Fire in the Earth System

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Fire is a worldwide phenomenon that appears in the geological record soon after the appearance of terrestrial plants. Fire influences global ecosystem patterns and processes, including vegetation distribution and structure, the carbon cycle, and climate. Although humans and fire have always coexisted, our capacity to manage fire remains imperfect and may become more difficult in the future as climate change alters fire regimes. This risk is difficult to assess, however, because fires are still poorly represented in global models. Here, we discuss some of the most important issues involved in developing a better understanding of the role of fire in the Earth system.

Over the past decade, a surge in the incidence of large, uncontrolled fires has occurred on all vegetated continents, irrespective of national fire-fighting capacity or management tactics (*1*–*5*). These episodic fires have high economic costs. The fires in Southeast Asia's tropical forests related to the 1997–1998 El Niño–Southern Oscillation (ENSO) event, for example, resulted in economic costs near \$U.S. 8.8 to 9.3 billion, of which a conservative estimate of \$U.S. 1 billion was from adverse health effects of smoke haze (*6*). During the same period, more than 20 million ha burned in Latin America, causing an estimated \$U.S. 10 to 15 billion in damages (*4*). The ubiquity of such large fires calls into question our capacity for fire control and highlights our limited understanding of fire's causes, effects, and feedbacks.

There is growing awareness of the deleterious effects of such uncontrolled fires on biodiversity, human health, and the economy (*2*). However, there remains a serious lack of knowledge about fire's fundamental role in Earth system processes, as well as an insufficient appreciation of fire's interaction with anthropogenic global environmental change. For example, though the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) report concluded that global climate change will increase the risk of extreme fire events (*7*), its assessment did not quantify potential fire-climate feedbacks. In order to achieve a better understanding of fire, it must be understood as an integral Earth system process that links and influences regional and global biogeochemical cycles, human activity, and vegetation patterns. Failure to develop a coordinated and holistic fire science will slow efforts to adapt to changing fire regimes and manage fire.

Fire in Earth History

Fossil charcoal indicates that wildfires began soon after the appearance of terrestrial plants in the Silurian [420 million years ago (Ma)] (*8*). Combustion occurs when atmospheric O_2 concentrations are above 13%, and variation in O_2 levels correlates with fire activity throughout Earth history (*8*) (Fig. 1). Many Permian coals contain large quantities (70%) of charcoal during a period when atmospheric oxygen was thought to have exceeded 30%, making even moist vegetation flammable (*8*). Counterintuitively, the burial of decay-resistant charcoal and organic matter following postfire erosion may have increased oxygen levels and caused long-term reduction of atmospheric carbon dioxide levels (*9*). Fire also influences the geological cycling of other elements, such as phosphorus, by volatization and leaching (*10*).

Fire's occurrence throughout the history of terrestrial life invites conjecture that fire must have had pronounced evolutionary effects on biotas. However, the evolution of adaptations to fire remains a difficult topic to explore because traits that increase the rate of occurrence of fire, or of recovery following burning, are not unambiguously the result of natural selection by fire regimes (*11*) (table S1). Nonetheless, flammable vegetation types leave distinct signatures in the fossil record, chronicling changes in their abundance and geographic range. For example, tropical grasses produce large quantities of fine, aerated fuels that become highly flammable during dry periods, and their C_4 photosynthetic pathway produces organic matter characteristically depleted in ^{13}C. Stable isotope analyses of carbon in sediments have shown that tropical savanna biomes simultaneously spread in Asia, Africa, and the Americas, approximately 7 to 8 Ma, coinciding with a substantial spike in charcoal in marine sediments (*12*). It has even been suggested that fire led to the expansion of savannas due to climate feedbacks that created hotter, drier conditions that favored savannas (*13*).

Humans and Fire

The spread of highly flammable savannas, where hominids originated, likely contributed to their eventual mastery of fire (*14*). The hominid fossil record suggests that cooked food may have appeared as early as 1.9 Ma (*15*), although reliable evidence for controlled fire use does not appear in the archaeological record until after 400,000 years ago, with evidence of regular use much later (*16*). The routine domestic use of fire began around 50,000 to 100,000 years ago (*17*), which may have influenced the evolution of human tolerance to air pollution (*18*), and hunter-gatherers used fire to reduce fuels and manage wildlife and plants beginning tens of thousands of years ago (*19*).

In recent history, the ongoing transition from subsistence to industrial economies is typified by the conversion of forests into agricultural or pastoral landscapes through the use of fire. For example, fire-resistant tropical rainforests are rapidly being cleared with fire in agricultural frontiers (*20*) (Fig. 2). Conversely, in the developed world, suburban sprawl into rural and natural landscapes, where people and their dwellings are juxtaposed with flammable vegetation types, is accompanied by substantial fire-suppression efforts (*21*). Worldwide, fire is used to minimize fuel hazard, maintain habitat quality, and stimulate forest and pasture regeneration. Despite human use of fire to achieve economic and ecological benefits (*22*), fire remains an unreliable tool, often evading control, particularly during extreme drought events (*3*, *23*). This imperfect mastery of fire manage-

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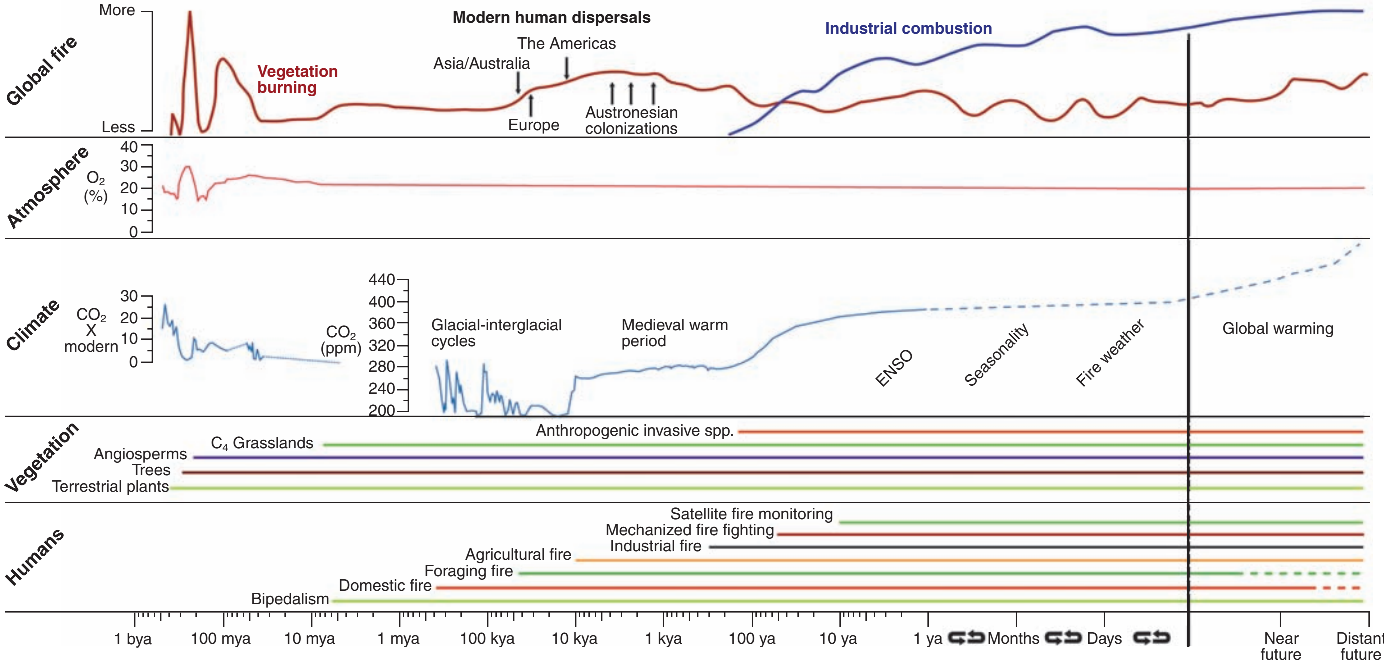

Fig. 1. Qualitative schematic of global fire activity through time, based on pre-Quaternary distribution of charcoal, Quaternary and Holocene charcoal records, and modern satellite observations, in relation to the percentage of atmospheric O_2 content, parts per million (ppm) of CO_2, appearance of certain vegetation types, and the presence of the genus *Homo*. (See supporting online text for data sources used.) Dotted lines indicate periods of uncertainty.

ment raises the unsettled issue of whether humans or climate are more important in determining fire patterns.

Distribution and Diversity of Fire

Earth is an intrinsically flammable planet owing to its cover of carbon-rich vegetation, seasonally dry climates, atmospheric oxygen, and widespread lightning and volcano ignitions. Yet, despite the human species' long-held appreciation of this flammability, the global scope of fire has been revealed only recently by satellite observations available beginning in the 1980s (*24*) (Fig. 2). This record shows a strong association between high fire activity and areas of intermediate primary production, particularly in tropical savannas (*25*). However, the satellite record does not adequately capture fire activity in ecosystems that have long (>100-year) fire intervals, nor in cases in which fire behavior is highly variable. Satellite products that provide those data on area burned, fire intensity, and completeness of combustion are still being developed (*26*).

Fires burn with different intensities and frequencies, resulting in a wide variety of ecological effects. To capture this diversity, ecologists define the "fire regime" on the basis of a range of variables including fuel type (ground, surface, and crown), temporal nature (rate of spread, seasonality, and frequency), spatial pattern (size and patchiness), and consequences (impacts on vegetation and soils) (*27*). The association of plant species having distinct reproductive and survival strategies with different fire regimes suggests that fire is a potent biological filter (table S1) influencing biomass production, vegetation distribution, and thus the risk of fire. Indeed, a notable feature of fire's distribution is the broad correlation between vegetation formations and fire regimes (*28*). Furthermore, fire can sometimes explain the presence of alternate ecosystem states within the same climatic zone (*28*).

Vegetation transitions can occur when fire regimes are altered substantially beyond historical norms, owing to changes in ignition sources or fuel mass, and variations in structure caused by fire protection, grazing, or the spread of invasive plants. For example, nonflammable tropical rainforests, evergreen woodlands, and arid shrublands can abruptly convert to highly flammable plant communities with increasing anthropogenic ignitions and fine fuels from invasive grasses (*29*). Fire protection, by contrast, promotes dense regrowth and closed woodlands. In the southwestern United States, this has led to an associated switch from surface to crown fires (*30*). Human landscape management is implicated in these fire regime transitions, yet underlying climate patterns also alter fire behavior.

Climate and Human Drivers of Fire

Analyses of historical meteorological data and national fire records show the primacy of climate in driving large regional fires, e.g., via antecedent wet periods that create substantial herbaceous fuels or drought and warming that extend conducive fire weather (*1*). Additionally, dendrochronological and observational analyses show tight coupling between high fire activity and interannual- and decadal-scale climate oscillations (*31*, *32*). For example, fire occurrence increases during the La Niña phase of the ENSO in the southern United States and Patagonia, Argentina (*25*, *33*), whereas a marked increase in fire activity occurs in tropical rainforests during El Niño phases (*34*). Sedimentary charcoal records also show a strong link between climate and fire activity, with reduced fire in cold intervals and increased fire in warm intervals, regardless of whether humans were present (*35*). However, charcoal records do show a reduction in fire after ~1870 C.E. in most regions, apparently in response to agricultural intensification and introduced animal grazing (*36*).

Abrupt changes in fire activity during island colonization offer insight into human influence on fire, beyond background climate conditions. For example, the colonization of the southern island of New Zealand by the Maori about 700 to 800 years ago was characterized by widespread destruction of forests by burning, causing the loss of half of the island's temperate rainforests (*37*). Likewise, it has been argued that fire usage during the late Pleistocene colonization of Australia triggered a series of megafaunal extinctions and vegetation changes (*38*).

Fire, Carbon, and Climate

Humans and climate both play a role in determining fire patterns and, in turn, fire influences the climate system via the release of carbon. Fires accelerate the natural cycle of primary production and respiration. In a world without fire, more carbon would be stored in woody vegetation (*39*). If climate and fire regimes equilibrate, then fire-induced atmospheric CO_2 emissions are balanced by uptake from surviving vegetation or via regeneration. The individual contributions of landscape fires, biomass combustion for domestic and industrial uses, and fossil-fuel combustion to total carbon emissions remain difficult to separate. Currently, all sources of fire (landscape and biomass) cause CO_2 emissions equal to 50% of those stemming from fossil-fuel combustion (2 to 4 Pg C year^{-1} versus 7.2 Pg C year^{-1}) (*7*, *40*, *41*). Of the fire-related emissions, we estimate that burning related to deforestation, a net CO_2 source, contributes about 0.65 Pg C year^{-1} (supporting online material). In contrast, the regrowth of vegetation and the production of black carbon (which is a by-product of burning, with a long residence time in soils) are sinks of atmospheric CO_2 and may be expanded with targeted management (*42*).

Between 1997 and 2001, biomass burning accounted for about two-thirds of the variability in the CO_2 growth rate (*34*, *43*). During the 1997-1998 ENSO-related drought event, Indonesian peat fires contributed an estimated 0.8 to 2.6 Pg C (*3*), while Amazon forest fires committed 0.024 to 0.165 Pg C to the atmosphere from just understory fires (*23*). These deforestation-related fires contribute substantially to the global burden of greenhouse gases, and the associated global warming that they will cause is projected to increase extreme fire weather (*1*), leading to further spikes of carbon emissions (*44*).

Fire also influences climate by releasing atmospheric aerosols and changing surface albedo. An appreciable fraction of biomass-burning emissions consists of black carbon aerosols that have strong solar radiation absorption properties, and may have the strongest effect on global warming after CO_2 (*45*). Regionally, smoke plumes inhibit convection, and black carbon warms the troposphere, thereby reducing vertical convection and limiting rain-cloud formation and precipitation (*46*). Locally, fire heats the surface by reducing albedo. However, albedo may increase over longer time periods owing to larger exposure of snow following boreal fires, or replacement of dark forests with brighter pastures and croplands following deforestation. Indeed, aerosol and surface albedo effects could even cancel each other [e.g., (*47*)].

Fire influences most radiative forcing components and has a substantial positive feedback on the climate system. We estimate that global CO_2 emissions from deforestation fires alone contribute up to ~19% of the total increased radia-

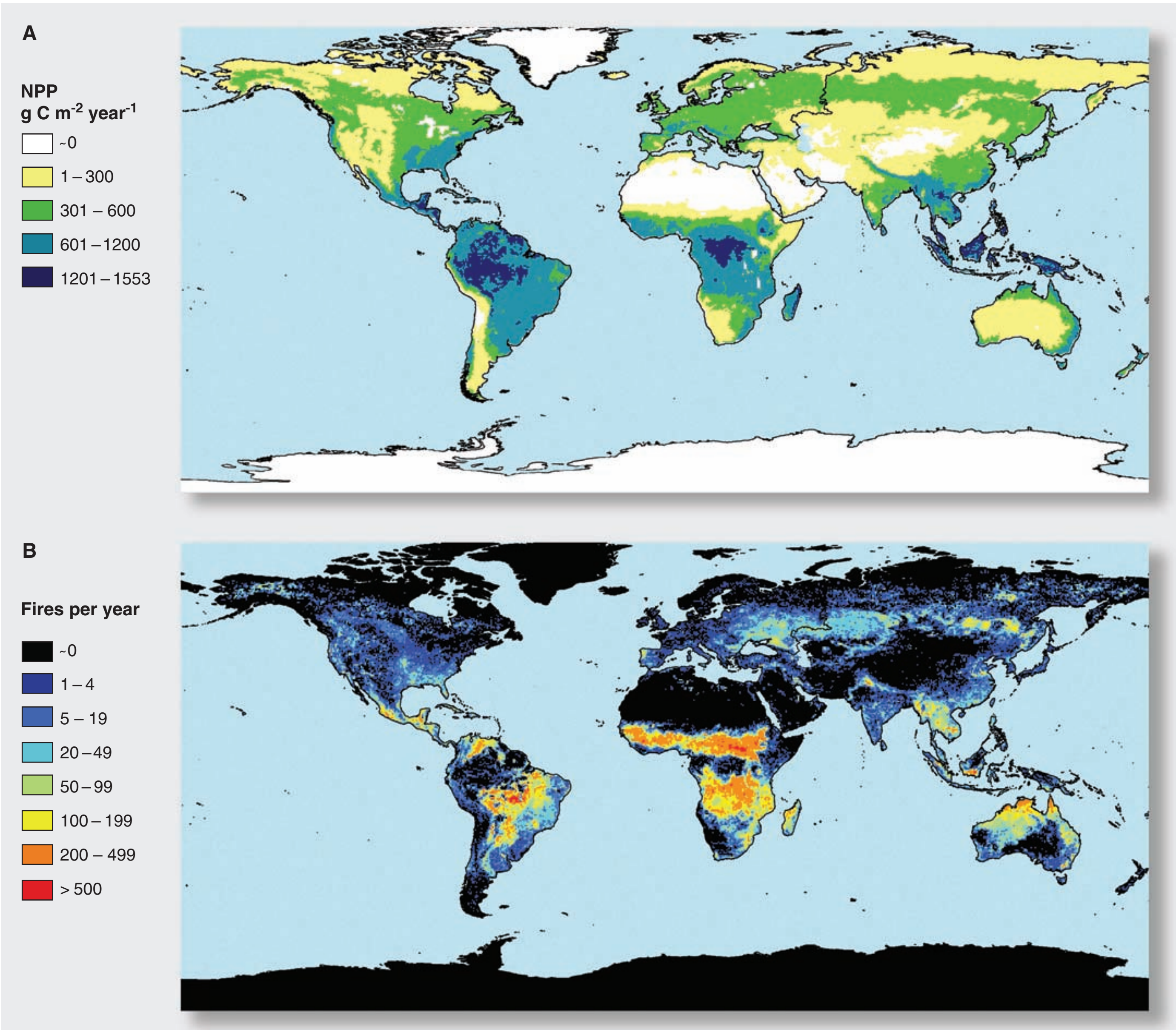

Fig. 2. Current pyrogeography on Earth, illustrated by (**A**) net primary productivity (NPP, g C m^{-2} year^{-1}) (*40*) from 2001 to 2006, by 1° grid cells; and (**B**) annual average number of fires observed by satellite (*49*).

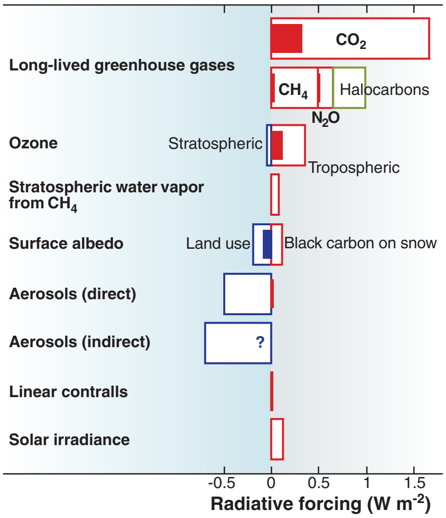

Fig. 3. Estimated contribution of fire associated with deforestation to changes in radiative forcing compared to 1750 C.E. (*7*), assuming a steady state for other fire emissions. The shaded inner bar (blue indicates cooling; red, warming) is the estimated fire contribution to the total radiative forcing of individual agents identified by the IPCC (unshaded, outlined bar) (*7*). Several assumptions had to be made to estimate these contributions, and more interdisciplinary research is needed to reduce uncertainties, especially for ozone, albedo, and the complicated effect of aerosols.

tive forcing since preindustrial times, following IPCC definitions (*7*) (Fig. 3 and supporting online text). The positive and negative fire-related contributions of the other radiative forcing components are assumed to cancel each other. Excluding deforestation fires, we also assume that fire-related emissions over the long term are at a steady state because of the natural successional cycle. Improved estimates of the climate forcing of fire must address fire's complex web of interactions with other radiative forcing components and must resolve how fire activity and land-cover change have varied through the industrial period.

Fire Feedbacks

At the flame front, fire instantaneously links the atmosphere, biosphere, and hydrosphere via the release of heat, gases (notably water vapor), and matter. The composition of these products is influenced by fuel type, moisture content, and combustion type (smoldering versus flaming), which in turn is influenced by temperature and available oxygen. At the landscape scale, fire responds predictably to variation in fuel types, vegetation structure, topographic features, and weather conditions. At regional and global scales, the interaction of fire with vegetation types and human land use results in characteristic fire regimes. Climate conditions are a fundamental driver of fire spread, and fire-induced emissions influence future climate scenarios and fire weather.

Simulations using physiologically based global vegetation models suggest that forests would at least double in extent in the absence of fire, particularly in the flammable savanna biome (*39*). The difference between simulated and observed vegetation distribution highlights the importance of including fire in terrestrial ecosystem modeling. Indeed, some global carbon and dynamic global vegetation models explicitly include fires (*34*, *48*).

Conclusions

Progress in understanding fire on Earth has been hampered by cultural aversions to accepting fire as a fundamental global feature and disciplinary parochialism (*19*, *22*). An Earth system perspective is essential to understanding how fire has developed throughout Earth history, and teasing apart the direct and indirect interactions between humans and fire. Understanding global trends in fire activity demands greater development of fire regime mapping, as well as global modeling approaches that are more sophisticated than the current generation. Such an integrated perspective is necessary and timely, given that a diversity of fragmented research programs have identified the pervasive influences of fire on the Earth system. Indeed, future IPCC assessments of anthropogenic global climate forcing should include specific analyses of the role of fire.

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Supporting Online Material

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Table S1
References

Supporting Online Material:

Supporting Online Text

Further details on data provided in Figure 1:

The qualitative schematic of global fire activity through time (Figure 1) is based upon Pre-Quaternary distribution of charcoal (*S1-3*), Quaternary and Holocene charcoal records (*S4*), and modern satellite observations (*S5*), in relation to percent atmospheric O_2 content (*S6, 7*), ppm of CO_2 (*S7-9*), appearance of certain vegetation types (*S10, 11*), and the presence of the genus *Homo* (*S12*).

Further details on data provided in Figure 3:

Radiative forcing is defined by the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) as the change in stratospherically adjusted radiative flux at the tropopause, compared to 1750AD (*S13*). Positive forcing will increase, while negative forcing will decrease, global mean surface temperature. Fires change radiative forcing through altered atmospheric composition and/or changes in surface albedo.(*S14-17*).

Assessing radiative forcing requires understanding fire extent and frequency in the pre-industrial era. Although pre-industrial fire rates were often assumed to be much lower than current rates, recent review of charcoal datasets around the world shows that rates have been declining since AD1 up to 1750AD, with several excursions during relatively warm or cold periods (*S18*). However, for some regions, this trend now appears to be reversing due to climate change (*S19*). Globally, we assume that current savanna and forest fire rates are not different now than they were pre-industrially, with the notable exception of extensive deforestation fires. For example, contemporary fires in peatlands of Southeast Asia are known to have increased over the past 50 years (*S20*). Thus, these collective tropical deforestation fires are the primary fire-related driver of radiative forcing. We assumed that all fire emissions (*S21*) from tropical forest regions (*S22*) were directly related to deforestation. We also assume peat fires in Southeast Asia are a direct consequence of deforestation and constitute a new anthropogenic emission source that was insignificant prior to 1750. We estimate that annual average tropical deforestation and peatland fires emit 0.65 Pg C ($P=10^{15}$, C = carbon) $year^{-1}$ with 32% originating from tropical America, 14% from Africa, and 54% from tropical Asia from 1997-2006 (*S21*). Emissions from tropical Asia are roughly split between the combustion of forest and peatlands.

Compiling best available, published information we estimate that fires have contributed up to about 19% of the anthropogenic radiative forcing since the pre-industrial era. This is a conservative estimate based on fire-related CO_2 emissions from deforestation fires; all other estimated terms cancel each other. These forcing estimates are highly uncertain and interdisciplinary research is needed to provide a more comprehensive estimate. Strikingly, however, fires influence 8 out of the IPCC's 13 identified radiative forcing terms.

Long-lived greenhouse gases: CO_2, CH_4, N_2O, and halocarbons

CO_2 levels have increased over the industrial era due to fossil fuel emissions and deforestation. It is difficult to estimate which fraction of these deforestation emissions was due to fires exclusively, versus decomposition of leftover plant material after logging or fire. Over the last decade, in regions that are experiencing high deforestation rates, fire emissions constitute approximately 50% of total deforestation carbon losses (*S21*), although this percentage is controversial and some authors estimate a larger (*S23*), or smaller (*S24*) contribution by fires. Given limited available global-scale information, we assume that fires contribute a constant 50% of total carbon emissions through time from deforestation.

Total fossil fuel emissions since 1750 were estimated at 315 Pg C (*S25*), while CO_2 emissions due to deforestation since 1750 were estimated at 182-199 Pg C (*S24*, *26*). Using these estimates, the relative contribution to CO_2 emissions from deforestation was 37-39%. Therefore, we estimate that 50% of deforestation CO_2 emissions is due to fires, or ~19% (half of the estimated 37-39% from above) of the total CO_2 radiative forcing. This is the estimated gross contribution. Deforested areas that convert back to forest act as a carbon sink (*S27*), and could lower the calculated fraction. It is unknown what fraction of historically cleared forests are regrowing. While we have assumed that there is a steady state in the emission and sequestration from all other fires, climate change may now be resulting in a net increase in emissions due to: (a) more severe fire weather (*S19*); and (b) reduced tree life spans due to drought stress (*S28*).

Building on our estimates of carbon losses and using published emission factors (*S29*, *30*), we estimate that methane (*CH_4*) emissions from deforestation and tropical peatland fires are 14 Tg year^{-1}. By comparison total contemporary CH_4 sources are ~600 Tg year^{-1} (*S31*-*33*), while pre-industrial sources were ~250 Tg year^{-1} (*S34*). If we assume that changes in CH_4 emissions are constant, then the contribution of fire to increased radiative forcing by CH_4 is approximately 4%. A more detailed quantification requires better knowledge of pre-industrial biomass burning emissions and other sources of CH_4 as well as their evolution through time (*S31*).

Following the same logic, deforestation and tropical peatland fire *N_2O* emissions are ~0.36 Tg N_2O year^{-1} (*S21*, *29*), compared to 8 Tg N_2O year^{-1} for all sources combined (*S13*). Assuming that the ratio between the different sources of increased N_2O emissions has been relatively constant in time, the contribution attributable to fire is ~5%. Here it is noteworthy to point out that N_2O emission factors are very poorly known, adding to the already large uncertainty

Fires do not emit *halocarbons* into the atmosphere.

Ozone

Fires represent an important source of *ozone* precursors such as NO_x, especially in tropical regions. The evolution of ozone sources through time and its radiative forcing is relatively well researched (*S35, 36*), but in these studies the contribution of fires was not determined. More recently, the radiative forcing of ozone generated by fire emissions has been estimated at 0.15 W m^{-2}, or 43% of the total radiative forcing of O_3 (*S37*). This estimate was based on fire emissions input datasets that assumed that about 5 Tg more NO_x $year^{-1}$ is emitted in contemporary times compared to pre-industrially. Deforestation and peat fires add about 2 Tg NO_x $year^{-1}$. As a very uncertain estimate we therefore assume that the fire component is 17%. Clearly, ozone is impacted by other factors than just NO_x and more work—including measuring NO_x emission factors over tropical peatlands—is needed to lower uncertainty.

Albedo

Compared to forests, croplands and natural grasslands have a long term cooling effect due to higher *albedo* that is partly attributable to fire, e.g., when burning causes deforestation or frequent fire is used to maintain a treeless condition. Burning may also cause short-term warming of the surface due to blackening (*S15, 38, 39*), or cooling of the surface due to post-fire changes in vegetation cover and increased exposure of snow cover at high latitudes (*S16, 40*). Here, we assume again that 50% of deforestation is due to fires, and since most of the negative forcing from increased albedo is related to deforested land, we assume that the fire contribution to this forcing is 50%.

Black carbon on snow warms the surface by decreasing albedo. At least 80% of black carbon forcing stems from fossil fuel and biofuel sources, but up to 20% can be attributed to fires (*S41*), which can affect high latitude regions. The northern hemisphere summer fire season may produce black carbon that affects areas that remain covered by snow and ice. This effect is well illustrated by the comparison between 1998 (a high fire year in the boreal, 0.054 W m^{-2}) and 2001 (a low fire year, 0.049 W m^{-2}). Since we have assumed that only deforestation fires have increased over time and black carbon on snow stems mostly from fires in boreal and temperate regions we therefore conclude that the net contribution of fire in changing surface albedo is zero. However, the rapid warming in boreal regions that is increasing fire activity may be increasing this radiative forcing term (*S42*).

Aerosols

The *direct aerosol effect* associated with light scattering sulphate aerosols generally has a cooling effect. Fires, however, only make a very minor contribution (2%) to this effect. In contrast, fires are an important source of black carbon that has a tropospheric warming effect. The total effect (average over models used in IPCC AR4 (*S13*)) has been estimated at +0.03 W m^{-2}, albeit much uncertainty remains. Estimates from the AEROCOM experiment, for example, ranged between -0.05 and 0.08 W m^{-2} based on nine different models (*S43*) with pre-industrial emission rates of about 20%. Deforestation and peatland fires contribute about a third of the global biomass burning black carbon emissions, and we thus assume that these fires have a 0.01 W m^{-2} radiative forcing due to black carbon.

In contrast to long-lived greenhouse gases the spatial and temporal distribution of black carbon emissions influences their effect on radiative forcing.

Aerosol particles emitted by fires also have profound impacts on clouds, an *indirect aerosol effect* (*S44, 45*). Smoke aerosols can increase or decrease cloud cover in complex and non-linear ways. There are two opposing effects of aerosols on clouds, the microphysical (cloud condensation nuclei) and radiative (black carbon). There is limited understanding of the interaction of these terms at the regional scale (*S45*). For example, in areas with heavy smoke pollution, there is a large increase in cloud condensation nuclei populations that decrease cloud droplet size resulting in increasing cloud lifetime and cloud albedo (*S46*). However, the large amount of black carbon in clouds near burning sources increases the susceptibility of low clouds to evaporation, inhibiting cloud formation and development (*S47*). This leads to a decrease in cloud cover in the presence of large amounts of absorbing aerosols. This effect is important for low clouds, but not very relevant for deep convective clouds in tropical regions. The smaller droplets also favor cloud development higher in the atmosphere.

In sum, at present it is not possible to present reliable estimates of the global indirect effects of aerosols in terms of radiative forcing. Regional studies indicate that smoke may both increase or decrease cloud cover and cloud height (*S48*), but currently no global scale study exists that has quantified these important effects.

Table S1: Seven examples of fire regimes that occur in different woody vegetation types and associated plant life history strategies and traits. Note, this table is not comprehensive and there are graduations between fire regimes.

Fire type	**Characteristic vegetation type**	**Climatic conditions**	**Fuel type**	**Fire frequency**	**Fire intensity**	**Fire stimulated recruitment** (establishes seedlings immediately post-fire)	**Crown sprouting** (replaces photosynthetic area following defoliation)	**Root suckering** (replaces fire-killed stems from existing root system)	**Self pruning of dead lower branches** (removes fuel ladders to inhibit canopy fire spread)	**Thick bark** (protects cambium)
Surface	Tropical rainforest	Severe drought	Leaf litter and soil organic matter	Very low	Low	Nil	Low	Moderate	Low	Low
Surface	Humid Tropical Savanna	Seasonal drought	Herbaceous	High	Low	Nil	High	High	High	High
Surface	Dry ponderosa pine forest, western USA	Drought with antecedent wet period	Stratified fuels including litter, twigs, shrubs	High	Low	Low	Low	Low	High	High
Surface	Dry eucalypt forest, Australia	Dry period with moderate fire weather	Stratified fuels including litter, twigs, shrubs	Medium	Moderate	Moderate	Low	Low	High	High
Crown	Fire-dependent Mediterranean shrublands	Drought, extreme dry weather and strong winds	Above ground woody biomass	Low	High	High	High	Low	Nil	Nil
Crown	High-elevation conifer forests, western USA	Extreme drought, and strong winds	Above ground woody biomass and organic soil layers	Low	High	High	High	Moderate	Nil	Low-Moderate
Crown	Wet eucalypt. forests, Australia	Drought, extreme dry weather and strong winds	Above ground woody biomass and organic soil layers	Low	High	High	Low	Low	High	Low

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