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2	TITLE: Fire behaviour in southwestern Australian shrublands: evaluating the influence of
3	fuel age and fire weather.
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6	RUNNING HEAD: Fire behaviour in SW Australian shrublands
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8	Joseph B. Fontaine ^{1,4} , Vanessa C. Westcott ² , Neal J. Enright ¹ , Janneke C. Lade ² , Ben P.
9	Miller ³
10	
11	1. School of Environmental Science, Murdoch University, Perth, WA 6150
12	Australia
13	
14	2. School of Geography, University of Melbourne, Melbourne, VIC, Australia
15	
16	3. Botanic Gardens and Parks Authority, West Perth, WA 6005, Australia;
17	
18	4. Corresponding author: J.Fontaine@murdoch.edu.au;
19	ph: +061 08 9360 6075
20	fax: +061 08 9310 4997
21	
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24 ABSTRACT

Fuel age (time since last fire) is often used to approximate fire hazard and informs decisions 25 26 on placement of shrubland management burns worldwide. However, uncertainty remains concerning the relative importance of fuel age and weather conditions as predictors of fire 27 hazard and behaviour. Using data from 35 experimental burns across three types of 28 29 shrublands in Western Australia, we evaluated importance of fuel age and fire weather on probability of fire propagation (hazard) and four metrics of fire behaviour (rate of spread, 30 31 fireline intensity, residence time, surface temperature) under moderate to high fire danger weather conditions. We found significant support for a threshold effect of fuel age for fire 32 propagation but limited evidence for an effect of fuel age or fire weather on rates of spread or 33 34 fireline intensity, although surface heating and heating duration were significantly related to 35 fuel age and shrubland type. Further analysis suggested that dead fuel mass and accumulation rate rather than live fuels was responsible for this relationship. Using 36 37 BEHAVE, predicted spread rates and intensities were consistently lower than observed values, suggesting further refinement is needed in modeling shrubland fire behaviour. These 38 39 data provide important insight into fire behaviour in globally significant, fire-adapted shrublands, informing fire management and relationships between fire frequency and fire 40 41 intensity.

45 SUMMARY

46	Management of Mediterranean-type shrublands frequently includes application of prescribed					
47	fire. This paper examines the use of fuel age (time since fire) and fire weather conditions to					
48	predict fire propagation and behaviour in 35 experimental fires in three shrubland types in					
49	Western Australia. Model predictions are evaluated against empirical observations.					
50						
51	ADDITIONAL KEYWORDS: sandplain, fire-prone, fuel, fire spread, prescribed fire,					
52	management burn, BEHAVE, kwongan					
53						

56 INTRODUCTION

Fire regimes and their management in fire-prone Mediterranean shrublands are of 57 58 ecological and applied interest due to the high biodiversity values of these ecosystems (Cowling, Rundel et al. 1996; Hopper and Gioia 2004), their association with densely settled 59 areas worldwide (Myers, Mittermeier *et al.* 2000), and the propensity for frequent fire at high 60 intensities which often lead to loss of human property and sometimes human life (Cary, 61 Lindenmayer et al. 2003; Keeley, Fotheringham et al. 2004). High intensity wildfires 62 burning under extreme weather conditions are deemed undesirable given their social and 63 64 economic costs, as well as their impact on natural resources and biodiversity in fragmented, human-dominated landscapes (e.g. fires in coastal California in 1993 burned large areas 65 utilised by two endangered shrubland bird species, Bontrager, Erickson et al. 1995). 66 67 Frequent anthropogenic ignitions, high fire hazard, and the fire-dependent nature of many plant and animal species eliminates fire exclusion as a reasonable long-term management 68 69 strategy in most locations. Thus, prescribed fire under moderate fire weather conditions is the 70 most widely applied active management technique to manage fire hazard and maintain populations of fire dependent species in wildlands and peri-urban areas (Cary, Lindenmayer 71 et al. 2003; Keeley, Safford et al. 2009). A spate of large wildfires in different parts of the 72 world over the past decade (e.g. southeastern Australia 2003 and 2009, California 2007, 73 Canada, Portugal and Russia 2003, Greece 2007) has led to increased concern about the role 74 of global warming in relation to future wildfire risk, and the adequacy of prescribed fire 75 programs aimed at mitigating wildfire risk through fuel reduction (Hughes and Mercer 2009; 76 Stephens, Adams et al. 2009; van Wilgen, Forsyth et al. 2010). 77

78 Debate over the need for prescribed fire, its efficacy in reducing hazard and fire spread rates, and the relative importance of fuel age and weather on fire hazard and fire 79 behaviour in Mediterranean shrublands is ongoing (Keeley and Zedler 2009; van Wilgen, 80 81 Forsyth et al. 2010). Disagreement over the role of fire exclusion, and thus increased fuel age, in contributing to large wildfires has been particularly prominent (e.g. Goforth and 82 Minnich 2007; Keeley and Zedler 2009 and references therein). Mediterranean shrublands 83 generally burn in a crown-fire fashion and much of the scientific debate has centred on how 84 quickly shrubland fuels gain sufficient horizontal and vertical continuity to carry fire under a 85 86 range of weather conditions (defined as fire hazard or the probability that a fire will successfully propagate). Moritz et al (2004) working in California, found little evidence 87 using fire frequency data to support the hypothesis that young fuels limit fire spread in 88 89 wildfire situations. In contrast, Baeza et al (2002) and Fernandes et al (2001) found an effect 90 of fuel age in prescribed fire rate of spread and fireline intensity in the Mediterranean Basin. Generalities explaining these conflicting results have not yet emerged, but the importance of 91 92 fire weather under projected climate change is likely to increase (Williams, Bradstock et al. 2009). 93

Some of the most fire-prone Mediterranean-type shrublands are found in the southern 94 hemisphere, including fynbos in South Africa and kwongan in Western Australia. Both 95 regions are globally recognised biodiversity hotspots (Myers, Mittermeier et al. 2000) and 96 97 possess plant communities characterised by species with fire-surviving traits (including resprouting, serotiny, fire-cued germination, fire-stimulated flowering, Gill 1981; He, Lamont 98 et al. 2011). Planned burns for ecological and fire hazard reduction purposes are used in both 99 100 regions, with some published data examining fire behaviour and fuel age from fynbos (van Wilgen, Forsyth et al. 2010; Van Wilgen, Higgins et al. 1990; Van Wilgen, Le Maitre et al. 101 1985; Van Wilgen, Richardson et al. 1994) and Australian low open woodlands (Bradstock 102

and Auld 1995) (Burrows and McCaw 1990), but little for kwongan (Keith, McCaw *et al.*2002).

In light of the conflicting results concerning the relative roles of fuel age (fuel 105 106 accumulation) and fire weather, and likely increases in extreme fire weather associated with a warming climate, we examine to what extent fuel age and weather conditions can be used to 107 predict the probability of fire propagation and four common measures of fire behaviour (rate 108 109 of spread, fireline intensity, heating duration, temperature at the soil surface). Data from 35 experimental fires in three shrubland types were used to examine these relationships and to 110 111 address whether commonly applied fire behaviour models used by fire managers (BehavePlus 5.0; Andrews, Bevins *et al.* 2008) accurately predict rates of fire spread and intensity. 112

113

114 METHODS

115 *Study Area*

Within Western Australia, high biodiversity shrublands occur extensively through the 116 transitional rainfall zones (400 to 600 mm annual rainfall) on laterite, limestone, and acid 117 sand substrates (Hopper and Gioia 2004). The northern portion of these shrublands is centred 118 in the mid-west region of southwestern Australia near Eneabba (29.82° S 115.27° E), 275 km 119 north of Perth, and is characterised by four broadly defined sub-communities with differing 120 121 species composition and structure determined by substrate effects on soil depth, nutrient, and 122 water availability (Enright and Lamont 1992; Hnatiuk and Hopkins 1981). Hnatiuk and Hopkins (1981) describe these four vegetation types as (1) tall shrublands on low sandy 123 dunes with deep, unconsolidated acid sands to 5 m; (2) low shrublands on adjacent flat areas 124 125 comprising shallow, unconsolidated acid sands (to 1 m) over clay; (3) tall shrublands on unconsolidated calcareous sands over Quaternary limestone; and (4) low shrublands with 126 shallow acid sands (<0.5 m) over lateritic gravels rich in iron and aluminium. Reported 127

species richness is high, with observed values of up to 130 species 1000 m⁻² for tall and low 128 shrublands on acid sands in the South Eneabba Flora Reserve (Hnatiuk and Hopkins 1981). 129 Resprouting shrubs and subshrubs predominate, with non-sprouting (fire-killed) growth 130 forms less common, comprising 20-25% of species in tall and low sandplain kwongan and 131 lateritic kwongan, and up to 40% of species in calcareous kwongan (Enright, Mosner et al. 132 2007). These shrublands are fire-prone, with estimated mean fire intervals of 12-16 years 133 based on plant demographic data (Enright, Marsula et al. 1998) and 13 years (range ~5-40 134 yrs) based on analysis of satellite imagery for the period 1972-2002 (Miller, Walshe et al. 135 136 2007). Most extant plant species show adaptations to fire, including the ability to recover vegetatively, fire-stimulated germination of soil-stored seeds, and post-fire release of canopy-137 stored seeds (Enright and Lamont 1989; He, Lamont et al. 2011). 138

We sampled shrublands on three of the four substrates (calcareous, tall and short
shrublands over acid sands). Shrublands over laterite, were not sampled due to logistical
limitations of adequate fire histories (see below).

142

143 Site Selection

Sites on each substrate type were selected within continuous sandplain and calcareous 144 shrublands (i.e. vegetation types 1-3 described above) in designated reserves and unallocated 145 crown lands (i.e. public lands) on the basis of their fuel age (time since last fire) and logistical 146 147 needs for implementation of prescribed fire (e.g. proximity of fire breaks). Time since last fire (tsf) was determined from remotely-sensed data and records from the Western Australian 148 Department of Environment and Conservation (DEC). As part of a larger project examining 149 150 the influence of shortened fire intervals on vegetation, we selected sites ranging in age from 3-24 years since previous fire with an emphasis on sites with fuels < 10 years old (Table S1). 151

153 Experimental Fires

154 Experimental fires were conducted in autumn ranging from late March to late May 2006-

155 2009. Ignition occurred mostly around midday (1130-1400, n=31 of 35; range 1130-1600)

and was a headfire lit along 1-2 sides, beginning a minimum of 10 m from the plot edge. Fire

sizes often were small (median ~ 0.5 ha) but ranged from 0.25-100+ ha. Weather conditions

were generally mild to moderate (mean temperature 27.5°C, Relative Humidity 33.5%, wind

speed 8.8 kph; Table S1), representing typical prescribed burning conditions, with mean fuel

160 moistures low because of the time of year (live fuel 37%, litter 4%; Table S2). Fire danger

160 moistures low because of the time of year (live fuel 37%, litter 4%; Table S2). Fire dang

161 index (see below for details on calculation) values ranged from 8.5-27 (mean 17)

162 corresponding to fire danger ratings of moderate to very high (low: 0-5, moderate: 5-12, high:

163 12-24, very high: 24-50, Dowdy, Mills *et al.* 2010).

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159

165 Data Collection

Biomass and fuels. One to four weeks prior to fire, measurements of vegetation and litter 166 within each burn area were made for eight 4 m \times 4 m sub-plots nested within a 40 m \times 40 m 167 plot, and for five 0.50 m^2 guadrats nested within each sub-plot (n=40 per plot). Within each 168 subplot the identity, canopy height, and 2 perpendicular widths of all (live and dead) plants > 169 10 cm height was recorded. For quadrats, percent litter cover (10% increments), identity and 170 height-width of all plants was recorded by species. In addition, a systematic grid of 50-100 171 172 point intercept measurements were taken at 5 m intervals (Elzinga, Salzer et al. 2001). At each point intercept, % litter cover ($20 \text{ cm} \times 20 \text{ cm}$ area centred on pin), identity, height and 173 canopy width of any plant in contact with the intercept pin, was recorded. Destructive 174 175 sampling to estimate allometric equations for plot-wide biomass calculations was conducted at the same time outside and downwind from plots. Allometric equations (for a range of 176 species by growth form; grass, herb, resprouting shrub/subshrub, non-sprouting 177

shrub/subshrub) and details of biomass vs. time since fire relationships are given in Westcott
(2010) and Lade (2010). At the time of each burn, ~10 samples each of fine live vegetation
(leaves and fine twigs <0.6 cm diameter) and litter were collected and placed in airtight
ziplock bags. These samples were weighed, dried at 50°C to constant weight and re-weighed
to determine fuel moisture content.

183

184 Weather conditions. An Ultrasonic Anemometer and climate station (Delta Ohm, model HD2003-HD2003.1, Padova, Italy) was used to measure the weather conditions during fires 185 186 in 2006-2008. The instrument was erected at 1.5 m height in undisturbed, nearby vegetation and continuously recorded wind direction, wind speed, ambient air temperature and relative 187 humidity at the time of the fires. In 2009, a hand-held kestrel unit (Kestrel 4500, Kestrel 188 189 Meters, Sylvan Lake, MI, USA) unit was used to record the same variables every few minutes from ignition to fire extinction. In addition to current weather conditions we 190 estimated the Forest Fire Danger Index (FFDI), a widely used fire danger rating system for 191 woody vegetation types in Australia (Luke and McArthur 1986). The FFDI integrates current 192 weather with the Keech-Byram Drought Index (Keetch and Byram 1968) to generate an 193 index of likely fire behaviour which takes into account fuel moisture (i.e. antecedent weather 194 as days since last rain >2mm) and current weather. Details, equations, and evaluation of the 195 196 FFDI are provided by (Dowdy, Mills et al. 2010; Griffiths 1998; Keetch and Byram 1968; 197 Luke and McArthur 1986). Weather data used to calculate FFDI were averages over 15 minutes at time of fire. Data required for calculating the Drought Index, including number of 198 days since last rain and amount of rainfall in most recent event were provided by the Bureau 199 200 of Meteorology for the weather station at Eneabba (Fig. 1).

201

202 Fire Behaviour. We characterised fire behaviour with four separate metrics: rate of spread (RoS), duration of soil heating, mean maximum temperature at the soil surface, and fireline 203 intensity (FI). Each of these components of fire behaviour reflects a slightly different facet of 204 205 the combustion and heat release process, giving a fuller picture of the fire as it moved through our plots. To measure RoS and soil heating, custom-made 15-channel data loggers 206 (Tain Electronics Pty. Ltd, Box Hill, Australia) were used. From one to three data loggers, 207 208 each with 15 thermocouple cables (10m in length) protected by steel sheathing were used to sample surface temperature during fires (N=15-45 points of measurement per fire). Cable 209 210 tips sampled temperatures every 8 seconds (range 0-250°C). The x-y coordinates of each cable-tip were recorded and the time elapsed for fire to spread from one lead to the next in the 211 direction of spread used to estimate RoS. Heating duration was calculated as the mean 212 213 number of seconds each thermocouple recorded temperatures $> 120^{\circ}$ C. This threshold value was selected so that results would be comparable with other studies where prolonged 214 exposure of seeds to temperatures $> 120^{\circ}$ C was found to result in seed death (Auld, Keith *et* 215 al. 2000; Hanley and Lamont 2000). Mean maximum temperature was estimated using 216 ceramic tiles ($10 \times 10 \times 0.7$ cm) marked on one side with a series of chromatic thermometer 217 crayons (Faber-Castell Thermochrom, Nurnberg, Germany) which undergo permanent colour 218 changes when exposed to specified temperature thresholds (11 levels ranging from 65-219 220 500° C). Each of 35-40 tiles per fire was wrapped in aluminum foil and placed vertically 221 facing into the approaching fire (anticipated based on wind direction) on a 5×5 m grid within each plot immediately prior to fire. Following fire, tiles were retrieved, scored for 222 maximum temperature, and the mean plot-wide value used as an estimate of the mean 223 224 maximum surface temperatures reached during the fire. Finally, fireline intensity was estimated based upon rate of spread and fuel consumption using the Byram equation (Byram 225 226 1959):

I = Hwr

where I is fireline intensity (kWm-1), H is the heat yield of the fuel (kJ kg⁻¹), w is the weight
of available fuel (t ha⁻¹) and r is the rate of spread (m s⁻¹). RoS was estimated as above and
weight of available fuel was assumed to represent 100% of litter and 16% of live vegetation
(corresponding to leaves + twigs <0.6 cm). We used a heat yield value of 18,622 kJ kg-1
based upon empirical data for fynbos vegetation reported by van Wilgen et al (1985),
corrected for moisture content (Byram 1959).

234

235 Data Analysis

Our goal was to evaluate the relative importance of fuel age (time since fire), fire weather 236 (measured as FFDI), and shrubland type in relation to fire propagation and behaviour. We 237 238 focused on fuel age and FFDI because of their widespread use by fire managers in deciding where and when to ignite management fires. Furthermore, we wanted to evaluate whether 239 modelled fire spread and intensity corresponded to observed field values. To accomplish this 240 we employed a model selection framework where we confronted our data with a set of linear 241 models and evaluated the support for each predictor given the data (Burnham and Anderson 242 2002). We used AICc to rank models and akaike weights together with 95% confidence 243 intervals of model coefficients to assess importance of predictors. Correspondence of 244 empirical and modelled fire behaviour was assessed from their correlation with one another 245 246 (see below for details).

Fire propagation. We first assessed the contribution of time since fire, FFDI, and shrubland
type in determining whether a lit fire would propagate through each plot (71% of fires
successfully propagated). Using logistic regression we considered an all subsets combination
of these three predictors allowing for an interaction between time since fire and FFDI. Lack

of convergence prevented us from investigating interaction terms between shrubland type andtime since fire/FFDI.

Fire Behaviour. For each of our four measures of fire behaviour we employed an all subsets approach to evaluating the importance of time since fire, FFDI, and shrubland type using linear regression. In addition to each term by itself, we allowed for an interaction between time since fire and shrubland type (different cover types regrow at varying rates) and an interaction between time since fire and FFDI (younger fuels would be more likely to burn at higher FFDI values). In all cases we examined the full additive model for fit, homogeneity of variance, and influence of outliers before proceeding with our analyses.

Modeling of Fire Behaviour. Prior to conducting a management burn, fire managers are 260 required to perform some level of fire modeling to anticipate the conditions under which 261 262 fireline intensities will be controllable and thus risk will be at an acceptable level. Often, part of this process involves the software package BEHAVE (Andrews, Bevins et al. 2008) which 263 produces estimates of RoS, FI, spotting distance, containment likelihood, and fire effects for 264 a number of vegetation types, including shrublands. BEHAVE is used extensively in forested 265 systems as well as shrublands in North America and along with other programs like 266 CONSUME (Prichard, Ottmar et al. 2006) is increasingly used to predict other outcomes like 267 carbon emissions from fire. Assessments of the chaparral fuel model of BEHAVE have been 268 conducted in California (Keeley and Zedler 2009) as well as in South African fynbos (Van 269 270 Wilgen, Le Maitre et al. 1985), but not in Western Australia to our knowledge (but see Hollis, Matthews et al. 2010 for data on Australian woodland fuels). Thus, we examine the 271 predictions made by BEHAVE using customised fuel models initialised from the original 272 273 chaparral fuel model (Rothermel 1972). We extracted predicted RoS and FI from BEHAVE and compared these against observed values (slope of each line corresponded to reported 274

correlation with values <1 suggesting negative bias and > 1 positive bias). For fires that did
not propagate, we used zero as the observed RoS and FI.

277

278 RESULTS

Fire Propagation. Over the period 2006-2009, 35 ignitions were attempted with 25 fires that 279 propagated (see supplementary tables S1-S3 for weather, fuels, and fire behaviour data 280 281 associated with each fire). Fuel moisture levels were generally low, with a mean of 3.7% (range 1-9%) for dead fuels and 36.7% (range 9-54%) for live fuels (Table S1). Live fuel 282 283 moisture varied significantly by shrubland type ($F_{2,31}=12.1$, p<0.001) with consistently low values in shallow sands (mean 21%) and overlapping values in deep sand (mean 32%) and 284 calcareous shrub types (mean 44%, Table S1). Time since fire was a strong predictor of fire 285 286 propagation, being present in all top models, with an Akaike weight of 1.0, and confidence intervals not overlapping zero (Fig. 2, Tables 1-2). We found little support in the data for the 287 importance of fire weather (as measured by FFDI) in determining whether a fire would burn 288 within the range of experimental conditions assessed (moderate to very high fire danger, 3-24 289 years since last fire). Shrubland type was not supported as an important predictor of the 290 291 probability of fire propagation.

Fire Behaviour. Of the 25 fires which propagated successfully, we obtained data for our four 292 behaviour metrics from 23 (equipment failures occurred for two fires). Fire behaviour (rate 293 294 of spread, fireline intensity, heating duration, mean maximum surface temperature) varied by shrubland type (Fig 3). Differences among shrubland types were most pronounced in heating 295 duration (calcareous > deep sand > shallow sand; Fig 3c) and broad variance in rate of spread 296 297 and fireline intensity were observed for deep sand shrublands (Fig 3a-b). None of the weather-based components of FFDI (relative humidity, temperature, wind speed) were related 298 to fire behaviour (Table S4). The most commonly used measure of fire behaviour, rate of 299

300 spread (RoS), did not vary with either fuel age or fire weather, with the intercept-only model ranked highest (Tables 1-2). Fuel age appeared in 3 of the 5 top models with an Akaike 301 weight of 0.56, but with all parameter estimates overlapping zero in their 95% confidence 302 303 intervals (Table 2). The top-ranked model for fireline intensity (FI) was shrubland type, with limited evidence for influence of fire weather or fuel age (Table 2). Parameter estimates for 304 the effect of shallow sand vegetation narrowly overlapped zero suggesting that fireline 305 306 intensities in that shrubland type were lower, consistent with lower biomass estimates (Fig 3, Table S1). Results for mean maximum surface temperature and duration of heating (time 307 308 >120°C) were similar, with support for more complex models including interactions among fuel age and shrubland type (both response variables, Tables 1-2, Fig. 3) as well as fire 309 weather and fuel age (mean maximum temperature only, Tables 1-2). Effects of shrubland 310 311 shrubland type and fuel age were strongly supported with parameter estimates not overlapping zero, as well as for interaction terms in the model for mean maximum 312 temperature (Table 2). Further partitioning fuel age into biomass of live and dead 313 components for the two predictors with fuel age in the top model (Table 1, Fig. 4) suggested 314 that the mass of dead fuel was a stronger predictor of fire behaviour than live biomass. Using 315 simple univariate regression, we found strong evidence of a relationship between mean 316 maximum temperature and dead biomass ($t_{1,21}$ =4.1, p<0.001) but not for live biomass 317 (t_{1,21}=1.0, p=0.33); a similar pattern was repeated for heating duration (t=4.1, p<0.001 for 318 319 dead biomass) but with some support for live biomass as well ($t_{1,21}=2.7$, p=0.01). Model Predictions. Using BEHAVE, we generated customised fuel models for each of the 320 35 management fires and compared predicted and observed RoS and FI (Table 3). Across 321 322 nearly all shrubland types and both metrics, BEHAVE exhibited negative bias with predicted < observed values (Fig. 5). For shallow-sand vegetation, the estimated slope of the line was 323 zero indicating no relationship between observations and predicted values (however, the 324

small sample, N=5 fires, suggests caution in inferring beyond this study; Table 3). Predicted
and observed values had the greatest correspondence for tall shrublands on deep sand with a
non-zero slope estimate of 0.31 for RoS and 1.05 for FI (Table 3, Fig. 5). Calcareous
vegetation had shallower but also well supported (different from zero based on 95% CI) slope
estimates of 0.14 for RoS and 0.37 for FI (Table 3, Fig. 5).

330

331 DISCUSSION

We found broad support for the positive association of fuel age and the probability of fire 332 333 propagation (i.e. fire hazard), as well as an influence on two measures of fire behaviour - but not the two that are most commonly used (RoS, FI), calling into question their use in deciding 334 where and when to place management burns. Similarly, despite estimating forest fire danger 335 336 index (FFDI) values with time of fire, site-specific meteorological data, we found no 337 evidence supporting use of FFDI in predicting fire propagation or fire behaviour in Western Australian shrublands under the fire (moderate to very high fire danger index) weather 338 conditions measured. Vegetation type (the three shrubland communities) mediated measures 339 of fire behaviour (RoS, FI, heating duration, maximum temperature) but not fire propagation, 340 likely owing to the similarity in vegetation structure in the initial years following fire, with 341 similarly low levels of surface litter and vegetation continuity and differences only emerging 342 343 later with further vegetation development.

Comparison of biomass levels, RoS, and FI from similar studies worldwide (Table 4) suggests that observed RoS is similar to that for fynbos vegetation in South Africa (Van Wilgen, Le Maitre *et al.* 1985) and for California chaparral (Rothermel and Philpot 1973) but is generally higher than values observed in European maquis (Dimitrakopoulos 2002; Fernandes 2001) or Scottish *Calluna* shrublands (Davies, Legg *et al.* 2009; Hobbs and Gimingham 1984). FI followed a roughly similar pattern with most empirical data from

350 Europe suggesting lower FI despite generally greater fuel loads (see notes, Table 4). Fynbos vegetation had higher reported FI but lower biomass than for two of the shrubland types in 351 this study (tall shrublands on deep sand, tall shrublands on calcareous sand). One important 352 353 difference may be the contribution of topography to RoS and FI; the Western Australian shrublands examined here have subdued topography (slopes 0 - 2°) compared with much 354 greater topographic complexity in South Africa and California where steep hills may promote 355 forward rates of spread and fire intensity (Keeley, Brennan et al. 2008). Higher RoS and FI 356 observed in this study than for shrublands at higher latitudes may point to different factors 357 358 limiting fire spread among these shrubland ecosystems. In European shrublands, fuel moisture rather than fuel quantity or arrangement may be the limiting factor at fine scales 359 (Davies, Legg et al. 2009), whereas in Western Australia long, hot dry summers and sandy, 360 361 droughty soils lead to low foliar moisture levels much earlier in the growing season, making fuel quantity and arrangement the greatest limiting factor given an ignition source. For 362 example, Fernandes (2001), working in Portugal, reported mean foliar moisture levels of 85% 363 364 whereas we recorded mean levels of 21%, 32%, and 44% for shallow sands, deep sand, and calcareous shrublands, respectively. Bilgili and Saglam (2003), working in Turkish maquis 365 recorded similar moisture levels to this study and also reported the highest empirically 366 measured FI for studies from the Mediterranean Basin, suggesting that live fuel moisture 367 368 limits FI in management burns where fuels may experience relatively less pre-heating and 369 drying than under wildfire conditions. For comparison, Keeley and Zedler (2009) suggest that in Californian chaparral, 60% foliar moisture is the critical level below which ignition of 370 live vegetation occurs easily. 371

372 Previous work explicitly evaluating the influence of fuel age on fire behaviour in
373 shrubland vegetation is sparse. Similar to our fire propagation results, Burrows and McCaw
374 (1990), found that fires were unlikely to carry until at least 4-5 years post-fire in Western

Australian Banksia woodlands when fuel accumulation approached 80% of the 20 year fuel 375 level. Baeza et al (2002) used nine experimental fires in 3, 9, and 12 year old Mediterranean 376 gorse shrublands, finding significantly lower RoS and FI at 3 years compared with 9 and 12 377 years post-fire. They identified live fuel moisture as a key variable limiting fire spread. 378 However, unlike our study where all 35 fires were in autumn (at the end of the summer 379 drought), 5 of their 9 experimental fires were in the spring and were associated with high 380 foliar moisture levels. The lack of observed influence of fuel moisture on fire behaviour 381 (RoS, FI) in our data may be due to generally low fuel moisture and lower variability than 382 383 observed in spring versus autumn contrasts reported in Baeza et al (2002).

More broadly, the observation that fuel age did not influence RoS or FI under 384 moderate to high fire danger weather conditions has implications for the use of prescribed fire 385 386 to reduce fuel loads. As fire weather becomes more extreme, the role of fuel conditions in mediating fire behaviour would lessen, as high wind and temperature under low humidity 387 control fire spread (Moritz, Keeley et al. 2004). Thus, the lack of an effect of fuel age on fire 388 behaviour under moderate conditions calls into question the assumption that use of prescribed 389 fire influences fire behaviour beyond the initial 4-5 year window where actual propagation is 390 limited. Analysis of fire frequency data from California arrived at similar conclusions, 391 finding little to no evidence of fuel age on the probability of fire occurrence for intervals up 392 393 to 80 years (Moritz, Keeley et al. 2004).

With respect to prediction of fire behaviour, Cruz and Alexander (2010) provide a critique of current knowledge and best practice with a focus on forest fuels and crown fire prediction. They raise two relevant concerns: the application of customised fuel models without empirical fire behaviour observations, and the consistent underprediction of fire behaviour relative to empirical observation. In this study, we found consistent underprediction (with one exception) of fire behaviour by BEHAVE, supporting the forest-

based evidence of Cruz and Alexander (2010). This lends weight to the proposition that use
of customised fuel models should be done with caution and only when empirical fire
behaviour data are available to provide an adjustment term to match prediction with realworld observation. Problematically, this sort of adjustment approach relies on sparsely
available empirical data, underscoring a need to substantially refine our collective approach
to modeling fire behaviour in the absence of empirical fire behaviour data.

406

407 *Study Limitations*.

408 The scope of inference of this study is to fire behaviour in shrubland vegetation 3-24 years post-fire under moderate to high fire danger weather conditions (FFDI range 5 - 24) typical 409 of management burns. As such, this study provides important insight into relationships 410 411 between variables well known to be important in determining fire behaviour (fuel quantity, quality, and arrangement, fuel moisture, etc) but should not be used to infer fire behaviour 412 under wildfire conditions. Additionally, the lighting of a long strip of vegetation along two 413 sides of plots and the relatively small size of burns may have reduced heterogeneity within 414 fires, but also potentially lowered fireline intensities under higher rates of spread. The 415 subdued topography of Western Australia offers the opportunity to study fire behaviour 416 without strong topographic influence, but also limits inference about fire spread in areas with 417 418 steep, complex topography (e.g. like much of western North America, Southern Africa and 419 south-eastern Australia). Size of experimental fires might also be expected to influence results relative to wildfires which burn under a broader range of temporal and spatial 420 conditions. Thus, it would be expected that the results reported here possess narrower 421 422 variation than similar observations collected from wildfires. However, like topographic effects, this also offers the opportunity to deepen our understanding fine-scale fire behaviour. 423

We do make inference to processes influencing landscape-scale patterns such as boundaries
between shrubland types or changes in weather conditions over time.

426

427 Management Implications.

Fuel age is one of the simplest and most widely used qualitative correlates of fire hazard in 428 fire-prone ecosystems, particularly shrublands. Increased fire frequencies associated with 429 global warming and human population growth have led to increased pressure on managers to 430 balance protection of ecological and human values. Increased fire frequencies may lead to 431 432 species losses due to inadequate time for reproduction and replenishment of the seed bank or below ground energy reserves necessary for resprouting post-fire (Burrows 2008). Our 433 finding that fuel age is important for determining fire hazard is consistent with a broad fire 434 435 literature on the subject, and the interval at which fires will propagate in these shrublands (~5 436 yrs or greater) is far shorter than that recommended to retain a full complement of species, particularly for non-sprouters (Burrows et al 2008, > 10yrs; Westcott 2010, >10 yrs). 437 However, we found little relationship between fuel age or overall fire weather and RoS, 438 suggesting that a more detailed understanding of fuel complexes will need to be obtained by 439 managers tasked with determining fire potentials in a range of shrubland types. 440

The underestimation of fire potentials by the widely used program BEHAVE also 441 may be problematic in relation to management burns for ecological purposes. Without good 442 443 tools to predict fire behaviour, managers likely will be overly conservative in their implementation of management fires, leading to application of fires under mild weather 444 conditions not conducive to maintenance of biodiversity. For example, in many fire-prone 445 446 shrublands it is possible to burn on dry days in winter and early spring when fine surface fuels cure quickly. However, fires during these times of year may not heat the soil 447 sufficiently to break dormancy of soil-stored seeds, and/or may cause seeds to germinate too 448

late in the wet season (late winter – early spring) to establish a deep enough root system to
survive the long summer drought. For example, Potts et al (2010) found lower summer
survival in *Ceanothus cuneatus* seedlings originating from spring burns than for autumn
burns in Californian chaparral. Enright and Lamont (1989) also found lower rates of
seedling recruitment after spring than autumn fires, although higher rates of self-thinning
among dense seedling stands slowly reduced overall differences.

Finally, while the inferred relationship between fuel age and RoS serves as a major rationale for management objectives aimed at maintaining lower fuel ages and shorter fire rotations, our results call into question any such relationship under conditions typical of management burns, mirroring similar findings from California based on analysis of fire frequencies (Moritz, Keeley *et al.* 2004). Although older fuels may carry fire more readily and exhibit greater surface temperatures or soil heating, we found no evidence for increased RoS with increasing fuel age.

462

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702 TABLES

703

Table 1. Best performing models given four measures of fire behaviour relative to fuel and
weather conditions from 35⁺; experimental fires conducted in shrubland vegetation, Western
Australia.

Fire Behaviour Measure	Model	k	AICc	∆AICc	ω _i	Model R ²
Fire Propagation	tsf	3	32.39	0.00	0.49	0.35†
	tsf + FFDI	4	33.47	1.08	0.29	0.40†
	tsf + type	4	34.93	2.54	0.14	0.41†
Rate of Spread	intercept	2	22.20	0.00	0.27	0
	tsf	3	23.35	1.14	0.15	0.06
	tsf*type	5	23.54	1.34	0.14	0.40
	tsf + type	4	23.65	1.45	0.13	0.24
	type	3	23.99	1.79	0.11	0.12
Fireline Intensity	type	3	432.69	0.00	0.32	0.20
	intercept	2	432.75	0.47	0.25	0
	FFDI + type	4	434.78	2.09	0.11	0.23
Mean Surface Temp	FFDI*tsf + tsf*type	7	258.17	0.00	0.72	0.77
	FFDI + tsf*type	6	260.57	2.40	0.22	0.70
Heating Duration	tsf*type	5	293.23	0.00	0.50	0.73
	tsf + type	4	294.11	0.88	0.32	0.65

Notes: Reported models were those with Akaike weights >0.10; tsf= time since fire,

10 N=35 for analysis of propagation, N=23 for analysis of fire behaviour

⁷⁰⁸ FFDI=Forest Fire Danger Index, type=shrubland vegetation type.

^{709 †}Pseudo-R-Squared values

Table 2. Support for predictors based on Akaike weights of models predicting fire behaviour

- 714 in shrubland vegetation of Western Australia.

Predictor	tsf	FFDI	type	tsf*FFDI	tsf*type
Fire Propagation	1.00	0.37	0.14	0.08	NA
Rate of Spread	0.56	0.21	0.45	0.02	0.41
Fireline Intensity	0.23	0.25	0.57	0.01	0.04
Mean Surface Temperature	1.00	0.99	0.98	0.73	0.94
Heating Duration	1.00	0.18	1.00	0.03	0.60

Notes: Bolded values indicated parameter estimates whose 95% confidence intervals did not

717 overlap zero. Abbreviations: tsf=time since fire, FFDI=Forest Fire Danger Index,

718 type=shrubland vegetation type.

Table 3. Relationship (slope, t-value, p-value) between observed and predicted rates of
 spread (m sec⁻¹) and fireline intensity (kW m⁻¹) for 35 experimental fires across three

725	shrubland	vegetation	types in	Western	Australia.
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		Rate of Spread			Fireline Intensity			
Shrubland Type	Ν	slope (SE)	t	Р	slope (SE)	t	Р	
All	35	0.17 (0.09)	1.92	0.06	0.63 (0.12)	5	<0.001	
shallow sand	5	-0.25 (0.61)	-0.41	0.71	0.07 (0.09)	0.07	0.95	
deep sand	12	0.31 (0.11)	2.92	0.02	1.04 (0.20)	5.34	<0.001	
calcareous	18	0.14 (0.08)	1.89	0.08	0.37 (0.14)	2.65	0.02	

726 *Notes*: A slope of 1 would indicate perfect agreement between observed and predicted values

vhile values <1 suggest positive bias in predictions. Estimates based on simple linear model

of observed versus predicted values with the intercept allowed to vary.

			Fuel	Prefire	Rate of spread	Fire intensity	
Region	Vegetation type	Source	(yrs)	(t ha-1)	(m sec-1)	(kW m-1)	N fires
Australia (SW)	Shallow acid sands	This study	4-14	2.9-4.0	0.35-0.48	525-900	5
Australia (SW)	Deep acid sands	This study	4-16	4.8-19.4	0.1-1.57	602-11073	12
Australia (SW)	Calcareous sands	This study	3-24	6.1-22.8	0.08-0.92	776-8857	18
Australia (SE)	Heath-Low Woodland	Bradstock and Auld (1995)			0.008-0.339	151-4561	13
Australia (SW)	Mallee-heath	McCaw <i>et al.</i> (1992)	>20		1.1-2.1	25000-35000	wildfire
Australia (S)	Low Heath	Wouters (1993)	5		0.33	9000	wildfire
Australia (SE)	Eastern dry heath	Bradstock, in Keith <i>et al.</i> (2002)	5		0.67	25000	wildfire
Australia (SE)	Wet Heath	Marsden-Smedley and Catchpole (1995)	16-25		0.9-0.92	16000-19000	wildfire
South Africa	Cape fynbos	van Wilgen <i>et al.</i> (1985)		9.7-34.2	0.04-0.89	515-20709	14
South Africa	Cape fynbos	Bands (1977)		3-10	0.07-1.11	360-18900	
South Africa	Natal Drakensberg shrublands	Smith (1983)		15.4-39.5	0.01-0.20	88-1617	
California	coastal sage scrub	Westman <i>et al.</i> (1981)		18.7-20.8	0.05-0.59	1250-10852	
California	Chaparral	Rothermel & Philpot (1973)		43.75	0.04-1.74	380-35000	
Scotland	Heathland	Kayll (1966)		15.9-23.3	0.03-0.12	2430	
Scotland	Heathland	Hobbs & Gimingham (1984)		8.82-27.4	0.003-0.03	40-1100	
Scotland	Heathland	Davies <i>et al.</i> (2009)		7.5-16.0	0.01-0.18		27
Mediterranean	Maquis (Turkey)	Bilgili & Saglam		19.3-43.6	0.01-0.15	623-10355	25

Table 4. Comparison of results in current study with similar work in shrubland ecosystems globally.

		(2003)					
Mediterranean	Maquis (Greece)	Dimitrakopoulos (2002)		25.5-53	0.08-0.83	2900-50900	
Mediterranean	Phyrgana (Greece)	Dimitrakopoulos (2002)		5.7-9.9	0.05-0.32	400-3100	
Mediterranean	Portugal	Fernandes (2001)		4.9-64.9	0.01-0.33		
Mediterranean	Ulex Shrublands (Spain)	Baeza <i>et al.</i> (2002)	3-12	10.4-46.2	0.004-0.04	69-2310	9
Mediterranean	Genista shrubland (France)	Sauvagnargues- Lesage <i>et al.</i> (2001)			0.1-0.17		9
Mediterranean	Maquis (Turkey)	Saglam <i>et al.</i> (2008)		24.7-51.3		189-5906	18

733 FIGURES

Fig. 1. Study area (Mid-West region, Western Australia) showing major substrate types and
locations of sites subjected to experimental fires 2006-2009.

Fig 2. Fuel age (time since fire) and weather conditions as measured by the Forest Fire

737 Danger Index under which 35 experimental burns were ignited in Western Australian

kwongan (shrubland) vegetation. Fires that did not carry across a range of weather

739 conditions were of younger fuel ages.

Fig 3. Means and 95% confidence intervals of four measures of fire behaviour (a: rate of

spread, b: fireline intensity, c: mean maximum temperature, and d: heating duration) for three

shrubland vegetation types during 35 experimental burns in Western Australia, 2006-2009.

Fig 4. Dead surface fuel mass in relation to (a) heating duration and (b) mean maximum

temperature for 35 experimental fires (n=23 for those which successfully burned) in Western

Australian kwongan. Mass of dead material was significantly related to both measures of fire

behaviour (heating: $F_{1,22}=17.29$, p<0.001; mean max temp: $F_{1,21}=16.79$, p<0.001).

Fig 5. Observed versus predicted values of (a) rate of spread and (b) fireline intensity as

modeled from program BEHAVE using customized fuel models and weather data from 35

experimental bushfires over three shrubland vegetation types in Western Australia. Shallow

sand plots (N=5) had slope estimates of zero and are not shown.

- 751
- 752



756 Fig 1



Forest Fire Danger Index



- 761 Fig 2.

















777 Fig 5.

778 SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIALS/ONLINE APPENDICES

781	Table S1. Weather, fuel moisture, and ignition characteristics of 35 experimental fires lit in three shrubland vegetation types of Western
782	Australia 2006-2009.

Shrubland Vegetation Type	Time Since Fire (yrs)	Fire Ran?†	Date of Fire	Time of Ignition	Forest Fire Danger Index	Relative Humidity (%)	Temperature (C)	Mean Wind Velocity (kph)	Litter Moisture (%)	Live Fine Fuel Moisture (%)
Calcareous	3	Yes	12-Apr-07	1154	25.7	17	31.4	8.6	4.0	22.4
Calcareous	3	No	31-Mar-09	1335	13.9	56	25.7	14.0	5.0	46.1
Calcareous	4	Yes	14-Apr-08	1339	13.7	12	33.1	8.3	6.4	48.3
Calcareous	5	No	17-Apr-07	1137	11.0	25	26.8	5.5	6.6	31.8
Calcareous	5	Yes	21-Apr-09	1349	17.3	45	30.5	14.0	5.2	54.2
Calcareous	6	Yes	26-Apr-07	1456	8.5	34	23.3	6.2	9.0	40.8
Calcareous	6	Yes	17-Apr-07	1410	11.0	42	24.3	13.0	6.0	32.2
Calcareous	6	No	05-May-08	1341	9.2	27	33.5	4.5	5.0	45.6
Calcareous	7	No	15-May-07	1230	9.0	33	19.9	8.3	5.2	45.6
Calcareous	7	Yes	09-May-08	1427	9.8	36	27.8	8.2	4.0	44.8
Calcareous	7	Yes	16-Apr-08	1502	20.2	67	25.4	10.7	5.3	40.0
Calcareous	8	Yes	29-Apr-09	1330	23.3	36	28.8	6.0	1.4	54.2
Calcareous	8	Yes	28-Apr-09	1330	21.0	27	30.0	7.0	5.0	48.9
Calcareous	9	Yes	09-May-07	1720	16.1	28	25.7	3.0	5.6	44.0
Calcareous	9	Yes	24-Apr-09	1350	13.3	60	25.0	6.0	1.4	45.5
Calcareous	14	Yes	16-May-07	1240	10.4	35	21.4	6.4	4.8	38.8

Calcareous	15	Yes	07-May-08	1319	11.5	26	30.3	7.0	8.0	53.0
Calcareous	24	Yes	08-May-09	1146	19.8	37	27.0	9.0	3.2	53.3
Shallow Sand	4	No	06-Apr-06	1415	23.0	30	26.0	17.0	1.1	16.1
Shallow Sand	4	No	07-Apr-06	1305	24.8	26	29.4	8.9	2.8	22.9
Shallow Sand	5	Yes	11-Apr-07	1250	24.3	23	27.6	8.6	1.1	12.9
Shallow Sand	6	Yes	15-Apr-08	1334	22.4	31	31.2	11.1	0.8	22.7
Shallow Sand	14	Yes	22-Apr-08	1312	10.9	40	28.0	16.6	8.6	31.5
Deep Sand	4	No	06-Apr-06	1530	25.5	27	27.3	15.1	1.8	20.5
Deep Sand	4	No	07-Apr-06	1455	27.3	24	30.3	9.6	5.0	31.6
Deep Sand	5	No	23-Apr-07	1217	11.5	42	24.5	6.5	2.1	37.1
Deep Sand	6	No	08-May-08	1314	10.8	44	28.4	8.1	1.5	44.8
Deep Sand	7	Yes	24-Apr-07	1226	12.1	46	25.1	13.7	1.8	19.0
Deep Sand	8	Yes	20-Apr-06	1515	21.6	32	32.2	8.9	1.2	44.7
Deep Sand	9	Yes	19-Apr-07	1213	12.7	39	24.4	7.2	1.2	8.6
Deep Sand	11	Yes	27-Apr-07	1305	23.5	29	26.3	14.4	1.9	18.8
Deep Sand	12	Yes	06-May-08	1206	19.9	23	29.0	3.3	0.8	39.0
Deep Sand	14	Yes	08-May-07	1600	19.5	35	25.0	4.1		
Deep Sand	14	Yes	02-May-08	1442	18.0	23	28.3	6.4	2.2	44.2
Deep Sand	16	Yes	08-May-07	1335	25.6	17	28.4	3.0	1.6	39.8

†Fire Ran refers to whether each ignition successfully propagated, burning the entire plot.

	Time		Littor	Livo	Total	
Shrubland	Fire	Fire	Biomass	Biomass	Biomass	Fuel Bed
Vegetation Type	(yrs)	Ran?	(t/ha)	(t/ha)	(t/ha)	Depth (cm)
Calcareous	3	Yes	1.9	4.9	6.8	54.8
Calcareous	3	No	1.7	5.4	7.1	31.5
Calcareous	4	Yes	1.6	4.5	6.1	47.7
Calcareous	5	No	2.0	14.3	16.2	77.4
Calcareous	5	Yes	2.5	5.9	8.4	45.0
Calcareous	6	Yes	2.5	12.0	14.5	61.8
Calcareous	6	Yes	2.0	7.2	9.2	35.3
Calcareous	6	No	1.9	5.6	7.4	61.3
Calcareous	7	No	2.9	13.1	16.0	85.5
Calcareous	7	Yes	2.2	16.0	18.2	56.9
Calcareous	7	Yes	2.6	8.8	11.4	41.2
Calcareous	8	Yes	4.0	14.9	18.9	63.0
Calcareous	8	Yes	3.7	12.3	16.0	45.4
Calcareous	9	Yes	2.8	14.7	17.5	107.6
Calcareous	9	Yes	2.3	8.6	10.9	40.5
Calcareous	14	Yes	3.3	23.0	26.3	94.8
Calcareous	15	Yes	3.4	15.7	19.2	113.1
Calcareous	24	Yes	4.8	13.4	18.2	46.6
Shallow Sand	4	No	0.7	1.9	2.5	43.8
Shallow Sand	4	No	0.7	2.7	3.4	45.0
Shallow Sand	5	Yes	0.5	2.4	2.9	45.6
Shallow Sand	6	Yes	0.6	2.6	3.3	42.0
Shallow Sand	14	Yes	1.1	2.0	3.1	46.0
Deep Sand	4	No	0.8	5.6	6.4	59.8
Deep Sand	4	No	1.4	5.2	6.6	64.9
Deep Sand	5	No	1.0	3.9	4.9	57.3
Deep Sand	6	No	1.1	5.3	6.4	56.8
Deep Sand	7	Yes	1.1	4.0	5.0	54.4
Deep Sand	8	Yes	2.5	10.8	13.4	63.5
Deep Sand	9	Yes	1.6	5.3	7.0	72.2
Deep Sand	11	Yes	3.3	7.7	11.0	58.5
Deep Sand	12	Yes	2.8	10.3	13.1	64.1
Deep Sand	14	Yes	4.1	14.8	18.8	71.6
Deep Sand	14	Yes	2.0	5.1	7.1	59.5
Deep Sand	16	Yes	2.2	8.9	11.0	68.8

Table S2. Fuel characteristics of 35 experimental fires ignited across three shrubland
 vegetation types in Western Australia.

7	9	1

Table S3. Observed and Predicted measures of fire behaviour in 35 experimental fires

Shrubland	Time Since			Mean Max	Obs	a. –:	Predicted	Predicted
Vegetation type	Fire (yrs)	Fire Ran?	Time >120°C	Temp (°C)	RoS (m sec ⁻¹)	Obs FI (kW m ⁻¹)	RoS (m sec ⁻¹)	FI (kW m⁻¹)
Calcareous	3	Yes	168	133	0.85	3960	0.32	2855
Calcareous	3	No					0.23	2099
Calcareous	4	Yes	297	77	0.92	3603	0.20	1290
Calcareous	5	No					0.03	78
Calcareous	5	Yes	341	205	0.59	3533	0.33	3647
Calcareous	6	Yes	124	88	0.60	4410	0.03	99
Calcareous	6	Yes	218	130	0.65	3500	0.34	4052
Calcareous	6	No					0.12	1036
Calcareous	7	No					0.07	299
Calcareous	7	Yes	453	92	0.61	4711	0.03	116
Calcareous	7	Yes	172	118	0.74	5037	0.23	3426
Calcareous	8	Yes	267	273	0.83	8857	0.14	3460
Calcareous	8	Yes	209	171	0.21	2035	0.12	2172
Calcareous	9	Yes	264	118	0.45	3895	0.02	85
Calcareous	9	Yes	136	150	0.69	4268	0.11	1813
Calcareous	14	Yes	263	71	0.36	4012	0.04	194
Calcareous	15	Yes	609	193	0.08	776	0.06	252
Calcareous	24	Yes	905	370	0.68	8223	0.22	5771
Shallow Sand	4	No					0.76	2333
Shallow Sand	4	No					0.31	1115
Shallow Sand	5	Yes	36	103	0.38	525	0.30	868
Shallow Sand	6	Yes	111	126	0.48	840	0.35	1290
Shallow Sand	14	Yes	97	114	0.35	900	0.78	2351
Deep Sand	4	No					0.05	69
Deep Sand	4	No					0.37	2783
Deep Sand	5	No					0.22	1206
Deep Sand	6	No					0.15	700
Deep Sand	7	Yes	121	125	0.82	2384	0.58	3664
Deep Sand	8	Yes	*	183	*	*	0.25	4340
Deep Sand	9	Yes	138	103	1.57	6679	0.37	3269
Deep Sand	11	Yes	165	157	1.40	11073	0.88	15105
Deep Sand	12	Yes	204	128	0.23	1717	0.10	1946
Deep Sand	14	Yes	*	190	*	*	0.14	3977
Deep Sand	14	Yes	139	106	0.66	3249	0.23	2067
Deep Sand	16	Yes	138	166	0.10	602	0.10	1383

conducted across three shrubland vegetation types in Western Australia, 2006-2009.

- Notes: Blank cells represent instances in which ignition did not result in a forward-spreading
- 795 fire through plots.
- * Instruments failed at two fires, thus heating duration, ROS, and FI were not able to be
- restimated.
- 798

801 Table S4. Univariate correlations[†] (Pearson) between measures of fire behaviour and

802 individual components of fuels and weather from experimental fires in shrublands of Western

803 Australia.

				Mean	Heating
		ROS	FI	Temp	Duration
FUELS	Fuel Age (yrs)	-0.25	0.12	0.50**	0.55**
	Litter Mass (t ha ⁻¹)	-0.06	0.55**	0.66***	0.67***
	Live Mass (t ha⁻¹)	-0.29	0.26	0.21	0.51**
	Total Mass (t ha⁻¹)	-0.26	0.32	0.29	0.55**
	Litter Moisture (%)	-0.26	-0.17	-0.18	0.21
	Live Moisture (%)	-0.44*	0.04	0.45*	0.58**
WEATHER	FFDI	-0.01	0.09	0.37	-0.14
	Wind (kph)	0.31	0.10	0.02	-0.07
	Relative Humidity (%)	0.20	0.23	0.09	-0.02
	Temperature (°C)	-0.19	-0.28	0.22	0.14

804 $\frac{1}{7} \approx p < 0.05, \approx p < 0.01, \approx p < 0.001$, data from n=23 experimental fires which successfully

propagated. ROS= Rate of Spread (m s⁻¹); FI= Fireline Intensity (kW m⁻¹); Mean

806 Temp=Mean maximum surface temperature (°C); Heating Duration=Amount of time (sec)

807 above 120°C

811	Supplementary Figure S1. Fig 4. Observed fire behaviour (Rate of Spread a-b; Fireline
812	Intensity c-d; Mean Surface Temperature e-f; Heating Duration (seconds > 120°C) g-h)
813	relative to fire danger (a,c,e,g) and fuel age (b,d,f,h) from 23 experimental fires in shrublands
814	of Western Australia. No correlations were statistically significant with the exception of f
815	and h at P<0.01, see Table S4 for details.





819 Fig. S1