

1                   **Increasing Wind-Driven Wildfire Risk Across**  
2                   **California's Sierra Nevada Mountains**

3                   **Callum Thompson<sup>1</sup>, Charles Jones<sup>1,2</sup>, Leila Carvalho<sup>1,2</sup>, Anna Trugman<sup>1,2</sup>,**  
4                   **Donald D. Lucas<sup>3</sup>, Daisuke Seto<sup>1</sup> and Kevin Varga<sup>1</sup>**

5                                   <sup>1</sup>Earth Research Institute, University of California Santa Barbara

6                                   <sup>2</sup>Department of Geography, University of California Santa Barbara

7                                   <sup>3</sup>Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory

8                   **Key Points:**

- 9                   • Surface easterly downslope wind speeds have increased on the western slopes of  
10                   the Sierra Nevada Mountains.
- 11                   • Increased easterly downslope wind speeds have contributed to more frequent events  
12                   of wind-related fire risk.
- 13                   • California has become increasingly exposed to extreme fire weather conditions, as  
14                   measured by the Canadian Fire-Weather Index.

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Corresponding author: Callum Thompson, [callum-thompson@ucsb.edu](mailto:callum-thompson@ucsb.edu)

## Abstract

Surface winds are an important factor in wildfire growth and the decision-making process of when utility companies shut off power to suppress fire ignitions. However, long-term trends in surface winds and their implications for fire weather have received less attention compared to trends in temperature, humidity, and precipitation. This article uses the ERA5 reanalysis to calculate surface wind trends over California during 1979-2019. We find statistically significant increases in surface easterlies during autumn on the western slopes of the Sierra Nevada Mountains and increases in Hazardous Wind Events of heightened wind-related fire risk. Using the Canadian Fire Weather Index, we also show that wildfire risk has mainly increased over the Sierra Nevada Mountains, indicating that strengthening winds has contributed to a growing risk of wind-driven wildfires in this region compared to 40 years ago.

## Plain Language Summary

Surface winds in California are an important factor in wildfire growth and are one criterion by which utility companies decide whether to shut off powerlines in order to mitigate fire risk. However, long-term changes in surface winds have received less attention in comparison to changes in temperature, humidity, and rainfall. In this article, we use a new weather and climate dataset with a resolution of 31 km to investigate how surface winds have changed over California from 1979 to 2019. We find that wind speeds have distinctly increased on the western slopes of the Sierra Nevada Mountains associated with downslope winds from the east, and that there has been more frequent periods of strong, dry northeasterly winds. Over the same time period, wildfire risk has increased most over the Sierra Nevada Mountains, indicating that stronger winds have contributed to a growing risk of wind-driven wildfires in this region compared to 40 years ago.

## 1 Introduction

Over the past 20 years, California has seen a marked increase in burned forest area, during which time 11 of the 20 largest wildfires in the state's history have occurred (Table S1) (OES, 2018; CalFire, 2020b). Concurrently, recent wildfire seasons have also incurred substantial damage to property and loss of life, with 17 of the 20 most destructive wildfires also occurring during this period (Table S2) (CalFire, 2020a). This increased fre-

46 quency of large and destructive wildfires has often been attributed to a combination of  
47 increasing temperatures (Hayhoe et al., 2004; Hughes et al., 2011; Williams et al., 2019),  
48 decreasing humidity (Hughes et al., 2011), drier fuels (Williams et al., 2019), earlier spring  
49 snow melt (Westerling et al., 2006), and a later onset of autumn precipitation (Goss et  
50 al., 2020).

51 However, high wind speeds are an additional critical factor driving extreme fire weather  
52 conditions. For California, high winds typically occur as downslope Foehn winds dur-  
53 ing fall and winter, originating from high pressure systems in the Great Basin that di-  
54 rect winds towards the U.S. west coast (Jones et al., 2010; Abatzoglou et al., 2013; Werth  
55 et al., 2016; Brewer & Clements, 2020). Over Northern California and the Sierra Nevada  
56 Mountains, these winds are usually called Diablo winds and over Southern California are  
57 known as Santa Ana winds. Sundowner winds over Santa Barbara also share many char-  
58 acteristics of Diablo and Santa Ana winds, but are more frequent during spring, are strongly  
59 tied to the diurnal cycle of radiative surface energy input, and are typically associated  
60 with pressure gradients conducive to north—south flow over the Santa Ynez Mountains  
61 (Hatchett et al., 2018; Duine et al., 2019; Carvalho et al., 2020; Jones et al., 2021). De-  
62 spite these regional differences, these strong winds have each played a devastating role  
63 in many of California’s most infamous wildfires by damaging powerlines and rapidly fan-  
64 ning the resulting fire. Santa Ana and Sundowner winds fanned the Thomas Fire (2017)  
65 which burned 281,893 acres, the largest fire in California’s history at the time (Fovell &  
66 Gallagher, 2018; Kolden & Henson, 2019). In the same year, the Tubbs Fire (2017) burned  
67 36,807 acres over a month that saw hurricane-force Diablo winds and subsequently be-  
68 came the most deadly wildfire in the state’s history (Nauslar et al., 2018; Coen et al.,  
69 2018). However, this record was again broken the next year when Diablo winds incited  
70 the Camp Fire (2018), burning 70,000 acres in 24 hours and 153,336 acres in total (Brewer  
71 & Clements, 2020; Mass & Ovens, 2021). The alarming rate at which these devastating  
72 wind-driven wildfires has occurred raises the question of how surface winds have changed  
73 over recent decades. Furthermore, Public Safety Power Shutoffs (PSPSs), whereby util-  
74 ity companies shut off power lines during periods of heightened fire risk, incorporate wind  
75 speed as one criterion when determining fire risk (Abatzoglou et al., 2020). This soci-  
76 etal aspect provide additional motivation to analyze changes in surface winds, not just  
77 to better understand the changing meteorological landscape, but to better inform PSPS  
78 practices, too.

79 Despite the urgency to better understand changes in the wind landscape and wind-  
80 driven fire events, however, such studies are relatively sparse and a state-wide picture  
81 is yet to emerge. In one study, Liu et al. (2020) found no discernible trend in either Di-  
82 ablo maximum wind speeds or frequency in the ERA5 reanalysis over the San Francisco  
83 Bay. For Southern California, Guzman-Morales et al. (2016) described a modest increase  
84 in Santa Ana wind intensity during 1948-2012, while Rolinski et al. (2019) reported a  
85 marked increase in Santa Ana wind frequency after 2007 in a downscaling of the North  
86 American Regional Reanalysis (NARR). Yet, one region where trends in wind speed and  
87 high wind events remains unexamined is the Sierra Nevada Mountains, despite its ex-  
88 panding wildland-urban interface risking further fire-related societal cost (Hammer Roger B.  
89 & L., 2007; Mass & Ovens, 2021).

90 Therefore, to build a state-wide picture of changing surface winds over California  
91 we address three questions in this study: 1) Where are wind speed trends changing sig-  
92 nificantly?; 2) What are the wind direction trends associated with wind speed trends?;  
93 3) Where has the frequency of high wind events changed significantly? These trends were  
94 calculated for the most occurrent wildfire months of June-July-August (JJA) and September-  
95 October-November (SON) over 1979–2019 using the ERA5 reanalysis (Hersbach et al.,  
96 2020). ERA5 has a grid spacing of approximately 31 km x 31 km, is the first reanaly-  
97 sis with hourly output, and includes the Canadian Fire Weather Index as a reanalysis  
98 variable, one of the most sophisticated metrics of fire weather risk used operationally world-  
99 wide (Field et al., 2015; Vitolo et al., 2020). Using ERA5, we analyzed trends in wind  
100 speed, wind direction, high wind events, and the Fire Weather Index to elicit the role  
101 of surface winds in contributing to California’s evolving wildfire landscape. This anal-  
102 ysis is presented in the rest of this article as follows: section 2 details the methods of how  
103 trends in wind speed, wind direction and high wind events were calculated, section 3 presents  
104 trends in wind speed (section 3.1), wind direction (section 3.2), Hazardous Wind Events  
105 (section 3.3), and wildfire conditions (section 3.4). Finally, conclusions are summarized  
106 in section 4.

## 107 **2 Data and Methods**

108 In this study, we used the ERA5 reanalysis which has a native grid spacing of approx-  
109 imately 31 km. Although this grid spacing is still too coarse to accurately resolve winds  
110 over local complex topography, ERA5 is still well correlated with observed winds over

111 complex terrain ( $> 0.77$ ), captures the diurnal cycle well, and most closely resembles  
112 the observed interannual variability compared to four other reanalysis products (Ramon  
113 et al., 2019; Jourdier, 2020). Therefore, despite its resolution restrictions, ERA5 is still  
114 well suited to an analysis of long-term wind speed trends.

115 These trends were calculated from the reanalysis as follows: hourly 10-meter zonal  
116 and meridional wind components were used to calculate the 10-meter wind speed dur-  
117 ing 1979–2019 for JJA and SON. Seasonal averages of daytime (0600–1700 PST) max-  
118 imum winds and night-time (1800–0500 PST) maximum winds were then calculated at  
119 each grid point with linear trends in these seasonal averages calculated using the Theil-  
120 Sen estimator with statistical significance determined with Mann-Kendall testing at the  
121 95% level (Wilks, 2011).

122 To elicit the wind direction associated with wind speed trends, we also calculated  
123 daytime and night-time trends in zonal and meridional wind components. These com-  
124 ponents were separated by their positive and negative directions to determine trends in  
125 northerly, southerly, westerly, and easterly winds, calculated here as trends in seasonal  
126 averages of daily maximum southerly and westerly winds, and in seasonal averages of  
127 daily minimum northerly and easterly winds. Trends and their significance were again  
128 determined using the Theil-Sen estimator and Mann-Kendall testing.

129 To examine how winds have changed year-to-year in historically fire prone regions  
130 of California, time series in seasonal averages of daily maximum winds were calculated  
131 for the following three regions: Northern California (39–41.5 N and 120.5–123.5 W), the  
132 Sierra Nevada Mountains (36.25–38.5 N and 117.5–120 W), and Southern California (32.7–  
133 35 N and 115–119 W). These regions were chosen due to their wind trends, historical prone-  
134 ness to wildfires, and representativeness of distinct vegetation types that are critical in  
135 determining wildfire behavior (Williams et al., 2019). For each region, daily maximum  
136 winds above 304 m (1000 ft) were extracted to emphasize winds over complex terrain  
137 and averaged for each season over 1979–2019 to construct the time series. Time series  
138 were then subtracted from their 1979–2019 average to get the anomaly with trends cal-  
139 culated using the Theil-Sen estimator.

140 Furthermore, to determine whether there has been a change in the frequency of high  
141 wind events associated with heightened wind-driven fire risk, we investigated the frequency  
142 of Hazardous Winds Events (HWE) associated with two relevant wind systems affect-

143 ing California: Santa Ana and Diablo winds. Since both wind regimes are associated with  
144 strong, dry northeasterly winds, a HWE was defined at each grid point when

- 145 1. the 10-m hourly wind speed was above the 1979–2019 75th percentile wind speed;
- 146 2. the 10-m wind direction (calculated from 10-m zonal and meridional winds) was  
147 from the northeast quadrant (i.e., 0–90° );
- 148 3. the 2-m relative humidity was below the 1979–2019 25th percentile relative hu-  
149 midity;
- 150 4. these conditions persisted for at least 6 h;
- 151 5. events were separated by at least 12 h.

152 We chose percentile-based thresholds over fixed-limit thresholds for the wind and  
153 humidity criteria, as ERA5 underestimates wind speeds over complex terrain (Jourdier,  
154 2020) and so may not resolve typical Diablo and Santa Ana wind speeds. Using percentile-  
155 based criteria for winds and humidity permits ‘strong’ winds to be defined relative to  
156 what the reanalysis can represent and dry conditions to be defined relative to the local  
157 climate. Similar criteria have been used to characterize Diablo and Santa Ana winds (Guzman-  
158 Morales & Gershunov, 2019; Liu et al., 2020) and, for the criteria used here, monthly  
159 averages of the number of HWE within California over 1979–2019 produced the expected  
160 seasonal cycle with a HWE peak over autumn and winter (Figure S1). Additionally, time  
161 series for regions showing significant HWE trends were calculated by averaging the num-  
162 ber of HWE within each region for a given season during 1979–2019. Time series were  
163 then standardized by subtracting their average and dividing by their standard deviation  
164 to illustrate trends in above- and below-average seasons in the number of HWE.

165 Finally, wind trends were put in the context of California’s changing wildfire risk  
166 by calculating trends in the Canadian Fire-Weather Index (FWI) (Field et al., 2015; Vi-  
167 tolo et al., 2020). This index aggregates temperature, relative humidity, 24-hour precip-  
168 itation, and wind speed, as well as forest-floor moisture to quantify wildfire risk. Fire  
169 Weather Indices greater than 30 are considered “Extreme” and are described qualita-  
170 tively by the Canadian Wildland Fire Information System as “Fast-spreading, high-intensity  
171 crown fire, very difficult to control. Suppression actions limited to flanks, with only in-  
172 direct actions possible against the fire’s head.” (Field et al., 2015) and references therein).  
173 The ERA5 FWI therefore provides a near all-encompassing assessment of wildfire risk  
174 and was used to identify where this risk has changed most over California.

### 3 Results

#### 3.1 Trends in Wind Speed

During JJA we found daytime increasing wind speeds in the Central Valley and Mojave Desert and decreasing winds speeds across the Mendocino Range in northern California (Figure 1a). Significant decreasing winds speeds were also found over the Southern California Bight throughout JJA and SON and were insensitive to the diurnal cycle. (Figure 1a,b,c,d). Instead trends during JJA were more sensitive to the diurnal cycle over land, with widespread significant increasing wind speeds at night over southern California, the Sierra Nevada Mountains (and indeed much of the Intermountain West) (Figure 1b).

Increasing wind speeds over the Sierra Nevada Mountains were even more prominent during SON when they span a narrow corridor on the mountains' western slopes (Figure 1c,d). Trends here highlighted a strengthening of approximately  $0.7 \text{ m s}^{-1}$  in night-time winds over the total 41-year period (Figure 1d). Furthermore, wind speed distributions were collated at grid points with statistically significant trends between  $38.5\text{--}36.25 \text{ N}$  and  $117.5\text{--}120.5 \text{ W}$  during 1979–1998 and 1999–2018; these distributions showed that the 50th percentile wind speed increased by 4.4%, the 95th percentile increased by 3.1%, and there was an overall higher probability of  $1\text{--}4 \text{ m s}^{-1}$  winds (Figure S2). Although increases are most apparent for weaker winds, changes in stronger winds may be underestimated due to the ERA5's underestimation of winds over complex terrain (Jourhier, 2020). Still, the reanalysis indicates a robust trend towards stronger winds over the Sierra Nevada Mountains where there is a growing wildland-urban interface and where high-elevation wildfires have become increasingly frequent (Schwartz et al., 2015; Alizadeh et al., 2021).

To examine how wind speeds have changed year-to-year, time series in anomalies of seasonally averaged daily maximum winds were also constructed for Northern California, the Sierra Nevada Mountains, and coastal Southern California. Over Northern California, wind speed changes were not statistically significant and tended toward below-average wind speeds during JJA and toward above-average winds during SON (Figures S3a,b), particularly from the early 2000s during SON. Over the Sierra Nevada Mountains, we find little change in maximum wind speeds during JJA (Figure S3c), but a statistically significant increase during SON (Figure S3d), again with a shift toward above-average

207 seasons from the early 2000s. Although there is no statistically significant trend in max-  
208 imum wind speeds for Southern California, six successive summers of above-average winds  
209 occurred over 2014–2019 and five successive autumns of above-average winds over 2015–  
210 2019 (Figure S3e,f). Such successive periods of year-on-year high winds increase the risk  
211 of wind-driven fires by expediting structural fatigue in powerlines and the surround-  
212 ing vegetation (Mitchell, 2013).

### 213 **3.2 Trends in Wind Direction**

214 During JJA, weaker daytime maximum winds seen over the Mendocino Range were as-  
215 sociated with a significantly weaker southwesterly flow (Figure 2b,c,g), winds that cli-  
216 matologically prevail over northwestern California (Figure S4a). Trends elsewhere dur-  
217 ing JJA generally indicated a strengthening of the climatological summer winds, with  
218 enhanced westerlies over the Mojave Desert (Figures 2c,g) and enhanced northwesterly  
219 flow in the Central Valley (Figures 2a,c,e,g). During SON, we also found northerlies strength-  
220 ened over the Sacramento Valley (Figure 2i,m) and easterlies strengthened over north-  
221 eastern and southern California (Figure 2l,p). That these trends have also been found  
222 at 80-m in NARR winds (Holt & Wang, 2012), a reanalysis with an identical resolution  
223 to ERA5, lends credence to their veracity.

224 Wind component trends further revealed an amplification of diurnal mountain winds  
225 throughout JJA and SON. On the western slopes of the Sierra Nevada Mountains, up-  
226 slope westerlies strengthened during the day (Figure 2c,k), while downslope easterlies  
227 strengthened at night (Figures 2h,p), most prominently where the slopes are steepest in  
228 the south of the range. A similar enhancement of diurnal mountain winds is also seen  
229 during SON on the western slopes of the Mendocino Range in northwest California (Fig-  
230 ures 2k,p). Such an amplification is symptomatic of the snow-albedo feedback whereby  
231 increased snowmelt enhances differential heating between the mountains' lower and up-  
232 per slopes, strengthening upslope flow during the day, followed by radiative cooling and  
233 strengthening downslope flow at night. This process has been demonstrated in numer-  
234 ical downscaling experiments for the Himalaya Mountains (Norris & Cannon, 2020) and  
235 in upslope winds over the Rocky Mountains (Letcher & Minder, 2017b, 2017a). How-  
236 ever, strengthening easterlies may also be related to increasing mean sea level pressure  
237 (MSLP) found over the Great Basin and decreasing MSLP over coastal California, fa-  
238 voring southwesterly synoptic winds (Figure S5). Further examination beyond the scope

239 of this study is, therefore, required to disentangle the synoptic- vs local-scale physical  
240 mechanisms driving these trends.

241 Another prominent trend identified was in stronger northerly flow (Figure 2a,e,i,m)  
242 associated with the climatological California coastal jet (Figure S4) adjacent to stronger  
243 southeasterly flow in the Southern California Bight (Figures 2j,l,n,p). This pattern in-  
244 dicates an enhancement of the Catalina Eddy, a local cyclonic circulation whose causes  
245 are still debated, but have been attributed to mountain waves over the San Rafael Moun-  
246 tains creating a north–south pressure gradient over the bight (Bosart, 1983), and con-  
247 vergence from onshore and offshore flow creating positive vorticity that is advected from  
248 the north (Kanamitsu et al., 2013). The eddy is typically characterized by a cool ma-  
249 rine boundary layer with low cloud and fog which can aid fire suppression (Thompson  
250 et al., 1997), indicating another way in which wind trends may have influenced fire weather  
251 conditions.

### 252 **3.3 Trends in Hazardous Wind Events**

253 Trends in wind direction revealed a marked increase in easterlies over much of northeast-  
254 ern California, the Sierra Nevada Mountains in particular, and southern California. As  
255 these easterlies are suggestive of downslope Diablo and Santa Ana winds, we investigated  
256 whether Hazardous Wind Events have changed significantly over recent decades. Haz-  
257 ardous Wind Events were defined as strong, dry, northeasterly winds lasting at least 6 h,  
258 where ‘strong’ is defined as a wind speed above its grid point 75th percentile wind speed  
259 and ‘dry’ is defined as a relative humidity below its grid point 25th percentile relative  
260 humidity.

261 HWE trends were largely negligible over northern California during both JJA and  
262 SON (Figures 3a,b), consistent with Liu et al. (2020), who investigated Diablo wind trends  
263 in the ERA5 under similar criteria. However, significant increasing trends were found  
264 on the western slopes of the Sierra Nevada Mountains and have occurred more frequently  
265 since the early 2000s (Figure 3c), with the autumn of 2018 standing out as a particu-  
266 larly above-average season which also saw the Camp Fire (2018). Additionally, HWE in-  
267 creased significantly over coastal southern California across the Transverse Ranges and  
268 Santa Ana Mountains with a marked uptick after 2006 (Figure 3b,d). Although this re-  
269 sult was somewhat surprising given the relatively weaker albeit significant wind trends

270 in this region, Rolinski et al. (2019) reported a remarkably similar result in a climatol-  
271 ogy of Santa Ana winds. However, given the emerging consensus for Santa Ana wind fre-  
272 quency to steadily decline over the 21st century (Miller & Schlegel, 2006; Hughes et al.,  
273 2011; Li et al., 2016; Guzman-Morales & Gershunov, 2019) the uptick in Santa Ana winds  
274 after 2006 observed here may only represent natural variability rather than a long-term  
275 trend. Furthermore, given the relatively weaker wind speed trends over coastal South-  
276 ern California, we suspect a drying trend has substantially contributed to increases in  
277 HWE.

278 To elicit the effect of long-term drying, we varied the definition of a Hazardous Wind  
279 Event, dropping one-at-a-time the wind speed, relative humidity, and wind direction cri-  
280 teria. That is, by considering independently events of 1) strong, dry winds, 2) strong,  
281 northeasterly winds, and 3) dry, northeasterly winds (Figures S6–8). Trends over coastal  
282 Southern California were particularly sensitive to these criteria, appearing only when all  
283 three conditions were included. However, over the Sierra Nevada Mountains, trends re-  
284 mained statistically significant in each case with only some variation in the latitudinal  
285 extent of significant trends. Indeed, for dry northeasterly winds, trends in HWE were  
286 remarkably similar to trends in night-time strengthening easterlies over the Sierra Nevada  
287 Mountains (compare Figure 2p with Figure S8b), indicating that dry northeasterly winds  
288 substantially contribute to the trends seen in Figures 1c,d in this region. Similarly, trends  
289 in time series of the average number of Hazardous Wind Events were only positive when  
290 relative humidity was considered (Figures S6c,S7c, and 8c), further indicating the im-  
291 portance of drying in the number of HWE. Hence, increasing winds over the Sierra Nevada  
292 Mountains are consistent with increases in HWE, but are also substantially driven by  
293 drying.

### 294 **3.4 Trends in Wildfire Conditions**

295 To put wind trends in the context of changing wildfire risk, we examined trends in 2-  
296 m temperature, 2-m relative humidity, and the Canadian Fire Weather Index during SON  
297 (Figure 4). Daily maximum 2-m temperature increased across almost all of California,  
298 and prominently within the Central Valley, the the Sierra Nevada Mountains, and coastal  
299 Southern California (Figure 4a). Warming in these regions was also associated with sig-  
300 nificant drying (Figure 4b). This pattern of warming and drying corresponds to statis-  
301 tically significant increases in FWI across virtually the entire state, with the largest in-

302 creases confined to the Sierra Nevada Mountains (Figure 4c). Given the concurrent trends  
303 in wind speed and HWE in this region, it seems likely that strengthening winds, in ad-  
304 dition to warming and drying, have contributed to heightened fire risk over the Sierra  
305 Nevada, yet their relative contribution to FWI trends remains to be quantified. Although  
306 such an analysis is forgone here, we find that seasonally averaged winds show moderate  
307 correlation with seasonally averaged FWI during JJA, especially over the Sierra Nevada  
308 (Figure S9), suggesting wind speeds may make a larger contribution to FWI during sum-  
309 mer.

310 Further to the heightened fire risk over the Sierra Nevada, we examined two quan-  
311 tities for the entire state: the daily 90th percentile of Extreme Fire Weather Indices (where  
312 extreme FWI are those exceeding 30) and the daily fraction of California covered by these  
313 indices. Averaging indices in bins of five successive autumns over 1979–2018 (i.e., 1979–  
314 1983, 1984–1988 etc.) shows increasing trends in both quantities (Figure 4d). That is,  
315 more of California has become exposed to extreme wildfire risk, increasing from 45% of  
316 the state over 1979–1983 to 58% over 2014–2018, with differences in sequential 5-year  
317 averages statistically significant from 1989–1993 onward (Table S3). Hence, while fire  
318 risk is increasing most over the Sierra Nevada Mountains, California as a whole is also  
319 becoming increasingly exposed to extreme wildfire conditions.

## 320 4 Conclusions

321 We examined summer and autumn surface wind trends over California in the ERA5 re-  
322 analysis during 1979–2019. The most prominent fire-related trends identified here were  
323 in statistically significant increasing easterlies on the western slopes of the Sierra Nevada  
324 Mountains that were associated with a 3.1% increase in 95th percentile wind speeds. As-  
325 sociated with these increased wind speeds, we also found statistically significant increases  
326 in Hazardous Wind Events of strong, dry, northeasterly winds over the Sierra Nevada  
327 Mountains, however drying also appears to be a substantial contributor to the trend. Wind  
328 trends also indicated a stronger diurnal circulation over the Sierra Nevada Mountains  
329 where the mountains are steepest in the south of the range, with strengthening upslope  
330 westerlies during the day and strengthening downslope easterlies at night. This aspect  
331 requires further investigation and will be the topic of future work. Indeed, given the many  
332 factors that influence wind trends (e.g., changes in regional circulation patterns, land use,  
333 surface roughness, observations and assimilation errors (Ramon et al., 2019), an attri-

334      bution analysis of the trends found here is beyond the scope of this study. Nevertheless,  
335      wind trends identified here indicated an increased risk of wind-driven wildfires in a re-  
336      gion with a growing wildland-urban interface.

337           Drawing from time series of seasonally averaged maximum winds historically fire  
338      prone region, we also found that while wind speeds have not changed drastically over the  
339      past 41 years, there has been a modest shift towards above-average autumn maximum  
340      winds over Northern California and the Sierra Nevada Mountains since the early 2000s.  
341      While wind speed trends were not statistically significant for Southern California, the  
342      region experienced six consecutive summers of above-average maximum wind speeds dur-  
343      ing 2014–2019 and five consecutive autumns of above-average maximum wind speeds dur-  
344      ing 2015–2019, coinciding with multiple record-breaking wind-driven wildfires.

345           Finally, wind trends were put in the context of California’s changing wildfire land-  
346      scape by analyzing trends in the Canadian Fire Weather Index. We found that Califor-  
347      nia has been exposed to increasingly extreme indices over the period of study, increas-  
348      ing from an average of 45% of the state during 1979–1984 to 58% during 2014–2018. Fur-  
349      thermore, autumn fire weather trends have increased greatest and significantly over the  
350      Sierra Nevada Mountains where significantly strengthening winds and more frequent Haz-  
351      ardous Wind Events were identified. We therefore propose that surface winds have con-  
352      tributed to increased wildfire risk over the Sierra Nevada Mountains, making them more  
353      susceptible to wind-driven wildfires compared to 40 years ago.

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365 and the ERA5-based Canadian Fire Weather Index data, as described in Vitolo et al.  
 366 (2020), is available at <https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/cdsapp#!/dataset/cems-fire-historical?tab=overview>.

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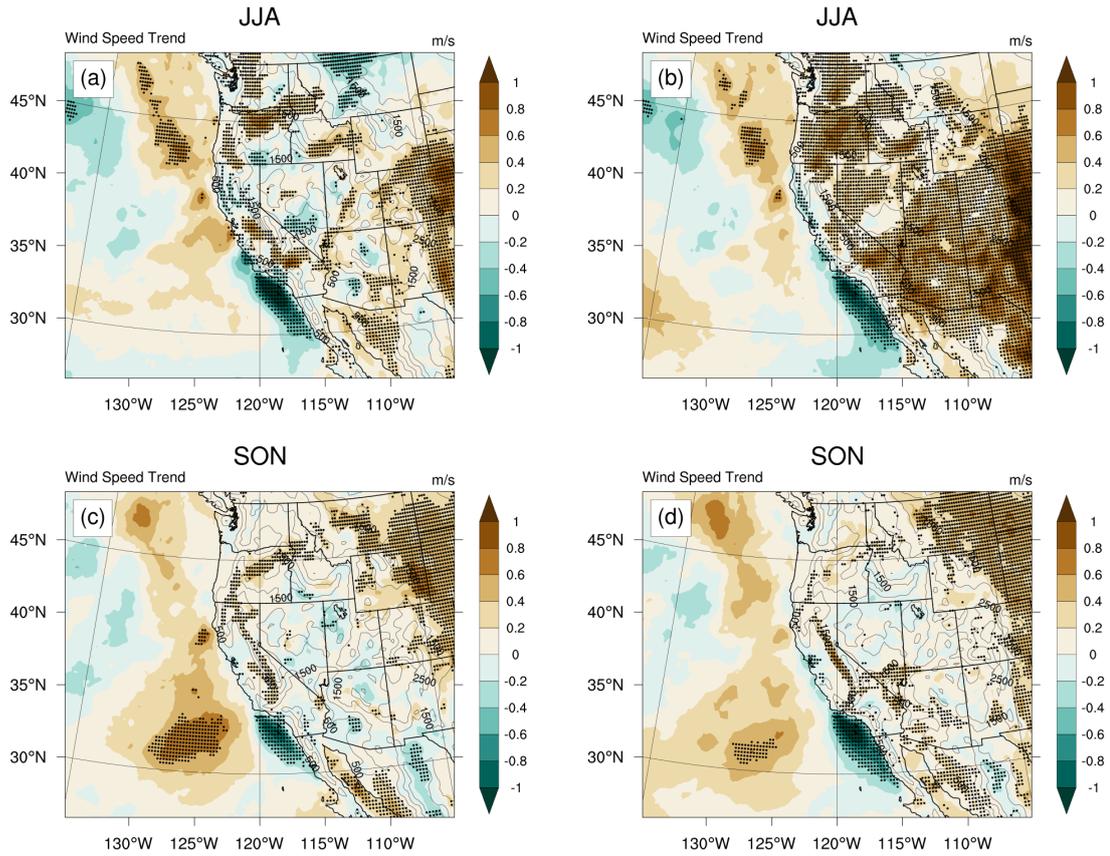
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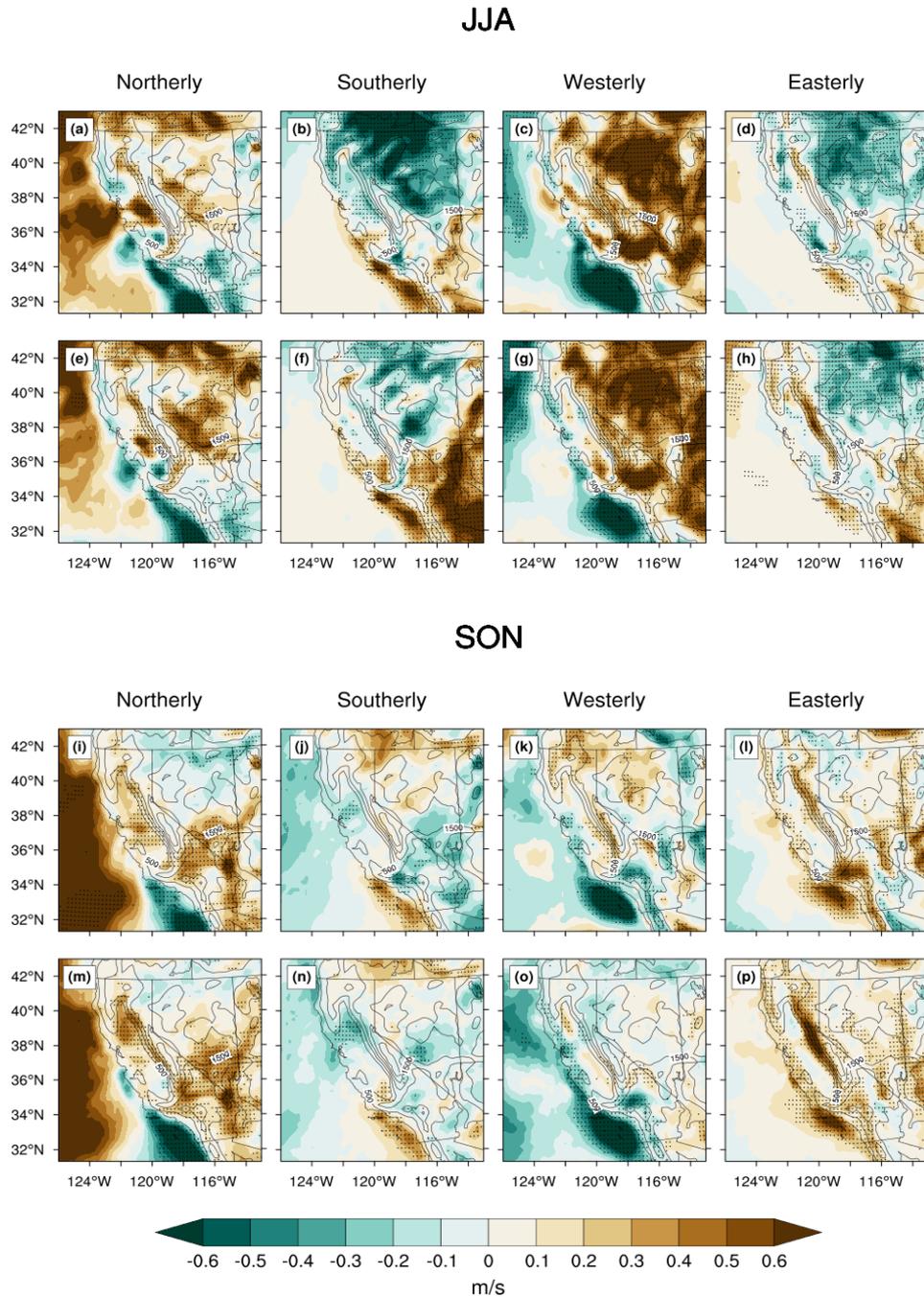
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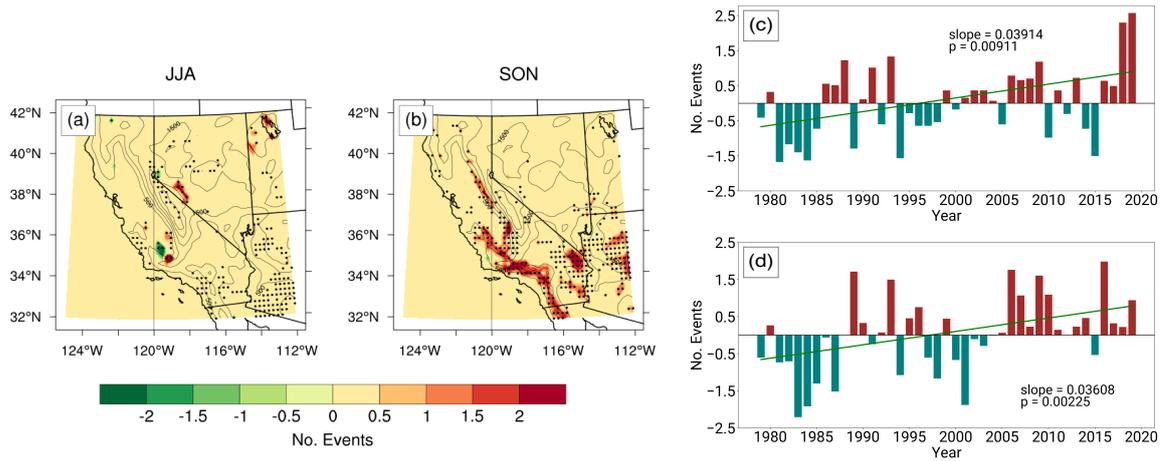
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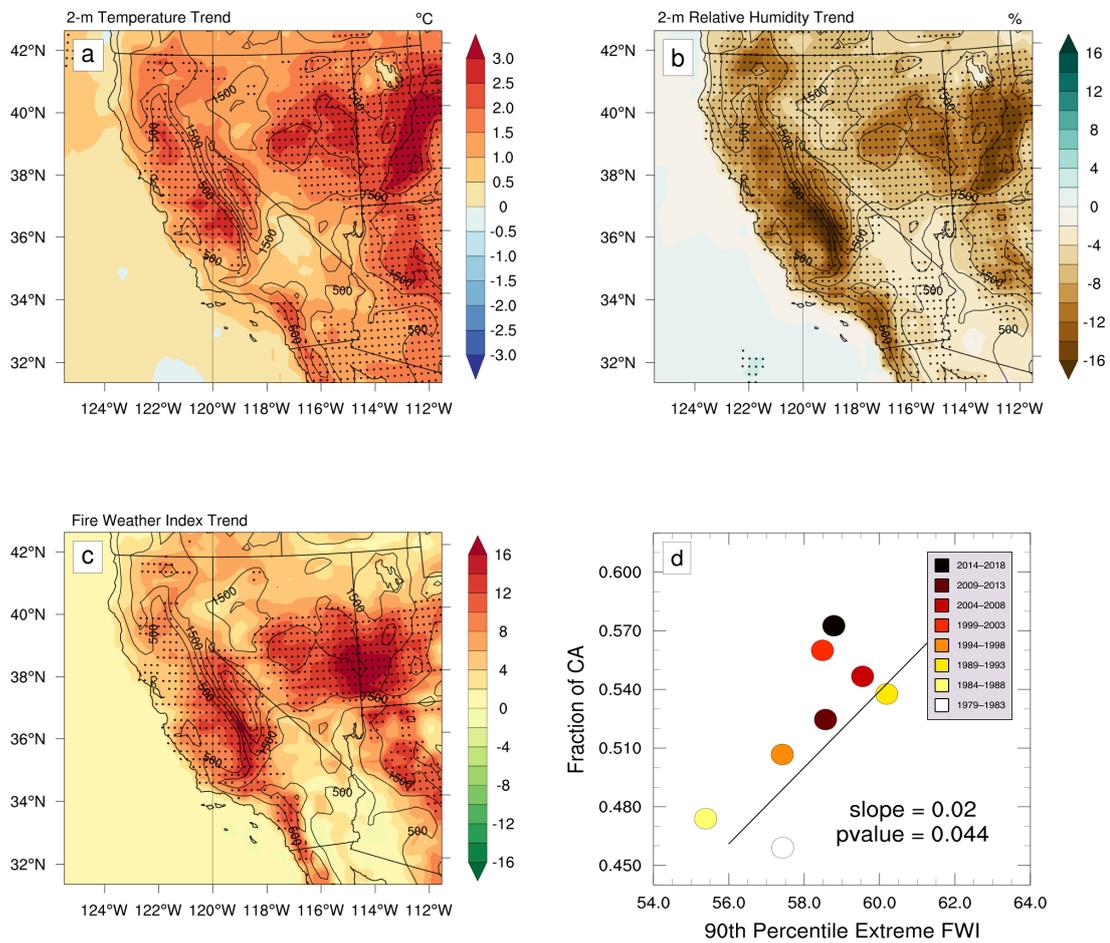
**Figure 1.** Trends in seasonally averaged daytime (0600–1700 PST) maximum 10-m wind speed for JJA (a) and SON (b) and seasonally averaged night-time (1800–0500 PST) maximum 10-m wind speed for JJA (c) and SON (d) during 1979–2019. Solid colors denote the wind speed trend which has been multiplied by the total number of years during 1979–2019 to highlight the total change. Dots indicate statistically significant trends at the 95% level from Mann-Kendall testing. Black contours show the ERA5 orography.



**Figure 2.** Trends in seasonally averaged daily maximum northerly and westerly winds and trends in seasonally averaged daily minimum southerly and easterly winds during the day (0600–1700 PST) and at night (1800–0500 PST) during JJA and SON. The top set of panels shows JJA trends for daytime (night-time) northerlies, southerlies, westerlies and easterlies in subplots a–d (e–h). Similarly, the bottom set of panels shows SON trends for daytime (night-time) northerlies, southerlies, westerlies and easterlies in subplots i–l (m–p). Trends have been multiplied by the total number of years during 1979–2019 to highlight the total change. As northerly and easterly winds in ERA5 are traditionally negative, northerly and easterly wind trends are multiplied by  $-1$  so that in all subplots brown colors indicate strengthening winds and blue colors indicate weakening winds.



**Figure 3.** Left horizontal panels show trends in the number of Hazardous Wind Events during JJA (a) and SON (b) during 1979–2019 (solid colors). Trends have been multiplied by the total number of years during 1979–2019 to highlight the total change. Black dots indicate statistically significant trends at the 95% significance level. Black contours show ERA5 orography. Right vertical panels show time series and trends in the standardized number of Hazardous Wind Events during SON over the Sierra Nevada Mountains (c) (36.25–38.5 N and 117.5–120 W) and Southern California (d) (32.7–35 N and 115–119 W). Time series entries were calculated by averaging the number of Hazardous Wind Events during SON in each region. Time series were then standardized by subtracting their mean and dividing by their standard deviation. Green lines denote the Theil-Sen trends.



**Figure 4.** Trends during SON over 1979–2019 in (a) daily maximum 2-meter temperature, (b) daily minimum 1000-hPa relative humidity, (c) Canadian Fire-Weather Index (FWI), and (d) 5-year SON averages in the fraction of California covered by Extreme FWIs vs 5-year SON averages of daily 90th percentile Extreme FWI. Trends have been multiplied by the total number of years during 1979–2019 to highlight the total change. Dots in (a), (b), and (c) indicate statistically significant trends at the 95% significance level under Mann-Kendall testing. Markers in (d) tend from the bottom left quadrant towards the top right quadrant as one moves from lighter to darker shades (i.e., from the 1979–1983 toward 2014–2018), indicating increased and more widespread wildfire risk.