

1 Original research article

2 **Recent vegetation changes linked to forestry legislation inferred from pollen and**
3 **sedimentological analyses in northwest Spain**

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21 **Abstract**

22 The decline of forest cover in the northwestern Iberian Peninsula during the recent
23 centuries, driven by anthropogenic activities, has necessitated the establishment of a set
24 of laws and regulations to ensure stricter control of the use of natural forest resources.
25 However, the assessment of the effects of such legislation on plant populations is
26 inaccurate and lacks a longer-term perspective. The present study aims to assess the
27 impact of the most important forestry policies of the last centuries on past plant population
28 dynamics using high-resolution pollen analysis of three sedimentary sequences extracted
29 from the inner zone of the Ria of Ferrol, Galicia, northwest Spain. Pollen evidence suggest
30 that plant populations are strongly influenced by the different reforestation and

31 afforestation activities carried out during the last centuries. A substantial change in the
32 regional vegetation is evident during the latter half of the 20th century, mainly attributed to
33 the reforestation activities of *Patrimonio Forestal del Estado* (State Forestry Heritage),
34 established in 1941, alongside changes in the socioeconomic dynamics of the region.
35 Pollen signals preserved in the sediments along with changes in particle size, were driven
36 by sedimentary processes associated with urban infrastructure development and changes
37 in the erosive rate likely related the removal of the tree cover by increasing silvicultural
38 activity. The high resolution of the radiometric chronologies obtained allows to detect
39 changes in plant populations that can be correlated with specific historical events, thereby
40 reinforcing the efficacy of high-resolution pollen analysis as a valuable tool for science-
41 based forest management assessment.

42 **Keywords**

43 Anthropocene, human impact, forestry policies, pollen, sedimentation rates

44 **1. Introduction**

45 The past few centuries have been marked by intense human action on the landscape and
46 the environment (Zalasiewicz et al., 2020). Exponential population growth and its demand
47 for natural resources have induced significant modifications to the environment, impacting
48 even fundamental geological processes (Syvitski et al., 2020). The extensive alteration of
49 environmental functioning, encompassing changes in sedimentary dynamics, vegetation
50 (including logging and reforestation), agriculture, atmospheric chemistry, erosion rates,
51 and flooding, has led to the proposal of the Anthropocene as a distinct chronological
52 interval succeeding the Holocene (Waters et al., 2016; Zalasiewicz et al., 2024). The study
53 of the Anthropocene is essential for understanding the novel processes associated with

54 human action and for attempting to mitigate and counteract the environmental effects
55 predicted for the coming decades (Steffen et al., 2007).

56 Some of the factors contributing to landscape transformation and modifying the
57 hydrological and sedimentary processes at global scale are the clearance of forests for
58 commercial use, the establishment of cultivation areas, and reforestation with
59 economically valuable species (Chakravarty et al., 2012; Kennish, 2016). Since the
60 emergence of early civilisations, human populations have exploited natural resources to
61 meet their basic needs for food and energy (Bogaard, 2004; Filipović et al., 2019). Forest
62 harvesting has consistently been one of the main sources of fuel and building materials
63 influencing the establishment and development of human settlements (Revelles, 2017).

64 Like the rest of Europe (Hublin, 2015; Müller et al., 2011), the northwestern Iberian
65 Peninsula has been subject to human influence since ancient times (Gutián Rivera, 2001;
66 Martínez-Cortizas et al., 2009). Since the Bronze Age, but particularly during the Middle
67 Ages (López-Merino et al., 2014), the unsustainable exploitation of wood resources, as
68 well as the removal of tree cover to create open spaces for agriculture and livestock
69 (Ramil-Rego et al., 1998), has caused widespread deforestation throughout much of the
70 region (Hernández-Beloqui et al., 2015). The absence of rules or structured processes for
71 regulating resource use led to a significant decline in natural forest populations, which
72 even extended into the 19th century (Gutián Rivera, 2001). In response, given the
73 insufficient timber production, state forestry regulations were implemented with a
74 production-oriented approach, aimed at planting fast-growing species (e.g., *Pinus* and
75 *Eucalyptus*) to ensure rapid recovery and state control of the forests (Iriarte Goñi, 2013).

76 Nevertheless, the environmental degradation caused by the overexploitation of forest
77 resources, the use of exotic species, and land use change highlighted the necessity to
78 legislating from a conservationist perspective, leading subsequent legislation to consider

79 the use of native species for reforestation (Pemán García et al., 2017). As mentioned by
80 Kulkarni et al. (2021), conservation efforts are focused on mitigating past environmental
81 degradation to enhance ecosystem resilience. However, the results and consequences of
82 this forestry legislation have not been adequately evaluated in terms of regional vegetation
83 change, nor have been systematically monitored by the governments that defined them.
84 Consequently, the implemented legislation cannot be effectively utilised to understand
85 ecosystem responses and to propose new guidelines for future biodiversity conservation.
86 Potential explanations for this lack of evaluation and monitoring are government turnover
87 and the occurrence of armed conflicts that have interrupted these processes (Rico, 2000).

88 In the context of intense human activity on ecosystems, particularly in population and
89 economic centres, and in view of the growing environmental impacts that characterises the
90 Anthropocene (Zalasiewicz et al., 2017), it is imperative to assess the effects of historical
91 forestry legislation on plant populations and ecosystems. Only through such an
92 assessment will it be possible to establish future guidelines for the restoration and
93 conservation of ecosystems, thereby enabling sustainable development in the region
94 (Willis and Birks, 2006).

95 Palaeoenvironmental reconstruction is a valuable tool for studying variations in plant
96 community composition and their temporal changes (Ge et al., 2019). Despite the
97 abundant research conducted in northwestern Spain documenting the human impact on
98 ecosystems over the last millennia (García Antón et al., 2006; Gil García et al., 2002;
99 Santos, 2004; Santos et al., 2000), few studies have provided a sufficient temporal
100 resolution to assess the effect of specific historical events — such as the implementation
101 of legal frameworks or land-use changes — on ecosystems in the recent geological
102 record. Moreover, the most recent time, with more complex legislation, is the one that can
103 reveal in greater detail the responses recorded by the vegetation. However, the limitations

104 of traditional pollen analysis, stemming from the low chronological resolution of many
105 Holocene sequences (Hájková et al., 2023; Ramil-Rego et al., 1998) hinder the
106 observation of detailed vegetation changes that have occurred in recent decades and
107 centuries.

108 The present study assesses the biological response of plant populations to the
109 implementation of the most significant forestry policies during the last centuries, land-use
110 change, and socio-economic development around the Ria of Ferrol, Galicia, northwestern
111 Spain, using high-resolution pollen analysis of three short sedimentary sequences and a
112 robust chronological model. The remarkable response of pollen analyses demonstrates
113 the utility of this method as a key tool for verifying the effectiveness of legislative policies
114 and determining whether they are conducive to the conservation and restoration of
115 ecosystems and biodiversity.

116 **2. Materials and methods**

117 **2.1. Study area**

118 The Ria of Ferrol is located on the Galician Atlantic coast, in the northwest of the Iberian
119 Peninsula (43.47 °N, 8.21 °W), and alongside the rias of A Coruña and Ares-Betanzos, it
120 forms the Gulf of Ártabro. The ría exhibits a general east-west orientation, with an area of
121 21 km² and a length of 15 km (Muñoz Sobrino et al., 2022). Geomorphologically, it is
122 characterised by three distinct zones (outer, middle and inner zones) with varying
123 hydrological and hydrodynamic characteristics and the presence of a 2.7 km long x 0.5 km
124 wide Ferrol Strait, near the mouth, modifies the flow and water re-mixing patterns (Figure
125 1).

126 In general, a decrease in depth and sediment particle size is observed towards the head of
127 the ría, where two of its main freshwater tributaries (6 m³ s⁻¹ average annual flow), the

128 Xuvia (Xubia or Río Grande) and Belelle rivers, discharge into the ría (deCastro et al.,
129 2004). This fining-upward granulometric trend, associated with the low tidal influence
130 (mesotidal and semidiurnal regime) in the innermost zone, leads to the deposition of fine
131 organic-rich muds in this section of the ría (Cobelo-García and Prego, 2004; Evans and
132 Prego, 2003; Prego et al., 2003). Additionally, the presence of artificial barriers (urban
133 infrastructure) in this area substantially reduces the water circulation and re-mixing,
134 promoting the accumulation of particles and pollutants derived from the discharge of
135 industrial effluents and wastewaters, currently processed in the Waste Water Treatment
136 Plants (Cobelo-García et al., 2004).

137 Economic activities developed in this site encompass both industrial (shipbuilding and
138 repair, metallurgy, petrochemicals, plastics manufacturing) and productive (wood and
139 cellulose production, foodstuffs cultivation, fisheries) sectors. These activities are mostly
140 concentrated on the margins of the middle and inner zones of the ría (Figure 1). This
141 substantial productive capacity, combined with its strategic geographical position,
142 establishes the Ria of Ferrol as one of the major industrial centres and commercial ports in
143 the northwest of the Iberian Peninsula. However, the socioeconomic development of the
144 region has exerted considerable pressures on the surroundings, further modifying the
145 original configuration of the natural ecosystems.

146 The natural vegetation of the region is characterised by deciduous forests dominated by
147 *Quercus robur*, *Corylus*, *Betula* and *Castanea*, riparian forests comprising species of the
148 genera *Alnus*, *Salix* and *Fraxinus* (Lara et al., 2019) and heathlands and grasslands
149 consisting of plants of the families Ericaceae, Poaceae and some ferns such as *Pteridium*
150 *aquilinum* (Izco Sevillano, 1987). These plant assemblages are largely benefited of the
151 favourable environmental conditions that maintain a low thermal contrast (average
152 minimum temperature of 10.8°C and average maximum of 15.7°C) and considerable

153 volumes of precipitation (1400 mm/yr on average) in the region (deCastro et al., 2004).
154 However, large extensions of land are heavily exploited for silvicultural purposes (e.g.,
155 extensive cultivation of *Eucalyptus* and *Pinus*), leading to fragmentation and, in some
156 cases, the extirpation of native plant communities (Figure 1).

157 **2.2. Field work and laboratory procedures**

158 **2.2.1. Sampling**

159 During a field sampling campaign in May 2021, three 50 cm-depth sediment cores were
160 extracted from the intertidal zone of the inner Ria of Ferrol (Fene, Neda, and Xuvia; see
161 Figure 1). Each core was manually extracted using 6-inch diameter PVC tubes, with four
162 contiguous replicates collected for various sedimentological, physico-chemical,
163 micropaleontological, radiometric and microplastic analyses (for details, see Gardoki et al.,
164 2023). The sediment sequences were stored under refrigeration (4°C), subsequently
165 subsampled at regular 1-cm intervals, and labelled according to its corresponding depth.
166 For pollen analysis, subsamples were selected at 2-cm intervals, increasing the resolution
167 (1-cm intervals) at intervals where evidence of apparent sedimentological and/or
168 micropalaeontological changes was observed.

169 **2.2.2. Pollen extraction**

170 Each subsample, previously weighed, was soaked for 24 hours and homogenised with a
171 glass rod. Given the marine-estuarine origin of the sedimentary sequence, 10 ml of 35%
172 HCl was used for carbonate removal. Subsequently, due to the predominantly silt-clay
173 granulometric characteristics, the chemical treatment for pollen extraction was carried out
174 using a modified version to the conventional chemical treatment proposed by Riding and

175 Kyffin-Hughes (2004), incorporating sodium hexametaphosphate ((NaPO₃)₆) and
176 concentrated detergent (close to boiling point) to facilitate the sediment deflocculation.

177 The subsamples were sieved at 250 µm to remove plant macroremains and minerals, and
178 sodium polytungstate (density 1.95 g/cm³) was employed to separate the organic (pollen,
179 spores, and plant remains) from the inorganic component. The treatment residue was
180 stored in glycerine jelly to reduce oxidation by preventing contact with air.

181 Pollen analysis was conducted by conventional optical microscopy at 400X magnification
182 at the Laboratory of Terrestrial Natural Resources of the University of Sonora, Mexico.

183 Several specialised atlases (Moore et al., 1994; Reille, 1998, 1992), the PalDat platform
184 (PalDat, 2024) and the reference pollen collection of the University of Sonora (DICTUS)
185 were used as reference material for the taxonomic identification of pollen grains.

186 Pollen grains corresponding to the Cerealia pollen type were categorised using the
187 dimensional classification proposed by Joly et al. (2007): >47 µm grain diameter and 11
188 µm annulus diameter. The *Androsace*-type includes tricolporate, isopolar, prolate pollen
189 grains with psilate ornamentation of dimensions less than 20 µm in diameter, which could
190 correspond to *Castanea* due to the morphometric variation of this pollen type (Sedláčková
191 et al., 2021), however this identification is tentative due to lack of evidence.

192 **2.2.3. Sedimentological analysis and chronological model**

193 Age model and temporal assignment of each sedimentary sequence were estimated from
194 the vertical activity profile of the radionuclides ²¹⁰Pb, ²²⁶Ra and ¹³⁷Cs, using the Constant
195 Rate of Supply (Appleby and Oldfield, 1978) dating model for all sedimentary sequences.
196 However, due to the lack of cancellation of the ²¹⁰Pb activity at the base of the Neda
197 sequence, it was not possible to obtain the total inventory. Therefore, an approximation
198 based on a constant mass accumulation rate was necessary (Gardoki et al., 2023;

199 Sanchez-Cabeza and Ruiz-Fernández, 2012). All these radiometric analyses were carried
200 out at the University of Cantabria, Spain.

201 The granulometric analysis was conducted by separating the sediment into three main
202 fractions: gravels, sands, and muds (comprising silts and clays). This was done by sieving
203 at 2 mm and 63 μm mesh sizes, followed by the estimation of the dry weight percentages
204 of each of the fractions. For sedimentological classification, each subsample was plotted
205 on a ternary diagram and the classification nomenclature proposed by Blott and Pye
206 (2012), was employed.

207 **2.3. Data arrangement and statistical analysis**

208 At least 300 pollen grains were counted and identified from each of the subsamples
209 analysed, except for those with low pollen concentration (primarily in the Fene sequence),
210 where only ~100 pollen grains per subsample were attainable. Pollen analysis results are
211 expressed as percentages of total pollen, including spores of pteridophytes and local
212 aquatic plants. A CONISS stratified cluster analysis was generated based on a Euclidean
213 distance measurement between the subsamples of each core (all pollen types included),
214 without data transformation, using Tilia software (Grimm, 1987). This allowed the
215 subdivision of each core into chronologically ordered, homogeneous pollen zones,
216 denoted A to C.

217 Subsequently, pollen types were grouped according to their ecological affinities,
218 distribution patterns, and relationship with anthropogenic activities (pollen functional types,
219 PFT; Table 1). Low-dispersion PFT corresponds to Pteridophyta spores and pollen with
220 morphological characteristics that impede anemophilous dispersion and suggest water
221 transport (Ge et al., 2019).

222 **3. Results**

223 **3.1. Chronology and sediment accumulation rate**

224 The Xuvia and Fene sedimentary sequences reach the dating limit through radiometric
225 analysis of ^{210}Pb and ^{226}Ra at 44 and 24 cm-depth, respectively. Subsamples below these
226 depths were assigned with the nomenclature pre-1870 CE. In contrast, Neda core shows
227 $^{210}\text{Pb}_{\text{xs}}$ values that persist at the base of the sequence and, based on the chronological
228 model used, this base is placed in the early 1940s. The ^{210}Pb -based absolute ages of
229 these sequences broadly coincide with the appearance and maximum activity profile of
230 ^{137}Cs , with the first occurrence of this artificial radionuclide occurring along mid-20th
231 century.

232 The sediment accumulation rate (SAR) trends of the three sequences analysed show
233 broadly similar patterns, with a gradual increase in deposition towards the top of the cores.
234 This similarity is more pronounced between the Fene and Xuvia sequences, which show
235 similar ranges in their values (0.1 – 0.7 cm/yr), contrasting with Neda, which reaches up to
236 twice the sediment accumulation rate (1.4 cm/yr; Figure 2).

237 **3.2. Sedimentological analysis**

238 Generally, the granulometric analysis of all subsamples from the three sedimentary
239 sequences analysed exhibits a similar pattern, with high values for mud contents (silts and
240 clays exceeding 50% of the total weight) and low values for the percentages of gravels
241 and sands (Figure 2). The combination of weight percentages of the three granulometric
242 variables analysed places all the subsamples in the muds group, showing slight variations
243 related to inconsistent increases in particle size. Despite the overall homogeneity across

244 the three sequences, smaller-scale variations in the sedimentary classification are
245 discernible.

246 Fene core records two main depositional phases. The first is characterised by a
247 predominance of *slightly sandy mud* and *very slightly sandy mud* followed by an increase
248 in particle size at 17 cm depth (1961 CE). This sequence is considered the least variable
249 of the three, exhibiting only three significant changes in particle size. The Neda sequence
250 shows irregular oscillations in sedimentological content, with a predominance of coarser
251 particles at the base of the core. From 45 cm-depth (around 1950 CE) to the top of the
252 sequence, no gravel is present in the sediment. Xuvia core exhibits the greatest amplitude
253 in the size range, with two main intervals: a) a grain-size variable base, with predominantly
254 larger sizes and intercalations of coarse and fine sediments, and b) a top with low variation
255 in particle size (predominantly fine).

256 **3.3. Pollen analysis**

257 **3.3.1. Fene core**

258 Pollen analysis of the Fene sedimentary sequence recorded 67 pollen types. The cluster
259 analysis subdivided the sequence into three well-differentiated pollen zones with total sum
260 of squares values of 0.8 and 0.5. Zone A (pre-1870 to 1941 CE; 50 – 20 cm-depth) shows
261 the highest homogeneity among its subsamples with distance values below 0.3. This
262 pollen zone registers the lowest values for *Pinus* with an average 3%, although, two peaks
263 of around 10% can be recognised at 35 and 27 cm-depth (pre-1870 CE). *Alnus* and *Betula*
264 also display low relative frequencies, with an average 8% and <1%, respectively. In
265 contrast, *Corylus* shows high values (6% on average) and a relative stable trend in the
266 pollen zone, with a drop in frequency below 1% at ~1900 CE (Figure 3).

267 Similarly, the frequencies of some grasses and low shrubs such as Asteroideae, Poaceae,
268 Ericaceae and *Androsace*-type register high values close to 10%, with stable trends and
269 some minor fluctuations. *Quercus robur*-type shows a consistent pattern (10% on average)
270 throughout the pollen zone with an isolated maximum peak of 20% at 31 cm-depth (pre-
271 1870 CE). Pteridophyta and *Pteridium aquilinum* spores exhibit the highest values in the
272 sequence, 9.6 and 2%, respectively.

273 Zone B (1942 to 1998 CE; 19 – 11 cm-depth) shows notable differences in the frequencies
274 of some of the main taxa in the analysis. For example, the representation of *Pinus*
275 increases exponentially, reaching a maximum peak of around 30% at about 1946 CE.
276 However, the increase is not sustained, with a further 15% drop after 1960 CE and a
277 gradual recovery of frequencies towards the end of the zone. Some taxa, including *Betula*
278 and *Salix*, exhibit an increase in frequency compared to the previous zone. The first
279 occurrence of *Eucalyptus* pollen in the sequence is observed around 1946 CE.

280 Asteroideae, Ericaceae and *Pteridium aquilinum* show a significant decrease in their
281 percentages and an overall downward trend. Similarly, *Alnus* and *Corylus* have lower
282 values than in previous zone A, reaching their lowest values in the 1975-1985 CE interval.

283 Finally, in Pollen Zone C (1999 to 2021 CE; 10 – 0 cm-depth), there are important changes
284 in the most represented taxa. *Pinus* reaches the maximum values of the sequence (43%)
285 in 2007 CE with a subsequent slight drop to the present day. Similarly, *Alnus* also records
286 its highest values in the period 2012 - 2021 CE. *Eucalyptus* significantly increases its
287 frequencies and maintains continuous presence throughout the interval. *Androsace*-type,
288 Asteroideae, Ericaceae and Poaceae show a significant decrease in their percentages to
289 values below 5%.

290 3.3.2. Neda core

291 The results of the pollen analysis of the Neda sequence yielded a total of 74 pollen types.
292 The subdivision of the sequence and grouping of subsamples based on CONISS cluster
293 analysis was poorly differentiated, and three pollen zones could be discerned: Pollen Zone
294 A from 1942 to 1946 CE (50 – 48 cm-depth), Pollen Zone B from 1946 to 1963 CE (47 –
295 41 cm-depth), and Pollen Zone C from 1963 to 2021 CE (40 – 0 cm-depth).

296 Pollen Zone A (1942 to 1946 CE) shows the maximum statistical difference with respect to
297 the other zones, with values of the total sum of squares of 0.2, whereas, within this zone,
298 the values are lower than 0.06. This zone registers the lowest abundances of *Alnus* in the
299 sequence with an average of 18%, reaching its minimum in 1945 CE. Similarly,
300 *Androsace*-type and Pteridophyta also record their lowest percentages, with values below
301 1%. Poaceae has an average of ~8% in this pollen zone. In contrast, *Pinus* reaches high
302 percentages, with an average 33% and a maximum 36.8% in 1943 CE. *Plantago* also
303 shows continuously slightly high values >1% with an average 1.61% in the zone (Figure 4).

304 Pollen Zone B (1946 to 1963 CE) is characterised by an abrupt decrease in *Pinus*
305 frequencies to average values of 22%, reaching the minimum of the sequence (19.5%) in
306 1955 CE. Asteroideae, *Androsace*-type and *Plantago* show average values below 1%.
307 *Betula* registers the lowest frequencies of the sequence (1.88%) reaching the minimum
308 value 0.32% in the year 1955 CE. *Quercus robur*-type display a slight decrease compared
309 to the previously described zone of about 1.5%, with an oscillatory pattern and a stable
310 trend throughout the pollen zone.

311 The percentages of *Alnus* gradually increased in this pollen zone until reaching the
312 maximum percentage of the sequence (32.3%) in 1955 CE. *Corylus* and Poaceae show a
313 slight increase in their percentages to 7 and 9%, respectively. In addition, during the

314 interval covered by this pollen zone, *Fraxinus*, *Juglans*, *Myrtus* and *Ulmus* are recorded for
315 the first time in the sequence.

316 Pollen Zone C (1963 to 2021 CE) demonstrates differences compared to the previous
317 zone. *Pinus* frequencies increase again, reaching an average 27% for the zone, displaying
318 a pronounced oscillatory pattern. Similarly, the representation of Androsace-type increases
319 in the sequence, reaching average values of over 1%. *Betula* and Pteridophyta shows a
320 slightly increase, with average values close to 3%. On the contrary, Poaceae registers a
321 decrease (8.17%), with two peaks up to 12% in 2000 and 2008 CE. *Corylus* also exhibit a
322 slight decrease in frequencies to values around 5%.

323 Although variations in the percentages of most pollen types identified in the sequence are
324 observable, these do not exhibit clear trends and the discerning patterns in the time series
325 are not entirely evident.

326 **3.3.3. Xuvia core**

327 Pollen analysis of the Xuvia sequence reveals the highest pollen diversity recorded in the
328 cores. A total of 76 different pollen types were identified, which were categorised at distinct
329 taxonomic levels and enabling the subdivision of the sequence into three well-defined
330 pollen zones (Figure 5).

331 Zone A encompasses the interval from pre-1870 CE (beyond the chronological boundary)
332 to 1960 CE (50 – 31 cm-depth); this lower zone is characterised by high percentages of
333 *Pinus* with an average about 32%, *Pteridium aquilinum* and other Pteridophyta, with 5.5
334 and 2.23%, respectively, and high values of Ericaceae (3%, lower than those recorded in
335 Fene). Conversely, *Alnus* (15%) and *Corylus* (4%) exhibit notable low frequencies, with the
336 lowest values of this sequence. Furthermore, the first occurrence of *Eucalyptus* from Xuvia

337 core was detected in this pollen zone, specifically in 1908 CE, with a subsequent
338 substantial increase in frequencies at 1946 CE (Figure 5).

339 Zone B (1960 - 2012 CE; 30 – 12 cm-depth) shows very marked differences between the
340 most representative taxa in the analysis. *Pinus* experiences a significant decrease in its
341 frequencies, reaching an average of 21% in the zone (10% less than in the previous zone).
342 However, there are two sporadic increases in 1999 and 1991 CE, with values above 25%.
343 *Alnus* reaches its maximum value (38%) in 1970 CE and maintains a zone average 32%.
344 *Ericaceae* and *Pteridium aquilinum* decrease their percentages to values close to 1%.

345 The zone C encompasses the period from 2012 to 2021 CE (11 – 0 cm-depth). This
346 section shows a statistical difference of 0.3 of total sums of squares compared to Zone B
347 and exhibits a greater similarity in the predominant taxa. *Alnus* slightly decreases its
348 percentages to an average 26% for the zone. Similarly, *Poaceae* continues to decrease its
349 percentages until its minimum values at the end of the sequence (4%). *Pinus* displays a
350 recovery in its frequencies, with values similar to those observed in zone A. Some taxa
351 such as *Corylus* and *Eucalyptus* show an increase in their percentages, with values of 8
352 and 1.3%, respectively. environmental conditions prior to intensive anthropogenic
353 pressures/modifications in the mid/late-19th century

354 **4. Discussion**

355 **4.1. Regional environmental conditions prior to intensive anthropogenic pressures** 356 **in the mid-19th century**

357 Deforestation process of mixed deciduous forests in the northwestern Iberian Peninsula
358 began in the Neolithic period circa 7000 cal yr BP, as indicated by minor fluctuations in the
359 pollen representation of these trees, interpreted as spatio-temporal punctual deforestations
360 (López-Sáez et al., 2010; Ramil-Rego et al., 2001). However, since approximately 3500

361 cal yr BP, there was a pronounced decline in the percentage of arboreal pollen, particularly
362 pronounced from 2800 cal yr BP, preceding the Roman period (Gutián Rivera, 2001). This
363 decline intensified in the Middle Ages (12th and 13th centuries) and more recently in the
364 modern period, driven by population growth, socio-economic development, and the land
365 demand for agricultural and forestry production (Gil, 1991; Gutián Rivera, 2001; Ramil-
366 Rego et al., 2001). Consequently, plant communities were reduced to critical levels,
367 becoming confined to small, inaccessible enclaves (steep areas at higher elevations)
368 unsuitable for harvesting (Lage Picos, 2003). The decline in plant populations is evident in
369 the pollen analysis of Muñoz Sobrino et al. (2022), which revealed a significant decrease
370 in *Quercus* and *Corylus* arboreal pollen since 800 cal yr BP (12th century, Middle Ages).
371 The low percentages of dominant deciduous forest taxa (5-10% for *Corylus* and 10-15%
372 for *Quercus*) are consistent with the values obtained in the present study. However, due to
373 their higher temporal and analytical resolution, our new sedimentary sequences detect a
374 greater number of historical events, which is consistent with, in a regional context, the
375 results of López-Merino et al. (2011) in Lago Enol, in the Cantabrian Mountain Range,
376 Spain, and globally with those of Ge et al. (2019) for the last 110 years in eastern China.

377 On the other hand, before the 19th century, the utilisation of public and private forests was
378 directly related to primary economic activities, where the agricultural sector employed large
379 sections of cleared land for the production of fodder, manure, cereal and other food crops
380 (Lage Picos, 2003). This trend was also prevalent in other European countries coinciding
381 with the onset of the agricultural revolution (Jones, 2011; Perez, 1944; Pretty, 1991). In the
382 Ria of Ferrol, the area occupied by crops was then more extensive than in contemporary
383 times, as inferred from the higher Cerealia values at the base of the Fene and Xuvia
384 sequences (pre-1870 CE, Figures 3 and 5). Furthermore, considering the limited
385 dispersion of cereal pollen grains related to their morphology and size (Vourela, 1973), it is

386 possible to speculate that the areas selected for cereal cultivation were the margins or
387 areas surrounding the Ría, proximate to the sampling sites, which have a less rugged
388 topography conducive to tillage.

389 However, the agricultural sector was not the most important economic driver during this
390 interval. The military-naval approach of the town of Ferrol and the increase in the demand
391 and price of wood prompted a shift in the economic sectors towards timber production
392 (Corbelle Rico and Tubío Sánchez, 2018; García, 2002). These economic changes,
393 coupled with the industrial emergence experienced in Europe during the late 18th and 19th
394 centuries, led to the cultivation of fast-growing wood species such as *Pinus pinaster* which
395 became significant in the region (Molina Rodríguez, 2019).

396 The transition from intense deforestation to the planting of forest arboreal species is not an
397 isolated phenomenon, but rather a widespread pattern in Europe from the 19th century
398 onwards (Jeanrenaud, 2001). This is clearly evidenced at the base of the Fene sequence
399 (Figure 3), which shows considerable increases in *Pinus* pollen in pre-1870 CE
400 subsamples and at the base of the Xuvia sequence (Figure 5). Muñoz Sobrino et al.
401 (2022) also documented a local, abrupt increase in *Pinus* frequencies in the middle zone
402 of the Ria of Ferrol, dated to around 250 cal yr BP (beyond our radionuclides chronological
403 boundary), which was directly related to a process of reforestation, generated by the
404 demand for these silvicultural products.

405 **4.2. Government legislation for forest recovery**

406 **4.2.1. Pre-1900: initial legislation and the onset of forest management with limited** 407 **success**

408 In the mid-19th century, the combined pressures represented by the rising temperatures
409 and changes in precipitation patterns due to climate change, the development of more

410 advanced industrial systems, the demand of land for productive activities, the introduction
411 of allochthonous species, the excessive forest exploitation, and the unsustainable land-use
412 change severely impacted native plant communities in the northwestern of the Iberian
413 Peninsula, driving them to critical levels (Lage Picos, 2003; Le Roy Ladurie, 2020; Sanz
414 Elorza et al., 2004).

415 In response to this multi-decadal decline of plant communities, a series of legislative
416 modifications, decrees, and enactments focused on the conservation and recovery of
417 forest stands were implemented. This series of regulations underwent a process of
418 continuous adaptation according to changing political-economic interests, employing a
419 combination of sanctions and restrictions (increasingly stringent) as well as occasional
420 incentives to guide the action of private forest owners (Iriarte Goñi, 2013) and the
421 utilisation and management of public forests.

422 The primary objective of these policies was the exploitation and economic development of
423 the forestry sector, which led to the extensive use of fast-growing exotic plants (mainly
424 *Pinus* and *Eucalyptus*) as reforestation species, prioritised over native species, due to their
425 slower growth and lower economic yield.

426 In 1863, the *Ley de Montes* (Forestry Act) was enacted in Spain and represented the
427 origin of a series of subsequent laws and regulations that led to a change in the
428 management of public and private forests. Through this law, the State acquired the
429 authority to expropriate areas devoid of vegetation and prohibited the sale of public forests
430 of less than 100 hectares covered by pine, oak, or beech trees. It also assigned to the
431 State the task of reforesting land devoid of vegetation and unsuitable for agricultural
432 purposes. It also prohibited felling, pruning, or any kind of exploitation of public forests that
433 could affect the interests of their afforestation and conservation.

434 The reforms proposed by this law and the one passed immediately afterwards (*Ley de*
435 *Repoblación Forestal*; Forest Reforestation Act of 1877), represented an initial attempt to
436 structured management of Spanish forests. However, due to several factors such as
437 insufficient funding and inadequate infrastructure, the results obtained in terms of
438 reforested area were limited (Pérez-Soba Diez del Corral, 2017). Pollen analysis of the
439 Fene and Xuvia sequences potentially highlights the poor efficiency of these laws: in the
440 subsamples adjacent to the lower boundary of the chronological model (25 to 30 cm-depth
441 in Fene and the base of the Xuvia sequence), there are no abrupt changes in arboreal
442 taxa indicative of plausible population modifications (Figures 3 and 5).

443 In contrast, the establishment of the *Plan Sistemático de Repoblación de las Cabeceras*
444 *de Cuencas Hidrológicas* (Systematic Reforestation Plan for Hydrological Basin
445 Headwaters, 1888), which aimed to mitigating river flooding, stabilizing coastal dunes and
446 guaranteeing water quality for large populations, demonstrated a clear effect on riparian
447 forest populations, which is reflected in their increased frequencies (around 30%) recorded
448 in the Xuvia sequence (Figure 6). Despite this, and the constant attempts at reforestation
449 by the Spanish forestry administration, the 19th century ended with underwhelming
450 reforestation results.

451 **4.2.2. New legislation and impact of wars on vegetation: 1900 to 1940**

452 At the beginning of the 20th century, specifically from 1901 CE onwards, a series of
453 regulations and decrees were enacted, establishing the regulatory framework for the
454 actions of the forestry administration throughout the 20th century (Pérez-Soba Diez del
455 Corral, 2017). One of the most significant regulations was the creation of the *Divisiones*
456 *Hidrológico-Forestales* (Hydrological-Forestry Divisions), which maintained continuous and
457 intense activity until 1952.

458 Arboreal pollen percentages in the Fene and Xuvia sequences showed an increasing trend
459 during the first half of the 20th century (Figures 3 and 5), correlating with the positive effect
460 of reforestation activities and the time of growth and sexual maturity of the trees used in
461 reforestation. Pollen percentages associated with grassland and heathland (Table 1;
462 secondary vegetation in the region) displayed a decreasing trend in both sequences
463 between 1900 and 1950 (Figures 3, 5 and, 6), potentially due to land-use changes, where
464 areas devoid of arboreal vegetation (scrub and heathland) and covered with herbaceous
465 vegetation (grassland and prairies) began to be reforested. The reconstructed changes in
466 the composition of vegetation reflect, during the pre-1950 interval, the predominantly
467 production-oriented interest of the State.

468 Another law that strengthened the Spanish reforestation plan and had observable effects
469 in the pollen record was the *Ley de Repoblación* (Forestry Repopulation Act) of 1908, also
470 considered to be of great historical significance. This law proposed a series of legislative
471 modifications, including the creation and definition of so-called protective zones (*Monte*
472 *Protector*), defined as public or private areas with essential functions in the maintenance of
473 the natural environment or regular forestry exploitation. These new laws were
474 accompanied by a series of prohibitions and requirements, compelling owners to initiate
475 the reforestation process immediately after the declaration of their forests as protected
476 areas. Furthermore, these laws did not permit vegetation removal activities for agricultural
477 purposes, and minor logging was restricted to areas that would not affect the reforestation
478 process.

479 The effects of this reform are evident in the pollen record of Fene (Figure 6), which exhibits
480 an increasing trend in both PFT associated with tree taxa (30 to 60%) and those related to
481 silvicultural activities (~3 to 35%), in response to the increase in the area covered by tree
482 stands and environmental protection policies.

483 However, during the first four decades of the 20th century, the economic and political
484 instability caused by the various armed conflicts (First and Second World War, Rif War,
485 Spanish Civil War) in which Spain was involved hindered the proposed forestry policies
486 from having a significant impact on the process of forest restoration. In this sense, the
487 impact of wars on vegetation structure has been highlighted in several countries (Dudley et
488 al., 2002; Omar et al., 2005; Zhang et al., 2023).

489 **4.2.3. Industrialisation, increasing demand for wood and new forestry policies: 1940-** 490 **1950**

491 Since 1940, under the Franco regime in Spain, the persistent drive for productive self-
492 sufficiency (especially in forestry), the accelerated industrialisation process and the
493 increase in infrastructure works generated a substantial rise in the demand for wood
494 products, leading to the proposal of new forestry policies (and the re-implementation of old
495 laws) aimed at increasing the productivity of public and private forests (Iriarte Goñi, 2013).
496 In this post-war period, various Europe governments established policies for restoration of
497 forest resources (Edwards et al., 2022). In Spain, in 1941, the *Patrimonio Forestal del*
498 *Estado* (State Forestry Heritage) was created, a public and private forest management
499 agency that incentivised reforestation (through economic incentives and social repression
500 activities), leading role in these efforts. This organisation managed an exhaustive process
501 of reforestation, conditioning the use of forests for timber, consequently reflected in an
502 increase of wooded areas.

503 The pollen record of the three sedimentary sequences analysed (Figures 3, 4, and 5) in
504 general terms, revealed an increase in the relative frequencies of *Pinus* (plants mostly
505 used for timber production) during the 1940s, which was more evident in Fene. Here, the
506 Forestry PFT (Figure 6) reached values close to 30% in response to the increase of the

507 reforested area, close to 58,500 ha (Lage Picos, 2003) and where the greatest
508 differentiation in the pollen spectra (Figure 3) is discernible, according to the stratified
509 cluster analysis (transition from Pollen Zone A to B). The percentage of Grassland PFT
510 shows low values (around 20%), and Low-dispersion PFT (plants associated with
511 riverbanks and characterised by limited wind dispersal) shows a decreasing trend.
512 Ericaceae and *Pteridium aquilinum* fell below 5% (Figure 3) during the same period,
513 reflecting the change in land use and the utilisation of areas devoid of trees for silvicultural
514 purposes (Figure 6).

515 **4.2.4. Post-1950: pollen responses to new reforestation laws**

516 From the latter half of the 20th century onwards, the interest of Spanish State in public and
517 private forests and their wood resources began to take on greater relevance (in the search
518 for forest self-sufficiency). The escalating demand for timber products generated by
519 growing industrial development and the reactivation of the shipbuilding industry in the
520 region led to the new public policies to be focused exclusively on pure forestry production.
521 This, coupled with the greater capacity of the Franco regime to impose its own policies,
522 enabled the State to exert greater control over the areas destined for forestry use (Iriarte
523 Goñi, 2013).

524 During the early 1950s, reforestation activities in Spain expanded considerably due to a
525 budget increase and the modernisation of forest management techniques, reaching a peak
526 of reforested areas in 1957, with approximately 140,000 hectares (Pemán García et al.,
527 2017). This trend is clearly reflected in the pollen content of the Xuvia sequence, where
528 the percentage of *Pinus* pollen reaches values exceeding 40% during that interval (Figure
529 5), indicating the predominant use of this taxon in reforestation work. Additionally, the

530 Arboreal PFT of the Fene sequence (Figure 6) attained percentages above 60%, showing
531 the same pattern of increase in the wooded area.

532 Subsequently, in the early 1960s, the *Dirección General de Agricultura* intensified the *Plan*
533 *de Mejora de Praderas y Pastizales* (Meadow and Pasture Improvement Plan), which had
534 commenced in the Cantabrian region in 1958, and reached in 1963, the maximum number
535 of experimental plots sown. The increased budgetary allocation and the specialised
536 support in sowing facilitate the successful implementation of this plan in the region, as
537 clearly visualised in the Grassland PFT of the Fene sequence, which has maximum values
538 close to 30% during the years following its implementation (Figure 6). During the same
539 interval, Forestry PFT frequencies show a significant decline, falling below 15%, potentially
540 attributable to the effects of massive depopulation of rural areas experienced in Spain
541 during the 1960s and 1970s, which modified the population structure and considerably
542 reduced the exploitation of forests due to the absence of labour force (Lage Picos, 2003).

543 **4.2.5. Reforestation with pine and eucalyptus after 1970 and the new trend in** 544 **conservative legislation**

545 Starting in 1970, a recovery of forest stands is recognized, reflected in the pollen content
546 of Forestry PFT that reached ~30% in the 1990s (Figure 6). This is primarily attributed to
547 the growing demand for raw material generated by the establishment in 1962 of the
548 *Empresa Nacional de Celulosas* (National Pulp Company) plant, located in Pontevedra,
549 Galicia, which started its productive process using pine and gradually *Eucalyptus* wood,
550 which leading to its increased presence in Galician tree plantations during this interval
551 (Calvo de Anta et al., 2019). Furthermore, during the early 1970s, a new pulp mill was
552 opened in nearby Asturias, which considerably increased the demand for raw material in
553 the region. Although *Eucalyptus* pollen is underrepresented in the pollen records, an

554 increase in its frequencies is discernible in the Xuvia sequence during the early 1970s
555 (Figure 5), directly linked to pulp production processes.

556 In the subsequent years, the increasing trends in Forestry PFT and decreasing tendencies
557 in Grassland PFT reflect the shift in land use in the region towards expanded silvicultural
558 production at the expense of grassland and heathland. However, it is not until 1992, with
559 the establishment and implementation of the *Plan Forestal de Galicia* (PFG; Galician
560 Forestry Plan) that an abrupt change in regional tree populations is observed. This forestry
561 plan, approved by the Galician autonomous government, was designed to enhance
562 forestry production by implementing stricter forest fire control measures, improving
563 administrative organisation, and stimulating private investments (Corbelle Rico and Tubío
564 Sánchez, 2018; Ministerio de Medio Ambiente, 2002).

565 The results of this PFG are evident in the pollen records, with both the Arboreal PFT and
566 the Forestry PFT in Fene (Figure 6), exhibiting a pronounced increasing trend, directly
567 correlated with the expansion of wooded areas (Corbelle Rico et al., 2018). Moreover,
568 some taxa such as Ericaceae, *Androsace*-type, Asteroideae and Poaceae shows a
569 considerably decrease of their pollen frequencies, a consequence of their removal to
570 facilitate the expanding cultivation of *Pinus* and *Eucalyptus*, both of which exhibit an
571 increasing trend (Figure 5).

572 In subsequent years, the Spanish State initiated a process of incorporating conservationist
573 measures through the enactment of laws that acknowledged the economic importance of
574 the Galician forests, while emphasizing their ecosystemic function. The implementation of
575 the new *Ley de Montes* (Forestry Act) 07/2012 sought to maintain a more sustainable
576 management, aiming to preserve, protect and restore forest ecosystems through forest
577 planning and collaboration of the different administrative levels. This law contemplated, as
578 part of the reforestation efforts, new statutes that sought to protect the native species of

579 the region by prohibiting new reforestations with plants of the genera *Eucalyptus*, *Pinus*,
580 *Picea*, *Abies*, *Pseudotsuga*, and *Tsuga* in areas covered by deciduous forests. The effects
581 of this law are readily apparent in the pollen record, where a marked decrease in the
582 Forestry PFT in the Fene core is observed to values close to 30% (Figure 6). The taxa
583 associated with riparian environments (Riparian PFT) in both the Fene and Xuvia
584 sequences show a gradual recovery towards the top of the sequence, a result of the forest
585 policies with conservationist objectives.

586 Although vegetation responses (and their expression in the pollen record) vary among the
587 analysed sedimentary sequences due to local factors, the influence of forest policies on
588 natural systems is clear. This evidence supports the utilisation of high-resolution pollen
589 analysis as a valuable tool for the long-term evaluation of historical forestry legislation.

590 **4.3. Secondary effects of forestry legislation on the sedimentation rate in the ria**

591 The influence of forestry legislation, management plans and regulations as a controlling
592 factor of plant population dynamics is clear at Ria of Ferrol. However, both the ongoing
593 climate crisis due to global change (Ramil Rego et al., 2018), and the various human
594 activities related to natural resources exploitation and their industrial transformation,
595 human population growth, and urbanisation processes impacts the ecosystems stability,
596 generating constant pressure on natural plant populations, even leading to their population
597 decline.

598 One of the main ecosystem processes directly affected by human activities is the sediment
599 dynamics linked to land clearing or partial removal of tree cover associated with logging.

600 Although evidence suggests that the process of vegetation removal has been operating
601 since the beginning of agriculture and livestock farming in the region (Pérez- Díaz et al.,
602 2016), the increasing trend in tree plantations observed during the 20th and 21st centuries,

603 as reflected in the Forestry PFT of Fene (Figure 6), is a response to the series of enacted
604 laws and frameworks. This resulted in a larger cleared area, enhancing erosion rates and
605 sediment accumulation (Kennish, 2016), as documented by the increasing sedimentation
606 rates in the inner zone of the Ria of Ferrol (Figure 2).). In fact, rising sediment
607 accumulation rates were also reported in the nearby Ría of Vigo owing land use changes,
608 likely attributed to construction activities, deforestation and forest fires among other
609 processes (Perez-Arlucea et al., 2005; Pérez-Arlucea et al., 2007). This is consistent with
610 the general increasing trend in sediment accumulation rates since the mid-20th century
611 observed in the northern Iberian margin transitional ecosystems (Bruschi et al., 2013).

612 The geomorphological configuration of the ría directly influences its fluvial-marine
613 dynamics (Hamidifar et al., 2024) and regulates the input and retention of sediments
614 transported by tides and waves, along with those materials delivered by tributaries that
615 converge in the ría. However, disentangling of the effect of these processes from those
616 modifications in sediment dynamics generated by other human activities such as land use
617 change or the construction of urban infrastructures (e.g., artificial barriers, canalisations,
618 jetties and walls) is challenging.

619 **4.4. Additional causes of anthropogenic disturbance recorded by plant dynamics** 620 **and sediment accumulation rates**

621 In Ferrol, it can be inferred that the construction of the three main infrastructures on the
622 inner ría (Railway, As Pias and Highway bridges) had a significant effect on estuarine and
623 sedimentary dynamics. Specifically, the construction dates of these three artificial barriers
624 correlate, in a distinct way, with changes in the granulometry of the sedimentary
625 sequences. Despite being predominantly muddy (congruent with their position in the upper
626 zone of the ría) they also reflect subtle modifications (Figure 2):

627 a) The installation of the Railway bridge circa 1913 (Figures 1 and 2), is contemporaneous
628 with an increase in particle size in the Xuvia core at 40 cm-depth, with no discernible effect
629 on the Fene core (not chronologically recorded in the Neda core). The Low-dispersion PFT
630 from Xuvia shows an increasing trend following the construction of this bridge, indicating a
631 rise in sediment accumulation at the head of the ría.

632 b) The beginning of the construction of the As Pias bridge in 1966 (Figures 1 and 2) is
633 linked to a granulometric increase observed in the Fene core (17 cm-depth) and coincides
634 in the Xuvia core with a maximum particle size point preceding the onset of a fining
635 upward process at 28 cm-depth. Due to its proximity to the extraction site of the Fene
636 sequence, the local effect of this infrastructure work is more pronounced. However, the
637 Low-dispersion PFT of the Xuvia core also reflects a slight increase after the construction
638 of this bridge.

639 c) Finally, the effect of the establishment of the Highway bridge between 2002 – 2003
640 (Figures 1 and 2) is only evident in the sediments of the Neda core, possibly due to its
641 proximity to the deposition area, coinciding with a slight increase in particle size. However,
642 its effect can also be detected in the Low-dispersion PFT of Xuvia, which shows a slight
643 increase after the construction of the bridge. Due to its close position to the continental
644 end-member of the Ria of Ferrol, the Xuvia sedimentary sequence is more prone to the
645 sediment accumulation and the deposition of low-dispersion pollen content.

646 The anthropogenic evidence associated with the enactment of laws and the construction of
647 urban infrastructure, as recorded by the sedimentological and palynological analyses,
648 demonstrates the effectiveness of this methodological approach. The high resolution with
649 which the response of both vegetation and fluvial-marine dynamics are detected enables
650 this method to be used to assess the effectiveness of various laws implemented over time.
651 These responses provide the basis for future selection of the most appropriate forestry

652 policies in a context of intense anthropisation and urgent need for biodiversity conservation
653 and restoration.

654 **5. Conclusion**

655 High-resolution pollen analysis and sedimentological characterisation of the recent
656 sedimentary sequences from the inner zone of the Ria of Ferrol have enable the detection
657 of modifications in vegetation dynamics, changes in land use, and granulometric patterns
658 likely correlated with specific historical events, such as the enactment of forestry
659 legislation, reforestation programmes and the construction of urban infrastructures.
660 Furthermore, the high temporal resolution of the analysed sequences allows for the
661 following conclusions:

- 662 • The pollen composition of the pre-1870 CE subsamples exhibits a clear difference
663 from later subsamples, reflecting the modification of plant communities in response
664 to anthropogenic pressure resulting from demographic and economic development.
- 665 • Pollen analysis reveals a significant change in regional vegetation since mid-20th
666 century onwards, attributable to the implementation of legislation, notably to the
667 establishment of the *Patrimonio Forestal del Estado* (State Forest Heritage) in
668 1941, where forestry policies and reforestation activities led to a substantial
669 expansion of planted areas covered by fast-growing tree species.
- 670 • In recent decades, the high-resolution pollen record has demonstrated a faithful
671 response to forestry policies, first of introducing pines and eucalyptus trees, and
672 more recently focused on conservation, reflecting a pattern that was applied in
673 other European countries.
- 674 • Pteridophyta spores and low dispersion pollen (classified within the Low-dispersion
675 PFT), which are transported exclusively by water currents, serve as key indicators

676 of sediment transport and reflect the process of sediment retention and
677 accumulation. This indicator enables the assessment of the effects of various
678 drivers on sedimentary dynamics and can be employed as a complementary tool to
679 sedimentological analyses.

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691 original draft, Methodology; **M. Cristina Peñalba**: Conceptualization, Writing – review and
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953 **Tables**

954 Table 1. Assignment of pollen types in Pollen Functional Types.

Pollen Functional Type	Pollen type assignment
Low-dispersion	Cerealia, Cyperaceae, <i>Pteridium aquilinum</i> and, Other Pteridophyta.
Riparian forest	<i>Alnus</i> , <i>Betula</i> , <i>Corylus</i> , <i>Dryopteris filix-mas</i> ¹ , <i>Fraxinus</i> , <i>Juglans</i> , <i>Osmunda regalis</i> ¹ , <i>Salix</i> and, <i>Sambucus</i>
Grassland	Apiaceae, Asteroideae, Cichorioideae, <i>Plantago</i> and, Poaceae
Arboreal pollen	<i>Acer</i> ² , <i>Alnus</i> , <i>Betula</i> , <i>Carya</i> ² , <i>Castanea sativa</i> , <i>Celtis</i> , <i>Corylus</i> , Cupressaceae, <i>Eucalyptus</i> , <i>Fraxinus</i> , <i>Ilex</i> ² , <i>Juglans</i> , <i>Myrtus</i> , <i>Olea europaea</i> , <i>Ostrya</i> ² , <i>Pinus</i> , <i>Pterocarya</i> ² , <i>Quercus ilex</i> , <i>Quercus robur</i> -type, <i>Salix</i> , <i>Tamarix</i> and, <i>Tilia</i> ²
Forestry	<i>Eucalyptus</i> and, <i>Pinus</i>
Heathland	<i>Daboecia cantabrica</i> , Ericaceae and, <i>Pteridium aquilinum</i>

955 ¹ Pollen types included in Other Pteridophyta. ² Pollen types not included in the pollen
 956 diagrams due to their low frequency (<1%).

957

Figure captions

Figure 1. Geographical location, land use and vegetation of the inner Ria of Ferrol, Galicia, NW Spain, obtained from the *Sistema de Información sobre Ocupación del Suelo de España* (SIOSE; Spanish Land Cover/Land Use Information System). Upper panel: Land use related to anthropogenic activities. Lower panel: Surrounding vegetation. Intertidal zone delimitation obtained of Infrastructure for Spatial Information in Europe (INSPIRE).

Figure 2. Sedimentological analysis of the Fene, Neda and Xuvia sequences from Ria of Ferrol, Galicia, NW Spain. Upper panel: Granulometric classification based on the content (%) of gravels, sands and muds proposed by Blott and Pye, (2012). Lower panel: Sediment accumulation rate in cm/yr and graphical representation of granulometric changes. Black pin: location of the intertidal cores analysed.

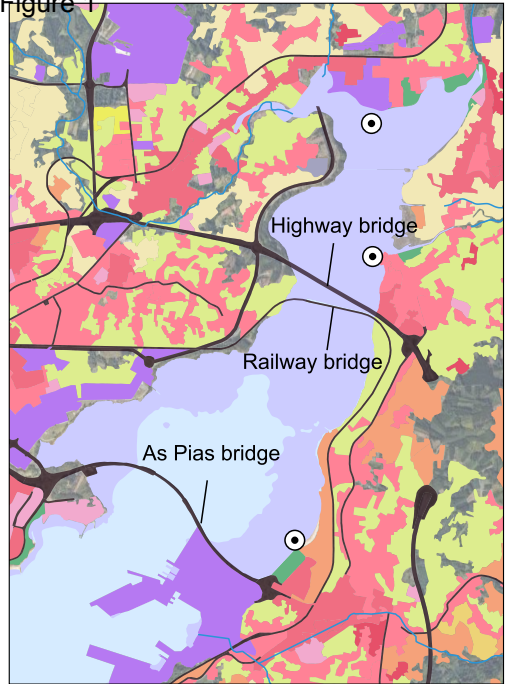
Figure 3. Selected pollen types from the Fene sequence, Ria of Ferrol, Galicia, NW, Spain. Taxa grouped by life form. Data in percentages. Right panel, CONISS (Grimm, 1987) stratified cluster analysis of all pollen types. Dot symbol, percentages less than 1%. See details of the sedimentological column in Figure 2.

Figure 4. Selected pollen types from the Neda sequence, Ria of Ferrol, Galicia, NW, Spain. Taxa grouped by life form. Data in percentages. Right panel, CONISS (Grimm, 1987) stratified cluster analysis of all pollen types. Dot symbol, percentages less than 1%. See details of the sedimentological column in Figure 2.

Figure 5. Selected pollen types from the Xuvia sequence, Ria of Ferrol, Galicia, NW, Spain. Taxa grouped by life form. Data in percentages. Right panel, CONISS (Grimm, 1987) stratified cluster analysis of all pollen types. Dot symbol, percentages less than 1%. See details of the sedimentological column in Figure 2.

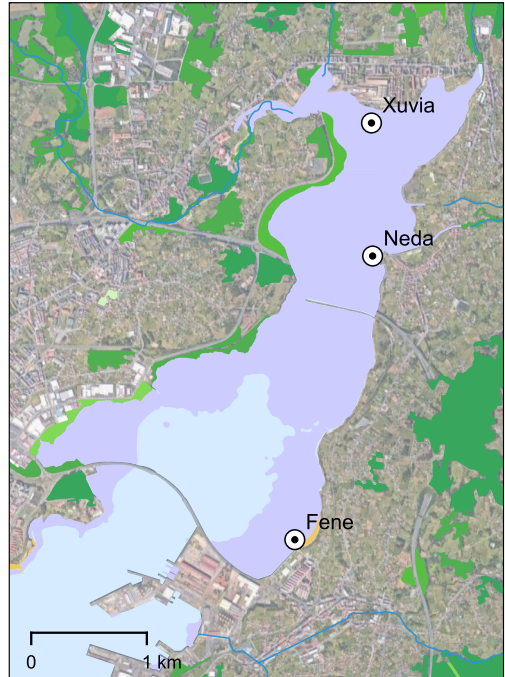
Figure 6. Selected pollen functional types from the Fene and Xuvia sequences. Dates of enactment of primarily forestry legislation: 1 - *Ley de Montes* in 1863; 2 - *Ley de Repoblación Forestal* in 1877; 3 - *Plan Sistemático de Repoblación de las Cabeceras de Cuencas Hidrológicas* in 1888; 4 - *Divisiones Hidrológico-Forestales* in 1901; 5 - *Patrimonio Forestal del Estado* in 1941; 6 – *Ley de Montes* in 1957; 7 – Establishment of *Empresa Nacional de Celulosas* plant in 1962 and Intensification of the *Plan de Mejora de Praderas y Pastizales* in 1963; Expansion of eucalyptus cultivation in 1972 CE. 8 – *Plan Forestal de Galicia* in 1992 CE. 9 – *Ley de Montes* 7/2012.

Figure 1



Inner Ría of Ferrol, NW Spain

- ⊙ Cores
- River system
- Intertidal zone
- Anthropized areas**
- Old town
- Expansion district
- Discontinuous urban area
- Urban green space
- Industrial area
- Service infrastructure
- Agricultural area
- Road and railway network
- Supply infrastructure
- Herbaceous cultivation
- Meadow
- Mixed cropping



Vegetation

- Deciduous forest
- Mixed forest
- Shrubs
- Mixed vegetation
- Beach, dune or sandy area
- Unvegetated ground

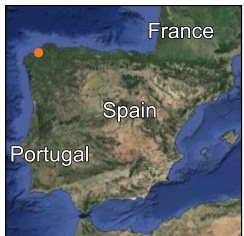


Figure 2

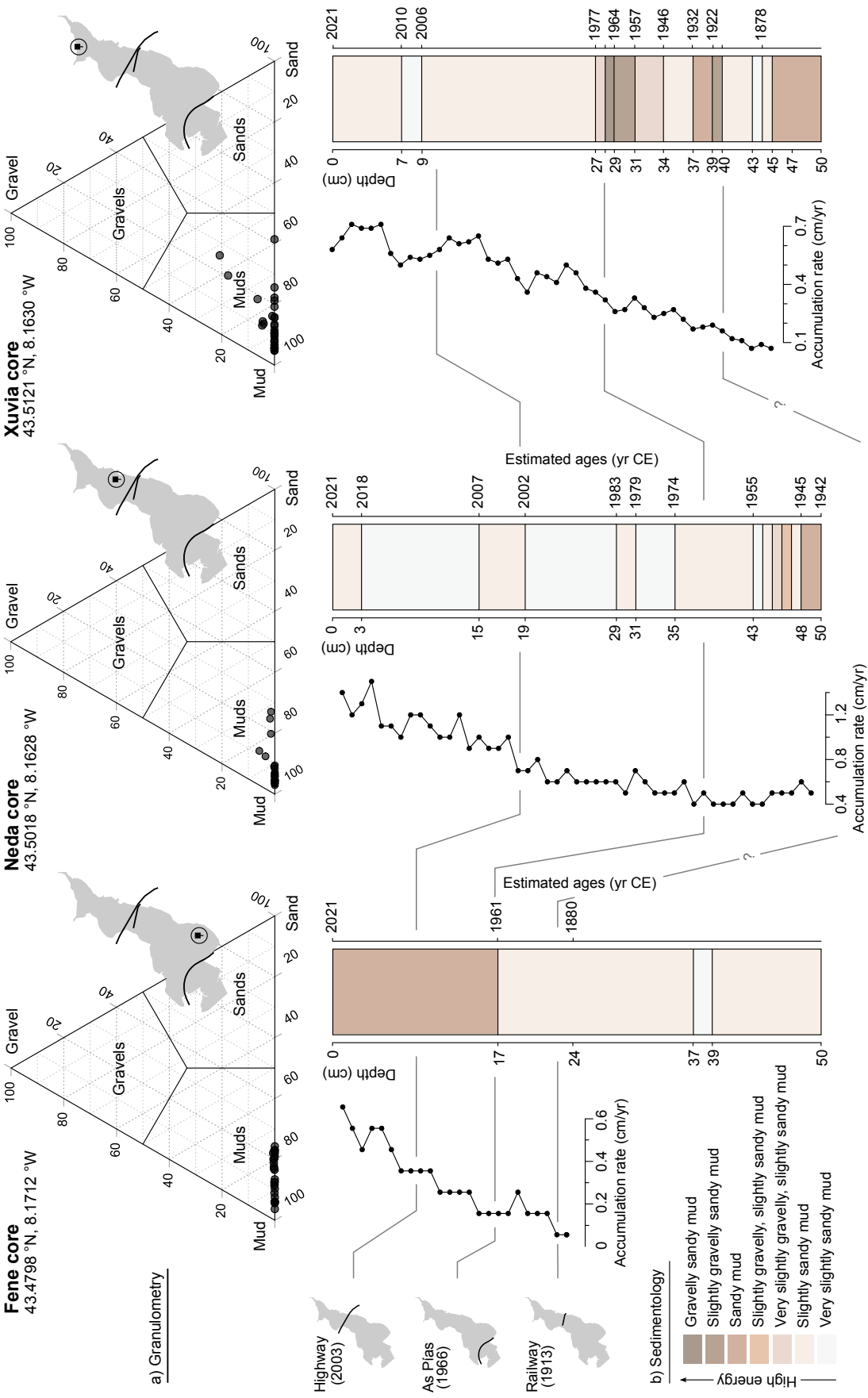


Figure 3

Fene core

43.4798 °N, 8.1712 °W

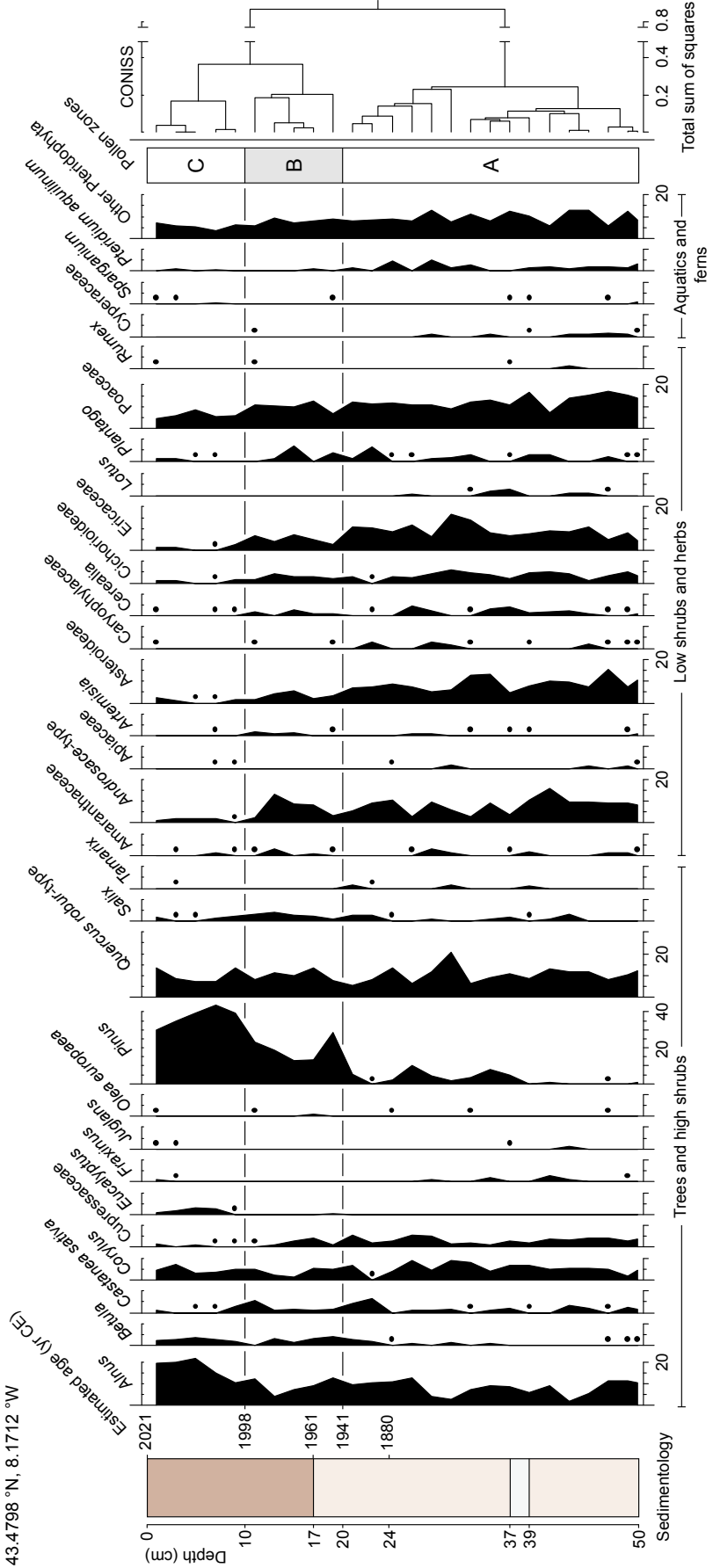


Figure 4

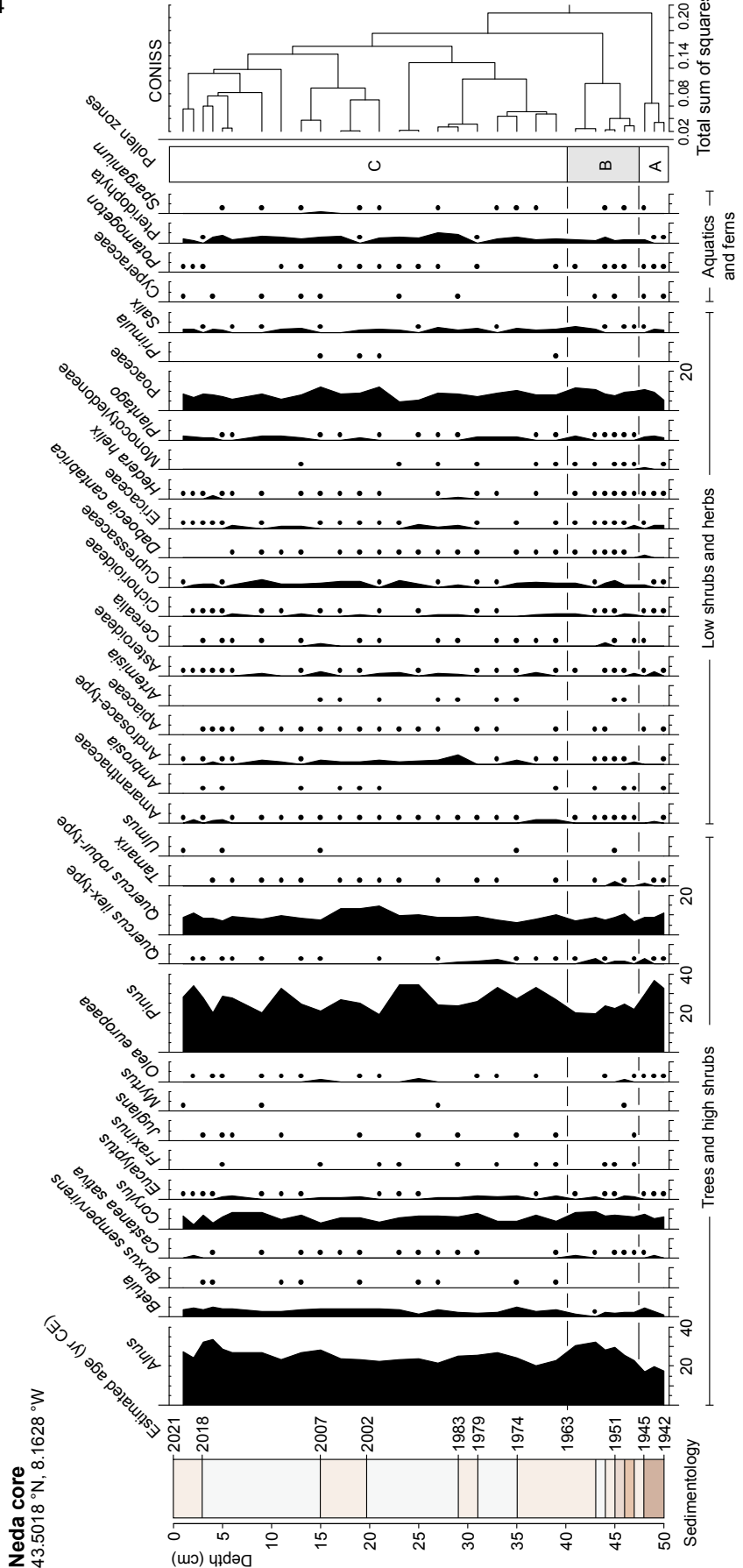


Figure 5

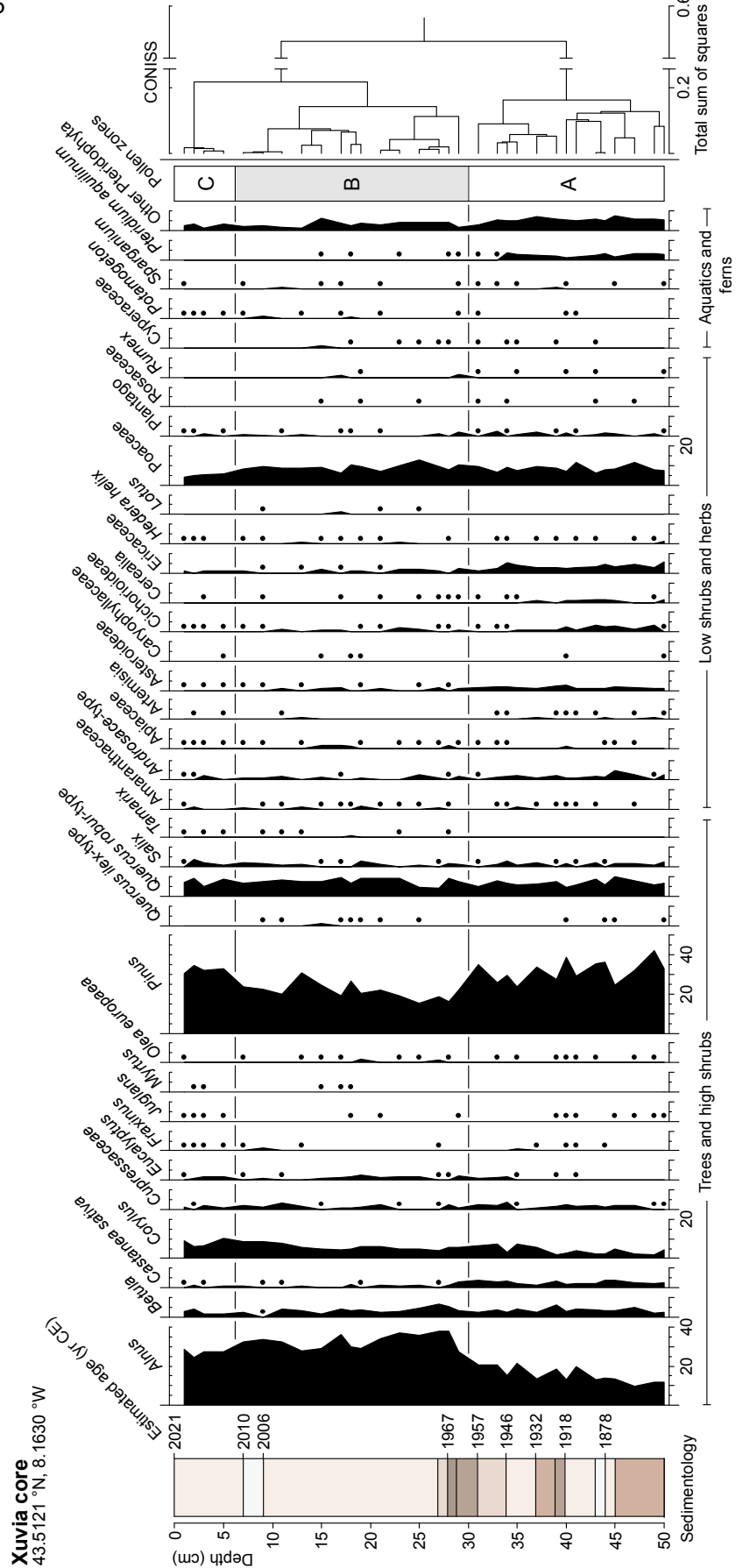


Figure 6 Pollen Functional Types

