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## Abstract

The modern and fossil pollen data obtained under the framework of the multi-disciplinary international “El’gygytyn Drilling Project” represent a unique archive that allows the testing of a range of pollen-based reconstruction approaches and the deciphering of changes in the regional vegetation and climate since  $\sim 3.58$  Ma. In the current study we provide details of the biome reconstruction method applied to the late Pliocene and Quaternary pollen records from Lake El’gygytyn. All terrestrial pollen taxa identified in the spectra from Lake El’gygytyn were assigned to major vegetation types (biomes), which today occur near the lake and in the broader region of eastern and northern Asia and, thus, could potentially have been present in this region during the past. When applied to the modern surface pollen spectra from the lake, the method shows a dominance of the tundra biome that currently characterizes the Lake El’gygytyn area. When applied to the pollen spectra from the middle Pleistocene to present, the method suggests (1) a predominance of tundra during the Holocene, (2) a short interval during the marine isotope stage (MIS) 5.5 interglacial distinguished by cold deciduous forest, and (3) a long phase of taiga dominance during MIS 31 and, particularly, MIS 11.3. These two latter interglacials seem to be some of the longest and warmest intervals within the past million years.

During the late Pliocene–early Pleistocene interval (i.e.,  $\sim 3.562$ – $2.200$  Ma), there is good correspondence between the millennial-scale vegetation changes documented in the Lake El’gygytyn record and the alternation of cold and warm marine isotope stages, which reflect changes in the global ice volume and sea level. The biome reconstruction demonstrates changes in the regional vegetation which suggest a step-like transition from generally warmer/wetter environments of the earlier (i.e., Pliocene) interval towards colder/drier environments of the Pleistocene. The reconstruction of most of the species-rich cool mixed and cool conifer forest biomes is particularly noticeable prior to MIS G16, whereas tundra becomes a prominent feature after MIS G6. These results consistently indicate that the study region supported significant tree populations

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in the regional climate through the four Quaternary interglacial intervals, representing marine isotopic stage (MIS) 1, MIS 5, MIS 11 and MIS 31 (Melles et al., 2012; for the MIS 1 to MIS 8 interval, see also Lozhkin et al., 2007), and during the late Pliocene to early Pleistocene interval between  $\sim 3.58$  and  $\sim 2.2$  Ma (Brigham-Grette et al., 2013) by applying the best modern analog (BMA) approach (Overpeck et al., 1985; Guiot, 1990; Tarasov et al., 2005).

The current study provides methodological background and results obtained using a method of biome reconstruction (first introduced by Prentice et al., 1996) applied to the published late Pliocene and Quaternary pollen spectra from Lake El'gygytgyn. The reconstruction results are then discussed in terms of the regional changes in vegetation and as regards the respective bioclimatic variables controlling vegetation dynamics. This method allows a further comparison with the published results obtained using the BMA approach, as well as with the paleoclimate interpretations based on other proxy data.

## 2 Data and method

### 2.1 Site setting

Lake El'gygytgyn ( $67^{\circ}30' N$ ,  $172^{\circ}05' E$ , 492 m a.s.l.) occupies the central part of a meteorite impact crater situated in the northeastern part of Asia,  $\sim 100$  km north of the northern polar circle,  $\sim 265$  km south of the East Siberian Sea and  $\sim 390$ – $420$  km northwest of the Bering Sea (Fig. 1a). The impact occurred  $3.58 \pm 0.04$  Myr ago (Layer, 2000; see also Melles et al., 2012, and Vogel et al., 2012, for details on the regional geology). The lake has a roughly circular shape with a diameter of 12 km (Fig. 1b) and a maximum water depth of 175 m (Vogel et al., 2012). The lake catchment area, limited by the crater's outer rim that has a maximum elevation of 857 m a.s.l. (Matrosova, 2009), is drained by numerous short and steep valleys with perennial creeks or ephemeral

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(Matrosova, 2009; Fig. 1b); and (2) published fossil pollen records, which represent two sediment cores Lz1024 and 5011-1 recovered in the deepest central part of the lake (Fig. 1b). The pollen data for MIS 1 and MIS 5 interglacial intervals are from core Lz1024, whereas core 5011-1 provided samples from MIS 11 and MIS 31 (for detailed results of the pollen analyses and respective pollen diagrams, see Melles et al., 2012, Lozhkin and Anderson, 2013, and Lozhkin et al., 2007). The pollen spectra from the lower part of core 5011-1 represent the late Pliocene and early Pleistocene interval between  $\sim 3.58$  and  $\sim 2.2$  Ma (for details of the pollen analysis and pollen diagrams, see Brigham-Grette et al., 2013, and Andreev et al., 2013). The fossil pollen spectra used for the biome reconstruction in the current study also were used as the basis for a recently reported quantitative climate reconstruction (see Melles et al., 2012, Brigham-Grette et al., 2013, and Nowaczyk et al., 2013, for the core descriptions and details of the age model).

### 2.3 Biome reconstruction method

Pollen-based vegetation reconstruction using the quantitative method known as the “biomization” approach enables objective interpretation of pollen data and facilitates discussions of past vegetation dynamics and data–model comparisons (Prentice et al., 1996). The latter is possible because the method provides a systematic way to translate results from paleoclimate models into maps of natural potential vegetation (e.g., Prentice et al., 1992; Kaplan, 2001) by utilizing the same concepts for biome definition in the pollen-based biome reconstructions and climate-based biome simulations (Prentice et al., 1996).

In the biome reconstruction approach, pollen taxa are assigned to plant functional types (PFTs) and to principal vegetation types (biomes) on the basis of the modern ecology, bioclimatic tolerance, and spatial distribution of the pollen-producing plants. The method initially was tested using global-scale modern pollen datasets (e.g., Prentice et al., 1996, 2000), but further modifications of the biome–taxon matrixes were developed for large parts of Siberia and Alaska (e.g., Tarasov et al., 1998; Edwards et al.,





face pollen data from the respective regions of Asia (Yu et al., 2000; Mokhova et al., 2009; Tarasov et al., 2011).

The biome score calculation was performed using standard equation and reconstruction procedures described in Prentice et al. (1996) and the PPPBase software developed by Guiot and Goeury (1996). The sum of all terrestrial pollen taxa (Table 1) identified in the Lake El'gygytgyn records was taken as 100 % for calculating the percentages of an individual taxon.

As suggested by Prentice et al. (1996) and accepted in the global vegetation mapping BIOME6000 Project (Prentice and Webb, 1998), square root transformation was applied to the pollen percentage values. This operation stabilizes variance and increases the method's sensitivity to less abundant taxa (cf. Overpeck et al., 1985). The 0.5 % threshold was applied to all pollen taxa, as recommended by Prentice et al. (1996), to minimize possible noise due to long-distance transport, redeposition and misidentification of single grains representing extremely rare taxa. Edwards et al. (2000) applied a weighting ( $\times 20$ ) to occurrences of *Larix* in individual pollen spectra in order to maximize the chance of reconstructing cold deciduous forest when it was probably present. However, we retain the use of weighting of *Larix* percentages in the current study (see Müller et al., 2010 for discussion of the different approaches).

The biome reconstruction method is based on a fuzzy logic approach, in which each pollen sample is estimated to have a numerical "affinity" with every potential biome listed in Table 1. The final biome identification is based on ranking the affinity scores (Prentice et al., 1996), i.e., the biome with the highest affinity score is assumed to be dominant and is assigned to a given pollen spectrum. A problem can arise at this point if several biomes have an equal maximum score. Prentice et al. (1996) suggested resolving this problem, which happens routinely if the taxa/PFTs of one biome are a subset of those of another biome, by putting the biomes in a particular (though rather straightforward) order so that subsets always come first (see Table 1 for biome ordering).

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up to 60% of the pollen (*Alnus*, *Betula*, *Pinus pumila*) coming from the surrounding uplands (Lozhkin et al., 2001). This predominantly regional signal in the modern pollen assemblage strengthens the use of the Lake El'gygytyn pollen data for paleoclimatic interpretations (Melles et al., 2012; Brigham-Grette et al., 2013; Lozhkin et al., 2007) and quantitative vegetation reconstructions.

The biome reconstruction (Fig. 2b) demonstrates that tundra (TUND) has the highest affinity scores (average of ~ 17.7), followed by cold deciduous forest (CLDE) (~ 15.2 average), and reflects well the main vegetation types in northern Chukotka. On the other hand, affinity scores for cold steppe (STEP) (Table 1), which played a pronounced role across areas of northern Eurasia during the last glacial (e.g., Tarasov et al., 2000; Andreev et al., 2004, 2011; Bezrukova et al., 2010; Müller et al., 2010), are low in the modern surface spectra (~ 6.2 average).

### 3.2 The last glacial and Holocene interval (~ 24–2 kyr BP)

The results of biomization (Fig. 3) show that the STEP vegetation type displays the highest affinity scores during the last glacial ~ 24–16 kyr BP (Fig. 3a) and remains dominant prior to ~ 14.9 kyr BP (Fig. 3b). This vegetation reconstruction suggests that drought- and cold-tolerant herbaceous communities played a major role in the regional vegetation cover. TUND biome scores for the glacial spectra are substantially lower than in the modern pollen spectra, and the CLDE scores are at minimum, reflecting virtual absence of tree and shrub vegetation in the glacial landscape (Fig. 3c). The interval after ~ 16 kyr BP experiences drastic changes in the biome composition. The Bølling–Allerød (B–A) interstadial (Fig. 3d) is characterized by a marked increase in the TUND and CLDE scores and is accompanied by a decrease in the STEP scores to almost present-day levels. The Younger Dryas (YD) shows biome scores that broadly resemble values reconstructed for the full glacial. However, TUND scores remain dominant, suggesting that YD conditions were less severe than during the interval prior to 14.9 kyr BP. The Holocene biome results are characterized by a continuous dominance of TUND. Between ~ 10.5 and 8 kyr BP, STEP reveals its lowest scores for the entire

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most part of Beringia. The presence of larch indicates that the tree line shifted at least 270 km north of its current position and that the MTWM exceeded 13°C during the last interglacial optimum (Kienast et al., 2011). The pollen-based climate reconstruction for Lake El'gygytyn demonstrates a less pronounced increase in summer temperature (Melles et al., 2012) than inferred for Oyogos Yar, which is located ~1200 km to the west of the lake. The temperature differences reconstructed for MIS 5.5 suggest that the central part of the Siberian Arctic perhaps experienced a stronger warming and a greater northward advance of the tree line as compared to northeastern Siberia. A similar situation was noted during the Holocene (e.g., Texier et al., 1997; Binney et al., 2009, and references therein).

### 3.4 The interval including the MIS 11 interglacial (~428–356 kyr BP)

The biome reconstruction (Fig. 5) displays abrupt changes in the vegetation in the Lake El'gygytyn region during the MIS 12/MIS 11 transition. The shift in dominance of full glacial steppe/tundra (STEP and TUND) to boreal forest (TAIG) occurs within a rather short time interval (~428 to ~424 kyr BP; Fig. 5a and b). However, the biome reconstruction does not show an event similar to a YD-like oscillation, as seen during the MIS 2/1 (Fig. 3a) and MIS 6/5 (Fig. 4a) transitions. Unlike the two youngest interglacials (MIS 5.5 and MIS 1), the biome results suggest a long phase of TAIG dominance (Fig. 5b) with a major spread of woody vegetation in the study region occurring between ~424 and ~399 kyr BP (i.e., over 25 kyr). The final stage of the MIS 11.3 interglacial (prior to 394 kyr BP) experienced abrupt increases in TUND and STEP scores with an associated decrease in the forest biome scores. This pattern suggests a shift towards colder/drier environments at ~400 kyr BP. TUND becomes a dominant vegetation type during the remaining part of MIS 11 (Fig. 4b), while STEP shows the highest values during MIS 10 between ~374 and ~356 kyr BP. This shift in biome scores indicates a return to an extremely cold and dry full glacial climate.

As expected from both the quantitative biome (this study, Fig. 8a and b) and climate reconstructions (Melles et al., 2012, Fig. 8c and d), the MIS 11 pollen record differs









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Prior to ~ 3350 kyr BP, the pollen assemblages indicate the presence of a forest dominated by spruce, larch, fir, and hemlock, with lesser amounts of other boreal and temperate taxa (Andreev et al., 2013). The biome-based interpretation suggests the presence of COCO and COMX forests. Deciduous *Quercus* is one of the indicator taxa in the El'gygytyn pollen record that influenced the reconstruction of a cool mixed forest, which belongs to the temperate deciduous broadleaved tree/shrub plant functional type (Prentice et al., 1996). In the BIOME global vegetation model, the presence of temperate deciduous broadleaved arboreal taxa requires the minimum MTCM to be higher than  $-15^{\circ}\text{C}$  (Prentice et al., 1992). However, this model-based hypothesis contradicts the modern distribution pattern of temperate deciduous broadleaved woody taxa (e.g., *Quercus mongolica*), which grow today in southern areas of the Russian Far East (Mokhova et al., 2009), which experiences much colder winter temperatures (minimum MTCM values going down to  $-26^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) than allowed by the model. Mokhova et al. (2009) suggested that sufficiently warm summer temperatures combined with high snow accumulation may outweigh the negative influence of low winter temperatures on the temperate broadleaved tree and shrub taxa.

Reviewing quantitative reconstructions based on terrestrial proxies from the Arctic, summer temperature (MTWM) remains the most confidently reconstructed climate variable (e.g., Andreev et al., 2004; Kienast et al., 2011; Brigham-Grette et al., 2013). Reconstructed values for mean temperature of the coldest month (MTCM) have larger statistical errors and broader uncertainty ranges (Melles et al., 2012) as compared to MTWM. However, the MTCM reconstruction suggests the predominance of warm winter temperatures (i.e., above  $-26^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) prior to ~ 3380 kyr BP (Brigham-Grette et al., 2013), in line with qualitative interpretations of the pollen record (Andreev et al., 2013; Brigham-Grette et al., 2013) and quantitative biome reconstruction results (Fig. 8a).

The pollen records and biome reconstructions suggest that vegetation changes occurred in several steps (Fig. 8a and b). For example, shifts in the composition of boreal forest happen first with the loss of temperate and then later boreal evergreen conifers, followed by transitions from forested habitats to treeless, shrubby and finally herba-

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ceous environments. Estimates of the MTCM, based on changes in the pollen assemblages, suggest predominantly colder-than-present winters since ~2940 kyr BP, and especially since ~2730 kyr BP (Brigham-Grette et al., 2013). Such winter coolness has important implications for arctic vegetation–climate feedbacks (Levis et al., 1999), such as the expansion of tundra causing increased land surface albedo (thus lowering air temperatures), especially during snow-covered months.

Results of the palynological research and synthesis of the published proxy data from regions of northern Asia and northern North America for the late Pliocene/early Pleistocene presented in the current special issue (see Andreev et al., 2013, for details and references) offer an excellent opportunity for validating quantitative results of the pollen-based biome reconstruction presented here. For example, numerous coprophilous fungi spores revealed in the pollen samples within the Mammoth subchron (MIS M2) suggest open landscape and the presence of grazing animals around the lake, a conclusion that agrees with the pollen-based interpretations. Peaks in green algae (*Botryococcus*) colonies appear well within the intervals for which pollen-inferred reconstructions suggest relatively dry vegetation and climate.

### 3.7 Data–model comparison

Qualitative or quantitative interpretations of past environments can be challenging, especially during times when modern analogs are weak or nonexistent. However, the expansion of modern datasets and development of more sophisticated models and statistical treatment of the data over the past two decades facilitate the comparison of results from multiple approaches, particularly for reconstructing past climate and vegetation. In the case of Lake El'gygytyn, there is an opportunity to compare results from the biome reconstructions obtained in the current study (Fig. 8a and b) to (1) the recently published reconstructions of temperature (Fig. 8c) and atmospheric precipitation (Fig. 8d) derived from the El'gygytyn pollen records using the best modern analog (BMA) approach (Melles et al., 2012; Brigham-Grette et al., 2013); and (2) additional paleoenvironmental reconstructions from other long-term records (e.g.,

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Lisiecki and Raymo, 2005, Fig. 8e). Approaches that have proved useful for interpreting the El'gygytyn record involve the application of biome reconstruction and BMA. Both methods have their own set of assumptions and shortcomings. For example, the biomization method provides only semi-quantitative and indirect climate information. However, it is “closer” to the actual vegetation and does not suffer as much from the no-analog problem that faces more quantitative approaches (Prentice et al., 1996). Although the modern analog technique may be somewhat limited by analog-related issues, this technique has provided robust climate reconstructions when good analogs exist (e.g., Guiot, 1990; Jackson and Williams, 2004; Tarasov et al., 2007). One of the main advantages of the “biomization” approach, which allows paleovegetation to be reconstructed from either climate or pollen data (Prentice et al., 1992, 1996), is that in both cases the main vegetation types (biomes) are uniformly defined. This consistency is key because it allows the results of model simulations to be directly compared with the pollen-based biome reconstructions. Melles et al. (2012) reported on General Circulation Model (GCM) experiments that included an interactive vegetation component (using GENESIS 3.0 coupled to BIOME4). This paper examined the MIS 1, MIS 5.5, MIS 11.3 and MIS 31 interglacial intervals with a geographic focus on the Arctic. The results of the climate model simulations when converted to vegetation maps show a striking similarity to the pollen-based vegetation reconstructions presented here. Thus, shrub tundra appears around Lake El'gygytyn in the modern (preindustrial control) and 9 kyr BP runs, whereas deciduous taiga (i.e., CLDE) is simulated in the lake vicinity during the early Holocene thermal optimum. CLDE is also simulated near Lake El'gygytyn during the warmest phase of the MIS 5.5 interglacial. Evergreen taiga (i.e., TAIG) predominates during MIS 11.3 (ca. 410 kyr BP), and a mixture of TAIG and CLDE vegetation is simulated for the MIS 31 interglacial (~ 1072 kyr BP), corresponding to the timing of peak summer warmth (Melles et al., 2012). Both model simulations and proxy-based reconstructions suggest that MIS 11.3 was the warmest and longest interglacial of the past million years (Melles et al., 2012).

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More recently Kleinen et al. (2013) examined climate and vegetation dynamics during the MIS 11.3 using a model of intermediate complexity (CLIMBER2-LPJ; see Kleinen et al., 2010, 2011, for model details and references) and a second comprehensive general circulation model (CCSM3; see Yeager et al., 2006, for a detailed description of the model). Results of the climate modeling were then converted into maps of potential natural vegetation using BIOME4 (a coupled carbon and water flux model that predicts the steady-state vegetation distribution, structure, and biogeochemistry, taking into account interactions between these effects; Kaplan, 2001; Kaplan et al., 2003) for the four selected time slices within MIS 11.3. For comparison, the modern (preindustrial) biome distribution was also simulated using an early twentieth-century climatology. In agreement with the pollen data and pollen-based biome reconstruction, enhanced tree cover occurred for 416 and 410 kyrBP, although the tree cover was more pronounced in CCSM3 as compared to LPJ. Modeling shows (dwarf) shrub tundra as the preindustrial biome, which turns into high shrub tundra and even taiga forest in some locations at 416 and 410 kyrBP. The modeling results indicate a dwarf shrub tundra biome and a reduction in vegetation cover for 400 and 394 kyrBP. These results indicate that there is general agreement about the timing of the interglacial-glacial transition in both models (Kleinen et al., 2013).

Climate and biome models also have been used in a set of sensitivity experiments that focus on the earlier part of the Lake El'gygytyn record to test the response of temperature and precipitation to the build up of Northern Hemisphere ice sheets (Brigham-Grette et al., 2013). Although results are preliminary, the simulations indicate a drying caused by the presence of large northern hemispheric ice sheets. This simulated PANN decrease and the simulated magnitude in MTCM are similar to ones determined in the proxy-based biome and climate reconstructions after ~2900 kyrBP (Fig. 8). These results, while not definitive, suggest that the time-averaged presence of large Northern Hemisphere ice sheets contributed to the marked drying in the Lake El'gygytyn record after ~2730 kyrBP (Brigham-Grette et al., 2013).

Parallels in the reconstructed MTWM values (Fig. 8c) and trends in the benthic marine isotope stack record (Fig. 8e), first noted by Brigham-Grette et al. (2013), are also evident in reconstructed landscape openness (Fig. 8b). The similarities in trends further underscore the importance of the global systematic controls that link colder summer temperatures at Lake El'gygytyn with oceanic proxies of temperature, global ice volume, and sea level (Brigham-Grette et al., 2013).

## 4 Conclusions

The terrestrial pollen record from Lake El'gygytyn, northeastern Asia, represents a unique environmental archive which not only provides a means for deciphering changes in the regional vegetation and climate histories over the last 3.58 Myr at fairly high resolution, but also allows a variety of pollen-based reconstruction approaches to be tested across a wide range of paleoenvironmental conditions. As work progresses with the El'gygytyn sediments, the temporal resolution of the record will be substantially improved as future studies focus on specific intervals or questions of interest determined by the coarse-resolution analyses, thereby providing additional details on the observed shifts in climate and vegetation and opportunities for further applications of modeling and biome/analog techniques.

Quantitative reconstruction of changes in vegetation cover near Lake El'gygytyn presented in this paper were obtained using the biome reconstruction method. This approach provides an objectively generated record of vegetation change against which qualitative and quantitative reconstructions generated with other approaches/proxies either from this Arctic site or from other globally distributed sites can be compared.

The objectively generated biome reconstructions are useful for a wide range of paleoenvironmental applications (e.g., data–model comparisons), and they overcome some interpretive difficulties associated with more qualitative approaches. Conventional pollen diagrams contain a great amount of site-specific paleoecological information, and their interpretation requires extensive knowledge of the regional plant ecol-

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ogy and taxonomy. This information often is known primarily by paleobotanical specialists, making pollen diagrams a difficult interpretive tool for other earth scientists. Furthermore, pollen percentages illustrated in diagrams are not directly comparable to climate/vegetation model output, output which is valuable in understanding a variety of earth systems, including atmosphere–biosphere feedbacks. Moreover, comparing spatial and temporal changes in the pollen assemblages among numerous sites and across broad regions is a challenge unless the pollen data are integrated in a systematic manner. The biome reconstruction approach allows diverse pollen data to be compiled more easily within a well-organized analytical framework. In contrast to pollen diagrams, the presentation of results as biomes yields a more understandable format for a majority of geoscientists. The biome approach, although also dependent on understanding ecological relationships, provides a more objectively defined set of natural vegetation types in contrast to the traditional qualitative interpretations. The use of a common set of climatically defined vegetation types in the pollen-based reconstruction and in the model simulations facilitates data–model comparisons. Such comparisons are beneficial for both the data and the modeling communities, as they (1) allow more accurate evaluation of the climate models and of model output; (2) justify the selection of models with a better predictive potential; and (3) help improve knowledge of past developments of the earth system at the global and regional scale.

The current study provides time series of the dominant vegetation types (biomes) and quantitative evaluations of landscape openness between  $\sim 3.58$  and  $\sim 2.2$  Ma and through four shorter glacial–interglacial intervals within the last  $\sim 1.09$  Myr. These results illustrate the timing and nature of the changes that transformed a predominantly forested Pliocene Siberian Arctic ecosystem into a largely forest-free environment, as seen during the early and late Pleistocene. The results also confirm the earlier reported stepwise temperature decline leading to the onset of Northern Hemisphere glacial cycles. Not only does the El'gygytyn pollen record improve understanding of the Pliocene–Pleistocene transition, it also illustrates the variability within Pleistocene warm intervals. The middle Pleistocene, in particular, provides examples of long inter-





glacial intervals (i.e., 22 and 25 kyr) dominated by taiga, and indicates the extraordinary character of the MIS 31 and MIS 11.3 interglacials.

Biome reconstructions do not rely on modern reference datasets. Thus, this approach provides an independent confirmation of the published quantitative climate reconstructions obtained using the best modern analog method. The results also help to verify the ability of modern coupled climate–vegetation models to simulate past climate and vegetation dynamics in the region. Detailed modeling and analysis of the effect of northern hemispheric ice sheets, vegetation, and sea ice feedbacks on the regional environments around Lake El’gygytgyn, particularly during the “early” intervals of extreme cold (i.e., during MIS M2, G16, G6) and during the “late” intervals of extreme warmth (i.e., during MIS 31 and 11.3), remain the subjects of future work.

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**Table 1.** Biome–taxon matrix used in the biome reconstruction. All terrestrial pollen taxa identified in the fossil pollen spectra in the Lake El’gygytgyn record are attributed to one or several biomes.

Biome name/ abbreviation	Biome order	Attributed pollen taxa
Tundra/TUND	1	<i>Alnus fruticosa</i> -type (shrub), <i>Betula</i> sect. <i>Albae</i> -type (tree), <i>B.</i> sect. <i>Nanae</i> -type (shrub), <i>B.</i> undif., Cyperaceae, Ericales, Poaceae, Polemoniaceae, <i>Polygonum bistorta</i> -type, <i>Rubus chamaemorus</i> , <i>Rumex</i> , <i>Salix</i> , Saxifragaceae, Valerianaceae
Cold deciduous forest/CLDE	2	<i>Alnus fruticosa</i> -type (shrub), <i>A.</i> sp. (tree), <i>Betula</i> sect. <i>Albae</i> -type (tree), <i>B.</i> sect. <i>Nanae</i> -type (shrub), <i>B.</i> undif., Cupressaceae/Taxodiaceae, Ericales, <i>Larix/Pseudotsuga</i> , <i>Pinus</i> subg. <i>Diploxylon</i> , <i>P.</i> subg. <i>Haploxylon</i> , Pinaceae undif., <i>Populus</i> , <i>Rubus hamaemorus</i> , <i>Salix</i>
Taiga/TAIG	3	<i>Abies</i> , <i>Alnus</i> sp. (tree), <i>Betula</i> sect. <i>Albae</i> -type (tree), <i>B.</i> sect. <i>Nanae</i> -type (shrub), <i>B.</i> undif., Cupressaceae/Taxodiaceae, Ericales, <i>Larix/Pseudotsuga</i> , <i>Lonicera</i> , <i>Picea</i> , <i>Pinus</i> subg. <i>Diploxylon</i> , <i>P.</i> subg. <i>Haploxylon</i> , Pinaceae undif., <i>Populus</i> , <i>Rubus hamaemorus</i> , <i>Salix</i>
Cool conifer forest/COCO	4	<i>Abies</i> , <i>Alnus</i> sp. (tree), <i>Betula</i> sect. <i>Albae</i> -type (tree), <i>B.</i> sect. <i>Nanae</i> -type (shrub), <i>B.</i> undif., <i>Carpinus</i> -type, <i>Corylus</i> , Cupressaceae/Taxodiaceae, Ericales, <i>Larix/Pseudotsuga</i> , <i>Lonicera</i> , <i>Picea</i> , <i>Pinus</i> subg. <i>Diploxylon</i> , <i>P.</i> subg. <i>Haploxylon</i> , Pinaceae undif., <i>Populus</i> , <i>Salix</i> , <i>Tilia</i> , <i>Tsuga</i> , <i>Ulmus</i>
Temperate deciduous forest/TEDE	5	<i>Abies</i> , <i>Alnus</i> sp. (tree), <i>Betula</i> sect. <i>Albae</i> -type (tree), <i>B.</i> sect. <i>Nanae</i> -type (shrub), <i>Betula</i> undif., <i>Carpinus</i> -type, <i>Carya</i> , <i>Corylus</i> , Cupressaceae/Taxodiaceae, Ericales, <i>Juglans</i> , <i>Larix/Pseudotsuga</i> , <i>Lonicera</i> -type, <i>Pinus</i> subg. <i>Diploxylon</i> , Pinaceae undif., <i>Populus</i> , <i>Pterocarya</i> , <i>Quercus deciduous</i> , <i>Salix</i> , <i>Tilia</i> , <i>Ulmus</i>
Cool mixed forest/COMX	6	<i>Abies</i> , <i>Alnus</i> sp. (tree), <i>Betula</i> sect. <i>Albae</i> -type (tree), <i>B.</i> sect. <i>Nanae</i> -type (shrub), <i>B.</i> undif., <i>Carpinus</i> -type, <i>Corylus</i> , Cupressaceae/Taxodiaceae, Ericales, <i>Larix/Pseudotsuga</i> , <i>Lonicera</i> -type, <i>Picea</i> , <i>Pinus</i> subg. <i>Diploxylon</i> , <i>P.</i> subg. <i>Haploxylon</i> , Pinaceae undif., <i>Populus</i> , <i>Tsuga</i> , <i>Quercus deciduous</i> , <i>Salix</i> , <i>Tilia</i> , <i>Ulmus</i>
Warm mixed forest/WAMX	7	<i>Alnus</i> sp. (tree), <i>Carpinus</i> -type, <i>Carya</i> , <i>Corylus</i> , Cupressaceae/Taxodiaceae, Ericales, <i>Juglans</i> , <i>Lonicera</i> , <i>Pinus</i> subg. <i>Diploxylon</i> , Pinaceae undif., <i>Populus</i> , <i>Pterocarya</i> , <i>Quercus deciduous</i> , <i>Salix</i> , <i>Tilia</i> , <i>Ulmus</i>
Cold steppe/STEP	8	<i>Apiaceae</i> , <i>Artemisia</i> , Asteraceae Asteroideae, Asteraceae Cichorioideae, Brassicaceae, <i>Cannabis</i> -type, Caryophyllaceae, Chenopodiaceae, Fabaceae, Lamiaceae, <i>Linum</i> , Onagraceae, Papaveraceae, Plantaginaceae, Poaceae, <i>Polygonum bistorta</i> -type, <i>Ranunculaceae</i> , <i>Rosaceae</i> , <i>Rumex</i> , <i>Sanguisorba</i> , <i>Thalictrum</i> , Urticaceae, Valerianaceae

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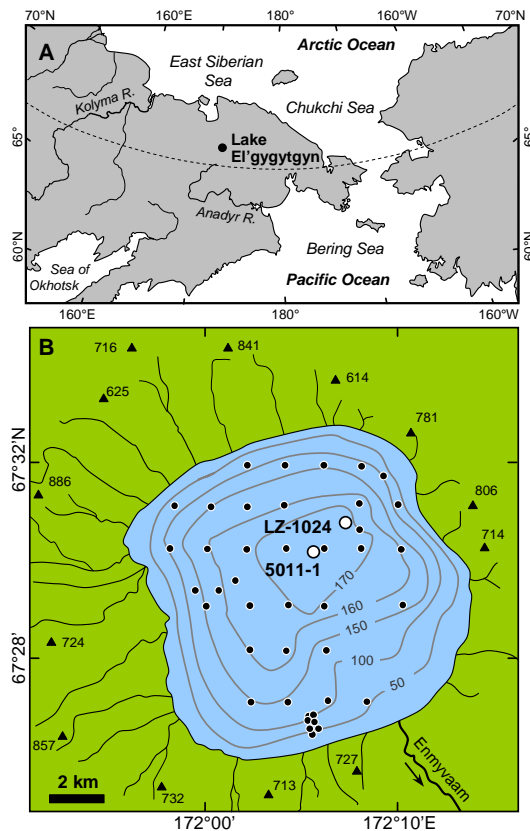
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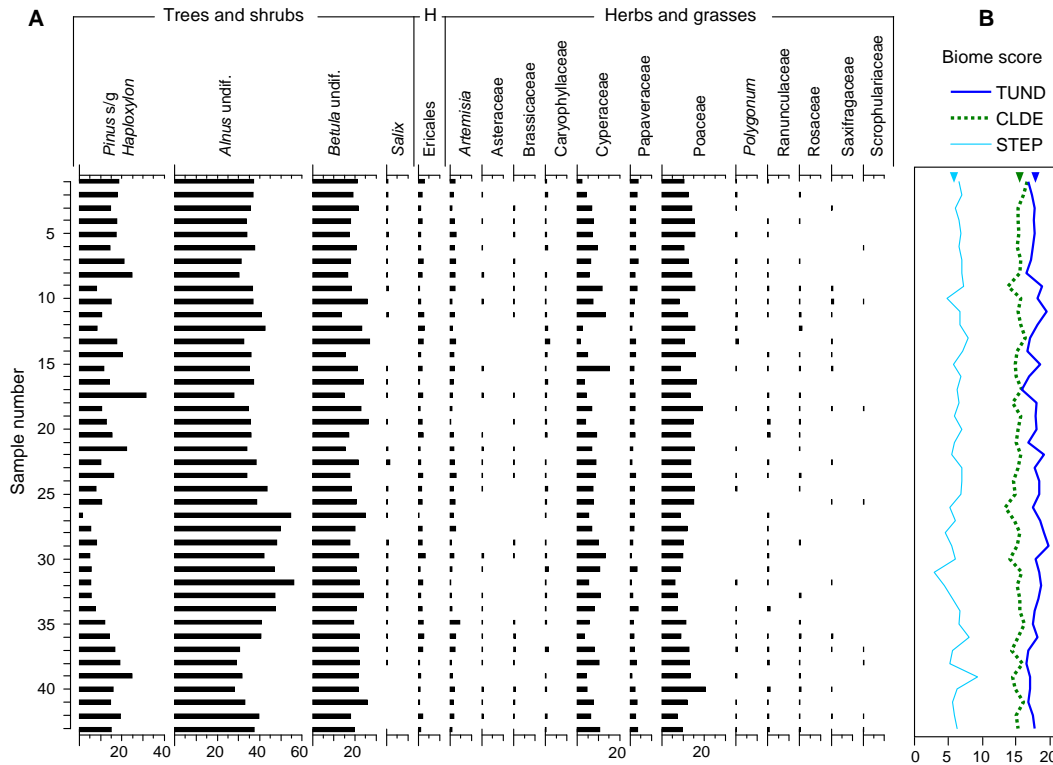
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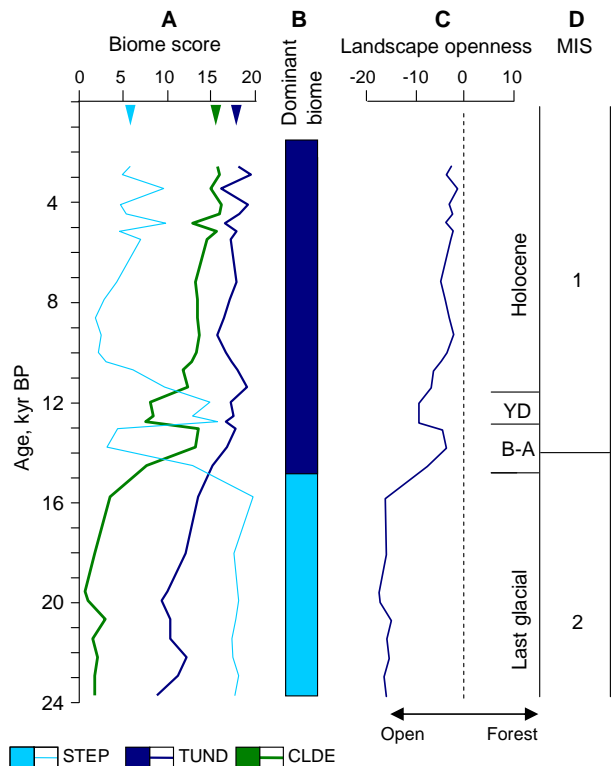


**Fig. 1.** Maps showing (A) geographical location of Lake El'gygytyn (black dot; 67°30' N, 172°05' E, 492 m a.s.l.) in northeastern Siberia, and (B) the catchment area of Lake El'gygytyn with associated hydrological network. The lower map (B) also shows the locations of the modern pollen surface samples (closed circles) and fossil pollen records (open circles), bathymetric lines indicating lake water depth (m below modern lake level), and the highest nearby mountain peaks (triangles accompanied with altitude values in m a.s.l.).

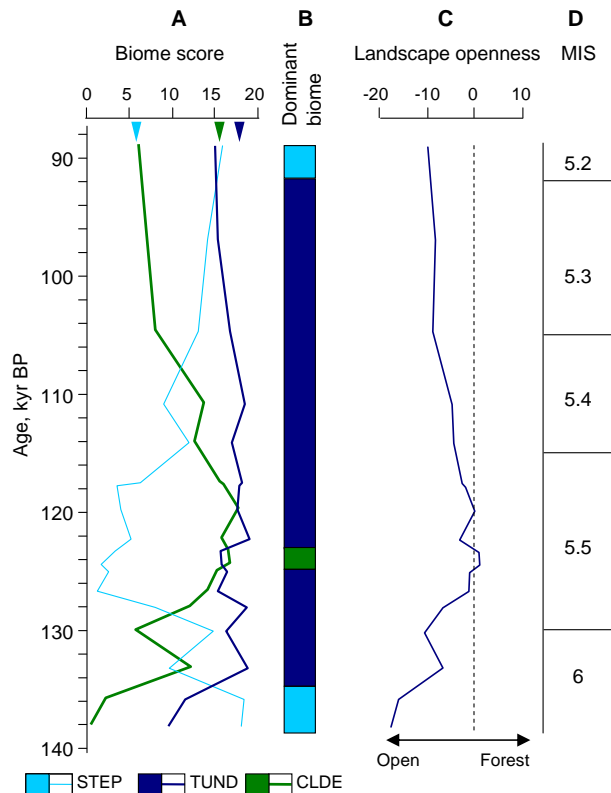




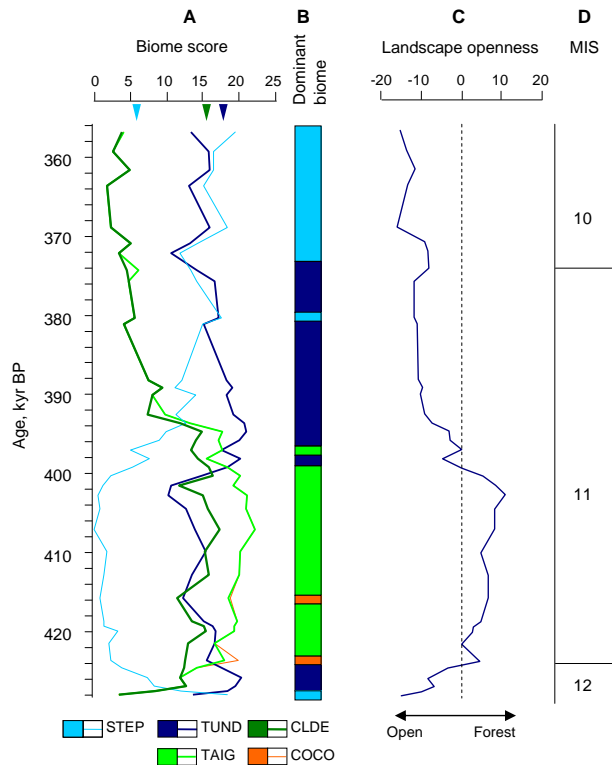
**Fig. 2.** Diagram of modern data from Lake El'gygytyn: **(A)** summary pollen percentage diagram of the 43 modern surface pollen spectra (pollen analyst T. Matrosova), and **(B)** calculated affinity scores of individual biomes which dominated in the study area during the late Quaternary. The diagram was constructed using Tilia/Tilia-Graph/TGView software (Grimm, 1993, 2004). Percentages for individual terrestrial pollen taxa at each level were calculated from the sum of arboreal and non-arboreal pollen. Only taxa which exceed the 0.5% threshold are shown. H indicates heath.



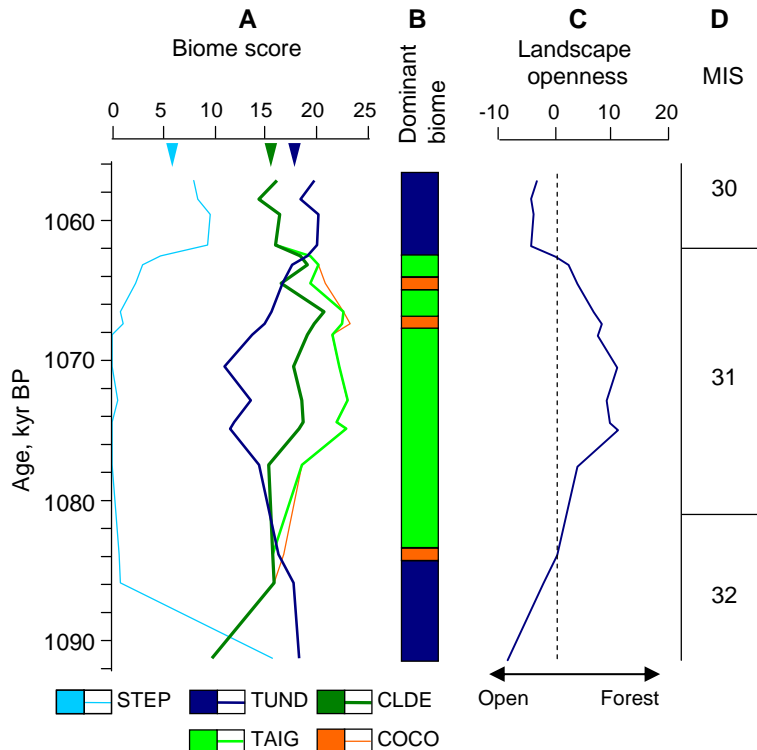
**Fig. 3.** Summary diagram for the last ~24 kyr BP showing the **(A)** time series of individual vegetation types (biomes; triangles indicate the modern average score of each respective biome), **(B)** dominant biomes, **(C)** semi-quantitative characteristic of landscape openness calculated as the difference between the maximum score of forest biomes (MSFB) and the maximum score of open biomes (MSOB) at each level, and **(D)** marine isotope stage (MIS) boundaries (after Lisiecki and Raymo, 2005). The Younger Dryas is indicated by YD and the Bølling–Allerød is indicated by B–A.



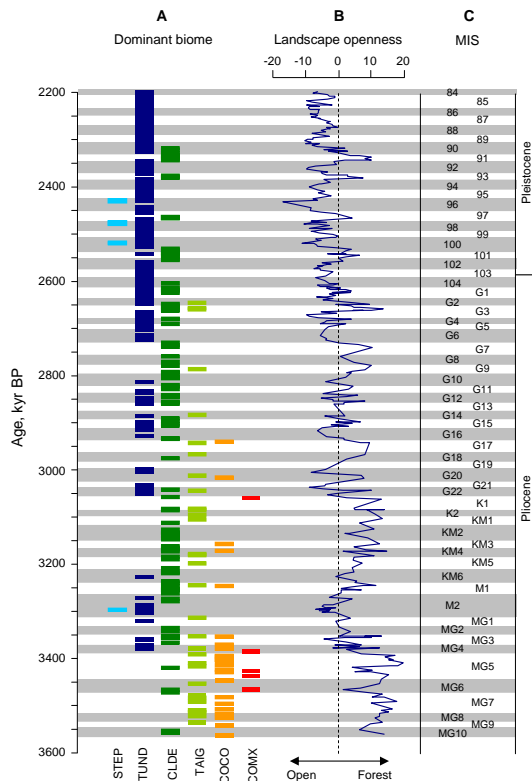
**Fig. 4.** Summary diagram for ~138 to ~89 kyr BP showing the **(A)** time series of individual vegetation types (biomes; triangles indicate modern average score of each respective biome), **(B)** dominant biomes, **(C)** semi-quantitative characteristic of landscape openness calculated as the difference between the maximum score of forest biomes (MSFB) and the maximum score of open biomes (MSOB) at each level, and **(D)** marine isotope stage (MIS) boundaries (after Lisiecki and Raymo, 2005).



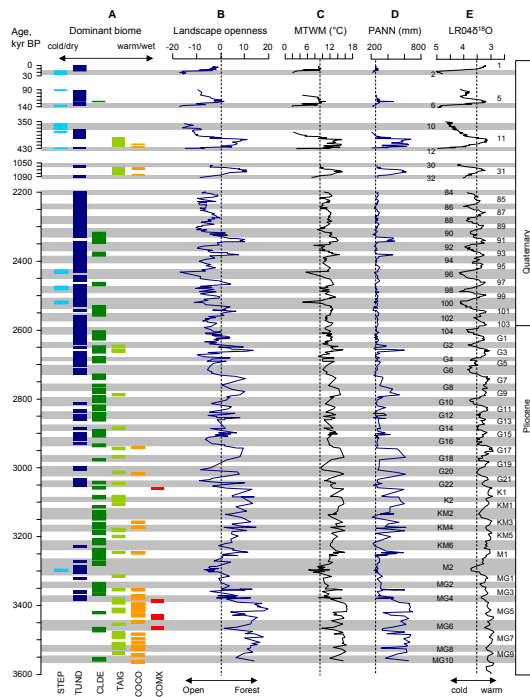
**Fig. 5.** Summary of paleoenvironmental trends between ~428 and ~356 kyr BP showing the **(A)** time series of individual vegetation types (biomes; triangles indicate modern average score of a respective biome), **(B)** dominant biomes, **(C)** semi-quantitative characteristic of landscape openness calculated as the difference between the maximum score of forest biomes (MSFB) and the maximum score of open biomes (MSOB) at each level, and **(D)** marine isotope stage (MIS) boundaries (after Lisiecki and Raymo, 2005). Note that TAIG and COCO biomes are not present in the modern regional vegetation and therefore their score is identical to CLDE in the modern spectra (see Prentice et al., 1996, and Sect. 2.3 for explanations).



**Fig. 6.** Summary of paleoenvironmental trends between ~1092 and ~1057 kyr BP showing the **(A)** time series of individual vegetation types (biomes; triangles indicate modern average score of a respective biome), **(B)** dominant biomes, **(C)** semi-quantitative characteristic of landscape openness calculated as the difference between the maximum score of forest biomes (MSFB) and the maximum score of open biomes (MSOB) at each level, and **(D)** marine isotope stage (MIS) boundaries (after Lisiecki and Raymo, 2005). Note that TAIG and COCO biomes are not present in the modern regional vegetation, and therefore their scores are identical to CLDE in the modern spectra (see Prentice et al., 1996, and Sect. 2.3 for explanations).



**Fig. 7.** Summary of paleoenvironmental trends between ~3580 and ~2200 kyr BP showing the **(A)** time series of the dominant vegetation types (biomes), **(B)** semi-quantitative characteristic of landscape openness calculated as the difference between the maximum score of the forest biomes (MSFB) and the maximum score of the open biomes (MSOB) at each level, and **(C)** marine isotope stage (MIS) boundaries (after Lisiecki and Raymo, 2005). Gray and white bands indicate cold and warm marine isotope stages, respectively.



**Fig. 8.** Summary of paleoenvironmental trends between ~3580 and ~2200 kyr BP showing the **(A)** time series of the dominant vegetation types (biomes), **(B)** semi-quantitative characteristic of landscape openness calculated as the difference between the the maximum score of the forest biomes (MSFB) and the maximum score of the open biomes (MSOB) at each level, **(C)** pollen-based reconstructions of the mean temperature of the warmest month, **(D)** pollen-based reconstructions of mean annual precipitation (after Melles et al., 2012; Brigham-Grette et al., 2013), and **(E)** Pliocene–Pleistocene stack of 57 globally distributed benthic  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  records with marine isotope stage (MIS) numbers (after Lisiecki and Raymo, 2005). Gray and white bands indicate cold and warm marine isotope stages, respectively.