



1 **Long term trends in aquatic diversity, productivity and stability: a 15,800**  
2 **year multidecadal diatom study from Lake Baikal, southern Siberia**

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48

49 **Abstract**

50

51 Biological diversity is inextricably linked to community stability and ecosystem functioning,  
52 but our understanding of these relationships in freshwater ecosystems are largely based on  
53 short-term observational, experimental, and modelling approaches. Using a multidecadal  
54 diatom record for the past 15,800 years from Lake Baikal, we investigate how three  
55 ecosystem components - diversity, productivity, and stability - have responded to climate  
56 changes on long-timescales. In addition, we investigate how the relationships between  
57 diversity, productivity and stability have changed through time in response to these changes.  
58 We show that abrupt changes in diatom stability and diversity during the late glacial and  
59 early Holocene are part of a network of responses across southern Siberia as a result of  
60 extrinsically-forced climate instability. Productivity - diversity relationships were strongly  
61 coupled during the late glacial, which we suggest is linked to resource availability, but  
62 showed little relationship during the Holocene, perhaps due to few resources being limiting  
63 for extended periods of time. For example, periods of low diatom diversity are associated  
64 with peak palaeoproductivity, and coincide with climate disturbance events. Such strong  
65 negative relationships may reflect resources becoming limiting during palaeoproductivity,  
66 leading to monospecific diatom blooms. While species fluctuations respond rapidly to  
67 changing resources during much of the Holocene, the ecosystem function of primary  
68 production appears to be relatively resilient. Our study provides important perspectives on  
69 lake community stability and ecosystem function in relation to rapid periods of climate  
70 change.

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72 **Key words:** diversity, stability, palaeoproductivity, abrupt climate change, extrinsic forcing,  
73 palaeolimnology

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78 **1. Introduction**

79

80 Understanding the role that biological diversity plays in ecosystem stability and function is an  
81 important challenge in ecological research (Tilman et al. 1997; McCann 2000; Loreau et al.  
82 2001; Isbell et al. 2015). An ecosystem with higher biodiversity is assumed to be more stable,  
83 due to a number of factors, including the presence of species which have considerable  
84 plasticity, such that they have wide responses to disturbances (McCann 2000), and the  
85 “insurance effect” (Yachi and Loreau 1999) where species redundancy plays an important  
86 stabilizing role. Biodiversity loss can lead to reduced ecosystem functioning (Cardinale et al.  
87 2012), which poses serious threats to ecosystem health in general, and human well-being in  
88 particular (e.g. Chivian 2003). While the mechanisms behind how diversity controls  
89 functioning are not completely understood, dominant species with distinct functional roles  
90 are important (Winfree et al. 2015). For example, primary production, a key ecosystem  
91 function which helps regulate the global carbon cycle, is tied to species diversity (Tilman et  
92 al. 1997; Cardinale et al. 2009). However, our understanding of productivity-diversity  
93 relationships (PDR) is largely based on short-term observational (Dodson et al. 2000; Ptacnik  
94 et al. 2008; Korhonen et al. 2011), experimental (McGrady-Steed et al. 1997; Interlandi &  
95 Kilham 2001; Winfree et al. 2015) and modelling approaches (Aoki 2003), with very few  
96 long-term studies undertaken (Rusak et al. 2004). This constitutes an important gap in our  
97 knowledge because in terms of climate change, PDR and resource use efficiency (Gross and  
98 Cardinale 2007; Ptacnik et al. 2008) will be fundamentally different over long (e.g. climate  
99 and landscape evolution) and short (e.g. pulse disturbances such as climate disturbance  
100 events (Kéfi et al. 2019)) timescales.

101

102 Palaeoecological approaches provide a potential solution to this challenge, since they can  
103 reveal ecological dynamics in response to environmental change which unfold only over very  
104 long timescales (National Research Council 2005; Seddon et al. 2011; Seddon et al. 2014).  
105 For example, diatoms are some of the most important primary producers in lake ecosystems,  
106 and their sub-fossilised remains provide a record of community variations through time. In  
107 addition, because diatom valves can be directly measured on sediment sequences, there is a  
108 unique opportunity to investigate how community dynamics, diversity and the stability of  
109 ecosystem functions such as productivity change over long-timescales. In particular, because



110 the last 16000 years have been punctuated by a series of large-scale and abrupt climatic  
111 shifts, such records open the door for an investigation into the links between biodiversity and  
112 the stability of ecosystem functioning associated with climate disturbance events.

113

114 Here we investigate the relationship between diatom diversity and the stability of ecosystem  
115 functioning in Lake Baikal, an ancient lake with a long continuous record which, unlike  
116 many other large lakes, only shows limited evidence of human perturbation (Hampton et al.  
117 2018; Roberts et al. 2018), restricted to its coastline (Kravtsova et al. 2014; Timoshkin et al.  
118 2016). We focus on aquatic productivity as a measure of ecosystem function, because of the  
119 direct link between diatoms and primary production in the modern lake (Kozhova and  
120 Izmet'eva 1998).

- 121 • First, we review major climatic changes over the past 15,800 years in order to identify  
122 key events of interest relevant to southern Siberia.
- 123 • Second, we reconstruct trends in diatom communities, diversity and productivity in  
124 Lake Baikal through time.
- 125 • Third, we investigate the relationship between diversity and palaeoproductivity, with  
126 particular reference to climate disturbance events.

127

128 We hypothesise for example, that climate disturbance events lead to changes in available  
129 resources for different species, which will alter the relationship between productivity and  
130 diversity, not experienced during periods when climate is more stable. Our aim is thus to  
131 coax history to conduct experiments (Deevey 1969) in order to deepen our understanding of  
132 the long-term relationships between aquatic diversity and productivity, and to test hypotheses  
133 related to how climate disturbance events, disrupts these relationships on sub-orbital  
134 timescales.

135

## 136 **2. Methods**

137

### 138 Study site

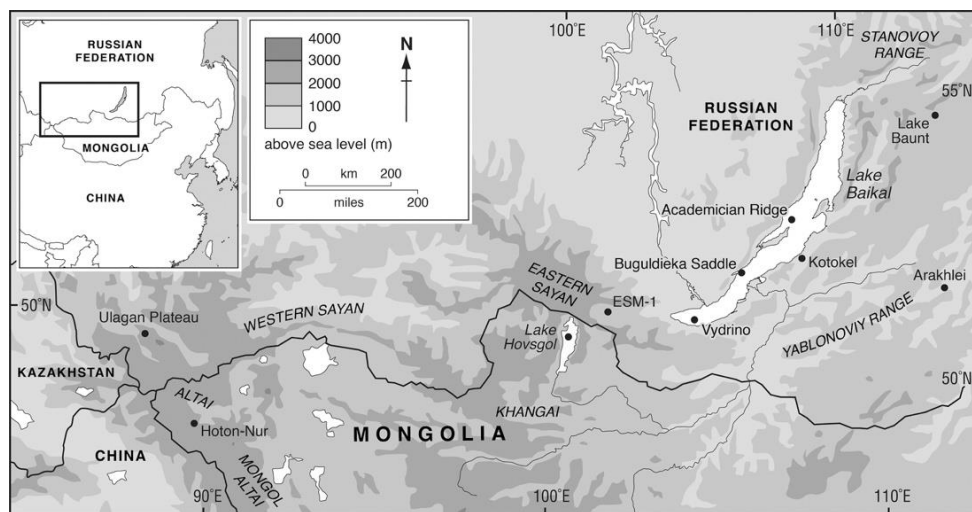
139 Lake Baikal is situated in southern Siberia at the forest – steppe ecotone (Fig. 1), and is the  
140 world's oldest, deepest, and most voluminous lake. The lake is a World Heritage Site, due in  
141 the main to its diverse flora and fauna; it contains over 2,500 species of which over 75% are  
142 thought to be endemic. Its sediments have accumulated for over 20 million years, and



143 decades of research have exploited this sedimentary record to reconstruct environmental  
144 change (Williams et al. 2001; Mackay 2007). Sedimentary cores were obtained in 2001 from  
145 the research vessel (RV) Vereschagin, from the Vydrino Shoulder (51.585°N, 104.855°E;  
146 water depth 675m), an underwater high (between 500 – 800 m) off the south-eastern coast of  
147 Lake Baikal (Fig. 1). The Vydrino Shoulder was selected because it's an area of stable, fine-  
148 grained sedimentation relatively undisturbed by tectonic activity and reworking (Charlet et al.  
149 2005). The cores obtained included a 1.73m trigger core (CON01-605-3a), a 10.45m piston  
150 core (CON01-605-3), and a 2.50m box core (CON01-605-5). These records were  
151 supplemented with a short gravity core taken from an ice platform in 2001 (CON01-105-6)  
152 from the same region.

153

154 < Fig. 1 here >



155

156

### 157 Dating

158 Radiocarbon dates for the Vydrino sequence were obtained by accelerated mass spectrometry  
159 (AMS) from pollen and spore concentrates (Piotrowska et al. 2004; Demske et al. 2005). The  
160 age model is based upon twelve AMS <sup>14</sup>C pollen dates from the box core (CON01-605-5)  
161 (Piotrowska et al. 2004) and an additional five AMS <sup>14</sup>C pollen dates from the piston core  
162 (CON01-605-3) (Demske et al. 2005). Full details are given in Mackay et al. (2011).

163 Radiocarbon dates were calibrated using IntCal13 radiocarbon calibration curve (Reimer *et*  
164 *al.*, 2013), and age-depth modelling was done using 'Bacon2.2' (Blaauw & Christen, 2011).



165 No reservoir effect was applied to the calibration due to dating undertaken on pollen and  
166 spore concentrates.

167

#### 168 Diatom analysis

169 Diatoms are siliceous, unicellular, algae and are key primary producers in aquatic  
170 ecosystems. Because they possess a silica shell, they preserve well in sedimentary  
171 environments. We analysed diatom assemblages at 5 mm resolution; samples were prepared  
172 from composited gravity / trigger / piston cores detailed above, with no chemical treatments  
173 needed (Mackay et al. 1998). Diatom taxa were identified to species level or lower using a  
174 range of Russian and other flora, detailed in Mackay et al. (1998). With few exceptions, at  
175 least 300 valves from each sample were counted using oil immersion phase-contrast light  
176 microscopy at x1000 magnification. Diatom concentrations (valves/g) were calculated by the  
177 addition of divinylbenzene (DVB) microspheres (Battarbee et al. 2001). Stratigraphical  
178 profiles were constructed using C2 Data Analysis Version 1.7.7 (Juggins 2014).

179

#### 180 Diatom compositional change

181 Principal curve (PrC) analyses was used to investigate compositional changes in the diatom  
182 assemblages, using the analogue-package (Simpson and Oksanen 2016) in R version 3.3.1 (R  
183 Core Team, 2016). A PrC is a one-dimensional curve that is fitted through data in  $m$   
184 dimensions by minimising the square distances from the data points to the curve (De'ath,  
185 1999, Simpson and Birks, 2012). A smoothing spline was used and the initial starting point of  
186 the PrC was defined by the first component of correspondence analysis (CA). The curve was  
187 fitted through several iterations using local averaging to reduce the sum of orthogonal  
188 distances between the curve and the data points ((De'ath 1999; Simpson and Birks 2012). The  
189 penalty to determine the smoothness of the curve was set to 1.4, and the degree of  
190 smoothness was allowed to vary between the different taxa. The diatom counts were  
191 transformed into square-root percentages before running the analysis.

192

#### 193 Diatom richness and diversity

194 Richness and diversity were estimated using Hill's species numbers  $N_0$ ,  $N_1$ , and  $N_2$  using  
195 diatom count data. These measures give easily interpretable numbers by maintaining the  
196 doubling effect, and provide information on three levels as to how rare and abundant taxa are  
197 weighted (Hill, 1973; Jost, 2010; Gotelli and Ellison, 2013; Chao et al., 2014). Species  
198 richness is estimated using Hill's  $N_0$ , the expected number of taxa where rare and abundant



199 taxa have similar weights. Species diversity is estimated using Hill's  $N1$ , which is the  
200 expected number of common taxa and puts more weight on the numerically abundant taxa,  
201 and  $N2$ , which puts weight on the numerically dominant taxa. The estimates are represented  
202 as the expected number of diatoms based on the smallest sample size ( $n = 258$ ) to avoid  
203 biases related to different sample sizes. The samples were resampled randomly 1000 times  
204 without replacement, and unconditional confidence intervals were estimated using the  
205 approach described by Chao et al. (2014). Stability in  $N2$  diversity over time was further  
206 quantified using its coefficient of variation (CV).

207

### 208 Palaeoproductivity

209 The palaeoecological significance of diatom concentrations can be of limited value, unless  
210 they can be converted into either diatom flux rates (e.g. Battarbee et al. 2001), or estimates of  
211 biovolume (Hillebrand et al., 1999). Diatom flux rates rely on a robust chronology (as  
212 determined in this study), while biovolume estimates require representative size  
213 measurements for the dominant taxa. We estimate palaeoproductivity through community  
214 biomass calculations derived from diatom biovolume accumulation rates (BVAR) for all  
215 major planktonic species (Interlandi and Kilham 2001). Biovolumes ( $\mu\text{m}^3$ ) for major  
216 planktonic species encountered during the Holocene were calculated using the median of  
217 measured linear dimensions of 25 valves, and geometric shape guidelines (Hillebrand et al.  
218 1999) (see Table S2). Planktonic species used for biovolume calculations ( $\mu\text{m}^3/\text{g}$ ) accounted  
219 for on average, over 80% of total relative abundance, and therefore we assume are a robust  
220 estimate of palaeoproductivity. Stability in palaeoproductivity over time was further  
221 quantified using its coefficient of variation (CV), while changes in the relationship between  
222 palaeoproductivity and  $N2$  diversity (PDR) was investigated using a moving-average  
223 correlation analysis, with a window of 1000 years selected to capture millennial-scale  
224 variability. Finally, relationships between palaeoproductivity and  $N2$  diversity were further  
225 investigated during specific time-intervals, to test the hypothesis that PDR is tightly coupled  
226 during periods of rapid climate change, which we suggest is due to changing resource  
227 availability.

228

## 229 **3. Results**

230

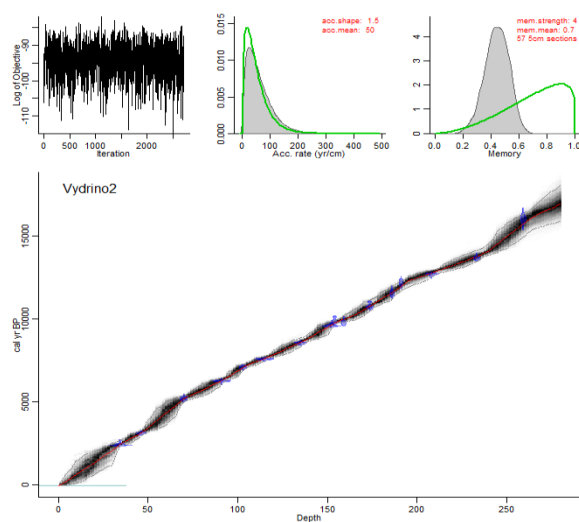
### 231 Dating



232 The calibrated ages for our profile span the last 15.83 kyr BP (where kyr = thousands of  
233 years, BP = before present, i.e. 1950 CE (common era)) (Figure 2). Sediment accumulation  
234 rates ranged between 34 - 133 yr/cm (mean 66 yr/cm), with peak accumulation rates  
235 occurring at c. 3.9 kyr BP.

236

237 < Fig. 2 here > Age-Depth model



238

239

240 Diatom compositional change

241 The temporal resolution of species compositional change was c. 30 years for the past 15.83  
242 kyr (Fig. 3). The principal curve (PrC) explained 48.4% of all the variation in the diatom  
243 taxa. The taxa which have strongest influence on PrC ( $r_2 > 0.3$ ) include *Aulacoseira*  
244 *skvortzowii*, *Cyclotella minuta*, *Crateriportula inconspicua*, *Stephanodiscus meyerii*,  
245 *Cyclostephanos dubius*, and *Synedra acus v. radians*. The PrC indicates periods of large  
246 fluctuations in species composition (indicative of periods of community instability) between  
247 c. 12.9-12.4 kyrs BP, 10.4 – 10.1 kyr BP and c. 6.2 – 5.2 kyr BP. Between 1.7 – 1.2 kyr BP,  
248 PrC values are at their lowest.

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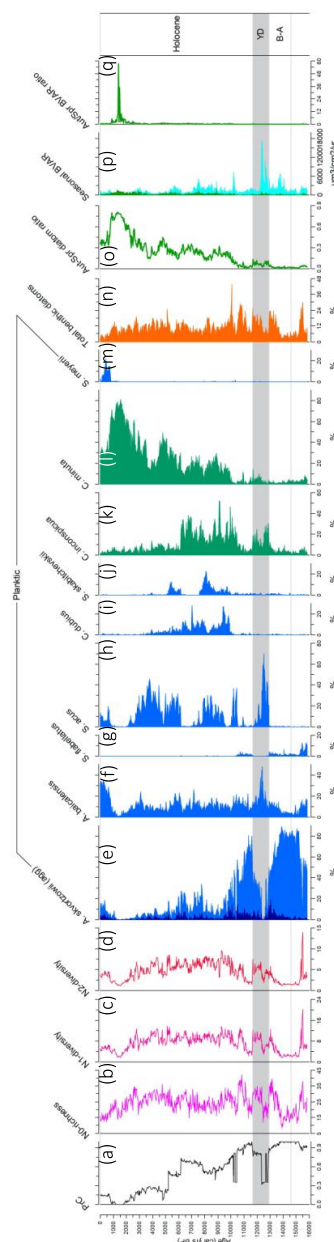




250

251 < Fig. 3 here > Diatom stratigraphy

252



253



254 Diatom richness and diversity

255 Prior to the Bølling interstadial (c. 15.8 - 14.7 kyr BP), there are abrupt peaks in community  
256 metrics of biodiversity, with highest  $N1$  and  $N2$  diversity values at 15.5 – 15.4 kyr, associated  
257 with high abundances of littoral diatoms (Fig. 3). By 15.4 kyr BP, resting spores of *A.*  
258 *skvortzowii* dominate, going into the Bølling interstadial (between 14.7 – 14.1 kyr BP),  
259 leading to very low Hill's  $N0$  richness and  $N1$  &  $N2$  diversity. Richness and diversity  
260 increased during the Allerød (c. 14.1 – 12.9 kyr BP), concomitant with increasing abundances  
261 of *Aulacoseira baicalensis*, and littoral species in general. The onset of the Younger Dryas  
262 stadial at 12.9 kyr BP is marked by rapid declines in species richness and abundance of  
263 common taxa, followed by a decline in Hill's  $N2$  several centuries later, associated with peak  
264 abundances of *S. acus* v. *radians* (Fig. 3). Richness and diversity measures all rapidly  
265 increase again from c. 12.4 kyr BP.

266

267 The start of the Holocene (11.7 kyr BP) is demarcated by a sharp decline in diatom richness  
268 and diversity values, before they increase rapidly once more at c. 11.3 kyr BP (Fig 3).  $N2$   
269 diversity is high (c. 10) between 11.3 - 9.2 kyr BP, with a notable decline between 10.5 –  
270 10.2 kyr BP, concurrent with an abrupt decline in diatom richness. Between 9.2 – 5.2 kyr BP,  
271  $N2$  diversity fluctuates between 5 and 10, with major declines at c. 6.0 and 5.2 kyr BP.  $N2$   
272 values remain low for c. 1000 years, before increasing to almost 8, at c. 4.4 kyr BP, after  
273 which they decline to their lowest values (just above 1) at between 1.5 – 1.3 kyr BP. When  
274 comparing the Holocene with the latter stages of Termination 1 (ie 15.8 – 11.7 kyr BP), there  
275 is no significant difference in diatom richness ( $N0$ ) (Table 1), but  $N2$  diversity values were  
276 substantially higher (MWU test;  $p=0.000$ ).  $N2$  diversity was less stable prior to 10 kyr BP  
277 and during the past 2 kyr, as revealed through coefficient of variation (CV) (Fig 4).

278

279 **Table 1:** Median values for diatom fluxes, diatom BVAR, richness ( $N0$ ) and diversity ( $N2$ ),  
280 for the Holocene and its preceding Termination period (T1). Differences between medians  
281 were assessed using the non-parametric Mann-Whitney U test.

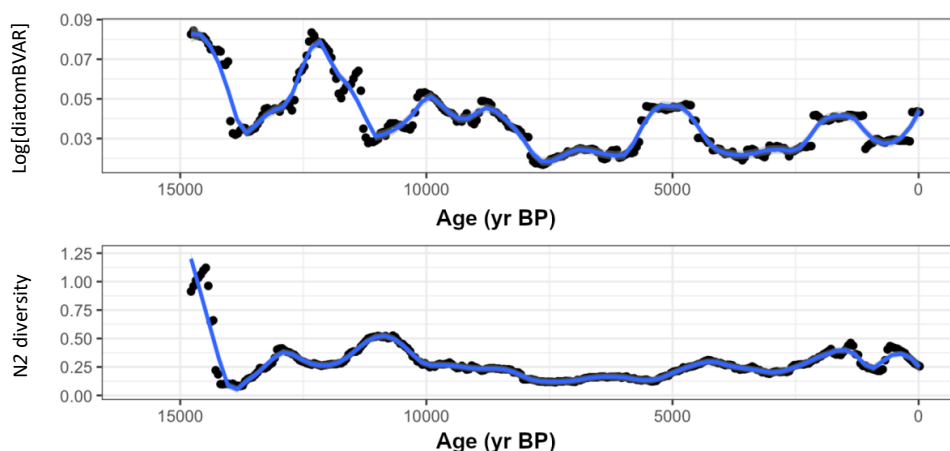
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	<b>Diatom valve flux</b> (x 10 <sup>6</sup> valves/cm <sup>2</sup> /yr)	<b>Palaeoproductivity</b> <b>(BVAR)</b> μm <sup>3</sup> /cm <sup>2</sup> /yr	<b>N0</b> richness	<b>N2</b> diversity
<b>Holocene</b>	0.940	1.46 x10 <sup>3</sup>	24.1	5.3
<b>T1</b>	1.238	2.16 x10 <sup>3</sup>	22.7	2.7



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< Fig. 4 here > diversity and productivity CV profiles



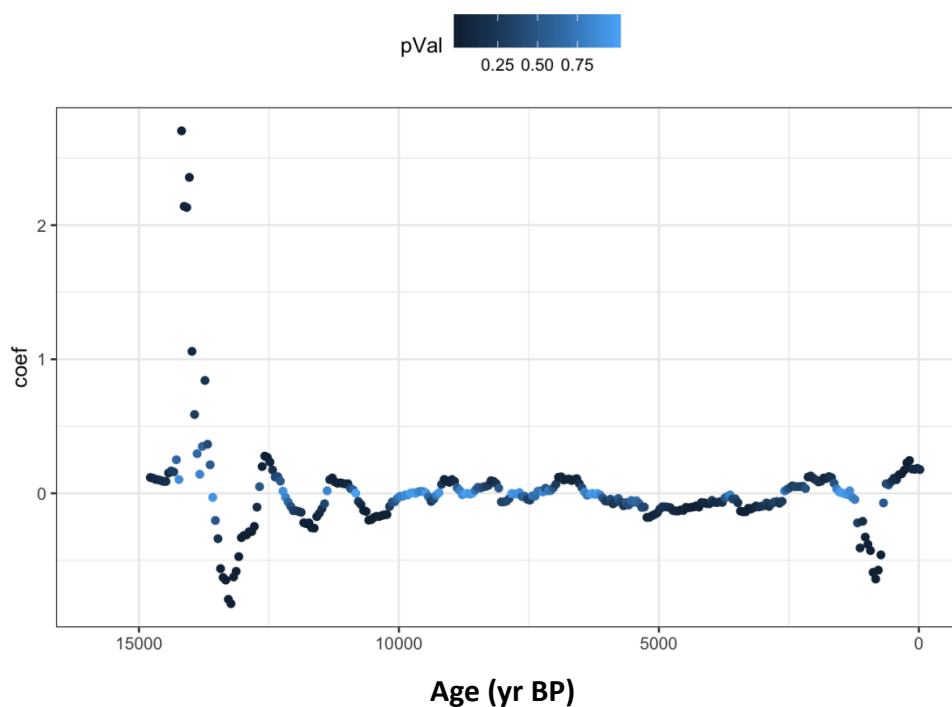
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288

#### Palaeoproductivity

290 Palaeoproductivity was substantially higher and more unstable during the latter stages of  
291 Termination 1 than the Holocene ( $p=0.000$ ; Table 1), with diatom BVAR ( $\mu\text{m}^3/\text{cm}^2/\text{yr}$ )  
292 rapidly increasing at the onset of the Younger Dryas, to reach peak values at c. 12.4 kyr BP  
293 (Fig. 3) associated with peaks in *S. acus v. radians* then *A. baicalensis*. Diatom BVAR  
294 declined as rapidly, and remained low for the remainder of the Younger Dryas and the start of  
295 the Holocene. Palaeoproductivity was generally higher during the early Holocene than the  
296 late Holocene, with spring productivity being far more dominant than autumn productivity  
297 (Fig 3). After 7 kyr BP, total palaeoproductivity remained relatively low, although the  
298 contribution from autumnal blooming diatoms increases (Fig. 3). When we compare the ratio  
299 of autumn versus spring productivity, between 1.5 – 1.3 kyr BP autumnal productivity  
300 increase to more than ten times that of spring productivity (Fig. 3). CV analyses shows that  
301 palaeoproductivity gradually stabilised during the Late Glacial – early Holocene period until  
302 c. 7 kyr BP. During the remainder of the Holocene, moderate periods of instability reoccur c.  
303 5 kyr BP and between 2 – 1 kyr BP (Fig. 4). A 1000-yr moving window reveals that during  
304 Termination 1, correlations flipped from strongly positive to strongly negative with greatest  
305 change observed at the start of the Bølling-Allerød (Fig. 5). But over much of the Holocene  
306 correlations coefficients are low, until c. 2.0 – 1.0 – kyr BP, when a strong negative  
307 correlation develops.



308  
309 < Fig. 5 here > 1000 yr moving window correlation analyses  
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311  
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314 **4. Discussion**  
315  
316 **4.1 The climatic record**  
317

318 Our study spans the past 15,800 years, specifically Termination 1 and the Holocene (11.7 kyr  
319 – present). Termination periods are defined by the demise of northern hemisphere ice sheets,  
320 as the planet transgressed from glacial to interglacial environments (Broecker & Donk 1970).  
321 Termination 1, the most recent of these, started in the North Atlantic around 17.5 kyr years  
322 ago (Stern & Lisiecki 2014), during which time, temperatures in the northern hemisphere  
323 fluctuated by as much as 10 °C in a matter of decades, if not years (Alley 2000). These abrupt  
324 temperature changes, linked to iceberg discharge and freshwater surges into the North  
325 Atlantic Ocean, caused significant periods of millennial-scale climate variability.



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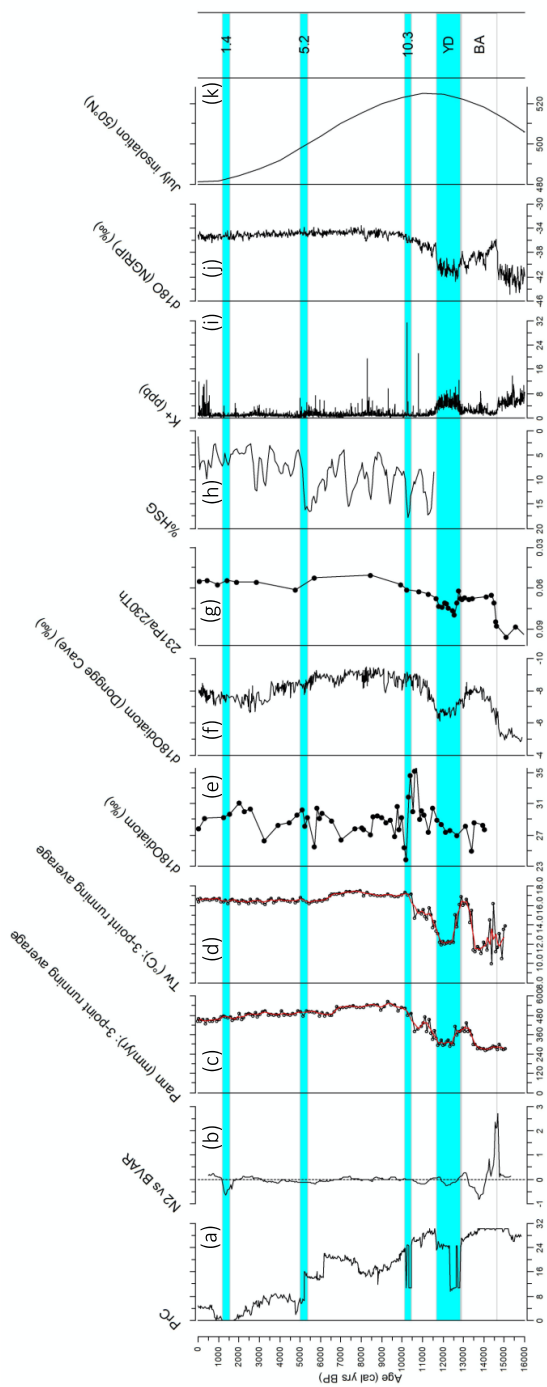
327 During Termination 1, the first sign of a shift to warmer temperatures occurred with the onset  
328 of the Bølling-Allerød interstadial, c. 14.7 kyr BP. The Bølling-Allerød is linked to warm  
329 waters deep in the North Atlantic ocean releasing heat (Thiagarajan et al. 2014) which led to  
330 the resumption of the Atlantic meridional overturning circulation (AMOC) (McManus et al.  
331 2004) (Fig. 6g), warmer northern hemisphere temperatures (Fig. 6j) (Stuiver et al. 1995) and  
332 stronger Asian summer monsoon (Fig. 6f) (Dykoski et al. 2005). Mean pollen-inferred  
333 temperatures of the warmest month (July) from neighbouring Lake Kotokel provide an  
334 independent climate record for the Lake Baikal region (Fig. 6c), and reveal a 5 °C increase  
335 during the Bølling-Allerød (Tarasov et al. 2009). At the same time, pollen-inferred mean  
336 annual precipitation records show that rainfall increased from c. 300 mm/yr to c. 460 mm/yr  
337 (Fig. 6d). This warmer, wetter climate led to extensive melting of glaciers along the shores of  
338 Lake Baikal (Horiuchi et al. 2004), and major expansion of boreal vegetation (Tarasov et al.  
339 2009; Bezrukova et al. 2010; Reshetova et al. 2013).

340

341 < Fig. 6 here > external forcings

342

343



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345

346

347 The Younger Dryas stadial (12.9 – 11.7 kyr BP), is probably the most studied climate  
348 disturbance event of the late Quaternary (Broecker et al. 2010). It was caused by an influx of  
349 freshwater from Lake Agassiz into the Arctic Ocean (Tarasov & Peltier 2005; Murton et al.  
350 2010) which led to the decline in AMOC (Fig. 6g) (Bond et al. 2001; McManus et al. 2004),  
351 and concomitant cooler temperatures across the northern hemisphere (Stuiver et al. 1995)  
352 (Fig 7j), and an attenuated Asian summer monsoon (Fig. 6f) (Dykoski et al. 2005). Increased  
353 GISP2 K<sup>+</sup> concentrations (Fig. 7i) indicate that the Siberian High intensified at the start of the  
354 Younger Dryas (Mayewski et al. 1997), which accounts for cooler and more arid climate  
355 conditions inferred from Lake Kotokel (Tarasov et al. 2009) (Fig. 7 c,d). These cooler, more  
356 arid conditions led to a decline in hydrological input into Lake Baikal itself (Fig. 6e; Mackay  
357 et al. 2011), and a short-lived expansion of the tundra biome (Tarasov et al. 2009; Bezrukova  
358 et al. 2010).

359

360 Finally, although millennial scale variability is a feature of Holocene records (e.g. Bond *et*  
361 *al.*, 1997, 2001; Fisher *et al.*, 2002; Mayewski et al. 2004; Nesje et al. 2005; Wanner *et al.*,  
362 2008; Wanner & Bütikofer, 2008), the causes of this variability differs among the early, mid  
363 and late Holocene periods (Wanner et al. 2014). During the early Holocene, climate  
364 disturbance events are generally associated with pulses of freshwater discharge from northern  
365 hemisphere ice sheets, which forced AMOC to decline, resulting in atmospheric cooling  
366 (Rasmussen *et al.*, 2006). We use the stacked record of relative abundance of haematite  
367 stained grains (%HSG) as tracers of Holocene drift ice in the North Atlantic (Bond et al.  
368 2001), as a proxy for this variability (Fig. 6h). The causes of climate disturbance events  
369 associated with millennial-scale variability during the mid- to late- Holocene are less certain,  
370 but involve solar and volcanic forcing, often amplified by complex interactions between  
371 ocean and the atmosphere (PAGES 2k Consortium 2013; Wanner et al. 2014). Moreover,  
372 environmental impacts of mid- late- Holocene events are often not characterised by regional  
373 cooling, but by hydrological variability instead. In Lake Baikal, the impact of early-, mid-  
374 and late- Holocene climate disturbance events are implicated in understanding Holocene  
375 variability in hydrological variability (Mackay et al. 2011) and carbon dynamics in the lake  
376 (Mackay et al. 2017). Here we focus on climate disturbance events from the Younger Dryas,  
377 and each of the early (10.3 kyr), mid (5.2 kyr) and late (1.4 kyr) periods, as these are  
378 concurrent with major shifts in diatom community stability (Fig. 3a).



379

#### 380 **4.2 Temporal trends in diatom communities, diversity and palaeoproductivity**

381

382 Although community turnover, as indicated by the principal curve (Fig 3a), was rather stable  
383 during the latter stages of Termination 1 (Fig 3a), diatom communities were already species-  
384 rich (Table 1), indicative that Lake Baikal species were able to tolerate and survive preceding  
385 very cold glacial conditions, challenging the notion of an ecological collapse in Lake Baikal  
386 during the Last Glacial Maximum (Karabanov et al. 2004). *A. skvortzowii* thrives in cold  
387 water temperatures below 5°C (Jewson et al., 2008), and dominates the cool period prior to  
388 the Bølling-Allerød interstadial. To avoid higher surface-water temperatures, it produces a  
389 resting stage, or spore. The trigger for the production of spores is phosphate utilisation by  
390 other algae (e.g. picoplankton) (Jewson et al., 2008). For *A. skvortzowii* spores to dominate,  
391 phosphate concentrations must have fallen below a threshold level of 15-23 µg/L (Jewson et  
392 al., 2008). Prior to the Bølling-Allerød, pigment analyses of Baikal sediments highlight  
393 increased productivity from many algal groups (Tani et al. 2002; Soma et al. 2007) which  
394 likely caused intensive competition for P during the short, ice-free summer. Nutrient,  
395 especially P, limitation may be why we also observe low *N2* diatom diversity during  
396 Termination 1 (Fig. 3d), i.e. resources available were strongly limited (Interlandi & Killman  
397 2001) at this time.

398

399 During the early stages of the Bølling, pre- Bølling diatom flora persists, with concomitant  
400 low richness and diversity (Fig. 3b,d). Increasing diatom richness (*N0*) during the Allerød is  
401 associated with the presence of littoral diatoms on the Vydrino Shoulder (Fig. 3n), cells of  
402 which have to be transported from near-shore environments to the site of the core location.  
403 Transport would have been greatly facilitated by increased fluvial input into the south basin,  
404 linked to rapidly melting glaciers at the start of the Allerød at c. 14.1 kyr BP (Osipov and  
405 Khlystov 2010). Increasing *N2* diversity in Lake Baikal during the Allerød suggests an  
406 increase in available resources (Interlandi & Kilham 2001), such as Si and P; co-limitation by  
407 several nutrients and light allows more planktonic species to co-exist (Burson et al. 2018),  
408 which in Lake Baikal at this time includes the heavily silicified endemic *A. baicalensis*,  
409 which needs relatively high concentrations of Si to grow, and a high degree of turbulence to  
410 remain in the photic zone (Jewson et al. 2010).

411





412 Simultaneous with the onset of the Younger Dryas, principal curve (PrC), and community  
413 metrics of species richness and diversity show evidence of an abrupt ecological shift in Lake  
414 Baikal (Fig. 3). While changes in stability and richness were almost instantaneous,  $N2$  diversity  
415 declined only about 200 years later (Fig. 3d). The decline in  $N0$  in the Younger Dryas is mainly  
416 driven by a decline in littoral taxa, which could be related to increased ice cover on the lake  
417 and lower littoral productivity. Alternatively, lower  $N0$  may be linked to the decline in fluvial  
418 input into the south basin (Fig. 6e) reducing transport of littoral diatoms off-shore. The lag in  
419  $N2$  diversity decline suggests that available resources for diatom growth were not initially  
420 limiting; species composition at this time is dominated by the spring blooming *S. acus* v.  
421 *radians* and the autumnal blooming *C. inconspicua* (Fig. 3h,k), and therefore these species may  
422 not be directly competing for the same resources (Interlandi & Kilham 2001). The eventual  
423 decline in  $N2$  diversity is linked to peak values for *A. baicalensis* for the whole record at c.  
424 12.4 kyr BP (Fig. 3f), which likely caused the decline in *S. acus* v. *radians*. Silicic acid  
425 availability in Lake Baikal is strongly controlled by diatom population changes (Callender &  
426 Granina 1995; Jewson et al., 2010; Shimaraev and Domysheva, 2013; Jewson et al., 2015). In  
427 particular, when populations of *A. baicalensis* are very high, the availability of silicic acid  
428 uptake by other species declines, leading to a drop in their populations, (Jewson et al., 2010;  
429 2015). Being a heavily silicified species, *A. baicalensis* needs a strong period of mixing, which  
430 suggests that when abundant, turnover is strong, allowing the recycling of nutrients needed for  
431 peak palaeoproductivity. Changes in climate and resource availability together (e.g. Huisman  
432 et al. 2004) therefore explain the rapid successional changes in planktonic diatoms during the  
433 early stages of the Younger Dryas, and concomitant decline in  $N2$  diversity. During the latter  
434 stages of the Younger Dryas, increasing  $N2$  diversity reflects an increase in the abundance of  
435 *A. skvortzowii* spores, along with autumnal blooming species *C. inconspicua* and *Cyclotella*  
436 *minuta* (Fig. 3).

437

438 Although our data highlight a rapid decline in diatom richness and diversity from the start of  
439 the Holocene to 11.3 kyr BP (Fig. 3b,d), coincident with tracers of increased drift ice in the  
440 North Atlantic (stacked record of haematite-stained grains; Fig. 6h) (Bond et al. 1997; 2001)  
441 here we focus on the period of abrupt ecological change that occurred between 10.5 – 10.2  
442 kyr BP, (Fig. 3a). Just before this period, it is useful to note that peak June isolation (Fig. 6k)  
443 resulted in increasing mean annual precipitation in the region (Fig. 6d) (Tarasov et al. 2009),  
444 which, alongside glacier melt, will have contributed to peak Holocene hydrological input into  
445 Lake Baikal (Fig. 6e) (Mackay et al. 2011). Then at c. 10.5 kyr BP, we have this record of



446 rapid diatom successional changes, with distinct multidecadal variability (Fig. 3). The decline  
447 in community metrics for richness and diversity (Fig. 3,d) are concurrent with a slow-down  
448 in AMOC (Bond et al. 2007; IRD7) (Fig. 6h) concurrent with a very intense Siberian High  
449 (Fig. 6i) (Mayewski et al. 1997). Together, these resulted in regional aridity and cooler  
450 temperatures, which led to the decline in river flow into the south basin of Lake Baikal (Fig.  
451 6e) (Mackay et al. 2011). Diatom community instability (Fig. 3a) reflects rapid switches in  
452 dominance between spring blooming *S. acus* and *A. skvortzowii*, alongside increasing autumn  
453 blooming *C. inconspicua*. *S. acus* has one of the highest cell division rates of all the Lake  
454 Baikal phytoplankton (Jewson et al. 2015), which allows it to respond rapidly to changes in  
455 resource availability. Large blooms of *S. acus* will have utilised resources, including P, which  
456 then would have stimulated *A. skvortzowii* to produce resting cells (Jewson et al. 2008). The  
457 increase in *C. inconspicua* is indicative of a shift in balance towards autumnal production,  
458 perhaps due to sustained ice cover during this cool event leading to a decline in spring  
459 diatoms.

460

461 Another notable period of community instability occurs between 6 – 5 kyr BP, with a major  
462 decline in community turnover occurring at 5.2 kyr BP (Fig. 3a). Globally, this period marks  
463 the transition from Holocene Thermal Maximum to the Neoglacial, as northern hemisphere  
464 summer insolation levels declined (Steig 1999; Wanner et al. 2008). Again, increased diatom  
465 instability is concurrent with a major slow-down in AMOC, as reflected in the large increase  
466 in haematite stained grains (Fig. 6h) (IRD 4; Bond et al. 2001) and the end of a period of  
467 more intense Siberian High (Mayewski et al. 1997). In general, regions around the world  
468 became cooler (see Magny et al. 2006 for a review), but some also became wetter (e.g.  
469 Ireland; Roland et al. 2015) while in central and southern Asia they became more arid (see  
470 Magny et al. 2006). Terrestrial ecosystem changes in northeast China have also been  
471 attributed to the weakening of the East Asian winter monsoon (Wu et al. 2019). In Lake  
472 Baikal, there is little overall change in diatom richness at this time (Fig. 3b), although *N2*  
473 diversity declines, reflecting a shift from spring to autumn diatom communities (Fig. 3d).  
474 Tentatively, we conclude that this period of ecological change was likely extrinsically forced  
475 (Williams et al. 2011; biome reconstruction in the Easter Sayan Mountains show an increase  
476 in steppe grasslands from c. 6.0 kyr BP, indicative of more arid conditions (Mackay et al.  
477 2012), while maximum taiga biome reconstructions occurred at c. 5.0 kyr BP, after which  
478 they declined, again indicative of cooler, more arid climate in the Lake Baikal region  
479 (Bezrukova et al. 2005; Prokopenko et al. 2007). Further afield in the Altai Mountains, there



480 is also strong evidence for a marked increase in aridity after 6.0 kyr BP (Blyakharchuk et al.  
481 2007; Rudaya et al. 2009) (Fig. 1), while glaciers advanced across Europe, North America  
482 and mountain regions of central Asia (reviewed in Mayewski et al. (2004).

483

484 During the late Holocene, diatom communities were increasingly dominated by the autumnal  
485 blooming *Cyclotella minuta* (Fig. 3l), leading to increasing ratio of autumn versus spring  
486 diatom communities (Fig. 3o). This increasing ratio is concurrent with declining June  
487 insolation (Fig. 6k) which may be an wide-scale ecosystem response to long-term orbital  
488 forcing. The final peak in *C. minuta* comes first of all at the expense of the cosmopolitan *S.*  
489 *acus*, then by the endemic *A. baicalensis*. Between c. 1.7 – 1.2 kyr BP, the pelagic  
490 community consists almost of only *C. minuta* to such an extent that N2 diversity reaches  
491 some of their lowest values (Fig. 3d), comparable to diversity during the Bølling-Allerød.  
492 Even more striking is the development of autumnal productivity between 1.48 – 1.32 kyr BP,  
493 which is unique for the 15,800 year record, and reaches almost 60 times that of spring  
494 productivity at c. 1.40 kyr BP (Fig. 3q). This dominance of autumnal productivity is  
495 concurrent with the Dark Ages Cold Period (DCAP) (CE 400 – 765) (Helama et al. 2017), a  
496 climatically cool period, linked to changes in ocean circulation (IRD1; Bond et al. 2001), and  
497 solar & volcanic activity (Helama et al. 2017). *C. minuta* is currently the only pelagic diatom  
498 to bloom during the autumn in Lake Baikal in substantial numbers. Because this species can  
499 tolerate surface water temperatures up to 11 °C, cells can persist in the surface waters for  
500 longer during summer stratification, so that when stratification breaks down in the autumn  
501 and nutrients are regenerated, cells of *C. minuta* are retrained into the photic first, giving  
502 them a strong competitive advantage (Jewson et al., 2015). From the available evidence, it is  
503 still not clear why *C. minuta* should dominate over all other species at this time. It may be  
504 that cold conditions associated with the DCAP led to extended ice cover such that growth of  
505 spring blooming species was inhibited, allowing *C. minuta* to exploit available resources. For  
506 the past 1000 years, spring blooming diatoms once more dominate communities.

507

508 To further investigate Lake Baikal's resilience, we specifically tested whether total, spring  
509 and autumn productivity, and N2 diversity, were different for the three centuries immediately  
510 before and after the three Holocene climate disturbance events using the non-parametric  
511 Kruskal-Wallis one-way analysis of variance (Table 2).

512



513 Table 2: Kruskal-Wallis one-way analysis of variance for measures of palaeoproductivity and  
514 N2 diversity

	TotValve BVAR	Spring BVAR	Autumn BVAR	N2
<b>10.3 kyr BP</b>				
Chi-Square	5.343	6.150	.130	5.343
Asymp. Sig.	.021	.013	.718	.021
<b>5.2 kyr BP</b>				
Chi-Square	1.058	.659	.949	2.550
Asymp. Sig.	.304	.417	.330	.110
<b>1.4 kyr BP</b>				
Chi-Square	3.552	1.464	12.052	19.221
Asymp. Sig.	.059	.226	.001	.000

515

516 Productivity and diversity show only minor or no lasting difference during the early- and  
517 mid- Holocene climate disturbance events. Only during the late Holocene climate event at 1.4  
518 kyr BP are autumnal productivity and N2 diversity very different (higher and lower  
519 respectively), suggesting perhaps of lowered ecosystem resilience at this time.

520

521 Overall, community metrics for richness and biodiversity suggest that over much of the  
522 record, the ecosystem of Lake Baikal has also shown considerable ecological resilience  
523 (Holling 1973). Despite repeated impacts on diatom communities from disruptive climate  
524 events, diversity recovers to higher N2 values than reached previously (Fig. 3d), at least until  
525 the start of the Neoglacial. The impact-recovery response occurs in a saw-tooth pattern,  
526 similar to the trapezoidal model of Dansgaard-Oeschger (D-O) cycles (Schulz 2002), where  
527 recovery takes hundreds of years (Pimm 1984). Our palaeoecological analyses highlight that  
528 succession of planktonic flora in Lake Baikal has always been very dynamic, such that  
529 shifting patterns of dominance indicate low stability, but strong resilience. Our analyses also  
530 highlight that despite successive abrupt ecological responses to rapid climate change, Lake  
531 Baikal planktonic diatoms contain considerable plasticity that has allowed them to tolerate  
532 major changes to their aquatic environment for the majority of the Holocene (Hof et al.  
533 2011).

534

#### 535 **4.3 Relationship between diversity and stability of ecosystem functioning**

536

537 N2 diatom diversity is highest (Fig. 3d) when there is both strong spring and autumnal  
538 productivity during the middle Holocene (Fig. 3p), indicative of optimal growing conditions



539 throughout the year. When growing conditions are optimal, productivity and diversity are not  
540 strongly coupled during much of the Holocene (10 – 2.5 kyr BP (Fig 5), indicating that while  
541 species fluctuations respond rapidly to changing resources (Fig. 3, the ecosystem function of  
542 primary production is relatively resilient. This is likely because of the “insurance effect”  
543 described by (Yachi and Loreau 1999), with different plankton playing similar functional  
544 roles in pelagic Lake Baikal.

545

546 During periods when diversity was less stable (e.g. during the period before 10 kyr BP),  
547 productivity is also unstable, for example, prior to 10 kyr BP, and again during 1-2 kyr BP  
548 (Fig. 5). The tightly coupled productivity – diversity relationship (PDR) during Termination  
549 1 is likely down to climate disturbance events having direct impact on resource availability.  
550 For example, as the regional climate warmed up, new resources become available, and  
551 nutrients could be transported to the lake through increased river flow from melting glaciers  
552 (Osipov and Khlystov 2010). Shorter ice duration on the lake will also have led to an increase  
553 in productivity due to a lengthening of the growing season. The switch to a strong negative  
554 relationship between 2 – 1.2 kyr BP, likely reflects a complex set of processes linked to both  
555 extreme ecosystem disturbance (eg increased ice cover and duration), and a reduction in  
556 resource heterogeneity (Interlandi & Kilham 2001) due to severe limitation by a single  
557 resource, indicative of a disturbed system (Interlandi & Kilham 2001). For example, silicon is  
558 likely limiting during the Younger Dryas due to massive increases in the abundances of *A.*  
559 *baicalensis* (Fig. 3) (Jewson et al., 2010; 2015). During 1.6 – 1.2 kyr BP, autumnal diatoms  
560 are in greater proportion than spring diatoms, concurrent with a strong negative correlation  
561 between palaeoproductivity and N2 diversity. This is also indicative of a reduction in  
562 resource heterogeneity (Interlandi & Kilham 2001), with silicon availability again being a  
563 likely contender.

564

565

## 566 **Conclusions**

567

568 This study provides many new insights into the development of primary producer  
569 communities in Lake Baikal. That diatom communities are very dynamic, they respond  
570 quickly to disturbance, but they also recover. These observations may hold insights into the  
571 unfolding changes occurring in recent decades; for example the decline in heavily silicified  
572 endemic taxa and the growth of the cosmopolitan *S. acus* (Roberts et al., 2018). That this



573 change has occurred earlier in the Holocene suggests that the lake is very resilient, and such  
574 changes may be, in the context of long timescales, temporary. However, what our record  
575 cannot provide information on is the resilience of the lake's flora to multiple stressors such as  
576 human driven climate change and anthropogenic nutrient enrichment, which is currently  
577 impacting the lake's littoral communities.

578

579 In relation to the wider ecological picture, our study has provided important insights into our  
580 understanding of productivity-diversity relationships (PDR). We show that diatoms  
581 communities and palaeoproductivity are sensitive to extrinsic drivers of climate change.  
582 These drivers operate at different time scales, from abrupt events during the Termination1,  
583 resulting in a tight coupling between palaeoproductivity and diversity, to slower changes in  
584 boreal insolation linked to orbital forcing, leading to gradual changes in seasonal productivity  
585 as the Holocene unfolds. We therefore provide important perspective to complement existing  
586 short-term observational (Dodson et al. 2000) and experimental (Winfree et al. 2015)  
587 approaches. Diatom responses (i.e. stability and diversity) to abrupt events are instantaneous,  
588 and although recovery occurs at a slower rate (which may be because resources take time to  
589 be replenished, or that disrupted food webs take longer to re-establish), N2 diversity tends to  
590 be higher than before the disturbance, indicative of strong resilience (McCann 2000), at least  
591 in freshwater ecosystems not damaged by environmental pollution.

592

593

#### 594 **Author Contributions:**

595 Study was conceived by AWM and PR. Diatom counting was undertaken by DM. Age  
596 modelling was done by NP. Data analyses was undertaken by AWM, VF and AS. AWM led  
597 the paper writing with significant contributions from AS and GEAS. All authors made  
598 comments on earlier drafts of the paper.

599

600

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606

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983

984 **Figure Legends:**

985

986 Fig. 1: Map showing location of the Lake Baikal (inset), together with the coring location on the  
987 Vydrino Shoulder, where the main sediment core analysed in this study was taken from. Also shown  
988 are selected sites which have been impacted by rapid climate change events during the past 15.8 kyr.  
989 These include a suite of cores taken from other locations in Lake Baikal, including the Academician  
990 Ridge (Watanabe et al. 2009), and from the Buguldieka Saddle, opposite the shallow waters of the  
991 Selenga Delta which separates the south and central basins (Prokopenko et al. 2007). Also shown are  
992 sites analysed east of Lake Baikal, including lakes Kotokel and Arakhlei, and to the west of the lake,  
993 including Lake ESM-1, Lake Hosvgol and Hoton-Nur in Mongolia, and lakes in the Ulagan Plateau in  
994 the Western Sayan Mountains.

995

996 Fig. 2: 'Bacon' Age-depth model (Blaauw & Christen, 2011) for Vydrino box (CON01-605-05) and  
997 piston cores (CON01-605-03) of radiocarbon AMS dates calibrated using IntCal13 radiocarbon  
998 calibration curve (Reimer et al., 2013).

999

1000 Fig. 3: Diatom data determined for sediments spanning the past 15.8 kyr BP from Vydrino Shoulder,  
1001 Lake Baikal. (a): principal curve component 1; (b-d) Hill's N0, N1 and N2 indices; (e) – (m) major  
1002 planktonic species; (n) all littoral diatoms grouped into the 'benthic' habitat guild. Planktonic diatoms  
1003 which grow mainly before summer stratification are coloured blue, while those that grow after  
1004 summer stratification are coloured green. Planktonic diatoms have been ordered according to their  
1005 ordination score for axis 1. (o): The proportion of diatoms that bloom in the autumn versus those that  
1006 bloom in the spring; (p): estimates of palaeoproductivity derived from spring (light blue) and autumn  
1007 (black line) diatom biovolume accumulate rates (BVAR  $\mu\text{m}^3/\text{cm}^2/\text{yr}$ ); (q): the ratio of autumnal /  
1008 spring palaeoproductivity. Three major time periods have been highlighted: the Bølling-Allerød (B-A)  
1009 interstadial, the Younger Dryas stadial and the Holocene Epoch.

1010

1011 Fig. 4: Coefficient of Variation (CV) plots against time (cal yrs BP) for N2 diversity (lower chart) and  
1012 log diatom BVAR as a proxy for palaeoproductivity (upper chart).

1013

1014 Fig. 5: Changes in the relationship (correlation coefficient) between diversity (N2) and  
1015 palaeoproductivity over time as assessed through a 1000-year moving window

1016

1017 Fig. 6: Multiarchive data plotted alongside original (a) principal curve, and (b) coef N2 versus  
1018 palaeoproductivity with a 1000-year moving window analyses; (c) mean pollen-inferred annual



1019 precipitation from Lake Kotokel, with smooth line representing the mean 3-point moving average  
1020 (Tarasov et al. 2009); (d) mean pollen-inferred temperature of the warmest month from Lake Kotokel,  
1021 with smooth line representing the mean 3-point moving average (Tarasov et al. 2009); (e)  $\delta_{18}\text{O}_{\text{diatom}}$   
1022 record from Vydrino Shoulder piston-core CON01-605-05 (Mackay et al., 2011); (f)  $\delta_{18}\text{O}$  values of  
1023 Dongge Cave stalagmite D4 (Dykoski et al. 2005); (g) North Atlantic core GGC5 231Pa/230Th  
1024 meridional circulation data; (h) four stacked records of relative abundance of haematite- stained  
1025 grains (%HSG) in North Atlantic sediments (Bond et al., 2001); (i)  $\text{K}^+$  ion concentrations (ppb) from  
1026 GISP2 D core (Mayewski et al., 1997); (j)  $\delta_{18}\text{O}$  values of NGRIP ice core (Rasmussen et al. 2006);  
1027 (k) July insolation  $50^\circ\text{N}$  ( $\text{W}/\text{m}^2$ ; Berger & Loutre, 1991). Light blue zones denote climate  
1028 disturbance events at the Younger Dryas, and at c. 10.3, 5.2, and 1.4 kyr BP.  
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1031