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- 1 Fire temperatures and *Sphagnum* damage during prescribed burning on peatlands
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7

# 8 Abstract

9 Prescribed burning affects plant community composition including the abundance of peat-10 forming *Sphagnum* mosses. Understanding the processes by which fire impacts occur and 11 the variability of impacts according to fire severity is important when making fire 12 management decisions. We monitored fire temperatures and their impact on Sphagnum 13 capillifolium in 16 experimental fires in the field. Cell damage in response to high 14 temperature exposure in the laboratory was also quantified for five different Sphagnum 15 species (S. capillifolium, S. papillosum, S. magellanicum, S. austinii and S. angustifolium). 16 Maximum temperatures recorded at the moss surface during fire ranged from 33 °C to 538 17 <sup>o</sup>C and were higher in plots with greater dwarf shrub cover. Higher temperatures were 18 associated with a greater proportion of cell damage in *S. capillifolium*, with 93-100% cell 19 damage observed 10 weeks after burning in the upper parts of plants exposed to 20 temperatures over 400 °C. All five species tested in the laboratory experiment also showed 21 more damage at higher temperatures, with damage occurring immediately after heat 22 exposure. These results indicate that hotter fires are likely to have a greater impact on 23 Sphagnum survival and growth, and could slow the rate at which the peatland moss layer 24 sequesters carbon.

25 Keywords: *Sphagnum*, moss; fire, peatland, burning, heat damage.

#### 27 1. Introduction

28 Peatlands are important ecosystems which cover 2.84 % of the world's land surface (Xu et 29 al. 2018b), store over 600 Gt of carbon (Yu et al. 2010; Leifeld & Menichetti 2018) and have 30 a significant role in water supply in several key regions (Xu et al. 2018a). Sphagnum is the 31 most important peat forming genus globally (Clymo & Hayward 1982), is considered a 32 significant ecosystem engineer in arctic, temperate and boreal peatlands (Bacon et al. 2017) 33 and can have a beneficial impact on water quality (Ritson et al. 2016). Understanding how 34 Sphagnum responds to abiotic influences such as fire is therefore vital to inform predictions 35 of changing peatland function. Comparisons between different Sphagnum species are also 36 valuable, as some species form peat to a greater extent than others (Gunnarsson 2005). 37 Vegetation fires, in the form of both wildfires and prescribed burns, are common on 38 peatlands worldwide. Fire has the potential to impact ecosystem function via vegetation 39 change, including changes to Sphagnum abundance (Noble et al. 2018a), but impacts are 40 likely to be variable depending on fire severity. In the UK, the most common type of 41 peatland fire is prescribed rotational burning for grouse moor management (Douglas et al. 42 2015), where patches of vegetation are burned to facilitate dwarf shrub regeneration. 43 Prescribed burns are usually controlled with the intention of burning vegetation without 44 consuming the moss layer or igniting the underlying peat, but temperatures may vary 45 according to fuel structure and moisture, burning technique and weather conditions (Hobbs 46

47 during prescribed burns affects *Sphaqnum* would improve understanding of the processes

& Gimingham 1984). Increased knowledge of how the range of temperatures experienced

48 via which fire impacts occur and inform future decisions about the use of burning in 49 vegetation management.

50 Fire temperatures in the field can be measured using thermocouple sensors (Kenworthy 51 1963; Hamilton 2000; Davies 2005; Grau-Andrés et al. 2018) or 'pyrometers' consisting of 52 materials (commonly lacquers) which undergo irreversible changes in appearance at specific 53 temperatures (Whittaker 1961; Hobbs et al. 1984; Cawson et al. 2016). Past studies of prescribed burning for grouse moor management have reported maximum fire 54 55 temperatures in the range of 600 – 980°C (Whittaker 1961; Kenworthy 1963; Hobbs et al. 56 1984; Davies 2005; Harris et al. 2011). These studies were carried out on sites with a range 57 of soil and vegetation types, including heathlands, which may have drier soils and

vegetation than peatlands. At a peatland site, Hamilton (2000) recorded average maximum temperatures of around 250°C at the moss surface and around 500°C at the midpoint of total vegetation height. Grau-Andrés et al. (2018) recorded temperatures below the moss/litter layer during fire in both peatland and heathland sites, and found lower temperatures in the peatland, which could be due to lower fire temperatures in the aboveground canopy or greater insulation by the peatland moss layer, which likely had a higher moisture content and was less likely to ignite.

65 Previous studies investigating the impact of high temperatures have employed a range of 66 measures to assess Sphagnum health, including visible physical damage and changes in 67 photosynthetic capacity. The current evidence base indicates that a decline in Sphagnum 68 health occurs following exposure to high temperatures, followed by recovery over a period 69 of months or years (Hamilton 2000; Grau-Andrés et al. 2017; Taylor et al. 2017). Studies by 70 Taylor et al. (2017) and Grau-Andrés et al. (2017) focussed on S. capillifolium, while 71 Hamilton (2000) monitored a species mix dominated by S. capillifolium and S. papillosum. S. 72 *capillifolium* is common on UK peatlands, making up a large proportion of cover on many 73 sites, so knowledge of its response to fire is important. However, this species often occurs 74 on burned sites (Burch 2008; Lee et al. 2013), and its response to fire may not be 75 representative of other species including historically significant peat formers such as S. 76 austinii (Swindles et al. 2015), S. papillosum and S. magellanicum (Blundell & Holden 2015). 77 Knowledge of species other than *S. capillifolium* is therefore important where the aim is to 78 protect or restore typical peatland vegetation types with a range of *Sphagnum* species 79 (Averis et al. 2004).

80 Reduced Sphagnum water content has the potential to increase vulnerability to fire damage 81 (Taylor et al. 2017). Understanding this effect is relevant as burning often takes place where 82 peat water availability (and hence Sphagnum water content) may be reduced as a result of 83 factors such as dry weather conditions, drainage (Ketcheson & Price 2011), past fire 84 (Thompson & Waddington 2013; Holden et al. 2014) or the dominance of relatively deep 85 rooted shrubs (McNamara et al. 2008). Climate change may also result in more frequent 86 peatland drought in some regions (Gallego-Sala & Prentice 2013; Li et al. 2017). Additionally, 87 seasonal fluctuations in moisture may mean that the timing of burning is important in 88 determining the risk of damage to Sphagnum.

89 In this study, we aimed to assess how pre-fire vegetation composition and structure 90 influence prescribed burning temperatures in peatlands, and to quantify the effects of fire 91 occurrence and fire temperature on *Sphagnum* damage. To achieve this, we measured fire 92 temperatures in 16 experimental prescribed burns on a blanket peatland site. Metrics of 93 Sphagnum health including height change, cell damage and water content were measured 94 at several time points after burning in burned and control plots. Cell damage was also 95 assessed in five Sphagnum species subjected to two moisture treatments and exposed to a 96 range of temperatures in the laboratory. The results have been considered in the context of 97 peatland fire management.

#### 98 2. Methods

#### 99 2.1 Field study

100 The study was carried out at the Hard Hill burning and grazing experiment (54°43'N 2°23'W; 101 Figure 1), which was established in 1954 on an area of blanket peatland at Moor House-102 Upper Teesdale National Nature Reserve (NNR) in the North Pennines, UK. The experiment 103 consists of four blocks of six 30 m x 30 m plots subject to short-rotation (burned 104 approximately every 10 years), long-rotation (burned approximately every 20 years) and 105 'no-burn' (unburned since 1954) treatments, in combination with fenced and grazed 106 treatments. The vegetation surrounding the experimental blocks has remained unburned 107 for at least 90 years. The design and history of the experiment are described further by Lee 108 et al. (2013).

In April 2017, prescribed burning was carried out on the sixteen short- and long-rotation
plots within the experiment. Prior to burning, measurement points were established by
locating a patch of *Sphagnum capillifolium* (the most common *Sphagnum* species in the
plots) near the centre of each plot and marking it with a cane. Pre-burn cover (%) and height
(to the nearest cm) of dwarf shrubs and graminoids in a 50 cm x 50 cm quadrat centred on
each measurement point were recorded.

115 Fire temperatures were recorded using two methods. First, a temperature datalogger (EL-

116 TC-USB, Lascar, UK) with 30 cm K-type thermocouple (Omega, UK) was installed at each of

117 the 16 measurement points. Dataloggers were placed in waterproof plastic bags and

118 wrapped with heat-shielding aluminised glass fibre cloth, and the connected thermocouple

119 sensors were positioned on the moss surface. These recorded the temperature at one 120 second intervals, enabling determination of the maximum temperature during each fire and 121 the number of seconds exceeding 50 °C, a critical threshold for plant tissue damage (Neary 122 et al. 1999). Second, pyrometers similar to those used by Cawson et al. (2016), Hobbs et al. 123 (1984) and Whittaker (1961) were made by painting 0.5 cm diameter dots of six 124 temperature sensitive lacquers (Omegalaq, Omega, UK) onto aluminium forestry tags. The 125 lacquers selected were designed to undergo irreversible changes in colour and/or texture at 126 79, 177, 260, 371, 454 or 593 °C, a range of temperatures chosen based on those measured 127 during past work on heather burning (Whittaker 1961; Hobbs et al. 1984; Hamilton 2000). 128 The painted tags were wrapped in aluminium foil and placed on the moss surface, at a 129 distance of approximately 10 cm from the thermocouple sensors. Using both methods 130 enabled comparison of their reliability, and the pyrometers ensured a backup measure of 131 maximum fire temperature in the event of datalogger failure.

132 Immediately after burning in April 2017, the thermocouple-dataloggers and pyrometers 133 were collected and a cranked wire similar to those used by Clymo (1970), Kim et al. (2014) 134 and Walker et al. (2015) was installed at each of the 16 burn plot measurement point, as 135 well as four control measurement points, located around 10 m north of each experimental 136 block. Cranked wires comprised 3 mm galvanised steel wire with two opposing 90° bends so 137 that a 20cm vertical length was inserted into the moss layer and underlying peat, a 2cm 138 horizontal length was level with the moss surface, and a 10cm vertical length protruded 139 above. Follow up measurements were carried out in June and September 2017, 10 and 21 140 weeks after burning respectively. The change in S. capillifolium height between installation 141 and subsequent surveys was determined by the distance from the horizontal wire section to 142 the moss surface. The distance measured in June was subtracted from that measured in 143 September to give the height change between surveys. The height change data for both 144 surveys was then divided by the relevant number of weeks to give the rate of weekly change 145 for April-June and June-September.

146 In April and June, S. capillifolium samples were collected from the 16 burn plot

147 measurement points and four unburned reference measurement points. In September,

- 148 these 20 plots were re-sampled and four additional samples were collected from extra
- 149 unburned reference points around 10 m south of each experimental block, giving a total of

150 24 samples (16 burned, 8 reference). Samples were stored in plastic bags for transportation151 back to the laboratory and analysis took place on the following day.

152 For the samples taken in June and September, S. capillifolium cell damage was quantified 153 using trypan blue, a dye which is excluded from healthy cells but can enter and stain those 154 with a compromised plasma membrane, allowing visualisation of cell damage (Oldenhof et 155 al. 2006; Duan et al. 2010). A S. capillifolium capitulum from each sample was incubated in a 156 0.4% trypan blue solution for 20 minutes before rinsing three times with de-ionised water. 157 Three branches were removed from the outer area of each capitulum, mounted on a slide, 158 and viewed at 400 x magnification. A leaf near the tip of each branch was selected and 159 stained and unstained chlorophyllous cells were counted. The mean proportion of stained 160 cells in each sample was then calculated for use in analysis.

161 Samples of *S. capillifolium* were taken in April, June and September. On each occasion 162 samples were collected on a single day between 10am and 1pm, and immediately sealed in 163 plastic bags. Capitulum water content was determined by weighing three capitula at field 164 moisture, then drying at 30 °C to constant weight and calculating the percentage of total 165 mass lost. Additionally, in June and September, peat samples were taken 30 cm from each 166 measurement point by pushing a 6.8 cm diameter, 6 cm high plastic tube into the peat 167 below the moss layer. The water content of peat samples was calculated by drying the 168 samples at 105 °C to constant weight and calculating the percentage of total mass lost, and 169 bulk density was calculated by dividing the mass remaining after drying by the volume of the 170 sample.

### 171 **2.2 Laboratory study**

Sphagnum cell damage after exposure to high temperatures was further tested in a series of laboratory experiments. Samples of five Sphagnum species (S. capillifolium, S. papillosum, S. magellanicum, S. austinii and S. angustifolium) were collected from Moor House-Upper Teesdale NNR between October 2017 and March 2018. For each species, 30 crucibles (2 cm diameter x 3 cm height) were filled with the top 3 cm of Sphagnum stems at field density. 15 crucibles were kept wet with de-ionised water while the other 15 were allowed to dry out at room temperature for 24 hours until around 20% of the original water content remained. 179 Six samples (three wet and three dry) were left as unheated controls, and a further six were 180 exposed to each of four temperature treatments (125, 250, 375 and 500 °C). Heating was 181 achieved by using a thermocouple and datalogger with LCD display (EL-TC-USB-LCD, Lascar, 182 UK) to measure the temperature next to a Meker burner flame, and upon reaching the 183 desired temperature, samples were held with tongs so that the *Sphagnum* capitula were 184 level with the thermocouple tip for 5 seconds. This was intended to provide high 185 temperature exposure comparable to that experienced in a prescribed burn, where flames 186 from burning canopy vegetation heat the Sphagnum surface, and the duration of the 187 temperature peak at the moss layer level is typically short (Davies 2005). After heating, all 188 samples were re-wetted with de-ionised water before trypan blue staining was carried out 189 on one capitulum from each sample as described above. For *S. capillifolium*, the samples 190 were then kept in natural light at a temperature of 15-18°C for 11 days before trypan blue 191 staining was carried out a second time on another capitulum from each sample.

#### 192 **2.3 Analysis**

193 All statistical analyses were carried out using R 3.4.1 (R Development Core Team 2010) with 194 the packages car (Fox & Weisberg 2011), nlme (Pinheiro et al. 2016), and ggplot2 (Wickham 195 2009). Of the 16 thermocouple-dataloggers deployed, 14 successfully recorded fire 196 temperatures, and all 16 pyrometers provided temperature readings. The impacts of pre-197 burn vegetation (graminoid and dwarf shrub cover and height) on maximum fire 198 temperature were assessed using linear models, and R<sup>2</sup> values were compared to determine 199 the best predictor. Spearman's correlation was used to test the relationship between 200 maximum temperatures detected by thermocouples and pyrometers, as well as the 201 relationship between maximum temperature and time above 50 °C detected by the 202 thermocouples.

Two approaches were used to analyse fire temperature impacts on *Sphagnum* and peat properties. In both cases, linear mixed models with temperature and survey month as fixed factors and measurement point as a random factor were used to account for the repeat surveys, and dependent variables measured on the percentage scale were logit transformed to increase compliance with model assumptions of normality. Maximum fire temperature detected by thermocouples in burned plots was used as a continuous predictor variable in one set of models. For the second set of models, the measurement points were placed in three groups to enable comparison of high (324 – 538 °C) and low (33 – 137 °C) maximum
temperature exposures with the unburned control group. For the two burn plots where
dataloggers failed, pyrometer readings were used to categorise fire temperature into the
high or low groups.

## 214 **3. Results**

215 Maximum temperatures detected by the thermocouples during fire ranged from 33 °C to 216 538 °C, with a mean of 259 °C. These maximum temperatures were correlated with both 217 length of time 50 °C was exceeded (Spearman rho = 0.89, p < 0.001) and the maximum 218 temperatures detected by the pyrometers (Spearman rho = 0.75, p = 0.002). Of the 219 vegetation attributes tested, dwarf shrub cover was the best predictor of maximum fire 220 temperature ( $R^2 = 0.46$ , p = 0.008). The relationship between maximum temperature and S. 221 capillifolium cell damage indicated by trypan blue staining (Figure 2) was significantly 222 positive for samples collected in June, 10 weeks after burning (t = 4.67, p < 0.001), though 223 marginally less positive (t = -2.08, p = 0.059) for samples collected in September, 21 weeks 224 after burning (Table 1). The proportion of cell damage recorded in June ranged from 2-100% 225 and was lowest (2-38 %) for temperatures under 100 °C and consistently high (93-100 %) for 226 temperatures over 400 °C. There was no significant relationship between maximum 227 temperature and S. capillifolium height change and water content, nor peat bulk density and 228 water content (Table 1).

229 When high and low temperature groups were compared to the control group, S.

230 *capillifolium* cell damage was found to be greater in the high temperature group than the

control group, with no significant effect of month or interaction between month and

temperature group (Table 2, Figure 3). Damage in the control group was consistently low in

both June and September, with mean values of 13 % and 9 % respectively, and a relatively

small range (Figure 3). The mean proportion of damage was intermediate in the low

temperature group (25 % June, 37 % September) and greatest in the high temperature

group (74 % June, 55 % September), which also had the greatest range in values. S.

237 *capillifolium* water content did not differ significantly between temperature groups but was

higher in April and September than in June. *S. capillifolium* height change was more positive

in the control group than the high and low temperature groups, and showed no significant

effect of month or interactive effects (Table 2, Figure 3). Peat bulk density was greater in the

- high temperature group than in the control group, and greater in June than in September,
- while peat water content was greater in the control group than in the high and low
- temperature groups, and greater in September than in June (Table 2).
- 244 In the laboratory experiments, exposure to higher temperatures was associated with a
- 245 greater amount of cell damage in all five *Sphagnum* species tested. The slope of this
- relationship did not differ significantly between species (Table 3, Figure 4). The amount of
- 247 cell damage did not differ between wet and dry treatments for any species. In the second
- survey of *S. capillifolium* (11 days after heating) there was a greater proportion of cell
- 249 damage overall, but the slope of the relationship between temperature and cell damage did250 not differ between the two time points (Table 4).

#### 251 **4. Discussion**

252 The range of fire temperatures recorded was similar to those reported by Hamilton (2000) 253 and Davies (2005), but lower than those reported by Whittaker (1961) and Kenworthy 254 (1963). These differences are likely to reflect differences in fuel structure and moisture 255 between study sites, with Hobbs et al. (1984) suggesting that fuel moisture content is 256 particularly important in determining ground surface temperatures. The cold, wet climate at 257 Moor House (Holden & Rose 2011) means that vegetation regrowth between burns is slow, 258 so the Hard Hill plots are likely to have a relatively low fuel load. The burn plots are also 259 relatively small compared to burn patches measured on grouse moors (Yallop et al. 2006), 260 potentially resulting in lower than typical fire temperatures (Tucker 2003). Dwarf shrub 261 cover was the main driver of fire temperature, as would be expected due to the greater 262 quantity of woody fuel in dwarf shrub dominated plots. The use of burning as a restoration 263 tool on peatlands to reduce dwarf shrub dominance has been suggested (Uplands 264 Management Group 2017), but our results suggest that caution is necessary with this 265 approach because burning on sites with high dwarf shrub cover is likely to result in high fire 266 temperatures with a potentially greater risk of damage to the moss layer and underlying 267 peat.

The significant relationship between temperature exposure and cell damage indicates that a negative impact on *Sphagnum* can occur even when it is not visibly consumed or burned during fire. Damage to *Sphagnum* cells is likely to result in reduced photosynthetic capacity (Grau-Andrés et al. 2017) and growth for the duration of the recovery period. This could potentially result in a decreased rate of carbon uptake after fire, while decomposition of
damaged tissue could lead to increased losses of carbon via respiration. Taylor et al. (2017)
and Grau-Andrés et al. (2017) showed that *Sphagnum* recovery is often possible following
fire, though in some cases the damaged capitula themselves do not recover and are
replaced by new side shoots.

277 The extent of short term damage and subsequent consequences, as well as timescales for 278 recovery is likely to depend on amount of damage sustained. For example, plants which 279 were exposed to temperatures over 400 °C and which showed near-complete cell damage 280 in our samples, may be less able to regenerate from the upper stem tissue. However, it is 281 not clear whether samples exposed to lower temperatures, many of which showed 20-50 % 282 damage, would be able to regenerate more easily. Past work on the Hard Hill experiment 283 has found less abundant Sphagnum in long-rotation plots than in short-rotation plots (Lee et 284 al. 2013; Milligan et al. 2018). Our data showed that long-rotation plots had higher mean 285 pre-fire dwarf shrub cover (69 %) than short-rotation plots (38 %) and also experienced 286 higher mean burn temperatures (332 °C compared to 104 °C) and Sphagnum damage (57 % 287 compared to 36 %). This could indicate that lower Sphagnum abundance in the long-288 rotation plots is related to greater Sphagnum cell damage, though it is difficult to separate 289 potentially confounding effects such as fire-induced changes to peat physical properties. 290 Further work could help to establish thresholds beyond which an ecologically significant 291 impact on *Sphagnum* recovery occurs.

292 Sphaqnum cell damage was the only variable which had a significant relationship with 293 maximum temperature, suggesting that this metric is a relatively sensitive indicator of fire 294 impacts. Several other Sphagnum and peat related variables differed between the burned 295 and control groups. However, it is not possible to fully attribute these differences to the 296 most recent burn, as the burn plots have been subject to repeated burning since in 1954, 297 while the control points have remained unburned for over 90 years. The greater peat bulk 298 density and lower peat water content in the burn plots may therefore be a legacy of 299 previous burns, with similar impacts on peat properties observed several years after burning 300 in past work (Holden et al. 2014; Holden et al. 2015).

301 *Sphagnum* water content, peat water content and peat bulk density all showed changes
 302 over the course of the study, which is likely to be due to seasonal variation in the water

303 table driven by rainfall and evaporative water losses. Seasonal changes in wetness can cause 304 increases in peat volume and water storage capacity, leading to surface elevation changes 305 known as mire breathing (Price & Schlotzhauer 1999; Howie & Hebda 2018). The fact that 306 bulk density was highest and peat and *Sphagnum* water content were lowest in June, 307 following a period of warm and dry weather, supports this explanation. It should be noted 308 that the moisture content of *Sphagnum* capitula can vary over short timescales due to 309 overnight dewfall, precipitation events and daytime evaporation, which is a potential source 310 of error associated with this method.

311 Sphagnum height generally increased during the study in the unburned control group, 312 suggesting growth during the summer half year, but decreased at many of the burn plot 313 measurement points. This decrease could be due to shrinkage of the *Sphagnum* layer due to 314 moisture loss, structural collapse or decomposition, or alternatively surface height changes 315 in the underlying peat for similar reasons. Overall, it was difficult to separate the effects of 316 Sphaqnum growth, height loss and peat surface change using the cranked wire method in 317 this context. Of the methods we used to measure fire impacts, cell damage quantification 318 using trypan blue staining was the most closely associated with maximum temperatures and 319 proved to be a useful method to provide a snapshot of *Sphagnum* damage.

320 Of the two temperature recording methods used, thermocouples provided the most 321 detailed and accurate information on fire temperature, but readings from the pyrometers 322 were well correlated with those from the thermocouples. This shows that pyrometers can 323 provide a valuable means of ensuring backup maximum temperature measurements (as was 324 the case here where two dataloggers failed) and/or greater spatial coverage more cost 325 effectively. Additionally, the strong correlation between maximum temperatures and time 326 exceeding 50 °C indicates that these values may serve as useful proxies for each other in 327 peatland prescribed burns.

328 Cell damage observed in the laboratory experiments followed a similar pattern to the field 329 study. This supports the conclusion that fire temperature is a key driver of *Sphagnum* 330 damage, regardless of potentially confounding factors such as the cover of vascular plants in 331 the field. The proportion of cells damaged by heating in the laboratory was generally lower 332 than at similar temperatures in the field, probably due to shorter exposure times. Re-testing 333 of *S. capillifolium* samples eleven days after temperature exposure revealed a greater level 334 of overall damage, probably due to sub-optimal survival conditions in the laboratory. 335 However, the slope of the relationship between temperature and cell damage did not differ, 336 indicating that temperature damage occurs immediately, or very soon after burning. 337 There were no significant differences in temperature damage slopes between species, 338 suggesting that the species tested here did not differ in their sensitivity to high 339 temperatures. However, it is possible that secondary impacts of fire such as changes to peat 340 physical and chemical properties (Brown et al. 2014; Holden et al. 2014; Brown et al. 2015) 341 impact species in different ways (Sagot & Rochefort 1996; Noble et al. 2017), causing 342 changes in relative abundance in the longer term. No significant difference in the proportion 343 of cell damage was observed between the wet and dry treatments for any species. 344 However, we only tested leaves from the top of capitulum branches, and it is possible that 345 heat damage penetrated further into the Sphagnum capitula of dry samples due to lower 346 heat capacity. Future work investigating cell damage in different areas of the plant could 347 indicate whether this is the case, and whether critical zones, such as the apical meristem, 348 are more at risk as a result.

## 349 **5.** Conclusion

350 Our results show that greater dwarf shrub cover prior to burning produces hotter fires 351 which are potentially more damaging to peatland ecosystems. Sphagnum samples had a 352 greater proportion of cell damage after exposure to higher temperatures in both the field 353 and the laboratory. The impact of cell damage on the subsequent growth, respiration and 354 recovery of Sphagnum is likely to relate to both the proportion of cells damaged and the 355 areas of the plant affected. The implications of these impacts for peatland ecosystem 356 services could include a reduced rate of carbon sequestration by *Sphagnum* following 357 burning, resulting in slower peat accumulation. If less damaged Sphagnum is able to recover 358 more quickly, cooler burns may have a less negative impact on *Sphagnum*. However, fire can 359 impact vegetation in various ways in addition to heat-induced cell damage, so more work is 360 needed to establish long-term effects of varying fire temperatures in situ.

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### 510 Tables

511 Table 1: Results from linear mixed models investigating the impact of maximum fire

512 temperatures from 14 burn plots with *Sphagnum* and peat related variables measured

513 during fieldwork in April and/or June and September. Intercept = reference temperature

514 and time point; max temp = effect of increasing maximum temperature at the reference

515 time point; June/September = effect of time point at reference temperature; max temp:

516 June/September = difference in the slope of maximum temperature relationship between

		Estimate	Std error	DF	t-value	<i>p</i> -value
S. capillifolium	Intercept	-2.070	0.651	12	-3.177	0.008
cell damage	Max temp	0.010	0.002	12	4.673	0.001
logit %	September	1.198	0.921	12	1.300	0.218
	Max temp: September	-0.006	0.003	12	-2.086	0.059
S. capillifolium	Intercept	1.404	0.393	24	3.578	0.002
water content	Max temp	-0.001	0.001	12	-0.546	0.595
logit %	June	-1.208	0.555	24	-2.177	0.040
	September	0.942	0.555	24	1.697	0.103
	Max temp: June	-0.001	0.002	24	-0.418	0.680
	Max temp: September	0.001	0.002	24	0.612	0.546
S. capillifolium	Intercept	0.139	0.149	12	0.930	0.371
Height change	Max temp	-0.001	< 0.001	12	-2.131	0.054
mm wk <sup>-1</sup>	September	-0.107	0.194	12	-0.550	0.592
	Max temp: September	0.001	0.001	12	1.028	0.324
Peat	Intercept	0.101	0.006	12	16.419	0.000
bulk density	Max temp	0.000	0.000	12	1.214	0.248
g cm <sup>-3</sup>	September	-0.012	0.007	12	-1.726	0.110
	Max temp: September	0.000	0.000	12	-1.277	0.226
Peat	Intercept	1.758	0.039	12	45.453	< 0.001
water content	Max temp	< 0.001	< 0.001	12	-1.694	0.116
logit %	September	0.308	0.046	12	6.652	< 0.001
	Max temp: September	< 0.001	< 0.001	12	0.574	0.576

517 reference and subsequent time points.

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Table 2: Results from linear mixed models investigating the impact of control, high and low
temperature groups with *Sphagnum* and peat related variables measured during fieldwork
in April (n=20) and/or June (n=20) and September (n=24). Intercept = reference temperature
group and time point; low/high temp = effect of different temperature group at reference
time point; June/September = effect of subsequent time points at reference temperature
group; low/high temp: June/Sep = interactions between the categorical variables.

		Estimate	Std error	DF	t-value	<i>p</i> -value
S. capillifolium	Intercept	-2.137	0.759	21	-2.814	0.010
cell damage	Low temp	0.873	0.933	21	0.935	0.360
logit %	High temp	3.707	0.933	21	3.972	0.001
	September	-0.360	0.867	17	-0.415	0.683
	Low temp: Sep	0.957	1.105	17	0.866	0.399
	High temp: Sep	-1.010	1.105	17	-0.914	0.374
S. capillifolium	Intercept	90.750	7.717	34	11.760	<0.001
water content	Low temp	-16.625	9.451	21	-1.759	0.093
logit %	High temp	-16.125	9.451	21	-1.706	0.103
	June	-22.250	10.913	34	-2.039	0.049
	September	-1.250	9.451	34	-0.132	0.896
	Low temp: June	-2.500	13.366	34	-0.187	0.853
	High temp: June	-9.375	13.366	34	-0.701	0.488
	Low temp: Sep	18.625	12.201	34	1.527	0.136
	High temp: Sep	17.000	12.201	34	1.393	0.173
S. capillifolium	Intercept	0.011	0.122	17	0.093	0.927
Height change	Low temp	-0.159	0.173	17	-0.922	0.370
mm wk⁻¹	High temp	0.466	0.211	17	2.204	0.042
	September	0.039	0.139	17	0.278	0.785
	Low temp: Sep	-0.191	0.197	17	-0.970	0.346
	High temp: Sep	0.034	0.241	17	0.141	0.889
Peat	Intercept	0.086	0.008	21	11.095	< 0.001
bulk density	Low temp	0.020	0.010	21	2.036	0.055
g cm <sup>-3</sup>	High temp	0.023	0.010	21	2.412	0.025
	September	-0.023	0.008	17	-2.945	0.009
	Low temp: Sep	0.006	0.010	17	0.576	0.572
	High temp: Sep	0.002	0.010	17	0.189	0.852
Peat	Intercept	2.014	0.100	21	20.195	< 0.001
water content	Low temp	-0.296	0.126	21	-2.347	0.029
logit %	High temp	-0.325	0.126	21	-2.577	0.018
	September	0.397	0.095	17	4.164	0.001
	Low temp: Sep	0.058	0.119	17	0.485	0.634
	High temp: Sep	0.055	0.119	17	0.460	0.651

- 530 Table 3: Results from linear model investigating impacts of temperature exposure (ambient
- 531 500 °C), moisture treatment (wet or dry) and *Sphagnum* species identity on proportion of
- 532 cell damage (logit transformed %).

	Estimate	Std error	t-value	p-value
(Intercept)	-3.330	0.547	-6.090	<0.001
Temperature	0.007	0.002	3.994	<0.001
Dry	0.697	0.773	0.902	0.369
S. papillosum	0.320	0.773	0.414	0.680
S. austinii	-0.513	0.773	-0.663	0.509
S. angustifolium	1.051	0.773	1.359	0.176
S. magellanicum	1.028	0.773	1.329	0.186
Temp: dry	-0.001	0.003	-0.339	0.735
Temp: <i>S. papillosum</i>	-0.002	0.003	-0.622	0.535
Temp: <i>S. austini</i>	0.000	0.003	0.134	0.894
Temp: S. angustifolium	0.002	0.003	0.858	0.393
Temp: S. magellanicum	0.000	0.003	-0.172	0.863
Dry: S. papillosum	0.550	1.094	0.503	0.616
Dry: <i>S. austinii</i>	1.218	1.094	1.114	0.267
Dry: S. angustifolium	0.549	1.094	0.502	0.617
Dry: S. magellanicum	-1.146	1.094	-1.048	0.296
Temp: dry: <i>S. papillosum</i>	-0.003	0.004	-0.877	0.382
Temp: dry: <i>S. austinii</i>	-0.003	0.004	-0.958	0.340
Temp: dry: S. angustifolium	-0.002	0.004	-0.632	0.528
Temp: dry: S. magellanicum	0.002	0.004	0.540	0.590

- 534 Table 4: Results from linear mixed model investigating impacts of temperature exposure
- 535 (ambient 500 °C), moisture treatment (wet or dry) and time (immediately after heating or
- 536 11 days later) on proportion of *S. capillifolium* cell damage (logit transformed %).

	Estimate	Std.Error	DF	t-value	p-value
(Intercept)	-3.010	0.583	26	-5.164	<0.001
Temperature	0.006	0.002	26	2.922	0.007
Dry	1.248	0.824	26	1.514	0.142
Time	0.717	0.824	26	0.870	0.392
Temp: dry	-0.004	0.003	26	-1.482	0.150
Temp: time	0.000	0.003	26	0.033	0.974
Dry: time	-0.620	1.166	26	-0.532	0.599
Temp: dry: time	0.001	0.004	26	0.315	0.756



540 Figure 1: Map of the of the Hard Hill experimental plots (N = no-burn since 1954, L = long

541 (20-year) rotation, S = short (10-year) rotation. Figure adapted from Noble et al (2018b)



542

- 543 Figure 2: Relationships between maximum temperature exposure and cell damage in
- 544 *Sphagnum capillifolium* samples taken from 14 experimental burn plots, 10 (June) and 21
- 545 (September) weeks after burning.



548 Figure 3: Boxplots showing comparisons between no fire, low temperature and high

549 temperature groups for a) proportion of damaged *Sphagnum capillifolium* cells, b) *S*.

550 capillifolium mean weekly height change and c) S. capillifolium water content as a

percentage of wet weight. Measurement times were immediately (April), 10 (June) and 21

- 552 (September) weeks after fire.
- 553



Figure 4: Proportion of damaged cells in wet and dry *Sphagnum* samples in the control (ctrl)
group, or exposed to 125, 250, 375 or 500 °C for 5 seconds by heating with a Meker burner
flame in the laboratory. Damage was measured within 24 hours of temperature exposure,
except in b) where damage was measured 11 days after temperature exposure.