

# Temperature and fire controls on vegetation dynamics in Northern Ural (Russia) boreal forests during the Holocene based on brGDGT and pollen data

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1	Temperature and fire controls on vegetation dynamics in Northern Ural (Russia) boreal
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3	
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## 19 Abstract

20 Boreal vegetation is influenced by multiple factors such as climate and fire, but interactions between long- and short-term effects of climate upon fire activity are complex and remain poorly studied, especially in Eurasia. To understand the relationships between climate, fire and vegetation 21 22 in Eurasia, we reconstruct the climate changes during the Holocene for the western section of the Northern Urals region, in the southern part of the Republic of Komi. We relate these temperature reconstructions to pollen and charcoal records from the same region (Yaksha site, Republic 23 of Komi, Russia). We use here a combined approach based on pollen and molecular biomarkers (branched Glycerol Dialkyl Glycerol Tetraethers 24 25 or brGDGTs) to provide independent estimates of past temperatures. Our objectives were: (1) to understand the relationships between climate, fire, vegetation and human activity during the Holocene at the local scale of Yaksha and (2) to provide a robust regional-scale climatic 26 reconstruction of the southern part of the Republic of Komi. Our study shows that climate had a major influence on the regional vegetation 27 between 10,000 and 4000 cal. yr BP. Subsequently, fire activity had a joint and growing impact on vegetation dynamics between 4000 and 600 28 cal. yr BP. Finally, from 600 until the present (2016 AD), human presence and activities had a greater impact on the fire regime and vegetation 29 30 than earlier in time, and combined with climate to influence the dynamics of the boreal forest. At the regional scale of the Republic of Komi and the local scale of Yaksha, the Holocene Thermal Maximum was detected between 6800 and 4000 cal. yr BP, using pollen-based temperature 31 estimates but in brGDGT calibration (at 4000 cal. yr BP) commonly shared in the literature, together with evidence from neighboring regions in 32 33 the Eurasian boreal biome which were studied for different proxies (pollen, chironomids), and also with reference to climate models (General Circulation Models). 34

35



### 38 **1. Introduction**

Boreal regions are among the most sensitive regions to current and future climate change (IPCC-AR6, Pörtner *et al.*, 2022). Climate influences boreal biomes through direct control of the biomass accumulation rates and shapes natural disturbance regimes such as wildfires. General Circulation Models (GCMs) integrating these effects, suggest that the circumboreal zone will shrink by 2071-2100 (Feng et al., 2014). The simulated decline of the boreal biome is attributed to a precipitation increase (especially in winter), and a temperature increase (between  $+6^{\circ}$  and  $+8^{\circ}$ C), driving an increase in fire activity (Goetz *et al.*, 2007; de Groot *et al.*, 2013; Feng *et al.*, 2014; Hoegh-Guldberg *et al.*, 2018).

Climate and fire are the main drivers of vegetation, but interactions between them are complex and poorly studied in Eurasian boreal forests 44 (Glückler et al., 2020; Goldammer and Furyaev, 1996; Kharuk et al., 2021). Climate impacts fire frequency, fire severity and burned area. An 45 46 increase in fire activity likely increases the share of serotinous tree species such as *Betula pendula* Roth., *B. pubescens* Ehrh. (hereafter *Betula* 47 spp.) and *Pinus sylvestris* L. (hereafter *Pinus sylvestris*) (de Groot et al., 2013; Goetz et al., 2007). In contrast, enhanced summer precipitation counteracts this effect and favors Picea abies (L.) H.Karst. (hereafter Picea abies) and Pinus sibirica Du Tour (hereafter Pinus sibirica) (Feng 48 et al., 2014; Hoegh-Guldberg et al., 2018). In North American boreal forests, fire events were found to be influenced by climate and human 49 activity, but also by the type of vegetation (eg Ali et al., 2012; Camill et al., 2009; Girardin et al., 2013; Hu et al., 2006; Remy et al., 2017). For 50 example, in Canada, during the Mid-Holocene (6000 cal. yr BP), forest dominated by boreal mixed woodland vegetation was associated with low 51 fire frequency, while the climate was warm and dry. But from 3000 cal. yr BP, despite colder and wetter conditions, fire frequency increased, 52 53 because of the vegetation shift toward a dense needleleaf landscape (Girardin et al., 2013).

Recent regional climate synthesis studies have pointed out specific regional patterns of climate variability during the Holocene period (Kaufman 54 et al., 2020; Marcott et al., 2013; Marsicek et al., 2018; Mauri et al., 2015; Herzschuh et al., 2022). In Europe, the climate synthesis by Kaufman 55 et al., (2020) based on various proxies such as pollen, chironomids, and molecular biomarkers, indicated a warming trend in the Northern latitudes 56 during the Early Holocene followed by a cooling since 6000 yr BP. This study also showed that the climate patterns are proxy-specific. For 57 example, the temperature optimum was recorded at 10,000 years BP from reconstructions based on chironomids and at 6000 years BP from 58 59 reconstructions based on pollen (Kaufman et al., 2020). The climate synthesis by Herzschuh et al. (2022) based on pollen data only, also indicate a temperature optimum between 8000 to 6000 yrs cal BP, but the timing and the amplitude of this optimum is strongly dependent on latitude, and 60 appears more marked at high latitudes (70 to 80 °N) and less marked between 60 to 70°N. These global syntheses also highlight the poor "past 61 62 climate" coverage of Eurasia and particularly of Russia, despite their geographical extent and role in global biochemical cycles. The general lack

63 of data is particularly apparent in the Republic of Komi, West of the Northern Urals area (Golubeva, 2008), despite its climatic relevance, at the confluence of several atmospheric meteorological mechanisms (Ural Blocking, Siberian High, Arctic Oscillations) (Wang et al., 2010; Dole et 64 al., 2011; Cheung et al., 2012; H. Cheung and Zhou, 2015). Our earlier investigations of pollen and charcoal records in the Republic of Komi, in 65 66 the Yaksha area, revealed a shift in the boreal forest tree species as well as increasing fire activity during the Holocene (Barhoumi et al., 2020, 2019). However, the role of climate in the interactions between fire and vegetation has not yet been well documented. The only study of Holocene 67 68 climate in this area reconstructs increasing temperatures between 6000 and 4800 cal. yr BP (Golubeva, 2008). In the neighboring sub-regions of Northern Europe and Fennoscandia, several studies based on pollen and chironomids indicate an increase in temperatures between 8000 and 3500 69 cal. yr BP (e.g. Seppä et al., 2009; Salonen et al., 2011). On the eastern side of the Urals, some studies of the Holocene climate have been carried 70 out in the Taymyr peninsula (Andreev et al., 2002; Velichko et al., 2002). These studies suggest that in the Early Holocene (between 10,300 and 71 72 9000 cal. yr BP), temperatures were slightly cooler (-1 °C) than today, but wetter (+ 50 mm precipitation compared to present). At the Entarny 73 site (Velichko et al., 2002), the Early Holocene also showed colder temperatures (-2.5 °C), but also less precipitation (- 25 mm compared to today). The main studies of Holocene climate-vegetation-fire relationships in the east of the Republic of Komi were carried out in Siberia, around 74 Lake Baikal (Barhoumi et al., 2021; Bezrukova et al., 2013, 2003; Demske et al., 2005; Feng et al., 2014; Tarasov et al., 2007, 2009). According 75 to these studies, from the Early Holocene to the Mid-Holocene (11,000-8000 cal. yr BP), conditions were colder and wetter. From 8000 to 5000 76 cal. yr BP, the Lake Baikal region experienced its climatic optimum with wet conditions. From 5000 to 3000 cal. yr BP temperatures and 77 precipitation decreased before increasing again from 3000 to the present day. Most of these studies are based on pollen records and transfer 78 functions (eg Chevalier et al., 2020) and vegetation-independent studies are needed to provide more reliable climate reconstructions. 79

80 With this study, we reconstruct Holocene temperature and precipitation patterns in the Republic of Komi using a coupled approach including pollen data and organic biomarkers Glycerol Dialkyl Glycerol Tetraethers (GDGTs) (Dugerdil et al., 2021; Martin et al., 2020; Ramos-Román et 81 al., 2022; Robles et al., 2022). GDGTs are membrane lipid molecules of bacterial origin (Damsté et al., 2000; Weijers et al., 2006b), ubiquitously 82 83 found in oceans, lakes and rivers, peats and soils. GDGT distributions in these environments broadly correlate to mean annual temperatures and pH (e.g. Weijers et al., 2007a; Petersee et al., 2010). Different calibrations were performed on soils, lake sediments and peatlands to infer 84 85 temperatures for GDGTs and more specifically brGDGTs (branched-GDGTs, Damsté et al., 2000; Weijers, Schouten, van den Donker, et al., 2007; Weijers, Schouten, Sluijs, et al., 2007; Peterse et al., 2012; Foster et al., 2016; Naafs et al., 2017; Dearing Crampton-Flood et al., 2020). 86 To our knowledge, there are very few Holocene temperature reconstructions based on pollen grains and brGDGTs, which are independent climate 87

proxies (Dugerdil et al., 2021; Martin et al., 2020; Ramos-Román et al., 2022; Robles et al., 2022), and the brGDGT calibrations have never been
used to reconstruct Holocene temperatures in Russia.

The objective of this study is first to understand the links between climate, fire regime, vegetation dynamics and human activity over the Holocene at the local scale of the Yaksha area, and secondly, to provide a robust reconstruction of the climate changes during the Holocene in the southern part of the Republic of Komi, in the Northern Urals area. Temperature reconstructions for Yaksha are based on two independent proxies, pollen and brGDGT. They are discussed in relation to the dynamics of both fire regimes and forest vegetation reconstructed from charcoal and pollen by Barhoumi *et al.*, (2019, 2020). We provide a regional perspective on the climate trends through the Holocene by applying the same pollen transfer functions to the other pollen records available from the area. Finally, we compare our results with climate reconstructions developed for Northern Europe and neighboring regions.

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## 98 2. Material and Methods

#### 99 2.1 Environmental setting of the study area

European boreal forests are constituted of patches of "light taiga" forests type dominated by *Pinus sylvestris*, *Larix sibirica* Ledeb. (hereafter *Larix sibirica*) and *Betula* sp, associated with a surface fire regime in drier environments, and the "dark taiga" forests type, in wetter environments dominated by *Picea abies*, *Pinus sibirica*, and *Abies sibirica*, where crown fires can occur (Goldammer, 2015; Lapenis et al., 2005; Schulze et al., 2005; Shorohova et al., 2009). In the western part of the Northern Urals, the boreal vegetation is dominated by *Larix sibirica* and *Pinus* sp.

104 Yaksha. One of the study sites (Fig. 1, Table 1), is a forested peatbog of 4 hectares located in the south of the Republic of Komi (Barhoumi et al.,

105 2019, 2020). The Republic of Komi (Fig. 1) is a Russian administrative division of 415 900 km2, occupying the western side of the Ural

106 Mountains. The soils of the region are mainly moraine and surface loams (Drobyshev et al., 2004a; Zaboeva, 1997), with podzolic soils and the

107 topography is flat except near the Ural Mountains (Naryshkin, 2003).

108 The local forest cover (assessed within a 10 km radius around the Yaksha site) consists today mainly of Scots pines (*Pinus sylvestris*, 84%),

spruce (*Picea abies*, 13%) and birch (*Betula pendula* and *B. pubescens*, 2%). In contrast, spruce forests dominate regionally.



Figure 1 : A: The Republic of Komi in the Eurasian boreal biome (highlighted black contours). Location of the Yaksha coring site (red dot) as 111 well as available temperature reconstructions cited in the text ((colored dots Solovieva, Tarasov and MacDonald, 2005; Seppä et al., 2009; 112 113 Tarasov, Bezrukova and Krivonogov, 2009; Salonen et al., 2011; Nazarova et al., 2015a; Novenko and Olchev, 2015; Druzhinina et al., 2020). The black square corresponds to the zone for which climate outputs are available from the General Circulation Model GFDL (Bush, 2005), UB: 114 Ural Blocking; AO: Arctic Oscillations; NAO: North Atlantic Oscillations. **B**: The Republic of Komi and the pollen records used for the Holocene 115 climate regional synthesis (Yaksha – this study, Kalya, Syndorsky, Cherny Yar, Baika and Sedkyrkeshch (Borisova, 2002), Sedkyrkeshch 116 (Golubeva, 2008), Kalya (Karmanov et al., 2011), Cherny Yar (Marchenko-Vagapova and Marieva, 2001) and Syndorsky (Golubeva, 2008)). C: 117 Ombrothermic diagrams of each studied site (Grieser et al., 2006). 118

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120	In the Northern Urals region in Republic of Komi, a blocking, which is an anticyclonic or cyclonic vortex on a large scale and which remains
121	quasi stationary, takes place (Ural Blocking, UB or also so-called Ural-Siberian Blocking, USB) (Cheung et al., 2013, 2012). UB (Fig. 1A) is
122	generally more active and intense during boreal winter, acting as a barrier to Siberian Highs during this period, but amplifying its effect on the
123	east-Asian sub-continent and causing harsher winters (Wang et al., 2010; Cheung et al., 2013; Cheung and Zhou, 2015). The intensity of UB

during winter is also linked to the phases of the Arctic Oscillation (AO) (Cheung et al., 2012). On the other hand, Rossby waves, another
atmospheric phenomena, occur and have an impact on the climate of Europe and Western Russia (Dole et al., 2011; Schubert et al., 2011, 2014).
For example, during summer 2010, strong heat waves occurred and had direct effects on wildfire activity in the Ural Mountains (Cheung et al., 2013; Dole et al., 2011; Lau and Kim, 2012; Matsueda, 2011). In the study area, a UB occurring during the NAO positive phase may lead to a
regional warming in the atmospheric winter temperatures (Huang et al., 2017).

- In the North of the Republic of Komi, the mean annual temperature is -6°C, while it is +1°C in the South (Figure 1C). Annual precipitation varies
  between 450 and 700 mm (Drobyshev et al., 2004b; Grieser et al., 2006) (Figure 1C).
- 131

#### 132 *2.2 Study sites and material*

We extracted two peat cores (Yak2-A and Yak3-A) using an 8-cm diameter Russian peat corer from the centers of the selected *Sphagnum* peatlands. We built a composite sequence from the two cores Yak2-A and Yak3-A to obtain the longest chronology (Barhoumi et al., 2019, 2020). The 0 to 300 cm interval of core Yak3-A provided the best temporal resolution of the Yaksha composite core. Although having a lower temporal resolution than Yak3-A, the deeper part of core Yak2-A is constituted of organic-rich sediments reaching 11,000 cal. yr BP (Barhoumi et al., 2019). The chronology was based on 12 radiocarbon dates, with the age model discussed in detail in Barhoumi et al. (2019) (see Appendix SI 1). The Yaksha core provided both a charcoal record (Barhoumi et al., 2019) and a pollen record (Barhoumi et al., 2020). This study focuses on the pollen-inferred climate reconstruction, the brGDGT analysis and the brGDGT-inferred temperature reconstruction.

We also benefited from five published pollen sequences (Fig. 1B, Table 1) located close to the Yaksha site to reconstruct the climate in the area 140 during the Holocene. From South to North, these pollen sequences were Baika (Borisova, 2002), Sedkyrkeshch (Golubeva, 2008), Kalva 141 (Karmanov et al., 2011), Cherny Yar (Marchenko-Vagapova and Marieva, 2001) and Syndorsky (Golubeva, 2008). Modern values for annual 142 temperatures and precipitation were established with the software New Locclim (Grieser et al., 2006), a local climate estimator using the updated 143 FAOCLIM database (https://www.faoswalim.org). The 2010-2018 meteorological records for the coordinates of these sites, from the Worldclim 144 database, at a spatial resolution of 2.5 minutes, were used to verify the correlation between the mean annual temperatures, the mean summer 145 temperatures (June, July, August, corresponding to the fire season) and the mean temperatures of the months above 0°C (from April to October) 146 (Fick and Hijmans, 2017; Harris et al., 2014). 147

Name of the site	Coordinates	Elevation (a. s. l. in m)	Time covered (cal. yr BP)	References
Yaksha	61°43'N, 55°29'E 61°41'N, 55°34'E	135	10,047 to -50	This study; Barhoumi et al., 2019, 2020.
Baika	61°16'N, 46°44'E	60	8775 - 50	Borisova, 2002
Cherny Yar	62°13'N, 50°17'E	90	8532 - 2876	Marchenko-Vagapova and Marieva, 2001
Kalya	61°48'N, 51°47'E	101	10,150 - 0	Karmanov et al., 2011
Sedkyrkeshch	61°43'N, 50°51'E	95	4244 - 1197	Golubeva, 2008
Syndorsky	62°44'N, 51°51'E	138	9434 - 4727	Golubeva, 2008

149 Table 1: Pollen records selected for the climate reconstruction synthesis

151 These pollen sequences provide a vegetation synthesis in the Southern part of the Komi Republic as follows (Appendix SI 2):

At Yaksha, from 10,000 cal. yr BP to 5000 cal. yr BP, the vegetation was dominated by *Pinus sylvestris* and *Betula spp*. This vegetation fits with the present description of a light taiga system. From 6050 BP to 100 cal. yr BP the pollen assemblages show an increase of *Picea* and the occurrence of *Pinus sibirica*, suggesting the establishment of a predominantly dark taiga. From 3200 to 100 cal. yr BP, the dark taiga decreased slowly and the light taiga reappeared, with an increase of *Pinus sylvestris*. From 100 cal. yr BP to 0 cal. yr BP, there was a strong increase in *Betula spp*.

At Kalya, close to Yaksha, vegetation changes are consistent with the Yaksha ones: in the first half of the Holocene, from 9000 to 6000, light taiga taxa were predominant. In the Mid-Holocene, *Picea abies* disappeared. Then from 5000 to 3500 cal. yr BP *Picea abies* increased again but remained less numerous than *Pinus sylvestris* and *Betula spp*. From 3500 cal. yr BP, the light taiga was predominant with *Pinus sylvestris* and *Betula spp*.

In Sedkyrkeshch, Syndorsky and Cherny Yar, pollen diagrams only cover part of the Holocene. At Sedkyrkeshch, few changes were observed between 4000 and 1000 cal. yr BP. *Betula spp.* was the main taxa. *Pinus sylvestris* and *Picea abies* were equally present. In Syndorsky, *Betula spp.* dominated in the Early Holocene (from 9000 to 6500 cal. yr BP), followed by *Pinus sylvestris* from 6500 to 5000 cal. yr BP. *Picea abies* (dark taiga) culminated around 8000 cal. yr BP. In Cherny Yar, as in Yaksha and Kalya, the first half of the Holocene showed landscapes mostly consisting of forests dominated by *Betula spp.* up to 6000 cal. yr BP. From 6000 to 3000 cal. yr BP, *Betula*-dominated forests and dark taiga (*Picea abies*) were both present.

At Baika, before 10,000 cal. yr BP, the forests had not yet significantly developed; subsequently, *Picea abies*, *Pinus sylvestris* and *Betula spp*.
Forests developed. From 10,000 to 5000 cal. yr BP, dark taiga with *Picea abies* was predominant. From 5000 to 2500 cal. yr BP, *Picea abies*decreased in favor of light taiga taxa, before developing again from 2500 cal. yr BP until the present day.

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## 171 *2.3 Pollen-inferred climate reconstructions: a multi-method approach*

The pollen-based climate reconstructions were performed using two different methods, in order to increase the reliability of our reconstruction: 172 173 the Modern Analogue Technique (MAT; Guiot, 1990) and the Weighted Averaging Partial Least Squares Regression (WA-PLS; ter Braak and Juggins, 1993). Transfer functions (such as WA-PLS) and assemblage approaches (such as MAT) require a robust modern pollen calibration 174 dataset. The MAT compares the composition of modern pollen assemblages compiled in the modern dataset with fossil pollen assemblages by 175 176 calculating a chord distance (a Euclidian distance on square-root-transformed abundances) (Guiot, 1990). When the chord distance reaches a threshold value, modern pollen assemblages samples are rejected. On the other hand, the closest modern pollen samples are retained as the best 177 analogues, and the weighted average of their climate parameters is calculated to provide the past climate estimates (where the weights used are 178 179 the inverse of the chord distance) (Guiot, 1990). We chose between 6 to 8 analogues (depending on the site and the climatic parameters), using a leave-one-out cross-validation test. WA-PLS is a transfer function, a regression method that assumes that the relationships between pollen 180 percentages and climate are unimodal, and that for each taxon there is an optimal climate variable value. With this method, the modern pollen 181 data set used can be considered as a large multidimensional matrix. Since there is collinearity between pollen taxa, and since some taxa are linked 182 183 to the climatic parameters of interest, it is possible to resize the dataset to a reduced number of components based on the linear predictors of the 184 parameter of interest and on the residual structure of the data when these predictors are removed (Peyron et al., 2013).

The modern dataset used here for the Yaksha and other sequences climate reconstructions was a sub-dataset from a Eurasian database (Peyron et al., 2005), with more than 3000 sites (Peyron et al., 2008; Dugerdil et al., 2021). The sub-dataset selected here includes 2115 sites located mainly in Russia but also in Northern and Central Europe. We chose to constrain the original dataset to increase the robustness of the climatic parameter reconstruction. With that objective, we selected biomes comparable to the climate and ecosystems in the region of the Republic of Komi. The sites corresponding to the biomes Cold Deciduous Forest, Cold Mixed Forest, Cold Coniferous Forest, Cold Steppe, Pioneer Environments, Taiga forest and Tundra (Peyron et al., 1998; Prentice et al., 1996) were selected in the sub-dataset.

191 The R package 'Rioja' was used to reconstruct the past climate parameters with both methods (Juggins, 2009; Juggins and Juggins, 2020). Climate 192 parameters are: mean annual temperatures (TANN) and annual precipitation (PANN), mean summer temperatures (MTWA) and summer precipitation (SUMMERPR). The performance of the two methods was tested on the database by randomly using 60% of it to calibrate and the 193 remaining 40% to test the transfer functions. The same test was carried out by selecting the 19 samples from the database between latitudes 40 194 and 50°N and longitudes 40 and 50°E, representing the closest samples from the database to the Yaksha site. The correlations between the 195 reconstructed values and the observed values of the database are presented in Appendix SI 3 and SI 4. A redundancy analysis (RDA) was 196 performed to compare the main pollen taxa (Betula spp., Pinus sylvestris, Pinus sibirica, Picea abies, Abies sibirica and Other taxa) with 197 reconstructed climate parameters inferred from pollen MAT (TANN, PANN, MTWA and SUMMERPR), fire activity (mFRI) and human 198 population density. The fire activity data come from Barhoumi et al. (2020, 2019) who calculated and computed temporally the mean Fire Return 199 200 Interval of Yaksha study site. The human population density numerical data come from the HYDE 3.1 database (Klein Goldewijk et al., 2011) 201 and were downloaded here: https://landuse.sites.uu.nl/datasets/.

202

#### 203 *2.4 GDGT analysis*

204 Key samples representative of the sedimentary sequences and the lithologic transitions were processed for GDGT analyses at ENS de Lyon (LGLTPE, France): 26 and 12 from Yak3-A and Yak2-A, respectively. Samples were freeze-dried and grounded. To aliquots of less than a gram, 205 a C<sub>46</sub> GDGT standard solution, at 10 ng.µL<sup>-1</sup> was added (Huguet et al., 2006). Then, lipids were microwaved (MARS, CEM) with dichloromethane 206 207 (DCM):MeOH (3:1). Total lipid extracts were separated into polar and apolar fractions on an  $Al_2O_3$  column (1 g) with hexane:DCM (1:1) and 208 DCM/MeOH (1:1). The separated fractions were then analyzed using a High Performance Liquid Chromatography Mass Spectrometer (HPLC-MS, Agilent 1200) (Hopmans et al., 2016; Davtian et al., 2018). The detected peak signals were integrated on the Agilent, LC/MS Chemstation 209 Software. Branched-GDGT compositions (brGDGTs, Damsté et al., 2000; Weijers, Schouten, Sluijs et al., 2007, 2007) were quantified. 210 The reproducibility and stability of the analytical process was assessed through regular chemistry and analysis of an internal standard peat sample. 211 Reproducibility of the measurements was calculated by replicate analyses of two contrasted samples of the sediment core. 212

BrGDGTs (see compound shape in Figure 1 from Naafs et al., 2018) are distinguished by the proportions of tetra- (I), penta- (II) and hexa- (III)

216 methylated forms and by the number of cyclopentane moieties, which can be 0 (a), 1 (b), or 2 (c). brGDGT fractional abundances were combined

217 into several indices (Table 2) such as the Branched and Isoprenoid Tetraether Index (BIT - Hopmans et al., 2004), the IIIa/IIa ratio (Xiao et al.,

218 2016), in which we included the 5/6 and 7-Methyled form, the Cyclization ratio of Branched Tetraethers (CBT - Weijers et al., 2007a) and the

219 Methylation of Branched Tetraether (MBT'- Peterse *et al.*, 2012 and MBT'<sub>5Me</sub> - De Jonge *et al.*, 2014b).

220 Table 2: Indices and temperature calibrations based on brGDGT fractional abundances

Indices/Temperature	Formula or model	References
calibrations		
CBT	lag (Ib + IIb + IIb6Me)	(Weijers et al.,
	$= -log\left(\frac{1}{1a + 1Ia + 1Ia6Me}\right)$	2007b)
MBT'	Ia + Ib + Ic	(Peterse et al.,
	$=\frac{1}{1a + 1b + 1c + 11a' + 11a'' + 11a^{\prime\prime} + 11b'' + 11b'' + 11c' + 11c'' + 111a'' + 111a'' + 111b'' + 111b'' + 111c'}{1a + 111a'' + 111a'' + 111b'' + 111c'' + 111c'' + 111a'' + 111a'' + 111b'' + 111b'' + 111c'' + 111c'' + 111a'' + 111a'' + 111b'' + 111b'' + 111c'' + 111c'' + 111a'' + 111a'' + 111b'' + 111c'' + 111c'' + 111a'' + 111a'' + 111b'' + 111c'' + 111c'' + 111a'' + 111a'' + 111b'' + 111c'' + 111c'' + 111c'' + 111a'' + 111a'' + 111b'' + 111c'' + 111c'' + 111a'' + 111a'' + 111b'' + 111b'' + 111c'' + 111c'' + 111a'' + 111a'' + 111b'' + 111b'' + 111c'' + 111c'' + 111a'' + 111a'' + 111b'' + 111b'' + 111c'' + 111c'' + 111a'' + 111a'' + 111b'' + 111b'' + 111c'' + 11c'' + $	2012)
MBT'5Me	Ia + Ib + Ic	(De Jonge et
	$=$ $\frac{1}{1a + lb + lc + lla + llb + llc + lla}$	al., 2014)
CI	Ia	(De Jonge et
	$=\frac{1}{1a+11a+111a}$	al., 2019)
MAT <sub>Peterse</sub>	$= 0.81 - 5.67 \times CBT + 31.0 \times MBT'$	(Peterse et al.,
		2012)
MAT <sub>Naafs</sub>	$= 52.18 \times MBT'5Me - 23.05$	(Naafs et al.,
		2017)
MAT <sub>Crampton-Flood</sub>	Bayesian regression model (BayMBT0, for mean annual temperatures above zero)	(Dearing
		Crampton-
		Flood et al.,
		2020)
MST <sub>Foster</sub>	$= 18.7 + (80 \times Ib) - (23.05 \times II) - (19.4 \times III) + (369.9 \times IIIb)$	(Foster et al.,
		2016)
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Temperature reconstructions were based upon several indices, including the Methyl Index of Branched Tetraether (MBT - (Weijers et al., 2007b). This has been modified by Peterse *et al.* (2012) to yield MBT', and by Naafs *et al.* (2017) to give MBT'<sub>5Me</sub>, excluding brGDGT 6-methyl. We tested four calibration equations and models, assessed on global datasets of soils and peats. This allowed us to derive Mean Annual Air Temperature (hereafter called MAT<sub>Peterse</sub> and MAT<sub>Naafs</sub>), Mean Annual Temperature above 0°C (herafter called MAT<sub>Crampton-Flood</sub>) and Mean Summer Air Temperature (hereafter called MST<sub>Foster</sub>). These calibrations are respectively based on Peterse *et al.* (2012), Naafs *et al.* (2017), Dearing Crampton-Flood *et al.*, (2020) and Foster *et al.*, (2016).

### 229 **3. Results**

#### 230 *3.1 Pollen-inferred climate patterns*

The mean annual temperatures (TANN) and annual precipitation (PANN) of the Yaksha, Kalya, Baika and Cherny Yar sites are presented in Fig.
The two other sites (Sedkyrkeshch and Syndorsky), which cover only a small part of the Holocene, are presented in Appendix SI 5, as well as

233 mean summer temperatures (MTWA) and summer precipitation for each site.

During the Holocene, the mean annual temperatures reconstructed using the Modern Analogue Technique and the Weighted Averaging Partial 234 235 Least Squares Regression, from the different cores (Yaksha, Kalya, Baika, Cherny Yar) were broadly similar in terms of trends and amplitudes 236 (Fig. 2). In Yaksha, Kalya and Baika, the temperature values reconstructed from the most recent samples were very close to the measured modern values (-0.37°C at Yaksha, +0.39°C at Kalya and +1.46°C at Baika). From 10,000 to 7000 cal. yr BP, higher than present day temperatures were 237 reconstructed for Yaksha and Baika (+3 °C). At Kalya, however, the temperature trends reconstructed with the two methods were similar only 238 from 5500 to 0 cal. yr BP (Fig. 2). Noteably, the climate reconstruction began from 9000 cal. yr BP with lower values than today and the 239 temperature increased until 7000 cal. yr BP. Yaksha, Kalya and Baika records show a Holocene Thermal Maximum (HTM) extending between 240 241 6800 cal. yr BP and 4000 cal. yr BP, with temperature values from  $+1^{\circ}C$  (MAT) to  $+3^{\circ}C$  (WA-PLS) relative to the present. From 4000 to 3000 242 cal. yr BP, the results show a general decrease in temperatures, with values lower than today (Yaksha) or very close to modern values (Baika and 243 Kalya). Then, from 3000 to 0 cal. yr BP, the temperatures rose gradually and reach current values.

244 Mean annual precipitation (PANN) estimates at Yaksha show differences between the two methods but for Kalya, Baika and Cherny Yar, the precipitation reconstructions were very similar for MAT and WA-PLS (Fig. 2). For all these sites (except Baika), there was a general increase in 245 246 precipitation during the Holocene. At the onset of the Holocene, between 10,000 and 8000 cal. yr BP, Yaksha and Kalya show precipitation values 247 slightly below the modern values (about 630 mm/year, especially with MAT results). Baika recorded a decrease of precipitation from 9000 to 248 8000 cal. yr BP. Then, from 8000 to 5000 cal. yr BP, the PANN at Baika shows an increasing trend, as do all the other sites. From 5000 cal. yr 249 BP, a precipitation decrease was observed (WA-PLS at Yaksha), up to about 3500 cal. yr BP. From 3500 cal. yr BP, PANN stabilized at modern 250 values for Yaksha (WA-PLS) and Baika. They increased up to 1500 cal. yr BP in Kalya, before gradually decreasing to the later values up to the 251 present day.



Figure 2: Regional climatic synthesis for the Republic of Komi from pollen-based reconstructions. Mean annual temperature and mean annual
 precipitation (dashed lines) were calculated with the Modern Analogue technique (MAT) and the Weighted Averaging Partial Least Squares
 Regression (WA-PLS) and smoothed with Loess (span = 0.3, solid lines). Shaded areas are confidence interval. Red dashed lines are modern
 values for each site.

## *3.2 GDGT abundances and indices*

Within the Yaksha record, the majority of brGDGTs are tetramethylated Ia (48%) and pentamethylated forms IIa (39%) (Fig. 3A). The 259 260 hexamethylated form IIIa represents 6% of the total brGDGTs. The remaining brGDGTs are present at values below 2%. The GDGT signatures from Yaksha were similar to those in the global database (Naafs et al., 2017) and were charactersitic of mid- and high-latitude sites (Fig. 3B). 261

262 The average BIT index is  $0.998 \pm 0.005$ . The MBT'<sub>5Me</sub> and MBT' signals (used to infer temperature) vary little along the core (Fig. 3C), but show

the lowest values (0.39 - 0.4) between 4740 and 5580 cal. yr BP and at 8980 cal. yr BP. The maximum value of 0.64 is at 4020 cal. yr BP. CI 263 (Community Index, Table 2, De Jonge et al., 2019) shows the same variations as the MBT'<sub>5Me</sub> and MBT' signals and values similar to those of

265 MBT'<sub>5Me</sub>. These indices show high values at the very beginning of the Holocene, from 10,000 to about 9200 cal. yr BP. There are also high values

between 8600 and 6500 cal. yr BP, and again between 4500 cal. yr BP. until the end of the record. PCA of Yaksha brGDGTs was performed (see 266

SI 6). The eigenvalues of the first 2 axes of this PCA are presented in Fig. 3D (axis 1) and 3E (axis 2). Outlier brGDGT samples were highlighted 267

268 by cutoff values of 1 (for axis 1) and 2 (for axis 2).

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Figure 3: A: brGDGT fractional abundances in the Yaksha sequence measurement represented against two % scales. B: Ternary plot of the
relative abundances of tetra-, penta-, and hexamethylated brGDGTs compared to the general database from Naafs et al. (2017) sorted by latitude
classes. C: CBT, CI, MBT' and MBT'<sub>5Me</sub> indices. D and E: Individual PCA eigenvalues according to axis 1 (D) and axis 2 (E). Red dots are
samples above the threshold separating main samples from outlier points

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277 **4. Discussion** 

278 *4.1 Yaksha local temperature reconstructions: brGDGT and pollen comparison* 

279 *4.1.1 brGDGT origins* 

The brGDGT signal from the Yaksha study site is consistent with a terrigenous origin: the BIT index remains very close to 1 throughout the sediment core (Hopmans et al., 2004).

282 BrGDGT forms without cyclopentane moieties, Ia and IIa, are the main compounds within the Yaksha sedimentary core (Fig. 3A). This agrees with several studies on brGDGTs from soils and peatlands (Li et al., 2017; Loomis et al., 2014; Sun et al., 2011; Weijers et al., 2010, 2007b, 283 284 2006a, 2006b). This observation also confirms that the production of Yaksha brGDGTs is mainly of terrigenous origin since *in situ* production 285 contains more methyl groups and cycle forms (Loomis et al., 2014; Tierney et al., 2012, 2010). Form IIIa, which is the third most abundant brGDGT compound here, is therefore likely to have come from the small amount which would have been produced *in situ*, when the peatland 286 was submerged (Buckles et al., 2014; Cao et al., 2017; Loomis et al., 2014, 2011; Tierney et al., 2010). The variations in CI appear to coincide 287 with the sample outliers indicated by the PCA eigenvalues of the brGDGTs samples. This could indicate a shift in brGDGT-producer communities, 288 since they may respond differently to varying atmospheric temperatures (De Jonge et al., 2019). These samples (at 400 cal. yr BP; from 1330 to 289 290 1870 cal. yr BP and from 4740 to 5580 cal. yr BP) were therefore not considered in the discussion and interpretation of the results of the 291 temperature calibrations.

Moreover, peatland is an environment in which one part (catotelm) is anoxic and constantly saturated with water, while another part (acrotelm) contains living *Sphagna* and exhibits large variability in oxygen content. Studies have shown that the concentration of brGDGTs is significantly higher in catotelm than in acrotelm (Weijers et al., 2004). This differentiates the dynamics of brGDGT communities depending on the nature of the sediment through the core and has an impact on reconstruction of the annual air temperatures. For this reason we tested four calibrations, one for soil environments, MAT<sub>Peterse</sub> (Peterse et al., 2012), and two specific to peatland environments, MAT<sub>Naafs</sub> and MAT <sub>Crampton-Flood</sub>, (Dearing Crampton-Flood et al., 2020; Naafs et al., 2017). We tested another calibration, reconstructing summer temperatures or temperatures of the months above 0°C, regionally adapted for Antarctic and sub-Antarctic lakes, MST<sub>Foster</sub> (Foster et al., 2016), which is close to the climate of the Republic of Komi. (Fig. 4).

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#### 4.1.2 brGDGT calibration for mean annual temperatures reconstruction

The brGDGT reconstructed temperatures (Fig. 4) ranged between: MAT<sub>Peterse</sub>: +2.5 to +10.5°C, MST<sub>Foster</sub>: +5.5 to +9.9°C, MAT<sub>Naafs</sub>: -3 to +10.6°C and MAT<sub>Crampton-Flood</sub>: +5.2 to +14.1°C. The four calibrations show similar patterns. The first half of the Holocene, from 10,000 to 6500 cal. yr BP, shows a steady increase of the temperatures (+2°C). Then, from 4000 cal. yr BP to 2100 cal. yr BP, temperatures decrease before increasing again in the Late Holocene. Both peat calibrations, MAT<sub>Naafs</sub> and MAT<sub>Crampton-Flood</sub>, show more marked trends than the lake calibrations, MAT<sub>Peterse</sub> and MST<sub>Foster</sub>. Highest temperature values are not reconstructed by the summer calibrations, but by the mean annual temperatures above zero calibration from Crampton-Flood *et al.* (2020). The GDGT-based temperature values are higher than the current values, and differ from those of pollen transfer-functions: we will therefore discuss trends rather than absolute values.

The warmest Holocene temperature appears to be at 4000 cal. yr BP, just before a temperature drop that spans the next 2000 years. This 309 310 corresponds to the end of the HTM time frame reconstructed by the pollen transfer functions. However, it should be noted that from 6500 to 4000 311 cal. yr BP and from 1870 to 1330 cal yr BP and at 400 cal. yr BP, there is no interpretation of the calibration results, these samples having been 312 excluded because of suspected correspondence to another community of brGDGTs. BrGDGTs analyzed in this study came from a peat sediment core, which adds temperature reconstruction biases (Weijers et al., 2010). It is more noteably more difficult to set up reconstructions of peatland 313 or soil temperatures, because the modern data are less well known and/or less available, and also generally less used in paleoecology (Weijers et 314 315 al., 2011, 2007b). The dual origin (terrestrial and lacustrine) of brGDGTs blurs the signal between the composition of brGDGTs and the 316 calculation of CBT and therefore contributes to the error that accompanies them (Sun et al., 2011). Other biases in the reconstruction of temperatures from brGDGTs have been brought to light. The literature shows that brGDGT temperature calibrations are likely to both 317 underestimate past temperatures (Li et al., 2017; Pearson et al., 2011; Tyler et al., 2010; Zink et al., 2010) but and at other times to overestimate 318 319 them (Wang et al., 2012; Li et al., 2017), and this even with regional calibrations. The temperature seasonality, which is high in the region of the

study site, is a factor that enhances the overestimation of temperatures (Dearing Crampton-Flood et al., 2020) and this is what is clearly observed 320 321 with all the calibrations that have been tested, compared to the modern average annual temperatures at Yaksha. Although bacterial communities are present and active in winter (Drotz et al., 2010; Nedwell, 1999), bacterial activity appears to be more intense in summer, with different 322 323 bacterial communities than in the winter season (Schostag et al., 2015; Sun et al., 2011). The calibrations provided for high latitudes such as that 324 of Foster et al. (2016), but also that of Dearing Crampton-Flood et al. (2020), more recently, with the use of their BayMBT0 model, would therefore correspond more to growing season, rather than to the mean annual temperature. External factors can also influence brGDGT 325 distributions and temperature reconstructions, such as precipitation and humidity changes (Dearing Crampton-Flood et al., 2020). Finally, 326 vegetation can also be an element of variability in the brGDGT production (from soils and from the watershed) (Ayari et al., 2013; Huguet et al., 327 2013; Naeher et al., 2014; Weijers et al., 2011). At Yaksha, the time periods that show the highest variability in the brGDGT signal are between 328 329 9100 and 8500 cal. yr BP, 5600 and 4700 cal. yr BP and 1500 cal. yr BP to the present day (Fig. 3C, CBT and IIIa/IIa indices, tetramethylated 330 brGDGTs, rings tetra- and pentamethylated 5 Me brGDGTs). The alternation of light taiga and dark taiga could therefore have played a role in the diversity of the brGDGT present. This role is however not fully assessed so far (Buckles et al., 2014; Davtian et al., 2016; Weijers et al., 331 332 2010).



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Figure 4: Yaksha GDGT temperature reconstructions. Blue: Mean Annual Temperature ( $MAT_{Peterse}$ ) after Peterse et al. (2012), green: Mean Annual Air Temperature ( $MAT_{Naafs}$ ), after Naafs et al. (2017), black: Mean Annual Temperature above 0 ( $MAT_{Crampton-Flood}$ ), after Dearing Crampton-Flood et al. (2020), orange: Mean Sub-Arctic Air Temperature ( $MST_{Foster}$ ) after Foster et al. (2016). The reconstructed temperatures are smoothed with the R function Loess (span = 0.3). Modern Mean Annual Temperature (Modern MAT) is represented in red dotted line, Modern Mean Summer Temperature (Modern MST) is represented in pink dotted line and Modern Mean Months above 0°C Temperature (Modern MM0) is represented in grey dotted line.

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## 4.1.3 Pollen-inferred climate reconstructions

The reconstructed climatic parameters of the Holocene in the Republic of Komi show similar trends in the two-methods: MAT and WA-PLS (Fig. 2). A comparable agreement between the climate reconstructions obtained with the two methods can be observed at a more regional scale, namely the comparison between Europe and the Northern Hemisphere (Herzschuh et al., 2021). Here, the results from the MAT generally indicate more variability than the WA-PLS method, as has already been observed in other studies, because of the degree of sensivity of the method (Birks

346	and Seppä, 2004; Brewer et al., 2008; Dugerdil et al., 2021; Robles et al., 2022). The MAT has been widely used to reconstruct the climate
347	changes in Europe over the Late Glacial and Holocene (Peyron et al., 2005, 2011, 2013; Mauri et al., 2015; Ponel et al., 2022) as the MAT is
348	usually more sensitive to minor variations in the pollen assemblage, compared to the WA-PLS (Brewer et al., 2008; Sinopoli et al., 2019, Hershuzh
349	et al., 2022). However, the MAT may be less reliable when the vegetation is only dominated by two or three taxa, as is the case in our study
350	(Salonen et al., 2012). This is the reason the WA-PLS has been more often used than the MAT to reconstruct Holocene temperatures in the boreal
351	regions of Scandinavia (Seppä et al., 2009; Salonen et al., 2011, 2012). The WA-PLS method is generally less efficient when the modern pollen
352	dataset is large (Chevalier et al., 2020; Dugerdil et al., 2021), but in this study the dataset was reduced to records comparable in terms of biomes,
353	which is also recommended as a method to increase the sensitivity of the MAT (Birks and Seppä, 2004). Moreover, the main disadvantage of
354	WA-PLS is that it tends to overestimate values (Birks, 1998), which is observed in the results of our study. Our results show that in the Republic
355	of Komi, the margins of error from the MAT (RSEP = 3.1 for TANN; RSEP = 197.6 for PANN) are lower than those from the WA-PLS (RSEP
356	= 4.3 for TANN ; RSEP = 266.7 for PANN). However, both methods appear fairly reliable because they provide similar trends for the Holocene.

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## 4.1.4 Comparison of brGDGT- and pollen-inferred temperature reconstructions

The reconstructions based on brGDGTs and pollen show different absolute values and amplitudes of variations (Fig. 5A, B). With the brGDGT 359 360 calibration of the temperatures, the amplitude of temperature variation is more than 7°C. In contrast with pollen records, the amplitude is around 361 4°C. However, the Holocene temperature variations comparing the two methods show more similarity. The Early Holocene begins with a slight drop in pollen-inferred temperatures, till about 8000 cal. yr BP, from which time the temperature trends rise. This corresponds fairly well with 362 the brGDGT calibration MAT<sub>Crampton-Flood</sub>, which shows an increase in temperatures during whole Early Holocene. The warmest period from 363 pollen-inferred temperatures is recorded between 6800 and 4000 cal. yr. BP. At 4000 cal. yr. BP., the MAT<sub>Crampton-Flood</sub> calibration also shows its 364 highest temperature, thus presenting a shared identification of the HTM between the two temperature reconstruction methods (the mid-Holocene 365 part of the brGDGT temperature calibrations being put to one side and not compared with pollen-inferred temperatures). Thereafter, trends for 366 both signals are similar, since a synchronous decrease in temperatures is indicated after 4000 cal. yr BP, followed by a net increase from 3000 367 cal. yr BP for the pollen signal and from 2000 cal. yr BP for the brGDGT calibration. 368







Figure 5: Yaksha local dynamics. A: brGDGT-inferred temperatures MAT<sub>Crampton-Flood</sub>, after Dearing Crampton-Flood et al. (2020). B: Polleninferred mean annual temperatures TANN. C: Pollen-inferred mean annual precipitation MAP. D: Main pollen taxa cumulative diagram. E:
Mean Fire Return Interval and human population density in the Republic of Komi (mFRI, Barhoumi et al., 2019, 2020). F: RDA for Yaksha main
pollen taxa, MAT reconstructed climate (TANN, PANN, MTWA, SUMMERPR); fire activity (mFRI) and human activity (human population
density).

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## 4.2 Yaksha local dynamics: interactions between climate, vegetation, fire and human presence

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4.2.1 From 10,000 to 4000 cal. yr BP: a first half of the Holocene mainly influenced by climate

To evaluate the background for fire dynamics, a Pearson correlation test was carried out between modern annual temperatures (from 2010 to 2018), for the studied sites, and the mean temperatures of the warmest months, (June, July, August), corresponding to the fire season, as well as correlation with mean temperatures of the months above  $0^{\circ}$ C (Tabatabai et al., 2021). The Pearson's correlation indicates that modern mean annual temperatures are positively correlated with mean modern summer temperatures (correlation of 0.45) and mean modern temperatures of months above  $0^{\circ}$ C (correlation of 0.48). It is therefore assumed that past annual mean temperatures, reconstructed from pollen and brGDGTs were also positively correlated with past mean summer temperatures and past mean temperatures of months above  $0^{\circ}$ C.

Temperatures close to the modern ones are reconstructed from 10,000 to 9000 cal. yr BP (Fig. 5B) with vegetation mainly representative of the light taiga type, with the taxa *Pinus sylvestris* and *Betula* spp. being dominant (75 %, Fig. 5D). These results are consistent with those for the modern period.

388 Even though the light taiga remained in the main forest system up to 5500 cal. yr BP, the warming occurring since 8000 and including the HTM, which lasted until 4000 cal. yr BP, is associated with an increase of dark taiga taxa (increase in *Picea abies* and appearance of *Pinus sibirica*). 389 390 These two taxa seem to be influenced by the increase in the mean annual and summer precipitation, as shown by the RDA (Fig. 5F), which occurs 391 at the same time. The increase in dark taiga taxa is consistent with the recognised characteristics of this taiga system, which is favored by precipitation (Goldammer and Furyaev, 1996; Golubeva, 2008; Schulze et al., 2005). The increase could also demonstrate the substantial influence 392 393 of climate on vegetation dynamics during this period. Moreover, between 10,000 and 6000 cal. yr BP, the mean Fire Return Interval (mFRI) based on charcoal analysis (Barhoumi et al., 2019) is high (median mFRI greater than 200 years, Fig. 5E), which would be indicative of a boreal 394 forest with larger occurrence of the dark taiga type in the earlier part of the Holocene, because the dark taiga is usually associated with low fire 395 396 frequency (de Groot et al., 2013; Goldammer and Furyaev, 1996; Sannikov and Goldammer, 1996). Since the human presence and its impact on the environment is negligible in the first half of the Holocene (between 10,000 and 5000 cal. yr BP; Drobyshev *et al.*, 2004; Karmanov *et al.*,
2011; Klein Goldewijk *et al.*, 2011), the climate appears to have been the main factor influencing the vegetation in Yaksha. This is consistent
with the conclusions of a previous study based on pollen analysis and vegetation cover modeled by REVEALS, over the period from 10,000 to
6000 cal. yr BP (Barhoumi *et al.* (2020).

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#### 4.2.2 From 4000 to 600: an increasing impact of fires

The period between 4000 and 2500 cal. yr BP corresponds to a significant decrease in temperature (Fig. 5A, B). The percentage ratio between 403 dark taiga and light taiga shows great variability and seems to demonstrate the establishment of a boreal forest consisting of dark and light taiga 404 405 mosaic patches, equally distributed, supported by high precipitation favouring dark taiga. However, this period coincides with the crossing of a threshold in the fire regime of Yaksha: the mFRI goes from 180 years (Fig 5E, phase R-3) to 135 years (phase R-4) from 4000 cal. yr BP up to 406 600 cal. yr BP. An mFRI value of *circa* 200 years corresponds to a fire frequency still tolerable by the representative taxa of the dark taiga 407 (Goldammer and Furyaev, 1996; Sannikov and Goldammer, 1996). But from 4000 cal. yr BP, the mFRI value is well below this threshold and 408 409 should no longer allow dark taiga to develop (Goldammer and Furyaev, 1996; Schulze et al., 2005). A higher fire frequency would benefit the 410 maintenance of a light taiga system, while high precipitation would maintain the presence of dark taiga taxa such as *Picea abies*. The contrasting influences of the climate and the fire regimes could explain the maintenance of a forest composed of a mosaic of patches of dark and light taiga 411 The gradual return to a light taiga dominance between 2500 and 600 cal. yr BP therefore seems favored by the increase of temperatures, but also 412 by the establishment of the lower mFRI, since this type of forest is made up of fire-tolerant species well adapted to high fire frequency (see RDA, 413 *Pinus sylvestris* correlated with mean temperatures and mFRI), (Goldammer and Furyaev, 1996; Schulze et al., 2005). Fire frequency could be 414 415 the cause of the decline of Abies sibirica and Pinus sibirica, which are not resistant to frequent fire events and whose seed production and life cycle may need a longer time than the time interval available between two fire events during this phase (Goldammer and Furyaev, 1996; Sannikov 416 and Goldammer, 1996; Schulze et al., 2005). The dominant presence of light taiga over dark taiga from 2500 cal. yr BP, does not prevent *Picea* 417 418 abies remaining well established. Barhoumi et al., (2020) suggested that this may be due to the local establishment of Picea abies tree stands, growing along small streams and moist soils and with precipitation staying high between 3000 and 2000 cal. yr BP (Zaretskaya et al., 2014). As 419 these systems are also present in light taiga, it is surprising to note that Picea abies does not suffer drastically from the drop in mFRI to below 420 421 200 years. In theory, *Picea abies* cannot develop if surface fires reach its critical regeneration time range (about 200 years after a fire event)

(Goldammer and Furyaev, 1996; Schulze et al., 2005). We therefore suggest that these surface fires were not able to reach the peat wetlands on which *Picea abies* grew. That interpretation was highlighted by the first study on the dynamics of fires of the Yaksha site by Barhoumi *et al.* (2019). This study highlights that most of the recent fires revealed by the analysis of fire scars on trees at the Yaksha site, have affected the vegetation in a very localized way, while others have affected the site Yaksha as a whole. This demonstrates that the surface fires at the Yaksha site could have been mostly local, and so were not able to reach the populations of *Picea abies*, because of their location on highly moist soils.

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## 4.2.3 From 600 to modern times: the combined influence of human activity and climate?

429 The period between 600 and 0 cal. yr BP shows slightly increasing temperature values to levels similar to those of the Early Holocene, and stable 430 precipitation (Fig. 5A). The light taiga is well established and *Betula spp.* is dominant (Fig. 5D). *Betula* is a pioneer species in a disturbed environment and is also a sign of the opening of the boreal forest in this zone (Goldammer and Furyaev, 1996). The strong presence of *Betula* 431 spp. during this phase is strongly associated with human population density in the RDA (Fig. 5F) and could be a sign of a human influence on the 432 vegetation. In the Republic of Komi in particular, logging is now a highly developed activity and its production represents a major economic 433 resource for this region (Naryshkin, 2003). The mFRI is at its lowest value within the Holocene interval (less than 100 years, phase R-5, Fig. 5E). 434 435 This time frame corresponds to the highest density of the human population in the Republic of Komi and its increasing activity and impact on its 436 environment (Drobyshev et al., 2004b; Klein Goldewijk et al., 2011; Naryshkin, 2003). It therefore seems that fire events could have been induced by human activity and that the generally high fire activity of this period could be related to both anthropogenic influences and a more favorable 437 438 climate (Drobyshev et al., 2004b; Naryshkin, 2003). However, a recent study has nuanced the impact of human presence during this period. Different waves of human colonization during this period were indeed indicated, but were not synchronous with the changes in the fire cycles 439 reconstructed by dendrochronological analyses (Ryzhkova et al., 2022). These authors deduced that the climate was the main factor in the 440 dynamics of the forest and that the human impact on fire activity was more pronounced after the 1900s. This is also consistent with the increase 441 in temperature reconstructed by brGDGTs, which started from 1800 cal. yr BP but intensified from about 700 cal. yr BP (Fig. 5A). 442

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## 4.3 Regional climate pattern in the South of the Republic of Komi

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4.3.1 From 10,000 to 8000 cal. yr BP, a cold Early Holocene

Although AO/NAO dynamics influence the climate of Republic of Komi region (Raspopov et al., 2013), climate records from the region can be 446 447 different from those recorded, for example, in Siberia because the Republic of Komi is located in a boundary zone, at the limit between the regions positively or negatively influenced by atmospheric processes and solar irradiation (Raspopov et al., 2013). The regional climate signal in the 448 South of the Republic of Komi indicates a cooling and drying in the Early Holocene (Fig. 6H, 6I and 8A). This is in agreement with (1) the 449 450 brGDGT temperature calibration being the coldest of the records at the Yaksha site (Fig. 6J), (2) reconstructions of mean annual temperatures in Eastern-central European Russia (from +1 to -1°C, Fig. 6E, Novenko and Olchev, 2015), summer temperatures in Eastern Siberia inferred from 451 chironomids (from +17 to +14°C, Fig. 6G, Nazarova et al., 2015), (3) climate model simulations and mean temperature anomalies of Europe, 452 inferred from pollen (WA-PLS), showing the lowest temperatures of the Holocene during this time (between -1 to 0°C anomaly for annual 453 temperatures, Fig. 6B, C, Herzschuh et al., 2022) The GCM outputs also simulate a drop in summer temperatures for Central Asia with a loss of 454 455 about 0.5°C, Fig. 6M, (Bush, 2005). However, in North Eastern European Russia, a rise in summer temperatures is reconstructed from pollen 456 data (+1°C approximately, Fig. 6D, Salonen et al., 2011). The South of the Republic of Komi, therefore, seems to have undergone climatic influences similar to those occurring in Western Russia and in Siberia. 457



460 Figure 6: Synthesis of Holocene temperature reconstructions in the Republic of Komi and neighboring regions, based on pollen, GDGTs,
461 chironomids and GCM outputs. Mean annual and summer temperatures are represented in black and in red, respectively. Location of the sites
462 are represented in Fig. 1. Insolation at 60°N after Berger and Loutre (1991). The red rectangle indicates the HTM period.

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464 *4.3.2 Timing of the HTM* 

In the Republic of Komi, pollen results suggest the occurrence of the HTM between 6800 and 4000 cal. yr BP (this time frame includes the high 465 466 mean annual temperature values for both MAT and WA-PLS methods, Fig. 6H). This finding is consistent with the brGDGT MAT<sub>Crampton-Flood</sub> calibration, recording its warmest temperature value at 4000 cal. yr BP (Fig. 6J). The increase in annual temperatures in the Republic of Komi is 467 also associated with an increase in precipitation (Fig. 7B). This HTM time window is consistent with but broader than the one suggested by 468 Golubeva (2008), with the same pollen data set (except Yaksha site) but using other methods of temperature reconstruction (Klimanov, 1976). 469 470 This time-range for the HTM reconstructed with MAT/WA-PLS techniques is consistent with that reconstructed by Herzschuh et al. (2022), showing a pollen-inferred (WA-PLS method) HTM at 5600 cal. yr BP for Europe annual temperatures. This time range is also consistent with 471 the Russian Arctic region and Kola Peninsula pollen-based temperature reconstructions (Fig. 6K; Tarasov et al., 1999; Andreev and Klimanov, 472 2000; Solovieva, Tarasov and MacDonald, 2005), in the North of the Republic of Komi. The Russian Arctic HTM was explained because the 473 474 Arctic Ocean coast was about 100 to 300 km further North at this time than it is today, which contributed to a warmer and more continental 475 climate (Andreev and Klimanov, 2000; Baranskaya et al., 2018). Studies from the west of the Republic of Komi, in Siberia and in Central Yakutia 476 also show an climatic optimum included in this interval (Biskaborn et al., 2016; Blyakharchuk and Sulerzhitsky, 1999; Nazarova et al., 2015b; Subetto et al., 2017; Ulrich et al., 2017). Moreover, from 10,000 cal. yr BP until 4000 cal. yr BP, climate was the most moist of the Holocene 477 (Blyakharchuk and Sulerzhitsky, 1999; Tarasov et al., 2009, 1999), which partially corresponds with the precipitation records from the Republic 478 of Komi (since it was low between 10,000 and 8500 cal. yr BP, and high between 6500 and 4000 cal. yr BP). The climate became moist again 479 480 between 3000 and 600 cal. yr BP. This time frame corresponds well with the annual precipitation reconstruction from Herzschuh et al. (2022), suggesting that the Holocene rincrease in precipitation could be due to enhanced cyclonic activity. The HTM in the Republic of Komi is not as 481 long as in Northern Europe and Fennoscandia, where it began as early as 8000 cal. yr BP (Fig. 6B and 7D; Seppä et al., 2009; Salonen et al., 482 483 2011). Another extended HTM was observed by Kultti et al. (2003), still closer to Republic of Komi, between 9000 to 5200 cal. yr BP. Some of the sites in the Kultti study were located at high altitudes in the Urals. The altitude may have had an impact on the different climatic influences 484 485 affecting the area from Arctic Russia to the Vychegda river basin in Republic of Komi. Many studies highlight the role of increased insolation in 486 global warming during the HTM (Bartlein et al., 2011; Kultti et al., 2003; Mayewski et al., 2004; Wohlfarth et al., 2007).



Figure 7: Synthesis of Holocene precipitation reconstructions in the Republic of Komi and neighboring regions, based on pollen,
minerology/magnetism and GCM outputs. Annual sum of precipitation is represented in black and the summer sum of temperatures, in red.
Location of the sites are represented in Fig. 1



## 4.3.3 Late Holocene, from 4000 to modern time: cold phase, MWP and LIA?

A fluctuating and colder phase is marked in the Republic of Komi between 4000 and 2500 cal. yr BP. This cooling seems to have been also registered in Siberia by chironomids (summer temperatures) (Nazarova et al., 2015b) and in Arctic Russia (Andreev and Klimanov, 2000). In Northern Europe, a large period of continuous and gradual cooling has extended since the end of the HTM, around 4000 cal. yr BP, up to 1000 cal. yr BP, and has been largely explained by the influence of the decrease in summer insolation (Fig. 6D; Salonen *et al.*, 2011).

According to Seppä *et al.*, (2009), the Medieval Warm Period (MWP, 1550-650 cal. yr BP (Camill et al., 2009)) is not a distinct temperature peak in Northern Europe, but "represents the final centuries of a longer warm period before the onset of cooling". Pollen signals from the Republic of Komi clearly indicate a period of warming between 2000 and 900 cal. yr BP. This signal is also registered by pollen assemblages from the Kola Peninsula, which is located in the Northern part of European Russia (Solovieva et al., 2005) and a general slight increase in summer temperatures has been simulated for Central Asia (Bush, 2005). This period coincides with the wettest recorded in the Republic of Komi, the Kola Peninsula and the Central steppes of Russia, based on pollen grains and magnetism/minerological analysis (Fig. 7B, A and E; Solovieva, Tarasov and MacDonald, 2005; Alekseeva *et al.*, 2007).

The subsequent short and rapid decrease in temperatures in the Republic of Komi from 500 cal. yr BP (WA-PLS), may correspond to the Little Ice Age (LIA, 650-150 cal. yr BP (Camill et al., 2009)). This cooling was also noted in records from Northern Europe by Seppä *et al.* (2009) until ca. 400 cal. yr BP, in West-central Eurasia by the LOVECLIM model (Baker *et al.*, 2017), in Northern East European Russia by Salonen *et al.* (2011), and in the Kola Peninsula (Solovieva et al., 2005). However, the resolution of our records is too low to corroborate (or to refute) these results, but there are consistent with these observations.

At the end of the 19th century, a global warming trend was recorded by tree-rings in the Northern Urals (Moiseev et al., 2010) (Moiseev *et al.*, 2010) but in the Republic of Komi, the results do not show any general warming trend during this period, except for the sites Yaksha (MAT) and Kalva. The brGDGT calibrations also showed also an increase in temperature over this interval.

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## 520 5. Conclusions and remarks on the Republic of Komi boreal forest

This study presents (1) the first Holocene temperature reconstruction at a regional scale of the southern part of the Republic of Komi, based on the study of pollen- transfer functions based on six different sites. (2) the first study of the local dynamics in Yaksha, between climate (based on pollen-transfer functions and brGDGT temperature calibrations), fire, vegetation and human activities.

Regional climate reconstructions for the Republic of Komi show an increase in precipitation and a mid-Holocene HTM between 6800 and 4000 cal. yr BP which is in line with neighboring regions in Northern Europe, and also with Siberia, through the analysis of different proxies and analytical methods (pollen, chironomids, model outputs).

527 At the local scale of Yaksha, the temperature reconstructions based on pollen assemblages and brGDGTs show common warmest temperature 528 phases around 4000 cal. yr BP. Further studies of cold environments are needed to improve the calibrations for brGDGTs, in particular for the 529 Holocene, where factors others than temperature influence the composition of brGDGT communities.

Finally, our study showed that climate had a major influence on the vegetation and dynamics of the boreal forest in Yaksha. Fires had an additional 530 and growing impact on vegetation dynamics between 4000 and 600 cal. yr BP. Finally, from 600 BP to the present day, both climate and increasing 531 human impacts have influenced the dynamics of the boreal forest in this region. In modern times, the fire regime induced by anthropogenic 532 533 activities corresponds to an overexploitation of the forest, whose coniferous species have rapidly declined in favor of a pioneer deciduous species 534 (the explosion of *Betula spp.* from 600 to the modern age is demonstates this effect (Naryshkin, 2003; Sannikov and Goldammer, 1996). It is 535 likely that the wetter dark taiga growing on organic soils has been weakened by this fire regime. This can then lead to a reversal of the balance in the carbon cycle, which could lead to massive releases into the atmosphere. This observation was made by Naryshkin, (2003) and Walker et al. 536 537 (2019): not only do these forests no longer play the role of carbon sinks as they have done in the past, but they are gradually becoming sources of atmospheric carbon. With global warming, the temperature and dryness conditions of the environment may increase even more, and induce a 538 539 greater dryness of the soil, allowing the spread of fires even on previously more moist areas and therefore affect tree populations which were not previously vulnerable. This was the case for example in the years 1972, 1974, 1977, 1982, 1987, 1998 in Siberia and in more recent years in 540 541 Siberia and in the Ural region (Goldammer et al., 2005; Goldammer and Furyaev, 1996). Managing the structure of forest stands by establishing 542 species more adapted to the new local climatic conditions may help to reverse the impact on the increase in fire activity that is evident today.

543

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## 913 8. Supplementary Information



915 SI 1: From Barhoumi et al. (2019): Age-depth model based on radiocarbon ages (see Table 2) from Yak2-A, Yak2-B, Yak3-A and Yak3-B cores.
916 The materials dated by 14C are bulk (single black lines), plant macroremains (green stars), macrocharcoal (black star).



921 SI 2: Cumulative pollen percentage diagram of principal taxa for each site: Yaksha, Baika, Kalya, Cherny Yar, Sedkyrkeshch and Syndorsky.
 922 The main taxa shown are Betula spp. and Pinus sylvestris for the light taiga and Pinus sibirica, Picea abies and Abies sibirica for the dark taiga.



*SI* 3: Correlations between the reconstructed values from the pollen transfer functions and the observed values of the randomly selected 40% of the database



933 SI 4: Correlations between the reconstructed values from the pollen transfer functions and the observed values of the 19 samples situated between
934 40-50°N, 40-50°E of the database



SI 5: Regional climatic synthesis of the Republic of Komi of pollen-based climatic reconstructions. Mean summer temperature (A), summer
 precipitation (B) and mean annual temperatures and precipitations (C and D) were calculated using the modern analogue technique (MAT)
 and the weighted average partial Least squares regression (WA-PLS) and smoothed using Loess (span = 0.3, solid lines). Shaded areas are

*confidence intervals. Red dashed lines are modern values for each site.* 



948 SI 6: A: Yaksha brGDGTs PCA (axis 1 and axis 2). B: Yaksha brGDGTs PCA percentage of explained variances for each axis.