)	R''=R'+Cd+Ct	KR''	KR''X
		0,5	18,7	24,00	24,5	1,0	0,0604	23,0	91,16308	5,100637
		1	18,7	22,50	23	1,0	0,0435	21,5	85,2072	4,767401
		2	18,7	20,00	20,5	1,0	0,0316	19,0	75,28073	4,212008
		4	18,7	16,00	16,5	1,0	0,0234	15,0	59,39837	3,32338
		8	18,7	12,50	13	1,0	0,0171	11,5	45,50131	2,54583
		15	18,7	10,70	11,2	1,0	0,0127	9,7	38,35425	2,145947
		30	18,7	8,50	9	1,0	0,0092	7,5	29,61896	1,657201
		60	18,6	7,30	7,8	1,0	0,0066	6,2	24,76662	1,38571
		120	19,2	6,30	6,8	1,1	0,0046	5,4	21,32182	1,192971
		240	20,3	5,40	5,9	1,4	0,0033	4,7	18,71223	1,046962
		460	19,6	4,90	5,4	1,2	0,0024	4,1	16,11352	0,901563
		1440	19,8	3,90	4,4	1,3	0,0014	3,1	12,31819	0,689211



Gravel %	Sand %	Silt %	Clay %
44.6183	50.28106	4.199074	0.901563

Dg = 3.816544 K factor = 0.003679

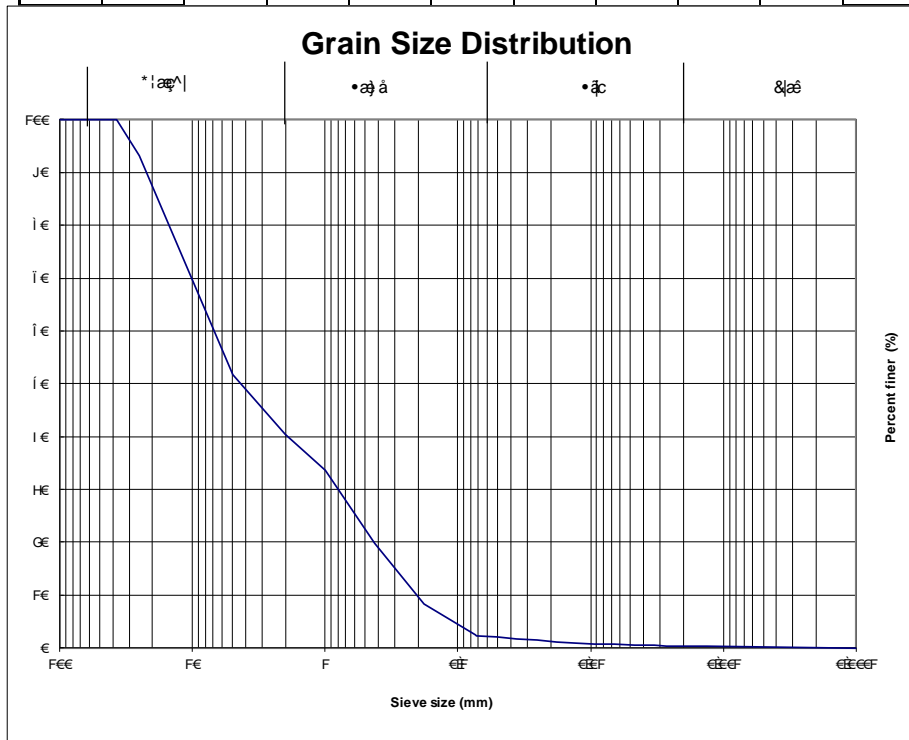
Dataset A6.9 – Grain size distribution and Erodibility Factor – Sample n. A09

Place: BUSSOLENO
 Sample: A10

Temperature Corr. **Ct = 0,2207 T - 3,1141**

Sieve analysis						Temperature Corr. Ct = 0,2207 T - 3,1141	
Sieve	Diameter	Mass	Fraction	Fraction %	Perc. Finer		
ASTM	D(mm)	P (g)	P/S	P/S*100	%	Dry Sample fraction	Csp
3-in.	(75-mm)		0	0	100	Sp. Weight < 0,074	Gs
2-in.	(50-mm)		0	0	100	Sp. Weight water	Gw
1 1/2-in.	(37.5-mm)		0	0	100	Cost.: Gs/(Gs-1) * 100 / Csp = K	
1-in.	(25.0-mm)	217.0	0.06849747	6.84974747	93.1502525		40 g
	(5.00-mm)	1315.0	0.41508838	41.5088384	51.6414141		2.7 g/cm ³
No. 10	(2.00-mm)	352.0	0.11111111	11.1111111	40.530303		1 g/cm ³
No. 18	(1.00-mm)	221.0	0.0697601	6.9760101	33.5542929	Cost.: Gs/(Gs-1) * 100 / Csp = K	
No. 40	(425-µm)	437.0	0.13794192	13.7941919	19.760101		3.97058824
No. 80	(180-µm)	363.0	0.11458333	11.4583333	8.30176768		
No. 200	(75-µm)	183.0	0.05776515	5.77651515	2.52525253		
	<75 µm	80.0	0.02525253	2.52525253	0		
Total mass S (g)		3168					

Day	Hour	Time	Temperature	Hydrometer	Corrected	Temperature	Grain	Reduced	% fraction	% sum
		dt	T°C	read	read	correction	diameter	read		
				R	R'=R+Cm	Ct	D (mm)	R''=R'+Cd+Ct	KR''	KR''X
		0,5	18,2	24,00	24,5	0,9	0,0607	22,8	90,72492	2,291033
		1	18,2	22,00	22,5	0,9	0,0440	20,8	82,78375	2,090499
		2	18,2	19,00	19,5	0,9	0,0322	17,8	70,87198	1,789697
		4	18,2	16,00	16,5	0,9	0,0235	14,8	58,96022	1,488894
		8	18,2	13,00	13,5	0,9	0,0171	11,8	47,04845	1,188092
		15	18,6	11,00	11,5	1,0	0,0127	9,9	39,4578	0,996409
		30	18,6	8,80	9,3	1,0	0,0092	7,7	30,72251	0,775821
		64	19,0	7,50	8	1,1	0,0063	6,5	25,91126	0,654325
		122	19,3	6,50	7	1,1	0,0046	5,6	22,20357	0,560696
		240	19,7	5,60	6,1	1,2	0,0033	4,8	18,98056	0,479307
		450	19,3	4,80	5,3	1,1	0,0024	3,9	15,45357	0,390242
		1440	19,7	3,40	3,9	1,2	0,0014	2,6	10,24527	0,258719



Gravel %	59.4697	Sand %	38.23927	Silt %	1.900792	Clay %	0.390242
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Dg = 7.104222

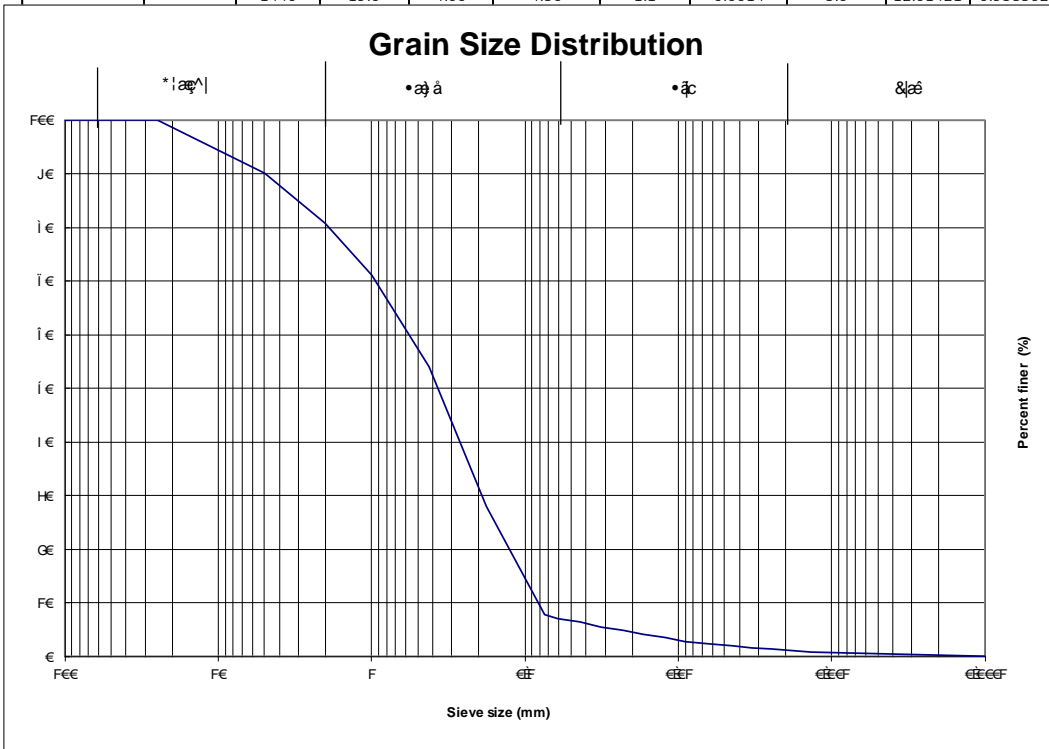
K factor = 0.003478

Dataset A6. 10 – Grain size distribution and Erodibility Factor – Sample n. A10

Place: BUSSOLENO
 Sample: A11

Sieve analysis						Hydrometer analysis				
Sieve	Diameter	Mass	Fraction	Fraction %	Perc. Finer				Cilindro N. ...	nn
ASTM	D(mm)	P (g)	P/S	P/S*100	%	Dispersing Agent Corr. Cd =				-2.5534
						Meniscus Corr. Cm =				0.5
3-in.	(75-mm)		0	0	100	Temperature Corr. Ct = 0,2207 T - 3,1141				
2-in.	(50-mm)		0	0	100					
1 1/2-in.	(37.5-mm)		0	0	100					
1-in.	(25.0-mm)	0.0	0	0	100	Dry Sample fraction Csp			40	g
	(5.00-mm)	180.0	0.098306936	9.83069361	90.16930639	Sp. Weight < 0,074 Gs			2.7	g/cm3
No. 10	(2.00-mm)	170.0	0.09284544	9.28454397	80.88476242	SP. Weight water Gw			1	g/cm3
No. 18	(1.00-mm)	178.0	0.097214637	9.72146368	71.16329874	Cost.: Gs/(Gs-1) *100 / Csp = K				3.970588235
No. 40	(425-µm)	312.0	0.170398689	17.0398689	54.12342982					
No. 80	(180-µm)	478.0	0.26105953	26.105953	28.01747679					
No. 200	(75-µm)	370	0.202075369	20.2075369	7.809939924					
	<75 µm	143.0	0.078099399	7.80993992	0					
Total mass S (g)		1831								

Day	Hour	Time	Temperature	Hydrometer	Corrected	Temperature	Grain	Reduced	% fraction	% sum
				read	read	correction	diameter	read		
		dt	T°C	R	R'=R+Cm	Ct	D (mm)	R''=R'+Cd+Ct	KR''	KR''X
		0.5	18.4	24.00	24.50	0.9	0.0606	22.9	90.90019	7.09925
		1	18.4	22.00	22.50	0.9	0.0439	20.9	82.95901	6.479049
		2	18.4	19.00	19.50	0.9	0.0321	17.9	71.04724	5.548747
		4	18.5	17.00	17.50	1.0	0.0232	15.9	63.1937	4.93539
		8	18.5	14.40	14.90	1.0	0.0168	13.3	52.87017	4.129128
		16	18.5	12.50	13.00	1.0	0.0121	11.4	45.32605	3.539937
		30	18.8	10.30	10.80	1.0	0.0090	9.3	36.85365	2.878248
		61	19.0	8.80	9.30	1.1	0.0064	7.8	31.07303	2.426785
		131	19.1	7.50	8.00	1.1	0.0044	6.5	25.9989	2.030498
		240	18.7	6.40	6.90	1.0	0.0033	5.4	21.28073	1.662012
		440	18.6	5.50	6.00	1.0	0.0025	4.4	17.61956	1.376077
		1440	19.0	4.00	4.50	1.1	0.0014	3.0	12.01421	0.938302



Gravel	%	19.115238	Sand	%	19.11524	Silt	%	5.7231724	Clay	%	1.376077
Dg		=	1.469659	K factor		=	0.0048833				

Dataset A6. 11 – Grain size distribution and Erodibility Factor – Sample n. A11

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"Try to learn something about everything and everything about something"

Thomas H. Huxley