



# Pollen-based quantitative land-cover reconstruction for northern Asia covering the last 40 ka cal BP

Xianyong Cao<sup>1,a</sup>, Fang Tian<sup>1</sup>, Furong Li<sup>2</sup>, Marie-José Gaillard<sup>2</sup>, Natalia Rudaya<sup>1,3,4</sup>, Qinghai Xu<sup>5</sup>, and Ulrike Herzschuh<sup>1,4,6</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Alfred Wegener Institute Helmholtz Centre for Polar and Marine Research, Research Unit Potsdam, Telegrafenberg A43, Potsdam 14473, Germany

<sup>2</sup>Department of Biology and Environmental Science, Linnaeus University, Kalmar 39182, Sweden

<sup>3</sup>Institute of Archaeology and Ethnography, Siberian Branch, Russian Academy of Sciences, pr. Akad. Lavrentieva 17, Novosibirsk 630090, Russia

<sup>4</sup>Institute of Environmental Science and Geography, University of Potsdam, Karl-Liebknecht-Str. 24, 14476 Potsdam, Germany

<sup>5</sup>College of Resources and Environment Science, Hebei Normal University, Shijiazhuang 050024, China

<sup>6</sup>Institute of Biochemistry and Biology, University of Potsdam, Karl-Liebknecht-Str. 24, Potsdam 14476, Germany

<sup>a</sup>present address: Key Laboratory of Alpine Ecology, CAS Center for Excellence in Tibetan Plateau Earth Sciences, Institute of Tibetan Plateau Research, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing 100101, China

**Correspondence:** Xianyong Cao (xcao@itpcas.ac.cn) and Ulrike Herzschuh (ulrike.herzschuh@awi.de)

Received: 21 August 2018 – Discussion started: 23 October 2018

Revised: 3 July 2019 – Accepted: 8 July 2019 – Published: 8 August 2019

**Abstract.** We collected the available relative pollen productivity estimates (PPEs) for 27 major pollen taxa from Eurasia and applied them to estimate plant abundances during the last 40 ka cal BP (calibrated thousand years before present) using pollen counts from 203 fossil pollen records in northern Asia (north of 40° N). These pollen records were organized into 42 site groups and regional mean plant abundances calculated using the REVEALS (Regional Estimates of Vegetation Abundance from Large Sites) model. Time-series clustering, constrained hierarchical clustering, and detrended canonical correspondence analysis were performed to investigate the regional pattern, time, and strength of vegetation changes, respectively. Reconstructed regional plant functional type (PFT) components for each site group are generally consistent with modern vegetation in that vegetation changes within the regions are characterized by minor changes in the abundance of PFTs rather than by an increase in new PFTs, particularly during the Holocene. We argue that pollen-based REVEALS estimates of plant abundances should be a more reliable reflection of the vegetation as pollen may overestimate the turnover, particularly when a high pollen producer invades areas dominated by low

pollen producers. Comparisons with vegetation-independent climate records show that climate change is the primary factor driving land-cover changes at broad spatial and temporal scales. Vegetation changes in certain regions or periods, however, could not be explained by direct climate change, e.g. inland Siberia, where a sharp increase in evergreen conifer tree abundance occurred at ca. 7–8 ka cal BP despite an unchanging climate, potentially reflecting their response to complex climate–permafrost–fire–vegetation interactions and thus a possible long-term lagged climate response.

## 1 Introduction

High northern latitudes such as northern Asia experience above-average temperature increases in times of past and recent global warming (Serreze et al., 2000; IPCC, 2007), known as polar amplification (Miller et al., 2010). Temperature rise is expected to promote vegetation change as the vegetation composition in these areas is assumed to be controlled mainly by temperature (J. Li et al., 2017; Tian et al., 2018). However, a more complex response can occur

mainly because vegetation is not linearly related to temperature change (e.g. due to resilience, stable states, or time-lagged responses; Soja et al., 2007; Herzschuh et al., 2016) and/or vegetation is only indirectly limited by temperature while other temperature-related environmental drivers such as permafrost conditions are more influential (Tchebakova et al., 2005).

Such complex relationships between temperature and vegetation may help explain several contradictory findings of recent ecological change in northern Asia. For example, simulations of vegetation change in response to a warmer and drier climate indicate that steppe should expand in the present-day forest–steppe ecotone of southern Siberia (Tchebakova et al., 2009) but, contrarily, pine forest has increased during the past 74 years, probably because the warming temperature was mediated by improved local moisture conditions (Shestakova et al., 2017). In another example, evergreen conifers, which are assumed to be more susceptible to frost damage than *Larix*, expanded their distribution by 10 % during a period with cooler winters from 2001 to 2012, while the distribution of *Larix* forests decreased by 40 % on the West Siberian Plain as revealed by a remote sensing study (He et al., 2017). Additionally, some field studies and dynamic vegetation models infer a rapid response of the tree-line to warming in northern Siberia (e.g. Moiseev, 2002; Soja et al., 2007; Kirilyanov et al., 2012), but combined model- and field-based investigations of larch stands in north-central Siberia reveal only a densification of tree stands, not an areal expansion (Kruse et al., 2016; Wiczorek et al., 2017).

These findings on recent vegetation dynamics that contradict a straightforward vegetation–temperature relationship may be better understood in the context of vegetation change over longer timescales. Synthesizing multi-record pollen data is the most suitable approach to investigate quantitatively the past vegetation change at broad spatial and long temporal scales. Broad spatial scale pollen-based land-cover reconstructions have been made for Europe (e.g. Mazier et al., 2012; Nielsen et al., 2012; Trondman et al., 2015) and temperate China (Li, 2016) for the Holocene. However, vegetation change studies in northern Asia are restricted to biome reconstructions (Tarasov et al., 1998, 2000; Bigelow et al., 2003; Binney et al., 2017; Tian et al., 2018), which do not reflect compositional change. Syntheses of pure pollen percentage data are not appropriate due to differences in pollen productivity, which may result in an overestimation of the strength of vegetation changes (Wang and Herzschuh, 2011). This might be particularly severe when strong pollen producers such as pine (Mazier et al., 2012) invade areas dominated by low pollen producers such as larch (Niemeyer et al., 2015). Marquer et al. (2014, 2017) also demonstrated the strength of pollen-based REVEALS (Regional Estimates of Vegetation Abundance from Large Sites) estimates of plant abundance in studies of Holocene vegetation change and plant diversity indices in Europe. Accordingly, syntheses of quantitative plant cover derived from the application

of pollen productivity estimates (PPEs) to multiple pollen records (Trondman et al., 2015; Li, 2016) should be a better way to investigate Late Glacial and Holocene vegetation change in northern Asia.

In this study, we employ the taxonomically harmonized and temporally standardized fossil pollen datasets available from eastern continental Asia (Cao et al., 2013, 2015) and Siberia (Tian et al., 2018) covering the last 40 ka cal BP (henceforth abbreviated to ka). We compile all the available PPEs from Eurasia and use the mean estimate for each taxon. Finally, we quantitatively reconstruct plant cover using the REVEALS model (Sugita, 2007) for 27 major taxa at 18 key time slices. We reveal the nature, strength, and timing of vegetation change in northern Asia and its regional peculiarities, and discuss the driving factors of vegetation change.

## 2 Data and methods

### 2.1 Fossil pollen data process

The fossil pollen records were obtained from the extended version of the fossil pollen dataset for eastern continental Asia containing 297 records (Cao et al., 2013, 2015) and the fossil pollen dataset for Siberia with 171 records (Tian et al., 2018). For the 468 pollen records, pollen names were harmonized to genus level for arboreal taxa and family level for herbaceous taxa, and age-depth models were re-established using the Bayesian age-depth modelling (further details are described in Cao et al., 2013). We selected 203 pollen records from lacustrine sediments (110 sites) and peat (93 sites) north of 40° N, with chronologies based on  $\geq 3$  dates and a < 500-year-per-sample temporal resolution generally, following previous studies (Mazier et al., 2012; Nielsen et al., 2012; Fyfe et al., 2013; Trondman et al., 2015). Out of the 203 pollen records, 170 sites (83 from lakes, 87 from bogs) have original pollen counts, while in the other 33 sites only pollen percentages are available. Due to overall low site density, we decided to include these data. The pollen counts were back-calculated from percentages using the terrestrial pollen sum indicated in the original publications. Detailed information (including location, data quality, chronology reliability, and data source) on the selected sites is presented in Fig. A1 and Table A1 in the Appendix.

We selected 18 key time slices for reconstruction (Table 1) to capture the general temporal patterns of vegetation change during the last 40 ka, i.e. 40, 25, 21, 18, 14, and 12 ka during the late Pleistocene and 1000-year resolution (500-year time windows around each millennium, i.e. 0.7–1.2, 1.7–2.2 ka, etc.) during the Holocene. For the 0 ka time slice, the ca. 150-year time window (< 0.1 ka) was set to represent the modern vegetation. Since few pollen records have available samples at the 0 ka time slice, the 0.2 and 0.5 ka time slices covered a 250-year or 350-year time window (0.1–0.35 and 0.35–0.7 ka, respectively) to represent the recent vegetation, following the strategy and time windows implemented for

**Table 1.** Selected time windows.

Time window (cal BP)	Abbreviated name
–60 to 100	0 ka
100 to 350	0.2 ka
350 to 700	0.5 ka
700 to 1200	1 ka
1700 to 2200	2 ka
2700 to 3200	3 ka
3700 to 4200	4 ka
4700 to 5200	5 ka
5700 to 6200	6 ka
6700 to 7200	7 ka
7700 to 8200	8 ka
8700 to 9200	9 ka
9700 to 10 200	10 ka
10 500 to 11 500	11 ka
11 500 to 12 500	12 ka
13 500 to 14 500	14 ka
19 000 to 23 000	21 ka
23 000 to 27 000	25 ka
36 000 to 44 000	40 ka

Europe (Mazier et al., 2012; Trondman et al., 2015). For the last glacial period, even broader time windows were chosen to offset the sparsely available samples (Table 1). Pollen counts of all available samples within one time window were summed up to represent the total pollen count for each time slice. In this study, we selected 27 major pollen taxa (with available PPE, pollen productivity estimate, and values) that form dominant components in both modern vegetation communities and the fossil pollen spectra and reconstruct their abundances in the past vegetation (Table 2).

## 2.2 The REVEALS model setting

The REVEALS model assumes the PPEs of pollen taxa are constant variables over the target period and requires parameter inputs including sediment basin radius (m), fall speed of pollen grain (FS,  $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ), and PPE with standard error (SE; Sugita, 2007). The areas of the 110 lakes were obtained from descriptions in original publications and validated by measurements on Google Earth. Their basin radii were back-calculated from their areas assuming a circular shape. There are 83 large lakes (radius > 390 m; following Sugita, 2007) in our dataset with a fairly even distribution across the study area (Figs. 1 and A1), which helps ensure the reliability of the regional vegetation estimations (Sugita, 2007; Mazier et al., 2012). Only 18 bogs have published descriptions about their size and it is infeasible to measure them on Google Earth because of unclear boundaries. A test run showed that using different bog radii (i.e. 5, 10, 20, 50, 100, 200, and 500 m) did not significantly affect the REVEALS estimates (Fig. A2), hence a standard (moderate size) radius of 100 m was set for all bogs.

We collected available PPEs for the 27 selected pollen taxa from 20 studies in Eurasia (Table A2). We calculated the mean PPE from all available PPE values, but excluded records with  $\text{PPE} \leq \text{SE}$  (Mazier et al., 2012). We included these PPEs for various species in the mean PPE calculation for their family or genus. For simplification, we did not evaluate the values or select PPE values following consistent criteria as was done in Europe (Mazier et al., 2012). Instead, we used the original values from the studies included in Mazier et al. (2012) and added new PPE values from Europe published since the synthesis by Mazier et al. (2012). SE of the mean PPE was estimated using the delta method (Stuart and Ord, 1994). Fall speeds for each of the 27 pollen taxa were retrieved from previous studies (Table 2).

The REVEALS model generally performs best with pollen records from large lakes, although multiple pollen records from small lakes and bogs (at least two sites) can also produce reliable results where large lakes are absent (Sugita, 2007; Trondman et al., 2016). Here, due to the sparse distribution of available sites, we divided the 203 sites into 42 site groups, based on criteria of geographic location, vegetation type (vegetation zone map modified from Tseplyayev, 1961; Dulamsuren et al., 2005; Hou, 2001), climate (based on modern precipitation and temperature contours), and permafrost (Brown et al., 1997) following the strategy of Li (2016); the pollen data within one site group should be of similar components and temporal patterns. To ensure the reliability of REVEALS estimates of plant cover, each group includes at least one large lake or two small sites (small lakes or bogs; Fig. 1; Table A3).

The REVEALS model was run with a mean wind speed set to  $3 \text{ m s}^{-1}$  and neutral atmospheric conditions following Trondman et al. (2015), and the maximum distance of regional vegetation  $Z_{\text{max}}$  was set to 100 km. The lake and bog sites were reconstructed using the models of pollen dispersal and deposition for lakes (Sugita, 1993) and bogs (Prentice, 1985), respectively, in REVEALS version 5.0 (Shinya Sugita, unpublished data). The mean estimate of plant abundances from lakes and bogs was calculated for each of the 42 site groups, which includes both sediment types (using the computer program `bog.lake.data.fusion`; Shinya Sugita, unpublished data). Finally, the 27 taxa were assigned to seven plant functional types (PFT; Table 1) following the PFT definitions for China and Siberia (Tarasov et al., 1998, 2000; Bigelow et al., 2003; Ni et al., 2010; Tian et al., 2018), with the restriction that each pollen taxon is attributed to only one PFT according to the strategy of Li (2016) (Table 2).

## 2.3 Numerical analyses of reconstruction

The abundance variations in the seven PFTs during the Holocene (time slices between 12 and 1 ka) from 36 site groups were used in a clustering analysis. Six site groups had to be excluded from the analysis due to poor coverage of time

**Table 2.** Fall speed (FS) of pollen grains and mean relative pollen productivity estimate (PPE) with standard error (SE) for the 27 selected taxa. Plant functional type (PFT) assignment is according to previous biome reconstructions (Tarasov et al., 1998, 2000; Bigelow et al., 2003; Ni et al., 2010).

PFT	PFT description	Pollen type	FS (m s <sup>-1</sup> )	PPE (SE)
I	evergreen conifer tree	<i>Pinus</i>	0.031 <sup>a</sup>	9.629 (0.075)
I	evergreen conifer tree	<i>Picea</i>	0.056 <sup>a</sup>	2.546 (0.041)
I	evergreen conifer tree	<i>Abies</i>	0.120 <sup>a</sup>	6.875 (1.442)
II	deciduous conifer tree	<i>Larix</i>	0.126 <sup>a</sup>	3.642 (0.125)
III	boreal deciduous tree	<i>Betula_tree</i> <i>Betula_undiff.</i>	0.024 <sup>a</sup>	8.106 (0.125)
III	boreal deciduous tree	<i>Alnus_tree</i> <i>Alnus_undiff.</i>	0.021 <sup>a</sup>	9.856 (0.092)
III	boreal deciduous tree	<i>Corylus</i>	0.025 <sup>b</sup>	1.637 (0.065)
IV	temperate deciduous tree	<i>Quercus</i>	0.035 <sup>a</sup>	6.119 (0.050)
IV	temperate deciduous tree	<i>Fraxinus</i>	0.022 <sup>a</sup>	2.046 (0.105)
IV	temperate deciduous tree	<i>Juglans</i>	0.037 <sup>c</sup>	4.893 (0.221)
IV	temperate deciduous tree	<i>Carpinus</i>	0.042 <sup>a</sup>	5.908 (0.285)
IV	temperate deciduous tree	<i>Tilia</i>	0.032 <sup>b</sup>	1.055 (0.066)
IV	temperate deciduous tree	<i>Ulmus</i>	0.032 <sup>b</sup>	6.449 (0.684)
V	boreal shrub	<i>Betula_shrub</i>	0.024 <sup>a</sup>	1.600 (0.132)
V	boreal shrub	<i>Alnus_shrub</i>	0.021 <sup>a</sup>	6.420 (0.420)
V	boreal shrub	<i>Salix</i>	0.034 <sup>b</sup>	1.209 (0.039)
V	boreal shrub	Ericaceae	0.034 <sup>d</sup>	0.200 (0.029)
VI	arid-tolerant shrub and herb	<i>Ephedra</i>	0.015 <sup>h</sup>	0.960 (0.140)
VI	arid-tolerant shrub and herb	<i>Artemisia</i>	0.014 <sup>f</sup>	9.072 (0.176)
VI	arid-tolerant shrub and herb	Chenopodiaceae	0.019 <sup>f</sup>	5.440 (0.460)
VII	grassland and tundra forb	Poaceae	0.035 <sup>d</sup>	1.000 (0.000)
VII	grassland and tundra forb	Cyperaceae	0.035 <sup>e</sup>	0.757 (0.044)
VII	grassland and tundra forb	Asteraceae	0.051 <sup>g</sup>	0.465 (0.066)
VII	grassland and tundra forb	<i>Thalictrum</i>	0.007 <sup>h</sup>	3.855 (0.258)
VII	grassland and tundra forb	Ranunculaceae	0.014 <sup>i</sup>	2.900 (0.363)
VII	grassland and tundra forb	Caryophyllaceae	0.028 <sup>i</sup>	0.600 (0.050)
VII	grassland and tundra forb	Brassicaceae	0.002 <sup>c</sup>	4.185 (0.188)

<sup>a</sup> Eisenhut (1961); <sup>b</sup> Gregory (1973); <sup>c</sup> Li et al. (2017); <sup>d</sup> Broström et al. (2004); <sup>e</sup> Sugita et al. (1999); <sup>f</sup> Abraham and Kozáková (2012); <sup>g</sup> Broström (2002); <sup>h</sup> Xu et al. (2014); <sup>i</sup> Bunting et al. (2013).

slices (G1, G5, G17, G19, G27, G42). For site groups with < 3 missing time slices during the Holocene (G3, G16, G26, G32, G33, G35, G38, G39, G41), linear interpolation was employed to estimate the PFT abundances for the missing time slices. Time-series clustering for the three-way dataset was performed to generate a distance matrix among the site groups using the *tsclust* function in the *dtwclust* package (Sarda-Espinosa, 2018) in R 3.4.1 (R Core Team, 2017). The distance matrix was employed in hierarchical clustering (using the *hclust* function in R) to cluster the site groups. Constrained hierarchical clustering (using *chclust* function in *ri-oja* package version 0.9–15.1; Juggins, 2018) was used to determine the timing of primary vegetation changes (i.e. the first split) in each site group. A change was considered to be significant when the split passed the broken-stick test. The amount of PFT compositional change (turnover) through time during the period between 12 and 1 ka for the 36 site groups (time slices cover entire period) was estimated by detrended canonical correspondence analysis (DCCA) for each

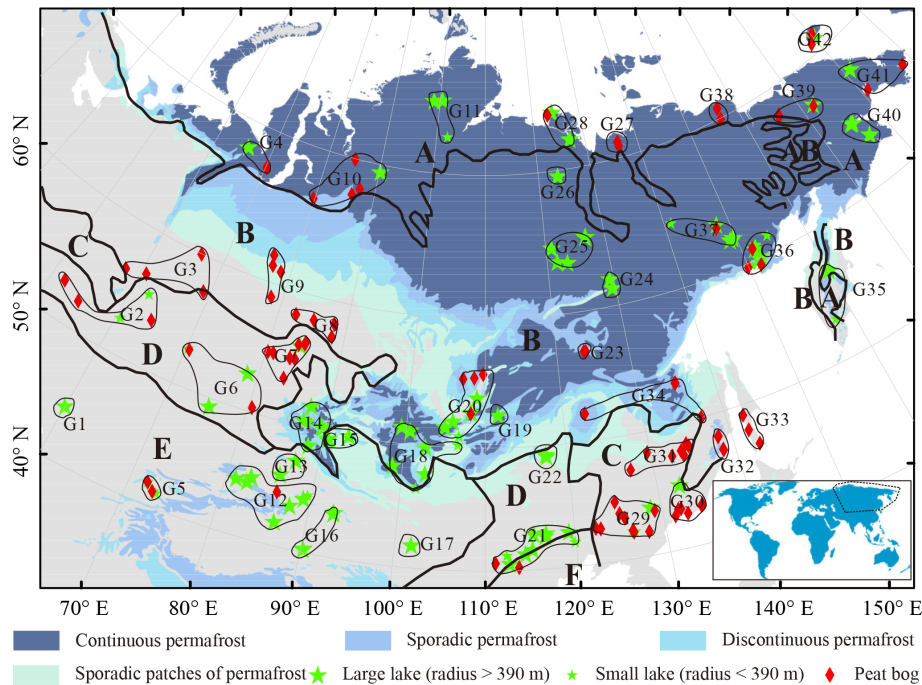
site group (ter Braak, 1986) using CANOCO 4.5 (ter Braak and Šmilauer, 2002).

## 3 Results

### 3.1 Large-scale pattern

On a glacial–interglacial scale, marked temporal changes in the occurrence and abundance of PFTs are revealed, in particular the high cover of tree PFTs during the Holocene as opposed to the widespread open landscape during the glacial period. In contrast, vegetation changes in northern Asia within the Holocene are rather minor with only slight changes in PFT abundances. Cluster analyses of grouped vegetation records from the Holocene find five clusters (Fig. A3). Their spatial distribution is largely consistent with the distribution of modern vegetation types as characterized by certain PFTs. (1) Records from the forest–steppe ecotone (e.g. G12, G21; Fig. 2a) in north-central China and the Tian-shan (the mentioned geographic locations are indicated in





**Figure 1.** Distribution of the 42 site groups together with the modern vegetation zones and permafrost extent in northern Asia. The vegetation-zone map modified from Tseplyayev (1961), Dulamsuren et al. (2005), and Hou (2001) includes the following. A: tundra, B: taiga forest, C: temperate mixed conifer–deciduous broadleaved forest, D: temperate steppe, E: semi-desert and desert; and F: warm-temperate deciduous forest.

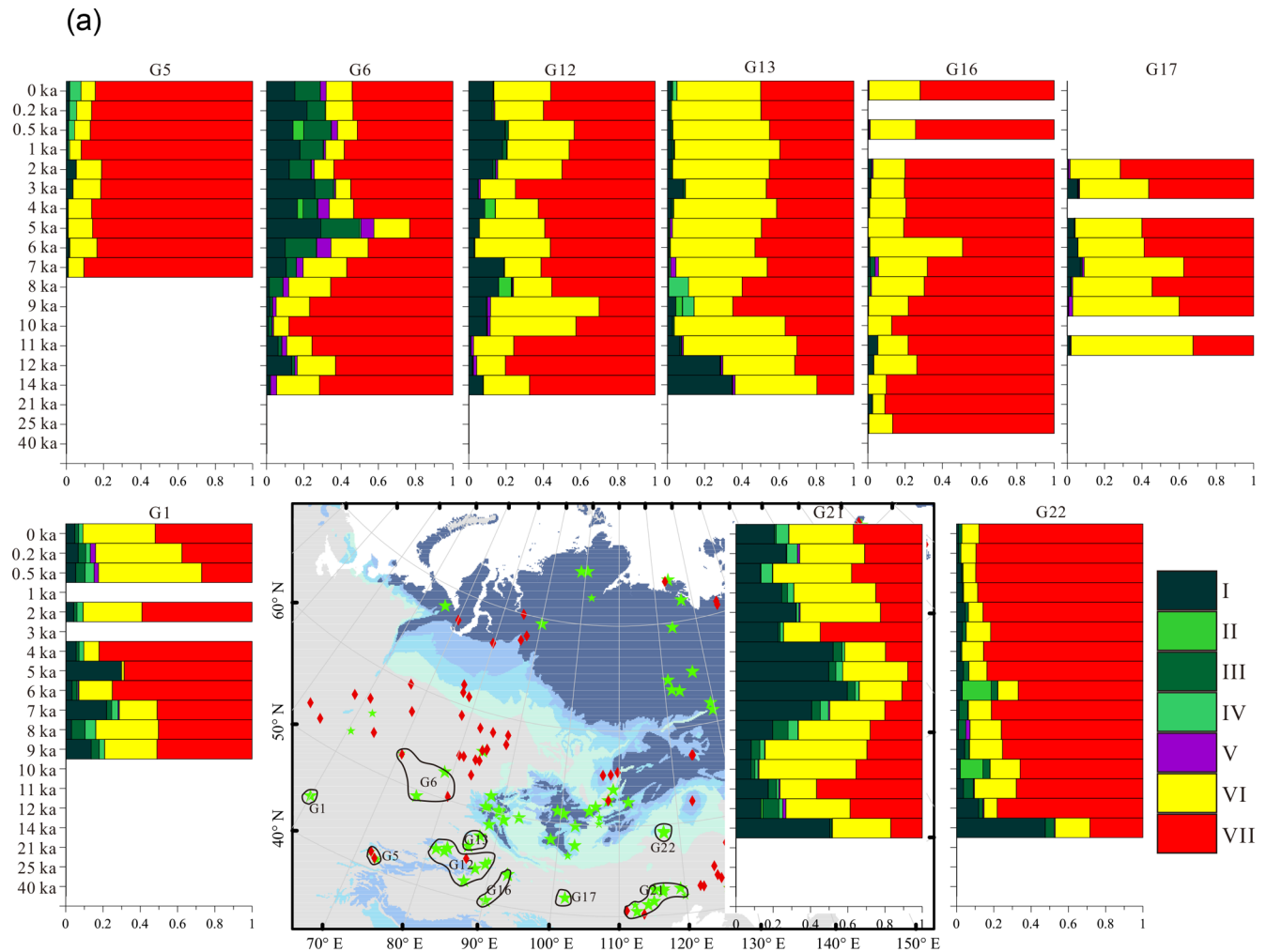
Fig. A4) have high tree PFTs during the middle Holocene. (2) Areas in southern and south-western Siberia and north-eastern China were covered by cool-temperate mixed forest or light taiga with a high diversity of trees throughout the Holocene (e.g. G2, G7, G14, G29; Fig. 2b). (3) The West Siberian Plain and south-eastern Siberia that are presently covered by open dark taiga forests (e.g. G8, G9, G33; Fig. 2c) had an even higher abundance of evergreen conifer trees during the middle Holocene than at present. (4) *Larix* formed light taiga forests in central Yakutia throughout the Holocene (e.g. G25, G26; Fig. 2d). (5) Northern Siberia, which is currently covered by tundra formed by boreal shrubs and herbs, had a higher share of tree PFTs during the middle Holocene (e.g. G28, G39; Fig. 2e).

The turnover in PFT composition is  $< 0.7$  SD units in almost all site groups, except G8 (0.88 SD), G9 (0.73 SD), and G24 (0.76 SD), indicating only slight vegetation change during the Holocene (Fig. 3). The three site groups with higher turnover show a distinct transition from light taiga to dark taiga in the middle Holocene (at ca. 8 ka). The significant primary vegetation changes (pass the broken-stick test) occur during different intervals in each site group. Overall, the middle Holocene (including 8.5, 7.5, 6.5, and 5.5 ka time slices) has the highest frequency of primary vegetation changes. Records from inland areas such as the West Siberian Plain, central Yakutia, and northern Mongolia are characterized by relatively many middle-Holocene splits. There are seven site

groups whose primary vegetation changes during the early Holocene (including 11.5, 10.5, and 9.5 ka time slices), and most of them from the south-eastern coastal part of the study area. Only three site groups have late-Holocene primary vegetation changes (Fig. 3).

### 3.2 Warm temperate forest margin zone in vicinity of Tianshan and north-central China (G6, G12, G13, G16, G21, G22)

Six site groups from the warm temperate forest–steppe transition zone (G6, G21, G22) and from the lowlands adjacent to mountainous forest in arid central Asia (G12, G13, G16) are clustered together (Fig. 3). Our results indicate that these areas, which are now dominated by arid-tolerant shrub and steppe species, had more arboreal species, mainly evergreen conifer tree taxa, in the middle Holocene (Fig. 2a). For example, north-central China (G21) has a marked mid-Holocene maximum in forest cover (7–4 ka; mean 51%). However, certain peculiarities are noted: open landscape is reconstructed between 14 and 7 ka in northern Kazakhstan (G6), followed by an abundance of evergreen conifer trees and an increase in boreal deciduous trees that maintain high values (mean 30%) after 7 ka. In the eastern branch of the Tianshan (G12), evergreen conifer trees are highly abundant from 10 to 7 ka and after 2 ka, while low abundance occurs from 14 to 11 ka and from 6 to 3 ka. In the Gobi desert near the Tianshan



**Figure 2.**

(G16) there was an even higher abundance of arid-tolerant species with no notable temporal trend in abundance of arboreal species. We assume that the high arboreal cover at site groups G13 and G22 at 14 and 12 ka originates from riverine transport and therefore exclude them from further analyses.

### 3.3 Cool-temperate mixed forest and taiga forest in southern and south-western Siberia and north-eastern China (G2, G7, G14, G15, G18, G29, G30, G31)

Eight site groups located in (or near) the temperate mixed conifer–deciduous broadleaved forest zone (G2, G29, G30, G31) and taiga–steppe transition zone (G7, G14, G15, G18) show similar PFT compositions and temporal evolutions. At these sites, evergreen conifer tree is the dominant PFT intermixed with other arboreal PFTs, such as deciduous conifers (*Larix*) in the Altai Mts. and northern Mongolia, and/or temperate deciduous trees in north-eastern China (Fig. 2b).

Evergreen conifer tree is the dominant PFT at 40, 25, and 21 ka in the southern part of north-eastern China (G29), *Larix* then becomes the dominant taxa at 14 and 12 ka, and temperate deciduous trees increase thereafter and maintain high cover between 11 and 3 ka. After 2 ka, evergreen conifer trees increase to 32 % on average while temperate deciduous trees decrease to 18 % on average. While arboreal abundance is lower in the northern part of north-eastern China (G30, G31) than in the southern part (G29), it shows a similar temporal pattern (Fig. 2b).

Open landscape is revealed for the southern Ural region (G2) with high abundances of herbaceous species at 14 ka. The cover of *Larix* and evergreen conifer trees increases after 12 ka and maintains high values thereafter with no notable temporal trend (Fig. 2b).

In the taiga–steppe transition zone, *Larix* is the dominant arboreal taxon, particularly in the northern Altai Mts. and northern Mongolia (G15, G18). Open landscapes are inferred at 40, 21, and 12 ka on the southern West Siberian Plain (G7);

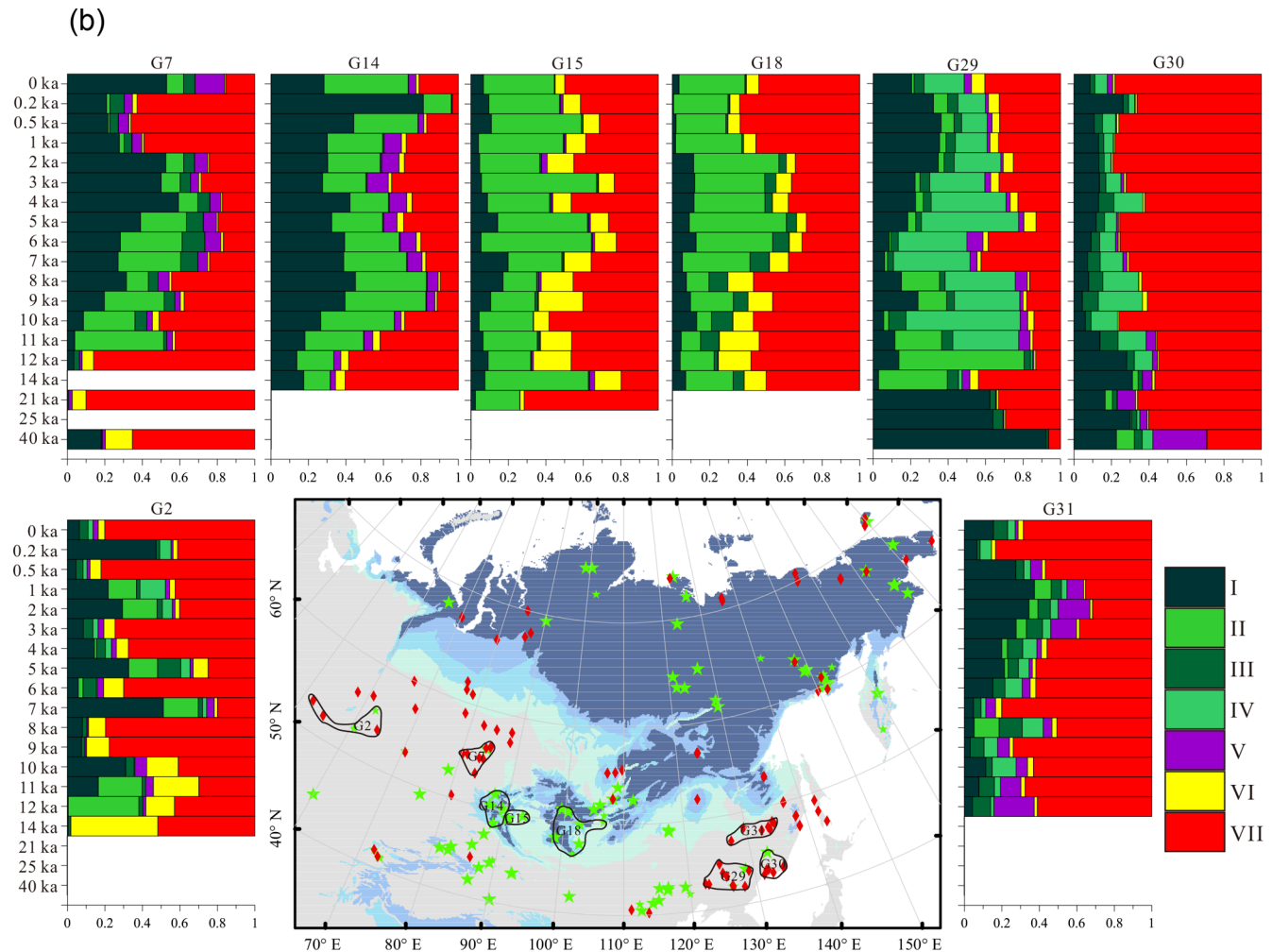


Figure 2.

cover of *Larix* increases at 11 ka and evergreen conifer trees increase from 9 ka and become the dominant forest taxon after 4 ka. The temporal pattern of evergreen conifer trees in the Altai Mts. (G14) is similar to the southern West Siberian Plain, although *Larix* maintains high abundances into the late Holocene. Relative to the Altai Mts., the abundance of evergreen conifer trees for all time windows are lower in the area north of the Altai Mts. and in northern Mongolia (G15, G18), but their temporal change patterns are consistent with those of the Altai Mts. (G14; Fig. 2b).

### 3.4 Dark taiga forest in western and south-eastern Siberia (G3, G4, G8, G9, G20, G32, G33, G34)

Site groups with dark taiga forest from western Siberia (G3, G4, G8, G9), the Baikal region (G20), and south-eastern Siberia (G32, G33, G34) form one cluster sharing similar PFT compositions dominated by evergreen conifer trees, with *Larix* and boreal broadleaved shrubs as the common woody taxa during the Holocene (Fig. 2c).

On the West Siberian Plain (G8, G9), high cover of *Larix* is reconstructed during the early Holocene as well as high woody cover since the middle Holocene formed by evergreen conifer trees and boreal shrubs. In the Ural region (G3, G4), evergreen conifer trees dominate the arboreal species throughout the Holocene. The absence of *Larix* in the early Holocene in this Ural region is a notable difference to the West Siberian Plain (Fig. 2c).

In the Baikal region (G20), a relatively closed landscape is revealed at 40 ka; openness then increases to > 95 % at 25 and 21 ka. Since 14 ka, woody cover increases as shown by a notable rise in evergreen conifer trees from 14 to 8 ka and by increases of *Larix* after 7 ka (Fig. 2c).

In south-eastern Siberia (G32, G34), arboreal abundance is high in the early and late Holocene, but low in the middle Holocene. South of Sakhalin Island (G33), a closed landscape is revealed between 40 and 1 ka with > 80 % woody cover. Evergreen conifer tree PFT has lower cover than boreal shrub PFT at 25 and 21 ka but increases in abundance

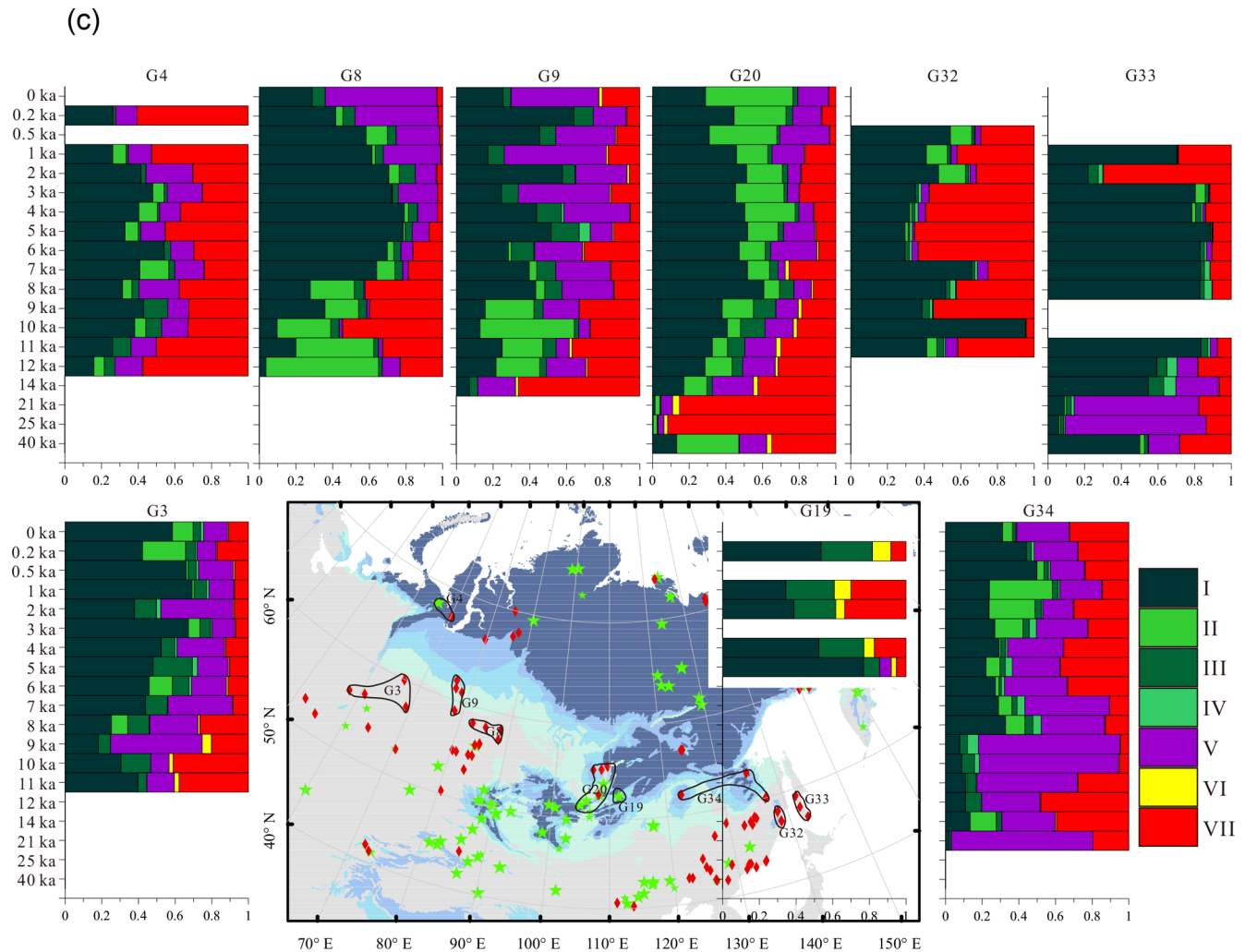


Figure 2.

around 14 ka rising to 83 % on average between 11 and 3 ka, and reduces thereafter (Fig. 2c).

### 3.5 Light taiga forest in north-western Siberia and central Yakutia (G10, G23, G24, G25, G26)

Plant composition of this cluster is dominated by *Larix* with high arboreal cover during the Holocene. Evergreen conifer trees are present at ca. 15 % cover between 11 and 2 ka, with high arboreal values (mean 73 %) during the Holocene in north-western Siberia (G10). In central Yakutia (G23, G24, G25), evergreen conifer trees increase markedly from ca. 8, 6, and 7 ka, respectively, and maintain high cover thereafter, with ca. 60 % arboreal cover throughout the Holocene. Evergreen conifer trees are almost absent in the taiga–tundra ecotone (G26; Fig. 2d).

### 3.6 Tundra on the Taymyr Peninsula and taiga–tundra ecotone in north-eastern Siberia (G11, G28, G35, G36, G37, G38, G39, G40, G41)

Plant compositions of this cluster are characterized by high abundances of boreal shrubs and tundra forbs. *Larix* is the only tree species on the Taymyr Peninsula (G11) and its abundance increases from 18 % at 14 ka to 60 % at 10 ka, and then decreases to 18 % at 5 ka. The landscape of the north Siberian coast (G28) is dominated by shrub tundra from 14 to 10 ka, then *Larix* increases sharply and maintains high values between 9 and 6 ka. After 5 ka, *Larix* reduces, and shrub tundra becomes the dominant landscape again (Fig. 2e).

In north-eastern Siberia, arboreal cover shows a decreasing trend from southerly site groups (G35, G36, G37; Fig. 2d) to northerly ones (G40, G38, G39, G41) following the increasing latitude. In the Olsky District, temporal patterns of vegetation changes in G37 are consistent with G36, with stable vegetation during the Holocene and increases in evergreen



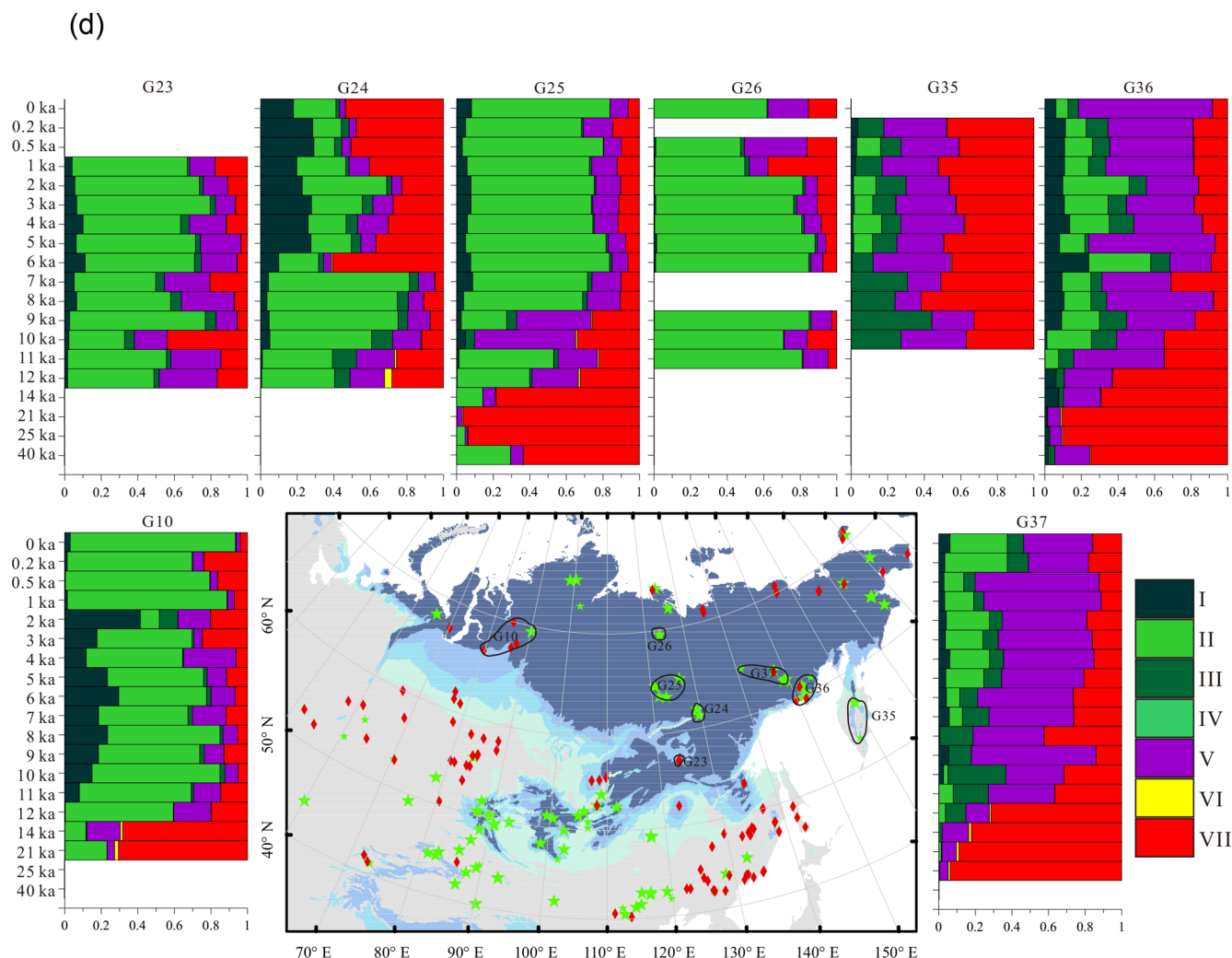


Figure 2.

conifer tree abundance from ca. 9 ka. Arboreal composition on the southern Kamchatka Peninsula (G35) is dominated by boreal deciduous trees during the first stage of the Holocene, followed by rising abundances of *Larix* and evergreen conifer trees from 5 ka.

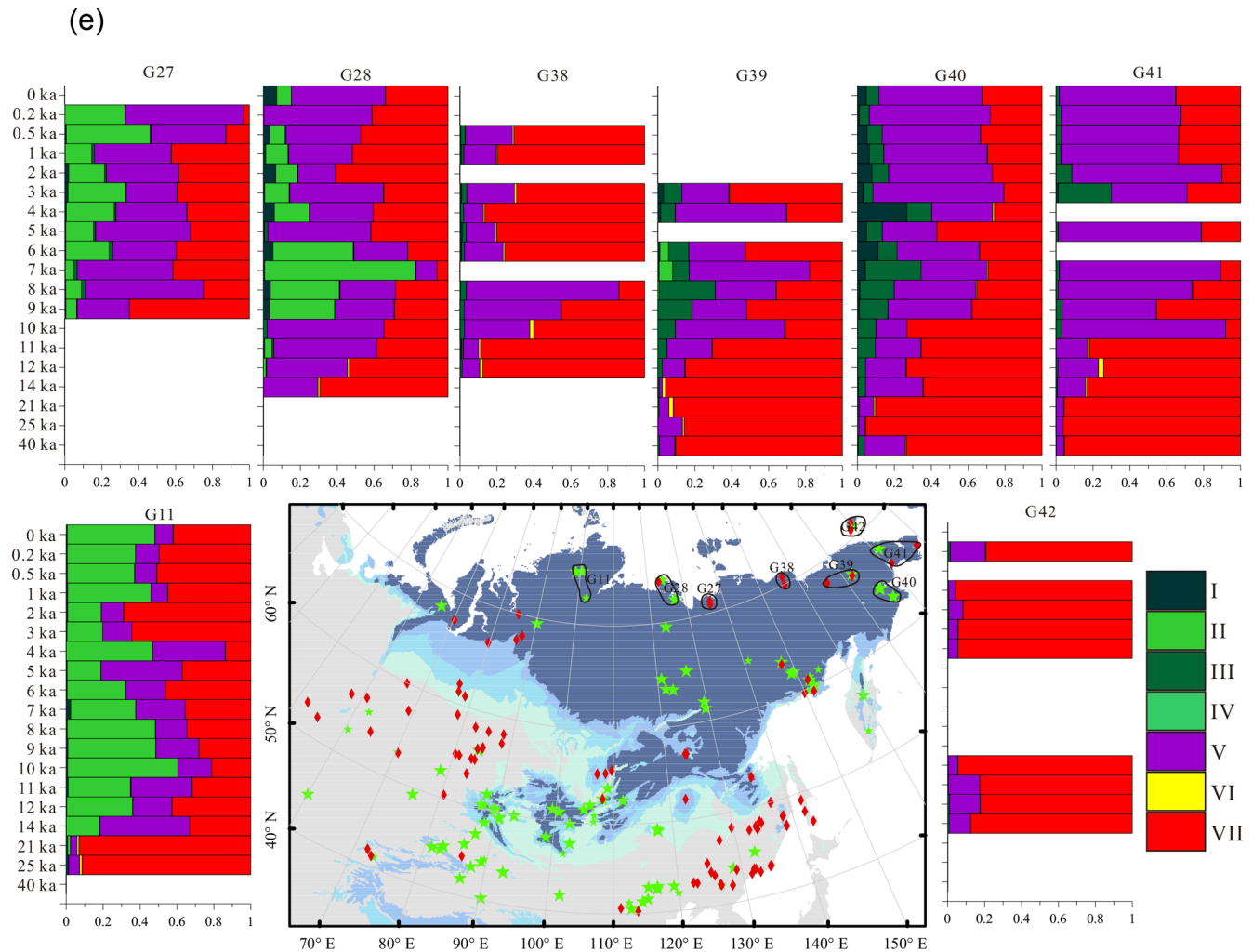
In north-eastern Siberia (G40, G38, G39, G41), the landscape is dominated by forb tundra with sparse shrubs between 40 and 21 ka; the cover of shrubs increases at 14 ka and arboreal cover (dominated by boreal deciduous trees) increases in the early Holocene (11 or 10 ka). Shrubs maintain a high abundance throughout the Holocene, while trees peak between 10 and 2 ka generally (Fig. 2e).

## 4 Discussion

### 4.1 Land-cover changes and potential biases

The overall patterns of pollen-based REVEALS estimates of land cover are generally consistent with previous vegetation

reconstructions. Although only a few site groups cover the period from 40 to 21 ka, a consistent vegetation signal indicates that relatively closed landscapes occurred in south-eastern Siberia, north-eastern China, and the Baikal region (Fig. 2), while most of Siberia was rather open, particularly around 21 ka (Fig. 2). These findings are consistent with previous pollen-based (Tarasov et al., 1998, 2000; Bigelow et al., 2003; Binney et al., 2017; Tian et al., 2018) and model-estimated biome reconstructions (Tian et al., 2018). During the late Pleistocene (40, 25, 21, 14 ka), steppe PFT abundance was high in central Yakutia and north-eastern Siberia (e.g. G25, G36, G37, G39, G40, G41), which may reflect the expansion of tundra–steppe, consistent with results from ancient sediment DNA which reveal abundant forb species during the period between 46 and 12.5 ka on the Taymyr Peninsula (Jørgensen et al., 2012). The tundra–steppe was replaced by light taiga in southern Siberia and by tundra in northern Siberia at the beginning of Holocene or the last deglacia-



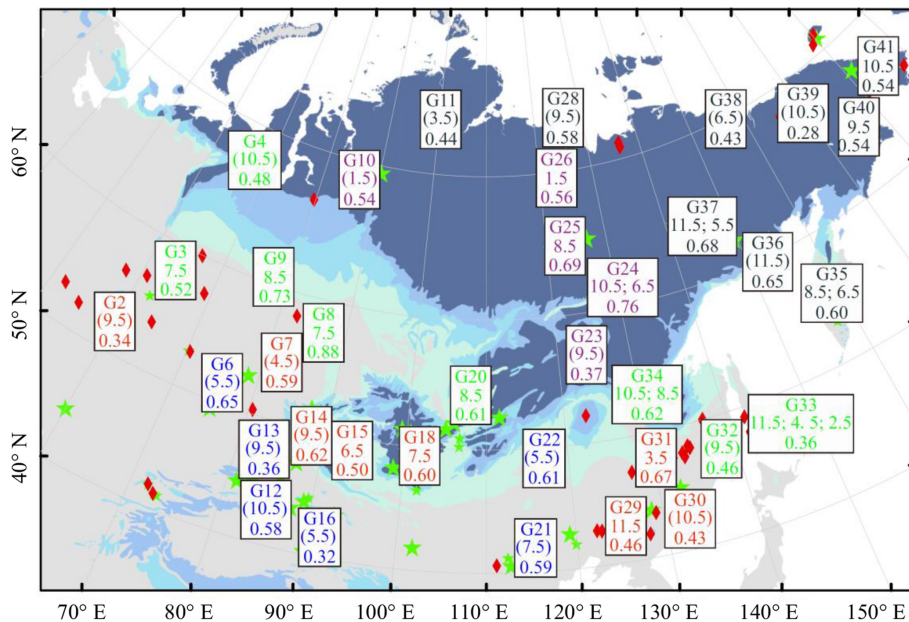
**Figure 2.** Temporal changes in plant functional type (PFT) cover, as proportions, for the site groups from the warm temperate forest margin zone (a); cool-temperate mixed forest and taiga forest (b); dark taiga forest (c); light taiga forest and taiga–tundra ecotone (d); tundra and taiga–tundra ecotone (e). PFT I: evergreen conifer tree; PFT II: deciduous conifer tree; PFT III: boreal deciduous tree; PFT IV: temperate deciduous tree; PFT V: boreal shrub; PFT VI: arid-tolerant shrub and herb; and PFT VII: steppe and tundra forb.

tion, which is consistent with ancient DNA results (forb-dominated steppe-tundra; Willerslev et al., 2014).

During the Holocene, reconstructed land cover for each site group is generally consistent with their modern vegetation. The slight vegetation changes are represented by changes in PFT abundances rather than by changes in PFT presence or absence. Minor changes are also indicated in the cluster analysis, which shows that plant compositions and their temporal patterns are consistent among the site groups within the same modern vegetation zone (Fig. 3). PFT datasets from only 19 site groups pass the broken-stick test for clustering analysis, and most of them have only one significant vegetation change, further supporting the case that only slight changes occurred during the Holocene in northern Asia. In addition, the low total amount of PFT change

(turnover) over the Holocene for most site groups supports the view of slight temporal changes in land cover.

Vegetation turnover on the Tibetan Plateau inferred from pollen percentages is documented to overestimate the strength of vegetation changes (Wang and Herzschuh, 2011). This matches with our results. In central Yakutia, the pollen percentage data indicate a strong vegetation change during the middle Holocene, represented by a sharp increase in *Pinus* pollen, but the strength of the vegetation change is overestimated because of the high PPE of *Pinus*. The PPE-corrected arboreal abundances in central Yakutia after ca. 7 ka with ca. 70% *Larix* and ca. 10% *Pinus* are consistent with modern light taiga (Katamura et al., 2009). Furthermore, the absence of *Pinus* macrofossils in central Yakutia throughout the Holocene (Binney et al., 2009) also suggests a re-



**Figure 3.** Clustering results of the 36 site groups represented by the colour of the boxes, with the age of primary vegetation changes (middle row of each box; data in brackets mean the hierarchical clustering failed the broken-stick test) and the compositional change (turnover; lower row) during the Holocene.

stricted distribution of *Pinus*, possibly to sandy places such as river banks (Isaev et al., 2010).

Pollen-based turnover estimates from southern Norway range from 0.84 to 1.3 SD (mean 1.02 SD) for 10 Holocene pollen spectra (Birks, 2007), and from northern Europe from 0.01 (recent) to 0.99 (start of the Holocene) SD for three sites (N Sweden, NW and SE Finland) (Marquer et al., 2014). Moreover, the REVEALS-based turnover estimates (0.3–1) for northern Europe are significantly higher than the pollen-based one (0.2–0.8) from 11 to 5.5 kyr BP. The same is true for all other regions studied by Marquer et al. (2014) in north-western Europe, and the turnover estimates (pollen- and REVEALS-based) are generally higher at lower latitudes from southern Sweden down to Switzerland and eastwards to Britain and Ireland. These European values are higher than our REVEALS-based turnover estimates (from 0.37 to 0.88 SD, mean 0.66 SD; G3, G8, G9, G23, G24, G25, G36, G37) from a similar latitudinal range (Fig. 3). The fewer parameters used in the turnover calculations for northern Asia (PFTs) compared to Europe (pollen taxa) is a potential reason for the lower turnover obtained in this study. In addition, the PPE-based transformation from pollen percentages to plant abundances may reduce the strength of vegetation changes (Wang and Herzschuh, 2011). Aside from the methodological aspects, the lower turnover in northern Asia may, at least partly, originate from differences in the environmental history between northern Europe compared with northern Asia, i.e. glaciation followed by postglacial re-vegetation vs. non-glaciated areas with trees in refugia, respectively, and a maritime climate with temperature-limited vegetation

distribution vs. a continental climate with temperature- and moisture-limited vegetation.

We consider the REVEALS-based regional vegetation-cover estimations in this study as generally reliable with reasonable standard errors (Fig. A5) thanks to the thorough selection of records with high-quality pollen data and reliable chronologies. In addition, the landscape reconstructions are generally consistent with previous syntheses of past vegetation change (e.g. Tian et al., 2018) and known global climate trends (Marcott et al., 2013), plus the clustering results of PFT abundance are consistent with modern spatial vegetation patterns. That said, this study faced two major methodological challenges, discussed below, that may reduce the reliability of the obtained quantitative land-cover reconstructions: (1) the low number of PPEs and their origin and (2) restrictions with respect to the number, distribution, and type of available sites.

Twenty PPE sets were used which mostly originate from Europe and temperate northern China. The available PPEs were estimated from various environmental and ecological settings, which might cause regional differences in each PPE. And PPEs of different species within one family or genus were included in our mean PPE calculation for the family or genus, ignoring the inter-species differences. Also, some taxa have few available PPEs with significant differences (such as *Abies*, *Larix*, *Juglans*, Brassicaceae), and their mean PPE could fail to represent their real pollen productivities. These aspects can cause uncertainty in the mean PPE to some extent. However, we believe that the compiled PPE sets can be used to extract major broad-scale and long-term vegeta-

tion patterns because the regional differences in the PPE for most taxa are small compared to the large between-taxa differences. The mean PPEs used in this REVEALS modelling (Table 2) are broadly consistent with those obtained from Europe (Mazier et al., 2012). In addition, although there are no PPEs for the core from the Siberia taiga forest, available studies on modern pollen composition support the weightings in the applied PPEs for major taxa in terms of pollen under- or over-representation of vegetation abundance. For example, modern pollen investigations in north-eastern Siberia revealed that pollen records from northern *Larix* forest often have less than 13 % *Larix* pollen, confirming the low pollen productivity of *Larix* relative to over-represented pollen taxa such as *Betula* and *Alnus* (Pisaric et al., 2001a; Klemm et al., 2016). Similarly, a study on modern pollen in southern Siberia (transitional area of steppe and taiga) finds that *Artemisia*, *Betula*, and *Pinus* are high pollen producers compared to *Larix* (Pelánková et al., 2008). Also, despite *Larix* being the most common tree in taiga forest in north-central Mongolia, the pollen abundance of *Larix* is generally lower than 3 % (Ma et al., 2008), implying its low pollen productivity.

In this study, we attempt to reconstruct past landscape changes at a regional scale. Pollen signals from large lakes are assumed to reflect regional vegetation patterns (e.g. Sugita et al., 2010; Trondman et al., 2015). If large lakes are absent in a region, multiple small-sized sites can be used, although error estimates are usually large (Sugita, 2007; Mazier et al., 2012; Trondman et al., 2016). In our study, 70 % of the time slices for the 42 site groups include pollen data from large lakes (i.e. radii > 390 m), which supports the reliability of REVEALS reconstructions (Table A3). However, sites are unevenly distributed and occasionally sites from different areas were combined into one group (G2, G6, G34), which might produce a different vegetation-change signal because of the broad distribution of these sites (Fig. 1). In addition, the linear interpolation of pollen abundances for time windows with few pollen data might be another source of uncertainty, particularly for the late Pleistocene and its broad time windows (Table 1). Finally, pollen signals from certain sites and during certain periods may be of water-runoff origin rather than aerial origin violating the assumption of the REVEALS model that pollen is transported by wind.

#### 4.2 Driving factors of vegetation changes

On a glacial–interglacial scale, pollen-based reconstructed land-cover changes in northern Asia are generally consistent with the global climate signal (e.g. sea-surface temperature: Pailler and Bard, 2002; ice-core: Andersen et al., 2004; solar insolation: Laskar et al., 2004; and cave deposits: Cheng et al., 2016; Fig. A6). For example, the relatively high arboreal cover at 40 ka (e.g. G20) corresponds with the warm MIS 3 record from the Baikal region (Swann et al., 2005).

The open landscape at 25 and 21 ka (e.g. G25, G36) reflects the cold and dry last glacial maximum (e.g. Swann et al., 2010). Furthermore, the relatively high arboreal cover during the Holocene is consistent with the warm and wet climate (occurring in most site groups). The primary vegetation change in north-eastern China (G29, G30) occurs in the early Holocene (11.5 and 10.5 ka), caused by the rapid increase in abundance of temperate deciduous trees, which may reflect the warmer climate and enhanced summer monsoon known from that region at the beginning of the Holocene (Hong et al., 2009; Liu et al., 2014).

A sensitivity analysis of model-based biome estimation reveals that precipitation plays an important or even dominant role in controlling vegetation changes in arid central Asia (e.g. Tian et al., 2018). The climate of central Asia during the early Holocene is inferred to be quite dry and moisture increase occurs at ca. 8 ka revealed by a series of multi-proxy syntheses (Chen et al., 2008, 2016; Xie et al., 2018) and model-based estimations (Jin et al., 2012). In the taiga–steppe transition zone (south-eastern Siberia and north-central Asia, e.g. G6, G12, G14, G18), a relatively open landscape is reconstructed for the early Holocene and abundances of forest taxa increase after ca. 8 ka, which are consistent with the moisture evolution, and imply the importance of moisture in controlling vegetation changes. Our results support the prediction of an expansion of steppe in the present forest–steppe ecotone of southern Siberia in response to a warmer and drier climate in the future (Tchebakova et al., 2009). During the late Holocene, the decreases in forest cover in the forest–steppe ecotone of north-central China and central Asia are ascribed to the drying or cooling climate, respectively, by sensitivity analysis (Tian et al., 2018). Previous studies argued that the enhanced human impacts might be important factors for the reduction in forest cover (e.g. Ren, 2007); however, our study fails to determine its contribution on vegetation changes.

High abundances of *Larix* or boreal deciduous woody taxa (mostly shrubs) pollen occur in northern Siberia (e.g. G28, G38, G39, G40) during the middle Holocene, which is now covered by tundra. This is consistent with non-vegetation climate records of a mid-Holocene temperature maximum (e.g. Biskaborn et al., 2012; Nazarova et al., 2013). This result indicates that the boreal treeline in northern Siberia reacts sensitively to warming on millennial timescales, which contrasts with the observed lack of response on a decadal timescale (Wieczorek et al., 2017). This may point to a highly non-linear vegetation–climate relationship in northern Siberia.

Our results indicate that climate change is the major factor driving land-cover change in northern Asia on a long temporal scale. However, climate change cannot fully explain the changes in arboreal taxa abundance for the West Siberian Plain (G8, G9) and sandy places in central Yakutia (G23, G24, G25). In addition to climate, changes in permafrost condition (Vandenberghe et al., 2014) and fire regime may have played a central role in vegetation change. *Larix* is the



dominant arboreal taxon during the early Holocene (between ca. 12 and 8 ka), which is replaced by evergreen conifer trees, mostly pine and spruce at 8 or 7 ka. *Larix* can survive on permafrost with an active-layer depth of < 40 cm (Osawa et al., 2010) and a high fire frequency, while pine trees can only grow on soil with > 1.5 m of active-layer depth (Tzedakis and Bennett, 1995), and spruce is a fire avoider. Probably the compositional change of boreal trees was not in equilibrium with climate but rather driven by changes in the permafrost and fire characteristics that were themselves affected by forest composition, resulting in complex feedback mechanisms. This explanation would be in agreement with the finding by Herzsuh et al. (2016) that the boreal forest composition of nearby refugia during a glacial period influences the initial interglacial forest composition that is then only slowly replaced by a forest composition that is in equilibrium with climate.

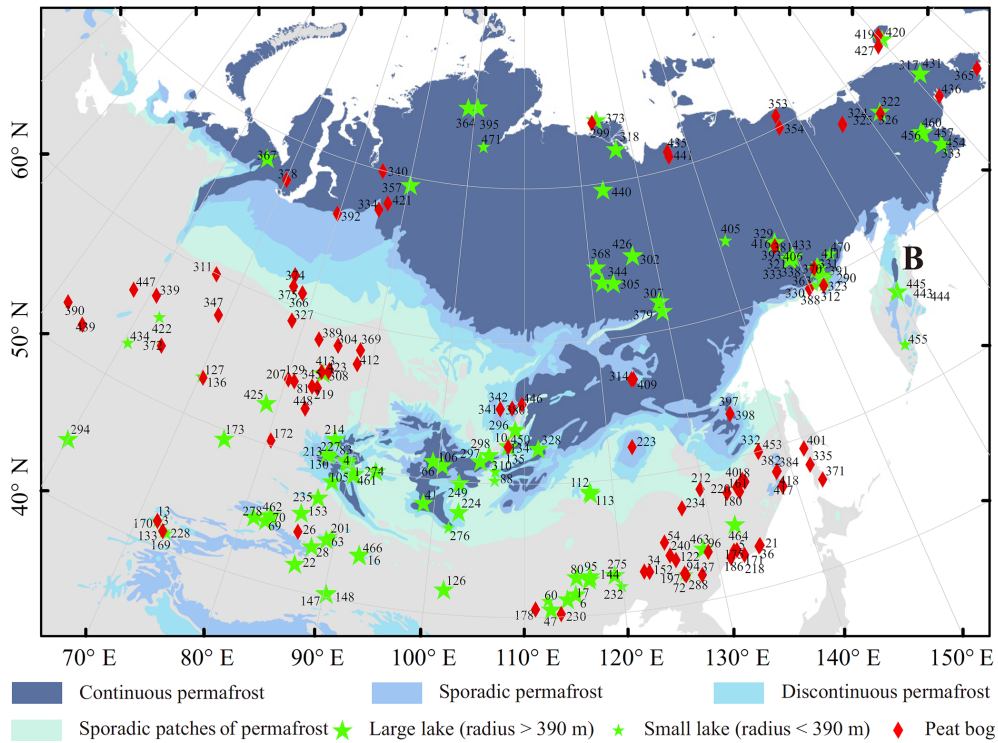
Population changes in herbivores could also be an important factor for vegetation change at a regional scale during certain intervals (Zimov et al., 1995; Guthrie, 2006). As with our pollen-based land-cover reconstruction, a circum-polar ancient DNA meta-barcoding study confirms the replacement of steppe-like tundra by moist tundra with abundant woody plants at the Pleistocene–Holocene transition (Willerslev et al., 2014). According to Zimov et al. (1995, 2012), such a change cannot be explained by climate change alone, and thus a reduced density of herbivores is considered to be a major driving factor of steppe composition reduction, since a reduced number of herbivores is insufficient to maintain the open steppe landscapes and so causes a decrease in steppe area (Zimov et al., 1995; Guthrie, 2006). Our land-cover reconstruction fails to address the contribution of herbivores to vegetation changes, but the extinction of herbivorous megafauna would add to the complexity of the interactions among vegetation, climate, and permafrost.

## 5 Conclusions

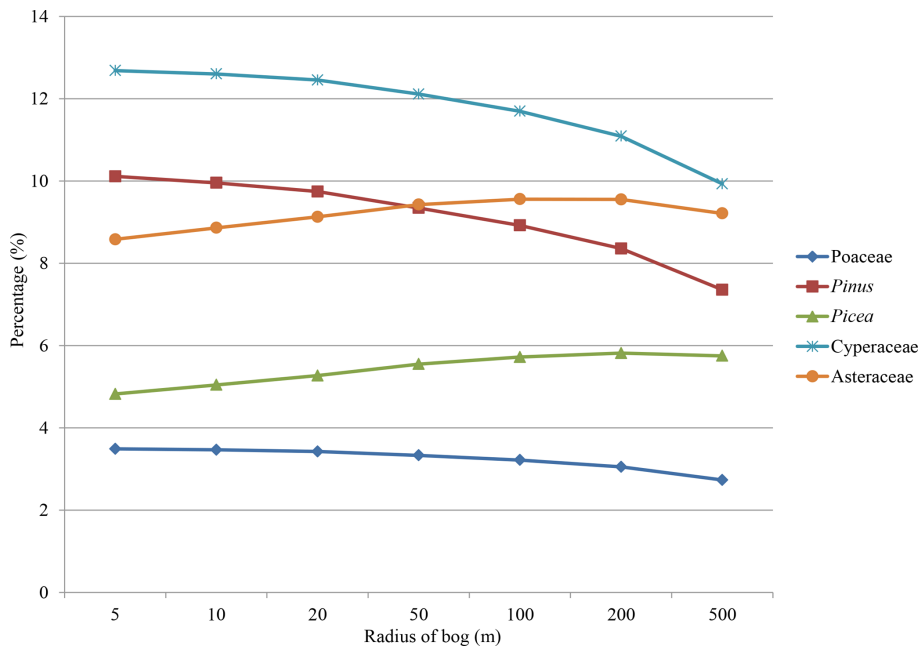
Regional vegetation based on pollen data has been estimated using the REVEALS model for northern Asia during the last 40 ka cal BP. Relatively closed land cover was replaced by open landscapes in northern Asia during the transition from MIS 3 to the last glacial maximum. Abundances of woody components increase again from the last deglaciation or early Holocene. Pollen-based REVEALS estimates of plant abundances should be a more reliable reflection of the vegetation as pollen may overestimate the turnover, and indicates that the vegetation was quite stable during the Holocene as only slight changes in the abundances of PFTs were recorded rather than mass expansion of new PFTs. From comparisons of our results with other data, we infer that climate change is likely the primary driving factor for vegetation changes on a glacial–interglacial scale. However, the extension of evergreen conifer trees since ca. 8–7 ka throughout Siberia could reflect vegetation–climate disequilibrium at a long-term scale caused by the interaction of climate, vegetation, fire, and permafrost, which could be a palaeo-analogue not only for the recent complex vegetation response to climate changes but also for the vegetation prediction in future.

**Data availability.** The used fossil pollen dataset with the re-established age-depth model for each pollen record have been made publicly available in PANGAEA (<https://doi.pangaea.de/10.1594/PANGAEA.898616>, Cao et al., 2019).

Appendix A



**Figure A1.** Distribution of the 203 fossil pollen sites together with the modern permafrost extent in northern Asia. The number of each site is used as its site ID in Table A1.



**Figure A2.** Slight percentage changes for five major plant taxa reconstructed by the REVEALS model with different bog radii (5, 10, 20, 50, 100, 200, and 500 m).

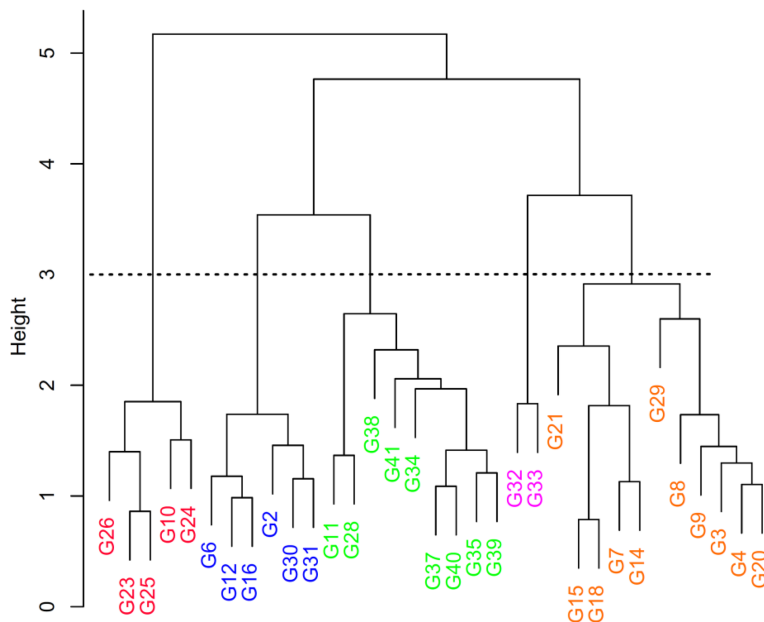


Figure A3. Cluster diagram of the site groups based on the plant functional type dataset.

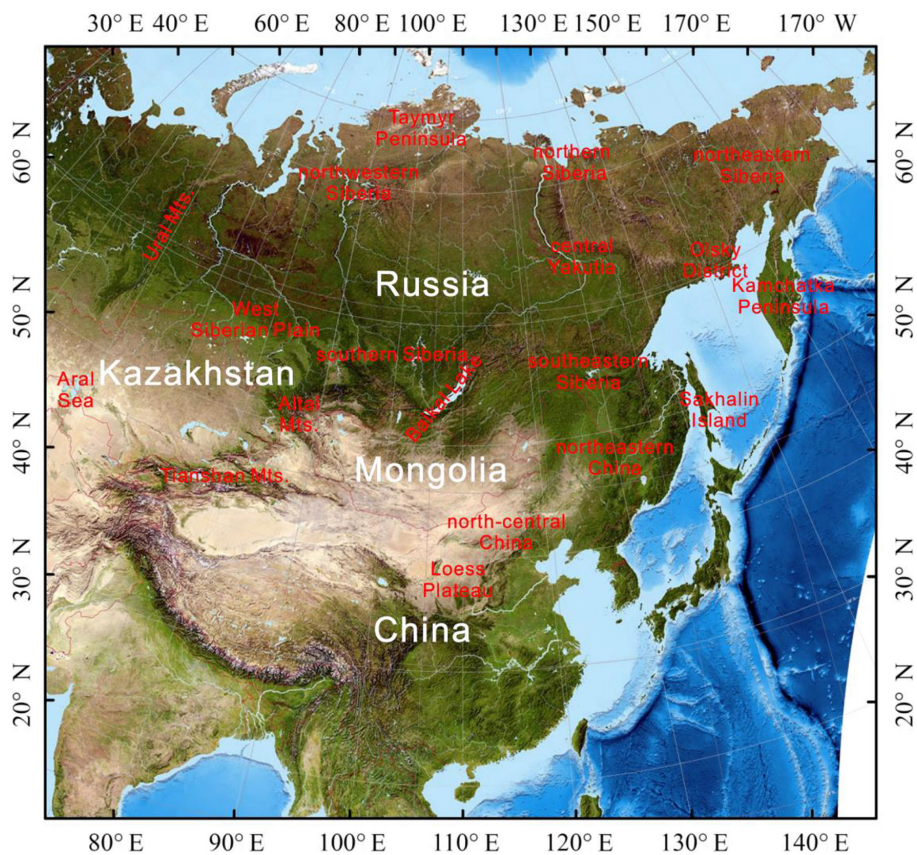
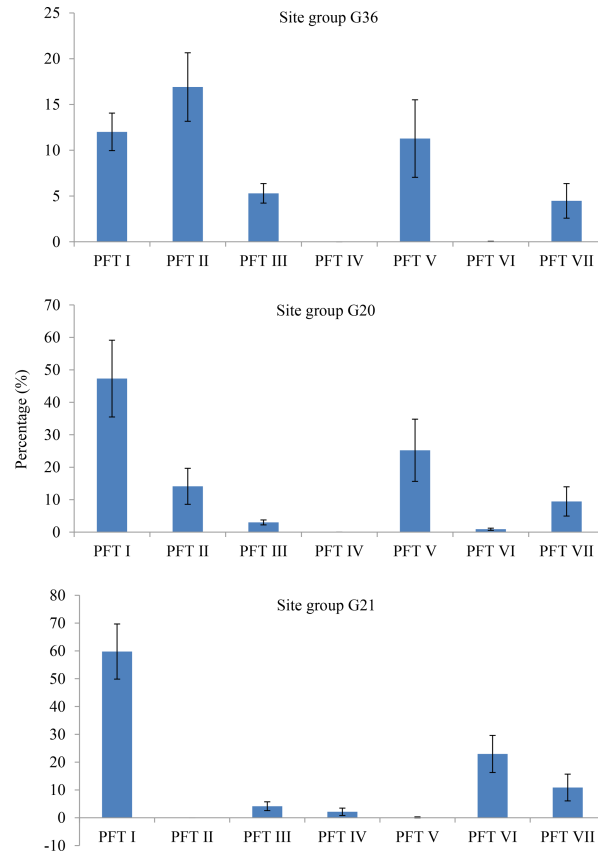
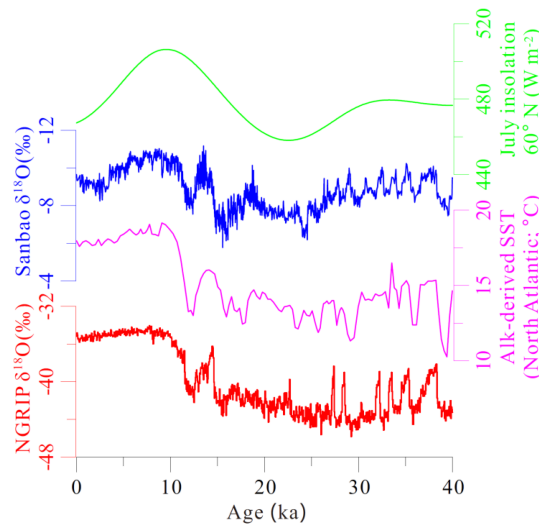


Figure A4. Map of the study area showing the geographic locations mentioned in the text.



**Figure A5.** Selected examples of standard errors for seven plant functional type (PFT) reconstructions at site groups G21, G20, and G36 at 6 ka.



**Figure A6.** Proxy-based climate reconstructions from the Northern Hemisphere and insolation variations during the last 40 ka cal BP discussed in the paper. NGRIP: the North Greenland Ice Core Project (Andersen et al., 2004); Sanbao cave (Cheng et al., 2016); Alkenone-derived sea-surface temperatures (SST) from deep-sea cores SU8118 and MD952042 (Pailler and Bard, 2002); solar insolation in July at 60° N (Laskar et al., 2004).



**Table A1.** Metadata for all pollen records used in this study. For a list of original publications, see <https://doi.pangaea.de/10.1594/PANGAEA.898616>.

Group	Site ID	Site	Lat.	Long.	Elev. (m)	Basin type	Pollen count	Area (ha)	Radius (m)	Dating method	No. of dating	Time span (ka calBP)	Resol. (yr)	Reference
G1	294	Aral Lake	44.42	59.98	53	Lake	Yes	330 000	32 410	<sup>14</sup> C	4U	8.7–0	260	Zoya V. Aleshinskaya (unpublished data)
G2	372	Mokhovoye	53.77	64.25	178	Bog	Yes	20	252	<sup>14</sup> C	4C+1E	6.0–0	180	Kremenetskii et al. (1994)
G2	439	Novienky peat bog	52.24	54.75	197	Bog	Yes	–	–	<sup>14</sup> C	1U	4.5–0	270	López-García et al. (2003)
G2	422	Zaboinoe Lake	55.53	62.37	275	Lake	Yes	6	138	<sup>14</sup> C	1U	12.3–0.1	220	Khomutova and Pushenko (1995)
G2	434	Lake Fernshee	52.83	60.50	290	Lake	Yes	0	38	<sup>14</sup> C	10A	9.1–0.4	220	Stobbe et al. (2015)
G2	390	Pobochnoye	53.03	51.84	81	Bog	No	79	500	<sup>14</sup> C	10C+6E	14.4–0	540	Kremenetski et al. (1999)
G3	311	Chesnok Peat	60.00	66.50	42	Bog	Yes	–	–	<sup>14</sup> C	7C	10.6–0.5	280	Volkova (1966)
G3	347	Komaritsa Peat	57.50	69.00	42	Bog	Yes	–	–	<sup>14</sup> C	10C	10.5–0.5	350	Volkova (1966)
G3	447	UstMashevskoe	56.32	57.88	220	Bog	Yes	30	309	<sup>14</sup> C	5C	7.8–0	150	Panova et al. (1996)
G3	339	Karasiozerskoe	56.77	60.75	230	Bog	Yes	914	1706	<sup>14</sup> C	3A	5.9–0.1	190	Panova (1990)
G4	378	Nulsaveito	67.53	70.17	57	Bog	Yes	–	–	<sup>14</sup> C	4A+1C	8.4–6.4	70	Panova (1990)
G4	367	Lyadhej-To Lake	68.25	65.75	150	Lake	Yes	197	792	<sup>14</sup> C	14A+6E	12.5–0.3	170	Andreev et al. (2005)
G5	169	Nizhnee Lake	41.30	72.95	1371	Lake	No	–	70	<sup>14</sup> C	4E	1.5–0	100	Beer et al. (2008)
G5	228	Verkhnee Lake	41.30	72.95	1440	Lake	No	1	60	<sup>14</sup> C	5E	1.5–0	100	Beer et al. (2008)
G5	3	Ak Terk Lake	41.28	72.83	1748	Bog	No	–	–	<sup>14</sup> C	2A	7.5–0	200	Beer et al. (2008)
G5	133	Kosh Sas	41.85	71.97	1786	Bog	No	–	–	<sup>14</sup> C	1A	3.5–0	100	Beer et al. (2008)
G5	170	Ortok Lake	41.23	73.25	1786	Lake	No	–	60	<sup>14</sup> C	5A	1–0	100	Beer et al. (2008)
G5	13	Bakaly Lake	41.87	71.97	1879	Lake	No	1	50	<sup>14</sup> C	4A	7–0	195	Beer et al. (2008)
G6	425	Big Yarvoe Lake	52.85	78.63	79	Lake	Yes	6362	4500	inclination with Lake Biwa	–	4.3–0	190	Rudaya et al. (2012)
G6	172	Ozerki	50.40	80.47	210	Bog	Yes	–	–	<sup>14</sup> C	3A+13C	14.5–0	300	Tarasov et al. (1997)
G6	127	Karas'e Lake	53.03	70.22	435	Lake	Yes	17	235	<sup>14</sup> C	6U	5.5–0	170	Tarasov and Kremenetskii (1995)
G6	136	Koyrkol	52.97	70.42	439	Bog	Yes	–	–	<sup>14</sup> C	8U	4.5–0.5	180	Tarasov and Kremenetskii (1995)
G6	173	Pashennoe Lake	49.37	75.40	871	Lake	Yes	64	451	<sup>14</sup> C	5D+5E	9.5–0	280	Tarasov and Kremenetskii (1995)
G7	81	Gladkoye Bog	55.00	83.33	80	Bog	Yes	–	–	<sup>14</sup> C	13C	11–0.5	170	Firsov et al. (1982)
G7	308	Chaginskoye Mire	56.45	84.88	80	Bog	Yes	10	175	<sup>14</sup> C	2C	8.8–0	320	Blyakharchuk (2003)
G7	345	Kirek Lake	56.10	84.22	90	Lake	Yes	52	407	<sup>14</sup> C	3G	10.5–1.5	190	Blyakharchuk (2003)
G7	413	Tom' River Peat	56.17	84.00	100	Bog	Yes	–	–	<sup>14</sup> C	6C	10.1–0.2	390	Arkhipov and Votakh (1980)
G7	423	Zhukovskoye mire	56.33	84.83	106	Bog	Yes	–	–	<sup>14</sup> C	9C+6H	11.2–0	130	Borisova et al. (2011)
G7	219	Tolmachevsko	55.00	84.00	110	Bog	Yes	–	–	<sup>14</sup> C	1A+3C	13–1.5	400	Volkov and Arkhipov (1978)
G7	207	Suminskoye	55.00	80.25	135	Bog	Yes	–	–	<sup>14</sup> C	8A	3–0	200	Klimanov (1976)
G7	129	Kayakskoye	55.00	81.00	150	Bog	Yes	–	–	<sup>14</sup> C	5C	6.5–0	210	Levina et al. (1987)
G7	448	Kalistrat'kha	53.33	83.25	190	Bog	Yes	–	–	<sup>14</sup> C	4A	39.0–12.7	1870	Zudin and Votakh (1977)
G8	389	Petropavlovka	58.33	82.50	100	Bog	Yes	–	–	<sup>14</sup> C	4C+1E	10.5–0.1	160	Blyakharchuk (1989)
G8	304	Bugristoe	58.25	85.17	130	Bog	Yes	–	–	LSC	4C+1E	11.5–5.0	100	Blyakharchuk (1989)
G8	369	Maksimkin Yar	58.33	88.17	150	Bog	Yes	–	–	<sup>14</sup> C	4C	8.3–0.2	170	Blyakharchuk (1989)
G8	412	Teguldet	57.33	88.17	150	Bog	Yes	–	–	LSC	3C	7.3–2.4	90	Blyakharchuk (1989)
G9	374	Nizhnevartovsk	62.00	76.67	54	Bog	Yes	–	–	<sup>14</sup> C	3A+7C	11.1–0	300	Neustadt and Zelikson (1985)
G9	375	Nizhnevartovskoye	61.25	77.00	55	Bog	Yes	–	–	<sup>14</sup> C	1A+12C+1E	12.6–0	380	Neishtadt (1976)
G9	327	Entamoye Peat	59.00	78.33	65	Bog	Yes	–	–	<sup>14</sup> C	5C	14.9–0.9	460	Neishtadt (1976)
G9	366	Lukashin Yar	61.00	78.50	65	Bog	Yes	–	–	<sup>14</sup> C	13C	10.9–0.3	430	Neishtadt (1976)
G10	334	Igarka Peat	67.67	86.00	45	Bog	Yes	244	881	<sup>14</sup> C	1A+2C	10.9–5.9	230	Kats (1953)
G10	392	Pur-Taz Peatland	66.70	79.73	50	Bog	Yes	5	126	<sup>14</sup> C	5A	10.3–4.7	80	Petecet et al. (1998)
G10	340	Karginiskii Cape	70.00	85.00	60	Bog	Yes	–	–	<sup>14</sup> C	13C	8.9–3.5	290	Firsov et al. (1972)

Table A1. Continued.

Group	Site ID	Site	Lat.	Long.	Elev. (m)	Basin type	Pollen count	Area (ha)	Radius (m)	Dating method	No. of dating	Time span (ka cal BP)	Resol. (yr)	Reference
G10	421	Yenisei	68.17	87.15	68	Bog	No	–	–	14C	7C	6.5–1.6	110	Andreev and Klimanov (2000)
G10	357	Lake Lama	69.53	90.20	77	Lake	Yes	64 245	14 300	14C	26A+4D+4E	19.5–0	170	Andreev et al. (2004)
G11	471	11-CH-12A Lake	72.40	102.29	60	Lake	Yes	3	100	14C+Pb/Cs	8A+7E	7.0–0.1	110	Klemm et al. (2016)
G11	364	Levinson-Lessing Lake	74.47	98.64	26	Lake	Yes	2145	2613	14C	29A+1B+19E	35.3–0	390	Andreev et al. (2003)
G11	395	SAOI	74.55	100.53	32	Lake	Yes	456 000	38 098	14C	6A+5C	57.9–0	1320	Andreev et al. (2003)
G12	462	Abbi Lake	45.02	82.83	200	Lake	Yes	100 885	17 920	14C	8E	12.6–0	65	Wang et al. (2013)
G12	69	Ebinur Lake	44.55	82.45	212	Lake	Yes	46 421	12 156	14C	7U	13–0	900	Wen and Qiao (1990)
G12	70	Ebinur Lake_SW	45.00	82.80	212	Lake	Yes	46 421	12 156	14C	6U	8.5–1.5	780	Lin (1994)
G12	26	Caotianhu Lake	44.42	86.02	380	Bog	Yes	2760	2964	14C	5C	8.5–0	150	Zhang et al. (2008)
G12	63	Dongdaohazi Lake	44.70	89.56	430	Lake	Yes	2000	2523	14C	8U	5.5–0	85	Yan et al. (2004)
G12	201	Sichanghu Lake	44.31	89.14	589	Lake	Yes	2000	2523	14C	4U	1–0	50	Zhang et al. (2004)
G12	22	Bosten Lake	41.97	86.55	1050	Lake	No	96 608	17 536	14C	5U	13–0	420	Xu (1998)
G12	28	Chaiwopu Lake	43.55	87.78	1100	Lake	No	3101	3142	14C	2U	10–0	845	Li and Yan (1990)
G12	278	Sayram Lake	44.57	81.15	2072	Lake	Yes	45 800	12 074	14C	4U	13.8–0.1	90	Jiang et al. (2013)
G13	153	Manas Lake	45.83	85.92	251	Lake	Yes	55 000	13 231	14C	7C	13.5–1	210	Sun et al. (1994)
G13	235	Wulumu Lake	47.22	87.30	479	Lake	Yes	67 019	430	14C+Pb/Cs	1C	9–0	80	X. Q. Liu et al. (2008)
G14	214	Teletskoye Lake	51.72	87.65	1900	Lake	Yes	16 610	7271	14C+Pb/Cs	6E	1–0	20	Andreev et al. (2007)
G14	227	Uzunkol Lake	50.48	87.11	1985	Lake	No	123	625	14C	2A	17.5–0	210	Biyakharchuk et al. (2004)
G14	130	Kendegeltkol Lake	50.51	87.64	2050	Lake	No	5	130	14C	7E	16–1	260	Biyakharchuk et al. (2004)
G14	105	Holon Nur Lake	48.62	88.35	2083	Lake	Yes	5021	3998	14C	4A	6–0	60	Rudaya et al. (2009)
G14	213	Tashkol Lake	50.45	87.67	2150	Lake	No	–	150	14C	3C	16–3	250	Biyakharchuk et al. (2004)
G14	83	Grusha Lake	50.25	89.63	2204	Lake	No	388	1111	14C	12E	13.5–0	250	Biyakharchuk et al. (2007)
G14	147	Lop Nur_1983	40.33	90.25	800	Lake	Yes	535 000	41 267	14C	3A+13E	14–1.5	250	Biyakharchuk et al. (2007)
G16	16	Barkol Lake	43.62	92.80	1575	Lake	Yes	11 300	5997	14C	1A+10E	10–0	115	Tao et al. (2009)
G16	466	Balkun Lake	43.68	92.80	1575	Lake	Yes	7897	5014	14C	1D+5E	30.5–9	250	An et al. (2013)
G17	126	Juyan Lake	41.89	101.85	892	Lake	Yes	72 000	15 139	14C	5E	10.5–1.5	140	Hertzschub et al. (2004)
G18	88	Gun Nur Lake	50.25	106.60	600	Lake	No	33	325	14C	7E	11–0	320	Gunin et al. (1999)
G18	249	Yamant Nur Lake	49.90	102.60	1000	Lake	No	58	430	14C	4E	15.5–0.5	360	Gunin et al. (1999)
G18	224	Ugii Nur Lake	47.77	102.77	1330	Lake	No	2456	2796	14C	2C	9–0	85	Wang et al. (2011)
G18	66	Dood Nur Lake	51.33	99.38	1538	Lake	No	6400	4514	14C	2E	14–0	740	Gunin et al. (1999)
G18	106	Hovsgol Lake	51.10	100.50	1645	Lake	Yes	276 000	29 640	14C	5E	12–2.5	190	Prokopenko et al. (2007)
G18	276	Khuisin Lake	46.60	101.80	2270	Lake	Yes	4	118	14C+Pb/Cs	6E	1.2–0	17	Tian et al. (2013)
G19	328	Bolshoe Eravnoe Lake	52.58	111.67	947	Lake	Yes	9503	5500	14C	5E	13–0	520	Gunin et al. (1999)
G20	10	Baikal Lake	52.08	105.87	130	Lake	No	3 150 000	1001 34	14C	3E	7.3–0.2	710	Vipper (2010)
G20	296	Baikal Lake-CON01-603-5	53.95	108.91	446	Lake	Yes	3 150 000	1001 34	14C	12A	22–0	370	Denske et al. (2005)
G20	135	Lake Kotokel_2010	52.78	108.12	458	Lake	Yes	6900	4687	14C	10D	15.8–0	270	Denske et al. (2005)
G20	135	Lake Kotokel_2010	52.78	108.12	458	Lake	Yes	6900	4687	14C	11E	47–0	220	Bezrukova et al. (2010)

Table A1. Continued.

Group	Site ID	Site	Lat.	Long.	Elev. (m)	Basin type	Pollen count	Area (ha)	Radius (m)	Dating method	No. of dating	Time span (ka calBP)	Resol. (yr)	Reference
G20	134	Lake Kotoke1_2009	52.78	108.12	458	Lake	Yes	6900	4687	<sup>14</sup> C	3E	15–0	500	Tarasov et al. (2009)
G20	310	Chernoe Lake	50.95	106.63	500	Lake	Yes	–	250	<sup>14</sup> C	4E	7–0.7	620	Vipper (2010)
G20	297	Baikal Lake-CON01-605-3	51.59	104.85	675	Lake	Yes	3 150 000	100 134	<sup>14</sup> C	5D	17.7–0	200	Demske et al. (2005)
G20	380	Okunayka	55.52	108.47	802	Bog	Yes	–	–	<sup>14</sup> C	6C	8.3–2.0	120	Bezrukova et al. (2011)
G20	446	Ukta Creek mouth	55.80	109.70	906	Bog	Yes	–	–	<sup>14</sup> C	3U	5.1–0	160	Bezrukova et al. (2006)
G20	450	Cheremushka Bog	52.75	108.08	1500	Bog	Yes	–	–	<sup>14</sup> C	6C	33.5–0	460	Shichi et al. (2009)
G20	298	Baikal Lake-CON01-605-5	51.58	104.85	492	Lake	Yes	3 150 000	100 134	<sup>14</sup> C	12D	11.5–0	130	Demske et al. (2005)
G20	341	Khanda-1	55.44	107.00	867	Bog	Yes	–	–	<sup>14</sup> C	3C	3.1–0.3	50	Bezrukova et al. (2011)
G20	342	Khanda	55.44	107.00	867	Bog	Yes	–	–	<sup>14</sup> C	6C	5.8–0	140	Bezrukova et al. (2011)
G21	275	Qiganhu Lake	42.90	119.30	600	Lake	Yes	190	778	<sup>14</sup> C	5E	12.1–6.7	35	Hu et al. (2016)
G21	232	Wangyanggou	42.07	119.92	751	Lake	No	13	200	<sup>14</sup> C	1A+3E	5–0	85	Li et al. (2006)
G21	230	Wangguantun	40.27	113.67	800	Bog	Yes	–	–	<sup>14</sup> C	1A+4F	8–3	310	Kong and Du (1996)
G21	6	Anguli Nur Lake	41.33	114.37	1000	Lake	Yes	4264	3684	<sup>14</sup> C	2U	14–10.5	520	Li et al. (1990)
G21	178	Qasq	40.67	111.13	1000	Bog	Yes	–	–	<sup>14</sup> C	2E	10–0	90	Wang et al. (1998)
G21	47	Daihai Lake_2004	40.58	112.67	1220	Lake	Yes	16 000	7136	<sup>14</sup> C	8E	11.5–0	215	Xiao et al. (2004)
G21	80	Gaoximage Lake	42.95	115.37	1253	Lake	No	100 000	17 841	<sup>14</sup> C	4E	6–0	150	Li et al. (2003)
G21	95	Haoluku Lake	42.96	116.76	1295	Lake	No	1384	2099	<sup>14</sup> C	4E	11.5–0	250	Wang et al. (2001)
G21	17	Bayanchagan Lake	41.65	115.21	1355	Lake	Yes	636	1423	<sup>14</sup> C	2B+7E	11.5–0	250	Jiang et al. (2006)
G21	144	Liuzhouwan Lake	42.71	116.68	1365	Lake	No	288	957	<sup>14</sup> C	3E	13–0.5	470	Wang et al. (2001)
G21	60	Diaojiolhaizi Lake	41.30	112.35	1800	Lake	Yes	30	309	<sup>14</sup> C	4U	11.5–2.5	95	Song et al. (1996)
G22	112	Hulun Nur Lake_1995	49.28	117.40	544	Lake	No	233 900	27 286	<sup>14</sup> C	7U	19–0.5	190	Yang et al. (1995)
G22	113	Hulun Nur Lake_2006	49.13	117.51	545	Lake	Yes	233 900	27 286	<sup>14</sup> C	13E	11–0	65	Wen et al. (2010)
G23	314	Derput	57.03	124.12	700	Bog	Yes	1	56	<sup>14</sup> C	1A+4C	11.7–0.8	210	Andreev and Klimanov (1991)
G23	409	Suoliakh	57.05	123.85	811	Bog	Yes	–	–	<sup>14</sup> C	8C	12.8–3.7	180	Andreev and Klimanov (1991)
G24	379	Nuoehaga Lake	61.30	129.55	260	Lake	Yes	120	618	<sup>14</sup> C	4E	6.5–0	140	Andreev and Klimanov (1989)
G24	307	Chabada Lake	61.98	129.37	290	Lake	Yes	210	818	<sup>14</sup> C	15U	13–0	110	Andreev and Klimanov (1989)
G25	305	Boguda Lake	63.67	123.25	120	Lake	Yes	2500	2821	<sup>14</sup> C	7E	10.9–0.4	180	Andreev et al. (1989)
G25	344	Khomustakh Lake	63.82	121.62	120	Lake	Yes	440	1183	<sup>14</sup> C	9E	12.3–0.1	170	Andreev et al. (1989)
G25	368	Madjaga Lake	64.83	120.97	160	Lake	Yes	1440	2141	LSC	7E	8.2–0.2	120	Andreev and Klimanov (1989)
G25	302	Billyakh Lake	65.30	126.78	340	Lake	Yes	1678	2311	<sup>14</sup> C	7A	14.1–0	180	Müller et al. (2009)
G25	426	Lake Billyakh_PG1755	65.27	126.75	340	Lake	Yes	1634	2281	<sup>14</sup> C	1A+10E	50.6–0.2	470	Müller et al. (2010)
G26	440	Lake Kyutyunda_PG2022	69.63	123.65	66	Lake	Yes	468	1220	<sup>14</sup> C	10E	10.8–0.3	360	Biskaborn et al. (2016)
G27	435	Khocho	71.05	136.25	6	Bog	Yes	10	178	<sup>14</sup> C	1C	10.4–0.4	300	Velichko et al. (1994)
G27	441	Samandon	70.77	136.25	10	Bog	Yes	100	564	<sup>14</sup> C	3A+8C+4E	7.9–0.2	280	Velichko et al. (1994)
G28	299	Barbarina Tumsa	73.57	123.35	10	Bog	Yes	–	–	<sup>14</sup> C	4C	4.9–0.3	240	Andreev et al. (2004)
G28	373	Lake Nikolay	73.67	124.25	35	Lake	Yes	1500	2185	<sup>14</sup> C	6A	12.5–0	600	Andreev et al. (2004)
G28	318	Dolgoe Ozero	71.87	127.07	12	Lake	Yes	84	517	<sup>14</sup> C	1A+9B	15.3–0	210	Pisarcic et al. (2001b)
G29	152	Maili	42.87	122.88	155	Bog	No	–	–	<sup>14</sup> C	5A	3–0	115	Ren and Zhang (1997)
G29	54	Dashan	44.88	124.85	200	Bog	Yes	–	–	<sup>14</sup> C	5U	7.5–1	160	Xia et al. (1993)
G29	240	Xiaonan	43.88	125.22	209	Bog	Yes	–	–	<sup>14</sup> C	5U	5.5–0	290	Wang and Xia (1988)
G29	197	Shuangyang	43.45	125.75	215	Bog	Yes	–	–	<sup>14</sup> C	12E	2.5–0	30	Qiu et al. (1981)
G29	34	Charisu	42.95	122.35	249	Bog	Yes	–	–	<sup>14</sup> C	10A	5.5–0	170	Li et al. (2003b)

Table A1. Continued.

Group	Site ID	Site	Lat.	Long.	Elev. (m)	Basin type	Pollen count	Area (ha)	Radius (m)	Dating method	No. of dating	Time span (ka cal BP)	Resol. (yr)	Reference
G29	463	Jingbo Lake	43.91	128.75	350	Lake	Yes	9500	5499	<sup>14</sup> C+ <sup>14</sup> SC	3E+4	8.8–0	40	Li et al. (2011)
G29	96	Harbaling	43.63	129.20	600	Bog	Yes	–	–	<sup>14</sup> C	3U	3–0	150	Xia (1988b)
G29	122	Jimehuan	42.35	126.38	620	Bog	Yes	–	–	<sup>14</sup> C	7A	5.5–0	105	Li et al. (2003a)
G29	72	Erbailongwan Lake	42.30	126.37	724	Lake	Yes	30	309	<sup>14</sup> C	2A+14E	22–0	760	Y. Y. Liu et al. (2008)
G29	288	Shailongwan Lake	42.28	126.60	797	Lake	Yes	41	360	<sup>14</sup> C+varve	40A	16.9–0.2	47	Stebich et al. (2015)
G29	94	Hani	42.21	126.52	899	Bog	Yes	1800	2394	<sup>14</sup> C	1C	9.5–0	455	Qiao (1993)
G29	37	Chichi Lake	42.03	128.13	1800	Bog	Yes	0	40	<sup>14</sup> C	1C	1–0	140	Xu et al. (1994)
G30	21	Belaya Skala	43.25	134.57	4	Bog	Yes	–	–	<sup>14</sup> C	2A+1C	6.5–3	250	Korotky et al. (1980)
G30	36	Chernyii Yar	43.18	134.43	4	Bog	Yes	–	–	<sup>14</sup> C	4C	10–0.5	260	Korotky et al. (1980)
G30	218	Tikhangou	42.83	132.78	4	Bog	Yes	–	–	<sup>14</sup> C	5U	12–0	500	Korotky et al. (1980)
G30	5	Amba River	43.32	131.82	5	Bog	Yes	–	–	<sup>14</sup> C	1A+1C+1U	5–2.5	300	Korotky et al. (1980)
G30	186	Ryazanovka	42.83	131.37	6	Bog	Yes	–	–	<sup>14</sup> C	7A	6–0.5	540	Shilo (1987)
G30	171	Ovrzhnyii Peschanka	43.25	134.57	8	Bog	Yes	–	–	<sup>14</sup> C	3A	7–1	200	Shilo (1987)
G30	175	Peschanka	43.30	132.12	12	Bog	Yes	–	–	<sup>14</sup> C	3U	22–11	965	Anderson and Lozhkin (2002)
G30	464	Xingkai Lake	45.21	132.51	69	Lake	Yes	419 000	36 520	<sup>14</sup> C+Pb/Cs	3E	28.5–0	150	Ji et al. (2015)
G31	220	Tongjiang	47.65	132.50	49	Bog	Yes	–	–	<sup>14</sup> C	5C	6–0	130	Zhang and Yang (2002)
G31	40	Chuangye	48.33	134.47	50	Bog	Yes	–	–	<sup>14</sup> C	3U	12–1	400	Xia (1988a)
G31	161	Minzhongqiao	47.53	133.87	52	Bog	Yes	–	–	<sup>14</sup> C	4U	6.5–0.5	420	Xia (1988a)
G31	180	Qindeli	47.88	133.67	52	Bog	Yes	–	–	<sup>14</sup> C	1F+7U	13.5–0.5	380	Xia (1988a)
G31	18	Beidawan	48.13	134.70	60	Bog	Yes	8	157	<sup>14</sup> C	3U	5.5–0.5	350	Xia (1988a)
G31	234	Wuchanghai	47.22	127.33	200	Bog	Yes	–	–	<sup>14</sup> C	9E	7–0	250	Xia (1988b)
G31	212	Tangbei	48.35	129.67	486	Bog	Yes	–	–	<sup>14</sup> C	2A	5.5–1	160	Xia (1996)
G32	417	Yenyukovka-3	47.12	138.58	5	Bog	Yes	–	–	<sup>14</sup> C	1A+2C	5.8–3.2	140	Korotky et al. (1980)
G32	418	Yenyukovka-2	47.03	138.58	6	Bog	Yes	–	–	<sup>14</sup> C	1A+1C	3.6–0.4	140	Korotky et al. (1980)
G32	384	Oumi	48.22	138.40	990	Bog	Yes	–	–	<sup>14</sup> C	5C	2.6–0.4	80	Anderson and Lozhkin (2002)
G32	382	Opasnaya River	48.23	138.48	1320	Bog	Yes	–	–	<sup>14</sup> C	7C	13.3–6.7	360	Korotky et al. (1988)
G33	335	Ilinka Terrace	47.97	142.17	3	Bog	Yes	–	–	<sup>14</sup> C	2C+1F	2.6–1.1	360	Korotky et al. (1997)
G33	371	Mereya River	46.62	142.92	4	Bog	Yes	–	–	<sup>14</sup> C	2C+2F	42.0–0.8	1530	Anderson and Lozhkin (2002)
G33	401	Sergeevskii	49.23	142.08	6	Bog	Yes	–	–	<sup>14</sup> C	8A+1C	8.4–2.2	110	Korotky et al. (1997)
G34	332	Gurskii Peat	50.07	137.08	15	Bog	Yes	–	–	<sup>14</sup> C	7C	13.1–1.5	380	Korotky (1982)
G34	453	Gur Bog	50.00	137.05	35	Bog	No	–	–	<sup>14</sup> C	13C	22.1–0	340	Mokhova et al. (2009)
G34	223	Tuqtang	52.23	122.80	400	Bog	Yes	–	–	<sup>14</sup> C	10A+14E+8F	3–1	125	Xia (1996)
G34	398	Selikan-2	53.22	135.03	1300	Bog	Yes	–	–	<sup>14</sup> C	4C	6.4–1.9	260	Volkov and Arkhipov (1978)
G34	397	Selikan-1	53.22	135.05	1320	Bog	Yes	–	–	<sup>14</sup> C	6C	7.9–0	140	Korotky et al. (1985)
G35	443	Two-Yurts Lake_PGI856-3	56.82	160.04	275	Lake	Yes	1168	1928	<sup>14</sup> C	5A	6.0–2.8	140	Hoff et al. (2015)
G35	444	Two-Yurts Lake_PGI857-2	56.82	160.07	275	Lake	Yes	1168	1928	<sup>14</sup> C	5A	2.5–0.1	130	Hoff et al. (2015)
G35	445	Two-Yurts Lake_PGI857-5	56.82	160.07	275	Lake	Yes	1168	1928	<sup>14</sup> C	5A	4.4–2.5	120	Hoff et al. (2015)
G35	455	Lake Sokoch	53.25	157.75	495	Lake	Yes	41	363	<sup>14</sup> C	8E	9.7–0.3	250	Dirksen et al. (2012)
G36	330	Glukhoye Lake	59.75	149.92	10	Bog	Yes	–	–	<sup>14</sup> C	5C	9.4–3.4	1000	Lozhkin et al. (1990)
G36	312	Christoye Lake	59.55	151.83	91	Bog	Yes	–	–	<sup>14</sup> C	5C	7.0–0	540	Anderson et al. (1997)
G36	363	Lesnoye Lake	59.58	151.87	95	Lake	Yes	13	200	<sup>14</sup> C	8A	15.5–0	400	Anderson et al. (1997)



Table A1. Continued.

Group	Site ID	Site	Lat.	Long.	Elev. (m)	Basin type	Pollen count	Area (ha)	Radius (m)	Dating method	No. of dating	Time span (ka cal BP)	Resol. (yr)	Reference
G36	388	Pepel'noye Lake	59.85	150.62	115	Lake	Yes	0	18	<sup>14</sup> C	2A	4.3–0	180	Lozhkin et al. (2000)
G36	290	Alut Lake	60.14	152.31	480	Lake	Yes	63	448	<sup>14</sup> C	16A+9B	50.4–0	430	Anderson et al. (1998)
G36	391	Podkova Lake	59.96	152.10	660	Lake	Yes	114	602	<sup>14</sup> C	5A	6.0–0	220	Anderson et al. (1997)
G36	370	Maltan River	60.88	151.62	735	Bog	Yes	–	–	<sup>14</sup> C	4A+7C	12.0–9.4	120	Lozhkin and Glushkova (1997)
G36	411	Taloye Lake	61.02	152.33	750	Lake	Yes	16	227	<sup>14</sup> C	7A	10.3–0	290	Lozhkin et al. (2000)
G36	333	Elikhan 4 Lake	60.75	151.88	810	Lake	Yes	329	1023	<sup>14</sup> C	16U	55.5–0	440	Lozhkin and Anderson (1995)
G36	321	Goluboye Lake	61.12	152.27	810	Lake	Yes	12	192	<sup>14</sup> C	11A+2B	9.7–0	240	Lozhkin et al. (2000)
G36	470	Julietta Lake	61.34	154.56	880	Lake	Yes	11	189	<sup>14</sup> C	2A+4E+1I	36.1–1.4	270	Anderson et al. (2010)
G36	321	Elgennya Lake	62.08	149.00	1040	Lake	Yes	455	1204	<sup>14</sup> C	6A	16.0–0	310	Lozhkin et al. (1996b)
G37	405	Smorodnovoje Lake	64.77	141.12	800	Lake	Yes	27	293	<sup>14</sup> C	6A+5F	27.1–0	360	Anderson et al. (1998)
G37	416	Vechernii River	63.28	147.75	800	Bog	Yes	–	–	<sup>14</sup> C	IF	14.4–0.1	380	Anderson and Lozhkin (2002)
G37	338	Jack London Lake	62.17	149.50	820	Lake	Yes	1213	1965	<sup>14</sup> C	7F	19.5–0.2	320	Lozhkin et al. (1993)
G37	406	Sosednee Lake	62.17	149.50	822	Lake	Yes	82	510	<sup>14</sup> C	4E+1F	26.3–0	640	Lozhkin et al. (1993)
G37	393	Rock Island Lake	62.03	149.59	849	Lake	Yes	5	124	<sup>14</sup> C	2E	6.6–0	470	Lozhkin et al. (1993)
G37	381	Oldcamp Lake	62.04	149.59	853	Lake	Yes	7	150	<sup>14</sup> C	2E	3.7–0	370	Patricia M. Anderson (unpublished data)
G37	329	Gek Lake	63.52	147.93	969	Lake	Yes	2392	2759	<sup>14</sup> C	8A+1B	9.6–0	440	Stetsenko (1998)
G37	433	Figumoye Lake	62.10	149.00	1053	Lake	Yes	439	1182	<sup>14</sup> C	4A	1.3–0	30	Lozhkin et al. (1996a)
G38	353	Kuropatoch'ya_Kurop7	70.67	156.75	7	Bog	Yes	–	–	<sup>14</sup> C	3C	5.7–0.4	760	Anderson and Lozhkin (2002)
G38	354	Kuropatoch'ya_Kurpeat	69.97	156.38	47	Bog	Yes	–	–	<sup>14</sup> C	1A+4C	11.7–7.5	430	Lozhkin and Vazhenina (1987)
G39	322	El'gytygn Lake	67.50	172.10	496	Lake	No	9503	5500	polarity	–	20.2–1.5	650	Meltes et al. (2012)
G39	325	Enmyvneem_mammoth	68.17	165.93	400	Bog	Yes	50	399	<sup>14</sup> C	2C+2F	36.4–9.3	2470	Lozhkin et al. (1988)
G39	326	Enmyvvaam River	67.42	172.08	490	Bog	Yes	18	239	<sup>14</sup> C	1A+4C	10.6–4.3	630	Lozhkin and Vazhenina (1987)
G39	324	Enmyvneem River	68.25	166.00	500	Bog	Yes	–	–	<sup>14</sup> C	4C	10.7–4.0	420	Anderson and Lozhkin (2002)
G40	454	Malyi Krechet Lake	64.80	175.53	32	Lake	Yes	125	630	<sup>14</sup> C	12A	9.6–0	400	Lozhkin and Anderson (2013)
G40	456	Meikoye Lake	64.86	175.23	36	Lake	Yes	1870	2440	<sup>14</sup> C	21E	39.1–0	1260	Lozhkin and Anderson (2013)
G40	460	Sunset Lake	64.84	175.30	36	Lake	Yes	240	874	<sup>14</sup> C	7A	14.0–0	260	Lozhkin and Anderson (2013)
G40	333	Gygykai Lake	63.42	176.57	102	Lake	Yes	99	561	<sup>14</sup> C	1A+8E	32.3–0	470	Lozhkin et al. (1998)
G41	436	Kotergino	63.33	176.50	121	Lake	Yes	40	357	<sup>14</sup> C	3A+7E	19.1–0	290	Anderson and Lozhkin (2015)
G41	365	Lorino	65.50	–178.90	10	Bog	Yes	–	–	<sup>14</sup> C	IC	9.8–0	900	Ivanov et al. (1984)
G41	317	Dlinnoye Lake	65.50	–171.70	12	Bog	Yes	–	–	<sup>14</sup> C	3C	17.9–5.1	850	Ivanov (1986)
G41	431	Dikikh Olyenyevii Lake	67.75	–178.83	280	Lake	Yes	71	476	<sup>14</sup> C	3A	1.3–0	130	Anderson and Lozhkin (2002)
G42	427	Blossom Cape	70.68	178.95	6	Bog	Yes	–	–	<sup>14</sup> C	1A+4C	50.3–0	1050	Anderson and Lozhkin (2002)
G42	420	Wrangle Island_Jack London Lake	70.83	–179.75	7	Lake	Yes	69	469	<sup>14</sup> C	IC	13.8–0.2	3400	Oganesyan et al. (1993)
G42	419	Wrangel Island	71.17	–179.75	200	Bog	Yes	–	–	<sup>14</sup> C	5A+1E	16.1–0.3	790	Lozhkin et al. (2001)
G42	419	Wrangel Island	71.17	–179.75	200	Bog	Yes	–	–	<sup>14</sup> C	17A+3C	13.7–10.2	110	Lozhkin et al. (2001)

LSC: liquid-scintillation counting; A: terrestrial plant macrofossil; B: non-terrestrial plant macrofossil; C: peat; D: pollen; U: unknown; E: total organic matter from silt; F: animal remains or shell; G: charcoal; H: CaCO<sub>3</sub>; I: tephra.

**Table A2.** Pollen productivity estimates (PPEs) with their standard errors (SEs) for 27 pollen taxa from 20 study areas. Estimates where  $SE \geq PPE$  were excluded from the calculation of mean PPE and are shown in italics.

Country	Poland	Russia	Sweden	Sweden	Switzerland	Switzerland	Switzerland	Sweden	Finland	Estonia
Region	Bratowieza Forest	Khatanga region	Southern Sweden	Southern Sweden	Swiss Plateau	Alps	Jura Mountains	Sweden west-central	Fennoscandia	South-east
Sample type	Moss	Moss	Moss	Moss	Lake	Trap	Moss	Moss	Moss	Lake
Reference	Baker et al. (2016)	Niemeyer et al. (2015)	Broström et al. (2004)	Sugia et al. (1999)	Soepboer et al. (2007)	Sjogren et al. (2008)	Mazier et al. (2008)	von Steedingk et al. (2008)	Räsänen et al. (2007)	Poska et al. (2011)
Model	ERV-3	ERV-2	ERV-3	ERV-3	ERV-3	–	ERV-1	ERV-3	ERV-3	ERV-1
Poaceae	1 (0.00)	1 (0.00)	1 (0.00)	1 (0.00)	1 (0.00)	1 (0.00)	1 (0.00)	1 (0.00)	1 (0.00)	1 (0.00)
<i>Abies</i>					9.92 (2.86)		3.83 (0.37)			
<i>Pinus</i>	23.12 (0.24)			5.66 (0.00)	1.35 (0.45)	9 (0.00)		21.58 (2.87)	8.4 (1.34)	5.07 (0.06)
<i>Picea</i>				1.76 (0.00)	0.57 (0.16)	0.5 (0.00)	7.1 (0.2)	2.78 (0.21)		4.73 (0.13)
<i>Larix</i>		<i>0.000009 (0.1)</i>				1.4 (0.00)				
<i>Alnus_tree</i>	15.95 (0.66)			4.2 (0.14)		20 (0.00)				13.93 (0.15)
<i>Betula_tree</i>	13.94 (0.23)			8.87 (0.13)	2.42 (0.39)			2.24 (0.2)	4.6 (0.7)	1.81 (0.02)
<i>Juglans</i>				0.67 (0.03)	1.39 (0.21)					
<i>Fraxinus</i>				7.53 (0.08)	2.56 (0.39)					7.39 (0.2)
<i>Quercus</i>	18.47 (0.10)			0.8 (0.03)						
<i>Tilia</i>	0.98 (0.03)									
<i>Ulmus</i>										
<i>Alnus_shrub</i>		6.42 (0.42)								
<i>Betula_shrub</i>		1.8 (0.26)								
<i>Carpinus</i>	4.48 (0.03)				4.56 (0.85)					
<i>Corylus</i>	1.35 (0.05)			1.4 (0.04)	2.58 (0.25)					
<i>Salix</i>		0.03 (0.03)		1.27 (0.31)				0.09 (0.03)		2.31 (0.08)
Ericaceae		0.33 (0.03)						0.07 (0.04)		
<i>Ephedra</i>										
Cyperaceae		0.53 (0.06)								
<i>Artemisia</i>			1 (0.16)						0.002 (0.0022)	1.23 (0.09)
Chenopodiaceae										3.48 (0.19)
Asteraceae					0.17 (0.03)					
<i>Thalictrum</i>										
Ranunculaceae										
Caryophyllaceae										
Brassicaceae										

Table A2. Continued.

Country Region	Czech Rep. Central Bohemia	Norway South	Greenland Southern	England Calthorpe	England Wheatfen	Germany Brandenburg	China Tibetan Plateau	China Xilinhaote	China Shandong	China Changbai Mt.
Sample type Reference	Moss Abraham and Kozáková (2012)	Lake Hjelle and Sugita (2011)	Moss Bunting et al. (2013)	Moss Bunting et al. (2005)	Moss Bunting et al. (2005)	Lake Matthias et al. (2012)	Lake Wang and Herzschuh (2011)	Soil Xu et al. (2014)	Moss Li et al. (2017)	Moss Li et al. (2015)
Model	ERV-1	ERV-3	ERV-1	Average	Average	allFIDage_ERV3	ERV-2	ERV2	ERV-3	–
Poaceae	1 (0.00)	1 (0.00)	1 (0.00)	1 (0.00)	1 (0.00)	1 (0.00)	1 (0.00)	1 (0.00)	1 (0.00)	–
<i>Abies</i>										
<i>Pinus</i>	6.17 (0.41)	5.73 (0.07)				5.2 (0.00)		8.96 (0.23)	15.2079 (0.489)	
<i>Picea</i>		1.2 (0.04)				1.456 (0.05)				
<i>Larix</i>						8.06 (0.32)				1.47 (0.19)
<i>Alnus</i> tree	2.56 (0.32)	3.22 (0.22)		10.564 (0.00)	4.028 (0.00)	14.248 (0.22)				24.65 (0.73)
<i>Betula</i> tree			3.7 (0.4)	9.804 (0.00)		8.84 (0.34)			0.3 (0.05)	9.49 (0.44)
<i>Juglans</i>									4.89 (0.16)	3.72 (0.68)
<i>Fraxinus</i>	1.11 (0.09)			1.14 (0.00)	0.076 (0.00)	6.188 (0.12)				0.78 (0.19)
<i>Quercus</i>	1.76 (0.2)	1.3 (0.1)		7.6 (0.00)	7.6 (0.00)	1.976 (0.03)				6.85 (1.71)
<i>Tilia</i>	1.36 (0.26)					1.352 (0.04)				
<i>Ulmus</i>								11.5 (1.09)		
<i>Alnus</i> shrub										
<i>Betula</i> shrub			1.4 (0.05)							
<i>Carpinus</i>						8.684 (0.09)				
<i>Corylus</i>					1.216 (0.00)					
<i>Salix</i>	1.19 (0.12)	0.62 (0.11)	0.8 (0.002)	1.748 (0.00)	2.736 (0.00)					
Ericaceae										
<i>Ephedra</i>										
Cyperaceae								0.96 (0.14)		
<i>Artemisia</i>	2.77 (0.39)	1.37 (0.21)	0.95 (0.05)				0.65 (0.4)	0.94 (0.079)	0.21 (0.07)	
Chenopodiaceae	4.28 (0.27)						3.2 (0.6)	11.21 (0.31)	24.7 (0.36)	
Asteraceae							5.3 (1.1)	6.74 (0.79)	1.06 (0.21)	
<i>Thalictrum</i>								0.39 (0.16)		
Ranunculaceae			4.65 (0.3)					3.06 (0.42)		
Caryophyllaceae			1.95 (0.1)							
Brassicaceae			0.6 (0.05)							
								7.48 (0.33)		0.89 (0.18)

**Table A3.** Number of pollen records from large lakes ( $\geq 390$  m radius; represented by L), small lakes ( $< 390$  m radius; represented by S), and bogs (B) for each site group used to run REVEALS for each time slice. For example, site group G6 has 2 large lake records, 1 small lake record, and 2 bog records at 4 ka (represented by 2L1S2B).

Group	0 ka	0.2 ka	0.5 ka	1 ka	2 ka	3 ka	4 ka	5 ka	6 ka	7 ka	8 ka	9 ka	10 ka	11 ka	12 ka	14 ka	21 ka	25 ka	40 ka	
G1	1L	1L	1L	–	1L	–	1L	1L	1L	1L	1L	1L	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
G2	6B	1S6B	1S6B	1S6B	1S4B	2S6B	2S6B	1S4B	2S2B	1S	2S	2S	1S2B	1S2B	1S2B	2B	–	–	–	–
G3	4B	4B	8B	8B	6B	8B	8B	8B	8B	6B	6B	4B	4B	4B	–	–	–	–	–	–
G4	–	1L	–	1L	1L	1L	1L	1L	1L	1L2B	1L2B	1L	1L	1L	–	–	–	–	–	–
G5	4S4B	4S4B	4S4B	4S4B	1S4B	1S4B	1S4B	1S2B	1S2B	1S2B	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
G6	2L1S2B	2L1S2B	2L1S4B	2L1S4B	2L1S4B	1L12B	2L1S2B	1S	1L1S	1L2B	1L2B	1L2B	2B	2B	2B	2B	2B	–	–	2B
G7	4B	10B	12B	12B	1L12B	1L12B	1L10B	1L10B	1L10B	1L10B	6B	8B	8B	8B	4B	4B	4B	–	–	–
G8	2B	2B	4B	4B	2B	4B	6B	8B	8B	8B	6B	4B	4B	4B	4B	–	–	–	–	–
G9	4B	4B	6B	6B	4B	6B	6B	2B	6B	4B	8B	8B	8B	8B	4B	2B	–	–	–	–
G10	1L	1L	1L	1L	2B	1L2B	1L4B	1L6B	1L8B	1L6B	1L6B	1L6B	1L4B	1L2B	1L	1L	1L	1L	–	–
G11	2L1S	2L1S	2L1S	2L1S	1L1S	2L1S	1L1S	1L1S	2L1S	2L1S	2L1S	2L1S	1L	1L	1L	1L	1L	1L	–	–
G12	6L1S2B	5L1S2B	5L1S2B	6L1S2B	5L1S2B	3L1S2B	5L1S2B	4L1S2B	4L2B	4L2B	5L2B	4L	4L	3L	4L	4L	4L	4L	–	–
G13	1L	1L	1L	1L	2L	2L	2L	2L	2L	2L	2L	2L	2L	1L	1L	1L	1L	1L	–	–
G14	4L	1L	4L	4L	5L1S	5L2S	5L1S	4L1S	3L1S	4L2S	4L2S	4L2S	3L1S	4L2S	4L1S	3L2S	–	–	–	–
G15	1L	2L	2L	2L	2L	2L	3L	3L	3L	2L	2L	2L	1L	3L	2L	2L	1L	1L	–	–
G16	1L	–	–	–	2L	2L	2L	1L	1L	1L	2L	2L	2L	2L	3L	1L	1L	2L	–	–
G17	–	–	–	–	1L	1L	–	1L	1L	1L	1L	1L	1L	1L	1L	–	–	–	–	–
G18	2L2S	3L1S	2L2S	4L2S	2L1S	4L1S	5L1S	4L1S	4L1S	4L1S	5L	4L1S	2L1S	3L1S	4L	2L	–	–	–	–
G19	–	1L	–	1L	1L	–	1L	1L	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
G20	6L6B	4L4B	6L8B	5L1S6B	6L1S6B	5L8B	5L6B	5L1S6B	5L1S6B	5L1S4B	4L4B	4L2B	5L2B	5L2B	6L2B	5L2B	2L2B	2L2B	–	1L
G21	4L1S2B	2L1S2B	4L1S2B	4L1S2B	3L1S2B	4L2S4B	4L2S4B	3L2S4B	3L1S4B	4L1S2B	5L1S4B	4L1S2B	5L1S2B	6L1S	5L1S	1L	–	–	–	–
G22	1L	1L	2L	2L	2L	2L	2L	2L	2L	2L	2L	2L	2L	2L	1L	1L	–	–	–	–
G23	–	–	–	2B	2B	2B	4B	4B	4B	4B	4B	4B	4B	4B	4B	–	–	–	–	–
G24	2L	2L	2L	2L	2L	2L	2L	2L	2L	2L	1L	1L	1L	1L	1L	–	–	–	–	–
G25	1L	4L	4L	4L	5L	5L	5L	5L	5L	4L	4L	3L	3L	4L	2L	2L	2L	1L	–	1L
G26	1L	–	1L	1L	1L	1L	1L	1L	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
G27	–	2B	4B	4B	4B	2B	4B	4B	4B	4B	4B	2B	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
G28	2L	2B	2L2B	1L2B	2L2B	1L2B	2L2B	2B	1L	2L	2L	2L	2L	2L	1L	1L	1L	1L	–	–
G29	1L1S10B	1L1S14B	1L2S14B	1L1S16B	1L1S16B	1L2S16B	1L1S10B	1L2S10B	1L1S4B	1L2S4B	1L2S2B	1L1S2B	2S	2S	1S	1S	1S	1S	–	1S
G30	1L	1L2B	1L6B	1L4B	1L8B	1L8B	1L6B	1L10B	1L8B	1L8B	1L4B	1L4B	1L2B	1L4B	1L4B	1L2B	1L4B	1L4B	–	4B
G31	2B	2B	10B	14B	12B	14B	10B	12B	10B	12B	2B	4B	2B	4B	4B	–	–	–	–	–
G32	–	–	4B	4B	4B	2B	2B	2B	2B	2B	2B	2B	2B	2B	2B	–	–	–	–	–
G33	–	–	4B	4B	2B	2B	4B	4B	4B	2B	2B	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
G34	4B	4B	4B	6B	10B	8B	8B	6B	6B	6B	6B	4B	4B	4B	4B	–	–	–	–	–
G35	–	1L1S	1L1S	1L1S	1L1S	2L1S	1L	1L1S	1L	1S	1S	1S	1S	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
G36	4L4S2B	2L2S	4L3S	4L4S	4L4S	4L5S	4L4S	3L2S2B	4L2S	2L4S4B	3L4S2B	3L4S	2L4S2B	3L2S2B	2L2S2B	2L2S	2L1S	2L1S	–	2L1S
G37	3L3S	2L1S2B	1L1S2B	1L3S2B	1L3S2B	2L3S2B	1L3S2B	2L2S2B	3L2S2B	3L1S	1L1S	2L	2L	2L	1L1S	2L1S	2L1S	1L1S	–	–
G38	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
G39	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
G40	4L1S	1L	2L1S	3L1S	3L1S	2L	2L	2L	2L	1S	1S	1L4B	1L4B	1L4B	1L	1L	1L2B	2B	–	2B
G41	2L2B	1L	1L	1L	2B	2B	2L	2L	2L	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
G42	–	1L2B	–	1L	1L	1L	1L	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–



**Author contributions.** XC and UH initiated and designed the study; XC and FT performed the land-cover reconstruction; FL and MJG were involved with the methods of the reconstruction; NR and QX contributed pollen data; XC wrote the preliminary version of the article, on which all co-authors commented.

**Competing interests.** The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

**Special issue statement.** This article is part of the special issue “Paleoclimate data synthesis and analysis of associated uncertainty (BG/CP/ESSD inter-journal SI)”. It is not associated with a conference.

**Acknowledgements.** The authors would like to express their gratitude to all the palynologists who, either directly or indirectly, contributed their pollen records and PPE results to our study. This research was supported by the German Research Foundation (DFG) and the PalMod project (BMBF). Furong Li and Marie-José Gailard thank the Faculty of Health and Life Science of Linnaeus University (Kalmar, Sweden), the China-Swedish STINT Exchange Grant 2016–2018, and the Swedish Strategic Research Area on Modelling the Regional and Global Earth system (MERGE) for financial support. This study is a contribution to the Past Global Changes (PAGES) LandCover6k working group project.

**Financial support.** This research has been supported by the German Research Foundation (DFG) and the PalMod project (BMBF).

The article processing charges for this open-access publication were covered by a Research Centre of the Helmholtz Association.

**Review statement.** This paper was edited by Lukas Jonkers and reviewed by two anonymous referees.

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