Forest fires are integral to the Mediterranean Basin but fire incidence has increased dramatically during the past decades and fire is expected to become more prevalent in the future due to climate change. Fuel modification by prescribed burning reduces the spread and intensity potential of subsequent wildfires. We used the most recent published data to calculate the average annual wildfire CO2 emissions in France, Greece, Italy, Portugal and Spain following the IPCC guidelines. The effect of...
Forest fires in Mediterranean countries: CO2 emissions and mitigation possibilities through prescribed burning

Journal: Environmental Management

Manuscript ID: ENM-10-0321.R1

Journal Article: Research

Keywords: Forest fires, Prescribed burning, CO2 emissions, Kyoto Protocol

Abstract: Forest fires are an integral part of the ecology of the Mediterranean Basin; however, fire incidence has increased dramatically during the past decades and fire is expected to become more prevalent in the future due to climate change. Fuel modification by prescribed burning reduces the spread and intensity potential of subsequent wildfires. We used the most recently published data to calculate the average annual wildfire CO2 emissions in France, Greece, Italy, Portugal and Spain following the IPCC guidelines. The effect of prescribed burning on emissions was calculated for four scenarios of prescribed burning effectiveness based on data from Portugal. Results show that prescribed burning could have a considerable effect on the carbon balance of the Land Use, Land-Use Change and Forestry (LULUCF) sector in Mediterranean countries. However, uncertainty in emission estimates remains large, and more accurate data is needed, especially regarding fuel load and fuel consumption in different vegetation types and fuel layers and the total area protected from wildfire per unit area treated by prescribed burning, i.e. the leverage of prescribed burning.
Forest fires in Mediterranean countries: CO$_2$ emissions and mitigation possibilities through prescribed burning
Introduction

Fire is a fundamental disturbance in the Mediterranean region. Paleocological studies show that fires were common during the late Quarternary and many species are adapted to frequent fire events (Carrión and others 2003, Pausas and others 2008). Although fire is intrinsic to Mediterranean ecosystems, the number of fires has increased dramatically during the recent decades, mostly due to changes in land use (Pausas 2004, Pausas and others 2008). From 1996 to 2005 the annual average number of fires in Southern Europe exceeded 61 000, which is 34% more than recorded during 1986-1995 (Miranda and others 2009), and currently 0.5 million hectares are burned every year in the five southern EU member states (Portugal, Spain, Greece, Italy, France) (EC 2009). As a result of more frequent and more severe fires, Mediterranean ecosystems can experience loss of biodiversity and soil erosion and desertification (Pausas and others 2008). Fires also cause large economic losses and threaten human lives. In addition, forest fires are a remarkable source of greenhouse gases (GHG). In Portugal the exceptionally large forest area burned in 2003 turned the land use, land-use change and forestry (LULUCF) sector from a net sink into a carbon source of 7 076 Gg CO$_2$ (FCCC 2006).

Climate and weather are major factors influencing fire incidence. Summer drought and area burned are strongly linked (Camia and Amatulli 2010, Carvalho and others 2010, Flannigan and Harrington 1988, Pausas 2004, Pinol and others 1998). Over the next 100 years, climate change is expected to result in summer temperature increases of 4-5 °C throughout Southern Europe and up to 50% decreases in rainfall during summer, which means more extended hot periods and droughts and hence increased fire risk (Lindner and others 2010). In Portugal, dramatic increases in fire occurrence and area burned of...
respectively 279% and 478% are predicted for 2071-2100 in comparison with the 1980-
1990 period (Carvalho and others 2010).

Prescribed burning can be used to manage forest fuels to reduce fire risk (e.g. Fernandes
and Botelho 2004, Fernandes and others 2004). Prescribed burning decreases the
intensity of wildfires by decreasing fuel loads and by disrupting the horizontal and
vertical continuity of the fuel complex (Fernandes and Botelho 2003). Prescribed
burning has been shown to substantially decrease potential or actual fire intensity in
western USA forests (Arno and Brown 1989, Ager and others 2010, Finney and others
2005, Stephens and Moghaddas 2005) and in European pine stands (Fernandes and
burning is not to exclude unplanned fires from the landscape, but to decrease their
intensity and damage caused thus preventing large and catastrophic fires (Fernandes and
Botelho 2003, Loehle 2004). However, fire management in Europe relies heavily on fire
suppression and disregards fuel treatments, e.g. Fernandes (2008), and prescribed
burning is either not used or remains underdeveloped (Lázaro 2010).

As a by-product, prescribed burning could also result in a net reduction of CO₂
emissions from forest fires. Fire emissions have been thoroughly studied in different
parts of the world, but few studies have considered prescribed burning in the context of
carbon emissions mitigation. Wiedinmyer and Hurteau (2010) found that wide-scale
prescribed fire application in the western USA could reduce CO₂ emissions from forest
fires by 18-25% and as much as by 60% in specific forest systems. Narayan and others
(2007) studied the effects of prescribed burning on GHG emissions for 33 European
countries. Their results indicated that the potential of prescribed burning as an emission
mitigation technique is rather low for most European countries, albeit prescribed
burning could be used to mitigate emissions in Southern Europe where wildfire
incidence is high. Defossé and others (2011) evaluated the potential of prescribed burning for reducing greenhouse gas emissions in pine afforestations in the Andean region of Patagonia, Argentina. Their results suggest that prescribed burning would reduce CO₂ emissions by 44% compared to the situation without prescribed fire and the avoided wildfires would allow an additional 78% GHG emission mitigation due to extra biomass growth. Using prescribed burning and other fuel treatments to increase the resistance of fire-prone forests to wildfire should improve their long-term carbon storage (North and others 2009, Stephens and others 2009), although the conclusion is affected by the carbon accounting system used (Sorensen and others 2011). Whether or not prescribed burning can contribute to carbon sequestration depends on how it changes the fire regime, especially in respect to the overall area burned and fire intensity (Bradstock and Williams 2009).

Our aim is to calculate average CO₂ emissions from wildfires in the Mediterranean countries and then estimate the potential of prescribed burning to mitigate emissions, by following the IPCC guidelines and using the most recent data available. We also assess the effectiveness of prescribed burning in the Kyoto Protocol context.

Data and methods

Approach

The total amount of burned biomass was calculated as per Seiler and Crutzen (1980):

\[ M = A \times B \times CF \] [g dry matter per year (g dm/yr)],
where $A$ is the total land area burned annually [$m^2/yr$], $B$ is the average organic matter per unit area [g dm/m$^2$], and $CF$ is the biomass burning efficiency. Burned biomass was then converted into CO$_2$ emissions, $E_c$, using the equation:

$$E_c = M \times E_{fc}$$

where $E_{fc}$ is the emission factor, as the weight of released CO$_2$ per weight of dry matter burned.

We followed the IPCC guidelines (IPCC 2006) and differentiated three fuel components: aboveground tree biomass (further separated into foliage and branches), deadwood, and litter.

### Area burned and biomass

Because the aim was to calculate average annual emissions, the long-term (1980-2008) annual average burned area (European Commission 2009) was used in the calculations (Table 1). To estimate biomass in the burned area, first the mean biomass stock (t/ha) for each fuel compartment (aboveground biomass, deadwood and litter) was calculated using average data of forest and other wooded land from the Global Forest Resources Assessment (FAO 2005). Since the burned area includes both forest and other wooded land, we calculated biomass in the burned area using average values of forest and other wooded land. Biomass allocation (Vilén and others 2005) was then used to calculate the share of foliage and branches biomass from the total aboveground biomass. Deadwood data were available for France and Italy only, and litter data was available just for Italy. Therefore, we calculated the share of deadwood and litter from aboveground biomass based on the data for Italy and France and used these proportions to estimate the carbon
stock of these compartments for the other countries (Table 1). The Global Forest Resources Assessment data (FAO 2005) for deadwood and litter are given as carbon stocks only, and the values were converted back to dry mass by assuming factors of 0.5 carbon units per fuel weight unit for deadwood (IPCC 2006) and 0.37 for litter (Smith and Heath 2002). The total biomass in the burned area was then calculated by multiplying burned area and the calculated mean biomass stocks of different biomass compartments (foliage, branches, deadwood and litter).

### TABLE 1.

**Combustion factors (CF)**

Usually only a fraction of the aboveground biomass burns, and most standing biomass remains in the stand as living trees, dead organic matter or charcoal. The combustion factor (CF) is the fraction of biomass exposed to fire that is actually consumed (Ito and Penner 2003). In Mediterranean conditions, the mean combustion factor of aboveground tree biomass was assumed to be 1 for foliage and 0.1 for branches in a crown fire (Reinhardt 1997). These factors were adjusted by 0.75 assuming that 75% of the burned area is the resultant of a crown fire. Belowground biomass was assumed to be left unburned. A combustion factor of 0.9 was used for both litter and deadwood, which corresponds to the customary near-complete removal by fire under the Mediterranean dry summer conditions (e.g. Fernandes and others 2004).

**Emission factors (E_{fc})**

22
The emission factor is defined as the amount of a released compound per amount of dry fuel consumed, expressed in units of g/kg (Andreae and Merlet 2001). The emission factors from Carvalho and others (2007) for Mediterranean conditions were used. Since CO₂ emission factors are given separately for coniferous and broadleaved trees with 1627 g/kg and 1393 g/kg, respectively, we divided the burned forest area into predominantly conifers, predominantly broadleaved and mixed forests on the basis of forest data from MCPFE 2007. An emission factor was not available for mixed forests, which were attributed with the average value of coniferous and broadleaved fuels, i.e. 1510 g/kg. The mixed forest value was also used for deadwood and litter in the absence of more adequate data.

Effect of prescribed burning

Prescribed burning will not benefit the carbon balance unless it succeeds in decreasing the area burned by wildfire. This effect is directly quantifiable by determining the leverage (Loehle 2004) or return for effort (Price and Bradstock 2011) of prescribed burning, i.e. the area protected (saved) from wildfire per unit area treated by prescribed fire. In Europe, this analysis is precluded by the absence of long-term prescribed burning programs. However, analysis of past wildfire data can be used to uncover the general effect of fuel reduction (as opposed to weather) on future area burned. We determined burning leverage using data from Portugal, which is characterized by wide regional variation in fire incidence and variety in land use and land cover (Nunes and others 2005).

We divided Portugal (≈ 89 x 10³ km²) into its 12 ecoregions (Albuquerque 1961). For each ecoregion and year (1998 to 2010) we used official Forest Service data to
determine: (i) wildfire incidence as the percentage area of forest and shrubland burned; (ii) cumulative wildfire incidence in the preceding two to eight years; and (iii) the 50th, 90th and 95th percentiles of the Canadian Fire Weather Index (FWI) (Van Wagner 1987), used in Portugal for fire danger rating.

The variables within groups (ii) and (iii) were assessed for their ability to explain variation in fire incidence. The selected variables and ecoregion were used as independent variables to model wildfire incidence; we used linear mixed modelling (with year as the random variable) to account for the lack of independence between cumulative fire incidences within each ecoregion. Burn leverage should vary with fire incidence. To identify extremes in burn leverage that could be used in emissions scenarios, we distinguished between ecoregions displaying low (mean annual burned area <2%) and high (mean annual burned area ≥5%) incidence of fire, and fitted separate models to the respective sub-sets of data. Burn leverage was interpreted as the slope of the equation relating wildfire incidence and past fire incidence, multiplied by the time period (Boer and others 2009, Price and Bradstock 2011). The burn leverage estimates were compared with those calculated from the output of the BehavePlus fire modelling system (Andrews and others 2008).

Estimation of the prescribed burning effect considered two levels in treatment effort, respectively 2% and 20% of the mean annual area burned by wildfire, and reflecting the current degree of prescribed fire development in Portugal [http://www.afn.min-agricultura.pt] and in France (Lázaro 2010). While the treatment effort in Spain is comparable to Portugal, prescribed fire programs are absent from Greece and Italy. The two levels in treatment effort were combined with the two burn leverage extremes, hence resulting in four emission scenarios for prescribed burning.
Combustion factors for prescribed burning were assumed to be 0.5 for litter and 0.2 for deadwood. Although prescribed burning should not damage overstory trees, a combustion factor of 0.05 was used for foliage biomass to avoid overestimating the mitigation effect of prescribed burning. These combustion factors were based on an extensive database of experimental fires (Fernandes and others 2009). The mitigation effect of each scenario was then calculated by comparing emissions with and without prescribed burning.

Kyoto Protocol

To evaluate the effectiveness of prescribed burning in the Kyoto Protocol context, we compared the emissions mitigation with the year 2007 carbon stock losses of the LULUCF sector, as reported in the 2009 National Inventory submissions for UNFCCC (UNFCCC 2009). There the gains and losses of living biomass and net carbon stock change of dead organic matter are reported. Under Article 3.4 of the Kyoto Protocol, Parties may elect additional human-induced activities related to LULUCF specifically, forest management, cropland management, grazing land management and revegetation, to be included in their accounting of anthropogenic GHG emissions and removals for the first commitment period. Upon election, this decision by a Party is fixed for the first commitment period. When LULUCF activities under Article 3.4 result in a net removal of GHGs, an Annex I Party can issue removal units (RMUs) on the basis of these activities as part of meeting its commitments. Thus we considered the mitigation effect also in regards to the Article 3.4 of the Kyoto Protocol, comparing the mitigated wildfire emissions with the Article 3.4 maximum eligible sink in the countries studied.
Uncertainty analysis

To get an estimate of the overall uncertainty in wildfire emission estimates, we combined the uncertainty of different factors using the error propagation equation (IPCC 2006)

\[ U_{\text{total}} = \sqrt{U_1^2 + U_2^2 + \ldots + U_n^2} \]

where \( U_{\text{total}} \) is the percentage uncertainty in the product of the quantities and \( U_i \) are the percentage uncertainties associated with each quantity.

In error propagation, we used uncertainty estimates from Andreae and Merlet (2001): 50% uncertainty for burned biomass, mainly attributable to the biomass estimate in the burned area and the biomass consumption by fire, and 30% uncertainty for the emission factor.

Results

Wildfire emissions

Estimated annual average fire emissions in the Mediterranean countries ranged from 5816 Gg CO\(_2\) in Italy to 359 Gg CO\(_2\) in Greece (Table 2). Litter produced most of the emissions, around 49%, and deadwood and aboveground biomass represented around 36% and 15% of emissions in all countries, respectively. Lack of data precluded consideration of the emissions coming from soil. Average fire emissions were largest in Italy (Table 2) although Spain registers the highest average burned area (Table 1), because the mean aboveground biomass stock (average of forest and other wooded land)
in Italy is 94.3 t/ha whereas in Spain it is 18.5 t/ha only, based on FRA 2005 data (FAO 2005). High fuel loads in France also lead to quite high emissions although the annually burned area is the lowest of the studied countries.

TABLE 2.

Prescribed burning leverage

Mean annual wildfire incidence over the 13-year period varied from 0.66% to 6.81% across the Portuguese ecoregions, with an overall mean of 3.62% and means of 0.94% and 5.96% for the ecoregions with low and high fire incidence. The variables selected for inclusion in the fire incidence model were the FWI 95th percentile and the % area burned in the past 6 years. Both variables, as well as ecoregion, were statistically significant at the $p<0.05$ level (Table 3).

TABLE 3.

The regression coefficients for 6-year fire incidence imply burn leverages of 1.0 and 1.8, respectively when wildfire incidence is low and high. The extent and spatial organization of fuel treatments affect how landscape fire spread is disturbed. If the treatment effect persists for 6 years and an annual treatment rate of 5% is assumed, then fire spread will be disrupted or delayed over 30% of the landscape at any given time. The corresponding BehavePlus simulation indicates burn leverages of 1.5 and 2.9, respectively when prescribed burning placement is random or strategic. Based on these results, emissions are calculated for two extremes in prescribed burning leverage: a 1 ha decrease in the area burned by wildfire for each treated ha, where low wildfire incidence
determines that the chance of a wildfire encountering a previously burned area is low; and a 3-ha wildfire area decrease per ha treated, where wildfire incidence is high and the spatial pattern of prescribed burning is optimized.

Mitigation of emissions by prescribed burning

The effect of prescribed burning is based on four scenarios for treatment effort and impact on wildfire area:

I) 2% of the annually burned area treated by prescribed fire, assuming 1 ha decrease in the area burned by wildfire for each treated ha

II) 2% of the annually burned area treated by prescribed fire, assuming 3 ha decrease in the area burned by wildfire for each treated ha

III) 20% of the annually burned area treated by prescribed fire, assuming 1 ha decrease in the area burned by wildfire for each treated ha

IV) 20% of the annually burned area treated by prescribed fire, assuming 3 ha decrease in the area burned by wildfire for each treated ha

Figure 1 compares CO$_2$ emissions for the four prescribed burning scenarios and the situation without prescribed burning (baseline). Figure 1 shows that a small treated area corresponds to minor decreases in emissions, even for the highest prescribed burning leverage. Prescribed burning over an area equal to 2% of the average annually burned area would lead to a reduction in emissions of only 1-5%, depending on the assumed leverage of the treatment (Scenarios I and II). Conversely, the mitigation effect of the other two prescribed burning scenarios both resulted in a substantial decrease in emissions; fire emissions are around 13% lower with Scenario III and around 52% lower with Scenario IV.
In the Kyoto Protocol, emissions from forest fires are part of the LULUCF sector balance and are calculated as losses from forest carbon stocks. Therefore we compared our results with the LULUCF data from the UNFCCC National Inventory Submissions 2009 to assess the magnitude of the mitigation effect accomplished by prescribed burning. In addition, we compared the emissions reduction with the Article 3.4 largest eligible sink (Table 4). Here we present the results as carbon, because sinks and losses as well as Article 3.4 largest eligible sinks are presented as carbon (Mt C) in the Kyoto Protocol.

Table 4 shows that the decrease in emissions resulting from prescribed burning scenario IV is also substantial in the context of the Kyoto Protocol. Compared to the LULUCF sector reported losses in 2009, the decrease in carbon stock losses were 1-11%, depending on the country (Table 4). If prescribed burning would be accounted for as an Article 3.4 forest management activity, even Scenarios I and II would lead to a 0.6-31% reduction in emissions of the Article 3.4 largest eligible sink, depending on country. For Scenarios III and IV, the largest eligible sink would be achieved in Italy and Portugal. Thus, prescribed burning could have a considerable effect on the carbon balance of the LULUCF sector.

Discussion
Uncertainties

The annually burned area used in the calculations was the annual average for the period 1980-2008 based on official statistics (European Commission 2009) including both forests and other wooded lands. To estimate the biomass in the burned area, we calculated the average biomass of the forest and other wooded land based on the FAO Forest Resource Assessment data (FAO 2005). Because data for all fuel compartments was not available for all of the studied countries, we had to estimate the missing values based on existing data. Furthermore, we excluded understorey vegetation from the calculations due to lack of data. Understorey vegetation can be an important fuel compartment, especially in open Mediterranean forests, and its exclusion underestimates CO₂ emissions. However, because understorey vegetation is burned in both wildfires and prescribed fires, its absence from the calculations has only a minor effect on the results when comparing wildfire and prescribed burning emissions.

The combustion factor used in the calculations has a large impact on the results. Since only a fraction of the aboveground biomass is consumed by fire, usually the foliage and the finer branches, we used biomass allocation shares (Vilén and others 2005) to estimate the aboveground biomass fractions of foliage and branches. Then separate combustion factors were used for foliage and branches instead of applying a single combustion factor to the whole aboveground biomass. Emission factors used in this study were suited for Mediterranean ecosystems (Carvalho and others 2007).
The results reliability is thus affected by multiple factors. To get a rough estimate of the overall level of uncertainty in our results, we estimated total uncertainty by using published estimates of uncertainty for the burned biomass and emission factor. The results indicate that the degree of uncertainty in our fire emission estimates is very high, the error propagation calculation resulting in a total uncertainty of ±58%.

Wildfire emissions

Wildfire emissions in the Mediterranean countries have been previously studied. Narayan and others (2007) estimated emissions in 33 European countries when investigating the potential for CO₂ emissions mitigation through prescribed burning. Miranda and others (2005) used models NFDRS and EMISPREAD to estimate the emissions for the 2001 Southern European forest fires. A comparison of the results (Table 5) shows that our study yields the highest country level estimates for all countries but Greece. Different reference periods explain part of the differences; our results are based on the long-term average burned area, while the others are either for a single year (Miranda and others 2005) or a shorter time period average (Narayan and others 2007). Individual years can deviate substantially from the long-term average. Miranda and others (2005) studied the year 2001, when the burned area was quite low compared to the long-term average, e.g. in Spain 93 297 ha burned compared to a long-term average of 179 043 ha (European Commission 2009). Furthermore, the use of country level average biomass in the calculations presumably lead to an overestimation of emissions, at least in Italy, where the highest incidence of fire (in the South) is not coincident with the highest biomass stocks (in the North).
The differences between this study results and those of Narayan and others (2007) are explainable by differences in methodology. Narayan and others (2007) converted the combusted biomass into carbon before multiplying the values by the emission factor. However, since the emission factor is the amount of a compound released per amount of dry fuel consumed (Andreae and Merlet 2001), multiplying the consumed dry mass by the carbon content leads to incorrect results. Furthermore, we took into account the combustion of deadwood and litter instead of just estimating the emissions from aboveground tree biomass.

TABLE 5.

Effectiveness of prescribed burning

Prescribed burning creates fuel-modified areas where the intensity of subsequent wildfires is decreased, increasing the likelihood of fire suppression and leading to a decrease in the number and size of large wildfires. Although many study cases are available on the effects of prescribed burning on wildfire intensity and severity (e.g. Fernandes and Botelho 2003, Finney and others 2005) it is difficult to assess the overall effect of prescribed burning on wildfire incidence at the country level. Prescribed burning effectiveness is not easy to estimate since it varies between ecosystems and is affected by the overall fire management process (Fernandes and Botelho 2003). The highest return for effort of prescribed burning is expected in litter-dominated systems (e.g. Collins and others 2009) as opposed to shrub-dominated systems (e.g. Keeley 2002). Pinol and others (2005, 2007) used a simple simulation model to investigate
whether large wildfires in the Mediterranean region are a result of extreme weather conditions or the cumulative effect of a policy of fire suppression over time. Their results suggest that the total area burned is much the same regardless of fire suppression and prescribed burning efforts; however, prescribed burning reduced fire intensity over the landscape. Boer and others (2009) studied a 52-year fire history from a eucalypt forest region in southwestern Australia to quantify the impact of prescribed burning on the occurrence, extent and size distribution of wildfires. Their results indicate that prescribed burning has significantly reduced the incidence and extent of unplanned large fires, hence providing strong empirical evidence for its effectiveness in the mitigation of wildfire hazard. However, because of differences in the fire environment, ignition density and fire suppression, their results cannot be extrapolated to forests elsewhere.

Narayan and others (2007) based their assumptions about prescribed burning effectiveness on landscape fire spread modelling (Finney 2001, 2003), where a prescribed burning effort around 10% of the annual wildfire area would decrease wildfire incidence by 50%. Defossé and others (2011) studied the prescribed burning effect in Patagonia and followed the assumptions adopted by Narayan and others (2007). Finney and others (2007) worked with four case study areas in the western USA and found that strategically placing fuel treatments reduces modelled landscape fire growth rates under severe weather conditions more effectively than the random allocation of fuel treatments. In fact, random fuel treatments had to be implemented at about twice the treatment rate of optimally placed fuel treatments to achieve the same reduction in fire growth rates. Our adopted scenarios are consistent with these findings. It is reasonable to expect that strategically placed prescribed burning treatments will
perform better than random treatments, namely in the heterogeneous and fragmented Mediterranean Basin landscapes (Fernandes and Botelho 2003).

There are also contradictory views about how reasonable it is to use prescribed burning as a tool to maximize forest carbon stocks. Mitchell and others (2009) found that fuel treatments can be effective in decreasing fire severity, but fuel removal almost always reduces C storage more than the additional C that a stand is able to store when made more resistant to wildfire. North and others (2009) studied the carbon released by different fuel treatments in the western United States and suggest modifying current treatments to focus on reducing surface fuels, actively thinning most small trees and removing only fire-sensitive species in the merchantable, intermediate size-class. That would result in the development of large, fire resistant trees and reduce emissions from potential future wildfire.

Climate change is expected to result in more extensive and severe wildfires throughout southern Europe (Carvalho and others 2009, Lindner and others 2010). Consequently there is a pressing need for landscape-level fuel treatments, including prescribed burning, which has been recognized by the IPPC (2007). The potential of prescribed burning to manage forests and wildlands in Europe remains largely unfulfilled. Future development of prescribed burning will require higher awareness of the role of fire on ecosystems, changes in fire management policies, and acceptance by stakeholders and the general public (Galiana and Lázaro 2010).

This study analysed the potential of prescribed burning to mitigate CO$_2$ emissions in the Mediterranean countries by taking into account its impact on the area burned by wildfire. Results indicate that an increase in the use of prescribed burning would limit wildfires more effectively than in other Mediterranean ecosystems (Boer and others 2009, Price and Bradstock 2011). However, our estimates of prescribed burning
leverage (the total area protected from wildfire per unit area treated) were based on wildfire data. Accurate estimation of the mitigation effect would need long-term data on prescribed burning leverage. In the absence of such data, research should strive to quantify to what extent vegetation and fuel accumulation and connectivity contribute to large fire spread in Europe.

Uncertainties related to fire emission estimates remain large and more data on fuel load and fuel consumption in different fuel layers are needed. So far, most of the studies have taken into account only the aboveground tree biomass although understorey vegetation, litter and soil remarkably contribute to emissions. Estimating the forest floor emissions is the most uncertain component when modelling carbon emissions from forest fires, since its consumption can range from near zero to 100% (de Groot and others 2007). This should be a minor source of uncertainty in the Mediterranean, where fire activity largely coincides with the summer drought period when the forest floor is totally available to burn (Camia and Amatulli 2009). Explicitly accounting for emissions from soil and understorey vegetation would improve our estimates of both wildfire emissions and the effect of prescribed burning. However, the current data and understanding already allows concluding that prescribed burning can have a considerable effect on the carbon balance of the LULUCF sector. More accurate assessments would require partitioning area burned by vegetation type and appraising fuel loading and consumption by vegetation type.

Acknowledgements

This study is part of the project ‘FIRE PARADOX - an Innovative Approach to Integrated Wildland Fire Management Regulating the Wildfire Problem by the Wise
Use of Fire: Solving the Fire Paradox’, funded by the European Commission (contract FP6-018505). The reviewing process brought significant improvements to this paper.
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Table 1 Forest area, average burned area and mean biomass stocks in different compartments. Values in *italics* are estimated based on data from other Mediterranean countries.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Forest area, 1000 ha ¹</th>
<th>Burned area, ha/yr</th>
<th>Mean stock, t dm/ha ¹</th>
<th>Forest</th>
<th>Other wooded land</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Forest</td>
<td>Other wooded land</td>
<td>Average 1980-2008 ²</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Aboveground biomass</td>
<td>Deadwood</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>15 554</td>
<td>1 708</td>
<td>28 460</td>
<td>118.94</td>
<td>17.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greece</td>
<td>3 752</td>
<td>2 780</td>
<td>49 044</td>
<td>26.12</td>
<td>4.01</td>
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<tr>
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<td>1 047</td>
<td>118 022</td>
<td>104.52</td>
<td>16.03</td>
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<tr>
<td>Portugal</td>
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<td>84</td>
<td>109 327</td>
<td>38.59</td>
<td>5.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>17 915</td>
<td>10 299</td>
<td>179 043</td>
<td>36.9</td>
<td>5.09</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 2** Annual average burned biomass, carbon stock losses and CO\(_2\) emissions in wildfires

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Burned biomass, Mg</th>
<th>C stock losses</th>
<th>CO(_2) emissions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>foliage branches deadwood litter total</td>
<td>Mg C</td>
<td>Mg CO(_2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>112 588 29 878 311 466 438 207 892 140</td>
<td>389 103</td>
<td>1 340 682</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greece</td>
<td>16 328 12 133 93 576 115 717 237 754</td>
<td>103 834</td>
<td>358 509</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>147 720 199 714 1 459 460 2 061 238 3 868 13</td>
<td>1 666 105</td>
<td>5 816 367</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Portugal</td>
<td>368 163 134 152 930 810 1 499 848 2 932 974</td>
<td>1 271 507</td>
<td>4 408 808</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>174 859 57 972 412 515 492 126 1 137 472</td>
<td>504 759</td>
<td>1 719 108</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Table 3** Fire incidence models: significance (p-values) of the independent variables effects and regression coefficients (± std. error) for past fire incidence

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fire incidence models</th>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Ecoregion</th>
<th>FW195\textsuperscript{th} perc.</th>
<th>6-year wildfire incidence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Low (n=39, (R^2=0.37))</td>
<td>0.004</td>
<td>0.004</td>
<td>0.048</td>
<td>-0.167 ± 0.078</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High (n=52, (R^2=0.74))</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
<td>-0.306 ± 0.077</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4  Comparison of the effectiveness of prescribed burning in the context of the Kyoto Protocol. Reported 2007 LULUCF sector carbon losses (Mt C), estimated emission reduction through prescribed burning, emission reduction compared with LULUCF sector losses (%), Article 3.4 largest eligible C sink (Mt C) and emission reduction compared with Article 3.4 largest eligible sink (%). n.a = Spain has reported only net change, not losses separately (UNFCCC National Inventory Submissions 2009). Numbers I-IV refer to the prescribed burning scenarios.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>2007 LULUCF sector losses (Mt C)</th>
<th>Emission reduction through prescribed burning (Mt C)</th>
<th>Emission reduction/reported LULUCF C losses (%)</th>
<th>Article 3.4 Largest eligible sink (Mt C)</th>
<th>Emission reduction from Article 3.4 largest sink (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I</td>
<td>II</td>
<td>III</td>
<td>IV</td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>20.49</td>
<td>0.0052</td>
<td>0.0208</td>
<td>0.0521</td>
<td>0.2078</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greece</td>
<td>1.31</td>
<td>0.0014</td>
<td>0.0055</td>
<td>0.0138</td>
<td>0.0554</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>20.91</td>
<td>0.0215</td>
<td>0.0882</td>
<td>0.2151</td>
<td>0.8815</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Portugal</td>
<td>6.12</td>
<td>0.0170</td>
<td>0.0678</td>
<td>0.1695</td>
<td>0.6781</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>n.a</td>
<td>0.0070</td>
<td>0.0272</td>
<td>0.0704</td>
<td>0.2723</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 5. Comparison of wildfire emission (Gg CO₂) results of different studies. NFDRS and EMISPREAD refers to the results of the two fire emission models used by Miranda and others (2005).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>This study</th>
<th>NFDRS</th>
<th>EMISPREAD</th>
<th>Narayan et al.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>1 341</td>
<td>415</td>
<td>211</td>
<td>995</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greece</td>
<td>359</td>
<td>466</td>
<td>230</td>
<td>319</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>5 816</td>
<td>1 236</td>
<td>951</td>
<td>2 009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Portugal</td>
<td>4 409</td>
<td>2 712</td>
<td>2 596</td>
<td>2 025</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>1 719</td>
<td>1 555</td>
<td>1 225</td>
<td>1 006</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Fig. 1 CO₂ emissions (Gg CO₂) in the five investigated countries under different scenario assumptions. Baseline refers to the situation without prescribed burning and Scenario I-IV to the prescribed burning scenarios. Error bars represent the standard error (±58%) of the wildfire emission estimates.