**Title: The fastest growing and most destructive fires in the U.S. (2001-2020)**

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**Abstract:** The most destructive and deadly wildfires in U.S. history were also fast. Using satellite data, we analyzed the daily growth rates of over 60,000 fires from 2001-2020 across the contiguous U.S. Nearly half of U.S. ecoregions experienced destructive "fast fires" that grew over 1,620 hectares in one day. These accounted for 78% of structures destroyed and 61% of suppression costs ($18.9 billion). From 2001-2020, the average peak daily growth rate for these fires more than doubled (+249%, relative to 2001) in the western U.S. Nearly three million structures were within four kilometers of a fast fire during this period across the U.S. Given recent devastating wildfires, understanding fast fires is crucial for improving firefighting strategies and community preparedness.

**One Sentence Summary:** Speed, not size, is the key factor making wildfires deadly and destructive, and they are getting faster.

**Main Text:** Some of the most deadly and destructive wildfires in contemporary U.S. history have occurred in recent years, with most having the common characteristic of extremely rapid growth. The 2018 Camp fire in California burned over 21,000 ha the day it started, killing 85 people and destroying more than 16,000 homes. The 2021 Marshall fire, the most destructive wildfire in Colorado history, was driven by winds over 100 mph; it traveled 3 miles within the hour it started and burned more than a thousand homes. The 2023 Lahaina fire killed 101 people and destroyed more than 2,200 structures when a small brush fire escaped containment and burned through the town to the shore in two hours. The modern era of ‘megafires’ is often defined based on wildfire size (*1*), but should be defined based on how fast fires grow and their consequent societal impacts. Fire speed fundamentally dictates the deadly and destructive impact of 'megafires,' rendering the prevailing paradigm that defines them by size inadequate. While big fires change air quality, ecosystems, and carbon dynamics (*2*), fire speed matters more for infrastructure risk and evacuation planning (*3*).

The scientific community has explored trends in extreme fire size (*4, 5*) and burn severity (*6*), and has documented increasing burned area across the western U.S. (*7*). Further, we know that fast fires occur when it is hot, dry and windy, but relatively little research exists about when and why they occur across regional or national scales. Most area burned in extremely large events is from the growth on a single day, which is driven by extreme fire weather, and is predicted to more than double with 2°C warming (*8–10*). Humans also ignite fires in areas with lower tree cover, closer to structures (*3*), and during times with more extreme fire weather (*11*), resulting in more destructive fires (*12*). Recent observational evidence is corroborated by empirical models (*13*) that derive relationships to predict fire growth (*14*), as well as drive landscape fire simulations for individual events (*15, 16*). Such fire behavior models inform wildfire risk models which suggest that the most deadly and damaging wildfires are also some of the fastest (*17, 18*). How fast fires burn also affects burn severity, spatial complexity (*19, 20*), and synchronicity (*21*). Yet, we do not know the patterns, drivers, and consequences of fast fires on a national scale.

Fire suppression policies, logging, the proliferation of invasive species, climate change, and anthropogenic ignition patterns have fundamentally altered the fire-evolved landscapes of post-colonial America (*22–28*). Moreover, the expansion of the urban footprint (*29*) has placed tens of millions of homes squarely into this contemporary fuel matrix, termed the wildland-urban interface (WUI) (*30*). The rapid expansion of this footprint has occurred largely without regard for wildfire risk, either through building policies or comprehensive community planning (*31*). As a result, nearly 60 million homes in the U.S. were threatened by a wildfire between 1992 and 2015 (*3*), a number that has likely increased substantially in the intervening years due to record fires in California, Oregon, and Colorado. Wildfire risk models currently used at a national scale are based on probability of occurrence and area burned, intensity, or severity (*21, 32–35*), rather than how fast wildfires could move. The lack of attention on fire growth is a critical risk assessment gap, particularly given the rapid expansion of the WUI into areas with the greatest probability of wildfire (*36, 37*) and the mechanisms by which most homes burn. We know that the primary mechanism for home ignition is firebrands propelled ahead of the flaming front that land on flammable materials attached to, on, or inside the structure and ultimately consume it (*38*). Firefighters can extinguish these building ignitions during slower fires or when structure ignition is mitigated (*39*), but during fast-moving events they are often overwhelmed by the higher number of homes catching fire simultaneously and the need to focus on life safety and evacuations, e.g., during the 2018 Camp Fire (*17*).

Our lack of understanding is linked to our lack of national data on fire growth rates (FGR) across events. Recent data on individual fire events and how they progressed, coupled with fine-grained settlement data, enable us to explore how fast fires move at a national scale and how that affects residential exposure. We developed a Fire Event Delineation (FIRED) perimeter dataset for over 60,000 fire events (*40*). This dataset is derived from daily burn date estimations from the MODIS burned area product (*41*), enabling calculation and investigation of daily fire growth rate. FGR derived from satellite-detected burned area on a daily basis is different from, but related to, how fast a burning fireline moves on the ground. Settlement data have also become available to measure trends of development over long time periods at fine resolution (*29*). The Historical Settlement Data Compilation of the U.S. (HISDAC-US) (*42, 43*), which is derived from over 200 million property and housing records, allows us to estimate nearby exposure to wildfires (up to 4 km away). Government records during suppression activities (ICS-209-PLUS) enable us to further explore the societal consequences of wildfires by providing documentation on how many structures were damaged or destroyed on a daily basis during fire events (*25, 44*). The aggregation of ICS-209 reports provides the best available information on the high costs of U.S. wildfires at a national scale. Importantly, the combination of these latter two datasets, HISDAC-US on the spatio-temporal distribution of residential structures and the ICS-209-PLUS on actual structure loss, allows us to explore both potential exposure and documented impact.

Given the critical need to understand fast-moving wildfires and the tens of millions of homes that stand in their paths, we analyzed fires in the context of their speed and damage to homes. We: i) documented the fastest growing fires in the U.S. (2001-2020), exploring the maximum single-day FGR across an event, hereafter maximum FGR, ii) related maximum FGR with structure loss (i.e., damaged or destroyed) to provide a societally-relevant threshold for defining fast fires (maximum FGR > 1,620 ha/day), and iii) explored the trends in maximum FGR and how many total structures, and specifically residences, were exposed to fast fires over the past two decades.

**Fire growth rates in the contiguous United States**

Fire growth rates were highly variable across all events (N = 60,012), with fires growing at an average rate of 255 ha/day. Maximum FGR ranged from 21-214,200 ha/day, often multiple orders of magnitude greater than the mean FGR across the entire event (Table S1). Fires at the maximum FGR accounted for over a third (38%) of the area burned across the U.S. (Table S2), and more than 70% in some land cover types in certain ecoregions (e.g., shrublands in the Great Plains; Table S2). The maximum FGR is very strongly associated with final fire size across land cover types (Fig. S1), with the log-log relationship suggesting that it follows a power law distribution (adjusted R2 = 0.97). The importance of this is that extreme fire weather on individual days is driving fire growth and has consequences for suppression efforts (*45*). Further, more than 90% of events last no longer than 20 days (Fig. S2A), and 83% of events reach their maximum growth rate within five days, across all ecoregions (Fig. S2B). In addition, there are distinct temporal and spatial characteristics across different vegetation types (e.g., grassland fires burn large areas within a few days while broadleaf forests sustain fire growth for longer periods of time; Fig. S3). Many modeling efforts at regional to national scales model fire activity at monthly to yearly timescales (*4, 46*). These results highlight the need for regional models based on fire behavior that use predictors at daily to hourly time scales, rather than burned area estimations based on topography and spatiotemporally coarse climate data. This is particularly important in the context of modeling the occurrence of extreme meteorological events and their ability to drive rapid fire growth (*20*). Such models exist (*13-15*) and are being further advanced (*33*) but it remains to be tested whether they can replicate the remotely-sensed spread rates in extreme events as reported here. We also found that mean and maximum FGR vary by land cover and ecoregion, with the fastest growing fires typically in the grasslands and savannas of arid ecoregions (Table S3). The 10 fastest fires were in grassland-dominated vegetation which highlights the role of fine, flashy fuels and low wind friction (Table 1 and Table S4). Three highlighted wildfires show how fast fires can grow within the first few days (Fig. 1).

**Fast fires are also the most destructive and deadly ones**

While there has been substantial focus on megafires defined primarily by their size (*47*), we delineate a critical physical metric that links directly with impact: maximum daily fire growth rate. Treating wildfires as social-environmental extremes (*48*) and defining a subset of events based on both their physical behavior and destructive impact advances our understanding and ability to prepare for such events (*49*). Fires growing faster than 1,620 ha on any single day damage or destroy a large number of structures (Fig. 2). Regression tree analysis (residual mean deviance = 2.39) indicates that one of the best predictors of whether or not a large number of structures were damaged or destroyed across the entire event was whether the maximum FGR exceeded this threshold of 1,620 ha (Supplemental Materials and Methods). Importantly, there is an association between the day of maximum daily growth and the day structures were reported as impacted (Fig. S4). This speed corresponds to the 97th percentile of maximum daily fire growth registered between 2001 and 2020, representing 1,616 events out of 60,012 total events and 60.1% of the burned area in the FIRED record. We, therefore, define “fast fires” as events that grow more than 1,620 ha on a single day (i.e. maximum FGR > 1,620 ha/day). These fast fires represent only 2.7% of all events, yet they account for 89% of the total structures damaged or destroyed. It is important to note that this is a nationwide threshold and reflects if there was any structure loss at all. Of the fires that damaged or destroyed more than 100 structures (N = 71), their average maximum daily growth was 8,569 ha per day (median = 4,916 ha per day). Moreover, there are important differences across states (Table S5). For example, California has by far the highest structure loss compared to other states (N = 66,715 structures damaged or destroyed) and exhibits a fast fire threshold of 2,870 ha/day.

Our results document that 58 of the 85 level 3 ecoregions in the contiguous U.S. experienced more than one fast growing fire between 2001 and 2020 (Fig. S5), representing an area of ~3,780,000 square-kilometers or 49% of CONUS land area. According to the ICS-209-PLUS fire suppression records (2001-2020); (*44*), fast fires threatened 1,780,476 structures (67% of total threatened) and resulted in $18.9 billion of suppression expenditures (61% of total). Moreover, 80,700 structures were destroyed (78% of total destroyed), and 57,883 were damaged (82% of total damaged) across this time-period during fast fire events. This subset of fires represents a significant impact to society, including accounting for 337 fatalities (66% of total) and 5,623 injuries (43% of total).

**From 2001-2020, fast fires grew even faster across much of the western U.S.**

For all fires, mean FGR significantly increased in 38 and maximum FGR significantly increased in 20 of the 84 level III ecoregions (mainly in the western U.S.). Mean FGR significantly decreased in 16 and maximum FGR significantly decreased in 9 of the ecoregions (mainly in the northeast; Fig. 3 and Fig. S6). Importantly, most of California’s ecoregions and coastal Oregon and Washington exhibited an increase in fire growth rate over this period. Most pronounced were the increases in event-level spread and daily growth rates in mediterranean California, with an increase of 300 ha/day in maximum daily growth in Southern California Mountains (Theil-Sen Coefficient = 15.0 ha/day/year; Table S6). Across ecoregions in the state of California, the average maximum FGR increased by 4.2 ha/day/year (± 0.4, s.e.), or approximately 80 ha/day across the 20-year record (Table S7). The Snake River Plain and Columbia Plateau of the North American Desert ecoregion also saw a substantial increase of more than 278 ha/day in maximum daily growth (Theil-Sen Coefficient = 13.9 ha/day/year; Table S6). Across ecoregions in 11 western states, the mean of the maximum FGR increased by 2.1 ha/day/year (± 0.1, s.e.), or approximately 40 ha/day across the 20-year record (Table S7). Based on these trends, fires grew 249% faster (based on maximum daily FGR) across the West by the end of the 20-year record (Table S8). In California, fires grew 398% faster (based on maximum FGR) by the end of the 20-year record (Table S8). (These percentage increases in California and the western U.S. represent the mean of the maximum FGR in 2020 as a percentage of mean maximum fire growth rate in 2001. See Supplemental Methods.) Across the western U.S. this trend in growth has been accompanied by an increase in annual burned area near built-up areas (< 1 km from a residential structure) of 323% since 2001 (Fig. S7).

Using the HISDAC-US Historical Built-up Property Records (BUPR) (*43*), we estimated that 184,917 properties were exposed directly to fast fires (e.g. within the fire perimeter), 722,017 structures were within one km of fast fire perimeters, and 2,948,501 structures were within four km of fast fire perimeters (Fig. 4 and Fig. S8). Firebrands have ignited WUI materials several kilometers from the main fire (*39*), thus putting structures within this proximity at some risk of loss.

**Fire speed matters**

Remarkable wildfire events should be defined based on their speed, not just their size. Here we provide a first look at understanding national patterns and trends (2001-2020) in fire growth rate (ha/day) using a satellite-derived metric (*50*). There are two major implications of our work: we define ‘fast fires’ and we demonstrate that fires are getting faster, particularly in the western U.S.

First, we delineate a new class of the fastest growing and most destructive fires, or ‘fast fires.’ This class is akin to ‘mega-fires,’ but is defined based on a maximum daily growth rate of more than 1,620 ha/day where we document the majority of structures destroyed (78%) and suppression costs (61%). A major advance is that this class of ‘fast fires’ is defined by both the physical behavior and societal impact, representing coupled social-environmental extremes (*48*). We also demonstrate that there is a strong relationship between growth rate and burned area (Fig. S1); importantly, growth is the fundamental mechanism driving final event size. Current national fire risk models and planning efforts tend to focus on fire probability, intensity, or area burned (*50*), rather than fire speed and consequent settlement exposure or potential damage. Fast fires matter for life safety and structure impacts; large fires matter more for ecosystems and generate significant smoke. The speed of a fire determines first whether firefighters are more focused on evacuation than home protection (*17*), and second how effectively they can extinguish burning firebrands and new ignitions on structures before the home becomes fully involved (*38, 39*). Additionally, we quantify that the fastest growing fires are in grassland systems where more homes have been destroyed, relative to forest wildfires (*51*)—highlighting the need to rethink grassland fire management strategies.

Second, we document that fires are growing significantly faster across nearly half of the contiguous U.S. land area—and 2.5 times faster across the western U.S. in just 20 years. Increasing speed will challenge emergency response, evacuation plans, and community preparedness (*52*). Incident command reports indicate that at least 925 emergency evacuation orders affected over 1.5 million households between 2001-2020 (*44*); approximately half of these were within a kilometer of a fast fire (Fig. 4). Wildfire-related emergency evacuation success will be influenced by the density of human settlements, road access (*53*), and efficient use of early warning systems and information delivery to impacted communities (*54*)—all of which will be compromised by faster-moving fires. With maximum daily growth occurring within the first five days after ignition for 83% of all events (Fig. S2B), we also need to focus on proactive measures that slow fires down or promote fire resilience of the built environment. We need to implement building codes that incentivize use of fire-resistant materials (*55*), harden existing homes and remove flammable materials adjacent to structures (*56*), and preemptively plan for evacuation. Fuel mitigation efforts that will slow fires down include, for example, strategic wildland fuel breaks in the expected path of a fire and re-thinking the constellation of proximate, flammable homes in new developments. Future research efforts will help to better understand the hourly progression of blow-ups from higher resolution satellite sensors and how effective fire suppression teams may already be at slowing wildfires.

Fires may be growing faster due to warming trends, vegetation transitions to more flammable fuels, or the co-occurrence of high winds with increasing human-related ignitions. Climate-driven increases in burned area have been well documented in the U.S. (*57*), as well as an observed tripling of fire frequency in the 2000s relative to the prior two decades (*21*). Many fast fires occur during downslope wind events coincident with anomalously dry autumn conditions, which increased in both frequency (25%) and the area they burn (140%) from 1992-2020 (*59*). Juang et al. (2022) found that the increase in western U.S. forest-fire area since the mid-1980s was driven almost exclusively by increasing sizes of the largest forest fires (*59*). The mechanism is a function of geometric growth: larger fires tend to grow faster than smaller fires because longer firelines have greater potential for spread. It is also known that invasive grasses can drive increases in size (*23*), occurrence, and frequency (*24*). As grass-fueled fires are some of the fastest (Table S3), it may then follow that where vegetation transitions have occurred, e.g., from forest or shrubland to invasive grassland (*60*), fire speed may have also increased. Further, we know that there is a relationship between human ignitions and higher winds (*11, 61*), as lightning generally does not occur under high wind conditions due to the constraints surrounding their associated storms (*61*). Across the U.S. there has been a steady increase (9%) in the percent of wildfires started by human ignitions since 1992 (*62*). It has yet to be tested whether the co-occurrence of windy conditions and human-related ignitions, such as downed power lines, is increasing. People start nearly all the wildfires that threaten our homes (*3*), making understanding of the ignition, climatic, and fuel drivers of fast fires an important area of future work.

The number of fast fire events that have destroyed more than 1,000 homes in just the last five years is alarming (*63*), and may be an expectation in coming years. Fast fires overall accounted for 88% of residential structures destroyed in the U.S. (2001-2020). With warming temperatures increasing the likelihood of wildfires across the U.S. (*64*), we would expect to see more fast events in the future. Given devastating and fast-moving wildfires, such as the Camp wildfire in California, the Marshall wildfire in Colorado, or the Lahaina wildfire in Hawaii, it is critical that we plan for the increasing pace of wildfires.

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**Data and materials availability:** All data used in this analysis are publicly available at the following DOIs and URLs. All code necessary to reproduce this analysis is available at https://github.com/viriglesias/fast-fires. The workflow to derive the linked ICS-209+ and FIRED product per (*44*) is available at https://github.com/maxwellCcook/ics209-plus-fired/blob/main/code/R/ics-fired.Rmd. Data access and repositories: All-hazards dataset mined from the US National Incident Management System is hosted on figshare (*65*). Fire Events Delineation (FIRED) CONUS-AK 2001-2022: https://scholar.colorado.edu/concern/datasets/d504rm74m. United States Environmental Protection Agency ecoregions: https://www.epa.gov/eco-research/ecoregions. Monitoring Trends in Burn Severity (MTBS): https://www.mtbs.gov/.

Supplementary Materials

Materials and Methods

Supplementary Text

Figs. S1 to S8

Tables S1 to S8

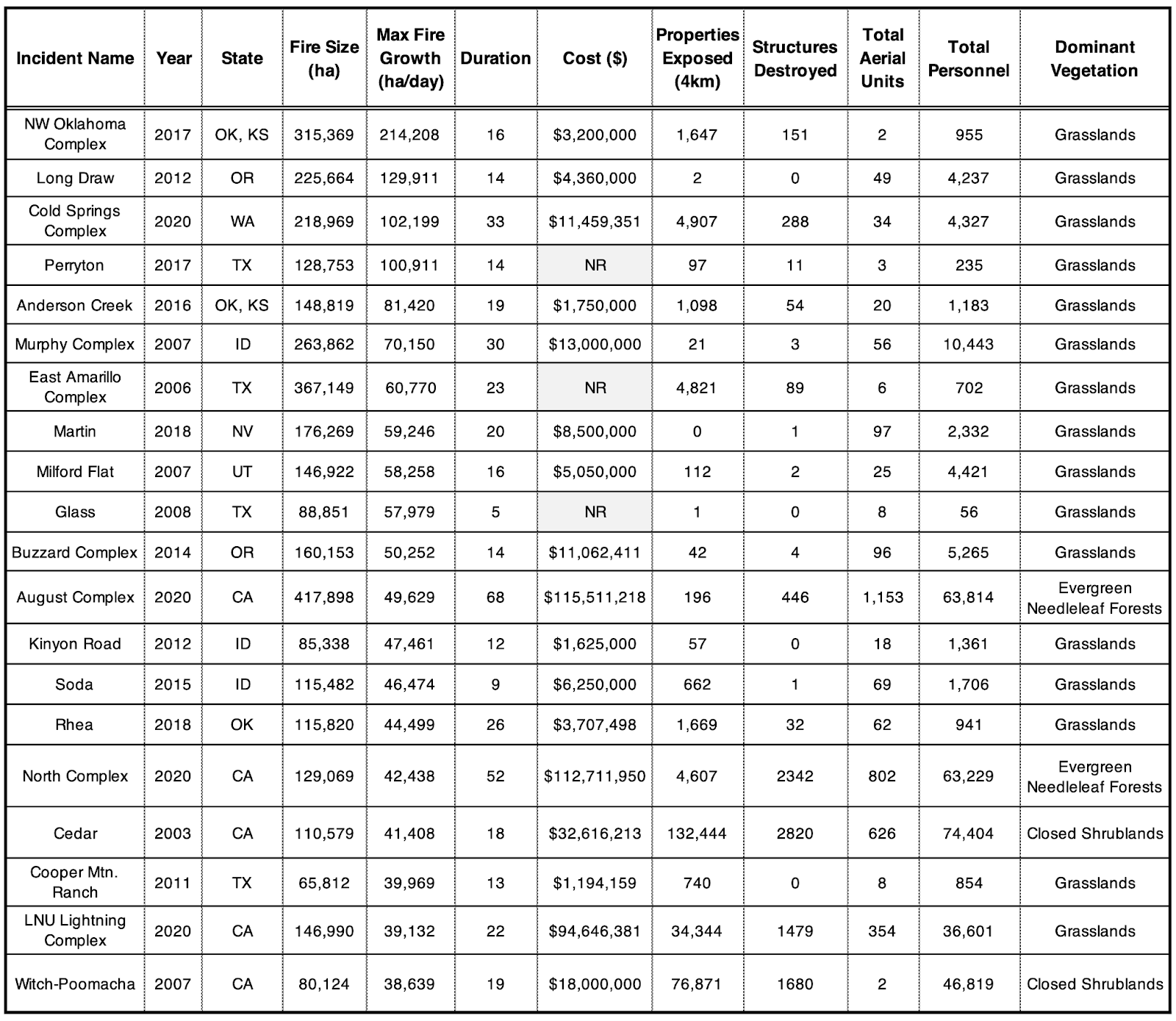
References (66-78)

**Fig 1. Fast fires in the U.S. (A)** Locations of all recorded fast fires (max FGR > 1,620 ha, 2001-2020, N = 1,616, in gray) in the contiguous United States (CONUS) with the top 100 fastest fires scaled in color and size by their maximum single-day fire growth in hectares/day. The fastest fires occurred primarily in the western United States and in the southeastern plains (Texas and Oklahoma), but across a wide range of ecoregions and fuel types. **(B-D)** Three examples of the fastest fires on record highlight the daily burned area from the MODIS Burned Area product (MCD64A1), fire perimeters from the Monitoring Trends in Burn Severity (MTBS), and approximate locations of properties within the burned area from the Historical Built-Up Property Records (BUPR) obtained from the HISDAC-US database. **(B)** The Northwest Oklahoma Complex fire in 2018 is the fastest recorded fire in the database with a single day maximum growth of 214,208 ha/day, burning in grasslands; **(C)** the Cold Springs fire in 2020 is part of the destructive Labor Day fires which burned in high winds and together with the Pearl Hill and Whitney fires burned over 165,000 hectares in a matter of days. The Cold Springs fire was the largest of the three and burned almost entirely in a single day (102,198 ha/day); **(D)** the Witch and Poomacha fires in 2003 burned just outside of San Diego, CA, directly exposing over 8,000 properties within days (with more than 76,000 properties within 4 km of the burned area) and destroying 1,680 structures, making it one of the most destructive fast fires in the database.

**Fig. 2. Defining fast fires as a function of social-economic impacts.** Scatterplot of log-transformed maximum fire growth rate and log-transformed number of structures destroyed, with marginal probability density distributions. The dashed line shows the lower bound of growth of ‘fast fires’ (1,620 ha/day or above) that were also the most destructive ones. Note that the axes are in log scale and that only fast fires destroyed more than 600 structures.

**Fig. 3. Temporal trends in maximum annual fire growth on a given day for events longer than four days per EPA ecoregion level IV (2001-2020).** Statistically-significant positive and negative regression coefficients (p < 0.05) are depicted in warm and cold colors, respectively. Regression coefficients that were not statistically significant from zero (i.e., no significant trend) are shown in white. Ecoregions without sufficient data for the analysis are indicated in gray.

**Fig. 4. Exposure to fast fires (>1,620 ha/day) in 2001-2020.** (**A**) Number of fast fires per year. (**B**) Annual area affected by fast fires. (**C**) Trends in the number of structures (based on the BUPR dataset) within the perimeters of ***fast fires*** (black), within 1 km of the perimeters of fast fires (dark gray), and within 4 km of the perimeters of fast fires (light gray).



**Table 1. Top 20 fastest growing fires across the contiguous U.S. (2001-2020).** Summary statistics describing the top 20 fastest fires from FIRED linked to their associated incident command system summary report (*44*). The top 20 fastest fires accrued an estimated $398M in suppression costs alone, exposed 264,338 properties (within 4 km of a fire perimeter) and destroyed over 9,000 structures. Of the 20 fastest fires, 16 occurred primarily in grassland vegetation types (>50% grassland in burned area).