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4 **Title: The impact of Pleistocene-Holocene climate shifts on vegetation and**
5 **fire dynamics and its implications for Prearchaic humans in the central**
6 **Great Basin, USA**

7 **Short title:** Central Great Basin vegetation & fire history

8 **Authors:** Sandra Olivia Brugger^{1,2,*}, David Rhode^{2,*}

9 ¹ Division of Hydrologic Sciences, Desert Research Institute, 2215 Raggio Parkway, Reno NV
10 89512

11 ² Division of Earth and Ecosystem Sciences, Desert Research Institute, 2215 Raggio Parkway,
12 Reno NV 89512

13 * both authors contributed equally to this study

14 **Corresponding author:** Sandra Olivia Brugger (Sandra.Brugger@dri.edu)

15 **Abstract**

16 The effects of climate change during the Terminal Pleistocene-Early Holocene transition on eco-
17 systems and early Prearchaic hunter-gatherers in the central Great Basin of North America are
18 currently not well understood. We present a palynological reconstruction of regional vegetation
19 and fire history in Grass Valley, central Nevada, from ~14 to ~7.5k cal a BP showing that *Pinus*-
20 dominated woodlands were replaced by dry-adapted steppe and desert vegetation accompanied by
21 an increase in regional fire activity at the beginning of the Holocene, in response to summer warm-
22 ing and drying climate. Following a severe drought period peaking ~10.2 to 9.3k cal a BP, *Pinus*
23 woodlands partially recovered contemporaneous with the 8.2k cal a BP climate anomaly. Local
24 wetlands provided important resource patches for human foraging societies, and periodic declines
25 of wetlands in response to changing local hydrological conditions may have necessitated adjust-
26 ments in subsistence and settlement practices and technology.

27 **Keywords:** Grass Valley, Microcharcoal, Palynology, *Pinus* woodlands, *Artemisia* steppe

28 **Introduction**

29 North America's Great Basin, like much of the globe (Denton et al., 2010; Clark et al., 2012),
30 underwent dramatic environmental changes during the Terminal Pleistocene-Early Holocene (TP-
31 EH) transition. Warming and drying trends associated with the TP-EH varied spatially across the
32 Great Basin, affecting regional vegetation and fire activity (Thompson et al., 1993; Madsen et al.,
33 2001; Wigand and Rhode, 2002; Meltzer and Holliday, 2010; Rhode, 2016a; 2016b; Hudson et
34 al., 2019). Vast lakes shrank or dried up, valley marshlands expanded and then contracted, desert
35 shrubland replaced former conifer parkland, cold-adapted plant communities retreated northwards
36 or upslope to mountain peaks, and a remarkable array of species went locally extinct (Grayson,
37 2011; Lyle 2012; Hudson et a., 2019). From this period we also find the earliest substantial evi-
38 dence of human populations in western North America (Goebel et al., 2011; Jenkins et al., 2012,
39 2013; Jones et al., 2012; Elston and Zeanah, 2002; Madsen et al., 2015; Davis et al., 2019).

40 Information on TP-EH environmental dynamics is essential for understanding how these early
41 hunter-gatherer societies adapted to different landscapes in the Great Basin (Duke and King, 2014;
42 Elston et al., 2014; Madsen, 2016; Smith et al., 2020). Though TP-EH environmental history is
43 reasonably well understood in some parts of the Great Basin (e.g., the Bonneville Basin; Oviatt
44 and Shroder, 2016), past conditions are poorly constrained in the central Great Basin. Here, we
45 aim at (1) reconstructing vegetation and fire history in the central Great Basin during the TP-EH
46 climate transition with pollen, spores, and microcharcoal, (2) investigating how these ecosystem
47 changes relate to patterns elsewhere in the Great Basin, and (3) discussing local wetlands in Grass
48 Valley as potential habitat resources for Prearchaic groups in the central Great Basin.

49 **Study area**

50 Grass Valley is a small closed basin with an area of 1500 km² located ~30 km northeast of
51 Austin, Nevada in the central Great Basin. It is ~60 km long and ~20 km wide, with a minimum
52 elevation of ~1713 m a.s.l. enclosed by the Toiyabe Range, Simpson Park Mountains, and Cortez
53 Mountains. Much of the valley floor contains the remnant playa of pluvial Lake Gilbert (Hubbs
54 and Miller 1948), which reached a late glacial high-stand of 1750 m a.s.l. (Mifflin and Wheat
55 1979), and subsequently formed a significant recessional shoreline at 1724 m a.s.l. before 14k cal
56 a BP. The regional climate is arid with annual summer temperatures reaching 30 °C and winter
57 temperatures below freezing. The average annual wet precipitation is 330 mm a⁻¹ with significant
58 snowfall in the winter season of up to 1700 mm (U.S. Climate Data, 2020). Currently, Grass Valley
59 is the focus of archaeological research on TP-EH human foraging adaptations in the central Great
60 Basin (Elston et al., 2014; Coddling et al. 2016).

61 The Gund Ranch sediment core (39.904° N, 116.590° W, 1731 m a.s.l.) was taken in a small
62 wetland east of the playa that is fed by the Walti Hot Springs geothermal complex (Fig. 1). Native
63 vegetation in the wetland consists of *Juncus*, *Carex*, *Eleocharis*, *Fimbristylis*, and various forbs.
64 Surrounding shrublands are dominated by *Artemisia tridentata*, *Ericameria nauseosa*, *Chrys-*
65 *othamnus viscidiflorus*, *Atriplex confertifolia*, and *Sarcobatus vermiculatus* on drier alluvial fans
66 and remnant lakebed deposits (Young and Evans, 1980; Young et al., 1986). *Artemisia* steppe
67 typically occurs on upper fans and piedmonts, while salt desert shrub communities dominated by
68 *Atriplex* and *Sarcobatus* are found at lower elevations on low lake terraces and ridges (Young and
69 Evans, 1980:22-23). *Pinus monophylla* woodlands presently occur ~1.25 km away in the Simpson
70 Park Range, mixed with *Juniperus osteosperma* and *Artemisia tridentata*. Small scattered stands

71 of *Pinus flexilis* occur on nearby mountaintops >2500-2750 m a.s.l. (750-1000 m above the coring
72 location; Little 1971; Charlet 1996, 2020).

73 **Methods**

74 We collected a 6.22 m long sediment core using a 5 cm manual square-rod piston coring device
75 (Wright et al., 1983). We analyzed the TP-EH section (338-556 cm sediment depth) of organic-
76 rich sediments deposited above sands and marls associated with the ~1724 m recessional shoreline
77 of pluvial Lake Gilbert at the bottom, and capped by thick tephra (most likely associated to the
78 Mazama eruption) at the top. The depth-age model is based on nine accelerator mass spectrometry
79 (AMS) radiocarbon dates from macrofossils and extracted humates calibrated with the INTCAL13
80 curve (Suppl. table S1; Reimer et al., 2013). One radiocarbon date was rejected as discordantly
81 young (Fig. 2). Additionally, we included the age of the tephra layer, presumably associated with
82 the Mazama eruption at ~7.633 ka (Egan et al., 2015). For the depth-age model we fit a smooth-
83 spline interpolation between the dates with uncertainties derived from Bayesian modelling routine
84 (Blaauw, 2010; Blaauw and Christen, 2011). We analyzed loss-on-ignition every 5 cm along the
85 core using standard protocols (Heiri et al., 2001). Magnetic susceptibility was measured using a
86 Geotek MSCL core logging system (Lascu, 2009).

87 We processed 24 pollen samples of 1.25 cm³ volume using standard chemical treatments after
88 adding *Lycopodium* spores tablets (Faegri et al., 1989; Brugger et al., 2018a). Pollen and spores
89 were counted at 400x magnification under a light microscope and identified using palynological
90 keys (Moore et al., 1991; Kapp et al., 2000; Beug, 2004). All pollen and spore percentages are
91 based on the terrestrial pollen sum including trees, shrubs, and herbs, excluding wetland taxa (e.g.
92 Cyperaceae) and spores. Zonation of the pollen record was derived from constrained hierarchical
93 cluster analysis (Grimm, 1987) based on Euclidean distances of square root-transformed terrestrial

94 pollen percentages and tested for statistical significance ($p < 0.05$) with the broken stick model
95 (Bennett, 1996). Microcharcoal fragments were counted following established protocols
96 (Finsinger and Tinner, 2005; Tinner and Hu, 2003).

97 **Results and interpretation**

98 The depth-age model reflects varying accumulation rates among major sediment units (Fig. 2)
99 Organic gyttja sediments start to accumulate after ~14.1k cal a BP, on top of silty clays and sands
100 associated with lacustral/playa landforms (Figure 3). Between ~10.2-9.3k cal a BP, gyttja was
101 replaced by gray sandy silt with increased carbonates and thin organic stringers. After ~9.3k cal a
102 BP, the organic content increased again until Mazama tephra deposition.

103 Cluster analysis revealed one statistically significant zone boundary between Gund-1 and
104 Gund-2 (Fig. 4). Gund-1 (~14.1-11.2k cal a BP) is dominated by *Pinus* fluctuating around ~50%,
105 with moderately high *Artemisia* (~25%), low Chenopodiaceae (<10%) pollen (probably deriving
106 from *Atriplex*), and herbs dominated by Poaceae accounting for ~20% of the pollen assemblage.
107 The pollen composition suggests that before 11.2k cal a BP, regional vegetation was composed of
108 *Pinus*-dominated woodlands while *Artemisia*-Poaceae steppe likely covered surrounding alluvial
109 fans and upland slopes, consistent with both modern vegetation patterns (Young and Evans, 1980)
110 and northern intermontane TP-EH paleovegetation records (Mehring 1985; Rhode 2016a). A
111 single Poaceae peak of ~40% and contemporaneous *Pinus* decline (20%) at ~12.6 k cal a BP could
112 indicate a short-term expansion of herbaceous steppe at the cost of *Pinus* woodlands. After ~11.7k
113 cal a BP *Pinus* pollen rapidly declines to 20% while Chenopodiaceae rises to 20% suggesting a
114 shift toward drier shrubland vegetation (Fig. 4).

115 At the beginning of Gund-2 (~11.2-7.6k cal a BP), *Pinus* pollen remains at low values (20%)
116 deriving from distant or scattered stands as *Pinus* pollen is extremely well dispersed over long

117 distances (e.g., Thompson, 1992; Brugger et al., 2019). Chenopodiaceae increases to ~50%, reach-
118 ing greater than modern values, *Artemisia* decreases slightly to ~10%, while herbs, predominantly
119 Poaceae and Asteroideae, contribute 20%. The pollen composition suggests that the regional veg-
120 etation was composed of open dry-adapted shrubby steppe and widespread xeric-desert vegetation
121 until ~8.3k cal a BP possibly responding to culminating drought conditions for vegetation at ~10.2-
122 9.3k cal a BP. After ~8.3k cal a BP the pollen assemblages become similar to the modern reference
123 sample with *Pinus* pollen increasing to ~35% and Chenopodiaceae declining to 20%, suggesting
124 that the regional vegetation reached modern composition already prior to the Mazama eruption
125 ~7.633k cal a BP (Egan et al., 2015).

126 The entire pollen record is dominated by Cyperaceae with values >50% suggesting that the
127 pollen derives predominantly from local wetland taxa such as *Carex* sp. currently growing at the
128 coring site. Major Cyperaceae pollen peaks occur at ~13.7k, ~11.7-10.2k, and ~9.3-8.2k cal a BP,
129 when values reach >200% suggesting short-term expansion of wetlands (Fig. 4). These peaks are
130 accompanied by *Typha* peaks indicating expansion of shallow ponds or open water. Simultaneous
131 traces of fern spores also imply wetter climatic phases or improved local hydrologic conditions.
132 Single finds of *Sporormiella*, a coprophilous dung spore indicative of herbivore grazing (e.g. Rey
133 et al., 2017), occur at ~13.4k and ~11.0-10.5k cal a BP, during maximum wetland expansions.

134 Microcharcoal concentrations and influx values show similar trends along the record, suggest-
135 ing that the reconstructed fire history is robust (Fig. 4, S1). Microcharcoal influx remains low
136 between ~14.0k cal a BP and 12.7k cal a BP suggesting minimal fire activity when *Pinus* wood-
137 lands are most widespread. Increasing microcharcoal influx (>3000 fragments cm⁻² a⁻¹) after
138 ~12.7k cal a BP suggests an increase of fire activity contemporaneous with the decline of *Pinus*
139 woodlands and the spread of dry adapted salt desert shrubs.

140 **Discussion**

141 **The impact of climate on regional vegetation and fire in the central Great basin**

142 At the beginning of the pollen record ~14k cal a BP, *Pinus* woodlands (presumably *P. flexilis*)
143 occurred in nearby upland slopes with *Artemisia*-Poaceae steppe covering alluvial fans and pied-
144 monts, which is in agreement with other regional vegetation reconstructions (e.g., Thompson,
145 1992). A brief decline ~12.7-12.0k cal a BP and subsequent recovery of *Pinus* woodlands likely
146 corresponds to climatic transitions at the beginning and end of the Younger Dryas (Rasmussen et
147 al., 2006). The dieback of *Pinus* woodlands and subsequent replacement by open steppe vegetation
148 possibly provided herbaceous fuel for fire during the dry summer season (Betancourt 2015), re-
149 sulting in an increase of fire activity. Subsequent increases of fire activity after forest diebacks at
150 the forest steppe ecotone is an ecological phenomenon observed in paleoecological reconstructions
151 in other geographic areas where forests grow at their drought limit (e.g. Eichler et al., 2011; Marlon
152 et al., 2012; Schwörer et al., 2017; Brugger et al., 2018b).

153 After ~11.7k cal a BP, *Pinus* woodlands retreated upslope while xeric-desert vegetation with
154 abundant Chenopodiaceae expanded and suggested maximum drought conditions at ~10.2-9.3k
155 cal a BP. This shift to dry-adapted vegetation is in agreement with regional vegetation records
156 from Ruby Valley and the western Bonneville Basin (225 km east of Grass Valley) where conifer
157 woodlands declined at the expense of xeric-desert steppe vegetation after ~9.5k cal a BP, and
158 ~11.7k cal a BP, respectively (Thompson, 1992; Louderback and Rhode, 2009). Other records
159 from the northern Great Basin and Snake River Plain indicate early Holocene drying with decreas-
160 ing conifers and expanding steppe (Thompson, 1984; Thompson et al. 2016; Rhode, 2016a,
161 2016b). These pollen records unfortunately do not extend deep enough in time to determine when
162 this warming and drying trend began.

163 Regional vegetation-independent climate reconstructions, such as decreasing lake levels in the
164 Great Basin and a speleothem record from Lehman Cave, suggest that the moisture retractions may
165 have varied regionally in timing but that overall the Great Basin experienced a drying trend cul-
166 minating in the mid-Holocene (e.g. McGee et al., 2012; Steponaitis et al., 2015).

167 *Pinus* woodlands expanded in Grass Valley again after ~8.3k cal a BP, possibly in response to
168 moister conditions coincident with the 8.2 ka Northern Hemisphere climatic anomaly (Alley et al.
169 1997). This increase in *Pinus* pollen may signal the approach of *Pinus monophylla* in its mid-
170 Holocene northwards expansion (Madsen, 1985, 1986; Madsen and Rhode, 1990; Thompson,
171 1990; Rhode and Madsen 1998).

172 **Climate-driven wetland dynamics as a changing resource for Prearchaic groups**

173 In contrast to upland vegetation, local wetlands in Grass Valley responded dynamically to
174 changing local hydrological conditions. The pollen record indicates that wetland vegetation dom-
175 inated by Cyperaceae became established at ~14.1k cal a BP at the coring site, near the end of the
176 warm and dry Bølling interstadial (Rasmussen et al., 2006) that caused dropping lake levels across
177 the Great Basin. The wetland was established on remnant playa and lacustral sediments of the
178 formerly larger Lake Gilbert, indicated by a paleo-shoreline at ~1724 m a.s.l. dating older than the
179 beginning of the pollen record (Young and Evans, 1980; Madsen, 1985). Wetland and aquatic taxa
180 in the record indicate maximum expansions of wetlands at ~13.7k, ~11.7-10.2k, and ~9.3-8.2k cal
181 a BP possibly in response to changing local hydrologic conditions. The expanding wetlands in
182 response to periods of increased moisture possibly served as attractive habitats for large herbi-
183 vores. The microfossil record tentatively indicates presence of such herbivores by finds of dung
184 fungal spores at ~13.4k and ~11.0-10.5k cal a BP commonly associated with herbivore presence
185 (Gill et al., 2012; Rey et al., 2017, 2020). Elston et al. (2014) have argued that productive wetlands

186 attractive to large herbivores would also have been highly appealing primary resource areas for
187 Prearchaic human foraging societies. Under their model, foraging family groups practicing a gen-
188 der-based division of labor would have preferentially occupied wetlands, where males focused
189 subsistence efforts on high-value but possibly infrequently obtained wild game, and female forag-
190 ers focused on lower-value but more reliable resources such as smaller game, bird eggs, and *Typha*
191 rhizomes (Elston et al. 2014). As regional drying continued through the early to mid-Holocene,
192 declining wetland productivity in Grass Valley may have ultimately necessitated the abandonment
193 of a wetland subsistence focus and adoption of new food procurement strategies such as intensive
194 small-seed processing more typical of later Archaic foraging groups in the region (Rhode et al.,
195 2006; Beck and Jones, 2008, 2014; McGuire et al., 2016).

196 **Conclusions**

197 Our paleoecological reconstruction from Grass Valley provides new information about the re-
198 sponse of ecosystems to regional climate change during the TP-EH and fills an important gap in
199 understanding these highly sensitive vegetation communities in the central Great Basin. The *Pinus*
200 woodland expansions were mainly driven by effective moisture availability from 14k cal a BP
201 onwards and reached modern conditions by the mid-Holocene after 8.2k cal a BP. We infer that
202 fire dynamics were largely influenced by a combination of herbaceous biomass availability and
203 flammability in response to drying climate. This finding has important implications for ongoing
204 and future climate change and related fire risks in the central Great Basin. While regional upland
205 vegetation responded to large-scale climate change, the local wetlands in Grass Valley reacted
206 more strongly to shorter periods of locally changing hydrological conditions and probably served
207 as important resource habitats for foraging Prearchaic groups. Further paleoecological and

208 archeological investigations are needed to gain a better understanding of the relationships between
209 TP-EH climate change, ecosystem dynamics, and human activities in the central Great Basin.

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221 **Data availability**

222 The data will be accessible on the NEOTOMA data base (<https://www.neotomadb.org/>).

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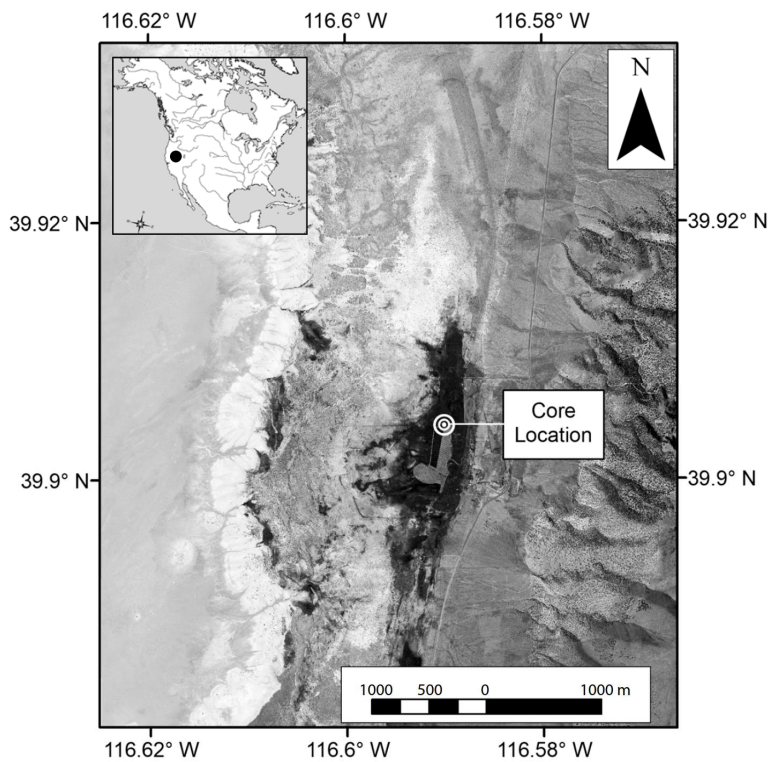
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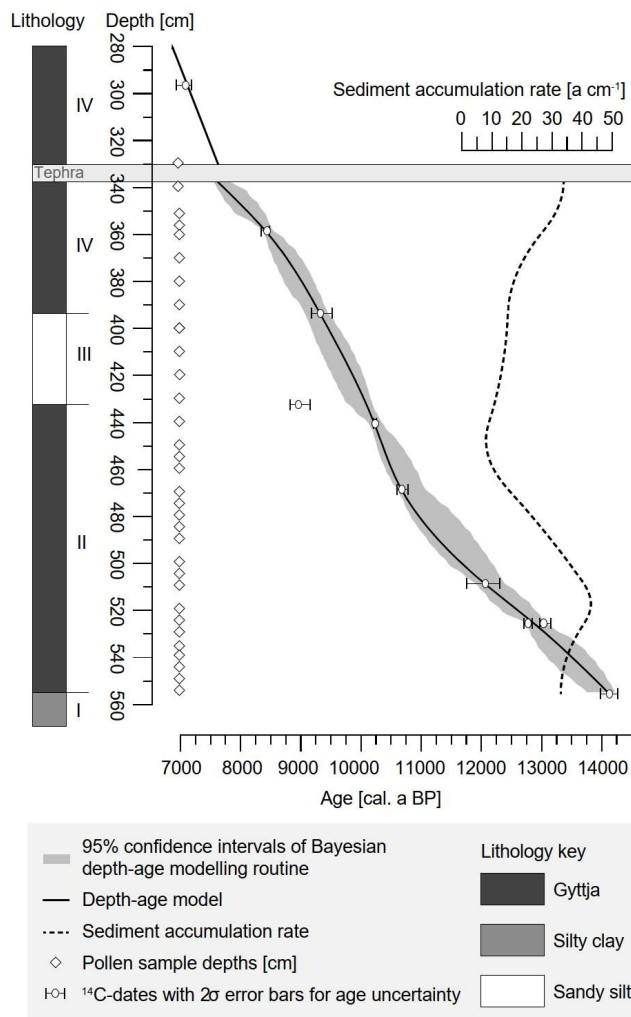
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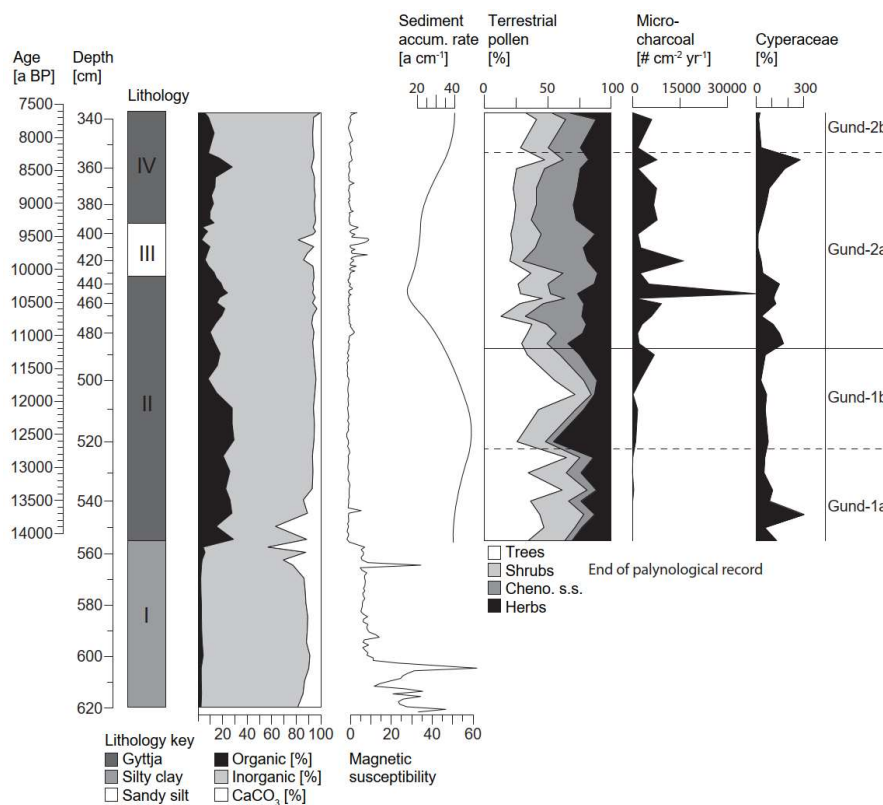
408 Figures and tables



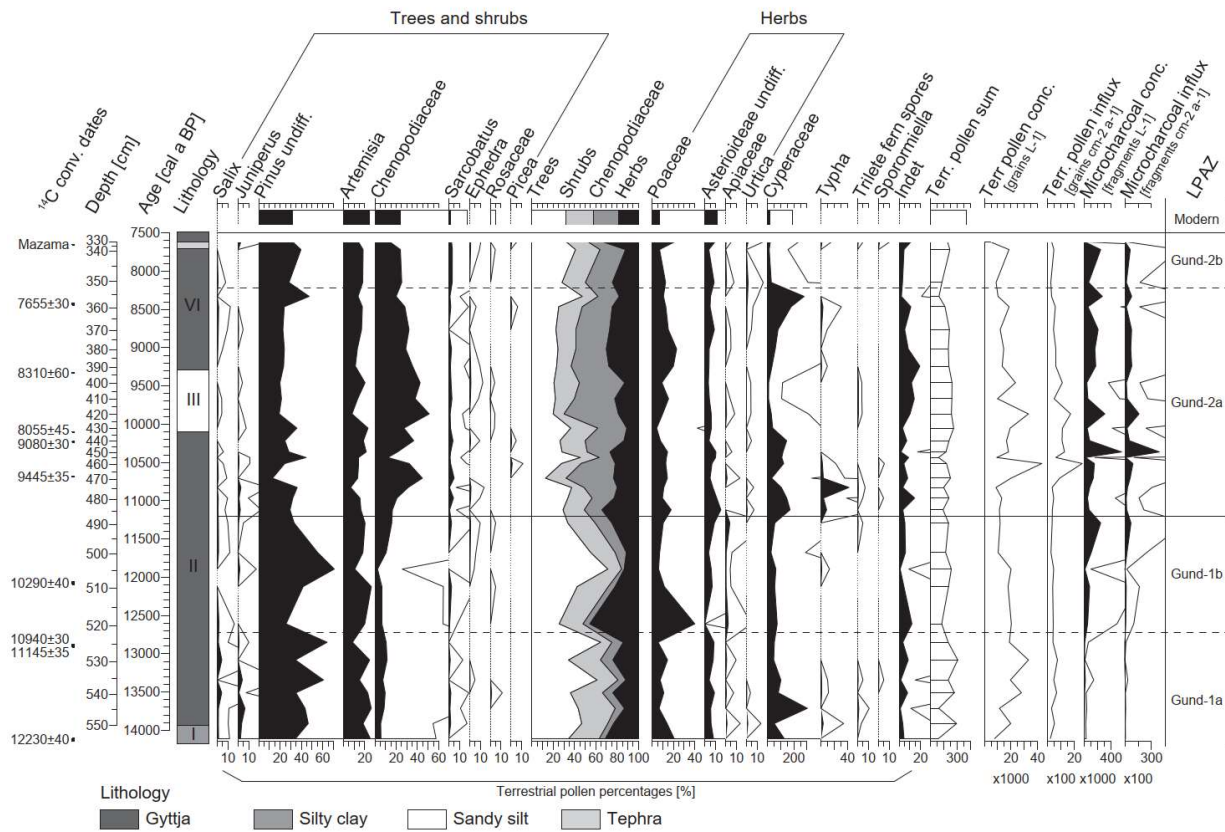
409
410 **Figure 1.** Map showing Grass Valley in the central Great Basin in Nevada with indication of the coring location at
411 Gund Ranch. The playa of Pleistocene Lake Gilbert is located west of the core location, and the Simpson Park Moun-
412 tains lie to the east.



413
 414 **Figure 2.** The depth–age model of Gund Ranch sediment core (pre-Mazama: smooth spline with smoothing level =0.1
 415 fitted with Clam 2.2; post-Mazama: linear interpolation Blaauw 2010) is shown as solid black line with a gray enve-
 416 lope delimiting the 95% confidence interval of the estimated ages pre-Mazama obtained with the Bayesian depth–age
 417 modeling routine Bacon (Blaauw and Christen 2011). Nine radiocarbon dates (white dots with 95% confidence inter-
 418 vals of the calibrated ages, Reimer et al. 2013) and the Mazama tephra layer (7633 ± 49 cal a BP, Egan et al., 2015)
 419 were used to fit the age-depth model. One additional radiocarbon date was considered an outlier based on the Bayesian
 420 depth-age modeling routine. Age is shown in calibrated years before present (cal a BP with 1950=0). Sediment accu-
 421 mulation rate is calculated based on the depth-age model (dashed line) and left column shows lithology of the sediment
 422 core including major units (I-IV).

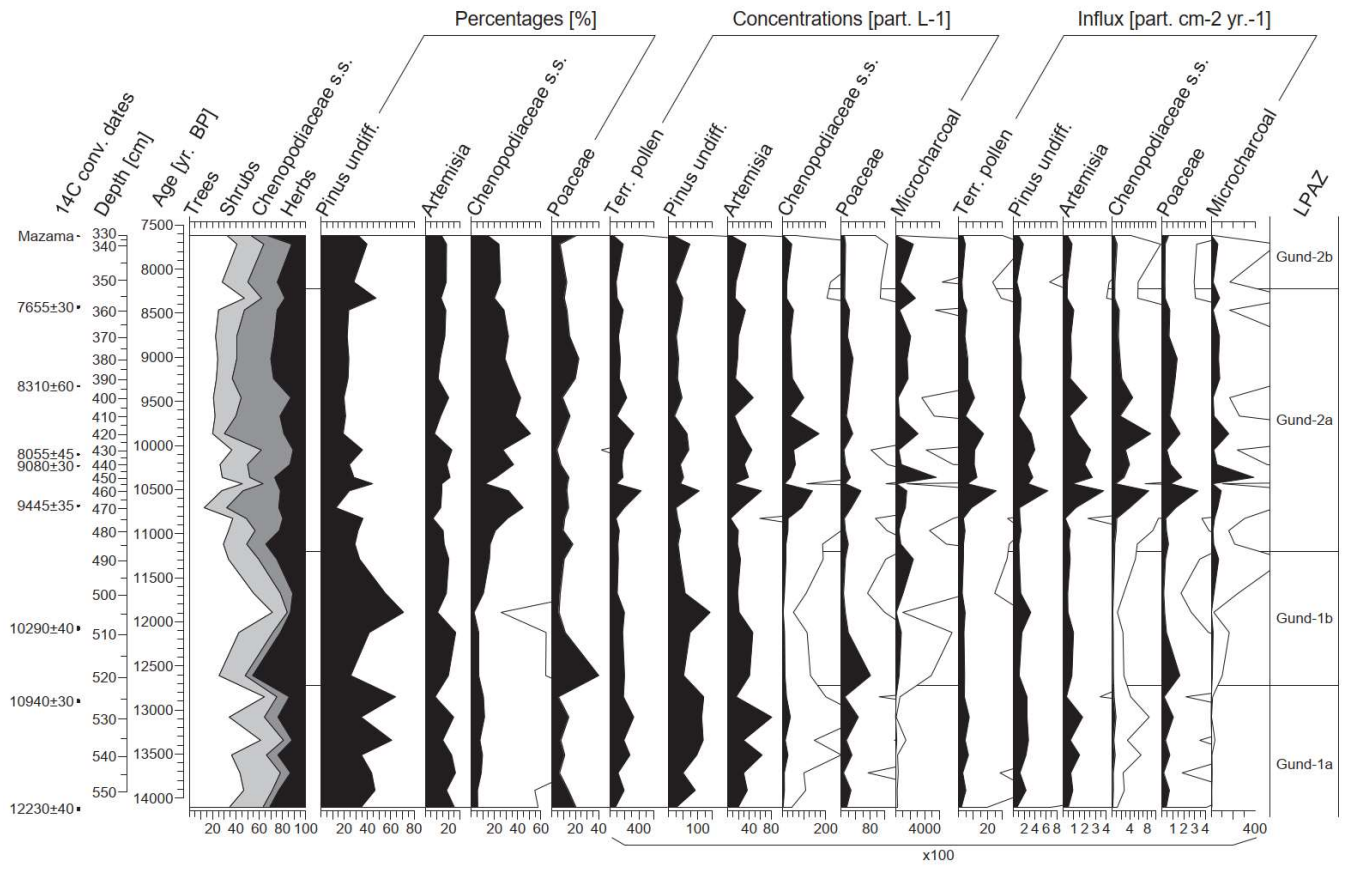


423
 424
 425 **Figure 3.** Sedimentology of Gund Ranch core before 7500 cal a BP showing from left: major depositional units, loss-
 426 on-ignition, magnetic susceptibility (SI units), sediment accumulation rate derived from the depth-age model (Fig. 2),
 427 summary of tree, shrub, Chenopodiaceae, and herb pollen as percentages, microcharcoal influx, and Cyperaceae per-
 428 centages based on the terrestrial pollen sum. Note that record below 550 cm is presented on a depth-scale and undated.



429
 430
 431 **Figure 4.** Pollen diagram of Gund Ranch core spanning 14.0-7.5k cal a BP showing selected terrestrial pollen types,
 432 marshland taxa, trilete fern spores, *Sporormiella* and damaged pollen grains (indet) as percentages based on the ter-
 433 restrial pollen sum, the counted terrestrial pollen sum and terrestrial pollen influx, microcharcoal concentrations and
 434 influx. Note that we included the sediment surface pollen sample as modern reference. Hollow curves = 10x exagger-
 435 ation, indet = indeterminable pollen grains, LPAZ = Local pollen assemblage zones.

436 **Supplementary material**



437

438 **Supplementary figure S1.** Percentages, concentrations, and influx of major pollen taxa of Gund Ranch core.

439 **Supplementary table S1.** Radiocarbon dates used for the depth-age model of Gund Ranch core. Radiocarbon dates
 440 were calibrated based on the Intcal13 curve (Reimer et al. 2013) in Calib 7.1. (Stuiver et al. 2020). Modelled ages are
 441 based on a smooth spline curve before the tephra layer (smooth factor =0.1) and a linear interpolation for uppermost
 442 part post-tephra generated with Clam 2.2 (Blaauw 2010). Radiocarbon dates were measured at the Pennsylvania State
 443 University's Accelerator Mass Spectrometry Lab (PSU) and Beta Analytic, Inc (B).

| Lab code | Depth (cm) | Dated material | ^{14}C age $\pm 1\sigma$ (a BP conv.) | Median calibrated age, 2σ range (cal a BP) | Modelled age (cal a BP) |
|----------|------------|-------------------------------------|--|---|-------------------------|
| PSU-3306 | 296.5 | Charcoal + terr. macrofossils indet | 6195 \pm 35 | 7087 (6991-7238) | 7115 |
| PSU-7078 | 358.5 | Extracted humates | 7655 \pm 30 | 8438 (8393-8536) | 8432 |
| PSU-3307 | 393.5 | Charcoal + terr. macrofossils indet | 8310 \pm 60 | 9324 (9132-9465) | 9338 |
| PSU-3308 | 432.5 | Charcoal + terr. macrofossils indet | 8055 \pm 45 | Outlier 8959 (8766-9091) | 10103 |
| PSU-7079 | 440.5 | Extracted humates | 9080 \pm 30 | 10234 (10197-10258) | 10232 |
| PSU-7080 | 468.5 | Extracted humates | 9445 \pm 35 | 10678 (10580-10758) | 10684 |
| PSU-7081 | 508.5 | Extracted humates | 10290 \pm 40 | 12067 (11835-12377) | 12075 |
| PSU-7082 | 525.5 | Terrestrial macrofossils indet | 10940 \pm 30 | 12776 (12710-12848) | 12897 |
| PSU-7143 | 525.5 | Extracted humates | 11145 \pm 35 | 13034 (12918-13099) | 12897 |
| B-490318 | 555 | Peat fragments in gyttja | 12230 \pm 40 | 14126 (13991-14274) | 14128 |

444