

22 **Abstract**

23 All-season warming is thought to advance snow melt and delay snow accumulation; coupled
24 with warming-induced drought stress, this could extend both the beginning and end of the fire
25 season. Using the updated fire data of 1967-2018, we found an asymmetrical expansion of the
26 lightning-ignited fire season in the boreal forest of Northeast China. The lightning-ignited fires
27 have not advanced into the early fire season (May-June) but have largely extended into the
28 snowless late fire season since the late 1990s. The length of the lightning-ignited fire season
29 increased by 10.9 days per decade from 1968-2018 ($P < 0.01$), and the mean annual number of
30 lightning-ignited fires has increased from 9.8 to 29.2 times/year since 1998. Despite significant
31 warming, the Julian days of snow melt have changed little, which has prohibited the fire season
32 from advancing into early spring. The expansion of lightning-ignited fires from July-September
33 was associated with warming-induced evapotranspiration and the soil/fuel aridity increase.

34

35 **Keywords:** lightning-ignited fire, fire season, boreal forest, asymmetrical expansion

36

37 **1 Introduction**

38 In association with climate warming and frequent heatwaves, wildfire frequency, burned
39 area, and duration have all increased (Shu & Tian 1999; Shu et al., 2003; Cary et al., 2006;
40 Flannigan et al., 2009; Flannigan et al., 2013), leading to a great loss of human lives and
41 property, disturbance of forest ecosystems, and damage to biodiversity (San-Miguel-Ayanz et al.,
42 2013; Brando et al., 2014; Dennison et al., 2014; He et al., 2019; Boer et al., 2020). Wildfire is a
43 key factor in transforming forest ecosystems from net carbon sinks to net sources (Kasischke et
44 al., 1995; Walker et al., 2019) and has substantially contributed to greenhouse gas emissions (van
45 der Werf et al., 2010), which in turn has exacerbated global warming and fire risks (Liu et al.,
46 2014).

47 Warming rates are faster at high latitudes (Post et al., 2018) and therefore have caused
48 greater drought stress, higher fuel aridity, and longer dry seasons in boreal forests (Lindner et al.,
49 2010; Dai, 2011; Peng et al., 2011; Cattau et al., 2020). Lightning is the leading cause of fire
50 ignition in boreal forests (Nash & Johnson, 1996; Hu & Zhou, 2014; Veraverbeke et al., 2017).
51 Romps et al. (2014) predicted that lightning strikes would increase by $12 \pm 5\% / ^\circ\text{C}$ with warming.
52 The observed lightning increase, coupled with aggravated drought severity, is responsible for the
53 increase in fires in boreal forests (Tian et al., 2009; Kharuk et al., 2016; Young et al., 2017;
54 Hanes et al., 2019).

55 In addition to fire frequency increases, warming is supposed to expand the fire season by
56 advancing the beginning and pushing back the end in North America, the Mediterranean, and
57 Southwest China (Moriondo et al., 2006; Nitschke et al., 2008; Tian et al., 2014). The global
58 wildfire season length has increased by 18.7% from 1979 to 2013 (Jolly et al., 2015), and the
59 season expansion will be more pronounced in the northern high latitudes (Flannigan et al., 2013).
60 Fire ignitions are highly dependent on fuel aridity, which is further modulated by precipitation,
61 evapotranspiration, and interactions between snow cover and soil moisture conditions. Snow
62 cover naturally prohibits fire occurrence, and strong spring-summer warming and earlier snow
63 melt theoretically reduce soil and fuel moisture and therefore advance fire occurrence into early
64 spring (Westerling et al., 2006; Westerling, 2016).

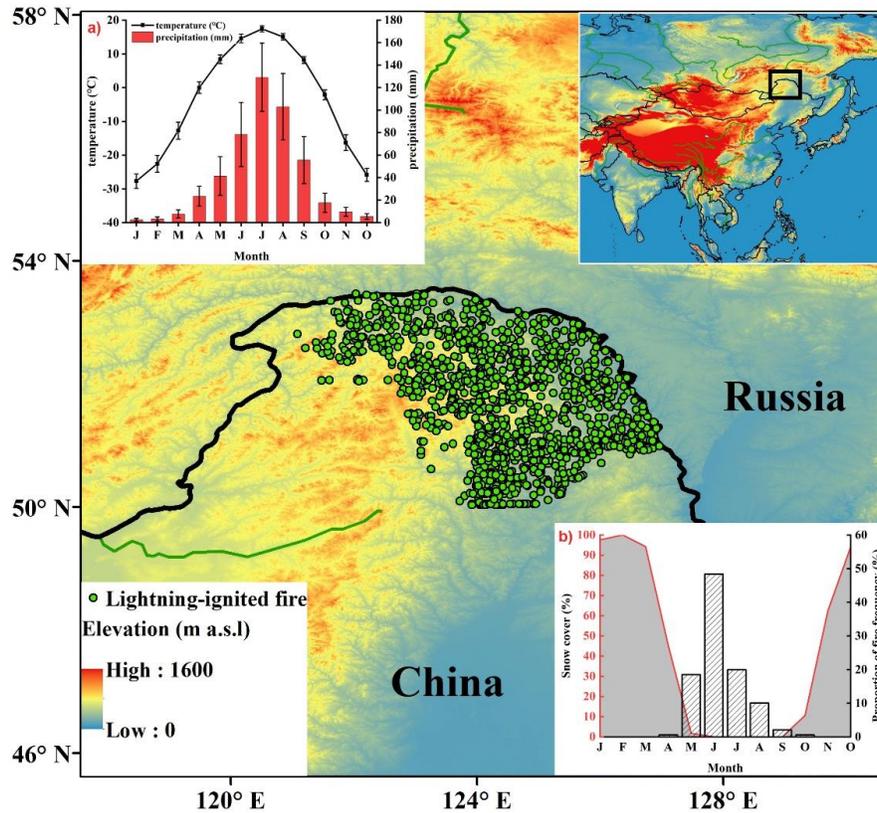
65 Greater Khingan forest, the only boreal forest in northeast China, has experienced a rapid
66 warming rate and suffered from the largest number of lightning-ignited fires among all forests in
67 China (Tian et al., 2009; Tian et al., 2016). An increased fire occurrence, burned areas and an
68 elongated fire season were observed in this region over 1980-2005 (Fan et al, 2017). However,
69 debates still remained about whether the seasonality has changed, especially for lightning-ignited
70 fires (Hu et al, 2014), mainly due to distinct time intervals used for analysis, and old version of
71 fire record ending around the 2000s. The frequency and severity of lightning-ignited fires were
72 determined by moisture conditions, fuel stock and aridity (Liu et al, 2012; Wu et al, 2018; Ying
73 et al, 2018). The potential mechanisms linking fire seasonality, snow cover, and soil moisture are
74 still unclear for the boreal forest of Northeast China.

75 In this study, we have used the updated fire records, climate, soil moisture, and snow
76 cover data for the Greater Khingan forest. The dynamics of the lightning-ignited fire seasonality,
77 fire frequency, snow melt days, snow cover, and key climate factors over 1967-2018 were
78 characterized. The connections of climate change, snow cover, moisture condition, and fire
79 occurrence were explored.

80 **2 Data and Methods**

81 **2.1 Study area**

82 The study area is located in the Greater Khingan forest of Heilongjiang Province, China
83 (**Fig. 1**), which is the southern extension of the Russian Far East boreal forest into China, and
84 covered a rectangle from 121°-127°E and 50°-53°N. The Greater Khingan forest is mainly
85 dominated by deciduous conifers, including *Larix gmelinii*, *Pinus sylvestris* var. *mongolica*, and
86 *Pinus pumila*. The terrain is high in the west and middle and low in the east, north, and south.
87 The average elevation is 573 m a.s.l., and the highest peak is 1528 m a.s.l.



88
 89 **Figure 1.** Locations of lightning-ignited fire from 1968 to 2018. The black rectangle at the top
 90 right indicates the boundary of the map. The top left insert shows the monthly mean temperature and
 91 precipitation of the study area (**a**, 121°-127°E and 50°-53°N). The bottom right insert shows
 92 the monthly mean snow cover and lightning fire ratio (**b**).

93
 94 The Greater Khingan Mountains are located in the cold-temperate continental monsoonal
 95 climate region. The annual mean temperature and total precipitation of the study region range
 96 from -4 to -2°C and 400 to 550 mm (**Fig. 1a**), respectively, with 90 to 110 frost-free days.
 97 Almost all lightning-ignited fires (98.7%) occurred between May and September (MJJAS) (**Fig.**
 98 **1b**), which is here defined as the lightning-ignited fire season. The whole fire season was
 99 separated into the early and late fire seasons of May to June (MJ) and July to September (JAS),
 100 respectively.

101 **2.2 Fire and climate data**

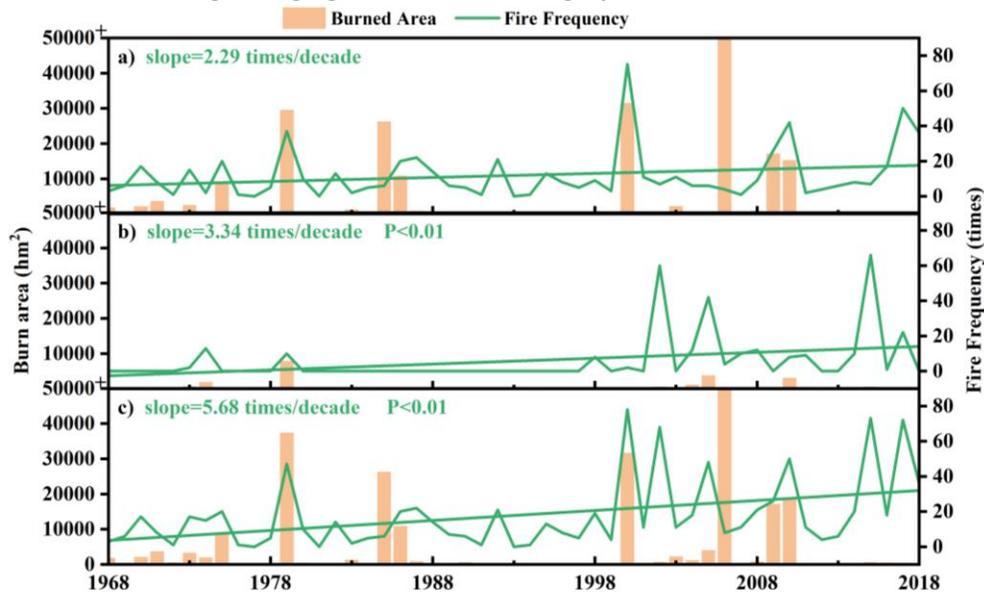
102 Detailed information on historical wildfires was recorded by the local forest
 103 administrations, including the fire dates, coordinates, causes, burned areas. To examine the
 104 changes in fire season over time, we arranged the fire dates as Julian days (Hatcher, 1984). The
 105 data of the lightning-ignited fires were selected for further analysis. 0.5°×0.5° resolved monthly
 106 climate data including mean temperature (Temp), maximum temperature (Tmax), and
 107 precipitation (Pre) were obtained from the CRU TS 4.03 (land) dataset and averaged over a
 108 rectangle of 121°-127°E, 50°-53°N to estimate the mean climate condition of the Greater
 109 Khingan. Snow cover data were extracted from Rutgers University Global Snow Lab, the one-
 110 month standardized precipitation evapotranspiration index (SPEI) from Spanish National

111 Research Council (CSIC), 0-10 cm soil moisture (SM) and evapotranspiration (Eva) were
 112 downloaded from CLM ERA-interim. The daily snow cover data were available from the
 113 Rutgers GSL 1° database.

114 3 Results

115 3.1 Fire frequency and burned area

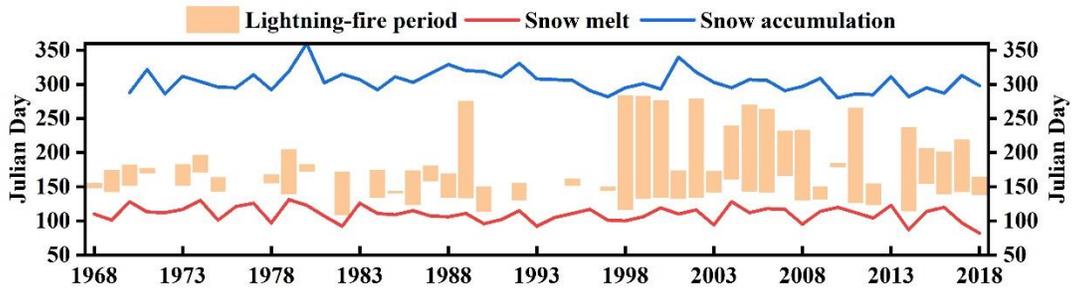
116 A total of 908 lightning-ignited fires occurred in the Greater Khingan forest from 1968-
 117 2018, accounting for 48% of the total fire occurrence, with a total burned area of 350,857 hm².
 118 The trend of change in MJ lightning-ignited fires frequency was insignificant (**Fig. 2a**), while the
 119 trends for JAS and MJJAS showed significant increases from 1968-2018 ($P < 0.01$, **Fig. 2b** and
 120 **2c**). The number of JAS lightning-ignited fires has largely increased since the late 1990s.



121 **Figure 2.** The lightning-ignited fire frequency and burned area in MJ (a), JAS (b) and MJJAS
 122 (c). Green lines indicate the trends of fire frequency.
 123
 124

125 3.2 Lightning fire season and snow cover

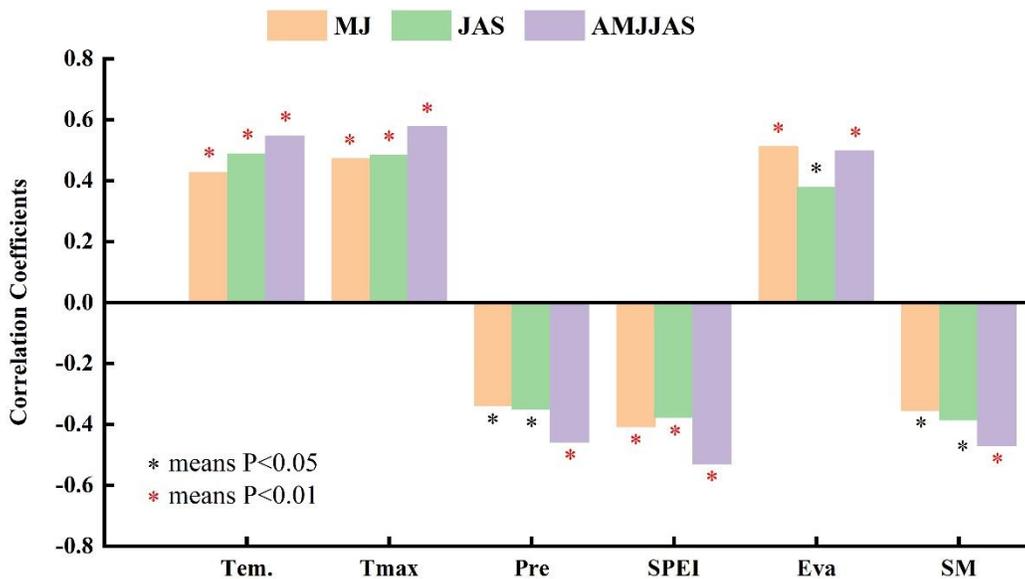
126 **Figure 3** shows that the snow melting and snow accumulation days were within the
 127 intervals from 82-131 and 280-360 Julian day, respectively. None of the trends were significant.
 128 The lightning-ignited fires only occurred on snow-free days. The linear trend of lightning fire
 129 start date was insignificant from 1968-2018, while the end date was significantly delayed by 10.9
 130 days/decade ($P < 0.01$). Before 1998, 90.5% of the lightning-ignited fires occurred in MJ, and
 131 only 8.5% were found in JAS. From 1998 onwards, the proportion of JAS lightning fires
 132 increased to 43.4%, and the mean length of the lightning-ignited fire season increased from 22
 133 days to 80 days, with fires occurring from 9.8 to 29.2 times/year.



134
 135 **Figure 3.** The Julian days of lightning-ignited fires occurrence, snow melt, and snow
 136 accumulation; the daily snow cover data are from Rutgers GSL 1°.
 137

138 3.3 Lightning-ignited fire frequency and climate variability

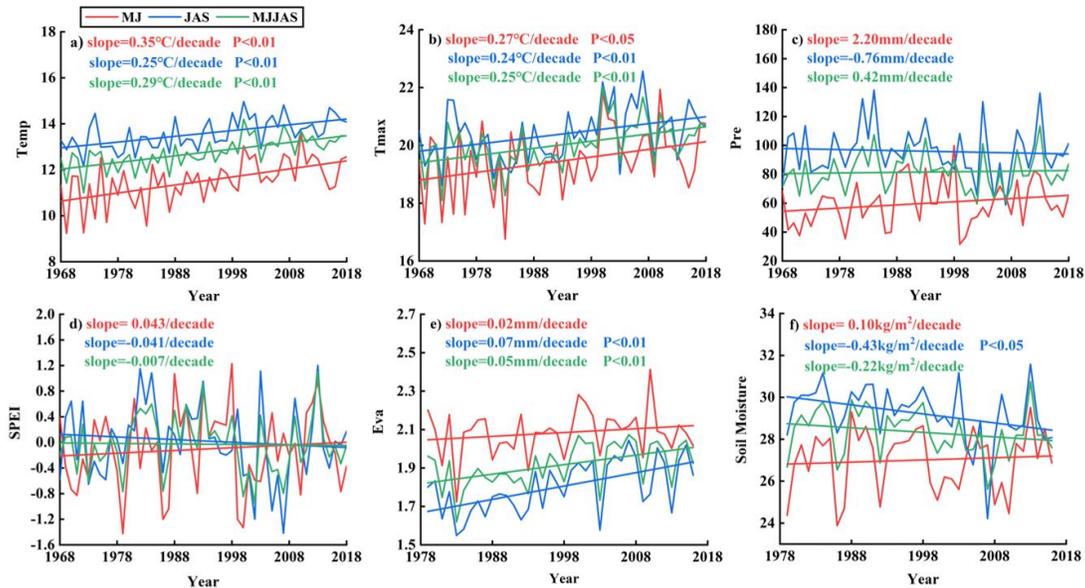
139 The correlation coefficients of the climate parameters and lightning-ignited fires
 140 frequency within the early, late, and whole fire seasons are presented in **Figure 4**. The mean
 141 temperature, maximum temperature and evapotranspiration were significantly and positively
 142 correlated with lightning-ignited fires frequency in all fire seasons (MJ, JAS, and MJJAS);
 143 precipitation, SPEI, and soil moisture were significantly and negatively correlated with
 144 lightning-ignited fires occurrence (**Fig. 4**).



145 **Figure 4.** The correlation coefficients of the annual climate parameters and lightning-ignited fire
 146 frequency in MJ, JAS, and MJJAS. The black and red stars indicate significance levels above
 147 95% and 99%, respectively.
 148
 149

150 Trend analysis of the climate parameters showed that the mean and maximum
 151 temperatures in MJ, JAS, and MJJAS were all rising significantly (**Fig. 5a** and **5b**). The moisture
 152 trends of MJ and JAS were the opposite: although statistically insignificant, both precipitation
 153 and SPEI increased for MJ and decreased for JAS (**Fig. 5c** and **5d**). In association with the
 154 significant warming trends, a significant increase in evapotranspiration was observed for JAS

155 (Fig. 5e, $P < 0.01$), and the surface soil moisture significantly decreased in the late fire season
 156 (Fig. 5f, $P < 0.05$).



157
 158 **Figure 5.** The linear trends of mean temperature (Temp), maximum temperature (Tmax),
 159 precipitation (Pre), SPEI, evapotranspiration (Eva), and soil moisture (SM) from 1968-2018.

160 4 Conclusions and discussion

161 4.1 Fire season expansion

162 The existence of snow cover naturally prohibits wildfire occurrence. Climate warming has
 163 increased drought severity and snow-free days in early spring and late autumn (Balch et al.,
 164 2017; Williams et al., 2019), both of which favor symmetric fire season expansion towards the
 165 beginning and end (Cattau et al., 2020; Dupuy et al., 2020). However, we observed an
 166 asymmetric extension in the Greater Khingan forest: lightning-ignited fire did not advance in
 167 spring but significantly expanded from July-September.

168 The Greater Khingan forest is located above the permafrost of Northeast China (Ran et al.,
 169 2012, Cong et al., 2020), where the warming-associated acceleration of snow melting and
 170 surface-thawing water tends to be maintained in shallow soil (Fu et al., 2015). The mean April
 171 snow cover remained at a high level of 45.1% from 1968-2018 (Fig. 1b), and the snow melt date
 172 changed little (Fig. 3); both effectively prevented fire from advancing into early spring. The JAS
 173 soil moisture had been significantly decreasing (Fig. 5f), mainly due to the significantly
 174 increased JAS evapotranspiration (Fig. 5e) in association with warming (Fig. 5a and 5b) and the
 175 increased lightning strikes throughout the Greater Khingan Mountains (Tian et al., 2009), which
 176 could contribute to the extension of wildfire into the snowless late fire season of JAS.

177 4.2 Fire frequency and climate variability

178 A warmer climate increases fuel aridity (Turco et al., 2017), leading to more frequent fire
 179 occurrences, burn areas (Portier et al., 2016; Gonzalez et al., 2018), and extreme wildfire
 180 episodes (Ruffault et al., 2018). The significant positive correlations of JAS fire frequency with
 181 temperature, drought severity (SPEI) and soil moisture coincided with this assumption (Fig. 4).
 182 The significant warming and evapotranspiration increase ($P < 0.01$, Fig. 5a, 5b and 5e) led to

183 aggravated soil and air aridity (**Fig. 5f**) and therefore a significantly increased lightning fire
 184 occurrence in JAS (**Fig. 2b**). In contrast, the trends of MJ soil moisture and evapotranspiration
 185 were insignificant (**Fig. 5e and 5f**), which was consistent with the ambiguous fire frequency
 186 trend (**Fig. 2a**).

187 4.3 Comparison with previous studies

188 Hu et al (2014) reported that the lightning-ignited fires were advancing over 1967-2006.
 189 While using the updated fire record of 1967-2018, we found the trend is insignificant, and
 190 highlighted the much more significant delaying in summer and fall since the late 1990s. These
 191 results coincided with the satellite-derived pattern of total fire (both lightning-ignited and
 192 human-caused) seasonality within 1980-2005 (Fan et al. 2017). The connections of total fire
 193 frequency and severity with temperature and precipitation (Tian et al., 2009; Liu et al. 2012; Fan
 194 et al, 2017), fuel moisture conditions (Wu et al., 2018; Ying et al., 2018) and topography (Shu et
 195 al., 2003) were widely reported. However, the underlying mechanisms for seasonality of
 196 lightning-ignited fires were seldomly explored in previous studies. Lightning-ignited fires were
 197 much more sensitive to climatic changes (Hu et al, 2014). In this study, we interpreted
 198 seasonality of lightning-ignited fire of Northeast China boreal forests in terms of snow cover,
 199 and linking the prolonged fire period to a warming and drying climate trend in JAS.

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 204 Assessment & Dataset (<https://climexp.knmi.nl/>) for their valuable snow and climate data
 205 support. The fire data will be uploading to the database of Beijing Normal University Library,
 206 but it has not been completed yet due to technical reasons. We appreciate for the people who
 207 helped us improve the manuscript for their valuable comments and constructive suggestions.

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