

# 1 Biomass burning fuel consumption rates: A field 2 measurement database

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## 1 Abstract

2 Landscape fires show large variability in the amount of biomass or fuel consumed per  
3 unit area burned. Fuel consumption (FC) depends on the biomass available to burn  
4 and the fraction of the biomass that is actually combusted, and can be combined with  
5 estimates of area burned to assess emissions. While burned area can be detected from  
6 space and estimates are becoming more reliable due to improved algorithms and  
7 sensors, FC is usually modeled or taken selectively from the literature. We compiled  
8 the peer-reviewed literature on FC for various biomes and fuel categories to better  
9 understand FC and its variability, and to provide a database that can be used to  
10 constrain biogeochemical models with fire modules. We compiled in total 77 studies  
11 covering 11 biomes including savanna (15 studies, average FC of 4.6 t DM (dry  
12 matter) ha<sup>-1</sup> with a standard deviation of 2.2), tropical forest (n=19, FC=126±77),  
13 temperate forest (n=12, FC=58±72), boreal forest (n=16, FC=35±24), pasture (n=4,  
14 FC=28±9.3), shifting cultivation (n=2, FC=23, with a range of 4.0 - 43), crop residue  
15 (n=4, FC=6.5±9.0), chaparral (n=3, FC=27±19), tropical peatland (n=4,  
16 FC=314±196), boreal peatland (n=2, FC=42 [42-43]), and tundra (n=1, FC=40).  
17 Within biomes the regional variability in the number of measurements was sometimes  
18 large, with e.g. only 3 measurement locations in boreal Russia and 35 sites in North  
19 America. Substantial regional differences in FC were found within the defined  
20 biomes: for example FC of temperate pine forests in the USA was 37% lower than  
21 Australian forests dominated by eucalypt trees. Besides showing the differences  
22 between biomes, FC estimates were also grouped into different fuel classes. Our  
23 results highlight the large variability in FC, not only between biomes but also within  
24 biomes and fuel classes. This implies that substantial uncertainties are associated with  
25 using biome-averaged values to represent FC for whole biomes. Comparing the  
26 compiled FC values with co-located Global Fire Emissions Database version 3  
27 (GFED3) FC indicates that modeling studies that aim to represent variability in FC  
28 also within biomes still require improvements as they have difficulty in representing  
29 the dynamics governing FC.  
30

## 1 1. Introduction

2 Landscape fires occur worldwide in all biomes except deserts, with frequencies  
3 depending mostly on type of vegetation, climate, and human activities (Crutzen, 1990;  
4 Cooke and Wilson, 1996; Andreae and Merlet, 2001; Bowman et al., 2009). The  
5 amount of fire-related research is increasing, partly due to improved abilities to  
6 monitor fires around the world using satellite data and appreciation of the important  
7 role of fires in the climate system and for air quality (Bowman et al., 2009, Johnston  
8 et al., 2012). Studies focusing on the effects of fires on the atmosphere require  
9 accurate trace gas and particle emission estimates. Historically, these are based on the  
10 Seiler and Crutzen (1980) equation, multiplying burned area, fuel loads (abbreviated  
11 as 'FL' in the remainder of the paper), combustion completeness (abbreviated as 'CC'  
12 in the remainder of the paper), and emission factors over time and space of interest.

13 These four properties are obtained in different ways and generally uncertainties are  
14 substantial (van der Werf et al., 2010). The burned area may be estimated directly  
15 from satellite observations, with the MODerate resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer  
16 (MODIS) 500 m maps (Roy et al., 2005; Giglio et al., 2009) being currently the most  
17 commonly used products for large-scale assessments. Although small fires and fires  
18 obscured by forest canopies escape detection with this method (Randerson et al.  
19 2012), the extent of most larger fires can be relatively well constrained in this way.

20 With burned area estimates improving the other parameters may become the most  
21 uncertain component when estimating emissions (French et al., 2004) as they are less  
22 easily observed from space. In general, the FL is equivalent to the total biomass  
23 available. New studies do provide estimates of standing biomass (e.g. Baccini et al.,  
24 2012). However, fires do not necessarily affect standing biomass. Especially in  
25 savannas the trees are usually protected from burning by a thick barch and in some of  
26 the literature the FL therefore has a more restrictive definition, referring to only that  
27 portion of the total available biomass that normally burns under specified fire  
28 conditions, which is often only the fine ground fuels. In both definitions the FL is  
29 typically expressed as the mass of fuel per unit area on a dry weight basis. CC  
30 corresponds to the fraction of fuel exposed to a fire that was actually consumed or  
31 volatilized. Just like total FL, CC cannot be directly derived from satellite  
32 observations. Instead, these quantities are usually based on look-up tables of biome-  
33 average values, or calculated from global vegetation models including Dynamic

1 | [Global Vegetation Models](#) (DGVM, e.g. Kloster et al., 2010) [and](#) biogeochemical  
2 | models (e.g. Hély et al., 2007; van der Werf et al., 2010).

3 | Another approach that has been developed over the past decade is the measurement of  
4 | fire radiative power (FRP) (Wooster et al., 2003; Wooster et al., 2005; Kaiser et al.,  
5 | 2012). FRP [per unit area](#) relates directly to the [fuel consumption \(abbreviated as 'FC'  
6 | in the remainder of the paper\) rate](#), which again is proportional to the fire emissions.  
7 | The FRP method has several advantages compared to the Seiler and Crutzen (1980)  
8 | [approach](#), such as the ability to detect smaller fires and the fact that the fire emissions  
9 | estimates [derived this way](#) do not rely on FL or CC. One [disadvantage](#) is that the  
10 | presence of clouds and smoke can prevent the detection of a fire, and the poor  
11 | temporal resolution of polar orbiting satellites hampers the detection of [fast moving or  
12 | short-lived fires](#) (which still can show a burn scar in the burned area method) and  
13 | makes the conversion of FRP to fire radiative energy (FRE, time-integrated FRP)  
14 | difficult.

15 | Finally, emission factors, relating the [consumption](#) of dry matter to trace gas and  
16 | aerosol emissions of interest, are obtained by averaging field measurements for the  
17 | different biomes. Andreae and Merlet (2001) have compiled these measurements into  
18 | a database that is updated annually, while Akagi et al. (2011) used a similar approach  
19 | to derive [biome-averaged](#) emission factors, but focused on measurement of fresh  
20 | plumes only and provided more biome-specific information. [The accompanying  
21 | database is updated frequently and on-line.](#)

22 | To improve and validate fire emissions models, it is crucial to gain a better overview  
23 | of available FC measurements, [as well as of the FL and CC components that together  
24 | govern FC](#). This is obviously the case for emissions estimates based on burned area,  
25 | but also FRP-estimates could benefit from this information because one way to  
26 | constrain these estimates is [dividing the fire-integrated FRE by the fire-integrated  
27 | burned area, which in principle should equal FC](#).

28 | Over the last decades, many field measurements of FL and CC have been made over a  
29 | range of biomes and geographical locations. An examination of these studies revealed  
30 | several generalities: Forested ecosystems in general show relatively little variability in  
31 | FL over time for a given location, but CC can vary due to weather conditions. [Fine  
32 | fuels usually burn more complete than coarser fuels, and therefore CC in grassland  
33 | savannas is often higher than in forested ecosystems. While CC in the savanna biome](#)

1 | [shows relatively little variability over time, the FL can vary on monthly time scales](#)  
2 | [depending on season, time since fire, and grazing rates. Another generalization that](#)  
3 | [can be made is that](#) FL in boreal and tropical forests [are relatively similar](#), but the  
4 | distribution into components (organic soil, boles, peat) is very different with FL in  
5 | tropical forests being mostly composed of aboveground biomass while in [the](#) boreal  
6 | region the [organic soil \(including fermentation and humus layers\)](#) represents a large  
7 | part of the FL. Overall CC is often higher in tropical forests though, leading to higher  
8 | FC values.

9 | While these findings are relatively easy to extract from the body of literature, what is  
10 | lacking is a universal database listing all the available measurements so that they can  
11 | be compared in a systematic way, used to constrain models, and to identify gaps in  
12 | our knowledge with regard to spatial representativeness. [Building on Akagi et al.](#)  
13 | [\(2011\), who listed 47 measurements for nine fuel types,](#) this paper is a first attempt to  
14 | establish a complete database, listing all the available FC field measurements for the  
15 | different biomes that were found in the peer-reviewed literature. We focus on FC  
16 | estimates, but if FL and/or CC were reported separately these were included as well.  
17 | [The database, available at <http://www.globalfiredata.org/FC>, will be updated when](#)  
18 | [new information becomes available.](#) In follow-up papers we aim to [provide more in-](#)  
19 | [depth analyses on](#) the variability we found; the goal of this paper is to give a  
20 | quantitative overview of FC measurements made around the world to improve large-  
21 | scale fire emission assessments. [This](#) paper is organized as follows: in Section 2 we  
22 | list all the measurements and divide them into [11](#) different biomes. In that section we  
23 | also provide a short summary of the methods used during the field campaigns, give a  
24 | brief introduction about fire processes in each biome, and present data for different  
25 | fuel classes (ground, surface, and crown fuels). Our findings are discussed in Section  
26 | 3, and in addition a comparison between the FC field measurements and 1) the values  
27 | used in GFED3 (van der Werf et al., 2010) modeling framework, and 2) several [FRE-](#)  
28 | derived estimates, is given. Finally, our results are summarized in Section 4.

29  
30

## 1 2. Measurements

2 Figure 1 provides an overview of the locations where peer-reviewed FC [was](#)  
3 measured in the field, overlaid on mean annual fire [carbon \(C\)](#) emissions (van der  
4 Werf et al., 2010). Field measurements of FC were conducted in most fire-prone  
5 regions in the world, including the ‘arc of deforestation’ in Amazonia, the boreal  
6 regions of North America, and savannas and woodlands in Africa, South America and  
7 Australia. Due to ecological, technical, and logistical reasons (e.g. wildfire versus  
8 prescribed fire), the FL and FC sampling procedures on these measurement locations  
9 have ranged in scope from simple and rapid visual assessment (e.g. Maxwell, 1976;  
10 Sandberg et al., 2001) to highly detailed measurements of complex fuel beds along  
11 lines (line transect method: van Wagner 1968) or in fixed areas (planar intersect  
12 method; Brown, 1971) that take considerable time and effort. Most of the studies we  
13 found in the literature rely on the planar intersect method ([PIM](#)), where fuel  
14 measurement plots are typically divided in multiple, randomized smaller subplots.  
15 [The \(small-size\) biomass in these subplots is oven dried and weighed both pre- and](#)  
16 [post-fire to estimate the CC and to determine the FC. The consumption of larger-size](#)  
17 [material \(diameter >10cm\) is often estimated based on experimental observations of](#)  
18 [randomly selected trunks and branches that were identified before the fire \(Araújo et](#)  
19 [al., 1999\). The PIM is mainly applied in prescribed burns, and obtaining FC](#)  
20 [measurements for large wildfires is logistically more challenging but can be based on](#)  
21 [comparing burned with adjacent unburned patches.](#) Usually, the total FC of a fire is  
22 presented, but some studies also include separate values for different fuel categories  
23 of the total belowground biomass (peat, organic soils, and roots) and total  
24 aboveground biomass (aboveground litter and live biomass). Diameters of woody  
25 fuels have been classified according to their ‘time-lag’, which refers to the length of  
26 time that a fuel element takes to respond to a new moisture content equilibrium  
27 (Bradshaw et al., 1983). The time lag categories traditionally used for fire behavior  
28 are specified as: 1hr, 10hr, 100hr, and 1000hr and correspond to round woody fuels in  
29 the size range of 0-0.635cm, 0.635-2.54cm, 2.54-7.62cm, and 7.62-20.32cm,  
30 respectively. In this study we used US fire management standards to classify fuels  
31 into three different categories: 1) Ground (all materials lying beneath the surface  
32 including [organic soil](#), roots, rotten buried logs, and other woody fuels), 2) Surface  
33 (all materials lying on or immediately above the ground including needles or leaves,

1 grass, small dead wood, downed logs, stumps, large limbs, low brush, and  
2 reproduction) and 3) Crown (aerial) fuel (all green and dead materials located in the  
3 upper forest canopy including tree branches and crowns, snags, moss, and high  
4 brush).

5 Although a substantial body of grey literature of FC measurements is available, we  
6 focused on peer-reviewed studies. An exception was made for a few reports that focus  
7 on measurements conducted in the boreal forest and chaparral biome, because these  
8 reports were extensive and cited in peer-reviewed literature. Because the available  
9 data from the peer-reviewed literature [was](#) obtained from a wide variety of sources  
10 spanning multiple decades, the reported FC data needed to be standardized. We  
11 converted all FC measurements to units of tons dry matter per hectare ( $\text{t ha}^{-1}$ ), which  
12 is the most commonly used unit. A carbon to dry matter conversion factor of two was  
13 used to convert carbon FC values to dry matter FC values. We note though that this  
14 conversion factor is not always representative for all biomes. Especially in the boreal  
15 regions –having a relative large contribution of organic soil fuels– but also in other  
16 biomes, this factor is sometimes lower and therefore our approach may slightly  
17 overestimate FL and FC.

18 In Table 1 we present the FL, CC, and FC data compiled for [11](#) different biomes that  
19 are frequently used in global fire emission assessments (e.g. van der Werf et al., 2010;  
20 Wiedinmeyer et al., 2011; Kaiser et al., 2012; Randerson et al., 2012). Some studies  
21 provided data for specific fuel classes (e.g. ground fuels) only, while others estimated  
22 a total FC for both the below and aboveground biomass. The data presented in Table 1  
23 focussed on FC. Additional studies on FL measurements exist and were not included  
24 here, but listed in a spreadsheet that is available online at  
25 <http://www.globalfiredata.org/FC>. These estimates were extensive mostly for southern  
26 Africa (e.g. Scholes et al., 2011) and Australia (e.g. Rossiter et al., 2003). Including  
27 these additional field measurements may change regional FL averages. More specific  
28 details on the measurements and different fuel categories for each biome are listed in  
29 sections 2.1 – 2.[11](#).

30

### 31 **2.1. Savanna**

32 Savanna fires in the tropics can occur frequently, in some cases annually. Their FL  
33 consists mainly of surface fuels (like grass and litter from trees), and is influenced

1 | both by rainfall of the previous years and time since last fire (Gill and Allan, 2008).  
2 | Traditionally (African) savannas are split into dry and wet forms (Menaut et al.,  
3 | 1995). This split occurs at a precipitation rate of about 900 mm year<sup>-1</sup>. Most savanna  
4 | fires burn due to human ignition, but it is believed that these systems are seldom  
5 | ignition limited, and more often limited by available fuel (Archibald et al., 2010). Fire  
6 | incidence generally increases after years of above average rainfall, especially in dry  
7 | savannas with low population densities (van Wilgen et al., 2004; Russell-Smith et al.,  
8 | 2007). As these systems are generally fuel limited, grass production and consumption  
9 | by herbivores are very important factors controlling the extent of area burned  
10 | particularly in drier regions where rainfall can vary strongly between years (Menaut et  
11 | al., 1991; Cheney and Sullivan, 1997; Russell-Smith et al. 2007). Grass production  
12 | controls fire spread because low-biomass grasslands have less continuous fuel swards,  
13 | and also because they burn at lower intensities which reduces the probability of  
14 | spread. In wet savannas the grass production is poorly correlated with rainfall and  
15 | much higher than in dry savannas (10 to 20 t ha<sup>-1</sup> year<sup>-1</sup>, Gignoux et al., 2006). This  
16 | results in higher intensity fires, keeping the landscape relatively open. In Australia,  
17 | the division into dry and wet savannas is less clear. Annual grass production is  
18 | typically low (less than 3 t ha<sup>-1</sup> year<sup>-1</sup>), even for precipitation rates of 2000 mm year<sup>-1</sup>.  
19 | This difference is mostly due to the fact that Australia's native grasses are limited by  
20 | nitrogen availability at high rainfalls, something African grasses such as *Andropogon*  
21 | *gayanus* overcome through various mechanisms (Rossiter-Rachor et al., 2009).  
22 | Miombo woodlands in Africa are high-rainfall savannas where up to 40% of the fuel  
23 | can be provided by litter from trees (Frost et al., 1996). A similar type of vegetation  
24 | can be found in Brazil, mainly consisting of woodlands with a closed canopy of tall  
25 | shrubs and scattered trees (Cerrado denso). We found several measurements  
26 | conducted in Miombo woodlands, as well as field measurements in the Brazilian  
27 | Cerrado denso. Moreover, one study was found for an Indian deciduous forest, which  
28 | can be classified as wooded savanna and thus the savanna biome (Ratnam et al.,  
29 | 2011).  
30 | For calculating averages, we divided the savanna biome into grassland savanna and  
31 | wooded savanna by using the fuel type description that was provided in each study.  
32 | The savanna measurements presented in Table 1a were taken between 1990 and 2009,  
33 | and represent 17 unique measurement locations (Figure 1) taken from 15 different

1 | studies. For all measurements conducted, we found an average FL of  $7.6 \pm 6.5$  t ha<sup>-1</sup>  
2 | and FC of  $4.6 \pm 2.2$  t ha<sup>-1</sup>. The average of the CC values as presented in the different  
3 | studies indicated a value of  $71 \pm 26\%$ , higher than the ratio derived from the average  
4 | FL and FC (61%) above. This difference is because not all FC measurements reported  
5 | FL. Within the savanna biome, regional differences were found (Figure 2): FL and FC  
6 | for South American savannas,  $8.2 \pm 1.6$  and  $6.0 \pm 2.4$  t ha<sup>-1</sup>, respectively, were  
7 | nominally higher than the ones measured in the savannas of Australia ( $5.1 \pm 2.2$  and  
8 |  $3.6 \pm 1.6$  t ha<sup>-1</sup>). Measurements conducted in Africa, contributing to roughly 40% of all  
9 | measurements in the biome, showed the lowest FC ( $3.4 \pm 1.0$  t ha<sup>-1</sup>) of all regions. A  
10 | larger number of measurements are required to conclusively say whether these  
11 | differences are statistically significant. To show the difference between grassland  
12 | savannas and wooded savannas, data of both types of savanna are also provided in  
13 | Figure 2. For grassland savannas the average FL was relatively low ( $5.3 \pm 2.0$  t ha<sup>-1</sup>)  
14 | and the CC high ( $81 \pm 16\%$ ), yielding an average FC of  $4.3 \pm 2.2$  t ha<sup>-1</sup>. Wooded  
15 | savannas, on the other hand, had a higher FL ( $11 \pm 9.1$  t ha<sup>-1</sup>) but lower CC ( $58 \pm 32\%$ ),  
16 | and therefore the average FC of  $5.1 \pm 2.2$  t ha<sup>-1</sup> was only slightly higher than the one  
17 | found for grasslands.

18 | In Table 2 these values are given for different fuel categories. For the savanna biome  
19 | most of the fuels were classified as surface fuels (Table 2a). In general, fuels with a  
20 | large surface area to volume ratio (like litter, grass and dicots) had a high CC of at  
21 | least 88%. CC values were significantly lower for the woody debris classes, with a  
22 | minimum of  $21 \pm 12\%$  found for woody fuels with a diameter larger than 2.54cm  
23 | (100hr fuel). FC for the different fuel types was between 0.3 and 1.9 t ha<sup>-1</sup>, with litter  
24 | having the highest values. In general the total sum of different fuel categories agrees  
25 | well with the biome-averaged values presented. However, not all measurements  
26 | distinguished between fuel categories and therefore small discrepancies were  
27 | sometimes found: for FC in the savanna biome, for example, the sum of different fuel  
28 | categories is 5.3 t ha<sup>-1</sup>, slightly higher than the biome average of  $4.6 \pm 2.2$  t ha<sup>-1</sup>.

29 |

## 30 | 2.2. Tropical forest

31 | Tropical evergreen forests are generally not susceptible to fire except during extreme  
32 | drought periods (e.g. Field et al., 2009; Marengo et al., 2011; Tomasella et al., 2013)  
33 | due to their dense canopy cover keeping humidity high and wind speed low, and also

1 because the amount of fuel on the surface is low due to rapid decomposition. [Human](#)  
2 [activities have resulted in fire activity in tropical forests, often with the goal to clear](#)  
3 [biomass and establish pasture or cropland. These deforestation fires can be small-](#)  
4 [scale \(e.g. shifting cultivation, discussed in Section 2.6\) or on large scale with the aid](#)  
5 [of heavy machinery. In the latter case, biomass is often piled in windrows after the](#)  
6 [first burn and subject to additional fires during the same dry season to remove the](#)  
7 [biomass more completely. In large-scale deforestation regions like the state of Mato](#)  
8 [Grosso in the Brazilian Amazon, the expansion of mechanized agriculture could result](#)  
9 [in increased fuel consumed per unit area \(Cardille and Foley, 2003; Yokelson et al.,](#)  
10 [2007a\). All these fires, but also selective logging, may lead to more frequent](#)  
11 [accidental fires as fragmented forests are more vulnerable to fire \(Nepstad et al.,](#)  
12 [1999; Siegert et al., 2001; Pivello, 2011\).](#)

13 The total FL in tropical forests is mostly determined by the tree biomass (surface and  
14 canopy fuels) and generally on the order of a few hundred  $\text{t ha}^{-1}$ . CC depends partly  
15 on the size of the clearing and on the curing period. In general, the CC for tropical  
16 forest clearings is lower than 50% (Balch et al., 2008), but when [there is a long \(more](#)  
17 [than a year\) lag between slash and burning](#) the CC might increase to 60% and more  
18 (Carvalho et al., 2001). The El Niño Southern Oscillation (ENSO) phenomenon may  
19 also have a large effect on fuel conditions over tropical regions. Large-scale fires have  
20 been shown to occur in South America, Southeast Asia, and Africa in ENSO years,  
21 thereby likely increasing CC due to drought conditions (Chen et al., 2011; Field et al.,  
22 2009; Hély et al., 2003a).

23 The 22 unique measurements locations shown in Table 1b cover Brazil (19), Mexico  
24 (2), and Indonesia (1). In general, measurement sites were divided into several smaller  
25 subplots and the forest was slashed at the beginning of the dry season. The biomass  
26 was then weighed using [the PIM](#). After about two months the plots were set on fire  
27 and the remaining biomass was weighed within one week after the burn. The average  
28 FL for the whole biome was  $285 \pm 137 \text{ t ha}^{-1}$ , CC averaged  $49 \pm 22\%$ , and total FC was  
29  $126 \pm 77 \text{ t ha}^{-1}$ . Since more than 90% of all measurements were conducted in Brazil  
30 (Figure 3), the biome-averaged values are biased towards measurements conducted  
31 [there](#). Studies conducted in Mexican and Indonesian tropical forest reported an  
32 average FL of [265](#) and [237](#)  $\text{t ha}^{-1}$ , respectively. Surprisingly, the CC of tropical forest  
33 in Mexico was the highest of all studies ([83% on average](#)), resulting in an average FC

1 of  $236 \text{ t ha}^{-1}$ , which was significantly higher than values found for both Brazil  
2 ( $117 \pm 56 \text{ t ha}^{-1}$ ) and Indonesia ( $120 \pm 47 \text{ t ha}^{-1}$ ). However, due to the small number of  
3 measurements conducted in Mexico and Indonesia, these findings are not conclusive.

4 Different forest types may partly explain the discrepancy found, and therefore we  
5 distinguished between measurements conducted in primary tropical evergreen forest,  
6 secondary tropical evergreen forest, and tropical dry forest (Figure 3). To distinguish  
7 between tropical dry forests and wooded savannas (Section 2.1), we harmonized with  
8 the emission factor compilation of Akagi et al. (2011) in which 60% canopy cover  
9 (Hansen et al., 2003) was the delineation between both ecosystems. FL and FC were  
10 largest for primary tropical evergreen forests, with average values of  $339 \pm 104 \text{ t ha}^{-1}$   
11 and  $143 \pm 79 \text{ t ha}^{-1}$ , respectively. For secondary tropical evergreen forests these values  
12 were substantially lower ( $101 \pm 32 \text{ t ha}^{-1}$  and  $57 \pm 7.0 \text{ t ha}^{-1}$ ), and comparable with  
13 tropical dry forests in South America and Mexico where the average FL was  $100 \text{ t ha}^{-1}$   
14 and FC  $78 \text{ t ha}^{-1}$ .

15 Different fuel categories for the tropical forest biome are presented in Table 2b and  
16 can be mainly classified as surface fuels, except for the attached foliage (crown fuels)  
17 and rootmat category (ground fuels). Large woody debris (diameter > 20.5cm) and  
18 trunks –although not always taken into account in certain studies– correspond to a  
19 large part of the aboveground biomass (FL =  $147 \pm 83 \text{ t ha}^{-1}$ ), but are usually only  
20 slightly burned during a forest clearing process (Carvalho et al., 1995), as shown by  
21 an average CC of  $32 \pm 23\%$  leading to a FC of this category of only  $37 \pm 32 \text{ t ha}^{-1}$ .  
22 Similar to the savanna biome, we found a high CC of at least 73% for surface fuels  
23 with a large surface area to volume ratio (litter, leaves, and dicots). The small woody  
24 fuels (1hr and 10hr) also had high CC, and the CC of the woody debris generally  
25 decreased with increasing diameter. From a FC perspective, the most important fuel  
26 types in the tropical forest biome were litter ( $14 \pm 8.4 \text{ t ha}^{-1}$ ) and woody debris size  
27 classes with a diameter larger than 0.64cm ( $15 - 37 \text{ t ha}^{-1}$ ).

### 29 **2.3. Temperate Forest**

30 Although accounting for only a small part of the global emissions, temperate forest  
31 fires frequently occur nearby the wildland-urban interface with important  
32 consequences for human safety and air quality. While tropical fires are largely  
33 intentionally ignited to pursue land management goals, the temperate forest is also

1 | subject to wildfires. Obtaining FC measurements for wildfires is obviously  
2 | challenging, so most information is derived from prescribed fires which allow  
3 | researchers to measure pre-fire conditions. However, these fires may not always be a  
4 | good proxy for wildfires. For example, wildfires in western conifer forest of the US  
5 | are often crown fires (while prescribed fires usually only burn surface fuels). Due to  
6 | potential discrepancies with respect to FC, we distinguished between these fire types  
7 | in Section 3.2.

8 | The 23 unique FC measurement locations for the temperate forest are from sites in  
9 | North America (14), Australia (7), Tasmania (1) and Mexico (1), and were taken  
10 | between 1983 and 2011 (Figure 1). In general, measurements were conducted on sites  
11 | that were divided into multiple, randomized subplots on which the pre-fire biomass  
12 | was weighed according to the PIM. The sites were then burned and within a few days  
13 | after the burn, the post-fire biomass was gathered, dried and weighed.

14 | The biome-averaged FL for the temperate forest biome was 115±144 t ha<sup>-1</sup>, the CC  
15 | equaled 61±18%, and fuel consumed by the fire was 58±72 t ha<sup>-1</sup>. Note that we  
16 | focused on all measurements presented in Table 1c, so studies that provide  
17 | information on one specific fuel class only (e.g. ground fuels (Goodrick et al., 2010))  
18 | were also included to calculate biome-averaged values. Although CC for North  
19 | America, Australia and Tasmania were comparable (~60%), the FC showed lower  
20 | values for North America (49±62 t ha<sup>-1</sup>) than Australia and Tasmania (78±91 t ha<sup>-1</sup>).

21 | One possible cause of this discrepancy is the contribution of different vegetation  
22 | types, as elaborated in Figure 4. Measurements in North America were mainly  
23 | conducted in conifer forest, while eucalypt was the more dominant forest type for  
24 | Australia and Tasmania. FC for both forest types compare fairly well with the  
25 | regional averages found, and equaled 48±58 t ha<sup>-1</sup> for conifers and 79±98 t ha<sup>-1</sup> for  
26 | eucalypt forest.

27 | Table 2c shows that litter in the temperate forest had a higher FL and FC than in the  
28 | tropical forest biome, and the average FC for this surface fuel category equaled  
29 | 17±9.9 t ha<sup>-1</sup>. The different woody debris classes had a similar pattern as found for the  
30 | savanna and tropical forest biome, with decreasing CC for categories with increasing  
31 | fuel diameters. However, an interesting difference was found in the biggest size class:  
32 | sound woody debris had a low CC (38±42%), while the fraction of rotten woody  
33 | debris consumed by the fire was very high (96±5.4%), resulting in an average FC of

1 | 20±4.8 t ha<sup>-1</sup> for this category. Although this difference was observed in a few other  
2 | studies as well, little research is available on comparing the physical and chemical  
3 | properties of sound and rotten woody debris, which is likely to affect the FC (Hyde et  
4 | al., 2011). The most important fuel category from a FC perspective was organic soil,  
5 | with an average value of 25±31 t ha<sup>-1</sup>. For the same reason as explained in Section 2.1,  
6 | a small discrepancy was found between the total FC sum of different fuel categories  
7 | (77 t ha<sup>-1</sup>) and the biome average (58±72 t ha<sup>-1</sup>).

#### 9 | **2.4. Boreal Forest**

10 | Fires in the boreal (high latitudes of about 50 to 70°) forest are thought to be mostly  
11 | natural (wildfires) due to the vast size of the forest region, the low population  
12 | densities and the difficult accessibility. However, much of the Asian boreal forests are  
13 | disturbed by (il)legal logging activities (Vandergert and Newel, 2003) which can  
14 | increase fire activity in more remote regions (Mollicone et al., 2006). Approximately  
15 | two-thirds of the boreal forests are located in northern Eurasia, while the remainder is  
16 | in North America. The circumpolar boreal fire regime is characterized by large forest  
17 | fires, although fires in North America are in general larger and less frequent than the  
18 | ones in Eurasia (de Groot et al. 2013a). North American boreal fires are characterized  
19 | by high intensity crown fires, while fires in boreal Russia are more often surface fires  
20 | of lower intensity (Amiro et al., 2001; Soja et al., 2004; Wooster et al., 2004, de Groot  
21 | et al. 2013a). Canada has a very long fire record, starting in 1959, while the record for  
22 | Alaska starts in 1950 (Kasischke et al., 2002). Since 1990, 2.65 million ha year<sup>-1</sup>  
23 | burned in the North American boreal forest, with high year-to-year variability  
24 | (Kasischke et al., 2011). FL in the boreal forests depends for a large part on tree  
25 | species, stand density, climate, topography, moisture, seasonal thawing of permafrost  
26 | and time since last burn. In many forest types, dead material accumulates in deep  
27 | organic soil horizons due to the slow decomposition rates. CC in organic soils is  
28 | mostly controlled by conditions that control surface soil moisture, including  
29 | topography, seasonal thawing of permafrost, and antecedent weather conditions.  
30 | When dry conditions prevail, such as during high-pressure blocking event that can last  
31 | for few days to several weeks over North America (Nash and Johnson, 1996), much  
32 | of the forest floor can burn, and depths of 30 cm or more can be reached. There is a  
33 | strong relation between moisture content and fuel bed depth on the one hand and

1 forest floor consumption on the other hand (e.g. de Groot et al., 2009). Of all global  
2 fire regimes, the boreal forest is most susceptible to climate change due to polar  
3 amplification of temperature increase (Flannigan et al. 2013; de Groot et al. 2013b).  
4 For example, the area burned by lightning fires in the North American Boreal region  
5 has doubled between 1960 and 1990 (Kasischke and Turetsky, 2006).  
6 Field measurements described in literature were almost all conducted in boreal North  
7 America (35 in total), except for three measurement sets that came from boreal Asia  
8 (Figure 1, Table 1d). The general method for determining FL and FC was [to apply the](#)  
9 [PIM](#). Approaches have also been developed to estimate consumption of surface  
10 organic layer fuels by estimating the pre-and post-fire thicknesses and density of  
11 surface organic horizons (de Groot et al. 2009; Turetsky et al., 2011).  
12 We estimated a biome-averaged FL of  $69\pm 61$  t ha<sup>-1</sup>, substantially lower than the  
13 average FL for the temperate forests. [Average FL for this biome is for upland forest](#)  
14 [types. However, deep peatland deposits \(see section 2.10\) cover about 107 M ha](#)  
15 [\(Zoltai et al. 1998\) or 18% of the North American boreal forest zone \(Brandt, 2009\)](#)  
16 [and 16% of the northern circumpolar permafrost soil area \(Tarnocai et al., 2009\). By](#)  
17 [contrast, peatlands only cover about 0.07 M ha in the temperate zone, which has](#)  
18 [higher FL overall. Despite low decomposition rates due to a cold, moist climate, the](#)  
19 [lower FL in the boreal forest region is primarily a result of slower tree growth rates](#)  
20 [\(biomass accumulation\) and frequent to infrequent fire disturbance that can remove](#)  
21 [substantial amounts of fuel.](#) The average CC was  $51\pm 17\%$ , and the FC equaled  $35\pm 24$   
22 t ha<sup>-1</sup>. [Similar as for the temperate forest, we included all measurements \(presented in](#)  
23 [Table 1d\) to calculate the biome-averaged values. The representativeness of these](#)  
24 [values for wildfires and prescribed fires is discussed in Section 3.2.](#) Differences  
25 between boreal North America and Siberia were observed, but it should be noted that  
26 only [3 studies](#) provided a FC estimate for Russia. Values on FL, CC, and FC were  
27 overall higher for boreal fires in North America than the field [studies](#) in Russia  
28 (Figure 5).  
29 Information on fuel categories is presented in Table 2d, as well as in Figure 5.  
30 Different classification systems were sometimes used for boreal fuels, and therefore it  
31 was difficult to extract the right information for ground, surface and crown fuels  
32 (further discussed in Section 3.4). [Moreover, it was not always clear is which class](#)  
33 [certain fuels are consumed: e.g. organic material can be consumed on the ground but](#)

1 | [also in a crown fire \(Hille and Stephens, 2005\)](#). The highest FL ( $50\pm 29$  t ha<sup>-1</sup>) and FC  
2 | ( $32\pm 26$  t ha<sup>-1</sup>) in the boreal forest biome [was](#) found for ground fuels, mainly  
3 | consisting of organic soils. Moreover, a difference in organic matter FL in permafrost  
4 | and non-permafrost regions was found (56 and 86 t ha<sup>-1</sup>, respectively). However, due  
5 | to a CC of 62 and 41% for permafrost and non-permafrost regions, the FC for both  
6 | regions was equal (35 t ha<sup>-1</sup>). [Finally, slope aspect has been shown to have an effect as](#)  
7 | [well, with the south facing slopes having the highest FL and FC due to warmer and](#)  
8 | [drier conditions that better favour plant growth and fire intensity than shadowed north](#)  
9 | [faces \(Viereck et al. 1986; Turetsky et al., 2011\)](#). As with most of our findings,  
10 | however, the number of studies is far too low to evaluate whether this is also the case  
11 | in general.

## 13 | **2.5. Pasture**

14 | Fires related to agricultural practices were divided into [shifting cultivation \(Section](#)  
15 | [2.6\)](#), the burning of crop residues (Section 2.7) and pasture burning. The latter type of  
16 | burning often follows tropical [deforestation](#) fires and is used to convert land into  
17 | pasture. Prior to this conversion, lands can be used in shifting cultivation as well.  
18 | Typically, landowners set fires every 2-3 years to prevent re-establishment of forests  
19 | (Kauffman et al., 1998) and to enhance the growth of certain grasses (Fearnside,  
20 | 1992). In general, these fires mostly consume grass and residual wood from the  
21 | original forest. Pasture fires are most common in the Brazilian Amazon where many  
22 | cattle ranches have been established in areas that were previously tropical forest.  
23 | Although less abundant, these ‘maintenance’ fires occur also in tropical regions of  
24 | Africa, Central America and Asia.

25 | The pasture measurements presented in Table 1e represent [5](#) unique measurement  
26 | locations and cover [2](#) different continents (Figure 1). Pasture had an average FL, CC,  
27 | and FC of  $74\pm 34$  t ha<sup>-1</sup>,  $47\pm 27\%$ , and  $28\pm 9.3$  t ha<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. Regional  
28 | discrepancies for FC were found though, with FL for Brazilian pastures ( $84\pm 29$  t ha<sup>-1</sup>)  
29 | being substantially higher than found in Mexico (35 t ha<sup>-1</sup>). However, FC [values](#)  
30 | compared reasonably well for both regions ( $30\pm 10$  and 24 t ha<sup>-1</sup> for Brazil and  
31 | Mexico, respectively).

## 33 | **[2.6. Shifting cultivation](#)**

1 Shifting cultivation is commonly practiced in Africa, Central America, South America  
2 and Asia. In general, lands are cultivated temporarily (often for only a few years)  
3 before soil fertility is exhausted or weed growth overwhelms the crops. The lands are  
4 then abandoned and may revert to their natural vegetation, while the farmers move on  
5 to clear a new fields elsewhere. The land is slashed and burned, which leaves only  
6 stumps and large trees in the field after the fire (Stromgaard, 1985). Apart from the  
7 fact that fire is an easy and cheap tool to clear the land, it has the further advantage  
8 that the ashes will also (temporarily) enrich the soil.

9 For shifting cultivation fires the average FL was 44 with a range of 14 to 75 t ha<sup>-1</sup>, the  
10 CC equaled 47 [30-64]%, and FC was 23 [4-43] t ha<sup>-1</sup>. Note that these values are  
11 based on the measurements of two studies only (Figure 1, table 1f). The two shifting  
12 cultivation studies showed a remarkable difference: FC of Indian tropical dry  
13 deciduous forest (4.0 t ha<sup>-1</sup>; Prasad et al., 2000) was one order of magnitude lower  
14 than for shifting cultivation practices in wooded savanna of Zambia (43 t ha<sup>-1</sup>;  
15 Stromgaard, 1985). Due to the relatively small number of measurements, these  
16 findings are not conclusive.

## 18 **2.7. Crop residue**

19 Crop residue burning is a common practice to recycle nutrients, control pests,  
20 diseases, weeds and in general to prepare fields for planting and harvesting. The main  
21 crop residue types that burn are rice, grains (i.e., wheat) and sugarcane, but burning is  
22 not limited to these crop types. FL is highly variable, as it depends on both the type of  
23 crop burned and the method used for harvesting the crop (mechanized, manual, etc.).  
24 Detecting these fires using global burned area products is difficult as in general  
25 cropland fires are small and the land can be tilled and replanted quickly after burning  
26 (making it difficult to observe the latency of burned ground as is common in less  
27 managed and/or more natural landscapes). Moreover, the fuel geometry varies  
28 globally from short-lived burning of loose residue in the field to long-lasting  
29 smoldering combustion of small hand-piles of residue, and both are hard to detect  
30 from space. Traditional methods to obtain estimates for agricultural fires are the use  
31 of governmental statistics on crop yield (e.g. Yevich and Logan, 2003), residue usage  
32 for cooking and livestock (the leftovers are assumed to be burned), field  
33 measurements, or using agronomic data (e.g. Jenkins et al., 1992).

1 On average, crop residue burning had a FL of  $8.3 \pm 9.9$  t ha<sup>-1</sup>, CC of  $75 \pm 21\%$  and FC  
2 of  $6.5 \pm 9.0$  t ha<sup>-1</sup> (Table 1g). We estimated an average FL of 23 t ha<sup>-1</sup> for Brazilian  
3 sugarcane (Lara et al., 2005) by using a CC of 88% as reported by McCarty et al.  
4 (2011). FC values for different US crop types (McCarty et al., 2011) were used to  
5 derive crop-specific FL data (French et al., 2013) and CC values were taken from  
6 expert knowledge from agriculture extension agents in Arkansas, Louisiana, Florida,  
7 Kansas, and Washington during field campaigns in 2004, 2005, and 2006, as well as  
8 from the scientific literature (Dennis et al., 2002; Johnston and Golob, 2004). CC  
9 variables ranged from 65% for cotton and sugarcane and 85% for wheat and  
10 bluegrass, which are lower but within the range of the CC value (-23 to -3% less than  
11 CC of 88%) used by the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) of 88% (EPA 2008  
12 GHG).

13 FC values varied between different crop types, as shown in Figure 6. For US crops the  
14 highest FC was found for seedgrass (10 t ha<sup>-1</sup>) and rice (8.8 t ha<sup>-1</sup>), while values for  
15 soybeans (0.5 t ha<sup>-1</sup>) and corn (1.0 t ha<sup>-1</sup>) were lower. In general, US crop values are  
16 assumed in the analysis to be approximately representative of other developed  
17 agricultural areas like Brazil and Russia (McCarty et al., 2012), but uncertainty  
18 increases for less industrialized agricultural areas in Africa and Asia. However,  
19 Brazilian sugarcane (20 t ha<sup>-1</sup>) was found to have a FC that is more than twice as high  
20 as sugarcane in the US (8.0 t ha<sup>-1</sup>). More measurements are needed to confirm this  
21 discrepancy.

## 23 2.8. Chaparral

24 Chaparral vegetation is a type of shrubland that is primarily found in southwestern US  
25 and in the northern portion of the Baja California (Mexico), but similar plant  
26 communities are found in other Mediterranean climate regions around the world like  
27 Europe, Australia and South Africa. Typically, the Mediterranean climate is  
28 characterized by a moderate winter and dry summer, which makes the chaparral  
29 biome most vulnerable to fires in summer and fall (Jin et al., 2014). In California, the  
30 combination of human ignition, the large wildland-urban interface, and extreme fire  
31 weather characterized by high temperatures, low humidities, and high offshore Santa  
32 Ana winds (Moritz et al., 2010) may lead to large and costly wildfires (Keeley et al.,  
33 2009).

1 We found 2 studies covering 5 different measurement locations in southwestern US  
2 (Table 1, Figure 1h). Since Cofer III et al. (1988) only provided a FC for chaparral  
3 burning, we used a CC of 76% (average CC from studies of Hardy et al. (1996) and  
4 Yokelson et al., 2013) to derive a FL estimate for the Cofer et al. (1988) study. We  
5 then used the FL values of all 3 studies to estimate the biome average FL of  $40\pm 23$  t  
6 ha<sup>-1</sup>. The CC equaled 76%, yielding an average FC of  $27\pm 19$  t ha<sup>-1</sup>.

## 8 **2.9. Tropical Peat**

9 Tropical peatland has only recently been recognized as an important source of  
10 biomass burning emissions. Roughly 60% of the worldwide tropical peatland is  
11 located in Southeast Asia and more specifically in Indonesia (Rieley et al., 1996; Page  
12 et al., 2007). Peat depth is an indicator for the total biomass stored in peatland, but  
13 only the peat layer above the water table can burn. Drainage and droughts lower the  
14 water table, adding to the total FL. On top of that, living biomass and dead above  
15 ground organic matter also contribute to the FLs in these peatlands. The bulk density  
16 and carbon content of peat are of importance to determine the amount of carbon  
17 stored. The average density is around  $0.1 \text{ g cm}^{-3}$  and the carbon content ranges  
18 between 54-60% (Page et al., 2002; Riely et al., 2008; Ballhorn et al., 2009; Stockwell  
19 et al., 2014). The depth of burning is the key factor that determines the total FC, but  
20 information about it is scarce. Results from several field measurements indicate a link  
21 between this burning depth and the depth of drainage (Ballhorn et al., 2009).  
22 Commercial logging in drained peat swamps has increased their susceptibility to fire,  
23 especially during droughts (such as during and ENSO event).

24 In total 4 studies provided data on tropical peatland measurements in Indonesia (Table  
25 1i). In general, post-fire observations of the average burn depth were combined with  
26 pre-fire conditions reconstructed from adjacent unburned patches to determine the FC.  
27 Tropical peatland (including peat soils and overstory) had the highest FC of all  
28 biomes, with an average of  $314\pm 196 \text{ t ha}^{-1}$ . Only two studies provided data on FL and  
29 CC, and since the study of Saharjo and Nurhayati (2006) focused on litter and  
30 branches only, a CC of 27% (Usup et al., 2004) was found to be representative for the  
31 tropical peat biome. Taking a CC of 27%, the biome-averaged FL equaled  $1056\pm 876$  t  
32 ha<sup>-1</sup>, thereby having the highest FL of all biomes. However, due to limited  
33 information on CC measured in the field there is no clear definition of the average FL

1 for tropical peat. Note that the measurements taken by Ballhorn et al. (2009) were  
2 using Laser Imaging, Detection And Ranging (LIDAR) aerial remote sensing, and the  
3 study of Page et al. (2002) relied on field measurements combined with information  
4 obtained from Landsat Thematic Mapper (TM) images.

5

## 6 | **2.10. Boreal Peat**

7 The northern peatlands are a result of the slow decomposition of organic material over  
8 thousands of years. Traditionally, northern peatlands have been considered as a slow,  
9 continuous carbon sink. However, the vulnerability of this region to global warming  
10 and the resulting increase in wildland fires has challenged this idea (Zoltai et al.,  
11 1998; Harden et al., 2000; Turetsky, 2002). There are still large uncertainties  
12 associated with the FL and CC of peat fires. The depth of fires is not well  
13 documented, leading to large uncertainties in the total FC estimates. In some cases  
14 water table depth may serve as a proxy for determining the depth of burning.  
15 However, also the susceptibility of peatlands to fire during different moisture  
16 conditions is poorly documented at best. This makes modeling peat fires very difficult  
17 and stresses the importance of [more](#) field measurements.

18 Two measurements were taken between 1999 and 2001 in boreal Canada (Table 1j).  
19 On each burn site, multiple plots were established and [information on the peat density](#)  
20 [\(which is assumed to increase nonlinearly with depth\)](#) was used in combination with  
21 the burn depth to determine the FC. No data on FL and CC were provided, but the  
22 average FC of [the two studies](#) is  $43 [42-43] \text{ t ha}^{-1}$ . [A standard deviation of  \$25 \text{ t ha}^{-1}\$](#)   
23 [\(Turetsky and Wieder, 2001\) can be used as the average uncertainty for the boreal](#)  
24 [peat biome.](#) Turetsky and Wieder (2001) showed that FC of permafrost bogs ( $58 [43-$   
25  $72] \text{ t ha}^{-1}$ ) is more than twice as high as continental bogs ( $27 [11-42] \text{ t ha}^{-1}$ ). A similar  
26 difference was found for hummocks and hollows, which are raised peat bogs and  
27 lows, respectively: FC for hummocks was  $29 \pm 2.0 \text{ t ha}^{-1}$ , while fires in hollows  
28 consumed on average  $56 \pm 6.0 \text{ t ha}^{-1}$  (Benscoter and Wieder, 2003).

29

## 30 | **2.11. Tundra**

31 The Arctic tundra stores large amounts of carbon in its organic soil layers that insulate  
32 and maintain permafrost soils, although these soil layers are shallower than those  
33 found in peatlands and boreal forests. While the region is treeless, some vegetation

1 types include a substantial shrub component where additional carbon is available for  
2 burning. On Alaska's North Slope approximately 10% of the land cover is shrub  
3 dominated (>50% shrub cover), while the remainder is dominated by herbaceous  
4 vegetation types (Raynolds et al., 2006). Fire regime in the Arctic is largely unknown,  
5 but historically fire is generally absent in the tundra biome compared to other biomes.  
6 However, [the](#) evidence of increasing fire frequency and larger extent of the fires in the  
7 arctic ([Hu et al., 2010](#)) may represent a positive feedback effect of global warming, so  
8 in the future more fires may occur in this biome (Higuera et al. 2011). There are still  
9 large unknowns of the impacts that fires have on the carbon stocks of the tundra  
10 ecosystems. Even the topsoil layers in the tundra store large pools of carbon in  
11 organic-rich material. This removal of the topsoil may also expose the permafrost  
12 layers to heating by the warm summer temperatures, thawing the ground and  
13 destabilizing the tundra carbon balance.

14 The only measurements found in the literature of FC in the tundra biome are from the  
15 Anaktuvuk River fire in 2007 (Mack et al., 2011). The measurements were taken on  
16 twenty sites in the burned area and the pre-fire peat layer depth was reconstructed to  
17 determine the pre-fire FL. The FL was on average  $165\pm 15$  t ha<sup>-1</sup>, and averaged CC  
18 and total FC was respectively  $24\pm 5.0\%$  and  $40\pm 9.0$  t ha<sup>-1</sup> (Table 1h). These  
19 measurements represent a thorough effort to document FC, but still represent just one  
20 fire that is considered to be a fairly high severity event (Jones et al., 2009). Other  
21 measurements of surface FC at fires in the Noatak region of Alaska and a recent burn  
22 on the Alaskan North Slope showed minimal organic surface material loss (N. French,  
23 unpublished data). These fires may represent more typical fire events with more  
24 moderate consumption than was found in the Anaktuvuk River fire. There is no doubt  
25 that the lack of [sufficient](#) field measurements in [the](#) tundra biome means a reasonable  
26 estimate of FC in tundra fires is not fully known. While the Anaktuvuk River fire  
27 measurements are of value, there should be caution in using these data to generalize  
28 since the event represents a more severe event than many fires in the region. They  
29 may, however, be indicative of how future fires in the region may impact carbon  
30 losses as the region experiences increased fire frequency and severity.  
31

### 1 3. Discussion

#### 2 3.1. Spatial representativeness of fuel consumption measured in the field

3 Due to the spatial heterogeneity in [fuels](#) and the limited amount of measurements one  
4 important question to ask is: How representative are the biome-average values  
5 presented in this review? Field measurements of FC were spatially well represented in  
6 the major biomass-burning regions, like the Brazilian Amazon, boreal North America  
7 and the savannas areas in southern Africa. However, several other regions that are  
8 important from a fire emissions perspective were lacking any measurements, and  
9 these include Central Africa (e.g. Congo, Angola, but also regions further north such  
10 as Chad and southern Sudan), Southeast Asia and eastern Siberia (Figure 1). Due to  
11 these spatial gaps, it remains uncertain whether measurements of FL, CC, and FC as  
12 presented in this study are representative for the whole biome. As mentioned for the  
13 ‘Tundra’, where fire [may become increasingly important](#) as the region warms, the one  
14 set of field samples included in this review may not be a representative of past and  
15 future fire.

16 Within biomes differences were found to be large for certain regions, as shown in  
17 Figures 2-5. For example, we found substantial differences in FL and FC for boreal  
18 areas, with Russian sites having lower values compared to the ones in North America  
19 (Figure 5). This difference might be due to different burning conditions in both  
20 regions, with a larger contribution of surface fuels and less high-intensity crown fires  
21 occurring in boreal Russia (Wooster et al., 2004). [Although](#) available literature data  
22 showed that FC for crown fuels [was](#) indeed higher than for surface fuels, more data  
23 for especially boreal Russia is needed to confirm this line of thought. Moreover, Boby  
24 et al. (2010) and Turetsky et al. (2011) showed that the timing of FC measurements  
25 (early dry seasons versus late dry season) contribute to different boreal FC [values](#) as  
26 well. [In general, both FC and CC may increase over the course of the dry season as  
27 large diameter fuels dry out. This was also suggested by Akagi et al. \(2011\) for the  
28 savanna biome, and consistent with a seasonal decrease in MCE as proposed by Eck  
29 et al. \(2013\).](#)

30 Regional differences were also found for the tropical forest biome, where almost all  
31 measurements were conducted in the Brazilian Amazon, with a few exceptions for  
32 Mexico, and Indonesia. Southeast Asia (Myanmar, Vietnam, Laos, and Cambodia)  
33 was lacking any FC measurements described in the peer-reviewed literature, but this

1 region is important from a fire emissions perspective. Tropical forests in Mexico had  
2 a higher [CC](#) than forests in the Amazon and Indonesia (Figure 3), and had [a](#) higher FC  
3 as well. Different forest types can likely explain this difference; in Figure 3  
4 substantial differences are shown for FL, CC, and FC in primary tropical evergreen  
5 forest, [secondary](#) tropical evergreen forest, and tropical dry forest. Obviously, the  
6 amount of measurements conducted in a specific forest type will impact the biome-  
7 averaged value found for a certain region. Clearly, the definition of a certain biome is  
8 not always straightforward, and [uncertainty regarding](#) regional discrepancies within  
9 the different biomes should be taken into account when averaged values are  
10 interpreted and used by the modeling communities.

11 Coming back to the question posed in the beginning of this section, we think care  
12 should be taken with using biome-average values. They provide a guideline but [the](#)  
13 [path forward is](#) to continue developing models [or remote sensing options](#) that aim to  
14 account for variability within biomes, and use the database [accompanying this paper](#)  
15 to constrain these models, rather than to simply use biome-average values ([further](#)  
16 [discussed in Section 3.2](#)). Use of FC for specific vegetation types [within broader](#)  
17 [biomes](#) (like [the different](#) crop [types](#) as presented in Figure 6) or fuel categories offers  
18 an interesting alternative, and is further discussed in Section 3.4.

19

### 20 **3.2. Field measurement averages and comparison with GFED3**

21 Although the definition of a certain biome is not always straightforward, the biome-  
22 averaged values that we presented in this paper are still valuable to highlight  
23 differences in fire characteristics between regions with specific vegetation and climate  
24 characteristics. We compared our work with estimates from the Global Fire Emissions  
25 Database version 3 (GFED3) and several [FRE](#)-derived studies (Section 3.3). GFED3  
26 fire emissions estimates ([monthly 0.5°×0.5° fields](#)) are based on estimates of burned  
27 area (Giglio et al., 2010) and the satellite-driven Carnegie-Ames-Stanford Approach  
28 (CASA) biogeochemical model (van der Werf et al., 2010). [To calculate FC we](#)  
29 [divided the GFED3 total biome-specific emissions estimates \(g Dry Matter\) in every](#)  
30 [modeling grid cell by the total burned area observed for every grid cell. Since one grid](#)  
31 [cell may consist of multiple biomes we followed the GFED3 fractionation of](#)  
32 [emissions estimates, which represents the contribution of a certain biome to total](#)  
33 [emissions within one grid cell. Biome-specific information on the area burned within](#)

1 one grid cell was not available, and therefore we assumed that burned area followed  
2 the same fractionation as the GFED3 emissions estimates. This assumption may over-  
3 or underestimate biome-averaged GFED3 FC values: For example, in a deforestation  
4 grid cell that consists of savannas and tropical evergreen forests, the contribution of  
5 savanna fire emissions to total emissions can be small, even when the contribution of  
6 savanna burned area to total burned area observed in a grid cell is actually quite large.  
7 In this specific case - when assuming that burned area followed the same fractionation  
8 as the emissions- the estimated FC of savannas would be overestimated.

9 In Table 3 an overview is given for biome-specific FL, CC, and FC that we estimated  
10 from data found in literature. In the fifth column FC per unit burned area of GFED3 is  
11 shown for the collocated grid cells, i.e. grid cells in which measurements were taken,  
12 and the sixth column presents the difference between GFED3 FC and the field  
13 measurements. In general, substantial differences were found between co-located  
14 GFED3 FC and the field measurements. Although the average FC agreed reasonably  
15 well (<40%) for crop residue, tropical peat and the boreal peat biome, much large  
16 discrepancies (>59%) were found for the other biomes. Many field measurements for  
17 these biomes had a standard deviation that was close to the measurement average,  
18 indicating that uncertainty is substantial.

19 Within the savanna biome GFED3 overestimated the FC by 72% compared to the  
20 measurements, and this overestimation was even higher for grassland regions (78%).

21 A possible cause for these discrepancies is that field campaigns tend to focus on  
22 frequently burning areas, so fuels do not have the time to build up and increase their  
23 FL (van der Werf et al., 2010). Because of the relatively coarse 0.5° resolution of  
24 GFED3, the fire frequency in GFED is the average of more and less frequently  
25 burning patches, and thus potentially longer than in field sampling sites. On the other  
26 hand, only a very small portion of the land's surface burns annually (van der Werf et  
27 al., 2013). Improved resolution for the models may help to alleviate this problem and  
28 bring model values closer to the field measurements, although it is very unlikely this  
29 is the only reason for the noted discrepancy.

30 For tropical forests, an important biome due to large-scale deforestation emissions,  
31 substantial differences were found as well: GFED3 overestimated FC by 71%  
32 compared to the field measurement average for collocated grid cells. This discrepancy  
33 may be partly explained by the fact that repeated fires in the tropical forest domain

1 (when forest slash that did not burn in a first fire is subject to additional fires during  
2 the same dry season) are not always included in the field measurements. Within  
3 GFED3, on the other hand, these repeated fires were modeled by the number of active  
4 fires observed in the same grid cell (fire persistence), which yields information on the  
5 fuel load and type of burning (Morton et al., 2008; van der Werf et al., 2010).  
6 Regional differences within the biome, as discussed in Section 3.1, will also  
7 contribute to the differences found: In our case the field measurement average was  
8 biased towards evergreen tropical forests fires, but when the emphasis is put on fires  
9 in secondary or tropical dry forest this average value could change significantly  
10 (Figure 3). It is likely that grid cell heterogeneity in tropical deforestation regions  
11 explains the large discrepancy found for the pasture biome, where GFED3 FC  
12 overestimated the field measurements by almost 500%. For these specific pasture grid  
13 cells GFED3 may have been biased towards tropical evergreen deforestation fires,  
14 thereby increasing the average FC.

15 In the temperate forest biome FC was underestimated in GFED3 by 74% compared to  
16 the field measurement average for collocated grid cells. In our averaged field  
17 measurement estimate we included all measurements presented in Table 1c. As  
18 noticed in Section 2.3, it is likely though that studies that provided a total FC (i.e. the  
19 FC of ground, surface and/or crown fuels) are more representative for wildfires.  
20 Prescribed burns, on the other hand, tend to burn less fuel and therefore the studies  
21 that only include ground or surface fuels were probably more representative for this  
22 fire type. When focusing on studies that provide information on one specific fuel class  
23 only, the field average for the temperate forest would be significantly lower ( $13\pm 12$  t  
24  $\text{ha}^{-1}$ ) as well as the discrepancy with GFED3 (+14%). This FC value of  $13$  t  $\text{ha}^{-1}$  may  
25 be more realistic for prescribed fires, which contribute to roughly 50% of all  
26 temperate forest fire emissions in the contiguous United States (CONUS). Still, it  
27 remains very uncertain how well FC measured for specific fuel classes is  
28 representative for prescribed fires and wildfires. This issue also counts for boreal  
29 forests, where GFED3 overestimated the field measurements by almost 80%. When  
30 only including studies that provided a total FC (i.e. the FC of ground, surface and/or  
31 crown fuels), the field average for the boreal forest would increase from  $35\pm 24$  t  $\text{ha}^{-1}$   
32 to  $39\pm 19$  t  $\text{ha}^{-1}$  and the discrepancy with GFED3 would decrease (from +79 to +60%).  
33 This value of  $39\pm 19$  t  $\text{ha}^{-1}$  may be more representative for boreal wildfires. Note that

1 for temperate and boreal forest measurements sometimes the more restrictive  
2 definition of FL (as presented in Section 1) was used, and this can have an impact on  
3 FC values as well; if one applies a CC calculated with respect to a restrictive pre-fire  
4 FL to total biomass available, the overall FC that was estimated can be too high.

5 For most biomes, a few field measurements had a FC that was an order of magnitude  
6 larger than the other values listed in Table 1, which explains the discrepancy between  
7 the median and average FC values that was sometimes found (e.g. the ‘Australia and  
8 Tasmania’ region in Figure 4). By neglecting these ‘outliers’ the biome-averaged  
9 values may change significantly, but this could lead to erroneously low or high  
10 estimates as well. In general, FC shows large variability between biomes, within  
11 biomes, and even within a specific fuel type. FC is often hard to measure, and since  
12 only a few measurements are available for some biomes, care should be taken when  
13 using the biome-averaged values presented in this paper.

### 15 **3.3. Field measurement averages and comparison with FRE derived FC** 16 **estimates**

17 Besides a comparison with GFED3 data, we performed a comparison of field  
18 measurement averages with fire radiative energy (FRE, time-integrated FRP) derived  
19 estimates as well. The basis of the FRE approach for estimating FC is that the heat  
20 content of vegetation is more or less constant, and that the FRE released and observed  
21 through a sensor can be converted to FC by the use of a constant factor, which was  
22 found to be  $0.368 \pm 0.015$  kg MJ<sup>-1</sup> across of a range of fuels burned under laboratory  
23 conditions (Wooster et al., 2005). More recent field experiments, however, indicated  
24 that the conversion factor might be slightly lower for grasslands in North America  
25 (Kumar et al., 2011; Schroeder et al., 2014). Smith et al. (2013) investigated the  
26 relationship between FC and FRE for pine needles with different fuel moisture  
27 contents, and found that FRE released per kilogram biomass consumed decreased  
28 with fuel moisture content due to the energy required to evaporate and desorb the  
29 water contained in the fuel. Thus, corrections for FRE based FC assessments may be  
30 needed for fuels that burn at higher fuel moisture contents. Differences in heat content  
31 of fuel may introduce additional variation: For example, a clear relationship between  
32 FRE and FC has not yet been demonstrated for fires that burn mostly in the  
33 smoldering stage, like organic soils in boreal forests or large woody debris and trunks

1 | in tropical deforestation regions. Another potential source of uncertainty in the  
2 | relation between satellite-derived FRE and FC is the correction for atmospheric  
3 | disturbances, which may significantly alter FRP retrievals and hence estimates of FC  
4 | (Schroeder et al., 2014). Note that, currently, atmospheric correction is not performed  
5 | for the standard fire products derived from MODIS. Moreover, Schroeder et al.  
6 | (2014) also indicate that cloud masking in the MODIS FRP product may lead to FRP  
7 | underestimates as hotspots under thick smoke may be erroneously masked out.  
8 | Despite all these uncertainties this approach is promising and there is a number of  
9 | studies that relate FRE to FC on regional (Roberts et al., 2011; Freeborn et al., 2011)  
10 | to global scales (Vermote et al., 2009; Ellicott et al., 2009), and Kaiser et al. (2012)  
11 | used FRE to represent biomass burning in an operational chemical weather forecast  
12 | framework. However, since such estimates can be derived independently of burned  
13 | area, only a limited number of studies allow a straightforward comparison to the FC  
14 | values given in mass units per area burned from the field experiments used in this  
15 | study.

16 | A common finding of FRE-based estimates is that FC is generally lower than GFED  
17 | estimates, as shown by Roberts et al. (2011) who estimated FC for Africa through an  
18 | integration of MODIS burned area and Meteosat Spinning Enhanced Visible and  
19 | Infrared Imager (SEVIRI) derived FRP and found values that were about 35% lower  
20 | than GFED. For the savanna biome a median FC of  $\sim 4 \text{ t ha}^{-1}$  was found for grassland  
21 | and shrubland. This corresponds relatively well with the mean of  $4.3 \pm 2.2 \text{ t ha}^{-1}$  and  
22 |  $5.1 \pm 2.2 \text{ t ha}^{-1}$  found in grassland savanna and wooded savanna field studies we  
23 | compiled, respectively. Boschetti and Roy (2009) explored temporal integration and  
24 | spatial extrapolation strategies for fusing MODIS FRP and MODIS burned area data  
25 | over a single large fire in a grassland dominated area with sparse eucalypt trees in  
26 | northern Australia. They estimated a FC range of  $3.97\text{-}4.13 \text{ t ha}^{-1}$ , which is well  
27 | within the range found in the Australian FC studies summarized in Table 1. Kumar et  
28 | al. (2011) exploited properties of the power law distribution to estimate FC from FRP  
29 | for an Australian savanna and a study area in the Brazilian Amazon. While their FC  
30 | estimate of  $4.6 \text{ t ha}^{-1}$  of the Australian site is similar to the temporal integration results  
31 | of Boschetti and Roy (2009), the estimate for the Brazilian site is above  $250 \text{ t ha}^{-1}$  and  
32 | thus substantially higher than the biome-averaged value for Brazilian tropical forest  
33 | ( $117 \pm 56 \text{ t ha}^{-1}$ ).

1 In general, realistic values are often obtained for well-observed fires, but  
2 unrealistically low or high values can often occur especially for smaller fires due to  
3 the sparseness of FRP observations and inaccuracies in the temporal interpolation and  
4 the burned area estimates. While FRE seems to provide realistic estimates under a  
5 range of conditions, issues of undersampling of FRE and -maybe less important - the  
6 conversion of FRE to FC still remain to be addressed more completely in order to  
7 derive spatially explicit FC estimates using the FRP approach.

8

### 9 **3.4. Fuel consumption for different fuel categories**

10 As discussed in Section 3.1, the interpretation of average FC values for each biome  
11 should be done carefully. As an alternative to biome-averaged values, we also  
12 provided FC for specific fuel categories, which may be more useful for certain  
13 research areas or modeling communities. In Table 2 fuel category information was  
14 presented for the savanna, tropical forest, temperate forest and boreal forest biome.  
15 We focused on the main fuel categories found in literature, and classified these  
16 according to the US classification system. Most of these fuel categories were similarly  
17 defined in different studies and biomes, the woody debris classes for example were  
18 systematically based on their time lag. However, for measurements conducted in  
19 boreal forests the definition of woody fuel classes was less consistent, mainly due to  
20 differences between Canadian and American sampling methodologies (Keane, 2012).  
21 Especially the difference between surface and ground fuels can be therefore vague:  
22 e.g. litter is classified as surface fuel according to the US fire management standards,  
23 while many Canadian studies define litter and organic soils as the forest floor and thus  
24 ground fuel class. Obviously, this can cause problems when comparing studies, and  
25 therefore we recommend a more uniform measurement protocol for this fuel type and  
26 biome.

27 Certain fuel type averages presented in this paper were based on a minimum of 3  
28 different studies. For these fuel categories specifically, more field measurements are  
29 needed to decrease the uncertainty and better understand the variations found,  
30 especially within the boreal and tropical forest biomes. Measurements in the boreal  
31 and tropical peat biomes deserve specific attention in future measurement campaigns:  
32 although peat fires have been studied in several field campaigns, they still remain one  
33 of the least understood fire types due to poor knowledge of the depth of the burning

1 and the complex mix of trace gases emitted in these fires as a consequence of the  
2 belowground combustion that is less efficient than during surface or crown fires.  
3 Additional studies are needed in order to fully capture the variability and processes  
4 occurring in these biomes, especially considering their large FL and FC. Another  
5 biome that deserves more attention in future studies is crop residue, since our  
6 understanding of FC variability for different crop types is still poor.

7

#### 1 4. Summary

2 This study aimed to compile all peer-reviewed literature on measured fuel  
3 consumption in landscape fires. The field measurements were partitioned into 11  
4 different biomes, and for each biome we have reported biome averages and other  
5 statistics. For some biomes we provided information on different fuel categories as  
6 well. The number of study sites varied from 1 for the tundra biome, to 39 different  
7 measurement sites in the boreal forest biome. In total we compiled 124 unique  
8 measurement locations. The biome-averages and fuel type specific data of fuel load  
9 and fuel consumption can be used to constrain models, or be used as an input  
10 parameter in calculating emissions. Care should be taken though with using biome-  
11 averaged values because it is unclear whether these are representative and because  
12 there is substantial variability within biomes, as indicated by the large standard  
13 deviations found.

14 Modeled values from GFED3 corresponded reasonably well with the co-located  
15 measured values for all biomes except the savanna and tropical forest where GFED-  
16 derived values were over a factor two too high. In tropical forests, part of this  
17 discrepancy can be explained because field measurements only take one fire into  
18 account, while GFED also accounts for consecutive fires which boost fuel  
19 consumption.

20 Although the overall spatial representativeness of the fuel consumption field  
21 measurements was reasonable for most fire-prone regions, several important regions  
22 from a fire emissions perspective –including Southeast Asia, Eastern Siberia, and  
23 Central Africa– were severely under represented. When new information on fuel  
24 consumption becomes available, the field measurement database will be updated. The  
25 most up-to-date version can be retrieved from <http://www.globalfiredata.org/FC>. As a  
26 next step, we aim to improve our understanding of the drivers of regional and  
27 temporal variability within biomes, as well as for different fuel categories.

28  
29

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6

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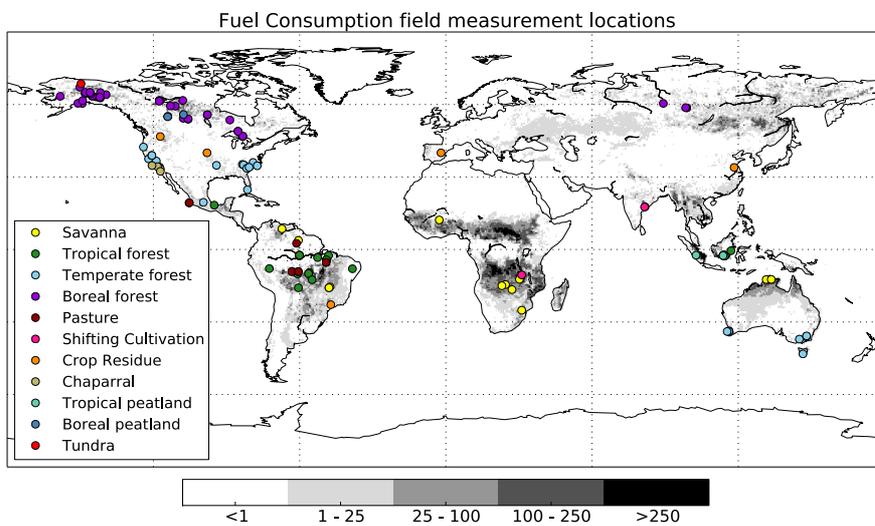
1 **Figures**

2

3 **Figure 1:** Fuel consumption field measurement locations for different biomes.

4 Background map shows annual GFED3 fire C emissions in  $\text{g C m}^{-2} \text{ year}^{-1}$ , averaged  
5 over 1997-2009.

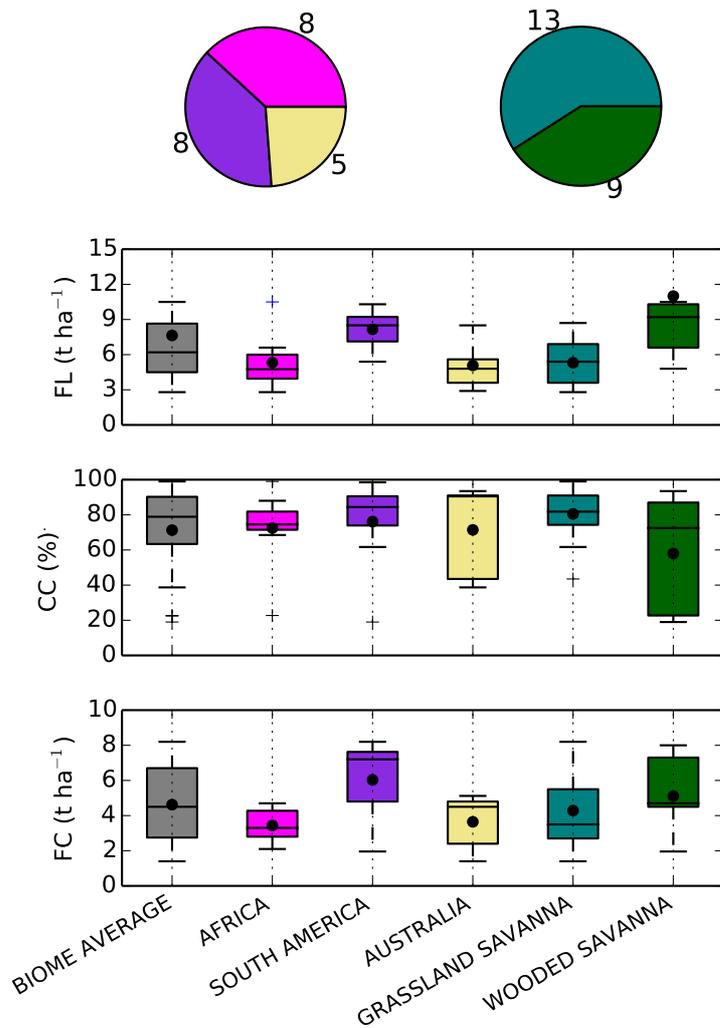
Thijs van Leeuwen 13/10/2014 19:34  
**Comment [1]:** New measurement sites were added



6  
7

1 **Figure 2:** Overview of field measurements of fuel load (FL), combustion  
 2 completeness (CC), and fuel consumption (FC) in the savanna biome. The pie charts  
 3 on top correspond to the amount of unique measurement locations for different  
 4 geographical regions (left) and vegetation types (right), and in the box plots below  
 5 field averages of FL, CC, and FC are presented. The boxes extend from the lower to  
 6 upper quartile values of the measurement data, with a line at the median and a black  
 7 filled circle at the mean. The whiskers extend from the box to show the range of the  
 8 data, and outliers are indicated with pluses.

Thijs van Leeuwen 13/10/2014 19:34  
 Comment [2]: Legend changed to 'Grassland savanna' and Wooded savanna'

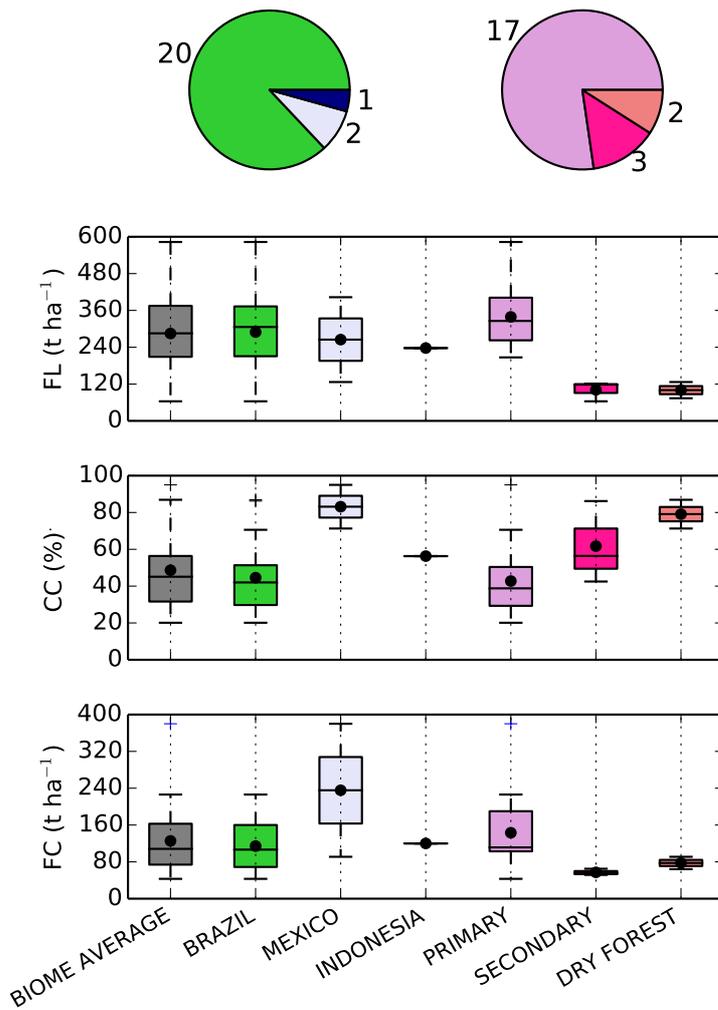


9

1 **Figure 3:** Overview of field measurements of fuel load (FL), combustion  
 2 completeness (CC), and fuel consumption (FC) in the tropical forest biome. The pie  
 3 charts on top correspond to the amount of unique measurement locations for different  
 4 geographical regions (left) and forest types (right), and in the box plots below field  
 5 averages of FL, CC, and FC are presented. The boxes extend from the lower to upper  
 6 quartile values of the measurement data, with a line at the median and a black filled  
 7 circle at the mean. The whiskers extend from the box to show the range of the data,  
 8 and outliers are indicated with pluses.

Thijs van Leeuwen 13/10/2014 19:33

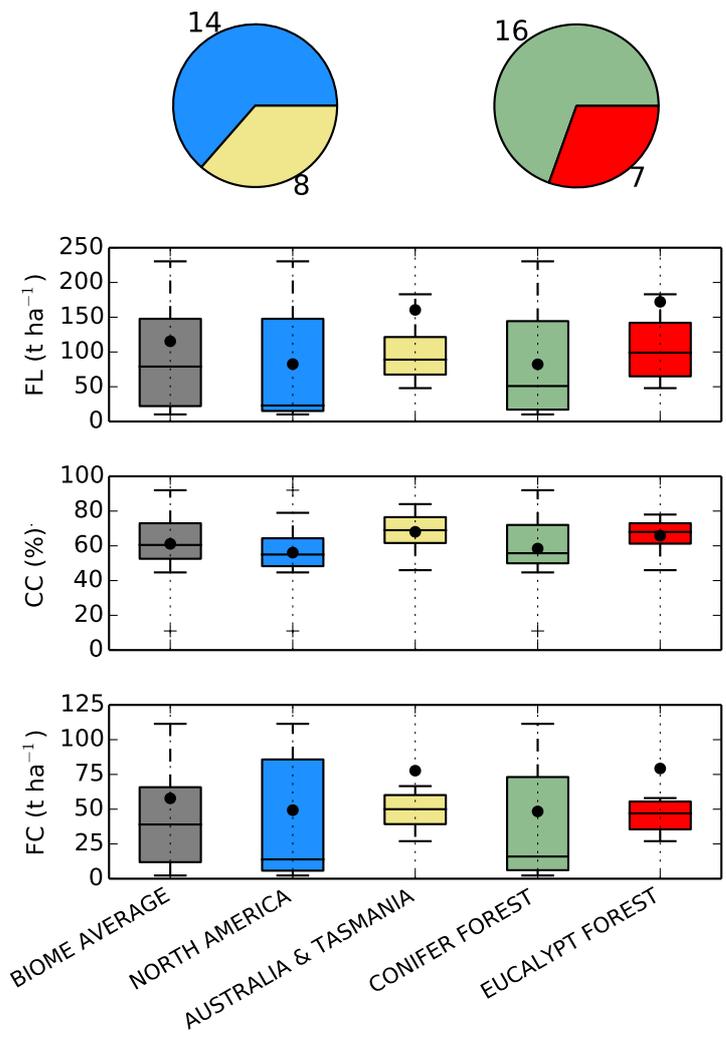
Comment [3]: Pie charts were adjusted



9

1 **Figure 4:** Overview of field measurements of fuel load (FL), combustion  
 2 completeness (CC), and fuel consumption (FC) in the temperate forest biome. The pie  
 3 charts on top correspond to the amount of unique measurement locations for different  
 4 geographical regions (left) and forest types (right), and in the box plots below field  
 5 averages of FL, CC, and FC are presented. The boxes extend from the lower to upper  
 6 quartile values of the measurement data, with a line at the median and a black filled  
 7 circle at the mean. The whiskers extend from the box to show the range of the data,  
 8 and outliers are indicated with pluses.

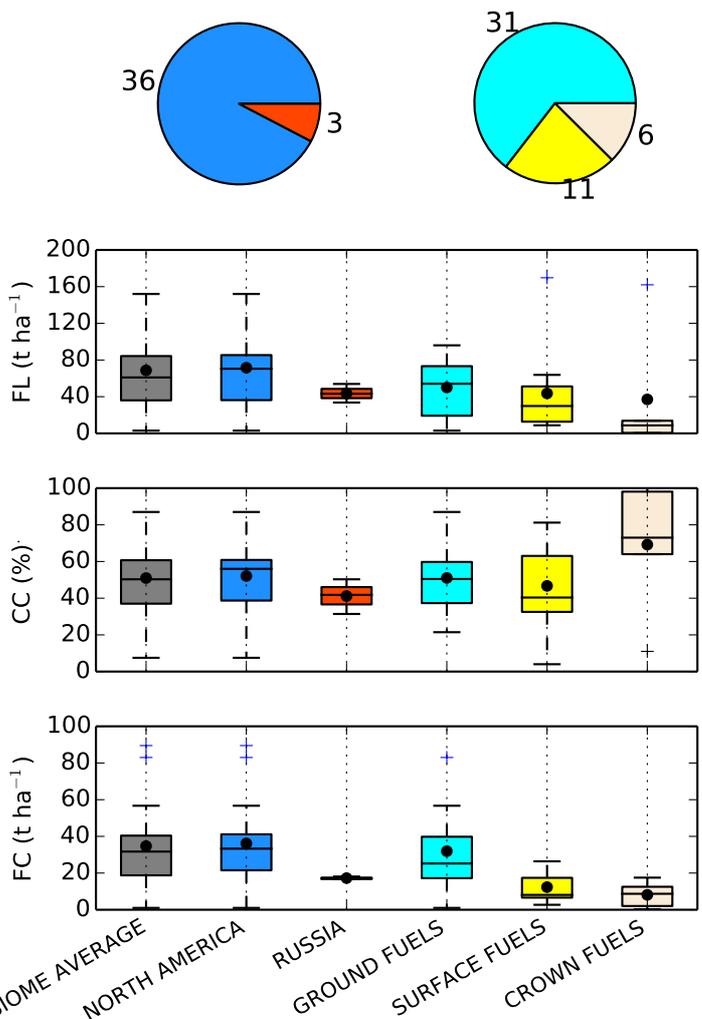
Thijs van Leeuwen 13/10/2014 19:32  
**Comment [4]:** Biome-averaged values for North America, Australia, Eucalypt forest, and Conifer forest were changed



9

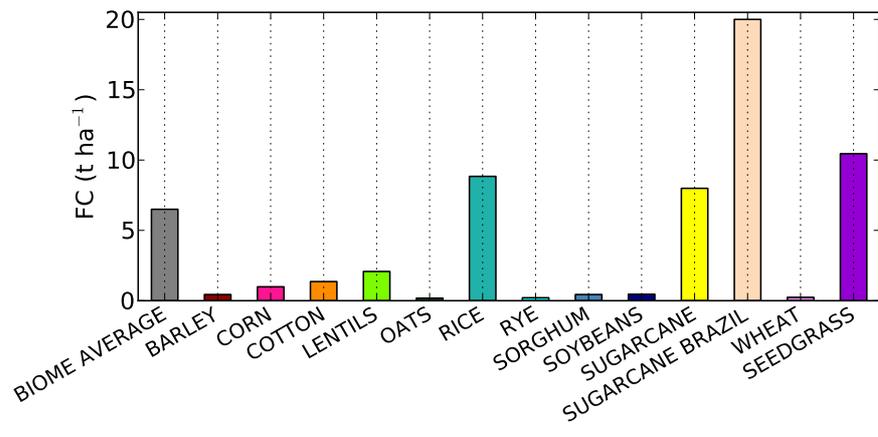
1 **Figure 5:** Overview of field measurements of fuel load (FL), combustion  
 2 completeness (CC), and fuel consumption (FC) in the boreal forest biome. The pie  
 3 charts on top correspond to the amount of unique measurement locations for different  
 4 geographical regions (left) and fuel classes (right), and in the box plots below field  
 5 averages of FL, CC, and FC are presented. The boxes extend from the lower to upper  
 6 quartile values of the measurement data, with a line at the median and a black filled  
 7 circle at the mean. The whiskers extend from the box to show the range of the data,  
 8 and outliers are indicated by blue pluses.

Thijs van Leeuwen 13/10/2014 19:32  
**Comment [5]:** Biome-averaged values for North America and Russia were changed



9

1 | **Figure 6:** Fuel consumption (FC) for different US crop types as reported by McCarty  
2 | et al. (2011), and Brazilian sugarcane (Lara et al., 2005). The grey bar corresponds to  
3 | the biome-averaged FC value for crop residue burning as presented in this study.



4

## 1 Tables

2 **Table 1:** Location, fuel load (FL), combustion completeness (CC) and fuel  
 3 consumption (FC) for field measurements conducted in the savanna (1a), tropical  
 4 forest (1b), temperate forest (1c), boreal forest (1d), pasture (1e), **shifting cultivation**  
 5 **(1f)**, crop residue **(1g)**, chaparral **(1h)**, tropical peat **(1i)**, boreal peat **(1j)**, and tundra  
 6 biome **(1k)**. Standard deviation (SD) is shown in parenthesis, and values indicated in  
 7 bold were used to calculate the biome average.

8 **Table 1a: Savanna**

Ref <sup>a</sup>	Lat (deg)	Lon (deg)	Location	FL (t ha <sup>-1</sup> )	CC (%)	FC (t ha <sup>-1</sup> )	Note
1	25.15S	31.14E	Kruger Park, South Africa	<b>4.4 (1.4)</b>	<b>80 (16)</b>	<b>3.5 (1.4)</b>	Lowveld sour bushveld savanna
1	12.35S	30.21E	Kasanka National Park, Zambia	<b>5.4 (2.1)</b>	<b>81 (15)</b>	<b>4.2 (1.0)</b>	Dambo, Miombo, Chitemene
1	16.60S	27.15E	Choma, Zambia	<b>5.1 (0.4)</b>	<b>88 (2)</b>	<b>4.5 (-)</b>	Semi-arid Miombo
2	14.52S	24.49E	Kaoma Local Forest, Zambia	<b>5.8 (3.8)</b>	<b>53 (32)</b>	<b>2.2 (1.2)</b>	Dambo & Miombo
3	15.00S	23.00E	Mongu region, Zambia	<b>4.2 (0.8)</b>	<b>69 (21)</b>	<b>2.9 (0.9)</b>	Dambo & Floodplain
4	12.22N	2.70W	Tiogo state forest, Senegal	<b>5.8 (1.6)</b>	<b>75 (15)</b>	<b>4.2 (0.7)</b>	Grazing & No grazing
5	15.84S	47.95W	Brasilia, Brazil	<b>8.3 (1.3)</b>	<b>88 (13)</b>	<b>7.2 (0.9)</b>	Different types of Cerrado
6	8.56N	67.25W	Calabozo, Venezuela	<b>6.9 (2.3)</b>	<b>82 (17)</b>	<b>5.5 (1.9)</b>	Protected savanna for 27 years
7	15.51S	47.53W	Brasilia, Brazil	<b>8.3 (-)</b>	<b>90 (-)</b>	<b>7.5 (-)</b>	Campo limpo & Campo sujo
8	15.84S	47.95W	Brasilia, Brazil	<b>8.9 (3.1)</b>	<b>92 (4.1)</b>	<b>8.2 (2.8)</b>	Different types of Cerrado
9	3.75N	60.50W	Roraima, Brazil	<b>6.1 (3.6)</b>	<b>56 (27)</b>	<b>2.6 (0.9)</b>	Different types of Cerrado
10	12.40S	132.50E	Kapalga, Kakadu, Australia	<b>4.8 (1.3)</b>	<b>94 (0.6)</b>	<b>4.5 (1.3)</b>	Woodland
11	12.30S	133.00E	Kakadu National Park, Australia	<b>5.6 (0.9)</b>	<b>91 (-)</b>	<b>5.1 (-)</b>	Tropical savanna
12	12.43S	131.49E	Wildman Reserve, Australia	<b>2.9 (1.8)</b>	<b>91 (14)</b>	<b>2.4 (1.1)</b>	Grass & Woody litter
13	12.38S	133.55E	Arnhem plateau, Australia	<b>3.6 (3.1)</b>	<b>44 (35)</b>	<b>1.4 (1.6)</b>	Early & Late season fires
14	12.38S	133.55E	Arnhem plateau, Australia	<b>8.5 (-)</b>	<b>39 (-)</b>	<b>4.8 (-)</b>	Grass & Open Woodland
15	17.65N	81.75E	Kortha Valasa & Kudura, India	<b>35 (6.4)</b>	<b>22 (7.7)</b>	<b>7.7 (2.6)</b>	Woodland

9 **Table 1b: Tropical forest**

Ref <sup>a</sup>	Lat (deg)	Lon (deg)	Location	FL (t ha <sup>-1</sup> )	CC (%)	FC (t ha <sup>-1</sup> )	Note
5	4.30S	49.03W	Marabá, Pará, Brazil	<b>207 (-)</b>	<b>48 (-)</b>	<b>103 (-)</b>	Primary & Secondary forest
16	2.29S	60.09W	Fazenda Dimona, Manaus, Brazil	<b>265 (-)</b>	<b>29 (-)</b>	<b>77 (-)</b>	200 ha clearing for pasture
17	7.98S	38.32W	Serra Talh., Pernambuco, Brazil	<b>74 (0.2)</b>	<b>87 (8.6)</b>	<b>64 (6.3)</b>	Second-growth tropical dry forest
18	4.50S	49.01W	Marabá, Pará, Brazil	<b>364 (-)</b>	<b>52 (-)</b>	<b>190 (-)</b>	Cleared for pastures
18	15.85S	60.52W	Santa Barbara, Rondônia, Brazil	<b>326 (-)</b>	<b>50 (-)</b>	<b>166 (-)</b>	Cleared for shifting cultivation
19	2.61S	60.17W	Manaus, Brazil	<b>425 (-)</b>	<b>25 (-)</b>	<b>107 (-)</b>	Tropical dense rainforest
20	9.11S	63.16W	Jamari, Rondônia, Brazil	<b>377 (31)</b>	<b>50 (4.5)</b>	<b>191 (33)</b>	Primary forest slash
21	2.61S	60.17W	Manaus, Brazil	<b>402 (-)</b>	<b>20 (-)</b>	<b>82 (-)</b>	Humid dense tropical forest
22	10.16S	60.81W	Ariguimes, Rondônia, Brazil	<b>307 (49)</b>	<b>36 (-)</b>	<b>110 (-)</b>	Open tropical forest
23	3.37S	52.62W	Altamira, Pará, Brazil	<b>263 (-)</b>	<b>42 (-)</b>	<b>110 (-)</b>	Lowland Amazonian dense forest
24	2.50S	48.12W	Igarape do vinagre, Pará, Brazil	<b>214 (-)</b>	<b>20 (-)</b>	<b>43 (-)</b>	Tropical dense rainforest
25	5.35S	49.15W	Djair, Pará, Brazil	<b>121 (17)</b>	<b>43 (-)</b>	<b>52 (-)</b>	Slashed Second-growth forest
25	9.20S	60.50W	Rondônia, Brazil	<b>118 (45)</b>	<b>56 (7.7)</b>	<b>65 (21)</b>	Second, Third-growth forest
25	4.30S	49.03W	José, Pará, Brazil	<b>64 (4.0)</b>	<b>87 (-)</b>	<b>55 (-)</b>	Third-growth forest
26	2.34S	60.09W	Fazenda dimona, Manaus, Brazil	<b>369 (187)</b>	<b>30 (-)</b>	<b>111 (-)</b>	Lowland Amazonian dense forest
27	9.52S	56.06W	Alta floresta, Mato Grosso, Brazil	<b>496 (-)</b>	<b>39 (18)</b>	<b>192 (87)</b>	1, 4, and 9 ha clearings
28	9.97S	56.34W	Alta floresta, Mato Grosso, Brazil	<b>306 (-)</b>	<b>24 (-)</b>	<b>73 (-)</b>	Primary forest, 4 ha
29	12.53S	54.88W	Feliz Natal, Mato Grosso, Brazil	<b>219 (-)</b>	<b>71 (-)</b>	<b>155 (-)</b>	Seasonal semi-deciduous forest
30	7.90S	72.44W	Cruzeiro do Sul, Acre, Brazil	<b>583 (-)</b>	<b>39 (-)</b>	<b>226 (-)</b>	Primary forest, 4 ha clearing
31	18.35N	95.05W	Los Tuxtlas, Mexico	<b>403 (-)</b>	<b>95 (-)</b>	<b>380 (-)</b>	Evergreen tropical forest

32	19.30N	105.3W	San Mateo, Jalisco, Mexico	127 (-)	71 (-)	91 (-)	Tropical dry forest
33	0.52S	117.01E	East-Kalimantan, Indonesia	237 (106)	56 (24)	120 (47)	Lightly & Heavily disturbed stands

1 **Table 1c: Temperate forest**

Ref <sup>a</sup>	Lat (deg)	Lon (deg)	Location	FL (t ha <sup>-1</sup> )	CC (%)	FC (t ha <sup>-1</sup> )	Note
34	34.80N	82.60W	Southern Appalachians, USA	110 (-)	59 (-)	65 (-)	Mixed pine hardwoods
34	35.21N	83.48W	Nantahala, N. Carolina, USA	177 (49)	52 (5.5)	93 (34)	Pine: Jacob W&E, Devil Den
34	36.00S	79.10W	Hillsborough, N. Carolina, USA	21 (1.2)	11 (-)	2.3 (-)	Loblolly pine forest floor
34	34.80N	82.60W	South East Piedmont, USA	-	-	5.2 (-)	Pinus Taeda plantation, forest floor
34	37.50N	122.00W	South East Coastal plain, USA	-	-	15 (9.1)	Pine forest floor
35	34.82N	94.13W	Scott County, Arkansas, USA	10 (-)	45 (-)	4.7 (-)	Shortleaf pine-grassland
36	36.60N	118.81W	Sequoia National Park, USA	231 (-)	92 (-)	212 (-)	Mixed conifer trees
37	38.90N	120.67W	Dark Canyon Creek, USA	141 (49)	79 (-)	111 (-)	Two week post-fire
38	38.90N	120.62W	Blodgett Forest, California, USA	154 (-)	70 (-)	108 (-)	Mixed conifer: Moist & Dry burn
39	24.73N	81.40W	National Key Deer Refuge, USA	23 (5.9)	57 (11)	13 (4.3)	Pine forest, Potential fuels
40	42.40N	124.10W	Southwest Oregon, USA	-	-	39 (-)	Mixed conifer forest
41	33.56N	81.70W	Savannah River, USA	19 (-)	55 (-)	11 (-)	Mature loblolly, old longleaf pine
42	34.63N	77.40W	Camp Lejeune, N. Carolina, USA	11 (3.8)	45 (29)	5.6 (4.7)	Pine Understory
42	34.01N	80.72W	Fort Jackson, S. Carolina, USA	10 (-)	54 (-)	6.3 (2.0)	Pine Understory
34	36.00S	148.00E	South-East Australia	79 (-)	84 (-)	67 (-)	27 year old Pine plantation
43	33.68S	116.25E	Wilga, Australia	48 (-)	76 (-)	28 (-)	Eucalypt forest
43	34.20S	116.34E	Quillben, Australia	183 (-)	46 (-)	58 (-)	Eucalypt forest
43	33.91S	116.16E	Hester, Australia	101 (-)	68 (-)	53 (-)	Eucalypt forest
43	37.09S	145.08E	Tallarook, Victoria, Australia	60 (-)	61 (-)	27 (-)	Eucalypt forest
43	33.93S	115.46E	McCorkhill, Australia	70 (-)	78 (-)	43 (-)	Eucalypt forest
43	43.22S	146.54E	Warra, Tasmania	644 (-)	62 (-)	299 (-)	Eucalypt forest
43	35.77S	148.03E	Tumbarumba, Australia	99 (-)	70 (-)	47 (-)	Eucalypt forest
44	19.50N	99.50W	Mexico City, Mexico	-	-	17 (12)	Pine-dominated forest

2 **Table 1d: Boreal forest**

Ref <sup>a</sup>	Lat (deg)	Lon (deg)	Location	FL (t ha <sup>-1</sup> )	CC (%)	FC (t ha <sup>-1</sup> )	Note
45	46.98N	83.43W	Aubinadong River, ON, Canada	99 (4.2)	66 (5.4)	34 (6.6)	Different depth classes used
46	46.78N	83.33W	Sharpsand Creek, ON, Canada	48 (10)	49 (18)	23 (7.6)	Immature jack pine
47	48.92N	85.29W	Kenshoe Lake, ON, Canada	332 (-)	7.5 (-)	24 (-)	Surface & Crown
48	63.38N	158.25W	Innoko, Alaska, USA	-	-	37 (7.0)	Black spruce forest/shrub/bog
49	64.45N	148.05W	Rosie Creek, Alaska, USA	-	-	83	Ground fuels
49	60.43N	149.17W	Granite Creek, Alaska, USA	-	-	30	Ground fuels
49	67.14N	150.18W	Porcupine, Alaska, USA	-	-	25	Ground fuels
49	63.12N	143.59W	Tok River, Alaska, USA	-	-	51	Ground fuels
49	63.45N	145.12W	Dry Creek, Alaska, USA	-	-	41	Ground fuels
49	63.08N	142.30W	Tetlin, Alaska, USA	-	-	56	Ground fuels
49	63.50N	145.15W	Hajdukovich Creek, Alaska, USA	-	-	129	Ground fuels
50	61.60N	117.20W	Fort Providence, NT, Canada	83 (10)	44 (7.6)	36 (5.8)	Jack pine & black spruce
51	65.10N	147.30W	Alaska, USA	-	-	19 (1.7)	Forest floor
52	64.40N	145.74W	Delta Junction, Alaska, USA	75 (-)	48 (-)	35 (-)	Ground fuels: (non)-permafrost
53	53.92N	105.70W	Montreal Lake, SK, Canada	43 (4.0)	62 (7.7)	27 (3.9)	Spruce, Pine, Mixed wood
54	65.03N	147.85W	Fairbanks, Alaska, USA	95 (17)	61 (17)	57 (19)	Different facing slopes
55	46.87N	83.33W	Sharpsand Creek, ON, Canada	13 (2.0)	69 (32)	9 (4.0)	Experimental fire: forest floor
55	48.87N	85.28W	Kenshoe Lake, ON, Canada	17 (3.0)	35 (13)	6 (2.0)	Experimental fire: forest floor
55	61.37N	117.63W	Fort Providence, NT, Canada	47 (9.0)	36 (9.0)	17 (3.0)	Experimental fire: forest floor
55	61.69N	107.94W	Porter Lake, NT, Canada	15 (0.0)	60 (20)	9 (3.0)	Experimental fire: forest floor

<a href="#">55</a>	55.07N	114.03W	Hondo, AB, Canada	<b>3 (1.0)</b>	<b>33 (35)</b>	<b>1 (1.0)</b>	Experimental fire: forest floor
<a href="#">55</a>	59.31N	111.02W	Darwin Lake, NT, Canada	<b>18 (3)</b>	<b>72 (20)</b>	<b>13 (3.0)</b>	Experimental fire: forest floor
<a href="#">55</a>	55.74N	97.91W	Burntwood River, MB, Canada	<b>72 (12)</b>	<b>26 (8.0)</b>	<b>19 (5.0)</b>	Wildfire: forest floor
<a href="#">55</a>	54.29N	107.78W	Green Lake, SK, Canada	<b>36 (13)</b>	<b>86 (54)</b>	<b>31 (16)</b>	Wildfire: forest floor
<a href="#">55</a>	53.57N	88.62W	Kasabonika, ON, Canada	<b>69 (19)</b>	<b>55 (46)</b>	<b>38 (30)</b>	Wildfire: forest floor
<a href="#">55</a>	55.74N	97.85W	Thompson, MB, Canada	<b>23 (14)</b>	<b>87 (63)</b>	<b>20 (8.0)</b>	Wildfire: forest floor
<a href="#">55</a>	54.05N	105.81W	Montreal Lake, SK, Canada	<b>61 (41)</b>	<b>57 (47)</b>	<b>35 (17)</b>	Wildfire: forest floor
<a href="#">55</a>	64.06N	139.43W	Dawson City, YT, Canada	<b>84 (30)</b>	<b>46 (31)</b>	<b>39 (22)</b>	Wildfire: forest floor
<a href="#">55</a>	59.40N	113.03W	Wood Buffalo Nat. Pk., Canada	<b>37 (9.0)</b>	<b>59 (35)</b>	<b>22 (12)</b>	Wildfire: forest floor
<a href="#">56</a>	60.49N	150.98W	Soldotna, Alaska, USA	<b>91 (22)</b>	<b>37 (5.2)</b>	<b>33 (4.4)</b>	Mystery creek 1-3
<a href="#">56</a>	61.61N	149.04W	Palmer, Alaska, USA	<b>84 (4.2)</b>	<b>61 (3.5)</b>	<b>51 (5.7)</b>	Deshka 1-2
<a href="#">56</a>	62.69N	141.77W	Tetlin Refuge, Alaska, USA	<b>105 (16)</b>	<b>45 (15)</b>	<b>49 (20)</b>	Tetlin, Chisana 1-4
<a href="#">56</a>	64.87N	147.71W	Fairbanks, Alaska, USA	<b>86 (17)</b>	<b>37 (22)</b>	<b>32 (22)</b>	Bonanza Creek, Frostfire
<a href="#">57</a>	63.00N	142.00W	Alaska, USA	<b>152 (-)</b>	<b>59 (-)</b>	<b>90 (-)</b>	Black spruce forest
<a href="#">58</a>	65.00N	146.00W	Alaska, USA	<b>72 (-)</b>	<b>58 (-)</b>	<b>40 (-)</b>	Black spruce forest
<a href="#">59</a>	60.45N	89.25E	Bor, Krasnoyarsk, Russia	<b>34 (-)</b>	<b>50 (-)</b>	<b>17 (-)</b>	Pine-lichen forest & litter
<a href="#">60</a>	58.58N	98.92E	Lower Angara, Russia	<b>54 (12)</b>	<b>31 (15)</b>	<b>17 (8.6)</b>	Scots pine, Larch mixed-wood
<a href="#">60</a>	58.70N	98.42E	Lower Angara, Russia	<b>43 (-)</b>	<b>42 (-)</b>	<b>18 (-)</b>	Scots pine, Larch mixed-wood

**1 Table 1e: Pasture**

Ref <sup>a</sup>	Lat (deg)	Lon (deg)	Location	FL (t ha <sup>-1</sup> )	CC (%)	FC (t ha <sup>-1</sup> )	Note
<a href="#">20</a>	9.17S	63.18W	Jamari, Rondônia, Brazil	<b>66 (13)</b>	<b>31 (10)</b>	<b>21 (17)</b>	12-year old pasture site
<a href="#">61</a>	5.30S	49.15W	Fransico, Pará, Brazil	<b>53 (4.8)</b>	<b>83 (-)</b>	<b>44 (-)</b>	2 slash fires prior to burning
<a href="#">61</a>	9.20S	60.50W	João & Durval, Rondônia, Brazil	<b>96 (-)</b>	<b>34 (-)</b>	<b>30 (-)</b>	4-year old pasture site
<a href="#">62</a>	2.54N	61.28W	Vila de Apiiau, Roraima, Brazil	<b>119 (-)</b>	<b>20 (-)</b>	<b>24 (-)</b>	Pasture and Forest
<a href="#">32</a>	19.30N	105.3W	San Mateo, Jalisco, Mexico	<b>35 (-)</b>	<b>69 (-)</b>	<b>23 (-)</b>	High & Low severity

**2 Table 1f: Shifting cultivation**

Ref <sup>a</sup>	Lat (deg)	Lon (deg)	Location	FL (t ha <sup>-1</sup> )	CC (%)	FC (t ha <sup>-1</sup> )	Note
<a href="#">63</a>	<a href="#">10.53S</a>	<a href="#">31.14E</a>	<a href="#">Kasama, Zambia</a>	<a href="#">75 (-)</a>	<a href="#">64 (-)</a>	<a href="#">43 (-)</a>	<a href="#">Shifting cultivation</a>
<a href="#">64</a>	<a href="#">17.59N</a>	<a href="#">81.55E</a>	<a href="#">Damanapalli &amp; Velegapalli, India</a>	<a href="#">14 (-)</a>	<a href="#">30 (-)</a>	<a href="#">4 (-)</a>	<a href="#">Shifting cultivation in Dry forest</a>

**3**

**4 Table 1g: Crop residue**

Ref <sup>a</sup>	Lat (deg)	Lon (deg)	Location	FL (t ha <sup>-1</sup> )	CC (%)	FC (t ha <sup>-1</sup> )	Note
<a href="#">65</a>	40.00N	2.00W	Spain, Europe	<b>1.4 (-)</b>	<b>80 (-)</b>	<b>1.1 (-)</b>	Cereal crops
<a href="#">66</a>	22.85S	47.60W	Piracicaba, Sao Paulo, Brazil	-	-	<b>20 (-)</b>	Sugar cane
<a href="#">67</a>	33.94N	118.33E	Suqian, China	<b>6.7 (1.2)</b>	<b>44 (4.6)</b>	<b>2.9 (0.5)</b>	Mix (wheat, rice, corn, potato)
<a href="#">68</a>	40.00N	98.00E	North America	<b>2.4 (3.6)</b>	<b>86 (6.0)</b>	<b>2.1 (3.2)</b>	Mix of crop types
<a href="#">68</a>	46.73N	117.18E	North America	<b>12 (-)</b>	<b>90 (-)</b>	<b>11 (-)</b>	Seedgrass

**5 Table 1h: Chaparral**

Ref <sup>a</sup>	Lat (deg)	Lon (deg)	Location	FL (t ha <sup>-1</sup> )	CC (%)	FC (t ha <sup>-1</sup> )	Note
<a href="#">69</a>	34.10N	117.47W	Lodi Canyon, California, USA	-	-	<b>45 (-)</b>	Prescribed chaparral fire
<a href="#">70</a>	33.33N	117.16W	Bear Creek, California, USA	<b>60 (5.9)</b>	<b>83 (6.0)</b>	<b>50 (8.4)</b>	Mature caenothus & Chamise
<a href="#">70</a>	34.29N	118.33W	Newhall, California, USA	<b>20 (6.7)</b>	<b>75 (4.0)</b>	<b>15 (5.4)</b>	Mature chamise
<a href="#">70</a>	32.32N	117.15W	TNC, California, USA	<b>21 (-)</b>	<b>77 (-)</b>	<b>16 (-)</b>	Young & Healthy chamise
<a href="#">42</a>	<a href="#">34.73N</a>	<a href="#">120.57W</a>	<a href="#">Vandenberg, California, USA</a>	<a href="#">14 (-)</a>	<a href="#">68 (-)</a>	<a href="#">10 (-)</a>	<a href="#">Coastal sage &amp; Maritime chaparral</a>

**6 Table 1i: Tropical peat**

Ref <sup>a</sup>	Lat (deg)	Lon (deg)	Location	FL (t ha <sup>-1</sup> )	CC (%)	FC (t ha <sup>-1</sup> )	Note
<a href="#">71</a>	2.52S	113.79E	Kalimantan, Indonesia	-	-	<b>500 (-)</b>	Peat & Overstory
<a href="#">72</a>	2.50S	114.17E	Palangka Raya, Indonesia	<b>399 (11)</b>	<b>27 (4.7)</b>	<b>109 (19)</b>	<a href="#">Peat &amp; Overstory</a>
<a href="#">73</a>	2.37S	102.68E	Pelawan, Riau, Indonesia	45 (6.1)	81 (10)	37 (8.2)	Litter & Branches
<a href="#">74</a>	2.52S	113.79E	Kalimantan, Indonesia	-	-	<b>332 (6.4)</b>	<a href="#">Peat &amp; Overstory</a>

**1 Table 1j: Boreal peat**

Ref <sup>a</sup>	Lat (deg)	Lon (deg)	Location	FL (t ha <sup>-1</sup> )	CC (%)	FC (t ha <sup>-1</sup> )	Note
<a href="#">75</a>	55.85N	107.67W	Patuanak, Canada	-	-	<b>42 (25)</b>	Continental & Permafrost bogs
<a href="#">76</a>	54.93N	114.17W	Chisholm, Canada	-	-	<b>43 (-)</b>	Hummocks & hollows

**2 Table 1k: Tundra**

Ref <sup>a</sup>	Lat (deg)	Lon (deg)	Location	FL (t ha <sup>-1</sup> )	CC (%)	FC (t ha <sup>-1</sup> )	Note
<a href="#">77</a>	68.58N	149.72W	Anaktuvuk River, Alaska, USA	<b>165 (15)</b>	<b>24 (5.0)</b>	<b>40 (9.0)</b>	Soil & Plants

<sup>a</sup> References: (1) Shea et al., 1996 / Ward et al., 1996; (2) Hoffa et al., 1999; (3) Hély et al., 2003b; (4) Savadogo et al., 2007; (5) Ward et al., 1992; (6) Bilbao and Medina, 1996; (7) Miranda et al., 1996; (8) De Castro and Kauffman, 1998; (9) Barbosa and Fearnside, 2005; (10) Cook et al., 1994; (11) Hurst et al., 1994; (12) Rossiter-Rachor et al., 2007; (13) Russell-Smith et al., 2009; (14) Meyer et al., 2012; (15) Prasad et al., 2001; (16) Fearnside et al., 1993; (17) Kauffman et al., 1993; (18) Kauffman et al., 1995; (19) Carvalho et al., 1995; (20) Guild et al., 1998; (21) Carvalho et al., 1998; (22) Graça et al., 1999; (23) Fearnside et al., 1999; (24) Araújo et al., 1999; (25) Hughes et al., 2000a; (26) Fearnside et al., 2001; (27) Carvalho et al., 2001; (28) Christian et al., 2007 / Soares Neto et al., 2009; (29) Righi et al., 2009; (30) Carvalho et al., [2011](#); (31) Hughes et al., 2000b; (32) Kauffman et al., 2003; (33) Toma et al., 2005; (34) Carter et al., 2004; (35) Sparks et al., 2002; (36) Stephens and Finney, 2002; (37) Bêche et al., 2005; (38) Hille and Stephens, 2005; (39) Sah et al., 2006; (40) Campbell et al., 2007; (41) Goodrick et al., 2010; [\(42\) Yokelson et al., 2013](#); [\(43\) Hollis et al., 2010](#); [\(44\) Yokelson et al., 2007b](#); [\(45\) Stocks et al., 1987a](#); [\(46\) Stocks et al., 1987b](#); [\(47\) Stocks, 1989](#); [\(48\) Goode et al., 2000](#); [\(49\) Kasischke et al., 2000](#); [\(50\) Stocks et al., 2004](#); [\(51\) Harden et al., 2004](#); [\(52\) Harden et al., 2006](#); [\(53\) de Groot et al., 2007](#); [\(54\) Kane et al., 2007](#); [\(55\) de Groot et al., 2009](#); [\(56\) Ottmar and Sandberg, 2010](#); [\(57\) Turetsky et al., 2011](#); [\(58\) Boby et al., 2010](#); [\(59\) FIRESCAN Science Team, 1996](#); [\(60\) Ivanova et al., 2011](#); [\(61\) Kauffman et al., 1998](#); [\(62\) Barbosa and Fearnside, 1996](#); [\(63\) Stromgaard, 1985](#); [\(64\) Prasad et al., 2000](#); [\(65\) Zarate et al., 2005](#); [\(66\) Lara et al., 2005](#); [\(67\) Yang et al., 2008](#); [\(68\) McCarty et al., 2011](#); [\(69\) Cofer III et al., 1988](#); [\(70\) Hardy et al., 1996](#); [\(71\) Page et al., 2002](#); [\(72\) Usup et al., 2004](#); [\(73\) Saharjo and Nurhayati, 2006](#); [\(74\) Ballhorn et al., 2009](#); [\(75\) Turetsky and Wieder, 2001](#); [\(76\) Benschoter and Wieder, 2003](#); [\(77\) Mack et al., 2011](#).

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1 **Table 2:** Fuel load (FL), combustion completeness (CC) and fuel consumption (FC)  
 2 field measurements for different fuel categories within the savanna (2a), tropical  
 3 forest (2b), temperate forest (2c), and boreal forest biome (2d). Standard deviation  
 4 (SD) is shown in parenthesis.

5 **Table 2a: Savanna**

CI <sup>a</sup>	Fuel category	FL (t ha <sup>-1</sup> )	CC (%)	FC (t ha <sup>-1</sup> )	References <sup>b</sup>
S	Dicots	0.4 (0.5)	91 (12)	0.3 (0.3)	1, 2, 5
S	Grass-dormant	1.9 (1.4)	93 (14)	1.3 (0.5)	1, 2, 5
C	Grass-green	0.4 (0.2)	88 (23)	0.3 (0.1)	1, 2, 5
S	Litter	2.1 (0.5)	88 (13)	1.9 (0.5)	1, 2, 5, 8, 12, 15
S	Tree/shrub leaves	0.4 (0.8)	64 (12)	0.3 (0.6)	1, 2, 5
S	Woody debris (0-0.64cm)	0.6 (0.7)	65 (16)	0.4 (0.5)	1, 2, 5, 8
S	Woody debris (0.64-2.54cm)	0.9 (1.0)	39 (25)	0.5 (0.7)	1, 2, 5, 8
S	Woody debris (>2.54cm)	1.0 (1.1)	21 (12)	0.3 (0.3)	1, 2, 5, 8

6 **Table 2b: Tropical forest**

CI <sup>a</sup>	Fuel category	FL (t ha <sup>-1</sup> )	CC (%)	FC (t ha <sup>-1</sup> )	References <sup>b</sup>
C	Attached foliage	3.8 (3.0)	94 (5.1)	3.6 (2.8)	5, 18, 20, 25, 32
S	Dicots	0.5 (0.3)	89 (23)	0.5 (0.3)	5, 18, 20, 25, 32
S	Leaves	13 (8.8)	73 (38)	11 (9.8)	16, 17, 19, 21, 24, 27, 28, 29
S	Litter	18 (9.9)	85 (30)	14 (8.4)	5, 17-29, 32
S	Liana	5.2 (0.8)	21 (35)	0.9 (1.4)	19, 21, 24
G	Rootmat	5.2 (2.7)	87 (13)	4.4 (2.2)	18, 20, 25
S	Woody debris (0-0.64cm)	4.6 (2.8)	94 (4.8)	6.4 (8.6)	5, 17, 18, 20, 25, 32
S	Woody debris (0.65-2.54cm)	17 (3.9)	87 (7.9)	15 (4.0)	5, 17, 18, 20, 25, 32
S	Woody debris (2.55-7.6cm)	27 (15)	65 (19)	18 (13)	5, 17, 18, 20, 25, 32
S	Woody debris (7.6-20.5cm)	45 (29)	41 (18)	18 (9.3)	5, 17, 18, 20, 25, 32
S	Woody debris (>20.5cm), <u>Trunks</u>	<u>147 (83)</u>	<u>32 (23)</u>	<u>37 (32)</u>	<u>5, 16, 18-23, 26-30</u>

7 **Table 2c: Temperate forest**

CI <sup>a</sup>	Fuel category	FL (t ha <sup>-1</sup> )	CC (%)	FC (t ha <sup>-1</sup> )	References <sup>b</sup>
G	<u>Organic Soil</u>	58 (40)	60 (44)	<u>25 (31)</u>	34, 37, 38
S	Litter	20 (11)	81 (8.9)	17 (9.9)	34, 37, 38
S	Woody debris (0-0.64cm)	1.2 (0.8)	87 (11)	1.0 (0.6)	36, 37, 38
S	Woody debris (0.65-2.54cm)	5.2 (1.9)	79 (11)	4.0 (1.2)	36, 37, 38
S	Woody debris (2.55-7.6cm)	6.0 (0.9)	73 (14)	4.3 (0.2)	36, 37, 38
S	Woody debris (7.6-20.5cm sound)	16 (9.6)	38 (42)	6.2 (8.2)	36, 37, 38
G	Woody debris (7.6-20.5cm rotten)	20 (4.1)	96 (5.4)	20 (4.8)	36, 37, 38

8 **Table 2d: Boreal forest**

CI <sup>a</sup>	Fuel category	FL (t ha <sup>-1</sup> )	CC (%)	FC (t ha <sup>-1</sup> )	References <sup>b</sup>
G	Ground fuels (Soil, Forest floor)	50 (29)	51 (18)	32 (26)	44, 48, 49, 50, 51, 53, 54, 55, 57, 58
S	Surface fuels	44 (49)	52 (25)	12 (8.1)	44, 46, 49, 52, 55, 58, 59
C	Crown fuels	37 (70)	71 (29)	8.1 (6.9)	44, 46, 49, 57, 59

9 <sup>a</sup> Fuel category classification: S = Surface fuels, G = Ground fuels, C = Crown fuels

10 <sup>b</sup> References: (1) Shea et al., 1996 / Ward et al., 1996; (2) Hoffa et al., 1999; (5) Ward et al., 1992; (8)  
 11 De Castro and Kauffman, 1998; (12) Rossiter-Rachor et al., 2007; (15) Prasad et al., 2001; (16)  
 12 Fearnside et al., 1993; (17) Kauffman et al., 1993; (18) Kauffman et al., 1995; (19) Carvalho et al.,  
 13 1995; (20) Guild et al., 1998; (21) Carvalho et al., 1998; (22) Graça et al., 1999; (23) Fearnside et al.,  
 14 1999; (24) Araújo et al., 1999; (25) Hughes et al., 2000a; (26) Fearnside et al., 2001; (27) Carvalho et  
 15 al., 2001; (28) Christian et al., 2007 / Soares Neto et al., 2009; (29) Righi et al., 2009; (30) Carvalho et  
 16 al., 2011.; (32) Kauffman et al., 2003; (34) Carter et al., 2004; (36) Stephens and Finney, 2002; (37)

1 | Bêche et al., 2005; (38) Hille and Stephens, 2005; (45) Stocks et al., 1987a; (47) Stocks, 1989; (49)  
2 | Kasischke et al., 2000; (50) Stocks et al., 2004; (51) Harden et al., 2004; (52) Harden et al., 2006; (53)  
3 | de Groot et al., 2007; (54) Kane et al., 2007; (55) de Groot et al., 2009; (56) Ottmar and Sandberg,  
4 | 2010; (58) Boby et al., 2010; (59) FIRESCAN Science Team, 1996; (60) Ivanova et al., 2011;  
5

1 **Table 3:** Biome-averaged values for fuel load (FL), combustion completeness (CC),  
 2 and fuel consumption (FC) field measurements. Column 5 shows the FC per unit  
 3 burned area as used in GFED3 ( $FC_{GFED3}$ ) and in column 6 the difference (%) of  
 4  $FC_{GFED3}$  compared to the average FC of field measurements is given. Standard  
 5 deviation (SD) is shown in parenthesis.

Biome	FL (t ha <sup>-1</sup> )	CC (%)	FC (t ha <sup>-1</sup> ) <sup>a</sup>	$FC_{GFED3}$ (t ha <sup>-1</sup> ) <sup>b</sup>	Difference (%) <sup>c</sup>
Savanna	7.6 (6.5)	71 (26)	4.6 (2.2)	7.9	+72
Grassland <u>Savanna</u>	5.3 (2.0)	81 (16)	4.3 (2.2)	7.7	+78
Wooded <u>Savanna</u>	11 (9.1)	58 (32)	5.1 (2.2)	8.1	+59
Tropical Forest	285 (137)	49 (22)	126 (77)	215	+71
Temperate Forest	115 (144)	61 (18)	58 (72)	15	-74
Boreal Forest	69 (61)	51 (17)	35 (24)	62	+79
Pasture	74 (34)	47 (27)	28 (9.3)	168	+491
<u>Shifting Cultivation</u>	44 (-)	47 (-)	23 (-)	6.5	-72
Crop Residue	8.3 (9.9) <sup>d</sup>	75 (21)	6.5 (9.0)	5.6	-13
Chaparral	34 (23) <sup>e</sup>	76 (6.2)	27 (19)	3.5	-87
Tropical Peatland	1056 (876) <sup>f</sup>	27 (-)	314 (196)	228	-27
Boreal Peatland	-	-	42 (-)	25	-40
<u>Tundra</u> <sup>g</sup>	165 (15)	24 (5.0)	40 (-)	-	-

6 <sup>a</sup>For biomes where only one or two measurements are available, no uncertainty estimate is given.

7 <sup>b</sup>FC per unit area burned according to GFED3, averaged over 1997-2009. The number represents the  
 8 FC rate for the collocated grid cells, i.e. grid cells in which field measurement were taken. Note that for  
 9 this calculation the assumption was made that GFED burned area is equally divided over different fire  
 10 types in one grid cell, which may influence average  $FC_{GFED3}$  values.

11 <sup>c</sup> $FC_{GFED3}$  compared to the average FC of field measurements for collocated grid cells. Positive numbers  
 12 indicate that  $FC_{GFED3}$  is higher than the average FC of field measurements.

13 <sup>d</sup>We assumed an average CC of 88% as reported in McCarty et al. (2011) to estimate FL for the study  
 14 of Lara et al. (2005).

15 <sup>e</sup>We assumed a CC of 76% (average CC for studies of Hardy et al. (1996) and Yokelson et al. (2013))  
 16 to estimate FL for the study of Cofer III et al. (1988).

17 <sup>f</sup>We assumed an average CC of 27.2% as reported in Usup et al. (2004) to estimate FL for studies of  
 18 Page et al. (2002) and Ballhorn et al. (2009).

19 <sup>g</sup>For the measurement location in the tundra biome no area burned was detected by GFED, and  
 20 therefore no comparison with GFED3 estimates was made.

1 **Letter to editor**

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Rio de Janeiro, 13/10/2014

4 Dear editor of ACP,

5 We greatly appreciate the constructive reviews and editor assessments of our paper.  
6 Based on the reviewers' comments we modified the text and expanded the database  
7 by including several new interesting studies. More specifically, the following main  
8 concerns of the reviewers were addressed:

9 - The level of scientific focus was increased by providing uncertainties (either  
10 standard deviation or range, depending on the number of studies available) throughout  
11 the text for the different FL, CC and FC values.

12 - Terminology like 'fuel loading' and 'ground fuels' are now more clearly defined and  
13 used more consistently throughout the paper. The same counts for the definition of the  
14 different biomes: for example, we used a fraction tree cover map now to distinguish  
15 between wooded savanna and tropical dry forest.

16 - Within the temperate and boreal forest biomes we expanded the discussion on  
17 differences in wildfire and prescribed fire fuel consumption. Moreover, new biome-  
18 averaged values for both biomes are presented.

19 - We introduced a new 'shifting cultivation' section, and removed these  
20 measurements from the pasture section.

21

22 Please find a detailed response below.

23

24 Kind regards,

25 Thijs van Leeuwen, on behalf of all co-authors

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## Response to referee #1 (R. Yokelson)

### General comments:

*This can be a useful database for the scientific community with a bit more work. The authors could highlight in the abstract, or elsewhere sooner in paper, that this is an updateable database that resides on the Internet.*

We highlight in the Introduction Section that the database will be updated frequently and is available online, by adding the following sentence:

P6L16-17: “The database, available at <http://www.globalfiredata.org/FC>, will be updated when new information becomes available.”

In addition, this message was repeated in the Summary Section:

P30L23-25: “When new information on fuel consumption becomes available, the field measurement database will be updated. The most up-to-date version can be retrieved from <http://www.globalfiredata.org/FC>.”

*A few methodological notes. In much of the refereed literature “fuel loading” is considered equivalent to “total biomass.” In US land management agencies, and some refereed literature, “fuel” has a very different operational definition meaning the biomass expected to experience significant consumption under the current weather and fuel moisture conditions. It’s not uncommon then to calculate fuel loading (FL) as e.g. “biomass less than 2.5 cm in diameter and less than one meter above ground.” The authors allude to possibly using the more restrictive operational definition on page 4 line 14. It’s important to distinguish because if one applies a combustion completeness (CC) calculated with respect to a restrictive pre-fire fuel loading to total biomass, the overall biomass burned or “fuel consumption” (FC) can be too high. The authors should ensure they do not fall in that trap.*

It is indeed important to distinguish between these different definitions, because the calculated combustion completeness with respect to total biomass or the more restrictive fuel load will impact the fuel consumption estimates.

In the database presented we only allude to a more restrictive operational definition when authors of a refereed study did so, and in some of these studies a ‘total available biomass’ is not even presented. To make clear that in most of the literature consulted the ‘fuel load’ was actually equivalent to ‘total available biomass’, we changed the following text in the Introduction Section:

P4L22-29: “In general, the FL is equivalent to the total biomass available. New studies do provide estimates of standing biomass (e.g. Baccini et al., 2012). However, fires do not necessarily affect standing biomass. Especially in savannas the trees are usually protected from burning by a thick barch and in some of the literature the FL therefore has a more restrictive definition, referring to only that portion of the total available biomass that normally burns under specified fire conditions, which is often only the fine ground fuels. In both definitions the FL is typically expressed as the mass of fuel per unit area on a dry weight basis.”

Moreover, we expanded the discussion in Section 3.2 by making clear that this fuel load definition issue will add uncertainty and may impact the FC:

P25L33-P26L4: “Note that for temperate and boreal forest measurements sometimes the more restrictive definition of FL (as presented in Section 1) was used, and this can have an impact on FC values as well; if one applies a CC calculated with respect to a restrictive pre-fire FL to total biomass available, the overall FC that was estimated can

1 be too high.”

2  
3 *Also, the temperate forest and chaparral ecosystem-average FC values seem too high*  
4 *and some effort should be made to distinguish wild and prescribed fire FC at least for*  
5 *the temperate forest ecosystem as explained in more detail below. Section 3.7 and*  
6 *Table 5 of this open-access paper provides some prescribed fire FL and FC*  
7 *measurements the authors may want to include: [http://www.atmos-chem-](http://www.atmos-chem-phys.net/13/89/2013/acp-13-89-2013.html)*  
8 *phys.net/13/89/2013/acp-13-89-2013.html*

9 As noted by the reviewer, fuel consumption of wildfires is higher than in prescribed  
10 fires according to conventional wisdom and also according to the data presented in  
11 Tables 1 of our paper. We agree that these differences between wildfires and  
12 prescribed burns are too large to neglect, and therefore we made the following  
13 changes:

14 \* We expanded Section 2 on the measurements, by stating that –in general- obtaining  
15 FC measurements for wildfires is more challenging than for prescribed burns:

16 P7L12-21: “Most of the studies we found in the literature rely on the planar intersect  
17 method (PIM), where fuel measurement plots are typically divided in multiple,  
18 randomized smaller subplots. The (small-size) biomass in these subplots is oven dried  
19 and weighed both pre- and post-fire to estimate the CC and to determine the FC. The  
20 consumption of larger-size material (diameter >10cm) is often estimated based on  
21 experimental observations of randomly selected trunks and branches that were  
22 identified before the fire (Araújo et al., 1999). The PIM is mainly applied in  
23 prescribed burns, and obtaining FC measurements for large wildfires is logistically  
24 more challenging but can be based on comparing burned with adjacent unburned  
25 patches.”

26 \* Within the temperate forest biome we now distinguish between wildfires and  
27 prescribed burns:

28 P12L32-P13L7: “While tropical fires are largely intentionally ignited to pursue land  
29 management goals, the temperate forest is also subject to wildfires. Obtaining FC  
30 measurements for wildfires is obviously challenging, so most information is derived  
31 from prescribed fires which allow researchers to measure pre-fire conditions.  
32 However, these fires may not always be a good proxy for wildfires. For example,  
33 wildfires in western conifer forest of the US are often crown fires (while prescribed  
34 fires usually only burn surface fuels). Due to potential discrepancies with respect to  
35 FC, we distinguished between these fire types in Section 3.2.”

36 \* Several prescribed fire FL and FC measurements from the study of Yokelson et al.  
37 (2013) were included, as presented in Table 1c.

38 \* We calculated the biome-averaged values for the temperate forest biome in a  
39 different way: instead of focusing on ‘total FC’ studies, we now use all measurements  
40 presented in Table 1c. Thus, studies that provide information on one specific fuel  
41 class only (e.g. ground fuels (Goodrick et al., 2010)) were also included. Due to this,  
42 the calculated biome-averaged FC for the temperate forest biome decreased from  
43  $93 \pm 79 \text{ t ha}^{-1}$  to  $58 \pm 72 \text{ t ha}^{-1}$ , and is now closer to what we expect.

44 \* We expanded the discussion on differences between wildfires and prescribed fires in  
45 Section 3.2, and provide the reader with FC values that may be more representative  
46 for both fire types:

1 P25L15-P26L4: “In the temperate forest biome FC was underestimated in GFED3 by  
2 74% compared to the field measurement average for collocated grid cells. In our  
3 averaged field measurement estimate we included all measurements presented in  
4 Table 1c. As noticed in Section 2.3, it is likely though that studies that provided a  
5 total FC (i.e. the FC of ground, surface and/or crown fuels) are more representative  
6 for wildfires. Prescribed burns, on the other hand, tend to burn less fuel and therefore  
7 the studies that only include ground or surface fuels were probably more  
8 representative for this fire type. When focusing on studies that provide information on  
9 one specific fuel class only, the field average for the temperate forest would be  
10 significantly lower ( $13 \pm 12 \text{ t ha}^{-1}$ ) as well as the discrepancy with GFED3 (+14%).  
11 This FC value of  $13 \text{ t ha}^{-1}$  may be more realistic for prescribed fires, which contribute  
12 to roughly 50% of all temperate forest fire emissions in the contiguous United States  
13 (CONUS). Still, it remains very uncertain how well FC measured for specific fuel  
14 classes is representative for prescribed fires and wildfires. This issue also counts for  
15 boreal forests, where GFED3 overestimated the field measurements by almost 80%.  
16 When only including studies that provided a total FC (i.e. the FC of ground, surface  
17 and/or crown fuels), the field average for the boreal forest would increase from  $35 \pm 24$   
18  $\text{t ha}^{-1}$  to  $39 \pm 19 \text{ t ha}^{-1}$  and the discrepancy with GFED3 would decrease (from +79 to  
19 +60%). This value of  $39 \pm 19 \text{ t ha}^{-1}$  may be more representative for boreal wildfires.  
20 Note that for temperate and boreal forest measurements sometimes the more  
21 restrictive definition of FL (as presented in Section 1) was used, and this can have an  
22 impact on FC values as well; if one applies a CC calculated with respect to a  
23 restrictive pre-fire FL to total biomass available, the overall FC that was estimated can  
24 be too high.”

25 \* We decided not to label prescribed fires and wildfires in table 1c, since it is not  
26 always clear if a study is more representative for one of these fire types. Moreover,  
27 the study in Mexico (Yokelson et al., 2007) was actually the only ‘real’ wildfire that  
28 was measured.

29 \* Several chaparral measurements from Yokelson et al. (2013) were included, and  
30 lowered the biome-averaged FC from  $32 \pm 19 \text{ t ha}^{-1}$  to  $27 \pm 19 \text{ t ha}^{-1}$  and is now closer to  
31 what we expect.

32  
33 *The writing needs to have a sharper, higher-level scientific focus. The statement that*  
34 *readers must use “extreme caution with average values” doesn’t meet the normal*  
35 *scientific criteria for expressing the situation nor does omitting the uncertainties. The*  
36 *way to explain it scientifically is that FC is naturally variable and hard to measure*  
37 *and there are few measurements for some ecosystems. Thus confidence in the average*  
38 *value is low and the coefficient of variation is large. It’s important therefore to*  
39 *include uncertainties for each value in the text and let the user assess the implications*  
40 *for their application. In general, high uncertainty alone does not justify implementing*  
41 *a non-average value, but using non-average values could be justified if they were*  
42 *produced by a validated model that explains the observed variability in field*  
43 *measurements. If the authors believe such a model exists they should promote it*  
44 *clearly. At present, a comparison is presented towards end of paper, but no*  
45 *conclusion is presented after the comparison. Using a non-average value, but within*  
46 *the uncertainty, could also be of interest (or convenient) if it systematically improves*  
47 *representation of e.g. downwind concentrations. In this latter case, it would ideally be*  
48 *made clear by the user if altering the FC is the only reasonable solution or if a*  
49 *change in other uncertain parameters (e.g. burned area) cannot be ruled out.*

1 Although it is problematic to properly quantify uncertainties, especially given the  
2 'definition' problem for ecosystems and/or terms like 'fuel load', and limited amount  
3 of information for most biomes, we agree that more effort can be put into the  
4 scientific explanation and writing. In general, we made the following changes to have  
5 a sharper higher-level scientific focus throughout the text:

6 \* Uncertainties for each average value were consistently added. We appended the  
7 standard deviation, or range when only two values are available.

8 \* We added a more scientific discussion and conclusion on the use of biome-averaged  
9 values:

10 P26L5-13: "For most biomes, a few field measurements had a FC that was an order of  
11 magnitude larger than the other values listed in Table 1, which explains the  
12 discrepancy between the median and average FC values that was sometimes found  
13 (e.g. the 'Australia and Tasmania' region in Figure 4). By neglecting these 'outliers'  
14 the biome-averaged values may change significantly, but this could lead to  
15 erroneously low or high estimates as well. In general, FC shows large variability  
16 between biomes, within biomes, and even within a specific fuel type. FC is often hard  
17 to measure, and since only a few measurements are available for some biomes, care  
18 should be taken when using the biome-averaged values presented in this paper."

19

20 *Also, the word "rate" is used erroneously throughout the paper since "rate" implies*  
21 *an amount per time rather than an amount per area.*

22 Agreed and deleted where required.

23

24 *I believe the authors intent is to offer this a useful database and not a comprehensive*  
25 *treatise on uncertainties in calculations of biomass burned at various scales, but they*  
26 *could provide a slightly broader summary of uncertainty at the top of page 5 by*  
27 *including or recognizing some of the following points: A fire that is missed by FRP*  
28 *may be seen as burn scar, this is a possibility, but not a given fact because many*  
29 *short-lived fires also have small burn scars. In general, detection of fires as heat, fire*  
30 *emissions, and burn scars is far from complete. Challenges for bottom-up or top-*  
31 *down approaches are clouds, the cloud mask, and orbital gaps. Added challenges for*  
32 *bottom up approaches include fires that are too small, canopy obscuration, sites that*  
33 *green up before next look, and detected fires assumed to be in wrong ecotype or*  
34 *uncertainty in FC in general. Additional weaknesses of top-down include uncertainty*  
35 *in injection altitude, meteorology, secondary chemistry, poor spatial and temporal*  
36 *resolution, and the unknown contribution of other sources. All approaches are highly*  
37 *uncertain, but work should continue on all because biomass burning is a very*  
38 *important source.*

39 As noticed by the reviewer, the scope of this paper is to present a useful database and  
40 not a comprehensive treatise on uncertainties in calculations of biomass burned at  
41 various scales. In our paper we discuss different properties that are used to estimate  
42 emissions, and we do provide a short summary of their uncertainty and/or we refer to  
43 papers where these uncertainties are discussed in more detail. Examples are given in:

44 P4L14-19: "The burned area may be estimated directly from satellite observations,  
45 with the MODerate resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) 500 m maps  
46 (Roy et al., 2005; Giglio et al., 2009) being currently the most commonly used  
47 products for large-scale assessments. Although small fires and fires obscured by forest  
48 canopies escape detection with this method (Randerson et al. 2012), the extent of

1 most larger fires can be relatively well constrained in this way.”

2 P5L3-13: “Another approach that has been developed over the past decade is the  
3 measurement of fire radiative power (FRP) (Wooster et al., 2003; Wooster et al.,  
4 2005; Kaiser et al., 2012). FRP per unit area relates directly to the fuel consumption  
5 (abbreviated as ‘FC’ in the remainder of the paper) rate, which again is proportional  
6 to the fire emissions. The FRP method has several advantages compared to the Seiler  
7 and Crutzen (1980) approach, such as the ability to detect smaller fires and the fact  
8 that the fire emissions estimates derived this way do not rely on FL or CC. One  
9 disadvantage is that the presence of clouds and smoke can prevent the detection of a  
10 fire, and the poor temporal resolution of polar orbiting satellites hampers the detection  
11 of fast moving or short-lived fires (which still can show a burn scar in the burned area  
12 method) and makes the conversion of FRP to fire radiative energy (FRE, time-  
13 integrated FRP) difficult.”

14 However, to emphasize that uncertainties are substantial for the different properties,  
15 we added the following text and refer to van der Werf et al. (2010), who provide a  
16 more detailed discussion on these uncertainties:

17 P4L13-14: “These four properties are obtained in different ways and generally  
18 uncertainties are substantial (van der Werf et al., 2010).”

19

20 *The need to assign ecosystems properly to use this data suggests a possible additional*  
21 *short section would be useful with recommendations on vegetation maps/layers or at*  
22 *least citations to commonly used options and/or any review articles on the topic.*

23 Indeed, to use this database the different ecosystems need to be assigned properly, and  
24 therefore a clear and consistent definition throughout the paper is key. As suggested  
25 by the reviewer we redefined some biomes and provide a more clear description in the  
26 different biome sections (2.1-2.11). In general, the following changes were made:

27 \* Within the savanna biome we now distinguish between grassland savannas and  
28 wooded savannas, and use these terms consistently throughout the paper.

29 \* Within the tropical forest biome we distinguish between tropical evergreen forest  
30 and tropical dry forest. To distinguish between tropical dry forest and wooded  
31 savanna, we harmonized with the emission factor compilation of Akagi et al. (2011),  
32 in which 60% canopy cover was the delineation:

33 P12L6-10: “Different forest types may partly explain the discrepancy found, and  
34 therefore we distinguished between measurements conducted in primary tropical  
35 evergreen forest, secondary tropical evergreen forest, and tropical dry forest (Figure  
36 3). To distinguish between tropical dry forests and wooded savannas (Section 2.1), we  
37 harmonized with the emission factor compilation of Akagi et al. (2011) in which 60%  
38 canopy cover (Hansen et al., 2003) was the delineation between both ecosystems.”

39 \* To distinguish between boreal and temperate forests, we define boreal forest as  
40 “high latitudes of about 50-70°” forested regions on P14L10. Within the temperate  
41 and boreal forest biome we now distinguish between wildfires and prescribed fires as  
42 well.

43 \* Within the pasture biome (section 2.5) we removed the two shifting cultivation  
44 studies, which were then included into a new ‘shifting cultivation’ section (2.7).

45

46 Specific Comments:

1 *P8117, L3: first use of “rate” which I suggest to eliminate*  
2 “These fuel consumption (FC) rates depend” was changed to “Fuel consumption (FC)  
3 depends”.

4  
5 *P8118, L8: particles also*  
6 We changed “accurate trace gas emission estimates” to “accurate trace gas and  
7 particle emission estimates”.

8  
9 *P8118, L13: change “can be obtained directly” to “may be estimated” since there*  
10 *are options and it’s not an exact measurement.*  
11 “can be obtained directly” was changed to “may be estimated”.

12  
13 *P8119, L1: here “rate” is OK since power has time in the denominator.*  
14 “rate” was not deleted here.

15  
16 *P8119, L10 “emissions” to “consumption”*  
17 “emissions” was changed to “consumption”.

18  
19 *P8119, L15: append “which is updated on-line”*  
20 “The accompanying database is updated frequently and on-line.” was appended.

21  
22 *P8119, L17: add “also” after the first “is” since FC is fundamentally the difference*  
23 *between pre and post fire biomass loading. Assuming that FL X CC is as useful is*  
24 *strictly true if FL and CC don’t depend on each other.*  
25 The sentence was changed to:  
26 P5L22-24: “To improve and validate fire emissions models, it is crucial to gain a  
27 better overview of available FC measurements, as well as of the FL and CC  
28 components that together govern FC.”

29  
30 *P8119, L20: I believe it is fire-integrated FRE (energy) divided by fire-integrated*  
31 *burned area that might give FC under ideal conditions. Getting FC from FRP would*  
32 *be like trying to measure how far a car drove by measuring its speed at one point.*  
33 We agree, and to be more specific we changed the text to:  
34 P5L24-27: “This is obviously the case for emissions estimates based on burned area,  
35 but also FRP-estimates could benefit from this information because one way to  
36 constrain these estimates is dividing the fire-integrated FRE by the fire-integrated  
37 burned area, which in principle should equal FC.”

38  
39 *P8119, L23-24: I would just say that fine fuels usually have a higher CC than coarse*  
40 *fuels since there a general inverse relationship between FL and CC has not been*  
41 *demonstrated (at least not in this paper, e.g. more grass is not known to make CC*  
42 *decrease?).*  
43 Indeed, this inverse relationship between FL and CC has not been clearly  
44 demonstrated, and therefore the text was changed to:  
45 P5L30-33: “Forested ecosystems in general show relatively little variability in FL  
46 over time for a given location, but CC can vary due to weather conditions. Fine fuels  
47 usually burn more complete than coarser fuels, and therefore CC in grassland  
48 savannas is often higher than in forested ecosystems.”

49

1 *P8119, L24-25: In the absence of disturbances total forest biomass tends to increase*  
2 *at a well-behaved rate, but depending on how FL is defined it can change with the*  
3 *weather. The authors should choose one definition of FL and use throughout – or*  
4 *clarify that this problem adds uncertainty.*

5 When discussing seasonal variations of FL within the savanna biome, it is indeed  
6 important to clearly state how the FL is defined. To make clear that in most of the  
7 literature consulted the ‘fuel load’ was actually equivalent to ‘total available biomass’,  
8 we changed the following text in the Introduction Section:

9 P4L22-29: “In general, the FL is equivalent to the total biomass available. New  
10 studies do provide estimates of standing biomass (e.g. Baccini et al., 2012). However,  
11 fires do not necessarily affect standing biomass. Especially in savannas the trees are  
12 usually protected from burning by a thick barch and in some of the literature the FL  
13 therefore has a more restrictive definition, referring to only that portion of the total  
14 available biomass that normally burns under specified fire conditions, which is often  
15 only the fine ground fuels. In both definitions the FL is typically expressed as the  
16 mass of fuel per unit area on a dry weight basis.”

17 Moreover, we expanded the Discussion Section 3.2 by making clear that this fuel load  
18 definition issue will add uncertainty and may impact the FC:

19 P25L33-P26L4: “Note that for temperate and boreal forest measurements sometimes  
20 the more restrictive definition of FL (as presented in Section 1) was used, and this can  
21 have an impact on FC values as well; if one applies a CC calculated with respect to a  
22 restrictive pre-fire FL to total biomass available, the overall FC that was estimated can  
23 be too high.”

24  
25 *P8120, L9: Akagi et al listed 47 FC measurements for nine fuel types to provide*  
26 *examples, this paper is a first attempt at a comprehensive tabulation of refereed*  
27 *measurements.*

28 We changed the text and now refer to the useful work of Akagi et al. (2011):

29 P6L12-15: “Building on Akagi et al. (2011), who listed 47 measurements for nine fuel  
30 types, this paper is a first attempt to establish a complete database, listing all the  
31 available FC field measurements for the different biomes that were found in the peer-  
32 reviewed literature”.

33  
34 *P8121, L11: “After the burn” implies a prescribed fire or slowly moving wildfire and*  
35 *comparisons in and out of fire perimeter are also done post fire.*

36 Several changes were made to the description of the planar intersect method, and its  
37 acronym (PIM) is now used throughout the remainder of our manuscript:

38 P7L12-21: “Most of the studies we found in the literature rely on the planar intersect  
39 method (PIM), where fuel measurement plots are typically divided in multiple,  
40 randomized smaller subplots. The (small-size) biomass in these subplots is oven dried  
41 and weighed both pre- and post-fire to estimate the CC and to determine the FC. The  
42 consumption of larger-size material (diameter >10cm) is often estimated based on  
43 experimental observations of randomly selected trunks and branches that were  
44 identified before the fire (Araújo et al., 1999). The PIM is mainly applied in  
45 prescribed burns, and obtaining FC measurements for large wildfires is logistically  
46 more challenging but can be based on comparing burned with adjacent unburned  
47 patches.”

48  
49 *P8122, L5: is Mg ha-1 actually better? If using metric tons they are sometimes*

1 spelled “tonnes” to avoid confusion with British “ton” – either way it should be  
2 plural!  
3 We decided to stick to the tons ha-1, and therefore changed “ton” to “tons” instead.  
4  
5 *P8122, L16&17: Reminder, improper uses of the word “rate”*  
6 The word “rate” was removed here.  
7  
8 *P8123, L3: using “dry savanna” before defining, fix suggested next comment*  
9 *P8123, L5-7: suggest moving these two sentences after the Gill and Lana reference on*  
10 *previous page.*  
11 We followed the suggestion and moved the two sentences after the Gill and Allan  
12 (2008) reference.  
13  
14 *P8123, L4-5: Note I backed up. For grass production to limit area burned maybe it*  
15 *needs to be explained that fuel density can affect how well a fire propagates for a*  
16 *given wind speed?*  
17 We added a more detailed explanation by changing the text to:  
18 P9L8-14: “As these systems are generally fuel limited, grass production and  
19 consumption by herbivores are very important factors controlling the extent of area  
20 burned particularly in drier regions where rainfall can vary strongly between years  
21 (Menaut et al., 1991; Cheney and Sullivan, 1997; Russell-Smith et al. 2007). Grass  
22 production controls fire spread because low-biomass grasslands have less continuous  
23 fuel swards, and also because they burn at lower intensities which reduces the  
24 probability of spread”.  
25  
26 *P8123, L12-13: the lack of grasses that “restrict” nitrification causing moisture-*  
27 *independent low biomass in Australia. Can this be restated so it is more obvious what*  
28 *is meant?*  
29 We restated this sentence to:  
30 P9L19-21: “This difference is mostly due to the fact that Australia’s native grasses are  
31 limited by nitrogen availability at high rainfalls, something African grasses such  
32 as *Andropogon gayanus* overcome through various mechanisms (Rossiter-Rachor et  
33 al., 2009)”.  
34  
35 *P8123, L14: Miombo and Cerrado and “Monsoon” Forest are also commonly called*  
36 *“tropical dry forest,” maybe more often than a savanna? This is an important “gray*  
37 *area” that could be pointed out. In Akagi et al 2011 they adopted a percent tree cover*  
38 *value as an unambiguous threshold. Here the authors appear to have adopted yet*  
39 *another term that is seen sometimes: “wooded savanna.”*  
40 As mentioned by the reviewer, unclear definitions of these different ecosystems may  
41 confuse the reader and it is therefore important to point out this gray area. Within the  
42 savanna biome we consistently distinguish between grassland savanna and wooded  
43 savanna. We harmonized with the emission factor compilation of Akagi et al. (2011),  
44 in which 60% canopy cover (fraction tree cover (FTC)) was the delineation between  
45 wooded savanna and tropical dry forest. The FTC product was derived from the  
46 Vegetation Continuous Fields (VCF) collection which contains proportional estimates  
47 for vegetative cover types: woody vegetation, herbaceous vegetation, and bare ground  
48 (Hansen et al., 2003). This is stated in the tropical forest section (Section 2.2):  
49 P12L6-10: “Different forest types may partly explain the discrepancy found, and

1 therefore we distinguished between measurements conducted in primary tropical  
2 evergreen forest, secondary tropical evergreen forest, and tropical dry forest (Figure  
3 3). To distinguish between tropical dry forests and wooded savannas (Section 2.1), we  
4 harmonized with the emission factor compilation of Akagi et al. (2011) in which 60%  
5 canopy cover (Hansen et al., 2003) was the delineation between both ecosystems.”

6 *P8123, L20: I never heard of “dense woodland” meaning “tropical dry forest” or*  
7 *“open forest” or “wooded savanna.”*

8 We removed “dense woodland” and replaced it with “wooded savanna”.

10 *P8123, L24: Very important to add the variability here and throughout! I suggest to*  
11 *append standard deviation (or range in the case of only two values) to each average*  
12 *value given as a matter of habit.*

13 As explained in the 4<sup>th</sup> general comment, we added uncertainties for each average  
14 value throughout the text. In principle we append the standard deviation, but when  
15 only two values are available we use the range.

17 *P8123, L28&29: not sure regional differences are “substantial” especially compared*  
18 *to uncertainties or natural variation and maybe also add “nominally” before*  
19 *“higher.”*

20 We deleted “substantial” and added “nominally” before “higher”.

22 *P8124, L4: the “differences” are not statistically significant. “Conclusive findings”*  
23 *is a different concept.*

24 We agree that this is a different concept, and therefore we restated the sentence to:  
25 P10L10-11: “A larger number of measurements are required to conclusively say  
26 whether these differences are statistically significant.”

28 *P8124, L14: “surface area to volume”*  
29 *“area” was changed to “surface area”.*

31 *P8124, L23: This or in discussion may be a good place to point out that the analysis*  
32 *of CC data by Akagi et al 2011 (Sect 2.4) suggests that CC increases over the course*  
33 *of the dry season as large diameter fuels dry out. This idea is consistent with a*  
34 *seasonal decrease in MCE proposed by Eck et al. (2013):*

35 We decided to point out these temporal variations of CC (and thus FC) in the  
36 discussion (Section 3.1), where we added the following text:

37 P22L26-29: “In general, both FC and CC may increase over the course of the dry  
38 season as large diameter fuels dry out. This was also suggested by Akagi et al. (2011)  
39 for the savanna biome, and consistent with a seasonal decrease in MCE as proposed  
40 by Eck et al. (2013).”

42 *P8124, L24: I think the more precise terminology is tropical “evergreen” forest? A*  
43 *sentence fragment or some idea on how common droughts are would be helpful since*  
44 *the Amazon has had quite a few droughts in the last few years.*

45 We used the more precise terminology and replaced “Tropical rainforests” with  
46 “Tropical evergreen forests”.

47 Moreover, to highlight the importance of droughts in tropical forests, we included  
48 some relevant references for Indonesia (Field et al., 2009) and the Amazon (Marengo

1 et al., 2011; Tomasella et al., 2013).

2  
3 *P8125, L7: “tons” to “t” or “Mg.” I think you need to better differentiate at the*  
4 *outset between 1) deforestation fires, where as much biomass as possible is cut and*  
5 *piled and the desire is to remove the biomass as completely as possible, often in a*  
6 *series of burns and 2) mostly accidental or escaped fires in selectively logged forests*  
7 *where conversion to agriculture is not a goal. Then discuss the factors affecting these*  
8 *two fire types separately.*

9 “tons” was changed to “t”.

10 Within the tropical forest biome we distinguish between tropical evergreen forest and  
11 tropical dry forest. For tropical evergreen forest, we tried to better differentiate  
12 between deforestation fires and accidental fires by adding the following text:

13 P11L1-12: “Human activities have resulted in fire activity in tropical forests, often  
14 with the goal to clear biomass and establish pasture or cropland. These deforestation  
15 fires can be small-scale (e.g. shifting cultivation, discussed in Section 2.6) or on large  
16 scale with the aid of heavy machinery. In the latter case, biomass is often piled in  
17 windrows after the first burn and subject to additional fires during the same dry  
18 season to remove the biomass more completely. In large-scale deforestation regions  
19 like the state of Mato Grosso in the Brazilian Amazon, the expansion of mechanized  
20 agriculture could result in increased fuel consumed per unit area (Cardille and Foley,  
21 2003; Yokelson et al., 2007). All these fires, but also selective logging, may lead to  
22 more frequent accidental fires as fragmented forests are more vulnerable to fire  
23 (Nepstad et al., 1999; Siegert et al., 2001; Pivello, 2011).”

24  
25 *P8125, L20: This is a bit oversimplified: This paper: [http://www.atmos-chem-](http://www.atmos-chem-phys.net/7/5175/2007/acp-7-5175-2007.html)*  
26 *phys.net/7/5175/2007/acp-7-5175-2007.html Sect 2.3.2 gives a more specific*  
27 *discussion of past work by Fearnside, Kauffman, Cochrane, Morton, etc. In general,*  
28 *forest slash that doesn't burn in a first fire may be subjected to additional fires during*  
29 *the same dry season. If conversion to pasture is the goal more residual biomass can*  
30 *be tolerated and it is mostly removed during pasture fires in subsequent years. If*  
31 *conversion to e.g. mechanized soybean production is the goal, the slash (or residual*  
32 *material) is often assembled in windrows (long piles) to enhance CC. Other times*  
33 *crop residue fires or deforestation fires accidentally escape and burn some nearby*  
34 *degraded forest.*

35 We consulted the ACP paper and provided some more detail on the different  
36 processes, as presented in the previous comment.

37  
38 *P8126, L3-4: The authors should use more consistent definitions of various*  
39 *ecosystems. Here tropical dry forests are mentioned in the tropical forest section and*  
40 *many people might include Miombo in that. One possibility is to harmonize with the*  
41 *emission factor compilation of Akagi et al 2011 in which 60% canopy cover was the*  
42 *delineation between wooded savanna and tropical dry forest. From page 5 of that*  
43 *paper: “Tropical dry forest is also called “seasonal” or “monsoon” forest. Tropical*  
44 *dry forests (TDF) differ from “woody” savanna regions in that TDF are*  
45 *characterized by a significant (>60%) canopy coverage or closed canopies (Mooney*  
46 *et al., 1995; Friedl et al., 2002). Savanna regions are qualitatively described as*  
47 *grassland with an “open” canopy of trees (if any).”*

48 As suggested by the reviewer we redefined some biomes and provided a more clear  
49 description in the different biome sections (2.1-2.11). Regarding the tropical forest

1 biome: we now harmonized with the emission factor compilation of Akagi et al.  
2 (2011) in which canopy cover (fraction tree cover (FTC)) of at least 60% was the  
3 delineation between tropical dry forest and wooded savanna. The FTC product was  
4 derived from the Vegetation Continuous Fields (VCF) collection which contains  
5 proportional estimates for vegetative cover types: woody vegetation, herbaceous  
6 vegetation, and bare ground (Hansen et al., 2003).  
7 P12L6-10: “Different forest types may partly explain the discrepancy found, and  
8 therefore we distinguished between measurements conducted in primary tropical  
9 evergreen forest, secondary tropical evergreen forest, and tropical dry forest (Figure  
10 3). To distinguish between tropical dry forests and wooded savannas (Section 2.1), we  
11 harmonized with the emission factor compilation of Akagi et al. (2011) in which 60%  
12 canopy cover (Hansen et al., 2003) was the delineation between both ecosystems.”

13 P8126, L8: reminder “FC” ok by itself does not need “rate” to follow it  
14 “rate” was removed.

15  
16 P8126, L15: The observation of size or class dependent CC goes back to at least  
17 Ward et al 1992  
18 We have not included a citation because it is a very general observation.

19  
20 P8126, L16: “surface area”  
21 “area” was changed to “surface area”.

22  
23 P8126, L22: I suggest that this section be divided into prescribed and wild fires (PF  
24 and WF). Otherwise people may apply FC values of 93 t/ha for PFs where the typical  
25 value is ~5 t/ha: a huge overestimate for a fire type that applies to circa one million  
26 ha a year in US. To continue: the temperate forest FC totals and FC by class both  
27 seem way too high. E.g. 42 t/ha for duff as an average for temperate forest fires is  
28 already almost ten times typical total FC for prescribed fires which account for a  
29 large fraction of the burning. At the least, it may be that some attempt is needed to  
30 weight the “type averages” for WF and PF in this ecosystem by their relative  
31 occurrence. In addition, as a general consideration, the authors could consider  
32 weighting individual studies by the number of measurements in the study.

33 As pointed out by the reviewer, the presented biome-averaged FC values for the  
34 temperate forest may be problematic for certain users. Based on the reviewers’  
35 comments, we included several changes for –specifically- the temperate forest biome:

36 \* We expanded Section 2 on the measurements, by stating that –in general- obtaining  
37 FC measurements for wildfires is more challenging than for prescribed burns:

38 P7L12-21: “Most of the studies we found in the literature rely on the planar intersect  
39 method (PIM), where fuel measurement plots are typically divided in multiple,  
40 randomized smaller subplots. The (small-size) biomass in these subplots is oven dried  
41 and weighed both pre- and post-fire to estimate the CC and to determine the FC. The  
42 consumption of larger-size material (diameter >10cm) is often estimated based on  
43 experimental observations of randomly selected trunks and branches that were  
44 identified before the fire (Araújo et al., 1999). The PIM is mainly applied in  
45 prescribed burns, and obtaining FC measurements for large wildfires is logistically  
46 more challenging but can be based on comparing burned with adjacent unburned  
47 patches.”

48 \* Within the temperate forest biome we now distinguish between wildfires and

1 prescribed burns:  
2 P12L32-P13L7: “While tropical fires are largely intentionally ignited to pursue land  
3 management goals, the temperate forest is also subject to wildfires. Obtaining FC  
4 measurements for wildfires is obviously challenging, so most information is derived  
5 from prescribed fires which allow researchers to measure pre-fire conditions.  
6 However, these fires may not always be a good proxy for wildfires. For example,  
7 wildfires in western conifer forest of the US are often crown fires (while prescribed  
8 fires usually only burn surface fuels). Due to potential discrepancies with respect to  
9 FC, we distinguished between these fire types in Section 3.2.”

10 \* Several prescribed fire FL and FC measurements from the study of Yokelson et al.  
11 (2013) were included, as presented in Table 1c.

12 \* We calculated the biome-averaged values for the temperate forest biome in a  
13 different way: instead of focusing on ‘total FC’ studies, we now use all measurements  
14 presented in Table 1c. Thus, studies that provide information on one specific fuel  
15 class only (e.g. ground fuels (Goodrick et al., 2010)) were also included. Due to this,  
16 the calculated biome-averaged FC for the temperate forest biome decreased from  
17  $93 \pm 79 \text{ t ha}^{-1}$  to  $58 \pm 72 \text{ t ha}^{-1}$ , and is now closer to what we expect.

18 \* We expanded the discussion on differences between wildfires and prescribed fires in  
19 Section 3.2, and provide the reader with FC values that may be more representative  
20 for both fire types:

21 P25L15-28: “In the temperate forest biome FC was underestimated in GFED3 by 74%  
22 compared to the field measurement average for collocated grid cells. In our averaged  
23 field measurement estimate we included all measurements presented in Table 1c. As  
24 noticed in Section 2.3, it is likely though that studies that provided a total FC (i.e. the  
25 FC of ground, surface and/or crown fuels) are more representative for wildfires.  
26 Prescribed burns, on the other hand, tend to burn less fuel and therefore the studies  
27 that only include ground or surface fuels were probably more representative for this  
28 fire type. When focusing on studies that provide information on one specific fuel class  
29 only, the field average for the temperate forest would be significantly lower ( $13 \pm 12 \text{ t}$   
30  $\text{ha}^{-1}$ ) as well as the discrepancy with GFED3 (+14%). This FC value of  $13 \text{ t ha}^{-1}$  may  
31 be more realistic for prescribed fires, which contribute to roughly 50% of all  
32 temperate forest fire emissions in the contiguous United States (CONUS). Still, it  
33 remains very uncertain how well FC measured for specific fuel classes is  
34 representative for prescribed fires and wildfires.”

35 \* We decided not to label prescribed fires and wildfires in table 1c, since it is not  
36 always clear if a study is more representative for one of these fire types. Moreover,  
37 the study in Mexico (Yokelson et al., 2007) was actually the only ‘real’ wildfire that  
38 was measured.

39 \* The high estimate for duff FC ( $42 \text{ t ha}^{-1}$ ) can be explained by the fact that we  
40 included measurements from the study of Hille and Stevens (2005 - Mixed conifer  
41 forest duff consumption during prescribed fires: tree crown impacts, Forest Science).  
42 We now included a few other measurements from Carter et al. (2003), and the average  
43 FC for ‘organic soil’ decreased to  $25 \pm 31 \text{ t ha}^{-1}$ .

44 \* In general, we decided not to give more weight to studies reporting more  
45 measurement in a certain region to prevent biases.

46  
47 P8127, L6: *The Mexico study should be included in average and weighted by the*

1 *relative number of measurements. FL and CC are usually secondary products from*  
2 *measuring FC anyway and the FL definition has not yet been clarified.*

3 We now included the Mexico study of Yokelson et al. (2007), which slightly lowered  
4 the biome-averaged FC for temperate forest.

5  
6 *P8127, L25: very little woody debris on sites subject to frequent PF.*

7 Differences between prescribed fire and wildfire FC are now discussed in more detail  
8 in Section 3.2. To provide the reader with more background information on the  
9 combustion of sound and rotten woody debris, we now refer to the review paper of  
10 Hyde et al. (2011).

11  
12 *P8128, L4: Much of the Asian boreal forest is disturbed by illegal/legal logging in*  
13 *Siberia. Vandergert, P., and Newell, J.: Illegal logging in the Russian Far East and*  
14 *Siberia, Int. Forest. Rev., 5, 303–6, 2003.*

15 We included the following sentence:

16 P14L14-16: “However, much of the Asian boreal forests are disturbed by (il)legal  
17 logging activities (Vandergert and Newel, 2003) which can increase fire activity in  
18 more remote regions (Mollicone et al., 2006).”

19  
20 *P8128, L10: Most of the FC in a crown fire can be duff.*

21 The reviewer makes a good point, which clearly stresses the uncertainty of the  
22 different fuel type FC values that we presented in Table 2c. We added some  
23 discussion on this in the last paragraph of Section 2.4, and refer to the interesting  
24 paper of Hille and Stephens (2005):

25 P15L32-P16L1: “Moreover, it was not always clear is which class certain fuels are  
26 consumed: e.g. organic material can be consumed on the ground but also in a crown  
27 fire (Hille and Stephens, 2005).”

28  
29 *P8129, L5-8: just properly describe this method near the beginning of the paper, give*  
30 *it acronym and use acronym. The biomass in plots is oven dried and weighed both pre*  
31 *and post fire or at burned and adjacent unburned sites and FC is the difference.*

32 As suggested by the reviewer, we now properly described the method in Section 2 of  
33 the paper and used the acronym throughout the remainder of our manuscript:

34 P7L12-21: “Most of the studies we found in the literature rely on the planar intersect  
35 method (PIM), where fuel measurement plots are typically divided in multiple,  
36 randomized smaller subplots. The (small-size) biomass in these subplots is oven dried  
37 and weighed both pre- and post-fire to estimate the CC and to determine the FC. The  
38 consumption of larger-size material (diameter >10cm) is often estimated based on  
39 experimental observations of randomly selected trunks and branches that were  
40 identified before the fire (Araújo et al., 1999). The PIM is mainly applied in  
41 prescribed burns, and obtaining FC measurements for large wildfires is logistically  
42 more challenging but can be based on comparing burned with adjacent unburned  
43 patches.”

44  
45 *P8129, L12: The boreal forest FL average is lower than the temperate forest FL*  
46 *average, but is this only if the co-located boreal peat deposits are ignored? Currently*  
47 *the paper discusses boreal peat separately in Sect 2.9 and it would be useful to*  
48 *provide a little guidance on whether peatlands are a greater percentage of the boreal*  
49 *forest biome than the temperate forest biome and a few words of general guidance on*

1 *how to couple the FC data for biomes that overlap geographically.*  
2 Based on the reviewer's comment, we added the following text:  
3 P15L13-21: "Average FL for this biome is for upland forest types. However, deep  
4 peatland deposits (see section 2.10) cover about 107 M ha (Zoltai et al. 1998) or 18%  
5 of the North American boreal forest zone (Brandt, 2009) and 16% of the northern  
6 circumpolar permafrost soil area (Tarnocai et al., 2009). By contrast, peatlands only  
7 cover about 0.07 M ha in the temperate zone, which has higher FL overall. Despite  
8 low decomposition rates due to a cold, moist climate, the lower FL in the boreal forest  
9 region is primarily a result of slower tree growth rates (biomass accumulation) and  
10 frequent to infrequent fire disturbance that can remove substantial amounts of fuel."

11  
12 *P8130, L3-6: The direction a mountain slope faces is called "aspect" and aspect has  
13 long been known to correlate with ecosystem variability in the temperate zone as well.  
14 There should be plenty of references to that if a discussion of this is appropriate. The  
15 effect is only insignificant in the tropics where the sun angles are higher. Of course  
16 there are wet-side dry-side issues and altitude based variation in mountains  
17 worldwide, but not sure a discussion of "sub-grid" variability is appropriate.*

18 We revised the sentence to:  
19 P16L6-9: "Finally, slope aspect has been shown to have an effect as well, with the  
20 south facing slopes having the highest FL and FC due to warmer and drier conditions  
21 that better favour plant growth and fire intensity than shadowed north faces (Viereck  
22 et al. 1986; Turetsky et al., 2011)."

23  
24 *P8130, L10: "forest" to "deforestation" – it's helpful to distinguish between  
25 "deforestation" and "accidental" forest fires.*

26 We changed "forest" to "deforestation" and distinguish between deforestation and  
27 accidental forest fires now, as explained in previous comments.

28  
29 *P8130, L19-21 and L25-27: Re "Note that two studies represent shifting cultivation  
30 measurements and were not included in the biome average calculation." Why are  
31 they in the "pasture" table/section then? Aren't they part of some biome and should  
32 they be included in some category such as tropical forest?*

33 We agree that shifting cultivation does not completely fit the pasture category, and  
34 therefore we included a new 'shifting cultivation' category in Section 2.6.

35  
36 *P8131, L5-7: The ignition pattern seems like an un-needed detail, especially since it  
37 is not given for other fires. More importantly probably, the fuel geometry varies  
38 globally from short-lived burning of loose residue in the field to long-lasting  
39 smoldering combustion of small hand-piles of residue, both hard to detect from space.*

40 We agree that the description of the ignition pattern can be removed, especially since  
41 it is not given for other fires.

42 In addition, we stress the importance of fuel geometry by adding the following text:  
43 P17L27-30: "Moreover, the fuel geometry varies globally from short-lived burning of  
44 loose residue in the field to long-lasting smoldering combustion of small hand-piles of  
45 residue, and both are hard to detect from space."

46  
47 *P8131, L15: Excellent place to cite the classic work of Yevich and Logan!*

48 We decided to cite the work of Yevich and Logan, which is a classic paper indeed.  
49

1 *P8131, L17: Another good paper on fuel consumption in rice straw burning is Oanh*  
2 *et al., Characterization of particulate matter emission from open burning of rice*  
3 *straw, Atmos. Environ., 45, 493-502, 2011.*

4 Although a clear estimate of fuel consumption is not provided by Oanh et al. (2011),  
5 we now included their fuel load measurements of rice straw in our database (available  
6 online).

7  
8 *P8131, L18-19: probably doesn't add much to give years of measurements in the text*  
9 *throughout.*

10 We agree, and therefore “Measurements conducted in the crop residue biome were  
11 taken between the 1980's and 2010 (Table 1f)” was deleted here.

12  
13 *P8131, L20-22: 88% should be expressed as a fraction to be consistent. Also, isn't*  
14 *0.88 CC too high for pre-harvest burning, which I understand is the most common*  
15 *type of burning at least globally? It would imply that a) the sugar cane field is almost*  
16 *90% weeds since pre-harvest burning is to remove undesired plants prior to*  
17 *harvesting the cane, or b) the 0.88 is only for post-harvest burning. Re-examining the*  
18 *study of Lara et al, without providing methodology or references, they simply state*  
19 *that FC for Brazilian sugar cane fields was “about” 20 t/ha. It may be that more*  
20 *reliable info is now available.*

21 We decided to stick to percentages throughout the paper.

22 The CC for pre- and post-harvest sugarcane in McCarty (2011) is 65%. The 88% CC  
23 for all crops (including pre-harvest sugarcane) is taken from the U.S. EPA  
24 Greenhouse Gas Inventory Methodology (EPA GHG 2008). We have fixed this  
25 citation.

26  
27 *P8131, L22-23 and P8132 L2: 0.88 is expressed as a fraction, but attributed to EPA*  
28 *source on P8132 L2. Whereas earlier the same CC is attributed to both McCarty et al*  
29 *and French et al. It actually doesn't agree that “good” with 0.65 value given on P17,*  
30 *L27. In general it's better to avoid words like “good” and just give percent*  
31 *differences so the reader builds up a quantitative knowledge of well things agree. Also*  
32 *clarify sources if possible.*

33 We appreciate that the reviewer has pointed out this inefficient wording. This line has  
34 now been changed to:

35 P18L4-12: “FC values for different US crop types (McCarty et al., 2011) were used to  
36 derive crop-specific FL data (French et al., 2013) and CC values were taken from  
37 expert knowledge from agriculture extension agents in Arkansas, Louisiana, Florida,  
38 Kansas, and Washington during field campaigns in 2004, 2005, and 2006, as well as  
39 from the scientific literature (Dennis et al., 2002; Johnston and Golob, 2004). CC  
40 variables ranged from 65% for cotton and sugarcane and 85% for wheat and  
41 bluegrass, which are lower but within the range of the CC value (-23 to -3% less than  
42 CC of 88%) used by the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) of 88% (EPA 2008  
43 GHG).”

44  
45 *P8132, L3: eliminate “wildly.” This variability is exactly what you expect for growing*  
46 *different monocultures.*

47 “wildly” was deleted.

48  
49 *P8132, L5-8: Is this a good guess or a documented fact with references? And not sure*

1 *the FC from the study of Lara et al bears inclusion.*  
2 The reviewer makes a good point, and we have revised this text:  
3 P18L13-18: “FC values varied between different crop types, as shown in Figure 6.  
4 For US crops the highest FC was found for seedgrass (10 t ha<sup>-1</sup>) and rice (8.8 t ha<sup>-1</sup>),  
5 while values for soybeans (0.5 t ha<sup>-1</sup>) and corn (1.0 t ha<sup>-1</sup>) were lower. In general, US  
6 crop values are assumed in the analysis to be approximately representative of other  
7 developed agricultural areas like Brazil and Russia (McCarty et al., 2012), but  
8 uncertainty increases for less industrialized agricultural areas in Africa and Asia.”

9  
10 P8132, L24: *The FC for chaparral of 31.5 t/ha based indirectly on two studies is*  
11 *higher than the total FL in 3 of 4 studies listed in Akagi et al., 2011 Table 2 and*  
12 *higher than the one study by Hardy et al that actually reports FC in the authors work.*  
13 *Having been to several chaparral fires where only the foliage burned and the charred*  
14 *woody biomass remained. I think this number may be too high, but suggest the*  
15 *authors attempt to consult with experts at CalFire or USFS. Alternately, the Cofer et*  
16 *al FC value may just be unreferenced, recycled “conventional wisdom” whereas the*  
17 *Hardy et al measurement is definitely from a detailed, dedicated FC study. If this is*  
18 *the case, the Hardy et al value may deserve much higher weighting.*

19 The study of Hardy et al. (1996) already deserves a higher weighting since it consists  
20 of 3 unique measurement locations, while the study of Cofer III et al. (1988) only  
21 provides information for one specific location. Therefore, we decided to not weigh the  
22 study of Hardy et al. (1996) even more.

23 However, for the chaparral biome we added a study of Yokelson et al. (2013), and  
24 including their measurements lowered the average FC from 32 t ha<sup>-1</sup> to 27 t ha<sup>-1</sup>.

25  
26 P8132, L23-24: *Stick to fractions or percentages for CC. Also, the authors seem to be*  
27 *saying they took the Cofer et al FC and multiplied by (1/.78) to get derived Cofer et al*  
28 *FL and then averaged with Hardy et al FL to get ecosystem average FL. If so, be*  
29 *more explicit.*

30 We decided to stick to percentages throughout the paper.

31 To be more explicit, we rewrote the sentence to:

32 P19L2-6: “Since Cofer III et al. (1988) only provided a FC for chaparral burning, we  
33 used a CC of 76% (average CC from studies of Hardy et al. (1996) and Yokelson et  
34 al., 2013) to derive a FL estimate for the Cofer et al. (1988) study. We then used the  
35 FL values of all 3 studies to estimate the biome average FL of 40±23 t ha<sup>-1</sup>.”

36  
37 P8132, L24-26: *The last sentence on this page doesn’t make any sense to me. Why*  
38 *would a young and old stand essentially reflect no growth and what is “of and the*  
39 *same counts of FC rates”*

40 To prevent the reader from any further confusion we decided to remove this last  
41 sentence.

42  
43 P8133: L3-4: *“Southeast Asia”*

44 “South East Asia” was changed to “Southeast Asia” here and also throughout the  
45 remainder of the paper.

46  
47 P8133, L5: *“but only the peat above the water table can burn.”*

48 We changed “surface layer can burn as long as it is not waterlogged” to “peat layer  
49 above the water table can burn.”

1  
2 *P8133, L7: nice pun*  
3 **Indeed**  
4  
5 *P8133, L 10-11: What is meant by “(although more variable)”?* Also, two more  
6 *references with tropical peat carbon content, Christian et al., 2003 (JGR) and*  
7 *Stockwell et al 2014 (ACPD) bring total range of peat %C to 53.83 to 59.71.*  
8 Since we already provided a range it is obvious that the C content of (tropical) peat  
9 varies, and therefore “although more variable” was removed.  
10 We consulted the study of Stockwell et al. (2014) and now refer to their C content  
11 range (54 – 60%) for tropical peat.  
12  
13 *P8133, L15: It is widely reported that the reason to drain the peatlands was a failed*  
14 *attempt at conversion to rice production and commercial logging doesn’t require*  
15 *draining swamps per se. However, some commercial logging also occurred after the*  
16 *fact. You might say “Commercial logging in drained peat swamps has increased their*  
17 *susceptibility to fire.”*  
18 We changed the text to:  
19 P19L22-23: “Commercial logging in drained peat swamps has increased their  
20 susceptibility to fire, especially during droughts (such as during and ENSO event).”  
21  
22 *P8133, L18: “four studies provided FC measurements in tropical peatlands . . . ”*  
23 *(skip the years throughout).*  
24 As suggested by the reviewer, “, conducted between 1997 and 2006” was deleted.  
25  
26 *P8133, L19-22: I don’t recall seeing pre-fire measurements in most of these peatland*  
27 *studies. In some anyway, I think the FC was estimated simply from post-fire*  
28 *observations of burn depth with prefire conditions reconstructed from adjacent*  
29 *unburned areas.*  
30 We agree, and changed the sentence to:  
31 P19L25-26: “In general, post-fire observations of the average burn depth were  
32 combined with pre-fire conditions reconstructed from adjacent unburned patches to  
33 determine the FC.”  
34  
35 *P8133, L23: “fire regime” refers to patterns of fire occurrence and not an ecosystem*  
36 *and is misused here and several other places. Suggest “tropical peatland had highest*  
37 *FC ... including overstory”*  
38 We deleted “The tropical peat fire regime” and replaced it with “Tropical peatland  
39 (including peat soils and overstory)”.  
40  
41 *P8133, L25-27: Delete “was found to be representative” since there is only one data*  
42 *point! Evidently 314/0.27 was used to calculate 1056 t/ha as the ecosystem average*  
43 *FL? In general for the peatland biome you should make clear when you are*  
44 *considering the peat only and when you are considering the peat plus the rest of the*  
45 *biomass in the ecosystem and also that some peatland fires consume overstory forest*  
46 *fuels, but much of the overstory has already been removed in some peatlands.*  
47 Since there is only one data point we deleted “was found to be representative”.  
48 Indeed, as stated in P19L27-32, we used an average FL of 314 t ha<sup>-1</sup> and CC of 27%  
49 to estimate an average FC of 1056 t ha<sup>-1</sup>.

1 In Table 1i we report in the ‘notes’-column which fuel types are considered. We make  
2 clear in Section 2.9 that for calculating the biome-averaged values both peat soils and  
3 overstory are considered:  
4 P19L27-28: “Tropical peatland (including peat soils and overstory) had the highest  
5 FC of all biomes, with an average of  $314 \pm 196 \text{ t ha}^{-1}$ .”  
6  
7 P8134, L13-14: In “susceptibility of peat fires to fire during different moisture  
8 conditions” delete “fires”?  
9 “peat fires to fire” was changed to “peatlands to fire”.

10  
11 P8134, L16: how will paleoecological studies improve knowledge of FC?  
12 Since an improvement of knowledge of FC from paleoecological studies is not that  
13 obvious, we changed the text to:  
14 P20L16-17: “This makes modeling peat fires very difficult and stresses the  
15 importance of more field measurements.”  
16  
17 P8134, L18-19: This text doesn’t make sense as written: “the peat depth was sampled  
18 to determine the peat density” L19: is bulk density the same as density? Define “bulk  
19 density.”  
20 We changed the text to:  
21 P20L19-21: “On each burn site, multiple plots were established and information on  
22 the peat density (which is assumed to increase nonlinearly with depth) was used in  
23 combination with the burn depth to determine the FC.”  
24  
25 P8134, L21: As written this could imply that the two studies had the same average FC  
26 value to three significant figures. I think you mean the “average of the two studies.”  
27 This is a case where the standard deviation of the mean with one study at 42 and the  
28 other at 43 very likely underestimates the real uncertainty in the biome average since  
29 site to site variability within the studies is much larger than that. Suggest using  
30 average uncertainty in this case.  
31 We agree that this can imply that the two studies had the same average FC value to  
32 three significant figures, and we indeed mean the “average of the two studies”. As  
33 suggested, we will present an ‘average’ uncertainty in this case since the SD presented  
34 is likely to underestimate the real uncertainty in this biome. We replaced the text with:  
35 P20L21-24: “No data on FL and CC were provided, but the average FC of the two  
36 studies is  $43 [42-43] \text{ t ha}^{-1}$ . A standard deviation of  $25 \text{ t ha}^{-1}$  (Turetsky and Wieder,  
37 2001) can be used as the average uncertainty for the boreal peat biome.”  
38  
39 P8134, L22-25: Interesting, one might expect the permafrost to prevent deep burning  
40 and the hummocks to be better drained and more susceptible to fire?  
41 Interesting finding indeed.  
42  
43 P8135, L5: delete “storage”  
44 “storage” was deleted.  
45  
46 P8135, L10-11: So is there evidence fires are increasing or not?  
47 The reviewer makes a good point, and to emphasize that there is actually an evidence  
48 we added a reference and changed the text to:  
49 P21L6-8: “However, the evidence of increasing fire frequency and larger extent of the

1 fires in the arctic (Hu et al., 2010) may represent a positive feedback effect of global  
2 warming, so in the future more fires may occur in this biome (Higuera et al. 2011).”

3  
4 P8135, L27: change “good” to “sufficient” or somehow indicate the problem is  
5 quantity and not quality.  
6 “good” was changed to “sufficient”.

7  
8 P8136, L8: Shouldn’t “fire occurrence” be “fuels”? In general, there is more to this  
9 than geographic coverage. More complex systems require a larger number of samples  
10 to have confidence in the mean and/or trends. The authors may want to consider  
11 whether these final sections really prove geographic trends or add new insights  
12 beyond what has already been presented and delete them if not.  
13 Indeed, “fuels” could be “fire occurrence” as well, and we changed in it in the text.

14 Although we agree that there is more to it than geographic coverage, we want to  
15 provide the reader some insight on the usefulness of these biome-averaged values,  
16 given the amount of field measurements that are currently available. In the end of the  
17 Section we summarize:

18 P23L11-18: “Coming back to the question posed in the beginning of this section, we  
19 think care should be taken with using biome-average values. They provide a guideline  
20 but the path forward is to continue developing models or remote sensing options that  
21 aim to account for variability within biomes, and use the database accompanying this  
22 paper to constrain these models, rather than to simply use biome-average values  
23 (further discussed in Section 3.2). Use of FC for specific vegetation types within  
24 broader biomes (like the different crop types as presented in Figure 6) or fuel  
25 categories offers an interesting alternative, and is further discussed in Section 3.4.”

26  
27 P8136, L18: change “in not now” to “is not now”?

28 We replaced the sentence with:

29 P22L12-15: “As mentioned for the ‘Tundra’, where fire may become increasingly  
30 important as the region warms, the one set of field samples included in this review  
31 may not be a representative of past and future fire.”

32  
33 P8137, L3-5: in general CC can increase as the dry season is prolonged as argued  
34 elsewhere for savanna fires (Akagi et al., 2011).

35 As discussed in a previous comment, we added the following text:

36 P22L26-29: “In general, both FC and CC may increase over the course of the dry  
37 season as large diameter fuels dry out. This was also suggested by Akagi et al. (2011)  
38 for the savanna biome, and consistent with a seasonal decrease in MCE as proposed  
39 by Eck et al. (2013).”

40  
41 P8137, L13-14: The forestry literature has dozens of tropical forest biomass  
42 measurements for forests of specific ages. They tend to show a nice increasing trend.  
43 Here the authors note that “primary tropical evergreen forest, tropical evergreen  
44 second-growth forest, and tropical dry forest” have different FC values. I suggest that  
45 these categories (or numerical stand age if available) be indicated in the table for  
46 models with access to that sort of detailed vegetation information.

47 We indicated this partly in the ‘note’ column of the different tables, but since some  
48 studies include more than one forest ‘age’ it was rather difficult to fit. Therefore, we  
49 refer the reader/modeler/user to the excel-database that is available online at

1 [www.globalfiredata.org/FC](http://www.globalfiredata.org/FC), where more detailed information can be found.

2

3 *P8137, L16-19: Re “Clearly, the definition of a certain biome is not always*  
4 *straightforward, and the regional discrepancies found within the different biomes*  
5 *should be taken into account when averaged values are interpreted and used by the*  
6 *modeling communities” So here the authors seem to claim that geographic*  
7 *differences in the measurements within the same nominal “biome” are statistically*  
8 *significant, but I don’t think that has been proven?*

9 We agree that this may confuse the reader, and therefore we rewrote the sentence so it  
10 is not obvious that these geographical differences are statistically significant:

11 P23L7-10: “Clearly, the definition of a certain biome is not always straightforward,  
12 and uncertainty regarding regional discrepancies within the different biomes should  
13 be taken into account when averaged values are interpreted and used by the modeling  
14 communities.”

15

16 *P8137, L22: delete “more” since todays models need values to use now.*  
17 The sentence was changed to:

18 P23L12-16: “They provide a guideline but the path forward is to continue developing  
19 models or remote sensing options that aim to account for variability within biomes,  
20 and use the database accompanying this paper to constrain these models, rather than  
21 to simply use biome-average values (further discussed in Section 3.2).”

22

23 *P8137, L20-26: These could be good ideas if they work, but then give some citations*  
24 *to some of these models and at least a summary of how well validated they are. Or a*  
25 *hint that such a discussion is in next section?*

26 We added “further discussed in Section 3.2”.

27

28 *P8138, L10: define “grid cell”*  
29 We replaced “grid cell” with “modeling grid cell”. To prevent confusion, we deleted  
30 “pixel” and replaced it with “grid cell” throughout the text.

31

32 *P8138, L12: define “pixel”*  
33 To be consistent, we deleted “pixel” and replaced it with “grid cell”.

34

35 *P8138, L13: define “fractionation” and explain how this calculation was done in*  
36 *clear terms*  
37 We included a more clear explanation on how GFED3 FC values are calculated:  
38 P23L28-P24L2: “To calculate FC we divided the GFED3 total biome-specific  
39 emissions estimates (g Dry Matter) in every modeling grid cell by the total burned  
40 area observed for every grid cell. Since one grid cell may consist of multiple biomes  
41 we followed the GFED3 fractionation of emissions estimates, which represents the  
42 contribution of a certain biome to total emissions within one grid cell. Biome-specific  
43 information on the area burned within one grid cell was not available, and therefore  
44 we assumed that burned area followed the same fractionation as the GFED3 emissions  
45 estimates.”

46

47 *P8138, L13-14: define “regions” and “time period” explain why and how seriously*  
48 *does this over/under estimate biome average and is it expected to be biased?*  
49 *In general, it’s a better test of the model to compare GFED values spatially and*

1 *temporally as closely as possible to the published measurements, because the ability*  
2 *to accurately portray trends or geographic variability (or lack there-of) is the main*  
3 *justification for the extra complexity of using the model. It's not clear at the beginning*  
4 *of the discussion that this apparently is the objective as revealed finally at L17.*

5 To provide the reader with a more clear explanation, we added the following text:  
6 P24L2-8: "This assumption may over- or underestimate biome-averaged GFED3 FC  
7 values: For example, in a deforestation grid cell that consists of savannas and tropical  
8 evergreen forests, the contribution of savanna fire emissions to total emissions can be  
9 small, even when the contribution of savanna burned area to total burned area  
10 observed in a grid cell is actually quite large. In this specific case - when assuming  
11 that burned area followed the same fractionation as the emissions- the estimated FC of  
12 savannas would be overestimated."

13 Indeed, it is a better test of the model to compare GFED3 values spatially and  
14 temporally as closely as possible to the published measurements. Therefore we  
15 decided to only present a comparison of field measurements with co-located GFED3  
16 grid cells, and the comparison with biome-averaged FC values of GFED3 was  
17 removed. Although the latter type of comparison may give some useful insight on  
18 how well the different biomes are represented by the GFED3 modeling framework,  
19 we think that it is outside the scope of our paper to discuss these findings.

20  
21 *P8138, L21: add "co-located" before "GFED3"*  
22 "co-located" was added before "GFED3".

23  
24 *P8138, L27-28: To be objective, another possibility that should be mentioned is that*  
25 *GFED underestimates the fire return interval.*

26 We agree, and we now provide more detail on possible causes for the discrepancies:  
27 P24L21-29: "A possible cause for these discrepancies is that field campaigns tend to  
28 focus on frequently burning areas, so fuels do not have the time to build up and  
29 increase their FL (van der Werf et al., 2010). Because of the relatively coarse 0.5°  
30 resolution of GFED3, the fire frequency in GFED is the average of more and less  
31 frequently burning patches, and thus potentially longer than in field sampling sites.  
32 On the other hand, only a very small portion of the land's surface burns annually (van  
33 der Werf et al., 2013). Improved resolution for the models may help to alleviate this  
34 problem and bring model values closer to the field measurements, although it is very  
35 unlikely this is the only reason for the noted discrepancy."

36  
37 *P8139, L3 "difficulty" to "uncertainty"*  
38 This whole sentence was removed, for reasons explained above.

39  
40 *P8139, L4-6: Improving models will not make the field measurements more*  
41 *representative. As far as improving the models, a simple statement that it will happen*  
42 *seems like unsupported, vague speculation. If some specific model advance is planned*  
43 *this could a good place to describe it in concrete terms. Otherwise change "will" to*  
44 *"may"*

45 We changed "will" to "may"

46 Moreover, we modified the text:  
47 P24L27-29: "Improved resolution for the models may help to alleviate this problem  
48 and bring model values closer to the field measurements, although it is very unlikely  
49 this is the only reason for the noted discrepancy."

1  
2 *P8139, L10: The statement about “repeated fires” doesn’t make any sense yet. Do*  
3 *you mean you increased the fuel consumption for some burned areas to account for*  
4 *follow- on attempts within the same dry season to burn residual material that failed to*  
5 *burn in the first fire of that dry season? All ecosystems have repeated fires at some*  
6 *time scale – especially the savanna so this needs to be clarified. In general, the paper*  
7 *needs to be written so that people who did not do these calculations know exactly*  
8 *what you did.*

9 We acknowledge that the statement needs to be clarified, and therefore we changed  
10 the text to:

11 P24L32-P25L5: “This discrepancy may be partly explained by the fact that repeated  
12 fires in the tropical forest domain (when forest slash that did not burn in a first fire is  
13 subject to additional fires during the same dry season) are not always included in the  
14 field measurements. Within GFED3, on the other hand, these repeated fires were  
15 modeled by the number of active fires observed in the same grid cell (fire  
16 persistence), which yields information on the fuel load and type of burning (Morton et  
17 al., 2008; van der Werf et al., 2010).”

18  
19 *P8139, L18: Another reason to think about providing a column with rough or actual*  
20 *forest age and maybe even fitting a FC vs forest age relationship.*

21 As discussed previously, we indicated this partly in the ‘note’ column of the different  
22 tables, but since some studies include more than one forest ‘age’ it was rather difficult  
23 to fit. Therefore, we refer the reader/modeler/user to the excel-database that is  
24 available online at [www.globalfiredata.org/FC](http://www.globalfiredata.org/FC), where more detailed information can  
25 be found.

26  
27 *P8139, L19-28: Wildfire fuel consumption is higher than prescribed fire fuel*  
28 *consumption according to conventional wisdom, common sense, and the data in Table*  
29 *1 (I think, it would help to label each fire as PF or WF).*

30 We refer the reviewer to his third general comment, where we explain which  
31 modifications were made throughout the paper to better distinguish between wildfire  
32 and prescribed fire FC.

33  
34 *P8139, L21: “focused” or “included only” or “9 out 10” please be specific.*  
35 *“focused on” was changed to “included”.*

36  
37 *P8139, L23: what do you mean by “ground fuels” litter plus duff, duff plus roots,*  
38 *dead and downed wood included? Define terms near beginning of paper and then use*  
39 *as consistently as possible.*

40 Differences in US and Canadian definitions in fuel categories are minor; sometimes,  
41 definitions are not exactly the same between scientists in the same country. As long as  
42 the definitions are clearly explained (as currently done on P7L23-24 and P7L31-  
43 P8L4) we believe that all scientists will understand. To clarify, we did include some  
44 changes. All references to “duff” were removed from the text as this is a general  
45 forester’s term, and we replaced it with “organic soil”.

46  
47 *P8139, L25: prescribed fires tend to burn less fuels and the studies that do not*  
48 *include canopy fuels were probably for prescribed fires. While it is easy to imagine*  
49 *the CASA model generating grass and litter and then GFED using a CC assumption*

1 *to burn some of that grass and litter, I have no clue how FC is calculated in GFED*  
2 *for a complex forest environment and a paragraph summarizing that would be useful.*  
3 *Without that, this section and important comparisons will be enigmatic.*

4 To make this section less enigmatic, we decided to remove the comparison with  
5 GFED3 FC for the whole biome. Although this comparison may give some useful  
6 insight on how well the different biomes are represented by the GFED3 modeling  
7 framework, we think that it is outside the scope of our paper to discuss these findings.  
8 We decided to only present a comparison of field measurements with co-located  
9 GFED3 grid cells.

10 Moreover, we now included a more clear explanation on how GFED3 FC values are  
11 calculated. A more detailed description can be found in Van der Werf et al., 2010:  
12 P23L25-P24L8: “GFED3 fire emissions estimates (monthly 0.5°×0.5° fields) are  
13 based on estimates of burned area (Giglio et al., 2010) and the satellite-driven  
14 Carnegie-Ames-Stanford Approach (CASA) biogeochemical model (van der Werf et  
15 al., 2010). To calculate FC we divided the GFED3 total biome-specific emissions  
16 estimates (g Dry Matter) in every modeling grid cell by the total burned area observed  
17 for every grid cell. Since one grid cell may consist of multiple biomes we followed  
18 the GFED3 fractionation of emissions estimates, which represents the contribution of  
19 a certain biome to total emissions within one grid cell. Biome-specific information on  
20 the area burned within one grid cell was not available, and therefore we assumed that  
21 burned area followed the same fractionation as the GFED3 emissions estimates. This  
22 assumption may over- or underestimate biome-averaged GFED3 FC values: For  
23 example, in a deforestation grid cell that consists of savannas and tropical evergreen  
24 forests, the contribution of savanna fire emissions to total emissions can be small,  
25 even when the contribution of savanna burned area to total burned area observed in a  
26 grid cell is actually quite large. In this specific case - when assuming that burned area  
27 followed the same fractionation as the emissions- the estimated FC of savannas would  
28 be overestimated.”

29 We expanded the discussion on the differences between prescribed fires and wildfires  
30 in both temperate and boreal forest biome:

31 P25L15-P26L4: “In the temperate forest biome FC was underestimated in GFED3 by  
32 74% compared to the field measurement average for collocated grid cells. In our  
33 averaged field measurement estimate we included all measurements presented in  
34 Table 1c. As noticed in Section 2.3, it is likely though that studies that provided a  
35 total FC (i.e. the FC of ground, surface and/or crown fuels) are more representative  
36 for wildfires. Prescribed burns, on the other hand, tend to burn less fuel and therefore  
37 the studies that only include ground or surface fuels were probably more  
38 representative for this fire type. When focusing on studies that provide information on  
39 one specific fuel class only, the field average for the temperate forest would be  
40 significantly lower ( $13\pm 12 \text{ t ha}^{-1}$ ) as well as the discrepancy with GFED3 (+14%).  
41 This FC value of  $13 \text{ t ha}^{-1}$  may be more realistic for prescribed fires, which contribute  
42 to roughly 50% of all temperate forest fire emissions in the contiguous United States  
43 (CONUS). Still, it remains very uncertain how well FC measured for specific fuel  
44 classes is representative for prescribed fires and wildfires. This issue also counts for  
45 boreal forests, where GFED3 overestimated the field measurements by almost 80%.  
46 When only including studies that provided a total FC (i.e. the FC of ground, surface  
47 and/or crown fuels), the field average for the boreal forest would increase from  $35\pm 24$   
48  $\text{t ha}^{-1}$  to  $39\pm 19 \text{ t ha}^{-1}$  and the discrepancy with GFED3 would decrease (from +79 to  
49 +60%). This value of  $39\pm 19 \text{ t ha}^{-1}$  may be more representative for boreal wildfires.

1 Note that for temperate and boreal forest measurements sometimes the more  
2 restrictive definition of FL (as presented in Section 1) was used, and this can have an  
3 impact on FC values as well; if one applies a CC calculated with respect to a  
4 restrictive pre-fire FL to total biomass available, the overall FC that was estimated can  
5 be too high.”

6  
7 *P8140, L11: 1.6 t/ha (also in Table 3) seems like it has to be a misprint as that*  
8 *number is not physically realistic. If not, how can GFED be more than 50 times lower*  
9 *than the measurement average?*

10 That is a very interesting question, which needs further investigation. We removed the  
11 comparison with GFED3 FC for the whole biome, for reasons explained in the  
12 previous comment.

13  
14 *P8140, L12, It may not be that all the measurement locations were “wrong,” but that*  
15 *the overall sample is skewed. It may also be the mix of fire types that might be non-*  
16 *representative. Or the model could be wrong. Change “indicates that the” to*  
17 *“suggests that the mix of” and add “and fire types” before “shown.” It’s nice to*  
18 *consider all the data, but a review article may justify having to reject some data.*  
19 This part of the text was removed for reasons explained in the previous comments.

20  
21 *P8140, L13: “counts” to “holds”*

22 This part of the text was removed for reasons explained in the previous comments.

23  
24 *P8140, L14: The authors may find that the USDA Cropland by crop type:*  
25 *database is helpful to fine-tune their comparisons*  
26 *<http://www.nass.usda.gov/research/Cropland/SARS1a.htm>*

27 We used this CDL database in the creation of the French et al. (2013) fuel load map of  
28 the contiguous United States (CONUS) to improve the cropland fuel types  
29 classification, spatial distribution, and calculation of fuel load in CONUS.

30  
31 *P8140, L17: “measurement” (no “s”).*

32 This part of the text was removed for reasons explained in the previous comments.

33  
34 *P8140, L20: change first “on” to “of” and delete “studies on”*

35 This last paragraph was completely removed, since it did not go well together with the  
36 rest of Section 3.3.

37  
38 *P8140, L21: Many FL measurements exist also for different aged tropical forests in*  
39 *neotropics.*

40 Interesting, and hopefully we can include these measurements in our database in the  
41 near future.

42  
43 *P8140, L22: make it clear if the spreadsheet at the link includes the values in the*  
44 *paper and additional values not in the paper both. Instead of saying “it may change*  
45 *the average” say how it does change the average if included, but also why that was*  
46 *not considered appropriate for the paper.*

47 This last paragraph was completely removed, since it did not go well together with the  
48 rest of Section 3.3.

49

1 P8141, L1-29: Few things could be improved. First, the FRP/FC relationship is given  
2 to three significant figures with no uncertainty three times, which is unrealistic.  $0.316$   
3  $\pm 0.05$  seems more reasonable. Plus that's only when there is no obscuration at all.  
4 FRP is at best sensitive to the momentary rate of fuel consumption, but not the total  
5 FC for the whole fire. FRP could be indirectly related to FC if all of some fire product  
6 was detected and that products emission factor was known and highly constrained.  
7 But emission factors are variable. And when viewing from space in practice, if a  
8 cloud/cloudmask covers the smoke, but not the hotspot, the emission/FRP is  
9 essentially zero. When the cloud/cloudmask covers the hotspot, but not the smoke, the  
10 emission/FRP is infinite. Thus, the relationship is likely to be fairly uncertain. FRP  
11 has to be integrated over the life of the fire to get FRE to estimate FC more directly.  
12 Geostationary data (with fifteen minute time resolution) would be better than MODIS  
13 for this, but many tropical fires are small and only live 15-30 minutes. In general  
14 observed, emitted energy is going to be less than actual energy, but there may be an  
15 over-/undercorrection to produce final estimate. The second paragraph says that FC  
16 measurements by FRP are "anecdotal" but the third paragraph gives a FC from FRP  
17 with no uncertainty attached and seems to indicate that the approach works almost  
18 perfectly. Maybe what is missing is whether the "FRP-based" calculation of FC was  
19 tuned to match available measurements or if there was fortuitous cancellation of  
20 errors, etc. Also be clear if it "worked" at an ideal point or on a broad landscape  
21 scale.

22 Based on the reviewer's comments we modified Section 3.3: we now included  
23 uncertainty estimates, and provided more detail on the (uncertainty of the) FRE-FC  
24 relationship for different fire types:

25 P26L17-P28L7: "Besides a comparison with GFED3 data, we performed a  
26 comparison of field measurement averages with fire radiative energy (FRE, time-  
27 integrated FRP) derived estimates as well. The basis of the FRE approach for  
28 estimating FC is that the heat content of vegetation is more or less constant, and that  
29 the FRE released and observed through a sensor can be converted to FC by the use of  
30 a constant factor, which was found to be  $0.368 \pm 0.015 \text{ kg MJ}^{-1}$  across of a range of  
31 fuels burned under laboratory conditions (Wooster et al., 2005). More recent field  
32 experiments, however, indicated that the conversion factor might be slightly lower for  
33 grasslands in North America (Kumar et al., 2011; Schroeder et al., 2014). Smith et al.  
34 (2013) investigated the relationship between FC and FRE for pine needles with  
35 different fuel moisture contents, and found that FRE released per kilogram biomass  
36 consumed decreased with fuel moisture content due to the energy required to  
37 evaporate and desorb the water contained in the fuel. Thus, corrections for FRE based  
38 FC assessments may be needed for fuels that burn at higher fuel moisture contents.  
39 Differences in heat content of fuel may introduce additional variation: For example, a  
40 clear relationship between FRE and FC has not yet been demonstrated for fires that  
41 burn mostly in the smoldering stage, like organic soils in boreal forests or large  
42 woody debris and trunks in tropical deforestation regions. Another potential source of  
43 uncertainty in the relation between satellite-derived FRE and FC is the correction for  
44 atmospheric disturbances, which may significantly alter FRP retrievals and hence  
45 estimates of FC (Schroeder et al., 2014). Note that, currently, atmospheric correction  
46 is not performed for the standard fire products derived from MODIS. Moreover,  
47 Schroeder et al. (2014) also indicate that cloud masking in the MODIS FRP product  
48 may lead to FRP underestimates as hotspots under thick smoke may be erroneously  
49 masked out.

1 Despite all these uncertainties this approach is promising and there is a number of  
2 studies that relate FRE to FC on regional (Roberts et al., 2011; Freeborn et al., 2011)  
3 to global scales (Vermote et al., 2009; Ellicott et al., 2009), and Kaiser et al. (2012)  
4 used FRE to represent biomass burning in an operational chemical weather forecast  
5 framework. However, since such estimates can be derived independently of burned  
6 area, only a limited number of studies allow a straightforward comparison to the FC  
7 values given in mass units per area burned from the field experiments used in this  
8 study.

9 A common finding of FRE-based estimates is that FC is generally lower than GFED  
10 estimates, as shown by Roberts et al. (2011) who estimated FC for Africa through an  
11 integration of MODIS burned area and Meteosat Spinning Enhanced Visible and  
12 Infrared Imager (SEVIRI) derived FRP and found values that were about 35% lower  
13 than GFED. For the savanna biome a median FC of  $\sim 4$  t ha<sup>-1</sup> was found for grassland  
14 and shrubland. This corresponds relatively well with the mean of  $4.3 \pm 2.2$  t ha<sup>-1</sup> and  
15  $5.1 \pm 2.2$  t ha<sup>-1</sup> found in grassland savanna and wooded savanna field studies we  
16 compiled, respectively. Boschetti and Roy (2009) explored temporal integration and  
17 spatial extrapolation strategies for fusing MODIS FRP and MODIS burned area data  
18 over a single large fire in a grassland dominated area with sparse eucalypt trees in  
19 northern Australia. They estimated a FC range of 3.97-4.13 t ha<sup>-1</sup>, which is well  
20 within the range found in the Australian FC studies summarized in Table 1. Kumar et  
21 al. (2011) exploited properties of the power law distribution to estimate FC from FRP  
22 for an Australian savanna and a study area in the Brazilian Amazon. While their FC  
23 estimate of 4.6 t ha<sup>-1</sup> of the Australian site is similar to the temporal integration results  
24 of Boschetti and Roy (2009), the estimate for the Brazilian site is above 250 t ha<sup>-1</sup> and  
25 thus substantially higher than the biome-averaged value for Brazilian tropical forest  
26 ( $117 \pm 56$  t ha<sup>-1</sup>).

27 In general, realistic values are often obtained for well-observed fires, but  
28 unrealistically low or high values can often occur especially for smaller fires due to  
29 the sparseness of FRP observations and inaccuracies in the temporal interpolation and  
30 the burned area estimates. While FRE seems to provide realistic estimates under a  
31 range of conditions, issues of undersampling of FRE and -maybe less important - the  
32 conversion of FRE to FC still remain to be addressed more completely in order to  
33 derive spatially explicit FC estimates using the FRP approach.”

34  
35 *P8142, L5-6: Most of the burning in Brazilian Amazon is pasture fires or crop residue*  
36 *fires so 250 t/ha is really high unless the study site was small enough to only include*  
37 *slashed and burned tropical forest.*

38 The FC estimate of 250 t ha<sup>-1</sup> from Boschetti and Roy (2009) is indeed very high for a  
39 region where a substantial part of the burning is coming from pasture fires, crop  
40 residue burning and shifting cultivation. However, GFED FC for the co-located grid  
41 cells estimated a FC of 215 t ha<sup>-1</sup>, which is relatively close to the Boschetti and Roy  
42 (2009) estimate. Since a clear relationship between FRE and FC has not yet been  
43 demonstrated for fires with a significant consumption of smoldering prone fuels, like  
44 e.g. trunks in tropical deforestation regions, we now point out that the FRE derived  
45 FC for tropical forest regions is highly uncertain:

46 P26L30-P27L1: “Differences in heat content of fuel may introduce additional  
47 variation: For example, a clear relationship between FRE and FC has not yet been  
48 demonstrated for fires that burn mostly in the smoldering stage, like organic soils in  
49 boreal forests or large woody debris and trunks in tropical deforestation regions.”

1 P27L29-33: “While their FC estimate of  $4.6 \text{ t ha}^{-1}$  of the Australian site is similar to  
2 the temporal integration results of Boschetti and Roy (2009), the estimate for the  
3 Brazilian site is above  $250 \text{ t ha}^{-1}$  and thus substantially higher than the biome-  
4 averaged value for Brazilian tropical forest ( $117 \pm 56 \text{ t ha}^{-1}$ ).”

5  
6 P8144, L1: “reasonable” to “reasonably” and add “co-located” before “measured”  
7 Somewhere in conclusions the fact that measured/GFED3 FC for temperate forest is  
8 93/1.6 unless this is rectified during the revisions.

9 As suggested by the reviewer, we changed “reasonable” to “reasonably” and added  
10 “co-located” before “measured”

11 The comparison with GFED3 FC for the whole biome was removed, and therefore the  
12 temperate forest discrepancy was not mentioned in the Summary Section.

13  
14 *Table 2b: “logs” versus “large woody debris” same thing or different?*

15 To prevent confusion, and given the fact that both fuel types are sometimes  
16 overlapping, we now merged them into the new category ‘Woody debris (>20.5cm),  
17 Trunks’

18  
19 *Table 2c: the FL of the litter alone is greater than the total FL in Table 5 of Yokelson*  
20 *et al 2013. As a former wildland firefighter, prescribed fire lighter, etc I think 60%*  
21 *CC for duff and 96% CC for dead downed logs is only applicable to extreme fire*  
22 *conditions. These fuels quite often experience only surface charring. I would say more*  
23 *typical is 10% CC for each of these fuel components during wildfire season.*

24 Measurements from the study of Yokelson et al. (2013) were now included in our  
25 database, and their total FL was indeed lower than the FL for litter as presented in  
26 Table 2c. Our estimates are based on all peer-reviewed studies that provided specific  
27 information on FL, CC, and FC for different fuel classes. FL of litter was found to be  
28 high, and the same holds for the CC of dead woody debris. However, these findings  
29 are based on a few studies only, and therefore we emphasize in Section 3.4 that “more  
30 field measurements are needed to decrease the uncertainty and better understand the  
31 variations found“.

32  
33 *Fig. 2: Use “Wooded Savanna” instead of “Woodland” which is easier to confuse*  
34 *with forest?*

35 We replaced ‘woodland’ with ‘wooded savanna’ in Figure 2. Moreover, “grassland”  
36 was changed to “grassland savanna”.

37  
38 *Fig 6: make clear all US (McCarty) except Lara is Sugarcane Brazil.*

39 The figure caption was changed to: “Fuel consumption (FC) rates for different US  
40 crop types as reported by McCarty et al. (2011), and Brazilian sugarcane (Lara et al.,  
41 2005).”

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## Response to referee #2 (Anonymous)

### General Comments:

*The paper “Biomass burning fuel consumption rates: a field measurement database” addresses an important topic in biogeochemical modeling and atmospheric sciences and is a substantial contribution to scientific progress within the scope of Biogeosciences. The database assembled and presented in this study will be of great value to researchers in many fields. The paper well organized and it is well written. I recommend this paper for publication in Biogeosciences following some minor revisions/edits.*

### Specific Comments:

*Temperate fires/boreal fires. Fires in the tropics and savannas are largely intentionally ignited to pursue some land management goal. However, boreal and temperate burning is large wildfires. Obtaining fuel consumption measurements for wildfires is obviously challenging. Therefore studies often involve intention ally ignited fires / prescribed fires which allow researchers to set up plots prior to the planned ignition. However, these fires may not be a proxy for wildfires. For example, wildfires in western conifer forest of the US frequently involve significant canopy fire (while prescribed fires usually do not). No canopy fuel consumption noted in Table 2c. Also, are there similar prescribed vs. wildfire differences for Eucalypt forest in Australia? Please comment and discuss the possible bias of relying on planned/prescribed fire studies to represent fuel consumption for wildfires in temperate and boreal forest.*

In general, fuel consumption of wildfires is higher than prescribed fire fuel consumption according to conventional wisdom, and also according to the data presented in Table 1c of our paper. To emphasize these differences within both temperate and boreal forest biome, we made the following changes:

\* We expanded Section 2 on the measurements, by stating that –in general- obtaining FC measurements for wildfires is more challenging than for prescribed burns:  
P7L12-21: “Most of the studies we found in the literature rely on the planar intersect method (PIM), where fuel measurement plots are typically divided in multiple, randomized smaller subplots. The (small-size) biomass in these subplots is oven dried and weighed both pre- and post-fire to estimate the CC and to determine the FC. The consumption of larger-size material (diameter >10cm) is often estimated based on experimental observations of randomly selected trunks and branches that were identified before the fire (Araújo et al., 1999). The PIM is mainly applied in prescribed burns, and obtaining FC measurements for large wildfires is logistically more challenging but can be based on comparing burned with adjacent unburned patches.”

\* Within the temperate forest biome we now distinguish between wildfires and prescribed burns:  
P12L32-P13L7: “While tropical fires are largely intentionally ignited to pursue land management goals, the temperate forest is also subject to wildfires. Obtaining FC measurements for wildfires is obviously challenging, so most information is derived from prescribed fires which allow researchers to measure pre-fire conditions. However, these fires may not always be a good proxy for wildfires. For example, wildfires in western conifer forest of the US are often crown fires (while prescribed

1 fires usually only burn surface fuels). Due to potential discrepancies with respect to  
2 FC, we distinguished between these fire types in Section 3.2.”

3 \* Several prescribed fire FL and FC measurements from the study of Yokelson et al.  
4 (2013) were included, as presented in Table 1c.

5 \* We calculated the biome-averaged values for the temperate forest and boreal forest  
6 biome in a different way: instead of focusing on ‘total FC’ studies, we now use all  
7 measurements presented in Table 1c. Thus, studies that provide information on one  
8 specific fuel class only (e.g. ground fuels) were also included. Due to this, the  
9 calculated biome-averaged FC for the temperate forest biome decreased from  $93\pm 79$  t  
10  $\text{ha}^{-1}$  to  $58\pm 72$  t  $\text{ha}^{-1}$ , and the biome-averaged FC for boreal forest decreased from  
11  $39\pm 19$  t  $\text{ha}^{-1}$  to  $35\pm 24$  t  $\text{ha}^{-1}$ . For both biomes, the difference between the field  
12 measurements and GFED3 FC decreased.

13 \* We expanded the discussion on differences between wildfires and prescribed fires in  
14 Section 3.2, and provide the reader with FC values that may be more representative  
15 for both fire types:

16 P25L15-P26L4: “In the temperate forest biome FC was underestimated in GFED3 by  
17 74% compared to the field measurement average for collocated grid cells. In our  
18 averaged field measurement estimate we included all measurements presented in  
19 Table 1c. As noticed in Section 2.3, it is likely though that studies that provided a  
20 total FC (i.e. the FC of ground, surface and/or crown fuels) are more representative  
21 for wildfires. Prescribed burns, on the other hand, tend to burn less fuel and therefore  
22 the studies that only include ground or surface fuels were probably more  
23 representative for this fire type. When focusing on studies that provide information on  
24 one specific fuel class only, the field average for the temperate forest would be  
25 significantly lower ( $13\pm 12$  t  $\text{ha}^{-1}$ ) as well as the discrepancy with GFED3 (+14%).  
26 This FC value of 13 t  $\text{ha}^{-1}$  may be more realistic for prescribed fires, which contribute  
27 to roughly 50% of all temperate forest fire emissions in the contiguous United States  
28 (CONUS). Still, it remains very uncertain how well FC measured for specific fuel  
29 classes is representative for prescribed fires and wildfires. This issue also counts for  
30 boreal forests, where GFED3 overestimated the field measurements by almost 80%.  
31 When only including studies that provided a total FC (i.e. the FC of ground, surface  
32 and/or crown fuels), the field average for the boreal forest would increase from  $35\pm 24$   
33 t  $\text{ha}^{-1}$  to  $39\pm 19$  t  $\text{ha}^{-1}$  and the discrepancy with GFED3 would decrease (from +79 to  
34 +60%). This value of  $39\pm 19$  t  $\text{ha}^{-1}$  may be more representative for boreal wildfires.  
35 Note that for temperate and boreal forest measurements sometimes the more  
36 restrictive definition of FL (as presented in Section 1) was used, and this can have an  
37 impact on FC values as well; if one applies a CC calculated with respect to a  
38 restrictive pre-fire FL to total biomass available, the overall FC that was estimated can  
39 be too high.”

40 \* The study of Hollis et al. (2010) provided FC estimates for a mixture of prescribed  
41 fires and wildfires in Australian eucalypt forests. However, no significant difference  
42 in FC was found for both fire types.

43 \* No canopy FC was noted in Table 2c, since this fuel class was not clearly  
44 distinguished in the refereed literature. Many studies only provided a ‘total’ FC  
45 estimate.

46  
47 *Sect. 2.3 P8127, L24 – 27: The authors should consult & cite Hyde et al. (2011) “The*

1 *combustion of sound and rotten coarse woody debris: a review*”, *International*  
2 *Journal of Wildland Fire*, 20, 163-174.

3 We consulted the review paper of Hyde et al. (2011) and now refer to their findings  
4 on the difference between sound and coarse woody debris consumption:  
5 P14L1-4: “Although this difference was observed in a few other studies as well, little  
6 research is available on comparing the physical and chemical properties of sound and  
7 rotten woody debris, which is likely to affect the FC (Hyde et al., 2011).”

8  
9 *Sect. 2.4: Of the fires used for the biome averages were these studies primarily pre-*  
10 *scribed fires or wildfires? Are there differences in FC for the two types in North*  
11 *America? If so, could this bias the results? Please comment.*

12 *These comments were addressed in the reviewers’ first specific comment.*

13  
14 *Sect. 2.6 P8132, L8-10: Is the sugar cane FC difference between US and Brazil due to*  
15 *FL?*

16 Unfortunately, this interesting question remains unanswered since the study of Lara et  
17 al. (2005) only presents a FC estimate and did not provide any information on the CC  
18 for Brazilian sugarcane. Note that a larger number of measurements are required to  
19 conclusively say whether these differences between US and Brazil sugarcane are  
20 statistically significant.

21  
22 *P8133, L13-15, sentence starting “Results from several...” I don’t completely follow*  
23 *this statement. Do the authors mean that some studies show a link between burning*  
24 *depth and depth of drainage? Please clarify.*

25 We indeed mean that measurements indicate that there is a link between the burning  
26 depth and the depth of drainage (which in its turn relates to droughts). To be clearer  
27 we restated this sentence:

28 P19L20-21: “Results from several field measurements indicate a link between this  
29 burning depth and the depth of drainage (Ballhorn et al., 2009).”

30  
31 *Sect 3.2 Please note the GFED3 pixel size.*

32 We now included the temporal and spatial resolution of GFED3 emissions estimates  
33 in the text:

34 P23L25-28: “GFED3 fire emissions estimates (monthly 0.5°×0.5° fields) are based on  
35 estimates of burned area (Giglio et al., 2010) and the satellite-driven Carnegie-Ames-  
36 Stanford Approach (CASA) biogeochemical model (van der Werf et al., 2010).”

37  
38 *P8138, L9-10 States: “Since biome-specific information on the area burned within*  
39 *one pixel was not available, . . .” which implies each GFED3 pixel (0.5 degree x 0.5*  
40 *degree?) may have multiple biomes. Therefore, it is difficult to interpret the*  
41 *comparison of first number in column 5 of Table 3 with the field study FC, P8138,*  
42 *L14-19: “In the fifth column FC rates per unit burned area of GFED3 are shown for*  
43 *the collocated grid cells, i.e. grid cells in which measurements were taken, (first*  
44 *number)”. Could the FC in a GFED3 pixel be dominated by a biome different from*  
45 *that of the field study? Could the differences results from mapping of biome type*  
46 *rather than FL and CC. Could this explain the large difference between the first and*  
47 *second numbers of column 5 for crop residue and tropical forest? Please*  
48 *comment/clarify.*

49 *Indeed, a GFED3 grid cell can have multiple biomes. We included a more clear*

1 explanation on how GFED3 FC values are calculated:

2 P23L28-P24L8: “To calculate FC we divided the GFED3 total biome-specific  
3 emissions estimates (g Dry Matter) in every modeling grid cell by the total burned  
4 area observed for every grid cell. Since one grid cell may consist of multiple biomes  
5 we followed the GFED3 fractionation of emissions estimates, which represents the  
6 contribution of a certain biome to total emissions within one grid cell. Biome-specific  
7 information on the area burned within one grid cell was not available, and therefore  
8 we assumed that burned area followed the same fractionation as the GFED3 emissions  
9 estimates. This assumption may over- or underestimate biome-averaged GFED3 FC  
10 values: For example, in a deforestation grid cell that consists of savannas and tropical  
11 evergreen forests, the contribution of savanna fire emissions to total emissions can be  
12 small, even when the contribution of savanna burned area to total burned area  
13 observed in a grid cell is actually quite large. In this specific case - when assuming  
14 that burned area followed the same fractionation as the emissions- the estimated FC of  
15 savannas would be overestimated.”

16 Regarding the large differences between the first and second number of column five:  
17 We decided to remove the comparison with GFED3 FC for the whole biome.  
18 Although the this comparison may give some useful insight on how well the different  
19 biomes are represented by the GFED3 modeling framework, we think that it is outside  
20 the scope of our paper to discuss these findings. Instead, we now only present a  
21 comparison of field measurements with co-located GFED3 grid cells.  
22

23 *Section 3.2. Care should be taken in identifying “outliers”. The mismatch between the*  
24 *mean and median is not surprising given that surface and ground fuels tend to have a*  
25 *log-normal or weibull distributions. At any given site the median value may provide*  
26 *the best guess. However, over large areas landscapes or forest stands with very high*  
27 *fuel loading (“outliers”) should be important and excluding such sites or using the*  
28 *median value would lead to an erroneously low value. For example see Keane et al.*  
29 *(2013) Forest Ecology & Management 305, 248-263. This study examined FL data*  
30 *from >10,000 forests plots in the western US and found that even within specific*  
31 *forest types there was considerable variability.*

32 We agree on the reviewer that care should be taken in identifying outliers. A large  
33 part of this section was changed, and now a more conclusion on how these biome-  
34 averaged values can be used is given:

35 P26L5-13: “For most biomes, a few field measurements had a FC that was an order of  
36 magnitude larger than the other values listed in Table 1, which explains the  
37 discrepancy between the median and average FC values that was sometimes found  
38 (e.g. the ‘Australia and Tasmania’ region in Figure 4). By neglecting these ‘outliers’  
39 the biome-averaged values may change significantly, but this could lead to  
40 erroneously low or high estimates as well. In general, FC shows large variability  
41 between biomes, within biomes, and even within a specific fuel type. FC is often hard  
42 to measure, and since only a few measurements are available for some biomes, care  
43 should be taken when using the biome-averaged values presented in this paper.”  
44

45 *Sect. 3.3 It may be worth noting that the FRP-based studies largely involved fires*  
46 *(savannas, grasslands, woodlands) in which the fuel consumed was mostly fine fuels –*  
47 *grasses and litter, fuel that burn predominantly by flaming combustion. I do not*  
48 *believe that a relationship between FRP/FRE and fuel consumption has been*  
49 *demonstrated for fires with significant consumption of smoldering prone fuels duff*

1 and coarse woody debris. It is unclear that duff, especially lower layers would have a  
2 heat content similar to other components (see e.g. van Wagendonk et al. (1998) *Int.*  
3 *J. Wildland Fire*, 8 147-158). Also, it is not clear that the fraction of heat released as  
4 radiant energy during the smoldering combustion of duff and coarse wood would be  
5 the same as that for flaming combustion of fine fuels upon which FRP-based FC  
6 relationships have been based.

7 A substantial part of Section 3.3 was modified, and we now provide more information  
8 on the FRE-FC relationship. Moreover, we emphasize that this relationship is less  
9 clear for smoldering fires:

10 P26L25-P27L1: "Smith et al. (2013) investigated the relationship between FC and  
11 FRE for pine needles with different fuel moisture contents, and found that FRE  
12 released per kilogram biomass consumed decreased with fuel moisture content due to  
13 the energy required to evaporate and desorb the water contained in the fuel. Thus,  
14 corrections for FRE based FC assessments may be needed for fuels that burn at higher  
15 fuel moisture contents. Differences in heat content of fuel may introduce additional  
16 variation: For example, a clear relationship between FRE and FC has not yet been  
17 demonstrated for fires that burn mostly in the smoldering stage, like organic soils in  
18 boreal forests or large woody debris and trunks in tropical deforestation regions."

19

#### 20 Technical Comments

21 *P8134, L14: change 'peat fires' to 'peat lands'*

22 "peat fires" was changed to "peatlands".

23

24 *P8136, L18: change 'fire in not' to 'fire is not'*

25 We changed the sentence to:

26 P22L12-15: "As mentioned for the 'Tundra', where fire may become increasingly  
27 important as the region warms, the one set of field samples included in this review  
28 may not be a representative of past and future fire."

29

30 *P8136, L26 – P8137, L3: This sentence is confusing and needs to be rewritten. I do*  
31 *not understand how the fragment "but due to the overall large contribution of forest*  
32 *floor fuels" fits in this sentence*

33 We agree that this sentence is rather confusing, and therefore we replaced it with:  
34 P22L21-23: "Although available literature data showed that FC for crown fuels was  
35 indeed higher than for surface fuels, more data for especially boreal Russia is needed  
36 to confirm this line of thought."

37

38 *Table 1f. Typo in row 5, CC should = 90% not 0.9?*

39 "0.9 (-)" was changed to "86 (6.0)".

40