

1 **Drivers and implications of the extreme 2022 wildfire season in Southwest Europe**

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23

24 **Abstract**

25 Wildfire is a common phenomenon in Mediterranean countries but the 2022 fire season has
26 been extreme in southwest Europe (Portugal, Spain and France). Burned area has exceeded the
27 2001-2021 median by a factor of 52 in some regions and large wildfires started to occur in
28 June- July, earlier than the traditional fire season. These anomalies were associated with record-
29 breaking values of fuel dryness, atmospheric water demand and pyrometeorological conditions.
30 For instance, live fuel moisture content was below the historical minima for almost 50% of the
31 season in some regions. Wildfire impacts are primarily social and economical in these fire-
32 prone landscapes, but they may prompt large- scale degradation if this anomaly becomes more
33 common under climate change, as is expected. As climate changes intensify, we can expect
34 this to become the new normal in large parts of the continent. Climate change is already here
35 and delaying fuel management will only worsen the wildfire problem. Here we provide a
36 preliminary though comprehensive analysis of 2022's wildfire season in southwest Europe
37 (Portugal, France and Spain).

38

39 **Keywords:** burned area; global warming; fuel; wildfire season; risk management.

40

41 **1. Introduction**

42 Wildfires are a natural phenomenon in Mediterranean countries, playing a key role in
43 the conservation of landscapes and the dynamics of forest communities (Pausas et al., 2017).
44 When the natural regimes of fire are altered due to increases in fire intensity and severity from
45 global change, fires can threaten both the environment and society (Cochrane & Bowman, 2021;
46 Moreira et al., 2020; Wunder et al., 2021). The confluence of fire exclusion and fuel build-up
47 over the last decades, together climate change have set the conditions for unprecedented
48 situations, already witnessing earlier and longer wildfire seasons (AghaKouchak et al., 2020;
49 Moreira et al., 2020).

50 The 2022 fire season in southwest Europe (Portugal, Spain and France) has drawn
51 considerable international attention due to the large extent of burned area, as 469,464 ha have
52 burned at the time of writing (28th September 2022), which is nearly 3 times higher than the
53 2006-2021 annual mean (173,415 ha; EFFIS dataset, explained below in methods). The season
54 coincided with the chained irruption of several heat waves, which have appeared earlier than
55 usual breaking temperature records in several countries like Spain or France (C3S, 2022),
56 leading to record-breaking wildfire events. This season could thus potentially act as a spyglass
57 into what the “new normal” will look like under climate change in forthcoming years.
58 Understanding the processes and underlying drivers of these unprecedent events are crucial to
59 mitigate and building fire-adapted and resilient landscapes and communities.

60 The goal of this manuscript was to understand to which extent was this year’s regional
61 variation in burned area in southwest Europe extreme, relative to the 2001-2021 mean, and also
62 to test the associated anomalies in terms of fuel moisture content and pyrometeorology.

63

64 **2. Materials and methods**

65 **2.1. Fire data**

66 Fire data for the 2000-2022 period were collected from the European Forest Fire
67 Information System (EFFIS dataset; San-Miguel-Ayanz et al., 2012). We used EFFIS data
68 instead of governmental records collected by each country as it represents an updated and
69 harmonized data source at subcontinental scale. We employed data from the EFFIS real-time
70 burned area and GlobFire databases, based on the MODIS Collection 6 (C6) MCD64A1 burned
71 area product (Giglio et al., 2018). We retrieved daily burned area data over the full period,
72 aggregating it at weekly level using the regional divisions by Calheiros et al. (2020) for
73 Portugal, López Santalla & López García (2019) for Spain and Resco de Dios et al. (2021) for
74 France.

75 **2.2. Fuel moisture content and fire weather**

76 We explored several indicators relating fuel moisture content and meteorological
77 danger conditions. We examined trends in live fuel moisture content (LFMC) using a recently
78 developed remotely-sensed product based on MODIS imagery (Cunill Camprubí et al., 2022).
79 We also investigated temporal patterns in vapor pressure deficit (VPD), one of the main drivers
80 of compounded live and dead fuel moisture content (Resco de Dios et al., 2021), following
81 previous protocols (Nolan et al., 2016). Regarding fire weather, we explored the dynamics of
82 the Hot-Dry-Windy (HDW) index at 925 hPa as formulated by Srock et al. (2018).

83 **2.3. Statistical methods**

84 We performed the interannual comparison of the cumulative distribution of burned area
85 between different regions of southwestern Europe. Weekly data on area burned were
86 aggregated into cumulative records during each year. The annual cumulative distributions were
87 synthesized using 95% confidence intervals allowing the identification of anomalous seasons.
88 The same procedure was replicated with LFMC, VPD and HDW data, but with non-cumulative
89 data.

90 We also investigated the links between LFMC, VPD and HDW, and burned area during
91 the summer season (June to August) by fitting linear regression models. To do so we
92 aggregated each index as its period average and summarized the total burned area at yearly
93 level. Individual models were trained for each region, reporting the slope of the regression line,
94 the R^2 and the significant level of the model (Fisher's F test).

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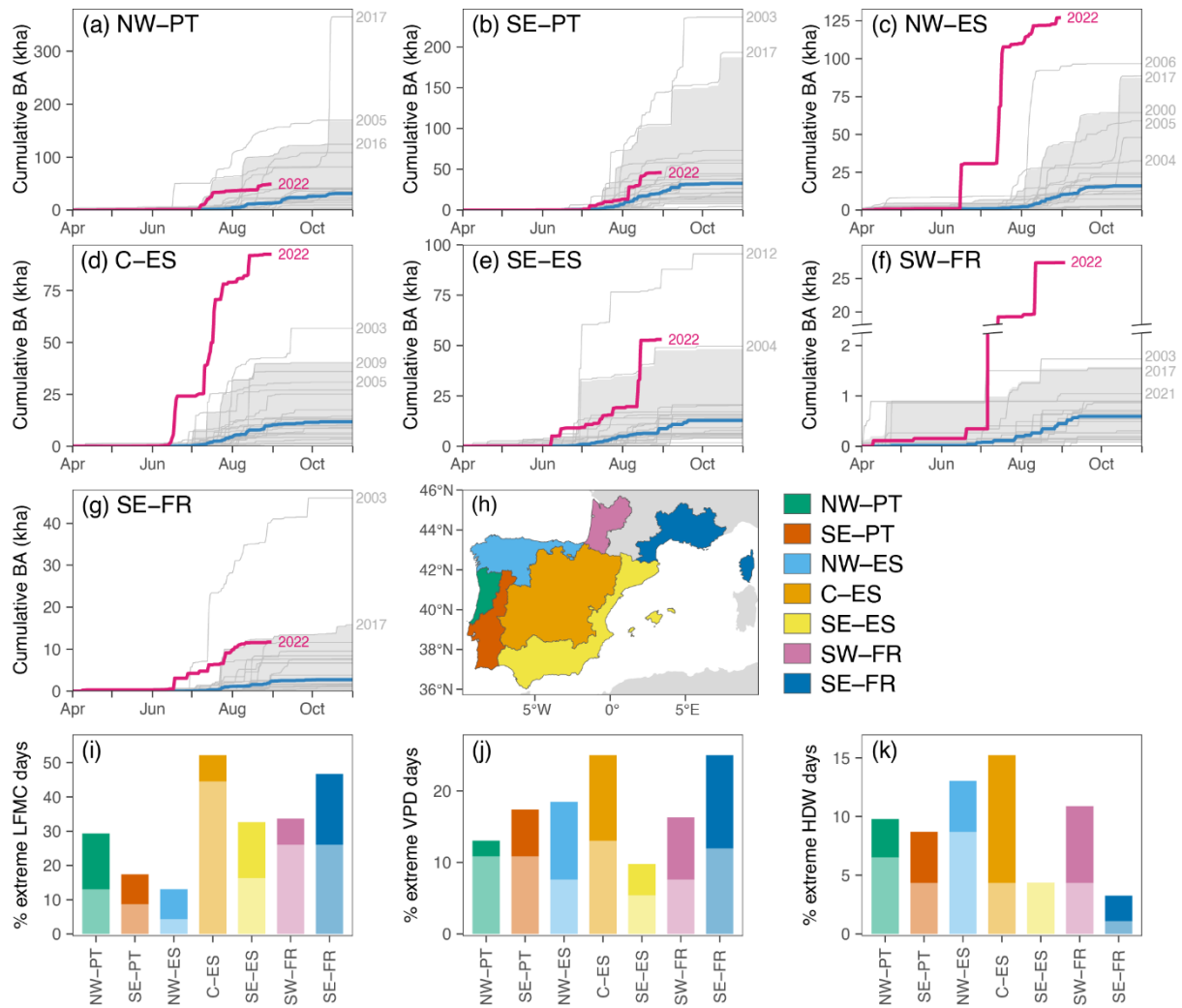
96 **3. Results**

97 **3.1. The season in numbers**

98 Burned area reached abnormally high values in some areas (Fig. 1). In southwest France,
99 burned area between April-August 2022 exceeded the 2001-2021 median for the same period
100 by a factor of 52 (27,228 ha in 2022 relative to 519.5 ha, Fig. 1f). Burned area in northwest
101 (Fig. 1c) and in central Spain (Fig. 1d) also extended beyond historical records and it exceeded
102 the 95th percentile in southeast Spain (Fig. 1e). Burned area in northwest Portugal (Fig. 1a),
103 southeast Portugal (Fig. 1b) and southeast France (Fig. 1g) was higher than the 2001-2021
104 median by a factor of 4, 2 and 5, respectively.

105 Another anomalous situation of the 2022's fire season was its early start, especially in
106 southwest and southeast France and in central and northwest Spain. In those regions, large fires
107 (>500 ha) are usually infrequent until mid to late August, whereas this year large fires occurred
108 almost a month in advance (depending on region, Fig. 1). The onset of the season in the Spanish
109 regions situates usually in July, though this year fire activity started in early-to-mid June. In
110 France, the season started in April.

111



112

113 **Figure 1.** Cumulative burned area in SW Europe. The shaded area indicates the 95th percentile in the historical
 114 records (2001-2021) and the blue and pink lines the historical median and current year, respectively. Panel i
 115 indicates the % of days between June-August when live fuel moisture content (LFMC) reached either record-
 116 breaking levels below the absolute minimum in the 2001-2021 registry (lower part of the bar) or below the driest
 117 95th quantile (upper part of the bar). Panels j and k indicate the % of days between June-August when vapor
 118 pressure deficit (VPD) and the hot-dry-weather index (HDW) reached either record-breaking levels above the
 119 absolute maximum in the 2001-2021 registry (lower part of the bar) or above the highest 95th quantile (highest
 120 part of the bar graph). Data sources for panels i-k are provided in Figs. A1-A3.

121

122 3.2. On the relationship with fuel moisture anomalies

123 Fuel dryness is a critical driver of fire ignition and spread in forested landscapes. LFMC
 124 reached record-breaking values during the 2022 season (Figs. 1, A1), ranging towards the driest

125 historical conditions (Figs. 1i, A1). The major departure from the 2001-2021 median values
126 (the driest anomaly) occurred in southwest France and central Spain, where 27% and 45% of
127 the days between June-August coincided with values below the historical minimum of LFMC
128 (Figs. 1i, A1), respectively. In the same line, we observed that 2022's VPD values were towards
129 the upper end, indicating a more desiccating atmosphere than under average conditions (Figs.
130 1j, A2). This season also showed record high VPD levels (relative to 2001-2021) during 10%
131 of the fire season (June-August) across the entire area (Fig. 1j). The HDW index, despite
132 depicting substantial day-to-day variability as expected in weather-related variables, denoted
133 record high values for 5% of the fire season across southwest Europe (Figs. 1k, A3). Altogether,
134 evidence suggests that dried than usual conditions have partly driven the extreme figures of the
135 2022's season.

136 We observed significant effects in seasonal burned area of LFMC, VPD and HDW,
137 though with regional differences (Table 1, Figs. A4-6). Northwest Portugal attained the
138 strongest relationships with fuel moisture content (LFMC and VPD; $R^2=0.54$ and 0.44 ,
139 respectively), followed by central and northwest Spain, and southeast Portugal. The fire-HDW
140 relationships were particularly strong in Portugal (northwest $R^2=0.61$; southeast $R^2=0.37$) and
141 southeast France ($R^2=0.35$). As expected, LFMC depicted a negative profile (lower moisture
142 associated with higher burned area; Fig. A4) whereas VPD and HDW showed positive
143 relationships (higher atmospheric drought or HDW associated with higher burned area; Figs.
144 A5-A6). No significant relationship ($p<0.05$) was apparent for southeast Spain.

145

146 **Table 1.** Performance (R^2) of the seasonal regression models of burned area during the summer season (June-
 147 August) against live fuel moisture content (LFMC), vapor pressure deficit (VPD) and the Hot-Dry-Windy index
 148 (HDW). Shading indicates the significance level of the relationships (dark grey, $p < 0.05$; light grey, $p < 0.10$).

	NW-PT	SE-PT	NW-ES	C-ES	SE-ES	SW-FR	SE-FR
LFMC	0.54	0.25	0.24	0.28	0.01	0.10	0.31
VPD	0.44	0.11	0.32	0.40	0.05	0.19	0.39
HDW	0.61	0.37	0.13	0.08	0.04	0.00	0.35

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150

151 4. Discussion

152 The evidence and data already available, although preliminary, clearly indicate that the
 153 2022 wildfire season was extreme. Our findings revealed not only the extraordinary extent of
 154 wildfires, but also the early onset of the fire season associated with large fire events (Fig. 1).
 155 The implications and consequences of the shift toward extreme fire regimes are manifold and
 156 require careful consideration.

157 4.1. Fuel build-up, connectivity and aridity

158 The number of fires has declined in southwest Europe as a result of prevention
 159 campaigns and strong regulation over the last decades. The so-called “fire exclusion policy”
 160 has driven an overall decline in burned area in most Mediterranean countries (Rodrigues et al.,
 161 2020; Silva et al., 2019), creating a fire deficit that fosters fuel accumulation. Agricultural land
 162 abandonment and forest plantations have also contributed to landscape and fuel continuity,
 163 breaking the traditional protective land mosaic that once hindered fire spread.

164 Large fires require spatial connectivity of heavy fuel loads over landscape scales
 165 combined with fuel drying during protracted periods of water scarcity or heat waves. These
 166 conditions were met during the 2022’s summer months, with sustained high temperatures since
 167 May, leading to hazardous LFMC, VPD and HDW levels (Figs. 1i,j,k; Table 1; Figs. A1-3).

168 The Copernicus Climate Service identified 2022 as an unusual year with exceptional heat wave
169 events – in terms of frequency, intensity, and duration – striking the western Mediterranean
170 Basin. However, this rare events fall inside the expected trend under climate warming
171 projections and may even amplify over the next decades (C3S, 2017, 2022), potentially
172 becoming average by 2035 (CCAG, 2022). Additionally, other factors related to the lack of
173 fuel management (i.e. pyrosilviculture) in many forest stands is also likely to have contributed
174 to the extreme burned area in the pine plantations that dominate the Landes, in southwest
175 France, and other regions in central-northwest Spain and Portugal (Moreira et al., 2020).

176 **4.2. An increased role of lightning-caused ignitions?**

177 We still cannot examine full ignition causes as complete official records are not yet
178 public or up-to-date. But anecdotal evidence and preliminary reports suggest that lightning was
179 a major ignition source in northwest and southeast Spain (e.g., Sierra de la Culebra, ca.
180 33,000ha; Vall d'Ebo, ca. 12,000ha). Lightning is associated with more extreme fires as they
181 occur under higher atmospheric instability (Fernandes et al., 2021). Over the Iberian Peninsula,
182 lightning fires are known to be linked to dry thunderstorm episodes, particularly frequent in
183 certain enclaves in the northwest of the Iberian Peninsula (Dijkstra et al., 2022). Summer
184 thunderstorms are usually linked to thermal lows eventually developing after sustained
185 anticyclonic conditions driving abnormally high temperatures (Fernandes et al., 2016;
186 Rodrigues et al., 2019).

187 **4.3. Implications and undesired impacts**

188 Wildfire impacts are primarily social and economical in these fire-prone landscapes.
189 That is, fire affects rural economies, and may favour further land abandonment as small-scale
190 farming and forestry become less profitable. This may create a feedback loop, where fire
191 enhances land abandonment, which then increases fuel connectivity and fuel loads and
192 consequently further increases wildfire activity.

193 Earlier - and therefore potentially longer - seasons may have profound implications for
194 forest and wildfire management as well. For instance, early onsets are likely to catch
195 firefighting crews unprepared for a safe and efficient response, while preventive and
196 management activities must also be scheduled sufficiently in advance.

197 Post-fire storms in recently burned areas may enhance erosion rates and soil losses
198 could foster forest transformation into shrublands or grasslands, a transition that would bring
199 increased fire spread potential (Scott & Burgan, 2005) and the loss of valuable ecosystem
200 services (Morán-Ordóñez et al., 2021). Over large scales, fire-induced deforestation could lead
201 to long-term land degradation, counteracting the increasing trend in forest area observed over
202 the last decades (Karavani et al., 2018).

203 Fire suppression readily decreases burned area in the short-term, but the "fire
204 suppression trap" implies that fuel accumulation resulting from oversuppression will increase
205 burned area and the probability of extreme wildfires in the long-term. One could hypothesize
206 that the year 2022 has been the turning point where, after decades of suppression-driven
207 declining burned area, extreme wildfire seasons may increase from now on due to interactions
208 between climate change and massive fuel accumulations. Although it is too early to test for
209 this, it is clear that only landscape-scale fuel management can mitigate wildfire risk and break
210 this reinforcing loop (Cochrane & Bowman, 2021; Moreira et al., 2020; Wunder et al., 2021).

211

212 **Acknowledgements**

213 This work was supported by MICINN projects (RTI2018-094691-B-C31, PID2020-
214 116556RA-I00); EU H2020 (grant agreements 101003890 and 101037419); and the
215 Portuguese Foundation for Science and Technology (UIDB/04033/2020).

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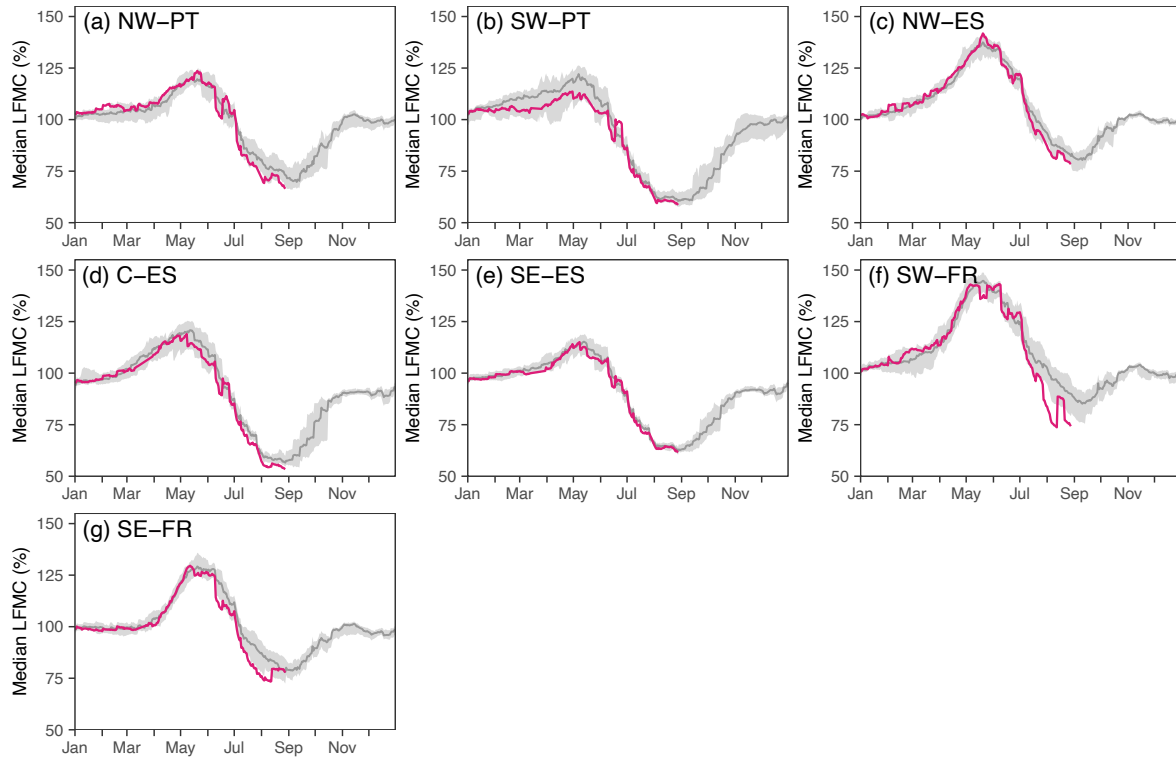
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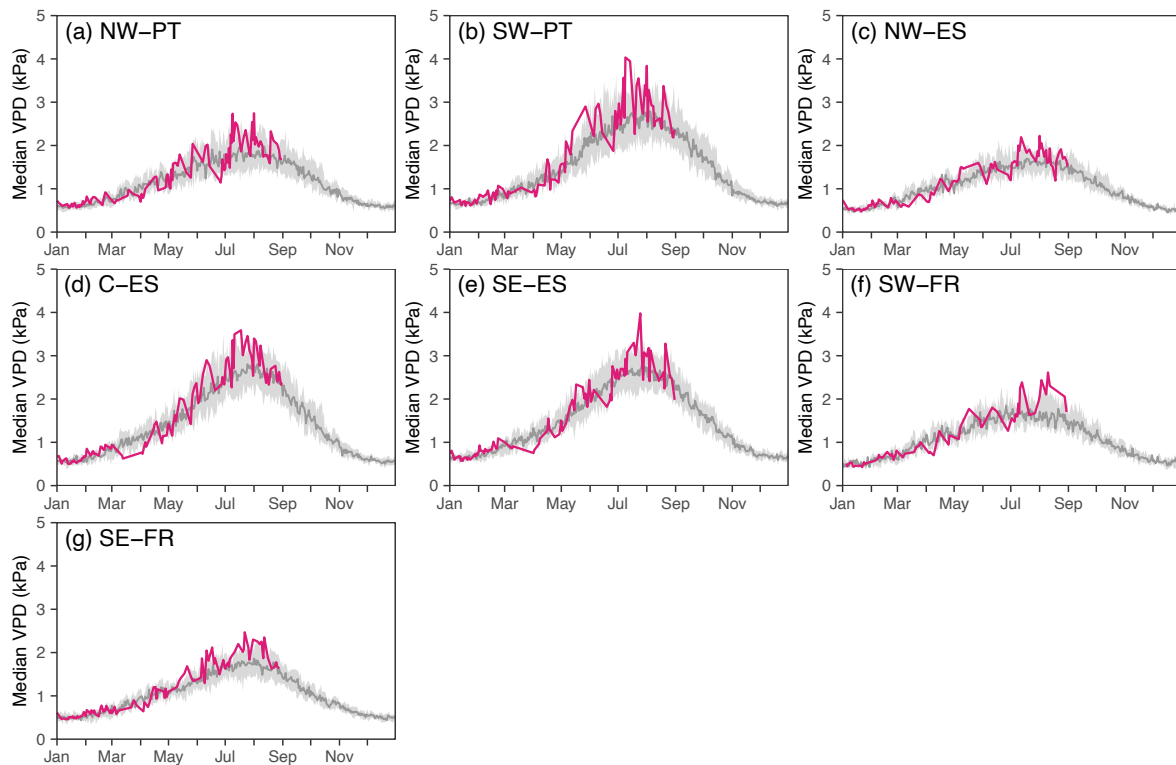
304 **Supplementary Information**



305

306 **Fig. A1.** Temporal patterns in live fuel moisture content (LFMC) across the 7 regions of
307 southwestern Europe from the data product developed by Cunill Camprubí et al. (2021). The
308 red line indicates 2022 values while the grey line and shaded area denote the long-term
309 (2001-2021) median and 95th percentile.

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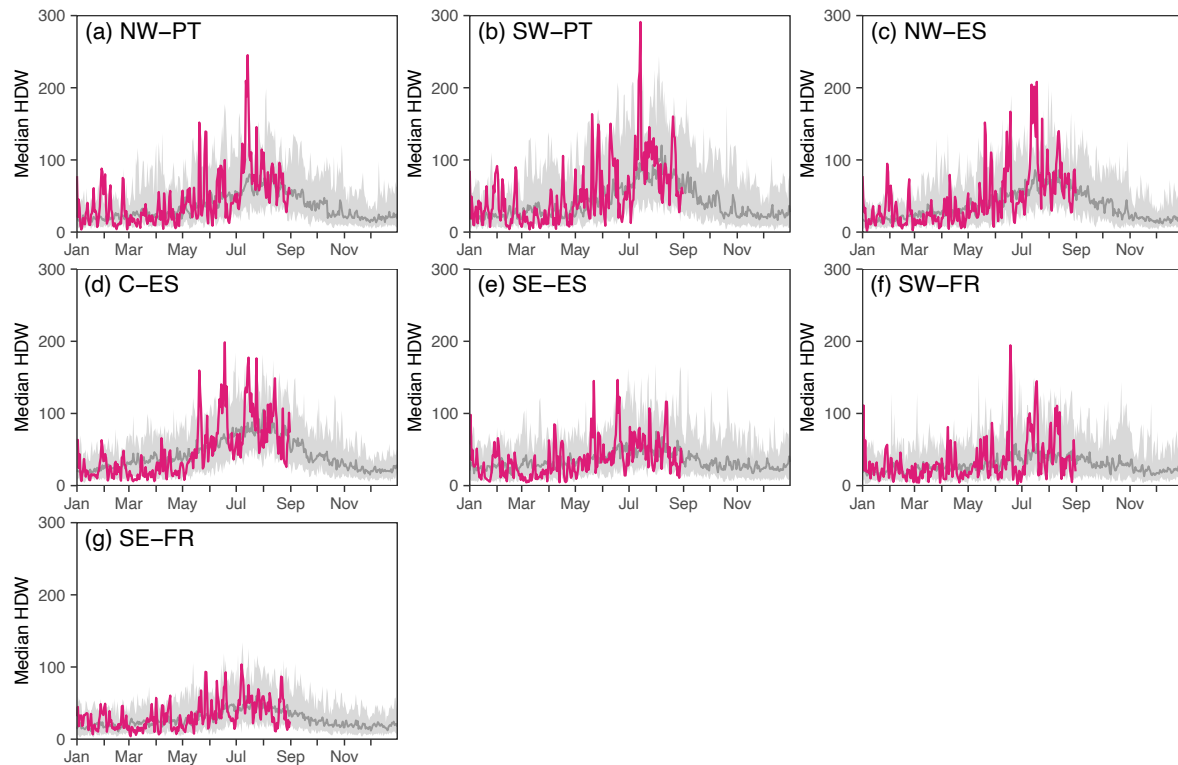


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312 **Fig. A2.** Temporal patterns in vapor pressure deficit (VPD) across the 7 regions of
313 southwestern Europe following previous protocols (Nolan et al., 2016) and derived from
314 MODIS LST MOD11A1 collection 6. The red line indicates 2022 values while the grey line
315 and shaded area denote the long-term (2001-2021) median and 95th percentile, respectively.

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319 **Fig. A3.** Temporal patterns in the hot-dry-windy index (HDW) at 925hPa across the 7 regions

320 of southwestern Europe calculated following Srock et al., (2018) and using data from

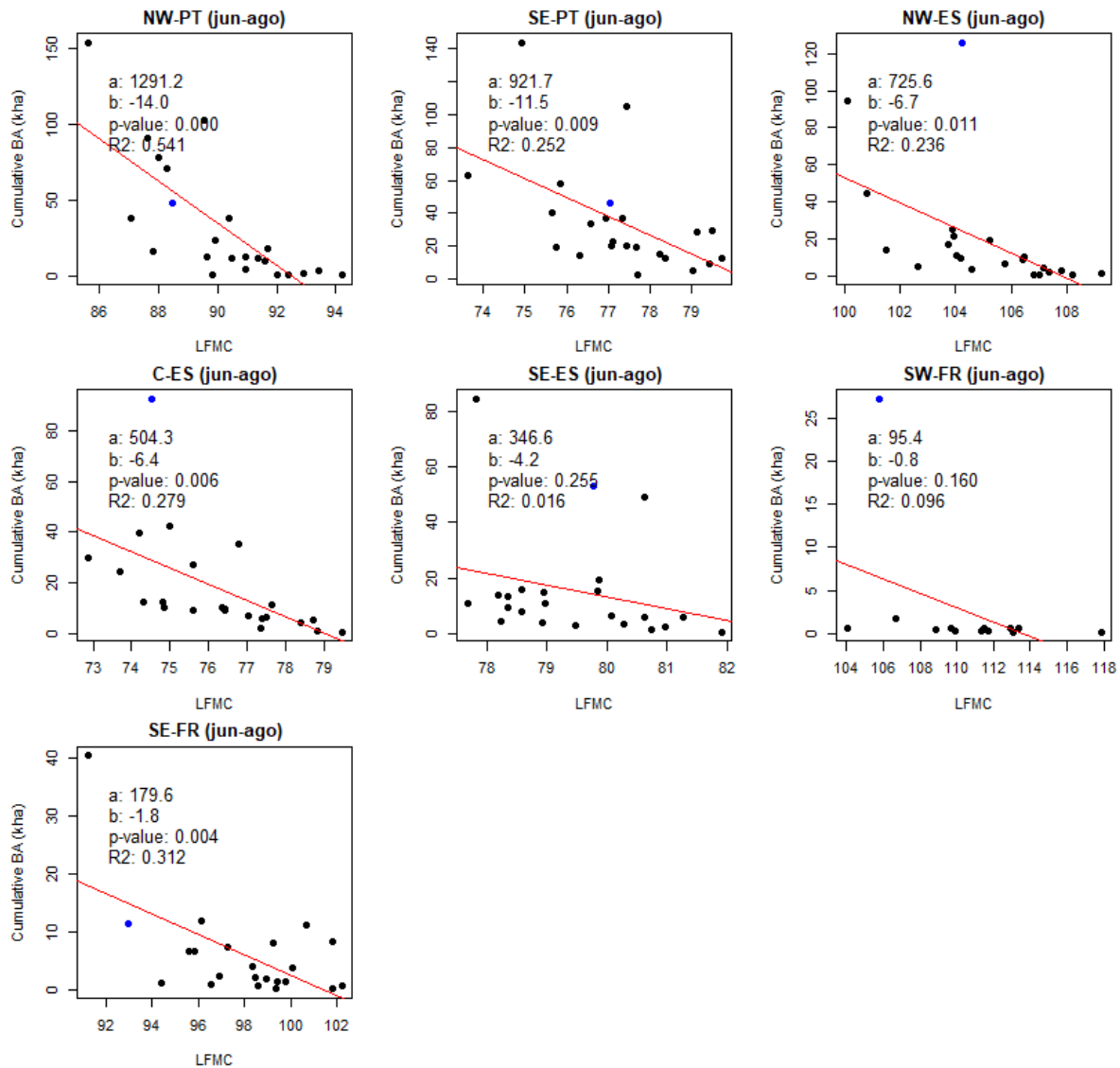
321 <https://psl.noaa.gov/data/gridded/data.ncep.reanalysis2.html>. The red line indicates 2022

322 values while the grey line and shaded area denote the long-term (2001-2021) median and 95th

323 percentile, respectively.

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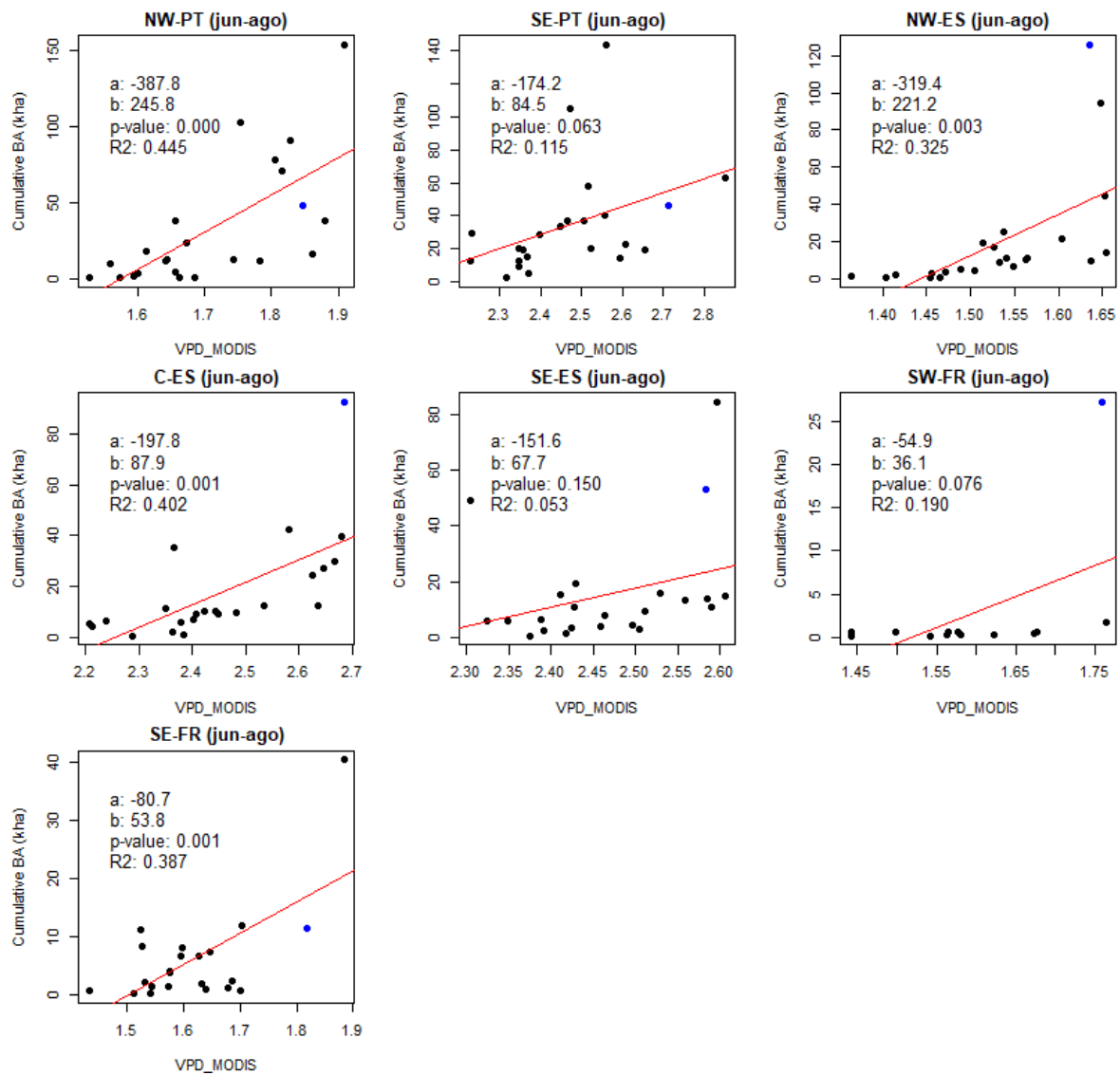
326

327 **Fig. A4.** Season relationships between burned area and live fuel moisture content (LFMC)

328 across the 7 regions of southwestern Europe from the model by Cunill Camprubi et al. (2021).

329 a; intercept; b, slope of the regression line (in red); p-value, significance level; R², Pearson's

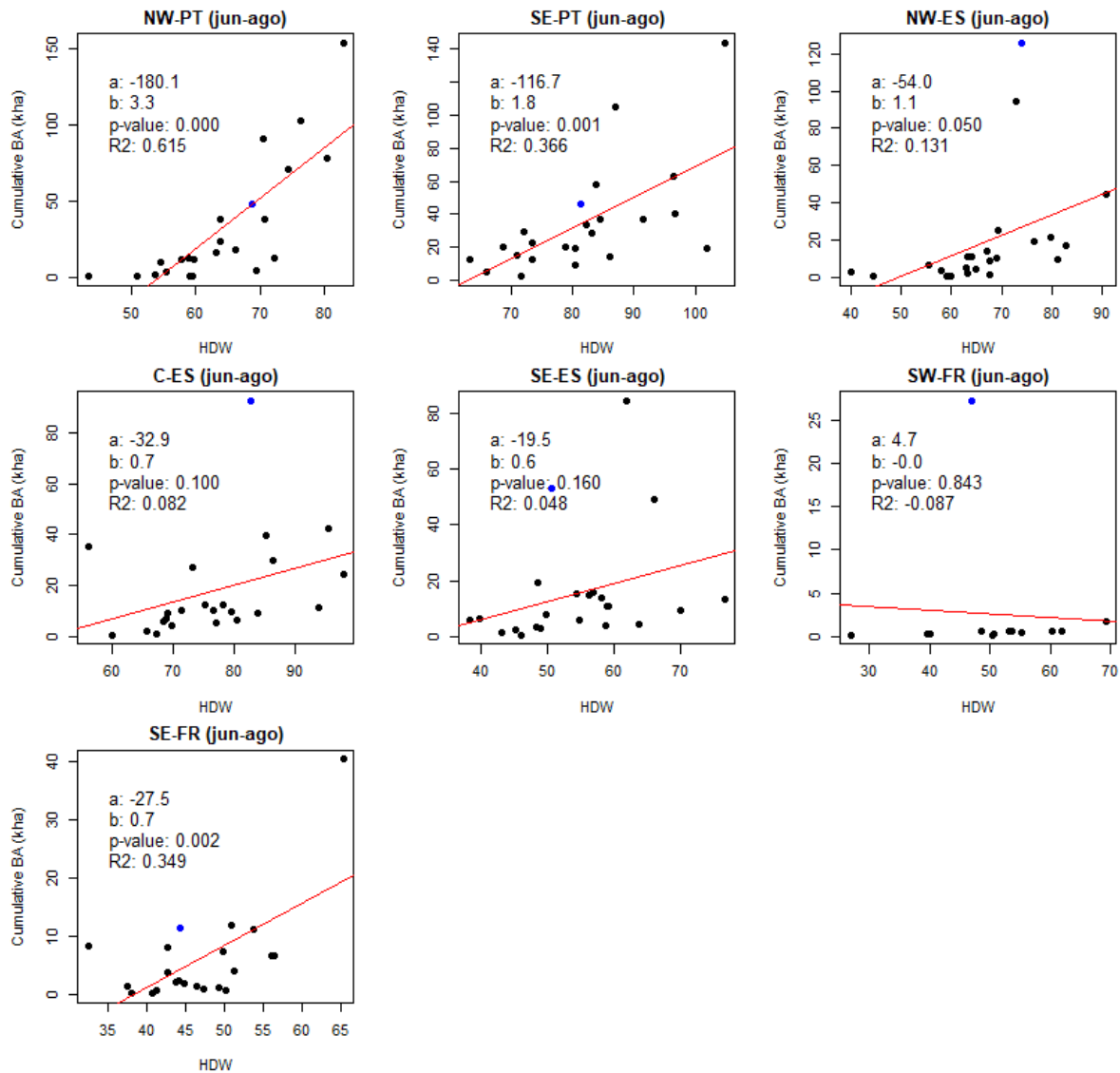
330 coefficient of determination. The blue dot identifies the 2022 season.



331

332 **Fig. A5.** Season relationships between burned area and vapor pressure deficit (VPD) across the
333 7 regions of southwestern Europe following previous protocols (Nolan et al., 2016) and derived
334 from MODIS LST MOD11A1 collection 6. a; intercept; b, slope of the regression line (in red);
335 p-value, significance level; R2, Pearson's coefficient of determination. The blue dot identifies
336 the 2022 season.

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339 **Fig. A6.** Season relationships between burned area and the Hot-Dry-Windy index (HDW) at
340 925hPa across the 7 regions of southwestern Europe calculated following Srock et al., (2018)
341 and using data from <https://psl.noaa.gov/data/gridded/data.ncep.reanalysis2.html>. a; intercept;
342 b, slope of the regression line (in red); p-value, significance level; R2, Pearson's coefficient of
343 determination. The blue dot identifies the season 2022.

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