



# 1 Tracking recent extremes and interannual variability of global 2 fire emissions using a near-real-time extension to the Global Fire 3 Emissions Database

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15 **Abstract.** The Global Fire Emissions Database (GFED) is widely used to quantify spatiotemporal variability and  
16 long-term trends in burned area and fire emissions, supporting assessments of fire impacts on ecosystems and  
17 atmospheric composition. GFED has historically relied on observations from the Moderate Resolution Imaging  
18 Spectroradiometer (MODIS), but orbital drift and planned sensor decommissioning pose challenges for maintaining  
19 record continuity and near-real-time (NRT) monitoring. Here we present the GFED5 near-real-time extension  
20 (GFED5NRT), a global fire emissions dataset that enables daily NRT analyses using active fire observations from the  
21 Visible Infrared Imaging Radiometer Suite (VIIRS). GFED5NRT uses biome- and region-specific lookup tables of  
22 effective fire area and fuel consumption, derived from VIIRS observations and standard GFED5 datasets, to estimate  
23 burned area and emissions from VIIRS active fire counts in a manner consistent with the GFED5 time series.  
24 Comparisons with GFED5 and independent datasets show strong agreement in spatial patterns, seasonal cycles, and  
25 interannual variability of fire activity. GFED5NRT captures recent major fire extremes and provides daily global NRT  
26 estimates of burned area and emissions for multiple trace gases and aerosols. Together, GFED5 and GFED5NRT  
27 provides a coherent framework for long-term analyses and NRT monitoring of evolving fire regimes in a changing  
28 climate. The GFED5NRT dataset is publicly available at <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.18702700> (Chen et al., 2026).

29 **Short Summary.** Fire patterns are changing, partly due to climate change. While the Global Fire Emissions  
30 Database (GFED) is a key tool for tracking fire impacts, its main satellite sensors are retiring. We introduce  
31 GFED5NRT, a new extension using modern VIIRS satellite data to provide daily, real-time updates on fires and smoke.  
32 By bridging past records with current observations, this system helps scientists and the public monitor extreme fire  
33 events and their effects on our changing planet.

## 34 1. Overview

35 Recent studies have documented substantial shifts in the frequency and intensity of global wildfires, driven primarily  
36 by climate change and land-use dynamics (Jones et al., 2022). Although total global burned area has declined over  
37 recent decades (approximately  $-1.2\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$ ), largely due to reduced fire activity in African savannas (Andela et al., 2017)  
38 and croplands worldwide (Hall et al., 2024), fire risk has intensified in many other regions. Prolonged droughts and  
39 rising temperatures have increased the occurrence of extreme fire weather (Jain et al., 2022), weakened the nocturnal  
40 barrier to fire spread (Balch et al., 2022), and contributed to more severe fire events in boreal and temperate biomes



41 (Cunningham et al., 2024; Jones et al., 2024). As fires increasingly extend into regions with high fuel loads, global  
42 fire emissions have remained relatively stable despite the overall decline in burned area (van der Werf et al., 2025).  
43 Meanwhile, expanding human settlement near wildlands (Schug et al., 2023) has increased the extent of the wildland-  
44 urban interface (WUI) (Chen et al., 2024; Guo et al., 2024; Tang et al., 2024), thereby increasing human exposure to  
45 wildfires (Teymoor Seydi et al., 2025) and wildfire smoke-related premature mortality (Zhao et al., 2025). Assessing  
46 these evolving fire regimes and their societal and environmental impacts requires long-term, internally consistent  
47 global fire emissions datasets.

48 Near-real-time (NRT) fire emissions products are critical for the timely assessment of fire impacts on atmospheric  
49 chemistry and air quality, rapid response to evolving fire disasters, and the placement of such events in the context of  
50 the historical record. Several widely used operational NRT systems rely primarily on fire radiative power (FRP)  
51 observations from geostationary (GEO) and low Earth orbit (LEO) satellites. For example, the Copernicus Atmosphere  
52 Monitoring Service (CAMS) Global Fire Assimilation System (GFAS) (Kaiser et al., 2012) and NASA's Quick Fire  
53 Emissions Dataset (QFED) (Darmenov & da Silva, 2015) estimate emissions based on active fire detections from the  
54 Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) sensors, with calibrations tied to external inventories or  
55 constrained by atmospheric observations. The Fire INventory from NCAR (FINN) (Wiedinmyer et al., 2011, 2023)  
56 provides fire emissions estimates derived from land cover data and active fires, supporting regional air quality  
57 applications. Similarly, NOAA's Hazard Mapping System (HMS) (Schroeder et al., 2008), the Blended Global  
58 Biomass Burning Emissions Product (GBBEPx) (Zhang et al., 2012; Li et al., 2022) and the HRRR-Smoke model  
59 (Ahmadov et al., 2017) integrate observations from multiple satellite sensors to improve detection and emissions  
60 quantification. These systems provide indispensable datasets for NRT monitoring and forecasting, but further efforts  
61 are needed to ensure consistency with long-term historical records.

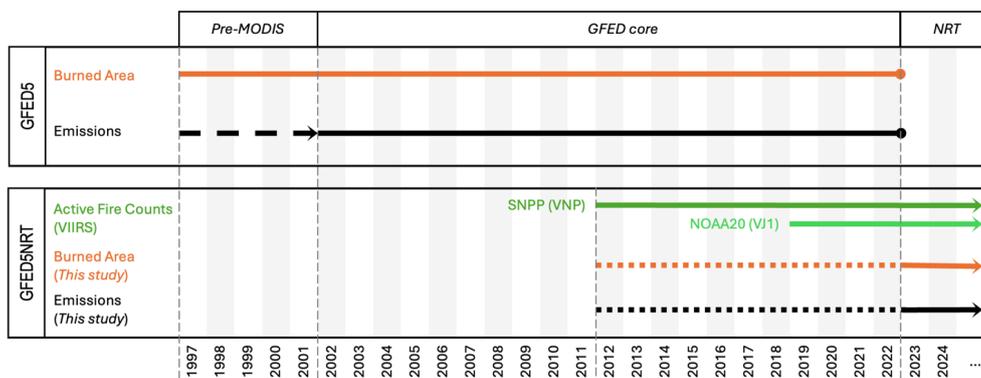
62 The Global Fire Emissions Database (GFED) is a suite of gridded datasets that provide global estimates of burned  
63 area and associated emissions of gases and aerosols from landscape fires. Burned area estimates in GFED are primarily  
64 derived from satellite observations of surface reflectance change and the delineation of fire-affected areas. GFED  
65 emissions calculations follow the Seiler and Crutzen (1980) framework, combining burned area with fuel consumption  
66 estimates from a biogeochemical model and emission factors derived from laboratory and field measurements. GFED  
67 has undergone several iterations, resulting in multiple versions that progressively refine burned area and emissions  
68 (Chen et al., 2023; Giglio et al., 2006, 2010; Randerson et al., 2012; van der Werf et al., 2006, 2010, 2017). The most  
69 recent release, GFED version 5 (GFED5) (van der Werf et al., 2025), improves burned area estimates by accounting  
70 for small fires undetected by moderate-resolution sensors (Chen et al., 2023) and by incorporating higher-resolution  
71 imagery and a cropland-specific methodology to better represent agricultural burning (Hall et al., 2024). The full  
72 GEED5 product covers the 1997-2022 period. The core emissions model uses multiple 500-m MODIS products to  
73 track the temporal evolution of aboveground and surface fuels across ecosystems, with explicit treatment of  
74 deforestation and peat fires (van Wees et al., 2022). Emission factors draw upon an extensive compilation of field  
75 and laboratory measurements, including aircraft observations from recent field campaigns (Binte Shahid et al., 2024).  
76 Interannual variability over 1997-2022 is substantial in this record (Table S1), with global burned area from GFED5  
77 ranging from 620 to 920 million hectares per year ( $\text{Mha yr}^{-1}$ ) and fire emissions ranging from 2.9 to 4.4 petagrams of  
78 carbon per year ( $\text{Pg C yr}^{-1}$ ). Across GFED versions, mean global annual burned area over this period ranges from 340  
79 to 780  $\text{Mha yr}^{-1}$ , while mean annual fire emissions range from 2.0 to 3.4  $\text{Pg C yr}^{-1}$ , reflecting differences in input  
80 datasets and methodological choices.

81 While GFED has provided essential retrospective data for understanding fire impacts on the Earth system, reducing  
82 data latency to support NRT applications remain a priority. However, the MODIS instruments aboard NASA's Terra  
83 and Aqua satellites, which provide core data for many global fire burned area and emissions datasets, are aging and  
84 have experienced orbital drift that has substantially altered their local overpass times (Loeb et al., 2024; Parkinson,  
85 2022). The GEED5 dataset ends in 2022, when orbital drift-induced changes surpassed the thresholds defined for  
86 high-quality science products. The Visible Infrared Imaging Radiometer Suite (VIIRS) instruments on multiple NASA



87 and NOAA satellites offer many of the same capabilities as MODIS and are widely considered a viable continuity  
 88 data source for MODIS-based land products (Román et al., 2024; Giglio et al., 2025). Here, we present a system for  
 89 generating GFED5-compatible NRT global burned area and emissions datasets for the post-MODIS era using 375-m  
 90 VIIRS active fire detections (Fig. 1). We are motivated by the urgent need to quantify recent fire extremes and place  
 91 their magnitudes in the context of the GFED5 global record. This work represents a first step toward developing global  
 92 fire records that merge VIIRS and MODIS observations, prior to a more comprehensive fusion of science-quality burn  
 93 area time series from the two sensors, which remains a key priority but requires further investment. Our approach (Fig.  
 94 2) uses a two-step scaling framework. First, daily VIIRS active fire counts are converted to burned area using region-  
 95 and biome-specific effective fire areas (burned area per active fire) derived from GFED5. Second, burned area is  
 96 translated into emissions using fuel consumption lookup tables constructed from GFED5 burned area and emissions  
 97 as a function of fire type and continental-scale region. This framework features several novel aspects: (1) joint  
 98 estimation of burned area and emissions through a unified scaling approach; (2) classification of fires into 16 broad  
 99 ecosystem types to support biome-specific analyses; and (3) contextualization of recent fire activity within a long-  
 100 term, internally consistent global fire record.

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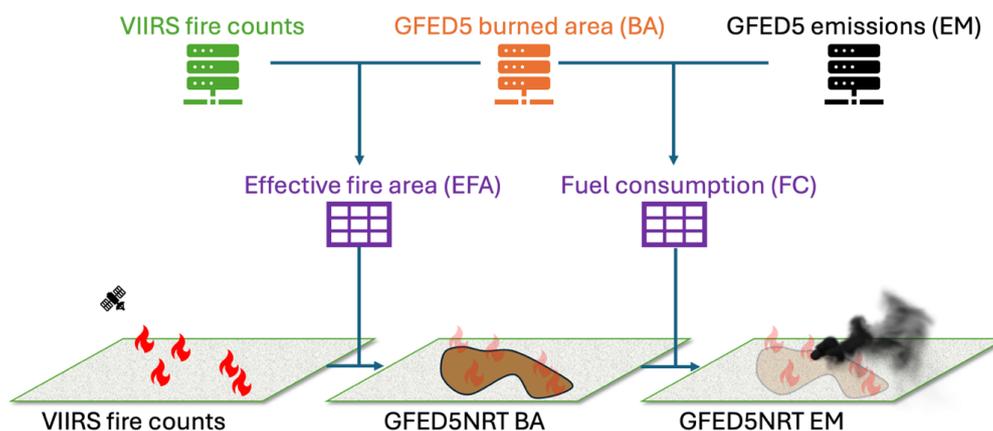


**Figure 1.** Timelines of GFED5NRT products and primary input datasets. Layers shown include VIIRS active fire counts, burned area, and fire emissions. Dashed lines for GFED5 indicates the pre-MODIS period, when data were reported at coarser spatial resolution. Dotted lines for GFED5NRT denote the periods used for data calibration and for deriving scaling coefficients.

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103 We applied the scaling algorithm to daily VIIRS active fire detections from the NOAA/NASA Suomi-NPP (SNPP)  
 104 and NOAA-20 satellites, generating two independent time series of burned area and emissions estimates with minimal  
 105 latency. To reduce biases associated with oblique viewing geometry and data gaps caused by intermittent instrument  
 106 outages, we merged these streams to produce the combined GFED5 near-real-time extension (GFED5NRT).  
 107 GFED5NRT extends the temporal coverage of GFED5, providing characterization of fire activity, burned area, and  
 108 associated emissions during the post-MODIS era, as well as more timely documentation of recent extreme wildfire  
 109 events. We developed a Python-based processing system that automatically retrieves VIIRS NRT active fire data from  
 110 NASA’s Fire Information for Resource Management System (FIRMS), applies corrections for viewing geometry and  
 111 data gaps, and uses pre-calculated region- and biome-specific scaling coefficients to estimate daily burned area and  
 112 emissions operationally. By combining contemporary satellite observations with a consistent scaling framework,  
 113 GFED5NRT provides temporally consistent and reliable estimates of burned area and emissions across fire types,  
 114 supporting both retrospective analyses of fire variability and NRT monitoring of ongoing fire activity.

115



**Figure 2.** Schematic of the two-step scaling approach used to generate the GFED5NRT global burned area (BA) and fire emissions (EM) datasets from VIIRS active fire counts. Two biome-specific scaling factors—effective fire area (EFA; burned area per fire count) and fuel consumption (FC; carbon emissions per unit burned area)—were derived for each region by linking VIIRS active fire detections to the GFED5 data.

116

## 117 2. Data and Method

### 118 2.1 GFED5 burned area and emissions

119 The GFED5 burned area dataset was developed by integrating multiple remote sensing data streams (Chen et al.,  
120 2023). It builds primarily on the MODIS burned area time series (Giglio et al., 2018; Justice et al., 2002). To reduce  
121 commission errors associated with the coarse spatial resolution of MODIS (500 m), burned area estimates were  
122 calibrated using higher-resolution (20–30 m) observations from Landsat and Sentinel-2. Burned areas not detected by  
123 MODIS were further used to quantify these small fires, with MODIS active fire detections serving as a proxy for their  
124 occurrence. Agricultural burned area was further updated using the global cropland-focused burned area product  
125 GloCAB (Hall et al., 2024). GFED5 provides global monthly burned area estimates at 0.25° spatial resolution, with  
126 attribution by ecosystem and fire type.

127 In van der Werf et al. (2025), a slightly modified version of the methodology described in Chen et al. (2023) was  
128 implemented to estimate GFED5 burned area (version 5.1) through 2022. GFED5 emissions were calculated using  
129 this burned area dataset in the classical framework of Seiler and Crutzen (1980). For each 0.25° grid cell, emissions  
130 of individual species were estimated as the product of burned area, fuel consumption (defined as fuel load multiplied  
131 by combustion completeness), and species-specific emission factors that convert dry matter burned to chemical species.  
132 Fuel consumption was derived using the Carnegie-Ames-Stanford Approach (CASA) biogeochemical model (Potter  
133 et al., 1993) and further constrained by multiple observational datasets (van Wees et al., 2022). Monthly emissions  
134 were temporally disaggregated to daily and hourly scales using active fire detections from a combination of polar-  
135 orbiting and geostationary satellites to capture sub-monthly variability in fire activity (Mu et al., 2011). The GFED5  
136 burned area and emissions datasets (version 5.1) are publicly available at [www.globalfiredata.org](http://www.globalfiredata.org).

137 The gridded, fire-type-specific GFED5 data cover the core MODIS era from 2002 to 2022. As described in Chen et  
138 al. (2023) and van der Werf et al. (2025), GFED5 was also extended to the pre-MODIS period (1997–2001) using



139 active fire detections from the Visible and Infrared Scanner (VIIRS) aboard the Tropical Rainfall Measuring Mission  
140 (TRMM) and the Along Track Scanning Radiometers (ATSR) flown on multiple platforms. For this earlier period,  
141 the dataset was produced at a coarser  $1^\circ$  spatial resolution and does not distinguish among land cover types.

142 Throughout this paper, GFED5 refers to the updated version 5.1 burned area and emissions datasets described in van  
143 der Werf et al. (2025), including the pre-MODIS period (Fig. 1). These standard products are used during the overlap  
144 period with VIIRS (2012-2022) to derive scaling coefficients that convert VIIRS active fire counts to burned area and  
145 emissions for the near-real-time product (Fig. 2).

## 146 2.2 VIIRS active fire data

147 VIIRS is a multi-band imaging instrument that collects imagery and radiometric measurements across visible and  
148 infrared wavelengths, enabling the detection of thermal anomalies associated with landscape fires and other heat  
149 sources. Compared with MODIS (1 km), the finer spatial resolution of VIIRS (375 m) provides more accurate fire  
150 location information and higher detection efficiency, thereby improving fire mapping, fire behavior characterization,  
151 and applications in disaster response and land management. Unlike MODIS, however, VIIRS lacks a mid-morning  
152 (10:30 local time) overpass, which may lead to the underdetection of fires with pronounced diurnal variability in  
153 activity.

154 The NASA VIIRS 375-m thermal anomalies and active fire products are distributed as both science-quality data  
155 (Schroeder et al., 2024) and NRT data. The science-quality datasets are quality-controlled and internally consistent,  
156 with a primary objective of supporting long-term climate research, but data latency is typically several months. In  
157 contrast, the NRT data stream is available within hours of observation, making it better suited for operational decision  
158 support and early warning applications.

159 In this study, we obtained the science-quality VIIRS 375 m fire location products (VNP14IMGML and VJ114IMGML,  
160 Collection 2 version 4) from the University of Maryland Fuoco SFTP server (fuoco.geog.umd.edu). These data from  
161 2012 to 2022 were used to train the scaling model that convert active fire counts to burned area and fire emissions. To  
162 generate the GFED5NRT product, we used VIIRS NRT active fire data available through NASA LANCE FIRMS. As  
163 discussed below, we selected the NRT fire image products (VNP14IMG\_NRT and VJ114IMG\_NRT), rather than the  
164 NRT fire location products, to enable viewing-angle corrections (Sect. 2.3.3).

165 VIIRS instruments are currently carried on three satellites in the Joint Polar Satellite System (JPSS): SNPP, NOAA-  
166 20, and NOAA-21. Their orbital configuration allows each satellite to observe a given location at approximately the  
167 same local solar time, but from different viewing angles. Merging VIIRS observations across platforms has been  
168 shown to reduce artificial day-to-day variability and biases associated with changing viewing geometry (Giglio et al.,  
169 2025). In this study, we integrated VIIRS active fire observations from the SNPP and NOAA-20 to balance the need  
170 for a consistent historical record with continuity for future extensions of the GFED5NRT product. To further reduce  
171 biases arising from day-to-day variations in sensor viewing geometry, we additionally generated a GFED5NRT data  
172 layer that combines observations from both satellites, taking advantage of their deliberate orbital phasing.

## 173 2.3 Active fire recording and adjustments

### 174 2.3.1 Active fire counts

175 To ensure consistency with the fire-type classification and grid structure of standard GFED5, VIIRS active fire  
176 detections were aggregated by land cover class by overlaying fire centroids onto 500-m land cover maps. An annual  
177 land cover type was assigned to each 500-m MODIS sinusoidal grid cell (van Wees et al., 2022) using an integrated



178 dataset combining the MODIS MCD12Q1 Collection 6.1 land cover product (Friedl & Sulla-Menashe, 2019), a  
179 tropical peatland map (Gumbrecht et al., 2017), and a fire-persistence-based deforestation mask (Chen et al., 2023). A  
180 total of 16 land cover classes were defined, including 13 standard biome types and three special burning types:  
181 deforestation, peatland, and agricultural burning. In each  $0.25^\circ$  grid cell, active fire detections were aggregated across  
182 these classes, ensuring consistency with the burned area and emissions stratification applied in GFED5 (Table 2 of  
183 van der Werf et al., 2025). To minimize the effects of VIIRS sampling biases and retrieval uncertainties, additional  
184 corrections were applied prior to the estimation of burned area and emissions, as described in the following sections.

### 185 2.3.2 Static hotspot filtering

186 The VIIRS science-quality active fire products classify detected thermal anomalies into several categories, including  
187 vegetation fires, active volcanos, offshore detections, and other static land heat sources. In contrast, the VIIRS NRT  
188 active fire products do not explicitly separate vegetation fires from persistent non-vegetation thermal sources. To  
189 address this limitation, we developed a static hotspot mask that combines two complementary sources of information.  
190 This mask has a spatial resolution of  $0.01^\circ \times 0.01^\circ$ .

191 First, a hotspot-based static mask was constructed using historical SNPP VIIRS observations from 2012–2022 to  
192 identify  $0.01^\circ$  grid cells with more than five detections classified as non-vegetation fires (type  $\neq 0$ ). Second, a report-  
193 based static mask was compiled from documented locations of persistent thermal sources, including gas flares,  
194 landfills, volcanoes, solar power facilities, power plants, and refineries (see SI Text S1). These two components were  
195 combined to produce a comprehensive static hotspot mask that removes presumed non-vegetation thermal anomalies  
196 from the VIIRS NRT data, thereby improving the accuracy of fire detection and subsequent burned area and emissions  
197 estimates in GFED5NRT.

### 198 2.3.3 VIIRS viewing geometry adjustment

199 Each VIIRS active fire detection is associated with a specific scan angle, identified by the sample number in the  
200 science-quality VIIRS active fire location files. Detection efficiency varies with scan angle due to factors such as pixel  
201 size, canopy height, illumination geometry, atmospheric attenuation, and filtering by the retrieval algorithm. While  
202 these effects largely average out over monthly time scales, they can introduce significant biases in daily burned area  
203 and emission estimates (Giglio et al., 2025).

204 To correct for this, we developed scan-angle-specific lookup tables using the full set of standard VIIRS active fire  
205 detections from SNPP during 2019–2021. Fire counts were stratified by cross-track sample number (0–6399),  
206 day/night status, month, and dominant land cover type within  $0.25^\circ$  grid cells (see SI Text S2). Weighting factors were  
207 derived for each sample bin based on total fire counts, removing scan angle dependence while conserving the total  
208 fire radiative power across all sample numbers (Fig. S1). This ensures that total emissions estimates remained  
209 unchanged. The resulting weighting factors were applied to individual VIIRS detections, and the corrected fire counts  
210 were aggregated by land cover type within each  $0.25^\circ$  grid cell.

211 Scan angle information is only available in the science-quality product (VNP14IMGML and VJ114IMGML) and is  
212 absent in the NRT fire location products (VNP14IMGDL\_NRT, VJ114IMGDL\_NRT). To address this limitation, we  
213 used upstream two-dimensional NRT imagery products (VNP14IMG\_NRT, VJ114IMG\_NRT) to generate daily fire  
214 location files in a VNP14IMGDL\_NRT-like format, incorporating both sample numbers and key fire attributes. These  
215 additional files were then used to perform viewing geometry correction and normalize fire counts.



#### 216 2.3.4 Adjustment of fire counts in deforestation areas

217 VIIRS active fire detections were aggregated by land cover type within each 0.25° grid cell, with individual detections  
218 assigned to land cover classes at 500-m resolution. In near-real-time applications, instantaneous land cover data are  
219 often unavailable, and the most recent available year of land cover information from the MODIS MCD12Q1 product  
220 is therefore used. However, in regions undergoing rapid deforestation, this temporal mismatch can lead to substantial  
221 misclassification: fires associated with recent forest loss may be missed, while unrelated fires may be incorrectly  
222 attributed to deforestation, resulting in biased emissions estimates.

223 To mitigate this issue, VIIRS active fire counts were adjusted by assuming temporal stability in the monthly fraction  
224 of deforestation-related burning within 0.25° tropical deforestation grid cells. Climatological monthly fractions of  
225 deforestation-related fire counts, averaged over 2013–2022, were first calculated for each grid cell. These fractions  
226 were then applied to the total VIIRS active fire counts to derive adjusted estimates of deforestation-related fire activity.  
227 Fire counts associated with other land cover types were scaled proportionally to conserve the total number of  
228 detections.

#### 229 2.4 Estimating burned area and emissions from active fire counts

230 We applied a two-step scaling approach (Fig. 2) to convert VIIRS active fire counts, stratified into 16 land cover types  
231 at 0.25° resolution, into global burned area and fire emissions estimates.

232 In the first step, biome-specific scaling factors, termed effective fire area (EFA) scalars, were derived for multiple  
233 geographical regions by relating science-quality VIIRS active fire detections to GFED5 burned area data during the  
234 MODIS-VIIRS overlap period (2012–2022). Only detections classified as vegetation fires (fire type code = 0) were  
235 used in deriving EFA. EFA represents the mean burned area (km<sup>2</sup>) per active fire detection for each region and land  
236 cover type.

237 We evaluated a suit of aggregation schemes (SI text S3; Table S2) that varied in spatial scale (0.25° grid cell, GFED  
238 region, or global), temporal resolution (annual or monthly), and treatment of land cover (lumped or type-specific).  
239 Based on overall performance across statistical metrics, including bias, correlation coefficient, normalized root mean  
240 square error (Table S3), as well as aggregation efficiency (Table S2), we selected region- and land cover-specific EFA  
241 scalars associated with the *Regftp* scheme. In this scheme, active fires are aggregated within each GFED region and  
242 land cover type (Tables S2). These scalars were used to generate GFED5NRT. In principle, the *Regftp* scheme could  
243 yield up to 224 EFA scalars globally, from the product of 14 continental regions and 16 burning types; in practice,  
244 however, not all burning types occur in every region.

245 The optimized EFA scalars were subsequently applied to VIIRS active fire counts to generate the GFED5NRT burned  
246 area product for years following the GFED5 record (1997–2022). Beginning in 2023, daily VIIRS active fire counts  
247 by land cover type were multiplied by corresponding EFA scalars to estimate burned area at 0.25° resolution.

248 In the second step, we constructed a fuel consumption (FC) look-up table based on historical GFED5 burned area and  
249 emissions data. Using the same aggregation strategy as for EFA, we derived region- and biome-specific FC scalars,  
250 which were then applied to convert GFED5NRT burned area into emissions for each burning and or land cover type.  
251 Several major land cover types exhibited pronounced long-term trends in FC during 2002–2022. To partially account  
252 for these trends, mean FC values from the more recent 2013–2022 period were used to estimate GFED5NRT emissions  
253 beyond 2022. Emissions of trace gases and aerosols were derived using the same emission factors as in the core  
254 GFED5 data, and using a gridded (0.25 degree) daily climatology for spatiotemporally variable savanna emission  
255 factors of CO<sub>2</sub>, CO, CH<sub>4</sub>, and N<sub>2</sub>O (Vernooij et al., 2023) based on the 2002–2022 time series.



## 256 2.5 Generating the GFED5NRT products

257 To support the operational, near-real-time production of daily GFED5NRT datasets, we developed a fully automated,  
258 standalone software system that implements the complete processing workflow (Fig. S2). The system is built primarily  
259 in Python and is distributed with all required ancillary inputs, including precomputed lookup tables and configuration  
260 files, allowing the pipeline to run independently without manual preparation. The workflow comprises sequential  
261 modules for automated acquisition of VIIRS active fire data, screening and filtering of detections, conversion of fire  
262 counts to burned area, and generation of corresponding emissions estimates. Execution of the workflow is managed  
263 by a master shell script, which is scheduled to run daily via a cron job. Upon execution, the script retrieves the latest  
264 VIIRS data from the FIRMS server, verifies global data completeness, and initiates GFED5NRT production only  
265 when sufficient coverage is available, thereby enabling robust and timely updates with minimal user intervention.

266 Using this automated framework, daily GFED5NRT products are routinely generated with latencies of only a few  
267 hours. Three NRT product variants are produced: one based exclusively on SNPP VIIRS observations, one based on  
268 NOAA-20 VIIRS observations, and a combined product. In the combined product, burned area and emissions within  
269 each grid cell are calculated as the arithmetic mean of the SNPP- and NOAA-20-based estimates when both  
270 instruments are operating nominally. If observations from one satellite are unavailable, the combined product defaults  
271 to the remaining instrument. On days when active fire data are missing from both satellites, GFED5NRT production  
272 is suspended for that date. Each daily product is distributed in two compact NetCDF files: species files, which report  
273 emissions of individual trace gas and aerosol species, and ecosystem files, which describe the allocation of burned  
274 area and carbon emissions across the 16 land cover and burning classes. File structure, variable naming, and metadata  
275 conventions are fully consistent with those of the standard GFED5 products.

276 When science-quality VIIRS active fire location data become available from the Fuoco server, the system will rerun  
277 the scaling procedure using these higher-quality inputs. During reprocessing, non-vegetation thermal anomalies are  
278 excluded directly using the fire *type* flag ( $type \neq 0$ ) provided in the science-quality data, and viewing geometry  
279 corrections are applied based on the *sample* column information in the same files. Dates with missing observations  
280 for individual VIIRS instruments, as documented on the FIRMS missing-dates webpage and summarized in Table S4,  
281 are filled using temporal interpolation. As science-quality data become available on an irregular schedule, the  
282 reprocessed GFED5NRT datasets are updated episodically for the SNPP-only, NOAA-20-only, and combined  
283 products. The daily datasets are subsequently aggregated to monthly products to facilitate analysis. Unless otherwise  
284 noted, all results presented in this study are based on the reprocessed, science-quality GFED5NRT combined product.  
285 For evaluation purposes, additional science-quality-based GFED5NRT burned area estimates derived solely from  
286 SNPP observations were generated for the 2012–2022 period.

## 287 2.6 Data for GFED5NRT evaluation

288 We assessed the performance of the GFED5NRT burned area and fire emissions products using a diverse set of  
289 independent global and regional reference datasets.

290 Evaluation of burned area focused on retrospective comparisons in Canada and South America, where high-quality  
291 regional products are available. For South America, we used the INPE AQ1km burned area dataset  
292 (<https://terrabrasilis.dpi.inpe.br/queimadas/aq1km/>), which is derived from MODIS 1-km imagery in combination  
293 with active fire detections from multiple satellite platforms (Libonati et al., 2015), as well as the MapBiomass Fire  
294 product (Collection 4; <https://brasil.mapbiomas.org/en/mapbiomas-fogo/>), which is based on 30-m Landsat imagery  
295 and a machine-learning classification framework (Alencar et al., 2022). For Canada, we employed the Canadian  
296 National Fire Database (CNFDB, <https://cwffis.cfs.nrcan.gc.ca/ha/nfdb>), which compiles fire perimeter records  
297 reported by provincial and territorial fire management agencies, and the National Burned Area Composite (NBAC;  
298 <https://cwffis.cfs.nrcan.gc.ca/datamart/metadata/nbac>), a Landsat-based burned area product generated using change-



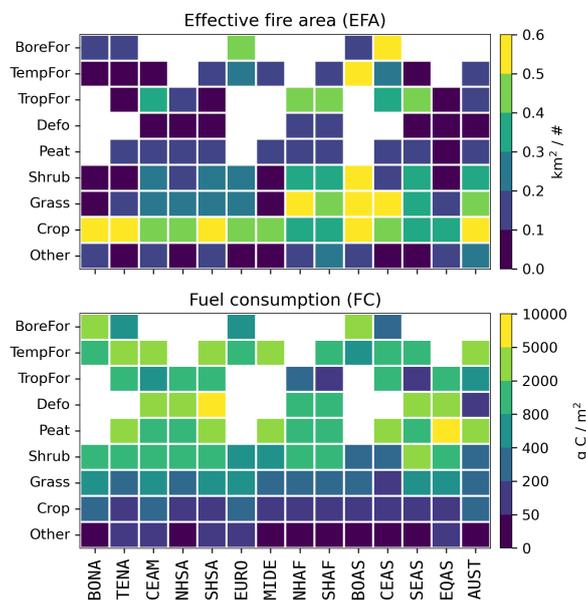
299 detection techniques. In addition, two independent estimates of total burned area in Canada for 2023 were used for  
 300 benchmarking purposes: NRCan\_2023, derived from Natural Resources Canada Fire M3 hotspot-based fire perimeters,  
 301 and TIIC\_2023, produced using the Tracking Intra- and Inter-year Change (TIIC) algorithm (Pelletier et al., 2024).

302 For evaluation of fire emissions, daily GFED5NRT carbon monoxide (CO) emissions for 2023 were compared against  
 303 three widely used global fire emissions inventories: the Fire Inventory from NCAR (FINN, version 2.5; Wiedinmyer  
 304 et al., 2023), the Blended Global Biomass Burning Emissions Product (GBBEPx, version 3; Li et al., 2022), and the  
 305 CAMS Global Fire Assimilation System (GFAS, version 1.2; Kaiser et al., 2012).

### 306 3. Results

#### 307 3.1 Effective fire area and fuel consumption

308 The GFED5NRT burned area (BA) and fire emissions (EM) products were derived from VIIRS active fire counts  
 309 using two primary scaling coefficients: EFA and FC. Aggregated over the calibration period (2012-2022), EFA was  
 310 calculated as the ratio of BA to the number of active fire detections, representing the mean burned area associated  
 311 with a single VIIRS active fire detection, while FC was calculated as the ratio of EM to BA, reflecting the mean carbon  
 312 emissions per unit burned area.



**Figure 3.** Mean EFA and FC by GFED region and aggregated land cover type. These scaling coefficients were derived from VIIRS active fire counts and GFED5 burned area and emission data for 2012-2022. Land cover classes based on GFED5 burned area classifications (Table 2 in *van der Werf et al., 2025*) were consolidated into nine groups: **BoreFor** ('Boreal forest', 'Sparse boreal forest', and 'Tundra'); **TempFor** ('Temperate forest'); **TropFor** ('Tropical forest'); **Defo** ('Deforestation'); **Peat** ('Peatland'); **Shrub** ('Temperate shrubland', 'Temperate mosaic', 'Tropical shrubland', and 'Woody savanna'); **Grass** ('Temperate grassland', 'Tropical grassland', and 'Open savanna'); **Crop** ('Cropland'); and **Other** (all remaining burning types).

313

314 As shown in Fig. 3, both EFA and FC exhibit substantial variability across land cover types and geographic regions.  
 315 On average, EFA values are higher in grasslands and shrublands than in forests, reflecting differences in fire behavior

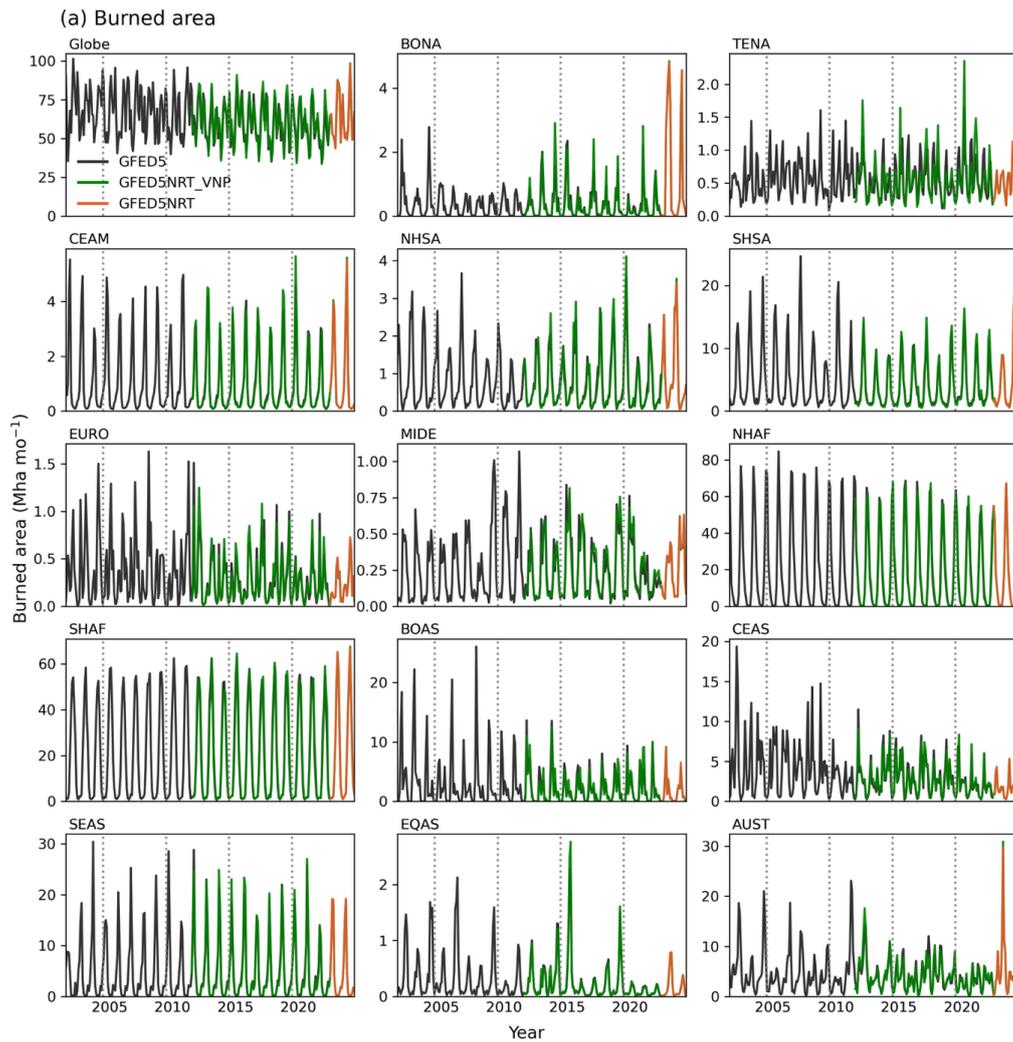


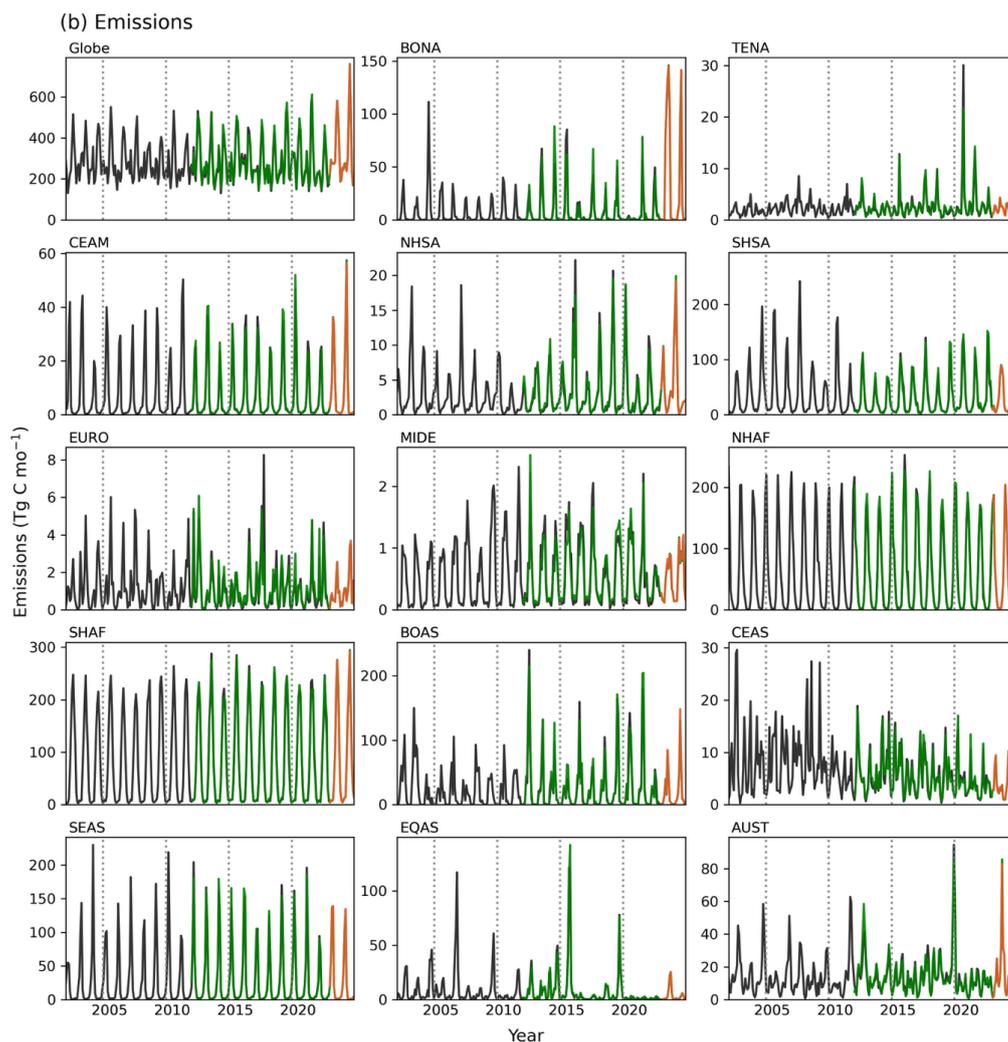
316 and detection efficiency. The contrast arises from slower fire spread and more persistent burning within forests,  
317 combined with under-detection of fast-moving fires in grassland and shrublands. Exceptionally low EFA values occur  
318 in tropical peatlands and deforested regions, where high fuel loads and prolonged smoldering combustion result in  
319 repeated active fire detections over relatively small areas. In contrast, croplands exhibit the highest EFA values among  
320 all land cover types, suggesting that agriculture burning is frequently under-detected, due to short fire duration, small  
321 fire size, low fire intensity, or burning that occurs between VIIRS overpasses (Hall et al., 2016, 2024).

322 Fuel consumption varies systematically by land cover type, consistent with differences in average fuel availability and  
323 biomass density. FC generally decreases from forests to shrublands, grasslands, and croplands, reflecting the declining  
324 gradient in ecosystem biomass. Across most GFED regions, FC values are relatively consistent, with notable  
325 exceptions including elevated FC for peatland fires in Equatorial Asia (EQAS) and deforestation fires in southern-  
326 hemisphere South America (SHSA).

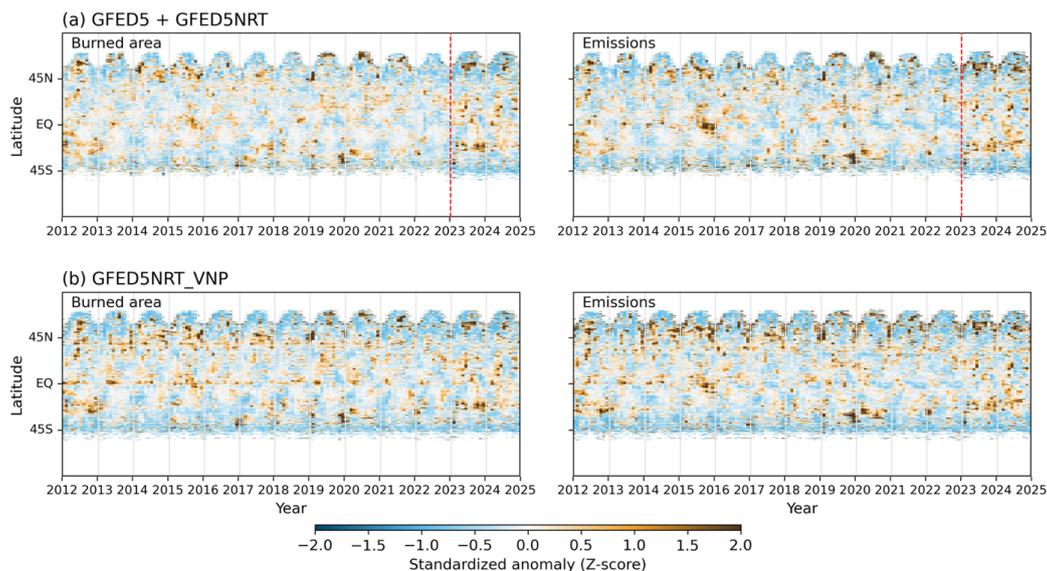
### 327 3.2 Evaluation of GFED5NRT

328 Compared with GFED5, the GFED5NRT monthly time series of burned area and emissions exhibit similar temporal  
329 behavior across all GFED regions, capturing both seasonal cycles and interannual variability (Fig. 4). Comparisons of  
330 annual burned area at 0.25° resolution during 2012–2022 (Fig. S3) demonstrate strong spatial agreement between the  
331 two products. To further assess consistency, we compared monthly latitudinal zonal anomalies of burned area and  
332 emissions—normalized as Z-scores—between GFED5 and GFED5NRT using Hovmöller diagrams (Fig. 5). The close  
333 correspondence of anomaly structures, together with the smooth transition from the GFED5 period (2012–2022) to  
334 the GFED5NRT period (2023–2024), indicates strong internally consistency between the two datasets at large spatial  
335 scales.





**Figure 4.** Monthly time series of regionally summed (a) burned area ( $\text{Mha mo}^{-1}$ ) and (b) fire emissions ( $\text{Tg C mo}^{-1}$ ) from GFED5 (2002-2022; black lines) and GFED5NRT (derived from SNPP and NOAA-20 combined, 2023-2024; orange lines). For comparison, the time series of GFED5NRT derived using SNPP only (GFED5NRT\_VNP, 2012-2024; green lines) is also shown.



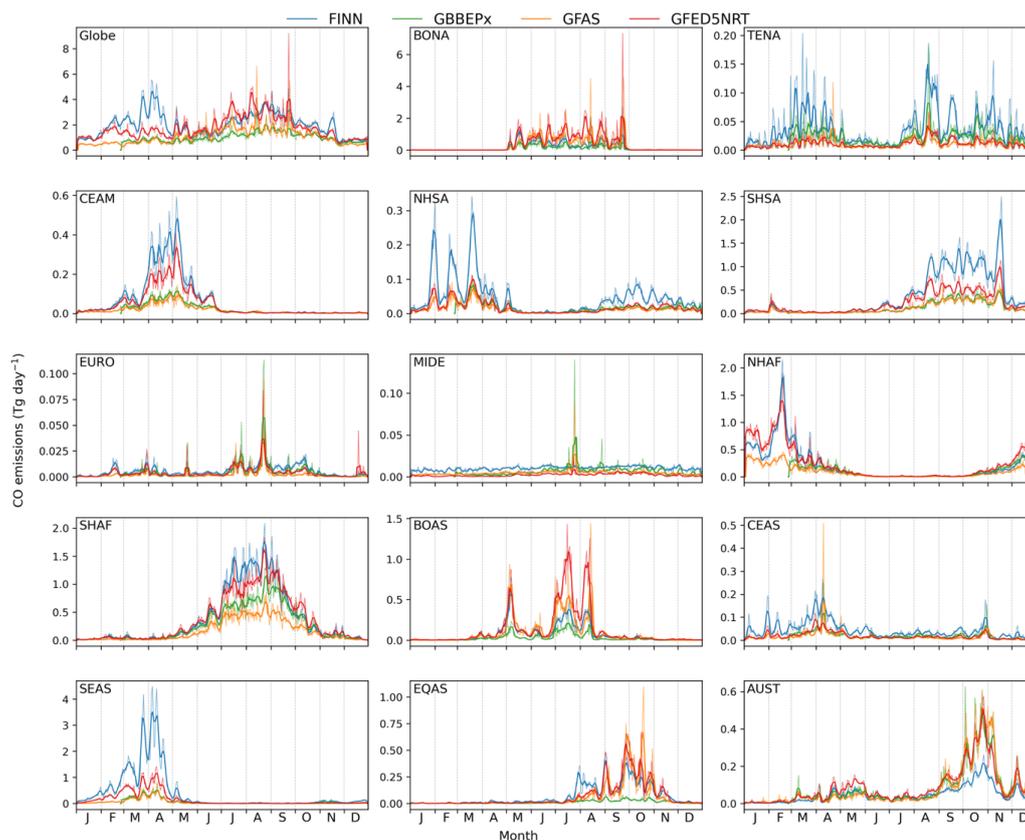
**Figure 5.** Monthly Z-score of burned area (BA) and fire emissions (EM) in each  $0.25^\circ$  latitudinal band. (a) GFED5 (2012–2022) and GFED5NRT (SNPP and NOAA-20 combined version; 2023–2024); (b) GFED5ext derived using SNPP only (GFED5NRT\_VNP) for 2012–2024. The unitless Z-score, or the normalized anomaly, is defined as  $Z = (v - m) / std$ , where  $v$  is the monthly burned area,  $m$  is the climatological monthly mean, and  $std$  is the standard deviation of interannual variability. The same climatological means and standard deviations from GFED5 (2012–2022) were used for the calculations of Z-scores in all three datasets.

337

338 The NASA VIIRS VNP64A1 burned area product, recently introduced as a successor to the long-term MODIS record,  
339 uses a modified mapping algorithm to provide global fire data continuity from 2012 into the coming decade (Giglio  
340 et al., 2025). Here we compare the GFED5NRT burned area estimates with VNP64A1. Overall, the spatial distribution  
341 of GFED5NRT burned area in 2023 shows moderate to good agreement with the VIIRS-based burned area product  
342 (Fig. S4), with GFED5NRT capturing more burned area associated with small fires.

343 When compared with independent burned area datasets derived from high-resolution satellite observations and  
344 regional fire records, total annual burned area estimates for Canada and Brazil from GFED5 and GFED5NRT are of  
345 comparable magnitude and exhibit similar interannual variability (Fig. S5). In Canada, GFED5 and GFED5NRT  
346 estimates are slightly higher than NBAC during extreme fire years (e.g., 2023 and 2024), likely because NBAC  
347 explicitly delineates small unburned islands that may not be resolved at coarser spatial resolutions. In Brazil, GFED5  
348 and GFED5NRT totals generally agree with the INPE AQ1km product, but are substantially higher than MapBiomas,  
349 reflecting well-documented methodological differences among these datasets.

350 Finally, comparisons of daily carbon monoxide (CO) emissions in 2023 with three widely used global fire emissions  
351 inventories—FINN, GBBEPx, and GFAS—show that GFED5NRT captures similar day-to-day variability in global  
352 fire emissions (Fig. 6), although substantial regional differences remain in the absolute magnitude of emissions. These  
353 discrepancies underscore the importance of multi-dataset comparisons for uncertainty characterization, particularly  
354 when applying fire emissions products to air quality modeling, climate research, and carbon budget analyses.

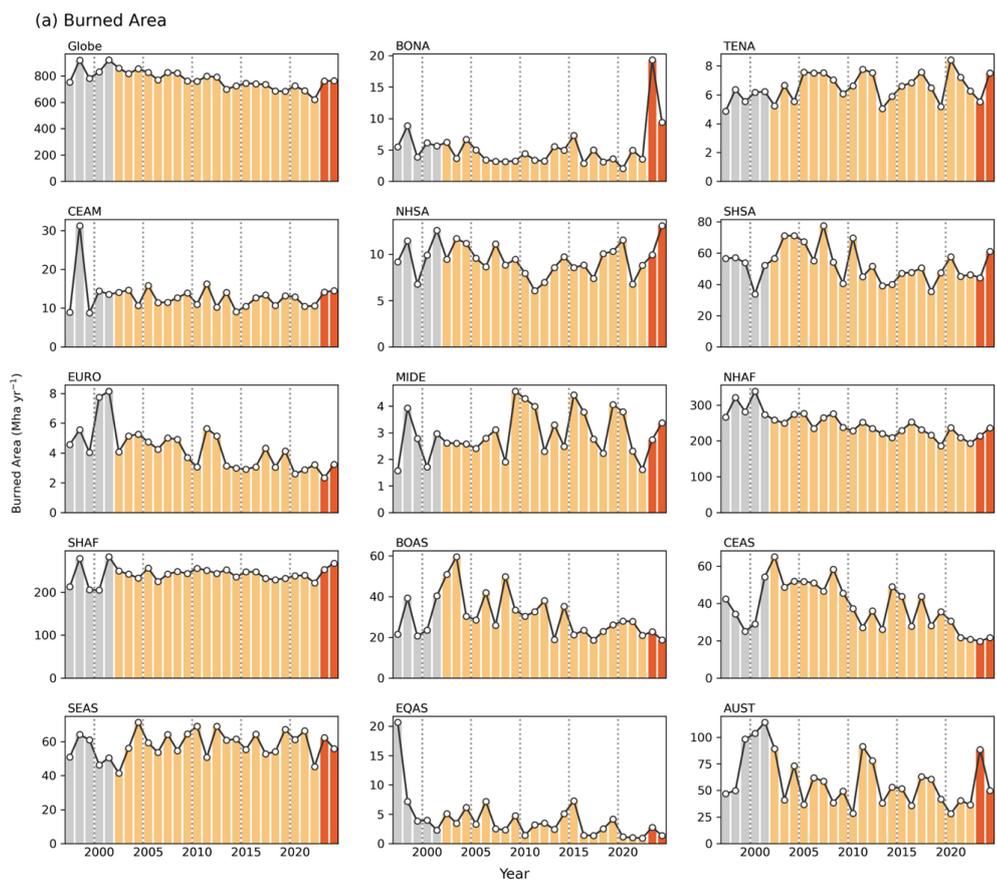


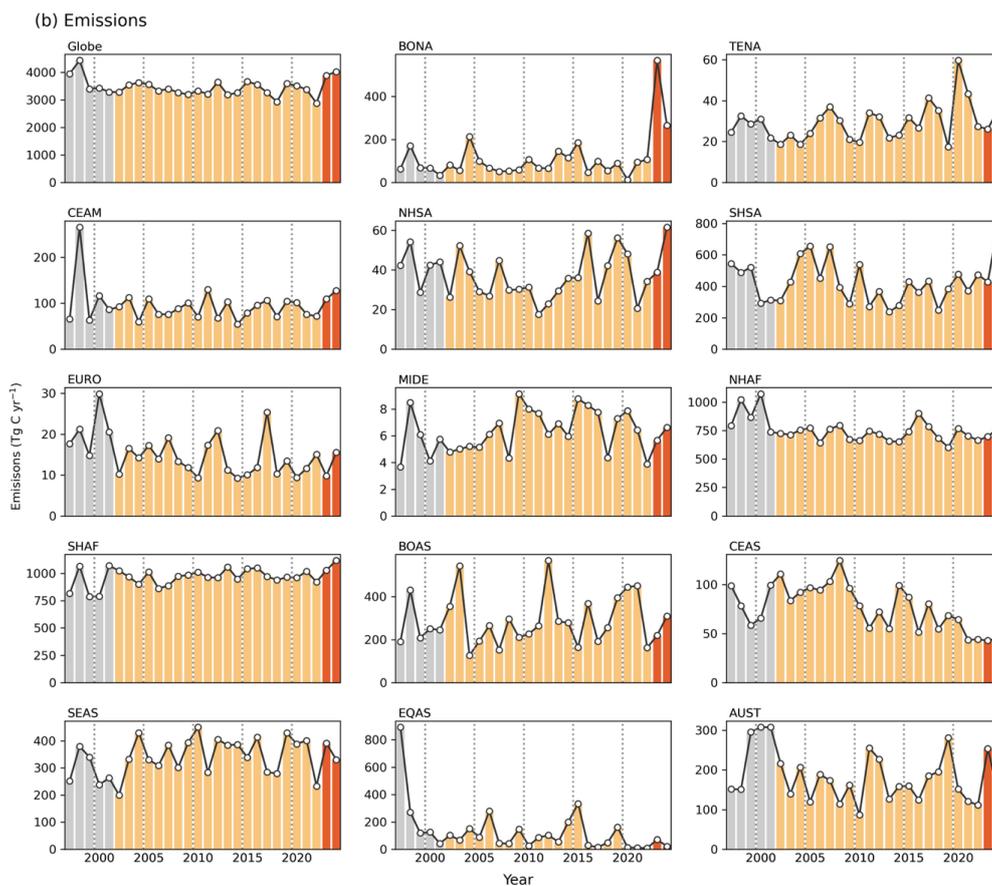
**Figure 6.** Comparison of daily global and regional CO emission totals in 2023 from GFED5NRT with three existing daily fire emissions datasets: the Fire Inventory from NCAR (FINN, v2.5), the Blended Global Biomass Burning Emissions Product (GBBEPx, v3), and the CAMS Global Fire Assimilation System (GFAS, v1.2). Light-colored lines show the original daily time series, and the dark-colored lines show the 5-day smoothed time series.

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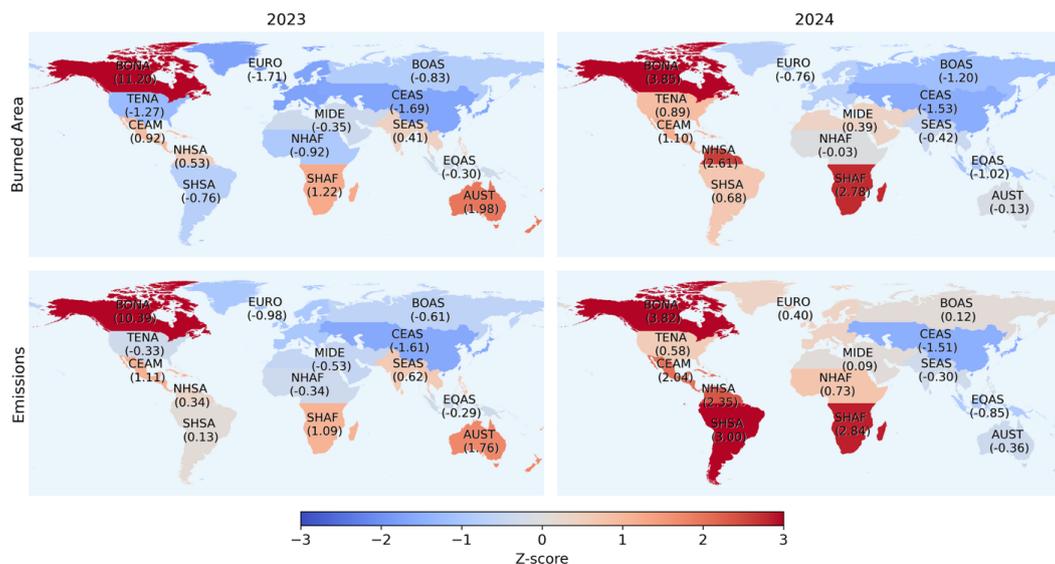
### 356 3.3 Fire burned area and emissions in 2023 and 2024

357 Based on GFED5NRT, global fire emissions are substantially elevated in both 2023 and 2024 relative to the GFED5  
 358 long-term mean for 2002–2022 (Figs. 7 and 8; Table S5). In 2023, the global total fire emissions ( $3.89 \text{ Pg C yr}^{-1}$ ) were  
 359 anomalously high, driven by record-breaking emissions in boreal North America and positive anomalies in Central  
 360 America, southern Africa, and Australia. In 2024, global fire emissions were even higher ( $4.03 \text{ Pg C yr}^{-1}$ ), reflecting  
 361 a second consecutive year of extreme emissions in boreal North America, combined with pronounced positive  
 362 anomalies in South America and southern Africa. Given that global fire emissions were relatively low in 2021 and  
 363 2022, the large positive wildfire emissions anomalies observed in subsequent years likely contributed substantially to  
 364 the anomalously high atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$  growth rate observed during the 2023–2024 ENSO event (Friedlingstein et al.,  
 365 2025).





**Figure 7.** Extended annual time series of regionally summed (a) burned area ( $\text{Mha yr}^{-1}$ ) and (b) fire emissions ( $\text{Tg C yr}^{-1}$ ) from GFED5 for the core period (2002–2022, orange) and the pre-MODIS period (1997–2001, gray), along with the GFED5NRT product (2023–2024, red).



**Figure 8.** Global maps of Z-scores (standardized anomalies) for GFED5NRT burned area and fire emissions in 2023 and 2024. Red and blue colors indicate positive and negative anomalies, respectively. Numbers show the mean Z-scores (normalized using the GFED5 data during 2002–2022) for each of the 14 GFED regions.

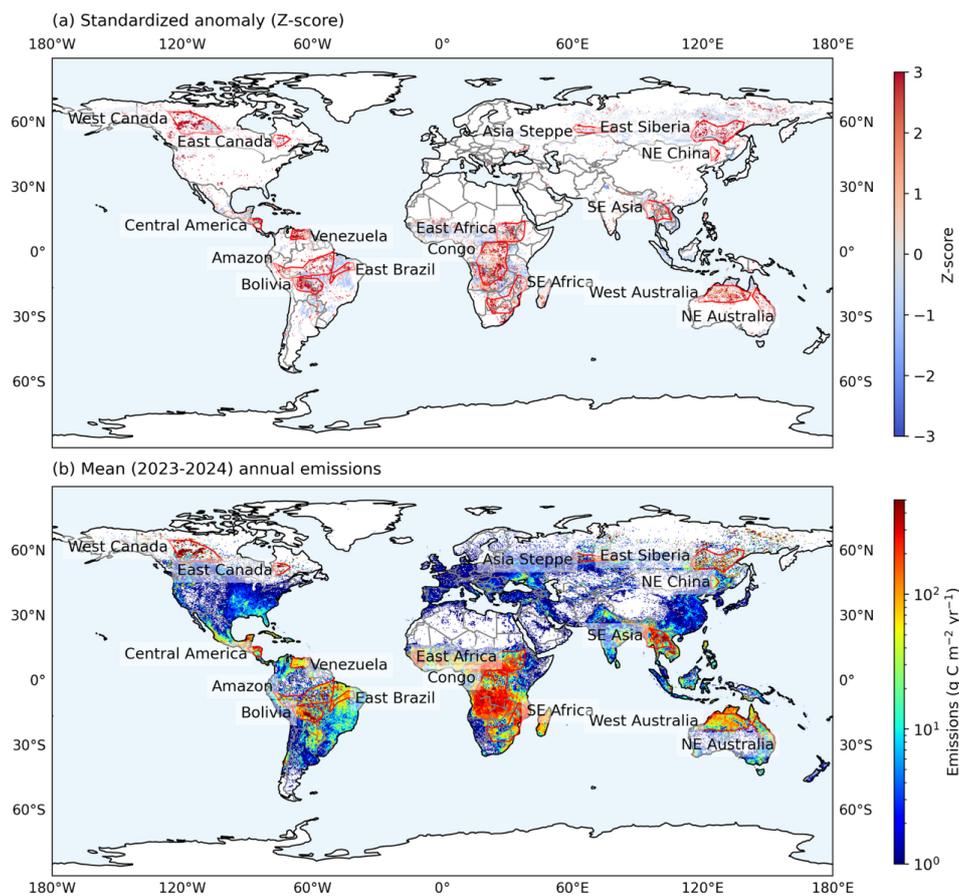
367

368 At a global scale, the inclusion of two additional years of burned area observations from GFED5NRT weakens (but  
 369 does not reverse) the long-term declining trend in burned area observed during the core GFED5 period (Table S5).  
 370 This global decline is dominated by sustained reductions in burned area across northern Africa and boreal and central  
 371 Asia (Fig. 7a). In these regions, burning levels in 2023 and 2024 from GFED5NRT are comparable to those observed  
 372 near the end of the GFED5 record (2020–2022).

373 For emissions, the new GFED5NRT observations for 2023 and 2024 do not change the storyline reported by van der  
 374 Werf et al. (2025) that there is no significant long-term trend in global carbon emissions from fires. Across regions,  
 375 declining emissions trends in equatorial Asia, northern hemisphere Africa and central Asia are balanced by upward  
 376 trends in boreal and temperate North America and southern hemisphere Africa. Within individual regions, a shift in  
 377 fire activity toward ecosystems with higher fuel densities resulted in more positive trends in emissions than in burned  
 378 area trends (Table S5).

### 379 3.4 Recent fire extremes

380 Fire activity exhibited significant spatial heterogeneity, even within individual GFED regions. GFED5NRT enables  
 381 the timely identification of regional extreme fire hotspots and the characterization of fire behavior within these areas.  
 382 Using Z-score based thresholds combined with spatial aggregation techniques (SI text S4), we identified 16 recent  
 383 extreme fire events during 2023–2024 (Fig. 9) and quantified their emissions relative to the 2002–2022 climatology  
 384 (Fig. S6). These events spanned multiple continents and were predominantly concentrated in tropical and boreal forests  
 385 and shrublands. Collectively, the 16 events produced mean annual emissions of 1.9 Pg C during 2023–2024, which is  
 386 about 0.8 Pg C (73%) above the 2002–2022 climatological average over the same regions (Table S6), accounting for  
 387 more than half of global fire emissions during this biennial period.



**Figure 9.** Global maps of (a) standardized anomalies and (b) annual mean fire emissions from GFED5NRT averaged over 2023–2024. Red polygons indicate identified regional fire events during 2023–2024.

388

389 Emissions from individual extreme regions ranged from 5 to 68 standard deviations above their respective  
390 climatological means. The highest relative anomalies, exceeding three times the climatological mean, occurred in  
391 eastern Canada, western Canada, and Bolivia. Several regions, including western Canada, Central America, and  
392 southeastern Siberia, experienced persistent extreme fire activity in both years (Fig. S6). Aggregated emission  
393 anomalies from these extreme regions reached 925 Tg C yr<sup>-1</sup>, more than compensating for negative anomalies in other  
394 regions (-345 Tg C yr<sup>-1</sup>), and resulting in a net positive global emissions anomaly of 463 Tg C yr<sup>-1</sup>, equivalent to 2.15  
395 standard deviations above the climatological mean.

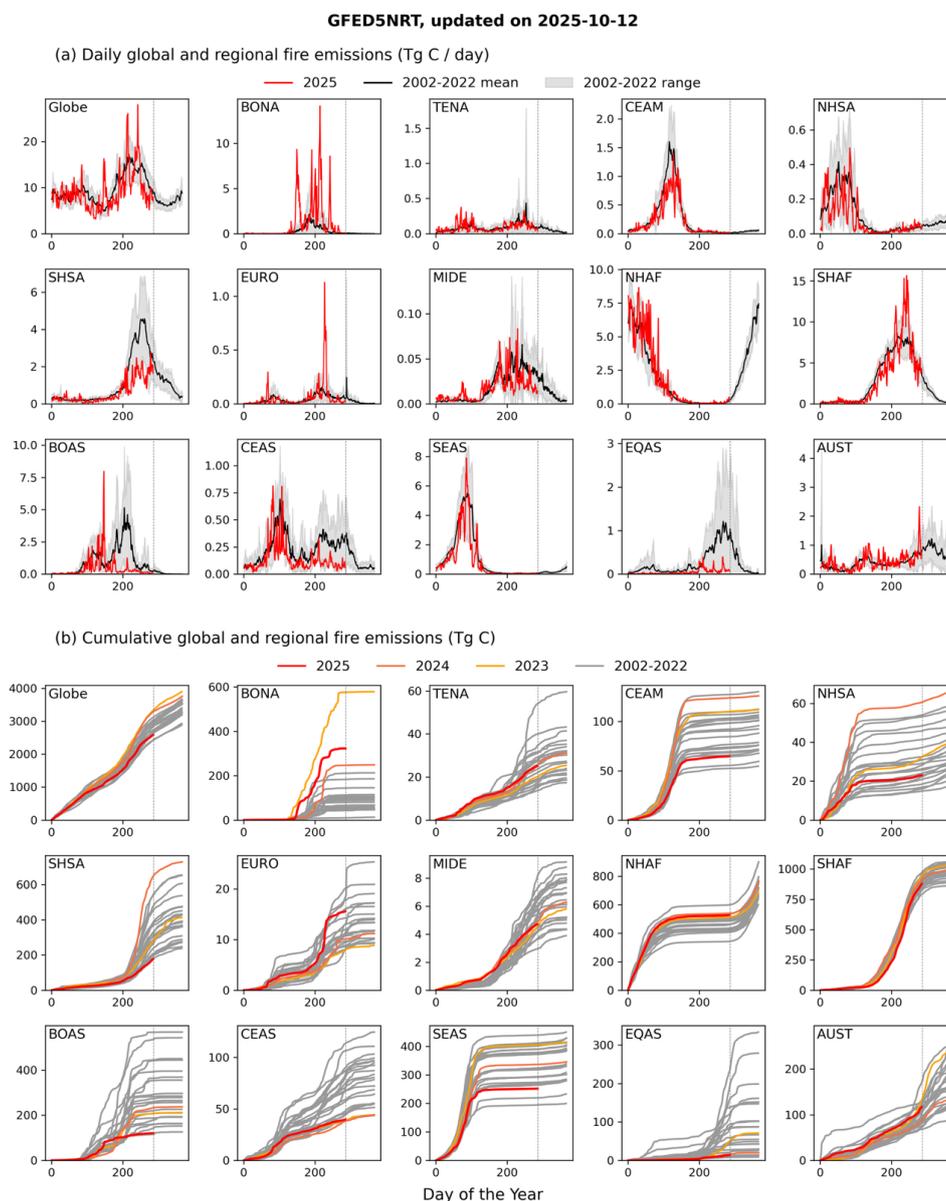
### 396 3.5 Global wildfire situation updated by the GFED5NRT

397 The GFED5NRT dataset enables daily-scale quantification of burned area and fire-related emissions, substantially  
398 enhancing our ability to monitor evolving fire activity and its impacts. By providing timely estimates of burned area  
399 and emissions, GFED5NRT supports applications such as fire danger assessment, simulation and forecasting of  
400 smoke-driven air quality impacts, and rapid response to both direct fire hazards and downstream environmental and  
401 public health risks.



402 Figure 10 illustrates an example operational update, showing daily and cumulative global and regional fire through a  
403 selected date. Figures S7 and S8 further demonstrate the utility of the dataset by highlighting two extreme fire events—  
404 one in BONA (2023) and another in SHSA (2024)—and placing them in the context of historical variability captured  
405 by the GFED5NRT datasets.

406



**Figure 10.** Example summary figures (updated on Oct 12, 2025) automatically generated by the GFED5NRT system. (a) Daily fire emission sums ( $\text{Tg C day}^{-1}$ ) globally and by GFED regions. Red lines show GFED5NRT data for 2025. Black lines and gray areas indicate the historical mean and  $\pm 1$  standard deviation based on 2002-



2022. (b) Cumulative fire emissions up to the reference date. Red, dark orange, orange, and gray lines represent 2025, 2024, 2023, and individual years from 2002–2022, respectively.

407

#### 408 **4. Data availability**

409 The reprocessed 2023–2024 GFED5NRT datasets are publicly archived in the open-access Zenodo repository  
410 (<https://zenodo.org/records/18702700>; Chen et al., 2026). Routinely updated GFED5NRT products, including the  
411 reprocessed 2023–2024 data, are freely accessible at <https://www.globalfiredata.org>. The Python-based framework  
412 used to generate these products is openly available at <https://github.com/ychenzgithub/GFED5NRT>.

#### 413 **5. Conclusions**

414 The accelerating orbital drift and imminent decommission of the Terra and Aqua satellites necessitate fusing fire  
415 records derived from these platforms with other higher-resolution, continuous data streams. The GFED5NRT dataset  
416 presented here represents a first step toward addressing this challenge by providing a temporally consistent, extended  
417 record of burned area and fire emissions derived from VIIRS active-fire observations. GFED5NRT advances the  
418 GFED framework by integrating VIIRS data through a two-step scaling approach that uses region- and biome-specific  
419 effective fire area and fuel consumption look-up tables. This design preserves continuity with the established GFED5  
420 product while extending the record beyond 2022. By combining GFED5 and GFED5NRT, we construct a near-real-  
421 time fire dataset that enables a more robust assessment of recent fire variability at regional and global scales. The new  
422 fire observations from GFED5NRT reveal record-breaking carbon emissions from fires in 2023 in boreal North  
423 America and in 2024 in South America. Our analysis also confirms a significant global decline in burned area since  
424 2002, driven primarily by reduced burning in Northern Hemisphere Africa and boreal and central Asia. However, this  
425 downward trend is likely weaker than previously reported by Andela et al. (2017) and Chen et al. (2023) due to higher  
426 levels of burning in Southern Hemisphere Africa, Australia, and boreal North America in the last two years. Global  
427 fire emissions remain relatively stable (van der Werf et al., 2025), with recent increases in North and South America  
428 balanced by declines in Asia.

429 Despite these advances, several limitations remain. In GFED5NRT, fuel consumption estimates and land-cover  
430 classifications are assumed to be static, which limits accuracy and interpretability in a rapidly evolving fire–climate–  
431 land-use system. In addition, errors in the empirical relationships between VIIRS active fire detections and GFED5  
432 burned area contribute to substantially higher uncertainty in GFED5NRT compared with the original GFED5 time  
433 series. We estimate these additional uncertainties to be on the order of at least 12–45% for burned area, depending on  
434 region (Fig. S3), and therefore urge caution when using GFED5NRT to assess regional-scale trends in fire activity.  
435 The product is expected to be more robust when aggregated over large spatial scales and longer time periods, whereas  
436 analyses at smaller spatial scales (e.g., individual countries or subnational regions) may be associated with  
437 substantially higher uncertainties. Uncertainty is further compounded by the known limitations of using active fire  
438 observations as a proxy for burned area, which include obscuration by cloud cover and thick smoke, and more  
439 fundamentally the instantaneous nature of active fire detections versus the cumulative nature of burned area.

440 Currently, GFED5NRT is implemented at daily temporal resolution based on VIIRS active fire products. However,  
441 many fire-related applications, such as rapid response and smoke transport modeling, require sub-daily information  
442 and short-term forecasts. Previous studies have addressed this need by parameterizing diurnal fire cycles using fire  
443 radiative power observations from geostationary satellites (Andela et al., 2015; Xu et al., 2017), and the standard  
444 GFED5 framework incorporates climatological hourly cycles derived from GOES observations (van der Werf et al.,  
445 2025). More recent efforts have further advanced these approaches by fusing observations from multiple polar-orbiting  
446 and geostationary sensors (Li et al., 2022; Zhang et al., 2012; Zheng et al., 2021). Incorporating such multi-sensor



447 strategies into future GFEDNRT developments would enable estimation of sub-daily fire variability, substantially  
448 enhancing the dataset's value for real-time air quality forecasting and fire behavior monitoring.

449 Another critical next step is the development of a global multi-decade fire reanalysis that harmonizes burned area time  
450 series from MODIS and VIIRS with higher-resolution observations from Sentinel-2 and Landsat. In parallel,  
451 harmonizing surface reflectance time series across MODIS, VIIRS, and Landsat would enable the development of a  
452 dynamic fuels model that explicitly accounts for evolving disturbance regimes, climate variability, and land-use  
453 change over decadal timescales. These needs underscore the importance of sustained investment in VIIRS science  
454 products within the United States. Incorporating complementary land cover datasets, such as those from the Tropical  
455 Moist Forest (Vancutsem et al., 2021) and MapBiomas (Souza et al., 2020; Alencar et al., 2022), also offers substantial  
456 potential to improve estimates of deforestation-related fire emissions. While such an approach would not replace  
457 GFED5NRT, which is designed for rapid assessment, it would likely yield a more temporally homogeneous dataset  
458 better suited for retrospective analyses of long-term trends (e.g., as the backbone for a future GFED6 assessment).

#### 459 **Acknowledgements**

460 We gratefully acknowledge funding support from NASA's Earth Information System Fire Project, Fire Sense  
461 Technology Program (80NSSC24K1823), Fire Sense Implementation Team (80NSSC24K1317), Modelling, Analysis  
462 and Prediction Program (80NSSC21K1362), and Carbon Monitoring System Program (80NSSC25K7211). Additional  
463 support was provided by the US National Science Foundation (RISE-2425932), the US Dept. of Energy Office of  
464 Science RUBISCO Science Focus Area, and the CALIPSO (Carbon Loss In Plants, Soils and Oceans) project, funded  
465 through the generosity of Eric and Wendy Schmidt by recommendation of the Schmidt Science program.

#### 466 **Competing interests**

467 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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