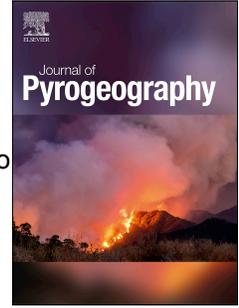


Journal Pre-proof



Including prescribed burning in fire modelling: a case study from the Brazilian Cerrado using the JULES-INFERNO model

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Journal Pre-proof

Including prescribed burning in fire modelling: a case study from the Brazilian Cerrado using the JULES-INFERN0 model

Abstract: Prescribed burning (PB) is an important prevention activity under fire management. Similarly to other fire-prone settings, PB in the Cerrado is often implemented in protected areas to prevent intense wildfires in the drier months. We modelled burned area and fire carbon emissions in the Cerrado with the JULES-INFERN0 model over a 30-year period (1990-2019), to evaluate the impacts of PB on a biome-scale. We first improve representation of the Cerrado in JULES-INFERN0, then simulate PB by setting an additional ignition to C4 grass during the early dry season. This is a counterfactual experiment where the PB additional set-up can be adapted to other regions worldwide. Over the 30 years, PB applied in the early dry season reduced burned area and fire emissions in the late dry season by 9.28% year⁻¹ and 11.24% year⁻¹, respectively, when compared to the non-PB scenario. In years with increased fire activity, the reductions are higher than average. Our results are not effective on the annual balance. Our sensitivity experiment with increased EDS burnings suggests that shifting fire activity earlier in the season may reduce the impacts of uncontrolled fires in the Cerrado. To our knowledge, this is one of the few studies to explicitly include PB within a dynamic vegetation model, and to adjust a global model to better represent the Cerrado's fire predictions. Prospective studies are recommended to improve the understanding of the model's performance, including analysis of modelled parameters such as the C4 grass post-fire recovery, and the integration between observational and modelled data.

Keywords: Brazilian Cerrado. Fire emissions. Fire modelling. Integrated Fire Management. Prescribed burning.

1. Introduction

The Brazilian Cerrado (hereafter "the Cerrado") is heavily regulated by fire, and has likely evolved with fire for at least four million years (Simon et al., 2009). The Cerrado comprises a mosaic of vegetation formations, or physiognomies, that range from grasslands, to savannas, to forest formations (Ribeiro & Walter, 2008). These diverse vegetation types influence fire by providing a variety of fuel types and microclimatic conditions across its extent (Flannigan et al., 2009; Gomes, Miranda, Soares-Filho, et al., 2020), with climatic drivers of fire in the Cerrado differing greatly across the biome (Silva et al., 2025).

As in other savanna environments, the dominance of fine fuel load is the main cause of the high flammability in the Cerrado (Hoffmann et al., 2012; Zanzarini et al., 2022). The open formations of the Cerrado (grasslands and savannas) are dominated by grasses and herbs with few shrubs and trees (Ribeiro & Walter, 2008). Open formations also have higher wind speed, higher air temperature, lower relative humidity, and lower fuel moisture than forest formations (Hoffmann et al., 2012). The combination of fuel and climate results in more intense fires in grasslands and savannas in the Cerrado (Hoffmann et al., 2012).

The Cerrado presents two distinct seasons: rainy or wet season (November-March), characterized by biomass accumulation and high fuel moisture, and dry season (April-

44 October), when the accumulated biomass available for burning becomes highly flammable
45 and fire can rapidly spread (Gomes, Miranda, Soares-Filho, et al., 2020; Hoffmann et al., 2012;
46 Silva et al., 2021). Natural fires are rare in the Cerrado, but occur due to lightning in the rainy
47 season, producing low-intensity fires since the vegetation still holds high moisture content
48 (Ramos-Neto & Pivello, 2000). Fires resulting from anthropogenic activities persist over a
49 longer period and occur mainly in the dry season (Ramos-Neto & Pivello, 2000). As a result,
50 intense wildfires in the Cerrado tend to occur in the late dry season (LDS; August-October)
51 (Moura et al., 2019; Silva et al., 2021) when fuel load is higher and drier. Thus, fire occurrence
52 and dynamics in the Cerrado are also seasonal and highly dependent on fuel characteristics,
53 climatic conditions and ignition patterns (Da Veiga et al., 2025).

54 Due to climate change, higher temperatures and reduced precipitation are now more
55 common in the Cerrado (Gomes, Miranda, Soares-Filho, et al., 2020; Hofmann et al., 2021).
56 According to the IPCC AR6 WGI/WGII (IPCC 2021; 2022) and UNEP “Spreading like Wildfire”
57 report (UNEP, 2022), climate change is increasing the risk of fire occurrence and the intensity
58 and frequency of extreme events, such as wildfires. These may result in increased burned
59 area, progressively explained by climate change worldwide (Burton et al., 2024; Jones et al.,
60 2022).

61 Fire and climate regulate one another – fire emissions contribute to the increase of
62 greenhouse gases concentration in the atmosphere, which then creates warmer and drier
63 conditions that facilitates the occurrence of more fires (Andela et al., 2017; Flannigan et al.,
64 2009). Conversely, increased fire activity reduces carbon fuel, limiting fire occurrence in some
65 ecosystems (Pausas & Keeley, 2014). Climate-carbon feedbacks are large in fire-prone
66 settings such as the Cerrado, which are dry enough for flammability, but wet enough for fuel.
67 These ecosystems are arguably more vulnerable to climate change and more important than
68 most in determining global carbon cycle feedback. Managing fire in these ecosystems could
69 therefore be an efficient climate mitigation strategy.

70 During biomass burning, a large amount of carbon gases is released into the
71 atmosphere. These emissions are mainly in the form of carbon dioxide (CO₂), carbon
72 monoxide (CO), and methane (CH₄) – CO₂ and CO combined account for 95% of the carbon
73 emitted during biomass burning (Ward & Hardy, 1991). Actions to avoid the release of carbon
74 or to increase carbon storage, termed natural climate solutions (NCS), have emerged as a
75 possibility to reduce the effects of climate change (Griscom et al., 2020). Tropical NCS, like
76 fire management, could mitigate 6.56 Pg CO₂ year⁻¹ between 2030 and 2050 (Griscom et al.,
77 2020).

78 In Brazil, Federal Legislation explicitly allows fire management for conservation
79 purposes since 2012 (Law 12,651/2012). Fire management and integrated fire management
80 (IFM) encompass a set of activities, from fire prevention to fire suppression depending on the

81 management goal. One common practice under IFM is prescribed burning (MYERS, 2006).
82 From a national perspective, prescribed burning in Brazil is primarily conducted in the early
83 dry season (EDS) by Federal environmental agencies within protected areas (PAs), meaning
84 they are targeted to specific contexts that vary greatly from one PA to the other. Representing
85 this diversity within fire management planning is difficult, hindering the understanding and the
86 implementation of prescribed burning in the biome-scale.

87 From a cultural perspective, prescribed burning is conducted by Indigenous Peoples
88 and Local Communities (IPLCs) for fuel load control and reducing risk of high-intensity LDS
89 wildfires (Bilbao et al., 2025). Historically and still today, other cultural burns are conducted by
90 IPLCs in their territories in the Cerrado for multiple purposes, including flowering and fruit
91 production, control of invasive species, maintenance of ecological balance and biodiversity,
92 hunting, enhancement of pasture regrowth for cattle raising, slash-and-burn agriculture, and
93 ritual and ceremonial practices (Bilbao et al., 2025; Mistry et al., 2005). These burns are
94 implemented at the landscape scale and at different periods throughout the dry season, with
95 some being intentionally carried out during LDS, such as slash-and-burn practices (Bilbao et
96 al., 2025; Mistry et al., 2005).

97 In 2024, Brazil approved the Integrated Fire Management National Policy (Law
98 14,944/2024), which aims to prevent wildfires and reduce their intensity and severity. The
99 Policy also mentions greenhouse gas emission reductions, but it remains unclear whether
100 these refer to annual, cumulative, or wildfire-specific emissions. In all cases, a central objective
101 of the Policy is to improve understanding of the impacts of IFM activities, including prescribed
102 burning.

103 Despite the increasing recognition of fire's importance to the Cerrado and the
104 subsequent expansion of fire management operations, few studies have been published
105 investigating the impacts in burned area and fire carbon emissions due to prescribed burning
106 in a biome-scale, when compared to other savanna countries such as Australia (Da Veiga &
107 Nikolakis, 2022).

108 This study introduces the JULES-INFERNO Cerrado, which sets a counterfactual
109 experiment where prescribed burning is applied at a biome-scale to assess its impact in terms
110 of burned area and fire carbon emissions, using the JULES-INFERNO model. Joint UK Land
111 Environment Simulator (JULES) represents the land surface component of the UK Earth
112 System Model (UKESM), and the Interactive Fire and Emission Algorithm for Natural
113 Environments (INFERNO) can act within JULES to simulate fire and to enhance its
114 representation of vegetation disturbances (Burton et al., 2019; Clark et al., 2011; Mangeon et
115 al., 2016). JULES-INFERNO has previously succeeded in evaluating current and future
116 burned area and fire emissions in South America (Burton et al., 2021), but has not yet been
117 adapted specifically to the Cerrado.

118 Few studies have explicitly represented prescribed burning within dynamic vegetation
119 models. Here, we implement prescribed burning in JULES-INFERNNO through a sensitivity
120 experiment to evaluate its effects in the Cerrado. In doing so, we also adjust a global model
121 to better represent burned area and fire emissions in the biome. This is especially relevant
122 given the current climate change context, the need to move beyond global carbon cycle
123 models towards region-specific ones that better capture key processes at the spatial scale of
124 fire management strategies, and the recently approved IFM National Policy in Brazil and the
125 potential outcomes it may generate.

126 This study comprises two key components. First, we include prescribed burning in
127 JULES-INFERNNO, and then we analyze its impact in burned area and fire carbon emissions
128 in the Cerrado. This study is guided by two main questions: is prescribed burning an activity
129 able to reduce burned area and fire carbon emissions in the Cerrado biome? If so, by how
130 much and when? Based on the international examples and on the published studies
131 undertaken in the Cerrado, the hypothesis is that prescribed burning applied in the early dry
132 season reduces burned area and carbon fire emissions in the late dry season in the Cerrado.

133

134 **2. Methods**

135

136 **2.1 Study area**

137 The Cerrado biome is located in the Brazilian Central Plateau, occupying 24% of the Brazilian
138 territory, or about 2 million km², and it is the second largest biome in Brazil (IBGE, 2004). The
139 Cerrado covers a continuous area within twelve states and also includes isolated vegetation
140 within four additional states mostly located in the Amazon (Ribeiro & Walter, 2008). These
141 isolated patches, however, are not included in this analysis. The Cerrado has similar
142 ecological and physiognomic characteristics as other savannas in Tropical America, Africa,
143 Southeast Asia and Australia (Ribeiro & Walter, 2008). Thus, the Cerrado is a singular
144 environment, but often referred to as the Brazilian savanna.

145 According to Köppen climate classification, the Cerrado is classified as Tropical
146 savanna climate or tropical wet and dry climate (Aw) (Alvares et al., 2013). The Cerrado
147 presents dry winters (April-October) and rainy summers (November-March), with an annual
148 average precipitation of 1500 ± 500 mm (EMBRAPA, 2005). Annual mean temperature ranges
149 from 21.3°C and 27.2°C (EMBRAPA, 2005).

150 Of the Cerrado area, 48.66% are under the natural vegetation classification
151 (Mapbiomas, 2024). According to the MapBiomas 8.0 database, about 555,000 km² are under
152 savanna formation, 250,000 km² under forest formation, and 78,500 km² under grassland

153 formation. Thus, savannas are the predominant and the most representative vegetation
 154 formation of the Cerrado. In this study, we use C4 grass PFT to represent natural vegetation
 155 in the biome, as it is the dominant natural PFT in the Cerrado as simulated by JULES (Figure
 156 S1 in the Supplementary Materials), being the vegetation type over which our PB simulations
 157 are performed.

158 2.2 Estimating burned area and fire emission with JULES-INFERNO and TRIFFID

159 The estimated burned area in JULES-INFERNO (Mangeon et al., 2016) is coupled to the Top-
 160 down Representation of Foliage and Flora Including Dynamics (TRIFFID) (Cox, 2001) to
 161 estimate fire emissions (Burton et al., 2019). TRIFFID calculates the amount of carbon
 162 released from vegetation due to fires ($\Lambda_{\text{FIRE,veg}}$), along with the carbon emitted from fires from
 163 the decomposable plant material ($\Lambda_{\text{FIRE,DPM}}$) and resistant plant material ($\Lambda_{\text{FIRE,RPM}}$) pools
 164 (Harper et al., 2018). DPM and RPM soil carbon pools are used in this research to represent
 165 litter, as they are proxies of the litter carbon store due to their high turnover rates (Burton et
 166 al., 2019). Together, the amount of carbon released from vegetation and from the DPM and
 167 RPM pools due to fires represent total emitted carbon from fires (Λ_{FIRE}).

168 To better represent the Cerrado within JULES-INFERNO, we changed the $\Lambda_{\text{FIRE,DPM}}$
 169 equation (Burton et al. 2019, Equation 4), as shown in Equation 1, and the regrowth rate of
 170 the C4 grass. Within TRIFFID, C4 grass tends to quickly recover, which can be addressed by
 171 increasing the mortality rate of grasses to prevent overgrowth (Burton et al., 2019). We
 172 address this issue by modifying the regrowth rate in C4 grass in JULES-INFERNO Cerrado.

$$173 \quad \Lambda_{\text{FIRE,DPM}} = (\mu_{\text{min,DPM}} + (\mu_{\text{max,DPM}} - \mu_{\text{min,DPM}}) (1 - \theta)) C_{\text{DPM}} \sum_i BA_i v_i \quad (1)$$

174 μ are the minimum and maximum completeness of combustion (CC) parameters of the DPM
 175 and RPM pools determined in INFERNO as $\mu_{\text{min,DPM}} = 0.8$, $\mu_{\text{max,DPM}} = 1.0$, $\mu_{\text{min,RPM}} = 0.0$, $\mu_{\text{max,RPM}}$
 176 $= 0.2$ (Burton et al. 2019); θ is the soil moisture content; C_{DPM} and C_{RPM} are the total available
 177 soil carbon in the respective soil pool (kgC m^{-2}) calculated in TRIFFID; BA_i is the burned area
 178 calculated in INFERNO to each PFT i ; v_i is the fractional coverage per PFT estimated in
 179 TRIFFID.

180 First, the component 'carbon released from DPM pool due to fires ($\Lambda_{\text{FIRE,DPM}}$)' was
 181 modified, since grasses provide a high fraction of DPM litter (Clark et al., 2011), and 41.00%
 182 of the Cerrado natural area is represented by C4 grass on average (1990-2019) (Figure S1,
 183 Supplementary Materials). We decreased litter accumulation to provide more efficient burning
 184 in terms of accelerating DPM litter turnover rate, with the intention to avoid fuel building up.

185 The Cerrado and other fire-prone environments naturally limit litter accumulation, as constant
 186 fires prevent organic material from accumulating over time. For this, we set the minimum
 187 combustion completeness of the DPM pool to maximum ($\mu_{\min, \text{DPM}} = \mu_{\max, \text{DPM}}$). This change led
 188 to the removal of soil moisture term (θ), so it does not limit the burning. The final $\Lambda_{\text{FIRE, DPM}}$
 189 equation used in this research is (Equation 2):

$$\Lambda_{\text{FIRE, DPM}} = \mu_{\max, \text{DPM}} C_{\text{DPM}} \sum_i BA_i V_i \quad (2)$$

191 Second, we reduced the regrowth rate of the C4 grass by altering C4 grass
 192 productivity, due to its fast recovery within TRIFFID (Burton et al., 2019). This was achieved
 193 by adjusting the quantum efficiency of the photosynthesis parameter of the C4 grass, which is
 194 an algorithm in TRIFFID to determine the efficiency in use of light of each PFT (Clark et al.,
 195 2011). This parameter is a pre-established algorithm, and it is set to 0.04 mol CO₂ [mol PAR
 196 photons]⁻¹ to the C4 grass PFT. We halved this number to 0.02 mol CO₂ [mol PAR photons]⁻¹
 197 to evaluate its effect on post-fire regrowth.

198 In summary, we changed litter accumulation to reduce fuel available for burning and
 199 limit fuel to build up. We also changed C4 grass productivity to reduce litter and allow litter to
 200 recover slower. We added an additional counterfactual experiment setup to enable the
 201 evaluation of changes of burned area and fire emissions in C4 grass PFT alone, not
 202 considering the land use changes made throughout the time series. For this, we held the
 203 fraction of agriculture and pasture constant at 1990's level over time (Figure S2) by removing
 204 these two datasets from the dataset list setup.

205 **2.3 Comparison of results with GFED5, GFED500m and INPE Queimadas datasets**

206 We used the Global Fire Emission Database version 5 (GFED5) (Chen et al., 2023) and the
 207 GFED500m data (van Wees et al., 2024) to compare with our burned area and fire emissions
 208 results, respectively. We additionally compare our burned area result with the *Banco de Dados*
 209 *Queimadas* from the Brazilian National Institute for Space Research (INPE), hereafter referred
 210 to as INPE Queimadas. GFED5 provides global monthly burned area at 0.25° spatial
 211 resolution from 2002-2022 (Chen et al., 2023). GFED5 burned area is mostly derived from the
 212 Moderate-Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) MCD64A1 burned area product
 213 (Chen et al., 2023).

214 For fire emissions, we used the GFED500m data (van Wees et al., 2024) derived from
 215 burned area. We used the variable 'total biomass burning carbon emissions from

216 aboveground' (C_AG_TOT ; $g\ C\ m^{-2}\ month^{-1}$) to compare with our 'carbon released from
217 vegetation due to fires' ($\Lambda_{FIRE,veg}$) variable, and the variable 'total biomass burning carbon
218 emissions from belowground' (C_BG_TOT ; $g\ C\ m^{-2}\ month^{-1}$) to compare with our variable that
219 estimates carbon released from litter due to fires ($\Lambda_{FIRE,DPM} + \Lambda_{FIRE,RPM}$). Total emissions from
220 GFED500m are calculated as $C_AG_TOT + C_BG_TOT$, which is comparable to our Λ_{FIRE}
221 variable. Data from GFED500m is freely available at <https://zenodo.org/records/12670427>.

222 INPE Queimadas provides datasets for active fire and burned area in Brazil, and we
223 used the 1km burned area product (AQ1km). AQ1km uses Aqua and Terra/MODIS collection
224 6 burned area product, and the regional algorithm developed by Libonati et al. (2015) to
225 improve estimates. INPE's data is freely available at
226 <https://terrabrasilis.dpi.inpe.br/queimadas/portal/>.

227 We regridded GFED5, GFED500m and INPE Queimadas data to 0.5° , using the linear
228 regridding method, to be comparable with our results. For INPE Queimadas, the 1 km data
229 was converted into percentage of the 0.5° grid cells covered by burned area, to make it
230 comparable with GFED5 and JULES-INFERNO.

231 To evaluate our results, we present a comparison of the GFED5, GFED500m and
232 INPE Queimadas datasets with the results from JULES-INFERNO Cerrado developed in this
233 research. This includes the analysis of total burned area and total emissions for the whole
234 time period, as well as for the EDS and LDS periods alone. We also evaluate the results
235 spatially, where we compare the performance of our model based on the spatial distribution
236 of burned area and fire emissions across the Cerrado.

237 Additionally, to evaluate how well the model reproduces the seasonal cycle of burned
238 area in the Cerrado, we compare the JULES-INFERNO Cerrado (without prescribed
239 burning) against GFED5 using two complementary metrics: Mean Phase Difference
240 (MPD) and Mean Normalized Climatological Difference (MNCD).

241 We first quantify the timing (phase) of the burned area seasonal cycle following the
242 approach of Kelley et al. (2013). Monthly climatological burned area in both GFED5 and our
243 model is represented as a vector in the complex plane, where the vector length is proportional
244 to the burned area and the direction corresponds to the calendar month. For example, a unit
245 burned area in January is mapped to $1+0i$, April to $0+1i$, July to $-1+0i$, and October to $0-1i$,
246 with intermediate months linearly interpolated around the unit circle.

247 For each dataset, the monthly complex vectors are summed, and the argument of the
248 resultant vector gives the mean seasonal phase. The Mean Phase Difference (MPD) is then

249 calculated as the absolute angular separation between the model and observational phase
 250 angles, normalized such that $MPD = 0$ indicates perfect phase agreement, and $MPD =$
 251 1 indicates a six-month phase shift (i.e., complete opposition).

252 We also assess the seasonal concentration of burned area using a modified version of
 253 the concentration metric described in Kelley et al. (2013), adapted for regional scales. We
 254 define the MNCD as Equation 3:

$$255 \quad MNCD = \frac{\sum_{m=1}^{12} \left| \frac{obs_m - mod_m}{obs} - \frac{mod_m}{mod} \right|}{\sum_{m=1}^{12} \left| \frac{obs_m}{obs} - \frac{1}{12} \right|} \quad (3)$$

256 Where *obs* and *mod* are the monthly climatological burned area totals for observations
 257 (GFED5) and the model (JULES-INFERNO Cerrado) respectively, and the over-bar denotes
 258 the annual mean. The denominator, therefore, represents the deviation of observations from
 259 a hypothetical case in which burned area is uniformly distributed throughout the year.

260 Under this definition, $MNCD = 1$ corresponds to a “null-model” case in which the model
 261 reproduces the *mean* seasonal concentration structure but no additional detail, $MNCD <$
 262 1 indicates skill in capturing the seasonal concentration pattern, and $MNCD > 1$ indicates
 263 poorer-than-null performance.

264 **2.4 Adding prescribed burning in the JULES-INFERNO model**

265 We used JULES (Clark et al., 2011) version 6.3, and INFERNO (Mangeon et al., 2016),
 266 switch activated within JULES to simulate prescribed burning. The JULES-INFERNO
 267 simulations used are from the first component of the third simulation round of the Intersectoral
 268 Impacts Intercomparison Project (ISIMIP3a, <https://www.isimip.org/>), which provides historical
 269 simulations using GSWP3-W5E5 reanalysis climate up to 2019 (Frieler et al., 2024), at 0.5°
 270 spatial resolution. The JULES Earth System setup based on ISIMIP is detailed in Mathison et
 271 al. (2023).

272 JULES-INFERNO calculates burned area by combining ignition (natural and
 273 anthropic), flammability and average burned area per plant functional type (PFT) (Mangeon et
 274 al., 2016). We modified the total ignition equation (Mangeon et al., 2016; Equation 3), which
 275 now includes a prescribed burning component (Equation 4):

$$276 \quad I_T = (I_N + I_A) f_{NS} + I_{PB} / (8.64 \times 10^{10}) \quad (4)$$

277 Where I_T is the total ignition; I_N is the natural ignition; I_A is the anthropic ignition; f_{NS} is the
 278 fraction of fires not suppressed; I_{PB} represents prescribed burning ignitions. The result is
 279 divided by $8,64 \times 10^{10}$ to convert from ignition $\text{km}^{-2} \text{ month}^{-1}$ to ignition $\text{m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$.

280 f_{NS} is calculated as per Mangeon et al. (2016; Equation 2), as shown in Equation 5:

$$281 \quad f_{NS} = 7.7(0.05 + 0.9 \times e^{-0.05PD}) \quad (5)$$

282 Where PD is the population density (people km^{-2}).

283 Population density is also used to estimate I_A (Mangeon et al., 2016; Equation 1) and
 284 was obtained from the ISIMIP3a protocol and was based on data from the History Database
 285 of the Global Environment (HYDE) v3.3 (Volkholz et al., 2024). Lightning used for I_N (Mangeon
 286 et al., 2016) was also obtained from the ISIMIP3a protocol, and based on LIS/OTD data
 287 (CECIL, 2006). LIS/OTD are gridded climatology datasets that record lightning flash rates
 288 detected by the Optical Transient Detector (OTD) and the Lightning Imaging Sensor (LIS),
 289 both aboard the Tropical Rainfall Measuring Mission (TRMM) satellite.

290 Anthropogenic ignition is calculated per Mangeon et al. (2016, Equation 1), as shown
 291 in Equation 6:

$$292 \quad I_A = k(PD) PD^\alpha \quad (6)$$

293 Where $k(PD) = 6,8 * PD^{-0.6}$ and it is a function that represents the human influence on ignitions
 294 in rural and urban environments, and $\alpha = 0.03$, which is a parameter that represents the
 295 number of potential ignition sources per person per month per km^2 .

296 We acknowledge that the patterns of anthropogenic ignition for the global south,
 297 including the Cerrado, might act differently than what is proposed in Equation 6, meaning that
 298 population density might not act as a determining factor to ignition, as previously observed
 299 globally by Perkins et al. (2024; 2025) in WHAM! (the Wildfire Human Agency Model).
 300 Because there is not much research in this field specific for the Cerrado (the only study
 301 available is Ramos-Neto & Pivello, 2000), we guide our parameters based on Equation 6:
 302 applying the population density of $18.22 \text{ people km}^{-2}$ derived from ISIMIP3a dataset, human
 303 ignition is $0.6386 \text{ km}^{-2} \text{ month}^{-1}$.

304 I_{PB} is a four-dimensional dataset, meaning that it varies spatially (latitude and
 305 longitude), per time (month) and per PFT. Consequently, prescribed burning can be tested in

306 and adapted to other regions of the world. Similar to the natural ignition component within
307 JULES-INFERNO, I_{PB} is a counterfactual variable where ignition is uniformly distributed across
308 the entire area. For this study, we set I_{PB} in the C4 grass PFT and in the early dry season
309 (EDS) months (April, May and June) to analyze its effect on the LDS period (August,
310 September, October).

311 I_{PB} is set to be equal to the sum of I_N and I_A in May, when natural ignitions are largest.
312 Natural ignition according to ISIMIP3a is $0.07814 \text{ flashes km}^{-2} \text{ month}^{-1}$ for May, adding the
313 human ignition rate of $0.6386 \text{ km}^{-2} \text{ month}^{-1}$, gives an I_{PB} value of $0.7168 \text{ fires km}^{-2} \text{ month}^{-1}$.
314 Thus, prescribed burning doubles the ignition rate for C4 grass fires in May, and the same
315 value is applied to April and June. We choose to double ignition rates to provide a strong
316 forcing to the model and a clearly detectable response, noting that burned area in the LDS is
317 more than double that in the EDS and that the maximum anthropogenic ignition rate can be
318 as high as $2.3 \text{ km}^{-2} \text{ month}^{-1}$ (MANGEON et al., 2016).

319 **3. Results**

320 We first present the results from the comparison of the model before and after the changes in
321 JULES-INFERNO and TRIFFID to represent the Cerrado, contrasting with GFED5,
322 GFED500m and INPE Queimadas. We then analyse the effects of prescribed burning in the
323 JULES-INFERNO Cerrado on burned area and fire emissions, with special attention to the
324 years with highest burned area, according to our model.

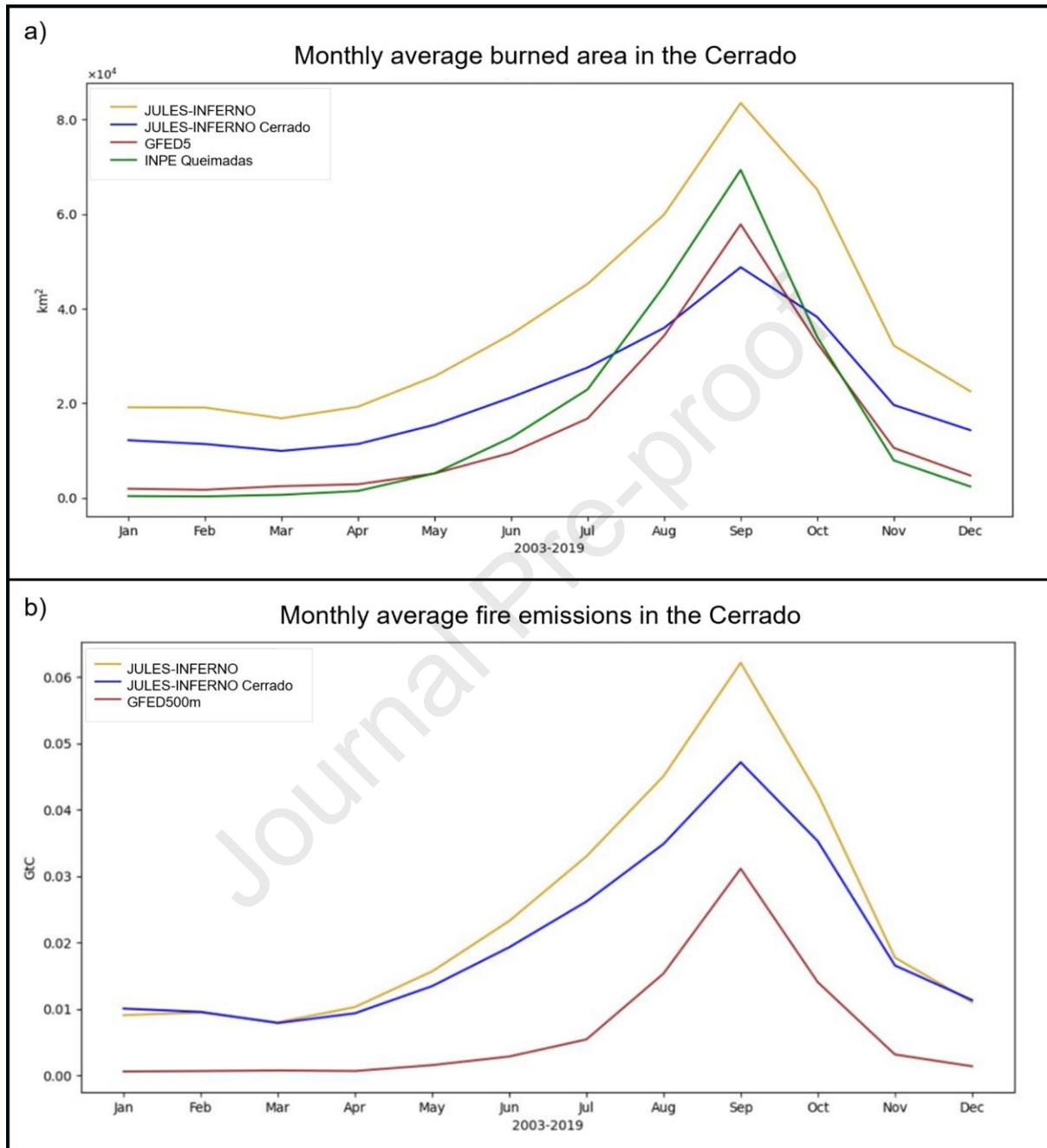
325 **3.1 Comparison of the model before and after the changes in JULES-INFERNO and** 326 **TRIFFID to represent the Cerrado**

327 Although we ran the model from 1990-2019, the comparison process was carried out over the
328 period 2003-2019, to keep the consistency with GFED5, GFED500m and INPE Queimadas,
329 as these rely on MODIS satellite burn products, and there is greater certainty in these data
330 from 2003 (see Andela et al., 2019; Silva et al., 2019).

331 JULES-INFERNO is known to overestimate burned area in several regions globally,
332 including the Cerrado (Burton et al., 2019, 2021). When model adjustments were applied to
333 better represent the Cerrado's fire dynamics, we observed a reduction in the overestimation
334 of both burned area and fire emissions (Figure 1). These results show that our model reduced
335 40.0% of average burned area per year, and 16.6% of averaged fire carbon emissions per
336 year, compared to the original JULES-INFERNO model.

337

338

339 *Figure 1 - Monthly average burned area (a) and fire emissions (b) in the Cerrado.*

340

341 JULES-INFERNO returns an average burned area from 2003-2019 of $36,942.24 \text{ km}^2$
 342 year^{-1} , ranging from $30,611.0 \text{ km}^2$ (2009) to $42,312.1 \text{ km}^2$ (2007). With the changes developed
 343 in this research, these numbers drop to $22,170.4 \text{ km}^2 \text{ year}^{-1}$, from $16,005.9 \text{ km}^2$ (2013) to
 344 $29,342.4 \text{ km}^2$ (2015). GFED5 averages $15,051.4 \text{ km}^2 \text{ year}^{-1}$ for the same time period, ranging
 345 from $7,978.9 \text{ km}^2$ in 2009 to $26,098.2 \text{ km}^2$ in 2007, while INPE Queimadas averages $15,675.5$
 346 $\text{km}^2 \text{ year}^{-1}$, from $7,532.6 \text{ km}^2$ (2009) to $23,272.2 \text{ km}^2$ (2012).

347 In terms of fire emissions and annual averages considering 2003-2019, JULES-
 348 INFERNO averaged 0.024 GtC year⁻¹, ranging from 0.019 GtC in 2009 to 0.028 GtC in 2007.
 349 JULES-INFERNO Cerrado averaged 0.020 GtC year⁻¹, from 0.012 GtC (2013) to 0.029 GtC
 350 (2015). GFED500m presents much lower values, averaging 0.0064 GtC year⁻¹, ranging from
 351 0.002 GtC (2009) to 0.013 GtC (2007).

352 We hypothesize that more significant reductions are shown in burned area than in fire
 353 emissions (Table 1) because the changes made to JULES-INFERNO are related to the litter
 354 pool, which controls flammability (Harper et al., 2018). Thus, the woody biomass, which is
 355 responsible for most fire emissions (Bispo et al., 2020; Gomes, Miranda, Silvério, et al., 2020;
 356 Oliveira et al., 2021; Zimbres et al., 2020), has not changed.

357 *Table 1 - Comparison of the averaged burned area and fire emissions from 2003-2019 in the*
 358 *Cerrado from four datasets analyzed.*

2003-2019	JULES-INFERNO	JULES-INFERNO Cerrado	GFED5/ GFED500m	INPE Queimadas
Burned area (km² year⁻¹)	36,942.2	22,170.4	15,051.4	15,675.5
Fire emissions (GtC year⁻¹)	0.024	0.020	0.0064	

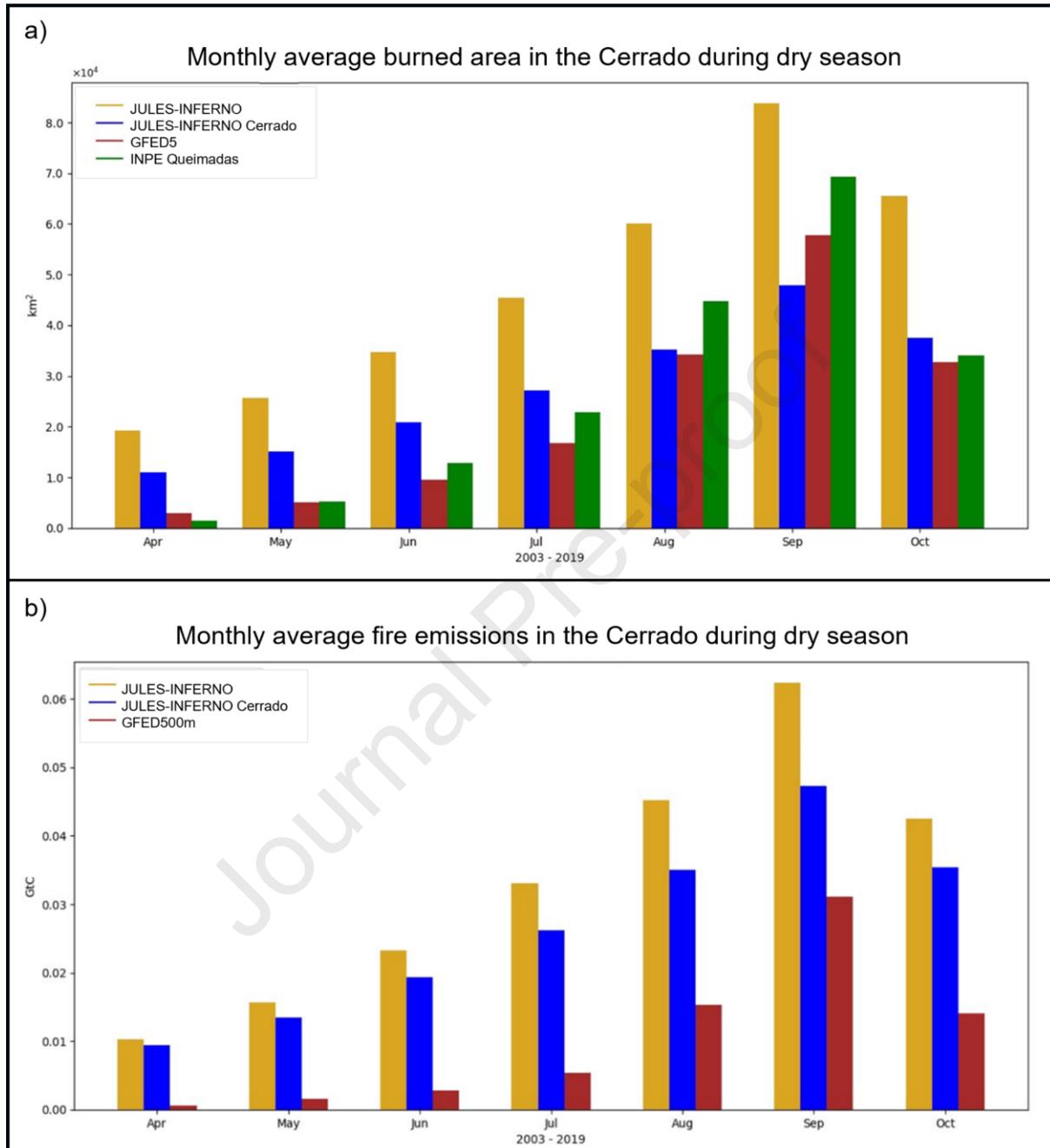
359 When analyzing the dry months alone (April-October), we observe a less intense peak
 360 in the dry season for both burned area and fire emissions when compared to the JULES-
 361 INFERNO. Because fire emissions are calculated from burned area in all datasets, the peaks
 362 are consistent between the two variables (Figure 2). The overall overestimation of JULES-
 363 INFERNO, and the reduced overestimation in JULES-INFERNO Cerrado in the dry season
 364 becomes evident in Figure 2, along with an underestimation of burned area in JULES-
 365 INFERNO Cerrado during August and September when compared to GFED5 and INPE
 366 Queimadas (Figure 2a).

367

368

369

370 Figure 2 - Monthly average burned area (a) and fire emissions (b) in the Cerrado in the dry
 371 season months.



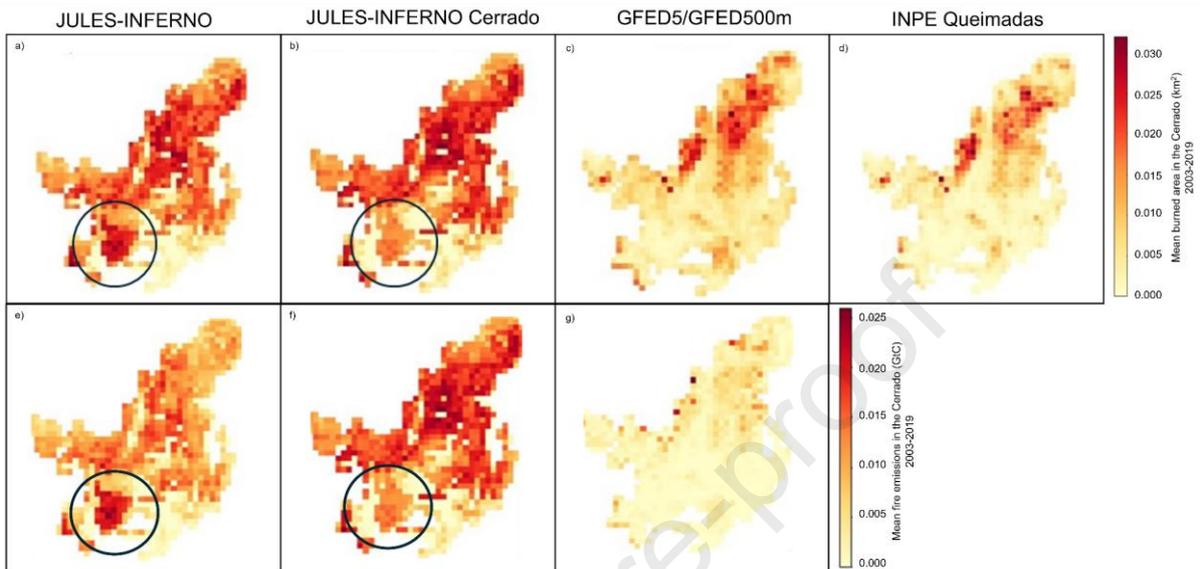
372

373 The absolute monthly and yearly values from 2003-2019 for the 4 datasets for burned
 374 area and for the 3 datasets for fire emissions are available in the Supplementary Materials
 375 (Tables S1-S4), along with the difference (%) in values between our model and the other
 376 databases.

377 The overestimation of both JULES-INFERNO and JULES-INFERNO Cerrado can also
 378 be observed spatially (Figure 3). For fire emissions (Figure 3e-g) JULES-INFERNO Cerrado
 379 shows higher emissions over much of the region when compared to JULES-INFERNO, but

380 this is offset by lower emissions in the southwest of the biome (black circles in Figure 3),
 381 leading to a slight reduction in overall fire emissions across the time series.

382 *Figure 3 - Spatial distribution of burned area (a-d) and fire emissions (e-g) in the Cerrado.*



383

384 The circled areas in Figure 3 indicate fire activity that is detected in JULES-INFERNO,
 385 but not in the reference datasets. This is expected given the model inputs, and it could happen
 386 because JULES-INFERNO considers burned area in areas with crop and pasture (Figure S2a)
 387 due to the presence of litter pool and high population density. By keeping it constant at 1990's
 388 level (Figure S2b), we are able to decrease C4 crop and C4 pasture fractions, thus reducing
 389 overestimation. In reality, these are well-established large crop and pasture areas, and these
 390 tend to be highly mechanized and not use fire. Thus, fire tends to decrease in these areas,
 391 because the consolidated agriculture and pasture lands do not require the use of fire, leading
 392 to the southern portion of the Cerrado not burning for at least 30 years (Arruda et al., 2024;
 393 Gomes et al., 2024). However, in our counterfactual set-ups, JULES-INFERNO does not
 394 consider this local characteristic in land use and thus predicts burning in that region.

395 Additionally, when evaluating the seasonal cycle of burned area in JULES-INFERNO
 396 Cerrado (without prescribed burning) against GFED5 using diagnostics of phase and
 397 concentration adapted from Kelley et al. (2013), we estimate that the Mean Phase Difference
 398 (MPD) over the Cerrado is 0.23, corresponding to a mean timing mismatch of about 40 days.
 399 This indicates that the phase of the seasonal fire cycle is reproduced reasonably well, with
 400 only modest mismatch in burned area timing. We further assessed the seasonal concentration
 401 of burned area using a Mean Normalized Climatological Difference (MNCD) metric. The model
 402 yields MNCD = 0.97 compared with a regional mean null model of 1.0 and a median null-

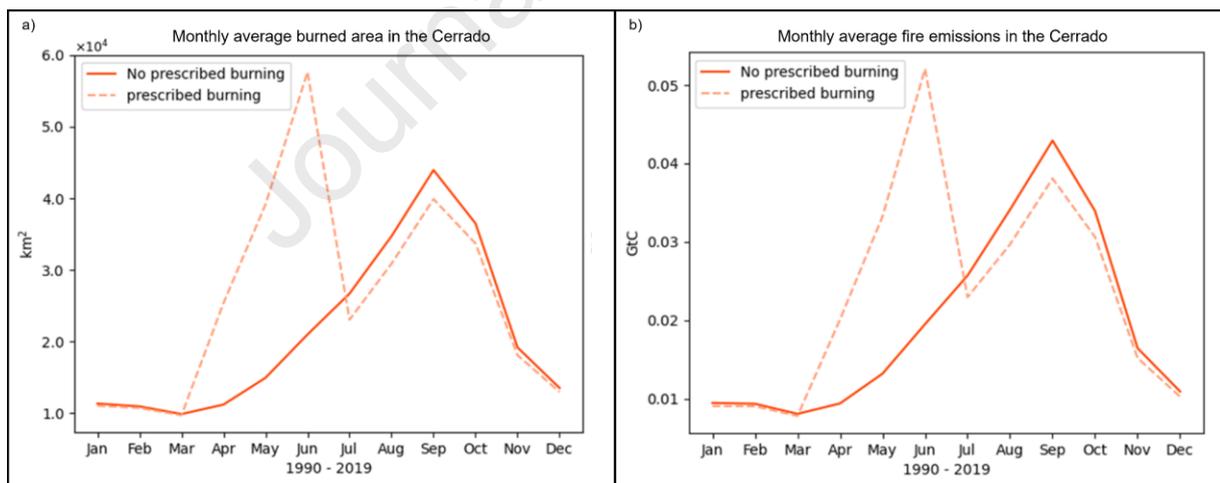
403 model (as suggested in Burton et al. 2019) value of 1.03, indicating some skill in capturing the
 404 observed seasonal concentration pattern.

405 3.2 Analysis of prescribed burning results on burned area and fire carbon emissions in 406 the Cerrado

407 For the prescribed burning *versus* non-prescribed burning comparison, we analyzed the three
 408 decades of data, from 1990 to 2019. We added the prescribed burning component to JULES-
 409 INFERNO Cerrado and compared the results from the baseline simulations from JULES-
 410 INFERNO Cerrado.

411 For the 30 years of analysis, we observe an average reduction in the LDS months in
 412 both burned area and fire emissions when prescribed burning is applied. For burned area, the
 413 reduction averages 9.28% (10,684.2 km²), while fire emissions reduce on average 11.34%
 414 (0.0126 GtC) when compared to the non-prescribed burning scenario (Figure 4). The reduction
 415 in burned area and fire emission during the LDS is due to the reduced fuel resultant from the
 416 increase in burned area during the EDS months (April, May, June).

417 *Figure 4 - Monthly average burned area (a) and fire emissions (b) with (dashed line) and
 418 without (solid line) prescribed burning in the Cerrado, from 1990-2019.*



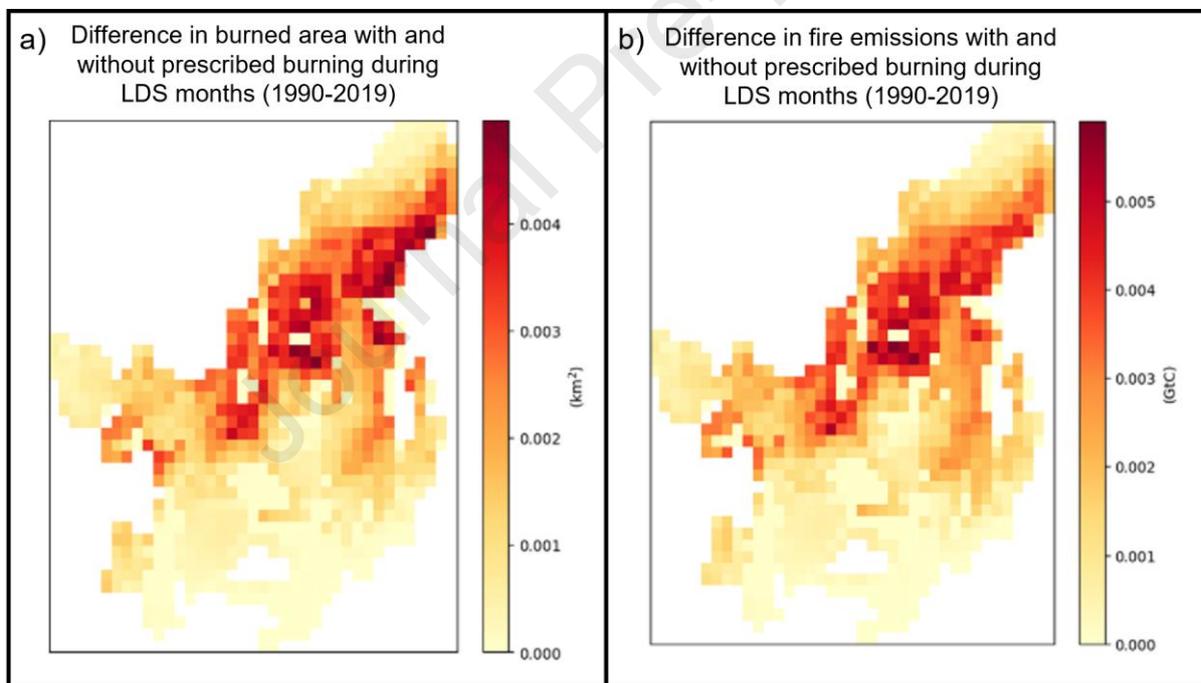
419

420 The spatial distribution of burned area and fire emissions with and without prescribed
 421 burning are shown in Figure S3 (Supplementary Materials). If we consider the annual balance,
 422 then we do not see a reduction in either burned area or fire emissions. This is possibly a
 423 consequence of doubling ignitions in the EDS, and uniform fire size applied to prescribed and
 424 non-prescribed burning. Given that intense and devastating wildfires tend to occur in the LDS
 425 in the Cerrado (Da Veiga & Nikolakis, 2022; Silva et al., 2021), and that these are increasingly
 426 common due to climate change (IPCC 2021; 2022), prescribed burning in the EDS becomes

427 an important activity to reduce the impacts of LDS burns. These prescribed burns are
 428 controlled and carefully managed, in contrast to the often uncontrolled and severe LDS fires.
 429 Thus, this study provides results that suggest increased overall burned area and fire emissions
 430 (Table S5), but a decrease in destructive fires.

431 The spatial distribution of the difference between burned area (Figure 5a) and fire
 432 emissions (Figure 5b) with and without prescribed during the LDS months show where in the
 433 Cerrado prescribed burning can be more effective. Our results indicate this happens in the
 434 northern part of the Cerrado, which coincides with the region with higher fraction of C4 grass.
 435 This was expected since prescribed burning was applied to the C4 grass PFT in our
 436 simulations.

437 *Figure 5 - Spatial distribution of the difference in burned area (a) and fire emissions (b) with*
 438 *and without prescribed burning in the Cerrado, during the LDS months (August, September,*
 439 *October).*



441 3.2.1 Prescribed burning in the Cerrado in years with increased fire activity

442 We evaluate the three years that had the highest burned area (2015, 2004, 2010), according
 443 to our model JULES-INFERNO Cerrado, to demonstrate that prescribed burning provides
 444 higher than average reductions in burned area and fire emissions in years with increased fire
 445 activity.

446 For 2015, burned area in the LDS months was reduced by 10.45% (17,736.4 km²) and

447 fire emissions were reduced by 11.81% (0.021 GtC), compared with the 9.28% (10,684.2 km²)
448 reduction in burned area and 11.34% (0.0126 GtC) in fire emissions for the whole time series
449 average. For 2004, burned area was reduced by 10.97% (16.625,0 km²) and fire emissions
450 were reduced by 13.42% (0.020GtC) in the LDS. For 2010, burned area in the LDS months
451 was reduced by 10.87% (15.233,7 km²) and fire emissions were reduced by 12.41%
452 (0.017GtC). Figure S4 (Supplementary Materials) shows the reductions for the three years
453 mentioned.

454 Thus, according to our model in counterfactual experiments, prescribed burning
455 reduces burned area and fire emissions during LDS, and higher reductions are observed in
456 years with higher fire activities. Prescribed burning has not shown effectiveness in the annual
457 analysis, given the increase in burned area and fire emissions in the EDS: for the average
458 reductions of 9.28% in burned area and 11.34% in fire emissions in the LDS months, these
459 increased in the EDS by 259.07% and 166.89% respectively. Although these numbers may
460 not be realistic, they impose a significant forcing on the model and a distinctly detectable
461 response.

462 **4. Discussion**

463 When analyzing the impact of prescribed burning, especially in years with high fire activity, it
464 becomes evident that climate plays a key role in fire emissions predictions, and we suggest
465 that climate might have a greater impact than fuel in JULES-INFERN0 fire emissions
466 prediction. This corroborates to Kelley et al. (2019) findings, which suggest that the Cerrado
467 region is more limited by moisture than fuel.

468 As for the C4 grass productivity, Burton et al. (2019) observed that grasses recover
469 quickly within TRIFFID, and that this could be addressed by increasing the mortality rate of
470 grasses to prevent overgrowth. To address this issue in our simulations, we reduced the
471 recovery rate of C4 grass by halving the efficiency use of light, and we were able to provide
472 closer values of burned area and fire emissions contrasted with the comparison datasets. This
473 suggests that the success of prescribed burning in reducing burned area and emissions
474 depends on the recovery rate of C4 grasses.

475 When comparing our results to other studies previously published, we observe that
476 prescribed burning has potential to reduce even more burned area and fire emissions than
477 documented in this research. From observational studies, Schmidt et al. (2018) estimated
478 40%–57% reduction in burned area affected by LDS wildfires when prescribed burning was
479 applied in three PAs in the Cerrado, from 2014-2016, within the scope of the Pilot Integrated
480 Fire Management program. Yearly, that averages 13.3%–19%, which is higher than the

481 reduction found in our research, where LDS burned area reduced 9.28% yearly with the
482 application of EDS prescribed burning. However, Schmidt et al. (2018) found that the total
483 burned area did not significantly reduce, which is a similar outcome of our research, where
484 the annual balance of burned area is not reduced with the inclusion of prescribed burning.

485 Different from our results, Franke et al. (2024) document a potential annual emission
486 abatement of 1,085.64 tCO₂e year⁻¹ (2014–2019) when applying EDS prescribed burning to
487 all PAs in the Cerrado, equivalent to 2.96×10^{-7} GtC year⁻¹. Franke et al. (2024) use satellite
488 and field data from a few PAs and then extrapolate the results to all PAs in the Cerrado, where
489 burned area is also linked to fire emission estimates. Their results indicate a potential to
490 improve our results in terms of mitigating emissions by integrating different methodological
491 techniques.

492 To compare our results with the Australian example, which is a leader in publishing
493 studies on prescribed burning in their savanna environment (Da Veiga & Nikolakis, 2022) and
494 provided the basis for the Pilot Integrated Fire Management program in the Cerrado, Russell-
495 Smith et al. (2013) found CO₂ emission reductions of 37.7% annually and burned area
496 reductions of 7.9% annually (2005–2012) when compared to the baseline, against the 11.37%
497 reduction in carbon fire emissions and 9.28% reduction in burned area found in our research
498 for the Cerrado. These mean that our results are similar to those found by Russell-Smith et al.
499 (2013) for burned area, but not for emissions. This could be due to the Australian study being
500 based in a different environment and in observational data.

501 Our study examines counterfactual scenarios, where the ignition rate for C4 grass fires
502 in May doubles, and the same value is applied to April and June, fire size of prescribed and
503 non-prescribed burning are the same, and the values for C4 crop and C4 agriculture are
504 constant. These leave scope for future improvements, such as applying different prescribed
505 burning values and fire sizes, and testing the complete removal of different PFTs to investigate
506 the impacts on results. Thus, we do not propose immediate management implementation
507 actions, but rather provide a modeling framework that includes prescribed burning, explore its
508 outcomes in terms of burned area and fire emissions, and support fire management decision-
509 making perspectives.

510 Future improvements for modeling prescribed burning in the Cerrado include:
511 incorporating local algorithms and datasets that improve regional representation (Barbosa et
512 al., 2025; Libonati et al., 2015; Oliveira et al., 2021); splitting the Cerrado into subregions and
513 evaluating the changes in burned area and fire emissions within them, as this would consider
514 local biodiversity, different prescribed burning values for each subregion, and shifts in the

515 prescribed burning window, as observed globally due to climate change by Hsu et al. (2025);
516 including fire spread in the JULES-INFERNO model, since most of the fire emissions avoided
517 with prescribed burning is due to fire not spreading to forested areas (Oliveira et al., 2023);
518 analyzing different fire uses and sizes for prescribed and non-prescribed burnings; and
519 adapting the population density algorithm when estimating ignitions, since high population
520 density does not necessarily translate into high fire activity (Knorr et al., 2014), given the
521 limited wildland-fire-interface in the Cerrado and other Brazilian biomes.

522 Splitting the Cerrado into subregions would enhance the model representation at more
523 detailed scales. Global models are often too coarse to capture the heterogeneity found at the
524 landscape scale, which can obscure local processes that should be accounted for at a regional
525 scale. This limitation underscores the need for methodological improvements that can better
526 represent fine-scale ecological processes and regional dynamics. Through refinements, it
527 becomes possible to enhance simulation of fire parameters, better predict fire behavior,
528 assess carbon emission and burned area, and support evidence-based decisions in the
529 Cerrado or in other regions where similar model adaptations are implemented.

530 Currently, MPD and MNCD show that the model reproduces the large-scale seasonal
531 structure of fire activity in the Cerrado, supporting its use for evaluating regional scale
532 prescribed burning effects. Our analysis provides evidence for the overall effectiveness of
533 seasonal prescribed burning strategies across the region, but not precise location-specific
534 recommendations.

535 Globally, the population density and the fire use limitations have been previously
536 observed in WHAM!, a global model designed to capture human behavioral and land-use
537 drivers of fire use and management (Perkins et al., 2024). WHAM! advances on population
538 density approaches by replacing uniform anthropogenic ignition with representation of
539 managed fire uses, unmanaged fires and natural ignition (Perkins et al., 2024; 2015). While
540 JULES-INFERNO Cerrado adapts JULES-INFERNO to improve representation of the
541 Cerrado, and adds prescribed burning to the ignition component, WHAM! is a separate model
542 that couples with existent dynamic global vegetation models, as demonstrated in WHAM-
543 INFERNO (Perkins et al., 2025).

544 As previously stated, few studies have explicitly included PB within a dynamic
545 vegetation model. Besides JULES-INFERNO Cerrado and WHAM!, Rabin et al. (2022)
546 introduce PB to the dynamic global vegetation model LPJ-GUESS, coupled to the fire model
547 SIMFIRE-BLAZE (Knorr et al., 2014; Rabin et al., 2017), to evaluate the effectiveness of PB

548 in terms of fire intensity, burn severity, and ecosystem carbon balance under future climate
549 change scenarios in two European regions (Rabin et al., 2022).

550 In our study, we do not differentiate between types of fire in the LDS. Instead, we
551 analyze counterfactual scenarios to assess how EDS interventions influence LDS wildfires. In
552 the current JULES-INFERNO framework, anthropogenic ignition is uniformly represented. A
553 key direction for future model development would be to explicitly differentiate among fire uses.
554 We address this limitation by introducing prescribed burning as a separate ignition component,
555 and future improvements to the model would be to differentiate between fire uses. Other
556 modelling approaches, such as WHAM! (Perkins et al., 2024;2025), address this issue by
557 replacing uniform anthropogenic ignition with behaviour- and land-use-based representations
558 of fire use.

559 Our counterfactual experiment evaluates a scenario in which EDS burning is widely
560 spread across the Cerrado, leading to reduced LDS burned area and fire emissions, especially
561 in years of intense fire, according to our model, as 2004, 2010 and 2015. From our results,
562 prescribed burning increases overall burned area and fire emissions, but reduces destructive
563 wildfire (Table S5). The overall increase can be explained by the doubling of ignitions in the
564 EDS, and by the assumption of uniform fire size in prescribed burning and non-prescribed
565 burning scenarios. We choose to double ignition rates to provide strong forcing to the model
566 and a clear detectable response. Although counterfactual, the modified ignition represents
567 important steps towards explicitly representing prescribed burning within a dynamic vegetation
568 model, and leaves scope for future improvements in terms of fire size and ignition calibration.

569 This is particularly important because the peak of the fire season in the Cerrado is in
570 the LDS months, and in this period the biomass available for burning is accumulated and
571 highly flammable, resulting in large wildfires and ecological damages (Gomes, Miranda,
572 Soares-Filho, et al., 2020; Hoffmann et al., 2012; Silva et al., 2021). Added to this, climate
573 change is increasing the risk of fire occurrence and the intensity and frequency of extreme
574 events, such as wildfires (IPCC, 2021; 2022). For the Cerrado, it might be that the biome may
575 not be resilient to projected increases of frequency and intensity of extreme fire years. For
576 example, Gomes, Miranda, Soares-Filho, et al. (2020) compared different fire frequency
577 intervals and showed that increasing fire frequency leads to a decline in tree and shrub
578 biomass recovery, thereby affecting atmospheric carbon dynamics by reducing the amount of
579 carbon absorbed through vegetation regrowth. Thus, fire management is important to prevent
580 ecosystem shift and destructive wildfire activity.

581 Our results support fire management activities by assessing a sensitivity experiment
582 where EDS widely applied to the Cerrado would reduce burned area and fire emissions in the
583 LDS period. This is crucial given the domination of fire exclusion policies in the Cerrado, which
584 arose in Brazil as a reaction to the misuse of fire for pasture management and deforestation,
585 especially in the 20th century, and due to the misbelief that fire harms the biome (Durigan &
586 Ratter, 2016; Fidelis, 2020). These policies dismantled the fire management practices applied
587 by traditional and Indigenous peoples, and disregard the ecological roles of fire in fire-prone
588 settings (Barradas et al., 2020). As a result, extensive LDS wildfires have replaced small
589 patchy burns (Fidelis, 2020; Moura et al., 2019; Pivello, 2011). By demonstrating
590 consequences of prescribed burning, we are able to emphasize the value of integrating
591 traditional knowledge and academic actors, and the need to enhance dialogue between
592 traditional and academic sciences.

593 An example of the growing recognition of fire as an important aspect of the Cerrado is
594 the Integrated Fire Management National Policy (PNMIF; Law 14,944/2024), sanctioned in
595 July 2024. In this context, the results from this study provide insights into the objectives of the
596 PNMIF, which aims, among other goals, to reduce the intensity and severity of wildfires,
597 especially under the impacts of climate change. PNMIF also indicates that IFM activities, which
598 include prescribed burning, should be applied to prevent the occurrence and reduce the
599 impacts of wildfires, which often occur in the LDS.

600 **5. Conclusion**

601 To our knowledge, few studies have explicitly represented prescribed burning within dynamic
602 vegetation models. As part of our approach, we also refine a global model configuration to
603 better represent burned area and fire emissions in the Cerrado, aiming to examine the impacts
604 of prescribed burning in a biome-scale. This was achieved by adding a prescribed burning
605 element to the ignition component in the JULES-INFERNO model. This element varies by
606 month and by PFT, making it adaptable to other regions of the world. This is a great
607 achievement given the increased risk of wildfires worldwide, reassuring the relevance of
608 prevention mechanisms in mitigating the impacts of climate change.

609 In our counterfactual experiment, we find reductions in the late dry season in both
610 burned area and fire carbon emissions by 9.28% and 11.34% per year, respectively, from
611 1990-2019, when prescribed burning is applied in the early dry season. In years with high fire
612 activity, the reduction in burned area and fire emissions is higher than the average when
613 prescribed burning is included. Our sensitivity set-ups resulted in increased overall burned

614 area and fire emissions, due to the increased fire activity during EDS, but reduced destructive
615 wildfire.

616 The results from this research raise new perspectives for studies in the future, which
617 could potentially improve our model and address the Cerrado's prescribed fires in more
618 suitable ways. We identify five major improvements that could be made to enhance our results:
619 splitting the Cerrado into subregions to better address the diversity of the biome; better
620 integrating modelling techniques with on-site observations and local datasets; including fire
621 spread in the JULES-INFERNO model; improving population density algorithm when
622 estimating ignition; and identifying parameters in the model that can be modified to represent
623 post-fire recovery rates.

624 Finally, our experiment supports fire management activities in the Cerrado by
625 evaluating the potential impacts of biome-scale prescribed burning on reducing LDS wildfires.
626 This is particularly relevant given projected increases in fire frequency and intensity under
627 climate change, ongoing policy and governance changes in Brazilian fire management
628 strategies, and the intrinsic relationship between fire and the Cerrado biome.

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Declaration of interests

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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