

1                   **Strengthening community engagement as a pathway to effective forest fire**  
2                   **management and resilient forests in Nepal**

3                   Rabindra Parajuli<sup>1,2\*</sup>, Asha Paudel<sup>3</sup> and Lila Nath Sharma<sup>4</sup>

4                   <sup>1</sup>Odum School of Ecology, University of Georgia, Athens, GA, 30602 USA

5                   <sup>2</sup>Center for Geospatial Research, University of Georgia, Athens, GA, 30602 USA

6                   <sup>3</sup>Department of Geosciences, Florida Atlantic University, Boca Raton, FL, 33431 USA

7                   <sup>4</sup>Forest Action Nepal, Bagdol, Lalitpur, Nepal

8                   \*Corresponding author email: Rabindra.Parajuli@uga.edu

9                   **Summary**

10                  Forest ecosystems are indispensable for planetary health. They provide sustenance  
11                  for around a quarter of global population. Forest fire is an important ecological  
12                  disturbance; however, it can cause ecological and societal harm due to anthropogenic  
13                  mismanagement and natural adversities leading to long-term socio-economic and  
14                  environmental consequences. Extreme wildfire events have increased worldwide over the  
15                  last decade, and events in Nepal are consistent with this trend. Nepalese forestry practices  
16                  have already set an example of successful forest management through local stakeholder  
17                  and community participation and thus demonstrate precedent in effective community  
18                  mobilization. However, recent reports suggest declines in community participation in forest  
19                  management process and overall weakening people-forest relationships. Here, we argue  
20                  on why Nepal should work on strengthening its long legacy of people-forest interactions

21 and how community engagement can support sustainable forest fire management. In our  
22 opinion, community led fire management is among the most viable approaches, with  
23 primary focus on preventive measures, i.e., reducing fuel loads in the forests. However, the  
24 Government of Nepal should provide clear policies and strategic frameworks to create  
25 such an environment where forest scientists, private sectors and non-profits can  
26 contribute to a national goal.

27 **Keywords:** wildfires; healthy forests; fire-resilient forests; sustainable forest management;  
28 community engagement; forest fuel reduction

29 **Background and context**

30 Forest ecosystems are vital hotspots for biodiversity and regulators of the global  
31 carbon budget. Globally, forests cover around one third of Earth's land surface yet support  
32 more than 80% of terrestrial biodiversity by providing a variety of habitats and resources for  
33 diverse organisms (CBD, 2024; FAO, 2022; Parajuli and Markwith, 2023; Stokland *et al.*,  
34 2012). Forests also play critical role in regulating global carbon by absorbing atmospheric  
35 CO<sub>2</sub> and storing it as biomass as well as transferring it to the soil via various chemical and  
36 biological processes (FAO, 2022; Lorenz and Lal, 2010; Ryan *et al.*, 2010). However, various  
37 natural and anthropogenic disturbances influence forests' ability to regulate atmospheric  
38 carbon, and wildfires are chief among them (FAO, 2022; Williams *et al.*, 2016). Importantly,  
39 how forest management also determines whether they act as net carbon sinks or sources,  
40 suggesting the critical importance of management practices and anthropogenic influences

41 for practical applications like forest carbon budgets, risk reduction and environmental  
42 restoration and mitigation (Kaarakka *et al.*, 2021; Parajuli *et al.*, 2025).

43 The overarching idea of forest management is to design and implement certain  
44 practices that are sustainable and appropriate for achieving specific economic, socio-  
45 cultural and environmental services from a given forest ecosystem (FAO, 2022). Similarly,  
46 one of the key ecological goals is to maintain healthy and resilient forests that can continue  
47 to provide optimal ecosystem services and can cope with disturbances (Cantarello *et al.*,  
48 2024; Messier *et al.*, 2019; Mina *et al.*, 2022). With around 25% of the world population  
49 directly relying on forest resources for their livelihoods, rising demand for carbon  
50 sequestration and Nature-based Solutions to reducing atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>, and the ongoing  
51 climate crisis leading to unprecedented changes in global forests, sustainable  
52 management of forests has been more important than ever for planetary health and human  
53 wellbeing (FAO, 2022; Kaarakka *et al.*, 2021; UNFFS, 2021). Due to forests' potential as a  
54 natural climate solution (Griscom *et al.*, 2017), the Paris Accord and later United Nations  
55 conventions continued to highlight the importance of sustainable forest management to  
56 reduce carbon emissions and enhance sequestration as a fight against global warming and  
57 its worst impacts (IPCC, 2018; UNFCCC, 2015).

58 The last two decades have witnessed an increase in the frequencies and intensities  
59 of devastating wildfires globally, with recent years being most extreme (Cunningham *et al.*,  
60 2024). While uncharacteristically large fires with extreme behavior were observed in the  
61 temperate conifer forests of the United States and boreal forests of North America and  
62 Russia, wildfires have generally become larger and more severe around the world

63 (Cunningham *et al.*, 2024; Hagmann *et al.*, 2021). In addition to an increasing pattern of  
64 frequencies and area burned, Nepal has also experienced some of the worst forest fires  
65 recently (Mishra *et al.*, 2023; Nepali Times, 2021). For example, the catastrophic wildfire in  
66 Gatlang area of Rasuwa district destroyed the forest stand with long-term effects on soil  
67 and vegetation still evident even after one and half decades (Dhungana *et al.*, 2024).

68 Wildfire behavior is governed primarily by three major elements, famously called the  
69 ‘fire triangle’, namely fuel (or vegetation), topography, and weather (or climate); and fuel is  
70 always a dominant factor controlling fire at different spatial and temporal scales (Keeley,  
71 2009; Moritz *et al.*, 2005; Pyne *et al.*, 1996). Since fuels (i.e., vegetation, living or dead) are  
72 the components that humans can most directly influence, effective management of forest  
73 structure and vegetation plays a crucial role in reducing wildfire impacts (Parajuli *et al.*,  
74 2025). Various management tools, technically referred to as ‘fuel reduction treatments’,  
75 are used to reduce fuel that helps to minimize the risk for devastating fires and associated  
76 hazards and maintain healthy forests. In developed countries such as United States and  
77 Canada, forest fuel reduction most commonly involves mechanical treatments such as  
78 thinning (tree removal), mastication (flailing, chipping and breaking), raking  
79 (collecting/piling), often combined with prescribed burning (Agee and Skinner, 2005).  
80 Whereas in developing countries, such as Nepal, India and Mexico, active community  
81 engagement for regulated resource extractions e.g., timber and fuelwood via thinning and  
82 pruning, and surface dead fuel and fodder collection, as well as some controlled or  
83 community-led burning are common and generally effective in fire management  
84 (Charmakar *et al.*, 2021; Dogra *et al.*, 2018; Pandey *et al.*, 2022; Van Vleet *et al.*, 2016).

85 Regular harvesting of surface biomass such as leaf litter and dead woody materials by local  
86 peoples, either as a part of the subsistence farming or for various innovative uses,  
87 contribute to reduced dry fuel loads in the Himalayan forests (Chandran *et al.*, 2011;  
88 Charmakar *et al.*, 2021). However, recent research shows declining community  
89 involvement, that is, a weakening people-forest interactions, in community managed  
90 forests of Nepal, contributing to increased fire events (Tiwari *et al.*, 2022), despite a  
91 recognized need to strengthen people-forests relationships (Baral *et al.*, 2025; Poudyal *et*  
92 *al.*, 2023).



93

94 **Figure 01:** Leaf litter collected for animal bedding and composting in Chaumala, Kailali  
95 district of western Nepal. Photo: Lila Nath Sharma.

96 **Why is maintaining people's interaction with forests critically important?**

97 Nepal's community forestry is a globally recognized success story of forest user  
98 groups' (i.e., local peoples') involvement in regenerating and conserving forests and at the  
99 same time supporting livelihood and local economy. Over 23,000 community forest user  
100 groups, largely self-governing local institutions, engage more than 16 million people to  
101 manage around 35% of country's forest resources (Gentle *et al.*, 2020). Being within the  
102 guidelines set by operational plans, users routinely harvest forest resources such as  
103 timber, fuelwood, fodder, dead leaves and beds, and non-timber products, and in return  
104 voluntarily contribute to various forest management activities. Such community-led forest  
105 biomass removal interventions, essentially equivalent to modern mechanical fuel  
106 reduction treatments in many developed countries that cost billions of dollars (Chang *et*  
107 *al.*, 2023; Wibbenmeyer *et al.*, 2025), contribute to lowering fuel loads and thus reduce  
108 forest fire hazards (Charmakar *et al.*, 2021; Markwith and Paudel, 2022; Pandey *et al.*,  
109 2022; Parajuli *et al.*, 2025). There are many success stories in Nepal where local people's  
110 regular and regulated harvesting of live and dead biomass from community forests, as a  
111 part of their livelihoods, has effectively reduce wildfire risks. For example, see Charmakar  
112 *et al.* (2021) and **Box 01** for cases from the Dolakha and Kavrepalanchok districts,  
113 respectively.

114  
115 **Box 01: Traditional Farm-Forest interactions maintain low-severity fires and lower fire**  
116 **hazards**

117 Hile Jaljale community forest (CF) 'Kha' is in Kavrepalanchok district of Nepal, spanning from 1500  
118 to 2000 meters above sea level with an area of 190 hectares. It is a mixture of both planted and

119 natural stands of pine and broad leaf tree species. This CF has 430 household user members from  
120 various settlements close to Banepa town center, around an hour of driving distance from  
121 Kathmandu – the capital city. People -forests interactions are quite frequent and regular, yet  
122 systematically regulated through CF operational plan, as local users largely depend on forestry  
123 resources such firewood, timber, fodder and leaf litter. By capitalizing their proximity to markets CF  
124 users are heavily engaged in animal husbandry and vegetable production as a major source of  
125 income. They produce milk, fresh vegetables, potatoes and various cash crops and all go to the  
126 market centers in Banepa and Kathmandu. Their active interactions with the nearby forest, mainly  
127 to extract resources to sustain animal husbandry and farming, have significantly contributed to  
128 maintaining both live and dead biomass in the forest. Although forest fires are common during dry  
129 season, users of Hile Jaljale CF consider that wildfires are not hazardous, i.e., low-severity fires  
130 without any serious threats to forest health and local communities. Key to such successful fire  
131 management lies in adequate fuel load management. Local people regularly harvest leaf litter and  
132 dead woods to keep alive their animal husbandry and agricultural production. Leaf litter is first used  
133 as animal bedding, which is then converted into compost and goes to the field, thereby adding  
134 nutrients and organic matter, a major portion of this is carbon, to the soil. While timber and  
135 firewood harvest is done at certain times of the year, leaf-litter collection is allowed all year around.  
136 These kinds of healthy people-forest interactions generate multiple socio-ecological benefits  
137 including sustaining the local economy and enhancing carbon benefits through soil-amendment  
138 and reduced pyrogenic emissions due to low severity forest fires. Similar to Hile Jaljale CF, where  
139 traditional farm-forest interactions are well maintained benefiting both local people and forests, if  
140 communities' engagements are sustainably intact, wildfire should not be an issue to worry about at  
141 all.

142 The role of local communities in reducing forest fuel continuity – horizontal and  
143 vertical distribution of flammable materials – and supporting effective fire management is  
144 not unique to Nepal; similar patterns are observed in other countries such as India (e.g.,  
145 (Chandran *et al.*, 2011), Mexico (e.g., (Van Vleet *et al.*, 2016), and historically in Australia  
146 (e.g., (Mariani *et al.*, 2024) and among Native American societies in the pre-Columbian era  
147 in North America (e.g., (Anderson and Moratto, 1996; Markwith and Paudel, 2022). Most

148 importantly, the case of Mexico is worth highlighting here, as it illustrates how community  
149 engagement should extend beyond ecological goals to also include substantial economic  
150 benefits for local communities. Mexico's community forestry model, that integrates  
151 technical forest management, indigenous governance and community owned forest  
152 enterprises, has proven highly effective in ensuring the economic resilience of participating  
153 communities while simultaneously enhancing ecological resilience and promoting  
154 sustainable forest management (Cubbage *et al.*, 2015; Mitchell, 2006; Van Vleet *et al.*,  
155 2016). For example, in Sierra Norte of Oaxaca, Mexico, community-managed forests  
156 supported increased biodiversity, experienced fewer large wildfires, and supported  
157 livelihoods and local economy (Farthing, 2024; Van Vleet *et al.*, 2016). The success story of  
158 this Mexican example could be relevant for Nepal, where similar enterprise-based  
159 community forestry approaches that maximize economic benefits for local communities  
160 may help strengthen peoples' engagement in forest management (Cook *et al.*, 2025). This  
161 approach could help address the issue to greater extent, as recent research from Nepal  
162 indicate that people's interest in managing community forests is eroding because of  
163 insufficient economic benefits and lack of employment opportunities (Cook *et al.*, 2025;  
164 Poudyal *et al.*, 2023). Additionally, with clear guidelines and policy frameworks for  
165 sustainable harvesting and processing, scientifically and socio-economically informed  
166 timber entrepreneurship could help meet national timber demand and reduce current  
167 imports (Dangi, 2025).

168 While Nepal's efforts in increasing forests and enhancing carbon sequestration,  
169 including a recent US\$9.4 million carbon credits grant (World Bank, 2025), can be

170 considered as a success, it is equally concerning that fuel loads are accumulating in  
171 Nepalese forests, especially in the mid-hills. Without timely intervention, these fuel loads  
172 could reach hazardous levels, and if burned, may release large amounts of carbon,  
173 negating decades of sequestration gains within weeks. Global evidence shows that  
174 elevated forest fuel loads, intensified by climate change, are driving uncharacteristically  
175 large and destructive wildfires that convert forests into net carbon sources and cause  
176 severe ecological and long-term socio-economic impacts (Jaffe *et al.*, 2020; Phillips *et al.*,  
177 2022; Roces-Díaz *et al.*, 2022). Once a forest attains hazardous fuel conditions, restoring it  
178 to healthy and resilient status is very challenging and often requires substantially greater  
179 effort and cost than maintaining it through regular management and fuel treatments  
180 (Alcasena *et al.*, 2022; Chang *et al.*, 2023). This is evident in the United States, which is  
181 constantly fighting devastating wildfires each year and spending up to \$7 billion annually  
182 on fire management interventions (US Congress, 2024).

183 With declining community and stakeholder participation due to several factors  
184 including less reliance on forest resources, increased use of alternative sources of  
185 household energy, outmigration, weak governance, low financial benefits and lack of clarity  
186 on policies (Benedum *et al.*, 2025; Cook *et al.*, 2025; Poudyal *et al.*, 2023), if proactive early  
187 measures are not implemented, forest fires could be a major nationwide problem in near  
188 future. The recent increase in frequency and severity of forest fires in Nepal (Mishra *et al.*,  
189 2023), has signaled that we are already in that direction. Since Nepal currently has very  
190 limited technical and financial strength to manage catastrophic large wildfires,  
191 strengthening people's interactions with forests and mobilizing communities for forest and

192 fire management appears to be the most viable strategy. India, the world's third largest  
193 economy, has also recognized community involvement as one of the top strategies for  
194 effective fire management, given that many rural people have close ties with forests and  
195 rely on forest resources for their livelihoods, making their engagement essential for the  
196 success (Dogra *et al.*, 2018).



197  
198 **Figure 02:** Invasive species and leaf litter biomass piled for composting in Diyal  
199 community forest in Jalthal forest, Jhapa district of eastern Nepal. Semi dried and chopped  
200 biomass in the foreground and ready to use compost manure at the back (black color  
201 partially covered with blue tarpaulin). Photo: Lila Nath Sharma.

202 Considering the changing socio-economic dynamics in Nepal associated with  
203 outmigration and remittance income, which affect affordability and promote alternative  
204 energy choices such as Liquefied Petroleum Gas (LPG), questions remain about whether  
205 strengthened community engagement can ensure full local utilization of forestry products.  
206 First, although firewood use may have declined and will likely continue to do so, it still  
207 remains a dominant source of household energy especially for cooking and heating  
208 (Kandel *et al.*, 2016; Paudel *et al.*, 2021). Second, there are multiple innovative ways to  
209 utilize forest biomass into various products (Cabiyo *et al.*, 2021; Chandran *et al.*, 2011),  
210 including composting leaf litter and forest residues into compost manure (see **Figure 02**,  
211 and **Box 02** for a case study from Jhapa, Nepal). Third, recent technological advancements  
212 allow forest residues, including fine and coarse down woody materials, to be converted  
213 into carbon-friendly products such as biochar, biofuels and coco peat. Experiences from  
214 developed countries demonstrate that forest biomass conversion into biochar through the  
215 process called pyrolysis is cost effective and technically feasible (Cabiyo *et al.*, 2021;  
216 Shabangu *et al.*, 2014). This can be implemented through private sector and business  
217 entities; however, the Government of Nepal should provide clear policy guidance.  
218 Furthermore, in addition to composting (see **Box 02**), invasive species issues in forests can  
219 also be addressed using this innovative approach, as any forest residue and waste can be  
220 converted into biochar via pyrolysis. Biochar soil amendments can store carbon for many  
221 years, help mitigate climate change, improve soil fertility in agricultural lands, and partially  
222 substitute chemical fertilizers (Bai *et al.*, 2022; Shyam *et al.*, 2025).

223 **Box 02: Harvesting forest residue to convert into compost helped in reducing forest**  
224 **fires and improving regeneration**

225 Multiple incidents of forest fire were common each year during dry season, generally between  
226 January to May, in Jalthal remnant forest of Jhapa, Southeastern lowland of Nepal. Those highly  
227 frequent fire events were a main challenge in forest restoration where invasive alien plant species  
228 (IAPS) mainly *Chromolaena odorata* (L.) R.M.King & H.Rob., *Mesosphaerum suaveolens* (L.) Kuntze  
229 and *Mikania micrantha* Kunth, have a large share in total biomass that serve as surface and ladder  
230 fuels, particularly in the invaded patches. Generally, encroachment by IAPS is an unnatural addition  
231 and alteration of fuel loads in forested and grassland ecosystems. Local communities-initiated  
232 compost manure production using forest residue primarily focusing on the biomass of IAPS in four  
233 different community forests (CFs) namely Diyal, Bishal, Pathibhara Kalika and Kamaldhap  
234 Rampokhari CFs of Jalthal between December 2019 to October 2025. Although *Lantana camara* L.  
235 is also present in the forest, this invasive species was not used considering its potential  
236 allelopathic effect that may result in poor quality manure. As a part of this innovative initiative, CF  
237 user groups (CFUGs) collected forest biomass and converted into compost manure and applied in  
238 local farms that helped improve fertility and soil health. During this trial period, approximately 75  
239 metric tons of forest biomass (mix of both semi- dried and dried) harvested from 50 hectares of  
240 forest patches invaded by IAPS have been converted into compost manure. Over the years, local  
241 people have witnessed and reported reduced fire incidents in forest patches where such an  
242 innovative biomass harvesting approach is being implemented. Additionally, this biomass  
243 management initiative has created jobs for local people, promoted organic farming and reduced  
244 chemical fertilizer use. Most importantly, this had aided in forest restoration by supporting seedling  
245 growth while reducing fire incidences in forests.

246 **Should controlled burning be an option?**

247 Traditionally, fire has been used as a management tool in different countries around  
248 the globe and stands as a successful strategy to maintain fuels, resources and services  
249 (Anderson and Moratto, 1996; Long *et al.*, 2021; Mariani *et al.*, 2024). Occurrence of fire is  
250 inevitable in ecosystems ranging from grasslands to forests with the variations in fire return

251 interval (Lauvaux *et al.*, 2016; Mariani *et al.*, 2024). For example, grasslands are well  
252 adapted and can be burned on yearly basis while forested ecosystems such as conifers  
253 have average return interval of 11 years and that of shrubland of 25 years (Lauvaux *et al.*,  
254 2016). There is rich evidence of how local people inherited the traditional knowledge of fire  
255 ecology to keep their natural areas adapted to specific type of fire frequencies and  
256 severities (Christianson *et al.*, 2022). This pattern of human interactions with fire ranges  
257 broadly from pine savannas of Florida and mixed-confers of California in the United States,  
258 bushland of Australia to forests and pastures of India and Nepal (Burrows *et al.*, 2020;  
259 Dogra *et al.*, 2018; Mukul and Byg, 2020; Paudel *et al.*, 2022, 2020).

260 There are examples in Nepal where people have been using fire as a tool to manage  
261 forests, rangelands, and pastures to promote various ethnobotanically useful plants,  
262 prepare agriculture land (e.g., shifting cultivation), regenerate palatable species and  
263 maintain overall ecosystem health (Lama *et al.*, 2001; Mukul and Byg, 2020; Paudel *et al.*,  
264 2020). However, the complexity of using fire as a management tool and generalizing its role  
265 to all ecosystems and across forest types can be misleading. Here, Nepal can learn from  
266 the experiences of the U.S. Forest Service and the consequences of their decades-long fire  
267 suppression policy, which aimed to extinguish fires as quickly as possible, regardless of its  
268 ecological role (Pyne, 1982). This resulted in extreme changes in historical vegetation  
269 dynamics and fire regimes, creating a highly challenging situation despite continued efforts  
270 by U.S. federal agencies to introduce prescribed burning to mimic pre-Columbian  
271 Indigenous fire practices, manage fuel loads, and restore historical norms. In U.S., forest  
272 and fire management actions are often criticized for not making a significant difference in

273 reducing fuels even though they are resource-intensive, and they are often constrained by  
274 safety concerns associated with the urban-wildland interface and risks to recreational and  
275 critical biodiversity areas (North *et al.*, 2015). Prescribed burning is also increasingly called  
276 into question for high pyrogenic emissions and negative impacts on air quality and public  
277 health (Campbell *et al.*, 2012; Ravi *et al.*, 2019). Therefore, given the country's high  
278 biological diversity and the long-standing interactions between people, forests, and  
279 rangelands, a landscape specific as well as ecologically and culturally informed approach  
280 to fire management is vital in Nepal, specifically weighing both the risks and benefits of fire.

281 Historical community-led fire in Nepal is a deliberate and carefully managed  
282 technique that often tied to agropastoral livelihoods, seasonal grazing patterns, and  
283 Indigenous land-management systems that rely on intimate knowledge of vegetation  
284 cycles, microclimates, and fuel conditions (Mukul and Byg, 2020; Schmidt-Vogt, 1990). In  
285 this context, controlled or managed burning is not simply an operational activity; it is a  
286 culturally rooted practice integrated into community norms, collective decision-making,  
287 and generational ecological understanding. Where these traditions persist, there is strong  
288 justification for supporting their continuation as a management tool. Community-led  
289 burning can maintain open rangelands, promote fresh grass growth, limit encroachment by  
290 shrubs and invasive species, promote forest regeneration, and enhance habitat  
291 heterogeneity. For example, in a community forest in Chitwan district of central Nepal, user  
292 groups led pile burning initiative reduced forest fires and helped in tree regeneration (see  
293 **Box 03**). Community elders and traditional practitioners often possess tacit knowledge  
294 such as appropriate seasons, ideal humidity and wind conditions, burning intervals, and

295 safe ignition patterns that allow them to manage fire in ways that align with local ecological  
296 dynamics. Safeguarding these practices helps preserve cultural and community identities  
297 while utilizing traditional ecological knowledge that modern fire management frameworks  
298 often undervalue.

299

300 **Box 03: Community-led burning prior to the dry season reduces wildfire incidences**  
301 **and helps forest regeneration**

302 Forest fire used to be a regular phenomenon during dry season, with high incidences in March-  
303 April, every year in Ranikhola Community Forest (Ranikhola CF) in Chitwan district, Nepal. Leaf  
304 litter and dry biomass from the invasive species *Chromolaena odorata* acted as an unnatural and  
305 excessive addition to the fuel load, a problem that is especially severe in the degraded forest  
306 patches. Regeneration of trees in these areas has been disrupted by annual wildfires, which have  
307 intensified in recent decades with the increasing infestation of invasive weeds. Aiming to support  
308 forest restoration, local communities initiated experimental control burning in six hectares of  
309 degraded patches before and during the dry season as a part of Participatory Action Research  
310 (PAR). In January 2023, Ranikhola CF engaged its members in collecting leaf litter and invasive  
311 species biomass. The collected dry biomass, apart from some fraction that was used as animal  
312 bedding and ultimately converted to compost manure, was piled up in safe sites and cautiously  
313 burnt in small heaps considering the suitable weather conditions – a community led controlled  
314 burning initiative technically referred to as pile burning. Another round of accumulated biomass  
315 was safely burnt again in February. During peak dry season of that year the controlled-burning  
316 experimented forest patch remained safe from fire, while adjoining areas and similar landscapes  
317 experienced several incidences of wildfire. By preventing fire event, this controlled burning helped  
318 protect over 5000 naturally regenerated tree seedlings. Although this was a pilot initiative and one  
319 year of experience may not be sufficient to draw firm conclusions, pile burning is a proven  
320 technique for fire management through the reduction of fuel loads in forests. Therefore, this case  
321 demonstrates that community-led burning and fuel reduction treatments conducted in advance  
322 can help reduce fire risk during the dry season.

323           In the global North, the United States has experienced forest destruction from  
324   devastating wildfires linked to historical fire mismanagement and disconnected people-  
325   forest interactions that recent research urges reviving for better fire management, risks  
326   reduction, and broader benefits (Markwith and Paudel, 2022; Parajuli *et al.*, 2025). On the  
327   other side, in global South countries like Nepal, India, and Mexico, there is rich evidence of  
328   communities utilizing their traditional ecological knowledge in maintaining healthy forests,  
329   promoting biodiversity and sustaining their livelihoods through regular engagement with  
330   forests, including the use of fire as a management tool (Dogra *et al.*, 2018; Farthing, 2024;  
331   Pandey *et al.*, 2022; Sharma *et al.*, 2021; Van Vleet *et al.*, 2016). By valuing its own  
332   traditions and strengthening the long-standing community-based practices, Nepal can set  
333   good examples of people led-sustainable forest fire management.

334   **Closing remarks**

335           The core principle of creating fire-resilient forests through various fuel-reduction  
336   activities aims to decrease biomass on the ground (i.e., surface fuel), in the crown (i.e.,  
337   canopy fuel), and in the layers between (i.e., ladder fuel). Nepal's long legacy of community  
338   engagement, which blends traditional knowledge of sustainable resource extraction with  
339   technical assistance from government and other partner agencies including non-profit  
340   organizations, has ensured that these principles are applied and has helped prevent large  
341   devastating wildfires. It is vital to maintain the intricate ties between people and forests for  
342   mutual benefits: people contribute to healthy ecosystems that sustain essential services  
343   for humankind, and forests support local livelihoods and continue to provide diverse  
344   ecosystem services. Anthropogenic or controlled burning can help manage surface and

345 ladder fuels and be ecologically beneficial in certain landscapes, and therefore, it should  
346 be continued where it has been historically practiced and informed by traditional and  
347 modern ecological knowledge. However, initiating new burning practices is generally not  
348 recommended, at least warrants well thought research and planning, because: a) not all  
349 landscapes are adapted to fires, and b) escaped fires can lead to severe impacts on  
350 biodiversity, carbon budgets, infrastructures and public health and safety. Moreover,  
351 experiences from developed countries show that the technical and financial resources  
352 required for managed burning are substantial, making such approaches economically less  
353 feasible for a developing economy like Nepal.

354 Nepal's forests are experiencing increased fire risks driven by multiple factors,  
355 including shifting fuel patterns and changing climatic conditions. Weakening people-forest  
356 interactions, partly due to low economic benefits and reduced dependence on forest  
357 resources, underscore the urgency of national strategies for sustainable forest and fire  
358 management. Here, we emphasize the need for collaborative action among government  
359 agencies, scientists, non-profits, the private sector, and local institutions to support  
360 communities through research, technical and financial assistance, and pragmatic policies  
361 that strengthen fire-resilient forest management, and most importantly, keep healthy  
362 people-forest relationships intact. In addition to acknowledging community-based forest  
363 management as an entrepreneurial endeavor, the Government of Nepal should timely  
364 introduce policies and regulations that create enabling environments for forest-based  
365 enterprises and private-sector investments in modern technologies capable of converting  
366 forest residues into net carbon-beneficial products such as biochar.

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