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1 **Response of plant communities to climate change during the late Holocene:**
2 **palaeoecological insights from peatlands in the Alaskan Arctic**

3

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26 **Abstract**

27 A high-resolution plant macrofossil record was examined alongside pollen, micro- and macro-
28 charcoal, and testate amoeba data to elucidate the dynamics of two permafrost peatlands in the
29 northern foothills of the Brooks Range, Alaskan Arctic. The vegetation dynamics of these two
30 peatlands were driven by autogenic processes reflecting the development trajectory of the
31 peatlands towards ombrotrophic status, and allogenic climate change. We observe an increase
32 in shrub pollen and macrofossils (e.g. Ericaceae, *Betula nana*) during two Late Holocene
33 warm episodes and in recent decades. Pollen data suggest that regional forest cover also
34 responded to temperate increase since ca. AD 1950. An increase of *Picea* pollen (up to 13%)
35 in the upper part of peat profile is probably associated with long distance pollen transport
36 from populations of *Picea mariana* and *Picea glauca* located at the southern foothills of the
37 Brooks Range. Relatively small amount of micro- and macrocharcoal in the two profiles
38 indicates little fire activity around the sampling sites over the last ca. 2000 years, which is in
39 agreement with regional findings. The lack of surface and groundwater influence under
40 prolonged warmer/drier condition can allow *Sphagnum* to expand in Arctic peatlands. Cold
41 climatic conditions might have been detrimental to *Sphagnum* populations, that were replaced
42 by *Carex* spp. and other vascular plants owing to wetter conditions in the peatland.

43

44 **Key words:** global warming; climate change; permafrost; *Sphagnum*; shrub expansion, fire

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50 **1. Introduction**

51 High-latitude ecosystems have experienced more pronounced climate warming than other
52 parts of the globe in recent decades, and are projected to continue to warm rapidly in the
53 future (IPCC, 2013). This rapid warming will lead to plant range shifts, changes in species
54 composition, and variation in peat accumulation rate and carbon sequestration (Elmendorf et
55 al., 2012; Yu, 2012; Kuhry et al., 2013). Shrub-dominated communities (e.g. *Betula*, *Salix* and
56 *Alnus*) are increasing in cover and height (Myers-Smith et al., 2011; Ropars and Boudreau,
57 2012), and fires are becoming more frequent in high-latitude ecosystems (Rocha et al., 2012;
58 Young et al., 2016). The expansion of shrubs restricts the growth of other plant species by
59 limiting light availability and exacerbating the frequency and intensity of fire regime. To date,
60 most data on the response of plant communities to recent warming come from observational
61 and experimental studies (e.g. Callaghan et al., 2004; Hollister et al., 2005; Post et al., 2009;
62 Elmendorf et al., 2012; Oberbauer et al., 2013; Edwards and Henry, 2016), with
63 comparatively few studies examining changes on centennial to millennial temporal scales
64 (e.g. Oswald et al., 2003; Gajewski, 2015; Teltewskoi et al., 2016; Treat et al., 2016). In
65 addition, there are major limitations in our understanding of the tolerance of tundra species to
66 fire (Racine et al., 2004; Higuera et al., 2011; Bret-Harte et al., 2013). Therefore, detailed
67 long-term palaeoecological studies of permafrost peatlands are needed to improve
68 understanding of relationships between climate, vegetation, fire, and hydrology, with
69 implications for elucidating the response of high-latitude vegetation to climate warming
70 (Bigelow et al., 2003; Gao and Couwenberg, 2015; Swindles et al., 2015a; Fritz et al., 2016).

71 Peatlands in the Arctic are important archives of palaeoenvironmental data owing to
72 their sensitivity to climatic and hydrological change (Turetsky et al., 2002; Lamarre et al.,
73 2012). Rising temperatures have driven partial or complete thawing of permafrost peatlands in
74 many arctic regions (Biskaborn et al., 2015). Northern Alaska has experienced rapid climate

75 warming during the twentieth century, degradation of permafrost peatlands and deepening of
76 the active layer (Raynolds et al., 2014). Furthermore, climate models project continued
77 marked temperature increases in the near future in this region (IPCC, 2013). Previous
78 palaeoecological studies conducted in the Arctic including Alaska (Oswald et al., 2003, 2014)
79 and Siberia (Minke et al., 2007; Zibulski et al., 2013; Teltewskoi et al., 2016) indicate that the
80 nature of the soil substrate and microrelief play important role on how tundra environments
81 respond to climate change.

82 In this study we present the first multiproxy late Holocene (the last 2000 years)
83 palaeoecological dataset (plant macrofossils, pollen, testate amoebae, charcoal) from peat
84 profiles in the Toolik region, Alaskan Arctic (northern foothills of the Brooks Range). We use
85 these data to examine the long-term dynamics of plant communities in arctic peatlands and
86 potential drivers of change. We evaluate the influence of changes in climate and
87 anthropogenic disturbances versus autogenous succession in the development of arctic plant
88 communities. We focus on the late Holocene because this period contains several phases of
89 marked climate change (PAGES 2k Consortium, 2013). During the time covered in this study,
90 warm periods such as the Roman Period and Medieval Climate Anomaly were separated by
91 cold intervals (Migration Period and the Little Ice Age). We hypothesize that during past
92 warm climatic episodes moss and vascular plant-dominated vegetation communities were
93 replaced by shrub-dominated communities. In addition, we hypothesize that a similar shift is
94 observed in recent decades related to rapid climate warming.

95

96 **2. Study sites**

97 Our study area is located in northern Alaska, close to the northern foothills of the Brooks
98 Range, near the Toolik Field Station run by the University of Alaska Fairbanks (Fig. 1). The
99 Toolik Lake area (68° 37' N, 149° 32' W) was deglaciated about 10,000 cal yr BP (Hamilton,

100 1986). The Toolik landscape is dotted with small glacial lakes, kames, and moraines.
101 Elevations range from about 670 to 850 m asl. The climate of the region is continental arctic
102 with mean monthly temperatures ranging from -22.5 °C (January) to 11.2 °C (July), and
103 annual precipitation of ca. 250 mm over the period 1989-2007 (Toolik Field Station, EDC,
104 https://toolik.alaska.edu/edc/about/conditions_of_use.php). The vegetation in wetter habitats
105 at our sampling sites is dominated by *Sphagnum* spp., *Tomentypnum nitens*, *Paludella*
106 *squarrosa*, *Carex* spp., *Andromeda polifolia*, *Salix reticulata* and *Betula nana*. Drier habitats
107 are characterised by *Betula nana*, *Dryas octopetala*, *Salix* spp., *Empetrum nigrum*, *Polygonum*
108 *bistorta*, *Rubus chamaemorus*, *Aulacomium turgidum*, and *Hylocomnium splendens*. For
109 further information on the contemporary plant communities at Toolik refer to Walker et al.
110 (1994).

111

112 **3. Material and methods**

113 3.1. Peat sampling and chronology of the profiles

114 Two short peat monoliths (8x8 cm), TFSI (45 cm long) and TFSII (50 cm), were sampled
115 from sampling locations 290 m apart. The monoliths were taken from the thickest peat layer
116 in a small hummock microform in each location. Our excavation shows that peat formed
117 directly over bedrock in both locations. The peat profiles were wrapped in plastic film and
118 sent by courier to the laboratory in Poznań. In the laboratory the monoliths were unpacked,
119 cleaned and sliced into 1-cm slices using a scalpel.

120 Four AMS (Accelerator Mass Spectrometry) radiocarbon dates on hand-picked plant
121 macrofossils and one bulk AMS data were used to provide chronology for TFSI. Five AMS
122 dates on macrofossils were carried out for TFSII (Appendix 1). Radiocarbon dating was
123 undertaken at the Poznań Radiocarbon Laboratory. The calibration of the radiocarbon dates
124 and the construction of the age depth models were performed with OxCal 4.1 software

125 (Bronk-Ramsey, 2009) and the IntCal13 curve (Reimer et al., 2013) applying a P_Sequence
126 function with a k parameter of 1 cm⁻¹ and 1-cm resolution. Distinct changes in the peat
127 composition, which might indicate a change in accumulation rate, were introduced using the
128 “boundary” command (Fig. 2). The modelled ages are expressed as calendar years BC (Before
129 Christ)/AD (Anno Domini).

130 Palaeoecological data presented in this paper are compared to [palaeoclimate](#)
131 [compilations from](#) Arctic and North America (PAGES 2k Consortium 2013).

132

133 3.2. Plant macrofossil analysis

134 The analysis of plant macrofossil remains reveals a record of local plant communities and
135 hydrological conditions (Barber et al., 2004; Mauquoy et al., 2008). Plant macrofossils were
136 analysed contiguously at 1-cm intervals, resulting in 95 samples for both profiles. Samples of
137 20 cm³ were washed and sieved under a warm-water spray using a 0.20-mm mesh sieve.
138 Initially, the entire sample was examined with a stereomicroscope to obtain volume
139 percentages of individual subfossils of vascular plants and mosses. The subfossil carpological
140 remains and vegetative fragments (leaves, rootlets, epidermis) were identified using
141 identification keys (Smith, 2004; Mauquoy and van Geel, 2007). Refer to Gałka et al. (2017a)
142 for a detailed methodology for plant macrofossil analysis in peatlands.

143

144 3.3. Pollen and non-pollen palynomorph analysis

145 Pollen analysis provides information on vegetation composition and abundance at a regional
146 scale (Berglund et al., 1996). Samples of 1 cm³ at mainly 2-cm intervals were prepared using
147 the standard procedure of Erdtman’s acetolysis (Berglund and Ralska-Jasiewiczowa, 1986).
148 Analysis was carried out with an Olympus BX43 light microscope with a magnification of
149 600×; a larger magnification was used to identify problematic microremains. Owing to low

150 pollen concentration, 390 (min=150; max=780) in TFSI and 270 (min=140; max=540) in
151 TFSII terrestrial pollen grains were counted on average per sample. For taxonomical
152 identification, pollen keys (Beug, 2004; Demske et al., 2013) and reference collection at
153 University of Białystok were used. Reliable discrimination between pollen of *Betula* species
154 was problematic and it was therefore presented as one group without further separation.
155 However, *Betula nana* is the most common birch species in our study region, and this may
156 indicate that most of fossil birch pollen belongs to *B. nana*. Non-pollen palynomorphs (NPPs)
157 were counted alongside the pollen. NPPs were identified according to van Geel (1978) and
158 Shumilovskikh et al. (2015). The arboreal pollen (AP) + non-arboreal pollen (NAP) sum was
159 used for percentage calculations. The pollen diagram was stratigraphically ordered and zoned
160 into local pollen assemblage zones (LPAZ) using constrained cluster analysis (CONISS,
161 Grimm, 1987). Nomenclature follows Walker et al. (1994) for vascular plants, Flora of North
162 America Editorial Committee (2007) for bryophytes.

163

164 3.4. Micro- and macro-charcoal analysis

165 We counted micro-charcoal (particles smaller than 150 μm) in our pollen slides and interpret
166 these as an indicator of biomass burning at regional spatial scales. Micro-charcoal particles
167 were counted along with the pollen and were grouped into three size classes: 10-30, 30-100
168 and 100-150 μm (e.g. Rull, 2009). Micro-charcoal particles were quantified as a percentage of
169 the total terrestrial pollen sum (AP+NAP). Macro-charcoal particles (larger than 160 μm) were
170 used to investigate fire activity at a local scale (Whitlock and Larsen, 2001). Macro-charcoal
171 analysis on a 2 cm volume of peat was undertaken at 1-cm contiguous intervals at TFSII and
172 at 2 cm interval at TFSI. The methodology is outlined in Feurdean et al. (2017), and includes
173 bleaching, wet-sieving through a 160 μm mesh, and identification and counting the total

174 number of particles (opaque, angular characteristics) using a stereomicroscope. Macro-
175 charcoal values are expressed as concentration (particles/cm³).

176

177 3.5. Testate amoebae

178 We used subfossil testate amoebae (Protists) to examine hydrological changes through time
179 (cf. Booth, 2008; Swindles et al., 2015a,b). Testate amoebae were extracted from TFSII using
180 a modified version of Booth et al. (2010). Peat samples (2 cm³) taken in 4-cm resolution were
181 placed in boiling water for 15 minutes and shaken. Extracts were passed through a 300 µm
182 sieve, back-sieved at 15 µm and allowed to settle before sub-samples were used to make
183 slides for microscopy. A total of between 100 and 200 amoebae were counted and identified
184 to species level or ‘type’ in each sample using high-power transmitted light microscopy at 200
185 to 400x magnification. For further detailed information on taxonomy and sources used see
186 Swindles et al. (2015b). No transfer function is available for the Toolik region and other
187 models are inappropriate for continuous permafrost peatlands. Therefore, we used the simpler
188 approach of calculating total percentage of wet indicators.

189

190 **4. Results**

191 4.1. Chronology and lithology

192 Radiocarbon data for both profiles are presented in Appendix 1 and the age-depth model is
193 shown in Fig. 2. In TFSI the peat has accumulated since ca. AD 650 (the last 700 years) and
194 in TFSII since ca. 150 BC (i.e the past 2150 years). The lowermost units of both profiles (45-
195 21 cm (ca. AD 650-1960) in TFSI and 55-15 cm (ca. 150 BC-AD 195) in TFSII contain
196 herbaceous peat composed mainly of remains of Cyperaceae and Sphagnum species. Peat
197 composed mainly of Sphagnum remains was recorded in the upper part of both profiles.

198

199 4.2. Plant macrofossil analysis

200 Three phases of local vegetation development in TFSI (Fig. 3A) and four phases in TFSII
201 were visually delimited(Fig. 3B). The first phase TFSI-ma-1 (AD 650-870) is characterized
202 by the dominance of *Carex* sp. macrofossils and the presence of shrub macrofossils:
203 *Andromeda polifolia*, *Betula nana*, *Empetrum nigrum*, and *Salix* sp. Numerous unknown
204 fungal remains were also recorded. During phase TFSI-ma-2 (AD 870-1960) *Carex* spp.
205 remained dominant and *Sphagnum* cf. *warnstorffii* and *Selaginella selaginoides* were also
206 noted. In phase TFSI-ma-3 (1960-2015) *Sphagnum capillifolium* and *Sphagnum fuscum*
207 become dominant species. A continuous present of dwarf shrubs such as *A. polifolia* and *B.*
208 *nana* were also observed.

209 In TFSII, *A. polifolia* and *E. nigrum* were recorded during the first phase (TFSII-ma-1;
210 150 BC-AD 250). Phase TFSII-ma-2 (AD 250-1200) is characterised by numerous *Carex* sp.
211 fruits and the appearance of *S. capillifolium*. Macrofossils of shrubs including *B. nana* and
212 *Salix* sp. were also present. In phase TFSII-ma-3 (AD 1200-1950), a decrease of *Carex* sp.
213 fruits is observed, whereas *Equisetum* sp. and *S. cf. warnstorffii* appear for the first time. In
214 phase TFSII-ma-4 (1950-2015), *S. capillifolium* and *Pleurozium schreberii* were dominant.
215 Numerous macrofossils of *B. nana* and *A. polifolia* were also observed.

216

217 4.3. Pollen, spore and NPP analysis

218 Our sites are located in an open landscape and it is likely that pollen grains are able to
219 disperse over great distances (Sugita, 1994). The pollen source area is probably in the range of
220 10 to 100 km², reaching the boreal forest south of the Brooks Range. The pollen sum in the
221 upper part of the profiles is based on rather low pollen counts (200 grains), reflecting low
222 pollen concentrations in the samples, which could affect the reliability of our interpretations
223 (especially for minor taxa).

224 Four pollen zones, representing regional and local vegetation development were
225 numerical delineated at TFSI (Fig. 4). The basal zone TFSI-po-1 (AD 650-1550) is
226 characterised by moderate high pollen percentages of Cyperaceae, Poaceae, Asteraceae and
227 Brassicaceae, while other herbaceous taxa are present sporadically (Fig. 4). Percentages of
228 *Betula* pollen increase to 32% in the upper part of this zone. Zone TFSI-po-2 (ca. AD1550-
229 1700) is characterised by an increase in Cyperaceae (up to 75.5%) and *Alnus* (up to 13.5%),
230 and a more frequent occurrence of Ericaceae, *Rubus chamaemorus*, and *Artemisia* pollen. In
231 zone TFSI-po-3 (ca. AD 1700-1950) there is a prominent increase of Cyperaceae pollen up to
232 79%, while *Betula* and *Alnus* pollen percentages decline. Spores of *Huperzia*, Bryales and
233 *Sphagnum* are abundant. Zone TFSI-4 (ca. AD 1950-2015) was divided into three subzones.
234 Subzone TFSI-4a (ca. 1950-1980) is characterised by a marked increase in tree and shrub
235 pollen percentages – *Betula* (up to 30%), *Picea* (up to 16%), *Alnus* (up to 19%). *Artemisia* (up
236 to 3.5%) and Cyperaceae pollen percentages (to 29%) decline. NPPs including the remains of
237 *Amphitrema*, *Assulina*, *Arcella* and spores of Xylariaceae and Erysiphales fungi show an
238 abrupt increase. In subzone TFSI-po-4b (ca. 1980-2000) there is a peak of Cyperaceae pollen
239 percentages to 47%. The proportion of *Alnus* increases but *Picea* and *Betula* decreases.
240 *Sphagnum* spore percentages rise markedly to 78.5%. In subzone TFSI-po-4c (ca. 2000-2015)
241 the proportion of trees and shrubs including *Betula*, *Picea* and Ericaceae abruptly increases,
242 while Cyperaceae and *Alnus* decrease.

243 Four pollen zones were numerically delineated at in TFSII (Fig. 4). The first zone
244 TFSII-po-1 (ca. 150 BC-AD 600) is characterised by the dominance of Cyperaceae pollen (up
245 to 66%). Poaceae and Asteraceae pollen percentages are consistently below 2%. *Betula* and
246 *Alnus* pollen percentages range from 6 to 15.5%, and from 10 to 14.5%, respectively. The
247 abundance of *Picea* pollen reaches 11% in the lower part of this zone, then declines to 4%.
248 Zone TFSII-po-2 (ca. AD 600-1050) is characterised by higher *Betula* (up to 26%), *Salix* (up

249 to 6%), *Picea* (up to 6.5%) and *Alnus* (up to 15%) pollen percentage values. The proportion of
250 Ericaceae, Poaceae, Saxifragaceae and *Artemisia* pollen also increases substantially. In zone
251 TFSII-po-3 (AD 1050-1800) Cyperaceae pollen percentages reach 80% with a simultaneous
252 decline of *Betula* and *Salix*. The occurrence of *Sphagnum* and *Equisetum* spores increases in
253 this zone. Zone TFSII-po-4 (ca. 1800-2015) was divided into three subzones. Subzone TFSII-
254 po-4a (ca. AD 1800-1970) is characterised by rise of *Betula* (up to 18%), *Picea* (up to 12.5%)
255 and *Alnus* (up to 31.5%) pollen percentages, together with a decrease in Cyperaceae (to 36%).
256 Palynomorphs including the remains of *Amphitrema*, *Assulina*, *Arcella* and spores of
257 Xylariaceae showed an abrupt increase. In subzone TFSII-po-4b (ca. 1970-2005) there is the
258 greatest peak of Cyperaceae pollen (to 84%) and a decrease of tree pollen (*Betula*, *Picea* and
259 *Alnus*). In subzone TFSII-po-4c (ca. AD 2005-2015) the proportion of *Betula*, *Picea*, *Alnus*
260 and Ericaceae pollen abruptly increases, while Cyperaceae pollen percentage decreases.

261

262 4.4. Testate amoebae

263 Samples were barren of testate amoebae from 48 to 50 cm (150 BC-AD 1). Four zones
264 in the testate amoebae profile were identified in TFSII (Fig. 5). The first zone, TFSII-ta-1
265 (AD 1-1050), is characterised by a small number of specimens (insignificant counts <50
266 specimens) of *Centropyxis aerophila* (up to 100%) from a poorly-preserved assemblage. In
267 the second zone, TFSII-ta-2 (ca. AD 1050-1970), there is a decrease in the abundance
268 of *Centropyxis aerophila*, and appearance of twenty new taxa of testate amoebae
269 including *Centropyxis platystoma*, *Phryganella acropodia*, and *Trigonopyxis arcula*. In the
270 upper part of this zone there is a peak of *Hyalosphenia elegans* (up to 58%). In TFSII-ta-3
271 phase (ca. AD 1970-2015) *Assulina muscorum*, *Corythion dubium* and *Nebela tinctoria* are
272 dominant suggesting a return to relatively dry conditions. Richness and Shannon diversity

273 index values decrease with depth, highlighting the poorer preservation of tests in the lower
274 part of this profile.

275

276 4.5. Micro- and macro-charcol

277 The patterns in micro-charcoal percentages and macro-charcoal concentration show good
278 agreement at both sampling locations (Figs. 6, 7). Generally macro-charcoal counts are low
279 (ranging from 0-5 pieces per sample). However, periods of increased micro- and macro-
280 charcoal values are recorded between AD 650 and 2000 at both sites. Intervals of elevated
281 macro-charcoal concentrations are also noted between AD 150 and 500 at TSF II.

282

283 **5. Discussion**

284 5.1. Peatland initiation processes

285 Basal peat dates indicate that the timing for initial peat formation at the two sites differed by
286 ca. 400 years; ; it started at 150 BC in TFSII and ca. AD 650 in TFSI. This difference can
287 potentially be related to local topographical and hydrological variation (Weckström et al.,
288 2010; Loisel et al., 2013). MacDonald et al. (2006) and Beilman et al. (2010) recorded various
289 age of peatland initiation in the circumarctic zone. According to data presented by Reyes and
290 Cooke (2011) the timing of most rapid peat initiation in northern peatlands in Alaska took
291 place between 8 and 10 ka BP. However, a basal peat age of >10,000 years old from a site
292 close to our study sites may indicate that peat accumulation started much earlier in some
293 places in this region (Eisner, 1991; Jones and Yu, 2010). Hence, peat initiation in the Toolik
294 region may have begun earlier than we document here.

295 In the bottom part of both peat profiles the main peat-forming plants included Cyperaceae
296 (Fig. 2, phase A; Fig. 3, phase A). The presence of Carex fruits and rootlets, as well brown
297 mosses in both sites may indicate that during this initial phase the peatlands were fens that
298 developed through paludification. In the bottommost part of profile TFSI (between ca. AD

299 650-800) *Sphagnum* cf. *contortum* and *S. cf. Sphagnum warnstorffii* remains were also present.
300 These species occur in minerotrophic habitats and are common in medium to rich fens
301 indicates slightly wetter conditions at this time (McQueen and Andrus, 2007). This wetland
302 type is widespread in the permafrost region of the Northern Hemisphere (Vardy et al., 1998;
303 Kuhry, 2008; Teltewskoi et al., 2016; Treat et al., 2016).

304

305 5.2. Response of vegetation to warming climate

306 Palaeoecological studies, recent field monitoring, experimental studies and modeling
307 approaches show that climate warming can drive changes from more open tundra
308 communities towards increased cover of vascular plants and shrubs including *Betula*, *Salix*,
309 *Alnus* spp. (Oechel et al., 1997; Sturm et al., 2001; Myers-Smith et al., 2011; Ropars and
310 Boudreau, 2012; Gałka et al., 2017b). Moreover, Gajewski (2015) indicated that Arctic
311 ecosystems seem to be more productive during warm periods in the past. The author stressed
312 that the history of the Arctic vegetation in response to past climate variations is complex, but
313 generally when temperatures (reconstructed by pollen) are higher plant biomass and/or cover
314 is greater. Our long-term records close to the Toolik station show periodic expansions of
315 shrubs in the Toolik region, especially within the peatlands themselves, that could potentially
316 be linked to warm climatic stages in the late Holocene. We identified three periods of shrub
317 expansion ca. 150 BC-AD 400, AD 650-1250, and after AD 1850 (Fig. 6, zone A and C; Fig.
318 7, zones A, C, and E). These periods correspond to warm climatic intervals reconstructed
319 from proxy compilations for Arctic and North America (PAGES 2k Consortium 2013;
320 marked on the Fig. 6 and Fig. 7). During the first warm period (ca. 150 BC and AD 400), we
321 found macrofossils of *Andromeda polifolia*, *Empetrum nigrum*, and an increase of Ericaceae
322 pollen. At ca. AD 350 we recorded increased *Salix* pollen. There were low levels of charcoal
323 throughout the record, however, a slight increase in macro-charcoal concentration is also

324 noted at this time and suggests either a small increase in fire local occurrence or background
325 charcoal from boreal forest fires south of the Brooks Range. The absence of microcharcoal
326 particles would support the inference of local fire activity. Low background charcoal
327 accumulation rates are common for arctic Alaska (Chipman et al., 2015).

328 Vegetation response to warmer climate is also suggested by an increase in *Picea* pollen
329 percentage, indicating its range expanded or pollen productivity increased at these times. Low
330 pollen percentages of *Picea* (up to 11%) at ca. AD 50 is likely associated with long distance
331 pollen transport by air mass movement from population of *Picea mariana* and *Picea glauca*
332 located at the southern foothills of the Brooks Range. *Picea* pollen percentages <20% in
333 Canada are typically assumed to represent long distance transport (King, 1993).

334 High relative abundance of fungi remains (sclerotia) in peats formed between ca. 150 BC and
335 AD 200 and the presence of macro-scopic charcoal indicate dry hydrological conditions.

336 The second interval characterized by increased micro- and macro shrub remains (e.g.
337 Ericaceae, *Betula nana*) in both peat profiles, and the maximum amount of *Salix* pollen (6%
338 in one sample) in TFSII is dated at from AD 650 to 1250 (Fig. 7, zone C). The rise in pollen
339 percentages of other herbaceous plants (eg. *Rubus chamemorus*, *Artemisia* and *Saxifraga*)
340 may represent their local expansion and/or increased pollen productivity in response to higher
341 temperature at this time. Increased *Artemisia* pollen could be derived from *Artemisia arctica*
342 ssp. *arctica*, a common species in this region (Walker et al., 1994). There are many species of
343 *Saxifraga* occurring in the study area in the present day (Walker et al., 1994), and therefore it
344 is difficult to relate the pollen of *Saxifraga* to an individual species. On the other hand,
345 Panchen & Gorelick (2015) found no relationship between flowering and fruting time and
346 warming climate for *Saxifraga oppositifolia* in Arctic Canada (Tanquary Fiord). Furthermore,
347 the highest amount of *Carex* sp. fruits are found between AD 700 and 1100 and may suggest
348 the positive role of climate warming on fruiting and increase of ability to generative

349 reproduction of this genus. We also recorded a temporary increase of micro- and macro-
350 charcoal values during this period (Fig. 7). Greater fire activity at this time in the Toolik
351 region agrees with some paleofire records from Upper Capsule Lake, located in the Brooks
352 Range Foothills ecoregion (Chipman et al., 2015). However, past patterns of tundra fires in
353 Alaska appear to be spatially variable with little synchronicity among sites (Chipman et al.
354 2015).

355 An increase of *Alnus*, *Betula* and *Picea* pollen percentages since ca. AD 1850 in TFSII
356 coincides with climate warming after the Little Ice Age (LIA) in the Arctic (Overpeck et al.,
357 1997), and subsequent expansion of *Ericaceae*, *Andromeda polifolia*, and *Betula nana* shrubs
358 between AD 1900 and 1950 is coherent with the marked temperature rise recorded in Alaska
359 (Overpeck et al., 1997). Dry conditions at these times are suggested by increased peat
360 decomposition, numerous fungi remains and the colonization of *Sphagnum* species typical of
361 dry habitats eg. *Sphagnum fuscum* or *Sphagnum capillifolium* (Fig. 7, zone E). Based on the
362 micro- and macro-charcoal data local and regional fire events occurred in the first part of this
363 period. A documented fire close to Anaktuvuk River occurred in 2007, but the absence of
364 micro-, and macro-charcoal in the most upper part of both profiles suggest that our charcoal
365 record may underestimate past fire activity. Similar to our finding, charcoal from the 2007 fire
366 event has been recorded in some sites from this region, whereas other sites show no charcoal
367 related to this event (Chipman et al., 2014).

368 A temporally-short lived increase of water table level ca. AD 1950 is indicated by
369 abundant presence of the testate amoeba *Hyalosphenia elegans*, a species that usually occurs
370 in wet habitats (Swindles et al., 2015b). An increase of water level at this time at sampling
371 site is also supported by the re-appearance of *Equisetum* sp. (macrofossils) and *Cyperaceae*
372 (pollen) that are most interpreted as wet indicators (Kuhry, 2008). Dry hydrological
373 conditions during the most recent decades is clearly illustrated by the presence of mosses

374 *Aulacomnium turgidum* and *Pleurozium schreberi* (Fig. 7, zone E), species which usually
375 occur in dry habitats (Smith 2004), alongside the presence of dry-indicator testate amoebae
376 including *Assulina muscorum*, *Corythion dubium* and *Nebela tinctoria* (Swindles et al., 2015b).

377

378 5.3. Response of vegetation to cold climatic changes

379 Distinctive changes in plant communities are manifested by the reduction of shrubs
380 (*Ericaceae*, *Salix*) and/or a decline in pollen production between AD 1250-1850. (Fig. 6, zone
381 B; Fig. 7, zone D). This vegetation change coincides with colder climatic conditions during the
382 LIA (PAGES 2k Consortium, 2013). Interestingly, Gajewski (2015) indicated that there is
383 even evidence for the disappearance of Arctic plant taxa in response to cool periods of the late
384 Holocene. Although palaeoclimatic reconstructions from northern Alaska indicate unstable
385 temperature conditions with short-term warm spells during the Little Ice Age (Anchukaitis et
386 al., 2013; Boldt et al., 2015), we did not identify any temporary expansion of shrubs related to
387 such short-temporal warm events. Only small peaks of *Salix*, *Ericaceae* and *Rubus*
388 *chamaemorus* pollen percentages were observed between AD 1550 and 1650 (Fig. 6, zone B).
389 An increase in micro- and macro-charcoal between ca. AD 1000 and 1600 suggest that fires
390 were more common at this time and likely associated with accumulation of dry biomass
391 during dry or dry/warm climate conditions. Tinner et al. (2015) stressed that in Alaska high
392 fire activity in boreal region could be interpreted as a response to dry climate, but also noted
393 that fire occurred during the cool climate of the LIA (Tinner et al., 2008). The decrease of
394 *Betula*, *Alnus*, and *Picea* pollen we observe in the upper part of both profiles may be linked to
395 a decrease in pollen productivity as a response to a recent colder period noted in Arctic North
396 America between AD 1960 and 1985 (Hudson and Henry, 2009;
397 <https://earthobservatory.nasa.gov>).

398

399 5.4. Periodic Sphagnum community development. Impact of climate change or
400 autogenic succession?

401 Plant communities dominated by Sphagnum species started developing during warm climatic
402 stages at ca. AD 700, 1200, and 1900 (TFS I - Fig. 6) and ca. 350, 1050 and 1950 (TFSII) and
403 then disappeared during cold phases ca. AD 1250 (TFSI) and at ca. AD 500 and 1700 (TFSII -
404 Fig. 6 and Fig. 7). This may suggest that climatic and environmental conditions during
405 cold/wet climatic stages were not favorable for Sphagnum colonization and sustenance Cold
406 climatic conditions (e.g. low temperatures, long-term snow cover and shorter growing season)
407 might have been detrimental to Sphagnum, as during cold periods, Sphagnum spp. (Sphagnum
408 capillifolium and *S. warnstorffii*) were replaced by *Carex* spp. and other vascular plants owing
409 to wetter conditions in the peatland when it was not completely frozen. The appearance of
410 Sphagnum during warm periods may thus partly result from deepening of peatland water
411 tables. Loisel and Yu (2013b) proposed that recent warming has led to Sphagnum
412 establishment in wet boreal peatlands in Alaska, because the peatlands become drier and
413 nutrient poorer. Indeed, certain Sphagnum species are resistant to deeper water tables e.g.
414 *Sphagnum fuscum*, *S. capillifolium* (Andrus, 1986; Hölzer, 2010).

415 The lack of surface and groundwater influence under prolonged warmer/drier
416 condition can allow Sphagnum to expand in rich fens and cause a shift to a poor fen or bog
417 within decades (Granath et al., 2010; Tahvanainen, 2011). Sphagnum species are common
418 during rich fen-poor fen transitions and play an important role in peat accumulation and its
419 acidification (Overbeck, 1975; Kuhry et al., 1992, 1993). The paleohydrological changes that
420 have triggered periodic development of Sphagnum populations at both sites probably result
421 from the processes described above, and did not from periodic permafrost degradation,
422 because the thin peat layer accumulated directly over bedrock. A periodic appearance of
423 various Sphagnum species triggered by permafrost degradation was observed in subarctic

424 Canada (Zoltai, 1993; Kuhry, 2008). However, the high capacity of *Sphagnum* species to cope
425 with environmental variability and a high level of acclimatization through mechanisms of
426 resistance was also documented (Rydin and Barber, 2001; Gunnarsson et al., 2002; Zona et
427 al., 2011). Furthermore, the lack of macro-charcoal particles in peat layers with *Sphagnum*
428 suggests that fire did not drive the disappearance of *Sphagnum*. Changes in *Sphagnum*
429 populations may partly result from autogenic drivers of peatland development. Plant
430 autogenic succession is also an important factor to be considered when examining peatland
431 development (Swindles et al., 2012; Loisel and Yu, 2013a; Gałka et al., 2017a, b). The lack of
432 other detailed plant macrofossil data from peats in this region do not allow a deeper
433 understanding of local plant succession. However, detailed palaeobotanical studies in
434 different habitat from a polygon mire from Arctic Russia suggested that local plant succession
435 can link to both climatic changes and local microrelief (Zibulski et al., 2013; Teltewskoi et al.,
436 2016).

437 Our work represents the first detailed multiproxy study (using plant macrofossils,
438 pollen and testate amoebae) to understand the response of peatland plant communities in
439 northern Alaska to climate change, and provides some insights into how these ecosystems
440 might respond under future climate warming. However, further work is needed in this region
441 to improve our understanding of the dynamics of these unique arctic ecosystems.

442

443 **6. Conclusions**

444 1. We observed an increase in the abundance of shrub macrofossils and pollen (e.g. Ericaceae,
445 *Betula nana*, and *Salix*) in two peatlands during late Holocene warm climate periods. The
446 increase in shrub abundance is even more pronounced in recent decades along with an
447 increase in *Picea* pollen percentages (up to 13%), likely originating from populations of *Picea*
448 *mariana* and *Picea glauca* growing in the southern foothills of the Brooks Range.

449 2. We suggest that local plant succession in peatlands was a response to changes in climate.
450 However, autogeneous plant succession during peatland development towards ombrotrophic
451 status was also an important driver.

452 3. Relatively small amount of micro- and macro-charcoal in both peat profiles indicate low
453 fire activity over the last ca. 2000 years, which is in agreement with regional fire activity
454 trends in Arctic Alaska.

455 4. The lack of surface and groundwater influence under prolonged warmer/drier condition can
456 allow Sphagnum to expand in Arctic peatlands. Cold climatic conditions might have been
457 detrimental to Sphagnum populations, that were replaced by Carex spp. and other vascular
458 plants owing to wetter conditions on the peatland.

459

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468

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769

770 **Figure caption**

771 Figure 1. Map showing locations of the two study sites in the Toolik region.

772 A) Arctic setting;

773 B) Regional setting; Fire occurred in 2007.

774 C) Geobotanical view of sampling sites (based on Vierling et al., 2013);

775 Figure 2. Age-depth models for the peat profiles: A - TFSI, B - TFSII.

776 Figure 3. Plant macrofossil diagram presenting vegetation development in TFSI and TFSII.

777 Taxa with ‘%’ are estimated volume percentages, the others are counts (note scale differences
778 on the x-axes).

779 Figure 4. Percentage pollen diagram vegetation changes in TFSI and TFSII.

780 Figure 5. Percentage testate amoebae diagram presenting changes in testate amoebae
781 communities and reconstructed hydrological changes in TFSII.

782 Figure 6. Comparison of selected taxa from plant macrofossils and pollen with micro- and
783 macro-charcoal data from TFSI. Climatic data are shown (PAGES 2k Consortium, 2013).

784 Figure 7. Comparison of selected taxa from plant macrofossils and pollen with micro- and
785 macro-charcoal data in TFSII. Climatic data are shown (PAGES 2k Consortium, 2013).

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787

788 **Appendix caption**

789 1. Radiocarbon dates from TFSI and TFSII.

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