

crestr An R package to perform probabilistic climate reconstructions ~~using fossil proxies~~ from palaeoecological datasets

Manuel Chevalier^{1, 2}

¹Institute of Geosciences, Sect. Meteorology, Rheinische Friedrich-Wilhelms-Universität Bonn, Auf dem Hügel 20, 53121 Bonn, Germany

²Institute of Earth Surface Dynamics, Geopolis, University of Lausanne, Lausanne, Switzerland

Correspondence: Manuel Chevalier (chevalier.manuel@gmail.com)

Abstract. Statistical climate reconstruction techniques are ~~practical~~ fundamental tools to study past climate variability from fossil proxy data. In particular, the methods based on probability density functions (PDFs) ~~are powerful at producing robust results from~~ or PDFs) can be used in various environments and ~~proxies~~ with different climate proxies because they rely on elementary calibration data (i.e. modern geolocalised presence data). However, ~~the difficulty of~~ accessing and curating the necessary calibration data, as well as these calibration data and the complexity of interpreting probabilistic results ~~, often limit~~ have often limited their use in palaeoclimatological studies. ~~To address these problems, I present~~ Here, I introduce a new R package (~~erestr~~ crestr) to apply the ~~CREST method~~ PDF-based method CREST (Climate REconstruction SofTware) on diverse palaeoecological datasets ~~.erestr and address these problems.~~ crestr includes a globally curated calibration dataset for six common climate proxies (*i.e.* plants, beetles, chironomids, rodents, foraminifera, and dinoflagellate cysts) associated with an extensive range of climate variables that enables its use in most terrestrial and marine ~~regions.~~ The package environments, Private data collections can also be used ~~with private data collections~~ instead of, or in combination with, the provided dataset. It also calibration dataset. The package includes a suite of graphical diagnostic tools to represent the data at each step of the reconstruction process and provide insights into the effect of the different modelling assumptions and external factors that underlie a reconstruction. With this R package, the CREST method can now be used in a scriptable environment ~~, thus~~ simplifying its use and integration in and thus be more easily integrated with existing workflows. It is hoped that ~~erestr will contribute to producing~~ crestr will be used to produce the much-needed quantified records from the many regions where climate reconstructions are currently lacking, despite the ~~existence~~ availability of suitable fossil records.

The use of the package is illustrated with a step-by-step replication of a 790,000 year long mean annual temperature reconstruction based on a pollen record from southeastern Africa.

20 1 Introduction

Fossil-based climate reconstruction techniques are commonly used to quantify past climates and shed light on the nature of ~~climate drivers across various spatial and/or temporal scales~~ the drivers of climate change across space and time. Over the years, ~~a growing number of distinct~~ numerous techniques of increasing complexity ~~has~~ have been proposed, each one ~~being~~ based on a unique set of assumptions regarding the modelling of ecological datasets and their translation into climate ~~parameters~~

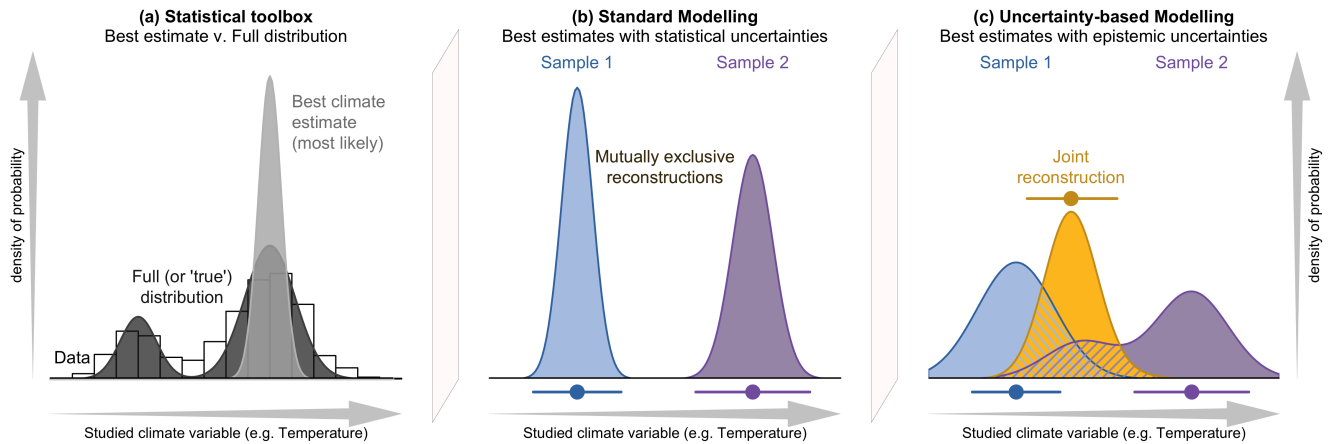


Figure 1. (a) Conceptual illustration of the differences between a modelling approach based on the estimation of the full spread of the data with the probabilities spread along the climate gradient (e.g. CREST; dark grey), and a modelling approach focused on the estimation of the 'most likely' or 'best' climate value with small statistical errors surrounding it (e.g. MAT or WA-PLS; light grey). In both cases, the area under the curve sums to one. The results of the two types of approaches are illustrated in (b) and (c), where two theoretical fossil assemblages (in blue and purple) are used to produce two independent reconstructions of the same climatic parameter for the same time interval. (b) The two reconstructions are derived from a method that only estimates the most likely climate value, resulting in 'apparently' incompatible reconstructions. (c) The same fossil assemblages are analysed using an approach that estimates their complete uncertainty distributions. In this case, the blue reconstruction is broader, and the purple reconstruction becomes bimodal. When the full spread of these uncertainties is considered, the two reconstructions are not incompatible anymore, and a joint climate estimate (gold) can be derived from their overlapping sections (hashed polygons).

25 reconstructions (e.g. Birks et al. (2010), Chevalier et al. (2020b)). ~~Of this array of~~ In particular, many techniques focus on
modelling the relationships between proxy assemblages and climate from collections of modern proxy samples. Of these
 techniques, Weighted-Averaging (WA, ter Braak and van Dame (1989)), Weighted-Averaging Partial Least Square (WA-PLS,
 ter Braak et al. (1993)), and the Modern Analogue Technique (MAT, Hutson (1978), Overpeck et al. (1985)) have been the
 most widely employed. ~~Despite because of~~ their conceptual simplicity and, their demonstrated capacity to reliably reconstruct
 30 climate from palaeoecological datasets, various palaeoecological datasets (e.g. fossil pollen, chironomids, foraminifera) and
their accessibility with multiple software solutions. However, the limited availability of robust calibration datasets (i.e. regional
collections of modern proxy samples) the necessary calibration datasets beyond the Northern Hemisphere extratropics has ;
~~however, often~~ hindered their application in these regions many environments and regions where quantified climate records are
needed, despite the existence of suitable ~~records from all environments worldwide~~ fossil records (Chevalier et al., 2020b).
 35 ~~The abundance of such un-quantified fossil pollen records from southern Africa triggered the development of the~~
In contrast, the 'Indicator species' family of reconstruction techniques uses modern proxy occurrences (i.e. collections of
locations where the studied proxy species can be observed in modern environments) to estimate individual proxy-climate
relationships (Chevalier et al., 2020b). Because modern occurrence data are generally easier to obtain than modern proxy

assemblages, this fundamental difference implies that Indicator species methods can contribute to filling in the reconstruction gaps that exist at the global scale. The CREST (Climate REconstruction SofTware) ~~method (Chevalier et al., 2014). Built upon~~ technique is an Indicator species method initially developed to produce quantified climate reconstructions from southern African pollen records (Chevalier et al., 2014). Derived from the original work of K uhl et al. (2002) — who first proposed to replace the commonly-used modern proxy ~~samples with modern proxy assemblages with modern~~ geolocalised occurrence data to estimate probabilistic proxy-climate relationships ~~for palaeoclimatic studies~~ — CREST estimates and combines ~~probability density functions (PDFs) to reconstruct climate parameters. Using probabilistic proxy-climate relationships to reconstruct past climate parameters from fossil proxy observations. Built on~~ a private collection of modern plant occurrences held by the South African National Botanical Institute (SANBI), CREST ~~has been successfully was first~~ employed to reconstruct diverse temperature, precipitation and moisture-related variables for different time ~~periods intervals~~ across the southern African ~~tropical and subtropical regions drylands~~ (see for instance Chase et al. (2015b), Chase et al. (2015a), Chevalier and Chase (2015), Chevalier and Chase (2016), Lim et al. (2016), Cordova et al. (2017)). ~~A-~~

~~Since the assumptions of CREST do not restrict its use to southern African pollen records, CREST was also integrated into a point-and-click graphical user interface to enable its use by the broader community (Chevalier et al., 2014). However, the complexity of collating and formatting the thousands of distinct occurrences required to estimate reliable PDFs limited its practical use. To overcome this limitation, a~~ global, multi-proxy calibration dataset containing millions of modern occurrence data ~~for plants, beetles, chironomids, foraminifera, and diatoms~~ was subsequently released (Chevalier, 2019) ~~to support the use of CREST beyond southern Africa and contribute to the creation of~~, and this curated dataset contributed to creating quantified climate records ~~worldwide (beyond southern Africa (e.g. Yi et al. (2020), Hui et al. (2021))-, Gibson et al. (2022)). However, maintaining the compatibility of the graphical interface across a range of constantly evolving operating platforms has been challenging. This paper thus introduces a new multi-platform R package crestr designed to replace the original interface. crestr~~ includes the global calibration dataset and provides simple solutions to tailor it to the users' specific needs. The package also proposes an array of graphical diagnostic tools to represent the calibration and reconstruction data at different pivotal steps of the reconstruction process and facilitate interpreting the data and results.

In addition ~~to its broad applicability, CREST also bears~~, the advantage of using CREST is not limited to its capacity to produce quantified reconstructions in understudied regions. CREST is equipped with some fundamental statistical ~~properties features~~ that make it well-adapted to ~~the analysis of palaeoecological datasets analysing extensive collections of palaeoecological records from any region~~ (Chevalier et al., 2020b). While techniques such as MAT or WA-PLS are primarily designed to associate modern proxy observations with their 'most likely' or 'mean' climate values only, CREST estimates ~~weights and propagates and weighs~~ all the climate values that are compatible with the observed fossil data. ~~The posterior As such, the~~ climate reconstructions obtained from CREST can ~~thus~~ be understood as ~~a weighted an~~ ensemble of all ~~plausible data compatible~~ climate values and not a simpler, less informative 'most likely' or 'best' climate estimate with statistical errors (see the conceptual Fig. 1). While the latter might be optimal when a ~~sample fossil assemblage~~ is analysed in complete isolation, the presence of independent ~~local or regional information (information (i.e. other samples for reconstructions from~~ the same core or independent records) usually provides additional information that may not always be consistent with ~~such an isolated,~~

~~analytical solution~~best estimate reconstructions. In practice, joint solutions based on all the available information often differ
75 from ~~most likely~~best climate estimates (Fig. 1). Using methods ~~that can model~~such as CREST that can estimate the full
range of climate uncertainties associated with a proxy sample is thus critical to bring ~~various~~ reconstructions and even climate
simulations together in ~~the most~~a cohesive way.

~~(a) Conceptual illustration of the differences between a modelling approach based on the estimation of the most likely
climate where all the probabilities are concentrated around the mode (light grey), and a modelling approach focused on the
80 full spread of the data with the probabilities more spread along the climate gradient (dark grey). In both cases, the area
under the curve sums to one. The two types of approaches are illustrated in (b) and (c) with two theoretical fossil samples
(in blue and purple) representing two independent reconstructions of the same climatic parameter for the same time period.
(b) The two reconstructions are derived from a method focused on only estimating the most likely climate value, resulting
in 'apparently' incompatible reconstructions. (c) The same samples are reconstructed using an approach that estimates their
85 complete uncertainty distributions. In this case, the response of the blue sample is broader, and the response of the purple sample
becomes bimodal. When the full spread of these uncertainties is considered, the two reconstructions are not incompatible
anymore, and a joint climate estimate (gold) can be derived from their overlapping sections (hashed polygons).~~

~~Despite their definite advantages, uncertainty-based frameworks like CREST can be complex to employ, and their results
are challenging to process and represent. To facilitate access and use of such probabilistic techniques to a broad range of
90 non-experts, I present a new R package `crestr` that enables employing CREST and its built-in calibration dataset in a
scriptable environment. In addition to its technical core, the package also contains an array of graphical diagnostic tools
to represent the data at different pivotal steps of the reconstruction process and facilitate objective evaluations of the data
and results. This paper~~This article introduces the `crestr` R package and provides good-practice recommendations to produce
high-quality climate reconstructions. The article is structured as follows.First, Section ?? summarises the: Section 2 summarises
95 the most important mathematics and assumptions ~~underpinning the approach~~and introduces the underlying the approach.
Understanding all the details of this section is not necessary to use the package. Then, Section 3 describes the embedded
calibration dataset.~~Then,~~how it was built and how the data are structured. Section 4 explains the philosophy and main ele-
ments of the package and describes the format of the different input files required. Finally, Section 5 documents a step-by-step
guided tour of the package, illustrating the successive stages of a CREST analysis and how to use the diagnostic tools to
100 reproduce a recently published pollen-based temperature reconstruction (Chevalier et al., 2021a).

2 The CREST method

~~As is standard with statistical climate reconstruction techniques, the~~The core process of ~~CREST~~a CREST reconstruction can
be decomposed into two ~~major~~successive stages: 1) ~~estimating the modern climatic~~modelling the proxy climate responses of
the proxies observed in the fossil sequence by correlating modern occurrence data with corresponding climate values (Fig. 2a-e)
105 and 2) reconstructing past climate by combining these responses ~~to reconstruct past climates~~ (Fig. 2d). ~~In the following sections,~~
the main elements based on the information provided by the fossil data. This section presents the most important details of these

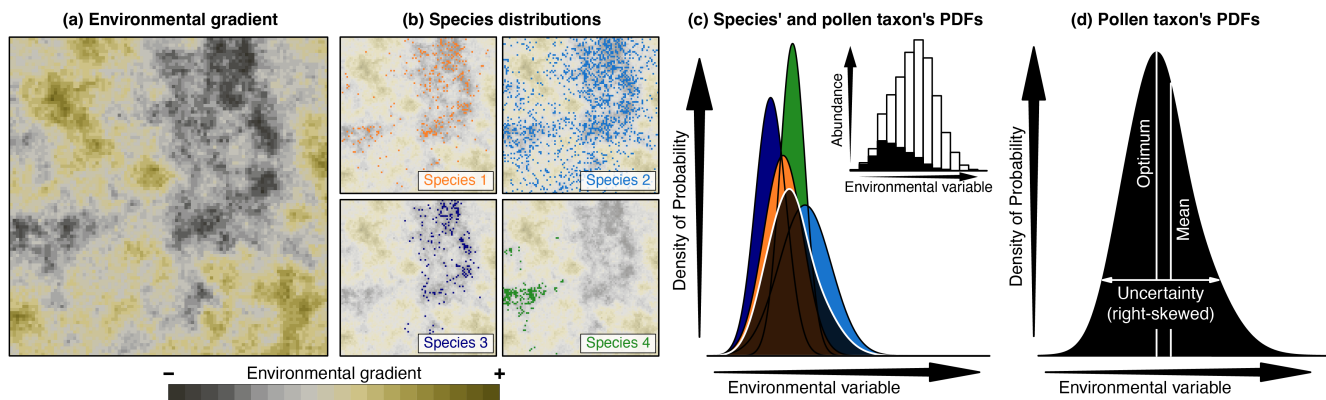


Figure 2. Conceptual representation of CREST illustrated with artificial pollen data. (a) Modern distribution of a climate variable to reconstruct (e.g. temperature). (b) Occurrences of four species part of the same pollen morphotype exhibiting marked preferences for the lowest values of that climate (e.g. dark/cold values) across the study area. (c) Combination of the four species PDFs (in colour) and the resulting pollen taxon PDF (in black). The histogram in the inset panel represents the proportion of the modern climate space (white) occupied by at least one of the four species (black), highlighting the higher chances of observing the taxon at the lower end of the climate gradient. (d) Taxon PDF derived from the combination of the four species PDFs and the type of synthetic statistics (e.g. optimum, mean, uncertainty range) that can be derived from it.

two stages ~~are presented along with all and provides details only for~~ the parameters and ~~for~~ modelling assumptions that can be modified in ~~crestr~~. ~~For crestr~~. Readers interested in an in-depth description ~~or discussion~~ of the method and its ~~assumptions; the reader is, however, referred to~~ modelling assumptions are referred to Chevalier et al. (2014) and Chevalier et al. (2020b).

110 ~~As is standard with statistical climate reconstruction techniques, the core process of a CREST reconstruction can be decomposed into two major stages: 1) estimating the modern climatic responses of the proxies-~~

2.1 Nature of the required data

Three types of data are required to reconstruct climate parameters with the CREST method:

- A fossil proxy record with several taxa being co-recorded and expressed as counts, percentages or binary presence/absence;
 - Modern presence-only occurrence data of species corresponding to the taxa observed in the fossil ~~sequence~~-record (i.e. collections of geographical coordinates where the species are observed across a user-defined study area; see Fig. 2a-e) and 2) combining these responses to reconstruct past climates (see b and Section 3 for an example of a curated dataset);
 - Climatology(ies) of the variable(s) to reconstruct gridded at the same resolution as the modern occurrences (Fig. 2d).
- 120 ~~The main elements of these two stages are presented in the following sections, along with all the parameters and/or modelling assumptions that can be modified in 'crestr'. For an in-depth description of the method and its assumptions;~~

the reader is, however, referred to Chevalier et al. (2014). a). All the climate values observed in the study area define the climate space.

125 Conceptual representation of CREST using artificial pollen data. (a) Spatial distribution of a climate variable to reconstruct (e.g. temperature). (b) Occurrences of four species part of the same pollen group exhibiting marked preferences for the lowest values of that climate (e.g. dark/cold values) cross the study area. (c) Combination of the four species PDFs (colours) into the pollen PDF (black). The histogram represents the proportion of the modern climate space (white) occupied by at least one of the four species (black), highlighting the higher chances of observing the taxon at the lower end of the climate gradient. (d) Example of a posterior climate distribution resulting from the multiplication of PDFs and the type of synthetic statistics (e.g. optimum, mean, uncertainty range) one can derive from it.

130

2.2 Modelling the proxy-climate relationships

~~In CREST, PDFs are used to transform~~ CREST takes into account that some fossil taxa can be identified at the species level (e.g. plant macrofossils), when others are only identified at a lower taxonomic resolution (e.g. fossil pollen are commonly identified at the genus, sub-family, or family level; Chevalier et al. (2020b)). The transformation of the information contained

135 ~~in the modern observations of the biological climate proxies into probabilistic climate responses . A PDF thus represents a weighted ensemble of all the conditions where the proxy is observed today. PDFs can be fitted is thus done~~ in one or two steps depending on the ~~nature and~~ taxonomic resolution of the studied proxy. ~~Climate responses are first fitted~~ When the observed fossil taxa are not identified at the species level (hereafter $\text{PDF}_{\text{sp}}(e, s)$ with e representing the studied climate variable and s a species), and when necessary, these $\text{PDF}_{\text{sp}}(e, s)$ are then combined together to meet the taxonomic resolution of the fossil

140 ~~taxon (hereafter $\text{PDF}_{\text{tx}}(t, e)$ with t representing the observed taxon, determining a list of species that could have produced that fossil is, however, necessary (see Section 4.3.2 to know how to format this information for *crestr*).~~

~~For The climate responses of all the species , their empirical mean climate and associated variance are calculated from their modern distributions following Eq. 4 and 4. These two parameters can be intuitively interpreted as the climate preference and tolerance of the species. For a robust estimation, it is recommended to exclude species with too few observations. Different~~

145 ~~studies have shown that a threshold of a minimum of $N_s \geq 20$ -25 distinct occurrences usually leads to robust estimates (e.g. Chevalier et al. (2014), Chevalier et al. (2021a)) . However, this number can vary between regions and climates. Each observation can also be weighted~~ identified are estimated as univariate probability density functions (PDFs) for every climate variable. Because CREST aims to be applicable even in data-sparse environments, the estimation of these responses is based on simple assumptions that exclude using complex algorithms, such as those described in, for instance, the recent review of

150 Valavi et al. (2021). The individual species climate responses are derived from the estimation of the empirical mean ($\overline{m}_{s,c}$) and associated variance ($s_{s,c}^2$) of all the N_s climate values (c_i) where species s is observed:

$$\overline{m}_{s,c} = \frac{1}{\sum_i k(c_i)} \sum_{i=1}^{N_s} k(c_i) c_i \quad (1)$$

$$s_{s,c}^2 = \frac{1}{\sum_i k(c_i)} \sum_{i=1}^{N_s} k(c_i) (c_i - \bar{m}_{s,c}^2) \quad (2)$$

155 where $k(c_i)$ is a weighting parameter that can be used to account for the uneven distribution of modern climate in modern environments (Kühl et al. (2002), Bray et al. (2006)). Extreme values are usually under-represented in the climate space (see, for instance, the white inset histogram on Fig. 2c), and this bias can push the estimation which “pushes” the peak of the $\text{PDF}_{\text{sp}}(c, s)$ towards the mean climate observed across the study area (*i.e.* towards the centre of the “climate space”). It can also artificially shrink the posterior range of the reconstructions. In CREST, this weighting can be accounted for. Here, the weights are calculated by first sorting the N climate values (all the c_j) that compose the modern climate space into bins of equal sizes-width (*e.g.* 2°C or 50 mm). Then, each climate value c_i is given a weight $k(c_i)$ defined as the inverse of the abundance of the bin relative size of the bin, it belongs to (Eq. 4):

$$k(c_i) = \left(\frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=1}^N \mathbf{1}_{c_j \in \text{bin}_{c_i}} \right)^{-1} \quad (3)$$

With this correction, abundant climate values in the climate space are down-weighted, while and the rarer ones are up-weighted, and so that the distribution of modern climate is overall more ‘balanced’.

$$165 \quad \bar{m}_{s,c} = \frac{1}{\sum_i k(c_i)} \sum_{i=1}^{N_s} k(c_i) c_i$$

$$s_{s,c}^2 = \frac{1}{\sum_i k(c_i)} \sum_{i=1}^{N_s} k(c_i) (c_i - \bar{m}_{s,c}^2)$$

$$k(c_j) = \left(\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \mathbf{1}_{c_i \in \text{bin}_{c_j}} \right)^{-1}$$

170 These two parameters, The two parameters $\bar{m}_{s,c}$ and $s_{s,c}$, can be interpreted as the climate preference and tolerance of the species, respectively. For a reliable estimation, excluding species with few observations is, however, recommended. Different studies have shown that a threshold of a minimum of $N_s > 20$ -25 distinct occurrences usually leads to reliable estimates (*e.g.* Chevalier et al. (2014), Chevalier et al. (2021a)). However, this number can vary between regions and proxies.

Once estimated, $\bar{m}_{s,c}$ and $s_{s,c}^2$ are used to define a regular, unimodal distribution for the $\text{PDF}_{\text{sp}}(s, c)$. In CREST, of species s for climate variable c . Here, we assume that the shape of these distributions is pre-defined to be either normal (Eq. 5) species responses should be unimodal and can be either normal:

$$175 \quad \text{PDF}_{\text{sp}}(s, c) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi s_{s,c}^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{(c - \bar{m}_{s,c})^2}{2s_{s,c}^2}\right) \quad (4)$$

or log-normal (Eq. 5). The decision should be made based on the climate variable to reconstruct. In general, log-normal distributions are recommended for variables that are undefined for negative values, such as precipitation variables, if the variable is not defined for negative values (e.g. precipitation variables):

$$\text{PDF}_{\text{sp}}(s, c) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi s_{s,c}^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{(c - \bar{m}_{s,c})^2}{2s_{s,c}^2}\right)$$

180 ~~normal law~~

$$\text{PDF}_{\text{sp}}(s, c) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2 c^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{(\ln(c) - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) \quad (5)$$

with $\begin{cases} \mu = \ln(\bar{m}_{s,c}) - \frac{1}{2} \ln\left(1 + \frac{s_{s,c}^2}{\bar{m}_{s,c}^2}\right) \\ \sigma^2 = \ln\left(1 + \frac{s_{s,c}^2}{\bar{m}_{s,c}^2}\right) \end{cases}$

185 Finally, the PDF_{sp}(s, c) of the S(t) species composing taxon t are linearly combined to create the climate response of taxon t. For the fossil taxon t to climate variable c (Eq. 6), that are not identified at the species level, the PDF_{sp}(c, s) of their S(t) composing species are combined together to meet the taxonomic resolution of the fossil observation (hereafter PDF_{tx}(t, c)):

$$\text{PDF}_{\text{tx}}(t, c) = \frac{1}{\sum_s \sqrt{N_s}} \left(\sum_{s=1}^{S(t)} \sqrt{N_s} \text{PDF}_{\text{sp}}(s, c) \right) \quad (6)$$

This linear combination ensures that all the climate values that support the presence of at least one species have a non-null probability in the PDF_{tx}(t, c). Contrary to the previous step, no additional constraints are added here. The distribution of the PDF_{tx}(t, c) can thus be asymmetrical and even multimodal if different (groups of) composing species exhibit distinct climate requirements. An additional option is to weigh the different PDF_{sp}(s, c) by the square root of the number of individual grid cells occurrences composing their distribution (N_s). Considering that it is harder more difficult to estimate robust parameters with few points, this weighting gives more importance to the species with more extensive geographical distributions today, or, to say it, said differently, it gives more weight to the species whose climate responses can be the most robustly reliably defined.

$$195 \quad \text{PDF}_{\text{tx}}(t, c) = \frac{1}{\sum_s \sqrt{N_s}} \left(\sum_{s=1}^{S(t)} \sqrt{N_s} \text{PDF}_{\text{sp}}(s, c) \right)$$

Finally, it is important to note that if a fossil taxon is taxonomically resolved at the species level, its number of composing species $S(t)$ equals 1. The resulting $\text{PDF}_{\text{tx}}(t, c)$ is thus equivalent to its $\text{PDF}_{\text{sp}}(s, c)$. A fossil sample can thus be composed of a mix of taxa identified at the species level and taxa identified at a lower taxonomical level without interfering with the reconstruction algorithm.

2.2.1 Stage 2: Reconstructing climate

2.3 Reconstructing climate

With the $\text{PDF}_{\text{tx}}(t, c)$ calibrated, posterior climate reconstructions can be estimated from their multiplication (Eq. 7, where Climate c is reconstructed from fossil sample z represents the age or depth of the sample to reconstruct, and Fig. 2d). Due to their exponential nature, the $(z$ can be an age, depth or any identifier) by multiplying the $\text{PDF}_{\text{tx}}(t, c)$ rapidly converge to zero beyond the range of the modern observations of its composing species. As such, the multiplication of these $\text{PDF}_{\text{tx}}(t, c)$ ensures that only the climate values where all the taxa can coexist have a non-null (or, more precisely, a non-infinitesimal) probability. In addition, the presence or absence of each taxon is considered independent from the others. As such, it is possible to select a subset of climatically sensitive taxa to reconstruct each climate variable and maximise the reconstruction signal (Chevalier and Chase, 2015), even if it is not always mandatory (Chevalier et al., 2021a). These definitions of sensitive taxa are always specific to a specific region and variable and should not be generalised (Chevalier et al., 2021b) of the $T(z)$ selected taxa:

$$\text{PDF}_{\text{restrctn}}(c, z) = \left(\prod_{t=1}^{T(z)} \text{PDF}_{\text{tx}}(t, c)^{\omega(t, z)} \right)^{(\sum_t \omega(t, z))^{-1}}$$

$$\text{RECON}(c, z) = \left(\prod_{t=1}^{T(z)} \text{PDF}_{\text{tx}}(t, c)^{\omega(t, z)} \right)^{(\sum_t \omega(t, z))^{-1}} \quad (7)$$

Finally, the selected $\text{PDF}_{\text{tx}}(t, c)$ can be weighted with the parameter $\omega(t, z)$, which can take any positive values is a positive value that is used to weigh taxon t in sample z . For presence/absence observations, the weights $\omega(t, z)$ of taxon t will be either one (the taxon is observed) or zero (the taxon is not observed and does not influence the reconstruction). For compositional data, the weights $\omega(t, z)$ can be the observed percentages (*i.e.* values between 0 and 100) or rescaled percentages when. However, using raw percentages implies that the observed percentages are not directly proportional to the taxa composition across the catchment. In most cases, using raw percentages to weight taxa As such, this can give considerable weight to abundant, ubiquitous taxa that do not necessarily have a well-defined climate response and, in contrast, can strongly limit the influence of rarer taxa with more explicit stricter climate preferences.

An empirical normalisation is proposed in CREST to account for the varying production rates, distribution and preservation processes impacting the relative proportions of fossil taxa observed in the sediments (Chevalier et al., 2014). This sealing

225 ~~entails calculating the average percentage~~ In this taxon-specific scaling method, the percentages of each taxon are divided by
its average percentage when it is present ~~and dividing all its percentages by this taxon-specific scaling factor (Eq. 8, (0s are~~
~~excluded from the calculation of the average):~~

$$\omega(t, z) = \frac{O(t, z)}{\left(\frac{\sum_z O(t, z)}{\sum_z \mathbf{1}_{O(t, z) > 0}} \right)} \quad (8)$$

where $O(t, z)$ represents the observed percentage of taxon t ~~at age or depth in sample z~~ . With this ~~normalisation transformation~~,
 230 all the ~~taxa normalised percentages~~ vary on a standardised scale. The average presence is given a weight of 1, and values be-
 low and above this average presence threshold are assumed to represent lower and higher abundance in the environment,
~~respectively~~. While the empirical nature of this solution makes it imperfect and sensitive to the quality of the data, it nev-
 ertheless enables using percentages to inform the reconstructions. ~~One alternative solution is to convert the percentages to~~
~~presence and absence, but this approach can be limiting when most of the observed variability concerns changes in the relative~~
 235 ~~proportions of different taxa, rather than a clear succession of taxa with different climate requirements (see for instance the~~
~~pollen diagram in Chase et al. (2015b)). These different weighting options are available in crestr, but users can also provide a~~
~~weighting strategy of their design to better account for the specificity of their data~~ The three weighting options described here
are available in crestr, but users can also design their own weights to better account for the specificity of their data.

Finally, the presence of each taxon in a sample is considered independent from the others. It is thus possible to select a
 240 subset of sensitive taxa to reconstruct a specific climate variable. In some cases, identifying a subgroup of climate-sensitive
taxa can help disentangle the different climate signals represented by the palaeoecological data and improve the quality of
the reconstructions (Chevalier and Chase, 2015), even if it is not always necessary (Chevalier et al., 2021a). In practice, these
choices should be dictated by the data themselves and the users' understanding of the studied proxy system. crestr provides
graphical tools to help identify the possible climate sensitivities of the studied taxa across the study area (Chevalier et al., 2021b).

245
$$\omega(t, z) = \frac{O(t, z)}{\left(\frac{\sum_z O(t, z)}{\sum_z \mathbf{1}_{O(t, z) > 0}} \right)}$$

3 CREST calibration dataset

A multiproxy calibration dataset to estimate PDFs from a global collection of ~~geolocalised~~-presence-only occurrence data
 (hereafter proxy ~~distributions~~ 'distributions') was first presented in Chevalier (2019). These data were obtained from the Global
 250 Biodiversity Information Facility (GBIF) database, an online collection of geolocalised observations of biological entities
 (GBIF, 2018). The calibration dataset (hereafter *gbif4crest*, Chevalier, 2020) contains the species distributions of six common
 palaeoecological fossils: the five taxa presented in the original version of the dataset — plants (GBIF (2020i), GBIF (2020h),

GBIF (2020k), GBIF (2020f), GBIF (2020g), GBIF (2020m), GBIF (2020i), GBIF (2020n), GBIF (2020j), GBIF (2021a), GBIF (2021b)) for fossil pollen and macrofossils, chironomids (GBIF, 2020b), beetles (GBIF, 2020a), diatoms (GBIF, 2020c) and foraminifera (GBIF, 2020d) – to which rodents (GBIF, 2020e) were recently added (Fig. 3). These data were curated and stored in a relational database to ensure the consistency of the data.

The coordinates of all the presence records of these six common palaeoecological fossil proxies were ~~upsealed at a spatial~~ ~~150-mapped onto a grid with a spatial~~ resolution of $0.25 \times 0.25^\circ$ (hereafter QDGC for Quarter-Degree Grid Cell). ~~They were subsequently associated with terrestrial and oceanic environmental variables at the same resolution ((Fick and Hijmans (2017), Zomer et al. (2008), Locarnini et al. (2019), Zweng et al. (2018), Garcia et al. (2019a), Garcia et al. (2019b), Reynolds et al. (2007), see details in Tables 1 and 2).~~ The QDGC spatial resolution is an empirical trade-off between numerous factors, including the resolution of the presence data, the quality of the data or the spatial representativity of the studied proxy (see discussions in Chevalier et al. (2014) and Chevalier (2019)). However, this trade-off may be suboptimal in some situations, ~~and for~~. For that reason, ~~erestr crestr~~ can also be used with the raw GBIF data ~~and even alternative~~ ~~(stored in the DISTRIB table, Fig. 4)~~ ~~and even independent~~ calibration datasets.

In the *gbif4crest* database, all the QDGC grid cells were associated with a collection of terrestrial and oceanic environmental variables that can be reconstructed (Fick and Hijmans (2017), Zomer et al. (2008), Locarnini et al. (2019), Zweng et al. (2018), Garcia et al. (2019a), Garcia et al. (2019b), Reynolds et al. (2007), see details in Tables 1 and 2). Despite the diversity of variables available, it is recommended to avoid serial reconstructions and, on the contrary, to identify the few important variables for the studied palaeoecological datasets *a priori*. The grid cells were also associated with ‘non-reconstructible’ environmental and geographical descriptors that serve to tailor the calibration dataset to the users’ needs. These include the coordinates, the elevation and elevation variability within the grid cell (Amante and Eakins, 2009), the country (<https://www.naturelearthdata.com>) or ocean (<https://www.marinerregions.org>) names, as well as different levels of ecological classification for the terrestrial (Olson et al., 2001) and marine (Costello et al., 2017) realms.

In its current version (V2), the *gbif4crest* calibration dataset contains about 25.3 million unique ~~presence-occurrence~~ data for the six climate proxies. Unfortunately, the density of data available varies between proxies and regions (Fig. 3). Plant data largely dominate the calibration dataset (>22 million unique occurrences) and allow for the use of ~~erestr crestr~~ across all landmasses ~~where vegetation currently grows~~. For the five other proxies, the calibration data are not as extensive. However, these datasets are regularly updated by GBIF. For example, the first version of the *gbif4crest* dataset released in 2018 contained about 17.5 million QDGC entries, while the new version contains approximately 25.3 million entries (~44% increase). The range of ‘reconstructible’ areas is thus rapidly broadening (see, for instance, the coverage of Russia by plant data compared to the first version of the ~~*gbif4erestr-gbif4crest*~~ dataset presented in Chevalier (2019)). This database will be regularly updated, and specific requests can also be made.

The *gbif4crest* database is composed of three main types of data: taxonomic data (TAXA table on Fig. 4), distribution data (DISTRIB (raw data) and DISTRIB_QDGC (curated data) tables) and diverse geopolitical, climatological, and environmental data (DATA_QDGC table). Its structure is slightly different from the first version presented in Chevalier (2019), with a grouping of all the separate QDGC tables in a unique DATA_QDGC table to enable faster data extraction. ~~In addition, various~~

Number of occurrence data per grid cell for six common biological climate proxies

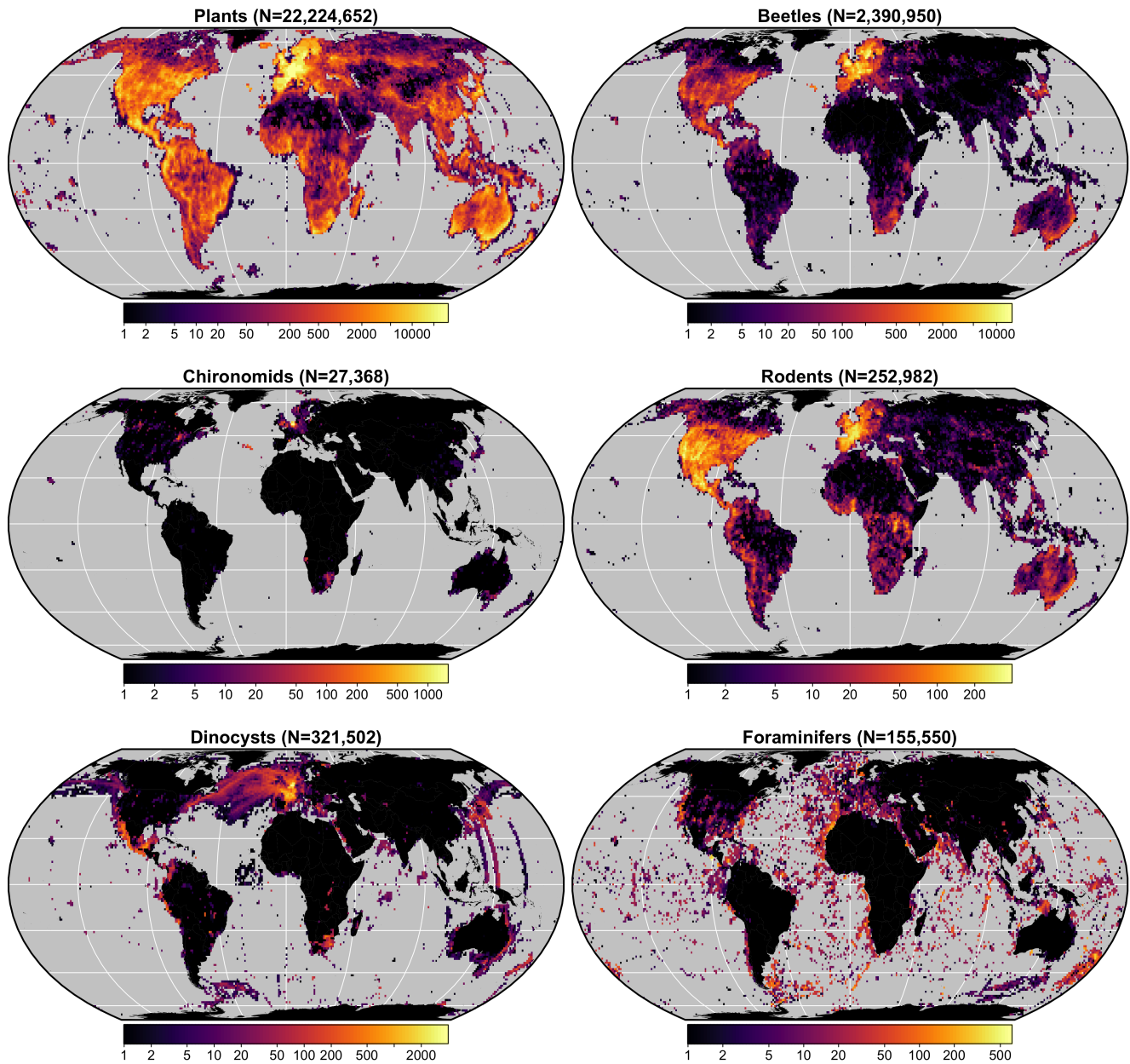


Figure 3. [Data-Distribution and grid cell](#) density of the six climate proxies available in the gbif4crest calibration database. The total number of unique species occurrences (N) is indicated for each proxy. The maps are based on the 'Equal Earth' map projection to better account for the relative sizes of the different continents.

Structure of the gbif4crest PostgreSQL database

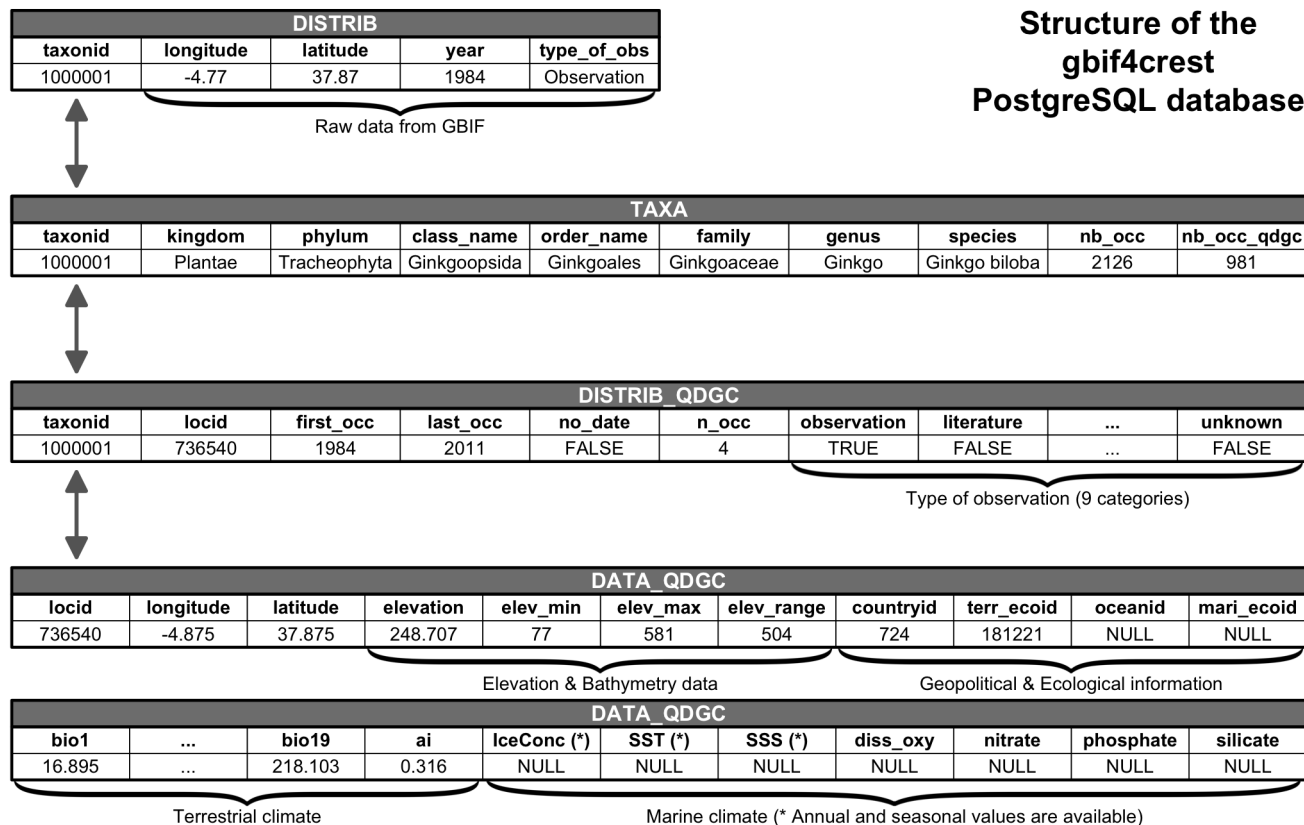


Figure 4. Structure of the gbif4crest PostgreSQL database. By default, the package extracts data from the TAXA, DISTRIB-QDGC and DATA-QDGC tables. The DISTRIB table contains the raw occurrence data obtained from GBIF and can be used to curate the distribution data at a different spatial resolution. Note that the DATA-QDGC table spreads across two rows on this figure.

environmental and geographical descriptors were also introduced to characterise each grid cell and allow a more refined data selection. These include elevation and elevation variability (Amante and Eakins, 2009), the country (<https://www.naturelearthdata.com>) or ocean (<https://www.marinerregions.org>) names, as well as different levels of ecological classification for the terrestrial (Olson et al., 2001) and marine (Costello et al., 2017) realms. The DISTRIB_QDGC tables link the TAXA and DATA_QDGC tables using the unique identifiers taxonID and locID, respectively. Each occurrence's first and last observation dates are also now included, along with the type of observation, as reported by GBIF (see DISTRIB_QDGC table on Fig.4). Finally, the https://rs.gbif.org/vocabulary/dwc/basis_of_record.xml and the number of observations n_occ reported between the first and the last observation dates. The DATA_QDGC table was also entirely recalculated using a new protocol that better accounts for coastal margins, implying that some coastal climate values will may differ, however marginally, between the different versions of the gbif4crest-gbif4crest dataset.

Table 1. List of terrestrial variables available in the [gbif4erest](#)-[gbif4crest](#) database. Each one can be selected in [erestr](#)-[crestr](#) using its associated code. List of abbreviations: (Temp.) Temperature, (Precip.) Precipitation.

Terrestrial variables		
Code	Full name	Source
bio1	Mean Annual Temp. (°C)	Fick and Hijmans (2017)
bio2	Mean Diurnal Range (°C)	Fick and Hijmans (2017)
bio3	Isothermality (x100)	Fick and Hijmans (2017)
bio4	Temp. Seasonality (standard deviation x100) (°C)	Fick and Hijmans (2017)
bio5	Max Temp. of the Warmest Month (°C)	Fick and Hijmans (2017)
bio6	Min Temp. of the Coldest Month (°C)	Fick and Hijmans (2017)
bio7	Temp. Annual Range (°C)	Fick and Hijmans (2017)
bio8	Mean Temp. of the Wettest Quarter (°C)	Fick and Hijmans (2017)
bio9	Mean Temp. of the Driest Quarter (°C)	Fick and Hijmans (2017)
bio10	Mean Temp. of the Warmest Quarter (°C)	Fick and Hijmans (2017)
bio11	Mean Temp. of the Coldest Quarter (°C)	Fick and Hijmans (2017)
bio12	Annual precip. (mm)	Fick and Hijmans (2017)
bio13	Precip. of the Wettest Month (mm)	Fick and Hijmans (2017)
bio14	Precip. of the Driest Month (mm)	Fick and Hijmans (2017)
bio15	Precip. Seasonality (Coefficient of Variation) (mm)	Fick and Hijmans (2017)
bio16	Precip. of the Wettest Quarter (mm)	Fick and Hijmans (2017)
bio17	Precip. of the Driest Quarter (mm)	Fick and Hijmans (2017)
bio18	Precip. of the Warmest Quarter (mm)	Fick and Hijmans (2017)
bio19	Precip. of the Coldest Quarter (mm)	Fick and Hijmans (2017)
ai	Aridity Index (unitless)	Zomer et al. (2008)

300 ~~Structure of the [gbif4erest](#) PostgreSQL database. By default, the package extracts data from the TAXA, DISTRIB_QDGC and DATA_QDGC tables. The DISTRIB table contains the raw occurrence data obtained from GBIF and can be used to process the data at a different spatial resolution.~~

Due to its large size (about 15 Gb), this database is not downloaded when installing the package, but it can be accessed ~~in different ways~~[through different routes](#). First, the data are stored in an open-access, cloud-based PostgreSQL database that can be accessed via ~~erestr~~[crestr](#). This solution is the recommended option, as users without any SQL knowledge can benefit from the package's interface to automatically query the database [simply](#) by providing study-specific parameters (e.g. the name of the taxa or geographical boundaries for the study area) to import all the necessary data in the correct format to the R environment (see Section 5.2). Second, [more](#) advanced users can also directly query the database to extract and curate data from the DISTRIB or DISTRIB_QDGC tables using [SQL requests and](#) the `dbRequest()` function ~~and subsequently~~

305

Table 2. List of marine variables available in the ~~gbif4crest~~[gbif4crest](#) database. Each one can be selected in ~~crestr~~[crestr](#) using its associated code. List of abbreviations: (SST) Sea Surface Temperature, (SSS) Sea Surface Salinity.

Oceanic variables		
Code	Full name	Source
sst_ann	Mean Annual SST (°C)	Locarnini et al. (2018)
sst_jfm	Mean Winter SST (°C)	Locarnini et al. (2018)
sst_amj	Mean Spring SST (°C)	Locarnini et al. (2018)
sst_jas	Mean Summer SST (°C)	Locarnini et al. (2018)
sst_ond	Mean Fall SST (°C)	Locarnini et al. (2018)
sss_ann	Mean Annual SSS (PSU)	Zweng et al. (2018)
sss_jfm	Mean Winter SSS (PSU)	Zweng et al. (2018)
sss_amj	Mean Spring SSS (PSU)	Zweng et al. (2018)
sss_jas	Mean Summer SSS (PSU)	Zweng et al. (2018)
sss_ond	Mean Fall SSS (PSU)	Zweng et al. (2018)
icec_ann	Mean Annual Sea Ice Concentration (%)	Reynolds et al. (2007)
icec_jfm	Mean Winter Sea Ice Concentration (%)	Reynolds et al. (2007)
icec_amj	Mean Spring Sea Ice Concentration (%)	Reynolds et al. (2007)
icec_jas	Mean Summer Ice Concentration (%)	Reynolds et al. (2007)
icec_ond	Mean Fall Sea Ice Concentration (%)	Reynolds et al. (2007)
diss_oxy	Dissolved Oxygen Concentration (µmol/L)	Garcia et al. (2018a)
nitrate	Nitrate Concentration (µmol/L)	Garcia et al. (2018b)
phosphate	Phosphate Concentration (µmol/L)	Garcia et al. (2018b)
silicate	Silicate Concentration (µmol/L)	Garcia et al. (2018b)

~~associate these data with climate variables~~. Finally, the full *gbif4crest* calibration dataset can [also](#) be downloaded as an SQLite3 portable database file from Chevalier (2020).

310 4 The *crestr* R package

4.1 Philosophy of the package

The ~~crestr~~[crestr](#) package has been designed for two independent but complementary modelling purposes. The probabilistic proxy-climate responses can be used to quantitatively reconstruct climate from their statistical combination, such as in Chevalier et al. (2021a) or Chevalier and Chase (2015), or ~~, alternatively,~~ they can be used in a more qualitative way to determine the (relative) climate sensitivities of different taxa in a given area to characterise past ecological changes, such as in Chevalier et al. (2021b) or Quick et al. (2021). ~~For a simpler~~[To simplify](#) access to the ~~different~~ functionalities, default values are provided for all parameters to enable a rapid generation of preliminary results that users can then use as a starting point to

~~fine-tune-adapt~~ the model to their data. To guide users in this task and avoid the common ‘black box’ criticism faced by many complex statistical tools, ~~a large array of different~~ publication-ready ~~graphical diagnostic tools~~ ~~was designed to automatically~~
320 ~~represent~~ ~~were designed to represent the~~ CREST data in a standardised way. These tools include plots of the calibration data, the estimated climate responses, the reconstructions and more. ~~They can be used to look~~ ~~These figures allow looking~~ at the data from different perspectives to help interpret the results ~~and possibly to help and possibly~~ identify potential issues or biases in the selected data and ~~for~~ parameters. Such diagnostic tools are available for every stage of the process, and, as exemplified in ~~section~~ ~~Section~~ 5, they can be generated with a single line of R code.

325 4.2 The central element: the `crestObj` object

In ~~erestr~~ ~~crestr~~, all the CREST-related data are stored within a single S3 object of the class `crestObj`. Most ~~functions~~ ~~of the package~~ ~~package functions~~ will take a `crestObj` as their ~~main input and will~~ ~~primary input and~~ return an updated version of that object. In practice, a `crestObj` is a nested list that contains five sub-lists, each one grouping a specific type of information, such as the calibration data, the fitted climate responses, ~~and or~~ the reconstructions (Fig. 5). Wrapper functions
330 have been implemented to manipulate and ~~for~~ modify the information contained in a `crestObj` ~~so that,~~ ~~and~~ users are never expected to manually modify their `crestObj` ~~even if it is possible~~. The five sub-lists contain the following information:

- `inputs`: contains the ~~raw input~~ data (e.g. the counts/percentages ~~of the fossil proxy data~~, the ages of the samples or the names of the fossil taxa).
- `parameters`: contains the parameters provided at the different stages of the analysis (e.g. the ~~data extraction tailoring~~ ~~of the gbif4crest calibration dataset~~ or the fitting and combination of the PDFs); ~~see Section 5~~).
- `modelling`: contains all the data related to the estimation of the PDFs (e.g. the ~~distribution data for calibration~~ ~~occurrence data (the ‘distributions’) used to estimate the PDFs~~, the climate space ~~of the study area~~, or the PDFs themselves).
- `reconstructions`: contains all the results (e.g. best estimates, synthetic error measurements, as well as the full ~~posterior~~ distribution of the ~~uncertainties~~ ~~reconstruction~~).
- `misc`: contains some additional metadata relative to the reconstruction (e.g. the site location or, most importantly, information ~~relative related~~ to the proxy-species ~~equivalency~~ ~~associated process~~ described in section 4.3.2).

4.3 Input data for *crestr*

Five different input data files are compatible with ~~erestr~~ ~~crestr~~. However, most applications will only require two ~~file files~~ (the `df` and `PSE` files, see below) to be created. More specific applications may require up to four of these files. All the files can be
345 prepared outside the R environment and imported using standard R functions. ~~Examples files based on pseudo data accompany~~ ~~the ‘get started’ example provided in the package~~ (<https://mchevalier2.github.io/crestr/articles/get-started.html>), and the files used in the application used to illustrate the package are available as ~~Supplementary Material to this paper~~.

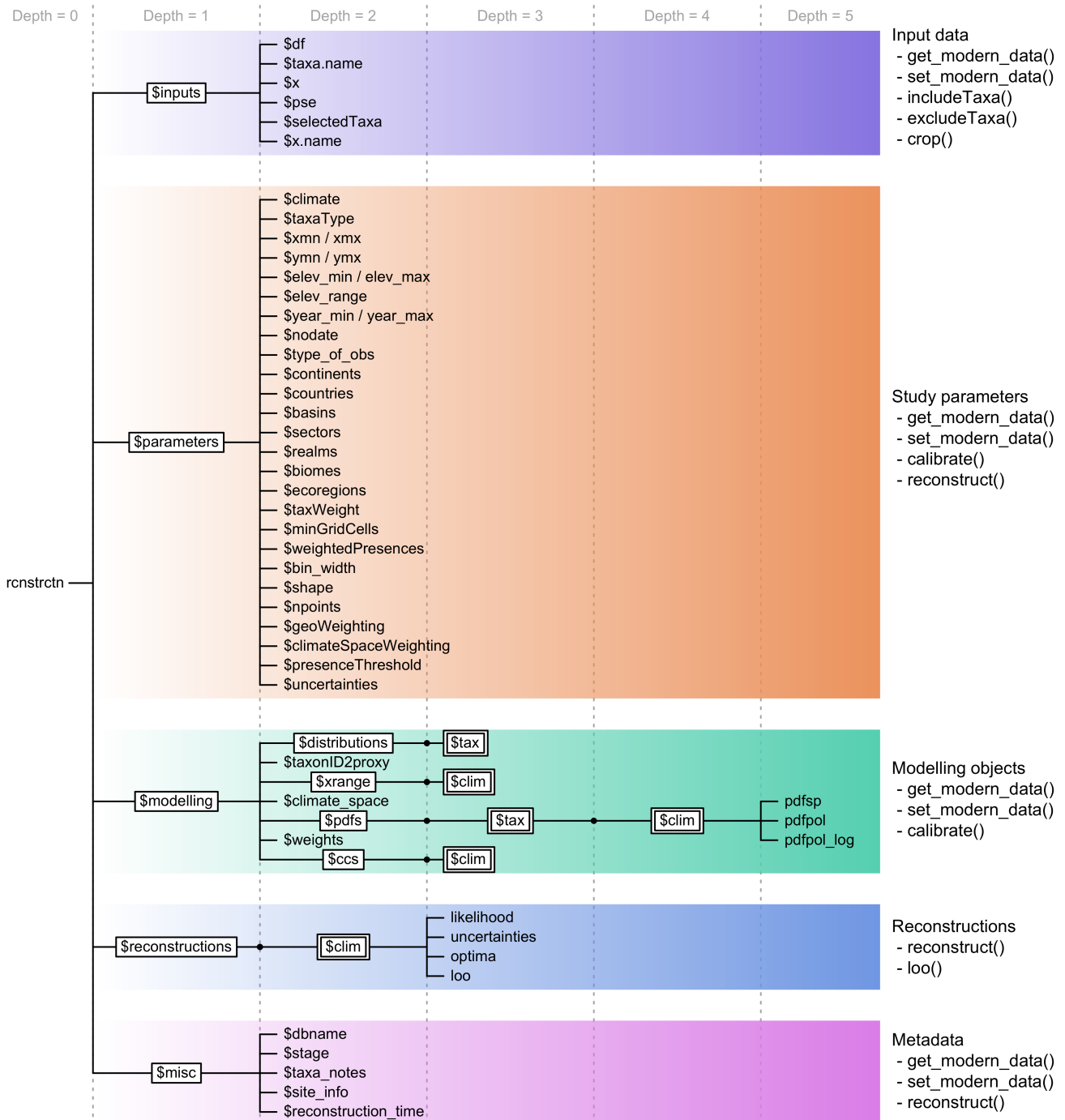


Figure 5. Structure of a `crestObj`, here called 'rcnstrctn', with the five main sub-lists in colour. For simplicity, lists with many elements ('tax' or 'clim') are represented with double framed boxes. The unframed terminal nodes on the right-hand side of each branch are simple R objects, such as numbers, characters, vectors or data frames. The names of the functions that modify the objects in the sub-lists are indicated on the right.

4.3.1 The fossil data (df)

The df data frame is ~~only required if crestx~~ required if crestx is used for reconstructing climate and can be omitted if the objective is limited to modelling the climate response(s) of different taxa. df ~~should be is~~ a data frame with the **different** samples entered as rows, with either the age, depth, or sample ID as the first column and the fossil data in the subsequent columns. df can contain raw counts, percentages, presence/absence (1s and 0s) or even relative weights to be used in the reconstruction (see examples in Section 5.6).

4.3.2 The proxy-species equivalency (PSE) table

The PSE data frame is required to use the *gbif4crest* calibration dataset. It is used to associate ~~fossil taxon names to the species distributions of various species stored~~ individual species available in the TAXA ~~and DISTRIB_ODGC tables (Fig. 4).~~ table with their corresponding fossil taxon. When all the fossil taxa are identified at the species level, the PSE table ~~should be is~~ a simple data frame with one row per taxon ~~.In most cases, however, (such as, for instance, the row corresponding to *Elaeis guineensis* in Table 3).~~ However, fossil taxa are most often identified at a higher taxonomic level lower taxonomic resolution (sub-genus, genus, sub-family, family). These varying levels of identification should be encoded in the PSE file to link one or more (groups of) species to their common fossil taxon name ~~.(i.e. group together all the species that are likely to have produced the observed fossil). Several species can be assigned to a taxon at once by limiting the taxonomic description at the family or genus level (e.g. *Artemisia* in Table 3).~~

Table 3. Example classification of four pollen taxa from the example case study, each one with a different level of taxonomic resolution. The last column 'Taxonomic resolution' is added here for explanatory purposes only and is not required in a real 'PSE' table.

Level	Family	Genus	Species	ProxyName	Taxonomic resolution
1	Asteraceae			Asteraceae undiff.	Family
2	Asteraceae	<i>Stoebe</i>		<i>Stoebe</i> -type	Subfamily
2	Asteraceae	<i>Elytropappus</i>		<i>Stoebe</i> -type	Subfamily
2	Asteraceae	<i>Artemisia</i>		<i>Artemisia</i>	Genus level
3	Arecaceae	<i>Elaeis</i>	<i>Elaeis guineensis</i>	<i>Elaeis guineensis</i>	Species
4				Triletes spores	To be excluded

~~In practice, a~~ A PSE file is composed of five columns (Table 3). The first one (*Level*) contains an integer that indicates the level of taxonomic resolution of the row (1 for Family, 2 for Genus, 3 for Species and 4 for taxa that should be excluded from the reconstruction, e.g. 'Triletes spores' in the example case study ~~below~~). The fifth column *ProxyName* contains the name of the taxon ~~and columns~~. All the taxa recorded in the df dataset should be listed here, or they will be excluded. Columns two to four contain the taxonomic classification of that taxon as *Family*, *Genus* and *Species*, respectively. For simplicity,

a pre-formatted version of the PSE table with the names of all the taxa to study can be generated by ~~crest~~ using the
370 ~~createPSE(list_of_taxa)~~ crest using the following function that generates a spreadsheet with the correct structure
and with the Level and ProxyName columns automatically filled in:-

~~When performing the species to proxy classification with the~~

```
list_of_taxa <- colnames(df)[-1]
createPSE(list_of_taxa)
```

375 The species-taxon association is performed in sequential steps by the `crest.get_modern_data()` function (see Sec-
tion 5.2); ~~crest~~ first. First, crest classifies the taxa with the lowest taxonomical resolution (*i.e.* when *Level* is equal to one)
and then increases the resolution *Level* by *Level*. In the example in Table 3, different taxonomic resolution levels are provided
for different plant species belonging to the highly diverse Asteraceae family (the daisy family). To distribute all the Asteraceae
species observed across the study area to their appropriate categorytaxon, all the species are first classified as ‘Asteraceae un-
380 diff.’ (first row, Level = 1). In a second time, the classification of some of these Asteraceae species is refined when reaching the
better-resolvedbetter-resolved sub-groups (*Stoebe*-type and *Artemisia* at Level = 2). At the end of the process, the ‘Asteraceae
undiff.’ group only contains Asteraceae species that grow in the study area but are not part of the ~~genuses~~ genera *Stoebe*,
Elytropappus or *Artemisia*. The latter are categorised separately as *Stoebe*-type or *Artemisia*.

Additional taxa can also be ~~included~~ added to the PSE file to exclude species ~~that are known to not~~ known not to be part
385 of a group. For instance, this ‘trick’ could have been used to simplify the climate response of the ‘Asteraceae undiff.’ group
by excluding more species from it, even if the pollen grains corresponding to these species have not been observed. This
categorisation process can be time-consuming, as all the taxa must be classified in a unique PSE table, and this process will
often require many iterations to be optimised. The results of the different assignments are stored in the `crestObj` returned
by the `crest.get_modern_data()` function and can be evaluated by checking `rcnstrctn$misc$taxa_notes`.

390 4.3.3 The alternative modern calibration dataset (distributions)

Users that prefer fitting proxy-climate ~~relationships from their personal~~ responses from their own calibration data instead of
the proposed *gbif4crest* dataset should prepare a `distributions` dataset following the specific structure presented in Table
4. The first two columns should contain ~~the~~ species names (or any unique identifiers) and the corresponding proxy name,
respectively. If more than one species correspond to one taxon, the PDFs will be fitted in two steps, as explained in section 2.
395 The following two columns contain the coordinates of the species occurrence data. Finally, the last columns contain the climate
values to be reconstructed. An optional column called `weight` can be added to `distributions` in the fifth position (*i.e.*
between the coordinates and the climate variables) if one wants to weight weigh the different observations. For example, the
(relative) abundance of taxa observed from modern proxy ~~samples~~ assemblages can be used when fitting the PDFs to give
more importance to the observations where that abundance is highest. This could also be used if accurate abundance data were
400 available instead of presence-only data. The weights take a value between 0 and 100.

Table 4. Template for the *distributions* data frame. The weights column, here indicated with a '*', is optional and can be omitted or its values all set to 1 to assign the same weight to each observation. The number of rows of the table should correspond to the number of unique occurrences available.

Species name	Taxon Name	Longitude	Latitude	Weight*	clim_1	...	clim_n
<i>Stoebe plumosa</i>	<i>Stoebe</i> -type	18.875	-34.375	20	15.8	...	711
<i>Elytropappus rhinocerotis</i>	<i>Stoebe</i> -type	18.375	-33.625	32	16.9	...	477
...
<i>Elaeis guineensis</i>	<i>Elaeis guineensis</i>	-4.375	10.875	4	27.4	...	1020

4.3.4 The `climate_space` data frame

This data frame is only necessary if the users use a personal calibration dataset ([distributions](#)) instead of the *gbif4crest* dataset. ~~It will enable the use of the~~ [This data frame enables 1\) using the](#) climate space weighting [option](#) (Section 2.2) [and 2\) including plots of modern climate in the different diagnostic tools](#). Its structure is straightforward, with the first two columns containing longitudes and latitudes and the subsequent columns the climate variables to reconstruct. The spatial resolution and the ordering of the climate variables should be identical to the `distributions` table (Table 4). [However, the arrangement of the rows is not important.](#)

4.3.5 The `selectedTaxa` data frame

The last data frame that may be used to inform the reconstruction is a data frame of ones and zeros called `selectedTaxa`. This data frame has as many rows and columns as there are taxa and climate variables, respectively. Each entry, [which](#) should be either 1 or 0 ~~and is used to indicate,~~ [indicates](#) if the taxon should be used to reconstruct the climate variable (value = 1) or not (value = 0). ~~If~~ [it a `selectedTaxa` data frame](#) is not provided, a default `selectedTaxa` data frame with all entries set to 1 is added to the `crestObj` [at initialisation](#). Users can [then](#) modify this information at any point using the `includeTaxa()` and `excludeTaxa()` built-in functions. The `crest.get_modern_data()` function also modifies this data frame by setting the value to -1 when the PSE classification failed for a taxon or when the amount of data in the study area is insufficient to fit a reliable PDF (see the [parameters-parameter](#) description in section 5.2).

4.4 Package dependencies

The `erestr` [crestr](#) package is built in R (R Core Team, 2020) using the `devtools` package (Wickham et al., 2020). `erestr` [crestr](#) depends on numerous packages, including: `clipr` (Lincoln, 2020), `DBI` (R Special Interest Group on Databases (R-SIG-DB) et al., 2021), `openxlsx` (Schauberger and Walker, 2020), `pals` (Wright, 2021), `plot3D` (Soetaert, 2021), `plyr` (Wickham, 2011), `raster` (Hijmans, 2021), `rgdal` (Bivand et al., 2021), `rgeos` (Bivand and Rundel, 2020), `RPostgres` (Wickham et al., 2021), `scales` (Wickham and Seidel, 2020), `sp` (Pebesma and Bivand, 2005, Bivand et al. (2013)),

stringr (Wickham, 2019) and viridis (Garnier et al., 2021). The dedicated documentation, tutorials and application examples found at <https://mchevalier2.github.io/crestr> were generated and formatted by the package pkgdown (Wickham and Hesselberth, 2020).

5 Step-by-step user guide for crestr

5.1 Example application: Pollen-based Mean Annual Temperature reconstructions from marine core MD96-2048

To illustrate the different ways of using ~~erestr~~ `crestr` and its graphical diagnostic tools, I use pollen data ~~that were~~ recently analysed with the original CREST software to reconstruct mean annual temperature (MAT) from marine core MD96-2048. The core was retrieved off the coast of South Africa and Mozambique near the mouth of the Limpopo River, ~~and the~~. The terrestrial sediments are expected to come from the entire catchment of the Limpopo River, ~~as well as and~~ the smaller local river catchments near the coast (Dupont et al. (2019), Dupont et al. (2011), Castañeda et al. (2016)). The MAT reconstruction is based on 181 fossil pollen samples and the percentages of more than 150 terrestrial pollen taxa and covers the last 790,000 years.

As the catchment of these marine sediments is large, an extensive calibration dataset covering all vegetation zones from tropical Africa to the temperate southwestern tip of South Africa was designed to prevent any artificial reduction in the possible range of variability of the reconstruction. The glacial-interglacial trends and amplitude of the MAT reconstructions were validated by comparing them with regional temperature records and other global indicators of glacial-interglacial temperature variability (*e.g.* Antarctic temperature or global sea-level curves, see Chevalier et al. (2021a) for more details). Here, I reproduce this reconstruction using the original parameterisation of the CREST algorithm obtained from the original CREST point-and-click interface to showcase how it can easily be replicated in a few lines of code with the ~~erestr~~ `crestr` package. Due to the update of the climate data of the calibration dataset described in section ~~??3~~, marginal differences in the order of tenths of Celsius degrees can, however, be observed between the original publication and this reproduction. All the necessary datasets and R code are available as supplementary material.

5.2 Formatting the calibration data in a crestrObj

As the `gbif4crest` dataset was used to fit the PDFs, ~~using~~ the function called `crest.get_modern_data()` ~~is required~~ was used to extract the calibration data ~~from the new cloud-based gbif4crest calibration database.~~

```
rcnstrctn <- crest.get_modern_data(  
  df = MD96_2048,  
450  pse = PSE,  
  selectedTaxa = selectedTaxa,  
  taxaType = 1,  
  climate = c('bio1'),
```

```

xmn = NA, xmx = NA,
455 ymn = -35, ymx = NA,
    continents = 'Africa',
    countries = c('South Africa', 'Kenya',
                  'Lesotho', 'eSwatini', 'Botswana',
                  'Mozambique', 'Zimbabwe', 'Zambia',
460 'Malawi', 'Tanzania', 'Namibia',
                  'Uganda', 'Rwanda', 'Burundi'),
    realms = NA,
    biomes = NA,
    ecoregions = NA,
465 minGridCells = 20,
    site_info = c(34.0167, -26.1667),
    site_name = 'MD96-2048',
    dbname = "gbif4crest_02",
    verbose = TRUE
470 )

```

All the parameters of the function were defined by the characteristics of the proxy (pollen), the climate to reconstruct (MAT / bio1) and the definition of the study area (East and southern Africa) ~~and are reproduced here. In addition, the~~ The three input files (*i.e.* df, PSE and selectedTaxa; see section 4.3) required to realise this reconstruction (see section 4.3) are reproduced from the published dataset (Chevalier et al., 2020a) and are available in Supplementary Material. The following 475 points describe the different parameters of the `crest.get_modern_data()` function and how they relate to the data extraction and modelling.

- The parameter `taxaType` is used to choose the type of proxy used and takes a value between 1 to 6 for plants (*i.e.* pollen and plant ~~macroremains~~ macro remains), beetles, chironomids, foraminifers, diatoms and rodents, respectively.
- The name(s) or code(s) of the `climate` variables to study should be provided here (see Tables 1 and 2 or use the function `accClimateVariables()` for a list of accepted ~~values~~ names). Here, ‘bio1’ means mean annual temperature. More variables can be added if necessary (e.g. `c('bio1', 'ai')`). However, serial reconstructions should be avoided, even if many variables are provided with this package. Careful interpretations of the fossil data should be done before selecting variables.
- Geographical parameters can be provided to ~~create a regional subset of~~ tailor the `gbif4crest` dataset ~~that is adapted to the~~ studied to the study area and data. These can include minimum and maximum longitude and latitude (`xmn`, `xmx`, `ymn`, `ymx`), continent, ocean or country names (see `accCountryNames()` and `accBasinNames()` for a list of accepted 485

names), and also some ecological classifiers, such as realms, biomes or ecoregions (see `accRealmNames()` for a list of [accepted-official](#) names). Only the occurrences that respect all the specified constraints will be returned.

- To estimate reliable [species](#) PDFs, it is recommended to use at least 20 distinct occurrences for each species, [but even if](#) different values can be specified with the `minGridCell` parameter, [depending on the density of data available across the study area](#).
- Optional information about the site, such as a name and coordinates, can be provided and, where possible, this information will be represented on the different graphical diagnostic tools created by `crest` *crest* (e.g. the location of the record [can be is](#) added to the maps if the coordinates are provided).

495 The `crest.get_modern_data()` function reads all the data and parameters, extracts the data from the cloud-based *gbif4crest* database, processes the distribution data and returns everything as a structured `crestObj` — here called `rcnstrctn`; Fig. 5 — that will be read and modified by all subsequent functions. Alternatively, the function `crest.set_modern_data()` could be called instead of `crest.get_modern_data()` to use personal calibration data instead of the *gbif4crest* database. If the calibration data needed for this study were available as a `distributions` and `climate_space` data frames (Section 500 4.3), similar results would be obtained [using the following command with](#):

```
rcnstrctn <- crest.set_modern_data(  
  df = MD96_2048,  
  distributions = distributions,  
  climate_space = climate_space,  
505  selectedTaxa = selectedTaxa,  
  climate = c('biol'),  
  weight = FALSE,  
  minGridCells = 20,  
  site_info = c(34.0167, -26.1667),  
510  site_name = 'MD96-2048',  
  verbose = TRUE  
)
```

5.3 Estimating the climate responses (the PDFs)

The probabilistic proxy-climate [relationships responses](#), i.e. the PDFs, are estimated from the [presence-presence-only](#) data using 515 the `crest.calibrate()` function:

```
rcnstrctn <- crest.calibrate(  
  rcnstrctn,
```

```

shape = c('normal'),
climateSpaceWeighting = TRUE,
520 bin_width = c(2),
npoints = 500,
geoWeighting = TRUE,
verbose = TRUE
)

```

525 As described in section 2.2, the different parameters [that control the reconstruction](#) should be carefully considered to produce reliable PDFs. These include specifying:

- the ~~shape~~ [shape](#) of the species PDFs, which should be either ‘normal’ or ‘lognormal’, depending on the variable to reconstruct ([see Section 2.2](#)).
- the width of the climate bins (`bin_width`) expressed in the variables’ units (*e.g.* 2°C or 50 mm) if the PDFs ~~have are~~ [corrected for an heterogeneous-heterogeneous](#) climate space (`climateSpaceWeighting` set to TRUE). Dividing the
530 total climate space in 15-25 bins often leads to good results, but other values are possible.
- the number of intervals required to divide the studied climate range and fit the PDFs `npoints`. This will ultimately define the climate resolution of the reconstructions. ~~crest+ crestr~~ [crestr](#) runs faster with ~~a lower resolution-lower values~~, but this can lead to ~~a problem of aliasing of the reconstructions~~ [aliasing the reconstructions \(i.e. having visible ‘jumps’](#)
535 [between consecutive climate values\)](#).
- set `geoWeighting` to TRUE if the species PDFs of the different composing species should be weighted according to the square-root of the extent of their modern distribution ~~-(the $\sqrt{N_s}$ in Eq. 6)~~.

5.4 [Assessing the coherency of the climate space](#)

5.5 ~~Assessing the coherency of the climate space and climate responses~~

540 In every study involving estimating relationships between biological entities and environmental parameters, the first step is always to ensure that the defined ~~calibration dataset is study area and associated calibration dataset are~~ [as coherent as possible](#). This includes ensuring that 1) all the ~~important-essential~~ [taxa are present in the study area](#), and their ~~distribution is distributions~~ [are](#) not truncated, 2) the climate values to reconstruct are likely to be ~~in the study area covered by present-day climate values~~ (the reconstructions are bounded by the lowest and highest values observed in the modern climate space) and 3) there is no large
545 sampling or representativity bias (*e.g.* along country borders due to different sampling efforts). [The ‘climateSpace’ graphical diagnostic tool \(Fig. 6\) was designed for a rapid assessment of all these characteristics:](#)

```
plot_climateSpace(rcnstrctn, save=TRUE,
```

```
filename='Figure 6.png',  
as.png=TRUE, png.res=600,  
550 width=6.9, height=4.4,  
y0=0.4,  
add_modern=TRUE  
)
```

Ideally, the climate sampling should be as homogeneous as possible to ensure proper sampling of all the possible climate values, even if the extreme climate values will always be under-represented compared to the median ones. ~~Equally importantly, the occurrence data across that space should be similarly distributed to ensure a proper sampling of the climate space.~~ However, deviations from a theoretical one-to-one (or at least proportional) equivalence between climate and occurrence data abundance are not necessarily a bad characteristic. In our case study, the spatial variability ~~represent true~~ represents actual patterns in regional species diversity with the presence of several biodiversity hotspots across the mountainous regions of eastern and southern Africa (Myers et al., 2000). This higher diversity in the colder areas explains why the black histogram (i.e. the climate values associated with occurrence data) on Fig. 6 is skewed towards the left compared to the grey histogram (i.e. the distribution of the climate space in the study area). All these elements should be checked and accounted for while designing the final calibration dataset.

The 'climateSpace' ~~graphical diagnostic tool was thus designed for a rapid assessment of all these characteristics (Fig. 6).~~ This diagnostic ~~diagnostic~~ figure is also ~~very important to identify~~ practical for identifying potential local or global correlations between different climate variables and ~~assess the risks~~ assessing the risk of confounding variables (*i.e. variables correlated with important variables but do not directly impact the studied proxies*; Juggins (2013), Chevalier et al. (2020b)). Any change to ~~any of~~ the parameters related to the definition of the climate space (*e.g. definition of the* study area, climate variables to reconstruct) will require ~~to re-run~~ re-running `crest.get_modern_data()` or `crest.set_modern_data()` with updated parameters and/or data.

5.5 Assessing the coherency of the climate responses

~~'climateSpace' graphical diagnostic tool to evaluate the calibration dataset. The map on the right represents the density of unique species occurrences in each grid cell, here highlighting a certain bias towards South Africa. The lower abundance of plant data available from Angola and the Democratic Republic of Congo (data not shown) is the reason why these two countries were excluded from the study area. The map on the left represents the studied climate variable (MAT) across the study area. The double histogram in the middle represents the distribution of MAT (in grey, top), while the black histogram (bottom) represents how this distribution is sampled by the calibration data. Differences between the two histograms can be used to identify biases in the calibration dataset. Here, the small shift of the black histograms towards colder values (towards the left) is another way of seeing that more data are available from South Africa than other countries and reflects the regional patterns of biodiversity.~~

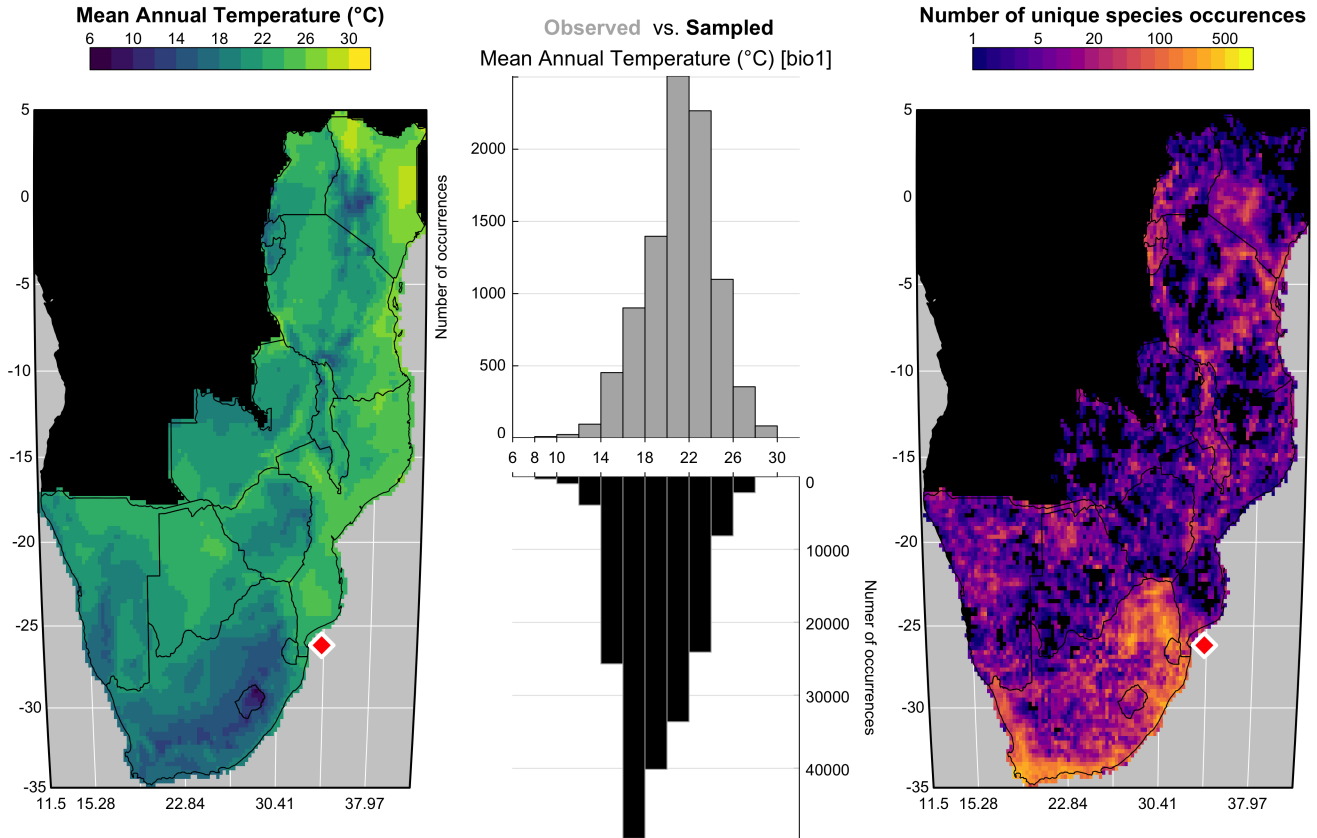


Figure 6. 'climateSpace' graphical diagnostic tool to evaluate the calibration dataset. The map on the right represents the density of unique species occurrences in each grid cell, here highlighting a certain bias towards South Africa. The lower abundance of plant data available from Angola and the Democratic Republic of Congo (data not shown) is the reason why these two countries were excluded from the study area. The map on the left represents the studied climate variable (MAT) across the study area. The double histogram in the middle represents the distribution of MAT (the climate space in grey, top), while the black histogram (bottom) represents how the calibration data sample the climate space. Differences between the two histograms can be used to identify biases in the calibration dataset. Here, the small shift of the black histograms towards colder values (towards the left) is another way of seeing that more data are available from South Africa than other countries and reflects the regional patterns of biodiversity. If more variables had been selected in this study, additional rows would be added to the figure with a similar climate map and histograms and a scatterplot of the climate variables to highlight potential local or regional modern correlations.

580 ~~If more variables had been selected in this study, additional rows would be added to the figure with a similar climate map and histograms and a scatterplot of the climate variables to highlight potential local or regional modern correlations.~~

With the study area and climate space defined, the next step is to search for taxa that show specific relationships with climate. While all species eventually respond to all climate variables, ~~within a given region~~ they can be more sensitive to one over another within a given region. The low taxonomic resolution of some fossil proxies, such as pollen data, can also mask
585 strong species-climate relationships (Chevalier et al., 2021b). Looking at each individual climate response(s) and assessing their significance within the boundary conditions of the study is thus critical. The ‘taxaCharacteristics’ diagnostic plot ~~was designed for this task~~ (Fig. 7) ~~was designed for this task~~:

```
plot_taxaCharacteristics(rcnstrctn,  
  taxanames='Ericaceae', save = TRUE,  
590  filename = 'Figure 7.png',  
  as.png=TRUE, png.res=600,  
  width=6.9, height=8.13,  
  add_modern=TRUE  
)
```

595 One summary plot can be generated for ~~each taxon, where the~~ every taxon to assess and inter-compare their geographical distributions and climate responses ~~can be assessed and inter-compared~~.

As illustrated in Fig. 7, Ericaceae is preferentially observed in the colder environments of the study area, its higher percentages occur during glacial periods, and a coherent response of all its composing species can be observed despite a high diversity (141 species with at least 20 unique occurrences across the study area). All these elements indicate that Ericaceae
600 can be considered as ~~an indicator of colder environmental conditions~~ a cold environment indicator in eastern and southern Africa. Sensitivities to other variables can also be expected but are not considered in this study. ~~Making such~~ Similar sensitivity inferences can be key-made to define a list of ~~taxa that can be used to reconstruct temperature~~ temperature-sensitive taxa to reconstruct MAT (Chevalier and Chase (2015), Chevalier et al. (2021a)) ~~, but also to or~~ support qualitative interpretations of palaeoecological datasets (Chevalier et al. (2021b), Quick et al. (2021)).

605 ~~‘taxaCharacteristics’ graphical diagnostic tool to assess the sensitivity of taxa to climate. In the top row, the map represents the density of unique species occurrences per grid cell and the time series represents the variability of the taxon against time or depth. The bottom row is specific to each selected variable (only one row in this case), where the map represents the geographical distribution of the taxon (in white) against the climate background, the histogram represents the climate space (in colour) and how this climate is sampled by the taxon (in black) and finally the right plot represents the climate response of the taxon (in black) as well as the response of all the composing species (in grey). This diagram shows that Ericaceae is preferentially associated with colder temperatures in the study area. The red diamond indicates the location of the studied record.~~

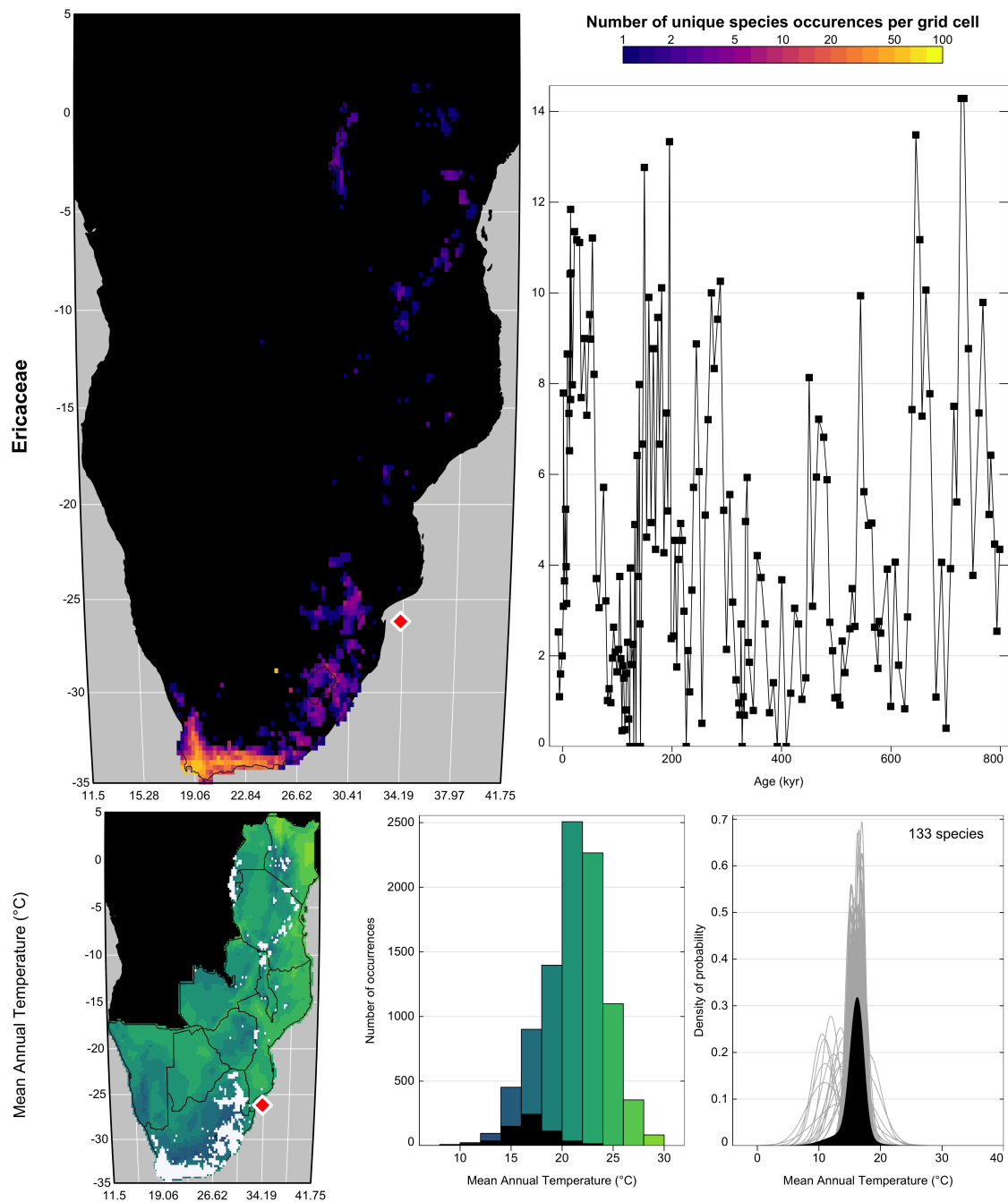


Figure 7. 'taxaCharacteristics' graphical diagnostic tool to assess the sensitivity of taxa to climate. In the top row, the map represents the density of unique species occurrences per grid cell derived from the modern calibration dataset, and the time series represents the variability of the taxon against time or depth. The bottom row is specific to each selected variable (only one row in this case). The map represents the geographical distribution of the taxon (in white) against the climate background. The histogram represents the climate space (in colour) and how this climate is sampled by the taxon (in black), and finally, the right plot represents the climate response of the taxon (in black) as well as the response of all the composing species (in grey). Overall, this figure highlights that despite its high diversity, *Ericaceae* is primarily associated with the colder environments of the study area and its presence increase during glacial periods. The red diamond indicates the location of the studied record.

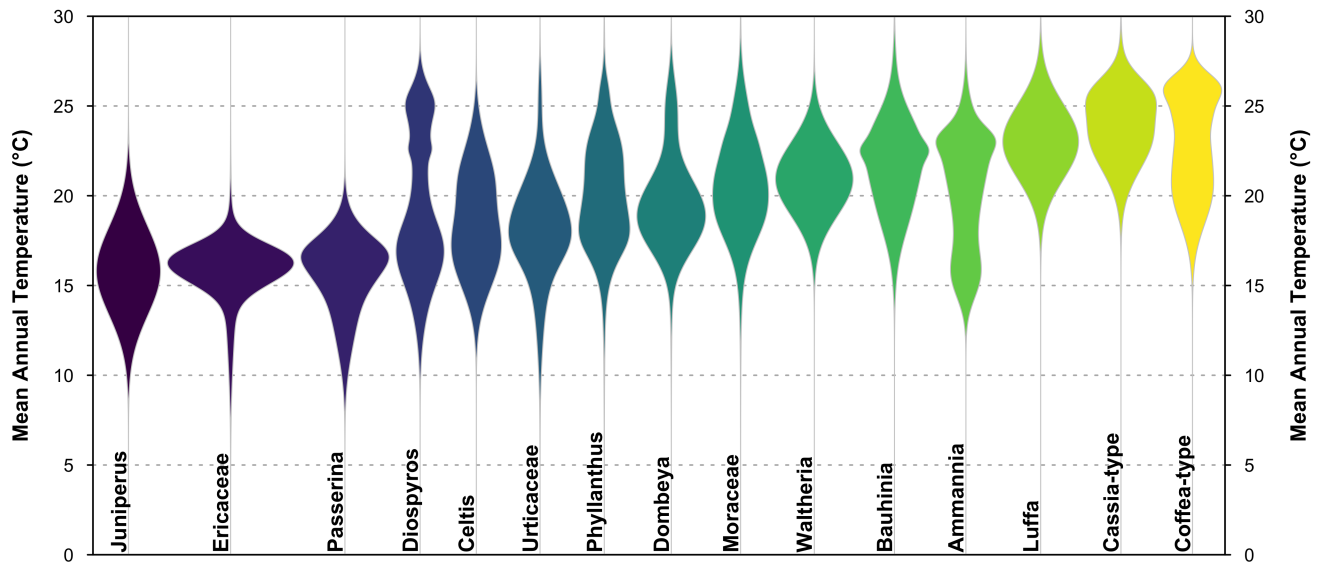


Figure 8. 'violinPDFs' graphical diagnostic tool to represent the PDFs of various taxa (here a random selection of 15 taxa). The taxa are sorted and colour-coded by their temperature optima (i.e. the temperature corresponding to the peak of their PDFs).

~~Another useful diagnostic plot~~ A complementary diagnostic plot to assess climate sensitivities is the 'violinPDFs' (Fig. 8) ~~that~~:

```
615 tax <- sample(rcnstrctn$input$taxa.name,
                15, replace=FALSE)
```

```
plot_violinPDFs(rcnstrctn,
                taxanames = tax,
620   save = TRUE,
                filename = 'Figure 8.png',
                as.png=TRUE, png.res=600,
                width = 6.9, height = 3,
                ylim=c(0, 30)
```

```
625 )
```

The violin plot represents the PDFs of a selection of taxa on the same [scale plot](#), which helps [comparing the compare the shape and spread of the](#) different responses. All the violins have the same area (all the probabilities sum to 1), and the taxa are ranked by increasing [value values](#) of their temperature optima (i.e. the temperature corresponding to the peak of the PDF). However, due to the possible multimodality of the PDFs and differences in tolerance ranges, this ranking does not mean that

630 a taxon on the left always represents colder conditions than a taxon on the right. This is illustrated in many ways on Fig. 8
with, for example, *Cassia*-type that is estimated to experience warmer conditions than *Coffea*-type ~61% of the time (based
on 100,000 random draws from their ~~respective~~ PDFs) despite having a ‘colder’ climate optimum, or with *Diospyros* that can
tolerate much warmer conditions than most taxa with warmer optima. This type of representation can be ~~particularly helpful to~~
~~have objective~~ beneficial to make more informed interpretations of ecological changes from pollen diagrams (Chevalier et al.,
635 2021b, Quick et al. (2021)).

~~‘violinPDFs’ graphical diagnostic tool to represent the PDFs of various taxa (here only a subset of 15). The taxa are sorted
and colour coded by their temperature optima (i.e. the temperature corresponding to the peak of their PDFs).~~

5.6 Reconstructing climate

Along with the `df` data frame provided to the `crest.get_modern_data()` or `crest.set_modern_data()` func-
640 tions, a set of reconstruction parameters have to be chosen to combine PDFs and estimate climate parameters. The `selectedTaxa`
data frame ~~that is~~ stored in the `crestObj` (see Fig. 5) defines the taxa that will be used to reconstruct each climate variable
(by default, all taxa are included if sufficient data are available to fit a PDF). This selection can be modified by using the
`includeTaxa()` and `excludeTaxa()` functions. ~~Here for~~ For instance, both Aizoaceae and Chenopodiaceae/Amaranthaceae
were excluded ~~because they from the reconstruction because these taxa~~ are not primarily sensitive to temperature in southern
645 Africa. This can be simply done as follow:

```
rcnstrctn <- excludeTaxa(rcnstrctn,  
  taxa=c('Aizoaceae',  
        'Chenopodiaceae/Amaranthaceae'),  
  climate=c('biol')  
650 )
```

Climate reconstructions are ~~performed by~~ then performed with the `crest.reconstruct()` function:-

```
rcnstrctn <- crest.reconstruct(  
  rcnstrctn,  
  presenceThreshold = 0,  
655  taxWeight = "normalisation",  
  verbose = TRUE  
)
```

A minimum ‘presence threshold’ below which the taxa will ~~be always~~ always be considered absent can ~~also~~ be provided to
reduce the noise of the fossil dataset (*e.g.* pollen percentages lower than 1 or 2% are commonly excluded from reconstructions,
660 Chevalier et al. (2020b)). ~~If~~ When `presenceThreshold` is set to zero, as is the case here, all the strictly positive pollen
percentages are considered as ~~true~~ actual presences and used accordingly to reconstruct MAT. To ~~weight~~ weigh the taxa as
described in Eq. 7, four options are available in ~~crest~~ crestr:

- The data can be converted to presence/absence with all the values above and below `presenceThreshold` being changed to ones and zeros, respectively. This option is recommended for data such as macrofossils for which relative abundances cannot be reliably estimated.
- The data can be converted to percentages to ~~weight~~ weigh the taxa according to their relative abundance. This option is recommended for data where reliable ~~and direct~~ proportions can be estimated.
- The data can be normalised following the method proposed by Chevalier et al. (2014) and described here by Eq. 8. This option is recommended for ~~pollen data for instance~~ palaeoecological proxies where the observed percentages are not proportional to their abundance in the environment, such as pollen data.
- The data can be directly weighted by the values provided in `df`, which implies that users can define their own specific weighting strategy ~~-(e.g. using the square-root transformation of the pollen percentages).~~

5.7 Analysing and understanding the reconstruction(s)

Characterising the most important factors ~~underlying a reconstruction is often complex. In this section, I present~~ that define a reconstruction can be difficult. This section presents three different graphical diagnostic tools that provide different perspectives on the reconstructed data and help ~~opening look inside~~ the statistical black box in a visual way. First, the full probabilistic breadth of the reconstructions can be represented by using the standard R `plot()` function (Fig. 9), which has been adapted to plot data stored in a `crestObj` (Fig. 9):

```
plot(rcnstrctn,
680   filename='Figure 9.png',
      save=TRUE,
      as.png=TRUE, png.res=600,
      width=6.9, height=3.54,
      ylim=c(14,23), uncertainties=1,
685   simplify=FALSE,
      col=plot3D::gg2.col(200)[1:100],
      pt.cex=0.8, pt.lwd=1, pt.col='#2c2c2c'
)
```

While the probabilistic representation of the data should be preferred because it represents all the information available, a simpler version of this plot with the climate optima and more common uncertainty ranges represented as colour bands can be obtained by specifying `simplify=TRUE` (not shown).

~~MAT probabilistic reconstructions for marine core MD96-2048. The yellow-green-blue colour gradient represents the uncertainties associated with each sample. This reconstruction is identical to the reconstruction presented in Chevalier et al. (2021) and the reader is referred to this publication for an in-depth validation and discussion of these results.~~

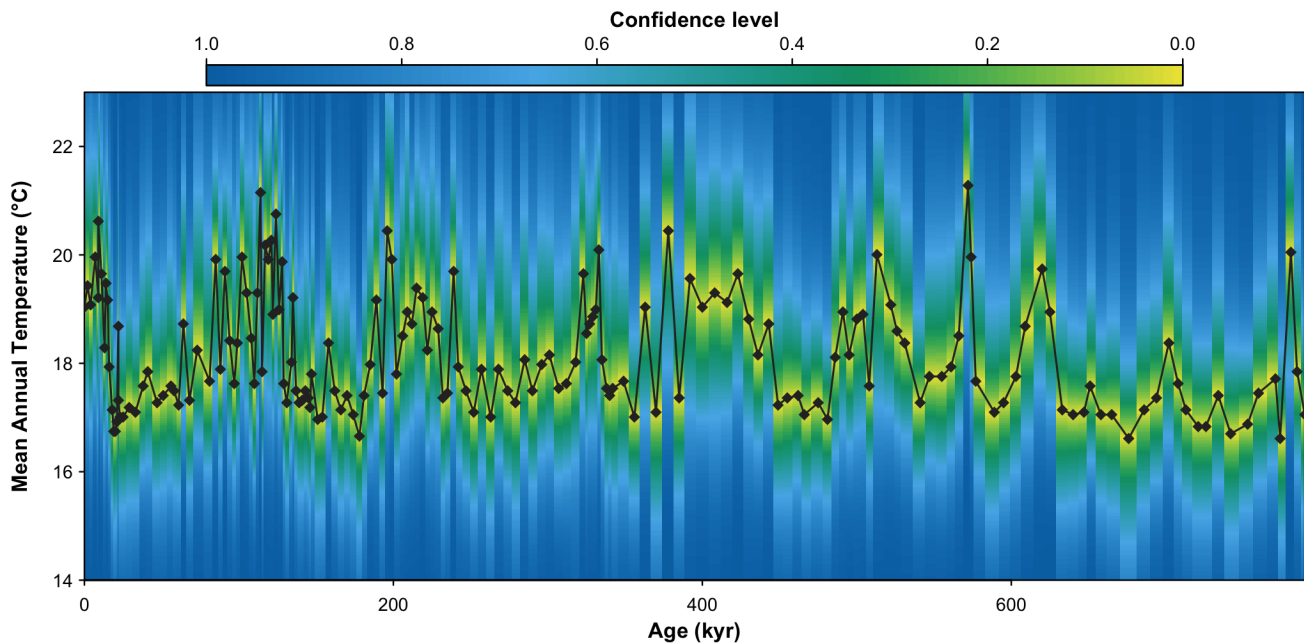


Figure 9. MAT probabilistic reconstructions for marine core MD96-2048. The yellow-green-blue colour gradient represents the uncertainties associated with each sample. This reconstruction is identical to the reconstruction presented in Chevalier et al. (2021) and the reader is referred to this publication for an in-depth validation and discussion of these results.

695 The `plot_combinedPDFs()` function can then be used to identify the taxa that are driving the reconstruction by focusing on the sample level:

```

plot_combinedPDFs(rcnstrctn,
  samples=3, only.present=TRUE,
  only.selected=TRUE, save = TRUE,
700 filename = 'figure 10.png',
  as.png=TRUE, png.res=600,
  width=6.9, height=3,
  xlim=c(7.5, 32.5)
)

```

705 In this plot (Fig. 10). ~~In this plot~~, the PDFs of all the taxa present in the sample and selected to reconstruct the climate variable are represented along with the reconstruction. This type of plot can help identify if ~~there is~~ a particular PDF ~~that is~~ at odds with the general assemblage, which ~~can be indicative~~ usually indicates the possible presence of a confounding factor. It is also ~~useful~~ helpful to visualise the full spread of the uncertainties and, by extension, highlight that reconstructions can be

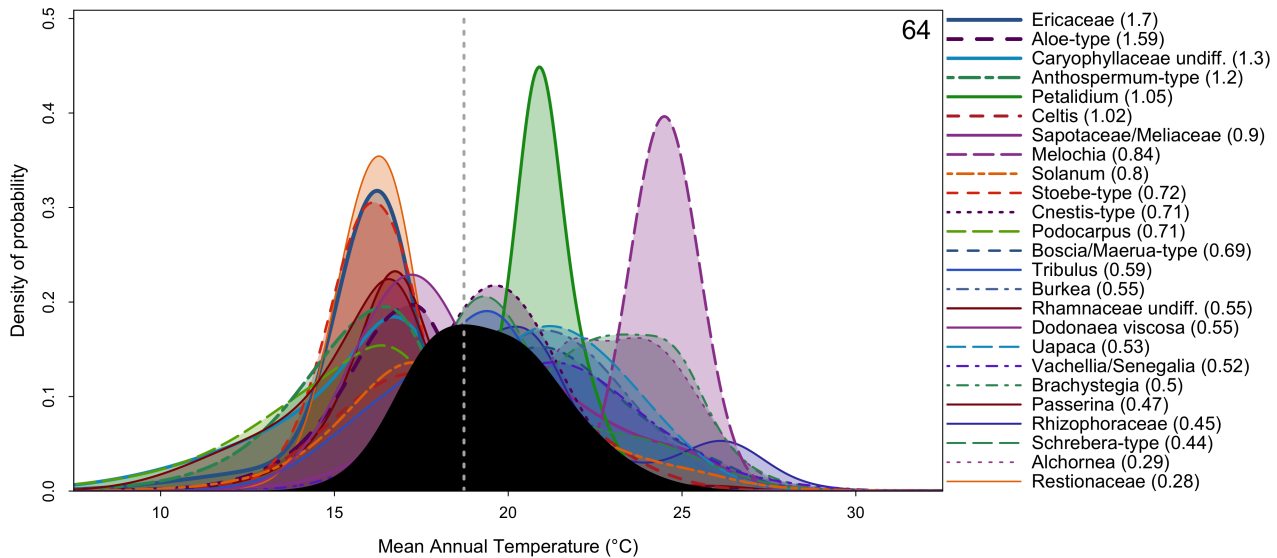


Figure 10. 'combinedPDFs' graphical diagnostic tool that shows the combination of the PDFs (in colour) of all the taxa recorded in the sample dated at 64 kyr. The thickness of the lines is related to the weight of the taxa in the sample (absolute value indicated next to each taxon name). The black curve represents the MAT reconstruction, from which a 'best' climate estimate can be estimated from the maximum of the curve (grey dashed line) and uncertainties derived by calculating the area under the curve.

multimodal. ~~The presence of~~ While it is not the case in the example here, multimodality can be the underlying cause of apparent noise in the reconstructions ~~because with~~ minor changes in the taxa composition or percentages ~~can force forcing~~ the system to oscillate between two maxima and thus 'appear' noisy, ~~even if the background rate of change is minor. This can.~~ This effect could also be seen from the reconstruction plot ~~if where~~ the full uncertainties ~~are would be~~ represented (`simplify=FALSE`).

~~'combinedPDFs' graphical diagnostic tool that shows the combination of the PDFs of all the taxa recorded in a sample (in colour). The thickness of the lines is proportional to the weight of the taxa in the sample (absolute value indicated next to each taxon name). The black curve represents the posterior MAT reconstruction, from which a 'best' climate estimate can be estimated from the maximum of the curve and uncertainties derived by calculating the area under the curve.~~

Finally, a standard post-processing analysis of CREST reconstructions is a form of leave-one-out (LOO) analysis that is done with the `loo()` function:

```
rcnstrctn <- loo(rcnstrctn,
720   verbose = TRUE
)
```

In the CREST context, a LOO analysis consists ~~in of~~ repeatedly 'unselecting' one taxon at a time, ~~re-running running~~ the reconstruction without that taxon and measuring the associated reconstruction anomalies. In our example, a positive anomaly means that the reconstruction without the taxon is warmer and, by extension, that the taxon is a cold indicator relative to a

725 [specific assemblage](#). A detailed analysis of the results can contribute to a deeper [insight regarding understanding of](#) which taxa are the most important in driving the reconstructed climate signal. Taxa that exhibit large LOO values indicate [that they have a large a strong](#) influence on the reconstruction. However, it does not necessarily mean that they are strong climate indicators. Large LOO values can arise when the PDFs are biased by unaccounted factors and are, as a result, at odds with the rest of the PDFs. Such factors can, for instance, include an incomplete estimate of the climate [response/responses](#), which induces a
730 bias or shift of the climate preferences, or a sensitivity of the taxon to other climatic (*e.g.* aridity instead of temperature) or non-climatic (*e.g.* edaphic conditions) factors. In all cases, it is usually preferable to exclude such taxa from the reconstruction (*e.g.* [Chenopodiaceae and Aizoaceae in our example](#)).

The LOO analysis is a powerful tool to understand the taxa that primarily drive the reconstruction, and the LOO results can be represented as a [common-typical](#) stratigraphic diagram, where each row represents the effect of removing a taxon from the
735 reconstruction (Fig. 11):

```
tax <- rcnstrctn$inputs$taxa.name[6:25]
plot_loo(rcnstrctn,
  taxanames=tax,
  xlim=c(0, 340), save = TRUE,
740  filename = 'Figure 11.png',
  as.png=TRUE, png.res=600,
  width=3.5, height=8,
  bar_width=3, col_neg='coral3',
  col_pos='darkcyan'
745 )
```

For example, the expected [net-cold](#) effect of including Ericaceae [in-on](#) the MAT reconstructions from [the](#) MD96-2048 pollen record is immediately visible on Fig. 11. Similarly, the effect of removing either Ericaceae or Caryophyllaceae undiff. from the sample dated at 64 kyr (represented on Fig. 10) is quite strong with a [net-warming-of-warming of the reconstruction of](#) 1.19 and 0.44°C, respectively. This type of plot can thus be used for both global and sample-specific inferences about the drivers of
750 the reconstruction. Depending on the vegetation composition, some taxa can even sometimes be categorised as cold indicators when the assemblage represents warm conditions [-or](#) warm indicators when the assemblage represents cold conditions (*e.g.* *Hypoestes/Dicliptera*-type on Fig. 11).

5.8 A wrapper function

To simplify the use of the package, the three stages of the reconstruction process – data acquisition (`crest.get_modern_data()`
755 or `crest.set_modern_data()` if the *gbif4crest* dataset is not used [not-shown](#)), calibration (`crest.calibrate()`) and reconstruction (`crest.reconstruct()`) – can be called in one line of code using the wrapper function `crest()`. This

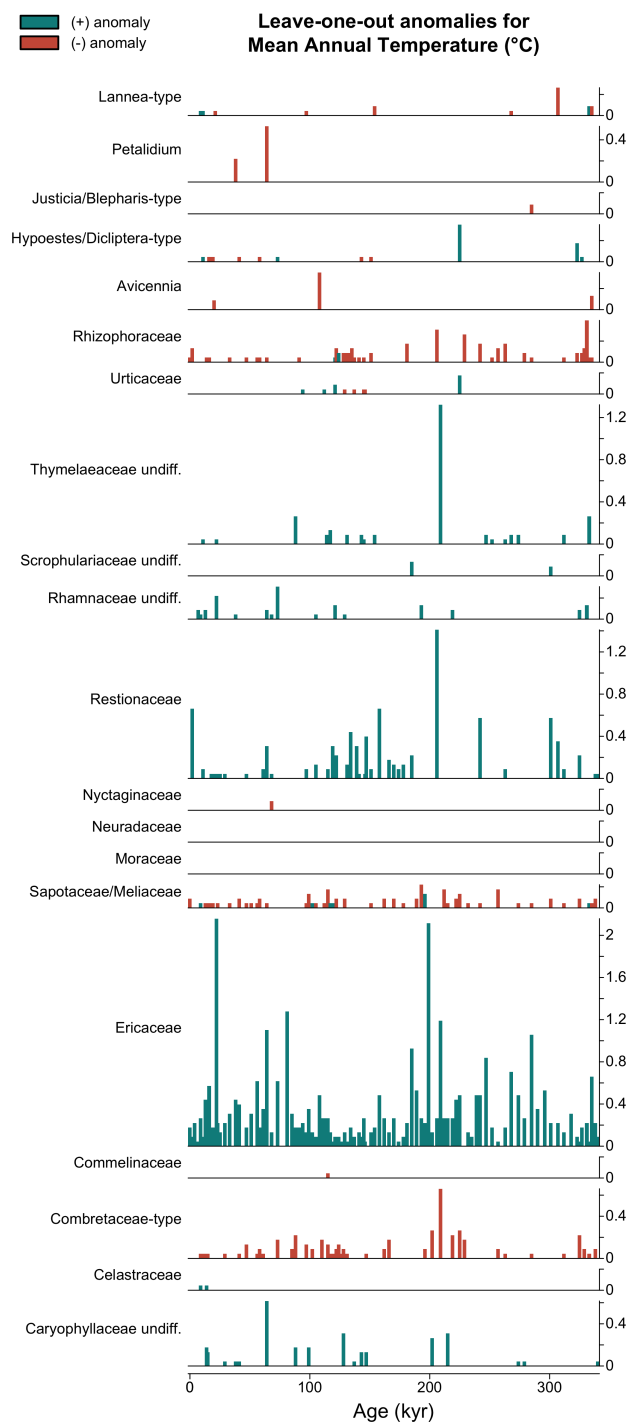


Figure 11. Leave-one-out (LOO) graphical diagnostic tool to illustrate the influence of different taxa on the reconstructions. Here, the results are only showed shown for a subset of the taxa observed in marine core MD96-2048 (only 20 out of the 171 available taxa are represented). The height of each bar represents the net absolute effect (in °C) of removing the taxon from the reconstruction. The colours indicate, and the sign of this effect (increase or decrease of the anomaly with reconstructed temperature) is colour-coded. Here, blue (cf. Ericaceae) and red (cf. Combretaceae-type) taxa-being bars indicate that the taxon is a cold and warm indicators in this setting indicator, respectively, in the sample.

function takes the same parameters described ~~for the in this~~ ‘step-by-step’ ~~functions guide~~ with the same default values and may be ~~preferred, for instance, more practical~~ when reconstructing several records ~~at the same time in one run~~.

5.9 Exporting the reconstructions

760 All the data stored in the `crestObj` can be easily exported from the R environment as spreadsheets and RData files using either `export_pdfs()` to save the climate responses of the studied taxa ~~;~~ or `export()` to save the reconstructions and many associated data in a publishable format. The latter also saves the `crestObj` as an RData file for easy reloading and ~~for~~ sharing of the data ~~;~~:

```
export(rcnstrctn,  
765   loc='path/to/folder' ,  
      fullUncertainties = TRUE,  
      loo = TRUE,  
      weights = TRUE,  
      pdfs = TRUE  
770 )
```

5.10 Citing building elements

Finally, all the reconstructions derived from ~~crest~~ `crest` are built on numerous ~~;~~ independent research efforts, including data compilations, modelling projects, statistical developments and ~~for~~ software engineering. To support the long-term ~~development and for support growth and visibility~~ of all these building elements, it is crucial ~~to always always to~~ acknowledge all of them,
775 even if their processing is ~~mostly~~ invisible to the users. As such, the list of references that must be cited for each use of ~~crest~~ `crest` is automatically included in the summary tab of the spreadsheet generated by the `export()` function. In addition, the citation information can also be directly obtained from R using ~~cite_crest(rcnstrctn)~~ ~~;~~:

```
cite_crest(rcnstrctn)
```

The function looks at the type of data ~~that were used used in the analysis~~ (e.g. the subset of the GBIF data were used ~~;~~ ~~which and the~~ climate variables) and returns a corresponding list of references. For example, a simple way of crediting all the contributors for the MAT reconstruction from marine core MD96-2048 presented here could be the following: “*To create this MAT reconstruction from the pollen record from marine core MD96-2048 (Dupont et al. (2019)), we employed the CREST method (Chevalier et al. (2014), Chevalier (2019)). The PDFs were estimated by combining the MAT field of Fick and Hijmans (2017) and the plant occurrence data of from GBIF (GBIF (2020m), GBIF (2020k), GBIF (2020g)). The numerical analyses*
785 *were realised with the crest R package v1.0-0-1 (this reference).”*

6 Perspectives and conclusion

CREST is a ~~statistical method designed 1) to model probabilistic relationships between climate proxies and climate~~ probabilistic framework designed to model proxy-climate relationships from modern observations and ~~2) to use these relationships to reconstruct past climate~~ quantitatively. Initially, its use was enabled by a python point-and-click graphical user interface to favour
790 accessibility to a diverse spectrum of palaeoclimatologists, palaeoceanographers and palaeoecologists, including those with limited coding experience (Chevalier et al., 2014). However, such accessibility limited flexibility and how the method could be most effectively employed. Therefore, this article introduces an open-source R package to use CREST (Chevalier et al., 2014). The method's mathematics and assumptions are designed to enable an easy application everywhere, even in data-sparse regions. While developments to complexify the method are possible, the current version of the algorithm has proven to be reliable at
795 producing high-quality reconstructions. The first version of the *crestr* R package is thus dedicated to implementing the original version of the algorithm. It also replaces the original point-and-click CREST software, which was challenging to maintain over time.

A critical novelty of *crestr* is the inclusion of the CREST algorithm in a programmatic environment. The benefits of this transition are significant and include improved scriptability (*i.e.* the possibility of analysing many records automatically and
800 sequentially), reproducibility (*i.e.* the capacity to reproduce an analysis) and better inter-operability (*i.e.* R packages are compatible with all computer systems). However, maintaining the highest level of accessibility remained at the core of the development process and is illustrated in the final product by the small number of functions necessary to run a complete analysis and by the suite of detailed graphical diagnostic figures.

~~The~~ In line with the objectives of the original software, the *crestr* package is aimed at all researchers ~~that are~~ interested in
805 using CREST to ~~analyse palaeoecological datasets. reconstruct climate from palaeoecological datasets, including those with limited coding expertise.~~

In addition, its broad applicability will allow taking advantage of the recent growth of curated, open-access fossil datasets that ~~created offer~~ unprecedented opportunities to reconstruct climate from a wide range of proxies, particularly in regions where
~~they quantified climate reconstructions~~ are urgently needed. This package will thus also contribute to the current transition from
810 single-site to multi-site studies ~~that, which~~ is necessary to better understand past climate dynamics. However, it is essential to remember that running such techniques on several datasets should always be done carefully, as many factors can impact the reconstruction process. Calibration datasets In practice, calibration datasets, variable selection and reconstructions should ~~always~~ be assessed, possibly ideally against independent evidence when they are available, even if there is, unfortunately, no single way to validate a reconstruction (but see Chevalier et al. (2020b) for some discussions on the generic principles).

815 Over time, the ~~erestr~~ *crestr* package will be enriched with new functionalities to facilitate reconstruction validation. The online documentation will also be updated with diverse examples and tutorials based on real applications and assessments (<https://mchevalier2.github.io/crestr/>). Future package updates will include Bayesian modules and propose more complex strategies to estimate proxy-climate relationships from data-dense regions. Finally, bug reports, feedback, and suggestions

for newer functionalities and graphical diagnostic tools are encouraged and can be transmitted to the author directly or through
820 GitHub's bug report portal (<https://github.com/mchevalier2/crestr/issues>).

Code and data availability. The *crestr* package is currently accessible from CRAN (<https://cran.r-project.org/package=crestr>). It is also available on GitHub (<https://github.com/mchevalier2/crestr>), where I also welcome feedback and strongly encourage contributions via the issue tracker (<https://github.com/mchevalier2/crestr/issues>). The source data used for the example application (pollen record from marine core MD96-2048 and associated temperature reconstructions) can be accessed from <https://doi.pangaea.de/10.1594/PANGAEA.915923>.

825 *Competing interests.* The author declares no competing interests.

Acknowledgements. This research has been supported by the Swiss National Science Foundation (grant no. CRSK-2_195875), with additional support from the University of Lausanne. [MC is supported by the German Federal Ministry of Education and Research \(BMBF\) as a Research for Sustainability initiative \(FONA; https://www.fona.de/en, last access: 15 December 2021\) through the PalMod Phase II project \(grant no. FKZ: 01LP1926D\).](https://www.fona.de/en) I thank Brian Chase, Yoshi Maezumi, Lynne Quick, [Kale Sniderman](#) and, last but not least, Mine Altinli for their invaluable ~~comments and suggestions~~ [feedback](#) on early versions of the [package and](#) manuscript. NOAA ~~High-Resolution SST data~~ [High-Resolution SST data were](#) provided by the NOAA/OAR/ESRL PSL, Boulder, Colorado, USA, from their Web site at <https://psl.noaa.gov/data/gridded/data.noaa.oisst.v2.highres.html>. And finally, I would also like to address a special thanks to the rticles contributors for their Climate of the Past Rmarkdown template!

References

- 835 Birks, H. J. B., Heiri, O., Seppä, H., and Bjune, A. E.: Strengths and weaknesses of quantitative climate reconstructions based on Late-Quaternary biological proxies, *The Open Ecology Journal*, 3, 68–110, <https://doi.org/10.2174/1874213001003020068>, 2010.
- Bivand, R. and Rundel, C.: rgeos: Interface to Geometry Engine - Open Source ('GEOS'), <https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=rgeos>, r package version 0.5-5, 2020.
- Bivand, R., Keitt, T., and Rowlingson, B.: rgdal: Bindings for the 'Geospatial' Data Abstraction Library, <https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=rgdal>, r package version 1.5-23, 2021.
- 840 Bivand, R. S., Pebesma, E., and Gomez-Rubio, V.: *Applied spatial data analysis with R*, Second edition, Springer, NY, <https://asdar-book.org/>, 2013.
- Bray, P. J., Blockley, S. P., Coope, G. R., Dadswell, L. F., Elias, S. A., Lowe, J. J., and Pollard, A. M.: Refining mutual climatic range (MCR) quantitative estimates of palaeotemperature using ubiquity analysis, *Quaternary Science Reviews*, 25, 1865–1876, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.quascirev.2006.01.023>, 2006.
- 845 Castañeda, I. S., Caley, T., Dupont, L. M., Kim, J.-H., Malaizé, B., and Schouten, S.: Middle to Late Pleistocene vegetation and climate change in subtropical southern East Africa, *Earth and Planetary Science Letters*, 450, 306–316, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.epsl.2016.06.049>, 2016.
- Chase, B. M., Boom, A., Carr, A. S., Carré, M., Chevalier, M., Meadows, M. E., Pedro, J. B., Stager, J. C., and Reimer, P. J.: Evolving southwest African response to abrupt deglacial North Atlantic climate change events, *Quaternary Science Reviews*, 121, 132–136, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.quascirev.2015.05.023>, 2015a.
- 850 Chase, B. M., Lim, S., Chevalier, M., Boom, A., Carr, A. S., Meadows, M. E., and Reimer, P. J.: Influence of tropical easterlies in the southwestern Cape of Africa during the Holocene, *Quaternary Science Reviews*, 107, 138–148, 2015b.
- Chevalier, M.: Enabling possibilities to quantify past climate from fossil assemblages at a global scale, *Global and Planetary Change*, 175, 27–35, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gloplacha.2019.01.016>, 2019.
- 855 Chevalier, M.: GBIF database for CREST, <https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.6743207>, 2020.
- Chevalier, M. and Chase, B. M.: Southeast African records reveal a coherent shift from high- to low-latitude forcing mechanisms along the east African margin across last glacial–interglacial transition, *Quaternary Science Reviews*, 125, 117–130, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.quascirev.2015.07.009>, 2015.
- Chevalier, M. and Chase, B. M.: Determining the drivers of long-term aridity variability: a southern African case study, *Journal of Quaternary Science*, 31, 143–151, <https://doi.org/10.1002/jqs.2850>, 2016.
- 860 Chevalier, M., Cheddadi, R., and Chase, B. M.: CREST (Climate REconstruction SofTware): a probability density function (PDF)-based quantitative climate reconstruction method, *Climate of the Past*, 10, 2081–2098, <https://doi.org/10.5194/cp-10-2081-2014>, 2014.
- Chevalier, M., Chase, B. M., Quick, L. J., Dupont, L. M., and Johnson, T. C.: PANGAEA dataset associated with "Temperature change in subtropical southeastern Africa during the past 790,000 years", <https://doi.org/10.1594/PANGAEA.915923>, 2020a.
- 865 Chevalier, M., Davis, B. A. S., Heiri, O., Seppä, H., Chase, B. M., Gajewski, K., Lacourse, T., Telford, R. J., Finsinger, W., Guiot, J., Kühl, N., Maezumi, S. Y., Tipton, J. R., Carter, V. A., Brussel, T., Phelps, L. N., Dawson, A., Zanon, M., Vallé, F., Nolan, C., Mauri, A., de Vernal, A., Izumi, K., Holmström, L., Marsicek, J., Goring, S. J., Sommer, P. S., Chaput, M., and Kupriyanov, D.: Pollen-based climate reconstruction techniques for late Quaternary studies, *Earth-Science Reviews*, 210, 103384, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.earscirev.2020.103384>, 2020b.
- Chevalier, M., Chase, B. M., Quick, L. J., Dupont, L. M., and Johnson, T. C.: Temperature change in subtropical southeastern Africa during the past 790,000 yr, *Geology*, 49, 71–75, <https://doi.org/10.1130/G47841.1>, 2021a.
- 870

- Chevalier, M., Chase, B. M., Quick, L. J., and Scott, L.: An atlas of southern African pollen types and their climatic affinities, *Palaeoecology of Africa*, 35, 239–258, <https://www.taylorfrancis.com/books/9781003162766/chapters/10.1201/9781003162766-15>, 2021b.
- Cordova, C. E., Scott, L., Chase, B. M., and Chevalier, M.: Late Pleistocene-Holocene vegetation and climate change in the Middle Kalahari, Lake Ngami, Botswana, *Quaternary Science Reviews*, 171, 199–215, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.quascirev.2017.06.036>, 2017.
- 875 Dupont, L. M., Caley, T., Kim, J.-H., Castañeda, I. S., Malaizé, B., and Giraudeau, J.: Glacial-interglacial vegetation dynamics in South Eastern Africa coupled to sea surface temperature variations in the Western Indian Ocean, *Climate of the Past*, 7, 1209–1224, <https://doi.org/10.5194/cp-7-1209-2011>, 2011.
- Dupont, L. M., Caley, T., and Castañeda, I. S.: Effects of atmospheric CO₂ variability of the past 800 kyr on the biomes of southeast Africa, *Climate of the Past*, 15, 1083–1097, <https://doi.org/10.5194/cp-15-1083-2019>, 2019.
- 880 Fick, S. E. and Hijmans, R. J.: WorldClim 2: new 1-km spatial resolution climate surfaces for global land areas, *International Journal of Climatology*, 37, 4302–4315, <https://doi.org/10.1002/joc.5086>, 2017.
- Garcia, H. E., Weathers, K., Paver, C., Smolyar, I., Boyer, T., Locarnini, R., Zweng, M., Mishonov, A., Baranova, O., Seidov, D., and Reagan, J.: World Ocean Atlas 2018, Volume 3: Dissolved Oxygen, Apparent Oxygen Utilization, and Dissolved Oxygen Saturation., NOAA Atlas NESDIS 83, p. 38pp, 2019a.
- 885 Garcia, H. E., Weathers, K., Paver, C., Smolyar, I., Boyer, T., Locarnini, R., Zweng, M., Mishonov, A., Baranova, O., Seidov, D., Reagan, J., and Others: World Ocean Atlas 2018. Vol. 4: Dissolved Inorganic Nutrients (phosphate, nitrate and nitrate+nitrite, silicate), NOAA Atlas NESDIS 84, p. 35pp, 2019b.
- Garnier, Simon, Ross, Noam, Rudis, Robert, Camargo, Pedro, A., Sciaini, Marco, Scherer, and Cédric: viridis - Colorblind-Friendly Color Maps for R, <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.4679424>, r package version 0.6.1, 2021.
- 890 GBIF: GBIF: Global Biodiversity Information Facility, <https://www.gbif.org>, 2018.
- GBIF: Beetles occurrence data downloaded on September 24th, 2020, <https://doi.org/10.15468/dl.nteruy>, 2020a.
- GBIF: Chironomids occurrence data downloaded on September 24th, 2020, <https://doi.org/10.15468/dl.jv3wsh>, 2020b.
- GBIF: Diatoms occurrence data downloaded on September 24th, 2020, <https://doi.org/10.15468/dl.vfr257>, 2020c.
- GBIF: Foraminifera occurrence data downloaded on September 24th, 2020, <https://doi.org/10.15468/dl.692yg6>, 2020d.
- 895 GBIF: Rodentia occurrence data downloaded on September 24th, 2020, <https://doi.org/10.15468/dl.fscw6q>, 2020e.
- GBIF: Cycadopsidae occurrence data downloaded on September 24th, 2020, <https://doi.org/10.15468/dl.sfjz xu>, 2020f.
- GBIF: Magnoliopsida occurrence data downloaded on September 24th, 2020, <https://doi.org/10.15468/dl.ra49dt>, 2020g.
- GBIF: Anthocerotopsida occurrence data downloaded on September 24th, 2020, <https://doi.org/10.15468/dl.t9zenf>, 2020h.
- GBIF: Gingkoopsidae occurrence data downloaded on September 24th, 2020, <https://doi.org/10.15468/dl.da9wz8>, 2020i.
- 900 GBIF: Gnetopsidae occurrence data downloaded on September 24th, 2020, <https://doi.org/10.15468/dl.h2kjnc>, 2020j.
- GBIF: Liliopsida occurrence data downloaded on September 24th, 2020, <https://doi.org/10.15468/dl.axv3yd>, 2020k.
- GBIF: Lycopodiopsida occurrence data downloaded on September 24th, 2020, <https://doi.org/10.15468/dl.ydhyhz>, 2020l.
- GBIF: Pinopsidae occurrence data downloaded on September 24th, 2020, <https://doi.org/10.15468/dl.x2r7pa>, 2020m.
- GBIF: Polypodiopsida occurrence data downloaded on September 24th, 2020, <https://doi.org/10.15468/dl.87tbp6>, 2020n.
- 905 GBIF: Bryophyta occurrence data downloaded on August 2nd, 2021, <https://doi.org/10.15468/DL.WD527G>, 2021a.
- GBIF: Marchantiophyta occurrence data downloaded on August 2nd, 2021, <https://doi.org/10.15468/DL.M2SSE4>, 2021b.

- Gibson, M. E., McCoy, J., O'Keefe, J. M. K., Nuñez Otaño, N. B., Warny, S., and Pound, M. J.: Reconstructing terrestrial paleoclimates: a comparison of the Co-existence Approach, Bayesian and probability reconstruction techniques using the UK Neogene, *Paleoceanography and Paleoclimatology*, <https://doi.org/10.1029/2021PA004358>, 2022.
- 910 Hijmans, R. J.: raster: Geographic Data Analysis and Modeling, <https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=raster>, r package version 3.4-13, 2021.
- Hui, Z., Zhou, X., Chevalier, M., Wei, X., Pan, Y., and Chen, Y.: Miocene East Asia summer monsoon precipitation variability and its possible driving forces, *Palaeogeography, Palaeoclimatology, Palaeoecology*, 581, 110 609, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.palaeo.2021.110609>, 2021.
- Hutson, W. H.: Application of transfer functions to Indian Ocean planktonic Foraminifera, *Quaternary Research*, 9, 87–112, [https://doi.org/10.1016/0033-5894\(78\)90084-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/0033-5894(78)90084-4), 1978.
- 915 Juggins, S.: Quantitative reconstructions in palaeolimnology: new paradigm or sick science?, *Quaternary Science Reviews*, 64, 20–32, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.quascirev.2012.12.014>, 2013.
- Kühl, N., Gebhardt, C., Litt, T., and Hense, A.: Probability Density Functions as Botanical-Climatological Transfer Functions for Climate Reconstruction, *Quaternary Research*, 58, 381–392, <https://doi.org/10.1006/qres.2002.2380>, 2002.
- Lim, S., Chase, B. M., Chevalier, M., and Reimer, P. J.: 50,000 years of climate in the Namib Desert, Pella, South Africa, *Palaeogeography, Palaeoclimatology, Palaeoecology*, 451, 197–209, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.palaeo.2016.03.001>, 2016.
- 920 Lincoln, M.: clipr: Read and Write from the System Clipboard, <https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=clipr>, r package version 0.7.1, 2020.
- Locarnini, R., Mishonov, A., Baranova, O., Boyer, T., Zweng, M., Garcia, H. E., Reagan, J., Seidov, D., Weathers, K., Paver, C., Smolyar, I., and Others: World ocean atlas 2018, volume 1: Temperature, NOAA Atlas NESDIS 81, p. 52pp, 2019.
- Myers, N., Mittermeier, R. A., Mittermeier, C. G., da Fonseca, G. A. B., and Kent, J.: Biodiversity hotspots for conservation priorities, 925 *Nature*, 403, 853–858, <https://doi.org/10.1038/35002501>, 2000.
- Overpeck, J. T., Webb III, T., and Prentice, I. C.: Quantitative interpretation of fossil pollen spectra: Dissimilarity coefficients and the method of modern analogs, *Quaternary Research*, 23, 87–108, [https://doi.org/10.1016/0033-5894\(85\)90074-2](https://doi.org/10.1016/0033-5894(85)90074-2), 1985.
- Pebesma, E. J. and Bivand, R. S.: Classes and methods for spatial data in R, *R News*, 5, 9–13, <https://CRAN.R-project.org/doc/Rnews/>, 2005.
- Quick, L. J., Chase, B. M., Carr, A. S., Chevalier, M., Grobler, B. A., and Meadows, M. E.: A 25,000 year record of climate and vegetation 930 change from the southwestern Cape coast, South Africa, *Quaternary Research*, pp. 1–18, <https://doi.org/10.1017/qua.2021.31>, 2021.
- R Core Team: R: A Language and Environment for Statistical Computing, R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria, <https://www.R-project.org/>, 2020.
- R Special Interest Group on Databases (R-SIG-DB), Wickham, H., and Müller, K.: DBI: R Database Interface, <https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=DBI>, r package version 1.1.1, 2021.
- 935 Reynolds, R. W., Smith, T. M., Liu, C., Chelton, D. B., Casey, K. S., and Schlax, M. G.: Daily high-resolution-blended analyses for sea surface temperature, *Journal of Climate*, 20, 5473–5496, <https://doi.org/10.1175/2007JCLI1824.1>, 2007.
- Schauberger, P. and Walker, A.: openxlsx: Read, Write and Edit xlsx Files, <https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=openxlsx>, r package version 4.2.3, 2020.
- Soetaert, K.: plot3D: Plotting Multi-Dimensional Data, <https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=plot3D>, r package version 1.4, 2021.
- 940 ter Braak, C. J. F. and van Dame, H.: Inferring pH from diatoms: a comparison of old and new calibration methods, *Hydrobiologia*, 178, 209–223, <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF00006028>, 1989.
- ter Braak, C. J. F., Juggins, S., Birks, H. J. B., and van der Voet, H.: Weighted averaging partial least squares regression (WA-PLS): Definition and comparison with other methods for species-environment calibration, *Multivariate Environmental Statistics*, pp. 525–560, <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF00028046>, 1993.

- 945 Valavi, R., Guillera-Aroita, G., Lahoz-Monfort, J. J., and Elith, J.: Predictive performance of presence-only species distribution models: a benchmark study with reproducible code, *Ecological Monographs*, 0, 1–27, <https://doi.org/10.1002/ecm.1486>, 2021.
- Wickham, H.: The Split-Apply-Combine Strategy for Data Analysis, *Journal of Statistical Software*, 40, 1–29, <http://www.jstatsoft.org/v40/i01/>, 2011.
- Wickham, H.: stringr: Simple, Consistent Wrappers for Common String Operations, <https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=stringr>, r package version 1.4.0, 2019.
- 950 Wickham, H. and Hesselberth, J.: pkgdown: Make Static HTML Documentation for a Package, <https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=pkgdown>, r package version 1.6.1, 2020.
- Wickham, H. and Seidel, D.: scales: Scale Functions for Visualization, <https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=scales>, r package version 1.1.1, 2020.
- 955 Wickham, H., Hester, J., and Chang, W.: devtools: Tools to Make Developing R Packages Easier, <https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=devtools>, r package version 2.3.2, 2020.
- Wickham, H., Ooms, J., and Müller, K.: RPostgres: 'Rcpp' Interface to 'PostgreSQL', <https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=RPostgres>, r package version 1.3.3, 2021.
- Wright, K.: pals: Color Palettes, Colormaps, and Tools to Evaluate Them, <https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=pals>, r package version 1.7,
- 960 2021.
- Yi, S., Jun, C. P., nam Jo, K., Lee, H., Kim, M. S., Lee, S. D., Cao, X., and Lim, J.: Asynchronous multi-decadal time-scale series of biotic and abiotic responses to precipitation during the last 1300 years, *Scientific Reports*, 10, 1–10, <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-020-74994-x>, 2020.
- Zomer, R. J., Trabucco, A., Bossio, D. A., and Verchot, L. V.: Climate change mitigation: A spatial analysis of global land suitability for clean development mechanism afforestation and reforestation, *Agriculture, Ecosystems & Environment*, 126, 67–80, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agee.2008.01.014>, 2008.
- 965 Zweng, M., Seidov, D., Boyer, T., Locarnini, R., Garcia, H. E., Mishonov, A., Baranova, O., Weathers, K., Paver, C., Smolyar, I., and Others: World Ocean Atlas 2018, Volume 2: Salinity, NOAA Atlas NESDIS 82, p. 50pp, 2018.