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1 **Subalpine peatland development since the Last Glacial Maximum in**
2 **subtropical China: Predominantly controlled by monsoonal climate and**
3 **local topography**

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18

19 Abstract

20 Peatlands have a great interaction with global carbon cycle and climate changes.
21 A comprehensive understanding of carbon accumulation and development of
22 peatlands is extremely important to help address future climate challenges. We here
23 combine three total organic carbon content with seven published records from
24 subalpine peatlands in monsoonal region of subtropical China, aiming to reveal the
25 general pattern of carbon accumulation and development of peatlands since the Last
26 Glacial Maximum (LGM) in this region. The synthesis show that carbon accumulation
27 significantly increased at approximately 16 cal. ka BP, synchronous with a peak of
28 peatland initiation in this region. Since then, these records clearly display two distinct
29 patterns: Pattern one showed three intervals of high carbon accumulation at ca. 16–
30 12 cal. ka BP, 9.5–7.5 cal. ka BP and 6–4 (or 4–1) cal. ka BP respectively, whereas
31 pattern two reached the maximum in the early Holocene and kept stably high during
32 the Holocene. Through comparing with pollen indicator and climate reconstruction,
33 we demonstrated that hydrology linked to monsoonal climates (especially
34 precipitation) was the dominant factor controlling carbon accumulation and
35 development of subalpine peatlands since the LGM in subtropical China. However,
36 two dynamic patterns occurred under the same climatic conditions were attributed to
37 the significant modulation of local topography, i.e., intermontane basin (pattern one)
38 or montane settings (pattern two). The hydrology and carbon accumulation of
39 peatlands is a function of the changes in monsoonal climate and local site-specific
40 topography. These findings provide a comprehensive understanding of past long-

41 term carbon accumulation and development of peatlands under monsoonal climate.

42 **Keywords:** carbon accumulation; peatland development; monsoonal climate; local
43 topography; subtropical China; the Last Glacial Maximum

44

45 **1. Introduction**

46 Peatlands exert enormous influences on global carbon cycle and climate
47 changes, owing to their high carbon accumulation rate, great greenhouse gas
48 emissions (e.g., CH₄) and climate sensitivity (Ribeiro et al., 2021). Peatlands have
49 accumulated one third of global terrestrial soil carbon since the Last Glacial
50 Maximum (LGM, approximately 21,000 years ago) (Yu et al., 2010), a period of
51 extreme climate and atmospheric CO₂ concentration variability (Shakun and Carlson,
52 2010) and an important time window for accessing past environmental fluctuations
53 (Liu et al., 2022). Among them, northern (boreal and subarctic) and tropical
54 peatlands have served as the major terrestrial carbon pools (Müller and Joos, 2020).
55 Abrupt increases in global atmospheric CH₄ concentration that were coupled with
56 rapid climate changes since the LGM, was also linked to northern and tropical
57 peatlands (MacDonald et al., 2006). Considering the major role in moderating global
58 climate, the understanding of past peatland development and related controlling
59 factors is extremely important to help address future climate challenges. Studies
60 suggest that the development of northern peatland on millennial to orbital timescales
61 was mainly controlled by thermal condition and continental ice-sheet extents (Yu et
62 al., 2010; Treat et al., 2019); whereas that of tropical peatland was predominately

63 driven by sea level changes and regional climate changes ([Dommain et al., 2011](#);
64 [Treat et al., 2019](#)).

65 Although the area is relatively small compared to the northern and tropical
66 peatlands ([Müller and Joos, 2020](#)), subalpine peatlands in monsoonal region of
67 subtropical China seem to be unique at these latitudes in the North Hemisphere ([Yu
68 et al., 2010](#)) due to monsoonal climate. In subtropical China, peatlands commonly
69 develop in mountains and are usually the water sources of rivers. Some peatlands
70 (e.g., the Caohai and Dajihu peatlands) are also important habitats for endangered
71 species and stop-over sites for migratory birds. Therefore, subalpine peatlands in
72 subtropical China are of great significance in water resource management and
73 biodiversity conservation ([Huang et al., 2017](#); [Zhang et al., 2021](#)). Furthermore,
74 peatlands in subtropical China are also an important source of greenhouse gases.
75 For instance, they might have contributed to high atmospheric CH₄ concentrations
76 during past warm intervals such as the Marine Isotope Stage 3 (MIS 3) and the
77 Bølling-Allerød (B/A) period ([Zhao et al., 2014](#); [Xu et al., 2016](#)). In addition, their
78 sediments are valuable archives for paleoenvironment reconstructions (e.g., [Zhong
79 et al., 2010](#); [Yue et al., 2012](#); [Liu et al., 2020](#)), for example, total organic carbon
80 (TOC) contents as a proxy for the East Asia summer monsoon (EASM) intensity
81 (e.g., [Ma et al., 2009](#); [Zhang et al., 2018](#)).

82 Peatlands in subtropical China are proposed to be strongly influenced by the
83 hydrology linked to monsoonal climate changes ([Zhao et al., 2014](#); [Zhang et al.,
84 2016](#); [Yu et al., 2020](#)). Local factors such as topography and elevation that vary

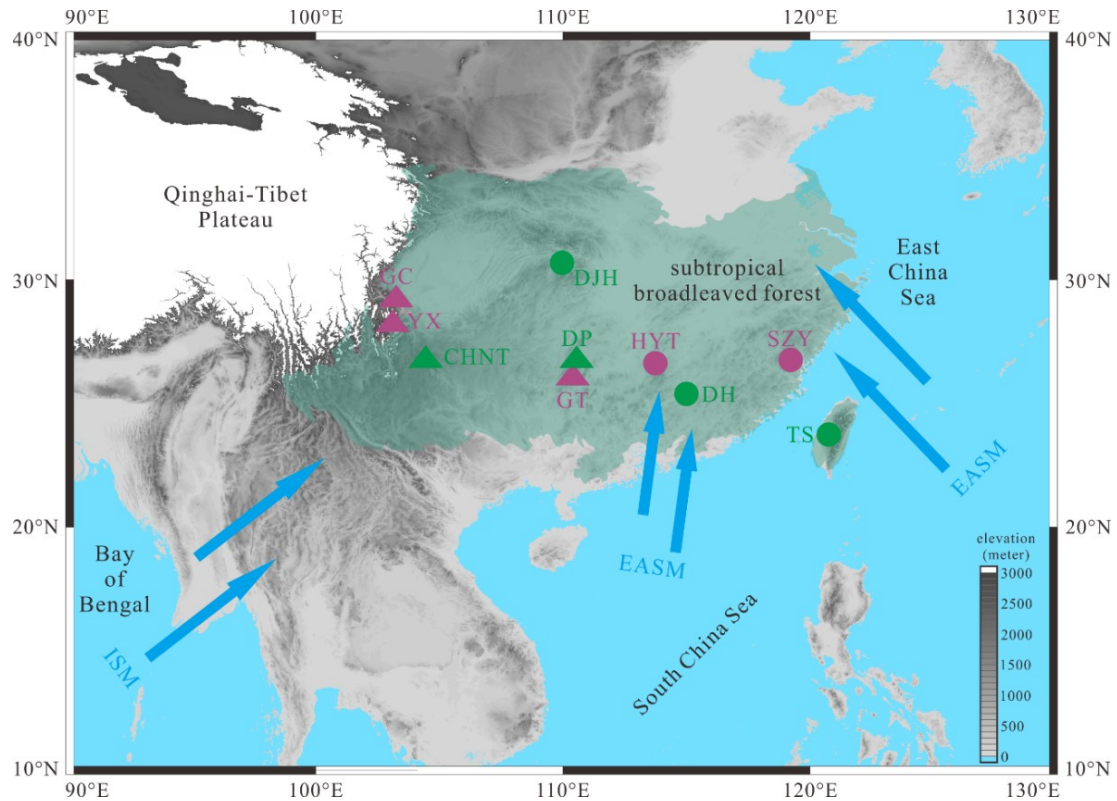
85 significantly in subtropical China could also affect the development of subalpine
86 peatlands (Zhao et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2016). However, our knowledge of long-
87 term (i.e., covering the last glacial-interglacial cycle) development of peatlands
88 across a broad range of this subtropical region is still limited. Previous studies mostly
89 focus on specific sites such as the Dajiuhu (Ma et al., 2009; He et al., 2015; Zhang et
90 al., 2016), Dahu (Zhou et al., 2004; Wei et al., 2018; Yu et al., 2020) and Tengchong
91 peatlands (Xu et al., 2016; Cui et al., 2023), which is insufficient to provide a
92 fundamental and comprehensive understanding of carbon accumulation and
93 development of peatlands in this region. Furthermore, ongoing global warming is
94 likely to produce more frequent and severe climate changes in monsoonal region
95 (IPCC, 2021), which may cause irreversible damages to the vulnerable mountain
96 peatlands and ecosystems. Hence, subtropical China is an ideal region to decipher
97 the controls of regional climate changes and/or local factors on past long-term
98 carbon accumulation and development of peatland, helping the conservation of
99 subalpine peatlands in this monsoonal region under projected climate changes.

100 In this study, we present three ca. 21,000-year TOC records obtained from the
101 Caohainantun, Gutian and Huyangta peatlands, respectively. Then, through
102 combining with seven published TOC records, we aim to reveal the general carbon
103 accumulation pattern and development of subalpine peatlands in subtropical China
104 during the last glacial-interglacial cycle (i.e., from the LGM to the Holocene). These
105 records represent most geographic part of the study region and clearly display two
106 distinct patterns. We further discuss the influences of monsoonal climate and local

107 topography on these two patterns, through comparing with regional climate
 108 reconstruction, pollen data of the same cores and local geomorphological settings.

109 2. Materials and Methods

110 2.1. Regional Settings



111
 112 **Fig. 1. Geographic map of the subtropical China (light green shade area).** Details of
 113 peatlands in this study are listed in [Table 1](#). Green triangles and dots - peatlands of pattern one;
 114 Purple triangles and dots - peatlands of pattern two. EASM - East Asian summer monsoon; ISM -
 115 Indian summer monsoon.

116 The present-day climate of subtropical China is dominantly influenced by the Asian
 117 monsoon. The precipitation is concentrated mostly from March to September, which
 118 is dominantly controlled by the EASM in the east part and the Indian summer
 119 monsoon (ISM) in the west part ([Fig. 1](#)). Regional vegetation is dominated by

120 subtropical broadleaved forests (Wu, 1980). However, vertical vegetation belts are
 121 common in mountain ranges of this region due to the varied topography and
 122 elevations (Zhang et al., 2020). The ten peatlands discussed in this study cover the
 123 region between ca. 23°N and 32°N and 102°E and 121°E (Table 1), west to the
 124 southeast margin of the Tibetan Plateau and east to the northwestern Pacific Ocean
 125 (Fig. 1). Their altitudes generally vary between ca. 250 m and 2200 m. Their mean
 126 annual temperature and precipitation range from 11 and 19 °C and 850 and 2000
 127 mm, respectively. Furthermore, these peatlands locate at representative units of the
 128 study region: the Caohainantun, Yuexi and Ganchi peatlands are in the typical ISM
 129 region; the Huyangta, Dahu and Dajiuahu peatlands are in the typical EASM region;
 130 the Gutian and Daping peatlands are in a transitional zone between these two
 131 monsoon subsystems, but are still dominantly influenced by the ISM; the
 132 Shuizhuyang and Toushe peatlands are close to the Pacific Ocean (Fig. 1).

133 **Table 1. Details of the ten peatlands in subtropical China discussed in this study.**

No.	Peatland	Location	Elevation (m)	Age range (cal. ka BP)	Dating point	Geomorphological setting	Reference*
1	Ganchi (GC)	29.39°N, 103.03°E	1805	0–26.2	14	montane peatland	1
2	Yuexi (YX)	28.78°N, 102.95°E	1950	0–15.4	20	montane peatland	2
3	Caohainantun (CHNT)	26.81°N, 104.34°E	2165	0–21.0	9	intermontane basin	3
4	Gutian (GT)	26.09°N, 110.37°E	1677	0–21.1	10	montane peatland	3
5	Daping (DP)	24.76°N, 115.04°E	246	0–15.4	12	intermontane basin	4
6	Dajiuahu (DJH)	31.49°N, 110.00°E	1760	0–16.0	10	intermontane basin	5
7	Huyangta	26.46°N,	1486	0–21.8	5	montane peatland	3

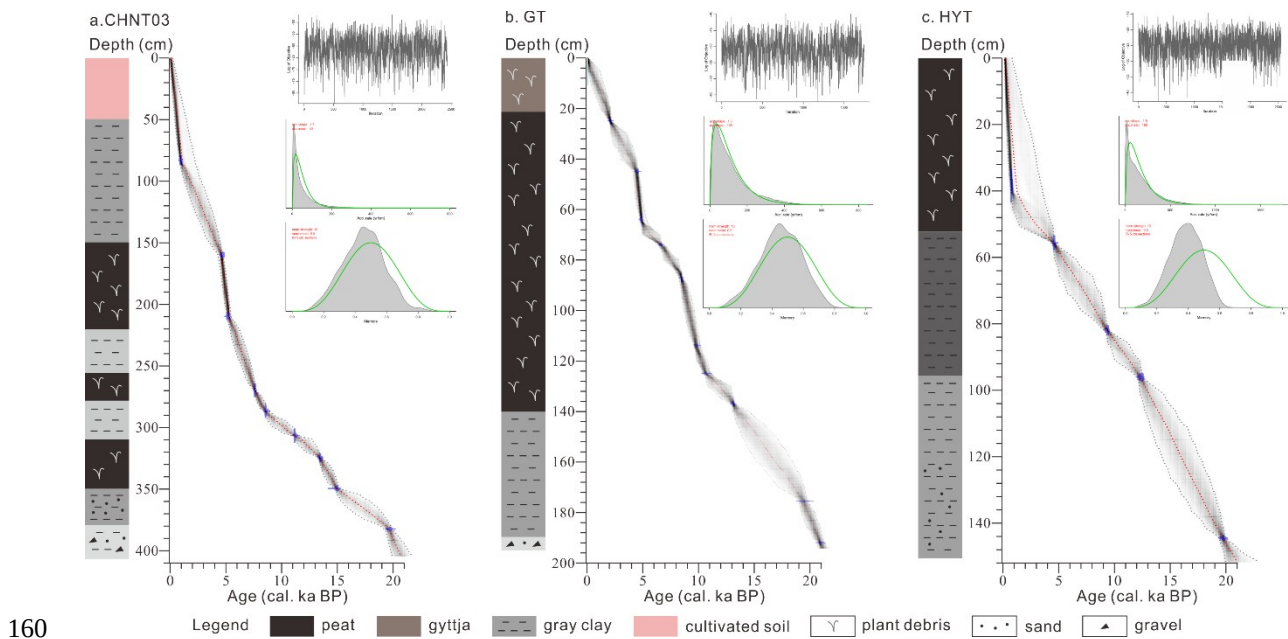
	(HYT)	114.00°E					
8	Dahu (DH)	24.75°N, 115.03°E	260	0–18.0	10	intermontane basin	6
9	Shuizhuyang (SZY)	26.77°N, 119.03°E	1007	0–30.0	8	montane peatland	7
10	Toushe (TS)	23.82°N, 120.88°E	650	0–30.0	24	intermontane basin	8

*References: 1. [Huang et al., 2022](#); 2. [Peng et al., 2021](#); 3. This study; 4. [Zhong et al., 2017](#); 5. [Ma et al., 2009](#); 6. [Zhou et al., 2004](#); 7. [Wang et al., 2017](#); 8. [Li et al., 2013](#).

134 2.2. Cores and Lithology

135 A continuous 405 cm-long sediment core (CHNT03) was collected from the
 136 Nantun peatland of the intermontane Caohai Basin, southwestern China in August
 137 2013 ([Table 1](#)). The lithology is mainly gray-black clay and peat containing plant
 138 debris (50–380 cm) with cultivation disturbance at the top (0–50 cm), but turns into a
 139 thin sand-gravels layer at the base (380–405 cm) ([Fig. 2a](#)). Core GT (194 cm-long)
 140 was retrieved from a montane peatland (Gutian) in the west Nanling Ranges,
 141 southern China in June 2010 ([Table 1](#)). The lithology shows a thin sand layer
 142 interbedded with gravel at the base, gray silty clay at 140–190 cm, peat with
 143 abundant plant debris at 22–140 cm, and brown root-rich gyttja at the top (0–22 cm)
 144 ([Fig. 2b](#)). Core HYT is 265 cm-long and was collected from a montane peatland
 145 (Huyangta) in the Luoxiao Ranges, southern China in August 2017 ([Table 1](#)). This
 146 study focuses on the top 150 cm of core HYT, representing the time interval from ca.
 147 21,000 cal a BP to present. The upper part of core HYT (0–95 cm) is mainly
 148 composed of peat sediments and dark gray clay, and the lower part turns into gray
 149 clay with fine sands ([Fig. 2c](#)). We collected these peat cores using a 50 cm-long
 150 Russian-type peat corer.

151 In the other hand, the Dajihu, Toushe, Daping and the Dahu peatlands develops
 152 in a relatively closed intermontane basin in the west Shennongjia Mountains (Ma et
 153 al., 2009), central Taiwan Island (Li et al., 2013), west (Zhong et al., 2017) and east
 154 Nanling Mountains (Yu et al., 2020), respectively. The Shuizhuyang, Ganchi and
 155 Yuexi peatlands are montane peatlands formed in the southeast Jiufeng Mountains
 156 (Yue et al., 2012), Dawa Mountain (Huang et al., 2022), and northeast Hengduan
 157 Mountains (Peng et al., 2021), respectively. All ten peatlands are without large inflow
 158 rivers and mostly fed by direct precipitation and runoff from the surrounding
 159 catchments.



161 **Fig. 2. Lithology and age-depth models of cores CHNT03, GT and HYT.**

162 2.3. Radiocarbon Dating

163 The chronologies of three peat cores in this study are based on the accelerator
 164 mass spectrometry radiocarbon (AMS ^{14}C) dates of plant debris, bulk organic matter
 165 or pollen concentrates, pretreated using the standard acid-base-acid (ABA) method.

166 In total, 9, 10 and 5 AMS ^{14}C dates were obtained for cores CHNT03 (Zhang et al.,
167 2023), GT (Zheng et al., 2023) and HYT, respectively. Conventional ages were
168 calibrated to calendar years (i.e., cal. yr BP) using the IntCal20 calibration dataset
169 (Reimer et al., 2020). Then, the age-depth models of these cores were established
170 using the Bayesian approach implemented in the Bacon 2.2 package (Blaauw and
171 Christen, 2011) for R program.

172 2.4. Proxy Measurements

173 In this study, the proxy of total organic carbon (TOC) content is used to indicate
174 carbon accumulation in sediments and peatland development. The samples were
175 firstly ground to < 200 mesh size and homogenized, followed in sequence by treated
176 using 5% HCl to remove carbonate, adjusted to pH 7.0 with deionized water and
177 then freeze-dried. TOC and total nitrogen (TN) contents were measured on a Vario
178 EL cube Element Analyzer (standard deviations < 0.1%). Sampling resolutions are
179 ca. 2 cm, 4 cm and 2 cm for cores CHNT03, GT and HYT, respectively. To validate
180 the accuracy of TOC results, we also measured the proxy of loss in ignition (LOI) for
181 samples of core CHNT03, following the procedures suggested by Heiri et al. (2001).
182 Briefly, after overnight oven-drying of ca. 1.5 g sample at 105 °C, organic matter was
183 combusted at a temperature of 550 °C for 4 hours in a muffle. Loss in ignition at 550
184 °C (LOI_{550}) was then calculated using the following equation: $\text{LOI}_{550} = ((\text{weight}_{105} -$
185 $\text{weight}_{505}) / \text{weight}_{105}) * 100$. All proxy measurements above were finished in the
186 Instrumental Analysis and Research Center of Sun Yat-sen University.

187 We also conducted pollen analysis on samples of cores CHNT03 and GT using a

188 standard method (Moore et al., 1991) with minor amendment, i.e., treated by 10%
189 HCl and 10% KOH to remove carbonates and turbid organic matter, respectively,
190 followed by density separation using iodine dense liquid (2.0 g/m³) (Huang et al.,
191 2014). A tracer tablet containing 27,637 *Lycopodium* spores was added to each
192 sample to allow pollen concentration to be calculated. Pollen percentages were
193 calculated based on the sum of terrestrial pollen, excluding aquatic pollen (e.g.,
194 Cyperaceae) and spores. Based on the pollen data of core CHNT03, paleoclimate
195 variables (i.e., mean annual temperature and precipitation) were quantitatively
196 reconstructed using a transfer function method (the Locally Weighted-Weighted
197 Average Partial Least Squares, LW-WAPLS) (Birks et al., 2012) based on the
198 updated Eastern Asia Pollen Dataset (EAPD) (Zheng et al., 2014). Results of pollen
199 analysis and climate reconstructions have been presented in our previous studies
200 (Zhang et al., 2023; Zheng et al., 2023).

201 **3. Results**

202 **3.1. Dating results**

203 The AMS ¹⁴C dates of three peat cores presented in this study were all in
204 stratigraphic order and increased with depth (Table 2), respectively. Age-depth
205 models show that all of these cores cover the last ca. 21,000 cal a BP (Fig. 2),
206 ranging from the LGM to the Holocene (Clark et al., 2009). Mean sedimentation rates
207 are significantly different between these cores, i.e., ca. 19.4 cm/kyr, 9.3 cm/kyr and
208 7.1 cm/kyr for cores CHNT03, GT and HYT, respectively. Thus, we propose that the

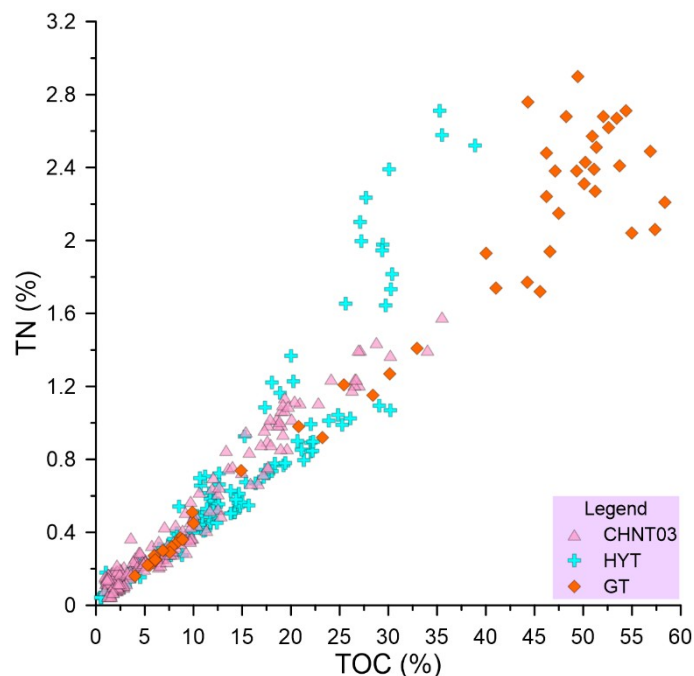
209 sampling resolutions (i.e., 103 yr, 430 yr and 282 yr, respectively) are efficient to
 210 capture millennial- to orbital-scale variations in TOC contents and consequently
 211 carbon accumulation of these records. According to the lithology and dating results,
 212 no obvious sedimentary hiatus was found. In addition, the published TOC records
 213 from the Ganchi, Dahu, Shuizhuyang and Toushe peatlands extend to the LGM,
 214 while the basal ages of records from the Yuexi, Daping, Dahu and Dajihu peatlands
 215 are approximately 16 cal. ka BP (Table 1).

216 **Table 2. Accelerator mass spectrometry radiocarbon (AMS ^{14}C) dating results of cores**
 217 **CHNT03 (Zhang et al., 2023), GT (Zheng et al., 2023) and HYT in this study.**

Core	Sample	Depth (cm)	Material	^{14}C age \pm error (BP)	2σ (cal. BP)
CHNT03	NT-83*	83	plant debris	950 \pm 30	788–922
	NT-160#	160	bulk organics	4131 \pm 32	4529–4821
	NT-210#	210	wood fragment	4520 \pm 24	5051–5307
	NT-270#	270	bulk organics	6772 \pm 30	7578–7670
	NT-287*	287	bulk organics	7820 \pm 30	8521–8696
	NT-307*	307	bulk organics	9850 \pm 40	11196–11390
	NT-325#	325	bulk organics	11709 \pm 47	13462–13742
	NT-350#	350	bulk organics	12638 \pm 43	14924–15220
	NT-383*	383	bulk organics	16490 \pm 70	19613–20122
GT	GT-25*	25	pollen concentrates	2030 \pm 30	1882–2096
	GT-45 [†]	45	pollen concentrates	3970 \pm 40	4292–4526
	GT-64 [§]	64	bulk organics	4233 \pm 28	4651–4856
	GT-74 [†]	74	pollen concentrates	5740 \pm 70	6353–6729
	GT-87*	87	bulk organics	7650 \pm 40	8381–8537
	GT-114 [§]	114	bulk organics	8738 \pm 43	9552–9892
	GT-125 [†]	125	pollen concentrates	9390 \pm 70	10382–11063
	GT-137*	137	bulk organics	11250 \pm 60	13086–13296
	GT-175 [†]	175.5	pollen concentrates	16170 \pm 140	19147–19878
	GT-192 [§]	192	bulk organics	17395 \pm 66	20821–21250
HYT	HYT-38*	38	bulk organics	530 \pm 30	511–625
	HYT-55*	55	bulk organics	3990 \pm 30	4409–4526
	HYT-81*	81	bulk organics	8330 \pm 30	9151–9458
	HYT-95*	95	bulk organics	10450 \pm 30	12105–12611
	HYT-143*	143	bulk organics	16500 \pm 50	19621–20127

Dating labs: [†]Beta Analytic Inc.; [#]Institute of Earth Environment, Chinese Academy of Sciences (CAS); [‡]Poznan Radiocarbon Laboratory; [§]Guangzhou Institute of Geochemistry, CAS.

218 3.2. TOC, TN and LOI results



219

220 **Fig. 3. The TOC values plotted against TN values of core CHNT03, core GT and core HYT.**

221 Generally, TOC of these cores are correlated with the corresponding TN towards the origin.

222 TOC values of cores CHNT03 and HYT vary between 0% and 40%, and values of
 223 core GT could increase to ca. 60% (Fig. 3). Generally, variations in TOC content are
 224 consistent with the lithology, i.e., high values (> 20%) in peat with abundant plant
 225 debris, relatively low values (5–10%) in gray silty clay and lowest values (< 5%) in
 226 basal sand layers. TOC contents of three cores are correlated with the
 227 corresponding TN contents towards the origin (Fig. 3), indicating that TOC results
 228 are not significantly influenced by inorganic carbon and mostly resulted from organic
 229 matter deposit in sediments (Mampuku et al., 2008). In the other hand, we here use
 230 48% carbon in sediment LOI for estimating the carbon content as suggested by

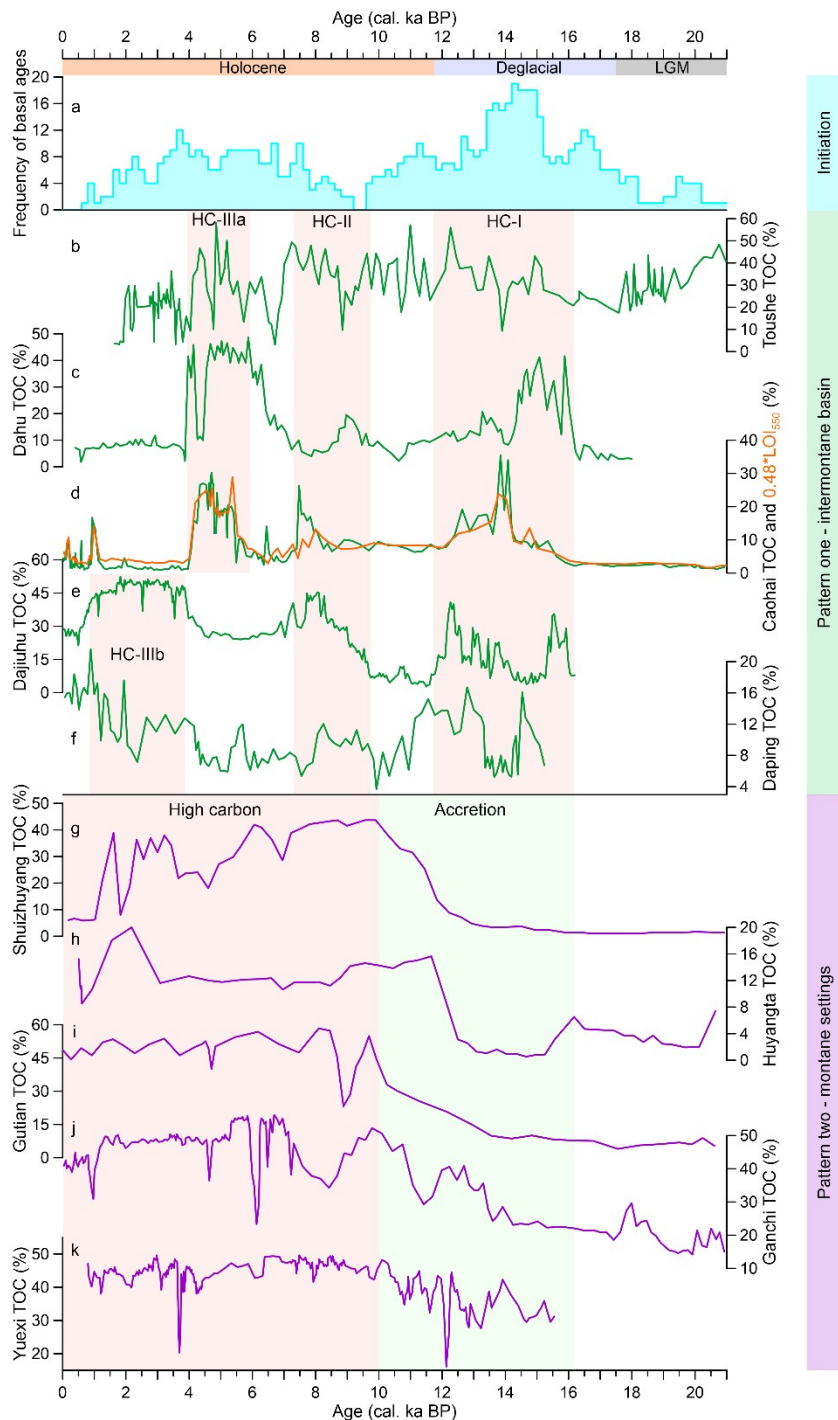
231 previous study in this region (Wei et al., 2018). Variations in estimated carbon
232 content based on LOI results show good agreement with the TOC record in core
233 CHNT03 (Fig. 4d), validating the accuracy of the proxy measurements. All available
234 data taken together, we suggest that TOC variability in this study is related to the
235 preservation of autochthonous and allochthonous organic matter in the sediments
236 and thus could indicate carbon accumulation and development of peatlands.

237 4. Discussion

238 4.1. Two dynamic patterns of carbon accumulation since the LGM

239 TOC values at these peatlands excepting the Toushe maintained stable and low
240 (generally < 5%) until ca. 16 cal. ka BP (Fig. 4), indicating low carbon accumulation
241 and scarce peatland development during the LGM in subtropical mountains of China.
242 Since then, carbon accumulation dynamic within these ten peatlands clearly
243 displayed two distinct patterns. Pattern one, including the Caohainantun, Daping,
244 Dajiuahu, Dahu and Toushe peatlands, experienced an abrupt increase in TOC values
245 at approximately 16 cal. ka BP after the Heinrich Event 1 (HE1). Since then, these
246 five records show three intervals of high carbon contents at ca. 16–12 cal. ka BP
247 (HC-I), 9.5–7.5 cal. ka BP (HC-II) and 6–4 cal. ka (HC-IIIa) BP respectively (Fig. 4b-
248 f), except the latest interval of the Dajiuahu and Daping records at 4–1 cal. ka BP (HC-
249 IIIb) (Fig. 4e and 4f). TOC values were generally higher than 20% during these
250 intervals, but duration and values of the mid-interval (HC-II) were relatively short and
251 small relative to the other two intervals (HC-I and HC-III). By contract, TOC values
252 decreased below 10% during the periods between these intervals (HC-I, II, III).

253 Pattern two, including the Yuexi, Ganchi, Gutian, Huyangta and Shuizhuyang
 254 peatlands, mildly increased from approximately 16 cal. ka BP to 13.5 cal. ka BP.
 255 Then they accelerated toward the early Holocene (approximately 10 cal. ka BP).
 256 During the Holocene, TOC values generally maintained high with some centennial-
 257 scale fluctuations in peatlands of pattern two (Fig. 4g-k).



258

259 **Fig. 4. Two dynamic patterns of carbon accumulation and development of subalpine**
260 **peatlands since the Last Glacial Maximum (LGM) in subtropical China. (a)** Frequency of
261 basal peat ages in 200-year bins in subtropical China (Zhao et al., 2014); **(b-k)** Total organic
262 carbon (TOC) records showing two distinct dynamic patterns of carbon accumulation and
263 development of subalpine peatlands since the LGM in subtropical China. Details of peatlands in
264 this study are listed in Table 1.

265 In general, TOC records from the study region covering relatively short periods or
266 in poor resolution (e.g., He et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2016; Huang et al., 2018;
267 Dodson et al., 2021) are in consistence with the two patterns observed in this study.
268 This broad-scale consistence points to that the two patterns of carbon accumulation
269 and development of subalpine peatlands since the LGM were generally common
270 (though not unique) in subtropical China. Moreover, the patterns have not significant
271 relationship with the elevations of these peatlands or their geographic locations in
272 the EASM or ISM subsystem. For example, the Caohainantun and Yuexi peatlands
273 (Peng et al., 2021) locate at the same monsoon subregion (Wang and Ho, 2002) and
274 have similar elevations (approximately 2000 m). However, their TOC records reveal
275 significantly different history of carbon accumulation and peatland development since
276 the LGM (Fig. 4d and 4k).

277 Interestingly, two high carbon intervals (HC-I and HC-III) of pattern one observed
278 in this study are synchronous with high frequency of basal peat ages at
279 approximately 16–13 cal. ka BP (i.e., the Bølling-Allerød period) and in the mid-late
280 Holocene (Fig. 4a) (Zhao et al., 2014; Le et al., 2021), respectively. In particular,
281 TOC values were larger than 30% (corresponding to > 60% organic matter in

282 sediments) in peatlands of pattern one (excepting the Daping) during the Bølling-
283 Allerød warm period, which coincided with the maximum frequency of basal peat
284 ages since the LGM in subtropical China (Zhao et al., 2014). Basal date indicates the
285 time of peatland initiation; hence, an interval of high frequency of basal peat ages
286 indicates a peak period of peatland initiation in a region (MacDonald et al., 2006).
287 This correlation indicates a synchronous relationship between substantial peatland
288 initiation and high carbon accumulation in subtropical China during the Bølling-
289 Allerød warm period and the mid-late Holocene.

290 Although they are also influenced by the Asian monsoon, the dynamics of
291 peatland initiation and carbon accumulation since the LGM in the Qinghai-Tibet
292 Plateau and Northeast China, two major regions of peatland distribution in East Asia
293 (Liu et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2023), were quite different from those of subtropical
294 peatlands observed in this study. In the Qinghai-Tibet Plateau, the peaks of peatland
295 initiation and carbon accumulation were decoupled, i.e., at approximately 11.5–10
296 cal. ka BP and 9–7 cal. ka BP, respectively (Xu et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2014), in
297 contrast to the synchronous relationship in subtropical peatlands (Zhao et al., 2014;
298 this study). In Northeast China, increase in carbon accumulation was coincided with
299 the peatland expansion during the Holocene (particularly the mid-late Holocene)
300 (Zhang et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2023), significant later than the timing of the
301 Bølling-Allerød warm period (ca. 16–13 cal. ka BP) in subtropical peatlands (Zhao et
302 al., 2014; this study). These discrepancies indicate that the factors and mechanisms
303 controlling peatland development in East Asia are very complicated and regionally

304 discrepant.

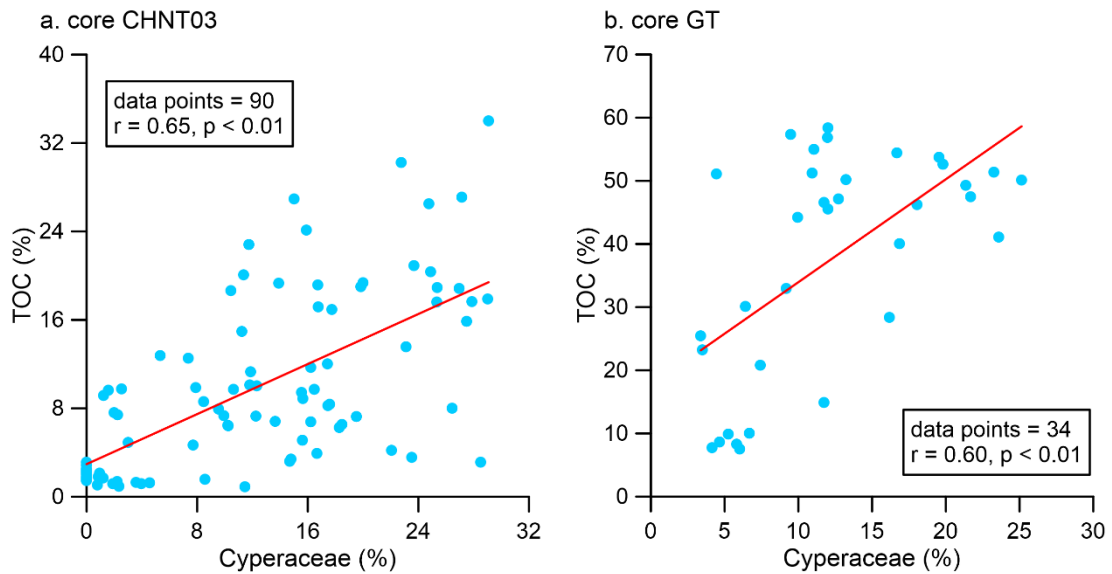
305 **4.2. Dominant control of monsoonal climates on carbon accumulation**

306 Two distinct patterns of carbon accumulation and development of subalpine
307 peatlands since the LGM are observed in subtropical China (Fig. 4), regardless of
308 their elevations and geographic locations in the EASM or ISM subsystem (Table 1).
309 We here chose the Caohainantun and Gutian peatlands from the same monsoon
310 (i.e., ISM) subsystem to reveal the mechanism and driving factors behind, avoiding
311 the possible influence resulting from different monsoon subsystems. Their TOC
312 records were compared with regional climate changes and local environments
313 reconstructed from the same cores (Zhang et al., 2023; Zheng et al., 2023), which
314 could avoid the disadvantage of age uncertainties resulting from record correlation
315 between different cores.

316 Hydrology of peatlands is fundamental to their carbon dynamics (Holden, 2005),
317 prominently shifting the oxic-anoxic boundary through water table fluctuations
318 (Limpens et al., 2008). Therefore, we here first compared the TOC records to local
319 hydrology variability since the LGM. In this study, the percentage of Cyperaceae
320 pollen is used as an indicator of change in local hydrological environment. In humid
321 monsoon region of East Asia, Cyperaceae are often of wetland habitats (Chen et al.,
322 1987; Yue et al., 2012), which is unsuitable to grow in conditions of high water-level
323 or arid soils. A similar trend in Cyperaceae pollen and *n*-alkanes proxy during the
324 past 50 ka from a wetland in this region also demonstrates the close relationship
325 between Cyperaceae and water-level (Tian et al., 2019). Therefore, the percentage

326 of Cyperaceae pollen could be used as an indicator of hydrological environment
327 change in peatland.

328 In the Caohainantun and Gutian peatlands, the percentages of Cyperaceae
329 pollen were closely correlated with the variations in TOC values (Figs. 5 and 6).
330 Correlation coefficient (r) between TOC and Cyperaceae values based on the same
331 samples were 0.65 ($n=90$, $p<0.01$) and 0.40 ($n=43$, $p<0.0.1$) in cores CHNT03 and
332 GT (Fig. 5), respectively, before approximately 2 cal. ka BP when human-induced
333 impacts on vegetation became significant (Cao et al., 2022; Zheng et al., 2023).
334 Correlation coefficient could also increase to 0.60 ($n=34$, $p<0.01$) during the interval
335 of 2–17 cal. ka BP in core GT. Specifically, the percentages of Cyperaceae pollen in
336 core CHNT03 abruptly increased from 0% before 16 cal. ka BP to 28.6% during the
337 Bølling-Allerød warm period, consistent with the abrupt changes in TOC values (Fig.
338 6d and 6e). In the Gutian peatland, relatively stable and high carbon contents
339 corresponded to abundant Cyperaceae pollen during the Holocene (Fig. 6g and 6h).
340 Strong correlation between TOC and Cyperaceae pollen demonstrates the primary
341 influence of local hydrological environment on carbon accumulation and
342 development (Limpens et al., 2008) of subalpine peatlands in subtropical China.

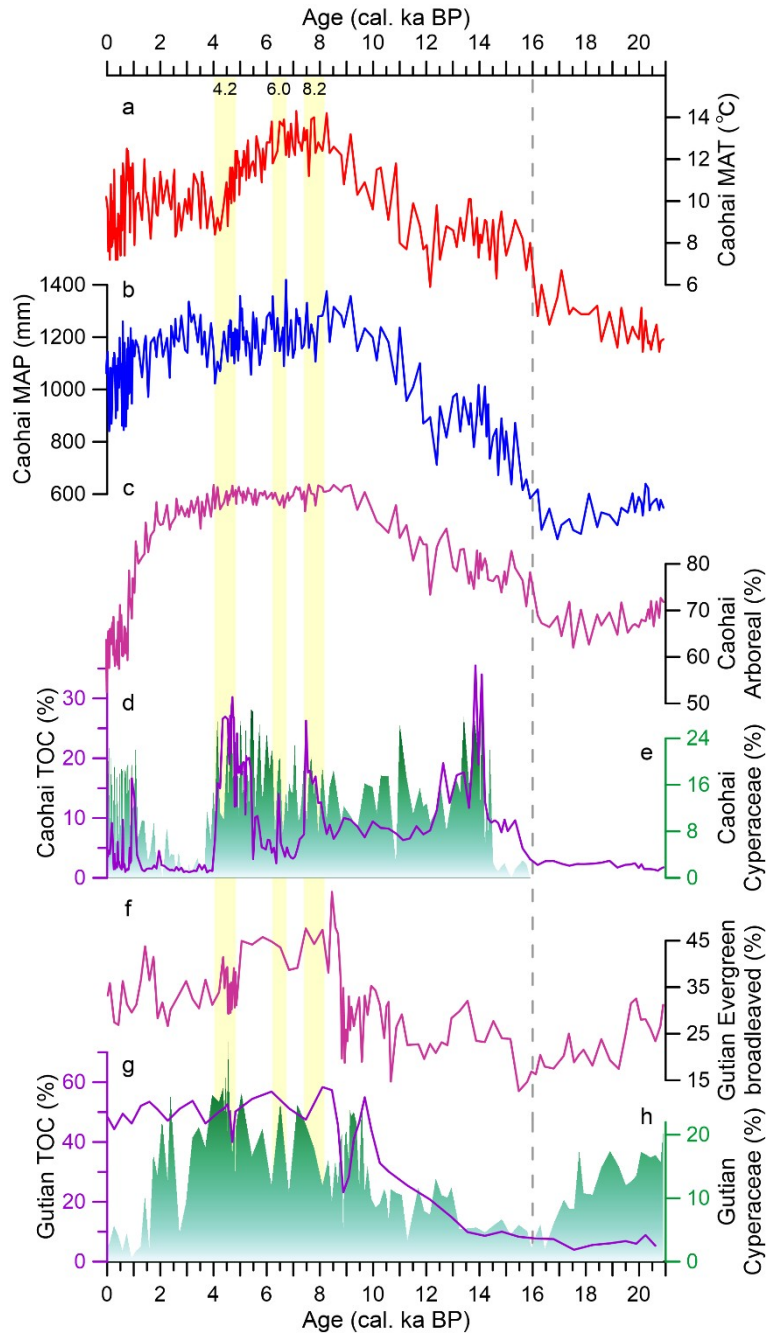


343

344 **Fig. 5. Correlation between TOC and Cyperaceae pollen based on the same samples in the**
 345 **cores (a) CHNT03 (2–21 ka) and (b) GT (2–17 ka).**

346 Then the TOC and pollen records were compared to regional climate changes
 347 since the LGM, given the high sensitivity of regional peatland hydrology to
 348 monsoonal climates (Wang et al., 2014; Zhao et al., 2014). Climate reconstruction
 349 (i.e., mean annual temperature and precipitation) from the Caohainantun peatland
 350 shows an agreement with pollen-based reconstruction from the Tengchongqinghai
 351 Lake (Zhang et al., 2023) and stalagmites $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ record from the CBoB caves close to
 352 the ISM moisture source (Liu et al., 2020). This agreement suggests that the
 353 reconstruction from the Caohainantun peatland (Zhang et al., 2023) could represent
 354 monsoonal climate changes since the LGM in the ISM region. As shown in Fig. 6,
 355 regional climate generally became warmer and wetter since the LGM (Fig. 6).
 356 Specifically, mean annual temperature (MAT) gradually increased since 18 cal. ka
 357 BP (Fig. 6a), slightly earlier than the increases in peatland initiation and carbon

358 accumulation (Fig. 4). However, mean annual precipitation (MAP) slightly decreased
359 from 21 cal. ka BP to ca. 16 cal. ka BP, and significantly increased after the Heinrich
360 Event 1 (Fig. 6b), which was synchronous with the abrupt increase in TOC and
361 Cyperaceae values at 16 cal. ka BP in the same core (CHNT03) (Fig. 6d).
362 Meanwhile, carbon accumulation in Gutian peatland also significantly increased (Fig.
363 6g). These relationships indicate that the initiation and carbon accumulation of
364 peatland during the last deglacial in subtropical China were dominantly controlled by
365 local hydrology linked to regional climate (especially monsoonal precipitation)
366 changes, as suggested by previous studies (Zhao et al., 2014; He et al., 2015; Le et
367 al., 2021).



368

369 **Fig. 6. Comparison between climate reconstruction, pollen data and total organic contents**
 370 **based on the same cores retrieved from the Caohainantun and Gutian peatlands.**

371 Peatlands generally develop under the waterlogged conditions, and stably
 372 saturated water is necessary for the formation and maintenance of peatlands
 373 ([Charman et al., 2009](#)). Modern monitoring in the Dajiuhu peatland demonstrates

374 that approximately 30 cm of water table depth below the peatland surface is a critical
375 level affecting the structure and function of peatland ecosystem and carbon
376 sequestration (Liu et al., 2022). During the LGM, the precipitation and temperature
377 were lower up to 50% and 7 °C in relative to the Holocene optimum (Zhang et al.,
378 2023). Relatively cooler and/or drier conditions were not suitable for maintaining
379 necessary water table, limiting carbon accumulation and thus peatland formation.
380 Nevertheless, the improvement of monsoonal climate after the LGM facilitated the
381 extensive initiations of peatland in subtropical region, as evidenced by the maximum
382 frequency of basal peat ages since the LGM (Zhao et al., 2014). Meanwhile,
383 favorable climate conditions also elevated vegetation coverage and net primary
384 productivity in peatland and surrounding catchment. For example, the percentage of
385 arboreal pollen in core CHNT03 significantly increased from 65% at 17 cal. ka BP to
386 80% at 15 cal. ka BP (Fig. 6c) (Zhang et al., 2023). Raising taxonomic richness and
387 pollen concentration at the same time were also observed in the Shuizhuyang
388 peatland (Yue et al., 2012). In the other hand, intensified monsoonal rainfall also
389 enhanced the surface runoff and thus the input of allochthonous organic matter to
390 peatland. In summary, favorable climate conditions (especially enhanced
391 precipitation) after the LGM increased the net primary productivity in peatland and
392 surrounding catchment and the input of allochthonous of organic matter, which both
393 contributed to the formation and enhanced carbon accumulation in subtropical
394 peatlands since approximately 16 cal. ka BP.

395 **4.3. Significant modulations of local topography on carbon accumulation**

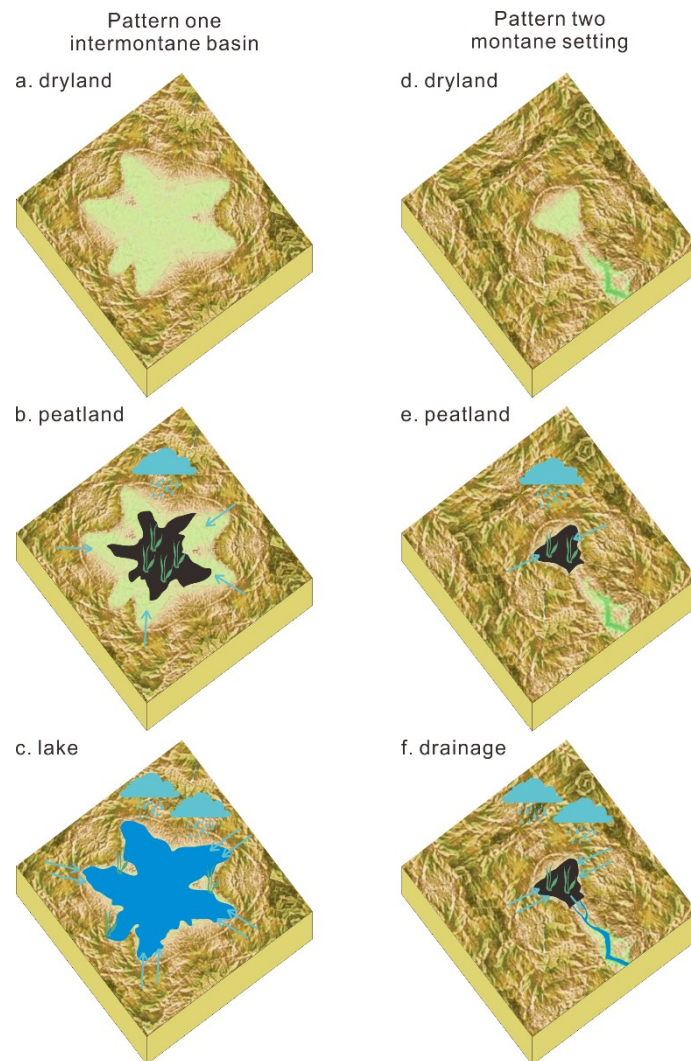
396 Carbon accumulation and development of subalpine peatlands in subtropical
397 China since ca. 16 cal. ka BP displayed two distinct patterns (Fig. 4b-k) under the
398 same monsoonal climate conditions. Furthermore, TOC and Cyperaceae pollen in
399 the Caohainantun peatland were negatively correlated with MAP variability during
400 the Holocene, differing from the positive correlation during the last deglaciation. For
401 example, intensified monsoonal precipitation was synchronous with the increases in
402 TOC and Cyperaceae pollen during the Bølling-Allerød warm period (Fig. 6b and
403 6d). However, when ISM weaken and precipitation reduced during the 8.2 ka, 6.0 ka
404 and 4.2 ka events (Wang et al., 2005; Lin et al., 2022; Chen et al., 2023), TOC and
405 Cyperaceae pollen increased in the Caohainantun peatland (Fig. 6b and 6d). In the
406 Gutian peatland, TOC and Cyperaceae pollen kept relatively stable during the mid-
407 late Holocene, and did not follow the long-term decreasing trend of temperature and
408 monsoonal precipitation since the mid-Holocene (Fig. 6b and 6g).

409 We attribute these to the modulation of local topography on the hydrology and
410 thus carbon accumulation of peatlands in subtropical China. Generally, peatlands
411 can form along two pathways: drying from an aquatic environment or wetting from a
412 dryland (Charman, 2002). The peatlands of pattern one (e.g., the Caohainantun)
413 developed in the closed intermontane basins with relatively large catchments (Fig.
414 7a). Therefore, when Asian summer monsoon intensified at ca. 16 cal. ka BP (Fig.
415 6b) (Zhang et al., 2023), surface runoff from the surrounding catchment fed by
416 monsoonal precipitation flowed into the intermontane basin. Slight increases in
417 monsoonal precipitation were enough to raise the water table of the basin due to

418 relatively large catchment, and thus strongly promoted peatland development and
419 carbon accumulation (i.e., dryland-peatland transition) (Fig. 7b) as indicated by the
420 sharp increase in TOC values (Fig. 6d). The initiation of wetland environment was
421 also evidenced by the dramatic expansion of Cyperaceae vegetation (Fig. 6e).
422 Subsequently, with the gradual intensification of monsoonal precipitation, water-level
423 in peatland continuously increased because of lacking significant outflow river.
424 Consequently, peatland was submerged and converted to a lake (i.e., peatland-lake
425 transition) during the early Holocene (Fig. 7c). As a result, the sediment types
426 changed from peat deposits with abundant plant debris to gray limnic clay sediments
427 (Fig. 2a) with relatively low TOC values (generally 5-10%) (Fig. 6d) in the coring site.
428 Meanwhile, the percentage of Cyperaceae pollen also declined (Fig. 6e), because
429 high water-level was unsuitable to their growth.

430 Monsoonal precipitation recorded in core CHNT03 maintained relatively high
431 during the Holocene, but showed a generally decreasing trend since the mid-
432 Holocene (Fig. 6b). In addition, monsoonal precipitation experienced sharp
433 decreases during the 8.2 ka, 6.0 ka and 4.2 ka cold events (Wang et al., 2005; Lin et
434 al., 2022; Chen et al., 2023), synchronous with significant increases in TOC and
435 Cyperaceae values in the same core (Fig. 6d and 6e). The basin is mainly fed by
436 direct precipitation without major inflow. Therefore, the declines of precipitation
437 resulted in the lowering of lake level and thus changed the lacustrine environment
438 back into short-term peatland (i.e., lake-peatland transition) during the centennial-
439 scale cold events. The limnic sediment might provide the suitable nutrients for the re-

440 colonization of peatland plants (Zhang et al., 2019). TOC values in core CHNT03
 441 increased to large than 20% during the 8.2 ka and 4.2 ka cold events, similar to the
 442 values during the Bølling-Allerød warm period (Fig. 6d).



443

444 **Fig. 7. Schematic of two development patterns for subalpine peatlands in subtropical**
 445 **China. (a-c)** Pattern one: intermontane basin without obvious outflow. Peatland was submerged
 446 and converted to a lake when precipitation was high. **(d-f)**. Pattern two: montane setting. Excess
 447 water supply was not held by peatland but released as outflow to downslope parts in mountains.

448 Differently, peatlands of pattern two (e.g., the Gutian) are in montane settings with
 449 relatively small catchment (Fig. 7d). Since ca 16 cal. ka BP, water supply from

450 precipitation and surface runoff only increased slightly due to relatively small
451 catchment, which could restrict the peatland development and carbon accumulation.
452 Nevertheless, continuously enhanced water supply in association with gradual
453 intensified monsoon precipitation elevated the water table in peatland, benefiting the
454 carbon accumulation and thus peatland development in the early Holocene (i.e.,
455 dryland-peatland transition) (Fig. 7e). Their TOC records generally maintained
456 relatively stable and high values during the Holocene soon afterwards (Fig. 4g-k).
457 This was also attributed to the modulation of local topography. Peatlands of pattern
458 two are semi-closed with outflow. Therefore, there is a critical threshold that these
459 montane peatlands could kept water balance rather than turned into lake, despite
460 monsoonal precipitation continuously increased. Instead, excess water supply from
461 direct precipitation and runoff was not held by peatland but released as outflow to
462 downslope parts in mountains (Fig. 7f). The relatively stable water depth might make
463 the hydrology of peatlands less sensitive to monsoonal precipitation changes (Klein
464 et al., 2013).

465 Interestingly, local topography could have contrary influences on carbon
466 accumulation in peatlands of two patterns under the same monsoonal climate. For
467 example, abrupt declines of monsoonal precipitation during the 8.2 ka and 4.2 ka
468 events (Fig. 6b) resulted in increasing carbon contents in the Caohainantun peatland
469 (pattern one) (Fig. 6d), but decreasing carbon contents in the Gutian peatland
470 (pattern two) (Fig. 6g). These contrary influences of topography suggest that more
471 attentions should be paid when the proxy of organic matter (e.g., TOC and LOI) is

472 used as the indicator of monsoon intensity/precipitation. It worth noting that although
473 these two patterns are common in the study region, variations in TOC records within
474 the same pattern were not tightly synchronous (Fig. 4b-k). Here, we suggest that the
475 age discrepancies of the peatland development were also attributed to the local site-
476 specific topography conditions such as basin/peatland sizes and depth, and/or partly
477 age uncertainty. Similarly, variations in TOC records retrieved from different sites
478 within a same basin may be also asynchronous (van Bellen, et al., 2011; Zhang et
479 al., 2016). Two patterns observed in this study are representing general carbon
480 accumulation dynamic and peatland development since the LGM in subtropical
481 China, rather than the detailed process in a specific basin.

482 **5. Conclusion**

483 Ten TOC records are compiled to identify the general carbon accumulation and
484 development of subalpine peatlands since the LGM in subtropical China. These
485 records clearly display two distinct dynamic patterns. Local hydrology linked to
486 regional monsoon climate (especially precipitation) was the dominant factor
487 controlling regional peatland development since the LGM. However, this process
488 was modulated significantly by local topography, i.e., intermontane basin (pattern
489 one) or montane settings (pattern two). Local topography could have contrary
490 influences on carbon accumulation in peatlands of two patterns under the same
491 monsoon subsystem. Therefore, the hydrology and carbon accumulation of
492 peatlands are a function of regional climate changes and local topography. The
493 dynamics of peatland development in subtropical monsoonal region differed from

494 those in the Qinghai-Tibet Plateau and Northeast China, which could increase the
495 complexity of the peatland management and the projection of carbon cycles and
496 greenhouse gas emissions under global warming in China.

497

498 **Declaration of Competing Interest**

499 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or
500 personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in
501 this paper.

502 **Data availability**

503 Data will be made available on request.

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514

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