

ABSTRACT

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Wildfire frequency, extent and duration in the western United States (U.S.) is projected to increase throughout the 21st century as dry and warm conditions become more frequent, widespread, and persistent. However, it is still unknown how changes in mean climate and changes in climate variability, individually and together, contribute to these increases. To disentangle these effects, we use a 100-member ensemble of climate simulations produced with the Community Earth System Model v2 under historic and SSP3-7.0 forcing from 1980-2100. Using the Canadian Forest Fire Weather Index (FWI) to quantify fire-related meteorological conditions in the simulations, we select extreme FWI thresholds relative to a baseline distribution centered at 1980 (“fixed threshold”) and an evolving distribution (“moving threshold”) to identify spatiotemporally connected extreme fire weather events. By 2100, the frequency, area, and duration of events increase when considering a fixed threshold, and events are up to 4°C warmer on average. Moreover, events over the Pacific Coast expand northwestwards, while those over the Four Corners region expand westwards and northeastwards. Changes in event characteristics are small and not significant when considering a moving baseline but become spatiotemporally more connected. Increases in the mean of maximum temperature, as well as changes in both the variability and mean of relative humidity, drive the largest increases in extreme fire weather event area and duration. By quantifying how changes in the mean and variability of climate variables impact wildfire conditions in the western U.S., our study has implications for increasing resiliency to wildfire risk under climate change.

1. Introduction

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Wildfire area and severity has increased in much of the Pacific Coast and Four Corners regions of the United States (U.S.) over the last few decades (Jones et al. 2022). Additionally, wildfires in recent years have become more synchronous, occurring in different parts of the North American continent simultaneously, and compounding the impacts felt in the region (Abatzoglou et al. 2021). For example, in 2023, unprecedented wildfires in both the western U.S. and Canada were burning simultaneously, reducing the capacity for coordinated firefighting and leading to poor air quality in much of the U.S. and Canada (Jones et al. 2024; Kirchmeier-Young et al. 2024). The increases in the area and severity of wildfires have been attributed to anthropogenically-forced anomalous warming and drying in recent years (Jain et al. 2022; Juang et al. 2022), over a century of forest fire suppression (Andela et al. 2017;

42 Jones et al. 2022) and increases in human-caused ignition (Balch et al. 2017). The damages
43 felt by society due to these increases have also risen, with larger populations and more
44 resources being exposed to wildfire hazards (Burke et al. 2021). Moreover, these larger and
45 more frequent wildfires have exacerbated populations' exposure to smoke and post-fire
46 hydrologic hazards, such as debris flows and channel sedimentation (Oakley 2021). These
47 impacts have both short term and long term impacts on hydrology (Collar et al. 2022;
48 Williams et al. 2022), livelihoods (Lawrence et al. 2022), and public health (Burke et al.
49 2021) in the western U.S.

50 Many studies have assessed trends in fire weather conditions - dry, warm and windy
51 conditions – using fire weather indices such as the Canadian Forest Fire Weather Index
52 (FWI) and the McArthur Forest Fire Danger index (FFDI), and their impact on the likelihood,
53 frequency, and area of wildfires in recent years. Observed increases in extreme fire weather
54 events lead to increases in burned forest area and higher wildfire frequency globally and in
55 the western U.S. (Abatzoglou and Williams 2016; Goss et al. 2020; Jain et al. 2022; Jones et
56 al. 2022). These increases largely stem from increases in maximum temperature and
57 decreases in relative humidity prior to and during wildfire seasons, which have been linked to
58 an increase in the frequency and intensity of atmospheric ridging in the northeast Pacific
59 Ocean (Sharma et al. 2022). The Four Corners region has also been impacted by “failed”
60 North American monsoon seasons as well as delays in monsoon onsets, leading to longer-
61 than-usual dry conditions and subsequently higher wildfire activity (Cook and Seager 2013;
62 Hoell et al. 2022). Changes in these conditions in the western U.S. are largely driven by
63 increases in global greenhouse gas emissions and localized reductions in aerosol emissions
64 (Abatzoglou and Williams 2016; Kirchmeier-Young et al. 2017; Touma et al. 2021). In future
65 years, projected increases in greenhouse gas emissions and continued reductions in aerosol
66 emissions are expected to lead to further increases in frequencies and durations of extreme
67 fire weather conditions, leading to higher risks of wildfires, and causing the frequency of
68 extreme fire weather conditions at the end of the 21st century to be well beyond the expected
69 historic frequency, with fire weather conditions reaching a “new normal” (Abatzoglou et al.
70 2019; Touma et al. 2021, 2022).

71 Several studies have used single-model and multi-model large ensemble Earth System
72 Model (ESM) simulations to quantify the trends in fire weather conditions in future climate
73 projections. There is a large consensus of increasing fire weather conditions over much of the

74 globe when accounting for both model discrepancies (Abatzoglou et al. 2019; Bui et al. 2024)
75 and irreducible internal variability (Kirchmeier-Young et al. 2017; Touma et al. 2021). Given
76 systemic biases in ESMs, especially in the representation of the FWI (Gallo et al. 2023;
77 Touma et al. 2021) and the driving variables (Fasullo, 2020; Simpson et al., 2024), the
78 general approach is to use upper tails of a fire weather index distribution to define “extreme”
79 fire weather within each ESM. Here, we compare the more traditional choice of using “fixed”
80 historic or pre-industrial distributions of fire weather indices to calculate upper-tail thresholds
81 to describe “extreme” fire weather conditions to the choice of using a moving-window
82 threshold (hereafter, “moving threshold”), which captures the time-evolving distribution of
83 fire weather conditions. While a moving threshold would ensure that the frequency of fire
84 weather days for a specific location remain constant through time, the intensity and duration
85 of events could still increase through changes in the variability beyond the extreme threshold.
86 Moreover, spatial clustering or connectivity of extreme fire weather events could also
87 increase, leading to greater spatially compounding risks, for example multiple wildfires
88 occurring simultaneously, increased area and density of smoke from wildfire emissions, and
89 preconditioning larger areas to post-fire hydrologic hazards (Raymond et al. 2020;
90 Zscheischler et al. 2020). Using a moving threshold can also reveal additional criteria for
91 adaptation measures needed to overcome changes in extreme climate events (Amaya et al.
92 2023).

93 Few studies have assessed how changes in the variability of the climate system, and not
94 just the mean of the climate, has impacted wildfire risk under anthropogenic forcing. By
95 doing so, changes in the variability are assumed to be negligible or part of the “noise” of our
96 climate system – however, this could lead to the underestimation of the impact of
97 anthropogenic forcing on wildfire risk. Zhuang et al. (2021) found that changes in
98 atmospheric circulation, or natural variability, explained one-third of the observed vapor
99 pressure deficit increase over the western U.S. in recent decades, but did not assess the roles
100 of other atmospheric variables important for wildfire risk. While their study leveraged multi-
101 model simulations from the CMIP6 archive, single-model initial-condition large ensembles
102 could provide a more robust estimate of these influences by overcoming uncertainties from
103 model physics (Deser et al. 2020; Zhuang et al. 2021).

104 In this study, we use the 100-member Community Earth System Model v2 Large
105 Ensemble (CESM2-LE) to assess projected changes under SSP3-7.0 (Rodgers et al. 2021).

106 We show how extreme fire weather events respond to anthropogenic climate change in terms
107 of their frequency, duration, spatial connectivity and extent, and intensity. We use both a
108 fixed and moving-window period to calculate location-specific extreme percentile thresholds
109 and identify spatiotemporally connected grid points as extreme fire weather events. We
110 isolate the changes in climate drivers that impact the duration, area, frequency and intensity
111 of these events. This study fills an important gap of understanding the role of changes in
112 climate variability on wildfire risk and introduces a framework to isolate the impacts of
113 changes in the mean from changes in the variability on extreme climate events using a large
114 ensemble.

115 **2. Data and Methods**

116 *a. CESM2-LE simulations*

117 We use the CESM2-LE simulations to quantify historic and future fire weather. As
118 demonstrated in previous studies (e.g., Kirchmeier-Young et al., 2017; Touma et al., 2021,
119 2022), using a large ensemble allows robust assessment of changes in extreme fire weather
120 events under anthropogenic forcing as well as internal variability. The CESM2-LE consists of
121 100 members and has daily resolution data publicly available, making it a unique and
122 unprecedented dataset to understand future projections of extreme fire weather events.

123 The CESM2 model is a fully coupled atmosphere, ocean, land, and sea-ice model on a
124 nominal 1-degree grid. The 100 members of the CESM2-LE are simulated under historic
125 (1850-2014) and SSP3-7.0 (2015-2100) scenarios (Rodgers et al. 2021). The relatively high
126 level of forcing in the SSP3-7.0 scenario enables the detection and quantification of forced
127 changes in the mean and natural variability, making it suitable for our study. We note that all
128 100 members use identical forcing, except for the biomass burning aerosols. Half of the
129 members follow the CMIP6 protocol for biomass burning, which consists of low-pass filtered
130 (11-year smoothing) timeseries except over the period 1990-2020 when high-frequency
131 satellite-based measurements are available. This introduces a discontinuity in temporal
132 variance of biomass burning aerosols, which in turn has been shown to produce a rectified
133 effect on climate conditions over high northern latitudes in association with Arctic sea ice
134 feedbacks (e.g., DeRepentigny et al., 2022). For this reason, the other half of the members
135 use 11-year smoothed biomass burning timeseries over the entirety of the simulations (see
136 Rodgers et al. 2021 for additional information). We find no discernable differences between

137 the two halves of the CESM2-LE members for our analysis and therefore consider all 100
138 members together.

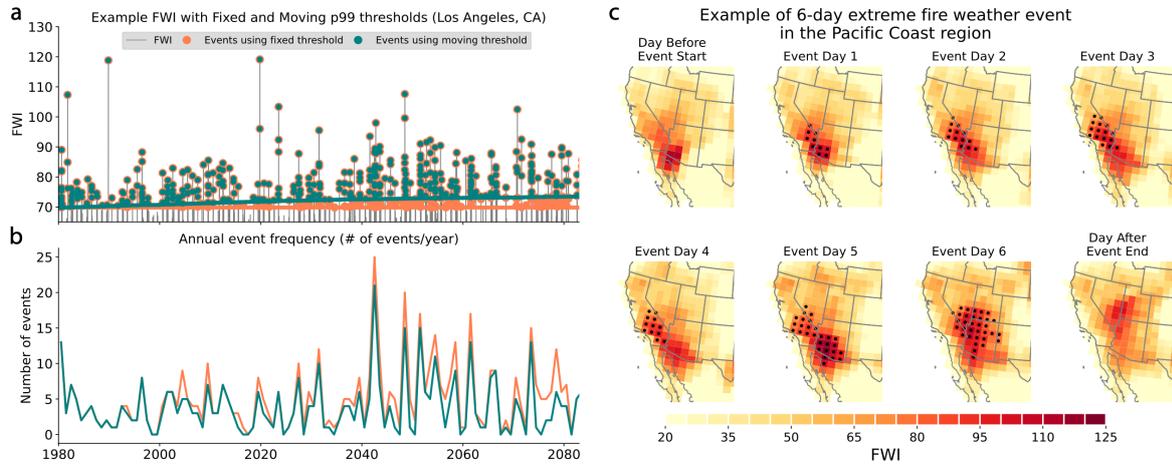
139 *b. Canadian Forest Fire Weather Index (FWI)*

140 We use a modified version of The Canadian Forest Fire Weather Index (FWI) to quantify
141 fire weather conditions in the simulations. The FWI is widely used, both operationally and in
142 understanding the impact of climate change on wildfire risk (Abatzoglou et al. 2019; Touma
143 et al. 2021, 2022, 2023). The FWI was empirically derived by Wagner (1987) and its
144 calculation is clearly described in Dowdy et al. (2009). The FWI is calculated for the
145 CESM2-LE using surface daily precipitation (CESM2 variable name: PRECT, CMIP name:
146 *pr*), maximum temperature (TREFHTMX, *tmax*), relative humidity (RHREFHT, *rhs*), and
147 surface windspeed (WSPDSRFAV, *sfcWind*). We first quantify moisture conditions for three
148 surface levels and time scales using three different moisture codes. The Fine Fuel Moisture
149 Code (FFMC) reflects moisture levels for shaded litter fuels and on daily time scales and is
150 calculated using *pr*, *tmax*, *rhs*, and *sfcWind*. The Duff Moisture Code (DMC) reflects
151 moisture levels for decomposed organic material and on monthly timescales and is calculated
152 using *pr*, *tmax*, and *rhs*. The Drought Code (DC) reflects moisture levels for deep litter and
153 soil and is computed using *pr* and *tmax*. Using the FFMC and *sfcWind*, the Initial Spread
154 Index (ISI) is then calculated to represent the fire spread rate, and using the DMC and DC,
155 the Build-Up Index (BUI) is calculated to represent the potential heat release and severity of
156 fire. Lastly, the ISI and BUI are used to calculate the FWI and represents overall fire danger.
157 All moisture codes and indices are unitless.

158 *c. Extreme event definition and baselines*

159 To identify extreme fire weather events, we use the location-specific 99th percentile of the
160 FWI across the full 100-member ensemble. Using the full ensemble to calculate the 99th
161 percentile allows us to robustly account for internal climate variability when estimating
162 extreme values. We use two baseline types to calculate the 99th percentile threshold and
163 associated FWI variable (*pr*, *tmax*, *rhs*, and *sfcWind*) anomalies: (1) a “fixed” baseline 35-
164 year period centered around 1980, and (2) a “moving” baseline 35-year period centered
165 around each year in the timeseries. Therefore, the threshold using the fixed baseline is
166 constant in time, while that with the moving baseline changes from year-to-year. Figure 1

167 shows an example of these thresholds and identified exceedances for a grid point near Los
 168 Angeles.



169
 170 Fig. 1. a) Example FWI time series for one grid point near Los Angeles and one ensemble
 171 member (1001.001), with fixed and moving 99th percentile thresholds and identified
 172 exceedances (events). b) Annual number of events calculated from (a) for fixed and moving
 173 thresholds. c) Example of a 6-day extreme fire weather event over the Pacific Coast region.
 174 The shading represents the value of FWI, and the black dots represent the identifies
 175 spatiotemporally connected event. The event starts when at least one grid point in the
 176 regional boundary (see Figure 3) exceeds the local threshold and the event ends when there
 177 are no longer any grid points that are spatiotemporally connected to that event within the
 178 region boundary.

179 *d. Event identification*

180 For each ensemble member and each threshold type, we identify grid points that have
 181 extreme FWI values for each timestep. We use a framework with image processing functions
 182 from the *Scipy* Python package (Virtanen et al. 2020) to identify spatiotemporally connected
 183 grid points that exceed the extreme threshold. We first spatially subset the FWI dataset from
 184 0-90°N and 0-180°W to increase computational efficiency but ensure that events are not
 185 truncated spuriously. We then create a binary dataset, where grid points that meet or exceed
 186 the extreme threshold are equal to 1, and those that fall below the threshold are equal to 0.
 187 We then identify spatiotemporally connected grid points that are equal to 1 – for spatial
 188 connectivity, grid points must be connected by their edges or vertices and for temporal
 189 connectivity, at least one grid point within the event must be equal to 1 on two continuous
 190 days. The duration and cumulative area of each event is calculated, as well as the
 191 corresponding FWI values and variable anomalies throughout the event.

192 To understand the regional impact of changes in extreme fire weather events, we subset
 193 events for different regions (e.g., Southern California) and region groups (e.g., Pacific Coast).

194 To do so, we find events that have at least one grid point within the bounds of a region or
195 region group of interest for the full duration of the event. If an event in the full event dataset
196 “leaves” the region or region group and then “returns”, it is considered two distinct events.
197 For region groups, we subset the dataset for the full region group simultaneously. This
198 ensures that we do not double count events when events span multiple regions
199 simultaneously. We show an example of a 6-day event over the Pacific Coast region in Figure
200 1c.

201 *e. Event analysis*

202 For each event, we calculate its total duration, total area, area within the region, mean
203 FWI, maximum FWI, and mean anomalies of *pr*, *tmax*, *rhs*, and *sfcWind* using the fixed
204 baseline and using the moving baseline. We create annual distributions of event
205 characteristics for each season and region by first averaging over all events in each ensemble
206 member in each season and region and then grouping those averages together to create a
207 distribution (100 values representing an ensemble member each). We summarize these time-
208 evolving distributions using the 25th, 50th, and 75th percentiles, or the interquartile range
209 (IQR). We also count the number of events per year for each ensemble member in each
210 season and region, and create similar annual distribution time series.

211 We also create composites for each period and each ensemble member for grid point- and
212 event-specific values of the number of events, total number of event days, event duration,
213 regional and total area, mean and maximum FWI, as well as *pr*, *tmax*, *rhs*, and *sfcWind*
214 anomalies. All anomalies are calculated from grid-point specific 30-day moving window
215 climatologies using either the fixed baseline period or 35-year moving window periods. We
216 specify which type of baseline is being used when describing any relevant results.

217 *f. Regional and period definitions*

218 We identify eight U.S. regions and two region groups that have historically experienced
219 large and severe wildfires. Washington (WA), Oregon (OR), northern and southern California
220 (CA) are grouped in the Pacific Coast region, and Colorado (CO), New Mexico (NM),
221 Arizona (AZ), and Utah (UT) are grouped in the Four Corners region.

222 We use three time periods to summarize extreme fire weather event characteristics over
223 time. These are a historic period (1980-2014), an early future period (2015-2050), and a late
224 future period (2051-2082). We end the last period in 2082 because we use 35-year moving

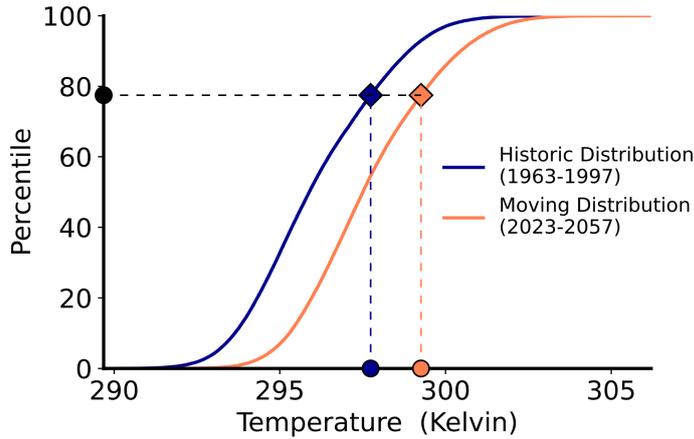
225 windows to calculate the moving thresholds and means. We calculate changes in the
226 characteristics of fire weather events for the two future periods relative to the historic period.
227 Additionally, we show time series of extreme fire weather event characteristics for the eight
228 regions, with changes computed from the historic period.

229 *g. Isolating the impact of changes in the mean and variability of FWI variables*

230 We isolate the effect of changes in pr , $tmax$, rhs , and $sfcWind$ on the characteristics of
231 extreme fire weather events. We create new “mapped” (m) time series for each variable and
232 ensemble member (n) (pr_m^n , $tmax_m^n$, rhs_m^n , and $sfcWind_m^n$) using quantile mapping in order
233 to restrict the whole time series to the 100-member monthly distribution in the fixed reference
234 period using the following steps. For each day of the time series, we first find the percentile
235 of the value of the variable within its 100-member, 30-day, 35-year moving window
236 distribution. We then find the corresponding value of that percentile in the 30-day, 35-year,
237 100-member distribution of the fixed baseline period centered around 1980 (Figure 2). By
238 mapping the FWI variable time series to the fixed period, we maintain the relative day-to-day
239 variability and spatial patterns between the mapped variable and the other unmapped
240 variables but ensure that the variability and mean of the timeseries is constrained to that of
241 the historic distribution. We then calculate four “mapped” FWI time series for each ensemble
242 member using one of the newly mapped variables and keeping the other variables at their
243 original values (o) (e.g., $FWI_{pr,m}^n = f(pr_m^n, tmax_o^n, rhs_o^n, sfcWind_o^n)$). Using these four
244 mapped FWI timeseries for each ensemble member, we identify and quantify the
245 characteristics of extreme fire weather events as previously described. These events and their
246 characteristics are considered to represent events in which one of the variables is not
247 impacted by forced changes in the mean *and* variability. We then compare the event
248 characteristics using the mapped and original FWI time series to assess the contribution of
249 changes in the full distribution (i.e., mean and variability) of each variable to changes in
250 extreme fire weather events.

251

Quantile Mapping Example for Max Temperature in Los Angeles, CA
June 15, 2040, Ensemble Member 1011.001



252

253 Fig. 2. Schematic of quantile mapping for maximum temperature for June 15, 2040 for a
254 grid point near Los Angeles, CA for ensemble number 1011.001 using its 100-member
255 moving distribution (June 1-30, 2023-2057) and the 100-member historic (June 1-30, 1963-
256 1997) distribution. The coral (blue) line and markers represent the moving (historic)
257 distribution and values, respectively.

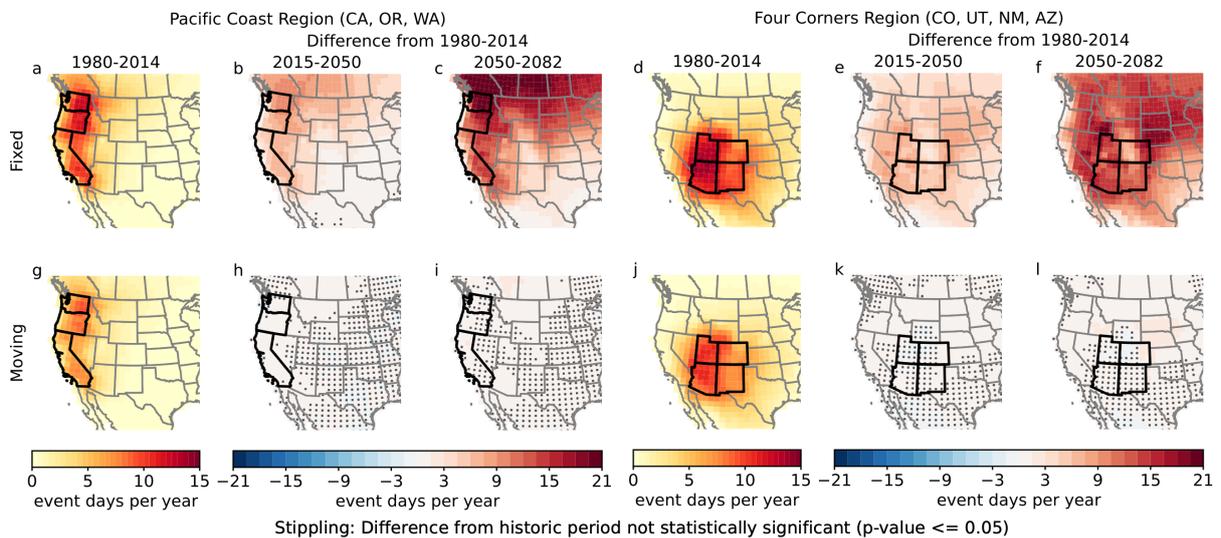
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259 We also create new time series with only forced changes in the mean removed for each
260 variable. By comparing to the original time series, we isolate the impact of forced changes in
261 the mean of each variable on extreme fire weather event characteristics. For each variable, we
262 calculate forced changes in the mean using the difference between the moving 30-day, 35-
263 year, 100-member mean and the fixed (1980) 30-day, 35-year, 100-member mean. We then
264 remove these forced changes in the mean from each respective time series for each ensemble
265 member to create four new “detrended” (d) time series (pr_d^n , $tmax_d^n$, rhs_d^n , and $sfcWind_d^n$).
266 As before, we use these new time series to calculate the FWI four additional times, each time
267 using one of the new timeseries with the mean removed for one of the variables, while all
268 other variables use their original time series (*e. g.*, $FWI_{pr,d}^n =$
269 $f(pr_d^n, tmax_o^n, rhs_o^n, sfcWind_o^n)$). Using these four new FWI timeseries for each ensemble
270 member, we identify and quantify the characteristics of extreme fire weather events as
271 previously described. These events and their characteristics are considered to represent events
272 in which one of the variables is not impacted by forced changes in the mean. The difference
273 between the quantile mapped and the detrended extreme fire weather events is used to
274 estimate the effect of changes in the variability on the seasonal average of that variable.

274 3. Results

275 *a. Historic characteristics of extreme fire weather events*

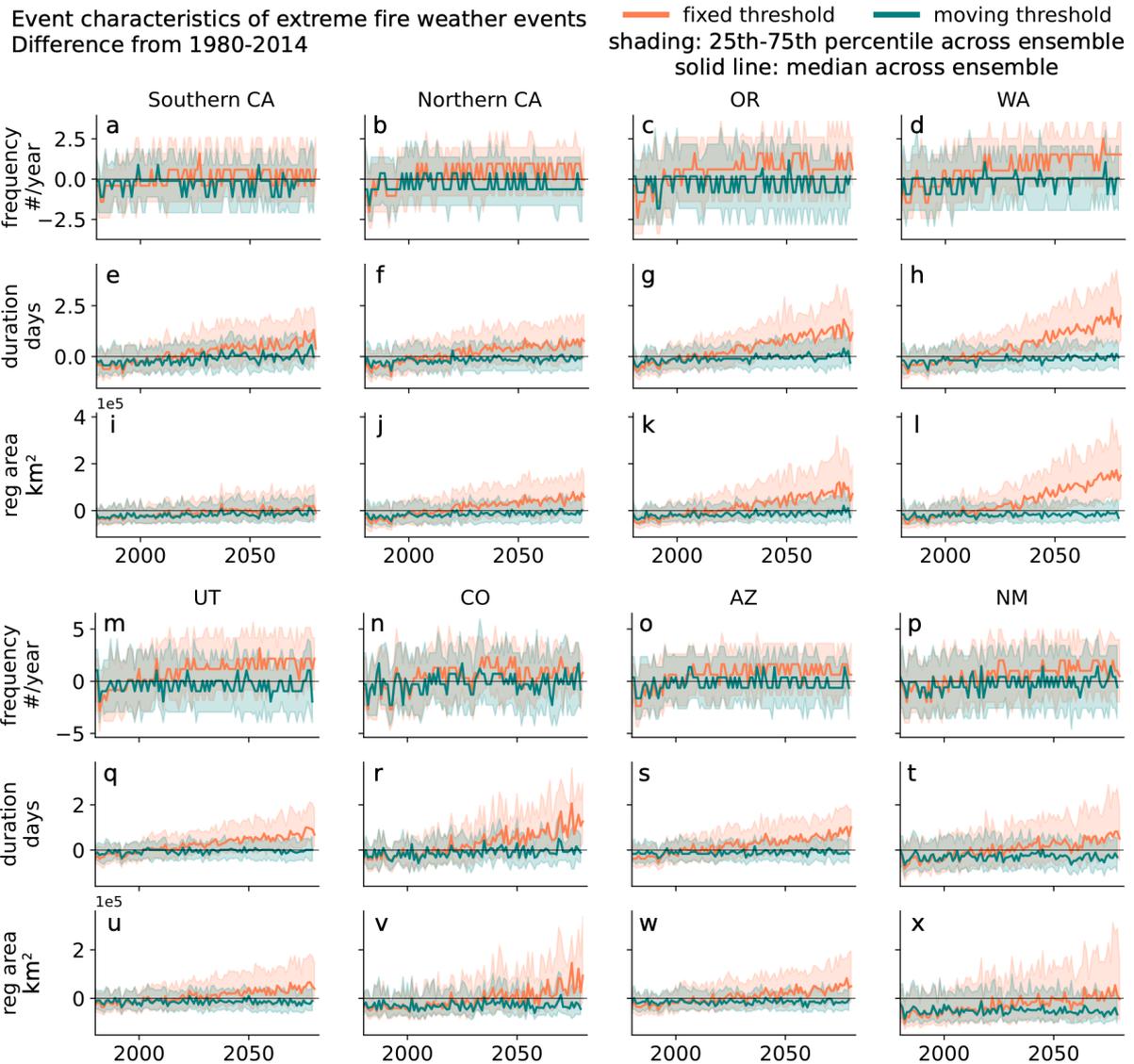
276 Figure 3 shows composite maps of the number of extreme fire weather event days per
 277 year for the Pacific Coast and Four Corners regions using fixed and moving thresholds for
 278 June, July and August (JJA) – the height of the wildfire season in the western U.S. During the
 279 historic period, the fixed baseline shows similar patterns to the moving baseline though with
 280 smaller magnitudes because the time period used for the fixed threshold is slightly earlier
 281 than the moving threshold centers used in the composite maps (1963-1997 vs 1980-2014)
 282 (Figure 3 a, d, g, and j). We find that events that are partially or fully located in the Pacific
 283 Coast region tend to occur more frequently on the eastern side of the region (~1.5
 284 events/year) relative to coastal areas (~0.75 events/year), and tend to extend further eastwards
 285 into Montana, Idaho, Nevada and Arizona (~1 event/year), southward into Baja California
 286 and northward into western Canada (Figure 3 a and g). Four Corners events largely occur in
 287 Arizona and Utah (~1.5 events/year), with fewer events occurring in Colorado and New
 288 Mexico, especially across the Rocky Mountains. Similarly, these events spread towards the
 289 north, reaching Idaho and Wyoming, and towards the west, reaching into Nevada and
 290 California (Figure 3 d and j). While the thresholds set the number of event days per year for
 291 each location in the historic period, these composite maps reveal that the geographic extent
 292 and duration of extreme fire weather events can differ for different regions.



293
 294 Fig. 3. Summer season (JJA) total number of event days per year over each grid point in
 295 the (a, d, g, and j) historic period (1980-2014) and change in number of events per year over
 296 each grid point in future periods (b, c, e, f, h, i, k, and l) using fixed (a-f) and moving (g-l)
 297 threshold for events fully or partially located in the Pacific Coast (a-c and g-f) and in the Four
 298 Corners (d-f, j-l) regions.

299 *b. Projected changes in extreme fire weather event characteristics*

300 Extreme fire weather events become more frequent, last longer, and cover larger areas by
301 the end of the 21st century when using the fixed threshold compared to the moving threshold
302 (Figures 3 and 4). In the Pacific Coast, events tend to become more frequent in the eastern
303 parts of the region and more widespread towards the north and east, with up to an additional
304 ~15 event days/year reaching the Midwest, and an additional ~21 event days/year reaching
305 western Canada in the late future period (Figure 3 c). The largest increases occur in
306 Washington, with approximately two more events/year, which also last two more days on
307 average and cover 20,000 km² more in the late future compared to the historic period (Figure
308 4 d, h, and l). In the southern part of the region, increases in event duration and area are still
309 significant but are slightly reduced in magnitude, with the smallest increases occurring in
310 Southern CA (Figure 4 e and i). Events tend to become more connected and extend in all
311 cardinal directions in the Four Corners region in the future compared to the historic period,
312 with the largest spread towards southern Idaho and Nebraska (>15 more event days/year;
313 Figure 3 e and f). Here, we find that extreme fire weather event duration and area increase
314 similarly across all four states – events are approximately one day longer and cover
315 approximately 5,000 km² more than in the historic period (Figure 4 q-x). Interestingly,
316 increases in event area and extent are constrained by the Southern Rocky Mountain Range,
317 but not by the Middle or Northern/Canadian Rocky Mountain Ranges for both the Pacific
318 Coast and Four Corners regions (Figure 3).



319

320 Fig. 4. Summer season (JJA) frequency (a-d and m-p), duration (e-h and q-t), and state-
 321 bound area (i-l and u-y) of extreme fire weather events using a fixed (coral) and moving (teal)
 322 99th percentile threshold for events in the Pacific Coast (a-l) and Four Corners (m-y) regions.

323 While the annual frequency of events for each location using the moving threshold is
 324 explicitly set by the threshold (top 1% of events), the duration and spatial connectivity of the
 325 events is not explicitly bounded. Specifically, these 1% of events could occur more closely
 326 together in both space and time due to changes in the spatial or temporal variability of the
 327 FWI, and therefore could change the area and duration of events. We see some evidence of
 328 small but robust increases in the number of event days, generally occurring to the north and
 329 east of the Pacific Coast region and to the northeast and northwest of the Four Corners region
 330 (Figure 3 h and i). While this points to events becoming more widespread, changes in event
 331 duration are negligible using the moving threshold in the Pacific Coast and Four Corners

332 region throughout both future periods (Figure 4). Therefore, moving-threshold exceedances
333 are becoming more clustered in space on a given day but not necessarily becoming more
334 clustered in time.

335 *c. Meteorological conditions underlying future changes in extreme fire weather events*

336 In the Pacific Coast region, extreme fire weather events in the historical period are
337 characterized by positive anomalies in maximum temperature (up to 10 degrees K) and wind
338 speed (up to 2 m/s), and negative anomalies in relative humidity (up to -25%) and
339 precipitation (up to -2 mm/day) (Figure 5 a, d, g, j, n, p, s and v). In the late future period,
340 extreme fire weather events identified using a fixed threshold show an increase in maximum
341 temperature anomalies by up to 4 degrees Kelvin throughout the Pacific Coast region
342 compared to the historic period (Figures 5 i and 6 e-h). Changes in other FWI variables are
343 more spatially heterogeneous: precipitation anomalies tend to become less negative over
344 California and more negative over Oregon and Washington; relative humidity anomalies tend
345 to become less negative over the coast (+4%) and more negative over the interior of the
346 region (-4%); and windspeeds tend to be about 0.5 m/s slower over the northern half of the
347 region but unchanging in the southern part of the region (Figures 5 b, c, n, o, t, and u, and 6 a-
348 d and i-p). When using a moving threshold and moving climatologies for the FWI variables,
349 future increases in temperature anomalies during extreme fire weather events are more muted
350 compared to using a fixed historic threshold, with warming generally < 1 K (Figures 5 k and
351 l, and 6 e-h). However, precipitation anomalies become much more negative throughout the
352 Pacific Coast region, decreasing by about 10% in some locations, with larger decreases
353 occurring in the eastern part of the region (Figures 5 e and f, and 6 a-d). Despite events
354 becoming drier, changes in the area, frequency, and duration of events are relatively small
355 when using a moving threshold (Figures 3 h and I, and 4 a-l). Changes in relative humidity
356 and wind speed are spatially varied and coincide with changes using the fixed threshold, but
357 with smaller magnitudes – events on the coast become more humid, while interior events
358 become less humid, and events in the north are less windy, while events in the south see
359 increases in windspeed (Figures 5 w and x, and 6 i-p).

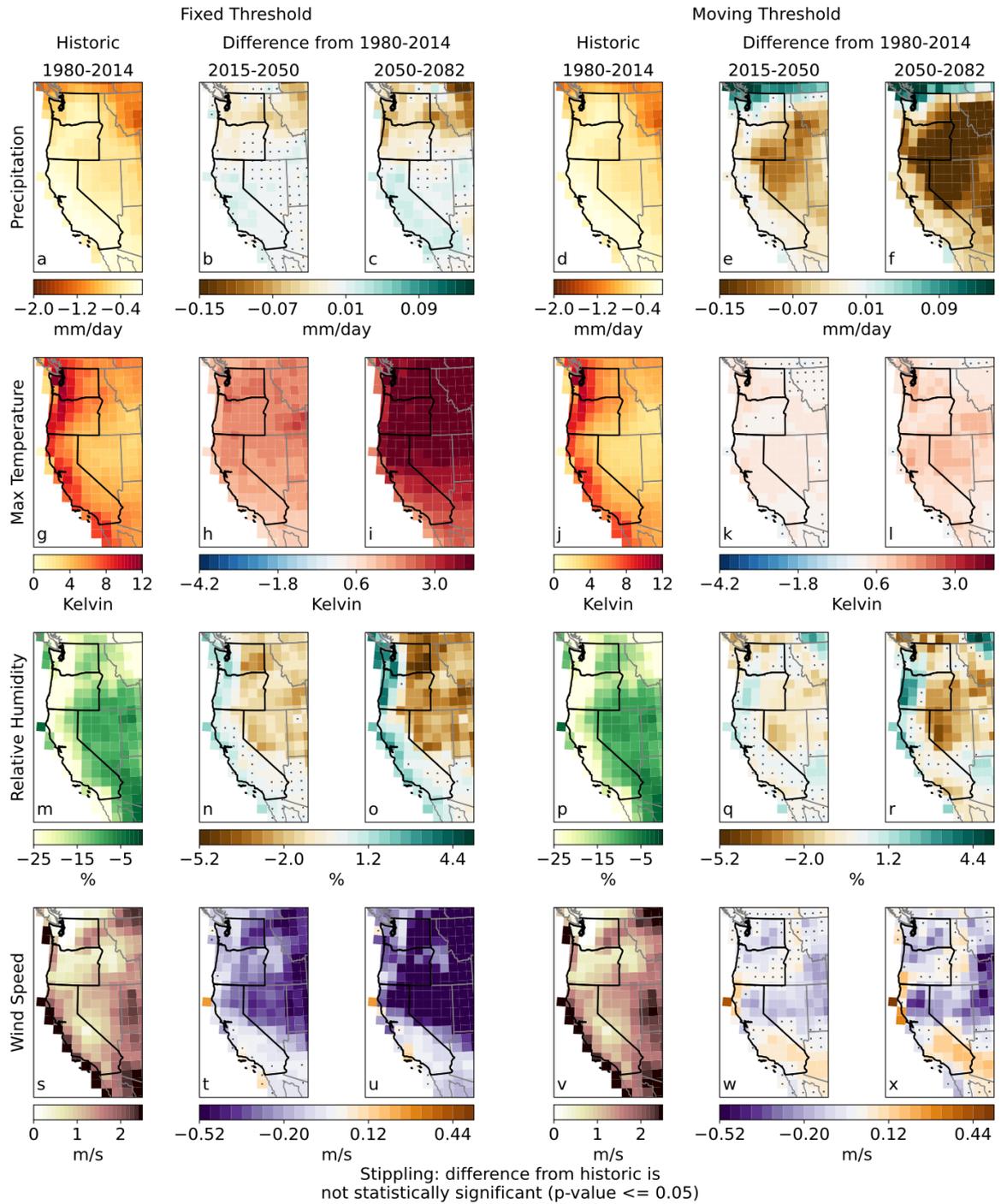
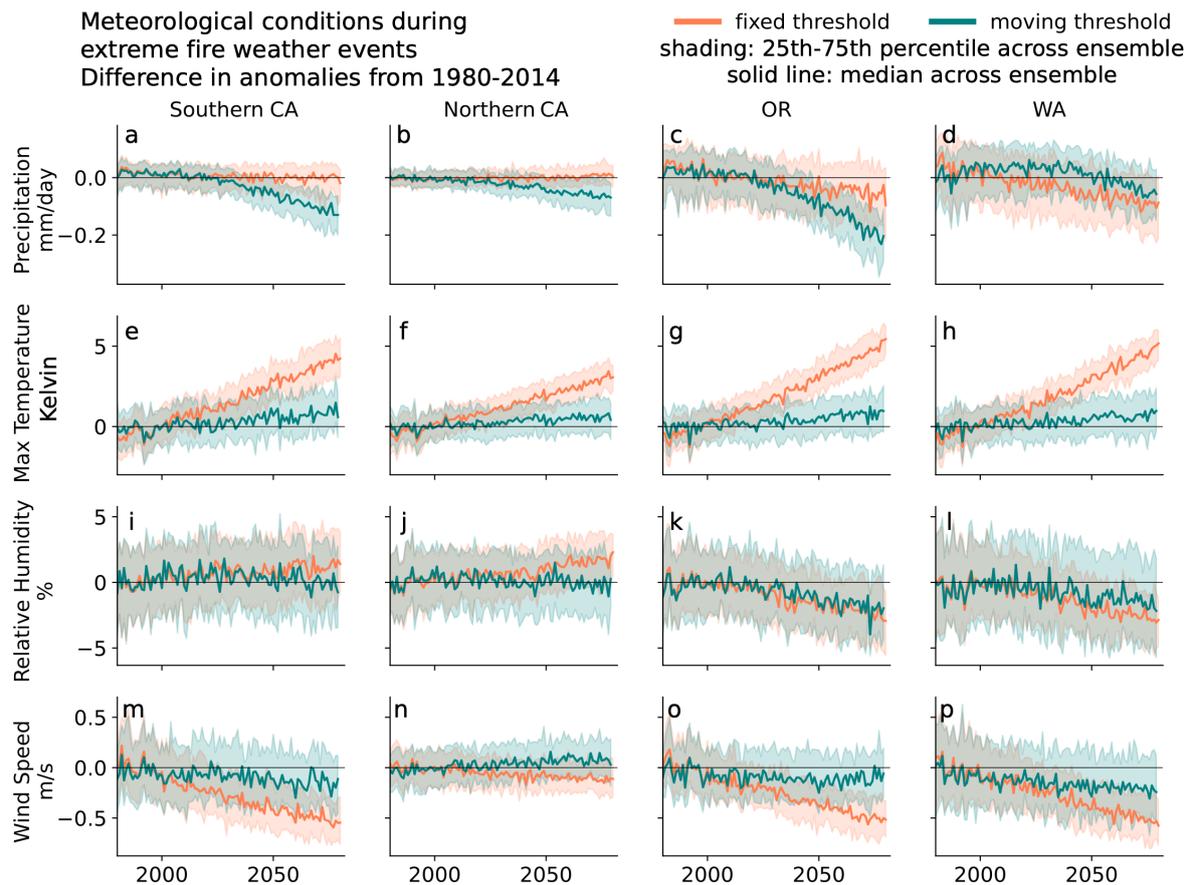


Fig. 5. Composite maps of FWI variables during extreme fire weather events using (a-c, g-i, m-o, s-u) fixed and (d-f, j-l, p-r, v-x) moving distributions for calculating the 99th percentile FWI threshold and FWI variable anomalies for the Pacific Coast region. The composites are created by averaging the variable anomalies over the area and duration of all events across all ensemble members in each period.



366

367 Fig. 6. Time series of precipitation (a-d), maximum temperature (e-h), relative humidity
 368 (i-l) and wind speed (m-p) during extreme fire weather events in JJA in Southern California
 369 (CA; a, e, i, m), Northern CA (b, f, j, n), Oregon (OR; c, g, k, o) and Washington (WA;
 370 d, h, l, p) using the fixed mean and threshold (coral) and the moving mean and threshold.

371 Events identified using a fixed threshold in the Four Corners region also show large
 372 future increases in maximum temperature of up to 4 K (Figure 7 c). The largest increases in
 373 maximum temperature occur in Utah and Colorado, coinciding with decreases in relative
 374 humidity and increases in windspeed (Figures 7 c, e, g and 8 e, f, i, j, m, n). Events in the
 375 Rocky Mountains are relatively drier, with an average decrease of 0.15 mm/day in
 376 precipitation and 2% in relative humidity – however, this area shows relatively smaller
 377 increases in the number of event days/year (Figures 3 e and f, and 7 a and e). As in the Pacific
 378 Coast, events are generally less windy, with about 0.5 m/s decreases in windspeed over Utah
 379 and Colorado (Figures 7g and 8 m, n). Patterns similar to those in the Pacific Coast region
 380 emerge for events identified using a moving threshold in the Four Corners region. Events are
 381 much drier, especially in the center of the region, and Utah and western Colorado show large
 382 decreases in relative humidity (Figures 7f and 8 i, j). Events have greater windspeeds in New
 383 Mexico and Arizona, but lower windspeeds in the northern part of the Four Corners region

384 (Figures 7h and 8 m-p). Additionally, increases in maximum temperature are small and not
 385 significant for many parts of the region (Figures 7d and 8 a-d).

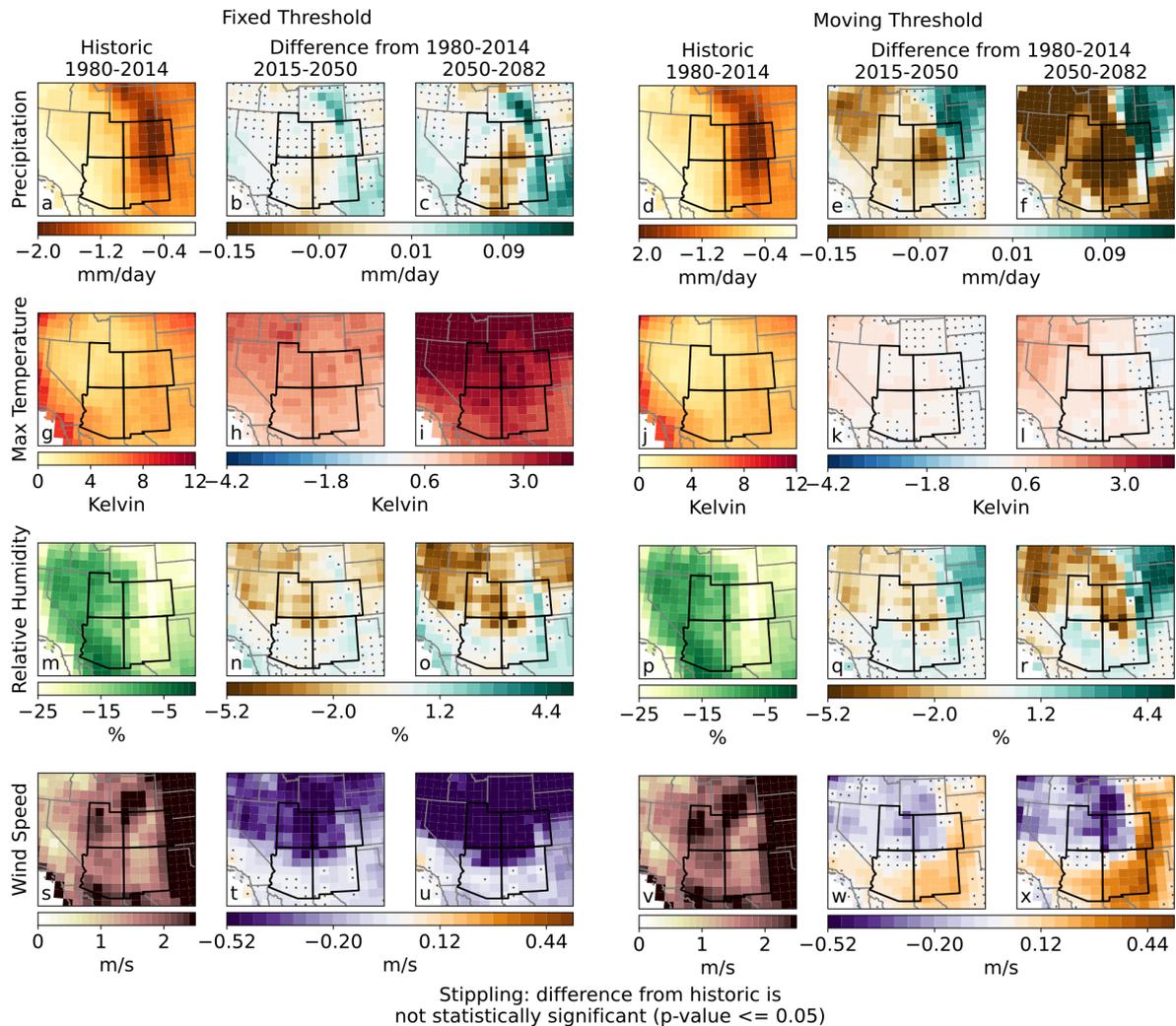
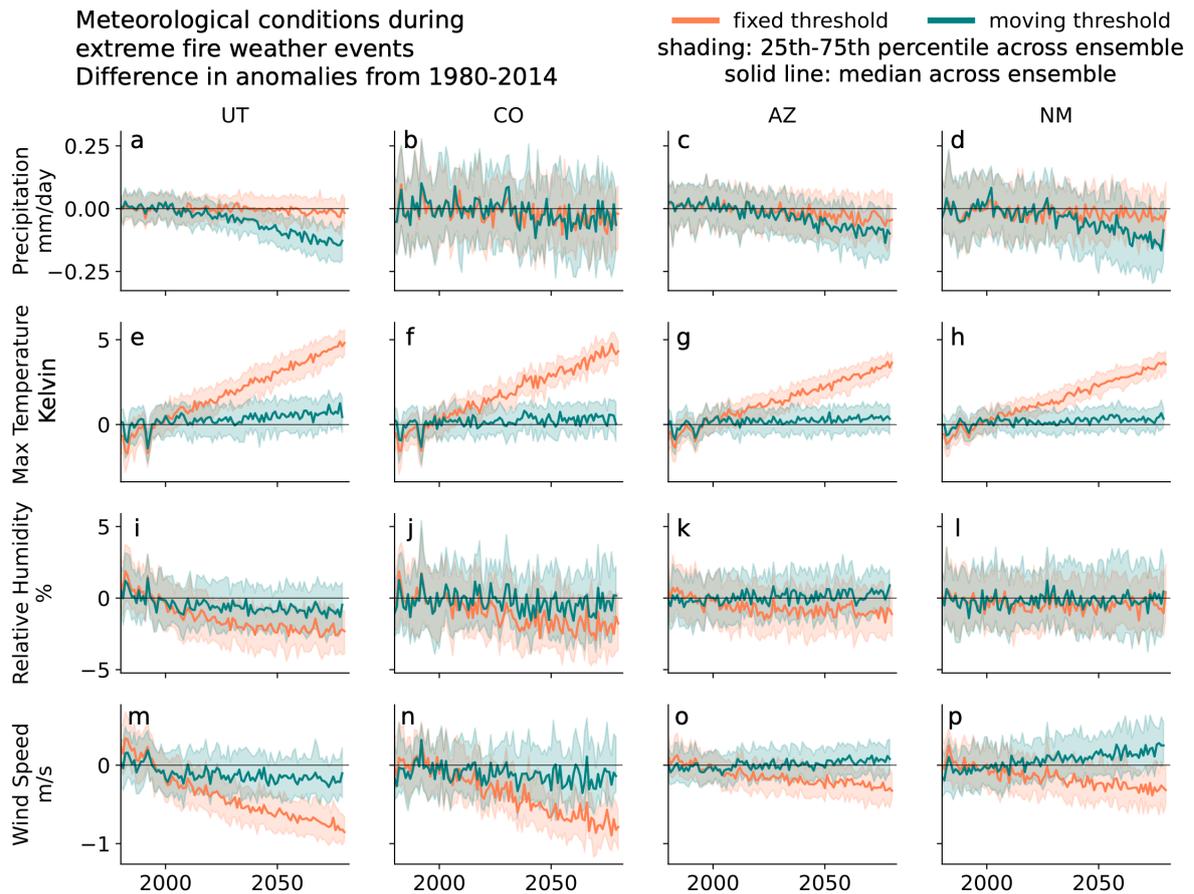


Fig. 7. Composite maps of FWI variables during extreme fire weather events using (a, c, e, g) fixed and (b, d, f, h) moving distributions for calculating the 99th percentile FWI threshold and FWI variable anomalies for the Four Corners region. The composites are created by averaging the variable anomalies over the area and duration of all events across all ensemble members in each period.



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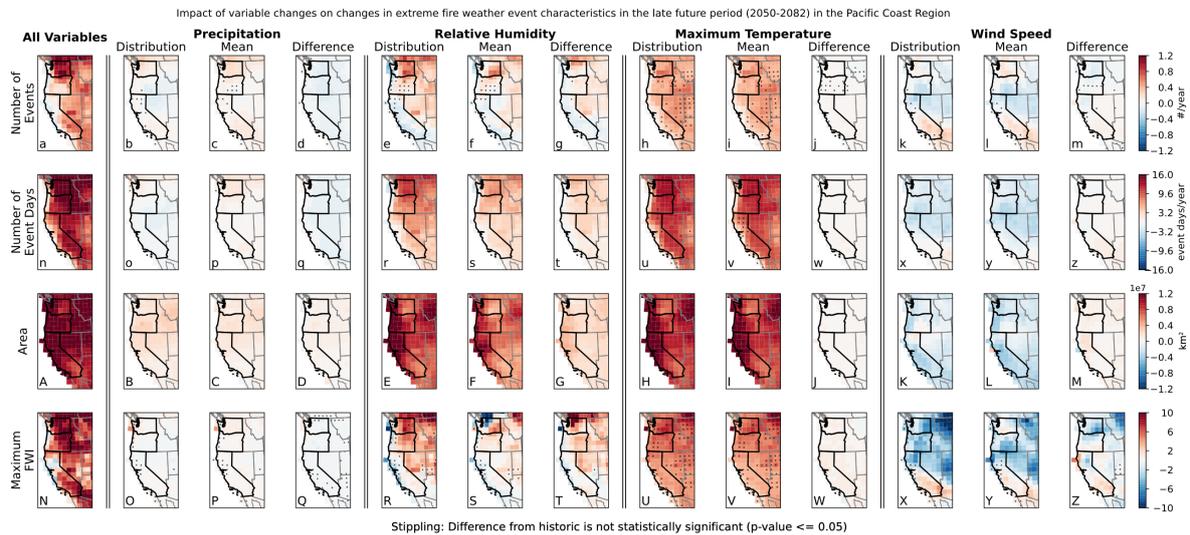
393 Fig. 8. Time series of precipitation (a-d), maximum temperature (e-h), relative humidity
 394 (i-l) and wind speed (m-p) during extreme fire weather events in JJA in Utah (UT; a, e, i, m),
 395 Colorado (CO; b, f, j, n), Arizona (AZ; c, g, k, o) and New Mexico (NM; d, h, l, p) using the
 396 fixed mean and threshold (coral) and the moving mean and threshold (teal).

397 *d. Isolating the impact of individual fire weather variables*

398 While the previous results show how the underlying conditions of extreme fire weather
 399 events are projected to change, it is still unclear how changes in the mean and variability of
 400 each fire weather variable impact event characteristics. To investigate this, we use quantile
 401 and mean mapping approaches (see Methods) to isolate the impact of total changes, as well as
 402 changes in the mean and variability of maximum temperature, precipitation, relative
 403 humidity, and wind speed on the frequency, duration, area, and intensity of extreme fire
 404 weather events (identified using the fixed threshold) in the future periods for the Pacific
 405 Coast and Four Corners regions.

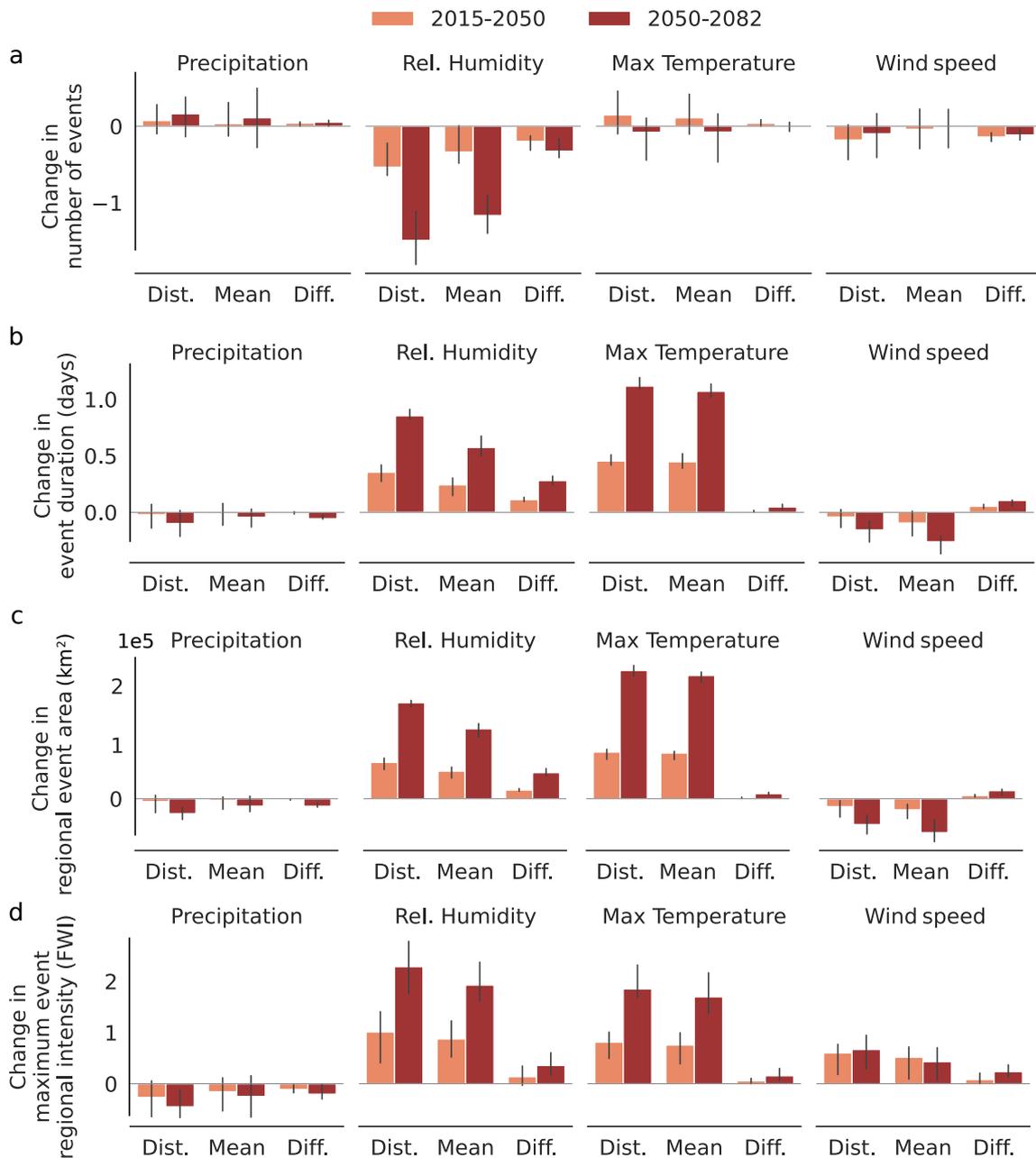
406 In the Pacific Coast region, mean increases in maximum temperature lead to the largest
 407 increases in extreme fire weather event frequency (up to ~1 event/year in some locations),
 408 duration (~10 event days), area (~10,000,000 km²) and maximum FWI (~3 FWI units) in the
 409 late future period, while changes in the variability (“Difference”) of maximum temperature

410 have minimal impacts on these event characteristics (Figure 9 i, v, I and V compared to j, w,
 411 J, W). For all events in the Pacific Coast, mean changes in temperature also have the largest
 412 impact on event days per year, area, and intensity compared to changes in other variables
 413 (Figure 10 b-d). However, mean changes in temperature have relatively small or negligible
 414 impacts on event frequency, with the ensemble spread spanning zero (Figure 10 a).



415
 416 Fig. 9. The impact of changes in all variables (a, n, A, N), and the full distribution (b, e, h,
 417 k, o, r, u, x, B, E, H, K, O, R, U, X), means (c, f, i, l, p, s, v, y, C, F, I, L, P, S, V, Y) and
 418 variabilities (“difference”; d, g, j, m, q, t, w, z, D, G, J, M, Q, T, W, Z) of precipitation (b-d,
 419 o-q, B-D, O-Q), relative humidity (e-g, r-t, E-G, R-T), maximum temperature (h-j, u-w, H-J,
 420 U-W) and wind speed (k-m, x-z, K-M, X-Z) on changes (from the historic period, 1980-
 421 2014) in events per year (a-m), events days per year (n-z), event area (A-M), and maximum
 422 FWI (N-Z) using the fixed threshold in the late future period (2050-2082) for the Pacific
 423 Coast region. These composites are created by averaging event characteristics for all events
 424 for each ensemble member for each period at each grid point. Then, the grid point-specific
 425 values of the historic period are subtracted from each future period for each ensemble
 426 member, and the difference values are averaged over all ensemble members.

Effect of FWI variables on extreme fire weather events in the Pacific Coast Region



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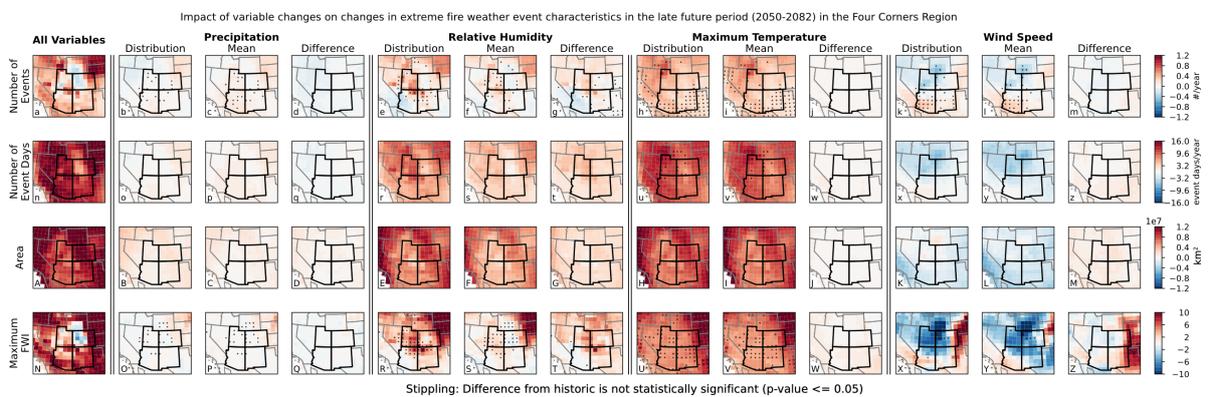
436

Fig. 10. The difference (from the historic period, 1980-2014) in the impact of changes in the full distribution (Dist.), mean, and variability (Diff.) of precipitation, relative humidity, maximum temperature and wind speed on (a) events per year, (b) events days per year, (c) regional event area, and (d) maximum regional event intensity FWI using the fixed threshold for the early (2015-2050, coral) and late future periods (2050-2082, red) for the Pacific Coast region. The mean across all events for each ensemble member is first calculated, and we show the median across all ensemble members. The error bar represents 20% of the ensemble spread from the median.

437 Compared to changes in mean maximum temperature, changes in mean relative humidity
438 cause slightly smaller increases in the duration and area of extreme fire weather events in the
439 future periods over the Pacific Coast region (Figures 9 s and F and 10 b and c). While
440 changes in mean relative humidity do lead to increases in event frequency and intensity in
441 eastern Oregon and Washington, they also lead to decreases in the coastal areas and in much
442 of California (up to -0.8 events/year and -2 FWI units in intensity; Figure 9 f and S). Unlike
443 for maximum temperature, we find that the changes in variability (obtained as the difference
444 between the changes in distribution and mean) of relative humidity also lead to substantial
445 and significant changes in event characteristics in much of the Pacific Coast, and tend to
446 amplify the total impact of relative humidity changes on extreme fire weather events (Figures
447 9 g, t, G, T and 10). This is especially evident for event duration and area, where changes in
448 the mean and variability of relative humidity lead to increases of 0.5 and 0.2 event days/year
449 and 100,000 and 50,000 km² in average event area, respectively, in the late future period
450 (Figure 10 b and c). The change in the mean of wind speed generally drives decreases in
451 event duration and area over the region but causes increases in the frequency and intensity of
452 events in southern California (Figure 9 l, y, L and Y). The impact of the changes in the
453 variability of wind speed on event characteristics are relatively small in the region except for
454 the intensity of events in northern California where there is an increase of about 4 FWI units
455 (Figure 9 Z).

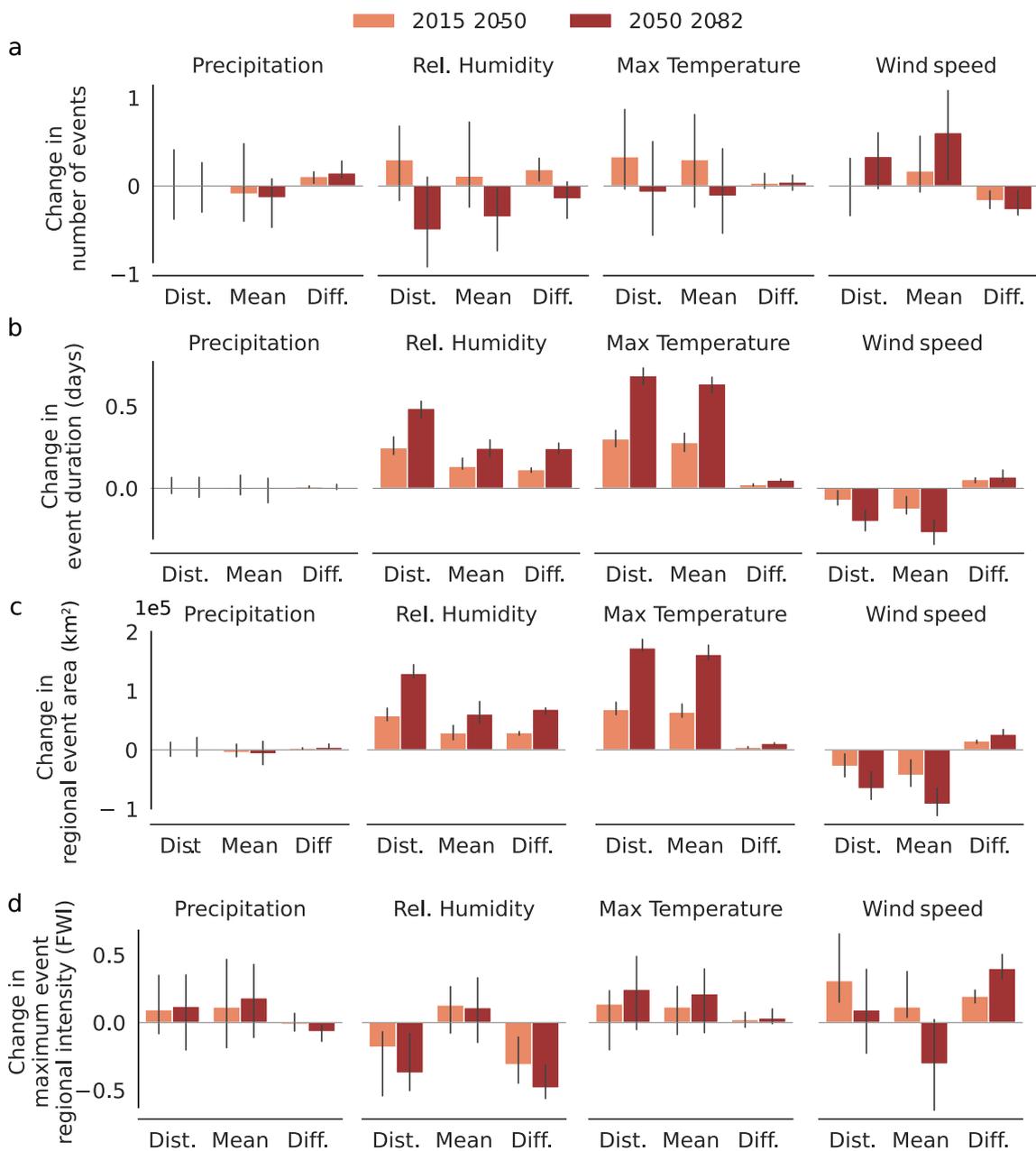
456 In the Four Corners regions, the impacts of changes in the mean and variability of the
457 FWI variables are somewhat similar to those in the Pacific Coast region. Mean changes in
458 maximum temperature and relative humidity lead to large increases in event days/year (up to
459 15 and 8 days/year, respectively) and area (up to 10,000,000 and 8,000,000 km²,
460 respectively) in the late future period (Figure 11 s, v, F, I). The impact of changes in the
461 variability of maximum temperature is relatively small, however, changes in the variability of
462 relative humidity lead to substantial and robust increases in event days/year and event area –
463 approximately equal to the increases due to changes in the mean of relative humidity when
464 looking across all events and ensemble members (Figure 12 b and c). Changes in the mean
465 and variability of relative humidity also lead to spatially-varied impacts on the event intensity
466 in the Four Corners region (Figure 11 S and T). For example, in the center of the region, there
467 are small and not statistically significant changes in maximum intensity due to changes in the
468 mean of relative humidity, but large and significant increases (approximately 6 FWI units, *p*-
469 *value* ≤ 0.05) due to changes in the variability. However, overall, changes in the mean of

470 relative humidity lead to slight and non-robust increases in maximum event intensity, but
 471 changes in the variability lead to large and significant decreases (-0.5 FWI units in the late
 472 future period, $p\text{-value} \leq 0.05$; Figure 12 d). Like the Pacific Coast, changes in the mean of
 473 wind speed also lead to overall decreases in the number of event days/year (-8 event
 474 days/year) and event area (-4,000,000 km²), but are generally overwhelmed by the increases
 475 due to changes in other variables (compare Figure 11 Y and Z with N). However, in western
 476 Colorado, the large decreases in event intensity due to changes in windspeed mean (up to -10
 477 FWI units) are also reflected in the changes due to all variables (up to -4 FWI units; Figure 11
 478 N and Y).



479
 480 Fig. 11. The impact of changes in all variables (a, n, A, N), and the full distribution (b, e,
 481 h, k, o, r, u, x, B, E, H, K, O, R, U, X), means (c, f, i, l, p, s, v, y, C, F, I, L, P, S, V, Y) and
 482 variabilities (“difference”; d, g, j, m, q, t, w, z, D, G, J, M, Q, T, W, Z) of precipitation (b-d,
 483 o-q, B-D, O-Q), relative humidity (e-g, r-t, E-G, R-T), maximum temperature (h-j, u-w, H-J,
 484 U-W) and wind speed (k-m, x-z, K-M, X-Z) on changes (from the historic period, 1980-
 485 2014) in events per year (a-m), events days per year (n-z), event area (A-M), and maximum
 486 FWI (N-Z) using the fixed threshold in the late future period (2050-2082) for the Four
 487 Corners region. These composites are created by averaging event characteristics for all events
 488 for each ensemble member for each period at each grid point. Then, the grid point-specific
 489 values of the historic period are subtracted from each future period for each ensemble
 490 member, and the difference values are averaged over all ensemble members.

Effect of FWI variables on extreme fire weather events in the Four Corners Region



491

492 Fig. 12. The difference (from the historic period, 1980-2014) in the impact of changes in
 493 the full distribution (Dist.), mean, and variability (Diff.) of precipitation, relative humidity,
 494 maximum temperature and wind speed on (a) events per year, (b) events days per year, (c)
 495 regional event area, and (d) maximum regional event intensity FWI using the fixed threshold
 496 for the early (2015-2050, coral) and late future periods (2050-2082, red) for the Four Corners
 497 region. The mean across all events for each ensemble member is first calculated, and we
 498 show the median across all ensemble members. The error bar represents 20% of the ensemble
 499 spread from the median.

500 In both the Pacific Coast and Four Corners regions, changes in the mean of maximum
 501 temperature and in the mean and variability of relative humidity have the largest influences
 502 on extreme fire weather event frequency, duration, area and intensity. On the other hand, the

503 impact of changes in wind speed are generally small, not significant, and varied, and changes
504 in precipitation also plays a relatively small role in the changes of extreme fire weather event
505 characteristics for both early and late future periods.

506 **4. Discussion**

507 Our study employs the CESM2 Large Ensemble to investigate projections of extreme fire
508 weather event characteristics for current and emerging fire-prone regions, specifically, the
509 Pacific Coast and Four Corners regions. Using a fixed threshold, we find that the frequency,
510 duration, and area of extreme fire weather events are increasing, and events are extending
511 well-beyond regional boundaries. By the end of the 21st century, events in the Pacific Region
512 are expected to reach north towards Canada and east towards the Midwest, and events in the
513 Four Corners regions are expected to reach northeast towards the Midwest and west and
514 northwest towards Idaho, Nevada, and southern California. These increases in extreme fire
515 weather event duration, area, and intensity are fueled by increasing maximum temperature
516 means, decreasing relative humidity means, as well as changes in the variability of relative
517 humidity that are not reflected in the mean changes. When using a moving threshold, event
518 frequency, duration, and area are generally unchanging in the future periods, but some
519 expansion of spatiotemporally connected events towards similar regions as the fixed
520 thresholds is evident. Additionally, extreme fire weather events using a moving threshold are
521 only slightly warmer than those in the historic period, but occur under much drier conditions,
522 reflected in the underlying anomalously low precipitation and relative humidity.

523 We find that the choice of the baseline or threshold period used to investigate extreme fire
524 weather events is highly important for making inferences about future events. In our case, we
525 used two contrasting baselines: a fixed threshold that relies on the distribution of the FWI in
526 the historical period only, and a moving threshold that accounts for an evolving FWI
527 distribution. The relevance of a fixed *vs.* moving baseline for understanding the risk of
528 extreme fire weather events in a particular region depends on the timescales at which
529 communities and ecosystems adapt to changes in mean climate *vs.* climate variability. Similar
530 considerations apply to other types of extremes, for example marine heat waves (Amaya et
531 al., 2023; Deser et al. 2024). As far as we know, this is the first study to explicitly compare
532 the impacts of projected changes in mean climate *vs.* climate variability on the characteristics
533 of extreme fire weather events, and to quantify the underlying meteorological drivers of such
534 changes.

535 By using a moving threshold, we can bring to light changes in event characteristics that
536 may be due to changes in spatial or temporal variability of the FWI distribution that are not
537 obvious when using a fixed threshold. We find some changes in extreme fire weather event
538 characteristics when using a moving threshold, namely the underlying meteorological
539 conditions that lead to extreme fire weather events, as well as the spatial connectivity of
540 events in both the Pacific Coast and Four Corners regions. Moreover, we employed a
541 relatively high FWI threshold to represent extreme fire weather days compared to previous
542 studies (Abatzoglou et al. 2019; Touma et al. 2021). However, wildfire risk may also be
543 present at lower FWI thresholds, especially in climatologically cold and wet regions. A lower
544 threshold may show even greater changes in extreme fire weather event characteristics based
545 on a moving baseline than the results reported here, given the greater opportunity for grid
546 points and time steps to be spatiotemporally connected to each other.

547 To our knowledge, our study is the first to employ a quantile mapping method to isolate
548 the changes in the mean and variability of the FWI variables to understand how they
549 individually impact extreme fire weather events. We were able to robustly estimate the
550 anthropogenically-forced changes in the mean and variability of the individual variables due
551 to the availability of 100 CESM2 simulations that differ only by internal variability. While
552 our findings show the large impact of increases in the mean of maximum temperatures and
553 decreases in the mean of relative humidity that have been shown in previous studies
554 (Abatzoglou et al. 2019; Jain et al. 2022; Touma et al. 2021), they also show that changes in
555 the variability of relative humidity have a similarly large impact on extreme fire weather
556 event frequency, duration, area, and intensity. In some areas of our study region, the impact
557 of changes in the variability of relative humidity is equal to that of changes in the mean,
558 doubling the total impact of relative humidity, which is a substantially larger estimate than
559 that of previous studies (e.g., Zhuang et al., 2021). Our findings stress the need to consider
560 changes in the variability as well as the mean of climate variables when understanding
561 climate-change induced changes in different characteristics of extreme climate events, and
562 therefore to employ large ensembles for assessing projections of extreme events.

563 By using a 35-year moving window that includes all daily values in our quantile-mapping
564 method, we do not differentiate between different timescales of variability – daily to multi-
565 annual timescales are considered together. Previous studies have shown that the El Niño
566 Southern Oscillation (ENSO) and the Pacific Decadal Oscillation (PDO) influence the

567 variability of wildfire occurrence over the pre-industrial and historical period in the western
568 U.S., and that the Atlantic Meridional Oscillation (AMO) can also modulate ENSO's and
569 PDO's influences (Kitzberger et al. 2007). Studies have also shown that ENSO's influence on
570 wildfire danger in the western U.S. is expected to change in future years, as well as the
571 influence on different wildfire-related variables (Fasullo et al., 2018).

572 We note that our study is one of many that shows that western U.S. wildfire risk is
573 projected to increase over the next century, and that communities need to plan how to become
574 resilient to these changes. By employing the moving threshold and understanding the role of
575 variability and mean changes in our study, we also begin to shed light on how adaptation
576 measures should be shaped. For instance, our study showed that extreme fire weather events
577 are projected to spread over larger areas and become more spatially connected over the
578 coming decades, highlighting the need to prepare for more widespread hazardous conditions.
579 Our study also shows that by using a large ensemble, we capture the impact of forced
580 changes in the variability of climate variables on extreme fire weather events. While the use
581 of regionally downscaled (statistically and dynamically) climate projections is important for
582 adaptation policy, they rarely include more than a few realizations and therefore could hide
583 the impacts of the forced changes in climate variability (see Deser et al., 2020 for further
584 reading). One way to overcome this issue is to statistically downscale global ESM Large
585 Ensembles that are run at relatively coarse resolution or select a few "representative"
586 ensemble members that could capture the forced changes in variability and use those to
587 dynamically downscale climate projections (see, for example, Huang & Swain, 2022). While
588 both pathways will lead to their own uncertainties, we stress the need to capture the impact of
589 anthropogenic forcings on both the variability and mean of our climate system to quantify
590 future risks of extreme fire weather events among other impacts.

591

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600

601 *Data Availability Statement.*

602 The CESM2-LE model output is available through
603 <https://www.cesm.ucar.edu/projects/community-projects/LENS2/data-sets.html>. Analysis and
604 visualization scripts will be made available through Zenodo upon publication.

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