

Large scale eucalypt plantations associated to increased fire risk

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To satisfy the high timber demands of human society, forest plantations, especially with fast growing species like pines and eucalypts, are increasing worldwide. In some European countries, the number of wildfires has been augmenting since the second half of the XX century, in parallel with these tree plantations. The record for wildfires in Europe is paradoxically found in the NW of the Iberian Peninsula, a region where broadleaved *Quercus* forests are the potential climax vegetation, with a humid climate, unfavourable for fire occurrence. The ecological and forestry literature have analysed fire occurrence with complex models of fuel accumulation and vegetation structure, combined with no less complex climatic models to explain why this region has such a high fire occurrence. Economists have concentrated on the relationship between income and fire. Historians, sociologists and political scientists have long ago demonstrated that several conflicts over land use and property are behind most wildfires in this region, but there is little interaction between these fields. Here I use official statistics about fire frequency and wood production to test whether fire frequency is associated to the use of pyrophytic species. I found that fire frequency in NW Spain can be predicted by the amount of eucalypt biomass accumulated in forest plantations. I further explore the relationships between intensive silviculture and fire risk at a regional scale (the North of the Iberian Peninsula) and a large scale, the Mediterranean countries. NW Iberia peasants have traditionally used fire to manage their common lands, and used the same techniques to oppose forest policies implemented by Franco's dictatorship, which continued until now with little changes. The use of highly pyrophytic species like eucalypts and some pines has exacerbated this problem, as suggested by the positive correlation between eucalypt plantations and fire frequency at the local, regional and Mediterranean scales.

1 **Large scale eucalypt plantations are associated to increased fire risk**

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11 Running head: wildfires and eucalypt plantations

12

13 Abstract

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15 growing species like pines and eucalypts, are increasing worldwide. In some European countries,
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29 silviculture and fire risk at a regional scale (the North of the Iberian Peninsula) and a large scale,
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31 common lands, and used the same techniques to oppose forest policies implemented by Franco's
32 dictatorship, which continued until now with little changes. The use of highly pyrophytic species
33 like eucalypts and some pines has exacerbated this problem, as suggested by the positive
34 correlation between eucalypt plantations and fire frequency at the local, regional and
35 Mediterranean scales.

36 Keywords: wildfires, forest plantations, social conflicts, pyrophytic species, Iberian Peninsula,
37 Mediterranean countries.

38 Introduction

39 Global wood harvesting in 2005 amounted to 3.4 billion m³, of which about 60 percent was
40 industrial roundwood and 40 percent fuelwood (FAO, 2006). To satisfy these timber needs,
41 forest plantations, especially with fast growing species like pines and eucalypts, are intensively
42 managed, and planted outside their native range. Exotic species account for about 25% of world
43 tree plantations, amounting however to 77% in Oceania, over 80% in Central and South America
44 and almost 100% in Eastern and Southern Africa (FAO, 2010). The ecological, social and
45 economic impacts of these large and intensive plantations are not well understood (Spence,
46 2001), but industrial forestry has clear negative impacts on biodiversity (Hunter, 1990; Calviño-
47 Cancela, Rubido-Bará & van Etten, 2012; Almeida et al., 2016), the water cycle (Jackson et al.,
48 2005), forest-dependent human societies (Hammond, 1997) and ecosystem services (Cordero-
49 Rivera, 2012). Nevertheless, tree plantations are able to produce large amounts of wood in short
50 times, and are therefore justified in economic terms (Brockerhoff et al., 2013), and might reduce
51 the pressure to obtain wood from forests. Careful design of multi-purpose plantations could
52 provide some of the ecosystem services which monocultures do not provide (Paquette &
53 Messier, 2010).

54

55 From a mechanistic point of view, fire risk is related to type of fuel and accumulation (biomass),
56 dry, hot and windy weather and a source of ignition. Land managers are able to reduce the
57 impact of wildfires by extinguishing them as soon as possible, and a large amount of funds are
58 used for these activities. This reduces the area burned. Nevertheless, fire frequency is much more
59 difficult to manage, particularly if climatic or social factors are prevalent.

60

61 In the Iberian Peninsula, many authors have shown that particular climatic conditions are clearly
62 related to the severity of wildfires (Pereira et al., 2005; Carracedo Martín et al., 2009). Another
63 approach to the problem highlights the sociological reasons behind fire ignition, associated to
64 rural activities like pasture management (Carracedo Martín et al., 2009), conflicts over land
65 property (Seijo, 2005; Cabana Iglesia, 2009), or between rural and urban interests (Balsa-
66 Barreiro & Hermosilla, 2013). Over 90% of fires are human-provoked in some Iberian regions
67 (Varela García, 2006). Yet research has also shown that not all vegetation types are equally
68 likely to burn, and some like native *Quercus* forests of deciduous broadleaved species seem to be

69 the least fire-prone (Moreira et al., 2009; Calviño-Cancela et al., 2016). Highly flammable tree
70 species like some pines and eucalypts (Figure 2) have been associated to increased fire risk
71 (Shakesby & Doerr, 2006; Taylor et al., 2017). Nevertheless, timber industries and their foresters
72 strongly negate any relation between the species of tree planted and fire risk, arguing that, given
73 that fires are provoked by peasants, industrial tree plantations do not increase fire risk or even
74 decrease that risk because people do not burn profitable lands (ENCE, 2009). Analyses of fire
75 frequency and vegetation types are therefore needed to identify causal factors and find possible
76 solutions.

77

78 There are conspicuous differences in fire frequency between regions, even in cases where they
79 share similar climate. In Europe, Spain and Portugal are the regions most devastated by wildfires
80 in the last 30 years (Schmuck et al., 2015; Turco et al., 2016), and Galiza, the “Switzerland of
81 Spain” (Meakin, 1909), a region under mild and humid Atlantic climate (NW of Iberia), holds
82 surprisingly the record for wildfires in Europe, together with Northern Portugal (Pereira et al.,
83 2005). In August 2006, widespread wildfires pushed the region into the headlines, and induced
84 an European Parliament Resolution (European Parliament, 2006), highlighting that “by
85 14 August 2006, 88,473 hectares were affected, leading to 4 deaths, injuring 514 people, killing
86 livestock and wildlife and causing considerable material and ecological damage, including 17
87 Sites of Community Importance (SCIs)”. Figure 36 in the report “Forest fires in Europe 2006”
88 shows dramatically how intense that fire episode was (Barbosa et al., 2007). The economic
89 damages from these fires to Galician economy have been estimated in 300 million euro (Barrio,
90 Loureiro & Luisa, 2007). Furthermore, in autumn 2006 very intense rains produced strong
91 erosion and floods in the same previously burned areas, with extensive damage to several cities
92 (Díaz-Fierros, 2006), which promoted social and political debates. More recently, severe
93 wildfires have occurred in Chile in January 2017, killing 11 people and destroying one town
94 (https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/2017_Chile_wildfires), and in June 2017 in Central Portugal,
95 producing at least 64 deaths and 204 injured people
96 (https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/2017_Portugal_wildfires). These three episodes have a common
97 line: all these areas are dominated by intensive plantations of *Eucalyptus globulus* (sometimes
98 accompanied by pines).

99

100 Here I use official statistics about fire frequency and wood production to test ecological
101 hypotheses about fire risk and frequency, and show that fire frequency in NW Spain can be
102 predicted by the amount of eucalypt biomass accumulated in woodlands. I further explore the
103 relationships between intensive silviculture and fire risk at a regional scale (the North of the
104 Iberian Peninsula) and a large scale, the Mediterranean countries.

105
106 **Methods**

107

108 Official statistics on fire frequency and burned area are published in yearly reports by the
109 Spanish Government since 1968, with some data available since 1961. The last report
110 summarizes data from 2012 (Cubo María et al., 2014). Three scales of analyses are included in
111 this study. First, at a local scale, I compiled the number of fires reported for Galiza (provinces of
112 A Coruña, Lugo, Ourense and Pontevedra; see Figure 1). Second, at a regional scale further 19
113 provinces in the Northern third part of Spain were studied (Figure 1; Asturias, León, Zamora,
114 Cantabria, Palencia, Valladolid, Burgos, Biscay, Gipuzkoa, Álava, La Rioja, Soria, Navarra,
115 Zaragoza, Huesca, Barcelona, Girona, Lleida and Tarragona). The three Basque provinces
116 (Biscay, Gipuzkoa and Álava) are here treated as a single province, given that individually they
117 represent about one third of the area of the remaining provinces. The final number of units of
118 analysis in the regional study is in total 21 provinces. From fire reports, I compiled data on
119 burned area by species groups per province (eucalypts, coniferous and total woodland burned).
120 The precipitation during winter has been shown to be –weakly– positively related to burned area
121 in Northern Portugal, and spring and summer precipitation show negative correlations with
122 burned area (Pereira et al., 2005). It is reasonable to expect that rainy weather reduce fire
123 frequency. Therefore, to test for climatic effects on fire frequency at the local scale, data on
124 annual rainfall, winter (January-April), May and summer rainfall (June-September) of one
125 typical Galician locality (Lourizán; 42° 24' N, 8° 39' W, 60 m altitude) were compiled from the
126 Galician meteorological information service (www.meteogalicia.es) for the period 1985-2012.

127

128 National Forest Inventories in Spain provide data on biomass per species and are available for
129 1972, 1986, 1998 and 2009 in the case of Galiza. I compiled the volume of eucalypt wood
130 estimated in these inventories for Galician provinces and related these values to the number of

131 wildfires recorded in the six years before each inventory. If pyrophytic species contribute to fire
132 frequency, I expect a positive correlation between eucalypt biomass and fire frequency.

133

134 Data on wood removals were obtained from the yearly reports of the Spanish National Institute
135 of Statistics (Anuario Estadístico de España, available at www.ine.es), for the period 1961-2013.
136 I compiled the total amount of wood harvested, and how much was from eucalypts and
137 coniferous species, per province and year. No data were available for the years 1977, 1987 and
138 1997.

139

140 For the large scale study, I compiled the number of wildfires for the decade 1991-2001 from
141 FAO statistics (www.fao.org), available for European countries. Additionally, data for the same
142 European countries and also Morocco and Algeria are available for the period 2011-2014 at
143 European reports (Schmuck et al., 2015). The area of eucalypt plantations in Mediterranean
144 countries was obtained from the compilation by Iglesias Trabado & Wilstermann (2008), ranging
145 from zero in Albania, Bosnia & Herzegovina, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia,
146 Croatia, Cyprus, Greece, Romania and Slovenia to the maximum of 647,000 ha in Portugal.

147

148 Some authors indicate that the number of fires was under-recorded in the 1960s and 1970s in
149 Spanish fire statistics (Cabana Iglesia, 2009; Gómez-Armisén & Úbeda, 2015), and similar
150 claims have been made for Portuguese statistics (Pereira et al., 2005). Others indicate that criteria
151 to report a fire have changed over time (Turco et al., 2016). These facts have to be taken into
152 account when discussing temporal patterns.

153

154 The number of fires per year does not follow a normal distribution. The best way to approach a
155 normal distribution proved to be a Box-Cox transformation, which was used for all statistical
156 tests, although plots show the untransformed variables. I used regression analyses to test for
157 possible relationships between variables. Proportions were converted using the angular
158 transformation. Statistical analyses were done with xlStat 2016 (www.xlstat.com) and Genstat
159 18th edition (GenStat, 2015).

160

161

RESULTS

162

163 Local scale: wildfires and eucalypt plantations in Galiza (NW Iberian Peninsula)

164

165 Wildfires in Galiza have been increasing since the 1970's, when the mean was 1,700 fires/year,
166 to 10,600 fires/year in 2000-2005, but recent years show a change in tendency to a lower number
167 of fires, with an average of 4,300 fires/year in 2006-2012 (Figure 3A). This region has had the
168 maximum fire frequency of Spain (and Europe): Fluctuations in the number of fires in Galiza
169 explain the variability of fires per year in the whole Spain, even if Galiza only represents 10% of
170 woodland of Spain ($r=0.95$, $p<0.001$), illustrating how relevant this region is over the total fire
171 risk in Spain (Fig. 3A). Burned area does not show a clear temporal tendency (Fig. 3B), and the
172 values have been greatly minimised by an increase in extinction costs since 1990, but again
173 Galician and Spanish values are highly correlated ($r=0.64$, $p<0.001$).

174

175 In the last 50 years, the amount of wood harvested in Spanish woodlands has augmented by a
176 factor of three (Carreras & Tafunell, 2005), which indicates that forests and plantations are
177 increasing. All else being equal, an increase in biomass accumulation should be positively
178 related to fire frequency. In agreement with this, the correlation between yearly wood removals
179 and number of fires in Galicia for the period 1961-2012 is 0.68 ($p<0.001$). However, if eucalypt
180 plantations contribute extra risks associated to fire frequency, then we expect a positive
181 relationship between the proportion of eucalypt wood harvested and fire number, i.e. how much
182 abundant are eucalypt plantations in the region. This relationship is positive for Galiza as a
183 whole ($r=0.67$, $p<0.001$) and also in each of the three coastal provinces (A Coruña, Lugo and
184 Pontevedra) where eucalypts now represent 40-80% of wood harvested (Table 1; Figure 4). In
185 the province of Ourense, eucalypts are rare due to the cold winters (currently less than 5% of
186 wood harvested), but even there the correlation is surprisingly high ($r=0.69$, $p<0.001$; Figure 4).

187

188 One can argue that the amount of eucalypt wood harvested each year is the consequence of fire
189 and not the opposite. If that were the case, then there should be a positive relationship between
190 the surface of woodland affected by fires and the amount of eucalypt wood harvested the same
191 year. Nevertheless, this relationship is marginally negative ($r=-0.28$, $p=0.078$) and remains

192 similar if one-year of delay is allowed for wood harvesting ($r=-0.29$, $p=0.065$). Therefore,
193 eucalypt wood harvested does not increase with the surface of woodland burned.

194

195 To further test the strength of the putative causal relationship between eucalypt plantations and
196 fire risk, I used the four direct estimations available of eucalypt biomass (mostly *Eucalyptus*
197 *globulus*) in Galician plantations from National Forest Inventories, from 1972 to 2009. I related
198 these values to the number of fires in the 6-year period ending at each inventory date, and found
199 that eucalypt biomass explains 50% of variance in the number of wildfires (Figure 5). There is a
200 positive relationship between the accumulated eucalypt biomass and number of wildfires, but a
201 change of tendency appears in the last period analysed.

202

203 Climatic variables are expected to explain part of variability in fire number. The only marginally
204 significant correlations are negative –as expected– between total land burned and May ($r=-0.36$,
205 $p=0.060$) and summer precipitation ($r=-0.36$, $p=0.063$). All correlations between fire number and
206 the precipitation of the year, spring or summer are not significant (all correlations <0.3 , p-values
207 ranging 0.165 to 0.762). A multiple regression analysis with the number of fires per year as the
208 response variable and precipitation variables (May and summer) and the proportion of eucalypt
209 and coniferous wood harvested as predictors (and first level interactions) confirms that climatic
210 variables explain little variability in fire number. The only effect with a p-value lower than 0.05
211 included in the model is the interaction term between the proportion of eucalypt and coniferous
212 wood (coefficient 1.321 ± 0.566 , $p=0.033$).

213

214 **Regional scale: wildfires and eucalypt plantations in the North of Spain**

215

216 Given the positive correlations between eucalypt abundance and fire frequency in Galiza, I
217 predicted that the same relationship should be found in other provinces where eucalypts are
218 being planted at a large scale. This is the case for Asturias and Cantabria (Figure 4). The number
219 of wildfires per province and the proportion of eucalypts and coniferous wood is summarized in
220 Table 1 for the period 1968-2012. There are clear differences among provinces, and those with
221 higher proportion of eucalypt wood harvested are also among those with higher number of fires.
222 All provinces where eucalypts are more than 20% show positive correlations between fire

223 frequency and eucalypt wood. Provinces with higher than average fire frequency but no or few
224 eucalypts show positive correlations between coniferous wood and fire frequency (León, Zamora
225 and Navarra). A detailed analysis by decades indicates that the number of fires has increased
226 with the proportion of eucalypt wood in all periods (data not shown). For the last period (2001-
227 2012), Figure 6A shows that the number of fires is positively related to the proportion of
228 eucalypt wood harvested ($r=0.62$, $p=0.003$). The relationship with the proportion of pyrophytic
229 wood (eucalypts and coniferous) is positive but not significant ($r=0.34$, $p=0.138$; Figure 6B).

230

231 For the period 1990-2012, I analysed the number of fires per year with a linear mixed model,
232 including the proportion of eucalypt and coniferous wood as predictors and year and province as
233 random terms (to account for variability in time and space). Results indicate that only the
234 proportion of eucalypt wood has a significant positive effect (coefficient= 0.515 ± 0.198 , p-value
235 to enter in the model=0.004), whereas the proportion of coniferous wood has a negligible effect
236 (coefficient= -0.066 ± 0.079 , p-value=0.406).

237

238 **Large scale: wildfires and eucalypt plantations in the Mediterranean countries**

239

240 There is a positive relationship between fire number per year and the surface of eucalypt
241 plantations in the Mediterranean countries, both during 1991-2001 ($r= 0.67$, $p=0.008$) and 2011-
242 2014 ($r= 0.61$, $p=0.026$; Figure 7). Examination of the plot in Figure 7 suggests that the
243 correlation is mainly due to Spain and Portugal, whose yearly variation in fire frequency is
244 completely different to the other large Southern European countries (France, Italy and Greece;
245 Figure 8).

246

247

248 **DISCUSSION**

249

249 The results of my analyses indicate that large scale eucalypt plantations, and, to a lesser degree
250 other pyrophytic species, are associated to an increase in fire frequency at the local, regional and
251 Mediterranean scale. Given that this is a correlative study, cause-effect conclusions cannot be
252 made. We should therefore ask, how could tree plantations promote fire? Three conditions are
253 needed for a wildfire to occur: fuel (biomass accumulation), favourable weather (dry and windy)

254 (Pereira et al., 2005) and a source of ignition (usually, the human component). If pyrophytic tree
255 species are planted over large areas, then fire frequency should be related to their extent, and this
256 is what I found (Figures 5 and 7), but certainly other causes are acting jointly.

257

258 Galiza produces about 50% of the wood harvested in Spain, with an average of 6.5 million cubic
259 metres in the period 2000-2013. About 40% is *Pinus pinaster* wood and 44% eucalypt wood
260 (Xunta de Galicia, 2012), both highly pyrophytic species. Since 1972 to 2009, eucalypts have
261 increased in the coastal provinces by a factor of six (Figure 5), and over the same period fire
262 frequency in this region reached a maximum (Díaz-Fierros & Baamonde, 2006). To give an idea
263 of the dimension of the problem we can consider that Galiza has 10% of the woodland area in
264 Spain, but about 50% of fires occur there. Furthermore, this is one of the most humid areas in
265 Spain, potentially covered by Atlantic *Quercus* forests, that now occupy less than 1% of their
266 original surface (Fernández, 1994). This is consequently an area where “natural” wildfires should
267 be extremely rare. Therefore, human intervention in the landscape has completely changed the
268 vegetation, promoting large accumulations of pyrophytic fuel. Eucalypts are used almost
269 exclusively by a paper industry, which was forcibly imposed by Franco’s dictatorial regime in
270 the 1950s in Pontevedra (Rico Boquete, 1999), the province that holds the record of fires (Table
271 1). The province of Ourense is a clear outlier at the local scale: it holds the second largest
272 number of fires, but eucalypts represent there only 0.1% of wood (about 5% currently).

273 Nevertheless this province has 93% of pines (mainly *Pinus pinaster* and *P. radiata*), which are as
274 pyrophytic as eucalypts. The high fire frequency of all the region is mainly explained by
275 conflicts over land property (Rico Boquete, 1995a; Seijo, 2005). Given the propensity of
276 peasants to use fire to control vegetation, the use of pyrophytic species at a large scale by the
277 forestry administration was certainly temerarious. This fact was clearly known to Ximénez de
278 Embún and Ceballos, the two foresters who designed the plantation policy during Franco’s
279 dictatorship, which were absolutely contrary to the large scale plantation of pyrophytic species in
280 Galiza, but were not given credit (Rico Boquete, 1995b).

281

282 The regional analysis confirms a relationship between pyrophytic plantations and fire risk (Table
283 1): all provinces where eucalypts have been planted at a large scale share high fire frequencies.

284 The province of Cantabria, with the maximum of eucalypt wood, but ranking seventh by fire

285 frequency, illustrates that fire frequency is explained by multiple causes. Cantabria shows
286 positive trends in the period 1985-2011, in contrast to other Spanish regions, where fire number
287 has recently decreased (Turco et al., 2016). This coastal province has a humid climate,
288 unfavourable for fire outbreaks, except during periodic episodes of Southern winds (“suradas”),
289 which occur during winter. In this province most of the fires take place from January to March,
290 and are clearly related to these particular Southern winds and grassland management for
291 livestock (Carracedo Martín et al., 2009). Furthermore, the seven provinces with the highest fire
292 frequency (Table 1) are all in the Northwest of the Iberian Peninsula, and are contiguous to the
293 regions of Portugal where fire frequency is maximum (Moreira, Rego & Ferreira, 2001). This
294 suggests that they share similar sources of ignition (the human component of fire risk). It is
295 interesting to note that the Mediterranean provinces of Catalonia, where fire is more likely, have
296 maintained a similar fire frequency since medieval periods (Lloret & Marí, 2001), and have not
297 been intensively planted with eucalypts.

298

299 Most of the wildfires in the Iberian Peninsula are human-induced, but the problem is not simple.
300 Official statistics identify at least 24 motivations behind the fires (Gómez, 2005). Fire needs
301 wood to spread, and therefore, many researchers have indicated that changes in rural life since
302 1950s, with a progressive ageing of the population and the increased amount of land set aside,
303 are the social explanations for fire outbreaks, favoured by the large accumulation of wood
304 biomass (Moreira, Rego & Ferreira, 2001). Some environmentalist groups have stressed that
305 woodlands have been rapidly transformed into large-scale monocultures of pines and eucalypts, a
306 process begun during Franco’s dictatorship in Spain (Rico Boquete, 1995a), and have indicated
307 that these trees are more susceptible to fire and are favoured by repeated wildfires. In fact,
308 *Eucalyptus globulus* is more likely to establish itself after fire in Portugal and Australia
309 (Larcombe et al., 2013; Águas et al., 2014). Other pyrophytic species, like *Pinus contorta*, also
310 show an increase after fire, and can create positive feedbacks (Taylor et al., 2017). In the case of
311 Galiza, historians have shown that fire was employed as a way to oppose forest policies which
312 usurped common lands, impeding livestock grazing (Cabana Iglesia, 2009), and that these
313 policies were the main cause of a massive emigration and the destruction of rural life during the
314 1960s (Rico Boquete, 1995a). There is no doubt that forest policy during Franco’s dictatorship
315 created a social conflict in NW Spain, which “exploded” as wildfires (Seijo, 2005). The original

316 idea of the afforestation policy was to recover native forests (Rico Boquete, 1995b), but the
317 option of large scale cellulose production with exotic trees was finally implemented, provoking
318 strong opposition by local people, and even deaths in confrontations with the police of the
319 dictator (Rico Boquete, 1995a). If fire was used as a way to oppose afforestation plans, then the
320 conflict should have been maximum in the 1960s and 1970s. Nevertheless, the maximum fire
321 frequency occurred in the 1990s and early 2000s (Figure 3A), although early statistics may be
322 unreliable (Cabana Iglesia, 2007). The decrease in fire number after 2005 might be explained by
323 the disappearance of the generation who suffered the conflict, combined with a series of rainy
324 summers, and a higher environmental sensitivity of the society, as well as increased efficiency in
325 fire control (Rodrigues et al., 2013). If the social factor (conflicts) was preeminent, then we can
326 predict that fire number should remain low in the future, as a consequence of the generational
327 substitution. If climatic variables were the main driver, then fire frequency will be higher in a
328 scenario of climatic change (Turco et al., 2016). Time will tell.

329

330 The high incidence of fire in other regions that shared similar forest policies (large scale
331 pyrophytic plantations) and comparable climate and cultural traditions might be explained by the
332 interaction mechanisms between fire frequency and pyrophytic species identified here. Some
333 foresters strongly disagree with this interpretation and indicate that “trees do not burn
334 spontaneously”. They argue that species identity has no effect on fire frequency: causes are
335 exclusively social. For instance, a recent analysis of wildfires in Spain does not even mention the
336 fact that eucalypt species have been planted over large areas in Northern Spain, concentrating the
337 discussion about fire causes on the human component (Gómez-Armisén & Úbeda, 2015).
338 Nevertheless, forest ecology has long ago established that some species are adapted to fire, and
339 eucalypts dominate the Australian landscape precisely because wildfires are very frequent there
340 (Caldararo, 2002). In this context, my results confirm the risks associated to intensive forestry of
341 pyrophytic species, especially in regions where fire has been traditionally used to manage land.
342 The 2017 terrific wildfires in Chile and Portugal occurred in areas largely planted with eucalypts.
343 The low number of fires in Italy and France (Figure 8) (Turco et al., 2016), two countries with
344 large regions of Mediterranean climate, which have not planted eucalypts or pyrophytic pines at
345 a large scale, suggests that, together with human culture, tree identity matters.

346

CONCLUSION

347

348

349 Eucalypt monocultures have drastic negative effects on animal and plant biodiversity, not only of
350 woodlands (Varela Díaz, 1990; Paiva, 1992; Calviño-Cancela, Rubido-Bará & van Etten, 2012;
351 Calviño-Cancela, 2013), but also of rivers and streams (Graça et al., 2002; Cordero-Rivera,
352 Martínez Álvarez & Álvarez, 2017). Their positive effects as Carbon sequesters are offset by
353 their significant negative effect on the water cycle and water salinity (Jackson et al., 2005).
354 Further, as they are very likely to burn, all Carbon is released in hours, so that they are unlikely
355 to act as long-term Carbon sinks. The analyses presented here indicate that planting eucalypts
356 and pyrophytic pines at a large scale would not only be inappropriate and ecologically
357 unsustainable, it also would significantly increase extreme fire risk. Pyrophytic species are
358 favoured by fires, and fires are also highly favoured by the accumulation of eucalypt and pine
359 biomass, in a mutually promoting mechanism (Taylor et al., 2017). The Galician government has
360 spent between 50 and 65 million euro in fire control each year in the period 2000-2006, which is
361 about 20% of the value of the wood produced (Sineiro García, 2006). Therefore, the economic
362 benefits of these plantations are for private owners, but the costs are shared by all Galicians, who
363 pay for fire control efforts with taxes, and suffer the effects of fires, erosion and floods. This is
364 unfair and seems economically unsustainable. Finally, the eucalypts themselves are unlikely to
365 burn spontaneously: social causes are preeminent behind this high number of human-induced
366 fires, which further suggests that these plantations are also socially unsustainable. Northern and
367 Central Portugal suffer from similar high fire frequencies (Moreira, Rego & Ferreira, 2001;
368 Rodrigues et al., 2013) and the “eucalyptization” of the landscape, with tragic consequences in
369 the summer of 2017. The results presented here suggest that promoting diversification of forest
370 plantations (Brockerhoff et al., 2013) would greatly reduce fire frequency and, presumably,
371 extent. Such a forest policy would also contribute to the long-term conservation of biodiversity
372 and forest ecosystem services (Cordero-Rivera, 2012).

373

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375 Years ago, I found myself in front of a wildfire, in a very hot day of summer, and I was able to
376 extinguish it alone, paradoxically using a young eucalypt tree to smite the flames. Nobody was

377 around and the fire was small enough to be controllable by one person. How could it have
378 started? This question was behind this research. This paper is the result of a double frustration.
379 Frustration due to the impotence against wildfires, which are part of my life since my childhood,
380 and frustration because most of the little areas with recovering forests in my province were
381 converted to eucalypt lands in the last decades. I thank María Calviño Cancela, Miguel Ángel de
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Figure 1

Map of the Iberian Peninsula, with the provinces of Spain.

Galician provinces (sky blue) are the region where the frequency of fires is maximum in Spain. The yellow area indicates the other provinces analysed in this paper. A Coruña: C; Pontevedra: Po; Lugo: Lu; Ourense: Ou; Asturias: As; León: Le; Zamora: Za; Cantabria: Ca; Palencia: Pa; Valladolid: Va; Burgos: Ba; Basque Country: BC; La Rioja: R; Soria: So; Navarra: Na; Zaragoza: Z; Huesca: Hu; Lleida: Ll; Tarragona: Ta; Barcelona: B; Girona: Gi. Source of the map: Wikimedia Commons.

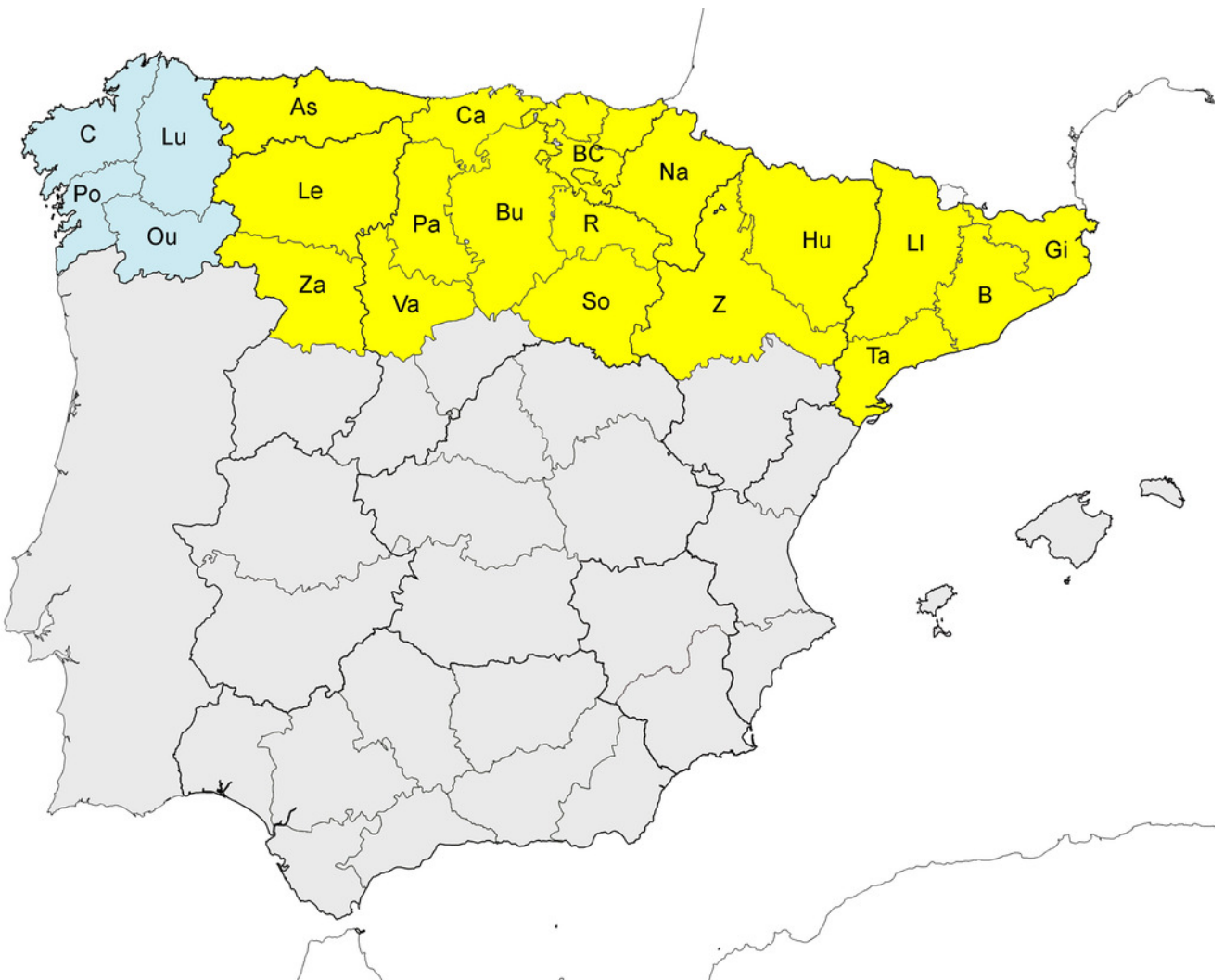


Figure 2

Eucalypt plantations.

(A) Typical landscape of a Galician plantation of eucalypts (*Eucalyptus globulus*) and pines (*Pinus pinaster*), partially burned. (B) High density of fuel and very reduced diameter of trees is characteristic of most plantations of eucalypts in NW Spain, two facts likely related to fire risk. Pictures by the author.



Figure 3(on next page)

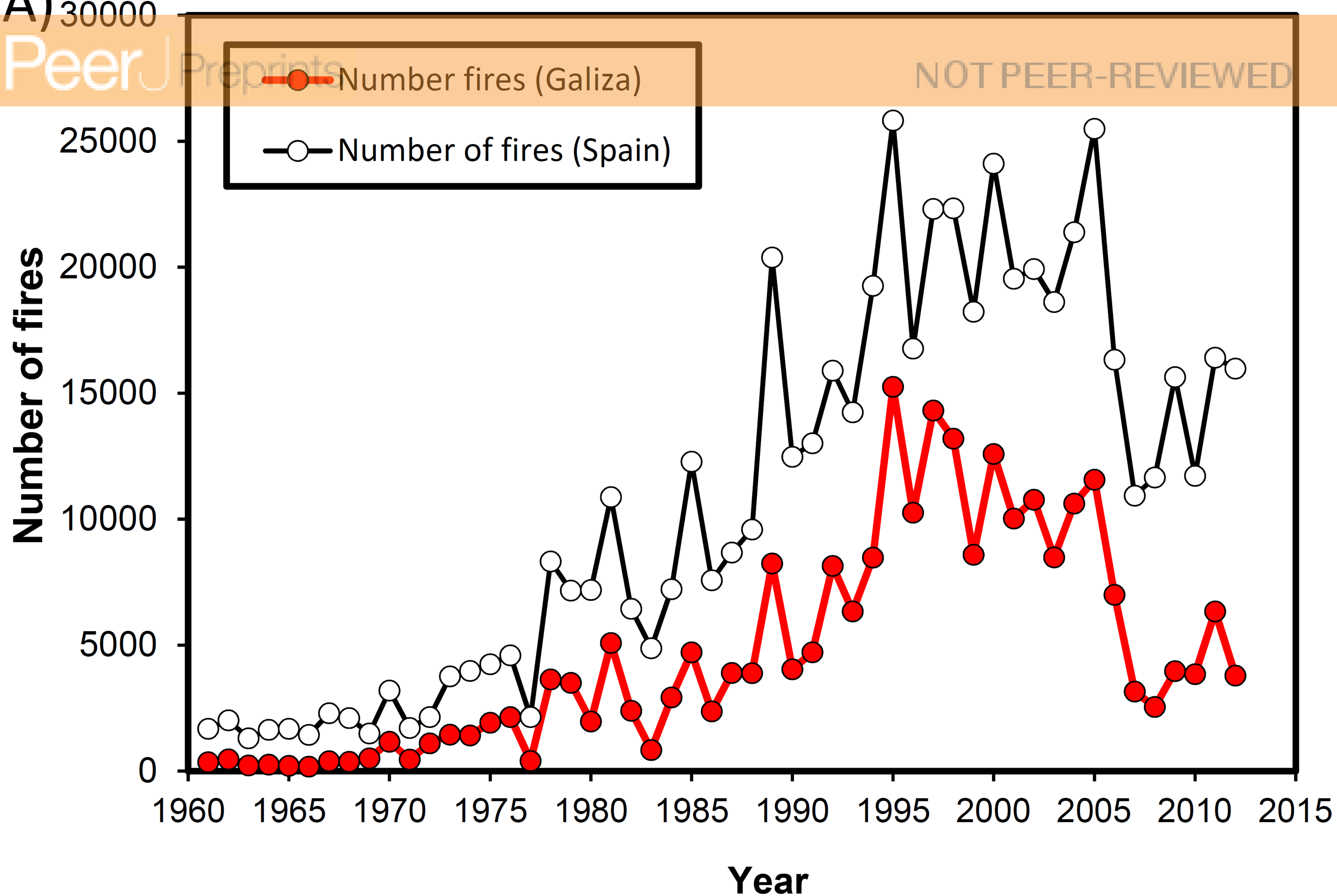
Wildfires in Galiza and Spain.

(A) Temporal evolution of the number of wildfires and (B) burned area in Galiza and Spain, since 1961 to 2012

(A)

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(B)

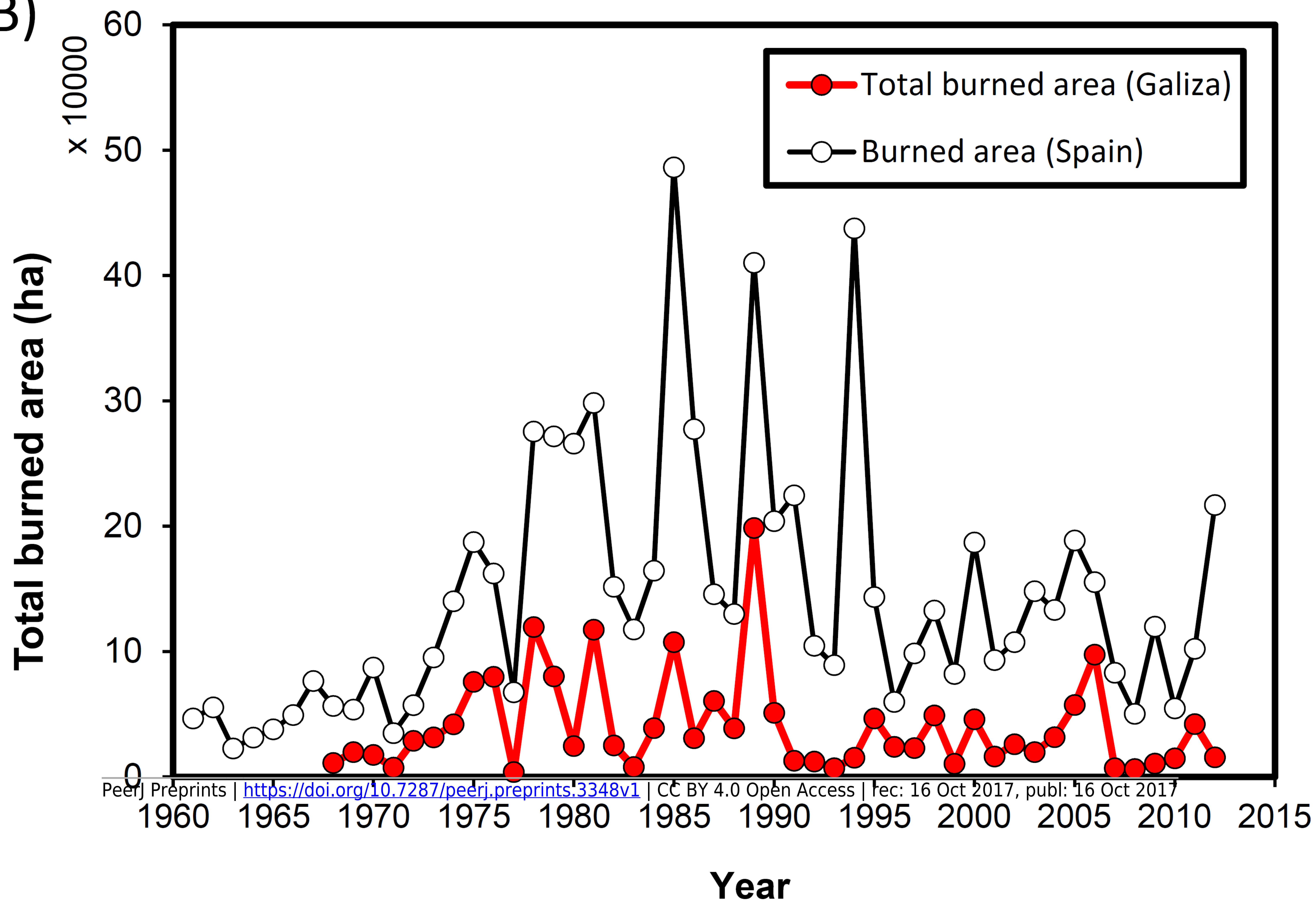


Figure 4(on next page)

The relationship between the proportion of eucalypts over the total wood harvested and the number of wildfires in the four provinces of Galiza, Asturias and Cantabria.

In all cases the correlation is positive.

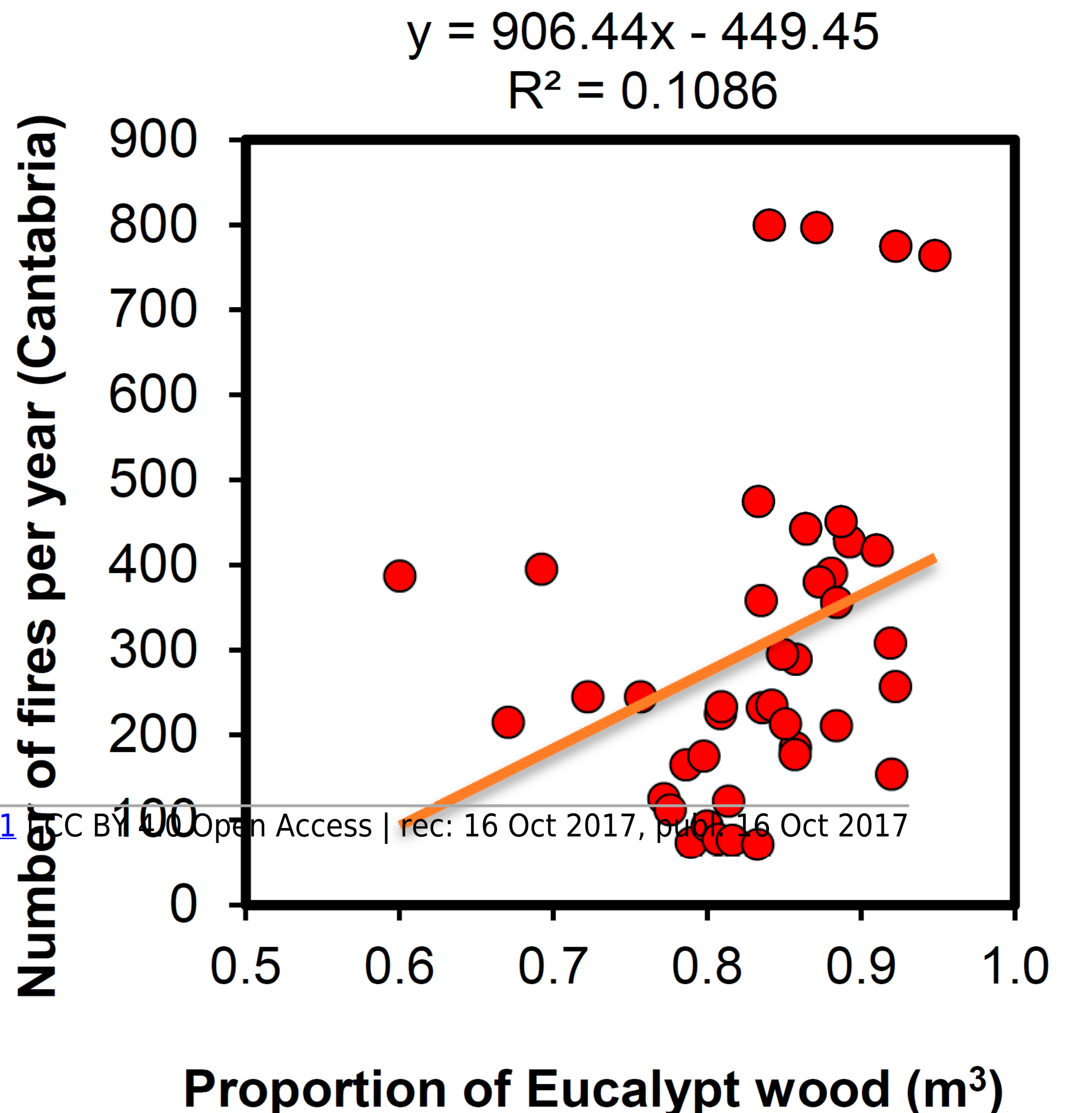
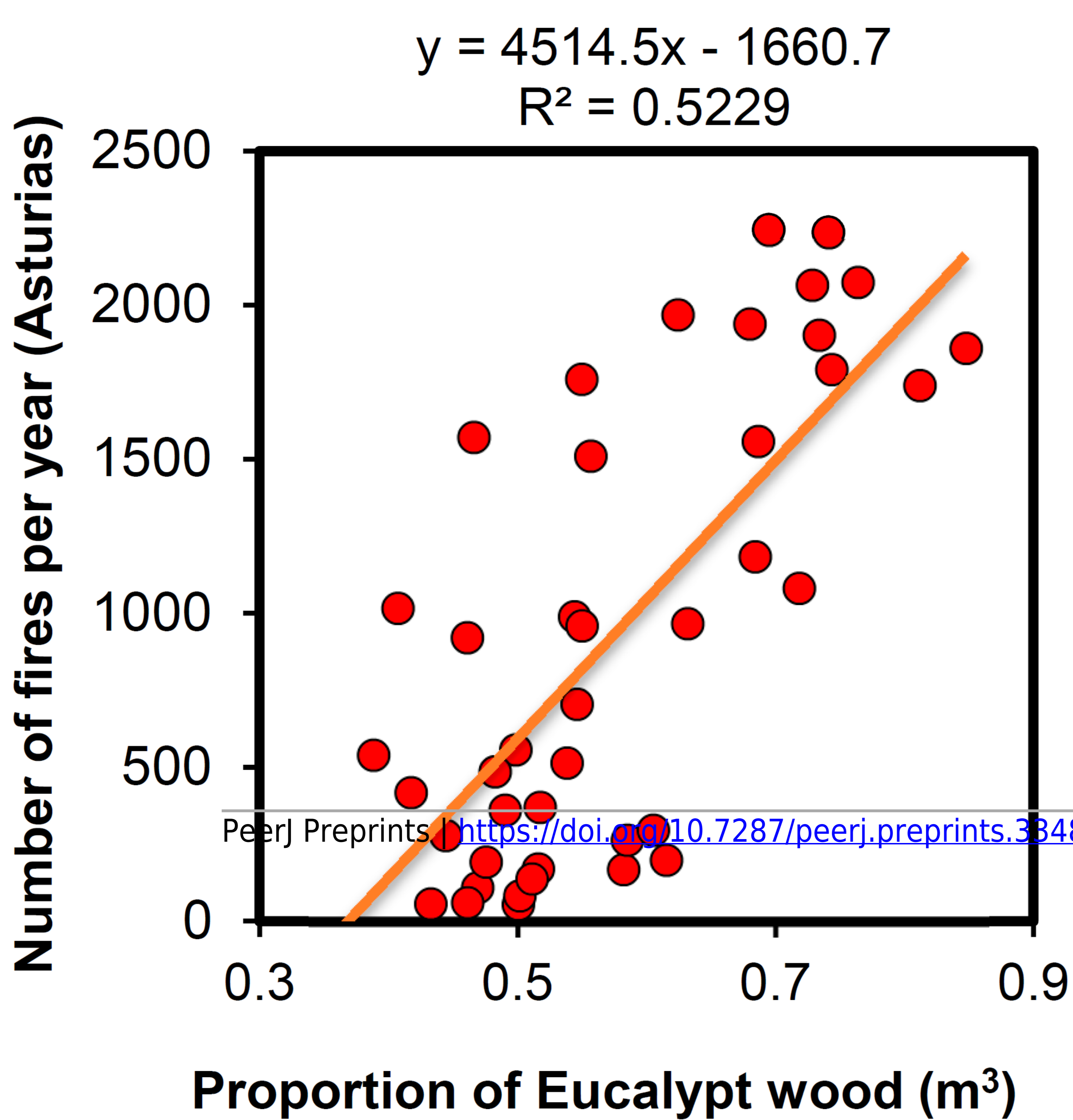
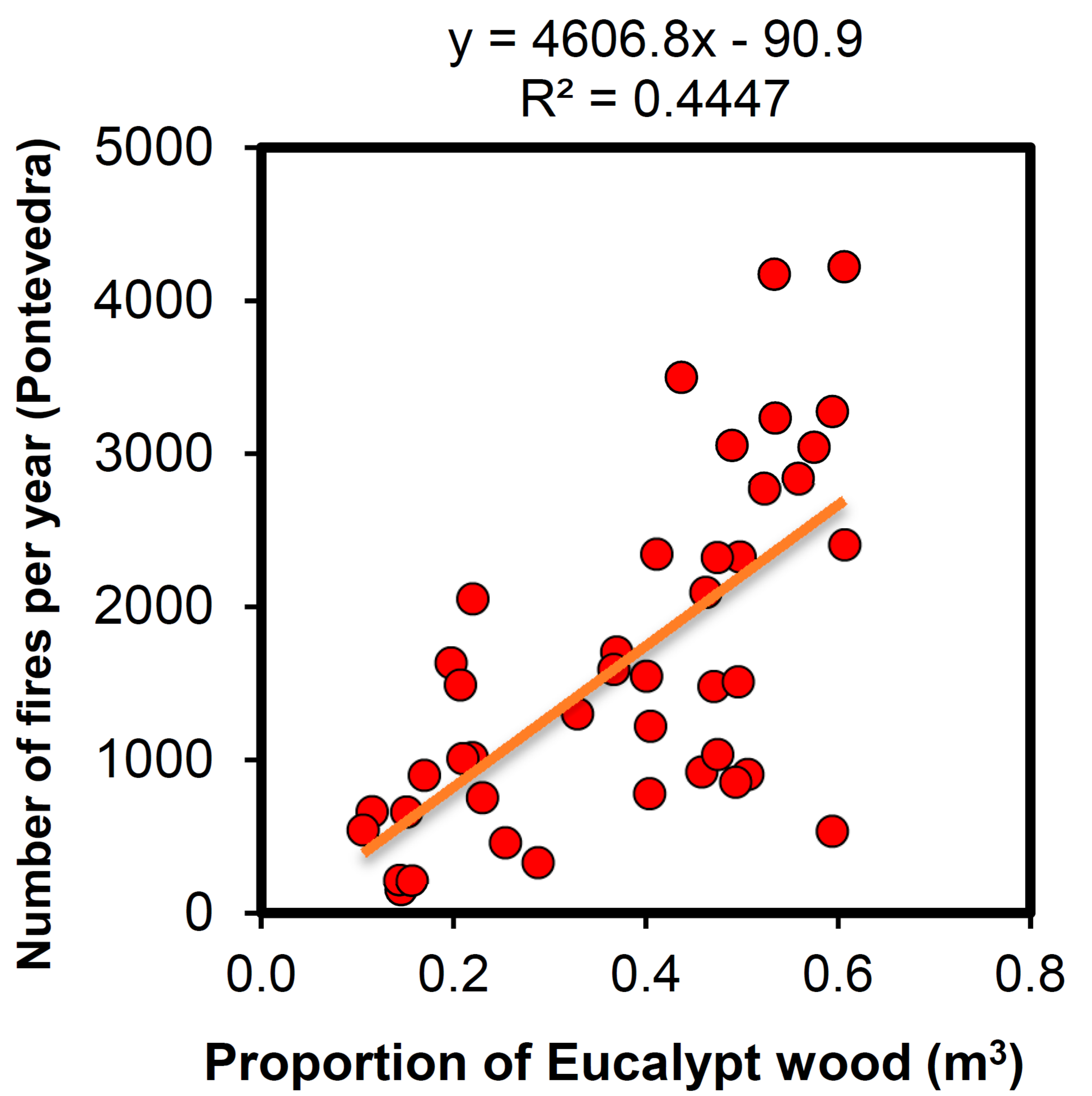
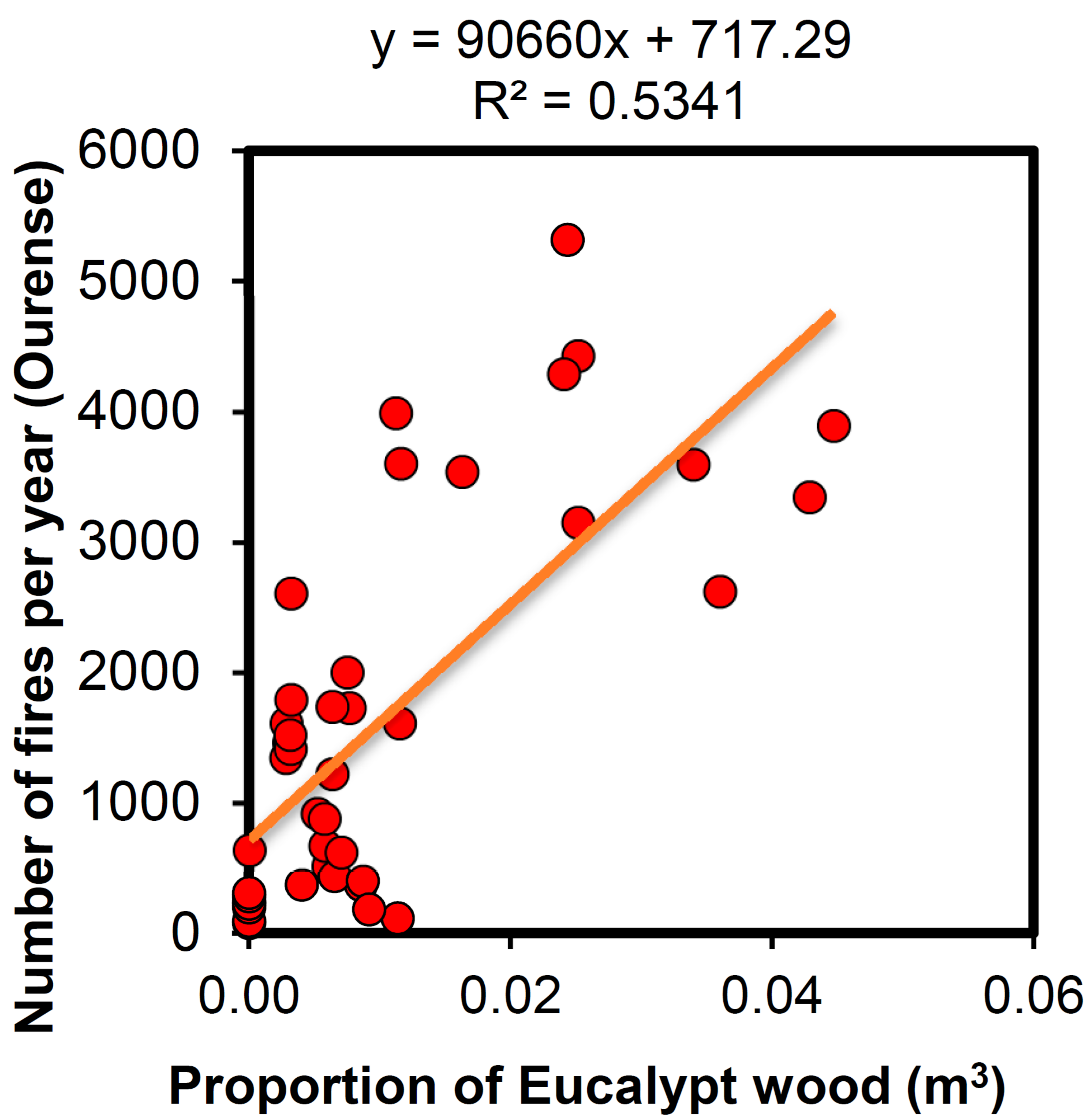
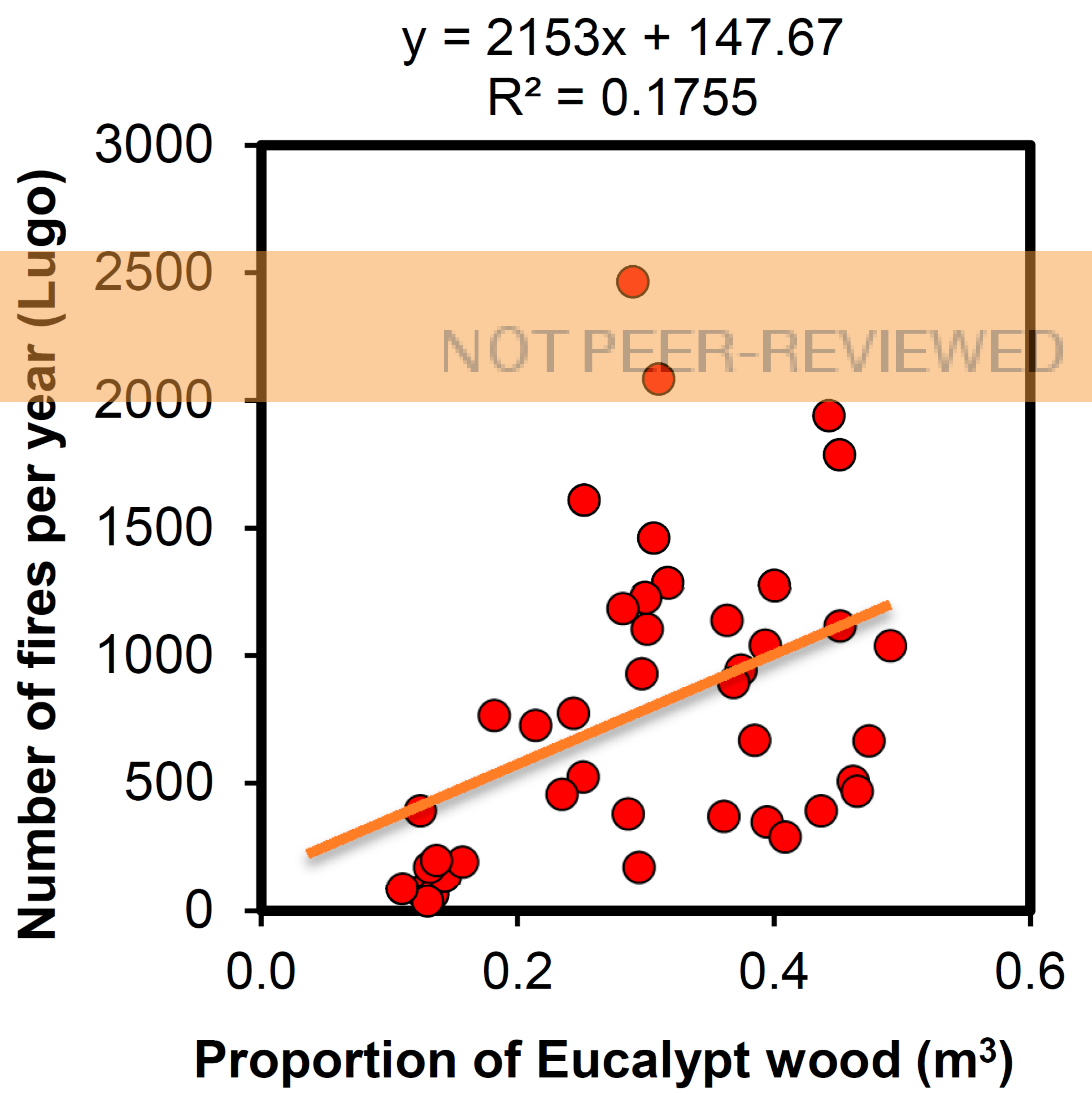
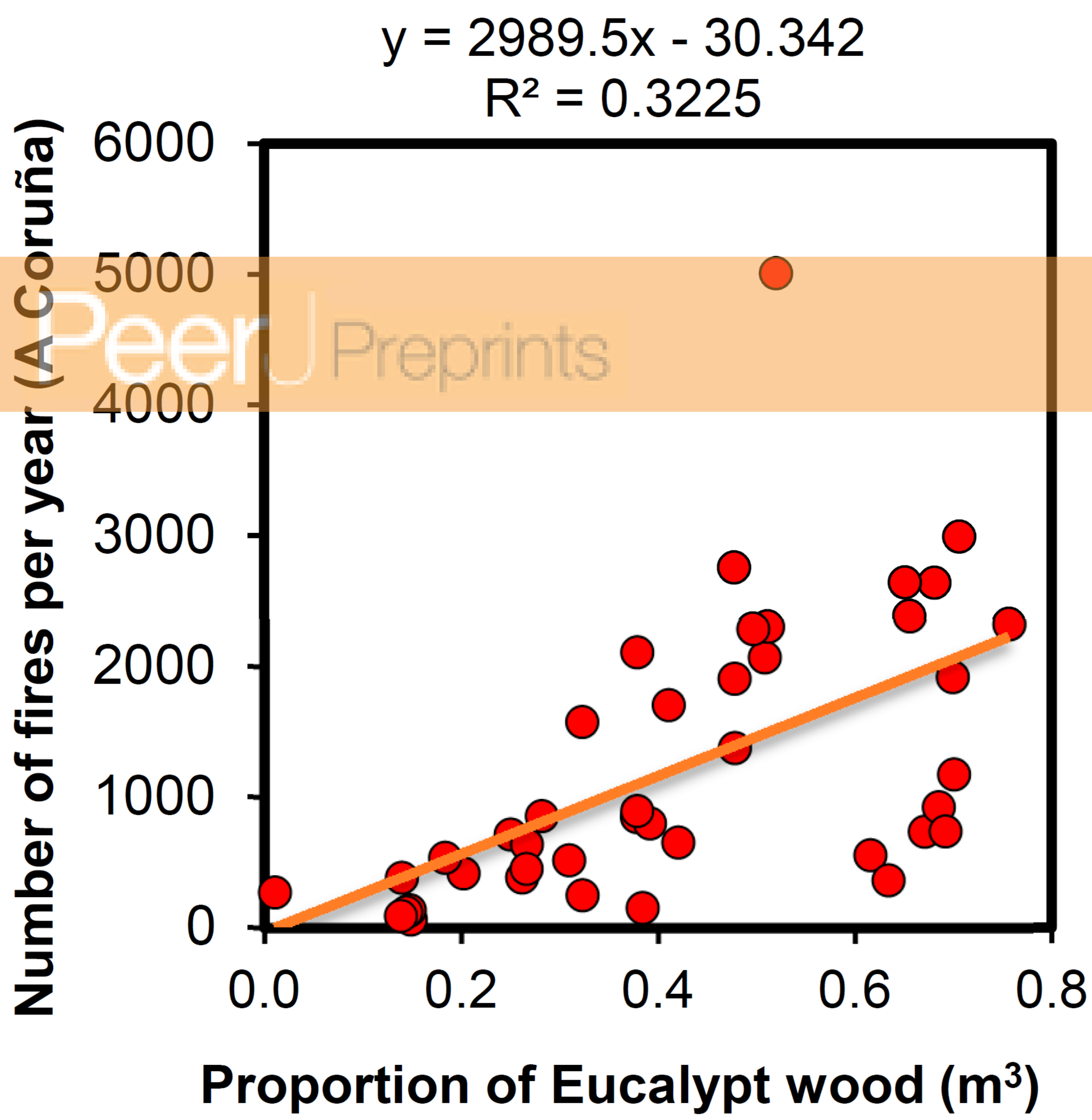


Figure 5 (on next page)

Eucalypts and fire in Galiza (NW Spain).

Temporal variation of eucalypt biomass available in Galician plantations (estimated by four National Forest Inventories) and the number of wildfires in the period of 6 years ending at each inventory. Vertical bars indicate SE.

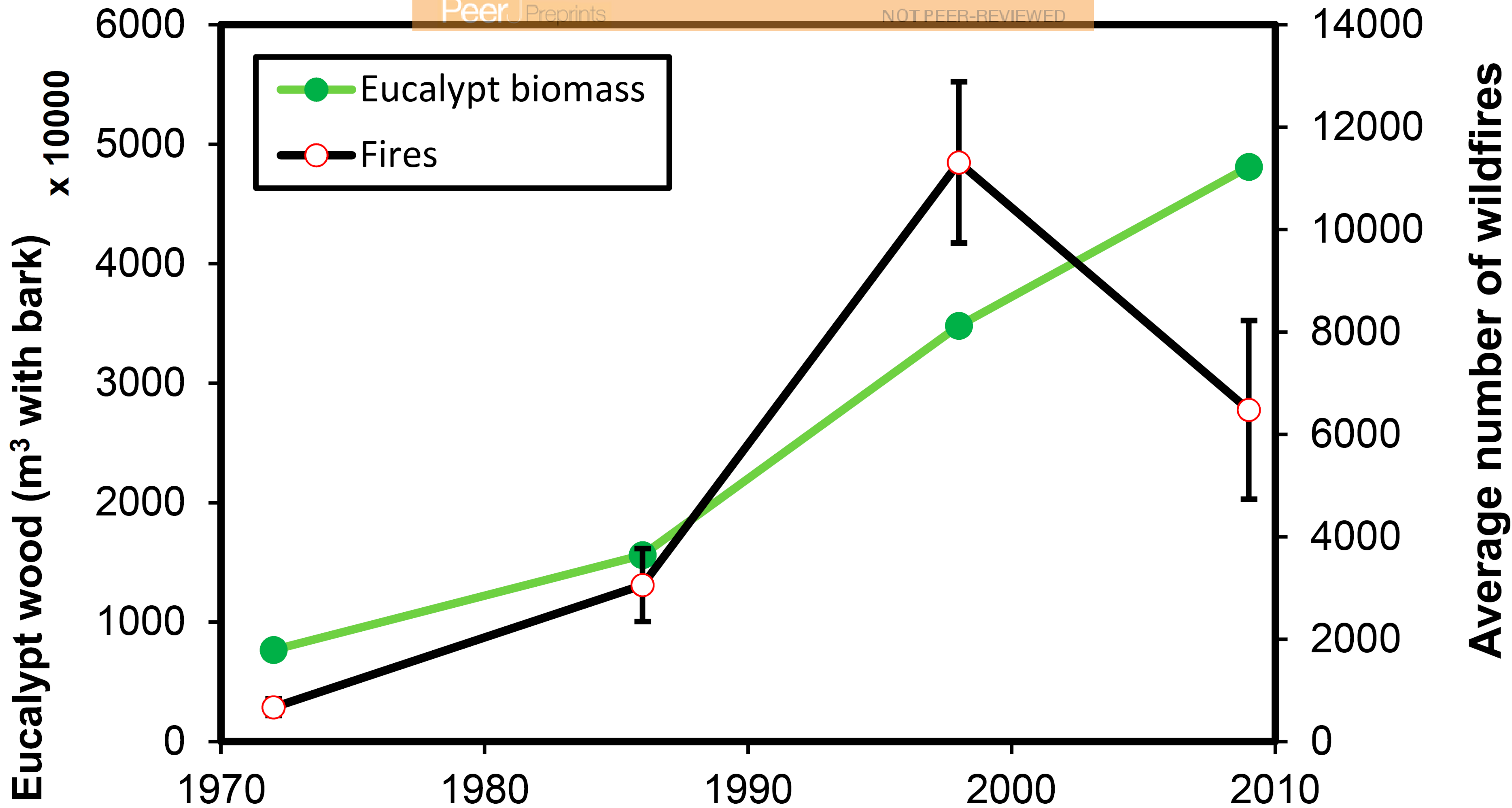


Figure 6(on next page)

Eucalypts and fire in Northern Spain.

The relationship between (A) the proportion of eucalypts over the total wood harvested and (B) the proportion of pyrophytic species (eucalypts and coniferous) and the number of wildfires in 21 provinces of Northern Spain, for the period 2001-2012.

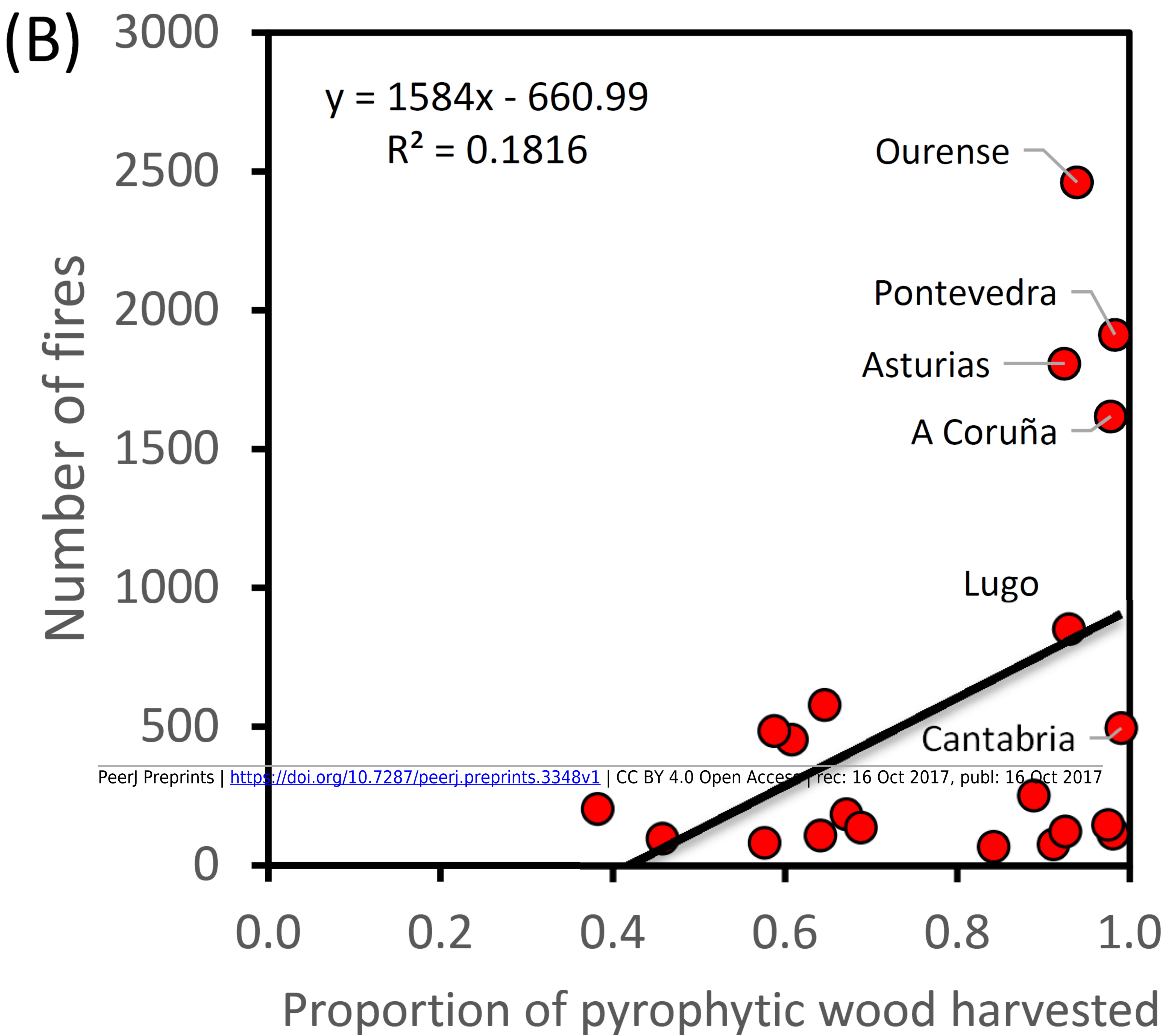
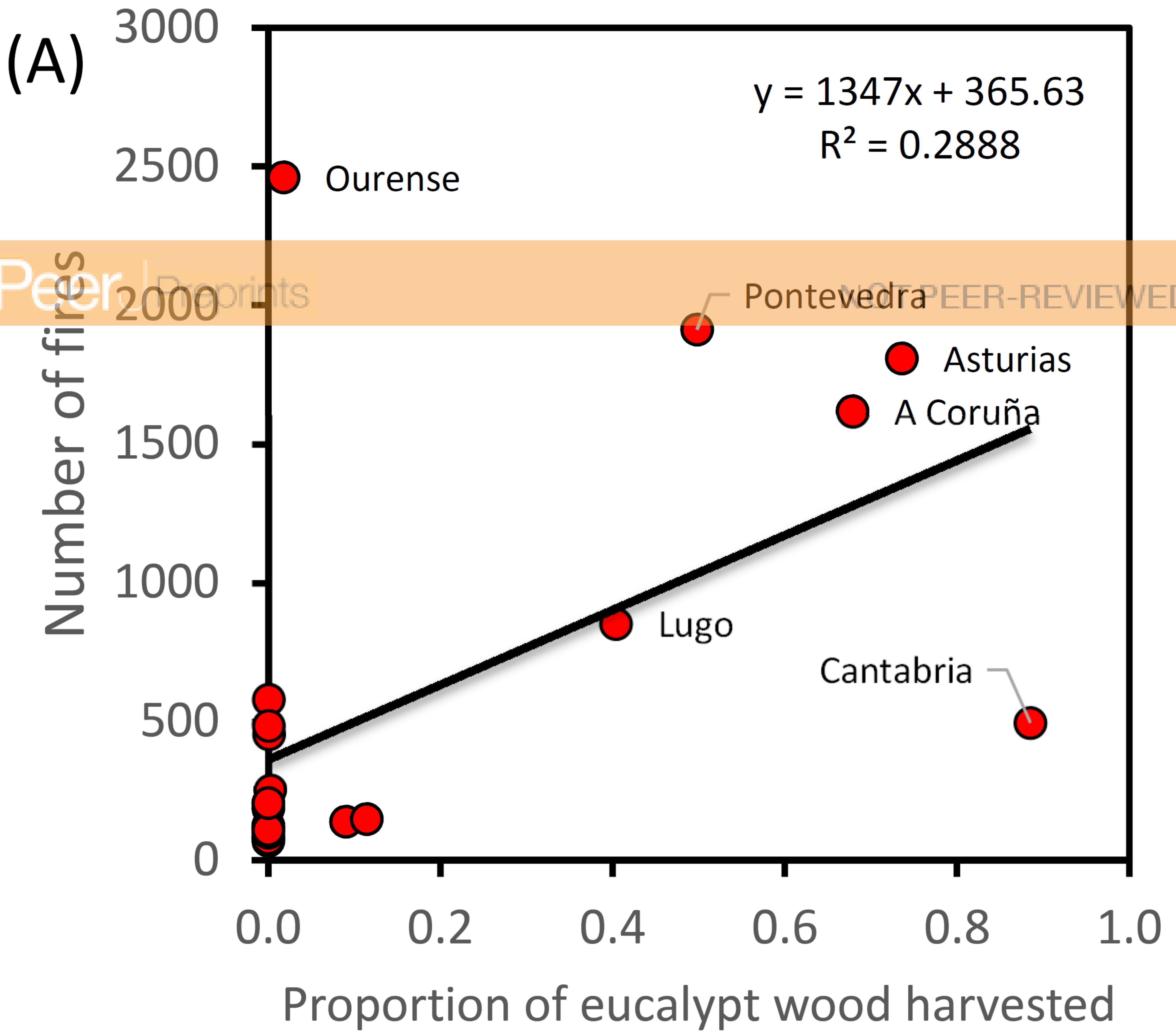


Figure 7 (on next page)

Eucalypts and fire in the Mediterranean.

The relationship between the area planted with eucalypts in 13 Mediterranean countries and the average number of wildfires, for the period 2011-2014. Vertical bars indicate SE.

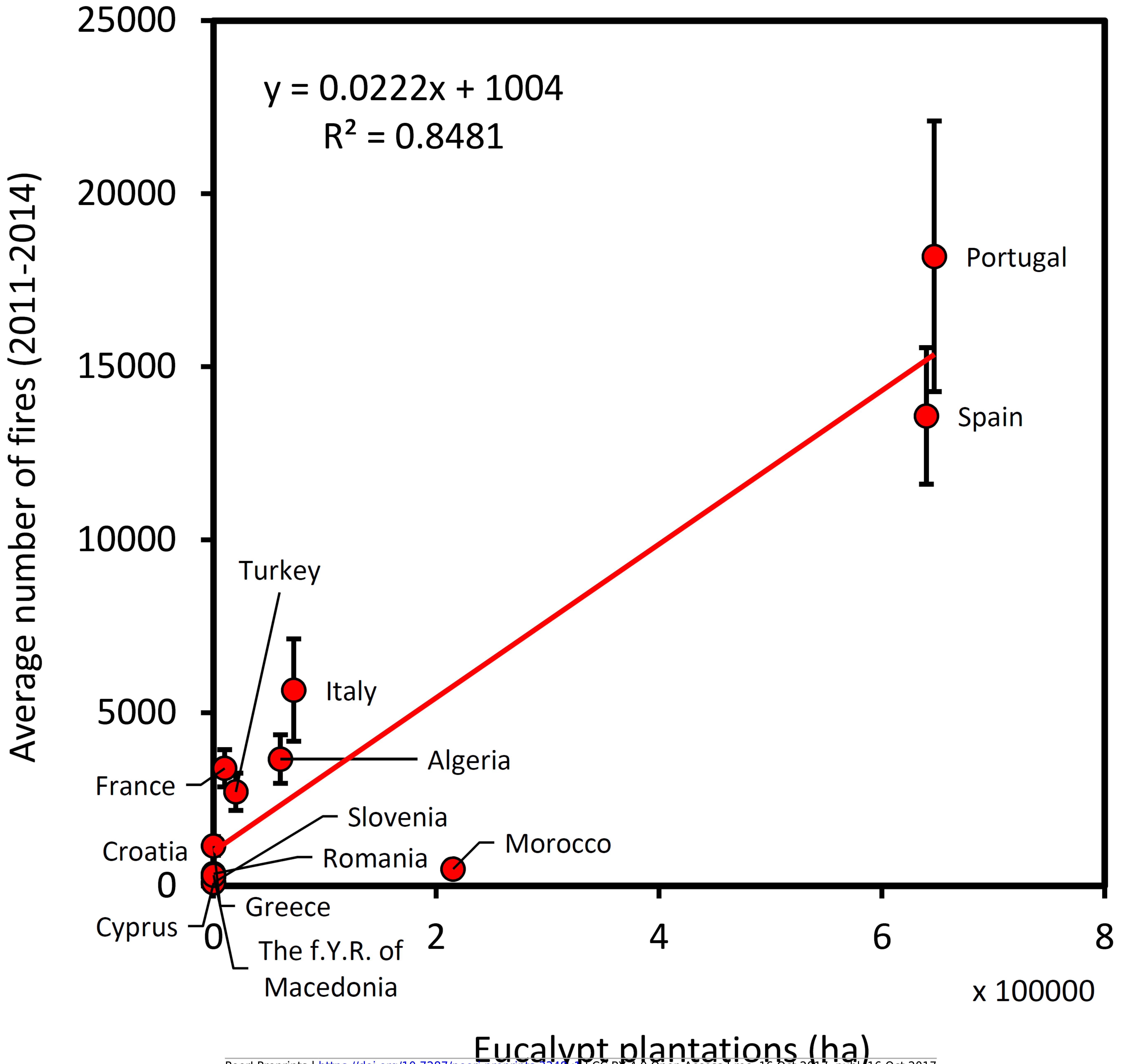


Figure 8(on next page)

The evolution of fire number per year in five Mediterranean countries between 1980 and 2014.

Note that the two countries with the largest eucalypt plantations (Portugal and Spain) show disproportionate fire frequency, particularly compared to France, which is the largest country. Eucalypt plantations have increased dramatically since the early 1990s in Portugal and Spain.

Number of wildfires

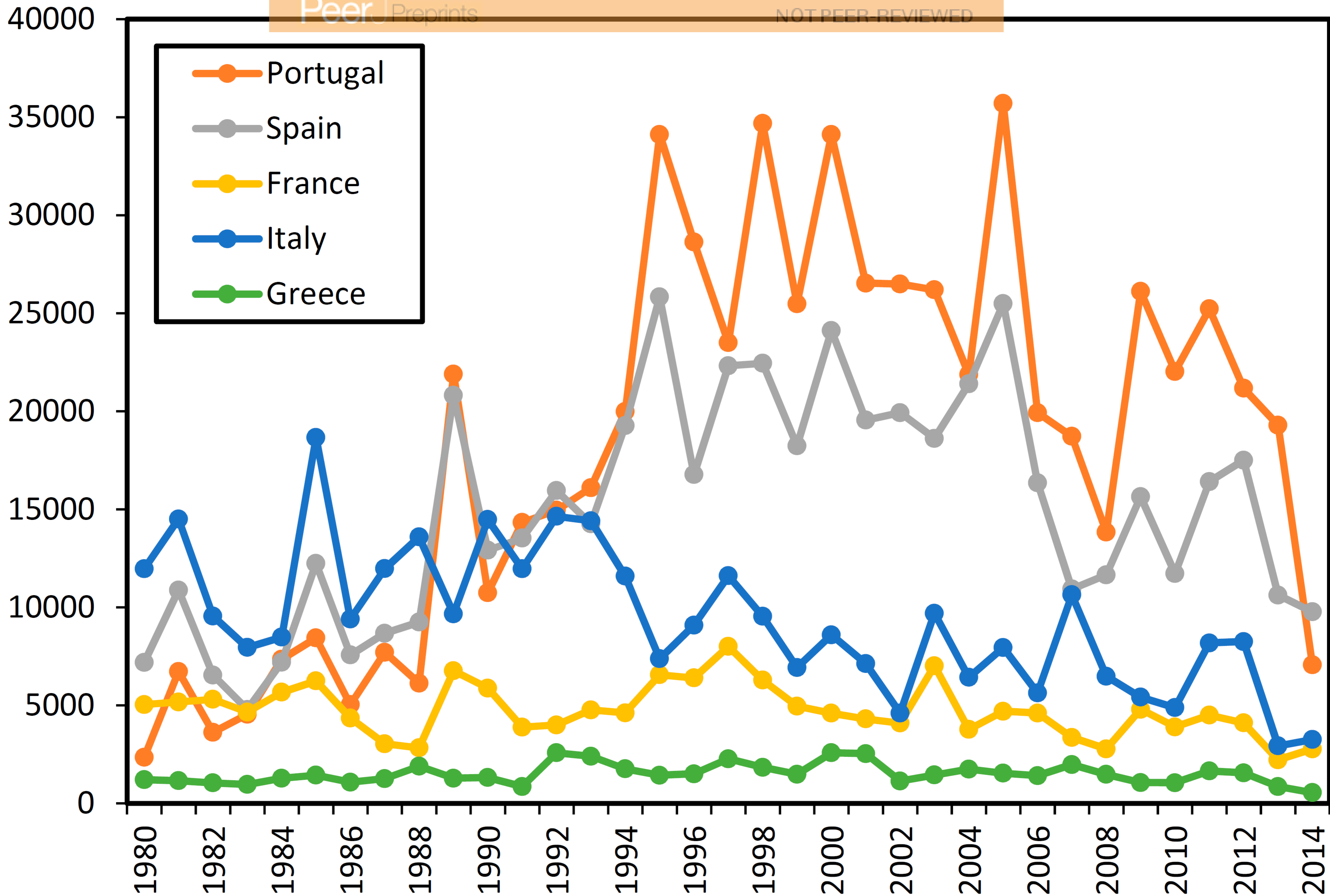
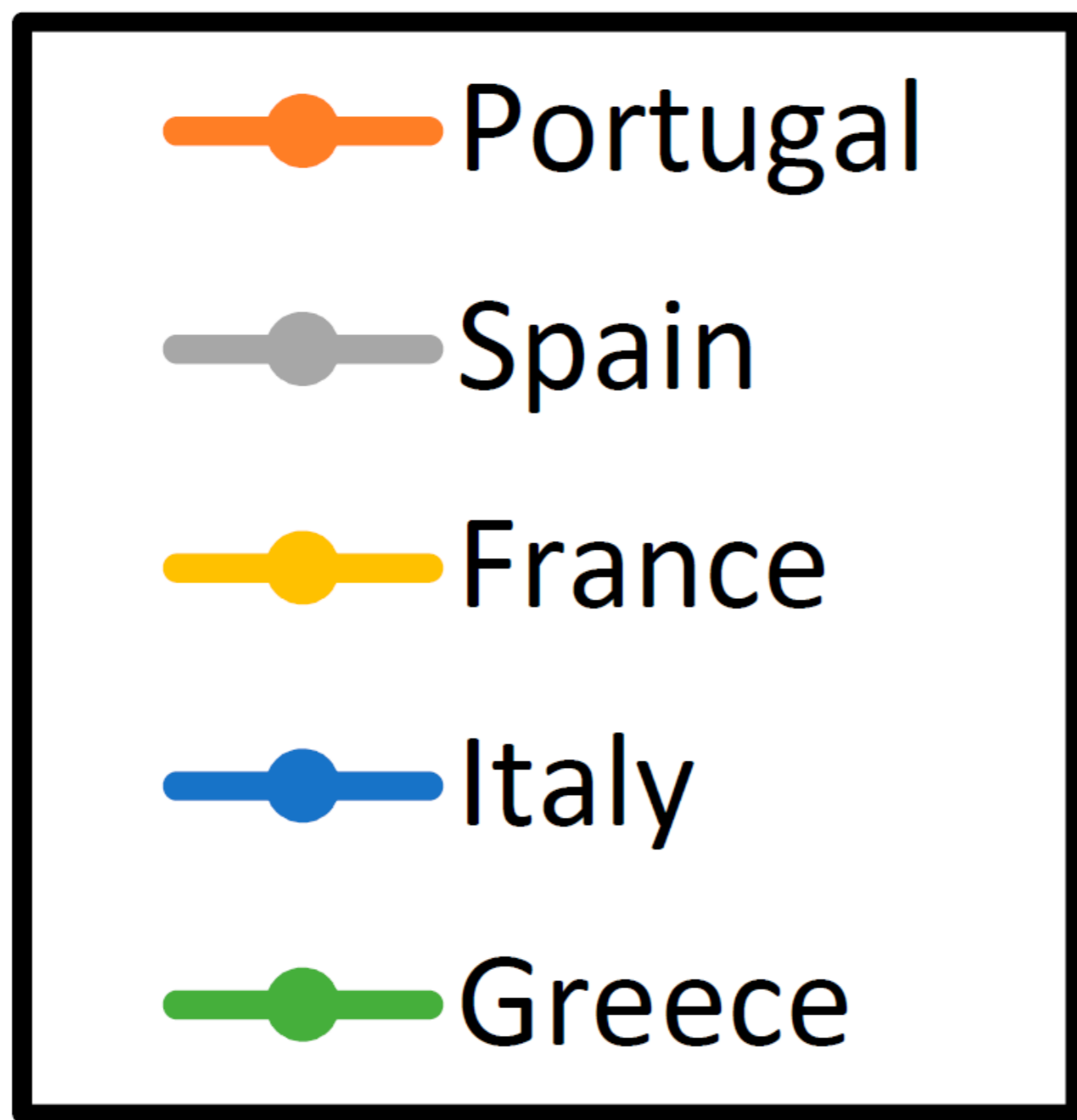


Table 1 (on next page)

Basic statistics of fires

The average number of wildfires per year, standard error (SE), number of years (N), minimum and maximum, the proportion of eucalypt and coniferous wood on wood year removals and coefficients of correlation between fires and those proportions (r). Values in bold are significant at $p < 0.05$. Data for 21 provinces of the North of Spain for the period 1968-2012. Provinces are ordered by decreasing number of fires.

1 Table 1. The average number of wildfires per year, standard error (SE), number of years (N),
 2 minimum and maximum, the proportion of eucalypt and coniferous wood on wood year
 3 removals and coefficients of correlation between fires and those proportions (r). Values in bold
 4 are significant at $p < 0.05$. Data for 21 provinces of the North of Spain for the period 1968-2012.
 5 Provinces are ordered by decreasing number of fires.
 6

Province	Number					Proportion Eucalypts-		Proportion Coniferous-	
	of fires	SE	N	Min	Max	Eucalypts	fire (r)	Coniferous	fire (r)
Pontevedra	1683.3	175.9	45	154	4717	0.343	0.673	0.637	-0.664
Ourense	1642.8	220.3	45	78	5317	0.009	0.694	0.931	-0.117
A Coruña	1264.2	166.4	45	67	5009	0.372	0.672	0.606	-0.651
Asturias	897.2	109.7	45	56	2246	0.553	0.613	0.297	-0.594
Lugo	798.8	92.0	45	38	2465	0.267	0.623	0.637	-0.339
León	432.6	43.3	45	24	1075	0.000		0.398	0.565
Cantabria	318.1	35.0	45	72	1227	0.826	0.497*	0.123	-0.114*
Zamora	315.4	32.8	45	5	835	0.000		0.396	0.451
Navarra	272.9	35.7	37	31	698	0.000		0.453	0.581
Barcelona	236.6	15.1	45	47	549	0.001	-0.007	0.898	0.017
Basque Country	189.4	35.6	34	63	1309	0.030	0.104	0.916	0.181
Burgos	145.6	11.6	45	22	400	0.000		0.702	-0.131
Girona	124.2	9.7	45	10	261	0.036	0.277	0.574	-0.106
Tarragona	117.6	8.5	45	19	268	0.000		0.955	-0.145
Zaragoza	99.3	11.7	45	2	276	0.000		0.443	-0.154
Lleida	83.4	7.0	45	6	198	0.000		0.932	-0.442
Palencia	81.4	9.6	45	9	323	0.000		0.227	0.294
Huesca	76.2	6.8	45	2	227	0.000		0.802	-0.304
La Rioja	73.7	6.9	45	7	197	0.000		0.273	0.572
Valladolid	70.0	5.3	45	15	142	0.000		0.872	-0.260
Soria	47.6	5.1	45	1	156	0.000		0.922	-0.368

7 * The value for 1989 was excluded for the estimation of correlation coefficient, because the
 8 number of fires was a clear outlier