**Next-generation mapping for regional smoke management and emissions inventories: incorporating underlying uncertainty in wildland fuel characterization**

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**Introduction**

Mapping vegetation and biomass is increasingly relied upon to inform wildfire hazard assessments (Rollins 2009, Scott et al. 2013) emissions inventories (e.g., US EPA 2017), carbon mapping (Blackard et al. 2007, Pan et al. 2011), and wildland fire, fuels and smoke planning at regional to local scales. Traditionally, single biomass values have been assigned to mapped pixels and used as best-estimate values, often based on broadly classified vegetation type and assignment based on look up tables or nearest neighbor imputation methods (e.g., Rollins et al. 2004, Pierce et al. 2009, Keane et al. 2013, Riley et al. 2016). In reality, wildland fuels are highly dynamic and variabile across time and space (Keane et al. 2012). It would be untenable to measure and then map fuels over an entire continent at the characteristic scales at which they vary.

Fuel mapping therefore generally relies on classifications of fuels based on mapped vegetation or interpretation of remotely sensed imagery. For example, LANDFIRE maps surface and canopy fuel characteristics across the United States, assigning fuelbeds from the Fuel Characteristics Classification System (Ottmar et al. 2007), fuel loading models (Lutes et al. 2009), fire behavior fuel models (Anderson 1982) and canopy characteristics based on remotely sensed imagery and other data layers. Mapped fuels are often represented as a discrete estimates of biomass by fuel type, commonly referred to as fuel loadings (e.g., shrub, herbaceous, downed wood by size class, litter and organic soil or duff). For biomass or emissions inventories (e.g., US EPA 2017) these maps summarize fuel characteristics at relatively coarse scales (1-km pixels) and aggregate finer-scale variability.

Advances are being made in biomass mapping that relies on statistically-derived relationships between field measures of biomass and remotely sensed datasets. Currently, satellite imagery such as Landsat Thematic Mapper (30m resolution) and repeat-pass interferometric synthetic aperture radar such as Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) data layers can be used to map biomass and carbon (e.g., Thurner et al. 2014). Combinations of spaceborne and airborne light detection and ranging (LiDAR) offer promising advances in higher-resolution vegetation mapping because LiDAR methods can penetrate canopy layers and do not have oversaturation errors as with other satellite imagery associated with higher above-ground biomass (Boudreau et al. 2008, Hu et al. 2016). All remote sensing techniques rely on field-based estimates of surface and canopy fuels and assessments of uncertainty in relationships and classifications.

Underlying fuel classifications, however, is uncertainty in fuel estimates that is generally not acknowledged, much less quantified (other ref? Congalton et al. 2014). For example, it is not particularly informative to validate individual pixels in a continental-scale fuel map using plot-level data that may not represent the full pixel – such a validation will inevitably fail (Keane et al. 2013). Nor is it defensible to represent all instances of a fuel type by the same set of fuel loadings, as these vary at multiple spatial scales and are generally independent of each other.

The best practice for mapping data with inherent spatial variability is to represent the underlying uncertainty in the base fuels layer. This measure of uncertainty then can be used to understand the reliability of the fuel loading estimates and also to evaluate how uncertainty propagates to variability in modeled response variables such as predicted wildland fire emissions which are generally highly dependent on available fuel and consumption (Larkin et al. 2014). If it is found that emissions estimates are particularly sensitive to certain fuel categories in a major vegetation type (e.g., forest floor in boreal forests or coarse wood in temperate mixed forests), this finding could help guide future field sampling efforts and for fire and fuels managers to provide finer-scale characterization of those fuel categories (Urbanski 2014, Peterson et al. 2018). If the estimated emissions in some fuel categories are insensitive to uncertainty, then a default representation (e.g., a mean value) is likely adequate.

For many modeling studies of wildland fire and vegetation, the importance of incorporating uncertainty is the foundation of simulations. For example, coarse-scale dynamic vegetation models draw inputs from probability distributions in order to model stochastic processes of fire and climate (Quillet et al. 2010, Shankar et al. 2018). Models for emissions inventories are becoming increasingly sophisticated and require corresponding complexity in input fuels datasets. Despite the acknowledged variability of fuels at multiple spatial scales (Keane et al. 2012), there are currently no products that incorporate uncertainty in estimating the biomass of wildland fuels in North America.

In this study, we developed a geospatial database of measured fuel loading values to characterize the inherent variability of fuels within and across major vegetation types of the United States and Canada and to identify gaps in fuels observations. For vegetation types that had sufficient quantification of fuels by major category (e.g., canopy, shrub, herbaceous, downed wood, litter and duff), we developed probability distributions of observed fuel biomass, hereafter referred to as fuel loads, by major category. Published probability distributions will be useful for informing the first-generation fuels mapping that incorporates uncertainty estimates by major fuel category. Results of this study also will help inform future sampling needs to better represent the biomass of wildland fuels.

**Methods**

*Fuel loading database*

The U.S. Fuel Loading Database was created as part of a JFSP-funded project (15-1-01-1 Mapping Fuels for Regional Smoke Management and Emissions Inventories). The database stores existing dry-weight biomass measurements by major fuel category across the United States. Our team started by compiling existing databases and importing fuel loadings in a standard unit of measure (Mg/ha). Existing databases, including the source data for fuel loading models (Lutes et al. 2009) and LANDFIRE public source reference database (https://www.landfire.gov/lfrdb.php) were compilations of published literature and plot data. Table 1 lists the databases and provides a brief description and a source reference. We next conducted a literature review of biomass, fuel characterization and fuel consumption literature and added over 150 individual references. Minimum standards for including observations in the database were that they: 1) contained a source reference such as FIA inventory plot and sample year or journal article citation, 2) had an identifiable vegetation type, and 3) relied on field measurements as opposed to photo monitoring sites or other visual estimations.

As the database was assembled, we performed a series of quality assurance and control measures. We first screened any records that did not have geospatial location. For each of these records, we attempted to assign a geospatial location and standardized existing location data into latitude and longitude (decimal degrees). In some cases, it was necessary to look up site locations based on site descriptions. Many records (n = 2470) had geospatial location but no assigned vegetation type or information. For these, we overlaid record locations with the EVT Groups layer in ArcGIS and assigned a likely EVT Group based on spatial location. Due to the potential assignment errors incurred by spatial assignment, we tagged each of these records as having auto-assigned vegetation types. Fuel loading values were summarized into fields defined in Table 2. In many instances, simple summations were required to create summary inputs (e.g. herbaceous load was calculated as the sum of forb and graminoid loadings and total CWD is the sum of all sound and rotten coarse wood classes).

To group fuel loading observations by vegetation type, a standard mapping classification was needed. Because LANDFIRE is a widely used mapping source of geospatial fuels and vegetation, we chose to use Existing Vegetation Type Group (www.landfire.gov/NationalProductDescriptions21.php). There are 640 existing vegetation types within LANDFIRE and a total of 207 EVT Groups. Given that the objective of the database was to quantify the distribution of fuel loads within vegetation types, we opted to use a more generic vegetation classification (EVT Group), which is provided within the LANDFIRE EVT layer, to ensure greater numbers of records within each vegetation group. It also reduced uncertainty in assigning vegetation type to each record. Most records within the database had either a general description of vegetation, a listing of major species, a Society of American Foresters or Society of Rangeland Management cover type, or a more general Forest Type (e.g., FIA plots). We developed crosswalk tables to convert cover and forest types to EVT Groups. For records that only had a general vegetation description, we individually assigned a vegetation type.

For every record that had a published source reference, we obtained the source reference and included a full citation. For quality assurance and quality control, we subsampled 30% of all source references and confirmed that entered data was accurate. Most identified errors were simple rounding errors and were corrected. In a few cases, some fuel categories were missing from the inputs and were added from the published source. In other cases, fuel categories were inaccurate and corrected within the database entries. *Should we calculate any error rate?*

As the database was compiled, supported fuel loading fields were expanded to accommodate various studies and approaches. Table 2 presents the fuel loading fields and definitions within the database. Many categories are sparsely populated but are included because they are important within particular EVT Groups. For example, moss and ground lichen are important in many boreal and subboreal vegetation types but are relatively rare in other ecosystems and associated EVT Groups.

The fuel loading database includes data from 292 sources from existing fuel loading databases and scientific literature. Entries from existing databases were presumed to be quality checked by the source agency and were not rechecked. A random selection of 15-20% of the literature sources were checked for data entry errors, including errors in unit conversions, standardizations of woody fuel size classes, and site descriptors. Due to the extent of data entry errors an additional 10% of the literature sources were checked to ensure a higher level of accuracy.

**Table 1**: Major source databases within the Fuel Loading database.

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Database** | **Number of records** | **Years** | **Source** |
| FFS | 128 |  | Fire and fire surrogates (McIvor) |
| FLM database | 8555 - REDUCED |  | Source data for the fuel loading model development (Keane) |
| FOFEM fuels | 1095 |  | Old database compiled to inform FOFEM fuel loading profiles (Reinhardt, Lutes) |
| Forest Inventory and Analysis Program | 15,061 | 2015 | David Chojnacky, University of Vermont– downloaded from - <http://web.gis.vt.edu/forestry/dwm/index.php> |
| LFRDB | 18,012 |  | LFRDB\_Public\_20100122.mdb |
| Natural Fuels Photo Series | 550 | 1998-2016 | <https://www.fs.fed.us/pnw/fera/research/fuels/photo_series> |

**Table 2**: Fuel loading database fields and definitions. To date, the database contains nearly 40,000 records and was designed to accommodate additional records as they become available.

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Field** | **Definition** | **Sample entry** |
| LFEVTGroupID | Unique ID for each EVT Group number | 693 |
| LFEVTGroup | EVT Group Name | Spruce-Fir-Hardwood Forest |
| sourceID | Unique ID for each source reference | 571 |
| Source | Source reference | Natural Fuels Photo Series Volume Iia, PMS 836 |
| studyPointID | Unique study point ID | 48753 |
| Plotname | Plot name if provided | AKHD 15 |
| State | State name | AK |
| inventoryYear | Inventory or sampling year | 2007 |
| veg\_notes | Vegetation description | Closed spruce-paper birch forest |
| us\_loading: Mg/ha | Understory crown loading (check) | 1.52 |
| ms\_loading: Mg/ha | Midstory crown loading (check) | 22.88 |
| os\_loading: Mg/ha | Overstory crown loading (check) | 91.32 |
| tree\_crown\_loading: Mg/ha | Total tree crown loading - sum of understory, midstory and overstory |  |
| tree\_loading: Mg/ha | Total aboveground tree biomass, including boles |  |
| snag\_loading: Mg/ha | Total aboveground biomass of dead trees, all decay classes | 13.56 |
| shrub\_loading: Mg/ha | Total aboveground biomass of shrubs | 3.43 |
| herb\_loading: Mg/ha | Total aboveground biomass of herbaceous plants including grasses and other nonwoody plants | 0.06 |
| 1hr\_loading: Mg/ha | 0-1/4 inch or 0.67 cm diameter wood | 0.9 |
| 10hr\_loading: Mg/ha | 1/4 to 1 inch or 0.67 to 2.54 cm diameter wood | 1.34 |
| 100hr\_loading: Mg/ha | 1-3 inch or 2.54 to 7.6 cm diameter wood | 2.46 |
| fwd\_loading: Mg/ha | Sum of fine wood (1, 10, 100-hr) wood |  |
| 1KhrS\_loading: Mg/ha | Sound wood 3 to 9 inches or 7.62 to 22.86 cm diameter (S1000hr wood) | 0.22 |
| 1KhrR\_loading: Mg/ha | Rotten wood 3 to 9 inches or 7.62 to 22.86 cm diameter (R1000hr wood) | 0 |
| 1Khr\_loading: Mg/ha | Sum of 1000hr wood |  |
| 10KhrS\_loading: Mg/ha | Sound wood 9 to 20 inches or 22.86 to 50.8 cm diameter (S10,000hr wood) | 0 |
| 10KhrR\_loading: Mg/ha | Rotten wood 9 to 20 inches or 22.86 to 50.8 cm diameter (R10,000hr wood) | 0 |
| 10Khr\_loading: Mg/ha | Sum of 10,000hr wood |  |
| GT10KhrS\_loading: Mg/ha | Sound wood > 20 inches or 50.8 cm diameter (S >10,000hr wood) |  |
| GT10KhrR\_loading: Mg/ha | Rotten wood > 20 inches or 50.8 cm diameter (R >10,000hr wood) |  |
| GT10Khr\_loading: Mg/ha | Sum of >10,000hr wood |  |
| cwd\_sound\_loading: Mg/ha | Sum of sound coarse wood (1000, 10,000, and >10,000hr wood) |  |
| cwd\_rotten\_loading: Mg/ha | Sum of rotten coarse wood (1000, 10,000, and >10,000hr wood) |  |
| cwd\_loading: Mg/ha | Sum of coarse wood (1000, 10,000, and >10,000hr wood) |  |
| moss\_loading: Mg/ha | Biomass of surface fuel cryptograms (arboreal moss not included) | 1.48 |
| lichen\_loading: Mg/ha | Biomass of ground lichens (arboreal lichens not included) | 0 |
| litter\_depth: cm | Depth of the litter layer (Oi soil layer) is included because many sources record this instead of loading. A generic bulk density value can be used to estimate biomass from this. |  |
| litter\_loading: Mg/ha | Litter biomass (Oi soil layer) | 4.68 |
| duff\_depth: cm | Depth of the duff layer (Oe and Oa soil layers) is included because many sources record this instead of loading. A generic bulk density value can be used to estimate biomass from this. |  |
| duff\_loading: Mg/ha | Duff biomass (combined upper and lower duff layers) |  |

*Fuel loading distributions*

Database values were clustered by LANDFIRE EVT Groups. All analyses were conducted in the R statistical program (version 3.4.1; R Core Team 2017), and distributions estimated using the R fitdistr package (). To identify candidate distributions to fit to individual fuel loading categories an exploratory data analysis (EDA) was conducted on select EVT Groups with substantial representation (> 1000 entries) in a preliminary version of the database. Histograms, boxplots, and normal QQ plots were used to understand prominent distribution shapes and to identify any possibly outlying entries (which were then checked in QA/QC efforts).

Two prominent characteristics of the fuel loading distributions were revealed by the exploratory data analysis. The first was that many of the fuel types had a high proportion of values that were zero, and the second was that the fuel loading distributions tended to be right-skewed rather than symmetric.

Zeroes

It is common in empirical studies of biomass (or, more commonly, abundance) for there to be excessive density at zero [@Welsh1996, @Lecomte2013] relative to the density functions commonly estimated for such data. Often the non-zero distribution is skewed to the right, implying a distribution such as the log-normal or the gamma distribution is more appropriate than the normal distribution [@Lecomte2013]. One method to contend with excessive density at zero is to estimate two models for the data, one that predicts the probability of observing a zero, and a second that models the distribution of non-zero values [@Welsh1996, @Lachenbruch2002]. It can be shown that the maximum likelihood estimate for the two-part model can be obtained by finding maximum likelihood estimates for each part individually [@Welsh1996, @Duan1983]. Such a two-stage (two-part) estimation procedure has been called by many names, but we will use the nomenclature of a "hurdle model,". Qualitatively, the hurdle to be crossed is having a non-zero fuel loading, and once that hurdle is crossed (x>0) a continuous distribution is estimated for the data. The density function for the jth fuel type in the kth EVT group (fkj(x)) can be written as [@Lachenbruch2002]:

fkj(x,d)= πkj1-d ((1-πkj)hkj(x))d, (1)

where h(x) is the estimated continuous distribution function (in this case, gamma or lognormal) for x>0, d = 1 if x non-zero, 0 if x 0, and π is the probability of observing a zero. For this distribution, the expected value is:

E(x) = (1-π)E(h(x)) (2)

For the continuous portion of each fuel type (in each EVT group) we estimated and compared lognormal and gamma distributions, where the lognormal probability distribution function, with parameters μ, σ, is written as:

x > 0 (3),

where σ is the standard deviation of ln (x) and μ is the mean of ln(x). The expected value of the lognormal distribution is:

(4)

The gamma probability distribution function, with parameters α, β, is written as:

x>0 (5)

With expected value:

E(x) = αβ (6)

Estimation of the hurdle distribution occurs in two steps. Let nkj be the total number of entries in the database for a particular fuel type (j) in a particular EVT group (k), and xkji be the ith fuel loading value for fuel type j in EVT group k. Then:

1. Estimate where I is an indicator function that takes a value of 1 if the entry has a value of 0, 0 otherwise and is the estimation probability of zero loading.

2. For the remaining non-zero entries (x), use the fitdistr function in the R fitdistrplus package to find the maximum likelihood estimates of distribution parameters for the lognormal and gamma distributions.

For initial distribution fitting we decided on a minimum of 30 *non-zero entries* required for a distribution to be estimated. This balanced our ability to estimate more distributions with the uncertainty in estimating distributions for small sample sizes (where with 95% confidence n = 30 is expected to obtain an estimated distribution with cumulative distribution function at most 0.25 away from the true cumulative distribution [@Massart1990]. (See supplementary material for error analysis for distribution fitting)

Assessing distribution estimates

Note that there are 30 total fuel types, and \*\*\_?\_\_\*\* total EVT groups in the current database. In general it is best-practice to inspect distribution fits graphically as part of an assessment of the distribution fit, but this is untenable with so many individual distributions that will be estimated. We will use several goodness of fit quantities to evaluate the distribution fits, with graphical spot-checks of distributions for which the goodness of fit values are not satisfactory (see below; or possibly describe in supplementary material).

Kolmogorov-Smirnov test

The Kolmogorov-Smirnov (KS) test is used for the null hypothesis that a given data set follows a specified theoretical distribution. In general it is designed for situations where the full theoretical distribution is specified *a priori*, and performs poorly if distribution parameter values estimated from the data are used to specify the distribution for the KS test [@Lilliefors1967]. We used a Monte-Carlo (MC) procedure to estimate the p-value for the estimated distribution against the data, where a smaller p-value indicates that the observed data is statistically different than the estimated distribution (following [@Lilliefors1967]).

The MC procedure: calculate KS statistic for observed distribution relative to "theoretical" distribution at estimated parameter values. Then, for 5000 MC replicates, take n (n=number of observed values in original distribution fit) random draws from "theoretical" distribution at estimated parameter values. For each of these, estimate the same theoretical distribution, then perform KS test of random to theoretical distribution at estimated parameter values. This will generate 5000 KS values when the null hypothesis is true, thus a "null" distribution. The p-value is then calculated as:

(7)

where nmc is the number of MC replicates in the null distribution (5000), di is the value of the KS statistic foe MC replicate i, and dobs is the observed value of the KS statistic. I is an indicator function that takes a value of 1 if the observed statistic is greater than the simulated, 0 otherwise. The sum tallies the number of simulated statistics are smaller than the observed statistic. Note that we divide by nmc+1 because we have nmc+1total statistics (including dobs). We can then evaluate, against some α level of significance, which if any distributions are "fail to reject" (ftr).

Interpretation of the KS test, for an application like this, suffers from two issues related to sample size. At low sample sizes the test has less statistical power to reject the null hypothesis, such that with low sample size a fail to reject result (ftr) does not necessarily provide evidence in favor of the estimated distribution (the null hypothesis). A large sample size presents the opposite problem--as sample size increases, the effect size necessary to reject the null hypothesis decreases. At large sample sizes this means that although the observed data are statistically different than the estimated distribution, the difference may not be of practical significance. We use equivlance tests to aid our interpretation of the goodness of fit between observed data and estimated distributions.

Equivalence test: TOST

Robinson and Froese [-@Robinson2004] recommend an equivalence test to compare empirical data to model predictions using a two-one-sided t-test (TOST). In equivalence testing a maximum allowable error (or error tolerance) is defined, and the null hypothesis is that the observed distribution is outside of the error tolerance relative to the theoretical distribution. If the observed distribution is seen to be within the maximum error (or error tolerance), then the null hypothesis is rejected and the observed data is judged to be "equivalent" to the theoretical distribution (within the error tolerance). Here we use TOST to assess adequate matching between our observed empirical cumulative distribution of fuel type and the theoretical cdf associated with each candidate distribution. Let x(i) be the ith quantile of the empirical data distribution, and be the ith quantile of the theoretical distribution. Then the difference between the observed and theoretical cumulative distributions (xdi) is:

We then calculate as the mean distance between observed and theoretical cumulative distributions, and use TOST to determine statistically if the observed and theoretical distributions differ by more than a specified error tolerance ε. This requires an error tolerance to be specified, which for our application would be a relatively arbitrarily defined threshold.

Prichard et al [-@Prichard2014] use a similar equivalence procedure to evaluate the uncertainty of the fits of observed fuel consumption relative to those predicted by empirical consumption equations. For their analysis, rather than choosing a single arbitrary error threshold, they repeated the equivalence test with increasing ε until the first epsilon at which the equivalence test null hypothesis was rejected. This then defined the bound of uncertainty for that fuel type. We adapt their approach here, repeating the equivalence test for increasing error thresholds between observed and theoretical distributions for distributions estimated both with zeroes (and an offset), and distributions estimated for only values > 0. We then compare the minimum ε that rejects the null hypothesis to assess the uncertainty in the distribution estimates.

For assessing distribution estimates, the best fits would be fuel types with a KS p-value > α, and a small ε value for the equivalence procedure outlined above. We assigned broad goodness of fit classifications based on these two goodness of fit metrics. A fit was considered excellent if it was based on ≥ 100 entries, associated with a non-significant KS MC p-value, and had an ε value ≤ 0.05. A fit was considered good if it was based on ≥ 30 entries, had a non-significant KS p-value, and 0.05 < ε ≤ 0.15; alternatively, a fit was considered good if it has > 30 entries, and a significant KS MC p-value associated with an ε ≤ 0.05. A fit was considered poor if it has ≥ 30 entries, associated with a significant KS p-value and a large (> 0.15) ε value. The distribution was not estimated for any fuel type X EVT group combination with < 30 entries, and assigned an NA here.

\*\*\*\*This is a draft rating scheme. Need to check the ε thresholds, spot-checking some graphs to see what is a good upper value and still not be a poor fit\*\*\*\*\*

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| n | ≥ 100 |  | [30,100) |  |
| GOF | KS | ε | KS | ε |
| Excellent | > 0.05 | (0,0.05] |  |  |
| Good | > 0.05 | (0.05,0.15] | > 0.05 | ≤ 0.15 |
| or Good | < 0.05 | (0, 0.05] | < 0.05 | ≤ 0.05 |
| Poor | < 0.05 | > 0.15 | < 0.05 | >0.15 |
| NA | NA | NA |  |  |

Uncertainty in distribution estimates

Finally, we use a bootstrap procedure to estimate a standard deviation for estimated distribution parameter values, and to generate a 95% confidence interval for each distribution parameter value. The bootstrap estimates are generated using the bootdist function in the fitdistrplus package. In general, for a bootstrap, the observed data are resampled with replacement and the distribution parameters estimated for each resampling. This is repeated 5000 times to generate a distribution of parameter values. From this bootstrap distribution a standard deviation can be calculated, and a 95% confidence interval as the 0.025 and 0.975 quantiles of the boostrap distribution.

Outliers

On preliminary exploratory analysis, and as part of our quality assurance effort, we identified extreme outliers in the database as any value > Q3 + 4\*IQR, where Q3 is the third quartile for the empirical distribution and IQR is the interquartile range (Q3-Q1). First we determined if the outlier was due to an error in rounding, units or data entry. For those values that were not entered in error, we estimated distributions both with and without the value of the identified outlier. Below we give results for distributions estimated without outliers. All distribution estimates, both with and without outliers, are given in Supplementary Material.

EVT groups and fuel types

For the purposes of demonstrating comparisons of distributions among fuel types and EVT groups we present here distributions for EVT groups: (\_\_\_\_) and the following fuel types: (\_\_\_). We chose these comparisons because (...). Results for all other EVT groups and fuel types are given in supplementary material (S for graphics, S for Excel file of master tables).

**RESULTS**

Results

Summary of EVTGroups and number of observations

Identified data gaps (maybe call this data coverage, or EVT group coverage)

Of the \_\_\_ LF EVT Groups, we were able to identify fuel loading estimates for \_\_\_\_. Of those, \_\_\_\_ had sufficient entries to estimate at least one of the fuel types (Table—see structure below, probably a supplementary table, or some kind of figure)

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| EVTGroup | FuelType1 |  |  |
|  | nentries |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |

Empirical distribution estimates

The results of all empirical distributions that were estimated are given in supplementary material. Here we give example results for representative EVT groups and fuel types.

**DISCUSSION**

* Characterizing uncertainty in fuels
* Demonstrating complex patterns in variability in fuel types
* Potential applications
  + Improved emissions inventories (adding error bars to estimates)
  + Simulation modeling (draw from known distributions of fuel loadings by category)
  + Global Climate Models
  + Carbon mapping
  + Inform SA/UA
* Identified data gaps – future research needs

**CONCLUSIONS**

1. Future development (maintenance, expansion to North American fuels)
2. Importance of quantifying variability and uncertainty

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