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Key Points:

- Fuels treatments are increasingly legislated as a mitigation tool to adapt to the changing wildfire regime in the western United States
- Fuels reduction programs that identify high risk forests decrease fire severity, but treatment effects only emerge after several decades
- Prioritizing treatments of fuel-heavy stands minimizes the time to significant treatment effects and maximizes fire severity reductions

Supporting Information:
Supporting Information may be found in the online version of this article.

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Do Vegetation Fuel Reduction Treatments Alter Forest Fire Severity and Carbon Stability in California Forests?

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Abstract Forest fire frequency, extent, and severity have rapidly increased in recent decades across the western United States (US) due to climate change and suppression-oriented wildfire management. Fuels reduction treatments are an increasingly popular management tool, as evidenced by California's plan to treat 1 million acres annually by 2050. However, the aggregate efficacy of fuels treatments in dry forests at regional and multi-decadal scales is unknown. We develop a novel fuels treatment module within a coupled dynamic vegetation and fire model to study the effects of dead biomass removal from forests in the Sierra Nevada region of California. We ask how annual treatment extent, stand-level treatment intensiveness, and spatial treatment placement alter fire severity and live carbon loss. We find that a ∼30% reduction in stand-replacing fire was achieved under our baseline treatment scenario of 1,000 km^2 $year^{-1}$ after a 100-year treatment period. Prioritizing the most fuel-heavy stands based on precise fuel distributions yielded cumulative reductions in pyrogenic stand-replacement of up to 50%. Both removing constraints on treatment location due to remoteness, topography, and management jurisdiction and prioritizing the most fuel-heavy stands yielded the highest stand-replacement rate reduction of ∼90%. Even treatments that succeeded in lowering aggregate fire severity often took multiple decades to yield measurable effects, and avoided live carbon loss remained negligible across scenarios. Our results suggest that strategically placed fuels treatments are a promising tool for controlling forest fire severity at regional, multi-decadal scales, but may be less effective for mitigating live carbon losses.

Plain Language Summary California has seen a marked increase in forest fire activity in recent decades. This trend is expected to continue with climate change, endangering lives and altering ecosystems. Fuels reduction treatments, including controlled burning and mechanical removal of woody debris from fire-prone forests, have received increasing policy attention in recent years as a wildfire mitigation strategy. However, the impacts of regional-scale, multi-decadal fuels reduction programs are not well understood. We use a coupled dynamic vegetation and fire model to compare the impacts of different fuels treatment strategies to understand how intersecting technical and political constraints impact treatment efficacy over 100 years of treatments. We find that precise assignment of treatments to the most fuel-heavy stands in the region could decrease cumulative avoided fire-driven stand-replacement rates by ∼50% compared with no-treatment simulations, and by ∼30% when prioritization of fuel loading was lower. Opening remote, rugged, and multi-stakeholder lands for treatment in tandem with high prioritization of fuel loading could increase total avoided stand mortality events to ∼90%. Overall, avoided live carbon loss rates are less sensitive to treatment, and remained relatively small in absolute terms. Importantly, we found that even effective treatments may take multiple decades to yield measurable results on a regional scale.

1. Introduction

Fire is a critical part of the Earth system, facilitating essential biogeochemical and ecological processes including nutrient cycling and secondary succession in forests (Pausas & Keeley, 2019; Safford et al., 2022; Stephens et al., 2021; Walker et al., 2020). However, in the past several decades forest fire frequency, annual area burned, and severity have rapidly increased in western North America (Abatzoglou & Williams, 2016; Dennison et al., 2014; Kasischke & Turetsky, 2006; R. Kelly et al., 2013; Westerling et al., 2006). For example, annual burned forest area in the western United States (US) has increased by 1,200% since 1984 due to a confluence of drought and fire weather resulting from climate change (Abatzoglou & Williams, 2016; Abatzoglou et al., 2021; Williams et al., 2019, 2022). Additionally, in some forest types (e.g. Schoennagel et al., 2017; Stephens et al., 2013), large fuel-burdens from a century of fire exclusion have contributed to wildfire trends in the 21st century (Kolden, 2019; Stephens & Ruth, 2005; Vaillant & Reinhardt, 2017). In the state of California, 18 of the 20 largest recorded fires have occurred since the year 2000, including during the historic 2020 fire season in which 17,000 km^2 burned, resulting in over $19 billion USD in economic losses (Safford et al., 2022). Further, an increasing number of people are being affected by wildfire due to the expanding wildland-urban interface (WUI), where homes are interspersed with wildland vegetation (Radeloff et al., 2018), compounded by the fact that atmospheric dryness (or vapor pressure deficit) that affects fuel moisture and wildfire risk varies spatially and has risen most rapidly in seasonally temperate areas where WUI expansion is most notable (Rao et al., 2022).

High-severity wildfires strongly affect biodiversity (L. T. Kelly et al., 2020), water quality and quantity (Williams et al., 2022), forest carbon sequestration (Anderegg et al., 2022), and human health and safety (Radeloff et al., 2018). In the future, there is strong potential for wildfire severity and area burned to increase manyfold with continued anthropogenic climate change, even as fuels become more limiting than they are at present (Abatzoglou et al., 2021; Anderegg et al., 2022; Balch et al., 2022). However, some research suggests that although fire severity has increased in recent decades, mean annual burned area across North America is still lower than in the era preceding Euro-American settlement (O'Connor et al., 2014; Safford et al., 2022; Swetnam et al., 2016). Forest management practices that reduce overall fire severity while allowing wildfires to burn may therefore offer a strategic compromise between limiting risk to human lives and livelihoods while promoting vital ecosystem services.

In recent years, fuels reduction treatments (Agee & Skinner, 2005; Hessburg et al., 2016; North et al., 2021; Prichard et al., 2021) have gained attention among policymakers as a wildfire severity mitigation tool. For example, in 2021, California more than doubled its annual budget for forest management projects to $536 million after a devastating fire season in 2020 burned more than four percent of the state, destroyed 10,500 buildings, and killed 33 people (Porter et al., 2020). The California Wildfire and Forest Resilience Action Plan (Blumenfeld et al., 2021), the Forest Carbon Plan (Johnston, 2018), and activities by numerous county and local California management agencies (Gilles et al., 2018) highlight the rapid expansion of fuels reduction treatments as a tool for wildfire mitigation. In 2022, California Governor Newsom also pledged to fund "beneficial fire" and "cultural burning" on 400,000 acres (1,619 km^2) in a partnership between state, tribal, local, and federal agencies, adding to previous commitments to fund fuel reduction treatments across 1 million acres (4,047 km^2) of CA lands per year by 2050. At the national level, the 2021 Infrastructure Investment and Jobs Act (IIJA) and the 2022 Inflation Reduction Act (IRA) allocated an additional $2.56 billion and $2.87 billion USD, respectively, for fuels reduction treatments, and $2.14 billion and $2.22 billion USD, respectively, for prescribed fire (DeFazio, 2021; Yarmouth, 2022). In light of the magnitude of expenditure and millions of vegetated acres targeted by fuel treatment policies, it is important to understand their mitigation potential and long-term ecological consequences.

Studies of watershed-scale fuels reduction treatments have shown near-term reductions in severity of subsequent wildfires (Burger, 2009; Kolden, 2019; North & Hurteau, 2011). However, to understand how new state and federal fuels reductions policies may factor in future wildfire mitigation and adaptation, it is critical to constrain how the overall treatment strategy will affect fire severity and ecological impacts across tens of thousands of square kilometers and multiple decades into the future. A key determinant of fuels management policy outcome will be the interaction of political and technical factors controlling spatial allocation of fuels reduction treatments across a region, including land ownership and jurisdiction, road access, terrain ruggedness, and the availability of quality information about fuel distributions.

Process-based vegetation models are useful tools for understanding how fuels reduction interventions influence the coupled vegetation-wildfire system at large spatial and long temporal scales through the incorporation of scalable hypotheses for how vegetation fuel prevalence and vegetation type influence wildfire impacts (Hansen et al., 2022; Seidl et al., 2020). However, few vegetation models are suitable for assessing state or federal fuels management policies, as vegetation models are either too computationally intensive to apply at scales larger than watersheds (Albrich et al., 2020; Burke et al., 2021; Hansen et al., 2022; Hurteau et al., 2019; Seidl et al., 2014; Serra-Diaz et al., 2018), or they operate at very coarse scales ($\sim$100 km^2) and do not include sufficient mechanistic detail of wildfire-vegetation interactions to inform the efficacy of region-specific management interventions (Fisher et al., 2018; Hantson et al., 2020; Rabin et al., 2022; Sanderson & Fisher, 2020).

To address these challenges, we use the DYNAmic Temperate and Boreal Fire and FORest-EcosySTem simulator (DYNAFFOREST) (Hansen et al., 2022), a dynamic vegetation model equipped with a probabilistic fire module.

DYNAFFOREST is well suited to model how fuels reductions protocols impact fire severity and forest dynamics at medium to large spatial and temporal extents for the following reasons. First, DYNAFFOREST is purposefully designed to operate at an intermediate degree of computational complexity, allowing for rigorous but computationally tractable modeling of regional- and centennial-scale ecological processes. Second, DYNAFFOREST explicitly simulates the impacts of climate and seed bank composition on secondary succession and how these factors subsequently determine post-fire forest trajectories, fuel accumulation, and flammability. Third, the relationship between fuels and fire dynamics, including fire size and severity, has been extensively validated in DYNAFFOREST using historical fire databases (Hansen et al., 2022). Finally, the probabilistic nature of model outcomes allows for a rigorous quantification of uncertainties across different management interventions due to stochasticity in wildfire occurrences and post-fire seedling recruitment.

We pose the following questions. First, how does the areal extensiveness and intensiveness of fuels reduction treatment, such as the fraction of biomass removed, affect fire severity and subsequent forest dynamics? Second, do spatial constraints imposed by land jurisdiction hamper treatment coordination efforts and decrease treatment efficacy? Third, how important are physical restrictions such as topography and road access for treatment efficacy? Lastly, does a detailed spatial knowledge of regional fuels distributions increase treatment efficacy?

2. Methods

2.1. Model Overview

Our study uses DYNAFFOREST, a cohort-based spatially explicit dynamic vegetation and fire model that includes a stochastic representation of forest fire and vegetation recruitment following disturbance (Hansen et al., 2022). DYNAFFOREST includes 12 vegetation plant functional types (PFTs) that are representative of the major forest types in the western US. Heterogeneity in vegetation size classes and functional type is simulated at a 1-km^2 resolution, enabling the model to capture heterogeneity in fuels in topographically complex landscapes. The spatial resolution of the meteorological forcing for fire characteristics, and their responsiveness to climate operates at a 12-km^2 grid scale.

The DYNAFFOREST model attributes offer a significant advantage to understand the feedbacks between fire and vegetation fuels compared to Earth system models that operate at course spatial resolutions without demographic processes, and often do not include fire (Hantson et al., 2020; Rabin et al., 2017; Sanderson & Fisher, 2020). At fine spatial scales, several models have been developed to represent both wildfire and vegetation demographic processes, but all are too computationally intensive to be used to study vegetation-wildfire dynamics, and anthropogenic modification of vegetation fuels, at broad spatial domains (Albrich et al., 2020; Hansen et al., 2022; Hurteau et al., 2019; Seidl et al., 2014; Serra-Diaz et al., 2018). One such domain is the ~77,000-km^2 Sierra Nevada Mountains in California, a region of major concern for wildfire risk under changing climatic conditions (Kennedy et al., 2021; Vachula et al., 2019). DYNAFFOREST's parsimonious representation of vegetation processes allows for sufficient computational efficiency to both simulate broad spatial domains of forested area in the western US and provide a nuanced map of evolving forest structure and fuels. These combined attributes make DYNAFFOREST uniquely capable of capturing how fires can alter forests, how fuels feedback to impact forest fire spread and burn severity, and how management interventions modify this dynamic feedback loop at scales relevant to recent politically mandated fuels treatment interventions.

2.2. Model Technical Details

Here we summarize several key components of the DYNAFFOREST model (Figure 1). A full model description, including model functionalities and model validation, is available in Hansen et al. (2022). Vegetation and fire dynamics in DYNAFFOREST operate on an annual timestep. Each 1-km^2 vegetation grid cell comprises an even-aged cohort of 1 of 12 possible forest PFTs or a grassland PFT. Cohorts grow and reallocate biomass annually according to PFT-specific allometric growth-curves derived from the USDA Forest Inventory and Analysis Program (Bechtold & Patterson, 2015). Biomass is added to the system through three live biomass pools (leaves, branches, and stems), and cycles into three dead biomass pools (litter, coarse woody debris, and snags) at PFT-specific rates, or as a result of drought or fire mortality. Dead biomass pools decompose at pool-specific decomposition rates, or are removed through combustion. Crown-kill within a 1-km^2 grid cell is simulated for cells experiencing fire, and is proportional to available fuel loads. Here, we define fire severity as a statistic scaled between zero and one that is equivalent to modeled percent crown-kill, a common fire severity metric

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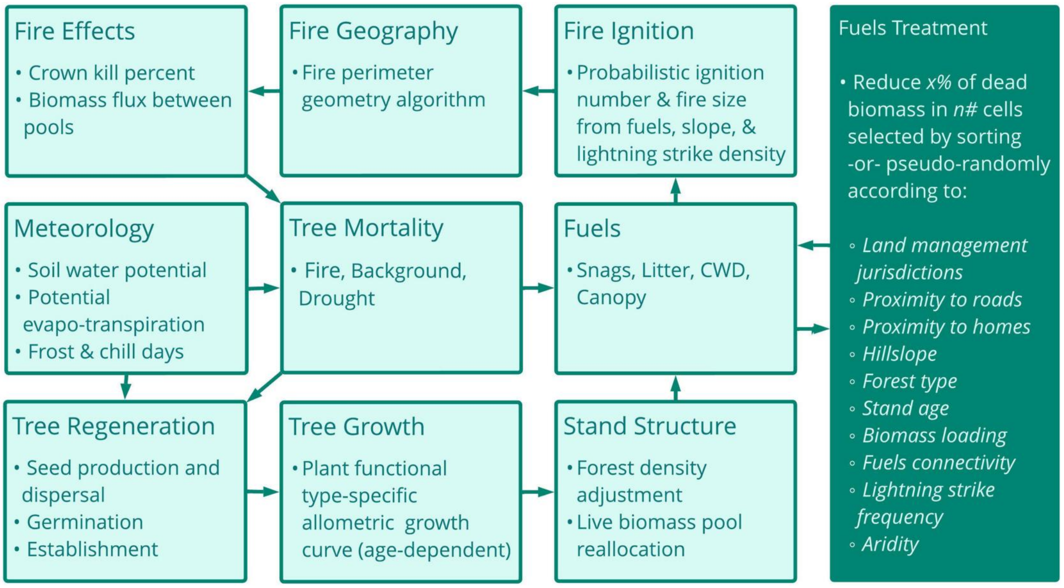

Figure 1. Schematic illustrating DYNAFFOREST model processes including the model described fully in Hansen et al. (2022) (light green) and the new fuels treatment module developed in this study (right in dark green).

(Keeley, 2009). Pyrogenic stand-replacement is defined as an instance in which fire results in 100% crown kill within a given 1 km^2 grid cell, initiating a renewed cycle of recruitment and regrowth. In this study, a quantity of stand-replacement "events" denotes the number of 1 km^2 grid cells that experienced pyrogenic stand-replacement within a given period. Seed availability in DYNAFFOREST is determined by age- and PFT-specific fecundity and dispersal rates from neighboring cells, while recruitment success following stand-replacement is determined probabilistically based on PFT-specific climate tolerances. If tree recruitment fails, grassland can establish within a grid cell, which lowers the probability of future forest recruitment over time.

Fire ignition occurs probabilistically within a 12-km^2 meteorological grid cell according to observed lightning strike frequency, observed mean aridity (defined as the ratio of total annual precipitation to potential evapo-transpiration), modeled forest connectivity between 1-km^2 vegetation grid cells, modeled live and dead fuel loading, and observed terrain slope. Use of a 12-km^2 climate grid for allocating ignitions allows for the consideration of fuel-geography and climate factors distributed across larger spatial scales than individual 1-km^2 vegetation grid cells. For each ignition, a maximum attainable fire size is selected pseudo-randomly from a database of observed fires between 1985 and 1994 that includes perimeters from the Monitoring Trends in Burn Severity (MTBS) database for fires >400 ha and the point locations of fires smaller than 400 ha (Juang et al., 2022). This representation allows fire size to be implicitly constrained by factors not represented in prognostic model processes, including anthropogenic and meteorological suppression, even when fuel geography might allow for further growth. However, this model formulation only simulates forest-fire dynamics, and does not represent grass-spread fire regimes, as modeled fire may spread across no more than one km of contiguous grassland. For this reason, model-predicted fires may fail to reach their maximum attainable area. If sufficient forested fuels are available, fires can reach their maximum size, which can exceed the 12-km^2 fire grid cell. In practice, complex model-simulated fire perimeters emerge due to grass-dominated vegetation grid cells across the model domain that increase in prevalence following stand-replacement events.

With the current parameterization of the fire module within DYNAFFOREST, we are able to investigate wildfire-vegetation dynamics throughout the latter decades of the 20th century. However, we cannot yet confidently model vegetation growth, fire dynamics, and their interactions under anthropogenic climate change conditions, including the severe fire conditions experienced in the western US after 2000. The current model formulation has been validated using observations of fuels accumulation and fuels effects on fire size, perimeter complexity, area burned, and percent stand-replacement (Hansen et al., 2022), making DYNAFFOREST an ideal tool to understand how vegetation management affects forest fire and the forested landscape under observed climate

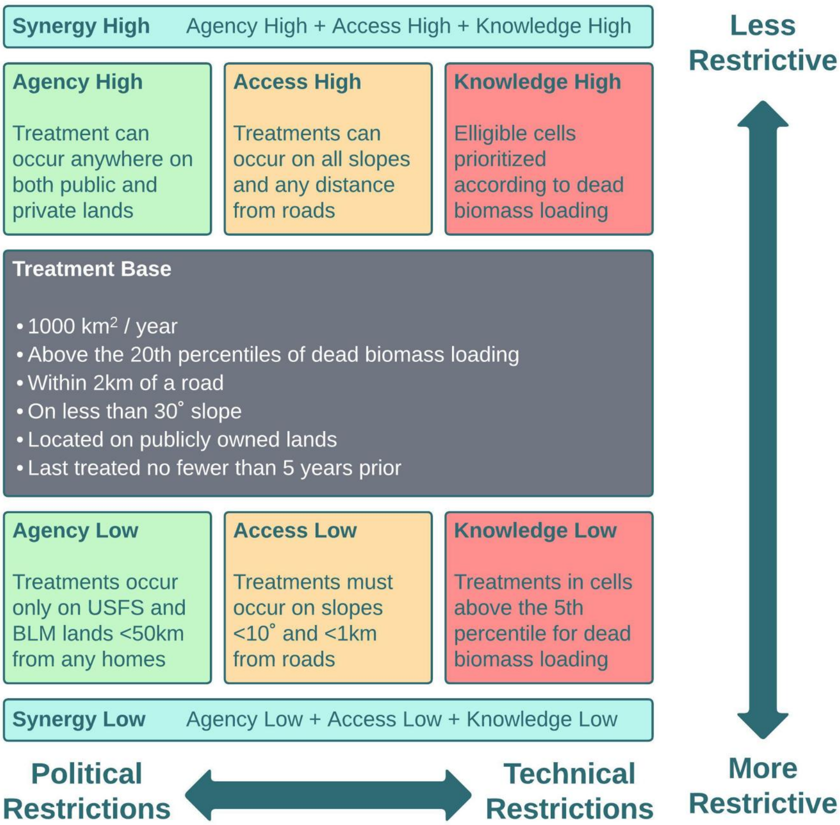

Figure 2. Experimental design showing our standard treatment scenario in the center (black), and four pairs (eight total) of modified treatment scenarios. More spatially restrictive scenarios due to political or technical constraints (left vs. right columns) shown in the bottom rows and scenarios with larger eligible treatment areas are in the top rows. All scenarios share our standard (base) treatment's parameters except where noted.

conditions. Further, while process-based models have the potential to be an extremely powerful to look at fuels interactions with climate change, there are major uncertainties in these projections associated with: (a) climate scenario uncertainty, (b) uncertainty in model processes that influence fire dynamics, and (c) uncertainty in climate effects on vegetation growth and fuels accumulation. Thus, we suggest that limiting confounding uncertainties by modeling the sensitivity of wildfire dynamics to management under current climate conditions may be the information of highest utility for managers and policy makers targeting wildfire mitigation.

2.3. New Fuels Management Module

In this study, we developed a fuels treatment module to simulate controlled burning by removing a user-specified fraction of litter, downed coarse wood, and snags in each 1-km^2 forest tile selected for fuels management (Figure 1). In the fuels reduction module, forest cells are inventoried at each 1-year time step for non-static eligibility factors (live and dead biomass loading, fuels connectivity, and minimum re-treatment interval) from a pool of cells pre-constrained by static eligibility factors (land management jurisdiction, proximity to roads, proximity to homes, hillslope, forest type, stand age, lightning strike frequency, and aridity). We test 18 scenarios. In each scenario, a cell's treatment eligibility, as well as the parameters for the model, were informed by conversations with forest managers, model sensitivity tests, and a literature review (Figure S1 in Supporting Information S1). “Treatment Base” represents a realistic baseline treatment protocol that is moderately ambitious with respect to existing political and technical challenges; treatment locations are constrained by slope, road access, and public land ownership, and are prioritized using “imperfect knowledge” of downed woody fuels, capturing the fact that in practice managers must rely on fuel mapping data with limited accuracy at 1-km^2 spatial resolution (Figure 2). When a larger number of cells is eligible for treatment than meets the annual treatment extent target, locations are chosen pseudo-randomly from the pool of eligible cells unless a factor is chosen as a

10.1029/2023EF003763

sorting factor (detailed below in the different model experimental scenarios). In this case, the pool of available cells is sorted hierarchically with respect to that factor and the highest ranking cells are selected to the treatment areal target. We compare all treatment scenarios to a "Control" scenario of no vegetation treatment.

2.4. Experimental Overview

We simulated a ~77,000-km^2 area in California's Sierra Nevada region, where aggressive vegetation management strategies have been legislated in order to mitigate rapidly increasing fire risk (Gilles et al., 2018; Hazelhurst, 2020; Wang et al., 2022). Following the protocol in Hansen et al. (2022), vegetation in the model was initialized with a gridded PFT map (Buotte et al., 2019), remotely sensed stand age (Pan et al., 2011), and information on fuel loads based on PFT (Prichard et al., 2019). The dynamic vegetation module was forced with 1985–1994 downscaled 1 km^2 mean daily temperature observations (Oyler et al., 2015) to calculate tree-seedling germination and establishment thresholds and average growing season volumetric soil moisture in the rooting zone (0-–100-cm depth) (Park Williams et al., 2017), fire severity, PFT-specific regeneration probability, and drought mortality (Hansen et al., 2022). Fire module forcings include 1984–2019 climatological mean annual aridity (ratio of total annual precipitation to total annual potential evapotranspiration) for each 12-km^2 grid cell (Williams et al., 2020), topography (Hastings & Dunbar, 1999), and 1987–2019 mean lightning strike density, which influences ignition probability (Cummins et al., 1998).

Fuel loads at model initialization reflect forest type distributions but lack disturbance-driven heterogeneity. Thus, we ran the model for 250 years without simulated management to allow the coupled vegetation-fire response in the study region to generate initial fuel conditions. We used year 250 from this simulation as the common origin ("spin-up") for all model experiments (Hansen et al., 2022). In total, we ran 450,100-year model simulations across 18 different treatment scenarios in which we systematically varied annual areal treatment extent, stand-level treatment intensiveness, and treatment site selection parameters across two feasibility axes representing political and technical constraints, respectively (Figure S1 in Supporting Information S1).

Several processes in the model are probabilistic (stochastic) including fire ignition, stand mortality (due to fire or senescence), and tree recruitment. Thus, each model experiment includes 25 replicate ensemble members to account for stochastic variability. Ensemble size (replicate count) was chosen by calculating the intra-ensemble variance of representative model diagnostics (including pyrogenic stand-replacement rate, live C loss, and forest coverage) for n pseudo-randomly selected simulations at 100 years from within a 50-member replicate ensemble ($n = 1{:}50$). Where the variance of these diagnostics among n members approached asymptotic stability, we selected $n = 25$ as our standard experimental replicate size. All experimental scenarios shared a common control (no-treatment) ensemble and "Treatment Base" ensemble to account for residual stochastic variability and provide a common point of comparison.

To understand model sensitivity to fuels reduction treatment areal extent and treatment intensiveness, we conducted two sensitivity tests. First, we systematically varied treatment areal extent within a range of possible values mandated in 2020 by the state of California that could be allocated to the Sierra Nevada Mountains within California (Hazelhurst, 2020). Specifically, we ran simulations with varying annual areal fuels reduction treatment extent set to 100, 500, 1,000, 1,500, and 2,000 km^2 year^{-1}, keeping all other parameters the same as our "Treatment Base" experiment (see Figure 2 for "Treatment Base" description). Second, we held areal extent and all other parameters constant at 1,000 km^2 year^{-1} and varied the fraction of dead fuels removed during simulated fuels reduction treatments. In these two experiments, scenarios treating 1,000 km^2 year^{-1} and removing 90% of dead biomass respectively were therefore equivalent with "Treatment Base."

Following model sensitivity tests to treatment area and dead fuel removal intensiveness, we performed a set of model experiments designed to understand the sensitivity of our results to treatment placement, measured through reductions in stand-replacement events and overall fire severity (quantified according to crown kill fraction, see Section 2.2), forest cover changes, and reductions in live carbon (C) lost to fire. In this set of model experiments, we varied treatment placement (for a fixed annual treatment area and fractional fuels reduction) according to factors constraining real-world treatment allocation, including: (a) land management agency constraints, where treatments were subject to the majority of the "Treatment Base" parameters but constrained to US Forest Service and Bureau of Land Management Land ("Agency Low"), versus both public and private lands ("Agency High"); (b) landscape accessibility factors, where treatments were subject to the majority of the "Treatment Base" parameters but were either tightly constrained by access factors including hill slope and proximity to roads ("Access

Low"), versus unconstrained by slope or road access ("Access High"); (c) stand-level knowledge of regional fuel-load distribution, where treatments were subject to the majority of the "Treatment Base" parameters but eligible cells were sorted based on dead fuels loading ("Knowledge High") versus an experiment where dead fuels loading was not used to inform treatment location ("Knowledge Low"); and (d) combined effects of criteria 1–3 for our "Synergy Low" and "Synergy High" model experiments (Figure 2). For all scenarios, we analyzed both transient (captured by our Time of Emergence statistic) and equilibrium treatment responses (model outcomes at year 100 and mean fourth quarter-century values). We hope that this will provide treatment evaluations on both policy-relevant time scales (on the order of a decade), and long-term forest ecological outcomes (on the order of a century).

2.5. Analysis

We calculated model diagnostics for each timestep on a 1-km^2 vegetation cell-by-cell basis. During post-processing, grid cell values were summed or averaged annually for each ensemble member within each treatment scenario. Ensemble annual mean or cumulative values were calculated, and quantile values for each annual distribution were extracted. We considered several key modeled response variables with relevance both to human policy goals and safety, as well as forest ecosystem composition and structure. Diagnostics included rates of pyrogenic stand-replacement and overall fire severity (see Section 2.2), forest cover change, and quantity of live C lost (combusted or moved to dead C pools). Responses in each model experiment are shown as a median, interquartile, and full range of ensemble member values, depending on the visualization. Hereafter, any statistic not otherwise specified refers to the loess-smoothed (see below) ensemble mean value at year 100 of the simulation for a given scenario.

For some figures and decadal statistics, we employed a loess (span = 0.2) smoothing function from R's "stats" package (R Core Team, 2022) on annualized model output to remove the influence of stochastic noise. We also averaged time series data for each ensemble. Inter-decadal values summarized in box plots were calculated as a distribution of the mean ensemble values for each scenario during all years. Compact letter display indicates a set of pairwise comparisons with an analysis of variance and subsequent Tukey honest significant difference (HSD) test using the functions "aov" and "TukeyHSD" from R's "stats" package (R Core Team, 2022). Within each simulation we used Time of Emergence (ToE) (Gaetani et al., 2020; Maraun, 2013; Turk et al., 2019) to quantify the point at which treatment diagnostics become statistically distinct from a no-treatment control scenario for regionally summed values. We defined ToE as the fifth year in a 10 years moving window whose decadal median value for a given response variable fell outside of the control scenario's IQR for that variable for the same period. If a simulation's median value overlapped with the control scenario's IQR for over 10 consecutive years after achieving emergence, any ToE observations before this period were disqualified.

Model code and all analyses were performed in R version 4.2.1 (2022-06-23).

3. Results

Throughout the description of results, we refer to ensemble mean values relative to the no-treatment control ensemble mean over the 100-year simulations.

3.1. Systematically Varying Treatment Extent

Increasing annual treatment area from 100 to 2,000 $km^2\ yr^{-1}$ within the 77,000 km^2 Sierra Nevada model domain decreased rates of pyrogenic stand-replacement, fire severity, and total live C lost to fire, and decreased the ToE for significant treatment effects by several decades. However, diminishing returns per acer treated occurred at >1,000 $km^2\ yr^{-1}$ (Figure 3). For example, stand-replacement rate, total forest coverage, and live C loss exhibited no statistically significant difference during the last quarter-century for treatment extents over 1,000 $km^2\ yr^{-1}$ (Figure 3). When we examined cumulative values over the 100-year simulation, we found that increasing annual treated area from 0 to 500 $km^2\ yr^{-1}$ yielded a 16.5% (351 km^2) reduction in total stand-replacement events over 100 years relative to the no-treatment control scenario (2,132 km^2), and that doubling the annual treated area to 1,000 $km^2\ yr^{-1}$ yielded a further 12.7% reduction (622 km^2, or 29.2% below the no-treatment rate). However, a second doubling of treated area to 2,000 $km^2\ yr^{-1}$ yielded only a further 9% reduction (813 km^2, or 38% below the no-treatment rate). Similar decreasing returns per km^2 treated were observed over the 100 years simulation with respect to cumulative avoided live C loss, where 500 $km^2\ yr^{-1}$ treated yielded a 13.6% (1,466 t C) reduction

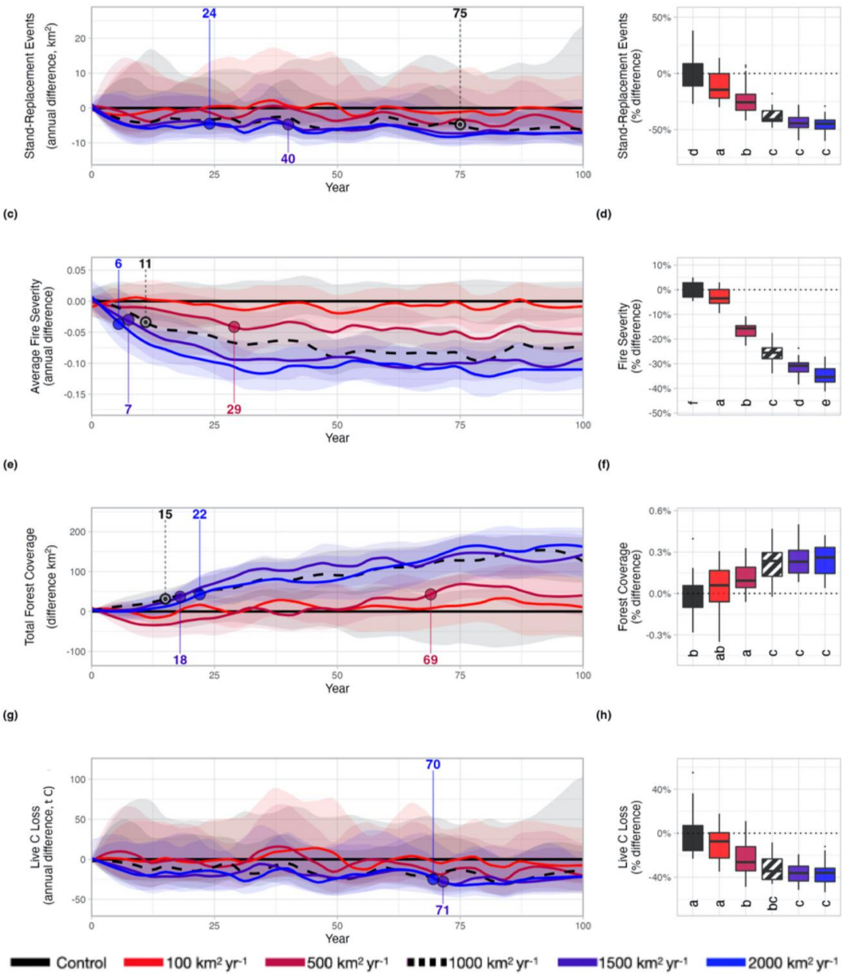

Figure 3. Increased annual fuels treatment extent decreases pyrogenic stand-replacement rates, wildfire severity, forest conversion to grassland, and live carbon loss rates, and results in an earlier time of emergence (ToE) for treatment effects. All values are plotted relative to the annual ensemble median value of the no-treatment control scenario. (a) Time series of relative areal differences in pyrogenic stand-replacement events (km^2) and (b) percent difference in ensemble mean values for pyrogenic stand-replacement events relative to the control scenario over years 75–100. Negative values correspond to a reduction in stand mortality events. (c) Time series of relative differences in annual mean fire severity for cells affected by fire and (d) percent difference ensemble mean values for fire severity relative to the control scenario over years 75–100. Negative values correspond to a reduction in fire severity. (e) Time series of relative differences in overall forest coverage and (f) percent difference in ensemble mean values for overall forest coverage relative to the control scenario over years 75–100. Positive values correspond to an increase in forest coverage. (g) Time series of relative difference in live carbon (metric tons C) lost to wildfire and (h) percent difference in ensemble mean values for live carbon loss relative to the control scenario over years 75–100. Negative values correspond to a decrease in live C loss. For time series plots, the solid line is the ensemble median (50th percentile) relative to the control ensemble median, and ribboning indicates the IQR (25th–75th percentile range). For the box whiskers plots, the horizontal black line at center denotes the median of the ensemble distribution; the boxes denote the IQR; whiskers denote the range between the IQR and the end-members of the distribution, or 1.5 times the IQR if outliers are present; outliers are denoted by black dots above or below the whiskers; compact letter display indicates significant differences in ensemble means derived from a pairwise ANOVA test (see Section 2.5).

relative to control experiment (10,788 t C) and each successive doubling of treated area (1,000 and 2,000 $km^2\ yr^{-1}$) only yielded additional reductions of 8.7% (2,404 t C total) and a further 5.3% (2,978 t C total), respectively.

ToE was also impacted by treatment extent and varied with the response diagnostic of interest. For example, although ensemble mean distributions for stand replacement events showed no statistical difference between scenarios treating more than 1,000 $km^2\ yr^{-1}$ over years 75–100 (Figure 3b), increasing treated area from 1,000 to 1,500 $km^2\ yr^{-1}$ decreased the observed ToE from year 75 to year 40, and treating an additional 500 $km^2\ yr^{-1}$

(2,000 km^2 yr^{-1} total) yielded an observed ToE at year 24 (Figure 3a). In contrast, model-predicted median annual fire severity displayed more rapidly diminishing returns: a doubling of treated area from 500 to 1,000 km^2 yr^{-1} yielded an 18 years reduction in ToE (from 29 to 11 years), while a further doubling of treated area (1,000–2,000 km^2 yr^{-1}) yielded a further ToE reduction of only 5 years (from year 11 to year 6) (Figure 3c). In some cases where treatments were not significantly different from one another, ToE was not consistent with overall treatment trends. For example, we observed the earliest ToE (year 15) for the 1,000 km^2 yr^{-1} treatment scenario when measuring changes in overall forest cover change, while treating 2,000 km^2 yr^{-1} resulted in a ToE 7 years later (year 22) (Figure 3e). This illustrates that ToE depends strongly on the response variable of interest, and that some variables exhibit more measurable decreases in effective returns per additional km^2 treated than others.

3.2. Systematically Varying Fractional Biomass Reduction

Next, we systematically increased the fraction of dead biomass removed as part of fuels treatment for the same areal treatment extent of 1,000 km^2 yr^{-1}. With respect to some diagnostics, treatment impact on cumulative values scaled roughly linearly (Figure 4). For example, a 30% increase in dead biomass removed per treated km^2 (from 30% to 60%) yielded an 11.3% reduction (from −9.1% to −20.4%) in total stand replacement events relative to the control scenario over 100 years, and an additional 30% increase in percent biomass removal (from 60% to 90%) reduced that figure by a further 8.8% (from −20.4% to −29.2%) at the end of the 100-year simulation. Other diagnostics, notably changes in total forest cover, suggested a threshold response to increasing treatment intensity. For example, treatments removing 10% and 30% of dead biomass per treated km^2 did not show statistically significant changes in total forest cover with respect to the no-treatment scenario across the fourth quarter-century, while treatments removing 60%, 90%, and 100% of dead biomass from treated stands were statistically insignificant with respect to one another, but were all significantly different from the control for that period. For the latter group, however, increased treatment intensity did accelerate ToE, with a 50-year decrease in ToE observed between the 60% reduction scenario and the 90% reduction scenario. Putting these figures in perspective, the maximum achieved increase in total forest extent achieved by fuels treatments (100% dead biomass removal) was 155 km^2 by the end of the century (0.2% of the model domain). Total avoided stand replacement events over 100 years for the same scenario reached 621 km^2 (0.8% of the model domain).

3.3. Technical and Political Restrictions on Spatial Treatment Allocation

Next, we held both annual treated area and fractional fuels reduction constant (1,000 km^2 yr^{-1} and 90% removal, respectively) (Figure 2; Figure S1 in Supporting Information S1) and tested how spatial constraints on regional treatment allocation associated with land management jurisdiction and ownership ("Agency High" and "Agency Low" scenarios), infrastructural and technical access ("Access High" and "Access Low" scenarios), degree of prioritization placed on fuel loading ("Knowledge High" and "Knowledge Low"), and the combined effects of the three ("Synergy High" and "Synergy Low") impacted treatment efficacy (Figure 5). We found that the most appreciable reductions in fire severity and pyrogenic stand-replacement rate (Figures 5a–5d) occurred in simulations that highly prioritized treatment placement according to dead biomass-loading ("Knowledge High," "Synergy High"; 1,104 and 1,984 km^2 cumulative avoided pyrogenic stand-replacement events relative to the total figure of 2,132 km^2 for the no-treatment control scenario, respectively). In treatments where fuel loading was not highly prioritized, such that all stands above the 20th percentile for dead biomass loading qualified for treatment (e.g., "Agency High," "Agency Low," "Access High," and "Access Low"), few significant differences in response variables were notable, even as constraints related to topography and road access ("Access High"), and multi-jurisdictional cooperation ("Agency High") were eliminated. This result suggests that prioritizing more spatially homogeneous (extensive) treatment allocation is less effective than spatially heterogeneous (intensive) retreatment of stands known to exhibit high rates of fuel accumulation (Figure 6). Decreased efficacy resulting from lower fuel loading prioritization (as in "Treatment Base," "Agency High," "Agency Low," "Access High," "Access Low," and "Synergy Low") can be partially compensated for by increasing annual treated area above 1,000 km^2 yr^{-1} (Figure 3). However, a doubling of annual treated area (from 1,000 to 2,000 km^2 yr^{-1}) was required to achieve fire severity reductions similar to those observed in experiments where fuel loading was highly prioritized (e.g., "Knowledge High").

Including high prioritization of fuel loading ("Knowledge High"), releasing infrastructural and technical access constraints to remote and rugged areas ("Access High"), and allowing for multi-jurisdictional cooperation in treatment application ("Agency High"), resulted in similar 100-year treatment outcomes with respect to

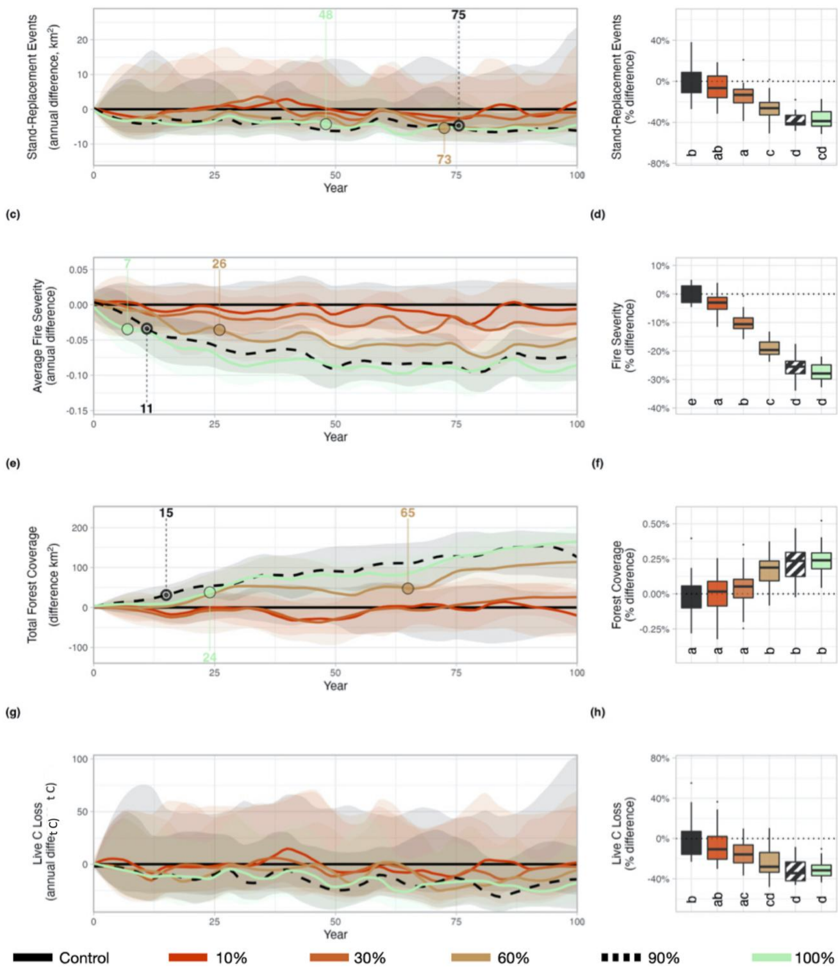

Figure 4. Increased stand-level treatment intensiveness (percent reduction of dead biomass fuels during treatment) decreases wildfire severity, forest conversion to grassland, and live carbon loss rates, and results in an earlier time of emergence (ToE) for treatment effects. All values are plotted relative to the annual ensemble median value of the no-treatment control scenario. (a) Time series of relative areal differences in pyrogenic stand-replacement events (km^2) and (b) percent difference in ensemble mean values for pyrogenic stand-replacement events relative to the control scenario over years 75–100. Negative values correspond to a reduction in stand mortality events. (c) Time series of relative differences in annual mean fire severity for cells affected by fire and (d) percent difference in ensemble mean values for fire severity relative to the control scenario over years 75–100. Negative values correspond to a reduction in fire severity. (e) Time series of relative differences in overall forest coverage and (f) percent difference in ensemble mean values for overall forest coverage relative to the control scenario over years 75–100. Positive values correspond to an increase in forest coverage. (g) Time series of relative difference in live carbon (t C) lost to wildfire and (h) percent difference in ensemble mean values for live carbon loss relative to the control scenario over years 75–100. Negative values correspond to a decrease in live C loss. For time series plots, the solid line is the ensemble median (50th percentile) relative to the control ensemble median, and ribboning indicates the IQR (25th–75th percentile range). For the box whiskers plots, the horizontal black line at center denotes the median of the ensemble distribution; the boxes denote the IQR; whiskers denote the range between the IQR and the end-members of the distribution, or 1.5 times the IQR if outliers are present; outliers are denoted by black dots above or below the whiskers; compact letter display indicates significant differences in ensemble means derived from a pairwise ANOVA test (see Section 2.5).

cumulative avoided pyrogenic live C loss (either combusted or moved to the dead C pool; 2,714, 2,993, and 2,330 t, respectively). “Synergy High” also yielded a relatively large increase in 100-year cumulative avoided live C loss—a total reduction of 4,857 t C relative to no-treatment (an 81.3% increase from 2,679 t C, the mean of the constituent three scenarios: “Agency High,” “Access High,” and “Knowledge High”).

Efficacy of a particular treatment scenario and ToE strongly depended on the “outcome” (or response variables of interest). While all nine scenarios achieved emergence with respect to forest cover by mid-century (Figure 5e), only four scenarios (“Synergy High,” “Knowledge High,” “Agency High,” and “Access High”) achieved

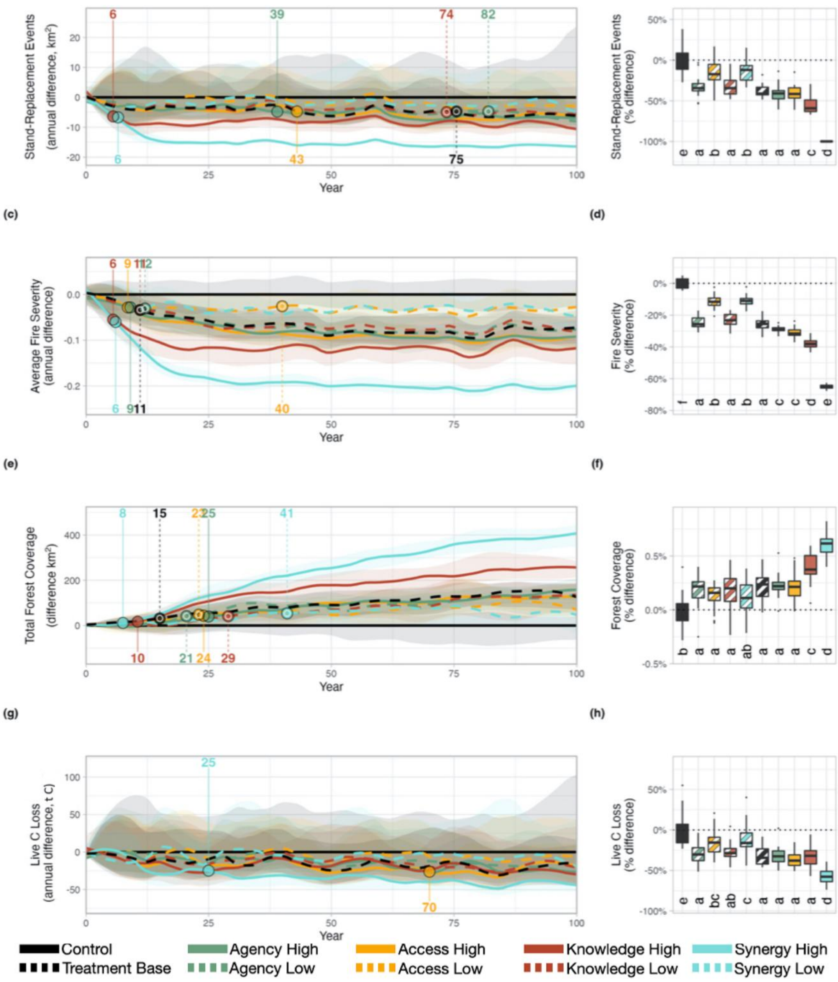

Figure 5. Multiple scenarios representing combinations of political and technical factors limiting spatial treatment allocation (Figure S1 in Supporting Information S1) show relative success in severity reduction for scenarios utilizing precise knowledge of annual fuels distributions to prioritize treatment location. All values are plotted relative to the annual ensemble median value of the no-treatment control scenario. (a) Time series of relative areal differences in pyrogenic stand-replacement events (km^2) and (b) percent difference in ensemble mean values for pyrogenic stand-replacement events relative to the control scenario over years 75–100. Negative values correspond to a reduction in stand mortality events. (c) Time series of relative differences in annual mean fire severity for cells affected by fire and (d) percent difference in ensemble mean values for fire severity relative to the control scenario over years 75–100. Negative values correspond to a reduction in fire severity. (e) Time series of relative differences in overall forest coverage and (f) percent difference in ensemble mean values for overall forest coverage relative to the control scenario over years 75–100. Positive values correspond to an increase in forest coverage. (g) Time series of relative difference in live carbon (t C) lost to wildfire and (h) percent difference in ensemble mean values for live carbon loss relative to the control scenario over years 75–100. Negative values correspond to a decrease in live C loss. For time series plots, the solid line is the ensemble median (50th percentile) relative to the control ensemble median, and ribboning indicates the IQR (25th–75th percentile range). For the box whiskers plots, the horizontal black line at center denotes the median of the ensemble distribution; the boxes denote the IQR; whiskers denote the range between the IQR and the end-members of the distribution, or 1.5 times the IQR if outliers are present; outliers are denoted by black dots above or below the whiskers; compact letter display indicates significant differences in ensemble means derived from a pairwise ANOVA test (see Section 2.5).

emergence with respect to pyrogenic stand-replacement rate during that period, with three more ("Knowledge Low," "Treatment Base," and "Agency Low") only exhibiting emergence around the outset of the final 4th quarter-century (Figure 5a).

The spatial patterns of deployed treatments reflect technical and political constraints associated with infrastructure and land ownership (Figure S2 in Supporting Information S1), and the natural vegetation type distribution (Figure S3 in Supporting Information S1), which affects fuel loading. Collectively, the constraints and

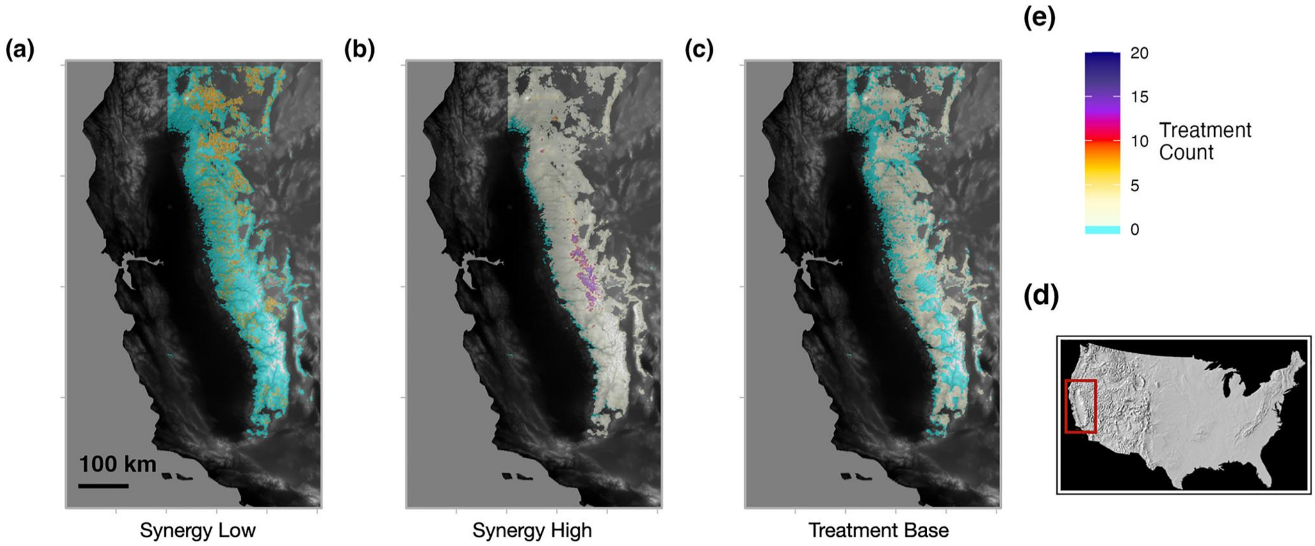

Figure 6. High retreatment frequency of select stands occur in both very spatially restrictive scenarios shown in (a) which shows treatment distributions for model experiment "Synergy Low," and more spatially unrestricted scenarios that prioritize treatment of the most fuel-heavy stands shown in (b) which shows treatment distributions for model experiment "Synergy High." Evenly distributed, lower-intensity treatments are emergent in treatment scenarios with intermediate spatial constraints and fuel-mapping information shown in (c) which shows treatment distributions for model experiment "Treatment Base." Color legend shows the mean ensemble retreatment counts over a 100-year simulation. Untreated areas within the model domain are shown in cyan. Panel (d) indicates the map domain within the larger continental United States.

prioritizations associated with different treatment scenarios resulted in intensive treatment regimes in both highly restrictive scenarios (e.g., "Synergy Low"), and the scenarios targeting vegetation cells with high fuel-loads (e.g., "Synergy High") (Figure 6, Figure S4 in Supporting Information S1). In spatially restrictive scenarios characterized by access or land ownership constraints, treatments clustered and manifested lower retreatment intervals due to the limited number of cells eligible for treatment in the model domain. By contrast, in scenarios targeting higher fuel-loads, treatments clustered in forest types that were associated with the most rapid fuel accumulation (notably Hemlock/Cedar, in higher elevation portions of the mid-latitude Sierra Nevada). Net quantity of dead biomass removal by fuels treatments (Figure S5 in Supporting Information S1) varied by scenario and was closely correlated with treatment efficacy across a number of model diagnostics.

4. Discussion

Vegetation fuels reduction treatments are increasingly being legislated as a means to mitigate accelerating wildfire risk in the western US (Gilles et al., 2018; Hazelhurst, 2020). In this study, we developed a new fuels management module within the coupled vegetation-fire model DYNAFFOREST. We applied DYNAFFOREST to the California Sierra Nevada Mountains, a region where vegetation management is legislated to increase sharply over the coming decade. We evaluated treatment outcomes with respect to pyrogenic stand-replacement rates, fire severity (crown kill fraction), forest coverage change (with respect to nonforest landcover types), and live C loss to fire to understand how fuels reduction treatments impacted the magnitude and earliest measurable achievement (ToE) of treatment effects. Specifically, we tested how annual treatment area, stand-level intensiveness of dead biomass removal, land ownership constraints, landscape accessibility factors, and detailed knowledge of spatial fuels distribution influence subsequent forest fire severity and ecological impacts.

We found that the most appreciable treatment effects occurred in simulations that prioritized treatment allocation based on fuel loading. Lower treatment efficacy occurred when overall area eligible for treatment was constrained by political or technical limitations, or when knowledge of fuel loading was a lower priority. Decreased priority on fuel loading could be compensated for by increasing annual treated area, however in some cases a doubling of annual treated area was required to achieve similar measured reductions in fire severity or live C loss.

4.1. Impacts of Management on Fire Severity

All of the nine simulated treatment scenarios that varied fuel placement according to different land constraints and fuel-loading priorities showed statistically significant reductions in fire severity during the final 4th quarter-century (Figure 5d), and all eight scenarios that achieved emergence ("Synergy High," "Knowledge High," "Access High," "Agency High," "Treatment Base," "Knowledge Low," "Agency Low," and "Access Low") did so before mid-century, with all but "Access Low" occurring by year 12 (Figure 5c). The scenarios that yielded the largest reductions in pyrogenic stand-replacement events, percent crown kill, and live C loss ("Synergy High" and "Knowledge High") achieved emergence with respect to stand mortality reduction after only 6 years of simulation. Because DYNAFFOREST does not currently simulate fire suppression or rate of spread, reductions in fire intensity did not translate into reductions in overall fire size in our results. However, observational studies link reduced fire severity (ecological outcomes from fire) to reduced intensity (total combustive energy output), in turn suggesting reduced rates of spread and increased suppressibility (Wagner, 1977), reducing the damage potential to homes and infrastructure (Kramer et al., 2019).

A detailed breakdown of avoided socioeconomic impacts was not undertaken in this study, and would involve comparing spatial changes to fire severity with a spatially specific representation of critical infrastructure and population. The geography of human vulnerability to fire across the Sierra Nevada region is determined by a multitude of intersecting factors, including many that are relatively insensitive to changes in fire severity alone. Factors in this category include transportation and utilities resilience, building material flammability, and property-level defensive space precautions. For this reason, we suggest that fuels management alone is unlikely to be a panacea for socioeconomic risks posed by wildfire in this region. Nonetheless, our results suggest that fuels treatments coordinated at a regional scale and guided by detailed fuel maps do have the potential to lower aggregate severity regionally, and thereby can likely assist in mitigating risks to human health and safety and negative economic impacts associated with high-severity forest fires.

4.2. Impact of Management on Forest Extent and Carbon Balance

We found statistically significant differences with respect to the no-treatment control scenario over the final fourth quarter-century for all but one simulated treatment ("Synergy Low") when measuring changes in forest cover, and for all simulated treatments when measuring differences in live C loss (Figures 5f and 5h). The treatment scenario with no spatial constraints that prioritized grid cells with high dead fuel loads ("Synergy High") achieved emergence with respect to cumulative live C loss in 25 years, while only one other scenario ("Access High") met emergence criteria in the 100-year simulation period (at year 70). In all cases, the overall avoided C loss was small compared to regional C budgets. For example, in "Synergy High," where we allow precise prioritization of dead fuel loading and assumed no spatial constraints on treatments, cumulative avoided live C loss amounted to 4,857 t C over 100 years, relative to no treatment. In this case, total avoided loss is equivalent to the annual C footprints of ~1.5 typical upper-income (or ~4 typical low-income) US residents (Feng et al., 2021), and would offset just a small fraction (0.0012%) of California's C emissions from the year 2020 (annual) (California Air Resources Board, 2022).

While the removal of dead biomass during treatments also acts in and of itself to decrease total C loss during forest fires (by removing dead biomass that would otherwise burn), cleared dead biomass is typically stacked and burned on-site during fuels treatments, meaning net C flux and C stabilization is not typically reduced through dead biomass removal, except where burn conditions during treatment differ significantly from those in uncontrolled fire (Belcher et al., 2018). Moreover, not all biomass removed during fuels treatments would otherwise burn in forest fires (Campbell et al., 2012). Thus, a substantial fraction of treated fuels are diverted away from heterotrophic respiration and abiotic weathering processes rather than uncontrolled combustion. Since combustion and decomposition of treatable fuels both reallocate C from dead biomass pools to the atmosphere, we consider these fates as functionally equivalent for the purposes of this study, and do not consider differences in the composition of greenhouse gas species released in these distinct processes. This still leaves the C impact of fuels treatment implementation itself, which typically involves the extensive use of internal combustion engines for transportation, gathering fuels, sawing, mastication, and other mechanical processes (Stephens et al., 2009), and would imply net positive C fluxes not accounted for in this study. While opportunities exist for the stabilization of cleared biomass through its integration into novel forestry products (Cabiyo et al., 2021), these technologies are still nascent and are not usually employed in conjunction with fuels treatment protocols. As a result, we conclude that while fuels-reduction treatments may decrease combustive C loss, they will not necessarily increase standing forest C storage, or result in a net negative C balance, a result that is in line with a number of observational studies (Hurteau et al., 2011; Stephens et al., 2009).

4.3. The Importance of Treatment Strategy on Forest Fire Outcomes

We found wide variation in fuels reduction treatment efficacy across all diagnostics including stand kill events, crown kill fraction, live C loss, and forest extent change, depending on how treatment location was prioritized. Model experiments that leveraged hierarchical prioritization based on a detailed knowledge of fuels across the landscape, even with some restrictions to access, reduced fire impacts, mediated forest transitions to grassland (Hill et al., 2023), and achieved a larger treatment effect across other diagnostics compared with simulations with less emphasis on fuel loading. This speaks to the importance of (a) further developing and maintaining updated fuels maps and (b) employing coordinated treatments informed by known fuel-loading geography.

Current vegetation management strategies can be subject to strong path dependencies depending on when funding is allocated, the source of the funding, and the availability of wildland firefighters to oversee treatments, which can often delay management by several years when intense wildfire seasons require resources to be devoted elsewhere. Our treatment scenarios indicate that management strategies that are subject to these constraints may be operating well below than their maximum potential. Further, our results show the importance of prioritizing fuel-heavy stands, emphasizing the relevance of ongoing fuel-mapping and modeling efforts to identify candidate stands for intensive treatments. Finally, though we do find potential for management to mitigate forest fire impacts, significant treatment effects may take a decade or more to manifest at a regional fire-regime scale, depending on the outcome variable of interest. In a policy environment where projects and funding frequently operate on 2- to 4-year time scales commensurate with the standard election cycle, and are typically legislated and evaluated at regional scales, these results highlight the importance of sustained forest management policies that operate on ecological as opposed to political timescales.

4.4. Future Work to Determine Management Outcomes Across Broad Spatial and Long Temporal Scales

The effects of fuels reduction treatments have implications for a wide variety of domains such as nature-based C management or insurance risks for housing in the wildland urban interface. However, most empirical studies, due to costs and practicality constraints, occur at the stand scale (Moreau et al., 2022). Process-based models that are benchmarked for key processes like prognostic fuels accumulation and fire-fuels sensitivities are one of the only tools available for understanding the sensitivity of wildfire regimes to fuels reduction treatments across large spatial scales and at long temporal scales. Remote sensing data on a number of wildfire diagnostics such as fire severity, subcanopy fuels, and C combusted from wildfire have the potential to be leveraged to further understand how fuels reduction protocols influence outcomes of interest and improve model benchmarking. Presently, many of these desired remote sensing capabilities are limiting, but provide an exciting opportunity for future research (Gale et al., 2021).

5. Conclusion

Vegetation fuels treatments are emerging as a key strategy to mitigate rapidly increasing wildfire risk in the western US. We found that treatment scenarios that strongly prioritize stands based on the regional fuel distribution were most successful at controlling fire severity and secondarily at reducing live C loss. However, we also found that extensive inter-jurisdictional participation across public and private lands, as well as ambitious treatment of remote and rugged areas, can compensate for lowered prioritization of the regional fuel distribution. Even treatments with substantial spatial constraints that strongly prioritized stands according to regional fuel distributions yielded statistically significant results across all measured response variables, but these effects did not become measurable until several decades later than less spatially constrained scenarios with the same fuels distribution information. Though the best-performing scenario yielded impressive reductions in fire severity, stand-replacement events, and forest cover loss, the cumulative quantity of avoided live C loss to fire relative to the control scenario was relatively small (up to 4,857 t C over one century for extremely intensive treatment scenarios) in the context of California's overall carbon budget (equivalent to 0.0012% of annual statewide emissions in 2020) (California Air Resources Board, 2022).

While further research is needed to understand the efficacy of fuels management as a strategy for C emissions reduction, our results suggest that fuels treatments may not represent an efficient strategy for limiting statewide C emissions or increasing naturally sequestered C. More relevant gains are represented by the overall control on fire severity achieved by fuels reduction treatments. Research suggests that low-severity wildfire can promote important ecosystem functions, including elevated soil C sequestration, the maintenance of higher floral biodiversity, and increased stream water quality. In our treatment protocols that were most effective at reducing fire severity, fire severity was maintained below stand-killing thresholds almost universally across the region. Although this result may be unattainable in practice due to practical limitations on treatment allocation and intensiveness, our work suggests that fire severity mitigation through fuels treatments may help promote a fire regime characterized by lower severity, more containable, and less ecologically deleterious forest fires. However, these ameliorating effects may only manifest after several decades of coordinated fuels treatments across the region.

Data Availability Statement

Model software for this research is documented in Hansen et al. (2022), with additional treatment module software available in Daum (2023a, 2023b) Data sets used for analyses in this publication (902.85 MB) are available in Daum (2023a, 2023b).

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Erratum

In the originally published version of this article, coauthor Andrew J. Plantinga's affiliation was incorrect. The correct affiliation is Bren School of Environmental Science and Management, University of California, Santa Barbara, CA, USA. The error has corrected, and this may be considered the authoritative version of the record.