Assessing changes in global fire regimes

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Abstract

Human activity has fundamentally altered wildfire on Earth, creating serious consequences for human health, global biodiversity, and climate change. However, it remains difficult to predict fire interactions with land use, management, and climate change, representing a serious knowledge gap and vulnerability. We used expert assessment to combine opinions about past and future fire regimes from 98 wildfire researchers. We asked for quantitative and qualitative assessments of the frequency, type, and implications of fire regime change from the beginning of the Holocene through the year 2300. Respondents indicated that direct human activity was already influencing wildfires locally since at least ~12,000 years BP, though natural climate variability remained the dominant driver of fire regime until around 5000 years BP. Responses showed a ten-fold increase in the rate of wildfire regime change during the last 250 years compared with the rest of the Holocene, corresponding first with the intensification and extensification of land use and later with anthropogenic climate change. Looking to the future, fire

regimes were predicted to intensify, with increases in fire frequency, severity, and/or size in all biomes

except grassland ecosystems. Fire regime showed quite different climate sensitivities across biomes, but

the likelihood of fire regime change increased with higher greenhouse gas emission scenarios for all

biomes. Biodiversity, carbon storage, and other ecosystem services were predicted to decrease for most

biomes under higher emission scenarios. We present recommendations for adaptation and mitigation

under emerging fire regimes, concluding that management options are seriously constrained under higher

emission scenarios.

Introduction

Human alteration of land cover and climate is reshaping wildfire on Earth (Bowman et al., 2020; Davis,

2021; T. M. Ellis et al., 2022; Pereira et al., 2022). Most terrestrial ecosystems have coevolved with fire

over millions of years and many require periodic disturbance to maintain ecosystem structure and

function (Bond et al., 2005; Harris et al., 2016). Yet, when fires exceed their historical patterns of

intensity, extent, severity, seasonality, and frequency (hereafter *fire regime*; Figure.1a), they can

deleteriously influence biodiversity (Feng et al., 2021; Kelly et al., 2020), climate (IPCC, 2021), and

societies (Doerr & Santín, 2016; Johnston et al., 2021; Jones, 2017). In some regions, recent state changes

in fire regime have reduced ecosystem services, including air quality, water availability, habitat, and

ecosystem carbon storage (Collins et al., 2021; Crandall et al., 2021; McClure & Jaffe, 2018; Pausas &

Keeley, 2019; Xie et al., 2022). These changes in disturbances can cause loss of life and property,

degradation of health, acute risk to fire managers, emergency evacuations, and other socioeconomic

impacts (Balch et al., 2020; Raymond et al., 2020).

In the past and across large spatial scales, the dominant driver of fire regime has been the interaction

between climate and vegetation (Abbott et al., 2016; Girardin et al., 2013; Harris et al., 2016; McDowell et

al., 2020; Molinari et al., 2020). All aspects of climate, but especially patterns of precipitation and

temperature influence vegetation composition and its moisture content. Climate and weather also control

ignition sources, with lightning being the most common natural source of wildfire. Consequently, climate

lays the foundation for fire regimes through fuel availability, flammability, and ignition likelihood

(Bowman et al., 2009; Chen et al., 2021; Scholten et al., 2021). As humans modified global patterns of

vegetation, ignition, and climate over the past several millennia (Abbott et al., 2019; E. C. Ellis et al., 2021;

McDowell et al., 2020; Watson et al., 2018), fire disturbance became progressively more

anthropogenically influenced across local to global scales (Figure. 1a). For example, humans have directly

modified vegetation type and density for 77% of the Earth's terrestrial surface, primarily through

agriculture, with myriad consequences for fuel characteristics and ignition sources (Balch et al., 2017a;

Bowman et al., 2011; Marlon et al., 2008; Słowiński et al., 2022; Watson et al., 2018). Understanding the

characteristics and sensitivity of fire regime change is crucial for sustainable land management as well as

climate change mitigation, adaptation, and planning (Cochrane & Bowman, 2021). However, knowledge

of thresholds and tipping points in the relationships linking climate, land use, and fire regimes is lacking.

In this context, we conducted an assessment of scientific opinion about the drivers and consequences of

fire regime change in the Holocene and near future. Combining assessments from multiple sources allows

an integrative evaluation of the range of possible futures complementary to numerical model projections

(Morgan, 2014; Sayedi et al., 2020; Schuur et al., 2013). These assessments can address the current needs

of decision-makers and ecosystem managers to better understand and apply the consensus view from the

research community. Using the collected informed opinion from experts, we evaluated centennial to

millennial-scale state changes (Figure.1a) in past, present, and future fire regimes at both regional and

biome levels through four questions: 1. How have fire regimes varied during the Holocene (the last

~11,700 years); 2. How likely are fire regime state changes under different future climate change

scenarios; 3. What component of ecosystems will be affected by potential future fire regimes; and 4.

What types of human activities could be the most effective for mitigation and adaptation under future fire

regimes?

We asked experts from around the world (included here as co-authors) to respond to these questions for

terrestrial ecosystems in seven biogeographic realms and 14 biomes (Figure1.b) that reflect global

bioclimatic, socioeconomic, and fire regime characteristics (Olson et al., 2001). Each expert responded for

a biome-scale fire regime within a biogeographic realm (we define this unit "a *fire region"*) of their

expertise. We received responses for 70% of flammable land area worldwide (total land surface excluding

rock, ice, and lakes; Figure1.b, S1, Table S2).

Methods and materials

We used expert assessment to evaluate the risk of fire regime change and its consequences in the future.

After a literature review of both scientific and policy related documents about wildfires and fire regime

change, we designed a questionnaire to gather scientific opinion on changes in fire regimes and their

effects on ecosystems, climate, and societies (see Supplementary Information). The focus was specifically

on centennial-to-millennial changes in past, present and future fire regimes by biogeographic realms and

biome to consider long-term processes beyond observational and instrumental records. After two

pretesting rounds, the finalized questionnaire was distributed to 430 scientists with fire related expertise.

The list of experts was developed based on publications and referees from respondents. We received 123

filled surveys from 98 respondents (46% female, 45% male, 9% unspecified) (Table S2) from 23 countries

(Figure.S24). The primary research disciplines as self-identified by the respondents were 55%

paleoecology, 17% ecology, and 28% other fields such as geography or geosciences.

The questionnaire included background information on the concept of fire regime and state change to

delineate a standardized definition for this study for experts to use and a description of RCP scenarios and

predicted temperature and precipitation (see Supplementary Information). The question section focused

on four key topics: 1) past fire regimes, 2) current fire regime states, 3) future fire projections, and 4)

interventions and management. For each section, a self-reported expertise, confidence level, sources

used to generate estimates (e.g., published or unpublished empirical data, professional opinion)

(Table.S3), along with a list of sources of uncertainty were provided (Table.1). The questionnaire was a

combination of quantitative and qualitative questions (full questionnaire included in the Supplementary

Information). The qualitative questions included both open-ended questions and numerical responses.

The open-ended questions were analyzed using thematic analysis method by coding the responses into

categories after reviewing the responses.

For some of the quantitative questions, three quantiles (5% lower, 50% central and 95% upper) were

provided to build a credible range of 90% for each question. We primarily used median central estimates

for the main manuscript; though full ranges are shown in the Supplementary Information. We used

nonparametric boxplots to evaluate the range of responses for each question, with descriptive statistics

calculated in R version 3.6.1. We used ArcGIS Pro 3.0 for spatial analyses and visualizations.

Results and discussion

In the following subsections, we present estimates and suggestions based on experts' responses and we

compare these opinions of estimates and projections with relevant literature. We focus on general

patterns and trends among biomes and biogeographic realms (the comprehensive expert responses by

fire region are available in the Supplementary Information). For the purposes of our study, we defined

state change broadly as a large and sustained departure from a set of specific system behaviors (details in

Supplementary Information-questionnaire). Fire regime state changes can be triggered by pulse or press

disturbances, including internal and external drivers (e.g. climate change, vegetation shifts, human

behavior), and can be reversible or permanent. For example, a state change in fire regime may be

expressed as a shift in the central tendency (a decrease in mean annual area burned), overall variance (an

increase in inter-annual variability of area burned), or frequency of events that exceed an ecological

threshold (a change in the return interval of crown fires)(Scheffer et al., 2009; Seddon et al., 2014).

Past to present drivers of fire regime

133 The median estimated number of fire regime state changes during the Holocene ranged from seven

134 (*Temperate grasslands, savannas, and shrublands*) to two (*Tundra*) across biomes (Figure. S2). Regarding

135 the timing of the three largest fire regime state changes, 16% of respondents identified the early

136 Holocene (ca. 11,700–8,200 BP), 27% the mid Holocene (ca. 8,200–4,200 BP), and 57% the late Holocene

137 (ca. 4,200–0 BP). A temporal acceleration of state change occurred after the Industrial Revolution (1760

138 A.D.), which included 20% of the fire regime changes (Figure. S3). This represents a ~10-fold increase in

139 the rate of fire regime changes over the last 250 years. The *Nearctic* and *Australasia* showed even

140 stronger recent changes in fire regime, with 30% and 36% of the identified fire regime changes occurring

141 in the past 250 years, respectively.

142 Climate was identified as the main driver of fire regime changes during the Holocene (47% of responses),

143 especially in the early and mid-Holocene. Direct human activity was the second most identified driver

144 (32%). However, the onset of strong human influence on fire regime occurred at different times in

145 different regions (Figure. 2), with the greatest influence during the late Holocene. However, for the post-

146 industrial period (1950 A.D.-present), climate change and direct human activity were mentioned equally

147 often (40% and 46%, respectively). Vegetation and fuel were the least mentioned drivers for each time

148 interval (Figure. S4), likely because these factors respond to climate on centennial timescales, illustrating

149 the importance of temporal scale when considering drivers.

150 Respondents identified several dimensions of fire regime altered over the past 250 years, including fire

151 frequency, extent, and severity (Figure. S5). A wide range of human-wildfire interactions specific to fire

152 regions were identified. For example, in *Indo-Malayan Tropical forests*, deforestation due to economic

153 development has changed the fuel structure and ignition sources, increasing fire activity in an ecosystem

154 where it was historically rare. Other fire management strategies such as increased fire suppression and

155 exclusion of Indigenous or traditional prescribed burning practices were recognized as drivers of increased

156 fire severity, especially when coupled with recent temperature increases. In seven biomes it was

157 suggested that a change in fire regime occurred since the industrial revolution (Figure. S3), with the

median estimate of current fire regime duration less than 200 years (Figure.S6). For *Tundra,*

Mediterranean forests, woodlands, and scrub; Tropical and subtropical moist broadleaf forests, and

Tropical and subtropical grasslands, savannas, and shrubs, this duration was less than 70 years (Figure.

S6).

Timing and type of future fire regime change

Respondents provided estimates of fire regime change for their fire region in 2050, 2100, and 2300 based

on the IPCC representative concentration pathways (RCP) 2.6, 4.5, and 8.5, representing increasingly

severe climate change scenarios. Most respondents projected that the likelihood of fire regime change

increased with time and climate change severity (Figure. S9-10). Under RCP8.5, nine biomes were

projected to have more than 50% chance of experiencing a fire regime change by 2050, compared to one

biome for RCP2.6. By 2100 and 2300 even under RCP2.6, five biomes were predicted to have a ≥50%

likelihood of fire regime change (Figures. 3a, S9-10). The climate sensitivity (amount of increase in the

likelihood of a fire regime change across RCP scenarios) varied substantially among biomes. For example,

for *Tundra*, RCP2.6 was enough to initiate a fire regime change, while the projected likelihood of fire

regime change was much lower under RCP2.6 than RCP8.5 for *Boreal forests* (Figure.3b, S11-12). Analysis

for all scales, years, and scenarios are presented in the Supplementary Inforamtion.

The climate sensitivity estimates from this study were in agreement with many modeling studies

projecting future changes in fire activity (Bowman et al., 2020). Climate drivers such as *fire weather* and

fire danger days are predicted to increase in many areas of the globe (IPCC, 2021), particularly in fire-

prone regions such as the Mediterranean basin, southwestern USA, and subtropical regions of the

Southern Hemisphere (Bowman et al., 2017; Cook et al., 2022). An increase in extreme *fire behavior* is

also predicted in many regions such as the Amazon, western USA, Mediterranean and southern Australia

(Bowman et al., 2020). Substantial intensification of fire behavior is projected for higher latitudes through

the end of the 21st century (Abbott et al., 2021; Flannigan et al., 2013; Talucci et al., 2022), though local

fire patterns are expected to be heterogeneous (McCarty et al., 2021).

Respondents projected an intensification of fire regime across biomes, with burned area, frequency, and

severity increasing for all but a few biome-time-step combinations (Figure. 4). The magnitude of change

generally increased with time and with higher emission scenarios (Figure. S13-16). These predictions are

consistent with other studies, suggesting a substantial intensification of fire regimes with greater

warming. For example, panarctic wildfire emissions have been predicted to increase by 250% by 2100

under RCP8.5 (Abbott et al., 2016). Similarly, fire emissions in Finnish Boreal forests have been predicted

to experience a 190% increase, even under RCP4.5 (McCarty et al., 2021). In Europe, burned area is

predicted to increase between 180% to 360% until the end of the century under RCP8.5, but less than

60% under RCP2.6 (Wu et al., 2015). In another study in southern Europe, burned area is projected to

increase 5–50% per decade under high emission scenarios (Dupuy et al., 2020). Another study projected a

40–100% increase in burned area with a 1.5° to 3°C warming for Mediterranean Europe (Bowman et al.,

2020). An increase in burned area is likewise predicted for the Amazon and western USA (Abatzoglou et

al., 2021; Bowman et al., 2020). In the grasslands of central Asia, the potential burned area is expected to

increase 13% by 2080 (Zong et al., 2020).

Contrary to most regions, less burning was predicted by experts in some parts of Africa under warmer

scenarios, consistent with observations (Andela & Van Der Werf, 2014) that reveal a more intense fire

regime under cooler and wetter climates that favor fuel build up in these dry regions (Daniau et al., 2013).

More generally, fire frequency and severity are expected to decrease in fuel-limited ecosystems under

drier conditions, while they should increase in ecosystems with ample humidity (Rogers et al., 2020).

When interpreting these survey results, it is important to recognize that within a single fire region,

different ecological communities may experience divergent future fire trajectories (Moritz et al., 2012).

For example, the risk of fire-climate interactions can vary in different type of conifer forests of western

North America (moist-dry-subalpine) based on their elevation (Halofsky et al., 2020). This community-

dependence was mentioned by respondents for most fire regions in this study. For example, substantial

differences exist between eastern and western *Boreal forests* of the *Nearctic,* with the latter experiencing

increasing trends in burn rates(Chavardès et al., 2022a). Although with projected climate change,

convergence towards increasing burn rates is possible for eastern and western *Boreal forests of the*

Nearactic during the mid- to late-21st C.(Chavardès et al., 2022b).

Consequences of fire regime change

Biodiversity, carbon stocks, and ecosystem services were anticipated to decrease with future fire regime

change. Respondents estimated that the magnitude of change will increase for more extreme warming

scenarios and longer timeframes in most biomes (Figure. 5, S17-20). However, the respondents suggested

a general increase in albedo in the time frame 2050-2100, which could exert a transitory stabilizing effect

on climate, and a further change in direction for some biomes through 2300 (Figure. 5, S21). Analysis for

all scales, scenarios, and years are presented in the Supplementary Inforamtion.

While it is difficult to assess agreement between respondents and the broader wildfire literature for such

diverse fire regions, the overall results were generally aligned with the literature. It is anticipated that

progressive increases in fire activity will impact biodiversity and ecosystem services in most regions,

notably because ecosystem response to change and disturbance takes centuries to millenniums to reach

equilibrium (Carcaillet et al., 2010, 2020). Local ecosystem services can be substantially altered by novel

fire regimes. For example, in the Indian tropical dry forests, an increase in fire activity may negatively alter

forest potential for water regulation by changing soil characteristics (Schmerbeck & Fiener, 2015), and

atmospheric moisture recycling (Abbott et al., 2019). Similarly, changes in fire regime may also affect

forest ecosystems and species that have historically been less affected by fire, as for beech forests (*Fagus*

sylvatica L.) of Central Europe (Maringer et al., 2012).

In tropical biomes, an increase in extreme wildfires where fires are rare could affect tree mortality leading

to habitat loss (Deb et al., 2018; Silveira et al., 2016). In the Mediterranean, an increase in fire events can

create favorable conditions for some understory vegetation by temporarily reducing tree cover (Connor et

al., 2019; Fournier et al., 2020). In savannas, longer fire intervals and elevated CO_2 may create favorable

conditions for woody vegetation (Sage, 2020), which can have a negative impact on biodiversity (Veldman

et al., 2015). New fire regimes can also be favorable to some introduced and invasive taxa, including

cheatgrass in some desert environments of the USA, tussock grass and pampas grass in Spain, and

Robinia, *Ailanthus* in Portugal (Maringer et al., 2012). These species exploit novel disturbance niches to

outcompete native vegetation during post-fire recovery. Consequently, both direct and indirect effects of

fire regime change can alter plant community structure and composition with amplifying feedbacks on

different aspects of fire regimes including frequency and extent (Bishop et al., 2020; Wan et al., 2014).

The consequences of fire regime change for ecosystem carbon balance are diverse. Novel climatic

conditions in peatlands can slow their recovery from disturbances, decreasing carbon stocks (Loisel et al.,

2021). More severe and frequent fires can threaten legacy carbon in Boreal forests (Walker et al., 2019),

though changes to successional trajectories may offset or negate these losses in some cases (Mack et al.,

2021). Respondents in this study projected a net decrease in *Boreal* carbon stocks under warmer

scenarios. Another indirect effect of wildfire on carbon balance is local air pollution. For example, ozone

produced during combustion can damage plant tissues, potentially doubling carbon losses by reducing

photosynthesis post fire (Lasslop et al., 2019). Because human land use and fire regime are so closely

linked, human actions such as deforestation coupled with cropland development can decrease carbon

stocks at the same time as they modify the fire regime (Bowman et al., 2011; Cochrane & Bowman, 2021).

In other studies, it has been suggested that increased vegetation cover in higher latitudes will lead to

decreased of albedo, which can have a more pronounced warming effect than greenhouse gases (Field et

al., 2007). Not only can fires directly change the albedo of the region by altering land characteristics, but

they also affect albedo by the pollutants they produce. For example, enhanced black carbon and soot

deposition associated with increased fire disturbance will contribute to accelerated ice melting and

decreased albedo (Aubry-Wake et al., 2022; McCarty et al., 2021). Conversely, increased tropical peatland

fire can increase albedo (Ohkubo et al., 2021). Albedo may be reduced in the immediate aftermath of fire

in sub-Saharan Africa, but it returns to pre-fire conditions within a few years (Gatebe et al., 2014).

Perhaps because of the spatiotemporal complexity of the wildfire-albedo interaction, most respondents

predicted little change in albedo.

Our capacity to prevent, control, or adapt to future fire regimes

Respondents identified different fire regime drivers depending on the warming scenario and fire region.

Under higher emissions (i.e., RCP4.5 and RCP8.5), most experts suggested that climatic factors would be

the dominant driver of fire regime change. Conversely, under RCP2.6, only about half of the responses

indicated that climatic factors would be the most important driver. Within *Australasia* and *Nearctic* fire

regimes, climatic factors were identified as the most important driver for all scenarios. On the other hand,

in the *Neotropic, Afrotropic*, and *Indo-Malayan* biogeographic realms, human activities were identified as

most important. While vegetation and fuel were also frequently mentioned, these factors were never

suggested as the most important driver of future fire regime changes (Figure. S22), highlighting the

complex interplay amongst climate, fuel, and fire, especially on centennial timescales.

Survey results suggest that human actions for the next 20-50 years will be highly influential in determining

how different ecosystem values (e.g., biodiversity, carbon stocks) are likely to change. Only 14% of the

respondents indicated human actions have no effect, primarily in the case of albedo (Table. S1). Only 10%

of responses recommended non-intervention, which instead was rated as a negative or unhelpful

approach, though there were mixed opinions across and within fire regions.

About half of the respondents considered direct land management as an important approach for

mitigating impacts of changing fire regime. In particular, fuel treatment, vegetation management,

urban/suburban landscaping, and agriculture were identified as potentially useful mitigation approaches.

There was high agreement that prescribed burning would help biodiversity and ecosystem services, but

there were mixed opinions about its effect on carbon stocks, potentially because the area subject to

prescribed burning is relatively small compared to the total burned area each year. There was less

agreement about other fuel management techniques such as forest clearing or thinning, potentially

because of the variety of vegetation types under consideration, and the lack of consensus in the literature

on mechanical treatments. Even though activities such as clear-cutting reduce fuel, fire activity may

increase due to the effects on microclimate and residual biomass, therefore changing fuel structure and

composition (Bergeron et al., 2010; Cyr et al., 2009; Lindenmayer et al., 2009, 2020; Maxwell et al., 2019;

Stephens et al., 2020). Conversely, traditional or Indigenous practices, such as cultural burning, were

suggested as beneficial in reinforcing fire regime resilience and reducing damage by preventing extreme

wildfire events (Christianson, 2015; Fernandes, 2020; Fletcher et al., 2021). There was a high level of

agreement among experts who mentioned restoring vegetation (i.e., native habitat conservation and

restoration) as a positive impact on all ecosystem values. There were mixed opinions about introducing

fire resilient plants, but agreement on the positive effect of reducing flammable invasive plants. The

natural or artificial selection of nonflammable species was mostly considered to have a negative effect on

biodiversity and ecosystem services but variable effects on carbon and albedo.

Several landscape management strategies had general support, including increasing landscape

heterogeneity, diversification, and reduction of landscape flammability by targeted land use, as well as

creating buffer zones around primary and old-growth forests (Barredo et al., 2021). Attention to the

human-wildfire interface was a common recommendation, as certain levels of population (housing)

density, wildland-urban interface, and landscape connectivity can dramatically affect the characteristics

and societal consequences of fire (Archibald et al., 2012; Kelley et al., 2019; Moritz et al., 2014; Syphard et

al., 2007).

Direct fire management was recommended in 17% of expert responses. In the case of fire suppression as

a direct fire management strategy, there was less agreement about the direction of effects on different

factors. In some studies, it has been shown that fire suppression had a negative impact on fire-dependent

ecosystems. Such policies have led to fuel accumulation and increased flammability that has contributed

to today's extreme wildfire events (Marlon et al., 2012; Parisien et al., 2020; Schoennagel et al., 2017;

Valese et al., 2014). A greater proportion of respondents (23%) indicated the importance of social or

political awareness and action. These included climate mitigation, education of the public regarding fire

danger and ignitions, direct or indirect conservation policies, and incorporation of Indigenous or

traditional knowledge (Table. S1). Although we have summarized and combined all the management

suggestions from experts of different fire regions, we remind the reader that suitable management

applications can significantly vary between and within biomes based on various factors (detailed

responses for each fire region can be found in the Supplementary Information).

There was strong agreement among experts, except for the *Afrotropic* and the *Indo-Malayan*

biogeographic realms, that under RCP8.5, humans will have a decreasing capacity to control wildfires. This

was most obvious for the *Neotropic* and *Nearctic*, and *Australasia* for the later years (2100 and 2300).

Experts on *Neotropic* and *Nearctic* fire regimes indicated that this same decreased capacity was likely to

apply under RCP4.5. 70% of the respondents indicate that under RCP2.6, humans will maintain some

ability of managing fire-impacts (Figure. S23).

Charting a course in a world of uncertainty

For each question, respondents identified the main sources of uncertainty (Table 1), which included

limited observational data, inadequate modeling frameworks, and system complexity, particularly social

dimensions. Respondents emphasized that the impact of different human activities is not completely

understood for the past or present and that untangling different fire drivers can be difficult due to

multiple interactions and feedbacks, which are often not represented in coupled models. Respondents

also mentioned that the unprecedented rate of climate change and diversity of human activity made

estimations of fire return intervals and other dimensions of fire regime uncertain. Respondents were

uncertain about emergent economic and policy direction, beliefs, and technologies as tools to combat

changing fire regime. Additional sources of uncertainty included the exclusion of small fires below the

detection of satellite census and a lack of information about fire severity impacting ecological succession,

albedo, and carbon-climate feedbacks.

While our study may have limited application in many specific management contexts, there were some

general patterns that could be informative for policymakers, managers, and researchers. First, there is a

high level of agreement across regions that the risk of damaging fire characteristics will be greater under

higher emissions. While the specific consequences will vary by fire region and habitat type, the overall

message is clear: rapid reduction of greenhouse gas emissions is needed to restore Holocene-like climate

conditions. Otherwise, the emergence of novel climates and fire regimes outside of the range of Holocene

variability, will complicate our ability to conserve habitats, ensure healthy communities, and preserve

terrestrial carbon uptake and storage. Without a reduction in emissions, changes in fire regime could

eclipse climate mitigation policies such as negative emissions through reforestation and afforestation

(Anderegg et al., 2020; Veldman et al., 2019). Any carbon uptake from recovered or cultivated forests

could be negated by the increased fire frequency or intensity projected for many regions (Hammond et

al., 2022; Smith et al., 2020).

A second overall lesson is that knowledge of past fire regimes provides perspective on how climate,

vegetation, and human actions interacted to shape fire in the Earth system (Marlon et al., 2008; Molinari

et al., 2018; Pechony & Shindell, 2010). For example, paleo-ecological knowledge about vegetation

community and historical amplitude of fire regime change in a given biome can provide estimates of

historical thresholds and optimal vegetation structure for management purposes (Hennebelle et al.,

2018). Likewise, fire histories show human-vegetation-climate linkages, such as decreasing tree cover

creating microclimates favorable to the encroachment of flammable vegetation in the understory

(Feurdean et al., 2020). An overarching lesson learned from looking at Holocene fire histories is that

projected conditions are generally unprecedented, meaning that human-fire interactions could have

extreme and unexpected consequences (Bova et al., 2021). We should not assume that historical

management practices will suffice (Crandall et al., 2021; E. C. Ellis et al., 2021; Pyne, 2007) given

accelerated rates of vegetation change since c. 4000 BP (Mottl et al., 2021), the emergence of novel biotic

and abiotic conditions (Burke et al., 2019; Finsinger et al., 2017; Ordonez et al., 2016), and increasing

populations. For example, the expansion of human development in fire prone areas in the western US is

increasing both wildfire incidence and cost of suppression (Balch et al., 2017a, 2017b).

Third, despite the substantial uncertainties associated with fire regimes, mitigation efforts such as

allowing some fires to burn to reduce fuel loads, prescribed burning, and fuel treatments will help limit

fire impacts and cost (Harris et al., 2016; Mietkiewicz et al., 2020; Moritz et al., 2014; Radeloff et al.,

2018). Likewise, the conservation of large, contiguous ecosystems allows the use of more effective

wildfire management tools such as prescribed burning and increases resilience when unexpected wildfire

behavior emerges (Bentley & Penman, 2017; Driscoll et al., 2016; Miller, 2020).

While this study brought together a diverse group of paleo and present fire researchers, we point out that

our group is not geographically balanced. Despite invitations to several hundred researchers, we only

received a few responses for some fire regions (Figure. 1b), including the African subtropical and tropical

grassland region, which accounts for a large portion of global area burned (Ramo et al., 2021). This

reflects the broader geographical and cultural bias in ecological research generally and wildfire research

specifically (Bradstock et al., 2002; Hantson et al., 2016; Metcalfe et al., 2018), highlighting the need for

more diverse research networks.

We also point out a potential bias in climate scenarios. Low emissions scenarios such as RCP2.6 or SSP1

are sometimes omitted from model inter-comparisons because they are often deemed unfeasible

(McGuire et al., 2018). In reality, it is the more extreme warming scenarios that are becoming less likely

(Hausfather & Peters, 2020; Lovins et al., 2019). We found substantial differences in fire regimes between

RCP2.6 and higher emission scenarios. Given the current rate of the global transition to renewable

energies (Breyer et al., 2022; Hausfather & Peters, 2020; O'Neill et al., 2020), it is important to understand

both the "low " as well as the "high range" of climate change futures.

Expert assessment application in fire management

Decision-making in landscape and fire management requires a great understanding of complex human

and natural systems and their interactions with fire. Currently, policymakers and managers working on

fire issues are operating in a complex environment with sometimes conflicting traditional, scientific, and

political information and priorities. As the physical, biological, and human factors controlling wildfire

behavior change rapidly in the Anthropocene, improving science-policy-management integration would

be highly beneficial for human wellbeing and ecosystem function. The primary scientific knowledge that is

used by decision-makers regarding the future is based on models or single expert advice. As several

respondents mentioned in this study, quantitative models cannot capture all the factors influencing the

evolution of fire behavior. Various types of expert elicitations can complement quantitative models to

generate more robust and reliable guidance that allows adaptive management. This could range from

informal interpretation of model outputs by expert panels to iterative combinations, such as expert input

on supervised and unsupervised machine learning models. These approaches should be (and already are

in some cases) used in various aspects of fire management, from detecting fires to planning and policy, by

providing a benchmark or improving the initial parameters and weights (Jain et al., 2020).

At some level, we are not proposing a new role for experts in policymaking and management, but we are

suggesting that the integration of local expert knowledge be done in a more rigorous and robust way.

Policymakers and managers are making decisions based on available information that is often filtered

through informal information networks, especially trusted relationships and professional networks. By

involving more independent experts to inform policy, it is possible to limit the "one-expert syndrome",

where the opinions or a single knowledge holder dominate the decision-making process, whether that

view represents the broader consensus.

Our study shows that experts have different views about different aspects of wildfires (i.e., there is not

strong consensus on several dimensions of current and future fire behavior). These biases come from

various sources, including scientific background and study methodology (Oppenheimer et al., 2019).

Therefore, developing methods to transfer group expertise to decision-makers is critical. Even though our

study has been done on a global scale to identify large patterns, this method can be beneficial for local

management by bringing local expertise (that in many regions is not represented in scientific publications

that are mostly produced in developed countries), such as indigenous knowledge, into the decision-

making process (Christianson, 2015).

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420
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422 **References**
423

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908

Figure and Table

a) Fire regime state change

b) Respondents per fire region

**Figure1. a) Conceptual diagram of fire regime characteristics and state changes for three example
biomes.** Fire regime is defined in terms of spatial (e.g., extent, type, patchiness), temporal (e.g.,
frequency, interval, seasonality), and physical (e.g., intensity, severity) fire characteristics. The size of
flame in the Figure represents fire extent, and the vertical placement of the flame represents fire type
(e.g., surface vs. crown). The green and brown bands represent above- and below-ground biomass,
respectively. The vertical black dashed lines represent fire regime state change. The gray wedges
represent fire seasonality before fire regime change: W: winter, Sp: Spring, S: summer and F: fall/autumn.
Red dashed lines inside wedges represent new fire regime seasonality after state change **b) The location
of the fire regions used in this study** (Olson 2001) with the number of respondents per fire region.

a)

b)

Figure 2. Estimates of when the earliest human-driven fire regime state changes occurred during the Holocene as estimated by respondents. a) 75th percentile values of the earliest time humans were identified as a major driver of fire regime change by respondents. b) Points represent individual responses, while box plots represent the median, quartiles, most extreme points within 1.5-times the interquartile range (IQR), and points beyond 1.5times the IQR.

a) Likelihood of fire regime change by 2100

b) Magnitude of fire regime change by 2100 for
Representative Concentration Pathway scenarios

Figure 3. Likelihood of fire regime change under different RCP scenarios as estimated by respondents a) Median of central values of the likelihood of fire regime change for year 2100 under three RCP scenarios. **b)** Magnitude of fire regime change for each biome was based on the slope between the estimated likelihood of a fire regime change (%) and the amount of radiative forcing for the three RCP scenarios (W.m^{-2}). The higher values represent a higher magnitude of fire regime likelihood change moving from RCP2.6 to RCP8.5.

944 **Figure 4.** Direction and magnitude of change of fire regime characteristics as estimated by respondents.
945 Median estimates of changes in fire extent (area), frequency, and severity for global warming scenarios
946 RCP2.6, RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 in 2050, 2100, and 2300.

a) Median values of RCP4.5, year 2100 per fire region

b) Summary values for all RCP scenarios, year 2100 per biome

Figure 5. The net effect of predicted fire regime changes on ecosystem values in the future as estimated by respondents. a) The maps show the median value of experts estimate under RCP4.5, year 2100 (see Figures S18-21 for changes in RCP2.6 and RCP8.5). b) Average values and standard error for year 2100 under three RCP scenarios. The full names of the biomes can be seen in Figure1-b. Experts responded on a -5 to 5 scale for how strongly the future fire regime of the three RCP scenarios would affect the indicated parameters in the year 2100 (-5 = strong net decrease, 0 = no net effect, 5= strong net increase).

Table 1. Sources of uncertainty identified by respondents

Past		Current		Future		Management	
Sources of uncertainty	%	Sources of uncertainty	%	Sources of uncertainty	%	Sources of uncertainty	%
Limited proxy-paleo data	23	Spatial variability	31	Vegetation shift	12	Political and socio-economic	22
Spatial variability	17	Limited data	17	Ecosystem interactions and feedbacks[2]	12	Capacity and effectiveness of management and intervention	13
Proxy resolution	15	Combustion/severity	8	Climate change	10	Climate change	11
Model limitation	11	Small fire detection/remote sensing	7	Political and socio-economic	8	Ecosystem interactions and feedbacks	10
Human influence[1]	11	Human activity	8	Model limitation	7	Technology developments	6
Proxy reliability	8	Recent changes	4	Fire management and intervention	7	Science and management connection	4
Temporal variability	6			Land use change	6	Vegetation state	4
Chronological	5			Precipitation	6		

[1]E.g., Fire management history, land use history, etc.
[2]E.g., Climate-vegetation dynamics, albedo and new vegetation, vegetation-fire interaction, fuel-ignition relationships, climate-human intervention, climate-vegetation feedbacks.

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