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Modelled dispersal patterns for wood and grass charcoal are different: implications for paleofire reconstruction

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1 **Abstract**

2 Sedimentary charcoal records provide useful perspectives on the long-term controls and
3 behavior of fire in the Earth system. However, a comprehensive understanding of the nuances,
4 biases, and limitations of charcoal as a fire proxy is necessary for reliable paleofire
5 interpretations. Here, we use a charcoal dispersal model to answer the following questions: (1)
6 How does the dispersal of wood and grass charcoal particles differ? (2) Do traditional conceptual
7 models of charcoal dispersal reliably characterize grass charcoal dispersal? We find that small
8 differences in shape (L:W) and density of grass and wood charcoal can cause substantial
9 differences in particle dispersal and source area. Whereas the modelled dispersal of wood
10 charcoal shows a localized deposition signal which decays with distance, grass charcoal shows
11 more diffuse deposition lacking a localized center (for both $>125\ \mu\text{m}$ and $>60\ \mu\text{m}$). Although
12 paleofire research has typically not distinguished between fuel types, we show that the dispersal
13 of charcoal derived from different fuels is unlikely to be uniform. Because differences in
14 localization, production, and preservation could bias aggregate charcoal accumulation, caution
15 should be taken when interpreting wood and grass-derived charcoal particles preserved in the
16 same record. Additionally, we propose an alternative, dual background conceptual model of
17 grass charcoal dispersal, as the traditional, two-component (peak and background) conceptual
18 model does not accurately characterize the modelled dispersal of grass charcoal. Lastly, this
19 mismatch of conceptualizations of dispersal mechanics implies that grass charcoal may not fit
20 the criteria necessary for peak analysis techniques.

21

22 **Keywords**

23 charcoal source area; fire history; taphonomy; paleoecology

24

25 **1. Introduction**

26 The impacts of anthropogenic climate change on global fire regimes are complex and
27 intertwined with land management and vegetation dynamics (Andela et al., 2017; Bond et al.,
28 2004; Hantson et al., 2016; Pausas and Ribeiro, 2013). This interplay between fire and vegetation
29 in the Earth System is intrinsic and spans broad temporal scales (Bowman et al., 2009; Scott,
30 2000). Although historical data such as recorded observations and satellite imagery can
31 characterize short-term fire-vegetation relationships, long-term archives of fire and vegetation
32 are needed to resolve these relationships on time scales exceeding observational records (Marlon,
33 2020; Rehn et al., 2021a; Vachula et al., 2019; Whitlock and Larsen, 2002). Sedimentary
34 charcoal records are among the most ubiquitous paleofire archives (Hawthorne et al., 2018;
35 Power et al., 2008; Remy et al., 2018) and have provided unique insight into the dynamic
36 relationships between fire, climate, vegetation, and humans (Marlon, 2020; Whitlock et al.,
37 2010). Despite the continuous development of paleofire research, many uncertainties remain
38 regarding the interpretation and controls of paleofire archives and proxies (Hennebelle et al.,
39 2020; Rehn et al., 2021b; Vachula, 2021; Vachula and Cheung, 2021).

40 Efforts to model charcoal dispersal have helped to inform interpretation of sedimentary
41 charcoal records. Beginning with the pioneering conceptualizations of charcoal particle transport,
42 deposition, and source area made by Clark (1988), increasingly sophisticated modelling efforts
43 have been made to computationally characterize the likely behavior of charcoal particles.
44 Notably, as explained by Peters and Higuera (2007), Clark (1988) adapted equations developed
45 to understand the diffusion and transport of smoke particulates in the mid-20th century
46 (Chamberlain, 1953; Sutton, 1947a, 1947b) to develop a one-dimensional model that has since

47 come to undergird traditional thinking about the size dependence of charcoal dispersal and
48 directly informed the interpretation of pollen slide charcoal. Peters and Higuera (2007) later
49 expanded this model into a two-dimensional form, making key insights about dispersal and
50 sourcing. This model was further enhanced and integrated with other modules simulating
51 sediment mixing and sampling to create the Charcoal Simulation Model (CharSim), arguably the
52 first proxy system model for sedimentary charcoal (Higuera et al., 2007). This systematic
53 approach was further expanded with the development of a Bayesian point process model (Itter et
54 al., 2017). Alternative modelling perspectives emerged several years later. Gilgen et al. (2018)
55 implemented microscopic charcoal into a global aerosol climate model resolving atmospheric
56 transport and particle, cloud, and radiation interactions. Concurrently, Vachula and Richter
57 (2018) developed a kinetics-based model as an alternative to the diffusion-based charcoal
58 dispersal models (Clark, 1988; Higuera et al., 2007; Peters and Higuera, 2007), which enables
59 testing of the influence of particle characteristics (e.g., shape, size, density) on charcoal
60 dispersal. This alternative model was used to show that particle shape irregularities (i.e., non-
61 sphericity) could significantly blur the size dependence of dispersal that had previously been
62 supported by the diffusion-based models (Vachula and Richter, 2018).

63 The advent of charcoal particle morphological and morphometric analysis underscores
64 the importance of understanding how individual particles are dispersed and preserved in
65 lacustrine sediments or soils. Early experimental work showed that morphometric characteristics
66 of charcoal could differentiate fuel types (Umbanhowar and McGrath, 1998), effectively
67 founding a new subfield of paleofire research. Subsequent experimental efforts have built on this
68 foundation to link morphometric characteristics with fuel types (Crawford and Belcher, 2014;
69 Feurdean, 2021; Ogura, 2007; Pereboom et al., 2020; Vachula et al., 2021). Concurrently, efforts

70 have been made to assess charcoal particle morphotypes as a means of characterizing fuel
71 changes (Enache and Cumming, 2006; Jensen et al., 2007; Mustaphi and Pisaric, 2014).
72 Although the morphological characterizations are informative, they have been criticized for their
73 subjectivity and regional specificity (Cheung et al., 2021). Strides have been made to automate
74 morphological characterization (Rehn et al., 2019), but questions regarding the universality of
75 classification systems remain (Frank-DePue et al., 2022). In contrast, classification based on
76 aspect ratio, which differentiates charcoal sourced from woody and grass/non-woody fuels, has
77 demonstrated relative universality (Vachula et al., 2021). The ability of aspect ratio to distinguish
78 fuel types raises new questions regarding the taphonomy of these two sets of charcoal particles.
79 Kinematic-based modelling has shown that particle shape can have a significant impact on
80 charcoal dispersal (Vachula and Richter, 2018), thereby highlighting the need to determine and
81 understand how particle shape characteristics relating to fuel type might influence the dispersal
82 and preservation of paleofire archives. The reliable interpretation of sedimentary charcoal
83 records relies upon a robust understanding of how fire activity in different ecosystem contexts
84 and at different spatial scales is recorded in paleofire archives (Daniau et al., 2013; Genet et al.,
85 2021; Walsh et al., 2010).

86 In this paper, the dispersal of charcoal particles derived from woody and grass, non-
87 woody fuels is modelled to answer the following questions: (1) How does the dispersal of wood
88 and grass charcoal particles differ? (2) Do traditional conceptual models of charcoal dispersal
89 reliably characterize grass charcoal dispersal? Although empirical data has demonstrated that the
90 model we use does reliably characterize charcoal dispersal and sourcing, our modelled results are
91 theoretical and further field-based empirical research is needed to validate our findings.

92

93 **2. Methods**

94 We adapted the model presented by Vachula and Richter (2018) to characterize the
95 differences in dispersal of charcoal particles derived from wood and grass fuels. The model is
96 constructed in MATLAB and is composed of two parts: (1) atmospheric injection of particles by
97 a convective smoke plume, and (2) dispersal and fallout deposition of particles from this initial
98 injection height (Vachula and Richter, 2018). The model construction and mathematics are
99 detailed in Vachula and Richter (2018), so we forgo a thorough description herein. Briefly, the
100 model uses a Monte Carlo approach to simulate the dispersal of charcoal particles by
101 randomizing relevant variables within acceptable and probable ranges to generate an ensemble of
102 solutions that is representative of a realistic result. Namely, the model incorporates variability of
103 fire heat release rate (and subsequent injection height by the convective plume), wind speed and
104 direction in the horizontal plane (expressed as separate vectors in the abscissa (u) and ordinate
105 (v) directions), and particle shape, size, and density (Vachula and Richter, 2018).

106 For the purposes of the analyses undertaken in this paper, we modified the model and its
107 parameters in several ways. Firstly, we increased the maximum heat release rate to 100×10^6 cal/s
108 (from 50×10^6 cal/s in the original model runs) to more accurately mimic the range of convective
109 plume heights observed in nature (Martin et al., 2010; Val Martin et al., 2018). Second, we
110 constrained particle size to mimic sieving of three charcoal particle size fractions (e.g., $>125 \mu\text{m}$,
111 $> 60 \mu\text{m}$, and $60\text{-}125 \mu\text{m}$; Table 1). These size fractions were chosen to be comparable with size
112 fractions that have been the subject of recent charcoal calibration research (Rehn et al., 2022;
113 Vachula et al., 2018), as well as to be comparable with sieving size boundaries typically used in
114 paleofire research (Vachula, 2019). Third, we implemented two sets of particle characteristic
115 constraints (Table 1) for each of these size fractions to mimic the likely ranges of charcoal

116 derived from wood and grass. As wood charcoal tends to be denser than grass charcoal, and the
117 length:width ratios of wood and grass derived charcoal vary sufficiently to distinguish these
118 particles (Vachula et al., 2021), we imposed slightly different variable constraints to differentiate
119 the dispersal mechanics of these particles (Table 1). Although we were primarily interested in
120 modelling the dispersal of macroscopic charcoal particles (Vachula, 2019), we also modelled
121 finer size fractions because grass charcoal tends to produce smaller particles falling within the
122 60-125 μm size range (Leys et al., 2017; Saiz et al., 2018). Initial modelling results found that
123 some grass charcoal particles achieved neutral or negative settling velocities due to extreme
124 elongation which exceeded the empirical constraints for the aspherical particle settling velocities
125 (le Roux, 1996), so we added a safeguard to remove these unrealistic particles from the analysis.

126

127

128 **Table 1:** Particle characteristic variable ranges used to model the dispersal of wood and grass
 129 charcoal.

variable	wood	grass
size (μm)	> 125 (Figure 1)	
	> 60 (Figure 2)	
	60-125 (Figure 3)	
density (g/cm^3)	0.55 to 0.65	0.45 to 0.55
L:W	< 2.5	> 3.5
u wind speed (m/s)	0 to 5	0 to 5
v wind speed (m/s)	-5 to 5	-5 to 5

130

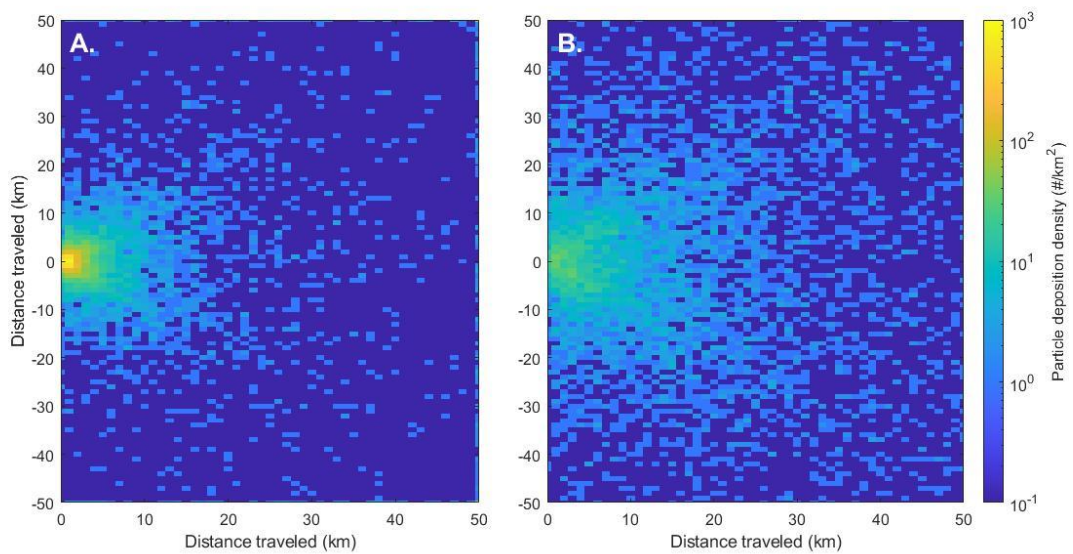
131 **3. Results**

132 Our model results show that the dispersal of wood and grass charcoal particles varies
 133 markedly across all size fractions modelled (Figures 1, 2 and 3). For >125 μm particles,
 134 modelled wood charcoal exhibits a primarily localized (within a few kilometers) deposition
 135 signal that decays with distance from the source (Figure 1A). In contrast, modelled grass
 136 charcoal exhibits a more diffuse depositional pattern which lacks a localized deposition center
 137 (Figure 1B). This same pattern also occurs when the particle size range is decreased to >60 μm ,
 138 although the spatial scale of dispersal is much greater (Figure 2). When the intermediate size
 139 fraction (between 60 and 125 μm) of charcoal particles is modelled (Figure 3), even starker
 140 differences between wood and grass charcoal emerge. Whereas wood charcoal 60-125 μm in size
 141 exhibits a relatively diffuse dispersal pattern (Figure 3A) akin to that of coarser grass charcoal
 142 (e.g., Figure 1B and 2B), grass charcoal 60-125 μm in size does not exhibit a clear depositional

143 pattern at all. In fact, the bulk of modelled grass charcoal 60-125 μm in size were not deposited
144 within the shown boundary conditions. This nuance will be explored in greater detail in the
145 Discussion.

146

147 **Figure 1:** Modelled charcoal particle dispersal and deposition of $>125 \mu\text{m}$ (A) wood and (B)
148 grass charcoal particles. Horizontal and vertical directions denote distance from a fire source.

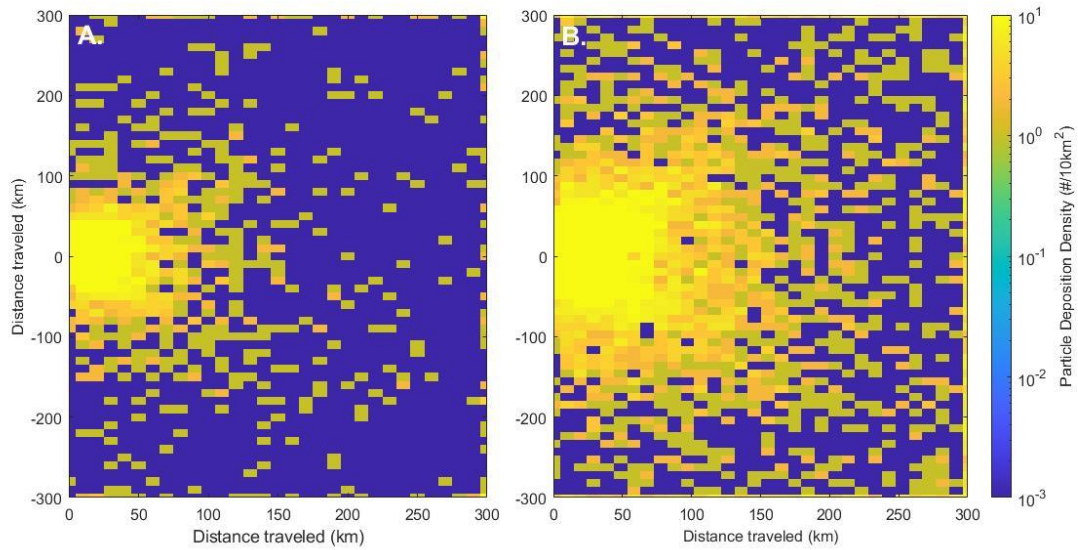


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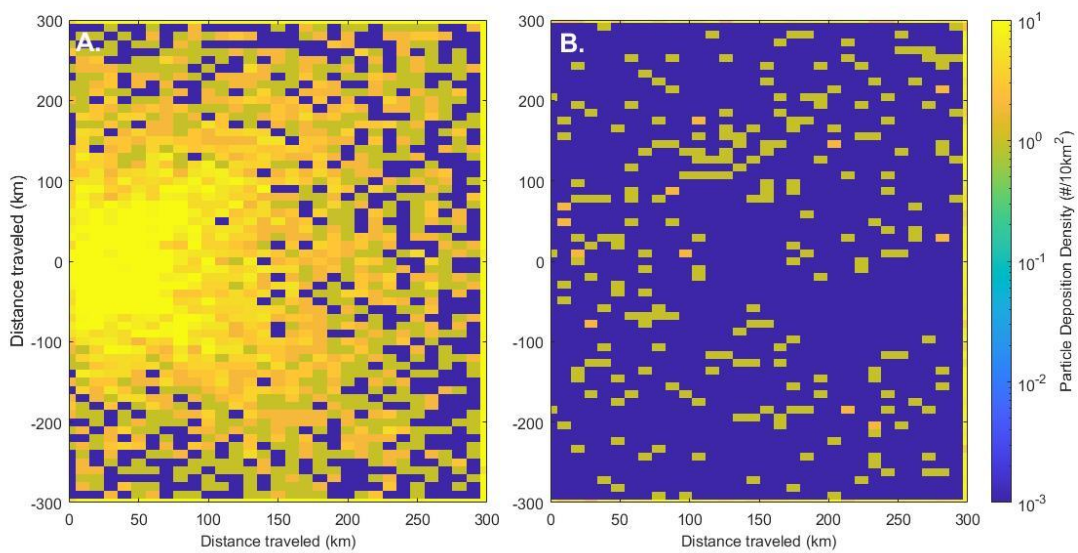
152 **Figure 2:** Modelled charcoal particle dispersal and deposition of $>60\ \mu\text{m}$ (A) wood and (B) grass
153 charcoal particles.



154

155

156 **Figure 3:** Modelled charcoal particle dispersal and deposition of $60\text{-}125\ \mu\text{m}$ (A) wood and (B)
157 grass charcoal particles.



158

159

160 **4. Discussion**

161 *4.1 How does the dispersal of wood and grass charcoal particles differ?*

162 The model results show that the dispersal patterns of wood and grass charcoal particles
163 are inherently different due to particle-scale differences in dispersal mechanics. Our results show
164 that the small differences in particle shape (L:W) and density (Table 1) which distinguish
165 charcoal sourced from wood and grass fuels can significantly alter the dispersal mechanics and
166 subsequent depositional patterns of these charcoal particles (Figures 1-3). These results agree
167 with previous findings that suggest particle shape irregularities could alter dispersal distributions
168 (Vachula and Richter, 2018). For each of the size fractions for which dispersal was modelled, we
169 found that wood- and grass-derived charcoal particles exhibited distinctly different depositional
170 patterns. This finding is significant; whereas the dispersal of charcoal particles has implicitly
171 been assumed to be uniform between fuel types in paleofire research (Vachula, 2021), our results
172 suggest that this is unlikely to be the case. Rather, charcoal derived from varying fuel types could
173 be reflected differently in paleofire archives and therefore could have important implications for
174 paleofire interpretations.

175 Importantly, our modelled results are theoretical and further empirical research is needed
176 to validate our findings. Although empirical data has demonstrated that the Vachula and Richter
177 (2017) model reliably characterizes charcoal dispersal and sourcing (Vachula et al., 2018), it has
178 not been collected to test our modelled results. To this end, our results provide important insights
179 but are not necessarily conclusive in the absence of field-based validation.

180 Notably, the extremely distal modelled deposition of 60-125 μm grass charcoal suggests
181 that these particles are deposited on much larger distance scales than are plotted in Figure 3.
182 Although this is theoretically possible, an abundance of published empirical data disagrees with

183 this notion and shows that finer charcoal particles are in fact deposited on these distance scales
184 (Adolf et al., 2018; Clark and Royall, 1995; Hennebelle et al., 2020; Higuera et al., 2011;
185 Vachula, 2021). Rather, we infer that the mismatch of this modelled result with observed
186 charcoal dispersal insinuates that processes which were not explicitly modelled have a role in the
187 deposition of these particles. In other words, depositional mechanisms other than simple
188 gravitational settling (e.g., rain, adsorption onto other particles) likely play an important role in
189 the deposition of fine grass charcoal particles. In this way, more sophisticated modelling efforts
190 like those of Gilgen et al. (2018) may be required to completely characterize charcoal dispersal
191 within modelling frameworks.

192 Several aspects of the modelled dispersal results are supported by empirical observations.
193 Saiz et al. (2018) demonstrated that savanna fires may generate pyrogenic carbon dominated by
194 grasses, creating small particles that may be widely dispersed. Our results also demonstrate that
195 $>125 \mu\text{m}$ grass charcoal particles are likely to be dispersed further than woody particles of the
196 same size fraction, further compounding the dispersal effects of grass charcoal typically
197 generating smaller particles overall (Leys et al., 2017; Saiz et al., 2018). Conversely, smaller (60-
198 $125 \mu\text{m}$) wood-derived particles may originate from more local fire events (Pitkänen et al.,
199 1999), rather than the more regional signal typically interpreted from this size fraction. The more
200 diffuse dispersal of grass charcoal particles relative to wood charcoal suggests that sedimentary
201 paleofire records in grass-dominated and mixed wood-grass ecosystems represent more regional
202 fire history than wood-dominated ecosystems. Our findings also suggest potential morphological
203 biases in the source areas of charcoal, with wood-derived morphologies being overrepresented
204 due to localized deposition while grass-derived particles may be spread over large distances (e.g.,
205 Leys et al., 2017; Saiz et al., 2018). This is demonstrated by Leys et al. (2015) where a charcoal

206 morphotype identified as woody fuel made up 80% of the total recorded charcoal from controlled
207 burns in a prairie ecosystem with 65% “pure herbaceous grassland” cover.

208 In addition to dispersal mechanics, other factors could also contribute to the differential
209 representation of wood and grass derived charcoal in paleofire archives. Grasses producing finer
210 charred material may also have implications for preservation potential (Crawford and Belcher,
211 2014). Estimates of wood versus grass cover based on charcoal morphology may therefore
212 require correction similar to corrections for pollen productivity (e.g., Mariani et al., 2016).
213 Additionally, there are likely complex interactions between fuels, fire intensity and/or severity,
214 and subsequent dispersal and sourcing. Crown fires have been shown to potentially produce
215 long, thin, and more aerodynamically efficient particles from burning leaves (Woodward and
216 Haines, 2020), increasing dispersal distance through morphology as well as injective height (Li
217 et al., 2017; Vachula and Richter, 2018). High intensity fires burning more woody fuels may also
218 produce elongated charcoal from twigs (Jensen et al., 2007; Leys et al., 2017). Indeed, further
219 work is needed to fully disambiguate and characterize the source-to-sink differences between
220 wood and grass fuels in paleofire archives.

221 The differentiation of charcoal derived from grass and wood fuels has emerged as the
222 primary relationship of interest in paleofire fuel interpretations across both closed and open
223 wooded environments. This has led to the development of several techniques involving the
224 physical and chemical characterization of individual particles. Specifically, charcoal
225 morphologies (Enache and Cumming, 2006; Mustaphi and Pisaric, 2014), morphometric
226 characteristics (Crawford and Belcher, 2014; Leys et al., 2017), and other optical properties
227 (Gosling et al., 2019; Hudspith et al., 2015, 2017; Maezumi et al., 2021) have provided
228 additional insights for these more nuanced paleofire approaches. Our results indicate that

229 differences of particle sourcing should also be integrated into the interpretation of particle-scale
230 measurements. Refining these interpretations is particularly important for understanding fire's
231 role in the gradients between closed to increasingly open environments as they are critical to
232 understanding changing human impacts on landscapes (Aleman et al., 2013).

233 The stark mismatch between the modelled dispersal of grass and wood charcoal reflects a
234 broader oversight of paleofire research to be inclusive of diverse biomes. For example,
235 methodological development in paleofire research has previously been dominated by studies in
236 Northern Hemisphere forested ecosystems and recent work has attempted to address this gap.
237 Indeed, all proposed morphological keys for sedimentary charcoal have been developed and
238 calibrated in North American boreal forests (Enache and Cumming, 2006; Mustaphi and Pisaric,
239 2014), and as a result, their efficacy and universality in other regions has been questioned
240 (Cheung et al., 2021). Likewise, pioneering research calibrating charcoal morphometry to fuel
241 types was conducted in high latitude North America (Umbanhowar and McGrath, 1998),
242 although subsequent studies have been conducted in new regions (Crawford and Belcher, 2014;
243 Li et al., 2019; Ogura, 2007; Pereboom et al., 2020; Zhang and Lu, 2006). More broadly, the
244 tendency of paleofire research to focus on forested regions has been noted in the literature (Leys
245 et al., 2018; Rehn et al., 2021b; Vachula et al., 2020). Differences in fuel types, fuel loads, and
246 fire frequency in these other biomes represent important points of resolution for the reliable
247 transferability and application of paleofire approaches in new regions. As the model results
248 demonstrate, researchers should be careful to not assume universality from geographically
249 focused studies. In conjunction with our analysis, the increased interest of paleofire research in
250 non-forested ecosystems highlights the need for new paradigms to be developed for these

251 systems and serves as a cautionary tale of the potential pitfalls of misappropriation of these
252 inferences.

253

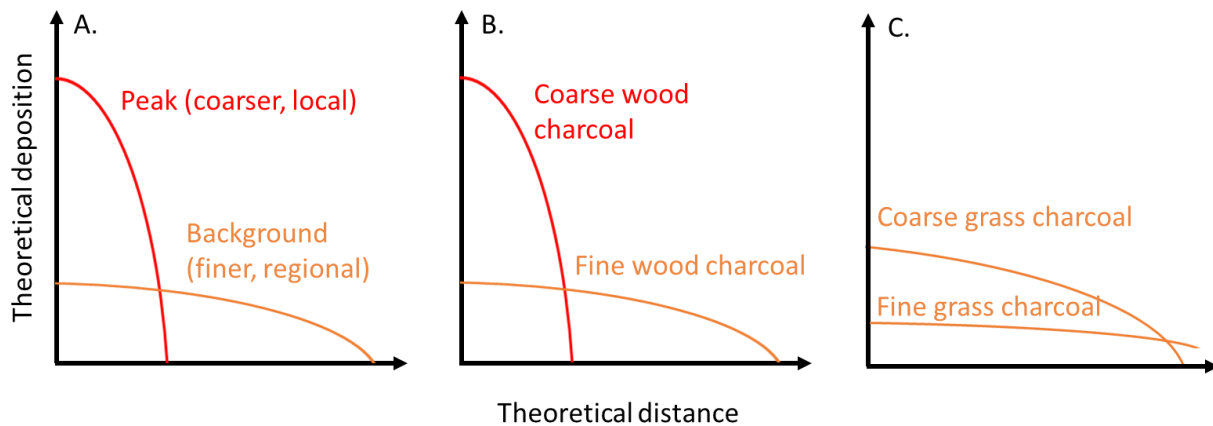
254 *4.2 Do traditional conceptual models of charcoal dispersal reliably characterize grass charcoal*
255 *dispersal?*

256 Our model results suggest that the dispersal of charcoal particles derived from grass do
257 not conform to traditional conceptualizations and paradigms of charcoal dispersal. Traditionally,
258 charcoal dispersal has been posited to consist of two components (Figure 4A): peak charcoal
259 (coarser particles which are locally sourced) and background charcoal (finer particles which are
260 regionally sourced) inputs (Crawford and Vachula, 2019; Higuera et al., 2007; Whitlock and
261 Larsen, 2002). Our computational model results for wood charcoal particles generally support
262 this conceptual model of charcoal dispersal, supporting the reliability of this paradigm for wood
263 charcoal (Figure 4B). However, our results also suggest that this conceptual model is not
264 appropriate for grass charcoal particles as these particles exhibit diffuse regional sourcing for
265 both coarse and fine particles alike. As such, we propose an alternative conceptual model for
266 grass charcoal dispersal: a dual background model wherein the difference of dispersal distance
267 between fine and coarse particles is muted relative to the dispersal of wood charcoal particles
268 (Figure 4C). Although further work is needed to test the reliability of our proposed dual
269 background model in characterizing the dispersal of grass charcoal, we assert that recognition of
270 the distinct difference between wood and grass charcoal dispersal is a necessity for reliable
271 paleofire research.

272

273

274 **Figure 4:** Conceptual figure characterizing the how our model results compare to the established
275 paradigms of charcoal dispersal. Whereas the traditional model (A) of charcoal dispersal posits a
276 two-component system of peak (coarser particles which are locally sourced) and background
277 (finer particles which are regionally sourced) inputs, our model results indicate that this only
278 holds true for wood charcoal particles (B). In contrast, the dispersal of grass charcoal particles
279 (C) is characterized by diffuse regional sourcing for both coarse and fine particles alike.



280

281

282 Differences between the fire regimes of biomes pose important potential barriers for the
283 reliable application of peak analysis techniques to sedimentary charcoal records. Peak analysis
284 refers to the decomposition of CHAR time series into low-frequency, background, extra-locally
285 derived and high-frequency, peak, locally-derived components (Finsinger et al., 2014; Higuera et
286 al., 2010, 2011). This statistical analysis is grounded in theoretical postulations of diffusion-
287 based charcoal particle dispersal which were borne out of the computational models of Clark
288 (1988), Peter and Higuera (2007), and Higuera et al. (2007). Specifically, these models find
289 evidence for two components of charcoal delivery to sediment archives: regional background and
290 localized peak components. Peak analysis therefore involves the decomposition of total charcoal

291 accumulation time series to identify the local fire events and reconstruct fire frequencies and
292 return intervals.

293 The modelled dispersal of grass charcoal particles does not exhibit a pattern that agrees
294 with the assumptions inherent to peak (signal-to-noise) analysis, indicating that peak analysis
295 may not be appropriate in grassland systems. This builds on previous observations of peak
296 analysis being inappropriate for grasslands due to fire frequency in these ecosystems because
297 frequent fire events cannot be distinguished from a background signal (Leys et al., 2015, 2017).
298 As peak analysis is based on the concept of identifying discrete fire events or episodes, this
299 technique is unsuitable in grassland systems where fire return intervals (the time between
300 discrete fire events) is often even shorter than the sampling resolution of charcoal records
301 (Aleman et al., 2013; Leys et al., 2015, 2017); for example, Yates et al. (2008) report fire return
302 intervals of 2-3 years in parts of northern Australia, and Alvarado et al. (2018) note fire return
303 intervals of 1.8 to 3.2 years for protected areas in Madagascar and 7.9 years for a protected
304 region in Brazil. Clark (1988) notes that for a site with sediment accumulating at 0.1 cm yr^{-1} ,
305 individual fire events cannot be identified for fire return intervals of less than 50 years; Clark
306 (1988) and Higuera et al. (2007) therefore recommend sampling at <0.12 to <0.2 times the fire
307 return interval which is impractical in ecosystems with sub-decadal fire return intervals.

308

309 **5. Conclusions**

310 Our results show that the modelled dispersal of wood and grass charcoal is different for
311 all charcoal size fractions that we considered ($>125 \mu\text{m}$, $>60 \mu\text{m}$, and $60\text{-}125 \mu\text{m}$). Whereas
312 wood charcoal exhibits a localized deposition signal which decays with distance from the source,
313 grass charcoal exhibits more diffuse deposition lacking a localized center (for both $>125 \mu\text{m}$ and

314 >60 μm). Model results for charcoal 60-125 μm in size suggest that processes that were not
315 explicitly modelled (e.g., rain, adsorption onto other particles) may have a role in the deposition
316 of grass charcoal particles, highlighting the need for more sophisticated modelling efforts.
317 Overall, our approach therefore shows that small differences in particle shape (L:W) and density
318 could cause substantial differences in charcoal dispersal and source area. The significance of this
319 finding cannot be overstated; the dispersal of charcoal particles has implicitly been assumed to
320 be uniform between fuel types in paleofire research, but our work shows that this is unlikely to
321 be the case. Our results suggest that paleofire records in grass-dominated and mixed wood-grass
322 ecosystems may represent more regional fire history than wood-dominated ecosystems.
323 Likewise, due care should be taken when interpreting the signals of wood and grass-derived
324 charcoal particles preserved in the same record, as relative differences in localization,
325 production, and preservation could bias aggregate charcoal accumulation.

326 More broadly, we recognize that charcoal-based paleofire research has traditionally
327 focused on forested ecosystems, which beckons questions as to the universality of paleofire
328 techniques and assumptions to non-forested ecosystems. The traditional, two-component model
329 of charcoal dispersal envisages a peak component composed of locally sourced, coarse particles,
330 and a background component composed of regionally sourced, fine particles. Our results show
331 that although this conceptual model accurately characterizes the dispersal of wood charcoal, that
332 of grass charcoal stands at odds with this paradigm. Rather, we propose an alternative, dual
333 background conceptual model for grass charcoal in which fine and coarse particles are both
334 regionally sourced, but with relatively muted difference in their overall distance of dispersal.
335 Importantly, this alternative conceptual model and our computational model results show that

336 grass charcoal records do not necessarily conform to the assumptions needed for the application
337 of peak analysis techniques.

338

339 **Data Availability**

340 All model scripts are publicly available at:

341 <https://github.com/richardsvachula/charcoalmorphologydispersal>.

342

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346

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