

# Nature-based solutions for fire-resilient European forests

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This briefing outlines the potential of nature-based solutions (NbS) to reduce fire risk and increase overall climate resilience across Europe's forests. It is based on a review of forest management case studies across Europe and available literature, and is published in the context of the [EU adaptation strategy](#) and the [forest strategy for 2030](#).

## Key messages

- ➡ Fire is a natural part of the Earth system. However, the frequency, intensity and impacts of wildfires in Europe are increasing. Between 2000 and 2024, an average of 3,770km<sup>2</sup> of land was subject to fires annually in the EEA member countries.
- ➡ Climate change, urban expansion and land abandonment in rural areas are increasing the occurrence of fire-prone conditions. The interface between wildland and urban environments, where the risk of wildfires is especially high, is estimated to cover 7.4% of the land surface in the EEA33.
- ➡ NbS like adaptive forestry, green corridors, agroforestry, rewetting and rewilding can play key roles in transitioning from fire suppression to fire management. NbS can also increase the resilience of forests to other climate change threats, including pest outbreaks.
- ➡ The most suitable NbS will depend on site-specific biophysical, socio-economic and governance conditions. Early stakeholder involvement is essential for avoiding conflicts, for example with economic interests and nature conservation objectives.

## Policy context

Forest management in Europe is essential. It helps to preserve biodiversity, support the provision of all forest-related ecosystem services (for example, timber production) and it also mitigates climate change and degradation of biodiverse habitats (Lier et al., 2022). The need for actions that increase the resilience of forests to climate change is recognised in the European Green Deal and the EU's forest strategy for 2030. More resilient forests can contribute to achieving the EU's climate commitments and the objectives of the Land Use, Land-use Change, and Forestry (LULUCF) Regulation, thus strengthening synergies between climate mitigation, adaptation and environmental protection. Although they have not yet been systematically assessed, Nature-based Solutions (NbS) (EC, 2015) are encouraged by EU policies, which include the EU adaptation strategy and the [Nature Restoration Regulation](#). Actions encouraged through these policies can provide a multitude of benefits, including the reduction of risk and better protection from natural hazards and disasters.

## The increasing risk of wildfires in European forests

Climate change and shifts in land use are changing the conditions under which wildfires occur; their potential extent and severity are increasing. Higher temperatures, prolonged droughts and increased fuel loads caused by the accumulation of combustible material in forests, are helping to create more days each year subject to a high risk of wildfires. Land use and management practices such as large-scale land abandonment and monoculture forestry exacerbate the increased risk from natural causes. Fire-prone areas like the Mediterranean now face extreme, prolonged fire seasons, while regions such as north-west Europe, previously less affected, now also experience more frequent and intense wildfires (Galizia, 2021). Furthermore, fires are now often occurring out of their regular season.

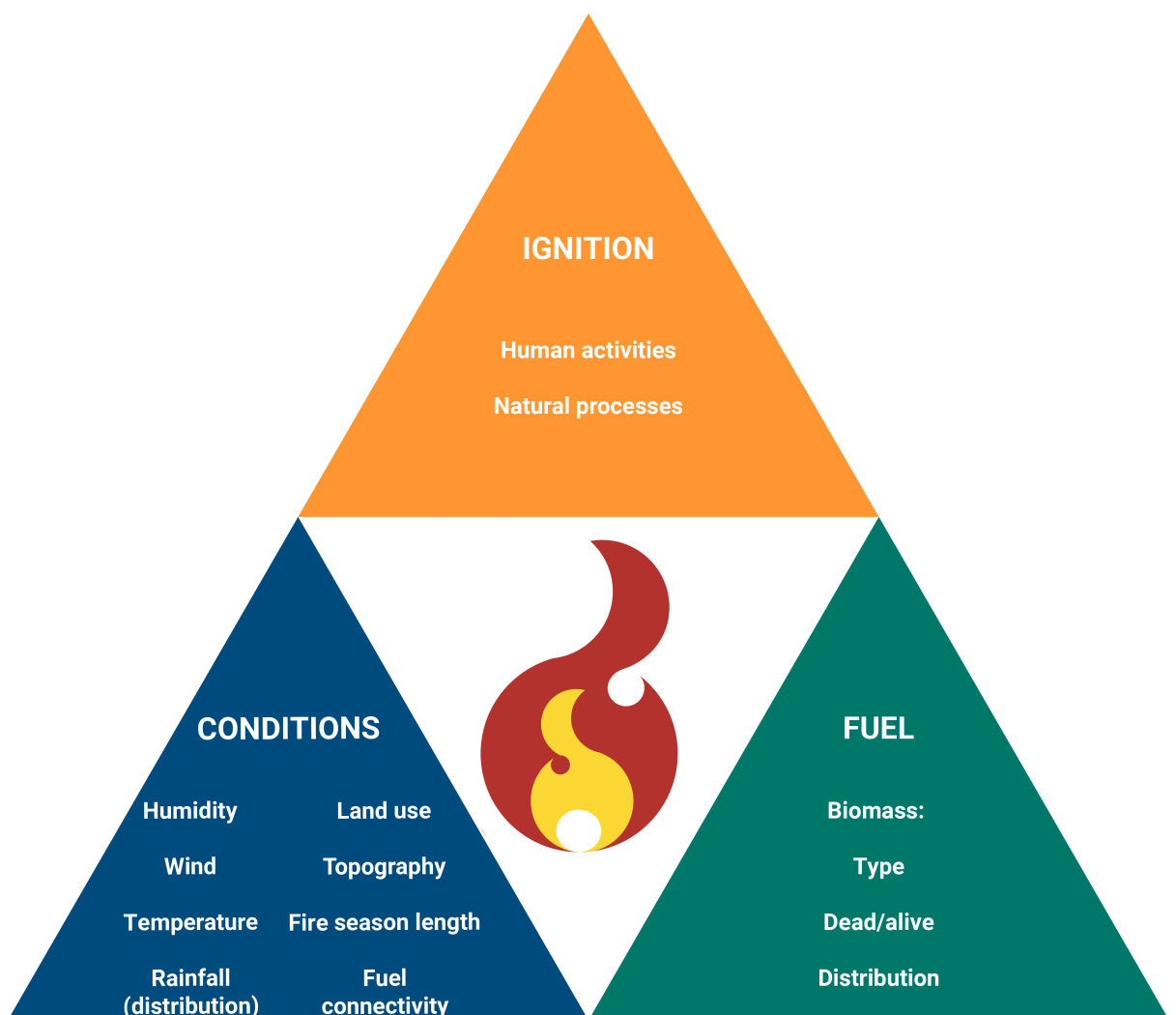
Changing conditions (temperature, drought, heavier rains and increasing storminess) also make forests more vulnerable to insect disturbances and diseases, which affect over 10,000km<sup>2</sup> annually (Forzieri et al., 2023). Since 2018, due to the prolonged number and severity of drought events experienced in central Europe, forest tree health has deteriorated, leading to

severe bark beetle infestation and increased tree mortality (EEA, 2023). The resulting dead trees are more flammable and are at greater risk of catching fire during the first years after dying (Hartmann et al., 2022). However, this risk is temporary. Once fallen trees decay, fire risk declines, partly because large lying deadwood in the higher stages of decay absorbs and holds water and so poses no higher threat, potentially even lowering fire risk (Larjavaara et al., 2023). Deadwood is also an important carbon store and a habitat for biodiversity (Bauhus et al., 2018).

Fire plays a natural role in the Earth's ecosystems (Rodrigo-Comino et al., 2024). It aids regeneration, controls pests and cycles nutrients. Some species have adapted to fire or even need fire events to reproduce. Small fires can actually reduce the risk of large-scale fires by burning through accumulated fuel in forests (Ascoli et al., 2023). However, large and/or uncontrolled fire events can cause serious direct and indirect impacts: production loss, economic damages, habitat loss and the loss of lives. Fire-damaged ecosystems are also more prone to secondary disasters, such as soil erosion, water runoff, floods, ecological droughts and pest outbreaks.

Wildfire risk is a product of the possibility of fire occurrence and the potential impacts of the fire on people and the environment (for further framing see Oom et al., 2022). Therefore, fire risk depends not just on where a fire may occur, but also on how society manages the possibility of a fire happening and how to respond. Management is key to risk mitigation. Figure 1 shows the interaction between the three main elements determining fire occurrence: conditions, fuel and ignition.

Figure 1. Elements determining fire occurrence, intensity and spread



In general, a Mediterranean climate is conducive to fires, because prolonged droughts, elevated temperatures and low humidity during summer are typical. Because of climate change, these conditions are becoming more common and are also experienced further north in Europe (Fernandez-Anez et al., 2021). Fire needs a continuous source of fuel to keep burning and landscape configuration is therefore important for fire management. Fire breaks can be designed specifically for this, but agricultural land can, under specific conditions, also form a barrier that helps to reduce the risk of fire spread. Land abandonment in southern Europe is one reason for the increased fire risk in this region. Diverse and deciduous forests are less prone to fire, while monoculture practices, especially coniferous tree plantations, are more flammable. There is also a high risk of outbreaks from pests in monoculture forests, which can lead to trees dying, sometimes in large numbers. The resulting deadwood can become extremely flammable. Transitioning monoculture plantations and forests into mixed species stands

can make them more resilient to current and future climate conditions, provided this is done in accordance with the requirements of local habitats.

The majority of fires are sparked by human activity (Oom et al., 2022). The wildland-urban interface (WUI), i.e. the zone where human settlements are in or near areas of fire-prone wildland vegetation, covered about 7.4% of Europe in 2020 (Bar-Massada et al., 2023). Increased tourism and urban sprawl increase the wildland-urban interface (WUI), where the risk of fires and their impacts are heightened.

## Nature-based solutions for mitigating wildfire risks and impacts

Most EU fire management strategies traditionally focused on emergency responses and fire suppression. The primary objective was to reduce burned areas rather than address fire prevention or post-fire recovery. This focus on the acute response can lead to homogeneous landscapes with high fuel loads that actually increase the risk of wildfires in the long term (Oliveras Menor et al., 2025). Fire management will be increasingly ineffective in the future if it prioritises emergency response over risk reduction or recovery (Fernandez-Anez et al., 2021; Oliveras Menor et al., 2025; Tedim et al., 2016). NbS can play a key role in transitioning from fire suppression to longer-term risk reduction and restoration as an integral part of forest management strategies that are fit for future climate conditions (FAO, 2006; UNDRR, 2020).

NbS are not yet fully mainstreamed in forest management practices and policy making, limiting their funding and deployment at scale (Smeenk et al., 2024). However, they are gaining momentum, with research on NbS for fire management having increased from just a few publications per year around a decade ago to approximately 40 per year in 2021-2023 (Keesstra et al., 2024). The increased use of NbS in forests calls for the standardisation of implementation and monitoring practices, and stronger integration of NbS in regional and national adaptation and forest management plans.

NbS can support both fire risk management and post-fire restoration. [Close-to-nature forest management](#) can greatly reduce wildfire risk by reducing the fuel load in a forest, for example through grazing, agroforestry, deadwood management and prescribed fires (related to fuel management, see Figure 1). Close-to-nature forestry also aims to have diverse species, age and forest structure, which makes the forest more resilient and less fire prone. Post-fire management requires comprehensive [forest restoration](#) that includes natural or assisted natural regeneration, reforestation with diversified species, soil rehabilitation and hydrological rehabilitation. The diversification of landscape and of tree species can also increase forest resilience to other climate change threats, including pest outbreaks. Table 1 gives examples of NbS in forests focusing on fire management. These include promoting species diversity, assisting natural regeneration and expanding protected areas; these approaches help enable forests to adapt to climate change while maintaining ecological and economic functions. The selection of specific measures should consider future proofing, for example by prioritising native tree species that are also suitable for the expected future local climatic conditions.

Table 1. Examples of NbS for fire-resilient landscapes

| NbS                                    | Description   | Relevance for fire risk  | Sources                                   |
|--|---|--|---|
|  | Fire risk reduction and management  |  |   |
| Rewilding                              | Allowing nature to return to a wilder, more diverse landscape, including restoring natural biodiversity and the (re-)introduction of large herbivores; not to be mistaken for land abandonment, which increases fire risk.  | Naturally diversified forests are more resilient to fire risks. Bringing back grazing by wild animals can be effective to keep fuel under control. | Johnson et al., 2018; Bauhus et al., 2018 |
| Prioritising fire-resistant vegetation | Planting (possibly native) vegetation less prone to fire risk, e.g. introducing broadleaved species into forests dominated by conifers. May also include planting fire-resistant crops and using hedgerows and other natural barriers to slow fire spread (agroecology and land stewardship). | Planting fire-resistant vegetation halts or slows down the spread of wildfire.   | Zuazo and Pleguezuelo, 2009               |

| NbS  | Description   | Relevance for fire risk  | Sources  |
|--|---|--|--|
| <b>Green infrastructure, green firebreaks and buffer zones</b> | Strategically planted strips of low-flammability species that act as buffers around urban areas and critical infrastructure.  | These structures act as firebreaks by establishing high-moisture (and therefore lower flammability) vegetation and by creating a shaded wet environment, thus acting as a break to reduce windspeed and rate of fire spread.   | Curran et al., 2018 ; Marshall et al., 2024  |
| <b>Close-to-nature and adaptive forestry</b>                   | Managing the establishment, growth, composition, health age and quality of forests on a sustainable basis. Practices include various measures like conversion from monoculture (e.g. fire-prone eucalyptus) to polyculture, selective thinning and favouring mixed stands of trees (diverse species and age composition). | Reduce fuel connectivity and the creation of diversified forests more resilient to fire risks.   | Larsen et al., 2022; Mutterer et al., 2025.  |
| <b>Agroforestry</b>  | Land management strategy where trees, shrubs and hedges are planted in combination with either livestock, pasture or agricultural crops. This approach enhances soil quality, provides habitats for wildlife and helps increase yields.   | Agroforestry creates barriers in forest landscapes and reduces the understory layer of biomass that is usually found in forests.   | Damianidis et al., 2021; Wolpert et al., 2022.   |
| <b>Grazing management</b>                                      | Optimising wild and domestic grazing pressure of domestic animals (see also <b>Agroforestry</b> and <b>Rewilding</b> ).   | Grazing helps reduce vegetation density, lowering the amount of combustible material (fuel load) in fire-prone areas.<br><br>After a fire, fencing off forest regeneration areas helps forest recovery (see also <b>Natural and assisted natural regeneration</b> ). | Oikonomou et al., 2023; Nuijten et al., 2021; <a href="#">Union civil protection knowledge network</a> , 2024. |
| <b>Rewetting and hydrological restoration</b>                  | Various measures to restore natural water yield and flow (rewetting dried wetlands, restoration of streams, wetlands and grasslands, building small dams or various water retention structures).  | Rewetting helps reduce peat oxidation and hence the risk of fire.<br><br>Restored ecosystems create natural firebreaks by creating moist areas.<br><br>Through post-fire restoration, aquatic habitats recover, water quality improves and soil erosion decreases.   | Sirin et al., 2020.  |
| <b>Dead biomass management</b>                                 | Optimising dead and residual biomass.   | Careful removal of dead biomass from forested stands influences fuel dynamics and fire potential.  | Larjavaara et al., 2023.<br><br>Silva et al., 2025 ; Bauhus et al., 2018.                                      |
| <b>Prescribed fire</b>   | Use of fire under specific controlled conditions.   | Prescribed controlled fire reduces the occurrence of large and/or uncontrolled fire events.  | Heikkala et al., 2014 ; JRC., 2023; EC, 2021.  |
|  | <b>Post-fire management</b>   |  |  |

| NbS  | Description  | Relevance for fire risk   | Sources  |
|--|--|---|--|
| <b>Reforestation and afforestation with native and diverse species</b> | Planting (possibly native) tree species in areas severely impacted by fires or storms to restore forest cover, stabilise soils and promote biodiversity. This approach also involves keeping control over alien species (see also <b>Prioritising fire-resistant vegetation</b> ).   | Planting native and diverse species helps restore forest cover after damage has occurred. Fire-resistant species can enhance future resilience.   | Cerdà and Robichaud, 2009.   |
| <b>Natural and assisted natural regeneration</b>                       | Protecting natural regrowth of native species, young seedlings and controlling invasive species to support the natural regrowth of forests affected by large, damaging fires.<br><br>This approach may also include keeping the ungulate population low during the initial recovery phase (see also <b>Grazing management</b> ). | Preserving natural regeneration accelerates recovery of forests after significant fire damage has occurred.   | Cerdà and Robichaud, 2009; <a href="#">FAO: Assisted natural regeneration</a> .                              |
| <b>Soil erosion control and stabilisation</b>                          | Includes contour log terracing (placing logs or other natural barriers across slopes to slow water and sediment runoff to reduce landscape connectivity), mulching and ground cover (e.g. applying organic materials like straw or wood chips to burned areas).  | These strategies protect from soil erosion and overland flow. Mulching and ground cover can also retain soil moisture and protect seedlings.  | Cerdà and Doerr, 2008; <a href="#">European NWRM+ platform</a> , <a href="#">A10-traditional terracing</a> . |
| <b>Soil microbial restoration</b>                                      | Biotechnological strategies that introduce native or external micro-organisms.<br><br>Application of biochar can improve organic matter in soils.  | Plant growth promoting rhizobacteria (PGPR) can help the improvement of plant growth, plant nutrition, root growth pattern and responses to external stress factors.<br><br>Microbial application creates a cohesive layer that covers the soil surface to protect fragile soil surfaces. | Wittenberg and Stoiber-Zisu, 2023; Nazarov et al., 2023.   |

## Effective implementation of NbS across different European forest ecosystems

Selection of the most suitable NbS for adaptive fire management necessitates a thorough understanding of the site-specific biophysical, socio-economic and governance conditions and contexts.

Europe can be divided into five ecoregional clusters (van Hattum et al., 2023). Each of these regions experiences different conditions and types of fire risks, meaning that the most effective NbS to apply may differ notably between regions. Figure 2 shows key challenges facing each region, alongside suitable NbS that align with these regional characteristics and constraints. The analysis is based on a literature review and the analysis of case studies. Five of these case studies are provided in the Annex; two examples are highlighted below (Boxes 1 and 2).

Figure 2. Distribution of different forest ecosystems and NbS applied, based on review of literature and case studies



Case studies

|                                    |   |
|------------------------------------|---|
| 1. Southern Italy                  | A community of practice for the sustainable management of forests surrounding the Occhito Lake.<br>Located in the ecoregional cluster 5. South (Mediterranean region) |
| 2. Northern Spain                  | Sustainable forestry for increasing climate change resilience of forests in Soria.<br>Located in the ecoregional cluster 5. South (Mediterranean region)              |
| 3. Southern Netherlands            | Wildfire risk reduction by landscape diversification in Deurnse Peel.<br>Located in the ecoregional cluster 2. West (Atlantic and North Sea regions)                  |
| 4. North Rhine-Westphalia, Germany | Large-scale forest restoration solutions for resilience to multiple climate stressors.<br>Located in the ecoregional cluster 3. East (Continental region)             |
| 5. Eastern Finland                 | Introducing mixed species to reduce the risk of spruce bark beetles in North Karelia.<br>Located in the ecoregional cluster 1. North (Arctic and Boreal regions)      |

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Ecoregional clusters

|   |
|---|
| 1. North (Arctic and Boreal regions)  |
| 2. West (Atlantic and North Sea regions)  |
| 3. East (Continental region)  |
| 4. Central (Alpine and Pannonian regions)   |
| 5. South (Mediterranean region)   |
| <a href="#">Van Hattum, T., Van Buuren, M., De Rooij, B., Nel, J. Reinhard, S., Baptis Jones-Walters (2023). Imagining a nature-based future for Europe in 21 solutions at the heart of a visionary approach for accelerating the transition to a resilient and nature-positive future. Wageningen University &amp; Research 1566-7197.</a> |

Box 1. Occhito Lake, southern Italy: a community of practice for sustainable forest management

Due to climate change and rural land abandonment, forests that surround the Occhito Lake in southern Italy are increasingly exposed to wildfire. A forestry management plan was set up alongside a formalised forest agreement that aimed to facilitate implementation of the plan by combining public and private funding. The forest agreement is a public-private forest management model which entities that manage and operate in the Occhito area can join voluntarily. The agreement adopts a nature-based approach to preserve and enhance the resilience of forest ecosystems, consolidate slopes and prevent fire risks and pest outbreaks. In addition, it also stimulates the circular economy and revival of local communities. Use of prescribed/controlled fires was tested in a pilot area. The full-scale applicability in the region has been discussed and brought to the attention of local and regional administrations to fill in the existing legislation gap.

Image 1. View of Occhito Lake, southern Italy.





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Sources: [Climate-ADAPT case study](#); [PABLO project](#).

## Box 2. North Karelia, south-east Finland: introducing mixed species to reduce tree death and fire risk

In North Karelia, Finland, the main NbS used is the diversification of tree species. Increasing summer temperatures cause large scale tree mortality in single-species forests due to bark beetle outbreaks and increasing fire risk caused by the build-up of highly flammable dead biomass in the first years after trees die. NbS addressing this risk include reforestation with native and diverse species, including broadleaf species to increase biodiversity soil health and nutrient cycling (Key et al., 2022). These practices help regional forests attract more tourists and leisure visitors. They also sustain forest industries, which play an important role in forest management implementation along with the governmental forest entities that actively promote this style of sustainable forest governance and provide guidance to landowners.

Image 2. Managed forest in North Karelia, Finland.



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Source: North Karelia Living Lab case study.

## Success and limiting factors for implementing and upscaling NbS

Public institutions, private owners, conservation groups and industry often have differing priorities when managing forests (e.g. wood production versus biodiversity conservation; forest cover versus other land uses; recreation versus strict nature conservation). Conservation objectives in Natura 2000 sites need to consider future climate-driven changes in the distribution of tree species (Reichmuth et al., 2025). For example, NbS that reduce forest fuel in the short term to mitigate overall, longer term wildfire risk may be seen to conflict with carbon storage objectives (Herbert et al., 2022). In rewilding cases, the increased presence of ungulate<sup>[1]</sup> animals could cause concerns about overgrazing. Grounding NbS in local knowledge and traditional close-to-nature practices, such as grazing and agroforestry (Prats et al., 2022), can help align adaptation with sustainable development objectives. Local communities must also be actively involved in NbS implementation, particularly for solutions that involve visible landscape changes, such as prescribed burns.

Forest management approaches are determined by forest owners' decisions and by national and regional policy frameworks. About 55% of forests are privately owned across EEA member countries, with large variations in the proportion of forest habitats in public and private ownership (UNECE, 2020). Public owners of large, forested areas (state, or subnational authorities) mainly follow unified nationally defined goals for forest management, typically resulting in forests with higher biodiversity than found in comparable private forests (Mölder et al., 2021). Local public forest owners tend to respond to the needs of local communities for multifunctional forests (UNECE, 2020). Most private forests in Europe are small scale and family owned. These owners often have more constrained economic and technical knowledge resources, but they do have an increasing awareness of conservation goals (Tiebel et al., 2024; Weiss et al., 2019; Weiss et al., 2021; Pulla et al., 2013). Fragmented and small-scale ownership is to some extent associated with absentee ownership and land abandonment, which can increase forest vulnerability to fires and pests. Well-managed forest owner associations or cooperatives (Hrib et al., 2024; Thorning, 2024), networks among practitioners (Tiebel et al., 2024) or among actors along the timber value chain (Zafra-Calvo et al., 2024) could be entry points for disseminating the necessary knowledge and changing management practices.

Implementing NbS strategies such as mixed forests and efforts to increase biodiversity inevitably involves some economic and financial trade-offs; good management requires significant initial investment and extends turn-over time of investments in forest management. This is something that many small forest owners cannot afford, so NbS are less attractive to commercial investors. Market constraints are also important: in forests managed for timber production, selective harvesting increases costs. New markets for non-timber products or ecosystem services provided by forests, including alternative carbon markets, are underdeveloped. Improved knowledge and awareness of the long-term benefits of forest management for resilience are needed, alongside specific incentives to support the transition, in particular in the case of reforestation after fire. The role of insurance in recognising the value of forest fire resilience is still untapped (Martinez et al., 2021).



NbS implementation requires long-term strategies with aligned objectives that translate into coherent governance frameworks, including certification schemes and regulations regarding forest management planning and monitoring. Existing regulations should be supported both by efficient law enforcement and by easier access to support programmes for landowners and forest managers. Integrating NbS impact assessments into consistent forest monitoring frameworks could help scale these solutions and support evidence-based policy and funding decisions.

Reducing risks from wildfires requires a multipronged approach that must incorporate efforts to increase awareness about the risks of wildfires and encourage preparedness by emergency services, authorities and local communities. In Portugal, the [Safe Villages Programme](#) (SVSP) aims to involve local communities in awareness-raising campaigns against risky behaviour, encourage self-protection measures, create refuges and conduct evacuation drills. A comprehensive benefit-cost analysis was conducted to understand the potential benefits of the programme and support the prioritisation of areas for implementation.

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## Notes

Climate-ADAPT case studies:

- [A community of practice for the sustainable management of forests surrounding the Occhito Lake in Puglia, Italy](#)
- [Sustainable climate change adaptation of forestry in the province of Soria, Spain](#)

Relevant Climate-ADAPT pages:

- [Nature-based Solutions](#)
- [Adaptation in the forestry sector](#)

Related EEA briefings:

- [Preparing society for climate risks in Europe - lessons and inspiration from Climate-ADAPT case studies](#)
- [Scaling nature-based solutions for climate resilience and nature restoration](#)

## Footnotes

1. A hoofed typically herbivorous quadruped mammal.  
<sup>el</sup>

## Overview of case studies

| Case study  | Climate and non-climate challenges   | Implemented solutions  | Suitability factors for scaling  |
|---|--|--|--|
| <p><b>1. A community of practice for the sustainable management of forests surrounding the Occhito Lake, southern Italy</b></p> <p><b>Sources:</b></p> <p><a href="#">PABLO project</a></p> <p><a href="#">Climate-ADAPT case study</a></p> | <p>Fire risk.</p> <p>Decreasing population.</p> <p>Agricultural land abandonment.</p> <p>Disorganised silviculture.</p> <p>Lack of a common forest management objective.</p> | <p><b>Prescribed fire</b></p> <p>Tested in pilot areas.</p> <p><b>Close-to-nature and adaptive forestry</b></p> <p>Preparation of a forestry management plan.</p> <p><b>Development of a Forest Agreement</b></p> <p>Voluntary public-private partnership for implementing the management plan).</p> | <p><b>Biophysical conditions:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Mediterranean pine forest.</li> <li>• Dominating species Aleppo pine (<i>Pinus halepensis</i> and Arizona cypress (<i>Cupressus arizonica</i>).</li> </ul> <p><b>Socio-economic conditions:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Small, scattered villages surrounding the lake.</li> <li>• Forest used for timber production and recreational activities.</li> <li>• The subscribers of the Forest Agreement are both beneficiaries and financial contributors.</li> </ul> <p><b>Governance conditions:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Presence of a mosaic of state, municipal and private properties.</li> </ul> <p><b>Success (+) and limiting (-) factors:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• (+) Increased safety from fire risk.</li> <li>• (+) Circular economy implementation (marketing of wood residues).</li> <li>• (+) Positive impact on local economies (short supply chain) and rural development.</li> <li>• (+) Various environmental co-benefits of NbS, including biodiversity enhancement, slope consolidation and reducing plant diseases originated by pests.</li> <li>• (+) Forest shared by two neighbouring regions (Molise and Puglia), allowing scalability.</li> <li>• (+) High interest from several municipalities.</li> <li>• (-) Initial scepticism towards prescribed fires.</li> <li>• (-) Regional legislation gap (addressed during the project) for scaling the prescribed fire technique.</li> </ul> |

| Case study  | Climate and non-climate challenges  | Implemented solutions   | Suitability factors for scaling   |
|---|---|---|---|
| <p><b>2. Sustainable forestry for increasing climate change resilience of forests in Soria, northern Spain</b></p> <p><b>Sources:</b></p> <p><a href="#">LIFE Soria ForestAdapt</a></p> <p><a href="#">Climate-ADAPT case study</a></p> | <p>Fire risk.</p> <p>Pest outbreaks.</p> <p>Changing the growth patterns of trees and suitability of species.</p> | <p><b>Close-to-nature and adaptive forestry</b></p> <p>Establishing mixed species composition.</p> <p><b>Prioritising fire-resistant vegetation</b></p> <p>Introduction of broadleaved forest species into large coniferous forest stands.</p> <p><b>Grazing management</b></p> <p>Managed grazing through alternating fenced off areas.</p> <p><b>Pheromone traps</b></p> <p>Monitoring presence of insects, e.g. pine processionary moth.</p> <p><b>Natural and assisted natural regeneration</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Animals are kept away to allow natural regrowth.</li> <li>Early detection of fires, based on watchtowers with guards, thermal cameras, smoke detection and visible camera.</li> <li>Forest fire crews for continuous fire prevention.</li> </ul> | <p><b>ophysical conditions:</b></p> <p>Mixed tree composition of conifers and deciduous species. Dominant species: <i>Pinus sylvestris</i> (Scots pine), <i>Pinus pinaster</i> (maritime pine), <i>Pinus nigra</i> (black pine), <i>Juniperus thurifera</i> (Spanish juniper), <i>Fagus sylvatica</i> (European beech), <i>Quercus ilex</i> (holly oak), <i>Quercus faginea</i> (Portuguese oak) and <i>Quercus pyrenaica</i> (Pyrenean oak)</p> <p><b>Socioeconomic conditions:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>High economic value of the forest.</li> <li>Natural space for recreational activities.</li> </ul> <p><b>Governance conditions:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Mosaic of private, public, industry and educational institutes.</li> <li>Forest managed by a group of owners (Montes des socios).</li> </ul> <p><b>Success (+) and limiting (-) factors:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>(+) Preserved forest wood and non-wood products, including resin production, mushrooms, truffles, hunting and extensive domestic livestock.</li> <li>(+) Presence of the Association of Forest Owners of Soria (ASFOSO) to save mountains from abandonment and facilitating contact between private owners and the administrative authorities.</li> <li>(-) Presence of agricultural areas bordering the forest (competing interests).</li> <li>(-) Lack of formal organisation of the shared ownership, left without a management body to make decisions.</li> </ul> |



| Case study  | Climate and non-climate challenges       | Implemented solutions   | Suitability factors for scaling   |
|---|--|---|---|
| <p><b>3. Wildfire risk reduction by landscape diversification in Deurnse Peel, southern Netherlands</b></p> <p><b>Sources:</b></p> <p><a href="#">LIFE Climate Forest</a></p> <p><a href="#">SUPERB Project</a></p> | <p>Fire risk.</p> <p>Pest outbreaks.</p> | <p><b>Green infrastructure, green firebreaks, green corridors and buffer zones</b></p> <p>Ecological corridors with deciduous/broadleaved forests.</p> <p><b>Reforestation and afforestation with native and diverse species</b></p> <p>In areas hit by pests.</p> <p><b>Close to-nature and adaptive forestry</b></p> <p>Creating diverse mixed forests on landscape scale - broadleaved species and pine trees.</p> | <p><b>Biophysical conditions:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Dry sandy soils, poor of nutrition.</li> <li>• Pine/fir/Douglas/Lork and different species of broad-leaved deciduous trees.</li> </ul> <p><b>Socioeconomic conditions:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Forests both managed as investment assets and public forests.</li> <li>• Forest used for recreational activities.</li> </ul> <p><b>Governance conditions:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Different types of property regimes, including small-scale private owners and consortia of small-scale owners.</li> </ul> <p><b>Success (+) and limiting (-) factors:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• (+) Various environmental benefits of NbS related to the increase of biodiversity (insects, birds, mammals, vegetation).</li> <li>• (+) NGO (de Bosgroep) supporting owners for forest management.</li> <li>• (+) Forest owners are obliged to reforest areas hit by pests.</li> <li>• (+) The state authorities as well as national authorities provide subsidies for reforestation of areas destroyed by pest infestation.</li> <li>• (+) Reforestation must consider suitability of single species under different future climate regimes</li> <li>• (+/-) Strict conservation regimes for reforesting some natural areas.</li> <li>• (-) No forest transformation is possible without the consent of the owner.</li> <li>• (-) Lack of funds for implementing measures.</li> </ul> |

| Case study   | Climate and non-climate challenges  | Implemented solutions  | Suitability factors for scaling   |
|--|---|--|---|
| <p>4. Large-scale forest restoration solutions for resilience to multiple climate stressors in North Rhine-Westphalia, Germany</p> <p>Source: <a href="#">SUPERB Project</a></p> | <p>Wind, drought and subsequent European spruce bark beetle (<i>Ips typographus</i>) outbreaks.</p> <p>Spruce forests no longer suitable due to changing climate.</p> | <p><b>Reforestation and afforestation with native and diverse species</b></p> <p>According to the "four tree species principle", i.e. suitable compositions of tree species according to the site typology and future climate suitability.</p> <p><b>Natural and assisted natural regeneration</b></p> <p>Deer management.</p> | <p><b>Biophysical conditions:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Dominating spruce stands following the demand for pit timber in the 19th century.</li> <li>• Norway spruce (<i>Picea abies</i>) and Scots pine (<i>Pinus sylvestris</i>) replaced previously existing beech and mountain beech forests.</li> </ul> <p><b>Socioeconomic conditions:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Wood harvesting and hunting are the two main economic activities.</li> </ul> <p><b>Governance conditions:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Different types of forest owners, ranging from public (state and local authorities), to church and private owners.</li> </ul> <p><b>Success (+) and limiting (-) factors:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• (+) Preservation of various ecosystem services delivered by the forest (climate regulation; water regulation and supply; erosion control; habitat provision and recreation).</li> <li>• (+) Expected increase in wood harvest (tangible only in 30 years or beyond).</li> <li>• (+) All restoration measures are developed in cooperation with the landowners or the forest managers representing the landowners.</li> <li>• (+) Legal obligation for reforestation, supported by subsidies.</li> <li>• (-) Resource shortages (planting materials, skilled personnel, etc.) are challenging a full and timely reforestation.</li> <li>• (-) Many forest owners are financially unable to manage reforestation and lack income from forests.</li> <li>• (-) Large deer populations cause heavy browsing, which affects restoration success.</li> <li>• (-) Rigid rules apply to conservation sites, with conflicting restoration objectives in Natura2000 area.</li> </ul> |

| Case study   | Climate and non-climate challenges  | Implemented solutions   | Suitability factors for scaling  |
|--|---|---|--|
| <p><b>5. Introducing mixed species to reduce the risk of spruce bark beetles in North Karelia, eastern Finland</b></p> <p><b>Source:</b></p> <p><a href="#">North Karelia Living Lab</a></p> | <p>Increasing risk of pest outbreaks (increasing summer temperatures and longer growing season of bark beetle).</p> <p>Significant damage caused by fire, storms and drought.</p> | <p><b>Reforestation and afforestation with native and diverse species</b></p> <p>Introducing broadleaved tree species to promote resilience and biodiversity.</p> <p><b>Close-to-nature and adaptive forestry</b></p> <p>Sustainable forest management and biodiversity enhancement.</p> <p><b>Dead biomass management</b></p> <p>Reduce the availability of habitat for bark beetles and improve habitats for predators.</p> | <p><b>Biophysical conditions:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Norway spruce (<i>Picea abies</i>) and Scots pine (<i>Pinus sylvestris</i>) forming varying mixtures with birch (<i>Betula</i> sp.).</li> </ul> <p><b>Socio-economic conditions:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Important nature destination.</li> <li>Several forest industry companies, such as forest machinery and wood logistics companies, pulp and paper mills, and sawmills dispersed throughout the region. Major wood construction companies also play significant roles.</li> </ul> <p><b>Governance conditions:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Private, state, other public owners and companies accounting for 55%, 19%, 5% and 21%, respectively.</li> </ul> <p>Finnish Forest Centre is a crucial entity in forest governance, actively promoting the forestry sector and providing guidance to landowners.</p> <p><b>Success (+) and limiting (-) factors:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>(+) More biodiversity.</li> <li>(+) Enhanced soil fertility.</li> <li>(+) Improved nutrient cycling and soil health.</li> </ul> |

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