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45 **One-Sentence summary:** An increase in Indigenous population around 6,000 years ago across
46 southeastern Australia led to increased impact from anthropogenic fire regimes, and the
47 reduction of shrub fuel loads.

48

49 **Abstract**

50 Wildfires in forests globally have become more frequent and intense due to changes in climate
51 and human management. Shrub layer fuels allow fire to spread vertically to forest canopy,
52 creating high-intensity fires. Our research provides a deep-time perspective on shrub fuel loads
53 in fire-prone southeastern Australia. Comparing 2,833 records for vegetation cover, past climate,
54 biomass burning, and human population size across different phases of human occupation, we
55 demonstrate that Indigenous population expansion and cultural fire use resulted in a 50%
56 reduction in shrub cover, from approximately 30% from the early-mid Holocene (12-6 ka) to
57 15% during the late-mid Holocene (6-1 ka). Following British colonization, shrub cover has
58 increased to the highest ever recorded (mean of 35% land cover), increasing the risk of high-
59 intensity fires.

60

61 **Main Text**

62 We live in a flammable world where forest fires are projected to increase with anthropogenic
63 climate change (1). Forested areas of western North America and southeastern Australia are
64 wildfire epicentres, with devastating economic and societal repercussions (2). Australia's fires
65 are increasing in frequency and extent (3), fueled by anthropogenic warming, droughts (4), and
66 increased biomass (5). The extreme wildfires of 2019/2020 occurred in the dense *Eucalyptus*
67 woodlands and forests of southeastern Australia (4, 6) during extreme fire weather (3). Regarded

68 as ‘catastrophic’ from both a socio-economic and an environmental perspective (3, 4) the fires
69 burned more than 21% of forest area during this occasion, in comparison to annual averages of
70 2-3% since 2000 (7). Along with climate change, forest management and fire suppression have
71 allowed the accumulation of shrubby biomass which fuels more intense fires (8–10). An
72 important component of overall fuel load, known as ladder fuels, is the shrub layer that allows
73 ground fire to spread to the tree layer causing crown fires (11, 12).

74
75 For thousands of years, humans have harnessed fire for various purposes, including fire
76 management itself (13). Cultural burning refers to the practice of systematically applying
77 frequent low-intensity fire to the land, as employed by many Indigenous groups globally (14,
78 15). Cultural burning relies on an intimate relationship with the land, creating fine-scale spatial
79 heterogeneity that promotes high biodiversity, improves hunting opportunities, interrupts fuel
80 load connectivity and serves various cultural and spiritual purposes (16, 17). In North America,
81 suppression of Indigenous cultural burning has had major consequences for forest composition
82 and fuel connectivity (10, 18, 19). For example, in the Klamath Mountains (California) the
83 cessation of Indigenous cultural burning drastically increased biomass in post-colonial times
84 (14). In Australia, Indigenous peoples arrived at least 65,000 years ago (20) and likely used fire
85 to care for Country. Country is an Indigenous Australian term to describe relationships and
86 interconnections between lands, waterways and people (21). British colonization disrupted
87 cultural burning in southeastern Australia, and eucalypt-dominated vegetation communities now
88 burn at extreme intensities (3), in part due to abundant ladder fuels (12, 22). Colonisation of
89 Indigenous lands has suppressed the customary burning practices that maintained open forest

90 structures. This, in combination with the active suppression of forest fires in the 20th century, has
91 caused fuel loads to increase (5, 14).

92

93 While traditional burning practices have important benefits (23), quantitative data on Australian
94 vegetation structure under Indigenous management is lacking. Understanding the mechanisms
95 behind extreme wildfires (6) under different management approaches, from Indigenous cultural
96 burning to post-colonial practices, can inform better fire management in the future.

97 Palaeoecological evidence is becoming an invaluable tool to assess linkages between wildfire
98 extent and changing fuels following colonial invasion of Indigenous lands (10, 14). In this work,
99 we adopted a multidisciplinary approach compiling multi-site data focused on the most densely
100 populated region of Australia, to uncover the regional dynamics of vegetation, fire histories,
101 human activity and paleoclimates (Fig. 1; Fig. S1).

102

103 Previous work focused on past fuel loads (e.g. 6) overlooked the fact that fuel abundance in
104 different vegetation strata and fuel continuity influence fire spread and intensity (24). Mariani et
105 al. (5), focusing on the last 1,000 years, hypothesized that the post-European disruption of
106 Indigenous cultural practices led to an expansion of shrubs in the understory of eucalypt forests
107 in eastern Australia, exacerbating recent fire events by providing ladder fuels. In this study we
108 build further from this hypothesis with a temporally expanded dataset to quantify shrub cover
109 across key periods of human occupation in Australia, gauging changes to the risk of high-
110 intensity crown fires (Figure 1a). To achieve this, we reconstructed shrub cover during periods
111 of: 1) no human activity (Last Interglacial = Marine Isotopic Stage (MIS) 5e; 130-115 ka), 2)

112 low human activity (early-mid Holocene, ending at 6 ka), 3) intensified human activity (mid-late
113 Holocene, 6-1 ka) and 4) post-colonial cultural burning suppression (from 1788 CE).

114 **Past land cover and ladder fuels**

115 Detecting cultural burning activity in archaeological and palaeoecological contexts is
116 challenging. Previous Australia-wide research combined data from various bioclimatic and
117 cultural areas, and failed to detect cultural burning (25, 26). In contrast, local-scale studies,
118 which reflect the scale at which people alter landscapes (15), find strong links between historical
119 occupation and vegetation changes, suggesting an increased tree abundance during low
120 occupation phases (27, 28). Examples of these investigations include coupled archaeological-
121 palaeoecological records from Tasmania (27, 28), the Australian Alps (29), New South Wales
122 (30) and Bass Strait islands (31).

123
124 We reconstructed shrub cover using pollen assemblages from 31 sedimentary deposits (from
125 wetlands and lakes) with a minimum age of 1000 years before present across southeastern
126 Australia (Fig. 2a,b; Table S1). Two pollen records (Caledonia Fen and Lake Wangoom)
127 covering parts of the Last Interglacial MIS 5e (130,000 – 115,000 years BP, hereon Last
128 Interglacial) were included to examine vegetation patterns before human arrival, and under
129 climates similar to the Holocene (Table S1; Fig. S2). The Regional Vegetation Estimates from
130 Large Sites (REVEALS) model (32) provides a regional-level reconstructions of above-ground
131 plant cover by structural type (i.e., trees, shrubs, herbs and grasses) (5). REVEALS modelling
132 overcomes biases in pollen production and dispersal that commonly overrepresent trees and
133 underrepresent shrub and herb/grass cover (32). We used the reconstructed cover of shrub taxa to
134 indicate ladder fuel availability across the study area.

135
136 Regional biomass burning was inferred from 108 sedimentary charcoal records (Fig 2c, Table
137 S2). Charcoal influx was calculated, time series were square-root transformed, and min-max
138 transformed series were averaged to create a regional record of palaeofire activity for
139 southeastern Australia (33) (see Material and Methods). Trends in human activity sensu Peros et
140 al. (34) were tracked using over 2,000 radiocarbon ages from archaeological sites (Fig. 2c),
141 obtained from the SahulArch database (35, 36). We calculated summed probability density
142 (SPD) to infer past changes in human activity (34, 37). We corrected for detection biases using
143 an exponential-logistic model on the archaeological ages (37) (see Materials and Methods). We
144 mapped the distribution of archaeological radiocarbon ages between 9-6 ka and 6-3 ka (Fig. 2c)
145 to trace changes in population size and landscape use.

146
147 To understand interactions between moisture availability and palaeofire, five terrestrial
148 palaeomoisture records (lake level, salinity and rainfall) from southeastern Australia were
149 compiled by smoothing z-scores (Fig. 2a,b; *see also* Fig S3 and Table S3). All trends were then
150 smoothed with Generalized Additive Models (GAMs) and the first derivative was calculated to
151 highlight significant trends in the time-series. Generalized linear modelling was used to identify
152 the main drivers of change in Holocene shrub cover with climate, palaeofire and human
153 population size as predictors (Table S4). A GLM was also used to predict how shrub cover might
154 change if human activity was excluded from the landscape (Fig. 4c).

155

156

157

158 **Reconstructed shrub cover under varying levels of human activity**

159 Our data track major structural changes in vegetation from the Last Interglacial to the post-
160 colonial landscape. In the Last Interglacial, shrub, tree and herb/grass cover each comprise ~30-
161 34% (Fig. 3), with shrub cover ranging from 13-80% in this period. Whilst there is no regional
162 charcoal compilation from the Last Interglacial due to the scarcity of records and dating
163 uncertainties, the recently published individual charcoal record from Lake Couridjah spans the
164 Holocene and the Last Interglacial (30). This study demonstrated higher levels of charring
165 intensities from biochemical data, most likely reflecting a high abundance of woody fuels that
166 burned at higher intensities (22) during the Last Interglacial.

167

168 During the early-mid Holocene, with human presence (Fig. 3), the cover of the three structural
169 plant groups diverged. Comparing this period to Last Interglacial, median tree cover declined by
170 ~10%, herb and grass cover increased by ~10%, and median shrub cover remained at a similar
171 level. However, there was high variability in cover of each stratum during the early-mid
172 Holocene, as in the Last Interglacial, ranging from 5 to 55% (Fig. 3). High charcoal influx
173 persisted during the early-mid Holocene, reaching a maximum at 6 ka (Fig. 4d). From 6 to 1 ka,
174 median shrub cover decreased to below 15% (Fig. 4c, Fig. S4), accompanied by a gradual
175 decline in charcoal influx until 1 ka (Fig. 4d, h). The charcoal compilation, interpreted as
176 biomass burning, shows a decline during the period 6-1 ka likely due to limited availability of
177 woody fuels, as large particles deriving from wood preserve better in sediment records (38). We
178 also found a large increase in herbs and grasses, from less than 40% prior to 6 ka to over 60%
179 from 6 to 1 ka (Fig. S4-5). Shrub cover percentage changes observed between pre-human
180 contexts and Holocene (both 12-6 ka and 6-1ka) are statistically significant (Table S5).

181
182 During the colonial era (i.e., the last ~200 yrs), herbs and grasses comprise ~60% median cover,
183 and tree cover declined to <10%. Over this same period, shrubs increased to ~35%, substantially
184 greater than both the Indigenous-managed Holocene landscapes, and slightly higher than the
185 unpopulated landscapes of the Last Interglacial (Fig. 3). We note a high variability in the post-
186 colonial dataset, likely due to the impact of agricultural practices (5).

187
188 These changes in shrub cover occurred during periods with different underlying levels of human
189 activity and climatic conditions. The SPD of radiocarbon ages indicates increased human activity
190 after 6 ka across SE Australia (Fig. 4b, c, f, see also Fig. S6). The distribution of archaeological
191 ages indicates the spatial expansion of human activity during the 6-3 ka period (Fig. 2c),
192 suggesting either an increase in population size, an increase in population mobility and extensive
193 land use, or a combination of both during the mid-late Holocene. This phase of increased human
194 activity occurs after moisture availability peaked at 7 ka following an initially drier early-mid
195 Holocene (Fig. 4a). After human activity increases, moisture levels were more stable but drier
196 until ~2 ka (Fig. 4a, e).

197
198 Human activity (SPD of radiocarbon ages) was the strongest predictor ($p < 0.01$) of shrub cover
199 changes in the Holocene up to 1 ka (Table S4, Fig. S7-10), with declining shrub cover associated
200 with increasing population and/or more extensive land use. Further, the reduction in shrub cover
201 variability from early-mid to mid-late Holocene (Fig. 3) might be reflecting a regional-scale
202 stabilization of cultural burning practices alongside population expansion. When shrub cover for
203 the mid-late Holocene is predicted without archaeological data (an uninhabited scenario) using

204 early-mid Holocene model which includes all predictors as training dataset, GLM-predicted and
205 observed results diverge by ~50%. Predicted non-anthropogenic median shrub cover was ~30%
206 for the mid-late Holocene, compared with observed values of ~15% (Fig. 4c, orange line). This
207 suggests that increasing human activity after 6 ka influenced shrub cover.

208

209 **Discussion**

210

211 **Holocene shrub cover and ladder fuels under intensified cultural burning**

212 For the first time, we document a regional-scale decline in Holocene shrub cover across
213 southeastern Australia, which corresponds with evidence for increased Indigenous population
214 size and/or expanded Holocene land use (after 6 ka). Therefore, we suggest that the decline in
215 shrub cover can be attributed to intensified cultural burning practices. The sharp decline in shrub
216 cover from 6-5 ka likely reduced vertical fuel pathways, due to lower ladder fuels and altered fire
217 behavior. The steady decline in biomass burning up to 1 ka is unlikely related to moisture levels,
218 which remained relatively stable (Fig. 4). Projected shrub cover over the mid-late Holocene
219 without considering human population density (28% of land cover; Fig. 4c, orange line) differs
220 significantly to that observed (15% of land cover). Shrub cover during the mid-late Holocene did
221 not return to levels seen during the early-mid Holocene, with less ladder fuels and lower
222 connectivity likely leading to lower charcoal influx (Fig. 4d). This supports the mechanism
223 hypothesized in this study, as cultural burning is generally targeted at fine fuels within the
224 ground stratum, which results in overall lower charcoal production (39, 40). Tree and grass
225 components both increased at this time (Fig. S5), suggesting a shift to open savanna-like
226 landscapes with a more open mid-story, reducing the risk of crown fires (24, 41).

227

228 An increase in population and more extensive land use, including the use of new resource zones,
229 in the mid-late Holocene is a well-established phenomenon in southeast Australia (42, 43)
230 although its drivers are contested (44). Combined, the results of this multi-proxy work suggest a
231 large-scale reduction of shrub cover which altered fuel connectivity and hence fire intensity in
232 southeast Australia throughout the mid-late Holocene following population increase, probably
233 through the application of Indigenous management practices, including cultural burning.

234

235 **Cultural landscapes**

236 Whilst we recognize that climate modulates vegetation cover and fire regimes in many
237 Australian contexts (e.g., Bowman et al. (45)), our findings show a decoupling between moisture
238 availability, vegetation and biomass burning in the mid-late Holocene (Fig. 4). We suggest this is
239 due to an intensification of cultural burning, as the stability in available moisture during this
240 period (Fig. 4a) would not have produced a decline in shrub cover without anthropogenic
241 forcings (Fig. 4c). Moisture levels of the mid-late Holocene are similar to the conditions existing
242 prior to the moisture peak at 7 ka, but in this period human activity was lower and shrub cover
243 was higher. This suggests that cultural burning practices may have overridden climatic controls
244 on vegetation structure (Fig. 4a, c).

245

246 As climate would have had similar effects on vegetation dynamics in the early-mid and mid-late
247 Holocene, it seems likely that increased Indigenous cultural burning drove the change in
248 vegetation towards low shrub cover in the latter (Fig. 4c). Indigenous Australians actively and
249 extensively managed Country through cultural burning practices, keeping fuel levels low, until

250 colonial invasion in 1788 (5). Our evidence corroborates Indigenous oral history and the
251 landscape descriptions recorded by early European colonists (16), who both characterized the
252 landscape with widely spaced trees creating open woodlands. These descriptions were likely
253 accurate portrayals of cultural landscapes maintained through cultural burning practices. This
254 also corroborates local-scale evidence from other Australian regions (28, 39).

255

256 We recognize that our understanding of vegetation cover at the time of initial human occupation
257 of Australia ~65 ka is limited due to the sparseness of long sedimentary sequences, poor dating
258 quality in older records and lack of vegetation quantifications (see Florin et al. (46)). A recent
259 study from Northern Australia's tropical savanna zone found a clear onset of human-managed
260 fire regimes starting around 11 ka (47), pre-dating the human expansion we observe in southern
261 temperate Australia (this study) by about 5,000 years. However, an earlier long record from
262 Lynch's Crater, located at the tropical rainforest-savanna ecotone, suggests that human influence
263 on fire regimes and rainforest landscapes was already in place by around 40 ka (48, 49). This
264 disparity in fire regimes contributes to our growing understanding of cultural burning, and other
265 caring-for-Country practices, as greatly variable and shaped by long-term trajectories of
266 localized human-environment interaction across Australia.

267

268 **Future outlook: cultural burning and climate change**

269 Considering the pressing influence of anthropogenic climate change in modulating recent high-
270 intensity and frequent wildfires (50), our work suggests that reconstructed post-colonial shrub
271 cover, an important ladder fuel, is unusual from a long-term perspective. The evidence supports
272 the reduction of shrub cover and ladder fuels as an effective way to limit high-intensity crown

273 fires in the flammable forests of Australia and beyond (22). Currently, fuel reduction strategies,
274 such as mechanical thinning and prescribed burning, are especially focused on trees (51), but
275 effective fire management also requires targeting ladder fuels (22).

276

277 This work highlights how cultural burning, over millennia, likely resulted in landscapes with less
278 intense wildfire activity due to reduced vertical connectivity of fuels. A wide-scale reintegration
279 of traditional cultural burning, undertaken in combination with Western management techniques
280 (52), is crucial in a context where increasing fire weather and expanding population levels
281 intersect (2). There are ecological benefits to reintroducing cultural burning, including wildfire
282 prevention and carbon storage, as well as enormous socio-cultural benefits for Indigenous
283 communities (e.g., (25, 53)). However, without more support for Indigenous capacity-building
284 and community-led cultural burns over wider areas, the benefits of cultural burning in the
285 prevention of wildfires are unlikely to be achieved (15, 52). Through detailed histories of
286 Indigenous burning regimes across the world and Indigenous-led collaborations in contemporary
287 wildfire management projects, we can inform sustainable and healthy solutions that “tame the
288 flames” threatening global socio-environmental systems.

289

290

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576

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582 **Supplementary Materials**

583 Materials and Methods

584 Figures S1 to S11

585 Tables S1 to S5

586 References 58-82

587

588 **Figure captions**

589 **Figure 1. Flowchart explaining the approach used in the present study to quantify past**

590 **changes in fuels within the shrub layer (i.e., ladder fuels).** a) Schematic illustrating typical

591 fuel layers in Australian sclerophyll forests; b) Approach used to reconstruct Holocene trends in

592 human population, hydroclimate, fire activity and vegetation cover; c) Approach used to

593 reconstruct pre-human vegetation cover (because no other proxies are available for this period);

594 d) The generalized linear model (GLM) is fitted to predict shrub cover during the period 6-1 ka

595 in a scenario without human influence, with only palaeoclimate index and charcoal composite set

596 as predictors. The GLM for the preceding 12-6 ka period which includes palaeoclimate index

597 and charcoal, as well as human occupation as predictors, is used as the training dataset for the 6-

598 1 ka period model; e) Schematic of hypothesized mechanism investigated in the study. All icons

599 used in the illustrations are Creative Commons.

600

601 **Figure 2.** Map showing site locations in **a)** and **b)** for pollen, paleoclimate and charcoal records.

602 Location of archaeological radiocarbon dates are shown in **c)**; light orange dots are locations

603 only present in the mid-late Holocene period (n=1,204), dark grey dots are locations only present

604 in the early-mid Holocene (n=758), dark orange dots represent locations dated during both early-

605 mid Holocene and mid-late Holocene (n=401). The climatic and vegetation gradients for the
606 study area are presented in Fig. S1.

607
608 **Figure 3. The lowest shrub cover was found during the mid-late Holocene (6-1 ka), while**
609 **the current post-colonial landscape (0.2 ka to present) hosts the highest median shrub**
610 **cover.** Summary schematic illustrating vegetation changes through time and associated boxplots
611 (n= number of sites used in the land-cover estimation using REVEALS). The timeline goes from
612 youngest to oldest (left to right). Total annual rainfall (TAR; mm) and mean annual temperature
613 (MAT, °C) modelled for the Holocene (6 ka) and Last Interglacial are shown below the grey
614 arrow (further details Fig. S2), alongside present (post-colonial) regional averages.

615
616 **Figure 4. A ~50% average reduction in shrub cover (c) following expansion of Indigenous**
617 **populations (c) in the mid-late Holocene (6 to 1 ka) is concurrent with a reduction in**
618 **biomass burning (e).** Stacked diagram showing Holocene trends for **a)** GAM-smoothed
619 palaeoclimate index; **b)** summed probability density (SPD) of archaeological radiocarbon dates
620 corrected for preservation/detection biases; **c)** GAM-smoothed shrub cover % and **d)** GAM-
621 smoothed charcoal influx. Asterisk (*) indicates predictive generalized linear modelling result
622 (GLM) in a scenario without human presence (here inferred from SPD) in the landscape (orange
623 dotted line in **c**). Panels **e), f), g)** and **h)** show the respective first derivatives to highlight major
624 significant trends (blue= declining trend; red= increasing trend). The timeline goes from
625 youngest to oldest.

626