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► **To cite this version:**

Angelica Feurdean, Boris Vannière, Walter Finsinger, Dan Warren, Simon Connor, et al.. Fire risk modulation by long-term dynamics in land cover and dominant forest type in Eastern and Central Europe. *Biogeosciences Discussions*, 2019, 10.5194/bg-2019-260 . hal-02294160

HAL Id: hal-02294160

<https://hal.science/hal-02294160>

Submitted on 30 Oct 2020

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Title of the manuscript Fire risk modulation by long-term dynamics in land cover and dominant forest type in Eastern and Central Europe

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Abstract

Wildfire occurrence is influenced by climate, vegetation and human activities. A key challenge for understanding fire-climate-vegetation interactions is to quantify the effect vegetation has in mediating
85 fire regime. Here, we explore the relative importance of Holocene land cover and dominant functional forest type, and climate dynamics on biomass burned in temperate and boreo-nemoral regions of Central and Eastern Europe over the past 12 ka BP years. We used an extensive data set of Holocene pollen and sedimentary charcoal records, in combination with climate simulations and novel statistical modelling. Biomass burned was highest during the early Holocene and lowest during the mid Holocene in all three
90 ecoregions, but diverged more markedly over the past 3-4 ka BP. Although the climate was an important driver of fire hazard during the warm and dry early Holocene, tree cover was consistently the strongest predictor of past biomass burning. In temperate forests, biomass burned was high at ~ 45% tree cover and decreased strongly towards 60% tree cover. In needleleaf dominated forests, biomass burned was highest at ~60-65% tree cover and abruptly declined at >65% tree cover. Biomass burned
95 also increased when arable lands and grasslands reached ~15-20%, although this relationship was highly dynamic depending on land use intensity throughout ignition and fuel type and availability. Our observations cover the full range of Holocene climate variability and land cover changes and illustrates that percentages of land cover is a key predictor of the probability of fire occurrence over timescales of centuries to millennia. We suggest that long-term fire risk may be effectively reduced through land
100 cover management, given that land cover has controlled fire regimes under the dynamic climates of the Holocene.

1 Introduction

Wildfires can have dramatic environmental, economic, and social impacts, as demonstrated by recent



105 catastrophic fire events (Leverkus et al., 2019). However, fire is an integral part of many ecosystems
and controls a range of evolutionary and ecological processes (Bond and Keeley, 2005; Bowman et al.,
2009; Archibald et al., 2018). Fire regimes (i.e. fire frequency, area, intensity, severity, seasonality) are
influenced by climate and vegetation properties (fuel moisture, availability, composition and structure)
and vary both spatially and temporally (Bond and Keeley, 2005; Higuera et al., 2009; van der Werf et
110 al., 2010; Pausas and Paula, 2012; Archibald et al., 2018). A key challenge for understanding fire-
climate-vegetation interactions is to quantify the effect that vegetation properties has in mediating
biomass burning. Overall, it has been hypothesised that along a fuel-load gradient, climate-induced fire
hazard (ignition and spread) is lowest in both productive moist regions (with high fuel load given by
dense tree cover) and in unproductive arid systems (with low fuel load and dominant grass and shrub
115 cover), and is highest in intermediate systems that have a mixed fuel load of tree, shrub and grass cover
(Pausas and Ribeiro, 2013). Grasses and shrubs are implicated in positive fire-fuel feedbacks, whereas
an increase in tree cover beyond a specific threshold can reduce fire hazard, thereby fostering a negative
feedback on fire (Beckage et al., 2009; Frejaville et al., 2016; Archibal et al., 2009). It has also been
shown that plant functional traits (growth rate and architecture, leaf chemical and moisture content,
120 litter, bark thickness) that determine flammability can mitigate climate-driven fire occurrence, leading
to fire regimes other than those expected based solely on climate conditions (Girardin et al., 2013;
Pausas and Ribeiro, 2013; Kloster et al., 2015; Rogers et al., 2015; Blarquez et al., 2015; Feurdean et
al., 2017). For example needleleaf trees with volatile compounds and resins, retention of dead biomass
in crown, ladder fuels and slow litter decomposition rates promote fire hazard, whereas temperate
125 broadleaf deciduous trees with high leaf moisture content and lower litter accumulation, have a clear
negative effect on ignition probability and fire spread (Rogers et al., 2015). Human activities can also
influence fuel load, composition and ignition patterns, which is particularly relevant in Europe, where
after a long history of human-driven decline in tree cover, forest extent has increased over the past few
decades due to rural land abandonment and carbon abatement programmes (Jepsen et al., 2015; Roberts
130 et al., 2018). While higher tree cover may reduce fire hazard, fire-promoting climatic conditions are also
projected to increase in areas where natural fires were historically infrequent, e.g. Central and Eastern
Europe (Khabarov, et al., 2016; Frejaville and Curt 2017). Widespread plantations of highly flammable



trees (e.g. *Pinus*) by modern forestry may further increase the probability and impact of catastrophic fires for human health, economy and ecosystems (Słowiński et al., 2019). However, the levels of forest
135 cover and prevailing dominant tree types that will reduce or augment climate-driven fire hazard in the European context has not yet been quantified.

A fundamental limitation with understanding fire-climate-vegetation interactions based on observations or modelling approaches is that they are rooted in the modern environment. Yet, present-day ecosystems and fire regimes carry the legacies of past anthropogenic impact (Marlon et al., 2016;
140 Vannièrè et al., 2016). Palaeoecological studies based on pollen, plant macrofossils and charcoal sedimentary records provide centennial to millennial data sets to decipher past vegetation and fire dynamics and associated drivers. This is particularly relevant in forested ecosystems, which are dominated by species that have long generation times and fire return intervals that exceed observational records (Whitlock et al., 2017). Establishing how land cover changes influence fire regimes will be
145 critical to infer the probability of future fire occurrence and its impacts (Pausas and Paula, 2012; Whitlock et al., 2017).

Here we explore interactions between fire, land cover and climate during the Holocene in major Central and Eastern European vegetation types: temperate and boreo-nemoral. This study utilises independent estimation of evidence fire, land cover composition and climate changes with a novel statistical
150 modelling approach (generalized additive models, GAM) to quantify percentages in land cover and tree-density associated to fire hazard probability.

2 Methods

2.1 Geographical location and charcoal site selection

155 To determine past biomass burned, we compiled a dataset comprising 117 charcoal records from sites located in Central and Eastern Europe (Fig. 1; Supplement S1). Of these, 70 records are from peatlands (bogs and fens), whereas 47 records are from lakes. For each record we compiled metadata including geographical coordinates, elevation, depositional environment, and data source (Supplement S1). The overall climate of the study area is temperate with considerable variability across regions due to marine
160 or continental influences: the northern and eastern part have long cold winters and short, warm



summers, whereas the central and southern parts have relatively warm, wet winters and dry, hot summers. Climate conditions also vary along an elevation gradient in this region.

In terms of fire activity, natural ignition sources such as lightning strikes occur at low frequencies, i.e. < 5 flashes km⁻² /a⁻¹ and most fires are intentionally or accidentally ignited by humans (Christian et al., 2003). The average fire size (fires <10 ha) is higher in eastern and southern Europe (5-10 ha), compared to northern and central Europe (<5 ha); European Forest Fire Information System, (<http://effis.jrc.ec.europa.eu>). The number of fires per year is higher in northern, eastern and southern Europe (>50 fires/yr) than in central Europe (1-50 fires/yr).

2.2 Charcoal records and regional composite of biomass burned

Spatio-temporal patterns in fire-land cover interactions were investigated using a geographical delineation of Central and Eastern Europe based on environmental stratification (Metzger et al., 2005). We defined three ecoregions from the Central and Eastern European region: Continental (CON), Boreo-Nemoral (BNE), and Atlantic (ATL). The Boreo-Nemoral ecoregion includes 26 sites from the boreal and nemoral zones, the Continental ecoregion includes 72 sites from the Continental, Alpine (conifer belt) and Pannonian zones, and the Atlantic region includes 19 sites from the Atlantic zone (Fig. 1).

All charcoal records were converted to a calibrated years before present (1950 CE) by using either the depth-age models provided by the original publications, or new depth-age models established for this study (Supplement S1). Charcoal concentrations were transformed into charcoal accumulation rates (CHAR) by multiplying concentrations (charcoal counts [pieces cm⁻³] or charcoal areas [mm² cm⁻³]) by sediment-accumulation rates [cm a⁻¹] to account for variations in sedimentation among sequences. To allow comparison between and within charcoal records obtained from various depositional environments with different laboratory methods, we have applied the standardisation technique established by Power et al. (2008) and modified by Daniau et al. (2012) and Blarquez et al. (2014). The standardisation procedure included a min-max rescaling of CHAR values, followed by a Box-Cox transformation to homogenise within-record variance, and a Z-score transformation using a base period from 12 to 0.15 ka BP. This period includes the entire dataset, but excludes the effect of recent human impact on fire activity during the post-industrial period. To reduce the influence of high-resolution



charcoal records on the composite charcoal record, transformed charcoal records were bootstrap-
190 resampled 999 times. Resampled charcoal time series were aggregated by ecoregion and smoothed with
a 500-years loess smoother. We then calculated the mean and 90% confidence intervals of the
aggregated records to obtain regional biomass-burned trends. For numerical processing of the CHAR
series we used the R paleofire package version 4.0 (Blarquez et al., 2014).

2.3 Pollen-based regional composite of land cover classes

195 We used pollen-based land cover estimates at 200-year time intervals for the period 10.9 ka BP to
present, based on the pseudobiomisation method (Fyfe et al., 2015) to quantify changes in land cover
type. The pseudobiomisation approach groups pollen types into land cover classes that are directly
comparable to other land cover classifications (Fyfe et al., 2015). These land cover estimates are
available from the PANGAEA Database for the entire study area, as opposed to other pollen-based
200 quantitative vegetation reconstructions restricted mainly to northwestern Europe (Fyfe et al., 2015). We
extracted six land cover classes: total forest, closed needleleaf forest, closed broadleaf deciduous forest,
heath/scrubland, natural grasslands and open pastures, and arable/disturbed land cover other than
heathland. Needleleaf forests are represented by the sum of pollen taxa dominated by *Pinus*, *Picea*,
Abies, *Larix*, whereas broadleaf forests by the sum of pollen of *Quercus*, *Fagus*, *Betula*, *Carpinus*,
205 *Ulmus*, *Tilia*, *Acer*, *Corylus*, *Alnus*, *Betula* among the most common taxa. Heath/scrubland primarily
includes *Calluna*, *Empetrum*, *Ephedra*, *Erica*, *Hippophaë*, *Juniperus* (Fyfe et al., 2015). The natural
grasslands/open pastures land cover class is a sum of a mixture of herb taxa, including pasture-specific
taxa, whereas arable/disturbed land is defined by the sum of herb taxa typically adapted to cultivated
and high-disturbance environments. For a full list of pollen taxa assigned to each land cover class see
210 Fyfe et al. (2015). Throughout the text, we use the term ‘grassland cover’ to denote both natural and
human modified grasslands (pastures), and ‘arable land cover’ to denote arable and disturbed land. This
is because it is not always possible to distinguish between natural and managed grasslands or between
arable and other forms of disturbed open land cover based on pollen analysis (Fyfe et al., 2015). For
example, the large proportion of open land cover classes (pasture and disturbed taxa) during the early
215 Holocene (pre-Neolithic) is likely to represent natural landscape openness. We distinguished the
increase of arable/pasture cover from natural open land cover from the Neolithic onwards based on the



change in abundance, rather than on the absolute values (Fyfe et al., 2015). We assigned to each charcoal site the relative proportion of the six land cover classes from the nearest pollen site. We then generated composite estimates of land cover classes grouped by ecoregion by spatially aggregating the averages of pollen records within the corresponding ecoregion. We then fitted a 500-year loess smoother for each land cover class.

2.4 Simulated-based regional composite of climate conditions

Holocene climate conditions were derived from TraCE-21ka (Transient Climate Evolution over the last 21,000 years (Liu et al., 2009; He, 2011). This is a transient simulation of the last deglaciation phase (22 to 0 ka BP) using the fully coupled NCAR Community Climate System Model version 3 (CCSM3, Liu et al., 2009; He, 2011). Atmospheric and land model simulations were performed at the T31 (~3.75° x 3.75°) horizontal resolution and approximately 3° in the ocean and sea-ice models. The simulation output data (surface temperature and precipitation) was downloaded at monthly temporal resolution from earthsystemgrid.org. To remove systematic model biases, the climate simulation data was first bias-corrected using monthly climatologies between 1950 and 1980 from the Climate Research Unit (CRU) observational dataset (Harris et al., 2014). The bias correction was calculated with respect to the last 30 years of the TraCE-21ka simulation (representing pre-industrial conditions) as ratios of the surface temperature (precipitation) from CRU. These ratios were then multiplied to all climate simulation fields of the interval 12 to 0 ka BP.

We focus here on the boreal summer (June, July, August, hereafter “JJA”) surface temperature (JJA T) and precipitation minus potential evapotranspiration (JJA P-PET), as these parameters are most representative for fuel moisture during the major fire season (Thonicke et al., 2001). JJA P-PET was calculated using the Thornthwaite model (Thornthwaite, 1948), which requires the surface temperature and average day length of each month as input variables. Surface temperature was taken directly from the bias-corrected TraCE-21ka data and the average day length for each month going back to 12 ka BP was calculated using the Earth’s orbital parameter scheme in CCSM3. The resulting climate fields were subsequently interpolated to the same locations as the charcoal records using a bilinear interpolation. We generated composite climate estimates by spatially aggregating individual climate records within



245 the corresponding ecoregions. Similar to vegetation and fire reconstructions, a 500-year loess smoother
was fitted to the climate simulations.

2.5 Generalized Additive Models

We developed generalized additive models (GAMs) to explore the response of biomass burned to
250 changes in percent land cover, dominant functional forest type, and JJA climate. GAMs are models with
a linear predictor (here the composite pollen-derived regional land cover class abundance and simulated
climate conditions) involving a sum of smooth functions of covariates (Hastie and Tibshirani, 1990).
We used a Gaussian error distribution to fit models with the mgcv package (Hastie and Tibshirani,
1990). GAMs were estimated with thin plate regression splines using restricted maximum likelihood to
255 automatically determine the optimal level of smoothing for each term in the model and automatic term
selection. We calculated Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) weights to identify the models that were
best able to predict the observed changes in biomass burned. AIC weights are a normalized indicator of
support for each model given the evidence within each data set while penalising more complex models
(Hastie and Tibshirani, 1990). We obtained AIC scores using the AIC function in R and calculated AIC
260 weights relative to the model with the lowest AIC score using the qpcR package (Wood, 2017). AIC
values can only be compared across a common data set; we therefore fitted the GAMs and calculated
AIC weights separately for each ecoregion (including land cover classes, JJA T and JJA P-PET). Visual
inspection of plots produced by the gam.precheck R function showed that all selected models were
well-fit (Supplement S2). We restricted the GAMs analysis including all predictors to the last 8 ka BP
265 as the proportion of open land cover classes (arable and grassland cover) during this period should
predominantly reflect the influence of human impact (see Pollen-based regional composite of land
cover). However, we also constructed GAMs on JJA climate for the 12-8 ka BP period to investigate the
relationship between climate and fire without any significant human impact.

270 3 Results

3.1 Biomass burned, land cover, and climate dynamics

The amount of biomass burned was highest during the early Holocene (between ~ 10.5 and 8 ka BP)



over all of Central and Eastern Europe and the three ecoregions, although the onset of this biomass increase was earlier (11 ka BP) in the CON ecoregions (Fig. 2A-D). The climate-model simulation
275 indicates warmer-than-present summer temperatures (JJA T) and lower-than-present moisture availability (JJA P-PET) for the early Holocene across all three ecoregions (Fig. 2B-D). Biomass burned showed lower-than-present values between ~ 8 and 4 ka BP in all ecoregions (Fig. 2B-D). The reduction in biomass burned accompanied the declining JJA temperature, although it remained warmer-than-present, and by a rapid rise in summer moisture availability (around 8 ka BP) in all ecoregions
280 (Fig. 2B-D). We found differences in trends in biomass burned among ecoregions over the past 3 ka BP. Biomass burned increased markedly at 3 ka BP in the BNE ecoregion, but less evident in the CON ecoregion, and only around 1.5 ka BP in the ATL ecoregion (Fig. 2B-D). Climate simulations display generally cool, moist climate conditions in all ecoregions over the past 4 ka (Fig. 2A-D).

Pollen-based land cover reconstructions indicate that tree cover ranged between ~ 40-65% in
285 CON, ~ 45-73% in ATL and ~ 55-80% in BNE ecoregions (Fig. 3A). Tree cover reached the maximum extent between ~ 9 and 5 ka BP in all ecoregions and was dominated by mixed broadleaf deciduous trees, while the abundance of needleleaf trees was highest between ~ 11 and 9 ka BP for all ecoregions and between 4 and 1 ka BP for the BNE ecoregion (Fig. 2B-D). Arable land cover ranged between ~ 5-17% in BNE, ~ 5-22% in ATL and ~ 10-25% in CON ecoregions, whereas grassland cover ranged
290 between ~ 5-12% in BNE, ~ 10-22% in ATL and ~ 15-25% in CON ecoregions. Grassland cover reached the maximum extent over the past 1.5 ka in all ecoregions, whereas arable land cover reached the maximum extent over the past 4 ka in ATL and CON ecoregions and 1.5 ka in the BNE ecoregion (Figure 2B-D).

295 **3.2 Generalized Additive Models**

Model selections based on AIC shows that climate alone explains a large proportion of the deviance of biomass burning in the three ecoregions in the time period between 12-8 ka BP (average 71%; Appendix A1, Supplement S2). However, climate alone explained a considerably smaller proportion of the deviance (average 48%) for the 8-0 ka BP period, whereas inclusion of land cover fractions in the
300 GAMs increased the deviance explained to 76% (Supplement S2). Furthermore, the full model selection



(climate and land cover) procedure for the 8-0 ka BP period shows that models including land cover are superior to model including climate alone in all ecoregions (Table 1). Evaluation of the models using AIC scores and weights shows that most of the explanatory power (including > 0.99 of the total cumulative AIC weight) comes from models that include broadleaf cover alone for the ATL and BNE
305 ecoregions and the joint effects of total tree, broadleaf, heathland and arable cover for the CON ecoregion (Table 1, Supplement S2). When examining the fire-tree cover relationships we found that in ATL and CON ecoregions, biomass burned is high at 45% tree cover declining strongly towards 60% tree cover. (Fig. 3A). In the BNE ecoregion, biomass burned abruptly increases as tree cover declines from its maximum of 80% to 65% tree cover (Fig. 3A). When examining fire-human relationships,
310 biomass burned increases when arable and grassland cover reached ~15-17% in ATL and CON ecoregions, and at ~6-10% in the BNE ecoregion (Fig. 3DE and Fig. 4). Biomass burned also increases for heathland cover greater than 12% in ATL and CON ecoregions (Supplement S2).

4 Discussion

315 Understanding fire-climate-vegetation interactions is typically based on recent estimates of vegetation and burned area obtained from remote sensing data as well as fire and vegetation models. This may hinder our ability to recognise links and feedbacks between fire and vegetation shifts especially in ecosystems with species that have long generation times. Our study uses high-density millennial records of ecosystem history (vegetation, fire, climate) and proposes a framework for testing how long-term
320 changes in climate alone or in combination with land cover and dominant forest type influence biomass burned in three distinct ecoregions from Central and Eastern Europe.

4.1 Fire-climate relationship

We found that climate, specifically warmer-than-present summer temperatures and high moisture
325 content, exerted a strong top-down control on biomass burned between 12-8 ka BP period in all ecoregions (Appendix A1; Supplement S2). This relationship is expected, as the early Holocene vegetation progressively recovered from the cold and dry conditions with limited biomass prevailing during the Lateglacial (Feurdean et al., 2014). However, the importance of land cover and human



imprint on biomass burned become stronger post 8 ka BP in all ecoregions, as shown by higher
330 significance levels of land cover models over models based on climate alone (Table 1). Warmer
summers and/or drier conditions were generally associated with higher biomass burned over large areas
in Europe, although a stronger effect of land cover was detected at mid to low latitudes (Vannière et al.,
2016; Dietze et al., 2018; Molinari et al., 2018). Proxy-based climate reconstructions are fragmentary
and mostly qualitative, which hampers their inclusion in the generalized additive models. However,
335 proxy climate datasets were used to check whether the model simulations depict general trends in
climate conditions. Simulated and proxy-based climate reconstructions are in general good agreement in
indicating warm and dry climate conditions for the early Holocene and increased moisture availability
during the mid-Holocene in all ecoregions, and cooler summer temperature in the CON ecoregion
(Davis and Brewer, 2009; Heiri et al., 2015; Veski et al., 2015; Tóth et al., 2015; Hájková et al., 2016;
340 Diaconu et al., 2017; Marcisz et al., 2017). Though simulated and most proxy-based climate
reconstructions show cool and moist climate conditions over the late Holocene, proxy-based
reconstructions indicate greater spatial and temporal climate variability (Davis and Brewer, 2009; Heiri
et al., 2015; Tóth et al., 2015; Diaconu et al., 2017; Marcisz et al., 2017). This could be partly explained
by a greater human impact on the proxy-based climate reconstructions such as the effect of water
345 acidification and eutrophication on chironomid taxa and deforestation on pollen on testate amoebae
composition (Heiri et al., 2015; Mauri et al., 2017).

4.2 Fire-fuel relationship: the effect of tree cover composition

At the temporal scale considered here, we detected that biomass burned increases with declining percent
350 tree cover (Fig. 3A). While the GAM models use biomass burned as the response variable, we
acknowledge that the relationship can go in both directions: fire probability can increase when forest
cover decreases, and frequent fires can lead to a decrease in forest cover. Yet our findings are consistent
with emerging evidence on fire-fuel relationships that suggest a strong relationship between tree cover
and fire hazard in modern environments (Hirota et al., 2011; Pausas and Paula 2012; Scheffer et al.,
355 2012; Frejaville et al., 2016; van Nes et al., 2018). A lowering of the tree cover allows the development
of understorey cover (herbs, shrubs and fine woody debris) and provides a favourable fuel mix of fine



herb, shrubs and coarse woody debris that facilitates ignition and surface fire spread (Pausas and Paula, 2012; Frejaville et al., 2016). Open forests also have high penetration of radiation and wind to the ground surface to dry the understory vegetation and litter (Ryan, 2002).

360 However, the relationship between percent tree cover and biomass burned differs among the ecoregions (Fig. 3A and Fig. 4). In ecoregions dominated by temperate forests (CON and ATL), biomass burned is high at 45% tree cover and declines towards ~ 60% (Fig. 3A). In the BNE ecoregion, where needleleaf trees dominate, the relationship is distinctly different, biomass burned increases as tree cover declines abruptly from its maximum of 80% and is highest at 65% tree cover (Fig. 3A). The
365 abrupt shift in BNE ecoregion resembles a system crossing a critical ecological threshold and transitioning to a new vegetation and/or fire regime state (Scheffer et al., 2012).

The GAM models run separately broadleaf and needleleaf tree cover indicate that the regional divergence between biomass burned and percent tree cover is caused by different dominant functional forest type (Figs. 3, 4). Broadleaf cover had the most powerful negative effect on biomass burned in all
370 three ecoregions (Fig. 3B; Table 1; Supplement S2). By contrast, biomass burned shows an increase rather than a decrease with increasing needleleaf cover evident in the BNE ecoregion with a considerable proportion of needleleaf forests (Fig. 3C; Table 1). This finding supports the ecological inference that deciduous broadleaf trees have a clear negative effect on fire hazard (Rogers et al., 2015).

Fire in boreal forest systems often increases also at higher tree cover (up to 75%) due to more
375 flammable needleleaf biomass when exposed to dry, windy conditions (Scheffer et al., 2012; Rogers et al., 2015). Life history and morphological traits of the dominant species (short life cycle, high relative growth rates, shallow roots, accumulation of dead biomass and slow litter decomposition) create a substantial amount of readily available dead fuel in boreal forests (Scheffer et al., 2012). Abundant *Pinus diploxylon*-type pollen indicates that *Pinus sylvestris* was the dominant needleleaf tree in all
380 ecoregions during the Early Holocene. *Picea abies* became the dominant needleleaf species in the CON ecoregion during the mid-Holocene and in the BNE ecoregion during the late Holocene (Giesecke et al., 2017). *Pinus sylvestris* could have withstood fire as a result of its fire-resistant morphological traits, i.e. thick insulating bark, deep roots, and a well-developed capacity for post-fire recovery (Groot et al., 2013; Rogers et al., 2015; Adámek et al., 2016; Feurdean et al., 2017; Carter et al., 2018). In contrast,



385 *Picea abies* does not have functional traits required for fire survival but boosts crown fires because its
low branches create a ladder canopy structure and dead branches are retained in the crown.

4.3 Fire-fuel relationship: the human impact

Human activities have altered the temporal and spatial structure of fuel availability and timing and
390 frequency of ignitions since the early Holocene (Pfeiffer et al., 2013; Marlon et al., 2016; Vanni re et
al., 2016; Andela et al., 2017). While past ignitions is assumed to increase with population density,
human-caused change in land cover from forest to arable land and associated fuel limitation has resulted
in a decline in biomass burned. Biomass burned mostly shows a positive response with increases in
arable and grassland cover in all ecoregions, however, this relationship is dynamic and may illustrate a
395 complex fire-human interaction (Figs. 3, 4). In the CON ecoregion, the most evident increase in
biomass burned occurred after 3 ka BP (Fig. 2B), and is consistent with percentages in arable and
grassland cover at which biomass burned shows positive responses in the GAMs (Figure 3DE).
Historically, the onset of the rise in biomass burned corresponds to the Late Bronze Age to the Iron
Age, periods characterized by the establishment of urban centres, farms, early industries and mining
400 activities (R sch, et al., 2014; Chapman, 2017). Further, the sharp increase in biomass burned over the
last millennium coincides to a marked population growth and renewed deforestation (Jamrichova et al.,
2017; Marquer et al., 2017). In the ATL ecoregion, while the rise in arable and grassland cover first
occurs ~4 ka BP, biomass burned increased after 1.5 ka BP and may reflect local intensification in land
use without major use of fire for deforestation (Fig. 2). Burning of agricultural waste, e.g. straw and
405 chaff, to improve soil fertility and clean the land provides less biomass to burn than wood (Pfeiffer et
al., 2013). In the BNE ecoregion, we detected increases in biomass burned over the past 4 ka BP, while
the rise in abundance of arable and grassland cover to values at which biomass burned shows the
strongest positive responses were only visible over the past 2 ka BP (Fig. 2D). It is therefore apparent
that the rise in biomass burned at 4 ka BP could be primarily relate to the naturally or human-driven
410 increase needleleaf component, and only after 2 ka BP to a sustained use of fire for deforestation and
agricultural activities (Fig. 2D). Broadleaf forests were edaphically more suited to conversion to arable



fields and pastures than needleleaf forests, leading to an increased of needleleaf forest over time (Roberts, 2018).

4.4 Potential implications for fire-vegetation modelling

415 Global fire-vegetation models are useful tools for projecting future changes in fire regimes and assessing fire-vegetation interactions. Improving such models is an area of active development (Rabin et al., 2017) and typically utilises recent estimates of burned area and few land cover types obtained from remote sensing data and other vegetation-related products to evaluate the models (Bistinas et al., 2014; Forkel et al., 2017). However, this reliance on short-term data does not offer the full picture of
420 fire-vegetation interactions, particularly as fire regimes and present-day ecosystems carry legacies of past anthropogenic activities (Vannière et al., 2016). The analysis presented here provides complementary evidence to evaluate fire-vegetation model development in several ways. Firstly, the fire-land cover relationships emerging from fire-vegetation models can be evaluated against the charcoal and pollen derived fire-land cover relationships attained here. Secondly, synthesized charcoal
425 records provide data for fire model evaluation in regions where fire return intervals are significantly greater than the short time for which satellite data are available. Finally, the coherent time series presented here provide an independent test case, i.e., under different climates and with different, limited or no human influence, for fire models outside of the time period in which they were calibrated. Once we incorporate these aspects into fire-vegetation models, we can more accurately model changes
430 through time, i.e. the past range in fire regimes (Pfeiffer et al., 2013; Forkel et al., 2017) and examine critical ecological transitions hypothesized to be mediated by fire-vegetation interactions (Scheiter et al., 2012).

5 Conclusions

435 Although the climate was an important driver of fire hazard during the early Holocene, in particular warmer and drier-than-present summer, our results provide compelling evidence that the land cover and the dominant forest types can override the direct effect of climate on biomass burned. Percent of tree cover was consistently the strongest predictor of past biomass burning, but regional differences were observed among major vegetation types. Specifically, in ecoregions dominated by temperate forests

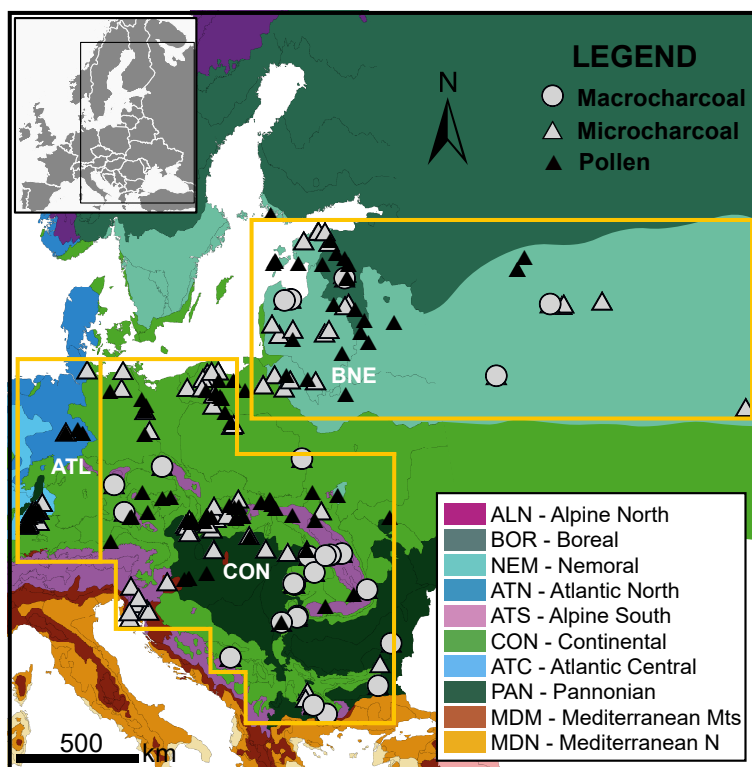


440 (CON and ATL), biomass burned was high at 45% tree cover and declined towards ~ 60%. In the BNE
ecoregion where needleleaf trees dominate, biomass burned was highest at ~60-65% tree cover and
abruptly declines at tree cover >65%. The abrupt shift in BNE ecoregion resembles a system crossing a
critical ecological threshold and transitioning to a new state. Biomass burned shows a positive response
when arable and grassland cover reached ~15-20%, but this relationship is dynamic and highlights the
445 complex fire-human interactions that depend on land-use intensity. Our records of past fire-fuel
interactions indicate that tree cover is a first-order predictor of the probability of fire occurrence. Our
observations cover the full range of Holocene climate variability and therefore provide a long-term test
of vegetation-climate-fire interactions. An important implication of this test is that effective mitigation
of future fire risk relies on land cover management on a regional scale. Information derived from such
450 long-term fire-vegetation relationships can be used to improve fire-mitigation strategies and fire-
vegetation models.

Figure legends and embedded figures

455 **Figure 1.** Map showing the distribution of main environmental zones in Central and Eastern Europe
(Metzger et al., 2015). Filled triangles and circles show the location of charcoal and pollen records
(Appendix S1). Orange rectangles denote the ecoregions analysed in this study: Atlantic (ATL),
Continental (CON) and Boreo-Nemoral (BNE).

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Figure 2. Holocene trends in biomass burned, climate, and land cover changes over all of Central and Eastern Europe (panel A) and in each of the ecoregions: Continental (B), Atlantic (C) and Boreo-
470 Nemoral (D). Biomass burned is based on charcoal influx (z-score values). Climate conditions (anomalies) represent average simulated seasonal summer (June, July, August (JJA)) temperatures and



precipitation minus potential evapotranspiration (P-PET), from a global transient climate simulation (Thornthwaite, 1948). Relative abundance of needleleaf forests, broadleaf deciduous forests, grasslands, and arable land represents their pollen-based percentages in relation to the total land cover (Fyfe et al., 475 2015).

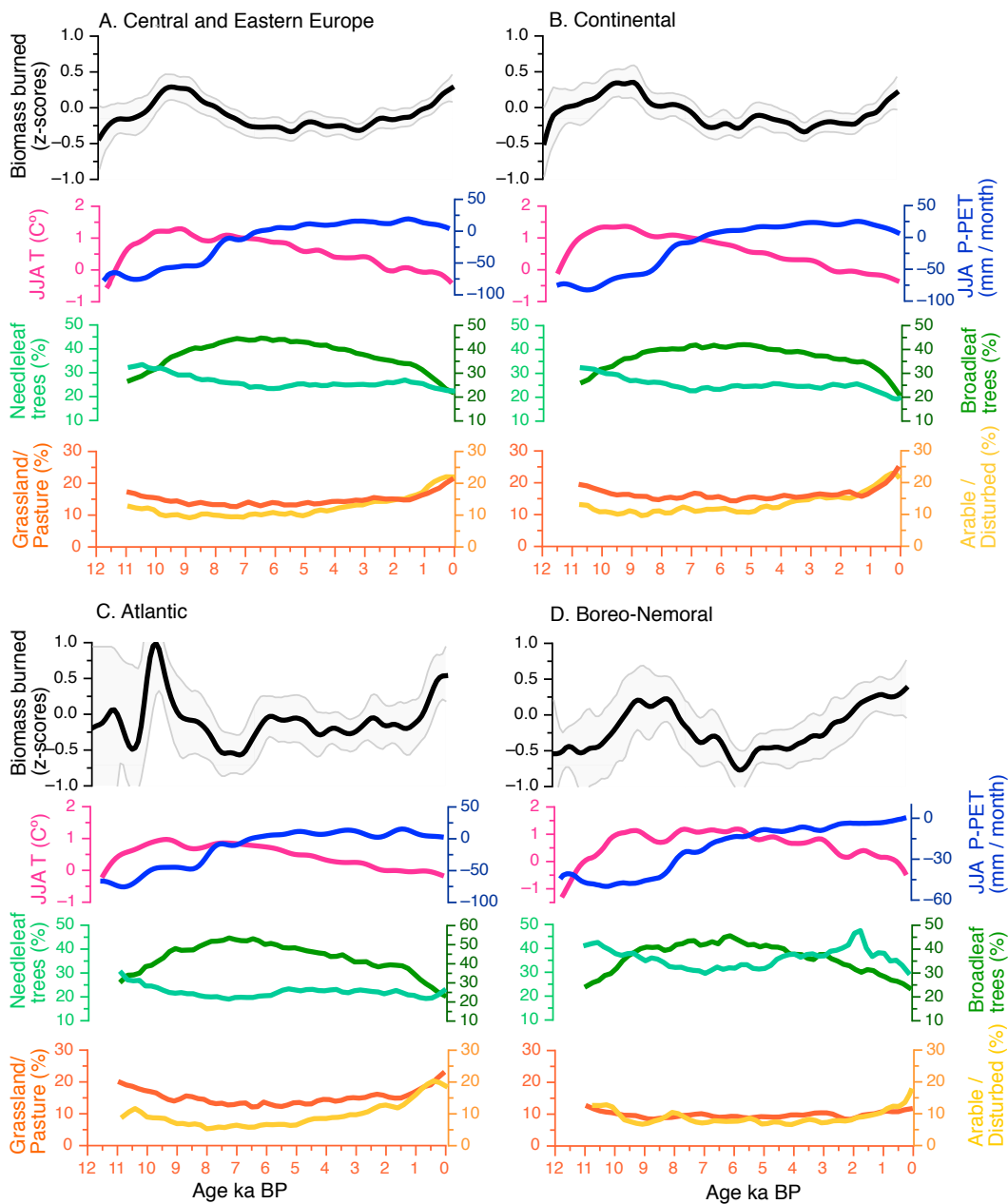




Figure 3. Fire-fuel type and load relationship in Central and Eastern Europe. The relationship between biomass burned, determined from z-score composite charcoal values and the main land-cover types, derived from percentages of pollen-based land cover classes. These relationships were developed from 480 generalized additive models (GAMs) for each ecoregion. Total tree cover (A), broadleaf tree cover (B), needleleaf tree cover (C) arable/disturbed cover (D) pastures/natural grasslands cover (E) and heath/scrubland cover (F).

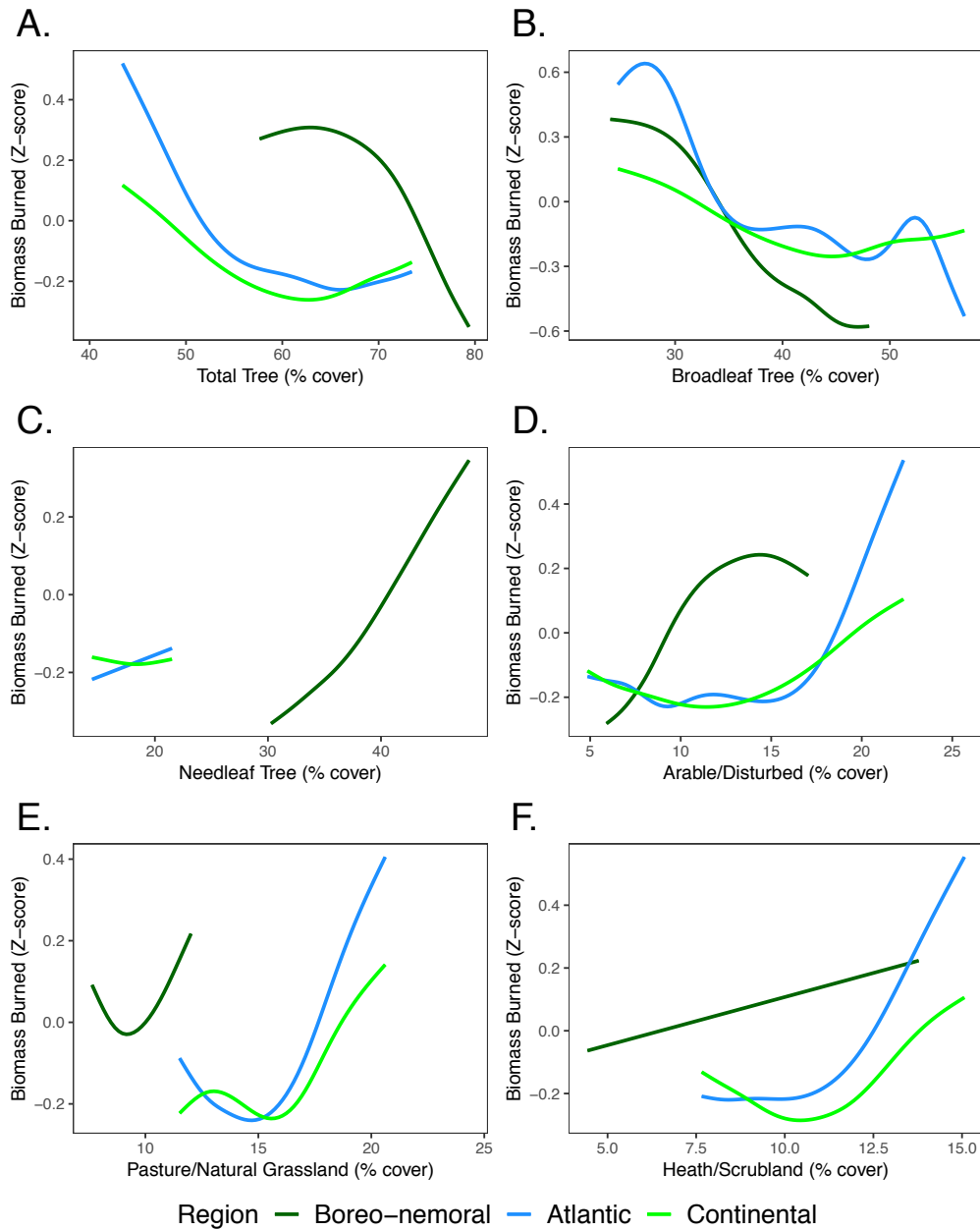
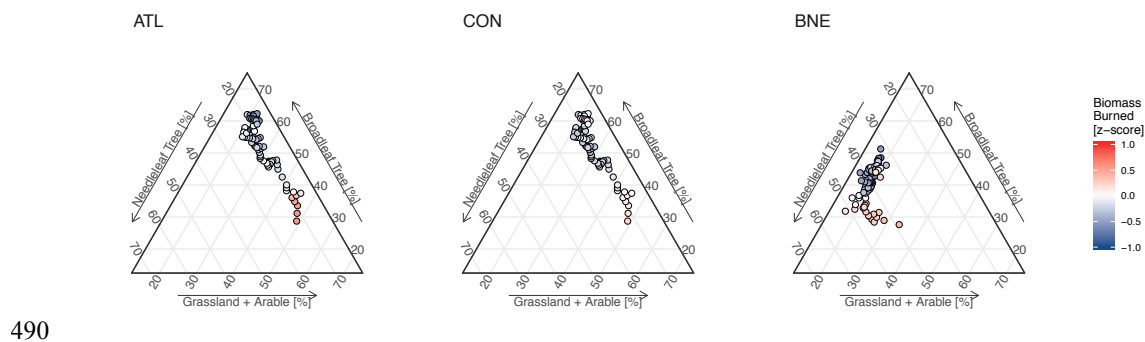




Figure 4. Relationship between biomass burned, broadleaf tree cover, needleleaf tree cover, arable cover and grassland cover in the three ecoregions in Central and Eastern Europe. Biomass burned and land cover are determined as above. Locations with greater biomass burned tend to be consistently characterised by low broadleaf tree cover in CON and ATL ecoregions, and by high needleleaf forest cover in BNE ecoregion. In terms of land use, biomass burned increases with arable and pasture cover in BNE ecoregion. In terms of land use, biomass burned increases with arable and pasture cover but the patterns and thresholds vary between ecoregions, reflecting complex fire-human interactions.



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Tables

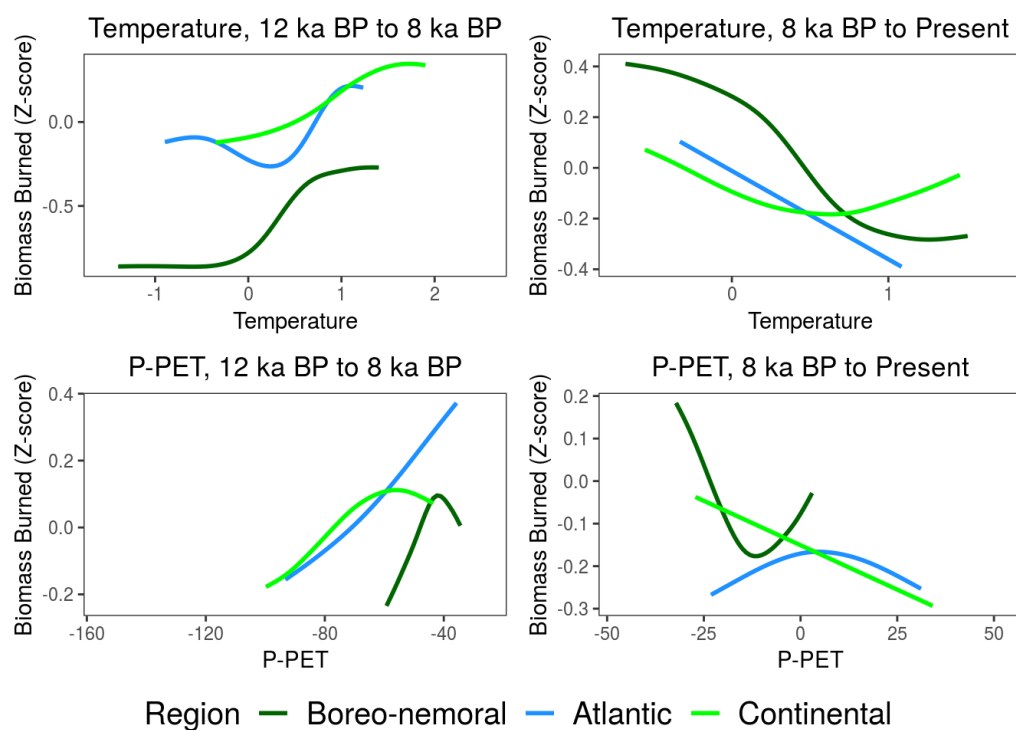
505 **Table 1.** Model selection results for generalized additive models of the effects of land cover and climate
 on biomass burned. Model selection metrics were obtained using the summary functions in the mgcv
 and qpcR packages in R. Lower values of Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) and higher values of AIC
 weights identify the models that were best able to predict the observed changes in biomass burned.
 Delta AIC values measure the relative performance of each model compared to the best model for that
 510 region; a delta AIC of > 2 between two models is typically considered to indicate a significant
 difference in explanatory power.

	Models	AIC	delta AIC	Weights	Cumulative weight
	Atlantic (ATL)				
515	Broadleaf forest	-154.0558	0	1	1
	Arable/disturbed	-94.8110	59.2448	0.0000	1
	Total tree cover	-86.2392	67.8166	0	1
	Heath/scrubland	-77.5731	76.4827	0	1
	Pasture/natural grassland -	-64.3536	89.7022	0	1
520	Needleleaf forest	-33.5075	120.5483	0	1
	Climate	-33.1322	120.9236	0	1
	Intercept	0.1920	154.2479	0	1
	Boreo-Nemoral (BNE)				
525	Broadleaf forest	-89.1985	0	1	1
	Arable/disturbed	-45.2853	43.9131	2.91E-10	1
	Needleleaf forest	-40.6312	48.5673	2.84E-11	1
	Total tree cover	-36.7701	52.4284	4.12E-12	1
	Pasture/natural grassland	-20.7741	68.4244	1.39E-15	1
530	Heath/scrubland	-19.4368	69.7616	0	1
	Climate	-17.5311	71.6674	2.74E-16	1
	Intercept	45.0892	134.2877	6.91E-30	1
	Continental (CON)				
535	Total tree cover	-206.6704	0.0001	0.9197	0.9197
	Broadleaf forest	-200.8468	5.8236	0.5001	0.9698
	Heath/scrubland	-199.6713	6.9990	0.0277	0.9975
	Arable/disturbed	-194.7156	11.9547	0.0023	0.9999
	Pasture/natural grassland	-187.7218	18.9485	0.0000	1
540	Needleleaf forest	-145.1892	61.4812	0.0000	1
	Climate	-144.9648	61.7055	0.0000	1
	Intercept	-98.2406	108.4297	0.000	1

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Appendix A. Fire-climate relationship in the three ecoregions from Central and Eastern Europe for the 12-8 ka BP and 8-0 ka BP period, respectively. The relationship between biomass burned, determined from z-score composite charcoal values and simulated seasonal summer (June, July, August (JJA)) temperatures and precipitation minus potential evapotranspiration (P-PET) was developed from generalized additive models (GAMs).



555 **Supplement S1:** Table S1. Metadata



Supplement S2. R code, plots, and descriptive information demonstrating the development of generalized additive models (GAMs) to explore the relationship between fire, land cover classes and climate for each region.

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Data sets

Accessibility Statement

All essential input and output data will be made open-access and available online in suitable repositories (e.g. the Global Charcoal Database, Neotoma, Pangaea) upon publication.

565 Software and model code: R code, plots, and descriptive information demonstrating the development of generalized additive models (GAMs) are presented in Supplement S2.

Author contribution: AF, BV, and WF design the study with contribution from TH and MF. AF compiled site-based data and performed the analyses. DW, MF, AP, JL and CW developed the model
570 codes and/or performed the modeling. All others provided data or carried out a minor component of data compilation or analysis. AF prepared the manuscript with significant contributions BV, WF, SC, and input from all authors.

Competing interests: The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.
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Acknowledgements: TraCE-21ka was made possible by the DOE INCITE computing program, and supported by NCAR, the NSF P2C2 program, and the DOE Abrupt Change and EaSM programs. M. We thank Metzger for providing the environmental stratification of Europe, and O Blarquez for guidance with the paleofire package.

580

Financial support. This work was supported by the German Research Foundation [FE-1096/4-1]. This study is based on the PAGES Global Charcoal Database (www.paleofire.org) initiative developed by



the Global Paleofire Working Group phase 2 (<http://pastglobalchanges.org/ini/wg/gpwwg2/intro>), which in turn received support from the US National Science Foundation and the Swiss Academy of Sciences.

585 This database is hosted/funded by the Chrono-environment laboratory at University of Bourgogne Franche-Comté (France). Data consolidation was undertaken during a PAGES-funded workshop in 2016 in Frankfurt, Germany. M.A. acknowledges the financial support from the Slovenian Research Agency (No. P6-0064 and J7-6857), A.P. and A.C.D., from UEFISCDI - Romania (PN-III-P4-ID-PCE-2016-0711), M.S. from Research Council of Lithuania (S-MIP-17-133), K.M. from Swiss Government

590 Excellence Postdoctoral Scholarship (FIRECO 2016.0310), K.K., M.L. and K.M. from the National Science Centre in Poland (2015/17/B/ST10/01656 and 2015/17/B/ST10/03430), V.A.C and P.K. from Czech Science Foundation (16-06915S), S.V., A.P. J.V. from the Estonian Ministry of Education and Research (PRG323). E.J. from the Czech Academy of Sciences (RVO 67985939), P.B. from Czech Science Foundation (GA14-22658S), W.F. from the ANR OBRESOC project (ANR 09-CEP-004-01),

595 E.M and I.V. from the Hungarian National Research, Development and Innovation Office (NKFIH 101362 and GINOP-2.3.2-15-2016-00019).

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