



# 1 Satellite Hydrology Observations as Operational Indicators of Forecasted 2 Fire Danger across the Contiguous United States

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## 13 Abstract

14 Traditional methods for assessing fire danger often depend on meteorological forecasts, which  
 15 have reduced reliability after ~10 days. Recent studies have demonstrated long lead-time  
 16 correlations between pre-fire-season hydrological variables such as soil moisture and later fire  
 17 occurrence or area burned, yet no potential value of these relationships for operational forecasting  
 18 have not been studied. Here, we use soil moisture data refined by remote sensing observations of  
 19 terrestrial water storage from NASA's GRACE mission and vapor pressure deficit from NASA's  
 20 AIRS mission to generate monthly predictions of fire danger at scales commensurate with regional  
 21 management. We test the viability of predictors within nine US Geographic Area Coordination  
 22 Centers (GACCs) using regression models specific to each GACC. Results show that the model  
 23 framework improves interannual wildfire burned area prediction relative to climatology for all  
 24 GACCs. This demonstrates the importance of hydrological information to extend operational  
 25 forecast ability into the months preceding wildfire activity.

## 26 1. Introduction

27 Fires are a key disturbance globally, acting as a catalyst for terrestrial ecosystem change and  
 28 contributing significantly to both carbon emissions (Page et al., 2002) and changes in surface  
 29 albedo (Randerson et al., 2006). Furthermore, the socioeconomic impact of fires includes human  
 30 casualties as well as approximately \$21b loss in property from 1995-2015 (USD 2015;  
 31 NatCatSERVICE, accessed October 2017). Several studies have shown that in the Western US,  
 32 fires have demonstrated a positive trend in annual area burned that will likely continue into the  
 33 future (Littell et al., 2010; Stavros et al., 2014b). In response to increasing annual area burned and  
 34 detrimental losses, the US Forest Service has increased funding for active fire management from  
 35 16 to 52% of their total budget that would have otherwise been spent on land management and  
 36 research (USFS, 2015). These increased costs translate directly to increased USFS information



37 needs because any intra-or interannual early warning helps decrease the cost of preparing for,  
 38 managing, and, when necessary, suppressing fires that occur.

39 The severe consequences of wildfires motivate the need for capabilities to map fire potential on  
 40 timescales ranging from days to months. Operational fire management agencies rely on two  
 41 primary sources of information to predict fire danger: meteorological forecasts and expert  
 42 judgment (e.g. <https://www.predictiveservices.nifc.gov/outlooks/outlooks.htm>; accessed 28  
 43 November 20). Fire danger forecasts are generally reported in the form of qualitative categories  
 44 (e.g. normal, below-normal and above-normal). Such categories are used by the US National  
 45 Interagency Fire Center (NIFC) to allocate fire management resources across jurisdictional  
 46 boundaries (e.g., state or national) when local response capabilities are exhausted. These  
 47 qualitative metrics are derived from many information layers including fire danger indices.

48 Fire danger indices (e.g., the US National Fire Danger Rating System – NFDRS; Bradshaw et al.,  
 49 1983) typically use meteorological input (Abatzoglou & Brown, 2012; Holden & Jolly, 2011) that  
 50 is sometimes not available with the long-lead time needed for regional, transboundary fire  
 51 management planning. Gridded meteorological data often have several limitations. The data are  
 52 interpolated between weather stations (Daly et al., 2008), or developed by combining spatial and  
 53 temporal attributes of different climate data and validated with weather stations (Abatzoglou,  
 54 2013; Abatzoglou and Brown, 2012), or provided from meteorological reanalysis, i.e., numerical  
 55 weather prediction models that assimilate weather station data (Kalnay et al., 1996; Roads et al.,  
 56 1999). These weather stations are sometimes far removed from the location of interest, and are not  
 57 always good estimates of local climate, especially in complex topography. Moreover, forecasts  
 58 beyond 10 days for a given landscape location have low skill (Bauer et al., 2015). The mentioned  
 59 limitations of current operational fire danger systems result in the need for additional information  
 60 that could help improve predictions of fire danger at monthly intervals and to help allocate  
 61 resources across the country as the active fire season progresses and resources become strained.  
 62 This added information could result in less subjective and more accurate fire danger forecasts for  
 63 larger areas and for timescales of a month or longer.

64 A number of previous studies have demonstrated relationships between fire and hydrological  
 65 indicators (Parks et al., 2014; Shabbar et al., 2011; Westerling et al., 2002; Xiao and Zhuang,  
 66 2007). Vapor pressure deficit (VPD), specifically has been shown as an indicator of fire danger  
 67 (Abatzoglou and Williams, 2016; Seager et al., 2015; Williams et al., 2014) and is considered a  
 68 viable proxy for evapotranspiration demand and plant water stress during drought (Behrangi et al.,  
 69 2015; Weiss et al., 2012). VPD is defined as the amount of moisture in the air compared to amount  
 70 of moisture the air can hold. (Behrangi et al., 2016) shows that VPD in monthly time-scales has  
 71 the advantage in capturing onsets of meteorological droughts earlier than other variables such as  
 72 precipitation. This advantage could be helpful in developing fire-danger forecast models. More  
 73 recently, a study using model-assimilated observations of terrestrial water storage from NASA's  
 74 GRACE mission to assess pre-fire-season surface soil moisture conditions (January-April)  
 75 demonstrated skill in predicting both the number of fires and fire burned area in the following  
 76 May-April period (Jensen et al., 2017).

77 The goal of this work is to investigate the utility of remotely sensed hydrology observations for  
 78 predicting fire danger, defined as the amount of area likely to burn given an ignition, at spatial and  
 79 temporal scales commensurate with regional and global fire management decision-making.



Specifically, the objective is to investigate the utility of remotely sensed satellite-observed vapor pressure deficit (VPD) from NASA's AIRS mission and surface soil moisture (SSM) from a numerical data-assimilation of terrestrial water storage from NASA's GRACE mission as indicators for predicting monthly fire danger across the United States from 2002 until 2016 at the scale of the Geographic Area Coordination Centers (GACC) (**Figure 1**). To meet the objective, we test the hypotheses that burned area varies monthly as a function of previous months' water availability in the soil (SSM) and evaporative demand (i.e., previous months' VPD).

## 2. Methods

### 2.1. Datasets

For the purpose of this study, four input data sets were used (Figure 1):

1) Monthly VPD was generated from the AIRS near surface air temperature ( $T_{\text{mean}}$ ) and relative humidity (RH) Version 6 (Aumann et al., 2003; Goldberg et al., 2003). Please refer to (Behrangi et al., 2016) for the formulation based on monthly air temperature ( $T_{\text{mean}}$ ) and dewpoint temperature ( $T_{\text{dmean}}$ ) as well as the reliability of this formulation for monthly VPD derivation. The data are in 0.5 degree spatial resolution and available since September 2002.

2) Monthly surface soil moisture data were produced at the NASA Goddard Space Flight Center (GSFC) using the Catchment Land Surface Model (CLSM) (a physically based land surface model) and assimilated ground and space-based meteorological observations (Tapley et al., 2004; Houborg et al., 2012; Reager et al., 2015; Zaitchik et al., 2008). The SSM data are available since April 2004.

3) The Global Fire Emissions Database version 4 (GFED-4s) provided wildfire burned area, generated at 0.25 degree spatial resolution. GFED-4s is primarily derived from MODIS from 2001 to present and is reported as fraction of a cell burned for a given month (van der Werf et al., 2017). GFED data are available since 1997. In this study, we have excluded agricultural fires by masking out agricultural regions as classified by the 2011 National Landcover Database (NLCD 2011) (Homer et al., 2015).

For consistency, all datasets were converted using linear interpolation into monthly, 0.25 degree spatial resolution products that were then used to perform the model training and analysis for the period 2003 through 2016.

### 2.2. Analysis

GACCs are geopolitical boundaries that represent similar fire-weather types and are used to allocate fire management resources across the contiguous United States (CONUS) (Figure 1). In this study, we predict anomalous monthly burned area using a linear regression model; a separate model is developed for each GACC and for each month in a climatological sense. All fire events, for a given GACC and a month of the year are selected as a single population for model training. For example, all fires occurring in the Northern Rockies GACC, during the months of February 2004, February 2005, February 2006, etc. through February 2016 are placed into a single



122 population. Each monthly, 0.25 degree fire burned area observation has a matched SSM and VPD  
 123 observation at the corresponding time and grid location. These sets are then used to train the model,  
 124 and various time lags are imposed between the independent variables (SSM and VPD) and the  
 125 dependent variable (burned area) in order to maximize predictive skill.

126 Each GACC uses the “best” prior VPD-SSM combination for all months. The “best” model was  
 127 identified for each GACC by selecting the lagged model with the highest Weighted Nash-Sutcliffe  
 128 efficiency ( $E_w$ ):

$$129 \quad E_w = \sum_{j=1}^{12} E_j * FAB_j$$

130 where  $FAB_j$  is the mean historical fraction of annual area burned in month  $j$ , and  $E_j$  is the Nash-  
 131 Sutcliffe (E) for any given month ( $j$ ).  $E_j$  (Nash and Sutcliffe, 1970) is a metric that measures the  
 132 skill of the model against the skill of the long term mean value (i.e. persistence), defined as:

$$133 \quad E_j = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (AB_{obs,i} - AB_s)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (AB_{obs,i} - AB_c)^2}$$

134 where  $n$  is total number of observations,  $X_{obs}$  is observed area burned in month  $j$  and  $AB_s$  is the  
 135 model simulated area burned for month  $j$ , and  $AB_c$  is the mean area burned in month  $j$  over the  
 136 climatological record. E can range between  $-\infty$  and 1. E of zero shows that the model performance  
 137 is as good as the mean of observations over the entire record. If E exceeds 0, the model performs  
 138 better than the mean of observations and if E falls below zero, the mean of observations is a better  
 139 predictor than the model simulations. An E of 1 represents the perfect prediction by the model.

140 We constructed a forecasting method that would only rely on the model prediction of burned area,  
 141 as opposed to the burned area climatology, if the model had demonstrated skill for a given month.  
 142 The estimation of  $E_w$  for each GACC and for each monthly model ensures that months with higher  
 143 predictive skill are assigned a higher weight in the combined time series. Also, months exhibiting  
 144 higher amount of historical wildfire activity are assigned a higher weight as well.

145 The model is then defined as follows:

$$146 \quad AB_s = AB_c + AB_A, \text{ where } AB_A = a + b * (VPD_A) + c * (SSM_A) \text{ if } E_j > 0$$

$$147 \quad AB_A = 0 \text{ if } E_j \leq 0$$

148  $AB_s$  is the simulated area burned for a given month,  $AB_c$  is the climatological area burned or the  
 149 mean annual area burned by month,  $VPD_A$  and  $SSM_A$  are the anomalous VPD and SSM in one,  
 150 two or three months prior to the wildfire month. Different combinations of prior VPD and SSM  
 151 observations were tested to represent the reliability of a single VPD-SSM model per GACC for  
 152 the entire year.

153 Finally,  $AB_s$  is compared to  $AB_c$  by comparing two Nash-Sutcliffe (E) values of the entire time  
 154 series. The first E is measured using the 2003-2016 monthly time series of model predictions and  
 155 observations ( $E_{\text{simulated, observation}}$ ). The second E is computed by using 2003-2016 monthly time



series of climatology and observations ( $E_{\text{climatology, observation}}$ ). If  $E_{\text{simulated, observation}}$  exceeds  $E_{\text{climatology, observation}}$ , the model has more accuracy compared to the climatology. If  $E_{\text{climatology, observation}}$  is greater than  $E_{\text{simulated, observation}}$ , then the climatology has more accuracy in forecasting wildfire activity.

## Results

Figure 2 shows the hydrologic variable combination used to develop the best model of anomaly burned area using the monthly Nash-Sutcliffe ( $E$ ), the weighted Nash-Sutcliffe ( $E_w$ ), and the fraction of annual area burned for each month, while Table 1 shows the best variable combination for each GACC. There are some notable patterns, though few without exceptions. For example, Northern California, Northern Rockies and the Northwest all have the same peak month (August) for area burned, while also having significant fractions of evergreen (Figure 1). Area burned in the Great Basin also peaks in August, however it does not have substantial evergreen landcover, although at this spatial scale we can not determine if that is where fires happen. The models with the highest relative predictive ability throughout the year (denoted by weighted Nash-Sutcliffe) are generally in the GACCs with substantial landcover and dominated by fuel limited systems (herbaceous and shrublands): Great Basin, Southern California, Rocky Mountains, Northwest, Northern Rockies; however, the Southwest also has heavy herbaceous, but has relative low predictability throughout the year. Similarly, the Northern Rockies, Northwest, Rocky Mountains and Great Basin all have high predictability in their peak burned area month and are all substantially covered by herbaceous, but the Southwest does not. One pattern that is robust is that the Great Basin, the Southwest, and Southern California all rely on 1-month lead soil moisture in their predictive model and all also have substantial shrubland cover. Notably, the Eastern, Northern Rockies, Rocky Mountains, Southern California and Southern GACCs all have bimodal burned area distributions, but no similar landcover characteristics to explain the pattern.

Figure 3 shows two example cases of model predictions based on hydrological variables. We show results for our best and worst performing GACC in order to capture the range of model skill in different fire climate regions. For our best performing GACC, the Northern Rockies, we see consistent peaks in between dominant hydrologic variable, VPD and the fire area burned, suggesting the dominant role of VPD in fire burned area prediction for that GACC (Table 1). These strong relationships between hydrology and wildfire occurrence in the Northern Rockies confirms the findings of the previous studies (Littell et al., 2009; Westerling et al., 2011). For our worst performing GACC, the Southern, two hydrologic variables are seemingly much more connected and it is less clear what drives the pattern of monthly area burned.

In order to evaluate the model predictions against the observations, we have calculated two Nash-Sutcliffe coefficients (Table 1). As shown, for all GACCs, the model is forecasting the wildfire activity with higher accuracy than the climatology, but the improvement is variable by GACC. The results reveal that the Rocky Mountains and Northern Rockies GACCs have the best model performance ( $E$  of 0.82 and 0.64 respectively), while the Southwest and Southern CA ( $E$  of 0.34 and 0.35 respectively) show the least model performance. Similar to the time series of the Eastern and Southern GACCs, the model has not improved the climatology to a great extent. In all other regions, the improvement of the simulated compared to the climatology is substantial. The key





197 difference between overall evaluation metric ( $E_{s-c}$ ) and the time series is that the time series  
 198 demonstrate the variability of predictive ability from month to month.

199 Figure 4 shows the time series of wildfire burned area observation (blue), simulation (red) and  
 200 climatology (yellow) for nine different GACCs from 2003 through 2016. This figure shows that  
 201 the performance of the model varies by location and months. In general, the models capture  
 202 interannual variability for most GACCs. Notably in Figure 4, some months show the simulation  
 203 has higher agreement to the observations than does the climatology. In the Southern GACCs,  
 204 model performance is relatively similar to the climatology. In the Southern GACC, both the  
 205 simulation and climatology indicate close agreement with the observations. In the Northern  
 206 Rockies and Rocky Mountains show the highest agreement between model and observations in  
 207 the higher than normal fire years. Specifically, in the Northern Rockies, the model detects expected  
 208 burned area for the above-than normal fire activity years 2003, 2006, 2007 and 2012; and in the  
 209 Rocky Mountains GACC, years 2006, 2008, 2009, 2011, 2015 and 2016 show high agreement  
 210 between simulated and the observations. The model also detects higher than normal fire activity  
 211 in Northern California years 2012, 2014 and 2015, Northwest years 2006, 2007, 2012, 2014 and  
 212 2015, Great basin years 2006, 2007, 2012 and 2013, and Eastern for years 2004, 2012 for Eastern  
 213 GACC. Lastly, the simulation outperforms the climatology slightly for Southern CA and the  
 214 Southwest. However, neither model nor the climatology have detected inter-annual fire activity  
 215 for these regions with high accuracy.

216 Lastly, the models were built using only either VPD or SSM to determine the relative influence of  
 217 either variable on burned area within each GAAC (Table 1,  $E_{s,VPD}$  and  $E_{s,SSM}$ ). For some of the  
 218 GAACs, the influence of the variable appears to be associated with the relative fractions of  
 219 landcover influenced by that variable. For example, in the Northern Rockies, it is roughly half  
 220 evergreen forest and half herbaceous (Figure 1); evergreen forest typically need to be dried to  
 221 sustain combustion (high VPD in the month prior), while herbaceous communities typically need  
 222 wet conditions months prior to grow fuels (high SSM 2 months prior). Similarly, in the Northwest  
 223 it is roughly half evergreen (high VPD two months prior) and half shrub (high SSM three months  
 224 prior). The Rocky Mountains are mostly herbaceous and shrubland (high SSM three months prior)  
 225 but has some evergreen (high VPD one month prior). In Northern California, landcover is mostly  
 226 evergreen (high VPD one month prior) with some shrub (high soil moisture two months prior).  
 227 The other GAACs have less obvious relationships between landcover and hydrology.

## 228 Discussion and Conclusion

229 Wildfire activity results in billions of dollars of losses every year (USD 2015; NatCatSERVICE,  
 230 accessed October 2017). Forecasting wildfire activity could therefore substantially reduce the  
 231 damages associated with wildfire burned area. Historical wildfire prediction models have  
 232 limitations including the mismatch in scale between fire danger models and common application,  
 233 as well as the unreliability of meteorological data in remote regions. As such, current operational  
 234 wildfire forecast models for forecasts >10 days are heavily based on subjective expert knowledge  
 235 to predict expected area burned. Thus, the aim of this study was to predict area burned in different  
 236 geographic regions (GACCs) of the United States.



237 There are some notable patterns in predictive model development across GACCs largely driven  
238 by landcover fractional cover and mesoscale climate (Table 1). The Great Basin, the Southwest,  
239 and Southern California GACCs all have substantial shrubland cover and have the same soil  
240 moisture predictor (1-month lead). This could be a function of the shallow rooting of shrubs. This  
241 was the only pattern by landcover that was not contradicted by mesoscale climatic influence. For  
242 example, the Great Basin, Southern California, Rocky Mountains, Northwest, and Northern  
243 Rockies models have the highest predictive ability throughout the year ( $E_w$ ) and have substantial  
244 landcover dominated by fuel-limited systems (grasslands and shrublands). Fuel limited systems  
245 typically rely on pre-fire season conditions to grow fuels that carry fire, thus influencing the total  
246 burned area (Stavros et al., 2014a; Swetnam and Betancourt, 1998). Although the Southwest also  
247 has heavy grasslands, it has a relatively low predictability throughout the year, but is the GACC  
248 most influenced by the Southwest Monsoon, which can have variable onset that affects the fire  
249 season (Grissino Mayer and Swetnam, 2000). The southwest monsoon also explains why the  
250 Northern Rockies, Northwest, Rocky Mountains and Great Basin all have high predictability in  
251 their peak burned area month, but the Southwest (also substantially covered by grasslands) does  
252 not. Further substantiating the claim that mesoscale climate affects model predictability is the fact  
253 that Southern California has a bimodal distribution of fire area burned throughout the year.  
254 According to (Jin et al., 2014), there are two different kinds of fire in Southern California (those  
255 in the summer driven by hot and dry conditions and those in the fall driven by Santa Ana winds)  
256 and each have different climatic conditions explaining the number of fires and burned area.

257 Beyond climate and landcover, humans play a significant role in the predictability of area burned  
258 (Balch et al., 2017). This explains the bimodal fire distributions found in the Eastern, Northern  
259 Rockies, Rocky Mountains, and Southern GACCs. Most of the fires in the Eastern and Southern  
260 GACCs are prescribed burns, which can happen throughout the year (as denoted by the relatively  
261 flat, although slight bimodal distributions of percent annual area burned by month – Table 1). Also,  
262 there is a notable decoupling of the relationship between hydrologic variables and burned area  
263 (Figure 4) in the Southern GAAC, which has mostly anthropogenic fire starts, as compared to the  
264 Northern Rockies, which has mostly lightning caused ignitions when burned area peaks in Fall  
265 (Figure 2). This also explains why the simulation performs closely to the climatology (Figure 3),  
266 with only minor improvements in Nash-Sutcliffe as compared to other GACCs (Table 1). Notably,  
267 the GAACs that have a strong bimodal distribution perform less well than those that don't,  
268 however in all GAACs with bimodal distributions (Figure 2), there are substantial crop lands  
269 (which were excluded from the analysis) where agricultural burning occurs independent of the  
270 hydrologic conditions (Figure 1).

271 Mesoscale climate (e.g., monsoons) and anthropogenic influence on fire regimes, are likely less  
272 direct relationships between hydrologic variables and burned area. Specifically, the GACCs that  
273 are more influenced by mesoscale climate (Southern California and the Southwest) and by  
274 anthropogenic burning (Southern and Eastern) did not show a clear association between relative  
275 influence of the hydrologic variable and the relative fractions of landcover, unlike the Northern  
276 Rockies, Northwest, Northern California or Rocky Mountains.

277 In general, this work demonstrates how lead data on hydrologic variables that can be measured by  
278 satellite (i.e., not limited by proximity to in situ infrastructures) can be used to forecast fire danger  
279 1-month before it happens. In all geographic regions, the models improved over normal (Table 2)  
280 and demonstrated the ability to capture interannual variability (Figure 2). Future work should



281 consider how these models are developed by landcover type and if there are different models based  
282 on how that landcover type is typically managed (e.g., cropland vs. forest).

## 283 Acknowledgements

284 The data used for this study is freely available at:

285 Vapor Pressure Deficit (VPD): [https://airs.jpl.nasa.gov/data/get\\_data](https://airs.jpl.nasa.gov/data/get_data)

286 Surface Soil Moisture (SSM): <https://nasagrace.unl.edu/>

287 Fire Burned Area: <https://www.globalfiredata.org/data.html>

288 Land-cover map: [https://www.mrlc.gov/nlcd11\\_data.php](https://www.mrlc.gov/nlcd11_data.php)

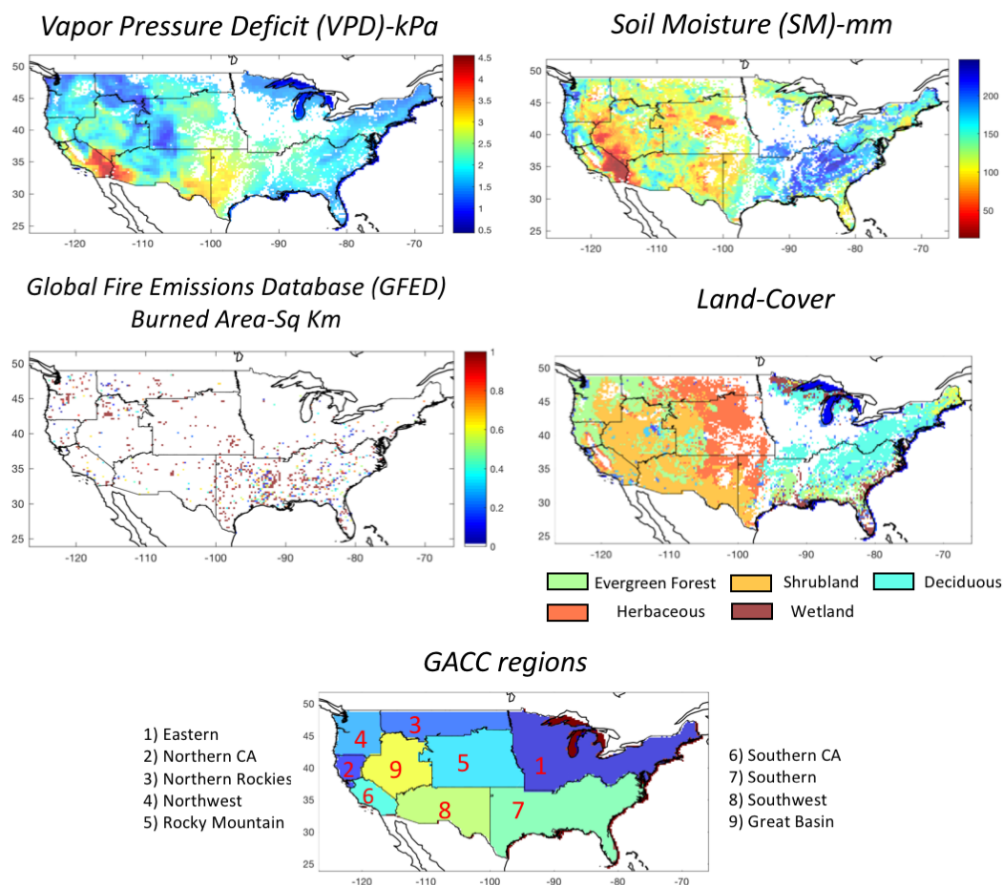
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293 Sciences.

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298 Figure 1: Snapshot of August 2010 of the datasets used in relation to the Geographic Area  
 299 Coordination Centers (GACCs).

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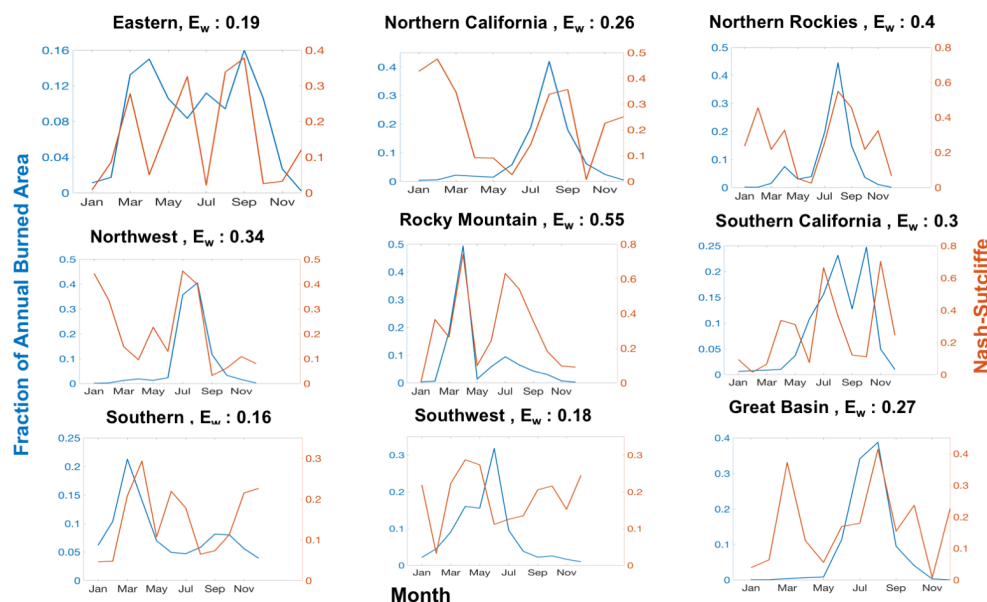
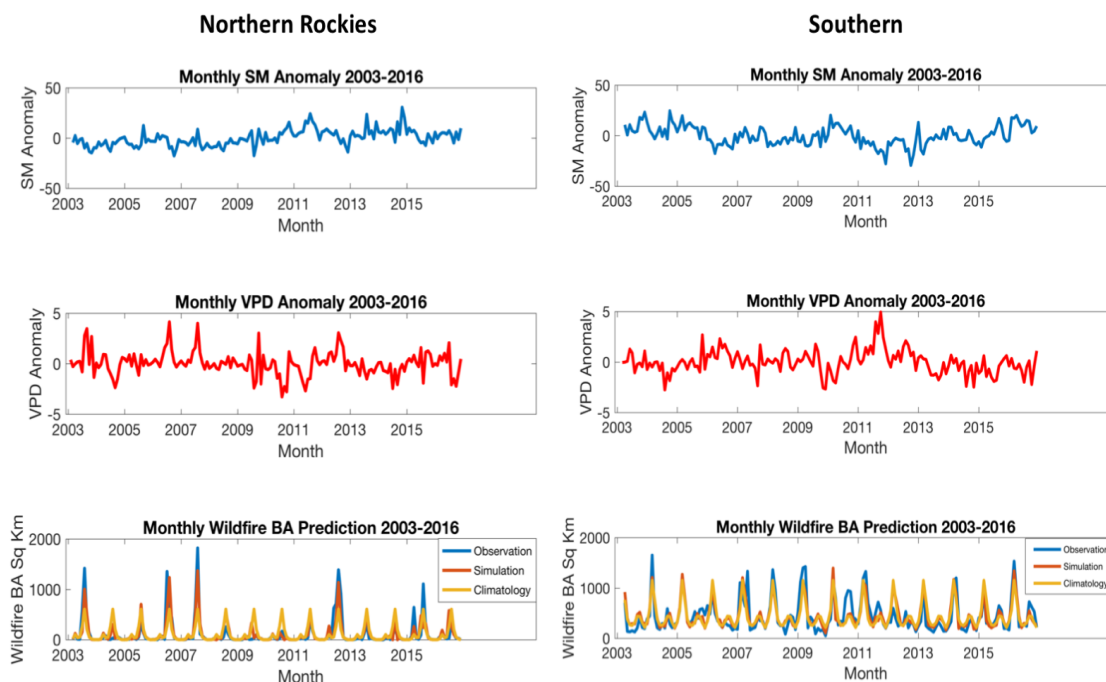


Figure 2. Model selection based on the monthly Nash-Sutcliffe for each GACC. The blue line shows variable peak fire month by mean annual area burned (FAB) and the orange line shows the monthly Nash-Sutcliffe for each GACC showing variable peak fire month. The weighted Nash-Sutcliffe is calculated using the different combinations of VPD and SSM. The best model was selected based on highest  $E_w$ , which demonstrates the relative strength of the different models by GACC.



309  
 310 Figure 3. The impact of hydrologic predictors on best and worst performing Geographic Area  
 311 Coordination Centers (GACCs) models. Monthly time series from 2003 through 2016 show the  
 312 GACCs with the best (left) and worst (right) coupled response of burned area (bottom) to vapor  
 313 pressure deficit anomaly (middle) and soil moisture anomaly (top); thus, demonstrating the  
 314 respective value added of these variables in the modeled burned area (“simulation” in orange)  
 315 compared to the climatology (yellow) as compared to the observed (blue).  
 316

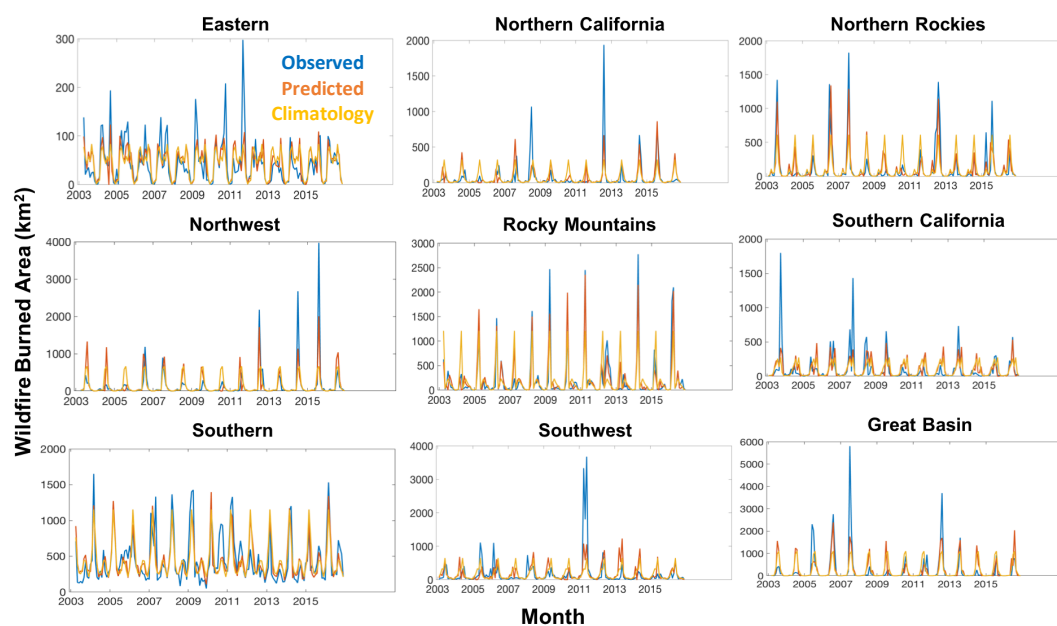


Figure 4. The ability of the regional models to predict (orange) the observed burned area (blue) is improved over the climatology (yellow), which demonstrates the ability to capture interannual variability by Geographic Area Coordination Centers.



GACC	$AB_A =$	$E_S$	$E_C$	$E_S - E_C$	$E_{S, VPD}$	$E_{S, ssm}$
Eastern	$VPD_{-2} + SSM_{-3}$	0.51	0.37	0.14	0.42	0.42
Northern California	$VPD_{-1} + SSM_{-2}$	0.44	0.22	0.22	0.29	0.33
Northern Rockies	$VPD_{-1} + SSM_{-2}$	0.64	0.38	0.26	0.63	0.39
Northwest	$VPD_{-2} + SSM_{-3}$	0.58	0.28	0.30	0.46	0.42
Rocky Mountains	$VPD_{-1} + SSM_{-3}$	0.82	0.51	0.31	0.64	0.61
Southern California	$VPD_{-1} + SSM_{-1}$	0.35	0.19	0.16	0.25	0.29
Southern	$VPD_{-2} + SSM_{-3}$	0.64	0.57	0.07	0.63	0.59
Southwest	$VPD_{-1} + SSM_{-1}$	0.34	0.16	0.18	0.28	0.23
Great Basin	$VPD_{-2} + SSM_{-1}$	0.47	0.3	0.17	0.43	0.37

342

343 Table 1. Overall model performance and separate influence of individual hydrologic variables. We  
 344 use Nash-Sutcliffe coefficients to describe the combined Soil Moisture (SSM) and Vapor Pressure  
 345 Deficit (VPD) simulation performance ( $E_S$ ), the climatology performance ( $E_C$ ) and the individual  
 346 predictor performance ( $E_{S, VPD}$ ,  $E_{S, ssm}$ ) vs the observations. All Geographic Area Coordination  
 347 Centers show improved performance ( $E_S - E_C$ ) on the VPD and SM combined model for Area  
 348 Burned ( $AB_A$ ). Either SM or VPD improve the prediction, but not as much as the combined model.

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