

1 **Moisture content variation of ground vegetation fuels in boreal mesic and sub-xeric**  
2 **mineral soil forests in Finland**

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23 **Abstract:** Forest fire risk in Finland is estimated by the Finnish Forest Fire Index (FFI), which  
24 predicts the fuel moisture content (FMC) of the forest floor. We studied the FMC variation of four  
25 typical ground vegetation fuels, *Pleurozium schreberi*, *Hylocomium splendens*, *Dicranum* spp., and  
26 *Cladonia* spp., and raw humus in mature and recently clear-cut stands. Of these, six were sub-xeric  
27 *Pinus sylvestris* stands, and six mesic *Picea abies* stands. We analyzed FFI's ability to predict FMC  
28 and compared it with the widely applied Canadian Fire Weather Index (FWI).

29 We found that in addition to stand characteristics ground layer FMC was highly dependent on the  
30 species so that *Dicranum* was the moistest, and *Cladonia* the driest. In the humus layer, the  
31 differences among species were small. Overall, the FWI was a slightly better predictor of FMC than  
32 the FFI. While the FFI predicted ground layer FMC generally well, the shape of the relationship  
33 varied among the four species. The use of auxiliary variables thus has potential in improving  
34 predictions of ignitions and forest fire risk. Knowledge of FMC variation could also benefit planning  
35 and timing of prescribed burnings.

36

37 **Brief summary:** The studied four moss and lichen species were found to dry at different rates, thus  
38 having different ignition potential and fire risk. Stand type, and particularly developmental stage also  
39 affected the drying rates. The fire risk indices could be improved by using these variables, which  
40 could benefit fire prevention.

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42 **Keywords:** fire risk, forest fire index, forest type, prescribed burning, Norway spruce, Scots pine,  
43 stand structure

44 **Running head:** Variation in moisture content of ground vegetation fuels

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## 48 **Introduction**

49 In Finland, forest fires declined during the last century. This decline was particularly steep during the  
50 latter half of the century. The average annual burned area in 1950s was about 5,700 ha and in the  
51 1970s it had declined to approximately 700 ha (Yearbook of Forest Statistics 1990-1991 (1992)). In  
52 recent decades, the average annual burned area has varied between 200 and 800 ha, only occasionally  
53 exceeding 1,000 ha. The average size of an individual fire is currently about 0.4 ha (Finnish Statistical  
54 Yearbook of Forestry 2014). The climatological fire risk in Finland was relatively stable during the  
55 last century (Mäkelä *et al.* 2012), so the decline in fire occurrence is explained by other factors, such  
56 as efficiency in fire detection and suppression, and changes in ignition sources, stand structure, forest  
57 fragmentation, and vegetation (Päätaalo 1998; Wallenius 2011). This is also supported by the  
58 difference between the fire regimes of Finland and neighbouring Sweden, where the annual burned  
59 area has been higher and large fires frequent (Lindberg *et al.* 2020).

60 Although forest fires do not currently form a major risk to society or property in Finland, they still  
61 employ rescue services leading to a need to improve forest fire risk assessment methods. This is  
62 partially due to the fact, that although the burned area has been low, the annual number of fires has  
63 been about 1,300 in the 21<sup>st</sup> century (Finnish Statistical Yearbook of Forestry 2014). Thus, the small-  
64 sized but frequent forest fires burden regional rescue services and local fire brigades during the forest  
65 fire season. Several studies have also predicted that the general forest fire risk in Finland (Kilpeläinen  
66 *et al.* 2010; Lehtonen *et al.* 2014; Mäkelä *et al.* 2014) and the risk for large fires (Lehtonen *et al.*  
67 2016) will increase in the 21<sup>st</sup> century. One way to improve the preparedness of rescue services is to  
68 improve the ability to predict potential fire hazard days.

69 The fuel moisture content (FMC) of different fuels is one of the key factors when estimating fire risk.  
70 FMC is used to predict flammability, and it is also a factor in models predicting fire intensity and fire  
71 spread rate. Most forest fire indices are meteorological and use various weather data to compute  
72 indices for assessing fire risk (San-Miguel-Ayanz *et al.* 2003).

73 Currently, the most widely used fire index system is the Canadian Forest Fire Weather Index System  
74 (CFFWIS), which was initially designed for the Canadian boreal forest. Since being published in 1970  
75 (Van Wagner 1987), it has gradually been adopted in many parts of the world, including different  
76 vegetation zones and fuel types (Dimitrakopoulos *et al.* 2011). The FMC estimation in CFFWIS is  
77 divided into three moisture codes: Fine Fuel Moisture Code (FFMC), Duff Moisture Code (DMC) and  
78 Drought Code (DC) (Van Wagner 1987). These moisture codes are calculated daily based on air  
79 temperature, relative humidity (not in DC), wind speed (only FFMC), and rainfall. Two spread  
80 indices are then estimated: initial spread index using wind and FFMC and build-up index combining  
81 DMC and DC. The spread indices are then combined to determine the Fire Weather Index (FWI) (Van  
82 Wagner 1987).

83 CFFWIS has proven suitable in forests with a flammable duff layer typically consisting of a humus  
84 layer and moss cover like, for instance, the black spruce (*Picea mariana*) (Mill.) Britton, Sterns &  
85 Poggenburg) forests in boreal Northern America (e.g. Ziel *et al.* 2020). Fennoscandian coniferous  
86 forests have a similar type of duff structure, and CFFWIS has generally been found to work well there  
87 (Granström and Schimmel 1998; Tanskanen *et al.* 2005).

88 Despite the increasing use of CFFWIS, national fire indices are still commonly used in many  
89 countries. In Finland, the forest fire risk is estimated and predicted by the Finnish Forest Fire Index  
90 (FFI). FFI was constructed in 1996 to replace the former fire index, which was based merely on  
91 statistical correlations between weather variables and the occurrence of fires (Heikinheimo *et al.*  
92 1998). In 1996, Sweden started to use CFFWIS as a national forest fire index system (Sjöström *et al.*  
93 2019), but the Finnish Meteorological Institute (FMI) decided to develop its own index, partly  
94 because CFFWIS was considered unnecessarily complicated with its hierarchical structure, and  
95 because it was lacking solar radiation as an explaining variable (Heikinheimo *et al.* 1998).

96 FFI is based on empirical relationships between weather data and the volumetric moisture content of a  
97 6-cm thick layer of forest floor. In short (see Supplement 1 and Vajda *et al.* (2014) for details), air  
98 temperature values are obtained from the ground weather station network and spatially interpolated to  
99 a 10 km × 10 km grid using the kriging method (Venäläinen and Heikinheimo 2003). Evaporation is

100 estimated based on this interpolated data and weather prediction models, and the precipitation is  
101 received from weather radars (Venäläinen and Heikinheimo 2003; Vajda *et al.* 2014). The index is a  
102 continuous variable calibrated to vary from 1.0 to 6.0, 6.0 being the driest. The index has been  
103 assigned a threshold value of 4.0, at which point it predicts a volumetric moisture content under 20%.  
104 When the index exceeds this threshold, a forest fire warning is announced in public media, which  
105 forbids the lighting of open fires. It must be noted that the FFI uses volumetric moisture content  
106 values based on non-destructive monitoring of fuels and thus they are not directly comparable with  
107 gravimetric moisture content values.

108 In addition to its role in wildfire, FMC plays an important role in prescribed burnings, used in Finland  
109 as a silvicultural tool and nowadays also for ecological restoration and management for biodiversity.  
110 Because of this, the scope of prescribed burnings in Finland has widened in recent years to a more  
111 diverse set of burnings with different ecological aims such as burnings of retention trees, restoration  
112 burnings in nature conservation areas and management burnings of sun-exposed and xeric habitats  
113 (for details see Lindberg *et al.* 2020). The various aims also set diverse targets for fire impact and  
114 depth. However, despite the recognized importance of fire for restoration, the overall area of  
115 prescribed burns has declined in recent decades (Lindberg *et al.* 2020).

116

117 FMC is one of the most significant factors determining the potential days of prescribed burnings and  
118 intended burning depth (Sandberg 1980; Ferguson *et al.* 2002; Hille and den Ouden 2005; Hille and  
119 Stephens 2005). Because of different ecological aims, understanding how FMC develops in various  
120 fuels and their effect on fire impact and burning result is necessary. As an example, in silvicultural  
121 burnings and burnings on barren habitats, the aim is to decrease the organic layer, which requires a  
122 sufficiently low FMC. If the moisture of the ground layer and in some cases raw humus is too high,  
123 the burning effects are not fully achieved. In restoration burnings, more various moisture conditions  
124 are possible, since more diverse burning results are accepted (Lindberg *et al.* 2020).

125 Boreal ground layer species differ in their structure and growth form which affects their water-holding  
126 capacity (Peterson and Mayo 1975; Busby and Whitfield 1978; Pech 1989). The aim of this study was  
127 to determine the FMC variation of dominant forest floor mosses and lichens and raw humus in  
128 different stands of the two most common forest types in Southern Finland. We analyzed how the  
129 moisture content of selected species varied as a function of FFI, and we compared the ability of FFI  
130 and FWI to predict the FMC of selected fuel materials.

131 We hypothesize that as clear-cut areas and pine-dominated sub-xeric stands receive more radiation  
132 and are more exposed to the drying effect of wind: i) ground vegetation fuels dry faster in clear-cut  
133 areas as compared to closed-canopy forests, ii) fuels in pine-dominated forests dry faster than in  
134 spruce-dominated forests, iii) varying water holding capacity of studied materials explains the  
135 possible differences in their FMC behavior and potential days of ignition.

136

## 137 **Materials and methods**

### 138 *Study area*

139

140 The study area is located in Southern Finland in the Evo State Forest (Fig. 1) belonging to the  
141 southern boreal vegetation zone (Ahti *et al.* 1968). The elevation of the study area varies between  
142 100-190 meters a.s.l., mean annual temperature in the region is +3.1°C, the average annual  
143 precipitation is 670 mm, and the growing season 160 days (Juvakka *et al.* 1995). The bedrock is  
144 mostly orogenic granitoid covered by a thick, stony morainic layer, but glacier sedimented areas such  
145 as deltas, sandur deltas and eskers with sand or gravel are also common (Okko 1972). Of the sampled  
146 stands, the sub-xeric stands were mostly located in sedimented, sandy soils and mesic stands on sandy  
147 or fine sandy moraines (Fig. 1).

148

### 149 **Figure 1**

150

### 151 *Experimental design and sampling*

152

153 Nearly 90% of Finnish forests are managed commercially (Finnish Statistical Yearbook of Forestry  
154 2014). The management is typically done relatively uniformly, including artificial regeneration, 2-4  
155 low thinnings, and clear-cutting with less than 3% retention of tree volume (Finnish Forestry, Practice  
156 and Management 2011, Kuuluvainen *et al.* 2019). The stands are thus evenly aged, relatively sparsely  
157 stocked and most often dominated by Norway spruce (*Picea abies* L.) H. Karst and Scots pine (*Pinus*  
158 *sylvestris* L.)

159 The most common forest site types on mineral soils in Finland are mesic forests (*Myrtillus*-type),  
160 which cover 52% and sub-xeric forests (*Vaccinium*-type), which cover 26% of forests (Finnish  
161 Statistical Yearbook of Forestry 2014).

162 Both forest types in their later successional stages are characterized by dwarf shrubs bilberry  
163 (*Vaccinium myrtillus* L.), lingonberry (*Vaccinium vitis-idaea* L.) and common heather (*Calluna*  
164 *vulgaris* L. (Hull)). In sub-xeric forests *V. vitis-idaea* and *Calluna* are dominant, and in mesic forests  
165 *V. myrtillus* is dominant and *Calluna* practically absent.

166 Managed conifer-dominated mesic and sub-xeric forests on mineral soils typically have an easily  
167 distinguishable raw humus layer with a typical thickness of 3-5 cm in Southern Finland (Tamminen  
168 1991). In these forests, moss and lichen dominated ground vegetation is the most common and the  
169 most important flammable fuel bed, where the majority of forest fires ignite and spread (Schimmel  
170 and Granström 1997; Tanskanen *et al.* 2005). A continuous moss carpet is typical in later  
171 successional stages of coniferous forests whereas in young successional stages it is less abundant, thus  
172 decreasing fire risk (Schimmel and Granström 1997). Yet, recent clear-cuts where the moss carpet  
173 still exists and herbs and graminoids have not yet colonized the areas are flammable similar to the  
174 mature forests. A recent study showed that a significant number of forest fires in Sweden are started  
175 in clear-cuts as the sparks produced by forest machines are an important source of ignitions (Sjöström  
176 *et al.* 2019). The raw humus layer is also potentially flammable, and the targets and success of  
177 prescribed burnings are often estimated by burning depth, which indicates the decrease of moss and  
178 raw humus layer.

179 The feather moss (*Pleurozium schreberi*) (Brid) Mitt. is the most abundant moss species with a  
180 coverage of approximately 30% in mesic and 35% in sub-xeric forests. (Mäkipää 2000a). Fork mosses  
181 (*Dicranum* spp., *D.polysetum* Sw. and *D.scoparium* Hedw. being the most dominant) cover about 10%  
182 in both mesic and sub-xeric types (Mäkipää 2000b), whereas stairstep moss (*Hylocomium splendens*)  
183 (Hedw.) is clearly more abundant in mesic types with a share over 10% but in sub-xeric types only  
184 3% (Mäkipää 2000c). Reindeer lichens (*Cladonia* spp) are practically absent in mesic forests but  
185 patchy with an average share of 5% in sub-xeric forests (Nousiainen 2000). *Cladonias* abundance  
186 increases significantly in xeric and barren forests, which are less common (pooled share 4%) and are  
187 concentrated in Northern Finland (Finnish Statistical Yearbook of Forestry 2014).

188

189 Twelve forest stands from the study area were chosen, consisting of four different stand types and  
190 three replicates from each. The stand types were: 1. Sub-xeric, mature, *Pinus* dominated stand. 2. Sub-  
191 xeric, clear-cut area. 3. Mesic, mature, *Picea* dominated stand. 4. Mesic, open, clear-cut area (Fig. 1,  
192 Table 1). The age and standing stock of a stand is referred to as the developmental stage (either clear-  
193 cut or mature) and the combination of forest type and dominant tree species as stand type (either sub-  
194 xeric/*Pinus* or mesic/*Picea*) (Table 1).

195

#### 196 **Table 1**

197

198 We selected individual stands from the forest planning databases of the study area, according to the  
199 following criteria: mature stands had to be over 70 years of age and be either *Pinus*- or *Picea*-  
200 dominated, with at least 70% dominance (Table 1). The clear-cut stands had to be harvested during  
201 the previous winter with no mechanical scarification. All stands had a distinctive raw-humus layer and  
202 a characteristic continuous moss layer with patches of *Cladonia* in sub-xeric stands. The growing  
203 stock and structure of the mature stands represented typical Finnish managed forest stands with an  
204 evenly aged structure and minor understory.

205



206 From each stand, samples of three dominant moss and/or lichen species were collected on 17 days  
207 during summer 2003. The days were chosen using FFI values received from the Finnish  
208 Meteorological Institute, so that they would cover different weather and drying conditions (Fig. 2).  
209 Sampling was focused especially on dry and drying periods whereas, during constant wet periods  
210 (which covered the most part of the sampling period), it was not carried out.

211

212 We sampled each stand in the afternoons of the sampling days. On each occasion, five randomly  
213 chosen samples consisting of moss or lichen and raw humus were taken with humus auger with a  
214 diameter of 5.8 cm, height of 10 cm and volume of 264 cm<sup>3</sup>. The samples were taken from a 300 m<sup>2</sup>  
215 circular sample plot and were located at least 30 m from the stand edge. In mesic stands, the sampled  
216 species were: *Pleurozium.schreberi*, *Dicranum spp* (*D. polysetum* being the most abundant) and  
217 *Hylocomium splendens.*, and on sub-xeric stands *Pleurozium*, *Dicranum* and *Cladonia*. (*C.*  
218 *rangiferina* (L.) Weber ex F.H. Wigg. being the most abundant). The third replication of mesic clear-  
219 cut area had an insufficient cover of *Hylocomium*, so only *Pleurozium* and *Dicranum* were sampled.

220

221 Each sample was then divided into two layers: surface and raw humus. Five subsamples of each layer  
222 were pooled into one sample representing the average from that stand. Thus, each sampled stand had  
223 six combined samples: a combined sample of each of the three surface species, and three combined  
224 samples from raw humus under each species. The collective samples were preserved during  
225 transportation in air-tight plastic bags. The fresh-weighing and drying was done directly after  
226 transportation with a minimum of 18 hours of oven-drying at 105 °C. Sufficient drying time was  
227 ensured by experimental dryings before actual sampling. After drying, the samples were weighed and  
228 the dry-weight FMC was determined.

229

### 230 *Data analysis*

231

232 The noon values of FFI and FWI were used in analysis. The FWI values were received from FMI and  
233 calculated according to Van Wagner and Pickett (1985) using weather data from the nearest

234 meteorological station located approximately 4 km south-west of the center of the study area. The  
235 wind values came from the nearest available station, about 25 km north-east of the study area. We  
236 modeled FMC separately for each species, and the surface and raw humus layers, as a function of FFI,  
237 stand type, and the development class. Preliminary analyses showed that the shape of the relationship  
238 between FMC and FFI varied among the species and was often non-linear. We thus used generalized  
239 additive modeling (e.g. Zuur et al. 2009), in which FMC was predicted as a smooth function of FFI.  
240 For the strictly positive data (FMC), we used a Gaussian error distribution and log-link function, and  
241 the smoothers were allowed to vary as a function of developmental stage. To avoid problems with  
242 overfitting and to ensure biologically realistic model behavior, we used monotonically decreasing P-  
243 splines as smoothers and limited their flexibility (number of knots in the splines  $k = 4$ ). To compare  
244 the performance of FFI to the more widely used FWI, we then repeated the analyses, using FWI as the  
245 continuous predictor in place of FFI. The models were compared using pseudo- $R^2$  values for both  
246 (models with FFI and FWI). For model validation (*sensu* Zuur et al. 2009), we visually inspected the  
247 residuals as a function of FMC and each predictor, as well as day of year to ensure there were no  
248 temporal patterns in the residuals (Supplement 2). All models were fitted using R (R Core Team  
249 2019) and the package scam (Pya 2018).

250

251 The observed and predicted days of ignition of surface fuels in different stands were analyzed by  
252 calculating a probability using FMC frequencies. In Fennoscandia, the FMC values for moisture  
253 content of extinction have been estimated to range from 25 to 35 % (Granström and Schimmel 1998;  
254 Tanskanen *et al.* 2005). We used the lower limit since it was considered a more suitable estimate for  
255 the timing of prescribed burnings, which was justified because in prescribed burnings one aim is to  
256 decrease organic material and ensure a sufficient ecological impact (Lindberg *et al.* 2020). The  
257 frequencies over threshold value were compared to all the values of the examined variables or their  
258 combinations. Thus, if for instance *Pleurozium* in sub-xeric clear-cuts had 21 observations under a  
259 25% threshold value of FMC, these 21 were compared to all 51 observations in sub-xeric clear-cuts  
260 resulting in a probability ratio of 41% ( $(21/51) \times 100 = 41\%$ ).

261

262 **Results**

263

264 During the measurement period, the FMC of surface layer varied between 3% and 300% (Fig. 2). The  
265 overall patterns in how the moisture conditions changed during the summer were similar among the  
266 species, sites and site types, but the levels differed greatly among species and sites (Fig. 2). It should  
267 be noted that the weather conditions during summer 2003 were relatively variable with no long dry  
268 periods. This is visible in the distribution of the FFI values, where the highest values (4-6) are  
269 missing, which means that the driest circumstances did not occur during sampling (Fig. 2).

270

271 **Figure 2**

272

273 Of the species, *Dicranum* was generally the moistest and *Cladonia* the driest, whereas *Pleurozium* and  
274 *Hylocomium* were between the two. When modeling the FMC as a function of FFI, stand type and  
275 developmental stage, several patterns were visible in the surface layer. First, there were clear  
276 differences between species in the shape of the relationship between FMC and FFI. *Pleurozium*,  
277 *Hylocomium* and *Cladonia* had a tendency for a steadier decline compared to *Dicranum*, which  
278 retained moisture up to a higher FFI before declining more rapidly in moisture content (Fig. 3). It is  
279 noteworthy that, despite the quick decline at higher FFI values for *Dicranum*, the predicted moisture  
280 content in mature stands stayed above the 25-35% level, considered a threshold of ignition (Fig. 3).  
281 Stand type was not a significant predictor for any of the species in the surface layer (Table 2). The  
282 effect of the developmental stage was significant in the smoother terms only (Table 3, Fig. 4). Plot-  
283 level random effects were significant only for *Pleurozium*.

284

285 For the raw humus layer, the relationship between FFI and fuel moisture content were close to linear  
286 in most cases, and the differences in the smoothers were clearly smaller compared to the surface layer  
287 (Table 2). Similarly, the effect of stand type was different from the surface layer so that, for both  
288 *Pleurozium* and *Dicranum*, the sub-xeric sites were drier than the mesic sites (Table 3). Plot-level

289 random effects were significant only for *Cladonia*. The raw humus variation among the stand types  
290 was lower but clear among the developmental stages and, in all stands, well above the 25-35% level.

291

292 **Table 2**

293 **Table 3**

294 **Figure 3**

295 **Figure 4**

296

297 FWI predicted the FMC of surface layers slightly better than FFI (Table 4). Both models predicted the  
298 FMCs of *Pleurozium* and *Hylocomium* better than *Dicranum* and *Cladonia*. In raw humus, the  
299 prediction ability was clearly lower, and FWI and FFI performed practically equally (Table 4). The  
300 predicted moisture variation curves as a function of FWI are shown in Supplement 3.

301

302 **Table 4**

303

304 The potential fire hazard days (i.e., days during which the FMC values were under 25%) were highest  
305 in *Cladonia* and lowest in *Dicranum* (Table 5). Clear-cut areas and sub-xeric pine stands had more  
306 fire hazard days than mature stands and mesic spruce-stands. The predicted fire hazard days by FFI  
307 formed 6% of sampled days, whereas the observed FMCs of > 25% during the same sampled days  
308 was 28%.

309

310 **Table 5**

311

312 **Discussion**

313

314 Our results showed that the composition of ground floor vegetation has an effect on the flammability  
315 of the surface layer in Fennoscandian boreal forests, and how it varies during the fire season. This  
316 flammability was further modulated by the effect of stand growing stock along the lines shown in

317 earlier studies (Granström and Schimmel 1998; Tanskanen *et al.* 2005; Tanskanen *et al.* 2006). The  
318 differences among species and developmental stages in how the surface layer moisture varied were  
319 prominent. As an example, *Dicranum* in mature stands retained a moisture content well above the 25-  
320 35% threshold of the FFI value of 4 (the threshold for public warning), whereas *Cladonia* was close to  
321 the flammability threshold throughout the range of FFI values included in the sample here.

322

323 The development of moisture content between the surface layer and raw humus was clear. Rain  
324 usually affects the surface layer saturating it rapidly. The raw humus layer receives some moisture,  
325 especially in heavier rains, but dries slowly. However, during longer dry periods, the surface layer and  
326 raw humus dry more thoroughly. Long drought periods did not occur during the sampling period so  
327 the FMCs in such circumstances could not be compared.

328

329 The FMC variation of surface and raw humus layers was great, especially in higher FMCs, which can  
330 be due to several reasons. The same FFI values estimated for a 10 km × 10 km square were used for  
331 all stands, so differences in rainfall between stands may have occurred due to local showers. The  
332 FMCs were determined layer by layer, which overlooks moisture variation within layers. It is known  
333 that the moisture gradient within layers is steep (Vasander and Lindholm 1985), so the upper parts of  
334 the surface layer could be clearly drier than the FMCs observed in this study.

335

336 When considering differences among the species in the surface layer, *Dicranum* was consistently the  
337 moistest, and *Cladonia* the driest. *Pleurozium* and *Hylocomium* were between these two and showed a  
338 relatively similar moisture behavior as presented by Busby and Whitefield (1978). The higher FMCs  
339 and slower drying curve of *Dicranum* is probably due to its dense tomentum-covered structure  
340 (Peterson and Mayo 1975), which leads to a higher moisture retaining capacity. As reported  
341 previously (Mutch and Gastineau 1970; Granström and Schimmel 1998), *Cladonia* was the driest  
342 surface fuel. This is explained by its gelatinous thallus, loose structure and high surface-to-volume  
343 ratio resulting in extreme moisture behavior (Heatwole 1966; Pech 1989, 1991).

344

345 FMC varied among stand types. The results of the FMC variation of the surface layer are in  
346 accordance with previous studies in which the differences between stands correlate with their ground  
347 vegetation flammability (Tanskanen *et al.* 2006). Using 30% threshold values for the FMC of moss  
348 layer, Tanskanen *et al.* (2006) reported two times more potential days of ignition in open than in  
349 mature areas, and in *Pinus*-dominated stands two to three times higher than in *Picea*-dominated  
350 stands. In our study, the differences between clear-cut and mature developmental stages were clear,  
351 but the impact of site type and the associated dominant tree species was smaller.

352 Comparison between the Finnish FFI and Canadian FWI showed that FWI was consistently a better  
353 predictor for the moisture content of the surface layer fuels, irrespective of the species. For the raw  
354 humus layer, the two indices performed almost identically. The better performance of FWI for surface  
355 fuels was similar to what Tanskanen *et al.* (2005) reported. Thus the CFFWIS could well be used in  
356 Finland.

357 Our results support the conclusions of Tanskanen *et al.* (2005) and Vajda *et al.* (2014) suggesting that  
358 FFI could be improved by using forest stand variables. Such parameters as developmental stage and  
359 dominant tree species could likely improve the FFIs prediction ability significantly, which could  
360 eventually help practical fire suppression activities by better anticipation and preparation.

361 Fire history studies in Fennoscandia have reported great variation in fire cycles. The shorter cycles  
362 have been typical in *Pinus*-dominated forests, especially in south- and middle boreal forests (e.g.,  
363 Lehtonen and Kolström 2000), whereas in more northern and *Picea*-dominated forests, the cycle has  
364 been longer (e.g. Wallenius 2004). The differences have been explained by meteorological factors,  
365 dominant tree species, vegetation, fire suppression and general human influence (Wallenius 2004,  
366 2011). According to our results, the differences in reported fire cycles could be partially explained by  
367 dominant tree species and changes in ground floor vegetation, especially in lichen-bryophyte ratio.  
368 For example, the abundance of *Cladonia* has substantially decreased in recent decades in Finland  
369 (Nousiainen 2000; Mäkipää and Heikkinen 2003; Tonteri *et al.* 2013). At the same time, a notable  
370 increase in the abundance of *Dicranum* has been documented especially in Northern Finland  
371 (Mäkipää 2000b). It is possible that reduction in the cover of fast-drying *Cladonia* and increase in the

372 cover of slowly-drying *Dicranum* has partially reduced forest fire risk particularly in Northern  
373 Finland.

374

375 In our study, the large variation of FMC in different stands and ground floor fuel materials show that  
376 potential days for prescribed burnings also have a large variation, especially when the variable  
377 ecological targets of burnings are taken into account. An often presented rule of thumb in guidelines  
378 for prescribed burnings is that the forest fire warning in Finland (FFI value 4) could be considered as  
379 a general threshold for successful burnings (Lemberg and Puttonen 2002). According to our results,  
380 this assumption is too simplistic, since suitable days for prescribed burning also seem to occur with  
381 lower FFI values. Yet it should be noted that the selected level of FMC 25% should be interpreted as a  
382 level where burning of studied surface layer fuels is possible. Thus, the various goals of prescribed  
383 burnings should be taken into account when suitable burning conditions are determined. For instance,  
384 in most restoration burnings no special burning depth is targeted as it is in silvicultural burnings. On  
385 the other hand, denser stands where restoration burnings are performed dry slower than regeneration  
386 areas. Also, if the aim is also to burn the humus layer, long drought periods are needed since the FMC  
387 values of raw humus did not reach the ignition threshold limits within the range of the FFI values we  
388 analyzed. Thus, a stand-specific monitoring of surface fuel and raw humus layer is recommended so  
389 that all potential burning days – whose small number often functions as a limiting factor – could be  
390 utilized more effectively, and the targeted impacts of burnings could be ensured.

391

### 392 *Conclusions*

393 Our results show that the different ground vegetation fuels differ in their moisture variation and  
394 ignition potential. Developmental stage and stand type of the forest affect the moisture variation of the  
395 studied fuels. Canadian FWI predicted the FMC of surface layer better than Finnish FFI, so it could be  
396 used in Finland. We conclude that, by using additional predictor variables, the ability of forest fire  
397 indices to predict fuel moisture could be improved. This could benefit forest fire prevention by  
398 enhancing early warning systems and by developing a GIS-based system providing online stand-wise

399 FMC estimates of surface fuels, which could be utilized in practical firefighting as well as in  
400 prescribed burning.

401

#### 402 **Abbreviations**

403 CFFWIS Canadian Forest Fire Weather Index System

404 DC Drought Code

405 DMC Duff Moisture Code

406 FFI Finnish Forest Fire Index

407 FFMC Fine Fuel Moisture Code

408 FMC Fuel moisture content

409 FMI Finnish Meteorological Institute

410 FWI Canadian Fire Weather Index

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419

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592 **Tables and figure captions**

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594 Table 1. The sampled stands. In clear-cut areas the dominant tree species refers to species of the pre-  
 595 cut stand. Pine: *Pinus sylvestris*, spruce: *Picea abies*, birch: *Betula* spp.

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Stand	Developmental stage	Stand type	Age, years	Average height, meters	Standing stem volume: cubic meters/hectare	Standing tree species percentages by volume (pine/spruce/birch)
SXC1	clear-cut	sub-xeric/pine	0	0	0	-
SXC2	clear-cut	sub-xeric/pine	0	0	0	-
SXC3	clear-cut	sub-xeric/pine	0	0	0	-
SXM1	mature	sub-xeric/pine	90	24	210	90/10/0
SXM2	mature	sub-xeric/pine	120	26	250	100
SXM3	mature	sub-xeric/pine	120	25	240	100
MC1	clear-cut	mesic/spruce	0	0	0	-
MC2	clear-cut	mesic/spruce	0	0	0	-
MC3	clear-cut	mesic/spruce	0	0	0	-
MM1	mature	mesic/spruce	75	26	260	10/80/10
MM2	mature	mesic/spruce	90	28	310	10/90/0
MM3	mature	mesic/spruce	90	27	290	10/90/10

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623 Table 2. Parametric coefficients for factor variables in the models. Estimates for the developmental  
 624 stage (Dev. Stage) are relative to clear-cut area, and site type relative to mesic site type. *Hylocomium*  
 625 and *Cladonia* occurred only on a single type.

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Layer	Species	Variable	Estimate	Std. Error	t	p
Surface	<i>Pleurozium</i>	<b>Intercept</b>	<b>4.75</b>	<b>1.72</b>	<b>2.76</b>	<b>0.006</b> **
		Dev. stage mature forest	2.24	2.42	0.92	0.356
		Site type sub-xeric	-0.23	0.16	-1.47	0.144
Surface	<i>Dicranum</i>	<b>Intercept</b>	<b>5.00</b>	<b>0.90</b>	<b>5.56</b>	<b>&lt; 0.001</b> ***
		Dev. stage mature forest	0.58	0.91	0.64	0.523
		Site type sub-xeric	-0.10	0.10	-0.98	0.327
Surface	<i>Hylocomium</i>	<b>Intercept</b>	<b>3.98</b>	<b>0.23</b>	<b>17.36</b>	<b>&lt; 0.001</b> ***
		Dev. stage mature forest	2.85	2.54	1.12	0.266
Surface	<i>Cladonia</i>	<b>Intercept</b>	<b>3.63</b>	<b>0.17</b>	<b>21.11</b>	<b>&lt; 0.001</b> ***
		Dev. stage mature forest	2.13	2.58	0.82	0.412
Raw humus	<i>Pleurozium</i>	<b>Intercept</b>	<b>5.39</b>	<b>0.21</b>	<b>26.01</b>	<b>&lt; 0.001</b> ***
		Dev. stage mature forest	0.13	0.35	0.36	0.719
		<b>Site type sub-xeric</b>	<b>-0.20</b>	<b>0.05</b>	<b>-4.24</b>	<b>&lt; 0.001</b> ***
Raw humus	<i>Dicranum</i>	<b>Intercept</b>	<b>4.96</b>	<b>0.41</b>	<b>12.16</b>	<b>&lt; 0.001</b> ***
		Dev. stage mature forest	0.73	0.51	1.43	0.156
		<b>Site type sub-xeric</b>	<b>-0.16</b>	<b>0.06</b>	<b>-2.44</b>	<b>0.016</b> *
Raw humus	<i>Hylocomium</i>	<b>Intercept</b>	<b>5.30</b>	<b>0.37</b>	<b>14.50</b>	<b>&lt; 0.001</b> ***
		Dev. stage mature forest	0.43	0.47	0.92	0.363
Raw humus	<i>Cladonia</i>	<b>Intercept</b>	<b>4.76</b>	<b>0.09</b>	<b>54.53</b>	<b>&lt; 0.001</b> ***
		Dev. stage mature forest	0.62	0.28	2.24	0.027 *

Significant variables ( $p < 0.05$ ) are in bold

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Table 3. Significance of smoother terms and plot-level random effects

Layer	Species	Smoother term	F	p
Surface	<i>Pleurozium</i>	<b>s(FFI) x Dev. stage clearcut</b>	<b>32.18</b>	<b>&lt; 0.001</b> ***
		<b>s(FFI) x Dev. stage mature forest</b>	<b>27.33</b>	<b>&lt; 0.001</b> ***
		<b>plot (random effect)</b>	<b>3.09</b>	<b>&lt; 0.001</b> ***
	<i>Dicranum</i>	<b>s(FFI) x Dev. stage clearcut</b>	<b>27.37</b>	<b>&lt; 0.001</b> ***
		<b>s(FFI) x Dev. stage mature forest</b>	<b>29.96</b>	<b>&lt; 0.001</b> ***
		plot (random effect)	0.04	0.393
	<i>Hylocomium</i>	<b>s(FFI) x Dev. stage clearcut</b>	<b>15.18</b>	<b>&lt; 0.001</b> ***
		<b>s(FFI) x Dev. stage mature forest</b>	<b>12.75</b>	<b>&lt; 0.001</b> ***
		plot (random effect)	0.31	0.326
	<i>Cladonia</i>	<b>s(FFI) x Dev. stage clearcut</b>	<b>28.54</b>	<b>&lt; 0.001</b> ***
		<b>s(FFI) x Dev. stage mature forest</b>	<b>11.76</b>	<b>&lt; 0.001</b> ***
		plot (random effect)	0.00	0.841
Raw humus	<i>Pleurozium</i>	<b>s(FFI) x Dev. stage clearcut</b>	<b>11.07</b>	<b>&lt; 0.001</b> **
		s(FFI) x Dev. stage mature forest	2.49	0.111
		plot (random effect)	0.19	0.366
	<i>Dicranum</i>	<b>s(FFI) x Dev. stage clearcut</b>	<b>5.93</b>	<b>0.004</b> **
		s(FFI) x Dev. stage mature forest	2.36	0.118
		<b>plot (random effect)</b>	<b>1.73</b>	<b>0.023</b> *
	<i>Hylocomium</i>	s(FFI) x Dev. stage clearcut	3.66	0.060
		<b>s(FFI) x Dev. stage mature forest</b>	<b>6.77</b>	<b>0.011</b> *
		plot (random effect)	0.00	0.815
	<i>Cladonia</i>	<b>s(FFI) x Dev. stage clearcut</b>	<b>30.09</b>	<b>&lt; 0.001</b> ***
		<b>s(FFI) x Dev. stage mature forest</b>	<b>5.18</b>	<b>0.026</b> *
		<b>plot (random effect)</b>	<b>2.84</b>	<b>0.017</b> *

Significant variables ( $p < 0.05$ ) are in bold

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652 Table 4. Performance of the Finnish Forest Fire Index (FFI) compared to the Canadian Fire Weather  
 653 Index (FWI) as a predictor of FMC in different layers, measured as pseudo-R<sup>2</sup>.

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Surface layer	FFI	FWI
	R <sup>2</sup>	R <sup>2</sup>
<i>Pleurozium</i>	0.55	0.64
<i>Dicranum</i>	0.46	0.54
<i>Hylocomium</i>	0.6	0.69
<i>Cladonia</i>	0.45	0.52
Raw humus	FFI	FWI
	R <sup>2</sup>	R <sup>2</sup>
<i>Pleurozium</i>	0.26	0.25
<i>Dicranum</i>	0.36	0.34
<i>Hylocomium</i>	0.35	0.36
<i>Cladonia</i>	0.42	0.34

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671 Table 5. The potential fire hazard days (defined as fuel moisture content values under 25%) of studied  
 672 surface layer materials, stand types and developmental stages. (MT= mesic stand, SX= sub-xeric  
 673 stand, C=clear-cut area, M=mature stand, FFI pred = the potential days of ignition predicted by  
 674 Finnish Forest Fire Index (FFI), index values > 4)

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	MTC	MTM	SXC	SXM	MT	SX	C	M	FFI pred	Total
<i>Pleurozium</i>	54 %	8 %	41 %	31 %	28 %	36 %	47 %	20 %	6 %	32 %
<i>Dicranum</i>	32 %	0 %	27 %	8 %	14 %	18 %	29 %	4 %	6 %	16 %
<i>Hylocomium</i>	54 %	4 %			22 %		54 %	4 %	6 %	22 %
<i>Cladonia</i>			71 %	20 %		45 %	71 %	20 %	6 %	45 %
Total	45 %	4 %	46 %	20 %	21 %	33 %	46 %	12 %	6 %	28 %
FFI > 4									6 %	
FFI < 4									94 %	

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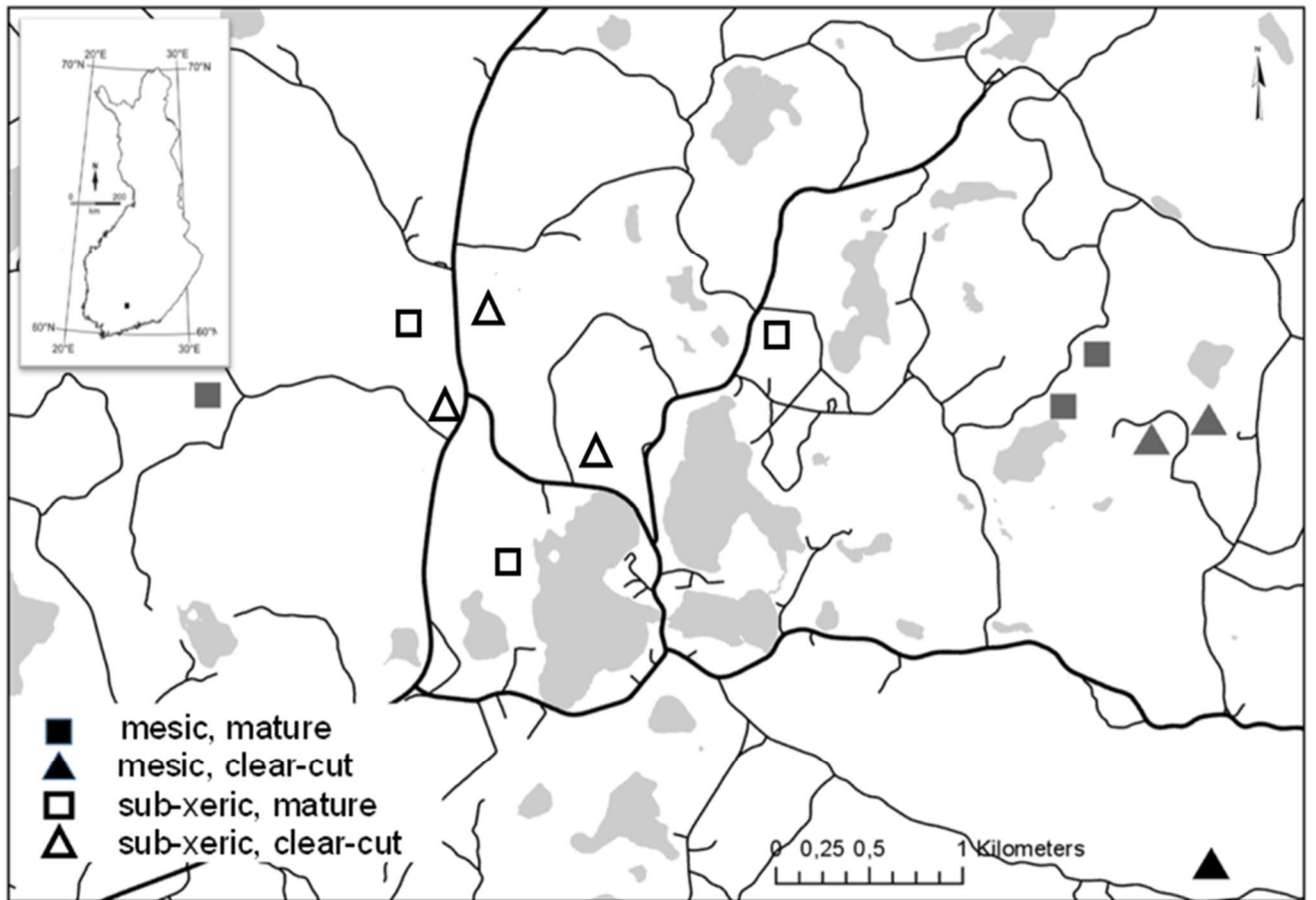
681 Figure 1. Location of sampled stands

682 Figure 2. The observed fuel moisture contents (FMC) and Finnish Forest Fire Index (FFI) values on  
 683 sampling days. Note the different y-axes.

684 Figure 3. The predicted fuel moisture content (%) of each studied species, by stand type and  
 685 developmental stage, as a function of Finnish Forest Fire Index (FFI). Dotted lines show the 25-35%  
 686 moisture content.

687 Figure 4. The predicted fuel moisture content (%) by studied species, as a function of Finnish Forest  
 688 Fire Index (FFI) on different stand types and developmental stages. Dotted lines show the 25-35%  
 689 moisture content.

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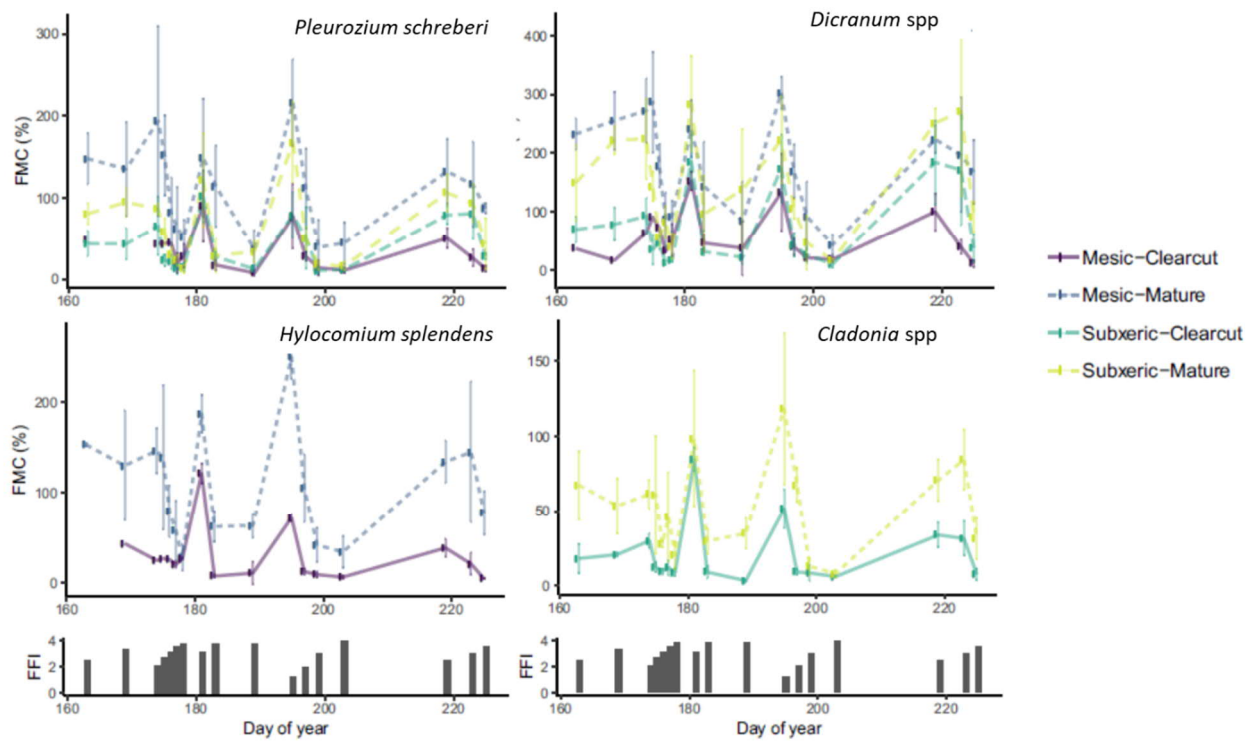
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692 **Figure 1.**

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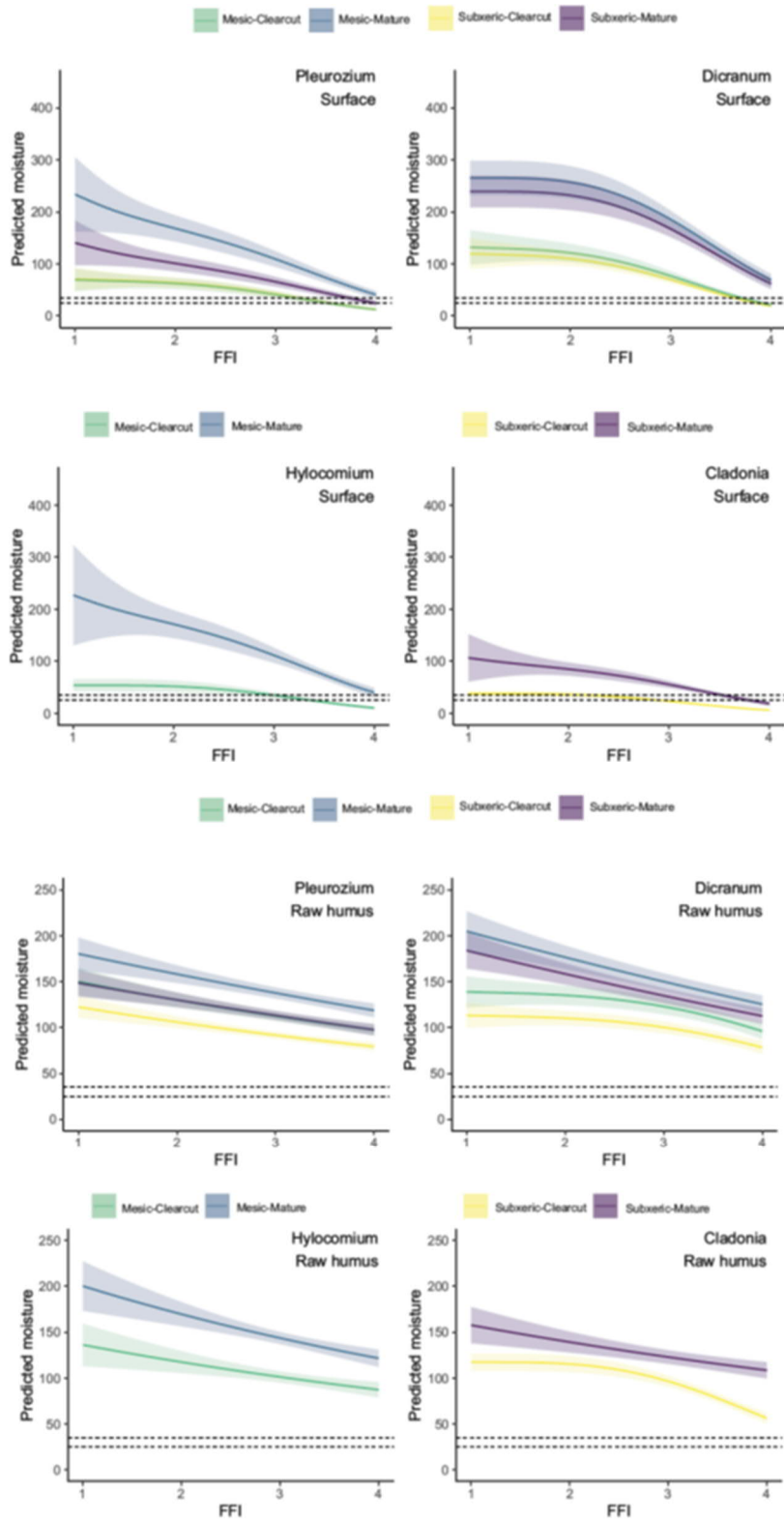
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698 **Figure 2.**

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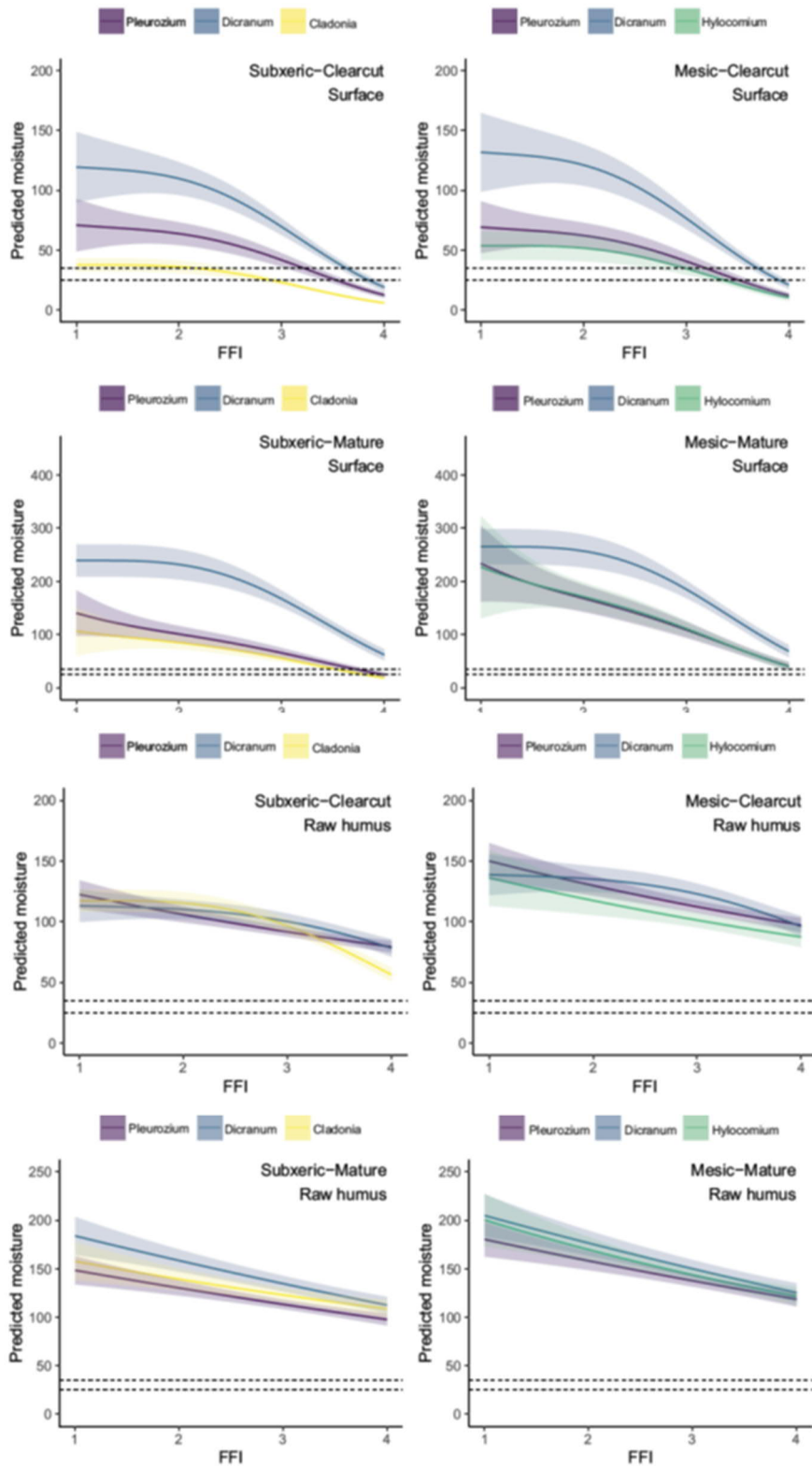
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704 **Figure 3.**



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707 **Figure 4.**

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