

1 **TITLE: *Climate change amplifications of climate-fire teleconnections in the***  
2 ***Southern Hemisphere***

3

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17 **ABSTRACT**

18 Recent changes in trend and variability of the main Southern Hemisphere climate modes  
19 are driven by a variety of factors, including increasing atmospheric greenhouse gases,  
20 changes in tropical sea-surface temperature and stratospheric ozone depletion and  
21 recovery. One of the most important implications for climatic change is its effect via climate  
22 teleconnections on natural ecosystems, water security and fire variability in proximity to  
23 populated areas, thus threatening human lives and properties. Only sparse and

24 fragmentary knowledge of relationships between teleconnections, lightning strikes, and  
25 fire is available during the observed record within the Southern Hemisphere. This  
26 constitutes a major knowledge gap for undertaking suitable management and conservation  
27 plans. Our analysis of documentary fire records from Mediterranean and temperate regions  
28 across the Southern Hemisphere reveals a critical increased strength of climate-fire  
29 teleconnections during the onset of the 21<sup>st</sup> century including a tight coupling between  
30 lightning-ignited fire occurrences, the upward trend in the Southern Annular Mode and  
31 rising temperatures across the Southern Hemisphere.

32

### 33 **1. INTRODUCTION**

34 Fire is a key Earth system process determining global vegetation distribution [*Bond et al.,*  
35 2005], modulating the carbon cycle [*Liu et al., 2015*], and influencing the climate system  
36 [*Bowman et al., 2009*]. Documenting mechanisms behind climate-fire dynamics is critical  
37 for understanding the future of Earth's ecosystems under projected climate and fire change  
38 scenarios [*Abatzoglou and Williams, 2016; Jolly et al., 2015; Westerling et al., 2006*].  
39 Given the large variety of biomes and fire regimes around the Southern Hemisphere (SH)  
40 [*Bond et al., 2005; Bowman et al., 2009; Enright and Hill, 1995; Murphy et al., 2013*], it  
41 is crucial to understand how fire activity responds to climate variability within different  
42 vegetation contexts and climatic frameworks, and how such dynamics are being altered  
43 by climate change. Here we (1) present the first hemispheric-scale compilation of  
44 relationships between large-scale climate modes (e.g. El Niño Southern Oscillation,  
45 Southern Annual Mode and Indian Ocean Dipole) and documentary records of lightning-  
46 and human-ignited fires for the past 30-50 years and (2) present the first synthesis of  
47 climate change-mediated impacts on these climate-fire teleconnections across temperate  
48 and Mediterranean biomes of Chile, Argentina, South Africa and Australia (Figure 1a).

49

50 Across the Earth, variability in fire occurrence and spread is determined by the confluence  
51 of sufficient and dry fuel, an ignition source, and suitable weather for burning [*Bradstock,*  
52 2010; *Krawchuk et al., 2009*]. In moist temperate forest areas, since there is abundant  
53 biomass to burn (Figure 1b), fire activity through time is controlled by fuel moisture  
54 content (i.e. climate) and ignitions (lightning and humans) [*Bradstock, 2010; Cochrane,*  
55 2003; *McWethy et al., 2013; Pausas and Ribeiro, 2013*]. In contrast, fires in drier  
56 temperate biomes (e.g. Mediterranean-type ecosystems) are both moisture-limited and  
57 biomass-limited (Figure 1b). Increased fire activity in Mediterranean-type ecosystems is  
58 sensitive to quasi-annual antecedent rainfall pulses, whereas concurrent droughts and/or  
59 hot-dry winds tend to be the key driver of fire activity in temperate forests [*Moritz et al.,*  
60 2012]. Hence predicting future fire activity hinges partly on understanding the impact of  
61 climate conditions, mediated by large-scale climate drivers, on landscape flammability via  
62 vegetation type and inherent fuel traits [*Krawchuk et al., 2009; Moritz et al., 2012*]. The  
63 SH features extensive areas of both Mediterranean-type and temperate forest ecosystems,  
64 both hosting endemic and fire-sensitive Gondwanan plant species, embedded in fire-prone  
65 vegetation (e.g. eucalypt forests of southeast Australia; introduced pine plantations in  
66 Central Chile) [*Hennessy et al., 2005*]. In these settings human ignitions are known to  
67 increase with intermediate population densities, but most fires are aggressively fought  
68 except those uncontrollable due to extreme weather conditions [*Bowman et al., 2017*].

69

70 Despite the acknowledged importance of various climate modes in modulating fire weather  
71 across the SH, analyses of their influence on SH fire activity are few in number, focus on  
72 one or few climate modes and are spatially fragmented [*Cai et al., 2009; Holz and Veblen,*  
73 2011; *Holz et al., 2012; Mariani et al., 2016*] – hence a hemispheric synthesis of climate-  
74 fire teleconnections is overdue. Here we consider the three large-scale climate modes  
75 operating at inter-annual and decadal scales in the Southern Hemisphere – the Southern  
76 Annular Mode (SAM), the El Niño Southern Oscillation (ENSO), the Indian Ocean Dipole  
77 (IOD) (Figure 1c,d,e) – to a) identify the individual most important climate index  
78 influencing fire activity by vegetation types within Mediterranean-type and temperate

79 forest ecosystems across the SH and b) quantify the past variability of teleconnections  
80 between climate modes and fire activity throughout the end of the 20<sup>th</sup> and the start of  
81 the 21<sup>st</sup> century.

82

83 This work also aims to identify the effects of the above-mentioned climatic change on the  
84 teleconnections between climate modes and natural (lightning-ignited) fire occurrences  
85 across the Southern Hemisphere. Although lightning strikes constitute the most important  
86 natural ignition source for wildfires, they only account for a small proportion of total fire  
87 occurrence in many regions on Earth [Bowman *et al.*, 2009]. Nonetheless, under warmer  
88 conditions it is likely that the potential for lightning-ignited wildfires will increase in  
89 response to climate change [Abatzoglou *et al.*, 2016; Williams, 2005]. There have been  
90 few attempts to understand the implications of increased flash rate on fire activity,  
91 principally area burnt from short-term coupled satellite data and climate models  
92 [Goldammer and Price, 1998; Krause *et al.*, 2014; Price and Rind, 1994], and there is a  
93 dearth of information on the hemisphere-wide relationship between actual lightning-  
94 ignited fires and climate trends. To address this important knowledge-gap, we compiled a  
95 hemispheric-scale documentary dataset of natural (lightning-ignited) wildfire occurrences,  
96 testing the connection between trends in lightning-ignited fires and (1) rising SH  
97 temperature and (2) variability in the leading climate modes throughout the late 20<sup>th</sup> and  
98 early 21<sup>st</sup> centuries.

99

## 100 **2. METHODS**

### 101 *2.1 Fire and climate records and climate indices*

102 Fire occurrence data were obtained through local administrative databases from four  
103 countries within the Mediterranean-type and temperate forest regions of the Southern  
104 Hemisphere: Chile, Argentina, Australia and South Africa (Figure 1). Information on the  
105 datasets collected and the sources are presented in Supporting Information (SI) Appendix  
106 Table S1. We define a fire season year (extending from the austral spring– early

107 September- through early fall – late March) by the year in which the fire season starts—  
108 e.g., fire season 1951/1952 = 1951). Two (per fire season) fire-regime metrics were used  
109 to represent annual-scale fire activity: number of occurrences and area burnt per fire  
110 season, including both human-set and lightning-set fires (separately and merged).  
111 Prescribed burns and arson fires were excluded from all datasets prior to analyses, thus  
112 we used only accidental and unplanned fire events. To minimize the effect of errors in area  
113 burnt measurements and small human-set fires, only fire events larger than 5 hectares  
114 were included in the analyses. To account for differences in climate-fire mechanisms in  
115 each biome, fire data were separated by vegetation type: herb/grass-dominated versus  
116 tree-dominated vegetation within the broad climate study regions.

117

## 118 2.2. Statistical analyses

119 Simple and partial Pearson correlations, scatterplot analyses and linear regression models  
120 were conducted to examine the spatio-temporal relationships of past and future wildfire  
121 occurrences and area burnt to variability in climate modes. Time-series were tested for  
122 normality using the Shapiro-Wilk normality test [*Shapiro and Wilk, 1965*]. If skewed time-  
123 series were identified, a log-transformation was performed prior to correlation analyses.  
124 A simple correlation matrix was created using all the fire activity data (occurrences and  
125 area burnt) to test whether fire activity was correlated with same-year climate conditions  
126 and climate modes/variables in each study region. A significance test using a 0.9  
127 confidence level was run in the *corrplot* package [*Wei and Simko, 2016*] in R [*Team, 2013*].  
128 Interactions amongst climate modes involve complex feedbacks and variable interaction  
129 patterns in space and time [*Cai et al., 2011; Fogt et al., 2009; Meyers et al., 2007; Risbey*  
130 *et al., 2009*]. To account for the possible co-dependence of climate indices in modulating  
131 fire activity across the studied regions, partial correlations were calculated using simple  
132 (Pearson) correlations of the residuals of pairs of linear regression models: fire metric (e.g.  
133 area burnt in woody vegetation in South Africa)  $\sim$  climate mode 1 (e.g. IOD) + climate  
134 mode 2 (e.g. ENSO) and climate mode 3 (e.g. SAM)  $\sim$  climate mode 1 (e.g. IOD) + climate  
135 mode 2 (e.g. ENSO). In this way, two climate modes (e.g. IOD and ENSO) were set as

136 control variables for the relationship between fire activity and the remaining climate mode  
137 (e.g. SAM).

138 To achieve a hemispheric synthesis of ignition patterns, fire occurrences from all the  
139 regions were summed as departures (in SD units, i.e. z-scores) and run through the same  
140 partial correlation procedure. A summary table of the highest significant partial correlation  
141 values (i.e. seasonal or annual) per region, biome, and dominant vegetation type is  
142 presented in Table 1. A table with the highest significant simple Pearson correlation values  
143 is also presented (SI Table S3). A spreadsheet listing all the simple and partial correlation  
144 coefficients for all the study regions and metrics is available in SI (additional external  
145 table). Correlation matrices by region are presented in SI Figure S2a and 2b. Barplots  
146 showing the comparison of Pearson correlation coefficients between simple and partial  
147 correlations are presented in Figure S6.

148 To analyse changes in the patterns of ignition directly related to climate variability and  
149 change at a hemispheric scale between the 21<sup>st</sup> (2000-2014) and 20<sup>th</sup> (1958-1999)  
150 centuries, only the number of lightning-lit fires (i.e. as opposed to intra-region,  
151 idiosyncratic and complex socio-ecological ignition patterns), and not the area burnt, were  
152 considered in the statistical analyses. In this case, due to the low number of observations  
153 by year, herbaceous and woody vegetation types were combined. Simple Pearson  
154 correlation coefficients between climate indices and SH summed fire occurrences (all  
155 unplanned human fires and lightning-ignited fires) were measured on either the full and  
156 split time-series. To quantify the relationship between observed warming on fire  
157 occurrence across the SH, summed fire occurrence records from all the analysed regions  
158 (and combined vegetation types) in the SH were compared against hemispheric-scale  
159 annual temperature. To minimise the issues deriving from an uneven distribution of data  
160 points in the 20<sup>th</sup> and 21<sup>st</sup> centuries, a randomised simple correlation method was  
161 employed using 14 years in the 20<sup>th</sup> century ( $n=21^{\text{st}}$  century) that were chosen through  
162 100 random combinations (Supporting Information TableS3, Document S3).

163 Lastly, to project the impact of SAM on fire occurrence under increasing greenhouse gases  
164 concentrations over the remaining of the 21<sup>st</sup> century, a simple linear model of SH fire  
165 occurrences against the summer SAM index projection (data from [McLandress *et al.*,  
166 2011; Thompson *et al.*, 2011]).

167

### 168 **3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

#### 169 **3.1 Climate modes and variability in the occurrence and extent of fire across the** 170 **Southern Hemisphere**

171 Our measure of same-year correlation coefficients between seasonal climate mode indexes  
172 and a) total annual wildfire activity (human- [i.e. unplanned burns only] plus lightning- lit  
173 fires) and b) lightning-lit fires only, provides insights on the leading modes of fire variability  
174 in each study region. The associations of the three climate modes with fire occurrence and  
175 area burnt, from all ignition sources and lightning alone, are described below, with  
176 subsequent sections considering the effects of ENSO, IOD and SAM separately. Differences  
177 between patterns of human- and lightning- ignited fires were not addressed in this work,  
178 as they are idiosyncratic to the different cultures and regions (e.g. motives and timing of  
179 intentional or accidental burning) and require a research design targeting human  
180 behaviour.

181

182 ENSO (NIÑO 3.4 Index) is significantly positively correlated with wildfire activity in  
183 temperate Australia (SEAUS; i.e. number of fires and area burnt in both vegetation types),  
184 Mediterranean Chile (CHMEDI; i.e. area burnt in both vegetation types), western  
185 Mediterranean Australia (WMEDIAUS; i.e. number of fires and area burnt in woody  
186 vegetation) and temperate South America (TEMPSA; i.e. area burnt in woody vegetation).  
187 The highest partial correlation coefficient values between fire and ENSO were consistently  
188 found across regions in spring in the temperate regions, while they were found in the  
189 antecedent autumn in the Mediterranean regions (Figure S2). ENSO is also significantly

190 associated to lightning-ignited fire occurrences in SEAUS and CHMEDI in summer (for both  
191 vegetation types combined [see Methods section]; Table 1b).

192

193 The IOD shows significant partial correlations with the fire activity metrics in all vegetation  
194 types across all temperate regions during spring, summer and annually, and also in some  
195 Mediterranean regions with both herbaceous and woody vegetation (Table 1a). In CHMEDI  
196 and EMEDIAUS, the IOD displays negative partial correlation coefficients with the fire  
197 metrics, whereas positive values are observed in all the other regions. Significant positive  
198 correlations were also found with natural fire activity across Australia during spring.

199

200 The SAM Index shows high significant positive correlations with fire activity from all ignition  
201 sources in all regions and vegetation types (Table 1a). High partial correlation coefficients  
202 were found in spring and summer in the temperate regions, whereas the highest  
203 correlation coefficients in the Mediterranean regions were found especially in winter and  
204 annually. SAM has a significant positive correlation with lightning-lit fires for all regions  
205 (except SEAUS) particularly during summer and annually (Table 1b). Accordingly, our  
206 results indicate that SAM in the same-year summer and spring seasons plays a key role in  
207 modulating unplanned fire activity (occurrences and area burnt) across all the studied  
208 regions (Figure 2), especially across temperate forests in the SH (Table 1).

209

210 We assessed whether SAM, as the most influential climate mode across all study regions,  
211 had an impact on the combined record of all fire occurrences (number of fires) from all  
212 ignition sources in all vegetation types and across all regions that had separately shown  
213 positive correlation to the summer SAM Index (CHMEDI, WMEDIAUS, SAFR, TEMPSA,  
214 WTAS). SAM is positively correlated to fire occurrence of all regions, from all ignition  
215 sources and vegetation types combined ( $r=0.61$ ;  $p\text{-value}<0.001$ ; Figure 2a and SI Figure  
216 S4). These simple correlation coefficient values remain high and upward trends in  
217 teleconnections between SAM and fire occurrence over the SH are observed during the  
218 20<sup>th</sup> and early 21<sup>st</sup> centuries ( $r=0.58$  and  $r=0.52$  respectively), with higher dispersion from

219 the mean during in the early 21<sup>st</sup> century (Figure 2b). These results are supported by our  
220 randomised correlation method results (Table S3). Based on the strong linear relationship  
221 between observed summer SAM index and SH fire occurrence (i.e. number of fires) (Figure  
222 2a), projected results on the relationship between both time-series show a persistent  
223 increasing trend throughout the 21<sup>st</sup> century, reaching up to 8-10 standard deviations from  
224 the historical mean occurrence in fire (Figure 2d).

225

226 Results indicate an overall tight and positive association between SH temperature and fire  
227 occurrence, with a persistent upward trend over time ( $r=0.54$ ;  $p\text{-value}<0.001$ ; Figure 3a).  
228 The warming-fire occurrence relationship is substantially stronger during early 21<sup>st</sup> century  
229 than the 20<sup>th</sup> century ( $r=0.64$  vs.  $r=0.12$ ,  $p\text{-value}<0.05$ ). Moreover, the SAM and IOD  
230 indexes (see all seasonal  $r$ -values in SI Figure S5) display a strong significant correlation  
231 with the number of lightning-lit fires combined across the SH, with tighter relationship and  
232 increased departure from the mean during the early part of the 21<sup>st</sup> than during the 20<sup>th</sup>  
233 centuries (Figure 3c, d).

234

### 235 **3.2. ENSO: the 'Pacific' mode**

236 Our results from the partial correlations analysis confirm existing literature supporting the  
237 importance of ENSO in driving fire activity in SEAUS, CHMEDI, WMEDIAUS and TEMPSA  
238 (Table 1), though we note an absence of a significant correlation (either positive or  
239 negative) between ENSO and the summed SH fire occurrences from all ignition sources  
240 (SI Figure S4 and S5) in all vegetation types. A significant relationship between ENSO and  
241 fire activity has been previously reported for some of the study regions used here based  
242 on both documentary records [ *Holz and Veblen, 2012; Mariani et al., 2016; Nicholls and*  
243 *Lucas, 2007*] and tree-ring fire-scar reconstructions [ *Veblen et al., 1999*] and sedimentary  
244 (charcoal peaks) records [ *Holz and Veblen, 2012*].

245

246 Notwithstanding the lack of a significant correlation between fire occurrences and ENSO  
247 across the entire SH (i.e. summed records; SI Figure S4 and S5), the scatterplot presented

248 in Figure 3 showing the split time-series (20<sup>th</sup> and 21<sup>st</sup> century separated) highlights the  
249 importance of ENSO in the current century. In this case, a more positive state of spring  
250 NIÑO3.4 (El Niño) corresponds to a large departure of fire occurrences above historical  
251 average, stepping up by about 4 standard deviations from the 20<sup>th</sup> century data point  
252 cloud (Figure 3c). The projected amplifications of El Niño and La Niña activity due to  
253 anthropogenic climate change [ *Cai et al.*, 2014; *Cai et al.*, 2015; *Power et al.*, 2013]  
254 herald a serious threat to both fire-sensitive ecosystems and the ever-expanding  
255 flammable bush- or wild-urban interface [ *Bowman et al.*, 2017; *Sharples et al.*, 2016],  
256 presenting fire management agencies with even greater challenges than they face now.  
257 In this regard, the significant correlations of climate forcing and fire occurrence in heavily  
258 populated SEAUS and CHMEDI found in this study and elsewhere [ *Holz et al.*, 2012;  
259 *Mariani et al.*, 2016] are of concern.

260

### 261 **3.3 SAM: the leading mode of fire variability in the SH**

262 Critically, from our results it is evident that a strong departure in the positive polarity of  
263 the SAM Index above the historical mean may result in a large increase in fire occurrence  
264 by the end of the current century or earlier (Figure 2c, d). Given the importance of this  
265 climate mode in driving moisture patterns and fire activity across the mid-latitudes of the  
266 SH [ *Holz and Veblen*, 2011; *Holz et al.*, 2017; *Mariani and Fletcher*, 2016], the fact that  
267 the observed trend in the SAM Index is statistically distinct from estimates of natural  
268 variability [ *Abram et al.*, 2014; *Fogt et al.*, 2009] and the projections of increased positive  
269 polarity under enhanced greenhouse gases concentrations [ *Thompson et al.*, 2011], it is  
270 crucial to take this climate mode into account when addressing future projections of fire  
271 activity across the entire SH extra-tropics (Figure 2d). In terms of lightning ignitions, we  
272 identified SAM as the leading climate mode in most of the analysed regions across the SH  
273 (Table 1b, Figure 3d; see below). Anomalously large positive states of SAM were found to  
274 be linked to a great increase in number of fires during the 21<sup>st</sup> century, stepping up by at  
275 least 2 standard deviations from the 20<sup>th</sup> century data point cloud (Figure 3d). While the

276 overall trend of these findings is unequivocal, we acknowledge that the departures  
277 projected in climate and the SAM have uncertainties associated with the use of CMIP3  
278 models and SAM projections to 2100 (i.e. based on a GCM study; *Thompson et al.* 2011  
279 and *McLandress et al.* 2011). For instance, in the future it is highly likely that the non-  
280 linearities of the climate dynamics (linked to changes in ozone-depleting substances and  
281 concentration of greenhouse gases) will manifest more strongly, in turn affecting the  
282 reliability of projections in SAM and SAM-fire relationships.

283

#### 284 **3.4 IOD and SH fire activity: not only an Indian Ocean mode**

285 Our results suggest the existence of a relatively strong correlation between IOD and  
286 variation in fire ignited from all sources and lightning across Australia (SEAUS, WTAS and  
287 WMEDIAUS) and SAFR. Positive IOD events are linked to negative precipitation anomalies  
288 across the Australian continent occasionally up to its Pacific coast [ *Cai et al.*, 2009],  
289 especially when occurring in combination with El Niño events [ *Meyers et al.*, 2007; *Risbey*  
290 *et al.*, 2009]. Our results also report for the first time, teleconnections between IOD and  
291 fires in South America (CHMEDI, SATEMP), a region that is not located within the 'classical'  
292 IOD zone of influence [ *Saji et al.*, 1999] (Figure 1). Although climate mechanism and  
293 relationship between the IOD and South American rainfall have been described in the past  
294 [ *Chan et al.*, 2008; *Taschetto and Ambrizzi*, 2012], we believe our findings are probably  
295 mostly related to the complex spatio-temporal ENSO-SAM-IOD teleconnections [ *Cai et*  
296 *al.*, 2011], but further studies are needed. In spite of the fact that the IOD does not have  
297 a significant correlation with lightning-lit fire occurrences during the 20<sup>th</sup> century, the  
298 strong association found during the 21<sup>st</sup> century (Figure 3d) highlights the possible  
299 implication of recent climatic change and warming of the SH and the Indian Ocean (IO)  
300 [ *Vecchi and Soden*, 2007].

301

#### 302 **3.5. A warmer and fiery future?**

303 Our correlative analyses suggest a strong link between lightning-lit fires, rising  
304 hemispheric temperatures and the increasingly positive polarity of the SAM, NIÑO3.4, and  
305 IOD indexes over the 21<sup>st</sup> century (Figure 3). Climate change is projected to increase  
306 lightning strikes (cloud to ground) frequency, an important source of ignition for wildfires  
307 [Abatzoglou *et al.*, 2016; Romps *et al.*, 2014], with an estimated warming-induced  
308 increase of roughly 5–12% for every degree (°C) [Michalon *et al.*, 1999; Price and Rind,  
309 1994; Romps *et al.*, 2014] and up to 21.3% for the RCP85 projection (IPCC, 2014) at the  
310 end of the 21<sup>st</sup> century [Krause *et al.*, 2014]. Evidence of the warming pressure on natural  
311 fire variability is the high positive correlation coefficient between SH temperature and  
312 lightning-lit fire occurrences and the increased strength of this correlation stepping from  
313 the 20<sup>th</sup> to the 21<sup>st</sup> century under the persistent warming trend (Figure 3a,b). Importantly,  
314 lightning strikes were the cause of recent large-fire activity and carbon loss in the boreal  
315 forests of North America, suggestive of a potential positive feedback between increased  
316 lightning incidence, subsequent fire activity and the global carbon cycle [Balch *et al.*, 2017;  
317 Veraverbeke *et al.*, 2017]. In addition, increased greenhouse gases along with the effects  
318 of ozone recovery, are expected to continue to drive the SAM, the most important fire-  
319 teleconnected climate mode identified in this study. During summers the effects of ozone  
320 recovery might cancel out greenhouse forcing, whereas during the rest of the year and on  
321 an annual basis the SAM is expected to continue on its high index polarity even under  
322 ozone recovery [Thompson *et al.*, 2011].

323

324 Our results indicate a strong positive relationship between fire occurrence and positive  
325 trends in SAM, NIÑO3.4 and IOD, especially in the early 21<sup>st</sup> century (Figure 3c,d,e), and  
326 highlight a potential further increase in fire occurrence into the future related to these  
327 climate modes. Due to the tight linkages with both unplanned and natural fire occurrence  
328 and extent across the entire SH, future SAM projections under increasing greenhouse  
329 gases concentrations and global warming are alarming (Figure 2c,d and Figure 3d)  
330 [Thompson *et al.*, 2011]. In the tropical Pacific, extreme El Niño events are projected to  
331 become more frequent due to increased ocean surface warming under a rising global

332 temperature scenario [Cai et al., 2014]. This cascade of events will likely have  
333 consequences on anthropogenic and natural fire occurrences across temperate and  
334 Mediterranean regions across the Southern Hemisphere. Moreover, in the tropical Indian  
335 Ocean (IO), climate models project a future warming pattern that features a slower  
336 warming rate in the eastern IO than in the western IO [Vecchi and Soden, 2007]. This  
337 warming pattern matches sea surface temperature conditions similar to those occurring  
338 during a positive IOD event [Saji et al., 1999], that are becoming more frequent and  
339 achieving unprecedented levels in the past 30 years [Cai et al., 2009]. Given the high  
340 correlations of the IOD with Australian drought and fire records, the predicted warming  
341 pattern of the IO is most likely to increasingly impact water security and fire danger across  
342 southern Australia and may impact, at a minor magnitude, the rest of the Southern  
343 Hemisphere.

344

345 Regardless of the potential feedback between several bottom-up factors such as fire-driven  
346 vegetation change, technological advances to detect and suppress fires and the increases  
347 in human ignitions, our results indicate an underlying, marked positive trend in the  
348 lightning-ignited fires. This trend is likely to continue due to projected temperature  
349 increase and the climate modes' trajectories. These findings imply the existence of a  
350 significant threat for natural ecosystems and wildland urban interfaces across the SH. For  
351 instance, landscape-scale loss of fire-sensitive ecosystems has already occurred in  
352 response to changes in fire frequency and fire-vegetation feedbacks in parts of southeast  
353 Australia [Holz et al., 2014], New Zealand [Tepley et al., 2017] and southern South  
354 America [Paritsis et al., 2015], with concern about a future where fires become more  
355 frequent and/or extensive. Indeed, the threat posed by increasing fire occurrence is  
356 magnified by the compounding effects of direct climate change impacts on ecosystem  
357 functioning, such as post-fire growth and recovery rates (i.e. under drier and more  
358 flammable environments) [Enright et al., 2015; Tepley et al., 2018]. Enormously  
359 economical and socially disastrous fires are increasingly reported around the SH (Australia,  
360 Tasmania, New Zealand, Chile) [Bowman et al., 2017]. We acknowledge our analysis is

361 limited because we have been unable to incorporate the full array of factors and the  
362 interactions that are likely to influence trends in the multifaceted climate-fire dynamic.  
363 Nonetheless, our findings highlight the capacity of climate change particularly via  
364 lightning-ignited fires and inter-annual climate modes (i.e. fire-prone phases in SAM, IOD,  
365 and ENSO) to strongly affect the Earth System.

366

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374 comments on initial results. Data can be obtained through the sources listed in Table S1  
375 (Supporting Information).

376

## 377 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

378 M.M. conducted data collection, analysis, interpretation and led the manuscript writing;  
379 A.H. conceived ideas and helped with data analysis, interpretation and manuscript editing;  
380 T.V. helped with ideas development and manuscript editing; G.W. helped with data  
381 analysis and manuscript editing; M.-S.F. and D.B. helped with interpretation and  
382 manuscript editing. Authors declare no competing financial interests. Correspondence  
383 should be addressed to M.M. and A.H.

384

385 **FIGURES and TABLES CAPTIONS**

386 **Figure 1 a)** Geography of the dominant inter-annual climate modes and study regions:  
387 1- Australia, 2- South Africa and 3- South America. **b)** Conceptual model of coarse-scale  
388 controls on fire activity: fuel-limited areas tend to experience more fire due to inter-annual  
389 pulses in precipitation. In contrast, areas with more abundant fuel tend to experience more  
390 fire due to pulses of ignitions and/or fire-conducive weather conditions (modified from  
391 Moritz et al., 2012). **c)** Time series of SAM Index (Annual); **d)** NIÑO 3.4 Index (Annual);  
392 **e)** IOD Index (Annual). See methods for sources.

393

394 **Table 1** Pearson correlation coefficients ( $r$ ) for partial correlations ( $p$ -values are indicated  
395 in parentheses) between seasonal climate modes and documentary records of fire activity:  
396 unplanned— human- and lightning-ignited fires in a) and lightning-lit only events in b), by  
397 region. Table in c) shows partial correlations for the summed fire occurrences in the  
398 Southern Hemisphere. Only highest significant same-year correlation coefficients are  
399 reported (by season). Full correlation matrices between interannual climate modes and  
400 fire activity by vegetation type for each region are presented in Supporting Information  
401 (Figure S2a,b). Letters in parentheses in a) indicate the most significant fire metric ( $N$ =  
402 number of fires;  $A$ = area burnt). Region codes: CHMEDI= Mediterranean Chile,  
403 WMEDIAUS= western Mediterranean Australia, EMEDIAUS= eastern Mediterranean  
404 Australia, SAFR= Mediterranean South Africa, SEAUS= temperate southeast Australia,  
405 WTAS= western Tasmania, TEMPSA= temperate South America (Chile and Argentina). The  
406 letter  $n$  in parentheses indicates the number of years used to run Pearson correlation  
407 coefficients. N/A stands for information Not Available due to lack of data. Control variables  
408 refers to the climate modes kept constant to account for co-dependencies in their  
409 respective effect on fire activity.

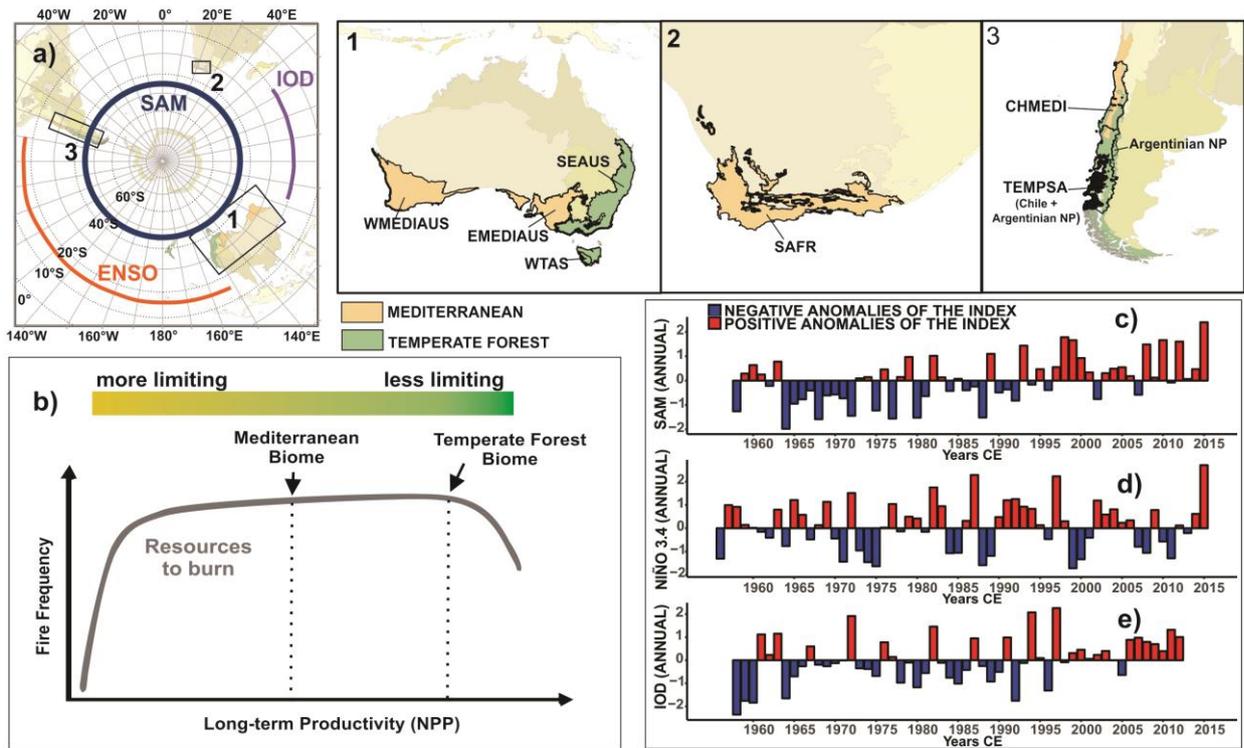
410

411 **Figure 2 a)** Stacked plots of the SAM Index (summer) and the total number of wildfires  
412 in the Southern Hemisphere (black solid line; only regions with a positive correlation with  
413 the SAM Index are included in the summed record) from all ignition sources and vegetation  
414 types combined; **b)** Scatterplot of the two time-series shown in a). Colour and symbol  
415 coding refers to the 20<sup>th</sup> (blue dots) and the 21<sup>st</sup> (red triangle) centuries; **c)** Summer SAM  
416 Index projection under increasing greenhouse gases concentrations (data from Thompson  
417 et al., 2011 and *McLandress et al.*, 2011); **d)** Linear model projecting the total (human  
418 and lightning-lit) wildfire occurrences in the SH extending to the year 2100 based on the  
419 SAM Index projection presented in c). Pearson correlation coefficients are reported in a)  
420 and b).

421

422 **Figure 3 a)** Stacked plots of the SH annual temperatures (z-scores; data from ERA-  
423 Interim Reanalysis) and the total number of lightning-lit fires recorded in the Southern  
424 Hemisphere. **b)** Scatterplot of the SH annual temperatures (z-scores; data from ERA-  
425 Interim Reanalysis) and the total number of lightning-lit fires recorded in the Southern  
426 Hemisphere; Black solid line in a) represents the summed SH number of lightning-ignited  
427 fires. Colour and symbol coding in b,c,d,e refers to the 20<sup>th</sup> (blue dots) and the 21<sup>st</sup> (red  
428 triangle) centuries. **c)** Scatterplot of the NIÑO3.4 Index (spring) and the number of  
429 lightning-lit fires across the SH; **d)** Scatterplot of the SAM Index (summer) and the number  
430 of lightning-lit fires across the SH; **e)** Scatterplot of the IOD Index (spring) and the number  
431 of lightning-lit fires across the SH.

432



436 **Figure 1 a)** Geography of the dominant climate modes and study regions: 1- Australia,  
 437 2- South Africa and 3- South America. **b)** Conceptual model of coarse-scale controls on  
 438 fire activity: fuel-limited areas tend to experience more fire due to inter-annual pulses in  
 439 precipitation. In contrast, areas with more abundant fuel tend to experience more fire  
 440 due to pulses of ignitions and/or fire-conducive weather conditions (modified from Moritz et  
 441 al., 2012). **c)** Time series of SAM Index (Annual); **d)** NIÑO 3.4 Index (Annual); **e)** IOD  
 442 Index (Annual). See methods for sources.

445 **Table 1**

446 Pearson correlation coefficients ( $r$ ) for partial correlations (p-values are indicated in  
447 parentheses) between seasonal climate modes and documentary records of fire activity:  
448 unplanned— human- and lightning-ignited fires in a) and lightning-lit only events in b), by  
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461 respective effect on fire activity.

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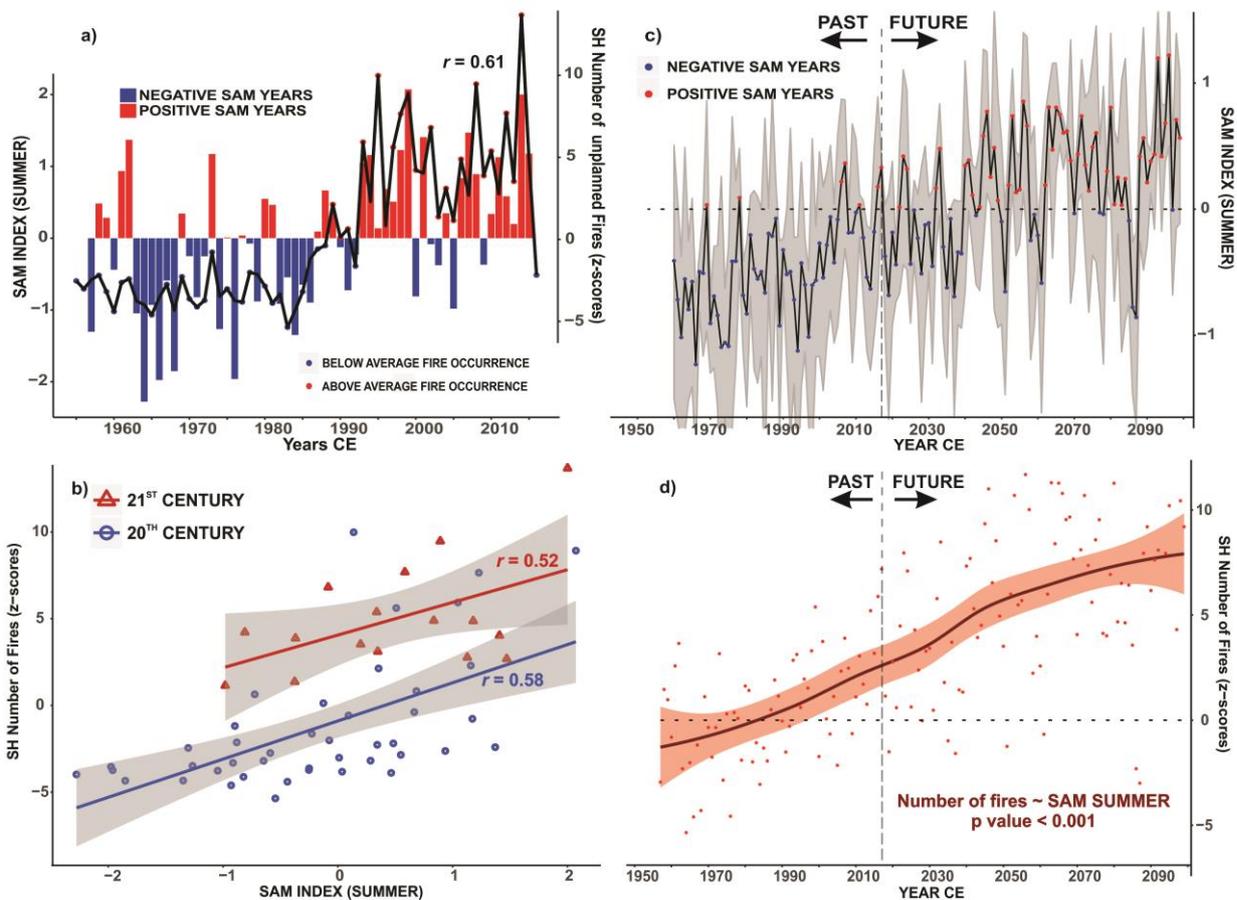
a) UNPLANNED FIRES (total of human- and lightning- ignited)								
			CONTROL VARIABLES: IOD + NIÑO3.4		CONTROL VARIABLES: IOD + SAM		CONTROL VARIABLES: SAM + NIÑO3.4	
			SAM	SAM SEASON	NIÑO3.4	NIÑO3.4 SEASON	IOD	IOD SEASON
Mediterranean	CHMEDI (n=26)	herbaceous	0.559 (0.005)	WINTER (A)	0.5722 (0.004)	ANNUAL (A)	-0.4860 (0.018)	WINTER (A)
		woody	0.4497 (0.024)	WINTER (A)	0.385 (0.069)	AUTUMN (A)	-0.3901 (0.065)	WINTER (A)
	WMEDIAUS (n=67)	herbaceous	0.4116 (0.0019)	SUMMER (N)	-0.2676 (0.05)	SPRING (N)	0.364 (0.006)	SPRING (N)
		woody	0.3017 (0.026)	ANNUAL (N)	0.2759 (0.043)	AUTUMN (A)	0.291 (0.03)	SPRING (N)
	EMEDIAUS (n=67)	herbaceous	-0.333 (0.013)	SPRING (A)	/	/	/	/
		woody	/	/	/	/	-0.2596 (0.057)	SUMMER (A)
SAFR (n=66)	woody	0.42 (0.001)	ANNUAL (N)	/	/	0.354 (0.008)	SPRING (N)	
Temperate	SEAUS (n=64)	herbaceous	-0.293 (0.031)	SPRING (A)	0.299 (0.027)	SPRING (A)	0.265 (0.05)	ANNUAL (N)
		woody	-0.3778 (0.004)	SPRING (A)	0.4217 (0.001)	SUMMER (A)	0.29 (0.03)	ANNUAL (N)
	WTAS (n=35)	herbaceous	0.4843 (0.0036)	SUMMER (N)	/	/	/	/
		woody	0.5601 (0.0005)	SUMMER (N)	0.3218 (0.063)	SUMMER (N)	0.3424 (0.04)	AUTUMN (N)
	TEMPSA (n=67)	herbaceous	0.4320 (0.001)	SUMMER (A)	/	/	0.309 (0.022)	SPRING (N)
		woody	0.4848 (0.0002)	SUMMER (N)	-0.2362 (0.085)	SPRING (A)	0.315 (0.03)	SPRING (A)
b) NUMBER OF LIGHTNING-LIT FIRES (summed occurrences; woody and herbaceous vegetation types combined)								
			CONTROL VARIABLES: IOD + NIÑO3.4		CONTROL VARIABLES: IOD + SAM		CONTROL VARIABLES: SAM + NIÑO3.4	
			SAM	SAM SEASON	NIÑO3.4	NIÑO3.4 SEASON	IOD	IOD SEASON
Mediterranean	CHMEDI (n=26)		0.3774 (0.075)	WINTER	-0.586 (0.0032)	SUMMER	/	/
	WMEDIAUS (n=40)		0.3679 (0.006)	SUMMER	/	/	0.3225 (0.0173)	SPRING
	EMEDIAUS		N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
	SAFR (n=61)		0.3298 (0.019)	ANNUAL	-0.237 (0.093)	WINTER	0.2767 (0.051)	SPRING
Temperate	SEAUS (n=54)		0.2912 (0.044)	SUMMER	0.2666 (0.0669)	SUMMER	0.30879 (0.023)	SPRING
	WTAS (n=35)		0.2873 (0.099)	ANNUAL	/	/	0.3680 (0.032)	SPRING
	TEMPSA (n=67)		0.2871 (0.035)	AUTUMN	-0.3329 (0.013)	SPRING	0.2508 (0.0672)	SPRING
c) SOUTHERN HEMISPHERE SUMMED OCCURRENCES								
1958-2014			CONTROL VARIABLES: IOD + NIÑO3.4		CONTROL VARIABLES: IOD + SAM		CONTROL VARIABLES: SAM + NIÑO3.4	
			SAM	SAM SEASON	NIÑO3.4	NIÑO3.4 SEASON	IOD	IOD SEASON
All unplanned wildfires (n=66)			0.4225 (0.00145)	SUMMER	/	/	0.3264 (0.016)	SPRING
All lightning-ignited wildfires (n=66)			0.3295 (0.0147)	ANNUAL	/	/	0.3823 (0.0043)	SPRING

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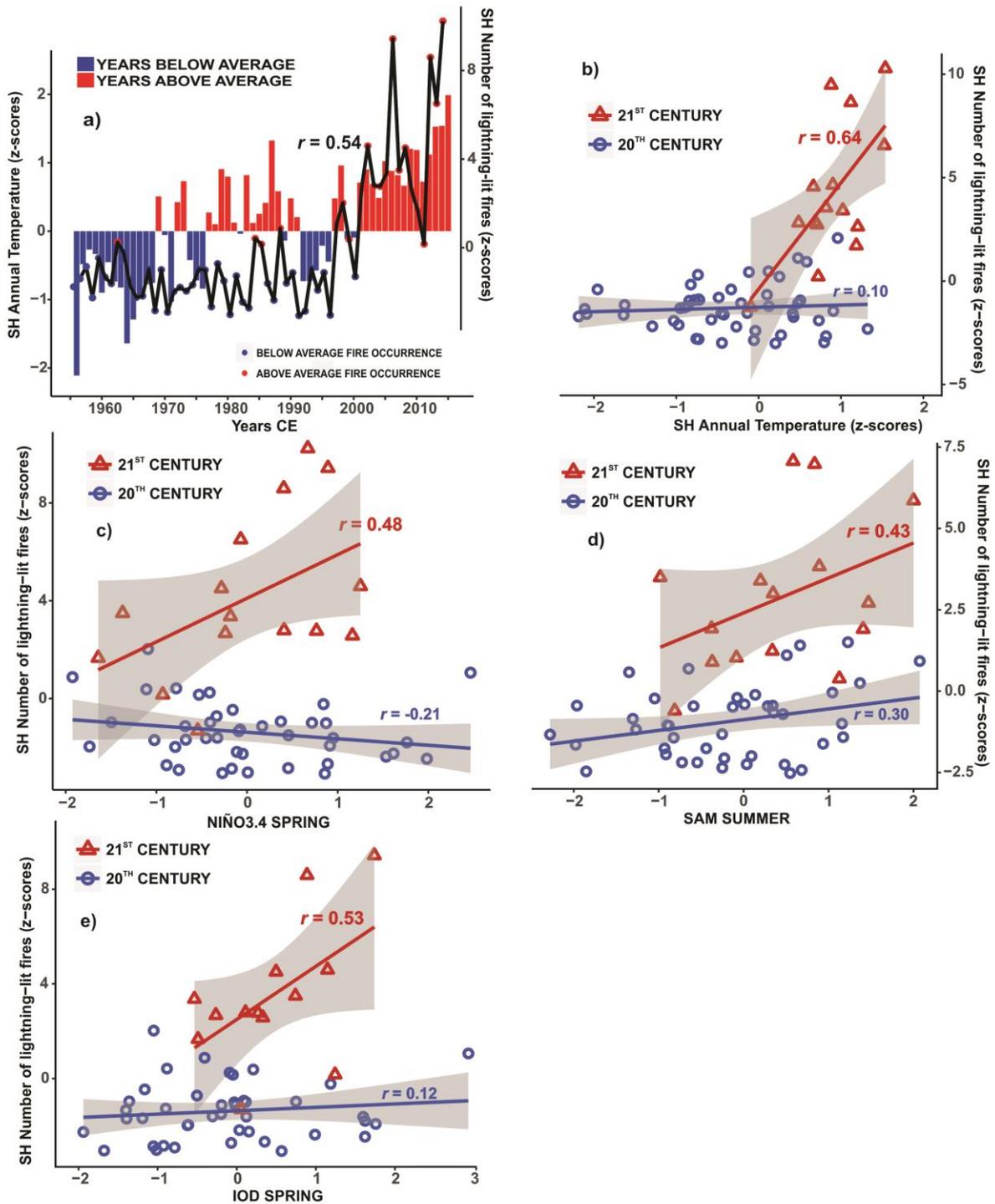


468

469 **Figure 2 a)** Stacked plots of the SAM Index (summer) and the total number of wildfires  
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490 of lightning-lit fires across the SH; **e**) Scatterplot of the IOD Index (spring) and the number  
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