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1 **Exploring how fire spread mode shapes the composition of pyrogenic carbon from**
2 **burning forest litter fuels in a combustion wind tunnel**

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21 **Abstract**

22 In this study, solid state ^{13}C nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectroscopy was used to
23 explore the carbon-containing functional groups present in pyrogenic carbon (PyC) produced
24 during different fire spread modes to forest litter fuels from a dry sclerophyll eucalypt forest
25 burnt in a combustion wind tunnel. A replicated experimental study was performed using
26 three different fire spread modes: heading fires (i.e. fires which spread with the wind),
27 flanking fires (i.e. fires which spread perpendicular to the wind) and backing fires (i.e. fires
28 which spread against the wind). In addition to ^{13}C NMR measurements of PyC, detailed fire
29 behaviour measurements were recorded during experiments. Experiments showed that
30 heading fires produced significantly more aryl carbon in ash samples than flanking fires. All
31 other experimental comparisons for burnt fuel samples involving different fire spread modes
32 were statistically insignificant. Principal component analysis (PCA) was used to explore the
33 relationship between ^{13}C NMR functional groups and fire behaviour observations. Results
34 from PCA indicate that maximising the residence time of high temperature combustion and
35 the combustion factor (i.e. the fraction of pre-fire biomass consumed by fire) could be a
36 method for increasing the amount of aryl carbon in PyC. Maximising the amount of aryl
37 carbon could be beneficial for the overall PyC balance from fire, since more recalcitrant
38 carbon (e.g. carbon with a higher aryl carbon content) that is not emitted to the atmosphere
39 has been shown to have longer residence times in environmental media such as soils or
40 sediments.

41

42 1. Introduction

43 Wildland fire plays a significant role in the biogeochemical cycling of carbon including
44 influences on global climate through its release of greenhouse emissions species and black
45 carbon (Bond et al., 2013; Andreae, 2019). Recent estimates from the fourth version of the
46 Global Fire Emissions Database suggest that an average of 2.2×10^{15} grams of carbon were
47 emitted from wildland fire annually between 1997 and 2016 (van der Werf et al., 2017).
48 Based on data from Le Quere et al. (2018), wildland fire therefore emits approximately 22 %
49 of annual anthropogenic emissions from fossil fuel combustion and industry over the period
50 2007-2016. Although wildland fires are sometimes considered to be carbon neutral
51 disturbances due to post-fire carbon sequestration from regrowth of vegetation (Bowman et
52 al., 2009), this outcome is not achieved in deforestation fires where vegetation does not grow
53 back (van der Werf et al., 2010) or when old carbon stocks are burnt such as in peatland fires
54 (Page et al., 2002). More comprehensive assessments of carbon balance also consider the
55 production of pyrogenic carbon (PyC) that is thermochemically altered (pyrolysed) carbon
56 formed from the incomplete combustion of organic matter during biomass burning or fossil
57 fuel consumption (Bird et al., 2015). The current work focusses on the carbon-containing
58 functional groups present in PyC that are produced by biomass burning, are not emitted to the
59 atmosphere and are potentially a source of long term carbon sequestration when stored in
60 soils or sediments (Forbes et al., 2006; Santin et al., 2015; Santin et al., 2016). The chemical
61 composition of PyC is broad and sits on a continuum spanning from biomass that has been
62 slightly charred to that of condensed phase aromatic carbon (Masiello, 2004; Krishnaraj et al.,
63 2016). Recent insights on how the longevity (or recalcitrance) of PyC is affected by the
64 pyrolysis process and its relationship with PyCs physico-chemical composition is provided
65 by Santin et al. (2017).

66

67 Prescribed fire is a land management operation that is widely undertaken worldwide that
68 involves the intentional application of fire to the landscape (Penman et al., 2011) to achieve
69 specific management objectives such as hazard reduction, site preparation or ecological
70 regeneration. Prescribed burning is often undertaken to mitigate against the unwanted
71 consequences of wildfire (Jenkins et al., 2016) and has the potential to alter the stocks of PyC
72 in soils (Jenkins et al., 2014). From a carbon management perspective, prescribed burning
73 potentially offers the opportunity to manipulate greenhouse gas emissions and PyC
74 production properties in a controlled manner which can be contrasted with the wildfire
75 scenario where such control is not possible.

76

77 Out of the fire management techniques explored to reduce the carbon impact from prescribed
78 fire, one that has not received any significant research attention is the intentional application
79 of different fire spread modes (FSMs). Fire spread is described using three predominant
80 modes (Figure 1): heading, in which the fire spreads with and parallel to the direction of the
81 prevailing wind; flanking, in which the fire spreads perpendicular to the prevailing wind
82 direction; and backing, in which the fire spreads against the wind. A fire starting from a point
83 will develop a fire perimeter in which all three fire spread modes are present around the
84 perimeter. Different FSMs, being driven by the relative direction of fire spread with respect
85 to the direction of the prevailing wind, have distinct differences in fire behaviour, particularly
86 combustion rate, rate of spread, fireline intensity, heat release rate, and flame height
87 (Surawski et al., 2015).

88

89 Initial savannah fire studies conducted by biogeochemists and atmospheric scientists in
90 Africa investigated the relationship between FSM and carbon dynamics with results hinting at
91 the possibility that fire behaviour may influence the amount or type of carbon either released

92 to the atmosphere or remaining on the ground after fire (Kuhlbusch et al., 1996; Lacaux et al.,
93 1996; Wooster et al., 2011). Figure 1 shows that different FSMs of an intentionally lit fire can
94 be achieved by altering the ignition position in a fuel bed relative to the direction of the
95 prevailing wind. Modulating the applied fire spread mode by changing the ignition pattern
96 results in the desired direction of fire spread being achieved, as is done (for example) for
97 prescribed burning in Victoria, Australia (Tolhurst and Cheney, 1999) and Florida, United
98 States (Carvalho et al., 2011). Further investigations undertaken by forestry professionals in
99 the United States (National Wildfire Coordinating Group Fire Use Working Team, 2001),
100 which were advanced by Keene et al. (2006) and Surawski et al. (2015) have provided
101 empirical evidence that the preferential application of flanking and backing fires over heading
102 fires has the potential to positively modulate the greenhouse gas emissions and PyC
103 formation patterns (both in terms of the absolute and relative amount of PyC produced) from
104 a propagating fire. The application of different FSMs is potentially of interest to the
105 management of prescribed burning operations from a carbon perspective since a field study
106 conducted in the south-eastern United States indicated that charcoal production could be
107 doubled ($p < 0.001$) by the preferential application of backing fires over heading fires
108 (Carvalho et al., 2011). In addition, theoretical insights from the thermokinetics of biomass
109 combustion suggest that FSM has the potential to modulate not only the type and amount of
110 carbon released to the atmosphere, but also the type and amount of PyC (e.g. different
111 carbon-containing functional groups) that remains on the ground after fire (Sullivan, 2007;
112 Sullivan and Ball, 2012).

113

114 In this study, we employ solid state ^{13}C nuclear magnetic resonance (^{13}C NMR) spectroscopy
115 (Wilson, 1987; Simpson et al., 2011) as an analytical technique to explore the change in
116 carbon-containing functional groups associated with the production of PyC from different

117 FSMs. Based on the findings of Sullivan (2007) and Sullivan and Ball (2012), the working
118 hypothesis for the present investigation is that the application of different FSMs will alter the
119 type of functional groups present in PyC as determined by ^{13}C NMR spectroscopy. In
120 particular, we are interested in enhancements of aryl and O-aryl carbon concentrations from
121 the application of different FSMs since these types of carbon can potentially be sequestered
122 in soils and sediments longer than more labile carbon types such as alkyl and O-aryl carbon
123 (Hilscher and Knicker, 2011). Investigating this hypothesis extends the work of Surawski et
124 al. (2015) who showed that flanking and backing fires produce more PyC than heading fires.
125 In the previous study (Surawski et al., 2015), the relationship between fire behaviour and
126 greenhouse gas emissions was explored, whereas this work targets the relationship between
127 fire behaviour and the subsequent production of PyC that is not emitted to the atmosphere
128 and remains on the ground after fire.

129 **2. Methodology**

130 While a brief overview is provided here, a detailed description of the experimental design
131 that underpins this combustion wind tunnel study can be found in Surawski et al. (2015).
132 Surawski et al. (2015) also provide a more detailed description of the fuel collection and
133 handling protocols, the design features of the CSIRO Pyrotron combustion wind tunnel
134 facility, as well as the design of the experiment from a fire behaviour perspective. In addition,
135 it should be noted that as our study focused on outcomes from free-burning vegetation fires,
136 our experimental fires were allowed to combust completely (i.e. involving flaming,
137 smouldering and glowing combustion) and thus were not restricted to pyrolysis in isolation.

138 *2.1 Fuel collection and handling*

139 Forest litter fuel for the experimental fires was collected from Kowen Forest (situated in the
140 north-east of the Australian Capital Territory, Australia; coordinates 35.31982 °S 149.26461

141 °E) in a stand dominated by *Eucalyptus macrorhyncha* (F. Muell.) and *E. rossii* (R. T. Bak. &
142 H. G. Sm). An attempt was made during the fuel collection to only include fine fuels (< 6 mm
143 in diameter) which are those fuels consumed in an active fire front (Sullivan, 2017),
144 consisting of leaves, bark and twigs for this forest type. Fuels were sieved after collection in
145 the field to remove coarse fuel elements (≥ 6 mm in diameter) and decomposed fuel from the
146 soil fermentation layer that would affect the ability of experimental fires to propagate.

147

148 A dry fine fuel load of 1.1 kg m^{-2} was used in all experiments which is based on the typical
149 fine fuel loads measured from a major Australian wildfire in dry sclerophyll forest by Cruz et
150 al. (2012). Measuring the fine fuel moisture content with a Wiltronics fine fuel moisture
151 meter (Chatto and Tolhurst, 1997) ensured that the correct dry fuel load was achieved for
152 each fire. Fine fuels were dried in an oven at $50 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ for 24 hours to achieve a fine fuel
153 moisture level (Table 1) typical of that achieved during Australian wildfires (McArthur,
154 1967; Cruz et al., 2012; Sullivan and Matthews, 2013).

155 2.2 Combustion wind tunnel details

156 Experiments were performed using the Commonwealth Scientific and Industrial Research
157 Organisation (CSIRO) Pyrotron (Sullivan et al., 2013) which is a 25.6 m long combustion
158 wind tunnel that is designed to investigate the behaviour (Mulvaney et al., 2016; Sullivan et
159 al., 2018), carbon emissions (Surawski et al., 2015) and suppression characteristics (Plucinski
160 et al., 2017) of free-spreading laboratory-scale fires. Upstream of the working section, a
161 1.372 m diameter centrifugal fan (model 54LSW; Fans and Blowers Australia Pty Ltd)
162 provides wind that is directed through a series of perforated screens and flow straighteners to
163 reduce the turbulence intensity of the air stream below 0.6 % (Sullivan et al., 2013).
164 Downstream of the fan and flow straighteners, experimental fires took place in the working

165 section which is 1.5 m wide and 4.8 m long. An array of K-type thermocouples was placed on
166 the Pyrotron floor that enabled temperature measurements to be made near the base of (i.e. 2-
167 3 cm above) the passing flames (Figure 2).

168 2.3 *Fire behaviour experimental design*

169 The design of this experiment was motivated by previous research studies (Kuhlbusch et al.,
170 1996; Lacaux et al., 1996; National Wildfire Coordinating Group Fire Use Working Team,
171 2001; Keene et al., 2006; Wooster et al., 2011; Surawski et al., 2015) indicating that fire
172 behaviour and carbon emissions are potentially influenced by the applied FSM. In this study,
173 the three distinct modes of fire spread with respect to the prevailing wind direction, heading,
174 flanking and backing, were investigated (Figure 2). Experimental fires were not considered
175 complete until all flaming and smouldering combustion had ceased. Although fire behaviour
176 and greenhouse gas emissions data were collected from six fires for each FSM (i.e. 18
177 experimental fires in total; Surawski et al., 2015), PyC samples were only collected using
178 three replicates (i.e. nine experimental fires in total). In addition, the fire behaviour data
179 reported in this study involves the same fires for which PyC data were collected.

180 2.4 *Post-fire sampling*

181 After the completion of experimental fires, PyC (i.e. fuel that was thermochemically altered
182 due to exposure to flame but not emitted to the atmosphere) was allowed to cool down before
183 performing post-fire sampling (see Figure 3 for a typical post-fire fuel bed). A circular metal
184 ring with a cross-sectional area of 0.05 m² was used to isolate an area of the burnt fuel bed for
185 subsequent ¹³C NMR analysis. The metal ring was positioned along the centreline and within
186 the last 0.5 m of the burnt fuel bed with respect to the direction of applied fire spread. The
187 isolated patch within the burnt fuel bed was swept up with a firm bristled brush and placed
188 into aluminium trays. After its collection, PyC was sorted into four fuel fractions, either burnt

189 leaves, burnt twigs, burnt bark or ash, and then weighed. From these measurements, the mass
190 of PyC formed could be partitioned between burnt leaves, burnt twigs, burnt bark and ash
191 (see Figure 4) and expressed as a percentage of the total mass of fuel burnt. We define ash as
192 the visually white and grey material remaining after combustion. While ash is often
193 considered to contain inorganic species only (Raison et al., 1985), we did not remove the very
194 finely sized carbon particles within it. Therefore our ash samples still contain some carbon
195 and qualify as PyC. Our definition for determining post-fire PyC follows that of Bird et al.
196 (2015) which involves “thermochemically altered” fuel, which is consistent with the notion
197 of “burnt” fuel discussed in Surawski et al. (2016). A visually representative fraction from
198 each of the four fuel fractions was placed into sealed plastic vials prior to ^{13}C NMR analysis.
199 Samples were transported to the laboratory and were stored at room temperature before
200 analysis.

201 2.5 ^{13}C NMR analysis protocols

202 Overall, the ^{13}C NMR analysis protocols closely follow that of Baldock et al. (2013) which
203 we overview here. Burnt and unburnt fuel samples were fine ground prior to solid state ^{13}C
204 NMR spectroscopy to determine carbon chemistry. Weighed samples, of approximately 100–
205 600 mg, were packed into zirconia rotors with a 7-mm-diameter and Kel-F® end caps before
206 being spun at 5 kHz. When samples did not fill the rotor completely, Kel-F inserts were used
207 to fill any gaps and to place the sample in the middle of the rotor. A 200 Avance spectrometer
208 (Bruker Corporation, Billerica, MA, USA) was used to acquire all ^{13}C NMR spectra. The
209 spectrometer was equipped with a 4.7 T wide-bore superconducting magnet that operated at a
210 resonance frequency of 50.33 MHz. Calibration of chemical shift values were performed
211 using the methyl resonance of hexamethylbenzene at 17.36 ppm. In addition, a Lorentzian
212 line broadening of 50 Hz was applied to all spectra. All spectral processing was completed
213 with the Bruker TopSpin 3 software using the spectral region assignments for different

214 carbon-containing functional groups as presented in Table 2. All ^{13}C NMR analysis was
215 performed using three replicates for each experimental treatment.

216 2.6 *Statistical Analysis Methods*

217 One-way analysis of variance was performed for each burnt fuel component to test whether
218 ^{13}C NMR spectral composition depended on FSM. Tukey honest significant difference tests
219 were used to assess the statistical significance of pairwise comparisons. Linear model
220 assumptions were tested using the gvlma package in R (Pena and Slate, 2006; Pena and Slate,
221 2019). All analyses were performed in R version 3.4.0 (The R Foundation for Statistical
222 Computing, 2017) with a 5 % level for statistical significance.

223

224 Principal component analysis (PCA; Wehrens, 2011) was performed to explore the
225 relationship between samples based on the ^{13}C NMR functional groups present in fuel
226 samples burnt with different FSMs as well as their relationship with recorded fire behaviour
227 variables. PCA was performed in R using the FactoMineR package (Husson et al., 2018). All
228 data were centred and standardised with unit variance before analysis which led to
229 computations being performed with the correlation matrix. The factoextra package was used
230 to visualise results (Kassambara and Mundt, 2017), with PCA biplots being used to show
231 both scores and loadings from the analysis.

232

233 A few features inherent to the PCA biplot are worth noting. An attractive feature of the PCA
234 biplot is its ability to capture information from the scores and loadings matrices in the one
235 plot (Zuur et al., 2007). Since PCA involves projecting a higher dimensional space to one of
236 lower dimensionality, observations are mapped and stored in a new co-ordinate space in the
237 scores matrix. In contrast, the loadings matrix captures the contribution of the original

238 variable to a particular principal component (PC). In the PCA biplot, correlated variables (or
239 observations) lie roughly parallel with each other ($\pm 45^\circ$), anti-correlated variables (or
240 observations) lie roughly opposite one another ($135\text{-}225^\circ$) and un-correlated variables (or
241 observations) are roughly orthogonal ($45\text{-}135^\circ$). Further, the length of an arrow indicates the
242 degree of variability of a variable, with longer arrows indicating more variable data. Finally,
243 observations that are found further from the origin in the PCA biplot indicate that the variable
244 is strongly associated with that particular PC.

245 **3 Results**

246 A summary of the key fire behaviour variables relevant for this experiment is provided in
247 Table 1. Compared to flanking and backing fires, heading fires exhibit a reduced duration of
248 flaming combustion, a longer duration of smouldering combustion, a much higher rate of
249 spread and Byram fireline intensity (Byram, 1959), and a higher $\Delta\text{CO}/\Delta\text{CO}_2$ emissions ratio.
250 In contrast, temperature measurements made by the thermocouples are fairly similar between
251 all three FSMs.

252

253 A graphical summary of the integrated ^{13}C NMR spectra for unburnt fuel samples is
254 presented in Figure 5. For unburnt fuels, ten statistically significant differences were found
255 for multiple comparisons involving carbon-containing functional groups for different
256 vegetation components (Supplementary Tables 1 and 7). In terms of alkyl and aryl carbon,
257 leaves had the highest concentrations followed by twigs and then bark, whereas for O-alkyl
258 and di-O-alkyl carbon, bark had the highest concentrations followed by twigs and then
259 leaves.

260

261 Figure 6 presents the percentage change in ^{13}C NMR composition associated with the
262 application of a particular FSM to each vegetation component (i.e. leaves, twigs and bark)
263 after burning. The largest changes in ^{13}C NMR composition from our fires were for
264 reductions (i.e. combustion) of O-alkyl carbon, as well as enrichments (i.e. increases) in aryl
265 carbon. Decreases in O-alkyl carbon concentrations ranged from 31% for heading and
266 backing fires to 9% for flanking fires. Enrichments in aryl carbon ranged from 7% for
267 flanking fires up to 28% for heading fires. Additionally, ash samples (Figure 7) are
268 particularly enriched with aryl carbon, where approximately 36% of total carbon in ash is aryl
269 carbon. For flanking and backing fires the percentage of total carbon in ash that is aryl carbon
270 is approximately 26% and 31%, respectively.

271

272 Following on from Figure 6, the only statistically significant result for burnt fuels was an
273 increase in aryl carbon for ash from heading fires compared to ash from flanking fires ($p =$
274 0.0156 ; Figure 7; Supplementary Table 11). No other burnt fuels yielded statistically
275 significant differences in terms of the carbon-containing functional groups quantified. This
276 includes also the production of PyC (Figure 4) whereby flanking and backing fires produce
277 more PyC than heading fires; however, the difference is not statistically significant ($p =$
278 0.176 ; Supplementary Table 12). In addition Supplementary Tables 7, 8, 9 and 10 show
279 results from statistical testing for unburnt fuels, as well as burnt leaves, burnt twigs and burnt
280 bark.

281

282 While only one statistically significant result was found above, PCA sheds some light on the
283 relationship between the presence of different ^{13}C NMR functional groups and the applied
284 FSM (Figure 8) as well as the fire behaviour observations recorded during this experiment

285 (Figure 9). In the first PCA biplot (Figure 8) we see that most of the PyC produced by
286 flanking fires is associated with the N-alkyl, O-alkyl and di-O-alkyl functional groups. For
287 heading fires, most PyC is associated with the O-aryl and alkyl function groups. For backing
288 fires, PyC is roughly equally split between the O-aryl/alkyl and N-alkyl/O-alkyl/di-O-alkyl
289 functional groups. Finally, the loadings in Figure 8 show that the N-alkyl, O-alkyl and di-O-
290 alkyl functional groups are located on the opposite side of the PCA biplot to the aryl and O-
291 aryl functional groups with these two groups showing a strong degree of anti-correlation.

292

293 In the second PCA biplot (Figure 9), the relationship between all burnt fuel samples, their ^{13}C
294 NMR composition as well as their relationship with the fire behaviour variables from Table 1
295 is shown. There are four main clusters within this graph. In the top right quadrant, we see that
296 one of the temperature residence times (i.e. time above $500\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$; but not $250\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ or $750\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$),
297 maximum temperature and the combustion factor are associated with the relative amount of
298 the aryl carbon functional group. In the top left quadrant, the duration of flaming combustion,
299 the time above $250\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ and $750\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ as well as the charring intensity are associated. In the
300 bottom left quadrant, the N-alkyl, O-alkyl and di-O-alkyl functional groups are roughly
301 parallel and are anti-correlated with the aryl and O-aryl functional groups. In the bottom right
302 quadrant, the duration of smouldering combustion, Byram fireline intensity, rate of spread,
303 the $\Delta\text{CO}/\Delta\text{CO}_2$ emissions ratio and fuel moisture content are all roughly parallel and
304 correlated.

305 **4 Discussion**

306 *4.1 Properties of PyC*

307 Statistical testing for the differences in ^{13}C NMR composition showed that aryl carbon
308 present in ash was higher for heading fires compared to flanking fires. All other tests for

309 statistical significance between different burnt fuel samples (including total PyC production)
310 were insignificant. This may be considered a surprising result since insights from the
311 thermokinetics of biomass combustion suggest that fire behaviour, including the influence of
312 FSM, has the potential to alter the type and amount of PyC that remains on the ground after
313 fire (Sullivan, 2007; Sullivan and Ball, 2012; Ball, 2014). Ball et al. (2004) proposed a model
314 whereby flame dynamics act as a thermochemical oscillator with combustion periodically
315 switching between the production of volatiles and that of char. When applied to a propagating
316 fire, available evidence suggests that the combustion pathways associated with heading fire
317 combustion would be directed towards the production of volatiles (e.g. gas phase combustion
318 products) while preferential formation of char would occur from backing as well as flanking
319 fires. Based on the current experiments, there does not appear to be very strong empirical
320 support for the hypothesis that FSM affects the type of carbon functional groups present in
321 PyC. Having said that, it is worth emphasising that the temperature residence times in our
322 experiment (i.e. charring intensities) did not exhibit wide variations which would have
323 limited the amount of char combustion that actually occurred. This conclusion is supported
324 by results from Santin et al. (2017) who suggest that the charring intensity metric (i.e. a
325 measure of temperature residence time) plays a critical role in PyC production. Inclusion of
326 larger fuel elements could potentially change the results we found since coarse woody debris
327 is quite often not fully consumed during the passage of a fire front, leaving PyC in the form
328 of charcoal after fire (Sullivan et al., 2018).

329 4.2 *Insights on PyC*

330 Figure 6 shows that the flanking FSM presented the smallest changes in overall ¹³C NMR
331 composition due to fire. For twig samples exposed to flanking fires, there is less overall
332 change in the functional groups containing carbon that were present compared to heading and
333 backing fires. In such cases, twigs have been exposed to flame without significant charring,

334 which raises the issue of where thermal modification of biomass must sit on the combustion
335 continuum to qualify as PyC. Inconsistencies in definitions related to PyC have been raised
336 previously (Zimmerman and Mitra, 2017), which is partially reflective of the differing
337 disciplinary needs of the biogeochemistry (Santin et al., 2016) and atmospheric science
338 communities (Kuhlbusch, 1998; Bond et al., 2013). In the context of the current study, ¹³C
339 NMR spectroscopy offered the opportunity to confirm that thermochemical modifications
340 were achieved to burnt fuels. This may be considered a benefit of our approach for defining
341 PyC rather than relying on visual assessment methods that are common within the field
342 (Santin et al., 2015; Santin et al., 2016).

343 *4.3 Implications for carbon management in forests*

344 Given that the composition of PyC exists on a continuum (Zimmerman and Mitra, 2017),
345 different functional groups that make up PyC will exhibit different degrees of resistance to
346 biological decomposition (Hilscher and Knicker, 2011). Functional groups such as aryl and
347 O-aryl carbon, which are typically associated with char formation, are more resistant to
348 decomposition (Hilscher and Knicker, 2011) implying that PyC with increased levels of these
349 two functional groups can potentially be locked into the pedosphere for longer periods of
350 time once incorporated into soils. From a carbon management perspective, this is a
351 favourable outcome since converting burnt biomass to aryl or O-aryl carbon prevents the
352 accumulation of carbon in the atmosphere stemming from the decomposition of more
353 degradable forms of carbon such as alkyl, N-alkyl and O-alkyl carbon (Hilscher and Knicker,
354 2011). While making this observation, it is important to qualify that the resistance of PyC to
355 biological degradation, in general, hinges heavily on the microbial community present in soils
356 (Zimmerman et al., 2011) which will itself depend on soil properties and climate conditions
357 (Cheng et al., 2008).

358 Although only one statistically significant result was observed (i.e. for the increase in aryl
359 carbon in ash for heading fires compared to flanking fires) the implications for forest fire
360 carbon management primarily stem from the PCA analysis in Figure 9. In the context of this
361 experiment, the main option for sequestering carbon from these fires is to maximise the total
362 production of aryl and O-aryl carbon. Both of these functional groups have a higher degree of
363 resistance to biological decomposition (Hilscher and Knicker, 2011); hence if aryl and O-aryl
364 carbon were formed during fire and stored in soils this could have positive benefits for the
365 overall carbon balance since PyC could be stored in the soil carbon pool for extended periods
366 of time (Woolf et al., 2010). This outcome would be achieved since recalcitrant carbon would
367 be produced and sequestered at the expense of carbon that could be emitted to the atmosphere
368 or stored in soils involving functional groups that are more labile, or prone to decomposition,
369 (such as N-alkyl, O-alkyl and di-O-alkyl carbon; Hilscher and Knicker (2011)). Based on the
370 current results, it appears there are two main strategies to maximise the production of aryl and
371 O-aryl carbon. This involves 1) maximising the residence time of high temperature
372 combustion and by 2) maximising the combustion factor. Point 2) may seem counterintuitive,
373 but essentially involves a relatively complete burn that produces PyC as opposed to an
374 inefficient burn with high amounts of residual smouldering combustion. Maximising the
375 combustion factor to sequester carbon post-fire concurs with the recommendations of the
376 National Wildfire Coordinating Group Fire Use Working Team (2001). Indeed, the idea of
377 applying different FSMs to positively modulate the overall carbon balance ultimately stems
378 from this team. In this report, the National Wildfire Coordinating Group Fire Use Working
379 Team suggest that in homogeneous and non-complex fuel beds that backing fires burn more
380 cleanly and with lower emissions than other spread modes due to consuming fuels with a
381 greater efficiency. Our results (Table 1) confirm the notion that backing fires not only burn
382 more cleanly than heading fires (i.e. in terms of the lower $\Delta\text{CO}/\Delta\text{CO}_2$ emission ratio), but

383 also with a higher degree of combustion completeness (i.e. in terms of the combustion
384 factor). Maximising the residence time of high temperature combustion also concurs with
385 basic insights from the mechanism associated with charcoal production (Antal et al., 1990;
386 Strandberg et al., 2015), which has elevated levels of aryl and O-aryl carbon compared with
387 other types of burnt fuel. Further, it is worth noting that if low intensity FSMs (e.g. backing
388 and flanking fires) did lead to increased storage of PyC this would form the basis of a
389 practical carbon storage system since existing prescribed burning techniques (Chandler et al.,
390 1983; Tolhurst and Cheney, 1999) are partially based around the application of these spread
391 modes that propagate with a reduced Byram fireline intensity (e.g. backing fire ignition,
392 chevron ignition, perimeter ignition) for the purpose of increasing controllability and
393 reducing risks of fire escapes.

394

395 Further evidence from our experiments suggest that carbon storage would be promoted by
396 fires that propagate with an intensity less than that of heading fire. The bottom right quadrant
397 of Figure 9 shows that Byram fireline intensity, rate of spread, duration of smouldering
398 combustion and the $\Delta\text{CO}/\Delta\text{CO}_2$ all point in roughly the same direction in the PCA biplot and
399 are hence associated. These variables are all associated with heading fires that have a high
400 rate of forward spread and Byram fireline intensity. Further, heading fires are also associated
401 with inefficient smouldering combustion which increases the emissions of CO. Previous
402 results from Surawski et al. (2015) confirm that heading fires emit roughly double the CO
403 emissions of flanking and backing fires. This adds further evidence to the notion that attempts
404 to store carbon from propagating fires would be achieved with FSMs having a lower rate of
405 spread and Byram fireline intensity.

406

407 **5 Conclusions**

408 In this study, we explored the properties of PyC produced by the application of three different
409 FSMs to forest litter fuels burnt in a combustion wind tunnel. ¹³C NMR spectroscopy was
410 conducted to assess the carbon functional groups present in PyC. Overall, the results from
411 this study are broadly consistent with the findings of Baldock and Smernik (2002) who found
412 that combustion increased the presence of recalcitrant carbon-containing functional groups
413 such as aryl and O-aryl carbon while reducing the concentration of more degradable forms of
414 carbon (such as alkyl and O-alkyl carbon). Only one statistically significant result was found
415 which involved higher aryl carbon levels in ash from heading fires compared to ash from
416 flanking fires. PCA results shed light on the possibility that increasing the residence time of
417 high temperature combustion as well as the combustion factor could be a valid method for
418 increasing the production of aryl and O-aryl carbon from fire provided that incomplete
419 combustion of biomass to PyC can still be achieved. Such actions may have positive benefits
420 for the overall PyC balance through storing recalcitrant carbon in soils for extended periods
421 of time. Although the results from this study are not completely conclusive, there remains the
422 possibility that FSM modulation may allow these carbon sequestration outcomes to be
423 achieved.

424

425 As a model ecological system, an experimental fire conducted in a combustion wind tunnel is
426 unlike that encountered in the field with its inherently variable fuel architecture, fuel load,
427 topography and ambient environmental conditions. In our study, we tightly controlled
428 experimental factors such as fuel composition, fuel moisture content, the fuel ignition process
429 and wind speed. While this enabled detailed investigation into the role of different FSMs in
430 shaping ¹³C NMR composition, there exist a number of possible extensions to this work. This

431 includes re-designing the fuel architecture of the wind tunnel to include other carbon pools
432 that make a significant contribution to fuel load in dry sclerophyll forests, such as coarse
433 woody debris as well as an understorey. Future investigations exploring ^{13}C NMR
434 composition with different FSMs could also vary some of the variables we held constant such
435 as wind speed, fuel moisture content and fuel load.

436

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441 **References**

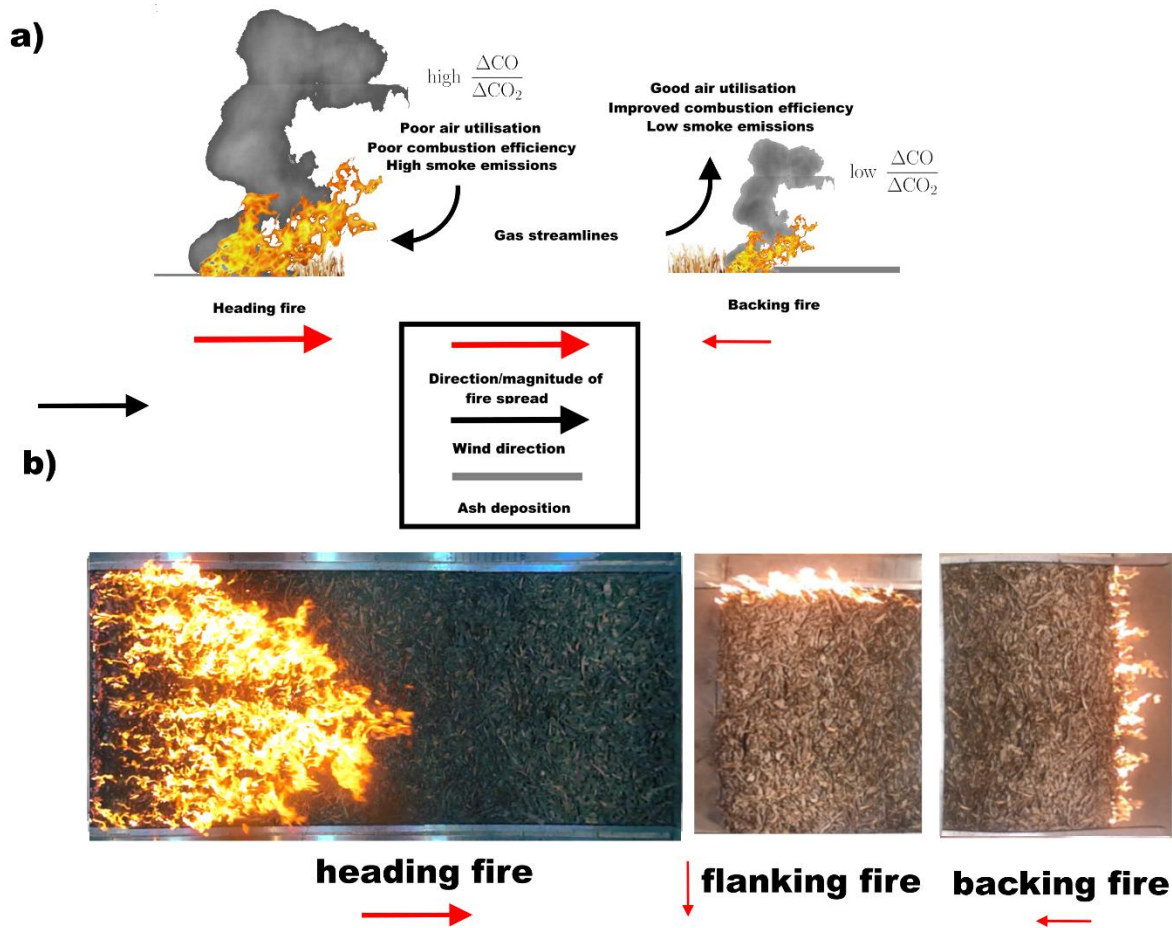
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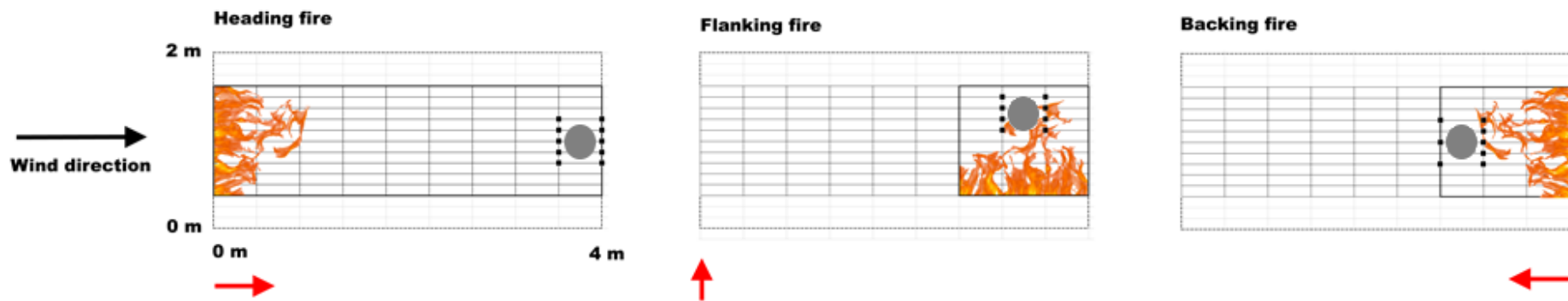
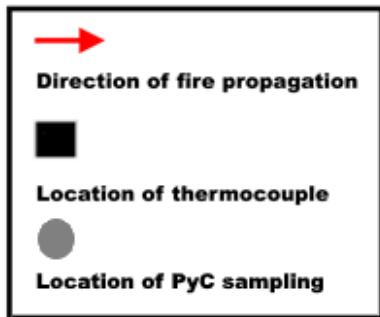
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635



636 **Figure 1:** a) A schematic overview of relevant combustion processes and outcomes
 637 for heading and backing fires. In the field, flanking fires (not shown) entail alternating
 638 phases of heading or backing fire spread. b) Rectified images of heading, flanking and
 639 backing fires in the CSIRO Pyrotron. Wind flow is from left to right for all three
 640 FSMs.



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642 **Figure 2:** A schematic (not to scale) of the three different FSMs relative to the prevailing wind direction and the location of the K-type

643 thermocouples used for sensing temperatures near the flame base.



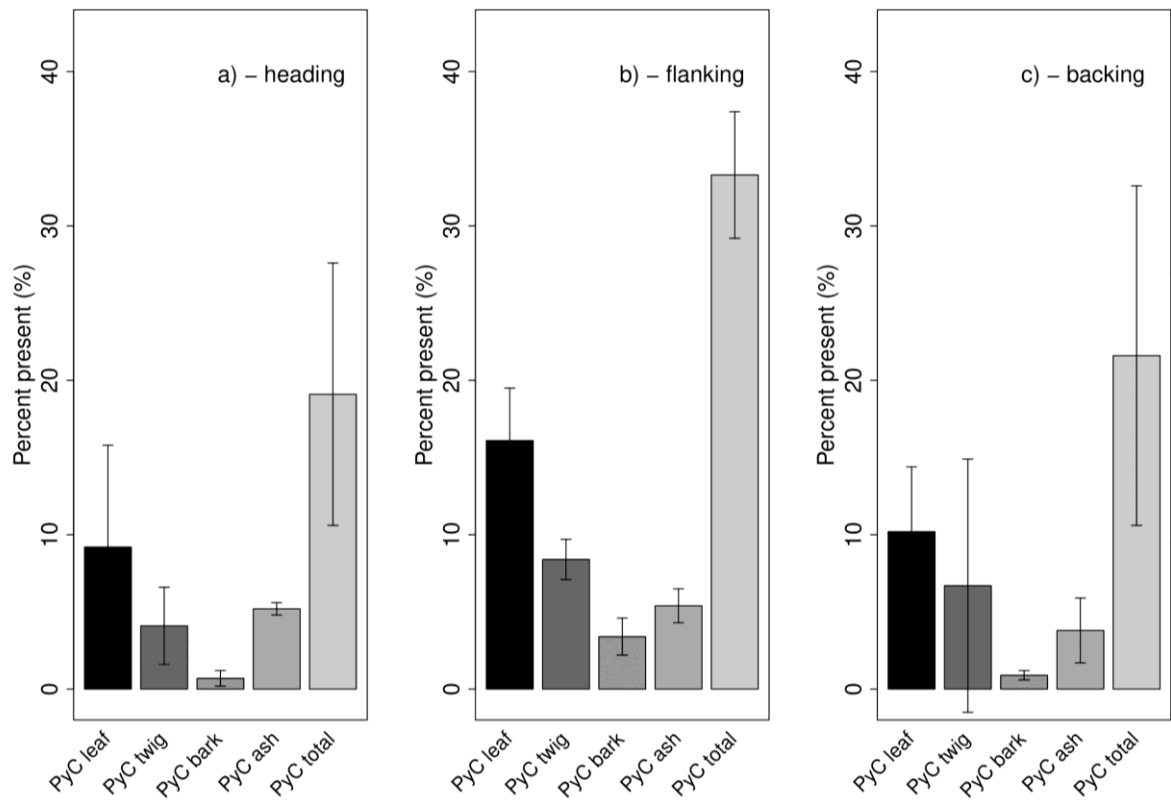
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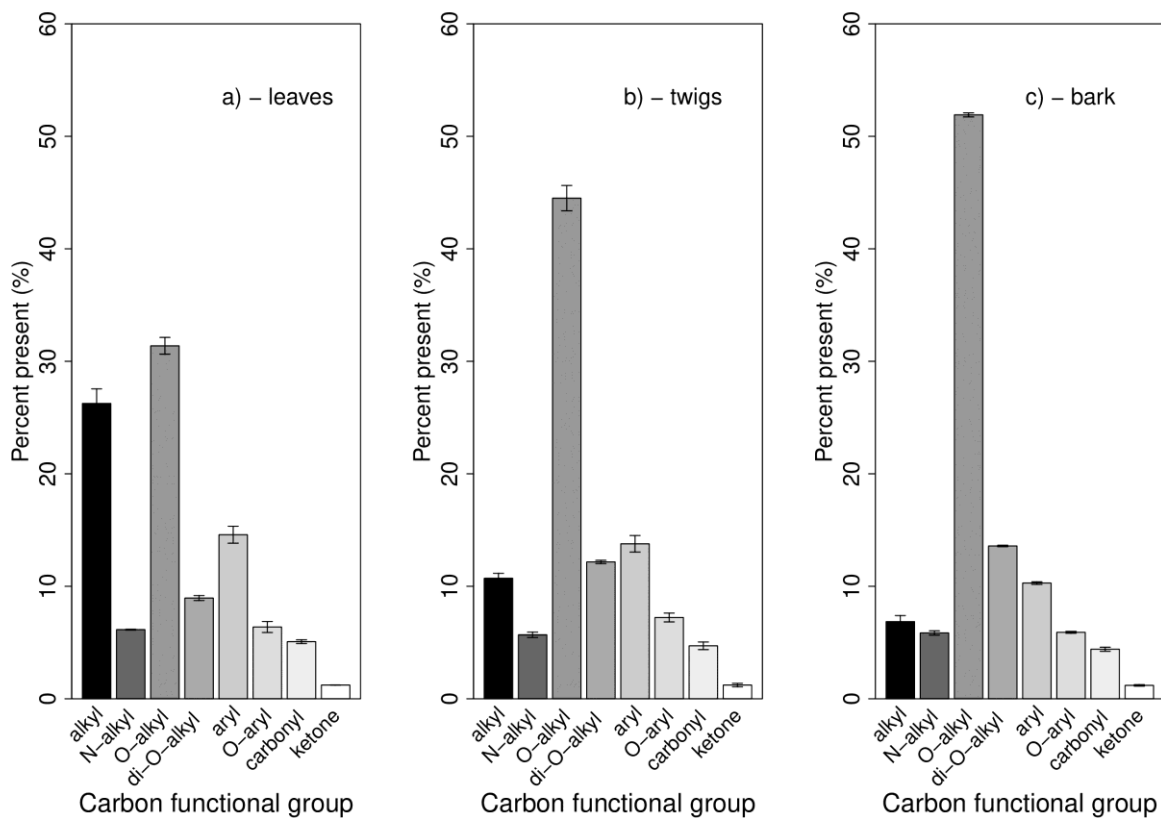
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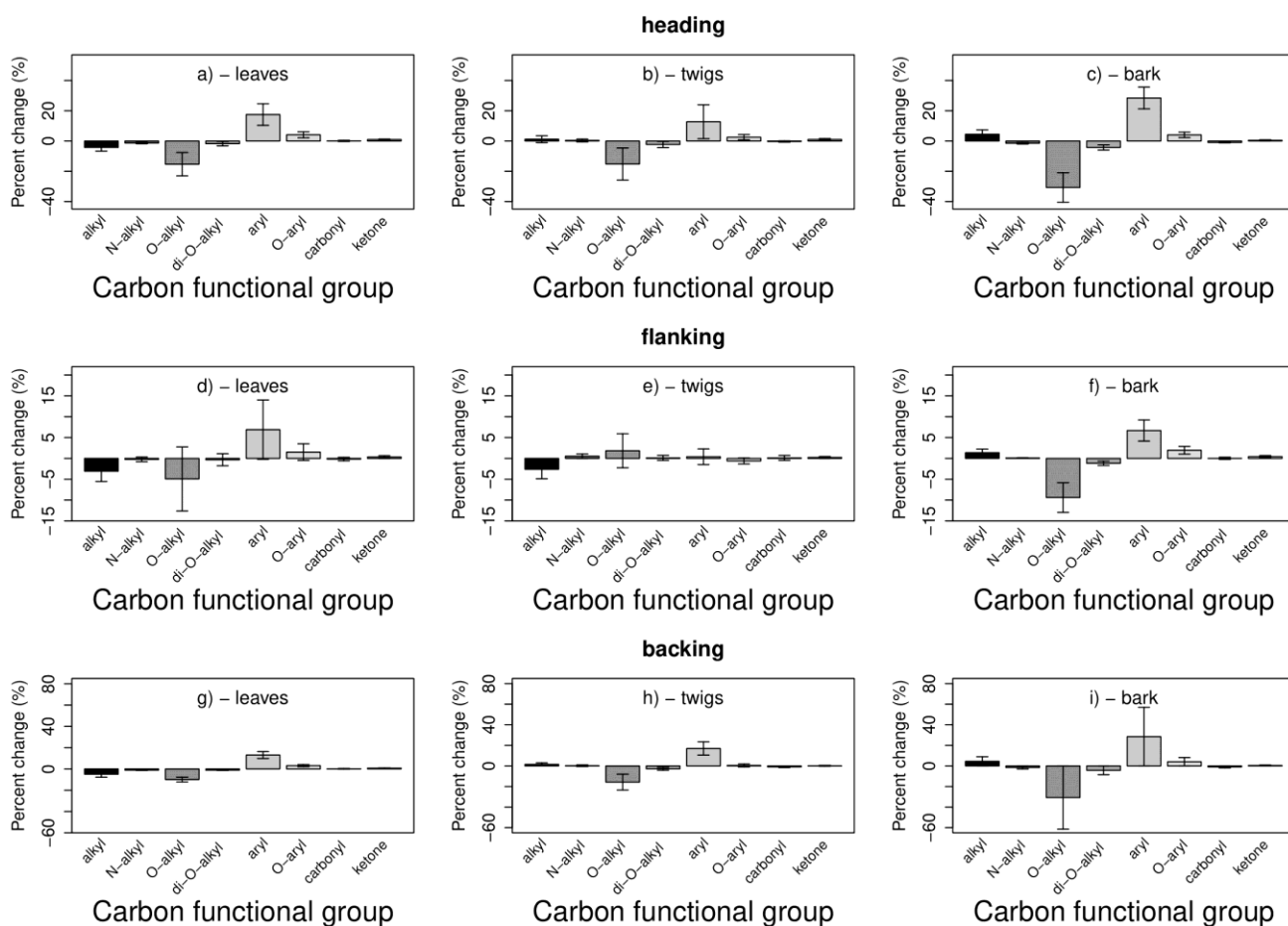
Figure 3: An example post-fire fuel bed (from the third backing fire) from which PyC sampling was performed. The left and right hand sides of the fuel bed indicate dimensions (in metres).



648 **Figure 4:** Graphical summary of the contribution of burnt leaves, burnt twigs, burnt
649 bark and ash to total PyC (i.e. total PyC% = PyC burnt leaf% + PyC burnt twig% + PyC burnt
650 bark% + PyC ash%) production for a) heading fires b) flanking fires c) backing fires.



651 **Figure 5:** Graphical summary of the integrated ^{13}C NMR results for different carbon-
 652 containing functional groups for unburnt fuels. ^{13}C NMR composition for a) unburnt leaves
 653 b) unburnt twigs and c) unburnt bark. Error bars represent the standard deviation based on
 654 three replicates.



655 **Figure 6:** Graphical summary of the integrated ^{13}C NMR results for percentage change in ^{13}C

656 NMR composition for different carbon-containing functional groups for burnt fuels.

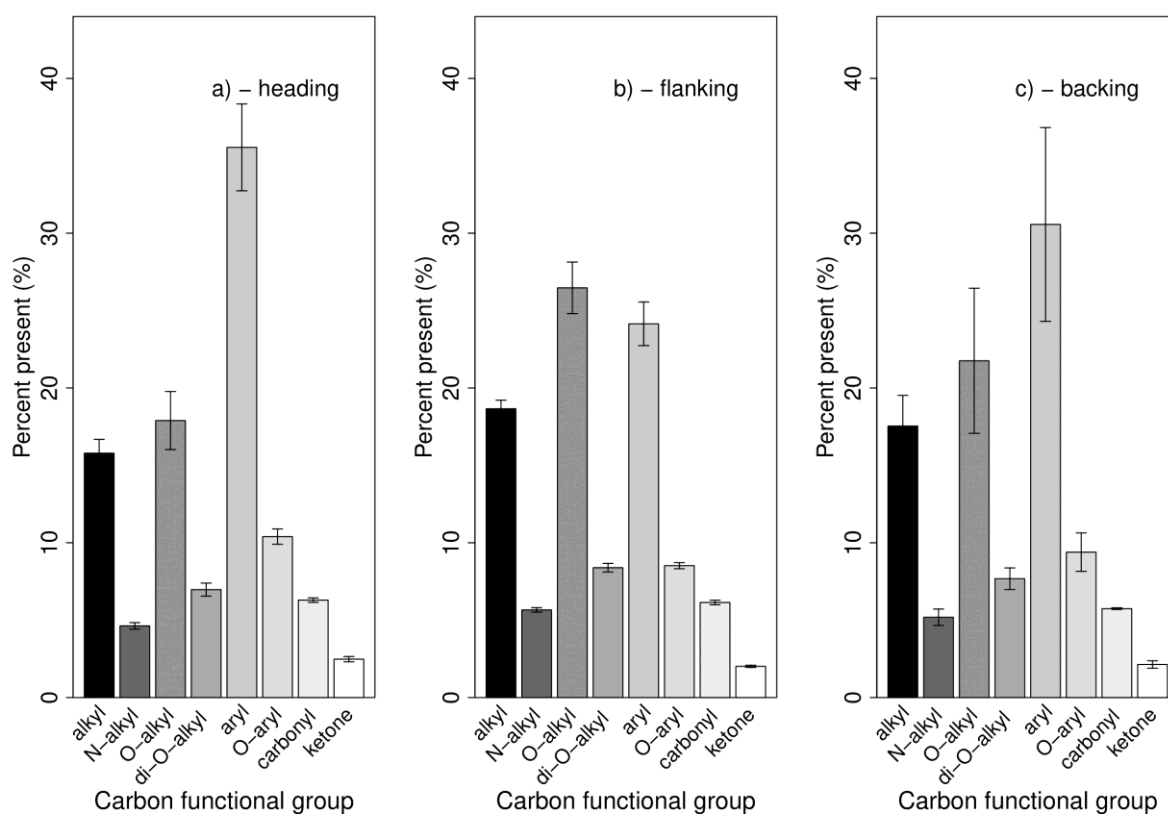
657 Percentage change in ^{13}C NMR composition for a) leaves burnt by heading fires b) twigs

658 burnt by heading fires c) bark burnt by heading fires d) leaves burnt by flanking fires e) twigs

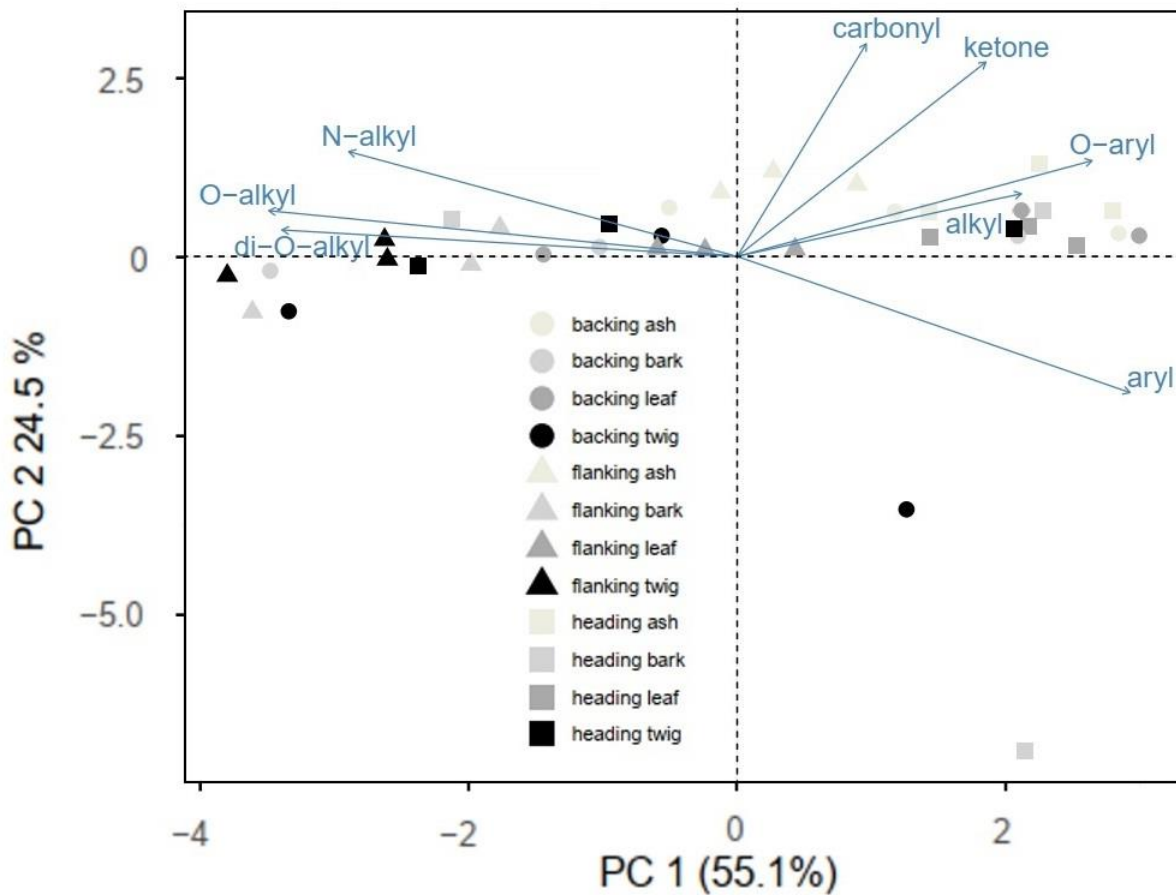
659 burnt by flanking fires f) bark burnt by flanking fires g) leaves burnt by backing fires h) twigs

660 burnt by backing fires i) bark burnt by backing fires. Error bars represent the standard

661 deviation based on three replicates.



662 **Figure 7:** Graphical summary of the integrated ^{13}C NMR results for different carbon-
 663 containing functional groups for ash samples. ^{13}C NMR composition for ash remaining after
 664 a) heading fires b) flanking fires and c) backing fires. Error bars represent the standard
 665 deviation based on three replicates.



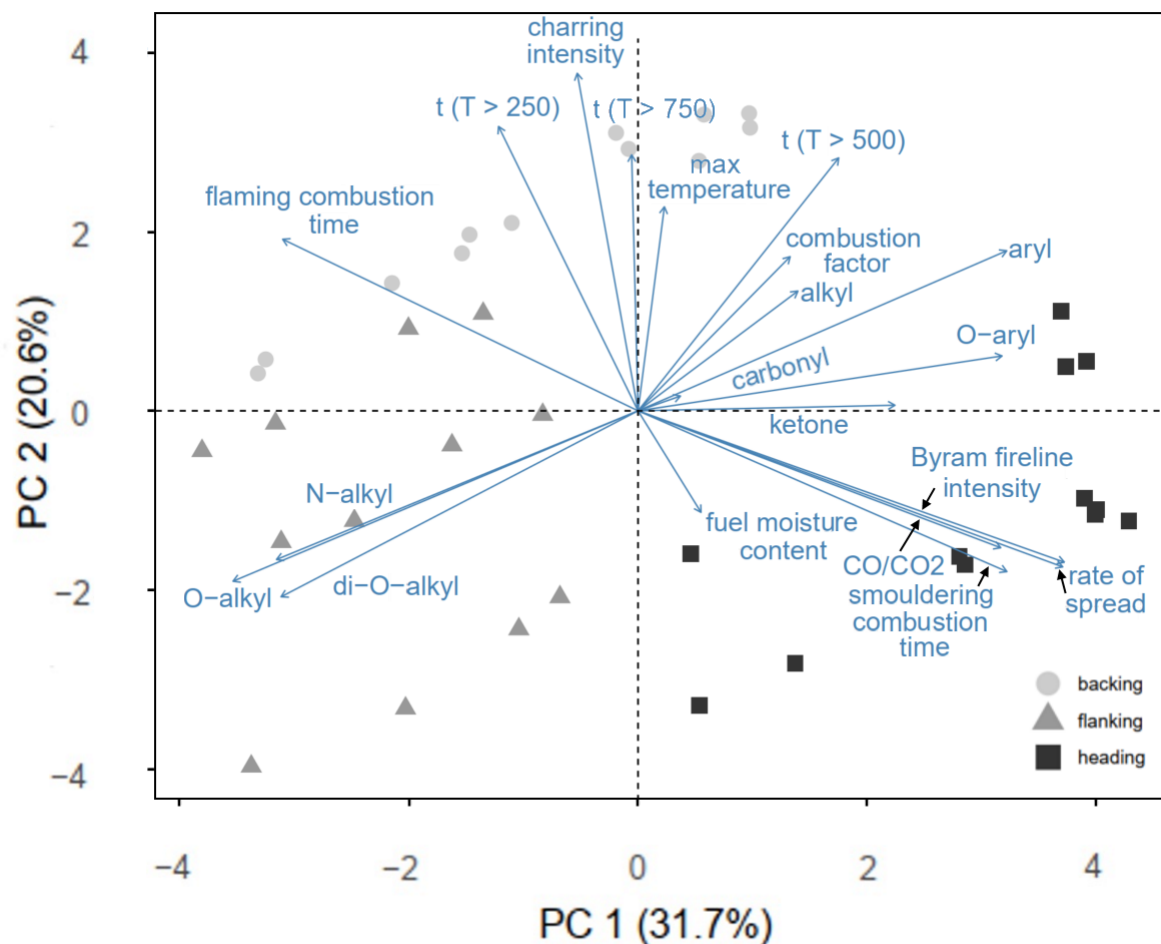
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Figure 8: A PCA biplot showing the relationship for different vegetation components burnt with different FSMs and ^{13}C NMR functional groups. The percentage of variance accounted for by each PC is also displayed on each axis.

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670
 671 **Figure 9:** PCA biplot showing the relationship between the fire behaviour variables recorded
 672 in this experiment and their ¹³C NMR composition for different FSMs. The percentage of
 673 variance accounted for by each PC is displayed on each axis. Abbreviations used are: t (T >
 674 250), t (T > 500) and t (T > 750) represent the duration of combustion above 250, 500 and
 675 750 °C respectively, max temperature represents the maximum recorded temperature during
 676 the fire and CO/CO₂ represents the excess mixing ratio for $\Delta\text{CO}/\Delta\text{CO}_2$.

677 **Table 1:** Key fire behaviour variables recorded during this experiment that may affect the properties of PyC. Mean values are provided with the
 678 range presented as (minimum value-maximum value). Temperature measurements were made with thermocouples at the locations indicated in
 679 Figure 2.

Fire Spread Mode	Fuel moisture content (%)	Flaming combustion duration (s)	Smouldering combustion duration (s)	Rate of spread (m h ⁻¹)	Combustion factor (%)	Byram fireline intensity (kW m ⁻¹)*	Charring intensity × 10 ⁴ (°C s) ‡	Time above 250 °C (s) †	Time above 500 °C (s)	Time above 750 °C (s)	Maximum temperature °C	ΔCO/ΔCO ₂ (-) †
Heading	5.8 (5.1-6.8)	262 (239-290)	514 (390-582)	108 (103-113)	80 (78-83)	472 (462-488)	6.4 (6.1-6.9)	121 (116-128)	58 (54-64)	1.0 (0.5-1.5)	792 (785-801)	0.141 (0.114-0.158)
Flanking	5.6 (5.2-6.2)	907 (769-993)	136 (127-151)	6.7 (5.8-8.2)	73 (70-78)	27 (23-32)	6.5 (4.8-7.7)	130 (99-160)	45 (29-56)	0.3 (0-0.8)	759 (747-768)	0.093 (0.078-0.114)
Backing	5.8 (5.3-6.5)	1407 (1089-1988)	176 (76-242)	5.6 (4.2-6.6)	83 (78-85)	25 (20-31)	7.5 (6.9-7.9)	139 (133-143)	59 (56-64)	3.3 (2.1-4.9)	836 (790-870)	0.098 (0.080-0.107)

680 * Byram fireline intensity (Byram, 1959) represents the product of the lower heating value of the fuel (kJ kg⁻¹), fuel consumption (kg m⁻²) and
 681 rate of spread (m s⁻¹).

682 ‡ Charring intensity (CI; Pyle et al., 2015) was obtained by integrating the thermocouple data, T(t), from when the temperature rose to 200 °C (t₀)
 683 to when it fell back to 200 °C (t_f) i.e. $CI = \int_{t_0}^{t_f} T(t)dt$.

684 † Flame arrival at a particular location in the fuel bed occurred when the temperature exceeded 250 °C (Gould et al., 2017).

685 † ΔX denotes the excess mixing ratio for species X i.e. $\Delta X = X_{\text{plume}} - X_{\text{ambient}}$.

686 **Table 2:** Assignment of ^{13}C NMR spectral regions to different carbon-containing functional
687 groups. Spectral region assignments are based on Baldock et al. (2013).

Chemical shift limits (ppm)	Proposed dominant type of organic carbon
290-265	Carbonyl and amide spinning side band
265-245	O-aryl spinning side band
245-215	Aryl spinning side band
215-190	Ketone carbon
190-165	Carbonyl and amide carbon
165-145	O-aryl carbon (phenolic and furan)
145-110	Aryl and unsaturated carbon
110-90	Di-O-alkyl carbon
90-65	O-alkyl carbon
65-45	Methoxyl and N-alkyl carbon
45-0	Alkyl carbon

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