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20 **SHORT COMMUNICATION**

21

22 **Limited contribution of post-fire eco-engineering techniques to support post-fire**
23 **plant diversity**

24

25 **Abstract**

26 Eco-engineering techniques are generally effective at reducing soil erosion and restore
27 vegetal cover after wildfire. However, less evidence exists on the effects of the post-fire
28 eco-engineering techniques to restore plant diversity. To fill this knowledge gap, a
29 standardized regional-scale analysis of the influence of post-fire eco-engineering
30 techniques (log erosion barriers, contour felled log debris, mulching, chipping and
31 felling, in some cases with burning) on species richness and diversity is proposed,
32 adopting the Iberian Peninsula as case study. In general, no significant differences in
33 species richness and diversity (Shannon) were found between the forest treated with
34 different post-fire eco-engineering techniques, and the burned and non-treated soils.
35 Only small significant differences were found for some sites treated with log erosion
36 barriers or mulching. The latter technique increased species richness and diversity in
37 some pine species and shrublands. Contour felled log debris with burning slightly
38 increased vegetation diversity, while log erosion barriers, chipping and felling were not
39 successful in supporting plant diversity. This research will help forest managers and
40 agents in Mediterranean forest to decide the best postfire management option for
41 wildfire affected forest, and in the development of more effective post-fire strategies.

42

43 **Keywords:** wildfire; species richness; species diversity; log erosion barriers; contour
44 felled log debris; mulching.

45

46 **1. Introduction**

47 Forest ecosystems that are affected by wildfires undergo noticeable changes in soil
48 properties, and vegetation cover and biodiversity. Due to these changes, post-fire high-
49 intensity storms expose forest soil to erosion and consequent degradation (Pereira et al.,

50 2018; Fernández and Vega, 2016; Morán-Ordóñez et al., 2020). To contrast these

51 degradation factors, millions of euros are currently being spent in short-term post-fire
52 management actions (Lucas-Borja, 2021). Many of these actions are eco-engineering
53 techniques designed to support economic sustainability and environmental compatibility
54 including mulching, and the construction of log erosion barriers or contour felled log
55 debris (Lucas-Borja, 2021; Zema, 2021). Post-fire eco-engineering techniques are
56 conducted within one year of a fire to stabilize the burned soil, protect public health and
57 infrastructures, and reduce the risk of additional damage to valued forest ecosystems
58 (Robichaud et al., 2010; Vega et al., 2018). These techniques control the soil's
59 hydrological response and, at the same time, enhance recovery of soil properties and
60 restoration of plant cover and biomass to the pre-fire levels. Much less is known,
61 however, on the capacity of post-fire eco-engineering techniques to support the
62 restoration of plant diversity. For example, by trapping seeds or generating higher soil
63 moisture nearby eco-engineering techniques, postfire management structures may
64 change seeder-to-resprouter and woody-to-nonwoody species ratios, which alters forest
65 structure after wildfires (Gómez-Sánchez et al., 2019). Moreover, current knowledge,
66 based on local surveys, on the effectiveness of post-fire eco-engineering techniques is
67 highly variable, and depends on the wildfire severity and characteristics of forest
68 ecosystems (topography, rainfall characteristics and plant composition) (Badía et al.,
69 2015; Robichaud, 1998; Girona-García et al. 2021).

70

71 Although several studies have evaluated the effects of several post-fire eco-engineering
72 techniques on soil hydrology and vegetation cover (Morgan et al., 2014; Gómez-
73 Sánchez et al., 2019; Fernández et al., 2019), less information is available on how
74 vegetation diversity responds after the installation of eco-engineering materials and
75 structures. In other words, while the increase in vegetation cover is expected after post-
76 fire management actions, the knowledge on how and to what extent the eco-engineering
77 techniques drive richness and plant diversity is very limited. This is an essential concern
78 in the Mediterranean forest ecosystems, which are considered a global hotspot of
79 biodiversity and are threatened by a severe risk of wildfire and often affected by high
80 erosion rates (Moody et al., 2013; Shakesby, 2011). In these environmental contexts,
81 these risks may be aggravated by the expected scenarios of climate change (Collins et
82 al., 2013), which forecast a directional loss in water-limited climates of plant
83 community diversity at multiple levels of organization (Harrison et al., 2020). Learning
84 more about how post-fire eco-engineering techniques influence plant diversity is further

85 essential to support the myriad of ecosystem functions and services supported by
86 biodiversity.

87

88 To fill this gap of knowledge, a standardized regional-scale database about the influence
89 of post-fire eco-engineering techniques on plant diversity was collected. The effects of a
90 set of five techniques (log erosion barriers, contour felled log debris, mulching,
91 chipping and felling, in some cases with burning) on species richness and diversity are
92 evaluated in nine forest sites that were affected by wildfire in Spain. This country
93 together with Greece, France, Italy, and Portugal constitute over 85% of the most
94 vulnerable areas to fire in Europe, and belong to the Mediterranean Basin that is largely
95 threatened by extreme wildfires (Moreira et al., 2020) (San-Miguel-Ayanz et al., 2017).
96 To the authors' best knowledge, this is the first comprehensive study that has analyzed
97 the effect of a broad set of post-fire management techniques on vegetation diversity of a
98 wildfire-prone forest area, such as the Iberian Peninsula. We hypothesize that all the
99 analyzed eco-engineering techniques modify plant diversity in wildfire-affected areas in
100 comparison to non-treated areas under the Mediterranean climate. However, the
101 influence of each technique on plant diversity might be site-dependent, that is, it should
102 be influenced by the forest type and ecosystem properties. This study aims to advance
103 our knowledge on how plant diversity responds to the most common post-fire
104 management strategies, considering the variability of climate, soil, and forest species.

105

106 **2. Material and methods**

107

108 *2.1. Study areas and experimental sites*

109 This study has been carried out in nine wildfire-affected forest sites of six Spanish
110 provinces, both in the North-western (under oceanic temperate climate) and South-
111 Eastern (under dry sub-humid and semi-arid climates) zones of this country (Fig. 1).
112 Table 1 reports the main climatic, morphological and plant characteristics of these forest
113 sites. Different eco-engineering techniques have been immediately applied in the
114 subsequent months after fire at each experimental site (Table 1). The experimental areas
115 used in this work are representative of forest areas that have burned and are actively
116 managed in Spain. Some of the most frequent restoration strategies at the hillslope scale
117 include log erosion barriers (LEB), contour-felled log debris (CFD) and mulching
118 (MG). A LEB consists of felling and laying burned trees on the ground along the slope

119 contour to stop the overland flow and sediment delivery. With the same objective as that
120 of a LEB, CFD entails felling and laying branches and burned canopy trees along the
121 slope contour. Both LEB and CFD are designed to slow runoff; store eroded sediment;
122 and increase water infiltration, all of which may favor plant cover and diversity
123 recovery after fire. Mulching consists of dispersing on the soil surface organic and
124 inorganic materials as an alternative surface cover, such as agricultural straw, plant
125 leaves, plastic film, logging slash, shredded barks, wood strands, chips, and shreds, as
126 well as gravel and loose soil. Among the different mulch materials, vegetal residues are
127 considered the most effective at reducing the soil hydrological responses. In general,
128 organic residues, such as straw and wood residues, are preferred to other mulch
129 materials, due to its wide availability, high soil covering capacity, low cost and ease-of-
130 handling.

131

132 *2.2. Evaluation of richness and plant diversity*

133 In each site and for each combination of post-fire eco-engineering techniques and main
134 forest species depicted in Table 1, the species richness (hereafter indicated as “SR”) and
135 diversity (“SD”) were evaluated five years (Hellín), three years (El Tranco,
136 Calderona and Porto do Son), and two years (Arbo, Entrimo, Cualedro and Liétor and
137 Llutxent) after the wildfires. In more detail, SR was the number of species identified in
138 each plot, while SD was calculated using the well-known Shannon index. The species
139 richness and relative abundance have been quantified by the α -diversity index (H_α)
140 proposed by Hill (1973), which utilizes Rényi’s function (Li and Reynolds, 1993;
141 O’Neill et al., 1988):

$$142 \quad SD = -\sum_{i=1}^S p_i \ln p_i . \quad (1)$$

143 where:

144 - $p_i = \frac{n_i}{N}$ = frequency of “ n_i ” plants belonging to the species “ i ” with respect to the

145 total number of plants “ N ” in the plot;

146 - S = number of species in each plot.

147

148 The sampling design in each site was replicated between control and treatment plots and
149 was performed to keep balanced and representative measures across studied sites. We
150 have simply used the burned and non-action areas as the baseline of the natural plant

151 diversity since the area was not disturbed by postfire management. For each site, an
152 effect size for the contrast between each eco-engineering technique and the burned site
153 without any post-fire action was calculated for both SR and SD. This effect size was
154 estimated as the natural logarithm (ln) of the response ratio (RR, (Curtis and Wang,
155 1998; Hedges et al., 1999)) - hereafter “log response ratio” or “lnRR” - using the
156 following equation:

$$157 \quad \ln RR = \frac{x_T}{x_{BNA}} \quad (2)$$

158 where x_T is the mean value of the response variable measured in the plot subjected to
159 the eco-engineering technique “T” and x_{BNA} is the corresponding value measured in the
160 burned plot without any post-fire action (burned and no action, BNA). Therefore, in our
161 study, two lnRRs were calculated, namely “lnRR(SR)”, which is the log response ratio
162 of the species richness, and the “lnRR(SD)”, which is the log response ratio of the
163 species diversity.

164

165 A negative lnRR of a technique T is a SR or SD that is lower compared to the SR or SD
166 of a burned and non-treated area, while, if lnRR is positive, the SR or SD is higher than
167 in the BNA plot (Eldridge and Delgado-Baquerizo, 2017). This approach allowed a
168 standardized analysis of data from different sites and after sampling by different
169 methods (Lajeunesse, 2015). Moreover, the 95%-confidence interval (CI_{95}) of both
170 lnRR was calculated, in order to evaluate the significance of the effect of a technique. If
171 the extremes of the CI_{95} are both positive and negative, the lnRR is significant,
172 otherwise (that is, if both these extremes are positive or negative), it is not significant.
173 Finally, in order to quantify the increase or decrease in SR and SD due to the eco-
174 engineering technique compared to the BNA area, the percent variation of each effect
175 evaluated in the treated plot was evaluated.

176

177 *2.3. Statistical analyses*

178 First, linear correlations between LnRR(SR) and LnRR(SD) on one side and some key
179 factors of the nine sites on the other side (total annual precipitation, mean annual
180 temperature, Aridity Index (mean annual precipitation / potential evapotranspiration),
181 and soil slope and altitude) were investigated. To this aim, the values of the LnRR
182 indexes were averaged among the different post-fire management strategies. Then, a
183 one-way ANOVA was applied to the SR and SD (response variables) separately for

184 each site (except El Tranco site), assuming as factor the soil condition (the different
185 technique and the burned and non-treated area), the latter considered as independent
186 factors. In El Tranco site, where different forest species and eco-engineering techniques
187 were investigated and considered as independent factors, a 2-way ANOVA was applied.
188 The pairwise comparison by Tukey's test (at $p < 0.05$) was also used to evaluate the
189 statistical significance of the differences in the response variables. In order to satisfy the
190 assumptions of the statistical tests (equality of variance and normal distribution), the
191 data were subjected to normality test or were square root-transformed whenever
192 necessary. All the statistical tests were carried out by with the XLSTAT software.

193

194 **3. Results**

195 In general, we did not find a significant effect of post-fire eco-engineering techniques
196 on plant diversity (Fig. 1). According to ANOVA, the differences in SR and SD among
197 the investigated post-fire techniques and the BNA soils were never significant ($p <$
198 0.05) with some exceptions. These differences were significant ($p < 0.05$) only for SR in
199 the forest of *P. halepensis* subjected to LEBs (Hellin), and for both SR and SD in the
200 forest of *P. halepensis* (Liétor) and in *P. pinaster* stands (Entrimo), both subjected to
201 soil mulching. Moreover, low and non-significant linear correlations ($r^2 < 0.05$) were
202 found between the mean values of LnRR(SR) and LnRR(SD), considered as dependent
203 variables, and total annual precipitation, mean annual temperature, Aridity Index, and
204 soil slope and altitude, as independent variables (data not shown).

205

206 Only the influence of soil mulching on plant diversity after wildfire was evident (Table
207 1SM). This evidence is shown by the positive LnRRs of both SR and SD in three (Arbo,
208 Liétor and Entrimo) of the four burned forests treated with mulching, although the
209 differences compared to BNA sites were significant in two sites (Liétor and Entrimo)
210 (Figures 2a and 2b). In these three sites, LnRRs(SR) and LnRR(SD) were in the range
211 0.10 (shrubland of Arbo) to 0.41 (forest of *P. halepensis* in Liétor) and 0.04 (shrubland
212 of Arbo) to 0.24 (forest of *P. pinaster* in Entrimo), respectively. In contrast, both LnRRs
213 were negative (-0.18, LnRR(SR), and -0.14, LnRR(SD) in the shrubland of Porto do
214 Son (Figures 2a and 2b). Mulching increased SR by 10.3% (shrubland of Arbo) to
215 51.3% in the forest of *P. halepensis* in Liétor, and SD by 4.3% (shrubland of Arbo) to
216 26.9% (*P. pinaster* in Entrimo). In contrast, these characteristics decreased by 16.2%
217 (SR) and 13.1% (SD) in shrubland of Arbo (Figures 3a and 3b).

218

219 CFD treatments played positive effects on vegetation diversity in the forest of *P.*
220 *pinaster* of El Tranco and on the shrubland in Llutxent. In more detail, CFD with
221 burning gave LnRR(SR) and LnRR(SD) over 0.18 in *P. pinaster* of El Tranco, while
222 only LnRR(SR) was positive (0.10) after CFD without burning in the same site; in the
223 shrubland of Llutxent, LnRR(SR) was 0.20 and LnRR(SD) was 0.10. In contrast, both
224 LnRR(SR) (equal to -0.06) and LnRR(SD) (-0.22) were negative, when CFD was
225 combined with LEB (*P. pinaster* in El Tranco). Overall, the CFD treatment increased
226 SR and SD up to 26.1%, both estimated in the forest of *P. pinaster* in El Tranco under
227 CFD + B treatment (Figures 3a and 3b).

228

229 Positive effects on vegetation diversity - LnRR(SR) or LnRR(SD) > 0 - were also
230 estimated for chipping treatment in Arbo (0.05 and 0.04, respectively) and felling and
231 burning in El Tranco (the latter only for LnRR (SR)) (Figures 2a and 2b). In these sites,
232 maximum increases in SR and SD by 5.4% (SR) and 3.8% (SD) were estimated
233 (shrubland of Arbo subjected to chipping), while the increase in SR measured under the
234 treatment of felling and burning was 0.4% (Figures 3a and 3b).

235

236 Conversely, all the other post-fire eco-engineering techniques played negative effects on
237 vegetal diversity, as showed by the negative values of LnRR(SR) and LnRR(SD). In the
238 case of LEB, both these indexes were negative (with a minimum of -0.14 detected for
239 LnRR(SR) in shrubland of Llutxent) in all sites, also when this post-fire action was
240 implemented in combination with other eco-engineering techniques (Figures 2a and 2b).
241 The maximum decreases in SR and SD were detected under CFD treatment (-17.6%,
242 forest of *P. halepensis* in Hellin) and under combined treatments of LEB and CFD (-
243 20.1%, forest of *P. pinaster* in El Tranco) (Figures 3a and 3b).

244

245 **4. Discussion and conclusion**

246

247 This standardized field study, carried out at the regional scale in the Iberian Peninsula,
248 provides evidence that the analyzed post-fire eco-engineering techniques have a very
249 limited influence on plant diversity. Thus, no significant differences in species richness
250 and diversity were, in general, found between the forest soils treated with each post-fire
251 eco-engineering technique, and the burned and non-treated sites. These differences were

252 only noticeable and thus significant in some sites treated with log erosion barriers or
253 mulching. The latter technique increased species richness and diversity in forests of *P.*
254 *halepensis* and *P. pinaster*, and shrublands. These results are in partial accordance with
255 Morgan et al. (2014) and Jonas et al. (2019), who observed higher species richness as
256 we did, but did not find any differences in species diversity in response to the mulching
257 treatments. Contour felled log debris with burning slightly increased vegetal diversity,
258 while log erosion barriers, chipping and felling were not successful for this effect. Our
259 findings suggest that the current post-fire eco-engineering techniques on plant diversity
260 are not efficient, and that new strategies might be needed.

261

262 Direct and indirect effects of fire on soils and plants can be critical for the functioning
263 of forest ecosystems and alter the capacity of biodiversity to support multiple ecosystem
264 functions from carbon sequestration to fibre production. Thus, promoting post-fire
265 recovery of forests is fundamental for an adequate management and planning of these
266 ecosystems (Lucas-Borja, 2021). In this case, scientific literature has widely
267 demonstrated that some Mediterranean species are able to regenerate through different
268 post-fire strategies, including resprouting, serotiny, soil seed banks or wind seed
269 dispersion into a fire- affected site (Valladares et al., 2014, Resco 2021). The short-term
270 period evaluated in this research and the good adaptation of the surveyed vegetation to
271 fire indicate that a post-fire emergence treatment should not be targeted to biodiversity
272 recovery in wildfire-affected areas, since no influence was found on plant diversity.
273 Even so, longer-term monitoring is needed to provide further evidence on the
274 importance of post-fire eco-engineering techniques, in order to support plant diversity in
275 a context of climate change and land use intensification.

276

277 The only significant strategy was related to straw mulching in semi-arid locations. As
278 Wright and Rocca (2017) have indicated, mulch-retained moisture may benefit natural
279 pine regeneration in water-stressed environments, whereas deep mulch applications may
280 inhibit the establishment of natural regeneration by acting as a physical barrier to seed
281 emergence. This suggests that mulch acts as a retainer for soil nutrients and moisture
282 which may act as limiting factors for seedling growth in water-stressed environments. In
283 fact, Bontrager et al. (2019) found that increased mulch suppressed pine recovery at
284 higher altitudes and in northern aspects than in southern aspects with less precipitation
285 and higher temperature. In contrast, Lucas-Borja et al. (2020) demonstrated that

286 mulching had no detrimental effects on the short-term initial vegetation recovery in sub-
287 humid sites. In addition, the same authors found that leaving the burned trees standing
288 seemed not to be a feasible management option for enhancing vegetation recovery in
289 northern Spain. Mulching seemed to influence neither the natural availability of
290 nutrients nor moisture.

291

292 Overall, this research has demonstrated that, on a broad scale, soil mulching is generally
293 able to restore post-fire vegetal diversity regardless of the specific site conditions.
294 Conversely, other eco-engineering techniques must be implemented with caution since
295 these post-fire actions may even decrease the vegetation diversity of severely burned
296 forest ecosystems.. These measures play beneficial effects in reducing the runoff and
297 erosion rates, in contrasting the soil degradation and supporting vegetation recovery, but
298 no result is seen in the recovery of diversity or species richness. The effects of plant and
299 soil restoration strategies on burned forests need to be effectively outlined with the aim
300 to generate a scientific basis for post-fire management guidelines and properly restore
301 wildfire affected forest ecosystems.

302

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309

310 **List of symbols/nomenclature**

Post-fire eco-engineering techniques

| | |
|-----------|--|
| BNA | Burned and No Action |
| CFD | Contour Felled Log Debris |
| LEB | Log Erosion Barriers |
| M | Mulching |
| C | Chipping |
| CFD + B | Contour Felled Log Debris + Burning |
| LEB + CFD | Log Erosion Barriers + Contour Felled Log Debris |
| LEB + B | Log Erosion Barriers + Burning |
| F + B | Felling + Burning |

Investigated sites

| | |
|----|----------|
| Cu | Cualedro |
|----|----------|

| | |
|---------------------|----------------------|
| Ca | Calderona |
| He | Hellín |
| Li | Liétor |
| Ja | Jaén |
| Ll | Llutxent |
| Ar | Arbo |
| Ps | Porto do Son |
| En | Entrimo |
| Main forest species | |
| Ps | <i>P. sylvestris</i> |
| Ph | <i>P. halepensis</i> |
| Pn | <i>P. nigra</i> |
| Pp | <i>P. pinaster</i> |
| S | <i>Shrubland</i> |

311

312 **Supplementary material**

313 List of plant species at each site.

314

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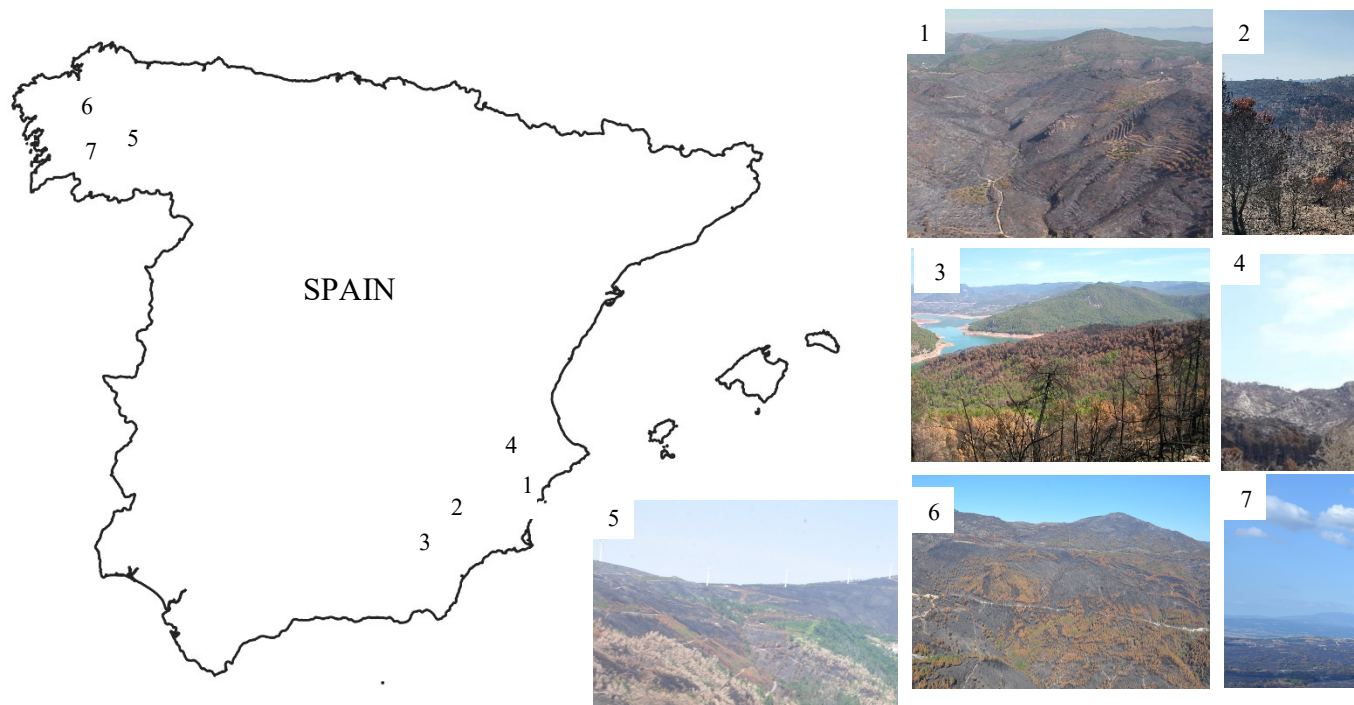
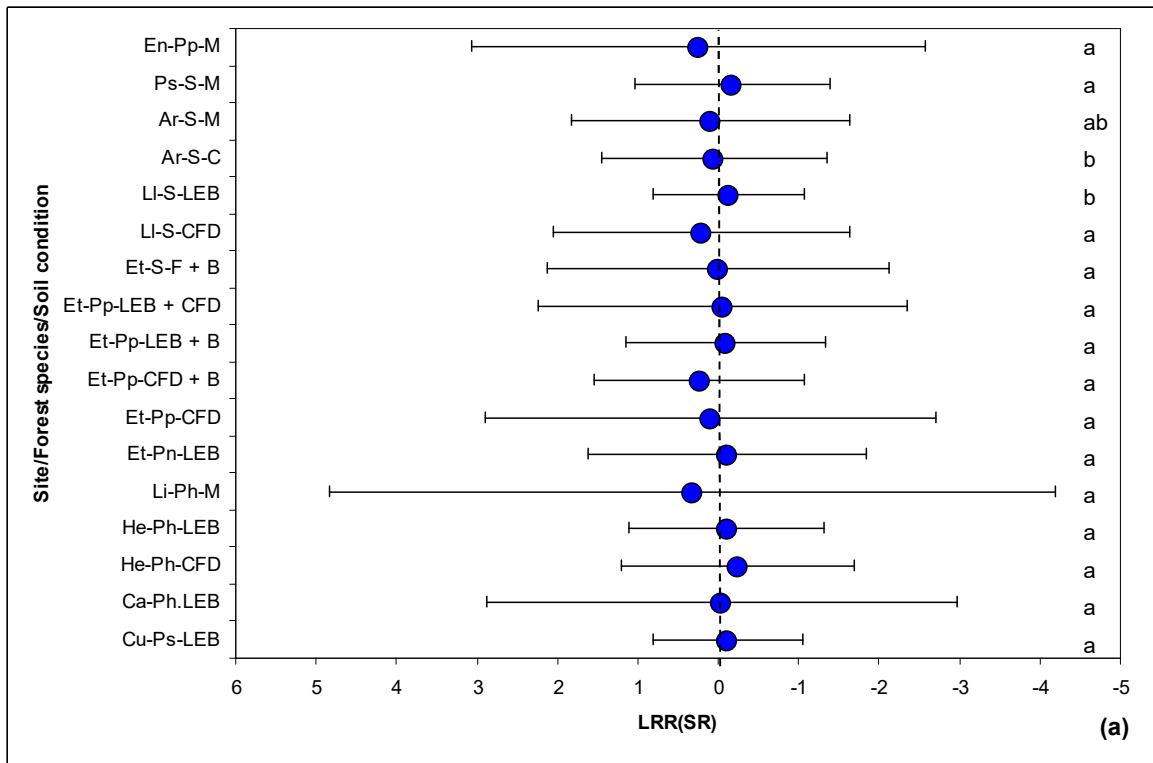
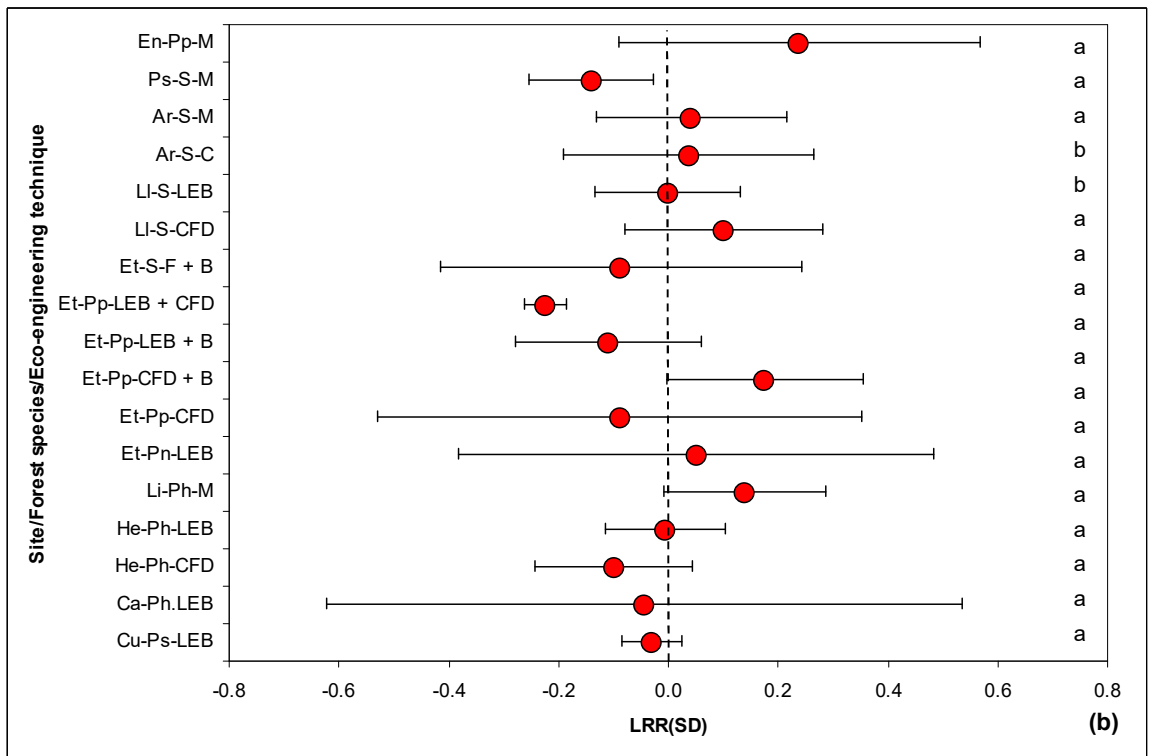


Figure 1 - Geographical location of the experimental sites: 1: Valencia (Calderona), 2: Albacete, 3: Jaén, 4: Valencia (Llutxent), 5: Pontevedra. 6: A Coruña, 7: Ourense.



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Figure 2 - Log Response Ratio (LRR, mean and confidence interval) of species richness (SR, a) and species diversity (SD, b) evaluated in nine forest sites of South-Eastern and North-Western Spain under different post-fire eco-engineering techniques. *The first group of two letters indicates the site, the second group the forest species, and the third*

404 *group the eco-engineering technique (for instance, Cu-Ps-LEB indicates the Cualedro*
405 *site (Cu) - Pinus sylvestris (Ps) - Log Erosion Barriers (LEB)). See the nomenclature*
406 *for the symbol meaning. The letters on the right side of the charts indicate significant*
407 *differences between the unburned, and the burned and treated sites.*

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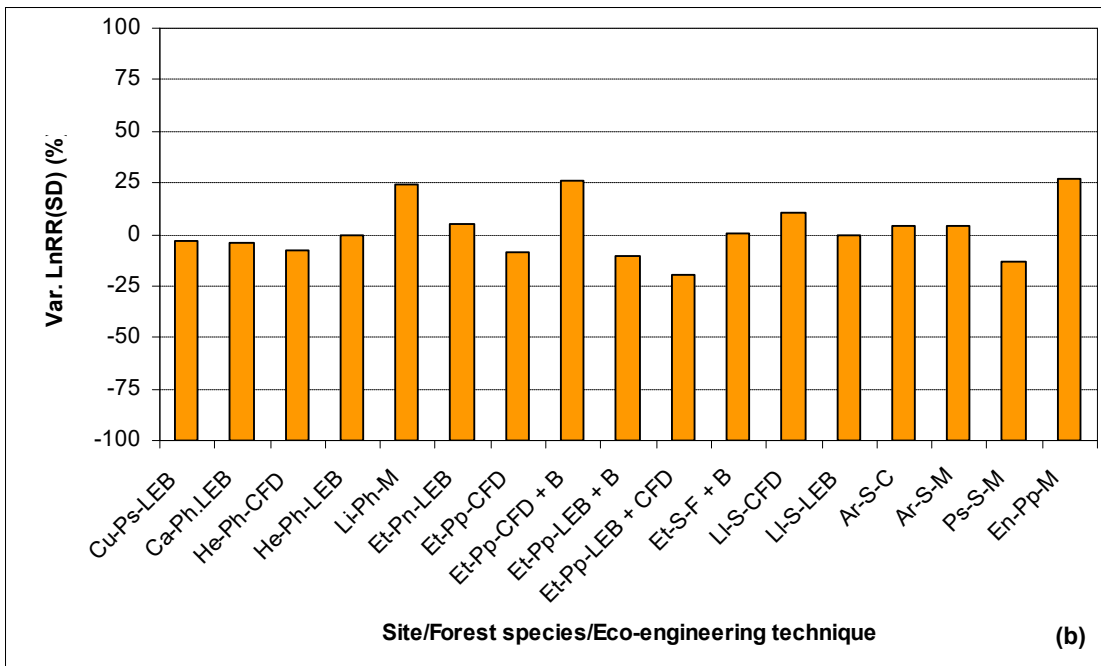
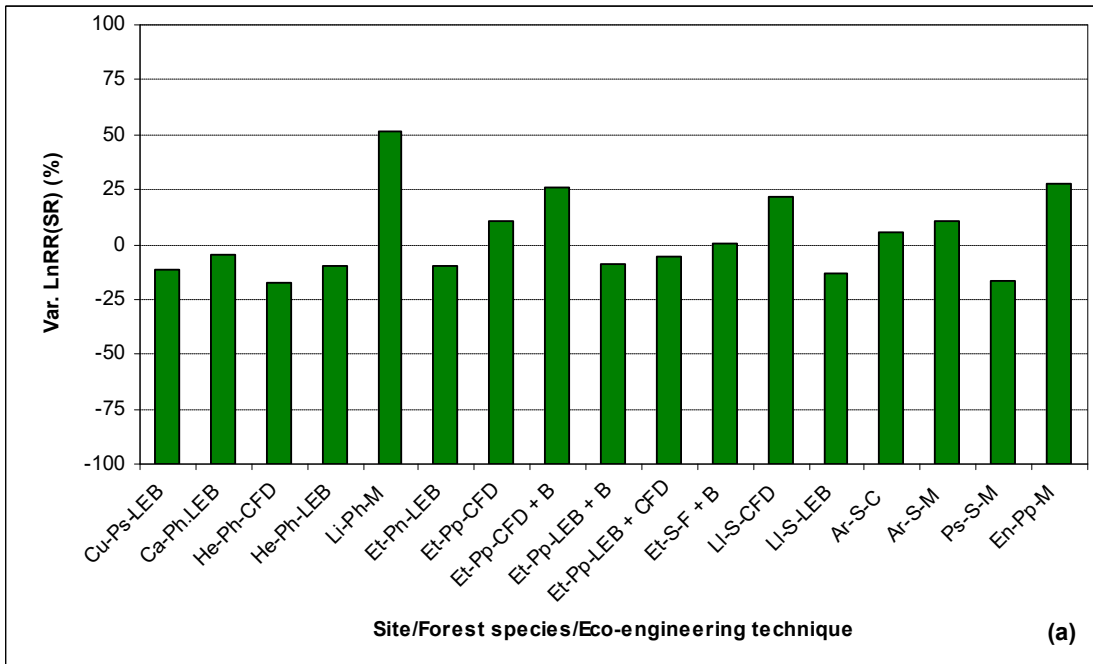


Figure 3 - Variability of Log Response Ratio (LnRR, in comparison to the unburned forest) of species richness (SR, a) and species diversity (SD, b) evaluated in nine forest sites of South-Eastern and North-Western Spain under different post-fire eco-engineering techniques. *The first group of two letters indicates the site, the second group the forest species, and the third group the eco-engineering technique (for instance, Cu-Ps-LEB indicates the Cualedro site (Cu) - Pinus sylvestris (Ps) - Log Erosion Barriers (LEB)). See the nomenclature for the symbol meaning. The letters on the right side of the charts indicate significant differences between the unburned, and the burned and treated sites.*

SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL

Table 1 - Characteristics of the experimental sites surveyed on this research.

| Study area | Forest site | Number of plots | Climate type ⁽¹⁾ | Mean annual temperature (°C) | Mean annual precipitation (mm) | Elevation (m a.s.l.) | Slope (%) | Soil type | Main forest species | Fire severity - date | Post-fire eco-engineering technique |
|----------------|--------------|-----------------|-----------------------------|------------------------------|--------------------------------|----------------------|-----------|--------------------------|---|-----------------------|-------------------------------------|
| (1) Valencia | Calderona | 24 | BSk | 16.6 | 400 | 250 - 332 | 15-30 | Acidic sandstones | <i>Pinus halepensis</i> | High - August 2004 | CFD |
| (2) Albacete | Hellín | 36 | BSk | 16.6 | 321 | 520 - 770 | 15-30 | Calcic Aridisols | <i>Pinus halepensis</i> | High - July 2012 | CFD LEB |
| | Liétor | 18 | | | | | 15-30 | | <i>Pinus halepensis</i> | High - July 2016 | M ⁽⁶⁾ |
| (3) Jaén | El Tranco | 7 | Csa | 10.6 | 882 | 796 -1532 | 15-40 | Limestones and dolomites | <i>Pinus nigra</i> | High - August 2005 | LEB |
| | | 32 | | | | | | | <i>Pinus pinaster</i> | | CFD + B LEB + B LEB + CFD |
| | | 19 | | | | | | | Shrubland ⁽²⁾ | | F + B |
| (4) Valencia | Llutxent | 16 | Csa | 16.6 | 660 | 650 | 5-50 | Limestones | <i>Quercus suber</i> , <i>Pinus pinaster</i> and shrubland ⁽³⁾ | High - August 2018 | CFD LEB |
| (5) Pontevedra | Arbo | 30 | Csb | 14.6 | 1600 | 550 | 30-50 | Umbric Regosols | Shrubland ⁽⁴⁾ | High - August 2016 | C M ⁽⁷⁾ |
| (6) A Coruña | Porto do Son | 19 | Csb | 14.6 | 1300 | 200 | 30-50 | Humic Regosols | Shrubland ⁽⁵⁾ | High - August 2016 | M ⁽⁸⁾ |
| (7) Ourense | Entrimo | 8 | Csb | 13 | 1400 | 550 | 30-50 | Humic Regosols | <i>P. pinaster</i> | High - September 2016 | M ⁽⁹⁾ |
| | Cualedro | 8 | | 10.6 | 860 | 800 | 30-50 | | <i>P. sylvestris</i> | High - August 2015 | LEB |

Notes: (1) according to Köppen classification (Kottek et al., 2006); (2) *Quercus coccifera*, *Pistacia lentiscus*, *Pistacia terebinthus*, *Juniperus oxycedrus*, *Daphne gnidium*, *Ulex parviflorus*, *Berberis hispanica*, and *Rosmarinus officinalis*; (3) *Pistacia lentiscus*, *Anthyllis cytisoides*, *Erica multiflora*, *Chamaerops humilis*, *Ulex parviflorus*, *Arbutus unedo*, *Quercus coccifera*, and *Cistus* sp.; (4) *Ulex europaeus* L., *Erica cinerea* L., and *Pterospartum tridentatum* (L.) Willk; (5) *Ulex europaeus* L. and *Erica cinerea* L.; (6) 0.2 kg m⁻² of wheat straw, dry weight, applied by hand; (7) 3.0-3.5 Mg ha⁻¹ of wheat straw applied by helicopter, and 11.5 Mg ha⁻¹ of wood strands applied by hand; (8) 3.5-4.0 Mg ha⁻¹ of wheat straw applied by helicopter; (9) 3.0 Mg ha⁻¹ of wheat straw applied by helicopter. LEB: log erosion barriers, CFD: contour felled log debris, M: mulching, F: chipping and felling, B: burning.