



AGU Word Manuscript Template

**"Fires of Unusual Size: Future of Extreme and Emerging Wildfires in a Warming United States (2020-2060)"**

**Authors: Jilmarie J. Stephens<sup>1\*</sup>, Maxwell Joseph<sup>3</sup>, Virginia Iglesias<sup>1</sup>, Ty Tuff<sup>1,4</sup>, Adam Mahood<sup>5</sup>, Imtiaz Rangwala<sup>2</sup>, Jane Wolken<sup>2</sup>, and Jennifer Balch<sup>1,4,6</sup>**

<sup>1</sup> Earth Lab, Cooperative Institute for Research in Environmental Sciences (CIRES), University of Colorado, Boulder, CO 80303.

<sup>2</sup>, University of Colorado, Boulder, CO 80303.

<sup>3</sup> Natural Capital Exchange, 2443 Fillmore St. #380-1418, San Francisco, CA 94115.

<sup>4</sup> ESIL, the Environmental Data Science Innovation & Inclusion Lab, University of Colorado, Boulder, CO 80303.

<sup>5</sup> Water Resources, USDA-ARS, Fort Collins, CO.

<sup>6</sup> Geography, University of Colorado, Boulder, CO 80303.

Corresponding author: Jilmarie and Stephens ([jilmarie.stephens@colorado.edu](mailto:jilmarie.stephens@colorado.edu))

**Key Points:**

- Large fire occurrence across the U.S. will increase by 56% between 2020-2060
- Annual burned area will increase by 60% overall and by 63% for the most extreme fires
- Increasingly extreme fires occur in U.S. West, with more numerous fire events in historically fire sparse Eastern U.S.

## 29 **Abstract**

30 Observed increases in wildfire activity across the contiguous United States, which have occurred  
31 amid a warming climate and expanding residential footprint within flammable landscapes,  
32 illustrate the urgency of understanding near-future changes in fire regimes. Here, we use a  
33 statistical model including future projections of both human population distribution and  
34 atmospheric conditions from climate models to predict the number, size, and cumulative area  
35 burned by wildfires. We find an overall increase in both the number of fires (+56%) and total  
36 burned area (+60%) during 2020-2060 relative to a 1984-2019 baseline, as well as ubiquitous  
37 increases in area burned (+63%) by the largest fires. Additionally, we predict the emergence of  
38 observationally unprecedented fire frequency in eastern U.S. locations where wildfire was rare  
39 historically (+71%), and unprecedented increases in the size of the largest fires in the Western  
40 U.S. where fires were historically common—underscoring the need to prepare for more frequent  
41 and severe fire even in communities unaccustomed to them.

## 42 **Plain Language Summary**

43 In this work we find that the future of fire in the U.S. will likely be characterized by more  
44 frequent and larger fires in most regions due to the changing climate and more people starting  
45 fires in new places. There will be more fires in the Eastern U.S. which have not experienced  
46 many fires in the recent past and the Western U.S. will see more fires that are even larger than  
47 the largest fires. These changes have major implications for ecosystem and fire management,  
48 disaster response and mitigation, and public policy.

## 49 **1. Introduction**

50 Over the past forty years, burned area in the United States (U.S.) has increased four-  
51 fold—at a rate of approximately 173,000 acres per year across the U.S. (Burke et al., n.d.).  
52 Numerous studies have focused on the western U.S. fire-climate relationships (Abatzoglou &  
53 Kolden, 2013; Dennison et al., 2014; Littell et al., 2009), projecting future burned area  
54 (Kitzberger et al., 2017; Littell et al., 2018; Liu & Wimberly, 2016; Spracklen et al., 2009), and  
55 large/extreme fires (Stavros et al., 2014), but few studies have examined these trends at a  
56 national-scale (Anderegg et al., 2022; Barbero, Abatzoglou, Larkin, et al., 2015; Barbero et al.,  
57 2014; Gao et al., 2021; Podschwit et al., 2018) or focused on areas with lower fire activity in the  
58 latter half of the 20th century like the Great Plains (Donovan et al., 2017) and eastern U.S.  
59 (Barbero, Abatzoglou, Kolden, et al., 2015; Prestemon et al., 2016), where there is also evidence  
60 of fire being responsive to warming and drying (Abatzoglou & Williams, 2016; Iglesias et al.,  
61 2022; A. P. Williams et al., 2015).

62 While climate variability and change explain a majority of area burned in many regions  
63 (Abatzoglou & Williams, 2016), human activity influences area burned through ignitions,  
64 suppression efforts, and land use/land cover change (LULC) (Chelsea Nagy et al., 2018;  
65 Mietkiewicz et al., 2020; Radeloff et al., 2018). These impacts become even more complex  
66 through non-linear interactions with environmental drivers (Abatzoglou et al., 2018; Cattau et al.,  
67 2020; Hawbaker et al., 2013; Syphard et al., 2017). Moreover, due to the ever-expanding  
68 “Wildland Urban Interface” (Radeloff et al., 2018), more homes and people are now located in  
69 fire-prone areas (Iglesias et al., 2021) than ever before. Because humans are responsible for  
70 igniting four times as many large wildfires as lightning across the U.S., and are today the  
71 primary source of large wildfires in both the eastern and the West Coast regions of the U.S.

72 despite human ignited fires being of lower intensity and smaller in size relative to lightning fires  
73 (Balch et al., 2017; Chelsea Nagy et al., 2018). It is important to account for these direct  
74 anthropogenic effects—especially the spatial distribution of people across the landscape—when  
75 considering future fire patterns.

76 Although large fires account for only a small percentage of the total number of fires, they  
77 comprise the majority of total burned area across the U.S. (Barbero et al., 2014; Stavros et al.,  
78 2014), and their capacity to exceed or escape suppression often makes them the most dangerous  
79 and costly wildfires to manage (J. Williams, 2013). Since large fires pose a significant threat to  
80 ecosystems, fire and ecosystem managers need to be better informed about where fires are  
81 expected to become more frequent, and how large the largest fires will become. To date, most  
82 future fire research that predicts annual burned area or probability of fire has excluded large  
83 regions of the U.S. defined as non-burnable by the presence of agriculture and barren land cover  
84 types, e.g., the Great Plains (Barbero et al., 2014; Stavros et al., 2014). These studies also lack  
85 explicit consideration of anthropogenic forces that lead to increased ignitions, peaking around a  
86 population density of approximately 10 people/km<sup>2</sup> (Pechony & Shindell, 2010), and changes in  
87 fuel.

88 In this study, we predict future fire events and sizes from 2020 to 2060 in the contiguous  
89 U.S. using Bayesian statistical models trained on historical fire, climate, and population data  
90 (Joseph et al., 2019). Historical fire events were obtained from the Monitoring Trends and Burn  
91 Severity (MTBS) program and were filtered to include only wildfire events >1000 acres (405 ha)  
92 and exclude prescribed and agricultural fires across the contiguous U.S., with no land types  
93 being excluded (e.g., agricultural land) (Eidenshink et al., 2007). We then use our models to  
94 estimate spatiotemporal trends in fires driven by projected future climate from eight global  
95 climate models (GCM) under the RCP 4.5 scenario, an intermediate emission scenario, along  
96 with projected population data under a population growth scenario where social, economic and  
97 technological trends do not shift significantly from historical patterns (SSP2: Shared  
98 Socioeconomic Pathway 2). Predicting the largest fire to ever occur in every ecoregion is  
99 extremely difficult, so it is common to use a fire size (ha, acres) threshold to capture a range of  
100 the largest fires (9,10), but this method often leads to the elimination of many ecoregions that  
101 only experience smaller fire sizes which are significant for a given ecoregion. Thus, we utilize a  
102 percentile threshold as done in Nagy et al. (2019) which identifies large fires proportionally as  
103 the largest 10% or 90th percentile of fires occurring within each EPA Level III U.S. ecoregion.

104 Our modeling approach in this study represents a substantial advance in three distinct  
105 ways. First, while most existing models are regional in scope and rely on simple linear regression  
106 models of climate and fire (Kitzberger et al., 2017; Littell et al., 2018), our model incorporates  
107 spatially varying non-linear effects of climate and population at a national-scale. Second, our  
108 Bayesian approach explicitly propagates uncertainty for derived parameters and when we  
109 integrate over the uncertainty in the predicted number of fires and the burned area we obtain the  
110 predicted maximum fire size per ecoregion (Joseph et al., 2019). Third, our use of the EPA  
111 hierarchical nesting of ecoregions across Level I, II, and III allows for the sharing of information  
112 among climatologically similar ecoregions (since level III ecoregions in a level II ecoregion are  
113 often adjacent). This nested approach therefore allows for the consideration of non-stationarity in  
114 relationships between climate and fire behavior for ecoregions that may shift in a warming  
115 climate.

116 Our key research questions are: 1) How much are large fires expected to increase over the  
117 next 40 years?; 2) Where will the most extreme fires occur in the future; and 3) Where will we  
118 see the emergence of fires (i.e., in areas where it has not been recently prominent)? The results  
119 presented are the ensemble average of the eight GCM's results, with individual model results  
120 presented in the Supplementary Information.

## 121 **2. Materials and Methods**

### 122 **2.1 Bayesian statistical models to predict fire regimes**

123 We used the models developed by Joseph et al. (2019) to predict wildfire extremes across  
124 the contiguous United States. Joseph et al. (2019) combined a 30-yr wildfire record with  
125 meteorological and housing data in spatiotemporal Bayesian statistical models, with spatially  
126 varying nonlinear effects to predict wildfires. Joseph et al. (2019) built one model to describe the  
127 total number of fires occurring and another describing the size of each wildfire. They constructed  
128 four models to model fire occurrence and compared the various models' predictive performance  
129 based on test-set log likelihood and posterior predictive checks for the proportion of zeros,  
130 maximum count, and total count. The models differed in the distributions used in the likelihood,  
131 with the zero-inflated negative binomial model having the best performance. They developed  
132 five models for fire size, each with a different distribution of fire size or burned area for a given  
133 fire event, and evaluated each model in terms of test set log likelihood and posterior predictive  
134 checks for fire size extremes. The lognormal model for the burned area provided the best  
135 performance. The model was trained on data from 1984-2009 withholding the period from 2010  
136 to 2016 to evaluate predictive performance. By allowing the non-linear effects of weather and  
137 housing density to vary across space, this model achieved good predictive accuracy for fire  
138 extremes at a regional scale over the six-year prediction window. Further model details are  
139 located in the Supplementary Information.

### 140 **2.2 Model Implementation**

141 Further model details can be found in the Supplementary Information as well as  
142 published in Joseph et al. (2019). A Hamiltonian Monte Carlo method was used to sample from  
143 the posterior distributions of count and burned area models. The models were fitted using the  
144 No-U-Turn Sampler (Hoffman & Gelman, 2014). Models were fitted in the Stan probabilistic  
145 programming language using the rstan package (Carpenter et al., 2017; Stan Development Team,  
146 2018). Four chains of 1000 iterations each were run, with the first 500 iterations discarded as  
147 warmup. After obtaining the output for each GCM the results were averaged to produce the  
148 ensemble mean which is presented in the main text and individual model results are provided in  
149 the Supplementary Information. Trends were fit with a linear regression model, where residuals  
150 and  $p$  values were used to assess fit and significance.

## 151 **3. National Fire, Climate, and Population Data Utilized**

### 152 **3.1 Model Training Data**

153 Wildfire event data for the contiguous United States was obtained from the Monitoring  
154 Trends and Burn Severity (MTBS) program (Eidenshink et al., 2007). MTBS data contains  
155 spatiotemporal information on the extent of large wildfire events from 1984-2019. Each event

156 has a unique ID, start date, location information, and final fire size. They define large fires as a  
157 fire 1000 acres (~405 ha) or greater in the western United States and a fire 500 acres (~202 ha) or  
158 larger in the eastern United States. To maintain a consistent analysis across the U.S. we analyzed  
159 only fires greater than 1000 acres, leaving 12,219 fire events.

160 The models were driven by meteorological variables from gridMET (Abatzoglou, 2013), a  
161 gridded product that blends monthly high-spatial resolution (~4-km) climate data from the  
162 Parameter-elevation Relationships on Independent Slopes Model (Daly et al., 2008) with  
163 temporal attributes from the National Land Data Assimilation System (NLDAS2) regional  
164 reanalysis using climatologically aided interpolation to produce daily surface meteorological  
165 variables. Daily total precipitation, minimum relative humidity, mean wind speed, and maximum  
166 air temperature were averaged monthly from 1984-2019 at the Environmental Protection Agency  
167 level 3 (L3) ecoregion, 84 across the contiguous US (Omernik & Griffith, 2014). We calculated  
168 the cumulative monthly precipitation over the previous 12 months for each ecoregion-month  
169 combination.

170 Population density was used as a proxy for the spread in ignitions caused by humans  
171 (Radeloff et al., 2018). Population density estimates were obtained from the Integrated Climate  
172 and Land Use Scenarios (ICLUS, [https://www.epa.gov/gcx/iclus-fourth-national-climate-](https://www.epa.gov/gcx/iclus-fourth-national-climate-assessment)  
173 [assessment](https://www.epa.gov/gcx/iclus-fourth-national-climate-assessment)) Version 2.1 Fourth National Climate Assessment which reports population data for  
174 the conterminous US based on 2010 U.S. decennial census data.

### 175 **3.2 Future Model Input Data**

176 We are utilizing the Multivariate Adaptive Constructed Analogs (MACA) dataset  
177 consisting of 20 Coupled Model Inter-comparison Project (CMIP5) GCMs that provided daily  
178 output of the requisite variables for future experiments under the RCP4.5 scenario (Abatzoglou  
179 & Brown, 2012). There are two MACA datasets, we are using the product where the GCM  
180 model output is statistically downscaled by bias correcting the GCM outputs with training data  
181 from gridMET for 1979-2012 (MACAv2-METDATA). This allows for the continuity of analysis  
182 between Joseph et al. (2019) and this project. From the MACA dataset we obtained monthly  
183 values of precipitation, minimum relative humidity, maximum air temperature, and mean wind  
184 speed. We then calculated the average of each climate variable at the L3 ecoregion scale for each  
185 month in 2020-2060. From the monthly ecoregion precipitation we calculated the previous 12-  
186 month precipitation total for each ecoregion.

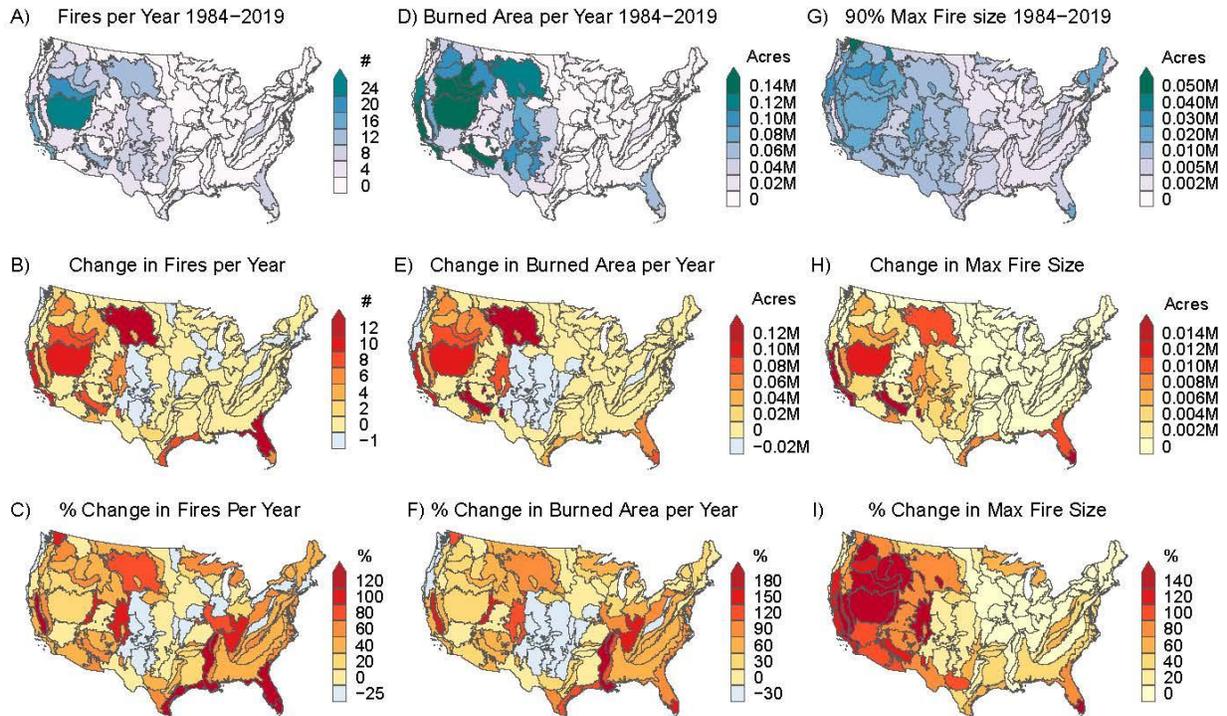
187 Of the 20 models available in the MACA dataset we chose 8 models based on the  
188 reported selection process for the USDA Forest Service to identify the best scenarios, climate  
189 models, and climate projections that could be applied at the scale of the conterminous United  
190 States (Joyce & Coulson, 2020). They ranked the models by the historical model performance  
191 which was based on 42 & 18 variable metrics (Rupp, 2016; Rupp et al., 2013). We used 8 out of  
192 the top 10 models ranked by both metrics, the other two models were missing the minimum  
193 relative humidity needed to run the model. We decided to only use the RCP 4.5 emission  
194 scenario because the choice of scenario has a very limited impact on climate projections by the  
195 mid-century, our cutoff period (Rangwala et al., 2021), and RCP 4.5 is considered a more likely  
196 scenario when compared to RCP 8.5 given our current commitments and observed trajectory  
197 (Burgess et al., 2020; *Hamburg Climate Futures Outlook*, n.d.; Hausfather & Peters, 2020).

198 Decadal projections of population up to 2100 were obtained from the ICLUS dataset  
199 based on 2010 Census population data along with fertility, mortality, and immigration rates from  
200 the Wittgenstein Center (<http://www.wittgensteincentre.org/en/index.htm>). These projections are  
201 consistent with the demographic assumptions of the Shared Socioeconomic Pathways (SSPs).  
202 We used the population projections from SSP2, known as the “middle-of-the-road” projection,  
203 where social, economic and technological trends do not differ greatly from the historical  
204 patterns. ICLUS v2 population is reported at geographical units resulting in 2256 units  
205 comprising Metropolitan and Micropolitan Statistical Areas and stand-alone rural counties. We  
206 used linear interpolation to estimate population density at the monthly time step per geographical  
207 unit and then aggregate across the geographical units to obtain an ecoregion scale mean monthly  
208 population density estimate for 2020-2060.

## 209 **4. Results**

### 210 **4.1 Large fire occurrence will increase 56% over the next four decades**

211 We predict that new patterns of projected fire events across the continental U.S. will  
212 emerge through 2020-2060 (Figure 1B-I). For results presented throughout this paper, CI refers  
213 to the 95% Confidence Interval. From the Monitoring Trends in Burn Severity (MTBS) dataset  
214 from 1984-2019 there were 12,219 large fires (> 1,000 acres or 404 ha) or an average of 339  
215 fires per year. In contrast, we predict a total of 21,132 (CI:16,701; 25,536) large fires or 528 fires  
216 per year (CI:441; 673) for 2020-2060 (Figure 2A), which is a 56% average increase in the  
217 number of fires per year. The model predicts an increasing number of fires in nearly all  
218 ecoregions, with some ecoregions projected to increase substantially more than others (Figure  
219 1A), which is consistent with previous research (Anderegg et al., 2022; Gao et al., 2021; Moritz  
220 et al., 2012). From 1984-2019, eight ecoregions had zero large fire events, while not a single  
221 model predicted an ecoregion experiencing less than one fire event in the next 40 years  
222 (mean=1.5 fires for those ecoregions). Across the U.S. the median number of large fires  
223 predicted per ecoregion was 125 and the mean was 251 fires. Places that had the largest number  
224 of fires in the recent past are projected to have the largest number of fires in the future. These  
225 ecoregions include the cold deserts of Utah, Nevada and the southern regions of Idaho and  
226 Oregon; Northwestern Great Plains centered on the border of Wyoming, Montana and the  
227 Dakotas; California Coastal Mountains and foothills; Arizona/New Mexico Mountains (Figure  
228 3A), and much of the Western Cordillera which encompasses the Sierra Nevada as well as the  
229 Rockies. For much of the intermountain west including the cold deserts of the Great Basin the  
230 fire activity has increased partly due to the presence of invasive annual grass (*Bromus tectorum*  
231 L.) (Balch et al., 2013; Bradley et al., 2018). There is evidence of invasives altering fire regimes  
232 in ecoregions across the U.S. including the desert southwest, eastern temperate deciduous forests  
233 and southern pine savannah (Fusco et al., 2019). For much of the Southwest and the Great Basin  
234 fuel availability is one of the factors limiting fires in these arid environments, with the abundance  
235 of precipitation in the previous year determining the current-year fire season (Abatzoglou & Kolden,  
236 2013; Mckenzie & Littell, 2016).



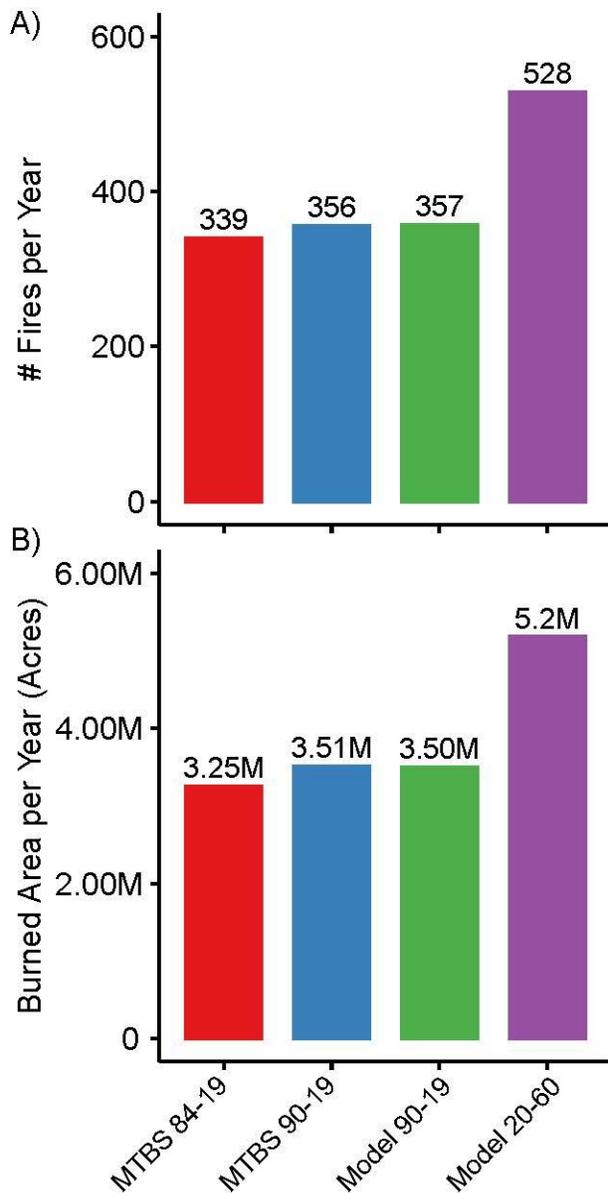
237

238 **Figure 1. Baseline and change in wildfires, 1984-2019 vs. 2020-2060.** A) Number of large  
 239 fires per year per ecoregion from the 1984-2019 Monitoring Trends in Burn Severity (MTBS),  
 240 B) Change in the number of fires per year per ecoregion comparing predicted 2020-2060 values  
 241 to modeled 1990-2019 values, C) Percent change in the number of fires per year per ecoregion  
 242 predicted 2020-2060 vs. modeled 1990-2019, D) Burned area per year (acres) per ecoregion  
 243 from 1984-2019 (MTBS), E) Change in the burned area per year per ecoregion, predicted 2020-  
 244 2060 vs. modeled 1990-2019, F) Percent change in the burned area per year per ecoregion,  
 245 predicted 2020-2060 vs. modeled 1990-2019, G) 90% maximum fire size (acres) per ecoregion  
 246 from 1984-2019 (MTBS), H) Change (acres) in the 90% maximum fire size, predicted 2020-  
 247 2060 vs. modeled 1990-2019, I) Percent change in the 90% maximum fire size (acres) per  
 248 ecoregion, predicted 2020-2060 vs. modeled 1990-2019.

249

250 Our model predicts that the Northwestern Great Plains ecoregion will have the largest  
 251 increase in the number of fire events, with a mean increase of 14.5 fires per year over 2020-2060.  
 252 The ecoregions that ranked 2nd to 5th by average annual increase per year over the future period  
 253 were: Southern Coastal Plain (13) with an increasing trend of 3.8 fires per decade from 1990-  
 254 2060 (Figure 3C); California Coastal Sage (11); Central Basin and Range (10.8) with an  
 255 increasing trend of 3.1 fires per decade from 1990-2060 (Figure 3B); Arizona/New Mexico  
 256 Mountains (Figure 3A) (10); Snake River Plain (9.2). There were 26 regions that had no change  
 257 or slightly negative change in fires per year (Figure 1B). Our model predicts that recent trends in  
 258 large fire occurrences in a warming climate will greatly increase. The Arizona/New Mexico  
 259 Mountains and Sierra/Klamath/Cascade Mountains ecoregions experienced increases of 0.6 fires  
 260 per year from 1984-2011, and here we predict that this will increase to 12.5 fires per year from  
 261 2020-2060. No significant trends were observed for the Basin and Range ecoregions in the recent  
 262 past (Dennison et al., 2014), but we project them to increase to 35.8 fires per year from 2020-

263 2060. The Great Plains have seen an increase from only 33 fires per year from 1985-1995 up to  
264 117 fires per year from 2005-2014 (Donovan et al., 2017), and has doubled to quadrupled from  
265 2014-2018 (Iglesias et al., 2022). Similarly, our model predicts the largest increase in the number  
266 of fires at 30.9 fires per year to occur in the Northwestern Great Plains. Even under lower  
267 emission scenarios, like the RCP 4.5, in the future the fire frequency and size are still projected  
268 to increase dramatically in regions like the Northern Great Plains, as well as the central and  
269 southeastern U.S. (Anderegg et al., 2022).  
270

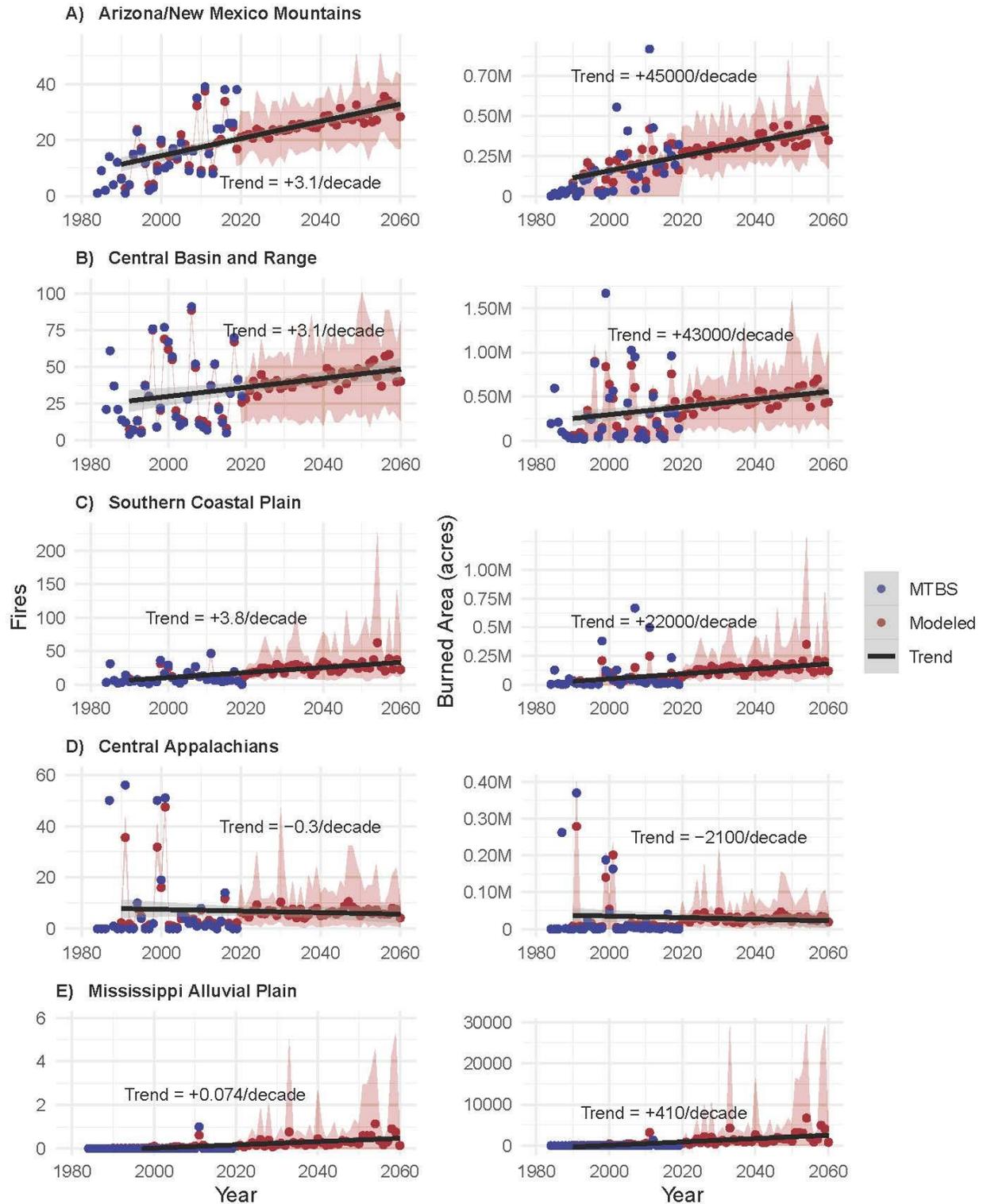


271 **Figure 2. Observed and modeled average number of fires and burned area per year for the**  
272 **continental United States.** A) Average number of fires per year across the continental U.S. from  
273 the: 1984-2019 Monitoring Trends in Burn Severity (MTBS) in red, 1990-2019 MTBS in blue,  
274 modeled past 1990-2019 in green, and modeled future 2020-2060 in purple. B) Average burned  
275 area per year across the continental U.S. from the: 1984-2019 Monitoring Trends in Burn  
276

277 Severity (MTBS) in red, 1990-2019 MTBS in blue, modeled past 1990-2019 in green, and  
278 modeled future 2020-2060 in purple.

279

280 Many ecoregions had little to no fire activity per year from 1984-2019 (Figure 1A). In  
281 these regions, even a modest positive increase in fires per year (Figure 1B) resulted in substantial  
282 relative increases in fire occurrence from 2020-2060 (Figure 1C). The largest relative change in  
283 the number of fires per year is predicted in the Mississippi Alluvial Plain (233%), the area  
284 surrounding the Mississippi River (Figure 1C & 3E), as well as the Southeast Coastal Plains, and  
285 Southeastern Plains in parts of western Kentucky and Tennessee. While we found the largest  
286 relative increase in fire events to occur in the Mississippi Alluvial Plain, others projected the  
287 highest relative increase in fire probabilities across the U.S. to occur in the Upper Great Lakes  
288 (Minnesota, Wisconsin, Michigan) (Gao et al., 2021), which are among the ecoregions we find  
289 an emergence of fire in the future compared to the satellite record of fire. Eleven ecoregions are  
290 predicted to have fewer fires per year in the future. These regions are predicted to have a  
291 decrease in fires per year and therefore a negative percent change in the future: Coast Range (-  
292 25%) encompassing the coasts of California, Oregon and Washington; Central Appalachians (-  
293 10%) and a decreasing trend of -0.3 fires per decade from 1990-2060 (Figure 3D); and the  
294 Southwestern Tablelands (-1.5%) in northeastern New Mexico. Some of the regions that are  
295 predicted to have the largest number of fires in the future but also have historically experienced  
296 many fires will still see moderate relative increases, with a 44.8% increase in Cold Deserts and a  
297 65.6% increase in the Central Semi-Arid Prairies (Figure 1C).



298  
 299  
 300  
 301  
 302  
 303

**Figure 3. Trends in number of fires and area burned for selected ecoregions.** Number of fires and burned area (acres) per year from the Monitoring Trends in Burn Severity (MTBS) (blue dots: 1984-2019) and median Modeled (ensemble red dots, shading is the range in median estimates from eight GCMs: 1990-2060) along with decadal trends for the A) Arizona/New Mexico Mountains, B) Central Basin and Range, C) Southern Coastal Plain, D) Central

304 Appalachians, E) Mississippi Alluvial Plain ecoregions. All trends, except the Central  
305 Appalachians, are statistically significant  $p < 0.05$ .

#### 306 **4.2 Annual Burned area will increase 60% over the next four decades**

307 For 1984-2019 the MTBS dataset reported a total burned area of 117M acres and an  
308 average 3.25M acres per year from large fires. The predicted total burned area for 2020-2060 is  
309 207M acres (CI:157M, 257M) with an average 5.2M acres per year (CI: 4.28M, 6.90M) across  
310 all ecoregions (Figure 2B), an increase of 60% over the observed past burned area per year.  
311 Similar to the observed burned area per year (Figure 1D), the Cold Deserts were predicted to be  
312 the ecoregions with the largest burned area per year with the Central Basin and Range (0.46M  
313 acres/yr) (Figure 3B), followed by the Northern Basin and Range (0.34M acres/yr). Fourteen  
314 ecoregions had a predicted total burned area of less than 10,000 acres. These 14 ecoregions were  
315 the same regions that had 0 to 1 event during the 36-year MTBS record.

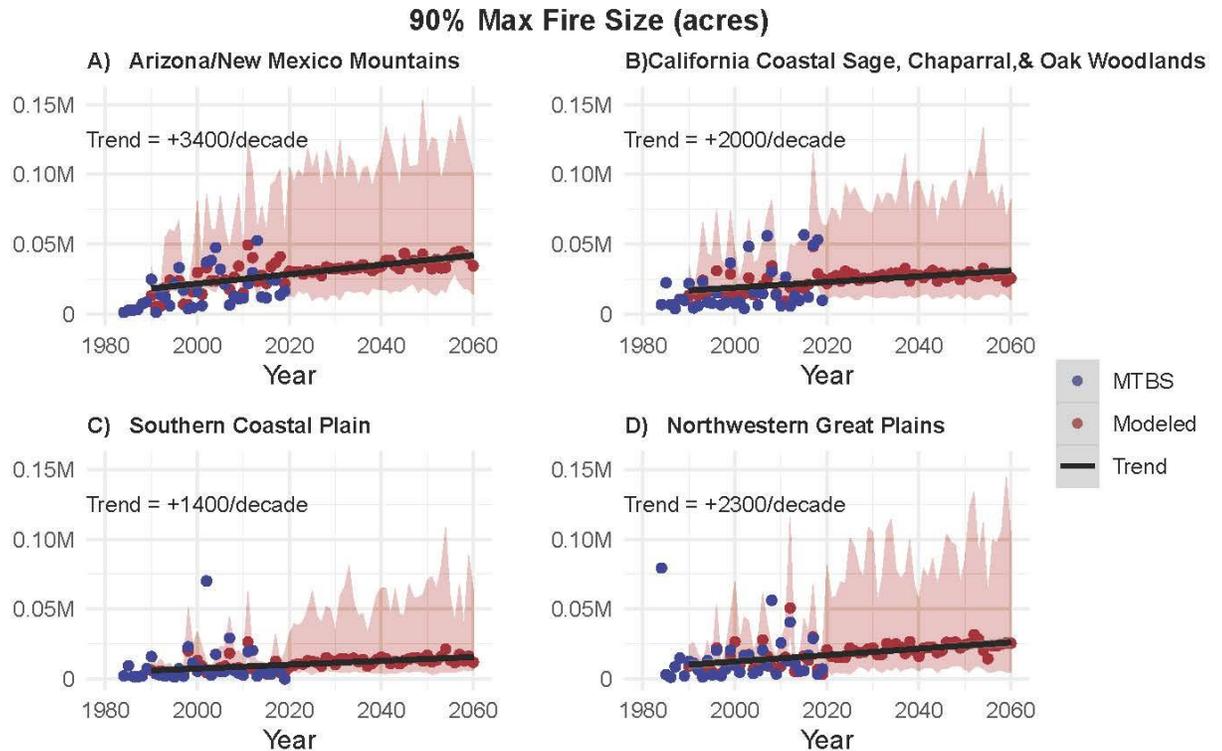
316  
317 The Arizona/New Mexico Mountains ecoregion was predicted to have the largest  
318 increase in burned area per year for the period 2020-2060, with an increase of 0.13M acres per  
319 year and an increasing trend of 45,000 acres per decade for 1990-2060 (Figure 3A). The top five  
320 regions with the largest increasing change in burned area per year are all located in the western  
321 U.S. (Figure 1E). Eleven ecoregions mostly clustered in the South Central Semi-Arid Prairies  
322 located from Nebraska to Texas, along with Central Appalachians were predicted to have a  
323 decrease in burned area per year. Outside of the western U.S. the only regions predicted to have  
324 large increases in burned area per year are in the Southern Coastal Plains and Western gulf  
325 coastal Plains of Texas, predicted to have an average annual burned area of 0.12M acres. Other  
326 research predicts a small increase in annual area burned for the entire Southeast but for an  
327 ecoregion that includes the Southern Coastal Plain of Florida and the Middle Atlantic Coastal  
328 Plain (coastline of Georgia and Carolinas) the median annual area burned is projected to rise by  
329 21.6% (Prestemon et al., 2016). Our model predicts the largest increases per year in burned area  
330 for much of the western U.S., but research comparing annual area burned from 1972-2015 with  
331 projections for 2010-2030, saw significantly larger change, with a greater than five times  
332 increase in annual area burned over the northwestern Intermountain U.S. (including northern  
333 Idaho, western Montana and western Wyoming), central Rockies (central Utah and northern  
334 Colorado), southern Rockies and Southwest (New Mexico and northern Arizona) (Kitzberger et  
335 al., 2017).

336 Similar to the percent change in total number of fires, the model predicts larger increases  
337 in burned area per year along the Mississippi River down to the Gulf Coast with large percent  
338 changes also occurring in the Southeastern Plains of Alabama, Georgia, and the Carolinas  
339 (Figure 1F). The model predicted that the Mississippi Alluvial Plain would have the largest  
340 percent change in burned area per year (372%), followed by the Southern Florida Coastal Plain  
341 (172%). In the west, the Central California Valley (171%) is predicted to see the largest percent  
342 increase in burned area per year. The model predicted that the coast from Washington to  
343 Northern California would see the greatest negative percent change (-29%) in burned area per  
344 year. The ecoregion with the second largest predicted negative percent change is the Central  
345 Appalachians (-23%). The Southern Rockies in Colorado are among the regions projected to see  
346 over 100% increase in burned area per year. Research found even greater percent changes in  
347 annual area burned with an increase of 175% for the Rocky Mountain Forest by 2046-2055  
348 compared to 1996-2005 (Spracklen et al., 2009). They found little change in area burned by 2050

349 for the Eastern Rocky Mountains/Great Plains ecoregions but our model predicts the Northern  
350 Great Plains will see an average increase of 74% in burned area per year while the South-Central  
351 Prairies of the Great Plains will have an average increase of 5% with many of the ecoregions  
352 seeing slight decreases in burned area per year.

### 353 **4.3 Widespread increases in the sizes of the largest fires**

354 The places that recently had the largest burned area per year were also among the regions  
355 that had larger maximum fire sizes. The among-ecoregion median of the 90th percentile fire size  
356 from the MTBS dataset for 1984-2019 was 8,558 acres, while the largest 90th percentile fire size  
357 was 53,377 acres in the North Cascades in central Washington. These ecoregions include much  
358 of the mountains in the western U.S. that make up the Western Cordillera (Figure 1G). The 90th  
359 percentile maximum fire sizes are an order of magnitude smaller than the largest events observed  
360 in an ecoregion because the largest fires are extreme tail events while the 90th percentile value  
361 tells you that 10% of all the events in that ecoregion are larger. The ecoregions with the largest  
362 change in maximum fire size were similar to the ecoregions that had the largest change in  
363 number of fires and burned area per year. The California Coastal Mountains and Foothills are  
364 predicted to have the largest change in maximum fire size with an increase of 28,192 acres  
365 (Figure 1H) and an increasing trend of 2,000 acres per decade (Figure 4B). The Arizona/New  
366 Mexico Mountains is the ecoregion with the 2nd largest projected increase in maximum fire size  
367 of 27,869 acres or a trend of 3,400 acres per decade (Figure 4A) which is a 31% decrease from  
368 the observed trend in maximum fire sizes from 1984-2011 for the Arizona/New Mexico  
369 Mountains (Dennison et al., 2014). For the same time period, the Sierra/Klamath/Cascade  
370 Mountains ecoregion had a negative trend of over 500 acres per year (Dennison et al., 2014) for  
371 the maximum fire size, which our model predicts to reverse and increase to a trend of 158 acres  
372 per year. The Rocky Mountains and Cold Deserts are also expected to have large increases in the  
373 maximum fire size by 2060 (Figure 1H). This is consistent with the projected increases in the  
374 probability of very large fires across the continental U.S. with the largest increases occurring in  
375 regions that had observed many very large fires in recent decades including the intermountain  
376 west covering the Great Basin and Western Cordillera (Barbero, Abatzoglou, Larkin, et al.,  
377 2015).



378  
 379 **Figure 4. Trends in maximum fire size for selected ecoregions.** 90% maximum fire size per  
 380 year from the Monitoring Trends in Burn Severity (MTBS) (blue dots: 1984-2019) and mean  
 381 Modeled 90<sup>th</sup> quantile fire size (ensemble red dots mean of eight GCMs: 2020-2060, shading is  
 382 the range from the 85<sup>th</sup> quantile to the 97<sup>th</sup> quantile fire sizes) along with decadal trends for the  
 383 A) Arizona/New Mexico Mountains, B) California Coastal Sage, Chaparral, and Oak  
 384 Woodlands, C) Southern Coastal Plain, D) Northwestern Great Plains ecoregions. All trends are  
 385 statistically significant  $p < 0.005$ .

386  
 387 Across the U.S. our model predicts that maximum fire sizes will increase by an average  
 388 of 63%. The regions expected to see the largest relative increase in the maximum fire size occur  
 389 mostly in the western U.S. (including the Rockies, Sierra-Nevadas and the Great Basin regions)  
 390 (Figure 1I), similar to previous research on very large fire probability (Larkin et al., 2015). The  
 391 southern two-thirds of the western U.S. had a 132% linear increase in the probabilities in very  
 392 large fires from 1984-2010 as well as a significant increase in probabilities across the Southeast  
 393 US, especially in Florida (Barbero et al., 2014). For the southern western U.S. our model predicts  
 394 a similar average increase of 128% in the maximum fire size and for the Southeastern Coastal  
 395 Plains an average increase of 92% for 2020-2060 compared to the modeled 1990-2019 values, or  
 396 a trend of 1,400 acres per decade (Figure 4C). In the future the mean probability of a very large  
 397 fire across the western US increased 30% for 2031-2060 compared to 1950–2005 observations,  
 398 with Eastern Great Basin (Idaho), Pacific Northwest, Rocky Mountains, and Southwest (Arizona  
 399 and New Mexico), showing at least a 200% increase in probability of a very large fire (Stavros et  
 400 al., 2014). The model predicted ecoregion with the biggest percent change in the maximum fire  
 401 size is the Snake River Plain (207%).

402

#### 403 **4.4 Emerging fire regimes expected in the eastern U.S. over the next four decades**

404 In the satellite recording era, much of the Eastern U.S. has observed minimal fire events,  
405 burned area, and maximum fire sizes (Figure 1A, D, G) but our models predict small absolute  
406 increases in the number and sizes of future events over the next four decades (Figure 1B, E, H),  
407 which lead to large increases in the percent change in the number of fires, burned area, and  
408 maximum fire sizes in the future (Figure 1C, F, I). Of the eastern regions, the Mississippi  
409 Alluvial Plain, the area surrounding most of the Mississippi River, is the ecoregion predicted to  
410 have the largest relative change in both the number of fires per year (233%) and burned area per  
411 year (372%). The Southeastern Plains in parts of western Kentucky and Tennessee are predicted  
412 to have large relative increases in the number of fires per year in the future, while the  
413 Southeastern Plains of Alabama, Georgia and the Carolinas are predicted to have large relative  
414 increases in burned area per year. These regions, along with the rest of the U.S., see increases in  
415 the percent change in maximum fire size. Our prediction of the emergence of more extreme fire  
416 regimes in these eastern ecoregions that have often been excluded from fire modeling efforts due  
417 to their recent lack of fire events shows the importance of their inclusion because managers and  
418 people living in these regions need to prepare for a future of more and larger fire events.

### 419 **5. Conclusions**

#### 420 **5.1 More extreme large fires in the west & emerging fire in the east expected in the** 421 **future**

422 Our results suggest that the observed increasing trends in the number of fires and fire size  
423 across the continental U.S. will continue over the next several decades, even on a moderate  
424 warming trajectory (RCP 4.5) and moderate population growth scenario (SSP2). In the present  
425 study, we seek for the first time to incorporate all of the key elements: number of fires and  
426 maximum fire size, in addition to area burned for the entire continental United States while  
427 accounting for human ignitions, in a single comprehensive study across all EPA ecoregions. To  
428 date, most future fire research has focused on projections of fire probability or burned area, and  
429 the relative change in these quantities, rather than the actual number of fire events—and most  
430 such studies have omitted direct anthropogenic influences on ignition likelihood (Barbero et al.,  
431 2014; Larkin et al., 2015; Stavros et al., 2014). In addition, prior research on U.S. wildfire has  
432 mainly focused on the drier western third of the country while ignoring the Great Plains and  
433 lower fire frequency zones in the southern and eastern U.S.

434  
435 We find that climate change will likely cause wildfires to spread into regions where such  
436 events were rare in the satellite recording era (e.g., around the Great Lakes, along the Mississippi  
437 River down to the Gulf of Mexico), and lead to much larger wildfires that reach historically  
438 unprecedented sizes in regions where fires were historically common (e.g. the Cold Deserts and  
439 Western Cordillera). Ecoregions that are predicted to have the largest total number of fire events  
440 are not the same ecoregions that are predicted to have the largest total burned area under the  
441 same moderate (RCP4.5) climate model forcing. On a contiguous U.S-wide basis, we find that  
442 the number of large fires is expected to increase over 2020-2060. Regions that had the most fires  
443 in the past will generally remain the most frequent burning regions in the future, although the  
444 Southern Florida Coastal Plain emerges as a new frequent fire region. Further, we find that the  
445 changes in percent area burned in the future (+60%) slightly larger than the percent increase in  
446 the number of fire events (+56%)—and that maximum fire size increases more (+63%) than

447 either of the other two metrics. Though our modeling predicts larger relative increases in burned  
448 area in the Eastern U.S., where large fires were rare in the observed record, the largest absolute  
449 increases in area burned occur in the West (specifically, the Western Mountains and Cold Desert  
450 ecoregions).

451  
452 The fact that overall burned area as well as maximum fire size increases by a larger  
453 increment than the number of fires suggests a possible non-linear relationship between climate  
454 change and the most extreme wildfires, as has been hinted at in recent research based on  
455 observed trend in the U.S. West (Juang et al., 2022). This may relate to the relatively stronger  
456 climate signal, compared to the anthropogenic ignition signal—though we note that both forcings  
457 could potentially be underestimated if either climate change or population growth occur faster  
458 than the intermediate scenarios used in this study. Historically, it is the largest wildfires that are  
459 most likely to exceed active firefighting efforts (for a variety of reasons including rapidly  
460 expanding perimeters, the increased likelihood of expanding amid complex topography, and/or  
461 firefighting resource exhaustion). Although active fire suppression is not explicitly included in  
462 our modeling, it is plausible that any underlying non-linear empirical relationships in the real-  
463 world fire training dataset—on which active suppression occurred in many cases—is nonetheless  
464 indirectly represented in the predictive model. Either way, one key implication of our predictions  
465 is that much larger future fires will increasingly challenge suppression efforts in a warming  
466 climate—perhaps acting as a positive feedback to maximum fire size.

467  
468 One key conclusion from our study is the high likelihood of more frequent and larger  
469 extreme fire events in most parts of the U.S. Regions currently experiencing few fires will see  
470 the smallest relative increases in maximum fire size, while the places that burn regularly will see  
471 the largest relative increases as well as the largest maximum fire sizes. Most of the southeastern  
472 ecoregions are among those expected to see the largest relative increases in the number of fires  
473 and acres burned per year, while the western ecoregions see the largest relative increases in 90th  
474 percentile maximum fire sizes. Previous work demonstrated that total annual area burned in a  
475 given region is strongly influenced by the largest wildfires (Stavros et al., 2014), but as our  
476 results show there can be significant increases in maximum fire sizes despite minimal increases  
477 in annual burned area in the same ecoregion. It has already been recognized that human ignitions  
478 affect the spatial patterns of large fires (Balch et al., 2017; Chelsea Nagy et al., 2018), and the  
479 very largest fires are driven by different climatic conditions compared to other large fires in the  
480 western and eastern U.S. (Barbero et al., 2014; Stavros et al., 2014). However, our own previous  
481 work developing the predictive model used in the present study suggests that ordinary events  
482 provide information on extremes, which would not be the case if extreme events were driven by  
483 completely unique climatic conditions from the ordinary events (Joseph et al., 2019). Previous  
484 studies have also excluded agricultural areas (deeming them “non-burnable”) and regions that  
485 experienced fewer than five very large fires in their training data—but in the present study, these  
486 are some of the regions we project to have the largest relative increase in maximum fire size  
487 (including the Central Valley of California and parts of the Great Plains). In the only other study  
488 (to the authors’ knowledge), that uses Bayesian statistics and climate from multiple GCMs to  
489 predict very large fire occurrence across the CONUS, the authors only considered 16 ecoregions  
490 (Podschwit et al., 2018)(rather than the 84 ecoregions in the present work).

## 491 **5.2 Model Caveats**

492 Our model does not include explicit vegetation information, rather is using the ecoregions as  
493 proxy. Without explicit vegetation information there is no vegetation feedback (i.e already  
494 burned area not being able to be burned again within a certain timeframe)(Parks et al., 2015) or  
495 changes in vegetation distribution and subsequent climate-fire relationships. We limited our  
496 scope of study like others who realize that future changes in fire will require simulation of  
497 vegetation response to both climate and disturbance including fire (Kitzberger et al., 2017).  
498 Some research found when vegetation change is included in future fire modeling the total burned  
499 area increases dramatically compared to if it is excluded (Liu & Wimberly, 2016) while others  
500 found when future projections accounted for interactions among prior fires on surface and  
501 canopy fuel availability area burned reduced by 14.3% for in the Sierra Nevada compared to  
502 projections where only climate drivers were considered (Hurteau et al., 2019). The GCMS that  
503 provided the climate data for this study can represent fire occurrence but poorly and there is no  
504 agreement between models on past fire occurrence and how it might change in the future  
505 (Kloster & Lasslop, 2017). Future fire predictions are present in some GCMS in CMIP6 but none  
506 are able to capture the extent of current extreme fire events (Sanderson & Fisher, n.d.).

507 Another caveat to our analysis comes from the calibration/validation based on the MTBS  
508 dataset. The MTBS burned area data derived from the Landsat satellite has a return interval of 16  
509 days so may miss short fires in areas with rapid post-fire regeneration like in grasses (Li & Guo,  
510 2018). MTBS has a threshold of over 405 ha in the west and when researchers included smaller  
511 fires then the total burned area would increase by 116% in the US (Chelsea Nagy et al., 2018).  
512 The short time period of analysis also contributes to this caveat; some ecoregions are sufficiently  
513 data sparse (possibly due to low fire activity or frequency, small ecoregion area, or other factors)  
514 that complicate future predictions.

## 515 **5.3 Public and Policy Significance**

516 By including regions often excluded or overlooked along with the human impact on  
517 ignitions, our study provides a more complete prediction for the future of fire across all regions  
518 in the U.S. The projected increase in fire has substantial yet notably different ecological, societal,  
519 disaster response, and public policy implications for the Western and Eastern U.S. (respectively).  
520 In the West, which has a recent history of frequent and large fires, the future fire regime will  
521 only become more extreme—with ever greater influences on the forests and other ecosystems,  
522 populated areas via direct fire threats as well as indirect air pollution hazard related to smoke,  
523 and raising the prospect of even greater need for resources allocation to fire management and  
524 response. In the East, where fires in the 20th century were rare or non-existent for some  
525 ecoregions, the emergence of unprecedented fire events is likely to challenge existing fire  
526 management systems and ecosystems alike, and may well be a shock to many communities not  
527 accustomed to fire in their regions. Currently the U.S. Department of Agriculture (USDA),  
528 Forest Service Wildfire Crisis Implementation Plan only covers 8 Western States with no  
529 mention of the Eastern U.S. (USDA Forest Service, n.d.). For these reasons, it will be  
530 increasingly important to develop cohesive national wildfire policies (Plan A, 2013) that account  
531 for future fire predictions across the wide range of background ecologies, climates, and human  
532 geographies that will be interacting in a warming climate.

## 533 **Acknowledgments**

534 This work was partially supported by the United States Geological Survey. Its contents are solely  
535 the responsibility of the authors and do not necessarily represent the views of the North Central  
536 Climate Adaptation Science Center or the USGS. This manuscript is submitted for publication  
537 with the understanding that the United States Government is authorized to reproduce and  
538 distribute reprints for Governmental purposes.

539

540 **Funding:**

541 United States Geological Survey grant G21AC10055

542 United States Geological Survey Cooperative Agreement G18AC00325

543

544 **Author contributions:**

545 Conceptualization: IR, JW, JB

546 Methodology: JJS, MJ, IR

547 Formal Analysis: JJS, MJ

548 Resources: TT

549 Visualization: JJS, MJ, TT, AM

550 Supervision: IR, JW, JB

551 Writing—original draft: JJS

552 Writing—review & editing: JJS, MJ, VI, TT, AM, IR, JW, JB

553

554 **Open Research**

555 The following publicly available datasets which were inputs to the fire models can be found:

556 1) Monitoring Trends in Burn Severity (<https://mtbs.gov/direct-download>)

557 2) GridMET (<https://www.climatologylab.org/gridmet.html>)

558 3) Integrated Climate and Land Use Scenarios (<https://www.epa.gov/gcx/iclus-fourth-national-climate-assessment>)

559 4) Multivariate Adaptive Constructed Analogs

560 (<https://climate.northwestknowledge.net/MACA/index.php>)

561 The new data generated for this analysis by R code will both be available on ScienceBase at the  
562 following DOI ( <https://doi.org/10.21429/2qa8-wr60> ) by the end of the month but can be made  
563 available to reviewers upon request.

564

565

566 **References**

567 Abatzoglou, J. T. (2013). Development of gridded surface meteorological data for ecological  
568 applications and modelling. *International Journal of Climatology*, 33(1), 121–131.  
569 <https://doi.org/10.1002/joc.3413>

570 Abatzoglou, J. T., Balch, J. K., Bradley, B. A., & Kolden, C. A. (2018). Human-related ignitions  
571 concurrent with high winds promote large wildfires across the USA. *International Journal*  
572 *of Wildland Fire*, 27(6), 377–386. <https://doi.org/10.1071/WF17149>

573 Abatzoglou, J. T., & Brown, T. J. (2012). A comparison of statistical downscaling methods  
574 suited for wildfire applications. *International Journal of Climatology*, 32(5), 772–780.  
575 <https://doi.org/10.1002/joc.2312>

- 576 Abatzoglou, J. T., & Kolden, C. A. (2013). Relationships between climate and macroscale area  
577 burned in the western United States. *International Journal of Wildland Fire*, 22(7), 1003–  
578 1020. <https://doi.org/10.1071/WF13019>
- 579 Abatzoglou, J. T., & Williams, A. P. (2016). Impact of anthropogenic climate change on wildfire  
580 across western US forests. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United*  
581 *States of America*, 113(42), 11770–11775. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1607171113>
- 582 Anderegg, W. R. L., Chegwidden, O. S., Badgley, G., Trugman, A. T., Cullenward, D.,  
583 Abatzoglou, J. T., Hicke, J. A., Freeman, J., & Hamman, J. J. (2022). Future climate risks  
584 from stress, insects and fire across US forests. In *Ecology Letters* (Vol. 25, Issue 6, pp.  
585 1510–1520). John Wiley and Sons Inc. <https://doi.org/10.1111/ele.14018>
- 586 Balch, J. K., Bradley, B. A., Abatzoglou, J. T., Chelsea Nagy, R., Fusco, E. J., & Mahood, A. L.  
587 (2017). Human-started wildfires expand the fire niche across the United States. *Proceedings*  
588 *of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*, 114(11), 2946–2951.  
589 <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1617394114>
- 590 Balch, J. K., Bradley, B. A., D'Antonio, C. M., & Gómez-Dans, J. (2013). Introduced annual  
591 grass increases regional fire activity across the arid western USA (1980-2009). *Global*  
592 *Change Biology*, 19(1), 173–183. <https://doi.org/10.1111/gcb.12046>
- 593 Banerjee, S., B. P. Carlin, and A. E. Gelfand. 2014. Hierarchical modeling and analysis for  
594 spatial data. CRC Press, Boca Raton, Florida, USA.
- 595 Barbero, R., Abatzoglou, J. T., Kolden, C. A., Hegewisch, K. C., Larkin, N. K., & Podschwit, H.  
596 (2015). Multi-scalar influence of weather and climate on very large-fires in the Eastern  
597 United States. *International Journal of Climatology*, 35(8), 2180–2186.  
598 <https://doi.org/10.1002/JOC.4090>
- 599 Barbero, R., Abatzoglou, J. T., Larkin, N. K., Kolden, C. A., Stocks, B., Barbero, R.,  
600 Abatzoglou, J. T., Larkin, N. K., Kolden, C. A., & Stocks, B. (2015). Climate change  
601 presents increased potential for very large fires in the contiguous United States.  
602 *International Journal of Wildland Fire*, 24(7), 892–899. <https://doi.org/10.1071/WF15083>
- 603 Barbero, R., Abatzoglou, J. T., Steel, E. A., & Larkin, N. K. (2014). Modeling very large-fire  
604 occurrences over the continental United States from weather and climate forcing.  
605 *Environmental Research Letters*, 9(12). <https://doi.org/10.1088/1748-9326/9/12/124009>
- 606 Besag, J., and C. Kooperberg. 1995. On conditional and intrinsic autoregressions. *Biometrika*  
607 82:733–746.
- 608 Bradley, B. A., Curtis, C. A., Fusco, E. J., Abatzoglou, J. T., Balch, J. K., Dadashi, S., &  
609 Tuanmu, M. N. (2018). Cheatgrass (*Bromus tectorum*) distribution in the intermountain  
610 Western United States and its relationship to fire frequency, seasonality, and ignitions.  
611 *Biological Invasions*, 20(6), 1493–1506. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10530-017-1641-8>
- 612 Brezger, A., and S. Lang. 2006. Generalized structured additive regression based on Bayesian P-  
613 Splines. *Computational Statistics & Data Analysis* 50:967–991.
- 614 Burgess, M. G., Ritchie, J., Shapland, J., & Pielke, R. (2020). IPCC baseline scenarios have  
615 over-projected CO2emissions and economic growth. *Environmental Research Letters*,  
616 16(1). <https://doi.org/10.1088/1748-9326/abcd2>
- 617 Burke, M., Driscoll, A., Heft-Neal, S., Xue, J., Burney, J., & Wara, M. (n.d.). *The changing risk*  
618 *and burden of wildfire in the United States*. [https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.2011048118/-](https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.2011048118/-/DCSupplemental)  
619 [/DCSupplemental](https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.2011048118/-/DCSupplemental)

- 620 Carpenter, B., Gelman, A., Hoffman, M. D., Lee, D., Goodrich, B., Betancourt, M., Brubaker,  
621 M. A., Guo, J., Li, P., & Riddell, A. (2017). Stan: A probabilistic programming language.  
622 *Journal of Statistical Software*, 76(1). <https://doi.org/10.18637/jss.v076.i01>
- 623 Cattau, M. E., Wessman, C., Mahood, A., & Balch, J. K. (2020). Anthropogenic and lightning-  
624 started fires are becoming larger and more frequent over a longer season length in the  
625 U.S.A. *Global Ecology and Biogeography*, 29(4), 668–681.  
626 <https://doi.org/10.1111/geb.13058>
- 627 Chelsea Nagy, R., Fusco, E., Bradley, B., Abatzoglou, J. T., & Balch, J. (2018). Human-related  
628 ignitions increase the number of large wildfires across U.S. Ecoregions. *Fire*, 1(1), 1–14.  
629 <https://doi.org/10.3390/fire1010004>
- 630 Daly, C., Halbleib, M., Smith, J. I., Gibson, W. P., Doggett, M. K., Taylor, G. H., Curtis, J., &  
631 Pasteris, P. P. (2008). Physiographically sensitive mapping of climatological temperature  
632 and precipitation across the conterminous United States. *International Journal of*  
633 *Climatology*, 28(15), 2031–2064. <https://doi.org/10.1002/JOC.1688>
- 634 Dennison, P. E., Brewer, S. C., Arnold, J. D., & Moritz, M. A. (2014). Large wildfire trends in  
635 the western United States, 1984–2011. *Geophysical Research Letters*, 41(8), 2928–2933.  
636 <https://doi.org/10.1002/2014GL059576>
- 637 Donovan, V. M., Wonkka, C. L., & Twidwell, D. (2017). Surging wildfire activity in a grassland  
638 biome. *Geophysical Research Letters*, 44(12), 5986–5993.  
639 <https://doi.org/10.1002/2017GL072901>
- 640 Eidenshink, J., Schwind, B., Brewer, K., Zhu, Z.-L., Quayle, B., & Howard, S. (2007). A  
641 PROJECT FOR MONITORING TRENDS IN BURN SEVERITY. In *Fire Ecology Special*  
642 *Issue* (Vol. 3, Issue 1). <http://www.fi>
- 643 Fusco, E. J., Finn, J. T., Balch, J. K., Nagy, R. C., & Bradley, B. A. (2019). *Invasive grasses*  
644 *increase fire occurrence and frequency across US ecoregions*. 116(47), 23594–23599.  
645 <https://doi.org/10.7275/ndsz-eh64>
- 646 Gao, P., Terando, A. J., Kupfer, J. A., Morgan Varner, J., Stambaugh, M. C., Lei, T. L., & Kevin  
647 Hiers, J. (2021). Robust projections of future fire probability for the conterminous United  
648 States. *Science of the Total Environment*, 789.  
649 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2021.147872>
- 650 *Hamburg Climate Futures Outlook*. (n.d.). <https://doi.org/10.25592/uhhfdm.9104>
- 651 Hausfather, Z., & Peters, G. P. (2020). Emissions – the ‘business as usual’ story is misleading.  
652 *Nature* 2021 577:7792, 577(7792), 618–620. <https://doi.org/10.1038/d41586-020-00177-3>
- 653 Hawbaker, T. J., Radeloff, V. C., Stewart, S. I., Hammer, R. B., Keuler, N. S., & Clayton, M. K.  
654 (2013). Human and biophysical influences on fire occurrence in the United States. In  
655 *Ecological Applications* (Vol. 23, Issue 3).
- 656 Hoffman, M. D., & Gelman, A. (2014). The No-U-Turn Sampler: Adaptively Setting Path  
657 Lengths in Hamiltonian Monte Carlo. In *Journal of Machine Learning Research* (Vol. 15).  
658 <http://mcmc-jags.sourceforge.net>
- 659 Hurteau, M. D., Liang, S., Westerling, A. L. R., & Wiedinmyer, C. (2019). Vegetation-fire  
660 feedback reduces projected area burned under climate change. *Scientific Reports*, 9(1).  
661 <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-019-39284-1>
- 662 Iglesias, V., Braswell, A. E., Rossi, M. W., Joseph, M. B., McShane, C., Cattau, M., Koontz, M.  
663 J., McGlinchy, J., Nagy, R. C., Balch, J., Leyk, S., & Travis, W. R. (2021). Risky  
664 Development: Increasing Exposure to Natural Hazards in the United States. *Earth’s Future*,  
665 9(7). <https://doi.org/10.1029/2020EF001795>

- 666 Iglesias, V., Stavros, N., Balch, J. K., Barrett, K., Cobian-Iñiguez, J., Hester, C., Kolden, C. A.,  
667 Leyk, S., Nagy, R. C., Reid, C. E., Wiedinmyer, C., Woolner, E., & Travis, W. R. (2022).  
668 Fires that matter: Reconceptualizing fire risk to include interactions between humans and  
669 the natural environment. *Environmental Research Letters*, *17*(4).  
670 <https://doi.org/10.1088/1748-9326/ac5c0c>
- 671 Joseph, M. B., Rossi, M. W., Mietkiewicz, N. P., Mahood, A. L., Cattau, M. E., St. Denis, L. A.,  
672 Nagy, R. C., Iglesias, V., Abatzoglou, J. T., & Balch, J. K. (2019). Spatiotemporal  
673 prediction of wildfire size extremes with Bayesian finite sample maxima. *Ecological*  
674 *Applications*, *29*(6). <https://doi.org/10.1002/eap.1898>
- 675 Joyce, L. A., & Coulson, D. (2020). Climate Scenarios and Projections: A technical document  
676 supporting the usda forest service 2020 rpa assessment. *USDA Forest Service - General*  
677 *Technical Report RMRS-GTR*, *2020*(413), 1–85. <https://doi.org/10.2737/RMRS-GTR-413>
- 678 Juang, C. S., Williams, A. P., Abatzoglou, J. T., Balch, J. K., Hurteau, M. D., & Moritz, M. A.  
679 (2022). Rapid Growth of Large Forest Fires Drives the Exponential Response of Annual  
680 Forest-Fire Area to Aridity in the Western United States. *Geophysical Research Letters*,  
681 *49*(5). <https://doi.org/10.1029/2021GL097131>
- 682 Kitzberger, T., Falk, D. A., Westerling, A. L., & Swetnam, T. W. (2017). Direct and indirect  
683 climate controls predict heterogeneous early-mid 21st century wildfire burned area across  
684 western and boreal North America. *PLoS ONE*, *12*(12).  
685 <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0188486>
- 686 Kloster, S., & Lasslop, G. (2017). Historical and future fire occurrence (1850 to 2100) simulated  
687 in CMIP5 Earth System Models. *Global and Planetary Change*, *150*, 58–69.  
688 <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.GLOPLACHA.2016.12.017>
- 689 Kneib, T., T. Hothorn, and G. Tutz. 2009. Variable selection and model choice in geospatial  
690 regression models. *Biometrics* *65*:626–634.
- 691 Larkin, N. K., Service, U. S. F., Abatzoglou, J. T., Barbero, R., & Craig, K. (2015). *FUTURE*  
692 *MEGAFIRES AND SMOKE IMPACTS Lead Investigators: Contributing Authors*.
- 693 Li, M., & Guo, X. (2018). Evaluating Post-Fire Vegetation Recovery in North American Mixed  
694 Prairie Using Remote Sensing Approaches. *Open Journal of Ecology*, *08*(12), 646–680.  
695 <https://doi.org/10.4236/oje.2018.812038>
- 696 Littell, J. S., Mckenzie, D., Peterson, D. L., & Westerling, A. L. (2009). Climate and wildfire  
697 area burned in western U.S. ecoprovinces, 1916–2003. *Ecological Applications*, *19*(4),  
698 1003–1021. <https://doi.org/10.1890/07-1183.1>
- 699 Littell, J. S., McKenzie, D., Wan, H. Y., & Cushman, S. A. (2018). Climate Change and Future  
700 Wildfire in the Western United States: An Ecological Approach to Nonstationarity. *Earth's*  
701 *Future*, *6*(8), 1097–1111. <https://doi.org/10.1029/2018EF000878>
- 702 Liu, Z., & Wimberly, M. C. (2016). Direct and indirect effects of climate change on projected  
703 future fire regimes in the western United States. *Science of the Total Environment*, *542*, 65–  
704 75. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2015.10.093>
- 705 Mckenzie, D., & Littell, J. S. (2016). *Climate change and the eco-hydrology of fire: Will area*  
706 *burned increase in a warming western USA?* <http://inciweb.nwccg.gov/>
- 707 Mietkiewicz, N., Balch, J. K., Schoennagel, T., Leyk, S., St. Denis, L. A., & Bradley, B. A.  
708 (2020). In the line of fire: Consequences of human-ignited wildfires to homes in the U.S.  
709 (1992–2015). *Fire*, *3*(3), 1–20. <https://doi.org/10.3390/fire3030050>

- 710 Moritz, M. A., Parisien, M.-A., Batllori, E., Krawchuk, M. A., Van Dorn, J., Ganz, D. J., &  
 711 Hayhoe, K. (2012). Climate change and disruptions to global fire activity. *Ecosphere*, 3(6),  
 712 art49. <https://doi.org/10.1890/es11-00345.1>
- 713 Omernik, J. M., & Griffith, G. E. (2014). Ecoregions of the Conterminous United States:  
 714 Evolution of a Hierarchical Spatial Framework. *Environmental Management*, 54(6), 1249–  
 715 1266. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00267-014-0364-1>
- 716 Parks, S. A., Holsinger, L. M., Miller, C., & Nelson, C. R. (2015). Wildland fire as a self-  
 717 regulating mechanism: the role of previous burns and weather in limiting fire progression.  
 718 *Ecological Applications*, 25(6), 1478–1492. <https://doi.org/10.1890/14-1430.1>
- 719 Pechony, O., & Shindell, D. T. (2010). Driving forces of global wildfires over the past  
 720 millennium and the forthcoming century. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*  
 721 *of the United States of America*, 107(45), 19167–19170.  
 722 <https://doi.org/10.1073/PNAS.1003669107/ASSET/E5BAE289-2CDB-4874-90EE-79AF2EC81C18/ASSETS/GRAPHIC/PNAS.1003669107EQ1.GIF>
- 724 Peltola, T., A. S. Havulinna, V. Salomaa, and A. Vehtari. 2014. Hierarchical Bayesian survival  
 725 analysis and projective covariate selection in cardiovascular event risk prediction. Pages  
 726 79–88 in Proceedings of the Eleventh UAI Conference on Bayesian Modeling Applications  
 727 Workshop-Volume 1218.CEUR-WS.org
- 728 Plan, A. (2013). *The National Cohesive Wildland Fire Management Strategy*.
- 729 Podschwit, H. R., Larkin, N. K., Steel, E. A., Cullen, A., & Alvarado, E. (2018). Multi-model  
 730 forecasts of very-large fire occurrences during the end of the 21st century. *Climate*, 6(4).  
 731 <https://doi.org/10.3390/cli6040100>
- 732 Prestemon, J. P., Shankar, U., Xiu, A., Talgo, K., Yang, D., Dixon, E., Mckenzie, D., & Abt, K.  
 733 L. (2016). Projecting wildfire area burned in the south-eastern United States, 2011–60.  
 734 *International Journal of Wildland Fire*, 25(7), 715–729. <https://doi.org/10.1071/WF15124>
- 735 Radeloff, V. C., Helmers, D. P., Anu Kramer, H., Mockrin, M. H., Alexandre, P. M., Bar-  
 736 Massada, A., Butsic, V., Hawbaker, T. J., Martinuzzi, S., Syphard, A. D., & Stewart, S. I.  
 737 (2018). Rapid growth of the US wildland-urban interface raises wildfire risk. *Proceedings*  
 738 *of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*, 115(13), 3314–3319.  
 739 <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1718850115>
- 740 Rangwala, I., Moss, W., Wolken, J., Rondeau, R., Newlon, K., Guinotte, J., & Travis, W. R.  
 741 (2021). Uncertainty, complexity and constraints: How do we robustly assess biological  
 742 responses under a rapidly changing climate? *Climate*, 9(12).  
 743 <https://doi.org/10.3390/cli9120177>
- 744 Rupp, D. E. (2016). An evaluation of 20th century climate for the Southeastern United States as  
 745 simulated by Coupled Model Intercomparison Project Phase 5 (CMIP5) global climate  
 746 models. *Open-File Report*. <https://doi.org/10.3133/OFR20161047>
- 747 Rupp, D. E., Abatzoglou, J. T., Hegewisch, K. C., & Mote, P. W. (2013). Evaluation of CMIP5  
 748 20th century climate simulations for the Pacific Northwest USA. *Journal of Geophysical*  
 749 *Research Atmospheres*, 118(19), 10,884–10,906. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jgrd.50843>
- 750 Sanderson, B. M., & Fisher, R. A. (n.d.). *Transformative change requires resisting a new*  
 751 *normal*. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41558-020-0707-2>
- 752 Spracklen, D. V., Mickley, L. J., Logan, J. A., Hudman, R. C., Yevich, R., Flannigan, M. D., &  
 753 Westerling, A. L. (2009). Impacts of climate change from 2000 to 2050 on wildfire activity  
 754 and carbonaceous aerosol concentrations in the western United States. *Journal of*  
 755 *Geophysical Research*, 114(D20). <https://doi.org/10.1029/2008jd010966>

- 756 Stan Development Team. (2018). *RStan: the R interface to Stan* (<http://mc-stan.org/>).
- 757 Stavros, E. N., Abatzoglou, J. T., McKenzie, D., & Larkin, N. K. (2014). Regional projections of  
758 the likelihood of very large wildland fires under a changing climate in the contiguous  
759 Western United States. *Climatic Change*, *126*(3–4), 455–468.  
760 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10584-014-1229-6>
- 761 Syphard, A. D., Keeley, J. E., Pfaff, A. H., & Ferschweiler, K. (2017). Human presence  
762 diminishes the importance of climate in driving fire activity across the United States.  
763 *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*, *114*(52),  
764 13750–13755. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1713885114>
- 765 USDA Forest Service. (n.d.). *Confronting the Wildfire Crisis*. Retrieved January 24, 2023, from  
766 <https://www.fs.usda.gov/managing-land/wildfire-crisis>
- 767 Williams, A. P., Seager, R., MacAlady, A. K., Berkelhammer, M., Crimmins, M. A., Swetnam,  
768 T. W., Trugman, A. T., Buening, N., Noone, D., McDowell, N. G., Hryniw, N., Mora, C.  
769 I., & Rahn, T. (2015). Correlations between components of the water balance and burned  
770 area reveal new insights for predicting forest fire area in the southwest United States.  
771 *International Journal of Wildland Fire*, *24*(1), 14–26. <https://doi.org/10.1071/WF14023>
- 772 Williams, J. (2013). Exploring the onset of high-impact mega-fires through a forest land  
773 management prism. *Forest Ecology and Management*, *294*, 4–10.  
774 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foreco.2012.06.030>
- 775 Wood, S. N. 2017. Generalized additive models: an introduction with R. Second edition.  
776 Chapman Hall/CRC, London, UK.
- 777