

1 **Models for predicting fire ignition probability in graminoids**
2 **from boreo-temperate moorland ecosystems**

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11 **Running title:** Fire ignition in boreo-temperate graminoids

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13 **Summary:** There is an increase in dead fuel of graminoids after winter in boreo-
14 temperate ecosystems. This dead fuel and its low moisture content play an important
15 role in determining initial fire ignition. Here, we assess the probability of ignition as
16 function of the dead fuel moisture content, which assists in improving fire predictions.

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20 **Abstract**

21 It is predicted an increase in both the frequency and severity of wildfires in boreo-
22 temperate ecosystems. Therefore, in order to develop efficient fire rating systems,
23 relationships between the fuel moisture content (FMC) of vegetation and ignition
24 thresholds need to be determined. We developed fire ignition probability models for
25 three graminoid species collected in central England, but common in boreo-temperate
26 ecosystems (*Eriophorum angustifolium*, *E. vaginatum* and *Molinia caerulea*).
27 Specifically, we assessed through laboratory experiments: (1) seasonal differences
28 between early-spring and late-summer in fuel traits such as height, fuel load, fuel bulk
29 density and dead fuel load proportion, and (2) the role of these fuel traits, environmental
30 conditions and dead FMC in determining the probability of ignition. There were
31 seasonal differences in fuel traits between species, with an increase in dead fuel load
32 proportion after winter. The dead FMC was the only variable determining initial
33 sustained ignitions. However, the seasonal differences in dead fuel were not sufficient to
34 affect the FMC threshold at which graminoids start to ignite. Graminoids start to ignite
35 at high levels of dead FMC, and there are differences between species (from 36.1% to
36 48.1%). This work assists in improving fire ignition predictions in graminoid-dominated
37 ecosystems by providing warnings based on critical moisture thresholds.

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39 **Keywords:** dead fuel, flammability, fuel moisture content, seasonal variation, wild fire

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45 **Introduction**

46 Current predictions of climate change suggest that summers will be drier and hotter in
47 boreo-temperate ecosystems leading, to an increase in both the frequency and severity
48 of wildfires (Albertson *et al.* 2009; Krawchuk *et al.* 2009). Policy-makers and land
49 managers should, therefore, adopt strategies to minimize possible ecosystem damage.
50 An important goal is to establish relationships between fuel moisture content (FMC)
51 and ignition thresholds (Plucinski *et al.* 2010; Santana and Marris 2014), as well as to
52 incorporate them into efficient fire rating systems (van Wagner 1987; Aguado *et al.*
53 2007; Matthews 2014).

54 A factor affecting ignition probability is vegetation type. On British moors, we have
55 already derived ignition response curves for a range of contrasting shrub species
56 (*Calluna vulgaris* (L.) Hull, *Empetrum nigrum* L., *Ulex europaeus* L. and *Vaccinium*
57 *myrtillus* L.), mosses (*Sphagnum* spp. L.) and peat (Santana and Marris 2014). However,
58 large parts of these ecosystems have a graminoid component, inter-mixed mainly in *C.*
59 *vulgaris* heathlands and *Sphagnum*-dominated bogs, as well as covering large areas
60 where they are the dominant species (Phillips 1954; Wein 1973; Taylor *et al.* 2001;
61 Marris *et al.* 2004). Here, we use the term graminoid to describe three dominant species;
62 i.e., two species in the Cyperaceae (*Eriophorum angustifolium* Honck. and *E.*
63 *vaginatum* L.) and one grass in the Poaceae (*Molinia caerulea* (L.) Moench). Despite
64 the wet conditions where these species dominate, wildfires are frequent in early-spring
65 and late-summer because the seasonal variation of dead fuels (Davies and Legg 2008;
66 Albertson *et al.* 2009; McMorrow 2011). In spring, leaves are dessicated as
67 consequence of the frost damage caused in winter (Robertson and Woolhouse 1984);
68 therefore, when the weather begins to warm up the probability of fire ignition increases.
69 Nonetheless, as the season progresses through summer, the graminoid leaf material

70 starts to “green-up” lowering the likelihood of fire. Only at the end of summer, and
71 where there has been several weeks of severe drought, does the probability of ignition
72 increase again (Albertson *et al.* 2009).

73 Relatively little is known about the response to fire of graminoids in boreo-temperate
74 ecosystems, but research in other fire-prone areas have pointed out their high
75 flammability (Gantaume *et al.* 2010; Santana *et al.* 2011). Graminoids ignite easily, and
76 once the fire starts, they can exhibit high rates of both fire spread and fire intensity
77 (Cheney and Sullivan 1997). Moreover, grasses/graminoids usually contain large
78 proportions of dead fuel load, which may respond very quickly to changing, dry
79 environmental conditions (de Groot *et al.* 2005). Therefore, in order to predict the
80 probability of ignition in graminoids from boreo-temperate ecosystems, it is essential to
81 measure the possible effects of these different fuel structural traits, as well as their
82 interactions with the growing season.

83 In this paper we develop fire ignition probability models for the three graminoids
84 common in boreo-temperate ecosystems: i.e. *E. angustifolium*, *E. vaginatum* and *M.*
85 *caerulea*. Specifically, we carried out a series of laboratory experiments and assessed:
86 (1) seasonal differences between early-spring and late-summer in fuel structural traits
87 such as height, fuel load, fuel bulk density and dead fuel proportion, and (2) the role of
88 these fuel traits, environmental conditions and dead fuel moisture in determining the
89 probability of ignition. We hypothesized that the proportion of dead fuel would be
90 greater in early-spring compared to late-autumn, thus leading to fire ignition at higher
91 FMC values. This work, therefore, can assist in improving the predictions of fire danger
92 rating-systems, by providing better warnings based on critical moisture thresholds in
93 graminoid-dominated ecosystems.

94

95 **Methods**

96 *Site description and field sampling*

97 Plant material was collected from the Peak District Natural Park (53°18'N, 1°43'W) in
98 Central England in both early-spring (20th March 2014) and late-summer (26th August-
99 16th September 2013). Samples of *E. angustifolium*, *E. vaginatum* and *M. caerulea* were
100 collected by complete excavation of 15 tussocks for each species with underlying soil
101 intact in each season. The sampling area where tussocks were extracted was
102 approximately of one hectare, and a minimum distance of five meters was left between
103 selected tussocks. The sampled material was then transported to the laboratory for
104 processing where they were maintained. Tussocks were kept alive in the laboratory
105 because were extracted with their roots within an underlying peat/soil core.

106

107 *Laboratory preparation of the fuel-beds*

108 In order to standardize the ignition experiments, a *ca.* 20 × 20 cm square was cut from
109 each tussock and burned in our ignition tests (Figure S1 in supplementary material).
110 This size has been considered sufficient to provide initial sustained ignitions in
111 laboratory experiments (de Groot *et al.* 2005; Plucinski *et al.* 2010; Santana and Marrs
112 2014). In addition, a 5 × 20 cm strip was cut in a standard way next to each sampled
113 square to assess: (i) the total amount of fuel and the proportion of dead fuel, and (ii) the
114 FMC of both dead and live fuel. The green and dead fuel within this strip was cut
115 manually, separated, and weighed before and after oven-drying at 80°C for two days.
116 FMC was then determined separately as the percentage of dry mass. The fuel bulk
117 density of each square was then calculated by dividing the estimated amount of dry fuel
118 (kg m^{-2}) by the average height of the fuel within the rectangle.

119 A range of dead fuel moisture contents were created for each species; this was
120 achieved by saturating the vegetation by immersion, and then allowing it to dry for
121 several days under laboratory conditions to produce test fuel beds with a range of FMC.
122 Ignition tests started two days after the immersions and approximately 10 days were
123 needed to obtain the complete range of dead FMC tested. Green fuels did not experience
124 high moisture variations because they were kept alive until the ignition test was
125 performed (i.e., the tussock was rooted to the underlying peat/soil).

126

127 *Experimental conditions, ignition source and ignition tests*

128 All ignition experiments were performed within a glasshouse with a temperature of 21.9
129 $\pm 5.1^\circ\text{C}$ (Mean \pm SD, $n=90$) and a relative humidity of $40.2 \pm 9.3\%$. A domestic fan was
130 used to provide a constant air flow of $0.3 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ (measured with an anemometer-Viking
131 ART 02041, Sweden) in the central point of the square. The incidence of wind in these
132 types of experiments has an increasing effect in igniting fuel beds (Marino *et al.* 2010);
133 therefore, wind speed was minimal to provide conservative estimates of ignition
134 probability. Air-flow was supplied at angle of 45° (Santana and Marrs 2014).

135 A flaming source was used for ignition tests using commercial kerosene pills
136 designed for barbecues (Zip, Standard Brands, UK). The pills were rectangular (19×17
137 $\times 12 \text{ mm}$; $L \times W \times W$). The flaming ignition source, when lit, remained on fire for 383
138 $\pm 32 \text{ s}$ (mean \pm SD, $n=6$) and the flames reached a maximum height of $101 \pm 7 \text{ mm}$ (see
139 Santana and Marrs 2014). Our method aimed to simulate small human ignitions.

140 To perform the ignition tests, the pill was lit and placed at the front side of the grass
141 square. Sustained ignition was considered successful if fire reached the opposite side of
142 the square (20 cm, Figure S1). The distance from the ignition point to the bottom edge
143 allowed enough fire development to demonstrate sustainable ignition (de Groot *et al.*

144 2005; Plucinski *et al.* 2010; Santana and Marrs 2014). Fifteen tests were performed for
145 each species and season. The proportion of fuel consumed in each test was estimated
146 visually.

147

148 *Statistical analysis*

149 Seasonal differences in fuel structural traits were analyzed by using the student's *t*-test.
150 The probability of sustained ignition for each species was modelled using Generalized
151 Linear Models (GLM) with a binomial error distribution and a logit-link function
152 (Crawley 2012). Initially, we considered dead FMC, green FMC, air temperature,
153 relative humidity, season, height, fuel bulk density, green fuel load, dead fuel load and
154 proportion of dead fuel as predictor variables. Starting from the full interaction model,
155 the minimal adequate GLM was obtained by sequential removal of non-significant
156 model terms (Analysis of deviance, F tests, $P > 0.05$; Crawley 2012). Goodness of fit was
157 measured using Nagelkerke's pseudo R^2 statistic, and the discriminative ability of the
158 models over a range of cut-off points was assessed using the area under the Receiver
159 Operating Characteristic (ROC) (Hosmer and Lemeshow 2000). However, because only
160 the dead fraction FMC was selected as a significant variable for all three species, the
161 FMC at which 50% of ignitions were successful (M_{50}) was estimated for each species
162 and used as the fire ignition threshold (Plucinski *et al.* 2010; Santana and Marrs 2014).
163 The maximum FMC at which successful ignition occurred (M_{max}) was also estimated.
164 All statistical analyses were performed in the R statistical environment (version 2.14.2.,
165 Development Core Team 2012, Vienna).

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169 **Results**

170 There were seasonal differences in the fuel structure of the three species (Figure 1). *M.*
171 *caerulea* had a lower height in early-spring whereas *E. vaginatum* was lower in late-
172 summer. No difference in height was found for *E. angustifolium* between seasons
173 (Figure 1a). Dead fuel load increased in *E. vaginatum* and *M. caerulea* in spring,
174 whereas green fuel load in *M. caerulea* decreased (Table 2). Total fuel load increased in
175 *E. vaginatum* in spring, and Green FMC was higher in spring for *M. caerulea* (Table 2).
176 The fuel bulk density remained constant between seasons for the three species (Figure
177 1b), but the proportion of the vegetation load present as dead fuel increased in spring for
178 all three species (Figure 1c).

179 The probability of sustained ignition was related to the dead FMC for all the three
180 species as it was the only variable selected as significant within the GLM models (Table
181 1, Figure 2). There were no significant effects of seasonal variation in fuel structure. Air
182 temperature and relative humidity were also not selected because they were relatively
183 constant during the ignition tests, as well as height, fuel load, bulk density and dead fuel
184 proportion (Table 2). M_{50} values were similar for *M. caerulea* and *E. angustifolium*
185 (ca.48%) but *E. vaginatum* was lower (36%) (Table 1, Figure 2). M_{max} values were
186 similar for all three species ranging between 52 and 56% (Table 1).

187 Fuel consumption varied among species when successful ignition occurred.
188 Proportionally to the total fuel load, *E. vaginatum* experienced the highest consumption
189 (mean±SE: 58.6±4.7 %, n=12), followed by *E. angustifolium* (50.2±3.1%, n=12) and *M.*
190 *caerulea* (45.1±2.1%, n=15).

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194 **Discussion**

195 There were seasonal differences in fuel structure of the three graminoid species (*E.*
196 *angustifolium*, *E. vaginatum* and *M. caerulea*). Two species showed differences in
197 height and dead fuel load, and all showed an increased proportion of dead fuel in early-
198 spring. The spring increase is probably a result of low winter temperatures; i.e., air
199 temperatures in this region fall well below 0°C in winter and can promote tissue damage
200 and leaf death (Davies and Legg 2008). This damage can be accentuated when the soil
201 freezes as this restricts water uptake from the root system when evaporative demand is
202 high (Robertson and Woolhouse 1984). Life-history traits also accentuate differences
203 between species; *M. caerulea* accumulates greater amounts of dead fuel because all its
204 green tissues die in winter (Taylor *et al.* 2001). In contrast, shoots in *E. vaginatum* and
205 *E. angustifolium* are able to survive winter frosts, although tissue damage can occur
206 (Phillips 1954; Wein 1973). Therefore, the key role of dead FMC in initial sustained
207 ignitions found in this work suggests that the increase in dead fuel in early-spring might
208 influence wildfire incidence. In fact, it has been recorded that outbreaks of “grassland
209 fires” in British ecosystems occurs mainly in April-May (Albertson *et al.* 2009;
210 McMorrow 2011).

211 Our results from these three graminoid species showed that the dead FMC was the
212 most important variable in determining ignition probability, confirming results for
213 grasses from other ecosystems (de Groot *et al.* 2005; Dimitrakopoulos *et al.* 2010;
214 Gantaume *et al.* 2010). The FMC of dead fuels is determined mostly by meteorological
215 conditions, and can fall quicker than green fuels below ignition thresholds (de Groot *et*
216 *al.* 2005; Matthews 2014). However, our initial hypothesis, that there would be seasonal
217 differences in M_{50} was not supported. Whilst there were differences in dead fuel
218 proportion within the vegetation, it appears that the absolute amounts were not

219 sufficiently different to affect ignition. Similar results were found by Santana and Marrs
220 (2014) in laboratory simulations for the shrub *C. vulgaris*. It was suggested that when
221 the flame plume is long enough to contact vertically and horizontally with sufficient
222 dead fuel, it can start sustained ignitions independently of the dead fuel proportion
223 (Santana and Marrs 2014). In contrast, in the same study, ignition through smouldering
224 sources simulating cigarettes ends or embers were indeed influenced by the dead fuel
225 proportion. With smouldering sources, contact with fuel is restricted to the surface area
226 of the source and higher densities and proportions of dead fuel may be needed to
227 produce the initial flame at higher FMC (Santana and Marrs 2014). Therefore, although
228 no differences were found between seasons for flaming ignition sources, further studies
229 are needed to test whether this probability is variable with respect to the nature of the
230 ignition source.

231 The dead FMC at which 50% of the ignition were successful in the studied species
232 was high (M_{50} ca. 36-48%) in comparison to other vegetation types typical from British
233 ecosystems. These values are larger than other components of moorland systems, e.g.
234 the litter of the main shrub species *C. vulgaris*, *Sphagnum* mosses and peat (M_{50} ca. 19-
235 35%; Table S1) (Santana and Marrs 2014). Similarly, the probability of ignition was
236 also greater than in *Calluna* vegetation with dead fuel proportions up to 60% (M_{50} ca.
237 30%, Table S1) (Santana and Marrs 2014). This fact, therefore, highlights the graminoid
238 component as one of the most fire-prone vegetation types in boreo-temperate
239 ecosystems.

240 It is worth noting that M_{50} values observed in this work for *E. vaginatum* (36.1%)
241 were similar to those observed in grasses from other studies elsewhere in the world
242 which varied between 35-38% (Table S1) (Burrows *et al.* 1991; de Groot *et al.* 2005;
243 Dimitrakopoulos *et al.* 2010). However, the M_{50} values for *M. caerulea* and *E.*

244 *angustifolium* observed here were much greater (48.1% and 47.8% respectively). This
245 may be a consequence of the heterogeneous distribution of the dead FMC throughout
246 their vertical structures. In this experiment, complete tussocks of grasses containing wet
247 peat soil were used; accordingly, the lower part of vegetation was in contact with the
248 peat and was maintained at higher moisture contents than the upper parts which were
249 isolated from the peat in contact with drier air. It is likely that the upper parts in the
250 drier conditions were at the point where sustained ignitions could occur, leaving the rest
251 unaffected. This fact may explain the low fuel consumptions observed in this
252 experiment (45-59%).

253 The M_{50} values for *M. caerulea* are of particular concern as they are greater than all
254 other moorland components tested. Given the large areas dominated by this species in
255 the United Kingdom (Bardgett et al. 1995), it is clearly a high-risk species for initiating
256 wildfire. One strategy to mitigate this risk would be to increase the conversion of *M.*
257 *caerulea*-dominated land to a more-mixed species moorland with a greater shrub
258 component (Marrs et al, 2004; Milligan et al. 2004).

259 When interpreting the results of this study it is essential to note that it is an initial
260 laboratory study, and these results need to be complemented, on the one hand, with
261 more laboratory work testing different environmental conditions and, on the other hand,
262 with studies under realistic field conditions. For example, it would be interesting to
263 determine the importance of relative humidity and air temperature, since in this work
264 experiments were performed within a relatively low range for both variables.
265 Furthermore, here, we assess the probability of initial sustained ignition at a small scale,
266 which later can develop in a larger-scale fire. Future experimental fires under field
267 conditions are needed to corroborate the fuel moisture levels and environmental
268 conditions needed to produce fires at larger scales. We showed that graminoids started

269 to ignite at high levels of dead FMC (36-48%), producing superficial fires with low
270 consumption levels; but it is possible that lower values of moisture are needed to obtain
271 sustained and more intense wildfires at large scales.

272

273 **Conclusions**

274 Three important results were reported in this work. First, there were seasonal
275 differences in height among species, with a marked increase in the dead fuel proportion
276 in early spring. Second, the dead fuel moisture content of these graminoids played the
277 most important role in determining initial sustained ignition. However, the seasonal
278 differences in dead fuel load proportion observed here were not sufficient to affect the
279 dead FMC threshold at which graminoids start to ignite. Third, these graminoids can
280 start to ignite at high levels of dead FMC, but they produce superficial fires with low
281 consumption levels. The M_{50} values differed between species, since *E. vaginatum*
282 (36.1%) had lower values than *M. caerulea* and *E. angustifolium* (48.1% and 47.8%
283 respectively). This work, therefore, helps in improving the future forecasting of fire
284 ignition in boreo-temperate grasslands, where the incidence of fire is expected to
285 increase in the next few decades as a consequence of global climate change.

286

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292

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294 **References**

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TABLES

Table 1. GLM models relating the probability of sustained ignition in relation to dead fuel moisture content (FMC) in three different species of graminoids from British upland moorland ecosystems.

Species	Tests (n)	Sustained ignitions	M ₅₀	M _{max}	Model parameters					Pseudo R ²	ROC area	
					Predictor	Estimate	SE	z-value	Odds ratio			P
<i>E. angustifolium</i>	30	12	47.8	52.7	Intercept	6.69	2.59	2.58		0.009	0.4	0.92
					FMC	-0.14	0.05	-2.72	0.86	0.006		
<i>E. vaginatum</i>	30	12	36.1	56.3	Intercept	3.25	1.51	2.15		0.031	0.21	0.74
					FMC	-0.09	0.04	-2.42	0.91	0.015		
<i>M. caerulea</i>	30	15	48.1	53.7	Intercept	9.15	3.43	2.67		0.008	0.42	0.91
					FMC	-0.19	0.07	-2.76	0.83	0.006		

Table 2. Seasonal differences in fuel moisture content (FMC) and fuel load of dead and green fuels during the ignition experiments (student's *t*-test). Mean and standard deviation are shown (n =15).

Species	Season	Total fuel load (kg m ⁻²)	Dead fuel load (kg m ⁻²)	Green fuel load (kg m ⁻²)	Dead FMC (%)	Green FMC (%)
<i>E. angustifolium</i>	Summer	0.7 ± 0.4	0.2 ± 0.1	0.4 ± 0.3	55 ± 17	64 ± 6
	Spring	0.6 ± 0.2	0.3 ± 0.2	0.3 ± 0.1	50 ± 16	66 ± 7
	t	0.621	1.81	-1.134	0.781	-0.801
	p-value	0.541	0.085	0.266	0.441	0.429
<i>E. vaginatum</i>	Summer	2.0 ± 1.1	1.0 ± 0.7	1.0 ± 0.5	38 ± 17	59 ± 4
	Spring	3.2 ± 1.3	2.4 ± 1.2	0.8 ± 0.3	46 ± 11	60 ± 4
	t	-2.679	-3.973	1.379	-1.635	-0.345
	p-value	0.012	<0.001	0.181	0.114	0.732
<i>M. caerulea</i>	Summer	2.9 ± 1.9	1.2 ± 0.7	1.7 ± 1.4	43 ± 15	50 ± 7
	Spring	2.1 ± 0.9	2.0 ± 0.9	0.1 ± 0.1	51 ± 12	80 ± 11
	t	1.348	4.3	-2.825	-1.662	-8.793
	p-value	0.191	<0.001	0.008	0.108	<0.001

FIGURES

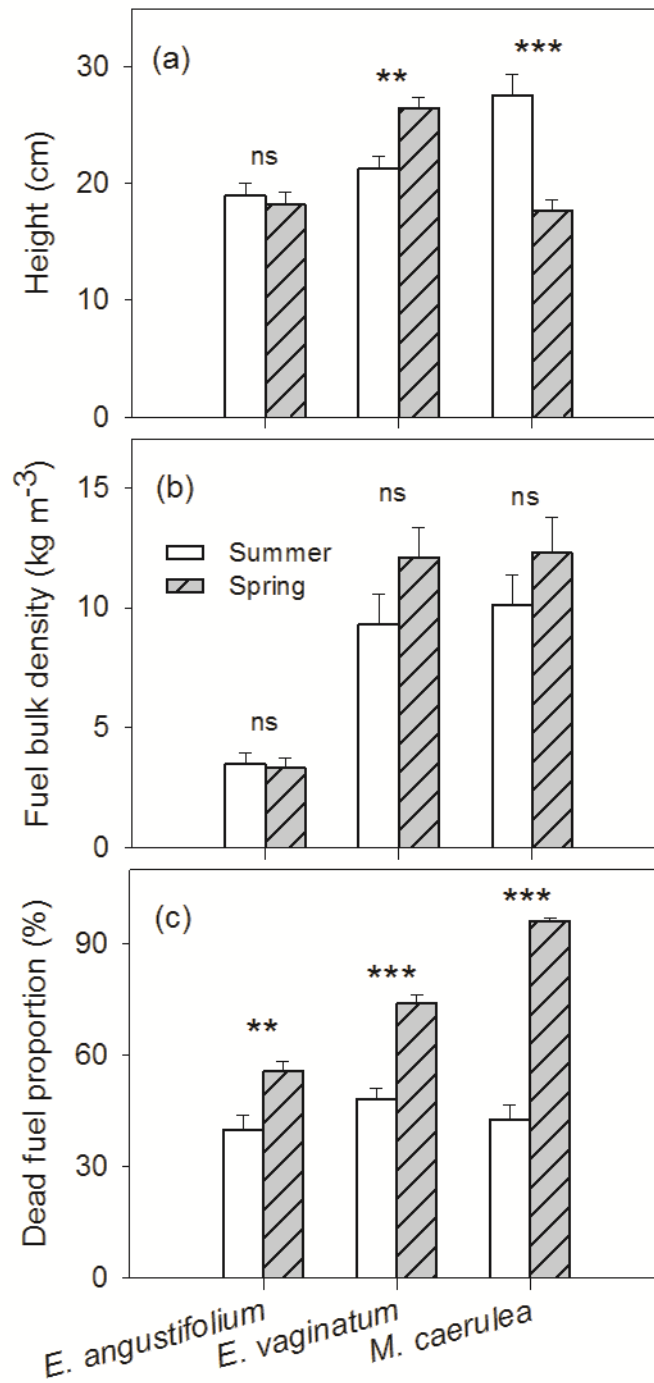


Figure 1. Fuel structural traits for three graminoid species typical of boreo-temperate ecosystems in two different seasons (early-spring and late-summer). Three different traits are shown: (a) total height, (b) fuel bulk density, and (c) dead fuel proportion load. Error bars denotes standard error (n=15). Significance: ns= non-significant, ** <math>P < 0.01</math>, *** <math>P < 0.001</math>.

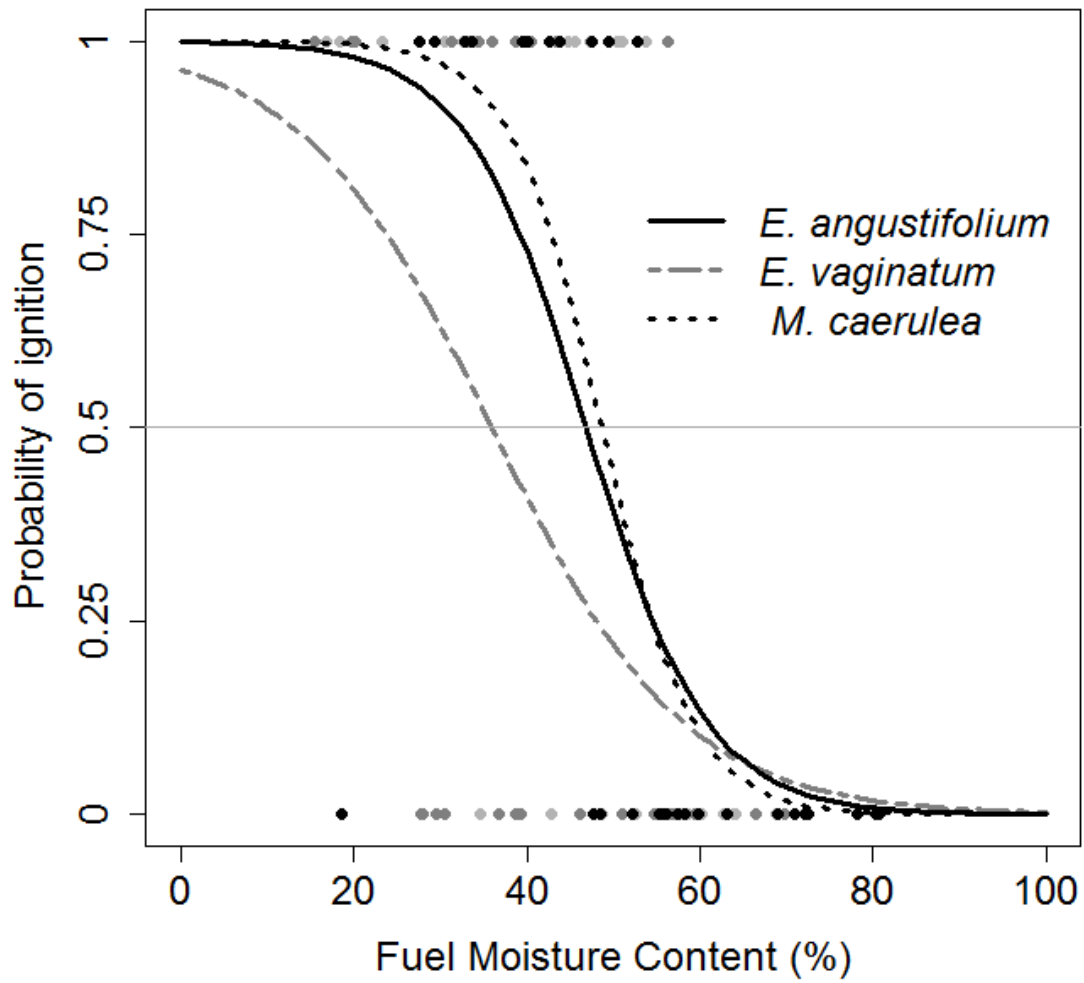


Figure 2. Generalized Linear models (GLM) showing the probability of ignition in three graminoids typical of boreo-temperate ecosystems as a function of dead fuel moisture content.