

Available online at www.sciencedirect.com





Fire Safety Journal 43 (2008) 226-233

www.elsevier.com/locate/fires af

Experimental investigation of firebrands: Generation and ignition of fuel beds $\stackrel{\leftrightarrow}{\sim}$

Samuel L. Manzello^{*}, Thomas G. Cleary, John R. Shields, Alexander Maranghides, William Mell, Jiann C. Yang

Building and Fire Research Laboratory (BFRL), National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST), Gaithersburg, MD 20899-8662, USA

Received 20 April 2006; received in revised form 8 June 2006; accepted 12 June 2006 Available online 13 August 2007

Abstract

A series of real scale fire experiments were performed to determine the size and mass distribution of firebrands generated from Douglas Fir (*Pseudotsuga menziesii*) trees. The results of the real scale fire experiments were used to determine firebrand sizes to perform reduced scale ignition studies of fuel beds in contact with burning firebrands. The firebrand ignition apparatus allowed for the ignition and deposition of both single and multiple firebrands onto the target fuel bed. The moisture content of the fuel beds used was varied and the fuels considered were pine needle beds, shredded paper beds, and shredded hardwood mulch. Firebrands were constructed by machining wood (Douglas Fir) into small cylinders of uniform geometry and the size of the cylinders was varied. The firebrand ignition apparatus was installed into the Fire Emulator/Detector Evaluator (FE/DE) to investigate the influence of an air flow on the ignition propensity of fuel beds. Results of this study are presented and compared to relevant studies in the literature. Published by Elsevier Ltd.

Keywords: Firebrands; WUI fires; Ignition; Fuel beds

1. Introduction

Fires in the Wildland-Urban Interface (WUI) pose a significant threat to communities throughout the United States. Recent WUI fires include the 2003 Southern California Fires. Firebrands are produced as vegetation and structures burn in WUI fires. These firebrands are entrained in the atmosphere and may be carried by winds over long distances. Hot firebrands ultimately come to rest and may ignite fuel beds far removed from the fire, resulting in fire spread. Understanding how these hot firebrands can ignite surrounding fuel beds is an important consideration in mitigating fire spread in communities [1].

Unfortunately, ignition due to spotting is one of the most difficult aspects to understand in WUI fires [2]. Furthermore, the size distribution of firebrands produced

*Corresponding author. Tel.: +1 301 975 6891; fax: +1 301 975 4052. *E-mail address:* samuelm@nist.gov (S.L. Manzello).

0379-7112/\$ - see front matter Published by Elsevier Ltd. doi:10.1016/j.firesaf.2006.06.010

from burning vegetation and structures is relatively unknown. A major advance in WUI fire research would be the development of a model to predict: the generation of firebrands from burning vegetation and structures, their subsequent transport through the atmosphere, and the ultimate ignitability of materials due to their impact [2]. The transport of firebrands has been studied most extensively [3-11]. Some ignition theories have been published [12], but the lack of a detailed theory on the ability of firebrands to ignite remote objects limits the utility of detailed computational fluid dynamic models (CFD) that could be used to predict fire spread by firebrands [2]. Detailed experimental ignition studies of fuel beds typically found in the WUI due to firebrand impact are required to validate such models. Furthermore, as an input to firebrand transport models, experimental information with regard to firebrand size distributions generated from burning vegetation and/or structures is needed.

A very limited number of experimental studies have been performed to investigate the size distribution of firebrands

[☆]Official contribution of the National Institute of Standards and Technology, not subject to copyright in the United States of America.

produced from burning vegetation and structures. Waterman [13] burned full-scale segments of different roof assemblies and the firebrands produced were trapped by a screened chamber and fell into a quenching pool. The firebrands collected were generally disk shaped. Waterman [13] did not perform any experiments concerning firebrand generation from vegetation.

The ignition of fuel beds due to firebrand impact has been investigated in more detail (by no means exhaustive) as compared to firebrand generation and some laboratory studies are available in the open literature [2]. Investigations relevant to the present study are reviewed [2,14–16].

Waterman and Takata [14] investigated firebrand impact upon a variety of ignitable materials. The largest firebrands used in their ignition studies were $38 \text{ mm} \times 38 \text{ mm} \times 20 \text{ mm}$ in size (mass of 3 g). The wind speed and the nature of the applied wind were altered in these tests. A radiant flux was applied in conjunction with firebrand impact to ascertain material ignitability. Ignition probabilities were reported for the various materials considered. Ignitions were observed from 38 mm firebrand impact (unassisted—no radiant flux) for most of the building materials tested. Firebrands smaller than 38 mm were unable to ignite the building materials considered.

Dowling [15] performed experiments to investigate ignition of wood bridge members due to firebrand impact. In these studies, wood cribs were burned and the resulting firebrands were collected and deposited into a 10 mm gap between the wood bridge members (deck plank and gravel beam). The mass of the firebrands (7–35 g) generated was varied by altering the initial mass of the wood crib. It was observed that 7 g of firebrands were able to produce smoldering ignition of the wood members within the 10 mm gap. The state of the firebrands upon deposition into 10 mm gaps, i.e. glowing or flaming, was not specified.

Ellis [16] considered the ignition of pine needles due to eucalyptus firebrand impact. The size of the firebrands considered were $50 \text{ mm} \times 15 \text{ mm} \times 5 \text{ mm}$ (mass of 0.7-1.8 g). Both glowing and flaming firebrands were deposited upon the pine needles and the moisture content of the pine needles was varied. The air flow across the pine needles was adjusted. Ellis [16] reported that for flaming eucalyptus firebrands falling on pine needles (with no air flow), all of the pine needle targets ignited (flaming ignition) when the moisture content was less than 9%. When glowing eucalyptus firebrands were deposited onto pine needles, flaming ignitions were not observed when no air flow was applied. The probability of flaming ignition (from glowing firebrand impact) increased to 50% when the moisture content of the needles was reduced to less than 3% and an air flow of 1 m/s was applied.

The goal of this study is to investigate firebrand ignition of fuel beds found in the WUI. To this end, a series of real scale fire experiments were performed to determine the size and mass distribution of firebrands generated from Douglas Fir (*Pseudotsuga menziesii*) trees. The results of the real scale fire experiments were used to determine firebrand sizes to perform reduced scale ignition studies of fuel beds in contact with burning firebrands. The experimental results presented here were compared to relevant studies available in the literature.

2. Experimental description

2.1. Real scale Douglas Fir experiments

Douglas Fir (*P. menziesii*) was selected as the tree type for the experiments since it is abundant in the Western United States and it is here that WUI fires are most prevalent [5]. They are also readily available from tree farms in the United States. The size of the Douglas Fir trees used for the firebrand collection experiments were 5.2 m in height and 3 m wide (maximum girth dimension). The trees were size selected from a local nursery, cut, and delivered to the Large Fire Laboratory (LFL) at NIST. Subsequently, the trees were mounted on custom stands and the trees were allowed to dry. More than 30 days of drying time was required to reach moisture content levels used in this study. The justification for testing under this moisture content range is given below. During the experiments, no wind was imposed the trees.

The moisture content of the tree samples was measured using a Computrac¹ moisture meter. Needle samples as well as small branch samples (three heights, four radial locations at each height) were collected for the moisture measurements. The measurements were taken on bi-weekly basis. The moisture content, determined on a dry basis, is given as

Moisture content =
$$\frac{M_{\text{wet}} - M_{\text{dry}}}{M_{\text{dry}}} \times 100,$$
 (1)

where $M_{\rm wet}$ and $M_{\rm dry}$ are the mass of the tree samples before and after oven drying, respectively. At ignition, the tree moisture content was varied from 10% to 50%. The Computrac analyzer was used since many samples were taken from trees every other day to investigate the drying time and it provided a far quicker result of the moisture content, as compared to conventional oven drying. Since a selected moisture content window was desired for the trees, it was important to have data in a reasonable time frame. A calibration was performed of the device, based on oven drying the samples, determining the moisture content, and then comparing the moisture content to that obtained from the Computrac analyzer. The moisture content measured from the Computrac analyzer was observed to be within 2% of the oven dried value. Accordingly, the overall uncertainty in these measurements was estimated to be +10%. The uncertainty in the tree moisture content was dependent upon the spatial variability within the tree as well the uncertainty of the analyzer used.

¹Certain commercial equipment are identified to accurately describe the methods used; this in no way implies endorsement from NIST

A total of three Douglas Fir trees were burned to collect firebrands. The trees were ignited using a custom burner assembly specifically designed for these experiments. The burner surrounded the tree at its base and was fueled with natural gas. The total ignition time was 15 s. Both digital still photography and standard color video (standard 30 frames per second) were used to record the ignition and burning process of the Douglas Fir trees.

Fig. 1a displays a schematic of the firebrand collection pan assembly. An important issue during the experimental campaign was that the hood assembly $(9 \text{ m} \times 12 \text{ m})$ in the

а

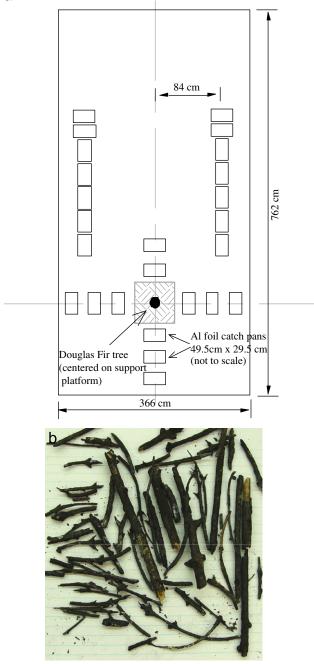


Fig. 1. (a) Schematic of firebrand collection pan assembly. (b) Photograph of firebrands collected.

LFL needed to be switched off to collect the firebrands. If the hood system was operated, the firebrands generated would be drawn into the hood; thus no firebrand collection was possible. This presented considerable safety challenges. A series of scoping experiments were performed using small trees (on the order of 1.8 m) in order to work up to the larger tree sizes. Based on these scoping experiments, the 5.2 m trees were the largest size tree that could safely burn in the LFL. When testing the 5.2 m trees, the entire $9 \text{ m} \times 12 \text{ m}$ hood was filled with flames during the testing.

A total of 26 rectangular pans (water filled) were used to collect firebrands. Each pan was 49.5 cm long by 29.5 cm wide. The arrangement of the pans was not random; rather it was based on scoping experiments to determine the locations where the firebrands would land. After the experiments were completed, the pans were collected and the firebrands were filtered from the water using a series of fine mesh filters. The firebrands were subsequently dried in an oven held at 104 °C. The mass of firebrands was recorded for each hour of drying time for up to 24 h; the firebrand mass was observed not to change after 8h of drying was completed. The firebrand sizes were then measured using precision calipers (1/100 mm resolution). Following size determination, the firebrands were then weighed using a precision balance (0.001 g resolution). For each tree burned, more than 70 firebrands were dried and measured. In all, more than 200 collected firebrands were sized and weighed. A sample of the firebrands produced are displayed in Fig. 1b.

2.2. Reduced scale firebrand ignition experiments

Fig. 2a is a schematic of the experimental apparatus used for the subsequent firebrand ignition studies. The firebrand ignition apparatus consists of four butane burners and a firebrand-mounting probe. The butane flow rate is controlled by a metering valve coupled to a solenoid valve. The firebrand, or in the case of multiple firebrand impact, firebrands, are held into position and the air pressure is activated, which moves the actuator and clamps the firebrand(s) into position. The retraction of the burner upon ignition and the free-burn time of the firebrands are computer controlled which ensures repeatability. Each butane burner was designed to be switched on or off, depending upon the number of firebrands needed for the particular experiment. Further details of the apparatus, including the Fire Emulator/Detector Evaluator (FE/DE), are described elsewhere [17].

Firebrands were constructed by machining wood into sections of uniform geometry. For the present study, firebrands were simulated as cylinders of two different sizes. The first size produced was 10 mm in diameter with a length of 76 mm. The second size used was 5 mm in diameter with a length of 51 mm (see Fig. 2b). These sizes were determined from the measured firebrand size distributions generated from the real scale Douglas Fir experiments (as discussed below). Naturally, Douglas

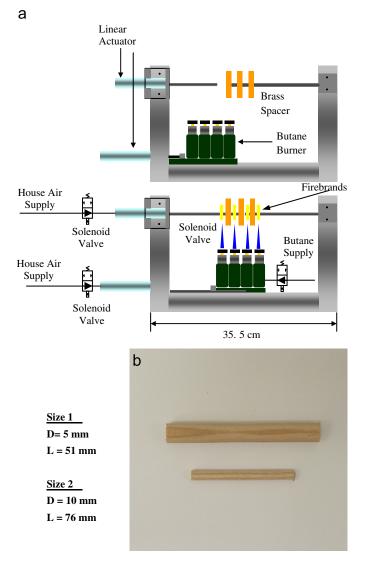


Fig. 2. (a) Schematic of the firebrand ignition and release apparatus. The schematic demonstrates the loading process for four firebrands. (b) Digital photograph displays the two sizes of simulated Douglas Fir firebrands.

Fir was selected as the wood type for the reduced scale firebrand ignition experiments. Prior to machining the cylinders, the Douglas Fir planks were stored in a conditioning room at 21 °C, 50% relative humidity. After the cylinders were machined, they were stored in the conditioning room prior to the experiments.

Three different materials were used as test fuel beds for the ignition studies: (1) pine needles, (2) shredded paper, and (3) shredded hardwood mulch. The impact of burning firebrands on pine needle beds was designed to simulate the showering of firebrands into gutters. Shredded paper beds were used to simulate firebrand impact upon materials within attic spaces. Shredded hardwood mulch beds were used to simulate the collection of firebrands on mulch located outside homes and structures. Such materials are believed to be prone to ignition in WUI fires [18]. The pine needles, shredded paper, and shredded hardwood mulch were contained in aluminum foil pans of 23 cm long by 23 cm wide by 5.1 cm deep. The initial mass was fixed for the fuel beds to ensure repeatability. The moisture content of these materials was varied from oven dry to 11%. The moisture content was determined by oven drying the samples. It was found that 3 h of oven drying at 104 °C was sufficient to remove all the moisture in the pine needle beds, shredded paper beds, and shredded hardwood mulch. The firebrand ignition process and release onto the target fuel beds was captured using a CCD camera coupled to a zoom lens.

Firebrands were ignited by exposing them in a vertical orientation, parallel to the burner flow field, for a fixed duration and allowed to free burn. When the firebrands were aligned horizontally, the burners were unable to ignite them completely; the flame would not engulf the entire firebrand. The firebrands were then released onto a load cell and the burning history of the firebrands was obtained from the gravimetric measurements. Three conditions were measured: (1) no air flow, (2) air flow of 0.5 m/s, and (3) air flow of 1.0 m/s. No air flow conditions were used presently to investigate the influence of an air flow on firebrand burning only. Under air flow conditions, the firebrands were ignited under low flow conditions and the air flow was ramped up as soon as the ignition process was over. The ignition time for 5 and 10 mm firebrands was 10 and 75 s, respectively. These ignition times were selected in order to completely engulf the firebrand in flame. Under no air flow conditions, the firebrand remained in a flaming state. When an air flow was introduced, the air flow blew off the envelope flame from the leading edge of the firebrand and gradually blew the flame off the back side of the firebrand. After the flame was blown off, a glowing firebrand resulted. A similar result was observed using Ponderosa Pine disks [17]. The ignition propensity of the pine needle beds, shredded paper beds, and shredded hardwood mulch beds was assessed based upon both glowing and flaming firebrand impact.

When the burning firebrands were deposited onto the fuel beds, experiments were performed only under conditions of an air flow (0.5 and 1.0 m/s), since it is not expected that the flow conditions would be quiescent as firebrands impact fuel beds during WUI fires. It is important to note that the ambient temperature inside the duct of the FE/DE was monitored and fixed at 21 °C for all experiments reported here. Ambient temperature conditions are known to influence ignition outcomes for fuel beds [19].

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Real scale Douglas Fir experiments

Prior investigations using Douglas Fir trees have focused on measuring heat release rates (HRR) as a function of moisture content [20–21]. These measurements were used to assess flammability of trees located close to homes and structures. It was reported that for Douglas Fir trees with moisture content (determined on a dry basis) greater than 70%, it was not possible to sustain burning after ignition. Within moisture content limits of 30–70%, a transition regime occurs where Douglas Fir trees will only partially burn after an ignition source is applied. Below 30% moisture content, Douglas Fir trees will be fully consumed after ignition [20,21].

Therefore, the firebrand collection experiments were performed in the following manner. Douglas Fir trees were ignited at a moisture content of 50% (within transition regime); three replicate experiments were performed. Similar to previous work, it was observed that the Douglas Fir trees would only partially burn. Furthermore, at the 50% moisture content level, firebrands were not produced. From these results, experiments were then performed using 5.2 m trees within the vigorous burning regime. Under these conditions, the Douglas Fir trees were observed to burn intensely; typically the entire tree was engulfed in flame within 20 s after ignition. In summary, Douglas Fir trees generated firebrands only if the moisture content was maintained below 30%, within the vigorous burning regime (no wind was applied) [20,21].

Fig. 1b displays a digital photograph of the firebrands collected from the Douglas Fir tree burns. For all experiments performed, the firebrands were cylindrical in shape. The average firebrand size measured (based on three replicate experiments) for the 5.2 m Douglas Fir trees (18% moisture content) was 4 mm in diameter with a length of 53 mm. The surface area distribution was calculated assuming cylindrical geometry and plotted versus the measured mass for the collected firebrands (see Fig. 3).

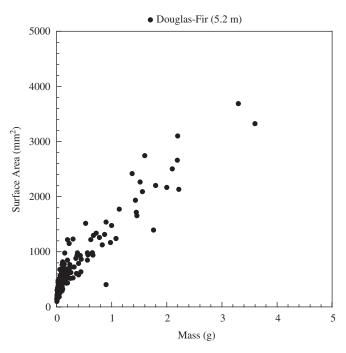


Fig. 3. Calculated surface area distribution plotted as a function of the measured firebrand mass.

The surface area of the firebrands scaled with firebrand weight.

3.2. Single-firebrand ignition results

Experiments were performed for single-firebrand impact (both flaming and glowing) to investigate whether it was possible to ignite fuel beds under such conditions. The ignition results obtained for single-glowing firebrand impact into pine needle beds are displayed in Table 1. Each result was based on identical, three repeat experiments. The mass of a single-glowing firebrand at the time of release into the fuel bed was 0.2 and 0.67 g for the 5 and 10 mm diameter firebrands, respectively. The acronym NI denotes no ignition.

For the firebrand sizes tested and the experimental combination tested, it was not possible to ignite pine needle beds from single-glowing firebrand impact. After the firebrand impacted the pine needle bed, one or two needles would smolder and the smolder front would not propagate further in the bed.

Table 1 displays results obtained for single-glowing firebrand impact into shredded paper beds. The acronym SI denotes smoldering ignition. Smoldering ignition was possible for single-glowing firebrand impact. Presently, smoldering ignition was defined when the smoldering front propagated outwards from the deposited firebrand into the bed.

Ignition events were not observed when single-glowing firebrands were deposited onto shredded hardwood mulch beds (see Table 1). Consequently, it was observed that single-glowing firebrands posed an ignition danger only to shredded paper beds.

Table 1 shows ignition results for single-flaming firebrand impact onto pine needle beds, shredded paper beds, and shredded hardwood mulch beds, respectively. To produce flaming firebrands, the firebrands were ignited and then allowed to free burn for 10 s prior to release into the samples. The mass of a single-flaming firebrand at release into the fuel bed was 0.4 and 1.5 g for the 5 and 10 mm firebrands, respectively. The acronym FI denotes flaming ignition. From these tables, under all conditions considered, it was possible to produce flaming ignition from single-firebrand impact when the firebrands were released in a flaming state onto pine needle beds and shredded paper beds. These results suggest that if the firebrands are in flaming mode, only a single firebrand is required to begin an ignition event for these materials.

For shredded hardwood mulch beds, it was possible to produce flaming ignition *only* when single-flaming firebrands were deposited onto *dried* mulch beds. This implies that under the conditions presented in this study, singleflaming firebrands were a threat for *dried* shredded hardwood mulch.

3.3. Multiple firebrand ignition results

It was apparent from the single-fire brand ignition studies that it was possible to ignite shredded paper beds

| Table 1 | | | | |
|---------------------------|-------------------------------|-----------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------------|
| Firebrand (cylindrical) i | enition data for firebrand in | npact onto pine needle beds | s, shredded paper beds, a | nd shredded hardwood mulch beds |

| Number of firebrands deposited | State of firebrand at impact | Air flow (m/s) | Firebrand size (mm) | Pine needles (dry) | Pine needles (11%) | Shredder paper (dry) | Shredded paper (11%) | Hardwd. mulch (dry) | Hardwd. mulch (11%) |
|-----------------------------------|---------------------------------|-------------------|------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|------------------------|------------------------|
| 1 | Glowing | 0.5 | 5 | NI | NI | SI | SI | NI | NI |
| 1 | Glowing | 0.5 | 10 | NI | NI | SI | SI | NI | NI |
| 1 | Glowing | 1 | 5 | NI | NI | SI | SI | NI | NI |
| 1 | Glowing | 1 | 10 | NI | NI | SI | SI | NI | NI |
| 1 | Flaming | 0.5 | 5 | FI | FI | FI | FI | FI | NI |
| 1 | Flaming | 0.5 | 10 | FI | FI | FI | FI | FI | NI |
| 1 | Flaming | 1 | 5 | FI | FI | FI | FI | FI | NI |
| 1 | Flaming | 1 | 10 | FI | FI | FI | FI | FI | NI |
| 4 | Glowing | 0.5 | 5 | NI | NI | NT | NT | NI | NI |
| 4 | Glowing | 0.5 | 10 | NI | NI | NT | NT | SI | NI |
| 4 | Glowing | 1 | 5 | NI | NI | NT | NT | SI | NI |
| 4 | Glowing | 1 | 10 | SI to FI | NI | NT | NT | SI | NI |
| 4 | Flaming | 0.5 | 5 | NT | NT | NT | NT | NT | NI |
| 4 | Flaming | 0.5 | 10 | NT | NT | NT | NT | NT | NI |
| 4 | Flaming | 1 | 5 | NT | NT | NT | NT | NT | NI |
| 4 | Flaming | 1 | 10 | NT | NT | NT | NT | NT | NI |

FI = flaming ignition; NI = no ignition; NT = not tested; SI = smoldering ignition.

from single-glowing firebrand impact. This result suggests that it may not require a large number of firebrands to ignite a home, provided that the firebrands are able to penetrate into attic spaces. On the other hand, for single-flaming firebrands, it was possible to ignite pine needle beds and shredded paper beds, but shredded hardwood mulch beds were more resistant to ignition. Only fire brands that landed onto *dried* shredded hardwood mulch beds caused ignition. Based upon these findings, the total number of firebrands is clearly an important parameter which must be considered.

Consequently, the experiments were repeated, but now multiple firebrands were deposited upon the pine needle beds and shredded hardwood mulch beds. Since ignition was observed under conditions of singlefirebrand impact for shredded paper beds (both glowing and flaming) multiple firebrand impact experiments were not performed using this material. In addition, singleflaming firebrands were able to ignite pine needle beds and shredded paper, thus multiple flaming firebrand experiments were not conducted for these materials. These cases are denoted by the acronym NT, for not tested (see Table 1).

Table 1 displays ignition results obtained for multiple glowing firebrand impact upon pine needle beds. The deposition of up to four 5 mm glowing firebrands (mass = 0.80 g) did not produce an ignition event under the conditions tested. When four 10 mm glowing firebrands (mass = 2.68 g) were deposited upon pine needle beds, smoldering was observed followed by a transition to flaming combustion under an air flow of 1.0 m/s. Under an air flow of 0.5 m/s, four 10 mm glowing firebrands did not produce an ignition.

Ignition results observed for multiple glowing firebrand impact upon shredded hardwood mulch are shown in Table 1. The deposition of four 5 mm glowing firebrands did not produce an ignition event under an air flow of 0.5 m/s. When the air flow was increased to 1.0 m/s, smoldering ignition was observed for dried mulch beds. With regard to the 10 mm firebrands, smoldering ignition was observed at 0.5 and 1.0 m/s, under conditions of dried mulch beds. No ignitions were observed (even when four 10 mm flaming firebrands were deposited) for shredded hardwood mulch held at 11% moisture.

3.4. Comparison to different firebrand geometry ignition studies

Manzello et al. [17] performed firebrand ignition studies (using the identical ignition apparatus described presently) for pine needle beds and shredded paper beds (identical fuel and size of fuel beds, moisture content varied from dry to 11%) using ponderosa pine disk-shaped firebrands (25 mm diameter, 8 mm length; 50 mm diameter, 6 mm length). In that study, disks (as opposed to cylinders) were used to simulate firebrands as these shapes are known to be produced from burning structures [10,13]. For pine needle bed ignition from glowing disk-shaped firebrand deposition. Manzello et al. [17] found that a minimum mass of 6.0 g of glowing firebrands (four 50 mm disks) were necessary to produce smoldering ignition. The minimum firebrand mass needed to produce smoldering ignition for shredded paper beds from glowing disk-shaped firebrands was 0.5 g (single 25 mm disk) [17].

In the present study using cylindrical-shaped glowing firebrands, it was observed that the mass of a single-glowing

cylindrical firebrand necessary to produce ignition in shredded paper beds was 0.2 g, less than half of the 0.5 g required for a single-glowing disk-shaped firebrand, under identical air flow and moisture conditions. For pine needle beds, using glowing cylindrical-shaped firebrands, a minimum mass of 2.68 g (four 10 mm diameter cylinders) was required for ignition as compared to 6.0 g (four 50 mm disks) of glowing disk-shaped firebrands. The results from two different fuel beds suggest that glowing cylindrical-shaped firebrands produced ignition events using about half the mass required when glowing disk-shaped firebrands were used.

It was believed that perhaps differences in contact surface area may be able to explain these observations. In both cases, these firebrands are in a state of glowing combustion; the contact surface area should be an important parameter to determine ignition of a given fuel bed. From video records, for the disk-shaped firebrands, only one face of the disk was observed to contact the fuel beds upon deposition [17]. For the cylindrical-shaped firebrands used in the present study, it was observed that, due to their geometry, half of firebrand was immersed in the fuel bed at deposition.

Based on these geometrical considerations, the glowing surface area ratio was calculated for the cylindrical-shaped firebrands versus the disk-shaped firebrands. From these calculations, it was found that the average glowing surface area ratio of cylinders to disks necessary to produce ignition in the pine needle beds and shredded paper beds was 0.8 ± 0.15 . Therefore, even though the mass of cylindrical-shaped firebrands was less than half of the mass of disk-shaped firebrands necessary to produce ignition in the same fuel bed, the actual glowing surface area in contact with the fuel beds was the same for both shapes under conditions of ignition. The results suggest that the contact glowing surface area of firebrands is an important parameter to determine ignition of fuel beds, not just the overall mass deposited.

4. Summary

A series of real scale fire experiments were performed to investigate firebrands generated from Douglas Fir (*Pseudotsuga menziesii*) trees. Douglas Fir trees do not produce firebrands if the moisture content is larger than 30% (no wind applied). The average firebrand size measured (based on three replicate experiments, fixed moisture content) for the 5.2 m Douglas Fir trees was 4 mm in diameter with a length of 53 mm. Firebrands with masses up to 3.5–3.7 g were observed for the 5.2 m trees. The surface area distribution was also calculated assuming cylindrical geometry and plotted versus the measured mass for the collected firebrands. The surface area of the firebrands scaled with firebrand mass.

It was apparent from the single-firebrand ignition studies that it was possible to ignite shredded paper beds from single-glowing firebrand impact. This result suggests that it may not require a large flux of firebrands to ignite a home, provided that the fire brands are able to penetrate into attic spaces. Pine needle bed ignition was only observed for glowing firebrand impact under conditions of multiple firebrand deposition. On the other hand, for single-flaming firebrands, it was possible to ignite pine needle beds and shredded paper beds, but shredded mulch beds were more resistant to ignition. Only 10 mm fire brands that landed onto *dried* shredded hardwood mulch beds caused ignition. The sizes of the firebrands, as well as the degree of the air flow, were important parameters in determining ignition.

The results of these experiments suggest that the contact glowing surface area of firebrands is an important parameter to determine ignition of fuel beds, not just the overall mass deposited. The data generated from these experiments will be useful for fire models used to predict spotting in WUI fires.

Acknowledgments

The assistance of the LFL staff at NIST is much appreciated. In particular, the generous assistance of Mr. Laurean DeLauter, Mr. Edward Hnetovsky, and Mr. Jack Lee is appreciated.

References

- [1] Pagni P. Fire Safety J 1993;21:331-40.
- [2] Babrauskas V. Ignition handbook, chapters 11, 14, society of fire protection engineers. Issaquah, WA: Fire Science Publishers; 2003. [98027p].
- [3] Tarifa CS, del Notario PP, Moreno FG. Proc Combust Inst 1965;10: 1021–37.
- [4] Tarifa CS, del Notario PP, Moreno FG. Transport and combustion of fire brands, final report of grants FG-SP-114 and FG-SP-146, vol.
 2. Madrid: Instituto Nacional de Tecnica Aerospacial "Esteban Terradas"; 1967.
- [5] Albini F. Spot fire distances from burning trees—a predictive model, USDA Forest Service General Technical Report INT-56, Intermountain Forest and Range Experiment Station, 1979.
- [6] Albini F. Combust Flame 1983;32:277-88.
- [7] Muraszew A, Fedele JF. Statistical model for spot fire spread. The Aerospace Corporation report no. ATR-77758801, 1976.
- [8] Tse SD, Fernandez-Pello AC. Fire Safety J 1998;30:333–56.
- [9] Woycheese JP, Pagni PJ, Liepman D. J Fire Protect Eng 1999; 10:32-44.
- [10] Woycheese JP. Brand lofting and propagation for large-scale fires. PhD dissertation, University of California, Berkeley, 2000.
- [11] Woycheese JP. Wooden disk combustion for spot fire spread. In: Ninth fire science and engineering conference proceedings (INTER-FLAM). London: Interscience Communications; 2001. p. 101–112.
- [12] Jones JC. J Fire Sci 1995;13:350-6.
- [13] Waterman TE. Experimental study of firebrand generation, project J6130—OCD work unit 2536E. Chicago: IIT Research Institute; 1969.
- [14] Waterman TE, Takata AN. "Laboratory study of ignition of host materials by firebrands," Project J6142—OCD work unit 2539A. Chicago: IIT Research Institute; 1969.
- [15] Dowling VP. Ignition of timber bridges in bushfires. Fire Safety J 1994;22:145–68.
- [16] Ellis PF. The aerodynamic and combustion characteristics of Eucalypt Bark—a firebrand study. PhD dissertation, Australian National University, Canberra, 2000.

- [17] Manzello SL, Cleary TG, Shields JR, Yang JC. Fire Mater 2006; 30:77–87.
- [18] Cohen JP. A site-specific approach for assessing the fire risk to structures at the wildland/urban interface. SE GTR-69, USDA Forest Service 1991.
- [19] Hughes KC, Jones JC. J Fire Sci 1994;12:499-502.
- [20] Babrauskas V. Heat release rates, the SFPE handbook of fire protection engineering. Quincy, MA: National Fire Protection Association; 2002.
- [21] Baker E. Burning characteristics of individual Douglas Fir trees in the wildland urban interface. MS thesis, Worcester Polytechnic Institute, 2005.