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1 **Fire frequency and area burned in the Roraima savannas**
2 **of Brazilian Amazonia**

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1 **Abstract**

2
3 Estimates were made of the percentage of area burned and the fire frequency
4 in different ecosystems of non-anthropogenic savannas located in the north and northeast
5 portions of the State of Roraima, Brazil. Three years of observations (June 1997 to
6 May 2000) indicated that the mean percentage of area burned annually, weighted for
7 all ecosystems, was 38 ± 12 (SD) %. The mean frequency of fire (number of years
8 for an area to burn again) was 2.5 years. Both parameters are dependent on the
9 type (structure) of vegetation, the altitude of the savanna and the climatic state (dry,
10 wet or normal) of the year of the observation. Using values for two-month periods
11 over the three year time series (n=18), a simple regression model to forecast
12 percentage area burned was developed for Sg savannas (grassy-woody savanna;
13 "clean field" and "dirty field" types), using as the independent variable the daily mean
14 precipitation. The proposed model explains 66% of the reported cases. These results
15 are the first developed for savannas in the Amazon region and are directly applicable
16 to calculations of greenhouse-gas emissions from burning in this ecosystem type.

17
18 *Keywords:* Amazonia; Burned area; Fire frequency; Roraima; Savannas

21 **1. Introduction**

22
23 Amazonia plays an important role in the maintenance of the world carbon
24 balance (Fearnside, 1997; Houghton et al., 2001; Nascimento and Laurance, 2002).
25 Amazonia's carbon storage potential gives great importance to land-use changes in
26 this region because disturbances of the natural landscape can increase atmospheric
27 carbon and affect global biogeochemical cycles (Seiler and Crutzen, 1980; Houghton
28 et al., 1983; Greenberg et al., 1984; Crutzen and Andreae, 1990; Houghton, 1990;
29 Setzer and Pereira, 1991; Fearnside, 1996). Biomass burning produces significant
30 amounts of trace gases, such as methane (CH₄) and nitrous oxide (N₂O), which
31 contribute to global warming and other global atmospheric changes. Net emissions
32 of carbon dioxide (CO₂) can also be affected.

33
34 Forest ecosystems receive the attention of most of the scientific studies
35 conducted in Amazonia because forests represent the largest landscape in the
36 region. However, Amazonian savannas represent a significant portion of the area of
37 terrestrial systems, and, in the same way as the forests, savannas are rapidly being
38 converted for agriculture and ranching and is exposed to recurrent burning in
39 thousands of km² of the remaining original (non-anthropogenic) ecosystems. This
40 transforms the savanna ecosystems into an important terrestrial source of
41 greenhouse gases (Seiler and Crutzen, 1980; Ward et al., 1992; McNaughton et al.,
42 1998; Hoffa et al., 1999).

43
44 Of the studies that have been done on a large scale in Brazil on emission of
45 gases by savannas, most are limited to evaluations of the savannas of the country's
46 center-west region, close to the area known as the "Arc of Deforestation" (Barbosa,
47 2001). Of these, only two studies (Schroeder and Winjum, 1995; Fearnside, 1997)
48 attempted to estimate the potential emission of this Brazilian ecosystem despite the
49 high uncertainty or outright lack of values for some of the parameters needed for the

1 calculations, such as the extent of the area burned annually and the frequency of the
2 passage of the fire. These two factors are important in calculations of the storage
3 and release of carbon in savanna areas (IPCC/OECD, 1994).

4
5 Acceleration of burning frequency can result in depletion of carbon and
6 nitrogen stocks in the soil, eventually leading to reduced grass productivity
7 (Kauffman et al., 1994; Scholes and Walker, 1993 cited by Sampson et al., 2000, p.
8 207). Burn frequency has increased in the cerrado areas of Brazil's center-west
9 region as a result of more intense management of these ecosystems for cattle
10 grazing (Coutinho, 1990, pp. 87-88). Climatic changes such as increased frequency
11 of El Niño events, leading to dry years in Amazonia, could contribute to future
12 increases in burning frequency.

13
14 Due to the almost complete lack of studies on this subject, most calculations
15 of greenhouse-gas emissions use unreferenced values (probably guesses) for fire
16 frequency (e.g., Hao et al., 1990), or site a source that leads to one of these
17 unreferenced values. The values put forward by Hao et al. (1990), for example, are
18 used in subsequent estimates (e.g., Scholes and Andreae, 2000) and as IPCC
19 default values (IPCC, 1996, p. 4.64). Remote sensing is used to overcome the
20 inherent deficiencies in this type of calculation. However, the interpretation difficulties
21 associated with this method are also large because burn scars in savannas are
22 visible for only a short period (in contrast to burning associated with deforestation),
23 hindering measurement through remote sensing. It is possible to count the number
24 of fires ("hot pixels"), but not to estimate the size of the burned area without an
25 excessive amount of error (Kaufman et al., 1990; Robinson, 1991). Progress has
26 been made in perfecting sampling methods using the AVHRR sensor with
27 verification of the precision through LANDSAT-TM and/or SPOT images for
28 determining burned areas in central-African savannas (Barbosa et al., 1998; Barbosa
29 et al., 1999a; 1999b; Pereira et al., 1999) and in Brazilian cerrados (Brazil, MCT,
30 2002 citing Krug et al., 2001; see also Krug and dos Santos, 2001). However,
31 especially in the case of the studies used in Brazil's preliminary inventory of
32 greenhouse gases (Brazil, MCT, 2002), the number of LANDSAT images associated
33 with the "hot spot" (fire pixel) data from the AVHRR sensor was insufficient to
34 estimate area and frequency of burning in the non-anthropogenic Brazilian cerrados
35 without an excessive amount of uncertainty. An estimate for a small area of cerrado
36 has recently been done using LANDSAT imagery by itself, but without a means of
37 extending the estimate to the cerrado area as a whole (Krug et al., 2004).

38
39 The present study has the objective of estimating the percentage of burned
40 area and the frequency of burning in non-anthropogenic Amazonian savannas through
41 on-the-ground sampling using the primary and secondary highways that cut through
42 the largest block of continuous savannas of the Brazilian Amazon, located in the
43 State of Roraima. The study covered "original" ecosystems (non-anthropogenic
44 remnants), "anthropogenic" ecosystems (agriculture and ranching) and "other
45 ecosystems" that are intermingled with the local savannas (e.g., forest islands).

46 47 **2. Study area**

48
49 The study area is located in the north-northeast area of the State of Roraima,

1 in the northernmost portion of the Brazilian Amazon – approximately between 2° 30'
 2 N and 5° 0' N and 59° 30' W and 61° 30' W (Figure 1). This landscape is an
 3 enormous mosaic of savanna ecosystems that are a part of the "Rio Branco-
 4 Rupununi Complex", which covers parts of Brazil and Guyana (Eden, 1970;
 5 Sarmiento and Monasterio, 1975). Its components range from low-altitude
 6 grasslands (< 100 m) to arborous types at higher altitudes (> 1000 m). It is the
 7 largest continuous block of savannas in the Amazonian Biome ($\pm 40,000 \text{ km}^2$). The
 8 climate of this area is Awi under the Köppen Classification (Lameira and Coimbra,
 9 1988), with 1100-1700 mm of annual precipitation and 100-130 days with rain per
 10 year (Barbosa, 1997). The driest months are between December and March ($\pm 10\%$
 11 of the annual precipitation) and the peak of the rainy season is between May and
 12 August ($\pm 60\%$ of the annual precipitation). The relief that supports this landscape
 13 increases in altitude as one moves from the center-south to the north-northeast,
 14 beginning at approximately 80-100 m in the area of the Boa Vista Formation,
 15 increasing in the Surumu Formation and remaining in the 250-900-m range as one
 16 approaches the high-altitude (> 1000 m) areas of the Roraima Group (Brazil, Projeto
 17 RADAMBRASIL, 1975).

18
 19 [* * * Figure 1 here ****]
 20

21 **3. Ecosystems studied**

22
 23 Characterization of the ecosystems in this study followed the Brazilian
 24 vegetation classification system (Brazil, IBGE, 1992), together with the definition
 25 adopted for Central Brazilian savannas (Coutinho, 1978; Ribeiro and Walter, 1998).
 26 This characterization is important because the dynamics of fire in each ecosystem is
 27 different, provoking unequal effects in the area burned and in the fire frequency. The
 28 ecosystems (original and transformed) investigated in the present study are
 29 presented in Table 1.

30
 31 [* * * Table 1 here ***]
 32

33 **4. Sampling methodology**

34 *4.1. Sampling Transect*

35
 36
 37 The total area burned annually and the frequency of burning of each
 38 ecosystem were represented through periodic observations along a triangular
 39 sampling transect covering a linear distance of 540.1 km. The transect cuts through
 40 all of the vegetation types defined above (see Figure 1). Nine points formed the
 41 basis for alignment of the transect: Point 0 (initial) - close to the city of Boa Vista in
 42 the Rio Branco valley (2° 47' 39" N; 60° 39' 59" W), Point 1 – in the Tacutu-1 River
 43 valley (3° 18' 40" N; 59° 56' 50" W), Point 2 - in the Tacutu-2 River valley (3° 48' 4" N;
 44 59° 44' 14" W), Point 3 - Raposa/Serra do Sol Indigenous Land (4° 10' 42" N; 60° 31'
 45 36" W), Point 4 – in the Cotingo River valley (4° 24' 13" N; 60° 20' 57" W), Point 5 –
 46 in the Surumu River valley (4° 11' 38" N; 60° 47' 31" W), Point 6 - São Marcos
 47 Indigenous Land (4° 13' 51" N; 61° 0' 56" W), Point 7 – in the Uraricoera River valley
 48 (3° 27' 49" N; 60° 54' 39" W) and Point 8 (endpoint) - city of Boa Vista in the Cauamé
 49 River valley (2° 52' 9" N; 60° 41' 50" W).

1
2 In the first passage along the transect (June-July 1997: rainy season and
3 without burning) we determined and recorded the limits of each ecosystem (original
4 and transformed) based on the number of kilometers traveled by the vehicle used
5 during the whole study. The structural variations among the original systems studied
6 were defined based on the crown cover of the arboreal individuals (Table 1).
7 Because it would be impractical to measure each individual along the 540.1-km
8 transect, we classified the savannas based on our personal experience in visual
9 observation of the general aspect of these vegetation types. We considered the
10 original savannas to be all of the landscapes where the visual appearance of the
11 cover was in accord with the definition of IPCC/OECD (1994), in other words, "... *with*
12 *continuous grass cover, occasionally interrupted by trees and bushes...*" under
13 different densities. Both "other" and "anthropic" ecosystems were identified within the
14 "savanna" and "steppe-like savanna" great groups, but burning in these areas was
15 not counted, as this has been the subject of a separate study (Barbosa and
16 Fearnside, 1999).

17
18 With the linear total (in km) corresponding to each ecosystem, it was possible
19 to infer the burned area (%) and the frequency of the fire for each ecosystem through
20 the quantification of the linear kilometers reached annually by the fire. This was
21 important to avoid the whole area of savannas being considered a block that suffers
22 the impacts of the fires equally, independent of the climatic type of the year (normal,
23 dry or humid), the vegetation type or the geographical location of the site.

24 25 4.2. System of measurement

26
27 The transect was driven by car every 60 days in the rainy season and monthly
28 in the dry season, during three years from June-July 1997 to April-May 2000, totaling
29 12,962.4 km of transect in 24 trips. On each trip a log was made of the initial and
30 final number of kilometers traveled and of the burned areas on each side of the
31 highway. Occasional fires in small areas along the edge of the highway were
32 discarded and the linear distances were only used where the landscape had suffered
33 burning over a long distance, independent of the observer being able to see the
34 entirety of the portion of the burn that extends away from the road. In this method we
35 assumed that each side of the highway had independent fire behavior, although
36 there is a probability of the fire moving across the highway because some burning
37 plant material is carried by the wind. At the end of each measurement we computed
38 an average for each vegetation type in each period.

39
40 With each passage along the transect we made a correction of the values
41 recorded for distance, using as a reference the first sampling done in the rainy period
42 (June-July1997). This was necessary in order to avoid distortions due to the tires of
43 the vehicle having different air pressure and different amounts of wear on each trip
44 and because of the expansion of the tires due to the varying temperatures
45 (environmental and material) over the course of the sampling period. A test done
46 before the second sampling demonstrated that these factors could influence the
47 measurement by up to 3 km over the course of the transect. To lessen this effect,
48 verification points were established to allow calibrating the measures obtained on
49 each trip. The number of kilometers traveled was recorded in units of 0.1 km.

4.3. Treatment of the data

To obtain an overall average of burned area and of fire frequency for the three years of observation, as recommended by the IPCC (1997), we used a weighting system based on the individual average for each year, considered the proportion of years classified as dry, humid and normal. This took advantage of our observations in years classed as “El Niño” (1997/1998), “La Niña” (1998/1999) and “normal” (1999/2000). We used measurements of annual precipitation between 1966 and 1999 at the Meteorological Station of Boa Vista to determine how many years were below one standard deviation of the mean (dry years), above one standard deviation (humid years) or within one standard deviation (normal years). We estimated that the distribution of these climatic characteristics for the current period would be 18.2% for years considered to be dry, 21.2% for humid years and 60.6% for normal years. These values represent approximately the proportions of a normal distribution for data collected systematically (Zar, 1974, pp. 73-76).

All of the data were grouped into two-month periods representing climatically similar intervals: June-July (peak of the rainy season), August-September (end of the rainy season), October-November (between seasons), December-January (beginning of the dry season), February-March (peak of the dry season) and April-May (beginning of the rainy season). This set of two-month periods totaled 18 (n) values distributed over the three years of data collection. Graphs of the dynamics were plotted for the burning (% area burned), and the fire frequency was calculated in each of the ecosystems starting from the overlapping of values over the sample period. Finally, a simple regression model was derived to estimate the percentage (%) of burned area in the Sg (clean field + dirty field) ecosystem, based on precipitation data obtained from the Meteorological Station of Boa Vista.

5. Results

5.1. Burned area

The weighted mean percentage of area burned annually for all the original ecosystems of “savanna” and “steppe-like savanna” studied in Roraima was 38 ± 12 (SD)% (Table 2). The absolute values pointed to an accentuated variation in the 1997/1998 (dry) biennium (53%), in comparison with 1998/1999 (wet) (30%) and 1999/2000 (normal) (36%). The steppe-like savanna ecosystems (high altitude) had the highest mean area burned annually ($46 \pm 21\%$), followed by the low- and mid-altitude savannas ($35 \pm 9\%$). Individually, the vegetation types with the lowest densities of trees (grassy-woody) of the steppe-like areas had the largest values for burned area: Tg–clean field ($85 \pm 6\%$) and Tg–dirty field ($57 \pm 14\%$). The vegetation type with the smallest individual value was the type with the highest crown cover of trees in the areas with low and middle altitudes: Sa ($27 \pm 17\%$).

[* * * * TABLE 2 here*****]

Of the total area burned annually, 90.9% occurred between October and March (October-November = 23.3%; December-January = 39.1%; February-March =

1 28.6%). The remainder occurred in August-September (7.1%) and April-May (2.1%),
 2 with June-July having no incidences of burning (Table 3; Figure 2).

3
 4 [* * * * TABLE 3 here****]

5
 6 [* * * FIGURE 2 here ****]

7 8 5.2. Frequency of burning

9
 10 The individual values for each biennium indicated that almost all of the
 11 locations were only reached by fire once (1997/1998=99.6%; 1998/1999=99.6%;
 12 1999/2000=98.4%) in every sampled year (Table 4). The recurrence of fires within a
 13 given year was 0.4% (1997/1998), 0.4% (1998/1999) and 1.6% (1999/2000). Of the
 14 total area (weighted average) burned in the three sampled years, 56% burned only
 15 once. The remainder was distributed among the areas that burned two (34.3%),
 16 three (9.1%) or four (0.6%) times. This means that the average interval between
 17 one-time fire events was 1.8 years; the interval between occurrences of two burns in
 18 succession was 2.9 years, while three-burn sequences occurred once every 11
 19 years and four-burn sequences once every 159 years. These values imply that the
 20 mean time of recurrence of fires in a given area for all the original ecosystems
 21 studied was 2.5 years (30 months).

22
 23 [****TABLE 4 here ****]

24
 25 On average, 70-80% of the areas burned in one year are not affected by new
 26 fires the following year (Table 5). Only 20-30% of the burned areas repeat the same
 27 place as the previous year.

28
 29 [****TABLE 5 here ****]

30 31 5.3. Burned area \times precipitation (regression model)

32
 33 Precipitation data from Boa Vista (1997 to 2000) have a strong association
 34 with the percentage of area burned in the Sg ecosystem (clean field + dirty field),
 35 which includes the area surrounding that city (Figure 3). A regression model using
 36 data from two-month periods explains 66.2% of the variance in percentage area
 37 burned based on the average daily rainfall (mm/day) in the same two-month period
 38 (Figure 4):

$$39$$

$$40 \quad Y = 11.801 - 4.254 \ln(X)$$

$$41$$

42
 43 Where Y = percentage (%) of burned area in the two-month period and, X =
 44 daily mean precipitation for the same period (mm.day⁻¹)

45
 46 [* * * * Figure 3 here ****]

47
 48 [* * * * Figure 4 here ****]

49

6. Discussion

6.1. Burned area

The weighted average of 38% (27-85%) for total percentage area burned annually determined in this study for Amazon savannas in Roraima is similar to the 40% value used by Seiler and Crutzen (1980) for savannas worldwide based on the work of Deschler (1974) for African savanna between 5° N and 12° N and of Fearnside (1978) for Amazonian pastures. However, the value is much lower than the 75% suggested by Menaut and Cesar (1982) and used by Hao et al. (1990) and Hall and Rosillo-Calle (1990) as the average for the African savannas. Later this number was revised to 50% in Hao and Ward (1993) and Hao and Liu (1994) and used as the overall average by different authors in the early 1990s for calculating emissions of gases from biomass burning in savannas in the tropics as a whole. Although data of Lavenu (1982, 1984), cited by Menaut et al. (1991), reported more conservative estimates (25-49%) in studies using LANDSAT imagery of the Sahelian Zone of the Ivory Coast, the 75% value was still used in some studies. Our study also found some high values for low-biomass ecosystems (e.g., 85% for Tg-clean field). This serves to reinforce the need to associate the results of burned area with the respective vegetation types in order to avoid misunderstandings arising from use of a single value for all savanna ecosystems.

The first attempts to distribute the estimates among different types of ecosystems were made by Delmas et al. (1991) and Menaut et al. (1991) in spatial analyses of the total biomass burned in savannas in Africa (10-70%). Scholes (1995), in an evaluation of greenhouse-gas emissions in southern Africa, also distributed his evaluation among vegetation types, ranging from semi-desert ($\pm 0.1\%$) to humid ecosystems ($\pm 53\%$). Recent studies by Barbosa et al. (1999a,b) and Pereira et al. (1999) used the AVHRR sensor in central-African savannas to estimate annual averages for different phytogeographical zones of 19-36% (1981-1991), 3-70% (1985-1987 and 1990-1991) and 61% (1996) (P. M. Barbosa and J. M. Pereira, personal communication, 2000). All of these values represent scenarios and assumptions that are still little studied and that contain large uncertainties due to the scales and the spatial resolutions used. The results for annual means determined for the savannas of northeast Roraima are of a magnitude similar to the overall average of the results of the African studies mentioned above.

In Brazil, no on-the-ground studies exist that determine the percentage area burned in open ecosystems. Kauffman et al. (1994) reported an annual estimate of 50% for Central Brazilian savannas, but the calculation source is not indicated. IPCC (1997, p. 4.25) uses the same value as the "default" in spreadsheets for emission calculations for the whole of Tropical America, citing Hao et al. (1990). The preliminary Brazilian national inventory estimates emissions of gases from burning in non-anthropogenic savannas by using LANDSAT-TM imagery associated with information on "hot pixels" detected by AVHRR (Brazil, MCT, 2002). The MCT study concluded that, of the total area burned in savannas throughout Brazil in 1999, 8.3% was in clean and dirty field (Sg) types, 14.8% was savanna parkland (Sp), 66.4% arborous savanna (Sa) and 10.5% was "cerradões" (Sd). This last type is counted as forest, rather than savanna, in the reports on land-use change in forest ecosystems (see

1 Brazil, INPE, 2002). This distribution of burned area done by MCT (Brazil, MCT,
2 2002) uses the studies by Krug et al. (2001), considering the concentration of “hot
3 pixels” in the different ecosystems. However, this method does not address the
4 question of whether the concentration of “hot pixels” is really a function of the area
5 burned, of the size of the ecosystem or of the persistence of the hot pixels (their
6 persistence will be longer or shorter depending on the vegetation structure and the
7 amount of biomass present). Recently, Krug et al. (2004) drew inferences about the
8 area burned and the recurrence of fires in two LANDSAT scenes in the cerrado of
9 central Brazil using images from LANDSAT-5 TM and LANDSAT-7 ETM for the
10 1996-2000 period. One can calculate from the results of the study the total area
11 burned declined from 13.8-15.5% (1996) to 4.4-7.0% (2000). Although the study has
12 a reasonably complete sequence of scenes (20 scenes out of a possible 50 (40%)
13 for a sampling period of 160 days of draught), there are still time gaps that are
14 sufficient to mask any growth of the vegetation and hide the true spatial extent to the
15 burning.

16
17 Our data from Roraima indicate that the mean percentage of area burned in
18 two-month periods is directly related to (1) human presence, (2) spatial
19 heterogeneity of the biomass, and (3) fire behavior in response to climatic conditions
20 in the year of the observation. Lamotte and Bruson (1985 [1990]) cited by Menaut et
21 al. (1991), found that when savanna fires occur at the beginning of the dry season in
22 the Ivory Coast (December or earlier), they consume up to 12% of the total biomass
23 affected. At the peak of the dry season this value rises to 75% (January),
24 subsequently falling to 13% (February onwards) at the end of the burning season. If
25 one makes assumptions regarding affected biomass and burned area, the
26 distribution presented by Menaut et al. (1991) can be compared to the monthly
27 estimate for Roraima, where 90% of the burned area appeared in the peak months
28 of the dry season. This directly influences the total amount of biomass affected by
29 fire.

30 31 *6.2. Frequency of Burning*

32
33 The African studies indicate a period of 1-2 years for recurrence of fires in a
34 given area. The same value (1.5 years) is presented by Lacey et al. (1982) for
35 Australian savannas and by Eiten (1972) for central-Brazilian savannas. Coutinho
36 (1990) and Hoffmann (1998) re-estimated the value as 1-3 years for the Brazilian
37 savannas. Our field results (2.5 years) are higher than the above-mentioned
38 estimates (Table 6).

39
40 [***Table 6 here***]

41
42 The areas with the greatest recurrence of fire in the savannas of Roraima
43 were concentrated close to the headquarters of the cattle ranches and to indigenous
44 villages that the transect intersected. Multiple burns were associated with the
45 presence of humans. Fires that spread from (or occurred near) human settlements
46 had shorter recurrence periods. This result would be expected because fires are
47 typically anthropogenic. Burning in other areas along the transect, supposedly
48 without human interference, would result from fires started by humans located in any
49 part of the local savannas.

1
2 An important finding of our study is it that most (70-80%) of the areas burned
3 in one year do not burn in the following year. In other words, there is always a high
4 percentage of new area being burned in the following period. Similar to our finding in
5 Roraima, the studies by Krug et al. (2004) in central Brazil and by Barbosa et al.
6 (1999a) in central-African savannas found that, respectively, only 16-18% and 9% of
7 the areas burn regularly over time; the remainder of the burning is in new areas. This
8 result implies that the dynamics of fire in these areas lead to a variety of scenarios
9 for the amount of biomass and carbon exposed to burning over time and in different
10 areas. The amount of biomass present is not a fixed value from one year to the next.
11 The rates of biomass increment and carbon should be a function of the dynamics of
12 entrance and exit of material from the ecosystem due to the recurrence of the fires.
13

14 With regard to the number of fires occurring in a single year, our study found
15 that, of the total of area burned in a single year, almost all ($\pm 99\%$) burns only one
16 time. The complete recovery of the low vegetation, which is the principal fuel, is slow
17 and takes at least 4-5 months in years considered to be humid and 6-7 months in
18 years defined as normal. Before this interval of time elapses there is a reduced
19 chance of accumulation of enough biomass to sustain a fire with high intensity and
20 lingering duration. Cases of double burning in a single year are rare ($\pm 1\%$) and, in
21 general, are observed in places that burned at the end of the dry season of one year,
22 followed by a reburning at the end of the rainy season in the same year.
23

24 *6.3. Burned area \times precipitation (regression model)*

25

26 Figures 3 and 4 indicate that the burning patterns observed in 1997/1998,
27 1998/1999 and 1999/2000 are explained as a function of rainfall. These results
28 reinforce the importance of the distribution of the measures of burned area not only
29 for ecosystems, but also for the different climatic conditions at each study site, when
30 applied in calculations of emission of gases from savanna burning.
31

32 *6.4. Sampling errors*

33

34 In general, one might infer that the frequency of fires and the percentage of
35 burned area determined by the method used in the present study could be biased as
36 a measure for the area as a whole due to the proximity of highways to all of the fires
37 observed. This inference could come from the fact that the highways are the starting
38 points of development projects and ranches, which would change the density of the
39 vegetation along the highway and make it unrepresentative of the vegetation in the
40 rest of the savanna. However, the highway acts in the same way as any random
41 transect and would count both fires that started from the area of influence of the
42 highways and those that did not. We considered that, under this sampling
43 alternative, fires are virtually always started by humans (both indigenous and non-
44 indigenous), but that, once started, the spreading of the fire is independent of human
45 presence. Therefore, although the sampling error can be considered high, the mean
46 probably would tend to fall very close to the means that would be obtained by
47 randomized or systematic surveys. To test this, we made two overflights (80 and 45
48 linear km) in April and May 1998 to identify and correct for the error in the estimate of
49 the value of terrestrial area in Sg and Sp for the 1997/1998 biennium. The results of

1 the overflights indicated that the terrestrial transect was able to detect 65-70% of the
 2 burned areas (Barbosa, 2001). This result is approximately equal to the 70% value
 3 estimated by Barbosa et al. (1999) for central African savannas using remote
 4 sensing techniques.

6 7. Conclusions

8 (1) values for burned area and fire frequency in the savannas of Roraima are
 9 dependent of the vegetation types (structures) and the elevational position (the lower
 10 the density of trees and the greater the amount of grassy vegetation in high-altitude
 11 areas, the greater will be the percentage of burned area);

12
 13 (2) the amount of burned area is directly related to the climatic type of the year (dry,
 14 wet or normal), which can be inferred from precipitation parameters using simple
 15 regression models;

16
 17 (3) on average, $38 \pm 12\%$ of the area of all of the savannas present in Roraima burns
 18 annually – a value composed of areas that burn only once in the year ($\pm 99\%$) and
 19 those that burn more than once ($\pm 1\%$);

20
 21 (4) the average frequency of burns for the savannas of Roraima is 2.5 years;

22
 23 (5) most (70-80%) of the area burned in one year does not burn the following year,
 24 implying time differences in the approach to calculating biomass dynamics and in
 25 models that calculate the emission of greenhouse gases from savannas;

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FIGURE LEGENDS

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Figure 1—South America with the location of Roraima and of the savanna area.

Figure 2—Cumulative percentage area burned for “original” savanna ecosystems in Roraima in years of different climatic types.

Figure 3—Daily precipitation and area burned in two-month periods for Sg savannas (clean field + dirty field) in Roraima.

Figure 4—Observed versus calculated area burned.

Table 1 - Characterization of the ecosystems studied.

Macro System (1)	Ecosystem	Structural type	Crown Cover (%)	Tree stratum (Height)	Estimated Area (2) (km ²)	Transect length (km)
Savanna						
Sg	grassy-woody	clean field	0	Absent	7929	177.8
Sg	grassy-woody	dirty field	< 5	Minimal	5759	129.1
Sp	parkland	parkland cerrado	5-20	2-4 m	11350	133.2
Sa	arboreous	typical cerrado	20-50	3-6 m	547	12.5
Anthropic S	-	(3)	-	-	-	20.5
Others S	-	(4)	-	-	-	31.9
Steppe-like savanna						
Tg	grassy-woody	clean field	0	Absent	198	1.5
Tg	grassy-woody	dirty field	< 5	Minimal	343	2.5
Tp	parkland	parkland cerrado	5-20	2-4 m	5730	19.7
Ta	arboreous	typical cerrado	20-50	3-6 m	666	10.1
Anthropic T	-	(3)	-	-	-	0.5
Others T	-	(4)	-	-	-	0.9

(1) savanna = vegetation situated mainly at altitudes below 600 m, occupying a mosaic of Ultisol and Oxisol soils; Steppe-like savanna = vegetation situated mainly at altitudes above 600 m in a mosaic of litholic soils, including milky quartz.

(2) estimate based on phytoplanimetric maps (1:250,000) in Brazil, Projeto RADAMBRASIL, 1975.

(3) original vegetation modified by human activity without a reliable estimate of area.

(4) other original vegetation that does not fit in the general definition of savannas; included in this category are terrestrial ecosystems such as forest islands and gallery forests and aquatic ecosystems such as rivers and lakes.

Table 2 - Percentage of area burned in the different savanna ecosystems in Roraima from 1997 to 2000.

Ecosystem	Biennium (1) 1997/1998	Biennium (1) 1998/1999	Biennium (1) 1999/2000	Weighted (2) mean	Standard deviation
Sg (clean field)	45.6	28.2	35.6	36	9
Sg (dirty field)	44.9	31.2	36.4	37	7
Sp (parkland)	46.1	26.1	31.8	33	10
Sa (arboreous)	51.0	23.2	21.6	27	17
Sub-Total S	47	28	35	35	9
Tg (clean field)	75.9	84.5	87.9	85	6
Tg (dirty field)	77.3	51.9	53.4	57	14
Tp (parkland)	65.2	29.3	34.9	39	19
Ta (arboreous)	71.6	26.2	29.2	36	25
Sub-Total T	74	35	41	46	21
Overall mean	53	30	36	38	12

(1) A "Biennium" extends from 1 June in one year to 31 May in the next year.

(2) Weighted by the frequency of years that are dry (18.2%), wet (21.2%) and normal (60.6%) for the 1966-1999 period at the Estação Meteorológica de Boa Vista, Roraima (respectively for the biennia 1997/1998, 1998/1999, and 1999/2000).

Table 3 - Area (%) burned in two-month periods and distribution of the concentration of burning in the savannas of Roraima.

Two-month period	Biennium			Cumulative mean	Concentration of Burned area
	1997/1998	1998/1999	1999/2000		
June/July	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
August/September	8.4	1.2	1.5	2.7	7.1
October/November	30.3	7.5	7.1	11.4	23.3
December/January	45.2	17.7	23.3	26.1	39.1
February/March	50.5	28.9	35.5	36.8	28.6
April/May	52.5	29.8	35.8	37.6	2.1

Table 4 - Mean frequency of burning in savanna ecosystems in Roraima (June-July 1997 to April-May 2000).

Biennium	Frequency of burning (n)	Ecosystem (% of area)								Overall annual mean (%)	Distribution of burns (%)	Years needed for repetition of the event
		Sg CL	Sg CS	Sp	Sa	Tg CL	Tg CS	Tp	Ta			
1997-1998	0	31.3	31.7	36.7	49.0	24.1	22.7	34.8	28.4	31.3	-	-
	1	68.6	67.9	63.0	50.7	75.9	76.8	65.0	71.6	68.4	99.6	-
	2	0.1	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.0	0.5	0.2	0.0	0.3	0.4	-
1998/1999	0	71.8	68.8	73.9	76.8	15.5	48.1	70.7	73.8	70.2	-	-
	1	27.9	30.6	25.6	23.0	84.5	51.5	29.2	26.2	29.7	99.6	-
	2	0.3	0.6	0.5	0.2	0.0	0.3	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.4	-
1999/2000	0	64.4	63.6	68.2	78.4	12.1	46.6	65.1	70.8	64.2	-	-
	1	35.3	35.7	31.3	21.4	75.7	51.6	34.1	29.0	35.3	98.4	-
	2	0.3	0.7	0.6	0.2	12.3	1.8	0.8	0.2	0.6	1.6	-
Overall mean	0	60.0	58.9	63.7	72.7	15.0	42.6	60.8	63.8	59.5	-	-
	1	22.5	22.4	21.2	18.3	10.6	16.3	19.8	20.6	22.7	56.0	1.8
	2	14.2	14.3	11.8	7.1	24.3	26.8	14.2	12.4	13.9	34.3	2.9
	3	3.2	4.1	3.1	1.8	37.9	12.5	4.7	3.0	3.7	9.1	11.0
	4	0.1	0.3	0.2	0.1	12.1	1.7	0.6	0.2	0.3	0.6	158.7

(1) Frequency = mean weighted for the 3 years of observation.

(2) Distribution of the burns reflects the concentration (in %) of the area burned as a function of the frequency of burning.

(3) Repetition of the event = number of years needed to repeat the burning event at each frequency (1, 2, 3 or 4) observed in three consecutive years in a given area.

Table 5 - Frequency of coincidence of burning between sequential biennia.

Ecosystem	Frequency of Coincidence	1997/1998 with 1998/1999 (%)	1998/1999 with 1999/2000 (%)
Sg-CL	new areas burned	83.3	32.3
	1 burn in the period	16.5	67.2
	2 or more burns	0.2	0.5
Sg-CS	new areas burned	81.9	85.7
	1 burn in the period	17.5	14.1
	2 or more burns	0.6	0.2
Sp	new areas burned	84.4	88.5
	1 burn in the period	15.1	11.4
	2 or more burns	0.5	0.1
Sa	new areas burned	87.7	95.2
	1 burn in the period	12.3	4.8
	2 or more burns	0.1	0.0
Tg-CL	new areas burned	38.9	71.1
	1 burn in the period	50.0	26.7
	2 or more burns	11.1	2.2
Tg-CS	new areas burned	62.2	85.5
	1 burn in the period	35.1	14.1
	2 or more burns	2.7	0.5
Tp	new areas burned	60.4	80.6
	1 burn in the period	31.4	15.7
	2 or more burns	8.2	3.7
Ta	new areas burned	76.2	89.9
	1 burn in the period	23.5	10.1
	2 or more burns	0.3	0.0
Mean	new areas burned	81.7	71.7
	1 burn in the period	17.4	27.9
	2 or more burns	0.8	0.4

Table 6 - Burning frequencies in savannas

Vegetation type	Location	Frequency of burning (years)	Source	Derivation
EMISSIONS ESTIMATES				
All savannas	worldwide	2.5	Seiler and Crutzen, 1980, p. 226	Deschler, 1974; Fearnside, 1978
All savannas	worldwide	2.5± 1.5	Crutzen and Andreae, 1990, p. 1670	Menaut, 1991
Cerrado	Brazil (central)	1.5 ± 1.5	Hao et al., 1990	Eiten, 1972; Sarmiento and Monasterio, 1977
African savannas	Africa	1.33	Hao et al., 1990	Menaut and Cesar, 1982; Menaut, 1983; J.C.Menaut, personal communication to Hao et al., 1990.
SITE STUDIES				
Cerrado	Brazil (central)	2	Eiten, 1972	

Cerrado	Brazil (central)	1-3	Coutinho, 1990, pp. 87-88
Cerrado	Brazil (central)	3	Pivello and Coutinho, 1992
Roraima savanna (lavrado)	Brazil (northern)	2.5	This study







