

1 Regional variability in peatland burning at mid- to high-latitudes during the 2 Holocene

3 Research article for *Quaternary Science Reviews* (13,000 words max)

4 Running title: **Variability in Holocene peatland burning**

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117 **Abstract**

118 Northern peatlands store globally-important amounts of carbon in the form of partly decomposed
119 plant detritus. Drying associated with climate and land-use change may lead to increased fire
120 frequency and severity in peatlands and the rapid loss of carbon to the atmosphere. However, our
121 understanding of the patterns and drivers of peatland burning on an appropriate decadal to millennial
122 timescale relies heavily on individual site-based reconstructions. For the first time, we synthesise
123 peatland macrocharcoal records from across North America, Europe, and Patagonia to reveal regional
124 variation in peatland burning during the Holocene. We used an existing database of proximal
125 sedimentary charcoal to represent regional burning trends in the wider landscape for each region.
126 Long-term trends in peatland burning appear to be largely climate driven, with human activities likely
127 having an increasing influence in the late Holocene. Warmer conditions during the Holocene Thermal
128 Maximum (~9 to 6 cal. ka BP) were associated with greater peatland burning in North America's
129 Atlantic coast, southern Scandinavia and the Baltics, and Patagonia. Since the Little Ice Age, peatland
130 burning has declined across North America and in some areas of Europe. This decline is mirrored by a
131 decrease in wider landscape burning in some, but not all sub-regions, linked to fire-suppression
132 policies, and landscape fragmentation caused by agricultural expansion. Peatlands demonstrate lower
133 susceptibility to burning than the wider landscape in several instances, probably because of autogenic
134 processes that maintain high levels of near-surface wetness even during drought. Nonetheless,
135 widespread drying and degradation of peatlands, particularly in Europe, has likely increased their
136 vulnerability to burning in recent centuries. Consequently, peatland restoration efforts are important
137 to mitigate the risk of peatland fire under a changing climate. Finally, we make recommendations for
138 future research to improve our understanding of the controls on peatland fires.

139 **Key words (3-10)**

140 Fire, Charcoal, Palaeofire, Palaeoenvironments, Data analysis, North America, Europe, Patagonia,
141 Carbon balance, Drought

142 **1. Introduction**

143 Peatlands cover only ~3% of global land area (Xu et al., 2018), but the carbon they store is equivalent
144 to around twice that of global forests (Pan et al., 2011). Peatlands have accumulated ~600 Gt of carbon
145 during the Holocene, primarily at mid- to high-latitudes in the Northern Hemisphere (Yu et al., 2010).
146 Increasingly deeper peatland water tables associated with climate change and human activities (e.g.
147 agriculture, forestry, peat harvesting or road construction) will likely increase the frequency and
148 extent of fires (Flannigan et al., 2009; Turetsky et al., 2015). Furthermore, greater incidence of
149 lightning with warming will increase the frequency of naturally ignited wildfire, particularly in high-
150 latitude ecosystems (He et al., 2022; McCarty et al., 2021). The burning of deep peat releases carbon
151 into the atmosphere that has been stored for centuries or millennia, and may therefore contribute to
152 positive feedbacks influencing climate warming (Davies et al., 2013; Lin et al., 2021). Similarly, burning
153 influences peatland vegetation dynamics, surface moisture and plant productivity – all of which
154 influence the carbon balance (Nelson et al. 2021).

155 Peatlands are subject to both smouldering and flaming combustion. Smouldering combustion has the
156 potential to cause greater direct carbon losses (Rein, 2013). Smouldering peatland fires can last for
157 months, even burning throughout the winter under the snow layer (Rein and Huang, 2021). Burning
158 of surface vegetation may lead to indirect carbon losses via modification of the peatland thermal
159 regime (Brown et al., 2015) or hydrology (Wilkinson et al., 2020). Peatlands store large amounts of
160 potential fuel in the form of partially decomposed organic matter, but typically have high surface
161 moisture content, which limits the chance of ignition and fire propagation (Frandsen, 1997).
162 Furthermore, wildfire can drive permafrost thaw in boreal peatlands, leading to surface wetting
163 (Gibson et al., 2018). Drying caused by the aggradation of permafrost during the Holocene has been
164 shown to have increased the susceptibility of peatlands to fire in North America (Zoltai et al., 1998).
165 Contemporary climatic warming and human disturbance are thought to be increasing peatland
166 vulnerability to wildfire (Nelson et al., 2021). The composition of vegetation cover is an important
167 influence on peatland fire dynamics. Forested peatlands generally burn more frequently than open
168 peatlands (Kuhry, 1994; Magnan et al., 2012), as these ecosystems have increased above-ground fuel
169 availability (Thompson et al., 2019).

170 Patterns in peatland burning vary among biomes and can differ from the fire regime at a landscape
171 scale. For example, boreal peatlands in Canada exhibit mean fire return intervals of ~600-2950 years
172 compared to ~200-1150 years in upland forests (Camill et al., 2009). In Europe, a mean fire interval of
173 ~475 years has been estimated from peatland areas in boreal Norway (Ohlson et al., 2006), while a
174 temperate peatland area in continental Europe showed a frequency of 0-2 fires per 1000 years
175 (Marcisz et al., 2019). The complex ecohydrological dynamics of peatlands interact with changes in
176 local and extra-local vegetation composition, climate and human activities to affect the frequency and
177 severity of peatland fires (Feurdean et al., 2022; Morris et al., 2015; Słowiński et al., 2022).

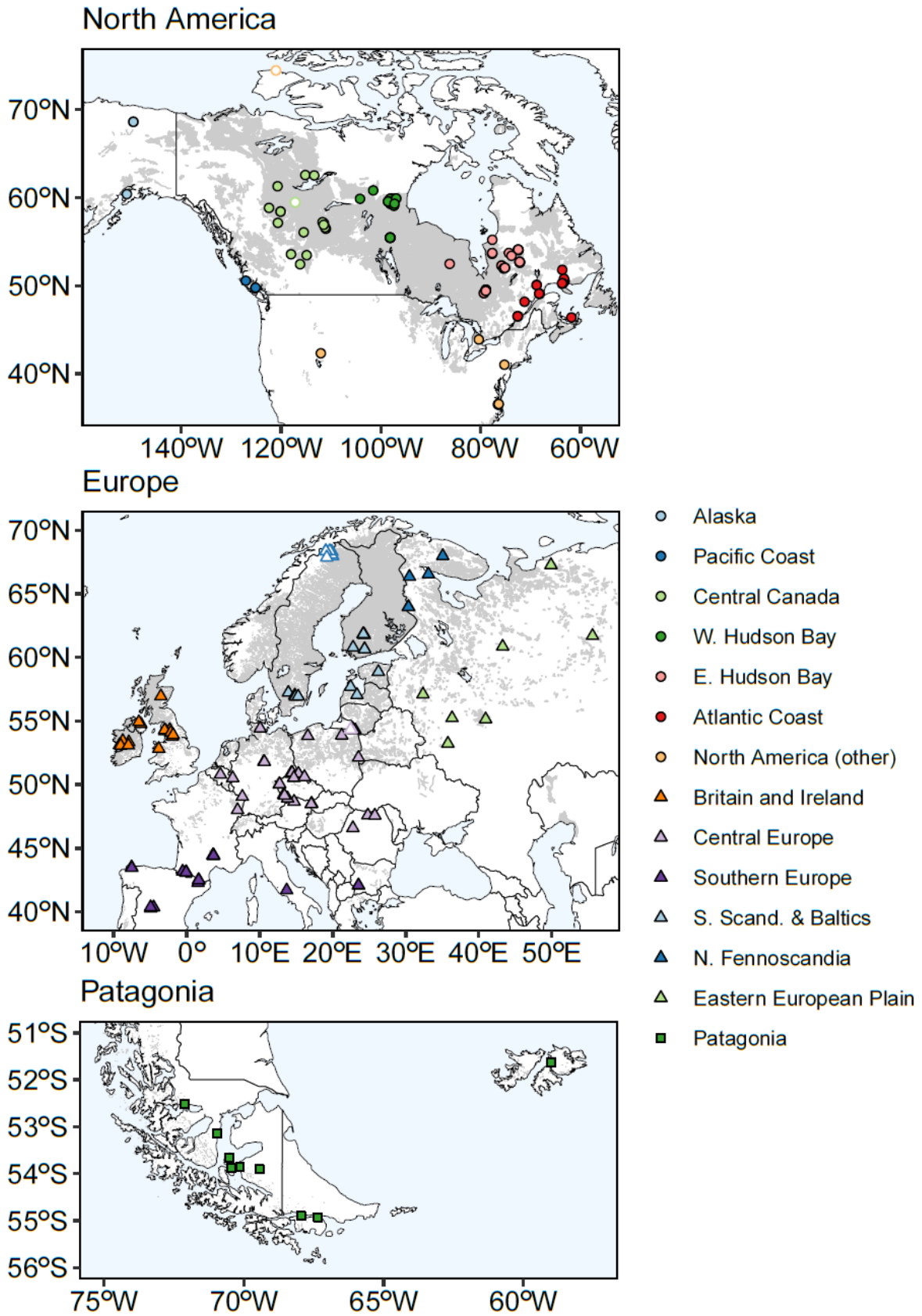
178 The long timescales involved in peatland development, climatic change, vegetation dynamics and fire
179 regimes mean that contemporary monitoring studies may not provide a full picture of peatland fire
180 dynamics. Several continental and global syntheses have used sedimentary charcoal records to
181 reconstruct biomass burning on millennial timescales (Daniau et al., 2012; Marlon et al., 2008, 2016),
182 but no such studies currently exist specifically for peatlands. Consequently, uncertainties remain
183 regarding the long-term ecology of peatland fires on a continental scale. Here, we use a
184 palaeoenvironmental approach to explore regional variability in peatland burning trends at mid- to

185 high-latitudes in North America, Europe and Patagonia on a timescale that provides a baseline for
186 peatland fire dynamics and to better understand the past and present controls on peatland fire.

187 **2. Materials and methods**

188 *2.1. Study regions*

189 We compiled and quality checked macrocharcoal records (we defined macrocharcoal as particles with
190 a diameter $>100\ \mu\text{m}$ (Mooney and Tinner, 2011)) spanning 10,000 cal. yr BP to the present day from
191 mid- to high-latitude peatlands in North America (sites = 68, records = 108), Europe (sites = 95, records
192 = 103), and Patagonia (sites = 9, records = 10). The Patagonian region also includes a record from the
193 Falkland Islands (Malvinas). Chronological quality control criteria are outlined in Section 2.3. These
194 data provide good spatial coverage of peatland areas in North America and Europe (Figure 1; Table
195 S1). We divided North America and Europe into sub-regions to account for spatial differences in
196 modern climate, human occupation and key peatland areas. Only basic analyses were possible for
197 Patagonia due to the low number of sites. We characterised the average modern climatic space of
198 peatland sites and sub-regions using monthly climate data from the CRU TS 4.04 dataset for the 1981-
199 2010 CE period (Harris et al., 2020). These data have been interpolated from climate stations to a 0.5°
200 latitude by 0.5° longitude spatial resolution.



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Figure 1. Site map of peatland record locations and their sub-region. Symbols with a white fill indicate that no charcoal was present throughout a record. Grey shading denotes peatland areas sourced from PEATMAP (Xu et al., 2018).

205 2.2. *Charcoal data*

206 Theoretical models suggest that the dispersal distance of charcoal decreases with particle size (Clark,
207 1988; Clark et al., 1998; Clark and Patterson, 1997; Higuera et al., 2007; Peters and Higuera, 2007).
208 There is evidence that suggests macrocharcoal records (>100-200 μm) represent local scale fires
209 within a few hundred meters (Carcaillet et al., 2001; Clark and Royall, 1996, 1995) or within several
210 kilometres of a coring location (Feurdean et al., 2022, 2020a; Tinner et al., 2006). Source areas of
211 macrocharcoal across Europe may be up to 40 km, but these findings are in relatively open landscapes
212 and specifically for lacustrine settings (Adolf et al., 2018). Peatlands are thought to provide a more
213 localised record of past fire occurrences than lakes because they experience limited secondary
214 deposition by fluvial transport (Florescu et al., 2018; Remy et al., 2018). Furthermore, the peatland
215 records may provide higher resolution information because they are not subjected to the same
216 sediment reworking as in lakes (Clark and Patterson, 1997; Conedera et al., 2009; Oswald et al., 2005).

217 For these reasons, we assume that our peatland macrocharcoal records (>100 μm) are primarily a
218 proxy for burning of peatland aboveground vegetation or burning of the peat itself. However, we
219 cannot rule out the influence of some charcoal input from vegetation in immediate vicinity of the
220 peatland and in some instances from a regional source – especially from intense crown fires or those
221 occurring during high winds (Gardner and Whitlock, 2001; Peters and Higuera, 2007). There is
222 evidence of fine-scale variation in the quantity of charcoal within a peatland relating to topography,
223 fuel type and land-use history (Cui et al., 2020; Kasin et al., 2013) that we cannot account for in this
224 study. Similarly, particularly severe in-situ smouldering fires can consume much of the charcoal they
225 produce and cause some loss of the peatland archive (Zaccone et al., 2014).

226 To enable a comparison of localised peatland burning to that in the wider regional landscape, we
227 selected records that were proximal to our peatland sites (see Figure S1) from the Global Charcoal
228 Database (GCD) v.4.0.7 using the Paleofire package v.1.2.4 (Blarquez et al., 2014) in R v.4.0.5 (R Core
229 Team, 2021). These records from the GCD include microcharcoal and macrocharcoal and are from a
230 variety of sedimentary archives, excluding those listed as a bog, fen or mire. These records are
231 assumed to provide a record of regional biomass burning (Marlon et al., 2016). We ensured that the
232 wider landscape sites that pertained to each sub-region were within a convex hull defined by the loci
233 of the peatland sites in that sub-region, or no more than 200 km outside it (150 km in central Europe
234 to avoid duplication of sites). Further details of the wider landscape records selected from the GCD
235 can be found in Figure S1 and Table S2. Where peatland macrocharcoal records from the GCD met
236 our quality control criteria, we included them in our peatland burning dataset (see Table S1).

237 2.3. *Age-depth modelling*

238 In order to standardise the methodology used for age-depth modelling, we produced new Bayesian
239 age-depth models (Figures S2-S38) for each peatland record from chronological information such as
240 ^{14}C , ^{210}Pb , tephra layers and spheroidal carbonaceous particles (SCPs), using the rbacon package
241 v.2.5.7 (Blaauw et al., 2021) in R (R Core Team, 2021). We established quality control criteria that
242 required cores to comprise at least ten sample depths, to have a chronology spanning at least 500
243 years, and to have a date (e.g. ^{210}Pb , ^{14}C or tephra) at least every 2500 years on average. Prior
244 information on accumulation rate and its memory or variability can be found for each age-depth
245 model in Figures S2-S38.

246 2.4. *Resampling and transformation*

247 The peatland macrocharcoal records that we used have been compiled using a variety of methods
248 (e.g. particle counts, area measurements and relative abundances) and a range of particle size
249 fractions (e.g. >125 µm, >150 µm and >0.5 mm). This variability in measurement approach can result
250 in values that differ by orders of magnitude and therefore data standardisation is required to compare
251 relative changes between records over time (Power et al., 2010). Furthermore, owing to varying
252 accumulation rates within and among cores, standardisation of temporal resolution via binning or
253 smoothing is required to avoid an inflated influence of high-resolution samples on any subsequent
254 analyses. Macrocharcoal occurs in 47.8% (12,321 out of 25,758) of pre-binned peat samples. We used
255 proportional relative scaling (PRS) - developed specifically for systems where fire is rare (McMichael
256 et al., 2021) - and presence/absence analyses to standardise our peatland records (see below).

257 2.4.1. Proportional relative scaling and presence/absence

258 For the PRS and presence/absence analyses, we developed a new method to resample the temporal
259 resolution of raw charcoal data proportionally into equal 50-year time bins using depth intervals
260 calculated from age-depth models (Figure S39). This approach minimises potential distortion from
261 non-contiguous sampling, particularly for records with infrequent sampling (Figure S40). The
262 proportion of samples containing charcoal is important for calculating both PRS and
263 presence/absence; therefore, we applied the depth binning approach to resample the data prior to
264 calculation of PRS and presence/absence. We calculated presence/absence for each resampled
265 record, and the percentage of sites containing charcoal for each 50-year period in North America,
266 Europe, Patagonia and sub-regions of interest. To calculate PRS for each record, we divided individual
267 resampled charcoal values (C_i) by the maximum resampled charcoal value from that record (C_{max}) and
268 multiplied by 100. We then scaled this value by the proportion of resampled values containing
269 charcoal. The PRS formula applied to our resampled charcoal data is as follows:

$$270 \quad char_{pscaled} = \left(\frac{C_i}{C_{max}} \times 100 \right) \frac{f}{N}$$

271 Where $char_{pscaled}$ is proportionally relatively scaled charcoal values, C_i is a singular resampled charcoal
272 value within a record, C_{max} is the maximum resampled charcoal value within that same record, f is the
273 number of resampled values containing charcoal (value > 0) within that same record and N is the total
274 number of resampled values within that same record. We subsequently applied a cubic root
275 transformation to PRS values to aid data visualisation and reduce positive skew.

276 PRS adjusts the magnitude of charcoal records by the frequency of charcoal occurrence, down-
277 weighting records with infrequent charcoal. This scaling is based on observations from tropical lake
278 records collected using the same method, where a low frequency of samples containing charcoal was
279 related to a lower maximum abundance of charcoal (McMichael et al., 2021). We assessed the effect
280 of PRS on our data by comparing records from the three most common particle sizes (>150 µm, >0.5
281 mm and >1 mm) that expressed charcoal quantity as a concentration (particles cm⁻³). This comparison
282 tested whether, for peatland records analysed in a similar fashion, a greater maximum charcoal value
283 was associated with a higher proportion of samples containing charcoal. We found that the maximum
284 charcoal value (C_{max}) of a record increased across the three particle sizes when a greater proportion
285 of resampled values contained charcoal (Figure S41). This relationship suggests the down-weighting
286 in PRS of sites exhibiting a low proportion of total samples containing charcoal is an appropriate
287 approach for inter-site comparisons of peatland macrocharcoal data.

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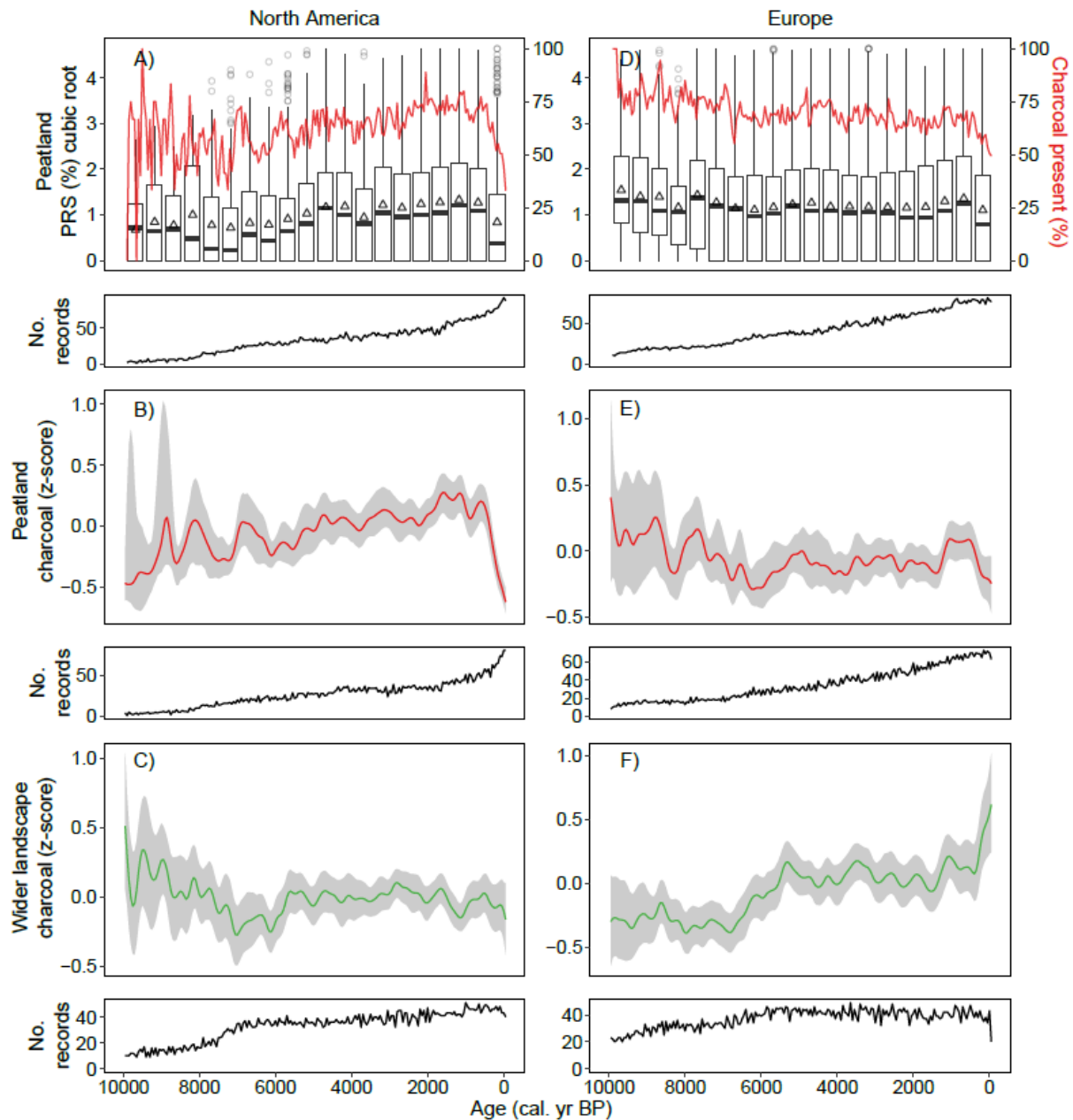
2.4.2. Comparison of peatland burning to the wider landscape

289 The wider landscape charcoal records represent the regional fire signal proximal to our peatland
290 records, while excluding data specifically from peatlands (see Section 2.2 for further details). Sufficient
291 chronological information was not available from the GCD to apply our depth binning approach to
292 sites representing biomass burning in the wider landscape. Therefore, we used an established method
293 from major composite analyses of sedimentary charcoal records from the GCD that involves a Box-
294 Cox, a min-max and a z-score transformation (Daniau et al., 2012; Marlon et al., 2016, 2008). We
295 applied the Box-Cox, min-max and z-score transformations to our peatland dataset (Table S1) and the
296 wider landscape dataset from the GCD (Table S2) using the Paleofire package (Blarquez et al., 2014)
297 in R. The Paleofire package cannot analyse records with a complete absence of charcoal, so these were
298 excluded from this part of the analysis. We pre-binned the data in 50-year non-overlapping bins and
299 used a 500-year smoothing window to produce charcoal composite curves for North America, Europe
300 and sub-regions of interest. There were too few sites in the GCD to produce a robust z-score
301 reconstruction for Patagonia. Similarly, there were too few peatland records to produce sub-region
302 composite curves for Alaska, the Pacific Coast, the East European Plain and Northern Fennoscandia –
303 although these data are included in the continental scale composite curves.

304 3. Results and discussion

305 3.1. Overview of findings

306 North America, Europe and Patagonia exhibited distinct spatiotemporal patterns of peatland burning
307 from 10 ka (with ka meaning calibrated thousands of years before 1950 CE) to the present (Figure 2).
308 In North America, there was a general increase in peatland burning from 10 to ~0.5 ka (Figure 2A-B),
309 but there is a high degree of regional variability (Figure 3). These burning trends largely correspond
310 with changing climatic conditions and/or vegetation dynamics in the wider landscape, but where these
311 trends diverge peatland autogenic processes may be important. From ~0.5 ka to the present we see a
312 widespread decrease in peatland burning that may have been initiated by the Little Ice Age (LIA)
313 cooling. The tendency of peatlands to retain high surface moisture content even during drought
314 (Kettridge and Waddington, 2014; Morris and Waddington, 2011), and a general policy of fire
315 suppression since the early-twentieth century, may be in part responsible for this recent downturn in
316 burning. We must also consider the possibility that researchers may have avoided disturbed peatland
317 areas affected by recent fires when collecting cores, but this is unlikely to be the sole factor at play
318 here. Our European composite record shows more peatland burning in the early Holocene from 10 to
319 8 ka, a period during which our database is composed primarily of records from central Europe and
320 southern Scandinavia and the Baltics (Figure 2). Relatively constant levels of peatland burning are
321 observed after 8 ka, but with marked increases at ~5 ka and from 1.5 to 0.5 ka (Figure 2). Burning in
322 the wider landscape increases conspicuously from 6.5 to 5.5 ka and, unlike the peat record, shows an
323 overall increase in the last four centuries.



324

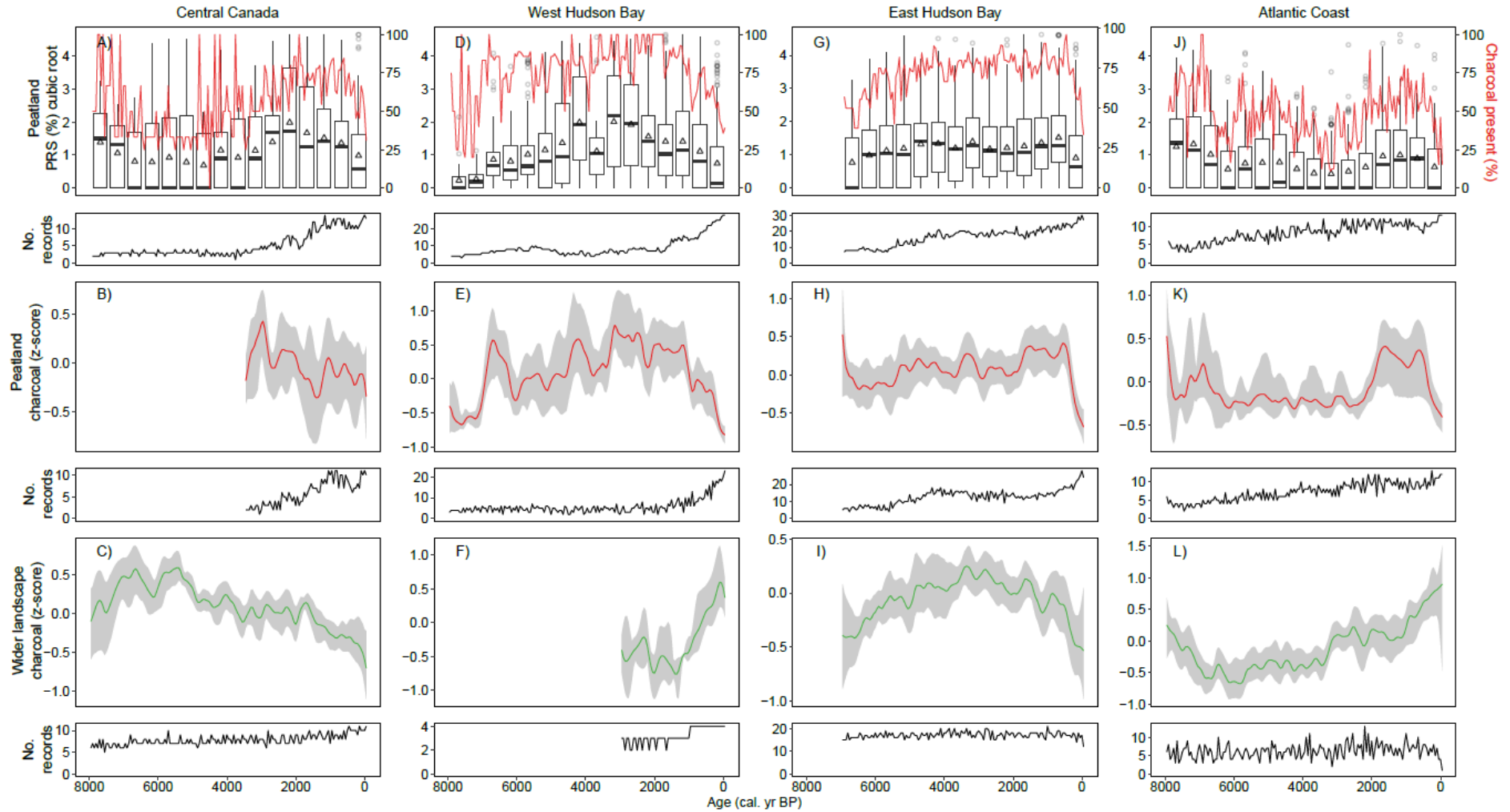
325 **Figure 2.** Peatland and wider landscape burning trends by region. The distribution of proportionally relatively
 326 scaled (PRS) charcoal values (cubic root transformed) in 500-year bins for A) North America and D) Europe; box
 327 heights represent the upper and lower quartiles, centrelines indicate medians, hollow triangles represent
 328 means, whiskers extend to 1.5 times the interquartile range beyond the upper and lower quartiles, and hollow
 329 circles represent any values outside the range of these whiskers. Trends in the proportion of records (%) with
 330 charcoal present within 50-year bins indicated by the red line. Biomass burning trends for peatlands in B) North
 331 America and E) Europe and wider landscape biomass burning for C) North America and F) Europe – all with a
 332 500-year smoothing window and showing 95% bootstrap confidence intervals (1000 cycles). The x-axis units (cal.
 333 yr BP) represent years before 1950 CE. For each panel the number of sites corresponds to 50-year time steps.

334

3.2. Regional analyses

335

3.2.1. North America



337
 338 **Figure 3.** Peatland and wider landscape burning trends by North American sub-region. The distribution of proportionally relatively scaled (PRS) charcoal values (cubic root
 339 transformed) in 500-year bins for A) Central Canada, D) West Hudson Bay, G) East Hudson Bay and J) Atlantic coast; box heights represent the upper and lower quartiles,
 340 centrelines indicate medians, hollow triangles represent means, whiskers extend to 1.5 times the interquartile range beyond the upper and lower quartiles, and hollow circles
 341 represent any values outside the range of these whiskers. Trends in the proportion of records (%) with charcoal present within 50-year bins indicated by the red line. Biomass

342 burning trends for peatlands in B) Central Canada, E) West Hudson Bay, H) East Hudson Bay and K) Atlantic coast and wider landscape biomass burning for C) Central Canada,
343 F) West Hudson Bay, I) East Hudson Bay and L) Atlantic coast – all with a 500-year smoothing window and showing 95% bootstrap confidence intervals (1000 cycles). The x-
344 axis units (cal. yr BP) represent years before 1950 CE. For each panel the number of sites corresponds to 50-year time steps.

345 From 10 to 8 ka our records from North America show a slight increase in burning in both peatlands
346 and the wider landscape (Figure 2) that is coincident with rising summer temperatures at a continental
347 scale (Viau et al., 2006). However, we have a dearth of records in the early Holocene from 10 to 8 ka
348 in North America and therefore cannot make detailed inferences about burning trends for that time.
349 During the early Holocene, growing seasons became gradually longer and warmer in driving
350 widespread peatland initiation in western and eastern North America from ~14.5 ka, with initiation in
351 central Canada and the Hudson Bay lowlands from ~8.5 ka onwards following increasing temperatures
352 and ice sheet retreat (Gorham et al., 2007; Morris et al., 2018; Ruppel et al., 2013).

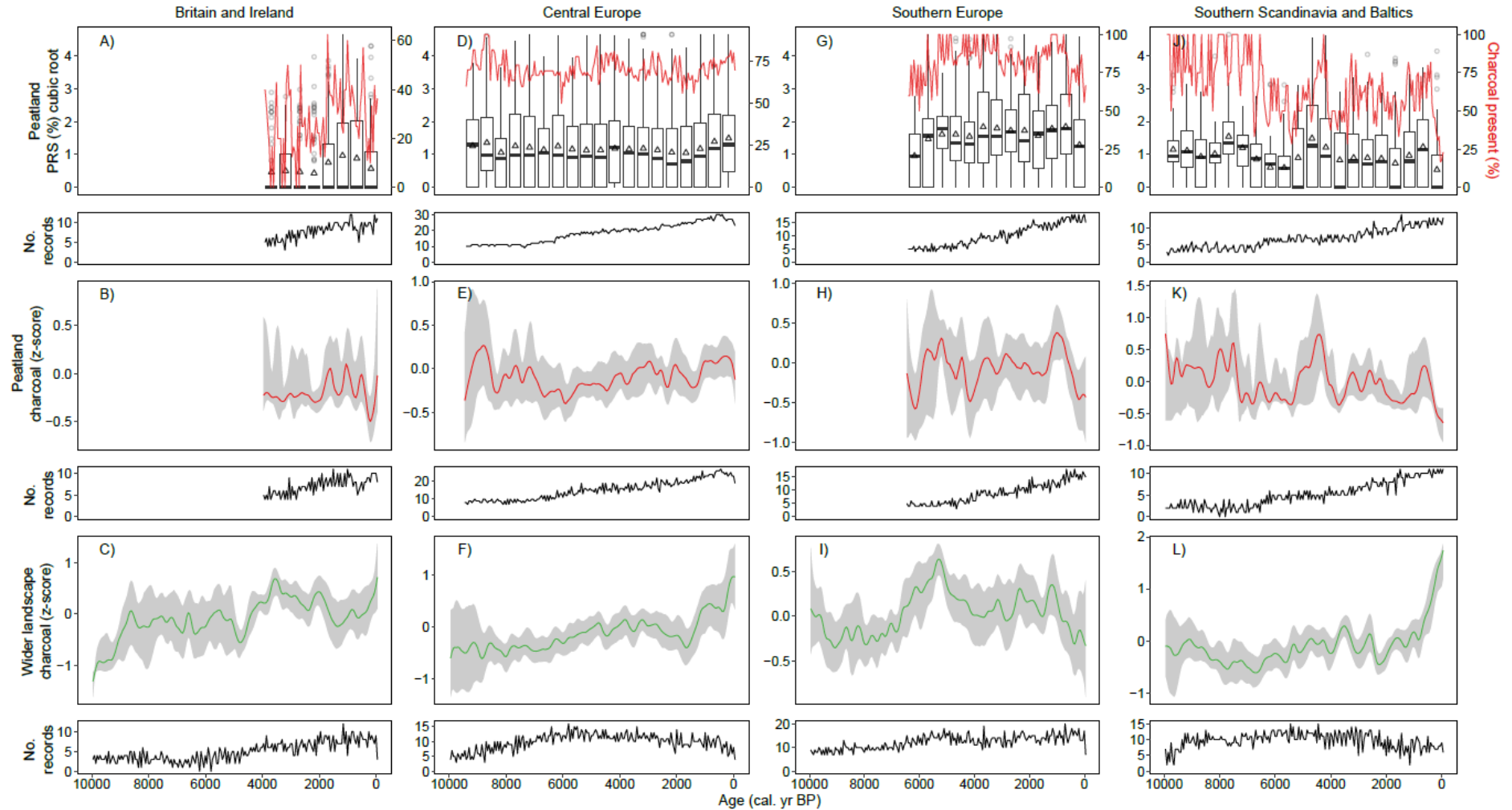
353 Warmer and drier conditions during the Holocene Thermal Maximum (HTM) were likely responsible
354 for greater peatland burning from 8 to 7 ka in central Canada (Edwards et al., 1996; Kuhry, 1994).
355 Similarly, increased burning in the wider landscape from 8 to 7 ka (Figure 3C) coincides with the
356 northward expansion of conifer forests (Williams, 2003) and this may also be a factor in increased
357 peatland burning. Expansion of peatland area in central Canada from ~6 ka onwards suggests reduced
358 aridity (Ruppel et al., 2013; Zoltai and Vitt, 1990), loosely corresponding to lower peatland burning ~7
359 to ~3 ka although burning in the wider landscape remains elevated until ~5 ka (Figure 3A-C).
360 Nevertheless, our findings from central Canada prior to ~3 ka for peatlands should be treated with a
361 degree of caution because only a small number of records span this time. Between 3 and 0 ka summer
362 cooling and higher annual precipitation (Viau and Gajewski, 2009) correspond with decreased burning
363 in the wider landscape, while peatland burning begins to decrease at ~1 ka with this trend continuing
364 until present (Figure 3A-C). Around one fifth of our peatland records from central Canada (22.2%)
365 show local evidence of permafrost aggradation linked to late-Holocene cooling, particularly during the
366 LIA (see Magnan et al., 2018; Pelletier et al., 2017). Drier peatland conditions caused by surface uplift
367 during permafrost aggradation may have contributed to sustained levels of peatland burning until 0.5
368 ka. Similarly, permafrost thaw driven by twentieth century warming (Pelletier et al., 2017) offers a
369 plausible explanation for a recent decrease in peatland burning, although wetting from permafrost
370 thaw can be short-lived (Magnan et al., 2018).

371 During the mid-Holocene, warm and moist climatic conditions existed across the Hudson Bay region,
372 prior to cooler and generally moist conditions during the Neoglacial from around 2.5 ka onwards
373 (Camill et al., 2012; Hargan et al., 2020; Hobbs et al., 2017). These warmer conditions in the mid-
374 Holocene were associated with less frequent intrusions of cool, dry Pacific or Arctic air masses,
375 resulting in fewer periods of late-spring or summer drought that are conducive to fire activity
376 (Carcaillet and Richard, 2000; Edwards et al., 1996). We observe increasing levels of peatland burning
377 from 8 to 4.5 ka in the western Hudson Bay, along with increased burning in peatlands and the wider
378 landscape in the eastern Hudson Bay from 7 to 4.5 ka (Figure 3). However, it should be noted that
379 there are spatial gaps in our dataset with few records from Hudson Bay Lowlands and to the west of
380 James Bay (Figure 1). During the mid-Holocene many peatlands in the Hudson Bay region were
381 transitioning from wet fens to drier bogs and this reduction in surface wetness and increased potential
382 for the build-up of woody biomass likely made peatlands more susceptible to fire, especially if the
383 sites became forested (Camill et al., 2009; Davies et al., 2023, 2021; Hokanson et al., 2016; Magnan et
384 al., 2020, 2012; van Bellen et al., 2012). The timing of fen to bog transitions in the Hudson Bay region
385 exhibits a spatial gradient that mirrors the patterns of isostatic uplift (Glaser et al., 2004). However,
386 the records in this study are generally beyond the margin of marine limit at 8 ka (Figure 1), so links
387 between fire and isostatic changes remain largely untested for this region. Peatland productivity may
388 have decreased during the Neoglacial, leading to increased surface wetness, and in some instances
389 bog to fen transitions (van Bellen et al., 2013). A clear decline in peatland burning occurred from 0.5
390 ka to present across the Hudson Bay region, probably initiated by LIA cooling.

391 On the Atlantic coast of Canada and the northeastern United States, high levels of burning in the wider
392 landscape and peatlands from 8 to 7 ka (Figure 3J-L) is associated with dry summers during a period
393 of low annual precipitation (Carcaillet and Richard, 2000; Viau and Gajewski, 2009). Increases in
394 peatland and wider landscape burning from around 2 to 0.5 ka are at odds with cooling summer
395 temperatures and increasing annual precipitation in northern Quebec (Viau and Gajewski, 2009). From
396 ~4 ka (and especially from 2 ka) a reduction in broadleaf tree species and a shift to more flammable
397 conifers have been linked to summer cooling (Blarquez et al., 2015), which appears to have driven
398 increased landscape burning (Figure 3L). Similarly in southern Quebec, a shift to less regular and more
399 intense biomass burning from ~1.5 ka has been linked to indigenous burning practices (Blarquez et al.,
400 2018), but the extent of these practices is widely contested (Barrett et al., 2005). Nonetheless, despite
401 increased burning in the wider landscape from ~4 ka onwards, fire in peatlands only increased
402 modestly from 2 to 0.5 ka (Figure 3J-K). This greater peatland burning 2 to 0.5 ka is largely driven by
403 increases at two forested peatland sites (Innu and Gaillard 1; see Supplementary Table 1 and
404 Supplementary data) and an open peatland (Baltic Bog) experiencing a coincident increase in ligneous
405 vegetation (Peros et al., 2016). The typically more open and *Sphagnum*-dominated maritime bogs of
406 the Atlantic coast rarely experience fire (Lavoie et al., 2009; Magnan et al., 2014) and fire frequencies
407 in open peatlands are lower than those with greater tree density (Camill et al., 2009; Kuhry, 1994).
408 The fire regime in southern Quebec shifted to less frequent but more severe fires in the last 1000
409 years following the spread of native agriculture and particularly following European colonisation
410 (Blarquez et al., 2018; Shiller et al., 2014). These human impacts likely explain the increase in wider
411 landscape burning from 0.5 ka to present. Distance to forest and the presence of conifer trees have
412 been linked to fire susceptibility and intensity in ombrotrophic peatlands (Magnan et al., 2012).
413 Therefore, the contrasting decrease in peatland burning from 0.5 ka to present may be related to the
414 reduced susceptibility of open peatlands to fire as they increased in spatial extent (Payette et al.,
415 2013).

416 Records from Great Dismal Swamp located on the mid-Atlantic Coastal Plain in the United States, differ
417 in the timing of peak burning from boreal peatlands farther north. Minimal burning occurred prior to
418 ~6.5 ka, but frequent mid-Holocene fires from 6.5 to ~3.7 ka coincided with warm and dry conditions
419 in the region and marsh hydroperiods shortened due in part to slowing rates of sea-level rise (Willard
420 et al., in review). Low levels of fire characterize the late Holocene, when mid-Atlantic winters were
421 cooler and wetter (Watts, 1979; Webb III et al., 1987) and most of the Great Dismal Swamp landscape
422 had transitioned from a marsh to a forested wetland at ~3.7 ka (Willard et al., in review). Since
423 European colonisation, drainage of the peatland and logging activities resulted in periodic severe fires
424 (Spieran and Wurster, 2020).

425 3.2.2. Europe



427
 428 **Figure 4.** Peatland and wider landscape burning trends by European sub-region. The distribution of proportionally relatively scaled (PRS) charcoal values (cubic root
 429 transformed) in 500-year bins for A) Britain and Ireland, D) Central Europe, G) Southern Europe and J) Southern Scandinavia and Baltics; box heights represent the upper and
 430 lower quartiles, centrelines indicate medians, hollow triangles represent means, whiskers extend to 1.5 times the interquartile range beyond the upper and lower quartiles,
 431 and hollow circles represent any values outside the range of these whiskers. Trends in the proportion of records (%) with charcoal present within 50-year bins indicated by

432 the red line. Biomass burning trends for peatlands in B) Britain and Ireland, E) Central Europe, H) Southern Europe and K) Southern Scandinavia and Baltics and wider
433 landscape biomass burning for C) Britain and Ireland, F) Central Europe, I) Southern Europe and L) Southern Scandinavia and Baltics – all with a 500-year smoothing window
434 and showing 95% bootstrap confidence intervals (1000 cycles). The x-axis units (cal. yr BP) represent years before 1950 CE. For each panel the number of sites corresponds
435 to 50-year time steps.

436 Peatlands in Britain and Ireland broadly initiated in the early Holocene, from 10 to 8 ka (Morris et al.,
437 2018), but we were only able to reconstruct peatland burning from 4 ka to present owing to a lack of
438 data prior to this. Peatland sites showed consistently low PRS and presence/absence values
439 throughout, despite changes in wider landscape burning (Figure 4A-C). The comparatively humid
440 climate of Britain and Ireland (Figure 7) likely mitigated peatland fire. From the mid-Holocene, burning
441 in the wider landscape appears to be primarily influenced by human activity rather than generally
442 cooling summer temperatures from ~6 ka onwards (Davis et al., 2003; Mauri et al., 2015). Increased
443 burning in the wider landscape ~5 ka (Figure 4C) may be linked to the human use of fire to clear
444 woodland (Ryan and Blackford, 2010). Similarly, Neolithic population growth from ~5.5 ka is clear in
445 the archaeological record and is associated with a trend of reduced forest cover that has continued to
446 the present (Woodbridge et al., 2014). Decreased burning in the wider landscape from ~2 ka to 0.5 ka
447 may be linked to the conversion of forest to agricultural land, resulting in landscape fragmentation
448 and a loss of fuel for wildfires (Fyfe et al., 2003; Marlon et al., 2013). PRS charcoal values decrease
449 from 0.5 ka to present, whereas z-score and presence/absence values drop initially (0.5-0.2 ka), before
450 increasing slightly from ~0.2 ka (1750 CE) to present (Figure 4A-B). Cooler, wetter conditions in Britain
451 and Ireland during the LIA (Swindles et al., 2013; Webb et al., 2022) likely contributed to reduced
452 burning in peatlands and the wider landscape ~0.5 ka. Shifting land management practices, including
453 peatland drainage and prescribed burning of moorlands from ~1850 CE (Holden et al., 2007), are
454 coincident with widespread peatland drying across Britain and Ireland since ~1800 CE (Swindles et al.,
455 2019). These recent human impacts may explain the uptick in the proportion of sites burning in the
456 last two centuries (Figure 4A).

457 Central European sites in our database are characterised by greater peatland burning at ~9 ka, before
458 relatively constant levels of burning until the late Holocene, with decreased burning at ~2 ka and an
459 increase from 1 ka to present (Figure 4D-E). Burning in the wider landscape during the Holocene
460 generally showed a slow increase before 1.5 ka, followed by a steeper increase to present (Figure 4F).
461 Summer temperatures increased until ~8 ka, before stabilising and showing a general decrease from
462 ~6 ka for the majority of the Holocene (Davis et al., 2003; Mauri et al., 2015). The abundance of
463 flammable conifer species in continental Europe decreases from ~10 ka to ~8 ka and remained
464 relatively constant until ~1.5 ka before decreasing further to the present (Feurdean et al., 2020b).
465 These cooler conditions and a stable or decreasing abundance of flammable coniferous trees from the
466 mid-Holocene onwards, suggest that increased burning in the wider landscape may be because of
467 changing human activity. Wildfires are naturally ignited by lightning, but there is some evidence of
468 hunter-gatherer initiated forest fires from as early as 8.5 ka, with human-related fires intensified
469 during the Bronze Age (~4 to 3 ka) and again from 1 ka to present (Bobek et al., 2018; Dietze et al.,
470 2018). Decreased peatland burning at 1.7 ka coincides with a brief period of more humid conditions
471 across central Europe (Fohlmeister et al., 2012). Wetter climatic conditions may have both increased
472 surface wetness in peatlands (Pleskot et al., 2022) and reduced susceptibility to burning in the wider
473 landscape linked to human activity. However, peatland burning from ~1 ka onwards follows an upward
474 trend in wider landscape burning at ~1.5 ka (Figure 4E-F), suggesting that human use of fire has
475 exceeded the ability of peatlands to resist burning. Equally, this trend could be an instance where the
476 peatland charcoal record has been dominated by charcoal input from intense extra-local or regional
477 forest burning. Even so, during the LIA from ~1400 CE to 1700 CE, a cool humid maritime climate in
478 western Europe helped maintain wetter peatlands, but many continental peatlands in central Europe
479 experienced drying (Marcisz et al., 2020), likely increasing peatland vulnerability to fire. Similarly,
480 peatland water table reconstructions suggest many peatlands in central Europe have become
481 significantly drier in the last 400 years due to human and climatic factors (Swindles et al., 2019).

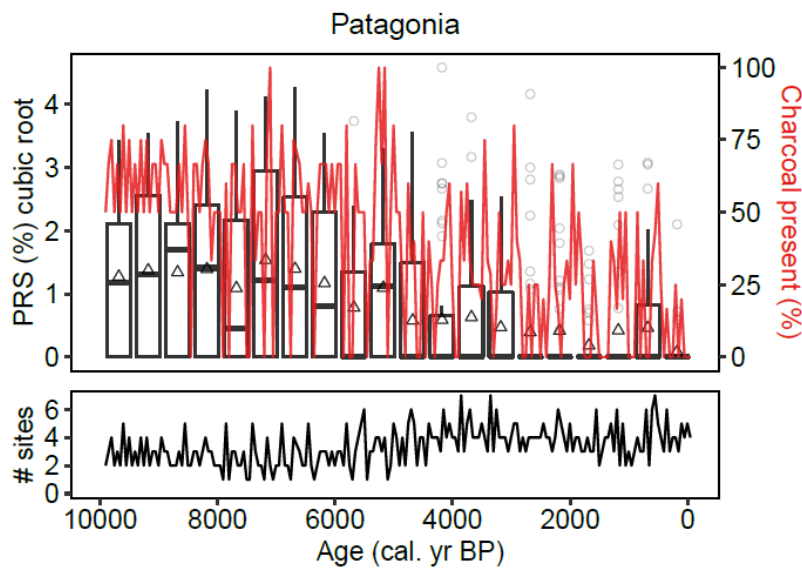
482 Summer temperatures in southern Europe have generally increased since ~8 ka until present (Davis
483 and Brewer, 2009). In addition, summer precipitation decreased throughout the Holocene (Peyron et
484 al., 2011). The pattern of burning is more complex and cannot be explained by climate change alone.
485 Burning increased in peatlands and the wider landscape from ~7 ka to a peak at ~5.5 ka (Figure 4G-I),
486 which coincided with the onset of the Neolithic and may have been driven by increased slash and burn
487 activities to clear forest for agriculture (Gilck and Poschlod, 2021; Rius et al., 2012, 2011). A peak in
488 peatland and wider landscape burning at ~1 ka may have been partially linked to increased farming
489 and settlement following Christian conquest of the Pyrenees (Ejarque et al., 2009), or an increased
490 build-up of woody biomass with a return to previous fire practices following the Roman period
491 (Vanni re et al., 2016). A marked decrease in peatland and wider landscape burning from ~1 ka until
492 present is likely linked to landscape fragmentation and reduced fuel for wildfires with the expansion
493 of agriculture (Marlon et al., 2013), and the onset of cooler conditions ~1400 CE to 1700 CE during the
494 LIA (Mann et al., 2009). Fire suppression policies have been widespread across southern Europe in
495 recent decades (Brotons et al., 2013; Moreira et al., 2011). However, peatland burning remains
496 relatively high in comparison to other regions, which may be attributed to comparatively warm and
497 dry summer conditions (Figures 6 and 7). Similarly, burning in southern European peatlands shows
498 good correspondence with burning in the wider landscape from 8 ka until present. This
499 correspondence in burning trends suggests that these typically smaller peatlands (Payne, 2018) are
500 either more vulnerable to burning or that they are influenced to a greater extent by non-peatland
501 charcoal originating from the wider landscape.

502 Southern Scandinavia and the Baltics exhibit more peatland burning from 10 ka to ~7.5 ka in terms of
503 PRS, presences/absence and z-score values (Figure 4J-K). This early Holocene trend is more subtle in
504 burning of the wider landscape, with slightly elevated burning 10 to ~8.5 ka (Figure 4L). These higher
505 levels of burning are likely linked to climate and perhaps changes in vegetation. Pollen reconstructions
506 suggest this region was warming during this period, with the HTM between ~8 to 6 ka (Davis et al.,
507 2003; Mauri et al., 2015). However, aquatic plant macrofossil evidence suggests that early Holocene
508 (11.7 to 7.5 ka) summer temperatures in Fennoscandia were ~2 C higher than is suggested by pollen
509 reconstructions (V liranta et al., 2015). In terms of vegetation, an increased abundance of flammable
510 coniferous taxa at ~9 ka – as evidenced at Iso Lehmalaampi and Etu-Mustajarvi in southern Finland
511 (Supplementary Table 2; see Sarmaja-Korjonen, 1998) – may have contributed to greater burning at
512 that time. Similarly, a regional transition to broadleaf dominance from ~8 to 6 ka may have mitigated
513 burning during warm conditions (Brown and Giesecke, 2014; Feurdean et al., 2020b). An increase in
514 peatland burning from 5 to 4 ka may have been influenced by a brief warm, dry phase prior to a general
515 cooling trend from 4 to 2.6 ka in the Baltic region (Hammarlund et al., 2003; Heikkil  and Sepp , 2010),
516 but there is no corresponding increase in burning of the wider landscape. Therefore, the peak in
517 peatland burning around 4.5 ka may have been driven by increasing abundance of woody plants (e.g.
518 *Calluna vulgaris*) under drier conditions, as at Kontolanrahka and M nnikj rve bogs – both included in
519 this analysis (Sillasoo et al., 2011). Increased burning from 1 to 0.5 ka in peatlands and the wider
520 landscape may be linked to warmer conditions during the Medieval Climate Anomaly (MCA) (Mann et
521 al., 2009), alongside increasing intensity of agricultural grazing and burning practices (Olsson et al.,
522 2010). However, from 0.5 ka to present peatland burning decreased, perhaps initiated by LIA cooling
523 initially and in some instances peatland wetting, e.g. at Kontolanrahka bog in southern Finland
524 (V liranta et al., 2007). However, peatland surface moisture trends in recent centuries are inconsistent
525 across southern Scandinavia and the Baltics (Swindles et al., 2019). In contrast to reduced peatland
526 burning, wider landscape burning continued to increase (Figure 4J-L). This divergent burning trend
527 may be explained by slash-and-burn agricultural practices that were widespread in southern
528 Scandinavia and the Baltics from ~1650 CE to 1850 CE (J  ts et al., 2010; Lehtonen and Huttunen,

529 1997). These burning practices were typically low intensity and small scale (Parviainen, 2015) and may
530 have kept fuel loads low in the wider landscape and allowed peatlands to be less susceptible to
531 ignition.

532 3.2.3. Patagonia

533 In Patagonia, biomass burning in lowland peatland sites appears to be strongly linked to climate. From
534 10.5 to 7.5 ka, southern Patagonia experienced a warm and dry period during a time of weaker South
535 Westerly Winds (SWWs) (Moreno et al., 2018). This warm, dry period corresponds to greater burning
536 of lowland peatlands from 10 to 6 ka (Figure 5). From ~6 ka onwards there was a general wetting and
537 cooling of climate due to the equatorial migration of the SWWs and a reduction in summer drought
538 (Markgraf and Huber, 2010; McCulloch et al., 2020). These cooler, wetter conditions in the mid to late
539 Holocene may explain the extremely low levels of burning in southern Patagonian peatlands from 6
540 ka to present (Figure 5). Similarly, there is evidence of persistent *Sphagnum* communities in lowland
541 peatlands from ~5.5 ka coincident with reduced summer drought and fire activity (Markgraf and
542 Huber, 2010). The absence of high severity peatland fires was probably favourable to *Sphagnum*
543 mosses in this region (Nelson et al., 2021). Huber and Markgraf (2003) suggest that increased fire
544 activity in a southern Patagonian peatland from ~1600 CE onwards may be linked to changing
545 indigenous hunting practices, following the introduction of horses upon European contact. However,
546 any such increases in recent centuries are not well represented in our regional analysis, suggesting
547 that climate remains the main control on lowland peatland burning in southern Patagonia.



548
549 **Figure 5.** Peatland burning trends in Patagonia. The distribution of proportionally relatively scaled (PRS) charcoal
550 values (cubic root transformed) in 500-year bins. Box heights represent the upper and lower quartiles,
551 centrelines indicate medians, hollow triangles represent the mean, whiskers extend to 1.5 times the
552 interquartile range and hollow circles represent any values outside the range of these whiskers. Trends in the
553 proportion of samples (%) with charcoal present within 50-year bins indicated by the red line. The x-axis units
554 (cal. yr BP) represent years before 1950 CE. The number of sites corresponds to 50-year time steps.

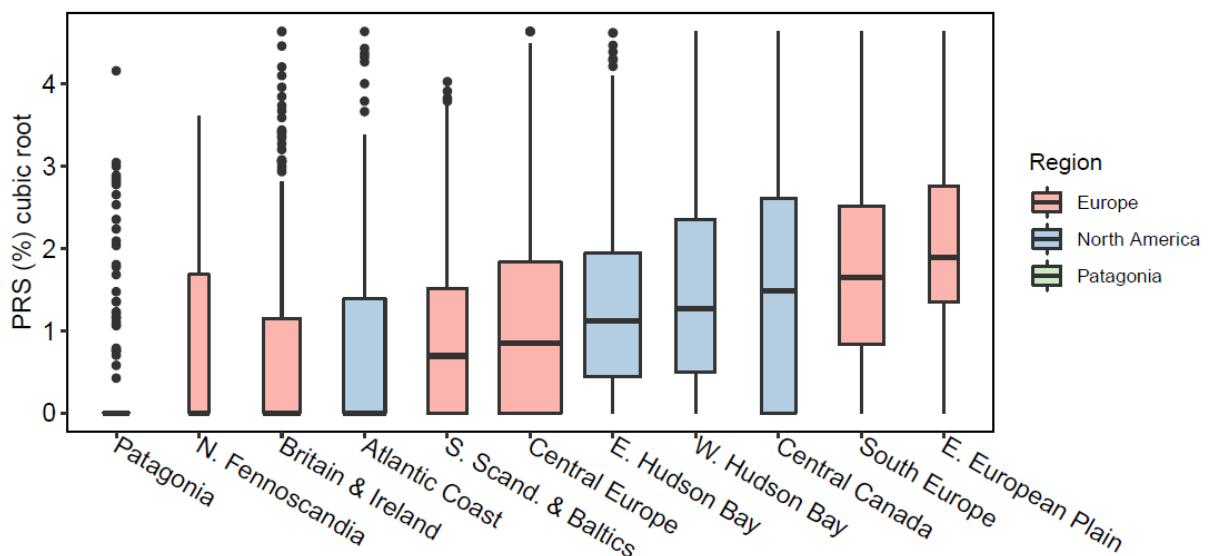
555 3.3. Peatland burning and climatic space

556 Our sub-regions show some clear differences in the magnitude of burning (Figure 6), which may be
557 explained in part by regional differences in climate (Figure 7). Gridded modern climate data provide

558 good context for the relative differences between sub-regions. We focused on the last 3 ka to 1 ka
559 because this period avoids the time of greatest human impact (1 ka to present) and is long enough to
560 capture meaningful temporal patterns of burning, while maintaining good spatial coverage.

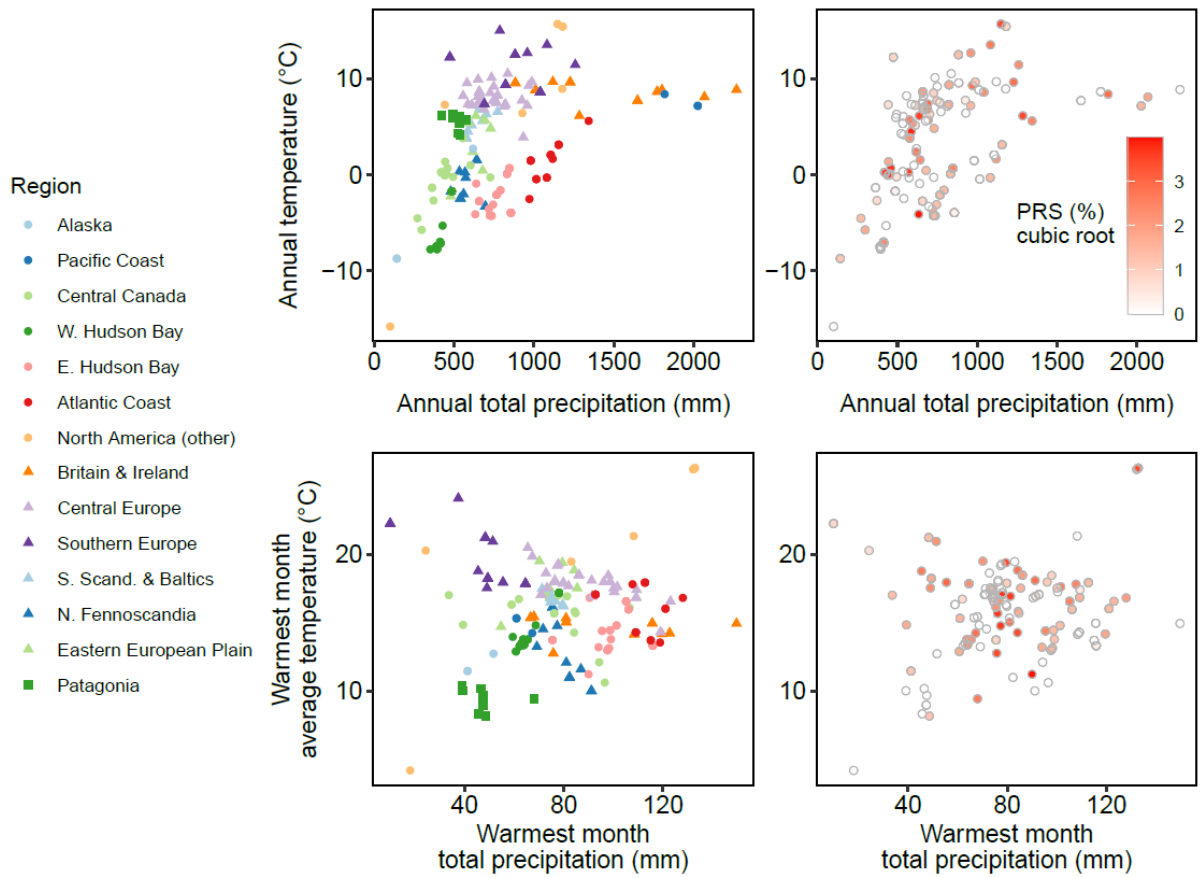
561 Patagonia, Northern Fennoscandia, and Britain and Ireland demonstrated a median PRS value of zero
562 from 3 to 1 ka, while southern Europe and the East European Plain exhibited the highest burning
563 values (Figure 6). Northern Fennoscandia contains a higher proportion of records where no charcoal
564 was found (Supplementary Table 1), which likely contributes to these low PRS values. The warmest
565 months in our Patagonian and Northern Fennoscandian sites have relatively low precipitation but are
566 relatively cool compared to the other sub-regions (Figure 7). However, an annual precipitation of
567 ~1000 to 1500 mm has been recorded at a number of our Patagonia sites, e.g. at Skyring 1 and Skyring
568 2 (Broder et al., 2012; Schneider et al., 2003), suggesting our gridded climate data may not be
569 capturing some local variation in rainfall. Nevertheless, low summer temperatures may be allowing
570 peatlands – especially those dominated by *Sphagnum* – to retain surface moisture and to avoid the
571 desiccated conditions that promote fire propagation (Turetsky et al., 2011; Waddington et al., 2015).
572 The high levels of precipitation during the warmest month in Britain and Ireland may prevent
573 conditions favourable to fire. In contrast, southern Europe is characterised by sites with high
574 temperatures and low precipitation for the warmest month, which likely contribute to greater burning
575 (Figure 7). The East European Plain does not have the hottest or driest summers, on average, yet
576 experiences greater burning than other sub-regions. In this instance, the summary variables presented
577 in Figure 7 may be less important than short-term climatic and weather variability that may foster
578 peatland fire in the East European Plain. Additionally, the relatively few peatland sites from the East
579 European Plain in comparison to other sub-regions appear to have undergone changes in vegetation
580 structure related to recent slash-and-burn agriculture (Barhoumi et al., 2019) and shifts from
581 minerotrophic to ombrotrophic conditions (Mazei et al., 2020). There are some clear links between
582 burning and climatic extremes, but our findings suggest that peatland fire regimes are influenced by
583 a combination of factors. Our dataset contained 11 peatland records with a complete lack of charcoal,
584 but these are not representative across all sub-regions. To explore the differences in the magnitude
585 of burning more fully, records with a complete absence of charcoal need to be considered across all
586 regions and sub-regions.

587



588 **Figure 6.** Distribution of proportional relatively scaled (PRS) charcoal values (cubic root transformed) for 3 to 1
589

590 ka, presented by region and sub-region. PRS values are cubic root transformed owing to the skewed distribution
 591 of the data. Box heights represent the upper and lower quartiles, centrelines indicate medians, whiskers extend
 592 to 1.5 times the interquartile range and black circles show the remaining observations. Box width is proportional
 593 to the square root of the number of samples per sub-region.



594
 595 **Figure 7.** Climatic space by sub-region and charcoal values. Modern climatic space for peatland records averaged
 596 for 1981-2010 CE (Harris et al., 2020) by sub-region for average temperature (°C) and total precipitation (mm)
 597 A) annually and B) for the warmest month. Median proportionally relatively scaled (PRS) charcoal values (cubic
 598 root transformed) for each record (3 to 1 ka) in modern climatic space for average temperature (°C) and total
 599 precipitation (mm) C) annually and D) for the warmest month.

600 3.4. Controls on peatland burning and wider implications

601 Our composite analysis of peatland macrocharcoal records from mid- to high-latitude peatlands in
 602 North America, Europe and Patagonia highlights regional variability in peatland burning during the
 603 Holocene. Warmer and drier climatic conditions during the HTM were associated with greater
 604 peatland burning in Europe – especially in southern Scandinavia and the Baltics, North America’s
 605 Atlantic coast, and Patagonia (Figures 2, 3, 4 and 5). Cooler or wetter climatic conditions during the
 606 Neoglacial coincided with reduced peatland burning in central Canada and the western Hudson Bay
 607 (Figure 3). Similarly, there were widespread decreases in burning linked to the LIA across Europe and
 608 North America (Figures 3 and 4). Therefore, climate appears to be an important control on peatland
 609 fire until the late Holocene in Europe and perhaps until the present day in North America and
 610 Patagonia. This echoes findings by Marlon et al. (2013), who suggested that climate is the main
 611 influence on global biomass burning for most of the Holocene. However, frequent divergence of

612 peatland burning trends from those of the wider landscape at a regional and sub-regional scale is
613 probably due to local autogenic or human factors – as discussed further below.

614 Human impacts upon the landscape appears to become more prevalent from the Neolithic onwards
615 in Europe, and increased burning was generally associated with clearance of land for agriculture
616 (Dietze et al., 2018; Gilck and Poschlod, 2021; Olsson et al., 2010; Rösch et al., 2017; Ryan and
617 Blackford, 2010). In particular, human-induced fire may have led to increased peatland burning from
618 7 to 5.5 ka in southern Europe, and from 1 to 0.5 ka in southern Scandinavia and the Baltics (Figure 4).
619 Paradoxically, there have been widespread reductions in global biomass burning from the late
620 nineteenth century onwards, associated with fire suppression policies and the expansion of
621 agriculture, despite increasing temperatures and rising global population (Marlon et al., 2008). The
622 conversion of land to agricultural uses has reduced fuel for wildfires and decreased landscape
623 connectivity (Arora and Melton, 2018). These processes are probably responsible for recent decreases
624 in burning in the wider landscape in central Canada, eastern Hudson Bay and southern Europe (Figures
625 3 and 4). A key uncertainty is whether land-use and fire-suppression policies in the 21st century will be
626 able to offset the influence of warming. A modelling study by Kloster et al., (2012) suggests that
627 management could largely mitigate future carbon emissions from fire, although important
628 uncertainties remain, partly because they did not account for peatland ecosystems.

629 Differences in burning trends between peatlands and the wider landscape may be a result of autogenic
630 processes that are specific to peatlands, including retention of near-surface moisture even during
631 drought (Waddington et al., 2015), peatland vegetation composition (Magnan et al., 2014) and
632 ecosystem state shifts such as fen-bog transitions (Väliranta et al., 2017). Incidence of peatland fire
633 has been linked to past hydrological disturbances and surface drying in site-specific studies (Feurdean
634 et al., 2022; Gałka et al., 2022). Nonetheless, there are a number of occasions when peatland burning
635 has remained stable or even decreased, while burning in the wider landscape has increased. This trend
636 is in line with the finding that hydrologically connected, unaltered peatlands are resistant to wildland
637 fires owing to a thick layer of surface mosses that keeps moisture retention high (Nelson et al., 2021).
638 The most prominent examples of lower peatland burning than that in the wider landscape, are from
639 ~0.5 ka to present in the Atlantic coast area of North America, and in southern Scandinavia and the
640 Baltics (Figures 3 and 4). In both instances, increased burning in the wider landscape was likely driven
641 by human activities (Blarquez et al., 2018; Parviainen, 2015). These clear differences suggest a minimal
642 influence of regional charcoal on these peatland macrocharcoal records. However, there are some
643 cores (e.g. Baie and Morts; see Figures S2 and S4) with an apparent decrease in recent peat
644 accumulation rate (0.5 ka to present) where intense smouldering fires may have consumed peat but
645 left little charcoal (Zaccone et al., 2014). Nevertheless, higher resolution dating is required to
646 corroborate these apparent recent decreases in accumulation rate and the majority of records show
647 no such trend (Figures S2-S38). The lower susceptibility of peatlands to burning may be linked to cooler
648 conditions during the LIA ~1400 CE to 1700 CE (Mann et al., 2009) in combination with internal
649 mechanisms. More specifically, the mostly extensive, open and *Sphagnum*-dominated peatlands of
650 the Atlantic coast region of North America are generally resistant to fire (Lavoie et al., 2009; Magnan
651 et al., 2014). Here, a lower peatland edge-to-area ratio reduces rates of subsurface losses of water to
652 adjacent forests and lowers the risk of deep burning of peat (Hokanson et al., 2016; Nelson et al.,
653 2021). Similarly, larger peatland complexes in northern Poland have been shown to be more resistant
654 to disturbances (Marcisz et al., 2019). In contrast, fire records from the smaller and more fragmented
655 peatlands of southern Europe (Payne, 2018) correlated closely with burning in the wider landscape
656 (Figure 4). This suggests either a greater vulnerability of these ecosystems to burning or that

657 macrocharcoal produced from burning of the wider landscape may be more abundant in smaller
658 peatlands.

659 Both future climate change and human activities may increase the susceptibility of peatlands to
660 burning. Increased evapotranspiration associated with warmer temperatures and drainage from
661 human activities are both expected to increase peatland drying, leading to greater peatland burning
662 and carbon emissions (Flannigan et al., 2009; Turetsky et al., 2015). However, our results
663 predominantly show recent decreases in peatland burning from ~0.5 ka to present, especially in North
664 America (Figures 2, 3 and 4). It is possible that the apparent recent downturn in peatland burning is
665 influenced by a sampling bias. Researchers may have avoided disturbed areas/sites when sampling
666 cores, with only 3.8% of records (with data for surface peat type, $n = 183$) having a clearly decomposed
667 surface (Supplementary Table 1). Yet, peatland vegetation will typically have recovered within
668 decades of a burn (Lukenbach et al., 2016), meaning that this potential sampling bias does not fully
669 explain a downturn in peatland burning during the last ~500 years. Consequently, several other factors
670 may be contributing to this trend. Extensive peatland drying has already been observed in recent
671 centuries across temperate Europe (Swindles et al., 2019), while higher latitudes have experienced
672 wetting and drying linked to local permafrost dynamics (Sim et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2022). Large
673 areas of peatlands in North America remain relatively intact – just 1.5% of peatlands there are
674 estimated to be degraded, in comparison to 18% in Europe (Urák et al., 2017). Therefore, less modified
675 peatlands in North America may be more resilient to burning (Nelson et al., 2021). Peatland fires
676 commonly initiate elsewhere in the landscape before spreading onto peatlands (Hokanson et al.,
677 2016). Therefore, a reduction in wider landscape burning from ~0.5 ka in some regions likely reduced
678 the potential for peatland vegetation to ignite. Furthermore, the resolution of our analyses (50 years
679 per sample) is unlikely to detect any increased burning in recent decades. The centennial to millennial
680 timescales of peatland fires means that even if the risk of peatland fire has increased with recent
681 climate change and human activities, the impact on peatland fire may not yet be manifest in
682 palaeoenvironmental records. Similarly, peatland ecosystems are generally resilient to disturbance
683 and often exhibit a delayed response to external forcing (Page and Baird, 2016).

684 We find ample evidence for increased peatland burning during previous warm periods, and in warmer
685 and drier regions (e.g. southern Europe). The vulnerability of peatlands to fire is likely to have been
686 increased by recent climatic warming and anthropogenic management, particularly in Europe where
687 ecosystems have been more heavily modified. For these reasons, policies are needed to enhance
688 peatland resistance and resilience to fire. Rewetting of degraded peatlands has been shown to reduce
689 the risk of deep burns (Granath et al., 2016). Consequently, peatland restoration will be an important
690 strategy to mitigate the impact of climate change and human activities (Baird et al., 2019).

691 3.5. Recommendations for future research

692 This study represents a clear step forward in our understanding of the patterns of peatland fire on a
693 continental scale and has allowed us to consider the drivers and controls. Nevertheless, to better
694 quantify the controls on peatland fire, comparison of in-situ peatland charcoal records to datasets of
695 past climate, human population/density and peatland vegetation and moisture conditions is needed.
696 This comparison needs to be made at suitable spatial and temporal scales. For example, a study linking
697 local ecohydrological proxy data (e.g. testate amoebae and plant macrofossils) with accompanying
698 macrocharcoal data for multiple sites (regionally or globally) would be particularly useful for furthering
699 our understanding of peatland resilience and long-term fire dynamics. Furthermore, widespread
700 implementation of methods exploring the relationship between smouldering peatland fires and

701 hiatuses in peat accumulation (e.g. Zaccone et al., 2014) or linking charcoal morphotypes with fuel
702 types and fire intensity (Feurdean et al., 2020a) could offer insights into the conditions conducive to
703 rapid carbon loss from peatlands. The majority of work quantifying the relationship between source
704 area and charcoal particle size has been conducted specifically for lacustrine settings (e.g. Adolf et al.,
705 2018; Higuera et al., 2007; Peters and Higuera, 2007); however, the taphonomic processes and spatial
706 scales involved in peatland fire are fundamentally different to those in lakes (Remy et al., 2018).
707 Therefore, peatland specific lab and field-based studies would be useful to quantitatively inform
708 peatland fire related research questions. To better compare the magnitude of burning spatially,
709 peatlands with a complete lack of charcoal need to be included for all sub-regions. In terms of data
710 available for inclusion in composite analysis, spatial gaps remain in key peatland areas including:
711 Alaska, the central Hudson Bay Lowlands, the East European Plain and the Western Siberian lowlands.
712 However, there is an opportunity to explore trends and drivers of fire in tropical and sub-tropical
713 peatlands on a continental scale using a similar approach to this study.

714 **4. Conclusions**

715 Our composite analysis of peatland macrocharcoal records from North America, Europe and Patagonia
716 quantifies regional variability in peatland burning at mid- to high-latitudes during the Holocene.
717 Climate appears to be an important control on peatland fire until the mid-Holocene in Europe, and
718 perhaps until the present day in North America and Patagonia. Our analysis suggests that peatland
719 burning is generally higher during warm or dry periods of the Holocene and the magnitude of burning
720 is greater in warmer and drier regions, i.e. southern Europe. There is some correspondence between
721 peatland and wider landscape burning, although peatlands are generally less susceptible to fire, which
722 could plausibly be explained by the persistence of high surface moisture levels and a lower density of
723 woody biomass. Further work quantifying the source area of macrocharcoal specifically in peatlands
724 will help better define these trends. The most prominent example of divergent trends in peatland and
725 wider landscape burning is a reduction in peatland burning since the Little Ice Age across North
726 America and Europe, apart from central Europe. Nonetheless, in the face of climatic and land-use
727 change peatland restoration will be an important tool in reducing the susceptibility of peatlands to
728 fire. Based on our findings we set out a number of recommendations for future research to better
729 understand the controls on peatland fire.

730

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