1	Research Paper
2	Pollen productivity estimates from old-growth forest strongly differ from
3	those obtained in cultural landscapes – evidence from the Białowieża National
4	Park, Poland
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26

27 Abstract

28 Pollen productivity estimates of individual plant taxa are necessary when determining changes of 29 vegetation cover during the Holocene. To date, studies describing this parameter in lowland temperate 30 Europe have been carried out in cultural landscapes showing low forest cover and dominated by human 31 activities. However these may be of limited use when applied to reconstruct past land cover, for 32 instance, from pre-agricultural landscapes. The aim of this paper is to ascertain whether pollen 33 productivity from the closed canopy old-growth forest in the Białowieża National Park, Poland, where 34 human impact has been minimal for nearly a century, is different from that calculated in much more 35 open landscapes. We ask: how much does forest antiquity and structure influence the amount of pollen 36 released from particular taxa? We implemented maximum likelihood estimation of relative pollen 37 productivity for seven tree species and for Poaceae using 18 modern pollen assemblages and distance-38 weighted plant abundances. Our results demonstrate that the ratio of pollen productivity between high 39 producers (Pinus sylvestris and Quercus robur) and low producers (Poaceae, Corylus avellana) is on an 40 average six times greater in Białowieża than across other European cultural landscapes. Pollen from 41 forest *Poaceae* and *C. avellana* is six times more underrepresented in old-growth forest than hitherto 42 estimated from cultural landscapes. This finding reinforces the idea that pollen productivity can vary in 43 response to changes in the prevailing environmental settings and we present for the first time a quantification of this variability, likely induced by differences in light availability. 44

45 Key words

46 canopy structure, ERV-models, landscape openness, moss polsters, old-growth forest, relative pollen
47 productivity

48 Introduction

Advances in quantitative reconstruction of vegetation cover using fossil pollen over the last decade have made it possible to estimate land cover throughout the Holocene for most of Europe (Gaillard et al., 2008, 2010; Marquer et al., 2014; Mazier et al., 2012; Nielsen et al., 2012), an important parameter for climate modelling in relation to climate change (Gaillard et al., 2010; Strandberg et al., 2014; Trondman et al., 2015). Landscape openness is also critical to studies focusing on the impact of past civilisations on their environment, with respect to their cultural, economic and demographic dynamics (Nielsen et al., 2012).

56 These advances are due to the conceptual and technical progress in landscape reconstruction algorithms 57 that translate pollen assemblages from small and large sedimentary basins into the estimation of 58 percent vegetation cover or biomass (Sugita, 2007a, 2007b). Sugita's methodology used in these models 59 solves a major difficulty in the analysis of fossil pollen, i.e. the confounding influence of spatial 60 distribution of vegetation onto pollen proportion in sediments (Davis, 2000). One crucial parameter 61 within Sugita's algorithms is the estimation of relative pollen productivity that is specific to different 62 plant species (Broström et al., 2008; Hellman et al., 2008). Relative pollen productivity is the ratio 63 between the pollen productivity of two species (Sugita et al., 1999).

To date, relative pollen productivity estimates (PPE) have been established for all the major tree species throughout cultural landscapes of temperate Europe where agriculture and urbanisation directly modify between 40 and 90% of the plant cover or from boreal and subalpine environments where climate is significantly colder and where lower pollen productivity is predictable (Table 1). Other studies estimate pollen productivity for various herbs but no trees (e.g. Broström et al., 2004; Bunting and Hjelle, 2010; Hjelle, 1998).

70 [Insert Table 1]

71 However, what is still unknown is whether results from cultural landscapes can be utilised to interpret 72 fossil pollen assemblages from landscapes that have undergone different disturbance regimes such as 73 old-growth forests or ancient landscapes with vegetation cover relatively untouched by agriculture. For 74 instance, the composition and structure of vegetation before the advent of agriculture in Europe, as 75 reconstructed using fossil pollen, has been at the heart of a polarized debate in recent decades following 76 Vera's hypothesis in (2000). Are pre-agricultural landscapes best described as high-forest (i.e. 77 continuous forest cover with a closed canopy wherever the relief and hydrology permits tree growth) or 78 wood-pasture (i.e. patchy forest cover within a mosaic of regeneration stages driven by large herbivores, 79 such as bison, aurochs, horses and other natives)? This question is of importance to guide nature 80 conservation and forest management because ancient landscapes reconstructed with fossils are a 81 source of inspiration and can serve as a baseline for restoration. Many palaeoecologists have argued for 82 high forest on the basis of the fossil pollen record (eg Birks, 2005; Bradshaw et al., 2003; Mitchell, 2005) 83 and the fossil beetle assemblages (Buckland, 2005; Smith et al., 2010). However, these studies and 84 others (eg Svenning, 2002; Hall, 2008; Nielsen et al., 2012) also highlight the importance of natural 85 forces such as wildfires, wind throws, hydrology and soil fertility, along with grazing, to create the 86 dynamic necessary to open forest gaps and promote tree recruitment and regeneration of more light-87 demanding species. In this respect, validation of these competing hypotheses with more accurate

88 quantitative reconstructions of past vegetation is still urgently needed.

The overarching aim of our study is to estimate new pollen productivity data from an old-growth forest that had minimum human impact over time and that can serve as an important contrast to the cultural landscapes previously used to calculate PPE. We chose the forest located in the Białowieża National Park (BNP) in Poland because this is often regarded as a recent analogue for primeval lowland woodland where large herbivores are among the most important disturbance factors (Bobiec, 2002; Faliński, 1986). The BNP is covered by extensive old-growth forest not exploited by forestry or other human

95	activities since nearly 100 years and is nested at the heart of the largest fragment of temperate		
96	woodland in lowland Europe- the Białowieża Forest. Our key objectives are:		
97	i.	To establish relative pollen productivity estimates (PPE) for the main trees and Poaceae in the	
98		old-growth forest of Białowieża.	
99	ii.	To compare PPE from the Białowieża Forest to those obtained in cultural landscapes across	
100		Europe.	
101	iii.	To discuss any differences in the light of the disturbance regimes and environmental settings	
102		that prevail in old-growth forests and cultural landscapes.	
103	3 Study Area		

The Białowieża Forest is a flagship ecosystem in European nature conservation (Bobiec, 2002; Peterken,
1996). It covers about 1450 km² (52°29′-52°57′N; 23°31′-24°21′E) straddling the border between Poland
and Belarus (Figure 1). Białowieża Forest is the largest expanse of lowland temperate closed canopy
forest in Europe and it is unique for the complete assemblage of native trees, large herbivores and
carnivores, for its size and for its antiquity (Faliński, 1986).

109 [Insert Figure 1]

The whole area of Białowieża Forest has international protection as a UNESCO Biosphere Reserve and World Heritage site, a Ramsar site, and a Natura 2000 site as well as having protected status at the national and local level. Special protection applies to 105 km² within the Polish Białowieża National Park (BNP) and to 157 km² within the Belarus *Belovezhskaya Pushcha* National Park. Strict protection, where no human intervention is allowed and access is limited to research or restrictive tourism, started as early as 1921 for 47.5 km² of old growth forest within today's BNP. Outside this area and outside the numerous other smaller nature reserves present across Białowieża Forest, both hunting and forestry are current practice, thereby directly influencing the populations of large herbivores and trees (Jędrzejewski
et al., 2006; Kuijper et al., 2010a)

119 The Białowieża Forest has been under protection from agricultural development from the Middle Ages 120 when it became a game reserve for Lithuanian and Polish rulers (Samojlik, 2005). As a result, it has 121 remained remarkably untouched by human activities in contrast with the rest of Europe (Faliński, 1986; 122 Latałowa et al., 2015). No large-scale agriculture or industry has ever been prominent. However, small-123 scale activities such as subsistence farming and various forest crafts are all reported from historical 124 archives. Historical variation of these disturbance regimes explain much of the forest diversity today 125 (Bobiec, 2012; Niklasson et al., 2010; Pigott, 1975). In spite of these activities, the area has experienced 126 exceptional stability with regards to land cover for the last 200 years (Mikusińska et al., 2013). The main 127 natural disturbance factors that have been shaping the forest composition and structure are: large 128 herbivore selective browsing (Kuijper et al., 2010a; Smit et al., 2012), pathogen outbreaks such as the 129 European spruce bark beetle (*Ips typographus*) (Bobiec et al., 2011; Miścicki, 2012) and wind throws 130 (Faliński, 1978). Large herbivores and carnivores in this forest include bison (Bison bonasus), moose 131 (Alces alces), red deer (Cervus elaphus), roe deer (Capreolus capreolus), wild boar (Sus scofa), wolves 132 (Canis lupus), and lynx (Lynx lynx) (Kuijper et al., 2010a).

In terms of vegetation, this large forest complex is located at the transition between the boreal and the nemoral biogeographic zones. This is reflected by the co-occurrence of sub-oceanic, central-European and boreal forest communities, i.e. with deciduous trees and the evergreen spruce (*Picea abies*). The boreal elements of the flora and vegetation structure are promoted by a relatively short growing season (179 days) and long duration of snow cover (92 days) (Boczoń 2006; Faliński, 1986). For the period 1950-2003, the average annual precipitation was 627.5 mm and the temperatures were as follows: 6.8°C (annual), -4.3°C (January), 17.7°C (July) (Boczoń, 2006). However, in the last decade, precipitation has 140 systematically decreased, while temperatures have systematically increased, resulting in extension of 141 growth seasons up to around 220 days long (Malzahn et al., 2009).

142 The Białowieża Forest is dominated by mesophile oak-linden-hornbeam forest community (Tilio-143 Carpinetum), having a multi-layered structure with P. abies in the top-most layer (up to 50m high), oak 144 (Quercus robur), linden (Tilia cordata) and Norway maple (Acer platanoides) below it, and hornbeam 145 (Carpinus betulus) in the lowest tree-layer closing space between other trees. Hazel (Corylus avellana) 146 occurs in the shrub layer, together with juvenile forms of other trees. Ground water level and soil 147 fertility determine the particular dominance and composition of the herb layer of this very biodiverse 148 community (Faliński, 1986; Sokołowski, 1993). Other communities include mixed conifer forests with P. 149 abies or pine (Pinus sylvestris) as dominant species, and lower abundances of Q. robur and birches 150 (Betula spp.). These conifer forests appear to be in a process of transformation, manifested by a 151 reduction of Picea abies and Pinus sylvestris and an increase in mesophile taxa, mainly Carpinus betulus 152 and T. cordata (Bobiec, 2012; Faliński, 1988). Also, small stands of pine forest (Vaccinio vitis-idaeae-153 Pinetum) are restricted to the nutrient-poor substrate found in areas of inland sand-dune systems. 154 Over 20% of the BNP is covered by forest growing on waterlogged soils, with a variety of fertility levels 155 and hydrological regimes (Czerepko 2008). Ash-alder forest (Circeo-Alnetum) and ash-elm forest (Ficario-156 Ulmetum) occur along streams and in river valleys. These tree stands are dominated by alder (Alnus 157 qlutinosa), elm (Ulmus glabra), ash (Fraxinus excelsior) and Picea abies, while Corylus avellana grows in 158 the shrub layer. In local depressions with stagnant water, alder carr develops with A. glutinosa as 159 dominant species and lower abundances of *P. abies* and *B. pubescens*. Raised bogs and transitional 160 peatlands support marshy forests dominated by either Pinus sylvestris or Betula spp. or a mixture of 161 both, and have a lower abundance of *Picea abies*. Transitional bogs have the typical character of those 162 found in the boreal zone, with spruce forests of the type Sphagno girgensohnii-Piceetum (Czerepko,

2008; Faliński, 1986). This is characterised by weak growth forms of *P. abies, B. pubescens* in lower
abundances, a limited dwarf-shrub and herb layers, and a very rich moss layer. We refer the reader to
the phytosociology literature for more information on the forest communities present in the Białowieża
Forest and the BNP (eg Faliński, 1986; Sokołowski, 1993).

167 Methods

168 Pollen

All the field work was carried out within the BNP (52°45′07″N, 23°52′44″E) in August 2011. Moss

polsters were collected from the forest floor, at 18 locations well-spread in space and showing diverse

171 old forest stands (Figure 2, ESM Table S1). Twelve sampling sites were located in oak-linden-hornbeam

172 forest and six in different types of coniferous forests. We sampled three or four moss sub-samples

including both green and brown parts (Räsänen et al., 2004) within a 1 m² quadrat using a ring of 21.2

174 cm². The sub-samples were mixed in a plastic bag and kept in the dark at 4° C. The moss polsters were

treated in the laboratory according to Hicks et al.'s (1999) protocol: rinsed in distilled water and sieved

through 200 μm mesh, then boiled in 10% KOH for 5 minutes, followed by Erdman's acetolysis, staining

and mounting in glycerine. Over 1000 pollen grains per sample were counted and identified with specific

178 keys (Beug, 2004; Moore et al., 1991; Punt et al., 1976-2003) and the reference collection of the

179 Laboratory of Palaeoecology and Archaeobotany, University of Gdańsk.

180 [insert Figure 2]

181 *Vegetation survey*

The vegetation survey was conducted at three spatial scales and followed standard practice for the estimation of pollen productivity based on moss polsters (Broström et al., 2008), in particular Bunting et al. (2013) for the first 10m and Mazier et al. (2008) from 10m to 100m. It was conducted around each 1 m² quadrat sampled for pollen. The percentage cover of ground flora was estimated visually using four 186 transects of four 1 m² guadrats to 10 m away from the sampling point (distances from 0.5, 1.5, 3.5 and 187 7.5 m). Damage from large herbivores was recorded as present or absent for each species in each 188 guadrat. All plant identifications followed Flora Europaea (Tutin et al., 1964-1980) and Flora Vegetativa 189 (Eggenberg and Möhl, 2008) for diagnostic vegetative characters. The canopy cover was also recorded 190 using four transects along a distance of 100 m. For each transect the canopy composition and 191 percentage cover was recorded within four 5m-radius relevés (distance 15, 30, 50 and 90 m), while 192 canopy directly above the sampling quadrat was recorded in a 10-m radius relevé. Only mature trees 193 producing pollen were recorded during the canopy survey. The vegetation data within 1000 m radius from the sampling point was prepared on the basis of existing floristic and phytosociological studies 194 195 (Sokołowski, 1993, 2004). For each forest type, we compiled a list of tree and *Poaceae* species and their 196 average percent cover within the community. The maps of forest habitat types and tree stands were 197 drawn using the Numerical Map of BNP 2001 and a GIS (Quantum GIS ver. 2.0). In a GIS environment 198 (ArcGIS 10.1), we compiled the survey and forest map data into a single vegetation map and split it into 199 adjoining concentric rings at regular distances from the sampling point (0.5, 1.5, 3, 6, 10, 23.7, 41.2, 200 72.8, 100 meters and then every 50 m from 100 m to 1000 m). Thus, we obtained the surface cover of 201 all tree and herb species (in m² or %) within each concentric ring.

202 Data Handling and Modelling

To calculate PPE of main trees at our research sites, we undertook a whole modelling approach similar
to that of Prentice and Sugita (Parsons and Prentice, 1981; Prentice and Parsons, 1983; Sugita, 1993;
Sugita et al., 1999). This approach calculates PPE by maximum likelihood using pollen counts as a
response variable and vegetation data as explanatory variable. We implemented three types of
distance-weighting transformation on the vegetation data (Prentice and Parsons, 1983; Prentice, 1985;
Sugita, 1993; Sugita et al., 1999) by down-weighting plant species surface cover in the concentric rings,
proportionally with distances from the sampling points. This method simulates pollen dispersal such that

pollen accumulation is influenced by the distance of a sampling point from the pollen source. The three
methods are inverse distance (1/d), inverse square distance (1/d²) and pollen-type specific (pt-s)
distance-weighting (Prentice, 1985). Pollen-type specific distance-weighting is based on the travelling of
small particles in turbulent air above the canopy and has been successfully applied in similar situations
(Broström et al., 2008). To implement this type of distance-weighting, we used the pollen fall speed as in
Sugita (1999).

216 Three maximum likelihood algorithms were used to obtain relative PPE. These were implemented using 217 vegetation data, distance-weighted in three ways as presented above, resulting in nine combinations of 218 algorithm-distance-weighting. The algorithms are named ERV 1, ERV 2 and ERV 3 (Prentice and Parsons, 219 1983; Sugita, 1993) and make different assumptions regarding the background pollen contribution 220 across sites (summarised in Broström et al., 2008). All three algorithms make reasonable assumptions in 221 many situations and there is no *a priori* reason to favour one over another, so all three algorithms are 222 usually applied (Broström et al., 2008). The assumptions underlying each algorithm are reviewed in 223 detail in Broström et al. (2008). The relevant source area of pollen (Sugita, 1994) was established by 224 implementing each of the nine combinations of algorithm-distance-weighting at the same regular 225 distances used for distance-weighting. We used the log-likelihood indicator to select the distance and 226 combination of algorithm-distance-weighting that fitted best our pollen and vegetation data. The 227 relevant source area of this best combination of parameters is reached when the log likelihood indicator 228 stops improving with distance (ie it plateaus off when plotted against distance). 229 The final selection of plant species was obtained by repeating the above analysis until all PPE values 230 returned by the modelling were plausible (between 0.01 and 100) and had reasonable standard errors

231 (<10% of the PPE). The distance-weighting and maximum likelihood calculations were implemented with

the 'ERV.Analysis.v1.3.0' programme (S. Sugita, unpublished).

To compare the PPE obtained in the BNP with those of other studies, we calculated three sets of PPE using *Pinus sylvestris*, *Quercus robur* and *Poaceae* as reference taxa, respectively (Table 2). In addition, we compiled from the published literature all relevant estimates obtained with similar methods and the most recent consensus values given by Mazier et al. (2012) (Table 3).

237 Results

238 Pollen proved abundant enough for our analysis in all samples collected. All pollen spectra were

characterised by a very high arboreal/non-arboreal proportion, between 93.8 and 98.3% (ESM Figure

S1). In most of the 12 samples from oak-linden-hornbeam forest, the pollen of *Carpinus* (5) and *Quercus*

241 (3) absolutely dominated. However, in two other samples *Picea* and *Pinus* pollen were co-dominant with

a lower percentage of deciduous tree pollen. In one other sample *Betula* was the most common pollen

type. The pollen spectra from oak-linden-hornbeam forest had several tree taxa well represented,

reflecting the complex floristic composition of this vegetation type. In all moss polsters from coniferous

forests (6) Pinus pollen dominated; it reached 80-90% in four samples just under 40% in the two

remaining ones.

Plant taxa abundance at each site is presented in ESM table S2. Across all vegetation plots, damage from
herbivory was systematically absent from herbaceous plants (including *Poaceae*) and was common on
juvenile woody plants in the shrub layer of the forest's undergrowth.

250 The taxa which displayed a positive relationship between pollen percent and distance-weighted percent

cover were A. glutinosa, Betula spp. (including B. pendula and B. pubescens), C. betulus, Corylus

252 *avellana, Pinus sylvestris, Poaceae, Q. robur* and *T. cordata* (ESM Figure S2 A and B). Other pollen-types

were not suitable for modelling with the methodology used. Notably the models including *Picea abies*,

an important component in Białowieża Forest, returned unrealistic results for that taxon (PPEs = $\sim 10^{-6}$)

with very large standard errors. In addition, the inclusion of *P. abies* in models was significantly

increasing the PPE standard errors for all other taxa. Sedges (*Cyperaceae*) did not show a good enough
spread of data (pollen between 0% and 0.33% of pollen sum) and produced very large standard errors
and unrealistic results when included in models.

Amongst distance-weighting methods, 1/d and pt-s (pollen-type specific) returned nearly equally good
 results with all three algorithms (Figure 3 A-C), while 1/d² systematically returned worse log-likelihoods.
 In such situations it is appropriate to recommend 1/d, the simplest distance-weighting method.

262 [Insert Figure 3]

263 When using *Poaceae* as a reference taxon, the ERV 1 algorithm did not perform as consistently as ERV 2

and ERV 3, as shown by the variability of the log-likelihood when plotted against the distance gradient

265 (Figure 3 D in comparison to Figure 3 E-F). Because this behaviour is not observed when using *Pinus* or

266 *Quercus* as reference taxa, it was concluded that in our study, *Poaceae* are less suitable for this purpose

267 (Figure 3) but we provide PPEs relative to *Poaceae*, for comparison with similar published analyses.

The relevant source area is within a 400 m radius distance from sampling points with ERV 1 and ERV 3. Using these algorithms, PPE for all species stabilise before 400m along a distance gradient (ESM Figure S3). In contrast, the PPE obtained with the algorithm ERV 2 do not show any stable pattern along the distance gradient while log-likelihood values do not reach a horizontal asymptote as expected with this method (Sugita, 1994). We decided not to retain results of model ERV 2 on this basis, although the PPE were in the same range of values than those obtained with models ERV 1 and ERV 3.

The PPEs relative to *Pinus, Poaceae* and *Quercus* obtained with the best setting identified for our data, ie algorithms ERV 1 and ERV 3, 1/d distance-weighting and wind speed of 3 m s-1, are presented in Table 2. Results indicate that *A. glutinosa, Betula, Q. robur* and *P. sylvestris* are high pollen producers, *Carpinus betulus* is an intermediate pollen producer and *Poaceae, Corylus avellana* and *T. cordata* are relatively

- very low producers. There is between 23- (ERV 3) and 50-fold (ERV 1) difference of PPE between the
- 279 highest producers (*Pinus and Quercus*) and the lowest producers (*Poaceae* and *Tilia*).

280 [Insert Table 2]

- 281 Discussion
- 282 Relative PPE from Białowieża Forest

283 Comparing our results to PPE values from similar studies across Europe indicates that the difference 284 between low and high producers is much higher at our research sites than in any other place in the rest 285 of lowland Europe (Table 3). The ratio of PPE between the highest producers (Pinus and Quercus) and 286 the lowest producers (*Poaceae* and *Corylus*) is on average six times greater in the BNP than across 287 European cultural landscapes. This means that either in closed-canopy forest *Poaceae* and *Corylus* are 288 six times more under-represented in the pollen rain than hitherto estimated from cultural landscapes, or 289 *Pinus* and *Quercus* are six times more over-represented, or any mixture between these two extreme 290 explanations. However, because it is based on ratios, the modelling method used here does not allow us 291 to ascertain whether high producers in the BNP are higher producers in absolute terms, or whether low 292 producers produce an absolute lower quantity of pollen. This main finding, however, remained true 293 whether using Pinus, Quercus or Poaceae as reference taxa. There may be several reasons why this ratio 294 is so high in our study, including different methodologies between studies, extrinsic abiotic factors such 295 as climate influencing pollen productivity rates and intrinsic biotic factors such as the composition of the 296 vegetation and the disturbance regimes that the forest has been undergoing. Each of these will be 297 discussed in turn in the next sections.

298 [Insert Table 3]

299 [Insert Figure 4]

300 Reference taxa

301 Our results highlight how the choice of reference taxa may influence the data interpretation. As 302 underlined by Sugita et al. (1999) and Bunting et al. (2013), in theory any taxa can serve as the reference 303 unit, if it represents a wide range of values in both pollen and vegetation data, and is expected as an 304 intermediate pollen producer. For practical reasons, most studies in Europe included Poaceae or P. 305 sylvestris and utilised them as reference taxa (summarised by Mazier et al., 2012). For this reason, in 306 Figure 4, we display our data using these reference taxa and compare them with all other existing 307 studies. However, *Pinus* and *Poaceae* probably represent two extremes in the range of absolute pollen 308 productivity in the BNP, so, in our case, a better intermediate pollen producer would have been 309 Carpinus. Unfortunately, only two other European studies have produced PPE values for this taxon 310 (Soepboer et al., 2007; Sugita et al., 1999) drastically limiting potential comparison. Nevertheless, the 311 very high ratio between high and low pollen producers is independent from the choice of a reference 312 taxon.

313 Media sampled and vegetation survey

Methodology has been highlighted by some authors as a potential source of result discrepancy between studies (eg Broström et al., 2008; Bunting et al., 2013; Bunting and Hjelle, 2010; Hellman et al., 2008; Hjelle and Sugita, 2012; Theuerkauf et al., 2012), in particular, firstly, the media sampled, secondly, the models for pollen dispersal and number of years of pollen accumulation found in mosses or lake sediments and, thirdly, the way vegetation is surveyed.

Most studies show that different media are more or less effective in trapping certain pollen types, however, it is also emerging that variation between pollen assemblages collected from different media are not always significant (eg Broström et al., 2008; Giesecke and Fontana, 2008; Lisitsyna et al., 2012; Pardoe et al., 2010; Räsänen et al. 2004; Wilmshurst and McGlone, 2005). Some herb taxa show lower PPE values with lake sediment sampling than with moss polster sampling and this has been attributed to the poor dispersal of certain pollen types (Broström et al., 2008). Results from northern Europe have also shown the same pattern (Lisytsyna et al., 2012) and this may impact the estimation of pollen productivity values. In addition, occasional differences in PPE may arise as a result of strong overrepresentation of some taxa in the local littoral vegetation (eg *Alnus* spp., *Filipendula*) which, if underestimated in the vegetation survey, may produce higher than expected PPE from lake sediments (Broström et al., 2008).

330 Another consideration regarding the media is that mosses may better retain some pollen types than 331 others. Several studies indicate that bissacate pollen, especially Pinus, is usually much better 332 represented in moss polsters than in Tauber traps (Caramiello et al. 1991; Lisytsyna et al., 2012; Pardoe 333 et al., 2010; Vermoere et al., 2000). This bias was also noted in the BNP where seven pairs combining 334 moss samples and Tauber traps (averaged 2-years pollen data) showed that Pinus proportions in moss 335 polsters were in average two times higher (Zimny, 2014). These differences are usually explained by the 336 specific structures of the moss cushions which results in different effectiveness in trapping and then 337 preserving pollen of various size and form (Joosten and De Klerk. 2007). Pollen deposition in mosses may 338 also be biased by occasional extreme meteorological events (Sjögren et al., 2006), or pollen addition by 339 insects (Bunting et al., 2013) which induce variation in the PPE of some taxa and not others.

Because of the annual variability in pollen deposition, PPE calculations should be made on samples containing several years of accumulation (Bunting et al., 2013). However, in most studies the number of years in both moss polsters and sediment samples cannot be determined with great confidence (Pardoe et al., 2010; Hjelle and Sugita, 2012). In our study we addressed the above issues by sampling mosses forming thick mats, including the lower brown parts, thus representing as many years as possible. Moreover, we sampled similar types of forest floor mosses (pleurocarps or *Sphagnum*) for all our 346 samples so as to avoid large discrepancies in pollen rain accumulation time between samples (ESM Table347 S1).

348 The deposition environment may also be a source of uncertainty. Although pt-s (pollen-type specific) 349 distance-weighting better takes into account the different flight abilities of different pollen-types, the 350 pt-s model currently in use (Prentice, 1985; Sugita et al., 1999) only reflects pollen dispersal from a 351 ground level source and above the forest canopy (Jackson and Lyford, 1999; Theuerkauf et al., 2012). As 352 a result we preferred 1/d (inverse distance) distance-weighting for our results, a robust methods that 353 does not make any assumption regarding the deposition environment. The forest in the BNP is unique 354 for its complex structure and it remains unknown how this may have affected pollen deposition. More 355 research regarding the penetration of pollen rain under the canopy will be required in order to better 356 understand the nature of background pollen rain in our samples.

357 Methods used to survey the plant species abundances around pollen sampling sites may influence 358 estimation of pollen productivity (Broström et al., 2008; Bunting et al., 2013) and this has been 359 demonstrated for various herbs and *Ericaceae* species (Bunting and Hjelle, 2010). However, to avoid any 360 discrepancies in this respect, we followed the methodology used in other similar studies (Mazier et al. 361 2008; Bunting et al., 2013) for, respectively, 10 to 100 m and 0 to 10 m away from the sampling point. In 362 addition, the relevant source area of pollen in our research (400 m) was similar to other research based 363 on moss-polsters (Broström et al., 2004; von Stedingk et al., 2008) giving less weight to the field survey 364 data in the estimation of pollen productivity. Our estimates of tree cover slightly diverge from most 365 studies of PPE in that we explicitly excluded immature trees. This follows the recommendation of 366 Matthias et al. (2012) who found a significant difference in PPE when immature trees are included or 367 excluded from calculations. However, this difference remains too small to explain the discrepancy 368 between our results and those of other studies.

369 Finally, another potential source of uncertainty comes from the fact that some of our sites were

370 relatively close to each other, ie there could be a problem of spatial autocorrelation. Because of

extremely difficult access in many parts of the BNP, in our study, sampling location was a compromise

372 between safety, needs for adequate moss cushions and spatial distribution. It is not clear how much this

- 373 factor could have impact on PPE calculations and how it may have influenced our relative source area of
- 374 pollen (Twiddle et al. 2012).
- 375 We acknowledge that some of the discrepancies in PPE results from different studies can be attributed
- to the variety of vegetation survey methodology used. However considering all the above
- 377 methodological issues, it can be inferred that the much higher ratio between high and low pollen
- 378 producers observed in the BNP cannot be explained on methodological grounds only.
- 379 The influence of extrinsic abiotic factors such as climate

380 Plant species experience limited fitness towards the extreme edge of their distribution range because of

- sub-optimal climatic conditions, and, as a result, produce pollen less abundantly (Barnekow et al., 2007;
- 382 Sjögren et al., 2006). All the eight tree species dealt with here are more or less at the centre of their
- distribution range (Jalas and Suominen, 1973, 1976) and it can be expected that they experience optimal
- 384 climatic conditions for growth and flowering. Potentially, this might result in higher pollen productivity
- 385 of deciduous trees in Białowieża Forest than in northern Europe.

Climate may not only affect annual pollen production but also its year-to-year variation, including 386 387 biological cycles responsible for frequency of years with high and low pollen production (Nielsen et al., 388 2010). Three of the taxa studied here (eg Betula, Alnus and Quercus) have a more or less distinct 389 biennial or triennial alternating pattern in many aerobiological stations in Europe, however, in some 390 others such regularities are not observed (Spieksma et al., 2003). In Białowieża Forest, Carpinus and Tilia 391 also show fluctuation in intensity of flowering (Pawlaczyk, 2009). Annual airborne pollen counts in high 392 pollen seasons may be more than ten times higher than in low ones as evidenced for Betula (Latałowa et 393 al., 2002) or Quercus (Grewling et al., 2014). Therefore, presence or absence of the alternating patterns 394 and frequency of high and low pollen years might be of importance when considering PPE. This potential 395 issue may have affected Picea abies in particular, a tree showing a large variation of pollen production

396 from year to year. This may explain why our data for this taxon could not be modelled and requires 397 further investigation. Also, some pollen types may comprise different species in different climatic regions 398 of Europe. For instance, the Quercus pollen recorded in our samples comes from the local native Q. 399 robur. However, in other studies (Soepboer et al., 2007; Theuerkauf et al., 2012) both Q. robur and Q. 400 petraea were included for the calculation of Quercus PPE . There is a similar situation with A. incana, a 401 common tree in central Europe that produces pollen morphologically similar to that of A. glutinosa but 402 that is scarce in the BNP. However, it is sometimes included in PPE of *Alnus* spp. (Poska et al., 2011). We 403 are not aware of any direct evidence specifically demonstrating that these pairs of species (Q. robur-Q. 404 petraea, A. glutinosa-A. incana, B. pendula-B. pubescens, T. platyphyllos-T. cordata) have similar or 405 different pollen productivity but it cannot be excluded that taxonomic and genetic diversity within the 406 geographic range of a taxa might be among the important factors deciding on its different response to 407 climate variability (Hjelle and Sugita, 2012). However, because the existing data from different parts of 408 Europe shows PPE values within a similar range, there is no reason to believe that the tree species 409 assemblage present in the climatic condition of Białowieża Forest is sufficient to explain the unique 410 characteristics of our results. Age of trees

411 Matthias et al. (2012) suggest that in cultural landscapes where forests are managed, PPE are likely to be

- 412 lower than expected from a closed canopy old-growth forest. They argue that trees reach sexual
- 413 maturity only after 10 to 50 years depending on the species and hardly produce any pollen until then. As
- a result, young tree plantations would not produce pollen, yet this fraction of forest cover tends to be
- 415 included in datasets for the calculation of PPE. The result would be an over-estimation of the tree
- 416 species' surface cover, resulting in an under-estimation of PPE values.

417 The old-growth forest of the BNP is also a dynamic ecosystem where young trees are an integral portion

of the vegetation cover (Faliński, 1988; Sokołowski, 1993) and this can be extended to the general

419 dynamics of the forest (Faliński, 1988). There is an ample body of evidence showing that in Białowieża

- 420 Forest, tree recruitment is increasing (Miścicki, 2012), and being constantly shaped by natural
- 421 disturbance factors like browsing (Bobiec et al., 2011; Kuijper et al., 2010a, 2010b), disease or wind
- 422 throws (Bobiec, 2002). However, in our study the impact of immature trees on PPE calculation was
- 423 minimized due to their exclusion during the field inventory. Moreover, even if our estimation of
- 424 mature/immature trees in the plant cover was not in line with previous studies (except Matthias et al.,
- 425 2012), we can assume that proportion of young trees in the BNP is much lower than in cultural

landscapes – tall *Pinus, Quercus* and *Alnus* over 100 years old (the highest pollen producers in this study)
are very common in the forest. It is also important to stress that in the deciduous forest communities in
the BNP *P. sylvestris,* a key species in our study, occurs in the form of veteran trees (more than 300years old) reaching up to 45 m in height (Faliński 1977) but the younger generation of this tree is almost
absent (Bobiec 2012). The very high *Pinus* PPE found at our study sites may be partly explained by the
presence of such trees in the deciduous forest we sampled.

432 Canopy structure and light limitation

433 Our results may be explained by the multi-layered forest and highly diversified structure occurring in the 434 BNP (Bobiec, 2012; Faliński, 1986). The highest pollen producers in our study (Pinus sylvestris, Q. robur 435 and A. glutinosa) reach the upper forest layer (Faliński, 1977) where their large crowns are fully exposed 436 to sunlight enabling good flowering conditions and pollen dispersal. In addition, these taxa have 437 relatively low pollen fall speed (Sugita et al., 1999) meaning that they may be over-represented in the 438 pollen rain in relation to the surveyed vegetation (Theuerkauf et al., 2012). Betula, a light demanding 439 tree, is also among the highest pollen producers in our data. In the BNP, Betula is frequent in the forest 440 gaps (B. pendula) and is common on peat bogs (B. pubescens) where it grows in full light and is exposed 441 to wind - good conditions for high pollen production and dispersal. Again, we cannot exclude that its 442 pollen is over-represented because pollen dispersal in those conditions is higher than expected.

In Białowieża Forest, *Corylus avellana* is restricted to very shaded forest undergrowth and never reaches
the canopy (Sokołowski, 1993), therefore light limitation is likely to reduce its reproductive fitness. This
is in direct contrast with open or semi-open habitats promoting flowering such as hedgerows and forest
edges where it is generally found in cultural landscapes (eg Ellenberg, 1988). We suggest that this might
well account for the much lower PPE of *Corylus* than hitherto assumed. The same may concern *T. cordata*. Although some of the *T. cordata* trees in Białowieża Forest reach the canopy level, many are

located under the canopy, where they do not reach their full potential for pollen production (Bobiec

450 2012; Keczyński 2005). Carpinus is among the low pollen producers but its PPE is higher than those of

451 *Poaceae, Corylus* and *Tilia*. When calculated in relation to *Poaceae* (ERV 3), the value (4.48) is very

452 similar to that calculated for the Swiss Plateau (4.56) (Soepboer et al., 2007).

453 In the BNP, *Poaceae* flowering is also possibly reduced by the low light levels in the forest understorey in 454 comparison to situations where agriculture prevails. It has been highlighted that *Poaceae* comprises 455 numerous species and as a result, their PPEs from different areas may be different (Broström et al., 456 2008). In fact, many of the Poaceae taxa found in Białowieża Forest during our survey are specialists of 457 forest environments (Poa nemoralis, Festuca altissima, Deschampsia cespitosa subsp. parviflora, Dactylis 458 aschersoniana, Brachypodium sylvaticum and Melica nutans) that are expected to be lower pollen 459 producers than grass species growing in full light conditions outside forest. In addition, other more 460 ubiquitous Poaceae recorded during our survey (Phragmites australis, Molinia caerulea, Festuca ovina, 461 Deschampsia flexuosa, Danthonia decumbens, Calamagrostis arundinacea) are expected to show 462 reduced fitness as a result of the shading from the canopy. Grazing and browsing by large herbivores 463 Large grazers directly impact on herbaceous plant flowering, either by physically suppressing flowering 464 in a continuous way (Groenman-van Waateringe, 1993; Vera, 2000) or by enhancing the production of 465 inflorescences and lengthening the flowering season, a phenomenon known as over-compensation (e.g. 466 Massad, 2013). However, in Białowieża Forest grazing is unlikely to explain the low Poaceae PPE for 467 three reasons. Firstly, we did not find any signs of grazing during our survey and *Poaceae* cover is low in 468 the quadrats near our sampling points (mean= 3.1 %, n=306), i.e. it never consists in a grazing lawn likely 469 to sustain regular grazing. Secondly, ungulates in Białowieża Forest are primarily browsers and tend to 470 graze and browse preferentially in forest gaps (Kuijper et al., 2009) not covered in our study. Thirdly, 471 European bison, the only large herbivore truly adapted to grazing within the local faunal assemblage, occurs in a low density of 0.45 individuals km⁻²(Kuijper et al., 2010a), therefore its impact on grass 472 473 flowering within the BNP may be neglected. Browsing has a pervasive effect on the forest composition 474 in Białowieża, where herbivores literally select the canopy trees of tomorrow (Kuijper et al., 2010a). 475 However they can only reach young seedlings and saplings and in this respect, browsing herbivores do 476 not impact pollen productivity in a direct way in the short term.

477 Nutrient cycling

478 Nitrogen availability is an important factor stimulating higher pollen productivity in some species. Long-479 term manipulation field experiments in the UK show that flowering can increase up to three times in 480 woody plants with nitrogen addition (Phoenix et al., 2012). Similar results have been obtained for North 481 American Quercus spp. (Callahan et al., 2007). The current nitrogen levels in the BNP area are increasing 482 with a large amount of dead wood decomposition (Paluch, 2001) and the deposition of atmospheric 483 nitrogen at the current rate of 11 kg ha⁻¹ year⁻¹ (Malzahn, 2009). In addition, the long-term 484 transformation of some conifer forests into oak-linden-hornbeam (Bobiec, 2012) is likely to change 485 nitrogen cycling at those locations. On the whole it is not known whether the nitrogen availability levels 486 currently experienced by trees in Białowieża Forest may differ from those in cultural landscapes but this 487 is likely. However this is a subject that deserves further consideration. 488 Also, relatively high density of ungulates in the BNP may be of importance, because large herbivores 489 redistribute nitrogen in a more heterogeneous way (Augustine and Frank, 2001; Bump et al., 2009; 490 Hobbs, 2006; Murray et al., 2013) and modify the cycling of nutrients (reviewed in Pastor et al., 2006). It 491 is difficult to assess the impact of nutrient manipulation by large vertebrates on our results, however, 492 this is another factor that probably needs further consideration. 493 Potential implications of the PPEs from Białowieża Forest for palaeoenvironmental reconstructions and

494 *conservation science*

Pollen productivity estimates are the core element in quantitative reconstructions of past vegetation cover based on mechanistic models developed by Sugita (2007a,b; Sugita et al., 2010); one underlying assumption of these models is that PPE are constant in space and time. However, our results reinforce the idea that pollen productivity can vary in response to changes in the prevailing environmental settings and we present for the first time a quantification of this variability, likely induced by differences in tree cover and canopy structure. Our results indicate that it would be constructive to use, in parallel
consensus PPEs calculated mostly from cultural landscapes (Mazier et al., 2012) and PPEs from an oldgrowth forest, when running the landscape reconstruction models. We suspect that our PPEs will result
in interpreting higher proportions of open-land than hitherto estimated eg for the mid-Holocene

landscapes in the temperate zone of lowland Europe (Nielsen et al., 2012; Trondman et al., 2015).

Tree cover during the Holocene is an important parameter in a number of studies on climate change modelling (Gaillard et al., 2010; Strandberg et al., 2014; Trondman et al., 2015). In fact, vegetation is an inherent part of climate systems influencing circulation of energy, water and greenhouse gases between land and the atmosphere. Therefore, climate change studies will benefit from a more informed choice of PPEs to quantify past changes in vegetation cover.

As there is a growing consensus about the importance of vegetation history for conservation science and ecosystem management (Froyd and Willis, 2008; Jeffers et al., 2015), palynological tools need continuing improvement. Applying our new set of PPE to pollen-based quantitative reconstructions of past vegetation will help to better understanding vegetation cover in temperate Europe prior to development of agriculture. Landscape openness and the drivers shaping vegetation structure for this period is the focus of a long-standing debate that has a direct impact on different nature conservation concepts (eg Bradshaw et al., 2003; Mitchell, 2005; Vera, 2000).

517 Conclusions

To date, pollen productivity has only been estimated in temperate Europe from cultural landscapes where human activities such as agriculture, industrialisation and urbanisation are a preponderant source of disturbance. We found, that pollen productivity in the closed canopy old-growth forest of Białowieża National Park (where disturbance by human activities is minimal) was different from that measured in cultural landscapes. In fact, the ratio of pollen productivity estimates between high producers (*Pinus* *sylvestris* and *Quercus robur*) and low producers (*Poaceae* and *Corylus avellana*) is on an average six
times greater in the BNP than across European cultural landscapes. We discus several potential factors
likely to explain our distinctive results, including the methodology used and the environmental settings
in the BNP.

527 We conclude that our results cannot be explained on methodological grounds only. We followed

528 standard methods for the vegetation survey and moss polsters, as recommended by previous studies of

529 cultural landscapes. In addition, we excluded from our vegetation dataset trees not mature enough to

530 produce pollen, a potential bias highlighted by Matthias et al. (2012).

531 From the environmental factors considered we proposed that light availability is the most important.

532 This is the direct result of the forest structure and age, a unique characteristic of the BNP forest. All low

pollen producers in our data (*Corylus, Poaceae* and *Tilia*) grow in relatively shaded situations and do not

receive sufficient light for their pollen production to be as abundant as in cultural landscapes. In

addition, dense, multi-layered forest may limit the dispersal of their pollen, while high producers (*Pinus*

536 sylvestris and Quercus robur) are tall trees that reach the canopy where they receive sufficient light for

abundant pollen production and where pollen gets freely dispersed.

538 Besides light, we highlight that enhanced nitrogen availability induces a significant increase in pollen 539 production in some species and that nitrogen cycling depends on atmospheric pollution levels, dead 540 wood decomposition and spatial redistribution by large herbivores amongst other factors. We believe 541 this is an aspect of pollen productivity that deserves more attention in the future.

542 The PPE for high pollen producers relative to *Pinus* and PPE for low pollen producers relative to *Poaceae*

543 are comparable with estimates previously reported in other studies, but none of these reference taxa

544 give consistent results for the whole range of taxa used in this study. This is an interesting finding which

not only underlines specific characters of the data from an old-growth forest, but also indicates that
more attention should be drawn to the role of a reference taxa used for relative PPE calculation.

547 Our results reinforce the idea that pollen productivity can vary depending on the prevailing environmental settings, ecological conditions and disturbance regimes. We present for the first time a 548 549 quantification of this variability and suggest our PPE results to be used in parallel to consensus PPE from 550 cultural landscapes (Mazier et al., 2012) when interpreting pollen assemblages potentially coming from 551 closed canopy forest. Applying the two PPE sets should help to test hypothesis for instance regarding 552 the interpretation of pollen spectra from the mid-Holocene forest maximum at the heart of the "Vera 553 debate" (Mitchell 2005) or different scenarios of human induced changes in land-cover used for climate 554 modelling (Marquer et al. 2014; Trondman et al. 2015). These improved insights into vegetation 555 reconstruction are necessary to better understand the drivers of change that occurred in the past and 556 the consequences they had on land-cover and climate.

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