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2 *Resilience"*

3
4 **Title: FIRED (Fire Events Delineation): An open, flexible algorithm & database of US fire**
5 **events derived from the MODIS burned area product (2001-19)**

6
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17 **Abstract:**

18 Harnessing the fire data revolution, i.e., the abundance of information from satellites,
19 government records, social media, and human health sources, now requires complex and
20 challenging data integration approaches. Defining fire events is key to that effort. In order to
21 understand the spatial and temporal characteristics of fire, or the classic fire regime concept, we
22 need to critically define fire events from remote sensing data. Events, fundamentally a
23 geographic concept with delineated spatial and temporal boundaries around a specific
24 phenomena that is homogenous in some property, are key to understanding fire regimes and
25 more importantly how they are changing. Here, we describe FIRED, an event-delineation
26 algorithm, that has been used to derive fire events (N = 51,871) from the MODIS MCD64
27 burned area product for the coterminous US (CONUS) from January 2001 to May 2019. The
28 optimized spatial and temporal parameters to cluster burned area pixels into events were an 11-
29 day window and a 5-pixel (2315 m) distance, when optimized against 13,741 wildfire

30 perimeters in the CONUS from the Monitoring Trends in Burn Severity record. The linear
31 relationship between the size of individual FIRED and MTBS events for the CONUS was strong
32 ($R^2 = 0.92$ for all events). Importantly, this algorithm is open source and flexible, allowing the
33 end user to modify the spatio-temporal threshold or even the underlying algorithm approach as
34 they see fit. We expect the optimized criteria to vary across regions, based on regional
35 distributions of fire event size and rate of spread. We describe the derived metrics provided in a
36 new national database and how they can be used to better understand US fire regimes. The
37 open, flexible FIRED algorithm could be utilized to derive events in any satellite product. We
38 hope that this open science effort will help catalyze a community-driven, data-integration effort
39 (termed OneFire) to build a more complete picture of fire.

40

41 **Keywords:** data harmonization; event-builder algorithm; fire regimes; open fire science; satellite
42 fire detections

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44

45

46 1. Introduction

47

48 What is a fire? Defining the spatial and temporal boundaries of fire events is critical for
49 understanding the drivers and trends in fires [1], ecological consequences [2], and adaptation
50 implications [3]. Answering this question is fundamental to defining fire regimes, or the spatial
51 and temporal characteristics of fire events in a strict sense [4–6], i.e., size, frequency, intensity,
52 severity, seasonality, duration, and rate of spread. Remote sensing has increased our capacity to
53 quantify some of these characteristics at large spatial scales, such as frequency, intensity, size,
54 and severity [7–9]. However, there is even greater potential to inform our understanding of
55 changing fire and resilience of ecosystems and society if we are able to delineate events in
56 remote sensing fire products that preserve the temporal characteristics. We can then better
57 understand whether ecosystem state transitions depend on fire intensity and speed or how
58 communities in the wildland-urban interface (WUI) may be vulnerable to rapid fire spread.

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2

60 There are generally three classes of information that satellite sensors capture about fire
61 behavior: active fires based on thermal threshold exceedance [10–12], fire radiative power as a
62 metric of heat flux [13–15], and burned area derived from a change detection algorithm [16–18],
63 sometimes also informed by active fire detections [19]. These fire properties are estimated at the
64 pixel level, which ranges in size for these products from 10s to 1000s of meters. In order to
65 explore fire behavior patterns these pixel-level detections are aggregated in some way,
66 necessitating the assumption of homogenous fire characteristics across that pixel. Global burned
67 area products tend to underestimate total burned area due to missing small fires [20] and
68 within-fire burned area due to underestimation of burned areas within an event [21]. Further,
69 global scale studies explore total burned area summed across larger units or the density of hot
70 pixels as a metric of fire frequency [8,22–24], which leaves understanding of actual events
71 missing. Given the abundance of satellite fire data (e.g., Table 1), and that they do not “see” the
72 same aspects of fire [12,31,32], we fundamentally need landscape-scale event delineation to
73 integrate across products and build greater understanding of how fire regimes vary at regional
74 and global scales [25]. With event-level delineations we can then also calculate a critical, but
75 less understood property of fire regimes—fire spread. The MODIS-based burned area products
76 [26,27] use sub-daily images to estimate the date a pixel burned. As such, they are uniquely
77 suited to provide estimates of fire spread rate and duration, but only if we can say which pixels
78 are all part of the same event. There have been some attempts to characterize fire spread using
79 active fire products, but the code and resulting data products are not publicly available [28].
80 Defining events from the MODIS-based products enables capturing fire events, from small to
81 large events at a global-scale, providing key metrics on fire regimes and how they are changing.

83 There are several different approaches for delineating fire events based on proximity of burned
84 area or hot pixels in space and time. Some studies have clustered the MODIS active fire hotspots
85 (MODIS MOD14) to delineate events in Europe and northern Africa [29] and Indonesian
86 tropical rainforests [26,27] to understand what drives large fires. Others have used clustering of
87 MODIS burned area (MODIS MCD64) pixels [7,8,30,31]. Most studies require pixel adjacency

88 (Table 1), but a more relaxed spatial criteria facilitates exploring fires that have unburned
89 patches within their perimeters—critical refugia that are necessary for regeneration [21]. This
90 approach is also less likely to over-segment events that are imperfectly detected, due to low fire
91 severity or cloudiness, for example.

92

93 Given the number of studies that use the MODIS burned area product (e.g., studies in Table 1)
94 and emerging new fire data products [12,17,25–27,32] that conduct some sort of event
95 delineation as part of the processing, there is a great need to develop an open and well-
96 documented algorithm for defining fire events from remotely sensed detections of fire.
97 Moreover, event delineation enables joining of different data products to build a more complete
98 picture of regional and global fire. Better delineation of the boundaries of events could lead to
99 better estimates of total burned area, as well as exploration of derived spatiotemporal metrics
100 around events that constitute the fire regime (e.g., event size, event shape, ignition point,
101 unburned refugia within a fire, and fire spread rate). Many of the algorithms that have been
102 developed previously were used and optimized for one specific analysis and the code was not
103 published for further development and reuse [7,33–35]. Furthermore, decisions were often
104 made that lessened the computational cost, but relied on assumptions that are often not
105 universally applicable. Most notably, data were often aggregated into a single yearly layer,
106 which results in the artificial aggregation of pixels that burned multiple times in one year, and
107 the artificial segmentation of events that started in one year and ended in the next [34–36].

108

109 Further, there is a need to better validate the temporal and spatial thresholds, as this selection
110 can substantially alter the number of detected fire events. Fire metrics can be sensitive to how
111 boundaries are delineated [37]. Moreover, we expect the optimum temporal and spatial
112 thresholds to vary based on size distribution and spread differences that will vary across
113 ecoregions (e.g., fast, large grassland fires vs. small, slow temperate forest fires) and land use
114 types (e.g., agricultural fires vs. deforestation fires). But even so, ground-based delineations of
115 fire perimeters also have their challenges, incident command delineations may overestimate
116 wildfire perimeters, as delineating unburned patches is difficult on the ground. Also, multiple

117 fire patches may start independently and in proximity (e.g., when a lightning storm starts
118 multiple events), which then merge into one fire complex.

119

120 Table 1: Studies using spatio-temporal moving window algorithms for delineating fire events,
121 first utilized by Archibald et al. [33].

Study	Purpose	Satellite fire product	Spatial criteria	Temporal criteria
Archibald et al. 2009	Examined environmental and anthropogenic drivers of fire in South Africa	MODIS MCD45*	Adjacency	8 days
Balch et al. 2013	Tested whether cheatgrass occurrence increases fire activity	MODIS MCD45, RMGSC ^s	2 pixels (1000 m)	2 days
Hansen et al. 2015	Explored global fire size distribution	MODIS MCD45	Adjacency	14 days
Frantz et al. 2016	Aggregated raster grids from burn date to event objects	MODIS MCD64 ⁺	10 pixels (5000 m)	5 days
Andela et al. 2017	Examined global fire activity	GFED4s [%] , MODIS MCD64	Local spread rate x distance	Spatially varying fire persistence threshold
Laurent et al. 2018	Derived patch functional traits and other	MODIS MCD64, MERIS	1 pixel (500 m)	3, 5, 9 and 14 days

	morphological features of fire events			
Andela et al. 2018	Created global fire atlas product	MODIS MCD64	1 pixel (500 m)	Spatially varying

122 * MCD45: MODIS Collection 5.1 burned area product

123 + MCD64: MODIS Collection 6 burned area product

124 \$ RMGSC: USGS Rocky Mountain Geographic Science Center fire perimeter data

125 % GFED4s: Global Fire Emissions Database version 4 product

126

127 Here, we: i) develop an open, refined, and adaptable algorithm for defining events; ii) derive
 128 events and companion metrics for fires in the CONUS from the MODIS MCD64 burned area
 129 product, based on the optimum spatial and temporal thresholds; iii) validate the MODIS-
 130 derived events against the Monitoring Trends in Burn Severity (MTBS) product, which is
 131 manually derived from Landsat imagery [38]; and iii) demonstrate how defining events enables
 132 us to explore additional metrics of the fire regime across the US. Here, we define an event [39]
 133 as a geographic concept with delineated spatial and temporal boundaries around a specific
 134 phenomena that is homogenous in some property and distinct from adjacent areas. The
 135 algorithm is designed in a way that makes it adaptable to data source, regional context, and
 136 even event type: the spatiotemporal criteria can be altered, and it could be used with newer
 137 burned area products (e.g., Fire_cci based on MODIS images at 250 m resolution [26] or VIIRS
 138 [12]), or even different types of phenomena (e.g. bark beetle outbreaks, floods, etc.).

139

140 2. Materials and Methods

141 a. Study area and data acquisition and processing

142 The study area was CONUS. We chose this study area because of the availability of other fire
 143 datasets like MTBS [38] which we were able to use to gauge the accuracy of our aggregation of
 144 burned pixels to events from the MCD64 dataset. We used the MODIS Collection 6 MCD64
 145 burned area product [27] [available at ftp://fuoco.geog.umd.edu/MCD64A1/C6/]. These data
 146 contain five layers at 500-m resolution: burn date, first day, last day, a quality assessment, and

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30 6

147 error. The data are available worldwide, via a sinusoidal projection that is divided into 648 tiles
148 (268 of which are terrestrial), each with 2400 rows and columns at 463-m resolution. We
149 downloaded the entire monthly time series available for each tile that overlaps with CONUS,
150 and extracted the burn date layer.

151

152 *b. Accounting for pixels that burn more than once per year (intra-annual reburns)*

153 Some other studies that have aggregated pixels into fire events from the MODIS burned area
154 product have aggregated the input data to a yearly time-step [34,35], taking either the earliest
155 or latest burn date in the case of pixels that burn twice in one year. This assumes a minimal
156 occurrence of pixels that actually burn twice in one year (e.g. the land burns first in spring and
157 then again in fall). Aggregating the monthly data to yearly time steps makes the processing of
158 the data much less complex and computationally costly (i.e., it allows for a 2-dimensional
159 moving window). However, aggregation at a yearly timescale presents two problems. First, the
160 occurrence of pixels that burn more than once within a year would result in separate events
161 being collapsed, resulting in an underestimate of burned area for the study area. Second, fires
162 that burn from one year to the next become arbitrarily split into two events.

163

164 Prior efforts have justified ignoring intra-year or intra-season reburns based on an occurrence of
165 around 1% [34,35]. However we found that when we examined the study area tile by tile, some
166 areas experienced rates of intra-year reburns much greater than 1%. To investigate whether
167 reburned pixels would have a confounding effect on our data, we examined the occurrence of
168 pixels that burned multiple times per year for each of the tiles overlapping CONUS for each
169 year. We converted each monthly tile in CONUS to binary (1 for burned, 0 for unburned),
170 summed each monthly pixel per year and calculated the percentage of pixels that burned more
171 than once per year, per tile. For 2001 - 2018 for all of CONUS except the tile that contains
172 Florida, there were a total of 12,676 pixels that burned more than once in a given year, or about
173 0.48% of pixels. The tile that includes Florida (h10v06) had a rate of 5% (sd 2.3%) of pixels that
174 burned multiple times per year (Table 2). We suspect that this high reburn occurrence is due to
175 the year-round growing season combined with year-round occurrence of lightning strikes and

176 human ignition pressure. Intra-year reburns would present a problem if this algorithm were
 177 expanded globally, because there are many ecosystems, especially in the tropics, with year-
 178 round growing seasons combined with year-round anthropogenic ignition sources.

179

180 Because of the relatively high reburn occurrence, and also due to concern over segmenting
 181 winter fires into multiple events, we decided not to aggregate the input rasters by year or fire
 182 season. Instead, we created a space-time cube for each monthly tile for the entire time series,
 183 where the julian day of the year for each pixel in each month layer was converted to a number
 184 along a continuous series starting on January 1, 1970.

185

186 Table 2. Number of reburned pixels per year, per tile calculated for 2001-2018 from the monthly
 187 MODIS MCD64 Burned area product.

Tile	Mean Reburn %	Std Reburn %
h08v04	0.17	0.18
h08v05	0.35	0.27
h08v06	1.35	1.05
h09v04	0.36	0.30
h09v05	0.23	0.19
h09v06	0.73	0.47
h10v04	0.12	0.09
h10v05	0.67	0.29
H10v06 (Florida)	5.12	2.31
h11v04	0.35	0.33
h11v05	0.32	0.35
h12v04	0.35	0.61
h13v04	0.32	0.29
Total (excluding h10v06)	0.48	0.55

188

189

190 *c. Defining events with a flexible, fast algorithm*

191 We created an algorithm that automatically downloads, processes, defines events and calculates
 192 summary statistics for the entire CUS in 30 minutes on a normal laptop. To define events, we
 193 used a 3-dimensional moving window to aggregate burned pixels into distinct events. The

194 algorithm takes as input a spatial variable, representing the number of pixels, and a temporal
195 variable, representing the number of days, within which to group burn detections. It then
196 aggregates by assigning each burned pixel an event identification number.

197

198 The data processing script downloads the entire time series of HDF files from the ftp server,
199 extracts the burn date layer from each monthly tile, and adds them to a 3-dimensional netCDF
200 data cube. We used this data structure to maximize efficiency and speed. The event perimeter
201 script reads the netCDF file for each tile, where each band represents one month, and for each
202 burned pixel the date of fire detection is represented as the number of days since January 1,
203 1970. The netCDF file is converted into a three-dimensional array and the moving window
204 traverses the array. To avoid unnecessary computation, we did not check cells in which there
205 was no burned area assignment throughout the study period.

206

207 For each cell where at least one fire detection occurred, the program creates a mask identifying
208 all burned pixels that fall within the spatial and temporal range of the current cell. If the current
209 cell is already part of an existing event, any new burned pixels are assigned the event ID for that
210 event. If it is a new event, the current cell and all overlapping cells are given the next sequential
211 event ID. If there are multiple event IDs within the mask, two perimeters have grown together
212 and they are merged into the first event ID. After the event perimeters are delineated within
213 each tile, all event perimeters that potentially overlap with an adjacent tile are flagged. After all
214 tiles are processed, the flagged events are partitioned and those that overlap spatially and
215 temporally are merged. Finally, events across all tiles are merged into a final dataset and given a
216 new sequential event ID.

217

218 *d. Sensitivity analysis: identifying the optimal spatiotemporal parameters for delineating fire events*

219 In order to find which combination of spatial and temporal variables outputs best defined fire
220 events for CONUS, we assessed how well the FIRED outputs matched fire perimeters from
221 MTBS [38]. MTBS is a dataset of fire perimeters from 1984-2016 derived from Landsat satellite
222 data. It has a minimum size threshold of 404 ha in the western US and 202 ha in the eastern US

223 (separated by the 97th meridian). It documents 21,673 fire events throughout the entire US, and
224 13,741 in the overlapping study area and timeframe, beginning in 2001. One problematic feature
225 of the MTBS data for this comparison is that fire complexes are not dealt with uniformly. Fire
226 complexes are “two or more individual incidents located in the same general area which are
227 assigned to a single incident commander or unified command [40].” In some cases each fire
228 patch is assigned its own ID number and is represented as a single perimeter, and in other cases
229 these complexes are lumped into a multipolygon with a single ID number. To address this
230 issue, we split all multipolygons into single polygons, assigned unique ID numbers to each
231 polygon, and then calculated the area for each individual polygon. This way, our sensitivity
232 analysis would objectively assess how individual polygons matched, without the confounding
233 factor of aggregated multipolygons.

234

235 We ran the fire event classifier for all spatiotemporal combinations between 1-15 days and 1-15
236 pixels (463 - 6,945 m), resulting in 225 spatiotemporal combinations for CONUS. For each
237 combination we matched the FIRED events that were >404 ha in the west and >202 ha in the
238 eastern US to the associated MTBS wildfire perimeter.

239

240 An accuracy assessment was conducted for each spatiotemporal combination of the FIRED
241 events, based on how well they matched the MTBS events. For each unique fire polygon in the
242 MTBS database, we extracted the ID numbers for each FIRED event overlapping the MTBS
243 polygon. Then, for each unique FIRED event, we extracted each MTBS ID that overlapped. We
244 then calculated the ratio of the number of unique MTBS events that contained a FIRED event
245 divided by the number of unique FIRED events that contained at least one MTBS event, with
246 the optimum value being one. We used this ratio to approximate the spatio-temporal
247 combination that minimized both over- and under-segmentation of the FIRED events based on
248 known MTBS fire perimeters.

249

250 Based on the ratio that minimized both over- and under-segmentation, we estimated an optimal
251 combination for the US of 5 pixels (2315 m) and 11 days. We calculated commission and

252 omission errors for both the FIRED events and the MTBS events.

253

254 *e. Calculating statistics for each event, and daily statistics within events*

255 Once the optimal spatial-temporal aggregation level was identified, we created two vector
 256 products for CONUS: one where individual pixels were aggregated to polygons representing
 257 each fire event, and one where individual pixels were aggregated to each date within each
 258 event. For the event-level vector product, we calculated ignition location and date, duration,
 259 spread rate (burned area/duration), burned area, date of maximum growth, area burned on the
 260 dates of maximum and minimum growth (the date with the highest burned area per event),
 261 and the mean daily area burned for each event. We also extracted the mode of the International
 262 Geosphere-Biosphere Programme land cover classification from the MODIS MCD12Q1
 263 landcover product for the year before the fire [41], and the Community for Environmental
 264 Cooperation's level 1-3 ecoregions [42], for each event (Table 3). For the daily-level vector
 265 product, we calculated the daily burned area, cumulative burned area per day, days since
 266 ignition, mode landcover per day, and mode ecoregion per day, in addition to the metrics
 267 calculated for the event-level product (Table 4). In addition, the algorithm has a third output: a
 268 table with each burned pixel as a single row, with coordinates, burn date, and the event
 269 identification number derived from the algorithm. This raw output is provided so the end-user
 270 can use and manipulate the raw data in any way they see fit.

271

272 Table 3. Attributes included in the event-level FIRED product.

Attribute	Units
Ignition	date, day of year, month, year, location
Duration	days
Burned Area	km ² , ha, acres, pixels
Fire Spread Rate	pixels/day, km ² /day, ha/day, acres/day
Maximum, minimum, and mean growth rate	km ² /day, ha/day, acres/day, pixels/day, date (max only)

Land Cover (for the year before the fire)	mode land cover classification / event
Ecoregion	mode ecoregion, Levels 1-3

273

274 Table 4. Attributes included in the daily-level FIRED product

Attribute	Units
Daily Burned Area	km ² , ha, acres, pixels
Daily Landcover	mode land cover classification / day
Daily Ecoregion	mode ecoregion, Levels 1-3
Cumulative Burned Area	km ² , ha, acres, pixels
Ignition Date (of the whole event)	date
Last Burn Date (of the whole event)	date
Duration (of the whole event)	days
Event Day	days from ignition date
Percent Total Area	percent (%)
Percent Cumulative Area	percent (%)
Fire Spread Rate (of the whole event)	pixels/day, km ² /day, ha/day, acres/day

275

276

277 *f. Comparison of FIRED events to MTBS events and the National Interagency Fire Center estimates*

278

279 In order to understand how well the FIRED algorithm delineated event size, we compared the
 280 estimates of burned area from FIRED events to the estimates of burned area for MTBS events for
 281 the subset of events that were captured by both products. Because MTBS does not account for
 282 unburned patches within a fire perimeter when they calculate burned area, many burned area
 283 estimates reported by MTBS are likely overestimations. Thus, comparing the area burned by the
 284 two products represents a trade-off between imperfect satellite detection from MODIS and
 285 imperfect burned area reporting in the perimeters that drive selection by the MTBS product.
 286 With those caveats in mind, we co-located those events captured by both products (i.e. they
 287 overlapped in space and time), and compared estimated area burned at the event level using

288 two approaches. First, to compare all fire events, we created a linear regression model where the
 289 FIRED-determined area burned predicted MTBS-determined area burned. Second, to
 290 understand how that relationship varied with size class, we binned the fire events into 50 equal
 291 size classes, and created a linear model on each subset. The expectation was that FIRED-based
 292 burned areas would be consistently less than the MTBS-based burned areas. In addition, due to
 293 lower burn detection by MODIS for smaller fires [32], we expected the models at smaller size
 294 classes to explain less of the variation than for large sizes. We also acquired the total yearly
 295 burned area and fire counts from the National Interagency Fire Center (NIFC) for CONUS to
 296 understand how FIRED and MTBS products compared to the aggregation of all reported
 297 wildfires (note, NIFC does not include intentional land use fires or prescribed burns).

298

299 *g. Data and code availability*

300 Code for the python command line interface used to download data, classify events, calculate
 301 event- or daily-level statistics, and write tables and shapefiles is available as the “firedpy”
 302 python package at [www.github.com/earthlab/firedpy](https://github.com/earthlab/firedpy). R code for the analysis presented here is
 303 available at <https://github.com/earthlab/modis-fire-events-delineation>. R code for the
 304 sensitivity analysis is available at [www.github.com/admahood/fired_optimization](https://github.com/admahood/fired_optimization). Data is
 305 available at CU Scholar [DOI: <https://doi.org/10.25810/3hwy-4g07>].

306

307 **3. Results**

308

309 *a. Classification accuracy assessment*

310 The MODIS-derived events had a 55% omission and 62% commission error, compared to the
 311 MTBS reference dataset, based on a confusion matrix that compares when FIRED and MTBS
 312 identify the same events (Table 5). An additional 24,163 events were detected below the MTBS
 313 size thresholds and were not included in these calculations.

314

$$315 \quad CE = \frac{FIRED_{true} MTBS_{false}}{(FIRED_{true} MTBS_{false} + FIRED_{true} MTBS_{true})} = \frac{11,412}{(11,412 + 7,054)} = 0.62$$

$$316 \quad OE = \frac{FIRED_{false} MTBS_{True}}{(FIRED_{false} MTBS_{true} + FIRED_{true} MTBS_{true})} = \frac{8,721}{(8,721 + 7,054)} = 0.55$$

317

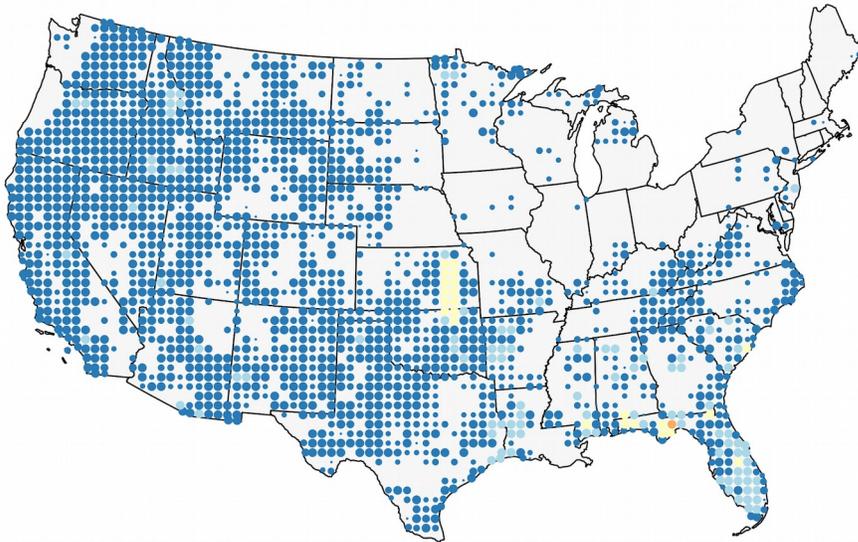
318 Table 5. Confusion matrix for the MODIS MCD64-derived events. The MTBS event-size
319 threshold is 404 ha in the western US, 202 ha in the eastern US.

	MTBS True	MTBS False (Commission)	MTBS False (Commission)
FIRED True	7,054	11,412 (over threshold only)	24,163 (under threshold only)
FIRED False (Omission)	8,721	-	-

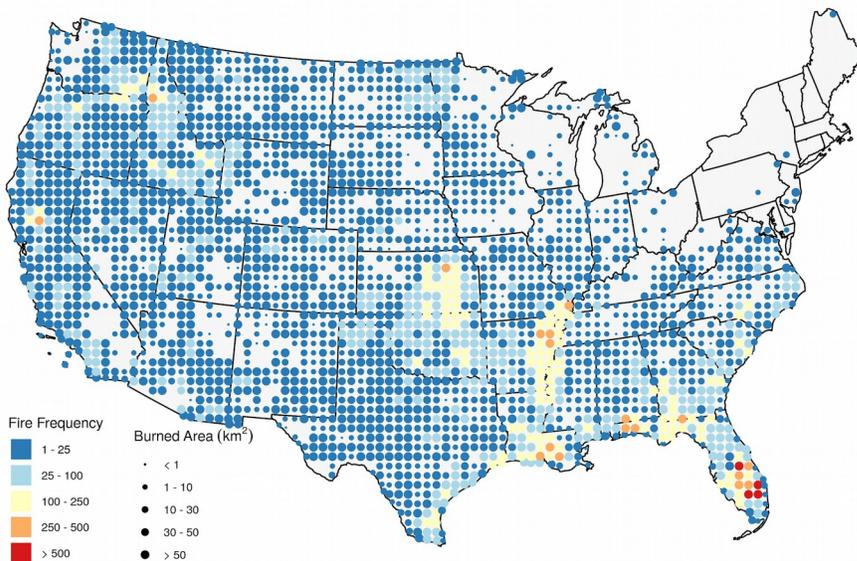
320

321

A. MTBS



B. FIRED



322

323 Figure 1. A comparison of the spatial distribution of fire events from the FIRED and MODIS
 324 products from 2001-2016 shows a similar distribution of fire events and burned area in general,
 325 but the FIRED algorithm picks up many more events and burned area in the midwest,
 326 southeastern US and eastern Washington.

327

328 *b. Comparison to MTBS:*

329 There were approximately 3.3 times more wildfire events and 65,000 km² (18%) more burned
 330 area captured in the FIRED product compared to MTBS. The FIRED burned area represents 97%

331 of the National Interagency Fire Center (NIFC) reported totals from 2001-2016 (Table 6). The
 332 relationship between area burned for the FIRED events and the MTBS events was strong ($R^2 =$
 333 0.92, Figure 2A), and the area reported by MTBS was always higher than the FIRED events (the
 334 points are all above the 1:1 line in Figure 2A) at the event level. As event size increased, the R^2
 335 improved from below 0.6 for fires below 50,000 acres, to above 0.8 for fires over 70,000 acres
 336 (Figure 2b). The MODIS MCD64A1 burned area product consistently underestimated burned
 337 area reported by MTBS for fires below 100,000 hectares. This consistent underestimation is not
 338 necessarily a flaw with the FIRED product, rather it is partially due to the fact that MTBS does
 339 not account for unburned patches within a fire perimeter when they calculate burned area, and
 340 burned area is consistently overestimated by MTBS. The burned area captured by MODIS
 341 MCD64A1, and thus FIRED, was much closer to the NIFC totals (Table 6). This is likely because
 342 the MCD64A1 product captures many more small fires than MTBS. However, the MCD64A1
 343 product does not generally capture the smallest fires, below 12.6 ha [32]. There is a dramatically
 344 larger count of individual events reported by NIFC, which includes many fires as small as 0.4
 345 ha.

346

347 Table 6: Fire events and burned area by level one ecoregion, 2001-2016. National Interagency

348 Fire Center statistics compiled from https://www.nifc.gov/fireInfo/fireInfo_stats_totalFires.html

Level 1 Ecoregions	MTBS		FIRED		NIFC	
	Events	Burned Area (km ²)	Events	Burned Area (km ²)	Events	Burned Area (km ²)
Eastern Temperate Forests	5,644	47,116	20,556	103,615	-	-
Great Plains	3,350	94,068	11,818	112,907	-	-
Marine West Coast Forest	22	379	249	978	-	-
Mediterranean California	368	17,971	1,432	21,251	-	-
North American Deserts	1,739	80,430	5,689	72,012	-	-
Northern Forests	134	2,130	141	2,086	-	-
Northwestern Forested	1,614	81,189	3,815	68,006	-	-
Mountains						
Southern Semi-Arid	159	5,494	260	4,459	-	-

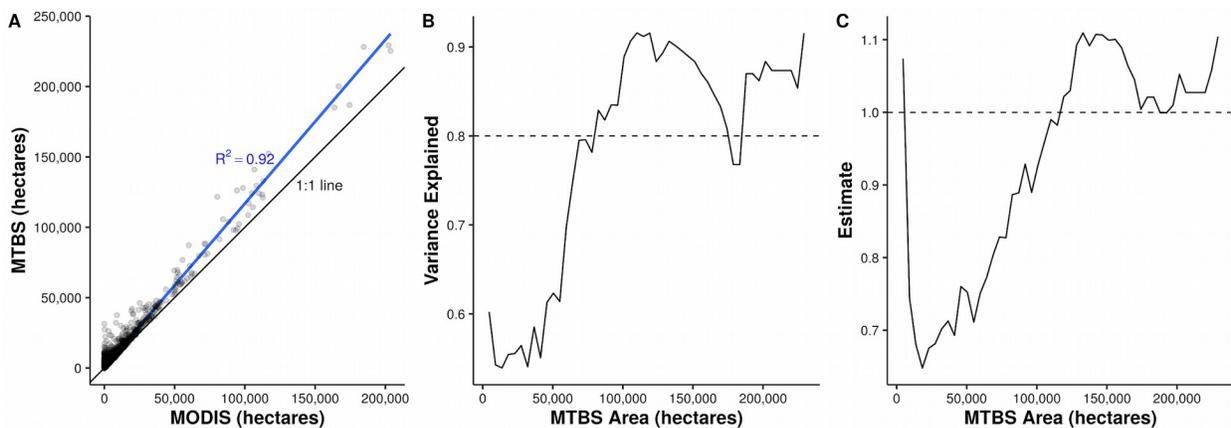
Highlands						
Temperate Sierras	431	19,374	447	13,674	-	-
Tropical Wet Forests	266	4,818	1,394	19,424	-	-
Conterminous US	13,727	352,967	45,801	418,414	1,153,896	432,733

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353

354 Figure 2: A comparison of burned area for individual fire events delineated by both products.

355 Panel A shows the relationship between area burned for MTBS and FIRED events. While the

356 relationship is generally strong ($R^2 = 0.92$ for all events), it is weaker for smaller fires. For

357 panels B and C we binned the data into 50 equal size classes (each bin spans ~ 5000 hectares),

358 and ran a linear regression (MTBS burned area predicted by MODIS burned area) on each bin.

359 Panel B shows the R^2 values, which do not consistently stay above 0.8 until about 70,000

360 hectares. Panel C shows the relationship between the slope of the regression line for each size

361 class bin, illustrating that the MODIS MCD64A1 burned area product consistently

362 underestimates burned area for fires below 100,000 hectares.

363

364 *d. Ecoregion comparisons between FIRED and MTBS*

365 One of the primary differences between the two products is the detection of small fires, which is

366 a function of the ~200-ha and ~400-ha cut-off for the eastern and western US in the MTBS
 367 product [38]. In the east and central US, where fires are generally smaller, FIRED captured
 368 37,724 fires while MTBS captured 11,008 fires (Figure 1, Table 5). There were several ecoregions
 369 where FIRED captured more events, but less burned area (e.g., in North American Deserts;
 370 Table 5). This is either due to the lack of smaller events in the MTBS dataset, or that MTBS does
 371 not delineate unburned patches within its fire perimeters, and so can overestimates burned area
 372 for many fires (e.g., see Figure 3).

373

374 Ecoregions with the highest maximum fire spread rates were those with large areas of
 375 grasslands - the Great Plains and desert ecoregions (Table 7). However, the three ecoregions
 376 with the highest mean fire spread rates were all forested ecosystems - the temperate Sierras,
 377 southern semi-arid highlands, and northern forests, and these ecoregions also had the highest
 378 variability in fire spread rates.

379

380 Table 7. Summary statistics of fire spread rate by ecoregion.

Level 1 Ecoregions	Fire Events	Fire Spread Rate (ha/day)					
	n	Max	Lower 95%tile	Mean	Upper 95%tile	SD	SE
Eastern Temperate Forests	20,556	2,756	9	43	119	60	0.4
Great Plains	11,818	13,584	12	95	279	293	2.7
Marine West Coast Forest	249	301	7	42	143	45	2.8
Mediterranean California	1,432	5,883	11	126	497	329	8.7
North American Deserts	5,689	14,620	11	137	481	487	6.5
Northern Forests	141	2,442	10	144	614	312	26.3
Northwestern Forested Mountains	3,815	3,878	10	105	415	233	3.8
Southern Semi-Arid Highlands	260	1,755	17	162	550	244	15.2
Temperate Sierras	447	6,365	16	194	627	541	25.6
Tropical Wet Forests	1,394	1,220	8	45	117	85	2.3

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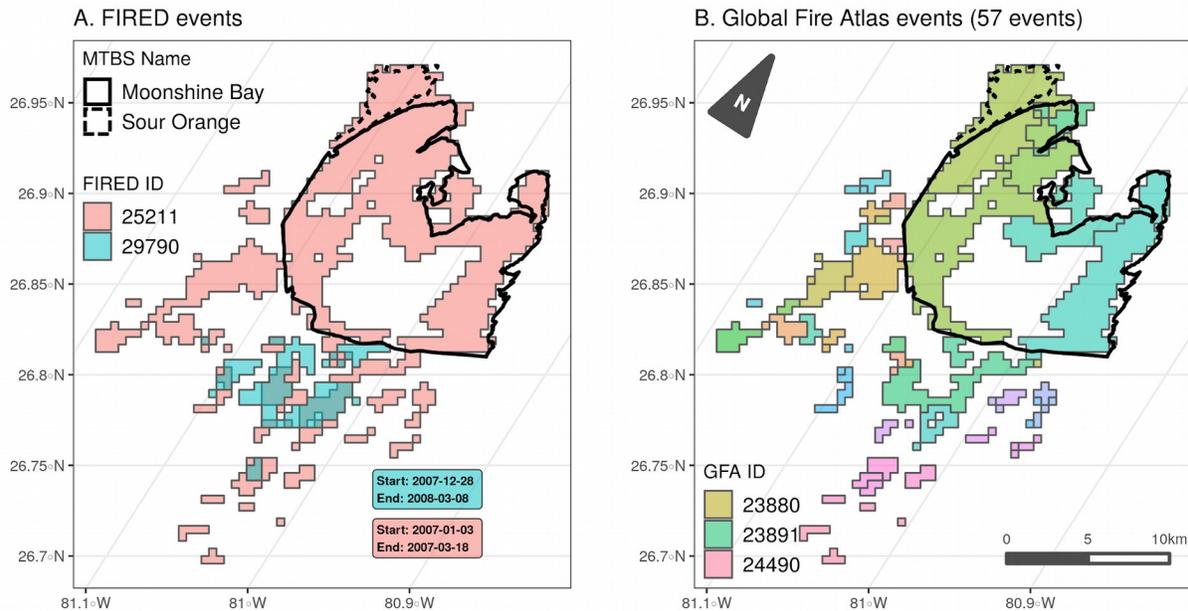
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387 Figure 3. Comparison of A) FIRED and B) Global Fire Atlas delineated events for the Sour
 388 Orange fire (started February 9, 2007), the Moonshine Bay fire (started February 24, 2007), and
 389 a third unnamed event, FIRED event #29790 (started December 28, 2007, and continued into
 390 March of 2008). The FIRED product joins the two intra-year burns (#25211) and delineates a
 391 third event (#29790) that reburns some of the same pixels. The dark outlines, bold and dashed,
 392 show the MTBS fire perimeters for the Sour Orange and Moonshine Bay fires. Note that MTBS
 393 does not include unburned patches within perimeters. Panel B) shows the Global Fire Atlas
 394 (with an abridged legend showing 3 of 57 colors), which segments the same MODIS burned
 395 area pixels into 57 events and no delineation of overlapping reburns.

396

397 4. Discussion

398

399 Remote sensing has fundamentally changed our ability to quantify fire, and has consequently
 400 challenged how we define fire events. The active fire, burned area, and fire radiative power and

401 severity products [12,14,15,17,18,27,38] have fundamentally changed how we can conceptualize
402 fire regimes. Key to translating this wealth of information is defining fire events in space and
403 time so that we can understand how modern fire regimes are changing. Parallel efforts such as
404 the Global Fire Atlas (based on the MODIS MCD64 product [27]) have converged on
405 identifying the same need, with a key motivation to improve global fire modeling [30]. We
406 argue that the need is more profound, that in order to understand how fire regimes are
407 changing at regional to global scales we need an open, and flexible methodology to identify
408 events and integrate fire data across sources based on these events. This event-based approach
409 could be utilized to derive events in any satellite product to build a more complete picture of
410 fire.

411

412 There are several beneficial aspects of our approach that yield more appropriate delineation of
413 multi-year events, small fires, complexes, and intra-annual reburns, while also providing key
414 output metrics, e.g., fire spread and pre-fire landcover. The primary difference between FIRED
415 and other algorithms is that FIRED uses the entire monthly time series as a space-time cube
416 input, upon which a 3-dimensional moving window is applied, compared to aggregating fire
417 seasons or years into one layer upon which a 2-dimensional moving window is applied. This
418 enables proper identification of intra-year reburns (Table 1) and ensures that fires at the end or
419 beginning of months or years are not arbitrarily split into multiple events (Figure 3). Second,
420 because the FIRED database is based on the MODIS MCD64 product, it includes fire events
421 theoretically as small as 4m², albeit these are rare detections (~90% omission error) [32]. Small
422 fire events greater than 12.6 hectares are more likely the events that are captured in the MODIS
423 MCD64 product (10% omission error) at the size of a MODIS pixel (~500 m) [32], and therefore
424 in FIRED. The MTBS database, in contrast, has a minimum threshold of 202 ha east and 404 ha
425 west of the 97th meridian. Having small fires expands our ability to understand how fire size
426 and burned area are changing, beyond just the large events [43]. Smaller events are difficult to
427 capture systematically but we know these events can be incredibly important in the US,
428 contributing large additional burned areas and emissions [20,44]. Third, the daily-level product
429 preserves the daily-scale information (i.e., daily polygons and ensuing metrics) for the larger

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430 events. This elucidates whether large fire events are actually complexes of smaller
431 independently ignited fire patches, or if the large event is truly the product of a single ignition
432 location (e.g., the Rim Fire in figure 4). This also allows users to link daily-level burned area
433 data within a defined event to daily or even sub-daily covariates (e.g., climate variables).
434 Fourth, this product provides several attributes that are new pieces of information, refined
435 across CONUS. For example, fire spread rate is a unique attribute, derived from events, which is
436 a critical piece of information not easily accessed in other datasets (e.g., MTBS or ICS-209s).
437 FIRED also provides the landcover for the year before the fire for each event, a coarse metric of
438 fuels information, and critical for understanding ecosystem impacts and resilience. This annual
439 landcover information could enable exploration of when fire precipitates rapid vegetation
440 transitions, particularly as woody plant-dominated systems may lose their resilience to fire
441 against a backdrop of warmer and drier climates [45,46]. Last, FIRED is also the only
442 automated, satellite-derived product we are aware of that captures intra-annual reburns. Intra-
443 annual reburns will perhaps become more prevalent in the future as the decline of resilience in
444 some ecosystems leads to an acceleration of disturbance regimes [47,48], particularly if novel
445 ecosystems result from invasive, flammable plants [7,49].

446

447 Another key advantage of this approach is that the algorithm is open and flexible; we hope for
448 community input and we expect it to be improved over time. The spatio-temporal criteria can
449 be altered based on other information, regionally-specific fire perimeters such as Canada's
450 National Burned Area Composite (<https://cwfis.cfs.nrcan.gc.ca/datamart>), or known
451 delineations of intentional land use fires or prescribed burns. Further, we anticipate that this
452 algorithm has wide applicability to other fire products and other efforts to build events based
453 on any geospatial data that has both spatial and temporal information. Previous studies,
454 including this team's previous efforts [7], have not made their workflow and code publicly
455 available, limiting the potential to facilitate community development of an integrated, evolving
456 global fire database.

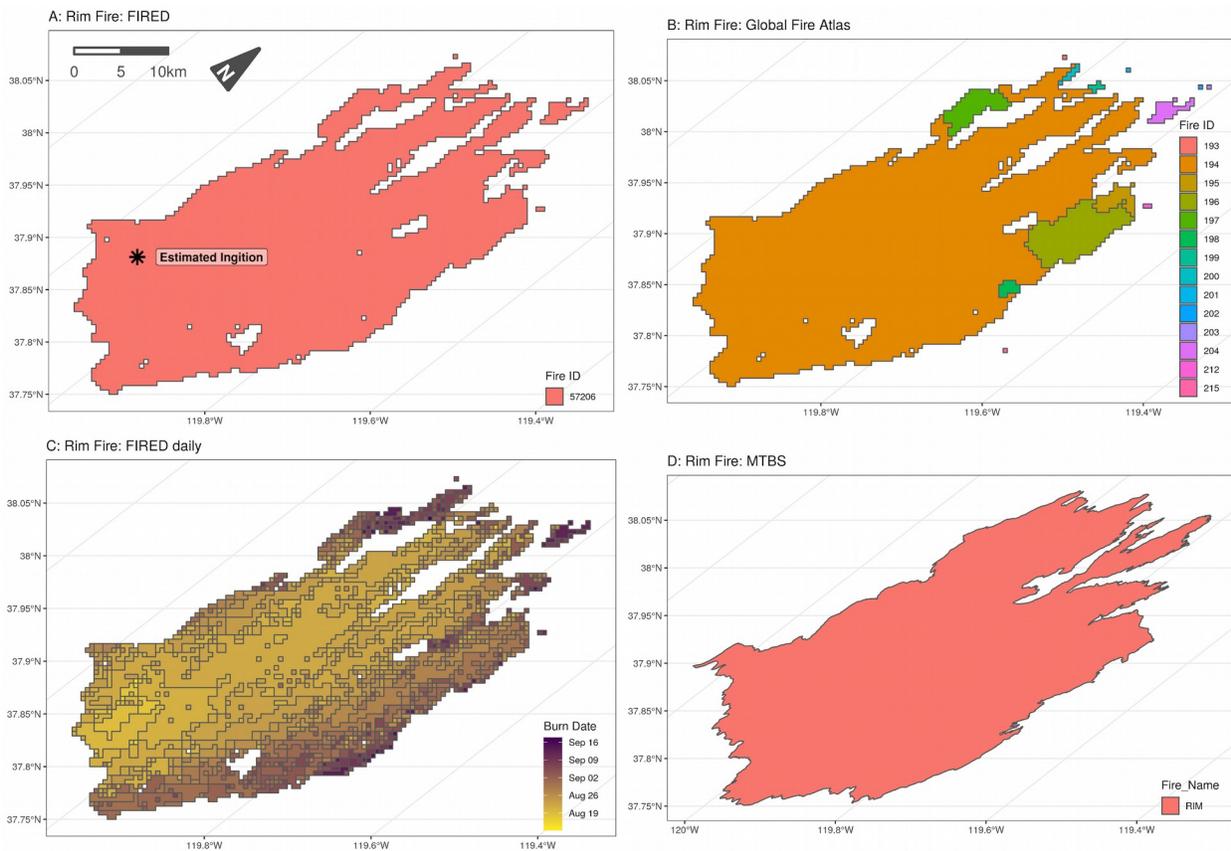
457

458 With the plethora of remote sensing data about fire and fire effects, there is a great need to

459 delineate events at large regional and global scales. There are at least three other recent studies
460 that have created fire events from the MODIS burned area product (Table 1), two of which
461 [34,36] have created global fire event databases. In addition to the global efforts, Frantz *et al.*
462 [35] created an algorithm based on a study area in sub-Saharan Africa which uses a top-down
463 multilevel segmentation strategy that starts by defining potential ignition points and gradually
464 refines the individual object membership. All three efforts use an approach that starts by
465 identifying potential ignition points and grows objects from the ignition point using only
466 adjacent pixels. The code for the algorithm created by Andela *et al.* [34] is not publicly available
467 and the code created by Frantz *et al.* [35] is available upon request. Laurent *et al.* [36] created a
468 publicly available database and the code is also available upon request. Their output data
469 contains what they term fire patch functional traits, including patch area and other
470 morphological features, but does not preserve daily fire spread information or polygons
471 containing the perimeter shapes of the derived events. Our approach differs in that we use a
472 spatiotemporal window that can capture isolated burned pixels that may be part of the same
473 event, but may be isolated because of the inability of the MODIS sensor to detect burned area in
474 the area between patches due to cloudiness, low vegetation density, low severity, or unburned
475 patches (i.e., fire refugia) that are important elements of an event. It is worth noting that the
476 spatial-temporal thresholds we derived (i.e., 11-day window and a 5-pixel distance) are much
477 greater than those used in most previous studies (e.g. [12,34] but see Frantz *et al.* [35]), leading
478 to less artificial truncation, or oversplitting, of events. For example, the Rim fire which occurred
479 in California in 2013 was delineated into more than 10 separate events by the Global Fire Atlas
480 algorithm, whereas our algorithm delineated a single event that more closely matches the MTBS
481 delineation (Figure 4). Future improvements could include: i) validation with smaller events,
482 such as those contained in the US-based National Incident Feature Service dataset, formerly
483 Geomac [50] or others; ii) estimates of uncertainty around start and end dates of the fire events;
484 iii) regionally-varying thresholds based on fire regime characteristics; and iv) development of
485 an optimization process that does not rely on already existing fire perimeter polygons. In the
486 current study, we were able to use the MTBS database to define the optimum spatial and
487 temporal parameters for delineating events in CONUS. Unfortunately, these types of data do

488 not exist for many parts of the world. We attempted to scale the FIRED product to the entire
 489 globe and found that our spatial and temporal parameters were inappropriate, particularly for
 490 the savanna biome where very high proximity of fires in space and time led to severe
 491 aggregation of events. This highlights a substantial need for global fire perimeter data [51], or
 492 development of an optimization approach that does not rely on these external data.

493



494

495 Figure 4: The 2013 Rim Fire, which lasted over a month and was more than 100,000 ha in total
 496 size according to incident reports, as delineated by the A) FIRED event product; B) global fire
 497 atlas C) FIRED daily event product; and D) MTBS. The optimized spatial-temporal criteria we
 498 used allowed us to correctly classify it as a single event, while the global fire atlas has
 499 segmented the Rim Fire into 14 separate events. The FIRED ignition point is estimated as the
 500 average location of all pixels occurring on the first day of the event.

501

502 This is a unique moment in the history of fire science, given the abundance of fire data across

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503 spatial scales, that requires the fire science community to better coordinate efforts on fire data
504 harmonization challenges and opportunities. We see great potential to build a community-
505 driven, fire data infrastructure that we term OneFire. OneFire is a coordinated architecture that
506 would enable a community of researchers and stakeholders to use, repurpose, and contribute to
507 fire data, code, and workflows. The vision for OneFire is that it will be a coordinated,
508 community-inspired data architecture that connects and integrates the many global, national,
509 and regional fire databases. This is no small task, but integrating these datasets is key to
510 unlocking a transformation in fire science and rapidly accelerating new discoveries about why
511 fire regimes are changing and how societies and ecosystems are vulnerable. There is an
512 enormous amount of data and work relevant for fire science that could be leveraged, if only it
513 was open, reproducible, and scalable. For example, we anticipate that a newly published ICS-
514 209-PLUS dataset that is an integrated database of over 120,000 incident command reports
515 could be connected to MODIS FIRED events to join physical attributes with social impact and
516 response on a daily scale [52]. Social media information around wildfires could also be
517 leveraged, and provide a view of social response that before would not have been possible
518 [53,54]. Additional satellite sensors and their derived products, e.g., active fire, could be
519 leveraged to expand the detections per event and add other key properties like fire radiative
520 power. Key elements of a vision for OneFire include: i) identified fire events across many
521 datasets utilizing the FIRED event-builder algorithm or other approach the delineates events in
522 space and time; ii) integration workflows that then connect those same events across data
523 sources to build a fuller suite of attributes around commonly identified events; iii) data and
524 computational infrastructure that allows for community contributions of data, code, and
525 compute environments; iv) formal linkages to other important climate, environment, and social
526 data sources that provide insights into driving forces or responses; and v) support for
527 community building, engagement, and training that facilitates large, diverse team science.
528 Ultimately, no single sensor is going to provide all the information we need about fires, and we
529 will never anticipate all the ways that such an integrated source of fire information would get
530 used. OneFire would help us build a fuller, global picture of fire.

531

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532 **5. Conclusions**

533

534 There is a clear need to derive events from remotely sensed detections of fires, as event
535 perimeters are a key tool for exploring how the spatio-temporal properties of fire regimes are
536 changing [55–57] and how resilience to fire is changing [49,58,59]. Further, there are dozens of
537 fire products available, for the US and globally (Table 1), that could, if combined and
538 harmonized, shed new insights on the drivers and consequences of changing fire. Delineating
539 fire events is key to this process, and we argue that this US database and algorithm offer the
540 opportunity to begin to build OneFire, a community data-integration effort for fire science. No
541 one research group can predict the variables that will be needed for all studies, and there is no
542 one satellite that captures all the needed information about fire. We envision that our algorithm
543 will be optimized at different scales to best capture regional fire size distributions. We also
544 envision that this algorithm can be used across any satellite-based fire product, from active fire
545 detections to burned area products, and particularly new efforts, such as the BAECV product or
546 VIIRS. Moreover, this algorithm can be used with any spatiotemporal data and is not
547 constrained to fire data. As other efforts are built to understand natural hazards, these efforts
548 may help to better delineate the spatial and temporal dimensions of floods, hurricanes, disease
549 outbreaks, and other events. The fire science community can better harmonize fire observations
550 for a larger network of researchers and practitioners who need this information to better help
551 society more sustainably live with fire.

552

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556 writing—original draft preparation, JB, LS and AM; writing—review and editing, JB, LS, AM, NM and
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