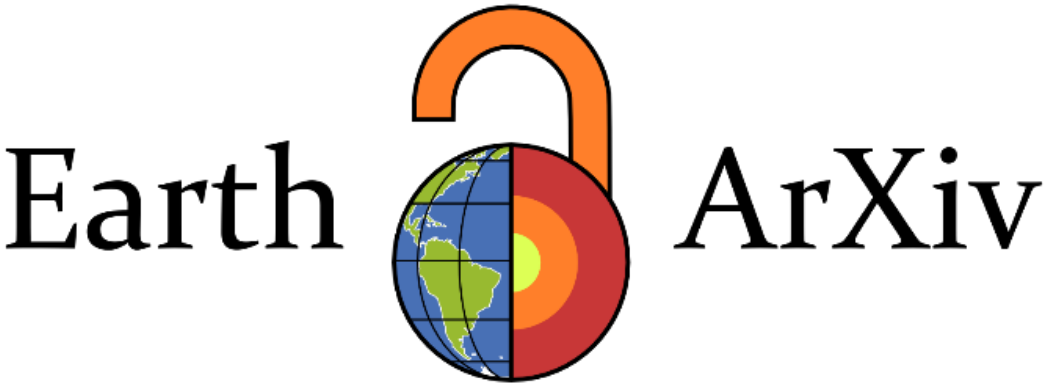

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Highlights

Revisiting Pyroclimographs[⋆]

Benjamin J. Hatchett, T. Todd Lindley

- Pyroclimographs use daily satellite fire detections to indicate the seasonality of wildland fire activity.
- Examples across fire-prone regions demonstrate potential use cases and applications of pyroclimographs.
- Incorporating additional fire environment data highlights how fire weather deviates from climatology.

Revisiting Pyroclimographs

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Abstract

Wildland fire activity often demonstrates distinct seasonality. Multiple peaks of activity may occur throughout the year with varying magnitudes and durations due to climatologically conducive conditions for wildfire activity or intentional burning. However, anomalous fire environment conditions may favor out-of-season wildfires. Characterization of conditions that increase fire ignition probabilities, extreme fire behavior, and beneficial fire potential enhances our understanding of fire history and past fire behavior while providing insight into how forecast conditions may influence subsequent wildland fires. Here, we apply a commonly-utilized approach to display a region's temperature and precipitation climatology–the climograph–to visually communicate the seasonal cycle, interannual variability, and individual wildland fire events at daily resolution using period-of-record satellite observations from the Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer. Counts of detections and cumulative fire radiative power provide first-order indicators of elevated or reduced fire activity, either typically (i.e., wildfire season or prescribed burning season) or anomalously (i.e., out-of-season wildfire). Using a case study of Southern California, we show how pyroclimograph results vary as the region of interest shifts and how their interpretation can be complemented with additional fire environment data.

Keywords: climatology, fire weather, remote sensing, visualization, wildland fire

⋆This is a working paper that has not undergone independent peer review.

1. Introduction

Climographs display the monthly mean temperature range and total precipitation of a location or region (e.g., Lasantha et al., 2022; Al-Yaari et al., 2023). Just as the climate of a region demonstrates a seasonal cycle, many regions also demonstrate a seasonal cycle of fire activity (Swetnam et al., 2011; Al-Yaari et al., 2023; Senande-Rivera et al., 2022). This seasonality results from both the annual march of plant phenology (i.e., a growing season when fuel accumulates and a dormant season when fuel becomes available for combustion) and short- and long-term weather conditions including the onset and termination of seasonal drought, ignition sources from lightning, and otherwise hot, dry, and windy conditions amidst receptive fuelbeds (Dennison and Moritz, 2009).

Linking climatic conditions to the annual cycle of fire activity was first proposed by (Swetnam et al., 2011), who termed the juxtaposition of monthly mean temperature and precipitation with monthly burned area a 'pyroclimograph'. Sablan et al. (2024) developed similar visualizations of monthly fire activity to show the mean, top and bottom 10^{th} percentiles as well as highlight a year of interest (c.f. their Figure 3b). Sweeney et al. (2025) generated weekly-timescale visualizations and separated prescribed burns (pile and broadcast) from wildfires to show the distinct seasonalities of wildland fire types. However, wildland fires do not always occur on monthly or weekly timescales, nor do they always occur during climatologically-mean conditions. This implies a monthly–weekly temporal aggregations are potentially less useful to indicate why normal or anomalous fire activity occurs. Further, temporal aggregation limits our interpretation of how anomalous the environmental conditions were compared to climatology when fire activity increases. Establishing a detailed understanding of the conditions that lead to increased receptiveness of fuels and the potential for extreme fire behavior at ignition- and fuel receptiveness-relevant timescales may support fire management and community adaptation efforts at longer timescales (i.e., annual to decadal) as well as characterizing a region's general fire environment. This is especially true when identifying conditions to safely and effectively conduct prescribed burning (Worsnop et al., in revision; Hatchett and Wells, 2026), a necessary activity to achieve wildfire resiliency.

The availability of long-term (i.e., decadal-scale) satellite-based fire detections at daily-sub-daily timescales and high spatial resolution ($< 1000\ m$), makes it possible to produce climatologies of fire activity at daily resolution.

Depending on whether the goal is to support operational fire management or community messaging, long-term planning and adaptation efforts to reduce fire hazard in fire-prone regions, or research activities regarding the fire environment, the region of interest may vary. A region could be jurisdictionally defined, such as a county or National Weather Service County Warning Area. It could also be a physically-defined region such as a watershed, mountain range, or pyrome. Ultimately, the spatial region selected depends on the desired application of the user.

This brief communication provides examples of the different perspectives offered by a pyroclimograph using four examples from three fire-prone landscapes. First, we introduce the concept with a region experiencing distinct fire regimes (Colusa County, California). Second, we show how pyroclimographs can document the progression of the Southern Great Plains fire season in real-time for an area of shared weather forecast responsibility. Third, we show how results vary across the Los Angeles County (California) region using four different geographic boundaries including all or part of the county and surrounding regions. Fourth, we demonstrate how a more complete pyroclimograph can be produced at the mountain range scale by incorporating additional fire environment data by including weather and fuels information from gridded data products, weather stations, and live fuel moisture observations.

2. Data

We used satellite fire detections from the Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) onboard the Terra (2002–2025) and Aqua (2001–2025) spacecraft. Data was acquired from the NASA Fire Information for Resource Management System (`https://firms.modaps.eosdis.nasa.gov/`) for the period spanning 1 January 2001 to 1 April 2026. Shapefiles of Colusa and Los Angeles County were acquired from the U.S. Census Bureau (`https://www2.census.gov/geo/tiger/TIGER2025/COUNTY/`). Shapefiles for the National Weather Service Los Angeles, Norman, and Amarillo Weather Forecast Office County Warning Areas were acquired from the National Weather Service (`https://www.weather.gov/gis/CWABounds`). The boundary of the Los Angeles County Climate Assessment Region, used to support planning and adaptation efforts, was downloaded from the California Open Data Portal (`https://data.ca.gov/dataset/ca-4th-climate-change-assessment-regions`). The Southern California Mountains/North-

ern Baja pyrome was extracted from (Short et al., 2020). Last, we used the Santa Monica Mountains (a subset of the Transverse Ranges and excluding the Palos Verdes Hills) from the Global Mountain Biodiversity Assessment Mountain Inventory version 2.0 (Snethlage et al., 2022a,b).

To more fully characterize the fire environment, we used period-of-record (January 1995–February 2026) hourly observations of 2 m air temperature, 2 m relative humidity and 6 m (20 ft) wind speed from the Malibu Hills, California Remote Automatic Weather Station (RAWS; acquired from the Western Regional Climate Center at: `https://raws.dri.edu`). Daily, gridded 4 km horizontal resolution estimates of maximum temperature, precipitation, and 100 hour dead fuel moisture spanning 1979–2025 were acquired from the gridMET product (Abatzoglou, 2013). Live fuel moisture observations data for chamise (*Adenostoma fasciculatum*) from six sites in the Santa Monica Mountains (Trippet Ranch, Laurel Canyon, Scheuren Road, Clark Motorway, Stunt Road, and Los Robles) with sampling records beginning between 2001–2006, was acquired from the Fuel Moisture Repository Webportal (`https://www.nfmdb.org/`).

3. Methods

All analysis was performed using Matlab (The MathWorks Inc., 2024). Shapefiles from each satellite platform were imported as arrays of fire detection latitude, longitude, fire radiative power (FRP), and time of detection. Desiring maximum detectibility, we did not omit detections based on confidence values. Dates were sorted in descending order of total FRP, and cumulative FRP was calculated to estimate how many days provide 50%, 75% and 90% of the total period-of-record FRP. For individual years, cumulative FRP starting on 1 January are shown (Figure 1a). For each calendar day across all years, the total number of detections are counted and reported by a bar chart (Figure 1b); specific years of interest can be plotted separately. Cumulative FRP across each calendar day is calculated to show general fire activity seasonality (right hand y-axis of Figure 1b).

For the Santa Monica Mountains example, gridMET-based estimates of daily precipitation were extracted for a box encompassing the region. The daily mean was calculated and aggregated to monthly totals for each year. The top and bottom 5^{th} percentiles and 50^{th} percentile was estimated for each month to demonstrate monthly precipitation variability. The daily mean maximum temperature from gridMET was calculated and the top 5^th and

50^{th} percentile was calculated to provide an estimate of the typical hottest and average maximum temperatures across the year. Similarly, the mean 100 hr dead fuel moisture was calculated and the top and bottom 5^{th} percentiles and 50^{th} percentile was estimated to provide information about the range of moisture conditions of dead fuels in the 100 hr time lag size class (woody material 2.5–7.5 cm in diameter).

A climatology of live fuel moisture was produced by aggregating the six sampling sites and calculating a +/-6 day moving median for each calendar day of the year following (Guirguis et al., 2025). Critically low live fuel moisture values as interpreted by Brown and Shelton (2025) and Dennison and Moritz (2009) provide reference indicators of elevated large fire probability. Fine and dead fuel moisture (FDFM) and probability of ignition (PIG) were calculated hourly at a steep, south aspect level with the fire based on lookup tables (National Wildfire Coordinating Group, 2025) using hourly temperature and relative humidity from RAWS. For each calendar day, the lowest 5^{th} percentile FDFM and highest 5^{th} PIG are reported to highlight fuelbed receptiveness to ignition. Last, fire weather hours were estimated using the period-of-record summed daily number of hours meeting the relative humidity ($< 10\%$) and sustained wind speed ($> 6.7\ m\ s^{-1}$ ($> 15\ miles\ hr^{-1}$)) criteria for a Red Flag Warning at the National Weather Service Fire Weather Zones 369 and 370 (California Annual Operating Plan, 2025). For a Red Flag Warning to be issued, these conditions must be sustained for $> 6hr$. This requirement was omitted to yield a more inclusive indicator of when dry and windy conditions climatologically occur.

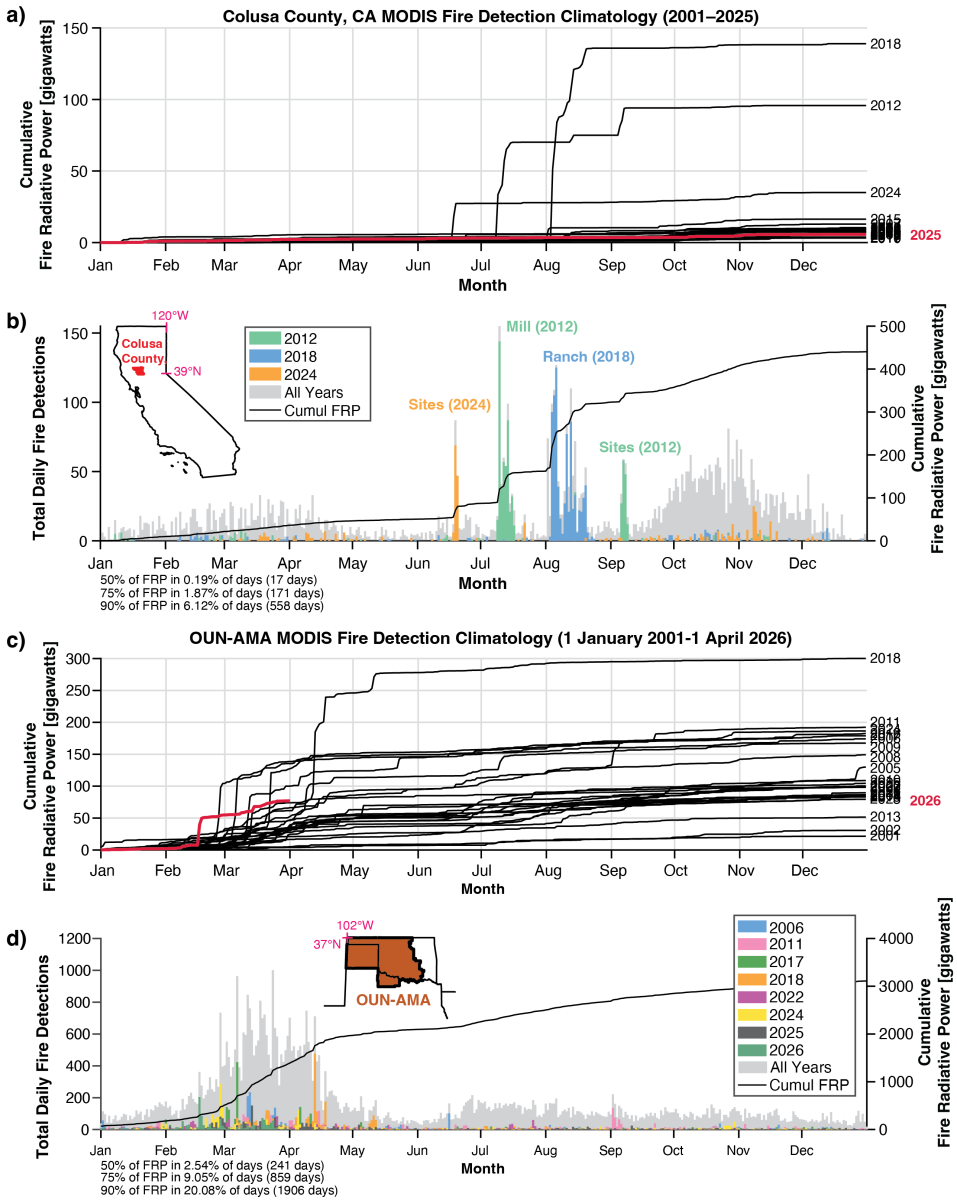

Figure 1: (a) Pyroclimograph showing daily cumulative fire radiative power for each calendar year (2001–2025; black lines; 2025 colored red) using MODIS satellite fire detections for Colusa County, California. (b) Alternative (recommended for singular use) pyroclimograph showing daily (bars; left y-axis) and cumulative (black line; right y-axis) MODIS satellite fire detections for Colusa County, California with notable fires named and colored by year. (c–d) As in (a–b) but for the Norman, Oklahoma (OUN) and Amarillo, Texas (AMA) National Weather Service County Warning Areas.

4. Results

4.1. Pyroclimographs vary with fire detection input data

Colusa County, CA–an agricultural community–demonstrates three distinct burn seasons as evidenced by shallow increases in annual accumulations of fire radiative power (FRP) during late winter to early spring (mid-January–April), a more rapid increase during the extended summer but dominated by occasional large wildfire incidents (late June–September), and a shift back to shallow but annually consistent increases during fall (October–November; (Figure 1a)). Daily detections (Figure 1b) more clearly indicate the seasonal nature of intentional burning of agricultural lands composed of orchards, vineyards and rice fields) and prescribed burning of wildlands during spring and fall as well as the short duration occasional (e.g., 2012, 2018, and 2024) but higher intensity and larger area (interpreted from the number of detections) of wildfires during the peak warm season.

Wildfire and intentional fire occur in the Southern Great Plains throughout the year, though a peak in fire activity occurs in February following the dry winter season and terminates with the onset of the spring convective season in April (Figure 1c-d). Pyroclimographs can be used to track near-real-time progression of a fire season. Following persistent drought and heavy fine fuel loading, the 2026 wildfire season started anomalously early (red line; Figure 1c) with the individual 2026 wildfire outbreak(s) placed into satellite-era climatological context in terms of timing and magnitude (Figure 1d). While the annual cumulative curves allow the comparison of years and events against one another (i.e., to identify early onset of fire activity), for the remainder of the manuscript we focus on the daily bar charts and single annual accumulated FRP (e.g., Figure 1b and 1d).

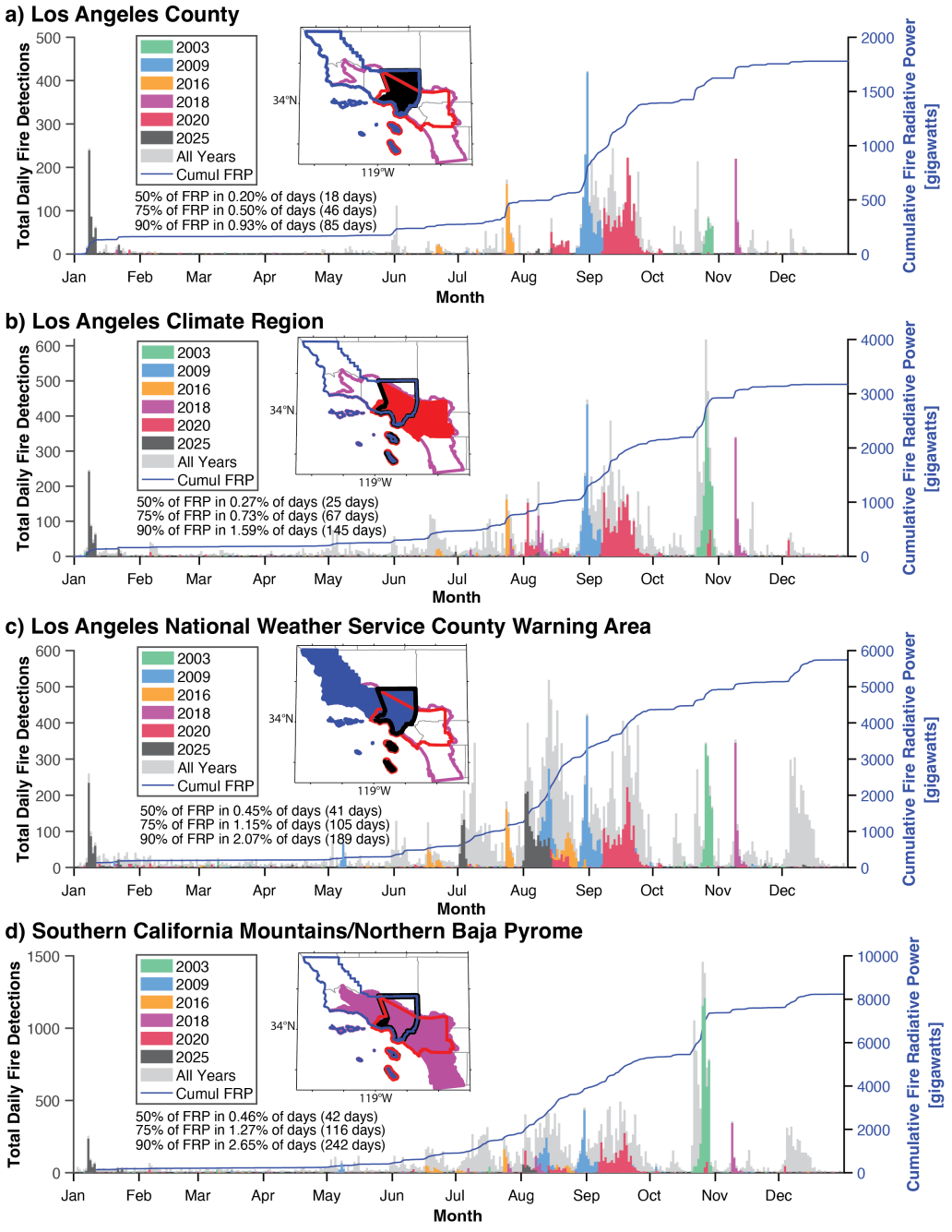

Figure 2: Pyroclimographs for (a) Los Angeles County, California, (b) the Los Angeles California Climate Assessment Region, (c) the Los Angeles National Weather Service County Warning Area, and (d) the Southern California Mountains/Northern Baja Pyrome. Each region is color filled in the associated inset map with other regions outlined.

4.2. Variability across the Los Angeles region

The Los Angeles region of Southern California is a densely populated fire-prone but ignition-limited landscape with extraordinary exposure of values-at-risk to wildland fire. The typical Los Angeles County fire season occurs between June to mid-November but peaks between August–September, with the anomalous nature of the January 2025 Los Angeles Fire Disaster apparent. (Figure 2a). The Los Angeles Climate Region (Figure 2b) follows the crest of the Transverse and Peninsular Ranges and includes Orange and parts of Riverside and San Bernardino counties. Including additional fire-prone regions and populated areas (i.e., ignition sources) extends the periods of peak fire activity earlier into May and includes several additional large fire events in October (2003) and November (2018).

The Los Angeles National Weather Service County Warning Area shifts the area of focus northwestward into San Luis Obispo and Santa Barbara counties while omitting Orange, Riverside, and San Bernardino counties (Figure 2b). This area includes more agricultural and rural areas performing prescribed burning as indicated by the consistency of detections during January–May. It also encompasses more warm season fire activity resulting from drier interior regions and elevated terrain susceptible during the Mediterranean dry season to human and lightning ignitions. Delayed onset of winter precipitation favors December–January fires such as the 2017 Thomas Fire (uncolored in Figure 2c) and the 2025 Los Angeles Fire Disaster. The Southern California Mountains/Northern Baja Pyrome spans interior Santa Barbara County to San Diego County (Figure 2d) and yields an extensive wildfire season from May–early January that also includes cool season prescribed burning. By including the October 2003 (green) and 2007 (uncolored) San Diego County fires, other fire activity (detections and FRP) appears muted in comparison.

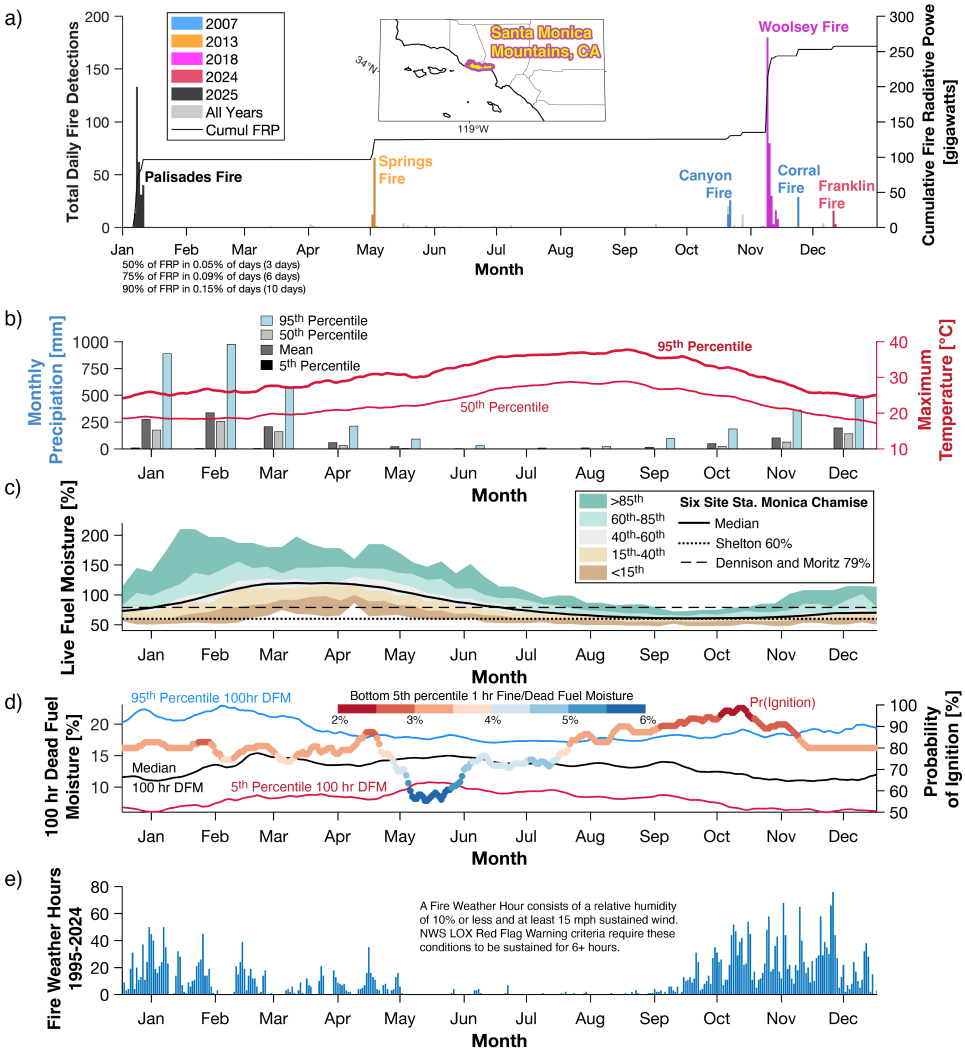

Figure 3: (a) Pyroclimograph showing daily (bars; left y-axis) and cumulative (black line; right y-axis) MODIS-based satellite fire detections for the Santa Monica Mountains of California (inset map) with notable fires named and colored. (b) Monthly mean precipitation distributions (colored bars; left y-axis) and 50^{th} and 95^{th} percentile maximum daily temperature (red lines; right y-axis), both calculated spanning 1979–2025 using gridMET (Abatzoglou, 2013). (c) Measured live fuel moisture for chamise (*Adenostoma fasciculatum*) across six sites. (d) Monthly mean 100-hour dead fuel moisture distributions (colored lines; left y-axis) calculated spanning 1979–2025 using gridMET. Top daily 5^{th} percentile probability of ignition (circles) colored by the lowest 5^{th} percentile one-hour fine and dead fuel moisture (right y-axis); both calculated from lookup tables (National Wildfire Coordinating Group, 2025) at the Malibu Hills Remote Automatic Weather Station (RAWS) for the period spanning January 1995–February 2026. (e) Total daily fire weather hours calculated from the Malibu Hills RAWS using the criteria for the National Weather Service Fire Weather Zones 369 and 370.

4.3. Towards a more complete pyroclimograph

Our motivation to extend the monthly-scale pyroclimograph proposed by Swetnam et al. (2011) centers on the providing a more complete picture of fire activity and the fire environment at daily timescales. The Santa Monica Mountains of Ventura and Los Angeles counties represent an ideal location to demonstrate how fire weather deviates from climatological conditions. Here, occasional, but potentially-high-impact wildfires can occur throughout the year, with 10 days contributing 90% of total FRP (Figure 3a).

Monthly precipitation and temperature ranges (Figure 3b) suggest why occasional fires occur despite an otherwise quiescent climate. There is a pronounced seasonal cycle of wet winters, dry summers, and variable precipitation during spring and fall. Yet every month can be nearly completely dry, increasing fuel receptivity, and winter months can be very wet, contributing to fine fuel growth. While cool temperatures during winter–spring is followed by consistently dry summers and peak warmth in late summer–early fall, the 95^{th} percentile of cool season daily maximum temperatures can still achieve median summer temperatures. Although live fuel moistures also demonstrate a seasonal cycle driven by plant phenology and resource availability, extended drought can maintain critically low moistures (Figure 3c).

The 100dfm (Figure 3d) represents the upper bound of standing dead vegetation size classes in chaparral-dominated ecosystems. The most pronounced seasonal variation of 100dfm occurs between October–February, with the smaller range between May–August. Values from October to January approach 5% during drought and exceed 20% during prolonged wet/cool conditions. The median ranges between 11–14% throughout the year. The most receptive FDFM highlights additional weather-driven impacts. While it indicates much of the year can have PIG exceed 70% on 'worst case slopes', it also reflects the signal of marine stratus in May–June. FDFM shows two relative maxima ($gt90\%$) of fuelbed receptivity, a subtle peak prior to spring marine layer onset and the fall hot and dry season in Southern California.

Until now, the pyroclimograph has focused on the ignition component of the fire environment. Inclusion of wind, and particularly wind associated with low relative humidity, incorporates the spread component. Using the Using the relative humidity and wind criteria for Red Flag Warnings but omitting the wind duration constraint, dry and windy conditions relatively rarely occur from May–September before increasing and reaching peak frequency during October–November (Figure 3e). They decline through the winter before a secondary peak between March–April. Just as the FDFM highlighted

the marine stratus season, fire weather hours highlight two regional critical fire weather patterns affecting the Santa Monicas: the fall–winter Santa Ana season followed by the spring Sundowner Winds (Hatchett et al., 2018).

5. Discussion

Daily-scale pyroclimographs, using satellite data, allows a more granular temporal and spatially-explicit perspective than historic fire perimeters that offer only singular dates of discovery and containment (Swetnam et al., 2011) or monthly aggregations of satellite data (Giglio et al., 2009; Sablan et al., 2024). It also allows for agricultural or prescribed burns to be included, assuming burning occurred during satellite overflight, without acquiring burn permit data (Sweeney et al., 2025; Worsnop et al., in revision). The utility of pyroclimographs rests in their use as both a training tool to understand recent fire history and as a tool to document and contextualize the evolution of a fire season or identify periods of good fire weather (Hatchett and Wells, 2026). Importantly, our approach visualizes a minimum of fire activity: satellites do not capture all pixels burning at all times as wildland fire progresses across the landscape and cannot capture fires that do not produce a detectable heat signature. An upcoming challenge for data continuity will be merging MODIS detection climatologies with other data sources such as the Visible Infrared Imaging Radiometer Suite (VIIRS) as the MODIS mission undergoes decommissioning.

Reporting climatological mean conditions likely underestimates the potential for fire activity, which may only require several hours to yield favorable conditions for ignition and rapid spread. It also prevents clear identification of the frequency, timing, magnitude, and duration of anomalous conditions favoring wildland fire. Because many fire-prone regions are characterized by variability of environmental conditions across intraseasonal, interseasonal, and interannual timescales, inclusion of fire weather variability, as done here, only estimate the first-order potential for fire. Identifying the specific conditions associated with burning will aid the identification of the atmospheric processes driving them, improving their predictability and thus community preparation. Subsequent iterations of pyroclimographs will include local conditions extracted on the day of burning to place these into climatological context.

6. Closing Remarks

We revisited the concept of pyroclimographs as simple visualizations leveraging satellite fire detections to demonstrate a facet of pyrogeography: the "where of fire when" to understand "the why of fire". Providing a daily perspective of wildland fire activity, pyroclimographs contextualize a region's satellite-era fire history and support the interpretation of past fire events, especially when complemented with fire environment data. With no additional information, a pyroclimograph indicates when fire activity has not (yet) been observed, when fire activity may be common but intentional (i.e., prescribed and agricultural burning; Worsnop et al. in revision), when wildfire activity is most frequent and intense, or when wildfires can be managed for resource benefit. By including fire environment-related data and its variability, a picture emerges of why certain seasons typically do or do not have increased fire activity and why anomalous events occurred. The simplicity of pyroclimographs is intentional; it is our aim that they can be used not just for research or tracking purposes but also educational and training purposes for broad audiences to understand the relationship of wildland fire to a place.

7. Code Availability

Matlab code to produce pyroclimographs is available upon request; it is slated to be released publicly in mid-2026.

8. Acknowledgements

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