



1 Remote sensing reveals fire-driven facilitation of a C₄ rhizomatous 2 alien grass on a small Mediterranean volcanic island

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15 **Abstract.** Volcanic islands are special ecosystems for studying biogeographical and evolutionary processes. Occasional
16 disturbance events, such as eruptions, tsunami or big fires, can represent major drivers of such processes leading to biotic
17 sterilisation or major changes in island biotas. In this study, through remotely sensed data, we investigated the intensity and
18 the extent of a large fire event that occurred on the small volcanic island of Stromboli (Aeolian archipelago, Italy) on 25-26
19 May 2022, to assess the short-term effect of fire damages on local plant communities. For this purpose, two different
20 spectrally sensitive indices, i. e. the differential Normalised Burned Index (dNBR) and the Normalised Difference
21 Vegetation Index (NDVI), were used. The dNBR was also used to quantify the extent of early-stage vegetation recovery,
22 dominated by *Saccharum biflorum* Forssk. (Poaceae), a rhizomatous C₄ perennial grass of paleotropical origin. The burned
23 area was estimated to have an extension of around 337.83 ha, corresponding to 27.7% of the island surface and to 49.8% of
24 Stromboli's vegetated area. On the one hand, this event considerably damaged the native plant communities, hosting many
25 species of high biogeographic interest. On the other hand, *Saccharum biflorum* clearly benefited from arson. In fact, it
26 showed a very high vegetative performance after burning, being able to exert unchallenged dominance in the early stages of
27 the post-fire succession, reaching within a few months stem density values that are only slightly lower than those of the
28 unburned stands. Our results confirm the complex and probably synergic impact of different human disturbances (recurrent
29 fires, introduction of invasive alien plants) on the structure and the functioning of natural ecosystems on small volcanic
30 islands. The natural dynamics of such ecosystems is dependent on the complex relation between successional processes and
31 the intensity and frequency of natural or anthropogenic disturbance, which can regulate mid- and long-term response of
32 *Saccharum*. In fact, although the expansion of *Saccharum* proves to be surprisingly fast, its decline may also be relatively
33 rapid as well, if local vegetation is no more affected by fire. After the abandonment of the agricultural practices in the
34 highest portion of the island, the rewilding process could lead to the replacement of the large beds dominated by this
35 invasive grass by native woody vegetation within a few decades.

36 **Keywords.** Biological succession, Disturbance, Field monitoring, Satellite imagery, Sprouters, Vegetation dynamics.

37 Introduction

38 Wildfires are a main disturbance factor affecting the Mediterranean terrestrial ecosystems, whose vegetation patterns are
39 largely influenced by interactions with fire. Fire frequency delineates landscape attributes (Pausas, 2006; Jouffroy-Bapicot et
40 al., 2021), affects the structure and composition of the vegetation (Trabaud, 1994) and regulates speed and direction of
41 ecological succession dynamics (Canelles et al., 2019). Also, fire causes sudden variations in the carbon and energy balance



42 of ecosystems (Novara et al., 2013; Harris et al., 2016; Pausas & Millán, 2019) and in the soil microbial activity and
43 functional diversity (Velasco et al., 2009; Goberna et al., 2012).
44 At the onset of human civilisations, Mediterranean landscapes have been deeply modified by anthropogenic fires that were
45 used to expand the human habitat and facilitate a wide array of foraging activities (Pausas and Keeley, 2009). Throughout
46 human history, demographic fluctuations, innovations and cultural exchanges have always been accompanied by changes in
47 land use and thus in fire regimes, amount and patchiness of fuel (Guyette et al., 2002; Driscoll et al., 2021).
48 After the mid-20th century, land abandonment associated with an increase of scrub cover and the build-up of fuels (Mantero
49 et al., 2020) chiefly contributed to the increased fire hazard in the Mediterranean Region (Le Houérou, 1993; Salis et al.,
50 2022). Despite the occurrence of some natural factors favouring fires, most of them are due to arson, typically ignited
51 through carelessness or voluntary action. Being the vegetation burning strongly related to plant water content (Bond and
52 Wilgen, 1996), fires happen mostly during the warmest and driest months, i.e. during the Mediterranean summer (Bergmeier
53 et al., 2021). Climate change scenarios indicate rising temperatures and decreasing amounts of precipitation, resulting in
54 longer summer aridity, soil water shortages and increasing fire risk (Moriondo et al., 2006; Lozano et al., 2017; IPCC, 2021).
55 Furthermore, typical Mediterranean scrublands are highly resilient to relatively frequent, high-intensity fires, but changes in
56 the fire regime resulting in shorter fire intervals may make these communities susceptible to compositional changes and alien
57 plant invasions (Keely and Brennan, 2012; Vallejo et al., 2012). The positive feedback between invasive species and fire can
58 be a major cause of unidirectional change in invaded ecosystems (Brooks et al., 2004), and invasive species able to sustain
59 an increased fire frequency and intensity may generate favourable conditions for their self-perpetuation (Pauchard et al.,
60 2008). Small islands are particularly vulnerable to biological invasions (Bellard et al., 2016), due to the combined effect of
61 the reduced species pool and the competitive traits of invasive species. This process has been reported for Mediterranean
62 islands (Celesti-Grapow et al., 2016; Fois et al., 2020), particularly in the case of volcanic islands with ongoing or recent
63 volcanic activity (Karadimou et al., 2015; Pasta et al., 2017; Chiarucci et al., 2021).
64 The island of Stromboli is the youngest and most active volcano in the Aeolian Archipelago (NE-Sicily); its subaerial
65 activity began around 85 ka BP (Francalanci et al., 2013). Stromboli has the lowest number of species, as expected by the
66 within archipelago species-area relationship among the seven largest islands of the Aeolian Archipelago, both for native and
67 alien species (Chiarucci et al., 2021). By far the most common alien plant in Stromboli is a tall, vigorously growing
68 rhizomatous grass, *Saccharum biflorum* Forssk., which was introduced in the 19th century as a windbreak. *Saccharum* has
69 then spread on former cultivations, abandoned terraced fields and wherever there is accumulation of volcanic ash, where this
70 grass species sinks its robust rhizomes. Local elder people recall a major spread of *Saccharum* soon after the arson caused by
71 paroxysmal activity in 1930 and the subsequent abandonment of a large portion of the cultivated terraces along the eastern
72 slopes of the island (Richter and Lingenhöhl, 2002). In following years, its spread has been somewhat reduced by the
73 development of native scrub, which until recently was the most widespread vegetation type on the island. Another large fire
74 event, ignited at the Punta Labronzo landfill site in 1978, promoted the recovery of *Saccharum* all over the gently sloping
75 sites on the eastern side of Punta Labronzo.
76 On 25-26 May 2022, a large fire event burned much of the northern and eastern quadrants of Stromboli, upstream of the
77 villages San Vincenzo, San Bartolo and Piscità. This study uses remotely sensed data to analyse the post-fire damage on
78 local vegetation through the application of two spectrally sensitive indices, i.e. the differential Normalised Burned Index
79 (dNBR) and the Normalised Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI). The dNBR has been used also to quantify the extent of
80 the subsequent early-stage vegetation recovery, dominated by *Saccharum biflorum*.

81 **Material & Methods**

82 *Study area.* The island of Stromboli, 12.6 km², is the emerged part of a volcanic complex elongated in a N-E direction. It
83 represents the northeastern end of the Aeolian Archipelago, in southeastern Tyrrhenian Sea, Mediterranean biogeographical



84 region (Cervellini et al., 2020). The elevation of Stromboli is 926 m a.s.l., with quite a regular slope averaging 28° and two
85 large horseshoe-shaped flank collapses named “Sciara del Fuoco”, on the northwestern-, and “Rina Grande - Le Mandre”, on
86 the southeastern flank of the island.

87 Our study area covers an area of ca 3.4 km², between 50 m a.s.l. and 530 m a.s.l., on the northern and eastern sides of the
88 volcano and can be roughly divided in two sectors. The northern sector is bounded by the “Fili del Fuoco” ridge, overlooking
89 “Sciara del Fuoco”, to the west and by the Vallonazzo valley to the east; the eastern sector is bounded by the Vallonazzo
90 valley to the north-west and by the “Rina Grande - Le Mandre” depression to the south-east. Both sectors are characterised
91 by a smooth texture and medium to gentle slopes, with 80% of the area sloping less than 30° (Fornaciai et al., 2010).

92 The climate is typically Mediterranean. The first weather station in Stromboli recorded data from 1946 until 1980 and was
93 located at an elevation of 4 m a.s.l. A new weather station (ID: ISICILIA191) was installed on the island in 2016, at the same
94 elevation. Based on the available data, Stromboli villages experience an average yearly temperature of 18.2 °C, with an
95 average mean temperature of 12.3 °C in the coldest (January) and 26 °C in the warmest month (August). The average annual
96 rainfall amounts to 570 mm, while the relative humidity is 75.0% in winter and 60.8% in summer. Based on the WorldClim
97 interpolated maps (Hijmans et al., 2005) and on the Rivas-Martínez bioclimatic classification (2004), the study area is
98 characterised by an upper thermo-mediterranean thermotype and a dry to sub-humid ombrotype (Bazan et al., 2015).

99 The study area was dominated by a typical Mediterranean rockrose garrigue (*Cistus creticus* subsp. *eriocephalus*, *C.*
100 *monspeliensis*, *C. salvifolius*) with scattered patches of maquis with *Genista tyrrhena*, *Spartium junceum*, *Olea europaea*,
101 *Erica arborea* and *Pistacia lentiscus* (Richter, 1984; Cavallaro et al., 2009). The former cultivated land and the volcanic ash
102 deposits were extensively colonised by *Saccharum biflorum*, while small holm-oak stands were occasionally found along the
103 impluvium lines. Equally rare and scattered were the patches of *Euphorbia dendroides* scrub, limited to the rocky outcrops,
104 especially along the south-facing rim of Vallonazzo valley (Ferro and Furnari, 1968; Richter and Lingenhöhl, 2002). The
105 highest and southernmost end of the study area included part of the local population of *Cytisus aeolicus*, a narrow ranging
106 endemic broom growing only on the islands of Vulcano, Alicudi and Stromboli (Zaia et al., 2020).

107 On 25-26 May 2022, due to recklessness during the filming of a television drama, a fire broke out in the upper outskirts of
108 the village of San Vincenzo and, fuelled by a strong sirocco wind, burned the whole of our study area. While *Saccharum*
109 stands were entirely burned, a very few small patches of garrigue and holm-oak stands escaped by chance from the fire.

110

111 *Satellite imagery processing.* In order to assess the extent of fire damage to the vegetation and the post-fire surface of the
112 resprouted *Saccharum* patches, we used optical satellite images acquired by the spaceborne Sentinel-2 sensor, a multispectral
113 mission launched in the frame of the European Space Agency (ESA) Copernicus program (Drusch, 2012).

114 Sentinel-2 measures globally the backscattered solar radiation from ground targets with a temporal resolution of around 5
115 days, across 13 spectral bands with different ground sampling distance (GSD) varying from 10 to 60 metres. In this work,
116 we employed the four bands at 10 m GSD, namely in the visible range (blue, green, red) and near infrared (NIR).
117 Additionally, we relied on Band 12 in the short wave infrared (SWIR) at 20 m GSD in order to detect burned areas. All other
118 bands were not used in this analysis. The products used were at processing level 2A, which provides radiometrically
119 corrected, georeferenced, orthorectified, atmospherically corrected, and converted to bottom of atmosphere reflectance data.

120 The choice of using reflectance rather than radiance products is motivated by the following reasons: (1) overall brightness
121 differences in different images due to different acquisition conditions are reduced in the level 2A products, (2) quantities
122 estimated from single images through spectral indices result meaningful when applied to data in reflectance.

123 The data selection and processing was carried out on Google Earth Engine (GEE) (Amani et al., 2020), and at the same time
124 a multi-petabyte repository of geo-referenced and harmonised Earth Observation raster, vector, and tabular datasets, which
125 includes the whole Sentinel-2 archive.



126 To quantify the damage caused by the above mentioned fire event on the vegetation, different Sentinel-2 scenes acquired in a
127 relatively short time span were aggregated, in order to increase the robustness of the results by reducing noise, outliers, small
128 clouds and cloud shadows which can affect single images. A snapshot of the island before the event was derived by
129 considering images from 8 acquisition dates with cloud cover below 5% acquired before the fire event, from April 22 to May
130 22, 2022, considering the median reflectance for each image element. The post-fire reflectance was estimated by applying
131 the same processing to 6 acquisition dates after the event, from June 1 to 16, 2022. The two image composites are reported in
132 Fig. 1. Therein, pre- and post-event true colour images obtained from Sentinel-2 bands in the visible range (namely bands 4,
133 3, and 2) can be visually assessed, with damage caused by the fire in the northeastern part of the island already evident in
134 this band combination.

135 In order to estimate vegetation loss and total burned area, we derived the Normalised Burn Ratio (*NBR*), defined for a
136 multispectral image x as:

$$NBR(x) = \frac{NIR - SWIR}{NIR + SWIR}$$

137 where *NIR* and *SWIR* represent for Sentinel-2 data the reflectance of x in bands 8 and 12, respectively. The *NBR* is a
138 commonly used index to detect burned area and burn severity (Key and Benson, 1996), and is particularly sensitive to the
139 changes in the amount of live green vegetation, moisture content, and some soil conditions which may occur after fire
140 (Lentile et al., 2006).

141 Change detection relying on spectral indices from multitemporal pre- and post-fire images can be used to estimate biomass
142 loss. Thanks to the availability of multitemporal images, we used the differenced *NBR* (*dNBR*) since it has the best
143 performance in capturing the spatial severity within fire perimeters (Picotte and Robertson, 2010; Soverel et al., 2010).

144 The *dNBR* related to pre- and post-event images, respectively x_{t0} acquired at time $t0$ and x_{t1} acquired at time $t1$, is the delta
145 of the two measurements:

$$dNBR(x_{t0}, x_{t1}) = NBR(x_{t0}) - NBR(x_{t1})$$

146 This quantity has been used to estimate both damage severity and vegetation recovery after the fire event: a negative
147 *dNBR* is correlated to regrowth after fires, while a positive one indicates damages, whose severity is proportional to the
148 *dNBR* value.

149
150 Another approach to the estimation of damage in the area is by simply estimating the loss in live green vegetation, rather
151 than the appearance of burned areas. The normalised difference vegetation index (*NDVI*; Gandhi et al., 2015) was derived as
152 well for this purpose, and its values were compared before and after the event. *NDVI* is defined as:

$$NDVI(x) = \frac{NIR - RED}{NIR + RED}$$

153 *NDVI* is usually less effective in detecting burned areas because the reflectance in the NIR region of the spectrum is usually
154 higher than RED both in live vegetation and burned areas, although the difference is much reduced in the latter, while
155 reflectance in the SWIR can be higher than NIR in burned areas.

156 To check whether the severity of the damage was related to geomorphological features, rather than to different vegetation
157 units, the correlation between results of the *dNBR* and a digital elevation model (DEM), also rendered in hillshade, was also
158 evaluated.

159 Finally, to assess the quality of the information derived from *dNBR* analysis, additional qualitative validation has been
160 carried out by comparing *dNBR* results and very high resolution images acquired by a drone DJI Phantom 3 professional on
161 17 August 2022, i.e. around 3 months after the fire event and 5 days after the first intense rainstorm. Drone images were



162 merged and geo-referenced through the software Agisoft Photoscan Professional (version 1.2.6). These images have 10 cm
163 GSD, and have been mosaicked over the north-eastern part of the island, covering the inhabited area of San Bartolo and San
164 Vincenzo (Fig. 2). The drone images did not cover the higher elevations of our study area, closer to the volcano's vents, nor
165 the northernmost part, near Punta Labronzo.

166

167 *Target species.* *Saccharum biflorum* Forssk. [= *S. spontaneum* L. subsp. *aegyptiacum* (Willd.) Hack.] is a bushy grass of
168 Palaeotropical origin (Amalra and Balasundaram, 2006) with herbaceous, erect, robust, full culms up to 1.5-2.5 m and
169 flowering stems up to 3 m high. Its rhizomes can be up to 6 m long, with nodes every 10-15 cm, from which the culms and
170 fascicled roots branch off (Supplement 1, Fig. S1). This grass bears curved leaves with up to 1.40 m long lamina, glabrous,
171 rough, up to 1 cm wide, often convolute. This species has a C₄ metabolism, and thrives in sandy-silty, often alluvial soils
172 (Pignatti et al., 2017-2019).

173 Gussone (1832) reported its occurrence (despite wrongly identifying it as *Saccharum ravennae* L.) on the islands of
174 Stromboli, Panarea, Lipari and Vulcano, as "cultivated hedges in vineyards". The alien species was then properly identified
175 by Ferro and Furnari (1968), who reported that "a large part of the north-eastern slope of the island, the very slope that
176 Lojacono travelled through 'vineyards that produce beautiful wines', is covered by dense, almost monophytic *Saccharum*
177 vegetation, from sea level up to the upper limit of the ancient crops (...). This slope could have been colonised in a different
178 way by native floristic elements, but it is difficult to make predictions on the final outcome of the competition, given the
179 compactness of the *Saccharum* rhizomatous apparatus".

180 However, photos published by Ferro and Furnari (1968) give the impression that 50 years ago *Saccharum* was somewhat
181 more widespread than nowadays. In addition to cultivation abandonment, the establishment of this plant is favoured by fire,
182 as observed by Richter (1984) and Richter and Lingenhöhl (2002). In order to collect useful information to better understand
183 the interaction between *Saccharum*, fire and native vegetation, a comparative evaluation of stem density/m² in burned vs.
184 unburned patches, ten replicates each, was carried out in the field. In the unburned patches, the relative percentage of dry
185 stems compared to green stems was also assessed, in order to explain the ease of fire ignition due to the abundant presence of
186 dry biomass, consisting mainly of the flowering stems of *Saccharum* which, once faded, dry out completely but remain
187 standing, as they are supported by the green stems which have not yet flowered.

188 Results

189 The application of the *dNBR*, which was thresholded to values larger than 0.19 in order to detect the areas affected by fire,
190 yielded a damage map which can be visually assessed against the difference between pre- and post-fire acquisitions (Fig. 1),
191 showing how burned areas got very close to the inhabited area, and surrounded the Osservatorio Restaurant in the north of
192 the island, near Punta Labronzo. *NDVI* values were strongly correlated with *dNBR* values. However, the pre- and post- event
193 difference in *NDVI* showed less clear patterns with evident noise in the estimation of vegetation loss, and false positives
194 scattered across the inhabited area, and are not reported further in this paper. This happens in spite of *NDVI* having a true
195 resolution of 10 m in Sentinel-2 products, while *NBR* employs the SWIR band, which is originally at 20 m GSD and
196 therefore interpolated. The higher sensitivity of *NBR* to spectral changes caused by the appearance of burned areas makes
197 this index in our case study a better detector for damage, even when this is present at sub-pixel level only. We found no
198 correlation between the *dNBR* and neither the elevation nor the slope (therefore not reported here).

199

200 In order to give an estimate of the total burned area, and its varying fire damage, we must take into account deviations due to
201 the qualitative approximation introduced by the manual setting of the threshold adopted for *dNBR* to consider the presence of
202 burned vegetation, and the spatial approximation due to the GSD at hand (10 m, resulting in each pixel covering an area of
203 100 m²). Regarding the former aspect, the extension of the burned area and the exposure of the soil after the event allowed



204 fine tuning of the threshold based on visual assessment from the experts. The approximation in spatial resolution should, on
205 such a large and homogeneously burned surface, balance out small undetected damaged fractions of single pixel with
206 partially unburned image elements. Taking into account the above-mentioned sources of uncertainty, we can quantify the
207 burned area in 337.83 ha, corresponding to 27.7% of the island surface. Of these, 44.31 ha showed high severity burning,
208 assigned to a $dNBR$ value higher than 0.45 (Fig. 1).

209 To assess the quality of our results, we computed a new $dNBR$ between the pre-event image and a mosaic of Sentinel-2
210 acquisitions from the time range 15-17 August 2022. The burned area detected in such way overlapped very well the burned
211 area observable in the drone image acquired on August 17th, with areas with vegetation which was spared by the fire event
212 correctly not included in $dNBR$ results (Fig. 2). Other vegetated areas are correctly included in $dNBR$ results, because even if
213 they did not burn completely they were still affected by fire, exhibiting a steep decrease in the red edge portion of the
214 spectrum around 700 nm, denoting decrease of vegetated area and strong vegetative stress.

215 In order to estimate the biomass loss, the $NDVI$ was used to calculate the total vegetated area on the island before the event.
216 An $NDVI$ calculated with a threshold of 0.08 identified all pixels having at least 8% covered by photosynthetically active
217 vegetation, and quantified the area of the island covered by vegetation before the fire as 678.73 ha. Considering the
218 described correlation between $dNBR$ and $NDVI$, and the above reported area affected by the fire as computed by $dNBR$, it
219 can be concluded that 49.8% of the vegetated area of Stromboli has been burned during the fire event.

220 Regarding the type of vegetation affected, most of the areas with higher $dNBR$ (high severity burning) correspond to patches
221 dominated by *S. biflorum*, while patches with lower associated $dNBR$ value correspond to the local native plant communities
222 described in the 'study area' section (see above).

223 The fast recovery of the *Saccharum* patches, with their soft green colour standing out against the surrounding black, caught
224 everyone's attention as early as a few weeks after the fire, due to the obvious contrast to the harsh environmental conditions
225 imposed by a particularly hot and dry summer (Supplement 1, Fig. S3-5). Until first rains, which occurred on the night of 12
226 August 2022, *Saccharum* was the only green spot in the fire-affected areas.

227 In the Sentinel2 images of 22 September 2022, previous damage from the fire event appears mitigated. More in detail, a total
228 of 110 ha of the previously burned area (roughly one third) exhibits a $dNBR$ value below -0.1, which represents a strong
229 indicator of vegetation regrowth. This regrowth is mostly occupied by *Saccharum*, demonstrating that this species is able to
230 exert unchallenged dominance in the early stages of the post-fire dynamics (succession), reaching vegetative stem densities
231 slightly lower than those of the unburned stands in a short time (Fig. 3).

232 Indeed, the high resolution drone images on August 17th 2022 clearly show all *Saccharum* patches in their regrowth phase.

233 Discussion

234 Although we applied a permissive threshold (8%) in the $NDVI$ for our quantitative analysis, our conclusion that the fire
235 occurred on 25-26 May 2022 destroyed roughly half of Stromboli's vegetated area appears reasonably accurate, when
236 considering all the available data we used for validation. First, visual assessment of the satellite data clearly shows even at a
237 resolution of 10 m the burned area, due to its size, partial homogeneity, and to its ground being exposed. These observations
238 match the $dNBR$ results. Furthermore, a qualitative validation for the accuracy of detected damage using high resolution data
239 acquired by drones yielded a favourable outcome and our field observations were in line to the remotely sensed observations
240 described in this paper.

241 Fire is a major driving force for Mediterranean insular ecosystem dynamics since the emergence of the Mediterranean
242 climate (Médail, 2021) and also a major driver of degradation in volcanic island ecosystems (Irl et al., 2014). This paper
243 provides the first report of how a single fire event significantly affected Stromboli island, burning 50% of the vegetated
244 island surface. This clearly affected the island biota, in particular destroying the spontaneous vegetation, which is rich in
245 species of relevant biogeographic interest, such as *Centaurea aeolica*, *Genista tyrrhena*, *Dianthus rupicola* subsp. *aeolicus*,



246 *Jacobaea maritima* subsp. *bicolor* (Pasta et al., submitted). In addition, the highest and southernmost end of the study area
247 included part of the *Cytisus aeolicus* population, one of the rarest and most emblematic endemic plant species of the Aeolian
248 Archipelago (Zaia et al., 2020).
249 Our study confirms that the establishment of *Saccharum* is certainly favoured by fire, as already observed by Richter (1984)
250 and Richter and Lingenhöhl (2002). Fire spreads very easily across *Saccharum* vegetation, due to the abundant presence of
251 standing dry biomass (Supplement 1, Fig. S2, S4, S6). This result agrees with many recent studies focused on the role of fire
252 as promoter of C₄ grasses (Scheiter et al., 2012; Hoetzel et al., 2013; Ripley et al., 2015). Although the native rockrose
253 garrigue vegetation is also adapted to - and favoured by - periodical fires (Pausas, 1999), its survival derives from the ability
254 of *Cistus* to develop a long-lasting soil seed bank (Soy and Sonie, 1992; Scuderi et al., 2010). Too frequent fire events and
255 runoff caused by heavy rainfall on sandy and incoherent soils may cause a critical depletion of soil seed bank and favour
256 sprouters against obligate seeders. On this purpose, we must point out that the autochthonous sprouters (such as *Erica*
257 *arborea*, *Pistacia lentiscus*, *Olea europaea*) have slower growth rate than *Saccharum* and need longer time to become
258 established.
259 After the fire, our study area was exposed to full solar radiation; dark sandy surfaces were subject to extreme microclimatic
260 (surface temperatures up to 80 °C; see Richter, 1984) and extremely dry conditions. These were not favourable for the
261 germination of the soil seed bank, whilst sprouters faced almost no competition until first rains, which occurred on 12
262 August 2022. The first and most important beneficiary of these contrasting conditions was *S. biflorum*, which over time was
263 able to colonise large surfaces of tephra in the northern and eastern parts of the island, likely due to a positive interaction
264 between land abandonment, recurrent fires and volcanic ash deposition.
265 According to Lojacono (1878), *Saccharum* was planted along the vineyards to shelter them from the northerly winds (Fig.
266 4). This condition lasted until the eruption of 11 September 1930, so far considered the most violent and destructive event in
267 the historical records of Stromboli's activity (Rittmann, 1931). Facilitated by the winter rains and by a rapid expansion via
268 rhizomes, *Saccharum* first benefited from the emigration of most inhabitants and subsequent abandonment of terraced fields,
269 which in a very short time lapse were almost completely sealed off by a dense monospecific bed, which made it difficult for
270 other species to establish themselves (Ferro and Furnari, 1968; Richter, 1984). Since then, competition for space between
271 local native vegetation and *Saccharum* beds has been regulated mainly by the periodical occurrence of fires. Further studies
272 are needed to understand the duration of the *Saccharum* expansion phases. Our preliminary results suggest that the
273 expansion of *Saccharum* is surprisingly fast, but the decline may also be relatively rapid. There is no data on the longevity of
274 *Saccharum* rhizomes and related senescence processes, nor on the effects of volcanic ash deposition on rhizome burial.
275 However, there are reasonable indications that, if the vegetation is not affected by fire, *Saccharum* could be gradually
276 replaced by native vegetation within a few decades, as captured in the maps published as "Fig. 4" by Richter and Lingenhöhl
277 (2002).
278 *Saccharum* beds have over time become an important secondary habitat for many animal species. In fact, they represent the
279 main breeding site for at least 70% of breeding bird species on Stromboli (Massa et al., 2015) and host conspicuous
280 populations of almost all terrestrial vertebrates occurring on the island (especially *Tarentola mauritanica*, *Podarcis siculus*
281 and *Hierophis viridiflavus*). Some of the invertebrates that occurs in the *Saccharum* beds are of considerable biogeographic
282 interest, such as *Caulostrophus zancleanus*, a regional endemic (Lo Cascio et al., 2022), and the recently described *Catomus*
283 *aeolicus*, endemic of the northeastern sector of the Aeolian archipelago (Ponel et al., 2020). Although not specialised on
284 *Saccharum*, the rhizophagous larvae of the melolonthid *Anoxia orientalis*, a species considered rare at national scale in Italy,
285 feed on its rhizomes. Surprisingly enough, *S. biflorum* does not seem to be an attractive fodder for the mammals introduced
286 in historical (*Oryctolagus cuniculus*) or more recent (*Capra hircus*) times, nor significant infestations of phytophagous
287 insects have ever been observed. Thus, herbivory does not seem to be a limiting factor to the expansion of *Saccharum* on
288 Stromboli.



289 Conclusions

290 Remotely sensed data provide fast, accurate and reliable information for post-fire damage analysis, being spectrally sensitive
291 to vegetation features and structure. Multi-temporal data acquisition allows observations on early stage vegetation dynamics
292 which, in our case, point out the outstanding pioneer role played by *Saccharum biflorum*.

293 On 12 August 2022, a severe thunderstorm triggered disastrous erosion processes over the entire area affected by the fire on
294 May 25-26. Large quantities of mud, stones and volcanic ashes flooded the streets of the villages Piscità, San Bartolo and
295 San Vincenzo (Supplement 1, Fig. S7). In the burned area, the traces of runoff and surface rill erosion were still very evident
296 during our inspections on 18-19 September 2022. However, just as evident was the ambivalent role of *Saccharum*, which,
297 while on the one hand clearly prevails on native species, on the other hand, thanks to its dense mat of rhizomes, proves to be
298 much more efficient than the burned native vegetation in counteracting hydrogeological instability. The latter is a very
299 relevant aspect in a volcanic island, whose soils are largely made up of loose tephra ashes.

300 Therefore, while considering the fragility of the context, given that *Saccharum* is already present and widespread on the
301 island, it is believed that its rhizomes could be usefully employed for targeted interventions, burying them where it is
302 deemed necessary to contain the disastrous effects of erosion caused by rainfall as much as possible, and then later
303 supporting the biological succession through manual thinning of *Saccharum* culms and sowing of the native woody species
304 typical of local garrigue and maquis communities. A recovery process of natural vegetation, a true rewilding of the upper
305 part of the island, is expected in absence of major anthropogenic disturbance which has favoured the establishment and
306 spread of the alien-dominated vegetation.

307

308 *Author contribution.* RG and DC developed the research idea, DC processed satellite and drone imagery, RG and RZ
309 conducted the field work, RG led the writing process, all authors discussed the results and contributed to the manuscript.

310

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313

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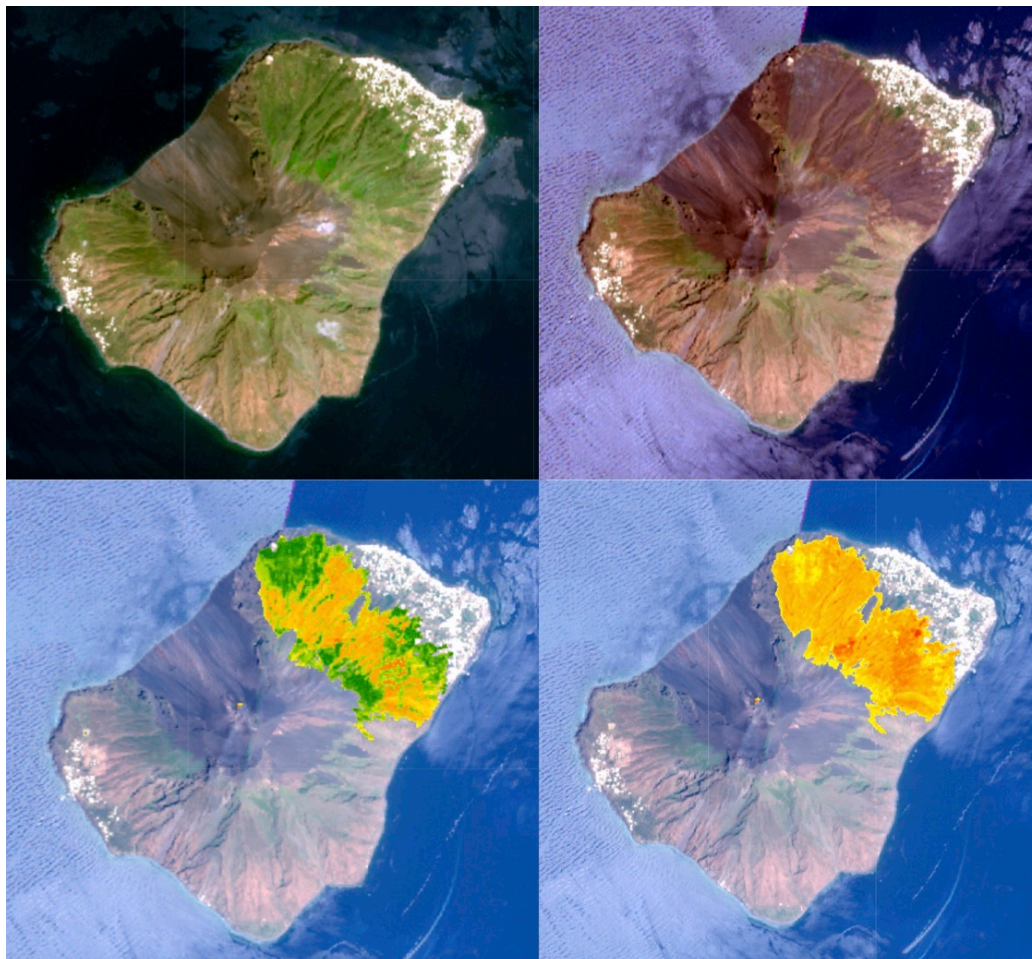
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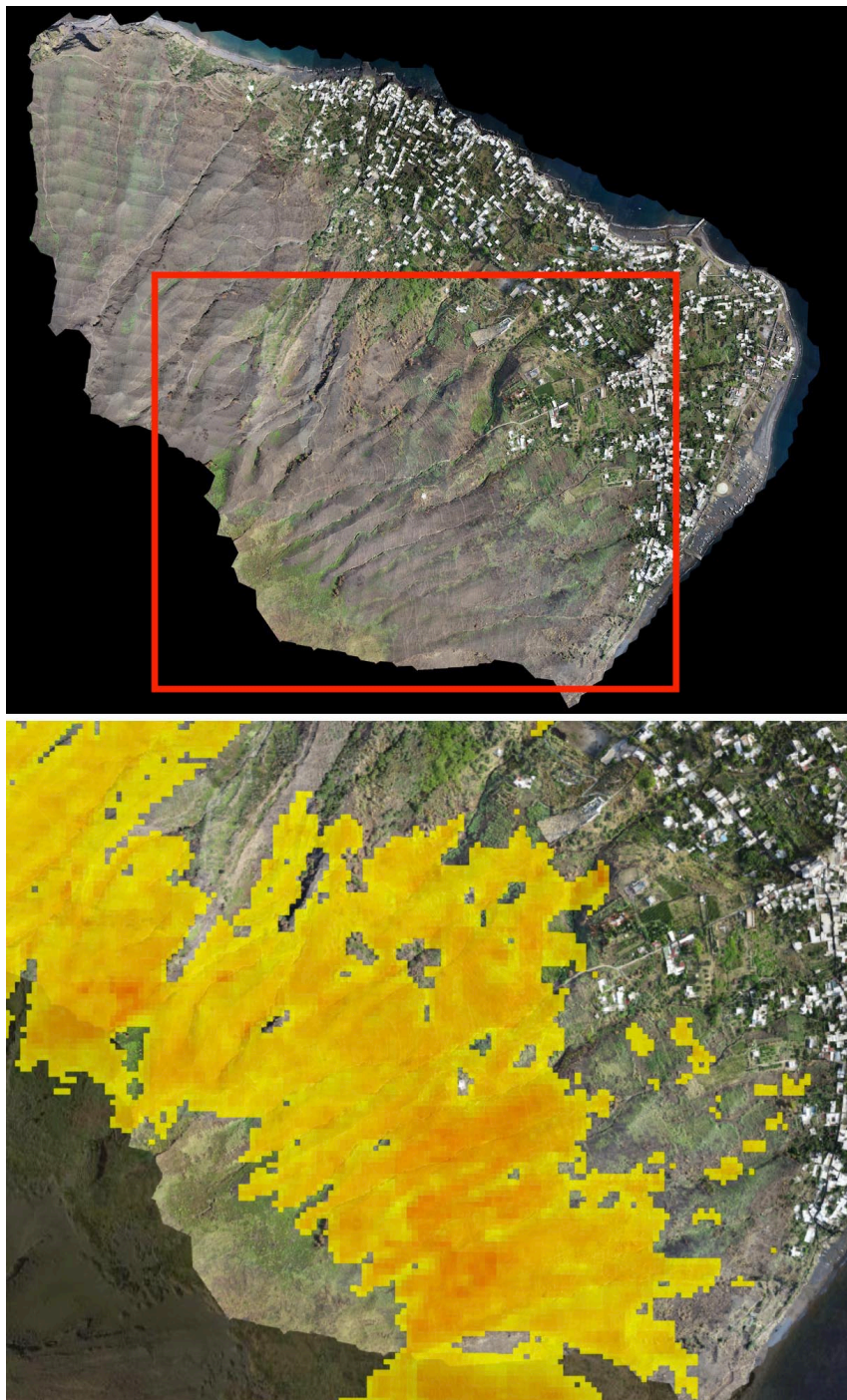
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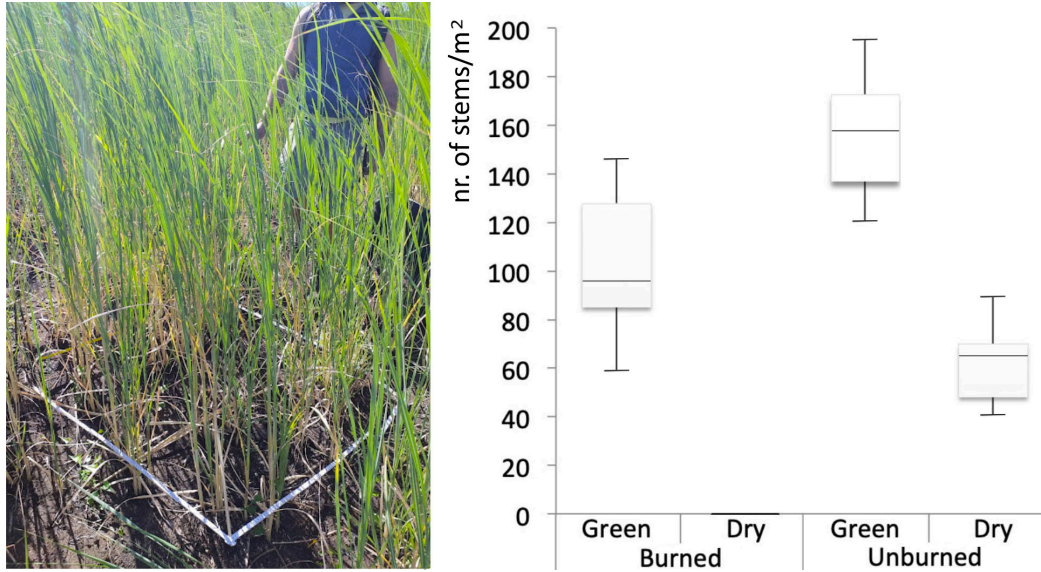
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Figure 1: (clockwise from the top left corner) Sentinel 2 image before fire event (composite of acquisitions in the time period 22/04 - 22/05/2022); Sentinel 2 image after fire (composite of acquisitions in the time period 1-16/06/2022); *dNBR*-assessed burned area (yellow: low-, orange: middle-, red: high-severity damage); *dNBR*-assessed vegetation recover (dark green: high-, pale green moderate vegetation recover; Sentinel 2 image, 22 September 2022).



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483 Figure 2: (above) high resolution drone image acquired on 17 August 2022 to assess the quality of the information derived
484 from *dNBR* analysis; (bottom) detail of drone image with overlaid *dNBR* results for visual comparison (yellow: low-, orange: middle-
485 , red: high-severity damage). Credits of drone images: Antonio Zimbone.



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Figure 3: (left) measuring resprouted *Saccharum biflorum* stem density in one of the plots within the burned area (18 Sept. 2022, photo by R. Guarino); (right) boxplots of the stem density of *Saccharum* in burned and unburned patches.



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Figure 4: (left) historical photo of terraced vineyards on Stromboli (year: 1891, anonymous), with rows of *Saccharum biflorum* used as windbreaks; (right) same view, 130 years later (16 July 2021, photo by P. Lo Cascio).